# The glueing of near polygons 

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#### Abstract

In [7] a construction is given to derive so-called glued near polygons from spreads of symmetry in generalized quadrangles. We show here that this construction is also applicable to arbitrary near polygons and derive a similar theory as in the case of the generalized quadrangles. We also show that many new near polygons can be derived from a set of points in $\operatorname{PG}(5,3)$ discovered by Coxeter ([2]).


## 1 Basic definitions

A near polygon $\mathcal{A}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathrm{I})$ is a partial linear space with the property that every line $L$ contains a unique point $\pi_{L}(p)$ nearest to any given point $p$. Here distances are measured in the collinearity graph $\Gamma$. If $d$ is the (finite) diameter of $\Gamma$, then the near polygon is called a near $2 d$-gon. A near 0 -gon consists of one point, a near 2 -gon is a line, and the class of the near quadrangles coincides with the class of the generalized quadrangles (GQ's, [9]), which were introduced by Tits in [11]. Near polygons themselves were introduced by Shult and Yanushka in [10] because of their relationship with certain systems of lines in Euclidean spaces. For a point $p$ and a line $K$ of $\mathcal{A}$, let $\mathrm{d}(p, K)$ denote the minimal distance between $p$ and a point of $K$. For two lines $K$ and $L$ of $\mathcal{A}$, let $\mathrm{d}(K, L)$ denote the minimal distance between two points on respectively $K$ and $L$. There are two possibilities. Either there exist unique points $k \in K$ and $l \in L$ such that $\mathrm{d}(K, L)=\mathrm{d}(k, l)$, or, for every point $k \in K$ there exists a unique $l \in L$ such that $\mathrm{d}(K, L)=\mathrm{d}(k, l)$. In the latter case $K$ and $L$ are called parallel $(K \| L)$. A subspace $B$ of $\mathcal{A}$ is called geodetically closed, if

[^0]every point on a shortest path between two points of $B$ is as well contained in $B$. If every line of $\mathcal{A}$ is incident with at least three points, and if every two points at distance 2 have at least two common neighbours, then every two points at distance $\delta$ are contained in a unique geodetically closed sub near $2 \delta$-gon, see Theorem 4 of [1]. The existence of geodetically closed sub near quadrangles, the so-called quads, was already proven in [10]. The direct product $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B}$ of two near polygons $\mathcal{A}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathrm{I})$ and $\mathcal{B}=\left(\mathcal{P}^{\prime}, \mathcal{L}^{\prime}, \mathrm{I}^{\prime}\right)$ is the near polygon whose point set is the cartesian product $\mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{P}^{\prime}$, with two points $(x, y)$ and $\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$ collinear if and only if $\left(x=x^{\prime}\right.$ and $\left.y \sim y^{\prime}\right)$ or ( $y=y^{\prime}$ and $x \sim x^{\prime}$ ).

In [7], it is explained how generalized quadrangles with a so-called spread of symmetry can be used to construct new near $2 d$-gons. The case $d=3$ is treated more thoroughly in [6]. In the present paper, we show that the construction can be generalized to all near $2 d$-gons with a spread of symmetry and derive a similar theory as in [3]. Examples of near polygons with a spread of symmetry include the near polygons with a linear representation. We take a closer look to these near polygons in the following section.

## 2 Linear representations

Let $\Pi_{\infty}$ be a $\mathrm{PG}(n, q), n \geq 0$, which is embedded as a hyperplane in $\Pi=\mathrm{PG}(n+1, q)$, and let $\mathcal{K}$ be a nonempty set of points of $\Pi_{\infty}$. With every point $x$ of $\Pi_{\infty}$, we associate an element $i_{\mathcal{K}}(x) \in \mathbb{N} \cup\{+\infty\}$, called the $\mathcal{K}$-index of $x$ :

- if $x \notin\langle\mathcal{K}\rangle$, then $i_{\mathcal{K}}(x)=+\infty$,
- if $x \in\langle\mathcal{K}\rangle$, then $i_{\mathcal{K}}(x)=m$, where $m$ is the smallest integer with the property that there are $m$ points of $\mathcal{K}$ generating a subspace containing $x$.

The linear representation $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ is the geometry with point set $\Pi \backslash \Pi_{\infty}$, with lines all the affine lines of $\Pi$ through a point of $\mathcal{K}$, and with incidence the one derived from $\Pi$.

Theorem 1 ([8]). - If $x$ and $y$ are 2 different points of $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ and if $z$ is the intersection of $x y$ with $\Pi_{\infty}$ then $d(x, y)=i_{\mathcal{K}}(z)$, where $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes the distance in the collinearity graph of $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$.

- $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ is a near polygon if and only if for every point $x \in \mathcal{K}$ and for every line $L$ of $\Pi_{\infty}$ through $x$, there is a unique point $y \in L \backslash\{x\}$ with smallest $\mathcal{K}$-index.

