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## Yang-Mills and some related algebras

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*Dedicated to Jacques Bros*

**Summary.** After a short introduction on the theory of homogeneous algebras we describe the application of this theory to the analysis of the cubic Yang-Mills algebra, the quadratic self-duality algebras, their “super” versions as well as to some generalization.

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### 1.1 Introduction

Consider the classical Yang-Mills equations in  $(s + 1)$ -dimensional pseudo Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^{s+1}$  with pseudo metric denoted by  $g_{\mu\nu}$  in the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{R}^{s+1}$  corresponding to coordinates  $x^\lambda$ . For the moment the signature plays no role so  $g_{\mu\nu}$  is simply a real nondegenerate symmetric matrix with inverse denoted by  $g^{\mu\nu}$ . In terms of the covariant derivatives  $\nabla_\mu = \partial_\mu + A_\mu$  ( $\partial_\mu = \partial/\partial x^\mu$ ) the Yang-Mills equations read

$$g^{\lambda\mu}[\nabla_\lambda, [\nabla_\mu, \nabla_\nu]] = 0 \quad (1.1)$$

for  $\nu \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ . By forgetting the detailed origin of these equations, it is natural to consider the abstract unital associative algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  generated by  $(s + 1)$  elements  $\nabla_\lambda$  with the  $(s + 1)$  cubic relations (1.1). This algebra will be referred to as the Yang-Mills algebra. It is worth noticing here that Equations (1.1) only involve the product through commutators so that, by its very definition the Yang-Mills algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  is a universal enveloping algebra.

Our aim here is to present the analysis of the Yang-Mills algebra and of some related algebras based on the recent development of the theory of homogeneous algebras [2], [4]. This analysis is only partly published in [10].

In the next section we recall some basic concepts and results on homogeneous algebras which will be used in this paper.

Section 3 is devoted to the Yang-Mills algebra. In this section we recall the definitions and the results of [10]. The proofs are omitted since these are in [10] and since very similar proofs are given in Sections 4 and 6. Instead, we describe the structure of the bimodule resolution of the Yang-Mills algebra and the structure of the corresponding small bicomplexes which compute the Hochschild homology.

In Section 4 we define the super Yang-Mills algebra and we prove for this algebra results which are the counterpart of the results of [10] for the Yang-Mills algebra.

In Section 5 we define and study the super self-duality algebra. In particular, we prove for this algebra the analog of the results of [10] for the self-duality algebra and we point out a very surprising connection between the super self-duality algebra and the algebras occurring in our analysis of noncommutative 3-spheres [9], [11].

In Section 6 we describe some deformations of the Yang-Mills algebra and of the super Yang-Mills algebra.

## 1.2 Homogeneous algebras

Although we shall be concerned in the following with the cubic Yang-Mills algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ , the quadratic self-duality algebra  $\mathcal{A}^{(+)}$  [10] and some related algebras, we recall in this section some constructions and some results for general  $N$ -homogeneous algebras [4], [2]. All vector spaces are over a fixed commutative field  $\mathbb{K}$ .

A *homogeneous algebra of degree  $N$  or  $N$ -homogeneous algebra* is an algebra of the form

$$\mathcal{A} = A(E, R) = T(E)/(R)$$

where  $E$  is a finite-dimensional vector space,  $R$  is a linear subspace of  $E^{\otimes N}$  and where  $(R)$  denotes the two-sided ideal of the tensor algebra  $T(E)$  of  $E$  generated by  $R$ . The algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  is naturally a connected graded algebra with graduation induced by the one of  $T(E)$ . To  $\mathcal{A}$  is associated another  $N$ -homogeneous algebra, its *dual*  $\mathcal{A}^! = A(E^*, R^\perp)$  with  $E^*$  denoting the dual vector space of  $E$  and  $R^\perp \subset E^{\otimes N*} = E^{*\otimes N}$  being the annihilator of  $R$ , [4]. The  $N$ -complex  $K(\mathcal{A})$  of left  $\mathcal{A}$ -modules is then defined to be

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{n+1}^{!*} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_n^{!*} \xrightarrow{d} \cdots \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{A} \rightarrow 0 \quad (1.2)$$

where  $\mathcal{A}_n^{!*}$  is the dual vector space of the finite-dimensional vector space  $\mathcal{A}_n^!$  of the elements of degree  $n$  of  $\mathcal{A}^!$  and where  $d : \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{n+1}^{!*} \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_n^{!*}$  is induced by the map  $a \otimes (e_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes e_{n+1}) \mapsto ae_1 \otimes (e_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes e_{n+1})$  of  $\mathcal{A} \otimes E^{\otimes n+1}$  into  $\mathcal{A} \otimes E^{\otimes n}$ , remembering that  $\mathcal{A}_n^{!*} \subset E^{\otimes n}$ , (see [4]). In (1.2) the factors  $\mathcal{A}$  are considered as left  $\mathcal{A}$ -modules. By considering  $\mathcal{A}$  as right  $\mathcal{A}$ -module and by exchanging the factors one obtains the  $N$ -complex  $\tilde{K}(\mathcal{A})$  of right  $\mathcal{A}$ -modules

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}} \mathcal{A}_{n+1}^{!*} \otimes \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}} \mathcal{A}_n^{!*} \otimes \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}} \cdots \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}} \mathcal{A} \rightarrow 0 \quad (1.3)$$

where now  $\tilde{d}$  is induced by  $(e_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes e_{n+1}) \otimes a \mapsto (e_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes e_n) \otimes e_{n+1}a$ . Finally one defines two  $N$ -differentials  $d_{\mathbf{L}}$  and  $d_{\mathbf{R}}$  on the sequence of  $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A})$ -bimodules, i.e. of left  $\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}^{opp}$ -modules,  $(\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_n^{!*} \otimes \mathcal{A})_{n \geq 0}$  by setting  $d_{\mathbf{L}} = d \otimes I_{\mathcal{A}}$  and  $d_{\mathbf{R}} = I_{\mathcal{A}} \otimes \tilde{d}$  where  $I_{\mathcal{A}}$  is the identity mapping of  $\mathcal{A}$  onto itself. For each of these  $N$ -differentials  $d_{\mathbf{L}}$  and  $d_{\mathbf{R}}$  the sequences

