# Near polygons having a big sub near polygon isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ 

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#### Abstract

In [7] a new infinite class $\mathbb{G}_{n}, n \geq 0$, of near polygons was defined. The near $2 n$-gon $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ has the property that it contains $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$ as a big geodetically closed sub near polygon. In this paper, we determine all near $2 n$-gons, $n \geq 4$, having $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$ as a big geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon under the additional assumption that every two points at distance 2 have at least two common neighbours. We will prove that such a near $2 n$-gon is isomorphic to either $\mathbb{G}_{n}, \mathbb{G}_{n-1} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{2}$, or $\mathbb{G}_{n-1} \times L$ for some line $L$.


## 1 Definitions and Overview

### 1.1 Basic definitions

A near polygon is a partial linear space $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathrm{I}), \mathrm{I} \subseteq \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{L}$, with the property that for every point $p \in \mathcal{P}$ and for every line $L \in \mathcal{L}$ there exists a unique point on $L$ nearest to $p$. Here distances $\mathrm{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ are measured in the collinearity graph. If $n$ is the maximal distance between two points, then the near polygon is called a near $2 n$ gon. A near 0 -gon consists of one point, a near 2 -gon is a line, and the class of near quadrangles coincides with the class of generalized quadrangles (GQ's) which were introduced by Tits in [10]. Near polygons themselves were introduced by Shult and Yanushka in [9] because of their relationship with certain line systems in Euclidean

[^0]spaces. Generalized $2 n$-gons ([11]) and dual polar spaces ([3]) form two important classes of near polygons.

A set $X$ of points in a near polygon $\mathcal{S}$ is called a subspace if every line meeting $X$ in at least two points is completely contained in $X$. A subspace $X$ is called geodetically closed if every point on a shortest path between two points of $X$ is as well contained in $X$. Having a subspace $X$, we can define a subgeometry $\mathcal{S}_{X}$ of $\mathcal{S}$ by considering only those points and lines of $\mathcal{S}$ which are completely contained in $X$. If $X$ is geodetically closed, then $\mathcal{S}_{X}$ clearly is a sub near polygon of $\mathcal{S}$. A geodetically closed sub near polygon $\mathcal{S}_{X} \neq \mathcal{S}$ is called big if every point outside $\mathcal{S}_{X}$ is collinear with a unique point of $\mathcal{S}_{X}$. If a geodetically closed sub near polygon $\mathcal{S}_{X}$ is a nondegenerate generalized quadrangle, then $X$ (and often also $\mathcal{S}_{X}$ ) will be called a quad. Sufficient conditions for the existence of quads were given in [9]. For every point $x$ of a near polygon $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}, x)$ denotes the incidence structure whose points, respectively lines, are the lines, respectively quads, through $x$ (natural incidence). $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}, x)$ is a partial linear space and called the local space at $x$. If $X$ is a set of points in a near polygon, then $\mathcal{C}(X)$ denotes the unique minimal geodetically closed sub near polygon through $X .(\mathcal{C}(X)$ is the intersection of all geodetically closed sub near polygons through $X$.) We call $\mathcal{C}(X)$ the geodetic closure of $X$. If $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{k}$ are sets of points, then $\mathcal{C}\left(X_{1} \cup \cdots \cup X_{k}\right)$ is also denoted by $\mathcal{C}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{k}\right)$. If one of the arguments of $\mathcal{C}$ is a singleton $\{x\}$, we will often omit the braces and write $\mathcal{C}(\cdots, x, \cdots)$ instead of $\mathcal{C}(\cdots,\{x\}, \cdots)$.

A near polygon is said to have order $(s, t)$ if every line is incident with exactly $s+1$ points and if every point is incident with exactly $t+1$ lines. A near polygon is called dense if every line is incident with at least three points and if every two points at distance 2 have at least two common neighbours. Dense near polygons satisfy several nice properties. By Lemma 19 of [2], every point of a dense near polygon $\mathcal{S}$ is incident with the same number of lines; we denote this number by $t_{\mathcal{S}}+1$. If $x$ and $y$ are two points of a dense near polygon, then by Theorem 4 of $[2], \mathcal{C}(x, y)$ is the unique geodetically closed sub near $[2 \cdot d(x, y)]$-gon through $x$ and $y$. Geodetically closed sub near hexagons of a dense near polygon are called hexes. All local spaces of a dense near polygon are linear spaces. For every point $x$ of a dense near $2 n$ gon, a rank $n-1$ geometry $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{S}, x)$ can be defined over the type set $\{1, \ldots, n-1\}$ whose $i$-objects are the geodetically closed sub near $2 i$-gons through $x$ and whose incidence relation is the symmetrized containment. The geometry $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{S}, x)$ is called the local geometry at $x$. For $n=3$ the notions of local space and local geometry are equivalent.

### 1.2 Overview

In [7] a new infinite class of dense near polygons was defined. The unique near $2 n$-gon, $n \geq 0$, of this class was denoted by $\mathbb{G}_{n}$. The near polygon $\mathbb{G}_{n}, n \geq 1$, has the nice property that it contains $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$ as a big geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon, see Lemma 12 of $[7]$. Also the near polygon $\mathbb{G}_{n-1} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{2}$ (see Section 2.7 ) and the direct products $\mathbb{G}_{n-1} \times L$ (see Section 2.1) have this property. The examination whether this property is sufficient to characterize these near polygons led to the main theorem of the present paper.

Main Theorem. Every near $2 n$-gon $\mathcal{S}$, $n \geq 4$, which satisfies
(A) every two points at distance 2 have at least two common neighbours,
(B) $\mathcal{S}$ has a big geodetically closed sub near polygon isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$,
is isomorphic to either $\mathbb{G}_{n}, \mathbb{G}_{n-1} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{2}$ or $\mathbb{G}_{n-1} \times L$ for some line $L$.
The proof of our Main Theorem (Section 4) relies on the classification of dense near hexagons with three points on each line ([1]). We recall this classification in Section 3. But first we will give some notions and results which we will need later.

## 2 Some notions and results regarding near polygons

### 2.1 Direct product

Let $\mathcal{S}_{1}=\left(\mathcal{P}_{1}, \mathcal{L}_{1}, \mathrm{I}_{1}\right)$ and $\mathcal{S}_{2}=\left(\mathcal{P}_{2}, \mathcal{L}_{2}, \mathrm{I}_{2}\right)$ be two near polygons. A new near polygon $\mathcal{S}=\left(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}\right.$, I) can be derived from $\mathcal{S}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{2}$. It is called the direct product of $\mathcal{S}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{2}$ and is denoted by $\mathcal{S}_{1} \times \mathcal{S}_{2}$. We have: $\mathcal{P}=\mathcal{P}_{1} \times \mathcal{P}_{2}, \mathcal{L}=\left(\mathcal{P}_{1} \times \mathcal{L}_{2}\right) \cup\left(\mathcal{L}_{1} \times \mathcal{P}_{2}\right)$, the point $(x, y)$ of $\mathcal{S}_{1} \times \mathcal{S}_{2}$ is incident with the line $(z, L) \in \mathcal{P}_{1} \times \mathcal{L}_{2}$ if and only if $x=z$ and $y \mathrm{I}_{2} L$, the point $(x, y)$ of $\mathcal{S}_{1} \times \mathcal{S}_{2}$ is incident with the line $(M, u) \in \mathcal{L}_{1} \times \mathcal{P}_{2}$ if and only if $x \mathrm{I}_{1} M$ and $y=u$. If $\mathcal{S}_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, is a near $2 n_{i}$-gon then the direct product $\mathcal{S}=\mathcal{S}_{1} \times \mathcal{S}_{2}$ is a near $2\left(n_{1}+n_{2}\right)$-gon. Since $\mathcal{S}_{1} \times \mathcal{S}_{2} \cong \mathcal{S}_{2} \times \mathcal{S}_{1}$ and $\left(\mathcal{S}_{1} \times \mathcal{S}_{2}\right) \times \mathcal{S}_{3} \cong \mathcal{S}_{1} \times\left(\mathcal{S}_{2} \times \mathcal{S}_{3}\right)$, also the direct product of $k \geq 3$ near polygons $\mathcal{S}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{S}_{k}$ is well-defined.

Theorem 1 (Theorem 1 of [2]) Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a near polygon with the property that every two points at distance 2 have at least two common neighbours. If $k \geq 2$ different line sizes occur in $\mathcal{S}$, then $\mathcal{S}$ is isomorphic to a direct product $\mathcal{S}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{S}_{k}$ of near polygons each of which has constant line size.

### 2.2 Big geodetically closed sub near polygons

Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a near $2 n$-gon. Recall that a geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon $\mathcal{F}$ of $\mathcal{S}$ is called big if every point $x$ outside $\mathcal{F}$ is collinear with a unique point $\pi(x)$ of $\mathcal{F}$. If $x \in \mathcal{F}$, then we put $\pi(x)$ equal to $x$. The map $\pi$ is called the projection on $\mathcal{F}$. Properties of big geodetically closed sub near polygons are given in the following lemmas.

Lemma 1 Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a big geodetically closed sub near polygon of $\mathcal{S}$. If $x$ is a point outside $\mathcal{F}$, then $d(x, y)=1+d(\pi(x), y)$ for every point $y \in \mathcal{F}$.

Proof. Since $\mathrm{d}(x, \pi(x))=1, \mathrm{~d}(\pi(x), y)-1 \leq \mathrm{d}(x, y) \leq \mathrm{d}(\pi(x), y)+1$. If $\mathrm{d}(x, y)=$ $\mathrm{d}(\pi(x), y)-1$ or $\mathrm{d}(x, y)=\mathrm{d}(\pi(x), y)$, then the unique point $z$ on the line $x \pi(x)$ nearest to $y$ satisfies $\mathrm{d}(y, z)=\mathrm{d}(y, \pi(x))-1$. Hence $z \in \mathcal{C}(\pi(x), y) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. Since $z, \pi(x) \in \mathcal{F}$, also the point $x$ of the line $z \pi(x)$ belongs to $\mathcal{F}$, a contradiction. Hence $\mathrm{d}(x, y)=1+\mathrm{d}(\pi(x), y)$.

Lemma 2 Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a big geodetically closed sub near polygon of $\mathcal{S}$. If $x$ and $y$ are two collinear points outside $\mathcal{F}$ such that $x y$ is disjoint with $\mathcal{F}$, then $d(\pi(x), \pi(y))=1$. For every line $L$ outside $\mathcal{F}, \pi(L):=\{\pi(x) \mid x \mathrm{I} L\}$ is a line of $\mathcal{F}$.

Proof. Since $x y$ is disjoint with $\mathcal{F}, \mathrm{d}(x, \pi(y))=2$. Hence $\mathrm{d}(\pi(x), \pi(y))=1$ by Lemma 1. Since $\pi(L)$ is a set of mutually collinear points, there exists a line $L^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{F}$ containing $\pi(L)$. Suppose that there exists a point $z \in L^{\prime} \backslash \pi(L)$, then $z$ has distance 2 to at least two points of $L$. Hence $z$ is collinear with a unique point $z^{\prime}$ of $L$, contradicting $z \notin \pi(L)$. As a consequence $L^{\prime}=\pi(L)$.

Lemma 3 Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a big geodetically closed sub near polygon of $\mathcal{S}$. If $x$ and $y$ are two points outside $\mathcal{F}$ such that $\mathcal{C}(x, y)$ is disjoint with $\mathcal{F}$, then $d(x, y)=$ $d(\pi(x), \pi(y))$.

Proof. Every shortest path between $x$ and $y$ projects to a path of length $\mathrm{d}(x, y)$ between $\pi(x)$ and $\pi(y)$. Hence $\mathrm{d}(x, y)-2 \leq \mathrm{d}(\pi(x), \pi(y)) \leq \mathrm{d}(x, y)$. If $\mathrm{d}(x, y)-$ $2=\mathrm{d}(\pi(x), \pi(y))$ or $\mathrm{d}(x, y)-1=\mathrm{d}(\pi(x), \pi(y))$, then $\mathrm{d}(x, \pi(y)) \leq \mathrm{d}(x, y)$. Hence there exists a unique point $z$ on the line $y \pi(y)$ at distance $\mathrm{d}(x, y)-1$ from $x$. Now $z \in \mathcal{C}(x, y)$ since there exists a shortest path between $x$ and $y$ containing $z$. Since $z, y \in \mathcal{C}(x, y)$, also $\pi(y) \in \mathcal{C}(x, y)$, contradicting our assumption. Hence $\mathrm{d}(x, y)=\mathrm{d}(\pi(x), \pi(y))$.

