# Koszul algebras from graphs and hyperplane arrangements 

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## 1 Introduction

This work was started as an attempt to apply theory from noncommutative graded algebra to questions about the holonomy algebra of a hyperplane arrangement. We soon realized these algebras and their deformations form a class of quadratic graded algebras that have not been studied much and are interesting to algebra, arrangement theory and combinatorics.

Let $X$ be a topological space having homotopy type of a finite cell complex and $H_{*}(X)$ its homology coalgebra with coefficients in a field and comultiplication dual to the cup product. Then the holonomy Lie algebra $G_{X}$ of $X$ is the quotient of the free Lie algebra on $H_{1}(X)$ over the ideal generated by the image of the comultiplication $H_{2}(X) \rightarrow \Lambda^{2}\left(H_{1}(X)\right)$. The universal enveloping algebra $U(X)$ of $G_{X}$ is called the holonomy algebra of $X$.

Holonomy algebras were introduced to arrangement theory by T.Kohno in $[15,16]$. If $\mathcal{A}$ is an arrangement over $\mathbb{C}$, that is a set $\left\{H_{1}, \ldots, H_{n}\right\}$ of linear hyperplanes in a linear space $\mathbb{C}^{\ell}$ then put $X=\mathbb{C}^{\ell} \backslash \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} H_{i}$ and $U(\mathcal{A})=U(X)$. In [15], $U(\mathcal{A})$ is defined explicitly by generators and relations that can be read from the combinatorics of $\mathcal{A}$ (see Section 5). Recall that there is another graded algebra defined by the combinatorics of $\mathcal{A}$, the Orlik-Solomon algebra $A(\mathcal{A}),[20]$. A well known theorem of Brieskorn-Orlik-Solomon says $A(\mathcal{A})$ is isomorphic to $H^{*}(X, \mathbb{C})$.

In his papers, Kohno studied a complex, $\tilde{K}$, of free modules over $U(\mathcal{A})$ defined by $K_{p}=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{C}}\left(A(\mathcal{A})_{p}, U(\mathcal{A})\right)(p=0,1, \ldots)$ and $K_{-1}=\mathbb{C}$ (the Aomoto-Kohno complex). He proved the acyclicity of this complex for certain classes of reflection arrangements. He also proved that if this complex is acyclic then the Lower Central Series (LCS) formula holds:

$$
P(-t)=\prod_{n \geq 1}\left(1-t^{n}\right)^{\phi_{n}}
$$

where $P(t)$ is the Poincare polynomial of $X$ and $\phi_{n}$ are the ranks of successive quotients in the lower central series of its fundamental group. The LCS formula was later extended to all supersolvable arrangements (equivalently fiber-type) by Falk and Randell [9] (see also [13]). The acyclicity of the complex for arbitrary supersolvable arrangements remained open in spite of attempts to prove it (e.g., see [12] and correction in [13]).

We begin our work with the simple but crucial observation that the algebra $U(\mathcal{A})$ is dual (in the sense of Koszul algebra theory) to the quadratic closure $\bar{A}(\mathcal{A})$ of $A(\mathcal{A})$. Notice that the algebras $U(\mathcal{A})$ and $A(\mathcal{A})$ are defined over an arbitrary field $F$ and we substitute it for $\mathbb{C}$. Let $T$ be the free graded $F$-algebra on a set of degree one generators $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. All of our graded $F$-algebras will be graded quotients of such a $T$. The Koszul dual of a quadratic graded $F$-algebra $B$ is the quadratic graded $F$-algebra whose generating relations form an orthogonal complement in $T_{2}$ to the quadratic relations of $B$. This algebra is denoted $B^{!}$. The algebra $B$ is said to be Koszul if $B^{!}$is isomorphic to the cohomology ring of the trivial graded $B$ module $F=B / B_{>0}$. An immediate implication of our observation above is that the Aomoto-Kohno complex $\tilde{K}$ is never exact if $A(\mathcal{A})$ is not quadratic. Moreover, in the quadratic case the exactness of $\tilde{K}$ is equiva lent to $U(\mathcal{A})$ (equivalently $A(\mathcal{A})$ ) being a Koszul algebra.

To analyze the class of algebras $U(\mathcal{A})$ we use the idea of deformation theory, attempting to deform $U(\mathcal{A})$ into a simpler quadratic algebra. In particular, if there exists a monomial basis of $\bar{A}(\mathcal{A})$ such that the complementary set of monomials in the free algebra $T$ forms a an ideal generated in degree 2 , then there is a nice deformation of $U(\mathcal{A})$ into an algebra in a class of quadratic algebras we call graph algebras.

A graph algebra is an algebra given by a collection of relations of the form $x_{i} x_{j}-q_{i, j} x_{j} x_{i}=0, q_{i, j} \in F^{*}$. Graph algebras seem, by themselves, to form an interesting class of quadratic algebras. These algebras (at least for $q_{i, j}= \pm 1$ ) have appeared in the literature under different names (see [6, 10, 11, 14]) but no general results about their Koszul properties are known to us. We prove all such algebras are Koszul.

Now the success of the deformation method depends on the existence of a good monomial basis for the Orlik-Solomon algebras $A(\mathcal{A})$, as mentioned above. This problem was studied by Bjorner and Ziegler in [5]. It was shown there every supersolvable arrangement has such a basis. Moreover, it is known that for supersolvable arrangements $\bar{A}(\mathcal{A})=A(\mathcal{A})$. Using this, we give a deformation of $U(\mathcal{A}), U_{t}$, with the properties $U_{t} \cong U(\mathcal{A})$ for $t \neq 0$ and $U_{0}$ is a graph algebra. Now an application of a theorem of Drinfeld, [7], gives the Koszul property for $U(\mathcal{A})$ whenever $\mathcal{A}$ is a supersolvable arrangement.

Our presentation is outlined as follows. In section 2 we recall several equivalent definitions of the Koszul property and some basic results about

Koszul algebras. Section 3 defines graph algebras and proves such algebras are Koszul. We also recover here some interesting combinatorial information previously known from [10] and [11], see Corollary 3.11. Section 4 gives a generalization of the definitions and results of sections 3 to a larger class of algebras called generalized graph algebras. In section 5 we return to the study of arrangements. Here we recall the basic definitions of the algebras associated to an arrangement and prove the two main results: $A(\mathcal{A})$ must be quadratic for the complex $\tilde{K}$ to be exact and $U(\mathcal{A})$ is Koszul for all supersolvable arrangements. We conclude, in Section 6, with 3 examples of arrangements that are not supersolvable and which we analyze by more ad-hoc arguments. The last of these examples provides an open question.

The second author is indebted to T.Kohno for introducing him to holonomy algebras and to M.Falk, R..Hain and R.Stanley for useful discussions.

## 2 Koszul Algebras: Preliminaries

We collect in this section some of the basic results about Koszul Algebras, cf. [4], [3] and [19]. Let $F$ be a field and $V$ an $n$-dimensional vector space over $F$. We let $T=T(V)$ denote the full $F$-tensor algebra over $V$. Choosing a basis $x_{1} \ldots, x_{n}$ for $V$ we can write $T \cong F\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle$, the free $F$-algebra on $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. We use the usual grading on $T$ where $T_{1}=V$ and $T_{0}=F$. Fix an $F$-inner product on the space of 2-tensors $V \otimes V=T_{2}$. To ease the notation we will usually assume this is the standard inner product induced by the basis $x_{1} \ldots, x_{n}$.

Fix a homogeneous ideal $I$ of $T$ and let $U=U(I)$ be the graded algebra $T / I$. We may assume $I$ contains no non-zero elements of degree 1 and we say that $U$ is quadratic if $I$ is generated, as an ideal, by its elements of degree 2 . Since $T_{1} \rightarrow U_{1}$ is an isomorphism, we identify these spaces and use $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ to denote a basis of the space.

Definition 2.1 Let $U=U(I)$ be a quadratic algebra. Let $I_{2}^{1}$ be the orthogonal complement to $I_{2}$ in $V \otimes V$ and $I^{!}$the ideal of $T$ generated by $I_{2}^{!}$. The quadratic algebra $U^{!}=U\left(I^{!}\right)=T / I^{1}$ is called the Koszul dual of $U$.

