

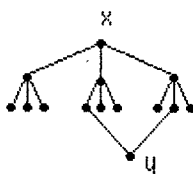
A brief survey of generalized polygons*

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Let $\Gamma=(V,E)$ be a finite connected graph (undirected, without loops and multiple edges). Let d be its diameter and g its girth (the size of a smallest circuit). Then $g \leq 2d$ (trivially; see below). In this survey we will consider the case $g=2d$ for bipartite graphs: existence, properties and characterizations of such graphs.

Fix $x \in V$. In the picture



the treelike aspect can cease only if $d(x,y) \geq g/2$. Thus, $d \geq g/2$. Moreover, if $d=g/2$ then Γ is "locally treelike".

Example. $g=2d$ for an ordinary $2d$ -gon.

Definition (Tits). A generalized d -gon is a connected bipartite graph of diameter d and girth $2d$ in which all vertices have degree >2 .

It is evident that generalized d -gons possess a certain amount of "combinatorial symmetry". Later we will discuss further symmetry imposed by the automorphism groups of certain of these graphs.

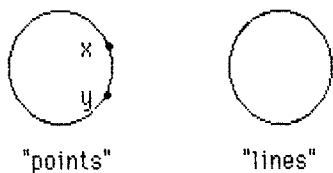
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Example. $d=2$.

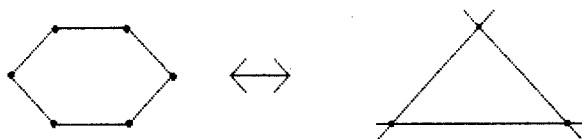


Here $d(x,y)$ is odd and $\leq d=2$. Thus, Γ is a complete bipartite graph. The converse is obvious.

Example. $d=3$.

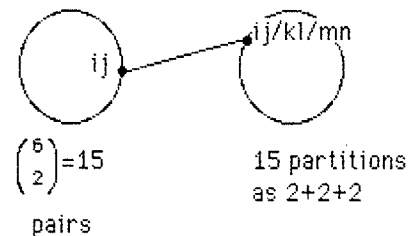


Call the members of the "halves" of Γ "points" and "lines". Since there are no circuits of length 4, two points are never both joined to two lines. Also, $d(x,y)$ is even and ≤ 3 . Thus, any two distinct points are joined to a unique line (and vice versa). It follows that generalized 3-gons are essentially the same as projective planes. Moreover, 6-gons in Γ correspond to triangles in the plane.



This translation from graph to point-line terminology occurs for all $d \geq 3$, and accounts for the name "generalized d -gon" -- in the sense that projective planes generalize ordinary triangles (3-gons).

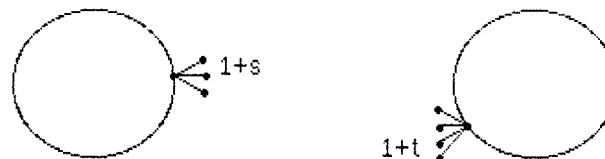
Example. $d=4$, all vertices of degree 3. Consider the set $\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$.



This picture defines a bipartite graph Γ with 30 vertices. Clearly, $S_6 \leq \text{Aut } \Gamma$. In fact, $\text{Aut } \Gamma = \text{Aut } S_6$ has elements interchanging the two "halves".

The last two examples were regular. Complete bipartite graphs are not quite regular.

Proposition. Γ is left and right regular:



for constants s and t depending only on whether a point is in the left or right half.

When $d=3$, $s=t$ is just the order of the projective plane. This is one of the reasons degrees are written in the above form ("1+s" rather than "k"). The proof of the proposition is not difficult, and relies on the fact that all degrees are >2 .

The main restriction on generalized polygons is the

Feit-Higman Theorem [5]. $d=2,3,4,6$ or 8 .