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d_{\mathbf{L}}, d_{\mathbf{R}}} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{n+1}^{!*} \otimes \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{d_{\mathbf{L}}, d_{\mathbf{R}}} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_n^{!*} \otimes \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{d_{\mathbf{L}}, d_{\mathbf{R}}} \cdots \quad (1.4)$$

are  $N$ -complexes of left  $\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}^{opp}$ -modules and one has

$$d_{\mathbf{L}}d_{\mathbf{R}} = d_{\mathbf{R}}d_{\mathbf{L}} \quad (1.5)$$

which implies that

$$d_{\mathbf{L}}^N - d_{\mathbf{R}}^N = (d_{\mathbf{L}} - d_{\mathbf{R}}) \left( \sum_{p=0}^{N-1} d_{\mathbf{L}}^p d_{\mathbf{R}}^{N-p-1} \right) = \left( \sum_{p=0}^{N-1} d_{\mathbf{L}}^p d_{\mathbf{R}}^{N-p-1} \right) (d_{\mathbf{L}} - d_{\mathbf{R}}) = 0 \quad (1.6)$$

in view of  $d_{\mathbf{L}}^N = d_{\mathbf{R}}^N = 0$ .

As for any  $N$ -complex [13] one obtains from  $K(\mathcal{A})$  ordinary complexes  $C_{p,r}(K(\mathcal{A}))$ , the *contractions of  $K(\mathcal{A})$* , by putting together alternatively  $p$  and  $N-p$  arrows  $d$  of  $K(\mathcal{A})$ . Explicitly  $C_{p,r}(K(\mathcal{A}))$  is given by

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d^{N-p}} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{Nk+r}^{!*} \xrightarrow{d^p} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{Nk-p+r}^{!*} \xrightarrow{d^{N-p}} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{N(k-1)+r}^{!*} \xrightarrow{d^p} \cdots \quad (1.7)$$

for  $0 \leq r < p \leq N-1$ , [4]. These are here chain complexes of free left  $\mathcal{A}$ -modules. As shown in [4] the complex  $C_{N-1,0}(K(\mathcal{A}))$  coincides with the *Koszul complex* of [2]; this complex will be denoted by  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})$  in the sequel. That is one has

$$\mathcal{K}_{2m}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K}) = \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{Nm}^{!*}, \quad \mathcal{K}_{2m+1}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K}) = \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{Nm+1}^{!*} \quad (1.8)$$

for  $m \geq 0$ , and the differential is  $d^{N-1}$  on  $\mathcal{K}_{2m}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})$  and  $d$  on  $\mathcal{K}_{2m+1}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})$ . If  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})$  is acyclic in positive degrees then  $\mathcal{A}$  will be said to be a *Koszul algebra*. It was shown in [2] and this was confirmed by the analysis of [4] that this is the right generalization for  $N$ -homogeneous algebra of the usual notion

of Koszulity for quadratic algebras [17], [16]. One always has  $H_0(\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})) \simeq \mathbb{K}$  and therefore if  $\mathcal{A}$  is Koszul, then one has a free resolution  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow \mathbb{K} \rightarrow 0$  of the trivial left  $\mathcal{A}$ -module  $\mathbb{K}$ , that is the exact sequence

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d^{N-1}} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{N+1}^{!*} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{A} \otimes R \xrightarrow{d^{N-1}} \mathcal{A} \otimes E \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathbb{K} \rightarrow 0 \quad (1.9)$$

of left  $\mathcal{A}$ -modules where  $\varepsilon$  is the projection on degree zero. This resolution is a minimal projective resolution of  $\mathcal{A}$  in the graded category [3].

One defines now the chain complex of free  $\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}^{opp}$ -modules  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A})$  by setting

$$\mathcal{K}_{2m}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{Nm}^{!*} \otimes \mathcal{A}, \quad \mathcal{K}_{2m+1}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{N(m+1)}^{!*} \otimes \mathcal{A} \quad (1.10)$$

for  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  with differential  $\delta'$  defined by

$$\delta' = d_L - d_R : \mathcal{K}_{2m+1}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{2m}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}) \quad (1.11)$$

$$\delta' = \sum_{p=0}^{N-1} d_L^p d_R^{N-p-1} : \mathcal{K}_{2(m+1)}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{2m+1}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}) \quad (1.12)$$

the property  $\delta'^2 = 0$  following from (1.6). *This complex is acyclic in positive degrees if and only if  $\mathcal{A}$  is Koszul*, that is if and only if  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})$  is acyclic in positive degrees, [2] and [4]. One always has the obvious exact sequence

$$\mathcal{A} \otimes E \otimes \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\delta'} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\mu} \mathcal{A} \rightarrow 0 \quad (1.13)$$

of left  $\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}^{opp}$ -modules where  $\mu$  denotes the product of  $\mathcal{A}$ . It follows that if  $\mathcal{A}$  is a Koszul algebra then  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}) \xrightarrow{\mu} \mathcal{A} \rightarrow 0$  is a free resolution of the  $\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}^{opp}$ -module  $\mathcal{A}$  which will be referred to as *the Koszul resolution of  $\mathcal{A}$* . This is a minimal projective resolution of  $\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}^{opp}$  in the graded category [3].

