



Unitals in $PG(2, q^2)$ with a large 2-point stabiliser

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ABSTRACT

Let \mathcal{U} be a unital embedded in the Desarguesian projective plane $PG(2, q^2)$. Write M for the subgroup of $PGL(3, q^2)$ which preserves \mathcal{U} . We show that \mathcal{U} is classical if and only if \mathcal{U} has two distinct points P, Q for which the stabiliser $G = M_{P,Q}$ has order $q^2 - 1$.

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1. Introduction

In the Desarguesian projective plane $PG(2, q^2)$, a *unital* is defined to be a set of $q^3 + 1$ points containing either 1 or $q + 1$ points from each line of $PG(2, q^2)$. Observe that each unital has a unique 1-secant at each of its points. The idea of a unital arises from the combinatorial properties of the non-degenerate unitary polarity π of $PG(2, q^2)$. The set of absolute points of π is indeed a unital, called the *classical* or *Hermitian* unital. Therefore, the projective group preserving the classical unital is isomorphic to $PGU(3, q)$ and acts on its points as $PGU(3, q)$ in its natural 2-transitive permutation representation. Using the classification of subgroups of $PGL(3, q^2)$, Hoffer [14] proved that a unital is classical if and only if it is preserved by a collineation group isomorphic to $PSU(3, q^2)$. Hoffer's characterisation has been the starting point for several investigations of unitals in terms of the structure of their automorphism group, see [3,6,4,5,8,9,11,10,12,15,16]; see also the survey [2, Appendix B]. In $PG(2, q^2)$ with q odd, Abatangelo [1] proved that a Buekenhout–Metz unital with a cyclic 2-point stabiliser of order $q^2 - 1$ is necessarily classical. In their talk at Combinatorics 2010, G. Donati e N. Durante have conjectured that Abatangelo's characterisation holds true for any unital in $PG(2, q^2)$. In this note, we provide a proof of this conjecture.

Our notation and terminology are standard, see [2,13]. We shall assume $q > 2$, since all unitals in $PG(2, 4)$ are classical.

2. Some technical lemmas

Let M be the subgroup of $PGL(3, q^2)$ which preserves a unital \mathcal{U} in $PG(2, q^2)$. A *2-point stabiliser* of \mathcal{U} is a subgroup of M which fixes two distinct points of \mathcal{U} .

Lemma 2.1. *Let \mathcal{U} be a unital in $PG(2, q^2)$ with a 2-point stabiliser G of order $q^2 - 1$. Then, G is cyclic, and there exists a projective frame in $PG(2, q^2)$ such that G is generated by a projectivity with matrix representation*

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mu & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

where λ is a primitive element of $GF(q^2)$ and μ is a primitive element of $GF(q)$.

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Proof. Let O, Y_∞ be two distinct points of \mathcal{U} such that the stabiliser $G = M_{O, Y_\infty}$ has order $q^2 - 1$. Choose a projective frame in $\text{PG}(2, q^2)$ so that $O = (0, 0, 1), Y_\infty = (0, 1, 0)$ and the 1-secants of \mathcal{U} at those points are respectively $\ell_X : X_2 = 0$ and $\ell_\infty : X_3 = 0$. Write $X_\infty = (1, 0, 0)$ for the common point of ℓ_X and ℓ_∞ . Observe that G fixes the vertices of the triangle $OX_\infty Y_\infty$. Therefore, G consists of projectivities with diagonal matrix representation. Now let $h \in G$ be a projectivity that fixes a further point $P \in \ell_X$ apart from O, X_∞ . Then, h fixes ℓ_X point-wise; that is, h is a perspectivity with axis ℓ_X . Since h also fixes Y_∞ , the centre of h must be Y_∞ . Take any point $R \in \ell_X$ with $R \neq O, X_\infty$. Obviously, h preserves the line $r = Y_\infty R$; hence, it also preserves $r \cap \mathcal{U}$. Since $r \cap \mathcal{U}$ comprises q points other than R , the subgroup H generated by h has a permutation representation of degree q in which no non-trivial permutation fixes a point. As $q = p^r$ for a prime p , this implies that p divides $|H|$. On the other hand, h is taken from a group of order $q^2 - 1$. Thus, h must be the trivial element in G . Therefore, G has a faithful action on ℓ_X as a 2-point stabiliser of $\text{PG}(1, q^2)$. This proves that G is cyclic. Furthermore, a generator g of G has a matrix representation

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mu & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

with λ a primitive element of $\text{GF}(q^2)$.

