## SUBRINGS OF $\boldsymbol{k}[X, Y]$ GENERATED BY MONOMIALS

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1. Introduction. In this paper we study subrings $A$ of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials over $k$. If $A$ is normal and $A \subset B$ integral, we can completely characterize $A$. If $\operatorname{dim} A=2$, we show that $A$ is isomorphic to a subring $A^{\prime}$ of $B$ generated by monomials with $A^{\prime} \subset B$ integral. The author became interested in these rings while studying projective modules over subrings of $k[X, Y]$. For some applications, see [1].

In Section 4 we calculate $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$, the divisor class group of $A$. We also show that $\widetilde{G}_{0}(A)$ is precisely $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$.

Rings generated by monomials may also be studied by considering the semigroup of the exponents of their monomials. For example, see [4].

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2. Subrings of $k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials. $k$ will always denote a field, but in most cases it is clear that $k$ could be any normal domain.

We first note that if $A$ is a subring of $k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials, then $A$ is a homogeneous or graded ring with the natural grading it inherits from $k[X, Y]$. In fact, $A$ is also bihomogeneous, that is, $\sum a_{i j} X^{i} Y^{j}$ is in $A$ if and only if each $a_{i j} X^{i} Y^{j}$ is in $A$. We also note that if $A$ is any bihomogeneous subring of $k[X, Y]$ containing $k$, then necessarily $A$ is generated by monomials over $k$.

First we study the case when $A \subset k[X, Y]$ is integral. Later (Proposition 2.8) we will see that we can always reduce to this case when (Krull) $\operatorname{dim} A=2$. The following lemma is obvious.

Lemma 2.1. Let $A$ be an affine subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials, then $A \subset B$ is integral if and only if $X^{m}$ and $Y^{n}$ ure in $A$ for some positive $m$ and $n$.

If some power of $X$ and $Y$ is in $A$, clearly $A$ is affine and $A \subset k[X, Y]$ is integral. Of course not all subrings of $k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials are affine; for example, consider $A=k\left[\left\{X^{n} Y\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}\right]$.

Lemma 2.2. Let $A$ be an affine normal subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomiuls with $A \subset B$ integral. Let $X^{m}$ and $Y^{n}$ be the smallest positive powers of $X$ and $Y$ in $A$. Then

[^0](1) if $X^{a}$ and $Y^{b}$ are in $A$, then $m \mid a$ and $n \mid b$.

Also assume that $k\left[X^{m}, Y^{n}\right] \subsetneq A$, and let $X^{i} Y^{j}$ be in $A$ with ij $\neq 0$ and $i$ as small as possible. Then
(2) $0<i<m$ and $i \mid m$;
(3) if $X^{c} Y^{d}$ is in $A$, then $i \mid c$.

Proof. We prove (1); the proofs of (2) and (3) are similar. Let $X^{a}$ be in $A$, then $a=m q+r$ with $0 \leqq r<m$. Clearly $X^{r}=\left(X^{a}\right)\left(X^{m}\right)^{-q}$ is in the quotient field of $A$. But $X^{r}$ is integral over $A$, and $A$ is normal, so $X^{r}$ is in $A$. was chosen to be minimal, so $r=0$, and thus $m \mid a$.

Let $A$ be as in Lemma 2.2 and $X^{i} Y^{j}$ in $A$ with $i$ as small as possible. As above, by dividing by powers of $Y^{n}$, we can also assume that $0<j<n$. So there is a $X^{i} Y^{j}$ in $A$ with
(1) $0<i<m$,
(2) $0<j<n$, and
(3) $i$ as small as possible.

It is easy to see that $j$ is uniquely determined. These three monomials $X^{m}, Y^{n}$, and $X^{i} Y^{j}$ completely determine $A$.

