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# Sharply 2-transitive groups of projectivities in generalized polygons

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## Abstract

The group of projectivities of (a line of) a projective plane is always 3-transitive. It is well known that the projective planes with a sharply 3-transitive group of projectivities are classified: they are precisely the Pappian projective planes. It is also well known that the group of projectivities of a generalized polygon is 2-transitive. Here, we classify all generalized quadrangles, all finite generalized hexagons, and the parameter sets of all finite generalized octagons with a sharply 2-transitive group of projectivities. © 2001 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

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## 1. Introduction and statement of the main result

A *generalized polygon*  $\Gamma$  of order  $(s, t)$  is a rank 2 point-line geometry whose incidence graph has diameter  $n$  and girth  $2n$ , for some  $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$  (in which case the generalized polygon is also called a *generalized  $n$ -gon*), each vertex corresponding to a point has valency  $t+1$  and each vertex corresponding to a line has valency  $s+1$ . If  $s, t > 1$ , then the geometry is usually called *thick*. Each non-thick generalized polygon can be obtained from a thick one, and so one usually only considers thick generalized polygons. These objects were introduced by Tits [12]. More information is gathered in my monograph [13], to which we refer for a general introduction and basic properties. Here, we recall some notation. For an element  $x$  of  $\Gamma$ , and a natural number  $i$ , we denote by  $\Gamma_i(x)$ , the set of elements of  $\Gamma$  at distance  $i$  from  $x$  in the incidence graph of  $\Gamma$ . The distance function in that incidence graph is denoted by  $\delta$ . If two elements  $x$  and  $y$  are not at distance  $n$ , then there exists a unique element  $\text{proj}_y x$  incident with  $y$  and at distance  $\delta(x, y) - 1$  from  $x$ . We call that element the *projection of  $x$  onto  $y$* .

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$y$ . Also recall that the *dual* of  $\Gamma$  is obtained by interchanging the words ‘point’ and ‘line’. The dual of a generalized  $n$ -gon is obviously again a generalized  $n$ -gon.

Let  $\Gamma$  be a generalized  $n$ -gon of order  $(s, t)$ , and let  $x$  and  $y$  be two elements of  $\Gamma$  at distance  $n$  in the incidence graph (elements of  $\Gamma$  at distance  $n$  in the incidence graph of  $\Gamma$  are called *opposite*). Let  $\Gamma_1(x)$  denote the set of elements of  $\Gamma$  incident with  $x$ , and similarly for  $\Gamma_1(y)$ . It is well known that the relation ‘is not opposite’ is a bijection from  $\Gamma_1(x)$  to  $\Gamma_1(y)$ . This bijection is called a *perspectivity* and denoted by  $[x, y]$ . For a collection  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_\ell\}$  of points and lines, with  $x_{i-1}$  opposite  $x_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq \ell$ , we define the composition

$$[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_\ell] := [x_0, x_1][x_1, x_2] \cdots [x_{\ell-1}, x_\ell]$$

and call this bijection from  $\Gamma_1(x_0)$  to  $\Gamma_1(x_\ell)$  a *projectivity*. The set of all projectivities  $\Gamma_1(L) \rightarrow \Gamma_1(L)$ , for some line  $L$  of  $\Gamma$ , forms a group  $\Pi(\Gamma)$ , which is abstractly and as a permutation group, independent of  $L$ . It is called the *group of projectivities* of  $\Gamma$ . The ‘Fundamental Theorem of Projective Plane Geometry’ says that, for  $n = 3$  (a generalized 3-gon is nothing other than a projective plane), the (permutation) group of projectivities always acts 3-transitively, and it acts sharply 3-transitively if and only if the plane is Pappian (or equivalently, if and only if the projective plane arises from a three-dimensional vector space over a commutative field by taking the vector lines as points and the vector planes as lines, and inclusion as incidence). Now it is well known (for an explicit proof, see [8]) that in general, the group  $\Pi(\Gamma)$  acts 2-transitively, and there are many examples of (finite and infinite) generalized 4-gons and generalized 8-gons with a group of projectivities which does not act 3-transitively (see e.g. [8] again, or Section 8.4 of the monograph [13]). In the present paper, we deal with the question (\*): ‘what can be said about the generalized polygon  $\Gamma$  when  $\Pi(\Gamma)$  acts sharply 2-transitively?’

Question (\*) has been suggested to me by Katrin Tent who, herself, classified in [11] all generalized quadrangles  $\Gamma$  with a sharply 2-transitive group of projectivities under the additional assumption that the one-point stabilizers of  $\Pi(\Gamma)$  are abelian.

Note that for  $n$  even, the group  $\Pi(\Gamma)$  has a subgroup (denoted by  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$ ) of index at most 2 consisting of all elements of  $\Pi(\Gamma)$  associated to projectivities which are the composite of an even number of perspectivities (so-called *even projectivities*). Also, this group always acts 2-transitively, and hence, if  $\Pi(\Gamma)$  acts sharply 2-transitively, then so does  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$ . Consequently, the question: ‘When exactly does  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  act sharply 2-transitively?’, is more general than the question (\*).

A few remarks should put this question in a better perspective.

- (i) Characterizations of certain classes of projective and affine planes by properties of their groups of projectivities exist in abundance, see [10] for a survey. For generalized  $n$ -gons with  $n > 3$  (the case  $n = 2$  is trivial: the group of projectivities is in this case always the identity), only the results for  $n = 4$  of Brouns et al. [1] are available. Basically, the configurational properties induced by specific properties of the group of projectivities become too messy for  $n > 3$ , and hence, they do not

lead to anywhere. No classification result using groups of projectivities is known to me for generalized  $n$ -gons, with  $n > 4$ . The one we present here may not be very general (only a finite number of small polygons are characterized), but it can serve as a start for more results in this direction.