Theorem 2. (A) Consider in $\Pi_{\infty}$ two disjoint subspaces $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ of dimensions $n_{1} \geq 0$ and $n_{2} \geq 0$ respectively, such that $\Pi_{\infty}=\left\langle\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}\right\rangle$. Let $\mathcal{K}_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, be a set of points in $\pi_{i}$ and put $\mathcal{K}=\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}$. If $T_{n_{i}}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}_{i}\right)$, $i \in\{1,2\}$, is a near $2 d_{i}$-gon, then $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ is a near $2\left(d_{1}+d_{2}\right)$-gon isomorphic to the direct product $T_{n_{1}}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}_{1}\right) \times T_{n_{2}}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$.
(B) Consider in $\Pi_{\infty}$ two subspaces $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ of dimensions $n_{1} \geq 0$ and $n_{2} \geq 0$ respectively, such that $\pi_{1} \cap \pi_{2}=\{p\}$ and $\Pi_{\infty}=\left\langle\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}\right\rangle$. Let $\mathcal{K}_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, be a set of points in $\pi_{i}$ containing $p$ and put $\mathcal{K}=\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}$. If $T_{n_{i}}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}_{i}\right), i \in\{1,2\}$, is a near $2 d_{i}$-gon, then $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ is a near $2\left(d_{1}+d_{2}-1\right)$-gon.

Proof. Part (A) of the theorem was proved in [8]. We now prove part (B). Let $L$ be a line of $\Pi_{\infty}$ containing a point $x$ of $\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}$. We will prove that $L \backslash\{x\}$ contains a unique point with smallest $\left(\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$-index. We may suppose that $x \in \mathcal{K}_{1}$ and $L \nsubseteq \pi_{1}$. For every point $y$ of $L \backslash\left(\pi_{1} \cup \pi_{2}\right)$ there exist points $a_{1} \in \pi_{1}$ and $a_{2} \in\left\langle L, \pi_{1}\right\rangle \cap \pi_{2}$ such that $y \in\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle$ and $i_{\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}}(y)=i_{\mathcal{K}_{1}}\left(a_{1}\right)+i_{\mathcal{K}_{2}}\left(a_{2}\right)$. Let $b_{2}$ be the unique point of $\left(\left\langle L, \pi_{1}\right\rangle \cap \pi_{2}\right) \backslash\{p\}$ with smallest $\mathcal{K}_{2}$-index. By (A), $L \backslash\{x\}$ contains a unique point with smallest $\left(\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup\left\{b_{2}\right\}\right)$-index, and this point is also the unique point of $L \backslash\{x\}$ with smallest $\left(\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$-index.

A nonempty set of points in $\operatorname{PG}(n, q)$ is called indecomposable if it cannot be written as $\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}$ with $\mathcal{K}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{K}_{2}$ as in (A) or (B) of the previous theorem. The following examples of indecomposable sets yield near polygons ([8]):
(1) the unique point of $\operatorname{PG}(0, q)$,
(2) a hyperoval in $\operatorname{PG}\left(2,2^{h}\right)$,
(3) the set $\{(1,0,0,0,0,0),(0,1,0,0,0,0),(0,0,1,0,0,0),(0,0,0,1,0,0),(0,0,0,0$, $1,0),(0,0,0,0,0,1),(0,-1,-1,-1,-1,-1),(1,0,1,-1,-1,1),(1,1,0,1,-1,-1)$, $(1,-1,1,0,1,-1),(1,-1,-1,1,0,1),(1,1,-1,-1,1,0)\}$ of 12 points in $\operatorname{PG}(5,3)$ discovered by Coxeter in [2] as a set of points with certain "nice" properties.

Successive application of Theorem 2, (B) to the the third example yields an infinite class of new near polygons. Concerning the classification of linear representations of near $2 d$-gons, $d \leq 3$, we have the following result.

Theorem 3 ([8]). Let $\mathcal{K}$ be an indecomposable set of points in $\mathrm{PG}(n, q), q \geq 3$, different from (1), (2) and (3). If $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ is a near $2 d$-gon, $d \leq 3$, then $d=3, n \geq 7$ and $q=2^{h}$ with $h \geq 4$.

The case $d \geq 4$ has not yet been treated. The following theorem however suggests a recursive approach.

Theorem 4 ([5]). If $\mathcal{K}$ is a nonempty set of points in $\mathrm{PG}(n, q)$, such that $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ is a near polygon, then every geodetically closed sub near $2 \delta$-gon, $\delta \neq 0$, of $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ is of the form $T_{n^{*}}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}^{*}\right)$ with $\mathcal{K}^{*} \subseteq \mathcal{K},\left\langle\mathcal{K}^{*}\right\rangle \cap \mathcal{K}=\mathcal{K}^{*}$ and $\operatorname{dim}\left(\left\langle\mathcal{K}^{*}\right\rangle\right)=n^{*}$.

## 3 Spreads of near polygons

Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a near polygon. For two lines $K$ and $L$ of $\mathcal{A}$ with $K \| L$ and $\mathrm{d}(K, L)=1$, we define $\{K, L\}^{\perp}$ as the set of all lines intersecting $K$ and $L$, and $\{K, L\}^{\perp \perp}$ as the set of all lines meeting every line of $\{K, L\}^{\perp}$. If $\{K, L\}^{\perp}$ and $\{K, L\}^{\perp \perp}$ cover the same points of $\mathcal{S}$, then the pair $\{K, L\}$ is called regular. A spread $S$ of $\mathcal{A}$ is called admissible if every two lines of $S$ are parallel. An admissible spread has a nice property with respect to geodetically closed subgeometries.

