Intransitive geometries

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August 27, 2005

Abstract

A lemma of Tits states that a connection between simple connectivity of a geometry and the universal completion of amalgams related to a “transitive enough” group of automorphisms of that geometry. In the present paper, we generalize this lemma to intransitive geometries, thus opening the door for numerous applications. We treat ourselves some amalgams related to intransitive actions of finite orthogonal groups, as a first class of examples.

1 Introduction

Amalgams in group theory have proved their importance in the classification of the finite simple groups (see Sections 28 and 29 of Gorenstein, Lyons, Solomon [13]). Originally one considers the amalgam of the maximal parabolic subgroups of a Chevalley group of rank $\geq 3$ in its natural action on the associated building and proves that the universal completion of the amalgam is (some controlled central extension of) the Chevalley group itself, see [8], [30], [32], [33]. In modern terms, see M"uhlherr [25], this essentially is implied by the fact that the building and the opposites geometry of the corresponding twin building are simply connected.

Since the mid-1970’s there has been interest in other types of amalgams as well, see Phan [23], [24]. Somehow miraculously amalgams of (twisted) Chevalley groups over finite fields were studied that did not come from the action on the building. Aschbacher [3] was the first to realize that Phan’s amalgam in [23] arises as a version of the amalgam of rank one and rank two parabolics of the action of $\text{SU}_{n+1}(q^2)$ on the geometry of nondegenerate subspaces of a $(n + 1)$-dimensional unitary vector space over $\mathbb{F}_{q^2}$. In order to prove that the universal completion of the amalgam is the group under consideration, one complies to a lemma by Tits [34], see also Pasini [22], saying that this essentially amounts to checking that the geometry is simply connected and residually connected, under the assumption that the geometry is flag-transitive.

During the revision of the classification of the finite simple groups there was a demand for a revision of Phan’s result [23] as well. Das [9] succeeded partially and Bennett, Shpectorov [5] succeeded completely. After preprints of the latter paper were circulated around the 2001 conference in honor of Ernie Shult, things started to develop at a high pace. People finally realized the connection between M"uhlherr’s [25] new proof of the Curtis-Tits theorem and Aschbacher’s [3] geometry for the Phan amalgam. Eventually Hoffman, Shpectorov and the first author [14] constructed a new geometry resulting in the geometric part of a completely new Phan-type theorem characterizing central quotients of $\text{Sp}_{2n}(q)$. Recently the first author [15]
provided the group-theoretic part, a classification of amalgams based on [5], thus completing the new Phan-type theorem. Some remaining open cases over small fields are addressed by Horn in [21], see also Horn, Nickel and the first author [19].

Later Bennett joined Hoffman, Shpectorov and the first author [4] to develop a theory for this new sort of geometries, called flipflop geometries: Take your favorite spherical building and consider it as a twin building à la Tits [35]. The opposites geometry, which was used by Mühlherr [25] to re-prove the Curtis-Tits theorem, consists of the pairs of elements of the twin building at codistance one (the neutral element of the associated Weyl group). A flip is an involution of that opposites geometry that interchanges the positive and the negative part, flips the distances and preserves the codistance. The flipflop geometry of the opposites geometry with respect to the flip consists of all those elements of the opposites geometry that are stabilized (or rather flipped) by the flip.

In case of Aschbacher’s geometry for Phan’s theorem the building geometry is the projective space corresponding to the group $\text{SL}_{n+1}(q^2)$ and the flip is a nondegenerate unitary polarity. The corresponding flipflop geometry then is the geometry on the nondegenerate subspaces of the projective space with respect to the polarity. Indeed, being opposite means that a subspace and its polar have empty intersection which in turn means that the subspace in question is nondegenerate.

The rank of this geometry is always higher than the one of the associated building, and hence this approach covers more groups. This idea works fine for the unitary groups (see Aschbacher [3], Das [9], Bennett, Shpectorov [5]) and for the symplectic groups (see Das [10] (finite fields, odd characteristic), Das [11] (finite fields, even characteristic), Hoffman, Shpectorov and the first author [14] (finite fields of size at least 8; a by-product of the new geometry), and the first author [16] (all fields)) although, strictly speaking, the symplectic forms do not yield a flipflop geometry. However, for the orthogonal ones over finite fields, we run into problems since the geometry of nondegenerate spaces is, in general, not flag-transitive. The flag-transitive case for forms of Witt index at least one, i.e., over quadratically closed fields has been settled by Altmann [1]. See also Altmann and the first author [2] for the same results and some extensions to real closed fields.

As said before, in order to prove that the universal completion of the amalgam is the group under consideration, one complies to a lemma by Tits [34] saying that this essentially amounts to checking that the geometry is simply connected and residually connected, under the assumption of flag-transitivity. For intransitive geometries one can try to find a flag-transitive subgeometry and to prove that this subgeometry is simply connected and residually connected. However, flag-transitive subgeometries of the geometry of degenerate subspaces of a finite orthogonal classical group are not known to be simply connected, although Hoffman and his PhD student Adam E. Roberts have produced some results in this direction, see [26] (but our results below are stronger and more general).

Hence, to overcome these difficulties, one should generalize the theory of amalgams either to non flag-transitive geometries, or to non simply connected ones. Since the former is more direct (the latter requires suitable flag-transitive subgeometries and involves nontrivial covers of these subgeometries; this seems to be less direct), we have chosen to try that. The key idea is to use a theorem by Stroppel [31], which seems not to be so well known, but is very useful in this context. We also discuss the more difficult and more general problem of the amalgam of
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rank $k$ parabolics in non flag-transitive geometries. It actually turns out that the most natural results occur if one abandons thinking in amalgams of rank $k$ parabolics, but adopts thinking in amalgams of certain shapes instead. We then apply our theory to the orthogonal classical groups and give many examples.

In an appendix we apply our theory reporting on recent research by Hoffman and Shpectorov [20] on an interesting amalgam for $G_2(3)$ coming from an intransitive geometry related to the sporadic simple Thompson group. Our approach shows how powerful the established theory of the present paper is.

We conclude this introduction by the remark that in the mid-1980’s, using functional analysis and Lie theory, Borovoi [6] and Satarov [27] have obtained related universal completion results for amalgams in compact Lie groups. In this case, however, the geometry acted on is the building, so their results on compact Lie groups follow immediately from the simple connectivity of the building. The classification strategy for amalgams from [5] and [15] was used by the first author in [18] when providing a classification of the amalgams from [6] and [27], yielding a Phan-type theorem for compact Lie groups. Glöckner and the first author [12] proved recently that these amalgams in fact suffice to reconstruct the Lie group topology as well.

Acknowledgement: The authors would like to express their gratitude to the referee for his detailed remarks and suggestions, requiring corrections at various places.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we define the notions and review the results that we will need to develop our theory. This section has been inspired by [7], [28], [29].

2.1 Coset pregeometries

Definition 2.1 (Pregeometry, geometry) A pregeometry $\mathcal{G}$ over the set $I$ is a triple $(X, *, \text{typ})$ consisting of a set $X$, a symmetric and reflexive incidence relation $*$, and a surjective type function $\text{typ} : X \to I$, subject to the following condition:

(Pre) If $x * y$ with $\text{typ}(x) = \text{typ}(y)$, then $x = y$.

The set $I$ is usually called the type set. A flag in $X$ is a set of pairwise incident elements. The type of a flag $F$ is the set $\text{typ}(F) := \{\text{typ}(x) : x \in F\}$. A chamber is a flag of type $I$, a pennant is a flag of cardinality three. The rank of a flag $F$ is $|\text{typ}(F)|$ and the corank is equal to $|I \setminus \text{typ}(F)|$.

A geometry is a pregeometry with the additional property that

(Addr) every flag is contained in a chamber.

The pregeometry $\mathcal{G}$ is connected if the graph $(X, *)$ is connected.

Definition 2.2 (Lounge, hall) Let $\mathcal{G} = (X, *, \text{typ})$ be a pregeometry over $I$. A subset $W$ of $X$ is called a lounge if each subset $V$ of $W$ for which $\text{typ} : V \to I$ is a injection, is a flag. A lounge $W$ with $\text{typ}(W) = I$ is called a hall.
Definition 2.3 (Residue) Let $F$ be a flag of $G$, let us say of type $J \subseteq I$. Let $J'$ be the set of all $j' \in I \setminus J$ such that there exists $x \in X$ with $\text{typ}(x) = j'$ and with $F \cup \{x\}$ a flag. Also, let $x$ be the set of all $x \in X$ with $\text{typ}(x) \in J'$ such that $F \cup \{x\}$ is a flag. Then the residue $G_F$ of $F$ is the pregeometry $(X', \ast_{|X' \times X'}, \text{typ}|_{X'})$ over $J'$.

Definition 2.4 (Automorphism) Let $G = (X, \ast, \text{typ})$ be a pregeometry over $I$. An automorphism of $G$ is a permutation $\sigma$ of $X$ with $\text{typ}(\sigma(x)) = \text{typ}(x)$, for all $x \in X$, and with $\sigma(x) \ast \sigma(y)$ if and only if $x \ast y$, for all $x, y \in X$.

Moreover, a group $G$ of automorphisms of $G$ is called

- flag-transitive, if for each pair of flags $c$, $d$ with $\text{typ}(c) = \text{typ}(d)$,
- chamber-transitive, if $\text{typ}(c) = I = \text{typ}(d)$,
- pennant-transitive, if $|\text{typ}(c)| = 3 = |\text{typ}(d)|$ and $\text{typ}(c) = \text{typ}(d)$,
- incidence-transitive, if $|\text{typ}(c)| = 2 = |\text{typ}(d)|$ and $\text{typ}(c) = \text{typ}(d)$,
- vertex-transitive, if $|\text{typ}(c)| = 1 = |\text{typ}(d)|$ and $\text{typ}(c) = \text{typ}(d)$

there exists a $\sigma \in G$ with $\sigma(c) = d$.

If the group of all automorphisms of $G$ is flag-transitive, chamber-transitive, incidence-transitive or vertex-transitive, then we say that $G$ is flag-transitive, chamber-transitive, incidence-transitive or vertex-transitive, respectively.

The emphasis of the present paper is on geometries that are not vertex-transitive, and which we will call intransitive. Therefore, we first have a look how one can describe such a geometry group-theoretically.

