

## Generating properties of biparabolic invertible polynomial maps in three variables

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**Abstract.** Invertible polynomial map of the standard 1-parabolic form  $x_i \rightarrow f_i(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$ ,  $i < n$ ,  $x_n \rightarrow \alpha x_n + h_n(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$  is a natural generalization of a triangular map. To generalize the previous results about triangular and bitriangular maps, it is shown that the group of tame polynomial transformations  $TGA_3$  is generated by an affine group  $AGL_3$  and any nonlinear biparabolic map of the form  $U_0 \cdot q_1 \cdot U_1 \cdot q_2 \cdot U_2$ , where  $U_i$  are linear maps and both  $q_i$  have the standard 1-parabolic form.

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All invertible polynomial maps of the affine space  $A_n$  over a field  $K$  form the group  $GA_n$  (the affine Cremona group). It represents an important example of so called *Ind*-groups or  $\infty$ -dimensional algebraic groups (an inductive limit of finite dimensional algebraic varieties, see [1]). The elements of  $GA_n$  can be represented as tuples of polynomials

$$g = \langle f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), f_2(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, f_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rangle, \quad (1)$$

which action on the volume form  $dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$  is a multiplication it by a constant. It leads to the Jacobian condition

$$\det \left( \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \right) = \text{const}; \quad (2)$$

$\text{const} \neq 0$ . Remember that  $\text{Lie}(GA_n) = ga_n$  consists of linear differential operators of the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}, \quad (3)$$

where  $a_i$  are polynomials under the condition  $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial x_i} = \text{const} \in K$ . It is well known (see [2]) that  $ga_n$  is a graded irreducible transitive algebra of a polynomial growth:  $ga_n = \bigoplus_{k=-1}^{\infty} ga_n^{(k)}$ , where homogeneous components  $ga_n^{(k)}$  consist of the operators (3) for which  $\deg a_i = k + 1$ .

There are important subgroups of  $GA_n$ :

- (i) the affine group  $AGL_n = GL_n \times A_n^+ : \deg f_i = 1, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ;

- (ii)  $B_n$  is a subgroup of triangular maps which elements have the form (1), where  $f_i = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_i), i = 1, \dots, n$ ;
- (iii)  $GA_n^{(0)}$  is a stabilizer of zero and has a chain of normal subgroups  $GA_n^{(0)} \triangleright GA_n^{(1)} \triangleright GA_n^{(2)} \triangleright \dots \triangleright GA_n^{(k)} \triangleright \dots$ , which members  $GA_n^{(k)}$  consist of the maps (1) of the type  $f_i = x_i + \phi_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) + \dots$ , where  $\phi_i$  – are homogeneous  $k + 1$ – forms and  $\dots$  means items of higher degrees, by the way,  $GA_n^{(0)} = GL_n(K) \times GA_n^{(1)}$ ;
- (iv) the subgroup of tame maps  $TGA_n$  which are generated by the elementary transformations:  $f_i = x_i, i \neq j, f_j = x_j + h_j(x_1, \dots, x_{j-1}, x_{j+1}, \dots, x_n)$  and  $AGL_n$ .

As was shown in [3],  $Lie(AGL_n)$  is a maximal subalgebra of the  $ga_n$ . The direct application of Shafarevich’s theorem (see [1]) about the connection between Lie algebras and correspondent  $\infty$ – dimensional algebraic groups leads to the conclusion:  $AGL_n$  is a maximal closed subgroup of  $GA_n$ . The subgroup  $B_n$  (Jonquière’s group) is a maximal solvable subgroup of  $GA_n$  and so can be considered as an analog of a Borel’s subgroup. Remark that tuples of the form (1), which coordinates are formal power series without constant terms form a group with the composition of tuples as a group operation. It contains  $GA_n^0$  as a subgroup. Moreover, the factors  $GA_n^{(0)}/GA_n^{(k)}$  are finite dimensional algebraic groups.

