## Adjacency algebra of a graph

A.Satyanarayana Reddy<br>Department of Mathematics<br>Shiv Nadar University<br>Dadri, UP<br>A talk in E-Seminar @ IITKGP (Oct 9,2020)

## Adjacency Matrix of a graph

Let $X$ be a graph on $n$ vertices and let us fix a labeling of the vertices of $X$.

## Adjacency Matrix of a graph

Let $X$ be a graph on $n$ vertices and let us fix a labeling of the vertices of $X$. Then, the adjacency matrix of $X$, denoted $A(X)=\left[a_{i j}\right]$ (or $A$ ), is an $n \times n$ matrix with $a_{i j}=1$, if the $i$-th vertex is adjacent to the $j$-th vertex and 0 , otherwise.

## Adjacency Matrix of a graph is symmetric

- Note that another labeling of the vertices of $X$ gives rise to another matrix $B$ such that $B=P^{-1} A P$, for some permutation matrix $P$ (for a permutation matrix, recall that $P^{t}=P^{-1}$ ). Hence, we talk of the adjacency matrix of a graph $X$ and we do not worry about the labeling of the vertices of $X$.


## Adjacency Matrix of a graph is symmetric

- Note that another labeling of the vertices of $X$ gives rise to another matrix $B$ such that $B=P^{-1} A P$, for some permutation matrix $P$ (for a permutation matrix, recall that $P^{t}=P^{-1}$ ). Hence, we talk of the adjacency matrix of a graph $X$ and we do not worry about the labeling of the vertices of $X$.
- Clearly, the adjacency matrix $A$ is a real symmetric matrix. Hence, $A$ has $n$ real eigenvalues, $A$ is diagonalizable, and the eigenvectors can be chosen to form an orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.


## Adjacency Matrix of a graph is symmetric

- Note that another labeling of the vertices of $X$ gives rise to another matrix $B$ such that $B=P^{-1} A P$, for some permutation matrix $P$ (for a permutation matrix, recall that $P^{t}=P^{-1}$ ). Hence, we talk of the adjacency matrix of a graph $X$ and we do not worry about the labeling of the vertices of $X$.
- Clearly, the adjacency matrix $A$ is a real symmetric matrix. Hence, $A$ has $n$ real eigenvalues, $A$ is diagonalizable, and the eigenvectors can be chosen to form an orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.
- The eigenvalues, eigenvectors, the minimal polynomial and the characteristic polynomial of a graph $X$ are defined to be that of its adjacency matrix.


## Adjacency algebra of a graph

If $A$ is the adjacency matrix of a graph $X$, then $\mathbb{C}[A]$, the set of all polynomials in $A$ with coefficients from $\mathbb{C}$ forms subalgebra of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ we denote it by $\mathcal{A}(X)$ and is called the adjacency algebra of $X$.

## Adjacency algebra of a graph

If $A$ is the adjacency matrix of a graph $X$, then $\mathbb{C}[A]$, the set of all polynomials in $A$ with coefficients from $\mathbb{C}$ forms subalgebra of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ we denote it by $\mathcal{A}(X)$ and is called the adjacency algebra of $X$.

| Graph |  | Adjacency <br> matrix (A) | characteristic <br> polynomial | minimal <br> polynomial | $\mathcal{A}(X)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

$$
\mathcal{A}(X)=\mathbb{C}[A] \cong \mathbb{C}[x] /\left\langle m_{A}(x)\right\rangle .
$$

Hence $\operatorname{dim} \mathcal{A}(X)=\operatorname{dim}\left(\mathbb{C}[x] /\left\langle m_{A}(x)\right\rangle\right)=$ number of distinct eigenvalues of $A$,

## A known result on $\mathbb{F}[A]$

## Theorem

Let $m_{A}(x)$ be the minimal polynomial of $A \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{F})$. If $q(x)$ is a non-constant factor of $m_{A}(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ then $\mathbb{F}[A] /\langle q(A)\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[x] /\langle q(x)\rangle$.

## A known result on $\mathbb{F}[A]$

## Theorem

Let $m_{A}(x)$ be the minimal polynomial of $A \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{F})$. If $q(x)$ is a non-constant factor of $m_{A}(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ then $\mathbb{F}[A] /\langle q(A)\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[x] /\langle q(x)\rangle$. In particular, if $q(x)$ is irreducible and $q(\alpha)=0$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ then

$$
\mathbb{F}[A] /\langle q(A)\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[x] /\langle q(x)\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[\alpha] .
$$

That is, $\mathbb{F}[A] /\langle q(A)\rangle$ is a field.

## A known result on $\mathbb{F}[A]$

## Theorem

Let $m_{A}(x)$ be the minimal polynomial of $A \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{F})$. If $q(x)$ is a non-constant factor of $m_{A}(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ then $\mathbb{F}[A] /\langle q(A)\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[x] /\langle q(x)\rangle$. In particular, if $q(x)$ is irreducible and $q(\alpha)=0$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ then

$$
\mathbb{F}[A] /\langle q(A)\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[x] /\langle q(x)\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[\alpha] .
$$

That is, $\mathbb{F}[A] /\langle q(A)\rangle$ is a field.
In this case we say that $(A, q(A))$ or simply $A$ represents the field $\mathbb{F}(\alpha)$.

## A known result on $\mathbb{F}[A]$

## Theorem

Let $m_{A}(x)$ be the minimal polynomial of $A \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{F})$. If $q(x)$ is a non-constant factor of $m_{A}(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ then $\mathbb{F}[A] /\langle q(A)\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[x] /\langle q(x)\rangle$. In particular, if $q(x)$ is irreducible and $q(\alpha)=0$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ then

$$
\mathbb{F}[A] /\langle q(A)\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[x] /\langle q(x)\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[\alpha] .
$$

That is, $\mathbb{F}[A] /\langle q(A)\rangle$ is a field.
In this case we say that $(A, q(A))$ or simply $A$ represents the field $\mathbb{F}(\alpha)$.
$A$ represents the field $\mathbb{F}[\alpha] \Leftrightarrow \alpha$ is an eigenvalue of $A$.
A.Satyanarayana Reddy, Shashank K Mehta and A.K.Lal, Representation of Cyclotomic Fields and their Subfields, Indian J. Pure Appl. Math., 44(2)(2013), 203-230.

## Number of walks of length $k$ from vertex $v_{i}$ to vertex $v_{j}$

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a graph with adjacency matrix $A$. Then, for every positive integer $k,\left(A^{k}\right)_{i j}$ equals the number of walks of length $k$ from the vertex $v_{i}$ to the vertex $v_{j}$.

## Proof

## Proof.

Proof by induction on $k$.
Base Step: If $k=1$, by definition $A_{i j}= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } v_{i}, v_{j} \text { areadjacent } \\ 0, & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}$

## Proof

## Proof.

Proof by induction on $k$.
Base Step: If $k=1$, by definition $A_{i j}= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } v_{i}, v_{j} \text { areadjacent } \\ 0, & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}$
Assume the result is true for $k=L$ and let us consider the matrix $A^{L+1}$. Then,

$$
\left(A^{L+1}\right)_{i j}=\sum_{h=1}^{n}\left(A^{L}\right)_{i h \cdot} \cdot(A)_{h j} .
$$

## Proof

## Proof.

Proof by induction on $k$.
Base Step: If $k=1$, by definition $A_{i j}= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } v_{i}, v_{j} \text { areadjacent } \\ 0, & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}$
Assume the result is true for $k=L$ and let us consider the matrix $A^{L+1}$. Then,

$$
\left(A^{L+1}\right)_{i j}=\sum_{h=1}^{n}\left(A^{L}\right)_{i h} \cdot(A)_{h j} .
$$

Therefore, $\left(A^{L+1}\right)_{i j}$ equals the number of walks of length $L$ from $v_{i}$ to $v_{h}$ and then a walk of length one (adjacency) from $v_{h}$ to $v_{j}$, for all vertices $v_{h} \in V(X)$.

## Proof

## Proof.

Proof by induction on $k$.
Base Step: If $k=1$, by definition $A_{i j}= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } v_{i}, v_{j} \text { areadjacent } \\ 0, & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}$
Assume the result is true for $k=L$ and let us consider the matrix $A^{L+1}$. Then,

$$
\left(A^{L+1}\right)_{i j}=\sum_{h=1}^{n}\left(A^{L}\right)_{i h} \cdot(A)_{h j} .
$$

Therefore, $\left(A^{L+1}\right)_{i j}$ equals the number of walks of length $L$ from $v_{i}$ to $v_{h}$ and then a walk of length one (adjacency) from $v_{h}$ to $v_{j}$, for all vertices $v_{h} \in V(X)$. Thus, $\left(A^{L+1}\right)_{i j}$ equals the number of walks of length $L+1$ from $v_{i}$ to $v_{j}$.

## $d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq n$.

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a connected simple graph on $n$ vertices. If $d=\operatorname{dia}(X)$ is the diameter of $X$, then $d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq n$.

## $d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq n$.

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a connected simple graph on $n$ vertices. If $d=\operatorname{dia}(X)$ is the diameter of $X$, then $d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq n$.

## Proof.

Since $d$ is the diameter of $X$, there exists $x, y \in V$ with $d(x, y)=d$. Suppose $x=w_{0}, w_{1}, \ldots, w_{d}=y$ is a path of length $d$ in $X$.

## $d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq n$.

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a connected simple graph on $n$ vertices. If $d=\operatorname{dia}(X)$ is the diameter of $X$, then $d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq n$.

## Proof.

Since $d$ is the diameter of $X$, there exists $x, y \in V$ with $d(x, y)=d$. Suppose $x=w_{0}, w_{1}, \ldots, w_{d}=y$ is a path of length $d$ in $X$.
Then, from Lemma 2, for each $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, d\}$, there is at least one path of length $i$ from $w_{0}$ to $w_{i}$, but no shorter walk. Consequently, $A^{i}$ has a non-zero entry in a position where the corresponding entries of $I, A, A^{2}, \ldots, A^{i-1}$ are zero.

$$
d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq n .
$$

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a connected simple graph on $n$ vertices. If $d=\operatorname{dia}(X)$ is the diameter of $X$, then $d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq n$.

## Proof.

Since $d$ is the diameter of $X$, there exists $x, y \in V$ with $d(x, y)=d$. Suppose $x=w_{0}, w_{1}, \ldots, w_{d}=y$ is a path of length $d$ in $X$.
Then, from Lemma 2, for each $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, d\}$, there is at least one path of length $i$ from $w_{0}$ to $w_{i}$, but no shorter walk. Consequently, $A^{i}$ has a non-zero entry in a position where the corresponding entries of $I, A, A^{2}, \ldots, A^{i-1}$ are zero. So $\left\{I, A, A^{2}, \ldots, A^{i-1}, A^{i}\right\}$ is a linearly independent set. Thus $\left\{I, A, A^{2}, \ldots, A^{d-1}, A^{d}\right\}$ is a linearly independent set and hence $d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X))$. Further, the upper bound is achieved by the well known Cayley-Hamilton theorem. Hence, the result follows.

## $d+1$ distinct eigenvalues

The above result has a nice consequence. In particular, it relates the number of distinct eigenvalues of a simple connected graph with the diameter of the graph. We state it next.

## $d+1$ distinct eigenvalues

The above result has a nice consequence. In particular, it relates the number of distinct eigenvalues of a simple connected graph with the diameter of the graph. We state it next.

## Corollary

A connected simple graph $X$ with diameter $d$ has at least $d+1$ distinct eigenvalues.

## $d+1$ distinct eigenvalues

The above result has a nice consequence. In particular, it relates the number of distinct eigenvalues of a simple connected graph with the diameter of the graph. We state it next.

## Corollary

A connected simple graph $X$ with diameter $d$ has at least $d+1$ distinct eigenvalues.

## Proof.

Since the adjacency matrix is a real symmetric matrix, its minimal polynomial is the product of distinct linear polynomials. Hence, $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X))$ also equals the number of distinct eigenvalues of $A$. Thus, if the graph $X$ has diameter $d$, then it has at least $d+1$ distinct eigenvalues.

The above corollary is not true for directed graphs.

The above corollary is not true for directed graphs. For example, the following directed path has diameter 2, whereas its adjacency matrix has only 0 's as eigenvalues.

The above corollary is not true for directed graphs. For example, the following directed path has diameter 2, whereas its adjacency matrix has only 0 's as eigenvalues. Note that its adjacency matrix is a nilpotent matrix.

Directed path graph its adjacency matrix


The above corollary is not true for directed graphs. For example, the following directed path has diameter 2, whereas its adjacency matrix has only 0 's as eigenvalues. Note that its adjacency matrix is a nilpotent matrix.

Directed path graph

its adjacency matrix


## Few applications of Corollary 1

- A path graph on $n$ vertices has $n$ distinct eigenvalues.


## Few applications of Corollary 1

- A path graph on $n$ vertices has $n$ distinct eigenvalues.
- If all eigenvalues of a simple graph are equal, then its diameter is zero. Thus, a simple graph has only one distinct eigenvalue if and only if it is a null graph.


## Few applications of Corollary 1

- A path graph on $n$ vertices has $n$ distinct eigenvalues.
- If all eigenvalues of a simple graph are equal, then its diameter is zero. Thus, a simple graph has only one distinct eigenvalue if and only if it is a null graph.
- Let $X$ be a connected graph. Then, it has exactly two distinct eigenvalues if and only if it is complete graph (as diameter of the complete graph is one).


## Few applications of Corollary 1

- A path graph on $n$ vertices has $n$ distinct eigenvalues.
- If all eigenvalues of a simple graph are equal, then its diameter is zero. Thus, a simple graph has only one distinct eigenvalue if and only if it is a null graph.
- Let $X$ be a connected graph. Then, it has exactly two distinct eigenvalues if and only if it is complete graph (as diameter of the complete graph is one).
- Let $X$ be a graph with two distinct eigenvalues. Then, $X$ is a regular graph.


## Few applications of Corollary 1

- A path graph on $n$ vertices has $n$ distinct eigenvalues.
- If all eigenvalues of a simple graph are equal, then its diameter is zero. Thus, a simple graph has only one distinct eigenvalue if and only if it is a null graph.
- Let $X$ be a connected graph. Then, it has exactly two distinct eigenvalues if and only if it is complete graph (as diameter of the complete graph is one).
- Let $X$ be a graph with two distinct eigenvalues. Then, $X$ is a regular graph.


