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BINOD KUMAR SAHOO AND N. S. NARASIMHA SASTRY

Indian Statistical Institute, Bangalore Centre
8th Mile Mysore Road, Bangalore, 560059 India

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Binod Kumar Sahoo

Department of Mathematics
National Institute of Technology
Rourkela - 769008, India
E-mail: binodkumar@gmail.com

and

N. S. Narasimha Sastry

Statistics & Mathematics Unit
Indian Statistical Institute
R.V. College Post
Bangalore - 560059, India
E-mail: nsastry@isibang.ac.in

Abstract. It is known that [21] if a slim dense near hexagon S admits a non-abelian representation in a group R , then $|R| = 2^\beta$, $1 + n(S) \leq \beta \leq 1 + \dim V(S)$, where $n(S)$ and $\dim V(S)$ are as defined in Section 1. In this paper, we show that, among the slim dense near hexagons admitting big quads (see (1.1) for notation), $DH_6(2^2)$, \mathbb{E}_3 and \mathbb{G}_3 do not admit non-abelian representations and the remaining ones, $Q_6^-(2) \otimes Q_6^-(2)$, $Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$, $DW_6(2)$, \mathbb{H}_3 , $W_4(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ and $Q_4^+(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$, admit a non-abelian representation in an extraspecial 2-group of order $2^{1+n(S)}$ (Theorem 1.3).

Key words. Near polygons, generalized quadrangles, non-abelian representations, extraspecial 2-groups

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1. Introduction

Let $S = (P, L)$ be a partial linear space with lines of size three. For distinct points $x, y \in P$, we write $x \sim y$ if they are collinear, otherwise we write $x \not\sim y$. If $x, y \in P$ and $x \sim y$, then we denote by xy the unique line containing x and y and define $x * y$ by $xy = \{x, y, x * y\}$. For unexplained terminology, see [20] and [21].

Definition 1.1 ([14], p.525). *A representation (R, ψ) of S with representation group R is a mapping $\psi : x \mapsto \langle r_x \rangle$ from P into the set of subgroups of R of order 2 such that the following hold:*

- (i) $R = \langle r_x : x \in P \rangle$.
- (ii) For each line $\{x, y, x * y\}$ of S , $\{1, r_x, r_y, r_{x*y}\}$ is a Klein four group.

A representation (R, ψ) of S is *faithful* if ψ is injective and is *abelian* or *non-abelian* according as R is abelian or not. Note that, in [14], ‘non-abelian representation’ means that ‘the representation group is not necessarily abelian’. For an abelian representation, the representation group can be considered as a vector space over the field F_2 with two elements. If S is connected (that is; the collinearity graph $\Gamma(P)$ of S is connected), then there exists a unique abelian representation, called the *universal abelian representation*, of S with the property that any other abelian representation of S is a composition of it with a linear mapping [18]. The F_2 -vector space $V(S)$ underlying the universal abelian representation of S is called the *universal representation module* of S .

We refer to [15] for more on universal abelian representations of point-line geometries; and [13] and ([20], Sections 1 and 2) for more on non-abelian representations of partial linear spaces with $p + 1$ points per line, p a prime.

A *near polygon* [22] here is a connected partial linear space $S = (P, L)$ with at least three points per line and of finite diameter (that is, the diameter of $\Gamma(P)$ is finite) such that: for each point-line pair $(x, l) \in P \times L$, x is nearest to exactly one point of l . Here, the distance $d(x, y)$ between two points x and y of S is measured in $\Gamma(P)$. If the diameter of S is n , then S is called a *near $2n$ -gon*. If $n = 2$, then S is a *generalized quadrangle* (GQ, for short) and if $n = 3$, then it is called a *near hexagon*. For more on near polygons, see [10].

Let $S = (P, L)$ be a near $2n$ -gon. For $x \in P$ and $A \subseteq P$, we define $x^\perp = \{x\} \cup \{y \in P : x \sim y\}$ and $A^\perp = \bigcap_{x \in A} x^\perp$. A subset of P is a *subspace* of S if any line of S containing at least two of its points is contained in it. For a subset A of P , the *subspace $\langle A \rangle$ generated by A* is the intersection of all subspaces of S containing A . A *geometric hyperplane* of S is a subspace of S , different from the empty set and

P , that meets each line of S non-trivially. A subspace C of P is *convex* if every geodesic in $\Gamma(P)$ between two points of C is entirely contained in C . A *quad* of S is a convex subspace of P of diameter 2 such that no point of it is adjacent to all other points of it. If $x_1, x_2 \in P$ with $d(x_1, x_2) = 2$ and $|\{x_1, x_2\}^\perp| \geq 2$, then x_1 and x_2 are contained in a unique quad, denoted by $Q(x_1, x_2)$, and this quad $Q(x_1, x_2)$ is a generalized quadrangle ([22], Proposition 2.5, p.10). We say that S is *dense* if every pair of points at distance 2 is contained in a quad.

Let $S = (P, L)$ be a dense near $2n$ -gon. Then, the number, $t+1$, of lines containing a point of S is independent of the point ([5], Lemma 19, p.152). Let $t_2 = \{|\{x, y\}^\perp| - 1 : x, y \in P, d(x, y) = 2\}$. We say that S has *parameters* (s, t, t_2) if each line of S contains $s + 1$ points, each point is contained in $t + 1$ lines and t_2 is as above. If $n = 2$, then $t_2 = \{t\}$, though t_2 may have more than one element in general. A near 4-gon with parameters $(s, t, \{t\})$ is written as a (s, t) -GQ. We say that a quad of S is of *type* (s, t') if it is a (s, t') -GQ. If Q is a quad of S , then for $x \in P \setminus Q$, either

- (i) there is a unique point $y \in Q$ (depending on x) collinear with x and $d(x, z) = d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ for all $z \in Q$; or
- (ii) $d(x, Q) = 2$ and the set $\mathcal{O}_x = \{y \in Q : d(x, y) = 2\}$ is an ovoid of Q .

([22], Proposition 2.6, p.12). We say that the quad Q is *big* if (i) holds for each $x \in P \setminus Q$. If Q is a big quad of S and $x \in P \setminus Q$, then we denote by x_Q the unique point y as in (i).

A near polygon is *slim* if each of its lines contains exactly three points. Let $S = (P, L)$ be a slim dense near $2n$ -gon, $n \geq 1$. If $n = 1$, then $S \simeq \mathbb{L}_3$, a line of size 3. If $n = 2$, then S is a $(2, t)$ -GQ. In that case, P is finite, $t = 1, 2$ or 4 and for each value of t there exists a unique $(2, t)$ -GQ, up to isomorphism ([7], Theorem 7.3, p.99). Thus, S is isomorphic to one of the classical generalized quadrangles $Q_4^+(2)$, $W_4(2) \simeq Q_5(2)$ and $Q_6^-(2)$ for $t = 1, 2$ and 4 , respectively. From ([4], Theorem 1.1, p.349), there are 11 possibilities for S , up to isomorphism, when $n = 3$. Further, each of these slim dense near hexagons is uniquely determined by its parameters $s = 2$, t and t_2 (see [2], [3], [4] and [22]). For other classification results about slim dense near polygons, see [23] and [10].

Let $S = (P, L)$ be a slim dense near hexagon having big quads. Since a $(2, 4)$ -GQ admits no ovoids, it follows that every quad of S of type $(2, 4)$ is big. Let Q be a quad of S . If Q is of type $(2, t')$, then $|P| \geq |Q|(1 + 2(t - t'))$ and equality holds if and only if Q is big (see [4], p.359). In particular, if a quad of S of type $(2, t')$ is big, then so are all quads of S of that type. If Q is big and $\{a, b, c\}$ is a line of S disjoint from Q , then $\{a_Q, b_Q, c_Q\}$ is a line of Q ([5], Lemma 5, p.148).

Lemma 1.2 (see [4], Proposition 4.3, p.354). *Let Q_1 and Q_2 be two disjoint big quads of S . Let τ be the map from Q_1 to Q_2 defined by $\tau(x) = x_{Q_2}$, $x \in Q_1$. Then*

- (i) τ is an isomorphism from Q_1 to Q_2 .
- (ii) The set $Q_1 * Q_2 = \{x * x_{Q_2} : x \in Q_1\}$ is a big quad of S .

Further, $Y = Q_1 \cup Q_2 \cup Q_1 * Q_2$ is a subspace of S isomorphic to the near hexagon $Q_1 \times \mathbb{L}_3$, a direct product of Q_1 and \mathbb{L}_3 (see Section 2).

