# Explicit Resolutions of Double Point Singularities of Surfaces 

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#### Abstract

Locally analytically, any isolated double point occurs as a double cover of a smooth surface. It can be desingularized explicitly via the canonical resolution, as it is very well-known. In this paper we explicitly compute the fundamental cycle of both the canonical and minimal resolution of a double point singularity and we classify those for which the fundamental cycle differs from the fiber cycle. Moreover we compute the conditions that a double point singularity imposes to pluricanonical systems.


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## 1 Introduction

In this article, we give a detailed analysis of isolated surface singularities of multiplicity two, i.e., double points. Our goal is to be as explicit as possible.

A neighbourhood of an isolated double point $p$ on a complex (normal) surface is analytically isomorphic to a double cover $\pi_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ branched along a reduced curve $B_{0}$ with an isolated singularity at a point $q_{1}$, where $Y_{0}$ is a smooth surface. If $x, y$ are local coordinates of $Y_{0}$ near $q_{1}$, then we may assume that $X_{0}$ is defined locally by an equation $z^{2}=f(x, y)$, where $B_{0}$ is $f=0$ and $f$ is a square-free polynomial in $x, y$.

It is very well-known that one may desingularize $p=\pi_{0}^{-1}\left(q_{1}\right) \in X$ following the canonical resolution, which consists in desingularizing the branch curve and normalizing. This fact was implicitly used by the so-called Italian school (as one finds out for example by reading Castelnuovo and Enriques' papers on double covers of the projective plane), but it has been first written in 1946 by Franchetta [13], who computed the properties of the exceptional curves of the canonical resolution and the fiber cycle, that is the maximal effective divisor contained in the scheme-theoretic fiber over $p$.

[^0]Later, in 1978, Dixon 10] proved again Franchetta's results in a more modern language and he found sufficient conditions for the fundamental cycle of a double point singularity to be equal to the fiber cycle.

At the same time, Horikawa 16] and Laufer 19] explained the canonical resolution process too (see also (4). In particular Laufer proved that the minimal resolution of a double point singularity is obtained from the canonical one by contracting simultaneously finitely many disjoint ( -1 )-curves and he described the relation between the topological types of the canonical resolution and of the minimal one, by using essentially the properties of the fundamental cycle.

We recall that the fundamental cycle of a resolution may well be computed inductively from the knowledge of the intersection matrix of the exceptional curves. However no explicit formula was known in the general case. In Theorem 11.2 , we will give and prove such a formula, that turns out to be very simple, for the canonical resolution and then in (11.9) for the minimal one.

Moreover, this formula allows us also to classify those double points for which the fiber cycle strictly contains the fundamental cycle.

Finally in the last section we compute what are the conditions that a double point singularity imposes to canonical and pluricanonical systems of a surface. For this purpose, it is convenient to consider projective surfaces: we will assume that $X_{0}$ is a double plane, i.e., $Y_{0}=\mathbb{P}^{2}$.

Although the general techniques used in this paper are very well-understood, we found no reference about our results. Thus we hope that this paper may serve as a natural complement to Dixon's and Laufer's papers and as an adequate reference for algebraic geometers that may use these results.

Moreover our approach is slightly different from the previous ones because we use, as discrete invariant of a plane curve singularity, the Enriques digraph, namely the directed graph involving the proximity relations among the infinitely near points to $q_{1}$, and we believe that this approach may be of independent interest as well (cf. Enriques diagrams in 15], [7] and 22).

Thus we show also some examples of double point singularities which may help to understand the features of the combinatorial machinery we introduced. Please do not hesitate to contact the authors if you want to see the implementation of this approach on a computer.

The interested reader may also consult [3] for the analysis of an embedded resolution of $\left\{z^{2}=f(x, y)\right\} \subset \mathbb{C}^{3}$.
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## 2 Notation

To help the reader with the notation, which will soon become very heavy, we list here the main symbols used in this paper, together with the meaning and the reference formula or page where they are defined.

| Symbol | Meaning | Ref. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X_{0}$ | normal complex surface | p. 1 |
| $p$ | isolated double point singularity of $X_{0}$ | p. |
| $Y_{0}$ | smooth surface | p. |
| $\pi_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ | double cover | p. |
| $B_{0}$ | branch curve of $\pi_{0}$ | p. |
|  | $=\pi_{0}(p)$, isolated singular point of $B_{0}$ | p. 5 |
| $\sigma_{i}: Y_{i} \rightarrow Y_{i-1}$ | blowing-up at a point $q_{i} \in Y_{i-1}$ | p. 6 |
|  | center of the blowing-up $\sigma_{i}$ | p. 6 |
| $(\cdot)_{i},(\cdot)$ | intersection pairing in $Y_{i}$ (resp. in $Y_{n}$ ) | p. 6 |
| $\sigma_{i j}: Y_{j} \rightarrow Y_{i}$ | $=\sigma_{j} \circ \sigma_{j-1} \circ \cdots \circ \sigma_{i+1}$ | 5.1) |
| $\sigma$ | $=\sigma_{0 n}$, sequence of blowing-ups | p. 6 |
| $E_{i}$ | (proper transform of) the exceptional curve $\sigma_{i}^{-1}\left(q_{i}\right)$ | p. 6 |
| $E_{i}^{*}$ | total transform of $E_{i}$ in $Y=Y_{n}$ via $\sigma=\sigma_{0 n} \ldots \ldots$ | p. 6 |
| $N=\left(n_{i j}\right)$ | $n \times n$ matrix, $E_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} n_{i j} E_{j}^{*}$ | (5.3) |
| $M=\left(m_{i j}\right)$ | $n \times n$ matrix, $E_{j}^{*}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} m_{j k} E_{k}$ | 5.3) |
| $q_{j} \rightarrow q_{i}$ | $q_{j}$ is proximate to $q_{i} \ldots$ | p. 6 |
| $q_{j}>^{s} q_{i}$ | $q_{j}$ is infinitely near of order $s$ to $q_{i}$ | p. 7 |
| $Q=\left(q_{i j}\right)$ | $n \times n$ matrix, $q_{i j}=1$ if and only if $q_{j} \rightarrow q_{i} \ldots \ldots$ | p. 6 |
| $\underset{\sim}{S}=\left(s_{i j}\right)$ | $n \times n$ matrix of intersection numbers $s_{i j}=\left(E_{i} \cdot E_{j}\right)$ | p. 7 |
| $\tilde{B}_{i}$ | proper transform of $B_{0}$ in $Y_{i}$ | p. 7 |
| $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ | multiplicity of $\tilde{B}_{i-1}$ at $q_{i}$ | (6.1) |
| $\tilde{\beta}_{i}$ | $=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \tilde{\alpha}_{i} m_{j i}$ | (6.2) |
| $\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}$ | $=\tilde{B}_{n \mid E_{\tilde{i}}}$, divisor on $E_{i}$ | p. 8 |
| $\tilde{\gamma}_{i}$ | $=\operatorname{deg}\left(\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}\right)=\tilde{B}_{n} \cdot E_{i}$. |  |
| $\pi_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y_{i}$ | normal double cover induced by $\pi_{0}$ and $\sigma_{0 i}$ | p. 10 |
| $B_{i}$ | branch curve of $\pi_{i}$ | . 10 |
| $\mu_{i}$ | multiplicity of $B_{i-1}$ at $q_{i}$ | . 10 |
| $\varepsilon_{i}$ | $=\mu_{i} \bmod 2 \in\{0,1\}$, branchedness of $E_{i}$ | (7.2) |
| $\alpha_{i}$ | $=\mu_{i}-\varepsilon_{i}$, even integer number | (8.1) |
| $\beta_{i}$ | $=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} m_{j i}$, even integer number | (8.1) |
| $\tau: X \rightarrow X_{0}$ | canonical resolution of $p \in X_{0}$ | p. 11 |
| $\bar{\tau}: \bar{X} \rightarrow X_{0}$ | minimal resolution of $p \in X_{0}$ | p. 15 |
| $Y$ | $=Y_{n}$, smooth surface | p. 11 |
| $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ | smooth double cover induced by the canonical resol. | p. 11 |
| $B$ | $=B_{n}$, smooth branch curve of $\pi$ | p. 11 |
| $\Gamma_{i}$ | $=B_{\mid E_{i}}$, divisor on $E_{i}$ | (8.4) |
| $\gamma_{i}$ | $=\operatorname{deg}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)=B \cdot E_{i}$ | p. 11 |
| $F_{i}$ | $=\pi^{*}\left(E_{i}\right)$, exceptional curves of $\tau$ | p. 13 |
| $D$ | $=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\alpha_{i} / 2-1\right) E_{i}^{*}$ | p. 14 |
| $D^{*}$ | $=\pi^{*} D=\tau^{*} K_{X_{0}}-K_{X}$, adjunction condition div. | 9.6) |
| $F$ | fiber cycle of the canonical resolution ............. | p. 14 |
| $\bar{F}_{i}$ | exceptional curves of $\bar{\tau}$ | p. 16 |
| $\bar{F}$ | fiber cycle of the minimal resolution | 10.6 |
| $Z$ | fundamental cycle of the canonical resolution | (11.1) |
| $\bar{Z}$ | fundamental cycle of the minimal resolution | (11.9) |


| Symbol | Meaning | Ref. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| defective | $q_{i}$ such that there exists $q_{j}>^{1} q_{i}$ with $\alpha_{j}>\alpha_{i} \ldots \ldots \ldots$ | p. 27 |
| Def | index set of defective points $\ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots$ | $28 \ldots \ldots \ldots$ |

## 3 Double covers of surfaces

Throughout this paper a double cover of a smooth irreducible complex surface $Y$ is a finite, surjective, proper holomorphic map $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ of degree 2 branched along a reduced curve, where $X$ is a (normal) irreducible complex surface. In the algebraic setting $\pi$ is a finite morphism of degree 2. For more details on covers and double covers the reader may consult [4].

Let $p$ be an isolated double point singularity of a surface. Since any isolated double point occurs, locally analytically, as a double cover of a smooth surface, let us consider as our initial data a double cover $\pi_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ branched along the reduced curve $B_{0}$ defined in local coordinates by $f=0$, where $f$ is a square-free polynomial. If $x, y$ are local analytic coordinates at a point $q \in Y_{0}$, then $X_{0}$ is defined by an equation $z^{2}=f(x, y)$ and $X_{0}$ is normal.

If $q \notin B_{0}$, then $f(q) \neq 0$ and there are two pre-images of $q$ in $X_{0}$; at each of these points $X_{0}$ is smooth and $\pi_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ is unramified. If $q \in B_{0}$, then there is a single point of $X_{0}$ lying above $q ; X_{0}$ is smooth at this point if and only if $B_{0}$ is smooth at $q$. The geometry of a smooth double cover is well-known:

Lemma 3.1 Let $Y$ be a smooth surface. Let $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ be a double cover, branched along the smooth and reduced curve $B$ in $Y$.

1. If $C$ is an irreducible component of $B$, then $\pi_{\mid D}: D=\pi^{-1}(C) \rightarrow C$ is an isomorphism, $\pi^{*}(C)=2 D$ and $D^{2}=C^{2} / 2$.
2. If $C$ is an irreducible curve in $Y$ which meets $B$ transversally in $2 k$ points, where $k \geq 1$, then $D=\pi^{-1}(C)$ is a smooth irreducible curve on $X$ and $\pi_{\mid D}: D \rightarrow C$ is a double cover branched along the $2 k$ points of intersection of $C$ with $B$. Moreover $\pi^{*}(C)=D$ and $D^{2}=2 C^{2}$.

Let $E$ be a smooth rational curve in $Y$ which is not part of the branch locus $B$. Let $\Gamma=B_{\mid E}$ be the divisor of intersection of $B$ with $E$.
3. If $\Gamma$ is an even divisor, say $\Gamma=2 Q$ (in particular if $\Gamma=Q=0$ ), then $\pi^{-1}(E)=D_{1}+D_{2}$, where $\pi_{\mid D_{i}}: D_{i} \rightarrow E$ is an isomorphism and $D_{i}^{2}=$ $E^{2}-\operatorname{deg}(Q)$ for $i=1,2$, and $D_{1} \cdot D_{2}=\operatorname{deg}(Q)$.
4. If $\Gamma$ is not even, then $D=\pi^{-1}(E)$ is an irreducible curve, $\pi_{\mid D}: D \rightarrow E$ is a double cover and $D^{2}=2 E^{2} . D$ is singular at those points $q \in E$ where $\Gamma(q) \geq 2$; locally near $p=\pi^{-1}(q)$ the curve $D$ has the analytic equation $z^{2}=x^{n}$, where $n=\Gamma(q)$.

Proof. One can check locally the properties of $\pi$. If $C$ is not contained in $B$, then $\pi_{\mid \pi^{-1}(C)}: \pi^{-1}(C) \rightarrow C$ is a double cover branched along $B_{\mid C}$ and it is surely reducible if $B_{\mid C}=2 Q$ for some divisor $Q \neq 0$ on $C$. Since $\pi$ has degree 2, we see that intersections double after applying $\pi^{*}$, i.e., for any divisors $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ in $Y$, $\left(\pi^{*} C_{1} \cdot \pi^{*} C_{2}\right)_{X}=2\left(C_{1} \cdot C_{2}\right)_{Y}$, where $(\cdot)_{X}$ (resp. $\left.(\cdot)_{Y}\right)$ is the intersection form
in $X$ (resp. $Y$ ). So all the claims about $D^{2}$ are trivial. Regarding again point 3, note that an unramified double cover of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ is reducible, by Hurwitz formula (or the simply-connectedness of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$ ).

In the assumption of Lemma 3.1, $B$ is an even divisor and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi_{*} \mathcal{O}_{X} \cong \mathcal{O}_{Y} \oplus \mathcal{O}_{Y}(-B / 2) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

while Riemann-Hurwitz Formula is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{X}=\pi^{*}\left(K_{Y} \otimes \mathcal{O}_{Y}(B / 2)\right) \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

(see 4. Lemmas 17.1 and 17.2]). If $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ is a double cover with $X$ normal but not smooth, one can still define the canonical divisor $K_{X}$ and the same formula (3.3) holds. For a normal surface $X$ the canonical divisor $K_{X}$ is defined as the Weil divisor class $\operatorname{div}(s)$, where $s$ is a rational canonical differential. Since Weil divisors on a normal scheme do not depend on closed subsets of codim $\geq 2$, one can easily verify that (3.3) holds by considering the smooth double cover $\pi_{\mid X_{s m}}: X_{s m} \rightarrow Y \backslash \operatorname{Sing}(B)$, where $X_{s m}=X \backslash \pi^{-1}(\operatorname{Sing}(B))$.

