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## To cite this version:

Abdallah Assi. Rational curves with one place at infinity. 2012. hal-00712409v1

## HAL Id: hal-00712409 https://hal.science/hal-00712409v1

Preprint submitted on 27 Jun 2012 (v1), last revised 21 Oct 2013 (v2)

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# Rational curves with one place at infinity * 

Abdallah Assi ${ }^{\dagger}$


#### Abstract

Let $\mathbb{K}$ be an algebraically closed field of characteristic zero. Given a polynomial $f(x, y) \in \mathbb{K}[x, y]$ with one place at infinity, we prove that either $f$ is equivalent to a coordinate, or the family $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \mathbb{K}}$ has at most two rational elements.


## 1 Introduction and notations

Let $\mathbb{K}$ be an algebraically closed field of characteristic zero, and let $f=y^{n}+a_{1}(x) y^{n-1}+\ldots+$ $a_{n}(x)$ be a monic reduced polynomial of $\mathbb{K}[x][y]$. For all $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$, we set $f_{\lambda}=f-\lambda$. Hence we get a family of polynomials $\left(f_{\mathbb{K}}\right)_{\lambda \in \mathbb{K}}$. We shall suppose that $f_{\lambda}$ is a reduced polynomial for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$. Let $g$ be a nonzero polynomial of $\mathbb{K}[x][y]$. We define the intersection multiplicity of $f$ with $g$, denoted $\operatorname{int}(f, g)$, to be the rank of the $\mathbb{K}$-vector space $\frac{\mathbb{K}[x][y]}{(f, g)}$. Note that int $(f, g)$ is also the $x$-degree of the $y$-resultant of $f$ and $g$. Let $p=(a, b) \in V(f) \cap V(g)$, where $V$ denotes the set of zeros in $\mathbb{K}^{2}$. By setting $\bar{x}=x-a, \bar{y}=y-b$, we may assume that $p=(0,0)$. We define the intersection multiplicity of $f$ with $g$ at $p, \operatorname{denoted}_{\operatorname{int}_{p}(f, g) \text {, to be the rank of }}$ the $\mathbb{K}$-vector space $\frac{\mathbb{K}[[x, y]]}{(f, g)}$. Note that $\operatorname{int}(f, g)=\sum_{p \in V(f) \cap V(g)} \operatorname{int}_{p}(f, g)$. We define the local Milnor number of $f$ at $p$, denoted $\mu_{p}(f)$, to be the intersection multiplicity $\operatorname{int}_{p}\left(f_{x}, f_{y}\right)$, where $f_{x}$ (resp. $f_{y}$ ) denotes the $x$-derivative (resp. the $y$-derivative) of $f$. We set $\mu(f)=\operatorname{int}\left(f_{x}, f_{y}\right)$ and we recall that $\mu=\sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{K}} \sum_{p \in V\left(f_{\lambda}\right.} \mu_{p}\left(f_{\lambda}\right)$. The number of places at $p$ of $f$, denoted $r_{p}$, is defined to be the number of irreducible components of $f$ in $\mathbb{K}[[x]][y]$.

Assume, after possibly a change of variables, that $\operatorname{deg}_{x} a_{i}(x)<n-i$ for all $i=1, \ldots, n$ (where $\operatorname{deg}_{x}$ denotes the $x$-degree). In particular $f$ has one point at infinity defined by $y=0$. Let $h_{f}(x, y, u)=u^{n} f\left(\frac{x}{u}, \frac{y}{u}\right)$. The local equation of at infinity of $f$ is nothing but $F(y, u)=$ $h_{f}(1, y, u) \in \mathbb{K}[[u]][y]$. We define the Milnor number at infinity of $f$, denoted $\mu_{\infty}$, to be the

