# ORTHOGONAL MATRICES WITH ZERO DIAGONAL 

J. M. GOETHALS AND J. J. SEIDEL<br>To H. S. M. Coxeter<br>on the occasion of his sixtieth birthday

1. Introduction. The central problem in the present paper is the construction of symmetric and of skew-symmetric (=skew) matrices $C$ of order $v$, with diagonal elements 0 and other elements +1 or -1 , satisfying

$$
C C^{T}=(v-1) I
$$

The following necessary conditions are known: $v \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ and

$$
v-1=a^{2}+b^{2}
$$

$a$ and $b$ integers, for symmetric matrices $C$ (Belevitch (1, 2), Raghavarao (14)), and $v=2$ or $v \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ for skew matrices $C$. However, the only matrices $C$ that have been constructed so far are symmetric matrices of order

$$
v=p^{h}+1 \equiv 2 \quad(\bmod 4), \quad p \text { prime }
$$

(Paley (13)), and skew matrices of order

$$
v=2^{t} \prod_{i=1}^{\tau}\left(p_{i}^{h_{i}}+1\right), \quad p_{i}^{h_{i}}+1 \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod 4)
$$

$p_{i}$ odd primes; $t, r, h_{i}$ non-negative integers (Williamson (17)).
In §2 Paley's construction is presented in a geometric setting, which enables us to prove, among other things, that any symmetric matrix of the Paley type is equivalent to a matrix of the form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rr}
A & B \\
B & -A
\end{array}\right]
$$

with $A$ and $B$ symmetric and circulant. In $\S 3$ we consider representations of general symmetric matrices $C$. The existence of such matrices which are not equivalent to matrices of the Paley type is demonstrated in the case of order 26. The final section contains the construction of symmetric matrices $C$ of certain orders which are not covered by the sufficient conditions mentioned above, for instance of the order 226. In addition, some series of new Hadamard matrices are obtained, for instance a Hadamard matrix of order 452. Results of Williamson $(\mathbf{1 7}, \mathbf{1 8})$ are improved.
$C$-matrices appear in the literature at various places in connection with combinatorial designs in geometry, engineering, statistics, and algebra.

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Questions in the theory of polytopes, posed by Coxeter (6), led Paley (13) to the construction of Hadamard matrices in which he used $C$-matrices. Recently, in connection with equilateral point sets in elliptic geometry, $C$ matrices were discussed by van Lint and Seidel (11). Some 20 years ago, in the construction of networks for conference telephony, Belevitch (1) initiated the study of $C$-matrices, which he called conference matrices. In statistics they were treated in connection with weighing designs by Raghavarao (14). They appear as adjacency matrices of association schemes of certain partially balanced incomplete block designs and strongly regular graphs (Bose (3), Connor-Clatworthy (5), Seidel (16), and Mesner (12), who attributes the name pseudocyclic to Bruck). There are relations to orthogonal latin squares (Bruck (4)). $C$-matrices may be interpreted as the adjacency matrices of the $\Delta$-graphs of Erdös and Rényi (8) and of certain self-complementary graphs of Sachs (15). Finally, but we do not claim any completeness, investigations on finite permutation groups by D. G. Higman (9) are related to $C$-matrices.

We use the following notations. $I_{k}$ denotes the $k \times k$ unit matrix, $J_{k}$ the $k \times k$ matrix consisting solely of 1 's and $j_{k}$ the $k \times 1$ matrix consisting solely of 1 's. Subscripts are deleted if there is no fear of confusion. $\otimes$ denotes the Kronecker matrix product.
2. Paley matrices. Let $V$ be a vector space of dimension 2 over $G F(q)$, the Galois field of order $q=p^{k}, p$ prime, $p \neq 2$. Let $\chi$ denote the Legendre symbol, defined by $\chi(0)=0, \chi(\alpha)=1$ or -1 according as $\alpha \neq 0$ is or is not a square in $\mathrm{GF}(q)$. Then $\chi(-1)=1$ or -1 according as $q \equiv 1$ or $-1(\bmod 4)$. We consider the function $\chi$ det, where the determinant det denotes any alternating bilinear form on $V$. The $q+1$ one-dimensional subspaces of $V$, which are the $q+1$ projective points of the projective line $\operatorname{PG}(1, q)$, are represented by the vectors $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{q}$, no two of which are dependent. We now define the Paley matrix $C$ of the $q+1$ vectors as follows:

$$
C=\left[\chi \operatorname{det}\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)\right], \quad i, j=0,1, \ldots, q .
$$

