## Hyperplane Arrangements

A Link Between Combinatorics and Topology

Declan Fletcher March 2023 Suppose we have *m* randomly drawn lines in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . With probability 1, no two lines will be parallel and no three will meet at point.

How many regions does this cut the plane into?

#### m = 3 Example



We can count that r(A) = 7, what about for a general m?



- 1. Start drawing the  $j^{\text{th}}$  line far away from all others.
- 2. Any time we intersect a line, we split the region we were just in into two, adding a region.
- 3. This happens j 1 times for each of the lines already drawn.
- 4. Then we split the region that we travel to infinity in into two, adding one region.

In total the  $j^{\text{th}}$  line adds (j - 1) + 1 = j regions!



A hyperplane is an (n - 1)-dimensional affine subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ (a translational of an (n - 1)-dimensional vector subspace). More concretely, let  $v_1, \ldots, v_n, a \in \mathbb{R}$  with not all  $v_i$  zero. Then the set of points  $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfying

$$V_1X_1 + \cdots + V_nX_n = a$$

is a hyperplane. (Think a line in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .)

A hyperplane arrangement A is a finite set of hyperplanes. (Think the set of *m* lines in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .) Let  $A = \{H_1, \ldots, H_m\}$  be an arrangement. We can define the hyperplane complement M,

$$M = \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \bigcup_{H_i \in \mathcal{A}} H_i$$

(Think all the empty space in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  after drawing the lines.)

A region is a connected component of the hyperplane complement *M*. (Think one of the pieces that the lines cut the plane into.)

# An Example in $\mathbb{R}^3$



Hyperplane equations:

$$X_1 = X_2, \quad X_2 = X_3, \quad X_1 = X_3$$

#### An Example in $\mathbb{R}^3$



#### We can count that $r(\mathcal{A}) = 6$ .

Define the braid arrangement in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to be

$$\mathcal{B}_n = \{x_i = x_j \mid 1 \le i < j \le n\}$$

The example we just saw is  $\mathcal{B}_3$ .

How do we count the number of regions in  $\mathcal{B}_n$ ?

A hyperplane divides  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into two half-spaces.

For the plane  $x_i = x_i$ , the corresponding half-spaces would be

 $X_i > X_j, \quad X_i < X_j$ 

The key observation is that  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are in the same region if and only if for each hyperplane, x and y are in the same half-space.

### Counting Regions for $\mathcal{B}_n$

Let  $k = (k_1, ..., k_n)$  be in the hyperplane complement of  $\mathcal{B}_n$ . Since  $\mathcal{B}_n$  is all  $x_i = x_j$  hyperplanes, all  $k_i$  are distinct!

The components can be ordered

$$k_{i_1} < k_{i_2} < \cdots < k_{i_n},$$

for some order of indices  $\{i_1, \ldots, i_n\} = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ .

Any  $l = (l_1, \ldots, l_n)$  satisfying the same ordering

$$l_{i_1} < l_{i_2} < \cdots < l_{i_n}$$

is in the same region as *k*.

Why? Because k and l satisfy the same  $x_i > x_j$  or  $x_i < x_j$  relations!

If  $m = (m_1, \ldots, m_n)$  has a different ordering of components

$$m_{j_1} < m_{j_2} < \cdots < m_{j_n}$$

then there is a least one i, j pair such that, say,  $k_i > k_j$  while  $m_i < m_j$ .

So *k* and *m* are in different regions!

The upshot — the number of regions is the same as number of orderings of indices, so  $r(\mathcal{B}_n) = n!$ .

For an arrangement A, the intersection poset L(A) is the set

$$L(\mathcal{A}) = \{\mathbb{R}^n\} \cup \{H_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap H_{i_s} \neq \emptyset \mid H_{i_k} \in \mathcal{A}, s \ge 1\}$$

equipped with the partial order of reverse inclusion. For  $x, y \in L(\mathcal{A}), x \leq y$  if  $x \supseteq y$ .

This is a combinatorial object, not geometric/topological.

 $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the minimal element since for any  $x \in L(\mathcal{A})$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^n \supseteq x$ , which means  $\mathbb{R}^n \le x$ .