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a Koszul algebra and let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a  $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A})$ -bimodule considered as a right  $\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}^{opp}$ -module. Then, by interpreting the  $\mathcal{M}$ -valued Hochschild homology  $H(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$  as  $H_n(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M}) = \text{Tor}_n^{\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}^{opp}}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A})$  [6], the complex  $\mathcal{M} \otimes_{\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}^{opp}} \mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A})$  computes the  $\mathcal{M}$ -valued Hochschild homology of  $\mathcal{A}$ , (i.e. its homology is the ordinary  $\mathcal{M}$ -valued Hochschild homology of  $\mathcal{A}$ ). We shall refer to this complex as *the small Hochschild complex of  $\mathcal{A}$*  with coefficients in  $\mathcal{M}$  and denote it by  $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$ . It reads

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\delta} \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{N(m+1)}^{!*} \xrightarrow{\delta} \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{Nm+1}^{!*} \xrightarrow{\delta} \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{A}_{Nm}^{!*} \xrightarrow{\delta} \cdots \quad (1.14)$$

where  $\delta$  is obtained from  $\delta'$  by applying the factors  $d_L$  to the right of  $\mathcal{M}$  and the factors  $d_R$  to the left of  $\mathcal{M}$ .

Assume that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a Koszul algebra of finite global dimension  $D$ . Then the Koszul resolution of  $\mathbb{K}$  has length  $D$ , i.e.  $D$  is the largest integer such that  $\mathcal{K}_D(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K}) \neq 0$ . By construction,  $D$  is also the greatest integer such that  $\mathcal{K}_D(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}) \neq 0$  so the free  $\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A}^{opp}$ -module resolution of  $\mathcal{A}$  has also length  $D$ . Thus for a Koszul algebra, the global dimension is equal to the Hochschild dimension. Applying then the functor  $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(\bullet, \mathcal{A})$  to  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})$  one obtains the cochain complex  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})$  of free right  $\mathcal{A}$ -modules

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}^0(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \mathcal{L}^D(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow 0$$

where  $\mathcal{L}^n(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K}) = \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{K}_n(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K}), \mathcal{A})$ . The Koszul algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  is Gorenstein iff  $H^n(\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})) = 0$  for  $n < D$  and  $H^D(\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})) = \mathbb{K}$  (= the trivial right  $\mathcal{A}$ -module). This is clearly a generalisation of the classical Poincaré duality and this implies a precise form of Poincaré duality between Hochschild homology and Hochschild cohomology [5], [20], [21]. In the case of the Yang-Mills algebra and its deformations which are Koszul Gorenstein cubic algebras of global dimension 3, this Poincaré duality gives isomorphisms

$$H_k(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M}) = H^{3-k}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M}), \quad k \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \quad (1.15)$$

between the Hochschild homology and the Hochschild cohomology with coefficients in a bimodule  $\mathcal{M}$ .

### 1.3 The Yang-Mills algebra

Let  $(g_{\lambda\mu}) \in M_{s+1}(\mathbb{K})$  be an invertible symmetric  $(s+1) \times (s+1)$ -matrix with inverse  $(g^{\lambda\mu})$ , i.e.  $g_{\lambda\mu}g^{\mu\nu} = \delta_{\lambda}^{\nu}$ . The Yang-Mills algebra is the cubic algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  generated by  $s+1$  elements  $\nabla_{\lambda}$  ( $\lambda \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ ) with the  $s+1$  relations

$$g^{\lambda\mu}[\nabla_{\lambda}, [\nabla_{\mu}, \nabla_{\nu}]] = 0, \quad \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\}$$

that is  $\mathcal{A} = A(E, R)$  with  $E = \bigoplus_{\lambda} \mathbb{K} \nabla_{\lambda}$  and  $R \subset E^{\otimes 3}$  given by

$$\begin{aligned} R &= \sum_{\nu} \mathbb{K} g^{\lambda\mu} [\nabla_{\lambda}, [\nabla_{\mu}, \nabla_{\nu}]] \otimes \otimes \\ &= \sum_{\rho} \mathbb{K} (g^{\rho\lambda} g^{\mu\nu} + g^{\nu\rho} g^{\lambda\mu} - 2g^{\rho\mu} g^{\lambda\nu}) \nabla_{\lambda} \otimes \nabla_{\mu} \otimes \nabla_{\nu} \end{aligned} \quad (1.16)$$

In [10] the following theorem was proved.

**Theorem 1.** *The cubic Yang-Mills algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  is Koszul of global dimension 3 and is Gorenstein.*

The proof of this theorem relies on the computation of the dual cubic algebra  $\mathcal{A}^!$  which we now recall.

The dual  $\mathcal{A}^! = A(E^*, R^\perp)$  of the Yang-Mills algebra is the cubic algebra generated by  $s + 1$  elements  $\theta^\lambda$  ( $\lambda \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ ) with relations

$$\theta^\lambda \theta^\mu \theta^\nu = \frac{1}{s} (g^{\lambda\mu} \theta^\nu + g^{\mu\nu} \theta^\lambda - 2g^{\lambda\nu} \theta^\mu) \mathbf{g}$$

where  $\mathbf{g} = g_{\alpha\beta} \theta^\alpha \theta^\beta$ . These relations imply that  $\mathbf{g} \in \mathcal{A}_2^!$  is central in  $\mathcal{A}^!$  and that one has  $\mathcal{A}_0^! = \mathbb{K}\mathbf{1} \simeq \mathbb{K}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_1^! = \oplus_\lambda \mathbb{K}\theta^\lambda \simeq \mathbb{K}^{s+1}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_2^! = \oplus_{\mu\nu} \mathbb{K}\theta^\mu \theta^\nu \simeq \mathbb{K}^{(s+1)^2}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_3^! = \oplus_\lambda \mathbb{K}\theta^\lambda \mathbf{g} \simeq \mathbb{K}^{s+1}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_4^! = \mathbb{K}\mathbf{g}^2 \simeq \mathbb{K}$  and  $\mathcal{A}_n^! = 0$  for  $n \geq 5$ . From this, one obtains the description of [10] of the Koszul complex  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K})$  and the proof of the above theorem. It also follows that the bimodule resolution  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}) \xrightarrow{\mu} \mathcal{A} \rightarrow 0$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  reads

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\delta'_3} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathbb{K}^{s+1} \otimes \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\delta'_2} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathbb{K}^{s+1} \otimes \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\delta'_1} \mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\mu} \mathcal{A} \rightarrow 0 \quad (1.17)$$

where the components  $\delta'_k$  of  $\delta'$  in the different degrees can be computed by using the description of  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{K}) = C_{2,0}$  given in Section 3 of [10] and are given by

