# Max-Planck-Institut für Mathematik Bonn 

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#### Abstract

The Newton polytope related to a "minimal" counterexample to the Jacobian conjecture is introduced and described. This description allows to obtain a sharper estimate for the geometric degree of the polynomial mapping given by a Jacobian pair and to give a new proof of the Abhyankar's two characteristic pair case.


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## Introduction.

Let us assume that $f, g \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ (where $\mathbb{C}$ is the field of complex numbers) satisfy $\mathrm{J}(f, g)=1$ and is a counterexample to the JC (Jacobian conjecture, see $[\mathrm{K}])$. It is known for many years that then there exists an automorphism $\xi$ of $\mathbb{C}[x, y]$ such that the Newton polygon $\mathcal{N}(\xi(f))$ of $\xi(f)$ contains a vertex $v=(m, n)$ where $n>m>0$ and is included in a trapezoid with the vertex $v$,
edges parallel to the $y$ axis and to the bisectrix of the first quadrant adjacent to $v$, and two edges belonging to the coordinate axes (see [A1], [A2], [AO], [H], [J], [L], [MW],[M], [Na1], [Na2], [NN1], [NN2], [Ok]). This was improved quite recently by Pierrette Cassou-Noguès who showed that $\mathcal{N}(f)$ does not have an edge parallel to the bisectrix (see [CN] and [ML2]).

So below we assume that $\mathcal{N}(f)$ is included in such a trapezoid with the leading vertex $(m, n)$. We may also assume that $\mathcal{N}(f)$ and $\mathcal{N}(g)$ contain the origin as a vertex and are similar (easy consequence of the relation $\mathrm{J}(f, g)=$ 1), that the coefficients with the leading vertices of $f$ and $g$ are equal to 1 (this can be achieved by an appropriate re-scaling of $x, y$ and $f, g$ ), that $\operatorname{deg}_{y}(g)>\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f)$, and that $\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f)$ does not divide $\operatorname{deg}_{y}(g)$ (otherwise we can replace the pair $f, g$ by a "smaller" pair $\left.f, g-c f^{k}\right)$.

These are the restrictions on $\mathcal{N}(f)$ known at present and it is not clear how to further tighten them by working with $\mathcal{N}(f)$ only. To proceed with this line of research I'll consider an irreducible algebraic dependence of $x, f, g$ and obtain information about the Newton polytope of this dependence.

## Algebraic dependence of $x, f$, and $g$.

We can look at $f, g$ as polynomials in one variable $y$ over $\mathbb{C}(x)$. It is wellknown that two polynomials in one variable over a field $K$ are algebraically dependent over $K$ (see [W]). Therefore $f$ and $g$ are algebraically dependent over $\mathbb{C}(x)$.

We may choose a dependence $P(F, G)=P(x, F, G) \in \mathbb{C}(x)[F, G]$ (i.e. $P(x, f, g)=0)$ such that $\operatorname{deg}_{G}(P)$ is minimal possible and hence $P$ is irre-
ducible as an element of $\mathbb{C}(x)[F, G]$, with coefficients in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ (since we can multiply a dependence by the least common denominator of the coefficients), and assume that these polynomial coefficients do not have a common divisor.

## Connection between $G$ and $y$.

$G$ is an algebraic function of $x$ and $F$ given by $P(x, F, G)=0$ and $y$ is an algebraic function of $x$ and $F$ given by $F-f(x, y)=0$.

Lemma on $y . y \in \mathbb{C}(x, f, g)$ and $y \in \mathbb{C}(f(c, y), g(c, y))$ for any $c \in \mathbb{C}$.
Proof. By the Lüroth Theorem $\mathbb{C}(f(c, y), g(c, y))=\mathbb{C}(r(y))$ where $r$ is a rational function (see [W]). We can replace $r$ by its linear fractional transformation and assume that $r=\frac{p_{1}(y)}{p_{2}(y)}$ where $p_{1}, p_{2} \in \mathbb{C}[y]$ and $\operatorname{deg}\left(p_{1}\right)>\operatorname{deg}\left(p_{2}\right)$. Without loss of generality $p_{1}, p_{2}$ are relatively prime polynomials. Now, $f(c, y)=\frac{F_{1}(r)}{F_{2}(r)}$ for some polynomials $F_{1}, F_{2}$ where $d_{1}=\operatorname{deg}\left(F_{1}\right)>d_{2}=$ $\operatorname{deg}\left(F_{2}\right)$ and $f(c, y)=\frac{F_{1,0} p_{1}^{d_{1}}+\ldots+F_{1, d_{1}} p_{1}^{d_{1}}}{\left(F_{2,0} p_{1}^{d_{1}}+\ldots+F_{2, d_{2}} d_{2}\right) p_{2}^{d_{2}-d_{2}}}$. Hence $p_{2}=1$ and $r$ is a polynomial. Since $1=\left.J(f, g)\right|_{x=c} \in r^{\prime}(y) \mathbb{C}[y]$ we should have $r^{\prime}(y) \in \mathbb{C}$. Therefore $y \in \mathbb{C}(f(c, y), g(c, y))$ and $y \in \mathbb{C}(x, f, g)$.