- (ii) If  $s = 2$ , then  $\Pi(\Gamma) = \Pi^+(\Gamma)$  is automatically sharply 2-transitive (in fact, at the same time sharply 3-transitive). A classification of all generalized polygons  $\Gamma$  with  $\Pi(\Gamma)$  or  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  sharply 2-transitive would imply a classification of all generalized polygons of order  $(2, t)$ . The latter one is at the moment not a reasonable problem, since it would in particular settle the question whether  $t$  has necessarily to be finite for  $n$  even (and this is an open problem solved only for  $n = 4$ ; see Appendix 5 of [13]). We will restrict ourselves here to the values  $n = 3, 4, 6, 8$ , which appear to be the most interesting ones by the existence of ‘classical examples’ related to simple groups.
- (iii) If we consider for a moment only the finite case, then we see that a complete classification of polygons  $\Gamma$  with  $\Pi(\Gamma)$  sharply 2-transitive requires, as above, the classification of generalized octagons of order  $(2, 4)$ . This is a long-standing problem that we will not try to solve in the present paper.

Our Main Result reads as follows.

**Main Result.** *Let  $\Gamma$  be a projective plane, a generalized quadrangle, a finite generalized hexagon, or a finite generalized octagon. Suppose that  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  acts sharply 2-transitively. Then  $\Pi(\Gamma) = \Pi^+(\Gamma)$  and one of the following holds:*

1.  $\Gamma$  is the unique projective plane of order  $(2, 2)$ ,
2.  $\Gamma$  is the unique generalized quadrangle of order  $(2, 2)$ ,
3.  $\Gamma$  is the unique generalized quadrangle of order  $(2, 4)$ ,
4.  $\Gamma$  is isomorphic to the generalized quadrangle  $\mathbf{Q}(4, 3)$  of order  $(3, 3)$  arising from a non-singular quadric in the four-dimensional projective space  $\mathbf{PG}(4, 3)$  over the Galois field  $\mathbf{GF}(3)$  of order 3 (see also [9]),
5.  $\Gamma$  is a generalized hexagon of order  $(2, 2)$  (and there are exactly 2 such; each one the dual of the other),
6.  $\Gamma$  is the unique generalized hexagon of order  $(2, 8)$  and
7.  $\Gamma$  is a generalized octagon of order  $(2, 4)$  or  $(4, 2)$ .

Concerning Cases 5 and 6, we remark that the finite generalized hexagons of order  $(2, t)$  are classified by Cohen and Tits [3]. As for Case 7 of the Main result, we remark that for the known generalized octagons  $\Gamma$  of order  $(2, 4)$  and  $(4, 2)$  we actually have that  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  acts sharply 2-transitively (this is proved in [8]).

Concerning our proof, we note that our argument for  $n = 6, 8$  is typically a finite one, because we heavily use Lemma 2 of the next section. We could also use it for the case  $n = 4$  to get rid of some small examples, but here there is a better geometric way, which also immediately gives us the examples without having to refer to the explicit calculation of the groups  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  for some small finite generalized quadrangles  $\Gamma$ .

We subdivide our proof into the following parts. After two rather general lemmas (proving in particular that  $\Pi^+(\Gamma) = \Pi(\Gamma)$  under the assumptions of the Main Result), we first deal with  $n=4$  (the case  $n=3$  follows from the ‘Fundamental Theorem’ stated above). Then we reduce the cases  $n=6, 8$  to a finite set of possible counterexamples. In the last part, we get rid of those.

## 2. Two useful lemmas

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $\Gamma$  be any generalized  $n$ -gon of order  $(s, t)$ ,  $s, t > 1$  (and possibly infinite),  $n > 3$ . Suppose that  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  acts sharply 2-transitively. Then  $\Pi^+(\Gamma) = \Pi(\Gamma)$ . Moreover, if  $s$  is finite, and  $n$  is not congruent to 2 modulo 3, then  $s$  is not congruent to 1 modulo 3.*

**Proof.** In this proof, we use the following observation, partly due to Norbert Knarr (private communication). Let  $L$  be any line of  $\Gamma$ . Pick any three points  $x, y, z$  incident with  $L$ . It is easy to see that there is an ordinary  $(n+1)$ -gon with sides  $x_0 := L, x_2, x_4, \dots, x_{2n}$ ,  $x_{2i}$  meeting  $x_{2i+2}$ , but not  $x_{2i+4}$  (subscripts to be taken modulo  $2n+2$ ), such that  $x$  is incident with  $x_{2n}$ ,  $y$  is incident with  $x_2$  and  $z$  is the projection onto  $L$  of  $x_{n+1}$  (if  $n$  is odd) or of the intersection of  $x_n$  and  $x_{n+2}$  (if  $n$  is even). Let  $x_{2i+1}$  be the intersection of  $x_{2i}$  and  $x_{2i+2}$  (subscripts again modulo  $2n+2$ ). Let  $\theta : \Gamma_1(L) \rightarrow \Gamma_1(L)$  be the even projectivity defined by  $\theta := [x_0, x_n, x_{2n}, x_{3n}, \dots, x_{(2n+2)n}]$  (subscripts modulo  $2n+2$ , and note that  $x_{(2n+2)n} = x_0 = L$ ). It was observed by Norbert Knarr that  $\theta$  stabilizes  $\{x, y, z\}$  and that  $\theta^3$  fixes  $x, y$  and  $z$ . In fact, it is not difficult to see that  $\theta : x \mapsto y \mapsto z \mapsto x$  if  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ , that  $\theta : x \mapsto z \mapsto y \mapsto x$  if  $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ , and that  $\theta$  fixes  $x, y, z$  if  $n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ . If  $n$  is even, then  $\theta' : \Gamma_1(L) \rightarrow \Gamma_1(L)$  defined by  $\theta' := [x_0, x_n, x_{2n}, \dots, x_{(n+1)n}]$  does not possibly belong to  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  (because it is composed of an odd number of perspectivities), and one checks that  $\theta' : x \mapsto y \mapsto z \mapsto x$  if  $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ , that  $\theta' : x \mapsto z \mapsto y \mapsto x$  if  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ , and that  $\theta'$  fixes  $x, y, z$  if  $n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ . Note that  $\theta'^2 = \theta$ .

