

On 6-Figures in Finite Klingenberg Planes of parameters (p^{2k-1}, p)

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Abstract—In this paper, we deal with finite projective Klingenberg plane $M(\mathcal{A})$ coordinatized by local ring $\mathcal{A} := \mathbf{Z}_q + \mathbf{Z}_q\varepsilon$ (where prime power $q = p^k$, $\varepsilon \notin \mathbf{Z}_q$ and $\varepsilon^2 = 0$). So, we get some combinatorial results on 6-figures. For example, we show that there exist $p - 1$ 6-figure classes in $M(\mathcal{A})$.

Keywords—finite Klingenberg plane, 6-figure, ratio of 6-figure, cross-ratio.

I. INTRODUCTION

Projective Klingenberg and Hjelmslev planes (more briefly: PK-planes and PH-planes, resp.) are generalizations of ordinary projective planes. These structures were introduced by Klingenberg in [15], [16]. As for finite PK-planes, these structures introduced by Drake and Lenz in [12] have been investigated in detail by Bacon in [4].

In our previous papers [1], [9], [10] we have studied a certain class (which we will denote by $M(\mathcal{A})$) of Moufang-Klingenberg (briefly, MK) planes coordinatized by an local alternative ring $\mathcal{A} := \mathbf{A}(\varepsilon) = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}\varepsilon$ of dual numbers (an alternative ring \mathbf{A} , $\varepsilon \notin \mathbf{A}$ and $\varepsilon^2 = 0$) introduced by Blunck in [7]. So, we have obtained many results related to 6-figures. For more detailed information about 6-figures and their properties, the reader is referred to the papers of [8] in the case of Desarguesian planes and [11] in the case of Moufang planes.

In the present paper we are interested in finite PK-plane $M(\mathcal{A})$ obtained by taking local ring \mathbf{Z}_q (where q is a prime power) instead of \mathbf{A} . So, we will get some combinatorial result related to 6-figures.

II. PRELIMINARIES

Let $M = (\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{L}, \in, \sim)$ consist of an incidence structure $(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{L}, \in)$ (points, lines, incidence) and an equivalence relation ' \sim ' (neighbour relation) on \mathbf{P} and on \mathbf{L} . Then M is called a *projective Klingenberg plane* (PK-plane), if it satisfies the following axioms:

(PK1) If P, Q are two non-neighbour points, then there is a unique line PQ through P and Q .

(PK2) If g, h are two non-neighbour lines, then there is a unique point $g \cap h$ on both g and h .

(PK3) There is a projective plane $M^* = (\mathbf{P}^*, \mathbf{L}^*, \in)$ and incidence structure epimorphism $\Psi : M \rightarrow M^*$, such that the conditions

$$\Psi(P) = \Psi(Q) \Leftrightarrow P \sim Q, \quad \Psi(g) = \Psi(h) \Leftrightarrow g \sim h$$

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hold for all $P, Q \in \mathbf{P}$, $g, h \in \mathbf{L}$.

PK-plane M is called a *projective Hjelmslev plane* (PH-plane) if M furthermore provides the following axioms:

(PH1) If P, Q are two neighbour points, then there are at least two lines through P and Q .

(PH2) If g, h are two neighbour lines, then there are at least two points on both g and h .

A *Moufang-Klingenberg plane* (MK-plane) is a PK-plane M that generalizes a Moufang plane, and for which M^* is a Moufang plane (for the details see [3]).

A point $P \in \mathbf{P}$ is called *near* a line $g \in \mathbf{L}$ iff there exists a line h such that $P \in h$ for some line $h \sim g$.

An incidence structure automorphism preserving and reflecting the neighbour relation is called a *collineation* of M .

Now we give the definition of an n -gon, which is meaningful when $n \geq 3$: An n -tuple of pairwise non-neighbour points is called an (ordered) *n -gon* if no three of its elements are on neighbour lines [9].