Remark. It is easy to prove that $y \in \mathbb{C}(x, f, g)$ using the Jacobian condition only $\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}=\frac{P_{g}}{P_{x}}, \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}=\frac{-P_{f}}{P_{x}}\right.$ since $P(x, f, g)=0$, hence $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}$ acts on $\mathbb{C}(x, f, g))$ but this does not imply that $y \in \mathbb{C}(f(c, y), g(c, y))$ for all $c \in \mathbb{C})$.

There is a one to one correspondence between the roots $y_{i}$ of $f(x, y)-F$ and $G_{i}$ of $P(x, F, G)$ in any extension of $\mathbb{C}(x, F)$ which contain these roots. Indeed, $G_{i}=g\left(x, y_{i}\right)$ and $y_{i}=R\left(G_{i}\right)$ where $y=R(G) \in \mathbb{C}(x, F)[G]$.

## Newton polyhedron of a polynomial.

Let $p \in \mathbb{C}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ be a polynomial in $n$ variables. Represent each monomial of $p$ by a lattice point in $n$-dimensional space with coordinate vector equal to the degree vector of this monomial. The convex hull $\mathcal{N}(p)$ of the points so obtained is called the Newton polyhedron of $p$. We will be using this notion in two-dimensional and three-dimensional cases as Newton polygons and the Newton polytopes accordingly.

## Weight degree function.

Define a weight degree function on $\mathbb{C}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ as follows. First, take weights $w\left(x_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i}$, where $\alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$ and put $w\left(x_{1}^{j_{1}} \ldots x_{n}^{j_{n}}\right)=\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} j_{i}$. For a $p \in \mathbb{C}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ define support $\operatorname{supp}(p)$ as the collection of all monomials appearing in $p$ with non-zero coefficients. Then $\operatorname{deg}_{w}(p)=\max (w(\mu) \mid \mu \in$ $\operatorname{supp}(p))$. Polynomial $p$ can be written as $p=\sum p_{i}$ where $p_{i}$ are forms homogeneous relative to $\operatorname{deg}_{w}$. The leading form $p_{w}$ of $p$ according to $\operatorname{deg}_{w}$ is the form of the maximal weight of this presentation.

For a non-zero weight degree function monomials appearing in the support of the leading form of $p$ correspond to the points of a face $\Phi$ of $\mathcal{N}(p)$ and if the codimension of $\Phi$ is $n-i$ there is a cone of dimension $i$ of the weight degree functions corresponding to $\Phi$. The leading forms corresponding to these weights are the same and we will use $p(\Phi)$ to denote them.

The correspondence between faces and weight degree functions is one
to one for the faces of the codimension 1 if we require that the numbers $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}$ are coprime integers. We will some times refer to this weight degree function as the function corresponding to the face.

Roots $y_{i}$ of $F=f(x, y)$.

Newton introduced the polygon which we call the Newton polygon in order to find a solution $y$ of $p(x, y)=0$ in terms of $x$ (see $[\mathrm{N}]$ ). Here is the process of obtaining such a solution. Consider an edge $e$ of $\mathcal{N}(p)$ which is not parallel to the $x$ axes and take the weight which corresponds to $e$. Then the leading form $p(e)$ allows to determine the first summand of the solution as follows. Consider an equation $p(e)=0$. Since $p(e)$ is a homogeneous form and $\alpha=w(x) \neq 0$ solutions of this equation are $y=c_{i} x^{\frac{\beta}{\alpha}}$ where $\beta=w(y)$ and $c_{i} \in \mathbb{C}$. Choose any solution $c_{i} x^{\frac{\beta}{\alpha}}$ and replace $p(x, y)$ by $p_{1}(x, y)=p\left(x, c_{i} x^{\frac{\beta}{\alpha}}+y\right)$. Though $p_{1}$ is not necessarily a polynomial in $x$ we can define the Newton polygon of $p_{1}$ in the same way as it was done for the polynomials; the only difference is that $\operatorname{supp}\left(p_{1}\right)$ may contain monomials $x^{\mu} y^{\nu}$ where $\mu \in \mathbb{Q}$ rather than in $\mathbb{Z}$. Further on we will be using this kind of Newton polygons and Newton polytopes. The polygon $\mathcal{N}\left(p_{1}\right)$ contains the degree vertex $v$ of $e$, i.e. the vertex with $y$ coordinate equal to $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(p_{w}\right)$ and an edge $e^{\prime}$ which is a modification of $e\left(e^{\prime}\right.$ may collapse to $v$ ). Take the other vertex $v_{1}$ of $e^{\prime}$ (if $e^{\prime}=v$ take $v_{1}=v$ ). Use the edge $e_{1}$ for which $v_{1}$ is the degree vertex to determine the next summand and so on. After possibly a countable number of steps we obtain a vertex $v_{\mu}$ and the edge $e_{\mu}$ for which $v_{\mu}$ is not the degree vertex, i.e. either $e_{\mu}$ is horizontal or the degree vertex of
$e_{\mu}$ has a larger $y$ coordinate than the $y$ coordinate of $v_{\mu}$. It is possible only if $\mathcal{N}\left(p_{\mu}\right)$ does not have any vertices on the $x$ axis. Therefore $p_{\mu}(x, 0)=0$ and a solution is obtained.