#### The Möbius Function

For  $x, y \in L(\mathcal{A})$  with  $x \leq y$ , define the Möbius function by

$$\mu(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = y, \\ -\sum_{x \le t < y} \mu(x,t) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The key characteristic of this function is the Möbius inversion formula. If  $f, g : L(A) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$f(x) = \sum_{t \ge x} g(t)$$

is equivalent to

$$g(x) = \sum_{t \ge x} \mu(x, t) f(t)$$

For an arrangement A, define the characteristic polynomial  $p_A(t)$  as

$$p_{\mathcal{A}}(t) = \sum_{x \in L(\mathcal{A})} \mu(\mathbb{R}^n, x) t^{\dim(x)}$$

This polynomial encodes information about the Möbius function in the coefficients.

In 1975, Thomas Zaslavsky proved the following theorem: Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an arrangement in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then, the number of regions is given by

$$r(\mathcal{A}) = (-1)^n p_{\mathcal{A}}(-1)$$

This is our dictionary to translate between topology and combinatorics.

### A Topological Tool

We're going to need the Euler characteristic, denoted  $\chi$ . For a shape in the plane, decompose into vertices, edges and faces. Then  $\chi$  is defined by

$$\chi = \# \mathsf{V} - \# \mathsf{E} + \# \mathsf{F}$$

For example, we can decompose an annulus as so:



The Euler characteristic is

$$\chi = \#V - \#E + \#F = 6 - 9 + 3 = 0$$

For a topological space, fix a decomposition. Let  $k_i$  be the number of *i*-dimensional "cells". Then  $\chi$  is defined as

$$\chi = k_0 - k_1 + k_2 - \dots = \sum_i (-1)^i k_i$$

For nice spaces and decompositions, this is independent of the exact choice of decomposition!

#### The Subarrangement $\mathcal{A}^{\times}$

For any  $x \in L(\mathcal{A})$ , define the subarrangement  $\mathcal{A}^x$  by  $\mathcal{A}^x = \{x \cap H \mid H \in \mathcal{A} \text{ and } x \cap H \neq \emptyset, x \cap H \neq x\}$ 



#### Proving the Theorem

By decomposing x as a single  $\dim(x)$ -dimensional cell, we have

$$\chi(x) = \sum_{i} (-1)^{i} k_{i} = (-1)^{\dim(x)}$$

 $\mathcal{A}^{x}$  is a decomposition that we can use to compute  $\chi(x)$ .

 $r(\mathcal{A}^{x})$  is the number of dim(x)-dimensional cells that make up x.

To count all cells of all dimensions, sum over  $t \ge x$  (cells  $t \subseteq x$ ). So we also have

$$\chi(x) = \sum_{i} (-1)^{i} k_{i} = \sum_{t \ge x} (-1)^{\dim(t)} r(\mathcal{A}^{t})$$

#### Proving the Theorem



Matches  $\chi(x) = (-1)^{\dim(x)} = (-1)^1$ 

For any  $x \in L(\mathcal{A})$ , by computing  $\chi(x)$  in two ways we have that

$$(-1)^{\dim(x)} = \sum_{t \ge x} (-1)^{\dim(t)} r(\mathcal{A}^t)$$

By Möbius inversion we get

$$(-1)^{\dim(x)}r(\mathcal{A}^{x}) = \sum_{t \ge x} \mu(x,t) (-1)^{\dim(t)}$$

#### Proving the Theorem

We want to know 
$$r(\mathcal{A}) = r(\mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{R}^n})$$
, so set  $x = \mathbb{R}^n$  to get $(-1)^{\dim(\mathbb{R}^n)}r(\mathcal{A}) = \sum_{t \ge \mathbb{R}^n} \mu(\mathbb{R}^n, t)(-1)^{\dim(t)}$ 

But  $\dim(\mathbb{R}^n) = n$  and  $t \ge \mathbb{R}^n$  is all  $t \in L(\mathcal{A})$  since  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the minimal element. Substituting and rearranging gives

$$r(\mathcal{A}) = (-1)^n \sum_{t \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})} \mu(\mathbb{R}^n, t) (-1)^{\dim(t)},$$

which by definition means

$$r(\mathcal{A}) = (-1)^n p_{\mathcal{A}}(-1),$$

proving the theorem!

- An Introduction to Hyperplane Arrangements, Richard P. Stanley, https://math.mit.edu/~rstan/arrangements/arr.html, 2006.
- Arrangements of Hyperplanes, Peter Orlik, Hiroaki Terao, Springer-Verlag, 1992.