# On the valuations of the near polygon $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ 

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#### Abstract

We characterize the valuations of the near polygon $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ that are induced by classical valuations of the dual polar space $D W(2 n-1,2)$ into which it is isometrically embeddable. An application to near $2 n$-gons that contain $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ as a full subgeometry is given.


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## 1 Introduction

A point-line geometry $\mathcal{S}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathrm{I})$ with non-empty point set $\mathcal{P}$, line set $\mathcal{L}$ and incidence relation $\mathrm{I} \subseteq \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{L}$ is called a near polygon if the following three properties are satisfied:
(NP1) Every two distinct points are incident with at most one line.
(NP2) For every point $x$ and every line $L$, there exists a unique point on $L$ that is nearest to $x$ with respect to the distance function $\mathrm{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ in the collinearity graph $\Gamma$.
(NP3) The diameter of $\Gamma$ is finite.
If $d$ is the diameter of $\Gamma$, then the near polygon is called a near $2 d$-gon. This paper is about two families of near polygons, the family $D W(2 n-1,2), n \geq 2$ of symplectic dual polar spaces over the field $\mathbb{F}_{2}$ and the family $\mathbb{H}_{n}, n \geq 2$ of near polygons that arise from matchings of complete graphs.

The main tool for studying near polygons that contain isometrically embedded full sub-near-polygons is that of valuations. In the literature, one can find different variants of the notion of valuation, but in the current paper, we will take the most basic definition. A semi-valuation of a near polygon $\mathcal{S}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathrm{I})$ is a map $f: \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ with the property that every line $L$ contains a unique point $x_{L}$ such that $f(x)=f\left(x_{L}\right)+1$ for every point $x$ on $L$ distinct from $x_{L}$. If the minimal value attained by $f$ is equal to 0 , then the semivaluation is called a valuation. If $x$ is a point of a near polygon $\mathcal{S}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathrm{I})$, then the
map $\mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} ; y \mapsto \mathrm{~d}(x, y)$ is a valuation of $\mathcal{S}$, the so-called classical valuation with center $x$. If $\mathcal{S}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{2}$ are two near polygons such that $\mathcal{S}_{1}$ is a full subgeometry of $\mathcal{S}_{2}$, then every semi-valuation of $\mathcal{S}_{2}$ will induce a (semi-) valuation of $\mathcal{S}_{1}$.

Valuations seem to be the most valuable tool when it comes to studying and classifying near polygons that contain isometrically embedded full sub-near-polygons. For this reason, they form an indispensable tool for classifying so-called dense near polygons, as theoretical results of Shult \& Yanushka [18] and Brouwer \& Wilbrink [7] guarantee that such near polygons must have isometrically embedded sub-near-polygons (like quads, hexes, maxes, etc.). It is therefore no surprise that the very first successes of "valuation theory" were achieved in the classification of dense near polygons (more precisely, for octagons with three and four points per line). In more recent years, valuations have also been successful in the study of generalized polygons. They have been used to show that the Ree-Tits generalized octagon of order $(2,4)$ is the unique generalized octagon of that order that contains a suboctagon of order $(2,1)$, to show that the dual twisted triality hexagon of order $(2,8)$ is the unique near hexagon that contains the split Cayley hexagon $H(2)^{D}$ as a proper isometrically embedded full subgeometry, and to show that there are no semi-finite generalized hexagons that contain a subhexagon of order (2,2). More details about these results can be found in $[1,14]$. An overview of the most important results and applications of valuations till the year 2012 can be found in the survey paper [13]. A recent and exciting breakthrough was the fact that valuations have been used to construct new near polygons that are highly symmetric and closely related to finite simple groups [2]. In the latter paper, a chain of near polygons was described that was intimately related to the Suzuki chains of groups and graphs. In the recent work [3], valuations have been used to characterize these Suzuki chain near polygons.

The construction and characterization results obtained in $[1,2,3,14]$ all invoke valuation geometries. The valuation geometry of a near polygon $\mathcal{S}$ is a point-line geometry whose points are the valuations of $\mathcal{S}$ and whose lines are certain nice sets of mutually neighbouring valuations. Two valuations $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ of $\mathcal{S}$ are called neighbouring if there exists an $\epsilon \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\left|f_{1}(x)-f_{2}(x)+\epsilon\right| \leq 1$ for every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}$.

In the believe that we have not yet seen the full potential of valuations and that more classification results are still to come, we pursue our investigation of valuations in the present paper. From the eight basic classes of dense near polygons with three points per line described in [10, Chapter 6], there are seven whose valuations have been completely classified elsewhere in the literature. The remaining class consists of the near polygons $\mathbb{H}_{n}, n \geq 2$ and these are under investigation here.

Although we have not been successful in classifying all valuations of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, we were still able to obtain the following partial classification. In order to understand this theorem, one should know that the near polygon $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ can be isometrically embedded as a full subgeometry in $D W(2 n-1,2)$ and that $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ has full subquadrangles isomorphic to $W(2) \cong \mathbb{H}_{2}$, the so-called $W(2)$-quads (see Section 2).

Theorem 1.1 Suppose $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is isometrically embedded into $D W(2 n-1,2)$. Then:
(1) The valuations of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ induced by the classical valuations of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ are pre-
cisely the valuations of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ for which all induced $W(2)$-quad valuations are classical. In fact, each such valuation of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is induced by precisely one classical valuation of $D W(2 n-1,2)$.
(2) Let $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ be two distinct points of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ and let $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ be the valuations of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ induced by the classical valuations of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ with centers $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$. Then $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are neighbouring if and only if $d\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=1$.

If $x$ is a point and $Q$ is a $W(2)$-quad of a near polygon such that $\mathrm{d}(x, Q)=i$, then by [18, Proposition 2.6] the set of points of $Q$ at distance $i$ from $x$ is either a singleton or an ovoid (which contains a unique point of each line of $Q$ ). The pair $(x, Q)$ is called classical or ovoidal depending on whether the first or last case occurs.

Although Theorem 1.1 does not offer a complete classification of all valuations of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, this result is certainly useful for studying near $2 n$-gons $\mathcal{S}$ that contain $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ as an isometrically embedded subgeometry such that $(x, Q)$ is classical for every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}$ and every $W(2)$-quad $Q$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. Every known such near polygon $\mathcal{S}$ is an isometric embedded full subgeometry of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ and we conjecture that this is always the case. We did not succeed in proving this, but by relying on Theorem 1.1, we were able to prove the following.

Theorem 1.2 Suppose the near polygon $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is isometrically embedded as a full subgeometry in $\Delta=D W(2 n-1,2)$. If $\mathcal{S}$ is a near $2 n$-gon that contains an isometrically embedded copy $\mathbb{H}_{n}^{\prime}$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ such that every point $W(2)$-quad pair $(x, Q)$ with $Q \subseteq \mathbb{H}_{n}^{\prime}$ is classical, then every line of $\mathcal{S}$ is incident with precisely three points and there exists a map $\theta$ from the point set of $\mathcal{S}$ to the point set of $\Delta=D W(2 n-1,2)$ satisfying the following:
(1) $\theta$ defines an isomorphism between $\mathbb{H}_{n}^{\prime}$ and $\mathbb{H}_{n}$.
(2) If $\{x, y, z\}$ is a line of $\mathcal{S}$, then $\left\{x^{\theta}, y^{\theta}, z^{\theta}\right\}$ is a line of $\Delta=D W(2 n-1,2)$.
(3) If $x$ is a point of $\mathcal{S}$ and $y$ is a point of $\mathbb{H}_{n}^{\prime}$, then $d_{\mathcal{S}}(x, y)=d_{\Delta}\left(x^{\theta}, y^{\theta}\right)$. In particular, we have $d_{\mathcal{S}}\left(x, \mathbb{H}_{n}^{\prime}\right)=d_{\Delta}\left(x^{\theta}, \mathbb{H}_{n}\right)$.

Note that if the map $\theta$ in Theorem 1.2 is injective, then $\mathcal{S}$ can be regarded as a full subgeometry of $D W(2 n-1,2)$.