Proposition 2.3. Let $A$ be as above. Then $A=k\left(X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}, Y^{n}\right) \cap k[X, Y]$.
Proof. Let $K$ be the quotient field of $A$ and $R=k\left(X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}, Y^{n}\right) \cap k[X, Y]$. $k\left(X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}, Y^{n}\right) \subset K$, so $R=k\left(X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}, Y^{n}\right) \cap k[X, Y] \subset K \cap k[X, Y]$. But $A$ is normal and $A \subset k[X, Y]$ integral, so $K \cap k[X, Y]=A$. Thus $R \subset A$. Conversely, suppose that $X^{a} Y^{b}$ is in $A$. By arguments similar to Lemma 2.2, clearly $X^{a} Y^{b}$ is in $k\left(X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}, Y^{n}\right)$. But thus $A \subset R$ since $A$ is generated by monomials, so $A=R$.

Corollary 2.4. Let $A$ be an affine normal subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials with $A \subset B$ integral. Lei $X^{m}$ and $Y^{n}$ be the least positive powers of $X$ and $Y$ in $A$. Suppose that $k\left[X^{m}, Y^{n}\right] \subsetneq A$, then let $X^{i} Y^{j}$ be in $A$ with $0<i$ $<m, 0<j<n$, and $i$ as small as possible. Then

$$
A=k\left[X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}, X^{2 i} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, X^{(q-1) i} Y^{\overline{(q-1) j}}, Y^{n}\right]
$$

where $m=q i$ and overscoring denotes $\bmod n$.
Remarks. (1). We could carry out the above arguments with $X^{i} Y^{j}$ in $A$ with $0<i<m, 0<j<n$, and $j$ as small as possible. Clearly we would obtain similar results.
(2) If $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$, then $A=k\left[X^{m}, Y^{n}\right]$. For if not, then there exists an $X^{i} Y^{j}$ in $A$ with $0<i<m, 0<j<n$, and $i$ as small as possible. $i \mid m$, say $m=q i$, so $\left(X^{i} Y^{j}\right)^{q}=X^{m} Y^{j q}$ is in $A$. Thus $Y^{j q}$ is in $A$, so $n \mid j q$. But $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)$ $=1$, so $n \mid j$, which is a contradiction.
(3) Assume that $m=n$ and $i=1$, so $A=k\left[X^{n}, X Y^{j}, X^{2} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, X^{n-1}\right.$ -$\left.Y^{(\overline{n-1) j}}, Y^{n}\right]$. By the usual arguments, $\operatorname{gcd}(j, n)=1$. Clearly any such $j$ will work. So for fixed $m=n$ and $i=1, j$ can take on precisely $\phi(n)$ values, where $\phi$ is the Euler phi function. Distinct values of $j$ may define isomorphic
subrings; but for distinct values of $n$, none of these rings are isomorphic (Theorem 4.4].

Our next result shows that we may actually assume, up to isomorphism, that $m=n$ and $i=1$.

Theorem 2.5. Let $A$ be an affine normal subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials with $A \subset B$ integral. Then $A$ is isomorphic to either $B=k[X, Y]$ or $A^{\prime}=k\left[X^{n}, X Y^{j}, X^{2} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, X^{n-1} Y^{\overline{(n-1) j}}, Y^{n}\right]$ where $0<j<n$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(j, n)$ $=1$.

Proof. If $A$ is not isomorphic to $k[X, Y]$, then $A=k\left[X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}, X^{2 t} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.X^{(\varphi-1) i} Y^{\overline{(q-1) j}}, Y^{n}\right]$ by Corollary 2.4. By Lemma 2.2, $i$ divides all powers of $X$ in any monomial of $A$. By replacing $X$ by $X^{1 / i}$, we may assume $i=1$; thus $A=k\left[X^{m}, X Y^{j}, X^{2} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, X^{m-1} Y^{\overline{m-1) j}}, Y^{n}\right]$. Let $b$ be the smallest power of $Y$ which appears in any monomial of $A$. Then $b$ divides all powers of $Y$ in any monomial of $A$. By replacing $Y$ by $Y^{1 / b}$, we may thus assume that both $X Y^{j}$ and $X^{a} Y$ are in $A$. Thus $\left(X Y^{j}\right)^{n}$ is in $A$, so $m \mid n$. Similarly $n \mid m$, so $m=n$.

