# Generic covers branched over $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$ 

Sandro Manfredini *, Roberto Pignatelli ${ }^{1}$<br>Dipartimento di Matematica, Università di Pisa, Via F. Buonarroti 2, 56127 Pisa, Italy

Received 29 September 1997; received in revised form 6 October 1998


#### Abstract

In this paper the authors study generic covers of $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ branched over $\left\{x^{n}+y^{m}\right\}=0$ s.t. the total space is a normal analytic surface.

They found a complete description of the monodromy of the cover in terms of the monodromy graphs and an almost complete description of the local fundamental groups in case $(n, m)=1$.

For the general case, they give explicit descriptions of base changes in terms of monodromy graphs; they describe completely the embedded resolution graphs in the case $n \mid m$. Via these base changes every cover is a quotient of such a cover. © 2000 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.


Keywords: Normal surface singularities; Branched covering spaces; Monodromy
AMS classification: 32S25; 32S05

## 0. Introduction

In this paper we study normal singularities of complex analytic surfaces. Recall that (see, e.g., [11]) the singularities of a normal analytic variety form an analytic subvariety of codimension at least 2 . So, a normal curve is automatically smooth, and a normal surface is automatically a surface with isolated singularities. The converse holds only for hypersurfaces (see [5]).

Then, in case of dimension 2 , in order to study germs of normal analytic surfaces we can consider analytic surfaces with just one singular point.

Recall that, by Weierstrass preparation theorem, in a suitable neighborhood of every point of an analytic surface there exists a holomorphic function to a disc which is an analytic cover branched over a curve (see [6]). Moreover, a generic function like this one is a "generic" cover, i.e., a branched cover of degree $d$ such that the fiber over a smooth point

[^0]of the branching curve has $d-1$ points (see [12]). Every element in the fundamental group of the set of regular values of this map, induces a permutation of the $d$ points of the fiber over the base point, thus a homomorphism from this group to $\mathcal{S}_{d}$, called "the monodromy of the cover". The "generic" condition means that for each geometric loop (i.e., a loop around a smooth point of the curve) its monodromy is a transposition.

This property can be usefully applied to study singularities; in fact, given a curve $C$ contained in a disc $\Delta$ (or in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ ), and a homomorphism $\mu: \pi_{1}(\Delta-C)$ (respectively $\left.\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2}-C\right)\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_{d}$, s.t. the images of the geometric loops are transpositions, there exists a unique normal surface $S$ and a generic cover from $S$ to $\Delta$ (respectively $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ ) with $C$ as branch locus and $\mu$ as monodromy (for an explicit construction see, e.g., [12]; unfortunately, this construction is quite involved, so it does not give directly a satisfying description of normal singularities).

So, in order to classify generic covers $\pi: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ of degree $d$, with $S$ normal, branched over some curve $C$, we need to classify only the generic monodromies $\mu: \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2}-C\right) \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{S}_{d}$.

In this paper we restrict to the case where the branching curve has (up to analytic equivalence) the equation $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$. This is a very particular case, but, by the classification of singularities of plane curves given by Puiseux (see [4]), it seems to be the natural starting point.

In Section 1 we state some well known expressions of the fundamental group of the disc minus our curves, via generators and relations, and we give a combinatorial bound for the degree of the cover.

In Section 2 we prove that our family of covers is stable under base change with maps of type $f_{a, b}(x, y)=\left(x^{a}, y^{b}\right)$; we represent the monodromy of a generic cover of degree $d$ branched on the curve $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$ by a graph with $d$ vertices and $n$ labeled edges and we describe the action of a base change as above over these graphs.

In Section 3, we restrict ourselves to the case $(n, m)=1$, and we give a complete classification of the graphs associated to these covers. In particular, we prove the following

Theorem 0.1. The monodromy graphs for generic covers $\pi: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ of degree $d \geqslant 3$ branched over the curve $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$, with $(n, m)=1$, are the following:
(1) "Polygons" with $d$ vertices, valence $n / d$ (or $m / d$ ) and increment $j$, with $(j, d)=$ $1, j<d / 2, j(d-j) \mid m$ (respectively $j(d-j) \mid n)$. Moreover, $d$ must divide $n$ (respectively $m$ ).
(2) "Double stars" of type $(j, d-j)$ and valence $n / j(d-j)$ (or $m / j(d-j)$ ), with $(j, d)=1, j<d / 2, j(d-j) \mid n($ respectively $j(d-j) \mid m)$. Moreover, $d$ must divide $m$ (respectively $n$ ).
The base change induced by the map $f(x, y)=(y, x)$ in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ takes graphs of type 1 in graphs of type 2, and vice versa.

For the definition of "polygons" and "double stars" see Definitions 3.2 and 3.3. So, in order to classify generic covers, we get the following

Corollary 0.2. If $(n, m)=1$ then the generic covers $\pi: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ of degree greater than 3 branched over $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$, S normal surface, are classified by the disjoint union of the sets

$$
\left\{(j, d)|d \geqslant 3, d| n,(j, d)=1, j<\frac{1}{2} d, j(d-j) \mid m\right\}
$$

and

$$
\left\{(j, d)|d \geqslant 3, d| m,(j, d)=1, j<\frac{1}{2} d, j(d-j) \mid n\right\} .
$$

In both cases, $d$ is the degree of the cover.

All these graphs correspond to some cover also if $(n, m)>1$, but they do not give a complete classification. We found also explicit equations for the singularities of $S$ in the case $j=1$.

In Section 4 we compute the local fundamental group of the surfaces associated to some of the graphs constructed in Section 3. This gives partial answer to the smoothness problem (is $S$ smooth?); moreover it provides an useful tool in the proof of Theorem 0.3.

In Section 5 we describe completely the embedded resolution graphs of all the possible singularities in case $m=b n$ for some $b$, using, to simplify the calculations, the equation $\left\{x^{n}+y^{b n}=0\right\}$ for the branching locus; we prove the following

Theorem 0.3. Let $\pi: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ be a d-sheeted generic cover branched over the curve $\left\{x^{n}+y^{b n}=0\right\}, S$ normal.
$S$ has a resolution which is the plumbing variety of the following normal crossing configuration of smooth curves:

where the vertex $\bar{E}_{b}$ has genus $(n-d-v+2) / 2$ and self-intersection $-v$.
Moreover, $S$ is smooth $\Leftrightarrow$ the monodromy graph is a tree; this can occur only if $d$ divides $b$.

Remark that by the results about base change of Section 2, all the possible surfaces under consideration are the quotient of one of these singularities by the action of a finite group.

## 1. Fundamental groups and maps

Let $C_{n, m}$ be the curve in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ defined by the equation $x^{n}=y^{m}$.

The aim of this section is to compute some useful presentations for the fundamental group of $\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}$ and derive the first necessary conditions for the existence of generic covers of given degree branched over $C_{n, m}$.

Let $\beta, \bar{\mu}_{j}$ be the paths $\beta(t)=(1, t \varepsilon+(1-t)(1-\varepsilon)), \bar{\mu}_{j}(t)=\left(1, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{2 \pi \mathrm{i} t j / m}\right)$ for $t \in[0,1]$ and if $z \in \mathbb{C}^{*}$ and $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right)$ is a path in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ let $z(\lambda)=\left(\lambda_{1}, z \lambda_{2}\right)$.

Let $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ be the geometric basis of $\pi_{1}\left(\{x=1\} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)$ with $(1,1-\varepsilon)(0<\varepsilon<$ $1 / 2$ ) as base point given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mu_{1}=\left(1, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}(2 \pi t+\pi)}+1\right)_{t \in[0,1]}, \\
& \mu_{j}=\beta \cdot \bar{\mu}_{j} \cdot \omega^{j-1}\left(\beta^{-1} \cdot \mu_{1} \cdot \beta\right) \cdot \bar{\mu}_{j}^{-1} \cdot \beta^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

for $j=2, \ldots, m$, where $\omega=\mathrm{e}^{2 \pi \mathrm{i} / m}$.


Proposition 1.1. The fundamental group of $\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}$ admits the three equivalent presentations
(1) $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)=\left\langle\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m} \mid \mu_{i}=M \mu_{i+n} M^{-1}, i=1, \ldots, m\right\rangle$, where $M=$ $\mu_{1} \cdots \mu_{n}$ and the indices are taken to be cyclical $(\bmod m)$;
(2) $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)=\left\langle\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n} \mid \gamma_{i}=\bar{\Gamma} \gamma_{i+m} \bar{\Gamma}^{-1}, i=1, \ldots, n\right\rangle$, where $\bar{\Gamma}=\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{m}$ and all indices are taken to be cyclical $(\bmod n)$;
(3) $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)=\left\langle\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n} \mid \bar{\Gamma}=\gamma_{i} \cdots \gamma_{m+i-1}, i=2, \ldots, n\right\rangle$, where all indices are taken to be cyclical $(\bmod n)$.

Proof. Applying Zariski-Van Kampen theorem (see $[14,13,9]$ ) to the projection $\phi_{x}: \mathbb{C}^{2} \rightarrow$ $\{y=1\},(x, y) \mapsto(x, 1)$, we get the first presentation.

Let $M_{j}=\mu_{1} \cdots \mu_{j}\left(\right.$ with cyclical indices $(\bmod m)$ and $\left.M_{0}=1\right)$ and define $\gamma_{i}=$ $M_{i-1} \mu_{i}^{-1} M_{i-1}^{-1}$ for $i=1, \ldots, n$.

Since $\mu_{i}=\Gamma_{i-1} \gamma_{i}^{-1} \Gamma_{i-1}^{-1}$ for $i=1, \ldots, m$, where $\Gamma_{h}=\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{h}$ (with cyclical indices $(\bmod n)$ and $\left.\Gamma_{0}=1\right), \gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}$ are a new set of generators and rewriting the relations of the first presentation in terms of the $\gamma$ 's we get the second one.

The third presentation is easily obtained from the second one.
Call $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ the standard generators of $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)$ and $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}$ the minimal standard generators of $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)$.

From these presentations it is immediate to verify that, setting $\Gamma=\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{n}$

$$
\Gamma=M^{-1} \quad \text { and } \quad \Gamma^{m /(n, m)}=\bar{\Gamma}^{n /(n, m)} \text { is in the center. }
$$

Observe that if we apply Zariski-Van Kampen theorem to the projection $\phi_{y}: \mathbb{C}^{2} \rightarrow\{x=$ $1\}, \phi_{y}(x, y)=(1, y)$, and proceed as in Proposition 1.1, we may take as generators of $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)$ a geometric basis $\tilde{\mu}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{\mu}_{n}$ of $\pi_{1}\left(\{y=1\} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)$ with relations

$$
\tilde{\mu}_{i}=\tilde{\mu}_{1} \cdots \tilde{\mu}_{m} \tilde{\mu}_{i+m}\left(\tilde{\mu}_{1} \cdots \tilde{\mu}_{m}\right)^{-1}
$$

for $i=1, \ldots, n$ and cyclical indices $(\bmod n)$.
Note also that this is the same as calculating the fundamental group of the complement of $C_{m, n}=\left\{x^{m}=y^{n}\right\}$ via $\phi_{x}$.

## Proposition 1.2. With the above notations

$$
\tilde{\mu}_{i}=\gamma_{i}
$$

Proof. Let $f_{n, m}: \mathbb{C}_{x, y}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}_{\xi, \eta}^{2}$ be the map $(\xi, \eta)=f_{n, m}(x, y)=\left(x^{n}, y^{m}\right)$.

$$
\left.f_{n, m}\right|_{\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left(\{x y=0\} \cup C_{n, m}\right)}: \mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left(\{x y=0\} \cup C_{n, m}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\{\xi \eta(\xi-\eta)=0\}
$$

is a covering.
Take $(1,1-\varepsilon)$ as base point in $\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left(\{x y=0\} \cup C_{n, m}\right)$ and take as generators of $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left(\{x y=0\} \cup C_{n, m}\right)\right)$ the standard generators of $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right) \mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}, \mu_{x}=$ $\bar{\mu}_{m}=\left(1,(1-\varepsilon) \mathrm{e}^{2 \pi \mathrm{i} t}\right)$ (loop around the $x$-axes) and $\mu_{y}=\left(\mathrm{e}^{2 \pi \mathrm{i} t}, 1-\varepsilon\right)$ (loop around the $y$-axes) for $t \in[0,1]$.