Theorem 5. Let $S$ be an admissible spread of a near polygon $\mathcal{A}$, let $L \in S$, and let $H$ be a geodetically closed subgeometry of $\mathcal{A}$ through L. Then every line of $S$ which meets $H$ is completely contained in $H$.

Proof. Suppose there is a line $M$ of $S$ which meets $H$ in exactly one point $m$, and let $l \in L$ such that $\mathrm{d}(l, m)=\mathrm{d}(m, L)+1$. The unique point of $M$ at distance $\mathrm{d}(m, L)$ from $l$ is then on a geodetically closed path from $l$ to $m$, a contradiction.

An admissible spread $S$ of $\mathcal{A}$ is called regular if $\{K, L\}$ is regular and $\{K, L\}^{\perp \perp} \subseteq S$ for all $K, L \in S$ with $\mathrm{d}(K, L)=1$. A spread $S$ of $\mathcal{A}$ is a spread of symmetry if for every $K \in S$ and every $k_{1}, k_{2} \in K$, there exists an automorphism of $\mathcal{A}$ fixing each line of $S$ and mapping $k_{1}$ to $k_{2}$.

Theorem 6. Every spread of symmetry is a regular spread.
Proof. Let $S$ be a spread of symmetry of $\mathcal{A}$. For every two lines $K, L \in S$, the distance $\mathrm{d}(k, L)$ is independent of the chosen point $k \in K$. Hence, $K$ and $L$ are parallel. Suppose now that $\mathrm{d}(K, L)=1$, and let $M$ be a line meeting $K$ and $L$. If $G$ denotes the full group of automorphisms fixing each line of $S$, then $\{K, L\}^{\perp}=$ $\left\{M^{g} \mid g \in G\right\}$ and $\{K, L\}^{\perp \perp}=\left\{m^{G} \mid m \in M\right\}$ is a subset of $S$, proving that $S$ is regular.

We now consider two cases.
(A) If $\mathcal{A}$ is the direct product of a line $L$ with a near polygon $\mathcal{B}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}$, I), then $S=\left\{L_{x} \mid x \in \mathcal{P}\right\}$ with $L_{x}:=\{(y, x) \mid y \in L\}$ is a spread of $\mathcal{A}$. Every spread obtained this way is called trivial. Clearly, every trivial spread is a spread of symmetry.
(B) Let $\Pi_{\infty}$ be a $\operatorname{PG}(n, q)$ which is embedded as a hyperplane in $\Pi=\operatorname{PG}(n+1, q)$, and let $\mathcal{K}$ be a nonempty set of points of $\Pi_{\infty}$ such that $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ is a near polygon. For every point $x$ of $\mathcal{K}$, the set of all affine lines through $x$ determines a spread $S_{x}$ of $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$.

Theorem 7. The spread $S_{x}$ is a spread of symmetry.
Proof. The points of $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ are the points of $\mathrm{AG}(n+1, q)$. Let $K \in S_{x}$ and $k_{1}, k_{2} \in K$. There exists then a unique translation $T$ of $\operatorname{AG}(n+1, q)$ mapping $k_{1}$ to $k_{2}$. Clearly $T$ defines an isomorphism of $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ which fixes each line of $S_{x}$.

Theorem 8. If $q \geq 3$, then the spreads $S_{x}, x \in \mathcal{K}$, are the only regular spreads of $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$.

Proof. By Theorems 6 and 7 , every spread $S_{x}, x \in \mathcal{K}$, is regular. Conversely, suppose that $S$ is a regular spread. We prove that every two lines $K$ and $L$ of $S$ determine the same point at infinity. If $\mathrm{d}(K, L)=1$, then the lines $K$ and $L$ are contained in a quad $Q$. By Theorem 4 the points of $Q$ are the points of $\alpha \backslash \Pi_{\infty}$ where $\alpha$ is a two- or threedimensional subspace. If $\operatorname{dim}(\alpha)=2$, then $|\alpha \cap \mathcal{K}|=2, Q$ is a grid, and $K$ and $L$ determine the same point at infinity. If $\operatorname{dim}(\alpha)=3$, then $\alpha \cap \mathcal{K}$ is a hyperoval and the result follows from Theorem 3.3.4 of [9]. If $\mathrm{d}(K, L)=k>1$, then there exist lines $M_{0}, \ldots, M_{k} \in S$ such that $M_{0}=K, M_{k}=L$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(M_{i-1}, M_{i}\right)=1$ for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$. Since $M_{i-1} \cap \Pi_{\infty}=M_{i} \cap \Pi_{\infty}$ for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}, K$ and $L$ determine the same point at infinity.