## Proof.

Let $X$ be a graph with two distinct eigenvalues, then $\operatorname{dim} \mathcal{A}(X)=2$. Hence, $I$ and $A$ form a basis of $\mathcal{A}(X)$. Consequently $A^{2}=a l+b A$, for some $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus, $\left(A^{2}\right)_{i i}=a$ for all $i$.

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a connected graph on $n$ vertices. If $A$ is it's adjacency matrix, then every entry of $(I+A)^{n-1}$ is positive.

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a connected graph on $n$ vertices. If $A$ is it's adjacency matrix, then every entry of $(I+A)^{n-1}$ is positive.

## Proof.

From Lemma 2, we know that the ij-th entry of $I+A+A^{2}+A^{3}+\ldots+A^{n-1}$ equals the total number of walks of length less than or equal to $n-1$. As $X$ is a connected graph on $n$ vertices, $d(X) \leq n-1$. Hence, each entry in $I+A+A^{2}+A^{3}+\ldots+A^{n-1}$ is positive. Thus, the required result follows as
$(I+A)^{n-1} \geq I+A+A^{2}+A^{3}+\cdots+A^{n-1}$.

## $k$-th distance matrix of a graph

## Definition

Let $X=(V, E)$ be a connected graph with diameter $d$. Then, for $0 \leq k \leq d$, the $k$-th distance matrix of $X$, denoted $A_{k}$, is defined as

$$
\left(A_{k}\right)_{r s}= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } d\left(v_{r}, v_{s}\right)=k \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

From the above definition, it is clear that

- $A_{0}$ is the identity matrix and $A_{1}$ is the adjacency matrix of $X$.

From the above definition, it is clear that

- $A_{0}$ is the identity matrix and $A_{1}$ is the adjacency matrix of $X$.
- $A_{0}+A_{1}+\cdots+A_{d}=\mathbf{J}$, where $\mathbf{J}$ is the matrix of all $1^{\prime}$ s.

From the above definition, it is clear that

- $A_{0}$ is the identity matrix and $A_{1}$ is the adjacency matrix of $X$.
- $A_{0}+A_{1}+\cdots+A_{d}=\mathbf{J}$, where $\mathbf{J}$ is the matrix of all $1^{\prime}$ s.
- $A_{k}$, for $0 \leq k \leq d$ is a symmetric matrix.

From the above definition, it is clear that

- $A_{0}$ is the identity matrix and $A_{1}$ is the adjacency matrix of $X$.
- $A_{0}+A_{1}+\cdots+A_{d}=\mathbf{J}$, where $\mathbf{J}$ is the matrix of all $1^{\prime} s$.
- $A_{k}$, for $0 \leq k \leq d$ is a symmetric matrix.
- the set $\left\{A_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots, A_{d}\right\}$ is a linearly independent set in $M_{n}(\mathbb{R})$.


## Distance polynomial Graph

## Definition (Paul M. Weichsel [2])

Let $X$ be a connected graph with diameter $d$ and let $A_{k}(X)$, for $0 \leq k \leq d$, be the $k$-th distance matrix of $X$. Then, $X$ is said to be a distance polynomial graph if $A_{k}(X) \in \mathcal{A}(X)$, for $0 \leq k \leq d$.

## Distance polynomial Graph

## Definition (Paul M. Weichsel [2])

Let $X$ be a connected graph with diameter $d$ and let $A_{k}(X)$, for $0 \leq k \leq d$, be the $k$-th distance matrix of $X$. Then, $X$ is said to be a distance polynomial graph if $A_{k}(X) \in \mathcal{A}(X)$, for $0 \leq k \leq d$.

The complete graph $K_{n}$, Cycle graph $C_{n}$, Complete bipartite graph $K_{n, n}$ and Petersen graph are few examples of distance polynomial graphs.

## Eigenvalues of regular graphs

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a $k$-regular graph. Then,

## Eigenvalues of regular graphs

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a $k$-regular graph. Then,
(1) $k$ is an eigenvalue of $X$.

## Eigenvalues of regular graphs

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a $k$-regular graph. Then,
(1) $k$ is an eigenvalue of $X$.
(2) if $X$ is connected, then the multiplicity of $k$ is one.

## Eigenvalues of regular graphs

## Lemma (Biggs [2])

Let $X$ be a k-regular graph. Then,
(1) $k$ is an eigenvalue of $X$.
(2) if $X$ is connected, then the multiplicity of $k$ is one.
(3) for any eigenvalue $\lambda$ of $X,|\lambda| \leq k$.

## Proof of Part 1

## Proof.

Let $\mathbf{e}=[1,1, \ldots, 1]^{T}$. Then $A \mathbf{e}=k \mathbf{e}$. Consequently, $k$ is an eigenvalue with corresponding eigenvector $\mathbf{e}$.

## Proof of Part 2

## Proof.

Let $\mathbf{a}=\left[a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right]^{\top}$ be an eigenvector of $A$ corresponding to the eigenvalue $k$.

## Proof of Part 2

## Proof.

Let $\mathbf{a}=\left[a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right]^{T}$ be an eigenvector of $A$ corresponding to the eigenvalue $k$. Suppose $a_{j}$ is an entry of $\mathbf{a}$ having the largest absolute value. Without loss of generality, we also assume that $a_{j}$ is positive as one can take $-\mathbf{a}$ in place of $\mathbf{a}$ as an eigenvector of $k$.

## Proof of Part 2

## Proof.

Let $\mathbf{a}=\left[a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right]^{T}$ be an eigenvector of $A$ corresponding to the eigenvalue $k$. Suppose $a_{j}$ is an entry of $\mathbf{a}$ having the largest absolute value. Without loss of generality, we also assume that $a_{j}$ is positive as one can take $-\mathbf{a}$ in place of $\mathbf{a}$ as an eigenvector of $k$. So,

$$
k \mathbf{a}_{j}=(A \mathbf{a})_{j} \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \in E} \mathbf{a}_{i} \leq k \mathbf{a}_{j}
$$

as is vertex of $X$ is adjacent to exactly $k$ vertices and $\mathbf{a}_{j} \geq \mathbf{a}_{i}$, for all $i=1, \ldots, n$.

## Proof of Part 2

## Proof.

Let $\mathbf{a}=\left[a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right]^{T}$ be an eigenvector of $A$ corresponding to the eigenvalue $k$. Suppose $a_{j}$ is an entry of $\mathbf{a}$ having the largest absolute value. Without loss of generality, we also assume that $a_{j}$ is positive as one can take $-\mathbf{a}$ in place of $\mathbf{a}$ as an eigenvector of $k$. So,

$$
k \mathbf{a}_{j}=(A \mathbf{a})_{j} \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \in E} \mathbf{a}_{i} \leq k \mathbf{a}_{j}
$$

as is vertex of $X$ is adjacent to exactly $k$ vertices and $\mathbf{a}_{j} \geq \mathbf{a}_{i}$, for all $i=1, \ldots, n$. Hence, $\mathbf{a}_{i}=\mathbf{a}_{j}$ for all vertices that are adjacent to the vertex $v_{j}$.

## Proof of Part 2

## Proof.

Let $\mathbf{a}=\left[a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right]^{T}$ be an eigenvector of $A$ corresponding to the eigenvalue $k$. Suppose $a_{j}$ is an entry of $\mathbf{a}$ having the largest absolute value. Without loss of generality, we also assume that $a_{j}$ is positive as one can take $-\mathbf{a}$ in place of $\mathbf{a}$ as an eigenvector of $k$. So,

$$
k \mathbf{a}_{j}=(A \mathbf{a})_{j} \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \in E} \mathbf{a}_{i} \leq k \mathbf{a}_{j}
$$

as is vertex of $X$ is adjacent to exactly $k$ vertices and $\mathbf{a}_{j} \geq \mathbf{a}_{i}$, for all $i=1, \ldots, n$. Hence, $\mathbf{a}_{i}=\mathbf{a}_{j}$ for all vertices that are adjacent to the vertex $v_{j}$. Further, the condition that $X$ is connected implies that we can recursively obtain $\mathbf{a}_{i}=\mathbf{a}_{j}$ for all $i$ and $j$. Consequently, a is multiple of $\mathbf{e}$.

## Proof of Part 3

## Proof.

Let $A \mathbf{b}=\lambda \mathbf{b}$. As above, let $b_{j}$ be an entry of $\mathbf{b}$ having the largest absolute value.

## Proof of Part 3

## Proof.

Let $A \mathbf{b}=\lambda \mathbf{b}$. As above, let $b_{j}$ be an entry of $\mathbf{b}$ having the largest absolute value. We again assume $\mathbf{b}_{j}$ is positive. Then

$$
|\lambda| \mathbf{b}_{j}=\left|(\lambda \mathbf{b})_{j}\right|=\left|(A \mathbf{b})_{j}\right|=\left|\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \in E} \mathbf{b}_{i}\right| \leq \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \in E}\left|\mathbf{b}_{i}\right| \leq k\left|\mathbf{b}_{j}\right| .
$$

Thus, $|\lambda| \leq k$

## $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X)$

Lemma 7 implies that if $X$ is a connected $k$-regular graph then the minimal polynomial of $X$ will have the form $(x-k) q(x)$ for some polynomial $q(x)$ with integer entries and $q(k) \neq 0$, as $k$ is an eigenvalue of multiplicity 1 . We use this idea in the next result.

## $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X)$

Lemma 7 implies that if $X$ is a connected $k$-regular graph then the minimal polynomial of $X$ will have the form $(x-k) q(x)$ for some polynomial $q(x)$ with integer entries and $q(k) \neq 0$, as $k$ is an eigenvalue of multiplicity 1 . We use this idea in the next result.

## Lemma (Hoffman [3])

Let $X$ be a connected $k$-regular graph on $n$ vertices. Then, the matrix $\mathbf{J}$, consisting of all 1 's, equals $\frac{n}{q(k)} q(A)$, i.e., $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X)$.

## Proof

As $X$ is a $k$-regular graph, its adjacency matrix $A$ satisfies $A \mathbf{e}=k \mathbf{e}$. Let $(x-k) q(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of $X$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{J} A=A \mathbf{J}=k \mathbf{J} \text { and } q(A) \mathbf{e}=q(k) \mathbf{e} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Proof

As $X$ is a $k$-regular graph, its adjacency matrix $A$ satisfies $A \mathbf{e}=k \mathbf{e}$. Let $(x-k) q(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of $X$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{J} A=A \mathbf{J}=k \mathbf{J} \text { and } q(A) \mathbf{e}=q(k) \mathbf{e} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{x}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_{n}\right\}$ be an orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ consisting of eigenvectors of $A$ with corresponding eigenvalues $k, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$. Thus, $\mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{e}=0$, for $2 \leq i \leq n$. Hence, $\mathbf{J} \mathrm{x}_{i}=\mathbf{0}$.

## Continuation of Proof

Now, Equation (1) gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{J} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{e}=\frac{n}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{e}=\left(\frac{n}{q(k)} q(k)\right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{e}=\frac{n}{q(k)} q(A) \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{e} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

As $(x-k) q(x)$ is the minimal polynomial of $X, q\left(\lambda_{i}\right)=0$. So, $q(A) \mathbf{x}_{i}=q\left(\lambda_{i}\right) \mathbf{x}_{i}=\mathbf{0}$, i.e., $\frac{n}{q(k)} q(A) \mathbf{x}_{i}=\mathbf{0}$.

## Continuation of Proof

Now, Equation (1) gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{J} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{e}=\frac{n}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{e}=\left(\frac{n}{q(k)} q(k)\right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{e}=\frac{n}{q(k)} q(A) \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{e} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

As $(x-k) q(x)$ is the minimal polynomial of $X, q\left(\lambda_{i}\right)=0$. So, $q(A) \mathbf{x}_{i}=q\left(\lambda_{i}\right) \mathbf{x}_{i}=\mathbf{0}$, i.e., $\frac{n}{q(k)} q(A) \mathbf{x}_{i}=\mathbf{0}$. Thus, we see that the image of the two matrices $\mathbf{J}$ and $\frac{n}{q(k)} q(A)$ on the basis $\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{x}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_{n}\right\}$ of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ are same. Hence, the two matrices are equal. Therefore, $\mathbf{J}=\frac{n}{q(k)} q(A)$.

## Lemma

Let $X$ be a graph on $n$ vertices. If $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X)$, then $X$ is a connected, regular graph.

## Lemma

Let $X$ be a graph on $n$ vertices. If $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X)$, then $X$ is a connected, regular graph.

## Proof

Let $A$ be the adjacency matrix of $A$. Then, $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X)$ implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{J}=a_{0} I+a_{1} A+\cdots+a_{r} A^{r} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Lemma

Let $X$ be a graph on $n$ vertices. If $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X)$, then $X$ is a connected, regular graph.

## Proof

Let $A$ be the adjacency matrix of $A$. Then, $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X)$ implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{J}=a_{0} I+a_{1} A+\cdots+a_{r} A^{r} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some positive integer $r$ and $a_{i} \in \mathbb{R}, 0 \leq i \leq r$. As each entry of $\mathbf{J}$ is non-zero, for each pair $i, j$, there exists the smallest power of $A$, say $t \leq r$, which has a non-zero entry. Hence, by definition there is a walk of length $t$ from the vertex $v_{i}$ to the vertex $v_{j}$. Thus, $X$ is connected. By Equation (3), we see that $A \mathbf{J}=\mathbf{J} A$.

So, if $d_{i}$ equals $\operatorname{deg}\left(v_{i}\right)$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$, then

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
d_{1} & d_{2} & \cdots & d_{n} \\
d_{1} & d_{2} & \cdots & d_{n} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
d_{1} & d_{2} & \cdots & d_{n}
\end{array}\right]=\mathbf{J} A=A \mathbf{J}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
d_{1} & d_{1} & \cdots & d_{1} \\
d_{2} & d_{2} & \cdots & d_{2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
d_{n} & d_{n} & \cdots & d_{n}
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Thus, $d_{i}=d_{j}$, for all $i$ and $j$ and hence $X$ is a regular graph. Hence the proof.

This following observation gives the polynomial $q(x)$ explicitly.

This following observation gives the polynomial $q(x)$ explicitly.

## Observation

Let $X$ be a connected regular graph and let $k=\lambda_{1} \geq \lambda_{2} \geq \lambda_{3} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{n}$ be the eigenvalues of $X$.