As G preserves the set $\Delta = \mathcal{U} \cap OY_\infty$, it also induces a permutation group \bar{G} on Δ . Since any projectivity fixing three points of OY_∞ must fix OY_∞ point-wise, \bar{G} is semiregular on Δ . Therefore, $|\bar{G}|$ divides $q - 1$. Now let F be the subgroup of G fixing Δ point-wise. Then, F is a perspectivity group with centre X_∞ and axis $\ell_Y : X_1 = 0$. Take any point $R \in \ell_Y$ such that the line $r = RX_\infty$ is a $(q + 1)$ -secant of \mathcal{U} . Then, $r \cap \mathcal{U}$ is disjoint from ℓ_Y . Hence, F has a permutation representation on $r \cap \mathcal{U}$ in which no non-trivial permutation fixes a point. Thus, $|F|$ divides $q + 1$. Since $|G| = q^2 - 1$, we have $|\bar{G}| \leq q - 1$ and $|G| = |\bar{G}||F|$. This implies $|\bar{G}| = q - 1$ and $|F| = q + 1$. From the former condition, μ must be a primitive element of $\text{GF}(q)$. \square

Lemma 2.2. In $\text{PG}(2, q^2)$, let \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 be two non-degenerate Hermitian curves which have the same tangent at a common point P . Denote by $I(P, \mathcal{H}_1 \cap \mathcal{H}_2)$ the intersection multiplicity of \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 at P . Then,

$$I(P, \mathcal{H}_1 \cap \mathcal{H}_2) = q + 1. \tag{1}$$

Proof. Since up to projectivities there is a unique class of Hermitian curves in $\text{PG}(2, q^2)$, we may assume \mathcal{H}_1 to have equation $-X_1^{q+1} + X_2^q X_3 + X_2 X_3^q = 0$. Furthermore, as the projectivity group $\text{PGU}(3, q)$ preserving \mathcal{H}_1 acts transitively on the points of \mathcal{H}_1 in $\text{PG}(2, q^2)$, we may also suppose $P = (0, 0, 1)$. Within this setting, the tangent r of \mathcal{H}_1 at P coincides with the line $X_2 = 0$. As no term X_1^j with $0 < j \leq q$ occurs in the equation of \mathcal{H}_1 , the intersection multiplicity $I(P, \mathcal{H}_1 \cap r)$ is equal to $q + 1$.

The equation of the other Hermitian curve \mathcal{H}_2 might be written as

$$F(X_1, X_2, X_3) = a_0 X_3^q X_2 + a_1 X_3^{q-1} G_1(X_1, X_2) + \dots + a_q G_q(X_1, X_2) = 0,$$

where $a_0 \neq 0$ and $\deg G_i(X_1, X_2) = i + 1$. Since the tangent of \mathcal{H}_2 at P has no other common point with \mathcal{H}_2 , even over the algebraic closure of $\text{GF}(q^2)$, no terms X_1^j with $0 < j \leq q$ can occur in the polynomials $G_i(X_1, X_2)$. In other words, $I(P, \mathcal{H}_2 \cap r) = q + 1$.

A primitive representation of the unique branch of \mathcal{H}_1 centred at P has components

$$x(t) = t, \quad y(t) = ct^i + \dots,$$

where i is a positive integer and $y(t) \in \text{GF}(q^2)[[t]]$, that is, $y(t)$ stands for a formal power series with coefficients in $\text{GF}(q^2)$.

From $I(P, \mathcal{H}_1 \cap r) = q + 1$,

$$y(t)^q + y(t) - t^{q+1} = 0,$$

whence $y(t) = t^{q+1} + H(t)$, where $H(t)$ is a formal power series of order at least $q + 2$. That is, the exponent j in the leading term ct^j of $H(t)$ is larger than $q + 1$.