## 4 Two groups related to an admissible spread

Let $S$ be an admissible spread of a near $2 d$-gon $\mathcal{A}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathrm{I})$. The full group of automorphisms of $\mathcal{A}$ fixing each line of $S$ is denoted by $G_{S}$. For every two lines $K$ and $L$ of $S$, one can define the projection $P_{L}^{K}$ from the point set of $K$ to the point set of $L$ : $p_{L}^{K}(x)$ denotes the unique point on $L$ nearest to $x \in K$. For a line $K \in S$, we call $\Pi_{S}(K)=\left\langle P_{K}^{M} \circ P_{M}^{L} \circ P_{L}^{K} \mid L, M \in S\right\rangle$ the group of projectivities of $K$ with respect to $S$.

Theorem 9. (a) The group $\Pi_{S}(K)$ is trivial if and only if $S$ is trivial.
(b) If $\Pi_{S}(K)$ is not the trivial group, then for all $x_{1}, x_{2} \in K$, there exists an element of $\Pi_{S}(K)$ mapping $x_{1}$ to $x_{2}$.

Proof.
(a) Suppose that $\Pi_{S}(K)$ is trivial. For every point $x \in K$, the set $\Delta_{x}:=\{y \in$ $\mathcal{P} \mid \mathrm{d}(y, x)=\mathrm{d}(y, K)\}$ is a subspace of $\mathcal{A}$, i.e. a set of points of $\mathcal{A}$ intersecting each line in either the empty set, a singleton or the whole line. If $x, y$ and $z$ are points such that $x \in K, y \in \Delta_{x}, \mathrm{~d}(y, z)=1$ and $y z \notin S$, then there exists an element of $\Pi_{S}(K)$ mapping $x$ to the unique point of $K$ nearest to $z$, proving that $z \in \Delta_{x}$. Hence, for every point $y \in \mathcal{P} \backslash \Delta_{x}$, there exists a unique point $P_{x}(y) \in \Delta_{x}$ collinear with $y$. If $y_{1}, y_{2} \in \mathcal{P} \backslash \Delta_{x}$ such that $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=1$ and $y_{1} y_{2} \notin S$, then also $P_{x}\left(y_{1}\right)$ and $P_{x}\left(y_{2}\right)$ are collinear. Hence all subspaces $\Delta_{x}, x \in K$, are isomorphic, and the result follows immediately.
(b) Let $x \in K$ and $\theta \in \Pi_{S}(K)$ such that $x^{\theta} \neq x$. It is sufficient to prove that the orbit of $x$ under $\Pi_{S}(K)$ is equal to $K$. So, let $\tilde{x}$ be an arbitrary point of $K$. There exists a path $x=x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}=x^{\theta}$ in $\mathcal{A}$ such that $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{i}, x_{i+1}\right)=1$ and $x_{i} x_{i+1} \notin S$ for all $i \in\{0, \ldots, k-1\}$. Take now the smallest $i$ such that $x$ is not the unique point of $K$ nearest to $x_{i}$, and let $y$ be the unique point of $x_{i-1} x_{i}$ nearest to $\tilde{x}$. Since $x_{i-1} x_{i}$ and $K$ are parallel, $\tilde{x}$ is the unique point of $K$ nearest to $y$. If $L$ and $M$ are the elements of $S$ through $x_{i-1}$ and $y$, respectively, then $P_{K}^{M} \circ P_{M}^{L} \circ P_{L}^{K}$ maps $x$ to $\tilde{x}$, proving the result.

Remark. If $\theta \in G_{S}$ fixes a point $x \in K$, then $\theta$ also fixes every point of $x^{\Pi_{S}(K)}$. Hence, if $S$ is nontrivial, then only the trivial element of $G_{S}$ has fixpoints.

The relation between the groups $G_{S}$ and $\Pi_{S}(K)$ is the same as the one of Theorem 5.3 in [3].

Theorem 10. If $\theta \in G_{S}$ then $\theta$ induces a permutation $\bar{\theta}$ on the point set of $K$ that commutes with each element of $\Pi_{S}(K)$. Conversely, if a permutation $\phi$ on the point set of $K$ commutes with each element of $\Pi_{S}(K)$, then $\phi=\bar{\theta}$ for some $\theta \in G_{S}$.

Just as in Section 5 of [3], this implies the following result.

Theorem 11. If $K$ is a line of a nontrivial admissible spread $S$ of a near polygon, then the following statements are equivalent:
(1) $S$ is a spread of symmetry,
(2) $\Pi_{S}(K)$ acts regularly on the set of points of $K$,
(3) $G_{S}$ acts regularly on the set of points of $K$.

We also have the following result.
Theorem 12. If $\Pi_{S}(K)$ is commutative, then $S$ is a spread of symmetry.
Proof. We may suppose that $\Pi_{S}(K)$ is not trivial. Since $\Pi_{S}(K)$ is commutative, every element of $\Pi_{S}(K)$ can be extended to an element of $G_{S}$ (Theorem 10). Since $\Pi_{S}(K)$ acts transitively on the set of points of $K$ (Theorem 9 ), $S$ is a spread of symmetry.