[^0]rank of the $\mathbb{K}$-vector space $\frac{\mathbb{K}[[u]][y]}{\left(F_{u}, F_{y}\right)}$. The number of places at infinity of $f$, denoted $r_{\infty}$, is defined to be the number of irreducible components of $F(y, u)$ in $\mathbb{K}[[u]][y]$.
Let the notations be as above and let $R(x, \lambda)=P_{0}(\lambda) x^{i}+\ldots+P_{i}(\lambda)$ be the $y$-resultant of $f_{\lambda}, f_{y}$. We say that $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ is regular if $P_{0}(\lambda) \in \mathbb{K}^{*}$. Note that $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ is regular if and only if $\operatorname{int}\left(f_{\lambda}, f_{y}\right)=i$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$. Suppose that $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ is not regular, and let $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{s}$ be the set of roots of $P_{0}(\lambda)$. We set $I(f)=\left\{\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{s}\right\}$, and we call $I(f)$ the set of irregular values of $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$. Set $A_{f}=\sum_{k=1}^{s}\left(i-\operatorname{int}\left(f-\lambda_{k}, f_{y}\right)\right)$. For all $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}-I(f)$, we have $\operatorname{int}\left(f_{\lambda}, f_{y}\right)=\mu+n-1+A_{f}$, where $\mu=\operatorname{int}\left(f_{x}, f_{y}\right)$ (see [5]).

Note that $A_{f}=\sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{K}}\left(i-\operatorname{int}\left(f_{\lambda}, f_{y}\right)\right)$, in particular $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ is regular if and only if $A_{f}=0$. On the other hand, given $a \in \mathbb{K}$, if $\operatorname{int}\left(f_{a}, f_{y}\right)=\mu+n-1$, then either $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ is regular or $I(f)=\{a\}$.

## 2 Curves with one place at infinity

In this section we recall some of the basic properties of curves with one place at infinity. Let $f=y^{n}+a_{1}(x) y^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{n}(x)$ be an irreducible monic polynomial of $\mathbb{K}[x][y]$, and assume, after possibly a change of variables, that $a_{1}(x)=0$ and that $\operatorname{dey}_{x} a_{k}(x)<k$ for all $k=1, \ldots, n$, in such a way that $f$ has only one point at infinity. Let $F(X, Y)=f\left(X^{-1}, y\right) \in \mathbb{K}\left[X^{-1}, y\right] \subseteq \mathbb{K}((X))[y]$, where $\mathbb{K}((X))$ denotes the field of meromorphic series over $\mathbb{K}$. Assume that $f$ has one place at infinity, i.e. the projective curve defined by the homogeneous equation $h_{f}(x, y, u)=f\left(\frac{x}{u}, \frac{y}{u}\right) u^{n}$ is analytically irreducible at the point at infinity $(1: 0: 0)$. In particular $F$ is an irreducible polynomial in $\mathbb{K}((X))[y]$. Let $t$ be an indeterminate. By Newton theorem, there is $y(t) \in \mathbb{K}((t))$ such that $F\left(t^{n}, y(t)\right)=0$ and

$$
F\left(t^{n}, y\right)=\prod_{w^{n}=1}(y-y(w t))
$$

Let $y(t)=\sum_{i} a_{i} t^{i}$. We set $\operatorname{supp}(y(t))=\left\{i, a_{i} \neq 0\right\}$. Clearly $\operatorname{supp}(y(t))=\operatorname{supp}(y(w t))$ for all $w$ such that $w^{n}=1$. We denote this set by $\operatorname{supp}(F)$ and we recall that $\operatorname{gcd}(n, \operatorname{supp}(F))=1$.
Given $f$ as above, we will associate with $F$ the sequences $\left(m_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0},\left(d_{k}\right)_{k \geq 1}$ and $\left(r_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$ defined by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& m_{0}=d_{1}=r_{0}=-n, m_{1}=r_{1}=\inf (\operatorname{supp}(F)) \text { and for all } k \geq 2, \\
& d_{k}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(m_{0}, \ldots, m_{k-1}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(d_{k-1}, m_{k-1}\right) \\
& m_{k}=\inf \left\{i \in \operatorname{supp}(F) ; i \text { is not divisible by } d_{k}\right\} \\
& r_{k}=r_{k-1} \frac{d_{k-1}}{d_{k}}+m_{k}-m_{k-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\operatorname{gcd}(n, \operatorname{supp}(F))=1$, there is $h \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d_{h+1}=1$. We denote by convention $m_{h+1}=r_{h+1}=+\infty$.