Let B be the collection of all big quads of S and L_B be the collection of subsets $\{Q_1, Q_2, Q_1 * Q_2\}$ of B , where Q_1 and Q_2 are disjoint. Then $\mathcal{F} = (B, L_B)$ is a Fischer space (see [4], Corollary 4.4, p.354). That is, \mathcal{F} is a partial linear space satisfying the following conditions:

- (i) Each line of \mathcal{F} contains exactly three points.
- (ii) The subspace generated by any two intersecting lines of \mathcal{F} is isomorphic to the affine plane of order three or the dual affine plane of order two.

(see [1], p.92). The partial linear space \mathcal{F} is called the *Fischer space on big quads of S* which is used here in the study of non-abelian representations of S . We also remark that some of the slim dense near hexagons are constructed in ([4], p.352) using Fischer spaces.

We list below the slim dense near hexagons admitting big quads with their parameters (see [4], Theorem 1.1, p.349).

Near hexagon	$ P $	t	t_2	$\dim V(S)$	$n(S)$
$DH_6(2^2)$	891	20	$\{4^*\}$	22	20
\mathbb{E}_3	567	14	$\{2, 4^*\}$	21	20
\mathbb{G}_3	405	11	$\{1, 2, 4^*\}$	20	20
$Q_6^-(2) \otimes Q_6^-(2)$	243	8	$\{1, 4^*\}$	18	18
$Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$	81	5	$\{1, 4^*\}$	12	12
$DW_6(2)$	135	6	$\{2^*\}$	15	8
\mathbb{H}_3	105	5	$\{1, 2^*\}$	14	8
$W_4(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$	45	3	$\{1, 2^*\}$	10	8
$Q_4^+(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$	27	2	$\{1^*\}$	8	8

Here, $\dim V(S)$ denotes the dimension of the universal representation module of S and $n(S)$ denotes the F_2 -rank of the matrix $A_3 : P \times P \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ defined by $A_3(x, y) = 1$ if $d(x, y) = 3$ and zero otherwise. We add a star in column t_2 if and only if the corresponding quads are big.

In ([21], Theorem 1.6), it is proved that the representation group R for a non-abelian representation (R, ψ) of S is a finite group of order 2^β , where $1 + n(S) \leq \beta \leq 1 + \dim V(S)$.

In this paper, we prove

Theorem 1.3. *Let $S = (P, L)$ be a slim dense near hexagon having big quads.*

- (i) *If $S = DH_6(2^2), \mathbb{E}_3$ or \mathbb{G}_3 , then every representation of S is abelian.*
- (ii) *If S is one of the near hexagons $Q_6^-(2) \otimes Q_6^-(2), Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3, DW_6(2), \mathbb{H}_3, W_4(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ and $Q_4^+(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$, then S admits a non-abelian representation such that the representation group is an extraspecial 2-group of order $2^{1+n(S)}$.*

The structure of the Fischer space \mathcal{F} on big quads of S is used in proving Theorem 1.3(i) and in the construction of non-abelian representation for $Q_6^-(2) \otimes Q_6^-(2)$.

In Section 2, we give a construction for each of the slim dense near hexagons having big quads. In Section 3, we study the structure of the near hexagon relative to a line in the Fischer space \mathcal{F} . We prove Theorem 1.3(i) in Section 4 and Theorem 1.3(ii) in Section 5.

2. Constructions

$DH_6(2^2)$ and $DW_6(2)$: Let $S = (P, L)$ be a polar space of rank $n \geq 2$ (see [6]). The partial linear space, whose point set is the collection of all maximal singular subspaces of S and lines are the collections of all maximal singular subspaces of S containing a specific singular subspace of co-dimension 1 in each of them, is called the *dual polar space of rank n* associated with S . Cameron characterized these geometries in terms of points and lines and proved that dual polar spaces of rank n are dense near $2n$ -gons ([8], Theorem 1, p.75). The neat hexagons $DH_6(2^2)$ and $DW_6(2)$ are the unitary and symplectic dual polar spaces of rank 3, respectively. All slim dense near hexagons having big quads are subspaces of $DH_6(2^2)$ (see [4], p.353).

$Q_4^+(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$, $W_4(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ and $Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$: Let $S_1 = (P_1, L_1)$ and $S_2 = (P_2, L_2)$ be two partial linear spaces. Then, their *direct product* $S_1 \times S_2$ is the partial linear space whose point set is $P_1 \times P_2$ and the line set consists of all subsets of $P_1 \times P_2$ projecting to a single point in P_i for each i and projecting in P_j onto an element of L_j , where $\{i, j\} = \{1, 2\}$. A direct product of near polygons is again a near polygon ([5], Theorem 1, p.146). The slim dense near hexagons on 81, 45 and 27 points are direct products of a $(2, t)$ -GQ with \mathbb{L}_3 for $t = 4, 2, 1$, respectively.

$Q_6^-(2) \otimes Q_6^-(2)$: The following description of this near hexagon is taken from [12]. Let $S = (P, L)$ be a $(2, 4)$ -GQ, $T = \{l_1 \cdots, l_9\} \subset L$ be a spread of S and l be an arbitrary line in T . Let $\phi_j : P \rightarrow l_j$ be the map taking each $x \in P$ to the unique point of l_j nearest to x in S . Let $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}(S, T, l)$ be the graph with vertex set $l \times T \times T$. Two distinct vertices (x, l_i, l_j) and (y, l_m, l_n) are *adjacent* whenever at least one of the following two conditions holds:

- (1) $j = n$ and $\phi_i(x)$ and $\phi_m(y)$ are collinear points in S ;
- (2) $i = m$ and $\phi_j(x)$ and $\phi_n(y)$ are collinear points in S .

Note that if $i = m$ and $j = n$, then (1) and (2) both are satisfied. Any two adjacent vertices of \mathcal{G} are contained in a unique maximal clique of size three. The points and the lines of $Q_6^-(2) \otimes Q_6^-(2)$ are, respectively, the vertices and the maximal cliques of \mathcal{G} .

\mathbb{G}_3 : Let the vector space \mathbb{F}_4^6 with base $\{e_0, \dots, e_5\}$ be equipped with the non-singular hermitian form $(x, y) = x_0y_0^2 + x_1y_1^2 + \dots + x_5y_5^2$. Let H denote the corresponding hermitian variety in $PG(5, 2^2)$. The *support* S_α of a point $\alpha = \mathbb{F}_4x$ of $PG(5, 2^2)$ is the set of all $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, 5\}$ for which $(x, e_i) \neq 0$ and its cardinality is called the *weight* of α . A point of $PG(5, 2^2)$ belongs to H if and only if its weight is even. A

subspace of $PG(5, 2^2)$ contained in H is said to be *good* if it is generated by a set of points whose supports are pairwise disjoint. Then, \mathbb{G}_3 is a subspace of $DH_6(2^2)$ whose point set consists of all good subspaces of H of dimension 2 (see [11]).

\mathbb{E}_3 : A non-empty set \mathcal{O} of points of a partial linear space S is called a *hyperoval* if every line of S intersects \mathcal{O} in zero or two points. The unitary polar space $H_6(2^2)$ of rank three has two isomorphism classes of hyperovals [16]. The hyperovals of one class contain 126 points and the hyperovals of the other class contain 162 points. Let \mathcal{O} be a hyperoval of $H_6(2^2)$ of size 126. Each maximal singular subspace of $H_6(2^2)$ has zero or six points in common with \mathcal{O} . Then, \mathbb{E}_3 is the subspace of $DH_6(2^2)$ consisting of all points intersecting \mathcal{O} in six points (see [10], p.159).

\mathbb{H}_3 : Let X be a set of size 8. The point set of \mathbb{H}_3 is the set of all partitions of X into 2-subsets; and the line set consists of all triples of these partitions sharing two 2-subsets of X (see [4], p.355).

The following alternate construction of \mathbb{H}_3 and $DW_6(2)$ [19] is used in Section 5.

