# COMPACTIFICATIONS OF $\boldsymbol{C} \times \boldsymbol{C}^{*}$ AND $\left(\boldsymbol{C}^{*}\right)^{2}$ 

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$0^{\circ}$. By a compactification of a complex manifold $V$ we mean a compact complex manifold $S$ together with an analytic set $C$ in $S$ such that $S-C$ is biholomorphic to $V$. It is known that every compactification of $C^{2}$ is a rational surface. (Kodaira [4], Morrow [5]) In this note we shall prove the following two theorems:

THEOREM 1. Every compactification of $\boldsymbol{C} \times \boldsymbol{C}^{*}$ is a rational surface.
TheOrem 2. Every compactification of $\left(\boldsymbol{C}^{*}\right)^{2}$ is of one of the following three types:
(0) a rational surface,
(1) a Hopf surface containing only one irreducible curve, or a manifold obtained from a Hopf surface of this type by blowing up at points of the curve (see $4^{\circ}$, case (d)).
(2) a unique $\boldsymbol{P}^{1}$-bundle $S$ over an elliptic curve admitting a unique global section $C$ with $I(C, C)=0$ such that $S-C$ is an analytically nontrivial principal C-bundle, i.e., the "Serre variety" according to Simha [9], or a manifold obtained from $S$ by blowing up at points of $C$.

As for Theorem 2, the existence of such three types has been pointed out by several authors (see for example the footnote of [10]), and recently Simha ([9]) has shown that every non-rational algebraic compactification with irreducible $C$ is of type (2).

Our proof is based on (i) a result obtained by Kodaira from the value distribution theory, from which follows the vanishing of the geometric genus of $S$, (ii) the method used by Mumford to see the topology of the neighborhood of a compact curve in a surface, in particular his criterion for simplicity, by which we shall show that, in the non-rational case, $C$ can be reduced to an irreducible elliptic curve, and (iii) Kodaira's classification theory of complex surfaces.
$1^{\circ}$. Let $S$ be a compact complex manifold of dimension 2 . We denote by $b_{k}(S), P_{m}(S)$, and $p_{g}(S)$ respectively, the $k$-th Betti number, the $m$-genus and the geometric genus of $S$. The intersection multiplicity $I\left(\Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2}\right)$ of $\Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2} \in H_{2}(S, R)$ is a non-singular symmetric bilinear form on
$H_{2}(S, \boldsymbol{R})$. We denote by ( $b^{+}, b^{-}$) the signature of this form.
By Kodaira [4, p. 45-46] we have
Proposition 1. If $S$ is a compactification of $\boldsymbol{C} \times \boldsymbol{C}^{*}$ or $\left(\boldsymbol{C}^{*}\right)^{2}$, then $P_{m}(S)=0$ for all $m$, in particular $p_{g}(S)=0$.

For $\left(C^{*}\right)^{2}$ this is not stated in [4], but we can easily verify it in the same manner as for $\boldsymbol{C} \times \boldsymbol{C}^{*}$ calculating the order of the mean degree of the mapping $f: \boldsymbol{C}^{2} \rightarrow\left(\boldsymbol{C}^{*}\right)^{2}$ defined by $f\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right)=\left(e^{z_{1}}, e^{z_{2}}\right)$.

Corollary. $S$ being as in the proposition,

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
b^{+}=2 p_{g}(S)+1=1 & \text { if } & b_{1}(S) & \text { is even }, \\
b^{+}=2 p_{g}(S)=0 & \text { if } & b_{1}(S) & \text { is odd } .
\end{array}
$$

This follows from Theorem 3 in [2] and the proposition.
$2^{\circ}$. Proof of Theorem 1. Let $S$ be a compactification of $C \times C^{*}$ with an analytic set $C, S-C \cong C \times C^{*} . C$ is connected, since there is no pair of open sets $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}$ in $\boldsymbol{C} \times \boldsymbol{C}^{*}$, which are not relatively compact such that $U_{1} \cap U_{2}=\varnothing$ and that $\left(\boldsymbol{C} \times \boldsymbol{C}^{*}\right)-\left(U_{1} \cup U_{2}\right)$ is compact. $C$ is of dimension 1. In fact, if $C$ were a point, every holomorphic function on $\boldsymbol{C} \times \boldsymbol{C}^{*}$ would be extended to the whole $S$ by Hartogs' theorem, and would be constant. Let us next consider the following exact homology sequence with real coefficients:

$$
0 \rightarrow H_{3}(S) \rightarrow H_{3}(S, C) \rightarrow H_{2}(C) \xrightarrow{i_{*}} H_{2}(S) \rightarrow H_{2}(S, C) .
$$