Observe that if we quotient $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left(\{x y=0\} \cup C_{n, m}\right)\right)$ by the subgroup normally generated by $\mu_{x}$ and $\mu_{y}$ we obtain $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)$ and that we can do the same thing with the $\tilde{\mu}$ 's as generators.

In the plane $\xi+\eta=1+(1-\varepsilon)^{m}=2-\varepsilon^{\prime}$ take as generators of $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\{\xi \eta(\xi-\eta)=0\}\right)$ $\gamma, \gamma_{\xi}, \gamma_{\eta}$ as shown in the figure below where the line $\xi+\eta=2-\varepsilon^{\prime}$ is identified with $\mathbb{C}$ via the $\eta$ coordinate and $p=\left(1,1-\varepsilon^{\prime}\right)$.

$\gamma, \gamma_{\xi}, \gamma_{\eta}$ are related by the equations $\gamma_{\xi} \gamma_{\eta} \gamma=\gamma \gamma_{\xi} \gamma_{\eta}=\gamma_{\eta} \gamma \gamma_{\xi}$.
Since $\left(f_{n, m}\right)_{*}$ is injective, we can identify $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left(\{x y=0\} \cup C_{n, m}\right)\right)$ with its image obtaining:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mu_{j}=\gamma_{\xi}^{j-1} \gamma \gamma_{\xi}^{-j+1} \quad \text { for } j=1, \ldots, m, \\
& \mu_{x}=\gamma_{\xi}^{m}, \\
& \mu_{y}=\gamma_{\eta}^{n}, \\
& \tilde{\mu}_{j}=\gamma_{\eta}^{-j+1} \gamma^{-1} \gamma_{\eta}^{j-1} \quad \text { for } j=1, \ldots, n, \\
& \tilde{\mu}_{x}=\gamma_{\xi}^{-m}, \\
& \tilde{\mu}_{y}=\gamma_{\eta}^{-n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note now that

$$
\gamma_{\eta}^{-1} \gamma^{-1} \gamma_{\eta}=\gamma \gamma_{\xi} \gamma^{-1} \gamma_{\xi}^{-1} \gamma^{-1}=\mu_{1} \mu_{2}^{-1} \mu_{1}^{-1},
$$

thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tilde{\mu}_{j} & =\gamma_{\eta}^{-j+1} \gamma^{-1} \gamma_{\eta}^{j-1} \\
& =\left(\gamma \gamma_{\xi}\right)^{j-1} \gamma^{-1}\left(\gamma \gamma_{\xi}\right)^{-j+1} \\
& =\mu_{1} \cdots \mu_{j-1} \mu_{j}^{-1}\left(\mu_{1} \cdots \mu_{j-1}\right)^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

as we wanted.
Now we look for which $d \geqslant 3$ there exists a surjective homomorphism $\rho$ from the fundamental group of $\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$ in $\mathcal{S}_{d}$ sending the geometric generators in transpositions, i.e., a normal surface $S$ and a $d$-sheeted generic covering $\pi: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ branched over $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$.

For every $\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_{d}$ call $\nu(\sigma)$ the number of orbits of $\sigma, \nu$ the value of this function for $\rho(\Gamma) . \nu$ is the number of cycles of a permutation constructed multiplying $n$ transpositions in $\mathcal{S}_{d}$, so $n+d+v$ is even.

Call $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{\nu}$ the length of the $v$ cycles of the monodromy of $\Gamma$. Being $\Gamma^{m /(m, n)}$ central and $d \geqslant 3$, the order of $\rho(\Gamma)$ divides $m /(m, n)$; then every $a_{i}$ does.

Let $\mathcal{D}_{m n} \subset \mathbb{N}$, be the set of (positive) divisors of $m /(m, n)$, and consider all the possible ways to write $d$ as sum of elements of this set.

Let $\mathcal{K}_{m n}^{d}$ be the set of all the possible "lengths" of this sums, where the "length" of a sum, is the number of integers we are adding.

Now define the function

$$
\Lambda(m, n, d)=\inf \left\{v \in \mathcal{K}_{m n}^{d} \mid n+d+v \text { is even }\right\} .
$$

$\Lambda$ gives a lower bound for the number of orbits of $\rho(\Gamma)$; in fact it is the minimal number of orbits for permutations with order that divides $m /(m, n)\left(v \in \mathcal{K}_{m n}^{d}\right)$ and with the same parity of $\rho(\Gamma)$ (product of $n$ transpositions).

Now define

$$
\chi(m, n, d)=n+2-d-\Lambda(m, n, d) .
$$

We have the following
Proposition 1.3. Let $(S, \varphi)$ be a generic cover branched on $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$ of degree $d>2$. Then $\chi(m, n, d) \geqslant 0$.

Moreover, if $n$ divides $m$, the converse holds.
Proof. For the first part of the proposition we prove, by induction on $n$, that for the product of a transitive set of $n$ transpositions in $\mathcal{S}_{d}$, the number of orbits $v$ must be $v \leqslant n+2-d$. In fact, if $n=1$ then $d=2$ and $v=1$, and there is nothing to prove.

If $n>1$, consider the first $n-1$ transpositions $\rho\left(\gamma_{i}\right)$, and let $v^{\prime}$ be the number of orbits of their product; $v^{\prime}=v+1$ or $v^{\prime}=v-1$.

If these $n-1$ transpositions generate $\mathcal{S}_{d}$ then $v \leqslant v^{\prime}+1 \leqslant n-1+2-d+1=n+2-d$.
Otherwise they generate $\mathcal{S}_{d-k} \times \mathcal{S}_{k}$, and the last transposition "connects" two different orbits of their product. Suppose that in $\mathcal{S}_{k}$ there are exactly $g$ among the first $n-1$ transpositions, then their product has by induction $v^{\prime \prime} \leqslant g+2-k$ orbits and the product of the other $n-1-g$ transpositions has $v^{\prime}-v^{\prime \prime} \leqslant n-1-g+2-(d-k)$ orbits.

So $v=\nu^{\prime}-1 \leqslant g+2-k+n-1-g+2-(d-k)-1=n+2-d$.
By definition $\Lambda(m, n, d) \leqslant \nu$ and we get the result.
For the converse, remark that in this case the fundamental group is generated by $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}$ with the only relation that $\bar{\Gamma}$ is central. So it is sufficient to exhibit a set of $n$ transpositions $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n}$ s.t. their product is the identity of $\mathcal{S}_{d}$.

Now assume $\chi(m, n, d) \geqslant 0$, i.e., $\Lambda(m, n, d) \leqslant n-d+2$.
Then there exist $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{\Lambda(m, n, d)} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that:
(1) $\sum a_{i}=d$,
(2) $\forall i a_{i}$ divides $m /(m, n)$,
(3) $n+d+\Lambda(m, n, d)$ is an even number.

Choose the following transpositions:

$$
\sigma_{i}= \begin{cases}(1, i+1), & 1 \leqslant i \leqslant d-1, \\ \left(1, d+1-\sum_{1}^{i-d+1} a_{k}\right), & d \leqslant i \leqslant d+\Lambda-2, \\ (1,2), & d+\Lambda-1 \leqslant i \leqslant n\end{cases}
$$

Of course this choice verifies our condition, then it describes a $d$-sheeted generic cover branched on the curve $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$.

In general these functions are not so simple to compute. The following holds:

## Remark 1.4.

$$
\chi(m, n, d+1) \geqslant \chi(m, n, d)-2 .
$$

Proof. Let $\Lambda=\Lambda(m, n, d)$. If $\Lambda=+\infty$ there is nothing to prove. Otherwise, let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{\Lambda} \in \mathcal{D}_{m n}$ realizing the minimum as in the definition of $\Lambda$.

Then $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{\Lambda}, a_{\Lambda+1}=1 \in \mathcal{D}_{m n}$, with $n+d+1+\Lambda+1$ even and $\sum_{1}^{\Lambda+1} a_{i}=d+1$ which implies $\Lambda(m, n, d+1) \leqslant \Lambda(m, n, d)+1$.

But then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\chi(m, n, d+1) & =n+2-d-1-\Lambda(m, n, d+1) \\
& \geqslant n-d-\Lambda(m, n, d)=\chi(m, n, d)-2 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark that if $m=n, m$ even, $\Lambda(m, m, d)=d$, i.e., there exist generic covers if and only if $m+2-2 d \geqslant 0$, i.e., $d \leqslant m / 2+1$ (if $m=n, m$ odd, there are no generic covers for $d>2$; in fact this is true for every $n, m$ s.t. $m n$ is odd, see next section for details).

## 2. Fiber products, monodromies and graphs

Let $\pi: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ be a $d$-sheeted generic cover branched over $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$ with $S$ an irreducible surface with an isolated singularity in $P=\pi^{-1}(0,0)$ and let $\rho$ be its monodromy.

Consider the map $f_{a, b}: \mathbb{C}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ and let $\bar{S}=S \times \mathbb{C}^{2} \mathbb{C}^{2}$ be the fiber product.
We get the following commutative diagram:


Proposition 2.1. $\bar{S}$ as above is an analytic surface with an isolated singularity in $\bar{P}=$ $\bar{\pi}^{-1}(0,0)$.
$\bar{\pi}$ is a d-sheeted generic cover branched over $\left\{x^{a n}=y^{b m}\right\}$ and its monodromy $\bar{\rho}$ is the composition $\rho \circ\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}$.

Proof. By definition of fiber product we get immediately that $\bar{S}$ is analytic, and $\bar{\pi}$ a $d$ sheeted generic cover branched over $\left\{x^{a n}=y^{b m}\right\}$.

The two maps $\pi$ and $f_{a, b}$ are coverings of $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ whose branching loci intersect just in the origin. This easily implies that $\bar{S}$ is smooth outside $\bar{P}$.

Now consider the homomorphism $\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}: \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left\{x^{a n}=y^{b m}\right\}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left\{x^{n}=\right.\right.$ $\left.y^{m}\right\}$ ). Of course

$$
\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}\left(\gamma_{i}\right)=\gamma_{[i]} \quad 0<i \leqslant a n
$$

where $[i]$ is the remainder class of $i \bmod n$, and if we choose the correct enumeration for the points in the fibers over the two base points, we have that $\forall 0<i \leqslant a n, \gamma_{i}$ and $\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}\left(\gamma_{i}\right)$ act in the same way and this holds for any $\gamma \in \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left\{x^{a n}=y^{b m}\right\}\right)$. This proves the second part of the theorem.

Theorem 2.2. In the above hypotheses, if moreover $S$ is a normal surface, then $\bar{S}$ is normal too.

Proof. First note that we can assume $b=1$. Define

$$
A=\mathbb{C}(S)=\frac{\mathbb{C}\left\{x^{\prime}, y, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right\}}{I}, \quad \bar{A}=\mathbb{C}(\bar{S})=\frac{\mathbb{C}\left\{x, y, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right\}}{\psi^{*} I}
$$

and denote the quotient fields by

$$
Q=\operatorname{Quot}(A), \quad \bar{Q}=\operatorname{Quot}(\bar{A})
$$

$\psi^{*}$ injects $A$ in $\bar{A}$ and $Q$ in $\bar{Q}\left(\psi^{*}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=x^{a}\right)$; so, we can consider $\bar{A}$ and $\bar{Q}$ as extensions of $A$ and $Q$, respectively.