## 2 Preliminaries and useful results

### 2.1 The near polygon $\mathbb{H}_{n}$

The near polygon $\mathbb{H}_{n}, n \geq 2$, is defined as the point-line geometry whose points are the partitions of the set $X=\{1,2, \ldots, 2 n+2\}$ in $n+1$ subsets of size 2 and whose lines are the partitions of $X$ in one subset of size 4 and $n-1$ subsets of size 2 . A point $p$ is incident
with a line $L$ if and only if $p$ (regarded as a partition) is a refinement of $L . \mathbb{H}_{n}$ is a near $2 n$-gon with three points per line. The near polygon $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ was introduced in $[6$, Section $5]$ and its basic properties can be found in [10, Section 6.2]. Throughout this paper, we meet two families of full subgeometries of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$.
(1) Suppose $n \geq 3$ and $Y$ is a subset of size 2 of $X$. Then the points of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ that contain $Y$ form a subspace of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ on which the induced geometry is isomorphic to $\mathbb{H}_{n-1}$. We call these full subgeometries the $\mathbb{H}_{n-1}$-subgeometries.
(2) Suppose $\Pi$ is a partition of $X$ in one subset of size 6 and $n-2$ subsets of size 2 . Then the points of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ that refine the partition $\Pi$ form a subspace on which the induced subgeometry is isomorphic to the generalized quadrangle $W(2) \cong \mathbb{H}_{2}$. We call these full subgeometries the $W(2)$-quads.

In the abstract theory of near polygons, quads are defined as non-empty convex subspaces on which the induced full subgeometries are (nondegenerate) generalized quadrangles [15]. The near $2 n$-gon $\mathbb{H}_{n}, n \geq 3$ has two types of quads, the $W(2)$-quads defined above and the grid-quads (which are associated with partitions $\Pi$ of $X$ in two subsets of size 4 and $n-3$ subsets of size 2). The following facts are well-known, see e.g. [10, Section 6.2].

Lemma 2.1 (1) Suppose $M$ is an $\mathbb{H}_{n-1}$-subgeometry of $\mathbb{H}_{n}, n \geq 3$. Then $d(x, M) \leq 1$ for every point $x$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. Moreover, there exists a unique point $\pi_{M}(x) \in M$ such that $d(x, y)=d\left(x, \pi_{M}(x)\right)+d\left(\pi_{M}(x), y\right)$ for every point $y$ of $M$.
(2) Suppose $M$ is an $\mathbb{H}_{n-1}$-subgeometry and $Q$ is a quad of $\mathbb{H}_{n}, n \geq 3$ that meets $M$, but is not contained in $M$. Then $Q \cap M$ is a line.

Lemma 2.2 There exists a partition of $\mathbb{H}_{n}, n \geq 3$ in $2 n+1$ mutually disjoint $\mathbb{H}_{n-1^{-}}$subgeometries.
Proof. Consider the $2 n+1 \mathbb{H}_{n-1}$-subgeometries corresponding to the subsets $\{1, i\}$ of $X$, where $i \in\{2,3, \ldots, 2 n+2\}$.

### 2.2 The near polygon $D W(2 n-1,2)$

With a symplectic polarity $\zeta$ of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1,2)$, there is associated a polar space $W(2 n-1,2)$ in the sense of Tits [19, Chapter 7]. The points of $W(2 n-1,2)$ are the points of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-$ $1,2)$, while the singular subspaces of $W(2 n-1,2)$ are the subspaces of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1,2)$ that are totally isotropic with respect to $\zeta$. With $W(2 n-1,2)$, there is associated a dual polar space. This is the point-line geometry whose points are the maximal singular subspaces of $W(2 n-1,2)$ (those of dimension $n-1)$ and whose lines are the next-tomaximal singular subspaces of $W(2 n-1,2)$ (those of dimension $n-2$ ), with incidence being reverse containment. The dual polar space $D W(2 n-1,2)$ is a near $2 n$-gon with three points per line. If $x$ is a point of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, then $\Gamma_{i}(x)$ with $i \in \mathbb{N}$ denotes the set of points at distance $i$ from $x$, and $x^{\perp}:=\{x\} \cup \Gamma_{1}(x)$.

If $\alpha$ is a singular subspace of $W(2 n-1,2)$ of dimension $n-1-k$ where $k \in\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$, then the set of all maximal singular subspaces of $W(2 n-1,2)$ containing $\alpha$ is a convex subspace $F_{\alpha}$ of diameter $k$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. This correspondence between singular subspaces of $W(2 n-1,2)$ and non-empty convex subspaces of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ is bijective. We will say that $\alpha$ is the singular subspace of $W(2 n-1,2)$ corresponding to $F_{\alpha}$, or that $F_{\alpha}$ is the convex subspace of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ corresponding to $\alpha$. Convex subspaces of diameter 2 are called quads and those of diameter $n-1$ are called maxes. The convex subspaces through a given point $x$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, ordered by ordinary inclusion, define a projective space $\operatorname{Res}(x)$ isomorphic to $\operatorname{PG}(n-1,2)$. Every two points $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ at distance $k$ from each other are contained in a unique convex subspace $\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}\right\rangle$ of diameter $k$.

Suppose $F$ is a convex subspace of diameter $k$. If $k \geq 2$, then the full subgeometry $\widetilde{F}$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ induced on $F$ by the lines that have all their points in $F$ is isomorphic to $D W(2 k-1,2)$. In particular, if $k=2$, then $F$ is a quad and $\widetilde{F} \cong D W(3,2) \cong W(2)$. By abuse of notation, we will often write $F \cong D W(2 k-1,2)$ instead of $\widetilde{F} \cong D W(2 k-1,2)$. The maximal distance from a point $x$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ to $F$ is equal to $n-k$. Moreover, there exists a unique point $\pi_{F}(x) \in F$ such that $\mathrm{d}(x, y)=\mathrm{d}\left(x, \pi_{F}(x)\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{F}(x), y\right)$ for every point $y$ of $F$. A non-empty convex subspace of a near polygon having the latter property is called classical.

Two non-empty convex subspaces $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ are called parallel if $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, F_{2}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, F_{1}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(F_{1}, F_{2}\right)$ for every $x_{1} \in F_{1}$ and every $x_{2} \in F_{2}$. If $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ are two parallel convex subspaces of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, then they have the same diameter and the map $F_{i} \rightarrow F_{3-i} ; x \mapsto \pi_{F_{3-i}}(x)$ defines an isomorphism between $\widetilde{F}_{i}$ and $\widetilde{F_{3-i}}$ for every $i \in\{1,2\}$. Moreover, $\theta_{1}^{-1}=\theta_{2}$.

Consider the ambient projective space $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1,2)$ of $W(2 n-1,2)$. A line $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1,2)$ that is not a singular line of $W(2 n-1,2)$ is called a hyperbolic line of $W(2 n-1,2)$. If $M_{i}$ with $i \in\{1,2,3\}$ is the max of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ corresponding to the point $x_{i}$, then $\left\{M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}\right\}$ is called a hyperbolic set of maxes. This is a set of three mutually disjoint maxes such that every line meeting two of them also meets the third.

A hyperplane of a point-line geometry $\mathcal{S}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathrm{I})$ is a proper subset of $\mathcal{P}$ that meets each line in either a singleton or the whole line. If $x$ is a point of a near $2 n$-gon $\mathcal{S}$ for which $\Gamma_{n}(x) \neq \emptyset$, then the set of points of $\mathcal{S}$ at distance at most $n-1$ from $x$ is a hyperplane of $\mathcal{S}$, the so-called singular hyperplane with center $x$.