It is now possible to compute the intersection multiplicity $I(P, \mathcal{H}_1 \cap \mathcal{H}_2)$ using [13, Theorem 4.36]:

$$I(P, \mathcal{H}_1 \cap \mathcal{H}_2) = \text{ord}_t F(t, y(t), 1) = \text{ord}_t (a_0 t^{q+1} + G(t)),$$

with $G(t) \in \text{GF}(q^2)[[t]]$ of order at least $q + 2$. From this, the assertion follows. \square

Lemma 2.3. In $\text{PG}(2, q^2)$, let \mathcal{H} be a non-degenerate Hermitian curve and let \mathcal{C} be a Hermitian cone whose centre does not lie on \mathcal{H} . Assume that there exist two points $P_i \in \mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{C}$, with $i = 1, 2$, such that the tangent line of \mathcal{H} at P_i is a linear component of \mathcal{C} . Then

$$I(P_i, \mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{C}) = q + 1. \tag{2}$$

Proof. We use the same setting as in the proof of Lemma 2.2 with $P = P_1$. Since the action of $\text{PGU}(3, q)$ is 2-transitive on the points of \mathcal{H} , we may also suppose that $P_2 = (0, 1, 0)$. Then the centre of \mathcal{C} is the point $X_\infty = (1, 0, 0)$, and \mathcal{C} has equation $c^q X_2^q X_3 + c X_2 X_3^q = 0$ with $c \neq 0$. Therefore,

$$I(P, \mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{C}) = \text{ord}_t(c^q y(t)^q + cy(t)) = \text{ord}_t(c^q t^{q+1} + K(t))$$

with $K(t) \in \text{GF}(q^2)[[t]]$ of order at least $q + 2$, whence the assertion follows. \square

3. Main result

Theorem 3.1. *In $\text{PG}(2, q^2)$, let \mathcal{U} be a unital and write M for the group of projectivities which preserves \mathcal{U} . If \mathcal{U} has two distinct points P, Q such that the stabiliser $G = M_{P,Q}$ has order $q^2 - 1$, then \mathcal{U} is classical.*

The main idea of the proof is to build up a projective plane of order q using, for the definition of points, non-trivial G -orbits in the affine plane $\text{AG}(2, q^2)$ which arise from $\text{PG}(2, q^2)$ by removing the line $\ell_\infty : X_3 = 0$ with all its points. For this purpose, take \mathcal{U} and G as in Lemma 2.1, with $\mu = \lambda^{q+1}$, and define an incidence structure $\Pi = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L})$ as follows.

1. Points are all non-trivial G -orbits in $\text{AG}(2, q^2)$.
2. Lines are ℓ_Y , and the non-degenerate Hermitian curves of equation

$$\mathcal{H}_b : -X_1^{q+1} + bX_3X_2^q + b^qX_3^qX_2 = 0, \tag{3}$$

with b ranging over $\text{GF}(q^2)^*$, together with the Hermitian cones of equation

$$\mathcal{C}_c : c^q X_2^q X_3 + c X_2 X_3^q = 0, \tag{4}$$

with c ranging over a representative system of cosets of $(\text{GF}(q), *)$ in $(\text{GF}(q^2), *)$.

3. Incidence is the natural inclusion.

Lemma 3.2. *The incidence structure $\Pi = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L})$ is a projective plane of order q .*

Proof. In $\text{AG}(2, q^2)$, the group G has $q^2 + q + 1$ non-trivial orbits, namely its q^2 orbits disjoint from ℓ_Y , each of length $q^2 - 1$, and its $q + 1$ orbits on ℓ_Y , these of length $q - 1$. Therefore, the total number of points in \mathcal{P} is equal to $q^2 + q + 1$. By construction of Π , the number of lines in \mathcal{L} is also $q^2 + q + 1$. Incidence is well defined as G preserves ℓ_Y and each Hermitian curve and cone representing lines of \mathcal{L} .

Now we count the points incident with a line in Π . Each G -orbit on ℓ_Y distinct from O and Y_∞ has length $q - 1$. Hence there are exactly $q + 1$ such G -orbits; in terms of Π , the line represented by ℓ_Y is incident with $q + 1$ points. A Hermitian curve \mathcal{H}_b of Eq. (3) has q^3 points in $\text{AG}(2, q^2)$ and meets ℓ_Y in a G -orbit, while it contains no points apart from O of line ℓ_X . As $q^3 - q = q(q^2 - 1)$, the line represented by \mathcal{H}_b is incident with $q + 1$ points in \mathcal{P} . Finally, a Hermitian cone \mathcal{C}_c of Eq. (4) has q^3 points in $\text{AG}(2, q^2)$ and contains q points from ℓ_Y . One of these q points is O , the other $q - 1$ forming a non-trivial G -orbit. The remaining $q^3 - q$ points of \mathcal{C}_c are partitioned into q distinct G -orbits. Hence, the line represented by \mathcal{C}_c is also incident with $q + 1$ points. This shows that each line in Π is incident with exactly $q + 1$ points.