By Lemmas 2 and 3, we then have:
Corollary 1 Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a big geodetically closed sub near polygon of $\mathcal{S}$. Then every geodetically closed sub near polygon $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ disjoint with $\mathcal{F}$ projects to a (not necessarily geodetically closed) sub near polygon $\pi\left(\mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)$ of $\mathcal{F}$ isomorphic to $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$. Moreover, this projection preserves the distances.

Lemma 4 (Lemma 4.5 of [1]) If $\mathcal{F}$ is a big geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$ gon of a dense near $2 n$-gon $\mathcal{S}$, $n \geq 2$, then the following are equivalent:
(a) $\mathcal{S} \cong \mathcal{F} \times L ;$
(b) $t_{\mathcal{S}}=t_{\mathcal{F}}+1$;
(c) every quad meeting $\mathcal{F}$ in a line is a grid.

Lemma 5 Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a dense near polygon, let $\mathcal{F}$ be a big geodetically closed sub near polygon of $\mathcal{S}$ and let $x$ be an arbitrary point of $\mathcal{F}$. Then every geodetically closed sub near polygon $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ through $x$ either is contained in $\mathcal{F}$ or intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a big geodetically closed sub near polygon of $\mathcal{F}$ '

Proof. Suppose that $\mathcal{F}^{\prime} \nsubseteq \mathcal{F}$. Clearly $\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ is geodetically closed. If $y$ is a point of $\mathcal{F}^{\prime} \backslash \mathcal{F}$, then $y$ is collinear with a unique point $\pi(y)$ of $\mathcal{F}$. By Lemma $1, \pi(y)$ lies on a shortest path between $y$ and $x$. Hence $\pi(y) \in \mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}$. This proves that $\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ is big in $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$.

Lemma 6 (Lemma 5 of [6]) Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a dense near $2 n$-gon, $n \geq 2$, let $\mathcal{F}$ denote a geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon of $\mathcal{S}$ and let $x$ denote an arbitrary point of $\mathcal{F}$. Then $\mathcal{F}$ is big in $\mathcal{S}$ if and only if every quad through $x$ either is contained in $\mathcal{F}$ or intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a line.

Lemma 7 For each $i \in\{1,2\}$, let $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ be a dense near polygon, let $\mathcal{F}_{i}$ be a big geodetically closed sub near polygon of $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ and let $x_{i}$ be a point of $\mathcal{F}_{i}$. Suppose that there exists an isomorphism $\phi$ from $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ to $\mathcal{F}_{2}$ mapping $x_{1}$ to $x_{2}$ and a bijection $\theta$ from the set of lines of $\mathcal{S}_{1}$ through $x_{1}$ to the set of lines of $\mathcal{S}_{2}$ through $x_{2}$ such that the following holds for all lines $K, L$ and $M$ through $x_{1}$ :
(a) if $K$ is contained in $\mathcal{F}_{1}$, then $\theta(K)=\phi(K)$;
(b) $K, L$ and $M$ are contained in a quad if and only if $\theta(K), \theta(L)$ and $\theta(M)$ are contained in a quad.

Then $\mathcal{G}\left(\mathcal{S}_{1}, x\right) \cong \mathcal{G}\left(\mathcal{S}_{2}, x_{2}\right)$.
Proof. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a geodetically closed sub near polygon of $\mathcal{S}_{1}$ through $x_{1}$. If $\mathcal{A}$ is contained in $\mathcal{F}_{1}$, then we define $\mu(\mathcal{A}):=\phi(\mathcal{A})$. If $\mathcal{A}$ is not contained in $\mathcal{F}_{1}$, then we define $\mu(\mathcal{A})=\mathcal{C}\left(\theta(K), \phi\left(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{F}_{1}\right)\right)$ where $K$ is any line of $\mathcal{A}$ through $x_{1}$ not contained in $\mathcal{F}_{1}$. This is a good definition. If $K^{\prime}$ is another line with this property, then $K, K^{\prime}$ and $\mathcal{C}\left(K, K^{\prime}\right) \cap \mathcal{F}_{1}$ are contained in the same quad. By (a) and (b) also $\theta(K), \theta\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ and $\phi\left(\mathcal{C}\left(K, K^{\prime}\right) \cap \mathcal{F}_{1}\right)$ are in the same quad and since $\phi\left(\mathcal{C}\left(K, K^{\prime}\right) \cap \mathcal{F}_{1}\right) \subseteq \phi\left(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{F}_{1}\right)$, $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta(K), \phi\left(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{F}_{1}\right)\right)=\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(K^{\prime}\right), \phi\left(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{F}_{1}\right)\right)$. If $\mathcal{A}$ is a near $2 i$-gon, $i \in\{1, \ldots, n-1\}$, then also $\mu(\mathcal{A})$ is a near $2 i$-gon. Clearly, $\mu$ is an incidence preserving bijection between the set of objects of $\mathcal{G}\left(\mathcal{S}_{1}, x\right)$ and the set of objects of $\mathcal{G}\left(\mathcal{S}_{2}, x_{2}\right)$.

Suppose now that every line of $\mathcal{S}$ is incident with exactly three points. For every big geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon $\mathcal{F}$ of $\mathcal{S}$, we can then define the following permutation $\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{F}}$ on the point set of $\mathcal{S}$ : if $x \in \mathcal{F}$, then we put $\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{F}}(x):=x$; if $x \notin \mathcal{F}$, then we put $\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)$ equal to unique third point of the line $x \pi(x)$. By Section 4 of [1], $\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{F}}$ is an automorphism of order 2 of $\mathcal{S}$. We call $\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{F}}$ the reflection about $\mathcal{F}$.

### 2.3 GQ's with three points on every line

If $\mathcal{S}$ is a generalized quadrangle with only lines of size 3, then one of the following possibilities occurs, see e.g. [8].

- $\mathcal{S}$ is degenerate: $\mathcal{S}$ consists of $k \geq 2$ lines of size 3 through a point.
- $\mathcal{S}$ is isomorphic to the $(3 \times 3)$-grid, i.e. to the direct product of two lines of size 3 . The $(3 \times 3)$-grid has order $(2,1)$.
- $\mathcal{S}$ is isomorphic to $W(2)$ : the points and lines of $W(2)$ are the totally isotropic points and lines of a symplectic polarity in $\operatorname{PG}(3,2)$. The generalized quadrangle $W(2)$ has order $(2,2)$, or shortly order 2 .
- $\mathcal{S}$ is isomorphic to $Q(5,2)$ : the points and lines of $Q(5,2)$ are the points and lines lying on a nonsingular elliptic quadric in $\operatorname{PG}(5,2)$. The generalized quadrangle $Q(5,2)$ has order $(2,4)$.

In the sequel, a quad which is isomorphic to a grid, $W(2)$ or $Q(5,2)$ will be called a grid-quad, a $W(2)$-quad or a $Q(5,2)$-quad, respectively.

### 2.4 The point-quad relation

If $(x, \mathcal{Q})$ is a point-quad pair of a near polygon $\mathcal{S}$, then one of the following possibilities occurs, see Proposition 2.6 of [9].
(i) There exists a unique point $x^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{Q}$ nearest to $x$ and $\mathrm{d}(x, y)=\mathrm{d}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ for every point $y \in \mathcal{Q}$. In this case the pair $(x, \mathcal{Q})$ is called classical.
(ii) The points in $\mathcal{Q}$ nearest to $x$ form an ovoid of $\mathcal{Q}$, i.e. a set of points of $\mathcal{Q}$ intersecting each line in exactly on point. In this case the pair $(x, \mathcal{Q})$ is called ovoidal.
(iii) $\mathcal{Q}$ is thin and can be regarded as a complete bipartite graph. The set of points in $\mathcal{Q}$ nearest to $x$ is a proper subset of size at least two of one of the two ovoids of $\mathcal{Q}$. In this case the pair $(x, \mathcal{Q})$ is called thin-ovoidal.

Lemma 8 Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a dense near $2 n$-gon with a $Q(5,2)$-quad $\mathcal{Q}$. If $\mathcal{F}$ is a geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon of $\mathcal{S}$, then one of the following possibilities occurs:
(a) $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{Q}$ are disjoint;
(b) $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{Q}$ intersect in a line;
(c) $\mathcal{Q} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$.

Proof. Suppose that $\mathcal{Q}$ and $\mathcal{F}$ have a point $x$ in common. Since $\mathcal{F}$ is dense, it contains a point $y$ at maximal distance $n-1$ from $x$, see e.g. [2]. Since $Q(5,2)$ has no ovoids, see e.g. Theorem 3.4.1 of [8], the pair $(y, \mathcal{Q})$ must be classical. If $y^{\prime}$ denotes the unique point of $\mathcal{Q}$ nearest to $y$, then $\mathrm{d}(y, z)=\mathrm{d}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(y^{\prime}, z\right)$ for every point $z$ of $\mathcal{Q}$ and hence $\mathrm{d}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right) \leq n-2$. Since $\mathrm{d}(y, x)=n-1, y^{\prime} \neq x$. Since $\mathrm{d}(y, x)=\mathrm{d}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(y^{\prime}, x\right), y^{\prime} \in \mathcal{C}(x, y)$ and hence $\mathcal{C}\left(x, y^{\prime}\right) \subseteq \mathcal{C}(x, y)=\mathcal{F}$. Since $x \neq y^{\prime}, \mathcal{C}\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$ is either $\mathcal{Q}$ or a line of $\mathcal{Q}$. This proves our lemma.

### 2.5 Admissible spreads in near polygons

For two lines $K$ and $L$ of a near polygon, let $\mathrm{d}(K, L)$ denote the minimal distance between a point of $K$ and a point of $L$. By Lemma 1 of [2], one of the following possibilities occurs:
(a) there exist unique points $k \in K$ and $l \in L$ such that $\mathrm{d}(K, L)=\mathrm{d}(k, l)$;
(b) for every point $k \in K$ there exists a unique point $l \in L$ such that $\mathrm{d}(K, L)=$ $\mathrm{d}(k, l)$.

If condition (b) is satisfied, then $K$ and $L$ are called parallel. A spread of a near polygon is a set of lines partitioning the point set. A spread is called admissible if every two lines of it are parallel. Clearly, every spread of a generalized quadrangle is admissible.

### 2.6 The near polygons $\mathbb{G}_{n}$

Let the vector space $V(2 n, 4), n \geq 1$, with base $B=\left\{\bar{e}_{0}, \ldots, \bar{e}_{2 n-1}\right\}$ be equipped with the nonsingular Hermitian form $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})=x_{0} y_{0}^{2}+x_{1} y_{1}^{2}+\ldots+x_{2 n-1} y_{2 n-1}^{2}$, let $H=H(2 n-1,4)$ denote the corresponding Hermitian variety in $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1,4)$, and let $\zeta$ denote the Hermitian polarity associated with $H$. For every vector $\bar{x}$ of $V(2 n, 4)$, we have $\bar{x}=\sum\left(\bar{x}, \bar{e}_{i}\right) \bar{e}_{i}$. The support $S_{p}$ of a point $p=\langle\bar{x}\rangle$ of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1,4)$ is the set of all $i \in\{0, \ldots, 2 n-1\}$ for which $\left(\bar{x}, \bar{e}_{i}\right) \neq 0$. The number $\left|S_{p}\right|$ is called the weight of $p$ and is equal to the number of nonzero coordinates. A point of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1,4)$ belongs to $H$ if and only if its weight is even. A subspace $\pi$ on $H$ is said to be good if it is generated by a (possibly empty) set $\mathcal{G}_{\pi} \subseteq H$ of points whose supports are two by two disjoint. If $\pi$ is good, then $\mathcal{G}_{\pi}$ is uniquely determined. Let $Y$, respectively $Y^{\prime}$, denote the set of all good subspaces of dimension $n-1$, respectively $n-2$. With I denoting the reverse containment, we then can define an incidence structure $\mathbb{G}_{n}=\left(Y, Y^{\prime}, \mathrm{I}\right)$. In [7] it was shown that $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ is a dense near $2 n$-gon of order ( $2, \frac{3 n^{2}-n-2}{2}$ ) containing $\frac{3^{n} \cdot(2 n)!}{2^{n \cdot n}!}$ points. The near polygon $\mathbb{G}_{1}$ is the line of size 3 and $\mathbb{G}_{2}$ is the generalized quadrangle $Q(5,2)$. We recall some properties of $\mathbb{G}_{n}, n \geq 3$, see [7] for proofs.