An *alternative ring (field)* \mathbf{R} is a not necessarily associative ring (field) that satisfies the alternative laws $a(ab) = a^2b$, $(ba)a = ba^2$, $\forall a, b \in \mathbf{R}$. An alternative ring \mathbf{R} with identity element 1 is called *local* if the set \mathbf{I} of its non-unit elements is an ideal.

We summarize some basic concepts about the coordinatization of MK-planes from [5].

Let \mathbf{R} be a local alternative ring. Then $M(\mathbf{R}) = (\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{L}, \in, \sim)$ is the incidence structure with neighbour relation defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P} &= \{(x, y, 1) : x, y \in \mathbf{R}\} \\ &\cup \{(1, y, z) : y \in \mathbf{R}, z \in \mathbf{I}\} \\ &\cup \{(w, 1, z) : w, z \in \mathbf{I}\} \\ \mathbf{L} &= \{(m, 1, p) : m, p \in \mathbf{R}\} \\ &\cup \{(1, n, p) : p \in \mathbf{R}, n \in \mathbf{I}\} \\ &\cup \{(q, n, 1) : q, n \in \mathbf{I}\} \\ [m, 1, p] &= \{(x, xm + p, 1) : x \in \mathbf{R}\} \\ &\cup \{(1, zp + m, z) : z \in \mathbf{I}\} \\ [1, n, p] &= \{(yn + p, y, 1) : y \in \mathbf{R}\} \\ &\cup \{(zp + n, 1, z) : z \in \mathbf{I}\} \\ [q, n, 1] &= \{(1, y, yn + q) : y \in \mathbf{R}\} \\ &\cup \{(w, 1, wq + n) : w \in \mathbf{I}\} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} P &= (x_1, x_2, x_3) \sim (y_1, y_2, y_3) = Q \\ \Leftrightarrow x_i - y_i &\in \mathbf{I} \quad (i = 1, 2, 3), \forall P, Q \in \mathbf{P} \\ g &= [x_1, x_2, x_3] \sim [y_1, y_2, y_3] = h \\ \Leftrightarrow x_i - y_i &\in \mathbf{I} \quad (i = 1, 2, 3), \forall g, h \in \mathbf{L}. \end{aligned}$$

Baker *et al.* [3] use $(O = (0, 0, 1), U = (1, 0, 0), V = (0, 1, 0), E = (1, 1, 1))$ as a coordinatization 4-gon. We stick to this notation throughout this paper. For more detailed information about the coordinatization see [3] and [5]. Now it is time to give the following theorem from [3].

Theorem 2.1: $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{R})$ is an MK-plane, and each MK-plane is isomorphic to some $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{R})$.

Let \mathbf{A} be an alternative field and $\notin \mathbf{A}$. Consider $\mathcal{A} := \mathbf{A}(\) = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}$ with componentwise addition and multiplication as follows:

$$(a_1 + a_2)(b_1 + b_2) = a_1b_1 + (a_1b_2 + a_2b_1),$$

where $a_i, b_i \in \mathbf{A}, i = 1, 2$. Then \mathcal{A} is an alternative ring with ideal $\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}$ of non-units. For more detailed information about MK-planes $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$ coordinatized by an local alternative ring $\mathcal{A} := \mathbf{A}(\) = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}$, see the papers of [7], [9], [1].

Theorem 2.2: If \mathbf{R} is a (not necessarily commutative) local ring then $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{R})$ is a PK-plane (cf. [13, Theorem 4.1]).

Drake and Lenz [12, Proposition 2.5] observed that the following corollary is true for PK-planes. This corollary is a generalization of results which are given for PH-planes by Kleinfeld [14, Theorem 1] and Lüneburg [17, Satz 2.11].

