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A unifying implementation of stratum (aka strong) orthogonal arrays

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Abstract

In recent years, several authors proposed constructions of so-called “strong orthogonal arrays” (SOAs). The approaches and notations taken in the different proposals vary widely. This paper sets out to review SOAs and their constructions, using a unifying notation with a simple set of equations. In addition to providing a unifying overview, some constructions are improved, e.g. by enforcing column orthogonality via a bipartite pair matching algorithm where the original constructions pay no attention to column orthogonality. All constructions presented in the paper are implemented in the R package SOAs. As an aside, it is argued that “stratum” is a better choice than “strong” for the “S” in the acronym SOAs.

1 Introduction

He and Tang (2013, 2014) introduced so-called “Strong Orthogonal Arrays” (SOAs) and proposed their use for the construction of Latin Hypercube Designs (LHDs) for computer experiments. Subsequent authors built on their work and introduced various variants, among them Liu and Liu (2015), He, Cheng and Tang (2018), Zhou and Tang (2019), Shi and Tang (2020), and most recently Li, Liu and Yang (2021a). This author is attracted by the concept, but considers the adjective “strong” in its label as misleading: by a stretch of concept, SOAs can be seen as orthogonal arrays, but as very weak ones (low OA strength) only. For the sake of clarity, this paper explicitly distinguishes between OA strength and SOA strength, because these are related but different concepts. In order to avoid confusing use of the adjective “strong”, this paper uses the acronym SOAs, but connects it with the long form “Stratum Orthogonal Arrays”. The rationale behind that expression: when collapsed to strata, SOAs become strong(er) orthogonal arrays.

Arrays with many levels per column are primarily used for computer experiments with quantitative variables. The most well-known examples are LHDs, which were first proposed by McKay, Conover and Ylvisaker (1979): for these, each column has as many levels as there are experimental runs. The most important property of such arrays is their “space-filling” behavior, which can be measured in a variety of ways (see Section 2.4). Many constructions are based on orthogonal arrays, e.g. Tang’s (1993) proposal to expand the levels of an OA, Ye’s (1998) proposal to obtain an LHD with orthogonal columns from a construction based on regular fractional factorial 2-level columns, or Xiao and Xu’s (2018) maximin distance level expansion (MDLE) arrays. SOAs provide another and very structured way of expanding the levels of OAs. They have two key benefits: their low-dimensional stratification behavior is more refined and controlled than that of other OA expansions, and their space-filling properties can be improved with limited effort during construction, using a level permutation approach proposed by Weng (2014). It should be noted that there are not only SOA constructions for LHDs or arrays with many levels for each column, but also for arrays with many columns at as few as 4 levels each.

The stratification properties implied by SOA strength 3 are illustrated in Figure 1, based on a small strength 3 SOA with three 27-level columns in 27 runs (i.e., this particular SOA is an LHD). The three plots in the top row show that there are 27 strata in 3D: separated by three coarsened levels of $X_3$ (first nine, middle nine, and last nine levels), coarsened levels of $X_1$ and $X_2$ produce nine strata with one element each for each $X_3$ stratum. The bottom row shows the two ways to stratify the $X_1 \times X_2$ space.

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This report is an improved version of the earlier report ’A unified implementation of stratum (aka strong) orthogonal arrays’ (Grömping 2021) in the same report series.
into 27 strata, and the two 1D stratifications for $X_1$ and $X_2$ (each row contains exactly one element, each column contains exactly one element). Note that the SOA depicted in Figure 1 has OA strength 1 only. For detail on OA strength and SOA strength, see Sections 2.3 and 3, respectively.

Figure 1: Illustration of stratification properties for an SOA(27,3,27,3). Each stratum contains exactly one element. The figures in the top row show the 3D stratification of $X_1 \times X_2 \times X_3$ into $3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 = 27$ strata. The bottom row shows the stratification of $X_1 \times X_2$ into $3 \cdot 9 = 27$ strata (left) or $9 \cdot 3 = 27$ strata (middle), and the stratification of $X_1$ (horizontal) and $X_2$ (vertical) into 27 1D strata each (right).

This paper provides a unifying overview of diverse SOA constructions that have been proposed in recent years. It has been written with a clear focus on practically feasible constructions, which have been implemented in the R package SOAs (Grömping 2021b). All constructions are presented based on simple matrix equations. The unifying view on a diverse set of recent articles revealed a few opportunities for improvements:

- The constructions by Zhou and Tang (2019) and Li et al. (2021) are improved regarding their space filling properties by providing a slight modification to a key matrix in those constructions; this modification also improves the chance for obtaining better stratification properties.
- The construction for Shi and Tang’s (2020) Family 3 is improved to achieve orthogonal columns.
- For the constructions by He et al. (2018), a bipartite pair matching algorithm for matching columns between two matrices guarantees orthogonal columns where orthogonality is compatible with the requested balance properties for the requested number of columns.

The different constructions for SOAs combine many established concepts of experimental design theory, so that a self-contained presentation requires a substantial amount of basic facts (Section 2). Section 3 introduces SOAs, provides the equations used for the constructions in this paper, presents and illustrates the earliest constructions, details the practically relevant classes of SOAs and states necessary and sufficient requirements for obtaining the different classes, as far as they can be stated in general terms. Sections 4 and 5 provide further specific constructions in the unifying notation of this paper. Section 6 gives an overview of the constructions and their properties in terms of run sizes, numbers of columns and quality criteria. The discussion gives an overall assessment and an outlook at future developments, and
2 Notation and basic facts

\[ \lfloor \cdot \rfloor \text{ and } \lceil \cdot \rceil \text{ denote the floor and ceiling functions, respectively.} \]

2.1 Matrix notation

Matrices and vectors are denoted with bold face capital or lower case letters, respectively. \( \mathbf{1}_n \) and \( \mathbf{0}_n \) denote a column vector of \( n \) identical elements (1 or 0). \( \top \) denotes the transpose of a matrix or vector. Vectors with single digit integer elements are parsimoniously written as a string of integers, e.g. 2·15 = 222222. \( \otimes \) denotes the Kronecker product. The \( n \times m \) matrix \( X \) is written as

\[
X = (x_{ij})_{i=1:n,j=1:m} = \begin{pmatrix}
    x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1m} \\
    \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
    x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{nm}
\end{pmatrix} = (x_1, \ldots, x_m) = \begin{pmatrix}
    \vdots \\
x^{(i)} \\
    \vdots
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

For a matrix \( M \) with \( c \) columns, \( M_{c_1:c_2} \) denotes the sub matrix of columns \( c_1 \) to \( c_2 \). The function \( \text{cyc} \) denotes a cyclic permutation of the columns, i.e. \( \text{cyc}(M) = (m_2, \ldots, m_c, m_1) \). The function \( S \) simplifies the presentation of constructions of SOAs with orthogonal columns.

**Definition 2.1.** Let \( M \) be an \( n \times m \) matrix with elements from \( \{0, \ldots, s-1\} \), \( m \) even. The function \( S \) returns an \( n \times m \) matrix with the \( \ell \)th column given as

\[
S(M)_\ell = \begin{cases} 
m_{\ell+1} & \ell \text{ odd} \\
(\ell-1) - m_{\ell-1} & \ell \text{ even}
\end{cases}, \quad \ell = 1, \ldots, m.
\]

2.2 Galois fields

A Galois field \( GF(s) \) (see e.g. Appendix A of Hedayat et al. 1999) is a finite field over the elements \( \{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{s-1}\} \); Galois fields exist whenever \( s \) is a prime or an integer power of a prime. Galois fields come with addition (neutral element \( \alpha_0 \)) and multiplication (neutral element \( \alpha_1 \)); for prime \( s \), one can choose \( \{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{s-1}\} = \{0, 1, \ldots, s-1\} \mod s \) arithmetic. For non-prime prime powers, this paper also denotes the elements of the Galois field with the numbers \( \{0, 1, \ldots, s-1\} \), but uses suitable addition and multiplication tables that fulfill the requirements for a field; Tables 7 and 8 in Appendix A show the respective tables for prime powers 4, 8 and 9. Addition modulo a prime or non-prime \( s \), as well as addition w.r.t. a Galois field \( GF(s) \), will be denoted as \( +_s \), multiplication as \( \cdot_s \).

2.3 Orthogonal arrays

An OA is a rectangular table of symbols that typically stand for the levels of an experimental factor. In this paper, the columns of an OA stand for the factors, the rows for the level combinations used in experimental runs. An OA\((n, m, s_1^{m_1} \cdots s_k^{m_k}, t)\) has \( n \) rows and \( m \) columns. \( m_1 \) columns have \( s_1 \) levels, \( \ldots, m_k \) columns have \( s_k \) levels, \( m_1 + \cdots + m_k = m \). The OA’s strength is \( t \), which means that any combination of \( t \) columns indexed by \( i_1 \ldots i_t \) has all \( s(i_1) \cdots s(i_t) \) level combinations the same number of times, where the function \( s() \) returns the number of levels for the respective column. SOAs are typically based on symmetric OAs, i.e. OAs with \( s_1 = \cdots = s_k = s \); such OAs are denoted by OA\((n, m, s, t)\). Non-symmetric OAs are also called asymmetric or mixed level. For an OA\((n, m, s, t)\), the strength implies that \( n = \lambda s^{t} \) for an integer \( \lambda \) that is called the index of the OA. At this point, note that the expression “strength” will have to be used in two different meanings in this paper about SOAs: “OA strength” will always be explicitly referred to as such, whereas the mere use of the word “strength” outside of this section always refers to “SOA strength”, which is a different concept (see Definition 3.1).

OAs typically have small numbers of levels; many of the usual symmetric OAs have \( s = 2 \), \( s = 3 \) or at most \( s = 4 \), and mixed level OAs often have the majority of their factors at 2 or 3 levels, possibly with a few exceptions. There are various construction algorithms for symmetric OAs; these are, for example, explained in Hedayat, Sloane and Stufken (1999). They can typically construct OAs whose number of levels \( s \) is a power of a prime (e.g. 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13, 16, \ldots). Construction algorithms for regular
fractional factorial OAs take a specific role (see subsections below): An OA is called “regular”, if its columns can be obtained as linear combinations of some basic columns, based on modulo or Galois field arithmetic.

The imbalance of an OA is often measured by the so-called generalized word length pattern (GWLP), which is a way to measure the confounding of factor interactions with the intercept for \( j = 0, 1, \ldots, m \). The elements of the GWLP are denoted as \( A_0, A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m \), with \( A_0 = 1 \) (intercept perfectly confounded with itself). The entries \( A_j \) are zero for all \( j \leq t \), which indicates the balance implied by the strength. The smallest \( j \) for which \( A_j > 0 \) is called the resolution of the OA (i.e. the resolution is \( t + 1 \)). Xu and Wu (2001) introduced the GWLP and the ranking criterion “generalized minimum aberration” (GMA), which works as follows: a design with higher OA strength (or higher resolution) is better; for two designs with resolution \( R \), the design with the smaller \( A_R \) is better; if \( A_R \) is the same, the design with the smaller \( A_{R+1} \) is better, and so forth. A GMA design is an overall best design according to this criterion (it is not necessarily unique).

SOAs are based on OAs with at least strength 2 and are themselves strength 1 OAs, i.e. they have resolution II (resolution is denoted as a Roman numeral). Their \( A_2 \) value can thus be used to measure their imbalance in terms of the GWLP: however, since SOAs are typically created for quantitative variables, the GWLP is not necessarily a suitable metric for assessing their quality. Nevertheless, using a GMA OA in the construction for an SOA can be beneficial (see e.g. Section 2.6.1).

### 2.3.1 Regular saturated strength 2 fractions

Several constructions of SOAs make use of regular saturated strength 2 OA(\( s^k, (s^k - 1)/(s - 1), s, 2 \)) that can be obtained for \( s \)-level columns with \( s \) a prime or prime power, using the so-called Rao-Hamming construction (see e.g. Section 3.4 of Hedayat et al.). It consists of a set of \( k \) basic vectors on \( GF(s)^k \) and all their linear combinations, where uniqueness is achieved by using only those coefficient vectors from \( GF(s)^k \) for which the first non-zero element is 1. For example, an OA(\( 3^4, (3^4 - 1)/(3 - 1), 3, 2 \)) is obtained from the three basic vectors \( 0001, 1112, 2220 \) and their ten linear combinations with coefficient vectors 110, 120, 101, 102, 011, 012, 111, 112, 121, 122 (calculations modulo 3).

### 2.3.2 Yates matrix for regular 2-level fractions

Regular fractional factorial 2-level OAs are particularly well-understood (see e.g. Mee 2009). Note that they are often discussed in \(-1/+1\) coding with multiplication instead of 0/1 coding with +2 (remember that +2 denotes addition modulo 2). The two approaches are equivalent, and this paper uses the latter because of consistency with the cases for \( s \neq 2 \).

