# On a class of hyperplanes of the symplectic and Hermitian dual polar spaces 

Bart De Bruyn*<br>Department of Pure Mathematics and Computer Algebra<br>Ghent University, Gent, Belgium<br>bdb@cage. ugent.be<br>Submitted: Jan 9, 2008; Accepted: , 2008; Published: XX<br>Mathematics Subject Classifications: 51A45, 51A50


#### Abstract

Let $\Delta$ be a symplectic dual polar space $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ or a Hermitian dual polar space $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta), n \geq 2$. We define a class of hyperplanes of $\Delta$ arising from its Grassmann-embedding and discuss several properties of these hyperplanes. The construction of these hyperplanes allows us to prove that there exists an ovoid of the Hermitian dual polar space $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ arising from its Grassmann-embedding if and only if there exists an empty $\theta$-Hermitian variety in $\mathrm{PG}(n-1, \mathbb{K})$. Using this result we are able to give the first examples of ovoids in thick dual polar spaces of rank at least 3 which arise from some projective embedding. These are also the first examples of ovoids in thick dual polar spaces of rank at least 3 for which the construction does not make use of transfinite recursion.


## 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Basic definitions

Let $\Pi$ be a non-degenerate thick polar space of rank $n \geq 2$. With $\Pi$ there is associated a point-line geometry $\Delta$ whose points are the maximal singular subspaces of $\Pi$, whose lines are the next-to-maximal singular subspaces of $\Pi$ and whose incidence relation is reverse containment. The geometry $\Delta$ is called a dual polar space (Cameron [3]). There exists a bijective correspondence between the non-empty convex subspaces of $\Delta$ and the possibly empty singular subspaces of $\Pi$ : if $\alpha$ is a singular subspace of $\Pi$, then the set of all maximal singular subspaces containing $\alpha$ is a convex subspace of $\Delta$. If $x$ and $y$ are two points of $\Delta$, then $\mathrm{d}(x, y)$ denotes the distance between $x$ and $y$ in the collinearity graph

[^0]of $\Delta$. The maximal distance between two points of a convex subspace $A$ of $\Delta$ is called the diameter of $A$. The diameter of $\Delta$ is equal to $n$. The convex subspaces of diameter 2,3 , respectively $n-1$, are called the quads, hexes, respectively maxes, of $\Delta$. The points and lines contained in a convex subspace of diameter $\delta \geq 2$ define a dual polar space of rank $\delta$. In particular, the points and lines contained in a quad define a generalized quadrangle (Payne and Thas [19]). If $*_{1}, *_{2}, \ldots, *_{k}$ are points or convex subspaces of $\Delta$, then we denote by $\left\langle *_{1}, *_{2}, \ldots, *_{k}\right\rangle$ the smallest convex subspace of $\Delta$ containing $*_{1}, *_{2}, \ldots, *_{k}$. The convex subspaces through a point $x$ of $\Delta$ define a projective space of dimension $n-1$ which we will denote by $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(x)$. For every point $x$ of $\Delta$, let $x^{\perp}$ denote the set of points equal to or collinear with $x$. The dual polar space $\Delta$ is a near polygon (Shult and Yanushka [21]; De Bruyn [7]) which means that for every point $x$ and every line $L$, there exists a unique point on $L$ nearest to $x$. More generally, for every point $x$ and every convex subspace $A$, there exists a unique point $\pi_{A}(x)$ in $A$ nearest to $x$ and $\mathrm{d}(x, y)=\mathrm{d}\left(x, \pi_{A}(x)\right)+\mathrm{d}\left(\pi_{A}(x), y\right)$ for every point $y$ of $A$. We call $\pi_{A}(x)$ the projection of $x$ onto $A$.

A hyperplane of a point-line geometry $\mathcal{S}$ is a proper subspace of $\mathcal{S}$ meeting each line. An ovoid of a point-line geometry $\mathcal{S}$ is a set of points of $\mathcal{S}$ meeting each line in a unique point. Every ovoid is a hyperplane. If $\Delta$ is a dual polar space of rank $n \geq 2$, then for every point $x$ of $\Delta$, the set $H_{x}$ of points of $\Delta$ at distance at most $n-1$ from $x$ is a hyperplane of $\Delta$, called the singular hyperplane of $\Delta$ with deepest point $x$. If $A$ is a convex subspace of diameter $\delta$ of $\Delta$ and $H_{A}$ is a hyperplane of $A$, then the set of points of $\Delta$ at distance at most $n-\delta$ from $H_{A}$ is a hyperplane of $\Delta$, called the extension of $H_{A}$.

Now, suppose $\Delta$ is a thick dual polar space. Then every hyperplane of $\Delta$ is a maximal subspace by Shult [20, Lemma 6.1] or Blok and Brouwer [1, Theorem 7.3]. If $H$ is a hyperplane of $\Delta$ and $Q$ is a quad of $\Delta$, then either $Q \subseteq H$ or $Q \cap H$ is a hyperplane of $Q$. By Payne and Thas [19, 2.3.1], one of the following cases then occurs: (i) $Q \subseteq H$, (ii) there exists a point $x$ in $Q$ such that $x^{\perp} \cap Q=H \cap Q$, (iii) $Q \cap H$ is a subquadrangle of $Q$, or (iv) $Q \cap H$ is an ovoid of $Q$. If case (i), case (ii), case (iii), respectively case (iv), occurs, then we say that $Q$ is deep, singular, subquadrangular, respectively ovoidal, with respect to $H$.

A full embedding of a point-line geometry $\mathcal{S}$ into a projective space $\Sigma$ is an injective mapping $e$ from the point-set $P$ of $\mathcal{S}$ to the point-set of $\Sigma$ satisfying (i) $\langle e(P)\rangle=\Sigma$ and (ii) $e(L):=\{e(x) \mid x \in L\}$ is a line of $\Sigma$ for every line $L$ of $\mathcal{S}$. If $e: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \Sigma$ is a full embedding, then for every hyperplane $\alpha$ of $\Sigma, H(\alpha):=e^{-1}(e(P) \cap \alpha)$ is a hyperplane of $\mathcal{S}$; we will say that the hyperplane $H(\alpha)$ arises from the embedding $e$.

### 1.2 Overview

Let $n \in \mathbb{N} \backslash\{0,1\}$, let $\mathbb{K}$ be a field and let $\zeta$ be a non-degenerate symplectic or Hermitian polarity of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. If $\zeta$ is a Hermitian polarity, we assume that there exists a totally isotropic subspace of maximal dimension $n-1$. Notice that such a subspace always exists in the symplectic case. In the case $\zeta$ is a Hermitian polarity of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$, let $\theta$ be the associated involutary automorphism of $\mathbb{K}$ and let $\mathbb{K}_{0}$ be the fix-field of $\theta$.

Let $\Pi$ be the polar space of the totally isotropic subspaces of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ (with
respect to $\zeta$ ) and let $\Delta$ be its associated dual polar space. In the symplectic case, we denote $\Pi$ and $\Delta$ by $W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$, respectively. In the Hermitian case, we denote $\Pi$ and $\Delta$ by $H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ and $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$, respectively. Since there is up to projectivities only one nonsingular $\theta$-Hermitian variety of maximal Witt index $n$ in $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$, namely the one with equation $\left(X_{0} X_{n}^{\theta}+X_{n} X_{0}^{\theta}\right)+\cdots+\left(X_{n-1} X_{2 n-1}^{\theta}+\right.$ $X_{2 n-1} X_{n-1}^{\theta}$ ) $=0$ with respect to some reference system (see e.g. [14]), the (dual) polar space $(D) H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ is uniquely determined (up to isomorphism) by its rank $n$, the field $\mathbb{K}$ and the involutary automorphism $\theta$.

Let $\pi$ be an arbitrary $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and let $H_{\pi}$ denote the set of all maximal totally isotropic subspaces meeting $\pi$.

Suppose $\Delta$ is the symplectic dual polar space $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. We will show in Section 2.1 that $H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of $\Delta$. We call any hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ arising from an $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace $\pi$ of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ a hyperplane of type ( $S$ ). ("S" refers to Symplectic.) This class of hyperplanes is already implicitly described in the literature.

Let $\mathcal{G}$ be the Grassmannian of the $(n-1)$-dimensional subspaces of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. The points of $\mathcal{G}$ are the $(n-1)$-dimensional subspaces of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and the lines are all the sets $\{C \mid A \subset C \subset B\}$, where $A$ and $B$ are subspaces of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim}(A)=n-2, \operatorname{dim}(B)=n$ and $A \subset B$. If $\alpha$ is an $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$, then the set of all $(n-1)$-dimensional subspaces of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ meeting $\alpha$ is a hyperplane $G_{\alpha}$ of the geometry $\mathcal{G}$ (see e.g. [16]). Now, the dual polar space $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ can be regarded as a subspace of $\mathcal{G}$ and the hyperplane $G_{\alpha}$ will give rise to a hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. This is precisely the hyperplane $H_{\alpha}$ of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ defined above.

In the case of the Grassmannian $\mathcal{G}$, there is essentially only one type of hyperplane which can be constructed in this way. This is not the case for the symplectic dual polar space $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. The isomorphism type depends on the size of the radical of $\pi$.

In Section 2.1 we will discuss several properties of the hyperplanes of type (S). Some of these properties turn out to be important for other applications (see e.g. [9] and [10]). In Section 2.2, we will give an alternative description of these hyperplanes in terms of certain objects of the dual polar space, and in Section 2.3, we will prove that all these hyperplanes arise from the so-called Grassmann-embedding of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$.