We have $\operatorname{dim} H_{3}(S, C)=\operatorname{dim} H^{1}(S-C)=1$ and $\operatorname{dim} H_{2}(S, C)=\operatorname{dim} H^{2}(S-C)=0$ by the Poincaré-Lefschetz duality. Therefore $b_{1}(S)=b_{3}(S)=0$ or 1. It is proved in [4] (using Proposition 1) that, if $b_{1}(S)=0$, then $S$ is rational. We shall show that the case $b_{1}(S)=1$ does not occur. Suppose that $b_{1}(S)=b_{3}(S)=1$. Then $i_{*}$ is an isomorphism and induces on $H_{2}(C)$ a non-singular symmetric bilinear form, which is represented by the intersection matrix $\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)$ with respect to the irreducible components $C_{j}$ of $C$. By the corollary to Proposition 1, this matrix is negative definite. Then by a theorem of Grauert ([1]), $C$ is exceptional and by collapsing $C$ to a point we obtain a normal complex space $S / C$. But this is a contradiction, since any holomorphic function on $S-C \cong C \times C^{*}$ would be extended to the whole $S / C$ (see Narasimhan [7] p. 118, Proposition 4), and would be constant. q.e.d.
$3^{\circ}$. Let $S$ be a complex manifold of dimension 2 and consider a connected compact analytic set $C$ of dimension 1 in $S$ with $n$ irreducible components, $C=\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} C_{j}$, satisfying the following conditions:
i) each irreducible component $C_{j}$ is regular,
ii) if $C_{j} \cap C_{k} \neq \varnothing$ for $j \neq k, C_{j}$ and $C_{k}$ intersect transversally at only one point,
iii) $C_{\imath} \cap C_{j} \cap C_{k}=\varnothing$, if $i, j$ and $k$ are distinct.

Following Mumford [6] and Ramanujam [8], we construct the boundary of a tubular neighborhood of $C$, as follows: For every singular point $p_{\nu}$ of $C$ we choose a coordinate neighborhood $U_{\nu} \cong\left\{\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right) ;\left|z_{1}\right|,\left|z_{2}\right|<R\right\}$ ( $R>1$ ), such that $C$ is defined by the equation $z_{1} z_{2}=0$, and that $U_{\nu} \cap$ $U_{\mu}=\varnothing$ for $\nu \neq \mu$. Next we introduce a Riemannian metric $d s$ in a neighborhood of $C$, which is of the form $d s^{2}=\left|d z_{1}\right|^{2}+\left|d z_{2}\right|^{2}$ in $U_{\nu}$. Using this metric we define the exponential map $\exp _{j}: W_{j, \varepsilon} \rightarrow S$, where $W_{j, \varepsilon}$ is a closed $\varepsilon$-neighborhood of the zero section of the normal bundle of $C_{j}$. If we take $\varepsilon$ sufficiently small, we may assume that $\exp _{j}$ is a homeomorphism from $W_{j, \varepsilon}$ onto $V_{j}$, where $V_{j}$ is a closed neighborhood of $C_{j}$ such that $V_{j} \cap V_{k}=\varnothing$ if $C_{j} \cap C_{k}=\varnothing$, and $V_{j} \cap V_{k} \subset U_{\nu}^{\prime}=\left\{p \in U_{\nu} ;\left|z_{1}(p)\right|\right.$, $\left.\left|z_{2}(p)\right|<1\right\}$ if $C_{j} \cap C_{k}=p_{\nu}$. We define $M=\partial\left(\mathbf{U}_{j=1}^{n} V_{j}\right) . \quad M$ is a topological manifold of dimension 3.

Let us next define a continuous map $\Phi$ of $[0,1] \times M$ onto $\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} V_{j}$ such that $\Phi(0 \times M)=C$ and that $\Phi \mid(0,1] \times M$ is a homeomorphism of ( 0,1$] \times M$ onto $\left(U V_{j}\right)-C$, in the following manner (cf. [8]):
i) for $(t, p)$ with $p \in M \cap \bar{U}_{\nu}^{\prime}$. The coordinates $\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right)$ of $p$ satisfy $\min \left\{\left|\boldsymbol{z}_{1}\right|,\left|\boldsymbol{z}_{2}\right|\right\}=\varepsilon$. Define $\Phi$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(t, z_{1}, z_{2}\right) \mapsto\left(t z_{1}+(1-t) \frac{\left(\left|z_{1}\right|-\varepsilon\right) z_{1}}{(1-\varepsilon)\left|z_{1}\right|}, t z_{2}\right) \quad \text { if } \quad\left|z_{1}\right| \geqq\left|z_{2}\right|=\varepsilon, \\
& \left(t, z_{1}, z_{2}\right) \mapsto\left(t z_{1}, t z_{2}+(1-t) \frac{\left(\left|z_{2}\right|-\varepsilon\right) z_{2}}{(1-\varepsilon)\left|z_{2}\right|}\right) \quad \text { if } \quad\left|z_{2}\right| \geqq\left|z_{1}\right|=\varepsilon .
\end{aligned}
$$

ii) for $(t, p)$ with $p \in M-\left(U U_{\nu}^{\prime}\right)$. There is a unique $j$ with $p \in \partial V_{j}$. Define $\Phi$ by $\Phi(t, p)=\exp _{j}\left(t \exp _{j}^{-1}(p)\right)$, where $t$ denotes the multiplication by $t$ on the fiber of the normal bundle.