Corollary 2.3: Let $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{R})$ be PK-plane. Then there are natural numbers t and r which are called the parametres of $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{R})$ and they are uniquely determined by incidence structure of a finite PK-plane [12, Proposition 2.7], with

- 1) every point (line) has t^2 neighbours;
- 2) given a point P and a line l with $P \in l$, there exist exactly t points on l which are neighbours to P and exactly t lines through P which are neighbours to l ;
- 3) Let r be order of the projective plane \mathbf{M}^* . If $t \neq 1$ we have $r \leq t$ (then \mathbf{M} is called *proper*; we have $t = 1$ iff \mathbf{M} is an ordinary projective plane)
- 4) every point (line) is incident with $t(r + 1)$ lines (points);
- 5) $|\mathbf{P}| = |\mathbf{L}| = t^2(r^2 + r + 1)$.

Now consider ring \mathbf{Z}_q where prime power $q = p^k$. We can state the elements of \mathbf{Z}_q as $\mathbf{Z}_q = U' \cup I$ where U' is the set of units of \mathbf{Z}_q and I is the set of non-units of \mathbf{Z}_q . Here it is clear that $I = \{0p, 1p, 2p, \dots, (p^{k-1} - 1)p\}$ and so $|I| = p^{k-1}$. Let $\notin \mathbf{Z}_q$. Then $\mathcal{A} := \mathbf{Z}_q + \mathbf{Z}_q$ with componentwise addition and multiplication above is a local ring with ideal $\mathbf{I} := I + \mathbf{Z}_q$ of non-units, $|\mathbf{I}| = (p^{k-1})p^k$. Note that the set of units of \mathcal{A} is $\mathbf{U} := U' + \mathbf{Z}_q$ and $|\mathbf{U}| = (p^k - p^{k-1})p^k = (p - 1)p^{2k-1}$. Since \mathcal{A} is a proper local ring and $\mathcal{A}/\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{Z}_p$, Ψ induces an incidence structure epimorphism from finite PK-plane $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$

onto the Desarguesian projective plane (with order p) coordinatized by the field \mathbf{Z}_p . So, we can give the following corollary from [2].

Corollary 2.4: For finite PK-plane $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$, the parameters t and r in Corollary 2.3 are equal to p^{2k-1} and p , respectively.

A local ring \mathbf{R} is called a *Hjelmslev ring* (briefly, H-ring) if it satisfies the following two conditions:

(HR1) \mathbf{I} consists of two-sided zero divisor.

(HR2) For $a, b \in \mathbf{I}$, one has $a \in b\mathbf{R}$ or $b \in a\mathbf{R}$, and also $a \in \mathbf{R}b$ or $b \in \mathbf{R}a$.

By the last definition, we can say that \mathcal{A} is not, in general, a H-ring [2]. From now on we assume $\text{char } \mathbf{Z}_q \neq 2$ and also we restrict ourselves to finite PK-plane $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A}) = (\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{L}, \in, \sim)$ coordinatized by the local ring $\mathcal{A} := \mathbf{Z}_q + \mathbf{Z}_q$, with neighbour relation defined above.

III. 6-FIGURES IN $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$

Now we carry over some concepts related to 6-figures to the $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$, in view of the papers of [9], [1]. So, we will get some combinatoric results on 6-figures in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$.

A *6-figure* is a sequence of six non-neighbour points $(ABC, A_1B_1C_1)$ such that (A, B, C) is 3-gon, and $A_1 \in BC, B_1 \in CA, C_1 \in AB$. The points A, B, C, A_1, B_1, C_1 are called vertices of this 6-figure. The 6-figures $(ABC, A_1B_1C_1)$ and $(DEF, D_1E_1F_1)$ are *equivalent* if there exists a collineation of $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$ which transforms A, B, C, A_1, B_1, C_1 to D, E, F, D_1, E_1, F_1 respectively.

Now we need the following theorem from [9].

Theorem 3.1: Let $\mu = (ABC, A_1B_1C_1)$ be a 6-figure in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$. Then, there is an $m \in \mathbf{U}$ such that μ is equivalent to $(UV, O, (0, 1, 1)(1, 0, 1)(1, m, 0))$ where $U = (1, 0, 0), V = (0, 1, 0), O = (0, 0, 1)$ are elements of the coordinatization basis of $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$.

