

## GENERALIZED HADAMARD MATRICES

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**1. Introduction.** A square matrix  $H$  of order  $h$  all of whose elements are  $p$ th roots of unity is called a *Hadamard matrix* ( $H(p, h)$  matrix) if  $HH^{CT} = hI$ . It is known [4] that  $H(2, h)$  matrices can exist only for values  $h = 2$  and  $h = 4t$ , where  $t$  is a positive integer. Although it has been conjectured that  $H(2, 4t)$  matrices exist for all positive integers  $t$ , their existence has been established [1; 3; 4; 5; 6; 7] for only the following values of  $h$ , where  $q$  denotes an odd prime:

$$(1.1) \quad h = 2^k;$$

$$(1.2) \quad h = q^k + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{4};$$

$$(1.3) \quad h = h_1(q^k + 1) \text{ where } h_1 \geq 2 \text{ is the order of an } H(2, h) \text{ matrix};$$

$$(1.4) \quad h = h^*(h^* - 1) \text{ where } h^* \text{ is a product of numbers of forms (1.1) and (1.2);}$$

$$(1.5) \quad h = 172;$$

$$(1.6) \quad h = h^*(h^* + 3) \text{ where } h^* \text{ and } h^* + 4 \text{ both are products of numbers of forms (1.1) and (1.2);}$$

$$(1.7) \quad h = h_1 h_2 (q^k + 1) q^k \text{ where } h_1 \geq 2, h_2 \geq 2 \text{ are orders of } H(2, h) \text{ matrices;}$$

$$(1.8) \quad h = h_1 h_2 s (s + 3) \text{ where } h_1 \geq 2, h_2 \geq 2 \text{ are orders of } H(2, h) \text{ matrices and where } s \text{ and } s + 4 \text{ both are of the form } q^k + 1;$$

$$(1.9) \quad h = (r + 1)^2 \text{ where both } r \text{ and } r + 2 \text{ are prime or prime powers;}$$

$$(1.10) \quad h \text{ is a product of numbers of the forms (1.1)–(1.9).}$$

This list is taken from [2].

This paper is concerned with  $H(p, h)$  matrices when  $p > 2$ . The main result is the construction of  $H(p, 2^m p^k)$  matrices where  $p$  is a prime and  $m \leq k$  are non-negative integers.

**2. Elementary properties.** Some easily established results concerning  $H(p, h)$  matrices which will be used in the sequel are the following:

(2.1) The requirement that  $HH^{CT} = hI$  is equivalent to the requirement that  $H^{CT}H = hI$ ; i.e., the orthogonality of any two rows of  $H$  is equivalent to the orthogonality of any two columns of  $H$ .

(2.2) A permutation of the rows (columns) and multiplication of the elements of a row (column) by a fixed  $p$ th root of unity are elementary operations which leave invariant the Hadamard property.

(2.3) An  $H(p, h)$  matrix can always be reduced to the standard form in which the initial row and column contain only the root 1.

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<sup>1</sup> It was noted by the referee that this result is known, and may be found in R. E. Bellman's *Introduction to matrix analysis*, McGraw-Hill, 1960, p. 27, problem 13.

(2.4) If  $H = (h_{ij})$  is an  $H(p, h)$  matrix in standard form, then

$$\sum_{j=1}^h h_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^h h_{ij}^C = 0, \quad i = 2, 3, \dots, h;$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^h h_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^h h_{ij}^C = 0, \quad j = 2, 3, \dots, h.$$

(2.5) If  $H_1$  is an  $H(p_1, h_1)$  matrix,  $H_2$  is an  $H(p_2, h_2)$  matrix,  $h = h_1 h_2$ , and  $p = \text{l.c.m.}(p_1, p_2)$ , then  $H_1 \otimes H_2$  is an  $H(p, h)$  matrix.

(2.6) If  $H_1$  is an  $H(p_1, h)$  matrix,  $\gamma$  is a primitive  $p_2$ th root of unity, and  $p = \text{l.c.m.}(p_1, p_2)$ , then  $\gamma H_1$  is an  $H(p, h)$  matrix.

**3. Construction of  $H(p, h)$  matrices.** Throughout the remainder of this paper  $H$  will denote an  $H(p, h)$  matrix in standard form and  $\gamma$  a fixed primitive  $p$ th root of unity.

When  $p$  is a prime, the requirement (2.4) that  $\sum_{j=1}^h h_{2j} = 0$  can be written in the form  $\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} k_j \gamma^j = 0$ , where the  $k_j$  are non-negative integers satisfying  $\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} k_j = h$ . Using  $1 = -\sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \gamma^j$ , the condition becomes  $\sum_{j=1}^{p-1} (k_j - k_0) \gamma^j = 0$ , where  $\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} k_j = h$ . Since  $\gamma, \gamma^2, \dots, \gamma^{p-1}$  are independent over the rational field, it is necessary that  $k_j = k_0$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, p-1$ . Hence  $pk_0 = h$  and the following result has been established.

