

## REGULAR COLLINEATION GROUPS

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**1. Introduction.** Let  $v, k, \lambda, (v > k > \lambda > 0)$  be integers satisfying  $\lambda(v-1) = k(k-1)$ . Suppose  $\pi$  is a collection of  $v$  points and  $v$  lines, together with an incidence relation such that every point (line) is on  $k$  lines (contains  $k$  points), and such that every pair of distinct points (lines) are on  $\lambda$  common lines (contain  $\lambda$  points in common). Then  $\pi$  is a  $\lambda$ -plane, or a  $(v, k, \lambda)$  configuration, or a symmetric balanced incomplete block design (see [1; 3] for more details). If  $\phi$  is a one-to-one mapping of  $\pi$ , sending points onto points and lines onto lines, and preserving incidence, then  $\phi$  is a *collineation* of  $\pi$ . If  $\pi$  is a  $\lambda$ -plane possessing a collineation group  $\mathcal{G}$  of order  $m$  such that no nonidentity element of  $\mathcal{G}$  fixes any point or line of  $\pi$ , then we say that  $\pi$  is *regular of degree  $m$*  (with group  $\mathcal{G}$ ). Any  $\lambda$ -plane is regular of degree one, and the "transitive  $\lambda$ -planes" of [1] (including the "cyclic  $\lambda$ -planes" of [4; 5]) are regular of degree  $v$  (which is clearly the maximum degree of regularity). In this paper we show that regularity implies the existence of a matrix relation similar to the well-known relations involving incidence matrices (see [2; 3]), and indeed, includes these incidence matrix relations as special cases. If  $\lambda = 1$ , then  $\pi$  is a finite projective plane of order  $n = k - 1$ , and we shall be particularly interested in the fact that the theorems of this paper are strong enough to prove, for a wide class of integers  $n$ , that no projective plane of order  $n$  can be regular of degree greater than one.

**2. Regular  $\lambda$ -planes.** Let  $\pi$  be a  $\lambda$ -plane with parameters  $v, k, \lambda$ , and suppose  $\pi$  is regular of degree  $m$ , with group  $\mathcal{G}$ . Then the  $v$  points of  $\pi$  break up into  $t$  classes  $\mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2, \dots, \mathcal{P}_t$ , each containing  $m$  points, such that  $\mathcal{G}$  is transitive (and regular) on any  $\mathcal{P}_i$ ; similarly, the lines break up into  $t$  classes  $\mathcal{J}_1, \mathcal{J}_2, \dots, \mathcal{J}_t$ , on each of which  $\mathcal{G}$  is transitive. Clearly  $mt = v$ . In each  $\mathcal{P}_i$  choose a "base point"  $P_i$ , and in each  $\mathcal{J}_i$  a "base line"  $J_i$ . Then every point of  $\mathcal{P}_i$  can be expressed uniquely in the form  $P_i x, x \in \mathcal{G}$ , and every line of  $\mathcal{J}_i$  can be expressed uniquely in the form  $J_i x, x \in \mathcal{G}$ .

Let  $D_{ij}$  be the subset of  $\mathcal{G}$  consisting of all elements  $x$  such that  $P_i x$  is on  $J_j$ , and let  $n_{ij}$  be the number of elements in  $D_{ij}$ ; then  $n_{ij} \geq 0$ .

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**THEOREM 1.** (i) For each  $i$  ( $i=1, 2, \dots, t$ ) and each  $a \in \mathfrak{G}$ ,  $a \neq 1$ , there are exactly  $\lambda$  equations of the form  $a = d_1 d_2^{-1}$ , where  $d_1, d_2$  are in some  $D_{ij}$ ; similarly, there are exactly  $\lambda$  equations of the form  $a = d_1^{-1} d_2$ , where  $d_1, d_2$  are in some  $D_{ji}$ .

(ii) For each pair  $i, j, i \neq j$  ( $i, j=1, 2, \dots, t$ ), and each  $a \in \mathfrak{G}$ , there are exactly  $\lambda$  equations of the form  $a = d_1 d_2^{-1}$ , where  $d_1$  is in  $D_{ji}$ ,  $d_2$  is in  $D_{ii}$ , for some  $l$ ; similarly, there are exactly  $\lambda$  equations of the form  $a = d_1^{-1} d_2$ , where  $d_1$  is in  $D_{ij}$ ,  $d_2$  is in  $D_{ii}$ , for some  $l$ .