- The near polygon $\mathbb{G}_{n}, n \geq 3$, has grid-quads, $W(2)$-quads and $Q(5,2)$-quads.
- The automorphism group of $\mathbb{G}_{n}, n \geq 3$, acts transitively on the set of points. Hence, there exists a linear space $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right)$ and a rank $n-1$ geometry $\mathcal{G}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right)$ such that $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}, x\right) \cong \mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right)$ and $\mathcal{G}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}, x\right) \cong \mathcal{G}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right)$ for every point $x$ of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$.
- The automorphism group $\operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right), n \geq 3$, has two orbits on the set of lines: the set of so-called special lines and the set of ordinary lines.
- Each point of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ is contained in $n$ special lines and $3 \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ ordinary lines. Each special line of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ is contained in $n-1 Q(5,2)$-quads, $0 W(2)$-quads and $3 \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}$ grid-quads. Each ordinary line of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ is contained in a unique $Q(5,2)$-quad, $3(n-2) W(2)$-quads and $3 \frac{(n-2)(3 n-7)}{2}$ grid-quads.
- If $L_{1}, \ldots, L_{k}$, are $k \geq 1$ special lines through a fixed point, then $\mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}, \ldots, L_{k}\right) \cong$ $\mathbb{G}_{k}$. Conversely, if $\mathcal{F}$ is a geodetically closed sub near polygon of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{k}, k \geq 2$, and if $x$ is an arbitrary point of $\mathcal{F}$, then precisely $k$ from the $n$ special lines through $x$ are contained in $\mathcal{F}$.
- $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ has big geodetically closed sub near polygons isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$ and every big geodetically closed sub near polygon of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$.
- For every $i \in\{0, \ldots, 2 n-1\}$, the set $B_{i}$ of those good subspaces of $Y^{\prime}$ which are contained in $\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}\right\rangle^{\zeta}$ is an admissible spread of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$. Conversely, every admissible spread of $\mathbb{G}_{n}, n \geq 3$, is of this form. The admissible spreads $B_{i}, i \in\{0, \ldots, 2 n-$ $1\}$, are precisely those spreads $S$ of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ which satisfy the following properties: (C1) every line of $S$ is special, (C2) if a grid-quad $\mathcal{Q}$ of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ contains one line of $S$, then it contains precisely 3 lines of $S$.


### 2.7 Glued near polygons

By "glueing" near polygons it is possible to derive new near polygons. This procedure was described in [4] for generalized quadrangles and in [5] for the general case. We recall the construction.

Let $\mathcal{A}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{A}_{2}$ be two near polygons both with constant line size $s+1$, and suppose that their respective diameters $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$ are at least 2 . Let $S_{i}=\left\{L_{1}^{(i)}, \ldots, L_{\alpha_{i}}^{(i)}\right\}$, $i \in\{1,2\}$, be an admissible spread of $\mathcal{A}_{i}$. In $S_{i}$, a special line $L_{1}^{(i)}$ is chosen which we will call the base line. For every $i \in\{1,2\}$, for all $j, k \in\left\{1, \ldots, \alpha_{i}\right\}$ and for every $x \in L_{j}^{(i)}$, let $p_{j, k}^{(i)}(x)$ denote the unique point $L_{k}^{(i)}$ nearest to $x$. We put $\Phi_{j, k}^{(i)}:=p_{k, 1}^{(i)} \circ p_{j, k}^{(i)} \circ p_{1, j}^{(i)}$. For every $i \in\{1,2\}$, the group $\Pi_{S_{i}}\left(L_{1}^{(i)}\right):=\left\langle\Phi_{j, k}^{(i)} \mid 1 \leq j, k \leq \alpha_{i}\right\rangle$ is called the group of projectivities of $L_{1}^{(i)}$ with respect to $S_{i}$.

For every bijection $\theta$ between $L_{1}^{(1)}$ and $L_{1}^{(2)}$, we consider the following graph $\Gamma$ with vertex set $L_{1}^{(1)} \times S_{1} \times S_{2}$. Two vertices $\left(x, L_{i_{1}}^{(1)}, L_{j_{1}}^{(2)}\right)$ and $\left(y, L_{i_{2}}^{(1)}, L_{j_{2}}^{(2)}\right)$ are adjacent if and only if exactly one of the following three conditions is satisfied:
(A) $L_{i_{1}}^{(1)}=L_{i_{2}}^{(1)}, L_{j_{1}}^{(2)}=L_{j_{2}}^{(2)}$ and $x \neq y$;
(B) $L_{j_{1}}^{(2)}=L_{j_{2}}^{(2)}, \mathrm{d}\left(L_{i_{1}}^{(1)}, L_{i_{2}}^{(1)}\right)=1$ and $\Phi_{i_{1}, i_{2}}^{(1)}(x)=y$;
(C) $L_{i_{1}}^{(1)}=L_{i_{2}}^{(1)}, \mathrm{d}\left(L_{j_{1}}^{(2)}, L_{j_{2}}^{(2)}\right)=1$ and $\Phi_{j_{1}, j_{2}}^{(2)} \circ \theta(x)=\theta(y)$.

By [5], the graph $\Gamma$ has diameter $d_{1}+d_{2}-1$ and every two adjacent vertices are contained in a unique maximal clique. Considering these maximal cliques as lines, we obtain a partial linear space $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$. If $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$ is a near polygon, then it is called a glued near polygon. This happens precisely when the condition in the following theorem is satisfied.

Theorem 2 (Theorem 14 of [5]) The partial linear space $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$ is a glued near polygon if and only if the commutator $\left[\Pi_{S_{1}}\left(L_{1}^{(1)}\right), \theta^{-1} \Pi_{S_{2}}\left(L_{1}^{(2)}\right) \theta\right]$ is the trivial group of permutations of $L_{1}^{(1)}$.

Let us also mention the following result from [7].
Theorem 3 (Corollary 4 of [7]) For all positive integers $m, n \geq 2$, there exists a unique glued near polygon of the form $\mathbb{G}_{m} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{n}$.

## 3 Dense near hexagons with three points on each line

A near hexagon of order $(s, t)$ is said to have parameters $\left(s, t, T_{2}\right)$ if $T_{2}=\left\{t_{2}(x, y) \mid\right.$ $\mathrm{d}(x, y)=2\}$. Here $t_{2}(x, y)+1$ denotes the number of common neighbours of $x$ and $y$. If $s \geq 2$ and $0 \notin T_{2}$, then the near hexagon is dense. If there is a unique near hexagon with parameters $\left(s, t, T_{2}\right)$, then we will denote it by $\mathbf{N H}\left(s, t, T_{2}\right)$.

Theorem 4 ([1]) There are 11 dense near hexagons $\mathcal{S}$ with three points on each line. Each of these near hexagons is uniquely determined by its parameters:

| $\mathcal{S}$ | big quads | other quads | local spaces |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,2,\{1\})$ | grid | - | $C_{2,2}$ |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,3,\{1,2\})$ | grid, $W(2)$ | - | $C_{2,3}$ |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,5,\{1,4\})$ | grid, $Q(5,2)$ | - | $C_{2,5}$ |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,5,\{1,2\})$ | $W(2)$ | grid | $\mathrm{PG}(2,2)^{-}$ |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,6,\{2\})$ | $W(2)$ | - | $\mathrm{PG}(2,2)$ |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,8,\{1,4\})$ | $Q(5,2)$ | grid | $C_{5,5}$ |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,11,\{1,2,4\})$ | $Q(5,2)$ | grid, $W(2)$ | $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{3}\right)$ |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,11,\{1\})$ | - | grid | $K_{12}$ |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,14,\{2\})$ | - | $W(2)$ | $\mathrm{PG}(3,2)$ |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,14,\{2,4\})$ | $Q(5,2)$ | $W(2)$ | $W(2)^{+}$ |
| $\mathbf{N H}(2,20,\{4\})$ | $Q(5,2)$ | - | $\mathrm{PG}(2,4)$ |

We now define some of the above-mentioned linear spaces: (i) the $(h, k)$-cross $C_{h, k}$ is the unique linear space on $h+k-1$ vertices containing a line of length $h$ and a line of length $k$ which intersect in a point; all other lines have size 2 , (ii) $\mathrm{PG}(2,2)^{-}$is the linear space obtained from $\operatorname{PG}(2,2)$ by deleting a point, (iii) $K_{12}$ is the complete graph on 12 vertices, (iv) $W(2)^{+}$is the linear space obtained from $W(2)$ by regarding the 6 ovoids of $W(2)$ also as lines. (Notice that any two noncollinear points of $W(2)$ are contained in a unique ovoid.) The linear space $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{3}\right)$ is the unique linear space on 12 points containing three lines of size 5 , twelve lines of size 3 and nine lines of size 2 . Removing the three points of $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{3}\right)$ which are incident with two lines of size 5 , we obtain the affine plane of order 3 .

We have met some of the above-mentioned near hexagons before. With $L$ denoting the line of size 3 , we have $\mathbf{N H}(2,2,\{1\}) \cong L \times L \times L, \mathbf{N H}(2,3,\{1,2\}) \cong W(2) \times L$, $\mathbf{N H}(2,5,\{1,4\}) \cong Q(5,2) \times L, \mathbf{N H}(2,8,\{1,4\}) \cong \mathbb{G}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{2}$ and $\mathbf{N H}(2,11,\{1,2,4\}) \cong$ $\mathbb{G}_{3}$.

## 4 Proof of the Main Theorem

In this section we will determine all near $2 n$-gons $\mathcal{S}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathrm{I}), n \geq 4$, that satisfy the following properties:
(A) every two points at distance 2 have at least two common neighbours;
(B) $\mathcal{S}$ has a big geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon $\mathcal{F}$ isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$.

We will prove by induction that every such $\mathcal{S}$ is isomorphic to either $\mathbb{G}_{n}, \mathbb{G}_{n-1} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{2}$ or $\mathbb{G}_{n-1} \times L$ for some line $L$. Every line of $\mathcal{F}$ is incident with three points. If not all lines of $\mathcal{S}$ are incident with three points, then by Theorem $1, \mathcal{S} \cong \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B}$ where $\mathcal{A}$ is a near polygon with only lines of size 3 and where $\mathcal{B}$ is a near polygon with no lines of size 3 . Since $\mathcal{A}$ contains a sub near polygon isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$, we necessarily have $\mathcal{A} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-1}$ and $\mathcal{B} \cong L$ for some line $L$ with $|L| \neq 3$. Hence $\mathcal{S} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-1} \times L$ and we are done. From now on we assume that every line of $\mathcal{S}$ is incident with exactly $s+1=3$ points. The near $2 n$-gon $\mathcal{S}$ is then dense and geodetically closed sub near polygons exist. We put $t+1=t_{\mathcal{S}}+1$. If $t=t_{\mathcal{F}}+1$, then $\mathcal{S} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-1} \times L,|L|=3$, by Lemma 4 . We suppose therefore that $t>t_{\mathcal{F}}+1$.

Lemma 9 If a $Q(5,2)$-quad $\mathcal{Q}$ intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a line, then this line is a special line of $\mathcal{F} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-1}$.

Proof. Suppose that $L:=\mathcal{Q} \cap \mathcal{F}$ is an ordinary line of $\mathcal{F}$. By Section 2.6, $L$ is contained in a $W(2)$-quad $\mathcal{R} \subset \mathcal{F}$. By Lemma 5 , the $W(2)$-quad $\mathcal{R}$ is big in the hex $\mathcal{H}:=\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{R})$. By Theorem 4, none of the near hexagons with a big $W(2)$-quad contains a $Q(5,2)$-quad. This contradicts the fact that $\mathcal{Q} \subset \mathcal{H}$. Hence $L$ is a special line of $\mathcal{F}$.

Lemma 10 No hex $\mathcal{H}$ isomorphic to $\mathbf{N H}(2,11,\{1\}), \mathbf{N H}(2,14,\{2\}), \mathbf{N H}(2,14$, $\{2,4\})$ or $\mathbf{N H}(2,20,\{4\})$ meets $\mathcal{F}$.

