ON PLANE Sextics WITH DOUBLE SINGULAR POINTS

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Abstract. We compute the fundamental groups of five maximizing sextics with double singular points only; in four cases, the groups are as expected. The approach used would apply to other sextics as well, given their equations.

1. Introduction

The fundamental group \( \pi_1 := \pi_1(\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus D) \) of a plane curve \( D \subset \mathbb{P}^2 \), introduced by O. Zariski in [18], is an important topological invariant of the curve. Apart from distinguishing the connected components of the equisingular moduli spaces, this group can be used as a seemingly inexpensive way of studying algebraic surfaces, the curve serving as the branch locus of a projection of the surface onto \( \mathbb{P}^2 \).

At present, the fundamental groups of all curves of degree up to five are known, and the computation of the groups of irreducible curves of degree six (sextics) is close to its completion, see [7] for the principal statements and further references. In higher degrees, little is known: there are a few general theorems, usually bounding the complexity of the group of a curve with sufficiently ‘moderate’ singularities, and a number of sporadic example scattered in the literature. For further details on this fascinating subject, we refer the reader to the recent surveys [2, 10, 11].

1.1. Principal results. If a sextic \( D \subset \mathbb{P}^2 \) has a singular point \( P \) of multiplicity three or higher, then, projecting from this point, we obtain a trigonal (or, even better, bi- or monogonal) curve in a Hirzebruch surface, see §3.1. By means of the so-called dessins d’enfants, such curves and their topology can be studied in purely combinatorial terms, as certain graphs in the plane. The classification of such curves and the computation of their fundamental groups were completed in [7]. If all singular points are double, the best that one can obtain is a tetragonal curve, which is a much more complicated object. (A reduction of tetragonal curves to trigonal curves in the presence of a section is discussed in §3.2, see Remark 3.6. It is the extra section that makes the problem difficult.) At present, I do not know how the group of a tetragonal curve can be computed unless the curve is real and its defining equation is known (and even then, the approach suggested in the paper may still fail, cf. Remark 2.1).

There is a special class of irreducible sextics, the so called \( D_{2n} \)-sextics and, in particular, sextics of torus type (see §2.1 for the precise definitions), for which the fundamental group is non-abelian for some simple homological reasons, see [4]. (The fact that a sextic is of torus type is usually indicated by the presence of a pair of parentheses in the notation; their precise meaning is explained in §2.1.) On the other hand, thanks to the special structures and symmetries of these curves, their

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explicit equations are known, see [6, 8, 12]. In this paper, we almost complete the
computation of the fundamental groups of $\mathbb{D}_{2n}$-sextics (with one pair of complex
conjugate sextics of torus type left). Our principal results can be stated as follows.

**Theorem 1.1.** The fundamental group of the $\mathbb{D}_{14}$-special sextic with the set of
singularities $3A_6 \oplus A_1$, line 37 in Table 1 is $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{D}_{14}$.

**Theorem 1.2.** The fundamental groups of the irreducible sextics of torus type with
the sets of singularities $(A_{14} \oplus A_2) \oplus A_3$, line 8, $(A_{14} \oplus A_2) \oplus A_2 \oplus A_1$, line 9, and
$(A_{11} \oplus 2A_2) \oplus A_4$, line 17 in Table 1 are isomorphic to $\Gamma := \mathbb{Z}_2 \ast \mathbb{Z}_3$. The group
of the curve with the set of singularities $(A_8 \oplus 3A_2) \oplus A_4 \oplus A_1$, line 33 is

$$(1.3) \quad \pi_1 = \langle \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4 \mid [\alpha_3, \alpha_4] = \{\alpha_2, \alpha_4\}_3 = 1, \alpha_4^2 \alpha_2 \alpha_3^{-1} \alpha_4^2 \alpha_2 \alpha_4^{-1} \alpha_3^{-1} \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \alpha_3 \alpha_2 \rangle,$$

where $\{\alpha, \beta\}_{2k+1} := (\alpha \beta)^k \alpha (\alpha \beta)^{-k} \beta^{-1}$.

Theorem 1.1 is proved in §4.3, and Theorem 1.2 is proved in §4.5–§4.8, one curve
at a time. I do not know whether the last group (1.3) is isomorphic to $\Gamma$: all
‘computable’ invariants seem to coincide, see Remark 4.7, but the presentations
obtained resist all simplification attempt. The quotient of (1.3) by the extra relation
$\{\alpha_2, \alpha_4\}_3 = 1$ is $\Gamma$.

The next proposition is proved in §4.9. (The perturbation $3A_6 \oplus A_1 \to 3A_6$
excluded in the statement results in a $\mathbb{D}_{14}$-special sextic and the fundamental group
equals $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{D}_{14}$, see [8].)

**Proposition 1.4.** Let $D'$ be a nontrivial perturbation of a sextic as in Theorems 1.1
or 1.2. Unless the set of singularities of $D'$ is $3A_6$, the group $\pi_1(\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus D')$ is $\Gamma$ or $\mathbb{Z}_6$,
depending on whether $D'$ is or, respectively, is not of torus type.

With Theorem 1.1 in mind, the fundamental groups of all $\mathbb{D}_{2n}$-special sextics,
$n \geq 5$, are known, see [7]. Modulo the feasible conjecture that any sextic of torus
type degenerates to a maximizing one, the only such sextic whose group remains
unknown is $(A_8 \oplus A_3 \oplus A_2) \oplus A_4$, line 32 in Table 1. (This conjecture has been
proved, and all groups except the one just mentioned are indeed known; details
will appear elsewhere.) Most of these groups are isomorphic to $\Gamma$, see [7] for details
and further references.

I would like to mention an alternative approach, see [1], reducing a plane sextic
with large Milnor number to a trigonal curve equipped with a number of sections,
all but one splitting in the covering elliptic surface. It was used in [1] to handle
the curves in lines 1–6 in Table 1. This approach is also used in a forthcoming
paper to produce the defining equations of most sextics listed in Table 1; then, the
fundamental groups of most real ones can be computed using Theorem 3.16. All
groups that could be found are abelian. Together with the classification of sextics,
which is also almost completed, this fact implies that, with very few exceptions,
the fundamental group of a non-special irreducible simple sextic is abelian.

1.2. Idea of the proof (see §4.1 for more details). We use the classical Zariski–van
Kampen method, cf. Theorem 3.16, expressing the fundamental group of a curve
in terms of its braid monodromy with respect to an appropriate pencil of lines. The
curves and pencils considered are real, and the braid monodromy in a neighborhood
of the real part of the pencil is computed in terms of the real part of the curve.
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(This approach originates in topology of real algebraic curves; historically, it goes back to Viro, Fiedler, Kharlamov, Rokhlin, and Klein.) Our main contribution is the description of the monodromy along a real segment where all four branches of the curve are non-real, see Proposition 3.12. Besides, the curves are not required to be strongly real, i.e., non-real singular fibers are allowed. Hence, we follow Orevkov [13] and attempt to extract information about such non-real fibers from the real part of the curve. The outcome is Theorem 3.16, which gives us an ‘upper bound’ on the fundamental group in question. The applicability issues and a few other common tricks are discussed in §4.1.