6-figures $\mu = (ABC, A_1B_1C_1)$ and $\nu = (DEF, D_1E_1F_1)$ are *neighbour* if the points A, B, C, A_1, B_1, C_1 are neighbour to the points D, E, F, D_1, E_1, F_1 ; respectively.

Now, by the last definition and Theorem 3.1, we can give the following corollary without proof.

Corollary 3.2: 6-figures $\mu = (ABC, A_1B_1C_1)$ and $\nu = (DEF, D_1E_1F_1)$ are neighbour if $m_1 \in \mathbf{U}$ corresponding to μ and $m_2 \in \mathbf{U}$ corresponding to ν are neighbour.

So, we have the following

Corollary 3.3: There are $p-1$ 6-figures class in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$. The classes are those: $m = 1, m = 2, \dots, m = p-1$ where the elements in neighbour of any m are $m + \mathbf{Z}_q, 1p + m + \mathbf{Z}_q, 2p + m + \mathbf{Z}_q, \dots, (p^{k-1} - 1)p + m + \mathbf{Z}_q$.

Proof: We can classify 6 figures in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$ by the number of the elements of \mathbf{U} . But, when it is considered the neighbours

of the elements in \mathbf{U} this number becomes $p - 1$. Hence, we obtain $p-1$ 6-figure classes in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$. We can show the classes as $m = 1, m = 2, \dots, m = p - 1$ where the elements in neighbour of any m are $m + \mathbf{Z}_q, 1p + m + \mathbf{Z}_q, 2p + m + \mathbf{Z}_q, \dots, (p^{k-1} - 1)p + m + \mathbf{Z}_q$. ■

Theorem 3.4: There are totally

$$\left((p^2 + p + 1) (p^{2k-1})^2 \right) \left((p^2 + p) (p^{2k-1})^2 \right) \left(p^2 (p^{2k-1})^2 \right) \left((p - 1) p^{2k-1} \right)^3$$

6-figures in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$.

Proof: First if we calculate the total number of 6-figures in projective plane of order p , we have differently $(p^2 + p + 1) (p^2 + p) p^2 (p - 1)^3$ 6-figures by depending on the choices of the points of a 6-figure. Finally if we consider the neighbour relation in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$, that is, we consider Corollary 2.3 and 2.4 then the proof is clear. ■

Then, as a result of Corollary 3.3 and Theorem 3.4 we have immediately the following

Corollary 3.5: The number of 6-figures corresponding to an $m \in \mathbf{U}$ is

$$(p^2 + p + 1) (p^2 + p) p^2 (p - 1)^2 (p^{2k-1})^8.$$

Proof: Since there are totally

$$\left((p^2 + p + 1) (p^{2k-1})^2 \right) \left((p^2 + p) (p^{2k-1})^2 \right) \left(p^2 (p^{2k-1})^2 \right) \left((p - 1) p^{2k-1} \right)^3$$

6-figures in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$ and $|\mathbf{U}| = (p - 1) p^{2k-1}$ then the proof is clear. ■

Now we need the following theorem, one of the main results of [2].

Theorem 3.6: The 6-figures $(ABC, A_1 B_1 C_1), (BCA, B_1 C_1 A_1), (CAB, C_1 A_1 B_1)$ are equivalent.

As a result of Corollary 3.5 and Theorem 3.6 we can state the following

Corollary 3.7: The number $(p^2 + p + 1)(p^2 + p)p^2 (p - 1)^2 (p^{2k-1})^8$ is divided by 3.

