Usage of (Multiple) Code Invariant to Find the Symmetric W(23, 16)

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content

- Weighing matrices and Hadamard equivalnce.
- Classifying equivalence classes.
- Finding an (anti)symmetric representative within a class.

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- The code of a vector and of a matrix.
- Normalization.
- Sorting.
- The Code Invariant (CI).
- The Multiple code invariant (MCI).
- Finding partial isomorphisms.
- Extending to full isomorphisms.
- An (anti)symmetric representative.

Weighing matrices

- A weighing matrix W(n, w) is a n × n matrix W whose elements are 0, ±1 such that WW^T = wI_n. W(n, w) denotes both a single matrix and the class of all W(n, w).
- The following are $W(2, w), 1 \le w \le 2$

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_2 & | & 1 & 1 \\ & | & 1 & - \end{pmatrix}$$

• The following are $W(3, w), 1 \le w \le 3$

 $(I_3 \mid None \mid None)$

• The following are $W(4, w), 1 \le w \le 4$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & | & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & | & 1 & - & 0 & 0 & | & 1 & 0 & 1 & - & | & 1 & - & 1 & - \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & | & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & | & 1 & - & 0 & 1 & | & 1 & 1 & - & - \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & | & 0 & 0 & 1 & - & | & - & - & 1 & 0 & | & 1 & - & - & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Questions

- Applications: Chemistry, Spectroscopy, Quantum Computing and Coding Theory.
- For which *n* and *w* $W(n, w) \neq \emptyset$ is an open question.
- Hadamard conjecture: $W(n, n) \neq \emptyset$ for every $n = 4k, k \in \mathbb{N}$.
- The main mathematical interest is to exhibit a concrete W(n, w) or to prove that it does not exist.
- To date the smallest Hadamard matrix whose existence is unknown is *H*(668).
- Given W(n, w) it is a mathematical interest to find if an (anti)symmetric W(n, w) exists.
- In this note we present a concrete symmetric W(23, 16) derived from W(23, 16) found recently.

Isomorphic (Hadamard equivalent) weighing matrices

- A monomial matrix (a signed permutation) P is a permutation matrix whose non zero elements are ±1.
- Two matrices U, V are isomorphic (Hadamard equivalent) if there exists two monomial matrices P, Q with PUQ^t = V.
- The following exhibits an Hadamard equivalence between the Sylvester matrix H2 ⊗ H2 and the circulant matrix CH4.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & - \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & - & 1 & - \\ 1 & 1 & - & - \\ 1 & - & - & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ - & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & - & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & - & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & - \end{bmatrix}$$

Classifying equivalence classes

- All Hadamard matrices of order n with $n\leq 12$ have one Hadamard equivalence class. There are 5 Hadamard equivalence classess of Hadamard matrices of order 16, 3 for n=20 and 60 for n=24 .
- Chan Rodger Seberry classification. [CRS] classified (up to Hadamard equivalence) all weighing matrices of weight $w \le 5$ and all weighing matrices of order $n \le 11$. They used what is called in Assaf's paper [G] the support geometry.
- Harada Munemasa classification [HM] they classify all weighing matrices of order $n \le 15$, n = 17 and all W(16, w), w = 6, 9, 12 and W(18, 9). For example they found 11891 classes of W(18, 9)
- In this work we construct an invariant of the equivalence class and use it to find isomorphisms between weighing matrices.
- The isomorphisms between W(23, 16) and $W(23, 16)^T$ are used to find a symmetric representative within this class.

An example

- We will illustrate our definitions on the following matrices:
- Let W be the W(7,4) weighing matrix (Taken from Wikipedia, and altered)

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

• Consider the submatrix Ro = W[2, 1, 0]:

- We define an action by $Ro \mapsto LRoR^T$, where L is a 3 × 3 and R 7 × 7 monomial matrices.
- There are $2^3 \cdot 3! = 48$ monomial matrices of length 3, denoted L and $2^7 \cdot 7! = 645120$ monomial 7×7 matrices denoted R and they present $48 \cdot 645120 = 30965760$ pairs. The two pairs $\pm(L, R)$ induce the same isomorphism on Ro.
- We computed by exhaustive enumeration, the size of the orbit of *Ro* relative to this action, and it turns out, that twelve pairs (6 isomorphisms) (*L*, *R*) leave *Ro* unchanged, and we think of them as automorphisms of *Ro*.