When characteristic is zero the process of constructing a solution is more straightforward then it may seem from this description. The denominators of fractional powers of $x$ (if denominators and numerators of these rational numbers are assumed to be relatively prime) do not exceed $\operatorname{deg}_{y}(p)$. Indeed, for any initial weight there are at $\operatorname{most}^{\operatorname{deg}_{y}}(p)$ solutions while a summand $c x^{\frac{M}{N}}$ can be replaced by $c \varepsilon^{M} x^{\frac{M}{N}}$ where $\varepsilon^{N}=1$ which gives at least $N$ different solutions.

If $\operatorname{deg}_{y}(p)=n$ and we want to obtain all $n$ solutions we should choose the first edge $e$ appropriately. Consider $p_{w}$ where $w(x)=0, w(y)=1$. This leading form correspond to a horizontal edge with the "left" and "right" vertices $v_{l}$ and $v_{r}$ or a vertex $v$ in case $v_{l}=v_{r}$. If we choose $e$ with the degree vertex $v_{r}$ we will obtain $n$ solutions with decreasing powers of $x$ and if we choose $e$ with the degree vertex $v_{l}$ we will obtain $n$ solutions with increasing powers of $x$. When $v_{l}=v_{r}=v$ choose the "right" edge containing $v$ to obtain $n$ solutions with decreasing powers of $x$ and the "left" edge containing $v$ to obtain $n$ solutions with increasing powers of $x$.

We can apply Newton approach to finding solutions for $F-f(x, y)=0$ in an appropriate extension of $\mathbb{C}(x, F)$. To do this we have to take the weights $w(x), w(F), w(y)$ so that the corresponding face (possibly an edge) of $\mathcal{N}(F-f(x, y))$ contains the leading vertex $(m, n)$ of $\mathcal{N}(f(x, y))$ and proceed as above. Of course the process would be much harder to visualize but it can be made two-dimensional if the weights $\alpha=w(x), \rho=w(F)$ are
commensurable. Say, if $w(x)=0$ replace $\mathbb{C}$ by an algebraic closure $K$ of $\mathbb{C}(x)$ and make computations over $K$. If $w(x) \neq 0$ take for $K$ an algebraic closure of $\mathbb{C}(z)$ where $z=x^{\frac{-\rho}{\alpha}} F$, introduce $t$ so that $x=t^{d_{1}}$ and $z=t^{d_{2}} F$ where $d_{1}, d_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\frac{\alpha}{\rho}=-\frac{d_{1}}{d_{2}}$, and consider $F-f(x, y)=z t^{-d_{2}}-f\left(t^{d_{1}}, y\right)$ as a polynomial in $y, t, t^{-1}$ over $K$.

## Newton polytope $\mathcal{N}(P)$.

In this section we will find some restrictions on $\mathcal{N}(P)$.
Observe that $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(g^{\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f)}-f^{\operatorname{deg}_{y}(g)}\right)<\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f) \operatorname{deg}_{y}(g)$ because of the shape of $\mathcal{N}(f)$ and $\mathcal{N}(g)$. It is known that then the leading form of $P(x, F, G)$ relative to the weight $w(x)=0, w(F)=\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f), w(G)=\operatorname{deg}_{y}(g)$ is $p_{0}(x)\left(G^{a_{0}}-F^{b_{0}}\right)^{n_{0}}$ where $\frac{a_{0}}{b_{0}}=\frac{\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f)}{\operatorname{deg}_{y}(g)},\left(a_{0}, b_{0}\right)=1$ and $b_{0} n_{0}=\operatorname{deg}_{F}(P), a_{0} n_{0}=$ $\operatorname{deg}_{G}(P)$ (see [ML1]).

It follows from Lemma on $y$ that $\operatorname{deg}_{G}(P)=[\mathbb{C}(x, f, g): \mathbb{C}(x, f)]=$ $[\mathbb{C}(x, y): \mathbb{C}(x, f)]=\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f)$ and that $\operatorname{deg}_{G}\left(P_{\lambda}\right)=\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f(\lambda, y))$ where $P_{\lambda}$ is an irreducible dependence between $f(\lambda, y)$ and $g(\lambda, y)$ for $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ (recall that $y \in C(x, f, g)$ and $y \in \mathbb{C}(f(\lambda, y), g(\lambda, y))$.

Furthermore, $\operatorname{deg}_{G}(P)=\operatorname{deg}_{G}\left(P_{\lambda}\right)$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^{*}$ since $\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f(\lambda, y))=$ $\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f)$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^{*}$. Hence $P_{\lambda}(F, G)$ is proportional to $P(\lambda, F, G)$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^{*}$ and $p_{0}(\lambda)=0$ is possible only if $\lambda=0$. Therefore $p_{0}(x)=c_{0} x^{d}$ and $\left(c_{0} x^{d}\right)^{-1} P$ is a polynomial monic in $G$ (with coefficients in $\mathbb{C}\left[x, x^{-1}\right]$ ). From now on $P$ is this monic polynomial.