Now, if  $n$  is odd, then automatically  $\Pi^+(\Gamma) = \Pi(\Gamma)$  (because a composition of an odd number of perspectivities always maps  $\Gamma_1(\text{line})$  to  $\Gamma_1(\text{point})$ , and vice versa). Suppose now that  $n$  is even. Assume that  $\Pi(\Gamma) \neq \Pi^+(\Gamma)$ . Then  $\theta'^3$  of the previous paragraph fixes  $x, y, z$  and belongs to  $\Pi(\Gamma) \setminus \Pi^+(\Gamma)$  (hence  $\theta'^3 \neq \text{id}$ ). Let  $u$  be a point incident with  $L$  and not fixed by  $\theta'^3$ . Noting that  $x, y, z$  were chosen arbitrarily, we can consider an element  $\sigma : \Gamma_1(L) \rightarrow \Gamma_1(L)$  of  $\Pi(\Gamma) \setminus \Pi^+(\Gamma)$  fixing  $x, y, u$ . Clearly, the composition  $\sigma\theta'^3$  fixes  $x$  and  $y$ , but not  $u$ . But  $\sigma\theta'^3 \in \Pi^+(\Gamma)$ , a contradiction. Hence,  $\theta'^3$  is the identity and  $\Pi^+(\Gamma) = \Pi(\Gamma)$ .

Now suppose that  $n \not\equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ , and let  $s \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  be finite. Then the map  $\theta$  above belongs to  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  and is not trivial. Clearly,  $\theta^3$  is trivial, so  $\theta$  defines a number of 3-cycles in  $\Gamma_1(L)$ . Since  $s \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ , there are at least two points on  $L$  fixed by  $\theta$ , hence  $\theta$  is trivial by the sharp 2-transitivity, a contradiction.

The lemma is proved.  $\square$

**Remark 1.** Considering  $\theta^3$  of the previous proof again, we see that this fixes at least three points. If  $\Pi(\Gamma)$  is a Zassenhaus group, i.e., if the pointwise stabilizer of three elements is automatically the identity, then  $\theta^3$  is the identity, and hence  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)=\Pi(\Gamma)$ . This observation may be used to shorten the arguments in [8].

For the next lemma, we introduce some notation. Let  $\Gamma$  be a finite generalized  $n$ -gon,  $n = 4, 6, 8$ . Let  $p$  be any point of  $\Gamma$ , and fix two lines  $L$  and  $M$  through  $p$ . Now we consider the following subgeometry  $\Gamma^{\{L,M\}}$  (respectively  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$ ) of  $\Gamma$ . The points of  $\Gamma^{\{L,M\}}$  (respectively  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$ ) are the points of  $\Gamma$  opposite  $p$ ; the lines of  $\Gamma^{\{L,M\}}$  (respectively  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$ ) are the lines of  $\Gamma$  opposite both  $L$  and  $M$  (respectively at a distance  $n - 1$  from  $p$ ); incidence is inherited from  $\Gamma$ .

**Lemma 2.** *With the above notation, the geometry  $\Gamma^{\{L,M\}}$  is connected except possibly in the following cases:*

- (a)  $\Gamma$  is a quadrangle and  $(s, t) \in \{(2, 2), (2, 4), (3, 3), (4, 2)\}$ ,
- (b)  $\Gamma$  is a hexagon and  $(s, t) \in \{(2, 2), (2, 8), (3, 3), (4, 4), (8, 2)\}$ ,
- (c)  $\Gamma$  is an octagon and  $(s, t) \in \{(2, 4), (3, 6), (4, 2), (6, 3)\}$ .

**Proof.** The lemma will be proved by the method introduced by Brouwer [2], which he attributes to Willem Haemers. In fact, we can more or less copy Section 4 of Brouwer [2] (and we explicitly do so because we will need a slight modification later on). So, suppose that  $\Gamma^{\{L,M\}}$  is disconnected. Let  $A$  be the adjacency matrix of the collinearity graph of  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$ . Let  $U, V$  be two disjoint components whose union is  $\Gamma^{\{L,M\}}$ . Consider the corresponding partition of  $A$  and let  $B$  be the condensed form of average row sums of the blocks of  $A$ . Putting  $r = (s - 1)(t + 1)$ , which is the valency of the collinearity graph of  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$ ,  $u = |U|$  and  $v = |V|$ , we find

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} r - \varepsilon & \varepsilon \\ \varepsilon u/v & r - \varepsilon u/v \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is the average number of points in  $V$  collinear (in  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$ ) with a point of  $U$ . The eigenvalues of  $B$  are  $r$  and  $r - \varepsilon - \varepsilon u/v$ , and they must interlace the eigenvalues of  $A$ . So, as in [2], we must have

$$(s - 1)(t + 1) - \varepsilon(1 + u/v) \leq s - 1 + \sqrt{ast},$$

with  $a = n/2 - 2$ . Similarly as in [2], the expression  $\varepsilon(1 + u/v)$  is maximized by having all lines of  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$  which do not belong to  $\Gamma^{\{L,M\}}$  meet  $U$  in the same number of points, in which case  $\varepsilon(1 + u/v) = 2s$ . Hence

$$(s - 1)(t + 1) - 2s \leq s - 1 + \sqrt{ast}.$$

For  $n=4$ , this reduces to  $st \leq 2s + t$ . We easily obtain  $(s, t) \in \{(2, 2), (2, 4), (3, 3), (4, 2)\}$ . For  $n = 6$ , this means that  $st \leq 2s + t + \sqrt{st}$ . Since  $st$  is a perfect square (see [4]) and since  $s \leq t^3$  (see [6]), this implies that  $(s, t) \in \{(2, 2), (2, 8), (3, 3), (4, 4), (8, 2)\}$ .