We now consider the case when the near polygon has a linear representation. So, let $\Pi_{\infty}$ be a $\operatorname{PG}(n, q)$ which is embedded as a hyperplane in $\Pi=\operatorname{PG}(n+1, q)$ and let $\mathcal{K}$ be a nonempty set of points of $\Pi_{\infty}$ such that $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ is a near polygon. For every point $\langle\bar{x}\rangle \in \mathcal{K}$, the set of all affine lines through $\langle\bar{x}\rangle$ determines a spread $S_{\langle\bar{x}\rangle}$ of $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$. Let $K_{1}=\langle\bar{x}, \bar{a}\rangle$ be a fixed line of $S_{\langle\bar{x}\rangle}$.
Theorem 13. (a) The group $\Pi_{S_{\langle\bar{x}\rangle}}\left(K_{1}\right)$ is either trivial or isomorphic to the additive group of the finite field $\mathrm{GF}(q)$.
(b) If $\Pi_{S_{\langle\bar{x}\rangle}}\left(K_{1}\right)$ is the trivial group, or equivalently, if $S_{\langle\bar{x}\rangle}$ is a trivial spread, then $\langle\mathcal{K} \backslash\{\langle\bar{x}\rangle\}\rangle$ is a hyperplane of $\Pi_{\infty}$ which does not contain $\langle\bar{x}\rangle$.
Proof.
(a) Let $K_{2}, K_{3} \in S_{\langle\bar{x}\rangle}$ such that $K_{1} \neq K_{2} \neq K_{3} \neq K_{4}:=K_{1}$. The plane $\left\langle K_{i}, K_{i+1}\right\rangle$, $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, intersects $\Pi_{\infty}$ in a line $\left\langle\bar{x}, \bar{u}_{i}\right\rangle$. We may suppose that $\left\langle\bar{u}_{i}\right\rangle$ is the unique point of $\left\langle\bar{x}, \bar{u}_{i}\right\rangle \backslash\{\langle\bar{x}\rangle\}$ with smallest index. Let $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \lambda_{3} \in \operatorname{GF}(q)$ such that $\left\langle\bar{a}+\lambda_{1} \bar{u}_{1}+\ldots+\lambda_{i} \bar{u}_{i}\right\rangle \in K_{i+1}$ for all $i \in\{1,2,3\}$. If $\Phi:=p_{K_{1}}^{K_{3}} \circ p_{K_{3}}^{K_{2}} \circ p_{K_{2}}^{K_{1}}$, then $\Phi$ maps the point $\langle\bar{a}+\delta \bar{x}\rangle$ of $K_{1}$ to the point $\left\langle\bar{a}+\delta \bar{x}+\lambda_{1} \bar{u}_{1}+\lambda_{2} \bar{u}_{2}+\lambda_{3} \bar{u}_{3}\right\rangle$ of $K_{1}$. Hence there exists a $\mu \in \operatorname{GF}(q)$ such that $\lambda_{1} \bar{u}_{1}+\lambda_{2} \bar{u}_{2}+\lambda_{3} \bar{u}_{3}=\mu \bar{x}$, and $\Phi(\langle\bar{a}+\delta \bar{x}\rangle)=\langle\bar{a}+(\delta+\mu) \bar{x}\rangle$ for all $\delta \in \mathrm{GF}(q)$. As a consequence $\Pi_{S_{\langle\bar{x}\rangle}}\left(K_{1}\right)$ is a subgroup of the additive group of $\operatorname{GF}(q)$. If $\Pi_{S_{\langle\bar{x}\rangle}}\left(K_{1}\right)$ is not the trivial group, then, by (b) of Theorem $9, \Pi_{S_{\langle\bar{x}\rangle}}\left(K_{1}\right)$ is isomorphic to the additive group of the finite field GF $(q)$.
(b) Suppose that $\Pi_{S_{\langle\bar{x}\rangle}}\left(K_{1}\right)$ is trivial. Let $L_{1}, L_{2}$ and $L_{3}$ be three different coplanar lines of $\Pi_{\infty}$ through $\langle\bar{x}\rangle$. Let $\left\langle\bar{u}_{i}\right\rangle, i \in\{1,2,3\}$, be the unique point of $L_{i} \backslash\{\langle\bar{x}\rangle\}$ with smallest index. Choose now $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \lambda_{3}, \mu \in \mathrm{GF}(q)$ such that $\lambda_{1} \bar{u}_{1}+\lambda_{2} \bar{u}_{2}+$ $\lambda_{3} \bar{u}_{3}=\mu \bar{x}$. Put $K_{2}=\left\langle\bar{x}, \bar{a}+\lambda_{1} \bar{u}_{1}\right\rangle$ and $K_{3}=\left\langle\bar{x}, \bar{a}+\lambda_{1} \bar{u}_{1}+\lambda_{2} \bar{u}_{2}\right\rangle$, then $\Phi:=p_{K_{1}}^{K_{3}} \circ p_{K_{3}}^{K_{2}} \circ p_{K_{2}}^{K_{1}}$ maps $\langle\bar{a}+\delta \bar{x}\rangle$ to $\langle\bar{a}+(\delta+\mu) \bar{x}\rangle$ for all $\delta \in \operatorname{GF}(q)$. Since $\Pi_{S}\left(K_{1}\right)$ is trivial, $\mu=0$ and $\left\langle\bar{u}_{1}\right\rangle,\left\langle\bar{u}_{2}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle\bar{u}_{3}\right\rangle$ are collinear. Hence the set of all points $\langle\bar{r}\rangle \neq\langle\bar{x}\rangle$ of $\Pi_{\infty}$ with the property that $\langle\bar{r}\rangle$ is the unique point of $\langle\bar{r}, \bar{x}\rangle \backslash\{\langle\bar{x}\rangle\}$ with smallest index, is a hyperplane $\Delta$ of $\Pi_{\infty}$. Clearly $\mathcal{K} \backslash\{\langle\bar{x}\rangle\} \subseteq \Delta$ and hence $\langle\mathcal{K} \backslash\{\langle\bar{x}\rangle\}\rangle \subseteq \Delta$. Since $T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ is connected, it follows by Theorem 1 that $\langle\mathcal{K}\rangle=\Pi_{\infty}$. This implies that $\langle\mathcal{K} \backslash\{\langle\bar{x}\rangle\}\rangle=\Delta$.