In addition, there are many restrictions on s and t , the foremost being as follows:

$d=6 \Rightarrow st$ is a square [5];

$d=8 \Rightarrow 2st$ is a square [5], so that Γ cannot be regular;

$d=4$ or $8 \Rightarrow t \leq s^2$ and $s \leq t^2$ [9];

$d=6 \Rightarrow t \leq s^3$ and $s \leq t^3$ [7].

The remaining types of restrictions when $d \geq 4$ are divisibility conditions satisfied by s and t . However, there is no Bruck-Ryser type of theorem known when $d \geq 4$.

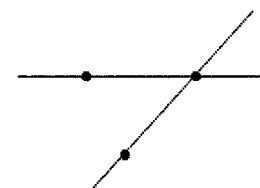
The list of KNOWN generalized d -gons ($d \geq 4$) is as follows (where q always denotes a power of a prime p).

d	s	t	KNOWN	Remarks
4	q	q	1 for each q ; many for even q [4, p. 304;14]	regular graph
4	$q+1$	$q-1$	" [1,8,14]	
4	q	q^2	≥ 1 per q	$t=s^2$
			many if $q=p^e > p$ is odd [12]	
			≥ 2 per odd $q > 3$ [10, 12; 6,18]	
			≥ 4 per $q=2^{2e+1} > 2$ [4, p. 304; 10, 15]	
4	q^3	q^2	1 per q	
6	q	q	1 per q	regular graph
6	q	q^3	1 per q	$t=s^3$
8	q	q^2	1 per $q=2^{2e+1}$	$t=s^2$

Note that s and t need not be prime powers in the second row of the table. When equality holds in the inequality $t \leq s^2$ or $t \leq s^3$, further combinatorial regularity can be deduced [3,9]; but such regularity is reasonably well understood only in the case $d=4$.

We next turn to symmetry imposed by automorphism groups.

Example. $d=3$. The "best" projective planes are the desarguesian ones, in which $\text{Aut } \Gamma$ is highly transitive. Namely, each such plane arises from a 3-dimensional vector space V , with points being 1-spaces, lines 2-spaces, and adjacency containment. Since $\text{GL}(V)$ is transitive on the set of bases of V , it is transitive on the set of figures

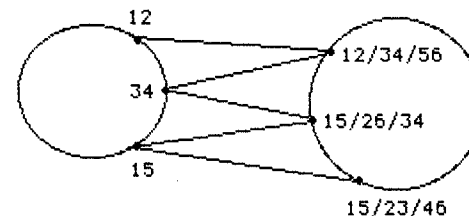


in the plane. Also, $V \cong V^*$ (the dual space), so that $\text{Aut } \Gamma$ interchanges points and lines. Thus, $\text{Aut } \Gamma$ is transitive on the set of figures



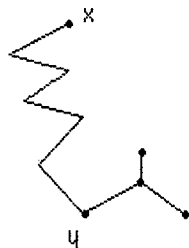
in the graph: it is 4-arc transitive.

Example. $d=4$, with 30 vertices as before. A typical 5-arc (path of length 5 without doubling back) is



It follows readily that this graph is 5-arc transitive.

Digression. How much arc-transitivity is allowed in any connected graph? Let d be the diameter, and let $d(x,y)=d$. The picture



shows that $d+1$ -arc transitivity is the best one can hope for. (Compare [2, p. 113].)

Snag: In the case of generalized d -gons, there exist 4-arc transitive generalized 3-gons, one per $s=t=q$, there exist 5-arc transitive generalized 4-gons $\Leftrightarrow s=t=2^e$ (one per e), there exist 7-arc transitive generalized 6-gons $\Leftrightarrow s=t=3^e$ (one per e). Thus, one cannot expect too much arc transitivity without severe additional consequences. This phenomenon is already evident in the following classical result (which is not specifically concerned with generalized polygons).

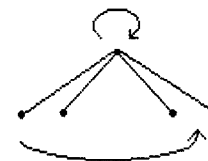
Theorem (Tutte [19; 2, p. 124]). If Γ is a trivalent ℓ -arc transitive graph then $\ell \leq 5$.

