# 2-Walk-regular dihedrants from group divisible designs 

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#### Abstract

In this note, we construct bipartite 2 -walk-regular graphs with exactly 6 distinct eigenvalues as the point-block incidence graphs of group divisible designs with the dual property. For many of them, we show that they are 2 -arc-transitive dihedrants. We note that some of these graphs are not described in Du et al. (2008), in which they classified the connected 2 -arc transitive dihedrants.


Keywords: 2-walk-regular graphs; distance-regular graphs; association schemes; group divisible designs with the dual property; cyclic relative difference sets; 2 -arctransitive dihedrants

## 1 Introduction

For unexplained terminology, see next section. C. Dalfó et al. [7] showed the following result.

[^0]Proposition 1. (cf. [7, Proposition 3.4, 3.5]) Let $s, d$ be positive integers. Let $\Gamma$ be a connected s-walk-regular graph with diameter $D \geqslant s$ and exactly $d+1$ distinct eigenvalues. Then the following two results hold:
i) If $d \leqslant s+1$, then $\Gamma$ is distance-regular;
ii) If $d \leqslant s+2$ and $\Gamma$ is bipartite, then $\Gamma$ is distance-regular.

In this note, we will construct infinitely many bipartite 2 -walk-regular graphs with exactly 6 distinct eigenvalues and diameter $D=4$, thus showing that Statement (ii) of Proposition 1 is not true for $d=5$ and $s=2$. We will construct these graphs as the point-block incidence graphs of certain group divisible designs with the dual property. We will show that infinitely many of these graphs are 2 -arc transitive dihedrants, and, en passant, provide a new description of 2-arc transitive graphs found by Du et al. [9]. Note that, although most of the graphs we describe may not be new, the fact that many of them are 2 -arc-transitive dihedrants seems to be new, as they give counter examples to a result of Du et al. [8, Theorem 1.2] in which they classified the connected 2 -arc transitive dihedrants. The classical examples $\Gamma(d, q)(d \geqslant 2$ and $q$ a prime power $)$, as described in Section 4, are not mentioned in Du et al. [8] for the case $d \geqslant 3$ and $q$ any prime power, and also for the case $d=2$ and $q$ a power of two.

## 2 Preliminaries

All the graphs considered in this note are finite, undirected and simple. The reader is referred to $[5,4]$ for more information. Let $\Gamma:=(V, E)$ be a connected graph with vertex set $V=V(\Gamma)$ and edge set $E=E(\Gamma)$. Denote $x \sim y$ if the vertices $x, y \in V$ are adjacent. The distance $d_{\Gamma}(x, y)$ between two vertices $x, y \in V$ is the length of a shortest path connecting $x$ and $y$ in $\Gamma$. If the graph $\Gamma$ is clear from the context, then we simply use $d(x, y)$. The maximum distance between two vertices in $\Gamma$ is the diameter $D=D(\Gamma)$. We use $\Gamma_{i}(x)$ for the set of vertices at distance $i$ from $x$ and denote $k_{i}(x)=\left|\Gamma_{i}(x)\right|$. For the sake of simplicity, we write $\Gamma(x)=\Gamma_{1}(x)$ and $k(x)=k_{1}(x)$. The valency of $x$ is the number $|\Gamma(x)|$ of vertices adjacent to it. A graph is regular with valency $k$ if the valency of each of its vertices is $k$.

The distance-i matrix $A_{i}=A\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$ is the matrix whose rows and columns are indexed by the vertices of $\Gamma$ and the $(x, y)$-entry is 1 whenever $d(x, y)=i$ and 0 otherwise. The adjacency matrix $A$ of $\Gamma$ equals $A_{1}$.

Let $\Gamma$ be a graph with diameter $D$ and let $x, y$ be vertices of $\Gamma$ at distance $i(0 \leqslant$ $i \leqslant D)$. Then the number of vertices which are at distance $j$ from $x$ and $h$ from $y$ is denoted by $p_{j h}^{i}(x, y)$ and is called an intersection number of $\Gamma$. Note that $p_{j h}^{i}(x, y)=$ $\left|\Gamma_{j}(x) \cap \Gamma_{h}(y)\right|$. And we consider the numbers $c_{i}(x, y)=p_{i-1,1}^{i}(x, y), a_{i}(x, y)=p_{i 1}^{i}(x, y)$, $b_{i}(x, y)=p_{i+1,1}^{i}(x, y)$. Note that $k(y)=c_{i}(x, y)+a_{i}(x, y)+b_{i}(x, y)$ holds for all $0 \leqslant i \leqslant D$. The intersection numbers $p_{j h}^{i}(x, y)(0 \leqslant i, j, h \leqslant D)$ are called well-defined if the numbers do not depend on the choice of $x$ and $y$ but only on $i$, i.e., $p_{j h}^{i}(x, y)=p_{j h}^{i}(z, w)$ if $d(x, y)=d(z, w)=i$. A connected graph $\Gamma$ with diameter $D$ is called distance-regular if
these numbers $c_{i}(x, y), a_{i}(x, y)$ and $b_{i}(x, y)$ are well-defined. If this is the case, then these numbers are denoted simply by $a_{i}, b_{i}$ and $c_{i}$ for $0 \leqslant i \leqslant D$.