Definition 2.5 (Coset Pregeometry) Let $I$ be a set and let $(T_i)_{i \in I}$ be a family of mutually disjoint sets. Also, let $G$ be a group and let $(G^{t,i})_{t \in T_i, i \in I}$ be a family of subgroups of $G$. Then

$$(\{(C, t) : t \in T_i \text{ for some } i \in I, C \in G/G^{t,i}\}, \ast, \text{typ})$$

with $\text{typ}(C, t) = i$ if $t \in T_i$, and

(Cos) $gG^{t,i} \ast hG^{s,j}$ if and only if $gG^{t,i} \cap hG^{s,j} \neq \emptyset$ and either $i \neq j$ or $(t, i) = (s, j)$

is a pregeometry over $I$, the coset pregeometry of $G$ with respect to $(G^{t,i})_{t \in T_i, i \in I}$. Since the type function is completely determined by the indices, we also denote the coset pregeometry of $G$ with respect to $(G^{t,i})_{t \in T_i, i \in I}$ by

$$((G/G^{t,i} \times \{t\})_{t \in T_i, i \in I}, \ast).$$

The family $(G^{t,i})_{t \in T_i, i \in I}$ forms a lounge, even a hall. If $|T_i| = 1$ for all $i \in I$, then we write $G_i$ instead of $G^{t,i}$, and we put canonically $T_i = \{i\}$. The family $(G_i, i \in I)$ forms a chamber of the coset geometry, called the base chamber. For $J \subseteq I$, we also write $G_J = \bigcap_{j \in J} G_j$. 

Certainly, any coset pregeometry with $|T_i| = 1$ for all $i \in I$, which means nothing else than being vertex-transitive, is incidence-transitive. Indeed, if $gG_i \cap hG_j \neq \emptyset$, then choose $a \in gG_i \cap hG_j$. It follows $aG_i = gG_i$ and $aG_j = hG_j$ and therefore the automorphism $a^{-1}$ maps the incident pair $gG_i$, $hG_j$ onto the incident pair $G_i$, $G_j$.

Note that the residue of a coset pregeometry in general is not a coset pregeometry. See [7] for a number of conditions under which it in fact is a coset pregeometry.

Similar to the characterizations of vertex-transitivity there exist a large number of group-theoretic characterizations of various geometric properties of coset geometries, see e.g. [7]. The following one, the characterization of connectivity, is an easy but crucial observation for studying amalgams.

**Theorem 2.6 (inspired by Buekenhout/Cohen [7])**

Let $I \neq \emptyset$. The coset pregeometry $((G/G^i, \{t\})_{t \in T_i, i \in I}, *)$ is connected if and only if

$$G = \langle G^i \mid i \in I, t \in T_i \rangle.$$ 

**Proof.** Suppose that $G$ is connected. Take $i \in I$ and $t \in T_i$. If $a \in G$, then there is a path

$$1G^i, a_0G^i, a_1G^i, a_2G^i, \ldots, a_mG^i, aG^i$$

connecting the elements $1G^i$ and $aG^i$ of $G$. Now

$$a_kG^i \cap a_{k+1}G^i \neq \emptyset,$$

so

$$a_k^{-1}a_{k+1} \in G^iG^iG^iG^i \ldots G^iG^iG^iG^i$$

for $k = 0, \ldots, m - 1$. Hence

$$a = (a_0^{-1})(a_1^{-1}) \cdots (a_m^{-1}) \in \langle G^iG^i \rangle.$$

and so $a \in \langle G^i \mid i \in I, j \in T_i \rangle$. The converse is obtained by reversing the above argument. The only difficulty that can occur is that $g_1G^i$ and $g_2G^i$ are not incident, even if $g_1G^i \cap g_2G^i \neq \emptyset$. This can be remedied by including some coset $gG^j$, $j \neq i$, between $g_1G^i$ and $g_2G^i$ into the chain of incidences, where $g \in g_1G^i \cap g_2G^i$. \hfill $\Box$

Now we turn to the question which pregeometries actually are coset pregeometries. Stroppel gave the answer in [31]. To this end let us introduce the notion of the sketch of a pregeometry.

**Definition 2.7 (Sketch)** Let $G = (X, \ast, \text{typ})$ be a pregeometry over $I$, let $G$ be a group of automorphisms of $G$, and let $W \subseteq X$ be a set of $G$-orbit representatives of $X$. We write

$$W = \bigcup_{i \in I} W_i$$

with $W_i \subseteq \text{typ}^{-1}(i)$. The **sketch of $G$ with respect to $G$ and $W$** is the coset geometry

$$((G/G_w \times \{w\})_{w \in W_i, i \in I}, \ast).$$
Recall that two actions $\phi : G \to \text{Aut } M$ and $\phi' : G \to \text{Aut } M'$ are said to be equivalent if there is an isomorphism $\psi : M \to M'$ such that $\psi \circ \phi(g) \circ \psi^{-1} = \phi'(g)$ for each $g \in G$ or, equivalently, $\psi \circ \phi(g) = \phi'(g) \circ \psi$ for all $g \in G$. In this case, we shall also say that $M$ and $M'$ are isomorphic $G$-sets.

Theorem 2.8 (Stroppel’s reconstruction theorem [31])

Let $G = (X, *, \text{typ})$ be a pregeometry over $I$ and let $G$ be a group of automorphisms of $G$. For each $i \in I$ let

$$w_i^1, \ldots, w_i^t_i$$

be $G$-orbit representatives of the elements of type $i$ of $G$ such that

(i) $W := \bigcup_{i \in I} \{w_i^1, \ldots, w_i^t_i\}$ is a hall and,

(ii) if $V \subseteq W$ is a flag, the action of $G$ on the pregeometry over $\text{typ}(V)$ consisting of all elements of the $G$-orbits $G.x$, $x \in V$, is incidence-transitive.

Then the bijection $\Phi$ between the sketch of $G$ with respect to $G$ and $W$ and the pregeometry $G$ given by

$$gGw_i^j \mapsto gw_i^j$$

is an isomorphism between pregeometries and an isomorphism between $G$-sets.

For a vertex-transitive group $G$, the previous theorem is just the isomorphism theorem of incidence-transitive pregeometries, see [7].

The geometry consisting of the $G$-orbits $G.x$ of elements of some fixed maximal flag $V \subseteq W$ as in (ii) of the theorem is called the orbit geometry for $(G, G, V)$.

2.2 Fundamental group and simple connectivity

Definition 2.9 (Fundamental group) Let $G$ be a connected pregeometry. A path of length $k$ in the geometry is a sequence of elements $(x_0, \ldots, x_k)$ such that $x_i$ and $x_{i+1}$ are incident, $0 \leq i \leq k - 1$. A cycle based at an element $x$ is a path in which $x_0 = x_k = x$. Two paths based at the same vertex are homotopically equivalent if one can be obtained from the other via the following operations (called elementary homotopies):

(i) inserting or deleting a repetition (i.e., a cycle of length 1),

(ii) inserting or deleting a return (i.e., a cycle of length 2), or

(iii) inserting or deleting a triangle (i.e., a cycle of length 3).

The equivalence classes of cycles based at an element $x$ form a group under the operation induced by concatenation of cycles. This group is called the fundamental group of $G$ and denoted by $\pi_1(G, x)$.

A cycle based at $x$ that is homotopically equivalent to the trivial cycle $(x)$ is called null-homotopic. Every cycle of length 1, 2, or 3 is null-homotopic.
Definition 2.10 (Covering) Suppose $G$ and $\hat{G}$ are two connected geometries over the same type set and suppose $\phi : \hat{G} \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism of geometries, i.e., $\phi$ preserves the types and sends incident elements to incident elements. A surjective homomorphism $\phi$ between connected geometries $\hat{G}$ and $G$ is called a covering if and only if for every nonempty flag $\hat{F}$ in $\hat{G}$ the mapping $\phi$ induces an isomorphism between the residue of $\hat{F}$ in $\hat{G}$ and the residue of $F = \phi(\hat{F})$ in $G$. Coverings of a geometry correspond to the usual topological coverings of the flag complex. It is well-known and easy to see that a surjective homomorphism $\phi$ between connected geometries $\hat{G}$ and $G$ is a covering if and only if for every element $\hat{x}$ in $\hat{G}$ the map $\phi$ induces an isomorphism between the residue of $\hat{x}$ in $\hat{G}$ and the residue of $x = \phi(\hat{x})$ in $G$. If $\phi$ is an isomorphism, then the covering is said to be trivial.

Consider the geometry via its colored incidence graph and recall the following results from the theory of simplicial complexes.

Theorem 2.11 (Chapter 8 of Seifert/Threlfall [28])

Let $G$ be a connected geometry and let $x$ be an element of $G$. The group $\pi_1(G, x)$ is trivial if and only if all coverings of $G$ are trivial. □

A geometry satisfying the equivalent conditions in the previous theorem is called simply connected.

The following construction can also be found in Chapter 8 of [28].

Definition 2.12 (Fundamental cover) Let $\Gamma$ be a connected graph and let $x$ be some vertex of $\Gamma$. The fundamental cover $\hat{\Gamma}$ of $\Gamma$ based at $x$ is defined as follows: The vertices of $\hat{\Gamma}$ are the homotopy classes of paths of $\Gamma$ based at $x$ where two vertices $[\gamma_1]$ and $[\gamma_2]$ of $\hat{\Gamma}$ are adjacent if and only if $[\gamma_1^{-1}\gamma_2] = [t_1t_2]$ where $t_1$ is the terminal vertex of $\gamma_1$, $t_2$ is the terminal vertex of $\gamma_2$, and $t_1$ and $t_2$ are adjacent in $\Gamma$.

Definition 2.13 (Universal covering) Let $\Gamma$ and $\hat{\Gamma}$ be connected graphs and let $x \in \Gamma$, $\hat{x} \in \hat{\Gamma}$ be vertices. A covering

$$\pi : \hat{\Gamma} \rightarrow \Gamma$$

mapping $\hat{x}$ onto $x$ is called universal if, for any covering

$$\alpha : \Gamma_1 \rightarrow \Gamma$$

and any $x_1 \in \alpha^{-1}(x)$,

there exists a unique covering map

$$\beta : \hat{\Gamma} \rightarrow \Gamma_1$$

with $\pi = \alpha \circ \beta$ and $\beta(\hat{x}) = x_1$. 

$$\begin{array}{c}
\hat{\Gamma}, \hat{x} \\
\downarrow \pi \\
(\Gamma, x)
\end{array} \quad \alpha \\
\downarrow \\
\begin{array}{c}
\Gamma_1, x_1 \\
\beta
\end{array}$$
Theorem 2.14 (Chapter 8 of Seifert/Threlfall [28])
Let \( \Gamma \) be a connected graph, let \( x \) be a vertex of \( \Gamma \), and let \( \hat{\Gamma} \) be the fundamental cover of \( \Gamma \) based at \( x \). Then the fundamental covering \( \pi : \hat{\Gamma} \to \Gamma \) is universal.