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \delta'_1(a \otimes e_\lambda \otimes b) = a \nabla_\lambda \otimes b - a \otimes \nabla_\lambda b \\ \delta'_2(a \otimes e_\lambda \otimes b) = (g^{\alpha\beta} \delta_\lambda^\gamma + g^{\beta\gamma} g_\lambda^\alpha - 2g^{\gamma\alpha} \delta_\lambda^\beta) \times \\ \quad \times (a \nabla_\alpha \nabla_\beta \otimes e_\gamma \otimes b + a \nabla_\alpha \otimes e_\gamma \otimes \nabla_\beta b + a \otimes e_\gamma \otimes \nabla_\alpha \nabla_\beta b) \\ \delta'_3(a \otimes b) = g^{\lambda\mu} (a \nabla_\mu \otimes e_\lambda \otimes b - a \otimes e_\lambda \otimes \nabla_\mu b) \end{array} \right. \quad (1.18)$$

where  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $e_\lambda$  ( $\lambda = 0, \dots, s$ ) is the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{K}^{s+1}$  and  $\nabla_\lambda$  are the corresponding generators of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a bimodule over  $\mathcal{A}$ . By using the above description of the Koszul resolution of  $\mathcal{A}$  one easily obtains the one of the small Hochschild complex  $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$  which reads

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \xrightarrow{\delta_3} \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathbb{K}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{\delta_2} \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathbb{K}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{\delta_1} \mathcal{M} \rightarrow 0 \quad (1.19)$$

with differential  $\delta$  given by

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \delta_1(m^\lambda \otimes e_\lambda) = m^\lambda \nabla_\lambda - \nabla_\lambda m^\lambda = [m^\lambda, \nabla_\lambda] \\ \delta_2(m^\lambda \otimes e_\lambda) = \\ \quad = ([\nabla_\mu, [\nabla^\mu, m^\lambda]] + [\nabla_\mu, [m^\mu, \nabla^\lambda]] + [m^\mu, [\nabla_\mu, \nabla^\lambda]]) \otimes e_\lambda \\ \delta_3(m) = g^{\lambda\mu} (m \nabla_\mu - \nabla_\mu m) \otimes e_\lambda = [m, \nabla^\lambda] \otimes e_\lambda \end{array} \right. \quad (1.20)$$

with obvious notations. By using (1.20) one easily verifies the duality (1.15). For instance  $H_3(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$  is  $\text{Ker}(\delta_3)$  which is given by the  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  such that

$\nabla_\lambda m = m\nabla_\lambda$  for  $\lambda = 0, \dots, s$  that is such that  $am = ma, \forall a \in \mathcal{A}$ , since  $\mathcal{A}$  is generated by the  $\nabla_\lambda$  and it is well known that this coincides with  $H^0(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$ . Similarly  $m^\lambda \otimes e_\lambda$  is in  $\text{Ker}(\delta_2)$  if and only if  $\nabla_\lambda \mapsto D(\nabla_\lambda) = g_{\lambda\mu} m^\mu$  extends as a derivation  $D$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  into  $\mathcal{M}$  ( $D \in \text{Der}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$ ) while  $m^\lambda \otimes e_\lambda = \delta_3(m)$  means that this derivation is inner  $D = \text{ad}(m) \in \text{Int}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$  from which  $H_2(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$  identifies with  $H^1(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$ , and so on.

Assume now that  $\mathcal{M}$  is graded in the sense that one has  $\mathcal{M} = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathcal{M}_n$  with  $\mathcal{A}_k \mathcal{M}_\ell \mathcal{A}_m \subset \mathcal{M}_{k+\ell+m}$ . Then the small Hochschild complex  $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$  splits into subcomplexes  $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M}) = \bigoplus_n \mathcal{S}^{(n)}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$  where  $\mathcal{S}^{(n)}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$  is the subcomplex

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_{n-4} \xrightarrow{\delta_3} \mathcal{M}_{n-3} \otimes \mathbb{K}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{\delta_2} \mathcal{M}_{n-1} \otimes \mathbb{K}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{\delta_1} \mathcal{M}_n \rightarrow 0 \quad (1.21)$$

of (1.19). Assume furthermore that the homogeneous components  $\mathcal{M}_n$  are finite-dimensional vector spaces, i.e.  $\dim(\mathcal{M}_n) \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then one has the following Euler-Poincaré formula

$$\begin{aligned} \dim(H_0^{(n)}) - \dim(H_1^{(n)}) + \dim(H_2^{(n)}) - \dim(H_3^{(n)}) = \\ \dim(\mathcal{M}_n) - (s+1)\dim(\mathcal{M}_{n-1}) + (s+1)\dim(\mathcal{M}_{n-3}) - \dim(\mathcal{M}_{n-4}) \end{aligned} \quad (1.22)$$

for the homology  $H^{(n)}$  of the chain complex  $\mathcal{S}^{(n)}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M})$ .

In the case where  $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{A}$ , it follows from the Koszuality of  $\mathcal{A}$  that the right hand side of (1.22) vanishes for  $n \neq 0$ . Denoting as usual by  $HH(\mathcal{A})$  the  $\mathcal{A}$ -valued Hochschild homology of  $\mathcal{A}$  which is here the homology of  $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A})$ , we denote by  $HH^{(n)}(\mathcal{A})$  the homology of the subcomplex  $\mathcal{S}^{(n)}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A})$ . Since  $\mathcal{A}_n = 0$  for  $n < 0$ , one has  $HH_0^{(n)}(\mathcal{A}) = 0$  for  $n < 0$ ,  $HH_1^{(n)}(\mathcal{A}) = 0$  for  $n \leq 0$ ,  $HH_2^{(n)}(\mathcal{A}) = 0$  for  $n \leq 2$  and  $HH_3^{(n)}(\mathcal{A}) = 0$  for  $n \leq 3$ . Furthermore one has