A graph $\Gamma$ is called $t$-walk-regular if the number of walks of every given length $\ell$ between two vertices $x, y \in V$ depends only on the distance between them, provided that $d(x, y) \leqslant t$ (where it is implicitly assumed that the diameter of $\Gamma$ is at least $t$ ). If a graph $\Gamma$ is $t$-walkregular, then for any two vertices $x, y$ at distance $i$, the numbers $c_{i}=c_{i}(x, y), a_{i}=a_{i}(x, y)$ and $b_{i}=b_{i}(x, y)$ are well-defined for $0 \leqslant i \leqslant t$ (see [7, Proposition 3.15]) and the numbers $p_{j h}^{i}=p_{j h}^{i}(x, y)$ are also well-defined for $0 \leqslant i, j, h \leqslant t$ (see [6, Proposition 1]). And for a vertex $x$ of a $t$-walk-regular graph $\Gamma$, the relation $k_{i-1}(x) b_{i-1}=k_{i}(x) c_{i}$ shows that $k_{i}=k_{i}(x)$ are well-defined for $0 \leqslant i \leqslant t$, where $k_{i}(x)$ can be considered as $p_{i i}^{0}(x, x)$. Note that $k_{t+1}=k_{t+1}(x)$ is also well-defined if the diameter $D$ of $\Gamma$ is equal to $t+1$. A $D$-walk-regular graph is a distance-regular graph, where $D$ is the diameter of the graph.

Let $\Gamma$ be a graph. The eigenvalues of $\Gamma$ are the eigenvalues of its adjacency matrix $A$. We use $\left\{\theta_{0}>\cdots>\theta_{d}\right\}$ for the set of distinct eigenvalues of $\Gamma$. If $\Gamma$ has diameter $D$, then since $I, A, \ldots, A^{D}$ are linearly independent, it follows that $d \geqslant D$. The multiplicity of an eigenvalue $\theta$ is denoted by $m(\theta)$.

Let $\Gamma$ be a graph. Let $\Pi=\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{t}\right\}$ be a partition of the vertex set of $\Gamma$ where $t$ is a positive integer. We say $\Pi$ is an equitable partition if there exist non-negative integers $q_{i j}(1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant t)$ such that any vertex in $P_{i}$ has exactly $q_{i j}$ neighbors in $P_{j}$. The $(t \times t)$-matrix $Q=\left(q_{i j}\right)_{1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant t}$ is called the quotient matrix of $\Pi$. If $\Pi$ is equitable, the distribution diagram of $\Gamma$ with respect to $\Pi$ is the diagram in which we present each $P_{i}$ by a balloon such that the balloon representing $P_{i}$ is joined by a line segment to the balloon representing $P_{j}$ if $q_{i j}>0$ and we will write the number $q_{i j}$ just above the line segment close to the balloon representing $P_{i}$. We write $p_{i}:=\left|P_{i}\right|$ and $q_{i i}$ inside and below the balloon representing $P_{i}$, respectively. If $q_{i i}=0$, we write ${ }^{\prime}-{ }^{\prime}$ instead of 0 .

Let $\Gamma$ be a graph and let $x$ be a vertex of $\Gamma$. Then the walk partition $W(x)$ of the vertex $x$ is the partition $\left\{\{x\}, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}$ of $V(\Gamma)$, such that two vertices $y, z$ are in the same part if and only if for any $\ell$, the numbers of walks of length $\ell$ between $x, y$ and $x, z$ are the same. A similar definition was introduced by Fiol [12]. For those graphs discussed in later sections, the walk partition is always equitable.

For example we consider a distance-regular graph $\Gamma$ with diameter $D$. And the distribution diagram with respect to the walk partition $W(x)$ of any vertex $x$ is shown in Figure 1 (for distance-regular graph, the walk partition $W(x)$ is the same as the partition according to the distance from the vertex $x$ ).


Figure 1
The action of a group $G$ on a set $V$ is regular, if it is transitive and no non-identity element of $G$ fixes a point of $V$.

