MAXIMAL ARCS IN DESARGUESIAN PLANES OF ODD ORDER DO NOT EXIST

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For q an odd prime power, and 1 < n < q, the Desarguesian plane PG(2,q) does not contain an (nq-q+n,n)-arc.

1. Introduction

A (k,n)-arc in a projective plane is a set of k points, at most n on every line. If the order of the plane is q, then $k \leq 1 + (q+1)(n-1) = qn - q + n$ with equality if and only if every line intersects the arc in 0 or n points. Arcs realizing the upper bound are called maximal arcs. Equality in the bound implies that $n \mid q$ or n = q+1. If 1 < n < q, then the maximal arc is called non-trivial. The only known examples of non-trivial maximal arcs in Desarguesian projective planes, are the hyperovals (n=2), and, for n > 2 the Denniston arcs [2] and an infinite family constructed by Thas [5, 7]. These exist for all pairs $(n,q) = (2^a, 2^b)$, 0 < a < b. It is conjectured in [6] that for odd q maximal arcs do not exist. In that paper this was proved for $(n,q) = (3,3^h)$. The special case (n,q) = (3,9) was settled earlier by Cossu [1]. In a recent paper on sets of type (m,n) [3] this conjecture is labeled "most wanted" research problem. In this note we shall show that the conjecture is true in general.

We shall consider point sets in the affine plane AG(2,q) instead of PG(2,q). This is no restriction; there is always a line disjoint from a non-trivial maximal arc. The points of AG(2,q) can be identified with the elements of $GF(q^2)$ in a suitable way, so that in fact all point sets can be considered as subsets of this field. Note

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that three points a, b, c are collinear, precisely when $(a-b)^{q-1} = (a-c)^{q-4}$ If the direction of the line joining a and b is identified with the number $(a-b)^{q-1}$, then a one-to-one correspondence between the q+1 directions (or parallel classes) and the different (q+1)-st roots of unity in $GF(q^2)$ is obtained.

We finish this introduction with a short discussion on Lucas' theorem and Hasse derivatives.

Lucas' theorem gives the value of binomial coefficients modulo a prime: Let $a = a_0 + a_1p + a_2p^2 + \ldots$ and $b = b_0 + b_1p + b_2p^2 + \ldots$ be the *p*-ary expansion of the numbers *a* and *b*, where *b* is a non-negative integer. Then

$$\binom{a}{b} = \binom{a_0}{b_0} \binom{a_1}{b_1} \binom{a_2}{b_2} \dots \pmod{p}.$$

This can be proved by expanding $(1+x)^a$ and using $(1+x)^r = 1+x^r$ whenever r is a power of the characteristic p (cf. [4], Section 5).

In particular we have the following,

$$(-1)^{i} \binom{r-1}{i} = 1 \pmod{p} \text{ for } r = p^{e}, \ 0 \le i < r,$$

and, more generally

$$(-1)^{i} \binom{r-j-1}{i} = \binom{i+j}{i} \pmod{p} \quad \text{for} \quad r = p^{e}, \ 0 \le i, j < r.$$

Hasse derivatives cope with the problem that over a field of characteristic p the p-th and higher ordinary derivatives of a polynomial vanish identically. The k-th Hasse derivative H_k (with respect to the variable x) is a linear operator on polynomials defined by $H_k(x^n) = \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k}$ if $k \leq n$, and 0 otherwise. If f and g are two polynomials then

$$H_n(fg) = \sum_{k=0}^n H_k(f)H_{n-k}(g)$$

From this it can be seen that $(x-a)^k | f$ if and only if $H_i(f)(a) = 0$ for i = 0, 1, ..., k-1.