## 4 Resolving a singular double cover

Suppose that the branch curve $B_{0}$ of $\pi_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ is not smooth at the point $q_{1}$, thus $p=\pi_{0}^{-1}\left(q_{1}\right)$ is a double point singularity of $X_{0}$.

Let us define $\mu_{1}=\operatorname{mult}_{q_{1}}(B)=2 k+\varepsilon_{1}$, with $\varepsilon_{1} \in\{0,1\}$. In order to get a resolution of the singularity $p \in X_{0}$, we begin with resolving the branch locus $B_{0}$ of $\pi_{0}$. Let $\sigma: Y_{1} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ be the blowing-up at $q_{1} \in Y_{0}$, with exceptional curve $E_{1}$, and let $\tilde{B}_{1}$ be the proper transform of $B_{0}$ in $Y_{1}$.

Lemma 4.1 Let $X_{1}$ be the double cover of $Y_{1}$ branched along $\tilde{B}_{1}+\varepsilon_{1} E_{1}$. Then $X_{1}$ is the normalization of the pullback $X_{0} \times_{Y_{0}} Y_{1}$, and as such is both a double cover of $Y_{0}$ and dominates the singular surface $X_{0}$.

Proof. The pullback $X_{0} \times_{Y_{0}} Y_{1}$, is a double cover of $Y_{1}$ (using the second projection) branched along the pullback of $B_{0}$, which is $\pi^{*}\left(B_{0}\right)=\mu_{1} E_{1}+\tilde{B}_{1}$ (in fact it is defined by $z^{2}=f(x, y)$ also). However in the local coordinates $(u, v)$ of $Y_{1}$, where $x=u$ and $y=u v$, we have that $f(x, y)=f(u, u v)=u^{\mu_{1}} g(u, v)$ where $g(u, v)$ is a function whose series expansion is not divisible by $u$, and defines the proper transform $\tilde{B}_{1}$ of $B_{0}$. Then the pullback is defined by $z^{2}=u^{\mu_{1}} g(u, v)$, and is not normal if $\mu_{1} \geq 2$; if $\mu_{1}=2 k+\varepsilon_{1}$ with $\varepsilon \in\{0,1\}$, then $w=z / u^{k}$ satisfies the monic equation $w^{2}=u^{\varepsilon_{1}} g(u, v)$. The normalization $X_{1}$ of the pullback is defined by this monic equation, and is clearly a double cover of $Y_{1}$ branched along $\tilde{B}_{1}+\varepsilon_{1} E_{1}$.

This normal surface $X_{1}$ dominates $X_{0}$, via the first projection, and gives a partial resolution of the double point singularity. We have passed to the double cover $X_{1} \rightarrow Y_{1}$, and may iterate the procedure, continuing to blow up the branch curve at each of its singular points, then normalizing the double cover equation. It is already known that this process eventually terminates in a smooth double
cover $X_{n} \rightarrow Y_{n}$ that is called the canonical resolution of $X_{0}$ (see Theorem 7.4). Lemma 4.1 says that the series of double covers are determined by the parities of the multiplicities of the singular points involved. If the multiplicity is even, then the exceptional curve is not part of the new branch locus, only the proper transform; if the multiplicity is odd, then the exceptional curve is part of the new branch locus. This is all well-known, see for example [ $\mathbb{Z}$. We note that the multiplicity $\mu_{1}$ may be determined on $Y_{1}$ by $\mu_{1}=\tilde{B}_{1} \cdot E$.

## 5 Blowing up a smooth surface

Let us consider a sequence of blowing-ups of a smooth surface $Y_{0}$, each one at a single point. We fix a particular order for the blowing-ups, and let $Y_{i}$ be the surface obtained after the $i$-th blowing-up $\sigma_{i}: Y_{i} \rightarrow Y_{i-1}$ at a point $q_{i} \in Y_{i-1}$. Let $\sigma_{i j}$ be the composition of the blowing-up maps from $Y_{j}$ to $Y_{i}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma_{i j}=\sigma_{j} \circ \cdots \circ \sigma_{i+2} \circ \sigma_{i+1}: Y_{j} \rightarrow Y_{i} \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $0 \leq i<j \leq n$, where $n$ is the total number of blowing-ups. Set $\sigma=$ $\sigma_{0 n}: Y_{n} \rightarrow Y_{0}, Y=Y_{n}$ and $(\cdot)_{i}$, resp. (•), the intersection form in $Y_{i}$, resp. in $Y_{n}$. The exceptional curve $E_{i}=\sigma_{i}^{-1}\left(q_{i}\right)$ in $Y_{i}$ satisfies $\left(E_{i} \cdot E_{i}\right)_{i}=-1$ and $\left(E_{i} \cdot \sigma_{i}^{*}(C)\right)_{i}=0$ for any divisor $C$ of $Y_{i-1}$. We will abuse notation and refer to the proper transform of $E_{i}$ on $Y_{j \geq i}$ also as $E_{i}$, so $E_{1}, \ldots, E_{n}$ are the exceptional curves for $\sigma$. Let $E_{i}^{*}=\sigma_{i n}^{*}\left(E_{i}\right)$ be the total transform of $E_{i}$ in $Y_{n}$ via $\sigma_{i n}$.

It is well-known that the relative $\operatorname{Picard} \operatorname{group} \operatorname{Pic}\left(Y_{n}\right) / \sigma^{*} \operatorname{Pic}(Y)$ is freely generated by the classes $\left\{E_{i}\right\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$, as well as by $\left\{E_{j}^{*}\right\}_{1 \leq j \leq n}$, and the latter ones are an orthonormal basis in the sense that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(E_{i}^{*} \cdot E_{j}^{*}\right)=-\delta_{i j}, \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\delta$ is the Kronecker delta. Therefore we may write:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} n_{i j} E_{j}^{*}, \quad E_{j}^{*}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} m_{j k} E_{k} \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the matrix $M=\left(m_{j k}\right)$ is the inverse of $N=\left(n_{i j}\right)$. Let $Q=\left(q_{i j}\right)$ be the strictly upper triangular matrix defined by $q_{i j}=1$ if $q_{j}$ lies on $E_{i}$ and $q_{i j}=0$ otherwise. Following the classical terminology, we say that the point $q_{j}$ is proximate to $q_{i}$, and we write $q_{j} \rightarrow q_{i}$, if and only if $q_{i j}=1$.

Lemma 5.4 Let $I$ be the identity matrix. Then $M=I+Q+\cdots+Q^{n-1}$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
N=I-Q \tag{5.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. The first formula follows from (5.5), because $Q^{m}=0$ for $m \geq n$. We prove (5.5) by induction on $n$. For $n=1$, it is clear. If (5.5) holds for $n-1$, then the proper transform of $E_{i}$ in $Y_{n-1}$ is $\sigma_{i, n-1}^{*}\left(E_{i}\right)-\sum_{j=i+1}^{n-1} q_{i j} \sigma_{j, n-1}^{*}\left(E_{j}\right)$, so the proper transform of $E_{i}$ in $Y_{n}$ is $\sigma_{n}^{*}\left(E_{i}\right)-q_{i n} E_{n}=\sigma_{i n}^{*}\left(E_{i}\right)-\sum_{j=i+1}^{n-1} q_{i j} \sigma_{j n}^{*}\left(E_{j}\right)-$ $q_{i n} E_{n}^{*}$ and we conclude comparing with the first formula in (5.3).

More explicitly, $M$ can be computed inductively from $Q$ as follows. Suppose that the first $n-1$ columns of $M$ are known. If $q_{i n}$ is the unique non-zero entry of the last column of $Q$, then the last column of $M$ is equal to the $i$-th column of $M$ (apart $m_{n n}=1$ ), otherwise there is also $q_{j n}=1$ and the last column of $M$ is the sum of the $i$-th and the $j$-th column of $M$ (except $m_{n n}=1$ ). Let us consider the matrix $Q$ as the adjacency matrix of a directed graph $G$, that we call the Enriques digraph of $\sigma$ : the vertices of $G$ are the points $q_{i}$, for $i=1, \ldots, n$, and there is an arrow from $q_{j}$ to $q_{i}$ if and only if $q_{i j}=1$ (i.e. $q_{j}$ is proximate to $q_{i}$ ).

Remark 5.6 The properties of $Q$ imply that an Enriques digraph is characterized by the following four properties (see [5, §5], [15, pp. 213-214]):
i) there is no directed cycle;
ii) every vertex has out-degree at most 2;
iii) if $q_{i} \rightarrow q_{j}$ and $q_{i} \rightarrow q_{k}$, with $j \neq k$, then either $q_{j} \rightarrow q_{k}$ or $q_{k} \rightarrow q_{j}$;
iv) there is at most one $q_{i}$ with $q_{i} \rightarrow q_{j}$ and $q_{i} \rightarrow q_{k}$, if $j \neq k$.

Note that the in-degree of $q_{i}$ (the number of arrows ending in $q_{i}$ ) is $-E_{i}^{2}-1$.
Since we need only to resolve an isolated singularity at $q_{1}$, we assume to blow up only points lying on the total exceptional divisor, i.e., we assume that $q_{i} \in \sigma_{1, i-1}^{-1}\left(q_{1}\right)$, for every $i>1$. This means that only the first column $Q_{1}$ of $Q$ is everywhere zero, so the Enriques digraph is connected. Recall that a point $q_{j}$ is called infinitely near to $q_{i}$, and we write $q_{j}>q_{i}$, if $q_{j} \in \sigma_{i, j-1}^{-1}\left(q_{i}\right)$. Thus each $q_{i}$ is infinitely near to $q_{1}$. Let us define the infinitesimal order inductively. If $q_{j}>q_{i}$ and there is no $q_{k}$ such that $q_{j}>q_{k}>q_{i}$, then $q_{j}$ is infinitely near of order one to $q_{i}$ and we write $q_{j}>^{1} q_{i}$. If $q_{j}>^{1} q_{k}>q_{i}$, then by induction $q_{k}>^{m} q_{i}$ for some $m$ and we set $q_{j}>^{m+1} q_{i}$.

Usually, the main combinatorial tool used for blowing-ups is the dual graph of the exceptional curves and their self-intersection numbers, that are the entries of the intersection matrix $S=\left(s_{i j}\right)$, where $s_{i j}=\left(E_{i} \cdot E_{j}\right)$.

Lemma 5.7 The configuration of the exceptional curves $E_{i}$ of $\sigma$ may be given by only one of the following matrices: $M, N, Q$, or $S$. Indeed anyone of them determines canonically all the others.

Proof. Recall that $N=M^{-1}=I-Q$. Formulas (5.3) and (5.2) imply that:

$$
s_{i j}=\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} n_{i k} E_{k}^{*} \cdot \sum_{h=1}^{n} n_{j h} E_{h}^{*}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{h=1}^{n} n_{i k} n_{j k}\left(E_{k}^{*} \cdot E_{h}^{*}\right)=-\sum_{k=1}^{n} n_{i k} n_{j k},
$$

so $S=-N N^{T}=N(-I) N^{T}$, that is the decomposition of $S$ in an unipotent upper triangular, a diagonal and an unipotent lower triangular matrix. Such a decomposition is known to be unique by linear algebra.

## 6 The proper transform of the singular curve

We now consider a reduced curve $B_{0}$ on $Y_{0}$ with a singular point at the point $q_{1} \in Y_{0}$ which is being blown up. Let us denote with $\tilde{B}_{i}$ the proper transform of
$B_{0}$ in $Y_{i}$ via the sequence of blowing-ups $\sigma_{0 i}$, for every $i=1, \ldots, n$. Recall that the following formula holds in Pic $Y_{n}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma^{*}\left(B_{0}\right)=\tilde{B}_{n}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{\alpha}_{i} E_{i}^{*}, \quad \text { where } \tilde{\alpha}_{i}=\operatorname{mult}_{q_{i}}\left(\tilde{B}_{i-1}\right) \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Abusing language a little, usually $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ is called the multiplicity of $B_{0}$ at $q_{i}$. Note that $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ may be determined also in $Y_{i}$ by $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}=\left(\tilde{B}_{i} \cdot E_{i}\right)_{i}$.

On the other hand, in $\operatorname{Pic} Y_{n}$ we may write also:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma^{*}\left(B_{0}\right)=\tilde{B}_{n}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{\beta}_{i} E_{i} \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some non-negative integers $\tilde{\beta}_{i}$. Putting the second formula of (5.3) in (6.1) we find that the $\tilde{\beta}_{i}$ 's can be computed from the $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ 's as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\beta}_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \tilde{\alpha}_{j} m_{j i}, \quad \text { or shortly } \quad \tilde{\beta}=\tilde{\alpha} M \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tilde{\alpha}$ and $\tilde{\beta}$ are row vectors with the obvious entries.
The quantities $\tilde{\alpha}$ and $\tilde{\beta}$ may also be determined on $Y_{n}$ knowing how $\tilde{B}_{n}$ intersects the exceptional curves $E_{i}$. Indeed, intersecting (6.2) with $E_{i}$ gives $0=\tilde{B}_{n} \cdot E_{i}+\sum_{j=1}^{n} \tilde{\beta}_{j} E_{i} \cdot E_{j}$ that is, setting $\tilde{\gamma}_{j}=\left(\tilde{B}_{n} \cdot E_{j}\right)$ and $\tilde{\gamma}$ the corresponding row vector:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\gamma}=-\tilde{\beta} S=\tilde{\beta} N N^{T}=\tilde{\alpha} N^{T}, \quad \text { so } \quad \tilde{\alpha}=\tilde{\gamma} M^{T} \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $\tilde{B}_{n}$ satisfies $\left(\tilde{B}_{n} \cdot E_{i}\right) \geq 0$ for every $i$, which is equivalent by (6.1), (5.3), (5.5) and (5.2) to the so-called proximity inequality at $q_{i}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\alpha}_{i} \geq \sum_{j=1}^{n} q_{i j} \tilde{\alpha}_{j}=\sum_{j: q_{j} \rightarrow q_{i}} \tilde{\alpha}_{j} \tag{6.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that $B_{0}$ has only an isolated singularity in $q_{1}$ and that $\sigma: Y_{n} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ resolves the singularities of $B_{0}$, i.e., the proper transform $\tilde{B}_{n}$ is smooth. Then the topological type of the singularity of $B_{0}$ at $q_{1}$ is completely determined by the matrix $M$, which carries the configuration of the exceptional curves $E_{i}$ for $\sigma$, and the intersection divisor $\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}=\tilde{B}_{n \mid E_{i}}$, which says how $\tilde{B}_{n}$ meets $E_{i}$, for every $i=1, \ldots, n$. Each $\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}$ is a non-negative divisor on $E_{i}$ and if $q$ is a point of intersection of two exceptional curves $E_{i}$ and $E_{j}$, then:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}(q)=0 \Longleftrightarrow \tilde{\Gamma}_{j}(q)=0 \tag{6.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover if these numbers are non-zero, then at least one number is equal to one. Condition (6.6) says that either $\tilde{B}_{n}$ passes through $q$ or not, while the latter statement that $\bar{B}_{n}$ cannot be tangent in $q$ to both exceptional curves simultaneously. These divisors $\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}$ express the combinatorial information of the singularity of the
branch curve completely. Given the configuration of the exceptional curves, they can be arbitrary, subject to the above condition.