Proof. Suppose the contrary. By Lemma $5, \mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{F}$ is a big quad of $\mathcal{H}$. By Theorem 4, we then have: (i) $\mathcal{H} \cong \mathbf{N H}(2,14,\{2,4\})$ or $\mathcal{H} \cong \mathbf{N H}(2,20,\{4\})$, and (ii) $\mathcal{Q}:=$ $\mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{F} \cong Q(5,2)$. By Section 2.6, the $Q(5,2)$-quad $\mathcal{Q}$ contains an ordinary line $K$ of $\mathcal{F}$. By (i), $\mathcal{H}$ has a $Q(5,2)$-quad through $K$ different from $\mathcal{Q}$. This quad contradicts Lemma 9.

Lemma 11 Every point $x$ of $\mathcal{F}$ is contained in a $Q(5,2)$-quad which intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a line. Hence $t \geq t_{\mathcal{F}}+4$.

Proof. Since $t>t_{\mathcal{F}}+1$, there exist two lines $K$ and $L$ through $x$ not contained in $\mathcal{F}$. Since $\mathcal{F}$ is big in $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{C}(K, L)$ intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a line $M$; hence $\mathcal{C}(K, L) \cong W(2)$ or $\mathcal{C}(K, L) \cong Q(5,2)$. Suppose that $\mathcal{C}(K, L) \cong W(2)$. By Section 2.6, there exists a $Q(5,2)$-quad $\mathcal{Q} \subset \mathcal{F}$ through $M$. The hex $\mathcal{H}:=\mathcal{C}(K, \mathcal{R})$ contains a $Q(5,2)$-quad and a $W(2)$-quad. By Theorem 4 and Lemma 10, $\mathcal{H}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{3}$ and hence contains a $Q(5,2)$-quad through $x$ different from $\mathcal{Q}$. This proves our lemma.

First Case: $t=t_{\mathcal{F}}+4$
Let $P_{2}$ denote the set of all $Q(5,2)$-quads meeting $\mathcal{F}$ in a line. By Lemma 11 and the fact that $t=t_{\mathcal{F}}+4$, it follows that every point $x \in \mathcal{F}$ is contained in a unique element of $P_{2}$. If $y$ is an arbitrary point outside $\mathcal{F}$, then $\mathcal{Q}_{y}:=\mathcal{Q}_{\pi(y)}$ is the unique element of $P_{2}$ through $y$. Hence $P_{2}$ is a partition of the point set of $\mathcal{S}$ in $Q(5,2)$-quads. Clearly the set $S_{1}:=\left\{\mathcal{Q} \cap \mathcal{F} \mid \mathcal{Q} \in P_{2}\right\}$ is a spread $S_{1}$ of $\mathcal{F}$.

Lemma 12 The spread $S_{1}$ is an admissible spread of $\mathcal{F}$.
Proof. Since $\mathcal{F} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-1}$, we need to verify the two conditions (C1) and (C2) mentioned in Section 2.6. Property (C1) is exactly Lemma 9. We now proof that also (C2) is satisfied. Let $K$ be an arbitrary line of $S_{1}$, let $\mathcal{Q}$ denote the unique quad of $P_{2}$ through $K$ and let $\mathcal{R}$ be an arbitrary grid-quad of $\mathcal{F}$ through $K$. The hex $\mathcal{H}:=\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{R})$ has a $Q(5,2)$-quad and a big grid-quad and hence is isomorphic to $Q(5,2) \times L$ by Theorem 4 . As a consequence $\mathcal{H}$ contains three quads of $P_{2}$ and the two lines of $\mathcal{R}$ disjoint from $K$ also belong to $S_{1}$.

Lemma 13 Every geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{n-2}$ meets $\mathcal{F}$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ be a geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{n-2}$ and disjoint from $\mathcal{F}$. The near hexagon $\mathcal{S}$ has $v_{\mathcal{S}}=\left(1+2 \cdot\left(t-t_{\mathcal{F}}\right)\right) \cdot|\mathcal{F}|=\frac{3^{n+1} \cdot(2 n-2)!}{2^{n-1} \cdot(n-1)!}$ points. The total number of points at distance at most 1 from $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ equals $(1+2(t-$ $\left.\left.t_{\mathcal{F}^{\prime}}\right)\right) \cdot\left|\mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right|$. Since this number is precisely $v_{\mathcal{S}}$, also $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ is big in $\mathcal{S}$. Applying Corollary 1 twice, we see that $\mathcal{F} \cong \mathcal{F}^{\prime}$. From $\frac{3(n-1)^{2}-(n-1)-2}{2}=t_{\mathcal{F}}=t_{\mathcal{F}^{\prime}}=\frac{3(n-2)^{2}-(n-2)-2}{2}+4$, it then follows that $n=3$, but this contradicts our assumption $n \geq 4$.

Lemma 14 Every point $y$ of $\mathcal{S}$ is contained in a unique big geodetically closed sub near polygon $\mathcal{F}_{y}$ satisfying:
(i) $\mathcal{F}_{y} \cong \mathcal{F}$;
(ii) $\mathcal{F}_{y}=\mathcal{F}$ or $\mathcal{F}_{y} \cap \mathcal{F}=\emptyset$.

Proof. Suppose that $y$ is contained in two such sub near polygons $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{2}$. Since $\mathcal{F}_{3}:=\mathcal{F}_{1} \cap \mathcal{F}_{2}$ is big in $\mathcal{F}_{1}, \mathcal{F}_{3} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-2}$ by Section 2.6. Hence $t \geq t_{\mathcal{F}_{1}}+t_{\mathcal{F}_{2}}-t_{\mathcal{F}_{3}}$ or $t_{\mathcal{F}_{2}}-t_{\mathcal{F}_{3}} \leq 4$. Since $t_{\mathcal{F}_{2}}-t_{\mathcal{F}_{3}}=3 n-5, n \leq 3$, a contradiction. So, it suffices to show that $y$ is contained in at least one big geodetically closed sub near polygon satisfying (i) and (ii). This trivially holds if $y \in \mathcal{F}$, so we suppose that $y \notin \mathcal{F}$. By Lemma $9, \mathcal{Q}_{y}$ intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a special line $K$. If $L_{1}, \ldots, L_{n-2}$ denote the other special lines of $\mathcal{F}$ through $\pi(y)$, then $\mathcal{F}_{4}:=\mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}, \ldots, L_{n-2}\right)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-2}$. Put $\mathcal{F}_{5}:=\mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}, \ldots, L_{n-2}, y \pi(y)\right)$. Since $t_{\mathcal{F}_{5}}=t_{\mathcal{F}_{4}}+1, \mathcal{F}_{5} \cong \mathcal{F}_{4} \times L$. Hence $y$ is contained in a geodetically closed sub near $2(n-2)$-gon $\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}$ isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-2}$. By Lemma 8 every geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon through $\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}$ intersect $\mathcal{Q}_{y}$ in a line. Hence there are exactly five geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gons through $\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}$. One of them is $\mathcal{F}_{5}$. Let $\mathcal{F}_{6}$ denote one of the four others. The projection of $\mathcal{F}_{6}$ on $\mathcal{F}$ is distance-preserving and since the projection $\mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}, \ldots, L_{n-2}\right)$ of $\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}$ is $\operatorname{big}$ in $\mathcal{F}$, also $\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}$ is big in $\mathcal{F}_{6}$. If $n=4$, then $\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime} \cong Q(5,2)$ and hence $\mathcal{F}_{6} \cong \mathbb{G}_{3}$ or $\mathcal{F}_{6} \cong \mathbb{G}_{2} \times L$ by Theorem 4, Lemma 10 and Lemma 13. If $n \geq 5$, then $\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-2}$ and hence $\mathcal{F}_{6} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-1}$ or $\mathcal{F}_{6} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-2} \times L$ by the induction hypothesis and Lemma 13. Suppose now that all the five geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gons through $\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}$ are isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-2} \times L$. Then $t=t_{\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}}+5$ or $t_{\mathcal{F}}=t_{\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}}+1$, a contradiction since $t_{\mathcal{F}}-t_{\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}}=3 n-5$ and $n \geq 4$. Hence there exists a geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gon through $\mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}$ isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$. Our lemma now follows since $y \in \mathcal{F}_{y}^{\prime}$.

The geodetically closed sub near $2(n-1)$-gons $\mathcal{F}_{y}, y \in \mathcal{P}$, determine a partition $P_{1}$ of $\mathcal{S}$ in sub near polygons isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$. Every quad of $P_{2}$ intersects each sub near polygon of $P_{1}$ in a line and the set $S$ of all lines obtained this way is a spread of $\mathcal{S}$.

Lemma 15 The spread $S$ is admissible.
Proof. Take two arbitrary lines $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ of $S$. Let $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ denote the unique elements of $P_{1}$ through $L_{1}$ and let $\mathcal{Q}^{\prime}$ denote the unique element of $P_{2}$ through $L_{2}$. If $L_{2}$ is contained in $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$, then $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ are parallel by Lemma 12 (applied to $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ instead of $\mathcal{F}$ ). If $L_{2}$ is not contained in $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$, then by Lemma $1 \mathrm{~d}\left(x, L_{1}\right)=1+\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{\mathcal{F}^{\prime}}(x), L_{1}\right)$ for every point $x$ on $L_{2}$. Since $\pi_{\mathcal{F}^{\prime}}\left(L_{2}\right)=\mathcal{Q}^{\prime} \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ belongs to $S, \pi_{\mathcal{F}^{\prime}}\left(L_{2}\right)$ and $L_{1}$ are parallel. Hence, $\mathrm{d}\left(x, L_{1}\right)$ is independent of the chosen point $x \in L_{2}$. This proves that $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ are parallel and that $S$ is admissible.

Theorem 5 The near polygon $\mathcal{S}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{n-1}$.
Proof. Put $\mathcal{A}_{1}:=\mathcal{F}$ and let $\mathcal{A}_{2}$ be any quad of $P_{2}$. Above we defined the admissible spread $S_{1}$ of $\mathcal{A}_{1}$. If we intersect $\mathcal{A}_{2}$ with all elements of $P_{1}$, then we obtain an admissible spread $S_{2}$ in $\mathcal{A}_{2}$. We consider the line $K:=\mathcal{A}_{1} \cap \mathcal{A}_{2}$ as base line in both $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ and we put $\theta$ equal to the trivial permutation of $K$. With these choices, we can define a glued incidence structure $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$, see Section 2.7. We will prove that $\mathcal{S} \cong \mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$. For every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}$, we put $\phi(x):=\left(x^{\prime}, \mathcal{Q}_{x} \cap \mathcal{A}_{1}, \mathcal{F}_{x} \cap \mathcal{A}_{2}\right)$ where $x^{\prime}$ denotes the unique element of $K$ nearest to $x$. Clearly $\phi(x)$ is a point of $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$. Conversely, suppose that $\left(y, L_{1}, L_{2}\right)$ is a point of $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$. Let $\mathcal{Q}^{\prime}$ denote the unique element of $P_{2}$ through $L_{1}$, let $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ denote the unique element of $P_{1}$ through $L_{2}$ and let $x$ denote the unique point on the line $\mathcal{Q}^{\prime} \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ nearest to $y$. Since $K$ and $\mathcal{Q}^{\prime} \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ are parallel, $\phi(x):=\left(y, L_{1}, L_{2}\right)$. Obviously, $x$ is the only point of $\mathcal{S}$ which is mapped to ( $y, L_{1}, L_{2}$ ) by $\phi$. Hence $\phi$ is a bijection between the point sets of $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$. Take now two collinear points $x$ and $y$ in $\mathcal{S}$ and put $\phi(x)=\left(x^{\prime}, L_{1}, L_{2}\right)$ and $\phi(y)=\left(y^{\prime}, M_{1}, M_{2}\right)$. If the line $x y$ belongs to $S$, then $L_{1}=M_{1}, L_{2}=M_{2}$ and $x^{\prime} \neq y^{\prime}$; hence also $\phi(x)$ and $\phi(y)$ are collinear. If $x y \subset \mathcal{F}_{x}$ and $x y \not \subset \mathcal{Q}_{x}$, then $L_{2}=M_{2}$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(L_{1}, M_{1}\right)=1$ since $\mathrm{d}(\pi(x), \pi(y))=1$ by Lemma 2. By Lemma 1, $x^{\prime}$ (resp. $y^{\prime}$ ) is the unique point of $K$ nearest to $\pi(x)$ (resp. $\pi(y)$ ). The condition $\mathrm{d}(\pi(x), \pi(y))=1$ is equivalent with condition (B) of Section 2.7. Hence $\phi(x)$ and $\phi(y)$ are collinear points in $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$. Finally, suppose that $x y \not \subset \mathcal{F}_{x}$ and $x y \subset \mathcal{Q}_{x}$. Clearly $L_{1}=M_{1}$. Let $x^{\prime \prime}$ and $y^{\prime \prime}$ denote the unique points of $\mathcal{A}_{2}$ nearest to $x$ and $y$. Notice that these points exist since $\left(x, \mathcal{A}_{2}\right)$ and $\left(y, \mathcal{A}_{2}\right)$ are classical. (Recall that $\mathcal{A}_{2} \cong Q(5,2)$ has no ovoids.) Now, $\mathcal{F}_{x}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{y}$ are big and different, and so the projection of $\mathcal{F}_{x}$ on $\mathcal{F}_{y}$ is an isomorphism. As a consequence, the unique point $x^{\prime \prime}$ of $\mathcal{A}_{2} \cap \mathcal{F}_{x}$ nearest to $x$ is mapped by this isomorphism on the unique point $y^{\prime \prime}$ of $\mathcal{A}_{2} \cap \mathcal{F}_{y}$ nearest to $y$. Hence $\mathrm{d}\left(x^{\prime \prime}, y^{\prime \prime}\right)=1$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(L_{2}, M_{2}\right)=1$. The condition $\mathrm{d}\left(x^{\prime \prime}, y^{\prime \prime}\right)=1$ is equivalent with condition (C) of Section 2.7. Hence $\phi(x)$ and $\phi(y)$ are collinear points in $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$. Summarizing we find that $\phi$ is an adjacency preserving map between the collinearity graphs of $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$. Since both graphs have the same valency, they are isomorphic. As a consequence also $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{A}_{1} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{2}$ are isomorphic. (Notice that the lines of a near polygon correspond with the maximal cliques of its collinearity graph.) The theorem now follows from Theorem 3.

