# A family of 2-arc transitive pentagraphs with unbounded valency 

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#### Abstract

We construct polygonal graphs on the points of a generalized polygon in general position with respect to a polarity.


## 1 Polygonal graphs

Let $(X, L, I)$ be a generalized $n$-gon with polarity $\sigma$. Let $Z$ be the set of points in general position with respect to $\sigma$, i.e., $Z=\left\{x \in X \mid d\left(x, x^{\sigma}\right) \geq n-1\right\}$, with distances measured in the point-line incidence graph $\Sigma$ of $(X, L, I)$. (Thus, if $n$ is even then $d\left(x, x^{\sigma}\right)=n-1$ and if $n$ is odd then $d\left(x, x^{\sigma}\right)=n$ for $x \in Z$.) Define a graph $\Gamma$ with vertex set $Z$ by letting distinct vertices $x, y \in Z$ be adjacent (notation $x \sim y$ ) when $x I y^{\sigma}$.

Theorem 1.1 If $n$ is odd, then $\Gamma$ has girth $g \geq n$ and each edge is contained in a unique $n$-gon. If $n$ is even, then $\Gamma$ has girth $g \geq n+1$ and each 2-path is contained in a unique $(n+1)$-gon.

Proof. Let us first collect information about the vertex set $Z$.
Step 1. If $x_{0} I x_{1}^{\sigma} I x_{2} I \ldots I x_{l-1} I x_{0}^{\sigma} I x_{1} I \ldots I x_{l-1}^{\sigma} I x_{0}$ is a self-polar $2 l$-circuit in $\Sigma$, and $l \leq n+1$, then $x_{i} \in Z(0 \leq i \leq l-1)$.
(Indeed, if $d_{\Sigma}\left(x_{i}, x_{i}^{\sigma}\right)=m$, then we find an $(m+l)$-circuit in $\Sigma$, so that $m+l \geq 2 n$.)

Step 2. If $n$ is even, and $x \in Z$, and $x I x_{1}^{\sigma} I \ldots I x_{n-2} I x^{\sigma}$ is the unique path of length $n-1$ joining $x$ to $x^{\sigma}$ in $\Sigma$, then $x_{i} \notin Z(1 \leq i \leq n-2)$.
(Indeed, applying $\sigma$ to this path, we find another path that must coincide with this path, so that $x_{i}^{\sigma}=x_{n-1-i}(1 \leq i \leq n-2)$.)

Now look at the graph $\Gamma$. Note that if $x \sim y \sim z$ in $\Gamma$, then $x I y^{\sigma} I z$ in $\Sigma$.
Step 3. $\Gamma$ does not have even circuits of length less than $2 n$ and no odd circuits of length less than $n$. In particular, if two vertices have distance less than $n$ in $\Gamma$, then there is a unique shortest path in $\Gamma$ joining them.
(Indeed, if $x_{0} \sim x_{1} \sim \ldots \sim x_{l-1} \sim x_{0}$ is an $l$-circuit in $\Gamma$, and $l$ is even, then $x_{0} I x_{1}^{\sigma} I x_{2} I \ldots I x_{l-1}^{\sigma} I x_{0}$ is an $l$-circuit in $\Sigma$, and it follows that $l \geq 2 n$. If $l$ is odd, then $x_{0} I x_{1}^{\sigma} I x_{2} I \ldots I x_{l-1} I x_{0}^{\sigma}$ is an $l$-path in $\Sigma$, and by Step 2 we have $l \geq n$.)

Step 4. If $n$ is odd, then each edge is contained in a unique $n$-gon.
(Indeed, if $n$ is odd, and $x y$ is an edge in $\Gamma$, then $d_{\Sigma}(x, y)=n-1$ and in $\Sigma$ there is a unique geodesic $x=x_{0} I x_{1}^{\sigma} I x_{2} I \ldots I x_{n-1}=y$ joining $x$ and $y$. This geodesic is part of the self-polar $2 n$-circuit

$$
x_{0} I x_{1}^{\sigma} I x_{2} I \ldots I x_{n-1} I x_{0}^{\sigma} I x_{1} I x_{2}^{\sigma} I \ldots I x_{n-1}^{\sigma} I x_{0}
$$