This following observation gives the polynomial $q(x)$ explicitly.

## Observation

Let $X$ be a connected regular graph and let $k=\lambda_{1} \geq \lambda_{2} \geq \lambda_{3} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{n}$ be the eigenvalues of $X$. Define, $h(x)=n \prod_{i=2}^{n} \frac{x-\lambda_{i}}{k-\lambda_{i}}$. Then, the eigenvalues of $h(A)$ are $\left\{h(k), h\left(\lambda_{2}\right), \ldots, h\left(\lambda_{n}\right)\right\}=\{n, 0\}$. Consequently, $h(A)-\mathbf{J}$ vanish at all eigenvectors of $A$ or equivalently $h(A)=\mathbf{J}=\frac{n}{q(k)} q(A)$.

## The eigenvalues of $X^{c}$, where $X$ is regular.

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a connected $k$-regular graph on $n$ vertices with eigenvalues
$k=\lambda_{1} \geq \lambda_{2} \geq \lambda_{3} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{n}$. Then, the eigenvalues of $X^{c}$ are $n-k-1,-1-\lambda_{2}, \ldots,-1-\lambda_{n}$.

## Proof

## Proof.

Let $A$ be the adjacency matrix of $X$. Then, $A\left(X^{c}\right)=\mathbf{J}-I-A$, the adjacency matrix of $X^{c}$. Now, using Lemma 29, the matrices $I, J$ and $A$ have the same set of eigenvectors.

## Proof

## Proof.

Let $A$ be the adjacency matrix of $X$. Then, $A\left(X^{c}\right)=\mathbf{J}-I-A$, the adjacency matrix of $X^{c}$. Now, using Lemma 29, the matrices $I, J$ and $A$ have the same set of eigenvectors. So, let $U$ be an orthogonal matrix formed using the eigenvectors of $A$ as columns. Then, $U A U^{T}=\operatorname{diag}\left(k, \lambda_{2}, \lambda_{3}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right)$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
U A^{c} U^{T} & =U(\mathbf{J}-I-A) U^{T}=U J U^{T}-U I U^{T}-U A U^{T} \\
& =\operatorname{diag}(n, 0,0, \ldots, 0)-\operatorname{diag}(1,1, \ldots, 1)-\operatorname{diag}\left(k, \lambda_{2}, \lambda_{3}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{diag}\left(n-k-1,-1-\lambda_{2}, \ldots,-1-\lambda_{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a connected regular graph. Then $X^{c}$ is connected if and only if $\mathcal{A}(X)=\mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right)$.

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a connected regular graph. Then $X^{c}$ is connected if and only if $\mathcal{A}(X)=\mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right)$.

## Proof.

As $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X), A\left(X^{c}\right)=\mathbf{J}-I-A \in \mathcal{A}(X)$ and hence $\mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right) \subset \mathcal{A}(X)$.

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a connected regular graph. Then $X^{c}$ is connected if and only if $\mathcal{A}(X)=\mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right)$.

## Proof.

As $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X), A\left(X^{c}\right)=\mathbf{J}-I-A \in \mathcal{A}(X)$ and hence $\mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right) \subset \mathcal{A}(X)$.
As $X^{c}$ is a $(n-k-1)$-regular connected graph, $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right)$. Hence, $A=\mathbf{J}-I-A\left(X^{c}\right) \in \mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right)$. Thus, $\mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right) \subset \mathcal{A}(X)$, Thus, the two sets are equal.

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a connected regular graph. Then $X^{c}$ is connected if and only if $\mathcal{A}(X)=\mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right)$.

## Proof.

As $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X), A\left(X^{c}\right)=\mathbf{J}-I-A \in \mathcal{A}(X)$ and hence $\mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right) \subset \mathcal{A}(X)$.
As $X^{c}$ is a $(n-k-1)$-regular connected graph, $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right)$. Hence, $A=\mathbf{J}-I-A\left(X^{c}\right) \in \mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right)$. Thus, $\mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right) \subset \mathcal{A}(X)$, Thus, the two sets are equal. Now, suppose that the two sets are equal. Then, $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X)=\mathcal{A}\left(X^{c}\right)$. Thus, by Lemma 9, the graph $X^{c}$ is connected and regular. Hence, the required result follows.

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a distance polynomial graph. Then $X$ is a connected regular graph.

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a distance polynomial graph. Then $X$ is a connected regular graph.

## Proof.

As $X$ is a distance polynomial graph, by definition, $X$ is already connected. If $X$ has diameter $d$, then by definition, $A_{k}(X) \in \mathcal{A}(X)$, for $0 \leq k \leq d$. Consequently, $\mathbf{J}=\sum_{k=0}^{d} A_{k}(X) \in \mathcal{A}(X)$ and hence using Lemma 29, the result follows.

## Strongly regular graph

## Definition

A $k$-regular graph $X$ on $n$ vertices is said to be a strongly regular graph, with parameters $(n, k, a, c)$ if

## Strongly regular graph

## Definition

A $k$-regular graph $X$ on $n$ vertices is said to be a strongly regular graph, with parameters ( $n, k, a, c$ ) if
(1) $X$ is neither the complete graph nor the null graph,

## Strongly regular graph

## Definition

A $k$-regular graph $X$ on $n$ vertices is said to be a strongly regular graph, with parameters ( $n, k, a, c$ ) if
(1) $X$ is neither the complete graph nor the null graph,
(2) any two adjacent vertices, say $u$ and $v$, have exactly a common neighbors, and

## Strongly regular graph

## Definition

A $k$-regular graph $X$ on $n$ vertices is said to be a strongly regular graph, with parameters ( $n, k, a, c$ ) if
(1) $X$ is neither the complete graph nor the null graph,
(2) any two adjacent vertices, say $u$ and $v$, have exactly a common neighbors, and
(3) any two non-adjacent vertices, say $s$ and $t$, have exactly $c$ common neighbors.

## Examples of Strongly regular graphs

- For example, $C_{5}$ is a $(5,2,0,1)$ strongly regular graph.


## Examples of Strongly regular graphs

- For example, $C_{5}$ is a $(5,2,0,1)$ strongly regular graph.
- Petersen graph is a strongly regular with parameters $(10,3,0,1)$.


## Examples of Strongly regular graphs

- For example, $C_{5}$ is a $(5,2,0,1)$ strongly regular graph.
- Petersen graph is a strongly regular with parameters $(10,3,0,1)$.
- The Payley graph on $q=4 t+1$ vertices is a strongly regular with parameters $(4 t+1,2 t, t-1, t)$.


## Examples of Strongly regular graphs

- For example, $C_{5}$ is a $(5,2,0,1)$ strongly regular graph.
- Petersen graph is a strongly regular with parameters $(10,3,0,1)$.
- The Payley graph on $q=4 t+1$ vertices is a strongly regular with parameters $(4 t+1,2 t, t-1, t)$.
- Recall that the triangular graphs, denote $\lg \left(K_{n}\right)$, were the line graphs of the complete graphs and it can be easily verified that they are strongly regular graphs with parameters $\left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}, 2(n-2), n-2,4\right)$.


## Examples of Strongly regular graphs

- For example, $C_{5}$ is a $(5,2,0,1)$ strongly regular graph.
- Petersen graph is a strongly regular with parameters $(10,3,0,1)$.
- The Payley graph on $q=4 t+1$ vertices is a strongly regular with parameters $(4 t+1,2 t, t-1, t)$.
- Recall that the triangular graphs, denote $\lg \left(K_{n}\right)$, were the line graphs of the complete graphs and it can be easily verified that they are strongly regular graphs with parameters $\left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}, 2(n-2), n-2,4\right)$.
- The line graphs of the complete bipartite graphs, $\lg \left(K_{n, n}\right)$ are strongly regular with parameters $\left(n^{2}, 2(n-1), n-2,2\right)$.

There is relationship among the parameters. That is if we know three of them, then it is possible to find fourth parameter.

There is relationship among the parameters. That is if we know three of them, then it is possible to find fourth parameter. Let $X$ be strongly regular graph with parameters ( $n, k, a, c$ ).

There is relationship among the parameters. That is if we know three of them, then it is possible to find fourth parameter. Let $X$ be strongly regular graph with parameters $(n, k, a, c)$. Let $x \in V(X)$. Then $x$ has $k$ neighbors and $n-k-1$ non-neighbors. We will count the total number of edges between neighbors and non-neighbors of $x$ in two ways. Let $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{k}$ be neighbors of $x$, then the number of common neighbors of $x$ and $v_{i}$ is $a$.

There is relationship among the parameters. That is if we know three of them, then it is possible to find fourth parameter. Let $X$ be strongly regular graph with parameters $(n, k, a, c)$. Let $x \in V(X)$. Then $x$ has $k$ neighbors and $n-k-1$ non-neighbors. We will count the total number of edges between neighbors and non-neighbors of $x$ in two ways. Let $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{k}$ be neighbors of $x$, then the number of common neighbors of $x$ and $v_{i}$ is $a$. Hence number of edges between neighbors of $x$, non common neighbors of $x$ are $k(k-a-1)$. On the other hand there are $n-k-1$ vertices not adjacent to $x$, each of which adjacent to $c$ neighbors of $x$.

There is relationship among the parameters. That is if we know three of them, then it is possible to find fourth parameter. Let $X$ be strongly regular graph with parameters $(n, k, a, c)$. Let $x \in V(X)$. Then $x$ has $k$ neighbors and $n-k-1$ non-neighbors. We will count the total number of edges between neighbors and non-neighbors of $x$ in two ways. Let $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{k}$ be neighbors of $x$, then the number of common neighbors of $x$ and $v_{i}$ is $a$. Hence number of edges between neighbors of $x$, non common neighbors of $x$ are $k(k-a-1)$. On the other hand there are $n-k-1$ vertices not adjacent to $x$, each of which adjacent to $c$ neighbors of $x$. Hence total number of edges between neighbors of $x$, non common neighbors of $x$ are $c(n-k-1)$. Hence we have $k(k-a-1)=c(n-k-1)$.

## Theorem (Godsil and Royle [3])

Let $A$ be the adjacency matrix of an $(n, k, a, c)$-strongly regular graph $X$. Then,
(1) $A^{2}=k I+a A+c(\mathbf{J}-I-A)$.
(2) the eigenvalues of $X$ are $k$ and roots of equation $x^{2}-(a-c) x-(k-c)=0$.

## Proof of first part

## Proof.

To prove the first part, note that he $(i, j)^{t h}$ entry of $A^{2}$ is the number of walks of length of 2 from the vertex $i$ to the vertex $j$. Moreover, this number determined only by whether the vertices $i$ and $j$ are adjacent, non-adjacent or same.

## Proof of first part

## Proof.

To prove the first part, note that he $(i, j)^{t h}$ entry of $A^{2}$ is the number of walks of length of 2 from the vertex $i$ to the vertex $j$. Moreover, this number determined only by whether the vertices $i$ and $j$ are adjacent, non-adjacent or same. Thus, by definition of the graph $X$, we have

$$
\left(A^{2}\right)_{i j}= \begin{cases}k & \text { whenever } i=j \\ a & \text { if } i \neq j \text { but } i \text { and } j \text { are adjacent } \\ c & \text { if } i \neq j \text { but } i \text { and } j \text { are not adjacent. }\end{cases}
$$

Or equivalently, $A^{2}=k I+a A+c A^{c}=k I+a A+c(\mathbf{J}-I-A)$.

## Proof of second part

## Proof.

For the second part, note that $k$ is indeed an eigenvalue of $X$ with eigenvector $\mathbf{e}$. Now, let $\lambda$ be an eigenvalue of $X$ with corresponding eigenvector $\mathbf{x}$. Then, $\mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{x}=0$. Hence, using the first part
$a(\lambda \mathbf{x})=a(A \mathbf{x})=\left(A^{2}-k I-c(\mathbf{J}-I-A)\right) \mathbf{x}=\lambda^{2} \mathbf{x}-k \mathbf{x}-c(0-1-\lambda) \mathbf{x}=\left(\lambda^{2}+c \lambda-(k-c)\right) \mathbf{x}$.
As $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$, we must have $\lambda^{2}-(a-c) \lambda-(k-c)=0$. That is, $\lambda$ satisfies the required equation.

## Shrikhande: one of Euler's Spoiler

The following result characterizes connected regular graphs with three distinct eigenvalues. The proof is easy and is left as an exercise.

## Shrikhande: one of Euler's Spoiler

The following result characterizes connected regular graphs with three distinct eigenvalues. The proof is easy and is left as an exercise.

## Theorem (Shrikhande and Bhagwandas)

Let $X$ be a connected regular graph which is not a complete graph. Then,

## Shrikhande: one of Euler's Spoiler

The following result characterizes connected regular graphs with three distinct eigenvalues. The proof is easy and is left as an exercise.

## Theorem (Shrikhande and Bhagwandas)

Let $X$ be a connected regular graph which is not a complete graph. Then,
(1) $X$ is a strongly regular if and only if $A^{2}$ is linear combination of the matrices $I, J$ and $A$.

## Shrikhande: one of Euler's Spoiler

The following result characterizes connected regular graphs with three distinct eigenvalues. The proof is easy and is left as an exercise.

## Theorem (Shrikhande and Bhagwandas)

Let $X$ be a connected regular graph which is not a complete graph. Then,
(1) $X$ is a strongly regular if and only if $A^{2}$ is linear combination of the matrices $I, J$ and $A$.
(2) $X$ is a strongly regular if and only if it has exactly three distinct eigenvalues.

Euler conjectured that no orthogonal Latin squares existed for oddly even numbers (even numbers not divisible by 4.).

This conjecture by Euler was in 1782. In 1901, a French mathematician named Gaston Tarry ( $1843-1913$ ) proved that $n=6$ was indeed impossible by laboriously checking all possible cases. But Eulers conjecture that orthogonality was impossible for all oddly even numbers remained to be resolved. Until 1959, when R.C. Bose, Shrikhande and E.T. Parker disproved the conjecture.

Once Shrikhande said:
"had the rare privilege of seeing our works reported on the front page of the Sunday Edition of the New York Times of April 26, 1959."

## $\mathcal{A}(X)$ of SRG

If $X$ is a connected strongly regular graph, then $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X))=3$ and

$$
\left\{I, A, A^{c}\right\}=\left\{A_{0}, A_{1}, A_{2}\right\}
$$

forms a basis for $\mathcal{A}(X)$.