Now, suppose $\Delta$ is the Hermitian dual polar space $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$.
(i) If $\pi$ is a totally isotropic subspace, then $H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of $\Delta$, namely the singular hyperplane of $\Delta$ with deepest point $\pi$.
(ii) If $\pi$ is not totally isotropic, then $H_{\pi}$ is not a hyperplane of $\Delta$. If $e: \Delta \rightarrow \Sigma$ denotes the Grassmann-embedding of $\Delta$, then we show in Section 3.1 that there exists a subspace $\gamma_{\pi}$ of co-dimension 2 in $\Sigma$ such that $e\left(H_{\pi}\right)=e(P) \cap \gamma_{\pi}$, where $P$ denotes the point-set of $\Delta$. If $\alpha$ is a hyperplane of $\Sigma$ through $\gamma_{\pi}$, then $H(\alpha)$ is a hyperplane of $\Delta$ which (regarded as point-line geometry) contains $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane.

Any hyperplane of $\operatorname{DH}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ which is obtained as in (i) or (ii) is called a hyperplane of type ( $H$ ) of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$. (" $H$ " refers to Hermitian.) Making use of these hyperplanes of type $(\mathrm{H})$ of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$, we prove the following in Section 3.2.

Theorem 1.1 (Section 3.2) The dual polar space $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta), n \geq 2$, has an ovoid arising from its Grassmann-embedding if and only if there exists an empty $\theta$-Hermitian variety in $\mathrm{PG}(n-1, \mathbb{K})$.

Now, suppose the dual polar space $D W\left(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ is isometrically embedded as a subspace in $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$. Up to equivalence, there exists a unique such embedding. This was proved in [12, Theorem 1.5] for the finite case, but the proof given there can be extended to the infinite case. Now, every ovoid of $\operatorname{DH}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ intersects $D W\left(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ in an ovoid of $D W\left(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$, and by [13, Theorem 1.1] the full embedding of $D W\left(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ induced by the Grassmann-embedding of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ is isomorphic to the Grassmann-embedding of $D W\left(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$. Theorem 1.1 then allows us to conclude the following:

Corollary 1.2 If there exists an empty $\theta$-Hermitian variety in $\mathrm{PG}(n-1, \mathbb{K}), n \geq 2$, then the dual polar space $D W\left(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ has ovoids arising from its Grassmann-embedding.

The ovoids alluded to in Theorem 1.1 and Corollary 1.2 are the first examples (for $n \geq 3$ ) of ovoids in thick dual polar spaces of rank at least 3 which arise from some projective embedding. They are also the first examples of ovoids in thick dual polar spaces of rank at least 3 for which the construction does not make use of transfinite recursion. (Using transfinite recursion it is rather easy to construct ovoids in infinite dual polar spaces, see Cameron [4].)

In Section 4, we will discuss the finite Hermitian case. We will prove that if $\pi$ is an ( $n-1$ )-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ which is not totally isotropic, then there are precisely $q+1$ hyperplanes in $D H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ which contain $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane and that all these hyperplanes are isomorphic. Some other properties of these hyperplanes are investigated.

## 2 The symplectic case

### 2.1 Definition and properties of the hyperplanes of type (S)

Consider in $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}), n \geq 2$, a symplectic polarity $\zeta$ and let $W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and $\Delta=D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ denote the corresponding polar space and dual polar space. Let $\pi$ be an $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and let $H_{\pi}$ be the set of all maximal totally isotropic subspaces meeting $\pi$.

Lemma 2.1 If $\alpha$ is a maximal totally isotropic subspace of $W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$, then $\operatorname{dim}(\pi \cap$ $\alpha)=\operatorname{dim}\left(\pi^{\zeta} \cap \alpha\right)$.

Proof. Put $\beta=\pi \cap \alpha$ and $k=\operatorname{dim}(\beta)$. The space $\beta^{\zeta}$ has dimension $2 n-2-k$ and contains the $(n-1)$-dimensional subspaces $\pi^{\zeta}$ and $\alpha$. Hence, $\operatorname{dim}\left(\pi^{\zeta} \cap \alpha\right) \geq k=\operatorname{dim}(\pi \cap \alpha)$. By symmetry, also $\operatorname{dim}(\pi \cap \alpha) \geq \operatorname{dim}\left(\pi^{\zeta} \cap \alpha\right)$.

Corollary $2.2 H_{\pi}=H_{\pi}$.
Lemma 2.3 Through every point $x$ of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ not contained in $\pi \cup \pi^{\zeta}$, there exists a maximal totally isotropic subspace disjoint from $\pi$ (and hence also from $\pi^{\zeta}$ ).

Proof. We will prove the lemma by induction on $n$.
Suppose first that $n=2$. Let $L$ be a line through $x$ contained in the plane $x^{\zeta}$ and not containing the point $x^{\zeta} \cap \pi$. Then $L$ satisfies the required conditions.

Suppose next that $n \geq 3$. The totally isotropic subspaces through $x$ determine a polar space of type $W(2 n-3, \mathbb{K})$ which lives in the quotient space $x^{\zeta} / x$. Since $\operatorname{dim}\left(x^{\zeta} \cap \pi\right)=n-2$ (recall that $x \notin \pi^{\zeta}$ ), the subspace $\pi^{\prime}=\left\langle x, x^{\zeta} \cap \pi\right\rangle$ of $x^{\zeta} / x$ has dimension $n-2$ (in $x^{\zeta} / x$ ). By the induction hypothesis, there exists a maximal totally isotropic subspace in $W(2 n-3, \mathbb{K})$ disjoint from $\pi^{\prime}$. Hence, in $W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ there exists a maximal totally isotropic subspace through $x$ disjoint from $\pi$.

Proposition 2.4 The set $H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$.
Proof. First, we show that $H_{\pi}$ is a subspace. Let $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$ be two maximal totally isotropic subspaces meeting $\pi$ such that $\operatorname{dim}\left(\alpha_{1} \cap \alpha_{2}\right)=n-2$ and let $\alpha_{3}$ denote an arbitrary maximal totally isotropic subspace through $\alpha_{1} \cap \alpha_{2}$. If $\alpha_{1} \cap \alpha_{2} \cap \pi \neq \phi$, then obviously $\alpha_{3}$ meets $\pi$. Suppose now that $\alpha_{1} \cap \alpha_{2} \cap \pi=\emptyset, \alpha_{1} \cap \pi=\left\{x_{1}\right\}$ and $\alpha_{2} \cap \pi=\left\{x_{2}\right\}$. Then $\left(\alpha_{1} \cap \alpha_{2}\right)^{\zeta}=\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right\rangle$. So, $\alpha_{3} \subseteq\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right\rangle$ meets the line $x_{1} x_{2}$ and hence also $\pi$. In each of the two cases, $\alpha_{3} \in H_{\pi}$. This proves that $H_{\pi}$ is a subspace. By Lemma 2.3, $H_{\pi}$ is a proper subspace.

We will now prove that $H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane. Let $\beta$ denote an arbitrary totally isotropic subspace of dimension $n-2$ and let $L_{\beta}$ denote the set of all maximal totally isotropic subspaces containing $\beta$. Obviously, $L_{\beta} \subseteq H_{\pi}$ if $\beta \cap \pi \neq \emptyset$. If $\beta \cap \pi=\emptyset$, then $\beta^{\zeta}$ is an $n$-dimensional subspace which has (at least) a point $x$ in common with $\pi$. Obviously, $\langle\beta, x\rangle$ is a point of $L_{\beta}$ contained in $H_{\pi}$.

Definition. We say that a hyperplane $H$ of $\Delta=D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ is of type $(S)$ if it is of the form $H_{\pi}$ for a certain $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace $\pi$ of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$.

Points of the hyperplane $H_{\pi}$ of $\Delta=D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ are of one of the following three types.

- Type I: maximal totally isotropic subspaces $\alpha$ for which $\alpha \cap \pi=\alpha \cap \pi^{\zeta}$ is a point.
- Type II: maximal totally isotropic subspaces $\alpha$ for which $\alpha \cap \pi$ and $\alpha \cap \pi^{\zeta}$ are distinct points.
- Type III: maximal totally isotropic subspaces $\alpha$ for which $\operatorname{dim}(\alpha \cap \pi)=\operatorname{dim}\left(\alpha \cap \pi^{\zeta}\right) \geq$ 1.

For every point $x$ of $H_{\pi}$, let $\Lambda(x)$ denote the set of lines through $x$ which are contained in $H_{\pi}$. Then $\Lambda(x)$ can be regarded as a set of points of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(x)$.

Proposition 2.5 - If $\alpha$ is a point of Type I, then $\Lambda(\alpha)$ is a hyperplane of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$.

- If $\alpha$ is a point of Type II, then $\Lambda(\alpha)$ is the union of two distinct hyperplanes of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$.
- If $\alpha$ is a point of Type III, then $\Lambda(\alpha)$ coincides with the whole point set of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$.

Proof. Let $\alpha$ be a point of Type I and let $x$ denote the unique point contained in $\alpha \cap \pi=\alpha \cap \pi^{\zeta}$. Let $\beta$ be an $(n-2)$-dimensional subspace of $\alpha$. If $\beta$ contains the point $x$, then the line of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ corresponding to $\beta$ obviously is contained in $H_{\pi}$. If $\beta$ does not contain the point $x$, then $\beta^{\zeta} \cap \pi=\{x\}$, and it follows that $\alpha$ is the unique point of the line of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ corresponding to $\beta$ which is contained in $H_{\pi}$. [If $\beta^{\zeta} \cap \pi$ would be a line $L$, then $L$ must be a totally isotropic line through $x$ and $\langle\beta, L\rangle$ would be a totally isotropic subspace of dimension $n$, which is impossible.] Hence, there exists a unique max $A(\alpha)$ through $\alpha$ such that the lines of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ through $\alpha$ which are contained in $H_{\pi}$ are precisely the lines of $A(\alpha)$ through $\alpha$.