In addition, we define the line matrix $S$ of the $q$ vectors $y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{q}$, which are on a line not through the origin, as follows:

$$
S=\left[\chi \operatorname{det}\left(y_{i}, y_{j}\right)\right], \quad i, j=1,2, \ldots, q .
$$

The following operations on square matrices:
(1) multiplication by -1 of any row and of the corresponding column,
(2) interchange of rows and, simultaneously, of the corresponding columns, generate a relation, called equivalence. The second operation alone also generates a relation, called permutation equivalence.

Theorem 2.1. To the projective line $\operatorname{PG}(1, q)$ there is attached a class of equivalent Paley matrices $C$ of order $q+1$, symmetric if $q+1 \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ and skew if $q+1 \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, with elements $c_{i i}=0, c_{i j}= \pm 1$ for $i \neq j, i, j=0,1, \ldots, q$, satisfying $C C^{T}=q I$.

Proof. The operations (1) and (2) on Paley matrices are effected by multiplication of any vector by a non-square element of $\mathrm{GF}(q)$ and by interchange of any two vectors respectively. Therefore, all Paley matrices of order $q+1$ are equivalent. We only need to prove the property $C C^{T}=q I$ for one matrix $C$. To that end we consider the Paley matrix of the vectors $x$ and $y+\alpha_{i} x$, where $x$ and $y$ are independent and $\alpha_{i}$ runs through GF $(q)$ :

$$
C=\chi \operatorname{det}(x, y)\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & j^{T} \\
j \chi(-1) & \chi\left(\alpha_{i}-\alpha_{j}\right)
\end{array}\right], \quad i, j=1, \ldots, q .
$$

The desired property then follows from Jacobsthal's formula ((10), cf. (17, p. 66)):

$$
\sum_{\alpha \in G F(q)} \chi(\alpha) \chi(\alpha+\beta)=-1, \quad \beta \in \mathrm{GF}(q), \beta \neq 0
$$

Theorem 2.2. All line matrices $S$ of order $q$ are permutation equivalent. They satisfy

$$
S S^{T}=q I-J, \quad S J=J S=0
$$

They are permutation equivalent to a multicirculant matrix. They are permutation equivalent to a matrix of the form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccr}
0 & j^{T} & -j^{T} \\
\chi(-1) j & A & B \\
-\chi(-1) j & \chi(-1) B^{T} & -A
\end{array}\right]
$$

with circulant matrices $A$ and $B$ of order $\frac{1}{2}(q-1)$.
Proof. The line matrix of the vectors $y+\alpha_{1} x, \ldots, y+\alpha_{q} x$, where $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{q}$ denote the elements of $\operatorname{GF}(q)$, is

$$
S=\chi \operatorname{det}(x, y)\left[\chi\left(\alpha_{i}-\alpha_{j}\right)\right], \quad i, j=1, \ldots, q
$$

If $\chi \operatorname{det}(x, y)=-1$, then for some non-square $\gamma$ all $\alpha_{i} \gamma$ are distinct and $S$ is permutation equivalent to $\left[\chi\left(\alpha_{i}-\alpha_{j}\right)\right.$ ]. Hence all line matrices are permutation equivalent. The relations for $S$ follow from

$$
q I=C C^{T}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & j^{T} \\
j \chi(-1) & S
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & j^{T} \chi(-1) \\
j & S^{T}
\end{array}\right]
$$

The multicirculant form is obvious for $q=p$ and readily follows for $q=p^{k}$; cf. (2). The last standard form is obtained by taking $\chi \operatorname{det}(y, x)=1$ and by arranging the vectors as follows:
$y, \quad y+x \eta^{2}, \quad y+x \eta^{4}, \ldots, \quad y+x \eta^{q-1}, \quad y+x \eta, \quad y+x \eta^{3}, \ldots, \quad y+x \eta^{q-2}$ where $\eta$ denotes any primitive element of $\mathrm{GF}(q)$. Hence the theorem is proved.

