

The ψ -associate $X^\#$ of a flat X in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$

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Abstract

For a given hypersurface ψ in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$, with equation $Q(x) = 0$, where Q is a polynomial of (reduced) degree $d > 1$, a definition is given of the ψ -associate $X^\#$ of a flat X in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$. The definition involves the fully polarized form of the polynomial Q ; in the cubic case $d = 3$ it reads

$$X^\# = \{z \in \text{PG}(n, 2) \mid T(x, y, z) = 0 \text{ for all } x, y \in X\},$$

where $T(x, y, z)$ denotes the alternating trilinear form obtained by completely polarizing Q . Some general results, valid for any degree d and projective dimension n , are first expounded. Thereafter several choices of ψ are visited, but for each choice just a few aspects are highlighted. Despite the partial nature of the survey quite a variety of behaviours of the ψ -associate are uncovered.

Many of the choices of ψ which are considered are of cubic hypersurfaces in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$. If ψ is the Segre variety $\mathcal{S}_{1,2,2} \subset \text{PG}(5, 2)$ it is shown that the 48 planes external to $\mathcal{S}_{1,2,2}$ fall into eight pairs of ordered triplets $\{(P_1, R_1, S_1), (P_2, R_2, S_2)\}$ such that $\psi^c = P_1 \cup R_1 \cup S_1 \cup P_2 \cup R_2 \cup S_2$ and

$$P_i^\# = R_i, \quad R_i^\# = S_i, \quad S_i^\# = P_i, \quad i = 1, 2.$$

Further those lines L of $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ which are *singular*, satisfying that is $L^\# = \text{PG}(5, 2)$, are in this case shown to form a complete spread of 21 lines. Another result of note arises in the case where ψ is the underlying 35-set of a non-maximal partial spread Σ_5 of five planes in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$, where it is shown that one plane $W \in \Sigma_5$ is singled out by the property that every line $L \subset W$ is singular.

Keywords hypersurfaces in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$, associate of a projective flat, partial spreads of planes in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$

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1 Introduction

Throughout we work over $\text{GF}(2)$, and so we may identify the nonzero elements of a vector space $V(n+1, 2) = V_{n+1}$ with the points S_0 of the associated projective space $\mathbb{P}V_{n+1} = \text{PG}(n, 2)$. Consequently we identify $\text{GL}(V_{n+1}) = \text{GL}(n+1, 2)$ with the group $\text{PGL}(n+1, 2)$ of collineations of $\text{PG}(n, 2)$. Similarly nonzero elements of the dual vector space V_{n+1}^* will be identified with the points of the dual projective space $\mathbb{P}V_{n+1}^* = \text{PG}(n, 2)^*$. We use $\langle u, v, \dots \rangle$ for the

vector subspace spanned by vectors u, v, \dots , and $\langle u, v, \dots \rangle$ for the flat (projective subspace) generated by projective points u, v, \dots . The vector space $F(S_0)$ of all functions $S_0 \rightarrow \text{GF}(2)$ is of dimension $|S_0| = 2^{n+1} - 1$, one basis being $\{\chi_a\}_{a \in S_0}$, where χ_a is the characteristic function of the singleton subset $\{a\} \subset S_0$. Given a choice of coordinates x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n+1} in V_{n+1} , there are $\binom{n+1}{r}$ monomials $\{x_{i_1}x_{i_2}\dots x_{i_r}\}_{1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_r \leq n+1}$ of (reduced) degree r . So altogether we have $\sum_{r=1}^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{r} = |S_0|$ linearly independent monomials, and these form another basis for $F(S_0)$. Given a point-set $\psi \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$ it follows that it has equation $Q(x) = 0$ for some *uniquely determined* polynomial Q of minimal degree on V_{n+1} and satisfying $Q(0) = 0$. Briefly stated, *every point-set of $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ is a hypersurface*. The (reduced) degree $d = \deg Q$ of Q is the *polynomial degree* of the point-set ψ . Observe that $d \leq n + 1$. In fact, see [14, Section 1.2], the following is easily seen to hold.

Lemma 1.1 *If $|\psi|$ is even then the point-set $\psi \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$ has polynomial degree $d = n + 1$, while if $|\psi|$ is odd then $d \leq n$.*

Note that if $F_r = F_r(S_0)$, $r > 0$, denotes the subspace of $F(S_0)$ which consists of functions f expressible as a polynomial function $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n+1})$ with $\deg f \leq r$ and $f(0) = 0$, then the subspaces F_r are nested:

$$F_1 \subset F_2 \subset \dots \subset F_n \subset F_{n+1} = F(S_0). \quad (1.1)$$

Remark 1.2 *If instead we consider subsets ψ of the points S_0 of $\text{PG}(n, q)$ for $q > 2$ then the vector space $F(S_0)$ of all functions $S_0 \rightarrow \text{GF}(q)$ is of dimension $|S_0| = (q^{n+1} - 1)/(q - 1)$, and it is still true, see for example [4, Lemma 3.5(a)], that any subset $\psi \subset S_0$ can be described to consist of those points $\prec x \succ \in S_0$ such that $x \in V(n + 1, q)$ satisfies a single polynomial equation $Q(x) = 0$. However, for $q > 2$, the polynomial Q is far from unique; cf. [5]. So in such cases the polynomial degree of the point-set ψ is defined to be the (reduced) degree of the characteristic function χ of ψ^c , where $\chi(x) = 0$ for $\prec x \succ \in \psi$ and $\chi(x) = 1$ for $\prec x \succ \in \psi^c$.*

From now onwards we will deal with situations where some particular choice of a non-empty point-set $\psi \subset \text{PG}(n, 2) = PV_{n+1}$ has been made. Points, lines, \dots , which lie inside ψ will be called *internal* points, lines, \dots , and those which lie in ψ^c are termed *external*. Let $\mathcal{G}_\psi < \text{GL}(n + 1, 2)$ be the stabilizer of the set ψ , and denote by \mathcal{G}_X that subgroup of \mathcal{G}_ψ which stabilizes a subset $X \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$. Let us suppose that the subset ψ has equation $Q(x) = 0$ where the polynomial $Q = Q_\psi$ has (reduced) degree $d \geq 2$.

Definition 1.3 *Given the choice of subset $\psi \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$ a flat X of $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ is termed ψ -odd whenever $|X \cap \psi|$ is odd and ψ -even whenever $|X \cap \psi|$ is even. Once a particular ψ has been agreed then we omit the “ ψ -”.*

Note that a flat X is odd whenever X contains an even number of external points. The next theorem shows that the degree $d = \deg Q$ can be determined from the point-set ψ purely by incidence properties. The theorem deals with an odd point-set ψ , since if $|\psi|$ is even then $d = n + 1$ by Lemma 1.1.

Theorem 1.4 *(See [15, Theorem 1.1].) If $|\psi|$ is odd then Q has polynomial degree d if and only if (i) every d -flat is ψ -odd and (ii) there exists at least one $(d - 1)$ -flat which is ψ -even.*

1.1 The alternating multilinear form T_Q

Let T_Q denote the completely polarized form of Q . So, granted that the (reduced) degree $\deg Q$ of Q is $d(\geq 2)$, for $v_i \in V_{n+1}$ we have

$$T_Q(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_d) = \sum_{i=1}^d Q_i + \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq d} Q_{ij} + \sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq d} Q_{ijk} + \dots + Q_{12\dots d}, \quad (1.2)$$

where we have abbreviated $Q(v_i), Q(v_i+v_j), Q(v_i+v_j+v_k), \dots$ as $Q_i, Q_{ij}, Q_{ijk}, \dots$ etc. Then T_Q is an alternating multilinear form on V_{n+1} , in d vector variables v_1, \dots, v_d , such that (i) and (ii) in the following lemma hold:

Lemma 1.5 (i) *If the points v_1, \dots, v_d are dependent then $T_Q(v_1, \dots, v_d) = 0$.*
(ii) *If $\langle v_1, \dots, v_d \rangle$ is a $(d-1)$ -flat U , then*

$$T_Q(v_1, \dots, v_d) = \sum_{u \in U} Q(u), \quad (1.3)$$

and so $T_Q(v_1, \dots, v_d) = 0$ if and only if the flat U is ψ -odd.

It is worth stressing that many different polynomials Q give rise to the same alternating form $T = T_Q$. Relative to a choice of coordinates x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n+1} in V_{n+1} we have a direct sum decomposition $F_d = F_{d-1} \oplus Y_d$ where Y_d is the subspace spanned by the $\binom{n+1}{d}$ monomials $\{x_{i_1}x_{i_2}\dots x_{i_d}\}_{1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_d \leq n+1}$. Then for $0 \neq Q \in Y_d$ we have $T_{Q+Q'} = T_Q$ for any element $Q' \in F_{d-1}$. So $|F_{d-1}|$ different polynomials Q share the same alternating form T . Of course this aspect is familiar in the $d=2$ cases. For example, in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ each of the 28 non-degenerate symplectic forms T arises from $(|F_1| =)$ 64 quadrics; further, as in [9, Lemma 2.1], of these 64 quadrics 36 are hyperbolic quadrics \mathcal{H}_5 and 28 are elliptic quadrics \mathcal{E}_5 .