Remark. Let $A$ be as above. Assume that $X^{m}$ and $Y^{l}$ are the lowest powers of $X$ and $Y$ in $A$. Also let $X^{i} Y^{j}$ and $X^{a} Y^{b}$ be the monomials in $A$ for which $0<i, a<m, 0<j, b<n$, and $i$ and $b$ are as small as possible. Then in Theorem 2.5, $n=m / i=l / b$.

So far we have characterized the affine normal subrings $A$ of $B=k[X, Y]$ with $A \subset B$ integral. We next consider the case when $A$ is not normal. Let $\bar{A}$ be the integral closure of $A$ in its quotient field $K$. Since $A$ is generated by monomials, $K=k\left(X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}, Y^{n}\right)$ where $m$ and $n$ are the least positive powers of $X$ and $Y$ in $K$ respectively, and $0 \leqq i<m$ and $0 \leqq j<n$ with $i$ as small as possible. Clearly $\bar{A}=k\left(X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}, Y^{n}\right) \cap k[X, Y]$, so $\bar{A}$ is generated by monomials.

Let $A$ and $\bar{A}$ be as above, and let $I=\{x \in \bar{A} \mid x \bar{A} \subset A\}$ be the conductor of $\bar{A} / A . A$ and $\bar{A}$ have the same quotient field, and $\bar{A}$ is a finitely generated $A$-module; so it is well-known that $I \neq 0$. In fact, using a similar proof, it is easy to see that $I$ actually contains a nonzero monomial $X^{a} Y^{b}$. However, this also follows from the next lemma which shows that $I$ is actually a bihomogeneous ideal.

Lemma 2.6. Let $A=\oplus A_{(m, n)}$ and $B=\oplus B_{(m, n)}$ be bihomogeneous commututive rings with $A \subset B$ and each $A_{(i, j)} \subset B_{(i, j)}$. Then $I=\{x \in B \mid x B \subset A\}$ is a bihomogeneous ideal.

Proof. Let $\sum a_{i j}$ be in $I$, we must show that each $a_{i j}$ is also in $I$. If $x_{m n}$ is in $B$, then $\left(\sum_{a_{i j}}\right) x_{m n}$ is in $A$, and hence each $a_{i j} x_{m n}$ is in $A \cap B_{(i+m, j+n)}=A_{(i+m, j+n)}$. Thus $a_{i}$, is in $I$, so $I$ is bihomogeneous.

Combining the previous remarks and the above lemma, we have proved the following proposition.

Proposition 2.7. Let $A$ be an affine subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials with $A \subset B$ integral. Then $\bar{A}$, the integral closure of $A$, is also an affine subring of $B$ generated by monomials. The conductor ideal is bihomogeneous and ihus contains a nonzero monomial.

Clearly not all affine subrings of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials have $A \subset B$ integral. By Lemma 2.1, this happens if and only if some power of $X$ and $Y$ is in $A$. If $A$ is affine and contained in $B$, then $\operatorname{dim} A=\operatorname{tr} \operatorname{deg}_{k} A \leqq 2$. If $\operatorname{dim} A=0$, then of course $A=k$. If $\operatorname{dim} A=2$, we show that we can change variables so that $A$ is isomorphic to an affine subring $A^{\prime}$ of $B$ generated by monomials with $A^{\prime} \subset B$ integral. Clearly this can happen only when $\operatorname{dim} A=2$ because $A \subset B$ integral implies $\operatorname{dim} A=\operatorname{dim} B=2$. If $\operatorname{dim} A=1$, then we can change variables so that $A$ is isomorphic to an affine subring $A^{\prime \prime}$ of $k[T]$ generated by monomials.