Large catalogs of non-isomorphic regular 2-level fractions are available. These can be parsimoniously specified using the so-called Yates matrix column numbers, whose fascinating systematic is now explained. A Yates matrix of degree \( k \) is the \( 2^k \times (2^k - 1) \) matrix for all effects in a full factorial design with \( k \) basic factors. Starting from two basic factors, the principle of recursive construction is shown below:

\[
Y(2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Y(3) = \begin{pmatrix} Y(2) & 0_1 & Y(2) \\ Y(2) & 1_1 & Y(2) + 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Y(4) = \begin{pmatrix} Y(3) & 0_8 & Y(3) \\ Y(3) & 1_8 & Y(3) + 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \ldots
\]

If \( e_1, e_2, \ldots \) denote the basic factors (fast changing first), the Yates matrix column numbers have a systematic structure, and their binary representations indicate which effects are captured by them: \( e_j \) is in column \( 2^{j-1} \), e.g. for \( k = 4 \), the four basic factors are in columns 1, 2, 4, and 8 (binary representations: 1=0001,2=0010,4=0100,8=1000). Further column numbers also indicate which interaction effect is represented by the column in a full factorial model, for example column 11 (binary representation 11=1011, with further leading zeros for \( k > 4 \) captures the three-factor interaction of \( e_1, e_2 \) and \( e_3 \). The structure of the Yates matrix implies that the first \( 2^u - 1 \) columns capture the effects of basic factors \( e_1, \ldots, e_u \) and all their interactions. Likewise, the \( 2^{k-u} - 1 \) Yates matrix columns numbered with multiples of \( 2^u \) capture the effects of the last \( k - u \) basic factors and all their interactions. For example, for \( k = 5 \) and \( u = 3 \), columns 1 to 7 capture all effects related to the first three basic factors, whereas the three columns numbered with multiples of 8 (8, 16, 24) capture the design with the last 5 – 3 = 2 basic columns. Computationally, instead of the recursive construction, if a function for creating a full
factorial in \( k \) columns is available that allows to specify the order of columns (first or last factor changing fastest), the Yates matrix for \( k \) factors can be obtained by multiplying the full factorial in the \( k \) basic factors (fastest first) with the transpose of that same full factorial (slowest first) (calculations modulo 2), and omitting the column of zeroes in the first position.

### 2.4 Latin hypercube designs and space filling criteria

Projections of a symmetric \( s \)-level OA of OA strength \( t \) onto a 1D, 2D, \( \ldots \), \( t \)-D marginal space have exactly \( s, s^2, \ldots, s^t \) distinct points. For the typically small \( s \), there are thus very few distinct points in lower-dimensional projections. The benefit of OAs lies in their implicit replication that allows the estimation of low order interaction effects and random error. As soon as random error becomes irrelevant, like in computer experiments, the small number of points in low order projections becomes a disadvantage. Therefore, LHDs have been proposed especially for computer experiments with quantitative factors, for which changing the levels is often easy and good exploration of the entire experimental space is desired.

An LHD for \( m \) quantitative variables in \( n \) runs is an OA\((n, m, n, 1)\), i.e., each column has as many levels as there are rows (=runs). We write LHD\((n, m)\). Note that some authors write about latin hypercube designs, others about latin hypercube samples; both are two slightly different versions of the same concept. LHDs are usually specified in terms of integer levels. In latin hypercube sampling, one often works with real numbers in \([0, 1]^m\), where the integer numbers from the LHD approach correspond to intervals within \([0, 1]\). This paper works with LHDs, but the difference is unsubstantial since it is straightforward to go back and forth between LHD and latin hypercube sample.

There is a large amount of literature on quality criteria for LHDs. It is commonly agreed that LHDs should be “space-filling”, i.e. fill the \( m \)-dimensional space as well as possible. Popular metrics to assess their space-filling properties are the minimum interpoint distance (which should be as large as possible, maximin distance, advocated by Johnson, Moore and Ylvisaker 1990) or the maximum interpoint distance (which should be as small as possible, minimax distance), or various criteria that measure discrepancy from uniformity in some way (and should be small). This paper uses the maximin distance criterion, as well as the so-called \( \phi_p \) criterion which is commonly used in the SOA literature and was first proposed by Morris and Mitchell (1995) with the intention to mimic the maximin distance criterion:

\[
\phi_p(X) = \left( \sum_{i,j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}, i \neq j} d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)})^{-p} \right)^{1/p},
\]

where \( d() \) is a suitable distance function, e.g. Minkowski with \( q = 2 \) (euclidean) or \( q = 1 \) (manhattan) and \( x^{(i)} \) is the observation vector for the \( i \)th unit, i.e. the \( i \)th row of the matrix \( X \) that represents the runs. For large \( p \), minimizing \( \phi_p \) is known to be a good substitute for the maximin distance criterion, \( d(c \cdot x^{(i)}, c \cdot x^{(j)}) = c \cdot d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)}) \), and \( \phi_p(cX) = \phi_p(X)/c \), so that normalized versions \( d^*_p \) and \( \phi^*_p \) for range \([0, 1]\) can be easily obtained, which is helpful when comparing arrays with different numbers of levels.

### 2.5 Orthogonal columns

For an OA, “orthogonal” refers to combinatorial balance which is invariant to level coding. When talking about orthogonal columns, “orthogonal” refers to geometric orthogonality in \( n \)-dimensional space, which can be measured by correlation between columns: two columns are geometrically orthogonal if their correlation is zero. Combinatorial orthogonality implies geometric orthogonality, but the reverse is not true. Geometric orthogonality is of interest for quantitative experimental variables only, and it is heavily dependent on level coding. LHDs with orthogonal columns have been discussed in the literature (e.g. Ye 1998). The benefit of geometric orthogonality is that estimated coefficients in simple main effect linear regression do not change, regardless whether one does or does not include other columns in the model. The expression “3-orthogonality”, which was introduced by Bingham, Sitter and Tang (2009), describes a stronger orthogonality property: 3-orthogonal arrays guarantee that columns are not only orthogonal to each other and to the constant column, but also to products of pairs of other columns and to squares of other columns. This effectively means that main effect estimates are uncorrelated with the estimates of second order effects (i.e. of pairwise column products or squared columns). 3-orthogonality thus prevents misleading conclusions on main effects from neglecting relevant second order effects, and makes estimation...
of second order models more efficient. To the author’s knowledge, Ye (1998) was the first author to propose 3-orthogonal LHDs; his construction produces $2^k$ or $2^k + 1$ runs with $2k - 2$ columns (but does not yield SOAs).

![Figure 2: 2D projections of unoptimized (left) and optimized (right) SOA in 125 runs with six orthogonal columns at 125 levels each](image)

Note that orthogonality or 3-orthogonality does not imply space filling; thus, it is advisable to consider additional space-filling criteria, because the default constructions can exhibit strong patterns that leave large holes unfilled. For example, an unoptimized orthogonal SOA in 125 runs seems to arrange the design points in parallel diagonal stripes that are less space-filling than would be desirable, while even one round of optimization towards lowering $\phi_p$ substantially improves this behavior as can be seen from the 2D projections in Figure 2, and by comparing the $\phi_p$ values (0.0395 reduced to 0.013 by the optimization). Note, however, that the right-hand side figure also shows systematic holes in several of the projections.

### 2.6 Expanding levels

An early proposal for obtaining LHDs by expanding the levels of OAs was by Tang (1993). Two simple techniques to expand an OA $(n, m, s, t)$ to a symmetric OA with OA strength $t' \geq 1$ and with columns in $s \cdot \ell$ levels are presented in Sections 2.6.1 and 2.6.2. Level expansion of OAs is easy to implement. The quality of the resulting array strongly depends on the level orderings within the initial OA, and also within replacements. Depending on the size of $\ell$, the space to optimize over can be huge.

#### 2.6.1 Expand within the OA

This type of expansion returns an array with the same number of rows as the ingoing OA. It can be applied, if $\ell$ divides $n/s$. An OA $(n, m, s \cdot \ell, t')$ can be obtained by expanding the levels of each column in the following way: allocate

- new levels $0, \ldots, \ell - 1$ to the $n/s$ runs with old level 0,
- new levels $\ell, \ldots, 2\ell - 1$ to the $n/s$ runs with old level 1,
- ..., and new levels $(s - 1)\ell, \ldots, s\ell - 1$ to runs with old level $s - 1$,

conducting all allocations in a balanced way.

Xiao and Xu (2018) proposed an algorithm for optimizing this type of expansion, which they called MDLE for “maximin distance level expansion”. In particular, they showed that it is beneficial to start from a GMA OA, which has itself been optimized for maximin distance by level permutations, before applying level expansion (the maximization of the minimum distance can be omitted for 2-level starting OAs). Xiao
and Xu proposed to use a threshold acceptance (TA) algorithm. Their approach is computationally more demanding than the optimization proposed by Weng (2014, see Section 2.8), but also yields better results. Since Xiao and Xu did not impose any structural constraints on the level expansion, the optimization space for MDLE is larger than that for SOAs. MDLE designs will not be covered in this paper.

2.6.2 Expand levels by expanding each row

This type of expanding an \( OA(n, m, s, t) \) returns an \( OA(n \cdot \ell, m, s \cdot \ell, t') \) with \( t' \geq 1 \). There are no requirements for \( \ell \geq 2 \), except that it is an integer. In the \( OA(n, m, s, t) \), insert a vector

- \( 0, \ldots, \ell - 1 \) instead of positions with level 0,
- \( \ell, \ldots, 2\ell - 1 \) instead of positions with level 1,
- \( \ldots \),
- \( (s - 1)\ell, \ldots, s\ell - 1 \) instead of positions with level \( s - 1 \).

Of course, level permutation can also greatly affect the properties of arrays obtained by this type of expansion.

2.7 Collapsing levels

Collapsing the levels \( 0, \ldots, s^v - 1 \) of a column in \( s^u \) levels into only \( s^u \) levels \( 0, \ldots, s^u - 1 \), \( u < v \), can be simply done with the formula \( x_{s^u} = \lfloor x_{s^v} / (s^{v-u}) \rfloor \), where \( \lfloor \cdot \rfloor \) denotes the floor function.

If an array was obtained by level expansion, collapsing its levels (again) to \( s \) levels either recovers the original array (in case of Section 2.6.1) or a replicate of the original array (in case of Section 2.6.2). In either case, the collapsed array inherits its balance properties from the original array.

For SOAs with columns in \( s^v \) levels, stratifications into collapsed columns are often considered, e.g. 2D stratifications of \( s^3 \) level columns into \( s^2 \times s \) or \( s \times s^2 \), 3D stratifications of \( s^4 \) level columns into \( s^2 \times s \times s \) or \( s \times s^2 \times s \) or \( s \times s \times s^2 \). In order to avoid both repetitive writing and complex notation, this paper uses the single representative with exponents sorted from largest to smallest to include all stratifications with the same multi-set of numbers of levels, e.g. “all \( s^2 \times s \times s \) stratifications” includes all the 3D stratifications that were listed above for \( s^4 \) level factors.

2.8 Optimization by level permutations

As was mentioned before, while combinatorial properties are invariant to the level coding of array columns, column orthogonality or space filling properties heavily depend on level coding. Column orthogonality is typically guaranteed by a construction mechanism (see Sections 3.2.2, 4.1 and 5.1); space filling properties can be optimized by adequate level permutations that do not destroy structural requirements.

A brute force method for level permutations would conduct all combinations of conceivable non-distinct level permutations and select the best outcome. For many situations, such an approach is prohibitive. Weng (2014) suggested to proceed in a reduced version that is adopted in this paper and is now explained. This section assumes the quality criterion \( \phi_p \) for space filling.

Let \( \nu \) denote the number of permutation applications; \( \nu \) could e.g. be \( 3m \), if each of the \( m \) columns of three \( m \)-column matrices with \( s \) levels each is subjected to separate level permutation, like in Equation (3) of the next section. The total number of permutations for a brute force search would be \( (s!)^\nu \). In Weng’s approach, the number of actual permutations that have to be conducted is far smaller:

a) Start with a random pattern \( \Pi_0 \) of \( \nu \) level permutations.

b) Obtain all the one-neighbors of \( \Pi_0 \), in the sense that only a single permutation of the \( \nu \) level permutations is modified versus \( \Pi_0 \).

c) Assess \( \phi_p \) for \( \Pi_0 \) and all its one-neighbors.

d) If \( \Pi_0 \) is already best in step c, proceed to step e. Else restart step b with the best pattern of level permutations as the new \( \Pi_0 \).

e) Inspect the current pattern of level permutations and all its two-neighbors, in the sense that two permutations are modified \( \binom{\nu}{2} \) such two-neighbors.

f) If \( \Pi_0 \) is best in step e, declare it the winner. Else restart step b with the best pattern of level permutations from step e as the new \( \Pi_0 \).
Weng applied her approach to the He and Tang (2013) constructions and gave examples for which this reduced method came close to the optima found in previous brute-force searches, and she also emphasized that omission of the step with two-neighbors does not lead to satisfactory results. When applying her approach to other constructions, care must be taken that the structural requirements of a construction are not destroyed by level permutations.

### 3 SOAs

This section provides a formal look at SOAs and their properties, starting with the definition of an (O)SOA of strength \( t \).

