# Geometric hyperplanes of the half-spin geometries arise from embeddings 

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Dedicated to J. A. Thas on his fiftieth birthday


#### Abstract

Let the point-line geometry $\Gamma=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L})$ be a half-spin geometry of type $D_{n, n}$. Then, for every embedding of $\Gamma$ in the projective space $\mathbb{P}(V)$, where $V$ is a vector space of dimension $2^{n-1}$, it is true that every hyperplane of $\Gamma$ arises from that embedding. It follows that any embedding of this dimension is universal. There are no embeddings of higher dimension. A corollary of this result and the fact that Veldkamp lines exist ([6]), is that the Veldkamp space of any half-spin geometry $(n \geq 4)$ is a projective space.


## 1 Introduction

Let $\Gamma=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L})$ be a rank 2 incidence system, which we will call a point-line geometry. A subspace $X$ is a subset of the set of points with the property that any line having at least two of its incident points in $X$, in fact has all its incident points in $X$. A proper subspace $X$ is called a geometric hyperplane of $\Gamma$ if and only if every line has at least one of its points in $X$.

Example. If $\mathbb{P}=\mathrm{PG}(n, F)$ is a projective space of (projective) dimension $n \geq 2$, truncated to its points and lines, then an ordinary projective hyperplane is a geometric hyperplane. (We shall often drop the adjective "geometric" and simply refer to geometric hyperplanes as "hyperplanes".)

[^0]An embedding $e: \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{P}=\mathbb{P}(V)$ of the point-line geometry $\Gamma$ into the desarguesian projective space $\mathbb{P}(V)$ obtained from a vector space $V$ is a pair of injective mappings

$$
\begin{aligned}
e_{1}: \mathcal{P} & \rightarrow\{1 \text {-subspaces of } V\} \\
e_{2}: \mathcal{L} & \rightarrow\{2 \text {-subspaces of } V\}
\end{aligned}
$$

such that
(i) any 1-subspace of a 2 -space $e_{2}(L)$ is an image $e_{1}(p)$ for some point $p$ incident with line $L$, and
(ii) the set $e_{1}(\mathcal{P})$ spans $\mathbb{P}(V)$.

Example. All the classical polar spaces have natural embeddings as the collections of all isotropic (or totally singular) 1-spaces and 2-spaces of a finite dimensional vector space $V$ with respect to a non-degenerate ( $\sigma, \epsilon$ )-hermitian (or pseudo quadratic) form.

We say that a geometric hyperplane $H$ of $\Gamma$ arises from an embedding e $: \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{P}$ if and only if there is an ordinary projective hyperplane $\mathbb{H}$ of $\mathbb{P}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=e^{-1}(e(\mathcal{P}) \cap \mathbb{H}) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(It is easy to see that any subset $H$ defined by the right hand side of (1) must be a geometric hyperplane of $\Gamma$.)

Some effort has been spent showing that hyperplanes of various geometries arise from an embedding $e: \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{P}([3,7])$. The principal motivation has been to clarify the possible conclusion geometries which would arise in characterizing geometries whose planes are affine. For example in [2], there is a characterization involving relatively simple axioms, whose conclusion reads that $\Gamma$ is a classical polar space with a geometric hyperplane removed. One can easily forsee up the road characterizations of geometries based on affine planes whose conclusion reads " $\Gamma$ is a certain Lie incidence geometry with a hyperplane removed." If we know all such hyperplanes arise from an embedding $e: \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(V)$, a study of the module $V$ often can elucidate what these hyperplanes are.

There is a second motivation: knowing that all hyperplanes of $\Gamma$ arise from an embedding $e: \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{P}$ provides quite a bit of information - facts about $e$ as well as internal information about $\Gamma$. Indeed, one may conclude:

1) The embedding e is universal.
2) If subspaces of codimension 2 in $\mathbb{P}$ are spanned by the image points, then Veldkamp lines exist.
3) If Veldkamp lines exist, then the entire Veldkamp space (see below) is a projective space (see [8]).

Some of the terms here require explanation. The assertion that "Veldkamp lines exist" is simply the property
(V) For any three pairwise distinct hyperplanes, $A, B$ and $C ; A \cap B \subseteq C$ implies $A \cap B=A \cap C$.

If (V) holds for $\Gamma$, one can construct a linear space $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{V})$ (called the Veldkamp space) where $\mathcal{H}$ is the collection of all hyperplanes of $\Gamma$, and $\mathcal{V}$ is the set of intersections of two distinct hyperplanes (the Veldkamp lines) with containment defining incidence. Then (V) just says that any Veldkamp line is uniquely determined by any two of its points.

We now describe the half-spin geometries. Let $Q: V \rightarrow F$ be a non-degenerate quadratic form on a finite dimensional vector space $V$ over a field $F$. Suppose $\operatorname{dim} V=2 n$, and $V$ has a totally singular space of dimension $n$. Then all maximal totally singular subspaces have dimension $n$ and are partitioned into two classes $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{M}_{2}$ subject to these rules:

Two maximal totally singular spaces $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ of $V$ belong to the same class if and only if $M_{1} \cap M_{2}$ has even codimension in $M_{1}$ ( or equivalently, $M_{2}$ ).

Let $S_{j}$ be the collection of all $j$-dimensional singular subspaces of $V$. Then these varieties form a geometry $\Delta$ called a building of type $D_{n}$, which is a diagram geometry with diagram


The half-spin geometry of type $D_{n}$, is the point-line geometry $\left(\mathcal{M}_{1}, S_{n-2}\right)=$ $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L})$. Thus the points are the subspaces of $V$ in $\mathcal{M}_{1}$, and the lines are the totally singular subspaces of $V$ of dimension $n-2$.

We can now state the main result.
Theorem 1.1 Let $\Gamma=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L})$ be a half-spin geometry of type $D_{n}$ and suppose $e$ : $\Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(V)$ is an embedding with $\operatorname{dim} V \geq 2^{n-1}$. Then $\operatorname{dim} V=2^{n-1}$ and every hyperplane of $\Gamma$ arises from the embedding $e$.

It follows, as remarked before, that the embedding $e$ is universal.
Such embeddings do exist. (They are doubtless unique up to isomorphism but that is not proved here). The standard half-spin module (obtained from a minimal ideal in the Clifford algebra) is an example.

The basic idea for this proof sprang from an insightful comment of J. A. Thas in the context of Grassmann spaces. The idea is to show that there are two disjoint subgeometries, say $A$ and $B$, belonging to the same parameterized family of geometries as $\Gamma$, such that for the embedding $e: \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(V)$ hypothesized, one has

$$
V=\langle e(A)\rangle \oplus\langle e(B)\rangle .
$$

Then if $H$ is a geometric hyperplane of $\Gamma$, induction arguments can be used to show that $H \cap A$ and $H \cap B$ are hyperplanes of $A$ and $B$ (that is, neither $A$ nor $B$ is contained in $H$ ) and that

$$
\langle e(H)\rangle=\langle e(H \cap A)\rangle \oplus\langle e(H \cap B)\rangle \oplus e(x)
$$

where

$$
x \in H-e^{-1}(\mathbb{P}(\langle e(H \cap A), e(H \cap B)\rangle)) .
$$

The arguments of this paper, showing that the same space $\langle e(H)\rangle$ obtains for every choice of $x$, depend critically on the following result:

Lemma 1.2 (Shult [6]) The half-spin geometries of type $D_{n, n}$ possess Veldkamp lines.
(This is true for a wider class of strong parapolar spaces such as $E_{6,1}$ and $E_{7,1}$. In fact, half-spin geometries possess Veldkamp planes. But we do not require these results here.)