Let $A$ be an affine subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials. Say $A=k\left[X^{a_{1}} Y^{b_{1}}, \ldots, X^{a_{n}} Y^{b_{n}}\right]$, and let $S=\left\{X^{a_{1}} Y^{b_{1}}, \ldots, X^{a_{n}} Y^{b_{n}}\right\}$. Pick $X^{a} Y^{b}$ in $S$ with $a / b$ maximum and $X^{c} Y^{d}$ in $S$ with $d / c$ maximum. (We define $a / 0>$ $i / j$ if $j \neq 0$ or $j=0$ and $a>i$.) We note that for $X^{i} Y^{j}$ in $A, a j \geqq b i$ and $d i \geqq c j$.

Define a $k$-homomorphism $\phi: k[X, Y] \rightarrow k(X, Y)$ by

$$
\phi(X)=X^{d} / Y^{b} \quad \text { and } \quad \phi(Y)=Y^{a} / X^{c}
$$

Then $\phi\left(X^{a} Y^{b}\right)=X^{a d-b c}, \phi\left(X^{c} Y^{d}\right)=Y^{a d-b c}$, and $\phi\left(X^{i} Y^{j}\right)=X^{a i-c j} Y^{a j-b i}$. Thus $\phi(A) \subset k[X, Y]$ and $\phi(A)$ is generated by monomials.

If $a d-b c=n>0$, then $X^{n}$ and $Y^{n}$ are in $\phi(A)$, so $\phi(A) \subset k[X, Y]$ is integral. Thus $\operatorname{dim} \phi(A)=2$, so $\phi \mid A$ is injective.

Next we show that $n=0$ if and only if $\operatorname{dim} A \leqq 1$. If $\operatorname{dim} A \leqq 1$, then $\operatorname{dim} \phi(A) \leqq 1$, so $\phi(A) \subset B$ is not integral, and thus $n=0$. Conversely suppose that $n=0$. For any $X^{i} Y^{j}$ in $A, a / b \geqq i / j$ and $d / c \geqq j / i$, so $b i=a j$. Thus $\left(X^{i} Y^{j}\right)^{b}=\left(X^{a} Y^{b}\right)^{j}$. We define a $k$-homomorphism $\psi: A \rightarrow k[T]$ by $\psi\left(X^{i} Y^{j}\right)=T^{i}$. By the above remarks $\psi$ is injective, so $\operatorname{dim} A \leqq 1$.

Proposition 2.8. Let $A$ be an affine subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials. If $\operatorname{dim} A=1$, then $A$ is isomorphic to an affine subring of $k[T]$ generated by monomials. If $\operatorname{dim} A=2$, then $A$ is isomorphic to an affine subring $A^{\prime}$ of $B$ generated by monomials with $A^{\prime} \subset B$ integral.

Examples. (1) Let $A=k\left[X^{2} Y^{2}, X^{3} Y^{3}\right], \operatorname{dim} A=1$, so define $\psi: A \rightarrow k[T]$ by $\psi\left(X^{2} Y^{2}\right)=T^{2}$ and $\psi\left(X^{3} Y^{3}\right)=T^{3}$. Thus $A$ is isomorphic to $k\left[T^{2}, T^{3}\right] \subset$ $k\lceil T]$.
(2) Let $A=k\left[X Y, X Y^{n-1}, X^{n-1} Y\right], \operatorname{dim} A=2$, so define $\phi: A \rightarrow k[X, Y]$ by $\phi(X)=X^{n-1} / Y$ and $\phi(Y)=Y^{n-1} / X$. Then $\phi(X Y)=X^{n-2} Y^{n-2}, \phi\left(X Y^{n-1}\right)$ $=Y^{n(n-2)}$, and $\phi\left(X^{n-1} Y\right)=X^{n(n-2)}$. So $A$ is isomorphic to $k\left[X^{n(n-2)}, X^{n-2} Y^{n-2}\right.$, $\left.Y^{n(n-2)}\right]$ which is isomorphic to $k\left[X^{n}, X Y, Y^{n}\right] \subset k[X, Y]$.
3. Rings of invariants. Affine normal subrings $A$ of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials arise naturally in two ways. First, let $G$ be a finite subgroup of automorphisms of the form

$$
\theta:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
X \rightarrow a X \\
Y \rightarrow b Y, \quad a, b \in k
\end{array}\right.
$$

Then $A=B^{G}=\{f \in B \mid \theta(f)=f$, for all $\theta$ in $G\}$ is an affine normal subring of $B$ generated by monomials with $A \subset B$ integral. We give three examples.