We observe at once that $\left(U^{1}\right)^{!}=U$.
Definition 2.2 Let $U=U(I)$ be a quadratic algebra and let ${ }_{U} F$ be the trivial graded left $U$-module $U / U_{>0}$. The algebra $U$ is said to be Koszul if $U_{U} F$ admits a free graded resolution

$$
\cdots \rightarrow P^{i} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P^{1} \rightarrow P^{0} \rightarrow_{U} F \rightarrow 0
$$

such that $P^{i}$ is generated by its component of degree $i$.

There are many equivalent ways of expressing this definition. The following theorem collects some of these variations. We denote by $E(U)$ the graded cohomology algebra $E x t_{U}^{*}\left(U F,{ }_{U} F\right)$. For any graded $F$-vector space $M$ we denote the Hilbert Series of $M$ by $H(M, t):=\sum_{n} \operatorname{dim}_{F}\left(M_{n}\right) t^{n}$. The Koszul complex of $U$ is the sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow K_{i} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow K_{1} \rightarrow K_{0} \rightarrow_{U} F \rightarrow 0
$$

of free (except ${ }_{U} F$ ) left $U$-modules and their homomorphisms where $K_{i}=$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(U_{i}^{!}, U\right)$, and $d_{i}: K_{i} \rightarrow K_{i-1}$ is defined by $d_{i} f(a)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i} a\right) x_{i}$ for every $a \in U_{i-1}$.

Theorem 2.3 Let $U=U(I)$ be a quadratic algebra. The following statements are all equivalent.
(a) $U$ is Koszul.
(b) $U^{!}$is Koszul.
(c) $E(U)$ is a quadratic $F$-algebra generated as an algebra in degree 1 .
(d) $E(U) \cong U^{\mathrm{t}}$.
(e) The Koszul complex of $U$ is acyclic.
(f) $H(U, t) \cdot H(E(U),-t)=1$

The various equivalences of the theorem can be found in [3], [4], and [19]. Several more equivalent versions of the Koszul condition can also be found in these references.

Corollary 2.4 If $U$ is a Koszul algebra then $H(U, t) \cdot H\left(U^{!},-t\right)=1$.
It is not known if the converse to this corollary is true.

## 3 Graph algebras

Let $F$ be a field. Let $\Gamma$ be an edge-labelled graph (without loops or multiple edges) on $n$ vertices $1,2, \ldots, n$ with a set $E$ of edges. Each edge $\{i, j\}$ in $E$ is labelled by a non-zero field element $q_{i, j}$. We associate two $F$-algebras to $\Gamma$. Recall $T=\oplus_{d \geq 0} T_{d}$, the free $F$-algebra on $n$ generators $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, naturally graded. Define the ideal $I(\Gamma)$ of $T$

$$
I(\Gamma)=\left(x_{i} x_{j}-q_{i, j} x_{j} x_{i} \mid\{i, j\} \in E, i<j\right) .
$$

One checks that

$$
I(\Gamma)^{!}=I^{!}(\Gamma)=\left(x_{i} x_{j}, q_{k, l} x_{k} x_{l}+x_{l} x_{k} \mid\{i, j\} \notin E,\{k, l\} \in E, k<l\right)
$$

Notice that $x_{i}^{2} \in I^{!}(\Gamma)$ for every $i$. Then put

$$
U(\Gamma)=T / I(\Gamma), \quad A(\Gamma)=U^{!}(\Gamma)=T / I^{!}(\Gamma)
$$

Clearly both algebras are quadratic and dual to each other. Let $\Lambda(V)$ denote the exterior algebra on $V$ over $F$. We note that $A(\Gamma)$ is a deformation of the factor algebra $\Lambda(V) /\left(x_{i} x_{j} \mid\{i, j\} \notin E, i \neq j\right)$ and the two algebras have the same Hilbert series. In particular it follows, as for the exterior algebra, that $\operatorname{dim}_{F} A(\Gamma) \leq 2^{n}$.

Examples 3.1 1. Let $\Gamma$ be discrete, i.e., $E=\emptyset$. Then $U(\Gamma)=T$ and $A(\Gamma)=F \oplus V$ with zero multiplication on $V$.
2. Let $\Gamma$ be the complete graph $K_{n}$ with all labels $q_{i, j}=1$. Then $U(\Gamma)=$ $F\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ and $A(\Gamma)=\Lambda(V)$.
3. Let $\Gamma$ be the complete bipartite graph $K_{k, l}(k+l=n)$ and all labels $q_{k, l}=1$. Then $U(\Gamma)=T^{\prime} \otimes T^{\prime \prime}$ where $T^{\prime}$ and $T^{\prime \prime}$ are free algebras on $k$ and $l$ generators respectively. $A(\Gamma)$ is the exterior algebra on $n$ generators with extra relations of products of generators for a fixed $k$-subset of generators and its complement. Equivalently, $A(\Gamma)=A\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right) \otimes A\left(\Gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)$ where $\Gamma^{\prime}$ and $\Gamma^{\prime \prime}$ are discrete graphs on $k$ and $l$ vertices respectively and $\otimes$ is the operation Koszul dual to tensor multiplication (see [19]).
4. Let $n=2$ and assume $(1,2) \in E$. Set $q=q_{1,2}$. Then the algebra $U(\Gamma)$ is usually denoted $F_{q}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right]$. This ring is often referred to as the quantum line as it can be realized as the twisted homogeneous coordinate ring of projective one-space. Alternatively one may think of this ring as the set of polynomials $F\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right]$ with a new multiplicative structure, $\odot$, defined by $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \odot g\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=f\left(x_{1}, q^{-1} x_{2}\right) g\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ for all $f, g \in F\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right]$.

In the rest of the paper we will apply to $T$ the usual terminology from polynomial rings. For instance, each element $a$ of $T$ is the uniquely defined sum (with nonzero coefficients) of monomials. These monomials form the support $S(a)$ of $a$. If $S(a)$ has only two elements $a$ is a binomial. Note that $S(a)$ does not involve the coefficients of the monomials in $a$.

The fact that graph algebras form a manageable class is based on the following simple observation.

Lemma 3.2 Let $I=I(\Gamma)$. If $a \in I$ then $a=\sum a_{i}$ where each $a_{i}$ is $a$ binomial from $I$ and $S(a)=\cup_{i} S\left(a_{i}\right)$.

Proof. To write a given $a \in I$ as $a=\sum a_{i}$ where each $a_{i}$ is a binomial in $I$ is a triviality, since $I$ is generated by binomials. Moreover, the containment $S(a) \subset \bigcup S\left(a_{i}\right)$ is clear. It is the opposite containment that is not automatically true. Among all possible representations $a=\sum a_{i}$, choose one with a minimal number of terms, say $k$.

Let us prove $S\left(a_{k}\right) \subset S(a)$. Suppose not. Choose a monomial $\mu \in S\left(a_{k}\right)$ with $\mu \notin S(a)$. For each $i, 1 \leq i \leq k$, let $r_{i}$ be the coefficient of $\mu$ in the binomial $a_{i}$ (of course $r_{i}=0$ unless $\mu$ is one of the two elements of $S\left(a_{i}\right)$ ). Since $\mu \notin S(a)$ we must have $\sum_{i} r_{i}=0$. Define $b_{i}=a_{i}-r_{i}\left(r_{k}\right)^{-1} a_{k}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k-1$. By construction, each $b_{i}$ is a binomial in $I$ and $a=\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} b_{i}$. This contradicts the minimality of the representation $a=\sum_{i} a_{i}$ and proves the Lemma.

Let $a$ and $b$ be elements of $T$. We say $a$ and $b$ belong to the same projective coset of $l$, or are projectively congruent modulo $I$, if there exists non-zero scalars $\lambda$ and $\gamma$ with $\lambda a-\gamma b \in I$.

Corollary 3.3 Let I be as in Lemma 3.2. If $\mathcal{B}$ is a set of monomials of $T$, composed of exactly one element from each projective coset of $I$, then the image of $\mathcal{B}$ in $U=T / I$ under the standard projection is an $F$-basis of $U$.

Proof. Clearly $\mathcal{B}$ generates $U$ over $F$. The linear independence follows immediately from Lemma 3.2.