**PROOF.** Given  $i$  and  $a \in \mathfrak{G}$ ,  $a \neq 1$ , consider the  $\lambda$  lines joining  $P_i$  and  $P_i a$ ; there must be exactly  $\lambda$  values of  $j$  and  $b$  such that  $P_i, P_i a$  are on  $J_j b$ . For each such line  $J_j b$ , we have  $ab^{-1} = d_1 \in D_{ij}$ ,  $b^{-1} = d_2 \in D_{ij}$ , whence  $a = d_1 d_2^{-1}$ . By a reversal of the argument, it is easy to see that these  $\lambda$  equations are unique.

Given  $i, j, i \neq j$ , and  $a \in \mathfrak{G}$ , consider the  $\lambda$  lines joining  $P_i$  and  $P_j a$ ; there must be exactly  $\lambda$  values of  $l$  and  $b$  such that  $P_i, P_j a$  are on  $J_l b$ . Then, as above, we get  $\lambda$  equations  $a = d_1 d_2^{-1}$ , where  $d_1$  is in  $D_{ji}$ ,  $d_2$  is in  $D_{ii}$ , and these  $\lambda$  equations are unique.

By similar considerations with the  $\lambda$  points  $P_i b$  on  $J_i$  and  $J_i a$ , or on  $J_i$  and  $J_j a$ , the other halves of (i) and (ii) are proven.

**THEOREM 2.** Letting  $n = k - \lambda$ , the  $n_{ij}$  satisfy:

- (i)  $\sum_j n_{ij} = \sum_j n_{ji} = k$ , for any  $i$ .
- (ii)  $\sum_j n_{ij}^2 = \sum_j n_{ji}^2 = n + \lambda m$ , for any  $i$ .
- (iii)  $\sum_l n_{il} n_{jl} = \sum_l n_{li} n_{lj} = \lambda m$ , for any  $i, j, i \neq j$ .

**PROOF.** The line  $J_i$  contains  $n_{ji}$  points of  $\mathfrak{G}_j$ , hence contains altogether  $\sum_j n_{ji} = k$  points. Since  $n_{ij}$  images of  $P_i$  are on  $J_j$ , there are  $n_{ij}$  images of  $J_j$  containing  $P_i$ , hence  $n_{ij}$  lines of  $\mathfrak{G}_j$  through  $P_i$ . So  $P_i$  is on altogether  $k = \sum_j n_{ij}$  lines. Thus we have (i).

For a fixed  $i$ , each  $a \in \mathfrak{G}$ ,  $a \neq 1$ , is represented exactly  $\lambda$  times among all the elements  $d_1 d_2^{-1}$ ,  $d_1, d_2 \in D_{ij}$ , as  $j$  varies. On the other hand, all the elements  $d_1 d_2^{-1}$ ,  $d_1, d_2 \in D_{ij}$ ,  $d_1 \neq d_2$ , as  $j$  varies, make up a set of  $\sum_j n_{ij}(n_{ij} - 1)$  elements. Hence  $\sum_j n_{ij}(n_{ij} - 1) = \lambda(m - 1)$ , or  $\sum_j n_{ij}^2 = \lambda m - \lambda + k = n + \lambda m$ , using (i). The other half of (ii) is similar.

Finally, for a fixed  $i, j, i \neq j$ , each  $a \in \mathfrak{G}$  is represented exactly  $\lambda$  times as  $a = d_1 d_2^{-1}$ , where  $d_1 \in D_{ji}$ ,  $d_2 \in D_{ii}$ , as  $l$  varies. Thus  $\sum_l n_{il} n_{jl}$  must count every element of  $\mathfrak{G}$   $\lambda$  times, so  $\sum_l n_{il} n_{jl} = \lambda m$ . The other half of (iii) is similar.

Now if  $A$  is a matrix, let  $A^T$  be the transpose of  $A$ . Then it is immediate that Theorem 2 can be rephrased as follows, where  $A = (n_{ij})$ .

**THEOREM 3.** If  $\pi$  is a regular  $\lambda$ -plane of degree  $m$ , with parameters  $v, k, \lambda$ , then there is a square matrix  $A$  of order  $t = v/m$ , consisting en-

tirely of non-negative integral entries, such that  $A^T A = A A^T = B$ , where  $B$  has  $n + \lambda m$  on the main diagonal and  $\lambda m$  elsewhere. Furthermore, every row or column of  $A$  sums to  $k$ . (Here  $n = k - \lambda$ .)