We remark that the knowledge of $M$ and of the degrees $\tilde{\gamma}_{i}=\operatorname{deg}\left(\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}\right)$ is equivalent to the knowledge of $Q$ and the multiplicities $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ of $B_{0}$ at $q_{i}$, by (6.4).

Therefore we will define the weighted Enriques digraph of $q_{1} \in B_{0}$ by attaching to each vertex $q_{i}$ of the Enriques digraph the weight $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}=\operatorname{mult}_{q_{i}}\left(\tilde{B}_{i-1}\right)$.

Example 6.7 Let $B_{0} \subset Y_{0}$ be defined locally near the origin $q_{1}=(0,0)$ by:

$$
x\left(y^{2}-x\right)\left(y^{2}+x\right)\left(y^{2}-x^{3}\right)\left(y^{2}+x^{3}\right)=0
$$

Clearly $B_{0}$ has multiplicity $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}=7$ at $q_{1}$. Blow up $q_{1}: \tilde{B}_{1} \subset Y_{1}$ has two singular points $q_{2}$ and $q_{3}$ on $E_{1}$ of multiplicity $\tilde{\alpha}_{2}=3$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_{3}=2\left(q_{2}\right.$ and $q_{3}$ are infinitely near points of order one to $q_{1}$ ). Then blow up $q_{2}$ and $q_{3} . \tilde{B}_{2} \subset Y_{2}$ meets transversally $E_{2}$ and it is smooth at those points, but $\tilde{B}_{3} \subset Y_{3}$ has in $q_{4}=E_{1} \cap E_{3}$ a point of multiplicity $\tilde{\alpha}_{4}=2$, so $q_{4}$ is proximate to both $q_{3}$ and $q_{1}$, but $q_{4}$ is infinitely near of order 2 to $q_{1}$. Classically, $q_{4}$ is called a satellite point to $q_{1}$. Finally $\tilde{B}_{4} \subset Y_{4}$ is smooth.

The configuration of the exceptional curves is determined by anyone of the following matrices:

$$
Q=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad M=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad S=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
-4 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -2 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

and the combinatorial data of $\tilde{B}_{4}$ by anyone of the following vectors:

$$
\tilde{\alpha}=(7,3,2,2), \quad \tilde{\beta}=(7,10,9,18), \quad \tilde{\gamma}=(0,3,0,2)
$$

that we encode in the following weighted Enriques digraph:


## 7 Resolving the branch locus of a double cover

We return to consider a normal double cover $\pi_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ branched along the singular reduced curve $B_{0}$. We desingularize $B_{0}$ by successive blowing-ups as in the previous sections. We have seen that $\sigma$ induces a normal double cover $\pi_{n}: X_{n} \rightarrow Y_{n}$, which is the normalization of the pullback $X_{0} \times_{Y_{0}} Y_{n}$. As in Lemma 4.1, $\pi_{n}$ is branched along a reduced curve $B_{n}$, obtained from $\sigma^{*}\left(B_{0}\right)$ by removing the multiple components an even number of times. Hence $B_{n}$ is made of the proper transform $\tilde{B}_{n}$ of $B_{0}$ and possibly of some exceptional curves $E_{i}$. We set $\varepsilon_{i}$ equal to one or zero, depending on whether $E_{i}$ is part of the branch
locus of $Y_{n}$ or not (and we say that $E_{i}$ is branched, resp. unbranched). Setting $\varepsilon$ the corresponding row vector, by (6.2) and (6.3) we have that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon=\tilde{\beta} \bmod 2 \quad \text { and } \quad \varepsilon=\tilde{\alpha} M \bmod 2 \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that the branchedness of $E_{i}$ is determined at the moment $E_{i}$ is created on $Y_{i}$ by blowing up the point $q_{i} \in Y_{i-1}$. Indeed, Lemma 4.1 says that $\varepsilon_{i}=1$ (resp. $\varepsilon_{i}=0$ ) if the multiplicity $\mu_{i}$ at $q_{i}$ of the branch locus $B_{i-1}$ of $\pi_{i-1}$ : $X_{i-1} \rightarrow Y_{i-1}$ is odd (resp. even). Shortly:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon=\mu \bmod 2 \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assuming inductively to know $\varepsilon_{j}$ for $j<i$, the multiplicity of $B_{i-1}$ at $q_{i}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu_{i}=\tilde{\alpha}_{i}+\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \varepsilon_{i} q_{j i}=\tilde{\alpha}_{i}+\sum_{j: q_{i} \rightarrow q_{j}} \varepsilon_{j}, \quad \text { or shortly } \quad \mu=\tilde{\alpha}+\varepsilon Q \tag{7.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we have blown up to make the proper transform $\tilde{B}_{n}$ smooth, we still may not have the total branch locus $B_{n}$ smooth. Singularities of the total branch locus now come from two sources: intersections of $\tilde{B}_{n}$ with branched $E_{i}$ 's, and intersections between two different branched $E_{i}$ 's. We first take up the former case. Suppose that $\tilde{B}_{n}$ meets the exceptional configuration $\bigcup_{i} E_{i}$ at a point $q_{n+1}$. We blow up $q_{n+1}$ to create a new surface $Y_{n+1}$, a new proper transform $\tilde{B}_{n+1}$, and a new exceptional curve $E_{n+1}$. Since $\tilde{B}_{n}$ is smooth at $q_{n+1}$, we have $\left(\tilde{B}_{n+1} \cdot E_{n+1}\right)_{n+1}=1$. We now have new intersection divisors $\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}^{\prime}$ for each $i=1, \ldots, n+1$. These are related to the previous intersection divisors $\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}$ 's for $i=1, \ldots, n+1$ as follows:

$$
\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}^{\prime}= \begin{cases}\tilde{\Gamma}_{i} & \text { if } q_{n+1} \notin E_{i} \\ \tilde{\Gamma}_{i}-q_{n+1} & \text { if } q_{n+1} \in E_{i}\end{cases}
$$

for every $i=1, \ldots, n$ and $\tilde{\Gamma}_{n+1}^{\prime}=q$, where $q$ is the point of intersection of $\tilde{B}_{n+1}$ with $E_{n+1}$. We may now iterate this construction, and arrive at the situation (increasing the number of blowing-ups $n$ ) that the proper transform $\tilde{B}_{n}$ does not meet any branched exceptional curves, i.e., the new exceptional divisors $\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}^{\prime}$ are zero for each $i$ such that $\varepsilon_{i}=1$. Finally if any two exceptional curves now meet, we simply blow up the point of intersection once, and obtain an unbranched exceptional curve which now separates the two branched exceptional curves.

At this point we have a nonsingular total branch locus, hence a smooth double cover. We note that we still have the matrices $M, N, Q, S$ for the current configuration of exceptional curves and the numbers $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}, \tilde{\beta}_{i}, \tilde{\gamma}_{i}$ and $\varepsilon_{i}$, defined for each $i$, as before. All the above process gives a proof of the following theorem (cf. [4, III.§6], 19, Theorem 3.1]):

Theorem 7.4 (The canonical resolution) Let $\pi_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ be a double cover with $X_{0}$ normal and $Y_{0}$ smooth. Then there exists a birational morphism
$\sigma: Y \rightarrow Y_{0}$ such that the normalization $X$ of the pullback $X_{0} \times_{Y_{0}} Y$ is smooth. Moreover $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ is a double cover and the diagram

commutes. So $\tau: X \rightarrow X_{0}$ is a resolution of singularities of $X_{0}$.
We say that $\tau: X \rightarrow X_{0}$ (toghether with the double cover map $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ ) is the canonical resolution of the double cover $\pi_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow Y_{0}$, because $X$ and $Y$ are unique, up to isomorphism, assuming that the centers of the blowing-ups $\sigma_{i}: Y_{i} \rightarrow Y_{i-1}$, which factorizes $\sigma$, are always singular points of the branch curve of $X_{i-1} \rightarrow Y_{i-1}$. We will see in section 10 that the canonical resolution might not be minimal. However, we may think the canonical resolution as the "minimal" resolution in the category of double covers over smooth surfaces.

## 8 The branch curve of the canonical resolution

As in the previous section, let $\tau: X \rightarrow X_{0}$ be the canonical resolution of $X_{0}$ and $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ be the smooth double cover. Let us write $B$ for the branch curve of $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ and suppose that $\sigma: Y \rightarrow Y_{0}$ factorizes in $n$ blowing-ups $\sigma_{i}: Y_{i} \rightarrow Y_{i-1}$, with $Y_{n}=Y$, so the exceptional curves for $\sigma$ are $E_{1}, \ldots, E_{n}$ and all the formulas in the previous sections hold for $B_{n}=B$ and $\tilde{B}_{n}=\tilde{B}$. The branch curve $B$ can be written in $\operatorname{Pic} Y$ as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
B=\tilde{B}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \varepsilon_{i} E_{i}=\sigma^{*}\left(B_{0}\right)-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} E_{i}=\sigma^{*}\left(B_{0}\right)-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} E_{i}^{*} \tag{8.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some non negative integers $\beta_{i}$ and $\alpha_{i}$. Comparing (8.1) with (6.2), (6.1) and (5.3) we see that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta=\tilde{\beta}-\varepsilon \quad \text { and } \quad \alpha=\tilde{\alpha}+\varepsilon N=\tilde{\alpha}+\varepsilon(Q-I) \tag{8.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, from formulas (8.2), (6.3) and (7.3) we find that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\mu-\varepsilon \quad \text { and } \quad \alpha=\beta N . \tag{8.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (8.2) and (7.1), (8.3) and (7.2) it follows that the $\beta_{i}$ 's and the $\alpha_{i}$ 's are all even. From (7.3) and (8.2) it is clear that $\alpha=\mu=\tilde{\alpha}$ if and only if $\varepsilon=0$, that happens if $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ is even for every $i=1, \ldots, n$, i.e. if $B_{0}$ has even multiplicity at each singular point, including the infinitely near ones.

In order to measure how the branch curve $B$ of the canonical resolution meets the exceptional curves, let us introduce the following intersection divisors:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma_{i}=B_{\mid E_{i}}=\tilde{B}_{\mid E_{i}}+\sum_{j: \varepsilon_{j}=1} E_{j \mid E_{i}} \tag{8.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

and set $\gamma_{i}=\operatorname{deg}\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$. By definition $\Gamma_{i}=0$ if $E_{i}$ is branched. However, $\Gamma_{i}$ could be zero even if $\varepsilon_{i}=0$. We claim that the $\Gamma_{i}$ 's have the following properties:

1. $\Gamma_{i}$ is a non-negative divisor and $\gamma_{i}$ is even;
2. if $q=E_{i} \cap E_{j}$ and $\varepsilon_{i}=\varepsilon_{j}=0$, then $\Gamma_{i}(q)=0$ if and only if $\Gamma_{j}(q)=0$. If these numbers are non-zero, then at least one of them is equal to 1 .
3. if $q=E_{i} \cap E_{j}, \varepsilon_{i}=1$ and $\varepsilon_{j}=0$, then $\Gamma_{j}(q)=1$.

It suffices to show that $\gamma_{i}$ is even, since all the other properties of $\Gamma_{i}$ are induced by those of $\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}$, which we have already seen in section 6 . If $E_{i}$ is branched, then $\gamma_{i}=0$ and the thesis is trivial. Otherwise, if $E_{i}$ is unbranched, then:

$$
\gamma_{i}=\tilde{\gamma}_{i}+\sum_{j \neq i} \varepsilon_{j}\left(E_{i} \cdot E_{j}\right) \equiv \tilde{\gamma}_{i}+\sum_{j=1}^{n} \tilde{\beta}_{j} s_{i j} \bmod 2
$$

hence $\gamma \equiv \tilde{\gamma}+\tilde{\beta} S \bmod 2$ and the claim follows from $\tilde{\gamma}=-\tilde{\beta} S($ see (6.4) $)$.
In order to encode the combinatorial data of the double point singularity $p=\pi_{0}^{-1}\left(q_{1}\right) \in X_{0}$, we define the weighted Enriques digraph of $p$ by attaching to each vertex $q_{i}$ of the Enriques digraph of $q_{1} \in B_{0}$ the weight $\mu_{i}=\operatorname{mult}_{q_{i}}\left(B_{i-1}\right)$.

In the next example we will illustrate in detail how the canonical resolution process goes on.

Example 8.5 Let $B_{0}$ be a curve defined locally near the origin $q_{1}=(0,0)$ by:

$$
y\left(y^{2}-x^{3}\right)=0
$$

Clearly, we need just two blowing-ups to smooth the proper transform $\tilde{B}_{2}$ of $B_{0}$. However, we have to blow up 5 more times in order to get a smooth double cover. In fact $E_{1}, E_{2}$ are branched and $\tilde{B}_{2}$ passes through $q_{3}=E_{1} \cap E_{2}$ and meets $E_{2}$ also in another point $q_{4}$. Thus $B_{2}=\tilde{B}_{2}+E_{1}+E_{2}$ has multiplicity $\mu_{3}=3$ at $q_{3}$, hence $\varepsilon_{3}=1$ and $\tilde{B}_{3}$ meets $E_{3}$ in a point $q_{5}$. Now $B_{3}$ has only nodes in $q_{4}, q_{5}, q_{6}=E_{1} \cap E_{3}$ and $q_{7}=E_{2} \cap E_{3}$, therefore $E_{4}, \ldots, E_{7}$ are unbranched and $B_{7}$ is smooth. Our combinatorial data are:

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 3 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \begin{aligned}
& \tilde{\alpha}=(3,2,1,0,0,1,1) \\
& \tilde{\gamma}=(0,0,0,1,1,0,0), \\
& \mu=(3,3,3,2,2,2,2), \\
& \varepsilon=(1,1,1,0,0,0,0), \\
& \alpha=(2,2,2,2,2,2,2), \\
& \gamma=(0,0,0,2,2,2,2),
\end{aligned}
$$

that we encode in the Enriques digraph, weighted with the $\mu_{i}$ 's (see the righthand side graph of Figure 11). For the readers' convenience, we inserted in Figure 1 (on the left-hand side) also the Enriques digraph weighted with the $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ 's and labelled with the $q_{i}$ 's.