Any linear mapping $u: V \rightarrow V$ satisfies

$$
\operatorname{det}(u(x), u(y))=\operatorname{det} u \cdot \operatorname{det}(x, y)
$$

for all $x, y \in V$. We define linear mappings $v$ and $w$, which will be used in the proof of Theorem 2.3. Let $\epsilon$ be any primitive element of $\operatorname{GF}\left(q^{2}\right)$, the quadratic
extension of $G F(q)$. We choose any basis in $V$. With respect to this basis, $v$ is defined by the matrix

$$
(v)=\frac{1}{2}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\epsilon^{q-1}+\epsilon^{1-q} & \left(\epsilon^{q-1}-\epsilon^{1-q}\right) \epsilon^{\frac{1}{2}(q+1)} \\
\left(\epsilon^{q-1}-\epsilon^{1-q}\right) \epsilon^{-\frac{1}{2}(q+1)} & \epsilon^{q-1}+\epsilon^{1-q}
\end{array}\right],
$$

which indeed has its element in $\mathrm{GF}(q)$. Then $\operatorname{det}(v)=1$ and the eigenvalues of $v$ are $\epsilon^{q-1}$ and $\epsilon^{1-q}$, both elements of $\operatorname{GF}\left(q^{2}\right)$ whose $\frac{1}{2}(q+1)$ th power, and no smaller, belongs to $G F(q)$. Hence $v$ acts on $\operatorname{PG}(1, q)$ as a permutation with period $\frac{1}{2}(q+1)$, without fixed points, which divides the points of $\operatorname{PG}(1, q)$ into two sets of transitivity each containing $\frac{1}{2}(q+1)$ points. In addition, $w$ is defined by the matrix

$$
(w)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & \epsilon^{q+1} \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

Then $\chi \operatorname{det}(w)=-\chi(-1)$. The eigenvalues of $w$ are $\pm \epsilon^{\frac{1}{2}(q+1)}$, elements of $\mathrm{GF}\left(q^{2}\right)$ whose square is in $\mathrm{GF}(q)$. Hence $w$ acts on $\operatorname{PG}(1, q)$ as a permutation with period 2 , which maps any point of one set of transitivity, defined above by $v$, in to the other set. Indeed, for $i=1, \ldots, \frac{1}{2}(q+1)$, the mapping $v^{i} w$ has no eigenvalue in $\mathrm{GF}(q)$. Finally we remark that $v w=w v$.

Theorem 2.3. The equivalence class of Paley matrices of order $q+1$ contains a member of the form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rr}
A & B \\
B & -A
\end{array}\right] \text { or }\left[\begin{array}{rr}
A & B \\
-B & A
\end{array}\right]
$$

according as $q+1 \equiv 2$ or $0(\bmod 4)$, with $B$ symmetric, $A$ and $B$ circulant in the first case and skew-circulant* in the second case.

Proof. Represent the $q+1$ points of $\operatorname{PG}(1, q)$ by the following $q+1$ vectors in $V$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x, \quad v(x), \quad v^{2}(x), \ldots, \quad v^{\frac{1}{2}(q-1)}(x), \quad w(x), \quad v w(x), \quad v^{2} w(x), \ldots, \quad v^{\frac{1}{2}(q-1)} w(x) . \\
& \text { Observing that, for } i, j=0,1, \ldots, \frac{1}{2}(q-1), \\
& \operatorname{det}\left(v^{i} w(x), v^{j} w(x)\right)=\operatorname{det}(w) \cdot \operatorname{det}\left(v^{i}(x), v^{j}(x)\right)=\operatorname{det}(w) \cdot \operatorname{det}\left(x, v^{j-i}(x)\right), \\
& \operatorname{det}\left(v^{i}(x), v^{j} w(x)\right)=-\operatorname{det}\left(v^{i} w(x), v^{j}(x)\right)=\operatorname{det}\left(v^{j}(x), v^{i} w(x)\right), \\
& \operatorname{det}\left(v^{i}(x), v^{j}(x)\right) \quad=-\operatorname{det}\left(v^{\frac{1}{2}(q+1)+i}(x), v^{j}(x)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

we conclude that the Paley matrix belonging to these vectors has the desired form.