Thas' idea has been formally developed and is exploited in forthcoming joint work on the hyperplanes of the dual polar spaces ([9]).

Section 2 developes the necessary properties of the half-spin geometries needed to carry out the proof, which appears in section 3.

The author gratefully acknowledges the warm hospitality and support of the Universiteit Gent and the support of the National Fund of Scientific Research of Belgium, during this work.

## 2 Basic facts about the half-spin geometries

We first fix a totally singular $k$-subspace $U \in S_{k}$ and consider $D(U): \mathcal{M}_{1} \cap \operatorname{Res}(U)$, the set of maximal singular subspaces of $V$ in $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ which contain $U$. Now the collection of all singular subspaces of $V$ which contain $U$ is closed under intersection; thus if two of them meet at an $(n-2)$-space $B$, then every member of $\mathcal{M}_{1}$, containing $B$ contains $U$. This means that as a subset of $\mathcal{P}, D(U)$ is a subspace. We denote the collection of subspaces of the form $D(U)$, where $U$ ranges over $S_{k}$ by the symbol $\mathcal{D}_{n-k}$. This notation is intended to be suggestive of the fact that the singular subspaces of $V$ containing $U$ are precisely the singular subspaces of $U^{\perp} / U$ with respect to the induced quadratic form.

Finally, an easy induction proof shows that if $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are singular subspaces in $\mathcal{M}_{1}$, then any geodesic in $\Gamma$ consists of spaces of $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ containing $M_{1} \cap M_{2}$ and has length equal to the codimension of $M_{1} \cap M_{2}$ in $M_{1}$. We record this as

Theorem 2.1 (i) Let $\Gamma=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L})$ be a half-spin geometry of type $D_{n}$. Then $\Gamma$ is a diagram geometry with diagram

where each subspace $X \in \mathcal{D}_{k}$ is a convex subspace of $\Gamma$ which itself is a half-spin geometry of type $D_{k}, k=4,5, \ldots, n-1$.
(ii) $\Gamma$ has diameter $[n / 2]$.
(iii) If two points $x$ and $y$ are at distance $d(x, y)=d \geq 2$ in the collinearity graph on points, then the convex closure $\langle x, y\rangle$ (that is, the smallest convex subspace containing $x$ and $y$ ) is a member of $\mathcal{D}_{2 d}$.

Theorem 2.2 (i) The elements of $\mathcal{M}_{2}$ in $\Delta$ correspond to a class of maximal singular subspaces (that is, subspaces which are maximal with respect to being linear spaces) which are projective spaces of type $\mathrm{PG}(n-1, F)$. (This class is denoted $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ in the diagram of proposition 2.1.)
(ii) The class $S_{n-3}$ of $\Delta$ corresponds to a class of singular subspaces of $\Gamma$ (denoted $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ in proposition 2.1 of type $\mathrm{PG}(3, F)$.
(iii) Every singular subspace of $\Gamma$ lies in a member of $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ or a member of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$.
(iv) Each subspace $X \in \mathcal{D}_{k}, 4 \leq k \leq n-1$, also possesses two classes of maximal singular subspaces, $\mathcal{M}_{3}(X)$ consisting of $\mathrm{PG}(3, F)$ 's and $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(X)$ consisting of $\mathrm{PG}(k-1, F)$. We have
(a) $\mathcal{M}_{3}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{M}_{3}$
and
(b) each subspace $A \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}(X)$ lies in a unique member $\hat{A}$ of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$.
(v) Two members of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ intersect at either a line or the empty set.
(vi) If $(D, M) \in \mathcal{D}_{n-1} \times \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$, then $D \cap M$ is either a hyperplane of $M\left(\right.$ in $\left.\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D)\right)$ or a single point.
(vii) If $(p, M) \in \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$, then $p^{\perp} \cap M=\emptyset$ or is a plane, or else $p \in M$.
(viii) If $(S, D) \in \mathcal{D}_{4} \times \mathcal{D}_{n-1}$, either $S \subseteq D, S \cap D$ is a member of $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ or $S \cap D$ is empty.

Theorem 2.3 (Subspaces belonging to $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$ ) (i) Two distinct members of $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$ either intersect at a subspace of $\mathcal{D}_{n-2}$, or are disjoint (in which case we say they are opposite).
(ii) If $(p, D) \in \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{D}_{n-1}$ and $p$ is not incident with $D$, then $A_{p}=p^{\perp} \cap D \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D)$ and $\left\langle p, p^{\perp} \cap D\right\rangle$ is $\hat{A}_{p}$, the unique element of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ containing $A_{p}$ (see proposition $2.2(\mathrm{iv})(\mathrm{b}))$.
(iii) If $x$ and $y$ are two distinct points of $\mathcal{P}-D$ for a subspace $D \in \mathcal{D}_{n-1}$, then the two subspaces $A_{x}:=x^{\perp} \cap D$ and $A_{y}:=y^{\perp} \cap D$ of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D)$ intersect at a line, if and only if $x$ is collinear with a point $y^{\prime} \in\left\langle y, A_{y}\right\rangle-A_{y}:=\hat{A}_{y}-D$.
(iv) Let $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ be opposite subspaces in $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$ (i.e. $D_{j} \in \mathcal{D}_{n-1}, j=1,2$, and $D_{1} \cap D_{2}=\emptyset$ ). Then there exists an isomorphism (which we call a duality mapping)

$$
\left(D_{1}, \mathcal{L}\left(D_{1}\right)\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathcal{M}^{\prime}\left(D_{2}\right), \mathcal{L}\left(D_{2}\right)\right)
$$

which takes $x \in D_{1}$ to $A_{x}:=x^{\perp} \cap D_{2} \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}\left(D_{2}\right)$.
(v) For each $D \in \mathcal{D}_{n-1}$, there is a duality automorphism

$$
\sigma:(D, \mathcal{L}(D)) \rightarrow\left(\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D), \mathcal{L}(D)\right)
$$

(vi) Let $X$ and $Y$ be disjoint subspaces belonging to one of the varieties of the diagram in proposition 2.1, but not belonging to $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$. Then there exists a subspace $D \in \mathcal{D}_{n-1}$ such that $X \subseteq D$ but $D \cap Y=\emptyset$.
(vii) Let $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ be opposite members of $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$. Let $Z \in \mathcal{D}_{k}, 4 \leq k \leq n$ (where $\mathcal{D}_{n}$ is interpreted to be the subspace $\{\mathcal{P}\}$ ) and suppose $Z$ contains a point $x$ not in $D_{1} \cup D_{2}$. Then there exists a subspace $Y \in \mathcal{D}_{k-1}$ containing $x$ such that $D_{1} \cap Y=\emptyset=D_{2} \cap Y$.
(viii) Let $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ be opposite members of $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$. Then each point $x$ of $\mathcal{P}-\left(D_{1} \cup\right.$ $D_{2}$ ) lies on a unique line $L_{x}$ (called a transversal line) which intersects each $D_{i}$ at a point.
(ix) Let $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ be opposite members of $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$ and suppose $Y \in \mathcal{D}_{k}, 4 \leq k \leq n-1$ with $Y \cap D_{1}=\emptyset=Y \cap D_{2}$. Then there exist embeddings

$$
\pi_{i}: Y \rightarrow D_{i}
$$

which are isomorphisms of $Y$ into a subspace of $D_{i}$ with $\left\{\pi_{i}(y)\right\}=L_{y} \cap D_{i}$, for each $y \in Y, i=1,2$. (Here $L_{y}$ is the unique transversal line on $y$ (see part (viii) of this proposition).)

