Computing Hyperplanes of Near Polygons

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Near polygons

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It is a point-line geometry ${\cal N}$ that satisfies the following properties:

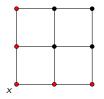
- (NP1) The collinearity graph of \mathcal{N} is connected and has diameter d.
- (NP2) For every point x and every line L there exists a unique point $\pi_L(x)$ incident with L that is nearest to x.

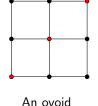
$$x \bullet$$
 \bullet $\pi_L(x)$

A set *H* of points is called a hyperplane if for every line *L*, either $L \cap H$ is a singleton or *L* is contained in *H*. If no line is contained in *H*, then it is called an ovoid (or a 1-ovoid). In a near 2*d*-gon, the set H_x of points that are distance < d from a point *x* form a hyperplane, known as a singular hyperplane.

Hyperplanes of point-line geometries

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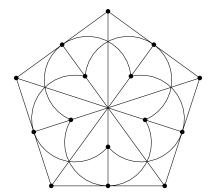




A singular hyperplane

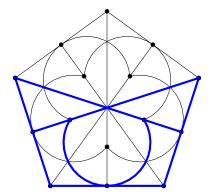
Let \mathcal{N} be a near polygon isometrically embedded in another near polygon \mathcal{N}' . For every point x of \mathcal{N}' the set $H_x = \{y \in \mathcal{P} : d(x, y) < m\}$ forms a hyperplane of \mathcal{N} , where $m := \max\{d(x, y) : y \in \mathcal{P}\}.$

Isometric embeddings of near polygons



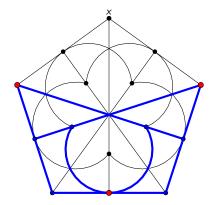
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The notion of 1-ovoids is equivalent to exact hitting sets in a hypergraph. Therefore, computing 1-ovoids is equivalent to computing exact covers, which is known to be NP-hard.

If *M* is the incidence matrix of \mathcal{N} with rows indexed by lines and columns by points, then a hyperplane corresponds to a 0-1 vector x such that $Mx \in \{1, s + 1\}^n$.

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A set *H* intersects every line in 1 or 3 points $\iff H^c$ intersects every line in 0 or 2 points \iff the characteristic vector *v* of H^c satisfies Mv = 0 over \mathbb{F}_2 . Let U be the null space of M over \mathbb{F}_2 . Then $2^{\dim U} - 1$ is the total number of hyperplanes.

Algorithm 1 pseudocode for computing hyperplanes

Initiate $N := 2^{\dim U} - 1$ and *Hyperplanes* := dictionary().

while $N \neq 0$ do

Pick a non-zero vector v in U and let H be the corresponding hyperplane.

Let H' :=SmallestImageSet(H).

if H' not in Hyperplanes then

Add H' to Hyperplanes and put $N := N - \text{Size}(\text{Orbit}_G(H))$. end if

end while

A big improvement

Let S be the set of all singular hyperplanes and assume that $\langle S \rangle = U$. Define index *i* for a hyperplane H to be the minimum number of singular hyperplanes whose "sum" is equal to H. Adding hyperplanes in the increasing order of *i* gives us a *big* improvement!

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- To check if a candidate H for S_{i+1} is new, it suffices to compare it with elements of S_{i-1}, S_i and S_{i+1}!
- For a fixed H ∈ S_i, we can restrict to elements of S corresponding to the point representatives of the action of Stab_G(H).

The Hall-Janko (or the Cohen-Tits near octagon) is a near octagon of order (2, 4) with its full automorphism group of size 1209600 isomorphic to $J_2: 2$. It is a regular near octagon giving rise to a distance-regular graph with intersection array $\{10, 8, 8, 2; 1, 1, 4, 5\}$, which uniquely determines the graph.

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Computational Results: It has $2^{28} - 1$ hyperplanes partitioned into 470 equivalence classes under the action of $J_2 : 2 \ (\approx 60 \text{ mins} after all improvements*})$. **Remark**: This gives rise to a binary [315, 28, 64] code with automorphism group $J_2 : 2$, originally discovered by J. D. Key and J. Moori in 2002.

* using RepresentativeAction instead of SmallestImageSet!!!

There exists a near octagon of order (2, 10) which contains the Hall-Janko near octagon isometrically embedded in it and that has the group $G_2(4): 2$ as its full automorphism group.

It can be constructed using the conjugacy class of 4095 central involutions of the group $G_2(4)$: 2.