Lemma 2.3 Let $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ be two distinct points of the dual polar space $D W(2 n-1,2)$, $n \geq 2$, and let $H_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, denote the singular hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ with center $x_{i}$. Then the complement $H_{3}$ of the symmetric difference of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ is a singular hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ if and only if $d\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \in\{1,2\}$. If $d\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=1$ and if $x_{3}$ is the center of the singular hyperplane $H_{3}$, then $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is a line of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. If $d\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=2$ and if $x_{3}$ is the center of the singular hyperplane $H_{3}$, then $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is a hyperbolic line of the quad $\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}\right\rangle \cong W(2)$.
Proof. (1) Suppose $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=1$, let $x_{3}$ be the third point of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ on the line $x_{1} x_{2}$ and let $H_{3}$ denote the singular hyperplane with center $x_{3}$. We show that $H_{3}$
coincides with the complement of the symmetric difference of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. So, we must show that an arbitrary point $u$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ is contained in either 1 or 3 of the sets $H_{1}, H_{2}$ and $H_{3}$, or equivalently, that $u$ is opposite to either 0 or 2 of the points $x_{1}, x_{2}$ and $x_{3}$. But this follows from the fact that $D W(2 n-1,2)$ is a near $2 n$-gon.
(2) Suppose $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=2$ and let $Q \cong W(2)$ be the unique quad through $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$. Let $x_{3}$ denote the unique point of $Q$ distinct from $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ which is collinear with every point of $\Gamma_{1}\left(x_{1}\right) \cap \Gamma_{1}\left(x_{2}\right)$, and let $H_{3}$ denote the singular hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ with center $x_{3}$. Note that $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is a hyperbolic line of $Q \cong W(2)$. For every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, put $U_{i}:=x_{i}^{\perp} \cap Q$. We show that $H_{3}$ coincides with the complement of the symmetric difference of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Since $Q$ is classical in $D W(2 n-1,2)$, this is equivalent with showing that $U_{3}$ coincides with the complement of the symmetric difference of $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}$ (in $Q$ ). The latter claim is easily verified by a direct inspection in $Q \cong W(2)$.
(3) Suppose $n=3$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=3$. Let $H$ be the hyperplane of $D W(5,2)$ which is the complement of the symmetric difference of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Then it is known (see e.g. Cooperstein [9, proof of Proposition 2.1]) that $\widetilde{H}$ is isomorphic to the split Cayley generalized hexagon of order 2 . The hyperplane $H$ is therefore called a hexagonal hyperplane of $D W(5,2)$. So, $H$ is not a singular hyperplane.
(4) Suppose now that $\delta:=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \geq 3$. We prove by downwards induction on $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, \delta\}$ that there exists a convex subspace $F_{i}$ of diameter $i$ such that

- $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, \pi_{F_{i}}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F_{i}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=n-i ;$
- $\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{F_{i}}\left(x_{1}\right), \pi_{F_{i}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=i$.

Suppose first that $i=\delta$. In the dual polar space $D W(2 n-1,2)$, there exists a point $y$ at maximal distance $n$ from $x_{2}$ such that $x_{1}$ is on a shortest path from $x_{2}$ to $y$. So, $\mathrm{d}\left(y, x_{1}\right)=n-\delta$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(y, x_{2}\right)=n$. Recall that the convex subspaces of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ through $y$ define an ( $n-1$ )-dimensional projective space $\operatorname{Res}(y)$. The convex subspace $\left\langle x_{1}, y\right\rangle$ corresponds to an $(n-1-\delta)$-dimensional subspace $\alpha$ of $\operatorname{Res}(y)$. Let $F_{\delta}$ denote a convex subspace of diameter $\delta$ through $y$ such that the $(\delta-1)$-dimensional subspace $\beta$ of $\operatorname{Res}(y)$ corresponding to $F_{\delta}$ is disjoint from $\alpha$. Since $\pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{1}\right)$ is on a shortest path between $x_{1}$ and $y$, the convex subspace $\left\langle\pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{1}\right), y\right\rangle$ is contained in both $F_{\delta}$ and $\left\langle x_{1}, y\right\rangle$. Hence, $y=\pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{1}\right)$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, \pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, y\right)=n-\delta$. If $z$ is a point of $F_{\delta}$ at distance $\delta$ from $\pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{2}\right)$, then from $n \geq \mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, z\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)+$ $\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{2}\right), z\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)+\delta$, it follows that $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right) \leq n-\delta$. From $n=$ $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, y\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{2}\right), \pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{1}\right)\right) \leq n-\delta+\delta=n$, it follows that $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=n-\delta$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{1}\right), \pi_{F_{\delta}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=\delta$.

Suppose $i<\delta$. By the induction hypothesis, there exists a convex subspace $F_{i+1}$ of diameter $i+1$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ satisfying $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, \pi_{F_{i+1}}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F_{i+1}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=n-i-1$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{F_{i+1}}\left(x_{1}\right), \pi_{F_{i+1}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=i+1$. Put $x_{1}^{\prime}:=\pi_{F_{i+1}}\left(x_{1}\right)$ and $x_{2}^{\prime}:=\pi_{F_{i+1}}\left(x_{2}\right)$. Now, let $L_{1}$ denote a line of $F_{i+1}$ through the point $x_{1}^{\prime}$ and let $y_{1}$ denote the unique point of $L_{1}$ at distance $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}^{\prime}, x_{2}^{\prime}\right)-1=i$ from $x_{2}^{\prime}$. Let $L_{2}$ denote a line of $F_{i+1}$ through $x_{2}^{\prime}$ not contained in $\left\langle y_{1}, x_{2}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ and let $y_{2}$ denote the unique point of $L_{2}$ at distance $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}^{\prime}, x_{2}^{\prime}\right)-1=i$ from $x_{1}^{\prime}$. Let $z_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, denote the unique point of the line $L_{i}$ distinct from $x_{i}^{\prime}$ and $y_{i}$. Recall that for every point $u$ of $L_{j}, j \in\{1,2\}$, there exists a unique point on $L_{3-j}$ nearest to $u$. Using
this it is straightforward to verify that $\mathrm{d}\left(L_{1}, L_{2}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}^{\prime}, y_{2}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}^{\prime}, y_{1}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right)=i$. Put $F_{i}:=\left\langle z_{1}, z_{2}\right\rangle$. Since $F_{i}$ does not contain the points $x_{1}^{\prime}$ and $x_{2}^{\prime}$, we have $\pi_{F_{i}}\left(x_{1}\right)=z_{1}$ and $\pi_{F_{i}}\left(x_{2}\right)=z_{2}$. So, $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, \pi_{F_{i}}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, \pi_{F_{i+1}}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{F_{i+1}}\left(x_{1}\right), z_{1}\right)=n-i-1+1=$ $n-i, \mathrm{~d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F_{i}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F_{i+1}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{F_{i+1}}\left(x_{2}\right), z_{2}\right)=n-i-1+1=n-i$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{F_{i}}\left(x_{1}\right), \pi_{F_{i}}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right)=i$.

Suppose now that the complement of the symmetric difference of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ is a singular hyperplane $H_{3}$ with center $x_{3}$. Put $F:=F_{3}$ and $H_{i}^{\prime}:=F \cap H_{i}$ for every $i \in$ $\{1,2,3\}$. Recall that $F$ is classical in $D W(2 n-1,2)$. If $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{3}, \pi_{F}\left(x_{3}\right)\right)<n-3$, then $F \subset H_{3}$ and hence $H_{3}^{\prime}=F$. If $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{3}, \pi_{F}\left(x_{3}\right)\right)=n-3$, then $H_{3}^{\prime}=H_{3} \cap F$ is the singular hyperplane of $\widetilde{F}$ with center $\pi_{F}\left(x_{3}\right)$. Since $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, \pi_{F}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, \pi_{F}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=n-3$, the hyperplanes $H_{1}^{\prime}$ and $H_{2}^{\prime}$ of $\widetilde{F}$ are singular hyperplanes having the points $\pi_{F}\left(x_{1}\right)$ and $\pi_{F}\left(x_{2}\right)$ as respective centers. Now, $H_{3}^{\prime}$ equals the complement of the symmetric difference of $H_{1}^{\prime}$ and $H_{2}^{\prime}$. Since $\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{F}\left(x_{1}\right), \pi_{F}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)=3, H_{3}^{\prime}$ should be a hexagonal hyperplane of $\widetilde{F}$ (recall (3)). But that is impossible since $H_{3}^{\prime}$ is either $F$ or a singular hyperplane of $\widetilde{F}$.