Let $g$ be a nonzero polynomial of $\mathbb{K}[x][y]$. We define the intersection multiplicity of $f$ with $g$, denoted $\operatorname{int}(f, g)$, to be the $x$-degree of the $y$-resultant of $f$ and $g$, and we recall that $\operatorname{int}(f, g)$ is the rank of the $\mathbb{K}$-vector space $\frac{\mathbb{K}[x][y]}{(f, g)}$. The set $\{\operatorname{int}(f, g) \mid 0 \neq g \in \mathbb{K}[x][y]\}$ is a semigroup of $\mathbb{N}$. We denote this set by $\Gamma_{\infty}(f)$ and we call it the semigroup associated with $f$. Let $G(X, y)=g\left(X^{-1}, y\right) \in \mathbb{K}\left[X^{-1}\right][y]$. We set $\operatorname{Int}(F, G)=-\operatorname{int}(f, g)$ and we call it the intersection multiplicity of $F$ with $G$. It is also the $X$-order of the $y$-resultant of $F$ and $G$. The set $\left\{\operatorname{Int}(F, G) \mid 0 \neq G \in \mathbb{K}\left[X^{-1}\right][y]\right\}$ is a semigroup of $-\mathbb{N}$. We denote this set by $\Gamma(F)$ and we call it the semigroup associated with $F$. Note that $\operatorname{Int}(F, G)=O_{t} G\left(t^{n}, y(t)\right)$-where $O_{t}$ denotes the $t$-order-, and that this order does not depend on the choice of the root $y(t)$ of $F\left(t^{n}, y\right)=0$.

Remark 2.1 (see [1]) With the notations above, for all $k=0, \ldots, h, r_{k}<0$. Furthermore, $\Gamma_{\infty}(f)=<-r_{0},-r_{1}, \ldots,-r_{h}>\left(\right.$ resp. $\Gamma(F)=<r_{0}, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{h}>$.

Let $d$ be a positive integer and assume that $d$ divides $n$. Let $g$ be a monic polynomial of $\mathbb{K}[x][y]$, of degree $\frac{n}{d}$ in $y$. There exist unique polynomials $\alpha_{1}(x, y), \ldots, \alpha_{d}(x, y) \in \mathbb{K}[x][y]$ such that:

$$
(*) \quad f=g^{d}+\alpha_{1}(x, y) g^{d-1}+\ldots+\alpha_{d}(x, y)
$$

and for all $1 \leq k \leq d$, if $\alpha_{k}(x, y) \neq 0$, then $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(\alpha_{k}(x, y)\right)<\frac{n}{d}$, where $\operatorname{deg}_{y}$ denotes the $y$-degree. We call $\left(^{*}\right)$ the $g$-adic expansion of $f$. There is a unique monic polynomial $g$ of dergree $\frac{n}{d}$ in $y$ such that in the $g$-adic expansion of $f, \alpha_{1}=0$. We call such a polynomial the $d$-th approximate root of $f$, and we denote it by $\operatorname{App}_{d}(f)$. If $F(X, y)=f\left(X^{-1}, y\right)$, then the $d$-th approximate root of $F$, defined in the same way as for $f$, is $\operatorname{App}_{d}(F)=\operatorname{App}_{d}(f)\left(X^{-1}, y\right)$

For all $1 \leq k \leq h$, let $g_{k}=\operatorname{App}_{d_{k}}(f)$ and let $G_{k}(X, y)=g_{k}\left(X^{-1}, y\right)=\operatorname{App}_{d_{k}}(F)$ (in particular $g_{1}=G_{1}=y$ and $\left.g_{h+1}=f, G_{h+1}=F\right)$, then we have:

Lemma 2.2 (See [1])For all $k=1, \ldots, h+1$, we have:
i) $\operatorname{Int}\left(F, G_{k}\right)=r_{k}$ and $\operatorname{int}\left(f, g_{k}\right)=-r_{k}$.
ii) $g_{k}$ is a polynomial with one place at infinity and $\left.\Gamma_{\infty}\left(g_{k}\right)=<-\frac{r_{0}}{d_{k}}, \ldots,-\frac{r_{k-1}}{d_{k}}\right\rangle$.