Examples. (1) Let $\omega \in k$ be a primitive $n$th root of unity with gcd ( $n$, char $k$ ) $=1$. Define $\theta$ in $\operatorname{Aut}_{k}(B)$ by $\theta(X)=\omega X$ and $\theta(Y)=\omega Y$; then $A=B^{\langle\theta\rangle}=$ $k\left[X^{n}, X Y^{n-1}, \ldots, X^{n-1} Y, Y^{n}\right]$.
(2) Let $\omega$ be as in (1), and define $\theta$ by $\theta(X)=\omega X$ and $\theta(Y)=\omega^{-1} Y$; then $A=B^{(\theta)}=k\left[X^{n}, X Y, Y^{n}\right]$.
(3) Let $p$ be a prime not equal to char $k$ and $\omega \in k$ a primitive $p$ th root of unity. For fixed $1 \leqq i \leqq p-1$, define $\theta$ by $\theta(X)=\omega X$ and $\theta(Y)=\omega^{i} Y$. Let $j$ be the least positive integer such that $p \mid 1+i j$. Such a $j$ exists, and $0<j<p$ because $\operatorname{gcd}(i, p)=1$. Then $A=B^{(\theta)}=k\left[X^{p}, X Y^{j}, X^{2} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.X^{p-1} Y^{\overline{p-1) j}}, Y^{p}\right]$.

Next, let $k$ be a field with char $k=p \neq 0$ and $D: B \rightarrow B$ a $k$-derivation of the form $D(X)=a X$ and $D(Y)=b Y$ with $a, b \in k$. Then $A=\operatorname{ker} D \subset B=$ $k[X, Y]$ is an affine normal subring of $B$ generated by monomials with $A \subset B$ integral. We note that $D\left(X^{i} Y^{j}\right)=(i a+j b) X^{i} Y^{j}$ and $k[X, Y]^{p} \subset A$. We give three examples.

Examples. (1) Let $k$ be as above and $D$ defined by $D(X)=X$ and $D(Y)=$ $Y$, then $A=\operatorname{ker} D=k\left[X^{p}, X Y^{p-1}, \ldots, X^{p-1} Y, Y^{p}\right]$.
(2) Let $D$ be defined by $D(X)=X$ and $D(Y)=-Y=(p-1) Y$, then $A=\operatorname{ker} D=k\left[X^{p}, X Y, Y^{p}\right]$.
(3) Let $i$ be a fixed integer with $1 \leqq i \leqq p-1$. Define $D$ by $D(X)=X$ and $D(Y)=i Y$, then $A=\operatorname{ker} D=k\left[X^{p}, X Y^{j}, X^{2} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, X^{p-1} Y^{\overline{(p-1) j}}, Y^{p}\right]$ where $j$ is the least positive integer such that $p \mid 1+i j$.

These examples lead one to ask when an affine normal subring $A$ of $B=$ $k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials is either the ring of invariants of a $k$-automorphism of finite order or the kernel of a $k$-derivation of $B$. Of course, it is necessary to have $A \subset B$ integral. But there are still many subrings $A$ which are not of these two types. We give three examples.