Let $S / C$ be the topological space obtained by collapsing $C$, and let $\pi: S \rightarrow S / C$ denote the canonically defined continuous map. Set $\pi(C)=p_{0}$ and $\pi \circ \Phi=\Phi_{0}$. Then $M$ has the following property: There exists a continuous map $\Phi_{0}:[0,1] \times M \rightarrow S / C$ such that $\Phi_{0}(0 \times M)=p_{0}$ and that $\Phi_{0} \mid(0,1] \times M$ is a homeomorphism. Let us see that any topological space with this property is of the same homotopy type. We take any topological space $M^{\prime}$ with a continuous map $\Phi^{\prime}:[0,1] \times M^{\prime} \rightarrow S / C$ such that $\Phi^{\prime}\left(0 \times M^{\prime}\right)=p_{0}$ and that $\Phi^{\prime} \mid(0,1] \times M^{\prime}$ is a homeomorphism, and show the homotopy equivalence of $M$ and $M^{\prime}$. Take $t, t^{\prime} \in(0,1]$ sufficiently small, such that $\Phi_{0}(t \times M) \subset \Phi^{\prime}\left([0,1] \times M^{\prime}\right)$ and $\Phi^{\prime}\left(t^{\prime} \times M^{\prime}\right) \subset \Phi_{0}([0,1] \times M)$,
respectively. Let $\left(\Phi_{0} \mid(0,1] \times M\right)^{-1}=(\tau, \sigma)$ and $\left(\Phi^{\prime} \mid(0,1] \times M^{\prime}\right)^{-1}=\left(\tau^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime}\right)$, and define $f: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ by $f(p)=\sigma^{\prime} \circ \Phi_{0}(t, p)$ and $g: M^{\prime} \rightarrow M$ by $g\left(p^{\prime}\right)=\sigma \circ \Phi^{\prime}\left(t^{\prime}, p^{\prime}\right)$. Then $g \circ f: M \rightarrow M$ is homotopic to the identity map of $M$, since we have the homotopy $\tilde{h}:[0,1] \times M \rightarrow M$ defined by

$$
\tilde{h}(s, p)=\sigma \circ \Phi^{\prime}\left(s t^{\prime}+(1-s) \tau^{\prime} \circ \Phi_{0}(t, p), \sigma^{\prime} \circ \Phi_{0}(t, p)\right) .
$$

Indeed, $\widetilde{h}(0, p)=\sigma \circ \Phi^{\prime}\left(\tau^{\prime} \circ \Phi_{0}(t, p), \sigma^{\prime} \circ \Phi_{0}(t, p)\right)=\sigma \circ \Phi_{0}(t, p)=p$, and $\widetilde{h}(1, p)=$ $\sigma \circ \Phi^{\prime}\left(t^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime} \circ \Phi_{0}(t, p)\right)=g \circ f(p)$. Similarly we see that $f \circ g$ is homotopic to the identity map of $M^{\prime}$. Thus $M$ and $M^{\prime}$ are homotopically equivalent.

Now we consider the continuous map $\varphi$ of $M$ onto $C$ defined by $\varphi(p)=\Phi(0, p) . \quad \varphi$ induces surjective homomorphisms $\pi_{1}(M) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(C)$ and $\varphi_{*}: H_{1}(M, \boldsymbol{Z}) \rightarrow H_{1}(C, \boldsymbol{Z})$.

Proposition 2. (Mumford [6, p. 10]). The kernel $K$ of the homomorphism $\varphi_{*}$ is described as follows:
i) $K$ is generated by $\alpha_{1}, \cdots, \alpha_{n}$, where $\alpha_{j}$ is a loop in $M$ which goes around $C_{j}$ with positive orientation.
ii) the fundamental relations of these generators are

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right) \alpha_{k}=0, \quad j=1, \cdots, n .
$$

Corollary. $\quad \operatorname{rank}\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)=n-\operatorname{rank} H_{1}(M, \boldsymbol{Z})+\operatorname{rank} H_{1}(C, \boldsymbol{Z})$.
In fact $\operatorname{rank}\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)=n-\operatorname{rank} K$, and $\operatorname{rank} K=\operatorname{rank} H_{1}(M, Z)-$ rank $H_{1}(C, Z)$.
$C$ is said to be exceptional if there is a complex space $\breve{S}$ and a holomorphic map $f: S \rightarrow \breve{S}$ such that $f(C)$ is a point and that $f \mid S-C$ is a homeomorphism. By the theorem of Grauert referred to in $2^{\circ}, C$ is exceptional if and only if the intersection matrix is negative definite. If $\check{S}$ is a manifold, $C$ is said to be exceptional of the first kind.