2.3 Amalgams

Definition 2.15 (Amalgam) An amalgam of groups \( A \) over a finite set \( I = \{0, 1, \ldots, n\} \) and associated nonempty sets \( J_i, i \in I \), is a family of groups \( (G_{j,i})_{j \in J_i, i \in I} \) with monomorphisms, called identifications, 
\[
\phi_{j,i+1}^{j+1,i+1} : G_{j,i} \to G_{j+1,i+1}
\]
for some \( (j_i, i) \) and \( (j_{i+1}, i+1) \) such that for each \( G_{j,i} \) there exist identifications whose composition embeds \( G_{j,i} \) into some \( G_{j,n} \).

Example 2.16 An amalgam with \( I = \{0, 1, 2\} \), \( J_0 = \{1, 2\} \), \( J_1 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\} \), \( J_2 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\} \) can be depicted in the following diagram. The identification maps are given by arrows.

Note that the definition of an amalgam does not imply
\[
\phi_{2,1}^{2,1} \circ \phi_{2,0}^{2,1} = \phi_{4,1}^{3,2} \circ \phi_{2,0}^{4,1}
\]
in the above example.

Two amalgams \( A \) and \( B \) are similar if they share the same set \( I \), the same sets \( J_i \) and if for all \( (j_i, i) \) and \( (j_{i+1}, i+1) \) the identification \( A\phi_{j_i}^{j_i+1,i+1} \) exists if and only if the identification \( B\phi_{j_i}^{j_i+1,i+1} \) exists, i.e., if they can be depicted by the same diagram.

Definition 2.17 (Homomorphism) Let \( A = (G_{j,i})_{j,i} \) and \( B = (H_{j,i})_{j,i} \) be similar amalgams. A map \( \psi : \sqcup A \to \sqcup B \) will be called an amalgam homomorphism from \( A \) to \( B \) if

(i) for every \( i \in I \) and \( j \in J_i \) the restriction of \( \psi \) to \( G_{j,i} \) is a homomorphism from \( G_{j,i} \) to \( H_{j,i} \) and
(ii) $\psi \circ A^{\hat{\phi}_i^j} = b^{\hat{\phi}_i^j} \circ \psi|_{G_{j,i}}$ in case the respective identifications exist.

If $\psi$ is bijective and its inverse map $\psi^{-1}$ is also an amalgam homomorphism, then $\psi$ is called an amalgam isomorphism. An automorphism of $A$ is an isomorphism of $A$ onto itself. As usual, the automorphisms of $A$ form the automorphism group, $\text{Aut}(A)$.

**Definition 2.18 (Quotient, cover)** An amalgam $B = (H_{j,i})_{j,i}$ is a quotient of the amalgam $A = (G_{j,i})_{j,i}$ if there is an amalgam homomorphism $\pi$ from $A$ to $B$ such that the restriction of $\pi$ to any $G_{j,n}$ maps $G_{j,n}$ onto $H_{j,n}$. The map $\pi : \sqcup A \rightarrow \sqcup B$ is called a covering. $A$ is called a cover of $B$. Two coverings $(A_1, \pi_1)$ and $(A_2, \pi_2)$ of $A$ are called equivalent if there is an isomorphism $\psi$ of $A_1$ onto $A_2$, such that $\pi_1 = \pi_2 \circ \psi$.

Notice that a covering $\pi : \sqcup A \rightarrow \sqcup B$ between amalgams need not map $G_{j,i}$ surjectively onto $H_{j,i}$ for $i \neq n$.

**Definition 2.19 (Completion)** Let $A$ be an amalgam. A pair $(G, \pi)$ consisting of a group $G$ and a map $\pi : \sqcup A \rightarrow G$ is called a completion of $A$, and $\pi$ is called a completion map, if

(i) for all $i \in I$ and $j \in J_i$ the restriction of $\pi$ to $G_{j,i}$ is a homomorphism of $G_{j,i}$ to $G$;

(ii) $\pi|_{G_{i+1,i+1}} \circ \phi_{j,i}^{j+1,i+1} = \pi|_{G_{j,i}}$ if the corresponding identification exist; and

(iii) $\pi(\sqcup A)$ generates $G$.

A completion is called faithful if for each $i \in I$ and $j \in J_i$ the restriction of $\pi$ to $G_{j,i}$ is injective.

Coming back to Example 2.16, the definition of a completion does require that

$$\pi|_{G_{i,j}} \circ \phi_{2,1}^{2,1} \circ \phi_{2,0}^{2,1} = \pi|_{G_{i,j}} \circ \phi_{4,1}^{2,1} \circ \phi_{2,0}^{2,1},$$

although by definition of an amalgam we do not necessarily have

$$\phi_{2,1}^{2,1} \circ \phi_{2,0}^{2,1} = \phi_{4,1}^{2,1} \circ \phi_{2,0}^{2,1}.$$

**Proposition 2.20**

Let $A = (G_{j,i})_{j,i}$ be an amalgam of groups, let $F(A) = \langle (u_g)_{g \in A} \rangle$ be the free group on the elements of $A$ and let

$$S_1 = \{u_x u_y = u_z, \text{ whenever } xy = z \text{ in some } G_{j,i} \}$$

and

$$S_2 = \{u_x = u_y, \text{ whenever } \phi(x) = y \text{ for some identification } \phi \}$$

be relations for $F$. Then for each completion $(G, \pi)$ of $A$ there exists a unique group epimorphism

$$\widehat{\pi} : U(A) \rightarrow G$$

with $\pi = \widehat{\pi} \circ \psi$ where

$$U(A) = \langle (u_g)_{g \in A} | S_1, S_2 \rangle$$

and

$$\psi : \sqcup A \rightarrow U(A) : g \mapsto u_g.$$
Proof. The map $\mathcal{A}$ to $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ given by $\psi : g \mapsto u_g$ turns the group $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ into a completion of $\mathcal{A}$. If $(G, \pi)$ is an arbitrary completion of $\mathcal{A}$ then the map

$$\hat{\pi} : u_g \mapsto \pi(g)$$

leads to a group epimorphism $\hat{\pi}$ from $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ to $G$ because

$$\hat{\pi}(u_g u_h) = \hat{\pi}(u_{gh}) = \pi(gh) = \pi(g) \pi(h) = \hat{\pi}(u_g) \hat{\pi}(u_h)$$

if $u_{gh}$ exists; otherwise define

$$\hat{\pi}(u_g u_h) := \pi(g) \pi(h) = \hat{\pi}(u_g) \hat{\pi}(u_h).$$

Clearly, $\hat{\pi}$ is uniquely determined by the requirement

$$\pi(g) = (\hat{\pi} \circ \psi)(g) = \hat{\pi}(u_g).$$

$\square$

**Definition 2.21 (Universal Completion)** Let $\mathcal{A} = (G_{j,i})_{j,i}$ be an amalgam of groups. Then

$$\psi : \sqcup \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}) : g \mapsto u_g$$

for $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ as in Proposition 2.20 is called the **universal completion of $\mathcal{A}$**. The amalgam $\mathcal{A}$ collapses if $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}) = 1$.

Notice that if $\mathcal{B}$ is a quotient of $\mathcal{A}$ then $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{B})$ is isomorphic to a factor group of $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$. In particular, if $\mathcal{B}$ does not collapse then neither does $\mathcal{A}$. Also, an amalgam $\mathcal{A}$ admits a faithful completion if and only if its universal completion is faithful.

**Definition 2.22 (Amalgams for transitive geometries)** Suppose $\mathcal{G}$ is a geometry and $G \leq \text{Aut } \mathcal{G}$ is an incidence-transitive group. Corresponding to $\mathcal{G}$ and $G$ and some chamber $F$, there is an amalgam $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}, G, F)$, the **amalgam of parabolics with respect to $\mathcal{G}$, $G$, $F$**, defined as the family $(G_E)_{\emptyset \neq E \subseteq F}$, where $G_E$ denotes the stabilizer of $E \subseteq F$ in $G$, together with the natural inclusions as identification maps. In case $G$ is flag-transitive, the amalgam $\mathcal{A}$ is independent (up to conjugation) of the choice of $F$.

The group $G_E$ is called a **parabolic subgroup of rank** $|F \setminus E|$. If $|I| = n$ is finite and $k < n$ the amalgam $\mathcal{A}(k) = \mathcal{A}(k)(\mathcal{G}, G, F)$ is the subamalgam of $\mathcal{A}$ consisting of all parabolics of rank less or equal $k$. It is called the **amalgam of rank $k$ parabolics**. Of course, $\mathcal{A}(n-1) = \mathcal{A}$.

More generally, for $F$ as above suppose $\mathcal{W} \subseteq 2^F$ such that $2^F \ni U' \supset U \in \mathcal{W}$ implies $U' \in \mathcal{W}$, i.e., $\mathcal{W}$ is a subset of the power set of $F$ that is closed under passing to supersets. A set $\mathcal{W} \subseteq 2^F$ with those properties is called a **shape**. The **amalgam of shape $\mathcal{W}$ with respect to $\mathcal{G}$, $G$, $F$** is the family $(G_U)_{\emptyset \neq U \in \mathcal{W}}$, where $G_U$ is the stabilizer of $U \in \mathcal{W}$ in $G$, with the natural inclusion maps as identification maps. It is denoted by $\mathcal{A}_W(\mathcal{G}, G)$. 

\[ \sqcup \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\psi} \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}) \xrightarrow{\pi} \hat{\pi} \xrightarrow{} G \]
Definition 2.23 (Amalgams for intransitive geometries) Suppose \( G = (X, *, \text{typ}) \) is a geometry over \( I \), the group \( G \) is a group of automorphisms of \( G \), and for each \( i \in I \) let \( w_i^1, \ldots, w_i^t_i \) be \( G \)-orbit representatives of the elements of type \( i \) of \( G \) such that

(i) \( W := \bigcup_{i \in I} \{ w_i^1, \ldots, w_i^t_i \} \) is a hall and,

(ii) if \( V \subseteq W \) is a flag, the action of \( G \) on the pregeometry over \( I \) consisting of all elements of the \( G \)-orbits \( G.x, x \in V \), is incidence-transitive.

Then the amalgam \( A = A(G, G, W) \) is defined as the family \( (G_U)_{U \neq \emptyset} \subseteq W \) a flag, where \( G_U \) denotes the stabilizer of \( U \subseteq W \) in \( G \) with the natural inclusion maps as identification maps.

For example, let \( G \) be a rank three geometry with \( W \) equal to \( p, q, l, \pi \), where \( p \) and \( q \) are elements of the same type and \( p, l, \pi \) each have different types. Then the amalgam of parabolics looks as follows:

3 Theory of intransitive geometries

We now use the foregoing notions, definitions and basic results to develop some theory of intransitive geometries, that results in criteria to conclude that certain completions of certain amalgams are universal.
3 Theory of Intransitive Geometries

Theorem 3.1 (Fundamental theorem of geometric covering theory)
Let $G = (X, \ast, \text{typ})$ be a connected geometry over $I$ of rank at least three and let $G$ be a group of automorphisms of $G$. For each $i \in I$ let

$$w^i_1, \ldots, w^i_{t_i}$$

be $G$-orbit representatives of the elements of type $i$ of $G$ such that

(i) $W := \bigcup_{i \in I} \{w^i_1, \ldots, w^i_{t_i}\}$ is a hall and,

(ii) if $V \subseteq W$ is a flag, the action of $G$ on the pregeometry over $\text{typ}(V)$ consisting of all elements of the $G$-orbits $G.x$, $x \in V$, is incidence-transitive and pennant-transitive.