Let $\Gamma$ be a graph and $G$ be a group of automorphisms of $\Gamma$. The quotient graph $\Gamma / G$ has as vertices the $G$-orbits on the vertices of $\Gamma$, as edges the $G$-orbits on the edges of $\Gamma$, and a vertex $\bar{v}$ is incident with an edge $\bar{e}$ in $\Gamma / G$ if and only if some element of $\bar{v}$ is incident with some element of $\bar{e}$ in $\Gamma$, where $v \in V(\Gamma), e \in E(\Gamma), \bar{v}$ and $\bar{e}$ are the orbits of $v$ and $e$ respectively.

Let $G$ be a group with identity 1 and let $Q$ be a subset of $G^{*}:=G-\{1\}$ closed under taking inverses. Then the Cayley graph $\operatorname{Cay}(G, Q)$ is the undirected graph with vertex set $G$ and edge set $E(\operatorname{Cay}(G, Q))=\left\{\{g, h\} \mid g^{-1} h \in Q\right\}$. It is known that $\operatorname{Cay}(G, Q)$ is vertex-transitive and it is connected if and only if $Q$ generates $G$.

The dihedral group of order $2 n$ is the group $D_{2 n}=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{n}=1=b^{2}, b a b=a^{-1}\right\rangle$. Let $Q$ be a subset of $D_{2 n}^{*}$ closed under taking inverses. The graph $\operatorname{Cay}\left(D_{2 n}, Q\right)$ is called a dihedrant and is denoted by $\operatorname{Dih}(2 n, S, T)$ where $Q=\left\{a^{i} \mid i \in S\right\} \cup\left\{a^{j} b \mid j \in T\right\}$.

Let $G$ be a finite group of order $m n$ and let $N$ be a normal subgroup of $G$ of order $n$. A $k$-element subset $D$ of $G$ is called an $(m, n, k, \lambda)$-relative difference set in $G$ relative to $N$ if every element in $G \backslash N$ has exactly $\lambda$ representations $r_{1} r_{2}^{-1}$ (or $r_{1}-r_{2}$ if $G$ is additive) with $r_{1}, r_{2} \in D$, and no non-identity element in $N$ has such a representation. When $n=1$, we simply call $D$ an ( $m, k, \lambda$ )-difference set. A difference set or a relative difference set is called cyclic if the group $G$ is cyclic. Note that any cyclic relative difference set or cyclic difference set can be seen as a relative difference set in $Z_{m n}$ or a difference set in $Z_{m}$, respectively.

An incidence structure $\mathcal{I}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{B}, I)$ consists of a set $\mathcal{P}$ of points, a set $\mathcal{B}$ of blocks (disjoint from $\mathcal{P}$ ), and a relation $I \subseteq \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{B}$ called incidence. If $(p, B) \in I$, then we say the point $p$ and the block $B$ are incident. We usually consider the blocks $B$ as subsets of $\mathcal{P}$. If $\mathcal{I}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{B}, I)$ is an incidence structure, then its dual incidence structure is given by $\mathcal{I}^{*}=\left(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P}, I^{*}\right)$, where $I^{*}=\{(B, p) \mid(p, B) \in I\}$. The point-block incidence graph $\Gamma(\mathcal{I})$ of an incidence structure $\mathcal{I}$ is the graph with vertex set $\mathcal{P} \cup \mathcal{B}$, where two vertices are adjacent if and only if they are incident. Note that the point-block incidence graph of an incidence structure is a bipartite graph.

A group divisible design $\mathcal{D}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{B})$ with parameters ( $n, m ; k ; \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}$ ), denoted by $G D D\left(n, m ; k ; \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right)$, consists of a set $\mathcal{P}$ of points, a partition $\mathcal{G}$ of $\mathcal{P}$ into $m$ sets of size $n$, each set being called a group, and a collection $\mathcal{B}$ of $k$-subsets of $\mathcal{P}$, called blocks, such that each pair of points from the same group occurs in exactly $\lambda_{1}$ blocks and each pair of points from different groups occurs in exactly $\lambda_{2}$ blocks. The triple $\mathcal{I}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{B}, I)$ of a group divisible design is an incidence structure (with the natural incidence relation $I$ ) and we consider the dual incidence structure $\mathcal{I}^{*}=\left(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P}, I^{*}\right)$. If there exists a partition $\mathcal{G}^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{B}$ such that the triple $\left(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{G}^{\prime}, \mathcal{P}\right)$ is a $G D D\left(n, m ; k ; \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right)$, then we say that the $\mathcal{D}$ is a group divisible design with the dual property with parameters $\left(n, m ; k ; \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right)$ and we denote such a design by $G D D D P\left(n, m ; k ; \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right)$.