All of the above, are elementary consequences of a polar space interpretation of $\Gamma$.

In proposition 2.2, the subspaces $(D, M)$ in $\mathcal{D}_{n-1} \times \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ are interpreted as a pair $(d, m) \in S_{1} \times \mathcal{M}_{2}$ of $\Delta$, that is, a pair consisting of a point $d$ and a maximal totally singular subspace $m$ belonging to the class $\mathcal{M}_{1}$. Of course either $d$ is incident with $m$ or there is a unique space $\left\langle d, d^{\perp} \cap m\right\rangle_{\Delta}$ in $\mathcal{M}_{1}(=\mathcal{P})$ incident with both $d$ and $m$. Reinterpreting these alternatives back into the point-line language of $\Gamma$ yields the results.

Similarly proposition $2.1(\mathrm{i})$ is equivalent to the assertion that in the polar space $\Delta$, two polar points (elements of $S_{1}$ ) either lie in no maximal singular subspace of $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ or are incident with a common polar line (element of $S_{2}$ ).

In the same vein, proposition $2.3(\mathrm{vi})$, when interpreted in terms of $\Delta$, just says that if $X$ and $Y$ are singular subspaces of $V$ not in $\mathcal{M}_{2}$ and not both incident with a member of $\mathcal{M}_{1}$, then there is a polar point in $X$ not incident with a member of $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ in common with $Y$. The restrictions on $X$ and $Y$ mean that their incidence with a member of $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ is that of containment, and that $X \nsubseteq Y^{\perp}$. So the desired polar point is any point of $X-Y^{\perp}$.

Proposition 2.3(vii) is similar. $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ correspond to two non-collinear polar points $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$ of $\Delta$, and $Z$ is regarded as a totally singular subspace of $V$ of dimension $n-k$ (possibly zero) contained in the maximal singular space $X$ in $\mathcal{M}_{1}$. Then there is a 1 -space $s$ in $X$ not contained in $d_{1}^{\perp} \cup d_{2}^{\perp}$ (for $X$ cannot be the union of just two of its hyperplanes $\left.d_{i}^{\perp} \cap X, i=1,2\right)$. We then form the totally singular
$(k+1)$-space $Y=\langle s, Z\rangle$. Then $Z \leq Y \leq X$ and $\left\langle Y, d_{i}\right\rangle$ is not totally singular, $i=1,2$. Thus, as a subspace of $\mathcal{D}_{k-1}, Y$ satisfies the desired conclusions in $\Gamma$.

The remaining parts of the proposition can be proved directly in $\Gamma$. Let $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ be two opposite members of $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$. Suppose $x$ is a point of $\mathcal{P}$ outside $D_{1} \cup D_{2}$. Then by proposition 2.3(ii), $x^{\perp} \cap D_{1} \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}\left(D_{1}\right)$ and is a hyperplane of $M_{1}=\left\langle x, x^{\perp} \cap D_{1}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$. Then as $D_{1} \cap D_{2}=\emptyset$, the intersection $D_{2} \cap M_{1}$ is at most a point. By proposition $2.2(\mathrm{vi}), D_{2} \cap M$ does consist of a single point $x_{2}$. Then the line $L_{x}$ on $x$ and $x_{2}$ must intersect the hyperplane $x^{\perp} \cap D_{1}$ of $M_{1}$ at a point $x_{1}$. Thus $L_{x}$ is a transversal line. But setting $M_{2}=\left\langle x, x^{\perp} \cap D_{2}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$, we see that $M_{1} \cap M_{2}$ contains any transversal line, and by proposition $2.2(\mathrm{v}), M_{1} \cap M_{2}$ is a unique line, and hence the unique transversal line. Thus proposition 2.3(viii) holds.

Now assume $Y$ is a subspace in $\mathcal{D}_{k}, 4 \leq k \leq n-1$, with $Y \cap D_{1}=\emptyset=Y \cap D_{2}$. For each point $y \in Y$, let $L_{y}$ be the unique transversal line on the point $y$. We define the maps $\pi_{i}: Y \rightarrow D_{i}$ by setting $L_{y} \cap D_{i}=\left\{\pi_{i}(y)\right\}, i=1,2$.

Suppose $\pi_{1}(x)=\pi_{1}(y)$ for $x$ and $y$ in $Y$. Set $p=\pi_{1}(x), A_{p}=p^{\perp} \cap D_{2} \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}\left(D_{2}\right)$ and $\left\langle p, p^{\perp} \cap D_{2}\right\rangle=\hat{A}_{p} \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$. Then $x$ and $y$ are points of $Y \cap \hat{A}_{p}$. But $Y$ is a subspace disjoint from $D_{2}$ and hence disjoint from the hyperplane $A_{p}$ of $\hat{A}_{p}$. Thus $Y \cap \hat{A}_{p}$ is a single point so $x=y$. Thus $\pi_{1}$ is injective. Similarly $\pi_{2}$ is injective.

Now suppose $x$ and $y$ are distinct collinear points of $Y$. Then by part (iii), the two subspaces $A_{x}=x^{\perp} \cap D_{1}$ and $A_{y}=y^{\perp} \cap D_{1}$ of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}\left(D_{1}\right)$ meet at a line. But $A_{x}=x_{2}^{\perp} \cap D_{1}$ and $A_{y}=y_{2}^{\perp} \cap D_{1}$ where $x_{i}=L_{x} \cap D_{i}, y_{i}=L_{y} \cap D_{i}, i=1,2$ and $L_{x}$ and $L_{y}$ are the unique transversal lines on $x$ and $y$, respectively. Then as $\left(x_{2}, A_{x}\right)$ and $\left(y_{2}, A_{y}\right)$ are corresponding pairs under the duality mapping $\left(D_{2}, \mathcal{L}\left(D_{2}\right)\right) \rightarrow$ $\left(\mathcal{M}^{\prime}\left(D_{1}\right), \mathcal{L}\left(D_{1}\right)\right)$ of part (iii), we deduce that $x_{2}=\pi_{2}(x)$ is collinear with $y_{2}=\pi_{2}(y)$. Thus $\pi_{2}: Y \rightarrow D_{2}$ preserves collinearity. A similar argument yields the same result for $\pi_{1}$.