Let $A = A(G, G, W)$ be the amalgam of parabolics. Then the coset pregeometry

$$\widehat{G} = ((U(A)/G \times \{w^i_j\})_{1 \leq j \leq t_i, i \in I}, \ast)$$

is a simply connected geometry that admits a universal covering $\pi : \widehat{G} \to G$ induced by the natural epimorphism $U(A) \to G$. Moreover, $U(A)$ is of the form $\pi_1(G).G$.

Proof. First notice that, since $G$ is connected, $G$ is generated by all its parabolics (different from $G$) by Theorem 2.6. Hence by Definition 2.19, $G$ is a completion of $A$ and Proposition 2.20 shows that the natural morphism $U(A) \to G$ is surjective.

The completion

$$\phi : \sqcup A \to G$$

and, thus, the completion

$$\widehat{\phi} : \sqcup A \to U(A)$$

is injective. Therefore the natural epimorphism

$$\psi : U(A) \to G$$

induces an isomorphism between the amalgam $\widehat{\phi}(\sqcup A)$ inside $U(A)$ and the amalgam $\phi(\sqcup A)$ inside $G$. Hence the epimorphism $\psi : U(A) \to G$ induces a quotient map between pregeometries

$$\pi : \widehat{G} = ((U(A)/G \times \{w^i_j\})_{i \in I, 1 \leq j \leq t_i, \ast}) \to ((G/G \times \{w^i_j\})_{i \in I, 1 \leq j \leq t_i, \ast}).$$

The latter coset pregeometry is isomorphic to $G$ by the Reconstruction Theorem 2.8. Notice that $U(A)$ acts on $G \cong ((G/G \times \{w^i_j\})_{i \in I, 1 \leq j \leq t_i, \ast})$ via

$$(gG_{w^i_j}, w^i_j) \mapsto (\psi(u)gG_{w^i_j}, w^i_j) \quad \text{for} \quad u \in U(A).$$

We want to prove that this quotient map actually is a covering map. The pregeometry $\widehat{G}$ is connected by Theorem 2.6, because $U(A)$ is generated by $\widehat{\phi}(\sqcup A)$. We establish the isomorphism of the residues in a direct way. Fix an element $(G_{w^i_j}, w^i_j)$ of $G$, then, up to isomorphism and with abuse of notation, $(G_{w^i_j}, w^i_j)$ also denotes an arbitrary element of the inverse image under $\pi$ of
3 THEORY OF INTRANSITIVE GEOMETRIES

that element (we identify the elements $x$ and $\pi(x)$ when $x \in G_{w^*_j}$ for some suitable $i^*$ and $j^*$). In both $\mathcal{G}$ and $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$, the elements (not of type $i$) incident with $(G_{w^*_j}, w^*_j)$ can be written as $(uG_{w^*_j}, w^*_j)$, with $i' \neq i, 1 \leq j' \leq t'$ and $u \in G_{w^*_j}$. This already provides a natural bijection between the residues in $\mathcal{G}$ and $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$ of $(G_{w^*_j}, w^*_j)$. We now show that this bijection preserves incidence (in both directions). Clearly, if two elements in $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$ are incident, then their projections in $\mathcal{G}$ are incident. So we are left to show that, if $uG_{w^*_j}$ and $vG_{w^*_j}$ are non-disjoint in $G$, for $u, v \in G_{w^*_j}, i' \neq i \neq i''$, $1 \leq j' \leq t'$, $1 \leq j'' \leq t''$, then the “same” groups in $\mathcal{U}(A)$ are non-disjoint (note that we identify $\phi(\sqcup A)$ with $\phi(\sqcup A)$ via the isomorphism induced by $\psi$ as above). By hypothesis (ii) and the fact that $w^*_j, w^*_j, w^*_j$ are incident we can assume that $u = v \in G_{w^*_j}$. But the definition of amalgams then implies that $uG_{w^*_j}$ and $vG_{w^*_j}$ share the element $u = v$. Hence $\pi : \hat{\mathcal{G}} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ induces isomorphisms between the residues of flags of rank one. So the map $\pi : \hat{\mathcal{G}} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ indeed is a covering of pregeometries. Since $\mathcal{G}$ actually is a geometry the pregeometry $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$ is also a geometry.

Now we want to show that the covering

$$\pi : \hat{\mathcal{G}} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$$

induced by the canonical map $\mathcal{U}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ is universal. Denote the fundamental cover of $\mathcal{G}$ at some vertex $w^*_j$ of $W$ by $\mathcal{G}_0$ and let

$$\phi : \mathcal{G}_0 \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$$

be the corresponding covering map. If $\hat{w}^*_j \in \pi^{-1}(w^*_j), w^*_j \in \phi^{-1}(w^*_j)$, we will achieve the universality of $\pi$ by showing that $\pi = \phi \circ \alpha$ for a unique isomorphism

$$\alpha : \hat{\mathcal{G}} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}_0$$

with $\alpha(\hat{w}^*_j) = w^*_j$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\hat{\mathcal{G}}, \hat{w}^*_j & \overset{\pi}{\longrightarrow} & (\mathcal{G}, w^*_j) \\
\alpha \downarrow & & \phi \\
(\mathcal{G}_0, w^*_j) & & \\
\end{array}$$

The simple connectivity of $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$ then is implied by the universal property. For $g \in G_{w^*_j}$ define an automorphism

$$\tilde{g}(j,i) : \mathcal{G}_0 \rightarrow \mathcal{G}_0 : \phi^{-1}(\mathcal{G}, w^*_j) \ni [\gamma] \mapsto [g(\gamma)].$$  

The latter is also a homotopy class of paths in $\mathcal{G}$ starting at $w^*_j$, because $g \in G_{w^*_j}$ stabilizes $w^*_j$. The fundamental cover $\mathcal{G}_0$ of $\mathcal{G}$ based at $w^*_j$ is isomorphic to the fundamental cover $\mathcal{G}_1$ of $\mathcal{G}$ based at some arbitrary $w^*_j \in W$. Therefore we can define automorphisms on $\mathcal{G}_0$ using the automorphisms on $\mathcal{G}_1$ coming from elements $g \in G_{w^*_j}$. To this end fix a maximal flag $V \subseteq W$ containing $w^*_j$. Let $y \in V$ be incident to both $w^*_j$ and $w^*_j$, and for $g \in G_{w^*_j}$ define an automorphism

$$\tilde{g}(j,i) : \mathcal{G}_0 \rightarrow \mathcal{G}_0 : ([\gamma]) \mapsto \left[w^*_j, y, w^*_j, g(y), g(\gamma)\right].$$
Since, for a different choice $y' \in V$ incident to both $w'_1$ and $w''_1$, the cycles $(y, y', w'_1)$ and $(y, y', w''_1, y)$ are null-homotopic, the automorphism $\tilde{g}(j',j'')$ does not depend on the particular choice of $y \in V$. In particular, if $w'_j \in V$, we can choose $y = w'_j$ or $y = w''_j$.

Also, for incident $w'_j$ and $w''_j$, let $y$ be an element of $V$ incident to $w'_j$, $w''_j$ and $w''_j$. Since the cycles $(y, w''_j, w''_j, y)$ and $(g(y), w''_j, w''_j, g(y))$ are null-homotopic, for $g \in G_{w''_j} \cap G_{w''_j}$ we have

$$[w'_j, y, w''_j, g(y), g(g)] = [w'_j, y, w''_j, g(y), g(g)]$$

and so

$$\tilde{g}(j',j'') = g(j'',j').$$

Hence

$$\tilde{\gamma} : \sqcup \mathcal{A} \to \hat{G} := \left( \sqcup \mathcal{A} \right) \leq \text{Aut} \ G_0$$

is a completion map from $\mathcal{A}$ to $\hat{G}$. If $g_1^{-1} g_2$ acts trivially on $G_0$, then $g_1^{-1} g_2$ acts trivially on $G$, thus $g_1 = g_2$, as $G$ acts faithfully on $G$. Therefore it embeds $\mathcal{A}$ in $G$.

The geometry $G_0$ together with the group $G$ of automorphisms satisfies the hypothesis of the Reconstruction Theorem 2.8, so the geometry $G_0$ is isomorphic to the coset pregeometry $((\hat{G}/G_{w'_j} \times \{ w'_j \})_{i \in I, 1 \leq j \leq I, *})$. The natural epimorphism $\hat{G} \to G$ induces a covering map from $G_0$ onto $G$. Moreover, the natural epimorphism $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}) \to \hat{G}$ yields a quotient map $\hat{G} \to G_0$. Since $G_0$ is universal by Theorem 2.14 and therefore simply connected, this quotient map is a uniquely determined isomorphism. Hence the covering $\pi : \hat{G} \to G$ is universal.

It remains to establish the structure of $\hat{G} \cong \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ to be of the form $\pi_1(G,G)$. However, this is evident by Theorem 2.14. \hfill \Box

We have now obtained a generalization of an important and widely used lemma by Tits.

**Corollary 3.2 (Tits’ lemma)**

Let $G = (X, *, \text{typ})$ be a geometry over $I$ and let $G$ be a group of automorphisms of $G$. For each $i \in I$ let

$$w^i_1, \ldots, w^i_{t_i}$$

be $G$-orbit representatives of the elements of type $i$ of $G$ such that

(i) $W := \bigcup_{i \in I} \{ w^i_1, \ldots, w^i_{t_i} \}$ is a hall and,

(ii) if $V \subseteq W$ is a flag, the action of $G$ on the pregeometry over $\text{typ}(V)$ consisting of all elements of the $G$-orbits $G.x$, $x \in V$, is incidence-transitive and pennant-transitive.

Let $\mathcal{A}(G, G, W)$ be the amalgam of parabolics of $G$ with respect to $G$ and $W$. The geometry $G$ is simply connected if and only if the canonical epimorphism

$$\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(G, G, W)) \to G$$

is an isomorphism. \hfill \Box
In practice it turns out that an amalgam may contain a lot of redundant information. Here is an explanation for that phenomenon.

**Theorem 3.3**

Let $G = (X, *, \text{typ})$ be a geometry over some finite set $I$ and let $G$ be a group of automorphisms of $G$. For each $i \in I$ let

\[ w_1^i, \ldots, w_t^i \]

be $G$-orbit representatives of the elements of type $i$ of $G$ such that

1. $W := \bigcup_{i \in I} \{w_1^i, \ldots, w_t^i\}$ is a hall and,
2. if $V \subseteq W$ is a flag, the action of $G$ on the pregeometry over $\text{typ}(V)$ consisting of all elements of the $G$-orbits $G.x$, $x \in V$, is flag-transitive.