## 3. Symmetric C-matrices.

Theorem 3.1. Necessary conditions for the existence of a symmetric matrix $C$ of order $v$ with elements $c_{i i}=0 ; c_{i j}=c_{j i}= \pm 1$ for $i \neq j, i, j=1, \ldots, v$,
*A matrix of order $n$ is called skew-circulant if its elements satisfy $a_{i, j}=a_{1, j-i+1}$ if $j \geqslant i$ and $a_{i, j}=-a_{1, j-i+1+n}$ if $j<i$.
satisfying $C^{2}=(v-1) I$, are $v \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ and $v-1=a^{2}+b^{2}, a$ and $b$ integers.

This theorem was first conjectured by Belevitch (1) and first proved, with Hasse-Minkowski methods, by Raghavarao (14). For elementary proofs we refer to (2) and (11). The matrices described in Theorem 3.1 will be called symmetric C-matrices.

Lemma 3.2. Any symmetrically partitioned symmetric C-matrix of order v satisfies

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
A & B \\
B^{T} & D
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
P(A+a I) & P B+b Q \\
Q B^{T}+b P & Q(D-a I)
\end{array}\right]^{-1} \\
& \times\left[\begin{array}{cc}
a I & b I \\
b I & -a I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
P(A+a I) & P B+b Q \\
Q B^{T}+b P & Q(D-a I)
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

for any real square matrices $P, Q$ and real numbers $a, b$ with $v-1=a^{2}+b^{2}$, for which the transformation matrix is regular.

Proof. For any square matrices $C, D, R$ of equal order, which satisfy $C^{2}=D^{2}=(v-1) I$, we have $(R C+D R) C=D(R C+D R)$. This implies the statement in the lemma.

Remark. By taking $P, Q, a, b$ rational, which is possible by Theorem 3.1, we obtain rational representations of symmetric $C$-matrices. Analogously, rational representations of skew $C$-matrices may be obtained, since for any order $v \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ skew integer matrices exist whose square equals $1-v$ times the unit matrix.

Theorem 3.3 (Belevitch (1)). Any symmetric C-matrix is permutation equivalent to a matrix of the form

$$
\sqrt{v-1}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
2\left(I+N N^{T}\right)^{-1}-I & -2\left(I+N N^{T}\right)^{-1} N \\
-2\left(I+N^{T} N\right)^{-1} N^{T} & I-2\left(I+N^{T} N\right)^{-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

for some square matrix $N$ whose elements have the form $r+s \sqrt{ }(v-1), r$ and $s$ rationals.

Proof. By suitable symmetric permutation we may write

$$
C=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
A & B \\
B^{T} & D
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
U & V \\
W & X
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I \sqrt{v-1} & 0 \\
0 & -I \sqrt{v-1}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
U^{T} & W_{T}^{T} \\
V^{T} & X
\end{array}\right],
$$