Similarly, for  $n = 8$ , we have  $st \leq 2s + t + \sqrt{2st}$ . As  $2st$  is a perfect square [4] and  $s \leq t^2 \leq s^4$  [7], we obtain  $(s, t) \in \{(2, 4), (3, 6), (4, 2), (6, 3)\}$ .

The lemma is proved.  $\square$

### 3. Generalized quadrangles

In this section, we assume that  $\Gamma$  is a generalized quadrangle (4-gon) with  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  sharply 2-transitive. All generalized quadrangles of order  $(2, t)$  are classified, see for instance the monograph [13, 1.7.9]. Hence, we may assume that the order of  $\Gamma$  is  $(s, t)$  with  $s > 2$ . We show that in this case  $t \leq 3$ . Let  $z$  be any point of  $\Gamma$  and let  $p, a, b$  be three mutually opposite points collinear with  $z$ , chosen in such a way that there exists a point  $x$  opposite  $p$  and collinear with both  $a, b$  (one easily checks that this is always possible). Let  $a'$  (respectively  $b'$ ) be the projection of  $p$  onto  $ax$  (respectively  $bx$ ). Let  $L$  be any line through  $p$  distinct from  $pa'$ ,  $pb'$  and  $pz$  (if such a line  $L$  does not exist, then  $t = 2$  and we are done). Consider the even projectivity  $\theta = [L, ax, pz, bx, L]$ . It is clear that  $\theta$  maps  $p$  onto itself, and that it also fixes the point  $\text{proj}_L x$ . Hence  $\theta$  also fixes  $\text{proj}_L a$ , which is mapped onto  $\text{proj}_L b$ . We conclude that  $\text{proj}_L a = \text{proj}_L b$  and hence  $|\Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_2(a) \cap \Gamma_2(b)| = t - 1$ . Now let  $b^*$  be a point incident with  $bz$  but distinct from  $b$ , from  $z$  and from  $\text{proj}_{bz} a'$  (since  $s > 2$ , we can find such a point  $b^*$ ). Interchanging the roles of  $x$  and  $\text{proj}_{ax} b^*$ , and of  $b$  and  $b^*$ , we see that  $|\Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_2(a) \cap \Gamma_2(b^*)| = t - 1$ . But no element of  $\Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_2(a) \cap \Gamma_2(b)$  is collinear with  $b^*$ , except for  $z$ . Moreover, also  $a'$  does not belong to  $\Gamma_2(b^*)$ . Hence  $\Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_2(a) \cap \Gamma_2(b^*)$  contains at most 2 elements (namely  $z$  and possibly a point incident with  $pb'$ ). This implies  $t - 1 \leq 2$ .

So we have shown that  $t \leq 3$ . But now  $\Gamma$  is finite and is known (see 1.7 of the monograph [13], cp. 6.1 and 6.2 of [9]). The result now follows from the explicit determination of  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$ , with  $\Gamma$  a quadrangle of order  $(s, 2)$  or  $(s, 3)$ . This is done in [8] for the orders  $(4, 2)$ ,  $(3, 3)$  and  $(9, 3)$ , and in [5] for the quadrangle of order  $(5, 3)$ .

Alternatively, we may argue as follows. Let  $L$  and  $M$  be two opposite lines of  $\Gamma$ . Let  $L'$  and  $M'$  be two opposite lines each meeting both  $L$  and  $M$ . Finally, let  $N$  be opposite both  $L$  and  $M$ , and meeting both  $L'$  and  $M'$ . Since  $\Pi^+(\Gamma) = \Pi(\Gamma)$  by Lemma 1, the projectivity  $[L, M, N, L]$  is trivial, and this readily implies that, in the terminology of Payne and Thas [9], the pair  $\{L, M\}$  is *regular*, and hence that each line of  $\Gamma$  is *regular*. Hence, by 2.2.2(i) of [9], we have  $t \geq s$ . Hence, only the quadrangles of order  $(2, 2)$  and  $(3, 3)$  must be considered (this argument also works for  $s$  infinite!). Moreover, for order  $(3, 3)$ , all lines are regular, and hence we have the generalized quadrangle  $\mathbf{Q}(4, 3)$  arising from a non-degenerate quadric in the four-dimensional projective space  $\mathbf{PG}(4, 3)$  over the Galois field  $\mathbf{GF}(3)$  of order 3. Now Knarr [8] tells us that  $\Pi^+(\mathbf{Q}(4, 3)) \cong \mathbf{PSL}_2(4)$  and so Case 4 of the Main Result follows.

**Remark 2.** Completely similar as in the beginning of this section, one shows the following more general fact. If  $\Gamma$  is a generalized  $n$ -gon,  $n \geq 4$  even, of order  $(s, t)$ , with  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  sharply 2-transitive,  $p$  is some point of  $\Gamma$ , and  $x, y, z$  are points opposite  $p$  with

$x$  and  $y$  collinear with  $z$ , but  $x$  not collinear with  $y$ , then  $|I_2(p) \cap \Gamma_{n-2}(x) \cap \Gamma_{n-2}(y)| \in \{0, t-1\}$ .

#### 4. Finite generalized hexagons and octagons

In this section, we suppose that  $\Gamma$  is a finite generalized hexagon or octagon of order  $(s, t)$ , and that  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  acts sharply 2-transitively. Let  $n$  be the diameter of the incidence graph of  $\Gamma$  (so  $n = 6$  or  $8$ ).