Denote by $\mathcal{E}$ the edge of $\mathcal{N}(P)$ which corresponds to the leading form $\left(G^{a_{0}}-F^{b_{0}}\right)^{n_{0}}$ of $P$. This edge belongs to two faces $\Phi_{a}$ and $\Phi_{b}$ of $\mathcal{N}(P)$ (say,
$\Phi_{a}$ is above $\left.\Phi_{b}\right)$. The face $\Phi_{b}$ can be below the plane $F O G$ since $P(x, F, G)$ is a Laurent polynomial in $x$. The $x$ axis cannot be parallel to any of these faces since the leading form of $P$ relative to the weight $w(x)=0, w(F)=$ $\operatorname{deg}_{y}(f), w(G)=\operatorname{deg}_{y}(g)$ is $\left(G^{a_{0}}-F^{b_{0}}\right)^{n_{0}}$.

We can use $\mathcal{N}(P)$ to find a presentation of $G$ as a fractional power series in $x, F$ using approach discussed in Roots $y_{i}$ of $F=f(x, y)$.

## The face $\Phi_{b}$.

Assume that the face $\Phi_{b}$ (the lower face containing $\mathcal{E}$ ) is below the plane $F O G$. Since the $x$ axis is not parallel to the face $\Phi_{b}$ we can choose the corresponding weight by taking $w(x)=1, w(F)=\rho<0, w(G)=\sigma<0$. Of course, $\rho, \sigma \in \mathbb{Q}$. Expansions of $G$ as well as the corresponding expansions of $y$ relative to this weight are by components with the increasing weight.

Consider the leading form $P\left(\Phi_{b}\right)$ and its factorization into irreducible factors. If all these factors depend only on two variables then $P\left(\Phi_{b}\right)=$ $\phi_{1}(x, F) \phi_{2}(x, G) \phi_{3}(F, G)$ and $\Phi_{b}$ is either an interval, or a parallelogram, or a hexagon with parallel opposite sides. Since $\Phi_{b}$ is neither ( $\Phi_{b}$ is not $\mathcal{E}$ and it cannot contain an edge parallel to $\mathcal{E}), P\left(\Phi_{b}\right)$ has an irreducible factor $Q(x, F, G)$ which depends on $x, F$, and $G$. Denote by $\bar{G}$ a root of $Q(x, F, G)=0$ and by $\widetilde{G}$ a root of $P(x, F, G)=0$ for which $\bar{G}$ is the leading form and take the corresponding $\widetilde{y}=R(x, F)[\widetilde{G}]$. Then $f(x, \widetilde{y})=F$ and $g(x, \widetilde{y})=\widetilde{G}$.

We can write $\widetilde{y}=\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} y_{j}$ where $y_{j}$ are the homogeneous components of $\widetilde{y}$. Since $f(x, \widetilde{y})=F$ there exists a $k$ for which $y_{j}=c_{j} x^{\mu_{j}}, c_{j} \in \mathbb{C}, \mu_{j} \in \mathbb{Q}$ if
$j \leq k$ and $y_{k+1} \notin \overline{\mathbb{C}(x)}$.
We also can get $\widetilde{y}$ from the Newton polytope of $F-f(x, y)$. The terms $y_{j}$ for $j \leq k$ are obtained by a resolution process applied to $\mathcal{N}(f)$ and the term $y_{k+1}$ is defined by a face $\Psi$ of this polytope which contains $(0,0,1)$, i.e. the vertex corresponding to $F$ (otherwise $y_{k+1} \in \overline{\mathbb{C}(x)}$ ). The face $\Psi$ corresponds to the weight $w(x)=1, w(F)=\rho, w(y)=\alpha=w\left(y_{k+1}\right)$ and $\Psi$ contains an edge $e \in x O y$ of $\mathcal{N}\left(f\left(x, \sum_{j=0}^{k} y_{j}+y\right)\right)$.

Denote $f_{k}=f\left(x, \sum_{j=0}^{k} y_{j}+y\right), g_{k}=g\left(x, \sum_{j=0}^{k} y_{j}+y\right)\left(\operatorname{then} \mathcal{N}\left(f_{k}\right)\right.$ contains the edge $e$ and $w\left(f_{k}\right)=\rho$ ) and by $f_{k}(e), g_{k}(e)$ the leading forms of $f_{k}$ and $g_{k}$ for the weight $w$. Thus $f_{k}(e)\left(x, y_{k+1}\right)=F$ by definition of $y_{k+1}$; also $g_{k}(e)\left(x, y_{k+1}\right) \neq 0$ (recall that $\left.y_{k+1} \notin \overline{\mathbb{C}(x)}\right)$. Since $g_{k}\left(\sum_{j=k+1}^{\infty} y_{j}\right)=\widetilde{G}$ we should have $g_{k}(e)\left(x, y_{k+1}\right)=\bar{G}$.

If $\mathrm{J}\left(f_{k}(e), g_{k}(e)\right)=0$ then $g_{k}(e)\left(x, y_{k+1}\right)=c F^{\lambda}$ (since $f_{k}(e)$ is a homogeneous form of a non-zero weight any homogeneous form which is algebraically dependent with $f_{k}(e)$ is proportional to a rational power of $\left.f_{k}(e)\right)$. But $\bar{G}$ depends on $x$ and so $\mathrm{J}\left(f_{k}(e), g_{k}(e)\right) \neq 0$. In view of $\mathrm{J}\left(f_{k}, g_{k}\right)=1$ this implies $\mathrm{J}\left(f_{k}(e), g_{k}(e)\right)=1$.