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
U & V \\
W & X
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
U^{T} & W^{T} \\
V^{T} & X^{T}
\end{array}\right]=I
$$

with non-singular $2 \sqrt{ }(v-1) U U^{T}=A+I \sqrt{ }(v-1)$.
Then also

$$
2 \sqrt{ }(v-1) X X^{T}=I \sqrt{ }(v-1)-D
$$

is non-singular. Applying Lemma 3.2 for $a=\sqrt{ }(v-1), b=0$,

$$
P=\{A+I \sqrt{ }(v-1)\}^{-1}, \quad Q=\{D-\sqrt{ }(v-1) I\}^{-1}
$$

and calling $P B=-N$, we obtain $Q B^{T}=N^{T}$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
A & B \\
B^{T} & D
\end{array}\right]=\sqrt{v-1}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I & -N \\
N^{T} & I
\end{array}\right]^{-1}\left[\begin{array}{rr}
I & 0 \\
0 & -I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{rr}
I & -N \\
N^{T} & I
\end{array}\right] \\
&=\sqrt{v-1}\left[\begin{array}{rr}
-I & 0 \\
0 & I
\end{array}\right]+2 \sqrt{v-1}\left[\begin{array}{lr}
I & N \\
N^{T} & -I
\end{array}\right]^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

which is the matrix mentioned in the theorem.
Remark. For symmetric $C$-matrices of the form of Theorem 3.3, which satisfy the special property

$$
\begin{equation*}
N J=N^{T} J=n J \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some real number $n$, it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& J A=A J=-J D=-D J=\frac{1-n^{2}}{1+n^{2}} \sqrt{v-1} J \\
& J B=B J=\frac{2 n}{1+n^{2}} \sqrt{v-1} J
\end{aligned}
$$

In both formulae the coefficient of $J$,

$$
a=\frac{1-n^{2}}{1+n^{2}} \sqrt{v-1}, \quad b=\frac{2 n}{1+n^{2}} \sqrt{v-1},
$$

respectively, is an integer. In fact, $a$ is even and $b$ is odd. Since $a^{2}+b^{2}=v-1$, an interpretation of the integers $a$ and $b$ occurring in Theorem 3.1 is obtained for symmetric $C$-matrices with property (*). In addition, if any such matrix satisfies $a=0$, then all row sums are equal. This applies to symmetric $C$-matrices with property $\left({ }^{*}\right)$ of order

$$
v=p^{2 k}+1, \quad p \equiv-1 \quad(\bmod 4), p \text { prime }
$$

since in this case the decomposition of $v-1$ as a sum of two squares of integers is unique. The authors do not know any example of a symmetric $C$-matrix which is not equivalent to a $C$-matrix with property ( ${ }^{*}$ ).

Theorem 3.4 Any symmetric Paley matrix of order $q+1$ is equivalent to a matrix of the form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rr}
A & B \\
B & -A
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{rr}
I & -N \\
N & I
\end{array}\right]^{-1}\left[\begin{array}{rr}
a I & b I \\
b I & -a I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{rr}
I & -N \\
N & I
\end{array}\right]
$$

with symmetric, circulant, and rational $N$, where $a$ and $b$ are any rationals satisfying $a^{2}+b^{2}=q$ and $\operatorname{det}(A+a I) \neq 0$.

Proof. Using the matrix obtained in Theorem 2.3 we apply Lemma 3.2 for $P=-Q=(A+a I)^{-1}$. Putting $(A+a I)^{-1}(B-b I)=N$, we observe that $N$ is symmetric and circulant because $A$ and $B$ have that property. This proves the theorem.

For the order $v=26$ essentially two symmetric $C$-matrices are known (1, p. 243), corresponding to the decompositions $25=4^{2}+3^{2}$ and $25=0^{2}+5^{2}$. They are both given in the form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lr}
A & B \\
B^{T} & -A
\end{array}\right]
$$

with $A$ and $B$ circulant of order 13 . The matrix with first row

$$
0-+++-++-+++-, \quad-+--++++++--+
$$

is a Paley matrix with $a=4, b=3$. The corresponding line matrix of order 25 is permutation equivalent to the matrix $S$ which consists of the cyclically permuted blocks

$$
I-J, \quad J-2 I-2 P, \quad J-2 I-2 P^{2}, \quad J-2 I-2 P^{3}, \quad J-2 I-2 P^{4}
$$

Here $P$, of order 5 , is defined by $p_{i j}=1$ if $j-i \equiv 1(\bmod 5), p_{i j}=0$ otherwise. This $S$ is the $(-1,1)$ adjacency matrix of the net $(5,3)$, that is, of the graph corresponding to one latin square of order 5 .