Recall that, by definition, $S$ normal means that $A$ is integrally closed in $Q$, i.e., for any $f \in Q$ such that $\exists \underline{p} \in A[t]$ monic with $p(f)=0 \Rightarrow f \in A$. We must check that the same property holds for $\bar{A}$ in $\bar{Q}$.

Let $f \in \bar{Q}, p=t^{n}+a_{n-1} t^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{0} \in \bar{A}[t]$ monic such that $p(f)=0$.
$\omega=\mathrm{e}^{2 \pi \mathrm{i} / a}$ acts on $\bar{A}$ (respectively $\bar{Q}$ ) via the natural map

$$
\omega\left(f\left(x, y, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right)\right)=f\left(\omega x, y, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right)
$$

and we have that $\operatorname{Fix}(\omega)=A($ respectively $Q)$.
For every $l$ such that $0 \leqslant l<a$ define

$$
f_{l}=\sum_{0 \leqslant i<a} \omega^{i}(f) \omega^{i l} .
$$

Remark that

$$
\omega\left(f_{l}\right)=\omega\left(\sum_{0 \leqslant i<a} \omega^{i}(f) \omega^{i l}\right)=\sum_{0 \leqslant i<a} \omega^{i+1}(f) \omega^{i l}=\frac{f_{l}}{\omega^{l}} .
$$

In particular, if $g_{l}=f_{l} x^{l}, g_{l} \in Q$.
$\forall 0 \leqslant i, l<a$ define $p_{l}^{i}=t^{n}+\omega^{i}\left(a_{n-1}\right) \omega^{i l} t^{n-1}+\cdots+\omega^{i}\left(a_{0}\right) \omega^{n i l} ; p_{l}^{i}\left(\omega^{i}(f) \omega^{i l}\right)=0$.
Let $q_{l}=\prod p_{l}^{i}, h_{1}^{l}, \ldots, h_{a n}^{l}$ its roots in some suitable extension of $\bar{Q}$ and let $r_{l}=$ $\prod_{1 \leqslant i_{1}<\cdots<i_{a} \leqslant a n}\left(t-h_{i_{1}}^{l}-\cdots-h_{i_{a}}^{l}\right)$. By the fundamental theorem of symmetric functions $r_{l} \in \bar{A}[t]$ and $r_{l}\left(f_{l}\right)=0$.

If $r_{l}=t^{N}+b_{N-1} t^{N-1}+\cdots+b_{N}$, let $s_{l}=t^{N}+x^{l} b_{N-1} t^{N-1}+\cdots+x^{l N} b_{N}$; we have $s_{l}\left(g_{l}\right)=0$, and $s_{l} \in \bar{A}[t]$; up to multiplying $s_{l}$ by some suitable polynomial, we can assume $s_{l} \in A[t]$, so $g_{l} \in A$.

But $f_{l}$ is a weakly holomorphic function on $\bar{S}$, so $f_{l}$ is holomorphic in the smooth points of $\bar{S}$. If $l=0, f_{0}=g_{0}$ and $f_{0} \in A \subset \bar{A}$. If $l>0, g_{l}$ is 0 in $\bar{S} \cap\{x=0\}$, i.e., is 0 as function in $S \cap\left\{x^{\prime}=0\right\}$. Thus, $g_{l} / x^{\prime}$ is a holomorphic function on $S \backslash \operatorname{Sing}(S)$, then $g_{l} / x^{\prime}$ is a holomorphic function on $S$ (see [11, Chapter 6, Proposition 4]), i.e., $g_{l} / x^{a} \in \bar{A}$.

So

$$
f_{l}=\frac{g_{l}}{x^{l}}=\frac{g_{l}}{x^{a}} x^{a-l} \in \bar{A} .
$$

We conclude the proof noting that

$$
f=\frac{1}{a} \sum_{0 \leqslant l<a} f_{l}
$$

Corollary 2.3. If $\pi: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ is a $d$-sheeted generic cover branched over $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$ with $S$ a normal surface singular in $P=\pi^{-1}(0,0), \rho$ is its monodromy, and $f_{a, b}: \mathbb{C}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ is the map defined above then $\bar{\pi}: \bar{S}=S \times \mathbb{C}^{2} \mathbb{C}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ is the normal d-sheeted generic cover associated to the monodromy $\bar{\rho}=\rho \circ\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}$.

Remark that base change via $f_{a, b}$ induces a partial ordering among generic covers; call a generic cover minimal if it cannot be induced by other covers via one of these base changes.

Proposition 2.4. $\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}: \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left\{x^{a n}=y^{b m}\right\}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}\right)$ and $\psi_{*}: \pi_{1}(\bar{S} \backslash$ $\{\bar{P}\}) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(S \backslash\{P\})$ are surjective.

Proof. $\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}$ is surjective since $\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}\left(\gamma_{i}\right)=\gamma_{[i]}$ for $0<i \leqslant a n$, so it sends the minimal standard generators onto the minimal standard generators.

Call $R=\pi^{-1}\left(C_{n, m}\right), \bar{R}=\bar{\pi}^{-1}\left(C_{a n, b m}\right) ; \pi_{1}(S \backslash R)$ is the subgroup of $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)$ of those $\gamma$ such that $\rho(\gamma)(1)=1$, and the same holds for $\pi_{1}(\bar{S} \backslash \bar{R})$ in $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{a n, b m}\right)$ and $\bar{\rho}$. Since $\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}$ is surjective and $\bar{\rho}=\rho \circ\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}, \psi_{*}: \pi_{1}(\bar{S} \backslash \bar{R}) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(S \backslash R)$ is surjective too.

Considering the following commutative diagram

we obtain that $\psi_{*}: \pi_{1}(\bar{S} \backslash\{\bar{P}\}) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(S \backslash\{P\})$ is surjective.
Our aim is to classify all homomorphisms $\rho: \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_{d}$ (up to inner automorphisms) whose image is transitive and such that $\tau_{i}=\rho\left(\gamma_{i}\right)$ is a transposition (i.e., homomorphisms representing normal surfaces, see Section 0 ). Observe that if the second condition holds, the image of $\rho$ is transitive if and only if $\rho$ is surjective.

The case $d=2$ is trivial since $\rho$ is unique and gives the double cover of $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ branched over $C_{n, m}$ obtained projecting on $\{z=0\}$ the surface in $\mathbb{C}^{3}$

$$
z^{2}=x^{n}-y^{m}
$$

(note that a hypersurface with isolated singularities is normal (see [5])), so suppose $d \geqslant 3$.
Since

$$
\gamma_{i}=\bar{\Gamma}^{n} \gamma_{i} \bar{\Gamma}^{-n}
$$

for all $i$ (actually $\bar{\Gamma}^{n /(n, m)}$ ), it follows that $\rho\left(\bar{\Gamma}^{n}\right)$ must be in the center of $\mathcal{S}_{d}$ which is trivial if $d \geqslant 3$, so it must be $\rho\left(\bar{\Gamma}^{n}\right)=1$.

Now, if $n$ and $m$ are both odd, $\rho\left(\bar{\Gamma}^{n}\right)$ is an odd permutation and thus it cannot be equal to 1 , so $n m$ must be even.

A surjective homomorphism $\rho^{\prime}: \mathcal{F}_{r} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_{d}$ from a free group $\mathcal{F}_{r}$ with $r$ generators $g_{1}$, $\ldots, g_{r}$ such that the image of each generator is a transposition, can be represented by a connected graph with $d$ labeled vertices and $r$ labeled edges in the following way: take a vertex for every $l=1, \ldots, d$ and if $\rho^{\prime}\left(g_{h}\right)=(i, j)$ connect the vertex $i$ to the vertex $j$ with the edge labeled $h$. Note that the same graph with the numeration of the vertices suppressed represents $\rho^{\prime}$ up to inner automorphisms of $\mathcal{S}_{d}$.

A permutation $\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_{d}$ acts on the set of graphs with $d$ labeled vertices and $r$ labeled edges in the following way: if $N$ is such a graph then if the edge labeled $l$ in $N$ connects the vertices $h$ and $k$ then the edge labeled $l$ in $\sigma(N)$ connects the vertices $\sigma(h)$ and $\sigma(k)$.

Since our presentations have the peculiar forms

$$
\gamma_{i}=\bar{\Gamma} \gamma_{i+m} \bar{\Gamma}^{-1}, \quad \mu_{i}=M \mu_{i+n} M^{-1}
$$

we can interpret our monodromy $\rho$ as a map $\rho^{\prime}: \mathcal{F}_{n}$ (respectively $\left.\mathcal{F}_{m}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_{d}$ such that

$$
\tau_{i}=\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma}) \tau_{i+m} \rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})^{-1} \quad\left(\text { respectively } \tau_{i}=\rho^{\prime}(M) \tau_{i+n} \rho^{\prime}(M)^{-1}\right)
$$

i.e., by a connected graph $N$ with $d$ vertices and $n$ (respectively $m$ ) labeled edges such that if we act on $N$ by $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})$ (respectively $\rho^{\prime}(M)$ ) for a (fixed) numeration of the vertices, then the edge labeled by $j$ is transformed into the edge labeled by $j+m$ with cyclical indices $(\bmod n)($ respectively $j+n$ with cyclical indices $(\bmod m)$ ).

By sake of simplicity, from now on we consider only the presentation of $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)$ in terms of minimal standard generators and so graphs with $n$ edges.

Observe that in order to have a connected graph it must be $d \leqslant n+1$.
So, a generic cover branched over $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$ is defined by a graph with $d$ vertices and $n$ labeled edges, and an integer $m$.

Remark that we have proved that $\left(f_{a, b}\right)_{*}$ acts on the graphs substituting the edge labeled $j$ with $a$ edges labeled $j+s n$ for $0 \leqslant s<a$, and multiplying $m$ by $b$. So we restrict ourselves to "minimal" monodromy graphs, i.e., graphs associated to minimal covers.

Note that we are interested in graphs with labeled edges up to a cyclical permutation of the edges as we can see from the third presentation in Proposition 1.1.

## 3. Generic covers branched over $\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}$ with $n$, $m$ relatively prime

The aim of this section is to classify all edge labeled graphs corresponding to generic monodromies $\rho: \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_{d}$ in the case $n$ and $m$ are relatively prime and $d \geqslant 3$.

Definition 3.1. Given a graph $N, p$ a vertex of $N$ and $L$ an edge of $N$, let the valence of $p$ be the number of edges of $N$ having $p$ as an end point, and let the valence of $L$ be the number of edges of $N$ with the same end points as $L$.

Definition 3.2 (Polygons). Let a polygon with $d$ vertices, valence $a$ and increment $j$, with $j$ and $d$ relatively prime, be a graph with $n=a d$ labeled edges of valence $a, d$ vertices of valence $2 a$ and such that $\forall s, t$ the edges labeled $s$ and $t$ have
(1) two vertices in common if and only if $s-t=\lambda d$,
(2) one vertex in common if and only if $s-t=\lambda d+j$ or $s-t=\lambda d-j$,
(3) no vertices in common otherwise.

Definition 3.3 (Double stars). Let a double star of type ( $j, k$ ), with $j$ and $k$ relatively prime, and valence $a$ be a graph with $n=a j k$ labeled edges of valence $a, d=j+k$ vertices of which $j$ of valence $a k$ and $k$ of valence $a j$ and such that $\forall s, t$ the edges labeled $s$ and $t$ have
(1) two vertices in common if and only if $s-t=\lambda j k$,
(2) one vertex in common if and only if $s-t=\lambda j k+\mu j$ or $s-t=\lambda j k+\mu k$,
(3) no vertices in common otherwise.


Fig. 1. A polygon with 5 vertices, valence 3 and increment 2.


Fig. 2. A double star of type $(3,4)$ and valence 1.

Observe that between each vertex of valence $a j$ and each vertex of valence $a k$ there are exactly $a$ edges and that there are no edges between vertices of the same valence.