### 2.3 Isometric embeddings of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ in $D W(2 n-1,2)$

With a full isometric embedding of a point-line geometry $\mathcal{S}_{1}=\left(\mathcal{P}_{1}, \mathcal{L}_{1}, \mathrm{I}_{1}\right)$ into a point-line geometry $\mathcal{S}_{2}=\left(\mathcal{P}_{2}, \mathcal{L}_{2}, \mathrm{I}_{2}\right)$, we mean an injective map $\theta: \mathcal{P}_{1} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}_{2}$ that maps lines of $\mathcal{S}_{1}$ to lines of $\mathcal{S}_{2}$ such that $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}_{1}}(x, y)=\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}_{2}}\left(x^{\theta}, y^{\theta}\right)$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{P}_{1}$. By [6, Section 5], there exists a (full) isometric embedding of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ into $D W(2 n-1,2)$. By [12], such an embedding is even unique, up to isomorphism. If $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is isometrically embedded into $D W(2 n-1,2)$, then every two points $x$ and $y$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ are contained in a unique convex subspace $F$ of diameter $k$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ and a unique convex subspace $\bar{F}$ of diameter $k$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. Moreover, the points of $F$ are precisely those points of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ that are contained in $\bar{F}$ ([12, Proposition 2.5]).

Lemma 2.4 Suppose $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is isometrically embedded into $D W(2 n-1,2)$, and let $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ be two disjoint $\mathbb{H}_{n-1}$-subgeometries of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. Then $\overline{M_{1}}$ and $\overline{M_{2}}$ are two disjoint maxes of $D W(2 n-1,2)$.

Proof. This is a special case of Proposition 2.7 of De Bruyn [12].
Lemma 2.5 Suppose $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is isometrically embedded into $D W(2 n-1,2)$. Then for every quad $Q$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, there exists a $W(2)$-quad $Q^{\prime}$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ parallel with $Q$.

Proof. We will prove this by induction on the diameter $n$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$.
Suppose first that $n=2$. Then $\mathbb{H}_{2} \cong D W(3,2) \cong W(2)$. The claim is obvious as there is only one quad in $D W(3,2)$.

Suppose therefore that $n \geq 3$ and that the claim of the lemma holds for every isometric embedding of $\mathbb{H}_{n^{\prime}}$ into $D W\left(2 n^{\prime}-1,2\right)$, where $n^{\prime} \in\{2,3, \ldots, n-1\}$. Let $Q$ be an arbitrary quad of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. By Lemma 2.2, there exists a collection $M_{1}, M_{2}, \ldots, M_{2 n+1}$ of mutually disjoint $\mathbb{H}_{n-1}$-subgeometries of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ partitioning its point set. For every $i \in$ $\{1,2, \ldots, 2 n+1\}$, let $\overline{M_{i}}, i \in\{1,2, \ldots, 2 n+1\}$, denote the unique max of $D W(2 n-1,2)$
containing $M_{i}$. Then $\widetilde{M_{i}} \cong \mathbb{H}_{n-1}$ is isometrically embedded into $\widetilde{\bar{M}_{i}} \cong D W(2 n-3,2)$. By Lemma 2.4, $\left\{\overline{M_{1}}, \overline{M_{2}}, \ldots, \overline{M_{2 n+1}}\right\}$ is a set of $2 n+1$ mutually disjoint maxes of $D W(2 n-$ $1,2)$.

We prove that there exists a $j \in\{1,2, \ldots, 2 n+1\}$ such that $\overline{M_{j}}$ is disjoint from $Q$. If this would not be the case, then by Lemma $2.1(2)$ each $\overline{M_{i}}, i \in\{1,2, \ldots, 2 n+1\}$, intersects $Q$ in at least a line. This would imply that $15=|Q| \geq(2 n+1) \cdot 3 \geq 21$, a contradiction.

So, let $j \in\{1,2, \ldots, 2 n+1\}$ such that $\overline{M_{j}} \cap Q=\emptyset$. Then $\pi_{\overline{M_{j}}}(Q)$ is a $W(2)$-quad of $\widetilde{M_{j}} \cong D W(2 n-3,2)$. By the induction hypothesis, there exists a $W(2)$-quad $Q^{\prime}$ of $\widetilde{M_{j}} \cong \mathbb{H}_{n-1}$ such that $\pi_{\overline{M_{j}}}(Q)$ and $Q^{\prime}$ are parallel quads of $\widetilde{M_{j}}$. Since $\overline{M_{j}}$ is a classical convex subspace of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, it is now readily seen that also the quads $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ need to be parallel.

The dual polar space $D W(2 n-1,2), n \geq 2$, has a nice full projective embedding $\epsilon$ in a projective space $\operatorname{PG}(V)$, where $V$ is some vector space of dimension $\binom{2 n}{n}-\binom{2 n}{n-2}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{2}$, see e.g. Cooperstein [8, Proposition 5.1]. This embedding is known as the Grassmann embedding. If $\Pi$ is a hyperplane of $\mathrm{PG}(V)$, then the set of all points of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ that are mapped into $\Pi$ by $\epsilon$ is a hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, a so-called hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ arising from the Grassmann embedding.

Lemma 2.6 Suppose $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is isometrically embedded into $D W(2 n-1,2)$. Then for every hyperplane $H$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, there exists a unique hyperplane $H^{\prime}$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ arising from the Grassmann embedding such that $H \subseteq H^{\prime}$. For this hyperplane $H^{\prime}$, we have $H=\mathbb{H}_{n} \cap H^{\prime}$.

Proof. Let $\epsilon_{1}: D W(2 n-1,2) \rightarrow \Sigma_{1}$ denote the Grassmann embedding of the dual polar space $D W(2 n-1,2)$. Then $\epsilon_{1}$ induces an embedding $\epsilon_{2}$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ into a subspace $\Sigma_{2}$ of $\Sigma_{1}$. By [5, Section 3] and [6, Section 5], $\Sigma_{2}=\Sigma_{1}$ and $\epsilon_{2}$ is isomorphic to the so-called universal embedding of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. This means by [16, Corollary 2, p. 180] that there exists a unique hyperplane $\Pi$ of $\Sigma:=\Sigma_{1}=\Sigma_{2}$ such that $H=\epsilon_{2}^{-1}\left(\epsilon_{2}(X) \cap \Pi\right)=\epsilon_{1}^{-1}\left(\epsilon_{1}(X) \cap \Pi\right)$, where $X$ is the point set of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. Now, put $H^{\prime \prime}:=\epsilon_{1}^{-1}\left(\epsilon_{1}(\mathcal{P}) \cap \Pi\right)$, where $\mathcal{P}$ is the set of points of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. Then $H^{\prime \prime}$ is a hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ arising from the Grassmann embedding such that $H \subseteq H^{\prime \prime} \cap X \subsetneq X$. By [4, Theorem 7.3] and [17, Lemma 6.1], the hyperplane $H$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ must be a maximal proper subspace, implying that $H=X \cap H^{\prime \prime}$. The maximality of $H$ also implies that $\epsilon_{1}(H)$ generates the subspace $\Pi$.

Conversely, suppose that $H^{\prime}$ is a hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ arising from the Grassmann embedding such that $H \subseteq H^{\prime}$. Let $\Pi^{\prime}$ be the unique hyperplane of $\Sigma$ such that $H^{\prime}:=\epsilon_{1}^{-1}\left(\epsilon_{1}(\mathcal{P}) \cap \Pi^{\prime}\right)$. As $H \subseteq H^{\prime}$ and $\epsilon_{1}(H)$ generates $\Pi$, we should have $\Pi^{\prime}=\Pi$, i.e. $H^{\prime}=H^{\prime \prime}$.

### 2.4 Semi-valuations of near polygons

Suppose $\mathcal{S}=(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathrm{I})$ is a near polygon having only lines of size 3. Suppose also that $f_{1}: \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ and $f_{2}: \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ are two maps such that $\left|f_{1}(x)-f_{2}(x)\right| \leq 1$ for every
point $x \in \mathcal{P}$. If $f_{1}(x)=f_{2}(x)$, then we define $f_{1} \diamond f_{2}(x):=f_{1}(x)-1=f_{2}(x)-1$. If $\left|f_{1}(x)-f_{2}(x)\right|=1$, then we define $f_{1} \diamond f_{2}(x):=\max \left\{f_{1}(x), f_{2}(x)\right\}$. Clearly, $f_{2} \diamond f_{1}=f_{1} \diamond f_{2}$. Notice also that $\left|f_{1}(x)-f_{1} \diamond f_{2}(x)\right|,\left|f_{2}(x)-f_{1} \diamond f_{2}(x)\right| \leq 1$ for every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}$, and that $\left(f_{1} \diamond f_{2}\right) \diamond f_{1}=f_{2}$ and $\left(f_{1} \diamond f_{2}\right) \diamond f_{2}=f_{1}$. The following lemma was proved in [11, Proposition 2.4].