Proposition 2.1. *Let $S = (P, L)$ and $S^1 = (P^1, L^1)$ be two $(2, 2)$ -GQs and let $\pi : x \mapsto x^1$, $x \in P, x^1 \in P^1$, denote an isomorphism from S to S^1 . Let*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P} &= \{(x, y^1) \in P \times P^1 : y^1 \in x^{1\perp}\}; \\ \mathcal{L} &= \{\{(x, u^1), (y, v^1), (z, w^1)\} : \{x, y, z\} \text{ is a line or a complete triad of points of } S \\ &\quad \text{and } \{x^1, y^1, z^1\}^\perp = \{u^1, v^1, w^1\} \text{ in } S^1\}; \\ \mathbb{P} &= \mathcal{P} \cup P \cup P^1; \\ \mathbb{L} &= \mathcal{L} \cup \mathcal{L}^1, \text{ where } \mathcal{L}^1 = \{\{x, (x, u^1), u^1\} : (x, u^1) \in \mathcal{P}\}. \end{aligned}$$

Then $\mathcal{S} = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}) \simeq \mathbb{H}_3$ and $\mathbb{S} = (\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{L}) \simeq DW_6(2)$ ([19], Theorems 2.1 and 2.2). Clearly, \mathbb{H}_3 is a geometric hyperplane of $DW_6(2)$.

3. Preliminaries

Let $S = (P, L)$ be a slim dense near hexagon having big quads. Fix two disjoint big quads Q_1 and Q_2 of S . Let $Q_3 = Q_1 * Q_2$ and $Y = Q_1 \cup Q_2 \cup Q_3$. By Lemma 1.2, Y is a subspace of S isomorphic to $Q_4^+(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3, W_4(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ or $Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ according as Q_1 and Q_2 are of type $(2, 1), (2, 2)$ or $(2, 4)$. Now, fix a big quad Q of S disjoint from Y . Let $\{i, j, k\} = \{1, 2, 3\}$. For $x \in P \setminus Y$, we define $x^j = x_{Q_j}$ and, for $x \in Q_i$, we define $z_x^j = x_{Q_j}$. Thus, for $x \in Q_i$, $\{x, z_x^j, z_x^k\}$ is a line of Y meeting each of Q_i, Q_j and Q_k . For a line $l = \{a, b, c\}$ of S , we set $l_Q = \{a_Q, b_Q, c_Q\}$ if $l \cap Q$ is empty, and $l^j = \{a^j, b^j, c^j\}$ if $l \cap Q_j$ is empty. We denote by τ_j the isomorphism from Q to Q_j defined by $\tau_j(x) = x^j$, $x \in Q$ and by τ_{ij} the isomorphism from Q_i to Q_j defined by $\tau_{ij}(x) = z_x^j$, $x \in Q_i$ (see Lemma 1.2(i)). For $x \in P \setminus (Y \cup Q)$, we denote by x_Q^i the point $(x_Q)^i$ in Q_i . Similarly, for a line l disjoint from both Y and Q , we denote by l_Q^i the line $(l_Q)^i$ in Q_i .

Lemma 3.1. *Let $x \in P \setminus Y$. Then:*

- (i) $d(z_{x_i}^j, x^j) = 1$ and $d(x^i, x^j) = 2$.
- (ii) $\{x^i, z_{x_j}^i, z_{x_k}^i\}$ is a line in Q_i .

Proof. (i) Since $x \in \Gamma_1(x^i) \cap \Gamma_1(x^j)$, $d(x^i, x^j) = 2$. Further, $d(x^i, x^j) = d(x^i, z_{x^i}^j) + d(z_{x^i}^j, x^j)$. So $d(z_{x^i}^j, x^j) = 1$.

(ii) By (i), $x^i \sim z_{x^j}^i$ and $x^i \sim z_{x^k}^i$. We show that $z_{x^j}^i \sim z_{x^k}^i$. The quad $Q(x^j, x^k)$ of Y is of type (2,1) and $\{x^j, x^k\}^\perp = \{z_{x^j}^k, z_{x^k}^j\}$ in Y . Now, from the parallel lines $\{x^j, z_{x^j}^i, z_{x^j}^k\}$ and $\{x^k, z_{x^k}^i, z_{x^k}^j\}$ in $Q(x^j, x^k)$, it follows that $z_{x^j}^i \sim z_{x^k}^i$. \square

Lemma 3.2. *Let $l = \{a, b, c\}$ be a line of S intersecting Y at c .*

- (i) *If $c \in Q_i \cup Q_j$, then $d(a^i, b^j) = 2$.*
- (ii) *If $c \in Q_k$, then $d(a^i, b^j) = 1$. In fact, $a^i = z_{b^j}^i$.*

Proof. (i) Let c be in, say, Q_i . Since $a^i = b^i = c$, $d(a^i, b^j) = d(b^i, b^j) = 2$ by Lemma 3.1(i).

(ii) We have $a^k = b^k = c$. Since l is disjoint from Q_i , $l^i = \{a^i, b^i, c^i = z_c^i\}$ is a line of Q_i . By Lemma 3.1(ii), $\{b^i, z_{b^j}^i, z_{b^k}^i = z_c^i\}$ is also a line of Q_i . So, $a^i = z_{b^j}^i$ and $d(a^i, b^j) = 1$. \square

Lemma 3.3. *Let l be a line of S disjoint from Y and $x, y \in l$ with $x \neq y$.*

- (i) *If $l^j = x^j z_{x^i}^j$ in Q_j , then $(y^i, y^j) = (z_{x^j}^i, x^j * z_{x^i}^j)$ or $(x^i * z_{x^j}^i, z_{x^i}^j)$. In particular, $l^i = x^i z_{x^j}^i$ in Q_i , $l^j = x^j z_{x^i}^j$ in Q_j and $\tau_{ij}(l^i) = l^j$ are equivalent.*
- (ii) *$d(x^i, y^j) \leq 2$ if and only if $l^i = x^i z_{x^j}^i$ in Q_i .*

Proof. (i) If $l^j = x^j z_{x^i}^j$, then $y^j \in \{z_{x^i}^j, x^j * z_{x^i}^j\}$. Assume that $y^j = x^j * z_{x^i}^j$. Since $\tau_{ji}(x^j z_{x^i}^j) = x^i z_{x^j}^i$, $z_{y^j}^i = x^i * z_{x^j}^i$ and so $y^i \sim x^i * z_{x^j}^i$ (Lemma 3.1(i)). Since $y^i \sim x^i$ also, y^i is a point in the line $x^i z_{x^j}^i$. Now, $d(y^i, y^j) = 2$ implies that $y^i = z_{x^j}^i$.

If $y^j = z_{x^i}^j$, then applying the above argument to $(x * y)^j = x^j * z_{x^i}^j$, we get $(x * y)^i = z_{x^j}^i$ and so, $y^i = x^i * z_{x^j}^i$.

(ii) If $l^i = x^i z_{x^j}^i$ in Q_i , then $\tau_{ij}(l^i) = l^j$ by (i) and it follows that $d(x^i, y^j) \leq 2$. Suppose that $l^i \neq x^i z_{x^j}^i$ in Q_i . By (i), $l^j \neq x^j z_{x^i}^j$ in Q_j . So $y^j \neq z_{x^i}^j$, and $d(x^i, y^j) = d(x^i, z_{x^i}^j) + d(z_{x^i}^j, y^j) = 1 + 2 = 3$. \square

Lemma 3.4. *For every $x \in Q$, there exists a unique line l in Q containing x such that $\tau_{ij}(l^i) = l^j$. In particular, $l^i = \{x^i, z_{x^j}^i, z_{x^k}^i\}$.*

Proof. Since τ_i is an isomorphism from Q to Q_i , there exists a line l of Q containing x such that $l^i = x^i z_{x^j}^i$. By Lemma 3.3(i), $\tau_{ij}(l^i) = l^j$. The line l in Q through x such that $\tau_{ij}(l^i) = l^j$ is unique because, for any other line \bar{l} of Q containing x , $\tau_{ij}(\bar{l}^i)$ and \bar{l}^j are two disjoint lines in Q_j containing $z_{x^i}^j$ and x^j , respectively. Now, $l^i = x^i z_{x^j}^i = \{x^i, z_{x^j}^i, z_{x^k}^i\}$ (see Lemma 3.1(ii)). \square

Notation 3.5. *For $x \in Q$, we denote by ζ_x the unique line l in Q containing x as in Lemma 3.4 and we write $T_Q = \{\zeta_x : x \in Q\}$.*

Corollary 3.6. *T_Q is a spread of Q .*

Proof. This follows because, $\zeta_x = \zeta_y$ for $x \in Q$ and $y \in \zeta_x$, by Lemma 3.4. \square

Let $l = \{a, b, c\}$ be a line of Q . First, let $l \in T_Q$. Set $T^l = l^i \cup l^j \cup l^k$ and $T_{jk}^l = l^i \cup \tau_{ij}(l^i) \cup \tau_{ik}(l^i)$. The set T_{jk}^l is a quad of Y of type (2,1) whose lines are the rows and the columns of the matrix

$$(3.2) \quad T_{jk}^l = \begin{bmatrix} a^i & z_{a^i}^j & z_{a^i}^k \\ b^i & z_{b^i}^j & z_{b^i}^k \\ c^i & z_{c^i}^j & z_{c^i}^k \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since $l \in T_Q$, Lemma 3.4 implies that T^l coincides with T_{jk}^l . So T^l is a quad of Y of type (2,1) whose lines are the rows and columns of one of the matrices

$$(3.3) \quad T^l = \begin{bmatrix} a^i & c^j & b^k \\ b^i & a^j & c^k \\ c^i & b^j & a^k \end{bmatrix}; \text{ or } T^l = \begin{bmatrix} a^i & b^j & c^k \\ b^i & c^j & a^k \\ c^i & a^j & b^k \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that if $b^k \sim a^i$, then the line containing them is $\{a^i, c^j, b^k\}$.