Let the notations be as in Section 1. The integer $\mu=\operatorname{int}\left(f_{x}, f_{y}\right)$ is the conductor of $\Gamma_{\infty}(f)$ in $\mathbb{N}$, i. e., for all $N \geq \mu, N \in \Gamma_{\infty}(f)$. Furthermore, if we set $e_{k}=\frac{d_{k}}{d_{k+1}}$ for all $1 \leq k \leq h$, then we have

$$
\mu=\sum_{k=1}^{h}\left(e_{k}-1\right) r_{k}-n+1
$$

and it follows from Dedekind formula (see also [8]) that

$$
\operatorname{int}\left(f, f_{y}\right)=\mu+n-1=\sum_{k=1}^{h}\left(e_{k}-1\right) r_{k}
$$

Lemma 2.3 Let $g_{k}, k=1, \ldots, h+1$, be the set of approximate roots of $f$. For all $k=2, \ldots, h$, we have

$$
\operatorname{int}\left(f_{x}, f_{y}\right)=d_{k} \operatorname{int}\left(g_{k_{x}}, g_{k_{y}}\right)+\sum_{i=k}^{h}\left(e_{i}-1\right) r_{i}-d_{k}+1
$$

Proof. Since $g_{k}$ is a polynomial with one place at infinity, it follows that

$$
\operatorname{int}\left(g_{k}, g_{k_{y}}\right)=\operatorname{int}\left(g_{k_{x}}, g_{k_{y}}\right)+\frac{n}{d_{k}}-1
$$

on the other hand,

$$
\operatorname{int}\left(f, f_{y}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(e_{k}-1\right) r_{k}=d_{k} \operatorname{int}\left(g_{k}, g_{k_{y}}\right)+\sum_{i=k}^{h}\left(e_{i}-1\right) r_{i} .
$$

This proves our assertion
Write

$$
g_{2}=\operatorname{App}_{d_{2}}(f)=y^{\frac{n}{d_{2}}}+a x^{\frac{m}{d_{2}}}+\sum_{\frac{n}{d_{2}} i+\frac{m}{d_{2}} j<\frac{n}{d_{2}} \frac{m}{d_{2}}} a_{i j} x^{i} y^{j}
$$

where $a \neq 0$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{n}{d_{2}}, \frac{m}{d_{2}}\right)=1$, then $\operatorname{int}\left(g_{2_{x}}, g_{2_{y}}\right)=\left(\frac{n}{d_{2}}-1\right)\left(\frac{m}{d_{2}}-1\right)$. In particular, $\operatorname{int}\left(g_{2_{x}}, g_{2_{y}}\right)>0$ if and only if $\operatorname{gcd}(n, m)=d_{2}<\min (n, m)$, and by the Lemma above, if $\operatorname{int}\left(g_{2_{x}}, g_{2_{y}}\right)>0$, then so is for $\mu$. In particular we get the following:

Lemma 2.4 Let the notations be as above. If $\mu=0$, then so is for $\operatorname{int}\left(g_{k_{x}}, g_{k_{y}}\right)$ for all $1 \leq k \leq h$, and either $m$ divides $n$ or $n$ divides $m$. In particular, if $\operatorname{gcd}(n, m)=d_{2}<\min (n, m)$, then $\mu>0$.