$$HH_0^{(0)}(\mathcal{A}) = HH_3^{(4)}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathbb{K} \quad (1.23)$$

$$HH_0^{(1)}(\mathcal{A}) = HH_1^{(1)}(\mathcal{A}) = HH_2^{(3)}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathbb{K}^{s+1} \quad (1.24)$$

$$HH_0^{(2)}(\mathcal{A}) = HH_1^{(2)}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathbb{K}^{\frac{(s+1)(s+2)}{2}} \quad (1.25)$$

and the Euler Poincaré formula reads here

$$\dim(HH_0^{(n)}(\mathcal{A})) + \dim(HH_2^{(n)}(\mathcal{A})) = \dim(HH_1^{(n)}(\mathcal{A})) + \dim(HH_3^{(n)}(\mathcal{A})) \quad (1.26)$$

for  $n \geq 1$  which implies

$$\dim(HH_0^{(3)}(\mathcal{A})) + (s+1) = \dim(HH_1^{(3)}(\mathcal{A})) \quad (1.27)$$

for  $n = 3$  while for  $n = 1$  and  $n = 2$  it is already contained in (1.24) and (1.25).

The complete description of the Hochschild homology and of the cyclic homology of the Yang-Mills algebra will be given in [12].

#### 1.4 The super Yang-Mills algebra

As pointed out in the introduction, the Yang-Mills algebra is the universal enveloping algebra of a Lie algebra which is graded by giving degree 1 to the generators  $\nabla_\lambda$  (see in [10]). Replacing the Lie bracket by a super Lie bracket, that is replacing in the Yang-Mills equations (1.1) the commutator by the anticommutator whenever the 2 elements are of odd degrees, one obtains a super version  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  of the Yang-Mills algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ . In other words one defines the *super Yang-Mills algebra* to be the cubic algebra  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  generated  $s + 1$  elements  $S_\lambda$  ( $\lambda \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ ) with the relations

$$g^{\lambda\mu}[S_\lambda, \{S_\mu, S_\nu\}] = 0, \quad \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\} \quad (1.28)$$

that is  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} = A(\tilde{E}, \tilde{R})$  with  $\tilde{E} = \bigoplus_\lambda \mathbb{K} S_\lambda$  and  $\tilde{R} \subset \tilde{E}^{\otimes 3}$  given by

$$\tilde{R} = \sum_\rho \mathbb{K}(g^{\rho\lambda} g^{\mu\nu} - g^{\nu\rho} g^{\lambda\mu}) S_\lambda \otimes S_\mu \otimes S_\nu \quad (1.29)$$

Relations (1.28) can be equivalently written as

$$[g^{\lambda\mu} S_\lambda S_\mu, S_\nu] = 0, \quad \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\} \quad (1.30)$$

which mean that  $g^{\lambda\mu} S_\lambda S_\mu \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_2$  is central in  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ .

It is easy to verify that the dual algebra  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^! = A(\tilde{E}^*, \tilde{R}^\perp)$  is the cubic algebra generated by  $s + 1$  elements  $\xi^\lambda$  ( $\lambda \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ ) with the relations

$$\xi^\lambda \xi^\mu \xi^\nu = -\frac{1}{s}(g^{\lambda\mu} \xi^\nu - g^{\mu\nu} \xi^\lambda) \mathbf{g}$$

where  $\mathbf{g} = g_{\alpha\beta} \xi^\alpha \xi^\beta$ . These relations imply that  $\mathbf{g} \xi^\nu + \xi^\nu \mathbf{g} = 0$ , i.e.

$$\{g_{\lambda\mu} \xi^\lambda \xi^\mu, \xi^\nu\} = 0, \quad \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\} \quad (1.31)$$

and that one has  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_0^! = \mathbb{K} \mathbb{1} \simeq \mathbb{K}$ ,  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_1^! = \bigoplus_\lambda \mathbb{K} \xi^\lambda \simeq \mathbb{K}^{s+1}$ ,  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_2^! = \bigoplus_{\mu\nu} \mathbb{K} \xi^\mu \xi^\nu \simeq \mathbb{K}^{(s+1)^2}$ ,  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_3^! = \bigoplus_\lambda \mathbb{K} \xi^\lambda \mathbf{g} \simeq \mathbb{K}^{s+1}$ ,  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_4^! = \mathbb{K} \mathbf{g}^2 \simeq \mathbb{K}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n^! = 0$  for  $n \geq 5$ .

The Koszul complex  $\mathcal{K}(\tilde{\mathcal{A}}, \mathbb{K})$  of  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  then reads

$$0 \rightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \xrightarrow{S^t} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{N} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{S} \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow 0$$



where  $S$  means right multiplication by the column with components  $S_\lambda$ ,  $S^t$  means right multiplication by the row with components  $S_\lambda$  and  $N$  means right multiplication (matrix product) by the matrix with components

$$N^{\mu\nu} = (g^{\mu\nu}g^{\alpha\beta} - g^{\mu\alpha}g^{\nu\beta})S_\alpha S_\beta$$

with  $\lambda, \mu, \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ . One has the following result.

**Theorem 2.** *The cubic super Yang-Mills algebra  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  is Koszul of global dimension 3 and is Gorenstein.*

Proof. By the very definition of  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  by generators and relations, the sequence

$$\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{N} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{S} \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathbb{K} \rightarrow 0$$

is exact. On the other hand it is easy to see that the mapping  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} \xrightarrow{S^t} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{s+1}$  is injective and that the sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \xrightarrow{S^t} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{N} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{S} \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathbb{K} \rightarrow 0$$

is exact which implies that  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  is Koszul of global dimension 3. The Gorenstein property follows from the symmetry by transposition.  $\square$

The situation is completely similar to the Yang-Mills case, in particular  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  has Hochschild dimension 3 and, by applying a result of [15],  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  has the same Poincaré series as  $\mathcal{A}$  i.e. one has the formula

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \dim(\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n)t^n = \frac{1}{(1-t^2)(1-(s+1)t+t^2)} \quad (1.32)$$

which, as will be shown elsewhere, can be interpreted in terms of the quantum group of the bilinear form  $(g_{\mu\nu})$  [14] by noting the invariance of Relations (1.30) by this quantum group. For  $s = 1$  the Yang-Mills algebra and the super Yang-Mills algebra are particular cubic Artin-Schelter algebras [1] whereas for  $s \geq 2$  these algebras have exponential growth as follows from Formula (1.32).