Let  $p$  be any point of  $\Gamma$ , and fix two lines  $L$  and  $M$  through  $p$ . Let  $x$  be some fixed point opposite  $p$ . Let  $y$  be a point in the same connected component of  $\Gamma^{\{L, M\}}$  as  $x$ . Suppose that  $\text{proj}_L x = \text{proj}_L y$ . If  $x$  and  $y$  are collinear, then the line  $xy$  does not belong to  $\Gamma^{\{L, M\}}$ , and hence  $x$  and  $y$  are never collinear in  $\Gamma^{\{L, M\}}$ . If  $x$  and  $y$  are at distance 4 (measured in the incidence graph of  $\Gamma^{\{L, M\}}$ ), and if  $\{z\} = I_2(x) \cap I_2(y)$ , then by considering the projectivity  $[M, xz, L, yz, M]$ , we see that  $\text{proj}_M x = \text{proj}_M y$ . Suppose now that  $x$  and  $y$  are at distance  $d > 4$  (again measured in the incidence graph of  $\Gamma^{\{L, M\}}$ ). Let  $\gamma$  be a minimal path from  $x$  to  $y$  in  $\Gamma^{\{L, M\}}$ . Let  $y'$  be the projection of the point  $\text{proj}_L x$  onto the second line of  $\gamma$ . By the previous argument we have  $\text{proj}_M y' = \text{proj}_M x$ . An induction argument on the length of  $\gamma$  now implies that  $\text{proj}_M y = \text{proj}_M y'$ . Hence  $\text{proj}_M x = \text{proj}_M y$ . It is of course clear that there exists a point  $a$  opposite  $p$  with  $\text{proj}_L a = \text{proj}_L x$  and  $\text{proj}_M a \neq \text{proj}_M x$ . This shows that the geometry  $\Gamma^{\{L, M\}}$  cannot be connected (and must have at least  $s$  components since there are  $s$  choices for  $\text{proj}_M a$ ).

Now we apply Lemma 2. The cases  $s = 2$  and  $t = 2$  give rise to Cases 5, 6 and 7 of our Main Result (because the unique generalized hexagon of order  $(8, 2)$  has a 3-transitive group of projectivities; see [8]). Also, the case  $(n, s, t) = (6, 4, 4)$  has been taken care of by Lemma 1.

Hence, we are left to show that for no generalized hexagon  $\Gamma$  of order  $(3, 3)$ , and for no generalized octagon of order  $(3, 6)$  or  $(6, 3)$ , the permutation group  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  acts sharply 2-transitively. In the next section, we will use the geometry of traces to rule these cases out.

#### 5. The remaining small cases

##### 5.1. The case $(n, s, t) = (8, 3, 6)$

Let  $\Gamma$  be a generalized octagon of order  $(3, 6)$  with  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  sharply 2-transitive. Let  $p$  be any point of  $\Gamma$ , and let  $x_0$  be a point of  $\Gamma$  opposite  $p$ . If  $L$  is some line through  $p$ , then we label the point  $\text{proj}_L x_0$  by  $(L, 0 \bmod 3)$ . We now choose an arbitrary order  $(L_1, L_2, L_3, L_4, L_5, L_6, L_7)$  of the lines through  $p$ , and we label the two points on  $L_1$  distinct from  $p$  and from  $\text{proj}_L x_0$  arbitrarily by  $(L_1, 1 \bmod 3)$  and  $(L_1, 2 \bmod 3)$ . For convenience, we usually omit ‘mod 3’ when it is clear it should be there. Let  $\theta_i$ ,

$2 \leq i \leq 7$  be any even projectivity from  $L_1$  to  $L_i$  which maps  $p$  to  $p$  and  $(L_1, 0)$  to  $(L_i, 0)$  ( $\theta_i$  exists by the 2-transitivity of  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$ ). Then we label the image of  $(L_1, \ell)$ ,  $\ell \in \{1, 2\}$ , by  $(L_i, \ell)$ . This labeling is independent of the choice of  $\theta_i$  by the sharp 2-transitivity of  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$ . Now with every point  $x$  opposite  $p$ , we can associate a unique 7-tuple  $7(x) := (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_7) \in \{0, 1, 2\}^7$  defined by  $\text{proj}_{L_j} x = (L_j, i_j)$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq 7$ . Now let  $y$  be any point opposite  $p$  collinear with  $x$ . Without loss of generality we may assume that the line  $xy$  is not opposite  $L_1$ . Hence  $7(y)$  is of the form  $(i_1, j_2, j_3, \dots, j_7)$ . Consider the even projectivity  $\sigma_\ell := [L_2, xy, L_\ell]$ ,  $3 \leq \ell \leq 7$ . Clearly it maps  $(L_2, i_2)$  to  $(L_\ell, i_\ell)$ . We now claim that it maps  $(L_2, j_2)$  to  $(L_\ell, i_\ell + j_2 - i_2)$ . First, remark that every even projectivity from  $L_\ell$  to  $L_2$  which maps  $p$  to  $p$  and  $(L_\ell, 0)$  to  $(L_2, 0)$  maps  $(L_\ell, 1)$  to  $(L_2, 1)$ . Now let  $\sigma$  be any projectivity from  $L_2$  to  $L_\ell$  mapping  $p$  to  $p$  and  $(L_2, 0)$  to  $(L_\ell, 1)$ . Suppose  $\sigma$  maps  $(L_2, 1)$  to  $(L_\ell, 0)$ . Then we may compose  $\sigma$  with an even projectivity  $\sigma'$  from  $L_\ell$  to  $L_2$ , where  $\sigma'$  fixes  $p$  and maps  $(L_\ell, k)$  to  $(L_2, k)$ ,  $k = 0, 1, 2$ , and we obtain an even projectivity  $\sigma\sigma'$  from  $L_2$  onto itself fixing  $p$  and  $(L_2, 2)$  and swapping  $(L_2, 0)$  with  $(L_2, 1)$ . This contradicts the sharp 2-transitivity of  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$ . Hence  $\sigma$  maps  $(L_2, 1)$  to  $(L_\ell, 2)$  and  $(L_2, 2)$  to  $(L_\ell, 0)$ . Similarly, every even projectivity from  $L_2$  to  $L_\ell$  mapping  $p$  to  $p$  and  $(L_2, 0)$  to  $(L_\ell, 2)$ , maps  $(L_2, 1)$  to  $(L_\ell, 0)$  and  $(L_2, 2)$  to  $(L_\ell, 1)$ . Consequently, we have shown that the even projectivities from  $L_2$  to  $L_\ell$  fixing  $p$  are of the form  $(L_2, k) \mapsto (L_\ell, k + \varepsilon)$ , with  $\varepsilon \in \{0, 1, 2\}$  (modulo 3). Our claim now follows easily. Putting  $\varepsilon = j_2 - i_2$ , we now have that  $7(y) = (i_1, i_2 + \varepsilon, i_3 + \varepsilon, \dots, i_7 + \varepsilon)$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  appears 6 times, we deduce that the sum of all entries of  $7(y)$  is congruent modulo 3 to the sum of all entries of  $7(x)$ . We can draw two conclusion out of this.