Second Case: $t>t_{\mathcal{F}}+4$
Put $\delta:=t-t_{\mathcal{F}}$.
Lemma 16 We have $\delta \leq 3 n-2$. If equality holds, then no hex isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{2}$ meets $\mathcal{F}$.

Proof. By Lemmas 9 and 11 there exists a $Q(5,2)$-quad $\mathcal{Q}$ which intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a special line $K$. By Theorem 4 and Lemma 10, every hex $\mathcal{H}$ through $\mathcal{Q}$ is isomorphic to either $\mathbb{G}_{2} \times L, \mathbb{G}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{2}$ or $\mathbb{G}_{3}$. In the first case $\mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{F}$ is a grid. In the two other cases $\mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{F}$ is a $Q(5,2)$-quad. Let $\lambda_{1}$, respectively $\lambda_{2}$, denote the number of hexes through $\mathcal{Q}$ which are isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{2}$, respectively $\mathbb{G}_{3}$. By Section $2.6, \mathcal{F}$ has $n-2 Q(5,2)$-quads through $K$ and hence $\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}=n-2$. Counting over all hexes $\mathcal{H}$ through $\mathcal{Q}$, we find that $\delta=t_{\mathcal{Q}}+\sum\left(t_{\mathcal{H}}-t_{\mathcal{Q}}-t_{\mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{F}}\right)=4+3 \lambda_{2} \leq 4+3(n-2)=3 n-2$. The lemma now immediately follows.

Lemma 17 If a $W(2)$-quad $\mathcal{Q}$ intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a line, then this line is an ordinary line of $\mathcal{F} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-1}$.

Proof. Suppose that $\mathcal{Q} \cap \mathcal{F}$ is a special line and let $x \in \mathcal{Q} \cap \mathcal{F}$. If $\mathcal{R}$ is one of the $n-2 Q(5,2)$-quads of $\mathcal{F}$ through $\mathcal{Q} \cap \mathcal{F}$, then the hex $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{R})$ has $W(2)$-quads and $Q(5,2)$-quads. By Theorem 4 and Lemma 10, it then follows that $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{R}) \cong \mathbb{G}_{3}$. Hence the hex $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{R})$ contains exactly five lines through $x$ which are not contained in $\mathcal{Q} \cup \mathcal{R}$. Summing over all possible $\mathcal{R}$, we find that $\delta \geq 2+5(n-2)=5 n-8$. Together with $\delta \leq 3 n-2$, this implies that $n \leq 3$, a contradiction. Hence $\mathcal{Q} \cap \mathcal{F}$ is an ordinary line.

Lemma 18 Every point $x$ of $\mathcal{F}$ is contained in a $W(2)$-quad which intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a line.

Proof. By Lemma 11, there exists a $Q(5,2)$-quad $\mathcal{Q}$ through $x$ intersecting $\mathcal{F}$ in a line. Since $t>t_{\mathcal{F}}+4$, there exists a line $K$ through $x$ not contained in $\mathcal{Q} \cup \mathcal{F}$. By Theorem 4 and Lemma 10 , the hex $\mathcal{H}=\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, K)$, which intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a big quad, is isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{3}$. The required $W(2)$-quad can now be chosen in the hex $\mathcal{H}$.

Lemma 19 We have $\delta \geq 3 n-2$. If equality holds, then no hex isomorphic to $\mathbf{N H}(2,6,\{2\})$ meets $\mathcal{F}$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{Q}$ denote a $W(2)$-quad intersecting $\mathcal{F}$ in an ordinary line $K$. By Section 2.6, $K$ is contained in a unique $Q(5,2)$-quad and $3(n-3) W(2)$-quads of $\mathcal{F}$. If $\mathcal{T}$ is the unique $Q(5,2)$-quad, then the hex $\mathcal{H}:=\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{T})$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{3}$. If $\mathcal{T}$ is one of the $3(n-3) W(2)$-quads of $\mathcal{F}$ through $K$, then $\mathcal{H}=\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{T})$ is isomorphic to either $\mathbf{N H}(2,5,\{1,2\})$ or $\mathbf{N H}(2,6,\{2\})$. Hence $\delta=t_{\mathcal{Q}}+\sum\left(t_{\mathcal{H}}-t_{\mathcal{Q}}-t_{\mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{F}}\right) \geq$ $2+5+3(n-3)=3 n-2$. The lemma now immediately follows.

From Lemmas 16 and 19, we then have:

Corollary 2 The following holds:

- $\delta=3 n-2, t=\delta+t_{\mathcal{F}}=\frac{3 n^{2}-n-2}{2},|\mathcal{P}|=(2 \delta+1) \cdot|\mathcal{F}|=\frac{3^{n} \cdot(2 n)!}{2^{n} \cdot n!}$ and $|\mathcal{L}|=$ $\frac{|\mathcal{P}| \cdot(t+1)}{3}=\frac{3^{n-1}(2 n)!(3 n-1)}{2^{n+1}(n-1)!} ;$
- no hex isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{2}$ meets $\mathcal{F}$;
- no hex isomorphic to $\mathbf{N H}(2,6,\{2\})$ meets $\mathcal{F}$.

Lemma 20 (a) Every special line $L$ of $\mathcal{F} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-1}$ is contained in a unique $Q(5,2)$ quad which is not contained in $\mathcal{F}$.
(b) Let $x \in \mathcal{F}$. All the $Q(5,2)$-quads through $x$ which are not contained in $\mathcal{F}$ have a common line $A_{x}$ in common.

Proof.
(a) Suppose that the line $L$ is contained in two such $Q(5,2)$-quads $\mathcal{Q}$ and $\mathcal{R}$. The hex $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{R})$ intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a big quad, which is necessarily isomorphic to $Q(5,2)$. The line $L$ of $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{R})$ is then contained in at least three $Q(5,2)$ quads and hence $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{R})$ must be isomorphic to $\mathrm{NH}(2,20,\{4\})$, contradicting Lemma 10. Hence $L$ is contained in at most one $Q(5,2)$-quad which is not contained in $\mathcal{F}$. We will now prove that $L$ is contained in a unique such $Q(5,2)$-quad. Let $x \in L$ and let $\mathcal{T}$ denote an arbitrary $Q(5,2)$-quad through $x$ which intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a special line. We may suppose that $L \neq \mathcal{T} \cap \mathcal{F}$. The hex $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{T}, L)$ has at least two $Q(5,2)$ quads through the line $\mathcal{T} \cap \mathcal{F}$ (namely $\mathcal{T}$ and $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{T} \cap \mathcal{F}, L))$ and hence is isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{3}$ by Theorem 4, Lemma 10 and Corollary 2. Let $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ denote the unique $Q(5,2)$-quad of $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{T}, L)$ through $x$ different from $\mathcal{T}$ and $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{T} \cap \mathcal{F}, L)$. Then $L \subset \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ since $\mathcal{T}^{\prime} \cap \mathcal{F}$ is a special line.
(b) Let $\mathcal{T}_{1}, \mathcal{T}_{2}$ and $\mathcal{T}_{3}$ denote three different $Q(5,2)$-quads through $x$ which are not contained in $\mathcal{F}$. By the proof of (a), we know that $\mathcal{T}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{T}_{2}$ are contained in a $\mathbb{G}_{3}$-hex $\mathcal{H}_{3}$. Hence $\mathcal{T}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{T}_{2}$ intersect in a line $M_{3}$. In a similar way one can define hexes $\mathcal{H}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{H}_{2}$, and lines $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$. Now, $\mathcal{H}_{1} \cap \mathcal{H}_{2} \cap \mathcal{H}_{3}=$ $\left(\mathcal{H}_{1} \cap \mathcal{H}_{2}\right) \cap\left(\mathcal{H}_{1} \cap \mathcal{H}_{3}\right)=\mathcal{T}_{3} \cap \mathcal{T}_{2}=M_{1}$. Similarly $M_{2}=M_{3}=\mathcal{H}_{1} \cap \mathcal{H}_{2} \cap \mathcal{H}_{3}$. Hence, all $Q(5,2)$-quads through $x$ not contained in $\mathcal{F}$ have a common line $A_{x}$.

Corollary 3 Let $x \in \mathcal{F}$. The $n-1 Q(5,2)$-quads through $A_{x}$ partition the set of lines through $x$ which are not contained in $\mathcal{F} \cup A_{x}$.

Proof. The $n-1 Q(5,2)$-quads through $A_{x}$ determine $1+3(n-1)=3 n-2$ lines through $x$ which are not contained in $\mathcal{F}$. The result now follows since $\delta=3 n-2$.

Lemma 21 For every $x \in \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{S}, x)$ is isomorphic to $\mathcal{G}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right)$.
Proof. Let $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ denote a geodetically closed sub near 2( $n-1$ )-gon of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$, let $x^{\prime} \in \mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ and let $A_{x^{\prime}}$ denote the unique special line through $x^{\prime}$ not contained in $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$. Since $\operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n-1}\right)$ acts transitively on the set of points of $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$, there exists an isomorphism $\phi$ from $\mathcal{F}$ to $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}$ mapping $x$ to $x^{\prime}$. For every line $K$ of $\mathcal{F}$ through $x$, we define $\theta(K)=\phi(K)$. We will now extend $\theta$ in such a way it determines an isomorphism between $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}, x)$ and $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}, x^{\prime}\right)$. Our result then follows from Lemma 7.