**THEOREM 4.** *If  $\pi$  is a regular  $\lambda$ -plane of degree  $m$ , with the parameters  $v, k, \lambda$ , and if  $t = v/m$  is odd, then the equation*

$$(1) \quad x^2 = ny^2 + (-1)^{(t-1)/2} \lambda m z^2,$$

where  $n = k - \lambda$ , possesses a nontrivial solution in integers.

**PROOF.** The theorem follows from Theorem 3 and the Lemma of [5].

The equation (1) can be handled by the classical theory of Legendre, and yields nontrivial information for many choices of  $v, k, \lambda$ . If  $m = 1$ , then the matrix relation of Theorem 3 is exactly the incidence matrix equation for a  $\lambda$ -plane [2; 3]; in that light, the concept of a regular  $\lambda$ -plane can be thought of as a notion which includes the most basic combinatorial (or geometric) information as a "special case."

For  $\lambda > 1, k \leq 30$ , it is fairly easy to investigate all  $\lambda$ -planes, in connection with Theorem 4. If  $v$  is a prime, then either  $m = 1$  or  $m = v$ , so we disregard these cases; furthermore we neglect those choices of  $v, k, \lambda$ , which are rejected by [3] (i.e., by Theorem 4 with  $m = 1$ ). Of the remaining cases, the following cannot be regular of degree greater than one (the parameters  $(v, k, \lambda)$  are listed): (25, 9, 3), (25, 16, 10), (121, 16, 2), (39, 19, 9), (39, 20, 10), (201, 25, 3), (55, 27, 13), (55, 28, 14). Although Theorem 4 gives no direct information about  $m = v$ , if  $m$  is rejected for some prime-power divisor of  $v$ , then  $m = v$  is impossible: for a regular group of order  $v = p^a q$ ,  $p$  a prime,  $a > 0$ , certainly contains a regular subgroup of order  $p^a$ . Thus (245, 27, 3) is handled: for  $m = 7$  or  $m = 49$ , Theorem 4 offers no information, but  $m = 5$  is impossible, and so  $m = 245$  is also impossible. (In this connection see Theorem 4.1 of [1] and Theorem 2.1 of [4].)<sup>2</sup>

**3. Regular projective planes.** If  $\lambda = 1$ , then  $\pi$  is a finite projective plane of order  $n = k - 1$ , and  $v = n^2 + n + 1$ . Since  $v$  is always odd,  $t = v/m$  is always odd, so Theorem 4 always applies.

There are 18 integers  $n \leq 60$  which are not prime-powers, are not rejected by [2], and for which  $n^2 + n + 1$  is not a prime. For eight of these integers (18, 28, 36, 44, 45, 48, 52, 56), Theorem 4 gives no information. For eight others (10, 26, 34, 35, 39, 40, 51, 60), Theorem

<sup>2</sup> In papers forthcoming in the Transactions of the American Mathematical Society and the Illinois Journal of Mathematics the author gives a more general treatment of collineations of  $(v, k, \lambda)$  configurations, including nonexistence theorems.

4 tells us that any plane of order  $n$  cannot be regular of degree  $m > 1$ . For  $n = 55$ ,  $n^2 + n + 1 = 3 \cdot 13 \cdot 79$ , Theorem 4 rejects all values of  $m > 1$  except  $m = 79$  or  $m = 39$ ; but since  $m = 3$  and  $m = 13$  are rejected,  $m = 39$  is impossible. (Thus, oddly, Theorem 4 can give more information indirectly than directly.) For  $n = 58$ ,  $n^2 + n + 1 = 3 \cdot 7 \cdot 163$ , Theorem 4 rejects all values of  $m > 1$  except  $m = 7$ . In each of these cases, some prime divisor of  $n^2 + n + 1$  is rejected, so  $m = n^2 + n + 1$  is impossible.

Any Desarguesian projective plane of order  $n$  is regular of degree  $m$ , for any  $m$  dividing  $n^2 + n + 1$  (see [7]). The only other examples (known to the author) of planes which are regular of degree  $m > 1$  are the planes given in [6]: the planes of this class are all non-Desarguesian and a typical plane has order  $p^{2a}$ ,  $p$  an odd prime, and is regular of degree  $m$  for any  $m$  dividing  $p^{2a} + p^a + 1$ .

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