Recall that, in both cases, the labeling of the edges is cyclical $(\bmod n)$.
The main result of this section is the following
Theorem 3.4. The graphs which correspond to generic monodromies $\rho: \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right) \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{S}_{d}$ for $d \geqslant 3$ with $(n, m)=1$, are the following:
(1) Polygons with $d$ vertices, valence $n / d$ (or valence $m / d$ ) and increment $j$, with $(j, d)=1, j<d / 2, j(d-j) \mid m$ (respectively $j(d-j) \mid n)$. Moreover, $d$ must divide $n$ (respectively $m$ ).
(2) Double stars of type $(j, d-j)$ and valence $n / j(d-j)$ (or valence $m / j(d-j)$ ), with $(j, d)=1, j<d / 2, j(d-j) \mid n$ (respectively $j(d-j) \mid m)$. Moreover, $d$ must divide $m$ (respectively $n$ ).
The base change induced by the map $f(x, y)=(y, x)$ in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ takes graphs of type 1 in graphs of type 2, and vice versa.

Let $N$ be the graph representing the monodromy $\rho . N$ has $n$ edges and $d$ vertices.
Since $n$ and $m$ are relatively prime, the inner action of the subgroup generated by $\bar{\Gamma}$ on the $\gamma_{i}$ is transitive, and so is the action of $\rho(\bar{\Gamma})$ (and its powers) on the edges of $N$.

Thus all edges have the same valence $v$ and $v \mid n$.
Call a petal the set of all edges between two fixed vertices. If $v \geqslant 2$ then choose two edges, say $i$ and $i+h$, in the same petal. With a suitable power of $\bar{\Gamma}$ you can send the edge $i$ in the edge $i+h$, but if so, since then the set of the vertices of the petal is fixed, the petal remain fixed (as a set), so the edges $i+2 h$ (image of the edge $i+h$ ), $i+3 h, \ldots$, are in the petal.

If another edge, say $i+k$, is in the same petal but $h \nmid k$, then all edges $i+(h, k)$, $i+2(h, k), \ldots$, are in the petal.

Thus, in general, the $v$ edges in a petal are labeled $i, i+n / v, i+2 n / v, \ldots, i+(v-$ 1) $n / v$.

Observe that you can retrieve the numeration of the whole graph once you know a suitable numeration for the case of edges of valence 1 , so assume $v=1$. (This corresponds to studying minimal covers in the sense of Section 2.)

Since $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})$ acts by conjugation, it transforms relations between the $\rho^{\prime}\left(\gamma_{i}\right)$ 's in relations of the same form between the $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma}) \rho^{\prime}\left(\gamma_{i}\right) \rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})^{-1}$,s, thus intersecting edges go to intersecting edges and non intersecting edges go to non intersecting edges. Moreover, the valence of a vertex is maintained, thus there are only two possible valences for the vertices (possibly equal) and each edge has vertices of both valences.

Call an end a vertex of valence 1 , and a leaf an edge with an end as vertex.

Lemma 3.5. If $N$ has a leaf then $N$ is a double star of type $(1, d-1)$ and valence 1 ; moreover $d \mid m$.

Proof. If $N$ has a leaf then every other edge is a leaf. In this case $d=n+1$, there is a vertex of valence $n$ and there is only one possible numeration of the edges, i.e., $N$ is a double star of type $(1, n)$ and valence 1 .


In order to calculate $m$ we must construct $\bar{\Gamma}$. Let $\Gamma_{r, s}=\left(\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{n}\right)^{r} \gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{s}$ for $r \geqslant 0$, $0 \leqslant s<n$ and act on the vertices of the edge labeled 1 first by $\Gamma_{0,1}=\gamma_{1}$, then by $\Gamma_{0,2}=\gamma_{1} \gamma_{2}, \ldots, \Gamma_{1,0}=\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{n}, \Gamma_{1,1}=\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{n} \gamma_{1}$ and so on until for $\Gamma_{\bar{r}, \bar{s}}$ the two vertices coincide with the vertices of another edge, say the edge $1+k$. Then check if $k=\bar{s}$ and if $\rho^{\prime}\left(\Gamma_{\bar{r}, \bar{s}}\right)$ sends the edge $i$ in the edge $i+\bar{s}$. If this is the case then $\bar{\Gamma}=\Gamma_{\bar{r}, \bar{s}}^{\alpha}$ and $m=\alpha(n \bar{r}+\bar{s})$.

It is easy to see that in this case $\bar{r}=1, \bar{s}=1$, so $\bar{\Gamma}=\left(\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{n} \gamma_{1}\right)^{\alpha}, d \mid m$, and $N$ gives a homomorphism $\rho: \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{d-1, \alpha d}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_{d}$.


Fig. 3.


Fig. 4.
So you get a $d$-sheeted covering of $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ ramified on $x^{a(d-1)}=y^{b d}$ and it can be realized as the projection on $\{z=0\}$ of the normal surface in $\mathbb{C}^{3}$

$$
z^{d}-d y^{b} z+(d-1) x^{a}=0
$$

Note that this surface is smooth $\Leftrightarrow a=1$.
We may now assume that $N$ has no ends (no leaves) and edges of valence 1 .
Consider two edges of $N$, say $i$ and $i+j$, with a (single) vertex in common and label their vertices as in Fig. 3.

Suppose that the power of $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})$ that takes the edge $i$ to the edge $i+j$ acts on the vertices sending $a \mapsto b \mapsto c$.

Lemma 3.6. In the above case $N$ is a polygon with $d$ vertices, valence 1 and increment $j$; moreover $j(d-j) \mid m$.

Proof. With the same power of $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})$ that takes the edge $i$ to the edge $i+j$, the edge $i+j$ is sent to the edge $i+2 j$ and this must contain the vertex $c$ (Fig. 4).

Proceeding in this way we obtain a sequence of edges labeled $i+k j$ such that two edges have in common (only) one vertex if and only if they are labeled $i+h j$ and $i+(h+1) j$ for some $h$. Eventually one of these edges must have a vertex in common with the edge $i$ and this must be the vertex $a$, thus closing the circle (if not there would be an edge of valence at least 2, see Fig. 5). This last edge must have the label $i-j$.

Observe that every edge must belong to a circle like this one with the same $j$.
Suppose now that there is another edge, say with the label $i+l$, containing the vertices $b$ and $d$ (Fig. 6).

Again a suitable power of $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})$ takes the edge $i$ to the edge $i+l$ and suppose $b \mapsto d$.


Fig. 5.


Fig. 6.


Fig. 7.

Then the power of $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})$ which sends the edge $i$ to the edge $i+j+l$ must send the vertex $a$ in both the vertices $c$ and $d$, a contradiction.

Otherwise, suppose $b$ fixed for the power of $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})$ which sends the edge $i$ in the edge $i+l$; then the edge $i+j$ is sent to the edge $i+j+l$ which must contain the vertex $b$ too. Moreover the edge $i+j+l$ must contain the vertex $c$ as one can see acting with the power of $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})$ that takes the edge $i$ to the edge $i+j$ (and so the edge $i+l$ to the edge $i+l+j$ ). This contradicts our assumption that all edges have valence 1 (Fig. 7).

So the only possibility is that there is only one circle with $n=d$ edges labeled consecutively $1,1+j, \ldots, 1+h j, \ldots, 1+d-j$ with $1 \leqslant j<d / 2$ and $(j, d)=1$, i.e., a polygon with $d$ vertices, valence 1 and increment $j$.

To calculate $m$, observe that one of the vertices of the edge 1 moves once every $j$ steps, i.e., moves once applying $\gamma_{1}$, twice applying $\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{1+j}$ and so on, while the other vertex moves once every $n-j$ steps in the opposite direction. Under this condition they will be again consecutive vertices every $l$ steps with

$$
\left[\frac{l-1}{j}\right]+\left[\frac{l-1}{d-j}\right]+2 \equiv 0(\bmod d),
$$

and they are the vertices of the edge labeled

$$
1+\left(\left[\frac{l-1}{j}\right]+1\right) j=1+\left(\left[\frac{l-1}{d-j}\right]+1\right)(d-j)
$$

We require this edge to be the edge labeled $l+1$, so

$$
l=\left(\left[\frac{l-1}{j}\right]+1\right) j+k d
$$

with $k \geqslant 0$, thus

$$
k d=1+\left\{\frac{l-1}{j}\right\} j-j<1
$$

and it must be $k=0$.
Thus, $j \mid l$ and the same argument shows that $(d-j) \mid l$.
The minimal $l$ verifies

$$
\left[\frac{l-1}{j}\right]+\left[\frac{l-1}{d-j}\right]+2=d,
$$

thus $l=j(d-j)$.
Now $j(d-j) \mid m$.
In fact, since the graph does not change if we cyclically permute the edges, we have that acting on the edge labeled 2 by $\gamma_{2} \cdots \gamma_{l+1}$ we obtain the edge labeled $2+l$.

If $j \neq 1$ we get the same result if we act by $\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{l}$ (the edge labeled 1 (respectively $l+1$ ) does not intersect the edge labeled 2 (respectively $2+l$ )), thus the edge labeled $i$ is sent to the edge labeled $l+i$.

If $j=1$ it is immediate to verify that $\forall i$, acting on the edge labeled $i$ by $\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{l}$ we obtain the edge labeled $i-1$.

So, as before, we get (allowing edges of valence $a$ ) a $d$-sheeted cover branched over

$$
x^{a d}=y^{b j(d-j)}
$$

with $(j, d)=1$.


Fig. 8.

We may now assume that for any couple of intersecting edges, say $i$ and $i+j$, the suitable power of $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})$ that sends the edge $i$ to the edge $i+j$ leaves the common vertex $b$ fixed.

Lemma 3.7. Under this assumption, $N$ is a double star af type $(j, d-j)$ and valence 1 ; moreover $d \mid m$.

Proof. In this case, all edges labeled $i+h j$ pass through the vertex $b$ (or, they generate a star with increment $j$ and vertex $b$ ).

As in the case of petals, if the edge $i+k$ contains the vertex $b$ and $j \nmid k$ then all edges in the form $i+h(j, k)$ are in the star, so if a star contains $l$ edges, then they are numbered $i+h(n / l)$ and every edge of the graph is in such a star with the same $l$.

Observe that all edges that have a vertex $b$ in common generate a star with an increment that divides $n$ and vertex $b$ (see Fig. 8).

Since we assume that the graph has no leaves, then $j \neq 1$ and there must be another edge containing the vertex $a$.

This edge is labeled, say, $i+k$ with $(k, j)=1$, and, since we assume edges of valence 1 , it does not contain the vertex $b$.
Its other vertex $A$ cannot be in common with the edge $i+h j$ otherwise the power of $\rho^{\prime}(\bar{\Gamma})$ that sends $i$ to $i+h j$ would send the edge $i+k$ to the edge $i+h j+k$ not fixing the common vertex (Fig. 9).

Thus, also the edges containing the vertex $a$ generate a star and we may suppose that it has increment $k$, i.e., that its edges are labeled $i+h^{\prime} k$ with $h^{\prime}=0,1, \ldots, n / k-1$.

The same happens at the vertices of the edges $i+h j$ other than $b$, while in the vertex $A$ there is a star with increment $j$ (edges labeled $i+k+h j$ with $h=0,1, \ldots, n / j-1$ ).

The free vertices of this star coincide with the free vertices of the star with vertex $b$. The same happens with all the other edges of the star with vertex $a$ (Fig. 10).

Comparing the edges we come to $k j$ edges and $k+j$ vertices forming $j$ stars with increment $j$ and $k$ edges, and $k$ stars with increment $k$ and $j$ edges. Since there is only


Fig. 9.


Fig. 10.
one way to number a star when the label of a single edge is known (as for petals), there is only one possible numeration of the edges, i.e., we get a double star of type $(j, k)$ and valence 1.

We can immediately see that $j+k \mid m$.

