INVARIANTS OF COMBINATORIAL LINE ARRANGEMENTS
AND RYBNIKOV’S EXAMPLE

ENRIQUE ARTAL BARTOLO, JORGE CAR MONA RUBER, JOSÉ IGNACIO
CO GOLLUDO AGUSTÍN, AND MIGUEL ÁNGEL MARCO BUZUNÁRIZ

ABSTRACT. Following the general strategy proposed by G. Rybnikov, we present
a proof of his well-known result, that is, the existence of two arrangements
of lines having the same combinatorial type, but non-isomorphic fundamental
groups. To do so, the Alexander Invariant and certain invariants of combinator-
ial line arrangements are presented and developed for combinatorics with only
double and triple points. This is part of a more general project to better under-
stand the relationship between topology and combinatorics of line arrangements.

One of the main subjects in the theory of hyperplane arrangements is the rela-
tionship between combinatorics and topological properties. To be precise, one has
to make the following distinction: for a given hyperplane arrangement \( \mathcal{H} \subset \mathbb{P}^n \),
one can study the topological type of the pair \((\mathbb{P}^n, \mathcal{H})\) or the topological type of
the complement \(\mathbb{P}^n \setminus \mathcal{H}\). For the first concept we will use the term relative topology
of \( \mathcal{H} \), whereas for the second one we will simply say topology of \( \mathcal{H} \). It is clear that
if two hyperplane arrangements have the same relative topology, then they have
the same topology, but the converse is not known.

In a well-known and very cited work [5], G. Rybnikov found an example of
two line arrangements \( L_1 \) and \( L_2 \) in the complex projective plane \( \mathbb{P}^2 \) having the
same combinatorics but different topology. The most common way to prove that
two topologies of line arrangements are different is to check that the fundamental
groups of their complements are not isomorphic.

Recently, the authors of this work have provided an example of two line arrange-
ments with different relative topologies (see [2]). The contribution of [2] is that
it refers to real arrangements, that is, arrangements that admit real equations for
each line (note that Rybnikov’s example cannot have real equations).

The proof proposed by Rybnikov has two steps. Let \( G_i := \pi_1(\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup L_i), i = 1, 2 \).

(R1) Recall that the homology of the complement of a hyperplane arrangement
depends only on combinatorics. This way, one can identify the abelianization

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of $G_1$ and $G_2$ with an Abelian group $H$ combinatorially determined. Rybnikov proves that no isomorphisms exist between $G_1$ and $G_2$ that induce the identity on $H$. In particular, this result proves that both arrangements have different relative topologies. The reason can be outlined as follows: any automorphism of the combinatorics of Rybnikov’s arrangement can be obtained from a diffeomorphism of $\mathbb{P}^2$, and hence it produces an automorphism of fundamental groups. Since any homeomorphism of pairs $(\mathbb{P}^2, \bigcup L_i)$ induces an automorphism of the combinatorics of $\bigcup L_i$, after composition one can assume that any homeomorphism of pairs induces the identity on $H$.

The strategy rests on the study of the Lower Central Series (LCS). Since $L_1$ and $L_2$ are constructed using the MacLane arrangement $L_\omega$ (see Example 1.7), it is enough to study, by some combinatorial arguments, the LCS of $L_\omega$ with an extra structure (referred to as an ordered arrangement). Although this part is explained in [5, Section 3], computations are hard to verify.

(R2) The second step is essentially combinatorial. The main point is to truncate the LCS of $G_i$ such that the quotient $K$ depends only on the combinatorics. Rybnikov proposes to prove that an automorphism of $K$ induces the identity on $H$ (up to sign and automorphisms of the combinatorics). This proof is only outlined in [5, Proposition 4.2]. It is worth pointing out that such a result cannot be expected for any arrangement. Also [5, Proposition 4.3] needs some explanation of its own. The main difference between relative topology and topology of the complement in terms of isomorphisms of the fundamental group is that homeomorphisms of pairs induce isomorphisms that send meridians to meridians, whereas homeomorphisms of the complement can induce any kind of isomorphism, and even if we know that the isomorphism induces the identity on homology, this is not enough to claim that meridians are sent to meridians.

The aim of our work is to follow the idea behind Rybnikov’s work and, using slightly different techniques, provide detailed proofs of his result. This is part of a more general project by the authors that aims to better understand the relationship between topology and combinatorics of line arrangements.

The following is a more detailed description of the layout of this paper. In section 1, the more relevant definitions are set, as well as a description of Rybnikov’s and MacLane’s combinatorics. Sections 2 and 3 provide a proof of Step (R1). In order to do so, we propose a new approach related to Derived Series, which is also useful in the study of Characteristic Varieties and the Alexander Invariant. The
Alexander Invariant of a group $G$, with a fixed isomorphism $G/G' \approx \mathbb{Z}^r$, is the quotient $G'/G''$ considered as a module over the ring $\Lambda := \mathbb{Z}[t_1^\pm, \ldots, t_r^\pm]$, which is the group algebra of $\mathbb{Z}^r$. By fixing an ideal $m \subset \Lambda$, the truncated module by $\Lambda/m^j$ is studied. The problem is reduced to solving a system of linear equations.

Section 4 is devoted to the study of combinatorial properties of a line arrangement which ensure that any automorphism of the fundamental group of the complement essentially induces the identity on homology (that is, the analogous of [5, Proposition 4.2]). This is an interesting question that can be applied to general line arrangements. For the sake of simplicity, we only present our progress on line arrangements with double and triple points. This provides a proof for the second step (R2).

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1. Settings and Definitions

In this section, some standard facts about line combinatorics and ordered line combinatorics will be described. Special attention will be given to MacLane and Rybnikov’s line combinatorics.

**Definition 1.1.** A combinatorial type (or simply a (line) combinatorics) is a couple $C := (L, P)$, where $L$ is a finite set and $P \subset P(L)$, satisfying that:

1. For all $P \in P$, $\#P \geq 2$;
2. For any $\ell_1, \ell_2 \in L$, $\ell_1 \neq \ell_2$, $\exists! P \in P$ such that $\ell_1, \ell_2 \in P$.

An ordered combinatorial type $C^{ord}$ is a combinatorial type where $L$ is an ordered set.

**Notation 1.2.** Given a combinatorial type $C$, the multiplicity $m_P$ of $P \in P$ is the number of elements $L \in L$ such that $P \in L$; note that $m_P \geq 2$. The multiplicity of a combinatorial type is the number $1 - \#L + \sum_{P \in P} (m_P - 1)$.

**Example 1.3** (MacLane’s combinatorics). Let us consider a combinatorial type $C$, the multiplicity $m_P$ of $P \in P$ is the number of elements $L \in L$ such that $P \in L$; note that $m_P \geq 2$. The multiplicity of a combinatorial type is the number $1 - \#L + \sum_{P \in P} (m_P - 1)$.

This provides a combinatorial type structure $C_{ML}$ that we will refer to as MacLane’s combinatorial type. Figure 1 represents an ordered MacLane’s combinatorial type.
Definition 1.4. Let $\mathcal{C} := (\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{P})$ be a combinatorial type. We say a complex line arrangement $\mathcal{H} := \ell_0 \cup \ell_1 \cup \ldots \cup \ell_r \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ is a realization of $\mathcal{C}$ if and only if there are bijections $\psi_1 : \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \{\ell_0, \ell_1, \ldots, \ell_r\}$ and $\psi_2 : \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \text{Sing}(\mathcal{H})$ such that $\forall \ell \in \mathcal{H}, P \in \mathcal{P}$, one has $P \in \ell \iff \psi_1(\ell) \in \psi_2(P)$. If $\mathcal{C}^{\text{ord}}$ is an ordered combinatorial type and the irreducible components of $\mathcal{H}$ are also ordered, we say $\mathcal{H}$ is an ordered realization if $\psi_1$ respects orders.

Notation 1.5. The space of all complex realizations of a line combinatorics $\mathcal{C}$ is denoted by $\Sigma(\mathcal{C})$. This is a quasiprojective subvariety of $\mathbb{P}^{r(r+3)/2}$, where $r := \# \mathcal{C}$. If $\mathcal{C}^{\text{ord}}$ is ordered, we denote by $\Sigma^{\text{ord}}(\mathcal{C}) \subset (\mathbb{P}^2)^r$ the space of all ordered complex realizations of $\mathcal{C}^{\text{ord}}$.

There is a natural action of $\text{PGL}(3; \mathbb{C})$ on such spaces. This justifies the following definition.

Definition 1.6. The moduli space of a combinatorics $\mathcal{C}$ is the quotient $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{C}) := \Sigma(\mathcal{C}) / \text{PGL}(3; \mathbb{C})$. The ordered moduli space $\mathcal{M}^{\text{ord}}(\mathcal{C})$ of an ordered combinatorics $\mathcal{C}^{\text{ord}}$ is defined accordingly.

Example 1.7. Let us consider the MacLane line combinatorics $\mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}}$. It is well known that such combinatorics has no real realization and that $\# \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}}) = 1$, however $\# \mathcal{M}^{\text{ord}}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}}) = 2$. The following are representatives for $\mathcal{M}^{\text{ord}}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}})$:

$$
\begin{align*}
\ell_0 &= \{x = 0\} & \ell_1 &= \{y = 0\} & \ell_2 &= \{x = y\} & \ell_3 &= \{z = 0\} & \ell_4 &= \{x = z\} \\
\ell_5^+ &= \{z + \omega y = 0\} & \ell_6^+ &= \{z + \omega y = (\omega + 1)x\} & \ell_7^+ &= \{(\omega + 1)y + z = x\}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\omega = e^{2\pi i/3}$.

We will refer to such ordered realizations as $L_\omega := \{\ell_0, \ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3, \ell_4, \ell_5^+, \ell_6^+, \ell_7^+\}$.

and

$L_{\overline{\omega}} := \{\ell_0, \ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3, \ell_4, \ell_5^-, \ell_6^-, \ell_7^+\}$.

**Figure 1.** Ordered MacLane lines in $\mathbb{P}^2_3$
Remark 1.8. Given a line combinatorics \( C = (\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{P}) \), the automorphism group \( \text{Aut}(C) \) is the subgroup of the permutation group of \( \mathcal{L} \) preserving \( \mathcal{P} \). Let us consider an ordered line combinatorics \( C^{\text{ord}} \). It is easily seen that \( \text{Aut}(C^{\text{ord}}) \) acts on both \( \Sigma^{\text{ord}}(C^{\text{ord}}) \) and \( \mathcal{M}^{\text{ord}}(C^{\text{ord}}) \). Note also that \( \mathcal{M}(C^{\text{ord}}) \cong \mathcal{M}^{\text{ord}}(C^{\text{ord}})/\text{Aut}(C^{\text{ord}}) \).