## Proof. Obvious

Remark 2.5 Let the notations be as above, and let $B=\left\{\underline{\theta}=\left(\theta_{1}, \ldots, \theta_{h}, \theta_{h+1}\right) \mid 0 \leq \theta_{i}<e_{i}\right.$ for all $i=1, \ldots, h\}, B^{\prime}=\left\{\underline{\theta} \in B \mid \theta_{h+1}=0\right\}$. Let $g \in \mathbb{K}[x][y]$. The polynomial $g$ can be uniquely written as

$$
g=\sum_{\underline{\theta} \in B} c_{\underline{\theta}}(x) g_{1}^{\theta_{1}} \ldots g_{h}^{\theta_{h}} f^{\theta_{h+1}} .
$$

Suppose that $g$ does not divide $f$, in particular $B^{\prime} \neq \emptyset$. By [1], There is a unique $\underline{\theta_{0}} \in B^{\prime}$ such that $\operatorname{deg}_{x} c_{\theta_{0}}(x)\left(-r_{0}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{h} \theta_{0 i}\left(-r_{i}\right)=\max \left\{\operatorname{deg}_{x} c_{\underline{\theta}}(x)\left(-r_{0}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{h} \theta_{i}\left(-r_{i}\right)\right\}$. With these notations, $\operatorname{int}(\overline{f, g})=\operatorname{deg}_{x} c_{\underline{\theta_{0}}}(x)\left(-r_{0}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{h} \theta_{0 i}\left(-r_{i}\right)$

## 3 Abhyankar-Moh Lemma

Let $f=y^{n}+a_{1}(x) y^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{n}(x)$ be a nonzero reduced polynomial of $\mathbf{K}[x, y]$ and assume, after possibly a change of variables, that $a_{1}(x)=0$ and also that $i>\operatorname{deg}_{x}\left(a_{i}(x)\right.$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n$, in such a way that $y=0$ is the only point at infinity of $f$. Let the notations be as in Section 1. If $\delta_{p}$ (resp. $\delta_{\infty}$ ) denotes the order of the conductor of $f$ at $p$ (resp. at the point at infinity), then $2 \delta_{p}=\mu_{p}+r_{p}-1$ (resp. $2 \delta_{\infty}=\mu_{\infty}+r_{\infty}-1$ ) (see [6]). If $\mu=\operatorname{int}\left(f_{x}, f_{y}\right)$, then we set $\mu(f)=\sum_{p \in V(f)} \mu_{p}$ and $\bar{\mu}(f)=\mu-\mu(f)$.
Assume that $f$ is an irreducible polynomial, and let $g(f)$ be the genus of the normalized curve of $V(f)$. By the genus formula we have:

$$
2 g(f)+\left(\sum_{p \in V(f)} 2 \delta_{p}\right)+2 \delta_{\infty}=(n-1)(n-2) .
$$

Now $\operatorname{int}\left(f, f_{y}\right)=\mu+n-1+A(f)$, where $A(f)$ is a nonnegative integer and $A(f)=0$ if and only if $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \mathbb{K}}$ has at most one irregular value at infinity (see Section 1). On the other hand, the local intersection multiplicity of $f$ with $f_{y}$ at the point at infinity is $\mu_{\infty}+n-1$. In particular $\mu+\mu_{\infty}=(n-1)(n-2)$, and consequently:

$$
2 g(f)+\left(\sum_{p \in V(f)} 2 \delta_{p}\right)+2 \delta_{\infty}=\mu(f)+\bar{\mu}(f)+\mu_{\infty}+A(f)
$$

We finally get:

$$
(* *) \quad 2 g(f)+\sum_{p \in V(f)}\left(r_{p}-1\right)+r_{\infty}-1=\bar{\mu}(f)+A(f)
$$

In particular $g(f)=\sum_{p \in V(f)}\left(r_{p}-1\right)+r_{\infty}-1=0$ if and only if $A(f)=\bar{\mu}(f)=0$. Roughly speaking, $f$ is a rational unibranch curve (at infinity as well as at finite distance) if and only if the pencil $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \mathbb{K}}$ has at most one irregular value at infinity, and for all $\lambda \neq 0, f_{\lambda}$ is a smooth curve. This with Lemma 2.4. implies the following:

Proposition 3.1 (Abhyankar-Moh Lemma) Let $x(t), y(t)$ be two monic polynomials of $\mathbb{K}[t]$ and let $n=\operatorname{deg}_{t}(x(t)), m=\operatorname{deg}_{t}(y(t))$. Assume that $m<n$. If $\mathbb{K}[x(t), y(t)]=\mathbb{K}[t]$, then $m$ divides $n$.