Allowing petals of valence $a$ and choosing $j<k$, we get a $d$-sheeted cover branched over

$$
x^{a j(d-j)}=y^{b d}
$$

with $2 \leqslant j \leqslant d / 2$ and $(j, d)=1$.

Proof of Theorem 3.4. The three lemmas give the complete classification of the graphs as in the statement; so we have only to understand the action of $f: \mathbb{C}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ defined by $f(x, y)=(y, x)$ on these graphs.

This map sends the minimal standard generators $\left(\gamma_{i}\right)$ for $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)$ into the standard generators $\left(\mu_{i}\right)$ for $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{m, n}\right)$, and vice versa.

Being (see the proof of the Propositions 1.1 and 1.2) $\mu_{i}=\Gamma_{i-1} \gamma_{i}^{-1} \Gamma_{i-1}^{-1}$, this isomorphism can be seen on the graphs in this way: act on the edge $i$ by $\rho\left(\gamma_{i-1} \cdots \gamma_{1}\right)$ (the edge 1 remains fixed).

If you do this on $m=a j(d-j)$ consecutive edges of a polygon with $d$ vertices, valence $a$ and increment $j$ you get a double star of type $(j, d-j)$ and valence $a$ and if you do this on $n=a d$ consecutive edges of a double star of type $(j, d-j)$ and valence $a$ you get a polygon with $d$ vertices, valence $a$ and increment $j$.

By the bijection between monodromy graphs and generic covers, we get Corollary 0.2

## 4. Local fundamental groups

Let $\pi: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ be the cover branched over $C_{n, m}$ constructed in the previous section from the polygon with $n$ vertices, valence 1 and increment $\alpha$. In order to see if $S$ is singular (note that away from $P=\pi^{-1}((0,0)) S$ is smooth) we must check whether $\pi_{1}(S \backslash\{P\})$ is trivial or not (see [10]), so we must calculate $\pi_{1}(S \backslash\{P\})$.

Let $\beta=n-\alpha, b=\alpha \beta / m$. Recall that $(\alpha, \beta)=1, b$ is an integer and we may assume $\alpha<\beta$.

Let

$$
R_{i}=\gamma_{i} \gamma_{i+1} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1}
$$

where all indices are taken cyclical $(\bmod n)$.
Then the relations defining $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left\{x^{n}=y^{m}\right\}\right)$ may be written as

$$
R_{i}=R_{i+1}
$$

for $i=1, \ldots, n-1$.
In order to compute $\pi_{1}(S \backslash\{P\})$ consider $\left.\pi\right|_{S \backslash R}: S \backslash R \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}$, where $R=$ $\pi^{-1}\left(C_{n, m}\right)$. This is an unramified cover, and we can identify $\pi_{1}(S \backslash R)$ with the subgroup of $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C_{n, m}\right)$ given by those elements $\gamma$ such that $\rho(\gamma)(1)=1$.

We apply the Reidemeister-Shreier method (see [8]) to the Shreier set of left cosets

$$
L_{j}=\gamma_{1} \gamma_{1+\alpha} \gamma_{1+2 \alpha} \cdots \gamma_{1+(j-1) \alpha}
$$

for $j=0, \ldots, n-1\left(L_{0}=e\right)$.
A set of generators for $\pi_{1}(S \backslash R)$ is given by the following elements

$$
A_{i}=\gamma_{1} \gamma_{1+\alpha} \cdots \gamma_{1+(i-2) \alpha} \gamma_{1+(i-1) \alpha}^{2} \gamma_{1+(i-2) \alpha}^{-1} \cdots \gamma_{1+\alpha}^{-1} \gamma_{1}^{-1}
$$

for $i=1, \ldots, n-1$;

$$
B_{j, i}=L_{j} \gamma_{1+i \alpha} L_{j}^{-1}
$$

for $i \neq j-1, j$, and $j=0, \ldots, n-1$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C=\gamma_{1} \gamma_{1+\alpha} \cdots \gamma_{1+(n-2) \alpha} \gamma_{1+(n-1) \alpha} \\
& D=\gamma_{1+(n-1) \alpha} \gamma_{1+(n-2) \alpha}^{-1} \cdots \gamma_{1+\alpha}^{-1} \gamma_{1}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

while a set of defining relators is given by rewriting in terms of the above generators the following

$$
L_{j} R_{i} R_{i+1}^{-1} L_{j}^{-1}
$$

for all choices of $i$ and $j$.
Observe that $\pi_{1}(S \backslash\{P\})$ is obtained from $\pi_{1}(S \backslash R)$ by adding the relations

$$
A_{i}=B_{i, j}=C D=e
$$

for all choices of $i$ and $j$ (they represent loops around all the components of $R$ ).
Thus $\pi_{1}(S \backslash\{P\})$ is generated by $C$ and to determine its order we have to go through the rewriting process for the relations.

Theorem 4.1. With the above notations if $\alpha>1, \pi_{1}(S \backslash\{P\})=\mathbb{Z} / b \mathbb{Z}$.
Proof. First observe that $\alpha>1 \Rightarrow \alpha+\beta<\alpha \beta$.
Consider $L_{j} R_{i}$ and write $R_{i}=\gamma_{i} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1}=\lambda_{1} \cdots \lambda_{n} R_{i}^{\prime}$ where $\lambda_{l}=\gamma_{i+l-1}$.
Let $h, k$ be integers such that $\lambda_{h}=\gamma_{1+(j-1) \alpha}, \lambda_{k}=\gamma_{1+j \alpha}$.
Since if $i \neq 1+\beta$

$$
L_{j} \gamma_{i}= \begin{cases}B_{j, i} L_{j} & \text { if } i \neq 1+(j-1) \alpha, 1+j \alpha, \\ A_{j} L_{j-1} & \text { if } i=1+(j-1) \alpha, \\ L_{j+1} & \text { if } i=1+j \alpha,\end{cases}
$$

while

$$
L_{j} \gamma_{1+\beta}= \begin{cases}B_{j, 1+\beta} L_{j} & \text { if } j \neq 0, n-1, \\ C L_{0} & \text { if } j=n-1, \\ D L_{n-1} & \text { if } j=0\end{cases}
$$

then if $h>k$

$$
L_{j} R_{i}= \begin{cases}H L_{j+1} \lambda_{k+1} \cdots \lambda_{n} R_{i}^{\prime} & \text { if } j \neq n-1, \\ H C L_{0} \lambda_{k+1} \cdots \lambda_{n} R_{i}^{\prime} & \text { if } j=n-1\end{cases}
$$

while if $h<k$;

$$
L_{j} R_{i}= \begin{cases}H L_{j-1} \lambda_{h+1} \cdots \lambda_{n} R_{i}^{\prime} & \text { if } j \neq 0 \\ H D L_{n-1} \lambda_{h+1} \cdots \lambda_{n} R_{i}^{\prime} & \text { if } j=0\end{cases}
$$

with $H$ a word in the $A$ 's and $B$ 's.
Observe that in the first case we pass first from $L_{j}$ to $L_{j+1}$ and then to $L_{j+2}, L_{j+3}$ and so on $($ cyclic indices $(\bmod n))$ every $\alpha$ steps, i.e.,

$$
\begin{aligned}
L_{j} R_{i} & =K_{1} L_{j+1} \lambda_{1}^{\prime} \cdots \lambda_{s}^{\prime} \\
& =K_{1} K_{2} L_{j+2} \lambda_{1+\alpha}^{\prime} \cdots \lambda_{s}^{\prime} \\
& =K_{1} K_{2} K_{3} L_{j+3} \lambda_{1+2 \alpha}^{\prime} \cdots \lambda_{s}^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $K_{h}$ is a word in the $A$ 's, $B$ 's and $C$ and $K_{h}$ contains $C$ if and only if $j+h \equiv 0$ $(\bmod n)$. If this happens we say that rewriting $L_{j} R_{i}$ the coset index increases.

Analogously, in the second case we pass first from $L_{j}$ to $L_{j-1}$ and then to $L_{j-2}, L_{j-3}$ and so on every $\beta$ steps and the corresponding $K_{h}$ is a word in the $A$ 's, $B$ 's and $D$ and $K_{h}$ contains $D \Leftrightarrow j-h \equiv n-1(\bmod n)$. In this case we say that the coset index decreases.

Note that for a fixed $i$ there are only $\alpha$ indices $j$ for which the coset index increases, namely those indices such that $1+j \alpha=i, i+1, \ldots, i+\alpha-1$.

Suppose that rewriting $L_{j} R_{i}$ the coset index increases and write $1+j \alpha=i+c-1$ with $0<c \leqslant \alpha$. Then deleting all the words in the $A$ 's and $B$ 's

$$
\begin{aligned}
L_{j} R_{i} & =L_{j+1} \gamma_{i+c} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1} \\
& =L_{j+2} \gamma_{i+c+\alpha} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1} \\
& \vdots \\
& =C L_{0} \gamma_{i+c+(n-j-1) \alpha} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1} \\
& =C^{2} L_{0} \gamma_{i+c+(2 n-j-1) \alpha} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1} \\
& =C^{t} L_{l} \gamma_{i+c+m-\alpha} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1}=C^{t} L_{l}
\end{aligned}
$$

(if $c=\alpha$ there are no $\gamma$ 's in the last line) for a suitable $l$ and where

$$
t=\left[\frac{m-\alpha-(n-j-1) \alpha}{\alpha n}\right]+1=\left[\frac{b \beta-(\alpha+\beta)+j}{\alpha+\beta}\right]+1=\left[\frac{b \beta+j}{\alpha+\beta}\right] .
$$

On the other hand, suppose that rewriting $L_{j} R_{i}$ the coset index decreases and write $1+j a=i+c^{\prime}-1$ with $\alpha<c^{\prime} \leqslant n$. Then again

$$
\begin{aligned}
L_{j} R_{i} & =L_{j-1} \gamma_{i+c^{\prime}-\alpha} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1} \\
& =L_{j-2} \gamma_{i+c^{\prime}-\alpha+\beta} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1} \\
& \vdots \\
& =D L_{0} \gamma_{i+c^{\prime}-\alpha+j \beta} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1} \\
& =D^{2} L_{0} \gamma_{i+c^{\prime}-\alpha+(n+j) \beta} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1} \\
& =D^{t^{\prime}} L_{l^{\prime}} \gamma_{i+c^{\prime}+m-\alpha-\beta} \cdots \gamma_{i+m-1}=D^{t^{\prime}} L_{l^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

(if $c^{\prime}=n$ there are no $\gamma^{\prime}$ s in the last line) for a suitable $l^{\prime}$ and where

$$
t^{\prime}=\left[\frac{m-\beta-j \beta}{\beta n}\right]+1=\left[\frac{b \alpha-j-1}{\alpha+\beta}\right]+1 .
$$

Observe that if the coset index increases rewriting both $L_{j} R_{i}$ and $L_{j} R_{i+1}$ then $1<c \leqslant \alpha$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
L_{j} R_{i+1} & =L_{j+1} \gamma_{i+c} \cdots \gamma_{i+m} \\
& =L_{j+2} \gamma_{i+c+\alpha} \cdots \gamma_{i+m} \\
& \vdots \\
& =C L_{0} \gamma_{i+c+(n-j-1) \alpha} \cdots \gamma_{i+m} \\
& =C^{2} L_{0} \gamma_{i+c+(2 n-j-1) \alpha} \cdots \gamma_{i+m} \\
& =C^{t} L_{l} \gamma_{i+c+m-\alpha} \cdots \gamma_{i+m}=C^{t} L_{l},
\end{aligned}
$$

that is rewriting a relation $L_{j} R_{i} R_{i+1}^{-1} L_{j}^{-1}$ for which the coset index increases for both $L_{j} R_{i}$ and $L_{j} R_{i+1}$ yields the trivial relation $C^{t}=C^{t}$.

The same thing happens if the coset index decreases rewriting both $L_{j} R_{i}$ and $L_{j} R_{i+1}$, i.e., if $\alpha<c^{\prime} \leqslant n$ and we get $D^{t^{\prime}}=D^{t^{\prime}}$.