Now we need to fix a specific monomial basis of $U=U(\Gamma)$. To do this we impose a total order on the monomials of $T$ as follows. Let $\pi$ be the standard projection $T \rightarrow F\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$. We order the monomials of $F\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ first by degree and then by the inverse lexicographic order. Now if $\pi\left(\mu_{1}\right) \neq \pi\left(\mu_{2}\right)$ for monomials $\mu_{1}$ and $\mu_{2}$ from $T$ we say that $\mu_{1}<\mu_{2}$ whenever $\pi\left(\mu_{1}\right)<\pi\left(\mu_{2}\right)$. If, on the other hand, $\pi\left(\mu_{1}\right)=\pi\left(\mu_{2}\right)$, we use the inverse lexicographic order. Now we say that a monomial $\mu$ of $T$ is standard if $\mu$ is minimal among all the monomials in the same projective coset of $\mu$ modulo $l$. We will identify standard monomials with their images in $U$. By corollary 3.3, standard monomials form an $F$-basis of $U$ that we call the standard basis.

Another useful feature of the ideal $I(\Gamma)$ is the ease with which we can check if two monomials of $T$ are in the same projective coset. For each pair $(i, j)$ such that $1 \leq i<j \leq n$ denote by $\bar{\pi}_{i, j}$ the $F$-algebra homomorphism from $T$ to $F\left\langle x_{i}, x_{j}\right\rangle$ defined by evaluation of $x_{k}$ at 1 for every $k \neq i$ or $j$. For each pair $(i, j) \notin E$ we get an induced epimorphism $\pi_{i, j}: U(\Gamma) \rightarrow F\left\langle x_{i}, x_{j}\right\rangle$ and for each pair $(i, j) \in E$ we get an induced epimorphism $\pi_{i, j}: U(\Gamma) \rightarrow$ $F_{q}\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right]$ (where $q=q_{i, j}$ ).

Lemma 3.4 Two monomials $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ of $T$ are in the same projective coset modulo $I(\Gamma)$ if and only if $\pi_{i j}\left(m_{1}\right)$ and $\pi_{i j}\left(m_{2}\right)$ are projectively congruent modulo 0 for every pair $(i, j), 1 \leq i<j \leq n$.

Proof. The "only if-part" follows from $\pi_{i j}\left(m_{1}\right)=\pi_{i j}\left(m_{2}\right)$ for every gencrator $g=c_{1} m_{1}+c_{2} m_{2}\left(c_{1}, c_{2} \in F\right)$ of $I(\Gamma)$ and every pair $(i, j)$. Now suppose $\pi_{i j}\left(m_{1}\right)$ and $\pi_{i j}\left(m_{2}\right)$ are projectively congruent modulo 0 for every pair $(i, j)$ but $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ are not projectively congruent modulo $I(\Gamma)$. Changing
the monomials in their projective congruency classes one can assume they are both standard monomials. Write the monomials as $m_{1}=a_{1} x_{i} b$ and $m_{2}=a_{2} x_{j} b$ where $a_{1}, a_{2}$, and $b$ are some monomials of $T$ and $i \neq j$. One can assume that $i>j$. Then applying the condition for $(i, j)$ one can represent $a_{1}=a x_{j} x_{i_{1}} \cdots x_{i_{k}} x_{i} b$ for some monomial $a$ and some integers $k, i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}$. Applying the condition for the pairs $j, i_{r}(r=1, \ldots, k)$ and $(i, j)$ one sees that all these pairs belong to $E$, whence $m_{1}$ is projectively congruent to the monomial $m_{3}=a x_{i_{1}} \cdots x_{i_{k}} x_{i} x_{j} b$. Since $m_{3}<m_{1}$ this contradicts the assumption that $m_{1}$ is standard.

We now consider certain subalgebras of the algebra $U(\Gamma)$. Our first goal is to prove these subalgebras are quadratic. Let $J$ be a subset of the vertices of the graph $\Gamma$ and write $\Gamma_{J}$ for the complete subgraph of $\Gamma$ with vertices $J$. The graph $\Gamma_{J}$ also inherits the edge labels from $\Gamma$.

Lemma 3.5 Let $U_{J}(\Gamma)$ be the $F$-subalgebra of $U(\Gamma)$ generated by the set $\left\{x_{i} \mid i \in J\right\}$. Then the canonical epimorphism $\rho: U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right) \rightarrow U_{J}(\Gamma)$ is an isomorphism. In particular, $U_{J}(\Gamma)$ is a quadratic algebra.

Proof. Let $T_{J}$ be the subalgebra of $T$ generated by $\left\{x_{i} \mid i \in J\right\}$. It suffices to prove: $T_{J} \cap I(\Gamma)$ is generated, as an ideal of $T_{J}$, by its elements of degree two, i.e. $T_{J} \cap I(\Gamma)=I\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$. By Lemma 3.2, it suffices to consider binomials in $T_{J} \cap I(\Gamma)$. But then by Lemma 3.4, applied to $I\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$, it is clear that any such binomial must be in $I\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$.

With this Lemma in hand we will now identify $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ and $U_{J}(\Gamma)$. Now we must analyze $U(\Gamma)$ as right module over the subalgebras $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$.

Lemma 3.6 The algebra $U(\Gamma)$ is free as a right $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$-module for every subsel $J$ of the vertices.

Proof. Reordering if necessary, we may assume $J=\{1, \ldots, k\}$ for some $k, 1 \leq k \leq n-1$, (the case $k=n$ is trivial). Let $J^{\prime}=\{1, \ldots, k, k+1\}$. Assume $k<n-1$. By downward induction on $k$, we may assume $U(\Gamma)$ is free as a right $U\left(\Gamma_{J^{\prime}}\right)$ module. By induction on $n$, we may assume $U\left(\Gamma_{J^{\prime}}\right)$ is a free right $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$-module. Transitivity then tells us $U(\Gamma)$ is free as a right $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$-module.

It remains only to get the first induction started, i.e. we may assume $k=n-1$. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the set $\{1\}$ union with the set of all standard monomials in $T$ of the form $a x_{n}$, where $a$ is some monomial. We claim the image of $\mathcal{B}$ in $U(\Gamma)$ is a basis for $U(\Gamma)$ as a right $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$-module. We begin with the following observation: the ordering on the monomials in $T_{J}$ defined by the graph $\Gamma_{J}$ is exactly the same as the ordering inherited from the ordering on the monomials in $T$. From this we can immediately conclude the following: if $a x_{n} \in \mathcal{B}$ and $b$ is a monomial in $T_{J}$, then $a x_{n} b$ is a standard monomial
in $T$ if and only if $b$ is a standard monomial in $T_{J}$. The claim now follows immediately from Corollary 3.3 applied to both $U(\Gamma)$ and $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$.

Let $F(\Gamma)$ denote the trivial one-dimensional graded $U(\Gamma)$-module, concentrated in degree 0 . If $J$ is any subset of the indices of $\Gamma$ we define the $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$-module $F\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ similarly. Observe that the graded $U(\Gamma)$-module $U(\Gamma) \otimes_{U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)} F\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ is isomorphic to $U(\Gamma) /\left(\sum_{i \in J} U(\Gamma) x_{i}\right)$. We need one last technical Lemma before our main theorem of the section. Recall the usual notation for the shift operation on graded objects. For any graded object $M$, $M[n]$ is the graded object defined by $M[n]_{k}=M_{k+n}$.

Lemma 3.7 Set $J=\{1, \ldots, n-1\}$ and $C=\{i \mid\{i, n\} \in E\}$. Let $K$ be the kernel of the left $U(\Gamma)$-module epimorphism $U(\Gamma) \otimes_{U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)} F\left(\Gamma_{J}\right) \rightarrow F(\Gamma)$. Then $K \cong\left(U(\Gamma) \otimes_{U\left(\Gamma_{C}\right)} F\left(\Gamma_{C}\right)\right)[1]$.