Let $\alpha$ be a point of Type II and let $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ be the points contained in $\alpha \cap \pi$ and $\alpha \cap \pi^{\zeta}$, respectively. Let $\beta$ be an $(n-2)$-dimensional subspace of $\alpha$. If $\beta$ contains at least one of the points $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$, then by Lemma 2.1, every maximal totally isotropic subspace through $\beta$ meets $\pi$, proving that the line of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ corresponding to $\beta$ is contained in $H_{\pi}$. Suppose now that $\beta \cap\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}=\emptyset$. If $\alpha^{\prime} \neq \alpha$ is a maximal totally isotropic subspace through $\beta$ meeting $\pi$ in a point $x \neq x_{1}$, then $\beta=x^{\perp} \cap \alpha$ contains the point $x_{2}$, a contradiction. So, if $\beta \cap\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}=\emptyset$, then $\alpha$ is the unique point of the line of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ corresponding to $\beta$ which is contained in $H_{\pi}$. It follows that there are two distinct maxes $A_{1}(\alpha)$ and $A_{2}(\alpha)$ through $\alpha$ such that the lines through $\alpha$ contained in $H_{\pi}$ are precisely the lines through $\alpha$ which are contained in $A_{1}(\alpha) \cup A_{2}(\alpha)$.

If $\alpha$ is a point of Type III, then every $(n-2)$-dimensional subspace of $\alpha$ contains a point of $\pi$. It follows that every line through $\alpha$ is contained in $H_{\pi}$.

Proposition 2.6 Let $M$ be a max of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and let $x$ be the point of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-$ $1, \mathbb{K})$ corresponding to $M$. Then $M$ is contained in $H_{\pi}$ if and only if $x \in \pi \cup \pi^{\zeta}$.

Proof. If $x \in \pi \cup \pi^{\zeta}$, then every maximal totally isotropic subspace through $x$ meets $\pi$ and hence $M \subseteq H_{\pi}$. If $x \notin \pi \cup \pi^{\zeta}$, then $M$ is not contained in $H_{\pi}$ by Lemma 2.3.

The following proposition is obvious.
Proposition 2.7 If $\pi$ is a maximal totally isotropic subspace, then $H_{\pi}$ is the singular hyperplane with deepest point $\pi$.

Proposition 2.8 Let $n \geq 3$ and suppose that the subspace $\pi$ is degenerate. Let $x$ be $a$ point of $\pi$ such that $\pi \subseteq x^{\zeta}$. The maximal totally isotropic subspaces through $x$ define $a$ convex subspace $A \cong D W(2 n-3, \mathbb{K})$ of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. Let $G_{\pi}$ denote the hyperplane of type $(S)$ of $A$ consisting of all maximal totally isotropic subspaces containing a line of $\pi$ through $x$. Then the hyperplane $H_{\pi}$ of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ is the extension of the hyperplane $G_{\pi}$ of $A$.

Proof. Let $\alpha$ denote an arbitrary point of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. If $\alpha$ is a point of $A$, then $\alpha \in H_{\pi}$ since $\alpha$ contains the point $x$ of $\pi$.

Suppose now that $\alpha$ does not contain the point $x$. Let $\alpha^{\prime}$ denote the unique maximal totally isotropic subspace through $x$ meeting $\alpha$ in a space $\beta$ of dimension $n-2$. Then $\alpha^{\prime}$ is the projection of $\alpha$ onto $A$.

Suppose $\alpha \in H_{\pi}$. If $u$ is a point of $\alpha$ contained in $\pi$, then the line $x u$ is contained in $\alpha^{\prime}$, proving that $\alpha^{\prime} \in G_{\pi}$. Conversely, suppose that $\alpha^{\prime} \in G_{\pi}$. If $L$ is a line of $\pi$ through $x$ contained in $\alpha^{\prime}$, then $L$ meets the hyperplane $\beta$ of $\alpha^{\prime}$. Hence, $\alpha \cap \pi \neq \emptyset$ and $\alpha \in H_{\pi}$.

So, a point of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ not contained in $A$ belongs to $H_{\pi}$ if and only if its projection on $A$ belongs to $G_{\pi}$. This proves that $H_{\pi}$ is the extension of $G_{\pi}$.

Proposition 2.9 Suppose $H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of type $(S)$ of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and let $A$ be a convex subspace of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ of diameter at least 2 . Then either $A \subseteq H_{\pi}$ or $A \cap H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of type $(S)$ of $A$.
Proof. Let $\alpha$ be the totally isotropic subspace corresponding to $A$. If $\alpha$ meets $\pi$, then $A \subseteq H_{\pi}$. So, we will suppose that $\alpha$ is disjoint from $\pi$. $\operatorname{Put} \operatorname{dim}(\alpha)=n-1-i$ with $i \geq 2$. The totally isotropic subspaces through $\alpha$ define a polar space $W(2 i-1, \mathbb{K})$ which lives in the quotient space $\alpha^{\zeta} / \alpha$. The space $\alpha^{\zeta}$ is $(n-1+i)$-dimensional and hence $\alpha^{\zeta} \cap \pi$ has dimension at least $i-1$. Let $\pi^{\prime}$ be the subspace generated by $\alpha$ and $\alpha^{\zeta} \cap \pi$. The dimension of the quotient space $\alpha^{\zeta} / \alpha$ is $2 i-1$ and the dimension of $\pi^{\prime}$ in this quotient space is at least $i-1$. If this dimension is at least $i$, then every maximal totally isotropic subspace through $\alpha$ meets $\alpha^{\zeta} \cap \pi$ and hence $A \subseteq H_{\pi}$. If the dimension is precisely $i-1$, then the hyperplane $H \cap A$ of $A$ has type (S).

Every proper subquadrangle $G$ of $D W(3, \mathbb{K})$ is a so-called grid. There are precisely two sets $\mathcal{L}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{2}$ of lines of $D W(3, \mathbb{K})$ which partition the point set of $G$, and every line of $\mathcal{L}_{1}$ intersects every line of $\mathcal{L}_{2}$ in a unique point.

Proposition 2.10 Every hyperplane $H_{\pi}$ of type $(S)$ of $D W(3, \mathbb{K})$ is either a singular hyperplane or a grid.

Proof. In this case $\pi$ is a line of $\operatorname{PG}(3, \mathbb{K})$. If $\pi$ is totally isotropic, then $H_{\pi}$ is a singular hyperplane.

If $\pi$ is not totally isotropic, then the points of $H_{\pi}$ are precisely the lines meeting $\pi$ and $\pi^{\zeta}$. The lines of $H_{\pi}$ are the points of $\pi \cup \pi^{\zeta}$, see Proposition 2.6. It is now easily seen that $H_{\pi}$ defines a grid.
Propositions 2.9 and 2.10 have the following corollary:
Corollary 2.11 A hyperplane of type ( $S$ ) does not admit ovoidal quads.
Proposition 2.12 Every hyperplane $H_{\pi}$ of type $(S)$ of $D W(5, \mathbb{K})$ is either a singular hyperplane or the extension of a grid.

Proof. In this case $\pi$ is a plane which is always degenerate. So, $H_{\pi}$ is isomorphic to the extension of a hyperplane of type ( S ) in $D W(3, \mathbb{K})$. This proves the proposition. [In fact, the following holds: if $\pi$ is totally isotropic, then $H_{\pi}$ is a singular hyperplane; if $\pi$ contains a unique singular point, then $H_{\pi}$ is the extension of a grid.]

### 2.2 Alternative description of the hyperplanes

In this section, we will give an alternative description of the hyperplanes of type (S). We will restrict ourselves to those hyperplanes $H_{\pi}$, where $\pi$ is non-degenerate. (This is not so restrictive in view of Proposition 2.8.) The fact that $\pi$ is non-degenerate implies that $\operatorname{dim}(\pi)$ is odd.

Consider the dual polar space $D W(4 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ with $n \geq 2$. Let $\pi$ be a non-degenerate subspace of dimension $2 n-1$. Let $n_{1}, n_{2} \geq 1$ such that $n_{1}+n_{2}=n$, and let $\pi_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$ be a non-degenerate subspace of $\pi$ of dimension $2 n_{i}-1$ such that $\pi_{2}=\pi_{1}^{\zeta} \cap \pi$. Then $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ are disjoint and $\left\langle\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}\right\rangle=\pi$. Let $\Omega_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, denote the set of maxes of $D W(4 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ corresponding to the points of $\pi_{i}$. Then every max of $\Omega_{1}$ intersects every max of $\Omega_{2}$ in a convex subspace of diameter $2 n-2$. Let $X$ denote the set of points which are contained in a max of $\Omega_{1}$ and a max of $\Omega_{2}$.

Proposition $2.13 H_{\pi}$ consists of those points of $D W(4 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ at distance at most 1 from $X$.

Proof. Notice that every point of $\pi$ is contained in a line which meets $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$.
Now, let $\alpha$ denote an arbitrary point of $H_{\pi}$, i.e. $\alpha$ is a totally isotropic subspace and there exists a point $x \in \alpha \cap \pi$. Let $L$ denote a line through $x$ meeting $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$. There exists a maximal totally isotropic subspace $\alpha^{\prime}$ through $L$ meeting $\alpha$ in at least an ( $2 n-2$ )-dimensional subspace. Obviously, $\alpha^{\prime} \in X$ and $\mathrm{d}\left(\alpha, \alpha^{\prime}\right) \leq 1$.

Now, let $\alpha$ denote an arbitrary point of $D W(4 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ at distance at most 1 from a point $\alpha^{\prime}$ of $X$. The totally isotropic subspace $\alpha^{\prime}$ contains a point $x_{1} \in \pi_{1}$ and a point $x_{2} \in \pi_{2}$. Since $\operatorname{dim}\left(\alpha \cap \alpha^{\prime}\right) \geq 2 n-2$, the line $x_{1} x_{2}$ meets $\alpha \cap \alpha^{\prime}$ and hence also $\alpha$. This proves that $\alpha \in H_{\pi}$.