In the case $c=1$, (respectively $c^{\prime}=\alpha+1$ ) rewriting $L_{j} R_{i}$ the coset index increases (respectively decreases) and rewriting $L_{j} R_{i+1}$ the coset index decreases (respectively increases) so we get $C^{t}=D^{t^{\prime}}$, i.e., $C^{t+t^{\prime}}=1$.

Observe that $t+t^{\prime}=b$, in fact write

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b \beta=r(\alpha+\beta)+s, \\
& b \alpha=r^{\prime}(\alpha+\beta)+s^{\prime},
\end{aligned}
$$

with $0 \leqslant s, s^{\prime}<\alpha+\beta$. Adding the above equations we get

$$
b(\alpha+\beta)=\left(r+r^{\prime}\right)(\alpha+\beta)+s+s^{\prime},
$$

i.e., $(\alpha+\beta) \mid\left(s+s^{\prime}\right)$ which implies $s+s^{\prime}=0$ or $s+s^{\prime}=\alpha+\beta$.

In the first case we have $s=s^{\prime}=0$ (this is true if and only if $\left.(\alpha+\beta) \mid b\right)$ and $b \beta+j=$ $r(\alpha+\beta)+j, b \alpha-j-1=r^{\prime}(\alpha+\beta)-j-1$ which implies $t=r, t^{\prime}=r^{\prime}-1+1 \forall j$ so that $t+t^{\prime}=r+r^{\prime}=b$.

In the other case $\left(s, s^{\prime} \neq 0\right)$ we have

$$
b \beta+j=r(\alpha+\beta)+s+j, \quad b \alpha-j-1=r^{\prime}(\alpha+\beta)+s^{\prime}-j-1
$$

and $s+j \geqslant \alpha+\beta \Leftrightarrow s^{\prime}-j-1=\alpha+\beta-s-j-1<0$ so we have only two possibilities $t+t^{\prime}=r+r^{\prime}+1$ or $t+t^{\prime}=r+1+r^{\prime}-1+1$ that is $t+t^{\prime}=b$.

Summing up $\pi_{1}(S \backslash\{P\})=\left\langle C \mid C^{b}=1\right\rangle \equiv \mathbb{Z} / b \mathbb{Z}$.
Consider now the $n=\alpha+\beta$-sheeted generic cover $\bar{\pi}: \bar{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ branched over $C_{a(\alpha+\beta), b \alpha \beta}$ corresponding to the polygon with $\alpha+\beta$ vertices, valence $a$ and increment $\alpha$.

This surface is obtained from $S$ via fiber product with $f_{a, 1}$ (see Section 2).
Corollary 4.2. If $a=b=1 \bar{S}$ is smooth. If $b \neq 1 \bar{S}$ is singular.
Proof. If $\alpha \beta<\alpha+\beta$, i.e., $\alpha=1$ the result follows observing that in this case $\bar{S} \subset \mathbb{C}^{3}$ has equation

$$
z^{n+1}-(n+1) x^{a} z+n y^{b}=0
$$

so suppose $\alpha+\beta<\alpha \beta$.

If $a=1$ then, by the above proposition, $\pi_{1}(\bar{S} \backslash\{\bar{P}\})$ is trivial if and only if $b=1$.
If $a>1$ then $\pi_{1}(S \backslash\{P\}) \neq 0$, so, by Proposition 2.4, $\pi_{1}(\bar{S} \backslash\{\bar{P}\}) \neq 0$, and $\bar{S}$ is singular.

## 5. Generic covers branched on $\left\{x^{n}+y^{b n}=0\right\}$

In this section $S$ is a normal surface, $\pi: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2}$ a $d$-sheeted ( $d \geqslant 3$ ) generic cover branched over the curve $C=\left\{x^{n}+y^{b n}=0\right\}$. In particular, $b$ and $n$ cannot be both odd, so $b n$ is even.
Let $\tilde{S}$ be a resolution of the (isolated) singularity of $S$ obtained from $\pi$ using the standard algorithm (see, e.g., [7]).

We get the following diagram:

with $\pi^{\prime}$ a sequence of ordinary blow-up's, $\tilde{\pi}$ proper, $\pi^{\prime \prime}$ a resolution of $S . \widetilde{S}$ is the plumbing variety of a normal crossing configuration of smooth curves, i.e., of the compact components of $\widetilde{C}=\tilde{\pi}^{-1}\left(\pi^{\prime-1}(C)\right)$. We look for the dual graph of this configuration (see, e.g., [7]).

Recall that, as in the previous sections,

$$
\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C\right)=\left\langle\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n} \mid \Gamma^{b} \gamma_{i} \Gamma^{-b} \gamma_{i}^{-1}\right\rangle,
$$

where $\Gamma=\gamma_{1} \cdots \gamma_{n}$, with $\gamma_{i}$ geometric loops around $C$ supported on the line $\{y=1\}$ such that $\Gamma$ is a loop around all the points of $C$ on this line.

Consider the monodromy $\rho: \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_{d}$, and let $v$ be the number of orbits of $\sigma=\rho(\Gamma), k_{1}, \ldots, k_{\nu}$ the cardinalities of these orbits.

Remark that every labeled graph with $d$ vertices and $n$ edges represents the monodromy of a cover branched over $\left\{x^{n}+y^{b n}=0\right\}$ for a suitable $b$; more precisely for every $b$ multiple of the order of the permutation corresponding to the ordered product of the edges.

Definition 5.1 (Strings). Call a string the dual graph of a normal crossing configuration of curves which is a tree and such that no vertex is contained in more than two edges, i.e., a graph like the following:

Call a string of type $A_{k}$ a string with $k$ vertices such that every vertex corresponds to a smooth rational curve with self-intersection -2 .

In this section we prove the following result:

Theorem 5.2. In the above hypothesis and notations, $S$ has a (minimal) resolution which is the plumbing variety of the following normal crossing configuration of smooth curves:

where the vertex $\bar{E}_{b}$ has genus $(n-d-v+2) / 2$ and self-intersection $-v$. Moreover, $S$ is smooth $\Leftrightarrow$ the monodromy graph is a tree; this can occur only if $\sigma$ is a $d$-cycle, so $d$ divides $b$.

First, we need the embedded resolution graph of $C \subset \mathbb{C}^{2}$, i.e., the dual graph of $C^{\prime}=\pi^{\prime-1}(C)$, and the geometric loops around the irreducible components of this curve.

Lemma 5.3. The embedded resolution graph of $\left\{x^{n}+y^{b n}=0\right\}$ in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ is the following:

where the vertices correspond to exceptional divisors, the number over each vertex is its self-intersection and the numbers ( jn ) are the multiplicities of zero of the function $f^{\prime}=\pi^{\prime *} f, f=x^{n}+y^{b n}$; the arrowhead vertices are exactly $n$, the number of irreducible components of $C$.

Let $E_{j}$ be the irreducible curve in $T$ corresponding to the vertex of multiplicity $j n$ in our graph. Let $p_{j}=E_{j} \cap E_{j+1}, P=(1,1) \in \mathbb{C}^{2}$.
$\forall j$ there exists a neighborhood $U_{j}$ of $p_{j}$ in $T$, and local coordinates $(\xi, \eta)$ in $U_{j}$, such that $C^{\prime} \cap U_{j}=\left(E_{j} \cap U_{j}\right) \cup\left(E_{j+1} \cap U_{j}\right)=\{\xi \eta=0\}$, and $P^{\prime}=\pi^{\prime-1}(P) \in U_{j}$ with coordinates $(1,1)$. Choosing $P^{\prime}$ as base point for $\pi_{1}\left(T \backslash C^{\prime}\right)$, the natural geometric loops in $U_{j} \backslash C^{\prime}$ around $E_{j}\left(\left\{\left(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} \theta}, 1\right)\right\}\right)$ and and $E_{j+1}\left(\left\{\left(1, \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} \theta}\right)\right\}\right)$ are respectively $\Gamma^{i}$ and $\Gamma^{i+1}$ under the isomorphism $\pi^{\prime}{ }_{*}: \pi_{1}\left(T \backslash C^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C\right)$.

Proof. We are looking for $C^{\prime}$ and the monodromy around one of its irreducible components. Choose as base point the point $P=(1,1)$ which is not contained in $C$ for all $b$ and $n$.

Consider the following lines in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ :

$$
\begin{gather*}
\Pi^{\prime}=\{y=1\}, \\
\Pi=\{x=y\}  \tag{1}\\
\Pi^{\prime \prime}=\{x=1\} .
\end{gather*}
$$

Remark that the intersection of these lines is exactly the point $P$.


Fig. 11.

Let $\gamma^{\prime}=\Gamma$ (respectively $\bar{\gamma}, \bar{\gamma}^{\prime \prime}$ ) be a loop in $\Pi^{\prime}\left(\right.$ respectively $\left.\Pi, \Pi^{\prime \prime}\right)$ around all points of $C$ and let $\gamma$ be a loop in $\Pi$ around $(0,0)$ as in Fig. 11.
$C \cap \Pi$ is given by the equations $\left\{x=y, x^{n}\left(1+x^{(b-1) n}\right)=0\right\}$, i.e., the origin (with multiplicity $n$ ) and $(b-1) n$ distinct points on the unitary circle.

The pencil of lines $\Pi_{\lambda}=\{x=1-\lambda+\lambda y\}$, for $0 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 1$ defines an homotopy in $\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C$ between $\bar{\gamma}^{\prime \prime} \in \Pi^{\prime \prime}$ and $\bar{\gamma} \in \Pi$ (observe that $\forall \lambda C$ cuts on $\Pi_{\lambda} n$ points (with multiplicity) and $P \in \Pi_{\lambda}$ ).

Now consider the lines $\bar{\Pi}_{\lambda}=\{y=\lambda\}$, for $\varepsilon \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 1$, with $0 \leqslant \varepsilon \leqslant 1$.

$$
C \cap \bar{\Pi}_{\lambda}=\left\{\left(\lambda^{b} \mathrm{e}^{(2 r+1) \mathrm{i} \pi / n}, \lambda\right), 0 \leqslant r \leqslant n-1\right\} .
$$

Thus, considering the paths $\alpha=\{(1-t, 1-t)\}_{t \in[0,1-\varepsilon]}, \beta_{l}=\{(\varepsilon, \varepsilon+(l-1) \varepsilon t)\}_{t \in[0,1]}$ and $\tau=\left\{\left(\varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}, 0\right)\right\}_{t \in[0,2 \pi]}, \forall 0<\varepsilon<1, \gamma^{\prime}$ is homotopic in $\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C$ to $\alpha \beta_{0} \tau \beta_{0}^{-1} \alpha^{-1}$.
$\beta_{\lambda}\left(\varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}, \lambda \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]} \beta_{\lambda}^{-1}$ for $0 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 1$ defines an homotopy in $\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C$ between $\beta_{0} \tau \beta_{0}^{-1}$ and $\left(\varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]}$, so $\gamma^{\prime}=\gamma$ in $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C\right)$.
$C^{\prime}$ is obtained by blowing up recursively $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ in points of our curves (and his complete transform). So, the complementary of the complete transform does not change after every blow-up. With a slight abuse of notation, we do not change name to paths after every blowup.

The first step is to blow up $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ in the origin. Recall that we get a complex manifold obtained pasting two charts biholomorphic to $\mathbb{C}^{2}$, respectively $V_{1}$ and $U_{1}$, with projections on $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ given (in coordinates) respectively by:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left(V_{1}\right) & (x, y) \mapsto(x y, y), \\
\left(U_{1}\right) & (x, y) \mapsto(x, x y) .
\end{array}
$$

The complete transform of $C$ in these two charts is, in $\left(V_{1}\right), y^{n}\left(x^{n}+y^{(b-1) n}\right)=0$, and in $\left(U_{1}\right),\left\{x^{n}\left(1+x^{(b-1) n} y^{b n}\right)=0\right\}$. Remark that the last one is smooth (after reduction). Then the singularities of the complete transform of our curve are in $\left(V_{1}\right)$.
$V_{1} \cong \mathbb{C}^{2}$, so we can compute the lines $\Pi_{1}^{\prime}, \Pi_{1}, \Pi_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ (i.e., the lines in $\left(V_{1}\right)$ given by the Eq. (1)). Note that the inverse image of $P$ in $\left(V_{1}\right)$ has coordinates $(1,1)$.