Example 1.9. The action of \( \text{Aut}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}}) \cong \text{PGL}(2, \mathbb{F}_3) \) on the moduli spaces is as follows: matrices of determinant +1 (resp. -1) fix (resp. exchange) the two elements of \( \mathcal{M}^{\text{ord}}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}}) \). Of course complex conjugation also acts on \( \mathcal{M}^{\text{ord}}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}}) \) exchanging the two elements. From the topological point of view one has that:

- There exists a homeomorphism \( (\mathbb{P}^2, \bigcup L_\omega) \rightarrow (\mathbb{P}^2, \bigcup L_{\bar{\omega}}) \) preserving orientations on both \( \mathbb{P}^2 \) and the lines. Such a homeomorphism does not respect the ordering.
- There exists a homeomorphism \( (\mathbb{P}^2, \bigcup L_\omega) \rightarrow (\mathbb{P}^2, \bigcup L_{\bar{\omega}}) \) preserving orientations on \( \mathbb{P}^2 \), but not on the lines. Such a homeomorphism respects the ordering.

Also note that the subgroup of automorphisms that preserve the set \( L_0 := \{\ell_0, \ell_1, \ell_2\} \) is isomorphic to \( \Sigma_3 \), since the vectors \((1,0), (1,1) \) and \((1,2) \) generate \( \mathbb{F}_3^2 \). We will denote by \( L_+ \) and \( L_- \) the sets of 5 lines such that \( L_\omega = L_0 \cup L_+ \) and \( L_{\bar{\omega}} = L_0 \cup L_- \). Since any transposition of \( \{0, 1, 2\} \) in \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}} \) produces a determinant -1 matrix in \( \text{PGL}(2, \mathbb{F}_3) \), one concludes from the previous paragraph that any transposition of \( \{0, 1, 2\} \) induces a homeomorphism \( (\mathbb{P}^2, \bigcup L_\omega) \rightarrow (\mathbb{P}^2, \bigcup L_{\bar{\omega}}) \) that exchanges \( L_\omega \) and \( L_{\bar{\omega}} \) as representatives of elements of \( \mathcal{M}^{\text{ord}}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}}) \) and globally fixes \( L_0 \).

Example 1.10 (Rybnikov’s combinatorics). Let \( L_\omega \) and \( L_{\bar{\omega}} \) be ordered MacLane realizations as above, where \( L_0 := \{\ell_0, \ell_1, \ell_2\} \). Let us consider a projective transformation \( \rho_\omega \) (resp. \( \rho_{\bar{\omega}} \)) fixing the initial ordered set \( L_0 \) (that is, \( \rho(\ell_i) = \ell_i \) \( i = 0, 1, 2 \)) and such that \( \rho_\omega L_\omega \) (resp. \( \rho_{\bar{\omega}} L_{\bar{\omega}} \)) and \( L_\omega \) intersect each other only in double points outside the three common lines. Note that \( \rho_\omega, \rho_{\bar{\omega}} \) can be chosen with real coefficients.

Let us consider the following ordered arrangements of thirteen lines: \( R_{\alpha,\beta} = L_\alpha \cup \rho_\gamma L_\beta \), where \( \alpha, \beta \in \{\omega, \bar{\omega}\} \) and \( \gamma = \beta \) (resp. \( \bar{\beta} \)) if \( \alpha = \omega \) (resp. \( \bar{\omega} \)). They
A transposition in arrangement should lead (maybe after composing with complex conjugation) to an

**Proposition 1.13.** Any homeomorphism of pairs between a type + and a type − arrangement should lead (maybe after composing with complex conjugation) to an

### Proposition 1.11. The following combinatorial properties hold:

1. The different arrangements \( R_{\alpha,\beta} \) have the same combinatorial type \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{Rvb}} := (\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{P}) \) given by:

\[
\mathcal{R} := \{ \ell_0, \ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3, \ell_4, \ell_5, \ell_6, \ell_7, \ell_8, \ell_9, \ell_{10}, \ell_{11}, \ell_{12} \}
\]

\[
\mathcal{P}_2 := \left\{ \begin{array}{l}
\{ \ell_2, \ell_3 \}, \quad \{ \ell_0, \ell_7 \}, \quad \{ \ell_1, \ell_6 \}, \quad \{ \ell_4, \ell_5 \}, \\
\{ \ell_2, \ell_8 \}, \quad \{ \ell_0, \ell_{12} \}, \quad \{ \ell_1, \ell_{11} \}, \quad \{ \ell_9, \ell_{10} \}, \\
\{ \ell_i, \ell_j \} \quad 3 \leq i \leq 7, \quad 8 \leq j \leq 12
\end{array} \right\}
\]

\[
\mathcal{P}_3 := \left\{ \begin{array}{l}
\{ \ell_0, \ell_1, \ell_2 \}, \quad \{ \ell_3, \ell_6, \ell_7 \}, \quad \{ \ell_0, \ell_5, \ell_6 \}, \quad \{ \ell_1, \ell_4, \ell_7 \}, \quad \{ \ell_1, \ell_3, \ell_5 \}, \\
\{ \ell_2, \ell_4, \ell_6 \}, \quad \{ \ell_2, \ell_5, \ell_7 \}, \quad \{ \ell_0, \ell_3, \ell_4 \}, \quad \{ \ell_8, \ell_{11}, \ell_{12} \}, \quad \{ \ell_0, \ell_{10}, \ell_{11} \}, \\
\{ \ell_1, \ell_9, \ell_{12} \}, \quad \{ \ell_1, \ell_8, \ell_{10} \}, \quad \{ \ell_2, \ell_9, \ell_{11} \}, \quad \{ \ell_2, \ell_{10}, \ell_{12} \}, \quad \{ \ell_0, \ell_8, \ell_9 \}
\end{array} \right\}
\]

\[
\mathcal{P} := \mathcal{P}_2 \cup \mathcal{P}_3
\]

2. The set of lines \( L_0 \) has the following distinctive combinatorial property: every line in \( L_0 \) contains exactly 5 triple points of the arrangement; the remaining lines only contain 3 triple points.

3. For the other 10 lines we consider the equivalence relation generated by the relation of sharing a triple point. There are two equivalence classes which correspond to \( L_\varepsilon \) and \( \rho L_{\varepsilon'} \), \( \varepsilon, \varepsilon' = \pm \).

By the previous remarks one can group the set \( \mathcal{R} \) together in three subsets. One is associated with the set of lines \( L_0 \) (referred to as \( \mathcal{R}_0 \)), and the other two are combinatorially indistinguishable sets (\( \mathcal{R}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{R}_2 \)) such that \( \mathcal{R}_0 \cup \mathcal{R}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{R}_0 \cup \mathcal{R}_2 \) are MacLane’s combinatorial types. Note that any automorphism of \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{Rvb}} \) must preserve \( \mathcal{R}_0 \) and either preserve or exchange \( \mathcal{R}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{R}_2 \). Therefore, \( \text{Aut}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{Rvb}}) \cong \Sigma_3 \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \). The following results are immediate consequences of the aforementioned remarks.

### Proposition 1.12. The following are (or induce) homeomorphisms between the pairs \((\mathbb{P}^2, \cup R_{\omega,\omega})\) and \((\mathbb{P}^2, \cup R_{\omega,\omega})\) (resp. \((\mathbb{P}^2, \cup R_{\omega,\omega})\) and \((\mathbb{P}^2, \cup R_{\omega,\omega})\)) preserving the orientation of \( \mathbb{P}^2 \):

(a) Complex conjugation, which reverses orientations of the lines.

(b) A transposition in \( \mathcal{R}_0 \), which preserves orientations of the lines.

We will refer to \( R_{\omega,\omega} \) and \( R_{\omega,\omega} \) (resp. \( R_{\omega,\omega} \) and \( R_{\omega,\omega} \)) as a type + (resp. type −) arrangements.
orientation-preserving homeomorphism of pairs between a type + and a type − arrangement.

If such a homeomorphism existed, there should be an orientation-preserving homeomorphism of ordered MacLane arrangements of type \( L_\omega \) and \( L_\omega \).

The purpose of the next section will be to prove that there is no orientation-preserving homeomorphism of ordered MacLane arrangements of type \( L_\omega \) and \( L_\omega \).

2. The truncated Alexander Invariant

Even though the Alexander Invariant can be developed for general projective plane curves, we will concentrate on the case of line arrangements. Let \( \bigcup L \subset \mathbb{P}^2 \) be a projective line arrangement where \( L = \{ \ell_0, \ell_1, ..., \ell_r \} \). Let us denote its complement \( X := \mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup L \) and \( G \) its fundamental group. The derived series associated with this group is recursively defined as follows: \( G^{(0)} := G, \quad G^{(n)} := (G^{(n-1)})' = [G^{(n-1)}, G^{(n-1)}], \quad n \geq 1 \), where \( G' \) is the derived subgroup of \( G \), i.e. the subgroup generated by \( [a, b] := aba^{-1}b^{-1}, \quad a, b \in G \). Note that the consecutive quotients are Abelian. This property also holds for the lower central series defined as \( \gamma_1(G) := G, \quad \gamma_n(G) := [\gamma_{n-1}(G), G], \quad n \geq 1 \). It is clear that \( G^{(0)} = \gamma_1(G) \) and \( G^{(1)} = \gamma_2(G) \).

Since \( H_1(X) = G/G' \), one can consider the inclusion \( G' \rightarrow G \) as representing the universal Abelian cover \( \tilde{X} \) of \( X \), where \( \pi_1(\tilde{X}) = G' \), and therefore \( H_1(\tilde{X}) = G'/G'' \).

The group of transformations \( H_1(X) = G/G' = \mathbb{Z}^r \) of the cover acts on \( G' \). This results in an action by conjugation on \( G'/G'' = H_1(\tilde{X}), \quad G'' = G^{(2)} \):

\[
G'/G'' \times G'/G'' \to G'/G''
\]

\[
(g, [a, b]) \mapsto g * [a, b] \text{ mod } G'' = [g, [a, b]] + [a, b],
\]

where \( a * b := aba^{-1} \). This action is well defined since \( g \in G' \) implies \( g * [a, b] \equiv [a, b] \mod G'' \). Additive notation will be used for the operation in \( G'/G'' \).

This action endows the Abelian group \( G'/G'' \) with a \( G'/G' \)-module structure, that is, a module on the group ring \( \Lambda := \mathbb{Z}[G'/G'] \). If \( x \in G \), then \( t_x \) denotes its class in \( \Lambda \). For \( i = 1, ..., r \), we choose \( x_i \in G \) a meridian of \( \ell_i \) in \( G \); the class \( t_i := t_{x_i} \in \Lambda \) does not depend on the particular choice of the meridian in \( \ell_i \). Note that \( t_1, ..., t_r \) is a basis of \( G'/G' \cong \mathbb{Z}^r \) and therefore one can identify

\[
\Lambda := \mathbb{Z}[G'/G'] = \mathbb{Z}[t_1^{\pm 1}, ..., t_r^{\pm 1}].
\]

This module is denoted by \( M_L \) and is referred to as the Alexander Invariant of \( L \). Since we are interested in oriented topological properties of \( (\mathbb{P}^2, \bigcup L) \), the coordinates \( t_1, ..., t_r \) are well defined.
Remark 2.1. The module structure of $M_L$ is in general complicated. One of its invariants is the zero set of the Fitting ideals of the complexified Alexander Invariant of $L$, that is, $M_L^L := M_L \otimes (\Lambda \otimes \mathbb{C})$. This sequence of invariants is called the sequence of characteristic varieties of $L$ introduced by A. Libgober [4]. These are subvarieties of the torus $(\mathbb{C}^\ast)^r$; in fact, irreducible components of characteristic varieties are translated subtori [1].