In Section 1.2 we make use of T_Q to define the ψ -associate $X^\#$ of a flat X in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$, and the rest of the present paper is taken up with a study of the ψ -associate. For this study we basically only need to know that T_Q is an alternating multilinear form satisfying Lemma (1.5). Nevertheless let us in the next subsection spell out a little more about T_Q .

1.1.1 The linear isomorphisms $F_d/F_{d-1} \cong \wedge^d V_{n+1}^* \cong \text{Alt}(\times^d V_{n+1}, \mathbb{F}_2)$

In the direct sum decomposition $F_d = F_{d-1} \oplus Y_d$ of the preceding section it should be stressed that Y_d depends on the choice of coordinates: there is (if $d \leq n$) no basis-independent choice of a complementary subspace to the subspace F_{d-1} of F_d . In contrast, we now deal with some natural linear isomorphisms surrounding T_Q and the property $T_{Q+Q'} = T_Q$, for $Q' \in F_{d-1}$. In the next theorem $\text{Alt}(\times^d V_{n+1}, \mathbb{F}_2)$ denotes the vector space of all alternating multilinear forms $\times^d V_{n+1} \rightarrow \text{GF}(2)$. Also, for Q of degree d , $Q + F_{d-1}$ is a general element of the quotient space F_d/F_{d-1} and T_Q is as previously. Further t_Q is defined to be that element of $\wedge^d V_{n+1}^*$ such that if Q is the product $f_1 f_2 \dots f_d$ of d linear forms $f_i \in V_{n+1}^*$ then $t_Q = f_1 \wedge f_2 \wedge \dots \wedge f_d$.

Theorem 1.6 *There exist natural linear isomorphisms $F_d/F_{d-1} \cong \wedge^d V_{n+1}^* \cong \text{Alt}(\times^d V_{n+1}, \mathbb{F}_2)$, giving rise, for $Q \in F_d$, to the bijective correspondences*

$$Q + F_{d-1} \longleftrightarrow t_Q \longleftrightarrow T_Q.$$

Proof. (cf. [8, Theorem B].) Concerning the first isomorphism, consider the multilinear map $M : \times^d V_{n+1}^* \rightarrow F_d/F_{d-1}$ defined by

$$M(f_1, f_2, \dots, f_d) = f_1 f_2 \dots f_d + F_{d-1}$$

and observe that M is alternating, since if $f_i = f_j$ for some $i \neq j$, then $f_1 f_2 \dots f_d \in F_{d-1}$. Hence there exists a unique linear map $\rho : \wedge^d V_{n+1}^* \rightarrow F_d/F_{d-1}$ such that

$$\rho(f_1 \wedge f_2 \wedge \dots \wedge f_d) = f_1 f_2 \dots f_d + F_{d-1}.$$

Now ρ is surjective, and moreover the dimension $\binom{n+1}{d}$ of $\wedge^d V_{n+1}^*$ tallies with that of F_d/F_{d-1} , since there exist $\binom{n+1}{d}$ monomials $\{x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \dots x_{i_d}\}_{1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_d \leq n+1}$. Hence ρ is a linear isomorphism.

The second isomorphism, that of $\wedge^d V_{n+1}^*$ with $\text{Alt}(\times^d V_{n+1}, \mathbb{F}_2)$, is a standard one, each $t \in \wedge^d V_{n+1}^*$ giving rise to an element $T \in \text{Alt}(\times^d V_{n+1}, \mathbb{F}_2)$ by way of

$$T(v_1, \dots, v_d) = \langle t | v_1 \wedge v_2 \wedge \dots \wedge v_d \rangle.$$

Here $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle$ is given on decomposable d -vectors by

$$\langle f_1 \wedge f_2 \wedge \dots \wedge f_d | v_1 \wedge v_2 \wedge \dots \wedge v_d \rangle = \det[f_i(v_j)],$$

and is the standard determinantal pairing of $\wedge^d V_{n+1}^*$ with $\wedge^d V_{n+1}$, ■

Remark 1.7 From the foregoing, for any Q the explicit coordinate expression of the alternating form T_Q is easily given as a sum of $d \times d$ determinants. For example, in the cubic case $d = 3$, if $Q \in F_3$ has the coordinate form $Q(x) = \sum_{i < j < k} c_{ijk} x_i x_j x_k + Q'$, $Q' \in F_2$, then

$$T_Q(x, y, z) = \sum_{i < j < k} c_{ijk} \begin{vmatrix} x_i & y_i & z_i \\ x_j & y_j & z_j \\ x_k & y_k & z_k \end{vmatrix}. \quad (1.4)$$

1.2 The ψ -associate $X^\#$ of a flat $X \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$

Definition 1.8 If a subset $\psi \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$ has equation $Q(x) = 0$, where $\deg Q = d \geq 2$, then the ψ -associate $X^\#$ of an r -flat X of $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ is the following subset of $\text{PG}(n, 2)$:

$$X^\# = \{y \in \text{PG}(n, 2) \mid T_Q(x_1, \dots, x_{d-1}, y) = 0 \text{ for all } x_1, \dots, x_{d-1} \in X\}. \quad (1.5)$$

For an agreed ψ we simply refer to $X^\#$ as the associate of X .

Lemma 1.9 Let X be an r -flat in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$. Then

- (i) $X^\#$ is always a flat;
- (ii) if $r < d - 2$ then $X^\# = \text{PG}(n, 2)$;
- (iii) if $r = d - 2$ then $X \subseteq X^\#$;
- (iv) if W is a flat then $W \subset X \implies X^\# \subseteq W^\#$;
- (v) $\mathcal{G}_X \leq \mathcal{G}_{X^\#}$.

Proof. (i) $T(= T_Q)$ is multilinear in its d arguments.

(ii) If $r < d - 2$ then any $d - 1$ points x_1, \dots, x_{d-1} of X are dependent.

(iii) If $r = d - 2$ and $y \in X$ then x_1, \dots, x_{d-1}, y in (1.5) are dependent.

(iv) If $T(x_1, \dots, x_{d-1}, y) = 0$ holds for all $x_1, \dots, x_{d-1} \in X$ then it holds for all x_1, \dots, x_{d-1} in the subspace W of X .

(v) $X^\#$ is uniquely determined by X . ■

Remark 1.10 *In most cases of interest the polynomial Q , and the multilinear form T_Q , will be quite complicated. Consequently, leaving aside the possible use of the computer, the determination of $X^\#$ directly from definition 1.8 will usually be an extremely daunting task. Fortunately, as in the next lemma, the definition of $X^\#$ may be rephrased in terms of certain incidence properties. So, in most cases, it would appear sensible to attempt to determine $X^\#$ by appeal to Lemma 1.11 and its off-shoots.*

Lemma 1.11 *Let $X \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$ be an r -flat. Then*

- (i) *if $r \geq d - 2$ a point $y \in X^c$ is in the associate $X^\#$ of X if and only if for each $(d - 2)$ -flat W of X the join $\langle y, W \rangle$ is odd;*
- (ii) *if $r \geq d - 1$ a point $y \in X$ is in the associate $X^\#$ of X if and only if the following holds: if K is any $(d - 1)$ -flat of X which contains y then K is odd.*

Proof. Since $y \in X^\#$ if and only if $T_Q(x_1, \dots, x_{d-1}, y) = 0$ for all $x_1, \dots, x_{d-1} \in X$, the present lemma follows immediately from Lemma 1.5. ■

Corollary 1.12 (i) *If X is a $(d - 2)$ -flat then a point $y \in X^c$ is in the associate $X^\#$ of X if and only if $\langle y, X \rangle$ is odd.*

(ii) *If X is an even $(d - 1)$ -flat then $X^\#$ is disjoint from X .*

(iii) *If X is an odd $(d - 1)$ -flat then $X^\# \supseteq X$; moreover $X^\#$ is odd.*

Proof. Parts (i) and (ii) follow immediately from parts (i) and (ii) of the last lemma. Concerning part (iii), the relation $X^\# \supseteq X$ also follows from part (ii) of the last lemma; hence either $X^\# = X$, and so $X^\#$ is odd, or else $X^\#$ is a r -flat for some $r \geq d$, whence, by Theorem 1.4, $X^\#$ is odd. ■

1.2.1 The associate $X^\#$ of a $(d - 2)$ -flat W

If $W = \langle a_1, \dots, a_{d-1} \rangle$ is a $(d - 2)$ -flat of $\text{PG}(n, 2) = \mathbb{P}V_{n+1}$ then, with respect to the agreed ψ , its associated linear form $f_W \in (V_{n+1})^*$ is defined by

$$f_W(x) = T(a_1, \dots, a_{d-1}, x), \quad x \in V_{n+1}. \quad (1.6)$$

This is a good definition: T is alternating and multilinear, and so any choice of independent points $a_1, \dots, a_{d-1} \in W$ yield the same linear form. The ψ -associate of W is thus the flat

$$W^\# = H_W := \{x \in \text{PG}(n, 2) \mid f_W(x) = 0\}. \quad (1.7)$$

So $W^\#$ is a hyperplane whenever f_W is not the zero form, while $W^\# = \text{PG}(n, 2)$ if f_W is the zero form

1.2.2 Singular flats and singular points

A $(d - 2)$ -flat W in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ will be termed *singular* if f_W is the zero form, that is if $W^\# = \text{PG}(n, 2)$. For $r \geq d - 2$ an r -flat in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ will be termed *singular* if it contains one or more singular $(d - 2)$ -flats, and *non-singular* if it contains no singular $(d - 2)$ -flats.