We claim that in ( $V_{1}$ ) we have the following situation (see Fig. 12).
In fact, from the explicit equation of the projection, $\Pi_{1}^{\prime}$ is exactly $\Pi^{\prime}$, while $\Pi_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ is exactly $\Pi$. Rewriting the homotopies we find that the loop around the points cut by $C_{1}$, the strict transform of $C$, on $\Pi_{1}$ is $\bar{\gamma}$. We have to find the homotopy class of the loop around


Fig. 12.
the origin in $\Pi_{1}$, that is of $\eta=\alpha\left(\varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]} \alpha^{-1}$ where $\alpha$ is a real positive path (i.e., $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right)$ with $\left.\alpha_{i}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{+}\right)$from (1,1) to $(\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$, as a loop in $\mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash\left(C_{1} \cup\{y=0\}\right)$.

Since $|y| \leqslant 1 \Rightarrow|x| \leqslant 1$ and $|x| \leqslant|y|$ then, by the homotopy $\left(\lambda \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]}$, with $1 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 2, \eta \sim \eta^{\prime}=\beta\left(2 \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]} \beta^{-1}$ with $\beta$ a real positive path from $(1,1)$ to $(2 \varepsilon, \varepsilon)$.

Now

$$
\left(2 \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}(1+\lambda) t}, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{(1-\lambda) t}\right)_{t \in[0, \pi]} \cup\left(2 \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}(2 \pi \lambda+(1-\lambda) t)}, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}((2 t-2 \pi) \lambda+(1-\lambda) t)}\right)_{t \in[\pi, 2 \pi]}
$$

for $0 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 1$ defines a homotopy $\eta^{\prime} \sim \beta\left(2 \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}, \varepsilon\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]}\left(2 \varepsilon, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]} \beta^{-1}$.
Moreover

$$
\left((2 \varepsilon+\lambda(1-\varepsilon)) \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}, \varepsilon+\lambda(1-\varepsilon)\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]} \text { for } 0 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 1
$$

gives $\beta\left(2 \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}, \varepsilon\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]} \beta^{-1} \sim \beta^{\prime}\left((1+\varepsilon) \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}, 1\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]} \beta^{\prime-1}$ with $\beta^{\prime}$ a real positive path in $\{y=1\}$ from $(1,1)$ to $(1+\varepsilon, 1)$ and

$$
\left(\lambda+(1-\lambda) 2 \varepsilon, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]} \text { for } 0 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 1
$$

gives $\beta\left(2 \varepsilon, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} t}\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]} \beta^{-1} \sim \beta^{\prime \prime}\left(1, \varepsilon \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{it} t}\right)_{t \in[0,2 \pi]} \beta^{\prime \prime-1}$ with $\beta^{\prime \prime}$ a real positive path in $\{x=1\}$ from $(1,1)$ to $(1, \varepsilon)$.

Thus the loop around the origin in $\Pi_{1}$ is just $\gamma^{2}$.
Now we conclude the proof by induction.
The inductive hypothesis is that after $k$ blow-up's in the origin (of the $V$-charts), the complete transform of $C$ has equations, $y^{k n}\left(x^{n}+y^{(b-k) n}\right)=0$ in $V_{k}$, and $x^{k n} y^{(k-1) n}(1+$ $\left.x^{(b-k) n} y^{(b-k+1) n}\right)=0$ in $U_{k}$; moreover the complete transform of $C$ in $U_{k}^{c}$ has as dual graph a string of type $A_{k-1}$. One extremal component of this configuration intersects (transversally in the origin of $U_{k}$ ) the new exceptional divisor, and on $V_{k}$ our lines are as in Fig. 13.

Call $E_{l}$ the exceptional curve of the $l$ th blow-up, or, with abuse of notation, its strict transform in every other blow-up.

Remark that we have proven the inductive hypotheses for $k=1$.
Blow up the origin of $V_{k} . \Pi_{k+1}^{\prime}$ and $\Pi_{k+1}^{\prime \prime}$ are the same as $\Pi_{k}^{\prime}$ and $\Pi_{k}$ and the paths in $\Pi_{k}$ can be computed as in the previous step. The new equations in $V_{k+1}$ and in $U_{k+1}$ are obtained simply from the old equations in $V_{k}$ (and the equations of the blowup). Moreover $E_{k}$ is contained in $V_{k+1}^{c}$; we are blowing up a point $q_{k} \in E_{k}$ so the


Fig. 13.
self-intersection of $E_{k}$ pass from -1 to -2 , and it intersects transversally $E_{k-1}$, since $q_{k} \notin \bigcup_{j=1}^{k-1} E_{j} . \bigcup_{j=1}^{k} E_{j}$ is a normal crossing configuration of type $A_{k}$ and $E_{k+1}$ intersects transversely $E_{k}$.

Remark that $U_{k}$ (with the given coordinates) is the chart we are looking for around $p_{k}=E_{k} \cap E_{k+1}$.

The dual graph of the standard resolution of the singularity of $S$ depends only on $b$, $n, d$ and the conjugacy class of $\sigma=\rho(\Gamma)$ in $\mathcal{S}_{d}$ (this follows easily from the explicit construction of $S$ from $C$ and $\rho$, see, e.g., [7,12]).

From now on, we call multiplicity of a curve in $\widetilde{S}$ the multiplicity of $f^{\prime} \circ \tilde{\pi} ; \forall i$, $\bar{E}_{i}=\tilde{\pi}^{-1}\left(E_{i}\right)$.

Lemma 5.4. $\bar{E}_{b}$ is an irreducible compact connected curve of multiplicity bn and genus $(n-d-v+2) / 2$. Moreover, $\left.\tilde{\pi}\right|_{\bar{E}_{b}}$ has degree $d$.

Proof. $\left\{\sigma_{i}\right\}=\left\{\rho\left(\gamma_{i}\right)\right\}$ is a family of transpositions generating $\mathcal{S}_{d}$, and if $d \geqslant 3, \sigma^{b}=1$.
We have remarked before that $\sigma^{b}$ is the monodromy of a geometric loop around $E_{b}$, then for a small neighborhood $V$ of a generic point of $E_{b}, \tilde{\pi}^{-1}(V)$ has $d$ connected components, and $\left.\tilde{\pi}\right|_{\tilde{\pi}^{-1}(V)}$ is a cover of degree $d$.
$\left.\tilde{\pi}\right|_{\bar{E}_{b}}$ is a branched cover of degree $d$ (a priori non connected), and the multiplicity of $f^{\prime} \circ \tilde{\pi}$ on $\bar{E}_{b}$ is exactly the multiplicity of $f$ on $E_{b}$, i.e., $b n$. The branching points are the intersection points of $E_{b}$ with the other branches of the configuration, i.e., every branch of $\bar{C}^{\prime}$, the strict transform of $C$ by $\pi^{\prime}$, and $E_{b-1}$, so we must consider $n+1$ points.

A geometric loop $\lambda$ in $\bar{E}_{b}$ around such a point, acts on the $d$ sheets in the same way as a small perturbation $\lambda^{\prime}$ of $\lambda\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right.$ a loop in $T \backslash C^{\prime} \cong \mathbb{C}^{2} \backslash C$ ).

The geometric loops around the points of intersection of $E_{b}$ with $\bar{C}^{\prime}$ are the $\gamma_{i}$ 's, which act transitively on the fiber, so $\bar{E}_{b}$ is irreducible.

Since $\sigma_{i}$ is a transposition, the branching index of $\left.\tilde{\pi}\right|_{E_{b}}$ in these points is 1 .
On the other hand, a geometric loop around $p_{b-1}=E_{b} \cap E_{b-1}$, has monodromy $\rho\left(\Gamma^{b-1}\right)=\sigma^{-1}$, which is in the same conjugacy class as $\sigma$ in $\mathcal{S}_{d}$, so the branching index in this point is exactly $d-v$.

Thus, by Hurwitz formula, $\chi\left(\bar{E}_{b}\right)=d \chi\left(E_{b}\right)-n-(d-v)=d+v-n$.

Lemma 5.5. $\bar{E}_{b-1}$ has $v$ connected components, irreducible of genus $0, \bar{E}_{b-1}^{i}$, of multiplicity $(b-1) n k_{i} . \tilde{\pi}^{-1}\left(p_{b-1}\right)$ is a set of $v$ distinct points. Moreover, $\left(\bar{E}_{b}\right)^{2}=-d$.

Proof. A geometric loop around $E_{b-1}$ is $\Gamma^{b-1}$.
Thus, $\left.\tilde{\pi}\right|_{E_{b-1}}$ is a branched cover of degree $v$. Now, we have just two branching points; but a small perturbation of a geometric loop around $p_{b-1}$ in $\bar{E}_{b-1}$ acts as the identity, and a small perturbation of a geometric loop around $p_{b-2}$ in $\bar{E}_{b-1}$ acts as $\rho\left(\Gamma^{b-2}\right)=$ $\sigma^{-2}=\left(\sigma^{-1}\right)^{2}$, and they both do not connect the orbits of $\sigma^{-1}$. Thus $\left.\tilde{\pi}\right|_{\bar{E}_{b-1}}$ is a cover (unramified) of degree $v$ with $v$ connected components, i.e., $\bar{E}_{b-1}$ is the disjoint union of $v$ curves, $\bar{E}_{b-1}^{i}$, biholomorphic to $E_{b-1}$ (and thus of genus 0). Moreover $\tilde{\pi}$ is ramified of index $k_{i}-1$ over $\bar{E}_{b-1}^{i}$, and this gives us the multiplicities.

Let $U$ be a neighborhood of $p_{b-1}$ with local coordinates $(\xi, \eta)$ such that the curve $\left(E_{b} \cup E_{b-1}\right) \cap U$ has equation $\xi \eta=0$. Then the fundamental group of the complement of this curve in $U$ is $\mathbb{Z}^{2}$, generated by $\Gamma^{b}$ and $\Gamma^{b-1}$.

The connected analytic covers of $U \backslash\left(E_{b} \cup E_{b-1}\right)$, are then classified by the subgroups of $\mathbb{Z}^{2} . \tilde{\pi}^{-1}(U)$ has $v$ connected components $V_{i}$, each associated to an orbit $\Lambda_{i}$ of $\sigma$, and $\left.\tilde{\pi}\right|_{V_{i}}$ is a cover of degree exactly the cardinality $k_{i}$ of $\Lambda_{i}$ associated to the lattice in $\mathbb{Z}^{2}$ generated by $\left(0, k_{i}\right)$ and $(1,0)$.

Thus, locally the cover is $(\xi, \eta) \mapsto\left(\xi^{k_{i}}, \eta\right)$, and (see [7]), $\tilde{\pi}^{-1}\left(E_{b} \cap E_{b-1}\right)$ is formed by $\nu$ points, $\bar{E}_{b-1}^{i} \cap \bar{E}_{b}$.