Blunck [7] gives the following algebraic definition of the cross-ratio for the points on the line $g := [1, 0, 0]$ in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$.

$$\begin{aligned} (A, B; C, D) &:= (a, b; c, d) \\ &= \langle (a - d)^{-1} (b - d) \rangle \langle (b - c)^{-1} (a - c) \rangle > \\ (S, B; C, D) &:= (s^{-1}, b; c, d) \\ &= \langle (1 - ds)^{-1} (b - d) \rangle \langle (b - c)^{-1} (1 - cs) \rangle > \\ (A, S; C, D) &:= (a, s^{-1}; c, d) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \langle (a - d)^{-1} (1 - ds) \rangle \langle (1 - cs)^{-1} (a - c) \rangle > \\ (A, B; S, D) &:= (a, b; s^{-1}, d) \\ &= \langle (a - d)^{-1} (b - d) \rangle \langle (1 - sb)^{-1} (1 - sa) \rangle > \\ (A, B; C, S) &:= (a, b; c, s^{-1}) \\ &= \langle (1 - sa)^{-1} (1 - sb) \rangle \langle (b - c)^{-1} (a - c) \rangle >, \end{aligned}$$

where $A = (0, a, 1), B = (0, b, 1), C = (0, c, 1), D = (0, d, 1), Z = (0, 1, s)$ are pairwise non-neighbour points of g and $\langle x \rangle = \{y^{-1}xy \mid y \in \mathcal{A}\}$.

The following theorem, the analogue of the theorem given in [1], states a simple way for the calculation of the cross-ratio of the points on any line l in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$.

Theorem 3.8: According to types of lines, the cross-ratio of the points on the line l can be calculated as follows:

If A, B, C, D and S are the pairwise non-neighbour points

- (a) of the line $l = [m, 1, p]$ where $A = (a, am + p, 1), B = (b, bm + p, 1), C = (c, cm + p, 1), D = (d, dm + p, 1)$ are not near the line UV and $S = (1, m + sp, s) \sim UV$,
- (b) of the line $l = [1, n, p]$ where $A = (an + p, a, 1), B = (bn + p, b, 1), C = (cn + p, c, 1), D = (dn + p, d, 1)$ are not neighbour to V and $S = (n + sp, 1, s) \sim V$,
- (c) of the line $l = [q, n, 1]$ where $A = (1, a, q + an), B = (1, b, q + bn), C = (1, c, q + cn), D = (1, d, q + dn)$ are not near to V and $S = (s, 1, sq + n) \sim V$,

then

$$\begin{aligned} (A, B; C, D) &= (a, b; c, d) \\ (S, B; C, D) &= (s^{-1}, b; c, d) \\ (A, S; C, D) &= (a, s^{-1}; c, d) \\ (A, B; S, D) &= (a, b; s^{-1}, d) \\ (A, B; C, S) &= (a, b; c, s^{-1}). \end{aligned}$$

Let $\mu = (ABC, A_1 B_1 C_1)$ be a 6-figure in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$. Let $A^c = BC \cap B_1 C_1, B^c = CA \cap C_1 A_1, C^c = AB \cap A_1 B_1$. The 6-figure $(ACB, A^c C^c B^c)$ is called the first codescendant of μ , written μ^c . μ is called a first coancestor of μ^c .

So we can give the following Lemma from [1].

Lemma 3.1: If $\mu = (ABC, A_1 B_1 C_1) = (UV O, (0, 1, 1) (1, 0, 1) (1, m, 0))$, then

$$\begin{aligned} (A, B; C_1, C^c) &= (B, C; A_1, A^c) \\ &= (C, A; B_1, B^c) = \langle -m \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

We are now ready to state the definition of the ratio of a 6-figure. The conjugacy class $\langle (A, B; C_1, C^c) \rangle$ is called the ratio of the 6-figure $\mu = (ABC, A_1 B_1 C_1)$ and denoted by $r(\mu)$, that is, $r(\mu) = \langle m \rangle$.

$(ABC, A_1 B_1 C_1)$ is called a Menelaus 6-figure if A_1, B_1 and C_1 are collinear, and $(ABC, A_1 B_1 C_1)$ is called a Ceva 6-figure if AA_1, BB_1 and CC_1 are concurrent.

Now we give the following theorem from [1].