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The automorphisms of *Ro*

- We conclude that the orbit of Ro has size 30965760/12 = 2580480.
- Here is one such automorphism.

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The code of a vector and of a matrix

- First, let us define $v = [1, 3, 9, ..., 3^{m-1}]$.
- The code of a vector $w \in \{\pm 1, 0\}^m$ is $Code(w) = v \cdot w^T$. Code is a bijection $\{\pm 1, 0\}^m \rightarrow \left[-\frac{3^m-1}{2}, \frac{3^m-1}{2}\right]$.
- The code of w = (1, 1, 1) equals 13.
- Given $A \in M_{m \times n}(\{\pm 1, 0\})$ define Code(A) = vA,
- The code is a bijection

$$Code: M_{m \times n}(\{\pm 1, 0\}) \rightarrow \left[-\frac{3^m - 1}{2}, \frac{3^m - 1}{2}\right]^n$$

$$Code(Ro) = [13, 6, 8, 9, 2, 3, 1].$$

- Code(A) is not an invariant of the equivalnce class of A.
- One way to define an invariant is to compute Code(A') for all elements A' in the class, and then take the 'minimum' with respect to some ordering.

projecting into the subset Norm

- an Hadamard operation is an action $Mon_{m \times m}(\{\pm 1\}) \times M_{m \times n}(\{\pm 1, 0\}) \times Mon_{n \times n}(\{\pm 1\}) \rightarrow M_{m \times n}(\{\pm 1, 0\}).$
- The size of an orbit might be $2^m m! \times 2^n n!$.
- We define a subset Norm ⊂ M_{m×n}({±1,0}) and a projection defined in two stages.
 - Normalization : $M_{m \times n}(\{\pm 1, 0\}) \twoheadrightarrow Norm$.
 - Sort : Norm → Norm
- Can = Sort ∘ Normalization is a projection.
 M_{m×n}({±1,0}) → Norm
- It holds that code(Can(A)) = code(Can(AR^T)) for all monomial matrices R
- Thus canonization reduces the enumeration over all pairs (L, R) to an enumeration over all martices L. This is a reduction factor of 2ⁿn!/(mn² log n).

The Normalization Projection

- Every nonzero column has a top nonzero element which is ± 1 .
- Multiplying with this leading term gives a column whose leading term is +1.
- Normalization changes the matrix and its code.
- The Normaliation needs an enumeration of magnitude *mn*.
- After the normalization the enumeration on *R* are of order of magnitude *n*! instead of 2^{*n*}*n*!.
- The factor of enumeration saved is ^{2ⁿ}/_{mn}. For *Ro* it is more than
 6. For m = 3, n = 23 it is more than 2¹⁶.

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• Comment: If we replace v with $mi = -[3^{m-1}, ..., 1]$, the effect of *Normalize* on codes is by $z \mapsto -|z|$.

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The Sorting Projection

- The code of the normalized matrix is an element of $\left[-\frac{3^m-1}{2}, \frac{3^m-1}{2}\right]^n$.
- Sorting changes the matrix and its code. Normalized code and matrix stay normalized after sorting.
- The sorting is usually a library package of any scientific programming language of magnitude *nln(n)*.
- Sort Normalize is a projection called canonization and denoted Can. Can(A) is isomorphic to A.
- Assuming normalization with *mi* above, it holds that min_{R∈Mon_{n×n}({±1})} Code(AR^T) = Code(Can(A)).
- Sort saves a factor of enumeration $\frac{n!}{nln(n)}$. For *Ro* it is more than 360. For m = 3, n = 23 it is more than $\frac{22!}{5}$.

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• Given a matrix A we define the code invariant of A by

$$CI(A) = \min_{L \in Mon_{m \times m}(\{\pm 1\})} Code((Can(LA))).$$

- For A and B of the same dimensions, CI(A) = CI(B) if and only if A and B are Hadamard equivalent.
- CI(Ro) = [-11, -6, 1, 3, 4, 9, 10].
- The calculation of CI(A) has complexity 2^mm!n²mln(n) instead of 2^{n+m}n!m! and presents a vast reduction.
- Still, if m is large CI(A) can not be calculated practically.