Examples. (1) $k$ may not contain the necessary roots of unity. For example, $A=\mathbf{R}\left[X^{4}, X Y, Y^{4}\right]$.
(2) If char $k=p \neq 0$, then for any $k$-derivation $D$ of $B, k[X, Y]^{p} \subset A=$ ker $D$. For example $A=\mathbf{Z} / 2 \mathbf{Z}\left[X^{4}, X Y, Y^{4}\right]$ cannot be obtained in this manner.
(3) Let $A=\mathbf{C}\left[X^{4}, X^{2} Y^{2}, Y^{4}\right]$, then $A$ is not $B^{(\theta\rangle}$ for any $\theta$ in $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{C}}(B)$. If such a $\theta$ exists, then necessarily $\theta_{n}(X)=\omega X, \theta_{n}(Y)=\omega^{n} Y$ where $\omega \in \mathbf{C}$ is a
primitive 4 th root of unity and $n=1$ or $n=3$. If $n=1$, then $B^{\left\langle\theta_{1}\right\rangle}=$ $\mathbf{C}\left[X^{4}, X Y^{3}, X^{2} Y^{2}, X^{3} Y, Y^{4}\right]$; while for $n=3, B^{\left\langle\theta_{3}\right\rangle}=\mathbf{C}\left[X^{4}, X Y, Y^{4}\right]$. Note that $A=B^{G}$ where $G$ is generated by $\theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{3}$.

However, these are essentially the only types of exceptions. In many cases, even though $A$ is not a ring of invariants or the kernel of a derivation, we can show that $A$ is isomorphic to a ring of the desired type.

Proposition 3.1. Let $k$ be a field with char $k=p \neq 0$ and $A$ an affine normul subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials. If $k\left[X^{p}, Y^{p}\right] \subset A$ and $A$ is noi isomorphic to $B$, then there exists a $k$-derivation $D$ of $B$ with $A=\operatorname{ker} D$.

Proof. If $X^{n}$ is in $A$, then $p \mid n$ since $p$ is prime. Similarly for powers of $Y$, so by Corollary 2.4, $A=k\left[X^{p}, X^{i} Y^{j}, X^{2 i} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, X^{p-1} Y^{\overline{(p-1) j}}, Y^{p}\right]$ where $0<i$, $j<p$ and $i \mid p . p$ is prime, so $i=1$. Also $\operatorname{gcd}(j, p)=1$, so there are integers $c$ and $d$ with $d p=1+c j$. Define a $k$-derivation $D$ of $B$ by $D(X)=X$ and $D(Y)=c Y$. Then $D\left(X Y^{j}\right)=(1+c j) X Y^{j}=0$ since $p \mid 1+c j$ and char $k=$ p. So $X Y^{j} \in \operatorname{ker} D$, and thus $A=\operatorname{ker} D$.

The next proposition may be proved in a similar manner.
Proposition 3.2. Let $k$ be a field with char $k=p$ and $q$ a prime disiinct from $p$. Assume that $k$ coniains a primitive $q$ th root of unity. Let $A$ be an affine normal subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials with $k\left[X^{q}, Y^{q}\right] \subset A$ and $A$ not isomorphic to $B$. Then there exists a $k$-automorphism $\theta$ of $B$ of finite order with $A=B^{\langle\theta\rangle}$.

Proposition 3.3. Let $k$ be a field with char $k=p$ and $A=k \mid X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}$, $\left.X^{2 i} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, Y^{n}\right]$. Let $l=m / i$ and assume that $\operatorname{gcd}(l, p)=1$ and that $k$ contains a primitive lth root of unily. Then there exists a $k$-automorphism $\theta$ of $B=$ $k[X, Y]$ of finite order with $A$ isomorphic to $B^{\langle\theta\rangle}$.