Let $W \subseteq 2^W$ be a shape, assume that for each flag $U \in 2^W \setminus W$ the residue $G_U$ is simply connected, and let $A(G, G, W)$ and $A_W(G, G, W)$ be the amalgam of maximal parabolics respectively the amalgam of shape $W$ of $G$ with respect to $G$ and $W$. Then

\[ G = \mathcal{U}(A_W(G, G, W)). \]

In particular, if $\emptyset \not\in W$, we have

\[ G = \mathcal{U}(A(G, G, W)) = \mathcal{U}(A_W(G, G, W)). \]

**Proof.** We will proceed by induction on the number of flags in the set $2^W \setminus W$. If the set of flags contained in $2^W \setminus W$ is empty, then $\emptyset \in W$, so the amalgam $A_W(G, G, W)$ contains the stabilizer in $G$ of the empty flag, i.e., $G$. Hence $G = \mathcal{U}(A_W(G, G, W))$. If there exists a flag in $2^W \setminus W$, then the empty flag is also contained in $2^W \setminus W$, because by definition the shape $W$ is closed under taking superflags. Hence in that case $G$ is simply connected and by Corollary 3.2 we have $G = \mathcal{U}(A(G, G, W))$. We will now prove that $\mathcal{U}(A(G, G, W)) = \mathcal{U}(A_W(G, G, W))$.

If the empty flag is the only flag contained in $2^W \setminus W$, then $A(G, G, W) = A_W(G, G, W)$, so their universal completions coincide. If there exists a nonempty flag in $2^W \setminus W$, then there also exists a (nonempty) flag $U$ in $2^W \setminus W$ such that $W' := \{U\} \cup W$ is a shape. Then $A_W'(G, G, W) = A_W(G, G, W) \cup G_U$. By connectivity of $G_U$, the group $G_U$ is a completion of the amalgam $A(G_U, G_U, W_U)$, where

\[ W_U := W \cap \text{typ}^{-1}(I \setminus \text{typ}(U)). \]

As $G_U$ is simply connected, we even have

\[ G_U = \mathcal{U}(A(G_U, G_U, W_U)). \]

Since $A(G_U, G_U, W_U) \subseteq A_W(G, G, W)$, we have

\[
\mathcal{U}(A_W(G, G, W)) = \mathcal{U}(A_W(G, G, W) \cup \mathcal{U}(A(G_U, G_U, W_U))) \\
= \mathcal{U}(A_W(G, G, W) \cup G_U) \\
= \mathcal{U}(A_W'(G, G, W)).
\]

Hence, by induction, we have $\mathcal{U}(A_W(G, G, W)) = \mathcal{U}(A(G, G, W))$, finishing the proof. \qed

The following corollary is a generalization of Theorem 8.2 of [17].
Corollary 3.4
Let $\mathcal{G} = (X, *, \text{typ})$ be a geometry over some finite set $I$, let $G$ be a group of automorphisms of $\mathcal{G}$, for each $i \in I$ let

$$w_i^1, \ldots, w_i^t_i$$

be $G$-orbit representatives of the elements of type $i$ of $\mathcal{G}$ such that

(i) $W := \bigcup_{i \in I} \{w_i^1, \ldots, w_i^t_i\}$ is a hall and,

(ii) if $V \subseteq W$ is a flag, the action of $G$ on the geometry $\text{typ}(W)$ consisting of all elements of the $G$-orbits $G.x$, $x \in V$, is flag-transitive.

Let $k \leq |I|$, assume that all residues of rank greater or equal $k$ with respect to subsets of $W$ are simply connected, and let $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}, G, W)$ and $\mathcal{A}_{(k)}(\mathcal{G}, G, W)$ be the amalgam of maximal parabolics respectively rank $k$ parabolics of $\mathcal{G}$ with respect to $G$ and $W$. Then

$$G = \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}, G, W)) = \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}_{(k)}(\mathcal{G}, G, W)).$$

\[\square\]

4 Intransitive geometries: an example

4.1 Some standard techniques

In this subsection, we collect some general results on simple connectivity and null-homotopic cycles that have been established in recent papers dealing with simple connectivity of flag-transitive geometries.

A geometric cycle in the geometry $\mathcal{G}$ is a cycle completely contained in the residue $\mathcal{G}_x$ of some element $x$.

Proposition 4.1 (Lemma 3.2 of [5])
Every geometric cycle is null-homotopic. \[\square\]

Corollary 4.2 (Lemma 3.3 of [5])
If two cycles based at the same element are obtained from one another by inserting or erasing a geometric cycle then they are homotopic. \[\square\]

Definition 4.3 (Basic diagram) Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a geometry over the set $I$. Let $i, j \in I$, then we define $i \sim j$ if there exists a flag $f$ of cotype $\{i, j\}$ such that the residue of $f$ is a geometry containing two elements that are not incident. Then the graph $(I, \sim)$ is called the basic diagram of $\mathcal{G}$.

Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a geometry with basic diagram

\[
\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
\hline
2 \\
\vdots
\end{array}
\]

i.e., the node 1 has a unique neighbor in the basic diagram of $\mathcal{G}$. Then the 1-graph (also called the collinearity graph) of $\mathcal{G}$ is the graph whose vertices are the elements of type 1 (these
elements will occasionally be called points), where two such elements are adjacent if they are incident with a common element of type 2 (type 2 elements will sometimes be referred to as lines).

**Definition 4.4 (Direct sum of pregeometries)** Let $G = (X, *, \text{typ})$, $G' = (X', *,', \text{typ}')$ be pregeometries over $I$ and $I'$. The direct sum

$$G \oplus G'$$

is a pregeometry over $I \sqcup I'$

- whose element set is $X \sqcup X'$,
- whose type function is $\text{typ} \cup \text{typ}'$ and
- whose incidence relation is the symmetric relation $* \oplus$ with $*|_{X \times X} = *$ and $*|_{X' \times X'} = *'$ and $*|_{X \times X'} = X \times X'$, i.e., elements of $X$ are incident with elements of $X'$.

For a geometry $G$ over $I$, and for $J \subset I$, we denote by $JG$ the geometry over $J$, called **truncation**, obtained from $G$ by deleting all elements of type not in $J$ (and retaining all other elements and incidences). For instance, $IG = G$ and $\emptyset G$ is the empty geometry.

**Lemma 4.5 (Lemma 5.1 of [14])**

Let $G$ be a geometry of rank $n \geq 3$ with basic diagram

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & \circ & \circ & \cdots & \circ & \circ & n
\end{array}$$

and assume that for each element $x$ of type $n$ the 1-graph of $G_x$ is connected. Furthermore, suppose that if the residue $G_x$ of some element $x$ has a disconnected diagram falling into the two connected components $\Delta_1$ and $\Delta_2$, then $G_x$ is equal to the direct sum

$$\text{typ}(\Delta_1)G_x \oplus \text{typ}(\Delta_2)G_x.$$  

Then every cycle of $G$ based at some element of type 1 or 2 is homotopically equivalent to a cycle passing exclusively through elements of type 1 or 2.

**Lemma 4.6 (Lemma 7.2 of [14])**

Assume that $G = G_1 \oplus G_2$ with $G_1$ connected of rank at least two. Then $G$ is simply connected.

Lemma 4.5 allows to consider the **collinearity graph** (i.e., the graph with the points — elements of type 1 — as the relation “being incident with a common line” — a line is an element of type 2 — as adjacency relation) instead of the incidence graph when looking at cycles. Indeed, in order to prove simply connectivity of certain geometries satisfying the conditions of the lemma, it is enough to deal with cycles consisting merely of points and lines; such cycles can be considered as cycles in the collinearity graph (of half the original length). Note that in the collinearity graph a triangle is not necessarily null-homotopic.

We will consider cycles in the collinearity graph from Lemma 4.13 below on.
4.2 Generalities about orthogonal spaces

Let \( n \geq 1 \) and let \( V \) be an \((n + 1)\)-dimensional vector space over some field \( F \) of characteristic distinct from 2 endowed with some nondegenerate symmetric bilinear form \( f = (\cdot, \cdot) \). By

\[
\mathcal{G}_A^{\text{orth}} = \mathcal{G}_A^{\text{orth}}(n, F, f)
\]

we denote the pregeometry on the proper subspaces of \( V \) that are nondegenerate with respect to \((\cdot, \cdot)\) with symmetrized containment as incidence and the vector space dimension as the type.

Arbitrary fields of characteristic not two

Theorem 4.7

The pregeometry \( \mathcal{G}_A^{\text{orth}}(n, F, f) \) is a geometry.

Proof. We have to prove that each flag can be embedded in a flag of cardinality \( n \). To this end let \( F = \{x_1, \ldots, x_t\} \) be a flag of \( \mathcal{G}_A^{\text{orth}} \). We can assume that the nondegenerate subspace \( x_1 \) of \( V \) has dimension one. Indeed, if it has not, then we can find a nondegenerate one-dimensional subspace \( x_0 \) of \( x_1 \) and study the flag \( F' = F \cup \{x_0\} \) instead. Now observe that the residue of the nondegenerate one-dimensional subspace \( x_1 \) is isomorphic to \( \mathcal{G}_A^{\text{orth}}(n - 1, F, f') \) for some induced form \( f' \) via the map that sends an element \( U \) of the residue of \( x_1 \) to \( U \cap x_1^\perp \). Hence induction applies.

\( \Box \)

\( \Box \)

From now on, the notions of points and lines refer to points and lines, respectively, of the geometry \( \mathcal{G}_A^{\text{orth}} \).

Lemma 4.8

If \( l \) is a line and \( a \) is a point not on \( l \), then there are at most two points of \( \mathcal{G}_A^{\text{orth}} \) on \( l \) which are not collinear to \( a \). In other words, if \( F \) is the field \( \mathbb{F}_q \) of \( q \) elements, there exist at least \( q - 3 \) points on \( l \) collinear to \( a \).

Proof. Let \( U \) be the three-dimensional space \( \langle a, l \rangle \) and let \( W = U \cap a^\perp \). The space \( W \) has dimension two as \( U \) has dimension three. Hence there are at most two singular points on \( W \) and, thus, there are at least \( q - 1 \) nondegenerate lines in \( U \) through \( a \). The line \( l \) has zero or two singular points, so at least \( q - 3 \) of the nondegenerate lines in \( W \) through \( a \) intersect \( l \) is a nonsingular point.

\( \Box \)

Proposition 4.9

Let \( n \geq 3 \) or \( n = 2 \) and \( |F| \geq 5 \). Then the collinearity graph of \( \mathcal{G}_A^{\text{orth}}(n, F, f) \) has diameter two.