in $\Sigma$. Thus, by Step $1, x_{0} \sim x_{1} \sim \ldots \sim x_{n-1} \sim x_{0}$ is the unique $n$-gon on the edge $x y$ in $\Gamma$.)
Step 5. If $n$ is even, then each 2-path is contained in a unique $(n+1)$-gon.
(Indeed, if $x \sim y \sim z$ in $\Gamma$, then $d_{\Sigma}(x, y)=d_{\Sigma}(y, z)=n$ (since by Step 2 the unique point on $y^{\sigma}$ that has distance $n-2$ to $y$ is not in $\left.Z\right)$. Let $x=$ $x_{0} I x_{1}^{\sigma} I x_{2} I \ldots I x_{n-1}^{\sigma}=z^{\sigma}$ be the unique path of length $n-1$ in $\Sigma$ joining $x$ to $z^{\sigma}$. Then

$$
x_{0} I x_{1}^{\sigma} I x_{2} I \ldots I x_{n-1}^{\sigma} I y I x_{0}^{\sigma} I x_{1} I \ldots I x_{n-1} I y^{\sigma} I x_{0}
$$

is a self-polar $(2 n+2)$-circuit in $\Sigma$. Thus, by Step $1, x_{0} \sim x_{1} \sim \ldots \sim x_{n-1}=$ $z \sim y \sim x$ is the unique $(n+1)$-gon on the path $x \sim y \sim z$ in $\Gamma$.)

This completes the proof.
If $(X, L, I)$ is a $2 m$-gon, then $\Gamma$ is a single edge. If $(X, L, I)$ is a $(2 m+1)$-gon, then there are two possible polarities $\sigma$; for one choice of $\sigma$ the graph $\Gamma$ consists of a single vertex; for the other choice it is a $(2 m+1)$-gon itself.

## 2 Pentagraphs

Now let us specialize to the finite case $n=4$, i.e., let $(X, L, I)$ be a generalized quadrangle of order $q$ with a polarity $\sigma$. Then $2 q$ is a square, cf. Payne [4]. Examples exist when $q$ is an odd power of 2, cf. Tits [9]. We define the graph $\Gamma$ as before. As we shall see, $\Gamma$ is a pentagraph, that is, any 2-path in $\Gamma$ is contained in a unique pentagon. (For this concept, and other examples, and some theory, see Perkel [5, 6, 7, 8] and Ivanov [3].)

Theorem 2.1 $\Gamma$ is a pentagraph of valency $q$ on $q^{3}+q$ vertices, and has distance distribution diagram


Proof. Recall that a point or line is called absolute (for $\sigma$ ) if it is incident with its image (under $\sigma$ ). We shall use $\sim$ for adjacency in $\Gamma$, and $\perp$ for collinearity in $(X, L)$.
Step 1. Each line contains a unique absolute point, and, dually, each point is on a unique absolute line.
(Indeed, if $x$ is absolute, then $x^{\sigma}$ is the only absolute line on $x$, and if $x$ is not absolute then the unique line on $x$ meeting $x^{\sigma}$ is the only absolute line on $x$.
Step 2. The set $A$ of absolute points under $\sigma$ is an ovoid in $(X, L)$. The graph $\Gamma$ has $v=q\left(q^{2}+1\right)$ vertices.
(Indeed, each $l \in L$ meets $A$ in a unique point. It follows that $|A|=q^{2}+1$. But $|X|=(q+1)\left(q^{2}+1\right)$.)
Step 3. $\Gamma$ is regular of valency $q$, and does not contain triangles. Adjacent vertices are non-collinear.
(Indeed, the neighbours of $x$ are the $q$ nonabsolute points of $x^{\sigma}$.)
Step 4. $\Gamma$ does not have quadrangles, and any two vertices at distance 2 determine a unique pentagon. Two vertices have distance 2 if and only if they are collinear and the line joining them is non-absolute.
(Indeed, if $x \sim y \sim z$, then $x$ and $z$ are joined by the line $y^{\sigma}$. In particular, $y$ is the only common neighbour of $x$ and $z$. Let $z \perp p \in x^{\sigma}$. Then $p \notin A$ because the unique absolute point on $x^{\sigma}$ is collinear to $x$. Also the line $l=z p$ is not absolute because $z^{\sigma}$ passes through $y$ and $p \neq y$. It follows that $x \sim y \sim z \sim$ $l^{\sigma} \sim p \sim x$ is the unique pentagon on $x$ and $z$.)