Extension of $\theta$. We put $\theta\left(A_{x}\right)=A_{x^{\prime}}$. Let $K$ and $K^{\prime}$ denote two arbitrary special lines of $\mathcal{F}$ through $x$. Let $K, A_{x}, L_{1}, L_{2}$ and $L_{3}$ denote the five lines of $\mathcal{C}\left(K, A_{x}\right)$ through $x$. Similarly, let $K^{\prime}, A_{x}, L_{1}^{\prime}, L_{2}^{\prime}$ and $L_{3}^{\prime}$ denote the five lines of $\mathcal{C}\left(K^{\prime}, A_{x}\right)$ through $x$. Let $\theta\left(L_{1}\right)$ be one of the three lines of $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta(K), A_{x^{\prime}}\right)$ through $x^{\prime}$ different from $\theta(K)$ and $A_{x^{\prime}}$. Now, let $M$ be an arbitrary line through $x$ not contained in $\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{C}\left(K, A_{x}\right)$. The quad $\mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}, M\right)$ is a $W(2)$-quad and intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in an ordinary line $N$. The quad $\mathcal{C}\left(A_{x}, M\right)$ is a $Q(5,2)$-quad and intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a special line $N^{\prime}$. The hex $\mathcal{C}\left(A_{x}, L_{1}, M\right)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{3}$ and intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in the $Q(5,2)$-quad $\mathcal{C}\left(K, N^{\prime}\right)$. Clearly $N$ is contained in $\mathcal{C}\left(K, N^{\prime}\right)$. The hex $\mathcal{C}\left(A_{x^{\prime}}, \theta(K), \theta\left(N^{\prime}\right)\right)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{3}$ and contains the lines $\theta\left(L_{1}\right)$ and $\theta(N)$. The quad $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta(N)\right)$ is isomorphic to $W(2)$ and we put $\theta(M)$ equal to the unique line of $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta(N)\right)$ through $x^{\prime}$ different from $\theta\left(L_{1}\right)$ and $\theta(M)$. Clearly $\theta(M) \in \mathcal{C}\left(A_{x^{\prime}}, \theta\left(N^{\prime}\right)\right)$. We already defined $\theta(L)$ for all lines $L$ through $x$ different from $L_{2}$ and $L_{3}$. For each $i \in\{2,3\}$, the quad $\mathcal{C}\left(L_{i}, L_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ is isomorphic to $W(2)$ and intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a line $P$. Again $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta(P), \theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ is a $W(2)$-quad and we put $\theta\left(L_{i}\right)$ equal to the unique line of $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta(P), \theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ through $x^{\prime}$ different from $\theta(P)$ and $\theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime}\right)$. Clearly, $\theta\left(L_{i}\right) \in \mathcal{C}\left(A_{x^{\prime}}, \theta(K)\right)$. One easily sees that $\theta$ is a bijection between the set of lines of $\mathcal{S}$ through $x$ and the set of lines of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$ through $x^{\prime}$.

A linear space on a certain set of points is completely determined if all lines of size at least three are know. The linear spaces $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}, x)$ and $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}, x^{\prime}\right)$ each contain $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ lines of size 5 and $\frac{3 n(n-1)(n-2)}{2}$ lines of size 3 . So, in order to prove that $\theta$ determines an isomorphism, it suffices to verify that $\theta$ maps lines of size $r \in\{3,5\}$ in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}, x)$ to lines of size $r$ in $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}, x^{\prime}\right)$. By construction (see above), this holds for the lines of size 5 . So, let $\delta=\left\{M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}\right\}$ denote a line of size 3 in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}, x)$ and let $Q_{\delta}$ denote the $W(2)$-quad corresponding with it. We will now prove that $\left\{\theta\left(M_{1}\right), \theta\left(M_{2}\right), \theta\left(M_{3}\right)\right\}$ is a line of size 3 in $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}, x^{\prime}\right)$. This trivially holds if $Q_{\delta} \subset \mathcal{F}$. Suppose therefore that $M_{1}, M_{2}$ are outside $\mathcal{F}$ and that $M_{3}$ is inside $\mathcal{F}$. We may also suppose that $M_{1} \neq L_{1} \neq M_{2}$. One of the following cases certainly occurs.
(I) The case $M_{1}, M_{2} \in\left\{L_{2}, L_{3}, L_{1}^{\prime}, L_{2}^{\prime}, L_{3}^{\prime}\right\}$.

Let $L_{1}^{\prime \prime}, L_{2}^{\prime \prime}$ and $L_{3}^{\prime \prime}$ denote the three lines of $\mathcal{C}\left(K, K^{\prime}\right)$ through $x$ different from $K$ and $K^{\prime}$. The set $\left\{L_{1}, L_{2}, L_{3}, L_{1}^{\prime}, L_{2}^{\prime}, L_{3}^{\prime}, L_{1}^{\prime \prime}, L_{2}^{\prime \prime}, L_{3}^{\prime \prime}\right\}$ together with the subsets $\left\{L_{1}, L_{2}, L_{3}\right\},\left\{L_{1}^{\prime}, L_{2}^{\prime}, L_{3}^{\prime}\right\},\left\{L_{1}^{\prime \prime}, L_{2}^{\prime \prime}, L_{3}^{\prime \prime}\right\},\left\{L_{i}, L_{j}^{\prime}, \mathcal{C}\left(L_{i}, L_{j}^{\prime}\right) \cap \mathcal{F}\right\}, i, j \in\{1,2,3\}$, define an affine plane $\mathcal{A}$ of order 3 . In a similar way, an affine plane $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ can be defined on the set $\left\{\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \ldots, \theta\left(L_{3}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right\}$. The set $\left\{\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \ldots, \theta\left(L_{3}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right\}$ also carries the structure of an affine plane $\mathcal{A}^{\theta}$ if one considers all subsets of the form $\left\{\theta\left(P_{1}\right), \theta\left(P_{2}\right), \theta\left(P_{3}\right)\right\}$ where $\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, P_{3}\right\}$ is a line of $\mathcal{A}$. Now, $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ and $\mathcal{A}^{\theta}$ have the following eight lines in common:
$\left\{\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta\left(L_{2}\right), \theta\left(L_{3}\right)\right\}, \quad\left\{\theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime}\right), \theta\left(L_{2}^{\prime}\right), \theta\left(L_{3}^{\prime}\right)\right\}, \quad\left\{\theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime \prime}\right), \theta\left(L_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right), \theta\left(L_{3}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right\}, \quad\left\{\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime}\right)\right.$, $\left.\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime}\right)\right) \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right\},\left\{\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta\left(L_{2}^{\prime}\right), \mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta\left(L_{2}^{\prime}\right)\right) \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right\},\left\{\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta\left(L_{3}^{\prime}\right), \mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(L_{1}\right)\right.\right.$, $\left.\left.\theta\left(L_{3}^{\prime}\right)\right) \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right\},\left\{\theta\left(L_{2}\right), \theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime}\right), \mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(L_{2}\right), \theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime}\right)\right) \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right\},\left\{\theta\left(L_{3}\right), \theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime}\right), \mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(L_{3}\right), \theta\left(L_{1}^{\prime}\right)\right) \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right\}$.
Hence $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}=\mathcal{A}^{\theta}$. This is precisely what we needed to prove.
(II) The case $\left\{M_{1}, M_{2}\right\} \cap\left\{L_{1}, L_{2}, L_{3}\right\}=\emptyset$.

The quad $\mathcal{C}\left(A_{x}, M_{i}\right), i \in\{1,2\}$, intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in a special line $P_{i}$. Clearly, $P_{1} \neq P_{2}$. The $W(2)$-quad $\mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}, M_{i}\right), i \in\{1,2\}$, intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in an ordinary line $N_{i}$ which is contained in the $Q(5,2)$-quad $\mathcal{C}\left(P_{i}, K\right)$. Since $N_{i}$ is ordinary, $\mathcal{C}\left(P_{i}, K\right)$ is the unique $Q(5,2)$ quad through $N_{i}$. Since $\mathcal{C}\left(P_{1}, K\right) \neq \mathcal{C}\left(P_{2}, K\right), \mathcal{C}\left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right)$ is not a $Q(5,2)$ quad. The hex $\mathcal{H}=\mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}, M_{1}, M_{2}\right)$ intersects $\mathcal{F}$ in the quad $\mathcal{C}\left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right)$. The line $M_{3}$ belongs to $\mathcal{C}\left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right)$ and is different from $N_{1}$ and $N_{2}$. Hence $\mathcal{C}\left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right) \cong W(2)$. Since also $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(N_{1}\right), \theta\left(N_{2}\right)\right) \cong W(2)$, the lines $\theta\left(N_{1}\right), \theta\left(N_{2}\right)$ and $\theta\left(M_{3}\right)$ are precisely the three lines of $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(N_{1}\right), \theta\left(N_{2}\right)\right)$ through $x^{\prime}$. Since $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta\left(M_{1}\right)\right) \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}=\theta\left(N_{1}\right)$, $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta\left(M_{2}\right)\right) \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}=\theta\left(N_{2}\right)$ and $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(L_{1}\right), \theta\left(M_{1}\right), \theta\left(M_{2}\right)\right) \cap \mathcal{F}=\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(N_{1}\right), \theta\left(N_{2}\right)\right)$, we necessarily have that $\mathcal{C}\left(\theta\left(M_{1}\right), \theta\left(M_{2}\right)\right) \cap \mathcal{F}^{\prime}=\theta\left(M_{3}\right)$. This is precisely what we needed to prove.
(III) The case $\left\{M_{1}, M_{2}\right\} \cap\left\{L_{1}^{\prime}, L_{2}^{\prime}, L_{3}^{\prime}\right\}=\emptyset$.

By (I) and (II), $\theta$ maps the lines $\left\{L_{1}^{\prime}, M_{1}, \mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}^{\prime}, M_{1}\right) \cap \mathcal{F}\right\}$ and $\left\{L_{1}^{\prime}, M_{2}, \mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}^{\prime}, M_{2}\right) \cap\right.$ $\mathcal{F}\}$ of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}, x)$ to lines of $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}, x^{\prime}\right)$. With a similar reasoning as in (II), we then derive that also $\left\{M_{1}, M_{2}, \mathcal{C}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \cap \mathcal{F}\right\}$ is mapped to a line of $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}, x^{\prime}\right)$.

Lemma 22 Every point $y$ of $\mathcal{S}$ is contained in a big geodetically closed sub near polygon isomorphic to $\mathbb{G}_{n-1}$. Hence $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{S}, y) \cong \mathcal{G}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right)$.

Proof. We may suppose that $y \notin F$, then $y$ is collinear with a unique point $\pi(y)$ of $F$. Call a line $L$ through $\pi(y)$ special if it is not contained in a $W(2)$-quad and ordinary otherwise. Since $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{S}, \pi(y)) \cong \mathcal{G}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right)$, there are precisely $n$ special lines $L_{1}, \ldots, L_{n}$ through $\pi(y)$. We may suppose that $y \pi(y) \subset \mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}, L_{2}\right)$. For every $i \in\{2, \ldots, n\}$, we put $\mathcal{F}_{i}:=\mathcal{C}\left(L_{1}, \ldots, L_{i}\right)$. Since $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{S}, \pi(y)) \cong \mathcal{G}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right)$, we have the following for every $i \in\{2, \ldots, n-1\}$ :
(i) $\mathcal{F}_{i}$ is a dense geodetically closed sub near polygon of order $\left(2, \frac{3 i^{2}-3 i-2}{2}\right)$;
(ii) every quad of $\mathcal{F}_{i+1}$ through $\pi(y)$ either is contained in $\mathcal{F}_{i}$ or intersects $\mathcal{F}_{i}$ in a line.

By (i) and Theorem $4, \mathcal{F}_{2} \cong Q(5,2)$ and $\mathcal{F}_{3} \cong \mathbb{G}_{3}$. Suppose now that $\mathcal{F}_{i} \cong \mathbb{G}_{i}$ for a certain $i \in\{3, n-2\}$. By (ii) and Lemma $6, \mathcal{F}_{i}$ is big in $\mathcal{F}_{i+1}$. By our Main Theorem (recall that our proof is by induction) it then follows that $\mathcal{F}_{i+1}$ is isomorphic to either $\mathbb{G}_{i+1}, \mathbb{G}_{i} \otimes \mathbb{G}_{2}$ or $\mathbb{G}_{i} \times L$. By (i), we have $\mathcal{F}_{i+1} \cong \mathbb{G}_{i+1}$. Now, $y \in \mathcal{F}_{n-1}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{n-1} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n-1}$ is big in $\mathcal{S}$. By Lemma 21 applied to $\mathcal{F}_{n-1}$ instead of $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{S}, y) \cong \mathcal{G}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right)$.

Call a line $L$ of $\mathcal{S}$ special if it is not contained in a $W(2)$-quad, and ordinary otherwise. Since $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{S}, y) \cong \mathcal{G}\left(\mathbb{G}_{n}\right)$ for every point $y$ of $\mathcal{S}$, every point of $\mathcal{S}$ is incident with $n$ special lines and $\frac{3}{2} n(n-1)$ ordinary lines. Let $V_{k}, k \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, denote the set
of all geodetically closed sub near $2 k$-gons generated by $k$ special lines through a fixed point. If $\mathcal{F} \in V_{k}, k \in\{1, \ldots, n-1\}$, then a similar reasoning as in the proof of Lemma 22 gives that $\mathcal{F} \cong \mathbb{G}_{k}$. Together with Corollary 2 this implies that every element of $V_{k}, k \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, has $m_{k}:=\frac{3^{k} \cdot(2 k)!}{2^{k} \cdot k!}$ points.