Proof. The module $K$ is graded and cyclic and generated in degree one by the tensor $x_{n} \otimes 1_{F}$. We need only compute the annihilator of this vector. Let $m$ be any standard monomial in $T$. Then there are two exclusive possibilities for $m x_{n}$, either $m x_{n}$ is also a standard monomial or $m x_{n}$ is not a standard monomial, in which case $m x_{n}$ is projectively equivalent modulo $I(\Gamma)$ to some monomial $m^{\prime} x_{j}$ where $j \neq n$. In the latter case, by Lemma 3.4, $\pi_{j, n}\left(m x_{n}\right)$ and $\pi_{j, n}\left(m^{\prime} x_{j}\right)$ must be projectively equivalent modulo 0 and this can only happen if $j \in C$. We have shown that either $m x_{n}$ is standard or $m \in \sum_{j \in C} T x_{j}$. Let $a \in U(\Gamma)$ be in the annihilator of $x_{n} \otimes 1_{F}$. Write $a=\sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha} \bar{m}_{\alpha}$ where $a_{\alpha} \in F$ and $\bar{m}_{\alpha}$ is the image in $U(\Gamma)$ of a standard monomial $m_{\alpha}$ in $T$. Then $a x_{n}=\sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha} m_{\alpha} x_{n}$ is in $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)^{+}$. Since the images of the standard monomials form an $F$-basis, this can only happen if $a_{o}=0$ for every $\alpha$ such that $m_{\alpha} x_{n}$ is a standard monomial. Thus $a \in \sum_{j \in C} U(\Gamma) x_{j}$ and the annihilator of $x_{n} \otimes 1_{F}$ is therefore exactly $\sum_{j \in C} U(\Gamma) x_{j}$. This proves the Lemma.

Theorem 3.8 The algebra $U(\Gamma)$ is Koszul for every edge labelled graph $\Gamma$.
Proof. We assume that $\Gamma$ has $n$ vertices, labelled $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ and a set of edges $E$. We proceed by induction on $n$, the case $n=1$ being trivial. Let $J=\{1, \ldots, n-1\}$ and let $C=\{i \mid(i, n) \in E\}$. By Lemma 3.5 and 3.6, the graph algebras $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ and $U\left(\Gamma_{C}\right)$ are quadratic algebras that can be identified with their images in $U(\Gamma)$. By induction, the algebras $U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ and $U\left(\Gamma_{C}\right)$ are Koszul. To expedite notation, let $U=U(\Gamma), R=U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ and $S=U\left(\Gamma_{C}\right)$.

Let $K$ be the kernel of the canonical epimorphism $f: U \otimes_{R} F\left(\Gamma_{J}\right) \rightarrow$ $F(\Gamma)$. By Lemma 3.7, $K \cong\left(U \otimes_{S} F\left(\Gamma_{C}\right)\right)[1]$.

Since the algebra $S$ is Koszul, the module $F\left(\Gamma_{C}\right)$ has a free resolution $P_{S}^{*} \rightarrow F\left(\Gamma_{C}\right)$ with each $P_{S}^{m} \cong S[m]^{k_{m}}, k_{m}=\operatorname{dim}_{F}\left(S_{m}^{!}\right)$. Since $U_{S}$ is a
free module we may tensor this resolution by $U$ and shift in every degree by 1 to get a free $U$-resolution $P_{U}^{*} \rightarrow K$ where $P_{U}^{m} \cong\left(U \otimes_{S} S[m]^{k_{m}}\right)[1] \cong$ $U[m+1]^{k_{m}}$.

Similarly, since the algebra $R$ is Koszul, the module $F\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ has a free resolution $P_{R}^{*} \rightarrow F\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ with each $P_{R}^{m} \cong R[m]^{l_{m}}, l_{m}=\operatorname{dim}_{F}\left(R_{m}^{!}\right)$. Since $U_{R}$ is a free module we may tensor this resolution by $U$ to get a free $U$-resolution $Q_{U}^{*} \rightarrow\left(U \otimes_{R} F\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)\right)$ where $Q_{U}^{m} \cong\left(U \otimes_{R} R[m]^{l_{m}}\right) \cong U[m]^{l_{m}}$.

All that is left is to apply the algebraic mapping cone, [18], page 46, to the short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow U \bigotimes_{R} F\left(\Gamma_{J}\right) \rightarrow F(\Gamma) \rightarrow 0
$$

We obtain a free $U$-resolution $N_{U}^{*} \rightarrow F(\Gamma)$ where

$$
N_{U}^{m}=P_{U}^{m-1} \bigoplus Q_{U}^{m} \cong U[m]^{\left(k_{m-1}+l_{m}\right)}
$$

By Definition 2.2, $U$ is Koszul.
Corollary 3.9 The finite dimensional algebra $A(\Gamma)$ is Koszul.
We note the Hilbert series of $U(\Gamma)$ is now easily computed from the graph $\Gamma$. Let $X=X(\Gamma)$ be the simplicial complex on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ defined as follows: the set $K=\left\{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{p}\right\}$ is a $(p-1)$-simplex in $X$ if and only if the unlabeled subgraph $\Gamma_{K}$ of $\Gamma$ is a complete graph ( $X$ is called the flag-complex of $\Gamma$, cf. [22]). Notice that $\Gamma$ itself is the 2 -skeleton of $X$. Let $J$ and $C$ be as in the proof of Theorem 3.8 and let $X_{J}$ and $X_{C}$ be the corresponding simplicial complexes. We notice that $X_{J}$ is the subcomplex of $X$ on the vertices $1, \ldots, n-1$ and $X_{C}$ is the link of the vertex $n$ in $X$. For any simplicial complex $X$, let $F_{p}(X)$ be the number of $(p-1)$-simplices of $X$ $\left(F_{0}(X)=1\right)$. We denote the Euler characteristic polynomial of $X$ by $E(X, t)$, i.e. $E(X, t)=\sum_{i}(-1)^{i} F_{i}(X) t^{i}$.

Corollary 3.10 $H(A(\Gamma),-t)=E(X, t)$.
Proof. We proceed by induction on $n$, the number of vertices in $\Gamma$. Inductively we have $H\left(A\left(\Gamma_{C}\right),-t\right)=E\left(X_{C}, t\right)$ and $H\left(A\left(\Gamma_{J}\right), t\right)=E\left(X_{J}, t\right)$. It therefore suffices to prove

$$
H(A(\Gamma), t)=H\left(A\left(\Gamma_{J}\right), t\right)+t H\left(A\left(\Gamma_{C}\right), t\right)
$$

The algebras $A(\Gamma), A\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ and $A\left(\Gamma_{C}\right)$ are the Koszul duals of the Koszul algebras $U(\Gamma), U\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ and $U\left(\Gamma_{C}\right)$ respectively. Using the notation from the proof of Theorem 3.8 we have $H\left(A\left(\Gamma_{J}\right), t\right)=\sum_{i} l_{i} t^{i}$ and $H\left(A\left(\Gamma_{C}\right), t\right)=$
$\sum_{i} m_{i} t^{i}$. Furthermore, the free resolution $N_{U}^{*} \rightarrow F(\Gamma)$ constructed in the proof must be a minimal resolution. Thus the equation above follows from the last equation in the the proof of Theorem 3.8.

The polynomial $E(X, t)$ considered as an invariant of $\Gamma$ is called dcpendence polynomial of $\Gamma$ (see [11]). The next corollary and some combinatorial implications are contained in [10, 11] (cf. also [22]).

Corollary 3.11 $H(U(\Gamma), t) E(X, t)=1$.

Corollary 3.12 gldim $(U(\Gamma)) \leq n$ with equality if and only if $\Gamma$ is the complete graph on $n$ vertices.

Proof. The global dimension of $U(\Gamma)$ is the projective dimension of the trivial module $F$. By the Koszul property this is the maximal $k$ for which $A(\Gamma)_{k} \neq 0$. But $A(\Gamma)_{n+1}=0$ and $A(\Gamma)_{n} \neq 0$ if and only if there are no relations of the form $x_{i} x_{j}, i \neq j$ in the ideal $I^{!}$.

## 4 Generalized Graph Algebras

In this section we extend Theorem 3.8 to a class of algebras containing the graph algebras. Our proof that the algebras in this larger class are Koszul is nearly the same as Theorem 3.8.

Let $\Gamma$ be an edge labelled graph on $n$ vertices, exactly as in the previous section. Let $K$ be a subset of the vertices. To the pair $\Gamma, K$ we associate one algebra $U(\Gamma, K)=U(\Gamma) / I_{K}$ where $I_{K}$ is the ideal of $U(\Gamma)$ generated by elements $x_{k}^{2}$ for $k \in K$.

Fix a graph $\Gamma$ and a subset $K$ of its vertices. Let $J$ be any other subset of the vertices. As before, $\Gamma_{J}$ is the edge-labelled subgraph on the vertices in $J$ and we set $K_{J}=K \cap J$.