Let us describe the distribution of vertices in $\Gamma$ around a vertex $x$. Let $m$ be the absolute line on $x$, and let $x^{\prime}=m^{\sigma}=x^{\sigma} \cap A$ be its absolute point. The vertex set of $\Gamma$ is partitioned into the following seven parts: $X_{0}=\{x\}$, $X_{1}=x^{\sigma} \backslash A, X_{2}=x^{\perp} \backslash(A \cup m), X_{5}=m \backslash(A \cup\{x\}), X_{4 a}=\left\{x^{\prime}\right\}^{\perp} \backslash\left(A \cup m \cup x^{\sigma}\right)$, $X_{4 b}=\left\{y \in X \backslash A \mid y \sim z \in X_{1}\right.$ and $y z$ is absolute $\}$, and $X_{3}$, consisting of the remaining points. Our aim is to show that $X_{i}$ consists of the vertices at distance $i$ from $x$ in $\Gamma$, where $X_{4 a}$ and $X_{4 b}$ are distinguished by the fact that points in $X_{4 a}$ have neighbours in $X_{5}$. (Note however that for $q=2$ we have $X_{3}=\emptyset$, and the graph $\Gamma$ is the disjoint union of two pentagons. If $p$ is in the relation $4 a$ to $x$, then $x$ is in relation $4 b$ to $p$, i.e., relations $4 a$ and $4 b$ are paired, while the remaining relations are self-paired.)

Step 5. We have $\left|X_{0}\right|=1,\left|X_{1}\right|=q,\left|X_{2}\right|=q(q-1),\left|X_{3}\right|=q(q-1)(q-2)$, $\left|X_{4 a}\right|=\left|X_{4 b}\right|=q(q-1),\left|X_{5}\right|=q-1$.
(Indeed, the claims are clear for $X_{i}$ with $i \leq 2$. The only vertices that do not have distance 2 to some vertex of $X_{1}$, are the vertices that either are collinear to the point $x^{\prime}=x^{\sigma} \cap A$ (i.e., are in $X_{4 a} \cup X_{5}$ ), or are joined to a vertex on $x^{\sigma}$ by an absolute line (i.e., are in $X_{4 b}$ ). The absolute line $m$ on $x$ contains $q$ vertices, $q-1$ other than $x$, and none of them is collinear to a point in $X_{0} \cup X_{1} \cup X_{2}$, so these vertices have distance at least 5 to $x$. The vertices adjacent to some vertex in $X_{5}$ are the $q(q-1)$ vertices of $X_{4 a}$. The vertices of $X_{3}$ are collinear to a unique vertex of $x^{\sigma}$, so this determines $\left|X_{3}\right|$.)
Step 6. Each vertex in $X_{3} \cup X_{4 b}$ has a unique neighbour in $X_{4 a}$.
(Indeed, let $p \in X_{3} \cup X_{4 a}$. Then $p^{\sigma}$ does not pass through $x^{\prime}$ (since $p \notin m$, i.e., $p \notin X_{0} \cup X_{5}$ ), so $x^{\prime}$ is collinear with a unique point $z \in p^{\sigma}$. The line $x^{\prime} z$ is not absolute (since $z \notin m$ because $p \notin X_{4 a} \cup X_{1}$ ) and the point $z$ is not absolute (since the line $x^{\prime} z$ contains only one absolute point), so $z$ is the unique neighbour of $p$ in $X_{1} \cup X_{4 a}$. Clearly $z \in X_{1}$ iff $p \in X_{2}$.)