This theorem has been generalized as follows:

Theorem (Weiss [20]). If Γ is an ℓ -arc transitive graph that is not $\ell+1$ -arc transitive, and if its degree is $k \geq 3$, then the following all hold:

- $\ell \leq 5$ or $\ell = 7$;
- if $\ell \geq 4$ then $k-1$ is a prime power;
- if $\ell = 5$ then $k-1 = 2^e$ (for some e); and
- if $\ell = 7$ then $k-1 = 3^e$ (for some e).

Here, Γ need not be a generalized $\ell-1$ -gon. However, Weiss in a sense "embeds" a generalized $\ell-1$ -gon into Γ (which explains, to some extent, the restrictions occurring when $\ell=5$ or 7). The main part of his proof uses the classification of finite simple groups in the following manner. If $\ell \geq 2$ then $\text{Aut } \Gamma$ is transitive on 2-arcs. This implies that the stabilizer



of a vertex is 2-transitive on the set of adjacent vertices. Since all finite 2-transitive groups are now known, this provides the initial data for a clever argument.

The snag mentioned earlier concerning ℓ -arc transitivity of generalized polygons can be avoided by introducing the following extension. A LOCALLY ℓ -arc transitive graph is one in which, for each vertex x and each pair of ℓ -arcs starting at x , there is an automorphism



fixing x and sending the first ℓ -arc to the second one. However, now ℓ can be arbitrarily large, and hence d is no longer bounded. The study of special classes of locally ℓ -arc transitive graphs is an active research area in finite group theory.

The "nicest" locally ℓ -arc transitive graphs are generalized $\ell-1$ -gons. These have been characterized completely. For example, the only 4-arc transitive generalized 3-gons are the desarguesian projective planes. The complete list of all locally ℓ -arc transitive generalized $\ell-1$ -gons is as follows.

$d=l-1$	s	t	
3	q	q	one per q (=prime power)
4	q	q	-
4	q	q^2	-
4	q^3	q^2	-
6	q	q	-
6	q	q^3	-
8	q	q^2	one per $q=2^{2e+1}$

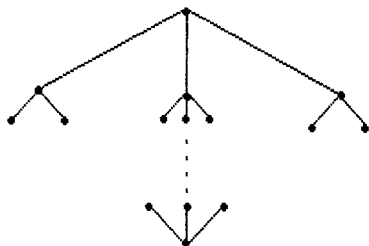
In each of the above generalized polygons, the full automorphism group is also the automorphism group of a finite simple group.

Conjecture. Every edge-transitive generalized d -gon ($d \geq 3$) is one of the above ones, with just two exceptions (due to Marshall Hall) having $d=4$, $s=3$, $t=5$ or $d=4$, $s=15$, $t=17$.

Other properties or occurrences of generalized polygons.

1. They occur as building blocks for tripartite, 4-partite, ..., graphs related to finite simple groups [11,13]. This is a very active area of research for both geometers and group theorists.

2. They arise as extremal regular graphs of given degree $k > 2$ and girth g . Namely, for such a graph the number of vertices is



$\geq 1 + k + k(k-1) + \dots + k(k-1)^{\frac{1}{2}g-2} + (k-1)^{\frac{1}{2}g-1}$. Equality holds iff the graph is a generalized $\frac{1}{2}g$ -gon [2, p.154].

3. Tanner has used them to construct codes [16] and expanders [17].

They provide good expanders: for any set Y of vertices,

$$(\# \text{ vertices joined to at least one member of } Y)/|Y|$$

is unusually large (see [17] for a precise statement). While this may not seem surprising in view of the tree-like nature of these graphs, the proof is matrix-theoretic, involving the eigenvalues of the adjacency matrix (using information occurring in the proof of the Feit-Higman Theorem).

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