Since the expansion $\widetilde{y}$ is by components with the increasing weight, $w(x)>$ $0, w\left(f_{k}\right)<0$ the leading vertex $(m, n)$ should be below the line containing $e$. The following consideration shows that this is impossible. We have $w\left(g_{k}\right)=$ $w(G)=\sigma<0$ and $\rho+\sigma=w(x)+w(y)$ to make $\mathrm{J}\left(f_{k}(e), g_{k}(e)\right)=1$ possible. Therefore $\rho=w(x)+w(y)-\sigma=1+\alpha-\sigma$ and points $(\rho, 0)$ and $(1-\sigma, 1)$ have the same weight $\rho$. (Recall that $w(x)=1, w(y)=\alpha, w(F)=\rho, w(G)=\sigma$.) Thus they both belong to the line containing the edge $e$. But this line intersects the bisectrix of the first quadrant in the point with coordinates smaller
than 1 since $\rho<0, \sigma<0$, and the vertex $(m, n)$ is above this line.
Hence $\Phi_{b}$ cannot be below $F O G$ and $P(x, F, G) \in \mathbb{C}[x, F, G]$. On the other hand $P(0, f(x, 0), g(x, 0))=0$ and the Newton polygon of this dependence is not an edge. Therefore the face $\Phi_{b}$ coincides with $F O G$.

## The face $\Phi_{a}$.

For the face $\Phi_{a}$, another face which contains $\mathcal{E}$, choose the weight $w(x)=$ 1, $w(F)=\rho>0, w(G)=\sigma>0$. An expansion of $G$ relative to this weight is by components with the decreasing weight.

Repeating verbatim considerations from the previous subsection we obtain an edge $e$ of the corresponding $\mathcal{N}\left(f_{l}\right)$ which belongs to the line containing the points $(\rho, 0),(1-\sigma, 1)$ and runs below the leading vertex $(m, n)$.

Therefore $\rho+n[1-\sigma-\rho] \geq m$, i. e. $n-m \geq n(\rho+\sigma)-\rho$. Also $\sigma=\frac{b_{0}}{a_{0}} \rho$ because $\Phi_{a}$ contains $\mathcal{E}$ and $n-m \geq\left[n\left(1+\frac{b_{0}}{a_{0}}\right)-1\right] \rho$. Hence $\rho \leq \frac{(n-m) a_{0}}{n\left(a_{0}+b_{0}\right)-a_{0}}, \sigma \leq \frac{(n-m) b_{0}}{n\left(a_{0}+b_{0}\right)-a_{0}}$ and $\operatorname{deg}_{x}(P) \leq n \sigma \leq(n-m) \frac{n b_{0}}{n\left(a_{0}+b_{0}\right)-a_{0}}$.

If these inequalities are not strict then the edge $e$ contains $(m, n)$ i.e. $e$ is the (right) leading edge. Since $\rho<1, \sigma<1$ this would imply that $f(x, 0)$ and $g(x, 0)$ are constants and then $\mathrm{J}(f, g)=1$ is impossible. Therefore $(m, n)$ does not belong to $e$ and the inequalities are strict.

From Lemma on $y$ we have $\mathbb{C}(x, f, g)=\mathbb{C}(x, y)$. Therefore the degree $[\mathbb{C}(x, y): \mathbb{C}(f, g)]$ of the field extension is equal to $\operatorname{deg}_{x}(P)$ and $[\mathbb{C}(x, y):$ $\mathbb{C}(f, g)]<(n-m) \frac{n b_{0}}{n\left(a_{0}+b_{0}\right)-a_{0}}$. This estimate is sharper than the estimate $m+n$ obtained by Yitang Zhang (see [Zh]).

It is known that $[\mathbb{C}(x, y): \mathbb{C}(f, g)]=\operatorname{deg}_{x}(P)$ for the Jacobian mapping is
at least 6 (see [D1], [D2], [DO], [Or], [S], [Zo]). Hence the difference $n-m>6$.
We can get a somewhat better estimate for $\rho$ if we consider the highest possible order vertex of the modified leading edge. For example if the leading edge is vertical then $m$ divides $n$ and the leading form of $f$ can be $\left(x^{i} y^{i(k+1)}-\right.$ $\left.x^{i} y^{i(k+1)-1}\right)^{a_{0}}$. Therefore the order vertex in the "vertical" case cannot be higher than $\left(m, n-a_{0}\right)$.

If the leading edge is not vertical then after modification the order vertex of $f_{w}$ also can be $\left(\mu, n-a_{0}\right)$ where $\mu<m$.