Theorem (Mumford [6]). If $C$ is exceptional, $C$ is of the first kind if and only if $M$ is simply connected.
$4^{\circ}$. Proof of Theorem 2. Let $S$ be a compactification of $\left(C^{*}\right)^{2}$ with $C, S-C \cong\left(C^{*}\right)^{2} . \quad C$ is connected and of dimension 1 . We may assume that $C=\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} C_{j}$ satisfies the conditions (\#) by blowing up at points in $C$ if necessary. $M$ defined in $3^{\circ}$ with respect to $C$ is homotopically equivalent to a 3 -dimensional torus. Indeed, $C^{*} \cong S^{1} \times R,\left(C^{*}\right)^{2} \cong S^{1} \times$ $S^{1} \times R^{2} \cong S^{1} \times S^{1} \times S^{2}-S^{1} \times S^{1} \times p\left(p \in S^{2}\right)$ as differentiable manifolds. The construction of $M$ is also valid in this situation. So $M \cong S^{1} \times S^{1} \times S^{1}$. Hence $\pi_{1}(M)=H_{1}(M, \boldsymbol{Z})=\boldsymbol{Z} \oplus \boldsymbol{Z} \oplus \boldsymbol{Z}$. Since $\pi_{1}(M) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(C)$ is surjective, $\pi_{1}(C)$ is commutative.

In general $\pi_{1}(C)=\pi_{1}\left(C_{1}\right) * \cdots * \pi_{1}\left(C_{n}\right) * \pi_{1}(G)$, the free product of the fundamental groups of the irreducible components $C_{j}$ and that of the graph $G$ of $\cup C_{j} . \quad \pi_{1}(G)$ is a free group with $p$ generators when $G$ is of the first Betti number $p$. In order that $\pi_{1}(C)$ is commutative, all but one of the components of the product must vanish, moreover if $\pi_{1}\left(C_{j}\right) \neq 1$, the genus of $C_{j}$ is 1 , and if $\pi_{1}(G) \neq 1, G$ contains only one loop.

Thus we have the following three possibilities regarding the configuration of $C$ :
i) $\pi_{1}(C)=H_{1}(C, \boldsymbol{Z})=0$, all $C_{j}$ are rational curves and the graph is a tree,
ii) $\pi_{1}(C)=H_{1}(C, \boldsymbol{Z})=\boldsymbol{Z}$, all $C_{j}$ are rational curves and the graph contains only one loop.
iii) $\pi_{1}(C)=H_{1}(C, \boldsymbol{Z})=\boldsymbol{Z} \oplus \boldsymbol{Z}$, there is only one elliptic curve, the others are, if they exist, all rational, and the graph is a tree.

Let us next consider the exact homology sequence with real coefficients:

$$
0 \rightarrow H_{3}(S) \rightarrow H_{3}(S, C) \rightarrow H_{2}(C) \xrightarrow{i_{*}} H_{2}(S) \rightarrow H_{2}(S, C) \rightarrow H_{1}(C) \rightarrow H_{1}(S) \rightarrow 0
$$

where $b_{1}(S)=b_{3}(S), \operatorname{dim} H_{3}(S, C)=\operatorname{dim} H^{1}(S-C)=2$, and $\operatorname{dim} H_{2}(S, C)=$ $\operatorname{dim} H^{2}(S-C)=1$, by duality; $\operatorname{dim} H_{2}(C)=n$, the number of the irreducible components of $C$.

Combining these we have the following five cases:
(a) $b_{1}(C)=0, b_{1}(S)=0, b_{2}(S)=n-1, b^{+}=1$,
(b) $b_{1}(C)=1, b_{1}(S)=0, b_{2}(S)=n-2, b^{+}=1$,
(c ) $b_{1}(C)=1, b_{1}(S)=1, b_{2}(S)=n, \quad b^{+}=0$,
(d) $b_{1}(C)=2, b_{1}(S)=1, b_{2}(S)=n-1, b^{+}=0$,
(e) $b_{1}(C)=2, b_{1}(S)=2, b_{2}(S)=n+1, b^{+}=1$.

Before dealing with each case we prove two lemmas.
Lemma 1. Let $E$ be an $N$-dimensional vector space over the field of real numbers and $I(x, y)$ a non-singular symmetric bilinear form defined on $E$ with signature $(1, N-1)$. If the restriction $I^{\prime}$ of $I$ to an ( $N-1$ )-dimensional subspace $E^{\prime}$ is of rank $N-2$, then $I^{\prime}$ is negative semi-definite.