**Definition 3.1** (SOA and OSOA). Let \( D \) denote an OA\((n, m, s^t, 1)\).

(i) \( D \) is an SOA of strength \( t \), denoted as SOA\((n, m, s^t, t)\) \((m \geq t)\), if and only if all \( j \)-dimensional \( s^{i_1} \times \cdots \times s^{i_j} \) projections for columns \( i_1 < \cdots < i_j \), \( 1 \leq j \leq t \) produce \( s^t \) equally-sized strata, where the \( i_j \)th column is collapsed to \( s^{i_j} \) levels, \( u_t \geq 1 \), and \( \sum_{t=1}^3 u_t = t \).

(ii) An SOA\((n, m, s^t, t)\) whose correlation matrix is the \( m \)-dimensional identity matrix is called an OSOA\((n, m, s^t, t)\).

Figure 1 visualized an SOA\((27, 3, 3^3, 3)\), i.e. \( s = 3 \) and \( t = 3 \). For \( j = 1 \), each 1D projection onto \( 3^3 \) levels (i.e. the consideration of a single column without level coarsening) has exactly \( 3^3 = 27 \) equally-sized strata; for \( j = 2 \), each 2D \( 3^2 \times 3^3 \) or \( 3^1 \times 3^3 \) projection (i.e. consideration of two columns at a time with one column coarsened to nine levels and the other to three levels) has exactly \( 27 \) equally sized strata; and the 3D \( 3^1 \times 3^1 \times 3^1 \) projection (i.e. three columns, each coarsened to three levels) also has \( 27 \) equally-sized strata.

#### 3.1 Equations and general results

An SOA is an OA\((n, m, s^k, 1)\); any OA\((n, m, s^k, 1)\) can be represented in terms of an equation of \( k \) OA\((n, m, s, 1)\), which underpins the usefulness of equations for the construction of SOAs:

**Lemma 3.1.** Let \( D \) denote an OA\((n, m, s^k, 1)\).

(i) \( D \) can be written as

\[
D = \sum_{j=1}^{k} s^{k-j} A_j,
\]

where the \( A_j \) are OA\((n, m, s, 1)\).

(ii) In Equation (1), \( [D/s^{k-1}] = A_1 \).

**Proof.** The proof for (i) is constructive by collapsing levels, successively obtaining \( A_1 \) to \( A_k \):

- \( A_1 = [D/s^{k-1}] \) (which also proves (ii)),
- for \( 1 < k \leq k \), \( A_k = \left[(D - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} s^{k-j} A_j) / s^{k-\ell}\right] \).

All the thus-obtained \( A_\ell \) are obviously OA\((n, m, s, 1)\): It suffices that each level occurs equally often in each individual column, which directly follows from the fact that each of the levels 0, 1, \ldots, \( s^k - 1 \) occurs equally often in \( D \).

All SOA constructions in this paper are presented in terms of constructions for the matrices in Equation (1). Equation (1) can be seen as an especially structured way of conducting level expansion according to Section 2.6.1 for the matrix \( A_1 \); the properties of \( A_1 \) are therefore of particular importance.

The most frequently used special cases \( k = 2 \) and \( k = 3 \) are handled in simplified notation: switching from \( A_1, A_2, A_3 \) to \( B, C \) will improve readability of constructions by avoiding several subscript levels. Thus, this paper mainly considers constructing SOAs in \( s^2 \) levels from

\[
D = sA + B
\]
and SOAs in $s^3$ levels from
\[ D = s^2A + sB + C. \]  
(3)

The following two lemmas state existence criteria for such SOAs.

**Lemma 3.2** (recast from He and Tang 2013). An SOA($n$, $m$, $s^2$, 2) $D$ exists if and only if $n \times m$ matrices $A$ and $B$ can be found such that $A$ is an OA($n$, $m$, 2), and all pairs $(a_i, b_j)$ are OA($n$, 2, s, 2). These arrays are related by Equation (2).

**Lemma 3.3** (Shi and Tang, quoting He and Tang 2013). An SOA($n$, $m$, $s^3$, 3) $D$ exists if and only if $n \times m$ matrices $A$, $B$ and $C$ can be found such that $A$ is an OA($n$, $m$, 3), and all triples $(a_i, a_j, b_j)$, $(a_f, b_2, c_f)$ are OA($n$, 3, s, 3), $\ell \neq j$. These arrays are related by Equation (2).

Similar statements can also be made for larger strengths.

The following trivial lemma shows that it is generally easy to assign a column $c_\ell$ for given columns $a_f$ and $b_r$ such that strength 3 is achieved, as long as an SOA is based on 2-level OAs whose columns are taken from a saturated regular fractional factorial $S$.

**Lemma 3.4.** If all columns of the matrices $A$, $B$ and $C$ have been chosen from a saturated fractional factorial 2-level design $S$, the matrix $C$ fulfills the assumptions of Lemma 3.3, iff $c_\ell$ does not coincide with any of $a_f$, $b_r$ or $a_f + 2 b_r$.

The next lemma will be used for improving a construction to yield orthogonal columns.

**Lemma 3.5.** Let $A$, $B$ and $C$ be OA($n$, $m$, s, 2) such that their combination into a single matrix ($A\cdot B\cdot C$) is an OA($n$, $3m$, s, 2). Then Equation (3) yields a matrix $D$ with orthogonal columns.

*Proof.* $D = s^2A + sB + C$. The correlation matrix of $D$ can be obtained with the usual rules for calculating correlation matrices of sums and products with scalars. The strong assumptions of the lemma imply the requested orthogonality property. \(\square\)

The following subsection presents the early constructions of strength 2 to strength 4 or 5 (O)SOAs. Later sections will provide constructions for refined strength classifications.

### 3.2 Early constructions for (O)SOAs

**3.2.1 SOAs of strengths 2 to 5 by He and Tang (2013)**

He and Tang (2013) introduced SOAs, based on so-called generalized orthogonal arrays (GOAs), for strengths $t = 2, \ldots, 5$. Recasting them to the form of Equation (1) is straightforward, because it only requires a re-grouping of matrix columns: He and Tang’s $n \times t$ GOA matrices $B_1^{GOA}, \ldots, B_m^{GOA}$ for $m$ SOA columns hold the first columns of the $n \times m$ matrices $A_j$, $j = 1, \ldots, t$, in $B_1^{GOA}$, the second columns in $B_2^{GOA}$, ..., the last columns in $B_m^{GOA}$. The formulas in Table 1 state the resulting constructions for an SOA($n$, $m'$, $s^t$, $t$) from an OA($n$, $m$, $s$, $t$), which is named $V$. The number of columns $m'$ obtainable from the $m$ columns of $V$ can be calculated as
\[
m'(m, t) = \begin{cases} 
2m/t & \text{t even} \\
2(m-1)/(t-1) & \text{t odd}
\end{cases}. \tag{4}
\]

The relevant specific cases are $m'(m, 2) = m$, $m'(m, 3) = m - 1$, $m'(m, 4) = \lfloor m/2 \rfloor$ and $m'(m, 5) = \lfloor (m-1)/2 \rfloor$. The matrices in the construction equations have $m'$ columns each. In Table 1, the rows for $t = 2$ and $t = 3$ correspond to Equations (2) and (3).

He and Tang (2013) themselves did not consider the use of level permutations in SOA construction. As Weng’s (2014) algorithm greatly improves space filling of the resulting SOAs, it is recommended to apply it to this construction, permuting levels of the columns of all $t$ ingoing matrices (i.e. $m \cdot t$ candidate level permutations).
Table 1: Constructions by He and Tang 2013 of an SOA($n, m', s', t$) based on an $n \times m$ matrix $V$, which is an OA($n, m, s, t$). $m'$ is given in (4), further notations were explained in Section 2.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$D =$</th>
<th>Matrices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$sA + B$</td>
<td>$A = V, B = \text{cyc}(A)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$s^2A + sB + C$</td>
<td>$A = V_{1:(m-1)}, B = (v_m, \ldots, v_m), C = \text{cyc}(A)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$s^3A_1 + s^2A_2 + sA_3 + A_4$</td>
<td>$A_1 = V_{1:m'}, A_2 = V_{(m'+1):(2m')}, A_3 = \text{cyc}(A_2), A_4 = \text{cyc}(A_1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>$s^4A_1 + s^3A_2 + s^2A_3 + sA_4 + A_5$</td>
<td>$A_1 = V_{1:m'}, A_2 = V_{(m'+1):(2m')}, A_3 = 1_m' \otimes v_m$, $A_4 = \text{cyc}(A_2), A_5 = \text{cyc}(A_1)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.2 OSOAs of strengths 2 to 4 by Liu and Liu

Liu and Liu presented constructions for OSOAs. They chose signed levels centered at zero, which is quite common for the orthogonal column case. Nevertheless, for keeping the same notation for all constructions, we will continue to use $0, \ldots, s - 1$ for the OA levels and $0, \ldots, s^t - 1$ for the levels of the OSOA. Strength $t = 4$ already requires a large number of rows per column, so that designs with larger strengths are not considered. The constructions correspond to Theorem 2 of Liu and Liu for even strength and to Theorem 4 of Liu and Liu for odd strength. They use the equations of Table 1, based on the matrices provided below. The connections of those matrices to Liu and Liu’s exposition are detailed in Appendix B.

Lemma 3.6 (Liu and Liu 2015 Theorems 2 and 4). The subsequent $t$-specific constructions ($t = 2, 3, 4$) based on an OA($n, m, s, t$) named $V$ create an SOA($n, m', s', t$), where $m'$ is provided in the constructions. If $t > 2$ and $m' > 2$, the columns are $3$-orthogonal.

If $V$ is an OA($n, m, s, 2$), the $m' = 2\lfloor m/2 \rfloor$ columns of the matrix $A$ are obtained as

$$a_\ell = \begin{cases} v_{\ell+1} & \ell \text{ odd}, \\ v_{\ell-1} & \ell \text{ even} \end{cases}, \quad \ell = 1, \ldots, m', \quad (5)$$

and $B = S(A)$ with $S$ from Definition 2.1. Using $A = V_{1:m'}$ would yield a different but comparable construction.

If $V$ is an OA($n, m, s, 3$), the first $\tilde{m} = 2\lfloor m/4 \rfloor$ columns of the matrices $A$ and $B$ are obtained as

$$a_\ell = \begin{cases} v_{2\ell+1} & \ell \text{ odd}, \\ v_{2\ell-3} & \ell \text{ even} \end{cases}, \quad b_\ell = v_{2\ell}, \quad \ell = 1, \ldots, \tilde{m}, \quad (6)$$

and $C = S(A)$ with $S$ from Definition 2.1. If $m - 2\tilde{m} < 3$, $m' = \tilde{m}$. Otherwise, $m' = \tilde{m} + 1$, and the additional column can be obtained as follows:

$$a_{m'} = v_m, \quad b_{m'} = v_{m-1}, \quad c_{m'} = v_{m-2}. \quad (7)$$

If $V$ is an OA($n, m, s, 4$), the $m' = 2\lfloor m/4 \rfloor$ columns of the matrices $A_1$ and $A_2$ are obtained as

$$a_{1,\ell} = \begin{cases} v_{2\ell+2} & \ell \text{ odd}, \\ v_{2\ell-3} & \ell \text{ even} \end{cases}, \quad a_{2,\ell} = \begin{cases} v_{2\ell+1} & \ell \text{ odd}, \\ v_{2\ell-2} & \ell \text{ even} \end{cases}, \quad (8)$$

together with $A_3 = S(A_2)$ and $A_4 = S(A_1)$ with $S$ from Definition 2.1.

Hence, among the $t$ matrices for a strength $t$ construction, the last $\lceil t/2 \rceil$ matrices are obtained from the first $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$ matrices by applying function $S$. The permutation approach by Weng (2014) can thus be applied independently to the columns of the first $\lceil t/2 \rceil$ matrices. This can be implemented by independently permuting the levels of the columns of $V$. (Level permutations seem to be less powerful for this construction than for some others.)

For strength 2, a wide variety of OSOAs can be constructed with this technique. The constructions for larger strengths require relatively many runs per column. For example, one can obtain an OSOA($64, 16, 8, 3$) from an OA($64, 32, 2, 3$), an OSOA($81, 4, 27, 3$) from an OA($81, 10, 3, 3$), an OSOA($64, 4, 16, 4$) from an OA($64, 8, 2, 4$) or an OSOA($256, 8, 16, 4$) from an OA($256, 17, 2, 4$). The considerable benefit of the constructions for $t > 2$ is that they produce $3$-orthogonal columns, which implies that main effects are uncorrelated to second order effects in linear regression models (see Section 2.5).
3.3 Classes of SOAs

We saw general results for strength 2 and 3 SOAs and early constructions by He and Tang (2013) for SOAs with strengths 2 to 5 and by Liu and Liu (2015) for OSOAs with strengths 2 to 4. In the following, this paper considers constructions for strength 3 and four more refined classes of SOAs, all of which provide less balance than strength 4 but more balance than strength 2. This is because strength 4 or higher is usually prohibitive in terms of run size, while strength 2 without further balance criteria is often not satisfactory.