Lemma 1.13 *A $(d - 2)$ -flat W in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ is singular if and only if every $(d - 1)$ -flat U which contains W is ψ -odd.*

Proof. By Corollary 1.12(i) $W^\# = \text{PG}(n, 2)$ holds if and only if every $(d-1)$ -flat U which contains W is ψ -odd. ■

For certain choices of ψ there may exist points u of $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ such that

$$T(a_1, \dots, a_{d-1}, u) = 0, \quad \text{for all } a_1, \dots, a_{d-1} \in \text{PG}(n, 2). \quad (1.8)$$

Such points will be termed *singular points*. Since T is multilinear the set of all singular points is a flat in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ which we will call the *radical* $\text{rad } \psi$ of ψ (and of T). The following lemma is immediate. (For (i)(c), recall Lemma (1.5)(ii).)

Lemma 1.14 (i) $u \in \text{rad } \psi$ if and only if any one of the following holds:

- (a) $u \in W^\#$ for each $(d-2)$ -flat W ;
 - (b) every $(d-2)$ -flat containing u is singular;
 - (c) every $(d-1)$ -flat containing u is odd.
- (ii) $\text{rad } \psi = \text{PG}(n, 2)^\#$.
 (iii) $\text{rad } \psi$ is stabilized by \mathcal{G}_ψ .
 (iv) $\text{rad } \psi \subseteq X^\#$ for all flats X of $\text{PG}(n, 2)$.

Presumably point-sets ψ having $\text{rad } \psi = \emptyset$ are the most promising ones to investigate. Note however that $\text{rad } \psi = \emptyset$ does not at all preclude the existence of singular $(d-2)$ -flats; for example see $\psi = \psi_4$ in Section 2.5, where $\text{rad } \psi_4 = \emptyset$ but where, see Theorem 2.9, all lines of a certain plane are singular.

1.2.3 The associate $X^\#$ of a $(d-1)$ -flat X

Observe that in the foregoing notation Lemma 1.11(i) asserts that a point $y \in X^c$ is in the associate $X^\#$ of the r -flat X , $r \geq d-2$, if and only if $f_W(y) = 0$ for each $(d-2)$ -flat W of X . The case $r = d-1$ is of particular interest, as in the next theorem.

Theorem 1.15 Given a $(d-1)$ -flat $X \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$ let $\mathcal{B} = \{a_1, \dots, a_d\}$ be any choice of points which generate X , and consider the d independent $(d-2)$ -flats $W_i = \langle \mathcal{B}_i \rangle \subset X$, where $\mathcal{B}_i := \mathcal{B} \setminus \{a_i\}$, $i = 1, \dots, d$. Then

$$X^\# = H_{W_1} \cap \dots \cap H_{W_d}. \quad (1.9)$$

Proof. Since T is alternating and multilinear, if y satisfies the d equations $T(a_2, a_3, \dots, a_d, y) = 0$, $T(a_1, a_3, \dots, a_d, y) = 0$, \dots , $T(a_1, \dots, a_{d-1}, y) = 0$, then y satisfies $T(x_1, \dots, x_{d-1}, y) = 0$ for all $x_1, \dots, x_{d-1} \in X$. ■

Corollary 1.16 If X is a ψ -even $(d-1)$ -flat then X is non-singular and $X^\#$ is a disjoint $(n-d)$ -flat.

Proof. By the theorem, $X^\#$ is the intersection of $\leq d$ independent hyperplanes; hence $X^\#$ is an s -flat for some $s \geq n-d$. But if X is even then, see Corollary 1.12(ii), $X \cap X^\# = \emptyset$, and so $s \leq n-d$. Hence $s = n-d$. Further X can not be singular, for if W_1 , say, were singular then $X^\#$ would be the intersection of at most $d-1$ independent hyperplanes, violating $X \cap X^\# = \emptyset$. ■

1.3 The associate $X^\#$ in the cubic case $d = 3$

From now onwards we deal with degree $d > 2$. Note therefore from Lemma 1.9(ii) that the associate $\langle a \rangle^\#$ of a point a is the whole of $\text{PG}(n, 2)$. In fact throughout Section 2 we will deal with $d = 3$. In this $d = 3$ case the associate of a flat X is accordingly

$$X^\# = \{y \in \text{PG}(n, 2) \mid T(a_1, a_2, y) = 0 \text{ for all } a_1, a_2 \in X\}, \quad (1.10)$$

and the associated linear form f_L of a line $L = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$ is

$$f_L(x) = T(a_1, a_2, x), \quad x \in V_{n+1}. \quad (1.11)$$

A line L in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ is singular if f_L is the zero form. A flat in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ is singular if it contains one or more singular lines, and non-singular if it contains no singular lines. For future convenience we spell out in the next theorem the $d = 3$ instances of results in Section 1.2.

Theorem 1.17 *For a cubic hypersurface ψ in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ the following hold.*

- (i) *Let $X \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$ be an r -flat. Then*
 - (a) *for $r \geq 1$ a point $y \in X^c$ is in the associate $X^\#$ of X if and only if for each line L of X the plane $\langle y, L \rangle$ is ψ -odd;*
 - (b) *for $r \geq 2$ a point $y \in X$ is in the associate $X^\#$ of X if and only if every plane P of X which contains y is ψ -odd.*
- (ii) *The associate of a plane $P = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ is*

$$P^\# = H_{L_{12}} \cap H_{L_{13}} \cap H_{L_{23}},$$

where $L_{ij} = \langle a_i, a_j \rangle$ and $H_L = \{x \in \text{PG}(n, 2) \mid f_L(x) = 0\}$. Further, $P^\#$ is an s -flat for some $s \geq n - 3$, and a point $y \in P^c$ lies in $P^\#$ if and only if each of the three planes $\langle y, L_{ij} \rangle$ is odd.

- (iii) *If P is a ψ -even plane then P is non-singular and $P^\#$ is a disjoint $(n - 3)$ -flat.*
- (iv) *If P is a ψ -odd plane then $P^\# \supseteq P$; moreover $P^\#$ is ψ -odd.*
- (v) *A line L in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ is singular if and only if every plane P which contains L is ψ -odd.*

In fact part (iv) of the theorem can be strengthened as follows.

Theorem 1.18 *For a cubic $\psi \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$ suppose that P is a ψ -odd plane. Then $P^\# \supseteq P$ and $P^\#$ is ψ -odd; further*

- (i) *if P is non-singular then $P^\#$ is a $(n - 3)$ -flat;*
- (ii) *if P contains just one singular line then $P^\#$ is a $(n - 2)$ -flat;*
- (iii) *if P contains just one pencil of singular lines then $P^\#$ is a hyperplane;*
- (iv) *if every line $L \subset P$ is singular then $P^\# = \text{PG}(n, 2)$.*

Proof. From Theorem 1.17(ii), $x \in P^\#$ if and only if $f_L(x) = 0$ holds for three independent choices of the line $L \subset P$.

- (i) If no line of P is singular we show now that the three linear forms f_L are linearly independent, and hence that $P^\#$ is a $(n - 3)$ -flat. For since the lines L are non-singular the forms f_L are not the zero form. Further, a linear relation such as $f_{\langle a_1, a_2 \rangle} = f_{\langle a_1, a_3 \rangle}$ between two of the f_L is ruled out, for it would

entail that $f_{\langle a_1, a_2 + a_3 \rangle}$ is the zero form, that is that P possesses a singular line $\langle a_1, a_2 + a_3 \rangle$. Finally the linear relation $f_{\langle a_1, a_2 \rangle} + f_{\langle a_1, a_3 \rangle} = f_{\langle a_2, a_3 \rangle}$ between all three f_L is ruled out for it entails that $f_{\langle a_1 + a_2, a_2 + a_3 \rangle}$ is the zero form, that is that P possesses a singular line $\langle a_1 + a_2, a_2 + a_3 \rangle$.

(ii) If P contains just one singular line then there exists just one linear relation between the three linear forms, whence $P^\#$ is a $(n - 2)$ -flat .

(iii), (iv) These cover similarly the remaining possibilities, namely that (iii) there are two independent linear relations between the three linear forms, and (iv) all the f_L are zero. ■

1.4 General plan of campaign

Further to the properties of the associate $X^\#$ outlined in Section 1.2 one can hardly expect to find many further which hold for a general choice of point-set ψ . For recall that even in the familiar case when Q has degree $d = 2$ results such as $\dim U + \dim U^\perp = n + 1$, where U is a vector subspace of an $(n + 1)$ -dimensional vector space $V(n + 1, \mathbb{F})$, are valid only if the associated bilinear form is non-degenerate. In particular $\dim U + \dim U^\perp = n + 1$ never holds if $\mathbb{F} = \text{GF}(2)$ and n is even. So in further investigations it seems sensible to investigate properties of the associate $X^\#$ for some particular choices of point-set ψ .

Ideally a plan of campaign should involve (at least) the following.

1. Choose a point-set $\psi \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$ — hopefully one which has some interesting geometry — and determine the (reduced) degree $d = \deg Q$.
2. Determine the stabilizer $\mathcal{G}_\psi < \text{GL}(n + 1, 2)$.
3. For each $r > 0$ determine the \mathcal{G}_ψ -orbits of r -flats of $\text{PG}(n, 2)$.
4. For a representative X of each \mathcal{G}_ψ -orbit of r -flats determine its ψ -associate $X^\#$, listing the orbit to which $X^\#$ belongs.