Proof. There is an orthogonal decomposition $E=E^{+} \oplus E^{-}$, $\operatorname{dim} E^{+}=1, \operatorname{dim} E^{-}=N-1, I \mid E^{+}$is positive definite, $I \mid E^{-}$is negative definite. Since $\operatorname{dim} E^{\prime \prime} \cap E^{-} \geqq N-2, \quad I^{\prime}=I \mid E^{\prime}$ has at least $N-2$ negative eigenvalues. Then $I^{\prime}$ cannot have any positive eigenvalue.
q.e.d.

Lemma 2. Let $C=\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} C_{j}$ be as in $3^{\circ}$, and suppose that the intersection matrix $\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)$ is negative semi-definite, then
i) if $I\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} r_{j} C_{j}, \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_{j} C_{j}\right)=0\left(r_{j} \in \boldsymbol{R}\right)$, then $r_{j}$ are all positive, negative or zero simultaneously.
ii) $\operatorname{rank}\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right) \geqq n-1$,
iii) if $\left\{j(1), \cdots, j\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right\} \subsetneq\{1, \cdots, n\}$, then the $n^{\prime} \times n^{\prime}$ matrix $\left(I\left(C_{j(\nu)}\right.\right.$, $\left.C_{j(\mu)}\right)$ ) is negative definite.

Proof. i) Set $J^{+}=\left\{j ; r_{j}>0\right\}$ and $J^{-}=\left\{j ; r_{j}<0\right\}$. Then
$I\left(\sum_{j \in J^{+}} r_{j} C_{j}, \sum_{j \in J^{+}} r_{j} C_{j}\right)+I\left(\sum_{k \in J^{-}} r_{k} C_{k}, \sum_{k \in J^{-}} r_{k} C_{k}\right)+2 \sum_{j \in J^{+}, k \in J^{-}} r_{j} r_{k} I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)=0$.
Since all the terms are non-positive, each term is zero. If $J^{+} \neq \varnothing$ or $\{1, \cdots, n\}$, there would exist, since $C$ is connected, a $j_{0} \notin J^{+}$such that $I\left(C_{j_{0}}, \sum_{j \in J^{+}} r_{j} C_{j}\right)>0$, and then

$$
I\left(C_{j_{0}}+r \sum_{j \in J^{+}} r_{j} C_{j}, C_{j_{0}}+r \sum_{j \in J^{+}} r_{j} C_{j}\right)=I\left(C_{j_{0}}, C_{j_{0}}\right)+2 r I\left(C_{j_{0}}, \sum_{j \in J^{+}} r_{j} C_{j}\right)
$$

would be positive for sufficiently large $r$. Therefore $J^{+}=\varnothing$ or $\{1, \cdots, n\}$. Similarly $J^{-}=\varnothing$ or $\{1, \cdots, n\}$. ii) and iii) are easily derived from i).

We now return to the proof of the theorem.
Case (a). We shall show that this case does not occur. Let us suppose $S$ and $C$ satisfy the conditions in (a). By the corollary to Proposition 2, $\operatorname{rank}\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)=n-3 . \operatorname{dim} H_{2}(S)=n-1, \operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Im} i_{*}=n-2$ and $\operatorname{rank}\left(I \mid \operatorname{Im} i_{*}\right)=\operatorname{rank}\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)=n-3$. Then by Lemma $1,\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)$ is negative semi-definite. This contradicts Lemma 2 ii).

Case (b). $S$ is rational by Proposition 1. Examples of this case are
(i) $S$ : the complex projective plane $P^{2}, C$ : the union of three lines $L_{j}(j=1,2,3)$ in general position,
(ii) $S$ : a line bundle over a rational curve compactified with infinity section, i.e., $\boldsymbol{P}^{1}$-bundle over $\boldsymbol{P}^{1}$ (Hirzebruch manifold $\Sigma_{n}$ or Nagata's $F_{n}$ ), $C$ : the union of zero section, infinity section and two fibers. It is difficult for the author to determine all the types of configuration of $C$. Some remarks on this case will be made at the end of this paper.

Case (c). This case does not occur. In fact, by the exact sequence $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Im} i_{*}=n-1$. Since $I$ is negative definite, $\operatorname{rank}\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)=$ $\operatorname{rank}\left(I \mid \operatorname{Im} i_{*}\right)=n-1$. This contradicts the corollary to Proposition 2.

In cases (d) and (e), $C$ is the union of an elliptic curve $C_{1}$ and a certain number of trees $D_{1}, D_{2}, \cdots$ composed of rational curves, $D_{\nu} \cap$ $D_{\mu}=\varnothing, D_{\nu} \cap C_{1}=p_{\nu}$. We shall prove that each $D_{\nu}$ is exceptional of the first kind. It suffices to show the following:
i) The intersection matrix with respect to the components of $D_{\nu}$ is negative definite.

In fact, in case (d), $\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)$ is negative semi-definite. We can apply Lemma 2 iii). In case (e), $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Im} i_{*}=n, \operatorname{rank}\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)=n-1$. Therefore by Lemma $1,\left(I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)\right)$ is negative semi-definite, and we can apply Lemma 2 iii).
ii) $M_{\nu}$, the boundary of a tubular neighborhood of $D_{\nu}$, is simply connected.