Table 2: Number of equally-sized strata for low-dimensional projections of refined classes of (O)SOAs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>strength</th>
<th>1D</th>
<th>2D</th>
<th>3D</th>
<th>4D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$s^2$ levels</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>$s^2$</td>
<td>$s^2$</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2+</td>
<td>$s^2$</td>
<td>$s^3$</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3−</td>
<td>$s^2$</td>
<td>$s^3$</td>
<td>$s^3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$s^3$ levels</td>
<td>2+</td>
<td>$s^3$</td>
<td>$s^4$</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>$s^3$</td>
<td>$s^3$</td>
<td>$s^3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3+</td>
<td>$s^3$</td>
<td>$s^4$</td>
<td>$s^4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$s^4$ levels</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>$s^4$</td>
<td>$s^4$</td>
<td>$s^4$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 summarizes the stratification properties for the classes of (O)SOAs considered in the following, namely (O)SOAs of strengths $2^+$, $3^−$, $2^∗$, 3, or $3^+$; the border cases of strengths 2 and 4 are included for reference. 1D projections consider a single column, 2D projections two columns collapsed to $s^a$ and $s^b$ levels, with $a + b$ equal to the exponent in the table entry, 3D projections three columns collapsed to $s^a$, $s^b$ and $s^c$ levels with $a + b + c$ equal to the exponent in the table entry, and so forth. Note that the expression “strength $3^+$” is coined here (see Definition 3.3), in obvious analogy to the expression “strength $2^+$” used by He, Cheng and Tang (2018).

Figure 3: Illustration of stratification properties for the first three columns of the unoptimized OSOA(27,4,27,2*) from the Li et al. construction.

Figure 1 illustrated strength 3 stratification properties, using an SOA(27, 3, 3, 3). As an SOA($n, m, s^3, 2^*$) shares the properties of an SOA($n, m, s^3, 3$) for 2D and 1D projections and does not provide stratification guarantees for 3D projections, some, many or all 3D projections for a strength $2^*$ SOA may look like the top row of Figure 3 (compared to the top row of Figure 1). SOA($n, m, s^2, 3^−$) stratify like Figure 1, except for having fewer levels so that the bottom right plot would have three points in each of nine rows and
columns, respectively, and the points would also be less dispersed in the other plots. An \(\text{SOA}(n, m, s^2, 2+)\) is not only coarser than the SOA shown in Figure 1 but may also have 3D stratification behavior similar to Figure 3.

Strength 3+ will be illustrated after introducing Shi and Tang’s terminology for building blocks of its definition: Shi and Tang (2020) introduced Greek letters for distinguishing three different types of strength 4 properties of the strength 3+ SOAs, with properties \(\alpha\) and \(\gamma\) pertaining to 2D projections, property \(\beta\) to 3D projections:

**Definition 3.2** (Properties \(\alpha, \beta, \gamma\), Shi and Tang 2020).

- property \(\alpha\): all \(s^2 \times s^2\) stratifications in 2D yield \(s^4\) equally-sized strata.
- property \(\beta\): all \(s^2 \times s \times s\) stratifications in 3D yield \(s^4\) equally-sized strata.
- property \(\gamma\): all \(s^3 \times s\) stratifications in 2D yield \(s^4\) equally-sized strata.

\[ (9) \]

**Definition 3.3** (Strength 3+). A strength 3 SOA has strength 3+ iff it fulfills all three properties of Definition 3.2.

Figure 4: Illustration of stratification properties for an OSOA\((16,3,8,3+)\). The figures in the top row show the 3D stratification of \(X_1 \times X_2 \times X_3\) into \(4 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 = 16\) strata (left and middle) and the stratification of \(X_1 \times X_2\) into \(4 \cdot 4 = 16\) strata (left) or \(2 \cdot 8 = 16\) strata (middle), and the stratification of \(X_1\) (horizontal) and \(X_2\) (vertical) into eight 1D strata each (right).

Figure 4 illustrates the stratification properties of strength 3+ for an OSOA\((16,3,8,3+)\) created by the Shi and Tang (2020) construction \((s = 2;\) see Section 4.2). That OSOA projects onto \(16 = 2^4\) equally-sized strata in 3D and 2D, i.e. it has the properties of strength 4 SOAs for 2D and 3D projections. So far, to the author’s knowledge, strength 3+ constructions for \(s > 2\) are not known.

**Remark.** One might argue that the introduction of strengths 3− and 2∗ is somewhat redundant, because it would suffice to communicate the numbers of levels with the strengths 3+, 3 or 2+: strengths 3+, 3 and 2∗ indicate \(s^3\) levels, strengths 3− and 2∗ indicate \(s^2\) levels for each column, i.e. the pairs \((3+, s^3), (3, s^3), (2+, s^3), (3, s^2)\) and \((2+, s^2)\) would be sufficient. Nevertheless, we use the established notation from the literature, and its natural extension by 3+.

OSOAs have orthogonal columns. SOAs without the “O” tend to have correlated columns, but whenever space filling behavior is optimized in some way, correlations are typically not too severe, so that it may be acceptable to use non-orthogonal SOAs, as long as they achieve better space filling properties. For
example, the optimized 27 run SOA from Figure 1 has $X_2$ uncorrelated with the other two columns, and the correlation of $X_1$ with $X_3$ is approximately $-0.0495$ (while the unoptimized version had correlation almost 0.2 for all pairs).

### 3.4 Further results on achieving balance properties

Lemmas 3.2 and 3.3 stated existence and construction hints for strength 2 and strength 3 (O)SOAs. He, Cheng and Tang (2018) ascertained the following construction for strength $2+$ (their proposition 1):

**Lemma 3.7** (He, Cheng and Tang 2018). An SOA($n,m,s^2,2+$) exists if and only if $n \times m$ matrices $A$ and $B$ can be found such that $A$ is an OA($n,m,s,2$), $B$ is an OA($n,m,s,1$), and all triples $(a_i, a_j, b_j)$ are OA($n,3,s,3$) for $\ell \neq j$. These arrays are linked through Equation (2).

Zhou and Tang (2019) gave conditions for obtaining an OSOA of strength $2+$ (their Theorem 1 and Remark 1):

**Lemma 3.8** (Zhou Tang 2019). If the matrix $B$ in Lemma 3.7 is an OA($n,m,s,2$) or a column-orthogonal OA($n,m,s,1$), Equation (2) yields an OSOA($n,m,s^2,2+$).

In the light of this lemma, it is advisable to bring $B$ as close to strength $2$ as possible for strength $2+$ SOAs, in order to achieve column orthogonality, where possible. Zhou and Tang furthermore gave conditions for making the SOA obtained from Equation (2) achieve strength $3+$ (their Lemma 1):

**Lemma 3.9** (Zhou Tang 2019). If the matrix $A$ in Lemma 3.7 is an OA($n,m,s,3$), Equation (2) yields an SOA($n,m,s^2,3-$).

Li, Liu and Yang (2021a) stated their rules for strength $2^+$ w.r.t. their specific construction only. In general terms, strength $2^+$ is attained, whenever the conditions of Lemma 3.3 are fulfilled, except for weakening the requirement for $A$ to strength 2 instead of strength 3.

The following results of this section hold for $s = 2$ only. Shi and Tang (2020) provided necessary and sufficient conditions under which properties $\alpha$, $\beta$ and $\gamma$ of Definition 3.2 are fulfilled (their Proposition 1):

**Lemma 3.10** (Shi and Tang 2020). Let $D = s^2A + sB + C$ an SOA($n,m,s,3$), $n = 2^k$, and let the columns of $A$, $B$ and $C$ be chosen from the saturated regular OA($n, 2^k - 1,2,2$). The properties (9) are obtained under the following conditions:

1. $D$ projects into $s^4$ equally-sized $s^2 \times s^2$ strata (property $\alpha$)
   - iff $(a_i, b_i, a_j, b_j)$ has strength 4 for all $\ell \neq j$.
2. $D$ projects into $s^4$ equally-sized $s^2 \times s \times s$ strata (property $\beta$)
   - iff $(a_i, a_j, a_u, b_u)$ has strength 4 for all triples $(\ell, j, u)$ with distinct elements.
3. $D$ projects into $s^4$ equally-sized $s^3 \times s$ strata
   - iff $(a_i, a_j, b_j, c_j)$ has strength 4 for all $\ell \neq j$ (property $\gamma$).

Let us briefly consider the performance of the strength 3 construction of He and Tang (2013; see Table 1) with a regular fractional factorial 2-level matrix $V$ w.r.t. the criteria: Part (i) of the lemma implies that this construction cannot produce SOAs with property $\alpha$, because all columns of $B$ are identical (up to level permutation). Part (ii) implies that the construction produces an SOA with property $\beta$ iff all quadruples of columns of $V$ that contain column $v_m$ have strength 4. Part (iii) implies that the construction cannot produce an SOA with property $\gamma$ for all quadruples $(a_l, a_j, b_j, c_j)$, because $a_l = c_j$ for some pairs $(\ell, j)$.

### 3.5 OAs as OSOAs

We now take a brief look at using OAs as SOAs. First, note that any OA($n, m, \ell, 2$) has orthogonal columns. We consider OAs with $s^k$ levels relative to the underlying $s$, when considering their strengths as SOAs. The literature provides many constructions for symmetric OAs whose numbers of levels are powers of a prime, for example by Bose (1947), Bush (1952), Bose and Bush (1952), or Addelman and
Kempthorne (1961). These are usually not stated in terms of matrix equations. Nevertheless, they could be, since underlying construction matrices can be obtained according to Lemma 3.1; note that the matrix $A_1$ from that equation trivially has OA strength $t$ for an OA of OA strength $t$. Furthermore, note that a given OA can be considered together with different $s$, if its number of levels permits (e.g. $81 = 3^4 = 9^3$).

(i) Any OA($n, m, s^2, 2$) is per construction also an OSOA($n, m, s^2, 2^+$), and it additionally fulfills property $\alpha$.

(ii) An OA($n, m, s^2, 2$) may be an OSOA($n, m, s^2, 3$) or even an OSOA($n, m, s^2, 3^+$) (see example below).

(iii) Any OA($n, m, s^2, 3$) is an OSOA($n, m, s^2, 3$) and additionally fulfills property $\alpha$ (and further balance properties for which no labels have been defined in the SOA literature).

(iv) Any OA($n, m, s^3, 2$) is per construction also an OSOA($n, m, s^3, 2^*$) that fulfills properties $\alpha$ and $\gamma$.

(v) Any OA($n, m, s^3, 3$) is per construction also an OSOA($n, m, s^3, 3^+$).

For example, an OA(81, 10, 9, 2) with $s = 3$ is an OSOA(81, 10, 9, 2$+$) and fulfills property $\alpha$; similarly, an OA(729, 28, 27, 2) with $s = 3$ is an OSOA(729, 28, 27, 2$^*$). The 16 8-level columns from the OA(128, 8$^{16}$16$^1$, 2) from the Kuhfeld (2010) collection with $s = 2$ are an OSOA(128, 16, 8, 3$^+$) ($s = 2$) and are thus an example for (ii). An OA(729, 10, 9, 3) with $s = 3$ is an OSOA(729, 10, 9, 3$^-$) with property $\alpha$ (and further balance properties for which no labels have been defined in the SOA literature).

4 Constructions for further (O)SOAs in $s^3$ levels

This section covers constructions in terms of Equation (3). The strength 3 constructions by He and Tang (2013) and Liu and Liu (2015) were already covered in Section 3.2. The following two sub sections provide the construction of OSOAs of strength $2^+$ or 3 by Li, Liu and Yang (2021a) and the construction of strength 3 or $3^+$ 8-level SOAs by Shi and Tang (2020).

4.1 Li, Liu and Yang’s construction of OSOAs of strength $2^+$ or 3

Li et al. (2021) proposed a procedural algorithm, based on two OA($n, m, s, 2$) called $A$ and $B$. The constructions are related to the construction by Liu and Liu (2015; see Section 3.2.2). A key difference is that Li et al. considered separate matrices $A$ and $B$ and made more lenient assumptions on $B$, rather than taking the columns of both these matrices from a single OA $V$ that is subjected to strong assumptions.

For odd $m$, the last column of both matrices $A$ and $B$ is omitted, so that one can require $m$ to be even. The algorithm constructs OSOAs($n, m, s^3$, strength) of strengths $2^+$ or 3. It yields

- strength 3 for $m = n/2 - 2$ columns with 8 levels, where $n$ is a multiple of 8, based on doubled Hadamard matrices,
- strength $2^+$ for $m = 2 \lceil m/2 \rceil$ columns with $s^3$ levels, based on an arbitrary OA($n/s, m, s, 2$), $V$, say.

This has the special case, where $n = s^k$ and $V$ is the regular saturated OA($n/s, (s^{k-1} - 1)/(s-1), s, 2$).
- strength 3, if the $V$ from the previous bullet has strength 3.

Proposition 4.1. Li et al.’s (2021) algorithm based on the $n \times m$ matrices $A$ and $B$ can be restated as follows with $m' = 2 \cdot \lfloor m/2 \rfloor$:

$$D = s^2 A_{1,m'} + s B_{1,m'} + C$$

with the columns of the $n \times m'$ matrix $C$ obtained as

$$c_{\ell} = \begin{cases} a_{\ell+1} & \ell \text{ odd} \\ s - 1 - a_{\ell-1} & \ell \text{ even} \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

where $s - 1 - a_{\ell-1}$ indicates a reversal of the levels of column $a_{\ell-1}$.