Our approach in studying the structure of the $\Lambda$-module $M_L$ is via the associated graded module by the augmentation ideal $m := (t_1 - 1, ..., t_r - 1)$. In order to do so, and to be able to do calculations, we need some formulæ on this module relating operations in $G'/G''$. For the sake of completeness, these formulæ are listed below. However, since they are straightforward consequences of the definitions, their proof will be omitted. The symbol “$\triangleq$” means that the equality is considered in $G'/G''$:

Properties 2.2.

(1) $[x, p] \triangleq (t_x - 1)p \ \forall p \in G'$,
(2) $[x_1 \cdots x_n, y_1 \cdots y_m] \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} T_{ij} [x_i, y_j]$, where $T_{ij} = \prod_{k=1}^{i-1} t_{x_k} \cdot \prod_{l=1}^{j-1} t_{y_l}$,
(3) $[p_1 \cdots p_n, x] \triangleq - (t_x - 1)(p_1 + \cdots + p_n) \ \forall p_i \in G'$,
(4) $[p_x y, p_y] \triangleq [x, y] + (t_x - 1)p_y - (t_y - 1)p_x \ \forall p_x, p_y \in G'$.
(5) $[x_1^{a_1} \cdots x_n^{a_n}, y_1^{b_1} \cdots y_m^{b_m}] \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} T_{ij} \left([x_i, y_j] + \delta(i, j)\right)$, where

$$\delta(i, j) = (t_{y_j} - 1)[x_i, x_j] - (t_{x_i} - 1)[y_j, y_j].$$

(6) Jacobi relations:

$$J(x, y, z) := (t_x - 1)[y, z] + (t_y - 1)[z, x] + (t_z - 1)[x, y] \triangleq 0.$$

Let us recall a well-known result on presentations of fundamental groups of line arrangements, an immediate consequence of the Zariski-Van Kampen method:

Proposition 2.3. The group $G$ admits a presentation of the form $\langle \bar{x}; W \rangle$, where $\bar{x} := \{x_1, ..., x_r\}$, and $W := \{W_1(\bar{x}), ..., W_m(\bar{x})\}$ $m \geq 0$, such that $x_i$ is a meridian of $\ell_i$, and $W_i(\bar{x}) \in G'$ $\forall i = 1, ..., m$.

Definition 2.4. Any presentation $\langle \bar{x}; W(\bar{x}) \rangle$ of $G$ as in Proposition 2.3 will be called a Zariski presentation of $G$. The free group $\langle \bar{x} \rangle$ will be referred to as the free group associated with the given presentation.

Notation 2.5. For technical reasons it is important to consider the Alexander Invariant corresponding to the free group associated with a given presentation.
Such a module will be denoted by $\tilde{M}_L$. The following is a standard presentation of the modules $\tilde{M}_L$ and $\hat{M}_L$ in terms of a Zariski presentation of $G$.

**Proposition 2.6.** Let $\langle \tilde{x}; \tilde{W} \rangle$ be a Zariski presentation of $G$ and let $\mathbb{F} := \langle \tilde{x} \rangle$ be its associated free group, then the module $\tilde{M}_L$ admits a presentation $\hat{\Gamma}/J$, where

$$\hat{\Gamma} := \bigoplus_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} [x_i, x_j] \Lambda$$

and $J$ is the submodule of $\hat{\Gamma}$ generated by the Jacobi relations (Property 2.2(6))

$$J(i, j, k) := (t_i - 1)x_{jk} + (t_j - 1)x_{ki} + (t_k - 1)x_{ij}.$$  

Moreover, the module $M_L$ can be obtained as a quotient of $\tilde{M}_L$ as $\hat{\Gamma}/(J + \mathcal{W})$, where $\mathcal{W}$ is the submodule of $\hat{\Gamma}$ generated by the relations $\bar{W}$.

**Example 2.7.** As an example of how to obtain $\mathcal{W}$ note that, if the lines $\ell_i$ and $\ell_j$ in $L$ intersect in a double point, then there is a relation in $\bar{W}$ of type $[x_i^{\alpha_i}, x_j^{\alpha_j}]$, where $\alpha_i, \alpha_j \in G$. Using Property 2.2(5), this relation can be written in $\tilde{M}_L$ as

$$x_{ij} + (t_j - 1)[\alpha_i, x_i] - (t_i - 1)[\alpha_j, x_j] \in \mathcal{W}.$$  

Analogously, if the lines $\ell_i, \ell_j$ and $\ell_k$ in $L$ intersect at a triple point, one obtains relations in $G$ of type $[x_i^{\alpha_i}, x_j^{\alpha_j}, x_k^{\alpha_k}]$, where $\alpha_i, \alpha_j, \alpha_k \in G$, which can be rewritten in $\mathcal{W}$ as

$$x_{ij} + (t_j - 1)[\alpha_i, x_i] - (t_i - 1)[\alpha_j, x_j] + t_j(x_{ik} + (t_k - 1)[\alpha_i, x_i] - (t_i - 1)[\alpha_k, x_k]).$$

Let $m$ be the augmentation ideal in $\Lambda$ associated with the origin, that is, the kernel of homomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules, $\varepsilon : \Lambda \to \mathbb{Z}$, $\varepsilon(t_i) := 1$, where $\mathbb{Z}$ has the trivial module structure.

One can consider the filtration on $M_L$ associated with $m$, that is, $F^iM_L := m^iM_L$. The associated graded module $\text{gr} M_L := \bigoplus_{i=0}^{\infty} F^iM_L$, where $F^iM_L := F^iM_L/F^{i+1}M_L$ is a graded module over $\text{gr}_m \Lambda := \bigoplus_{i=0}^{\infty} F^i\Lambda/F^{i+1}\Lambda$.

Consider the ring $\Lambda_j := \Lambda/m^j$, tensoring $\Lambda$ by successive powers of the ideal $m$. This allows one to define truncations of the Alexander Invariant.

**Definition 2.8.** The $\Lambda_j$-module, $M^j_L := M_L \otimes \Lambda_j$ will be called the $j$-th truncated Alexander Invariant of $L$. The induced filtration is finite and will be denoted in the same way.

**Example 2.9.** From Example 2.7 it is easy seen that the relations in $M^2_L$ coming from double and triple points are as follows.

1. If $\ell_i$ and $\ell_j$ intersect at a double point one has:

   (4) $$x_{ij} + (t_j - 1)[\alpha_i, x_i] - (t_i - 1)[\alpha_j, x_j] = 0,$$
(5) \((t_k - 1)x_{ij} = 0\).

(2) If \(\ell_i, \ell_j\) and \(\ell_k\) intersect at a triple point one has:

(6) \(x_{i,j} + t_j x_{i,k} + (t_j - 1) [\alpha_i, x_i] - (t_i - 1) [\alpha_j, x_j] + (t_k - 1) [\alpha_i, x_i] - (t_i - 1) [\alpha_k, x_k] = 0\).

(7) \((t_m - 1)x_{i,j} + (t_m - 1)x_{i,k} = 0\).

For any \(k \in \mathbb{N}\), there is a natural morphism \(\varphi_k : G' \rightarrow M^k_L\). We will sometimes refer to \(\varphi_k(g)\) as \(g \pmod{m^k}\) and equalities in \(M^k_L\) will be denoted by \(p_1 \equiv p_2\).

**Remark 2.10.** A Zariski presentation on \(G\) induces a (set-theoretical) section

\[ s : M_L \rightarrow G', \quad s ((t_1 - 1)^k \ldots (t_r - 1)^k r x_{ij}) := [x_1, [x_i, x_j]]^{k_1} \ldots [x_r, [x_i, x_j]]^{k_r}, \]

which, accordingly, induces a section of \(\varphi_k\) on each \(M^k_L\) denoted by \(s_k\).

**Remark 2.11.** From Property 2.2(1), we deduce that the kernel of \(\varphi_2\) equals \(\gamma_4(G)\). Moreover \(\ker(G' \rightarrow M^1_L)\) equals \(\gamma_3(G)\).

**Proposition 2.12.** Let \(\psi(p_1, \ldots, p_m)\) be a word on the letters \(\bar{p} := \{p_1, \ldots, p_m\}\). If \(p_i, q_i \in G'\) and \(p_i \equiv q_i\) (\(i = 1, \ldots, m\)), then \([g, \psi(\bar{p})] \equiv [g, \psi(\bar{q})], \forall g \in G\). In particular, if \(p \in M^k_L\) then \([g, p]\) is a well-defined element of \(M^{k+1}_L\); if \(g = x_i\) this element \(p\) can be written \((t_i - 1)p \in M^{k+1}_L\).

**Remark 2.13.** The ring \(\Lambda_k\) is not local, but note that an element \(\lambda \in \Lambda_k\) is a unit if an only if \(\varepsilon(\lambda) = \pm 1\). To see this note that \(\Lambda_k = \mathbb{Z} \oplus m/m^k\) and the kernel of the evaluation map \(\varepsilon : \mathbb{Z} \oplus m/m^k \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}\) is exactly \(m/m^k\).

**Notation 2.14.** Note that everything in this section can also be reproduced by using the free group \(\mathbb{F}\) associated with a Zariski presentation of \(G\) and will be denoted by adding a tilde. For instance, \(\bar{M}_L = \Lambda^{(2)}/\mathcal{J}\) is the Alexander Invariant associated with \(\mathbb{F}_G\), and \(F^i\bar{M}_L\) is the filtration associated with \(m \subset \Lambda\).

Note that the module \(M^k_L\) is isomorphic (as an Abelian group) to the graduate \(\text{gr}^0 M^k_L \oplus \ldots \oplus \text{gr}^{k-1} M^k_L\) by means of the morphism

\[ p \cdot x_{ij} \mapsto p_0 x_{ij} + p_1 x_{ij} + \ldots + p_{k-1} x_{ij}, \]

where \(p\) is a Laurent polynomial in \(\bar{t} = \{t_1, \ldots, t_r\}\) and \(p_0 + \ldots + p_{k-1}\) is the \(k\)-truncated Taylor polynomial of \(p\) around the origin \(\bar{1} := (1, \ldots, 1)\). Note that this isomorphism depends strongly on the Zariski presentation of \(G\). More specifically, it depends on changes in the set of generators.
For instance, any automorphism of $G$ that sends $x_i$ to $x_i\alpha_i$, (with $\alpha_i \in G'$) induces both an automorphism of $M^k_L$ and a filtered automorphism of $\text{gr} M^k_L$ which is the identity on $\text{gr}^i M^k_L$, but not on $M^k_L$:

\[(8) \quad [x_i, x_j] \mapsto [x_i\alpha_i, x_j\alpha_j] = [x_i, x_j] + t_j(t_i - 1)\alpha_j - t_i(t_j - 1)\alpha_i.\]

Nevertheless, the following result is true for these graduate groups.

**Proposition 2.15.** The graduate groups $\text{gr}^j M_L = \text{gr}^j M^k_L$ (if $j < k$) depend only on the combinatorics $\mathcal{C}$ of $L$ and will be denoted by $\text{gr}^j M_{\mathcal{C}}$.