Figure 11 may help to understand formula (7.3), namely how to compute inductively the $\mu_{i}$ 's (thus the $\varepsilon_{i}$ 's) from the $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ 's. Start from $q_{1}$ : the weight of $q_{1}$ is 3 , thus $\mu_{1}=3, \varepsilon_{1}=1$ and add 1 to all the weights attached to vertices with arrows ending in $q_{1}$ (namely $q_{2}, q_{3}$ and $q_{6}$ ). Now consider $q_{2}$ : the actual weight of $q_{2}$ is 3 , hence $\mu_{2}=3, \varepsilon_{2}=1$ and add 1 to the weights of $q_{3}, q_{4}$ and $q_{7}$, which are the vertices with arrows ending in $q_{2}$. Then go on inductively, for all the $q_{i}$ 's. Clearly, no change of weights is made at step $i$ if $\varepsilon_{i}=0$.


Figure 1: The Enriques digraph weighted resp. with the $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ 's and the $\mu_{i}$ 's

## 9 The description of the canonical resolution

The description of the canonical resolution of the singularity on $X_{0}$ is now a combinatorial problem, using the information of the configuration of the exceptional curves $E_{i}$ (described by the matrix $M$ or the Enriques digraph) and the divisors $\tilde{\Gamma}_{i}$ (subject to the conditions stated in section (6).

We then can compute the quantities $\tilde{\gamma}, \tilde{\alpha}, \mu, \varepsilon$, and determine (from $\varepsilon$ ) which of the $E_{i}$ 's are branched curves, and finally determine the divisors $\Gamma_{i}$.

We now apply Lemma 3.1 for each exceptional curve. If $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ is the double cover map, let us define $F_{i}=\pi^{-1}\left(E_{i}\right)$ for each $i$, thus $F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}$ are all the exceptional curves for the canonical resolution $\tau: X \rightarrow X_{0}$.

Remark 9.1 $A$ curve $F_{i}$ is reducible if and only if $\varepsilon_{i}=0$ and $\Gamma_{i}=B_{\mid E_{i}}$ is an even divisor. In that case, $F_{i}$ splits in two smooth rational curves $F_{i}^{\prime}$ and $F_{i}^{\prime \prime}$, with $F_{i}^{\prime} \cdot F_{i}^{\prime \prime}=\gamma_{i} / 2$ and $F_{i}^{\prime 2}=F_{i}^{\prime \prime 2}=E_{i}^{2}-\gamma_{i} / 2$.

If $\varepsilon_{i}=0$, then $\pi^{*}\left(E_{i}\right)=F_{i}$, otherwise, if $\varepsilon_{i}=1$, then $\pi^{*}\left(E_{i}\right)=2 F_{i}$, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi^{*}\left(E_{i}\right)=\left(1+\varepsilon_{i}\right) F_{i} \tag{9.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover since intersections double after applying $\pi^{*}$ we have that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{i}^{2}=\frac{2}{\left(1+\varepsilon_{i}\right)^{2}} E_{i}^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad\left(F_{i} \cdot F_{j}\right)=\left(2-\varepsilon_{i}-\varepsilon_{j}\right)\left(E_{i} \cdot E_{j}\right) \tag{9.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We claim that the arithmetic genus of $F_{i}$ is, for each $i$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{a}\left(F_{i}\right)=\frac{\gamma_{i}}{2}+\varepsilon_{i}-1 \tag{9.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\varepsilon_{i}=1$, then $F_{i}$ is a smooth rational curve, $\Gamma_{i}=0$ and the claim is trivial. If $F_{i}$ splits, (9.4) follows from Remark 9.1. Otherwise, $F_{i}$ is a double cover of $E_{i}$ branched along $\Gamma_{i}$ and (9.4) is just Hurwitz formula.

Moreover $F_{i}$ is singular at a point $P$ if and only if $\Gamma_{i}(\pi(P))>1$, thus in particular $F_{i}$ is smooth at the intersection points with $F_{j}$, for each $j \neq i$.

Now we want to find an explicit formula for the canonical divisor $K_{X}$. By Riemann-Hurwitz formula (3.3) we know that $K_{X}=\pi^{*}\left(K_{Y}+B / 2\right)$, where $K_{Y}=\sigma^{*}\left(K_{Y_{0}}\right)+\sum_{i} E_{i}^{*}$. Therefore by (8.1):

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{Y}+\frac{B}{2}=\sigma^{*}\left(K_{Y_{0}}+\frac{B_{0}}{2}\right)-\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{\alpha_{i}}{2}-1\right) E_{i}^{*} \tag{9.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We define $D=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\alpha_{i} / 2-1\right) E_{i}^{*}$, so:

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{X}=(\sigma \circ \pi)^{*}\left(K_{Y_{0}}+B_{0} / 2\right)-\pi^{*} D=\tau^{*} K_{X_{0}}-D^{*} \tag{9.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D^{*}=\pi^{*} D$ is called the adjunction condition divisor (cf. section 14). We remark that $D^{*} \geq 0$, because $\alpha_{i} \geq 2$ for each $i$ (since in the canonical resolution process we blow up only singular points of the branch curve).

Let us show now the explicit formula for the fiber cycle $F$ of the canonical resolution, already written without proof by Franchetta and Dixon. The fiber cycle of $\tau$ is the maximal effective divisor $F$ contained in the scheme theoretic fiber of $\tau$, i.e., the subscheme of $X$ defined by the inverse image ideal sheaf $\tau^{-1} m_{p, X_{0}}$ of the maximal ideal $m_{p, X_{0}}$ of $p$ in $X_{0}$. Therefore:

$$
F=\operatorname{gcd}\left\{\operatorname{div}(g) \mid \text { for all } g \in \tau^{-1} m_{p, X_{0}}\right\}
$$

For example, the fiber cycle of the sequence $\sigma: Y \rightarrow Y_{0}$ of blowing-ups is $E_{1}^{*}$.
Theorem 9.7 (Franchetta) The fiber cycle of the canonical resolution is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
F=\pi^{*}\left(E_{1}^{*}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{1 i}\left(1+\varepsilon_{i}\right) F_{i} \tag{9.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. The second equality in (9.8) follows from (9.2) and from the definition of $M$ (see (5.3)), so it suffices to show the first equality. Recall that locally $x, y$ are the coordinates of $Y_{0}$ near $q_{1}=(0,0), X_{0}$ is defined by $z^{2}=f(x, y)$ and $\pi_{0}$ is the projection $(x, y, z) \mapsto(x, y)$. Hence $x, y$ and $z$ are generators of the ideal sheaf $\tau^{-1} m_{p, X_{0}}$ as $\mathcal{O}_{X_{0}, p}$-module. Therefore $F$ is the greatest effective divisor contained in the pullback divisors $\tau^{*} \operatorname{div} x, \tau^{*} \operatorname{div} y$ and $\tau^{*} \operatorname{div} z$. From the commutativity of the diagram (7.5) we see that $\tau^{*} \operatorname{div} x=$ $\left(\pi_{0} \circ \tau\right)^{*} \operatorname{div} x=(\sigma \circ \pi)^{*} \operatorname{div} x$ and $\tau^{*} \operatorname{div} y=(\sigma \circ \pi)^{*} \operatorname{div} y$, thus the gcd of the divisors $\tau^{*} \operatorname{div} x$ and $\tau^{*} \operatorname{div} y$ is the pullback $\pi^{*}\left(E_{1}^{*}\right)$ of the fiber cycle $E_{1}^{*}$ of $\sigma$. Moreover $\tau^{*} \operatorname{div} z^{2}=\left(\pi_{0} \circ \tau\right)^{*} \operatorname{div} f=(\sigma \circ \pi)^{*} \operatorname{div} f$, thus the divisor $2 \tau^{*} \operatorname{div} z=\tau^{*} \operatorname{div} z^{2}$ is equal to the pullback $\pi^{*}\left(\sigma^{*} B_{0}\right)$ of the total transform $\sigma^{*} B_{0}$ which contains $E_{1}^{*}$ with multiplicity $\tilde{\alpha}_{1} \geq 2$. So $\tau^{*} \operatorname{div} z \supseteq \pi^{*}\left(E_{1}^{*}\right)$, hence $F=\pi^{*}\left(E_{1}^{*}\right)$.

The self-intersection of the fiber cycle is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
F^{2}=\pi^{*}\left(E_{1}^{*}\right) \cdot \pi^{*}\left(E_{1}^{*}\right)=2 E_{1}^{* 2}=-2=-\operatorname{mult}_{p}\left(X_{0}\right) \tag{9.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (9.8) and (9.2), the fiber cycle $F$ has the following properties:

$$
\begin{equation*}
F \cdot F_{1}=\left(2-\varepsilon_{1}\right) E_{1}^{*} \cdot E_{1}=-2+\varepsilon_{1}, \quad F \cdot F_{i}=\left(2-\varepsilon_{i}\right) E_{1}^{*} \cdot E_{i}=0 \tag{9.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $i>1$. Thus the normal sheaf $\mathcal{O}_{F_{i}}\left(F_{i}\right)$ of $F_{i}$, for $i>1$ (that can be useful if $p_{a}\left(F_{i}\right)>0$ ), is given by how $F_{i}$ meets the other components of $F$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
m_{1 i}\left(1+\varepsilon_{i}\right) F_{i \mid F_{i}}=-{F^{\hat{\imath}}{ }_{\mid F_{i}}, ~}_{\text {an }} \tag{9.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F^{\hat{\imath}}=F-m_{1 i}\left(1+\varepsilon_{i}\right) F_{i}$. Finally, by (9.6), (9.8) and (9.9), the arithmetic genus of the fiber cycle is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{a}(F)=\left(F \cdot K_{X}+F^{2}\right) / 2+1=E_{1}^{*} \cdot\left(K_{Y}+B / 2\right)=\alpha_{1} / 2-1 \tag{9.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 10 The minimal resolution

It may happen that the canonical resolution $\tau: X \rightarrow X_{0}$ of $p \in X_{0}$ is not minimal. However the following theorem (cf. 19, Th. 5.4]) shows that the canonical resolution is not too far to be minimal.

Theorem 10.1 Let $\tau: X \rightarrow X_{0}$ be the canonical resolution and $\bar{\tau}: \bar{X} \rightarrow$ $X_{0}$ the minimal one. Then $\tau=\tau^{\prime} \circ \bar{\tau}$, where $\tau^{\prime}: X \rightarrow \bar{X}$ is the blowingup at finitely many distinct points. Moreover none of these points is singular for the exceptional curves of $\bar{\tau}$ and neither lies on the intersection (necessarily transverse) of more than three of them.

The following lemma characterizes the ( -1 )-curves in $\tau^{-1}(p)$ and allows us to give an elementary proof of Theorem 10.1, easier than Laufer's original one.

Lemma 10.2 An exceptional curve $F_{j}$ for $\tau$ is a (-1)-curve if and only if $F_{j}=$ $\pi^{-1}\left(E_{j}\right)$, where $E_{j}$ is branched and $E_{j}^{2}=-2$. Moreover the $(-1)$-curves in $\tau^{-1}(p)$ are disjoint.

Proof. Let $E_{j}$ be unbranched. By Lemma 3.1, if $\Gamma_{j}=B_{\mid E_{j}}$ is not even, then $F_{j}$ cannot be a $(-1)$-curve, because $F_{j}^{2}=2 E_{j}^{2}$ would be even. If $\Gamma_{j}$ is even, then $\pi^{-1}\left(E_{j}\right)=F_{j}^{\prime}+F_{j}^{\prime \prime}$ and $F_{j}^{\prime}=F_{j}^{\prime \prime}=E_{j}^{2}-\operatorname{deg}\left(\Gamma_{j} / 2\right)$, thus $F_{j}^{\prime}$ (and $F_{j}^{\prime \prime}$ ) could be a $(-1)$-curve only if $E_{j}^{2}=-1$ and $\Gamma_{j}=0$, that means that $q_{j}$ was unnecessarily blown up. Hence we are left only with the possibility that $E_{j}$ is branched and $E_{j}^{2}=2 F_{j}^{2}=-2$. Since no branched exceptional curves meet in $Y$, neither do two ( -1 )-curves in $X$.

Remark 10.3 If $F_{j}=\pi^{-1}\left(E_{j}\right)$ is a (-1)-curve in $X$, then $\mu_{j}$ is odd and there is exactly one $q_{i}$ such that $q_{i}>^{1} q_{j}$ and $\mu_{i}=\mu_{j}+1$. Usually one says that $B_{j-1}$ has two infinitely near points of the same, odd, multiplicity $\mu_{j}$ at $q_{j}$.

Proof. Clearly $\mu_{j}$ is odd (and $>2$ ), because $\varepsilon_{j}=1$. Since $E_{j}$ is a $(-2)$-curve, we blew up only one point $q_{i}$ on $E_{j}$ : this means that all the intersections of $\tilde{B}_{j}$ with $E_{j}$ are supported on $q_{i}$, i.e. $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}=\tilde{\alpha}_{j}$, and the thesis follows from (7.3).