## $\mathcal{A}(X)$ of SRG

If $X$ is a connected strongly regular graph, then $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X))=3$ and

$$
\left\{I, A, A^{c}\right\}=\left\{A_{0}, A_{1}, A_{2}\right\}
$$

forms a basis for $\mathcal{A}(X)$.
A connected graph $X$ is said to be a distance regular graph if for any two vertices $u, v$ of $X$, the number of vertices at distance $i$ from $u$ and distance $j$ from $v$ depends only on $i, j$ and $d(u, v)$, the distance between $u$ and $v$.

## $\mathcal{A}(X)$ of SRG

If $X$ is a connected strongly regular graph, then $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X))=3$ and

$$
\left\{I, A, A^{c}\right\}=\left\{A_{0}, A_{1}, A_{2}\right\}
$$

forms a basis for $\mathcal{A}(X)$.
A connected graph $X$ is said to be a distance regular graph if for any two vertices $u, v$ of $X$, the number of vertices at distance $i$ from $u$ and distance $j$ from $v$ depends only on $i, j$ and $d(u, v)$, the distance between $u$ and $v$.

## Theorem (Damerell [2])

Let $X$ be a distance regular graph of diameter $d$. Then the set of distance matrices of $X,\left\{A_{0}(X), A_{1}(X), \ldots, A_{d}(X)\right\}$, forms a basis of the adjacency algebra $\mathcal{A}(X)$.

## $\mathcal{A}(X)$ of SRG

If $X$ is a connected strongly regular graph, then $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X))=3$ and

$$
\left\{I, A, A^{c}\right\}=\left\{A_{0}, A_{1}, A_{2}\right\}
$$

forms a basis for $\mathcal{A}(X)$.
A connected graph $X$ is said to be a distance regular graph if for any two vertices $u, v$ of $X$, the number of vertices at distance $i$ from $u$ and distance $j$ from $v$ depends only on $i, j$ and $d(u, v)$, the distance between $u$ and $v$.

## Theorem (Damerell [2])

Let $X$ be a distance regular graph of diameter $d$. Then the set of distance matrices of $X,\left\{A_{0}(X), A_{1}(X), \ldots, A_{d}(X)\right\}$, forms a basis of the adjacency algebra $\mathcal{A}(X)$.
A. E. Brouwer, A. M. Cohen, A. Neumaier, Distance regular Graphs,

## Adjacency matrix of a directed cycle

Let $W_{n}$ be the adjacency matrix of a directed cycle with $n$ vertices.

## Adjacency matrix of a directed cycle

Let $W_{n}$ be the adjacency matrix of a directed cycle with $n$ vertices. Then $W_{n}$, equals

$$
W_{n}=\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Adjacency matrix of a directed cycle

Let $W_{n}$ be the adjacency matrix of a directed cycle with $n$ vertices. Then $W_{n}$, equals

$$
W_{n}=\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

The minimal polynomial of $W_{n}$ is $x^{n}-1$. Hence eigenvalues of $W_{n}$ are the $n$th roots of unity.

## Circulant Matrix

A matrix $A \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{F})$ is said to be a circulant matrix if $\left.a_{i j}=a_{1 j-i+1( }(\bmod n)\right)$. That is, for each $i \geq 2$, the elements of the $i$-th row of $A$ are obtained by cyclically shifting the elements of the $(i-1)$-th row of $A$, one position to the right. So, it is sufficient to specify its first row.

## Circulant Matrix

A matrix $A \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{F})$ is said to be a circulant matrix if $\left.a_{i j}=a_{1 j-i+1( }(\bmod n)\right)$. That is, for each $i \geq 2$, the elements of the $i$-th row of $A$ are obtained by cyclically shifting the elements of the $(i-1)$-th row of $A$, one position to the right. So, it is sufficient to specify its first row. It is easy to see that $W_{n}$ is a circulant matrix of order $n$ with its first row as $[010 \ldots 0]$. Then, the following result is stated without proof.

## Every circulant matrix is a polynomial in $W_{n}$

## Lemma

Let $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{F})$. Then $A$ is a circulant matrix if and only if it is a polynomial in $W_{n}$. That is, the set of circulant matrices in $M_{n}(\mathbb{F})$ forms a commutative algebra. Note that as a vector space, its basis is $\left\{I=W_{n}^{0}, W_{n}^{1}, W_{n}^{2}, \ldots, W_{n}^{(n-1)}\right\}$.

## Representer polynomial

Let $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ be a circulant matrix. Then, from Lemma 14 , there exists a unique polynomial $\gamma_{A}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ of degree $\leq n-1$, called the representer polynomial of $A$ such that $A=\gamma_{A}\left(W_{n}\right)$.

## Representer polynomial

Let $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ be a circulant matrix. Then, from Lemma 14 , there exists a unique polynomial $\gamma_{A}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ of degree $\leq n-1$, called the representer polynomial of $A$ such that $A=\gamma_{A}\left(W_{n}\right)$. Further, one can see that if $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ is a circulant matrix, then $\left[a_{0} a_{1} \ldots a_{n-1}\right]$ is the first row of $A$ if and only if $\gamma_{A}(x)=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\cdots+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$.

## Representer polynomial

Let $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ be a circulant matrix. Then, from Lemma 14 , there exists a unique polynomial $\gamma_{A}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ of degree $\leq n-1$, called the representer polynomial of $A$ such that $A=\gamma_{A}\left(W_{n}\right)$. Further, one can see that if $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ is a circulant matrix, then $\left[a_{0} a_{1} \ldots a_{n-1}\right]$ is the first row of $A$ if and only if $\gamma_{A}(x)=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\cdots+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$. Consequently, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of circulant matrices over $\mathbb{C}$ and the set of polynomials over $\mathbb{C}$ of degree $\leq n-1$.

## Representer polynomial

Let $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ be a circulant matrix. Then, from Lemma 14 , there exists a unique polynomial $\gamma_{A}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ of degree $\leq n-1$, called the representer polynomial of $A$ such that $A=\gamma_{A}\left(W_{n}\right)$. Further, one can see that if $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ is a circulant matrix, then $\left[a_{0} a_{1} \ldots a_{n-1}\right]$ is the first row of $A$ if and only if $\gamma_{A}(x)=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\cdots+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$. Consequently, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of circulant matrices over $\mathbb{C}$ and the set of polynomials over $\mathbb{C}$ of degree $\leq n-1$. In particular, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of 0,1 circulant matrices and the set of 0,1 -polynomials of degree $\leq n-1$.

## Eigenvalues of circulant graphs

Let $\zeta_{n}$ be the primitive $n$th root of unity, i.e., $\zeta_{n}^{n}=1$ but $\zeta_{n}^{k} \neq 1$, for $1 \leq k \leq n-1$.

## Eigenvalues of circulant graphs

Let $\zeta_{n}$ be the primitive $n$th root of unity, i.e., $\zeta_{n}^{n}=1$ but $\zeta_{n}^{k} \neq 1$, for $1 \leq k \leq n-1$.
Hence, verify that $W_{n}\left[\begin{array}{c}1 \\ \zeta_{n} \\ \vdots\end{array}\right]=\zeta_{n}\left[\begin{array}{c}1 \\ \zeta_{n} \\ \vdots\end{array}\right]$. Thus, one has the following result.

## Eigenvalues of circulant graphs

Let $\zeta_{n}$ be the primitive $n$th root of unity, i.e., $\zeta_{n}^{n}=1$ but $\zeta_{n}^{k} \neq 1$, for $1 \leq k \leq n-1$.
Hence, verify that $W_{n}\left[\begin{array}{c}1 \\ \zeta_{n} \\ \vdots \\ \zeta_{n}^{n-1}\end{array}\right]=\zeta_{n}\left[\begin{array}{c}1 \\ \zeta_{n} \\ \vdots \\ \zeta_{n}^{n-1}\end{array}\right]$
. Thus, one has the following result.

## Lemma

Let $A$ be a circulant matrix with representer polynomial $\gamma_{A}(x)$. Then, $A$ is diagonalizable with $\gamma_{A}\left(\zeta_{n}^{k}\right)$, for $0 \leq i \leq n-1$, as its eigenvalues.

Let $A$ be the adjacency matrix of the cycle graph $C_{n}$.

Let $A$ be the adjacency matrix of the cycle graph $C_{n}$. Then, $\gamma_{A}(x)=x+x^{n-1}$ is its representer polynomial and its eigenvalues are given by $\lambda_{r}=2 \cos \left(\frac{2 \pi r}{n}\right)$, for $r=0,1, \ldots, n-1$. It is easy to see that $\lambda_{r}=\lambda_{n-r}$ for $r=1, \ldots, n-1$.

Let $A$ be the adjacency matrix of the cycle graph $C_{n}$. Then, $\gamma_{A}(x)=x+x^{n-1}$ is its representer polynomial and its eigenvalues are given by $\lambda_{r}=2 \cos \left(\frac{2 \pi r}{n}\right)$, for $r=0,1, \ldots, n-1$. It is easy to see that $\lambda_{r}=\lambda_{n-r}$ for $r=1, \ldots, n-1$. As, the diameter of $C_{n}$ is $\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$, we see that $C_{n}$ has $\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor+1$ distinct eigenvalues and $\operatorname{dim}\left(\mathcal{A}\left(C_{n}\right)\right)=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor+1$. The following result shows that the cycle graph is a distance polynomial graph, i.e., its distance matrices belong to its adjacency algebra. In fact they form a basis of the adjacency algebra.

## Theorem

The Cycle graph is a distance polynomial graph.

## Theorem

The Cycle graph is a distance polynomial graph.

## Proof.

It is easy to check that for the cycle graph $C_{n}$, the distance matrices are $A_{i}=W_{n}^{i}+W_{n}^{n-i}$, for $1 \leq i<\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$. For $\tau=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$,

$$
A_{\tau}= \begin{cases}W_{n}^{\tau}, & \text { if } \mathrm{n} \text { is even } \\ W_{n}^{\tau}+W_{n}^{n-\tau}, & \text { if } \mathrm{n} \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

## Theorem

The Cycle graph is a distance polynomial graph.

## Proof.

It is easy to check that for the cycle graph $C_{n}$, the distance matrices are $A_{i}=W_{n}^{i}+W_{n}^{n-i}$, for $1 \leq i<\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$. For $\tau=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$,

$$
A_{\tau}= \begin{cases}W_{n}^{\tau}, & \text { if } \mathrm{n} \text { is even } \\ W_{n}^{\tau}+W_{n}^{n-\tau}, & \text { if } \mathrm{n} \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

The identity $\left(x^{k}+x^{-k}\right)=\left(x+x^{-1}\right)\left(x^{k-1}+x^{1-k}\right)-\left(x^{k-2}+x^{2-k}\right)$ enables us to establish readily by mathematical induction that $x^{k}+x^{-k}$ is a monic polynomial in $x+x^{-1}$ of degree $k$ with integral coefficients.

## Theorem

The Cycle graph is a distance polynomial graph.

## Proof.

It is easy to check that for the cycle graph $C_{n}$, the distance matrices are $A_{i}=W_{n}^{i}+W_{n}^{n-i}$, for $1 \leq i<\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$. For $\tau=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$,

$$
A_{\tau}= \begin{cases}W_{n}^{\tau}, & \text { if } \mathrm{n} \text { is even } \\ W_{n}^{\tau}+W_{n}^{n-\tau}, & \text { if } \mathrm{n} \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

The identity $\left(x^{k}+x^{-k}\right)=\left(x+x^{-1}\right)\left(x^{k-1}+x^{1-k}\right)-\left(x^{k-2}+x^{2-k}\right)$ enables us to establish readily by mathematical induction that $x^{k}+x^{-k}$ is a monic polynomial in $x+x^{-1}$ of degree $k$ with integral coefficients. Consequently, $A_{i}$ 's for $1 \leq i \leq \tau$ are polynomials of degree $\leq i$ in $A_{1}$ over $\mathbb{Q}$. Hence $\left\{A_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots, A_{\tau}\right\}$ is a basis for $\mathcal{A}\left(C_{n}\right)$.

The following result shows that every symmetric circulant matrix is a polynomial in the cycle graph. Hence, the eigenvalues of every circulant graph can be computed using the eigenvalues of $C_{n}$.

The following result shows that every symmetric circulant matrix is a polynomial in the cycle graph. Hence, the eigenvalues of every circulant graph can be computed using the eigenvalues of $C_{n}$.

## Theorem

Let $B \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Q})$. Then $B$ is symmetric circulant matrix if and only if $B \in \mathcal{A}\left(C_{n}\right)$.

The following result shows that every symmetric circulant matrix is a polynomial in the cycle graph. Hence, the eigenvalues of every circulant graph can be computed using the eigenvalues of $C_{n}$.

## Theorem

Let $B \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Q})$. Then $B$ is symmetric circulant matrix if and only if $B \in \mathcal{A}\left(C_{n}\right)$.

## Proof.

By the definition of the adjacency algebra of a graph, every element in $\mathcal{A}\left(C_{n}\right)$ is a symmetric circulant matrix. We now show that if $B$ is a symmetric circulant matrix, then $B \in \mathcal{A}\left(C_{n}\right)$.

The following result shows that every symmetric circulant matrix is a polynomial in the cycle graph. Hence, the eigenvalues of every circulant graph can be computed using the eigenvalues of $C_{n}$.

## Theorem

Let $B \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Q})$. Then $B$ is symmetric circulant matrix if and only if $B \in \mathcal{A}\left(C_{n}\right)$.

## Proof.

By the definition of the adjacency algebra of a graph, every element in $\mathcal{A}\left(C_{n}\right)$ is a symmetric circulant matrix. We now show that if $B$ is a symmetric circulant matrix, then $B \in \mathcal{A}\left(C_{n}\right)$.

Let $B$ be a symmetric circulant matrix with the representer polynomial $\gamma_{B}(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_{i} x^{i}$. Then $B=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_{i} W_{n}^{i}$ and $B^{T}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_{i} W_{n}^{n-i}$ Consequently $b_{i}=b_{n-i}$, for $1 \leq i \leq n-1$. Thus, $B=\sum_{i=0}^{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor} b_{i} A_{i}$ and hence, the required result follows.
A.K.Lal and A.Satyanarayana Reddy, Non-singular circulant graphs and digraphs, Electronic Journal of Linear Algebra, Volume 26,(2013), 248-257.