The following result is an immediate consequence of Proposition 2.12 and it explains why $M^k_L$ is a more manageable object.

**Corollary 2.16.** The formula (8) only depends on $\alpha_i \pmod{m^{k-1}}$.

### 3. Truncated Alexander Invariant and Homeomorphisms of Ordered Pairs

Let $L_1$ and $L_2$ be two ordered line arrangements sharing the ordered combinatorics $\mathcal{C}$. Consider two Zariski presentations $G_1 = \langle \bar{x}; W^1(\bar{x}) \rangle$ and $G_2 = \langle \bar{x}; W^2(\bar{x}) \rangle$ of the fundamental groups of $X_{L_1}$ and $X_{L_2}$, where the subscripts of the generators $\bar{x} := \{x_1, \ldots, x_r\}$ respect the ordering of the irreducible components. The Abelian groups $G_1/G_1'$ and $G_2/G_2'$ can be canonically identified with $\text{gr}^0 M_{\mathcal{C}}$ so that $x_i \pmod{G_1'} \equiv x_i \pmod{G_2'}$. Hence $\Lambda := \Lambda_{L_1} = \Lambda_{L_2}$ We will study the existence of isomorphisms $h : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ such that $h_* : \text{gr}^0 M_{\mathcal{C}} \rightarrow \text{gr}^0 M_{\mathcal{C}}$ is the identity.

**Definition 3.1.** Let $F_i$ be the free group associated with the Zariski presentation of $G_i$, $i = 1, 2$. A morphism $\tilde{h} : F_1 \rightarrow F_2$ is called a homologically trivial morphism if $\tilde{h}_* : F_1/F_1' \rightarrow F_2/F_2'$ satisfies $\tilde{h}_*(x_i) = x_i$. A morphism $h : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is called a homologically trivial isomorphism if it is induced by a homologically trivial morphism $\tilde{h}$, i.e., if $h_* : \text{gr}^0 M_{\mathcal{C}} \rightarrow \text{gr}^0 M_{\mathcal{C}}$ is the identity. Note that $\tilde{h}$ might not be unique.

**Remarks 3.2.**

1. In other words, a morphism $h : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is homologically trivial if there exists $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r) \in (G_2')^r$ such that $h(x_i) = x_i\alpha_i$.
2. Any homologically trivial isomorphism $h$ induces a $\Lambda$-module morphism $h : M_1 \rightarrow M_2$.
3. Any homologically trivial isomorphism $h$ respects the filtrations $F$ and produces isomorphisms $\text{gr}^i h : \text{gr}^i M_1 \rightarrow \text{gr}^i M_2$. By identifying $\text{gr}^i M_1 \equiv \text{gr}^i M_{\mathcal{C}} \equiv \text{gr}^i M_2$, $\text{gr}^i h$ is the identity.
In order to state some properties of homologically trivial isomorphisms, we need to introduce some notation. Note that the homologically trivial morphism \( \tilde{h} \) also induces morphisms on the Alexander Invariants of the associated free groups \( \tilde{M}_i \) \((i = 1, 2)\) and on their truncations \( \tilde{M}_i^j \). Let us denote by \( \tilde{h}^i : \tilde{M}_1^i \to \tilde{M}_2^i \) the induced homologically trivial morphisms of the truncated modules. A straightforward computation proves that

\[
\tilde{h}(J(x_i, x_j, x_k)) = J(x_i, x_j, x_k) \in \mathbb{F}_2'/\mathbb{F}_2'.
\]

Homologically trivial isomorphisms induce a particular kind of isomorphisms of the \( \Lambda \)-modules \( M_1, M_2 \) which are worth studying.

**Remark 3.3.** A direct attempt to prove that two modules are homologically trivial isomorphic is almost intractable. One would have to check if, for some choice \((\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r) \in (G_2')^r \mod G_2 '', \) such a \( \Lambda \)-module isomorphism exists. The lack of linearity in this approach is the reason why we consider the truncated modules \( M_1^k, M_2^k \).

Applying Corollary 2.16 we are faced with simply solving a linear system as follows. Let \( h : G_1 \to G_2 \) be a homologically trivial morphism, then there exists \((\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r) \in (G_2')^r \mod G_2 '', \) such that \( h(x_i) = x_i \alpha_i \). Therefore there exist \( \Lambda_k \)-morphisms \( h^k : M_1^k \to M_2^k \) induced by \( h \) for any \( k \in \mathbb{N} \). Note that

\[
h^2(x_{i,j}) = x_{i,j} + \sum_{u,v} \alpha_{u,v}^j x_{i,u,v} - \sum_{u,v} \alpha_{u,v}^i x_{j,u,v},
\]

where \( x_{i,j} \equiv [x_i, x_j] \), \( x_{i,u,v} \equiv (t_i - 1)x_{u,v} \) and \( \alpha_{w} \equiv \sum_{u<v} \alpha_{u,v}^w x_{u,v} \), since

\[
h^2(x_{i,j}) \equiv [h(x_i), h(x_j)] \equiv [x_i \alpha_i, x_j \alpha_j]
\]

only depends on \( \varphi_1(\alpha_i) \), the class of \( \alpha_i \) mod \( m \), by Proposition 2.16. In order to prove that \( h^2 \) is well defined, one must solve a linear system of equations on the variables \( \alpha_{u,v}^i \) in the Abelian group \( M_2^k \). If an integer solution exists, one can repeat the procedure on \( M_3^k \), obtaining again a linear system of equations in the Abelian group \( M_2^3 \), and so on. In this work, we only need to consider \( h^2 \).

Let us consider an ordered line arrangement \( L \) with a fixed Zariski presentation \( G = \langle \bar{x}; \bar{W} \rangle \). Let us denote \( C \) its ordered combinatorics.

**Lemma 3.4.** The \( \Lambda_1 \)-module \( \text{gr}^0 M_L = \Lambda_1^{(2)} / \mathcal{W} \) is free of rank \( g = \binom{r}{2} - v \), where \( v \) is the multiplicity of the combinatorial type of \( L \) (Notation 1.2).

**Proof.** It is straightforward by taking suitable orderings on the relations. \( \square \)

**Lemma 3.5.** Let \( \tilde{\mathcal{J}} := (\mathcal{J} + \mathcal{W}) / \mathcal{W} \). Then \( \tilde{\mathcal{J}} \subset F^1 \left( \Lambda_2^{(2)} / \mathcal{W} \right) \).
Proof. A consequence of the fact that $J(i, j, k) \in F^1 \Lambda^i_2$. \hfill \Box

Remark 3.6. Note that $F^1 M^2_L = \text{gr}^1 M_L = \text{gr}^1 M_{\phi L}$ is an Abelian group with trivial action of $\Lambda_2$. A system of generators is given by $(t_i - 1)x_{j,k}$; the relations as an Abelian group are exactly those in $J$ and the relations (5) and (7) in Example 2.9, which depend only on the combinatorial type by [3].

In our particular case we can effectively compute the 2-nd truncated Alexander Invariant. The following result is an easy computation.

Lemma 3.7. For any MacLane arrangement $L$, the Abelian group $M^2_L$ is free of rank 29, and its subgroup $\text{gr}^1 M^2_L = \text{gr}^1 M_{\phi L}$ is free of rank 21.

Theorem 3.8. There is no homologically trivial isomorphism between $G_\omega := \pi_1(\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup L_\omega)$ and $G_{\bar{\omega}} := \pi_1(\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup L_{\bar{\omega}})$.

Proof. Consider suitable Zariski presentations $G_\omega = \langle x_1, ..., x_7; W_1^\omega(\bar{x}), ..., W_7^\omega(\bar{x}) \rangle$ and $G_{\bar{\omega}} = \langle x_1, ..., x_7; W_1^{\bar{\omega}}(\bar{x}), ..., W_7^{\bar{\omega}}(\bar{x}) \rangle$ of the ordered arrangements $L_\omega$ and $L_{\bar{\omega}}$ (for instance, we have used the suitable Zariski presentations provided in [3] and other presentations obtained using the software in [3]). We identify the corresponding free groups $\mathbb{F}_\omega$ and $\mathbb{F}_{\bar{\omega}}$ with a free group $\mathbb{F}_7$. Recall that their combinatorial type has multiplicity 13 and we suppose that the relations are ordered upon the following condition:

$$W_i^\omega(\bar{x}) \equiv W_i^{\bar{\omega}}(\bar{x}),$$

(in particular $W_i^\omega(\bar{x}) - W_i^{\bar{\omega}}(\bar{x}) \in F^1 \bar{M}_L$). Let us suppose that a homologically trivial homomorphism $h : G_\omega \rightarrow G_{\bar{\omega}}$ exists. Consider the corresponding elements $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r \in \mathbb{F}_7$ that induce such a morphism (Remark 3.2(1)). Consider $M_\omega = M_{L_\omega}$ and $M_{\bar{\omega}} = M_{L_{\bar{\omega}}}$, the Alexander Invariants of $L_\omega$ and $L_{\bar{\omega}}$. Let $\Lambda := \mathbb{Z}[t_1^{\pm 1}, ..., t_7^{\pm 1}]$ be the ground ring of both Alexander Invariants, where $t_i \equiv x_i$ as usual. This mapping induces a $\Lambda_2$-isomorphism $h^2 : M^2_\omega \rightarrow M^2_{\bar{\omega}}$. By Corollary 2.10, $h^2$ only depends on the class $\alpha_i \mod m$. One has

$$\alpha_i \equiv \sum_{j=1}^7 p^k_{ij} x_{ij}, \quad p^k_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}.$$ 

By [3] Jacobi relations play no role here.

Let us fix $i = 1, \ldots, 13$. Since $W_i^\omega(\bar{x}) \in \bar{M}_L$ vanishes in $M^2_{\omega}$, one deduces that $\bar{h}^2(W_i^\omega(\bar{x})) \in \bar{M}^2_{\bar{\omega}}$ should vanish in $M^2_{\omega}$. Equivalently $\bar{h}^2(W_i^\omega(\bar{x})) - W_i^{\bar{\omega}}(\bar{x}) \in F^1 \bar{M}^2_{\bar{\omega}}$ should also vanish in $F^1 M^2_{\omega} = \text{gr}^1 M_{\phi L}$. The vanishing of these terms, considered in the free group $\text{gr}^1 M_{\phi L}$, produces a system of linear equations in the variables $p^k_{ij}$ (actually, even though there are 147 variables, only 126 appear in the equations).
Solving a system with 137 equations and 126 variables is not an easy task, but any computer will help. Using Maple8, it takes 85 seconds of CPU time running on an Athlon at 1.4MHz and 256Kb RAM Memory to obtain the linear set of solutions. It is an affine variety of dimension 98 of the form $(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_{98}, \kappa_1, \ldots, \kappa_{28})$ where

$$\kappa_i = q_i + \sum_{j=1}^{98} \varepsilon_j^i \lambda_j,$$

$\varepsilon_j^i \in \{0, \pm 1\}$, and $q_i \in \mathbb{Q}$. Since $\{q_i \mid i = 1, \ldots, 28\} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm \frac{1}{3}, \pm \frac{2}{3}, \pm \frac{4}{3}, \pm \frac{5}{3}\}$ one concludes that there is no integer solution.