Now, let $l \notin T_Q$. Then, $\tau_{ij}(l^i)$ and l^j are disjoint lines in Q_j . The set $T_i^l = l^i \cup \tau_{ji}(l^j) \cup \tau_{ki}(l^k)$ form a (2,1)-GQ in Q_i . In fact, we can write

$$(3.4) \quad T_i^l = \begin{bmatrix} a^i & b^i & c^i \\ z_{a^i}^j & z_{b^i}^j & z_{c^i}^j \\ z_{a^i}^k & z_{b^i}^k & z_{c^i}^k \end{bmatrix}; T_j^l = \begin{bmatrix} z_{a^i}^j & z_{b^i}^j & z_{c^i}^j \\ a^j & b^j & c^j \\ z_{a^k}^j & z_{b^k}^j & z_{c^k}^j \end{bmatrix}; \text{ and } T_k^l = \begin{bmatrix} z_{a^i}^k & z_{b^i}^k & z_{c^i}^k \\ z_{a^j}^k & z_{b^j}^k & z_{c^j}^k \\ a^k & b^k & c^k \end{bmatrix}.$$

Each row as well as each column in T_i^l (respectively, T_j^l, T_k^l) is a line of Q_i (respectively, Q_j, Q_k). Further, the (m, n) -th entries from T_i^l, T_j^l and T_k^l form a line of Y .

As a consequence of the above, we have

Corollary 3.7. *Let l be a line of Q . For distinct $a, b \in l$, $d(a^i, b^j) \leq 2$ or $d(a^i, b^j) = 3$ according as $l \in T_Q$ or not.*

4. Proof of Theorem 1.3(i)

A finite 2-group G is *extraspecial* if its Frattini subgroup $\Phi(G)$, the commutator subgroup G' and the center $Z(G)$ coincide and have order 2. An extraspecial 2-group is of exponent 4 and of order 2^{1+2m} for some integer $m \geq 1$ and the maximum of the orders of its abelian subgroups is 2^{m+1} (see [9], section 20, p.78,79). An extraspecial 2-group G of order 2^{1+2m} is a central product of either m copies of the dihedral group D_8 of order 8 or $m-1$ copies of D_8 with a copy of the quaternion group Q_8 of order 8. In the first case, G possesses a maximal elementary abelian subgroup of order 2^{1+m} and we write $G = 2_+^{1+2m}$. If the later holds, then all maximal abelian subgroups of G are of type $2^{m-1} \times 4$ and we write $G = 2_-^{1+2m}$.

Let $S = (P, L)$ be a slim dense near hexagon having big quads of type (2,4) and (R, ψ) be a non-abelian representation of S . For $x, y \in P$ with $d(x, y) \leq 2$, $[r_x, r_y] =$

1 : if $d(x, y) = 2$, we apply ([20], Theorem 1.5(i), p.55) to the restriction of ψ to the quad $Q(x, y)$. From ([20], Theorem 2.9, p.58, see [20], Example 2.2, p.56) and ([21], Theorem 1.6), we have

Proposition 4.1. *The following hold:*

- (i) *For $x, y \in P$, $[r_x, r_y] \neq 1$ if and only if $d(x, y) = 3$. In that case, $\langle r_x, r_y \rangle$ is a dihedral group of order 8.*
- (ii) *$|R'| = 2$ and $R' = \Phi(R) \subseteq Z(R)$.*
- (iii) *$r_x \notin Z(R)$ for each $x \in P$, and ψ is faithful.*
- (iv) *R is of order 2^β , where $1 + n(S) \leq \beta \leq 1 + \dim V(S)$.*
- (v) *If $\beta = 1 + n(S)$, then R is an extraspecial 2-group. In that case, $R = 2_+^{1+n(S)}$ except for the near hexagon $Q_6^-(2) \otimes Q_6^-(2)$, in which case $R = 2_-^{1+n(S)}$.*

We repeatedly use Proposition 4.1(i), mostly without mention.

Let Q_1 and Q_2 be two disjoint big quads of S and Y be the subspace of S generated by them. Then, $Y \simeq Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ and $Y = Q_1 \cup Q_2 \cup Q_3$, where $Q_3 = Q_1 * Q_2$ (see Lemma 1.2(ii)). Let (R, ψ) be a non-abelian representation of S . Set $M = \langle \psi(Y) \rangle$ and $N = C_R(M)$. Then $M \simeq 2_+^{1+12}$ (Theorem 4.1(v)) and R is a central product of M and N , written as $R = M \circ N$. In the following, we use the notation of Section 3.

Lemma 4.2 ([21], Proposition 5.3). *For each $x \in P \setminus Y$, r_x has a unique decomposition as $r_x = r_{z_2^1} r_{z_1^2} n_x$, where n_x is an involution in $N \setminus Z(R)$.*

Lemma 4.3 ([21], Corollary 5.5). *Let Q be a big quad of S disjoint from Y and $I_2(N)$ be the set of involutions in N . Let δ be the map from Q to $I_2(N)$ defined by $\delta(x) = n_x, x \in Q$. Then:*

- (i) *δ is one-one.*
- (ii) *For $x, y \in Q$, $[\delta(x), \delta(y)] = 1$ if and only if $x = y$ or $x \sim y$.*
- (iii) *There exists a spread T in Q such that for $x, y \in Q$ with $x \sim y$,*

$$\delta(x * y) = \begin{cases} \delta(x)\delta(y) & \text{if } xy \in T \\ \delta(x)\delta(y)\theta & \text{if } xy \notin T \end{cases};$$

where $R' = \{1, \theta\}$ (see Proposition 4.1(ii)).

The proof of the above two lemmas is mainly based on the fact that big quads of S are of type (2,4).

Proposition 4.4. *Let $S = (P, L)$ be a slim dense near hexagon having big quads of type (2,4). Suppose that the Fischer space on big quads of S contains a subspace H isomorphic to the dual affine plane of order 2. Then, every representation of S is abelian.*

Proof. Let $H = \{Q_1, Q_2, Q_3, Q, T_1, T_2\}$ with lines $\{Q_1, Q_2, Q_3\}$, $\{Q_1, Q, T_1\}$, $\{T_1, T_2, Q_3\}$ and $\{Q, T_2, Q_2\}$. Then, $Y = Q_1 \cup Q_2 \cup Q_3$ is isomorphic to $Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ and Q is a big quad of S disjoint from Y .

Suppose that (R, ψ) is a non-abelian representation of S and let M and N be as above. Let $l = \{a, b, c\}$ be a line of S meeting T_1 at a , T_2 at b and Q_3 at c . We show that $n_a = n_b, n_a = n_{a_Q}$ and $n_b = n_{b_Q}$. Since $a_Q \neq b_Q$, $n_{a_Q} = n_{b_Q}$ would contradict Lemma 4.3(i), thus completing the proof.

For $m \in \{1, 2\}$, l is disjoint from Q_m , so $l^m = \{a^m, b^m, c^m = z_c^m\}$ is a line of Q_m . By Lemma 3.2(ii), $(a^1, b^1) = (z_{b^2}^1, z_{a^2}^1)$ and $(a^2, b^2) = (z_{b^1}^2, z_{a^1}^2)$. So $r_a = r_{z_{a^2}^1} r_{z_{a^1}^2} n_a = r_{b^1} r_{b^2} n_a$ by Lemma 4.2. Similarly, $r_b = r_{a^1} r_{a^2} n_b$. Now, $r_a r_b = (r_{b^1} r_{b^2})(r_{a^1} r_{a^2}) n_a n_b = (r_{b^1} r_{a^1})(r_{b^2} r_{a^2}) n_a n_b = r_{c^1} r_{c^2} n_a n_b$. The second equality holds since $d(a^1, b^2) = 1$ by Lemma 3.2(ii). Since $c^1 = z_c^1, c^2 = z_c^2$ and $\{c, z_c^1, z_c^2\}$ is a line of Y , we get $r_a r_b = r_c n_a n_b$. But $r_a r_b = r_c$ by the definition of a representation. So $n_a = n_b$.