This proves everything claimed in the diagram.
Now let us look at the special case where $q=2^{2 e}+1$ and $(X, L)$ is the $S p(4, q)$ generalized quadrangle. The centralizer in $S p(4, q)$ of the polarity $\sigma$ is the Suzuki group $S z(q)$ of order $\left(q^{2}+1\right) q^{2}(q-1)$. This group is 2 -transitive on the set $A$ of absolute points, and 2-arc transitive on the graph $\Gamma$ (cf. Tits [9], Th. 6.1). In this case we can be more precise about the stars in the diagram above.

Theorem 2.2 The graph $\Gamma$ is a 2-arc transitive pentagraph with distance distribution diagram


Proof. If $p$ and $x$ are two non-collinear points, then $\{p, x\}^{\perp}$ is a hyperbolic line that meets $A$ in either 0 or 2 points (since $A$ is an ovoid, and all tangents to $A$ are totally isotropic lines). We shall talk about secant and exterior hyperbolic lines.

Step 1. Each vertex in $X_{4 a} \cup X_{4 b}$ has a unique neighbour in $X_{4 b}$.
(Indeed, if $p \in X_{4 a}$ or $p \in X_{4 b}$, then $\{p, x\}^{\perp} \cap A$ contains the point $x^{\prime}$ (or $p^{\prime}$, respectively), so this hyperbolic line is a secant, and there are precisely $q-2$ points in $\Gamma$ at distance 2 from both $p$ and $x$.)

If $p \in X_{3}$, then $\{p, x\}^{\perp} \cap A$ contains either 0 or 2 points, so that $p$ has either 0 or 2 neighbours in $X_{4 b}$. Let us call the set of vertices of the former (latter) kind $X_{3 a}$ ( $X_{3 b}$, respectively).

Step 2. $X_{3 a}$ is the set of vertices $p$ such that the line $x p$ is exterior. We have $\left|X_{3 a}\right|=\left|X_{3 b}\right|=\frac{1}{2} q(q-1)(q-2)$.
(Indeed, the lines joining $x$ to a point of $X_{2} \cup X_{5}$ are the tangents (totally isotropic lines) on $x$, the lines joining $x$ to a point of $X_{1} \cup X_{3 b} \cup X_{4}$ are the exterior lines on $x$, and the lines joining $x$ to a point of $X_{3 a}$ are the secants on $x$. But $A$ has $\frac{1}{2} q^{2}\left(q^{2}+1\right)$ secants, and the same number of exterior lines. (In fact, $l$ is secant iff $l^{\perp}$ is exterior.))

The planes meet the set $A$ either in one point: tangent planes, or in an oval (having $q+1$ points): secant planes.
Step 3. If $p \in X_{2} \cup X_{3} \cup X_{4 a}$ then $p$ has $\frac{1}{2} q-1$ neighbours in $X_{3 a}$.
(Indeed, if $p \in X_{2} \cup X_{3} \cup X_{4 a}$, then $x \notin p^{\sigma}$, and the plane $\left\langle x, p^{\sigma}\right\rangle$ is a secant plane. In this plane, the point $x$ is on one tangent, and on $\frac{1}{2} q$ secants. One of these secants contains $p^{\prime}$; the remaining $\frac{1}{2} q-1$ contain each one neighbour of p.)

This determines the entire diagram.

Remark. The graph $\Gamma$, and the fact that it is 2-arc transitive for $S z(q)$, was found independently by Fang Xin Gui, a student of Cheryl Praeger.

Remark. Aut $\Gamma$ is not primitive: the spread $\left\{a^{\sigma} \mid a \in A\right\}$ is a system of blocks of imprimitivity. However, Aut $\Gamma$ acts 2 -transitively on the set of blocks, so that we do not find a nontrivial graph structure on the quotient.

Remark. Of course we also get finite heptagraphs (of valency $q=3^{2 e}+1$ ) starting from a generalized hexagon (of type $G_{2}(q)$ ) with a polarity.

## 3 Addendum

The above was written in April 1992. In the mean time, Xin Gui Fang \& C. E. Praeger [1, 2] appeared where the above graphs are found in the classification of certain 2-arc transitive graphs (and they refer to this work). As far as we know, the relation to generalized polygons with polarity still does not appear in the literature.

## References

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