**Corollary 3.9.** There is no orientation preserving homeomorphism between the pairs of ordered arrangements $(\mathbb{P}^2, \bigcup L_\omega)$ and $(\mathbb{P}^2, \bigcup L_{\bar{\omega}})$.

For Rybnikov’s arrangements, one obtains similar results.

**Lemma 3.10.** For any Rybnikov’s arrangement $R$, the Abelian group $M^2_R$ is free of rank 55, and its subgroup $\text{gr}^1 M^2_R = \text{gr}^1 M_{\text{Ryb}}$ is free of rank 40.

**Theorem 3.11.** There is no homologically trivial isomorphism between $G_+ := \pi_1(\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup R_{\omega, \omega})$ and $G_- := \pi_1(\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup R_{\bar{\omega}, \bar{\omega}})$.

**Proof.** One way to prove this statement is to follow the computational strategy proposed for MacLane arrangements. First one needs Zariski presentations of $G_{\pm}$. This was done by means of the software in [3]. In this case the linear system obtained consists of 531 equations and 420 variables (again, out of the 792 variables $p_k^i$, only 420 appear in the equations) and it took the same processor a total of 23,853 seconds of CPU time to compute the solutions. The space of solutions has dimension 252, that is, it can be written as $(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_{252}, \kappa_1, \ldots, \kappa_{168})$, where

$$\kappa_i = q_i + \sum_{j=1}^{168} \varepsilon_j^i \lambda_j,$$

$\varepsilon_j^i \in \{0, \pm 1\}$, and $q_i \in \mathbb{Q}$. Since $\{q_i \mid i = 1, \ldots, 168\} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm \frac{1}{3}, \pm \frac{2}{3}, \pm \frac{4}{3}, \pm \frac{5}{3}\}$, one again concludes that there is no integer solution.

Another proof that doesn’t depend as strongly on computations can be obtained from Theorem 3.8 as follows. Let us assume that a homologically trivial isomorphism exists between $G_+$ and $G_-$. Such an isomorphism induces an $\Lambda_2$-isomorphism between $M^2_+$ and $M^2_-$. Let $\widehat{\Lambda}_2 := \Lambda_2 / m'$, where $m'$ is the ideal generated by $(t_8 - 1), \ldots, (t_{12} - 1)$, and let $\widehat{M}^2_\pm$ denote $M^2_\pm \otimes \widehat{\Lambda}_2$. Note that $M^2_\pm$ (resp. 1The software is written for Maple8 and can be visited at the following public site http://riemann.unizar.es/geotop/pub/.
$M_2^\omega$) can be considered as the $\tilde{\Lambda}$-module obtained from the inclusion of the complements $\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup R_{\bar{\omega},\omega} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup L_\omega$ (resp. $\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup R_{\omega,\bar{\omega}} \leftrightarrow \mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup L_\bar{\omega}$). Moreover, these inclusions define epimorphisms of $\tilde{\Lambda}$-modules $\pi : \tilde{M}_+^2 \to M_+^2$ and $\bar{\pi} : \tilde{M}_-^2 \to M_-^2$.

Proving the existence of a homologically trivial isomorphism $\tilde{\tilde{h}}^2$ that matches in the commutative diagram (11), and using Theorem 3.8 one obtains a contradiction.

(11)

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\tilde{M}_+^2 & \xrightarrow{\tilde{h}} & \tilde{M}_-^2 \\
\pi \downarrow & & \downarrow \bar{\pi} \\
M_+^2 & \xrightarrow{\tilde{h}} & M_-^2 
\end{array}
\]

Consider $S_+$ the $\tilde{\Lambda}$-submodule of $\tilde{M}_+^2$ generated by the elements $x_{i,j}$, $i,j \in \{1, \ldots, 7\}$ and consider the commutative diagram (12). Since $\pi(x_{i,j}) = x_{i,j}$ and $\tilde{h}^2(x_{i,j}) \equiv x_{i,j} \mod \text{gr}^1 M_+^2$.

(12)

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\tilde{M}_+^2 & \xrightarrow{\tilde{h}} & \tilde{M}_-^2 \\
\pi \uparrow & & \downarrow \bar{\pi} \\
S_+ & \xrightarrow{\tilde{h}} & M_-^2 \\
\pi \downarrow & & \\
M_+^2 & & 
\end{array}
\]

Since $M_+^2$ and $M_-^2$ are free Abelian of the same rank, (11) can be obtained from (12), by proving that $\pi|_+$ is an isomorphism, which is the statement of Lemma 3.12.

Lemma 3.12. The epimorphism $\pi|_+$ in (12) is injective

Proof. We break the proof in several steps.

(01) $(t_k - 1)x_{i,j} = 0$ in $\tilde{M}_+^2$ if $\{i,j\} \cap \{8, \ldots, 12\} \neq \emptyset$.

This can be proved case by case (all the equalities are considered in $\tilde{M}_+^2$):

(a) If $i \in \{3, \ldots, 7\}$ and $j \in \{8, \ldots, 12\}$ (or vice versa, since $x_{i,j} = -x_{j,i}$): this is a consequence of Example 2.9(1) since the lines $\ell_i$ and $\ell_j$ intersect transversally.

(b) If $i,j \in \{8, \ldots, 12\}$: this is a consequence of (a) and the Jacobi relations (Property 2.2(6)).

(c) If $i \in \{1, 2\}, j \in \{8, \ldots, 12\}$: using the Jacobi relations (Property 2.2(5)) and (b) it is enough to check that $(t_k - 1)x_{i,j} = 0$, $i,k \in \{1, 2\}$, $j \in \{8, \ldots, 12\}$. If $\ell_i$ and $\ell_j$ intersect at a double point, then (a) proves the result. Otherwise, there exists a line $\ell_m$ ($m \in \{7, \ldots, 12\}$) such that $\ell_i$, $\ell_j$ and $\ell_m$ intersect at a triple point. By Example 2.9(2) one has $(t_k - 1)x_{i,j} + (t_k - 1)x_{m,j} = 0$, but $(t_k - 1)x_{m,j} = 0$ by (b), thus we are done.
(O2) $\text{gr}^1(\hat{M}_2^+)^\ast \subset S_+$. It is a direct consequence of (O1).

(O3) $\text{gr}^0(\hat{M}_2^+) = \frac{S_+}{\text{gr}^1 M_2^+} \oplus \frac{\ker \pi + \text{gr}^1 \hat{M}_2^+}{\text{gr}^1 M_2^+}$, i.e., $S_+ \cong \text{gr}^0 M_2^\omega$.

Since $\ker \pi$ is generated by $\langle x_{i,j} \rangle_{1 \leq i < j \leq 12, j > 7}$, it is clear that $\text{gr}^0(\hat{M}_2^+)$ decomposes in the required sum. It remains to prove that it is a direct sum.

One can consider $\text{gr}^0(\hat{M}_2^+)$ as a quotient $\langle x_{i,j} \rangle_{1 \leq i < j \leq 12}$, hence it is enough to check that there is a system of generators $r_1, \ldots, r_n$ of $W$ such that:

(*) either $r_i \in \frac{\ker \pi + \text{gr}^1 \hat{M}_2^+}{\text{gr}^1 M_2^+}$, or $r_i \in \frac{S_+}{\text{gr}^1 M_2^+}$.

Note that a system of relators can be obtained combinatorially as $x_{i,j} = 0$ (if $\{\ell_i, \ell_j\}$ is a double point) or $x_{i,j} + x_{i,k} = 0$ (if $\{\ell_i, \ell_j, \ell_k\}$ is a triple point). Relations coming from double points satisfy (O4). For the triple point relations note that any triple point $\{\ell_i, \ell_j, \ell_k\}$ such that $\{i, j\} \subset \{8, \ldots, 12\}$, verifies $k \in \{8, \ldots, 12\}$; therefore, condition (O3) is also satisfied.

(O4) $\text{gr}^1(\hat{M}_2^+) \cong \text{gr}^1 M_2^\omega$.

By (O1), the Abelian group $\hat{M}_2^+$ is generated by $x_{i,j}$, $i, j \in \{1, \ldots, 12\}$, and $(t_k - 1)x_{i,j}$, $i, j, k \in \{1, \ldots, 7\}$; the relators are obtained from the singular points (see Example 2.9) and the Jacobi relations $J$.

By (O1) and Remark 3.6, we find that $\text{gr}^1(\hat{M}_2^+)$ is generated by the elements $(t_k - 1)x_{i,j}$, $i, j \in \{1, \ldots, 7\}$ and the relations are exactly those in $J$ and the relations (5) and (7) in Example 2.9. The arguments used in (O3) also show that only double and triple points in $\mathcal{C}_{ML}$ provide non-trivial relations and thus one obtains the same system of generators and relations of $\text{gr}^1 M_2^\omega$.

Remark 3.13. The proof of Lemma 3.12 is combinatorial and depends strongly on the properties of $\mathcal{C}_{Ryb}$. This lemma corresponds to a key statement of the proof of [5, Lemma 4.3] which is worth mentioning.

4. Homologically Trivial Fundamental Groups

This last section will be devoted to proving that the fundamental groups of $R_{\omega, \omega}$ and $R_{\omega, \overline{\omega}}$ are not isomorphic.

Remark 4.1. Associated with a combinatorial type $\mathcal{C} := (\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{P})$, there is a family of groups, where

$$H_{\mathcal{C}} := \bigoplus_{\ell \in \mathcal{L}} \langle x_{i} \rangle \mathbb{Z} \langle \sum_{\ell \in \mathcal{L}} x_{i} \rangle \mathbb{Z}$$

This last section will be devoted to proving that the fundamental groups of $R_{\omega, \omega}$ and $R_{\omega, \overline{\omega}}$ are not isomorphic.
and \( \text{gr}^i M_\mathcal{C} \) is given by generators and relations as a quotient of \( H_\mathcal{C}^{\otimes i} \) as described in Remark 3.3. Note that, if \( \mathcal{C} \) has a realization \( L \), then one has identifications \( H_\mathcal{C} \equiv H_1(\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus \bigcup L; \mathbb{Z}) \) and \( \text{gr}^i M_\mathcal{C} \equiv \text{gr}^i M_L \).

**Notation 4.2.** There is a natural injective map \( \Gamma(\mathcal{C}) \hookrightarrow \text{Aut}(H_\mathcal{C}) \) given by the permutation of the generators of \( H_\mathcal{C} \); we identify \( \Gamma(\mathcal{C}) \) with its image in \( \text{Aut}(H_\mathcal{C}) \). Another subgroup of \( \text{Aut}(H_\mathcal{C}) \), denoted by \( \text{Aut}^1(H_\mathcal{C}) \), is defined as those automorphisms of \( H_\mathcal{C} \) that induce an automorphism of \( \text{gr}^1 M_\mathcal{C} \). It is easily seen that \( \{ \pm 1 \} \times \text{Aut}(H_\mathcal{C}) \subset \text{Aut}^1(H_\mathcal{C}) \).