Example. Consider the dual polar space $D W(7, \mathbb{K})$. Suppose $\Omega_{1}$ and $\Omega_{2}$ are two sets of mutually disjoint hexes (= maxes) satisfying the following properties.
(i) Every line $L$ meeting two distinct hexes of $\Omega_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, meets every hex of $\Omega_{i}$. Moreover, the hexes of $\Omega_{i}$ cover all the points of $L$.
(ii) Every hex of $\Omega_{1}$ intersects every hex of $\Omega_{2}$ in a quad.

We show that the hexes of $\Omega_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, correspond to the points of a non-degenerate line $\pi_{i}$ of $\operatorname{PG}(7, \mathbb{K})$. Suppose $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ are two distinct hexes of $\Omega_{i}$ corresponding to the respective points $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ of $\operatorname{PG}(7, \mathbb{K})$. Since $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ are disjoint, the line $\pi_{i}:=x_{1} x_{2}$ is non-degenerate. Let $\Omega_{i}^{\prime}$ denote the set of hexes of $D W(7, \mathbb{K})$ corresponding to the points of $\pi_{i}$. Then $\Omega_{i}^{\prime}$ satisfies property (i). Moreover, $F_{1}, F_{2} \in \Omega_{i}^{\prime}$. Let $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ be two lines
of $D W(7, \mathbb{K})$ meeting $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ such that $\mathrm{d}\left(K_{1} \cap F_{1}, K_{2} \cap F_{1}\right)=\mathrm{d}\left(K_{1} \cap F_{2}, K_{2} \cap F_{2}\right)=3$. Since $D W(7, \mathbb{K})$ is a near polygon, any point of $K_{1}$ lies at distance 3 from a unique point of $K_{2}$. It is now obvious that there exists at most 1 set $\Omega$ of hexes which contains $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ and which satisfies property (i): this set should consist of all the hexes which meet $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$. It follows that $\Omega_{i}=\Omega_{i}^{\prime}$.

By property (ii), $\pi_{1} \cap \pi_{2}=\emptyset$ and $\pi_{1} \subseteq \pi_{2}^{\zeta}$ where $\zeta$ is the symplectic polarity of $\operatorname{PG}(7, \mathbb{K})$ defining $W(7, \mathbb{K})$. We show that the 3-dimensional subspace $\pi:=\left\langle\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}\right\rangle$ of $\operatorname{PG}(7, \mathbb{K})$ is non-degenerate. If this would not be the case, then since $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ are nondegenerate, there exists a point $x \in \pi \backslash\left(\pi_{1} \cup \pi_{2}\right)$ such that $\pi \subseteq x^{\zeta}$. Now, let $\pi_{3}$ denote the unique line through $x$ meeting $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$. Since $\pi_{1} \subseteq x^{\zeta}$ and $\pi_{1} \subseteq\left(\pi_{3} \cap \pi_{2}\right)^{\zeta}$, we have $\pi_{1} \subseteq\left(\pi_{3} \cap \pi_{1}\right)^{\zeta}$, contradicting the fact that $\pi_{1}$ is non-degenerate. So, $\pi$ is indeed a non-degenerate 3 -dimensional subspace of $\mathrm{PG}(7, \mathbb{K})$.

Now, let $X$ denote the set of points of $D W(7, \mathbb{K})$ which are contained in a hex of $\Omega_{1}$ and a hex of $\Omega_{2}$ and let $H$ be the set of points of $D W(7, \mathbb{K})$ at distance at most 1 from $X$. Then by Proposition $2.13, H$ is a hyperplane of type ( S ) of $D W(7, \mathbb{K})$ arising from the non-degenerate 3-dimensional subspace $\pi$ of $\mathrm{PG}(7, \mathbb{K})$.

### 2.3 The hyperplanes of type ( S ) arise from an embedding

Put $I=\{1,2, \ldots, 2 n\}$ with $n \geq 2$. Suppose $X$ is an $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ generated by the points $\left(x_{i, 1}, \ldots, x_{i, 2 n}\right), 1 \leq i \leq n$, of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. For every $J=\left\{i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{n}\right\} \in\binom{I}{n}$ with $i_{1}<i_{2}<\cdots<i_{n}$, we define

$$
X_{J}:=\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
x_{1, i_{1}} & x_{1, i_{2}} & \cdots & x_{1, i_{n}} \\
x_{2, i_{1}} & x_{2, i_{2}} & \cdots & x_{2, i_{n}} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
x_{n, i_{1}} & x_{n, i_{2}} & \cdots & x_{n, i_{n}}
\end{array}\right| .
$$

The elements $X_{J}, J \in\binom{I}{n}$, are the coordinates of a point $f(X)$ of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$ and this point does not depend on the particular set of $n$ points which we have chosen as generating set for $X$. The image $\{f(X) \mid \operatorname{dim}(X)=n-1\}$ of $f$ is a so-called Grassmann-variety $\mathcal{G}_{2 n-1, n-1, \mathbb{K}}$ of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$ which we will shortly denote by $\mathcal{G}$. If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are subspaces of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim}(\alpha)=n-2$ and $\operatorname{dim}(\beta)=n$, then $\{f(X) \mid \operatorname{dim}(X)=$ $n-1, \alpha \subset X \subset \beta\}$ is a line of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$. For more background information on the topic of Grassmann-varieties, we refer to Hirschfeld and Thas [17, Chapter 24].
Let $X$ and $Y$ be two ( $n-1$ )-dimensional subspaces of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. Suppose that $X$ is generated by the points $\left(x_{i, 1}, \ldots, x_{i, 2 n}\right), 1 \leq i \leq n$, and that $Y$ is generated by the points
$\left(y_{i, 1}, \ldots, y_{i, 2 n}\right), 1 \leq i \leq n$. Then $X \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ if and only if

$$
\left|\begin{array}{llll}
x_{1,1} & x_{1,2} & \cdots & x_{1,2 n} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
x_{n, 1} & x_{n, 2} & \cdots & x_{n, 2 n} \\
y_{1,1} & y_{1,2} & \cdots & y_{1,2 n} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
y_{n, 1} & y_{n, 2} & \cdots & y_{n, 2 n}
\end{array}\right|=0,
$$

i.e., if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{J \in\binom{I}{n}}(-1)^{\sigma(J)} X_{J} Y_{I \backslash J}=0, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\sigma(J)=(1+\cdots+n)+\Sigma_{j \in J} j$. (Expand according to the first $n$ rows.) The following lemma is an immediate corollary of formula (1).

Lemma 2.14 Let $\pi$ be a given $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and let $V_{\pi}$ denote the set of all $(n-1)$-dimensional subspaces of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ meeting $\pi$. Then there exists a hyperplane $A_{\pi}$ of $\left.\mathrm{PG}\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$ satisfying the following property: if $\pi^{\prime}$ is an $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$, then $\pi^{\prime} \in V_{\pi}$ if and only if $f\left(\pi^{\prime}\right) \in A_{\pi}$.

Now, consider a symplectic polarity $\zeta$ in $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and let $W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and $D W(2 n-$ $1, \mathbb{K})$ denote the associated polar and dual polar spaces. A point $\alpha$ of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ is an ( $n-1$ )-dimensional totally isotropic subspace. So, $f(\alpha)$ is a point of $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$. A line $\beta$ of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ is a totally isotropic subspace of dimension $n-2$ and the points of $\beta$ (in $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ ) are all the $(n-1)$-dimensional subspaces through $\beta$ contained in $\beta^{\zeta}$. It follows that $f$ defines a full embedding $e_{g r}$ of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ in a certain subspace $\operatorname{PG}(N-1, \mathbb{K})$ of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$. The value of $N$ is equal to $\binom{2 n}{n}-\binom{2 n}{n-2}$, see e.g. Burau [2, 82.7] or De Bruyn [8]. We call $e_{g r}$ the Grassmann-embedding of $\operatorname{DW}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$.

Proposition 2.15 Let $\pi$ be an $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and let $H_{\pi}$ denote the associated hyperplane of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. Then $H_{\pi}$ arises from the Grassmannembedding of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$.
 dimensional subspace $\pi^{\prime}$ of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ meets $\pi$ if and only if $f\left(\pi^{\prime}\right) \in A_{\pi}$. Suppose that $A_{\pi}$ contains $\mathrm{PG}(N-1, \mathbb{K})$. Then every maximal totally isotropic subspace would meet $\pi$, which is impossible, see Lemma 2.3. Hence $A_{\pi}$ intersects $\mathrm{PG}(N-1, \mathbb{K})$ in a hyperplane $B_{\pi}$ of $\mathrm{PG}(N-1, \mathbb{K})$. Obviously, the hyperplane $H_{\pi}$ of $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ arises from the hyperplane $B_{\pi}$ of $\mathrm{PG}(N-1, \mathbb{K})$.

## 3 The Hermitian case

### 3.1 A hyperplane of a hyperplane

Let $n \geq 2$, let $\mathbb{K}_{0}$ be a field, let $\mathbb{K}$ be a quadratic Galois-extension of $\mathbb{K}_{0}$ and let $\theta$ be the unique non-trivial element in $\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{K} / \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$. Consider in $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ a nonsingular $\theta$ Hermitian variety $H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ of maximal Witt-index $n$ and let $\zeta$ denote the Hermitian polarity of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ associated with $H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$. Let $\Delta:=D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ denote the dual polar space corresponding to $H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$. Put $I=\{1,2, \ldots, 2 n\}$.