## 5 Glued near polygons

### 5.1 Construction

Let $X$ denote a set with order $|X| \geq 2$. For every $i \in\{1,2\}$, consider the following objects:
(a) a near polygon $\mathcal{A}_{i}$,
(b) an admissible spread $S_{i}=\left\{L_{1}^{(i)}, \ldots, L_{\alpha_{i}}^{(i)}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{A}_{i}$,
(c) a bijection $\theta_{i}: X \rightarrow L_{1}^{(i)}$.

The line $L_{1}^{(i)}, i \in\{1,2\}$, is called the base line of $S_{i}$. For all $i \in\{1,2\}$ and all $j, k \in\left\{1, \ldots, \alpha_{i}\right\}$, let $p_{j, k}^{(i)}$ denote the projection from the line $L_{j}^{(i)}$ to the line $L_{k}^{(i)}$. We put $\Phi_{j, k}^{(i)}:=p_{k, 1}^{(i)} \circ p_{j, k}^{(i)} \circ p_{1, j}^{(i)}$. Consider the following graph $\Gamma$ with vertex set $X \times S_{1} \times S_{2}$. Two vertices $\left(x, L_{i_{1}}^{(1)}, L_{j_{1}}^{(2)}\right)$ and $\left(y, L_{i_{2}}^{(1)}, L_{j_{2}}^{(2)}\right)$ are adjacent if and only if exactly one of the following three conditions is satisfied:
(a) $L_{i_{1}}^{(1)}=L_{i_{2}}^{(1)}, L_{j_{1}}^{(2)}=L_{j_{2}}^{(2)}$ and $x \neq y$,
(b) $L_{j_{1}}^{(2)}=L_{j_{2}}^{(2)}, \mathrm{d}\left(L_{i_{1}}^{(1)}, L_{i_{2}}^{(1)}\right)=1$ and $\Phi_{i_{1}, i_{2}}^{(1)} \circ \theta_{1}(x)=\theta_{1}(y)$,
(c) $L_{i_{1}}^{(1)}=L_{i_{2}}^{(1)}, \mathrm{d}\left(L_{j_{1}}^{(2)}, L_{j_{2}}^{(2)}\right)=1$ and $\Phi_{j_{1}, j_{2}}^{(2)} \circ \theta_{2}(x)=\theta_{2}(y)$.

The diameter of $\Gamma$ equals $d_{1}+d_{2}-1$ if $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ is a near $2 d_{i}$-gon, $i \in\{1,2\}$. Similarly as in Lemma 1 of [7], one can prove that every two adjacent vertices of $\Gamma$ are contained in a unique maximal clique. Considering these maximal cliques as lines, we obtain a partial linear space $\mathcal{A}$. If $\mathcal{A}$ is a near polygon, then it is called a glued near polygon. This precisely happens when the condition in the following theorem is satisfied. The proof is similar as the one of Theorem 1 in [7].

Theorem 14. The partial linear space $\mathcal{A}$ is a glued near hexagon if and only if $\left[\theta_{1}^{-1} \Pi_{S_{1}}\left(L_{1}^{(1)}\right) \theta_{1}, \theta_{2}^{-1} \Pi_{S_{2}}\left(L_{1}^{(2)}\right) \theta_{2}\right]$ is the trivial group.

This condition is always satisfied if $S_{1}$ or $S_{2}$ is trivial. If $S_{1}$ is trivial, then $\mathcal{A}_{1} \simeq L \times \mathcal{B}$ with $L$ a line and $\mathcal{B}$ a near $2\left(d_{1}-1\right)$-gon. In that case $\mathcal{A} \simeq \mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{A}_{2}$.
Suppose now that $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ are not trivial and that the condition in the previous theorem is satisfied. By Theorem 10 every element of $\theta_{2} \theta_{1}^{-1} \Pi_{S_{1}}\left(L_{1}^{(1)}\right) \theta_{1} \theta_{2}^{-1}$ extends to an automorphism of $\mathcal{A}_{2}$ fixing each line of $S_{2}$. By Theorem $9, S_{2}$ is a spread of symmetry of $\mathcal{A}_{2}$. Similarly, $S_{1}$ is a spread of symmetry of $\mathcal{A}_{1}$. Summarizing we have the following result.