**Definition 4.3.** A line combinatorics \( \mathcal{C} := (\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{P}) \) is called homologically rigid if \( \text{Aut}^1(H_\mathcal{C}) = \{ \pm 1 \} \times \Gamma(\mathcal{C}) \).

The first goal of this section is to prove that Rybnikov’s combinatorial type \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{Ryb}} := (\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{P}) \) (described in (2)) is homologically rigid; we will follow the ordering (1). In order to do so, we are going to study \( \text{Aut}^1(H_\mathcal{C}) \) for an ordered combinatorics \( \mathcal{C} := (\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{P}) \) having at most triple points. We will denote \( \mathcal{P}_j := \{ P \in \mathcal{P} \mid \# P = j \} \), \( j = 2, 3 \), and \( \mathcal{L} := \{ \ell_0, \ell_1, \ldots, \ell_r \} \). Let us first describe the groups \( H_\mathcal{C} \) and \( \text{gr}^1 M_\mathcal{C} \):

\[
H_\mathcal{C} := \frac{\langle x_0 \rangle \mathbb{Z} + \langle x_1 \rangle \mathbb{Z} + \cdots + \langle x_r \rangle \mathbb{Z}}{\langle x_0 + x_1 + \cdots + x_r \rangle \mathbb{Z}}, \quad \text{gr}^1 M_\mathcal{C} := \frac{\bigwedge^2 H_\mathcal{C}}{R_2 \oplus R_3}
\]

where \( R_2 \) is the subgroup generated by \( x_{i,j} (\{ \ell_i, \ell_j \} \in \mathcal{P}_2) \) and \( R_3 \) is the subgroup generated by \( x_{i,k} + x_{j,k} \) and \( x_{i,j} + x_{i,k} (\{ \ell_i, \ell_j, \ell_k \} \in \mathcal{P}_3) \).

Any isomorphism \( \psi : H_\mathcal{C} \to H_\mathcal{C} \) induces a map \( \bigwedge^2 \psi : \bigwedge^2 H_\mathcal{C} \to \bigwedge^2 H_\mathcal{C} \). Let us represent \( \psi : H_\mathcal{C} \to H_\mathcal{C} \) by means of a matrix \( A^\psi := (a^\psi_{i,j}) \in \text{Mat}(r + 1, \mathbb{Z}) \) such that \( \psi(x_i) := \sum_{j=0}^r a^\psi_{i,j} x_j \) (note that such a matrix is not uniquely determined: each column is only well defined modulo the vector \( \mathbb{I}_{r+1} := (1, \ldots, 1) \)). The conditions required for this map to define a morphism on the quotient \( \text{gr}^1 M_\mathcal{C} \) are called admissibility conditions and can be expressed as follows:

\[
\begin{vmatrix}
a^i_u & a^i_v & 1 \\
a^j_u & a^j_v & 1 \\
a^k_u & a^k_v & 1 \\
\end{vmatrix} = 0, \quad \text{if } \{ \ell_i, \ell_j, \ell_k \} \in \mathcal{P}_3, \{ \ell_u, \ell_v \} \in \mathcal{P}_2
\]

\[
\begin{vmatrix}
a^i_u & a^i_v + a^i_w & 1 \\
a^j_u & a^j_v + a^j_w & 1 \\
a^k_u & a^k_v + a^k_w & 1 \\
\end{vmatrix} = 0 \quad \text{if } \{ \ell_i, \ell_j, \ell_k \}, \{ \ell_u, \ell_v, \ell_w \} \in \mathcal{P}_3 \quad (\bullet = u, v, w)
\]
(also note that such conditions are invariant on the coefficient vectors \((a_0^1, a_1^1, ..., a_1^{12})\) modulo \(I_{13}\)). We summarize these facts.

**Proposition 4.4.** Any morphism \(\psi : H_\varphi \to H_\varphi\) whose associated matrix \(A^\psi\) satisfies the admissibility conditions (13) produces a well-defined morphism \(\wedge^2 \psi : M_1^1 \to M_1^1\).

We are going to express the admissibility conditions (13) in a more useful way. Let \(\psi \in \text{Aut}^1(H_\varphi)\) and let \(A^\psi\) be a matrix representing \(\psi\). Fix \(P \in P_3\) and consider the submatrix \(A^\psi_P \in \text{Mat}(3 \times 12, \mathbb{Z})\) of \(A^\psi\) which contains the rows associated with \(P\). Let \(\Sigma_k := \mathbb{Z}^{k+1} / I_{k+1}, k \in \mathbb{N}\). We denote by \(v_0(P), v_1(P) ..., v_r(P) \in \Sigma_2\), the column vectors (mod \(I_3\)) of \(A^\psi_P\).

**Lemma 4.5.**

1. The vectors \(v_0(P), v_1(P) ..., v_r(P)\) span \(\Sigma_2\).
2. \(\sum_{j=0}^r v_j(P) = 0 \in \Sigma_2\).
3. For any \(Q \in P\) and for any \(\ell_u \in Q\), the vectors \(v_u(P)\) and \(\sum_{\ell_i \in Q} v_i(P)\) are linearly dependent (i.e., span a sublattice of \(\Sigma_2\) of rank less than two).
   In particular, if \(\sum_{\ell_i \in Q} v_i(P) \neq 0\), then \(\{v_i(P) \mid \ell_i \in Q\}\) spans a rank-one sublattice of \(\Sigma_2\).
4. There exists \(Q \in P_3\) such that \(\{v_i(P) \mid \ell_i \in Q\}\) spans a rank-two sublattice of \(\Sigma_2\) and \(\sum_{\ell_i \in Q} v_i(P) = 0\).

**Proof.**

1. \(\psi\) is an automorphism.
2. The sum of the columns of \(A^\psi\) is a multiple of \(I_{r+1}\).
3. It is an immediate consequence of the admissibility conditions (13).
4. If no such \(Q\) exists, then all the vectors \(V_i(P)\) are linearly dependent, which contradicts (1). The last part is a consequence of (3).

**Definition 4.6.** Let \(\mathcal{C} := (\mathcal{L}, P)\) be a combinatorics; we say \(\mathcal{C}' := (\mathcal{L}', P')\) is a subcombinatorics of \(\mathcal{C}\) if \(\mathcal{L}' \subset \mathcal{L}\) and \(P' := \{P \cap \mathcal{L} \mid P \in P, \#(P \cap \mathcal{L}) \geq 2\}\).

We define a subcombinatorics \(\text{Adm}_\psi(P) \subset \mathcal{C}\) as follows:

\[\mathcal{L}(\text{Adm}_\psi(P)) := \{\ell_i \in \mathcal{R} \mid v_i(P) \neq 0\}\]

Note that,

\(\ell_i \notin \mathcal{L}(\text{Adm}_\psi(P)) \iff \text{ the } i^{th} \text{ column of } A^\psi_P \text{ is a multiple of } I_3\).

This motivates the following definition.
Definition 4.7. A line combinatorics $\mathcal{C} := (\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{P})$ with only double and triple points is called \textit{3-admissible} if it is possible to assign a non-zero vector $v_i \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ to each $\ell_i \in \mathcal{L}$ such that:

1. There exists $P \in \mathcal{P}_3$, such that $\{v_j \mid \ell_j \in P\}$ spans a rank-two sublattice.
2. For every $P \in \mathcal{P}$ and for every $\ell_i \in P$, $v_i$ and $\sum_{\ell_j \in P} v_j$ are linearly dependent.
3. $\sum_{\ell_i \in \mathcal{L}} v_i = (0, 0)$.

Remarks 4.8. The conditions of Definition 4.7 can be made more precise.

1. If $P = \{\ell_i, \ell_j\} \in \mathcal{P}_2$, then $v_i$ and $v_j$ are proportional, in notation, $v_i \parallel v_j$.
2. If $P \in \mathcal{P}_3$ verifies condition (1) then $\sum_{\ell_i \in P} v_i = (0, 0)$.

Examples 4.9.

1. With the above notation, $\text{Adm}_\psi(P)$ is 3-admissible by Lemma 4.5.
2. The combinatorics $\mathcal{M}_3$ of a triple point (that is, $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{M}_3} := \{0, 1, 2\}, \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{M}_3} := \{\{0, 1, 2\}\}$) is 3-admissible, simply using $v_0 := (1, 0), v_1 := (0, 1), v_2 := (-1, -1)$.
3. Let $\mathcal{C} := (\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{P})$ be a combinatorics such that
   - $\mathcal{L} := \mathcal{L}_0 \sqcup \mathcal{L}_1 \sqcup \mathcal{L}_2$;
   - $\mathcal{L}_1$ and $\mathcal{L}_2$ define non-empty subcombinatorics in general position w.r.t. $\mathcal{L}_0$ (that is, $\ell_i \in \mathcal{L}_1$ and $\ell_j \in \mathcal{L}_2$ implies that $\{\ell_i, \ell_j\} \in \mathcal{P}$);
   - at most one line of $\mathcal{L}_0$ intersects $\mathcal{L}_1 \cup \mathcal{L}_2$ in a non-multiple point of $\mathcal{L}_0$.

Then $\mathcal{C}$ is not 3-admissible. It is enough to see that if $\{v_i\}_{\ell_i \in \mathcal{L}}$ is a set of non-zero vectors satisfying conditions (2) and (3) of Definition 4.7, one has that $v_i \parallel v_j$.

- $\ell_i \in \mathcal{L}_1$ and $\ell_2 \in \mathcal{L}_2$; since $\{\ell_i, \ell_j\} \in \mathcal{P}$ then, by Remark 4.8(1), $v_i \parallel v_j$.
- $\ell_i, \ell_j \in \mathcal{L}_1$; considering any $\ell_k \in \mathcal{L}_2$ and using the previous case, one has $v_i \parallel v_k \parallel v_j$. The same argument works for $\ell_i, \ell_j \in \mathcal{L}_2$.
- $\ell_i \in \mathcal{L}_0$ and $P \in \mathcal{P}$ such that $P \cap \mathcal{L}_0 = \{\ell_i\}$. Since all the vectors associated with $P$ but one are proportional, then this must also be the case for $v_i$.

All the vectors (but at most one) are proportional. To conclude we apply condition (3) of Definition 4.7.

4. Ceva’s line combinatorics is 3-admissible.

Proof. Ceva’s line combinatorics is given by the following realization:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CEVA}} := \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
\( \mathcal{P}_{\text{Ceva}} := \{\{1, 2\}, \{3, 4\}, \{5, 6\}, \{1, 3, 5\}, \{1, 4, 6\}, \{2, 3, 6\}, \{2, 4, 5\}\}. \)

For example, the following is a 3-admissible set of vectors for Ceva:

\[ \{v_1 = v_2 = (1, 0), v_3 = v_4 = (0, 1), v_5 = v_6 = (-1, -1)\} \]

\( \square \)

(5) MacLane’s line combinatorics \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}} \) is not 3-admissible.