We call the exceptional C-matrix of order 26 the matrix with first row
$0-+--++++--+-, \quad--+-+++++-+++$. It has $a=0, b=5, A^{2}=13 I-J, B B^{T}=12 I+J$. Here $B$, symmetric with respect to its odd diagonal, is the $(-1,1)$ incidence matrix of the points and the lines of $\operatorname{PG}(2,3)$.

Theorem 3.4. The exceptional C-matrix and the Paley matrix of order 26 are not equivalent.

Proof. By equivalence operations the first and second row and column of the exceptional $C$-matrix of order 26 are transformed into

$$
0++\ldots++\ldots+, \quad+0+\ldots+-\ldots-
$$

Then four submatrices of order 12 arise. Now equivalence with the Paley matrix would imply, in view of Theorem 2.2, that each of these submatrices can be permuted into a circulant matrix. Hence all rows of the square of any submatrix would have to consist of the same set of numbers. However, by inspection this is seen not to be the case.
4. C-matrices and Hadamard matrices. In this section we restrict our attention to symmetric and skew $C$-matrices of order $v$ of the form

$$
C_{v}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & j^{T} \\
\pm \jmath & S_{v-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

with adapted $\operatorname{sign} \pm$. Here $S_{v-1}$ of order $v-1$ satisfies

$$
S S^{T}=(v-1) I-J, \quad S J=J S=0, \quad S^{T}= \pm S
$$

and conversely determines $C_{v}$. We shall refer to the pair $S_{v-1}, C_{v}$,

Theorem 4.1. If the pair $S_{n}, C_{n+1}$ exists, then a pair of symmetric $S_{n^{2}}, C_{n^{2}+1}$ exists.

Proof. By a result due to Belevitch (2) the matrix

$$
S_{n^{2}}=S_{n} \otimes S_{n}+I_{n} \otimes J_{n}-J_{n} \otimes I_{n}
$$

has order $n^{2}$, has elements 0 on the diagonal and $\pm 1$ elsewhere, is symmetric, and satisfies the relations for $S$ mentioned above. These statements are obtained by straightforward calculation using the properties of the Kronecker product.

Corollary 4.1. There exists a pair of symmetric $S_{(N-1)^{2}}, C_{(N-1)^{2}+1}$ for $N=p^{h}+1 \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ and for

$$
N=2^{k} \prod_{i=1}^{r}\left(p_{i}^{h_{i}}+1\right), \quad p_{i}^{h_{i}}+1 \equiv 0(\bmod 4)
$$

where $p, p_{i}$ are odd primes, $h, k, h_{i}$ are non-negative integers, $i=1, \ldots, r$.
Proof. Paley (13) constructed symmetric $C$-matrices and Williamson (17) constructed skew $C$-matrices of the respective orders $N$. Hence the pair $S_{N-1}$, $C_{N}$ exists and Theorem 4.1 can be applied.

The following theorem is only a slight extension of a theorem of Ehlich (7).
Theorem 4.2. If symmetric or skew C-matrices of order $n$ and of order $n+2$ exist, then a Hadamard matrix of order $n^{2}$ exists.

Proof. If the pairs $S_{n-1}, C_{n}$ and $S_{n+1}, C_{n+2}$ exist, then one pair is symmetric and the other is skew. By straightforward computation it follows that the matrix

$$
K=S_{n-1} \otimes S_{n+1}+I_{n-1} \otimes J_{n+1}-J_{n-1} \otimes I_{n+1}-I_{n-1} \otimes I_{n+1}
$$

which has order $n^{2}-1$ and elements $\pm 1$, satisfies $K K^{T}=n^{2} I-J, K J=J K=J$. Then

$$
H=\left[\begin{array}{rr}
-1 & j^{T} \\
j & K
\end{array}\right]
$$

is a Hadamard matrix of order $n^{2}$.
For future reference we introduce the generalized permutation matrices