Let $X$ be a finite set and $\mathbb{C}^{X \times X}$ the set of complex matrices with rows and columns indexed by $X$. Let $\mathcal{R}=\left\{R_{0}, R_{1}, \ldots, R_{n}\right\}$ be a set of non-empty subsets of $X \times X$, where $R_{i}(0 \leqslant i \leqslant n)$ is called a relation. For each $i$, the relation graph $\Gamma_{i}^{\mathcal{R}}:=\left(X, R_{i}\right)$ with respect to the relation $R_{i}$ is the (directed, in general) graph with vertex set $X$ and edge set $R_{i}$. Let $F_{i}$ be the adjacency matrix of the graph $\Gamma_{i}^{\mathcal{R}}$. The pair $(X, \mathcal{R})$ is an association
scheme with $n$ classes if
i) $F_{0}=I$, the identity matrix,
ii) $\sum_{i=0}^{n} F_{i}=J$, the all-ones matrix,
iii) $F_{i}^{t} \in\left\{F_{0}, F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ for $0 \leqslant i \leqslant n$,
iv) $F_{i} F_{j}$ is a linear combination of $F_{0}, F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}$ for $0 \leqslant i, j \leqslant n$.

The vector space $\mathbf{A}$ spanned by $\left\{F_{0}, F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ is the Bose-Mesner algebra of $(X, \mathcal{R})$.
We say that $(X, \mathcal{R})$ is commutative if $\mathbf{A}$ is commutative, and that $(X, \mathcal{R})$ is symmetric if the $F_{i}(0 \leqslant i \leqslant n)$ are symmetric matrices. A symmetric association scheme is commutative. We only consider symmetric association scheme in this note.

Let $(X, \mathcal{R})$ be a symmetric association scheme with $n$ classes. Then $\mathbb{C}^{X}$ can be decomposed as a direct sum of common eigenspaces $V_{i}(0 \leqslant i \leqslant n)$ of the Bose-Mesner algebra $\mathbf{A}$. Let $E_{i}$ be the orthogonal projection onto the common eigenspace $V_{i}$, where we always set $E_{0}=|X|^{-1} J$ ( $J$ is the all-ones matrix). Then $\left\{E_{0}, E_{1}, \ldots, E_{n}\right\}$ forms a basis of the primitive idempotents of A, i.e. $E_{i} E_{j}=\delta_{i j} E_{j}(0 \leqslant i, j \leqslant n), \sum_{i=0}^{n} E_{i}=I$. We call the change-of-base matrices $P$ and $Q$ the first and second eigenmatrices of the association scheme ( $X, \mathcal{R}$ ), where $P$ and $Q$ are defined as follows:

$$
F_{i}=\sum_{j=0}^{n} P_{j i} E_{j}, \quad E_{i}=\frac{1}{|X|} \sum_{j=0}^{n} Q_{j i} F_{j} \quad(0 \leqslant i \leqslant n) .
$$

Let $(X, \mathcal{R})$ be a symmetric association scheme with $n$ classes. Then the relation graph $\Gamma_{i}^{\mathcal{R}}(1 \leqslant i \leqslant n)$ is an undirected graph. Choose a vertex $x$ of the relation graph $\Gamma_{i}^{\mathcal{R}}$, then the partition $\left\{P_{0}, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}$ of $V\left(\Gamma_{i}^{\mathcal{R}}\right)$ is equitable, where $P_{j}:=\left\{y \mid(x, y) \in R_{j}\right\}$ $(0 \leqslant j \leqslant n)$. The distribution diagram of the symmetric association scheme $(X, \mathcal{R})$ with respect to the relation $R_{i}$ is the distribution diagram of the relation graph $\Gamma_{i}^{\mathcal{R}}$ with respect to the equitable partition $\left\{P_{0}, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}$.

## 3 Group divisible designs with the dual property

In this section, we will construct bipartite 2-walk-regular graphs with diameter 4 having exactly 6 distinct eigenvalues, as the point-block incidence graphs of certain group divisible designs with the dual property.

Theorem 2. Let $\mathcal{D}$ be a $\operatorname{GDDDP}\left(n, m ; k ; 0, \lambda_{2}\right)$ with $n, m \geqslant 2, \lambda_{2} \geqslant 1, k>n \lambda_{2}$ and let $\Gamma:=\Gamma(\mathcal{D})$ be the point-block incidence graph of $\mathcal{D}$. Then $\Gamma$ is a relation graph, say with respect to a relation $R$ of a symmetric association scheme $(X, \mathcal{R})$ with 5 classes, such that the distribution diagram of $(X, \mathcal{R})$ with respect to the relation $R$ is as in Figure 2, where $k_{4}=n-1, c_{2}=\lambda_{2}$ and $b_{2}^{\prime}=(n-1) \lambda_{2}$. In particular, $\Gamma$ is a bipartite 2 -walk-regular graph with diameter 4 and exactly 6 distinct eigenvalues.