This representation will be used here, because it fits in nicely with Equation (3) and related results. Note that Equation (10) implies that $C = S(A_{1,m'})$ with $S$ from Definition 2.1, like for the Liu and Liu (2015) construction for strength 3. Appendix C contains the proof for the proposition.

Depending on the properties of $A$ and $B$, the construction generates OSOA($n, m', s^3, 2^*$) or OSOA($n, m', s^3, 3$), where $m' = 2 \lceil m/2 \rceil$. Note that one does not need to assume that $A$ and $B$ are subsets of columns from a saturated regular OA. Li et al. provided the following general results:
Lemma 4.1 (Li et al. 2021). Let $D = s^2A + sB + C$ with $C$ chosen according to Equation (10), and let $A$ and $B$ be OA($n,m,s,2$).

(i) If all three-column sets $(a_i,a_j,b_j), i \neq j$, are OA($n,3,s,3$), $D$ is an OSOA($n,m,s^3,2^s$) (Theorem 2 in Li et al.).

(ii) If in addition to (i) $A$ is an OA($n,m,s,3$), $D$ is an OSOA($n,m,s^3,3$) (Theorem 3 in Li et al.).

4.1.1 Obtain an OSOA from a general OA

Let $V$ be an OA($n/s,m,s,2$), and $m' = 2[m/2]$. Li et al.’s construction of $n \times m'$ matrices $A$, $B$ and $C$ for obtaining an OSOA($n,m',s,2^s$) via Equation (3) can be stated as follows:

$$A = (V^T, V^T, \ldots, V^T_s + (s - 1))\top, \quad B = (V^T, V^T, \ldots, V^T)\top,$$

with $C$ again obtained from Equation (10). According to Lemma 4.1, $D$ generally has strength $2^s$. If $V$ has OA strength 3, the OSOA $D$ also has strength 3. Section 4.1.2 will provide a modification for $A$ that preserves the benefits of Equation (11) and improves the chances for good space-filling and for obtaining strength 3 even if $V$ only has OA strength 2.

Level permutations according to Weng (2014) can be applied to the columns of $V$ or separately to the columns of $A$ and $B$; the construction of matrix $C$ from $A$ must always follow Equation (10). Li et al. emphasized that the construction (11) does not require $s$ to be a prime power. Thus, it can, e.g., be used for constructing an OSOA(432, 6, 216, $2^9$) from the symmetric 6-level portion of the OA($72, 16, 2^33^24^16^7, 2$) from Warren Kuhfeld’s collection.

4.1.2 Strength 3 constructions from a strength 2 OA

Strength 3 for the OSOA $D$ does not require that the OA $V$ in Equation (11) has OA strength 3: it is sufficient that the matrix $A$ has OA strength 3. This is for example achieved for $s = 2$, whenever $V$ is the 0/1 version of a Hadamard matrix without the constant column, or more generally, whenever the foldover method is able to turn a strength 2 OA $V$ into OA strength 3. Thus, strength 3 OSOAs with 8-level columns in $n$ runs can be obtained for up to $n/2 - 2$ columns from a Hadamard matrix construction (see Section 3.2 of Li et al. 2021).

For $s > 2$, the foldover principle no longer holds. Nevertheless, the matrix $A$ from Equation (11) can achieve OA strength 3 in some cases, and whether or not that happened can at least be diagnosed post-hoc. A slight generalization of Li et al.’s construction of $A$ increases the chances of obtaining OA strength 3 for $A$ from a $V$ that only had OA strength 2. The key idea is to add column-specific constants in the construction of $A$:

$$A = B + sM, \quad B = (V^T, V^T, \ldots, V^T)\top,$$

where $M$ is an $n \times m'$ matrix that consists of columns $(\pi_{1\ell}1_{n/s}^\top, \ldots, \pi_{s\ell}1_{n/s}^\top)\top, \ell = 1, \ldots, m'$, with

$\pi_\ell = (\pi_{1\ell}, \ldots, \pi_{s\ell})\top$ denoting a permutation of $(0, \ldots, s - 1)$. This increased freedom in constructing the columns of $A$, combined with level permutation applied to the columns of $B$ and $M$, yields better chances for good space filling without destroying orthogonality.

If $V$ already had OA strength 3, Construction (12) preserves that strength, like construction (11) does. If $V$ has OA strength 2 only, a beneficial pattern of permutations in $M$ can cause the OA strength of $A$ to become 3. For example, as an OA($81, 9, 3, 3$) exists, one can expect that an OSOA($81,8,9,3$) should be obtainable by the algorithm: thus, using the first eight 3-level columns from the mixed-level OA($27, 3^39^12$), optimization of space filling via level permutation indeed yields such an array for some seeds. In the examples that were inspected, the strength 3 SOAs did not exhibit close to optimal space filling in terms of the $\phi_p$ value, but rather a value around the upper quartile of $\phi_p$ values. Thus, higher strength and better space filling in terms of $\phi_p$ seem to be conflicting targets. This matter has not been explored in depth.
4.2 Shi and Tang’s strength 3 SOAs with additional balance properties

Shi and Tang (2020) constructed SOAs from a $2^k \times (2^k - 1)$ saturated regular strength 2 fraction $S$. The $n \times m'$ matrices $A$, $B$ and $C$ ($n = 2^k$) for Equation (3) have columns from that $S$. Shi and Tang treated 2-level fractions in the $-1/1$ coding with multiplication that is often used for 2-level fractions. Here, we will use the equivalent 0/1 encoding with $+2$. The additional balance properties $\alpha$, $\beta$ and $\gamma$ that were introduced by Shi and Tang where already presented in Section 3.3. Emphasis is on the construction of matrices $A$ and $B$. The matrix $C$ can always be obtained according to Lemma 3.4.

4.2.1 $5n/16$ 8-level columns with property $\alpha$

Shi and Tang’s first family of SOAs exists for $n \geq 16$ and is based on the following recursive construction.

Lemma 4.2. Let $A_k$ and $B_k$ fulfill all conditions for obtaining an SOA($2^k$, $m$, $8$, $3$) with property $\alpha$ through Equation (3). Then the matrices $A_{k+2}$ and $B_{k+2}$ constructed by

$$A_{k+2} = \begin{pmatrix} A_k & A_k & A_k & A_k \\ A_k & 1 + 2A_k & A_k & 1 + 2A_k \\ A_k & A_k & 1 + 2A_k & 1 + 2A_k \\ A_k & 1 + 2A_k & 1 + 2A_k & A_k \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$B_{k+2} = \begin{pmatrix} B_k & B_k & B_k & B_k \\ B_k & B_k & 1 + 2B_k & 1 + 2B_k \\ B_k & 1 + 2B_k & B_k & 1 + 2B_k \\ B_k & 1 + 2B_k & B_k & 1 + 2B_k \end{pmatrix}.$$  

fulfill all conditions for obtaining an SOA($2^{k+2}$, $4m$, $8$, $3$) with property $\alpha$ through Equation (3).

Lemma 4.2 states the recursive construction rule by Shi and Tang in the notation of this paper. Once there are start values for even and for odd $k$, one can recursively construct all designs for larger values of $k$. Start values are available for $k = 4$ and $k = 7$, and the case $k = 5$ can be treated separately, so that SOAs with property $\alpha$ are available for $k \geq 4$. Start values are provided in Appendix D.

The recursive construction of Lemma 4.2 is somewhat inconvenient, and it is not straightforward to state it as a non-recursive general formula. However, it is straightforward to state update rules in terms of Yates matrix column numbers, which simplifies considerations and computations. The construction of Lemma 4.2 means that the Yates matrix columns from the smaller design remain in place, and further Yates matrix columns are added according to the following proposition.

Proposition 4.2. Let $Y_A$ and $Y_B$ denote the tuples of Yates matrix column numbers of matrices $A$ and $B$, and let $A_k$ and $B_k$ denote the matrices from constructions for $n = 2^k$. Then, the matrices for $n = 2^{k+2}$ can be obtained with the following Yates matrix tuples:

$$Y_{A_{k+2}} = (Y_{A_k} + 2^k, Y_{A_k} + 2^{k+1}, Y_{A_k} + 2^k + 2^{k+1}),$$

$$Y_{B_{k+2}} = (Y_{B_k} + 2^{k+1}, Y_{B_k} + 2^k, Y_{B_k} + 2^k + 2^{k+1}).$$

According to Lemma 3.10 (i), the matrix $C$ is irrelevant for obtaining property $\alpha$. With the start values given in Appendix D, it can be observed that the Yates matrix column numbers from Proposition 4.2 do not contain multiples of 16 (excluding the single special case $k = 5$). This also holds for $Y_{A_{k+2}B}$. According to Lemma 3.4, it is therefore adequate (though by no means necessary) to choose $C$ as a matrix with all columns equal to one of those Yates matrix columns. (For $k = 4$, there are no such Yates matrix columns; Appendix D suggests one of many possible solutions for that case.)

4.2.2 Strength 3+ SOAs in $n/4 - 1$ 8 level columns, or one more column without property $\gamma$

Shi and Tang proposed two further SOA families in $n = 2^k$ runs: SOA($n$, $n/4$, $8$, $3$) with properties $\alpha$ and $\beta$ (their family 2) and an SOA($n$, $n/4 - 1$, $8$, $3$) (their family 3). The two constructions are closely related and are therefore presented together.
The starting point is a saturated regular OA$(n/4, n/4 - 1, 2, 2)$ called $X$ that is based on $k - 2$ basic vectors. Let $Y = (y_1, \ldots, y_{n/4 - 1})$ be a reshuffling of the columns of $X$ such that

- $y_\ell$ and $y_r$ are different for $\ell = 1, \ldots, m$
- for $Z = X + 2 Y$, the triple $(x_\ell, y_\ell, z_\ell)$ has strength at least 2 for $\ell = 1, \ldots, m$.

Shi and Tang proved that such a $Y$ can be found. The start vectors for $k = 2$ and $k = 3$ for the recursive construction are given in Lemma 4.3 in terms of Yates matrix column numbers, and the subsequent proposition provides the recursive construction:

**Lemma 4.3** (restated from Shi and Tang 2020). Let $Y_M$ denote the vector of Yates matrix column numbers for a matrix $M$. The start values of the Shi and Tang construction for their families 2 and 3 are given as follows:

- For $k = 2$, $Y_X = 123$, $Y_Y = 231$, and $Y_Z = 312$.
- For $k = 3$, $Y_X = 1234567$, $Y_Y = 7521643$ and $Y_Z = 6715324$.

**Proposition 4.3** (restated from Shi and Tang 2020). Let $Y_{X_k}$, $Y_{Y_k}$ and $Y_{Z_k}$ denote the tuples of Yates matrix column numbers for $2^k \times (2^k - 1)$ matrices $X_k$, $Y_k$ and $Z_k$, such that $x_{k+2} y_\ell = z_\ell$ and $(x_\ell, y_\ell, z_\ell)$ have at least strength 2, $\ell = 1, \ldots, 2^k - 1$. Then, $2^{k+2} \times (2^{k+2} - 1)$ matrices $X_{k+2}$, $Y_{k+2}$ and $Z_{k+2}$ with the same properties can be obtained using the following Yates matrix tuples:

$$
Y_{X_{k+2}} = (y_{X_{k+1}}, 2^k, y_{X_k} + 2^k, 2^{k+1}, y_{X_k} + 2^{k+1}, 2^k + 2^{k+1}, y_{X_k} + 2^k + 2^{k+1}), \\
Y_{Y_{k+2}} = (y_{Y_{k+1}}, 2^{k+1}, y_{Y_k} + 2^{k+1}, 2^k + 2^{k+1}, y_{Y_k} + 2^{k+1}, 2^k, y_{Y_k} + 2^{k+1}), \\
Y_{Z_{k+2}} = (y_{Z_{k+1}}, 2^k + 2^{k+1}, y_{Z_k} + 2^k + 2^{k+1}, 2^k, y_{Z_k} + 2^k, 2^{k+1}, y_{Z_k} + 2^{k+1}).
$$

Together with the start tuples from Lemma 4.3, a construction of $2^k \times (2^k - 1)$ matrices $X$, $Y$ and $Z$ is thus available for all $k \geq 2$.

**Example.** Applying Proposition 4.3 for obtaining the $16 \times 15$ matrices (i.e. $k + 2 = 4$) yields

- columns $1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15$ for $X$
- columns $2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16$ for $Y$ and consequently
- columns $3,1,2,12,15,13,14,4,7,5,6,8,11,9,10$ for $Z$.

The saturated $X$ is always in original Yates order, i.e. $Y_{X_k} = (1, \ldots, 2^k - 1)$. Algorithmically, it suffices to construct the reshuffled $Y$, since $Z$ is a direct consequence and is also not needed for the construction (see below).