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The multiple code invariant of a matrix

- Given $A \in M_{m \times n}(\{\pm 1, 0\})$ it might be impracticle to calculate CI(A).
- So choose d ≤ m. There are (^m_d) subsets of {1, 2, · · · m} of cardinality d. Each such subset determines a submatrix S(A) ⊂ A with d rows.
- Each of the above S(A) has a computable CI.
- Define the multiple code invariant of A and d, MCI(A, d), as the multiset of the CI's of the above submatrices.
- MCI(A, d) is an element of $\left(\left[-\frac{3^d-1}{2}, \frac{3^d-1}{2}\right]^n\right)^{\binom{m}{d}}$.
- If A and B are Hadamard equivalent, every subset of d rows of A maps to a subset of d rows of B, and thus have the same CI so that MCI(A, d) = MCI(B, d).

some numerical values for some MCI(A, d)

• For A = W(7, 4) mentioned above, it holds that MCI(W, 3) = $\{[-11, -6, 1, 3, 4, 9, 10] \times 28, [-8, -6, -2, 0, 4, 10, 12] \times 7\}.$

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- In the multiset with $\binom{7}{3} = 35$ CI's 28 terms have CI = [-11, -6, 1, 3, 4, 9, 10] and 7 terms have CI = [-8, -6, -2, 0, 4, 10, 12]
- for the same W, $MCI(W, 4) = \{[-35, -24, -18, 1, 7, 12, 31] \times 28, [-38, -24, -18, -6, 4, 10, 28] \times 7\}.$

Let W = W(7,4)

- The fact that MCI(W, 3) contained only two distinct CI's deserves explanation.
- The {0,1}-matrix DG = J |W| ([G], [SD],[SM]) is the incidence matrix of the projective plane (Fano)

$$X = \mathbb{P}^2(\mathbb{F}_2).$$

- There are exactly two different configuration for 3 lines in a plane:
 - Star Like: All 3 lines meet at a point;
 - Triangle like: No common point for the 3 lines.
- Hence MCI(DG, 3) will contain two distinct CI's

- The same observations is true for PG = |W| since 4 lines in X determine the complementary 3 lines.
- Fact: Every automorphism of *PG* can be extended uniquely (up to a total sign) to an automprhism of *W*.
- This is a rare phenomena, but there are some well known families of weighing matrices having this property.
- This explains why *MCI*(*W*, 3) has the same multiplicities as *MCI*(*PG*, 3) and *MCI*(*DG*, 3).

 By the same reasoning, MCI(W, d) has the same multiplicities as MCI(W, 7 - d).

MCI(*W*(23, 16))

Let

 $W_1 = W(23, 16)$ found by the 'Shaddow Geometry' method;[G] $W_2 = W(23, 16)$ found by the 'Tiling' method([SD], [SM])

• By contrast, the multiplicities of $MCI(W_1, 3) = MCI(W_1^T, 3)$ are quite scattered ($m \times f$ means m items of frequency f).

 $\begin{array}{c} 2\times1, 2\times3, 4, 6\times6, 2\times12, 13, 2\times15, 18, 21, 24, 33, 48, 3\times54, 2\times57, \\ 60, 66, 2\times72, 87, 102\ 120, 141, 186, 330 \end{array}$

- It can be shown that W_1 has only 3 automorphisms.
- For W_2 , the list of frequencies is

 $1 \times 1, 5 \times 5, 1 \times 10, 5 \times 15, 4 \times 20, 2 \times 30, 1 \times 35, 1 \times 45, 3 \times 50, 2 \times 55, 1 \times 75, 1 \times 85, 1 \times 105, 1 \times 115, 1 \times 120, 1 \times 125, 1 \times 135, 1 \times 420$

• Similarly for W_2^T , the list of frequencies is

 $1 \times 1, 3 \times 5, 4 \times 10, 5 \times 15, 1 \times 20, 2 \times 30, 1 \times 35, 3 \times 40, 1 \times 45, 2 \times 50, 1 \times 55, 2 \times 75, 1 \times 85, 1 \times 90, 2 \times 105, 1 \times 125, 1 \times 130, 1 \times 415$

- The fact that most frequencies in $MCI(W_2)$ are divisible by 5 reflects the fact that the automorphism group is of order 5. A similar phenomena holds for W_1 .
- We see that W_1 , W_2 and W_2^T are not isomorphic to each other.
- All the other matrices W(n, 16), n = 25, 27, 29 found by the tiling method satisfied that $MCI(W, 3) \neq MCI(W^T, 3)$.
- However, as it will turn out, $W_1 \simeq W_1^T$.