Now, consider the line $l_a = \{a, a_Q, a^1 = a_Q^1\}$ meeting T_1 at a , Q at a_Q and Q_1 at $a^1 = a_Q^1$. We have $r_a r_{a_Q} = r_{a^1}$. Since l_a is disjoint from Q_2 , $l_a^2 = \{a^2, a_Q^2, z_{a^1}^2 = z_{a_Q^1}^2\}$ is a line of Q_2 . Now, $r_a r_{a_Q} = r_{z_{a^2}^1} r_{z_{a^1}^2} r_{z_{a_Q^2}^1} r_{z_{a_Q^1}^2} n_a n_{a_Q}$. By Lemma 3.2(i), $d(a^1, a_Q^2) = 2$ and so, $[r_{z_{a^1}^2}, r_{z_{a_Q^2}^1}] = 1$. Since $a^1 = a_Q^1$, we get $r_a r_{a_Q} = r_{z_{a^2}^1} r_{z_{a_Q^2}^1} n_a n_{a_Q}$. Since the line l_a^2 is disjoint from Q_1 , its projection on Q_1 is the line $\{a^1 = a_Q^1, z_{a^2}^1, z_{a_Q^2}^1\}$. So $r_a r_{a_Q} = r_{a^1} n_a n_{a_Q}$. Thus, $n_a = n_{a_Q}$. Similarly, considering the line $l_b = \{b, b_Q, b^2 = b_Q^2\}$ disjoint from Q_1 , the above argument yields that $n_b = n_{b_Q}$. This completes the proof. \square

Proof of Theorem 1.3(i). Let $S = (P, L)$ be either \mathbb{E}_3 or \mathbb{G}_3 . Let Δ_S be the graph on big quads of S , two distinct big quads being adjacent when they have non-empty intersection. If $S = \mathbb{G}_3$, then $\Delta_{\mathbb{G}_3}$ is the 3-coclique extension of the (2,2)-GQ, and if $S = \mathbb{E}_3$, then $\Delta_{\mathbb{E}_3}$ is locally the collinearity graph of the (2,4)-GQ (see [4], p.361). In either case, it follows that for two adjacent vertices V_1 and V_2 of Δ_S , there exists a vertex V of Δ_S which is not adjacent to both V_1 and V_2 . Consider the Fischer space \mathcal{F} on big quads of S . Since V_1 and V_2 are not collinear in \mathcal{F} , the subspace H of \mathcal{F} generated by the two intersecting lines $\{V, V_1, V * V_1\}$ and $\{V, V_2, V * V_2\}$ is isomorphic to the dual affine plane of order 2. So, by Proposition 4.4, every representation of S is abelian. Since S is a subspace of $DH_6(2^2)$ (see [4], p.353), Proposition 4.1(i) implies that every representation of $DH_6(2^2)$ is abelian. \square

5. Proof of Theorem 1.3(ii)

In this section, we construct non-abelian representations for each of the near hexagons in Theorem 1.3(ii).

5.1. $Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3, W_4(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ and $Q_4^+(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$. Let $R = 2_+^{1+2k}$, $k \in \{4, 6\}$, $R' = \{1, \theta\}$ and $V = R/R'$. We consider V as a vector space over F_2 . The map $f : V \times V \rightarrow F_2$ taking (xR', yR') to 0 or 1 according as $[x, y] = 1$ or not, is a non-degenerate symplectic bilinear form on V . Write V as an orthogonal direct sum of k hyperbolic planes K_i ($1 \leq i \leq k$) in V and let H_i be the inverse image of K_i in R . Then, H_i is generated by two elements x_i and x_i^1 such that $[x_i, x_i^1] = \theta$. Let $M = \langle x_i : 1 \leq i \leq k \rangle$

and $M^1 = \langle x_i^1 : 1 \leq i \leq k \rangle$. Then, M and M^1 are elementary abelian 2-subgroups of R of order 2^k each. Further, M, M^1 and $Z(R)$ pairwise intersect trivially and $R = MM^1Z(R)$.

Let $F = (Q, B)$ be a $(2, t)$ -GQ in M with $M = \langle Q \rangle$. Then, $(k, t) = (4, 1), (4, 2)$ or $(6, 4)$. (If $(k, t) = (4, 2)$, then F is of symplectic type.) For each $m \in Q$, the subgroup $H_m = \langle z \in Q : z \in m^\perp \rangle$ of M is of index 2 in M ([17], 4.2.4, p.68). The centralizer of H_m in M^1 is a subgroup $\langle \kappa_m^1 \rangle$ of M^1 of order 2. Then, $M^2 = \langle m\kappa_m^1 : m \in Q \rangle$ is an elementary abelian 2-subgroup of R of order 2^k intersecting each of M, M^1 and $Z(R)$ trivially. We set

$$\begin{aligned} Q^1 &= \{ \kappa_m^1 \in M^1 : m \in Q \}, \\ Q^2 &= \{ m\kappa_m^1 \in M^2 : m \in Q \}, \\ B^1 &= \{ \{ \kappa_a^1, \kappa_b^1, \kappa_c^1 \} : \{ a, b, c \} \in B \}, \\ B^2 &= \{ \{ a\kappa_a^1, b\kappa_b^1, c\kappa_c^1 \} : \{ a, b, c \} \in B \}. \end{aligned}$$

Then, $F^1 = (Q^1, B^1)$ and $F^2 = (Q^2, B^2)$ are $(2, t)$ -GQs in M^1 and M^2 , respectively. Now, take

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Q} &= Q \cup Q^1 \cup Q^2, \\ \mathbf{B} &= B \cup B^1 \cup B^2 \cup \{ \{ m, m\kappa_m^1, \kappa_m^1 \} : m \in Q \}. \end{aligned}$$

Then, $\mathbf{S} = (\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{B})$ is a partial linear space, isomorphic to $Q_4^+(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ if $(k, t) = (4, 1)$; $W_4(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ if $(k, t) = (4, 2)$; and $Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ if $(k, t) = (6, 4)$. Note that F, F^1 and F^2 are the only big quads in the last two cases. Thus we get non-abelian representation for $Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3, W_4(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$ and $Q_4^+(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$.

5.2. \mathbb{H}_3 and $DW_6(2)$. Let $R = 2_+^{1+8}$. Let F and F^1 be the symplectic $(2, 2)$ -GQs for $(k, t) = (4, 2)$ as in Subsection 5.1. The map $\sigma : Q \longrightarrow Q^1$ defined by $m \mapsto \kappa_m^1, m \in Q$, is an isomorphism from F to F^1 . We set

$$\mathcal{Q} = \{ mn^1 : m \in Q, n^1 \in Q^1, [m, n^1] = 1 \}.$$

We define collinearity in \mathcal{Q} . For distinct $m_1n_1^1, m_2n_2^1 \in \mathcal{Q}$ with $m_1, m_2 \in Q$ and $n_1^1, n_2^1 \in Q^1$, we say that $m_1n_1^1 \sim m_2n_2^1$ if and only if $[m_1, n_2^1] = [m_2, n_1^1] = 1$ and $(m_1m_2)(n_1^1n_2^1) \in \mathcal{Q}$. The second condition implies that $m_1 \neq m_2$ and $n_1^1 \neq n_2^1$. The line containing $m_1n_1^1$ and $m_2n_2^1$ is $\{ m_1n_1^1, m_2n_2^1, (m_1m_2)(n_1^1n_2^1) \}$. Let \mathcal{B} be the set of all such lines in \mathcal{Q} . Set

$$\mathbb{Q} = Q \cup Q^1 \cup \mathcal{Q}, \text{ and } \mathbb{B} = \mathcal{B} \cup \mathcal{B}^1,$$

where $\mathcal{B}^1 = \{ \{ m, mn^1, n^1 \} : mn^1 \in \mathcal{Q} \}$. Using the constructions of \mathbb{H}_3 and $DW_6(2)$ in Proposition 2.1, we now show that $\mathcal{F} = (\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{B}) \simeq \mathbb{H}_3$ and $\mathbb{F} = (\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{B}) \simeq DW_6(2)$, thus giving non-abelian representation for \mathbb{H}_3 and $DW_6(2)$.