1.3. Contents of the paper. In §2, we introduce the terminology related to plane sextics, list the sextics that are still to be investigated, and discuss briefly the few known results. In §3, we outline an approach to the (partial) computation of the braid monodromy of a real tetragonal curve and state an appropriate version of the Zariski–van Kampen theorem. Finally, in §4 the results of §3 and known equations are used to prove Theorems 1.1 and 1.2 and Proposition 1.4.

1.4. Conventions. All group actions are right. Given a right action \( X \times G \to X \) and a pair of elements \( x \in X, g \in G \), the image of \((x, g)\) is denoted by \( x \uparrow g \in X \).

The same postfix notation and multiplication convention is often used for maps: it is under this convention that the monodromy \( \pi_1(\text{base}) \to \text{Aut(fiber)} \) of a locally trivial fibration is a homomorphism rather than an anti-homomorphism.

The assignment symbol \( := \) is used as a shortcut for ‘is defined as’.

We use the conventional symbol \( \square \) to mark the ends of the proofs. Some statements are marked with \( < \) or \( > \): the former means that the proof has already been explained (for example, most corollaries), and the latter indicates that the proof is not found in the paper and the reader is directed to the literature, usually cited at the beginning of the statement.

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2. Preliminaries

2.1. Special classes of sextics. A plane sextic \( D \in \mathbb{P}^2 \) is called simple if all its singularities are simple, i.e., those of type A–D–E. The total Milnor number \( \mu \) of a simple sextic \( D \) does not exceed 19, see [14]; if \( \mu = 19 \), then \( D \) is called maximizing. Maximizing sextics are always defined over algebraic number fields and their moduli spaces are discrete: two such sextics are equisingular deformation equivalent if and only if they are related by a projective transformation of \( \mathbb{P}^2 \).

A sextic \( D \) is said to be of torus type if its equation can be represented in the form \( f_2^3 + f_3^2 = 0 \), where \( f_2 \) and \( f_3 \) are some polynomials of degree 2 and 3, respectively. The points of intersection of the conic \( \{f_2 = 0\} \) and cubic \( \{f_3 = 0\} \) are always singular for \( D \). These singular points play a very special rôle; they are called the inner singularities (with respect to the given torus structure). For the vast majority
of curves, a torus structure is unique, and in this case it is common to parenthesize
the inner singularities in the notation.

An irreducible sextic \(D\) is called \(D_{2n}\)-special if its fundamental group \(\pi_1(\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus D)\)
admits a dihedral quotient \(D_{2n} := \mathbb{Z}_n \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_2\). According to [4], only \(D_6, D_{10}\),
and \(D_{14}\)-special sextics exist, and an irreducible sextic is of torus type if and only if it
is \(D_6\)-special. (In particular, torus type is a topological property.)

Any sextic \(D\) of torus type is a degeneration of Zariski’s six-cuspidal sextic, which
is obtained from a generic pair \((f_2, f_3)\). It follows that the fundamental group of
\(D\) factors to the modular group \(\Gamma := \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z}_2 \ast \mathbb{Z}_3 = \mathbb{B}_3/(\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \sigma_1)^2\), see [18]; in
particular, this group is infinite. Conjecturally, the fundamental groups of all other
irreducible simple sextics are finite.

2.2. Sextics to be considered. It is expected that, with few explicit exceptions
(e.g., 9\(A_2\)), any simple sextic degenerates to a maximizing one. (The proof of
this conjecture, which relies upon the theory of \(K3\)-surfaces, is currently a work in
progress. In fact, most curves degenerate to one of those whose group is already
known.) Hence, it is essential to compute the fundamental groups of the maximizing
sextics; the others would follow. The groups of all irreducible sextics with a singular
point of multiplicity three or higher are known, see [7] for a summary of the results,
and those with \(A\) type singularities only are still to be investigated.

A list of irreducible maximizing sextics with \(A\) type singular points only can
be compiled using the results of [17] (a list of the sets of singularities realized
by such sextics) and [15] (a description of the moduli spaces). We represent the
result in Table 1, where the column \((r, c)\) shows the number of classes: \(r\) is the
number of real sextics, and \(c\) is the number of pairs of complex conjugate ones. The
approach developed further in the paper lets one compute (or at least estimate) the
fundamental group of a sextic with \(A\) type singularities, provided that its equation
is known. In the literature, I could find explicit equations for lines 1–6, 8, 9, 17,
28, 29, 32, 33, and 37. With the results of this paper (Theorems 1.1 and 1.2) taken
into account, the groups of all these sextics except \((A_8 \oplus A_5 \oplus A_2) \oplus A_4\), line 32
(which is not real) are known.

Remark 2.1. Unfortunately, our approach does not always work even if the curve
is real. Thus, each of the two sextics with the set of singularities \(A_{19}\), line 1 has a
single real point (the isolated singular point of type \(A_{19}\); see [1] for the equations)
and Theorem 3.16 does not provide enough relations to compute the group.

2.3. Known results. The fundamental group of the \(D_{10}\)-special sextic with the
set of singularities \(A_9 \oplus 2A_4 \oplus A_2\), line 28 in Table 1, can be described as follows,
see [6] (where ‘temporarily stands for the commutant of a group):

\[
\pi_1/\pi''_1 = \mathbb{Z}_3 \times D_{10}, \quad \pi''_1 = \text{SL}(2, k_9),
\]

where \(k_9\) is the field of nine elements. The fundamental groups of the first twelve
sextics, lines 1–6, have been found in [1]: with the exception of \((A_{17} \oplus A_2)\), line 3
(sextic of torus type, \(\pi_1 = \Gamma\)), they are all abelian. To my knowledge, the groups
not mentioned in Table 1 have not been computed yet.

3. The braid monodromy

3.1. Hirzebruch surfaces. A Hirzebruch surface \(\Sigma_d\), for \(d > 0\), is a geometrically
ruled rational surface with a (unique) exceptional section \(E\) of self-intersection \(-d\).
Table 1. Irreducible maximizing sextics with A type singularities