Lemma 2.7 ([11]) Suppose $\mathcal{S}$ is a near polygon having only lines of size 3 and $f_{1}, f_{2}$ are two semi-valuations of $\mathcal{S}$ such that $\left|f_{1}(x)-f_{2}(x)\right| \leq 1$ for every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}$. Then also $f_{1} \diamond f_{2}$ is a semi-valuation of $\mathcal{S}$.

For a proof of the following result, see Lemma 2.2 of [1].
Lemma 2.8 ([1]) Let $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ be two near polygons such that $\mathcal{S}$ is an isometrically embedded subgeometry of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$. For every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ and for every point $y$ of $\mathcal{S}$, we define $f_{x}(y):=d(x, y)$. Then:
(1) For every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, the map $f_{x}$ is a semi-valuation of $\mathcal{S}$.
(2) If $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are two collinear points of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, then $f_{x_{1}}$ and $f_{x_{2}}$ are two neighbouring semi-valuations of $\mathcal{S}$.
(3) If $L=\{x, y, z\}$ is a line of size 3 of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, then $f_{x} \diamond f_{y}=f_{z}$.

## 3 Proof of Theorem 1.1(1)

In this section, we suppose that $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is isometrically embedded into $D W(2 n-1,2)$.
Lemma 3.1 For every point $x$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, there exists a point of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ at maximal distance $n$ from $x$.

Proof. Let $y$ be a point of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ at maximal distance $\delta$ from $x$, and let $F$ denote the unique convex subspace of diameter $\delta$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ containing $x$ and $y$. Then $F \cap \mathbb{H}_{n}$ is a convex subspace of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ whose diameter $\delta^{\prime}$ is at most $\delta$. Suppose $\delta \leq n-1$. Then also $\delta^{\prime} \leq n-1$ and so there exists a line $L$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ through $y$ not contained in $F \cap \mathbb{H}_{n}$. In particular, $L$ is not contained in $F$ and thus contains a point at distance $\delta+1$ from $x$, in contradiction with the maximality of $\mathrm{d}(x, y)$. We must thus have that $\delta=n$.

If $x$ is a point of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, then the classical valuation of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ with center $x$ induces a valuation $g_{x}$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. For every point $y$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, we have $g_{x}(y)=\mathrm{d}(x, y)-m_{x}$, where $m_{x}:=\mathrm{d}\left(x, \mathbb{H}_{n}\right)$. Lemma 3.1 then implies the following.

Corollary 3.2 If $M_{x}$ is the maximal value attained by $g_{x}$, then $m_{x}+M_{x}=n$.
Lemma 3.3 Every $W(2)$-quad valuation induced by $g_{x}$ is classical.

Proof. Let $Q$ be a $W(2)$-quad of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. Then $Q$ is also a $W(2)$-quad of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ and so is classical in $D W(2 n-1,2)$. It follows that there exists a unique point $x^{\prime} \in Q$ such that $\mathrm{d}(x, y)=\mathrm{d}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ for every $y \in Q$. The latter implies that $g_{x}(y)=g_{x}\left(x^{\prime}\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ for every $y \in Q$, i.e. the valuation of $\widetilde{Q}$ induced by $g_{x}$ is a classical with center equal to $x^{\prime}$.

Lemma 3.4 If $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are two distinct points of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, then $g_{x_{1}} \neq g_{x_{2}}$.
Proof. For every $i \in\{1,2\}$, let $H_{i}$ denote the singular hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ with center $x_{i}$. By Lemma 3.1, $H_{i} \cap \mathbb{H}_{n}$ is a hyperplane $H_{i}^{\prime}$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. Since $H_{1}, H_{2}$ arise from the Grassmann embedding and $H_{1} \neq H_{2}$, we must have $H_{1}^{\prime} \neq H_{2}^{\prime}$ by Lemma 2.6. As $H_{i}^{\prime}$ with $i \in\{1,2\}$ is the set of points of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ with non-maximal $g_{x_{i}}$-value, we must have that $g_{x_{1}} \neq g_{x_{2}}$.

Let $M_{1}$ be the $\mathbb{H}_{n-1}$-subgeometry of $\mathbb{H}_{n}, n \geq 3$ corresponding to the pair $\{1,2\}$, let $M_{2}$ be the $\mathbb{H}_{n-1}$-subgeometry of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ corresponding to the pair $\{1,3\}$ and let $M_{3}$ denote the $\mathbb{H}_{n-1}$-subgeometry of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ corresponding to the pair $\{2,3\}$. Then $M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}$ are mutually disjoint and every line meeting two of $M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}$ also meets the third. For every $i \in\{1,2,3\}, \widetilde{M}_{i} \cong \mathbb{H}_{n-1}$ is isometrically embedded into $\widetilde{M_{i}} \cong D W(2 n-3,2)$. Note also that $\left\{\overline{M_{1}}, \overline{M_{2}}, \overline{M_{3}}\right\}$ is a hyperbolic set of maxes of $D W(2 n-1,2)$.

Lemma 3.5 Suppose $g_{1}$ and $g_{2}$ are two semi-valuations of $\mathbb{H}_{n}, n \geq 3$ for which all induced $W(2)$-quad valuations are classical. If $g_{1}(x)=g_{2}(x)$ for all $x \in M_{1} \cup M_{2} \cup M_{3}$, then $g_{1}=g_{2}$.
Proof. We still need to prove that $g_{1}(x)=g_{2}(x)$ for every point $x$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ not contained in $M_{1} \cup M_{2} \cup M_{3}$. We will rely on Lemma 2.1. For every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, let $x_{i}$ denote the unique point of $M_{i}$ collinear with $x$. Then $\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=2$ and the quad $Q:=\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}\right\rangle$ intersects each $M_{i}$ in a line $L_{i}$. The quad $Q$ intersects $M_{1} \cup M_{2} \cup M_{3}$ in the $3 \times 3$-grid $G=L_{1} \cup L_{2} \cup L_{3}$ and contains the additional point $x$, showing that $Q$ is a $W(2)$-quad. There are now two cases to consider.
(1) $g_{1}$ (and hence $g_{2}$ ) takes three values in $G$. Then there exists a point $u \in G$ such that $g_{1}(y)=g_{2}(y)=g_{1}(u)+\mathrm{d}(u, y)$ for every $y \in G$. The fact that all induced $W(2)$-quad valuations are classical then implies that $g_{1}(y)=g_{2}(y)=g_{1}(u)+\mathrm{d}(u, y)$ for every $y \in Q$. In particular, $g_{1}(x)=g_{2}(x)$.
(2) $g_{1}$ (and hence $g_{2}$ ) takes two values in $G$. Then there exists an ovoid $\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}\right\}$ of $G$ such that $g_{1}\left(u_{1}\right)=g_{1}\left(u_{2}\right)=g_{1}\left(u_{3}\right)=g_{1}(v)-1$ for every $v \in G \backslash\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}\right\}$. If $u \in Q$ denotes the unique point of $Q$ collinear with $u_{1}, u_{2}$ and $u_{3}$, then the fact that all induced $W(2)$-quad valuations are classical implies that $g_{1}(y)=g_{2}(y)=g_{1}(u)+d(u, y)$ for every $y \in Q$. In particular, $g_{1}(x)=g_{2}(x)$.