Therefore, it is enough to show that any two distinct lines of \mathcal{L} have exactly one common point. Obviously this is true when one of these lines is represented by ℓ_Y . Furthermore, the point of \mathcal{P} represented by ℓ_X is incident with each line of \mathcal{L} represented by a Hermitian cone of Eq. (4). We are led to investigate the case where one of the lines of \mathcal{L} is represented by a Hermitian curve \mathcal{H}_b of Eq. (3), and the other line of \mathcal{L} is represented by a Hermitian curve \mathcal{H} which is either another Hermitian curve \mathcal{H}_d of the same type of Eq. (3), or a Hermitian cone \mathcal{C}_c of Eq. (4).

Clearly, both O and Y_∞ are common points of \mathcal{H}_b and \mathcal{H} . From Kestenband's classification [17], see also [2, Theorem 6.7], $\mathcal{H}_b \cap \mathcal{H}$ cannot consist of exactly two points. Therefore, there exists another point, say $P \in \mathcal{H}_b \cap \mathcal{H}$. Since ℓ_X and ℓ_∞ are 1-secants of \mathcal{H}_b at the points O and Y_∞ , respectively, either P is on ℓ_Y or P lies outside the fundamental triangle. In the latter case, the G -orbit Δ_1 of P has size $q^2 - 1$ and represents a point in \mathcal{P} . Assume that $\mathcal{H}_b \cap \mathcal{H}$ contains a further point $Q \notin \Delta_1$ which does not belong to ℓ_Y and denote by Δ_2 its G -orbit. Then,

$$|\mathcal{H}_b \cap \mathcal{H}| \geq |\Delta_1| + |\Delta_2| = 2(q^2 - 1) + 2 = 2q^2.$$

However, from Bézout's theorem, see [13, Theorem 3.14],

$$|\mathcal{H}_b \cap \mathcal{H}| \leq (q + 1)^2.$$

Therefore, $Q \in \ell_Y$, and its G -orbit Δ_3 has length $q - 1$. Hence, \mathcal{H}_b and \mathcal{H} share $q + 1$ points on ℓ_Y . If $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_d$ is a Hermitian curve of Eq. (3), each of these $q + 1$ points is the tangency point of a common inflection tangent with multiplicity $q + 1$ of the Hermitian curves \mathcal{H}_b and \mathcal{H} . Write R_1, \dots, R_{q+1} for these points. Then, by (1) the intersection multiplicity is $I(R_i, \mathcal{H}_b \cap \mathcal{H}_d) = q + 1$. This holds true also when \mathcal{H} is a Hermitian cone \mathcal{C}_c of Eq. (4); see Lemma 2.3. Therefore, in any case,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{q+1} I(R_i, \mathcal{H}_b \cap \mathcal{H}) = (q + 1)^2.$$

From Bézout's theorem, $\mathcal{H}_b \cap \mathcal{H} = \{R_1, \dots, R_{q+1}\}$. Therefore, $\mathcal{H}_b \cap \mathcal{H} = \Delta_3 \cup \{O, Y_\infty\}$. This shows that if $Q \notin \ell_Y$, the lines represented by \mathcal{H}_b and \mathcal{H} have exactly one point in common. The above argument can also be adapted to prove this assertion in the case where $Q \in \ell_Y$. Therefore, any two distinct lines of \mathcal{L} have exactly one common point. \square