Proof. If \( n \geq 3 \), then the dimension of the vector space \( V \) is at least 4. Fix two points \( \langle a \rangle \) and \( \langle b \rangle \) which are not collinear, i.e., the space \( \langle a, b \rangle \) is singular with respect to \((\cdot, \cdot)\). However \( \langle a, b \rangle \) is a two-dimensional subspace of \( V \) which is not totally singular, because \( \langle a, a \rangle \) and \( \langle b, b \rangle \) are distinct from zero. Therefore the radical of \( \langle a, b \rangle \) is a one-dimensional space. The dimension of \( \langle a, b \rangle^\perp \) is greater or equal to 2. Consequently, the orthogonal complement of \( \langle a, b \rangle \) contains a point, say \( \langle c \rangle \). Consider the two two-dimensional subspaces \( \langle a, c \rangle \) and \( \langle b, c \rangle \). Since \( \langle a \rangle \) and \( \langle b \rangle \) are perpendicular to \( \langle c \rangle \), both \( \langle a, c \rangle \) and \( \langle b, c \rangle \) are lines. The distance between \( \langle a \rangle \) and \( \langle c \rangle \) is
one and so is the distance between \( \langle c \rangle \) and \( \langle b \rangle \). Thus the distance between \( \langle a \rangle \) and \( \langle b \rangle \) is two. Certainly \( G_{\text{orth}}^A \) contains a pair of noncollinear points, so we have proved the claim for \( n \geq 3 \).

If \( n = 2 \), let \( \langle a \rangle \) and \( \langle b \rangle \) be two arbitrary points in \( V \). If the space \( l = \langle a, b \rangle \) is a line then the distance between \( \langle a \rangle \) and \( \langle b \rangle \) is one. Otherwise pick a point \( \langle \bar{a} \rangle \) in \( \langle a \rangle ^\perp \). The space \( \langle a, \bar{a} \rangle \) is a line and the point \( \langle b \rangle \) is not on \( \langle a, \bar{a} \rangle \). The point \( \langle b \rangle \) is collinear with at least two points on \( \langle a, \bar{a} \rangle \) by Lemma 4.8. Pick one of these points, say the point \( \langle c \rangle \). We have established that the distance between \( \langle a \rangle \) and \( \langle b \rangle \) is two.

\[ \square \]

**Corollary 4.10**

Let \( n \geq 2 \) and \( |F| \geq 5 \). Then \( G_{\text{orth}}^A(n, F, f) \) is residually connected.

It is shown in [2] that, if \( n \geq 3 \) and \( F \) not equal to \( F_3 \) or \( F_5 \), then the geometry \( G_{\text{orth}}^A(n, F, f) \) is simply connected. If the field \( F \) is quadratically closed, then \( G_{\text{orth}}^A(n, F, f) \) is flag-transitive and one can apply Corollary 3.2 (Tits' lemma) to obtain presentations of flag-transitive groups of automorphisms of that geometry, see [2]. Also, in some cases like for real closed fields, it is possible to pass to suitable simply connected flag-transitive parts of \( G_{\text{orth}}^A(n, F, f) \) in order to obtain presentations of groups of automorphisms.

**Finite fields of characteristic not two**

We will be using standard terminology. In particular, each finite-dimensional vector space over some finite field admits two isometry classes of nondegenerate quadratic forms, one called **hyperbolic** (also **positive** or **of plus type**), the other called **elliptic** (also **negative** or **of minus type**).

Recall the following rules for determining the type of an orthogonal sum of nondegenerate orthogonal spaces over a finite field \( F_q \). If \( q \equiv 1 \mod 4 \) or if \( q \equiv 3 \mod 4 \) and one of the involved subspaces is even-dimensional, we have the following rule:

\[
\begin{align*}
+ \oplus + &= +, \\
+ \oplus - &= -, \\
- \oplus - &= +.
\end{align*}
\]

If \( q \equiv 3 \mod 4 \) and both of the involved subspaces are odd-dimensional, the following rule holds:

\[
\begin{align*}
+ \oplus + &= -, \\
+ \oplus - &= +, \\
- \oplus - &= -.
\end{align*}
\]

The names “hyperbolic” and “elliptic” are a generalization of the classical usual incidence-theoretic meaning: if a nondegenerate subspace of even dimension \( 2n \geq 2 \) intersects the null-set of a quadratic form in a quadric with Witt index \( n \) or \( n - 1 \), respectively, then the subspace is hyperbolic or elliptic, respectively. We extend this as follows. If \( q \equiv 1 \mod 4 \), and if a one-space takes square values or non square values, respectively, with respect to the quadratic form, then this one-space is hyperbolic or elliptic, respectively. Now these assignments of hyperbolic
and elliptic, together with the above rules, determine the plus/minus type of all nondegenerate subspaces (including the whole space and the zero space). Suppose now that \( q \equiv 3 \mod 4 \), and that \( f \) is a non-degenerate quadratic form of a \( d \)-dimensional vector space over the field of \( q \) elements. Let \( \Delta(f) \) be the discriminant of \( f \), and put \( \epsilon = \lfloor d/2 \rfloor \) (hence \( 2\epsilon = d \) or \( 2\epsilon + 1 = d \)). Then \( f \) is positive if \( \Delta(f) = (-1)^\epsilon \), with \( \epsilon \) a square if \( d \) is even and \( \epsilon \) a non-square if \( d \) is odd. Otherwise \( f \) is negative.

For a finite field \( \mathbb{F} \) however, no flag-transitive part of \( G_{A}^{\text{orth}}(n, \mathbb{F}, f) \) is known to be simply connected, so we deal with intransitive geometries instead. The main tool for our proof of simple connectivity is the following lemma. It is clear that it would fail for transitive geometries as, roughly speaking, one loses half the points when passing to a transitive geometry.

**Lemma 4.11**

Let \( n \geq 2 \), let \( \mathbb{F} \) be a finite field of odd order \( q \), let \( p \) be a point of \( G_{A}^{\text{orth}}(n, \mathbb{F}, f) \), let \( l \) be an elliptic line such that \( \langle p, l \rangle \) is a nondegenerate plane, and let \( m \) be a hyperbolic line such that \( \langle p, m \rangle \) is a nondegenerate plane. Then there exist at least \( q-1 \) elliptic lines through \( p \) intersecting \( l \) in a point of \( G_{A}^{\text{orth}}(n, \mathbb{F}, f) \) and at least \( q-5 \) hyperbolic lines through \( p \) intersecting \( m \) in a point of \( G_{A}^{\text{orth}}(n, \mathbb{F}, f) \).

**Proof.** Consider the two-dimensional nondegenerate space \( p^\perp \cap \langle p, l \rangle \). It contains \( q+1 \) or \( q-1 \) points of positive type and \( q+1 \) or \( q-1 \) points of \( - \) type. Therefore, there exist at least \( q-1 \) elliptic lines through \( p \) intersecting \( p^\perp \cap \langle p, l \rangle \) and, thus, also \( l \). The claim follows as all points on an elliptic line are nondegenerate.

The number \( q-5 = q-1 - 2 \) of hyperbolic lines through \( p \) intersecting \( m \) in a point of \( G_{A}^{\text{orth}}(n, \mathbb{F}, f) \) is obtained in exactly the same way plus the observation that two of the hyperbolic lines through \( p \) and \( p^\perp \cap \langle p, m \rangle \) could intersect \( m \) in a singular point.

**4.3 Positive form in dimension at least five**

Let \( q \) be odd and let \( V \) be a vector space over \( \mathbb{F}_q \) of dimension \( n+1 \) at least five endowed with a nondegenerate positive symmetric bilinear form \( f \) and let

\[
G_{A}^{\text{orth}}(n, \mathbb{F}_q, f) = (X, *, \text{typ})
\]

be the pregeometry on all nondegenerate subspaces of \( V \). Let

\[
W = \{p, p', l, \pi, U, U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_t\}
\]

be a hall where \( p \) is a positive point, \( p' \) is a negative point, \( l \) is a negative line, \( \pi \) is a positive or negative plane, \( U \) is a positive four-dimensional subspace of \( V \), and the \( U_i \) are arbitrary nondegenerate proper subspaces of \( V \) of dimension at least three. Let

\[
(G_{A}^{\text{orth}})^W = (Y, *|_{Y \times Y}, \text{typ}|_Y)
\]

be a pregeometry with

\[
Y = \{x \in X \mid \text{there exists a } g \in \text{SO}_{n+1}(\mathbb{F}_q, f) \text{ with } x \in g(W)\}.
\]
Proposition 4.12
The pregeometry \( (G_A^{\text{orth}})_W \) is a geometry of rank \( |\text{typ}(W)| \geq 3 \) with linear diagram and a collinearity graph of diameter two. Moreover, for each element \( x \) of maximal type the collinearity graph of the residue \( (G_A^{\text{orth}})_x \) is connected. Furthermore, if the residue \( (G_A^{\text{orth}})_x \) of some element \( x \) has a disconnected diagram falling into the two connected components \( \Delta_1 \) and \( \Delta_2 \), then \( \mathcal{G}_x \) is equal to the direct sum
\[
\text{typ}(\Delta_1)(G_A^{\text{orth}})_x \oplus \text{typ}(\Delta_2)(G_A^{\text{orth}})_x.
\]

Proof. In order to prove that \( (G_A^{\text{orth}})_W \) is a geometry, it suffices to show that, for any two elements \( U, U' \) of type \( i, i' \), respectively, with \( i < i' \), there is an element \( U^* \) of type \( i + 1 \) incident with both \( U \) and \( U' \). By taking the quotient projective space and corresponding quadratic form with respect to \( U \) (or, equivalently, by looking in \( U^\perp \)), we may assume that \( U \) is the empty space. Hence \( U^* \) is just some positive or negative point in \( U' \), which can always be found.

To prove the statement on the collinearity graph of \( (G_A^{\text{orth}})_W \) let \( p \) and \( p' \) be points of \( (G_A^{\text{orth}})_W \). Then there exists an elliptic line \( l \) through \( p' \) with \( (p, l) \) nondegenerate. By Lemma 4.11 there exist \( \frac{q - 1}{2} \) elliptic lines through \( p \) intersecting \( l \) in a point of \( (G_A^{\text{orth}})_W \). Since \( q \) is odd, there exists at least one, and the claim is proved. The same argument implies that the collinearity graph of the residue of an element \( x \) of maximal type, which is at least four, is connected.

The preceding proposition allows us to apply Lemma 4.5, so we can study the collinearity graph of \( (G_A^{\text{orth}})_W \) in order to establish the simple connectivity of \( (G_A^{\text{orth}})_W \).

In the following lemma we have to distinguish between \( q \equiv 1 \) mod 4 and \( q \equiv 3 \) mod 4. The latter case is handled in parentheses.