The following lemma states the construction of the matrices $A$, $B$ and $C$ for Equation (3) from the matrices $X$ and $Y$.

**Lemma 4.4** (restated from Shi and Tang 2020). Let $X$ and $Y$ be $2^{k-2} \times (2^{k-2} - 1)$ matrices according to Proposition 4.3.

(i) $2^k \times 2^{k-2}$ matrices for constructing Shi and Tang’s Family 2 from Equation (3) are given as

$$
A = \begin{pmatrix}
0_{n/4} & X \\
0_{n/4} & X \\
1_{n/4} & 1 + 2 X \\
1_{n/4} & 1 + 2 X
\end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix}
0_{n/4} & Y \\
1_{n/4} & 1 + 2 Y \\
0_{n/4} & Y \\
1_{n/4} & 1 + 2 Y
\end{pmatrix}.
$$

(ii) The construction (i) yields an SOA$(n, n/4, 3)$ with properties $\alpha$ and $\beta$, if $c_{b_\ell}$ is chosen as a column from the saturated OA$(2^k, 2^k - 1, 2, 2)$ that is unequal to all three of $a_\ell$, $b_\ell$ and $a_\ell + b_\ell$.

(iii) If each first column is omitted, and one of them is used instead for each column of $C$, the result is an SOA$(n, n/4 - 1, 8, 3)$ of Shi and Tang’s Family 3.

The construction of Equation (13) for a design with $n = 2^k$ rows based on $n/4 \times (n/4 - 1)$ matrices $X$ and $Y$ and can be stated as follows in Yates matrix notation:
**Corollary 4.1.** The construction of Lemma 4.4 is equivalent to using the following tuples of Yates matrix columns for constructing the matrices \( \mathbf{A} \) and \( \mathbf{B} \) (omitting the respective first column for the strength 3+ construction):

- \( Y_A = (n/2, n/2 + 1, \ldots, 3n/4 - 1) \)
- \( Y_B = (n/4, n/4 + 1) \)
- \( Y_{A+2B} = (n/2 + n/4, n/2 + n/4 + Y_Z) \)

**Proof.** The Yates column numbers follow from careful considerations regarding the structure of Yates matrices. 

The following lemma proposes a choice of columns for \( \mathbf{C} \) such that the strength 3+ SOA of Shi and Tang’s Family 3 becomes an OSOA, and the strength 3 SOA of Shi and Tang’s Family 2 has a single pair of correlated columns only.

**Lemma 4.5.** The following column choices for the constructions of Shi and Tang’s families 2 and 3 are beneficial for obtaining orthogonal columns:

- (i) For Family 3, choosing \( \mathbf{C} \) as the matrix of the first \( n/4 - 1 \) Yates columns guarantees that an OSOA \((n, n/4 - 1, 8, 3^+)\) is obtained.
- (ii) For Family 2, choosing \( \mathbf{C} \) as a matrix of the first \( n/4 - 1 \) Yates columns with exactly one column duplicated guarantees that there is only a single column pair with non-zero correlation.

**Proof.** The proposed column choices fulfill the assumptions of Lemma 3.4. (i) follows from Lemma 3.5. (ii) also follows from that lemma, if one realizes that any \( n/4 - 1 \) column sub matrix that does not contain the pair with the same \( \mathbf{C} \) column has orthogonal columns according to the lemma. 

Appendix E provides two small applications of the construction.

### 5 SOA constructions with \( m \) columns in \( s^2 \) levels

This section uses the construction from Lemma 3.2 with Equation (2). Lemmas 3.7, 3.8 and 3.9 gave conditions for a strength 2+ SOA, an OSOA or a strength 3− SOA. The constructions of this section are based on these lemmas.

#### 5.1 Constructions by Zhou and Tang (2019)

The constructions by Zhou and Tang (2019) are similar to the constructions by Li et al. (2021), which were of course developed later, but were already presented in the previous section. Basically, the matrices \( \mathbf{A} \) and \( \mathbf{B} \) from the Li et al. constructions are used, and the unnecessary matrix \( \mathbf{C} \) is omitted. Generally, the constructions by Zhou and Tang have the same number of columns or one more column, and yield \( s^2 \) levels instead of \( s^3 \).

Where Li et al. obtained an OSOA\((n, n/2 - 2, 8, 3)\) from a doubled Hadamard matrix with \( n/2 \) rows (special case of Equation (11) with \( \mathbf{V} \) a Hadamard matrix), Zhou and Tang obtained an OSOA\((n, n/2 - 1, 4, 3^+)\).

Where Li et al. obtained an OSOA\((s^k, 2[(s^{k-1} - 1)/(2(s - 1))] , s^3, 2^+)\) from a regular saturated OA in \( s^{k-1} \) runs (special case of Equation (11) or (12) with \( \mathbf{V} \) a saturated regular OA), Zhou and Tang obtained an OSOA\((s^k, (s^{k-1} - 1)/(s - 1), s^2, 2^+)\).

Where Li et al. obtained an OSOA\((n, 2[m/2], s^3, 3)\) from an OA\((n/s, m, s, 3)\) or an OSOA\((n, 2[m/2], s^3, t)\) \((t = 2^* \text{ or } t = 3)\) from an OA\((n/s, m, s, 2)\), Zhou and Tang obtained an OSOA\((n/m, s^3, 3^+)\) \((\text{although they did not claim that strength for their general construction})\) or an OSOA\((n/m, s^3, 2^+)\). For this construction, they used \( \mathbf{A} \) and \( \mathbf{B} \) in switched roles (their Theorem 4), which can be improved upon: Using \( \mathbf{A} \) and \( \mathbf{B} \) from Equation (12) in Equation (2), it is sometimes possible to achieve a strength 3− OSOA in spite of using a matrix \( \mathbf{V} \) with OA strength 2, e.g. when using an OA\((9, 3, 3, 2)\) in the role of \( \mathbf{V} \).
5.2 He et al.’s construction of strength 2+ SOAs for regular 2-level fractions

He, Cheng and Tang (2018) provided a construction based on regular 2-level fractions. The columns for both \( A \) and \( B \) are chosen from a saturated regular 2-level array \( S \). The construction relies on the concept of an SOS design \( X \) which is characterized as follows: all columns of \( S \) that do not belong to a main effect of \( X \) contain a two-factor interaction of a pair of columns in \( X \). He et al. (2018) proved that it is necessary and sufficient for strength 2+ that all columns of \( A \) are from the complement \( \overline{X} \) in \( S \) of an SOS design \( X \); suitable columns for \( B \) can then be picked from \( X \). According to Lemma 3.8, populating \( B \) with distinct columns from \( X \) (if possible) makes \( D \) an SOA: a pair-matching algorithm for bipartite graphs can help to find distinct columns for \( B \). If \( A \) has OA strength 3, the resulting (O)SOA \( D \) has strength 3−. However, it is not obvious how to ensure OA strength 3 for \( A \) in a systematic way.

5.2.1 Constructions for SOS designs and upper bound for number of columns

He et al. gave four constructions for an SOS design as follows: For a total of \( k \geq 4 \) independent columns, let \( P = P(\{a_1, \ldots, a_k\}) \) denote the set of all effects pertaining to \( k_1 \geq 2 \) columns (i.e., \( 2^{k_1} - 1 \) elements), \( Q = Q(\{b_1, \ldots, b_{k_2}\}) \) the set of all effects pertaining to the remaining \( k_2 = k - k_1 \geq 2 \) columns (i.e., \( 2^{k_2} - 2 \) elements). Then, the following column choices yield SOS designs (where \( +2 \) between a column and a set denotes the set of separate sums):

\[
\begin{align*}
(i) \quad C_1 &= P \cup Q \{2^{k_1} + 2^{k_2} - 1 \} \text{ elements}, \\
(ii) \quad C_2 &= (P - \{a_1\}) \cup (Q - \{b_1\}) \cup \{a_1 + 2b_1\} \{2^{k_1} + 2^{k_2} - 3 \} \text{ elements}, \\
(iii) \quad C_3 &= (P - \{a_1\}) \cup \{a_1 + 2Q\} \{2^{k_1} + 2^{k_2} - 3 \} \text{ elements}, \\
(iv) \quad C_4 &= (b_1 + 2P) \cup (a_1 + 2(Q - \{b_1\})) \{2^{k_1} + 2^{k_2} - 3 \} \text{ elements}.
\end{align*}
\]

The minimum possible number of columns for an SOS design determines the maximum possible number \( m_k \) of columns for the OA from this construction. The minimum number achievable from the above constructions is attained by choosing \( k_1 = \lceil k/2 \rceil \) which implies \( 2^{\lceil k/2 \rceil} + 2^{k - \lceil k/2 \rceil} - 3 \) SOS matrix columns. Obviously, \( m_k \) is at least \( 2^k - 1 \) minus this number. He et al. stated an upper bound for \( m_k \), as \( 2^k - 1 - M(k) \), with \( M(k) \) the maximum number of columns in a strength 4 OA. This upper bound can be slightly tightened by realizing that the number of columns \( m \) in an SOS design must fulfill the quadratic inequality \( m + m(m - 1)/2 \geq 2^k - 1 \). It is likely that incorporation of structural requirements would lead to further tightening of the upper bound for \( m_k \).

5.2.2 Implementation of the construction

The implementation of the construction has the following steps:

- Allocate \( P \) and \( Q \) with \( k_1 \) and \( k_2 \) columns, \( k_1 + k_2 = k \), \( |k_1 - k_2| \leq 1 \); this choice of \( k_1 \) and \( k_2 \) minimizes the number of columns of the SOS design.
- Define \( R_{SOS} \) as one of \( C_2 \), \( C_3 \) or \( C_4 \).
- Obtain \( A \) as the matrix of the columns from the saturated regular \( 2^k \times (2^k - 1) \) array \( S \) that are not in \( R_{SOS} \), and define \( A \) as the set of the columns of \( A \).
- For each column \( a_j \in A \), define the set \( S_j \) as those columns \( c \in R_{SOS} \) that yield a triple of OA strength 3 when added to any pair \( \{a_i, a_j\} \subset A \) that involves column \( a_j \).
- Define a bipartite graph \( G \) with the vertices from \( A \) (type 1) and \( R_{SOS} \) (type 2) and edges between \( a_i \) and all elements of \( S_j \). (There is at least one edge for each element of \( A \).)
- Create \( B \) from the columns \( b_j \in R_{SOS} \) according to the following matching approach:
  - Match a \( b_j \) to each \( a_i \in A \), using a maximum bipartite matching algorithm on the graph \( G \).
  - \text{If this step matches all columns of } A, B \text{ will have strength 2 and column orthogonality will be achieved.}
  - For any unmatched \( a_i \in A \), assign an arbitrary element of \( S_j \) as \( b_i \).
- Apply the algorithm by Weng (2014) for improving \( \phi_p \), permuting levels in the columns of \( A \) and \( B \).
- Return \( D = sA + B \) from the optimized permutation pattern.

5.3 He et al.’s construction of strength 2+ SOAs for regular s level fractions (\( s \geq 3 \))

The construction of this section works for primes or prime powers \( s \geq 3 \) via a saturated regular fraction \( S \) which is an OA(\( s^k \), \( (s^k - 1)/(s - 1) \), \( s \), \( 2 \) ), \( k \geq 3 \) (see Section 2.3.1 for the construction of \( S \)). An SOA obtained by this construction has \( s^k \) runs with up to \( m = (s^k - 1)/(s - 1) - ((s - 1)^k - 1)/(s - 2) \) columns,
e.g. six 9-level columns in 27 runs \( (s = 3, k = 3) \), eight 16-level columns in 64 runs \( (s = 4, k = 3) \), 25 9-level columns in 81 runs \( (s = 3, k = 4) \), or 45 16-level columns in 256 runs \( (s = 4, k = 4) \). The necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of an SOA of strength 2+ were given in Lemma 3.7.

The following coarse implementation steps can be followed for an implementation that guarantees orthogonality (through a strength 2 matrix \( B \), according to Lemma 3.8), whenever that is compatible with strength 2+ for the requested number of runs and columns. The details are very similar to Section 5.2.2 and are therefore omitted.

- The matrix \( A \) is populated with the \( m = (s^k - 1)/(s - 1) - (s - 1)^k/(s - 2) \) linear combinations of at least two of the \( k \) basic columns (contained in \( S \)) whose first coefficient is 1 (holds for all columns of \( S \)) and whose further coefficients include at least one element \( s - 1 \). The set of the columns of \( A \) is denoted as \( A \).
- The set of the remaining columns of \( S \) is denoted as \( R \).
- The elements of \( A \) and \( R \) make up the two types of vertices in a bipartite graph \( G \).
- The matrix \( B \) is populated with a selection of the elements of \( R \): \( b_j \) is chosen to yield a triple of OA strength 3 with any pair \( (a_\ell, a_j) \), \( j \neq \ell \) (cf. Lemma 3.7). Like in Section 5.2, a set \( S_j \) of permissible columns is identified for each position \( j \), and \( G \) has edges between \( a_\ell \) and all elements of \( S_j \). Use of an algorithm for maximal matching in bipartite graphs ensures that an SOA with many pairs of orthogonal columns will be obtained.
- The SOA \( (s^k, m, s^2, 2+) \) is then obtained as \( D = sA + B \).
- Optimization of permutations in columns of \( A \) and \( B \) improves the space filling behavior.