## Automorphism group of a graph $X$

The collection of all automorphisms of a graph $X$, denoted $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$, forms a group under composition of two maps.

## Automorphism group of a graph $X$

The collection of all automorphisms of a graph $X$, denoted $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$, forms a group under composition of two maps. If $X$ is graph on $n$ vertices then, $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$ is a subgroup of $\mathcal{S}_{n}$, the symmetric group on $n$ symbols.

## Automorphism group of a graph $X$

The collection of all automorphisms of a graph $X$, denoted $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$, forms a group under composition of two maps. If $X$ is graph on $n$ vertices then, $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$ is a subgroup of $\mathcal{S}_{n}$, the symmetric group on $n$ symbols. Under this correspondence, the maps in $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$ consist of $n \times n$ permutation matrices.

## Automorphism group of a graph $X$

The collection of all automorphisms of a graph $X$, denoted $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$, forms a group under composition of two maps. If $X$ is graph on $n$ vertices then, $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$ is a subgroup of $\mathcal{S}_{n}$, the symmetric group on $n$ symbols. Under this correspondence, the maps in $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$ consist of $n \times n$ permutation matrices. Also, for each $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ the corresponding permutation matrix is be denoted by $P_{g}$.

## Automorphism group of a graph $X$

The collection of all automorphisms of a graph $X$, denoted $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$, forms a group under composition of two maps. If $X$ is graph on $n$ vertices then, $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$ is a subgroup of $\mathcal{S}_{n}$, the symmetric group on $n$ symbols. Under this correspondence, the maps in $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$ consist of $n \times n$ permutation matrices. Also, for each $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ the corresponding permutation matrix is be denoted by $P_{g}$. Now, we state two results, one of which gives a method to check whether a given permutation matrix is an element of Aut $(X)$ or not and the other gives information about a few eigenvalues of $X$.

## $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ if and only if $P_{g} A=A P_{g}$

## Lemma

Let $A$ be the adjacency matrix of a graph $X$. Then $g \in A u t(X)$ if and only if $P_{g} A=A P_{g}$.

## Proof

## Proof.

Let $g$ be a permutation of $V(X)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$, and $g\left(v_{i}\right)=v_{h}, g\left(v_{j}\right)=v_{k}$.

## Proof

## Proof.

Let $g$ be a permutation of $V(X)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$, and $g\left(v_{i}\right)=v_{h}, g\left(v_{j}\right)=v_{k}$. As each row of $P_{g}$ has only one non-zero entry, namely 1 , one has $\left(P_{g} A\right)_{i k}=\sum_{t=1}^{n}\left(P_{g}\right)_{i t} A_{t k}=\left(P_{g}\right)_{i h} A_{h k}=A_{h k}$

## Proof

## Proof.

Let $g$ be a permutation of $V(X)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$, and $g\left(v_{i}\right)=v_{h}, g\left(v_{j}\right)=v_{k}$. As each row of $P_{g}$ has only one non-zero entry, namely 1 , one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(P_{g} A\right)_{i k}=\sum_{t=1}^{n}\left(P_{g}\right)_{i t} A_{t k}=\left(P_{g}\right)_{i h} A_{h k}=A_{h k} \\
& \quad\left(A P_{g}\right)_{i k}=\sum_{t=1}^{n} A_{i t}\left(P_{g}\right)_{t k}=A_{i j}\left(P_{g}\right)_{j k}=A_{i j}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Proof

## Proof.

Let $g$ be a permutation of $V(X)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$, and $g\left(v_{i}\right)=v_{h}, g\left(v_{j}\right)=v_{k}$. As each row of $P_{g}$ has only one non-zero entry, namely 1 , one has

$$
\left(P_{g} A\right)_{i k}=\sum_{t=1}^{n}\left(P_{g}\right)_{i t} A_{t k}=\left(P_{g}\right)_{i h} A_{h k}=A_{h k}
$$

$$
\left(A P_{g}\right)_{i k}=\sum_{t=1}^{n} A_{i t}\left(P_{g}\right)_{t k}=A_{i j}\left(P_{g}\right)_{j k}=A_{i j}
$$

$$
P_{g} A=A P_{g} \Leftrightarrow A_{h k}=A_{i j} \Leftrightarrow\left\{v_{h}, v_{k}\right\} \in E \text { if and only if }\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \in E
$$

$$
\Leftrightarrow g \text { is an automorphism of } X \text {. }
$$

## $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$

Now we will see few applications of above lemma $\left(P_{g} A=A P_{g}\right)$.

## $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$

Now we will see few applications of above lemma $\left(P_{g} A=A P_{g}\right)$.

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a graph. Then $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$

## $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$

Now we will see few applications of above lemma $\left(P_{g} A=A P_{g}\right)$.

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a graph. Then $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$

## Proof.

First note that a matrix $B$ commutes with $\mathbf{J}$ if its every row sum is equal to its every column sum.

## $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$

Now we will see few applications of above lemma ( $P_{g} A=A P_{g}$ ).

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a graph. Then $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$

## Proof.

First note that a matrix $B$ commutes with $\mathbf{J}$ if its every row sum is equal to its every column sum. Consequently every permutation matrix commutes with J.

## $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$

Now we will see few applications of above lemma $\left(P_{g} A=A P_{g}\right)$.

## Corollary

Let $X$ be a graph. Then $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$

## Proof.

First note that a matrix $B$ commutes with $\mathbf{J}$ if its every row sum is equal to its every column sum. Consequently every permutation matrix commutes with J. Hence

$$
P_{g} A=A P_{g} \Leftrightarrow P_{g}(\mathbf{J}-I-A)=(\mathbf{J}-I-A) P_{g} .
$$

## Vertex transitive graphs

A graph $X=(V, E)$ is said to be a vertex transitive (edge transitive) graph if Aut $(X)$ acts transitively on $V(E)$.

## Vertex transitive graphs

A graph $X=(V, E)$ is said to be a vertex transitive (edge transitive) graph if Aut $(X)$ acts transitively on $V(E)$. That is, for any two vertices $x, y \in V, x \neq y$ there exists $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ such that $g(x)=y$.

## Vertex transitive graphs

A graph $X=(V, E)$ is said to be a vertex transitive (edge transitive) graph if Aut $(X)$ acts transitively on $V(E)$. That is, for any two vertices $x, y \in V, x \neq y$ there exists $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ such that $g(x)=y$. For example, $\operatorname{Aut}\left(K_{n}\right) \cong \mathcal{S}_{n}$ and $\operatorname{Aut}\left(C_{n}\right) \cong \mathcal{D}_{n}$, hence the graphs $K_{n}$ and $C_{n}$ are vertex transitive.

## Vertex transitive graphs

A graph $X=(V, E)$ is said to be a vertex transitive (edge transitive) graph if Aut $(X)$ acts transitively on $V(E)$. That is, for any two vertices $x, y \in V, x \neq y$ there exists $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ such that $g(x)=y$. For example, $\operatorname{Aut}\left(K_{n}\right) \cong \mathcal{S}_{n}$ and $\operatorname{Aut}\left(C_{n}\right) \cong \mathcal{D}_{n}$, hence the graphs $K_{n}$ and $C_{n}$ are vertex transitive.

## Lemma

Let $X=(V, E)$ be a $k$-regular vertex transitive graph. If $\lambda$ is a simple eigenvalue of $X$ then, $\lambda$ equals $k$ if $|V|$ is odd, and is contained in $\{-k,-k+2, \ldots, k-2, k\}$, if $|V|$ is even.

## Cayley graph is vertex transitive

## Theorem

## Every Cayley graph is vertex transitive.

## Cayley graph is vertex transitive

## Theorem

## Every Cayley graph is vertex transitive.

## Proof.

Let $X=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ be a Cayley graph. Then, for every $g \in G$

$$
\{x, y\} \in E(X) \Leftrightarrow x y^{-1} \in S \Leftrightarrow(x g)(y g)^{-1} \in S \Leftrightarrow\{x g, y g\} \in E(X)
$$

## Cayley graph is vertex transitive

## Theorem

Every Cayley graph is vertex transitive.

## Proof.

Let $X=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ be a Cayley graph. Then, for every $g \in G$

$$
\{x, y\} \in E(X) \Leftrightarrow x y^{-1} \in S \Leftrightarrow(x g)(y g)^{-1} \in S \Leftrightarrow\{x g, y g\} \in E(X)
$$

Thus, $G \subseteq$ Aut $(X)$. Hence, if $a, b \in V=G$ then, the group element $a^{-1} b$ takes $a$ to b.

## Circulant digraph

We also recall that a digraph is called a circulant digraph if its adjacency matrix is a circulant matrix.

## Circulant digraph

We also recall that a digraph is called a circulant digraph if its adjacency matrix is a circulant matrix.

## Lemma

Let $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ denote the cyclic group of order $n$. Then, every Cayley digraph Cay $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}, S\right)$ is a circulant digraph. Conversely, every circulant digraph is Cay $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}, S\right)$ for some non-empty subset $S$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$.

## Circulant digraph

We also recall that a digraph is called a circulant digraph if its adjacency matrix is a circulant matrix.

## Lemma

Let $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ denote the cyclic group of order $n$. Then, every Cayley digraph Cay $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}, S\right)$ is a circulant digraph. Conversely, every circulant digraph is Cay $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}, S\right)$ for some non-empty subset $S$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$.

Hence every circulant graph is vertex transitive. Every vertex transitive graph is not a Cayley graph. But vertex transitive graph of prime order is circulant graph.

## Petersen graph is a vertex transitive but is not a Cayley graph

## Example

Show that the Petersen graph is a vertex transitive but is not a Cayley graph.

## Petersen graph is a vertex transitive but is not a Cayley graph

## Example

Show that the Petersen graph is a vertex transitive but is not a Cayley graph. Solution:The proof of the vertex transitivity is left as an exercise (use the first construction of the Petersen graph given in these notes).

## Petersen graph is a vertex transitive but is not a Cayley graph

## Example

Show that the Petersen graph is a vertex transitive but is not a Cayley graph. Solution:The proof of the vertex transitivity is left as an exercise (use the first construction of the Petersen graph given in these notes). It is known that up to isomorphism there are only two groups of order 10, namely, the Cyclic group and the Dihedral group. It is easy to verify that none of the cubic Cayley graphs obtained from these groups is isomorphic to the Petersen graph.

## Distance Transitive Graphs

## Definition

A graph $X$ is said to be distance transitive if for all vertices $u, v, x, y$ of $X$ with $d(u, v)=d(x, y)$, there is a $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ satisfying $g(u)=x$ and $g(v)=y$.

## Distance Transitive Graphs

## Definition

A graph $X$ is said to be distance transitive if for all vertices $u, v, x, y$ of $X$ with $d(u, v)=d(x, y)$, there is a $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ satisfying $g(u)=x$ and $g(v)=y$.

The distance transitive graphs are both vertex and edge transitive.

## Distance Transitive Graphs

## Definition

A graph $X$ is said to be distance transitive if for all vertices $u, v, x, y$ of $X$ with $d(u, v)=d(x, y)$, there is a $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ satisfying $g(u)=x$ and $g(v)=y$.

The distance transitive graphs are both vertex and edge transitive. Complete graphs $K_{n}$, cycle graphs $C_{n}$ and complete bipartite graphs $K_{m, n}$ with $m=n$ are a few examples of distance transitive graphs.

## Distance Transitive Graphs

## Definition

A graph $X$ is said to be distance transitive if for all vertices $u, v, x, y$ of $X$ with $d(u, v)=d(x, y)$, there is a $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ satisfying $g(u)=x$ and $g(v)=y$.

The distance transitive graphs are both vertex and edge transitive. Complete graphs $K_{n}$, cycle graphs $C_{n}$ and complete bipartite graphs $K_{m, n}$ with $m=n$ are a few examples of distance transitive graphs. There are a few class of graphs which attain the lower bound in the inequality $d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq n$. The class of distance transitive graphs are one among them.

## Distance Transitive Graphs

## Definition

A graph $X$ is said to be distance transitive if for all vertices $u, v, x, y$ of $X$ with $d(u, v)=d(x, y)$, there is a $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$ satisfying $g(u)=x$ and $g(v)=y$.

The distance transitive graphs are both vertex and edge transitive. Complete graphs $K_{n}$, cycle graphs $C_{n}$ and complete bipartite graphs $K_{m, n}$ with $m=n$ are a few examples of distance transitive graphs. There are a few class of graphs which attain the lower bound in the inequality $d+1 \leq \operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq n$. The class of distance transitive graphs are one among them.

## Theorem

Let $X$ be a distance transitive graph with diameter $d$. Then $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X))=d+1$.

## Orbital Matrices

In fact, in case of distance transitive graphs something more is true and to state it, we need the following definition.

## Orbital Matrices

In fact, in case of distance transitive graphs something more is true and to state it, we need the following definition.

## Definition

Let $G$ be a group acting on a non-empty set $V$. Then $G$ also acts on $V \times V$, by $g(x, y)=(g(x), g(y))$. For each fixed element $(u, v) \in V \times V$, the set $\operatorname{Orb}(u, v)=\{g(u, v): g \in G\}$ is called the orbit of $(u, v)$, under the action of $G$. The distinct orbits of $V \times V$ under the action of $G$ are called orbitals.

In the context of a graph $X=(V, E)$, the orbitals of $X$ are the distinct orbits of $E \subset V \times V$ under the action of $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$. That is, the orbitals are the orbits of the arcs/non-arcs of the graph $X$.

In the context of a graph $X=(V, E)$, the orbitals of $X$ are the distinct orbits of $E \subset V \times V$ under the action of $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$. That is, the orbitals are the orbits of the arcs/non-arcs of the graph $X$. The number of orbitals is called the rank of $X$. Note that, for each fixed $(u, v) \in V \times V$, we can associate a 0 , 1 -matrix, say $M=\left[m_{i j}\right]$, where $m_{i j}$ equals 1 , if $(i, j) \in \operatorname{Orb}(u, v)$ and 0 , otherwise.