| #  | Singularities | (r, c) | Equation, π₁, remarks |
|----|---------------|--------|------------------------|
| 1. | A₁₉          | (2, 0) | π₁ = Z₆, see [1]       |
| 2. | A₁₈ ⊕ A₁     | (1, 1) | π₁ = Z₆, see [1]       |
| 3. | (A₁₇ ⊕ A₂)   | (1, 0)* | π₁ = Γ, see [1, 5] (torus type) |
| 4. | A₁₆ ⊕ A₃     | (2, 0) | π₁ = Z₆, see [1]       |
| 5. | A₁₆ ⊕ A₂ ⊕ A₁ | (1, 1) | π₁ = Z₆, see [1]       |
| 6. | A₁₅ ⊕ A₄     | (0, 1)* | π₁ = Z₆, see [1]       |
| 7. | A₁₄ ⊕ A₄ ⊕ A₁ | (0, 3) |                         |
| 8. | (A₁₄ ⊕ A₂) ⊕ A₃ | (1, 0) | π₁ = Γ, see §4.5 (torus type) |
| 9. | (A₁₄ ⊕ A₂) ⊕ A₂ ⊕ A₁ | (1, 0) | π₁ = Γ, see §4.6 (torus type) |
| 10. | A₁₃ ⊕ A₆     | (0, 2) |                         |
| 11. | A₁₃ ⊕ A₄ ⊕ A₂ | (2, 0) |                         |
| 12. | A₁₂ ⊕ A₇     | (0, 1) |                         |
| 13. | A₁₂ ⊕ A₆ ⊕ A₁ | (1, 1) |                         |
| 14. | A₁₂ ⊕ A₄ ⊕ A₃ | (1, 0) |                         |
| 15. | A₁₂ ⊕ A₄ ⊕ A₂ ⊕ A₁ | (1, 1) |                         |
| 16. | A₁₁ ⊕ 2A₄   | (2, 0) |                         |
| 17. | (A₁₁ ⊕ 2A₂) ⊕ A₄ | (1, 0) | π₁ = Γ, see §4.7 (torus type) |
| 18. | A₁₀ ⊕ A₆     | (2, 0)* |                     |
| 19. | A₁₀ ⊕ A₈ ⊕ A₁ | (1, 1) |                     |
| 20. | A₁₀ ⊕ A₇ ⊕ A₂ | (2, 0) |                     |
| 21. | A₁₀ ⊕ A₆ ⊕ A₃ | (0, 1) |                     |
| 22. | A₁₀ ⊕ A₆ ⊕ A₂ ⊕ A₁ | (1, 1) |                     |
| 23. | A₁₀ ⊕ A₅ ⊕ A₄ | (2, 0) |                     |
| 24. | A₁₀ ⊕ 2A₄ ⊕ A₁ | (1, 1) |                     |
| 25. | A₁₀ ⊕ A₄ ⊕ A₃ ⊕ A₂ | (1, 0) |                     |
| 26. | A₁₀ ⊕ A₄ ⊕ 2A₂ ⊕ A₁ | (2, 0) |                     |
| 27. | A₉ ⊕ A₆ ⊕ A₄ | (1, 1)* |                  |
| 28. | A₉ ⊕ 2A₄ ⊕ A₂ | (1, 0)* | π₁ = (2.2), see [6] (D₁₀-sextic) |
| 29. | (2A₈) ⊕ A₃   | (1, 0) | π₁ = Γ, see [5] (torus type) |
| 30. | A₈ ⊕ A₇ ⊕ A₄ | (0, 1) |                     |
| 31. | A₈ ⊕ A₆ ⊕ A₄ ⊕ A₁ | (1, 1) |                     |
| 32. | (A₈ ⊕ A₅ ⊕ A₂) ⊕ A₄ | (0, 1) | nt104 in [12] (torus type) |
| 33. | (A₈ ⊕ 3A₂) ⊕ A₄ ⊕ A₁ | (1, 0) | π₁ = (1.3), see §4.8 (torus type) |
| 34. | A₇ ⊕ 2A₆     | (0, 1) |                     |
| 35. | A₇ ⊕ A₆ ⊕ A₄ ⊕ A₂ | (2, 0) |                     |
| 36. | A₇ ⊕ 2A₄ ⊕ 2A₂ | (1, 0) |                     |
| 37. | 3A₆ ⊕ A₁     | (1, 0) | π₁ = Z₃ × D₁₄, see §4.3 (D₁₄-sextic) |
| 38. | 2A₆ ⊕ A₄ ⊕ A₂ ⊕ A₁ | (2, 0) |                     |
| 39. | A₆ ⊕ A₅ ⊕ 2A₄ | (2, 0) |                     |

Marked with a * are the sets of singularities realized by reducible sextics as well.

There are 42 real and 20 pairs of complex conjugate curves.
Typically, we use affine coordinates \((x, y)\) in \(\Sigma_d\) such that \(E\) is given by \(y = \infty\); then, \(x\) can be regarded as an affine coordinate in the base of the ruling. (The line \(\{x = \infty\}\) plays no special role; usually, it is assumed sufficiently generic.) The fiber of the ruling over a point \(x\) in the base is denoted by \(F_x\), and the affine fiber over \(x\) is \(F^o_x := F_x \cap E\). This is an affine space over \(\mathbb{C}\); in particular, one can speak about convex hulls in \(F^o_x\).

An \(n\)-gonal curve is a reduced curve \(C \subset \Sigma_d\) intersecting each fiber at \(n\) points, \(i.e.,\) such that the restriction to \(C\) of the ruling \(\Sigma_d \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^1\) is a map of degree \(n\). A singular fiber of an \(n\)-gonal curve \(C\) is a fiber \(F\) of the ruling intersecting \(C + E\) geometrically at fewer than \((n + 1)\) points. A singular fiber \(F\) is proper if \(C\) does not pass through \(F \cap E\). The curve \(C\) is proper if so are all its singular fibers. In other words, \(C\) is proper if it is disjoint from \(E\).

In affine coordinates \((x, y)\) as above an \(n\)-gonal curve \(C \subset \Sigma_d\) is given by a polynomial of the form \(\sum_{i=0}^n a_i(x)y^i\), where \(\deg a_i \leq m + d(n - i)\) for some \(m \geq 0\) (in fact, \(m = C \cdot E\)) and at least one polynomial \(a_i\) does have the prescribed degree (so that \(C\) does not contain the fiber \(\{x = \infty\}\)). The curve is proper if and only if \(m = 0\); in this case \(a_n(x) = \text{const}\).

A proper \(n\)-gonal curve \(C \subset \Sigma_d\) defines a distinguished zero section \(Z \subset \Sigma_d\), sending each point \(x \in \mathbb{P}^1\) to the barycenter of the \(n\) points of \(F^o_x \cap C\). Certainly, this section does not need to coincide with \(\{y = 0\}\), which depends on the choice of the coordinates.

3.2. The cubic resolvent. Consider a reduced real quartic polynomial

\[
(3.1) \quad f(x, y) := y^4 + p(x)y^2 + q(x)y + r(x),
\]

so that its roots \(y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4\) (at each point \(x\)) satisfy \(y_1 + y_2 + y_3 + y_4 = 0\), and consider the (modified) cubic resolvent of \(f\)

\[
(3.2) \quad y^3 + g_2(x)y + g_3(x) = 0
\]

obtained by the substitution \(y = \bar{y} + \frac{2}{3}p\). The discriminants of (3.1)–(3.3) are equal:

\[
(3.4) \quad D = 16p^4 - 4p^3q^2 - 128p^2r^2 + 144pq^2r - 27q^4 + 256r^3.
\]

Recall that \(D = 0\) if and only if (3.1) or, equivalently, (3.2) or (3.3) has a multiple root. Otherwise, \(D < 0\) if and only if exactly two roots of (3.1) are real. The roots of (3.2) are

\[
\alpha := (y_1 + y_2)(y_3 + y_4) = -(y_1 + y_2)^2,
\]

\[
\beta := (y_1 + y_3)(y_2 + y_4) = -(y_1 + y_3)^2,
\]

\[
\gamma := (y_1 + y_4)(y_2 + y_3) = -(y_1 + y_4)^2,
\]

and those of (3.3) are obtained from (3.5) by shifting the barycenter \(\frac{1}{3}(\alpha + \beta + \gamma)\) to zero.