2. Some useful polynomials

Let \mathcal{B} be a non-trivial (nq - q + n, n)-arc in $AG(2,q) \simeq GF(q^2), q = p^h$. For simplicity we assume $0 \notin \mathcal{B}$. Let $\mathcal{B}^{[-1]} = \{1/b \mid b \in \mathcal{B}\}$. Define B(x) to be the polynomial

$$B(x) := \prod_{b \in \mathcal{B}} (1 - bx) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \sigma_k x^k$$

where σ_k denotes the k-th elementary symmetric function of the set \mathcal{B} , in particular $\sigma_k = 0$ for $k > |\mathcal{B}|$. Define the polynomials F in two variables and $\hat{\sigma}_k$ in one variable by

$$F(t,x) := \prod_{b \in \mathscr{B}} (1 - (1 - bx)^{q-1}t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \hat{\sigma}_k t^k$$

where $\hat{\sigma}_k$ is the k-th elementary symmetric function of the set of polynomials $\{(1-bx)^{q-1} \mid b \in \mathcal{B}\}\$, a polynomial of degree at most k(q-1) in x. Again, $\hat{\sigma}_k$ is the zero polynomial for $k > |\mathcal{B}|$. For $x_0 \in GF(q^2) \setminus \mathcal{B}^{[-1]}$ it follows that $F(t,x_0)$ is an n-th power. Indeed, if $x_0=0$ this is clear, and if $x_0 \neq 0$ then $1/x_0$ is a point not contained in the arc, so that every line through $1/x_0$ contains a number of points of \mathcal{B} that is either 0 or n. In the multiset $\{(1/x_0-b)^{q-1} \mid b \in \mathcal{B}\}$, every element occurs therefore with multiplicity n, so that in $F(t,x_0)$ every factor occurs exactly n times.

For $x_0 \in \mathscr{B}^{[-1]}$ we get that $F(t,x_0) = (1-t^{q+1})^{n-1}$, for in this case every line passing through the point $1/x_0$ contains exactly n-1 other points of \mathscr{B} , so that the multiset $\{(1/x_0-b)^{q-1}\}$ consists of every (q+1)-st root of unity repeated n-1times, together with the element 0. This gives

$$F(t,x_0) = \prod_{b \in \mathcal{B}} (1 - (1/x_0 - b)^{q-1} x_0^{q-1} t) = (1 - x_0^{q^2 - 1} t^{q+1})^{n-1} = (1 - t^{q+1})^{n-1}.$$

From the shape of F in both cases it can be seen that for all $x_0 \in GF(q^2)$, $\hat{\sigma}_k(x_0) = 0, \ 0 < k < n$, and since the degree of $\hat{\sigma}_k$ is at most $k(q-1) < q^2$, these functions are in fact identically zero. The first coefficient of F that is not necessarily identically zero therefore is $\hat{\sigma}_n$.

The main idea of the non-existence proof is to show that $\hat{\sigma}_n^2$ is a *p*-th power. Together with the fact that *B* divides $\hat{\sigma}_n$, and the observation that $\hat{\sigma}_n$ is not identically zero, this leads swiftly to a contradiction for $p \neq 2$.

Since $\hat{\sigma}_n(0) = {|\mathcal{B}| \choose n} = {nq-q+n \choose n} = 1$, by Lucas' theorem, it is not identically zero. On the other hand the coefficient of t^n in $(1-t^{q+1})^{n-1}$ is zero, so $\hat{\sigma}_n(x_0) = 0$ for $x_0 \in \mathcal{B}^{[-1]}$, in other words, *B* divides $\hat{\sigma}_n$. Let $Q = \hat{\sigma}_n/B$. Then *Q* is a polynomial of degree at most n(q-1) - nq + q - n = q - 2n.

Define the power sums corresponding to σ_k and $\hat{\sigma}_k$:

(1)
$$\pi_k = \sum_{b \in \mathcal{B}} b^k$$
 and $\hat{\pi}_k = \sum_{b \in \mathcal{B}} (1 - bx)^{k(q-1)} = \sum_{i=0}^{k(q-1)} (-1)^i \binom{k(q-1)}{i} \pi_i x^i$.

For future use we collect the relevant divisibility relations.

Lemma 2.1. The following polynomials are divisible by $x - x^{q^2}$:

- 1. $\hat{\sigma}_k$, unless $n \mid k$ or $(q+1) \mid k$;
- 2. $\hat{\sigma}_n \hat{\sigma}_k$, unless $n \mid k$;
- 3. $\hat{\pi}_k$, unless (q+1) | k;
- 4. $\hat{\sigma}_n \hat{\pi}_k$ for all k.