Proof of Theorem 3.1. Assume first $\mu = \lambda^{q+1}$. Construct a projective plane Π as in Lemma 3.2. Since $\mathcal{U} \setminus \{O, Y_\infty\}$ is the union of G -orbits, \mathcal{U} represents a set Γ of $q + 1$ points in Π . From [7], $N \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ where N is the number of common points of \mathcal{U} with any Hermitian curve \mathcal{H}_b . In terms of Π , Γ contains some point from every line Λ in \mathcal{L} represented by a Hermitian curve of Eq. (3). Actually, this holds true when the line Λ in \mathcal{L} is represented by a Hermitian cone \mathcal{C} of Eq. (4). To prove it, observe that \mathcal{C} contains a line r distinct from both lines ℓ_X and ℓ_∞ . Then $r \cap \mathcal{U}$ is not empty and contains neither O nor Y_∞ . If P is a point in $r \cap \mathcal{U}$, then the G -orbit of P represents a common point of Γ and Λ . Since the line in \mathcal{L} represented by ℓ_Y meets Γ , it turns out that Γ contains some point from every line in \mathcal{L} .

Therefore, Γ itself is a line in \mathcal{L} . Note that \mathcal{U} contains no line. In terms of $\text{PG}(2, q^2)$, this yields that \mathcal{U} coincides with a Hermitian curve of Eq. (3). In particular, \mathcal{U} is a classical unital.

To investigate the case $\mu \neq \lambda^{q+1}$, we still work in the above plane Π . By a straightforward computation, the projectivity g given in Lemma 2.1 induces a non-trivial collineation on Π . Also, g preserves every Hermitian cone of Eq. (4) and the common line ℓ_X of these Hermitian cones. In terms of Π , \bar{g} is a perspectivity with centre at the point represented by ℓ_X . Since g also preserves the line ℓ_Y , the axis of \bar{g} is ℓ_Y , regarded as a line in Π . Therefore, every point of Π lying on ℓ_Y is fixed by g . Consequently, \bar{g}^{q-1} is the identity collineation. As g has order $q^2 - 1$, this yields that g^{q+1} preserves every Hermitian curve of Eq. (3). Thus, $\mu^{q+1} = (\lambda^{q+1})^{q+1}$, whence $\mu = -\lambda^{q+1}$. In particular, $p \neq 2$.

Consider now the $q + 1$ non-trivial G -orbits in \mathcal{U} with $G = \langle g \rangle$. For any point $P \in \Pi$, let n_P the number of the non-trivial G -orbits in \mathcal{U} intersecting the set $\rho(P)$ representing P in $\text{PG}(2, q^2)$. Then $n_P = 1$ when $\rho(P)$ is the unique G -orbit in \mathcal{U} which lies on ℓ_Y . Otherwise, $0 \leq n_P \leq 2$, with $n_P = 2$ if and only if $\rho(P)$ is not a G -orbit but the union of two H -orbits with $H = \langle g^2 \rangle$.

Let Γ be the multiset in Π consisting of all points with $n_P > 0$ and define the weight v_P of P to be either 1 or 2, according as $n_P = 2$ or $n_P = 1$. Then, $\sum_{P \in \Gamma} v_P = 2q + 2$. We show that Γ is a 2-fold blocking multiset of Π . For this purpose, let \mathcal{H} be either a Hermitian curve of Eq. (3) or a Hermitian cone of Eq. (4). Write m for the number of common points of \mathcal{H}_b and \mathcal{U} , different from O and Y_∞ ; thus, the total number of common points is $N = m + 2$. As $N \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, we have $m \geq 1$. Take $P \in \mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{U}$. If $v_P = 2$, then the line representing \mathcal{H} meets Γ in a point with weight 2. If $v_P = 1$, then the H -orbit of P has size $(q^2 - 1)/2$ and lies on both \mathcal{H} and \mathcal{U} . Since $(q^2 - 1)/2 + 2 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, \mathcal{H} and \mathcal{U} must share a further point Q other than O and Y_∞ . Therefore, the points P' and Q' of Π which represent the subsets containing P and Q are distinct. This shows that Γ meets the line represented by \mathcal{H} in two distinct points. Therefore, Γ is a 2-fold blocking multiset.

Since Γ has at least one point with weight 2, this yields that Γ comprises all points of a line, each with weight 2. Hence, \mathcal{U} coincides with either a Hermitian curve or a Hermitian cone. On the other hand, \mathcal{U} is definitely not a Hermitian cone. As $\mu \neq \lambda^{q+1}$, \mathcal{U} is neither a Hermitian curve; therefore, this case cannot actually occur. \square

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