In order to compute $\left(\bar{E}_{b}\right)^{2}$ we need only to note that the intersection product $\bar{E}_{b} \cdot\left(f^{\prime} \circ\right.$ $\tilde{\pi})=0$. Then

$$
\left(\bar{E}_{b}\right)^{2}=-\frac{d n+\sum(b-1) n k_{i}}{b n}=-\frac{d b n}{b n}=-d .
$$

Lemma 5.6. The resolution graph of $S$ is:

where the $\widetilde{S}_{k_{i}}^{b}$ are strings which depend only on $b$ and $k_{i}$.
Proof. $\forall i \leqslant b-1$, consider $\bar{E}_{i}$. As in the previous lemmas, the connected components of $\bar{E}_{i}$ are in canonical bijection with the orbits of the subgroup of $\mathcal{S}_{n}$ generated by $\sigma^{i}, \sigma^{i-1}, \sigma^{i+1}$. But these are the orbits of $\sigma$, then $\bar{E}_{i}$ has $v$ components, and each component of $\bar{E}_{i}$ intersects only the components of $\bar{E}_{i-1}$ and $\bar{E}_{i+1}$ associated to the same orbit (or an extremal vertex of a string dominating $p_{i}$ or $p_{i-1}$, see [7]). In particular the $S_{k_{i}}^{b}$ are strings, and by construction they depend only on $b$ and $k_{i}$.

Call now $\widetilde{T}_{i}$ a tubular neighborhood of $\widetilde{S}_{k_{i}}^{b}$ in $\widetilde{S}, S_{k_{i}}^{b}$ the string obtained by $\widetilde{S}_{k_{i}}^{b}$ recursively contracting all the possible exceptional curves of the first kind (smooth rational curves with self-intersection -1), $l_{k_{i}}^{b}=\left(\bar{E}_{b}\right)_{\tilde{S}_{k_{i}}^{b}}^{2}-\left(\bar{E}_{b}\right)_{S_{k_{i}}^{b}}^{2}$ (i.e., how many times in this contraction we contract a vertex near $\left.\bar{E}_{b}\right), s_{k_{i}}^{b}$ the number of vertices of $S_{k_{i}}^{b}$.

## Lemma 5.7.

(1) $S_{k_{i}}^{b}$ are strings of type $A_{s_{k_{i}}}$;
(2) $l_{k_{i}}^{b}=k_{i}-1$;
(3) $s_{k_{i}}^{b}=\left(b / k_{i}\right)\left(s_{k_{i}}^{k_{i}}+1\right)-1$;
(4) $s_{1}^{b}=b-1$.

Proof. First we prove (4). In this case $k_{i}=1$ and $\bar{E}_{j}^{i} \rightarrow E_{j}$ is $1: 1 \forall j$, so $\widetilde{S}_{1}^{b}$ is a string isomorphic to the string it dominates, i.e., a string of type $A_{b-1}$ and $S_{1}^{b}=\widetilde{S}_{1}^{b}$.

Observe that $k_{i}$ divides $b \forall i$, since $\sigma^{b}=1$, and that for $k_{i}$ fixed, we must only prove the parts (1) and (2) for $b=k_{i}$; in fact we can compute the $k_{i}$-string for any $b$ starting from the string for $b=k_{i}$, by the following argument.

First we consider $\bar{E}_{\lambda k_{i}}^{i}$.
A geometric loop around $E_{\lambda k_{i}}$ acts as the identity on $\widetilde{T}_{i}$, so $\bar{E}_{\lambda k_{i}}^{i}$ dominates $E_{\lambda k_{i}}$ as a $k_{i}$-sheeted cover totally ramified over two branching points, namely, the intersections of $E_{\lambda k_{i}}$ with $E_{\lambda k_{i}+1}$ and $E_{\lambda k_{i}-1}$.

So, $\bar{E}_{\lambda k_{i}}^{i}$ is rational by Hurwitz formula and the multiplicities of $\bar{E}_{\lambda k_{i}}^{i}, \bar{E}_{\lambda k_{i}+1}^{i}, \bar{E}_{\lambda k_{i}-1}^{i}$ are respectively $n \lambda k_{i}, n \lambda k_{i}\left(k_{i}+1\right), n \lambda k_{i}\left(k_{i}-1\right)$.

In a neighborhood of $E_{\lambda k_{i}} \cap E_{\lambda k_{i} \pm 1}$, the cover restricted to $\widetilde{T}_{i}$ is associated to the lattice $\left(0, k_{i}\right),(1,0)$, so (see [7]) the fibers over these points are made up of a finite number of points, and the part of the string that dominates $E_{\lambda k_{i}}$ is only a vertex, corresponding to a rational curve. Its self-intersection (in $\widetilde{S}_{k_{i}}^{b}$ ) can be computed using multiplicities, and we obtain

$$
-\frac{n \lambda k_{i}\left(k_{i}+1\right)+n \lambda k_{i}\left(k_{i}-1\right)}{n \lambda k_{i}}=-2 k_{i} .
$$

The other part of the string, i.e., the parts that dominate the substrings between $E_{\lambda k_{i}+1}$ and $E_{(\lambda+1) k_{i}-1}$, are exactly the $\widetilde{S}_{k_{i}}^{k_{i}}$.

In fact, the irreducible components of $\tilde{\pi}^{-1}\left(C^{\prime}\right)$ which dominate the $E_{\lambda k_{i}+j}$ and $E_{\lambda k_{i}+j} \cap$ $E_{\lambda k_{i}+j+1}$ (and the normal bundles in $\widetilde{S}$ ) in this substrings are constructed in the same way as the components that dominate $E_{j}, E_{j} \cap E_{j+1}$ for $b=k_{i}$, except for $E_{\lambda k_{i}+1}$. In this case the construction is different from the one for $E_{1}$ ( $E_{0}$ is not defined), but a generic loop around $E_{\lambda k_{i}}$, acts as the identity, and the result follows.

Thus we get $b / k_{i}$ strings connected by $b / k_{i}-1$ rational vertices with self-intersection $-2 k_{i}$. All the substrings $\widetilde{S}_{k_{i}}^{k_{i}}$ contract to $S_{k_{i}}^{k_{i}}$.

Remark that, by construction, the strings $\widetilde{S}_{k_{i}}^{b}$ are symmetric (because $\sigma$ e $\sigma^{-1}$ are conjugate). Then after the contractions the self-intersection of $\bar{E}_{\lambda k_{i}}$ becomes $-2 k_{1}+2 l_{k_{i}}^{k_{i}}=$ $-2 k_{i}+2\left(k_{i}-1\right)=-2, l_{k_{i}}$ does not depends on $b$ and

$$
s_{k_{i}}^{b}=\frac{b}{k_{i}} s_{k_{i}}^{k_{i}}+\frac{b}{k_{i}}-1
$$

(in particular, if $b>k_{i}, s_{k_{i}}^{b}>0$ ).
Thus we prove (1) and (2) in the case $b=k_{i}$ by induction on $b$.
For $b=1$ then $k_{i}=1$ and the result follows by (4).
Now assume (1) and (2) true if $\bar{b}<b$. We know that $\forall b$ there exists a smooth cover of degree $b$ generically branched on the curve $\left\{x^{b-1}+y^{b(b-1)}=0\right\}$, i.e., on a curve of the class under consideration ( $n=b-1$ ).

In this case we can easily check that $\sigma$ is an $b$-cycle, i.e., $v=1$. In fact, otherwise by the inductive hypothesis we would have a tree with at least two non empty branches without exceptional curves, and then the graph cannot be contracted (i.e., the surface cannot be smooth).

Now, using the previous considerations, we find that the resolution graph of this surface has the form:

where all the vertices without decoration (if they exist) are non contractible.
We know a priori that this graph must be contractible. In particular the last vertex must have self-intersection -1 (no other vertex can), i.e., $l_{k_{i}}=k_{i}-1$, and it must be rational. Moreover the string must have only smooth rational curves with self-intersection -2 .

Proof of Theorem 5.2. By Lemmas 5.7 and 5.6, we must only check that, if $b=k_{i}$ then $s_{k_{i}}^{k_{i}}=0$, i.e., $S_{k_{i}}^{k_{i}}$ is empty.

Recall that by Theorem 4.1 we know $\pi_{1}(S \backslash\{p\})$ for some special monodromy graphs. In that theorem, the branching curves were $\left\{x^{\alpha+\beta}=y^{l(\alpha \beta)}\right\}$, for fixed $\alpha, \beta$, with $(\alpha, \beta)=1$; in that case we have $d=\alpha+\beta, \nu=2, k_{1}=\alpha, k_{2}=\beta, \pi_{1}(S \backslash\{p\})=\mathbb{Z} / l \mathbb{Z}$.

Assume now $\alpha=n-1, \beta=1, l=n$. We get one of our curves, with $b=n-1$.
By the previous lemmas, the configuration is a string of $k=s_{n-1}^{n-1}+s_{1}^{n-1}+1$ rational curves with self-intersection -2 . So $S$ has a singularity of type $A_{k}$ (see [1]).

The local fundamental group of such a singularity is a cyclic group of order equal to the number of the vertices plus 1 . We know that this order is $l=n$, then we have $n-1$ vertices and by Lemma 5.7, $s_{1}^{n-1}=n-2$, so $s_{n-1}^{n-1}=l-s_{1}^{n-1}-2=0$.

Moreover, if $\sigma$ has $v>1$ orbits then the graph has no -1 curves and $S$ cannot be smooth.
So, if $S$ is smooth, $\sigma$ is a $d$-cycle and $\sigma^{b}=1 \Rightarrow d \mid b$. Moreover, if $S$ is smooth, the genus of $\bar{E}_{b}$ must be 0 , i.e., $n-d+v=0, n=d-v=d-1$.

Conversely, if $n=d-1$ the genus of $\bar{E}_{b}$ is 0 and the monodromy graph has $d$ vertices and $n=d-1$ edges, i.e., it is a tree. Thus $\sigma$ is transitive, $v=1$, and the resolution graph is a string of rational curves with self-intersection -2 except for the last one which has self-intersection -1 . So $S$ is smooth.

## Acknowledgements

The second author would like to thank Professor Fulvio Lazzeri for introducing him to the subject, and for pointing out this problem.

Both authors would like to thank Professor Fabrizio Catanese for the several useful and interesting conversations on the topic.

## References

[1] V.I. Arnold, Dynamical Systems VI—Singularity Theory I, Encyclopaedia of Mathematical Sciences 6, Springer, Berlin, 1991.
[2] E. Artin, Theory of braids, Ann. of Math. 48 (1947) 101-126.
[3] J. Birman, Braids, Links and Mapping Class Groups, Princeton Univ. Press, Princeton, NJ, 1975.
[4] E. Brieskorn, H. Knörrer, Plane Algebraic Curves, Birkhäuser, Basel, 1986.
[5] G. Fischer, Complex Analytic Geometry, Lecture Notes in Math., Springer, Berlin, 1976.
[6] R.C. Gunning, H. Rossi, Analytic Functions of Several Complex Variables, Prentice-Hall Series in Modern Analysis, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1965.
[7] H. Laufer, Normal Two-Dimensional Singularities, Ann. of Math. Stud. 71, Princeton Univ. Press, Princeton, NJ, 1971.
[8] W. Magnus, A. Karrass, D. Solitar, Combinatorial Group Theory, Interscience, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1966.
[9] B. Moishezon, Stable branch curves and braid monodromy, Lecture Notes in Math., Vol. 862, Springer, Berlin, 1981, pp. 107-192.
[10] D. Mumford, The topology of normal singularities and a criterion for simplicity, Inst. des Hautes Études Scientifiques, Publ. Math. 9 (1961) 5-22.
[11] R. Narasimhan, Introduction to the Theory of Analytic Spaces, Lect. Notes in Math., Vol. 25, Springer, Berlin, 1966.
[12] R. Pignatelli, Singolarità di superfici algebriche, Tesi di laurea, Università di Pisa, 1994.
[13] E.R. Van Kampen, On the fundamental group of an algebraic curve, Amer. J. Math. 55 (1933) 255-260.
[14] O. Zariski, On the problem of existence of algebraic functions of two variables possessing a given branch curve, Amer. J. Math. 51 (1929) 305-328.


[^0]:    * Corresponding author. Email: manfredi@dm.unipi.it.
    ${ }^{1}$ Email: pignatel@dm.unipi.it.