Lemma 23 A subgrid $G_{1}$ of $\mathcal{Q} \cong Q(5,2)$ defines a unique partition $\left\{G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{Q}$ into three subgrids.
Proof. For a point $x$ of $\mathcal{Q}$, let $x^{\perp}$ denote the set of points of $\mathcal{Q}$ collinear with $x$. Call two vertices $x, y \in \mathcal{Q} \backslash G_{1}$ equivalent if $x^{\perp} \cap G_{1}$ and $y^{\perp} \cap G_{1}$ are equal or disjoint. There are two equivalence classes $C_{2}$ and $C_{3}$ each containing 9 points. A point $x \in C_{i}$ is contained in three lines meeting $G_{1}$ and two lines which are entirely contained in $C_{i}$. So, each $C_{i}$ contains $\frac{9 \cdot 2}{3}=6$ lines. Clearly, a grid $G_{i}$ is formed by the 9 points and 6 lines in $C_{i}$. The uniqueness of $\left\{G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}\right\}$ is also obvious.

Lemma 24 Let $M_{1}, M_{2}$ and $M_{3}$ be three mutual disjoint lines in a subgrid $G$ of $\mathcal{S}$. If $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are special, then also $M_{3}$ is special.
Proof. There exists an element $\mathcal{F} \in V_{n-1}$ through $M_{2}$ not containing $G$. Since $\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{F}} \in \operatorname{Aut}(\mathcal{S}), M_{3}=\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{F}}\left(M_{1}\right)$ is special.

Lemma 25 Every $Q(5,2)$-quad $\mathcal{Q}$ of $\mathcal{S}$ can be partitioned into three grids, such that a line of $\mathcal{Q}$ is special if and only if it is contained in one of these grids.

Proof. If $x \in \mathcal{Q}$, then $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{S}, x) \cong \mathbb{G}_{n}$ and hence exactly two from the five lines of $\mathcal{Q} \cong Q(5,2)$ through $x$ are special. Since $\mathcal{Q}$ contains 27 points, it has exactly $\frac{27 \cdot 2}{3}=18$ special lines. Consider a special line $L \subseteq \mathcal{Q}$ and let $M_{1}, M_{2}$ and $M_{3}$ denote the three special lines of $\mathcal{Q}$ intersecting $L$ in a point. By Lemma $24, M_{1}, M_{2}$ and $M_{3}$ are contained in a grid $G_{1}$. Let $G_{2}$ and $G_{3}$ denote the subgrids of $\mathcal{Q}$ as in Lemma 23. At most 10 from the 18 special lines meet $G_{1}$; hence $G_{2} \cup G_{3}$ contains two intersecting special lines $N_{1}$ and $N_{2}$. We may suppose that $N_{1}, N_{2} \subseteq G_{3}$. For every line $P$ of $G_{2}$, there exists a unique $i \in\{1,2,3\}$ and a unique $j \in\{1,2\}$ such that $P, M_{i}$ and $N_{j}$ are contained in a grid. Hence by Lemma 24 , every line of $G_{2}$ is special. Since $\mathcal{Q}$ contains exactly 12 special lines disjoint from $G_{2}$, all lines of $G_{1}$ and $G_{3}$ are special. This proves our lemma.

Define the following relation $R$ on the set $V:=V_{n-1}$. For two elements $v_{1}, v_{2} \in V$, we say that $\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right) \in R$ if exactly one of the following holds:
(i) $v_{1}=v_{2}$
(ii) $v_{1} \cap v_{2}=\emptyset$ and every line meeting $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ is special.

Lemma 26 The relation $R$ is an equivalence relation and every equivalence class contains exactly 3 elements.

Proof. Let $v \in V$ be arbitrary. Every point $a \in v$ is contained in a unique special line $L_{a}=\left\{a, a_{1}, a_{2}\right\}$ not contained in $v$, and we define $\Omega_{a}:=\left\{v_{a_{1}}, v_{a_{2}}\right\}$ where $v_{a_{i}}$ denotes the unique element of $V$ through $a_{i}$ not containing $L_{a}$. It suffices to prove that $\Omega_{a}=\Omega_{b}$ for all $a, b \in v$.

Suppose first that $\mathrm{d}(a, b)=1$. Let $c$ denote the unique third point on the line $a b$ and let $v^{\prime}$ denote an element of $V$ through $c$ not containing $a b$. Since $\mathcal{R}_{v^{\prime}} \in \operatorname{Aut}(\mathcal{S})$, $\mathcal{R}_{v^{\prime}}\left(L_{a}\right)$ is a special line through $b$ and hence equal to $L_{b}$. As a consequence $L_{b}$ is contained in the quad $\mathcal{Q}:=\mathcal{C}\left(b, L_{a}\right)$. Since $L_{a}$ is special, $\mathcal{Q}$ is not isomorphic to $W(2)$. Suppose that $\mathcal{Q}$ is a grid. Since $v_{a_{i}}$ is big, $\mathcal{Q} \cap v_{a_{i}}$ is a line that meets $L_{b}$. Since $L_{b} \cap v_{a_{i}} \neq \emptyset, i \in\{1,2\}, \Omega_{b}=\left\{v_{a_{1}}, v_{a_{2}}\right\}=\Omega_{a}$. Suppose that $\mathcal{Q}$ is a $\mathcal{Q}(5,2)$-quad. Since $\mathcal{Q} \in V_{2}$ and $v, v_{a_{1}}, v_{a_{2}} \in V, \mathcal{Q} \cap v, \mathcal{Q} \cap v_{a_{1}}$ and $\mathcal{Q} \cap v_{a_{2}}$ are special lines (see Lemma 9). By Lemma 25, the unique line through $b$ intersecting $\mathcal{Q} \cap v_{a_{i}}$ is special and hence equal to $L_{b}$. Since $L_{b} \cap v_{a_{i}} \neq \emptyset, i \in\{1,2\}, \Omega_{b}=\left\{v_{a_{1}}, v_{a_{2}}\right\}=\Omega_{a}$.

If $a$ and $b$ are not collinear, consider then a path $a=c_{0}, \ldots, c_{k}=b$ of length $k=d(a, b)$ between $a$ and $b$. Then $\Omega_{a}=\Omega_{c_{0}}=\cdots=\Omega_{c_{k}}=\Omega_{b}$.

Lemma 27 Let $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$ be three different elements of $V$ for which $\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right) \in R$. Then $v_{1} \cap v_{3} \neq \emptyset$ if and only if $v_{2} \cap v_{3} \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. If $a \in v_{1} \cap v_{3}$, then $v_{3}$ necessarily contains the unique special line $L_{a}$ through $a$ not contained in $v_{1}$. Since $L_{a} \cap v_{2} \neq \emptyset$, the lemma follows.

Lemma 28 Let $v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4} \in V$ such that $\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right) \notin R$ for all $i, j \in\{1,2,3,4\}$ with $i \neq j$. If $v_{1} \cap v_{2}=\emptyset$ and $v_{3}=\mathcal{R}_{v_{2}}\left(v_{1}\right)$, then $v_{4}$ intersects at least one of $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$.

Proof. Since every point of $\mathcal{S}$ is contained in $n$ elements of $V$, we have $|V|=\frac{m_{n} \cdot n}{m_{n-1}}=$ $3 n(2 n-1)$.
(i) Let $N_{1}$ denote the number of elements of $V$ intersecting $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$. Every line intersecting $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ is ordinary and hence is contained in $n-2$ elements of $V$. Each of these $n-2$ elements intersects $v_{1}$ in an element of $V_{n-2}$. Hence $N_{1}=\frac{m_{n-1} \cdot(n-2)}{m_{n-2}}=3(n-2)(2 n-3)$.
(ii) Let $N_{2}$ denote the number of elements of $V \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}$ meeting $v_{1}$ and disjoint from $v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$. By (i), every point of $v_{1}$ is contained in $n-2$ elements of $V$ which intersect $v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$. Hence every point of $v_{1}$ is contained in a unique element of $V \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}$ disjoint from $v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$. This element intersects $v_{1}$ in an element of $V_{n-2}$. Hence $N_{2}=\frac{m_{n-1}}{m_{n-2}}=3(2 n-3)$.
(iii) There are $N_{3}=9$ elements of $V$ belonging to one of the equivalence classes determined by $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$.

The lemma now follows since $N_{1}+3 N_{2}+N_{3}=|V|$.

Let $\Gamma$ be the graph whose vertices are the equivalence classes determined by $R$ with two classes $\gamma_{1}$ and $\gamma_{2}$ adjacent if and only if $v_{1} \cap v_{2}=\emptyset$ for every $v_{1} \in \gamma_{1}$ and every $v_{2} \in \gamma_{2}$. The graph $\Gamma$ has $\frac{|V|}{3}=\binom{2 n}{2}$ vertices.

Lemma 29 The graph $\Gamma$ is regular with valency $k(\Gamma)=4(n-1)$.
Proof. Let $v$ be a fixed element of $V$. From the $3 n(2 n-1)$ elements in $V, 3$ are contained in the equivalence class of $v$, and $\frac{m_{n-1} \cdot(n-1)}{m_{n-2}}=3(n-1)(2 n-3)$ intersect $v$ in an element of $V_{n-2}$. By Lemma 27 it then follows that $k(\Gamma)=\frac{3 n(2 n-1)-3(n-1)(2 n-3)-3}{3}=$ $4(n-1)$.

Lemma 30 Every 2 adjacent vertices $\gamma_{1}$ and $\gamma_{2}$ of $\Gamma$ are contained in two maximal cliques, one of size 3 and one of size $2 n-1$.

Proof. Let $v_{1} \in \gamma_{1}, v_{2} \in \gamma_{2}$, let $v_{3}$ denote the reflection of $v_{2}$ about $v_{1}$ and let $\gamma_{3}$ denote the equivalence class of $v_{3}$. By Lemma 28, $\left\{\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \gamma_{3}\right\}$ is a maximal clique. Let $C \neq\left\{\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \gamma_{3}\right\}$ denote another maximal clique through $\gamma_{1}$ and $\gamma_{2}$. If $\gamma_{4} \in C \backslash\left\{\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right\}$, then every $v_{4} \in \gamma_{4}$ intersects $v_{3}$. By the proof of Lemma 28, there are $N_{2}=3(2 n-3)$ mutually disjoint elements in $V \backslash\left\{v_{3}\right\}$ which intersect $v_{3}$ and are disjoint from $v_{1} \cup v_{2}$. By Lemma 27, these elements of $V$ correspond to $\frac{N_{2}}{3}=2 n-3$ vertices of $\Gamma$. The maximal clique $C$ necessarily consists of $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}$ and these $2 n-3$ vertices of $\Gamma$. This proves our lemma.

Lemma 31 There is a bijective correspondence between the maximal cliques of size $2 n-1$ in $\Gamma$ and the elements of $B=\left\{\bar{e}_{0}, \ldots, \bar{e}_{2 n-1}\right\}$. There is a bijective correspondence between the vertices of $\Gamma$ and the pairs of the set $B$.

Proof. The graph $\Gamma$ has $\frac{\mid \Gamma \cdot k(\Gamma)}{(2 n-1) \cdot(2 n-2)}=2 n$ maximal cliques of size $2 n-1$, proving the first part of the lemma. Since every vertex of $\Gamma$ is contained in $\frac{k(\Gamma)}{2 n-2}=2$ maximal cliques, it corresponds with a subset of size 2 of $B$. By Lemma 30, every pair of $B$ corresponds to at most one vertex of $\Gamma$. The second part of the lemma now follows since there are as many vertices in $\Gamma$ as there are pairs in $B$.

Lemma 32 Let $v_{1}, v_{2}$ denote two nonequivalent disjoint elements of $V$, let $v_{3}$ denote the reflection of $v_{2}$ around $v_{1}$, and let $\gamma_{k}, k \in\{1,2,3\}$, denote the equivalence class determined by $v_{k}$. Then there exist $\bar{f}_{1}, \bar{f}_{2}, \bar{f}_{3} \in B$ such that $\gamma_{j}, j \in\{1,2,3\}$, corresponds to $\left\{\bar{f}_{j}, \bar{f}_{j+1}\right\}$, where indices are taken modulo 3 .