Let $S = (P, L), S^1 = (P^1, L^1), \mathcal{S} = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}), \mathbb{S} = (\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{L})$ and the map π be as in Proposition 2.1. Let $\alpha : P \longrightarrow Q$ be an isomorphism from S to F and $\beta : P^1 \longrightarrow Q^1$ be the isomorphism from F^1 to Q^1 such that the following diagram commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P & \xrightarrow{\pi} & P^1 \\ \alpha \downarrow & & \downarrow \beta \\ Q & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & Q^1. \end{array}$$

Thus, $\beta(u^1) = \sigma\alpha\pi^{-1}(u^1)$, $u^1 \in P^1$. We show that, if $x \in P$ and $u^1 \in P^1$, then $(x, u^1) \in \mathcal{P}$ if and only if $\alpha(x)\beta(u^1) \in \mathcal{Q}$. First, assume that $(x, u^1) \in \mathcal{P}$ and $u \in P$ be such that $\pi(u) = u^1$. Since $(x, u^1) \in \mathcal{P}$, $x \in u^\perp$ and $\alpha(x) \in \alpha(u)^\perp$. This implies that $[\alpha(x), \sigma(\alpha(u))] = 1$, since $\kappa_{\alpha(u)}^1 = \sigma(\alpha(u))$. But $[\alpha(x), \sigma(\alpha(u))] = [\alpha(x), \sigma\alpha\pi^{-1}(u^1)] = [\alpha(x), \beta(u^1)]$. So $\alpha(x)\beta(u^1) \in \mathcal{Q}$. Reversing the argument we conclude that $(x, u^1) \in \mathcal{P}$ when $\alpha(x)\beta(u^1) \in \mathcal{Q}$.

Let the map $\rho : \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ be equal to α on P , β on P^1 and $\rho((x, u^1)) = \alpha(x)\beta(u^1)$ for $(x, u^1) \in \mathcal{P}$. Then, ρ induces a bijection from \mathcal{L} to \mathcal{B} and from \mathcal{L}^1 to \mathcal{B}^1 . For the injectivity on \mathcal{L} , we use the fact that if $\{u, v, w\}$ is either a line or a complete triad in Q or Q^1 , then $uvw = 1$ ([21], Proposition 3.5). So $\mathbb{S} \simeq \mathbb{F}$. Further, the restriction of ρ to \mathcal{P} is an isomorphism from \mathcal{S} to \mathcal{F} .

[If $m_1n_1^1$ and $m_2n_2^1$ are distinct points of \mathcal{Q} with $m_1, m_2 \in Q$ and $n_1^1, n_2^1 \in Q^1$, then the following hold:

- (1) $d(m_1n_1^1, m_2n_2^1) = 1$ if and only if $m_1 \neq m_2, n_1^1 \neq n_2^1$ and $[m_1, n_2^1] = [m_2, n_1^1] = 1$.
- (2) $d(m_1n_1^1, m_2n_2^1) = 2$ if and only if one of the following occur:
 - (i) $m_1 = m_2, n_1^1 \neq n_2^1$;
 - (ii) $m_1 \neq m_2, n_1^1 = n_2^1$;
 - (iii) $m_1 \neq m_2, n_1^1 \neq n_2^1$ and $[m_1, n_2^1] = [m_2, n_1^1] \neq 1$.
- (3) $d(m_1n_1^1, m_2n_2^1) = 3$ if and only if $m_1 \neq m_2, n_1^1 \neq n_2^1$ and one of the following occur:
 - (i) $[m_1, n_2^1] = 1$ and $[m_2, n_1^1] \neq 1$;
 - (ii) $[m_1, n_2^1] \neq 1$ and $[m_2, n_1^1] = 1$.

5.3. $Q_6^-(2) \otimes Q_6^-(2)$. Let $S = (P, L)$ be the near hexagon $Q_6^-(2) \otimes Q_6^-(2)$. We refer to ([4], p.363) for the description of the Fischer space on the set of the 18 big quads of S . This set partitions into two families \mathcal{F}_1 and \mathcal{F}_2 of size 9 each such that each \mathcal{F}_i defines a partition of the point set P of S . Let \mathcal{U}_i , $i = 1, 2$, be the partial linear space whose points are the big quads of \mathcal{F}_i ; every pair of distinct points of \mathcal{U}_i are collinear. Further, if Q_1 and Q_2 are two distinct points of \mathcal{U}_i , then the line containing them is $\{Q_1, Q_2, Q_3\}$, where $Q_3 = Q_1 * Q_2$ (Lemma 1.2(ii)). Then, \mathcal{U}_i is an affine plane of order 3.

Consider the affine plane \mathcal{U}_1 . Fix an affine line $\{Q_1, Q_2, Q_3\}$ in \mathcal{U}_1 . Then, $Y = Q_1 \cup Q_2 \cup Q_3$ is isomorphic to $Q_6^-(2) \times \mathbb{L}_3$. Fix an affine point Q in \mathcal{U}_1 such that $Q \cap Y$ is empty. Taking $\{i, j, k\} = \{1, 2, 3\}$, we make use of the notation and the results of Section 3 in the rest of this section.

Let $l = \{a, b, c\}$ be a line of S not contained in Y . If l meets Y at some point c , say, and is disjoint from Q , then exactly one of the lines aa_Q and bb_Q meet Y . If l

meets Q at some point and is disjoint from Y , then l corresponds to the affine line of \mathcal{U}_1 containing Q and parallel to $\{Q_1, Q_2, Q_3\}$. Further, if $x \in l \setminus (l \cap Q)$, then the line xx^i is disjoint from Q . Now, let l be disjoint from both Y and Q . Then l is contained in a point of \mathcal{U}_1 different from Q and Q_i , $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$; or it corresponds to the affine line of \mathcal{U}_1 not containing Q and parallel to $\{Q_1, Q_2, Q_3\}$. So, the lines aa_Q, bb_Q and cc_Q either meet Y or all have empty intersection with Y . In the first case, if $xx_Q \cap Y = \{x_Y\}$ for $x \in l$ and $l_Y = \{x_Y : x \in l\}$, then l_Y is a line of Q_i for some $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$; or $|l_Y \cap Q_i| = 1$ for each $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ (l_Y need not be a line in this case).

Lemma 5.1. *Let $l = \{a, b, c\}$ be a line of S disjoint from $Y \cup Q$ such that the line xx_Q meets Y at x_Y for each $x \in l$. Let $m, n \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, $m \neq n$.*

- (i) *If l is contained in a point of \mathcal{U}_1 , then $d(a^m, b^n) \leq 2$ or $d(a^m, b^n) = 3$ according as $l_Q \in T_Q$ or not.*
- (ii) *If l corresponds to the affine line of \mathcal{U}_1 not containing Q and parallel to $\{Q_1, Q_2, Q_3\}$, then $l_Q \notin T_Q$ and $d(a^m, b^n) = 3$.*

Proof. (i) Let $l_Y = \{a_Y, b_Y, c_Y\}$. Then, l_Y is a line of Q_i, Q_j or Q_k , say Q_i . (If K is the affine point of \mathcal{U}_1 containing l , then $Q_i = K * Q$.) Let $x \in l$. Then $x^i = x_Q^i = x_Y \in Q_i$, so $l^i = l_Q^i$. The line $l_x = \{x, x_Q, x_Y\}$ is disjoint from Q_j and Q_k . So $l_x^j = \{x^j, x_Q^j, z_{x_Y}^j = z_{x_Q}^j\}$ and $l_x^k = \{x^k, x_Q^k, z_{x_Y}^k = z_{x_Q}^k\}$ are lines of Q_j and Q_k respectively.

If $l_Q \in T_Q$, then $l_Q^j = \{x_Q^j, z_{x_Q}^j, z_{x_Q}^j\}$ by Lemma 3.4. Since $|l_Q^j \cap l_x^j| \geq 2$, we get $l_Q^j = l_x^j$. Thus $x^j \in l_Q^j$ for each $x \in l$ and so, $l^j = l_Q^j$. Similarly, $l^k = l_Q^k$. Now, Corollary 3.7 completes the proof of (i) in this case.