Lemma 4.1 Let $\Gamma$ and $K$ be as above. Let $S B=S B(\Gamma)$ denote the set of standard monomials in the free algebra $T$ with respect to $I(\Gamma)$. Let $S B(K)=$ $S B(\Gamma, K)$ be all those monomials $m \in S B$ whose image in $U(\Gamma, K)$ is not zero. Then the images of the elements in $S B(K)$ form an $F$-basis for $U(\Gamma, K)$.

Proof. Recall that the images of the elements of $S B$ form an $F$-basis for the algebra $U(\Gamma)$. Denote by $I(K)$ the two-sided ideal of $T$ generated by the elements $x_{k}^{2}$ for $k \in K$. Then $U(\Gamma, K) \cong T /(I(\Gamma)+I(K))$. Notice that if
$a \in I(K)$ and $m \in \operatorname{Supp}(a)$ then $m \in I(K)$. From this it is immediate that the elements of $S B(K)$ remain linearly independent in $U(\Gamma, K)$.

Let $J$ be a subset of the vertices of $\Gamma$ and, as before, let $T_{J}$ be the free subalgebra of $T$ generated by the $x_{j}, j \in J$. In the proof of Lemma 3.5 it was shown that $T_{J} \cap I(\Gamma)=I\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$. This in turn implies the following: if $m$ is a monomial in $T_{J}$ then $m$ is a standard monomial in $T_{J}$ with respect to $I\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$ if and only if $m$ is a standard monomial in $T$ with respect to $\Gamma$, i.e. $S B(\Gamma) \cap T_{J}=S B\left(\Gamma_{J}\right)$. Clearly a monomial from $S B(\Gamma) \cap T_{J}$ will vanish in $U\left(\Gamma_{J}, K_{J}\right)$ if and only if it vanishes in $U(\Gamma, K)$. Combining this with Lemma 4.1 we have proved the following.

Lemma 4.2 Let $\Gamma$ and $K$ be as above. Fix a subset, $J$, of the vertices of $\Gamma$. Let $U_{J}$ be the subalgebra of $U(\Gamma, K)$ generated by the $x_{j}$ for $j \in J$. Then $U_{J}$ is a quadratic algebra isomorphic to $U\left(\Gamma_{J}, K_{J}\right)$.

We will identify the subalgebra $U_{J}$ of $U(\Gamma, K)$ with $U\left(\Gamma_{J}, K_{J}\right)$.
Lemma 4.3 The algebra $U(\Gamma, K)$ is free as a right $U\left(\Gamma_{J}, K_{J}\right)$-module.
Proof. The proof of this lemma is exactly the same as the proof of Lemma 3.6 with the following exception. The set $\mathcal{B}$ should now consist of $\{1\}$ union with the set of all monomials of the form $a x_{n}$ which are in $S B(\Gamma, K)$.

We need now the analog of Lemma 3.7. We let $F(\Gamma, K)$ be the trivial graded $U(\Gamma, K)$-module. If there is little chance of confusion we write simply $F$.

Lemma 4.4 Let $J=\{1, \ldots, n-1\}$ and $C=\{i \mid(i, n) \in E\}$ (note: $n \notin C$ ). Let $K e r$ be the kernel of the lefl $U(\Gamma, K)$-module epimorphism $U(\Gamma, K) \otimes_{U\left(\Gamma_{\jmath}, K_{\jmath}\right)} F \rightarrow F$.
(a) Assume $n \notin K$. Then $K e r \cong\left(U(\Gamma, K) \otimes_{U\left(\Gamma_{c}, K_{C}\right)} F\right)[1]$.
(b) Assume $K=\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Let $C^{\prime}=C \cup\{n\}$. Then
$K e r \cong\left(U(\Gamma, K) \otimes_{U\left(\Gamma_{C^{\prime}}, K_{C^{\prime}}\right)} F\right)[1]$.
Proof. (a) Assume $n \notin K$. As in Lemma 3.7, it suffices to prove that the annihilator of $x_{n} \otimes 1_{F}$ is $\sum_{i \in C} U(\Gamma, K) x_{i}$. The proof is exactly the same as Lemma 3.7 once we make the following observation: for a monomial $m$ in $S B(\Gamma, K)$, the image of $m x_{n}$ in $U(\Gamma, K)$ cannot be zero. This is because $n \notin K$.
(b) Assume $K=\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Now for a monomial $m$ in $S B(\Gamma, K)$, the image of $m x_{n}$ in $U(\Gamma, K)$ can be zero, but only if $m$ is projectively equivalent modulo $I(\Gamma)$ to a monomial $m^{\prime} x_{n}$. This shows, as in the proof of Lemma 3.7 that the annihilator of $x_{n} \otimes 1_{F}$ in $K e r$ is exactly $\sum_{i \in C^{\prime}} U(\Gamma, K) x_{i}$.

Theorem 4.5 The algebra $U(\Gamma, K)$ is Koszul for every edge labelled graph $\Gamma$ and every subset, $K$, of its vertices.

Proof. Assume $\Gamma$ has $n$ vertices, $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ and use induction on $n$. The proof proceeds exactly as the proof of Thoerem 3.8 with the following replacements. Lemma 4.2 is used in place of Lemma 3.5. Lemma 4.3 replaces Lemma 3.6. Lemma 3.7 is replaced by part (a) or part (b) of Lemma 4.4 depending on whether $n \notin K$ or $K=\{1, \ldots, n\}$ respectively.

## 5 Holonomy algebras of arrangements

In this section we are concerned with certain quadratic algebras related to an arrangement of hyperplanes.

Let $\mathcal{A}=\left\{H_{1}, \ldots, H_{n}\right\}$ be a set of $(\ell-1)$-dimensional linear subspaces of an $\ell$-dimensional linear space $V$ over a field $F$. We fix linear functionals $\alpha_{i}$ such that ker $\alpha_{i}=H_{i}$ and call a subset of $\mathcal{A}$ independent if the respective set of functionals is linearly independent. The collection of minimal dependent subsets of $\mathcal{A}$ (circuits) forms a matroid $\mathcal{M}$. From the point of view of matroid theory $\mathcal{A}$ is a representation of $\mathcal{M}$ over $F$. In fact most constructions in this section depend just on $\mathcal{M}$ and not on its representation $\mathcal{A}$.

Associated with $\mathcal{A}$, is the well-known Orlik-Solomon algebra $A(\mathcal{A})=A$ [20]. A slightly unusual definition of $A$ is as follows. Recall from the previous section that $T$ is the free $F$-algebra on generators $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ and denote by $J(\mathcal{A})=J$ the ideal of $T$ generated by $x_{i}^{2}, x_{i} x_{j}+x_{j} x_{i}$ for every $1 \leq i<j \leq n$, and

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{k}(-1)^{j-1} x_{i_{1}} \cdots x_{i_{j-1}} x_{i_{j+1}} \cdots x_{i_{k}}
$$

for all dependent subsets $\left\{H_{i_{1}}, \ldots, H_{i_{k}}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{A}$. Then $A=T / J$. One can easily see that $A_{p}=0$ for $p>\ell$.

The algebra $A$ is not necessarily quadratic. First of all for it to be quadratic $\mathcal{A}$ must be formal, i.e., all the linear relations among the functionals of $H_{i}$ should be linearly generated by relations among triples of them. Indeed if $\mathcal{A}$ is not formal then there exists a formal arrangement $\overline{\mathcal{A}}$ such that $J(\overline{\mathcal{A}}) \subset J(\mathcal{A})$ and $J(\overline{\mathcal{A}})_{2}=J(\mathcal{A})_{2}$ but $J(\overline{\mathcal{A}}) \neq J(\mathcal{A})$ (cf. [23]). But, even formal arrangements do not in general produce a quadratic algebra $A$. A necessary condition for a formal arrangement to have a quadratic OrlikSolomon algebra is contained in [8]. It is proved there in particular that for all the reflection arrangements of type $D_{k}(k \geq 3)$ the algebras $A$ are not quadratic.