Proof. Unless n | k or (q+1) | k, $\hat{\sigma}_k$ vanishes for all $x \in GF(q^2)$, so it follows that in these cases $(x - x^{q^2}) | \hat{\sigma}_k$. If $n \nmid k$ then $\hat{\sigma}_k$ still vanishes for $x_0 \in GF(q^2) \setminus \mathcal{B}^{[-1]}$, and since $B | \hat{\sigma}_n$ we get the divisibility relation $(x - x^{q^2}) | \hat{\sigma}_n \hat{\sigma}_k$ in this case. For $x_0 \in GF(q^2) \setminus \mathcal{B}^{[-1]}$ it follows that $\hat{\pi}_k(x_0) = 0$, because every value is assumed 0 or n times, and $p \mid n$. If $(q+1) \nmid k$ and $x_0 \in \mathcal{B}^{[-1]}$ it follows that

$$\hat{\pi}_k(x_0) = 0 + \left(\sum_{\xi:\xi^{q+1}=1} \xi^k\right) (n-1) = 0.$$

Hence $(x-x^{q^2})|\hat{\pi}_k$ unless (q+1)|k and $(x-x^{q^2})|\hat{\sigma}_n\hat{\pi}_k$ if (q+1)|k since $B|\hat{\sigma}_n$.

3. The Newton Identities and some consequences

The power sums π and the symmetric functions σ are related by the Newton identities N(k):

$$k\sigma_k + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (-1)^{k-j} \sigma_j \pi_{k-j} = 0,$$

for all $k \ge 0$. These identities can be obtained by computing the derivative of B(x) to get

$$B'(x) = \sum_{b \in \mathcal{B}} \frac{-b}{1 - bx} B(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k k \sigma_k x^{k-1}.$$

and comparing the coefficient of x^k (resp. t^k) after substituting $(1 - bx)^{-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b^j x^j$.

The Newton identities $\hat{N}(k)$:

$$k\hat{\sigma}_k + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (-1)^{k-j} \hat{\sigma}_j \hat{\pi}_{k-j} = 0,$$

can be derived in a similar way, by computing the partial derivative with respect to t of F(t,x).

For all $k \leq q$ the degrees of $\hat{\sigma}_k$ and $\hat{\pi}_k$ are less than q^2 so in view of the divisibility relations $\hat{\pi}_k$ is identically zero for $k \leq q$, and so is $\hat{\sigma}_k$, unless $n \mid k$. By considering the Newton Identity $\hat{N}(q+1)$ we find that

(2)
$$\hat{\sigma}_{q+1} = -\hat{\pi}_{q+1} = -\sum_{j=0}^{q^2-1} \pi_j x^j.$$

by (1). Note that since $\pi_0 = 0$ and $\pi_{k+q^2-1} = \pi_k$ for all k > 0, we get that

$$\hat{\pi}_{q+1} = (x - x^{q^2}) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \pi_{k+1} x^k.$$

Differentiating F(t,x) with respect to x it follows that

(3)
$$F_x(t,x) = \left(\sum_{b \in \mathcal{B}} \frac{-b(1-bx)^{q-2}t}{1-(1-bx)^{q-1}t}\right) F(t,x) = \sum_{k=0}^{|\mathcal{B}|} (-1)^k \hat{\sigma}'_k t^k.$$

The expression in front of F(t, x) may be expanded in a formal power series so that

$$F_x(t,x) = \left(-\sum_{b\in\mathscr{B}}\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}b(1-bx)^{iq-i-1}t^i\right)F(t,x).$$

Expanding the bracket using the Binomial theorem gives

(4)
$$F_x(t,x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left[\sum_{k=0}^{iq-i-1} (-1)^k \binom{iq-i-1}{k} \pi_{k+1} x^k \right] t^i F(t,x).$$

We already observed that F(t,x) as a function of t is an n-th power modulo t^q , and the same is of course true for $F_x(t,x)$. It follows that the same is again true for

$$-\sum_{b\in\mathscr{B}}\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}b(1-bx)^{iq-i-1}t^i.$$

This gives $\binom{mq-m-1}{k-1}\pi_k = 0$ for 0 < m < q, $n \nmid m$ and all k. Note that from $\hat{\pi}_m \equiv 0$ for m < q it follows that

(5)
$$\binom{mq-m}{k}\pi_k = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad m < q \text{ and all } k.$$

From $\binom{mq-m}{k} = \binom{mq-m-1}{k} + \binom{mq-m-1}{k-1}$ follows the important equality

(6)
$$\binom{mq-m-1}{k}\pi_k = 0$$
 for $0 < m < q$, $n \nmid m$ and all k .