We define everything as in $3^{\circ}$, then by definition $M_{\nu}=\partial\left(\mathrm{U}_{c_{j} \subset D_{\nu}} V_{j}\right)$. In the coordinate neighborhood $U_{\nu}$ of $p_{\nu}$, let $C_{1} \cap U_{\nu}=\left\{z_{1}=0\right\}$ and $D_{\nu} \cap U_{\nu}=\left\{z_{2}=0\right\}$. Let $\Delta$ be a disc in $C_{1}$ with center $p_{\nu}$ defined by $\Delta=$ $\left\{z_{1}=0,\left|z_{2}\right|<\varepsilon\right\}$. We form $M^{\prime}=M_{\nu} \cup\left(C_{1}-\Delta\right) \cup\left(\bigcup_{\mu \neq \nu} D_{\mu}\right)$ and define a continuous map $\psi: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ by

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\psi\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right)=\left(\frac{\left(\left|z_{1}\right|-\varepsilon\right) z_{1}}{(1-\varepsilon)\left|z_{1}\right|}, z_{2}\right) & \text { for } & p \in M \cap U_{\nu}^{\prime}, \\
\psi(p)=p & \text { for } & p \in\left(M-U_{\nu}^{\prime}\right) \cap M_{\nu} \\
\psi(p)=\varphi(p) & \text { for } & p \in\left(M-U_{\nu}^{\prime}\right)-M_{\nu}
\end{array}
$$

The homomorphism $\pi_{1}(M) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$ induced by $\psi$ is surjective as is easily verified. Hence $\pi_{1}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$ is commutative. From this fact we shall derive $\pi_{1}\left(M_{\nu}\right)=1$.

Let us recall here the notion of free product of groups with amalgamation. Let groups $G$ and $G^{\prime}$ be represented by sets of generators and fundamental relations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
G & =\left\langle X_{1}, \cdots, X_{r} \mid R_{1}=1, \cdots, R_{s}=1\right\rangle \\
G^{\prime} & =\left\langle X_{1}^{\prime}, \cdots, X_{r^{\prime}}^{\prime} \mid R_{1}^{\prime}=1, \cdots, R_{s^{\prime}}^{\prime}=1\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $G$ and $G^{\prime}$ contain subgroups $H$ and $H^{\prime}$ respectively with an isomorphism $i: H \rightarrow H^{\prime}$, then the free product of $G$ and $G^{\prime}$ with amalgamation along $H$ and $H^{\prime}$ is defined by
$\left\langle X_{1}, \cdots, X_{r}, X_{1}^{\prime}, \cdots, X_{r^{\prime}}^{\prime} \mid R_{1}=1, \cdots, R_{s}=1, \cdots, R_{s^{\prime}}^{\prime}=1, i(x)=x(x \in H)\right\rangle$.
It is known that this contains subgroups isomorphic to $G$ and to $G^{\prime}$.
We set $\pi_{1}\left(M_{\nu}\right)=\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \cdots, \alpha_{r} \mid R_{1}=1, \cdots, R_{s}=1\right\rangle$, and $\pi_{1}\left(\left(C_{1}-\Delta\right) \cup\right.$ $\left.\left(\mathbf{U}_{\mu \neq \nu} D_{\mu}\right)\right)=\pi_{1}\left(C_{1}-\Delta\right)=\langle\beta, \gamma\rangle$, the free group generated by $\beta$ and $\gamma$. By van Kampen's theorem,

$$
\pi_{1}\left(M^{\prime}\right)=\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \cdots, \alpha_{r}, \beta, \gamma \mid R_{1}=1, \cdots, R_{s}=1, \alpha=\beta \gamma \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-1}\right\rangle
$$

where $\alpha \in \pi_{1}\left(M_{\nu}\right)$ is the element represented by the loop $\partial \Delta=M_{\nu} \cap$ $\left(\left(C_{1}-\Delta\right) \cup\left(\cup D_{\mu}\right)\right)$. If the order of $\alpha$ in $\pi_{1}\left(M_{\nu}\right)$ is infinite, $\pi_{1}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$ is the free product of $\pi_{1}\left(M_{\nu}\right)$ and $\pi_{1}\left(\left(C_{1}-\Delta\right) \cup\left(\cup D_{\mu}\right)\right)$ with amalgamation along $\langle\alpha\rangle$ and $\left\langle\beta \gamma \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-1}\right\rangle$, which contains a subgroup isomorphic to $\langle\beta, \gamma\rangle$, and is therefore not commutative. This is a contradiction. Hence $\alpha$ must
be of a finite order $m$. It is easily seen that, in $\left\langle\beta, \gamma \mid\left(\beta \gamma \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-1}\right)^{m}=1\right\rangle$, $\beta \gamma \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-1}$ is of order $m$. Then $\pi_{1}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$ is the free product of $\pi_{1}\left(M_{\nu}\right)$ and $\left\langle\beta, \gamma \mid\left(\beta \gamma \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-1}\right)^{m}=1\right\rangle$ with amalgamation along the subgroups $\langle\alpha\rangle$ and $\left\langle\beta \gamma \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-1}\right\rangle .\left\langle\beta, \gamma \mid\left(\beta \gamma \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-1}\right)^{m}=1\right\rangle$ is commutative if and only if $m=1$. Hence $\pi_{1}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$ is the free product of $\pi_{1}\left(M_{\nu}\right)$ and $\left\langle\beta \gamma \mid \beta \gamma \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-1}=1\right\rangle$ and is not commutative when $\pi_{1}\left(M_{2}\right) \neq 1$. ii) is thus proved.