Suppose now that $f$ is a valuation of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ with the property that every induced $W(2)$-quad valuation is classical. By Lemma 3.4 we then know that $f$ is induced by at most one classical valuation of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. So, if we are able to prove that there exists a point
$x$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ and an $\epsilon \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f(y)=\mathrm{d}(x, y)+\epsilon$ for every point $y$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, then we would have shown the validity of Theorem 1.1(1). We will prove this by induction on $n$, the case $n=2$ being trivial. So, suppose $n \geq 3$. For every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$ and for every point $x$ of $M_{1}$, we define $f_{i}(x):=f\left(\pi_{M_{i}}(x)\right)$. Then $f_{1}, f_{2}$ and $f_{3}$ are three semi-valuations of $\widetilde{M}_{1} \cong \mathbb{H}_{n-1}$ with the property that all induced $W(2)$-quad valuations are classical. Note that $\left\{x, \pi_{M_{2}}(x), \pi_{M_{3}}(x)\right\}$ is a line for every $x \in M_{1}$. So, $\left|f_{1}(x)-f_{2}(x)\right| \leq 1$ for every point $x$ of $M_{1}$ and $f_{1} \diamond f_{2}=f_{3}$. For every $\delta \in \mathbb{Z}$ and every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, the map $f_{i}+\delta: x \mapsto f_{i}(x)+\delta$ also is a semi-valuation of $M_{1}$. We denote by $\left[f_{i}\right]$ the set of all semi-valuations of $M_{1}$ that arise in this way. We now distinguish two cases.
(I) Suppose $\left[f_{1}\right]=\left[f_{2}\right]$. Then $\left[f_{1}\right]=\left[f_{2}\right]=\left[f_{3}\right]$. As $f_{1} \diamond f_{2}=f_{3}$, there exists a $j \in\{1,2,3\}$ such that $f_{j}+1=f_{j+1}=f_{j+2}$, where the additions in the subindices happen modulo 3. By the induction hypothesis, there exists a unique point $x_{j} \in \overline{M_{1}}$ and a unique $\epsilon \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f_{j}(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{j}, x\right)+\epsilon$ for every $x \in M_{1}$. Now, put $x^{*}:=\pi_{\overline{M_{j}}}\left(x_{j}\right)$. Since $\left\{\overline{M_{1}}, \overline{M_{2}}, \overline{M_{3}}\right\}$ is a hyperbolic set of maxes of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ and $f_{j+1}=f_{j+2}=f_{j}+1$, we have $f(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x^{*}, x\right)+\epsilon$ for every $x \in M_{1} \cup M_{2} \cup M_{3}$. By Lemma 3.3, the map $x \mapsto \mathrm{~d}\left(x^{*}, x\right)+\epsilon$ also defines a semi-valuation of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ for which all induced $W(2)$-quad valuations are classical. By Lemma 3.5, we thus have that $f(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x^{*}, x\right)+\epsilon$ for every point $x$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$.
(II) Suppose $\left[f_{1}\right] \neq\left[f_{2}\right]$. Then $\left[f_{1}\right],\left[f_{2}\right]$ and $\left[f_{3}\right]$ are mutually distinct. For every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, let $H_{i}$ denote the set of all points of $M_{1}$ having non-maximal $f_{i}$-value. Then $H_{1}, H_{2}$ and $H_{3}$ are hyperplanes of $\widetilde{M}_{1}$. Since $f_{1} \diamond f_{2}=f_{3}$ and $\left[f_{1}\right],\left[f_{2}\right],\left[f_{3}\right]$ are mutually distinct, we know from [11, Proposition 2.14] that $H_{3}=H_{1} * H_{2}:=M_{1} \backslash\left(H_{1} \Delta H_{2}\right)$, where $H_{1} \Delta H_{2}$ denotes the symmetric difference of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. By the induction hypothesis, there exists for every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$ a unique $x_{i} \in \overline{M_{1}}$ and a unique $\epsilon_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f_{i}(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{i}, x\right)+\epsilon_{i}$ for every $x \in M_{1}$. For every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, let $\overline{H_{i}}$ denote the singular hyperplane of $\overline{M_{1}}$ with center $x_{i}$. As $\overline{H_{1}}, \overline{H_{2}}$ arise from the Grassmann embedding, also $\overline{H_{1}} * \overline{H_{2}}:=\overline{M_{1}} \backslash\left(\overline{H_{1}} \Delta \overline{H_{2}}\right)$ arises from the Grassmann embedding. By Lemma 3.1, we have $H_{i}=\overline{H_{i}} \cap M_{1}$. Since $H_{3}=H_{1} * H_{2}$, we thus have that $H_{3}=\left(\overline{H_{1}} * \overline{H_{2}}\right) \cap M_{1}$. Since $\overline{H_{3}}$ and $\overline{H_{1}} * \overline{H_{2}}$ are two hyperplanes of $\overline{M_{1}}$ arising from the Grassmann embedding intersecting $M_{1}$ in $H_{3}$, we must have $\overline{H_{3}}=\overline{H_{1}} * \overline{H_{2}}$ by Lemma 2.6. By Lemma 2.3, we then know that $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is either a line of $\overline{M_{1}}$ or a hyperbolic line of a quad of $\overline{M_{1}}$.

We show that the latter case cannot occur. Suppose $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is a hyperbolic line of a quad $Q$ of $\overline{M_{1}}$. By Lemma 2.5, there exists a $W(2)-\operatorname{quad} R$ of $M_{1}$ parallel with $Q$. Put $y_{i}:=\pi_{R}\left(x_{i}\right), i \in\{1,2,3\}$, and $\delta:=\mathrm{d}(Q, R)$. We have $f_{1}\left(y_{1}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{1}=\delta+\epsilon_{1}$ and $f_{2}\left(y_{1}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, y_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{2}=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(y_{2}, y_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{2}=\delta+2+\epsilon_{2}$. As $\left|f_{1}\left(y_{1}\right)-f_{2}\left(y_{1}\right)\right| \leq 1$, we see that $\epsilon_{2}<\epsilon_{1}$. By reversing the roles of $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$, we would also have that $\epsilon_{1}<\epsilon_{2}$, an obvious contradiction. We conclude that $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is a line of $\overline{M_{1}}$.

Now, by Lemma 3.1, there exists a point $x$ of $M_{1} \cong \mathbb{H}_{n-1}$ at distance $n-1$ from a point of $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$. Without loss of generality, we may suppose that $\mathrm{d}\left(x, x_{1}\right)=n-2$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(x, x_{2}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x, x_{3}\right)=n-1$. The convex subspace $\left\langle x, x_{1}\right\rangle$ intersects $M_{1}$ in a convex subspace of $M_{1}$ of diameter at most $n-2$. So, there exists a line $L$ of $M_{1} \cong \mathbb{H}_{n-1}$ through $x$ not contained in $\left\langle x, x_{1}\right\rangle \cap M_{1}$, i.e. not contained in $\left\langle x, x_{1}\right\rangle$. This line necessarily is parallel
with $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$. Let $y_{i}$ with $i \in\{1,2,3\}$ denote the unique point of $L$ nearest to $x_{i}$. Since $f_{1}\left(y_{1}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{1}=n-2+\epsilon_{1}$ and $f_{2}\left(y_{1}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, y_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{2}=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(y_{2}, y_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{2}=$ $n-1+\epsilon_{2}$, it follows that $\epsilon_{2} \leq \epsilon_{1}$. Reversing the roles of $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$, we see that also $\epsilon_{1} \leq \epsilon_{2}$. Hence, $\epsilon_{1}=\epsilon_{2}$. By symmetry, we can thus conclude that $\epsilon_{1}=\epsilon_{2}=\epsilon_{3}$. Now, let $Q$ denote the unique $W(2)$-quad of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ through $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ meeting $\overline{M_{1}}, \overline{M_{2}}$ and $\overline{M_{3}}$ in lines, and let $x^{*}$ denote the unique point of $Q$ collinear with each point of the ovoid $\left\{x_{1}, \pi_{\overline{M_{2}}}\left(x_{2}\right), \pi_{\overline{M_{3}}}\left(x_{3}\right)\right\}$ of the $3 \times 3$-grid $Q \cap\left(\overline{M_{1}} \cup \overline{M_{2}} \cup \overline{M_{3}}\right)$. Then $x^{*} \notin \overline{M_{1}} \cup \overline{M_{2}} \cup \overline{M_{3}}$ and so $f(x)=f_{i}\left(\pi_{\overline{M_{1}}}(x)\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{i}, \pi_{\overline{M_{1}}}(x)\right)+\epsilon_{i}=\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{\overline{M_{i}}}\left(x_{i}\right), x\right)+\epsilon_{i}=\mathrm{d}\left(x^{*}, x\right)+\epsilon_{i}-1$ for every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$ and every $x \in M_{i}$. As $\epsilon_{1}=\epsilon_{2}=\epsilon_{3}$, it thus follows that $f(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x^{*}, x\right)+\epsilon_{1}-1$ for every $x \in M_{1} \cup M_{2} \cup M_{3}$. By Lemma 3.5, this again implies that $f(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x^{*}, x\right)+\epsilon_{1}-1$ for every point $x$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$.