**THEOREM 3.1.** *When  $p$  is a prime, an  $H(p, h)$  matrix can exist only for values  $h = pt$ , where  $t$  is a positive integer.*

The necessary condition that  $h = 2$  or  $h = 4t$  for  $H(2, h)$  matrices has two obvious possible analogues for  $H(p, h)$  matrices when  $p$  is a prime; namely,  $h = p$  or  $h = p^2 t$  and  $h = p$  or  $h = 2pt$ . Results to follow in this section show that neither of these is necessary. The condition in the above theorem is the most stringent that has been obtained; and when  $p$  is not a prime, even this is not necessary as the following immediate consequence of (2.6) shows.

**THEOREM 3.2.** *It is possible to construct  $H(2p, h)$  matrices for  $p$  arbitrary and  $h$  any value described in (1.1)–(1.10).*

By using (2.6) an  $H(p, h)$  matrix can be constructed from an  $H(p_1, h)$  matrix, where  $p_1$  is a divisor of  $p$ . Such an  $H(p, h)$  matrix can obviously be reduced by the elementary operations (2.2) to an  $H(p_1, h)$  matrix; and, consequently, is considered as trivial.

Now let  $V$  be the matrix defined by  $v_{ij} = \gamma^{ij}, i, j = 0, 1, \dots, p-1$ . Then  $\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} v_{ij} \gamma^j = \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \gamma^{(i-k)j}$ . When  $i = k$ , then  $\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \gamma^{(i-k)j} = p$ . Suppose  $i \neq k$ . If  $(i - k, p) = 1$ , then  $\gamma^{i-k}$  is a primitive  $p$ th root of

unity and  $\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \gamma^{(i-k)j} = 0$ . If  $(i-k, p) = d$  where  $d > 1$ , let  $p = p_1 d$  and  $i-k = i_1 d$ . Then  $(i-k)p_1 = i_1 d p_1 = i_1 p \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , so that  $\gamma^{i-k}$  is a  $p_1$ th root of unity. In this case  $\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \gamma^{(i-k)j} = d \sum_{j=0}^{p_1-1} \gamma^{(i-k)j} = 0$ . This establishes the following theorem.

**THEOREM 3.3.** *The Vandermonde matrix  $V$  defined by  $v_{ij} = \gamma^{ij}$ ,  $i, j = 0, 1, \dots, p-1$ , is a symmetric  $H(p, p)$  matrix.<sup>1</sup>*

If  $p = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$ , where the  $p_j$  are distinct prime powers,  $\gamma_j$  is a primitive  $p_j$ th root of unity, and  $V_j$  the corresponding Vandermonde matrix, then permutation matrices  $P$  and  $Q$  exist such that  $V = P(V_1 \otimes V_2 \otimes \dots \otimes V_r)Q$ . However,  $V_j$  can not be so decomposed, so it would not have been sufficient to have proven the above theorem for  $p$  a prime.

Suppose  $p$  is odd, say  $p = 2q + 1$ , and let  $n$  be the smallest quadratic nonresidue of  $p$ . Denote by  $U$  that permutation matrix such that  $W = VU$  has elements  $w_{ij} = \gamma^{nij}$ ,  $i, j = 0, 1, \dots, p-1$ . Define the matrix  $Q$  by  $q_{ij} = 0$  for  $i \neq j$  and  $q_{ii} = \gamma^{ai^2}$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, p-1$ . Then  $C = QVQ$  and  $B = Q^n W Q^n$  are, by (2.2),  $H(p, p)$  matrices. Using  $-2q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , it is easy to see that  $c_{ij} = \gamma^{a(i-j)^2}$  and  $b_{ij} = \gamma^{na(i-j)^2}$ . Obviously now,  $c_{ij} = c_{i+k, j+k}$  and  $b_{ij} = b_{i+k, j+k}$  for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, p-1$ , so that  $C$  and  $B$  are cyclic matrices. Furthermore,  $C$  and  $B$  are symmetric matrices, and each contains at most  $q+1$  distinct  $p$ th roots of unity.

Defining the product of two rows  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  of  $V$  to be that vector obtained by multiplying (mod  $p$ ) the corresponding components of the two rows, it is noted that  $v_i v_j = v_{i+j}$ , so that the rows of  $V$  form a cyclic group with generator  $v_1$ . Similarly, the columns of  $V$ , the rows of  $W$ , and the columns of  $W$  all form cyclic groups with generators  $v_1^T, w_1 = v_n$ , and  $w_1^T = v_n^T$ , respectively. From this observation it easily follows that  $D^k V = V T^k$  and  $D^{nk} W = W T^k$ , where  $D$  is the matrix defined by  $d_{ij} = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ , and  $d_{ii} = \gamma^i$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, p-1$ , and  $T$  is the permutation matrix defined by  $t_{i+1, i} = 1$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, p-1$  and  $t_{ij} = 0$  otherwise.