So the "best" improvement is obtainable in the case of the vertical edge and gives $[\mathbb{C}(x, y): \mathbb{C}(f, g)]<\left(n-m-a_{0}\right) \frac{n b_{0}}{\left(n-a_{0}\right)\left(a_{0}+b_{0}\right)-a_{0}}$

## Edges of $\mathcal{N}(P)$.

An edge of $\mathcal{N}(P)$ can be parallel to a coordinate plane $G O x$ or $F O G$ and then the leading form of $G$ which corresponds to this edge is $c x^{r}$ or $c F^{r}$ where $c \in \mathbb{C}^{*}, r \in \mathbb{Q}$. An edge parallel to $F O x$ does not correspond to any leading form of $G$.

If $E$ is a slanted edge i.e. an edge which is not parallel to any coordinate plane then the leading form $\bar{G}=c x^{r_{1}} F^{r_{2}}$ where $c \in \mathbb{C}^{*}, r_{i} \in \mathbb{Q}^{*}$. In this case we have more freedom in choosing a weight which corresponds to $E$ and with an appropriate choice the edge $e \in \mathcal{N}\left(f_{k}\right)$ (see The face $\Phi_{b}$ ) collapses to a vertex and both $f_{k}(e), g_{k}(e)$ are monomials. Since $\mathrm{J}\left(f_{k}(e), g_{k}(e)\right)=1$ and $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(f_{k}(e)\right), \operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(g_{k}(e)\right)$ are non-negative integers either $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(g_{k}(e)\right)=0$ or $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(f_{k}(e)\right)=0$. If $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(g_{k}(e)\right)=0$ then $\bar{G}=g_{k}(e)\left(x, y_{k+1}\right)=x^{r}$ and
the edge $E$ is parallel to $G O x$ and not slanted; if $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(f_{k}(e)\right)=0$ then $f_{k}(e) \in \overline{\mathbb{C}(x)}$ while $f_{k}(e)\left(x, y_{k+1}\right)=F$.

Hence $\mathcal{N}(P)$ does not have slanted edges.

## Non-vertical and non-horizontal faces.

Consider again the face $\Phi_{a}$. This face belongs to a slanted plane containing $\mathcal{E}$ which intersects the first octant by a triangle $\triangle$. Since all edges of $\Phi_{a}$ are parallel to the coordinate planes and $\Phi_{a}$ contains $\mathcal{E}$, the face $\Phi_{a}$ is either $\triangle$ or a trapezoid obtained from $\triangle$ by cutting it with an edge $\mathcal{E}_{1}$ parallel to $\mathcal{E}$.

If $\Phi_{a}$ is a trapezoid then the same consideration applied to $\mathcal{E}_{1}$ shows that the next face is also a triangle or a trapezoid, and so on until we reach the face parallel to $F O G$.

## Horizontal faces.

We have a non-degenerate horizontal face $\Phi_{b} \subset F O G$ ("floor"). We also have a "ceiling" which may degenerate into a vertex. Let us replace $f, g$ by $f-c_{1}, g-c_{2}$ where $c_{i} \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right)$ is a "general pair". Then the corresponding Newton polytope has a triangular floor (with a vertex in the origin) and a triangular ceiling (with a vertex on the $x$ axis).

The shape of $\mathcal{N}(P)$.

Collecting information we obtained about $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{P})$ we can conclude that all its vertices are in the coordinate planes $F O x$ and $G O X$, there are two horizontal faces which are right triangles with right angles in the origin and on the $x$ axes, a face $\Phi_{G}$ in $F O x$ and a face $\Phi_{F}$ in $G O x$, which are polygons with the same number of vertices, and all remaining faces are trapezoids obtained by connecting the corresponding vertices of $\Phi_{F}$ and $\Phi_{G}$ by edges which are parallel to $\mathcal{E}$.

To give a new proof that in the case of two characteristic pairs counterexample is impossible (see [A2, A3, A4, A5]) ) we will estimate $\rho$ from below.

## An estimate of $\rho$ from below.

In order to get an estimate for $\rho$ of the face $\Phi_{a}$ from below we should know more about $P(x, F, G)$.

Consider $f, g \in \mathbb{C}(x)[y]$. The first necessary ingredient is the expansion of $g$ as a power series of $f$ in an appropriate algebra relative to the weight given by $w(y)=1, w(x)=0$.

## Expansion of $G$.

Consider the ring $L=\mathbb{C}\left[x^{-1}, x\right]$ of Laurent polynomials in $x$. Define $A$ to be the algebra of asymptotic power series in $y$ with coefficients in $L$, i.e. the
elements of $A$ are $\sum_{-\infty}^{i=k} y_{i} y^{i}$ where $y_{i} \in L$. For $a=\sum_{-\infty}^{i=k} y_{i} y^{i}$ define $|a|=y_{k} y^{k}$.

Lemma on radical. If $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ is a rational number, $|a|=c x^{l} y^{k}, c \in \mathbb{C}$, and $|a|^{r} \in A$ then $a^{r} \in A$.

Proof. This follows from the Newton binomial theorem since $a=|a|(1+$ $\left.\sum_{-\infty}^{i=k-1} \frac{y_{i}}{y_{k}} y^{i-k}\right)$ where all $\frac{y_{i}}{y_{k}} \in L$. Therefore $a^{r}=|a|^{r} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty}\binom{r}{j}\left(\sum_{-\infty}^{i=k-1} \frac{y_{i}}{y_{k}} y^{i-k}\right)^{j}$ is an element of $A$.