Proof. By Theorem 2.5 $A$ is isomorphic to $A^{\prime}=k\left[X^{l}, X Y^{q}, X^{2} Y^{\overline{2 q}}, \ldots\right.$. $\left.X^{i-1} Y^{(l-1) q}, Y^{l}\right]$ where $\operatorname{gcd}(l, q)=1$. There exist integers $c$ and $d$ so that $c l=1+d q$. Let $\omega \in k$ be a primitive lth root of unity. Define $\theta$ by $\theta(X)=$ $\omega X$ and $\theta(Y)=\omega^{d} Y . X^{l}$ and $Y^{l}$ are in $B^{(\theta)}$, and these are the smallest such positive powers because gcd $(l, d)=1 \cdot \theta\left(X Y^{q}\right)=\omega^{1+d q} X Y^{q}=X Y^{q}$ because $l \mid 1+d q$, so $X Y^{q} \in B^{\langle\theta\rangle}$. Thus $X^{l}, Y^{l}$, and $X Y^{q}$ are in $B^{\langle\theta\rangle}$, so $B^{\left\langle\theta_{j}\right.}=A^{\prime}$.
4. The divisor class group of $A$. Let $A$ be an affine normal subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials. Then $A$ is a Krull domain. In this section we calculate $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$, the divisor class group of $A$.

Let $A$ be a Krull domain with quotient field $K$. Div $(A)$ is the free abelian group on the height one prime ideals of $A$. Prin ( $A$ ) is the subgroup of Div (A) generated by $\sum_{P} V_{P}(x)(P)$ for $0 \neq x \in K . \mathrm{Cl}(A)$, the divisor class group of $A$, is defined to be Div $(A) / \operatorname{Prin}(A)$.

There is another description of $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ which we will use. A fractional ideal $I$ is divisorial if it is an intersection of principal fractional ideals. Any prime ideal
of height one is divisorial. A fractional ideal $I$ is contained in a minimal divisorial ideal $\bar{I}=A:(A: I)$ where $A: I=\{x \in K \mid x I \subset A\}$. This defines an equivalence relation $\sim$ on the set of fractional ideals of $A$ with $I \sim J$ if and only if $\bar{I}=\bar{J}$. Div $(A)$ is just the abelian group of equivalence classes of fractional ideals with the usual multiplication. Prin $(A)$ is then the subgroup of Div $(A)$ generated by principal ideals.

If $A$ is isomorphic to $k[X, Y]$, then $A$ is factorial, so $\mathrm{Cl}(A)=0$. Otherwise $A=k\left[X^{m}, X^{i} Y^{j}, X^{2 i} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, X^{(q-1) i} Y^{\overline{(q-1) j}}, Y^{n}\right]$ where $m=q i$. We show that $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} / q \mathbf{Z}$.

Special cases of $A$ have been calculated in other ways, and they depend on the field $k$. Suppose first that $A=B^{G}$ where $G$ is a finite subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}_{k}(B)$. If no height one prime ideal of $B$ is ramified over $A$, then $A$ is isomorphic to $H^{1}\left(G, B^{*}\right)\left[3\right.$, p. 82]. In our case, $B^{*}=k^{*}$, so if $G$ is a finite cyclic group of order $n$, then $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} / n \mathbf{Z}$. For example, if $k$ contains a primitive $n$th root of unity, then $\mathrm{Cl}\left(k\left[X^{n}, X Y, Y^{n}\right]\right)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} / n \mathbf{Z}$.

If char $k=p \neq 0$ and $A=\operatorname{ker} D$, where $D$ is a $k$-derivation of $B$, then $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ is isomorphic to $L / L^{\prime}$. Here $L$ and $L^{\prime}$ are the logarithmic derivatives, $L^{\prime}=\left\{D(t) / t \mid t \in B^{*}\right\}$ and $L=\left\{D(t) / t \in B \mid t \in K^{*}\right\}$. In our special case, $B^{*}=$ $k^{*}$, so $L^{\prime}=0$. Thus $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ is isomorphic to $L$, which is isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} / p \mathbf{Z}$ [5, p. 61].

Waterhouse [7] has combined these two theories using the cohomology theory of Hopf algebras. He has shown, for example, that if char $k=p \neq 0$, then $\mathrm{Cl}\left(k\left[X^{p^{n}}, X Y, Y^{p^{n}}\right]\right)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} / p^{n} \mathbf{Z}$. Note that none of the above methods is applicable for calculating $\mathrm{Cl}\left(\mathbf{Z} / 2 \mathbf{Z}\left[X^{6}, X Y, Y^{6}\right]\right)$, for example.