Proof. Let $f \in \mathbb{K}[x][y]$ be the generator of the Kernel of the map $\mathbb{K}[x][y] \longmapsto \mathbb{K}[t]$ which sends $x, y$ to $x(t), y(t)$ respectively. The polynomial $f$ is a rational polynomial with one place at infinity, and $\mu(f)=0$, hence $\mu=\bar{\mu}(f)$. It follows from $\left({ }^{* *}\right)$ that $\mu=\bar{\mu}(f)=A(f)=0$, in particular, by Lemma 2.4., $d_{2}=\operatorname{gcd}(n, m)=m$ ■

## 4 Rational one place curves

Let $f$ be a rational polynomial with one place at infinity, and let the notations be as in Section 1. It follows from the equality $\left({ }^{* *}\right)$ of Section 3 that $\sum_{p \in V(f)}\left(r_{p}-1\right)=\bar{\mu}(f)$. We shall prove the following:

Theorem 4.1 Let the notations be as above and let $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ be a pencil of polynomials defined by $f$. If $f$ is rational, then exactly one of the following hold:
i) For all $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}, f_{\lambda}$ is rational, and $\sigma(f)$ is a coordinate of $\mathbb{K}^{2}$ for some automorphism $\sigma$ of $\mathbb{K}^{2}$.
ii) The polynomial $f-\lambda$ is rational for at most one $\lambda_{1} \neq 0$, i.e. the pencil $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ has at most two rational elements.
iii) Assume that the pencil $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ has two rational elements $f$ and $f_{\lambda_{1}}$. We have $\mu(f)=$ $\mu\left(f_{\lambda_{1}}\right)=\frac{\mu}{2}$, furthermore, given a singular point $p$ of $V(f)$ (resp. $\left.V\left(f_{\lambda_{1}}\right)\right), f$ (resp. $f_{\lambda_{1}}$ ) has two places at $p$ and $\mu_{p}(f)=1$ (resp. $\mu_{p}\left(f_{\lambda_{1}}\right)=1$ ). In particular, $f$ (resp. $f_{\lambda_{1}}$ ) has excalty $\frac{\mu}{2}$ singular points.

We shall first prove the following Lemma:
Lemma 4.2 Let $H=y^{N}+a_{1}(x) y^{N-1}+\ldots+a_{N}(x)$ be a non zero reduced polynomial of $\mathbb{K}[[x]][y]$, and let $H=H_{1} \ldots H_{r}$ be the decomposition of $H$ into irreducible components of $\mathbb{K}[[x]][y]$. Let $\mu_{(0,0)}$ denotes the Milnor number of $H$ at $(0,0)$ (i.e. $\mu_{(0,0)}$ is the rank of the $\mathbb{K}$-vector space $\frac{\mathbb{K}[[x]][y]}{\left(H_{x}, H_{y}\right)}$ ). We have the following:
i) $\mu_{(0,0)} \geq r-1$.
ii) If $r \geq 3$, then $\mu_{(0,0)}>r-1$.
iii) If $r=2$ and $\mu_{(0,0)}=r-1=1$, then $\left(H_{1}, H_{2}\right)$ is a local system of coordinates at $(0,0)$.

Proof. We have $\operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H, H_{y}\right)=\mu_{(0,0)}+N-1$, but

$$
\operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H, H_{y}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{int}\left(H_{i}, H_{i_{y}}\right)+2 \sum_{i \neq j} \operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H_{i}, H_{j}\right)
$$

$$
=\sum_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{int}\left[\left(H_{i_{x}}, H_{i_{y}}\right)+\operatorname{deg}_{y} H_{i}-1\right]+2 \sum_{i \neq j} \operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H_{i}, H_{j}\right)
$$

hence

$$
\mu_{(0,0)}+N-1=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{int}\left(H_{i_{x}}, H_{i_{y}}\right)\right)+N-r+2 \sum_{i \neq j} \operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H_{i}, H_{j}\right)
$$