The hope is that, for some sets $\psi \subset \text{PG}(n, 2)$, an investigation of the ψ -associates $X^\#$ of r -flats may illuminate in an interesting way some of the known geometry of ψ , or conceivably even bring to light some new geometrical aspects.

Certainly in simple cases one expects to see clearly how $X^\#$ is related geometrically to ψ and X , To take a couple of baby examples, consider first the case when ψ is a 3-arc $\{a, b, c\}$ in $\text{PG}(3, 2)$ and P is one of the two planes in $\text{PG}(3, 2)$ which are external to ψ . Here $d = 3$. (Indeed any odd subset of points in $\text{PG}(3, 2)$ has $d \leq 3$.) It follows from Theorem 1.17(iii) that $P^\#$ is a point $\langle p \rangle$ disjoint from P . Noting that the planes $\langle a + b + c, L \rangle$ are ψ -odd for each line $L \subset P$, it follows from Theorem 1.17(i)(a) that $P^\# = \langle a + b + c \rangle$. Similarly if $\psi = \text{PG}(3, 2) \setminus (P \cup \{p\})$, where p is a point disjoint from the plane P , then one finds that $P^\# = \langle p \rangle$, since, for each line $L \subset P$, the plane $\langle p, L \rangle$ meets ψ in 3 points.

However it has to be admitted that for many choices of ψ one encounters formidable difficulties in attempting to carry out in full the above plan, even in cases where d and n are of moderate size. In such cases perhaps one should concentrate one's energies upon finding the associate of the ψ -even $(d - 1)$ -flats X , fortified by the knowledge, see Corollary 1.16, that $X^\#$ is necessarily a disjoint $(n - d)$ -flat. The even $(d - 1)$ -flats X are particularly enticing in cases

where ψ is a subset of $\text{PG}(2d-1, 2)$ — for $X^\#$ is then also a $(d-1)$ -flat. If $X^\#$ also turns out to be even, then one knows that $X^{\#\#}$ ($= (X^\#)^\#$) is a further $(d-1)$ -flat, which is moreover disjoint from $X^\#$ (but not necessarily from X).

Definition 1.19 *In cases where ψ , of degree d , is a subset of $\text{PG}(2d-1, 2)$, a ψ -even $(d-1)$ -flat X is termed faithfully ψ -even if each of $X_1 = X^\#$, $X_2 = X^{\#\#}$, ..., $X_{r+1} = (X_r)^\#$... is also ψ -even.*

Lemma 1.20 *If $\psi \subset \text{PG}(2d-1, 2)$ is of degree d , then a necessary condition for the existence of faithfully ψ -even $(d-1)$ -flats is that $\text{rad } \psi = \emptyset$.*

Proof. Let X be any ψ -even $(d-1)$ -flat and suppose that a ψ -singular point u exists. Then, by parts (iv) and (i)(c) of Lemma 1.14, $u \in X^\#$ and so the $(d-1)$ -flat $X^\#$ is odd. ■

Clearly faithfully-even $(d-1)$ -flats in $\text{PG}(2d-1, 2)$ are worthy of special attention. For any faithfully-even $(d-1)$ -flat X we can define an ordered pair (r, s) of integers r, s , with $0 \leq r < s$, such that the members of the finite “ $\#$ -sequence” $X_0 (= X), X_1, \dots, X_s$, where $X_{r+1} = (X_r)^\#$, are distinct and such that $(X_s)^\# = X_r$. Thus for a $\#$ -sequence of type $(1, 2)$ the $(d-1)$ -flats $X, X^\#, X^{\#\#}$ are distinct and $X^{\#\#\#}$ coincides with $X^\#$.

1.4.1 Illustration: the Grassmannian $G_{1,4,2}$ in $\text{PG}(9, 2)$

As an illustration of the foregoing, consider the $(d, n) = (5, 9)$ case where ψ is the Grassmannian variety $\psi = G_{1,4,2}$ in $\text{PG}(9, 2)$, arising from the 155 lines of $\text{PG}(4, 2)$. That $d = 5$ in this case was proved in [6]. (Recently it has been proved that the Grassmannian variety $\psi = G_{1,m,2}$ in $\text{PG}(\binom{m+1}{2} - 1, 2)$ has $d = \binom{m}{2} - 1$: see [2], [15].) An investigation of the ψ -associate in the case of $G_{1,4,2}$ was embarked upon in [13]. However, despite the large stabilizer $\mathcal{G}_\psi \cong \text{GL}(5, 2)$, step 3 of the above plan seems very hard to achieve. Even if one restricts attention to external flats the determination of all their \mathcal{G}_ψ -orbits is a far from trivial task, as witness the work [7] in which all ten orbits of external flats were determined. So in [13] the associate $X^\#$ was only determined for certain selected flats X , including (a) external 4-flats, and (b) certain flats obtained from partial spreads of lines in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$.

Concerning (a), there are just two \mathcal{G}_ψ -orbits of external 4-flats $X \subset \text{PG}(9, 2)$ and in [13, Theorem 3.4] it was shown that the associate $X^\#$ of an external 4-flat is also an external 4-flat, with X and $X^\#$ belonging to different $\text{GL}(5, 2)$ -orbits. Moreover $(X^\#)^\# = X$. Thus, in the case $\psi = G_{1,4,2}$, external 4-flats are faithfully-even and of type $(0, 1)$.

Concerning (b), several other even 4-flats were investigated in [13]. The examples considered all turned out to be faithfully-even, and to have sequences either of type $(0, 2)$ or type $(1, 2)$.

2 Cubic hypersurfaces in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ arising from partial spreads of planes

Bearing in mind the difficulties mentioned in Section 1.4 “even in cases where d and n are of moderate size”, let us in this section confine attention to certain $d = 3, n = 5$ cases, where ψ is a cubic hypersurface in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$. Moreover, in

order to ensure that the geometry is simple, we will deal solely with certain hypersurfaces ψ which arise from partial spreads of planes in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$. Consequently, in Sections 2.4 - 2.6, *we will have frequent need to appeal to certain basic results concerning such partial spreads which can be found in [10], [11] and [12]*. Often we will pay special attention to the associate of even planes P , knowing, from Theorem 1.17(iii), that $P^\#$ is then necessarily a disjoint plane. Despite this lack of ambition we claim that nevertheless we gain some useful insights into the variety of behaviours to be expected of the ψ -associate in general, and, for some choices of ψ , throw light upon some little-known geometrical aspects.

2.1 Introduction

If we view V_6 as $V_3 \oplus V_3$ then a general point $z \in V_6$ is

$$z = (x, y) \in V_6 = V_3 \oplus V_3, \quad x, y \in V_3. \quad (2.1)$$

Let A be an element of $\text{GL}(V_3)$ of order 7 and satisfying $A^3 = I + A$. Since A is fixed-point-free on $\mathbf{PV}_3 = \text{PG}(2, 2)$ it gives rise, *cf.* [11, Section 4.1], to the following plane-spread Σ_9 for $\mathbf{PV}_6 = \text{PG}(5, 2)$:

$$\Sigma_9 = \{X, Y, P_0, P_1, \dots, P_6\} \quad (2.2)$$

upon defining the nine planes $X, Y, P_0, P_1, \dots, P_6$ of $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ by:

$$\begin{aligned} X &= \{(x, 0), x \in \mathbb{PV}_3\}, \quad Y = \{(0, y), y \in \mathbb{PV}_3\}, \\ P_r &= \{(x, A^r x), x \in \mathbb{PV}_3\}, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 6. \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

Upon choosing a point $a_1 \in \mathbb{PV}_3$ and setting $a_{r+1} = A^r a_1$, $r = 0, 1, \dots, 6$, the 49 points underlying the seven planes P_0, P_1, \dots, P_6 are the points (a_i, a_j) , $1 \leq i, j \leq 7$. In detail

$$P_r = \{(a_i, a_{i+r}), i = 1, 2, \dots, 7\}, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \quad (2.4)$$

$$X = \{(a_i, 0), i = 1, 2, \dots, 7\}, \quad Y = \{(0, a_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, 7\}, \quad (2.5)$$

where in (2.4) the value of the index $i + r$ is taken mod 7.

For future reference let us note here a particular subgroup of the symmetry group $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma_9)$ of the spread Σ_9 . Recall that the normalizer in $\text{GL}(V_3)$ of the Z_7 subgroup $\langle A \rangle$ is a subgroup $\mathcal{F}_{21} \cong Z_7 \rtimes Z_3$ of order 21 which is generated by A and C where $C \in \text{GL}(V_3)$, of order 3, satisfies $CAC^{-1} = A^2$. Setting $\Phi_A = A \oplus A$ and $\Phi_C = C \oplus C$ observe that the group $\mathcal{F} = \langle \Phi_A, \Phi_C \rangle$ is a subgroup $\cong Z_7 \rtimes Z_3$ of $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma_9)$: for Φ_A stabilizes each plane of Σ_9 , while Φ_C stabilizes each of X, Y, P_0 and effects the permutations $(P_1 P_2 P_4)$, $(P_6 P_5 P_3)$ of the other six planes of Σ_9 .