Suppose $X$ is an $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ generated by the points $\left(x_{i, 1}, \ldots, x_{i, 2 n}\right), 1 \leq i \leq n$. For every $J=\left\{i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{n}\right\} \in\binom{I}{n}$ with $i_{1}<i_{2}<\cdots<i_{n}$, we define

$$
X_{J}=\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
x_{1, i_{1}} & x_{1, i_{2}} & \cdots & x_{1, i_{n}} \\
x_{2, i_{1}} & x_{2, i_{2}} & \cdots & x_{2, i_{n}} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
x_{n, i_{1}} & x_{n, i_{2}} & \cdots & x_{n, i_{n}}
\end{array}\right| .
$$

The elements $X_{J}, J \in\binom{I}{n}$, are the coordinates of a point $f(x)$ of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$ and this point does not depend on the particular set of $n$ points with we have chosen as generating set for $X$. Now, let $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ denote the subgeometry of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$ consisting of all the points of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$ whose coordinates can be chosen in the subfield $\mathbb{K}_{0} \subseteq \mathbb{K}$. The following proposition follows from Cooperstein [6] and De Bruyn [11].

Proposition 3.1 ([6], [11]) Let $\bar{f}$ be the restriction of $f$ to the set of points of $\Delta=$ $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$. Then there exists a projectivity $\phi$ of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$ such that $e:=\phi \circ \bar{f}$ defines a full embedding of $\Delta$ into $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$.

Definition. The full embedding alluded to in Proposition 3.1 is called the Grassmannembedding of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$.

Definition. For every hyperplane $H$ of $\Delta$ and for every point $x$ of $H$, let $\Lambda_{H}(x)$ denote the set of lines through $x$ contained in $H$. Then $\Lambda_{H}(x)$ is a set of points of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(x)$.

For a proof of the following proposition, see Cardinali and De Bruyn [5, Corollary 1.5] or Pasini [18, Theorem 9.3].

Proposition 3.2 Let $H$ be a hyperplane of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ arising from the Grassmannembedding of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$. Then for every point $x$ of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta), \Lambda_{H}(x)$ is a possibly degenerate $\theta$-Hermitian variety of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(x) \cong \operatorname{PG}(n-1, \mathbb{K})$.

Important remark. In Proposition 3.2, the complete point-set of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(x)$ must be regarded as a degenerate $\theta$-Hermitian variety.

Let $\pi$ be an $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ and let $H_{\pi}$ be the set of all maximal totally isotropic subspaces meeting $\pi$. In the following lemma, we collect some
properties of the set $H_{\pi}$. The proofs of these properties are completely similar to the ones given in the symplectic case.

Lemma 3.3 ( $i$ ) If $\alpha$ is a maximal totally isotropic subspace of $H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$, then $\operatorname{dim}(\pi \cap \alpha)=\operatorname{dim}\left(\pi^{\zeta} \cap \alpha\right)$. Hence, $H_{\pi}=H_{\pi^{\zeta}}$.
(ii) Through every point $x$ of $H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ not contained in $\pi \cup \pi^{\zeta}$, there exists a maximal totally isotropic subspace disjoint from $\pi$ (and hence also from $\pi^{\zeta}$ ).
(iii) $H_{\pi}$ is a subspace of $\operatorname{DH}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$.

Proposition 3.4 (i) If $\pi$ is a totally isotropic ( $n-1$ )-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-$ $1, \mathbb{K})$, then $H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$, namely the singular hyperplane of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ with deepest point $\pi$.
(ii) If $\pi$ is not totally isotropic, then $H_{\pi}$ is not a hyperplane of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$.

Proof. Part (i) is trivial. So, suppose $\pi$ is an $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-$ $1, \mathbb{K})$ which is not totally isotropic. Then there exists a point $x \in \pi \backslash H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$. Now, $x^{\zeta}$ is a $(2 n-2)$-dimensional subspace of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ containing the $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace $\pi^{\zeta}$. By Lemma 3.3 (ii), there exists a maximal totally isotropic subspace $\alpha$ disjoint from $\pi \cup \pi^{\zeta}$. Then $\alpha \cap x^{\zeta}$ is an ( $n-2$ )-dimensional subspace of $x^{\zeta}$ disjoint from $\pi \cup \pi^{\zeta}$. So, $\alpha \cap x^{\zeta}$ corresponds with a line of $\Delta$.

We show that $\left\langle\alpha \cap x^{\zeta}, x\right\rangle$ is the unique ( $n-1$ )-dimensional subspace through $\alpha \cap x^{\zeta}$ which is contained in $\left(\alpha \cap x^{\zeta}\right)^{\zeta}$ and which meets $\pi$. If this would not be the case, then $\left(\alpha \cap x^{\zeta}\right)^{\zeta} \cap \pi$ contains a line $L$ through $x$. Then $L^{\zeta}$ contains ( $\alpha \cap x^{\zeta}$ ) and also $\pi^{\zeta}$. Hence, $x^{\zeta}=\left\langle\pi^{\zeta}, \alpha \cap x^{\zeta}\right\rangle \subseteq L^{\zeta}$, a contradiction.

Since $x \notin H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$, the line corresponding to $\alpha \cap x^{\zeta}$ is disjoint from $H_{\pi}$. This proves that $H_{\pi}$ is not a hyperplane.

Let $V_{\pi}$ denote the set of all $(n-1)$-dimensional subspaces of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ meeting $\pi$. Then there exists a hyperplane $A_{\pi}$ of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$ satisfying the following: if $\pi^{\prime}$ is an ( $n-1$ )-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$, then $\pi^{\prime} \in V_{\pi}$ if and only if $f\left(\pi^{\prime}\right) \in A_{\pi}$ (Similar proof as Lemma 2.14). So, with $\phi$ as in Proposition 3.1, we have that

$$
e\left(H_{\pi}\right)=\phi\left(A_{\pi}\right) \cap e(P)
$$

where $P$ is the point-set of $\Delta$. Now, put $\phi\left(A_{\pi}\right)=\beta_{\pi}$ and suppose $\beta_{\pi}$ is described by the equation $\sum_{J \in\binom{I}{n}} a_{J} X_{J}=0$. Then we denote by $\beta_{\pi}^{\prime}$ the hyperplane of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}\right)$ described by the equation $\sum_{J \in\binom{I}{n}} a_{J}^{\theta} X_{J}$. Then $\beta_{\pi}$ and $\beta_{\pi}^{\prime}$ intersect $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ is a subspace $\gamma_{\pi}$ of co-dimension 1 or 2 , and

$$
e\left(H_{\pi}\right)=\beta_{\pi} \cap \beta_{\pi}^{\prime} \cap e(P)=\gamma_{\pi} \cap e(P) .
$$

If $\beta_{\pi}=\beta_{\pi}^{\prime}$, then $\gamma_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ and $H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of $\Delta$. In that case $\pi$ is totally isotropic. If $\beta_{\pi} \neq \beta_{\pi}^{\prime}$, then $\gamma_{\pi}$ has co-dimension 2 and $H_{\pi}$ is not a hyperplane. In that case $\pi$ is not totally isotropic. The following proposition is now obvious.

Proposition 3.5 Every hyperplane of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ through $\gamma_{\pi}$ gives rise to a hyperplane of $\Delta$ which either is equal to $H_{\pi}$ (if $\pi$ is totally isotropic) or contains $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane (if $\pi$ is not totally isotropic).

Definition. Any hyperplane which can be obtained as described in Proposition 3.5 is called a hyperplane of type ( $H$ ). Every singular hyperplane is a hyperplane of type $(\mathrm{H})$.

Proposition 3.6 Suppose $\pi$ is not totally isotropic. Let $H$ be a hyperplane of $\Delta$ which contains $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane and let $\alpha$ be a point of $H$ not contained in $H_{\pi}$. Then the following properties hold:
(i) The set $\Lambda_{H}(\alpha)$ of lines through $\alpha$ which are contained in $H$ are precisely the lines through $\alpha$ meeting $H_{\pi}$.
(ii) The set $\Lambda_{H}(\alpha)$, regarded as set of points of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$, is a possibly degenerate $\theta$ Hermitian variety of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$, which is isomorphic to the $\theta$-Hermitian variety $H(2 n-$ $1, \mathbb{K}, \theta) \cap \pi$ of $\pi$.

Proof. Part (i) is trivial. We will regard $\alpha$ as a totally isotropic ( $n-1$ )-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ which is disjoint from $\pi$ and hence also from $\pi^{\zeta}$. For every subspace $\delta$ of $\pi$, let $\delta^{\mu}$ be the subspace $\delta^{\zeta} \cap \alpha$. Then $\mu$ defines an isomorphism between the projective spaces $\pi$ and $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$. If $p$ is a point of $\pi \cap H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$, then the line $p^{\mu}$ through $\alpha$ is completely contained in $H$ since $p^{\mu}$ contains two points of $H$ (namely $\alpha$ and $\left\langle p, p^{\zeta} \cap \alpha\right\rangle$ ). If $p$ is a point of $\pi \backslash H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$, then $\left(p^{\zeta} \cap \alpha\right)^{\zeta}$ contains $\alpha$ and $\left\langle p^{\zeta} \cap \alpha, p\right\rangle$ and hence coincides with $\langle\alpha, p\rangle$. Since $\langle\alpha, p\rangle$ intersects $\pi$ in the point $p \notin H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$, the line $p^{\mu}$ contains a unique point of $H$, namely $\alpha$ (see part (i)). The proposition follows.