### 1.5 The super self-duality algebra

There are natural quotients  $\mathcal{B}$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}$  of  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  which are connected with parastatistics and which have been investigated in [15]. The *parafermionic algebra*  $\mathcal{B}$  is the cubic algebra generated by elements  $\nabla_\lambda$  ( $\lambda \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ ) with relations

$$[\nabla_\lambda, [\nabla_\mu, \nabla_\nu]] = 0$$

for any  $\lambda, \mu, \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ , while the *parabosonic algebra*  $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}$  is the cubic algebra generated by elements  $S_\lambda$  ( $\lambda \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ ) with relations

$$[S_\lambda, \{S_\mu, S_\nu\}] = 0$$

for any  $\lambda, \mu, \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ . In contrast to the Yang-Mills and the super Yang-Mills algebras  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  which have exponential growth whenever  $s \geq 2$ , these algebras  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}$  have polynomial growth with Poincaré series given by

$$\sum_n \dim(\mathcal{B}_n)t^n = \sum_n \dim(\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_n)t^n = \left(\frac{1}{1-t}\right)^{s+1} \left(\frac{1}{1-t^2}\right)^{\frac{s(s+1)}{2}}$$

but they are not Koszul for  $s \geq 2$ , [15].

In a sense, the algebra  $\mathcal{B}$  can be considered to be somehow trivial from the point of view of the classical Yang-Mills equations in dimension  $s+1 \geq 3$  although the algebras  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}$  are quite interesting for other purposes [15]. It turns out that in dimension  $s+1 = 4$  with  $g_{\mu\nu} = \delta_{\mu\nu}$  (Euclidean case), the Yang-Mills algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  has non trivial quotients  $\mathcal{A}^{(+)}$  and  $\mathcal{A}^{(-)}$  which are quadratic algebras referred to as the *self-duality algebra* and the *anti-self-duality algebra* respectively [10]. Let  $\varepsilon = \pm$ , the algebra  $\mathcal{A}^{(\varepsilon)}$  is the quadratic algebra generated by the elements  $\nabla_\lambda$  ( $\lambda \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, \}$ ) with relations

$$[\nabla_0, \nabla_k] = \varepsilon[\nabla_\ell, \nabla_m]$$

for any cyclic permutation  $(k, \ell, m)$  of  $(1, 2, 3)$ . One passes from  $\mathcal{A}^{(-)}$  to  $\mathcal{A}^{(+)}$  by changing the orientation of  $\mathbb{K}^4$  so one can restrict attention to the self-duality algebra  $\mathcal{A}^{(+)}$ . This algebra has been studied in [10] where it was shown in particular that it is Koszul of global dimension 2. For further details on this algebra and on the Yang-Mills algebra, we refer to [10] and to the forthcoming paper [12]. Our aim now in this section is to define and study the super version of the self-duality algebra.

Let  $\varepsilon = +$  or  $-$  and define  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(\varepsilon)}$  to be the quadratic algebra generated by the elements  $S_0, S_1, S_2, S_3$  with relations

$$i\{S_0, S_k\} = \varepsilon[S_\ell, S_m] \tag{1.33}$$

for any cyclic permutation  $(k, \ell, m)$  of  $(1, 2, 3)$ . One has the following.

**Lemma 1.** *Relations (1.33) imply that one has*

$$\left[ \sum_{\mu=0}^3 (S_\mu)^2, S_\lambda \right] = 0$$

for any  $\lambda \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . In other words,  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(-)}$  are quotients of the super Yang-Mills algebra  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  for  $s+1=4$  and  $g_{\mu\nu} = \delta_{\mu\nu}$ .

The proof which is a straightforward verification makes use of the Jacobi identity (see also in [18]). Thus  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(-)}$  play the same role with respect

to  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  as  $\mathcal{A}^{(+)}$  and  $\mathcal{A}^{(-)}$  with respect to  $\mathcal{A}$ . Accordingly they will be respectively called the *super self-duality algebra* and the *super anti-self-duality algebra*. Again  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(-)}$  are exchanged by changing the orientation of  $\mathbb{K}^4$  and we shall restrict attention to the super self-duality algebra in the following, i.e. to the quadratic algebra  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}$  generated by  $S_0, S_1, S_2, S_3$  with relations

$$i\{S_0, S_k\} = [S_\ell, S_m] \quad (1.34)$$

for any cyclic permutation  $(k, \ell, m)$  of  $(1, 2, 3)$ . One has the following result.

**Theorem 3.** *The quadratic super self-duality algebra  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}$  is a Koszul algebra of global dimension 2.*

Proof. One verifies that the dual quadratic algebra  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger}$  is generated by elements  $\xi^0, \xi^1, \xi^2, \xi^3$  with relations  $(\xi^\lambda)^2 = 0$ , for  $\lambda = 0, 1, 2, 3$  and  $\xi^\ell \xi^m = -\xi^m \xi^\ell = i\xi^0 \xi^k = i\xi^k \xi^0$  for any cyclic permutation  $(k, \ell, m)$  of  $(1, 2, 3)$ . So one has  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_0^{(+)\dagger} = \mathbb{K}\mathbb{1} \simeq \mathbb{K}$ ,  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_1^{(+)\dagger} = \bigoplus_\lambda \mathbb{K}\xi^\lambda \simeq \mathbb{K}^4$ ,  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_2^{(+)\dagger} = \bigoplus_k \mathbb{K}\xi^0 \xi^k \simeq \mathbb{K}^3$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n^{(+)\dagger} = 0$  for  $n \geq 3$  since the above relations imply  $\xi^\lambda \xi^\mu \xi^\nu = 0$  for any  $\lambda, \mu, \nu \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . The Koszul complex  $K(\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}) = \mathcal{K}(\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}, \mathbb{K})$  (quadratic case) then reads

$$0 \rightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger 3} \xrightarrow{D} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger 4} \xrightarrow{S} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger} \rightarrow 0$$

where  $S$  means right matrix product with the column with components  $S_\lambda$  ( $\lambda \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ ) and  $D$  means right matrix product with