Remark 3.6. If \(\{f(x, y) = 0\}\) is a proper tetragonal curve in a Hirzebruch surface \(\Sigma_d\), then (3.2) defines a proper trigonal curve \(C' \subset \Sigma_d\) and a distinguished section \(S := \{y = 0\}\) (in general, other than the zero section) which is tangent (more precisely, has even intersection index at each intersection point) to \(C'\). Conversely,
Remark 3.7. One has
\[ q = -(y_1 + y_2)(y_1 + y_3)(y_1 + y_4); \]
hence, \( q \) vanishes if and only if two of the roots of (3.1) are opposite. If all roots are non-real, \( y_{1,2} = \alpha \pm \beta'i, \ y_{3,4} = -\alpha \pm \beta''i, \ \alpha, \beta', \beta'' \in \mathbb{R} \), then
\[ q = 2\alpha(\beta'^2 - \beta''^2), \quad b_1 = -8\alpha^2(\beta'^2 + \beta''^2) + (\beta'^2 - \beta''^2)^2. \]
Hence, \( q(x) = 0 \) if and only if either \( \alpha = 0 \) (and then \( b_1(x) > 0 \), assuming that \( D(x) \neq 0 \)) or \( \beta' = \pm \beta'' \) (and then \( b_1(x) < 0 \)). If \( y_1 = y_2, \ i.e., \beta' = 0, \) then \( q(x) > 0 \)
if and only if one has the inequality \( y_1 < \text{Re} \ y_3 = \text{Re} \ y_4 \) equivalent to \( y_1 < 0 \).
Remark 3.8. Observe also that, if \( y_1 = y_2, \) then \( g_3 \) takes the form
\[ g_3 = \frac{2}{27}(y_1 - y_4)^3(y_1 - y_3)^3. \]
Hence, \( g_3(x) < 0 \) if and only if the two other roots are real and separated by the double root \( y_1 = y_2 \). Otherwise, either \( y_1 < \text{Re} \ y_3, \text{Re} \ y_4 \) or \( y_1 > \text{Re} \ y_3, \text{Re} \ y_4 \), and, in view of Remark 3.7, the former holds if and only if \( q(x) > 0 \).

3.3. The real monodromy. Choose affine coordinates \((x, y)\) in the Hirzebruch surface \( \Sigma_d \) so that the exceptional section \( E \) is \( \{ y = \infty \} \). Consider a real proper tetragonal curve \( C \subset \Sigma_d \); it is given by a real polynomial \( f(x, y) \) as in (3.1). Over a generic real point \( x \in \mathbb{R} \), the four points \( y_1, \ldots, y_4 \) of the intersection \( C \cap F_x \)
can be ordered lexicographically, according to the decreasing of \( \text{Re} \ y \) first and \( \text{Im} \ y \) second. We always assume this ordering. Then, choosing a real reference point \( y \gg 0 \), we have a canonical geometric basis \( \{ \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_4 \} \) for the fundamental group \( \pi(x) := \pi_1(F_x \setminus C, y) \), see Figure 1.

![Figure 1. The canonical basis](image)

Let \( x_1, \ldots, x_r \) be all real singular fibers of \( C \), ordered by increasing. For each \( i \),
consider a pair of nonsingular fibers \( x^{-}_i := x_i - \epsilon \) and \( x^{+}_i := x_i + \epsilon \), where \( \epsilon \) is a sufficiently small positive real number, see Figure 2. Denote \( x_0 = x_{r+1} = \infty \) and, assuming the fiber \( x = \infty \) nonsingular, pick also a pair of real nonsingular fibers \( x^{-}_{r+1} = x^{-}_\infty := R \gg 0 \) and \( x^{+}_0 = x^{+}_\infty := -R \).
Identify all groups \( \pi(x_i^+) \) with the free group \( \mathbb{F}_4 \) by means of their respective canonical bases. (All reference points are chosen in a real section \( y = \text{const} \gg 0 \), which is assumed disjoint from the fiberwise
convex hull of $C$ over the disk $|x| \leq R$.) Consider the semicircles $t \mapsto x_i + \epsilon e^{i\pi(1-t)}$, $t \in [0,1]$, and the line segments $t \mapsto t$, $t \in [x_j^+, x_{j+1}^-]$, cf. Figure 2. These paths give rise to the monodromy isomorphisms

$$
\beta_i : \pi(x_i^+) \to \pi(x_i^-), \quad \gamma_j : \pi(x_j^+) \to \pi(x_j^-),
$$

$i = 1, \ldots, r, j = 0, \ldots, r$. In addition, we also have the monodromy $\beta_0 = \beta_\infty = \beta_r+1 : \pi(x_\infty^+) \to \pi(x_\infty^-)$ along the semicircle $t \mapsto \Re^{i\pi t}$, $t \in [0,1]$, and the local monodromies

$$
\mu_i : \pi(x_i^+) \to \pi(x_i^+), \quad i = 1, \ldots, r
$$

along the circles $t \mapsto x_i + \epsilon e^{2\pi it}$, $t \in [0,1]$. Using the identifications $\pi(x_i^+) = \mathbb{F}_4$ fixed above, all $\beta_i, \mu_i, \gamma_j$ can be regarded as elements of the automorphism group $\text{Aut} \mathbb{F}_4$, and as such they belong to the braid group $\mathbb{B}_4$. Recall, see [3], that Artin’s braid group $\mathbb{B}_4 \subset \text{Aut}(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_4)$ is the subgroup consisting of the automorphisms taking each generator $\alpha_i$ to a conjugate of a generator and preserving the product $\alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3\alpha_4$. It is generated by the three braids

$$
\sigma_i : \alpha_i \mapsto \alpha_i\alpha_{i+1}\alpha_i^{-1}, \quad \alpha_{i+1} \mapsto \alpha_i, \quad i = 1, 2, 3,
$$

the defining relations being $\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2\}_3 = \{\sigma_2, \sigma_3\}_3 = [\sigma_1, \sigma_3] = 1$.

3.4. The computation. The braids $\beta_i, \mu_i$, and $\gamma_j$ introduced in the previous section are easily computed from the real part $C_\mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ of the curve. In the figures, we use the following notation:

- real branches of $C$ are represented by solid bold lines;
- pairs $y_i, y_{i+1}$ of complex conjugate branches are represented by dotted lines (showing the common real part $\Re y_i = \Re y_{i+1}$);
- relevant fibers of $\Sigma_d$ are represented by vertical dotted grey lines.

Certainly, the dotted lines are not readily seen in the figures; however, in most cases, it is only the intersection indices that matter, and the latter are determined by the indexing of the branches at the starting and ending positions.