Reference: A. Bishnoi and B. De Bruyn. A new near octagon and the Suzuki tower. http://arxiv.org/abs/1501.04119.

Generalized Polygons

A generalized 2d-gon can be viewed as a near 2d-gon which satisfies the following additional properties:

- (GH1) Every point is incident with at least two lines.
- (GH2) Given any two points x, y at distance i from each other, there is a unique neighbour of y that is at distance i 1 from x.

A near 4-gon is a (possibly degenerate) generalized 4-gon, aka, generalized quadrangle.

The incidence graph of a generalized *n*-gon has a diameter *n* and girth 2*n*. Therefore, it is a (bipartite) Moore graph. The collinearity graph is a distance regular graph. By Feit and Higman, generalized *n*-gons exist only for n = 3, 4, 6, 8 and 12.

They are near 6-gons in which every pair of points at distance 2 have a unique common neighbour. All known generalized hexagons have order (q, 1), (1, q), (q, q), (q, q^3) or (q^3, q) for prime power q.

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Split Cayley hexagons H(q) of order (q, q) are generalized hexagons with the group $G_2(q)$ of order $q^6(q^6 - 1)(q^2 - 1)$ as an automorphism group.

Every GH(q, 1) has 1-ovoids (since the incidence graph of PG(2, q) has a perfect matching). No $GH(s, s^3)$ can have 1-ovoids (De Bruyn - Vanhove, 2013).

- H(2) has 36 1-ovoids, all isomorphic under the action of $G_2(2)$, while its point-line dual $H^D(2)$ has none.
- *H*(3) ≃ *H*(3)^D has 3888 1-ovoids, all isomorphic under the action of *G*₂(3).
- H(4) has two non-isomorphic 1-ovoids.

See "Ovoids and Spreads of Finite Classical Generalized Hexagons and Applications" by An De Wispelaere (PhD Thesis).

Theorem (A. B. and F. Ihringer)

The dual split Cayley hexagon of order 4 has no 1-ovoids.

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For H(4), Pech and Reichard proved that examples given by An are the only ones in "Enumerating Set Orbits". Exhaustive search with symmetry breaking doesn't seem to work for $H(4)^D$.

Proof

Main Idea: Since H(4, 1) is a full subgeometry of $H(4)^D$, every 1-ovoid of $H(4)^D$ gives rise to a 1-ovoid of H(4, 1). So, fix a subgeometry $\mathcal{H} \cong H(4, 1)$ of $H(4)^D$, compute all 1-ovoids of \mathcal{H} up to equivalence under the action of $Stab(\mathcal{H})$, show that none of them extends to a 1-ovoid of $H(4)^D$.

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To list 1-ovoids, use the Dancing Links algorithm by Knuth for finding exact covers. Every 1-ovoid of H(4, 1) corresponds to a perfect matching in the incidence graph of PG(2, 4) and hence there are 18534400 of them in total.

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There are 350 different 1-ovoids (\approx 44 min), none of them extends to an ovoid of $H(4)^D$ (\approx 1 min using LP solvers).

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Let \mathcal{G} be a generalized hexagon of order (q, q) contained in a generalized hexagon \mathcal{G}' as a full subgeometry Then points of \mathcal{G}' are at distance 0, 1 or 2 from \mathcal{G} giving rise to three different types of hyperplanes.

Theorem

If a generalized hexagon doesn't have 1-ovoids, then it cannot be contained in any semi-finite generalized hexagon as a full subgeometry.

Theorem (A. B. and B. De Bruyn)

A semi-finite generalized hexagon of order $(2,\infty)$ doesn't contain any subhexagons of order (2,2).

Lemma (A. B. and B. De Bruyn)

Let L be a line of \mathcal{G}' that doesn't intersect \mathcal{G} . Then there exists an integer c_L such that for any distinct points x, y on L we have $|H_x \cap H_y| = q + 1 - c_L$.

Using this and some computations we can also handle H(3) and H(4).

- Classify 1-ovoids in H(5) and its dual.
- **2** For $char(\mathbb{F}_q) \neq 3$, are there any 1-ovoids in $H(q)^D$?
- Are there any semi-finite hexagons containing a subhexagon of order q? (solved for q = 2, 3, 4)
- Are there any spreads in $GQ(q^2, q^3)$ obtained from the Hermitian variety $H(4, q^2)$? (solved for q = 2)
- Are there any 1-ovoids in Ree-Tits octagons? (solved for order (2,4))