If $l_Q \notin T_Q$, then consider (3.4) for the line l_Q and the lines l_x^j and l_x^k above. Then, l_x^j and l_x^k are the lines corresponding to the x -column in $T_j^{l_Q}$ and $T_k^{l_Q}$, respectively. So $z_{x_Q}^j = x^j$ and $z_{x_Q}^k = x^k$ and (i) in this case follows from Corollary 3.7.

(ii) Here l_Y meets each of Q_i, Q_j and Q_k . We may assume that $a_Y \in Q_i$, $b_Y \in Q_j$ and $c_Y \in Q_k$. Then $a^i = a_Q^i = a_Y$, $b^j = b_Q^j = b_Y$ and $c^k = c_Q^k = c_Y$. Suppose that $l_Q \in T_Q$. Since $\tau_{ik}(l_Q^i) = l_Q^k$ (Lemma 3.4), we may assume that $b_Q^k \sim a_Q^i$ (see (3.3)). Then, $z_{a_Q^i}^j = c_Q^j$. The line $l_a = \{a, a_Q, a_Y = a_Q^i\}$ is disjoint from Q_j . So $l_a^j = \{a^j, a_Q^j, z_{a_Q^i}^j = c_Q^j\}$ is a line in Q_j . But $l_Q^j = \{a_Q^j, b^j = b_Q^j, c^j = c_Q^j\}$ is a line in Q_j , and so $a^j = b^j$, a contradiction to the fact that $\{a^j, b^j, c^j\}$ is a line in Q_j . So $l_Q \notin T_Q$. Since $a^i = a_Q^i, b^j = b_Q^j, c^k = c_Q^k$, (3.4) applied to the line l_Q together with Corollary 3.7 implies (ii). \square

Lemma 5.2. *Let x be a point in $P \setminus (Y \cup Q)$ such that the line xx_Q is disjoint from Y . Let $\zeta_{x_Q} = \{x_Q, a_x, b_x\} \in T_Q$ and $xx_Q = \{x, x_Q, y\}$. Then $\{(x^1, x^2, x^3), (y^1, y^2, y^3)\} = \{(a_x^1, a_x^2, a_x^3), (b_x^1, b_x^2, b_x^3)\}$.*

Proof. Let $l = xx_Q$. If $x^i \in \zeta_{x_Q}^i$, then $\zeta_{x_Q}^i = l^i$. By definition of ζ_{x_Q} and Lemma 3.4, $\tau_{ij}(\zeta_{x_Q}^i) = \zeta_{x_Q}^j$. So $z_{x^i}^j \in \zeta_{x_Q}^j$. Since $x^j \sim z_{x^i}^j$ and $x^j \sim x_Q^j$ in the line $\zeta_{x_Q}^j$, it follows that $x^j \in \zeta_{x_Q}^j$. So $l^i = x^i z_{x^i}^j$. Then, $\tau_{ij}(l^i) = l^j$ (Lemma 3.3(i)). So $l^j = \zeta_{x_Q}^j$ and the result follows (see (3.3)). Thus, it is enough we show that $x^i \in \zeta_{x_Q}^i$.

Suppose that $x^i \notin \zeta_{x_Q}^i$. Let $\bar{l} = \{x, x^i, w\}$ be the line xx^i of S . Then, \bar{l} is disjoint from Q . Consider the line $\bar{l}_Q = \{x_Q, (x^i)_Q, w_Q\}$ of Q . Since $(x^i)_Q \notin \zeta_{x_Q}$, $\bar{l}_Q \neq \zeta_{x_Q}$ and $\zeta_{x_Q} \cap \bar{l}_Q = \{x_Q\}$. The line ww_Q meets either Q_j or Q_k , say Q_k . Since \bar{l} is disjoint from both Q_j and Q_k , $\bar{l}^j = \{x^j, z_{x^i}^j, w^j\}$ and $\bar{l}^k = \{x^k, z_{x^i}^k, w^k = w_Q^k\}$ are lines of Q_j and Q_k , respectively. Applying Lemma 3.2(ii) to \bar{l} , we get $w^j \sim x^k$ and $w^k \sim x^j$.

Now, $d(x^k, x_Q) = d(x^k, x) + d(x, x_Q) = 2$ and $d(x^k, w_Q) = d(x^k, w^k) + d(w^k, w_Q) = 2$. So, $d(x^k, (x^i)_Q) = 1$. Again, $d(x^j, x_Q) = d(x^j, x) + d(x, x_Q) = 2$ and $d(x^j, w_Q) = d(x^j, w^k) + d(w^k, w_Q) = 2$ (since $w^k \sim x^j$). So, $d(x^j, (x^i)_Q) = 1$. Let $c = (x^i)_Q$. Then, $c^j = x^j$ and $c^k = x^k$. Now, $\bar{l}_Q^k = c^k w_Q^k = c^k w^k = c^k z_{x^j}^k = c^k z_{c^j}^k$. Applying Lemma 3.3(i) to \bar{l}_Q , we get $\tau_{kj}(\bar{l}_Q^k) = \bar{l}_Q^j$. So $\bar{l}_Q \in T_Q$ (see Lemma 3.4). But $\zeta_{x_Q} \in T_Q$ and $\zeta_{x_Q} \cap \bar{l}_Q = \{x_Q\}$. This leads to a contradiction to the fact that T_Q is a spread of Q (Corollary 3.6). So $x^i \in \zeta_{x_Q}^i$. \square

In view of Lemma 4.3, we prove the following.

Lemma 5.3. *Let $N = 2_-^{1+6}$ with $N' = \{1, \theta\}$ and let $I_2(N)$ be the set of involutions in N . There exists a map δ from Q to $I_2(N)$ satisfying the following:*

- (i) δ is one-one.
- (ii) For $x, y \in Q$, $[\delta(x), \delta(y)] = 1$ if and only if either $x = y$ or $x \sim y$.
- (iii) If $x, y \in Q$ and $x \sim y$, then

$$\delta(x * y) = \begin{cases} \delta(x)\delta(y) & \text{if } xy \in T_Q \\ \delta(x)\delta(y)\theta & \text{if } xy \notin T_Q \end{cases}.$$

Proof. We use the following model for Q ([17], 6.1.1, p.122): Let $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and $\Omega' = \{1', 2', 3', 4', 5', 6'\}$. A *factor* of Ω is a set of three pair-wise disjoint 2-subsets of Ω . Let \mathcal{E} be the set of all 2-subsets of Ω and \mathcal{F} be the set of all factors of Ω . Then, the point set of Q is $\mathcal{E} \cup \Omega \cup \Omega'$ and the line set is $\mathcal{F} \cup \{\{i, \{i, j\}, j'\} : 1 \leq i \neq j \leq 6\}$. We may assume that the spread T_Q of Q consists of the following lines:

$$\begin{aligned} l_1 &= \{\{1, 2\}, \{3, 4\}, \{5, 6\}\}; & l_2 &= \{\{1, 4\}, 1, 4'\}; & l_3 &= \{\{2, 6\}, 2, 6'\}; \\ l_4 &= \{\{1, 6\}, \{2, 4\}, \{3, 5\}\}; & l_5 &= \{\{1, 5\}, 1', 5\}; & l_6 &= \{\{2, 3\}, 2', 3\}; \\ l_7 &= \{\{1, 3\}, \{2, 5\}, \{4, 6\}\}; & l_8 &= \{\{3, 6\}, 3', 6\}; & l_9 &= \{\{4, 5\}, 4, 5'\}. \end{aligned}$$

We write N as a central product $N = \langle x_1, y_1 \rangle \circ \langle x_2, y_2 \rangle \circ Q_8$, where x_i, y_i are involutions, $\langle x_i, y_i \rangle$ is isomorphic to the dihedral group D_8 of order 8, and Q_8 is the quaternion group of order 8. Let $Q_8 = \{1, \theta, i, j, k, i^3, j^3, k^3\}$, where $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = \theta$, $ij = k$ and $ji = k^3 = k\theta$. We define $\delta : Q \rightarrow I_2(N)$ as follows:

$$\delta(l_1) = \{x_1, x_2, x_1 x_2\};$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\delta(l_2) &= \{x_1y_1y_2i, x_2y_2j, x_1x_2y_1k\theta\}; \\
\delta(l_3) &= \{x_1y_1i\theta, x_1x_2y_2k, x_2y_1y_2j\theta\}; \\
\delta(l_4) &= \{y_1, y_1y_2, y_2\}; \\
\delta(l_5) &= \{x_1x_2y_1i, x_2y_2k\theta, x_1y_1y_2j\}; \\
\delta(l_6) &= \{x_2y_1y_2i\theta, x_1x_2y_2j\theta, x_1y_1k\}; \\
\delta(l_7) &= \{x_1x_2y_1y_2\theta, x_2y_1\theta, x_1y_2\theta\}; \\
\delta(l_8) &= \{x_1x_2y_2i\theta, x_1y_1j\theta, x_2y_1y_2k\}; \\
\delta(l_9) &= \{x_2y_2i, x_1x_2y_1j, x_1y_1y_2k\theta\}.
\end{aligned}$$