We summarize the results in the next three statements. The first one is obvious: essentially, one speaks about the link of the singularity $y^4 - x^{4d}$.

**Lemma 3.9.** Assume that $R \gg 0$ is so large that the disk $\{|x| < R\}$ contains all singular fibers of $C$. Then one has $\beta_\infty = \Delta^d$, where $\Delta := \sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_1 \in \mathbb{B}_4$ is the Garside element.
The following lemma is easily proved by considering the local normal forms of the singularities. (In the simplest case of a vertical tangent, the circumventing braids $\beta$ are computed, e.g., in [13]; the general case is completely similar.) For the statement, we extend the standard notation $A_m$, $m \geq 1$, to $A_0$ to designate a simple tangency of $C$ and the fiber.

**Lemma 3.10.** The braids $\beta_j$ and $\mu_j$ about a singular fiber $x_j$ of type $A_m$, $m \geq 0$, depend only on $m$ and the pair $(i, i+1)$ of indices of the branches that merge at the singular point. They are as shown in Figure 3.

![Figure 3. The braids $\beta$ and $\mu$](image)

**Remark 3.11.** At a point of type $A_{2k-1}$, it is not important whether the two branches of $C$ at this point are real or complex conjugate. On the other hand, at a point of type $A_{2k}$ it does matter whether the number of real branches increases or decreases. If a fiber contains two double points, with indices $(1, 2)$ and $(3, 4)$, then the powers of $\sigma_1$ and $\sigma_2$ contributed to $\beta$ or $\mu$ by each of the points are multiplied; since $\sigma_1$ and $\sigma_2$ commute, the order is not important.

The following statement is our principal technical tool, most important being Figure 4, right, describing the behaviour of the ‘invisible’ branches. (Note that the two dotted lines in the figure may cross; the permutation of the branches depends on the parity of the twist parameter $t$ introduced in the statement.)

**Proposition 3.12.** Let $I$ be a real segment in the $x$-axis free of singular fibers of $C$. Then the monodromy $\gamma$ over $I$ is

- identity, if all four branches of $C$ over $I$ are real, and
- as shown in Figure 4 otherwise.

![Figure 4. The braids $\gamma$](image)

Here, $\tau := \sigma_2^{-1}\sigma_3\sigma_4^{-1}\sigma_2$ and the twist parameter $t$ in Figure 4, right is the number of roots $x' \in I$ of the coefficient $q(x)$, see (3.1), such that $b_1(x') > 0$, see (3.2), and
q changes sign at $x'$; each root $x'$ contributes $+1$ or $−1$ depending on whether $q$ is increasing or decreasing at $x'$, respectively.

Proof. The only case that needs consideration, viz. that of four non-real branches, see Figure 4, right, is given by Remark 3.7. Indeed, the canonical basis in the fiber $F^o_x$ over $x \in I$ changes when the real parts of all four branches vanish, and this happens when $q(x) = 0$ and $b_1(x) > 0$. This change contributes $τ_{±1}$ to $γ$, and the sign $±1$ (the direction of rotation) depends on whether $q$ increases or decreases. □

Remark 3.13. A longer segment $I$ with exactly two real branches of $C$ over it can be divided into smaller pieces $I_1, I_2, \ldots$, each containing a single crossing point as in Figure 4; then, the monodromy $γ$ over $I$ is the product of the contributions of each piece. In fact, as explained above, the precise position and number of crossings is irrelevant; what only matters is the final permutation between the endpoints of $I$.

For example, to minimize the number of elementary pieces, one can always assume the branches, both bold and dotted, monotonous.

3.5. The Zariski–van Kampen theorem. We are interested in the fundamental group $π_1 := π_1(Σ_d \setminus (\bar{C} \cup E))$, where $\bar{C} \subset Σ_d$ is a real tetragonal curve, possibly improper, and $E \subset Σ_d$ is the exceptional section. To compute $π_1$, we consider the proper model $C \subset Σ_d$, obtained from $\bar{C}$ by blowing up all points of intersection $\bar{C} \cap E$ and blowing down the corresponding fibers. In addition to the braids $β_i, μ_i$, and $γ_i$ introduced in §3.3, to each real singular fiber $x_i$ of $C$ we assign its local slope $κ_i ∈ π(x_i^+)$, which depends on the type of the corresponding singular fiber of the original curve $\bar{C}$. Roughly, consider a small analytic disk $Φ \subset Σ_d$ transversal to the fiber $F_{x_i}$ and disjoint from $C$ and $E$, and a similar disk $\tilde{Φ} \subset Σ_d$ with respect to $\bar{C}$. Let $Φ' \subset Σ_d$ be the image of $Φ$, and assume that the boundaries $∂Φ$ and $∂(Φ')$ have a common point in the fiber over $x_i^+$. Then the loop $[∂(Φ')] : [∂Φ]^{-1}$ is homotopic to a certain class $κ_i ∈ π(x_i^+)$, well defined up to a few moves irrelevant in the sequel. This class is the slope.

Roughly, the slope measures (in the form of the twisted monodromy, see the definitions prior to Theorem 3.16) the deviation of the braid monodromy of an improper curve $\bar{C}$ from that of its proper model $C$. Slopes appear in the relation at infinity as well, compensating for the fact that, near improper singular fibers, the curve intersects any section of $Σ_d$. Details and further properties are found in [7, §5.1.3]; in this paper, slopes are used in Theorem 3.16.

Remark 3.14. In all examples considered below, $\bar{C} \subset Σ_{d−1}$ has a single improper fiber $F$, where $\bar{C}$ has a singular point of type $A_m$, $m \geq 1$, maximally transversal to both $E$ and $F$. If $F = \{x = 0\}$, such a curve $\bar{C}$ is given by a polynomial $\tilde{f}$ of the form $\sum_{i=0}^3 y^i a_i(x)$ with $a_4(x) = x^2$ and $x \mid a_3(x)$, and the defining polynomial of its transform $C \subset Σ_d$ is $f_m(x, y) := x^2 \tilde{f}(x, y/x)$. The corresponding singular fiber of $\bar{C}$ has a node $A_1$ at $(0, 0)$ and another double point $A_{m−2}$ (assuming $m \geq 2$).

Thus, the only nontrivial example relevant in the sequel is the one described below. (By the very definition, at each singular fiber $x_i$ proper for $\bar{C}$ the slope is $κ_i = 1$.) A great deal of other examples of both computing the slopes and using them in the study of the fundamental group are found in [7].