Let us denote by $\bar{\tau}: \bar{X} \rightarrow X_{0}$ the minimal resolution of $p \in X_{0}$.
Proof of Theorem 10.1. Let $\tau^{\prime}: X \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ be the contraction of all the ( -1 )curves in $\tau^{-1}(p)$. We claim that $\tilde{X}$ is isomorphic to $\bar{X}$ and $\tau=\tau^{\prime} \circ \bar{\tau}$, namely
there is no $(-1)$-curve in $\tau^{\prime}\left(\tau^{-1}(p)\right)$. The only way for a $(-1)$-curve to be created after blowing down a $(-1)$-curve $F_{j}=\pi^{-1}\left(E_{j}\right)$ is for a smooth rational curve $F_{k}$ of self-intersection -2 to meet the given $(-1)$-curve $F_{j}$. Since no two branched curve meet on $Y$ and $E_{j}$ is branched by Lemma 10.2, then $F_{k}$ must lie over an unbranched curve $E_{k}$ which meets $E_{j}$ at one point. Therefore $\pi^{*}\left(E_{k}\right)$ cannot split (its divisor $\Gamma_{k}$ is not even) so that $F_{k}=\pi^{*}\left(E_{k}\right)$ and $F_{k}^{2}=2 E_{k}^{2}$. So $E_{k}$ is a $(-1)$-curve on $Y$ and, since $F_{k}$ is smooth and rational, the divisor $\Gamma_{k}$ must consist of two simple points (one of which is the intersection point with $E_{j}$ ). In this case we see that $E_{k}$ and $E_{j}$ should be blown down on $Y$, so that both of these curves were unnecessarily blown up. This proves our claim. Let $F_{j}=\pi^{-1}\left(E_{j}\right)$ be a $(-1)$-curve of $X$. Let $E_{k}$ be an exceptional curve that meets $E_{j}$. Since $E_{j}$ is branched, $E_{k}$ is unbranched and their intersection is transversal, as any intersection of the $E_{i}$ 's. Hence $F_{j}$ contracts to a smooth point of $F_{k}$ (cf. Lemma 3.1). Finally, $E_{j}^{2}=-2$ implies that $E_{j}$ meets at most three exceptional curves of $\sigma$, namely one curve that corresponds to a blown up point on $E_{j}$ and the exceptional curves on which $q_{j}$ lies, that are at most two.

The previous analysis offers also an alternative route to obtaining the minimal resolution of $p \in X_{0}$ : we may first contract the branched ( -2 -curves among the $E_{i}$ 's and then take the double cover, namely the diagram

commutes, where $\sigma^{\prime}$ is the contraction of the branched $(-2)$-curves in $\sigma^{-1}\left(q_{1}\right) \subset$ $Y$ and $X$ is the fiber product $\bar{X} \times_{\bar{Y}} Y$.

Note that contracting a (-2)-curve on a smooth surface produces a singularity, namely an ordinary double point (of type $A_{1}$, see p. 24). Since the ( -2 )curves are branched for $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$, the singular points of $\bar{Y}$ must be considered as branched points for $\bar{\pi}: \bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{Y}$.

Let us denote by $\bar{F}_{i}$ (resp. $\bar{E}_{i}$ ) the image of $F_{i}$ in $\bar{X}$ (resp. of $E_{i}$ in $\bar{Y}$ ). For simplicity, suppose that we blow down only a $(-1)$-curve $F_{k}$ (the general case can be computed inductively). If $E_{k}$ meets two unbranched divisors $E_{i}$ and $E_{j}$ in $X$, then $\bar{E}_{i}$ and $\bar{E}_{j}$ meets in a branched point, hence:

$$
\bar{F}_{i} \cdot \bar{F}_{j}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=E_{j} \cdot E_{k}=1  \tag{10.4}\\ F_{i} \cdot F_{j} & \text { if } E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=0 \text { or } E_{j} \cdot E_{k}=0\end{cases}
$$

Moreover the self-intersection numbers change as follows:

$$
\bar{F}_{i}^{2}= \begin{cases}F_{i}^{2}+1 & \text { if } E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1  \tag{10.5}\\ F_{i}^{2} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

while the arithmetic genera stay unchanged. Formula (9.8) and the fact that $\tau^{\prime-1}\left(\bar{\tau}^{-1}\left(m_{p, X_{0}}\right)\right)=\tau^{-1}\left(m_{p, X_{0}}\right)$ imply that the fiber cycle of the minimal resolution $\bar{\tau}: \bar{X} \rightarrow X$ is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{F}=\sum m_{1 i}\left(1+\varepsilon_{i}\right) \bar{F}_{i} . \tag{10.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 11 The fundamental cycle

The fundamental cycle of the (canonical) resolution is the unique smallest positive cycle:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z=\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_{i} F_{i} \tag{11.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $z_{i}>0$ such that $Z \cdot F_{k} \leq 0$ for every $k=1, \ldots, n$. If $F_{i}$ splits in $F_{i}^{\prime}$ and $F_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ as in Remark 9.1, a priori we should consider in (11.1) two distinct coefficients $z_{i}^{\prime}$ and $z_{i}^{\prime \prime}$. But if $z_{i}^{\prime}$ were different from $z_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ in (11.1), then we could exchange them and take the g.c.d. of the cycles, so $z_{i}=\min \left\{z_{i}^{\prime}, z_{i}^{\prime \prime}\right\}$ would fulfill the properties of the fundamental cycle. Therefore we may and will assume $z_{i}^{\prime}=z_{i}^{\prime \prime}=z_{i}$.

In general the fundamental cycle of any resolution can be computed inductively as follows. Let $F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}$ be the exceptional curves.
(1) $\operatorname{Set} Z=\sum_{i=1}^{n} F_{i}$.
(2) Check if $Z \cdot F_{j} \leq 0$ for every $j$.
(3) If (2) is false, there exists $j$ such that $Z \cdot F_{j}>0$. Replace $Z$ with $Z+F_{j}$ and go back to (2).
(4) Otherwise, if (2) is true, $Z$ is the fundamental cycle.

In 17 Laufer used essentially the properties of the fundamental cycle in order to describe precisely the relation between the topological types of the canonical and the minimal resolution. However Laufer showed only an implicit formula for $Z$ (see Lemma 5.5 in 17 ). In the next theorem we give an explicit formula for $Z$, that turns out to be very simple and that may help to understand better the algorithms described by Laufer in 17, Theorems 5.7 and 5.10]. It is natural to compare the fiber cycle with the fundamental one. The definitions implies that $F \geq Z$. It is known that the equality holds for every resolution for special types of singularities, for example rational [2] and minimally elliptic 18, Theorem 3.13] ones. Regarding double points, Dixon showed that $Z=F$ for every resolution if $\mu_{1}=\operatorname{mult}_{q_{1}}\left(B_{0}\right)$ is even 10. Theorem 1], and that $Z=F$ for the minimal resolution if $B_{0}$ is analytically irreducible at $q_{1}$ 10, Theorem 2]. In section 12 we will classify all the double point singularities for which $F>Z$.

Theorem 11.2 The fundamental cycle $Z$ of the canonical resolution $\tau: X \rightarrow$ $X_{0}$ of $p \in X_{0}$ differs from the fiber cycle $F=\pi^{*}\left(E_{1}^{*}\right)$ if and only if there exists $j>1$ such that $\varepsilon_{j}=0, q_{j}$ is infinitely near of order one to $q_{1}$ and:

$$
\begin{equation*}
m_{1 i}+m_{j i} \text { is even for every } i \text { such that } \varepsilon_{i}=0 \tag{11.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In that case the fundamental cycle is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z=\frac{1}{2} \pi^{*}\left(E_{1}^{*}+E_{j}^{*}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2}\left(1+\varepsilon_{i}\right)\left(m_{1 i}+m_{j i}\right) F_{i} \tag{11.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We remark that condition (11.3) implies that $\varepsilon_{1}=1$, because $m_{11}=1$ and $m_{j 1}=0$, thus the multiplicity $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}=\mu_{1}$ of $B_{0}$ at $q_{1}$ is odd. Furthermore $j$ is
uniquely determined. Indeed, if $q_{i}>^{1} q_{1}($ and $i \neq j)$, then $m_{1 i}=1$ and $m_{j i}=0$, so (11.3) would imply that $\varepsilon_{i}=1$.

Proof. By (9.10), $Z \leq F$. If $Z \neq F$, we may write:

$$
\begin{equation*}
F=Z+P \tag{11.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P=\sum_{i} t_{i} F_{i}$ is a positive (non-zero) divisor. It follows from (9.9) that:

$$
-2=F^{2}=Z^{2}+P^{2}+2 Z \cdot P
$$

Since $Z>0$ and $P>0$, then $Z^{2}<0$ and $P^{2}<0$. Moreover $Z \cdot P \leq 0$ because $Z$ is the fundamental cycle, so the only possibility is:

$$
Z^{2}=P^{2}=-1, \quad Z \cdot P=0
$$

Hence $F \cdot P=-1$ and by formulas ( 9.10 ), one finds that: $-1=F \cdot P=F \cdot t_{1} F_{1}=$ $-\left(2-\varepsilon_{1}\right) t_{1}$, which forces $t_{1}=\varepsilon_{1}=1$, so $E_{1}$ must be branched and $F_{1}$ is forced to belong to $P$ with multiplicity one. Since $Z \cdot F_{k} \leq 0$ for each $k, Z^{2}=-1$ implies that there exists an unique $j$ such that:

$$
Z \cdot F_{j}=-1, \quad Z \cdot F_{k}=0 \quad \text { for every } k \neq j
$$

and $z_{j}=1$. Therefore $t_{j}=-Z \cdot P=0$, i.e., $F_{j}$ is not a component of $P$, and the coefficient of $F_{j}$ in $F$ is $\left(1+\varepsilon_{j}\right) m_{1 j}=z_{j}+t_{j}=1$, so

$$
\varepsilon_{j}=0 \quad \text { and } \quad m_{1 j}=1
$$

in particular $j \neq 1$. It follows from (11.5) that: $P \cdot F_{1}=-1, \quad P \cdot F_{j}=1$, $P \cdot F_{k}=0$ for $k \neq 1, j$. The previous three equations are equivalent to:

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(2-\varepsilon_{i}\right) t_{i} s_{i k}= \begin{cases}-2 & \text { if } k=1 \\ 1 & \text { if } k=j \\ 0 & \text { if } k \neq 1, j\end{cases}
$$

Recalling that:

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} 2 m_{1 i} s_{i k}=2\left(E_{1}^{*} \cdot E_{k}\right)= \begin{cases}-2 & \text { if } k=1 \\ 0 & \text { if } k \neq 1\end{cases}
$$

and setting $m_{1}$ and $t$ row vectors with the obvious entries, one finds that:

$$
\left((2-\varepsilon) t-2 m_{1}\right) S=e_{k}
$$

where $e_{k}$ is the row vector with the $k$-th entry equal to 1 and 0 everywhere else. Multiplying both sides with $S^{-1}$, the vector $\left((2-\varepsilon) t-2 m_{1}\right)$ is the $k$-th row of the matrix $S^{-1}$. In particular: $2 t_{j}-2 m_{1 j}=0-2=-2$ is the $(j, j)$-entry in $S^{-1}=-M^{t} M$. Therefore:

$$
-2=-\sum_{1 \leq i \leq j} m_{i j}^{2}=-m_{1 j}^{2}-m_{j j}^{2}-\sum_{1<i<j} m_{i j}^{2}=-2-\sum_{1<i<j} m_{i j}^{2}
$$

that is possible if and only if $m_{i j}=0$ for every $1<i<j$. This means that $q_{j}$ is proximate to $q_{1}$, but $q_{j} \ngtr q_{i}$ for $i \neq 1$, i.e. $q_{j}>^{1} q_{1}$. Furthermore, the $(k, j)$-entry in $S^{-1}$ is:

$$
\left(2-\varepsilon_{k}\right) t_{k}-2 m_{1 k}=-\sum_{1 \leq i \leq j} m_{i k} m_{i j}=-m_{1 k}-m_{j k}
$$

that we may rewrite as follows: $t_{k}=\frac{1}{2}\left(1+\varepsilon_{k}\right)\left(m_{1 k}-m_{j k}\right)$. Since the coefficient of $F_{k}$ in $F$ is $\left(1+\varepsilon_{k}\right) m_{1 k}=t_{k}+z_{k}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
z_{k}=\frac{1}{2}\left(1+\varepsilon_{k}\right)\left(m_{1 k}+m_{j k}\right) \tag{11.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

must be an integer, that proves (11.3) and (11.4).
Vice versa, if there exists $j$ as in the statement, we may order the blowing-ups $\sigma_{i}$ in such a way that $j=2$. It suffices to show that $Z^{\prime}=\pi^{*}\left(E_{1}^{*}+E_{2}^{*}\right) / 2$ has the property that $Z^{\prime} \cdot F_{k} \leq 0$ for every $k=1, \ldots, n$. Indeed $Z^{\prime}<F$, so the first part of the proof implies that $Z^{\prime}$ has to be the fundamental cycle. If $k>2$, then: $Z^{\prime} \cdot F_{k}=\left(1-\varepsilon_{k} / 2\right)\left(E_{1}^{*} \cdot E_{k}+E_{2}^{*} \cdot E_{k}\right)=0$. Moreover $Z^{\prime} \cdot F_{2}=E_{2}^{* 2}=-1$ and $Z^{\prime} \cdot F_{1}=E_{1}^{*} \cdot E_{1} / 2+E_{2}^{*} \cdot E_{1} / 2=0$.

If $F>Z$, the arithmetic genus of $Z$ is, by $Z^{2}=-1$, (11.4) and (9.5):

$$
\begin{align*}
p_{a}(Z) & =\frac{E_{1}^{*}+E_{j}^{*}}{2} \cdot\left(\sigma^{*}\left(K_{Y_{0}}+\frac{B_{0}}{2}\right)-\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(\frac{\alpha_{k}}{2}-1\right) E_{k}^{*}\right)+\frac{1}{2}= \\
& =\frac{\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{j}-2}{4}=\frac{\tilde{\alpha}_{1}+\tilde{\alpha}_{j}-2}{4} \tag{11.7}
\end{align*}
$$

where the last equality follows from $\alpha_{1}=\tilde{\alpha}_{1}-1$ and $\alpha_{j}=\tilde{\alpha}_{j}+1$.
Now we compute the fundamental cycle of the minimal resolution.
Lemma 11.8 Let $\bar{\tau}: \bar{X} \rightarrow X_{0}$ be the minimal resolution of $p \in X_{0}$. Then the fundamental cycle $\bar{Z}$ of $\bar{\tau}$ is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{Z}=\sum_{i} z_{i} \bar{F}_{i} \tag{11.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\bar{F}_{i}$ are the exceptional curves of $\bar{\tau}$ and $Z=\sum_{i} z_{i} F_{i}$ is the fundamental cycle of the canonical resolution.