It is easy to construct a quadratic algebra that is in a way the quadratic closure of $A$. This is the algebra $\bar{A}=\bar{A}(\mathcal{A})=T / \bar{J}$ where $\bar{J}$ is the ideal of
$T$ generated by $J_{2}$. Notice that $\bar{A}$ is a finite-dimensional algebra since it is a factor of the exterior algebra on $n$ generators. It is also graded since $\bar{J}$ is homogeneous but unlike $A$ it can have graded components of degree higher than $\ell$. Another algebra associated with $\mathcal{A}$ is the algebra $U=U(\mathcal{A})$ studied by Aomoto and Kohno [1, 15, 16] that is the universal enveloping algebra of the holonomy Lie algebra of the complement of $\cup H_{i}$ in $V$ (for $F=\mathbb{C}$ ). The explicit discription of $U$ (over an arbitrary field $F$ ) is as follows. Let $I(\mathcal{A})=I$ be the ideal of $T$ generated by $\left[x_{i}, \sum_{j \in X} x_{j}\right]$ for every $i$ and every maximal $X \subset\{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that $i \in X$ and $\cap_{j \in X} H_{j}$ has codimension 2 in $V$. Here we put $[a, b]=a b-b a$ for $a, b \in T$. Then $U=T / I$. The following simple observation has initiated this work.

Lemma 5.1 For every arrangement $\mathcal{A}$ we have $U(\mathcal{A})=(\bar{A}(\mathcal{A}))^{!}$.

Now we define a complex $K_{\text {: }}$ of free left $U$-modules (the Aomoto-Kohno complex). For every $p \geq 0$ put $K_{p}=\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(A_{p}, U\right)$ and define $d_{p}: K_{p} \rightarrow$ $K_{p-1}(p=1, \ldots, \ell)$ via

$$
d_{p} f(a)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i} a\right) x_{i}
$$

for every $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(A_{p}, U\right)$ and $a \in A_{p-1}$. Clearly $\operatorname{lm} d_{1}=U_{+}$whence $K_{\text {. }}$ can be augmented on the right by the canonical map $d_{0}: U \rightarrow U F$. Exactly in the same manner one can construct a complex $\bar{K}_{*}$ using $\bar{A}$ instead of $A$.

The natural question about $K_{*}$ is whether this complex is exact. Kohno proved the exactness for the reflection arrangements of types $A_{k}$ in [16] and claimed it for types $C_{k}, D_{k}, G_{2}$, and $I_{2}(p)$ in his unpublished but often cited paper [17]. Since the arrangements of the first two types are supersolvable the result for them also follows from the main theorem of this section. The following proposition shows that it cannot be true for $D_{k}(k>3)$.

Proposition 5.2 If $K_{*}$ is exact then $A$ is quadratic.
Proof. Suppose that $A$ is not quadratic and $\bar{A}_{i}=A_{i}$ for $i=0,1, \ldots, p-1$ while $\bar{A}_{p} \neq A_{p}$. If $K_{*}$ is not exact in some dimension less than $p-1$ then the result is proved. Suppose that $K_{*}$ is exact in all dimensions less than $p-1$. It suffices to prove that $K_{*}$ is not exact in $K_{p-1}$.

Notice that $\bar{K}_{*}=K_{*}$ up to dimension $p-1$. Suppose that $K_{*}$ is exact in dimension $p-1$, i.e., $\operatorname{Im} d_{p}=\operatorname{ker} d_{p-1}$. Denote by $\bar{d}$ the differential $\bar{K}_{p} \rightarrow \bar{K}_{p-1}$ of $\bar{K}_{*}$. Since $\bar{J} \subset J$ we have a surjective graded homomorphism $\bar{A} \rightarrow A$ that allows us to view $K_{p}$ as a subspace of $\bar{K}_{p}$. Besides $d_{\mid K_{p}}=d_{p}$. Thus the exactness assumption implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Im} d=\operatorname{lm} d_{p} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, since $\bar{A}_{p} \neq A_{p}$ there exists a nonzero map $f: \bar{A}_{p} \rightarrow F=$ $U_{0}$ such that $f \notin K_{p}$. Notice that $\operatorname{deg} f=0$ and (1) implies that there exists $g \in K_{p}$ such that $f-g \in \operatorname{ker} d_{p}$. But it is easy to see from definition of $d_{p}$ that ker $d_{p}$ cannot have nonzero elements of degree 0 . Thus $f=g$ which contradicts the choice of $f$. The contradiction completes the proof.

Now we focus our attention on the complex $\bar{K}_{\star}$. It is clear from definition and Lemma 5.1 that this complex is the usual Koszul complex for the algebra $U$ whence this complex is exact if and only if $U$ is Kosul (Theorem 2.3). In the rest of the section we prove that $U$ is Koszul for supersolvable arrangements.

There are many different ways to characterize supersolvable arrangements (cf. [20]). The best suitable definition for our goal is the one given by Bjorner and Zieglervin [5]. First let us recall that for any (ordered) arangement $\mathcal{A}$ one can exhibit a specific monomial $F$-basis of $A=A(\mathcal{A})$ called the broken circuit basis. A circuit is a sequence of hyperplanes such that their functionals form a minimal dependent set. A broken circuit is a sequence ( $H_{i_{1}}, \ldots, H_{i_{p}}$ ) such that $i_{1}<\cdots<i_{p}$ and ( $H_{i_{1}}, \ldots, H_{i_{p}}, H_{j}$ ) is a circuit for some $j>i_{p}$. Now the broken circuit basis is formed by the set of monomials $x_{i_{1}} \cdots x_{i_{p}}$ such that $i_{1}<\cdots<i_{p}$ and the respective sequence of hyperplanes does not contain any broken circuit. Finally an arrangement $\mathcal{A}$ is supersolvable if every minimal broken circuit consists of two hyperplanes.

It follows from $[8,9]$ that for a supersolvable arrangement the algebra $A$ is quadratic, i.e., $\bar{A}=A$. Since the proof there involves rational homotopy theory we give a direct elementary proof below.

Lemma 5.3 If $\mathcal{A}$ is supersolvable then $A=A(\mathcal{A})$ is quadratic.
Proof. Define the $F$-linear map $d: T \rightarrow T$ via

$$
d\left(x_{i_{1}} \cdots x_{i_{p}}\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{p}(-1)^{j-1} x_{i_{1}} \cdots x_{i_{j-1}} x_{i_{j+1}} \cdots x_{i_{p}}
$$

Clearly $d^{2}=0$ and $d(a b)=(d a) b+(-1)^{p} a d b$ for $a \in T_{p}$ and $b \in T$. Since all generators of $\bar{J}$ are annihilated by $d$ the ideal $\bar{J}$ is invariant with respect to $d$. Recall from the begining of this section that only generators of $J$ of degree different from 2 have form $d\left(\mu_{S}\right)$ where $\mu_{S}=x_{i_{1}} \cdots x_{i_{p}}$ for a dependent sequence $S=\left(H_{i_{1}}, \ldots, H_{i_{p}}\right)(p>3)$.

Suppose now that $A$ is not quadratic, i.e., $\bar{J} \neq J$. Then the previous paragraph implies that there exists a monomial $\mu=\mu_{S} \nexists \bar{J}$ while the sequence $S$ is dependent. Without any loss of generality we can assume that $\mu$ is maximal in the reverse lexicographic order among all the monomials of degree $p$ with these properties. Clearly some subsequence of $S$ is a broken circuit. Since $\mathcal{A}$ is supersolvable there exist $i_{r}$ and $i_{s}$ with $1 \leq r<s \leq p$
and such that $S_{0}=\left(i_{r}, i_{s}, u\right)$ is a circuit for some $u$ with $u>i_{s}$. Since $S_{0}$ is dependent we have

$$
\mu_{0}=x_{i_{r}} x_{i}, x_{u}=\left(d \mu_{0}\right) x_{u} \in J_{2} \subset \bar{J}
$$

If $H_{u}$ is an element of $S$ then $\mu_{0}$ divides $\mu$ modulo $\bar{J}$ whence $\mu \in \bar{J}$. That is a contradiction. Suppose that $u$ is not among $i_{k}(k=1, \ldots, p)$. Then consider two other monomials $\mu^{\prime}$ and $\mu^{\prime \prime}$ substituting $x_{u}$ for $x_{i_{r}}$ and $x_{i}$, respectively. Notice that $\mu^{\prime}, \mu^{\prime \prime}>\mu$ in the reverse lexicographic order and the respective sequences of hyperplanes are still dependent. Thus by choice of $\mu$ we have $\mu^{\prime}, \mu^{\prime \prime} \in \bar{J}$. But, modulo $\bar{J}$, the monomial $\mu$ is a linear combination (with coefficients $\pm 1$ ) of $\mu^{\prime}$ and $\mu^{\prime \prime}$ whence again $\mu \in \bar{J}$. This contradiction completes the proof.