Example 3.15. At the only improper fiber $x_i = 0$ described in Remark 3.14 the slope is the class of $α_jα_{j+1}$, where $(j, j+1)$ are the two branches merging at the
The assertion is a restatement of the classical Zariski–van Kampen theorem modified for the case of improper curves, see [7, Theorem 5.50]. The relation at infinity \((a_1 \ldots a_4)^d = x_r \ldots x_1\) holds in \(\pi_1\) whenever all slopes are accounted for, namely those at the non-real fibers, are known to be trivial. The automorphism \(\rho_{r+1}: \pi(x_0) \to \pi(x_{r+1}) = \pi(x_0^+)\) is the monodromy along the ‘boundary’ of the upper half-plane \(\text{Im } x > 0\), see Figure 2, i.e., the product of the monodromies about all singular fibers in this half-plane; if the slopes at these fibers are all trivial, then \(\rho_{r+1} = \text{id} \in \pi_1\). Finally, if \(\tilde{C}\) has at most one pair of conjugate non-real singular fibers, then all but possibly one braid relations are present and hence they define the group, see [7, Lemma 5.59].
4. The computation

4.1. The strategy. We start with a plane sextic $D \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ and choose homogeneous coordinates $(z_0 : z_1 : z_2)$ so that $D$ has a singular point of type $A_m$, $m \geq 3$, at $(0 : 0 : 1)$ tangent to the axis $\{z_1 = 0\}$. Then, in the affine coordinates $x := z_1/z_0$, $y := z_2/z_0$, the curve $D$ is given by a polynomial $f$ as in Remark 3.14, and the same polynomial $\tilde{f}$ defines a certain tetragonal curve $\tilde{C} \subset \Sigma_1$, viz. the proper transform of $D$ under the blow-up of $(0 : 0 : 1)$. The common fundamental group

$$\pi_1 := \pi_1(\mathbb{P}^2 \setminus D) = \pi_1(\Sigma_1 \setminus (\tilde{C} \cup E))$$

is computed using Theorem 3.16 applied to $\tilde{C}$ and its transform $C \subset \Sigma_2$, with the only nontrivial slope $\sigma = \alpha_1 \alpha_2$ or $\alpha_3 \alpha_4$ over $x = 0$ given by Example 3.15. (Here, $E \subset \Sigma_1$ is the exceptional section, i.e. the exceptional divisor over the point $(0 : 0 : 1)$ blown up.) A priori, Theorem 3.16 may only produce a certain group $\mathfrak{g}$ that surjects onto $\pi_1$ rather than $\pi_1$ itself; however, in most cases this group $\mathfrak{g}$ is ‘minimal expected’ (cf. §4.4 below) and we do obtain $\pi_1$.

The assumption that the fiber $x = \infty$ is nonsingular is not essential as long as the singularity over $\infty$ is taken into consideration: one can always move $\infty$ to a generic point by a real projective change of coordinates. To keep the defining equations as simple as possible, we assume such a change of coordinates implicitly. Furthermore, it is only the cyclic order of the singular fibers in the circle $\mathbb{P}^1$ that matters, and sometimes we reorder the fibers by applying a cyclic permutation to their ‘natural’ indices. In other words, the braid $\beta_{\infty} = \Delta^2$ is in the center of $\mathbb{B}_4$ and, hence, it can be inserted at any place in the relation $\gamma_0 \beta_1 \gamma_1 \ldots \gamma_r \beta_{\infty} = 1$.

To compute the braids, we outline the real (bold lines) and imaginary (dotted lines) branches of $C$ in the figures. Recall that it is only the mutual position of the real branches and their intersection indices with the imaginary ones that matters, see Remark 3.13. The ‘special’ node that contributes the only non-trivial slope (the blow-up center in the passage from $C$ to $\tilde{C}$, see Remark 3.14) is marked with a white dot; the other singular points of $C$ (including those of type $A_9$) are marked with black dots. The shape of the curve can mostly be recovered using Remarks 3.7 and 3.8; however, it is usually easier to determine the mutual position of the roots directly via Maple. The braids $\beta_i, \mu_i$, and $\gamma_j$ are computed from the figures as explained in §3.4.

Warning 4.1. The polynomial $f_{\infty}$ given by Remark 3.14 is used to determine the slope and mutual position of the two singular points over $x = 0$: the ‘special’ node is always at $(0,0)$. For all other applications, e.g., for Proposition 3.12, this polynomial should be converted to the reduced form (3.1).

4.2. Relations. Recall that a braid relation $\tilde{m}_i = \text{id}$ stands for a quadruple of relations $\alpha_j \uparrow \tilde{m}_i = \alpha_j$, $j = 1, \ldots, 4$. Alternatively, this can be regarded as an infinite sequence of relations $\alpha \uparrow \tilde{m}_i = \alpha$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_4$; or, equivalently, as a quadruple of relations $\alpha'_j \uparrow \tilde{m}_i = \alpha'_j$, $j = 1, \ldots, 4$, where $\alpha'_1, \ldots, \alpha'_4$ is any basis for $\mathbb{F}_4$. For this reason, in the computation below we start with the braid relations $\alpha'_j \uparrow \tilde{\mu}_i = \alpha'_j$ in the canonical basis over $x_i^+$ and translate them to $x_i^+ \text{ via } \rho_i^{-1}$. In the most common case $\tilde{\mu}_i = \sigma_r^p$, $r = 1, 2, 3, p \in \mathbb{Z}$, the whole quadruple is equivalent to the single relation $\{\alpha_r, \alpha'_{r+1}\}_p = 1$, where

$$\{\alpha, \beta\}_{2k} := (\alpha \beta)^k(\beta \alpha)^{-k}, \quad \{\alpha, \beta\}_{2k+1} := (\alpha \beta)^k \alpha (\alpha \beta)^{-k} \beta^{-1}.$$
Remark 4.2. The braid relations about the fiber \( x_k = 0 \) with the only nontrivial slope, see Example 3.15, can also be presimplified. Let \( \alpha'_1, \ldots, \alpha'_4 \) be the canonical basis in \( \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_k \). If \( \tau_k = \alpha'_1 \alpha'_2 \) and \( \mu_k = \sigma_1^2 \sigma_3^2 \), the braid relations \( \bar{\mu}_k = \text{id} \) and relation at infinity \( (\alpha'_1 \ldots \alpha'_4)^2 = \tau_k \) together are equivalent to
\[
(\alpha'_1 \alpha'_2)(\alpha'_3 \alpha'_4)^2 = (\alpha'_3, \alpha'_4)_{p+4} = 1.
\]
Similarly, if \( \tau_k = \alpha'_3 \alpha'_4 \) and \( \mu_k = \sigma_1^2 \sigma_3^2 \), we obtain
\[
(\alpha'_1 \alpha'_2)^2(\alpha'_3 \alpha'_4) = (\alpha'_1, \alpha'_2)_{p+4} = 1.
\]
Certainly, these relations should be translated back to \( x_0^+ \). Note, though, that we do not use this simplification in the sequel.

Remark 4.3. In some cases, simpler relations are obtained if another point \( x_i^+ \), \( i > 0 \), is taken for the reference fiber. To do so, one merely replaces the braids \( \rho_j \), \( j = 1, \ldots, r + 1 = \infty \), with \( \rho'_j := \rho_{j-1} \rho_j \).

All computations below were performed using \textsc{GAP} [9], with the help of the simple braid manipulation routines contained in [7]. The \textsc{GAP} code can be downloaded from http://www.fen.bilkent.edu.tr/~degt/papers/papers.htm. The processing is almost fully automated, the input being the braids \( \beta_i, \mu, \gamma \), and the only nontrivial slope \( \tau_k = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \) or \( \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \), which are read off from the diagrams depicting the curves.