Tame maps give most simple examples of nonlinear invertible polynomial maps. It is easy to see that  $TGA_n = \langle AGL_n, B_n \rangle$ . As is well known,  $GA_2$  has the structure of the amalgamated product:  $GA_2 = AGL_2 * B_2$  and so  $GA_2 = TGA_2$ . In the dimension  $n = 3$ , I. Shestakov and U. Umurbaev in [4] have proved that Nagata’s automorphism is wild, so  $TGA_3$  is a proper subgroup of  $GA_3$ . Remark that if this automorphism is extended in a natural way to an automorphism of  $A_n$  for some  $n > 3$  then this extension will be tame. As was mentioned above  $AGL_n$  is a maximal closed subgroup of  $GA_n$ . On the other hand, as follows from [5], a finite affine group nearly always is a maximal subgroup in the correspondent symmetrical group. So it is natural to investigate intermediate subgroups from the interval  $AGL_n < TGA_n$ . By using an amalgamated structure of  $GA_2$  it isn’t hard to construct such subgroups in the dimension  $n = 2$ . For example the groups  $Q_m = \langle AGL_2, \sigma^{(m)} \rangle$ , where  $\sigma^{(m)} = \langle x_1, x_2 + x_1^{m+1} \rangle \in GA_2^{(m)} \cap B_2$  form an ascending chain  $AGL_2 = Q_0 < Q_1 < \dots < Q_m < Q_{m+1}, \dots$  and  $GA_2 = \cup_m Q_m$ . From the uniqueness of element’s decomposition in amalgamated products it follows that all maps  $\sigma^{(k)}, k > m$  don’t belong to  $Q_m$ . As is well known,  $GA_3$  has not such structure and to point out an intermediate subgroup isn’t a simple task. It is easy to see that  $TGA_n$  can be defined also in such a manner  $TGA_n = \langle B_n, AGL_n \rangle$ . In fact more strong result holds

**Theorem 1.** ([6]) *Let  $t$  be an arbitrary nonlinear triangular map from  $B_n$  then*

$$TGA_n = \langle t, AGL_n \rangle .$$

This theorem may be generalized so called standard 1-parabolic transformations.

**Definition 1.** *The transformation  $q$  of the form (1) is called standard 1-parabolic if there is an affine map  $A$  such that*

$$q^A = \langle f_1(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}), \dots, f_{n-1}(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}), x_n + f_n(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) \rangle. \quad (4)$$

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $q$  be an arbitrary nonlinear standard 1-parabolic transformation then*

$$TGA_n = \langle q, AGL_n \rangle.$$

**Proof.** The result is a direct corollary of Theorem 1. Really, without lost of generality one can suppose that  $q$  has the form (4). Let  $q^{-1} = \langle g_1, \dots, g_{n-1}, x_n - h_n(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) \rangle$ , then

$$g_i(f_1, \dots, f_{n-1}) \equiv x_i, f_n + h_n(f_1, \dots, f_{n-1}) \equiv 0. \quad (5)$$

If all  $g_i$  are linear then the map  $q$  has the form  $U \cdot t, U \in AGL_n, t \in B_n$ . Otherwise, for number  $i$  such that  $g_i$  is nonlinear polynomial let us use the transvection  $A_{n,i} = \langle x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n + x_i \rangle \in AGL_n$  and get the element  $q^{A_{n,i}} \cdot q^{-1} = \langle x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n - x_i + g_i \rangle$  which is nonlinear triangular.  $\square$

**Definition 2.** *A map  $q \in GA_n$  is called biparabolic if it can be represented as a composition of two standard 1-parabolic maps.*

In particular bitriangular maps, which were defined in [6] as maps of the kind  $C_0 \cdot t_1 \cdot C_1 \cdot t_2 \cdot C_2, t_1, t_2 \in B_n, C_k \in AGL_n$ , form a subclass of biparabolic ones. Let  $G = \langle AGL_n, q \rangle$ , where  $q$  is a biparabolic map. Without lost of generality one can suppose that  $q \in G$  has the form  $q = q_1 \cdot q_2^A, A \in GL_n$ . It is clear that standard 1-parabolic maps are permutable with the translations along the last coordinate  $c_n : x_i \rightarrow x_i, i < n, x_n \rightarrow x_n + 1, 1 \in K$ . This fact could be used for proving the same result ( $G = TGA_n$ ) for biparabolic maps  $q$ . Really, the map  $q_2^A$  is permutable with the translation  $c = c_n^A \in A_n^+$ , so we can get the standard 1-parabolic map  $q^c \cdot q^{-1} = q_1^c q_1^{-1} \in G$ . Thus for most biparabolic maps the result can be deduced from Theorem 2. But it may happen that  $q_3$  will be a linear map and the application of this theorem is impossible. In [7] (theorem 3) this situation was considered for bitriangular maps in the dimension  $n = 3$ . Next theorem is a generalization of that result.