Equating the coefficient of t^n in (4) implies

$$\hat{\sigma}'_n = \sum_{k=0}^{nq-n-1} (-1)^k \binom{nq-n-1}{k} \pi_{k+1} x^k.$$

From $\hat{\pi}_1 = \sum_{j=0}^{q-1} \pi_j x^j \equiv 0$ it follows that $\pi_j = 0$ for j < q. This then implies that $\hat{\sigma}_n$ is a *p*-th power mod x^q . By considering the Newton identities relating the σ_k 's and the π_k 's it follows that $\sigma_j = 0$ for j < q unless $p \mid j$ and hence *B* is a *p*-th power mod x^q . Therefore their quotient *Q* which has degree at most q-2n is a *p*-th power, i.e. Q'=0.

From the proof of the Newton identities it follows that

$$B'(x-x^{q^2}) = -B\hat{\pi}_{q+1}.$$

Multiplying each side by Q and writing $B'Q = (BQ)' = \hat{\sigma}'_n$ this is seen to imply the important identity

(7)
$$\hat{\sigma}'_n(x-x^{q^2}) = -\hat{\sigma}_n \hat{\pi}_{q+1}.$$

Our main conclusion, namely that $\hat{\sigma}_n^2$ is a *p*-th power will follow from considering the Newton identity $\hat{N}(nq-q+2n-1)$ modulo $(x-x^{q^2})^2$. As it will turn out the only relevant $\hat{\pi}$ -s involved in this identity will be the $\hat{\pi}_k$ with $k \equiv -1 \mod n$ and most of these vanish identically. We start by showing that $\hat{\pi}_{an-1} \equiv 0$ for $a \leq q-q/n$, and then $\hat{\pi}_{i(q+1)}$ and $\hat{\pi}_{i(q+1)+n}$ will be calculated in terms of Hasse derivatives for i < n. In this way in particular $\hat{\pi}_{(n-1)(q+1)}$ and $\hat{\pi}_{(n-1)(q+1)+n}$ are obtained (the last two $\hat{\pi}_{an-1}$'s).

4. Proof that $\hat{\pi}_{an-1} \equiv 0$ for $a \leq q - q/n$

Recall that, by definition

$$\hat{\pi}_{an-1} = \sum_{b \in \mathcal{B}} (1 - bx)^{(q-1)(an-1)} = \sum_{j=0}^{(an-1)(q-1)} \binom{anq - q - an + 1}{j} (-1)^j \pi_j x^j$$

From this expansion, and Lucas' theorem, note that the only exponents j that occur on the left hand side are those with $j=0,1 \mod n$. Therefore

$$\hat{\pi}_{an-1} = xG_0^n + G_1^n,$$

where G_0 and G_1 are polynomials of degree at most aq-q/n-a. We proceed to show that in fact $\hat{\pi}_{an-1} = (x - x^{q^2})G_0^n$. Recall that Lemma 2.1 implies $\hat{\pi}_{an-1}$ is divisible by $x - x^{q^2}$. Indeed, if it is not, then (q+1)|an-1, but this implies $a \ge q+1-q/n$. Hence

$$x - x^{q^2} \mid xG_0^n + G_1^n.$$

We now use a trick essentially due to Rédei ([4], Section 33), and raise the right hand side to the q^2/n -th power, then simplify using the divisibility relation $x-x^{q^2}|G_i^{q^2}-G_i$ to obtain

$$x - x^{q^2} | x^{q^2/n} G_0 + G_1.$$

The polynomials G_0 and G_1 both have degree at most $aq-q/n-a \leq q^2-q^2/n-q/n-q$ q+q/n so the right hand side has degree less than q^2 and therefore is identically zero. So $G_1 = -x^{q^2/n}G_0$ and we have proved that

$$\hat{\pi}_{an-1} = (x - x^{q^2})G_0^n$$

One may check, directly from the definition, that

$$G_1 = \sum_{j=n}^{aq-q/n-a} \binom{aqn-q-an+1}{jn} \pi_{nj}^{1/n} x^j$$

Note that $\pi_{jn}^{1/n} = \pi_j$ and $\binom{aqn-q-an+1}{jn} = \binom{aq-q/n-a}{jn}$ We now proceed to show that in fact $G_1 \equiv 0$. In other words, we want to show that for all j, $\binom{aq-q/n-a}{j} \neq 0$ implies that $\pi_j = 0$.