**Proof.** We will use the combinatorics given in Figure 1. Let us assume that MacLane is 3-admissible, then one has a list of non-zero vectors \( v_0, v_1, ..., v_7 \) associated with each line. We will first see that \( v_0 \) and \( v_1 \) cannot be proportional. If they were \( (v_0 \parallel v_1) \), using \( \{0, 1, 2\}, \{1, 6\} \) and \( \{2, 3\} \) one would have that \( v_0 \parallel v_2 \parallel v_6 \parallel v_3 \) and finally, using \( \{3, 6, 7\} \), one obtains \( v_0 \parallel v_7 \), and hence, by \( \{1, 4, 7\} \) and \( \{4, 5\} \), all vectors are proportional, which contradicts condition (1) of Definition 4.7.

Therefore, \( v_0 \) and \( v_1 \) are linearly independent. After a change of basis, one can assume that \( v_0 = (\alpha, 0), v_1 = (0, \beta) \), \( \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\} \), and therefore \( v_2 = (-\alpha, -\beta) \). We will briefly describe the conditions and how they affect the vectors until a contradiction is reached:

\[
\begin{align*}
\{0, 7\} & \rightarrow v_7 = (\gamma, 0) \\
\{1, 6\} & \rightarrow v_6 = (0, \delta) \\
\{3, 6, 7\} & \rightarrow v_3 = (-\gamma, -\delta) \\
\{0, 5, 6\} & \rightarrow v_5 = (-\alpha, -\delta) \\
\{1, 3, 5\} & \rightarrow \alpha = -\gamma \\
\{1, 3, 5\} & \rightarrow \beta = 2\delta.
\end{align*}
\]

Hence \( v_3 \) does not satisfy the condition (2) of Definition 4.7 with \( v_2 = (\gamma, -2\delta) \) on the double point \( \{2, 3\} \). \( \square \)

**Definition 4.10.** A combinatorics \( \mathcal{C} \) with only double and triple points is **pointwise 3-admissible** if the only 3-admissible subcombinatorics of \( \mathcal{C} \) are isomorphic to \( \mathcal{M}_3 \).
Proposition 4.11. If \( \mathcal{C} \) is a pointwise 3-admissible combinatorics then any \( \psi \in \text{Aut}^1(H_\mathcal{C}) \) induces a permutation \( \psi_3 \) of \( \mathcal{P}_3 \).

Proof. Let \( \mathcal{L} := \{ \ell_0, ..., \ell_r \} \) denote the set of lines of \( \mathcal{C} \) and let \( \mathcal{P}_3 \subset \mathcal{P} \) denote the set of triple points of \( \mathcal{C} \). We will first prove that any isomorphism \( \psi \in \text{Aut}^1(H_\mathcal{C}) \) induces a map \( \psi_3 : \mathcal{P}_3 \to \mathcal{P}_3 \). Consider a triple point \( P := \{ \ell_i, \ell_j, \ell_k \} \in \mathcal{P}_3 \); then \( \text{Adm}_\psi(P) \) is an admissible subcombinatorics of \( \mathcal{C} \) (Example 4.9) and defines a triple point. The map \( \psi_3 : \mathcal{P}_3 \to \mathcal{P}_3 \) given by \( \psi_3(P) := \text{Adm}_\psi(P) \) is defined.

We will next prove that such a map is indeed injective, and hence a permutation (in order for this to make sense, one has to assume that \( \# \mathcal{P}_3 > 1 \) and hence \( r \geq 4 \)). Assume \( \psi_3 \) is not injective, and let \( \psi_3(P_1) = \psi_3(P_2) = Q = \{ \ell_u, \ell_v, \ell_w \} \). One has to consider two different cases depending on whether or not \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \) share a line:

1. If \( P_1, P_2 \) do not share a line, i.e., \( P_1 := \{ \ell_{i_1}, \ell_{j_1}, \ell_{k_1} \} \) and \( P_2 := \{ \ell_{i_2}, \ell_{j_2}, \ell_{k_2} \} \), where all the subscripts are pairwise different. By reordering the columns, let us write \( Q = \{ \ell_0, \ell_1, \ell_2 \} \). Let \( A^\psi_{P_1,P_2} \) be the submatrix of \( A^\psi \) corresponding to the rows \( \{ i_1, j_1, k_1, i_2, j_2, k_2 \} \). Using (14):

\[
A^\psi_{P_1,P_2} := \begin{pmatrix}
  a_0^{i_1} & a_1^{i_1} & a_2^{i_1} & a_3^{i_1} & \cdots & a_r^{i_1} \\
  a_0^{j_1} & a_1^{j_1} & a_2^{j_1} & a_3^{j_1} & \cdots & a_r^{j_1} \\
  a_0^{k_1} & a_1^{k_1} & a_2^{k_1} & a_3^{k_1} & \cdots & a_r^{k_1} \\
  a_0^{i_2} & a_1^{i_2} & a_2^{i_2} & a_3^{i_2} & \cdots & a_r^{i_2} \\
  a_0^{j_2} & a_1^{j_2} & a_2^{j_2} & a_3^{j_2} & \cdots & a_r^{j_2} \\
  a_0^{k_2} & a_1^{k_2} & a_2^{k_2} & a_3^{k_2} & \cdots & a_r^{k_2}
\end{pmatrix},
\]

where \( a_0^i + a_1^i + a_2^i = a_0^i + a_1^i + a_2^i = a_0^i + a_1^i + a_2^i, \quad i = 1, 2 \). The sublattice \( K \) of \( \Sigma_5 \) generated by the columns \( \text{mod } \mathbb{I}_6 \) should have maximal rank equal to 5. Note that rank \( (K) \) equals the rank of the matrix \( \overline{A}^\psi_{P_1,P_2} \) obtained by subtracting the last row from the first ones, forgetting the last row and replacing the first column by the sum of the first three:

\[
\overline{A}^\psi_{P_1,P_2} := \begin{pmatrix}
  b_0^{i_1} & b_1^{i_1} & b_2 & b_3 & \cdots & b_r \\
  b_0^{j_1} & b_1^{j_1} & b_2 & b_3 & \cdots & b_r \\
  b_0^{k_1} & b_1^{k_1} & b_2 & b_3 & \cdots & b_r \\
  b_0^{i_2} & b_1^{i_2} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
  b_0^{j_2} & b_1^{j_2} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0
\end{pmatrix},
\]

which does not have rank 5.

2. If \( P_1, P_2 \) share a line, say \( P_1 := \{ i, j_1, k_1 \} \) and \( P_2 := \{ i, j_2, k_2 \} \). Then, analogously to the previous case, one obtains a similar matrix to (15) but where the rows \( i_1 \) and \( i_2 \) are identified, and we proceed in a similar way.
Definition 4.12. Three triple points \( P, Q, R \in \mathcal{P} \) of a line combinatorics \((\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{P})\) are said to be in a triangle if \( P \cap Q = \{\ell_1\} \), \( P \cap R = \{\ell_2\} \) and \( Q \cap R = \{\ell_3\} \) are pairwise different.

Proposition 4.13. For any \( \psi \in \text{Aut}^1(H_\mathcal{C}) \), \( \mathcal{C} \) pointwise 3-admissible, \( \psi_3 \) satisfies the following Triangle Property: \( \psi_3 : \mathcal{P}_3 \to \mathcal{P}_3 \) preserves triangles, that is, if \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \in \mathcal{P}_3 \) are in a triangle, then \( \psi_3(P_1), \psi_3(P_2), \psi_3(P_3) \) are also in a triangle.

Proof. Let \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \in \mathcal{P}_3 \) be three triple points in a triangle, say \( P_1 := \{\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_k\} \), \( P_2 := \{\ell_k, \ell_l, \ell_n\} \), \( P_3 := \{\ell_m, \ell_n, \ell_i\} \). Let us assume that \( \psi_3(P_1), \psi_3(P_2), \psi_3(P_3) \) are not in a triangle. One has two possibilities, either two of them do not share a line or three of them share a line.

1. Two of them, say \( \psi_3(P_1), \psi_3(P_2) \) do not share a line. After reordering, we can suppose that \( \psi_3(P_1) = \{\ell_0, \ell_1, \ell_2\} \) and \( \psi_3(P_2) = \{\ell_3, \ell_4, \ell_5\} \). For \( \psi_3(P_3) \) there are several possibilities but we may assume \( \psi_3(P_3) \subset \{\ell_0, \ell_3, \ell_6, \ell_7, \ell_8\} \).

Consider the submatrix \( A_{P_1, P_2, P_3}^{\psi} \) of \( A^{\psi} \) given by the rows of \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \). Applying (14) successively to the rows defined by \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \) one has:

\[
A_{P_1, P_2, P_3}^{\psi} := \begin{pmatrix}
  a_0^i & a_1^i & a_2^i & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_6 & a_7 & a_8 & a_9 & \ldots & a_r \\
  a_0^j & a_1^j & a_2^j & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_6 & a_7 & a_8 & a_9 & \ldots & a_r \\
  a_0^k & a_1^k & a_2^k & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_6 & a_7 & a_8 & a_9 & \ldots & a_r \\
  a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_6 & a_7 & a_8 & a_9 & \ldots & a_r \\
  a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_6 & a_7 & a_8 & a_9 & \ldots & a_r \\
  a_0^m & a_1^m & a_2^m & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_6 & a_7 & a_8 & a_9 & \ldots & a_r \\
  a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_6 & a_7 & a_8 & a_9 & \ldots & a_r
\end{pmatrix};
\]

moreover, \( a_i^1 = a_1, a_2^i = a_2 \),

\[
a_0^i + a_1 + a_2 = a_0^j + a_1^j + a_2^j = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 (\Rightarrow a_0^i = a_0),
\]

\[
a_3 + a_4 + a_5 = a_3^j + a_4^j + a_5^j = a_3^m + a_4 + a_5 (\Rightarrow a_3^m = a_3)
\]

and

\[
a_0 + a_3 + a_6 + a_7 + a_8 = a_0^m + a_3^m + a_6 + a_7 + a_8.
\]

As in the proof of Proposition 4.11 we need \( \text{rank} (A_{P_1, P_2, P_3}^{\psi}) = 5 \), where \( \overline{A}_{P_1, P_2, P_3}^{\psi} \) is the matrix obtained from \( A_{P_1, P_2, P_3}^{\psi} \) by subtracting the last row.
from the first ones and forgetting the last row. We obtain:

\[
A_{P_1,P_2,P_3} := \begin{pmatrix}
    b_0 & 0 & 0 & b_3 & 0 & 0 & b_6 & b_7 & b_8 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
    b_0' & b_1' & b_2' & b_3 & 0 & 0 & b_6 & b_7 & b_8 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
    b_0 & 0 & 0 & b_3 & 0 & 0 & b_6 & b_7 & b_8 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
    b_0 & 0 & 0 & b_3' & b_4' & b_5' & b_6 & b_7 & b_8 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
    b_0 & 0 & 0 & b_3 & 0 & 0 & b_6 & b_7 & b_8 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
\end{pmatrix}
\]

which cannot have rank 5.

(2) If \( \psi_3(P_1), \psi_3(P_2) \) and \( \psi_3(P_3) \) have a common line, say \( \ell_0 \), we follow the same strategy and obtain the desired result.

\[\square\]

Our main goal is to check if \( \psi_3 \) is induced by an element of \( \text{Aut}(\mathcal{C}) \). The next example shows that we need enough triangles.