Finally, we must show that if $\pi_{i}(x)$ is collinear with $\pi_{i}(y)$, for $x$ and $y$ in $Y$, then $x$ is collinear with $y, i=1,2$. Without loss we can take $i=1$. It is an easy argument that $Y$ lies in a subspace $D_{3}$ in $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$ opposite both $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$. (This entails only the reinterpretation of $\left(D_{1}, D_{2}, Y\right)$ as two 1 -spaces and a totally singular $(n-k)$-space $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, Y\right)$ of $V$, and choosing 1-space $d_{3}$ in $Y$ outside its two hyperplanes $d_{i}^{\perp} \cap Y$, $i=1,2$.) Then the transversal lines $L_{x}$ and $L_{y}$ relative to $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$, are also transversal lines on $\pi_{1}(x)$ and $\pi_{1}(y)$ relative to $D_{3}$ and $D_{1}$. Such transversal lines on points of $D_{1}$ define injections $\psi_{2}: D_{1} \rightarrow D_{2}$ and $\psi_{3}: D_{1} \rightarrow D_{3}$ which preserve collinearity. But the dual descriptions of the lines $L_{x}$ and $L_{y}$ show that

$$
\psi_{3}\left(\pi_{1}(x)\right)=x \quad \text { and } \quad \psi_{3}\left(\pi_{1}(y)\right)=y
$$

and so $x$ is collinear with $y$ as $\psi_{3}$ preserves collinearity. Thus the $\pi_{i}$ are as stated and proposition 2.3(ix) holds.

We say that a half spin geometry of type $D_{n}$ has even type if $n$ is even - otherwise it is of odd type. There is a considerable difference in the internal structure of the geometries of odd type versus those of even type.

If $x$ is a point of $\mathcal{P}$, and $k$ is a positive integer, we let $\Delta_{k}(x)$ denote the set of points $y$ such that $d(x, y) \leq k$.

Theorem 2.4 Assume $\Gamma$ is a half-spin geometry of even type $D_{n}$ where $n=2 m \geq 4$.
(i) Let $p$ be any point, and let $M$ be a maximal singular subspace of $\Gamma$ in the class $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$. Then either
(a) $\Delta_{m-2}(p) \cap M$ has codimension 0 or 3 in $M$ and $M \subseteq \Delta_{m-1}(p)$, or
(b) $\Delta_{m-1}(p) \cap M$ is a hyperplane of $M$.
(ii) $\Delta_{m-1}(p)$ is a geometric hyperplane of $\Gamma$.

Proof. (i) easily follows from the polar space interpretation that there is a $D \in$ $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$ containing $p$ and meeting $M$ at a hyperplane. The latter lies in $\Delta_{m-1}(p)$ as $\operatorname{diam}(D)=m-1$. (ii) is an immediate consequence of (i).

Theorem 2.5 Assume $\Gamma$ is a half-spin geometry of odd type $D_{n}$, where $n=2 m+1 \geq$ 5. Assume $p$ is a point and $M \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$. Then one of the following holds
(a) $\Delta_{m-2}(p) \cap M$ has codimension $\leq 4$ in $M ; M \subseteq \Delta_{m-1}(p)$.
(b) $\Delta_{m-1}(p) \cap M$ has codimension 2 in $M$, or
(c) $\Delta_{m-1}(p) \cap M=\emptyset$.

If $\Gamma$ is of odd type with $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma)=m$, and $M$ is an element of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}=\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(\Gamma)$, we say that a point $p$ is near $M$ if conditions (a) or (b) of proposition 2.5 hold i.e. if $\Delta_{m-1}(p) \cap M \neq \emptyset$. We denote the set of points of $\Gamma$ which are near $M$ by the symbol $N(M)$. We need to make this concept relative to subspaces $D$ in $\mathcal{D}_{k}$ where $k$ is even $(4 \leq k \leq n-1)$. In this case, $\operatorname{diam}(D)=k / 2$, and for each $M \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D)$, the points of $D$ near $M$ are those of the set

$$
N_{D}(M):=\left\{p \in D \mid \Delta_{(k / 2)-1}(p) \cap M \neq \emptyset\right\} .
$$

Since, by proposition $2.3(\mathrm{v})$, there is a duality automorphism $\sigma$ of $\Gamma$, there is an isomorphism of the collinearity graphs on $\mathcal{P}$ and on $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$. We therefore obtain a distance metric $d^{\prime}: \mathcal{M}^{\prime} \times \mathcal{M}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 2.6 Let $\Gamma$ be a half-spin geometry of odd type and diameter $m$. Let $L$ be any line and let $M$ be an element of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$. We let $\mathcal{M}^{\prime} \cap \operatorname{Res}(L)$ be the elements of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ which contain line $L$. Then one of the following holds:
(a) $L \cap N(M)$ contains a single point. Also, $d^{\prime}\left(M, M^{\prime}\right)=m$ for each $M^{\prime} \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime} \cap$ $\operatorname{Res}(L)$.
(b) $L \subseteq N(M), d^{\prime}\left(M, M^{\prime}\right)=m-1$ for a unique element $M^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{M}^{\prime} \cap \operatorname{Res}(L)$
(c) $L \subseteq N(M), d^{\prime}\left(M, M^{\prime}\right) \leq m-1$ for all $M^{\prime} \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime} \cap \operatorname{Res}(L)$.

Proofs of proposition 2.5 and 2.6. Both are easily proved by the polar space interpretation. In proposition $2.5, p$ and $M$ are represented in $\Delta$ by maximal totally singular subspaces $P$ and $M$ of $V$, belonging to $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{M}_{2}$, respectively. Thus $P \cap M$ has even dimension and (a), (b) and (c) represent the cases $\operatorname{dim}(P \cap M) \leq 4$, 2 or 0 , respectively. For example, when $P \cap M$ contains a subspace of dimension 4, this means that in $\Gamma, p$ and $M$ are both incident with a subspace $D \in \mathcal{D}_{n-4}$, and,
as $\operatorname{diam}(D)=m-2, D \cap M \leq \Delta_{m-2}(p)$. But incidence of $D$ and $M$ means, $D \cap M$ has codimension 4 in $M$, from which (a) follows. The proofs of (b) and (c) in the other two cases are similar.

Proposition 2.5 has a similar proof. For $\left(a, M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \in \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{M}^{\prime} \times \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$, interpreted as totally singular $n$-subspaces $\left(A, M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \in \mathcal{M}_{1} \times \mathcal{M}_{2} \times \mathcal{M}_{2}$, we have the following:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
a \in N\left(M_{1}\right) & \text { if and only if } A \cap M_{1} \text { contains a 2-space } \\
d^{\prime}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \leq m-1 & \text { if and only if } M_{1} \cap M_{2} \text { contains a 3-space. } \tag{2}
\end{array}
$$

(As $n$ is odd, $\operatorname{dim}(A \cap M)$ is even and $\operatorname{dim}\left(M_{1} \cap M_{2}\right)$ is odd.) A line $L$ is interpreted as a totally singular 2 -space $L^{\prime}$. Now using (2) it is easy to deduce conclusions (a), (b) and (c) from the respective cases $\operatorname{dim}\left(L^{\prime} \cap M^{\prime}\right) \geq 2, \operatorname{dim}\left(L^{\prime} \cap M^{\prime}\right)=1$ and $L^{\prime} \cap M^{\prime}=0$, where $M^{\prime}$ is the totally singular subspace of $\mathcal{M}_{2}$ corresponding to $M \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$.