It is known, see [12, Theorem 4.1], that in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ all complete plane-spreads are projectively equivalent to the spread Σ_9 ; also if Σ_r , $r < 9$, is any r -subset of Σ_9 then all non-maximal partial plane-spreads of size r are projectively equivalent to Σ_r . Further, up to projective equivalence, there is just one kind of maximal partial spread: it is of size 5 and is represented by

$$\Psi_5 = \{X, Y, P_0, P_1, S\}, \quad (2.6)$$

where S is one of the seven planes external to $X \cup Y \cup P_0 \cup P_1$ other than the five planes P_2, \dots, P_6 . (The plane S is in fact of the form $S = \{(x, Bx), x \in \mathbb{PV}_3\}$

where B is an element of $\text{GL}(V_3)$ of order 7 such that $A^{-1}B$ is of order 7 and $AB \neq BA$.)

We intend to consider the following cubic hypersurfaces (i)-(v):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad \psi_1 &= X & \text{(ii)} \quad \psi_2 &= (X \cup Y)^c & \text{(iii)} \quad \psi_3 &= X \cup Y \cup P_0 \\ \text{(iv)} \quad \psi_4 &= Y \cup P_1 \cup P_2 \cup P_4 \cup P_0 = (X \cup P_6 \cup P_5 \cup P_3)^c & & & & (2.7) \\ \text{(v)} \quad \psi_5 &= X \cup Y \cup P_0 \cup P_1 \cup S. \end{aligned}$$

That each of these sets ψ_i indeed has polynomial degree $d = 3$ follows quickly from Theorem 1.4. For each ψ_i is the union of an odd number of pairwise disjoint planes, whence $|D \cap \psi|$ is odd for any solid D , since a solid in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ meets every plane in an odd number of points. On the other hand there exist in each case ψ_i -even planes: in the first four cases there exist, see (2.2), external planes, and in the fifth case it is not difficult to find planes which meet ψ_5 in 2 and in 4 points. (See [10, Section 5.2].)

Remark 2.1 *The 35-set ψ_5 is called a double-five since, see [10], [11], [12], it admits two different decompositions into five disjoint planes.*

Remark 2.2 *Recall after (1.3): since $\dim F_2 = 21$, there are 2^{21} different cubics Q in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ which share the same trilinear alternating form $T = T_Q$.*

Notation 2.3 *We will denote by $\Omega_N^{(r)}(n_1 n_2 \dots)$ a \mathcal{G}_ψ -orbit of r -flats of length $|\Omega_N^{(r)}(n_1 n_2 \dots)| = N$ whose ‘intersection pattern’ is $n_1 n_2 \dots := \{n_1, n_2, \dots\}$. Thus in the case of $\psi_2 = (X \cup Y)^c$ the \mathcal{G}_{ψ_2} -orbit $\Omega_{98}^{(2)}(30)$ consists of those $(49 \times 2 =) 98$ planes in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ which meet one of the planes X, Y in 3 points (a line) and the other in 0 points. Similarly if $\psi_3 = X \cup Y \cup P_0$ the \mathcal{G}_{ψ_3} -orbit $\Omega_7^{(3)}(333)$ consists of those 7 solids which meet each of the planes X, Y, P_0 in a line.*

We view the present paper only as of the nature of a reconnaissance expedition, and so in most cases we will look in detail at just a few selected \mathcal{G}_ψ -orbits. Nevertheless our partial survey does bring out a surprising variety of behaviours of the ψ -associate!

2.2 The case $\psi_1 = X$

Here the orbits of the 651 lines, 651 solids and 1395 planes are seen to be:

$$\begin{aligned} &\Omega_7^{(1)}(3), \Omega_{196}^{(1)}(1), \Omega_{448}^{(1)}(0); \quad \Omega_7^{(3)}(7), \Omega_{196}^{(3)}(3), \Omega_{448}^{(3)}(1); \\ &\Omega_1^{(2)}(7), \Omega_{98}^{(2)}(3), \Omega_{784}^{(2)}(1), \Omega_{512}^{(2)}(0). \end{aligned} \quad (2.8)$$

In addition we have of course two orbits $\Omega_7^{(0)}(1), \Omega_{56}^{(0)}(0)$ of points and two orbits $\Omega_7^{(4)}(7), \Omega_{56}^{(4)}(3)$ of hyperplanes. In this exceptionally simple case it is easy to describe the full story for the ψ_1 -associates. From Theorem 1.17(v) we see that a line L is singular, or non-singular, according as L meets X , or is external to X . So every point of X is a singular point, and indeed $\text{rad } \psi_1 = X$. So $X \subseteq W^\#$ for any flat W of $\text{PG}(n, 2)$.

From Theorem 1.17(i) the associates of planes are seen to behave as follows:

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} P \in & \Omega_1^{(2)}(7) & \Omega_{98}^{(2)}(3) & \Omega_{784}^{(2)}(1) & \Omega_{512}^{(2)}(0) \\ \hline P^\# = & \text{PG}(5, 2) & \text{PG}(5, 2) & \langle P, X \rangle & X \end{array} \quad (2.9)$$

Also the associates of solids and of hyperplanes are

$$\frac{D \in \left| \begin{array}{ccc} \Omega_7^{(3)}(7) & \Omega_{196}^{(3)}(3) & \Omega_{448}^{(3)}(1) \\ \text{PG}(5, 2) & \langle D, X \rangle & X \end{array} \right|}{D^\# = \left| \begin{array}{ccc} \Omega_7^{(4)} & \Omega_{56}^{(4)} & \\ H & X & \end{array} \right|} \quad (2.10)$$

Alternatively we may make use of the explicit coordinate form of T which for ψ_1 is particularly simple. For if $X = \langle e_4, e_5, e_6 \rangle$, and so $Q(x) = x_1 x_2 x_3 +$ (terms of degree ≤ 2), then, see (1.4), $T(a, b, x)$ is just a single 3×3 determinant:

$$T(a, b, x) = (a_2 b_3 + a_3 b_2) x_1 + (a_1 b_3 + a_3 b_1) x_2 + (a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1) x_3. \quad (2.11)$$

Then the results (2.9) quickly follow from Theorem 1.17(ii).

Of course in such a simple setting one hardly expects much of interest, but the present case may give some indication of what can be expected when $\text{rad } \psi$ is non-trivial.

2.3 The case $\psi_2 = (X \cup Y)^c$

Observe that the ψ_2 -odd planes are those which are either disjoint from both X and Y or meet both X and Y . It follows from Theorem 1.17(v) that the singular lines are those which meet both X and Y , and thus constitute a single \mathcal{G}_{ψ_2} -orbit $\Omega_{49}^{(1)}(11)$. It then follows that there are no singular points: $\text{rad } \psi_2 = \emptyset$.

Let us concentrate upon the ψ_2 -even planes, namely those which meet one, but not both, of X and Y . There are thus three orbits of even planes, namely $\Omega_2^{(2)}(70) = \{X, Y\}$, $\Omega_{98}^{(2)}(30)$ and $\Omega_{588}^{(2)}(10)$. Since for $y \in Y$ and L a line of X the plane $\langle y, L \rangle$ is odd it follows from Theorem 1.17(i),(iii) that $X^\# = Y$; similarly $Y^\# = X$. Thus planes $P \in \Omega_2^{(2)}(70)$ satisfy $P^{\#\#} = P$. For a plane $P \in \Omega_{98}^{(2)}(30)$ one finds that $P^\# \in \Omega_2^{(2)}(70)$; thus $P^{\#\#\#} = P^\#$. For a plane $P \in \Omega_{588}^{(2)}(10)$ one finds that $P^\# \in \Omega_{98}^{(2)}(30)$; thus $P^{\#\#\#\#} = P^{\#\#}$. Observe therefore that, in the case of ψ_2 , all even planes are faithfully-even, and give rise to $\#$ -sequences of types $(0, 1)$, $(1, 2)$ and $(2, 3)$.

2.4 The case $\psi_3 = X \cup Y \cup P_0 = \mathcal{S}_{1,2,2}$

It is worth noting that ψ_3 may be viewed as the Segre variety

$$\mathcal{S}_{1,2,2} = \{v \otimes w : v \in \mathbb{P}V_2, w \in \mathbb{P}V_3\}, \quad (2.12)$$

which lies in $\text{PG}(5, 2) = \mathbb{P}V_6$, and which consists of the 21 decomposable elements of a tensor product space $V_6 = V_2 \otimes V_3$. For note that $\mathcal{S}_{1,2,2}$ contains three internal planes, namely $\mathbb{P}(v \otimes V_3)$, $v \in \mathbb{P}V_2$, which may be identified with the three internal planes X, Y, P_0 of ψ_3 . The seven internal lines $\mathbb{P}(V_2 \otimes w)$, $w \in \mathbb{P}V_3$, of $\mathcal{S}_{1,2,2}$ are transversals of the planes X, Y, P_0 . The stabilizer \mathcal{G} of $\psi_3 = \mathcal{S}_{1,2,2}$ consists of elements of $\text{GL}(V_2 \otimes V_3)$ of the form $C \otimes D$, $C \in \text{GL}(V_2)$, $D \in \text{GL}(V_3)$ and so \mathcal{G} is isomorphic to $\text{GL}(2, 2) \times \text{GL}(3, 2)$, of order $6 \times 168 = 1008$.