Figure 2

Proof. Note that $\Gamma$ is a bipartite graph with valency $k$ and diameter 4 , as $\Gamma$ is an incidence graph, each block contains $k$ points and $\lambda_{1}=0, \lambda_{2} \geqslant 1$. Let $x$ be a vertex of $\Gamma$. By the dual property, we may assume without loss of generality that $x$ is a point of $\mathcal{D}$, thus $\{x\} \cup \Gamma_{2}(x) \cup \Gamma_{4}(x)$ is the set of points of $\mathcal{D}$. As $\lambda_{1}=0$ and $\lambda_{2} \geqslant 1$, we see that two vertices are in the same group if and only if they are at distance 4 . It follows that the group of $\mathcal{D}$ that contains the vertex $x$ is $\{x\} \cup \Gamma_{4}(x)$, i.e., $\Gamma_{4}(x)$ consists of $n-1$ vertices and they are mutually at distance 4 , and $c_{2}(x, y)=\lambda_{2}$ holds for any vertex $y \in \Gamma_{2}(x)$. Now let $\Gamma_{3}^{\prime}(x)$ be the set of vertices at distance 3 from $x$ with a neighbor in $\Gamma_{4}(x)$ and $\Gamma_{3}^{\prime \prime}(x):=\Gamma_{3}(x) \backslash \Gamma_{3}^{\prime}(x)$. As $\lambda_{1}=0$, we see that $b_{3}(x, y)=1$ holds for any vertex $y \in \Gamma_{3}^{\prime}(x)$. Choose a vertex $y \in \Gamma_{2}(x)$, then $\Gamma(y) \cap \Gamma_{3}^{\prime}(x)=\cup_{z \in \Gamma_{4}(x)}(\Gamma(y) \cap \Gamma(z))$. Since those vertices in $\Gamma_{4}(x)$ are mutually at distance 4 from each other, we see that $\left|\Gamma(y) \cap \Gamma_{3}^{\prime}(x)\right|=(n-1) \lambda_{2}$. It follows that the partition $\Pi=\left\{\{x\}, \Gamma(x), \Gamma_{2}(x), \Gamma_{3}^{\prime}(x), \Gamma_{3}^{\prime \prime}(x), \Gamma_{4}(x)\right\}$ is an equitable partition of $V(\Gamma)$ with distribution diagram as in Figure 2 with $k_{4}=n-1, c_{2}=\lambda_{2}$ and $b_{2}^{\prime}=(n-1) \lambda_{2}$. And $k>n \lambda_{2}$ implies that $k_{3}^{\prime \prime}>0$.

Now define the matrix $B_{3}$ by $\left(B_{3}\right)_{x y}=1$ if $y \in \Gamma_{3}^{\prime}(x)$ and 0 otherwise, where $x$ and $y$ are any two vertices of $\Gamma$. Note that for any pair of vertices $x$ and $y$ with $y \in \Gamma_{3}(x)$, the number of walks of length 3 between $x$ and $y$ equals $c_{3}(x, y) c_{2}=c_{3}(y, x) c_{2}$, and $c_{3}(x, y) \neq k$ if and only if $y \in \Gamma_{3}^{\prime}(x)$, which in turn implies that $B_{3}$ is symmetric. Let $C_{3}=A_{3}-B_{3}$, where $A_{i}$ is the distance- $i$ matrix of $\Gamma$ for $i=0,1,2,3,4$. It is straightforward to check that the set of matrices $\left\{A_{0}=I, A_{1}, A_{2}, B_{3}, C_{3}, A_{4}\right\}$ satisfies the axioms of a symmetric association scheme. That $\Gamma$ is 2 -walk-regular follows from the fact that $A_{2}$ is a relation matrix of the association scheme. As $\Gamma$ is the relation graph of a 5 -class association scheme, it follows that $\Gamma$ has at most 6 distinct eigenvalues. The fact that it has at least 6 eigenvalues follows from Proposition 1. This shows the theorem.