6 Overview of sizes, strengths and constructions

Aspects in the choice of a suitable (O)SOA are

- the affordable run size \( n \)
- the required number of columns \( m \)
- the required number of levels per column \( s \)
- and the required balance properties, reflected by the strength or column orthogonality.

Of course, the larger the strength, the larger the run size requirements for the same number of levels.

Table 3 lists the different constructions that are covered in this paper. Tables 4, 5 and 6 give the maximum numbers of columns for the different constructions for some \( n \) and \( s = 2 \) to \( s = 4 \). For \( s = 3 \) and \( s = 4 \), the maximum sizes of the relevant OAs underlying the constructions have been taken from the MinT database (Schmid, Schürer and others). The OAs are available in R package DoE.base (Grömping 2021a). The tables show that the strength 2+ SOAs by He, Cheng and Tang have a lot more columns than the strength 3– \( (s = 2) \) or 2+ \( (s > 2) \) SOAs by Zhou and Tang, i.e. column orthogonality comes at a cost for this strength. For the strength 3 (O)SOAs, the numbers of columns obtainable with and without orthogonality are almost identical. Here, Li, Liu and Yang have increased the number of columns obtainable with \( s^2 \) levels by dropping the 3D projection properties (strength 2*). On the other end, the 3+ SOAs by He, Cheng and Tang have a lot more columns than the strength 3– \( (s = 2) \) or 2+ \( (s > 2) \) OAs by Zhou and Tang, i.e. column orthogonality comes at a cost for this strength. For the strength 3+ (O)SOAs, the numbers of columns obtainable with and without orthogonality are almost identical. Here, Li, Liu and Yang have increased the number of columns obtainable with \( s^3 \) levels by dropping the 3D projection properties (strength 2*). On the other end, the 3+ SOAs by He, Cheng and Tang have a lot more columns than the strength 3– \( (s = 2) \) or 2+ \( (s > 2) \) OAs by Zhou and Tang, i.e. column orthogonality comes at a cost for this strength. For the strength 3+ (O)SOAs, the numbers of columns obtainable with and without orthogonality are almost identical. Here, Li, Liu and Yang have increased the number of columns obtainable with \( s^3 \) levels by dropping the 3D projection properties (strength 2*). On the other end, the 3+ SOAs by He, Cheng and Tang have a lot more columns than the strength 3– \( (s = 2) \) or 2+ \( (s > 2) \) OAs by Zhou and Tang, i.e. column orthogonality comes at a cost for this strength. For the strength 3+ (O)SOA with \( s^3 \) columns in 729 runs \( (s = 25) \), the strength 3+ is quite attractive. Unfortunately, there are so far no strength 3+ constructions for \( s > 2 \).

Table 4 is limited to regular fractions or arrays based on (selected) Hadamard matrices. Where strong non-regular OAs exist, more columns may be possible for the He and Tang construction. Known such cases are strength 4 SOAs with 7 columns in 16 levels from an OA(128, 15, 2, 4), or 9 columns in 16 levels from an OA(256, 19, 2, 4); both these OAs can be found in Mee 2009 and are available in R package DoE.base. If more non-regular arrays are found, more such cases will arise.

7 Discussion

SOAs and OSOAs of practical importance exist in many varieties: one can obtain LHDs by e.g. constructing an OSOA(729, 10, 729, 2*) from an OA(81, 10, 9, 2), or an OSOA(512, 8, 512, 2*) from an
The LL construction yields 3-orthogonal columns for strengths 3 and 4. Where it matters, the entries for the LLY and ZT constructions assume that one could also use an OA(n/s, m, s, 3) in the ZT approach and achieve strength 3+. That table row has been omitted because it does not seem too practically relevant. Where the strength column lists two alternatives, the higher strength is not achieved; the construction of the matrix Ω is assumed to follow this paper.

Table 3: Overview of the construction methods of this paper.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eq. levels input</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>maximum number of columns</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>OSOA</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(2) s² OA(n, m, s, 2)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>HT 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) s³ OA(n, m, s, 3)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>m - 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>HT 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) s⁴ OA(n, m, s, 4)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>⌊m/2⌋</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>HT 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) s⁵ OA(n, m, s, 5)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>⌊(m - 1)/2⌋</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>HT 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 4 2, k, (m)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2²</td>
<td>2² - 2²k/2 - ⌊2k/2⌋ + 2</td>
<td>2+</td>
<td>no or yes</td>
<td>HCT 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) s² s, k, (m)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>s²</td>
<td>s²k - 1</td>
<td>2²</td>
<td>no or yes</td>
<td>HCT 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) s³ OA(n/s, m, s, 2)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>2 ⌊m/2⌋</td>
<td>2* or 3</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>LLY 2021a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) s³ OA(n/s, m, s, 3)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>2 ⌊m/4⌋ or 2 ⌊m/4⌋ + 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>LLY 2021a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 8 m and/or n</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28 ⌊m + 2/4⌋</td>
<td>n/2 - 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>LLY 2021a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) s³ s, k, (m)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>s²</td>
<td>2 ⌊s²k - 1⌋</td>
<td>2* or 3</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>LLY 2021a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) s² OA(n/s, m, s, 2)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>2+ or 3−</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>ZT 2019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 4 m and/or n</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28 ⌊m + 1/4⌋</td>
<td>n/2 - 1</td>
<td>3−</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>ZT 2019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) s² s, k, (m)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>s²</td>
<td>2 ⌊sk² - 1⌋</td>
<td>2+ or 3−</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>ZT 2019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 8 n, (m)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2²</td>
<td>5n/16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>ST 2020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 8 n, (m)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2²</td>
<td>n/4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>ST 2020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 8 n, (m)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2²</td>
<td>n/4 - 1</td>
<td>3+</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>ST 2020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
p² indicates a prime or prime power; where this is restricted to ≠ 2, s = 2 is treated as another special case.
The LL construction yields 3-orthogonal columns for strengths 3 and 4.
The HCT construction achieves orthogonal columns under some circumstances. For very few columns, it may be possible to achieve strength 3− (not practically relevant). The stated number of columns is achievable with the SOS matrix constructions provided in Section 5.2.1; it may be possible to find constructions for more columns. Where it matters, the entries for the LL and ZT constructions assume that A is constructed according to Equation (12). One could also use an OA(n/s, m, s, 3) in the ZT approach and achieve strength 3−; that table row has been omitted because it does not seem too practically relevant. Where the strength column lists two alternatives, the higher strength is not achievable for numbers of columns close to the maximum.
The ST constructions enable additional balance properties, even where strength 3+ is not achieved; the construction of the matrix C is assumed to follow this paper.
Table 4: Achievable column numbers for (O)SOAs from regular 2-level fractional factorials or Hadamard matrices.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>4 levels</th>
<th>8 levels</th>
<th>16 levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>HT, 2</td>
<td>HCT, 2+</td>
<td>ZT, 3−</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>40</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>96</td>
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<td>48</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>256</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>512</td>
<td>511</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1024</td>
<td>1023</td>
<td>962</td>
<td>511</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:

Table 5: Achievable column numbers for (O)SOAs from 3-level fractional factorials.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>9 levels</th>
<th>27 levels</th>
<th>81 levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>HT, 2</td>
<td>HCT, 2+</td>
<td>ZT, 2+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>243</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>729</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2187</td>
<td>1093</td>
<td>966</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6561</td>
<td>3280</td>
<td>3025</td>
<td>1093</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:

Table 6: Achievable column numbers for (O)SOAs from 4-level fractional factorials.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>16 levels</th>
<th>64 levels</th>
<th>256 levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>HT, 2</td>
<td>HCT, 2+</td>
<td>ZT, 2+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>256</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1024</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4096</td>
<td>1365</td>
<td>1001</td>
<td>341</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:

OA(64, 9, 8, 2). A 3-orthogonal OSOA(512, 4, 512, 3) by the Liu and Liu (2015) construction, obtained from an OA(512, 9, 8, 3), is a very good choice for inspecting four factors in detail. The classical com-
puter experimentation with relatively few quantitative factors will benefit from such LHD-like (O)SOAs. (O)SOAs that are not LHDs themselves can be used for creating LHDs by level expansion; it has not been investigated to what extent this brings an advantage over direct expansion from an OA.

If quantitative experimental variables are easy to realize at different levels, it may be attractive to use designs that offer the chance to learn something about the functional form of the response surface by providing more levels than the usual orthogonal arrays, even if one does not use LHDs. (O)SOAs can ensure that, while at the same time preserving attractive projection properties over coarser grids. Many questions remain open with respect to practical usefulness of the various types of (O)SOAs, relative to other types of arrays like level-expanded OAs or LHDs. It is planned to investigate the relative merits of different (O)SOAs and OAs in a different piece of work. The R package SOAs (Grömping 2021b) is available for investigations into SOAs and their properties.

Exploration of responses for many quantitative experimental variables can be supported by (O)SOAs with smaller numbers of levels, e.g. 4, 8, 9, 16 or 27 levels. For up to \( n/4 − 1 \) 8-level columns, strength 3+ OSOAs may be attractive because of their stratification properties and their column orthogonality; the latter can be guaranteed by a modification proposed in this paper. The strength 3+ property has so far only been implemented for \( s = 2 \), i.e., for 8-level columns. Extending strength 3+ (O)SOAs to \( s > 2 \) would be a very attractive invention, because one can expect to obtain more columns (in \( s^3 \) levels) than with strength 3 OAs or strength 4 SOAs (which would have \( s^4 \) level columns). Strength 3 or stronger OSOAs by Liu and Liu (2015) need a large number of runs relative to the number of columns; they are nevertheless attractive because their columns are 3-orthogonal. Where OAs with OA strength \( t ≥ 2 \) exist for the number of levels and columns under consideration, these may be preferable to SOAs (see also Section 3.5).

Because of their stratification properties, (O)SOAs with columns with moderate or large numbers of levels for quantitative experimental variables can also be used for obtaining insights at coarser discretized versions of the experimental variables. This might also be useful for using selected SOA columns for qualitative factors with fewer levels, while using most columns for quantitative experimental variables, e.g. in linear models with low order polynomials.

He and Tang (2014) pointed out the existence of some SOAs without providing explicit constructions; these have not been included. Furthermore, this paper did not discuss sliced SOAs (Liu and Liu 2015), nearly strong OSOAs (Li, Liu and Yang 2021b) or group SOAs (Liu, Liu and Yang 2021). Like in most of the SOA literature, the mixed level case was also completely ignored; He, Cheng and Tang (2018) are among the few authors who devoted a small part of their paper to that case.

The SOA construction by He, Cheng and Tang (2018) permits particularly large numbers of columns with \( s^2 \) levels to be accommodated with SOA strength 2+. Jiang, Wang and Wang (2021) presented a construction based on Addelman and Kempthorne (1961) OAs whose number of runs is twice an odd prime power. Their construction yields welcome additions to the possible run sizes for strength 2+ SOAs in \( s^2 \) levels: the HCT construction needs \( s^k \) runs for some \( k \), while Jiang, Wang and Wang (2021) need \( 2s^k \) runs and would, e.g., permit 9, 43 or 165 9-level columns in 54 runs, 162 or 486 runs, as compared to the 25 or 90 columns in 81 or 243 runs shown in Table 5. The construction works with ingredients of the Addelman and Kempthorne construction, and it is not obvious how to use a ready-made Addelman and Kempthorne array for obtaining the construction from that array. It will hopefully be possible to translate the construction into a rule for the columns to pick for \( A \) and \( B \) from an Addelman and Kempthorne array.

This discussion closes with another appeal to replace the misleading expression “strong orthogonal arrays” with the more adequate “stratum orthogonal arrays”, since the OA strength of an SOA with SOA strength 4 may easily be 1 only.

Acknowledgments Rob Carnell provides necessary Galois field functionality in his R package lhs (Carnell 2022), gives a github home to the R package SOAs and provided valuable comments on an earlier version of the manuscript. Axel Ramm was a valuable counterpart in discussing the relative merits of SOAs and OAs for experimental practice.
8 References


Appendix A: Galois field addition and multiplication tables

As pointed out in Section 2.2, Galois field elements for $GF(s)$ are denoted as $0,\ldots,s-1$ in this paper. Tables 7 and 8 show the rules for Galois field addition and multiplication that are used in this paper.

Table 7: Addition tables for GF(4), GF(8) and GF(9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Multiplication tables for GF(4), GF(8) and GF(9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix B: Construction by Liu and Liu (2015)

Let $V$ be an OA($n,m_{oa},s,t$). The algorithm of Liu and Liu (2015) proceeds as follows: Define a block diagonal $m_{oa} \times 2k$ matrix $R$ that has

- $k$ diagonal blocks of identical b x 2 matrices, where $b = t$ for even $t$ and $b = t + 1$ for odd $t$,
- followed by $q = m_{oa} - bk$ rows of zeroes (none if $q = 0$).