Worthy of note are two particular elements $J, K \in \text{GL}(V_3 \oplus V_3)$ defined by $J(x, y) = (y, x)$, $K(x, y) = (y, x + y)$, $x, y \in V_3$, and satisfying $J^2 = I$ and $K^3 = I$. Observe that J and K effect the following permutations

$$J : (XY)(P_0)(P_1 P_6)(P_2 P_5)(P_4 P_3), \quad K : (XY P_0)(P_1 P_2 P_4)(P_3 P_5 P_6). \quad (2.13)$$

of the members of Σ_9 . For example, K maps the element $(x, Ax) \in P_1$ to $(Ax, (I + A)x) = (Ax, A^3x) \in P_2$. So both J and K are elements of \mathcal{G}_{ψ_3} , and also of $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma_9)$.

There are two \mathcal{G}_{ψ_3} -orbits of internal lines, namely the 7 transversals $\Omega_7^{(1)}(111)$ of the three planes X, Y, P_0 , and the $(3 \times 7 =)21$ lines $\Omega_{21}^{(1)}(300)$ which lie inside one of the planes X, Y, P_0 . Through a line $L \in \Omega_{21}^{(1)}(300)$ pass three lines $\in \Omega_7^{(1)}(111)$, and these three generate a solid of an orbit $\Omega_7^{(3)}(333)$. A solid $D \in \Omega_7^{(3)}(333)$ is of the form $D = \mathcal{H} \cup L' \cup L''$, where the 9-set $\mathcal{H} := D \cap \psi_3$ is a hyperbolic quadric in the 3-flat D and where L', L'' are the two lines of D which are external to \mathcal{H} . Such external lines L', L'' form a \mathcal{G}_{ψ_3} -orbit $\Omega_{14}^{(1)}(000)$. (There exist in fact a further 168 external lines and these form an orbit $\Omega_{168}^{(1)}(000)$.)

Of course it is fairly easy to determine all the \mathcal{G}_{ψ_3} -orbits of flats, and then presumably to obtain the full story for their ψ_3 -associates. However we content ourselves with reporting here just a couple of particularly interesting aspects, one concerning the singular lines and the other the external planes.

With the aid of Theorem 1.17(v) one can derive the next theorem, from which it follows that *there are no singular points*: $\text{rad } \psi_3 = \emptyset$. Another consequence is that a plane of $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ can contain at most one singular line.

Theorem 2.4 *There are precisely 21 ψ_3 -singular lines in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$, namely the lines $L \in \Omega_7^{(1)}(111) \cup \Omega_{14}^{(1)}(000)$. Moreover these constitute a line-spread for $\text{PG}(5, 2)$.*

Concerning planes P which are external to $\psi_3 = X \cup Y \cup P_0$, without loss of generality, see [11, Section 4.1], [12, Section 4], we may assume that P is one of the planes $P_r = \{(x, A^r x), x \in \mathbb{P}V_3\}$, $r = 1, 2, \dots, 6$, in Eq. (2.3), for some element $A \in \text{GL}(3, 2)$ satisfying $A^3 = I + A$. Since there exist precisely eight Z_7 -subgroups of $\text{GL}(3, 2)$ there are $8 \times 6 = 48$ planes external to ψ_3 , forming a \mathcal{G}_{ψ_3} -orbit $\Omega_{48}^{(2)}(000)$.

Theorem 2.5 *If ψ_3 and P_r are as in (2.7) and (2.3) then the associates of the external planes P_r are as follows:*

$$(P_1)^\# = P_2, \quad (P_2)^\# = P_4, \quad (P_4)^\# = P_1, \quad (2.14)$$

$$(P_6)^\# = P_5, \quad (P_5)^\# = P_3, \quad (P_3)^\# = P_6. \quad (2.15)$$

So for any external plane P we have $P^{\#\#\#} = P$.

Proof. Knowing from Theorem 1.17(iii) that $(P_1)^\#$ is a plane, to show that $(P_1)^\# = P_2$ we need to show, see Theorem 1.17(i), that the plane $\langle z, L \rangle$ is ψ -odd for each point $z \in P_2$ and each line $L \subset P_1$. Because the planes of the spread 2.2 are invariant under the Z_7 subgroup of \mathcal{G}_{ψ_3} generated by $\Phi_A = A \oplus A$, it suffices to consider just one choice of line $L \subset P_1$, say $L_1 := \{(a_1, a_2), (a_2, a_3), (a_4, a_5)\}$ (in the notation of Equation (2.4)). Then one sees that:

(a) if $z = (a_1, a_3) \in P_2$ then the plane $\langle z, L_1 \rangle$ meets $\mathcal{S}_{1,2}$ in the three points $(0, a_5) \in Y$, $(a_4, 0) \in X$ and $(a_2, a_2) \in P_0$;

(b) for the other six points $z \in P_2$ the plane $\langle z, L_1 \rangle$ meets just one of the planes X, Y, P_0 .

So indeed $\langle z, L \rangle$ is ψ -odd for each point $z \in P_2$ and each line $L \subset P_1$, whence

$P_2 = (P_1)^\#$. On applying to this last relation the element $K \in \mathcal{G}_{\psi_3}$ of (2.13) we obtain the other two relations in (2.14). Further the relations (2.15) follow from the relations (2.14) upon applying the involution $J \in \mathcal{G}_{\psi_3}$, see (2.13). ■

Corollary 2.6 *The 48 planes external to the Segre variety $\mathcal{S}_{1,2,2} \subset \text{PG}(5, 2)$ fall into eight pairs of ordered triplets $\{(P_1, R_1, S_1), (P_2, R_2, S_2)\}$ such that $\psi^c = P_1 \cup R_1 \cup S_1 \cup P_2 \cup R_2 \cup S_2$ and*

$$P_i^\# = R_i, \quad R_i^\# = S_i, \quad S_i^\# = P_i, \quad i = 1, 2. \quad (2.16)$$

Remark 2.7 *One may be tempted to believe that the existence of ordered triplets (P, R, S) of distinct planes in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ satisfying $P^\# = R$, $R^\# = S$, $S^\# = P$ must somehow originate from $d = 3$. In fact such a belief does not hold up, for, as mentioned in Section 1.4.1, in the $d = 5$ case $\psi = G_{1,4,2}$ there exist triples (P, R, S) of distinct 4-flats in $\text{PG}(9, 2)$ such that $P^\# = R$, $R^\# = S$, $S^\# = P$.*

2.5 The case $\psi_4 = Y \cup P_1 \cup P_2 \cup P_4 \cup P_0 = (X \cup P_6 \cup P_5 \cup P_3)^c$

We now consider the 35-set ψ_4 underlying the non-maximal partial spread $\Sigma_5 = \{Y, P_1, P_2, P_4, P_0\}$. By appeal to the results in [11, Section 4] we see that the following lemma holds.

Lemma 2.8 *There exists a subgroup $\mathcal{A} \cong \text{Alt}(4)$ of \mathcal{G}_{ψ_4} which fixes the plane P_0 and effects all even permutations of the four planes $\{Y, P_1, P_2, P_4\}$. Let \mathcal{N} denote the normal subgroup $\cong (Z_2)^2$ of \mathcal{A} . Then the subgroup $\mathcal{B} := \langle \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}, \mathcal{N} \rangle$ of \mathcal{G}_{ψ_4} , of order 28, has the structure $Z_7 \times (Z_2)^2$. It acts transitively upon the $7 \times 4 = 28$ internal lines, and also upon the 28 internal points, of the four planes Y, P_1, P_2, P_4 .*

Theorem 2.9 *If ψ_4 is the 35-set underlying the non-maximal partial spread $\Sigma_5 = \{Y, P_1, P_2, P_4, P_0\}$ then*

- (i) *every line L of the plane P_0 is ψ_4 -singular;*
- (ii) *the lines of the other four planes of Σ_5 are all non-singular.*

Proof. (i) Let D be the solid $\langle (0, a_1), (0, a_2), (a_1, a_2), (a_2, a_3) \rangle$ and observe that D is disjoint from the line $L = \langle (a_2, a_2), (a_3, a_3) \rangle \subset P_0$. Hence the fifteen planes P which contain L are the fifteen planes $\langle p, L \rangle, p \in D$. By a straightforward check we find that all fifteen planes are ψ_4 -odd, with twelve meeting ψ_4 in 5 points, one in 3 points and two (P_0 and one other) being internal to ψ_4 . So, by theorem 1.17(v), L is singular. The same is true for all 7 lines of P_0 , since they form a single orbit under the action of the subgroup $\langle \Phi_{\mathcal{A}} \rangle \cong Z_7$ of \mathcal{G}_{ψ_4} .

(ii) By lemma 2.8 the 28 internal lines of the four planes Y, P_1, P_2, P_4 lie on the same \mathcal{G}_{ψ_4} -orbit, so it suffices to check that just one of them is non-singular. Consider the line $L = \langle (0, a_1), (0, a_2) \rangle \subset Y$ and observe that the plane $\langle (a_3, a_0), L \rangle$ is even, meeting ψ_4 in the four points $\{(a_3, a_4)\} \cup L$. ■

The author was on the verge of being surprised by the fact that for any non-maximal partial plane-spread Σ_5 in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ one plane of Σ_5 is thus singled out as being that unique plane of Σ_5 which is singular. But then he recalled that eleven years ago he had, in talks delivered at the Pythagorean and Italian Combinatorics conferences in 1996 (see [11, Theorem 4.3] and [12, Theorem 4.2]), uncovered the existence of a *privileged plane*, as described in part (i) of the next theorem. It was then hardly a surprise to find that this privileged plane of Σ_5 coincided with the singular plane of Σ_5 .