**Theorem 3.** *Let  $q$  be an arbitrary nonlinear biparabolic transformation then*

$$TGA_3 = \langle q, AGL_3 \rangle.$$

**Proof.** Let  $G = \langle q, AGL_3 \rangle$  As was mentioned above, we can suppose that  $q = p_1 \cdot p_2^A$ , where  $p_1, p_2 \in GA_n^{(1)}$  (without linear parts). If  $A = B_1 \cdot W \cdot B_2$  is a Brua decomposition, where  $W$  is a permutation matrix and  $B_1, B_2$  are lower triangular matrices then we have  $B_2 q B_2^{-1} = p_1^{B_2^{-1}} \cdot (p_2)^{B_1 \cdot W} \in G$ . Since the maps  $p_1^{B_2^{-1}}, (p_2)^{B_1}$

are standard 1-parabolic transformations also without linear parts, then without lost of generality one can suppose that  $q = p_1 \cdot p_2^W$ . Moreover, the maps  $p_i^{(1,2)}$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , are standard 1-parabolic ones and so one can suppose that there is an element  $q \in G$  of the form

$$q = p \cdot p_1^{(1,3)}. \quad (6)$$

Let  $p = \langle f_1(x_1, x_2), f_2(x_1, x_2), x_3 + f_3(x_1, x_2) \rangle$  and  $p^{-1} = \langle g_1(x_1, x_2), g_2(x_1, x_2), x_3 + g_3(x_1, x_2) \rangle$  and identities (5) hold. If  $\deg_{x_1} f_2 < \deg_{x_1} f_1$  then one can remove the map  $q$  by  $(1, 2) \cdot q$ , where  $(1, 2) = \langle x_2, x_1, x_3 \rangle$  is a transposition. So we can suppose that  $\deg_{x_1} f_2 \geq \deg_{x_1} f_1$ . On the other hand, if  $p$  has a decomposition  $p = p'g$ , where  $g = \langle x_1 + h(x_2), x_2, x_3 \rangle$ , and  $p'$  has the form (4) then we can rewrite the map  $q$  in such a manner  $q = p' \cdot (g^{(1,3)} \cdot p_1)^{(1,3)}$ . Since  $g^{(1,3)}$  is a triangular map then  $g^{(1,3)} \cdot p_1$  is a 1-parabolic map. Hence, we can suppose also that  $p$  doesn't admit such decomposition  $p = p' \cdot g$ , where  $h \neq 0$ .

Since the second factor of (6) is permutable with translation  $c_1 = \langle x_1 + 1, x_2, x_3 \rangle$ , one can get an element  $q_3 = q^{c_1} \cdot q^{-1} = p_1^{c_1} \cdot p_1^{-1} \in G$ . As was mentioned above, the map  $q_3$  has the form (4) and if it isn't a linear one then the result follows from Theorem 2. Let us investigate the situation when  $q_3 = \Lambda \cdot x + z \in AGL_n$ , here  $\Lambda = (\lambda_{i,j}), i, j = 1, 2, 3, z = (z_1, z_2, z_3)$ . The equality  $p_1^{c_1} \cdot p_1^{-1} = q_3$  leads to the coordinate equalities

$$\begin{aligned} f_i(g_1 + 1, g_2) &= \lambda_{i1}x_1 + \lambda_{i2}x_2 + \lambda_{i3}x_3 + z_i, \quad i = 1, 2; \\ x_3 + g_3(x_1, x_2) + f_3(g_1 + 1, g_2) &= \lambda_{31}x_1 + \lambda_{32}x_2 + \lambda_{33}x_3 + z_3. \end{aligned}$$

By comparing the coefficients of  $x_3$  we can obtain  $\lambda_{i3} = 0, \lambda_{33} = 1$ . If we take in account the identities (5) and act on the previous equalities by  $p$  we get

$$f_1(x_1 + 1, x_2) = \lambda_{11}f_1 + \lambda_{12}f_2 + z_1; \quad (7)$$

$$f_2(x_1 + 1, x_2) = \lambda_{21}f_1 + \lambda_{22}f_2 + z_2; \quad (8)$$

$$f_3(x_1 + 1, x_2) = \lambda_{31}f_1 + \lambda_{32}f_2 + f_3 + z_3.$$

Let us represent the coordinates of  $p$  in the form

$$f_i = \sum_{s=0}^{M_i} \phi_s^i(x_2)x_1^s,$$

$\phi_{M_i}^i \neq 0, i = 1, 2, 3$ . If  $M_1 = M_2 = M$  then  $M > 0$  and by comparing the coefficients of  $x_1^M$  in (7),(8) one can get

$$\phi_M^i = \lambda_{i1}\phi_M^1 + \lambda_{i2}\phi_M^2, \quad i = 1, 2.$$

If  $\phi_M^1, \phi_M^2$  are linear independent polynomials over  $K$  then  $\lambda_{i,j} = \delta_{i,j}$  (Kronecker's symbol). Comparing of the coefficients of  $x_1^{M-1}$  leads to the equality  $M\phi_M^i + \phi_{M-1}^i = \phi_{M-1}^i$  which implies the contradiction  $\phi_M^i \equiv 0, i = 1, 2$ . So  $\phi_M^2(x_2) = \mu\phi_M^1(x_2)$  for some  $\mu \in K$ . Let us use the transvection  $U = \langle x_1 - \mu x_2, x_2, x_3 \rangle$  and replace