Proposition 3.7 Suppose $\pi$ is not totally isotropic. Let $H$ be a hyperplane of $\Delta$ arising from a hyperplane of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ through $\gamma_{\pi}$ and let $\alpha$ be a point of $H$. Then the following holds.
(i) If $\alpha \notin H_{\pi}$, then $\Lambda_{H}(\alpha)$ is a $\theta$-Hermitian variety of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$ which is isomorphic to the $\theta$-Hermitian variety $H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta) \cap \pi$ of $\pi$.
(ii) If $\alpha \in H_{\pi}$ and the generator $\alpha$ contains a line of $\pi$, then $\Lambda_{H}(\alpha)$ consists of the whole point-set of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$.
(iii) If $\alpha \in H_{\pi}$ and the generator $\alpha$ intersects $\pi$ in a point not belonging to $\pi^{\zeta}$, then $\Lambda_{H}(\alpha)$ is a degenerate $\theta$-Hermitian variety (a cone) with top an ( $n-3$ )-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$ and with base a Baer subline of a line of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$.

Proof. Claim (i) is precisely Proposition 3.6. Claim (ii) is trivial. So, suppose that the generator $\alpha$ intersects $\pi$ in a unique point $y_{1} \notin \pi^{\zeta}$. Then by Lemma 3.3, the generator $\alpha$ also intersects $\pi^{\zeta}$ in a unique point, say $y_{2}$. Let $F_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$ denote the max through $\alpha$ corresponding to $y_{i}$.

We claim that the lines through $\alpha$ contained in $H_{\pi}$ are precisely the lines through $\alpha$ contained in $F_{1} \cup F_{2}$. Obviously, every line through $\alpha$ contained in $F_{1} \cup F_{2}$ is also contained in $H_{\pi}$. Suppose $\beta$ is an $(n-2)$-dimensional subspace of $\alpha$ not containing $y_{1}, y_{2}$ and $\alpha^{\prime}$ is
a maximal totally isotropic subspace through $\beta$ meeting $\pi$ in a point $y_{1}^{\prime} \neq y_{1}$. Then since $y_{2} \in y_{1}^{\prime \zeta}$ and $\beta \subseteq y_{1}^{\prime \zeta}, \alpha \subseteq y_{1}^{\prime \zeta}$. This is however impossible since $\left\langle y_{1}^{\prime}, \alpha\right\rangle$ is not totally isotropic. So, every line through $\alpha$ which is not contained in $F_{1} \cup F_{2}$ is also not contained in $H_{\pi}$.

Now, let $\mathcal{W}$ denote the set of hyperplanes of $\Delta$ arising from a hyperplane of $\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-\right.$ $\left.1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ through $\gamma_{\pi}$. Then for every $H \in \mathcal{W}, \Lambda_{H}(\alpha)$ is a possibly degenerate $\theta$-Hermitian variety of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$ containing every line through $\alpha$ which is contained in $F_{1} \cup F_{2}$. So, either $\Lambda_{H}(\alpha)$ is the whole set of points of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(\alpha)$ or $\Lambda_{H}(\alpha)$ is as described in (iii) above. Since the hyperplanes of $\mathcal{W}$ partition the set of points of $P \backslash H_{\pi}$, every line through $\alpha$ not contained in $F_{1} \cup F_{2}$ is contained in a unique hyperplane of $\mathcal{W}$. This implies that every $\Lambda_{H}(\alpha), H \in \mathcal{W}$, is as described in (iii) above.

### 3.2 Ovoids arising from the Grassmann-embedding of $\Delta$

Up to present, no ovoid is known to exist in a finite thick dual polar space of rank at least 3. The same conclusion does not hold for infinite thick dual polar spaces due to constructions using transfinite recursion, see Cameron [4]. An unanswered question up to now was whether there exist ovoids in possibly infinite thick dual polar spaces of rank at least 3 which arise from projective embeddings. In this subsection, we will construct the first examples of such ovoids. In fact we will give necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of ovoids of the Hermitian dual polar space $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ which arise from its Grassmann-embedding. Recall also that if $\operatorname{DH}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ has ovoids arising from its Grassmann-embedding, then also the dual polar space $D W\left(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ has ovoids arising from its Grassmann-embedding since $D W\left(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ can be embedded as a subspace in $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ such that the projective embedding of $D W\left(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$ induced by the Grassmann-embedding of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ is isomorphic to the Grassmann-embedding of $D W\left(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}_{0}\right)$.

Theorem 3.8 The dual polar space $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta), n \geq 2$, has ovoids arising from its Grassmann-embedding if and only if $\mathrm{PG}(n-1, \mathbb{K})$ has an empty $\theta$-Hermitian variety, in which case there even exists a partition of ovoids arising from the Grassmann-embedding.

Proof. Suppose $H$ is an ovoid arising from the Grassmann-embedding of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ and let $x$ be a point of $H$. Then $\Lambda_{H}(x)=\emptyset$ and hence $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}(x) \cong \mathrm{PG}(n-1, \mathbb{K})$ admits an empty $\theta$-Hermitian variety by Proposition 3.2.

Conversely, suppose $\operatorname{PG}(n-1, \mathbb{K})$ admits an empty $\theta$-Hermitian variety. Let $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}$ $a_{i j} X_{i} X_{j}^{\theta}\left(a_{i j}^{\theta}=a_{j i}\right)$ denote such an empty Hermitian variety (with respect to a given reference system). Consider then the following $\theta$-Hermitian variety $\mathcal{H}$ in $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$ (again with respect to a certain reference system):

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_{i j} X_{i} X_{j}^{\theta}+\left(X_{0} X_{n}^{\theta}+X_{n} X_{0}^{\theta}\right)+\left(X_{1} X_{n+1}^{\theta}+X_{n+1} X_{1}^{\theta}\right) \\
+\cdots+\left(X_{n-1} X_{2 n-1}^{\theta}+X_{2 n-1} X_{n-1}^{\theta}\right)=0
\end{gathered}
$$

The Hermitian variety $\mathcal{H}$ is non-singular and its maximal singular subspaces have maximal possible dimension $n-1$ (e.g. $X_{0}=X_{1}=\cdots=X_{n-1}=0$ ). Since there is up to projectivities only one nonsingular $\theta$-Hermitian variety of Witt index $n$ in $\operatorname{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$, we may without loss of generality suppose that the dual polar space $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ is associated with the $\theta$-Hermitian variety $\mathcal{H}$. Now, let $\pi$ be the subspace $X_{n}=X_{n+1}=$ $\cdots=X_{2 n-1}=0$ of $\mathrm{PG}(2 n-1, \mathbb{K})$. Then $H_{\pi}=\emptyset$ since $\mathcal{H} \cap \pi=\emptyset$. So, if $e: \Delta \rightarrow \Sigma$ denotes the Grassmann-embedding of $\Delta$, then there exists a subspace $\gamma_{\pi}$ of co-dimension 2 in $\Sigma$ having empty intersection with $e(P)$, where $P$ denotes the point-set of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$. (Recall $e(P) \cap \gamma_{\pi}=e\left(H_{\pi}\right)$.) Now, let $\mathcal{W}$ denote the set of hyperplanes of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ arising from a hyperplane of $\Sigma$ through $\gamma_{\pi}$. If a hyperplane $W \in \mathcal{W}$ contains a line $L$, then $e(L)$ meets $\gamma_{\pi}$, a contradiction. Hence, all elements of $\mathcal{W}$ are ovoids and $\mathcal{W}$ defines a partition of $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{K}, \theta)$ into ovoids.

Examples. (1) Let $\mathbb{K}_{0}=\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{K}=\mathbb{C}$ and let $\theta$ be the complex conjugation $\div$. The Hermitian variety $X_{0} \overline{X_{0}}+X_{1} \overline{X_{1}}+\cdots+X_{n-1} \overline{X_{n-1}}$ of $\operatorname{PG}(n-1, \mathbb{C})$ is empty. Hence, $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{C}, \cdot)$ and $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{R})$ admit partitions in ovoids with each ovoid arising from the Grassmann-embedding of the dual polar space.
(2) Let $\mathbb{K}_{0}=\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ and let $\theta$ be the automorphism $q_{1}+\sqrt{2} q_{2} \mapsto q_{1}-\sqrt{2} q_{2}$ $\left(q_{1}, q_{2} \in \mathbb{Q}\right)$ of $Q(\sqrt{2})$. The Hermitian variety $X_{0}^{\theta+1}+X_{1}^{\theta+1}+\cdots+X_{n-1}^{\theta+1}=0$ of $\mathrm{PG}(n-$ $1, \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}))$ is empty. Hence, $D H(2 n-1, \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}), \theta)$ and $D W(2 n-1, \mathbb{Q})$ admit partitions in ovoids.

## 4 Discussion of the finite Hermitian case

The aim of this section is to derive some properties of the hyperplanes of type (H) in the finite case. These properties are described in Propositions 4.4, 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7. Propositions 4.6 and 4.7 show that the hyperplanes of type (H) satisfy similar properties as the hyperplanes of type ( S ) of symplectic dual polar spaces (recall Propositions 2.8 and 2.9).

Let $H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right), n \geq 2$, be a nonsingular Hermitian variety in $\mathrm{PG}\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ and let $\Delta=D H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ be the associated dual polar space. Let $P$ denote the pointset of $\Delta$ (i.e. the set of generators of $H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ ). Notice that every quad of $\Delta$ is isomorphic to $D H\left(3, q^{2}\right) \cong Q^{-}(5, q)$ and that every hyperplane of $Q^{-}(5, q)$ is either a $Q(4, q)$-subquadrangle or a singular hyperplane (see Payne and Thas [19]). Let $e: \Delta \rightarrow$ $\Sigma=\operatorname{PG}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}-1, q\right)$ be the Grassmann-embedding of $\Delta$.

Let $\pi$ be an $(n-1)$-dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ which is not a generator of $H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ and let $H_{\pi}$ be the set of generators of $H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ meeting $\pi$. Then by the above, we know that there exists a subspace $\gamma_{\pi}$ of co-dimension 2 in $\Sigma$ such that $H_{\pi}=e^{-1}\left(\gamma_{\pi} \cap e(P)\right)$. Let $\widetilde{\beta_{\pi}}$ and $\widetilde{\beta_{\pi}^{\prime}}$ be two hyperplanes of $\Sigma$ such that $\gamma_{\pi}=\widetilde{\beta_{\pi}} \cap \widetilde{\beta_{\pi}^{\prime}}$.