Theorem 15. If $\mathcal{A}$ is a near polygon and if $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ are not trivial, then $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ are spreads of symmetry in the respective near polygons.

In the construction of $\mathcal{A}$ the lines $L_{1}^{(1)}$ and $L_{1}^{(2)}$ of the spreads $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ seem to play a special role. If $\mathcal{A}$ is a near polygon, then $\mathcal{A}$ can be obtained starting with two arbitrary base lines (one in each spread). The maps $\theta_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, needed to obtain $\mathcal{A}$ will then depend on the chosen base lines.

### 5.2 Spreads of symmetry in glued near polygons

We use the same notations as in Section 5.1. Suppose that $\mathcal{A}$ is a glued near polygon. For every $(i, j) \in\left\{1, \ldots, \alpha_{1}\right\} \times\left\{1, \ldots, \alpha_{2}\right\}, L_{i, j}:=\left\{\left(x, L_{i}^{(1)}, L_{j}^{(2)}\right) \mid x \in X\right\}$ is a line of $\mathcal{A}$. Clearly $T=\left\{L_{i, j} \mid 1 \leq i \leq \alpha_{1}, 1 \leq j \leq \alpha_{2}\right\}$ is a spread of $\mathcal{A}$.

Theorem 16. The spread $T$ is a spread of symmetry if and only if the following two conditions are satisfied:
(a) $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ are spreads of symmetry,
(b) if $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ are not trivial, then $\theta_{1}^{-1} \Pi_{S_{1}}\left(L_{1}^{(1)}\right) \theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}^{-1} \Pi_{S_{2}}\left(L_{1}^{(2)}\right) \theta_{2}$ are equal. Hence, by Theorem 14, both groups are commutative.

Proof. Consider the line $L_{1,1}$ of $T$. One calculates that $\Pi_{T}\left(L_{1,1}\right)$ is generated by $\theta_{1}^{-1} \Pi_{S_{1}}\left(L_{1}^{(1)}\right) \theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}^{-1} \Pi_{S_{2}}\left(L_{1}^{(2)}\right) \theta_{2}$. The theorem follows then from Theorem 11.

### 5.3 Glued near polygons with a linear representation

Part (B) of Theorem 2 can be improved as follows.
Theorem 17. Let $\Pi_{\infty}$ be a $\operatorname{PG}(n, q)$ which is embedded as a hyperplane in $\Pi=$ $\mathrm{PG}(n+1, q)$. Consider in $\Pi_{\infty}$ two subspaces $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ of dimensions $n_{1} \geq 0$ and $n_{2} \geq 0$ respectively, such that $\pi_{1} \cap \pi_{2}=\{p\}$ and $\Pi_{\infty}=\left\langle\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}\right\rangle$. If $\mathcal{K}_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, is a set of points of $\pi_{i}$ containing $p$ such that $T_{n_{i}}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}_{i}\right)$ is a near polygon, then $T_{n}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$ is a glued near polygon.