*First.* With the usual subtraction, we have that  $7(x) - 7(y)$  contains a unique zero entry and either six 1's or six 2's when  $x$  and  $y$  are distinct collinear points opposite  $p$ . The zero entry is at position  $i$  if and only if  $xy$  is not opposite  $L_i$ ,  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, 7\}$ .

*Second.* Since we can reach every point opposite  $p$  by a sequence of collinear points (because  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$  is connected, see [2]), we have exactly  $3^6$  7-tuples which are actually equal to  $7(z)$ , for some point  $z$  of  $\Gamma$  opposite  $p$ . Since there are  $3^4 \cdot 6^3$  points in  $\Gamma$  opposite  $p$ , this means that on the average, every admissible 7-tuple appears as  $7(x)$  for 24 points  $x$  (an *admissible* 7-tuple is one which is equal to  $7(u)$ , for some point  $u$  opposite  $p$ ).

Now we consider any admissible 7-tuple, and without loss of generality we may take  $7(x_0) = (0, 0, \dots, 0)$ . Let  $x_1$  be any point opposite  $p$  collinear with  $x_0$  and such that the line  $x_0x_1$  is not opposite  $L_1$  (there are 2 choices for  $x_1$ ). Without loss of generality we may assume that  $7(x_1) = (0, 1, 1, \dots, 1)$ . Now we consider any point  $x_2$  opposite  $p$ , collinear with  $x_1$  and not on the line  $x_0x_1$  (fixing  $x_1$ , there are 12 choices for  $x_2$ ; hence in total we have 24 choices). Without loss of generality, we may assume that  $x_1x_2$  is not opposite  $L_7$ . Then, since  $7(x_1) - 7(x_2)$  contains either six 1's or six 2's (and the zero entry appears at the last position because  $\text{proj}_{L_7} x_1 = \text{proj}_{L_7} x_2$ ) we have two possibilities.

1.  $7(x_2) = (1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 1)$ . In this case there is a unique point  $x_3$  collinear with  $x_2$ , opposite  $p$ , such that  $x_2x_3$  is not opposite  $L_1$ , and with  $7(x_3) = (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0)$ . It



is now easily seen that a point  $x_4$  opposite  $p$  and collinear with  $x_3$  exists such that  $7(x_4) = 7(x_0)$ .

2.  $7(x_2) = (2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1)$ . In this case we can take for  $x_3$  the unique point opposite  $p$ , collinear with  $x_2$ , such that  $x_2x_3$  is not opposite  $L_1$ , and with  $7(x_3) = (2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 0)$ . Also in this case, there is now a point  $x_4$  collinear with  $x_3$  opposite  $p$  with  $7(x_4) = 7(x_0)$ .

Hence, each of the 24 choices for  $x_2$  gives rise to a point  $x_4$  at distance 7 from  $x_0x_1$  with  $7(x_4) = 7(x_0)$ . If two such points coincide, then their unique paths to  $x_0x_1$  must coincide, a contradiction (they are all different by construction). Hence, we have a set of 25 points (all points  $x_4$  and in addition the point  $x_0$ ) giving rise to the same prechosen 7-tuple. Hence, the average of points  $x$  with  $7(x)$  prechosen must be at least 25, a contradiction to our previous paragraph.

Hence  $\Gamma$  cannot exist.

### 5.2. The case $(n, s, t) = (8, 6, 3)$

Let  $\Gamma$  be a generalized octagon of order  $(6, 3)$  with  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  sharply 2-transitive. Let  $p$  be any point of  $\Gamma$ , and let  $x_0$  be a point of  $\Gamma$  opposite  $p$ . As in the previous case, we can associate a 4-tuple  $(0, 0, 0, 0)$  to  $x_0$  by taking an order  $(L_1, L_2, L_3, L_4)$  of the lines through  $p$ , and by labeling the point  $\text{proj}_{L_i} x_0$  as  $(L_i, 0 \bmod 6)$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq 4$  (and we will omit ‘mod 6’ again in the sequel). We now choose a point on  $L_1$  distinct from  $p$  and from  $(L_1, 0)$  and label it  $(L_1, 1)$ . There is a unique element  $\theta$  of  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  mapping  $L_1$  to itself, fixing  $p$  and mapping  $(L_1, 0)$  to  $(L_1, 1)$ . We define  $(L_1, j)^\theta = (L_1, j + 1)$  inductively, for all  $j$  (modulo 6). As before, this induces a unique labeling on the lines  $L_i$ ,  $i = 2, 3, 4$ , and we can associate a 4-tuple  $4(x)$  with every point  $x$  opposite  $p$ , in exactly the same way as before. One also shows similarly that the sum of the labels is congruent 3 modulo 6, and that for collinear points  $x$  and  $y$ , the 4-tuples  $4(x)$  and  $4(y)$  have the same entry at a certain position, and the entries in the other positions have a constant difference.