Theorem 2.7 Assume $\Gamma$ is a half-spin geometry of odd type with $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma)=m$
(i) For any $M \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}, N(M)$ is a geometric hyperplane of $\Gamma$
(ii) Let $p$ and $q$ be distinct points. Then there is an element $M_{1} \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ such that $p \notin N\left(M_{1}\right)$ while $q \in N\left(M_{1}\right)$.
(iii) For any $M_{1}, M_{2} \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}, N\left(M_{1}\right)=N\left(M_{2}\right)$ implies $M_{1}=M_{2}$.

Proof. (i) This follows immediately from proposition 2.6.
(ii) Let $\left(p=p_{0}, \ldots, p_{m}\right)$ be a geodesic of maximal length running through $q$, so $q=p_{k}$ for some $k, 1 \leq k \leq m$. We let $M^{\prime}$ be an element of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ containing the line on $p_{m-1}$ and $p_{m}$. Then as $d\left(p, p_{m}\right)=m$, we see from proposition 2.5 that $\Delta_{m-1}(p) \cap M^{\prime}$ has codimension 2 in $M^{\prime}$. It is therefore possible to select a line $L$ within $M^{\prime}$ on $p_{m}$ so that $L \cap \Delta_{m-1}(p)=\emptyset$. Applying a duality automorphism $\sigma$, this says that all elements $M^{\prime \prime}$ of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime} \cap \operatorname{Res}\left(L^{\sigma}\right)$ satisfy $d^{\prime}\left(M^{\prime \prime}, p^{\sigma}\right)=m$ so $L^{\sigma}$ and $p^{\sigma}$ are in the relationship (a) of proposition 2.6. But then by the proposition, $\left|L^{\sigma} \cap N\left(p^{\sigma}\right)\right|=1$. Applying $\sigma^{-1}$, this asserts that there is a unique element $M^{\prime \prime}$ in $\mathcal{M}^{\prime} \cap \operatorname{Res}(L)$ such that $p \in N\left(M^{\prime \prime}\right)$. It is thus possible to find $M_{1}$ in $\mathcal{M}^{\prime} \cap \operatorname{Res}(L)$ so that $p$ is not in $N\left(M_{1}\right)$. But as $d\left(q, p_{m}\right) \leq m-1, \Delta_{m-1}(q) \cap M_{1} \neq \emptyset$ so $q \in N\left(M_{1}\right)$. Thus $M_{1}$ has the desired properties.
(iii) Suppose $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are members of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ with $M_{1} \neq M_{2}$. Let $\sigma$ be a twisting automorphism. Then $p=M_{1}^{\sigma}$ and $q=M_{2}^{\sigma}$ are distinct points of $\mathcal{P}$ and so by part (ii), there exists an element $M^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ with $p \notin N\left(M^{\prime}\right)$ and $q \in N\left(M^{\prime}\right)$. Let us apply $\sigma^{-1}$ and let $x=\sigma^{-1}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$. Then $x$ is an element of $N\left(M_{2}\right)$ but not $N\left(M_{1}\right)$. Thus $M_{1} \neq M_{2}$ implies $N\left(M_{1}\right) \neq N\left(M_{2}\right)$. The contrapositive of this is the assertion of (iii). The proof is complete.

Theorem 2.8 Let $\Gamma$ be a half-spin geometry of odd type. Suppose $M_{1}, M_{2}$ and $M$ are members of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ such that $M_{1} \cap M_{2}=L$, a line, and $N(M) \supseteq N\left(M_{1}\right) \cap N\left(M_{2}\right)$. Then $M$ contains $L$.

Proof. Suppose $M$ does not contain $L$. We claim there is a point of $N\left(M_{1}\right) \cap$ $N\left(M_{2}\right)$ not in $N(M)$. Applying a twisting automorphism $\sigma$ (which transposes $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ but stabilizes all other varieties), and setting $n_{1}=M_{1}^{\sigma}, n_{2}=M_{2}^{\sigma}, t=M^{\sigma}$ and $L^{\prime}=n_{1} n_{2}=L^{\sigma}$, we see that $t$ is not in $L$. We must then find an element $B \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ such that $L^{\prime} \subseteq N(B)$ but $t \notin N(B)$.

Let $D$ be an element of $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$ containing $L^{\prime}$ but not $t(D$ exists by proposition $2.3(\mathrm{vi}))$. We set $M_{t}=t^{\perp} \cap D$, an element of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D)$. By proposition $2.3(\mathrm{v}), D$ admits a duality automorphism and so the collinearity graphs on $D$ and $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D)$ are isomorphic. Since each point of $D$ is at distance $m=\operatorname{diam}(D)$ from some point, there must exist an element $A$ in $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D)$ at distance $m$ from $M_{t}$ in the collinearity graph on $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D)$. We let $B=\hat{A}$ and $T=\left\langle t, M_{t}\right\rangle=\hat{M}_{t}$, the unique element of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ containing $A$ and $M_{t}$ in $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D)$ (proposition 2.2(iv)(a)). Then by duality, just as $D$ is a convex subspace of $\Gamma$, so $D$ is also convex as a subspace of $\left(\mathcal{M}^{\prime}, \mathcal{L}\right)$. Thus $A$ and $M_{t}$ being at distance $m$ in $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}(D)$ implies $d^{\prime}(B, T)=m$. But this means $D$ is the unique member of $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$ incident with both $B$ and $T$ and the hyperplane $M_{t}=D \cap T$ consists of all elements $x$ of $T$ for which $\Delta_{m-1}(x) \cap B \neq \emptyset$. Thus we have $\Delta_{m-1}(t) \cap B=\emptyset$ and so $t$ is not in $N(B)$.

But for each point $x$ of $D$ we see (as $D$ is even type) that $\Delta_{m-1}(x) \cap A$ is a hyperplane of $A$. Thus $x \in N(B)$, and in fact $D \subseteq N(B)$. In particular $L^{\prime} \subseteq N(B)$.

Thus $B \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}$ has the desired properties, and the proof is complete.

## 3 Proof of theorem 1

We begin with an embedding $e: \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(V)$ where $\Gamma=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L})$ is a half spin geometry of type $D_{n}, n \geq 4$, and $V$ is a vector space of dimension at least $2^{n-1}$. From the definition of embedding we have $\langle e(\mathcal{P})\rangle=V$.