Theorem 2.10 (i) Any non-maximal partial spread Σ_5 of 5 planes in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ possesses a privileged member, say $W_* \in \Sigma_5$, such that each of the 7 further internal planes S_i of ψ_4 (see after (2.6)) meets W_* in a line and meets each of the four other planes $W \in \Sigma_5$ in a point. The 7 lines $S_i \cap W_*$ are distinct, as are the 28 points $S_i \cap W$, $i = 0, 1, \dots, 6$, $W \in \Sigma_5 \setminus \{W_*\}$.

(ii) If ψ is the underlying 35-set of Σ_5 then the privileged plane of Σ_5 is that plane of Σ_5 which is ψ -singular.

Proof. (i) See [12, Theorem 4.2].

(ii) If ψ_4 and Σ_5 is as in theorem 2.9 then P_0 must be the privileged plane of Σ_5 since it is the only plane of Σ_5 fixed by the subgroup \mathcal{A} of \mathcal{G}_{ψ_4} . (Aliter: see [12, after eq. (4.23)].) ■

Remark 2.11 Consider the following $4 + 1 + 4$ partition of the spread Σ_9 :

$$\Sigma_9 = \Sigma_4 \cup \{P_0\} \cup \Sigma'_4, \text{ where } \Sigma_4 = \{Y, P_1, P_2, P_4\}, \Sigma'_4 = \{X, P_6, P_5, P_3\}. \quad (2.17)$$

It is known, see [11, Section 4], that P_0 is the privileged plane of both $\Sigma_5 = \Sigma_4 \cup \{P_0\}$ and $\Sigma'_5 = \Sigma'_4 \cup \{P_0\}$, and that the symmetry groups $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma_4), \mathcal{G}(\Sigma_5), \mathcal{G}(\Sigma'_4)$ and $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma'_5)$ are all equal to \mathcal{G}_{ψ_4} . Further the full stabilizer of ψ_4 is

$$\mathcal{G}_{\psi_4} = \langle \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}, \mathcal{A} \rangle \cong (Z_7 \times (Z_2)^2) \rtimes Z_3; \quad (2.18)$$

moreover the subgroup $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma_4, \Sigma'_4)$ of $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma_9)$ consisting of all those elements which preserve the $4 + 1 + 4$ partition (2.17) is the following direct product:

$$\mathcal{G}(\Sigma_4, \Sigma'_4) = \mathcal{G}_{\psi_4} \times \langle J \rangle. \quad (2.19)$$

Here the involution J , see (2.13), effects the interchanges $\Sigma_4 \rightleftharpoons \Sigma'_4$ and $\Sigma_5 \rightleftharpoons \Sigma'_5$ via its effect $(XY)(P_0)(P_1P_6)(P_2P_5)(P_4P_3)$, on the planes of Σ_9 .

Theorem 2.12 As previously let ψ_4 be the 35-set underlying the non-maximal partial spread $\Sigma_5 = \{Y, P_1, P_2, P_4, P_0\}$ whose (unique) extension to a complete spread Σ_9 is as in (2.17). Then

- (i) $(P_0)^\# = \text{PG}(5, 2)$;
- (ii) if $P \in \Sigma_4 := \Sigma_5 \setminus \{P_0\}$ then P is self-associate: $P^\# = P$;
- (iii) if $P \in \Sigma'_4 := \Sigma_9 \setminus \Sigma_5$ then $P^\# = J(P)$, where J is as in (2.19).

Proof. (i) This follows immediately from theorems 2.9(i) and 1.18(iv).

(ii) This follows immediately from theorems 2.9(ii) and 1.18(i).

(iii) First let us check that $X^\# = Y$. Since X is an even plane, we know from theorem 1.17(iii) that $X^\#$ is a plane disjoint from X . Now X is stabilized by the element $\Phi_C \in \mathcal{G}_{\psi_4}$; moreover the only other two planes in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ which are stabilized by Φ_C are P_0 and Y . Hence either $X^\# = Y$ or $X^\# = P_0$. The last possibility is easily ruled out: for example the plane $R = \langle p, L \rangle$ joining the point $p = (a_7, a_7)$ of P_0 to the line $L = \langle (a_1, a_0), (a_2, a_0) \rangle$ of X is even, meeting ψ_4 in the 4-set $\{(a_7, a_7), (a_3, a_7), (a_5, a_7), (a_6, a_7)\}$. Consequently $P^\# = J(P)$ holds in the case of $X \in \Sigma_4$. Since J centralizes the subgroup \mathcal{N} of \mathcal{G}_{ψ_4} , and since \mathcal{N} is transitive on the four planes Σ_4 , result (iii) follows. ■

Note that in the present $\psi = \psi_4$ case the even planes $P \in \Sigma'_4$ are thus very far from being faithfully even, since their first associate $P^\#$ is odd.

The next theorem relates the privileged plane of a non-maximal partial spread Σ_5 to the ψ_3 -associate of section 2.4.

Theorem 2.13 *Suppose that Σ_4 is any partial spread of four planes in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$. Let $\Sigma_9 = \Sigma_4 \cup \Sigma_5$ be its unique extension to a complete spread. Choosing $P \in \Sigma_4$, let ψ_3 denote the underlying 21-set of the three planes $\Sigma_4 \setminus \{P\}$ and use ψ_3 to define the associate $X^\#$ of a flat X of $\text{PG}(5, 2)$. Then the privileged plane of Σ_5 is $P^{\#\#}$.*

Proof. If $\Sigma_4 = \{X, Y, P_0, P_1\}$ then, see [12, Theorem 4.3, Proof], the privileged plane of Σ_5 is P_4 . But, see theorem 2.5, for $\psi_3 = X \cup Y \cup P_0$ we have $P_4 = P_1^{\#\#}$. ■

2.6 The case ψ_5 : a double-five of planes

In [10] the 35-set $\psi_5 \subset \text{PG}(5, 2)$ was constructed starting out from a regular icosahedron whose faces were coloured in two enantiomorphic ways — the two colourings being related to two decompositions $\psi_5 = \alpha_1 \cup \alpha_2 \cup \alpha_3 \cup \alpha_4 \cup \alpha_5$ and $\psi_5 = \beta_1 \cup \beta_2 \cup \beta_3 \cup \beta_4 \cup \beta_5$ of ψ_5 into mutually disjoint planes, each set of five planes being a maximal partial spread. The symmetry group of ψ_5 is icosahedral: $\mathcal{G}_{\psi_5} \cong \text{Alt}(5) \times Z_2$. As noted after Eq. (2.7) it has a cubic equation $Q(x) = 0$. In [11, Section 2.2] can be found the explicit cubic polynomial Q , and its associated alternating trilinear form T .

At first glance the set ψ_5 seems to hold considerable promise for interesting results concerning the ψ_5 -associate of flats. Certainly ψ_5 has a more interesting and intricate geometric structure than the preceding sets $\psi_1 - \psi_4$. Furthermore there is the added excitement of the existence of a \mathcal{G}_{ψ_5} -invariant non-degenerate symplectic form $x.y$ on V_6 : see [11, Lemma 2.1]. So one has hopes for interesting relations between the ψ_5 -associate $X^\#$ of a flat X and the polar X^\perp of X with respect to the symplectic polarity on $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ determined by $x.y$. The fact that $V = V_6$ is equipped with both a non-degenerate bilinear form $x.y$ and a trilinear form $T(x, y, z)$ gives rise to a further feature of interest, namely that V can be made into a 6-dimensional non-associative algebra \mathcal{A} , as follows. From the non-degeneracy of the symplectic form $x.y$ we have a linear isomorphism $\phi : V \rightarrow V^*$ defined by $a \mapsto \phi_a$, where $\phi_a(x) = a.x$. Upon defining the product ab of elements $a, b \in V$ by $ab = \phi^{-1}(f_{a,b})$, where $f_{a,b}(x) := T(a, b, x)$, $x \in V$, the vector space V is thereby made into a (non-associative) algebra \mathcal{A} over $\text{GF}(2)$. Since T is symmetric, \mathcal{A} is commutative, and since T is alternating, we have $a^2 = 0$, for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Also, since both the symplectic form $x.y$ and the trilinear form $T(x, y, z)$ are \mathcal{G}_{ψ_5} -invariant, the automorphism group $\text{Aut } \mathcal{A}$ contains \mathcal{G}_{ψ_5} .