Remark 3. i) The first and second eigenmatrices of the corresponding association scheme, where $b_{2}^{\prime \prime}=k-\left(k_{4}+1\right) c_{2}$ are as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
1 & k & \frac{(k-1) k}{c_{2}} & k k_{4} & \frac{(k-1) b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}{c_{2}} & k_{4} \\
1 & -k & \frac{(k-1) k}{c_{2}} & -k k_{4} & -\frac{(k-1) b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}{c_{2}} & k_{4} \\
1 & \sqrt{k} & 0 & -\sqrt{k} & 0 & -1 \\
1 & -\sqrt{k} & 0 & \sqrt{k} & 0 & -1 \\
1 & \sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & -\left(k_{4}+1\right) & k_{4} \sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & -\left(k_{4}+1\right) \sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & k_{4} \\
1 & -\sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & -\left(k_{4}+1\right) & -k_{4} \sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & \left(k_{4}+1\right) \sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & k_{4}
\end{array}\right), \\
& Q=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
1 & 1 & \frac{\left(k^{2}-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right) k_{4}}{k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & \frac{\left(k^{2}-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right) k_{4}}{k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & \frac{(k-1) k}{k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & \frac{(k-1) k}{k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} \\
1 & -1 & \frac{\left(k^{2}-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right) k_{4}}{\sqrt{k}\left(k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right)} & -\frac{\left(k^{2}-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right) k_{4}}{\sqrt{k}\left(k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right)} & \frac{\sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}(k-1)}}{k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & -\frac{\sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}(k-1)}}{k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\
1 & -1 & -\frac{k^{2}-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}{\sqrt{k}\left(k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right)} & \frac{k^{2}-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}{\sqrt{k}\left(k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right)} & \frac{\sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}(k-1)}{k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & -\frac{\sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}(k-1)}{k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} \\
1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{k}{\sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}} & \frac{k}{\sqrt{b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}} \\
1 & 1 & -\frac{k^{2}-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}{k-b_{2}^{2}} & -\frac{k^{2}-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}{k-b_{2}^{\prime 2}} & \frac{(k-1) k}{k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}} & \frac{(k-1)^{\prime \prime}}{k-b_{2}^{\prime \prime}}
\end{array}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

ii) It is easy to see that if $(X, \mathcal{R})$ is a symmetric association scheme such that the distribution diagram of $(X, \mathcal{R})$ with respect to a relation $R$ is equal to the diagram in Figure 2, then $(X, \mathcal{R})$ comes from a $\operatorname{GDDDP}\left(n, m ; k ; 0, \lambda_{2}\right)$ with $n=k_{4}+1, \lambda_{2}=c_{2}$, as described in the above theorem.
iii) If the point-block incidence matrix of a GDDDP is symmetric with zeroes on the diagonal, it corresponds exactly to the divisible design graph as defined by Haemers et al. [14].

## 4 Classical Examples

In this section we discuss classical examples of group divisible designs with the dual property and in Proposition 4 we show that the point-block incidence graphs of these examples are 2-arc transitive dihedrants. Some of them were already found by Bose [3], for more information see [11].

We first introduce classical examples of group divisible designs with the dual property. Let $d \geqslant 2$ be an integer and let $q$ be a prime power. Let $V$ be a vector space of dimension $d$ over $G F(q)$ (the finite field with $q$ elements). We define the set of non-zero vectors in $V$ as the point set $\mathcal{P}$ and the set of affine hyperplanes in $V$ as the block set $\mathcal{B}$, i.e., $\mathcal{P}=\{x \in V \mid x \neq 0\}$ and $\mathcal{B}=\{x+H \mid H$ is a hyperplane in V and $x \notin H\}$.

We make a partition $\mathcal{G}$ of $\mathcal{P}$ such that the collinear non-zero vectors in $V$ belong to the same group in $\mathcal{G}$. Note that each group in $\mathcal{G}$ has size $q-1$. Then $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{B})$ is a $G D D\left(n, m ; k ; 0, \lambda_{2}\right)$, where $n=q-1, m=\frac{q^{d}-1}{q-1}$ is the number of projective points in $V, k=q^{d-1}$ is the number of affine hyperplanes containing a given non-zero vector, and $\lambda_{2}=q^{d-2}$ is the number of affine hyperplanes containing two given non-zero and non-collinear vectors.

Now we look at the dual incidence structure $\mathcal{I}^{*}=\left(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P}, I^{*}\right)$ of $\mathcal{I}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{B}, I)$. We make a partition $\mathcal{G}^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{B}$ such that the parallel affine hyperplanes belong to the same group in $\mathcal{G}^{\prime}$. Then $\left(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{G}^{\prime}, \mathcal{P}\right)$ becomes a $G D D\left(n, m ; k ; 0, \lambda_{2}\right)$, where $n=q-1, m=\frac{q^{d}-1}{q-1}$ is the number of $d-1$ dimensional subspaces in $V, k=q^{d-1}$ is the number of non-zero vectors in an affine hyperplane, and $\lambda_{2}=q^{d-2}$ is the number of non-zero vectors in the intersection of two given non-parallel affine hyperplanes.

This shows that $\mathcal{D}(d, q):=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{B})$ is a $\operatorname{GDDDP}\left(n, m ; k ; 0, \lambda_{2}\right)$, where $n, m, k, \lambda_{2}$ are given above. We denote $\Gamma(d, q):=\Gamma(\mathcal{D}(d, q))$ as the point-block incidence graph of $\mathcal{D}(d, q)$. It is clear that the general linear group $\mathrm{GL}(d, q)$ acts as a group of automorphism of the graph $\Gamma(d, q)$.