We handle first the case $n=4$. In this case $\Gamma$ is a non-degenerate polar space since $D_{4,4}$ is isomorphic to $D_{4,1}$ as Lie incidence geometries. The theorems of Buekenhout-Lefèvre and Dienst $[1,4,5]$ show that $e$ must be the natural embedding - that is, $e(\mathcal{P})$ is the quadric of maximal Witt index in $\mathbb{P}(V) \simeq \operatorname{PG}(7, F)$, and $\operatorname{dim} V=8$. If $H$ is a hyperplane of $\Gamma$, then either $H=p^{\perp}$ or $H$ is itself a non-degenerate polar subspace of $\Gamma$. In the former case, $\langle e(H)\rangle \subseteq e(p)^{\perp}$ where " $\perp$ " is with respect to the sesquilinear forms associated with the quadratic form on $V$ defining the quadric $e(p)$. But $e(H)$ consists of all singular 1-spaces in $e(p)^{\perp}$ and as these generate $e(p)^{\perp}$, the containment of the previous sentence is an equality. Thus $H$ arises from an embedding in this case.

In the second case $H$ is a non-degenerate polar subspace. But then, applying the Buekenhout-Lefèvre-Dienst theory to $H$, this time, we see that $\left.e\right|_{H}: H \rightarrow \mathbb{P}\langle e(H)\rangle$ is again a natural embedding of $H$ which is a dominated embedding in the sense of Tits [10]. Lemma 8.6 of Tits [10] then shows $\mathbb{P}\langle e(H)\rangle$ is a projective hyperplane of $\mathbb{P}(V)$ and $e(H)$ exhausts all singular points in this hyperplane. Thus in this case $H$ also arises from the embedding.

This proves the result for $n=4$, so we may now assume

$$
\begin{equation*}
n>4 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and apply induction on $n$.
Now choose opposite subspaces $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ of $\mathcal{D}_{n-1}$. Now, as each point of $\mathcal{P}$ not in $D_{1} \cup D_{2}$ lies on a transverse line connecting $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$, it follows that the subspace of $\Gamma$ generated by $D_{1} \cup D_{2}$ is all of $\mathcal{P}$. It follows that $V=\langle e(\mathcal{P})\rangle=\left\langle e\left(D_{1}\right) \cup e\left(D_{2}\right)\right\rangle$, and by hypothesis $\operatorname{dim} V \geq 2^{n-1}$. Now $D_{i}$ is a half spin space of type $D_{n-1}$ and $e$ restricted to $D_{i}$ yields an embedding $e_{i}: D_{i} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\left\langle e\left(D_{i}\right)\right\rangle\right), i=1,2$. By induction, $\operatorname{dim}\left(\left\langle e\left(D_{i}\right)\right\rangle\right) \leq 2^{n-2}$. Yet, as $\left\langle e\left(D_{1}\right)\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle e\left(D_{2}\right)\right\rangle$ span $V, \operatorname{dim}(V)>2^{n-1}$ would imply that at least one of the $\left\langle e\left(D_{i}\right)\right\rangle$ would have dimension exceeding $2^{n-2}$, a contradition. Thus we see $\operatorname{dim} V=2^{n-1}$ exactly, $\operatorname{dim}\left(\left\langle e\left(D_{i}\right)\right\rangle\right)=2^{n-2}$ exactly, and that $V$ is a direct sum $V=\left\langle e\left(D_{1}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e\left(D_{2}\right)\right\rangle$.

We are to prove, that for a hyperplane $H$ of $\Gamma,\langle e(H)\rangle$ is a vector space hyperplane of $V$. Set $H_{i}=H \cap D_{i}, i=1,2$. Then either $H=D_{i}$ or else $H_{i}$ is a geometric hyperplane of $D_{i}$.

If $H_{i}=D_{i}$ for both $i=1,2$, then $\mathcal{P}=\left\langle D_{1}, D_{2}\right\rangle \subseteq H$, against $H$ being a hyperplane of $\Gamma$.

Suppose, for one of the $i$ (say $i=1$ ), we have $D_{i}=H_{i}$. Then $D_{1} \subseteq H$ while $H_{2}$ is a hyperplane of $D_{2}$. Moreover, if $h \in H-\left(D_{1} \cup D_{2}\right)$, and $L_{h}$ is the unique transversal line on $h$, then $\left\{h_{1}\right\}=L_{h} \cap D_{1}$ is contained in $H$, so $L_{h} \subseteq H$ so $\left\{h_{2}\right\}=L_{h} \cap D_{2}$ is contained in $H_{2}$. Thus $H$ is the subspace generated by $D_{1}=H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ and $\langle e(H)\rangle=\left\langle e\left(D_{1}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e\left(H_{2}\right)\right\rangle$. Now as we have seen, the first summand has dimension $2^{n-2}$ and the second summand has dimension $2^{n-2}-1$, since, by induction, it is a vector space hyperplane of $\left\langle e\left(D_{2}\right)\right\rangle$. Thus $\langle e(H)\rangle$ has dimension $2^{n-1}-1$ and so is a vector space hyperplane of $V$, our desired conclusion.

Thus we may assume

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{i}=H \cap D_{i} \quad \text { is a hyperplane of } D_{i}, i=1,2 . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then each $\left\langle e\left(H_{i}\right)\right\rangle$ has dimension $2^{n-2}-1,\left\langle e\left(H_{1}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e\left(H_{2}\right)\right\rangle$ has dimension $2^{n-1}-2$, and contains the embedded 1-space $e(h)$ for every point $h \in H-\left(D_{1} \cup D_{2}\right)$ whose unique transversal line $L_{h}$ is contained in $H$. Therefore, $\langle e(H)\rangle$ is generated by $e\left(H_{1}\right), e\left(H_{2}\right)$ and 1 -spaces $e(p)$ where $p$ ranges over the set

$$
X=\left\{x \in H-\left(D_{1} \cup D_{2}\right) \mid L_{x} \cap D_{i} \nsubseteq H, \quad i=1,2\right\}
$$

where $L_{x}$, as usual, denotes the unique transversal line on $x$. We shall achieve our goal that $\langle e(H)\rangle$ is a vector space hyperplane, if we can show

$$
\left\langle e\left(H_{1}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e\left(H_{2}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\langle e(x)\rangle
$$

is the same vector space (hyperplane) independently of the choice of $x \in X$.
We define a graph $\mathfrak{X}=(X, \approx)$ with vertex set $X$, by asserting that vertex $x$ is adjacent to vertex $y$ (denoted $x \approx y$ ) if and only if

$$
\left\langle e\left(H_{1}\right), e\left(H_{2}\right), e(x)\right\rangle=\left\langle e\left(H_{1}\right), e\left(H_{2}\right), e(y)\right\rangle
$$

as vector space hyperplanes of $V$.
Our first observation is the following:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { No point } x \text { of } X \text { satisfies } e(x) \leq\left\langle e\left(H_{1}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e\left(H_{2}\right)\right\rangle \text {. } \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

If this were true, we could put $e(x)=\left\langle w_{1}+w_{2}\right\rangle$ where $w_{i}$ is a vector in $\left\langle e\left(H_{1}\right)\right\rangle$, $i=1,2$. But then $w_{i} \in\left\langle e\left(D_{i}\right)\right\rangle, i=1,2$, and so $\left\langle w_{1}, w_{2}\right\rangle$ is a 2 -space containing $e(x)$ meeting each $\left\langle e\left(D_{i}\right)\right\rangle$ non-trivially. But $e\left(L_{x}\right)$ is also such a 2 -space, meeting each $\left\langle e\left(D_{i}\right)\right\rangle$ at $\left\langle e\left(x_{i}\right)\right\rangle, i=1,2$. Since $V=\left\langle e\left(D_{1}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e\left(D_{2}\right)\right\rangle$ is a direct sum, we have $\left\langle x_{i}\right\rangle=\left\langle w_{i}\right\rangle, i=1,2$. Thus $\left\langle x_{i}\right\rangle \leq\left\langle e\left(H_{i}\right)\right\rangle$. But by induction, the hyperplane $H_{1}$ arises from the embedding $\left.e\right|_{D}$, which means that every embedded point - such as $e\left(x_{i}\right)$ - found inside the hyperplane $\left\langle e\left(H_{i}\right)\right\rangle$, must be the image of a point belonging to $H_{i}, i=1,2$. Thus one deduces $x_{i} \in H$, which contradicts the definition of $X$.