It is now a little elementary exercise to show that, if  $(a, b, c, d)$  is an admissible 4-tuple (as before, this means that there exists a point  $x$  opposite  $p$  with  $4(x) = (a, b, c, d)$ ), then

$$(c - a, d - b) \in \{(0, 0), (2, 4), (4, 2), (3, 3), (1, 5), (5, 1), (0, 3), (2, 1), (4, 5), (3, 0), (1, 2), (5, 4)\} =: \mathcal{A}.$$

For  $(i, j) \in \mathcal{A}$ , we put  $\mathcal{S}(i, j) = \{x \in \Gamma_8(p) \mid 4(x) = (a, b, a + i, b + j), \text{ for some } a, b\}$ . Suppose now two points  $x$  and  $y$  are collinear in  $\Gamma^{\{L_3, L_4\}}$ . Then  $xy$  is opposite both  $L_3$  and  $L_4$ , hence we may assume it is not opposite  $L_1$ . So,  $4(x) = 4(y) + (0, \varepsilon, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ , and we see that  $x$  and  $y$  belong to the same set  $\mathcal{S}(i, j)$  for some suitable  $(i, j)$ . This means that each  $\mathcal{S}(i, j)$  is the union of connected components of  $\Gamma^{\{L_3, L_4\}}$ , and hence there are at least 12 connected components. Now we set  $\mathcal{S}_1 = \mathcal{S}(0, 0) \cup \mathcal{S}(2, 4) \cup \mathcal{S}(4, 2)$ ,  $\mathcal{S}_2 = \mathcal{S}(3, 3) \cup \mathcal{S}(1, 5) \cup \mathcal{S}(5, 1)$ ,  $\mathcal{S}_3 = \mathcal{S}(0, 3) \cup \mathcal{S}(2, 1) \cup \mathcal{S}(4, 5)$  and  $\mathcal{S}_4 = \mathcal{S}(3, 0) \cup$

$\mathcal{S}(1,2) \cup \mathcal{S}(5,4)$ . It is easy to check that an arbitrary member of  $\mathcal{S}_1$  (respectively  $\mathcal{S}_2, \mathcal{S}_3, \mathcal{S}_4$ ) is collinear (in  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$ ) with exactly 14 members of  $\mathcal{S}_1$  (respectively  $\mathcal{S}_2, \mathcal{S}_3, \mathcal{S}_4$ ), with no members of  $\mathcal{S}_2$  (respectively  $\mathcal{S}_1, \mathcal{S}_4, \mathcal{S}_3$ ), with exactly three members of both  $\mathcal{S}_3$  and  $\mathcal{S}_4$  (respectively  $\mathcal{S}_3$  and  $\mathcal{S}_4, \mathcal{S}_1$  and  $\mathcal{S}_2, \mathcal{S}_1, \mathcal{S}_2$ ). Indeed, let us check this for instance for a point  $x$  with  $4(x) = (0,0,0,0) \in \mathcal{S}_1$ . The neighbors of  $x$  have corresponding 4-tuple (and ‘ $\rightsquigarrow$ ’ means ‘gives rise to members of’)

$$\begin{aligned} (0, \ell, \ell, \ell), (\ell, 0, \ell, \ell) &\rightsquigarrow \mathcal{S}(0,0) \subseteq \mathcal{S}_1, \quad \ell \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, \\ (2, 2, 0, 2), (4, 4, 4, 0) &\rightsquigarrow \mathcal{S}(2,4) \subseteq \mathcal{S}_1, \\ (2, 2, 2, 0), (4, 4, 0, 4) &\rightsquigarrow \mathcal{S}(4,2) \subseteq \mathcal{S}_1, \\ (1, 1, 0, 1), (3, 3, 0, 3), (5, 5, 0, 5) &\rightsquigarrow \mathcal{S}_3, \\ (1, 1, 1, 0), (3, 3, 3, 0), (5, 5, 5, 0) &\rightsquigarrow \mathcal{S}_4. \end{aligned}$$

The condensed form of the adjacency matrix with corresponding partition is thus

$$\begin{pmatrix} 14 & 0 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 14 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 14 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 0 & 14 \end{pmatrix}$$

and this has eigenvalues 20 (multiplicity 1), 14 (multiplicity 2) and 8 (multiplicity 1). As before, by interlacing, we must have  $14 \leq s - 1 + \sqrt{2st} = 11$ , a contradiction.

### 5.3. The case $(n, s, t) = (6, 3, 3)$

Let  $\Gamma$  be a generalized hexagon of order  $(3, 3)$  such that  $\Pi^+(\Gamma)$  is sharply 2-transitive. Let  $p$  be a point of  $\Gamma$ . Exactly in the same way as in the two previous subsections, we can associate a 4-tuple  $4(x)$  with every point  $x$  opposite  $p$ , and such a 4-tuple  $(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4)$  consists of 4 integers  $i_\ell$  modulo 3 which sum up to 0 modulo 3. Adjacent to  $x$  in  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$  are 8 points with corresponding 4-tuples  $(i_1, i_2 + \varepsilon, i_3 + \varepsilon, i_4 + \varepsilon)$ ,  $(i_1 + \varepsilon, i_2, i_3 + \varepsilon, i_4 + \varepsilon), \dots, (\dots, i_3 + \varepsilon, i_4)$ . We observe that no two of these 8 quadruples share in exactly one position an element. Hence, since  $\Gamma^{\{p\}}$  is connected (see [2]), we have 27 admissible quadruples, and if we consider the graph  $G$  with vertex set the admissible quadruples, and we call two quadruples adjacent if they share in exactly one position an element, then we obtain a (strongly regular) graph without triangles. It can also be easily seen that there are no two quadruples differing in exactly one position.