Define the (cyclic) shift operator s on k with $0 \le k \le q^2 - 1$ by $s(q^2 - 1) = q^2 - 1$ and $s(k) = pk \mod q^2 - 1$ otherwise. So what s does is cycle the p-ary digits of k. Then it follows immediately from Lucas' theorem that $\begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} s(u) \\ s(v) \end{pmatrix}$, (for $0 \le u, v < q^2$). Moreover we have $\pi_{s(u)} = \pi_u^p$ and so $\pi_u = 0$ if and only if $\pi_{s(u)} = 0$. It follows that it is sufficient to prove that

$$\binom{s^{e-h}(aq-q/n-a)}{k}\dot{\pi}_k = 0$$

for all $k (= s^{e-h}j)$. Here e and h come from $q = p^h$ and $n = p^e$, and the effect of s^{e-h} is essentially dividing by q/n modulo $q^2 - 1$. If we write $q - a = \alpha(q/n) + \beta$, with $0 \le \beta < q/n$, then $0 < \alpha(< n)$, since $a \le q - q/n$. Using this we get

$$s^{e-n}(aq-q/n-a) = (a-1)n + \alpha - 1 + \beta qn = mq - m - 1,$$

where $m = \beta n + n - \alpha$. In particular m < q and $m \neq 0 \mod n$, so that the desired equality is exactly equation (6) from the previous section.

5. Calculation of
$$\hat{\pi}_{i(q+1)}$$
 and $\hat{\pi}_{i(q+1)+n}$ for $i < n$

Recall that H_k stands for the k-th Hasse derivative with respect to x. We will write $z = x - x^{q^2}$. Note that by the chain rule $H_k(f(1-x)) = (-1)^k H_k(f)(1-x)$.

Lemma 5.1.

$$H_{i-1}\left(\frac{z^{i}}{x}\right) = 1 - x^{i(q^{2}-1)} \text{ for } i \le q^{2}.$$

Proof.

$$H_{i-1}\left(\frac{z^{i}}{x}\right) = H_{i-1}\left(\sum_{j=0}^{i}(-1)^{j}\binom{i}{j}x^{j(q^{2}-1)+i-1}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{j=0}^{i}(-1)^{j}\binom{i}{j}\binom{j(q^{2}-1)+i-1}{i-1}x^{j(q^{2}-1)}.$$

But if $0 < j < i \le q^2$, then $\binom{j(q^2-1)+i-1}{i-1} = \binom{i-j-1}{i-1} = 0$.

Substituting 1-x for x changes z into -z and gives us $H_{i-1}(z^i/(1-x)) = (1-x)^{i(q^2-1)}-1$. Writing $z/(1-x) = \sum_{j=1}^{q^2-1} x^j$ we see that $H_{i-1}(z^{i-1}x^j)$ is the part of $(1-x)^{i(q^2-1)}-1$ that has exponent $\equiv j \mod (q^2-1)$ (for $1 \le j \le q^2-1$). Since $b^j = b^{j+q^2-1}$ for $b \in GF(q^2)$ it follows that

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$$\sum_{b \in \mathcal{B}} \left((1 - bx)^{i(q^2 - 1)} - 1 \right) = \sum_{j=1}^{q^2 - 1} \pi_j H_{i-1} \left(z^{i-1} x^j \right).$$

Lemma 5.2.

$$\hat{\pi}_{i(q+1)} = H_{i-1}\left(z^{i-1}\hat{\pi}_{q+1}\right).$$

Proof. Since $|\mathcal{B}| \equiv 0 \mod p$ we may write $\hat{\pi}_{i(q+1)} = \sum_{b \in \mathcal{B}} \left((1-bx)^{i(q^2-1)} - 1 \right)$ and the result now follows by using the identity above and the expansion (2) of $\hat{\pi}_{q+1}$.

$$H_{i-1}\left(z^{i-1}x^{q^2-1+nj}\right) = x^{i(q^2-1)+nj} \text{ for } 0 < i \le n.$$

Proof.

$$H_{i-1}\left(z^{i-1}x^{a}\right) = \sum_{m=0}^{i-1} (-1)^{m} \binom{i-1}{m} \binom{m(q^{2}-1)+i-1+a}{i-1} x^{m(q^{2}-1)+a}$$

For $a = q^2 - 1 + nj$ the second binomial coefficient equals $\binom{i-1-m-1}{i-1}$ and only the term with m=i-1 gives a non-zero contribution.

