# 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  $k < 1 + (q+1)(n-1) = qn - q + n$  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  $n | q$  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  $(n,a) = (3,3<sup>h</sup>)$ . 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  $(a-b)^{q-1} = (a+c)^{q-1}$  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  $a = a_0 + a_1p + a_2p^2 + \dots$  and  $b = b_0 + b_1p + b_2p^2 + \dots$  be the *p*-ary expansion of the numbers a and b, where  $\overrightarrow{b}$  is a non-negative integer. Then

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

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

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

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  $H_k(x^n)=(\frac{n}{k})x^{n-k}$  if  $k\leq n$ , and 0 otherwise. If f and g are two polynomials then:

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

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  $\mathcal{B}^{[-1]} = \{1/b | b \in \mathcal{B}\}$ . 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  $\sigma_k$  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

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

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} | 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  $x_0 \in \mathcal{B}^{[-1]}$  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  $\mathcal{B}$ , so that the multiset  $\{(1/x_0-b)^{q-1}\}\)$  consists of every  $(q+1)$ -st root of unity repeated  $n-1$ times, together with the element 0. This gives

$$
F(t,x_0) = \prod_{b \in \mathcal{B}_1} (1 - (1/x_0 - b)^{q-1} x_0^{q-1} t) = (1 - x_0^{q^2 - 1} t^{q+1})^{n-1} = (1 - t^{q+1})^{n-1}.
$$

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  $\hat{\sigma}_n(0) = \binom{|\mathcal{B}|}{n} = \binom{nq-q+n}{n} = 1$ , 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  $n(q-1) - nq + q - n = q - 2n$ .

 $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)$  ,  $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)$  ,  $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)$  ,

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

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

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

**Proof.** Unless  $n \mid k$  or  $(q+1) \mid k$ ,  $\hat{\sigma}_k$  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  $B\vert \hat{\sigma}_n$  we get the divisibility relation  $(x-x^{q^2})\vert \hat{\sigma}_n\hat{\sigma}_k$  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*|*n*. If  $(q+1)$ <sub>k</sub> 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  $\pi$  and the symmetric functions  $\sigma$  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  $k > 0$ . 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  $(1 - bx)^{-1} =$  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b^j x^j$ .

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  $n|k$ . 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

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

Expanding the bracket using the Binomial theorem gives

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

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

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

This gives  ${mq-m-1 \choose k-1} \pi_k = 0$  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) 
$$
{mq-m \choose k} \pi_k = 0 \text{ for } m < q \text{ and all } k.
$$

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

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

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

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

From  $\hat{\pi}_1 = \sum_{i=0}^{q-1} \pi_i x^j \equiv 0$  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  $\sigma_k$ 's and the  $\pi_k$ 's it follows that  $\sigma_j = 0$  for  $j < q$  unless  $p|j$  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  $k=-1 \mod n$  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

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

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  $a \geq q+1-q/n$ . Hence

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

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  $aq-q/n-a \leq q^2-q^2/n-q/n$  $q+q/n$  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

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

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

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

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  $0 \leq \beta \leq q/n$ , then  $0 \leq \alpha \leq n$ , since  $a \leq q-q/n$ . Using this we get

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

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  $H_k(f(1-x))=(-1)^kH_k(f)(1-x)$ .

**Lemma 5.1.** 

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

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  $0 < j < i \leq q^2$ , 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  $1 \leq j \leq q^2-1$ ). Since  $b^j=b^{j+q^2-1}$  for  $b\in GF(q^2)$  it follows that

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

**Lemma 5.2.** 

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

**Proof.** Since  $|\mathcal{B}| \equiv 0 \text{ mod } p$  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  $\hat{\pi}_{q+1}$ . Lemma 5.3.

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

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  $k \leq m$  that  $H_k(z^m) = {m \choose k} z^{m-k}$ . We will be interested in expressions modulo  $z^2$ . In that case  $H_k(z^k f) \equiv f+kz f'$  mod  $z^2$  and if f is divisible by z, then  $H_k(z^k f) \equiv (k+1)f \bmod z^2$ .

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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