Finally we have $\mu_{(0,0)}=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{int}\left(H_{i_{x}}, H_{i_{y}}\right)\right)-r+1+2 \sum_{i \neq j} \operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H_{i}, H_{j}\right)$. Now for all $1 \leq i \leq r, \operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H_{i_{x}}, H_{i_{y}}\right) \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i \neq j} \operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H_{i}, H_{j}\right) \geq C_{2}^{r}=\frac{r(r-1)}{2}$, hence $\mu_{(0,0)} \geq$ $r(r-1)-(r-1)=(r-1)^{2}$ and i), ii) follow immediately. Assume that $r=2$. If $\mu_{(0,0)}=r-1$, then $\operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H_{1_{x}}, H_{1_{y}}\right)=\operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H_{2_{x}}, H_{2_{y}}\right)=0$ and $\operatorname{int}_{(0,0)}\left(H_{1}, H_{2}\right)=1$. This implies iii)

Proof of Theorem 4.1.. If $\mu(f)=0$, then $\mu=0$, and by Proposition 3.1., either $m$ divides $n$ or $n$ divides $m$. Furthermore, $\sigma(f)$ is a coordinate of $\mathbb{K}^{2}$ for some automorphism $\sigma$ of $\mathbb{K}^{2}$. Assume that $\mu(f)>0$ and let $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{s}$ be the set of singular points of $V(f)$. Let $r_{i}$ denotes the number of places of $f$ at $p_{i}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq s$. By Lemma 4.2., for all $1 \leq i \leq s, \mu_{p_{i}} \geq r_{i}-1$, on the other hand, equality $\left({ }^{* *}\right)$ of Section 3 implies that $\sum_{i=1}^{s}\left(\mu_{p_{i}}+r_{i}-1\right)=\mu$, in particular $\mu \leq \sum_{i=1}^{s} 2 \mu_{p_{i}}=2 \mu(f)$, hence $\mu(f) \geq \frac{\mu}{2}$. If $f_{\lambda_{1}}$ is rational for some $\lambda_{1} \neq 0$, then the same argument as above implies that $\mu\left(f_{\lambda_{1}}\right) \geq \frac{\mu}{2}$. This is possible only for at most one $\lambda_{1} \neq 0$, hence ii) follows immediately.

Assume that $f_{\lambda_{1}}$ is rational for some $\lambda_{1} \neq 0$. Clearly this holds only if $\mu(f)=\mu\left(f_{\lambda_{1}}\right)=\frac{\mu}{2}$. We shall prove iii) for $f$. Let the notations be above. For all $1 \leq i \leq s$, we have $\mu_{p_{i}}=r_{i}-1$, hence, by lemma 4.2., $r_{i}=2, \operatorname{int}_{p_{i}}\left(H_{1_{x}}, H_{1_{y}}\right)=\operatorname{int}_{p_{i}}\left(H_{2_{x}}, H_{2_{y}}\right)=0$ and $\operatorname{int}_{p_{i}}\left(H_{1}, H_{2}\right)=1$. This implies iii)
As a corollary we get the following:
Corollary 4.3 Let $f$ be as above and let $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ be a pencil of polynomials defined by $f$. Assume that $f$ is a rational polynomial, and that $\mu(f)>0$. Let $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{s}$ be the set of singular points of $f$.
i) If $r_{p_{i}}=1$ (resp. $r_{p_{i}} \geq 3$ ) for some $1 \ldots i \ldots s$, then $f$ is the only rational point of the pencil $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$.
ii) If $r_{p_{i}}=2$ for all $1 \leq i \leq s$ but $s \neq \frac{\mu}{2}$, , then $f$ is the only rational point of the pencil $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$.

Proof. This is an immediate application of Theorem 4.1.