Substituting again 1-x for x, yields

$$H_{i-1}\left(z^{i-1}(1-x)^{q^2-1+nj}\right) = (1-x)^{i(q^2-1)+nj}.$$

In the same way as before this gives

Lemma 5.4.

$$\hat{\pi}_{i(q+1)+n} = H_{i-1}\left(z^{i-1}\hat{\pi}_{q+1+n}\right).$$

For the special case i=1 this does not give anything. This case is settled by Lemma 5.5.

$$\hat{\pi}_{q+1+n} = z\hat{\sigma}'_n.$$

Proof. Lemma 2.1 says that z divides $\hat{\pi}_{q+1+n}$ and modulo x^{q^2}

$$\hat{\pi}_{q+1+n} - x\hat{\sigma}'_n = \sum_{k=1}^{q^2-1} \left[\binom{n(q-1)-1}{k} + \binom{n(q-1)-1}{k-1} \right] (-1)^k \pi_k x^k,$$

but $\binom{n(q-1)}{k} \pi_k = 0$ for all k (5).

6. Proof of the theorem

Let z and H_k be as before. Note for $k < q^2$ and $k \le m$ that $H_k(z^m) = \binom{m}{k} z^{m-k}$. We will be interested in expressions modulo z^2 . In that case $H_k(z^k f) \equiv f + kzf' \mod z^2$ and if f is divisible by z, then $H_k(z^k f) \equiv (k+1)f \mod z^2$.

Consider the Newton identity $\hat{N}(|\mathcal{B}|+n-1)$ (note that $\hat{\sigma}_{|\mathcal{B}|+n-1}\equiv 0$),

$$\sum_{j=1}^{nq-q+2n-1} (-1)^{j-1} \hat{\pi}_j \hat{\sigma}_{(n-1)(q+1)+n-j} \equiv 0$$

Multiplying this equation by $\hat{\sigma}_n$ and considering the terms modulo z^2 , the divisibility relations in Lemma 2.1, together with the fact that $\hat{\pi}_{an-1} \equiv 0$ for $a \leq q-q/n$ imply

$$\hat{\sigma}_n \hat{\pi}_{(n-1)(q+1)+n} - \hat{\sigma}_n^2 \hat{\pi}_{(n-1)(q+1)} \equiv 0 \pmod{z^2}.$$

Using the results of the previous section it follows that $\hat{\pi}_{(n-1)(q+1)} = \hat{\pi}_{q+1} + (n-2)z\pi'_{q+1} \mod z^2$ and $\hat{\pi}_{(n-1)(q+1)+n} = (n-1)z\hat{\sigma}'_n \mod z^2$. Since $n \equiv 0 \mod p$,

$$-z\hat{\sigma}'_n\hat{\sigma}_n - \hat{\pi}_{q+1}\hat{\sigma}_n^2 + 2z\hat{\pi}'_{q+1}\hat{\sigma}_n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{z^2}.$$

The first two terms cancel since $z\hat{\sigma}'_n = -\hat{\pi}_{q+1}\hat{\sigma}_n$ (7). The third term can be reduced using the same expression and its derivative

$$\hat{\pi}_{q+1}'\sigma_n = -\hat{\pi}_{q+1}\hat{\sigma}_n' - \hat{\sigma}_n' \pmod{z}$$

to give $2z\hat{\sigma}'_n\hat{\sigma}_n \mod z^2$. Therefore

$$\left(\hat{\sigma}_n^2\right)' \equiv 0 \pmod{z}.$$

Since the degree of $\hat{\sigma}_n$ is at most n(q-1) it follows that $(\hat{\sigma}_n^2)' \equiv 0$.

Now $\hat{\sigma}_n = BQ$, and Q is a p-th power, so $(B^2)' \equiv 0$. Hence B^2 is a p-th power. For $p \neq 2$ this implies that B is a p-th power which is a contradiction, since B has qn-q+n distinct linear factors.

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