Case (d). By blowing down all the $D_{\nu}$ 's, we obtain a compactification $\check{S}$ with an irreducible curve $\check{C}$, and $\check{S}-\breve{C} \cong\left(C^{*}\right)^{2}$. We have $b_{2}(\check{S})=0$. Hence any curve on $S$ is homologous to zero and the intersection multiplicity of any two curves is zero. In particular there is no irreducible curve different from $\check{C}$ which meets $\check{C}$. On the other hand, there is no curve which does not meet $\check{C}$, since $\check{S}-\breve{C} \cong\left(C^{*}\right)^{2}$ does not contain any compact curve. Thus there is no curve on $\check{S}$ other than $\check{C}$, and consequently there is no non-constant meromorphic function on $\check{S}$. Now we apply a theorem of Kodaira ([3] Theorem 34): If $b_{1}(\check{S})=1, b_{2}(\check{S})=0$, and if $\check{S}$ contains at least one curve and admits no non-constant meromorphic function, then $\check{S}$ is a Hopf surface. Therefore $\check{S}$ is of the form $\left(C^{2}-0\right) / G$, where $G$ is a group of transformations generated by a transformation (A) or by transformations (A) and (B).
(A): $\quad\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right) \rightarrow\left(\alpha_{1} z_{1}+\lambda z_{2}^{m}, \alpha_{2} z_{2}\right)$,
(B): $\quad\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right) \rightarrow\left(\varepsilon_{1} z_{1}, \varepsilon_{2} z_{2}\right)$
where $m$ is an integer, $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}$ and $\lambda$ are complex numbers, $\varepsilon_{1}$ and $\varepsilon_{2}$ are primitive $l$-th roots of unity, with conditions $0<\left|\alpha_{1}\right| \leqq\left|\alpha_{2}\right|<1$, $\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{2}^{m}\right) \lambda=0$, and $\left(\varepsilon_{1}-\varepsilon_{2}^{m}\right) \lambda=0$. ([3] Theorem 32).

In our case we have $\lambda \neq 0$, since otherwise $\breve{S}$ contains two curves defined by $z_{1}=0$ and $z_{2}=0$. Conversely, if $\lambda \neq 0, \check{S}$ contains only one irreducible curve $\check{C}$ defined by $z_{2}=0$, and $\check{S}-\breve{C} \cong\left(C^{*}\right)^{2}$ as is easily verified. This is the type (1) of the theorem.

Case (e). By blowing down all the $D_{\imath}$ 's we obtain a compactification $\check{S}$ with $\check{C}$. $\quad \check{S}$ is algebraic ([2] Theorem 10), and $\check{C}$ is irreducible. This situation was investigated by Simha [9]: By the Albanese mapping, $\check{S}$ is mapped onto an elliptic curve $T$, and each fiber is regular and rational, i.e., $\check{S}$ is a $P^{1}$-bundle over $T . \quad \check{C}$ is a global section, and $\check{S}-\check{C}$ is a nontrivial principal $C$-bundle. Conversely a unique $\boldsymbol{P}^{1}$-bundle of this type is a compactification of $\left(C^{*}\right)^{2}$. This is the type (2) of the theorem.

Remark. It is not known to the author whether, for every rational compactification $S$ with $C$ of $\left(C^{*}\right)^{2}$, there exists a bimeromorphic map $f$
of $S$ to $P^{2}$ such that $f \mid S-C$ is a biholomorphic map of $S-C$ onto $\boldsymbol{P}^{2}-\bigcup L_{j}$.

This problem can be, in the following special case, affirmatively answered.

Proposition 3. Assume that $C=\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} C_{j}$ satisfies the condition (\#), and $I\left(C_{j}, C_{j+1}\right)=1, j=1, \cdots, n$, where we let $C_{n+1}=C_{1}$, and that $C_{j}$ 's have no other intersection. Then, blowing down successively irreducible components $C_{j}$ with $I\left(C_{j}, C_{j}\right)=-1$, we can reduce $S$ with $C$ to (i) or (ii) of the case (b).