Lemma 4.1 Let $\alpha$ be a hyperplane of $\Sigma$ through $\gamma_{\pi}$, let $H(\alpha)$ be a hyperplane of $\Delta$ arising from $\alpha$ and let $Q$ be a quad of $\Delta$. Then one of the following holds:
(1) $Q \cap H(\alpha)=Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi}=Q$;
(2) $Q \cap H(\alpha)=Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi}$ is a $Q(4, q)$-subquadrangle of $Q$;
(3) $Q \cap H(\alpha)=Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi}=x^{\perp} \cap Q$ for a point $x$ of $Q$;
(4) $Q \cap H(\alpha)$ is a $Q(4, q)$-subquadrangle of $Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi}=Q \cap H(\alpha)$;
(5) $Q \cap H(\alpha)$ is a $Q(4, q)$-subquadrangle of $Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi}$ is a $(q+1) \times(q+1)$-grid of $Q \cap H(\alpha)$;
(6) $Q \cap H(\alpha)$ is a $Q(4, q)$-subquadrangle of $Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi}$ is a classical ovoid of $Q \cap H(\alpha)$;
(7) $Q \cap H(\alpha)$ is a $Q(4, q)$-subquadrangle of $Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi}=x^{\perp} \cap(Q \cap H(\alpha))$ for a point $x$ of $Q \cap H(\alpha)$;
(8) $Q \cap H(\alpha)=x^{\perp} \cap Q$ for a point $x$ of $Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi}=Q \cap H(\alpha)$;
(9) $Q \cap H(\alpha)=x^{\perp} \cap Q$ for a point $x$ of $Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi}$ is a line contained in $Q \cap H(\alpha)$;
(10) $Q \cap H(\alpha)=x^{\perp} \cap Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi} \subseteq Q \cap H(\alpha)$ is a classical ovoid of a $Q(4, q)$-quad of $Q$;
(11) $Q \cap H(\alpha)=x^{\perp} \cap Q$ and $Q \cap H_{\pi} \subseteq Q \cap H(\alpha)$ is the union of $q+1$ lines through $x$ contained in a $Q(4, q)$-subquadrangle through $x$.

Proof. Obviously, $H_{\pi}=H\left(\widetilde{\beta_{\pi}}\right) \cap H\left(\widetilde{\beta_{\pi}^{\prime}}\right)=H\left(\widetilde{\beta_{\pi}}\right) \cap H(\alpha)=H\left(\widetilde{\beta_{\pi}^{\prime}}\right) \cap H(\alpha)$. Hence, $H_{\pi} \cap Q=(H(\alpha) \cap Q) \cap\left(H\left(\widetilde{\beta_{\pi}}\right) \cap Q\right)$. Now, $H(\alpha) \cap Q\left(H\left(\widetilde{\beta_{\pi}}\right) \cap Q\right)$ is either $Q$, a $Q(4, q)$ subquadrangle of $Q$ or a singular hyperplane of $Q$. Combining all possibilities for $H(\alpha) \cap Q$ and $H\left(\widetilde{\beta_{\pi}}\right) \cap Q$, one readily finds the 11 possibilities mentioned in the lemma.

Now, consider the following graph $\Gamma$ on the vertex set $P \backslash H_{\pi}$. Two vertices $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are adjacent whenever one of the following conditions is satisfied:
(i) $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=1$ and the line $y_{1} y_{2}$ meets $H_{\pi}$;
(ii) $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=2,\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle \cap H_{\pi}$ is the union of $q+1$ lines through a point $z$ which is collinear with $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$;
(iii) $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=2,\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle \cap H_{\pi}$ is a line $L$ and $\pi_{L}\left(y_{1}\right)=\pi_{L}\left(y_{2}\right)$.

For every point $x$ of $P \backslash H_{\pi}$, let

- $A_{x}$ be the hyperplane of $\Delta$ arising from the hyperplane $\left\langle e(x), \gamma_{\pi}\right\rangle$ of $\Sigma$;
- $C_{x}$ be the component of $\Gamma$ containing $x$;
- $B_{x}=C_{x} \cup H_{\pi}$.

Lemma 4.2 For every point $x$ of $P \backslash H_{\pi}, A_{x} \subseteq B_{x}$.
Proof. For every $i \in\{0, \ldots, n\}$, consider the following property $\left(P_{i}\right)$ :
$\left(P_{i}\right):$ If $y_{1}, y_{2} \in A_{x} \backslash H_{\pi}$ such that $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=i$ and $y_{1} \in C_{x}$, then also $y_{2} \in C_{x}$.

We will prove property $\left(P_{i}\right)$ by induction on $i$. The lemma then immediately follows from the fact that $x \in A_{x} \cap C_{x}$ and $H_{\pi} \subseteq B_{x}$. Property $\left(P_{0}\right)$ trivially holds.
(1) Suppose $i=1$ and let $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ be two points of $A_{x} \backslash H_{\pi}$ at distance 1 from each other such that $y_{1} \in C_{x}$. Since $H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of $A_{x}$, the line $y_{1} y_{2}$ meets $H_{\pi}$. Hence, $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are adjacent vertices of $\Gamma$. Since $y_{1} \in C_{x}$, also $y_{2} \in C_{x}$.
(2) Suppose $i=2$ and let $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ be two points of $A_{x} \backslash H_{\pi}$ at distance 2 from each other such that $y_{1} \in C_{x}$. Now, we will apply Lemma 4.1 with $\alpha=\left\langle e(x), \gamma_{\pi}\right\rangle$ (so, $H(\alpha)=A_{x}$ ) and $Q=\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle$. Either case (2), (3), (5), (6), (7), (9), (10) or (11) of the lemma occurs.

In cases (2), (3), (5), (6), (7) and (10), $(Q \cap H(\alpha)) \backslash\left(Q \cap H_{\pi}\right)$ is connected. Since $y_{1}, y_{2} \in(Q \cap H(\alpha)) \backslash\left(Q \cap H_{\pi}\right)$ and $y_{1} \in C_{x}$, it follows that $y_{2} \in C_{x}$ by successive application of Step (1).

Suppose case (9) occurs. Then $Q \cap H_{\pi}$ is a line $L$ and $Q \cap H(\alpha)$ is a singular hyperplane of $Q$ whose deepest point coincides with $\pi_{L}\left(y_{1}\right)=\pi_{L}\left(y_{2}\right)$ since $y_{1}, y_{2} \in(Q \cap H(\alpha)) \backslash(Q \cap$ $\left.H_{\pi}\right)$. Hence, $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are adjacent vertices of $\Gamma$. Since $y_{1} \in C_{x}$, also $y_{2} \in C_{x}$.

If case (11) occurs, then again $y_{1}, y_{2} \in(Q \cap H(\alpha)) \backslash\left(Q \cap H_{\pi}\right)$ are adjacent vertices in $\Gamma$. Since $y_{1} \in C_{x}$, also $y_{2} \in C_{x}$.
(3) Suppose $i \geq 3$ and let $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ be two points of $A_{x} \backslash H_{\pi}$ at distance $i$ from each other. Let $\Lambda_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, denote the set of lines through $y_{i}$ meeting $H_{\pi}$. Then $\Lambda_{i}$ is a possibly degenerate Hermitian variety of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta}\left(y_{i}\right)$. Let $\Lambda_{i}^{\prime}, i \in\{1,2\}$, denote the set of lines of $\Lambda_{i}$ which are contained in $\Delta^{\prime}:=\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle$. If $\Lambda_{2}^{\prime}$ is a hyperplane of $\operatorname{Res}_{\Delta^{\prime}}\left(y_{2}\right)$, then let $F$ denote a max of $\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle$ through $y_{2}$ not containing all lines of $\Lambda_{2}^{\prime}$. Otherwise, let $F$ denote an arbitrary max of $\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle$ through $y_{2}$. Since $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \geq 3$, there exists more than 1 line in $\Lambda_{1}^{\prime}$. Let $L_{1}$ be a line of $\Lambda_{1}^{\prime}$ which is different from the unique line through $y_{1}$ meeting $F$. Let $z$ denote the unique point of $L_{1}$ at distance $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)-1$ from $y_{2}$. Then $\left\langle z, y_{2}\right\rangle \neq F$ and there exists a line $L_{2} \in \Lambda_{2}^{\prime}$ not contained in $\left\langle z, y_{2}\right\rangle$. Now, every point of $L_{1}$ has distance $i-1$ from $L_{2}$. Since $\left|L_{1}\right|,\left|L_{2}\right| \geq 3$, there exist points $y_{1}^{\prime} \in L_{1} \backslash H_{\pi}$, $y_{2}^{\prime} \in L_{2} \backslash H_{\pi}$ at distance $i-1$ from each other. By Step (1), $y_{1}^{\prime} \in C_{x}$. By the induction hypothesis, $y_{2}^{\prime} \in C_{x}$ and from Step (1), it follows again that $y_{2} \in C_{x}$. This proves that property $\left(P_{i}\right)$ holds.

Lemma 4.3 If $H$ is a hyperplane of $\Delta$ containing $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane, then $B_{x} \subseteq H$ for every point $x$ of $H \backslash H_{\pi}$.