Consider $f(x, y), g(x, y)$ as elements of $A$. Then $|f|=x^{m} y^{n}$ and $|g|=$ $|f|^{\lambda_{0}}$ where $\lambda_{0}=\frac{b_{0}}{a_{0}}$ (see Introduction and Newton polytope $\mathcal{N}(P)$ ). By lemma on radical $f^{\lambda_{0}} \in A$ and hence $g_{1}=g-c_{0} f^{\lambda_{0}} \in A$ (here $c_{0}=1$ ). Since $\mathrm{J}\left(f, g_{1}\right)=1$ either $\mathrm{J}\left(|f|,\left|g_{1}\right|\right)=0$ or $\mathrm{J}\left(|f|,\left|g_{1}\right|\right)=1$. If $\mathrm{J}\left(|f|,\left|g_{1}\right|\right)=0$ then $\left|g_{1}\right|=c_{1}|f|^{\lambda_{1}}, c_{1} \in \mathbb{C}, r_{1} \in \mathbb{Q}$ and we can define $g_{2}=g-c_{0} f^{\lambda_{0}}-c_{1} f^{\lambda_{1}}$ which is in $A$ for the same reasons as $g_{1}$. We can proceed until we obtain $g_{\kappa}=g-\sum_{i=0}^{\kappa-1} c_{i} f^{\lambda_{i}} \in A$ for which $\mathrm{J}\left(|f|,\left|g_{\kappa}\right|\right)=1$, i.e. $\mathrm{J}\left(x^{m} y^{n},\left|g_{\kappa}\right|\right)=1$. Therefore $\left|g_{\kappa}\right|=\left(c_{\kappa}\left(x^{m} y^{n}\right)^{\frac{1-n}{n}}-\frac{1}{n-m} x^{1-m} y^{1-n}\right)$ where $c_{\kappa} \in \mathbb{C}$. If $c_{\kappa} \neq 0$ then $\left(x^{m} y^{n}\right)^{\frac{1-n}{n}} \in A$ and $\frac{m}{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$ which is impossible since $0<m<n$. Thus $\left|g_{\kappa}\right|=\frac{1}{(m-n)} x^{1-m} y^{1-n}$ and we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
g=\sum_{i=0}^{\kappa-1} c_{i} f^{\lambda_{i}}+g_{\kappa}, \quad c_{i} \in \mathbb{C} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(\left|f^{\lambda_{i}}\right|\right)>1-n, \operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(\left|g_{\kappa}\right|\right)=1-n$, and $\left|g_{\kappa}\right|=\frac{1}{(m-n)} x^{1-m} y^{1-n}=$ $\frac{1}{(m-n)} x^{\frac{n-m}{n}}|f|^{\lambda_{\kappa}}$ where $\lambda_{\kappa}=\frac{1-n}{n}$.

In order to obtain a "complete" expansion

$$
\begin{equation*}
g=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_{i} f^{\lambda_{i}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

of $g$ through $x$ and $f$ we should extend $A$ to a larger algebra $B$ with elements $\sum_{-\infty}^{i=k} y_{i} y^{i}$ where $y_{i} \in L_{n}=\mathbb{C}\left[x^{\frac{-m}{n}}, x^{\frac{m}{n}}\right]$ in which $f^{\frac{1}{n}}$ is defined. Indeed $\left|x^{\frac{-m}{n}} f^{\frac{1}{n}}\right|=y$ and we can obtain an expansion with $c_{i} \in L_{n}$.

Hence $\lambda_{i}=\frac{n_{i}}{n}, n_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since $\operatorname{deg}_{g}(P)=n$ and $\lambda_{\kappa}=\frac{1-n}{n}$ all $n$ roots $G_{j}$ of $P(x, F, G)=0$ in $B$ can be obtained from $G=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_{i} F^{\frac{n_{i}}{n}}$ by substitutions $F^{\frac{1}{n}} \rightarrow \varepsilon^{j} F^{\frac{1}{n}}, j=0,1, \ldots, n-1$ where $\varepsilon$ is a primitive root of 1 of power $n$.

A monomial of $P(x, F, G)$ containing a power of $x$.

Polytope $\mathcal{N}(P)$ contains the edge $\mathcal{E}$ with vertices $\left(n_{0}, 0,0\right)$ and ( $0, n, 0$ ) (in the system of coordinates $F G x$ ). Hence if $\mathcal{N}(P)$ contains a vertex $(i, j, k)$ then $\lambda_{0} n \rho \geq i \rho+j \sigma+k=\left(i+\lambda_{0} j\right) \rho+k$ and $\rho \geq \frac{k}{\lambda_{0}(n-j)-i}$ which gives a meaningful estimate when $k>0$.

The following algorithm will produce an irreducible relation for polynomials $f, g \in \mathbb{C}(x)[y]$.

Put $\tilde{g}_{0}=g$. Assume that after $s$ steps we obtained $\tilde{g}_{0}, \ldots, \tilde{g}_{s}$. Denote $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(\tilde{g}_{i}\right)$ by $m_{i}$ and the greatest common divisor of $n, m_{0}, \ldots, m_{i}$ by $d_{i}$. Put $d_{-1}=n$ and $a_{i}=\frac{d_{i-1}}{d_{i}}$ for $0 \leq i \leq s$. (Clearly $a_{s} m_{s}$ is divisible by $d_{s-1}$ and $a_{s}$ is the smallest integer with this property.)