In each of the cases (I) and (II) above, we have seen that $f$ is induced by a classical valuation of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, finishing the proof of Theorem 1.1(1).

## 4 Proof of Theorem 1.1(2)

In this section, we suppose that $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is isometrically embedded in $D W(2 n-1,2)$.
Lemma 4.1 Let $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ be two distinct collinear points of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ and let $f_{i}$ with $i \in\{1,2\}$ denote the valuation of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ induced by the classical valuation of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ with center $x_{i}$. Then $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are neighbouring.

Proof. There exist $\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f_{1}(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, x\right)+\epsilon_{1}$ and $f_{2}(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, x\right)+\epsilon_{2}$ for every point $x$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. We have $\left|f_{1}(x)-f_{2}(x)+\epsilon_{2}-\epsilon_{1}\right|=\left|\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, x\right)-\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, x\right)\right| \leq \mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=1$ for every point $x$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, showing that $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are neighbouring.

In the sequel of this section, we suppose that $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are two points of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ such that the valuations $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are neighbouring, where $f_{i}$ with $i \in\{1,2\}$ is the valuation of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ induced by the classical valuation of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ with center $x_{i}$. We shall prove that $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are collinear.

If $f_{1}=f_{2}$, then $x_{1}=x_{2}$ by Lemma 3.4. We will therefore suppose that $f_{1} \neq f_{2}$. Then let $g_{1} \in\left[f_{1}\right]$ and $g_{2} \in\left[f_{2}\right]$ such that $\left|g_{1}(x)-g_{2}(x)\right| \leq 1$ for every point $x$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. Put $g_{3}:=g_{1} \diamond g_{2}$. By Lemma 2.7, we then know that $g_{3}$ is a semi-valuation of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. We now show that all $W(2)$-quad valuations induced by $g_{3}$ are classical. So, suppose $Q$ is a $W(2)$-quad. Put $y_{1}:=\pi_{Q}\left(x_{1}\right)$ and $y_{2}:=\pi_{Q}\left(x_{2}\right)$. Since $Q$ is classical in $D W(2 n-1,2)$, there exist $\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $g_{1}(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, x\right)+\epsilon_{1}$ and $g_{2}(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(y_{2}, x\right)+\epsilon_{2}$ for every $x \in Q$. We have $\left|g_{1}(x)-g_{2}(x)\right|=\left|\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, x\right)-\mathrm{d}\left(y_{2}, x\right)+\epsilon_{1}-\epsilon_{2}\right| \leq 1$ for every point $x$ of $Q$. Putting $x$ equal to $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$, we respectively find that $\left|\epsilon_{1}-\epsilon_{2}-\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)\right| \leq 1$ and $\left|\epsilon_{1}-\epsilon_{2}+\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)\right| \leq 1$. So, we have $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \neq 2$. If $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=1$, then necessarily $\epsilon_{1}=\epsilon_{2}$, and we see that $g_{3}(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x, y_{3}\right)+\epsilon_{3}$ for every point $x$ of $Q$, where $y_{3}$ is the third point on the line $y_{1} y_{2}$ and $\epsilon_{3}:=\epsilon_{1}=\epsilon_{2}$. If $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=0$, i.e. $y_{1}=y_{2}$, then we have that $\left|\epsilon_{1}-\epsilon_{2}\right| \leq 1$. In this case, we have that $g_{3}(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x, y_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{3}$ for every point $x$ of $Q$, where
$\epsilon_{3}:=\epsilon_{1}-1=\epsilon_{2}-1$ if $\epsilon_{1}=\epsilon_{2}$ and $\epsilon_{3}=\max \left\{\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2}\right\}$ if $\epsilon_{1} \neq \epsilon_{2}$. In any case, we see that the valuation of $Q$ induced by $g_{3}$ is classical.

Since all $W(2)$-quad valuations induced by $g_{3}$ are classical, we know from Theorem 1.1(1) that there exists a unique point $x_{3}$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ such that $g_{3}$ is induced by the classical valuation of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ with center $x_{3}$. For every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, let $H_{i}^{\prime}$ denote the singular hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ with center $x_{i}$ and let $H_{i}$ denote the hyperplane of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ consisting of all points having non-maximal $g_{i}$-value. By Lemma 3.1, $H_{i}=H_{i}^{\prime} \cap \mathbb{H}_{n}$ for every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$. By [11, Proposition 2.14], the fact that $g_{3}=g_{1} \diamond g_{2}$ and $\left[g_{1}\right] \neq\left[g_{2}\right] \neq\left[g_{3}\right] \neq\left[g_{1}\right]$ implies that $H_{3}=H_{1} * H_{2}$. Hence, $H_{3}=\left(H_{1}^{\prime} * H_{2}^{\prime}\right) \cap \mathbb{H}_{n}$. Since both $H_{3}^{\prime}$ and $H_{1}^{\prime} * H_{2}^{\prime}$ are two hyperplanes of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ arising from the Grassmann embedding intersecting $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ in $H_{3}$, we know from Lemma 2.6 that $H_{3}^{\prime}=H_{1}^{\prime} * H_{2}^{\prime}$. By Lemma 2.3, we then know that $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is either a line or a hyperbolic line of a quad of $D W(2 n-1,2)$.

We show that the latter case cannot occur. Suppose $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is a hyperbolic line of a quad $Q$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. By Lemma 2.5, there exists a $W(2)$-quad $R$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ parallel with $Q$. Put $y_{i}:=\pi_{R}\left(x_{i}\right), i \in\{1,2,3\}$, and $\delta:=\mathrm{d}(Q, R)$. There exist $\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $g_{1}(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x, x_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{1}$ and $g_{2}(x)=\mathrm{d}\left(x, x_{2}\right)+\epsilon_{2}$ for all points $x$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. In particular, we have $g_{1}\left(y_{1}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{1}=\delta+\epsilon_{1}$ and $g_{2}\left(y_{1}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, y_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{2}=\mathrm{d}\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(y_{2}, y_{1}\right)+\epsilon_{2}=$ $\delta+2+\epsilon_{2}$. As $\left|g_{1}\left(y_{1}\right)-g_{2}\left(y_{1}\right)\right| \leq 1$, we see that $\epsilon_{2}<\epsilon_{1}$. By reversing the roles of $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$, we would also have that $\epsilon_{1}<\epsilon_{2}$, an obvious contradiction.

We conclude that $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is a line of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. So, the points $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are collinear as we needed to prove. This finishes the proof of Theorem 1.2.

## 5 Proof of Theorem 1.2

In this section, we suppose again that $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is isometrically embedded into $\Delta=D W(2 n-$ $1,2)$. We suppose that $\mathcal{S}$ is a near $2 n$-gon that contains an isometrically embedded copy $\mathbb{H}_{n}^{\prime}$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ such that every pair $(x, Q)$ with $x$ a point of $\mathcal{S}$ and $Q$ a $W(2)$-quad of $\mathbb{H}_{n}^{\prime}$ is classical. To ease notation, we will assume that $\mathbb{H}_{n}^{\prime}=\mathbb{H}_{n}$.

Let $\mathcal{F}$ denote the set of all valuations of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ for which all induced $W(2)$-quad valuations are classical. We denote by $\Gamma$ the graph with vertex set $\mathcal{F}$, where two distinct elements $f_{1}, f_{2} \in \mathcal{F}$ are adjacent whenever they are neighbouring. By Theorem 1.1, we then know that $\Gamma$ is isomorphic to the collinearity graph of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. Denote by $\mathcal{F}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ the set of all classical valuations of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$.