4.3. The set of singularities \( 3A_6 \oplus A_1 \), line 37. Any sextic with this set of singularities is \( D_{14} \)-special, see [4], and, according to [8], any \( D_{14} \)-special sextic can be given by an equation of the form
\[
2t(t^3 - 1)(z_0^4 z_1 z_2 + z_1^4 z_2 z_3 + z_2^4 z_3 z_0)
+ (t^3 - 1)(z_0^4 z_1^2 + z_1^4 z_2^2 + z_2^4 z_3^2) + t^2(t^3 - 1)(z_0^4 z_2^2 + z_1^4 z_3^2 + z_2^4 z_1^2)
+ 2t(t^3 + 1)(z_0^3 z_1^3 + z_1^3 z_2^3 + z_3^3 z_0^3) + 4t^2(t^3 + 2)(z_0^3 z_1^2 z_2 + z_1^3 z_2^2 z_3 + z_3^3 z_0^2 z_1)
+ 2(t^6 + 4t^3 + 1)(z_0^3 z_1 z_2^2 + z_1^3 z_2 z_3^2 + z_3^3 z_0 z_1^2) + t(t^6 + 13t^3 + 10)z_0^2 z_1^2 z_2^2;
\]
\( t^3 \neq 1 \). The set of singularities of this curve is \( 3A_6 \oplus A_1 \) if and only if \( t^3 = -27 \); we use the real value \( t = -3 \). After the substitution \( z_0 = 1 \), \( z_1 = x + \frac{1}{3} \), and \( z_2 = y/x \) the equation is brought to the form considered in Remark 3.14. Up to a positive factor, the discriminant (3.4) with respect to \( y \) is
\[
-x^5(27x^3 - 648x^2 + 6363x + 7)(3x - 2)^2(3x + 1)^7,
\]
which has real roots
\[
x_1 = -\frac{1}{3}, \quad x_2 \approx -0.001, \quad x_3 = 0, \quad x_4 = \frac{2}{3}, \quad x_5 = \infty
\]
and two simple imaginary roots. Hence, Theorem 3.16 does compute the group.

The only root of \( q \) on the real segment \([-\infty, x_1]\) is \( x' \approx -3.48 \), and \( b_1(x') < 0 \); hence, one has \( q_0 = \text{id} \), see Proposition 3.12. The other braids \( \beta_i, \gamma \) are easily found from Figure 5, and, using Theorem 3.16 and \textsc{GAP}, we obtain a group of order 42. This concludes the proof of Theorem 1.1. ■
4.4. Sextics of torus type. All maximal, in the sense of degeneration, sextics of torus type are described in [12], where a sextic $D$ is represented by a pair of polynomials $f_2(x, y), f_3(x, y)$ of degree 2 and 3, respectively, so that the defining polynomial of $D$ is $f_{tor} := f_2^3 + f_3^2$. (Below, these equations are cited in a slightly simplified form: I tried to clear the denominators by linear changes of variables and appropriate coefficients.) Each curve (at least, each of those considered below) has a type $A_m, m \geq 3$, singularity at $(0, 0)$ tangent to the $y$-axis. Hence, we start with the substitution $\tilde{f}(x, y) := y^6 f_{tor}(x/y, 1/y)$ to obtain a polynomial $\tilde{f}$ as in Remark 3.14; then we proceed as in §4.1.

To identify the group $g$ given by Theorem 3.16 as $\Gamma$, we use the following GAP code, which was suggested to me by E. Artal:

```gpg
P := PresentationNormalClosure(g, Subgroup(g, a));
SimplifyPresentation(P);
```

Here, $a$ is an appropriate ratio $\alpha_i \alpha_j^{-1}$ which normally generates the commutant of $g$. If the resulting presentation has two generators and no relations, we conclude that $g = \pi_1 = \Gamma$, even when the statement of Theorem 3.16 does not guarantee a complete set of relations. Indeed, a priori we have epimorphisms $g \twoheadrightarrow \pi_1 \twoheadrightarrow \Gamma$ (the latter follows from the fact that the curve is assumed to be of torus type), which induce epimorphisms $[g, g] \twoheadrightarrow [\pi_1, \pi_1] \twoheadrightarrow [\Gamma, \Gamma] = F_2$ of the commutants. If $[g, g] = F_2$, both these epimorphisms are isomorphisms (since $F_2$ is Hopfian) and the 5-lemma implies that $g \twoheadrightarrow \pi_1 \twoheadrightarrow \Gamma$ are also isomorphisms.

In fact, in some cases (e.g., in §4.5 and §4.6), the call `SimplifiedFpGroup(g)` returns a recognizable presentation of $\Gamma$.

4.5. The set of singularities $(A_{14} \oplus A_2) \oplus A_3$, line 8. The curve in question is ntt139 in [12]:

\[
\begin{align*}
f_2 &= 80(-36y^2 + 120xy - 82x^2 + 2x), \\
f_3 &= 100(-1512y^3 + 7794y^2x - 18y^2 - 11664y^2x^2 + 144xy + 5313x^3 - 194x^2 + x).
\end{align*}
\]

Up to a positive coefficient, the discriminant of $f_{nr}$ is

\[x^{13}(5120x^4 + 36864x^3 + 3456x^2 - 2160x - 405)(x - 1)^3.\]

It has five real roots, which we reorder cyclically as follows:

\[
x_1 = 0, \quad x_2 \approx 0.27, \quad x_3 = 1, \quad x_4 = \infty, \quad x_5 \approx -7.1.
\]

Besides, there are two conjugate imaginary singular fibers, which are of type $A_0$.

The curve is depicted in Figure 6, from which all braids $\beta_i, \gamma_j$ are easily found. Taking $x_0^+$ for the reference fiber and using $a = \alpha_1 \alpha_2^{-1}$ in (4.4), we obtain $\pi_1 = \Gamma$. 

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure5}
\caption{The set of singularities $3A_6 \oplus A_1$, line 37}
\end{figure}
4.6. **The set of singularities** $(A_{14} \oplus A_2) \oplus A_3$, line 9. The curve is $nt_{142}$ in [12]:

$$f_2 = -45y^2 - 240yx - 106x^2 + 90x,$$

$$f_3 = 1025y^3 + 6045y^2x - 375y^2 + 5490yx^2 - 4050yx + 1354x^3 - 2040x^2 + 750x.$$

Up to a positive coefficient, the discriminant of $f_{nr}$ is

$$-x^{13}(8x^3 - 10720x^2 + 14250x - 5625)(x + 1)^2(14x + 15)^3,$$

and all its roots are real:

$$x_1 = \frac{15}{14}, \quad x_2 = -1, \quad x_3 = 0, \quad x_4 \approx 1338, \quad x_5 = \infty.$$

The braids $\beta_i, \gamma_j$ are found from Figure 7 and, using $x_0^+$ as the reference fiber and