MCI as an (strong?) invariant

- MCI(, d) is a Hadamard Equivalence invariant which is
 - Computable.
 - Quite strong.
- *MCI*(, 3) is not strong enough to separate all isomorphism classes. Examples:
 - W(13,9) has 8 isomorphism classes. MCI(,3) can only distinguish 7.
 - *MCI*(, 3) is constant along *all* Hadamard matrices of size 4*n*.
- Using Craigen's Weaving technique, for every *d* it is possible to construct examples in which *MCI*(*, d*) is not completely separating.
- Nevertheless, it can give us a lot of information and help us to construct isomorphisms when they exist.

Definition

Let A and B be $m \times n \{0, -1, 1\}$ -matrices. A partial isomorphism is an isomorphism between SA and SB, two partial $d \times n$ submatrices of A and B.

• When MCI(A, d) = MCI(B, d), this gives rise to many partial isomorphisms from A to B.

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• Question: How do we know whether a partial isomorphism extends to a full isomorphism $A \simeq B$?

Definition

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- When MCI(A, d) = MCI(B, d), this gives rise to many partial isomorphisms from A to B.
- Question: How do we know whether a partial isomorphism extends to a full isomorphism $A \simeq B$?
- <u>Answer:</u>(For square nonsingular A) If it extends, then in $L_1 \cdot SA \cdot R_1^T = SB$ and its extension $LAR^T = B$, we must have $R_1 = R$.
- Therefore, we can extract *L*:

$$L = BRA^{-1} = BR_1A^{-1},$$

and test that L is indeed monomial.

From MCI to the full isomorphism space Isom(A, B)-First method

Here's an algorithm:

- Suppose that A, B are two nonsingular, square matrices, with MCI(A, d) = MCI(B, d).
- **2** Take two isomorphic $d \times n$ matrices *SA*, *SB*.
- Solution Solution Solution (Constraint) Solution (Section 2) and test if they are extendable.
- Sepeat for the same SA and all other SB having the same CI.

Complexity issues

- It is desirable to choose *SA* with the least multiplicity in *MCI(A)*.
- The number of isomorphisms $SA \rightarrow SB$ may be too large because:
 - *SA* (and *SB*) may have many zero columns, and there is a cost factor of 2 per each.
 - *SA* (and *SB*) may have too many repeated columns, and there is a factorial cost factor per each.
- These problems happen when *d* is small, and greatly reduce as *d* grows.
- On the other hand there is a cost of $2^{d}d!$ due to the unknown L_1 (and the computation of *MCI*).
- Considering only matrices with d + 1 rows that include the given S(A) as a submatrix reduce the cost of increasing MCI(A, d) → MCI(A, d + 1).

- It is hard to estimate complexity.
- Worst case complexity is quite large: For A = B = identity matrix, there are 2ⁿn! isomorphisms, so it is at least as bad as Ω(2ⁿn!).
- But for 'heavy' weighing matrices A = W(n, w) with n/w = O(1), the 'average' case complexity is quite reasonable:
 - Repetitions and zero colums in SA stop in probability as soon as $d = O(\log n)$. The MCI cost is then $2^{d} d! {n \choose d} dn^{2} \log n = O((2n)^{d+4})$. Hence the 'average' case complexity is at most

$$Av = (2n)^{O(\log n)}.$$

Our experience with W(23, 16)

Let W be the W(23, 16) found by the Shaddow Geometry method. We wanted to compute $Isom(W, W^T)$.

• Starting with *MCI(W,3)* and choosing a specific *SA*, we saw multiple columns with multiplicities [5, 4, 4, 4, 3] and the 3 repeating columns were zero columns. This implies that

$$\#$$
 lsom(*SA*, *SB*) \geq 5!4!³3!2³ = 39813120,

which is quite big.

• Then we went to *MCI(W*, 4). We multiplicities of columns in *SA* were

and the 3 repeating columns were zero columns Hence

$$\#$$
 lsom(SA, SB) $\geq 4!3!(2!)^62^3 = 73728.$

Much better.

• Then, in *MCI*(*W*, 5) the multiplicities in *SA* reduced to [2, 2, 2, 3, 3] with no zero column. Therefore we got an estimate of

#*Isom*(*SA*, *SB*) $\ge 2!^3 3!^2 = 288$.

This turned out to be the best setting, regarding the cost of the MCI.

• At the bottom line, we found that $Isom(W, W^T)$ contains 6 elements.

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From MCI to the full isomorphism space Isom(A, B)-Second method

- The algorithm presented above to retrieve a full isomorphism has some difficulties. There is an alternative method.
- We call the first method the inversion method and the second one the eigenmethod.
- The eigenmethod
 - works for A and B which are not necessarily square and regular.