Since there are 27 admissible quadruples, and  $3^5$  points opposite  $p$ , there must be at least one admissible quadruple equal to  $4(x)$ , for at least 9 points  $x$  opposite  $p$ . Now suppose, without loss of generality, that  $(0, 0, 0, 0)$  is such a quadruple, and let  $4(x) = 4(y) = (0, 0, 0, 0)$  for two distinct points  $x$  and  $y$ . We now determine the mutual position of  $x$  and  $y$  by ruling out some possibilities.

Suppose that  $|F_3(p) \cap F_3(x) \cap F_3(y)| = 0$ . Let  $M$  be any line through  $y$  and put  $N = \text{proj}_x M$ . The point  $\text{proj}_N y$  is opposite  $p$  since otherwise it would coincide with  $\text{proj}_N p$ , and the latter is opposite  $p$  (because, if  $U = \text{proj}_p N$  and  $u = \text{proj}_U N$ , we

have by assumption that  $\text{proj}_u y \neq \text{proj}_u x$ ). Similarly, the point  $\text{proj}_M x$  is opposite  $p$ . By Remark 2, the sets  $\Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_2(x)$  and  $\Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_2(\text{proj}_M x)$  have exactly two elements in common. But since  $y$  and  $\text{proj}_M x$  are collinear, the sets  $\Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_2(y)$  and  $\Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_2(\text{proj}_M x)$  have exactly one element in common, a contradiction (because  $\Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_2(x) = \Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_2(y)$  by assumption).

Suppose now  $\Gamma_3(p) \cap \Gamma_3(x) \cap \Gamma_3(y) = \{L\}$ . Suppose, moreover, that  $\text{proj}_L x \neq \text{proj}_L y$ . Then  $\delta(x, y) = 6$  and considering a line  $M \neq \text{proj}_y L$  through  $y$ , we can copy the argument in the previous paragraph to reach a contradiction.

Similarly, we can rule out the case  $\Gamma_3(p) \cap \Gamma_3(x) \cap \Gamma_3(y) = \{L, L'\}$ ,  $L \neq L'$  ( $\text{proj}_L x \neq \text{proj}_L y$  is automatic since  $x \neq y$ ). Note that an analogous argument shows that  $|\Gamma_3(p) \cap \Gamma_3(x) \cap \Gamma_3(y)| \neq 3$ .

Suppose now  $|\Gamma_3(p) \cap \Gamma_3(x) \cap \Gamma_3(y)| = 4$ . There is at most one further point  $z$  opposite  $p$  with  $|\Gamma_3(p) \cap \Gamma_3(x) \cap \Gamma_3(z)| = 4$ . Since there are at least nine points  $u$  with  $4(u) = 4(x)$ , there is at least one point  $w$  opposite  $p$  with  $4(w) = 4(x)$  and  $\Gamma_3(p) \cap \Gamma_3(x) \cap \Gamma_3(w) = \{L\}$ , for some line  $L$ , and  $\text{proj}_L x = \text{proj}_L w$ . But then  $\Gamma_3(p) \cap \Gamma_3(y) \cap \Gamma_3(w) = \{L\}$  with  $\text{proj}_L y \neq \text{proj}_L w$ . So  $4(w) \neq 4(y)$ , a contradiction.

Hence we have shown that  $\Gamma_3(p) \cap \Gamma_3(x) \cap \Gamma_3(y)$  consists of a unique line  $L$  with  $\text{proj}_L x = \text{proj}_L y$ . It is clear that each such line  $L$  gives rise to at most two points  $y$ ,  $y \neq x$ , with  $4(y) = 4(x)$ , because on each line  $K$  through  $\text{proj}_L x$ ,  $K \neq L$ ,  $K$  not through  $x$ , the point  $y$  must be equal to the projection of every element of  $(\Gamma_2(p) \cap \Gamma_4(x)) \setminus \{\text{proj}_L p\}$ . Since there are four lines in  $\Gamma_3(p) \cap \Gamma_3(x)$ , there are at most nine elements  $y$  with  $4(y) = 4(x)$ . Our assumption now implies that there are exactly nine such elements. We can do the same with a second admissible quadruple, and continuing this way, we finally have that every admissible quadruple arises from exactly nine points opposite  $p$ . We can show that such a set of nine points is contained in a subhexagon of order  $(1, 3)$ , but we will not need this fact.

Now put  $\Gamma_3(p) \cap \Gamma_3(x) = \{L_0, L_1, L_2, L_3\}$ . Let  $u$  be a point on  $L_0$  distinct from  $\text{proj}_{L_0} x$ . Let  $(u, uw_i, w_i, w_i u_i, L_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  be path from  $u$  to  $L_i$ . Then  $w_1 \neq w_2$  (otherwise  $4(w_1)$  and  $4(x)$  differ in at most one position, a contradiction). Since  $\Pi(\Gamma) = \Pi^+(\Gamma)$ , the projectivity  $[L_2, L_0, L_1, L_2]$  is the identity. Hence  $\delta(u_1, u_2) = 4$ , and there is a path  $(u_1, u_1 u_{12}, u_{12}, u_{12} u_2, u_2)$  from  $U_1$  to  $U_2$ . By an argument in the previous paragraph, we know that on the line  $uw_2$ , there is a unique point  $v$  with  $4(v) = 4(w_1)$ . Hence  $4(w_1)$  and  $4(w_2)$  differ in exactly three positions (because if they were equal, then they would have to be equal to  $4(x)$ , a contradiction). Similarly,  $4(w_1)$  (respectively  $4(w_2)$ ) and  $4(w_{12})$  differ in exactly three positions. But this induces a triangle in the graph  $G$  (see above), a contradiction.

This completes the proof of our Main Result.  $\square$

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