Proof. It suffices to show that $C_{x} \subseteq H$. Since $x \in H$, we must show the following: if $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are two adjacent vertices of $\Gamma$ such that $y_{1} \in H$, then also $y_{2} \in H$. We distinguish three cases.
(1) $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=1$ and the line $y_{1} y_{2}$ meets $H_{\pi}$. Then $y_{2} \in H$ since $y_{1} \in H$ and $H_{\pi} \subseteq H$.
(2) $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=2,\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle \cap H_{\pi}$ is the union of $q+1$ lines through a point $z$ which is collinear with $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$. Since $\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle \cap H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of $\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle \cap H$ and $y_{1} \in H,\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle \cap H$ is the singular hyperplane of $\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle$ with deepest point $z$. It follows that $y_{2} \in H$.
(3) $\mathrm{d}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=2,\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle \cap H_{\pi}$ is a line $L$ and $\pi_{L}\left(y_{1}\right)=\pi_{L}\left(y_{2}\right)$. Since $L=\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle \cap H_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of $H \cap\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle, H \cap\left\langle y_{1}, y_{2}\right\rangle$ is a singular hyperplane with deepest point on $L$. Since $y_{1} \in H$, the deepest point coincides with $\pi_{L}\left(y_{1}\right)$. Hence, $y_{2} \in H$ since $\pi_{L}\left(y_{2}\right)=\pi_{L}\left(y_{1}\right)$.

Proposition 4.4 There are $q+1$ hyperplanes which have $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane. These are the hyperplanes $A_{x}, x \in P \backslash H_{\pi}$.

Proof. Let $H$ be a hyperplane which has $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane and let $x$ be a point of $H \backslash H_{\pi}$. By Lemmas 4.2 and 4.3, $A_{x} \subseteq H$ and hence $A_{x}=H$ since $A_{x}$ is a maximal subspace.

Proposition 4.5 The $q+1$ hyperplanes containing $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane are all isomorphic.
Proof. Suppose the radical of $\pi$ has dimension $k \in\{-1,0, \ldots, n-2\}$. Without loss of generality, we may suppose that $H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ has equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(X_{0} X_{n}^{q}+X_{n} X_{0}^{q}\right)+\left(X_{1} X_{n+1}^{q}+X_{n+1} X_{0}^{q}\right)+\cdots+\left(X_{k} X_{n+k}^{q}+X_{n+k} X_{k}^{q}\right) \\
& +X_{k+1}^{q+1}+X_{k+2}^{q+1}+\cdots+X_{n-1}^{q+1}+X_{n+k+1}^{q+1}+X_{n+k+2}^{q+1}+\cdots+X_{2 n-1}^{q+1}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

and $\pi$ has equation

$$
\pi \leftrightarrow X_{0}=X_{1}=\cdots=X_{n-1}=0
$$

Let $\epsilon$ be an element of $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$ satisfying $\epsilon^{q+1}=-1$ and let $\epsilon^{\prime}$ be an element of $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2}} \backslash\{0\}$ satisfying $\epsilon^{\prime q}=-\epsilon^{\prime}$. Let $L$ denote the following line of $\Delta$ :

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
X_{0}=\epsilon^{\prime} \cdot X_{n}, X_{1}=\epsilon^{\prime} \cdot X_{n+1}, \ldots, X_{k}=\epsilon^{\prime} \cdot X_{n+k} \\
X_{k+1}=\epsilon \cdot X_{n+k+1}, \ldots, X_{n-2}=\epsilon \cdot X_{2 n-2} \\
X_{n-1}=X_{2 n-1}=0
\end{array}\right.
$$

The $q+1$ points on this line are given by the equations

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
X_{0}=\epsilon^{\prime} \cdot X_{n}, X_{1}=\epsilon^{\prime} \cdot X_{n+1}, \ldots, X_{k}=\epsilon^{\prime} \cdot X_{n+k} \\
X_{k+1}=\epsilon \cdot X_{n+k+1}, \ldots, X_{n-2}=\epsilon \cdot X_{2 n-2} \\
X_{n-1}=\bar{\epsilon} \cdot X_{2 n-1}
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\bar{\epsilon}$ is one of the $q+1$ elements of $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$ satisfying $\bar{\epsilon}^{q+1}=-1$. Obviously, none of the above points belongs to $H_{\pi}$. So, $L$ is disjoint from $H_{\pi}$. It follows that the hyperplanes $A_{x}, x \in L$, are all the hyperplanes containing $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane.

For every $\delta \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$ satisfying $\delta^{q+1}=1$, the automorphism $\left(X_{0}, X_{1}, \ldots, X_{2 n-1}\right) \mapsto$ $\left(X_{0}, X_{1}, \ldots, X_{2 n-2}, \delta \cdot X_{2 n-1}\right)$ of $\operatorname{PG}\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ fixes $H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ set-wise and hence determines an automorphism $\theta_{\delta}$ of $D H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ fixing $H_{\pi}$ and $L$ set-wise. Obviously, the group $G=\left\{\theta_{\delta} \mid \delta^{q+1}=1\right\}$ acts regularly on the line $L$ and hence also on the set of $q+1$ hyperplanes containing $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane.

Proposition 4.6 Let $n \geq 3$ and suppose that the hyperplane $\pi$ is singular. Let $x$ be $a$ point of $\pi$ such that $\pi \subseteq x^{\zeta}$. The maximal totally isotropic subspaces through $x$ define a convex subspace $A \cong D H\left(2 n-3, q^{2}\right)$ of $D H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$. Let $G_{\pi}$ denote the set of all maximal totally isotropic subspaces containing a line of $\pi$ through $x$. Let $H_{1}, H_{2}, \ldots, H_{q+1}$ denote the $q+1$ hyperplanes of $\operatorname{DH}\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ containing $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane and let $G_{1}, G_{2}, \ldots, G_{q+1}$ denote the $q+1$ hyperplanes of $A$ containing $G_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane. Let $\overline{G_{i}}, i \in\{1, \ldots, q+1\}$, denote the hyperplane of $D H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ obtained by extending $G_{i}$. Then $\left\{H_{1}, H_{2}, \ldots, H_{q+1}\right\}=\left\{\overline{G_{1}}, \overline{G_{2}}, \ldots, \overline{G_{q+1}}\right\}$.
Proof. It suffices to prove that each $\overline{G_{i}}, i \in\{1, \ldots, q+1\}$, contains $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane. Recall that $H_{\pi}$ is a subspace of $D H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$.
(1) We show that $H_{\pi} \subseteq \overline{G_{i}}$. Let $\alpha$ denote an arbitrary maximal totally isotropic subspace meeting $\pi$. If $\alpha$ contains $x$, then $\alpha \in A \subseteq \overline{G_{i}}$. If $\alpha$ does not contain $x$, then the unique maximal totally isotropic subspace through $x$ meeting $\alpha$ in an ( $n-2$ )-dimensional subspace contains the subspace $\langle x, \alpha \cap \pi\rangle$ and hence is contained in $G_{i}$. It follows that $\alpha \in \overline{G_{i}}$.
(2) We show that every line $L$ contained in $\overline{G_{i}}$ contains a point of $H_{\pi}$. We distinguish three cases:
(2a) $L$ is contained in $A$. Then every point of $L$ belongs to $H_{\pi}$.
(2b) $L$ meets $A$ in a unique point. This point belongs to $H_{\pi}$.
(2c) $L$ is disjoint from $A$. Then $\pi_{A}(L)$ is a line of $A$ contained in $G_{i}$. Since $G_{\pi}$ is a hyperplane of $G_{i}, \pi_{A}(L)$ contains a point $u$ of $G_{\pi}$. The unique point of $L$ collinear with $u$ meets $\pi$ and hence is contained in $H_{\pi}$.

Proposition 4.7 Let $H$ be a hyperplane of $D H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ having $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane. Let $A$ be a convex subspace of $D H\left(2 n-1, q^{2}\right)$ of diameter at least 2 . Then either $A \subseteq H$ or $A \cap H$ is a hyperplane of type ( $H$ ) of $A$.

Proof. We suppose that $A$ is not completely contained in $H$. Then $A \cap H$ is a hyperplane of $A$. Let $\alpha$ be a totally isotropic subspace corresponding to $A$. Since $A$ is not contained in $H, \alpha$ is disjoint from $\pi$. Put $\operatorname{dim}(\alpha)=n-1-i$ with $i \geq 2$. The totally isotropic subspaces through $\alpha$ define a polar space $H\left(2 i-1, q^{2}\right)$ which lives in the quotient space $\alpha^{\zeta} / \alpha$. The space $\alpha^{\zeta}$ is $(n-1+i)$-dimensional and hence $\alpha^{\zeta} \cap \pi$ has dimension at least $i-1$. Let $\pi^{\prime}$ be the subspace generated by $\alpha$ and $\alpha^{\zeta} \cap \pi$. The dimension of the quotient space $\alpha^{\zeta} / \alpha$ is $2 i-1$ and the dimension of $\pi^{\prime}$ is this quotient space is at least $i-1$. Since $A$ is not contained in $H$, this dimension is precisely $i-1$. Let $X$ denote the set of maximal totally isotropic subspaces through $\alpha$ meeting $\alpha^{\zeta} \cap \pi$. (So, $X=A \cap H_{\pi}$.) Since every line of $H$ meets $H_{\pi}$ in either the whole line or a unique point, every line of the hyperplane $H \cap A$ of $A$ meets $X=A \cap H_{\pi}$ is either the whole line or a unique point. It follows that the hyperplane $A \cap H$ of $A$ is a hyperplane of type (H). [Notice that it might be possible that $H \cap A=X$. Then $H \cap A$ is a singular hyperplane of $A$ (cf. Proposition 3.4).]

Remark. In the case $n=3$ and $\pi$ is a 2 -dimensional subspace of $\operatorname{PG}\left(5, q^{2}\right)$ intersecting $H\left(5, q^{2}\right)$ in a unital, the $q+1$ hyperplanes containing $H_{\pi}$ as a hyperplane have already been described in De Bruyn and Pralle [15].

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[^0]:    *Postdoctoral Fellow of the Research Foundation - Flanders