Proof. Without any loss of generality, we may assume to blow down only a $(-1)$-curve $F_{k}=\pi^{-1}\left(E_{k}\right)$, where $E_{k}^{2}=-2$ and $\varepsilon_{k}=1$. Recall that $E_{k}$ meets at least one and at most three unbranched divisors. First, we shall prove that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i \neq k} z_{i} \bar{F}_{i} \cdot \bar{F}_{j} \leq 0 \tag{11.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $j \neq k$. For this purpose, we claim that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
z_{k}=\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1} z_{i} \tag{11.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that $E_{k}$ meets three unbranched divisors, i.e., $q_{k}=E_{k_{1}} \cap E_{k_{2}}$ and we blew up a point $q_{k_{3}}$ lying on $E_{k}$, with $\varepsilon_{k_{i}}=0$ for $i=1,2,3$. Then $m_{1 k}=m_{1 k_{3}}=$ $m_{1 k_{1}}+m_{1 k_{2}}$, so:

$$
2 m_{1 k}=\left(1+\varepsilon_{k}\right) m_{1 k}=\sum_{i=1}^{3}\left(1+\varepsilon_{k_{i}}\right) m_{1 k_{i}}=m_{1 k_{1}}+m_{1 k_{2}}+m_{1 k_{3}}
$$

which proves (11.11) if $Z=F$, by (9.8). Similarly, $2 m_{2 k}=m_{2 k_{1}}+m_{2 k_{2}}+$ $m_{2 k_{3}}$ and (11.11) holds even if $Z<F$, by (11.6). If $E_{k}$ meets only one or two unbranched divisors, there are four possible configurations and the proof of (11.11) is analogous.

Clearly (11.10) holds if $E_{j} \cdot E_{k}=0$. Otherwise if $E_{j} \cdot E_{k}=1$, by (10.4), (10.5) and the fact that if $E_{j} \cdot E_{k}=E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1$ then $F_{i} \cdot F_{j}=0$, formula (11.11) implies that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i \neq k} z_{i} \bar{F}_{i} \cdot \bar{F}_{j} & =\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1} z_{i} \bar{F}_{i} \cdot \bar{F}_{j}+\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=0} z_{i} F_{i} \cdot F_{j}= \\
& =\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1} z_{i}+\sum_{i \neq k} z_{i} F_{i} \cdot F_{j}=z_{k}+\sum_{i \neq k} z_{i} F_{i} \cdot F_{j}=Z \cdot F_{j} \leq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

which proves $(11.10)$. Let $\bar{Z}=\sum_{i \neq k} s_{i} \bar{F}_{i}$ be the fundamental cycle of $\bar{\tau}$. If we show that for every $j$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\sum_{i \neq k} s_{i} F_{i}+\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1} s_{i} F_{k}\right) \cdot F_{j} \leq 0 \tag{11.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $s_{i}=z_{i}$, for $i \neq k$, and (11.9) holds. Indeed if $E_{j} \cdot E_{k}=0$ then (11.12) is trivial. If $E_{j} \cdot E_{k}=1$, then the left hand side of (11.12) becomes:

$$
\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=0} s_{i} F_{i} \cdot F_{j}+\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1} s_{i} F_{i} \cdot F_{j}+\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1} s_{i} F_{k} \cdot F_{j}=\sum_{i \neq k} s_{i} \bar{F}_{i} \cdot \bar{F}_{j}=\bar{F} \cdot \bar{F}_{j} \leq 0
$$

Finally, for $j=k$, the left hand side of (11.12) is:

$$
\sum_{i \neq k} s_{i} F_{i} \cdot F_{k}+\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1} s_{i} F_{k}^{2}=\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1} s_{i} F_{i} \cdot F_{k}-\sum_{i: E_{i} \cdot E_{k}=1} s_{i}=0
$$

Corollary 11.13 Let $F, Z$ (resp. $\bar{F}, \bar{Z}$ ) be the fiber and the fundamental cycle of the canonical (resp. minimal) resolution. Then $F>Z$ and $\bar{F}=\bar{Z}$ if and only if $q_{2}$ is the unique proximate point to $q_{1}$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}=\tilde{\alpha}_{2}$ is odd. Furthermore, this happens if and only if $\bar{F}^{2}=\bar{Z}^{2}=-1$.

Proof. Suppose that $F>Z$ and $\bar{F}=\bar{Z}$. This means that $F_{1}$ is a $(-1)$-curve that we blow down, hence $E_{1}^{2}=-2$ and there is only one proximate point to $q_{1}$, that is $q_{2}$, so $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}=\tilde{\alpha}_{2}$. Moreover $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}$ is odd by Theorem 11.2. Conversely, if $E_{1}$ is branched and $E_{1}^{2}=-2$, then $F_{1}$ is a $(-1)$-curve that we blow down. Hence
$m_{2 i}=m_{1 i}$ for every $i>2$, therefore the coefficient of $F_{i}$ in $F$ is the same as the coefficient of $F_{i}$ in $Z$, for every $i>2$. The last assertion follows from the fact that if the fundamental cycle of a resolution of $p$ has self-intersection -2 , then on any resolution the fundamental cycle is equal to the fiber cycle (cf. 19, Lemma 5.2] or [10, p. 110]).

## 12 The description of the Enriques digraph

We want to describe the weighted Enriques digraph of those double point singularity for which the fundamental cycle of the canonical resolution is strictly contained in the fiber cycle. Recall that the weight of the vertex $q_{i}$ is $\mu_{i}$, i.e. the multiplicity at $q_{i}$ of the branch curve $B_{i-1}$ of $\pi_{i-1}: X_{i-1} \rightarrow Y_{i-1}$. Before going on, we need some remark about proximate points.

Let us call proximity subgraph of $q_{1}$ the subgraph of the Enriques digraph consisting only of the proximate points to $q_{1}$ (and the arrows among them).

We may order the $\sigma_{i}$ 's (the blowing-ups) in such a way that $q_{2}, \ldots, q_{n^{\prime}}$ are all the proximate points to $q_{1}$ and for every $j=1, \ldots, h$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
q_{i_{j}}>^{1} q_{i_{j}-1}>^{1} \cdots>^{1} q_{i_{j-1}+2}>^{1} q_{i_{j-1}+1}>^{1} q_{1} \tag{12.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $n^{\prime}=i_{h}>i_{h-1}>\cdots>i_{2}>i_{1}>i_{0}=1$. Thus the proximity digraph of $q_{1}$ has the shape of Figure 2, which looks like a flower with $h$ petals. We say that the $j$-th petal has length $i_{j}-i_{j-1}$.

Clearly the proximity subgraph of any point has a similar shape.


Figure 2: The proximity subgraph of $q_{1}$
Let us say that a vertex of the Enriques digraph is very odd if its weight is odd, its proximity subgraph has exactly one petal of odd length and all the other petals of even length. Now we are ready to prove the following:

Theorem 12.2 The fundamental cycle is strictly contained in the fiber cycle of the canonical resolution of $p \in X_{0}$ if and only if the weighted Enriques digraph of $q_{1}=\pi(p)$ has the following properties:

1. $q_{1}$ is a very odd vertex (in particular its weight $\mu_{1}$ is odd);
2. a proximate point $q_{i}$ to $q_{1}$, belonging to a petal of even (resp. odd) length of the proximity subgraph of $q_{1}$, is a very odd vertex if and only if $q_{i}$ is infinitely near of odd (resp. even) order to $q_{1}$;
3. inductively, 1 and 2 hold replacing $q_{1}$ with any very odd vertex.

Proof. Suppose that the fundamental cycle $Z$ is strictly contained in the fiber cycle $F$. By Theorem 11.2, $\mu_{1}$ is odd and there exists $j$ such that $\varepsilon_{j}=0, q_{j}>^{1} q_{1}$ and condition (11.3) holds. Moreover we may and will assume that $j=2$, so $\varepsilon_{2}=0$ and $\mu_{2}$ is even.

Consider the proximity subgraph of $q_{1}$ as above (cf. formula (12.1) and Figure 2). We claim that $i_{j}$ is even for every $j=1, \ldots, h$, thus $q_{1}$ is a very odd vertex.

Suppose that $i_{1}>2$, namely in the canonical resolution process we blow up $q_{3}=E_{2} \cap E_{1}$. Then $m_{13}=2$ and $m_{23}=1$, so condition (11.3) implies that $\varepsilon_{3}=1$ and $\mu_{3}$ is odd. Since $\varepsilon_{1}=\varepsilon_{3}=1$, the intersection $q_{4}=E_{3} \cap E_{1}$ is a singular point of the branch curve $B_{3}$ of $\pi_{3}: X_{3} \rightarrow Y_{3}$, so we must blow up also $q_{4}$. Similarly, if we blow up $q_{5}=E_{4} \cap E_{1}$, then $m_{15}+m_{25}=5$, thus condition (11.3) forces $\varepsilon_{5}=1$ and we must blow up also $q_{6}=E_{5} \cap E_{1}$. Repeating this argument, it follows that the first petal has odd length and $i_{1}$ is even.

Look at the second petal. Now $q_{i_{1}+1}>^{1} q_{1}$, so $m_{1, i_{1}+1}=1$ and $m_{2, i_{1}+1}=0$. Hence (11.3) implies that $\varepsilon_{i_{1}+1}=1$ and $\mu_{i_{1}+1}$ is odd. Therefore we must blow up $q_{i_{1}+2}=E_{i_{1}+1} \cap E_{1}$. If $i_{2}>i_{1}+2$, it means that we blow up also $q_{i_{1}+3}=$ $E_{i_{1}+2} \cap E_{1}$, then $m_{1, i_{1}+3}+m_{2, i_{1}+3}=3$, so (11.3) forces that $\varepsilon_{i_{1}+3}=1$ and we must blow up $q_{i_{1}+4}=E_{i_{1}+3} \cap E_{1}$ too. Proceeding in this way, this shows that the second petal has even length and $i_{2}$ is even. The same argument works for the $j$-th petal, with $j>2$, just by replacing $i_{1}$ with $i_{j-1}$. This proves our claim that $q_{1}$ is a very odd vertex.

Now we want to show that $\varepsilon_{i} \equiv i(\bmod 2)$ for every $i=1, \ldots, i_{h}$, and $q_{2 l-1}$ is a very odd vertex for every $l=2, \ldots, i_{h} / 2$.

We already know that $\varepsilon_{2}=0$ and $\varepsilon_{2 i-1}=1$ for every $i=1, \ldots, i_{h} / 2$. Suppose by contradiction that $\varepsilon_{4}=1$ (and $i_{h}>2$ ). Since $\varepsilon_{3}=1$, we must blow up also $q_{k}=E_{4} \cap E_{3}$ and $m_{1 k}+m_{2 k}$ is odd, so condition (11.3) implies that $\varepsilon_{k}=1$. Hence we must blow up $q_{k+1}=E_{k} \cap E_{4}$ too, and $m_{1, k+1}+m_{2, k+1}$ is again odd, thus $\varepsilon_{k+1}=1$ by (11.3). Going on in this way, we produce each time another branched exceptional curve, so we should never stop blowing up, contradicting Theorem 7.4. This shows that $\varepsilon_{4}=0$ and $\mu_{4}$ is even. The proof that $\varepsilon_{2 l}=0$ for every $l=3, \ldots, i_{h} / 2$ is similar.

Consider the proximity subgraph of $q_{2 l-1}$, for $l=2, \ldots, i_{h} / 2$. Repeating exactly the same arguments as for $q_{1}$ and $q_{2}$, one finds out that $q_{2 l}$ (which is proximate to $q_{2 l-1}$ ) belongs to a petal of odd length, while all other petals of the proximity subgraph of $q_{2 l-1}$ have even length, thus $q_{2 l-1}$ is a very odd vertex.

It remains to prove that the proximity subgraph of a non-very-odd vertex can be arbitrary. For every $l=1, \ldots, i_{h} / 2$, we proved that $\varepsilon_{2 l}=0$, so $q_{2 l}$ cannot be very odd. Moreover $m_{1,2 l}+m_{2,2 l}$ is even. If $q_{k}$ is proximate to $q_{2 l}$ (and
$k \neq 2 l+1$ ), then $m_{1 k}+m_{2 k}$ is a multiple of $m_{1,2 l}+m_{2,2 l}$, hence it is even and (11.3) imposes no condition on $q_{k}$. This means that the proximity subgraph of a non-very-odd vertex, as $q_{2 l}$, can be arbitrary and concludes the proof that the Enriques digraph has properties 1,2 and 3 .

Conversely, suppose that the three properties hold. One may easily check that the $m_{i j}$ 's satisfy condition (11.3), where the wanted $q_{j}$ is the infinitely near point of order one to $q_{1}$ belonging to the petal of odd length, therefore one concludes by Theorem 11.2 .

Note that, with the notation of the proof, $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_{2}$ are odd, while $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ is even for every $i=3, \ldots, i_{h}$, by (7.3). Moreover $\varepsilon_{1}=1$ forces $\tilde{B} \cdot E_{1}=0$, or equivalently $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \tilde{\alpha}_{j} q_{1 j}=\sum_{j=2}^{i_{h}} \tilde{\alpha}_{j}$. By induction on the number $i_{h}$ of proximate points to $q_{1}$, it is easy to check that $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}=\tilde{\alpha}_{2}+\sum_{j=3}^{i_{h}} \tilde{\alpha}_{j} \equiv \tilde{\alpha}_{2}(\bmod 4)$, thus $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}+\tilde{\alpha}_{2} \equiv 2(\bmod 4)($ cf. the genus formula (11.7)).

## 13 Some examples

Example 13.1 Let $B_{0}$ be defined by: $y\left(y-x^{2}\right)\left(y+x^{2}\right)=0$. One usually says that $B_{0}$ has two infinitely near triple points at $q_{1}$. Our combinatorial data are:

$$
\text { (3)_(4) or equivalently } \quad M=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \quad \begin{aligned}
& \mu=(3,4) \\
& \varepsilon=(1,0)
\end{aligned}
$$

The exceptional curves for $\tau: X \rightarrow X_{0}$ are a smooth rational curve $F_{1}$ with $F_{1}^{2}=-1$ and a smooth elliptic curve $F_{2}$ with $F_{2}^{2}=-2$ that meet in a point $P$. By Theorems 9.7 and 11.2 , the fiber cycle of the canonical resolution is $F=2 F_{1}+F_{2}$, while the fundamental cycle is $Z=F_{1}+F_{2}<F$, as one may also check directly. Moreover $F_{2 \mid F_{2}}=-2 P$ by (9.11).