Here, if $l_i = \{a, b, c\}$, then $\delta(l_i) = \{\delta(a), \delta(b), \delta(c)\}$ preserving the order. It can be verified that δ satisfies the conditions (i), (ii) and (iii) of the lemma. \square

Consider the map $\delta : Q \longrightarrow I_2(N)$ in Lemma 5.3. We now extend δ to $P \setminus Y$. For $x \in P \setminus (Y \cup Q)$, let $\zeta_{x_Q} = \{x_Q, a_x, b_x\} \in T_Q$. If the line xx_Q intersects Y , then we define $\delta(x) = \delta(x_Q)$. If xx_Q is disjoint from Y , let $(b_x^1, b_x^2, b_x^3) = (x^1, x^2, x^3)$ (see Lemma 5.2). In that case, we define $\delta(x) = \delta(a_x)$. That is; for $x \in P \setminus (Y \cup Q)$,

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} \delta(x_Q) & \text{if } xx_Q \text{ intersects } Y \\ \delta(a_x) & \text{if } xx_Q \cap Y \text{ is empty and } (x^1, x^2, x^3) = (b_x^1, b_x^2, b_x^3) \end{cases}.$$

We now construct a non-abelian representation of S . Let $R = 2_{-}^{1+18}$ with $R' = \{1, \theta\}$. We write R as a central product $R = M \circ N$, where $M = 2_{+}^{1+12}$ and N_{-}^{1+6} . Let (M, λ) be a non-abelian representation of Y (see Subsection 5.1). Define a map $\beta : P \longrightarrow R$ as follows:

$$\beta(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda(x) & \text{if } x \in Y \\ \lambda(z_{x_2}^1)\lambda(z_{x_1}^2)\delta(x) & \text{if } x \in P \setminus Y \end{cases}.$$

For $x \in P \setminus Y$, Lemma 3.1(i) implies that $d(z_{x_1}^2, z_{x_2}^1) = 2$. So $[\lambda(z_{x_2}^1), \lambda(z_{x_1}^2)] = 1$ and $\beta(x)$ is an involution.

Proposition 5.4. *(R, β) is a non-abelian representation of S .*

Proof. Only condition (ii) of Definition 1.1 needs to be verified. Let $l = \{u, v, w\}$ be a line of S . We assume that l is not contained in Y and that $l \cap Y = \{w\}$ if l intersects Y . We show that $\beta(u)\beta(v) = \beta(w)$. We have

$$(5.5) \quad \beta(u)\beta(v) = \lambda(z_{u_2}^1)\lambda(z_{v_2}^1)\lambda(z_{u_1}^2)\lambda(z_{v_1}^2)\delta(u)\delta(v)r',$$

where $r' = [\lambda(z_{u_1}^2), \lambda(z_{v_2}^1)] \in R'$.

Case (I) *Let l intersects Y at w .* Then Lemma 3.2 yields that $r' = 1$. If $w \in Q_1$, then $u^1 = v^1 = w$ and $\beta(u)\beta(v) = \lambda(z_{u_2}^1)\lambda(z_{v_2}^1)\delta(u)\delta(v) = \lambda(w)\delta(u)\delta(v)$. The last equality holds because $\{z_{u_2}^1, z_{v_2}^1, w\}$ is a line of Q_1 . Similarly, $\beta(u)\beta(v) = \lambda(w)\delta(u)\delta(v)$ if $w \in Q_2$. If $w \in Q_3$, then $\{z_{u_2}^1, z_{v_2}^1, z_w^1\}$ and $\{z_{u_1}^2, z_{v_1}^2, z_w^2\}$ are lines of Q_1 and Q_2 respectively. So, $\beta(u)\beta(v) = \lambda(z_w^1)\lambda(z_w^2)\delta(u)\delta(v) = \lambda(w)\delta(u)\delta(v)$. The last equality holds because $\{z_w^1, z_w^2, w\}$ is a line of Y . Since $\beta(w) = \lambda(w)$, we get $\beta(u)\beta(v) = \beta(w)\delta(u)\delta(v)$. Thus, we need to prove that $\delta(u) = \delta(v)$.

If l intersects Q , say $l \cap Q = \{v\}$, then $u_Q = v$ and so, $\delta(u) = \delta(v)$. Let $l \cap Q$ be empty. Exactly one of the lines uu_Q and vv_Q , say uu_Q , meets Y . So $\delta(u) = \delta(u_Q)$. Let $l_{v_Q} = \{v_Q, a_v, b_v\}$. By Lemma 5.2, we assume that $(v^1, v^2, v^3) = (b_v^1, b_v^2, b_v^3)$. Then $\delta(v) = \delta(a_v)$. Since $w \in \{v^1, v^2, v^3\}$, it follows that $b_v \sim w$. So $w_Q = b_v$ and $u_Q = a_v$. Thus, $\delta(u) = \delta(u_Q) = \delta(a_v) = \delta(v)$.

Case (II) Let l be disjoint from Y . Since $\{z_{u^2}^1, z_{v^2}^1, z_{w^2}^1\}$ and $\{z_{u^1}^2, z_{v^1}^2, z_{w^1}^2\}$ are lines of Q_1 and Q_2 respectively, we get $\beta(u)\beta(v) = \lambda(z_{w^2}^1)\lambda(z_{w^1}^2)\delta(u)\delta(v)r'$. To complete the proof, we need to show that either $r' = 1$ and $\delta(u)\delta(v) = \delta(w)$ or $r' = \theta$ and $\delta(u)\delta(v) = \delta(w)\theta$. This holds by Corollary 3.7 and Lemma 5.3(iii) if $l \subset Q$.

Assume that l intersects Q at a point, say w . Let $\zeta_w = \{w, a, b\} \in T_Q$. Applying Lemma 5.2, we get $\zeta_w^j = l^j$ in Q_j and $\{\delta(u), \delta(v)\} = \{\delta(a), \delta(b)\}$. This, together with $\zeta_w \in T_Q$, yields that $\delta(u)\delta(v) = \delta(w)$ (Lemma 5.3(iii)) and $r' = 1$ (Corollary 3.7).

Now, assume that $l \cap Q$ is empty. If the lines uu_Q , vv_Q and ww_Q meet Y , then Lemmas 5.1 and 5.3(iii) complete the proof. So, we may assume that none of uu_Q , vv_Q and ww_Q meet Y . First, let $l_Q \in T_Q$. Then $l_Q = \zeta_{u_Q} = \zeta_{v_Q} = \zeta_{w_Q}$. Applying Lemma 5.2 to the lines xx_Q , $x \in l$, it follows that $l_Q^j = l^j$ in Q_j and $(\delta(u), \delta(v), \delta(w)) = (\delta(w_Q), \delta(u_Q), \delta(v_Q))$ or $(\delta(v_Q), \delta(w_Q), \delta(u_Q))$. This implies that $\delta(u)\delta(v) = \delta(w)$ (Lemma 5.3(iii)) and $r' = 1$ (Corollary 3.7).

Now, let $l_Q \notin T_Q$. For $x \in l$, let $\zeta_{x_Q} = \{x_Q, a_x, b_x\}$. We may assume, by Lemma 5.2, that $(x^1, x^2, x^3) = (a_x^1, a_x^2, a_x^3)$. So, $\delta(x) = \delta(b_x)$. For distinct $x, y \in l$, $a_x^i = x^i \sim y^i = a_y^i$ in Q_i . Thus, $l_a = \{a_u, a_v, a_w\}$ and $l_b = \{b_u, b_v, b_w\}$ are lines of Q . Since $l_b \notin T_Q$, $\delta(u)\delta(v) = \delta(b_u)\delta(b_v) = \delta(b_w)\theta = \delta(w)\theta$. Again, $l_a \notin T_Q$ implies that $d(u^1, v^2) = d(a_u^1, a_v^2) = 3$ (Corollary 3.7) and so, $r' = \theta$. This completes the proof. \square

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