In the context of a graph $X=(V, E)$, the orbitals of $X$ are the distinct orbits of $E \subset V \times V$ under the action of $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$. That is, the orbitals are the orbits of the arcs/non-arcs of the graph $X$. The number of orbitals is called the rank of $X$. Note that, for each fixed $(u, v) \in V \times V$, we can associate a 0 , 1 -matrix, say $M=\left[m_{i j}\right]$, where $m_{i j}$ equals 1 , if $(i, j) \in \operatorname{Orb}(u, v)$ and 0 , otherwise. The matrices obtained by the above method are called orbital matrices. Also, note that for any orbital matrix all its non-zero entries either appear on the main diagonal or they appear on off-diagonal as $g(v, v)=(g(v), g(v))$, for all $v \in V$ and $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$. The orbitals containing 1's on the diagonal will be called diagonal orbitals.

In the context of a graph $X=(V, E)$, the orbitals of $X$ are the distinct orbits of $E \subset V \times V$ under the action of $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$. That is, the orbitals are the orbits of the arcs/non-arcs of the graph $X$. The number of orbitals is called the rank of $X$. Note that, for each fixed $(u, v) \in V \times V$, we can associate a 0 , 1 -matrix, say $M=\left[m_{i j}\right]$, where $m_{i j}$ equals 1 , if $(i, j) \in \operatorname{Orb}(u, v)$ and 0 , otherwise. The matrices obtained by the above method are called orbital matrices. Also, note that for any orbital matrix all its non-zero entries either appear on the main diagonal or they appear on off-diagonal as $g(v, v)=(g(v), g(v))$, for all $v \in V$ and $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$. The orbitals containing 1's on the diagonal will be called diagonal orbitals.
If $X$ is a distance transitive graph then orbital matrices and the distance matrices defined earlier will coincide. Moreover, they form a basis for adjacency algebra $\mathcal{A}(X)$.

## Decomposition of $K_{p}$ as isomorphic copies of circulant digraphs

## Lemma

Let $p$ be a prime number and let $k$ be any factor of $p-1$. Then, the edge set of $K_{p}=\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}, E\right)$, the complete graph on $p$ vertices, can be partitioned into $k$ subsets $E_{1}, E_{2}, \ldots, E_{k}$ such that the digraphs $X_{i}=\left(V, E_{i}\right)$, for $1 \leq i \leq k$ are $r$-regular circulant digraphs, where $r=\frac{p-1}{k}$. Moreover, the digraphs $X_{i}$ and $X_{j}$ for $1 \leq i<j \leq k$ are isomorphic.

## Proof of first part

## Proof.

Let $\alpha$ be a generator of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$. Then $H=\left\langle\alpha^{k}\right\rangle=\left\{1, \alpha^{k}, \ldots, \alpha^{k(r-1)}\right\}$ is a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ having $r$ elements and let $H_{j}=\alpha^{j} H$ for $j=0,1, \ldots, k-1$ be the cosets of $H$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ with $H_{0}=H$.

## Proof of first part

## Proof.

Let $\alpha$ be a generator of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$. Then $H=\left\langle\alpha^{k}\right\rangle=\left\{1, \alpha^{k}, \ldots, \alpha^{k(r-1)}\right\}$ is a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ having $r$ elements and let $H_{j}=\alpha^{j} H$ for $j=0,1, \ldots, k-1$ be the cosets of $H$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ with $H_{0}=H$. It is important to note that $H_{j}$, as a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$, generates $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ for each $j=0,1, \ldots, k-1$.

## Proof of first part

## Proof.

Let $\alpha$ be a generator of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$. Then $H=\left\langle\alpha^{k}\right\rangle=\left\{1, \alpha^{k}, \ldots, \alpha^{k(r-1)}\right\}$ is a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ having $r$ elements and let $H_{j}=\alpha^{j} H$ for $j=0,1, \ldots, k-1$ be the cosets of $H$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ with $H_{0}=H$. It is important to note that $H_{j}$, as a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$, generates $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ for each $j=0,1, \ldots, k-1$. Now, define $A_{j}=\sum_{h \in H_{j}} W_{p}^{h}$ for $0 \leq j \leq k-1$. Then $A_{j}$ is a 0-1 circulant matrix.

## Proof of first part

## Proof.

Let $\alpha$ be a generator of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$. Then $H=\left\langle\alpha^{k}\right\rangle=\left\{1, \alpha^{k}, \ldots, \alpha^{k(r-1)}\right\}$ is a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ having $r$ elements and let $H_{j}=\alpha^{j} H$ for $j=0,1, \ldots, k-1$ be the cosets of $H$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ with $H_{0}=H$. It is important to note that $H_{j}$, as a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$, generates $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ for each $j=0,1, \ldots, k-1$. Now, define $A_{j}=\sum_{h \in H_{j}} W_{p}^{h}$ for $0 \leq j \leq k-1$. Then $A_{j}$ is a $0-1$ circulant matrix. Let us now define a digraph $X_{j}$ by taking $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ as its vertex set and for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_{p},(x, y)$ is an edge in $X_{j}$ if and only if $y-x \in H_{j}$. Then it is easy to verify that $X_{j}$ is the Cayley digraph, $\operatorname{Cay}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}, H_{j}\right)$.

## Proof of first part

## Proof.

Let $\alpha$ be a generator of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$. Then $H=\left\langle\alpha^{k}\right\rangle=\left\{1, \alpha^{k}, \ldots, \alpha^{k(r-1)}\right\}$ is a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ having $r$ elements and let $H_{j}=\alpha^{j} H$ for $j=0,1, \ldots, k-1$ be the cosets of $H$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ with $H_{0}=H$. It is important to note that $H_{j}$, as a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$, generates $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ for each $j=0,1, \ldots, k-1$. Now, define $A_{j}=\sum_{h \in H_{j}} W_{p}^{h}$ for $0 \leq j \leq k-1$. Then $A_{j}$ is a $0-1$ circulant matrix. Let us now define a digraph $X_{j}$ by taking $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ as its vertex set and for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_{p},(x, y)$ is an edge in $X_{j}$ if and only if $y-x \in H_{j}$. Then it is easy to verify that $X_{j}$ is the Cayley digraph, $\operatorname{Cay}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}, H_{j}\right)$.
Since the cosets $H_{j}$, for $0 \leq j \leq k-1$, are disjoint, one has obtained $k$ disjoint digraphs that are $r$-regular and this completes the proof of the first part.

## Proof of second part

## Proof.

We now need to show that the $k$ digraphs, $X_{j}$, for $0 \leq j \leq k-1$, are mutually isomorphic. We will do so by proving that the digraphs $X_{0}$ and $X_{j}$ are isomorphic, for $1 \leq j \leq k-1$.

## Proof of second part

## Proof.

We now need to show that the $k$ digraphs, $X_{j}$, for $0 \leq j \leq k-1$, are mutually isomorphic. We will do so by proving that the digraphs $X_{0}$ and $X_{j}$ are isomorphic, for $1 \leq j \leq k-1$. Let us define a map $\psi: V\left(X_{0}\right) \rightarrow V\left(X_{j}\right)$ by $\psi(s)=\alpha^{j} s$ for each $s \in V\left(X_{0}\right)$.

## Proof of second part

## Proof.

We now need to show that the $k$ digraphs, $X_{j}$, for $0 \leq j \leq k-1$, are mutually isomorphic. We will do so by proving that the digraphs $X_{0}$ and $X_{j}$ are isomorphic, for $1 \leq j \leq k-1$. Let us define a map $\psi: V\left(X_{0}\right) \rightarrow V\left(X_{j}\right)$ by $\psi(s)=\alpha^{j} s$ for each $s \in V\left(X_{0}\right)$. Then, it can be easily verified that $\psi$ is one-one and onto. Thus, we just need to show that $\psi((x, y))$ is an edge in $X_{j}$ if and only if $(x, y)$ is an edge in $X_{0}$. Or equivalently, we need to show that $\psi(x)-\psi(y) \in H_{j}$ if and only if $x-y \in H$. And this holds true as

$$
x-y \in H \Leftrightarrow \alpha^{j}(x-y) \in H_{j} \Leftrightarrow\left(\alpha^{j} x-\alpha^{j} y\right) \in H_{j} \Leftrightarrow \psi(x)-\psi(y) \in H_{j}
$$

This completes the proof of the lemma.

# Pattern Polynomial graphs 

## Hadamard Product

- Let $A, B \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$. Then the Hadamard product of $A=\left[a_{i j}\right]$ and $B=\left[b_{i j}\right]$, denoted $A \odot B$, is defined as $(A \odot B)_{i j}=a_{i j} b_{i j}$, for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$.


## Hadamard Product

- Let $A, B \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$. Then the Hadamard product of $A=\left[a_{i j}\right]$ and $B=\left[b_{i j}\right]$, denoted $A \odot B$, is defined as $(A \odot B)_{i j}=a_{i j} b_{i j}$, for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$.
- Two matrices $A, B \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ are said to be disjoint if their Hadamard product is the zero matrix.


## Hadamard Product

- Let $A, B \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$. Then the Hadamard product of $A=\left[a_{i j}\right]$ and $B=\left[b_{i j}\right]$, denoted $A \odot B$, is defined as $(A \odot B)_{i j}=a_{i j} b_{i j}$, for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$.
- Two matrices $A, B \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ are said to be disjoint if their Hadamard product is the zero matrix.
- Let $S$ be a non-empty subset of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$. Then $S$ is said to be closed under conjugate transposition if $A^{*} \in S$, for all $A \in S$


## Hadamard Product

- Let $A, B \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$. Then the Hadamard product of $A=\left[a_{i j}\right]$ and $B=\left[b_{i j}\right]$, denoted $A \odot B$, is defined as $(A \odot B)_{i j}=a_{i j} b_{i j}$, for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$.
- Two matrices $A, B \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ are said to be disjoint if their Hadamard product is the zero matrix.
- Let $S$ be a non-empty subset of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$. Then $S$ is said to be closed under conjugate transposition if $A^{*} \in S$, for all $A \in S$ and is said to be closed under Hadamard product if $A \odot B \in S$, whenever $A, B \in S$. We denote the matrices with entries either 0 or 1 as 0,1 -matrices.


## Hadamard Product

- Let $A, B \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$. Then the Hadamard product of $A=\left[a_{i j}\right]$ and $B=\left[b_{i j}\right]$, denoted $A \odot B$, is defined as $(A \odot B)_{i j}=a_{i j} b_{i j}$, for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$.
- Two matrices $A, B \in \mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ are said to be disjoint if their Hadamard product is the zero matrix.
- Let $S$ be a non-empty subset of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$. Then $S$ is said to be closed under conjugate transposition if $A^{*} \in S$, for all $A \in$ Sand is said to be closed under Hadamard product if $A \odot B \in S$, whenever $A, B \in S$. We denote the matrices with entries either 0 or 1 as 0 , 1-matrices.


## Theorem (Higman [2], Brouwer, Cohen \& Neumaier [4])

Let $\mathcal{M}$ be a vector subspace of symmetric $n \times n$ matrices. Then $\mathcal{M}$ has a basis of mutually disjoint 0,1 -matrices if and only if $\mathcal{M}$ is closed under Hadamard multiplication.

## Definition

A subalgebra of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ containing the matrices / (Identity matrix) and J (matrix with all entries being 1) is called a coherent algebra if it is closed under conjugate-transposition and Hadamard product.

## Definition

A subalgebra of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ containing the matrices / (Identity matrix) and J (matrix with all entries being 1 ) is called a coherent algebra if it is closed under conjugate-transposition and Hadamard product.

- $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ is the largest coherent algebra.


## Definition

A subalgebra of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ containing the matrices / (Identity matrix) and J (matrix with all entries being 1 ) is called a coherent algebra if it is closed under conjugate-transposition and Hadamard product.

- $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ is the largest coherent algebra.
- The minimal polynomial of $\mathbf{J}$ is $p_{\mathbf{J}}(x)=x(x-n)$.


## Definition

A subalgebra of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ containing the matrices / (Identity matrix) and J (matrix with all entries being 1 ) is called a coherent algebra if it is closed under conjugate-transposition and Hadamard product.

- $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ is the largest coherent algebra.
- The minimal polynomial of $\mathbf{J}$ is $p_{\mathbf{J}}(x)=x(x-n)$.
- Hence $\operatorname{dim}(\mathbb{C}[J])=2$.


## Definition

A subalgebra of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ containing the matrices / (Identity matrix) and J (matrix with all entries being 1) is called a coherent algebra if it is closed under conjugate-transposition and Hadamard product.

- $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ is the largest coherent algebra.
- The minimal polynomial of $\mathbf{J}$ is $p_{\mathbf{J}}(x)=x(x-n)$.
- Hence $\operatorname{dim}(\mathbb{C}[\mathbf{J}])=2$. Also, the set $\{I, \mathbf{J}-I\}$ is the mutually disjoint 0,1 -matrix basis for $\mathbb{C}[J]$.


## Definition

A subalgebra of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ containing the matrices / (Identity matrix) and J (matrix with all entries being 1) is called a coherent algebra if it is closed under conjugate-transposition and Hadamard product.

- $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ is the largest coherent algebra.
- The minimal polynomial of $\mathbf{J}$ is $p_{\mathbf{J}}(x)=x(x-n)$.
- Hence $\operatorname{dim}(\mathbb{C}[\mathbf{J}])=2$. Also, the set $\{I, \mathbf{J}-I\}$ is the mutually disjoint 0,1 -matrix basis for $\mathbb{C}[J]$.
- Thus, from Theorem 26, $\mathbb{C}[J]$ is a coherent algebra.


## Definition

A subalgebra of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ containing the matrices / (Identity matrix) and J (matrix with all entries being 1) is called a coherent algebra if it is closed under conjugate-transposition and Hadamard product.

- $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ is the largest coherent algebra.
- The minimal polynomial of $\mathbf{J}$ is $p_{\mathbf{J}}(x)=x(x-n)$.
- Hence $\operatorname{dim}(\mathbb{C}[J])=2$. Also, the set $\{I, \mathbf{J}-I\}$ is the mutually disjoint 0,1 -matrix basis for $\mathbb{C}[J]$.
- Thus, from Theorem 26, $\mathbb{C}[J]$ is a coherent algebra.
- As any coherent algebra contains both $/$ and $\mathbf{J}$, it is clear that $\mathbb{C}[\mathbf{J}]$ is the smallest coherent algebra.


## Definition

A subalgebra of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ containing the matrices / (Identity matrix) and J (matrix with all entries being 1) is called a coherent algebra if it is closed under conjugate-transposition and Hadamard product.