The minimal resolution $\bar{\tau}: \bar{X} \rightarrow X_{0}$ is obtained by contracting the ( -1 )curve $F_{1}$. Therefore $\bar{F}_{2}$ is the only exceptional curve for $\bar{\tau}$ and $\bar{F}_{2}$ is a smooth elliptic curve with $\bar{F}_{2}^{2}=-1$. Clearly the fiber cycle and the fundamental cycle of the minimal resolution $\bar{\tau}$ are $\bar{Z}=\bar{F}=\bar{F}_{2}$.

The previous example can be generalized as follows.
Example 13.2 Let $B_{0}$ be a curve with $2 k$ infinitely near points $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{2 k}$ of the same odd multiplicity $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}=\cdots=\tilde{\alpha}_{2 k}=2 g+1$, for some $g \geq 1$. More precisely, $q_{i}>^{1} q_{i-1}$ for $1<i \leq 2 k$ and the weighted Enriques digraph is:


The exceptional curves for $\tau: X \rightarrow X_{0}$ are the following: ( -1 )-curves $F_{2 i-1}$, for every $i=1, \ldots, k$; smooth rational curves $F_{2 i}$ with self-intersection -4 , for $i=1, \ldots, k-1$, and a smooth curve $F_{2 k}$ of genus $g$ with $F_{2 k}^{2}=-2$. By Theorems 9.7 and 11.2 , the fiber cycle and the fundamental cycle of the canonical resolution are respectively:

$$
F=\sum_{i=1}^{k}\left(2 F_{2 i-1}+F_{2 i}\right), \quad Z=F_{1}+F_{2}+\sum_{i=2}^{k}\left(2 F_{2 i-1}+F_{2 i}\right)
$$

Blow down the $F_{2 i-1}$ 's, for $i=1, \ldots, k$, thus the exceptional curves for the minimal resolution $\bar{\tau}: \bar{X} \rightarrow X_{0}$ are the $\bar{F}_{2 i}$ 's, for $i=1, \ldots, k$, which are smooth rational curves with self-intersection -2 , except $\bar{F}_{2 k}$ which is smooth of genus $g$ with $\bar{F}_{2 k}^{2}=-1$. The fundamental cycle equals the fiber cycle of the minimal resolution $\bar{Z}=\bar{F}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \bar{F}_{2 i}$.

Example 13.3 (cf. [19, p. 322]) Let $B_{0}$ be defined by: $y\left(x^{4}+y^{6}\right)=0$. In this case our combinatorial data are:


$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \quad \begin{aligned}
& \left.\quad \begin{array}{l} 
\\
\varepsilon=(5,2,3,4)
\end{array}, \quad .1,0,1,0\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The fiber cycle of the canonical resolution is $F=2 F_{1}+F_{2}+2 F_{3}+2 F_{4}$, while the fundamental cycle is $Z=F_{1}+F_{2}+F_{3}+F_{4}<F$, as it should be by Theorem 12.2 , because $q_{1}$ is a very odd vertex, its proximity digraph has just two petals (one of length 1 and the other of length 2 ) and $q_{3}$ is also very odd. The minimal resolution is obtained by blowing down $F_{3}$, therefore:

$$
\bar{F}=2 \bar{F}_{1}+\bar{F}_{2}+2 \bar{F}_{4}>\bar{F}_{1}+\bar{F}_{2}+\bar{F}_{4}=\bar{Z}
$$

Rational double points (see [2], 11] and (4). It is very well-known that the rational double points are given by the following equations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{n}: & z^{2}=x^{2}+y^{n+1}, \\
D_{n}: & z^{2}=y\left(x^{2}+y^{n-2}\right), \\
E_{6}: & z^{2}=x^{3}+y^{4}, \\
E_{7}: & z^{2}=x\left(x^{2}+y^{3}\right), \\
E_{8}: & z^{2}=x^{3}+y^{5}
\end{aligned}
$$

and the minimal resolution consists in smooth rational curves of self-intersection -2 whose dual graph is the corresponding Dynkin diagram.

Note that, for a rational double point, the fundamental cycle $Z$ of the canonical resolution equals the fiber cycle $F$. Indeed if $Z<F$, then formula (11.7) says that $p_{a}(Z)=\left(\tilde{\alpha}_{1}+\tilde{\alpha}_{2}-2\right) / 4$, where $\tilde{\alpha}_{1}$ is odd and $\tilde{\alpha}_{1} \geq 2$, so $p_{a}(Z)>0$, contradicting Artin's criterion (which says that $p_{a}(Z)=0$ if and only if the singularity is rational, cf. [2, Theorem 3]).

Moreover, starting from the well-known formula for the arithmetic genus of a sum of two curves, that is $p_{a}(C+D)=p_{a}(C)+p_{a}(D)+(C \cdot D)-1$, and using (9.3) and (9.4) we find out that (cf. (9.12)):

$$
p_{a}(Z)=p_{a}(F)=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{1 i}\left(\gamma_{i}-\left(\varepsilon_{i}-2\right) E_{i}^{2}-4\right) .
$$

Hence we can see directly that $p_{a}(Z)=0$ if and only if every branched exceptional divisor has self-intersection -4 , every unbranched exceptional divisor has selfintersection -1 and $\gamma_{i}=2$, or self-intersection -2 and $\gamma_{i}=0$. Thus every $F_{i}$ (if
$F_{i}$ splits, every irreducible component of $F_{i}$ ) is rational with self-intersection -2 and the canonical resolution is minimal.

## 14 Adjunction conditions

We want to study the conditions that a double point singularity $p \in X_{0}$ imposes to canonical and pluricanonical systems of a surface. Recall that locally $p$ is $\pi_{0}^{-1}\left(q_{1}\right)$, where $\pi_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ is a double cover, $Y_{0}$ is a smooth surface, $X_{0}$ is normal and $q_{1}$ is an isolated singular point of the branch curve $B_{0}$ of $\pi_{0}$. Then we consider the canonical resolution $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$, that is a double cover branched along the smooth curve $B$.

In (9.6) we defined the adjunction condition divisor $D^{*}$ as the pullback of

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=\sum_{i}\left(\alpha_{i} / 2-1\right) E_{i}^{*}=\sigma^{*}\left(K_{Y_{0}}+B_{0} / 2\right)-\left(K_{Y}+B / 2\right) \tag{14.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

So it suffices to understand what are the conditions that $D$ imposes to the adjoint linear system $\left|K_{Y}+B / 2\right|$. It is well known that $D=0$, or equivalently $D^{*}=0$, if and only if $p \in X_{0}$ is a rational double point (cf. previous section).

By applying $\sigma_{*}$ to the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{Y}(-D) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{D} \rightarrow 0$, one sees that $\mathcal{I}_{\Gamma}:=\sigma_{*} \mathcal{O}_{Y}(-D)$ is the ideal sheaf of a zero-dimensional scheme $\Gamma$ supported at $q_{1} \in Y_{0}$. Let us call $\mathcal{I}_{\Gamma}$ the adjoint ideal of the singularity.

For our convenience, let us assume that $X_{0}$ is a double plane, i.e., $Y_{0}=\mathbb{P}^{2}$. Indeed the double point singularity is locally given as a double cover of an open disc, thus we may always find an irreducible plane curve $B_{0}$ of arbitrarily high (and even) degree whose germ at $q_{1}$ is analitically isomorphic to the germ of the branch curve of the double cover at $q_{1}$.

By (3.2), (3.3) and the projection formula we have that $\pi_{*} K_{X} \cong K_{Y} \oplus\left(K_{Y}+\right.$ $B / 2)$, so $p_{g}(X)=h^{0}\left(X, K_{X}\right)=h^{0}\left(Y, K_{Y}+B / 2\right)$ and $q(X)=h^{1}\left(X, K_{X}\right)=$ $h^{1}\left(Y, K_{Y}+B / 2\right)$. Riemann-Roch Theorem for $K_{Y}+B / 2$ on $Y$ and for $K_{\mathbb{P}^{2}}+B_{0} / 2$ on $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ implies that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h^{0}\left(K_{X}\right)-h^{1}\left(K_{X}\right)=B \cdot\left(K_{Y}+B / 2\right) / 4+1 \\
& h^{0}\left(K_{X_{0}}\right)=h^{0}\left(K_{\mathbb{P}^{2}}+B_{0} / 2\right)=B_{0} \cdot\left(K_{\mathbb{P}^{2}}+B_{0} / 2\right) / 4+1
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows from (9.5) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h^{0}\left(K_{X_{0}}\right)-h^{0}\left(K_{X}\right)+h^{1}\left(K_{X}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\alpha_{i}\left(\alpha_{i}-2\right)}{8}=: c \tag{14.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c$ is defined by (14.2). Let us recall a well-known theorem of De Franchis:
Theorem 14.3 (De Franchis) Let $\pi_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2}$ be a double plane and $\pi$ : $X \rightarrow Y$ its canonical resolution. Then $q(X)>0$ if and only if there is a plane curve $B^{\prime}\left(\right.$ possibly $\left.B^{\prime}=0\right)$ such that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{0}+2 B^{\prime}=C_{1}+C_{2}+\cdots+C_{m} \tag{14.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{m}$ are curves belonging to one and the same pencil and $m=$ $2 q(X)+2$ (resp. possibly $m=2 q(X)+1$ if the pencil contains a double curve).

Proof. See [9] (or [8] for a modern proof).

Corollary 14.5 With the above notation, the number $h^{0}\left(K_{X_{0}}\right)-h^{0}\left(K_{X}\right)$ of conditions that the singularity $p \in X_{0}$ imposes to the canonical system is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
c=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\alpha_{i}\left(\alpha_{i}-2\right)}{8}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\alpha_{i} / 2\left(\alpha_{i} / 2-1\right)}{2} \tag{14.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Since we assumed $B_{0}$ to be irreducible, then $q(X)=h^{1}\left(K_{X}\right)=0$ by De Franchis' Theorem and (14.6) follows from (14.2).

We remark that De Franchis' Theorem allows us to compute the adjunction conditions even if $B_{0}$ were a given reducible curve and its degree were not assumed to be arbitrarily high.

We want to determine which singularity the general element $C$ in $\left|\mathcal{I}_{\Gamma}(h)\right|=$ $\left|\sigma_{*} \mathcal{O}_{Y}\left(K_{Y}+B / 2\right)\right|=\left|\sigma_{*}\left(\sigma^{*}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{2}}(h L)\right) \otimes \mathcal{O}_{Y}(-D)\right)\right|$ has at $q_{1}$, where $L$ is a general line in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ and $h=\operatorname{deg}\left(B_{0}\right) / 2-3$. According to formulas (14.1) and (14.6), one might expect that $C$ has exactly multiplicity $\alpha_{i} / 2-1$ at $q_{i}$, for every $i=1, \ldots, n$. The next example shows that this is not always the case.

Suppose that $q_{1} \in B_{0}$ is the same singularity of Example 13.1. Since $\alpha=$ $\mu-\varepsilon$, we have $\alpha_{1}=2$ and $\alpha_{2}=4$, thus one expects the general element $C$ in $\left|\mathcal{I}_{\Gamma}(h)\right|$ to pass simply through $q_{2}$ and not to pass through $q_{1}$. But this is not possible, because $q_{2}$ is infinitely near to $q_{1}$.

Actually, we see that $\left(K_{Y}+B / 2\right) \cdot E_{1}<0$ and $E_{1}$ is a fixed component of $\left|K_{Y}+B / 2\right|=\left|\sigma^{*}(h L)-E_{2}\right|$. Moreover

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{Y}+B / 2-E_{1}=\sigma^{*}(h L)-1 \cdot E_{1}^{*}-0 \cdot E_{2}^{*} \tag{14.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

meets non negatively $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$, so $\left|K_{Y}+B / 2-E_{1}\right|$ has no fixed components by the next Lemma 14.8. Formula (14.7) means that $C$ passes simply through $q_{1}$ and does not pass through $q_{2}$ (which is 1 adjunction condition as well).

Lemma 14.8 Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a linear system on $Y$ which we write as:

$$
\mathcal{L}=\left|\sigma^{*}(h L)-\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} E_{i}^{*}\right|
$$

where $L$ is a general line in $\mathbb{P}^{2}, m_{i}$ are non-negative integers and $h$ is arbitrarily high. Suppose that $\operatorname{deg} \mathcal{L}_{\mid E_{i}} \geq 0$, for every $i=1, \ldots, n$. Then $\mathcal{L}$ has no fixed component. In particular the general member of $\sigma_{*} \mathcal{L}$ is a plane curve with multiplicity exactly $m_{i}$ at $q_{i}$, for $i=1, \ldots, n$.

Proof. Since $h \gg 0$, we may assume that the only possible fixed components of $\mathcal{L}$ are among the $E_{i}$ 's. For every $i=1, \ldots, n$, consider the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{L}\left(-E_{i}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{\mid E_{i}} \rightarrow 0$. We need to show that $h^{0}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(-E_{i}\right)\right)<h^{0}(\mathcal{L})$. This will follow from $H^{1}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(-E_{i}\right)\right)=0$, because $H^{0}\left(\mathcal{L}_{\mid E_{i}}\right) \neq 0$ by assumption. We claim that $R^{1} \sigma_{*} \mathcal{L}\left(-E_{i}\right)=0$. This will imply that $H^{1}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(-E_{i}\right)\right)=H^{1}\left(\sigma_{*} \mathcal{L}\left(-E_{i}\right)\right)=0$,
where the last equality follows from Serre's Theorem, because $h \gg 0$, and we will be done. Indeed $H^{1}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(-E_{i}\right)_{\mid E_{1}^{*}}\right)=0$, since $E_{1}^{*}$ is 1-connected, $p_{a}\left(E_{1}^{*}\right)=0$ and $\operatorname{deg} \mathcal{L}\left(-E_{i}\right)_{\mid E_{1}^{*}} \geq m_{1} \geq 0$.

The above discussion suggested us to introduce the following notion: we say that a point $q_{i}$ is defective if there exists a point $q_{j}$ such that $\alpha_{j}>\alpha_{i}$ and $q_{j}$ is infinitely near of order one to $q_{i}$. Hence, if $q_{i}$ is defective, then $B \cdot E_{i}<0$, while we know that $\tilde{B} \cdot E_{i} \geq 0$ for every $i=0, \ldots, n$, because $\tilde{B}$ is the proper transform of a plane curve. In Example 13.1 (recalled before the previous lemma), $q_{1}$ is defective, because $q_{2}>^{1} q_{1}$ and $4=\alpha_{2}>\alpha_{1}=2$.