**Example 4.14.** Note that Proposition 4.11 does not automatically ensure that in general an automorphism of the combinatorics is produced. For instance, consider the combinatorics \( \mathcal{C} \) given by the lines \( \{0,1,\ldots,6\} \), and the following triple points \( \{0,1,2\} \), \( \{2,3,4\} \), and \( \{4,5,6\} \) (the remaining intersections are double points). It is easy to see that such a combinatorics is pointwise 3-admissible. Let \( \psi : H_{\mathcal{C}} \rightarrow H_{\mathcal{C}} \) be given by the following matrix:

\[
A^\psi := \begin{pmatrix}
    1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
    0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
    0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\end{pmatrix},
\]

satisfying the admissibility relations. This induces the following maps:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{P}_3 & \xrightarrow{\psi} \mathcal{P}_3 \\
\{0,1,2\} & \mapsto \{0,1,2\} \\
\{2,3,4\} & \mapsto \{4,5,6\} \\
\{4,5,6\} & \mapsto \{2,3,4\}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{gr}^1 M_\mathcal{C} & \xrightarrow{\wedge^2 \psi} \text{gr}^1 M_\mathcal{C} \\
x_{0,1} & \mapsto x_{0,1} \\
x_{2,3} & \mapsto x_{4,5} \\
x_{4,5} & \mapsto x_{2,3},
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \text{gr}^1 M_\mathcal{C} \cong \langle x_{0,1} \rangle \mathbb{Z} \oplus \langle x_{2,3} \rangle \mathbb{Z} \oplus \langle x_{4,5} \rangle \mathbb{Z} \).

However, the given permutation is not induced by an automorphism of the combinatorics, because the point \( \{2,3,4\} \) (which is the only one that shares a line with the other two) is not fixed.
We want to apply the previous results to $C_{\text{Ryb}}$. First we will check that $C_{\text{Ryb}}$ is pointwise 3-admissible.

**Lemma 4.15.** An admissible subcombinatorics of $C_{\text{Ryb}}$ cannot have lines in both $R_1 := \{3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$ and $R_2 := \{8, 9, 10, 11, 12\}$.

**Proof.** Any subcombinatorics of $C_{\text{Ryb}}$ having lines in both $R_1$ and $R_2$ verifies the conditions of Example 4.9(3). 

**Lemma 4.16.** $C_{\text{ML}}$ is pointwise 3-admissible.

**Proof.** It is not difficult to prove that any combinatorics (with only double and triple points) of less than 6 lines (other than $M_3$) is not 3-admissible. In Example 4.9(5) it is shown for the whole combinatorics of eight lines. Let us check the remaining cases, that is, six and seven lines. Note that, up to a combinatorics automorphism, there is a unique way to remove one line. There are, however, two possible ways to remove two lines, depending on whether they intersect or not at a triple point. Therefore we only have to check the following cases:

1. For 7 lines
   \[
   \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} : \{3, 6\} \rightarrow v_3 \| v_6 \| v_2 \rightarrow v_4 \| v_1 \| v_3 \rightarrow v_5.
   \]
2. For 6 lines, removing two lines intersecting at a triple point
   \[
   \{0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} : \{3, 5\} \rightarrow v_5 \| v_3 \| v_6 \| v_4 \rightarrow v_2 \| v_1 \| v_3 \| v_5 \rightarrow v_2 \| v_4.
   \]
3. For 6 lines, removing two lines intersecting at a double point
   \[
   \{0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7\} : \{2, 3\} \| v_2 \| v_3 \| v_4 \| v_5 \| v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \| v_5 \| v_7.
   \]

**Proposition 4.17.** $C_{\text{Ryb}}$ is pointwise 3-admissible.

**Proof.** An immediate consequence of Lemmas 4.15 and 4.16.

**Remarks 4.18.** In order to prove that for any $\psi \in \text{Aut}^1(H_{\text{Ryb}})$, $\psi_3$ comes from an element of $\text{Aut}(C_{\text{Ryb}})$ we need to know more combinatorial properties of $C_{\text{Ryb}}$ and $C_{\text{ML}}$.

1. The triple point $\{0, 1, 2\} \in P_3$ in $C_{\text{Ryb}}$ is the only one that belongs to 36 triangles.
2. Any triple point $P \in P_3$ in $C_{\text{Ryb}}$ except for $\{3, 6, 7\}$ and $\{8, 11, 12\}$ satisfies that $\{0, 1, 2\}$ and $P$ are in a triangle.
3. Any two triple points in $C_{\text{ML}}$ sharing a line belong to a triangle.
4. For any three triple points $P_1, P_2, P_3$ in $C_{\text{ML}}$, there exists another triple point $Q$ such that $Q, P_i, P_j$ belong to a triangle ($i, j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$).

**Proposition 4.19.** Let $\psi \in \text{Aut}^1(C_{\text{Ryb}})$. 

(1) \( \psi_3(\{0, 1, 2\}) = \{0, 1, 2\} \)
(2) \( \psi_3 \) either preserves (resp. exchanges) the triple points of \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \) in \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{Ryb}} \) inducing an automorphism
(3) The action of \( \psi_3 \) on \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \) comes from an automorphism (resp. isomorphism) of their combinatorics.

**Proof.** Part (1) is true by Propositions 4.11-4.13 and Remark 4.18(1). By Remark 4.18(2), the points \( \{3, 6, 7\} \) and \( \{8, 11, 12\} \) are either preserved or exchanged. In order to prove (2) and (3), we may suppose that \( \psi_3(\{3, 6, 7\}) = \{3, 6, 7\} \). Recall that the subcombinatorics defined by \( R_0 \cup R_i \) is isomorphic to \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}} \). Since triangles are preserved by \( \psi_3 \) (Proposition 4.13), according to Remark 4.18(3) the images of any two triple points in \( R_0 \cup R_1 \) sharing a line also share a line. This implies, using Remark 4.18(4) again, that the image of any three triple points on \( R_0 \cup R_1 \) sharing a line are also three points sharing a line. Since any line in \( R_1 \) or \( R_2 \) has at least three triple points, we conclude (2) and (3). \( \square \)

**Proposition 4.20.** Let \( \psi \in \text{Aut}^1(\mathcal{H}_{\text{Ryb}}) \); then \( \psi_3 : P_3 \to P_3 \) is induced by an automorphism of \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{Ryb}} \).

**Proof.** We will use Proposition 4.19 repeatedly. We can compose \( \psi \) with an element of \( \text{Aut}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{Ryb}}) \) in order to have \( \psi_3 \) preserve the triple points in \( R_i \). Recall that \( \psi_3|_{R_0 \cup R_i} \) comes from an automorphism \( \varphi_i \) of \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{ML}} \) which respects \( \{0, 1, 2\} \). Composing again with an element of \( \text{Aut}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{Ryb}}) \) we may suppose that \( \varphi_1 \) is the identity on \( \{0, 1, 2\} \). It is enough to prove that it is also the case for \( \varphi_2 \). If it is not the case, we may assume (by conjugation with an element of \( \text{Aut}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{Ryb}}) \)) that \( \varphi_2(0) = 1 \). There are two possibilities to be checked, depending on whether 9 and 10 are fixed or permuted. In both cases, the triple points \( \{0, 1, 2\}, \{3, 6, 7\} \) and \( \{8, 11, 12\} \) are fixed. Using the arguments in the proofs of Propositions 4.11 and 4.13, one can obtain the induced matrices \( A^\psi \) with all the admissibility relations, which, modulo \( \mathbb{I}_{13} \) do not have a maximal rank in either case. \( \square \)

**Proposition 4.21.** \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{Ryb}} \) is homologically rigid.

**Proof.** Let \( \psi \in \text{Aut}^1(\mathcal{H}_{\text{Ryb}}) \); by Propositions 4.20 and 4.13, \( \psi_3 \) comes from an automorphism of the combinatorics. Composing with the inverse of such an automorphism, we may suppose that \( \psi_3 = 1_{P_3} \). It is hence enough to prove that any isomorphism \( \psi \in \text{Aut}^1(\mathcal{H}_{\text{Ryb}}) \) that induces the identity on \( \psi_3 \) is just \( \pm 1_{H_{\text{Ryb}}} \). From the definition of \( \text{Adm}_\psi(P) \), \( P \in P_3 \), we deduce the following. Let us fix the \( j^{th} \)-column; all the entries in this column corresponding to \( P \in P_3 \) such that \( j \notin P \) are equal. We deduce from this that we can choose \( A^\psi \) such that all the elements outside the diagonal are constant in their column. Adding multiples of
we obtain that $A^\psi$ can be chosen to be diagonal. We also know that for each $P \in \mathcal{P}_3$, the diagonal terms corresponding to $\mathcal{P}$ are equal and since any two elements can be joined by a chain of triple points, we deduce that all the diagonal terms are equal. Since $\psi$ is an automorphism, they are equal to $\pm 1$ and then $\psi = \pm 1_{H_{Cr_\text{Ryb}}}$. □

Therefore we can prove the main result.

**Theorem 4.22.** The fundamental groups of the two complex realizations of Rybnikov’s combinatorics are not isomorphic.

**Proof.** Let $G_+$ and $G_-$ be the fundamental groups of $R_{\omega,\omega}$ and $R_{\bar{\omega},\omega}$ respectively. Any isomorphism $\tilde{\psi} : G_+ \to G_-$ will produce an automorphism $\psi : H_{Cr_\text{Ryb}} \equiv G_+/G'_+ \to G_-/G'_- \equiv H_{Cr_\text{Ryb}}$, that is, we can consider $\psi \in \text{Aut}^1(\mathcal{C}_{\text{Ryb}})$. By Theorem 4.21, $\psi$ induces an automorphism of $\mathcal{C}_{\text{Ryb}}$. Since the identifications $H_{Cr_\text{Ryb}} \equiv G_+/G'_+$ are made up to the action of $\text{Aut}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{Ryb}})$, we may assume that $\psi$ induces $\pm 1_{H_{Cr_\text{Ryb}}}$. Moreover, eventually exchanging $R_{\omega,\omega}$ (resp. $R_{\bar{\omega},\omega}$) for $R_{\bar{\omega},\omega}$ (resp. $R_{\omega,\bar{\omega}}$), see Example 4.10 by means of the automorphism given by complex conjugation, we may assume that $\psi = 1_{H_{Cr_\text{Ryb}}}$ (Proposition 4.21). Therefore $\tilde{\psi}$ is a homologically trivial isomorphism between $G_+$ and $G_-$, something which is ruled out by Theorem 3.11. □

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Departamento de Matemáticas, Campus Plaza de San Francisco s/n, E-50009 Zaragoza Spain
E-mail address: artal@unizar.es

Departamento de Sistemas informáticos y programación, Universidad Complutense, Ciudad Universitaria s/n, E-28040 Madrid Spain
E-mail address: jcarmona@sip.ucm.es

Departamento de Matemáticas, Campus Plaza de San Francisco s/n, E-50009 Zaragoza Spain
E-mail address: jicogo@unizar.es

Departamento de Matemáticas, Campus Plaza de San Francisco s/n, E-50009 Zaragoza Spain
E-mail address: mmarco@unizar.es