Proof.
(a) Let $a$ be a fixed point of $\Pi \backslash \Pi_{\infty}$. For each $i \in\{1,2\}$, let $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ be the near polygon $T_{n_{i}}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}_{i}\right)$ determined by the embedding $\pi_{i} \subseteq\left\langle a, \pi_{i}\right\rangle$, let $S_{i}$ be the spread of $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ determined by the point $p$ at infinity, let $L_{1}^{(i)}$ be the line $X:=p a$, and let $\theta_{i}$ be the identical permutation of $X$. By Theorems 13 and 14, the associated incidence structure $\mathcal{A}$ is a glued near polygon.
(b) We prove that for every $\alpha \in \Pi \backslash \Pi_{\infty}$, there exists a unique $\tilde{\alpha} \in\left\langle a, \pi_{1}\right\rangle$ such that $\mathrm{d}(\alpha, \gamma)=\mathrm{d}(\alpha, \tilde{\alpha})+\mathrm{d}(\tilde{\alpha}, \gamma)$ for every $\gamma \in\left\langle a, \pi_{1}\right\rangle$. We may suppose that $\alpha \notin\left\langle a, \pi_{1}\right\rangle$. The unique point $\bar{\alpha}$ of $\left(\left\langle a, \alpha, \pi_{1}\right\rangle \cap \pi_{2}\right) \backslash\{p\}$ with smallest $\left(\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$ index is also the unique point of $\left(\left\langle a, \alpha, \pi_{1}\right\rangle \cap \Pi_{\infty}\right) \backslash \pi_{1}$ with smallest $\left(\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$ index, proving that $\{\tilde{\alpha}\}:=\alpha \bar{\alpha} \cap\left\langle a, \pi_{1}\right\rangle$ is the unique point of $\left\langle a, \pi_{1}\right\rangle$ nearest to $\alpha$. For every other point $\gamma \neq \tilde{\alpha}$ of $\left\langle a, \pi_{1}\right\rangle$, the points $\tilde{\alpha} \gamma \cap \Pi_{\infty}, \alpha \gamma \cap \Pi_{\infty}$ and $\bar{\alpha}$ are on the same line, implying that $i_{\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}}\left(\alpha \gamma \cap \Pi_{\infty}\right)=i_{\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}}(\bar{\alpha})+i_{\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}}\left(\tilde{\alpha} \gamma \cap \Pi_{\infty}\right)$ or $\mathrm{d}(\alpha, \gamma)=\mathrm{d}(\alpha, \tilde{\alpha})+\mathrm{d}(\tilde{\alpha}, \gamma)$.
(c) For every point $x$ of $T_{n}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$, let $\phi_{0}(x)$ denote the unique point of $p a$ nearest to $x$, and let $\phi_{i}(x)=\left\langle x, \pi_{3-i}\right\rangle \cap\left\langle a, \pi_{i}\right\rangle, i \in\{1,2\}$. We now prove that the bijection $\theta: x \mapsto\left(\phi_{0}(x), \phi_{1}(x), \phi_{2}(x)\right)$ is actually an isomorphism between $T_{n}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$ and $\mathcal{A}$. Since both geometries have order $\left(q-1,\left|\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}\right|-1\right)$, it suffices to prove that $\theta$ preserves adjacency. So, let $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ be two different
adjacent points in $T_{n}^{*}\left(\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$. If $p$ is on the line $x_{1} x_{2}$, then $\phi_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)=\phi_{1}\left(x_{2}\right)$ and $\phi_{2}\left(x_{1}\right)=\phi_{2}\left(x_{2}\right)$, proving that $\theta\left(x_{1}\right)$ and $\theta\left(x_{2}\right)$ are collinear. Suppose therefore that the line $x_{1} x_{2}$ meets $\Pi_{\infty}$ in a point $u \in \mathcal{K}_{1} \backslash \mathcal{K}_{2}$. We have $\phi_{2}\left(x_{1}\right)=\phi_{2}\left(x_{2}\right)$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(\phi_{1}\left(x_{1}\right), \phi_{1}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=1$ since the plane $\left\langle\phi_{1}\left(x_{1}\right), \phi_{1}\left(x_{2}\right)\right\rangle$ meets $\pi_{1}$ in the line $p u$. From $1+\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \tilde{x}_{2}\right) \geq \mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, \tilde{x}_{2}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, \tilde{x}_{1}\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(\tilde{x}_{1}, \tilde{x}_{2}\right)$ and $1+\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, \tilde{x}_{1}\right) \geq \mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \tilde{x}_{2}\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(\tilde{x}_{1}, \tilde{x}_{2}\right)$, it follows $\mathrm{d}\left(\tilde{x}_{1}, \tilde{x}_{2}\right) \leq 1$. Since $\tilde{x}_{1} \in$ $\phi_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)$ and $\tilde{x}_{2} \in \phi_{1}\left(x_{2}\right), \mathrm{d}\left(\tilde{x}_{1}, \tilde{x}_{2}\right)=1$, or equivalently $" \Phi_{i_{1}, i_{2}}^{(1)} \circ \theta_{1}(x)=\theta_{1}(y)$ " with the notations of Section 5.1.

Theorem 18. Every glued near polygon with a linear representation is obtained as described in Theorem 17.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a glued near polygon arising in the way as described in Section 5.1 from near polygons $\mathcal{A}_{i}$, spreads $S_{i}$ and bijections $\theta_{i}, i=1,2$. Suppose also that $\mathcal{A} \simeq T_{n}^{*}(\mathcal{K})$ where $\mathcal{K}$ is a set of points in $\Pi_{\infty}=\mathrm{PG}(n, q)$. Let $K_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, denote a fixed line of $S_{i}$. All the points of $\mathcal{A}$ with $K_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, as $(i+1)$-th coordinate determines a geodetically closed sub near polygon $\mathcal{B}_{3-i} \simeq \mathcal{A}_{3-i}$. By Theorem 4, there exists a subspace $\pi_{i}$ of $\Pi_{\infty}$ such that $\mathcal{K}_{i}=\pi_{i} \cap \mathcal{K}$ and $\mathcal{B}_{i} \simeq T_{n_{i}}\left(\mathcal{K}_{i}\right)$ with $n_{i}=\operatorname{dim}\left(\pi_{i}\right)$. Since $\mathcal{B}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{B}_{2}$ intersect in a line $L, \pi_{1} \cap \pi_{2}$ is a point of $\mathcal{K}$. Every line through a point $x \in L$ is contained in either $\mathcal{B}_{1}$ or $\mathcal{B}_{2}$, proving that $\mathcal{K}=\mathcal{K}_{1} \cup \mathcal{K}_{2}$. By Theorem $1,\langle\mathcal{K}\rangle=\Pi_{\infty}$ and hence also $\left\langle\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}\right\rangle=\Pi_{\infty}$.

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