Call a monomial $\mathbf{m}=f^{i} \tilde{g}_{0}^{j_{0}} \ldots \tilde{g}_{s}^{j_{s}} s$-standard if $0 \leq j_{k}<a_{k}, k=0, \ldots, s$. Find an $s-1$-standard monomial $\mathbf{m}_{s, 0}$ with $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(\mathbf{m}_{s, 0}\right)=a_{s} m_{s}$ and $k_{0} \in K=$ $\mathbb{C}(x)$ for which $m_{s, 1}=\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(\tilde{g}_{s}^{a_{s}}-k_{0} \mathbf{m}_{s, 0}\right)<a_{s} m_{s}$. If $m_{s, 1}$ is divisible by $d_{s}$ find an $s$-standard monomial $\mathbf{m}_{s, 1}$ with $\operatorname{deg}_{y}\left(\mathbf{m}_{s, 1}\right)=m_{s, 1}$ and $k_{1} \in K$ for which $m_{s, 2}=\operatorname{deg}\left(\tilde{g}_{s}^{a_{s}}-k_{0} \mathbf{m}_{s, 0}-k_{1} \mathbf{m}_{s, 1}\right)<m_{s, 1}$ and so on.

If after a finite number of reductions $m_{s, i}$ which is not divisible by $d_{s}$ is obtained, denote the corresponding expression by $\tilde{g}_{s+1}$ and make the next step. After a finite number of steps we obtain an irreducible relation.

This algorithm was suggested in [ML1] with a proof that it works. In the zero characteristic case it is also shown there that all $\tilde{g}_{i}$ are polynomials in $y$ (i.e. there are no negative powers of $f$ in the standard monomials).

We can rewrite (1) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
g=\sum_{i=0}^{\kappa-1} c_{i} f^{\frac{n_{i}}{n}}+g_{\kappa}, \quad c_{i} \in \mathbb{C} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left|g_{\kappa}\right|=\frac{1}{(m-n)} \frac{x y}{|f|}$. Applying the algorithm to this expansion we will get after several steps "the last" $\tilde{g}_{\kappa}$ with $\left|\tilde{g}_{\kappa}\right|=c\left|\frac{x y}{f} \tilde{g}_{0}^{a_{0}-1} \tilde{g}_{1}^{a_{1}-1} \ldots \tilde{g}_{\kappa-1}^{a_{\kappa-1}-1}\right|$.

In the case of two characteristic pairs $\kappa=1$ and $\left|\tilde{g}_{1}\right|=c\left|\frac{x y}{f} \tilde{g}_{0}^{a_{0}-1}\right|$. If we denote $|f|=\left(x^{a} y^{b}\right)^{a_{0}},|g|=\left(x^{a} y^{b}\right)^{b_{0}}$ then $P=\tilde{g}_{1}^{b}-c x^{b-a} f^{i} \tilde{g}_{0}^{j}-\ldots$ where $\left|x^{b-a} f^{i} \tilde{g}_{0}^{j}\right|=\left|\frac{x y}{f} \tilde{g}_{0}^{a_{0}-1}\right|^{b}$. Therefore $\rho \geq \frac{b-a}{\lambda_{0}(n-j)-i}=\frac{b-a}{\lambda_{0}\left(b a_{0}-j\right)-i}$. Since $\left|x^{b-a} f^{i} \tilde{g}_{0}^{j}\right|=\left|\frac{x y}{f} \tilde{g}_{0}^{a_{0}-1}\right|^{b}=\left|x^{b-a}\left(x^{a} y^{b}\right)^{1-a_{0} b+b_{0}\left(a_{0}-1\right) b}\right|$ we have $a_{0} i+b_{0} j=$ $1-a_{0} b+b_{0}\left(a_{0}-1\right) b$ and $i+\lambda_{0} j=\frac{b b_{0} a_{0}-b a_{0}-b b_{0}+1}{a_{0}}$ (recall that $\lambda_{0}=\frac{b_{0}}{a_{0}}$ ). Hence $\rho \geq \frac{b-a}{\lambda_{0}\left(b a_{0}-j\right)-i}=\frac{(b-a) a_{0}}{\lambda_{0} b a_{0}^{2}-\left(b b_{0} a_{0}-b a_{0}-b b_{0}+1\right)}=\frac{(b-a) a_{0}}{b a_{0} b_{0}-\left(b b_{0} a_{0}-b a_{0}-b b_{0}+1\right)}=\frac{(b-a) a_{0}}{b a_{0}+b b_{0}-1}$. On the other hand $\rho<\frac{(n-m) a_{0}}{n\left(a_{0}+b_{0}\right)-a_{0}}=\frac{(b-a) a_{0}^{2}}{b a_{0}\left(a_{0}+b_{0}\right)-a_{0}}=\frac{(b-a) a_{0}}{b\left(a_{0}+b_{0}\right)-1}$ and we have a contradiction.

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