Theorem 3.9: μ is a Menelaus or Ceva 6-figure if and only if $r(\mu) = -1$ or $r(\mu) = 1$, respectively.

We immediately have

Corollary 3.10: Menelaus and Ceva 6-figures are belong to the class $m = p - 1$ and the class $m = 1$ where $p \neq 2$, respectively.

Proof: By Theorem 3.9 if μ is a Ceva 6-figure then $r(\mu) = 1 = m$ and also if μ is a Menelaus 6-figure then $r(\mu) = -1 = m$. For the proof it is enough to say that -1 is neighbour to $p - 1$. ■

From now on we call the class $m = 1$ as Ceva class and the class $m = p - 1$ as Menelaus class. Now we need following theorem from [6].

Theorem 3.11: Every cross-ratio consists only of elements of $\mathcal{A} \setminus (\{0, 1\} + \mathbf{I})$. Conversely, the conjugacy class of any such element appears as a cross-ratio; Given three pairwise non-neighbour points A, B, C and an element $r \in \mathcal{A} \setminus (\{0, 1\} + \mathbf{I})$, then there is a (unique if $r \in \mathbf{Z}(\)$) point D which is not neighbour to A, B and C with $(A, B; C, D) = \langle r \rangle$.

In $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$, any pairwise non-neighbour four points $A, B, C, D \in I$ are called as *harmonic* if $(A, B; C, D) = \langle -1 \rangle$ and we let $h(A, B, C, D)$ represent the statement: A, B, C, D are harmonic. Let $\mu = (ABC, A_1B_1C_1)$ be a 6-figure in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$. By the last theorem, there exist unique points $A_2 \in BC, B_2 \in CA, C_2 \in AB$ such that $h(A, B, C_1, C_2), h(B, C, A_1, A_2), h(C, A, B_1, B_2)$. The 6-figure $(ABC, A_2B_2C_2)$ is called the *conjugate* of μ , having symbol $-\mu$. Likewise μ is the conjugate of $-\mu$.

Let $C^d \in AB$ be the point such that C, C^d and $AA_1 \cap BB_1$ are collinear. Let $A^d \in BC$ and $B^d \in CA$ be the points such that A, A^d and $BB_1 \cap CC_1$ are collinear and B, B^d and $AA_1 \cap CC_1$ are collinear. The 6-figure $(ACB, A^dC^dB^d)$ is called the *first descendant* of μ , written μ^d . μ is called a *first ancestor* of μ^d .

Using the definitions of $-\mu, \mu^c$ and μ^d the following lemmas are obtained (see [1, Lemma 20] for the first Lemma and [10, Lemma 7] for the second Lemma).

Lemma 3.2: For any 6-figure μ we have

- (a) $(-\mu)^d = \mu^d$
- (b) $(\mu^d)^c = (\mu^c)^c = (UV\mathcal{O}, (0, -m^{-1}, 1)(-m, 0, 1)(1, -m^2, 0)),$

where $m \in \mathbf{U}$.

Lemma 3.3: For any 6-figure μ we have

- (a) $(-\mu)^c = \mu^c = (U\mathcal{O}V, (0, -m, 1)(1, -1, 0)(-m^{-1}, 0, 1))$
- (b) $(\mu^c)^d = (\mu^d)^d = (UV\mathcal{O}, (0, m^{-1}, 1)(m, 0, 1)(1, m^2, 0)),$

where $m \in \mathbf{U}$.

By using the results of the last two Lemmas and [10, Theorem 9] we can give the following theorem which gives the relation between the ratios of the 6-figures $\mu^{-1}, -\mu, \mu^d, \mu^c, (\mu^d)^d, (\mu^c)^c, (\mu^d)^c, (\mu^c)^d$ and μ .