For every point $x$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, the classical valuation of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ with center $x$ will induce a valuation $g_{x}$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. If $x$ is a point of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, then $g_{x}$ is the classical valuation of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ with center $x$. By Theorem 1.1, we know the following.

Lemma 5.1 (1) The map $x \mapsto g_{x}$ defines an isomorphism between the collinearity graph of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ and the graph $\Gamma$.
(2) For every point $x$ of $\Delta=D W(2 n-1,2)$, we have $d_{\Delta}\left(x, \mathbb{H}_{n}\right)=d_{\Gamma}\left(g_{x}, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)$.

The following is an immediate consequence of Corollary 3.2 and Lemma 5.1.

Corollary 5.2 Suppose $f$ is a valuation of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ for which all induced $W(2)$-quad valuations are classical, and let $M$ denote the maximal value attained by $f$. Then $d_{\Gamma}\left(f, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)+M=n$.

By Lemma 2.8(1), every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}$ will induce a valuation $f_{x}$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. Since every pair $(x, Q)$ with $x$ a point of $\mathcal{S}$ and $Q$ a quad of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is classical, this valuation has the property that all induced $W(2)$-quad valuations are classical, i.e. $f_{x} \in \mathcal{F}$. Since $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is isometrically embedded in both $\mathcal{S}$ and $D W(2 n-1,2)$, we know that for every point $x$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, the valuations $f_{x}$ and $g_{x}$ are equal to the classical valuation of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ with center $x$.

Lemma 5.3 For every valuation $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and every point $y$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, we have $d_{\Gamma}\left(f, f_{y}\right)=$ $d_{\Gamma}\left(f, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)+f(y)$.

Proof. Let $x$ denote the unique point of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ for which $f=g_{x}$. By Lemma 5.1, $\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f, f_{y}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(g_{x}, g_{y}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\Delta}(x, y)=\mathrm{d}_{\Delta}\left(x, \mathbb{H}_{n}\right)+g_{x}(y)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(g_{x}, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)+g_{x}(y)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)+$ $f(y)$.

Lemma 5.4 Let $x$ be a point of $\mathcal{S}$. Then $d_{\mathcal{S}}\left(x, \mathbb{H}_{n}\right)=d_{\Gamma}\left(f_{x}, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)$ and there exists a point of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ at distance $n$ from $x$.

Proof. Let $M$ denote the maximal value attained by $f_{x}$. Then the maximal distance $d$ from a point of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ to $x$ is equal to $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(x, \mathbb{H}_{n}\right)+M$. By Lemma 2.8(2), we have that $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(x, \mathbb{H}_{n}\right) \geq \mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f_{x}, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)$. Hence, $d \geq \mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f_{x}, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)+M$. By Corollary 5.2, we have $\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f_{x}, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)+$ $M=n$. As $n \geq d$, we then have that $d=n$ and that $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(x, \mathbb{H}_{n}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f_{x}, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)$.

Lemma 5.5 For every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}$ and for every point $y$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, we have $d_{\mathcal{S}}(x, y)=$ $d_{\Gamma}\left(f_{x}, f_{y}\right)$.
Proof. By Lemmas 5.3 and 5.4, we have $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}(x, y)=\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(x, \mathbb{H}_{n}\right)+f_{x}(y)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f_{x}, \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\right)+$ $f_{x}(y)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f_{x}, f_{y}\right)$.

Lemma 5.6 Every line $L$ of $\mathcal{S}$ contains precisely three points.
Proof. Let $x \in L$, let $y$ be a point of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ at maximal distance $n$ from $x$ (see Lemma 5.4) and let $z$ be the unique point of $L$ nearest to $y$. Then $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}(y, z)=\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}(y, L)=n-1$. Let $z^{\prime}$ be the unique point of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ such that $g_{z^{\prime}}=f_{z}$. By Lemmas 5.1(1) and 5.5, we have $\mathrm{d}_{\Delta}\left(y, z^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(g_{y}, g_{z^{\prime}}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f_{y}, f_{z}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}(y, z)=n-1$. The convex subspace $\left\langle y, z^{\prime}\right\rangle$ of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ intersects $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ in a convex subspace of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ of diameter at most $n-1$, showing that there exists a line of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ through $y$ not contained in $\left\langle y, z^{\prime}\right\rangle$. Such a line contains a point $u$ at distance $n$ from $z^{\prime}$. By Lemmas 5.1(1) and 5.5, we have $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}(u, z)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f_{u}, f_{z}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(g_{u}, g_{z^{\prime}}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\Delta}\left(u, z^{\prime}\right)=n$.

Now, put $a_{1}:=y, a_{2}:=u$ and let $a_{3}$ denote the third point on the line $a_{1} a_{2}$. For every $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, let $b_{i}$ be the unique point of $L$ nearest to $a_{i}$. Then $b_{1}=z$ and $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(a_{1}, L\right)=n-1$. As $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}(z, u)=n$, we have $b_{2} \neq b_{1}$ and $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)=$ $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(a_{2}, L\right)=n-1$. If we would have $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(a_{3}, b_{3}\right) \leq n-2$, then $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(a_{1}, b_{3}\right), \mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(a_{2}, b_{3}\right) \leq n-1$ by the triangle inequality, and we would have $b_{1}=b_{3}=b_{2}$, an obvious contradiction. So, $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(a_{3}, b_{3}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(a_{3}, L\right)=n-1$. Hence, $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(a_{1} a_{2}, L\right)=n-1$ and every point $b$ of $L$ has
distance $n-1$ from a unique point $a$ of $a_{1} a_{2}$. The correspondence $b \mapsto a$ is bijective and so the lines $L$ and $a_{1} a_{2}$ should contain the same number of points, namely 3 .

Lemma 5.7 If $x$ and $y$ are two distinct collinear points of $\mathcal{S}$, then $f_{x} \neq f_{y}$.
Proof. Let $z$ denote the third point of the line $x y$. Suppose that $f_{x}=f_{y}$. Then Lemma 2.8(3) implies that $f_{x}=f_{y}=f_{z}$. Let $u$ be a point of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ for which $f_{x}(u)=f_{y}(u)=$ $f_{z}(u)=0$ and let $M$ denote the maximal value attained by $f_{x}=f_{y}=f_{z}$. As $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ contains points at distance $n$ from $x$ by Lemma 5.4 , we have $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}(x, u)+M=\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(x, \mathbb{H}_{n}\right)+M=n$, i.e. $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}(x, u)=n-M$. A similar argument shows that $\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}(y, u)=\mathrm{d}_{\mathcal{S}}(z, u)=n-M$. But that is impossible, as it would imply that $u$ has the same distance from each point of $L$.

By Lemma 5.1(1), we can identify each point $x$ of $\Delta=D W(2 n-1,2)$ with its corresponding valuation $g_{x} \in \mathcal{F}$. Then the map $x \mapsto f_{x}$ will induce a map $\theta$ from the point set $\mathcal{P}$ of $\mathcal{S}$ to the point set of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, i.e. for every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}, x^{\theta}$ denotes the unique point of $D W(2 n-1,2)$ for which $g_{x^{\theta}}=f_{x}$. If $x$ is a point of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, then both $g_{x}$ and $f_{x}$ are equal to the classical valuation of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ with center $x$, implying that $\theta$ fixes all points of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. By Lemmas $2.8(2), 5.1(1)$ and $5.7, \theta$ maps distinct collinear points of $\mathcal{S}$ to distinct collinear points of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. So, $\theta$ maps each line of $\mathcal{S}$ to a collection of three mutually collinear points of $D W(2 n-1,2)$, i.e. to a line of $D W(2 n-1,2)$. By Lemmas 5.1(1) and 5.5, we have that $d_{\mathcal{S}}(x, y)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(f_{x}, f_{y}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\Gamma}\left(g_{x^{\theta}}, g_{y^{\theta}}\right)=\mathrm{d}_{\Delta}\left(x^{\theta}, y^{\theta}\right)$ for every point $x$ of $\mathcal{S}$ and every point $y$ of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$. This finishes the proof of Theorem 1.2.

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