Nevertheless these initial hopes appear not to be borne out, the chief ‘culprit’ for this failure being the existence of a (unique) fixed point u of \mathcal{G}_{ψ_5} , termed the *nucleus* of ψ_5 . The nucleus u also gives rise to the hyperplane ϖ whose equation is $u.x = 0$ and which meets ψ_5 in a parabolic quadric \mathcal{P}_4 (the unique parabolic quadric lying on ψ_5), the nucleus of \mathcal{P}_4 being u . Now, as noted in [11, Section 2.2, Remark (i)], $T(x, y, u) = 0$ for all $x, y \in V$ — that is, in our present language, u is a singular point for ψ_5 . Consequently, see Lemma 1.20, *there exist no faithfully ψ_5 -even planes in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$* . Indeed if P is any even plane then $P^\#$ is a plane which contains u and so is odd. (In fact u is the only singular point: $\text{rad } \psi_5 = \{u\}$: for $\text{rad } \psi_5$ is a flat which is stabilized by \mathcal{G}_{ψ_5} , and the only other such flat is the hyperplane ϖ , which is easily seen to contain non-singular points.

Moreover the 6-dimensional non-associative algebra \mathcal{A} does not appear to have much interest, again due to the properties of the point u . For example,

as well as the property $x^2 = 0$, we have $ux = 0$, for all $x \in \mathcal{A}$. Also if we consider the 5-dimensional subalgebra $\mathcal{A}^{\text{even}}$ of \mathcal{A} consisting of vectors of even weight with respect to the basis \mathcal{B} employed in [11], then for all $x, y \in \mathcal{A}^{\text{even}}$ the algebra product xy is either 0 or u .

We conclude by giving a relationship between P^\perp and $P^\#$ which holds if the plane P is one of the five internal planes α_r , or one of the five planes β_r : $P^\perp = P$, $P^\# = \langle u, P \rangle$.

3 Other hypersurfaces worthy of attention?

Leaving aside the cubic hypersurfaces in $\text{PG}(5, 2)$ of Section 2, and also the Grassmannians $\mathcal{G}_{1,m,2}$ of Section 1.4.1, out of the truly enormous number of other choices available for ψ we list here just a few of the many cases where the study of the ψ -associate (of at least some kinds of flats) would appear to hold out promise:

- (a) the Segre variety $\psi_a = \mathcal{S}_{1,3,2} \subset \text{PG}(7, 2)$, for which $d = 4$;
- (b) the Segre variety $\psi_b = \mathcal{S}_{2,2,2} \subset \text{PG}(8, 2)$, for which $d = 6$;
- (c) the hypersurface $\psi_c \subset \text{PG}(8, 2) = \mathbb{P}(\text{End } V_3)$ with equation $\det A = 0$, $A \in \text{End}(V_3)$; so $d = 3$;
- (d) the hypersurface $\psi_d \subset \text{PG}(15, 2) = \mathbb{P}(\text{End } V_4)$ with equation $\det A = 0$, $A \in \text{End}(V_4)$; so $d = 4$.

Concerning the first two of these, the polynomial degree of the Segre variety $\mathcal{S}_{r,s,2} \subset \text{PG}(rs + r + s, 2)$, $r \leq s$, is known, [15], to be $d = rs + r$. (Recall that the cubic ψ_3 in Section 2.4 is in effect the $(r, s) = (1, 2)$ case of a Segre variety.) The symmetry groups \mathcal{G}_ψ in these four cases are quite large:

$\psi =$	ψ_a	ψ_b	ψ_c	ψ_d
$\mathcal{G}_\psi \cong$	$L_2(2) \times L_4(2)$	$(L_3(2) \times L_3(2)).2$	$(L_3(2) \times L_3(2)).2$	$(L_4(2) \times L_4(2)).2$
$ \mathcal{G}_\psi =$	120, 960	56, 448	56, 448	812, 851, 200

(See [1] for the structure of \mathcal{G}_ψ in the cases (c) and (d); concerning $\mathcal{G}_{\psi_b} \cong \mathcal{G}_{\psi_c}$, the 49 points of ψ_b can be identified with the 49 elements of ψ_c of rank 1.) However as the projective dimension n increases the number of lines, planes, solids, ..., in $\text{PG}(n, 2)$ of course increases enormously:

Number of r -flats	$\text{PG}(7, 2)$	$\text{PG}(8, 2)$	$\text{PG}(15, 2)$
$r = 0$ (points)	255	511	65, 535
$r = 1$ (lines)	10, 795	43, 435	715, 795, 115
$r = 2$ (planes)	97, 155	788, 035	$> 1.6 \times 10^{12}$
$r = 3$ (solids)	200, 787	3, 309, 747	$> 9.1 \times 10^{14}$

So it would be a formidable task to fully carry out the last two steps of the plan in Section 1.4! Nevertheless let us at least determine $X^\#$ for two kinds of flat X in the case of ψ_c .

3.1 The case $\psi = \psi_c \subset \text{PG}(8, 2) : \det A = 0, A \in \text{End}(V_3)$

In the case $\psi = \psi_c$ even planes are of interest since we know from Corollary 1.16 that the ψ_c -associate $P^\#$ of an even plane $P \subset \text{PG}(8, 2)$ is necessarily a disjoint 5-flat. For our first kind of ψ_c -even plane $P \subset \text{PG}(8, 2)$ choose a basis \mathcal{B} for

V_3 and let P consist of those elements of $\text{End } V_3$ whose matrices are diagonal. Then P is even, since $\det A = 0$ for the six elements $A \in P$ other than $A = I$. Let S denote the 5-flat $\subset \text{PG}(8, 2)$ consisting of those elements of $\text{GL}(V_3)$ which have matrices whose diagonal entries are all zero.

Theorem 3.1 $P^\# = S$.

Proof. Let e_{ij} denote that element of $\text{End } V_3$ whose matrix in the basis \mathcal{B} has for its sole nonzero entry a 1 in the ij place. So $P = \langle e_{11}, e_{22}, e_{33} \rangle$. and $S = \langle \{e_{kl}\}_{k \neq l} \rangle$. Now for $i \neq j, k \neq l$ the plane $\langle e_{ii}, e_{jj}, e_{kl} \rangle$, is odd since all seven of its elements have zero determinant. From Theorem 1.17(i) it follows that $P^\# = S$. ■

Remark 3.2 *This result has an obvious generalization to the hypersurface $\psi \subset \text{PG}(n^2-1, 2) = \mathbb{P}(\text{End } V_n)$ with equation $\det A = 0$; here $d = n, P = \langle e_{11}, \dots, e_{nn} \rangle$ is an $(n-1)$ -flat and S is a disjoint $(n^2 - n - 1)$ -flat. In the $n = 2$ case ψ is a hyperbolic quadric \mathcal{H}_3 in $\text{PG}(3, 2)$ and $P = \langle e_{11}, e_{22} \rangle$ is a bisecant of \mathcal{H}_3 , one of an orbit Ω of 18 bisecants; observe that $P^\# = \langle e_{12}, e_{21} \rangle$ also $\in \Omega$.*

For another kind of ψ_c -even plane in $\text{PG}(8, 2)$, choose an element $A \in \text{GL}(V_3)$ of order 7. Then the Singer subgroup $Z = \{I, A, A^2, \dots, A^6\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_7$ of $\text{GL}(V_3)$ is a plane in $\text{PG}(8, 2)$ which is external to ψ_c and so is ψ_c -even. The normalizer $N(Z)$ in $\text{GL}(V_3)$ is a subgroup $\mathcal{F} \cong \mathbb{Z}_7 \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_3$ of order 21 which is generated by A and C where $C \in \text{GL}(V_3)$, of order 3, satisfies $CAC^{-1} = A^2$. Consider the coset decomposition $\mathcal{F} = X \cup Y \cup Z$, where $X = CZ$ and $Y = C^2Z$ comprise the 14 elements of \mathcal{F} which are of order 3. Observe that X and Y are also ψ_c -even planes in $\text{PG}(8, 2)$.

Theorem 3.3 (i) $Z^\# = \langle X, Y \rangle$ (ii) $X^\# = \langle Y, Z \rangle$ (iii) $Y^\# = \langle X, Z \rangle$.

Proof. (i) Consider the plane $P = \langle L, D \rangle$ where L is a line in Z and $D \in X \cup Y$. Then P contains 4 external points $L \cup \{D\}$ and 3 further points $\{B + D\}_{B \in L}$, each of the latter points $B + D$ being of the form $A^r(I + A^sC)$ or $A^r(I + A^sC^2)$. Now $\det(I + A^sC) = 0$ and $\det(I + A^sC^2) = 0$, since A^sC and A^sC^2 , being of order 3, possess a fixed point in $\text{PG}(3, 2)$; so the 3 points $\{B + D\}_{B \in L}$ are all internal, and hence all of the planes $\langle L, D \rangle$ are odd. By Lemma 1.11(i) it follows that $X \subset Z^\#$ and $Y \subset Z^\#$, and hence that $\langle X, Y \rangle \subseteq Z^\#$. But X and Y are disjoint planes, and so $\langle X, Y \rangle$ is a 5-flat. Hence, by the choice $(d, n) = (3, 8)$ in Corollary 1.16, $Z^\# = \langle X, Y \rangle$.

(ii), (iii) An entirely similar proof applies. ■

Remark 3.4 *The foregoing planes X, Y, Z are, in vector space language, examples of 3-dimensional linear sections of $\text{GL}(3, 2)$. For $n = 3$ and $n = 4$ all linear sections of $\text{GL}(n, 2)$ were classified in [3]. For $n = 3$ they are all of Singer type as exemplified by the foregoing Z . However $\text{GL}(4, 2)$ possesses several kinds of linear sections, not all of Singer type, see [3, Theorem 5.1], and it may be of interest to determine the ψ_d -associates of each of these.*

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