The design $D$ is obtained as $D = VR$; remember that Liu and Liu denoted the levels in $V$ by $-(s-1), -(s-3),\ldots,+(s-1)$. Each column of the $b \times 2$ matrix holds exactly one element of $s^0 = 1, s^1 = s,\ldots,s^{t-1}$ (where the list stops at $s$ for $s = 2$), with an additional zero element for odd $t$; these values carry a positive or negative sign. It is thus straightforward, if a little bit tedious, to define $A, B$ etc. according to the following rule:

- $a_j$ is obtained from the unique column $v_j$ of $V$ for which column $r_j$ holds the entry $±s^{t-1}$,
- $b_j$ is obtained from the unique column $v_j$ of $V$ for which column $r_j$ holds the entry $±s^{t-2}$,
- and so forth.

Where the entry in the matrix $R$ is positive, $v_j$ is used directly; where the entry in the matrix $R$ has a minus sign, $s - 1 - v_j$ is used (reversal of levels). Equations (5) to (8) gave the results of these allocations for $t = 2$ to $t = 4$. The matrix constructions behind these equations are detailed below:
For a strength 2 $\text{OA}(n, m, s, 2)$ called $V$, the $2\lfloor m/2 \rfloor$ columns of the matrices $A$ and $B$ are obtained as follows:

$$
\mathbf{a}_\ell = \begin{cases} 
\mathbf{v}_{\ell+1} & \ell \text{ odd} \\
\mathbf{v}_{\ell-1} & \ell \text{ even}
\end{cases}
\quad \mathbf{b}_\ell = \begin{cases} 
\mathbf{v}_{\ell} = \mathbf{a}_{\ell+1} & \ell \text{ odd} \\
\mathbf{s} - 1 - \mathbf{v}_{\ell} = s - 1 - \mathbf{a}_{\ell-1} & \ell \text{ even}
\end{cases}
\quad \ell = 1, \ldots, 2\lfloor m/2 \rfloor,
$$

where $1 \leq j \leq \lfloor m/2 \rfloor$.

For a strength 3 $\text{OA}(n, m, s, 3)$ called $V$, the $2\lfloor m/4 \rfloor$ columns of the matrices $A$, $B$ and $C$ are obtained as follows:

$$
\mathbf{a}_\ell = \begin{cases} 
\mathbf{v}_{2\ell+1} & \ell \text{ odd} \\
\mathbf{v}_{2\ell-3} & \ell \text{ even}
\end{cases}
\quad \mathbf{b}_\ell = \mathbf{v}_{2\ell},
\quad \mathbf{c}_\ell = \begin{cases} 
\mathbf{v}_{2\ell-1} = \mathbf{a}_{\ell+1} & \ell \text{ odd} \\
\mathbf{s} - 1 - \mathbf{v}_{2\ell-1} = s - 1 - \mathbf{a}_{\ell-1} & \ell \text{ even}
\end{cases}
\quad \ell = 1, \ldots, 2\lfloor m/4 \rfloor.
$$

If $m - 4\lfloor m/4 \rfloor = 3$, an additional column can be added as follows:

$$
\mathbf{a}_{2\lfloor m/4 \rfloor + 1} = \mathbf{v}_m, 
\mathbf{b}_{2\lfloor m/4 \rfloor + 1} = \mathbf{v}_{m-1}, 
\mathbf{c}_{2\lfloor m/4 \rfloor + 1} = \mathbf{v}_{m-2}.
$$

For a strength 4 $\text{OA}(n, m, s, 4)$ called $V$, the $2\lfloor m/4 \rfloor$ columns of the matrices $A_1$, $A_2$, $A_3$ and $A_4$ are obtained as follows ($\ell = 1, \ldots, \lfloor m/4 \rfloor$): For odd $\ell$,

$$
\mathbf{a}_{1,\ell} = \mathbf{v}_{2\ell+2}, \quad \mathbf{a}_{2,\ell} = \mathbf{v}_{2\ell+1}, \quad \mathbf{a}_{3,\ell} = \mathbf{v}_{2\ell} = \mathbf{b}_{\ell+1}, \quad \mathbf{a}_{4,\ell} = \mathbf{v}_{2\ell-1} = \mathbf{a}_{\ell+1},
$$

for even $\ell$,

$$
\mathbf{a}_{1,\ell} = \mathbf{v}_{2\ell-3}, \quad \mathbf{a}_{2,\ell} = \mathbf{v}_{2\ell-2}, \quad \mathbf{a}_{3,\ell} = s - 1 - \mathbf{v}_{2\ell-1} = s - 1 - \mathbf{b}_{\ell-1}, \quad \mathbf{a}_{4,\ell} = s - 1 - \mathbf{v}_{2\ell} = s - 1 - \mathbf{a}_{\ell-1}.
$$

**Appendix C: Proof of Proposition 4.1**

Let $A$ and $B$ be $\text{OA}(n, m, s, 2)$, and let $A^*$ and $B^*$ denote those matrices after subtracting $(s - 1)/2$ (i.e. centered versions of the matrices). Li et al.’s (2021) algorithm proceeds as follows:

**a)** Obtain an $n \times 2m'$ array $C = (\mathbf{C}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{C}_{m'/2})$ by interleaving the columns of $A$ and $B$ as follows:

$$
\mathbf{C}_\ell = (\mathbf{a}_{2\ell-1}, \mathbf{b}_{2\ell-1}, \mathbf{a}_{2\ell}, \mathbf{b}_{2\ell}), \quad \ell = 1, \ldots, m'/2.
$$

**b)** Obtain the column-centered matrix $C^*$ by subtracting $(s - 1)/2$ from each element of $C$, so that elements are in the interval $[-(s - 1)/2, (s - 1)/2]$, i.e. $C^*$ interleaves $A^*$ and $B^*$.

**c)** Obtain $n \times 2$ matrices $D^*_\ell = C^*_\ell V$, with

$$
V = \begin{pmatrix} s^2 & s & 0 & 1 \\
-1 & 0 & s^2 & s \end{pmatrix}^T.
$$

**d)** Obtain the $n \times m'$ design matrix

$$
D = (D^*_1, \ldots, D^*_{m'/2}) + (s^3 - 1)/2.
$$

The first column of $D^*_\ell$ is the $2\ell - 1^{th}$ column of $D^*$,

$$
d^*_{2\ell-1} = s^2 a^*_{2\ell-1} + s b^*_{2\ell-1} + a^*_2,
$$

the second column is

$$
d^*_{2\ell} = s^2 a^*_2 + s b^*_{2\ell} - a^*_{2\ell-1}.
$$

Clearly, $D^* = s^2 A^* + s B^* + C^*$ with the columns of $C^*$ obtained from $A^*$. Now, observe that the superscript $^*$ stands for subtraction of a constant only; the only position in which this matters is the subtraction of $a^*_{2\ell-1}$, for which the "−" after subtraction of the center value corresponds to a reversal of the levels, which can also be written as $s - 1 - a^*_{2\ell-1}$ for the original coding $0, \ldots, s - 1$. 

29
Appendix D: Start values and example constructions for Shi and Tang Family 1

\[ n = 2^k \text{ for even } k \geq 4 \]

The start values are \( Y_A = (1, 2, 4, 8, 15) \) and \( Y_B = (12, 9, 3, 6, 5) \). This implies \( Y_{A+2B} = (13, 11, 7, 14, 10) \).

There are many possibilities for \( Y_C \), e.g. 2, 1, 1, 1, 1, since one only has to avoid choosing \( c_\ell \) coincident with \( a_\ell \) or \( a_\ell + 2b_\ell \).

\[ n = 2^k \text{ for odd } k \geq 7 \]

The start values are
\[ Y_A = (1, 2, 4, 8, 15, 17, 18, 20, 24, 31, 33, 34, 36, 40, 47, 49, 50, 52, 56, 63, 65, 66, 68, 72, 79, 81, 82, 84, 88, 95, 97, 98, 100, 104, 111, 113, 114, 116, 120, 127), \]
\[ Y_B = (42, 37, 25, 3, 117, 74, 41, 10, 14, 102, 92, 69, 23, 6, 83, 90, 73, 71, 21, 86, 54, 28, 7, 5, 57, 61, 44, 26, 19, 53, 60, 12, 9, 13, 58, 55, 62, 35, 27, 38). \]

Note that the 28th entry for \( B \) was corrected from 22 to 26 versus Table 1 of Shi and Tang (or from \( e_2e_3e_5 \) to \( e_2e_4e_5 \) in their notation).


Columns of \( C \) can be most conveniently chosen from the multiples of 16 that do not occur in any of the matrices.

**Special case** \( k = 5 \) \((n = 32)\)

The maximum number of columns in an SOA\((2^5, m, 8, 3)\) with property \(\alpha\) is \( m = 9 < 10 = 5 \cdot 2^{5-4}\). This maximal SOA is e.g. obtained with \( A \) chosen as the GMA design 9-4.1 (Yates columns 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 7, 11, 19, 29) and \( B \) consisting of Yates columns 24, 20, 9, 6, 5, 27, 17, 12, 3. Then \( A + 2B \) consists of Yates columns 25, 22, 13, 14, 21, 28, 26, 31, 30. For \( C \), one can use e.g. Yates column 10 or 15 for all columns.

Appendix E: Example constructions for Shi and Tang Families 2 and 3

Section 4.2 provided the recursive construction for Families 2 and 3. It will be applied to two examples in this appendix.

**Example: Constructing an SOA\((64, 16, 8, 3)\) or an OSOA\((64, 15, 8, 3+))**

\(64 = 2^6\), i.e. \( k = 6 \) is even. We need a matrix \( Y \) with \( 2^{k-2} = 16 \) rows in order to obtain matrices \( A \) and \( B \) with \( 2^k \) rows. We already saw in Section 4.2 that \( Y_Y = c(2, 3, 1, 8, 10, 11, 9, 12, 14, 15, 13, 4, 6, 7, 5) \), which arises from applying Proposition 4.3 to the start vector \( Y_Y = 231 \) (with \( k = 2 \) in the proposition).

Corollary 4.1 tells us that \( A \) holds Yates matrix columns 33 to 47 (in that order) and \( B \) holds Yates matrix columns 16 + \( Y_Y \), and Lemma 4.5 tells us to use Yates matrix columns 1 to 15 for obtaining the OSOA with \( n/4 - 1 = 15 \) columns. For obtaining the SOA with 16 columns, one can add Yates column 32 to \( A \), Yates column 16 to \( B \), and an arbitrary column from Yates columns 1 to 15 to matrix \( C \), so that matrix \( C \) has one duplicate column pair. According to Lemma 4.5, this implies orthogonality for most column pairs, with the exception of a non-zero correlation for the pair that have the same \( C \) matrix column.

**Example: Constructing Family 2 and Family 3 designs in 32 and 128 runs \((k\ odd)\)**

The start values for a design in \(2^5\) runs \((k = 5)\) have \(2^5-2-1\) elements and were given in Lemma 4.3 as \( Y_X = 1234567 \), \( Y_Y = 7521643 \), and \( Y_Z = 671524 \).

The resulting start columns for matrices \( A, B, A + 2B \) are given as
\[ Y_A = (16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23), \]
\[ Y_B = (8, 15, 13, 10, 9, 14, 12, 11), \]

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\( Y_{A+B} = (24, 30, 31, 25, 29, 27, 26, 28) \),
for an SOA(32, 8, 3) with properties \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \).

According to Lemma 4.5, eight corresponding columns for \( C \) should be obtained from Yates columns 1 to 7, with one duplicate, and the resulting array has a non-zero correlation for the pair of columns that share the same \( C \) column. If one only needs seven columns, omitting the first columns from \( A \) and \( B \) and using Yates columns 1 to 7 for \( C \) yields an OSOA(32, 7, 8, 3+), since the array is from Shi and Tang’s Family 3 and additionally fulfills all requirements of Lemma 3.5.

One step of the recursion yields
\( Y_X = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, ..., 31) \),
\( Y_Y = (7, 5, 2, 1, 6, 4, 3, 16, 23, 21, 18, 17, 22, 20, 19, 24, 31, 29, 26, 25, 30, 28, 27, 8, 15, 13, 10, 9, 14, 12, 11) \),
\( Y_Z = (6, 7, 1, 5, 3, 2, 4, 24, 30, 31, 25, 29, 27, 26, 28, 8, 14, 15, 9, 13, 11, 10, 12, 16, 22, 23, 17, 21, 19, 18, 20) \)
for the construction of an OSOA(128, 31, 8, 3+), whose Yates matrix columns are
\( Y_A = (65, ..., 95) \),
\( Y_B = (39, 37, 34, 33, 38, 36, 35, 48, 55, 53, 50, 49, 54, 52, 51, 56, 63, 61, 58, 57, 62, 60, 59, 40, 47, 45, 42, 41, 46, 44, 43) \),

Orthogonal columns are guaranteed by choosing Yates columns 1 to 31 for matrix \( C \). The analogous construction of the Family 2 SOA(128, 32, 8, 3) with properties \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) additionally uses Yates columns 64 and 32 as the first columns of matrices \( A \) and \( B \), and adds another column from 1 to 31 to matrix \( C \).