Now we show that the point-block incidence graphs $\Gamma(d, q)$ of classical group divisible designs with the dual property $\mathcal{D}(d, q)$ are 2 -arc transitive dihedrants.

Proposition 4. For all integers $d \geqslant 2$ and prime powers $q$, the point-block incidence graph $\Gamma(d, q)$ of the group divisible design with the dual property $\mathcal{D}(d, q)$ is a 2-arc transitive dihedrant.

Proof. Let $z$ be a primitive element of $\mathrm{GF}^{*}\left(q^{d}\right)$ and define the map $\tau_{z}: \mathrm{GF}^{*}(q) \rightarrow \mathrm{GF}^{*}(q)$ by $\tau_{z}(x)=z x$ for $x \in \operatorname{GF}^{*}\left(q^{d}\right)$. The map $\tau_{z}$ has order $n:=q^{d}-1$. We can identify the map $\tau_{z}$ as a linear map $A_{z} \in \mathrm{GL}(d, q)$ by identifying the field $\mathrm{GF}\left(q^{d}\right)$ with the vector space $\operatorname{GF}(q)^{d}$. Note that the group $\left\langle A_{z}\right\rangle$ is the well-known Singer-Zyklus subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}(d, q)$. It is clear that $A_{z}$ is an automorphism of the graph $\Gamma(d, q)$. For any non-zero vector $y \in \mathrm{GF}(q)^{d}$, define $H_{y}:=\left\{x \in \mathrm{GF}(q)^{d} \mid x^{t} y=1\right\}$. $A_{z}$ maps $H_{y}$ to $H_{y^{\prime}}$, where $y^{\prime}=\left(A_{z}^{t}\right)^{-1} y$. Now let $u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$ and $v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ be two orderings of the non-zero vectors of $\operatorname{GF}(q)^{d}$, such that $A_{z}$ maps $u_{i}$ to $u_{i+1}$ and $H_{v_{i}}$ to $H_{v_{i+1}}(0 \leqslant i \leqslant n)$ (where we take the indices module $n$ ). Define the map $\phi: \mathcal{P} \cup \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{P} \cup \mathcal{B}$ by $\phi\left(u_{i}\right)=H_{v_{n-i}}$ and $\phi\left(H_{v_{i}}\right)=u_{n-i}(0 \leqslant i \leqslant n)$, where $\mathcal{P}$ is the point set of the design $\mathcal{D}(d, q)$, consisting of the non-zero vectors in $\operatorname{GF}(q)^{d}$, and $\mathcal{B}$ is the block set of the design $\mathcal{D}(d, q)$, consisting of the affine hyperplanes in $\mathrm{GF}(q)^{d}$. Then we see that $u_{i} \stackrel{\phi}{\mapsto} H_{v_{n-i}} \stackrel{A_{z}}{\longrightarrow} H_{v_{n-i+1}} \stackrel{\phi}{\mapsto} u_{i-1}$, i.e., $\phi A_{z} \phi=A_{z}^{-1}$. Note that $\phi$ has order 2 and $A_{z}$ has order $n$. We see that the group generated by $\phi$ and $A_{z}$ is the dihedral group $D_{2 n}$ and it acts regularly on the vertex set of $\Gamma(d, q)$. This show that $\Gamma(d, q)$ is a dihedrant by [13, Lemma 3.7.2].

Now we show that $\Gamma(d, q)$ is 2 -arc transitive. As $\Gamma(d, q)$ is vertex-transitive, we only need to show it is transitive on $2-\operatorname{arcs} x H y$, where $x, y$ are non-zero vectors in $\operatorname{GF}(q)^{d}$ and $H$ is an affine hyperplane (For a 2-arc $H_{1} x H_{2}$, where $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ are affine hyperplanes and $x$ is a non-zero vector, we may consider $\left.\phi\left(H_{1} x H_{2}\right)\right)$. Note that $x H y$ is a 2 -arc if and only if $x, y$ are linearly independent non-zero vectors and $H$ is an affine hyperplane containing $x, y$. Let $x^{\prime} H^{\prime} y^{\prime}$ be a 2 -arc, with $x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}$ non-zero vectors and $H^{\prime}$ an affine hyperplane. Then there exists an element $\sigma \in \operatorname{GL}(d, q)$ that maps simultaneously $x$ to $x^{\prime}, y$ to $y^{\prime}$ and $H$ to $H^{\prime}$.