- $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ is the largest coherent algebra.
- The minimal polynomial of $\mathbf{J}$ is $p_{\mathbf{J}}(x)=x(x-n)$.
- Hence $\operatorname{dim}(\mathbb{C}[J])=2$. Also, the set $\{I, \mathbf{J}-I\}$ is the mutually disjoint 0,1 -matrix basis for $\mathbb{C}[J]$.
- Thus, from Theorem 26, $\mathbb{C}[J]$ is a coherent algebra.
- As any coherent algebra contains both $/$ and $\mathbf{J}$, it is clear that $\mathbb{C}[\mathbf{J}]$ is the smallest coherent algebra.
- Note that $\mathbb{C}[\mathbf{J}]=\mathbb{C}[\mathbf{J}-I]$ which is same as $\mathcal{A}\left(K_{n}\right)$.

Let $P(\neq I)$ be a permutation matrix. Then it is easy to check that the set of all matrices which commute with $P$ is a non-trivial example of a coherent algebra.

Let $P(\neq I)$ be a permutation matrix. Then it is easy to check that the set of all matrices which commute with $P$ is a non-trivial example of a coherent algebra. For example, let

$$
W_{n}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

The minimal polynomial of $W_{n}$ is $x^{n}-1=\prod_{d \mid n} \Phi_{d}(x)$

Let $P(\neq I)$ be a permutation matrix. Then it is easy to check that the set of all matrices which commute with $P$ is a non-trivial example of a coherent algebra. For example, let

$$
W_{n}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

The minimal polynomial of $W_{n}$ is $x^{n}-1=\prod_{d \mid n} \Phi_{d}(x)$ and
$\left\{I_{n}=W_{n}^{0}, W_{n}^{1}, W_{n}^{2}, \ldots, W_{n}^{n-1}\right\}$ forms a basis of $\mathbb{F}\left[W_{n}\right]$.

Let $P(\neq I)$ be a permutation matrix. Then it is easy to check that the set of all matrices which commute with $P$ is a non-trivial example of a coherent algebra. For example, let

$$
W_{n}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

The minimal polynomial of $W_{n}$ is $x^{n}-1=\prod_{d \mid n} \Phi_{d}(x)$ and
$\left\{I_{n}=W_{n}^{0}, W_{n}^{1}, W_{n}^{2}, \ldots, W_{n}^{n-1}\right\}$ forms a basis of $\mathbb{F}\left[W_{n}\right]$.
We already observed that $W_{n}$ is the adjacency matrix of a directed cycle.

## Coherent closure of $A$

- Let $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$, then coherent closure of $A$, denoted by $\langle\langle A\rangle\rangle$ or $\mathcal{C C}(A)$, is the smallest coherent algebra containing $A$.


## Coherent closure of $A$

- Let $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$, then coherent closure of $A$, denoted by $\langle\langle A\rangle\rangle$ or $\mathcal{C C}(A)$, is the smallest coherent algebra containing $A$.
- If $A$ is the adjacency matrix of a graph $X$ and $\mathbb{C}[A]=\mathcal{C C}(A)$, then $X$ will be called a pattern polynomial graph.


## Coherent closure of $A$

- Let $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$, then coherent closure of $A$, denoted by $\langle\langle A\rangle\rangle$ or $\mathcal{C C}(A)$, is the smallest coherent algebra containing $A$.
- If $A$ is the adjacency matrix of a graph $X$ and $\mathbb{C}[A]=\mathcal{C C}(A)$, then $X$ will be called a pattern polynomial graph.


## Pattern matrices of $A$

Let $\ell$ be the degree of the minimal polynomial of $A$. Then $\left\{I, A, \ldots, A^{\ell-1}\right\}$ is a basis of $\mathbb{C}[A]$.

## Pattern matrices of $A$

Let $\ell$ be the degree of the minimal polynomial of $A$. Then $\left\{I, A, \ldots, A^{\ell-1}\right\}$ is a basis of $\mathbb{C}[A]$.
Let $\mathbf{y}=\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{\ell-1}\right) \in \mathbb{C}^{\ell}$ be a vector in the indeterminates $y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{\ell-1}$ and let $B(\mathbf{y})=y_{0} I+y_{1} A+\cdots+y_{l-1} A^{\ell-1}=$

## Pattern matrices of $A$

Let $\ell$ be the degree of the minimal polynomial of $A$. Then $\left\{I, A, \ldots, A^{\ell-1}\right\}$ is a basis of $\mathbb{C}[A]$.
Let $\mathbf{y}=\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{\ell-1}\right) \in \mathbb{C}^{\ell}$ be a vector in the indeterminates $y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{\ell-1}$ and let $B(\mathbf{y})=y_{0} I+y_{1} A+\cdots+y_{I-1} A^{\ell-1}=$

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
p_{11}(\mathbf{y}) & p_{12}(\mathbf{y}) & \ldots & p_{1 n}(\mathbf{y}) \\
p_{21}(\mathbf{y}) & p_{22}(\mathbf{y}) & \ldots & p_{2 n}(\mathbf{y}) \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
p_{n 1}(\mathbf{y}) & p_{n 2}(\mathbf{y}) & \ldots & p_{n n}(\mathbf{y})
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $p_{i j}(\mathbf{y})=\sum_{k} y_{k}\left(A^{k}\right)_{i j}$ can be viewed as a linear polynomial in $\ell$ indeterminates $y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{\ell-1}$.

## $\mathcal{L}(A)$

Let us assume that $S=\left\{q_{1}(\mathbf{y}), q_{2}(\mathbf{y}), \ldots, q_{r}(\mathbf{y})\right\}$ is the set of distinct polynomials appearing as elements in the matrix $B(\mathbf{y})$. We now use the set $S$ to define $r$ matrices, $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{r}$, called the pattern matrices of $A$, by

$$
\left(P_{j}\right)_{s, t}= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } B(\mathbf{y})_{s, t}=p_{s t}(\mathbf{y})=q_{j}(\mathbf{y}) \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Then, we define $\mathcal{L}(A)$ as the linear subspace $L\left(P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{r}\right)$ of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$.

## Observation

Let the pattern matrices $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{r}$ be as defined above. Then
(1) $P_{i} \odot P_{j}=\mathbf{0}$, for $1 \leq i \neq j \leq r$ and $P_{i} \odot P_{i}=P_{i}$, for $1 \leq i \leq r$. Also, by definition, $I \in \mathcal{L}(A)$ and since $\sum_{i=1}^{r} P_{i}=\mathbf{J}, \mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{L}(A)$.
(2. Let $M, N \in \mathcal{L}(A)$. Then $M=\sum_{i=1}^{r} a_{i} P_{i}$ and $N=\sum_{i=1}^{r} b_{i} P_{i}$, for some $a_{i}, b_{i} \in \mathbb{C}$, $1 \leq i \leq r$. Therefore, by definition, $\left.M \odot N=\sum_{i=1}^{r} a_{i} b_{i} P_{i} \in \mathcal{L}(A)\right)$. Thus, $\mathcal{L}(A)$ is closed under Hadamard product.

## Observation

(1) $\mathcal{L}(A)$ is the smallest subspace of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ closed under Hadamard product and contains all powers of $A$. Consequently, $\mathbb{C}[A] \subseteq \mathcal{L}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{C C}(A)$ and $I \leq r$.
(2) Let $P_{i}^{T} \in\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{r}\right\}$ for all $i, 1 \leq i \leq r$. Then $\mathcal{L}(A)$ is also closed under conjugate transposition. In particular, if $A$ is symmetric, then all pattern matrices are symmetric and $\mathcal{L}(A)$ is closed under conjugate transposition.

## Observation

(1) $\mathcal{L}(A)$ is the smallest subspace of $\mathbb{M}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ closed under Hadamard product and contains all powers of $A$. Consequently, $\mathbb{C}[A] \subseteq \mathcal{L}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{C C}(A)$ and $I \leq r$.
(2) Let $P_{i}^{T} \in\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{r}\right\}$ for all $i, 1 \leq i \leq r$. Then $\mathcal{L}(A)$ is also closed under conjugate transposition. In particular, if $A$ is symmetric, then all pattern matrices are symmetric and $\mathcal{L}(A)$ is closed under conjugate transposition.

## Theorem

Let $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ be a symmetric matrix. Then $\mathbb{C}[A]=\mathcal{C C}(A)$ if and only if $\ell=r$.

Recall the following result stated earlier.

## Lemma (Hoffman [3])

A graph $X$ is connected and $k$-regular if and only if $\mathbf{J} \in \mathcal{A}(X)$. Moreover, in this case, $\mathbf{J}=\frac{n}{q(k)} q(A)$, where $(x-k) q(x)$ is the minimal polynomial of $A$.

## Properties of pattern polynomial graphs

If $X$ is a Pattern Polynomial graph then $X$ is a

- Connected regular graph.


## Properties of pattern polynomial graphs

If $X$ is a Pattern Polynomial graph then $X$ is a

- Connected regular graph.
- Distance polynomial graph.


## Properties of pattern polynomial graphs

If $X$ is a Pattern Polynomial graph then $X$ is a

- Connected regular graph.
- Distance polynomial graph.


## Properties of pattern polynomial graphs

If $X$ is a Pattern Polynomial graph then $X$ is a

- Connected regular graph.
- Distance polynomial graph.
- Walk regular graph.


## Properties of pattern polynomial graphs

If $X$ is a Pattern Polynomial graph then $X$ is a

- Connected regular graph.
- Distance polynomial graph.
- Walk regular graph.
- Every pattern polynomial graph except $K_{2}$ has at least one multiple eigenvalue.


## Properties of pattern polynomial graphs

If $X$ is a Pattern Polynomial graph then $X$ is a

- Connected regular graph.
- Distance polynomial graph.
- Walk regular graph.
- Every pattern polynomial graph except $K_{2}$ has at least one multiple eigenvalue.In particular, if $X$ is a pattern polynomial graph with odd number of vertices, then we show that $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{A}(X)) \leq \frac{n+1}{2}$.


## Some graph classes which are pattern polynomial

We proved that the following classes of graphs are pattern polynomial graphs.

- Orbit polynomial graphs.


## Some graph classes which are pattern polynomial

We proved that the following classes of graphs are pattern polynomial graphs.

- Orbit polynomial graphs.
- Distance regular graphs hence distance transitive graphs.


## Some graph classes which are pattern polynomial

We proved that the following classes of graphs are pattern polynomial graphs.

- Orbit polynomial graphs.
- Distance regular graphs hence distance transitive graphs.
- Connected compact regular graphs.


## Some graph classes which are pattern polynomial

We proved that the following classes of graphs are pattern polynomial graphs.

- Orbit polynomial graphs.
- Distance regular graphs hence distance transitive graphs.
- Connected compact regular graphs.


Figure: Graph classes

A graph $Y$ is said to be a polynomial in a graph $X$ if $A(Y) \in \mathcal{A}(X)$.

A graph $Y$ is said to be a polynomial in a graph $X$ if $A(Y) \in \mathcal{A}(X)$.For an arbitrary graph $X$ it seems difficult to find whether a given graph is polynomial in $X$ or not.

A graph $Y$ is said to be a polynomial in a graph $X$ if $A(Y) \in \mathcal{A}(X)$. For an arbitrary graph $X$ it seems difficult to find whether a given graph is polynomial in $X$ or not. But the problem is tractable in case when $X$ is a pattern polynomial graph.

A graph $Y$ is said to be a polynomial in a graph $X$ if $A(Y) \in \mathcal{A}(X)$.For an arbitrary graph $X$ it seems difficult to find whether a given graph is polynomial in $X$ or not. But the problem is tractable in case when $X$ is a pattern polynomial graph. The following result gives a necessary and sufficient condition for a given graph to be a polynomial in a pattern polynomial graph.

A graph $Y$ is said to be a polynomial in a graph $X$ if $A(Y) \in \mathcal{A}(X)$. For an arbitrary graph $X$ it seems difficult to find whether a given graph is polynomial in $X$ or not. But the problem is tractable in case when $X$ is a pattern polynomial graph. The following result gives a necessary and sufficient condition for a given graph to be a polynomial in a pattern polynomial graph. Which is also an extension of the results stated in [Robert A.Beezer [6]] and [Paul M.Weichsel [2]] on the polynomial of a graph.

## Theorem

Let $X$ be a pattern polynomial graph and let $\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{r}\right\}$ where $P_{1}=I$ be the standard basis of $\mathcal{A}(X)$. Then a graph $Y$ is a polynomial in $X$ if and only if $A(Y)=\sum_{i=2}^{r-1} a_{i} P_{i}$ where $a_{i} \in\{0,1\}$.

## Theorem

Let $X$ be a pattern polynomial graph and let $\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{r}\right\}$ where $P_{1}=I$ be the standard basis of $\mathcal{A}(X)$. Then a graph $Y$ is a polynomial in $X$ if and only if $A(Y)=\sum_{i=2}^{r-1} a_{i} P_{i}$ where $a_{i} \in\{0,1\}$.

## Corollary

There are $2^{r-1}$ graphs in the adjacency algebra of a pattern polynomial graph $X$, where $r$ is the degree of the minimal polynomial of $A(X)$.

## Lemma

Let a graph $Y$ be a polynomial in a pattern polynomial graph $X$, then $\mathcal{C C}(Y) \subseteq \mathcal{C C}(X)$.
If a graph $Y$ is a polynomial in a pattern polynomial graph $X$, then $\mathcal{C C}(Y)$ is a symmetric (every matrix in $\mathcal{C C}(Y)$ is symmetric) commutative algebra. Hence

- $Y$ is a walk regular graph.
- $Y$ is a strongly distance-balanced graph.
- $Y$ has a multiple eigenvalue, whenever $Y \neq K_{2}$.
- $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{C C}(Y)) \leq n$, . Further if the number of vertices in $Y$ is odd, then $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{C C}(Y)) \leq \frac{n+1}{2}$.

From the design theory point of view, a graph is a pattern polynomial graph, if its adjacency algebra is a Bose-Mesner algebra see the definition of Bose-Mesner algebra in the book by Brouwer, Cohen \& Neumaier [4] or in the original paper by Bose \& Mesner [3]. Consequently pattern polynomial graphs can be used to construct partially balanced incomplete block designs, for the definition of partially balanced incomplete block designs refer the book by Raghavarao [4].

In the above Figure 1, the sets a, b, c, ..., h represent connected regular graphs, distance polynomial graphs, pattern polynomial graphs, ..., coherent graphs, respectively.