Proposition 4.4 Let $f \neq g$ be two polynomials of $\mathbb{K}[x][y]$ and assume that $f, g$ are parametrized by polynomials of $\mathbb{K}[t]$. Under these hypotheses, exactly one of the following conditions hold:
i) $f=g+\lambda_{1}$ for some $\lambda_{1} \in \mathbb{K}^{*}$, and $f$ is equivalent to a coordinate, i.e. $\sigma(f)$ is a coordinate of $\mathbb{K}^{2}$ for some automorphism $\sigma$ of $\mathbb{K}^{2}$.
ii) $f=g+\lambda_{1}$ for some $\lambda_{1} \in \mathbb{K}^{*}, \mu(f)=\mu\left(f_{\lambda_{1}}\right)=\frac{\operatorname{int}\left(f_{x}, f_{y}\right)}{2}>0$, and $f, g$ satisfy the condition iii) of Theorem 4.1.
iii) $\operatorname{int}(f, g)>0$, i.e. $f, g$ meet in a least one point of $\mathbb{K}^{2}$.

Proof. The polynomial $f$ (resp. $g$ ) has one place at infinity. Assume that $\operatorname{deg}_{y} g \geq \operatorname{deg}_{y} f$ and let the notations be as in Section 2. Let $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{h}, f$ be the set of approximate roots of $f$ and write, with the notations of Remark 2.5., $g=\sum_{\underline{\theta} \in B} c_{\underline{\theta}}(x) g_{1}^{\theta_{1}} \ldots g_{h}^{\theta_{h}} f^{\theta_{h+1}}$. Since $g$ has one place at infinity, then $f$ does not divide $g$, in particular there is a unique $\underline{\theta_{0}}$ such that $c_{\theta_{0}} \neq 0, \theta_{0 h+1}=$ 0 , and $\operatorname{int}(f, g)=-r_{0} \operatorname{deg}_{x} c_{\theta_{0}}(x)+\sum_{k=1}^{h} \theta_{0 i}\left(-r_{i}\right)=\max \left\{-r_{0} \operatorname{deg}_{x} c_{\underline{\theta}}(x)+\sum_{k=1}^{h} \theta_{i}\left(-r_{i}\right) \mid \underline{\theta} \in B^{\prime}\right\}$. Clearly $\operatorname{int}(f, g) \geq 0$. If $\operatorname{int}(f, g)=0$, then $c_{\theta_{0}}(x) \in \mathbb{K}^{*}$ and $\theta_{01}=\ldots=\theta_{0 h}=0$, in particular, since $f$ does not divide $g, g=f+c, c \in \mathbb{K}^{*}$. Now apply Theorem 4.1.

Remark 4.5 Let $(x(t), y(t))=\left(t^{3}-3 t, t^{2}-2\right)$ and $(X(s), Y(s))=\left(s^{3}+3 s, s^{2}+2\right)$, and let $f(x, y)=\operatorname{res}_{t}(x-x(t), y-y(t))$ (resp. $\left.g(x, y)=\operatorname{res}_{s}(x-X(s), y-Y(s))\right)$. We have $(x(t)-X(s), y(t)-Y(s))=\mathbb{K}[t, s]$, hence $\operatorname{int}(f, g)=0$. In fact,

$$
f(x, y)=y^{3}-x^{2}-3 y+2=-x^{2}+(y+2)(y-1)^{2}
$$

and

$$
g(x, y)=y^{3}-x^{2}-3 y-2=-x^{2}+(y-2)(y+1)^{2}
$$

hence $f=g+4$. The genus of a generic element of the family $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ is 1 , and $f, f-4$ are the two rational elements of this family. Note that $\mu=2$ and $\mu(f)=\mu(f-4)=1$. This example shows that the bound of Theorem 4.1. is sharp.

Remark 4.6 Let $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ be a pencil of algebraic plane curves and assume that $f-\lambda$ is irreducible for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$. If the generic element of the pencil is rational, then for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}, f-\lambda$ is rational and irreducible. In this case, by $[7], f$ has one place at infinity and $\sigma(f)$ is a coordinate of $\mathbb{K}^{2}$ for some automorphism $\sigma$ of $\mathbb{K}$. Assume that the genus of the generic element of the pencil $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$ is greater or equal than one. Similarly to the case of curves with one place at infinity, it is natural to address the following question:
Question: Is there an integer $c \in \mathbb{N}$ such that, given a pencil of irreducible polynomials $\left(f_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda}$, if $\mu+A_{f}>0$, then the number of rational elements in the pencil is bounded by $c$ ?

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