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} iS_1 & iS_0 & S_3 & -S_2 \\ iS_2 & -S_3 & iS_0 & S_1 \\ iS_3 & S_2 & -S_1 & iS_0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.35)$$

It follows from the definition of  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}$  by generators and relations that the sequence

$$\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger 3} \xrightarrow{D} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger 4} \xrightarrow{S} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathbb{K} \rightarrow 0$$

is exact. On the other hand one shows easily that the mapping  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger 3} \xrightarrow{D} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger 4}$  is injective so finally the sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger 3} \xrightarrow{D} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger 4} \xrightarrow{S} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathbb{K} \rightarrow 0$$

is exact which implies the result.  $\square$

This theorem implies that the super self-duality algebra  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}$  has Hochschild dimension 2 and that its Poincaré series is given by

$$P_{\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}}(t) = \frac{1}{(1-t)(1-3t)}$$

in view of the structure of its dual  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)\dagger}$  described in the proof. Thus everything is similar to the case of the self-duality algebra  $\mathcal{A}^{(+)}$ .

Let us recall that the *Sklyanin algebra*, in the presentation given by Sklyanin [18], is the quadratic algebra  $\mathcal{S}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)$  generated by 4 elements  $S_0, S_1, S_2, S_3$  with relations

$$i\{S_0, S_k\} = [S_\ell, S_m]$$

$$[S_0, S_k] = i \frac{\alpha_\ell - \alpha_m}{\alpha_k} \{S_\ell, S_m\}$$

for any cyclic permutation  $(k, \ell, m)$  of  $(1, 2, 3)$ . One sees that the relations of the super self-duality algebra  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)}$  are the relations of the Sklyanin algebra which are independent from the parameters  $\alpha_k$ . Thus one has a sequence of surjective homomorphisms of connected graded algebra

$$\tilde{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{A}}^{(+)} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)$$

On the other hand for *generic values of the parameters* the Sklyanin algebra is Koszul Gorenstein of global dimension 4 [19] with the same Poincaré series as the polynomial algebra  $\mathbb{K}[X_0, X_1, X_2, X_3]$  and corresponds to the natural ambient noncommutative 4-dimensional Euclidean space containing the noncommutative 3-spheres described in [9], [11] (their “homogeneisation”). This gives a very surprising connection between the present study and our noncommutative 3-spheres for generic values of the parameters. It is worth noticing here that in the analysis of [11] several bridges between noncommutative differential geometry in the sense of [7], [8] and noncommutative algebraic geometry have been established.

## 1.6 Deformations

The aim of this section is to study deformations of the Yang-Mills algebra and of the super Yang-Mills algebra. We use the notations of Sections 3 and 4.

Let the dimension  $s + 1 \geq 2$  and the pseudo metric  $g_{\lambda\mu}$  be fixed and let  $\zeta \in P_1(\mathbb{K})$  have homogeneous coordinates  $\zeta_0, \zeta_1 \in \mathbb{K}$ . Define  $\mathcal{A}(\zeta)$  to be the cubic algebra generated by  $s + 1$  elements  $\nabla_\lambda$  ( $\lambda \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ ) with relations

$$(\zeta_1(g^{\rho\lambda}g^{\mu\nu} + g^{\nu\rho}g^{\lambda\mu}) - 2\zeta_0g^{\rho\mu}g^{\lambda\nu})\nabla_\lambda\nabla_\mu\nabla_\nu = 0$$

for  $\rho \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ . The Yang-Mills algebra corresponds to the element  $\zeta^{YM}$  of  $P_1(\mathbb{K})$  with homogeneous coordinates  $\zeta_0 = \zeta_1$ . Let  $\zeta^{sing}$  be the element of  $P_1(\mathbb{K})$  with homogeneous coordinates  $\zeta_0 = \frac{s+2}{2}\zeta_1$ ; one has the following result.

**Theorem 4.** *For  $\zeta \neq \zeta^{sing}$  the cubic algebra  $\mathcal{A}(\zeta)$  is Koszul of global dimension 3 and is Gorenstein.*

**Proof.** The dual algebra  $\mathcal{A}(\zeta)^\dagger$  is the cubic algebra generated by elements  $\theta^\lambda$  with relations

$$\theta^\lambda \theta^\mu \theta^\nu = \frac{1}{(s+2)\zeta_1 - 2\zeta_0} (\zeta_1 (g^{\lambda\mu} \theta^\nu + g^{\mu\nu} \theta^\lambda) - 2\zeta_0 g^{\lambda\nu} \theta^\mu) \mathbf{g} \quad (1.36)$$

for  $\lambda, \mu, \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\}$  with  $\mathbf{g} = g_{\alpha\beta} \theta^\alpha \theta^\beta$ . This again implies that  $\mathbf{g}$  is in the center and that one has  $\mathcal{A}_0^\dagger = \mathbb{K}\mathbf{1} \simeq \mathbb{K}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_1^\dagger = \oplus_\lambda \mathbb{K}\theta^\lambda \simeq \mathbb{K}^{s+1}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_2^\dagger = \oplus_{\lambda, \mu} \mathbb{K}\theta^\lambda \theta^\mu \simeq \mathbb{K}^{(s+1)^2}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_3^\dagger = \oplus_\lambda \mathbb{K}\theta^\lambda \mathbf{g} \simeq \mathbb{K}^{s+1}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_4^\dagger = \mathbb{K}\mathbf{g}^2 \simeq \mathbb{K}$  while  $\mathcal{A}_n^\dagger = 0$  for  $n \geq 5$ , where we have set  $\mathcal{A}_n^\dagger = \mathcal{A}(\zeta)_n^\dagger$ . Setting  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}(\zeta)$ , the Koszul complex  $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{A}(\zeta), \mathbb{K})$  of  $\mathcal{A}(\zeta)$  reads