$$
\begin{gathered}
P_{m}=\left[\begin{array}{rr}
0 & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right] \otimes I_{\frac{1}{2} m}, \quad K_{m}=\bar{K}_{4} \otimes I_{\frac{1}{2} m}, \quad L_{m}=\bar{L}_{4} \otimes I_{\frac{1}{4} m}, \\
M_{m}=\bar{M}_{4} \otimes I_{\frac{1}{2} m},
\end{gathered}
$$

where $\bar{K}, \bar{L}, \bar{M}$ are the quaternion matrices of order four (17, p. 68). $P, K, L, M$ are skew and satisfy
$P P^{T}=K K^{T}=L L^{T}=M M^{T}=I, \quad K L=M, \quad L M=K, \quad M K=L$.
The following theorem is a slight extension of a theorem of Williamson (17).

Theorem 4.3. If a Hadamard matrix of order $m>1$ and a symmetric C-matrix of order $n$ exist, then a Hadamard matrix of order mn exists.

Proof. Let $H_{m}$ be a Hadamard matrix, $P_{m}$ the generalized permutation matrix, and $C_{n}$ a systematic $C$-matrix. By straightforward calculation it follows that

$$
H_{m n}=H_{m} \otimes C_{n}+P_{m} H_{m} \otimes I_{n}
$$

is a Hadamard matrix of order $m n$.
Corollary 4.3. If a Hadamard matrix of order $m>1$ exists and if $N$ is defined as in Corollary 4.1, then a Hadamard matrix of order $m\left((N-1)^{2}+1\right)$ exists.

Theorem 4.4. If a Hadamard matrix of order $m>1$ and a symmetric C-matrix of order $n$ exist, then a Hadamard matrix of order $m n(n-1)$ exists.

Proof. For a Hadamard matrix $H_{m}$, a generalized permutation matrix $P_{m}$, and a pair of symmetric $S_{n-1}, C_{n}$ the matrix

$$
K=H_{m} \otimes C_{n} \otimes S_{n-1}+P_{m} H_{m} \otimes C_{n} \otimes I_{n-1}+H_{m} \otimes I_{n} \otimes J_{n-1}
$$

has order $m n(n-1)$, has elements $\pm 1$, and satisfies $K K^{T}=m n(n-1) I$.
Theorem 4.5. If a Hadamard matrix of order $m>2$ and symmetric C-matrices of orders $n$ and $n+4$ exist, then a Hadamard matrix of order $m n(n+3)$ exists.

Proof. For a Hadamard matrix $H_{m}$, generalized permutation matrices $K_{m}, L_{m}$, and pairs of symmetric $S_{n-1}, C_{n}$ and $S_{n+3}, C_{n+4}$ the matrix

$$
K=H_{m} \otimes C_{n} \otimes S_{n+3}+K_{m} H_{m} \otimes C_{n} \otimes I_{n+3}+L_{m} H_{m} \otimes I_{n} \otimes(2 I-J)_{n+3}
$$

is a Hadamard matrix of order $m n(n+3)$.
Remark. Theorems 4.3, 4.4, 4.5 are the counterparts of results of Williamson $\mathbf{( 1 7 , 1 8 )}$, who proved these theorems for skew instead of symmetric $C$-matrices, but without the restrictions $m>1$ and $m>2$. Theorems 4.4 and 4.5 improve results of Williamson $(\mathbf{1 7}, \mathbf{1 8})$, who proved these theorems for $m=n_{1} n_{2}$, where $n_{1}>1$ and $n_{2}>1$ are orders of Hadamard matrices, and for $n$ and $n+4$ both of the form $p^{h}+1 \equiv 2(\bmod 4), p$ odd prime.

Some numerical results follow. For $N=16$ Corollary 4.1 yields a new symmetric $C$-matrix of order 226 , which is not a Paley matrix. New Hadamard matrices of orders 452 and 904 are then obtained from Corollary 4.3. Hadamard matrices of order $612=2 \times 17 \times 18$ and of order $1300=2 \times 25 \times 26$ are obtained from Theorem 4.4 and of order $3016=4 \times 26 \times 29$ from Theorem 4.5.

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