Proof. Let $\gamma_{1}$ correspond to $\left\{\bar{f}_{1}, \bar{f}_{2}\right\} \subseteq B, \gamma_{2}$ to $\left\{\bar{g}_{1}, \bar{g}_{2}\right\} \subseteq B$ and $\gamma_{3}$ to $\left\{\bar{h}_{1}, \bar{h}_{2}\right\} \subseteq B$. Since $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}$ and $\gamma_{3}$ are not contained in a maximal clique of size $2 n-1,\left\{\bar{f}_{1}, \bar{f}_{2}\right\} \cap$ $\left\{\bar{g}_{1}, \bar{g}_{2}\right\} \cap\left\{\bar{h}_{1}, \bar{h}_{2}\right\}=\emptyset$. Since there is a unique maximal clique of size $2 n-1$ through $\gamma_{1}$ and $\gamma_{2},\left|\left\{\bar{f}_{1}, \bar{f}_{2}\right\} \cap\left\{\bar{g}_{1}, \bar{g}_{2}\right\}\right|=1$. Similarly, $\left|\left\{\bar{f}_{1}, \bar{f}_{2}\right\} \cap\left\{\bar{h}_{1}, \bar{h}_{2}\right\}\right|=1$ and $\left|\left\{\bar{g}_{1}, \bar{g}_{2}\right\} \cap\left\{\bar{h}_{1}, \bar{h}_{2}\right\}\right|=1$. The lemma now immediately follows.

We define $X$ as the set of all points of weight 2 in $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1,4)$ with respect to a fixed reference system.

Lemma 33 The point-line geometry $\Delta$ with point set $V$ and line set $\left\{\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \mathcal{R}_{v_{2}}\left(v_{1}\right)\right\} \mid v_{1}, v_{2} \in V, v_{1} \cap v_{2}=\emptyset\right\}$ is isomorphic to the point-line geometry $\Delta^{\prime}$ whose points are the elements of $X$ and whose lines are those lines $L$ of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1,4)$ for which $|L \cap X|=3$ (natural incidence).

Proof. We first construct a bijection between $V$ and $X$. For every $i \in\{1, \ldots, 2 n-1\}$, the equivalence class corresponding to $\left\{\bar{e}_{0}, \bar{e}_{i}\right\}$ contains three elements of $V$ which can labeled with the three elements of the set $\left\{\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\alpha \bar{e}_{i}\right\rangle \mid \alpha \in \mathrm{GF}(4)^{*}\right\} \subseteq X$. For all $i, j \in\{1,2, \ldots, 2 n-1\}$ with $i<j$ and every $\alpha \in G F(4)^{*}$, the reflection of $\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\alpha \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle$ (regarded as element of $V$ ) around $\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\bar{e}_{i}\right\rangle$ is labeled with the element $\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\alpha \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle$ of $X$. In this way, we have a bijection between $V$ and $X$.

For all $i, j \in\{1,2, \ldots, 2 n-1\}$ with $i<j$, we now define a binary operation $\otimes_{i j}$ on $\mathrm{GF}(4)^{*}$ in the following way: $\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\left(\alpha \otimes_{i j} \beta\right) \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle$ is the reflection of $\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\beta \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle$ about $\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\alpha \bar{e}_{i}\right\rangle$. Clearly $\otimes_{i j}$ determines a latin square of order 3 on the set GF (4)*. Since $1 \otimes_{i j} \alpha=\alpha$ for every $\alpha \in G F(4)^{*}$, we necessarily have $\alpha \otimes_{i j} \beta=\alpha^{\epsilon_{i j}} \cdot \beta$ for some $\epsilon_{i j} \in\{+1,-1\}$.

Let $i, j, k \in\{1, \ldots, 2 n-1\}$ such that $i<j<k$ and let $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \operatorname{GF}(4)^{*}$. Put $v=\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\gamma \bar{e}_{i}\right\rangle, v_{1}=\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\alpha \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle, v_{2}=\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\beta \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle$ and $v_{3}=\left\langle\bar{e}_{j}+\left(\alpha^{\epsilon_{j k}} \cdot \beta\right) \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle$. Since $v_{3}=\mathcal{R}_{v_{1}}\left(v_{2}\right)$ and $\mathcal{R}_{v} \in \operatorname{Aut}(\mathcal{S})$, the reflection of $\mathcal{R}_{v}\left(v_{2}\right)$ around $\mathcal{R}_{v}\left(v_{1}\right)$ equals $\mathcal{R}_{v}\left(v_{3}\right)$. Hence, the reflection of $\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\left(\gamma^{\epsilon_{i j}} \cdot \alpha\right) \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle$ around $\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\left(\gamma^{\epsilon_{i k}} \cdot \beta\right) \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle$ equals $\left\langle\bar{e}_{j}+\left(\alpha^{\epsilon_{j k}} \cdot \beta\right) \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle$. In particular, the reflection of $\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\alpha \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle$ around $\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\beta \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle$ equals $\left\langle\bar{e}_{j}+\left(\alpha^{\epsilon_{j k}} \cdot \beta\right) \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle$. Hence $\left(\gamma^{\epsilon_{i j}} \cdot \alpha\right)^{\epsilon_{j k}} \cdot\left(\gamma^{\epsilon_{i k}} \cdot \beta\right)=\left(\alpha^{\epsilon_{j k}} \cdot \beta\right)$ or $\epsilon_{i j} \epsilon_{j k}=-\epsilon_{i k}$. Putting $\epsilon_{11}=-1$, we have that $\epsilon_{1 j} \epsilon_{j k}=-\epsilon_{1 k}$ for all $j, k \in\{1, \ldots, 2 n-1\}$ with $j<k$.

For a point $v \in V$ with label $\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\alpha \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle, i<j$, we put $\theta(v):=\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\alpha^{\epsilon_{1 j}} \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle$. Clearly $\theta$ is a bijection between $V$ and $X$. Now, choose $i, j$ and $k$ such that $0 \leq i<j<k \leq$ $2 n-1$, and let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathrm{GF}(4)^{*}$. Since $v_{1}:=\theta^{-1}\left(\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\alpha \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle\right)$ and $v_{2}:=\theta^{-1}\left(\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\beta \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle\right)$ have respective labels $\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\alpha^{\epsilon_{1 j}} \bar{e}_{j}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle\bar{e}_{i}+\beta^{\epsilon_{1 k}} \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle$, the reflection $v_{3}$ of $v_{2}$ around $v_{1}$ has label $\left\langle\bar{e}_{j}+\left(\alpha^{\epsilon_{1 j} \epsilon_{j k}} \beta^{\epsilon_{1 k}}\right) \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle$. Hence $\theta\left(v_{3}\right)=\left\langle\bar{e}_{j}+\left(\alpha^{\epsilon_{1 j} \epsilon_{j k} \epsilon_{1 k}} \beta^{\epsilon_{1 k} \epsilon_{1 k}}\right) \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle=\left\langle\bar{e}_{j}+\right.$ $\left.\left(\alpha^{-1} \beta\right) \bar{e}_{k}\right\rangle$. It is now easily seen that $\theta$ is an isomorphism between $\Delta$ and $\Delta^{\prime}$.

Recall that $\mathbb{G}_{n}=\left(Y, Y^{\prime}, \mathrm{I}\right)$, where $Y$ is the set of all good subspaces of dimension $n-1$ and where $Y^{\prime}$ is the set of all good subspaces of dimension $n-2$. We take the following facts from [7]: (a) if $\pi \in Y$, then $\mathcal{G}_{\pi}$ consists of $n$ elements of $X$, (b) if $\pi \in Y^{\prime}$ is a special line of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$, then $\mathcal{G}_{\pi}$ consists of $n-1$ elements of $X$, (c) if $\pi \in Y^{\prime}$ is an ordinary line of $\mathbb{G}_{n}$, then $\mathcal{G}_{\pi}$ consists of $n-2$ elements of $X$ and one point of weight 4.
Every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}$ is contained in $n$ elements $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ of $V$. Since $v_{i} \cap v_{j} \neq \emptyset$, the supports of $\theta\left(v_{i}\right)$ and $\theta\left(v_{j}\right)$ are disjoint. We define $\phi(x):=\left\langle\theta\left(v_{1}\right), \ldots, \theta\left(v_{n}\right)\right\rangle$. Clearly $\phi(x) \in Y$.

Lemma 34 The map $\phi: \mathcal{P} \mapsto Y$ is bijective.
Proof. Let $\pi \in Y$, then $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}:=\theta^{-1}(X \cap \pi)$ is a set of $n$ elements of $V$ and $v_{1} \cap \cdots \cap v_{n}$ is a geodetically closed sub near polygon. Since a line of $\mathcal{S}$ is contained in at most $n-1$ elements of $V,\left|v_{1} \cap \cdots \cap v_{n}\right| \leq 1$. If $\pi=\phi(x)$, then $\{x\}=v_{1} \cap \cdots \cap v_{n}$, proving that $\phi$ is injective. Since $|Y|=|\mathcal{P}|=\frac{3^{n} \cdot(2 n)!}{2^{n} \cdot n!}, \phi$ necessarily is bijective.

For a line $L=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{S}$, we put $\phi^{\prime}(L)=\phi\left(x_{1}\right) \cap \phi\left(x_{2}\right) \cap \phi\left(x_{3}\right)$.

Lemma 35 For every line $L, \phi^{\prime}(L) \in Y^{\prime}$.
Proof. (A) Suppose that $L$ is special. Let $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n-1}$ denote the $n-1$ elements of $V$ through $L$, and let $w_{i}, i \in\{1,2,3\}$, denote the unique element of $V$ through $x_{i}$ not containing $L$. Clearly $\phi^{\prime}(L)=\left\langle\theta\left(v_{1}\right), \ldots, \theta\left(v_{n-1}\right)\right\rangle \in Y^{\prime}$.
(B) Suppose that $L$ is an ordinary line. Let $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n-2}$ denote those elements of $V$ through $L$, and let $u_{i}$ and $w_{i}$ denote the two elements of $V$ through $x_{i}$ not containing $L$. We may suppose that $u_{3}=\mathcal{R}_{u_{1}}\left(u_{2}\right)$. Then $w_{2}=\mathcal{R}_{w_{1}}\left(u_{3}\right)$ and $w_{3}=\mathcal{R}_{u_{1}}\left(w_{2}\right)$. Putting $\theta\left(u_{1}\right)=\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\alpha \bar{e}_{1}\right\rangle, \theta\left(w_{1}\right)=\left\langle\bar{e}_{2}+\beta \bar{e}_{3}\right\rangle$ and $\theta\left(u_{2}\right)=\left\langle\bar{e}_{1}+\gamma \bar{e}_{2}\right\rangle$, we find $\theta\left(u_{3}\right)=\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\alpha \gamma \bar{e}_{2}\right\rangle, \theta\left(w_{2}\right)=\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\alpha \beta \gamma \bar{e}_{3}\right\rangle$ and $\theta\left(w_{3}\right)=\left\langle\bar{e}_{1}+\beta \gamma \bar{e}_{3}\right\rangle$. One easily calculates that $\phi^{\prime}(L)=\left\langle\theta\left(v_{1}\right), \ldots, \theta\left(v_{n-2}\right),\left\langle\bar{e}_{0}+\alpha \bar{e}_{1}+\alpha \gamma \bar{e}_{2}+\alpha \beta \gamma \bar{e}_{3}\right\rangle\right\rangle \in Y^{\prime}$.

Lemma 36 The map $\phi^{\prime}: \mathcal{L} \mapsto Y^{\prime}$ is bijective.
Proof. Let $\pi^{\prime} \in Y^{\prime}$. If $\pi^{\prime}=\phi^{\prime}(L)$, then necessarily $L=\left\{\phi^{-1}(\pi) \mid \pi \in Y\right.$ and $\left.\pi^{\prime} \subset \pi\right\}$. Hence $\phi$ is injective. Since $|\mathcal{L}|=\left|Y^{\prime}\right|=\frac{3^{n-1}(2 n)!(3 n-1)}{2^{n+1}(n-1)!}$, $\phi^{\prime}$ is bijective.

Now, a point $x$ and a line $L$ of $\mathcal{S}$ are incident if and only if $\phi(x)$ and $\phi^{\prime}(L)$ are incident in $\mathbb{G}_{n}$. This proves that $\mathcal{S} \cong \mathbb{G}_{n}$.

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