Now we want to deform $U$ to a graph algebra. To do this, define the graph $\Gamma=\Gamma(\mathcal{A})$ on the vertices $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ whose edges are exactly those 2-sets $\{i, j\}$ for which $\left(H_{i}, H_{j}\right)$ is a broken circuit. Label every edge by 1 . Then put $\tilde{A}=\tilde{A}(\mathcal{A})=A(\Gamma)$. For every $\lambda \in F$ put $A_{\lambda}=A_{\lambda}(\mathcal{A})=\Lambda / J_{\lambda}$ where $\Lambda$ is the exterior algebra on $n$ generators (as above) and $J_{\lambda}$ is its ideal generated by the relations

$$
x_{i} x_{j}-\lambda^{k-j} x_{i} x_{k}+\lambda^{k-i} x_{j} x_{k}
$$

for every 3 -circuit ( $H_{i}, H_{j}, H_{k}$ ) with $i<j<k$. Let us sum up obvious properties of these algebras.

Lemma 5.4 (i) $A_{1}=A, A_{0}=\tilde{A}$.
(ii) For every $\lambda \neq 0$ the algebra homomorphism defined by $x_{i} \mapsto \lambda^{i} x_{i}$ is an isomorphism of $A$ onto $A_{\lambda}$.

Our goal is to apply the Drinfeld theorem [7] to the family $A_{\lambda}$ (cf. also [21]). First we need the following definition. If $N$ is a natural number we call a quadratic algebra $N$-Koszul if its Koszul complex is exact in the first $N$ terms from the right.

The formal distinction of our case from the main theorem of [7] is that the parameter $\lambda$ is not real but belongs to the field $F$. However using the Zariski topology it easy to obtain the following form of the theorem.

Theorem 5.5 Suppose that for every $\lambda \in F$ we have a quadratic algebra $A_{\lambda}$ whose quadratic relations depend on $\lambda$ polynomially. Suppose that $\operatorname{dim}\left(A_{\lambda}\right)_{i}$ does not depend on $\lambda$ for $i=1,2$, and 3 and $A_{0}$ is Koszul. Then for every natural number $N$ there exists a Zariski open subset $W_{N} \subset F$ containing 0 and such that for every $\lambda \in W_{N}$ the algebra $A_{\lambda}$ is $N$-Koszul.

Now we are ready to prove the main result of this section

Theorem 5.6 If an arrangement $\mathcal{A}$ is supersolvable then the algebras $A(\mathcal{A})$ and $U(\mathcal{A})$ are Koszul.

Proof. It suffices to prove the statement for $A(\mathcal{A})$. Let us check the conditions of Theorem 5.5. Due to Theorem $3.8 A_{0}=\tilde{A}$ is Koszul. Consider the ideal $I_{0}$ of $\Lambda$ defining this algebra. The monomials of $\Lambda$ contained in this ideal are those containing submonomials corresponding to broken circuits of length 2 . Since $\mathcal{A}$ is supersolvable this is equivalent to containing any broken circuits. Thus due to the broken circuit basis theorem $H(\tilde{A}, t)=H(A, t)=$ $H\left(A_{\lambda}, t\right)$ for every $\lambda$.

Now extend $F$ to an infinite field if necessary. It follows from theorem 5.5 that for every positive integer $N$ there exists $\lambda_{N} \neq 0$ such that $A_{\lambda_{N}}$ is N -Koszul. Now part (ii) of Lemma 5.4 implies that $A$ is Koszul.

Corollary 5.7 If an arrangement $\mathcal{A}$ is supersolvable then its Aomoto-Kohno complex is exact.

This result would have followed from a theorem in [12] but that theorem is false (see [13] for corrections). The following corollary was first proved in [9] using rational homotopy theory.

Corollary 5.8 If an arrangement $\mathcal{A}$ is supersolvable then $H(U(\mathcal{A}), t) H(A(\mathcal{A}),-t)=1$.

## 6 Examples

In this section we consider three examples of non-supersolvable arrangements (or rather matroids). The first two arrangements have non-quadratic algebras $A$. The last example is quadratic. No example of a non-supersolvable arrangement with a Koszul algebra $U$ is known to us. The last two examples are as close to that as we can find. To simplify notation we identify an arrangement with the respective set of linear functionals.

Example 6.1 Let char $F \neq 2$ and $\mathcal{A}=\{x, y, z, x+y, x+z, y+z\}$.
This is a formal arrangement whose algebra $A$ is non-quadratic (and is the smallest such). $H(A, t)=1+6 t+12 t^{2}+7 t^{3}, H(\bar{A}, t)=1+6 t+12 t^{2}+8 t^{3}+$ $t^{4}$. The algebra $U$ is not Koszul since some of the coefficients of the series $1 /\left(1-6 t+12 t^{2}-8 t^{3}+t^{4}\right)$ are negative, contradicting Corollary 2.4. (Note: the first negative coefficient occurs at $\left.t^{13}\right)$.

Example 6.2 Again char $F \neq 2$ and $\mathcal{A}=\{z, x+y, x-y, x+z, x-z, y+$ $z, y-z\}$. This a representation of the celebrated non-Fano matroid.

The algebra $A$ is again non-quadratic. $H(A, t)=1+7 t+15 t^{2}+9 t^{3}$, $H(\bar{A}, t)=1+7 t+15 t^{2}+10 t^{3}+t^{4}$. The series $1 /\left(1-7 t+15 t^{2}-10 t^{3}+t^{4}\right)$ has all positive coefficients since the denominator has four positive real roots. There exist at least two different kinds of deformations $A(\lambda)$ of $\bar{A}$ (i.e., $A(1)=\bar{A}$ ) such that $H(A(\lambda), t)=H(\bar{A}, t)$ for all $\lambda \in F$. For the first kind all algebras $A(\lambda)$ with $\lambda \neq 0$ are isomorphic to $\bar{A}$ but $A(0)$ is not Koszul. For the second kind $A(0)$ is Koszul but $A(\lambda)$ are not isomorphic to $\bar{A}$ anymore.

To describe the deformations of the second kind more explicitly notice that $\bar{A}$ is the quotient of the exterior algebra with generators $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{7}$ (in the given order of the functionals) over the ideal generated by the six elements $R_{1}=x_{1} x_{4}-x_{1} x_{5}+x_{4} x_{5}, R_{2}=x_{1} x_{6}-x_{1} x_{7}+x_{6} x_{7}, R_{3}=x_{2} x_{4}-x_{2} x_{7}+$ $x_{4} x_{7}, R_{4}=x_{2} x_{5}-x_{2} x_{6}+x_{5} x_{6}, R_{5}=x_{3} x_{4}-x_{3} x_{6}+x_{4} x_{6}, R_{6}=x_{3} x_{5}-x_{3} x_{7}+$ $x_{5} x_{7}$. Considering the dual algebra $U=\bar{A}^{!}$one notices that $z=x_{1}+\cdots+x_{7}$ is a central element. (A similar fact is true for any arrangement). Thus changing the generators to $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{6}, z$ one can make the identification $U=$ $W \otimes F[z]$ where $W$ is the subalgebra of $U$ generated by $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{6}$. (In fact, $W$ is the holonomy algebra of the affine arrangement induced in the hyperplane $x_{7}=1$.) Since $U$ is Koszul if and only if $W$ is Koszul we will focus on $W$. The algebra $B=W^{!}$is the quotient of the exterior algebra on generators $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{6}$ over the ideal generated by the relations $R_{1}, R_{4}, R_{5}$ and also by $R_{2}^{\prime}=x_{1} x_{6}, R_{3}^{\prime}=x_{2} x_{4}$, and $R_{6}^{\prime}=x_{3} x_{5}$. Notice $H(B, t)=H(\bar{A}, t) /(1+t)=$ $1+6 t+9 t^{2}+t^{3}$. For every $\lambda \in F$ define $B(\lambda)$ by the last 3 relations and by $R_{1}(\lambda)=x_{1} x_{1}-\lambda x_{1} x_{5}+\lambda x_{4} x_{5}, R_{4}(\lambda)=x_{2} x_{5}-\lambda x_{2} x_{6}+\lambda x_{5} x_{6}, R_{5}(\lambda)=$ $\lambda x_{3} x_{4}-x_{3} x_{6}+x_{4} x_{6}$. Clearly $B(1)=B$. A staightforward computation shows that $H(B(\lambda), t)$ does not depend on $\lambda$.