In the above Figure 1, the sets a, b, c, ..., h represent connected regular graphs, distance polynomial graphs, pattern polynomial graphs, ..., coherent graphs, respectively.

- Recall the cycle graph $C_{4}$ on four vertices and the matrix $W_{4}$, the companion matrix of $x^{4}-1$. Then $\left\{I, W_{4}^{2}, J-I-W_{4}^{2}=W_{4}+W_{4}^{3}\right\}$ is the standard basis of $\mathcal{C C}\left(C_{4}\right)=\mathcal{C C}\left(C_{4}^{c}\right)$. Hence, $C_{4}^{c}$ is an example of a coherent graph that is not connected. Also, it can be easily checked that $C_{4}^{c}$ is neither a distance polynomial graph nor a pattern polynomial graph. Similarly, one can verify that $C_{6}^{c}$ is an example of a pattern polynomial graph that is not a coherent graph.
- Let $X$ be a connected circulant graph of prime order. Then $X$ is an orbit polynomial graph (see Beezer [4]). But $X$ need not be a compact graph (see Lemma 2.2 in [1]). Similarly all connected circulant graphs of prime order are not distance transitive (see Theorem 1.2 in [4]).
- Let $X$ be a connected circulant graph of prime order. Then $X$ is an orbit polynomial graph (see Beezer [4]). But $X$ need not be a compact graph (see Lemma 2.2 in [1]). Similarly all connected circulant graphs of prime order are not distance transitive (see Theorem 1.2 in [4]).
- Let $X$ be a compact graph. Then using the fact that $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$ it is easy to verify that $X$ is compact if and only if $X^{c}$ is compact. Thus, $C_{6}^{c}$ is an example of a compact connected regular graph that is not a distance transitive graph.
- Let $X$ be a connected circulant graph of prime order. Then $X$ is an orbit polynomial graph (see Beezer [4]). But $X$ need not be a compact graph (see Lemma 2.2 in [1]). Similarly all connected circulant graphs of prime order are not distance transitive (see Theorem 1.2 in [4]).
- Let $X$ be a compact graph. Then using the fact that $\operatorname{Aut}(X)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(X^{c}\right)$ it is easy to verify that $X$ is compact if and only if $X^{c}$ is compact. Thus, $C_{6}^{c}$ is an example of a compact connected regular graph that is not a distance transitive graph.
- Let $X$ be the line graph of the complete graph $K_{n}$, for $n \geq 7$. Then $X$ is a distance transitive graph but not a compact graph for details refer Godsil [1].
- Let $X$ be a distance transitive graph. Then it is easy to see that $X$ is a distance regular graph. But, the well known Shrikhande graph (see Figure 3) is a distance regular graph that is not an orbit polynomial graph. Hence, the Shrikhande graph is also not a distance transitive graph. In fact, there are many distance regular graphs whose automorphism group is trivial (see Spence [3] or Weisfeiler [4]).
- Let $X$ be a distance transitive graph. Then it is easy to see that $X$ is a distance regular graph. But, the well known Shrikhande graph (see Figure 3) is a distance regular graph that is not an orbit polynomial graph. Hence, the Shrikhande graph is also not a distance transitive graph. In fact, there are many distance regular graphs whose automorphism group is trivial (see Spence [3] or Weisfeiler [4]).
- The truncated tetrahedron graph (see Figure 82) is an example of a connected regular graph that is not a distance polynomial graph (for details, see Weichsel [2]). But, if we assume that $X$ is a $k$-regular connected graph with diameter 2 then $X$ is clearly a distance polynomial graph $\left(A_{2}(X)=\mathbf{J}-I-A\right)$.
- Let $X$ be the truncated tetrahedron graph (see Figure 82). Then observe that $X^{c}$ is a connected regular graph of diameter 2 . Hence, $X^{c}$ is an example of a distance polynomial graph, that is not a pattern polynomial graph.
- Let $X$ be the truncated tetrahedron graph (see Figure 82 ). Then observe that $X^{c}$ is a connected regular graph of diameter 2 . Hence, $X^{c}$ is an example of a distance polynomial graph, that is not a pattern polynomial graph.
- Let $X$ be a distance regular graph of diameter $\geq 3$ having trivial automorphism group (for examples of such graphs, see Spence [3] or Weisfeiler [4]). Also assume that $X^{c}$ is connected. Then, using $X^{c}$ is a pattern polynomial graph. But then the diameter of $X$ is $\geq 3$ implies that $X^{c}$ is not a coherent graph and thus $X^{c}$ is not a distance regular graph. Also, $X^{c}$ is not an orbit polynomial graph as automorphism group of $X$ is trivial. Consequently, $X^{c}$ is an example of a pattern polynomial graph that is neither a distance regular graph nor an orbit polynomial graph.


Figure: Truncated Tetrahedron Graph


Figure: Shrikhande Graph

Now it is interesting to answer the following question: If $Y$ is a graph such that $\mathcal{C C}(Y)$ is symmetric commutative algebra, then "does there exist a pattern polynomial graph $X$ such that $Y$ is a polynomial in $X$ ?". For example, if $Y$ is a circulant graph (Cayley graph on cyclic group) with $n$ vertices, then clearly $\mathcal{C C}(Y)$ is symmetric commutative algebra and it is also known that $Y$ is a polynomial in cycle graph $C_{n}$, which is a pattern polynomial graph.

Let $X=(V, E)$ be a graph on $n$ vertices and let $A$ be its adjacency matrix.
(1) Coherent Graph: A graph $X$ is said to be a coherent graph if its adjacency matrix is a member of the standard basis of $\mathcal{C C}(X)$.
(2) Compact Graph: A graph $X$ is said to be a compact graph if every doubly stochastic matrix that commutes with $A$ is a convex combination of matrices from Aut $(X)$.
(3) Distance Polynomial Graph: Let $X$ be a connected graph with diameter $d$ and let $A_{k}(X)$, for $0 \leq k \leq d$, be the $k$-th distance matrix of $X$. Then $X$ is said to be a distance polynomial graph if $A_{k}(X) \in \mathcal{A}(X)$, for $0 \leq k \leq d$.
(1) Distance Regular Graph: A connected graph $X$ is said to be a distance regular graph if for any two vertices $u, v$ of $X$, the number of vertices at distance $i$ from $u$ and distance $j$ from $v$ depends only on $i, j$ and $d(u, v)$, the distance between $u$ and $v$.
(2) Distance Transitive Graph: A graph $X$ is said to be a distance transitive graph if for any four vertices $u, v, x$ and $y$ of $X$ with $d(u, v)=d(x, y)$, there exists an element $g \in \operatorname{Aut}(X)$, such that $g(u)=x$ and $g(v)=y$.
(3) Edge Regular Graph: A graph $X$ is said to be an edge-regular graph if every pair of adjacent vertices of $X$ have the same number of common neighbors.
(1) Orbit Polynomial Graph: A graph $X$ is said to be an orbit polynomial graph if each orbital matrix is a member of $\mathcal{A}(X)$.
(2) Pattern Polynomial Graph: A graph $X$ is said to be a pattern polynomial graph if $\mathcal{A}(X)=\mathcal{C C}(X)$.
(3) Walk Regular Graph: A graph $X$ is said to be a walk-regular graph if for each s, the number of closed walks of length $s$, starting at a vertex $v$, is independent of the choice of $v$.

## List of papers related to this work

(1) A.K.Lal and A.Satyanarayana Reddy, Non-singular circulant graphs and digraphs, Electronic Journal of Linear Algebra, Volume 26,(2013), 248-257.
(2) A.Satyanarayana Reddy, Shashank K Mehta and A.K.Lal, Representation of Cyclotomic Fields and their Subfields, Indian J. Pure Appl. Math., 44(2)(2013),203-230.
(3) A.Satyanarayana Reddy, Adjacency Algebra of Unitary Cayley Graph, Journal of Global Research in Mathematical Archives, Vol 1, Issue 1(2013), 77-84.
(9) A.Satyanarayana Reddy, Few Non-derogatory Directed Graphs from Directed Cycles, International Journal of Graph Theory, Vol 1,Issue 2(2013), 41-53.
(5) A.Satyanarayana Reddy Respectable Graphs, International Journal of Mathematical Combinatorics, Vol. 2 (2011),104-110.

圊 Tom M．Apostol，Introduction to Analytic Number theory，Springer－Verlag，New York，（1976）．

圊 M．Artin，Algebra，Prentice Hall India，New Delhi，（1996）．
R R．B．Bapat，Graphs and Matrices，Springer，（2010）．
囯 Robert A．Beezer，Orbit polynomial graphs of prime order，Discrete Mathematics 67 139－147（1987）．

围 Robert A．Beezer，Trivalent orbit polynomial graphs，Linear Algebra and its Applications Volume 73，Pages 133－146（1986）．

囯 Robert A．Beezer，On the polynomial of a path，Linear Algebra and its Applications Volume 63，221－225（1984）．

Robert A. Beezer, A disrespectful polynomial, Linear Algebra and its Applications, Volume 128, Pages 139-146(1990).

囦 N. L. Biggs, Algebraic Graph Theory (second edition), Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, (1993).
R. C. Bose, D. M. Mesner, On linear associative algebras corresponding to association schemes of partially balanced designs, Annals of Mathematical Statistics 30 (1): 21-38(1959).

图 A. E. Brouwer, A. M. Cohen, A. Neumaier, Distance regular Graphs, Springer-Verlag,(1989).

婳 Dragoš M. Cvetković, Michael Doob and Horst Sachs, Spectra of graphs theory and applications, VEB Deutscher Verlag d. Wiss., Berlin, 1979; Acad. Press, New York, (1979).

R R. M. Damerell, On Moore graphs, Proc. Camb Phil. Soc, sec.74, 227-236(1973).
围 Philip J. Davis, Circulant matrices, A Wiley-Interscience publications, (1979).

- Michael Doob, Circulant graphs with $\operatorname{det}(-A(G))=-\operatorname{deg}(G)$ : codeterminants with $K_{n}$, Linear algebra and its applications, 340: 87-96 (2002).
Ravid S. Dummit and Richard M. Foote, Abstract Algebra (second edition), John Wiley and Sons, (2002).

嗇 Michael Filaseta and Andrzej Schinzel，On Testing the Divisibility of Lacunary Polynomials by Cyclotomic Polynomials，Mathematics of Computation，Vol．73， No．246，pp．957－965，（2004）．

围 D．Geller，I．Kra，S．Popescu and S．Simanca，On circulant matrices， （http：／／www．math．sunysb．edu／sorin／eprints／circulant．pdf）
R Chris D．Godsil \＆Gordon Royle，Algebraic Graph Theory，Springer－Verlag，（2001）．
围 Chris．D．Godsil，Eigenvalues of Graphs and Digraphs，LAA，vol．46，43－50（1982）．
Chris．D．Godsil and B．D．McKay，Feasibility conditions for the existence of walk－regular graphs，Linear algebra and its applications 30：51－61（1980）．

- Chris D. Godsil, Compact graphs and equitable partitions, Linear algebra and applications, 255:259-266 (1997).
圊 D. G. Higman, Coherent algebras, LAA 93: 209-239 (1987).
A. J. Hoffman On the polynomial of a graph, The American Mathematical Monthly, Vol. 70, No. 1 , pp. 30-36 (1963).
囯 A. J. Hoffman and M. H. McAndrew, The Polynomial of a Directed Graph, Proceedings of the American Mathematical Society, Vol. 16, No. 2, 303-309(1965).

Renneth Hoffman and Ray Kunge, Linear Algebra (second edition), Prentice-Hall, (1971).

圊 M．Klin，C．Rücker and G．Rücker，G．Tinhofer，Algebraic Combinatorics in Mathematical Chemistry．Methods and Algorithms，Match，Vol．40，pp． 7－138（1999）．

國 Mikhail Klin，Mikhail Muzychuk \＆Matan Ziv－Av，Higmanian Rank－5 Association Schemes on 40 Points，Michigan Math．J．Volume 58，Issue 1，255－284（2009）．

圊 M．Klin，A．Munemasa，M．Muzychuk \＆P．－H．Zieschang，Directed strongly regular graphs via coherent（cellular）algebras，Preprint，Kyushu－MPS－1997－ 12，Kyushu University，Fukuoka，Japan，p．57（（1997）．

囯 R．P．Kurshan and A．M．Odlyzko，Values of cyclotomic polynomials at roots of unity Math．Scand．49，15－35（1981）．
( Pieter Moree and Huib Hommerson, Value distribution of Ramanujan sums and of cyclotomic polynomial coefficients, arXiv:math/0307352v1 [math.NT] 27 Jul 2003.

婳 M. Peterdorf and H. Sachs, Spektrum und automorphismemengruppe eines Graphen, combinatorial theory and its applications, III (North-Holland, Amsterdam), pp.891-907 (1969).
围 Victor V. Prasolov, Polynomials, Springer, (2001).
Raghavarao, Constructions and combinatorial problems in Design of Experiments, Wiley, New York (1971).
Leonor Aquino-Ruivivar, Singular and Nonsingular Circulant Graphs, Journal of Research in Science, Computing and Engineering (JRSCE), Vol. 3 No. 3 (2006).

R．R．Searle，On inverting circulant matrices，Linear algebra and its applications， 25：77－89（1979）．

嗇 Sergio Cabello and Primož Lukšič，The complexity of obtaining a distance－balanced graph，The electronic journal of combinatorics 18，P49（2011）．

圊 E．Spence，Regular two－graphs on 36 vertices，Linear Alg．Appl．226－228；， 459－497（1995）．

居 Štefko Miklavič and Primož Potočnik，Distance－regular circulants，European Journal of Combinatorics 24 （2003）777－784．
目 John P．Steinberger，Minimal Vanishing Sums of Roots of Unity with Large Coefficients，Proc．London Math．Soc．，（3）97，689－717，（2008）．

國 James Turner, Point-symmetric graphs with a prime number of points, Journal of Combinatorial theory, vol. 3, 136-145 (1967).
© Paul M. Weichsel, On distance-regularity in graphs, Journal of combinatorial theory, Series B 32, 156-161 (1982).

- Paul M. Weichsel, Polynomials on graphs, Linear algebra and its applications 93:179-186 (1987).

囯 Boris Weisfeiler, On Construction and Identification of Graphs, Lecture Notes in Mathematics, Springer, New York, (1976).

# Thank you satya8118@gmail.com 