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\nabla^t} \mathcal{A}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{M} \mathcal{A}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{\nabla} \mathcal{A} \rightarrow 0$$

with the same conventions as before and  $M$  with components

$$M^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{(s+2)\zeta_1 - 2\zeta_0} (\zeta_1 (g^{\mu\nu} g^{\alpha\beta} + g^{\mu\alpha} g^{\nu\beta}) - 2\zeta_0 g^{\mu\beta} g^{\nu\alpha}) \nabla_\alpha \nabla_\beta$$

$\mu, \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ . The theorem follows then by the same arguments as before, using in particular the symmetry by transposition for the Gorenstein property.  $\square$

It follows that  $\mathcal{A}(\zeta)$  has Hochschild dimension 3 and the same Poincaré series as the Yang-Mills algebra for  $\zeta \neq \zeta^{sing}$ .

**Remark.** One can show that the cubic algebra generated by elements  $\nabla_\lambda$  with relations

$$(\zeta_1 g^{\rho\lambda} g^{\mu\nu} + \zeta_2 g^{\nu\rho} g^{\lambda\mu} - 2\zeta_0 g^{\rho\mu} g^{\lambda\nu}) \nabla_\lambda \nabla_\mu \nabla_\nu = 0$$

cannot be Koszul and Gorenstein if  $\zeta_1 \neq \zeta_2$  and  $\zeta_0 \neq 0$  or if  $(\zeta_1)^2 \neq (\zeta_2)^2$ .

Let now  $(B_{\lambda\mu}) \in M_{s+1}(\mathbb{K})$  be an arbitrary invertible  $(s+1) \times (s+1)$ -matrix with inverse  $(B^{\lambda\mu})$ , i.e.  $B_{\lambda\mu} B^{\mu\nu} = \delta_\lambda^\nu$ , and let  $\varepsilon = +$  or  $-$ . We define  $\mathfrak{A}(B, \varepsilon)$  to be the cubic algebra generated by  $s+1$  elements  $E_\lambda$  with relations

$$(B^{\rho\lambda} B^{\mu\nu} + \varepsilon B^{\lambda\mu} B^{\nu\rho}) E_\lambda E_\mu E_\nu = 0 \quad (1.37)$$

for  $\rho \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ . Notice that  $B$  is not assumed to be symmetric. If  $B_{\lambda\mu} = g_{\lambda\mu}$  and  $\varepsilon = -$  then  $\mathfrak{A}(g, -)$  is the super Yang-Mills algebra  $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$  ( $E_\lambda \mapsto S_\lambda$ ) while if  $B_{\lambda\mu} = g_{\lambda\mu}$  and  $\varepsilon = +$  then  $\mathfrak{A}(g, +)$  is  $\mathcal{A}(\zeta^0)$  ( $E_\lambda \mapsto \nabla_\lambda$ ) where  $\zeta^0$  has homogeneous coordinates  $\zeta_1 \neq 0$  and  $\zeta_0 = 0$ . Thus  $\mathfrak{A}(B, +)$  and  $\mathfrak{A}(B, -)$  belong to deformations of the Yang-Mills and of the super Yang-Mills algebra respectively.

**Theorem 5.** *Assume that  $1 + \varepsilon B^{\rho\lambda} B^{\mu\nu} B_{\mu\lambda} B_{\rho\nu} \neq 0$ , then  $\mathfrak{A}(B, \varepsilon)$  is Koszul of global dimension 3 and is Gorenstein.*

Proof. The Koszul complex  $\mathcal{K}(\mathfrak{A}(B, \varepsilon), \mathbb{K})$  can be put in the form

$$0 \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \xrightarrow{E^t} \mathfrak{A}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{L} \mathfrak{A}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{E} \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow 0$$

where  $\mathfrak{A} = \mathfrak{A}(B, \varepsilon)$  and with the previous conventions, the matrix  $L$  being given by

$$L^{\mu\nu} = (B^{\mu\alpha} B^{\beta\nu} + \varepsilon B^{\nu\mu} B^{\alpha\beta}) E_\alpha E_\beta \quad (1.38)$$

for  $\mu, \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ . The arrow  $\mathfrak{A} \xrightarrow{E^t} \mathfrak{A}^{s+1}$  is always injective and the exactness of  $\mathfrak{A} \xrightarrow{E^t} \mathfrak{A}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{L} \mathfrak{A}^{s+1}$  follows from the condition  $1 + \varepsilon B^{\rho\lambda} B^{\mu\nu} B_{\mu\lambda} B_{\rho\nu} \neq 0$ . On the other hand, by definition of  $\mathcal{A}$  by generators and relations, the sequence  $\mathfrak{A}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{L} \mathfrak{A}^{s+1} \xrightarrow{E} \mathfrak{A} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathbb{K} \rightarrow 0$  is exact. This shows that  $\mathfrak{A}$  is Koszul of global dimension 3. The Gorenstein property follows from (see also in [1])

$$B^{\rho\lambda} B^{\mu\nu} + \varepsilon B^{\nu\rho} B^{\lambda\mu} = \varepsilon (B^{\nu\rho} B^{\lambda\mu} + \varepsilon B^{\mu\nu} B^{\rho\lambda})$$

for  $\rho, \lambda, \mu, \nu \in \{0, \dots, s\}$ .  $\square$

Remark. It is worth noticing here in connection with the analysis of [5] that for all the deformations of the Yang-Mills algebra (resp. the super Yang-Mills algebra) considered here which are cubic Koszul Gorenstein algebras of global dimension 3, the dual cubic algebras are Frobenius algebras with structure automorphism equal to the identity (resp.  $(-1)^{\text{degree}} \times \text{identity}$ ).

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