Lemma 4.13
Let \( q > 7 \). Then any triangle in the collinearity graph of \( (G_A^{\text{orth}})_W \) is homotopically trivial.

Proof. Let \( a, b, c \) denote the points of a triangle. If \( \langle a, b, c \rangle \) is nondegenerate, then its polar \( \langle a, b, c \rangle^\perp \) contains a nondegenerate two-dimensional subspace of \( V \) and, thus, points of positive type and of negative type. Choosing a positive point \( p \) of that line if \( \langle a, b, c \rangle \) is positive [negative] and choosing a negative point \( p \) of that line if \( \langle a, b, c \rangle \) is negative [positive], we obtain a positive space \( \langle a, b, c, p \rangle \) containing the triangle \( a, b, c \). Therefore that triangle is geometric, whence null-homotopic by Proposition 4.1.

Now suppose the triangle \( a, b, c \) spans a degenerate space \( \langle a, b, c \rangle \) with one-dimensional radical \( x \). Notice first that any line not passing through \( x \) is elliptic. If \( a, b, c \) are all of positive [negative] type consider an arbitrary nondegenerate four-dimensional subspace of \( V \) containing \( \langle a, b, c \rangle \). That four-dimensional space necessarily is of negative type, so its polar contains a negative point \( p \). But \( \langle a, p \rangle, \langle b, p \rangle, \langle c, p \rangle \) then are elliptic lines and the three-dimensional spaces \( \langle a, b, p \rangle, \langle b, c, p \rangle, \langle a, c, p \rangle \) are nondegenerate, so the original triangle \( a, b, c \) is null-homotopic. If all of \( a, b, c \) are negative [positive] points, then we can choose any positive [negative] point \( p \) on the line \( \langle b, c \rangle \) such that \( \langle a, p \rangle \) does not contain \( x \). Then \( \langle a, p \rangle \) is an elliptic line and we have decomposed the triangle \( a, b, c \) into two triangles in which positive [negative] points occur. If \( b \) and \( c \) are of negative [positive] type and \( a \) is of positive [negative] type we can again choose any positive [negative] point \( p \) on the line \( \langle b, c \rangle \) such that \( \langle a, p \rangle \) does not contain \( x \), decomposing the triangle \( a, b, c \) into two triangles with one negative [positive] point and two positive [negative] points.
We are left with the case of one negative [positive] point, say \(a\), and two positive [negative] points, say \(b\) and \(c\). If neither \(b\) nor \(c\) are perpendicular to \(a\), we can choose the point \(d\) on \(\langle b, c \rangle\) perpendicular to \(a\), which is a positive point as it is perpendicular to the negative [positive] point on the nondegenerate, whence elliptic (i.e. negative) two-dimensional subspace \(\langle a, d \rangle\). It remains to prove that the triangle \(a, d, c\) is null-homotopic, the triangle \(a, d, b\) being handled similarly. The space \(\langle a, d, c \rangle = \langle a, b, c \rangle\) is contained in a four-dimensional nondegenerate negative space which is in turn contained in a five-dimensional nondegenerate positive space \(W\) (which may be equal to \(V\)). The space \(U := \langle b, c \rangle \perp \cap W = \langle d, c \rangle \perp \cap W\) is a three-dimensional negative space. As \(d \perp a\) the space \(\langle a, U \rangle\) equals \(d \perp \cap W\), which is a nondegenerate four-dimensional positive space. Through \(a\) there are \(q + 1\) tangent planes of \(\langle a, U \rangle\). Moreover, in \(U\) there are \(q + 1\) tangent lines. If all tangent planes through \(a\) would pass through a tangent line of \(U\), then \(U \subseteq a \perp\), hence \(\langle a, b, c \rangle = U \perp \cap W\). This would imply that \(a, b, c\) are linearly dependent. So there exists a nondegenerate plane of \(\langle a, U \rangle\) through \(a\) that intersects \(U\) in a tangent line \(L\) of \(U\) with corresponding tangent point \(p_0\). Since \(U\) is a negative space tangent lines of \(U\) contain \(q\) negative points besides the radical. We have finished the proof, if we find a point \(p\) among those \(q\) points that spans an elliptic line together with \(a\) and nondegenerate three-dimensional spaces with \(\langle a, d \rangle\) and \(\langle a, c \rangle\), because then we can decompose the triangle \(a, d, c\) into the three nondegenerate, whence null-homotopic triangles \(a, d, p\) and \(a, c, p\) and \(c, d, p\). Since \(d \perp a\) and \(d \perp p\), the space \(\langle a, d, p \rangle\) is automatically nondegenerate if \(\langle a, p \rangle\) is an elliptic line. The space \(\langle a, c, p \rangle\) has a Gram matrix of the form

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
* & * & \alpha \\
* & 0 & \\
\alpha & 0 & \gamma
\end{pmatrix}
\]

with respect to the basis \(a, c, p\) for nonzero \(\gamma\) and \(\alpha\) both depending on \(p\). If we choose a fixed point \(p_1 \neq p_0\) on \(L\) and write \(p = \frac{1}{\ell}p_0 + p_1\), for \(\ell\) varying over the nonzero elements of the field, then we see that \(\gamma\) is constant and \(\alpha\) runs through \(q\) different elements of the field. Since the determinant of the above matrix is quadratic in \(\alpha\), we see that there are at most two choices of \(p\) for which \(\langle a, c, p \rangle\) is degenerate. Hence there exist \(k := q - 2 - 2 - \frac{q-1}{2}\) points \(p\) on a common elliptic line with \(a\). Indeed, there are \(q\) negative points, two of which might give rise to a degenerate space \(\langle a, c, p \rangle\), two of which might give rise to a degenerate space \(\langle a, p \rangle\) and \(\frac{q-1}{2}\) of which might span hyperbolic lines together with \(a\). The number \(k\) is positive since \(q > 7\). □

**Lemma 4.14**

*Let \(q > 7\). Then any quadrangle of the collinearity graph of \((G^\text{orth}_A)^W\) is homotopically trivial.*

*Proof.* Let \(a, b, c, d\) be a quadrangle and let \(l := ab\) and \(m := cd\). If \(l\) and \(m\) intersect in a point \(e\), then the quadrangle \(a, b, c, d\) decomposes into two triangles \(a, d, e\) and \(b, c, e\).

Therefore we can assume \(\langle l, m \rangle\) is four-dimensional. Our goal is to prove the claim that the point line geometry consisting of the points of \(l\) and \(m\) and the elliptic lines in \(\langle l, m \rangle\) intersecting \(l\) and \(m\) is connected. The fact that \(a, b, c, d\) is null-homotopic then follows, as any path from \(a\) to \(b\) via points on \(l\) and \(m\) and elliptic lines intersecting both \(l\) and \(m\) decomposes the quadrangle \(a, b, c, d\) into triangles. We have to consider the following five cases of possible structure for

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
* & * & \alpha \\
* & 0 & \\
\alpha & 0 & \gamma
\end{pmatrix}
\]
⟨l,m⟩: (i) two-dimensional radical, elliptic line as complement; (ii) two-dimensional radical, hyperbolic line as complement; (iii) one-dimensional radical; (iv) nondegenerate negative space; (v) nondegenerate positive space. In the first case any line not through the radical is elliptic and there is nothing to prove. The second case cannot occur as the lines l and m are elliptic. In the third case let x denote the radical of ⟨l,m⟩. The planes ⟨l,x⟩ and ⟨m,x⟩ intersect in a line, s say. Denote the intersection of l and s by y and the intersection of m and s by z. All lines in ⟨l,x⟩ through z except s are elliptic, whence z is in the same connected component as any point on l distinct from y. By symmetry, y is in the same connected component as any point on m distinct from z. Now let p be any point on l distinct from y and consider the plane ⟨p,m⟩. This plane is a complement in ⟨l,m⟩ of x, so it is nondegenerate. By Lemma 4.11 there exist \( \frac{q-1}{2} \) elliptic lines through p in ⟨p,m⟩. This is at least two if q is larger than three, so there exists an elliptic line through p intersecting m in a point distinct from z and thus the claim follows. In case (iv) we can apply a similar argument as above by using tangent planes of the elliptic quadric containing l or m. In the fifth case the space ⟨l,m⟩ is an object of the geometry \((G_{\text{orth}}^A)^W\), so the quadrangle a, b, c, d is geometric and hence, by Lemma 4.1, null-homotopic.

Lemma 4.15
Suppose q > 7. Any pentagon of the collinearity graph of \((G_{\text{orth}}^A)^W\) is homotopically trivial.

Proof. Let a, b, c, d, e be a pentagon and let \( l := cd \). If \( \langle a,l \rangle \) is nondegenerate, then there exist \( \frac{q-1}{2} \) elliptic lines through a intersecting l, which is at least one, and if \( \langle a,l \rangle \) is degenerate, then there exist q elliptic lines through a intersecting l, as in \( \langle a,l \rangle \) each complement of the radical is an elliptic line. In both cases we have decomposed the pentagon a, b, c, d, e into two quadrangles.

By Proposition 4.12, the three lemmas we have proved yield the following theorem.

Theorem 4.16
Let q ≥ 9. Then the geometry \((G_{\text{orth}}^A)^W\) is simply connected.

Theorem 4.17
Let q ≥ 9 be odd, let n ≥ 4, let V be an \((n+1)\)-dimensional vector space over \( \mathbb{F}_q \) endowed with a nondegenerate positive symmetric bilinear form f. Let \( G = (G_{\text{orth}}^A)^W \), let \( G = SO_{n+1}(\mathbb{F}_q,f) \) and let \( A = A(G,G,W) \) be the amalgam of maximal parabolics of \((G_{\text{orth}}^A)^W\). Then \( U(A) = SO_{n+1}(\mathbb{F}_q,f) \).

Proof. This follows by Theorem 4.16 and Corollary 3.2.