4.7. **The set of singularities** $(A_{11} \oplus 2A_2) \oplus A_4$, line 17. This is $nt_{118}$ in [12]:

$$f_2 = \frac{1}{5}(-3456y^2 + 1200yx - 3005x^2 + 240x),$$

$$f_3 = \frac{1}{5}(-89856y^3 + 130464y^2x - 6912y^2 - 112680yx^2 + 8640yx + 91345x^3 - 13320x^2 + 480x).$$

Up to a positive coefficient, the discriminant of $f_{nr}$ is

$$-x^{10}(25x^3 + 290x^2 + 360x + 162)(35x^2 - 384x + 1152)^3.$$

It has three real roots, which we reorder cyclically as follows:

$$x_1 = 0, \quad x_2 = \infty, \quad x_3 \approx -10.26.$$

In addition, there are two pairs of complex conjugate singular fibers, of types $A_2$
and $A_0$. Thus, \textit{a priori} Theorem 3.16 only gives us a certain epimorphism $g \to \pi_1$. However, using $a = \alpha_1 \sigma_{-1}^2$ in (4.4), we conclude that $g = \pi_1 = \Gamma$. (All braids are found from Figure 8 and the reference fiber is $x_1^+$, see Remark 4.3.)

4.8. The set of singularities $(A_8 \oplus 3A_2) \oplus A_4 \oplus A_1$, line 33. This curve is \texttt{nt83} in [12]:

$$f_2 = -565y^2 - 14yx + 176y - 5x^2 + 104x - 16, \quad f_3 = 13321y^3 + 3135y^2x - 6294y^2 + 207yx^2 - 3516yx + 1056y + 25x^3 - 558x^2 + 624x - 64.$$ 

Up to a positive coefficient, the discriminant of $f_{nr}$ is

$$x^3(x + 3)(x + 9)^2(11915x^3 + 96579x^2 - 14823x + 729)^3(x - 9)^9.$$ 

It has five real roots, which we reorder cyclically as follows:

$$x_1 = 0, \quad x_2 = 9, \quad x_3 = -9, \quad x_4 \approx -8.26, \quad x_5 = -3.$$ 

We conclude that the curve has only two non-real singular fibers, which are cusps. Hence, Theorem 3.16 gives us a complete presentation of $\pi_1$.

In the interval $(x_5, x_1)$, where $f$ has four imaginary branches, $q$ has four roots

$$x_1' \approx -2.93, \quad x_2' = -1.92, \quad x_3' \approx -0.79, \quad x_4' \approx -0.14,$$

with $b_1$ negative at $x_1'$, $x_3'$ and positive at $x_2'$, $x_4'$; at the latter two points one also has $q' < 0$. Hence, $\gamma_0 = \tau^{-2}$, see Proposition 3.12. All other braids are easily found from Figure 9.
Remark 4.6. For a further simplification, observe that the braid $\rho_\infty$ appearing in Theorem 3.16 equals

$$\sigma_2^{-1}\sigma_0\sigma_2^{-1}\sigma_1\sigma_2^{-1}\cdot \sigma_2^{-1}\cdot \sigma_2^{-1}\cdot \sigma_3^{-1}\cdot \sigma_2^{-1}\cdot \sigma_3^{-1}\cdot \sigma_2^{-1}\cdot (\sigma_3\sigma_1\sigma_2)^4,$$

and one can check that $\rho_\infty = \rho_{im}^{-1}\sigma_1^3\rho_{im}$, where $\rho_{im} := \sigma_2\sigma_1^{-1}\sigma_3^2\sigma_2$. (Note that $\rho_\infty$ represents the monodromy about a single imaginary cusp of the curve; hence, it is expected to be conjugate to $\sigma_1^3$.) Thus, we can replace the quadruple of relations $\rho_\infty = \text{id}$ with a single relation $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2\}_3 \rightarrow \rho_{im} = 1$, cf. §4.2.

Now, taking $x_3^+$ for the reference fiber, see Remark 4.3, using Remark 4.6, and applying SimplifiedFpGroup(g), we arrive at (1.3). This presentation has three generators and four relations of total length 48. Together with the previous sections, this concludes the proof of Theorem 1.2.

□

Remark 4.7. The Alexander module of the group $\pi_1$ considered in this section is $\mathbb{Z}[t, t^{-1}] / (t^2 - t + 1)$, and the finite quotients $\pi_1 / \alpha_p^k$, $p = 2, 3, 4$, are isomorphic to the similar quotients of $\Gamma$. My laptop failed to compute the order of $\pi_1 / \alpha_5^5$.

Remark 4.8. In (4.5), the singular point at the origin is of type $A_1$. One can start with a change of variables $x \mapsto y + 9$, $y \mapsto x + 1$ and resolve the type $A_8$ point instead. The tetragonal model is depicted in Figure 10, and the computation becomes slightly simpler, but the resulting presentation is of the same complexity, even with the additional observation that $\rho_\infty = \rho_{im}^{-1}\sigma_1^3\rho_{im}$, where $\rho_{im} := \sigma_2\sigma_1^{-1}\sigma_3^2\sigma_2$, cf. Remark 4.6.

4.9. Proof of Proposition 1.4. For the sets of singularities $(A_{14} + A_2) + A_3$, line 8, $(A_{14} + A_2) + A_2 + A_1$, line 9, and $(A_{11} + 2A_2) + A_1$, line 17, the statement is an immediate consequence of [7, Theorem 7.48]. For $3A_0 + A_1$, line 37, the only proper quotient of the commutant $[\pi_1, \pi_1] = \mathbb{Z}_7$ is trivial; hence, the group $\pi_1'$ of any perturbation $D'$ is either abelian, $\pi_1' = \mathbb{Z}_6$, or isomorphic to $\pi_1$, the latter being the case if and only if $D'$ is $\mathbb{D}_{14}$-special, see [4].

For the remaining set of singularities $(A_8 + 3A_2) + A_4 + A_1$, line 33, we proceed as follows. Any proper perturbation factors through a maximal one, where a single singular point $P$ of type $A_m$ splits into two points $A_{m'}$, $A_{m''}$, so that $m' + m'' = m - 1$. Assume that $P \neq (0 : 0 : 1)$, see §4.1. Then this point corresponds to a certain singular fiber $x_i$ of the tetragonal model $C$ and gives rise to a braid relation $\{\alpha_k, \alpha_{k+1}\}_{m+1} \mapsto \rho_i^{-1} = 1$, see §4.2. For the new curve $D'$, this relation changes to $\{\alpha_k, \alpha_{k+1}\}_s \mapsto \rho_i^{-1} = 1$, where $s := \gcd(m' + 1, m'' + 1)$.

![Figure 10. The set of singularities $(A_8 + 3A_2) + A_4 + A_1$, line 33, projected from $A_8$](image.png)
For any perturbation of any point $P$, we have $s = 3$ if $P$ is of type $A_8$ or $A_2$ and the result is still of torus type, and $s = 1$ otherwise. Now, the statement is easily proved by repeating the computation with the braid $\mu_i = \sigma_k^{n+1}$ replaced with $\sigma_k^n$.

(If it is the type $A_4$ point that is perturbed, one can use the alternative tetragonal model given by Remark 4.8.)

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