Now we want to prove that the algebra $B(0)$ is Koszul. This is equivalent to its dual algebra $W(0)=B(0)^{!}$being Koszul. Notice that $W(0)$ has the 9 defining relations:

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right],\left[x_{1}, x_{3}\right],\left[x_{1}, x_{5}\right],\left[x_{2}, x_{3}\right],\left[x_{2}, x_{6}\right],\left[x_{3}, x_{4}\right],\left[x_{4}, x_{5}\right],} \\
{\left[x_{5}, x_{6}\right],\left[x_{3}+x_{4}, x_{6}\right] .}
\end{gathered}
$$

The Koszul complex of $W(0)$ has the form

$$
0 \rightarrow K_{3} \rightarrow K_{2} \rightarrow K_{1} \rightarrow K_{0} \rightarrow F \rightarrow 0
$$

and it is exact (as for every algebra) in terms $K_{0}$ and $K_{1}$. So to prove that it is exact it suffices to prove that the kernel of the map $\delta_{2}: K_{2} \rightarrow K_{1}$ is generated in degree 1. The map $\delta_{2}$ can be represented by the following
matrix

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
x_{2} & -x_{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
x_{3} & 0 & -x_{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
x_{5} & 0 & 0 & 0 & -x_{1} & 0 \\
0 & x_{3} & -x_{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & x_{6} & 0 & 0 & 0 & -x_{2} \\
0 & 0 & x_{4} & -x_{3} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & x_{5} & -x_{4} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x_{6} & -x_{5} \\
0 & 0 & x_{6} & x_{6} & 0 & -x_{3}-x_{4}
\end{array}\right)
$$

that acts on the row-vectors from $K_{2}=W(0)^{9}$ via the right multiplication. Denote the rows of $M$ by $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{9}$. Then a row-vector $a=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{9}\right) \in K_{2}$ belongs to the kernel of $\delta_{2}$ if and only if the vector

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{9} a_{i} r_{i}=0 \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

(in $\left.K_{1}=W(0)^{6}\right)$.
Now we need a lemma.
Lemma 6.3 Let $x, y, z \in W(0)$.
(i) If $x x_{1}+y x_{4}+z x_{6}=0$ then $x=y=z=0$.
(ii) If $x x_{1}+y x_{3}+z x_{6}=0$ then there exists $u \in W(0)$ such that $x=$ $u x_{3}, y=-u x_{1}$, and $z=0$.

Proof. We can assume that $x, y, z$ are homogeneous of a common degree $d$ and apply induction on $d$. If $d=0$ the result is obvious. Suppose that $d>0$ and prove (i). The condition implies that $b=(x, 0,0, y, 0, z)$ belongs to the kernel of $\delta_{1}: K_{1} \rightarrow K_{0}$. Thus there exist elements $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{9}$ of $W(0)_{d-1}$ such that $b=\sum_{i=1}^{9} b_{i} r_{i}$ in $W(0)^{6}$. In particular

$$
\begin{gathered}
-b_{1} x_{1}+b_{4} x_{3}+b_{5} x_{6}=0 \\
b_{8} x_{6}-b_{7} x_{4}-b_{3} x_{1}=0 \\
-b_{2} x_{1}-b_{4} x_{2}+b_{6} x_{4}+b_{9} x_{6}=0
\end{gathered}
$$

Using (i) and (ii) for $d-1$ we obtain from first two equalities $b_{3}=b_{7}=b_{8}=0$, $b_{1}=u x_{3}, b_{4}=u x_{1}$, and $b_{5}=0$ for some $u \in W(0)$. Substituting this into the third equality we have

$$
-\left(b_{2}+u x_{2}\right) x_{1}+b_{6} x_{4}+b_{9} x_{6}=0 .
$$

Using again (i) for $d-1$ and the absense of zero divisors in $W(0)$ (see for example [2]) we have $b_{1}=u x_{3}, b_{2}=-u x_{2}, b_{4}=u x_{1}$, and the other $b_{i}$ vanish.

Computing vector $b$ we obtain $x=y=z=0$. The proof of (ii) is similar.
Now we can finish the computation of the kernel of $\delta_{2}$. Using Lemma 6.3 we have from (*) $a_{3}=a_{5}=a_{7}=a_{8}=0$ and $a_{1}=u x_{3}, a_{4}=u x_{1}$ for some $u \in W(0)$. Then using the absense of zero divisors again we obtain $a_{2}=-u x_{2}$ and $a_{6}=a_{9}=0$. Thus $a=u\left(x_{3},-x_{2}, 0, x_{1}, 0, \ldots, 0\right)$ which completes the proof.

Example 6.4 For this example it is more instructive to describe the matroid itself. This matroid is known in geometry as the plane of order 3. It can be given on 9 elements $\{1,2, \ldots, 9\}$ as the collection of 3-circuits $\mathcal{X}=\{\{1,2,3\},\{4,5,6\},\{7,8,9\},\{1,4,7\},\{2,5,8\},\{3,6,9\},\{1,5,9\}$, $\{2.6 .7\},\{3,4,8\},\{1,6,8\},\{2,4,9\},\{3,5,7\}\}$ and all the 4 -sets are dependent. It can be represented over any field having a primitive cubic root of 1 (see [5]).

Let us first prove that for this matroid $A$ is quadratic. Notice that every two elements $i$ and $j$ uniquely define a third one $k=\phi(i, j)$ such that $\{i, j, k\}$ is a circuit. Now fix an arbitrary 4 -circuit $S=\left\{i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3}, i_{4}\right\}$ (with the natural order) and consider six elements $k_{r, s}=\phi\left(i_{r}, i_{s}\right)(1 \leq r<s \leq 4)$. Since $S$ is a circuit none of $k_{r, s}$ belongs to $S$. Thus there exists a partition of $S$ in two pairs (without any loss of generality $\left\{i_{1}, i_{2}\right\}$ and $\left\{i_{3}, i_{4}\right\}$ ) such that $k_{1,2}=k=k_{3,4}$. Now one easily checks that

$$
R_{S}=R_{X_{1}}\left(x_{i_{3}}-x_{i_{4}}\right)+\left(x_{i_{1}}-x_{i_{2}}\right) R_{X_{2}}
$$

in $T$ where $X_{1}=\left(i_{1}, i_{2}, k\right), X_{2}=\left(k, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)$ and $R_{Z}$ is the element of $J$ corresponding to an ordered circuit $Y$. This implies that $R_{S} \in \bar{J}$ and $A$ is quadratic.

We have $H(A, t)=(1+t)(1+4 t)^{2}$, in particular all coefficients of the series $1 / H(A,-t)$ are positive. Using the rooted complex $R C$ constructed in [5], Example 4.1(4), it is easy to exhibit a family of quadratic algebras $A(\lambda)(\lambda \in$ $F$ ) such that $A(1)=A, A(0)=A\left(R C_{1}\right)$, and $H(A(\lambda), t)$ does not depend on $\lambda$. To be more explicit we need to recall that the root complex is defined on the elements of the matroid and its 1-skeleton includes exactly two 2-subsets of each $X \in \mathcal{X}$. The ommitted 2-subsets, written in the order of elements of $\mathcal{X}$ above, are $\{1,3\},\{4,6\},\{7,9\},\{1,7\},\{2,8\},\{3,6\},\{1,9\},\{2,6\},\{4,8\}$, $\{6,8\},\{2,4\},\{3,5\}$. Now $A(\lambda)$ is the quotient of the exterior algebra with nine generators $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{9}$ over the ideal generated by the relations $R_{X}(\lambda)$ ( $X \in \mathcal{X}$ ) where for $X=(i, j, k)$ with the ommitted subset, say $\{i, j\}$,

$$
R_{X}(\lambda)=x_{\boldsymbol{i}} x_{j}-\lambda x_{\boldsymbol{i}} x_{k}+\lambda x_{j} x_{k}
$$

It is not hard to prove that $A$ is not isomorphic to $A(\lambda)$ with $\lambda \neq 1$. We suspect that $A$ is Koszul but cannot prove this.

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