4.4 Negative form in dimension at least five

Let q be odd and let V be a vector space over \( \mathbb{F}_q \) of dimension n + 1 at least five endowed with a nondegenerate negative symmetric bilinear form f and let

\[ G_{\text{orth}}^A(n,\mathbb{F}_q,f) = (X,*,\text{typ}) \]
be the pregeometry on all nondegenerate subspaces of $V$. Let
\[ W = \{ p, p', l, \pi, U, U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_t \} \]
be a hall where $p$ is a positive point, $p'$ is a negative point, $l$ is a negative line, $\pi$ is a positive or negative plane, $U$ is a positive four-dimensional subspace of $V$, and the $U_i$ are arbitrary nondegenerate proper subspaces of $V$ of dimension at least three. Let
\[ (G^\text{orth}_A)^W = (Y, *|_{Y \times Y}, \text{typ}|_Y) \]
be a pregeometry with
\[ Y = \{ x \in X \mid \text{there exists a } g \in SO_{n+1}(\mathbb{F}_q, f) \text{ with } x \in g(W) \} . \]

**Theorem 4.18**
Let $q \geq 9$. Then the geometry $(G^\text{orth}_A)^W$ is simply connected.

**Proof.** The proof is almost the same as the proof of Theorem 4.16, i.e., it follows by versions of Lemmas 4.13, 4.14 and 4.15. The crucial step is finding a version of the proof of Lemma 4.13 that works. This, however, simply amounts to interchanging the words *positive* and *negative* in a suitable way. The other two lemmas can be copied literally. \( \square \)

**Theorem 4.19**
Let $q \geq 9$ be odd, let $n \geq 4$, let $V$ be an $(n + 1)$-dimensional vector space over $F_q$ endowed with a nondegenerate negative symmetric bilinear form $f$. Let $G = (G^\text{orth}_A)^W$, let $G = SO_{n+1}(\mathbb{F}_q, f)$ and let $A = A(G, G, W)$ be the amalgam of maximal parabolics of $(G^\text{orth}_A)^W$. Then $U(A) = SO_{n+1}(\mathbb{F}_q, f)$. \( \square \)

### 4.5 Negative form in dimension four
Let $q$ be odd and let $V$ be a vector space over $\mathbb{F}_q$ of dimension four endowed with a nondegenerate negative symmetric bilinear form $f$ and let
\[ G^\text{orth}_A(3, \mathbb{F}_q, f) = (X, *, \text{typ}) \]
be the pregeometry on all nondegenerate subspaces of $V$. Let
\[ W = \{ p, p', l, \pi, \pi' \} \]
be a hall where $p$ is a positive point, $p'$ is a negative point, $l$ is a negative line, $\pi$ is a positive plane, and $\pi'$ is a negative plane. Let
\[ (G^\text{orth}_A)^W = (Y, *|_{Y \times Y}, \text{typ}|_Y) \]
be a pregeometry with
\[ Y = \{ x \in X \mid \text{there exists a } g \in SO_4(\mathbb{F}_q, f) \text{ with } x \in g(W) \} . \]
Lemma 4.20
Let $q \geq 9$. Then any triangle in the collinearity graph of $(G_A^{\text{orth}})^W$ is homotopically trivial.

Proof. Let $a, b, c$ be a triangle in a degenerate plane with one-dimensional radical $p$. There are two degenerate planes through $bc$, namely $\langle a, b, c \rangle$ and some plane $\pi_{bc}$; likewise there are two degenerate planes $\langle a, b, c \rangle$ and $\pi_{ac}$ through $ac$. The planes $\pi_{ac}$ and $\pi_{bc}$ meet in the line $L$ through $c$. Since the tangent points of $\pi_{ac}$ and $\pi_{bc}$ are distinct, the line $L$ is an elliptic line (and not a tangent line). There is a unique point $d_0 \neq c$ on $L$ for which $\langle a, b, d_0 \rangle$ is a degenerate plane; there unique points $d_a$ and $d_b$ on $L$ for which $ad_a$ and $bd_b$ are degenerate. Since $q > 7$, we can pick a point $d \notin \{c, d_0, d_a, d_b\}$ on $L$. It follows that the plane $\langle a, b, d \rangle$ is nondegenerate. Since there are precisely two degenerate planes through an elliptic line, there are two (not necessarily distinct) points $c_a, c_b$ on the line $cp$ distinct from $c$ with the property that $\langle ad, c_a \rangle$ and $\langle b, d, c_b \rangle$ are degenerate. Now, there are also $q^2 - 3$ points $c'$ on $cp$ distinct from $c$ (and automatically distinct from $p$) such that $dc'$ is elliptic (noting that $\langle c, d, p \rangle$ cannot be degenerate as $\langle a, b, c \rangle$ is the only degenerate plane containing $p$). As $q^2 - 3 \geq 3$, we can choose $c'$ distinct from both $c_a$ and $c_b$. It is now clear that all triangles $\{a, b, d\}, \{a, c', d\}$ and $\{b, c', d\}$ are contained in degenerate planes, and hence that $a, b, c'$ is null-homotopic. But $SO_4(\mathbb{F}_q, f)$ contains a group of order $q - 1$ fixing $ab$ pointwise, fixing $p$ and acting transitively on the points of $pc$ except for $p$ and the intersection $pc \cap ab$. So we conclude that also $a, b, c$ is null-homotopic. 

Theorem 4.21
Let $q \geq 9$. Then $(G_A^{\text{orth}})^W$ is simply connected.

Proof. Case (iv) of Lemma 4.14 shows that any quadrangle of $(G_A^{\text{orth}})^W$ is null-homotopic and Lemma 4.15 shows that any pentagon of $(G_A^{\text{orth}})^W$ is null-homotopic.

Theorem 4.22
Let $q \geq 9$ be odd, let $V$ be a four-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{F}_q$ endowed with a positive nondegenerate form $f$. Let $G = (G_A^{\text{orth}})^W$, let $G = SO_4(\mathbb{F}_q, f)$ and let $A = A(G, G, W)$ be the amalgam of maximal parabolics of $(G_A^{\text{orth}})^W$. Then $U(A) = SO_4(\mathbb{F}_q, f)$. 

4.6 Smaller amalgams

Theorem 4.23
Let $q \geq 9$ be odd, let $n \geq 6$, let $V$ be an $(n+1)$-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{F}_q$ endowed with a nondegenerate positive symmetric bilinear form $f$. Assume that $W$ is a hall containing, besides a positive and a negative point, a negative line, a positive or negative plane and a positive dimension four space, also a positive and a negative hyperplane, a negative hyperplane (which is a space of codimension two), a positive or negative codimension three space and a positive codimension four space. Let $G = (G_A^{\text{orth}})^W$, let $G = SO_{n+1}(\mathbb{F}_q, f)$ and let $A_{n-2} = A_{n-2}(G, G, W)$ be the amalgam of rank $n - 2$ parabolics of $(G_A^{\text{orth}})^W$. Then $U(A_{n-2}) = SO_{n+1}(\mathbb{F}_q, f)$. 

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Proof. In order to apply Corollary 3.4, we have to prove that the geometry itself and all residues of flags of rank one are simply connected. Theorem 4.16 implies that the geometry is simply connected. If the flag $x$ of rank one is neither a point nor a hyperplane of $(G^\text{orth})^W$, then the simple connectivity of $(G^\text{orth})^W_x$ follows from Lemma 4.6. If the flag $x$ is a positive hyperplane, then the simple connectivity of $(G^\text{orth})^W_x$ follows from Theorem 4.16. If the flag $x$ is a negative hyperplane, then the simple connectivity of $(G^\text{orth})^W_x$ follows from Theorem 4.18. In case $x$ being a point, we can dualize $(G^\text{orth})^W$ in order to reduce the situation to the case of $x$ being a hyperplane and, again, we can apply Theorem 4.16, resp. Theorem 4.18 to obtain simple connectivity.

In principle, the theorem would also work for $n = 5$, but then by assumption $W$ would have to contain a negative line and a positive codimension four space, which would be a positive line. But this would contradict the fact, that $W$ contains a positive and a negative point, because the connecting line between those two points cannot be both positive and negative.

**Theorem 4.24**

Let $q \geq 9$ be odd, let $n \geq 4$, let $V$ be an $(n+1)$-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{F}_q$ endowed with a nondegenerate positive symmetric bilinear form $f$. Let

$$G^\text{orth}(n, \mathbb{F}_q, f) = (X, *, \text{typ})$$

be the pregeometry on all nondegenerate subspaces of $V$. Let

$$W = \{p, p', l, \pi, U, U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_t\}$$

be a hall where $p$ is a positive point, $p'$ is a negative point, $l$ is a negative line, $\pi$ is a positive or negative plane, $U$ is a positive four-dimensional subspace of $V$, and the $U_i$ are arbitrary nondegenerate proper subspaces of $V$ of dimension at least three. Let $G = \text{SO}_{n+1}(\mathbb{F}_q, f)$ and let

$$(G^\text{orth})^W = (Y, *)|_{Y \times Y}, \text{typ}|_Y$$

be a pregeometry with

$$Y = \{x \in X \mid \text{there exists a } g \in G \text{ with } x \in g(W)\}.$$ 

Let $W \subset 2^W$ be a shape containing $p, p'$, every flag of corank two, and the flag consisting of all elements of type greater or equal four. Then

$$G = \mathcal{U}(A_W(G, G, W)).$$

Proof. This follows from Corollary 3.4, Theorem 4.16 and Lemmas 3.2 and 4.6.

### Appendix: An intransitive geometry for $G_2(3)$

Here we present another application of our new theory. In [20] Hoffman and Shpectorov study an amalgam of maximal subgroups of $\hat{G} = \text{Aut}(G_2(3))$ given by a certain choice of subgroups

$$\hat{L} = 2^3 \cdot L_3(2) : 2,$$

$$\hat{N} = 2^{1+4} \cdot (S_3 \times S_3),$$

$$M = G_2(2) = U_3(3) : 2.$$
which corresponds to an amalgam of subgroups of $G = G_2(3)$ given by

\[
\begin{align*}
L &= \hat{L} \cap G = 2^3 \cdot L_3(2), \\
N &= \hat{N} \cap G = 2^{1+4} \cdot (3 \times 3) \cdot 2, \\
M &= G_2(2) = U_3(3) : 2, \\
K &= eMe^{-1} \quad \text{for } e \in O_2(\hat{L}) \backslash O_2(L)
\end{align*}
\]

where $O_2(\hat{L})$ denotes the largest normal subgroup of $\hat{L}$ that is a 2-group. The groups

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{G}_1 &= \hat{L}, \\
\hat{G}_2 &= \hat{N}, \\
\hat{G}_3 &= M
\end{align*}
\]

define a flag-transitive coset geometry $\mathcal{G}$ of rank three for $\hat{G} = \text{Aut}(G_2(3))$, which is simply connected by [20]. The subgroup $G = G_2(3)$ of $\hat{G}$ does not act flag-transitively on $\mathcal{G}$. Nevertheless, the groups

\[
\begin{align*}
G^{1,1} &= L, \\
G^{1,2} &= N, \\
G^{1,3} &= M, \\
G^{2,3} &= K
\end{align*}
\]

define an intransitive coset geometry of rank three for $G = G_2(3)$, which is isomorphic to $\mathcal{G}$ by [20] and, hence, simply connected. Corollary 3.2 implies that $\hat{G}$ is the universal completion of the amalgam given by $\hat{L}$, $\hat{N}$ and $M$ and their intersections as indicated in Definition 2.22 and that $G$ is the universal completion of the amalgam given by $L$, $N$, $M$ and $K$ and their intersections excluding $M \cap K$ as indicated in Definition 2.23.

References


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