$q \rightarrow U \cdot q$ . In such a manner we get a map of the form (6) with  $\phi_{M_1}^1 \equiv 0$  in  $p$  i.e. for this map  $M = M_2 > M_1$ . Comparing the coefficients of  $x_1^M$  in identities (7),(8) leads to the equalities  $0 = \lambda_{12}\phi_M^2, \phi_M^2 = \lambda_{22}\phi_M^2$  which imply that  $\lambda_{12} = 0, \lambda_{22} = 1$ . Let us compare the coefficients of  $x_1^{M-1}$  :

$$\phi_{M-1}^1 = \lambda_{11}\phi_{M-1}^1, \quad M\phi_M^2 + \phi_{M-1}^2 = \lambda_{21}\phi_{M-1}^1 + \phi_{M-1}^2.$$

It follows that  $\phi_{M-1}^1 \neq 0$  ( $M_1 = M - 1$ ) and  $\lambda_{11} = 1$ . It is clear that the highest degree of  $x_1$  which can be present by jacobian of the pair  $(f_1, f_2)$  does not exceed  $2M - 2$ . With regard to the equality  $M\phi_M^2 = \lambda_{21}\phi_{M-1}^1$ , the jacobian condition (2) leads to the identity  $\phi_M^2 \cdot \frac{d\phi_M^2}{dx_2} = 0$ , hence,  $\phi_M^2 = \text{const}$ . If  $M > 2$  then comparing the coefficients of  $x_1^{M-2}$  in (7) leads to the contradiction  $(M-1)\phi_{M-1}^1 + \phi_{M-2}^1 = \phi_{M-2}^1$ , i.e.  $\phi_{M-1}^1 = 0$ . Hence,  $M = 2$  or  $M = 1$ . In the first case from (7) we have  $\phi_1^1 = z_1$ . The equalization of monomials without  $x_1$  in (8) leads to the equality

$$\frac{M(M-1)}{2}\phi_2^2 + (M-1)\phi_1^2 + \phi_0^2 = \lambda_{21}\phi_0^1 + \phi_0^2 + z_2,$$

which under  $M = 2$  implies  $\phi_1^2 = \mu\phi_0^1 + \text{const}, \mu \in K$ . After all we obtain that

$$f_1 = z_1x_1 + \phi_0^1(x_2), \quad f_2 = \phi_2^2x_1^2 + (\mu\phi_0^1(x_2) + \text{const})x_1 + \phi_0^2(x_2).$$

This implies that  $p$  can be decomposed in such a manner

$$p = \langle z_1x_1, \phi_2^2(x_1 - (z_1)^{-1}\phi_0^1(x_2))^2 + (\mu\phi_0^1(x_2) + \text{const})(x_1 - (z_1)^{-1}\phi_0^1(x_2)) + \phi_0^2(x_2), \\ x_3 + f_3(x_1 - (z_1)^{-1}\phi_0^1(x_2), x_2) \rangle \cdot \langle x_1 + (z_1)^{-1}\phi_0^1(x_2), x_2, x_3 \rangle.$$

But, as was mentioned above, the map  $p$  doesn't admit such decomposition and so  $\phi_0^1(x_2) \equiv 0$ . Thus  $p = \langle z_1x_1, \phi_2^2x_1^2 + \text{const}x_1 + \phi_0^2(x_2), x_3 + f_3(x_1, x_2) \rangle$  is a triangular map. In the case  $M = 1$  it is evident that the map  $(1, 2) \cdot t$  is a triangular one. On the other hand, we can repeat our reasoning for the map  $\hat{q} = q^{-(1,3)} = p_1^{-1} \cdot p^{-(1,3)}$  and conclude that  $p_1$  is also triangular. This means that in fact, the situation when  $q_3 = q^{c_1} \cdot q^{-1}, q_4 = \hat{q}^{c_1} \cdot \hat{q}^{-1} \in AGL_n$ , can be realized when both elements owe triangular ones i.e. when  $q$  is bitriangular. So the result follows from Theorem 3 from [7].  $\square$

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