This shows that $\Gamma(d, q)$ is a 2 -arc transitive dihedrant.
Remark 5. The graphs $\Gamma(d, q)$ can also be described in a pure group theoretical way as a bi-coset graph (see Du and $\mathrm{Xu}[10]$ ). Take $G=\mathrm{GL}(d, q)$. Let $R$ be the set of matrices
in $G$ whose first row equals $(1,0,0, \ldots, 0)$, and let $L$ be the set of matrices in $G$ whose first column equals $(1,0,0, \ldots, 0)^{t}$. Note that $R$ and $L$ are subgroups of $G$. Then $\Gamma(d, q)$ is isomorphic to the bi-coset graph $\mathbf{B}(G, L, R ; R L)$, which is bipartite with color classes $\{L g \mid g \in G\}$ and $\{R g \mid g \in G\}$, where $L g_{1}$ is adjacent to $R g_{2}$ if and only if $g_{2} g_{1}^{-1} \in R L$.

Now we consider some quotient graphs of $\Gamma(d, q)$, which are also 2 -arc transitive dihedrants. Consider the group $Z:=\left\{\alpha I_{d} \mid \alpha \in \mathrm{GF}^{*}(q)\right\} \leqslant G L(d, q)$. Let $n$ be a divisor of $q-1$. As $Z$ is a cyclic group of order $q-1$, it contains a cyclic subgroup $C$ of order $(q-1) / n$. Using a similar method as in Proposition 4, we may see that quotient graph $\Gamma(d, q, n):=\Gamma(d, q) / C$ is a 2 -arc transitive dihedrant and when $n=q-1, \Gamma(d, q, n)$ is the same as $\Gamma(d, q)$. The distribution diagram of $\Gamma(d, q, n)$ with respect to the walk partition $W(x)$ of any vertex $x$ is shown in Figure 2 with $k=q^{d-1}, c_{2}=q^{d-2}(q-1) / n$ and $k_{4}=n-1$.

## 5 Cyclic relative difference sets

In this section, we give another viewpoint on the examples of the last section and give a construction for dihedrants from cyclic difference sets.

Proposition 6. Let $D$ be a cyclic ( $m, n, k, \lambda$ )-relative difference set with $m, n \geqslant 2$. Then the dihedrant $\operatorname{Dih}(2 n m, \emptyset, D)$ is the point-block incidence graph of a $\operatorname{GDDDP}(n, m ; k ; 0, \lambda)$. In particular, $\operatorname{Dih}(2 n m, \emptyset, D)$ is a connected 2-walk-regular graph.

Proof. By definition, the dihedrant $\operatorname{Dih}(2 n m, \emptyset, D)$ is bipartite. By direct verification, we see that the distribution diagram with respect to the walk partition of any vertex is as in Figure 2 with $k_{4}=n-1$ and $c_{2}=\lambda$. It follows that it is the point-block incidence graph of a $\operatorname{GDDDP}(n, m ; k ; 0, \lambda)$. Then the dihedrant $\operatorname{Dih}(2 n m, \emptyset, D)$ is 2 -walk-regular follows from Theorem 2.

The graphs $\Gamma(d, q, n)$ as considered in the last section arise from cyclic $\left(\frac{q^{d}-1}{q-1}, n, q^{d-1}\right.$, $\left.\frac{q^{d-2}(q-1)}{n}\right)$-relative difference sets. And Arasu et al. [2, 1] gave constructions for cyclic $\left(\frac{q^{d}-1}{q-1}, n, q^{d-1}, \frac{q^{d-2}(q-1)}{n}\right)$-relative difference sets for $q$ a prime power, where $n$ is a divisor of $q-1$ when q is odd or d is even, and $n$ is a divisor of $2(q-1)$ when $q$ is even and $d$ is odd. Arasu et al. [2, Theorem 1.2] showed that for a prime power $q$, cyclic relative difference sets with parameters $\left(\frac{q^{d}-1}{q-1}, n, q^{d-1}, \frac{q^{d-2}(q-1)}{n}\right)$ exist if and only if the above restrictions are satisfied.

Note that those dihedrants in Section 4 are 2-arc transitive. But the dihedrants constructed from general cyclic relative difference are not always 2-arc transitive. We give two examples below.

The 2-arc transitive dihedrant generated by the cyclic (7, 2, 4, 1)-relative difference set $\{0,1,9,11\}$ in $Z_{14}$ relative to $\{0,7\}$ has the distribution diagram with respect to the walk partition of any vertex as in Figure 3. It is the graph $C 4[28,3]$ in [15].

The cyclic (13, 2, 9, 3)-relative difference set $\{0,9,11,15,18,19,20,23,25\}$ in $Z_{26}$ relative to $\{0,13\}$ generates a dihedrant, which is not edge transitive. That graph and the


Figure 3

2-arc transitive graph $\Gamma(3,3)$ have the same distribution diagram with respect to the walk partition of any vertex as in Figure 4.


Figure 4

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