Our second observation is the following:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { If } x \text { and } y \text { are collinear points of } X \text { then } x \approx y \text {. } \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

To see this, set $\left\{x_{i}\right\}=L_{x} \cap D_{i}$, and $\left\{y_{i}\right\}=L_{y} \cap D_{i}, i=1,2$. Suppose $x$ is not collinear with $y_{2}$. Then $d\left(x, y_{2}\right)=2$, and by proposition 2.1(iii), the convex closure of $x$ and $y_{2}$ in $\Gamma$ is a subspace $S \in \mathcal{D}_{4}$, which contains $y_{1}$ and $L_{y}=y y_{2}$. Then by proposition 2.2 (viii) $S \cap D_{i}=M_{i} \in \mathcal{M}_{3}$. Since $y_{2} \in M_{2}-H, M_{2} \cap H=\Pi_{2}$ is a projective plane. Now from the discussion when $n=4, \operatorname{dim}(\langle e(S)\rangle)=8$ and as $S$ is not in $H \operatorname{dim}(\langle e(S \cap H)\rangle)=7$. Then if $M_{1}$ were contained in $H$, $\langle e(S \cap H)\rangle=\left\langle e\left(M_{1}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e\left(\Pi_{2}\right)\right\rangle$, the direct sum of a 4 -space and a 3 -space, and this contradicts $e(x)$ not in $\left\langle e\left(H_{1}\right) \oplus\left\langle e\left(H_{2}\right)\right\rangle\right.$ by (5). Thus $M_{1} \cap H=\Pi_{1}$ is also a projective plane, so the 7 -space $\langle e(S \cap H)\rangle$ would contain the two 7 -spaces $W_{x}=$ $\left\langle e\left(\Pi_{1}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e\left(\Pi_{2}\right)\right\rangle \oplus e(x)$ and $W_{y}=\left\langle e\left(\Pi_{1}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e\left(\Pi_{2}\right)\right\rangle \oplus e(y)$. (Note that (5) is used to justify the second direct sum sign.) Since $\operatorname{dim}\left(\left\langle e\left(\Pi_{i}\right)\right\rangle\right)=3$ for $i=1,2$ (for there is only one way to embed a projective space) we have $W_{x}=\langle e(S \cap H)\rangle=W_{y}$, whence $\left\langle e\left(H_{1}\right), e\left(H_{2}\right)\right\rangle \oplus e(x)=\left\langle e\left(H_{1}\right), e\left(H_{2}\right)\right\rangle \oplus e(y)$ and $x \approx y$.

Thus we can assume $x$ is collinear with $y_{2}$. Then $x_{2}$ is collinear with $y_{2}$ as $x^{\perp} \cap D_{2}$ is a clique. By a similar argument $y$ is collinear with $x_{1}$ and so $x_{1}$ is collinear with $y_{1}$. So we are reduced to the case that $L_{x} \cup L_{y}$ generates a singular subspace $M$ of $\Gamma$, belonging to $\mathcal{M}_{3}$. Thus $L_{i}=x_{i} y_{i}=M \cap D_{i}$, is a line carrying a unique point $h_{i}$ of $H, i=1,2$. Also $H \cap M$ is a plane $\Pi$, and so $\operatorname{dim}(\langle e(\Pi)\rangle)=3$ and so

$$
e\left(h_{1}\right) \oplus e\left(h_{2}\right) \oplus e(x)=\langle e(\Pi)\rangle=e\left(h_{1}\right) \oplus e\left(h_{2}\right) \oplus e(y)
$$

and $x \approx y$ follows from this. This completes the proof of (6).
Our proof that $\langle e(H)\rangle$ is a vector space hyperplane will be complete upon showing that $\mathfrak{X}=(X, \approx)$ is a connected graph. By way of contradiction we suppose $x$ and $y$ are chosen in distinct connected components of $\mathfrak{X}$ with $d(x, y)=d$ minimal.

Let $Z=\langle x, y\rangle_{\Gamma}$ be the convex closure of $x$ and $y$ in $\Gamma$. So, by proposition 2.1(iii), and the fact that $d>1, Z$ is a half-spin geometry of even type $D_{2 d}, 2 d \geq 4$. (The possibility that $Z=\mathcal{P}$ is not excluded.)

Now by proposition $2.3(\mathrm{vi})$, there exists a subspace $D_{3} \in \mathcal{D}_{2 d-1}$ contained in $Z$ and containing the point $x$, such that $D_{3} \cap D_{1}=\emptyset=D_{3} \cap D_{2}$. Then, by proposition 2.3(ix), there exist embeddings $\pi_{i}: D_{3} \rightarrow D_{i}$ where $\pi_{i}$ takes each point $v$ of $D_{3}$ to the single point of $L_{v} \cap D_{i}$, where $L_{v}$ is the unique transversal line on $v$.

Now

$$
\begin{equation*}
H \cap D_{3}=\pi_{2}^{-1}\left(\left(H_{2} \cap \pi_{2}\left(D_{3}\right)\right)+\left(X \cap D_{3}\right)\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
X \cap D_{3}=H \cap D_{3}-H_{2}^{\prime} \quad \text { where } \quad H_{2}^{\prime}=\pi_{2}^{-1}\left(H \cap \pi_{2}\left(D_{3}\right)\right) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that as $x \in D_{3}$, and $\pi_{2}\left(D_{3}\right)$ and $D_{3}$ are isomorphic, that $H_{2}^{\prime}$ is a hyperplane of $D_{3}$. Also, $H \cap D_{3}=D_{3}$ or is a hyperplane of $D_{3}$.

Now, by the minimality of $d$ and the fact that $D_{3} \subseteq \Delta_{d-1}(x)$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{d-1}(y) \cap D_{3} \cap X=\emptyset \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, from the partition in (6),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{d-1}(y) \cap D_{3} \cap H \subseteq H_{2}^{\prime} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

But $D_{3}$ is a half-spin space of odd type and diameter $d-1$, so, for each point $u$ in $N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right)$, where $M_{1}=y^{\perp} \cap D_{3} \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}\left(D_{3}\right)$, we must have $\Delta_{d-2}(u) \cap M_{1} \neq \emptyset$ (see the definition preceding proposition 2.6). Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{d-1}(y) \cap D_{3} \supseteq N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right) . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Note that by proposition $2.7(\mathrm{i}), N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right)$ is a hyperplane of $D_{3}$. Also the left side is a hyperplane of $D_{3}$ since $D_{3} \subseteq Z$ of even type and by proposition 2.4(ii), $\Delta_{d-1}(y) \cap Z$ is a hyperplane of $Z$. Since Veldkamp lines exist for $D_{3}$, we must have equality in (11).) Now from (7)-(9) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right) \cap H \subseteq H_{2}^{\prime} . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

At this point we exploit lemma 1.2: $D_{3}$ has the internal geometric property that it possesses Veldkamp lines. Since $x$ is an element of $H \cap D_{3}-H_{2}^{\prime}$, there are then only two possibilities accounting for (10).