Let  $Y = (11 \dots 1)$  and  $Z = (00 \dots 0)$ , both of length  $p$ . Then the  $k$ th column of  $B$  can be written in the form  $T^k Q^n Y^T$ , and the  $k$ th column of  $CP$  in the form  $T^{kn} Q Y^T$ . It will now be easy to prove the following construction theorem.

**THEOREM 3.4.** *When  $p$  is a prime, an  $H(p, 2p)$  matrix can be constructed.*

The procedure will be to show that the matrix

$$K = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} QV & Q^nW \\ \hline (CP)^{CT} & B^{CT} \end{array} \right)$$

is an  $H(p, 2p)$  matrix. First it is noted that  $CY^T = (YQY^T)Y^T$  and  $BY^T = (YQ^nY^T)Y^T$ . When  $p = 2q + 1$  is prime, there are  $q$  quadratic residues and  $q$  quadratic nonresidues of  $p$ . Consequently,

$$YQY^T + YQ^nY^T = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \gamma^{qi^2} + \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \gamma^{nqi^2} = 2 \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \gamma^{qj} = 0.$$

Thus  $CY^T + BY^T = Z^T$ . Now  $KK^{CT}$  in block form is

$$\left( \begin{array}{c|c} (QV)(QV)^{CT} + (Q^nW)(Q^nW)^{CT} & (QV)(CP) + (Q^nW)B \\ \hline (CP)^{CT}(QV)^{CT} + B^{CT}(Q^nW)^{CT} & (CP)^{CT}(CP) + B^{CT}B \end{array} \right).$$

By (2.2),  $QV$ ,  $Q^nW$ ,  $CP$ , and  $B$  are all  $H(p, p)$  matrices. Thus  $(QV)(QV)^{CT} + (Q^nW)(Q^nW)^{CT} = (CP)^{CT}(CP) + B^{CT}B = 2pI_p$ . Now consider  $(QV)(CP) + (Q^nW)B$ . Using the fact that the  $k$ th columns of  $CP$  and  $B$  can be written as  $T^{kn}QY^T$  and  $T^kQ^nY^T$ , respectively, the  $k$ th column of  $(QV)(CP) + (Q^nW)B$  is then given by

$$\begin{aligned} QVT^{kn}QY^T + Q^nWT^kQ^nY^T &= D^{kn}QVQY^T + D^{kn}Q^nWQ^nY^T \\ &= D^{kn}(CY^T + BY^T) = D^{kn}Z^T = Z^T. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $(QV)(CP) + (Q^nW)B$  and its conjugate transpose  $(CP)^{CT}(QV)^{CT} + B^{CT}(Q^nW)^{CT}$  are both 0. Thus  $KK^{CT} = 2pI_{2p}$  and the theorem is proven. An immediate consequence of this theorem and (2.5) is now stated.

**THEOREM 3.5.** *When  $p$  is a prime,  $H(p, 2^m p^k)$  matrices can be constructed for any non-negative integers  $m \leq k$ .*

All the preceding results on the construction of  $H(p, h)$  matrices are summarized in the following theorem.

**THEOREM 3.6.** *Let  $p = 2^{k_0} p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \cdots p_r^{k_r}$  be the factorization of  $p$  into powers of distinct primes. If  $k_0 = 0$ , then  $H(p, h_1)$  matrices can be constructed for  $h_1 = 2^{j_0} p_1^{j_1} p_2^{j_2} \cdots p_r^{j_r}$ , where  $j_i \geq 0$ ,  $i = 0, 1, \dots, r$ ;  $j_i > 0$  for at least one  $i > 0$ ; and  $j_0 \leq \sum_{i=1}^r j_i$ . If  $k_0 \neq 0$ , then  $H(p, h_4)$  matrices can be constructed for  $h_4 = h_2 h_3$ , where  $h_2$  is 1 or the order of any  $H(2, h)$  matrix, and  $h_3$  is 1 or any value of  $h_1$ .*

**4. Remarks.** Let the matrix obtained from  $H$  by deleting the initial row and column of 1's be called the core of  $H$ . Let  $\pi$  be a primitive root of the prime  $p$ . Then there exists a permutation matrix  $P$  such

that the core of  $PVP$  is the cyclic matrix whose rows are all the cyclic permutations of  $(\gamma^r \gamma^{r^2} \cdots \gamma^{r^{p-1}})$ . The rows of  $PVP$  obviously form a group. In a subsequent paper the connection between an  $H(p, p^n)$  matrix whose rows form a group and whose core is cyclic, a maximal length linear recurring sequence with elements in  $GF(p)$ , and a “relative” difference set will be shown. One consequence of this connection is the following theorem.

**THEOREM 4.1.** *For any prime  $p$  and any positive integer  $n$ , an  $H(p, p^n)$  matrix whose rows form a group and whose core is cyclic can be constructed.*

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