Proof. The kernel $K$ of the surjective homomorphism $H_{1}(M, Z) \rightarrow$ $H_{1}(C, \boldsymbol{Z})$ is isomorphic to $\boldsymbol{Z} \oplus \boldsymbol{Z}$. On the other hand, by Proposition 2, $K$ is generated by $\alpha_{1}, \cdots, \alpha_{n}$, with the relations

$$
\alpha_{j-1}+v_{j} \alpha_{j}+\alpha_{j+1}=0, \quad j=1, \cdots, n
$$

where $\alpha_{0}=\alpha_{n}, \alpha_{n+1}=\alpha_{1}$, and $v_{j}=I\left(C_{j}, C_{j}\right)$.
These relations are written in the form

$$
\binom{\alpha_{j-1}}{\alpha_{j}}=A_{j}\binom{\alpha_{j}}{\alpha_{j+1}}, \quad \text { where } \quad A_{j}=\left(\begin{array}{cr}
-v_{j} & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad j=1, \cdots, n
$$

Hence we see, eliminating $\alpha_{2}, \cdots, \alpha_{n-1}$, that $K$ is generated by $\alpha_{0}$ and $\alpha_{1}$ with the relation

$$
\binom{\alpha_{0}}{\alpha_{1}}=A_{1} \cdots A_{n}\binom{\alpha_{0}}{\alpha_{1}}
$$

In order that $K \cong \boldsymbol{Z} \oplus \boldsymbol{Z}$, this relation must be trivial, i.e., $A_{1} \cdots A_{n}=$ $\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)=I$.

By direct computation we have, in the case $n=3, v_{1}=v_{2}=v_{3}=1$, and in the case $n=4, v_{1}=v_{3}=v_{2}+v_{4}=0$, or $v_{2}=v_{4}=v_{1}+v_{3}=0$. These are cases (i) and (ii) as is readily seen.

We prove that, if $n \geqq 5$, there exists a $C_{j}$ with $v_{j}=-1$. First we see that, if $n \geqq 6$, there is no pair $C_{j}, C_{k}$ such that $v_{j}, v_{k} \geqq 0$ and $I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)=0$. Assume the contrary, and take $C_{j^{\prime}}$, and $C_{k^{\prime}}$ such that

$$
I\left(C_{j}, C_{j^{\prime}}\right)=I\left(C_{k}, C_{k^{\prime}}\right)=1, \quad I\left(C_{j}, C_{k^{\prime}}\right)=I\left(C_{k}, C_{j^{\prime}}\right)=I\left(C_{j^{\prime}}, C_{k^{\prime}}\right)=0 .
$$

Then we have $I\left(r_{j} C_{j}+C_{j^{\prime}}, r_{k} C_{k}+C_{k^{\prime}}\right)=0, \quad I\left(r_{j} C_{j}+C_{j^{\prime}}, r_{j} C_{j}+C_{j^{\prime}}\right)>0$ and $I\left(r_{k} C_{k}+C_{k^{\prime}}, r_{k} C_{k}+C_{k^{\prime}}\right)>0$, for sufficiently large $r_{j}, r_{k}$. This contradicts the fact that $b^{+}=1$. We see similarly that, if $n=5$, there is no pair $C_{j}, C_{k}$ with $v_{j}>0, v_{k} \geqq 0$ and $I\left(C_{j}, C_{k}\right)=0$. It suffices to consider the following four cases: (a) $v_{j}<0, j=1, \cdots, n$. (b) $v_{1} \geqq 0, v_{j}<0$,
$j=2, \cdots, n$. (c) $v_{1}, v_{2} \geqq 0, v_{j}<0, j=3, \cdots, n$. (d) $n=5, v_{1}=v_{3}=0$. The case (d) is omitted by direct computation. In the first three cases, we have one of the equations, $I=A_{1} \cdots A_{n}, A_{1}^{-1}=A_{2} \cdots A_{n}$, or $A_{2}^{-1} A_{1}^{-1}=$ $A_{3} \cdots A_{n}$, where the left term is

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{rr}
0 & 1 \\
-1 & -v_{1}
\end{array}\right), \quad \text { or } \quad\left(\begin{array}{rl}
-1 & -v_{1} \\
v_{2} & v_{1} v_{2}-1
\end{array}\right)
$$

If $v_{j} \neq-1$, setting the right term $=\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)$, we have $a>c>0$, which is a contradiction. The above assertion is proved by induction using the fact:

In the equation $\left(\begin{array}{ll}a^{\prime} & b^{\prime} \\ c^{\prime} & d^{\prime}\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}k & -1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)$, if $k \geqq 2$ and if $a>c>0$, then $a^{\prime}>c^{\prime}>0$.

Thus one of the irreducible components of $C$ can be blown down and $n$ is diminished until we have $n=4$, and the proof is completed.

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