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { (i) } D_{3} \subseteq H \text { and } N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right)=H_{2}^{\prime}, \\
& \text { or }  \tag{13}\\
& \text { (ii) } D_{3} \nsubseteq H \text { and } N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right) \cap H=H_{2}^{\prime} \cap H .
\end{align*}
$$

Now let $L_{i}$ be any line of $H$ on $y$ not meeting $D_{3}$. (Such lines exist since the $H$-lines and $H$-planes on point $y$ form a geometric hyperplane of the point-residual $\Gamma_{p}=\left(\mathcal{L}_{p}, \Pi_{p}\right)$, a Grassman space of type $A_{n-1,2}$ while the $H$-lines meeting $D_{3}$ are just those lying in the maximal singular subspace $\hat{M}_{1}=\left\langle M_{1}, y\right\rangle_{\Gamma}$. To avoid overlapping of previous and subsequent notation we assume without loss that lines $L_{i}$ are indexed by $i>2$.) Since $y \in X \cap L_{i}$, we see that $e\left(L_{i}\right) \cap\left(\left\langle e\left(H_{1}\right)\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e\left(H_{2}\right)\right\rangle\right.$ is at most 1 -space in $V$ representing one point of $L_{i}$. Thus all but one of the points on $L_{i}$ belong to $X$. Since $L_{i}$ contains at least three points, there is a second point $y_{i}(i>2)$ in $L_{i} \cap X$ distinct from $y$. Since $y_{i}$ is collinear with $y$, then by (6), $y_{i}$ belongs to the same connected component of $\mathfrak{X}$ as $y$ does.

Now assume $L_{i} \subseteq Z$. Then as $D_{3} \in \mathcal{D}_{2 d-1}(Z), y_{i}^{\perp} \cap D_{3}=M_{i}, i>2$, is an element of $\mathcal{M}^{\prime}\left(D_{3}\right)$. Then the minimality of $d$, and the fact that $y_{i}$ is in the same connected component of $\mathfrak{X}$ as $y$ imply

$$
\Delta_{d-1}\left(y_{i}\right) \cap D_{3} \cap\left(H \cap D_{3}-H_{2}^{\prime}\right)=\emptyset
$$

Then as $D_{3}$ has Veldkamp lines, the situation is the same for $\left(M_{i}, D_{3}\right)$ as for $\left(M_{1}, D_{3}\right)$ above. Thus

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { either } & \text { (i) } D_{3} \subseteq H \text { and } N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{i}\right)=N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right)=H_{2}^{\prime} \\
\text { or } & \text { (ii) } & D_{3} \nsubseteq H \text { and } N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{i}\right) \cap H=H \cap H_{2}^{\prime} \forall i \neq 1 . \tag{14}
\end{array}
$$

Moreover, since the line $L_{i}$ meets $D_{3}$ trivially, it is not possible that $M_{i}=M_{1}$ (otherwise $\left\langle L_{i}, M_{1}\right\rangle$ is a singular subspace of $Z$ of projective dimension $2 d$ which is too large!). Thus $M_{i}$ meets $M_{1}$ at a line $N_{i}$ by proposition 2.3 (iii).

Now if $N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{i}\right)=N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right)$, then $M_{i}=M_{1}$ by proposition 2.7 (iii) applied to $D_{3}$. But as $n \geq 4$, this contradicts the fact that $M_{1} \cap M_{i}=N_{i}$ is a line, as established in the previous paragraph. Thus (14)(i) cannot hold. We thus have $D_{3} \nsubseteq H$ and (14)(ii) holds for all $i \neq 1$. Moreover, since for $i \neq 1, N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{i}\right)$ and $N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right)$ are distinct hyperplanes containing the intersection of (14)(ii), they define the same Veldkamp line. Thus their intersection can be added to the series of equalities of (14). That is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{i}\right) \cap N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right)=H \cap H_{2}^{\prime} \forall i \neq 1 . \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now on $y$ we can find an element $D^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{D}_{2 d-1}(Z)$ which is opposite $D_{3}$ (proposition 2.3(vi)). Since $2 d-1 \geq 3$, there is in $D^{\prime}$ an element $N$ of $\mathcal{M}_{3}\left(D^{\prime}\right) \subseteq \mathcal{M}_{3}$ on $y$. Since $N$ is a $\mathrm{PG}(3, F)$, there exists a projective plane $\pi$ on $y$ contained in $N \cap H$. We can then let $L_{i}$ wander through the pencil of lines on $y$ within $\pi$. (See figure)


Now, by proposition 2.3(iv), there is an isomorphism

$$
\psi:\left(D^{\prime}, \mathcal{L}\left(D^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathcal{M}^{\prime}\left(D_{3}\right), \mathcal{L}\left(D_{3}\right)\right)
$$

of incidence systems which takes point $d \in D^{\prime}$ to $d^{\perp} \cap D_{3} \in \mathcal{M}^{\prime}\left(D_{3}\right)$. Now $\psi(y)=M_{1}$ and $\psi\left(y_{i}\right)=M_{i}(i \neq 1)$. Then $\psi$ takes the line $L_{i}=y y_{i}$ on $y$ (in plane $\pi$ ) to the line $M_{i} \cap M_{1}=N_{i}$ (again $i \neq 1$ ). Thus the lines $N_{i}=\psi\left(L_{i}\right)$ are all distinct as $L_{i}$ ranges over the pencil of lines on $y$ which lie in $\pi$.

But this last assertion yields a contradiction. For let $s$ and $t$ be distinct integers $\geq 2$. Then by (14)(ii)

$$
\begin{gathered}
N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right) \cap N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{s}\right)=N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{1}\right) \cap N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{t}\right) \\
\subseteq N_{D_{3}}\left(M_{t}\right) .
\end{gathered}
$$

Then proposition 2.8 implies that $M_{t}$ contains the line $N_{s}=M_{1} \cap M_{s}$ whence $N_{t}=M_{1} \cap M_{t}=N_{s}$. Thus $N_{s}=\psi\left(L_{s}\right)=\psi\left(L_{t}\right)=N_{t}$, while $L_{s} \neq L_{t}$ against $\psi$ being a 1-1 map on lines: $\mathcal{L}\left(D^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}\left(D_{3}\right)$. This contradiction completes the proof.

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[^0]:    *This work has been partially supported by a grant by the National Science Foundation. Received by the editors February 1994
    AMS Mathematics Subject Classification : Primary 51E24, Secondary 05B25
    Keywords : Veldkamp spaces, embedding, half-spin geometry