Theorem 3.12: For any 6-figure μ we have

- (a) $r(\mu^{-1}) = (r(\mu))^{-1} = \langle m^{-1} \rangle$
- (b) $r(-\mu) = -r(\mu) = \langle -m \rangle$
- (c) $r((-\mu)^d) = r(\mu^d) = (r(\mu))^2 = \langle m^2 \rangle$
- (d) $r((-\mu)^c) = r(\mu^c) = -(r(\mu))^2 = \langle -m^2 \rangle$
- (e) $r((\mu^d)^c) = r((\mu^c)^c) = \langle -m^4 \rangle = -(r(\mu))^4$
- (f) $r((\mu^c)^d) = r((\mu^d)^d) = \langle m^4 \rangle = (r(\mu))^4,$

where $\langle x \rangle := \langle x^2 \rangle$ for any $x \in \mathbf{U}$ and $m \in \mathbf{U}$.

Proof: For the proof, it is enough to give the proof of (e) and (f). From (b) of Lemma 3.2, we know that $(\mu^d)^c = (\mu^c)^c = (UV\mathcal{O}, U'V'\mathcal{O}')$ where $U' = (0, -m^{-1}, 1), V' = (-m, 0, 1), \mathcal{O}' = (1, -m^2, 0)$. Ratio of this 6-figure are equal to cross-ratio $-(U, V; (1, -m^2, 0), \mathcal{O}^c)$, where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{O}^c = UV \cap U'V' &= [0, 0, 1] \cap [-m^{-2}, 1, -m^{-1}] \\ &= (1, -m^{-2}, 0). \end{aligned}$$

So, this cross-ratio is equal to

$$-\langle (1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0); (1, -m^2, 0), (1, -m^{-2}, 0) \rangle.$$

By (c) of Theorem 3.8, this is equal to $(0, 0^{-1}; -m^2, -m^{-2}) = -m^4$. Since the proof of (f) is similar to the proof of (e) the proof is completed. ■

As a direct result of Theorem 3.9 and Theorem 3.12 we have the following result.

Corollary 3.13: a) If μ is a Menelaus 6-figure then

- (i) $r(-\mu) = r(\mu^d) = r((\mu^c)^d) = r((\mu^d)^d) = \langle 1 \rangle,$ that is, $-\mu, \mu^d, (\mu^c)^d$ and $(\mu^d)^d$ 6-figures are in the Ceva class.
- (ii) $r(\mu^{-1}) = r(\mu^c) = r((\mu^d)^c) = r((\mu^c)^c) = \langle -1 \rangle,$ that is, $\mu^{-1}, \mu^c, (\mu^d)^c$ and $(\mu^c)^c$ 6-figures are in the Menelaus class.

b) If μ is a Ceva 6-figure, then

- (i) $r(-\mu) = r(\mu^c) = r((\mu^d)^c) = r((\mu^c)^c) = \langle -1 \rangle,$ that is, $-\mu, \mu^c, (\mu^d)^c$ and $(\mu^c)^c$ 6-figures are in the Menelaus class.
- (ii) $r(\mu^{-1}) = r(\mu^d) = r((\mu^c)^d) = r((\mu^d)^d) = \langle 1 \rangle,$ that is, $\mu^{-1}, \mu^d, (\mu^c)^d$ and $(\mu^d)^d$ 6-figures are in the Ceva class.

The following theorem is the analogue of Theorem 12 given in [10] for MK-planes $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$. This theorem we give without proof, tells the relation between the solvability of the equation $x^2 = m$ (or $x^2 = -m$) in \mathcal{A} where $m \in \mathbf{U}$ and the existence of the special 6-figure with ratio $\langle m \rangle$ in $\mathbf{M}(\mathcal{A})$. In other

words, this theorem provides a geometric property of $M(\mathcal{A})$ that is equal to the condition that every element in \mathbf{U} has a square root in \mathbf{U} .

Theorem 3.14: Let $m \in \mathbf{U}$. Then the equation $x^2 = m$ (or $x^2 = -m$) has a solution in \mathbf{U} if and only if any 6-figure μ with ratio $\langle m \rangle$ has ancestor (coancestor) in $M(\mathcal{A})$.

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