Lemma 14.9 A point $q_{i}$ is defective if and only if $D \cdot E_{i}>0$. More precisely, $a$ point $q_{i}$ is defective if and only if $\varepsilon_{i}=1$ and there exists a (necessarily unique) point $q_{j}>^{1} q_{i}$ with $\tilde{\alpha}_{j}=\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ and $\varepsilon_{j}=0$. Furthermore, either:
(i) $\alpha_{i}=\tilde{\alpha}_{i}-1$, or
(ii) $\alpha_{i}=\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$ and both $q_{i}, q_{j}$ are proximate to a point $q_{k}$ with $\varepsilon_{k}=1$.

Finally a point $q_{i}$ is defective if and only if $F_{i}$ is a $(-1)$-curve.
Proof. The last statement follows easily from the other ones and Remark 10.3. By definition, if $q_{i}$ is defective, then $D \cdot E_{i} \geq-\left(B \cdot E_{i}\right) / 2>0$. Conversely, $D \cdot E_{i} \leq 0$ is equivalent to $\left(B+2 K_{Y}\right) \cdot E_{i} \geq 0$, that holds, if $q_{i}$ is not defective, by Lemma 4.3 in [6]. This proves the first statement.

Note that if there is a point $q_{j}>^{1} q_{i}$ with $\tilde{\alpha}_{j}=\tilde{\alpha}_{i}$, then $q_{j}$ is the unique proximate point to $q_{i}$.

Suppose that $q_{i}>^{1} q_{k}$ and $q_{k}$ is the only point which $q_{i}$ is proximate to. Then $\alpha_{i}=\tilde{\alpha}_{i}+\varepsilon_{k}-\varepsilon_{i}$ by (7.3). Let $q_{j}$ be an infinitely near point of order one to $q_{i}$. If $q_{j}$ is proximate only to $q_{i}$, then $\alpha_{j}=\tilde{\alpha}_{j}+\varepsilon_{i}-\varepsilon_{j}$, thus $\alpha_{j} \geq \alpha_{i}+2$ if and only if

$$
\left(\tilde{\alpha}_{i}-\tilde{\alpha}_{j}\right)+\varepsilon_{k}+\varepsilon_{j}+2 \leq 2 \varepsilon_{i}
$$

which (recalling that $\tilde{\alpha}_{i} \geq \tilde{\alpha}_{j}$ because $\tilde{B} \cdot E_{i} \geq 0$ ) holds only if $\tilde{\alpha}_{i}-\tilde{\alpha}_{j}=\varepsilon_{k}=$ $\varepsilon_{j}=0$ and $\varepsilon_{i}=1$, that is case (i).

If $q_{j}$ is proximate also to $q_{k}$, then $\alpha_{i}=\tilde{\alpha}_{j}+\varepsilon_{i}+\varepsilon_{k}-\varepsilon_{j}$, hence $\alpha_{j} \geq \alpha_{i}+2$ if and only if $\left(\tilde{\alpha}_{i}-\tilde{\alpha}_{j}\right)+\varepsilon_{j}+2 \leq 2 \varepsilon_{i}$, that is either case (i) or (ii) depending on the value of $\varepsilon_{k}$.

This concludes the proof in case $q_{i}$ is proximate to only one point. One may proceed similarly for the other configurations of $q_{j}>^{1} q_{i}$, namely if $q_{i}$ is not infinitely near to any point or if $q_{i}$ is proximate to more than one point.

Both of the cases (i) and (ii) of Lemma 14.9 may occur, as the point $q_{1}$ in Example 13.1 and the point $q_{3}$ in Example 13.3 respectively show.

We remark that if $q_{i}$ is defective and $q_{j}$ is as above, namely $q_{j}>^{1} q_{i}$ and $\alpha_{j}>\alpha_{i}$, then $q_{j}$ cannot be defective. However there may exist a defective point $q_{l}$ with $q_{l}>^{1} q_{j}$ and $\alpha_{l}=\alpha_{i}$, as $q_{3}, q_{5}, \ldots, q_{2 k-1}$ in Example 13.2.

We say that a point $q_{i}$ is 1-defective, and we write $\operatorname{def}\left(q_{i}\right)=1$, if $q_{i}$ is defective and there is no defective point $q_{j}>q_{i}$ with $\alpha_{j}=\alpha_{i}$. Inductively, we say that $q_{i}$
is $k$-defective, and we write $\operatorname{def}\left(q_{i}\right)=k$, if there exists a $(k-1)$-defective point $q_{j}>^{2} q_{i}$ with $\alpha_{j}=\alpha_{i}$.

In Example 13.2, the point $q_{1}$ is $k$-defective. We set $\operatorname{def}\left(q_{i}\right)=0$ if $q_{i}$ is not defective and $\operatorname{Def}=\left\{i \mid \operatorname{def}\left(q_{i}\right)>0\right\}$. Thus $i \in \operatorname{Def}$ if and only if $q_{i}$ is defective.

Now we are ready to show what exactly happens to an element in $\left|\mathcal{I}_{\Gamma}(h)\right|$ at a defective point. To simplify the notation, by ordering conveniently the blowing-ups, we may and will assume that if $q_{j}, q_{k}$ are defective, with $\alpha_{j}=\alpha_{k}$ and $q_{k}>^{2} q_{j}$, then $k=j+2$ and $q_{j+2}>^{1} q_{j+1}>^{1} q_{j}$.

Theorem 14.10 The fixed part of $\left|K_{Y}+B / 2\right|$ is exactly:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{E}=\sum_{j \in \operatorname{Def}} \sum_{r=0}^{\operatorname{def}\left(q_{j}\right)-1} E_{j+r} \tag{14.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. By Lemma 14.9, the non-defective points do not mind, so we may focus only on what happens at a defective point. Any $k$-defective point looks like the point $q_{1}$ of Example 13.2 , thus we will assume that $q_{1}$ is $k$-defective and we will follow the notation of that example. Recall that, for every $i=1, \ldots, k$, the point $q_{2 i-1}$ is $(k-i+1)$-defective, $\alpha_{2 i} / 2-1=g$ and $\alpha_{2 i-1} / 2-1=g-1$.

We claim that the fixed part of $\left|K_{Y}+B / 2\right|$ is exactly:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{E}=\sum_{l=0}^{k-1} \sum_{i=1}^{k-l} E_{2 i+l-1}=\sum_{j \in \operatorname{Def}} \sum_{r=0}^{\operatorname{def}\left(q_{j}\right)-1} E_{j+r} \tag{14.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

and formula (14.11) clearly follows. Note that (14.12) means that the general element of $\left|\mathcal{I}_{\Gamma}(h)\right|$ has multiplicity $g$ at $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{k}$ and $g-1$ at $q_{k+1}, \ldots, q_{2 k}$, giving $k g^{2}$ adjunction conditions as expected.

Now we prove our claim. By Lemma 14.9, the exceptional curve $E_{2 i-1}$ is a fixed component of $\left|K_{Y}+B / 2\right|$, for $i=1, \ldots, k$. Then

$$
D+\sum_{i=1}^{k} E_{2 i-1}=\sum_{j=1}^{k}\left(g E_{2 j-1}^{*}+(g-1) E_{2 j}^{*}\right)
$$

meets positively $E_{2 j}$ for $j=1, \ldots, k-1$, which therefore are fixed components of $\left|K_{Y}+B / 2\right|$ too. Now

$$
D+\sum_{i=1}^{k} E_{2 i-1}+\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} E_{2 j}=g E_{1}^{*}+\sum_{l=1}^{k-1}\left(g E_{2 l}^{*}+(g-1) E_{2 l+1}^{*}\right)+(g-1) E_{2 k}^{*}
$$

meets again positively $E_{2 i-1}$, for $i=2, \ldots, k$ (but not $E_{1}$ and $E_{2 k}$ ).
Going on in this way, by induction on $k$, it follows that $\left|K_{Y}+B / 2\right|$ contains (14.12). On the other hand, $D+\bar{E}=\sum_{i=1}^{k}\left(g E_{i}^{*}+(g-1) E_{k+i}^{*}\right)$ does not meet positively anyone of the $E_{i}$ 's, thus the fixed part of $\left|K_{Y}+B / 2\right|$ is exactly $\bar{E}$, by Lemma 14.8, and our claim is proved.

We remark that the previous theorem gives an alternative proof of Corollary 14.5. independent from De Franchis' Theorem.

Finally we want to compute the number of conditions that the singularity $p \in X_{0}$ imposes to pluricanonical systems. The plurigenera of $X$ are:

$$
P_{m}(X)=h^{0}\left(X, m K_{X}\right)=h^{0}\left(Y, m K_{Y}+m B / 2\right)+h^{0}\left(Y, m K_{Y}+(m-1) B / 2\right)
$$

Riemann-Roch Theorem and (9.5) imply that:

$$
h^{0}\left(m K_{X_{0}}\right)-h^{0}\left(m K_{X}\right)+h^{1}\left(m K_{X}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2\left(m^{2}-m\right)\left(\alpha_{i}-2\right)^{2}+\alpha_{i}^{2}-2 \alpha_{i}}{8}
$$

Theorem 14.13 The number of conditions $h^{0}\left(m K_{X_{0}}\right)-h^{0}\left(m K_{X}\right)$ that the singularity $p \in X_{0}$ imposes to the $m$-canonical system are:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2\left(m^{2}-m\right)\left(\alpha_{i}-2\right)^{2}+\alpha_{i}^{2}-2 \alpha_{i}}{8}-\frac{d m(m-1)}{2} \tag{14.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d:=\sharp$ Def is the number of defective points.
Proof. We shall show that $h^{1}\left(m K_{X}\right)=d m(m-1) / 2$. Since we are dealing with local questions, we may assume that the $(-1)$-curves of $X$ are contained in $\tau^{-1}(p)$. Recall that these $(-1)$-curves are disjoint and there are exactly $d$ of them. Let $\tau^{\prime}: X \rightarrow \bar{X}$ be their contraction (see section 10), then $\bar{X}$ is a minimal surface of general type and we may assume that $h^{0}\left(K_{\bar{X}}\right) \gg 0$ (because $h$ is arbitrarily high). With no loss of generality, we may also assume that $\tau^{\prime}$ is the blowing-down of just a $(-1)$-curve $F_{i}$. Thus it suffices to show that, under these assumptions, $h^{1}\left(m K_{X}\right)=m(m-1) / 2$. By Serre duality, $h^{1}\left(m K_{X}\right)=$ $h^{1}\left(-(m-1) K_{X}\right)$. Let $C$ be a curve in $\left|(m-1) K_{X}\right|$. Clearly $C=\tau^{*}\left(C_{0}\right)+$ $(m-1) F_{i}$, where $C_{0} \in\left|(m-1) K_{\bar{X}}\right|$. It is well-known that $C_{0}$ and $\tau^{* *}\left(C_{0}\right)$ are 1 -connected (see [1] Proposition 6.1] and 14, §1]), therefore $h^{0}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\tau^{\prime *}\left(C_{0}\right)}\right)=1$. Since $q(X)=h^{1}\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}\right)=0$, the exact sequence of sheaves $0 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{X}(-C) \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{O}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{C} \rightarrow 0$ implies that $h^{1}\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(-C)\right)=h^{0}\left(\mathcal{O}_{(m-1) F_{i}}\right)$. Finally one easily checks that $h^{0}\left(\mathcal{O}_{(m-1) F_{i}}\right)=m(m-1) / 2$.

We remark that, if $h$ is not assumed to be arbitrarily high, $\bar{X}$ may not be of general type and one should compute, or estimate, $h^{1}\left(m K_{X}\right)$.

As we did for $\left|K_{Y}+B / 2\right|$, we want to determine the fixed components of $\left|m K_{Y}+m B / 2\right|$ and $\left|m K_{Y}+(m-1) B / 2\right|$. After having ordered the blowing-ups as explained just before Theorem 14.10, we are ready to prove the following:

Theorem 14.15 The fixed part of $\left|m K_{Y}+\bar{m} B / 2\right|$, for $\bar{m}=m$ or $\bar{m}=m-1$, is exactly:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\frac{\bar{m}}{2}\right] \sum_{j \in \operatorname{Def}} E_{j}+(\bar{m} \bmod 2) \bar{E} \tag{14.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\bar{E}$ is (14.1]), $[\bar{m} / 2]$ is the largest integer smaller than or equal to $\bar{m} / 2$ and $\bar{m} \bmod 2=\bar{m}-2[\bar{m} / 2] \in\{0,1\}$.

Proof. As in the proof of Theorem 14.10, it suffices to understand what happens at a defective point, thus we assume that $q_{1}$ is a $k$-defective point as in Example 13.2. Let us set

$$
\tilde{E}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} E_{2 i-1}=\sum_{j \in \mathrm{Def}} E_{j} .
$$

Suppose that $\bar{m}=m$. If $m$ is even, then

$$
m D=\sum_{i=1}^{k}\left(m(g-1) E_{2 i-1}^{*}+m g E_{2 i}^{*}\right)
$$

hence $m D$ meets positively $E_{2 i-1}$ for every $i=1, \ldots, k$. Moreover $(m D+j \tilde{E})$. $E_{2 i-1}>0$ for every $i=1, \ldots, k$ and $j=1, \ldots, m / 2-1$. This means that $m \tilde{E} / 2$ is a fixed component of $\left|m K_{Y}+m B / 2\right|$. Then

$$
m D+\frac{m}{2} \tilde{E}=\sum_{i=1}^{2 k}\left(m g-\frac{m}{2}\right) E_{i}
$$

does not meet positively anyone of the $E_{i}$ 's, therefore the fixed part of $\mid m K_{Y}+$ $m B / 2$ is exactly $m \tilde{E} / 2$, by Lemma 14.8 .

If $m$ is odd, following the same argument, one easily shows that the fixed part of $\left|m K_{Y}+m B / 2\right|$ is $(m-1) \tilde{E} / 2+\bar{E}$.

One proceeds similarly in the case that $\bar{m}=m-1$. Indeed, one can prove that the fixed part of $\left|m K_{Y}+(m-1) B / 2\right|$ is $(m-1) \tilde{E} / 2$ (resp. $\left.m \tilde{E} / 2+\bar{E}\right)$ if $m$ is odd (resp. if $m$ is even).

Note that Theorem 14.13 can be proved also as corollary of Theorem 14.15 .

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