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- Reduces to the case of true permutation isomorphisms.
- Works with smaller *d*.
- has less complexity of running time.
- has less complexity of conditions to assume prior to the implementation
- but has a more complicated algorithm.
- We will discuss the eigenmethod only briefly without supporting examples.

- We begin with a partial isomorphism $SA \rightarrow SB$, $L_i(SA)R_i^T = SB$.
- WLOG: Assume that SA=SB are positioned at the top layer of *A* and *B* and are of canonical form.

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Outline

- I Modify A by signs in rows and columns, so that $B = PAQ^T$ with permutation matrices P and Q.
 - II Discover P by the eigenvalue method.
 - III Discover Q by column sorting.

Stage I: The eigenmethod - Getting rid of signs

- The fact that SA = SB still leaves many candidate isomorphisms SA → SB to be extended to A → B.
- We divide the matrices A and B as



• A similar partitiom of A was used constructing the shaddow geometry [G].

Stage I: The eigenmethod - Getting rid of signs

- Assume: The first *b* columns of *SA* are different from the last n b columns.
- The algorithm:
 - Permute equal columns only in the corner of A.
 - Normalize the rows of A starting from row d + 1.
 - Enumerate on the signs of columns and rows which are zero within the margins of *A*.
- Under the enumeration, compute the *Can* of the vertical parts of the margins of *A* and *B* and test if they are equal.

 If equal, we may assume that PAQ^T = B for permutation matrices P and Q. Continue to the next stage.

Stage II: Discovering P by eigenvectors

- If PAQ^T = B, then PAA^TP^T = BB^T, so AA^T and BB^T are similar by P.
- For Weighing Matrices $AA^T = BB^T = I_m$ there is no information.
 - We may apply a pointwise functions f so $Pf(A)Q^T = f(B)$.
 - Also transpose inversion works: $Pf(A)^{-1T}Q^{T} = f(B)^{-1T}$.
 - May combine few such operations and finally take Gram products.
- We end up with matrices G_A and G_B similar by P:

$$PG_AP^T = G_B.$$

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At this stage we may test whether they have the same characteristic polynomial.

Stage II: Discovering P by eigenvectors

- P transforms the eigenspaces of G_A to those of G_B .
- Simplest Case: For an eigenvalue λ, the eigenspace is simple 1 dimensional, and the eigenvector v_{λ,A} of A has distinct entries.
- In this case, we readily read the permutation P from

$$Pv_{\lambda,A} = v_{\lambda,B}.$$

• When this does not happen, it is mainly because there are many solutions for *P*. There are good ways to solve this, but we will not explore them here.

- If P is known, we still need to find Q.
- Suppose that $PAQ^T = B$ with PA known. Then
 - If A is invertible, $Q = B^{-1}PA$.
 - In General: Find out Q by sorting the columns of PA and B.

An (anti)symmetric representative in a class

- Suppose that there exists a (anti)-symmetric S in the isomorphism class of A.
- Exercise: There exists an isomorphism $LAR^T = A^T$, such that $L = \pm R^T$.
- So going over all elements of *Isom*(*A*, *A*^T), we can find such an isomorphism.
- Now, LA = A^TR = (R^TA)^T = (±LA)^T is an (anti)symmetric matrix Hadamard equivalent to A.
- We found one symmetric representative W(23, 16) for the W(23, 16) found by the shaddow geometry method and 12 symmetric representatives for W(7, 4) which are not equivalent by means of Symmetric Hadamard equivalence.

An example of a symmetric W(7,4) obtained for the given one by our method

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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An example of a symmetric W(23, 16) obtained for the given one by our method

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	0	0	0	1	1	$^{-1}$	$^{-1}$	-1	1	1	$^{-1}$	0	0	0	0	1	$^{-1}$	1	$^{-1}$	-1	1	1	-1
	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	$^{-1}$	1	1	$^{-1}$	-1	1	$^{-1}$	1	-1	1	1	-1
	0	0	0	$^{-1}$	1	$^{-1}$	1	-1	1	-1	1	1	-1	1	-1	0	0	0	0	1	$^{-1}$	1	-1
	0	0	0	-1	1	1	$^{-1}$	-1	1	1	$^{-1}$	1	-1	$^{-1}$	1	-1	1	-1	1	0	0	0	0
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	1	1	-1	-1	0	1	-1	1	0	-1	-1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	0
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A Schematic Diagram



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