If $A=A_{0} \oplus A_{1} \oplus \ldots$ is a homogeneous Krull domain, it is well-known [3, p. 42] that $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ is isomorphic to $\mathrm{HDiv}(A) / \mathrm{HPrin}(A)$ where HDiv $(A)$ is generated by the homogeneous prime divisorial ideals of $A$ and HPrin ( $A$ ) $=\operatorname{HDiv}(A) \cap \operatorname{Prin}(A)$. If $A=\oplus A_{(i, j)}$ is a bihomogeneous Krull domain, we show that $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ is isomorphic to BD iv $(A) / \mathrm{BPrin}(A)$ where $\mathrm{BDiv}(A)$ is the subgroup generated by bihomogeneous prime divisorial ideals and $\operatorname{BPrin}(A)=\operatorname{BDiv}(A) \cap \operatorname{Prin}(A)$.

Lemma 4.1. Let $A=\oplus A_{(i, j)}$ be a bihomogeneous ring and $P$ a prime ideal of $A$. Let I be the ideal generated by the bihomogeneous elements of $P$. Then I is prime.

Proof. Suppose that $x y$ is in $I$, but neither $x$ nor $y$ is in $I$. Write $x=\sum a_{i j}$ and $y=\sum b_{i j}$, and assume that $a_{i j}$ and $b_{l k}$ are the first terms not in $I$. But then $a_{i j} b_{l k}$ is in $I \subset P$, so say $a_{i j}$ is in $P$. Thus $a_{i j}$ is also in $I$, a contradiction; so $I$ must be prime.

Lemma 4.2. Let $A$ be a bihomogeneous Krull domain and $S$ the multiplicatively closed set of bihomogeneous elements of $A$. Then $S^{-1} A$ is factorial.

Proof. Let $A=\oplus A_{(i, j)}$, then $S^{-1} A=\oplus_{i, j \in \mathbf{Z}}\left(S^{-1} A\right)_{(i, j)}$ where $\left(S^{-1} A\right)_{(i, j)}$ $=\left\{x_{(m, n)} / y_{(1, k)} \mid m-l=i, n-k=j\right\}$. Clearly $F=\left(S^{-1} A\right)_{(0,0)}$ is a field. We may assume that the bigrading of $A$ is not trivial, so there exists a bihomo-
geneous $U$ in $S^{-1} A$ of degree ( $0, \alpha$ ) with $\alpha>0$ as small as possible. Let $V$ in $S^{-1} A$ be a bihomogeneous element of degree $(\beta, \gamma)$ with $\beta, \gamma>0$ and $(\beta, \gamma)$ as small as possible with respect to the lexicographic order on $\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N}$. Clearly $U$ and $V$ are transcendental over $F$, so $F\left[U, U^{-1}, V, V^{-1}\right] \subset S^{-1} A$. Let $t$ in $S^{-1} A$ be bihomogeneous of degree $(i, j)$; we may assume $i>0$. Write $i=q \beta+r$ with $0 \leqq r<\beta$, so $V^{-q} t$ has degree $(r, j-q \gamma)$. Thus $r=0$, so the degree of $V^{-q} t$ is $(0, j-q \gamma)$. But then for a suitable multiple of $U$, namely $p=(j-q \gamma) / \alpha$, $U^{-p} V^{-q} t \in F$. Hence $t \in F\left[U, V, U^{-1}, V^{-1}\right]$, so $S^{-1} A=F\left[U, V, U^{-1}, V^{-1}\right]$, which is factorial.

Theorem 4.3. Let $A$ be a bihomogeneous Krull domuin. Then $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ is isomorphic to BDiv $(A) / \mathrm{BP}$ rin $(A)$.

Proof. Let $A=\oplus A_{(i, j)}$ and $S$ be the multiplicatively closed set generated by the bihomogeneous elements of $A$. By Nagata's theorem [3, p. 36], there is a short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} f \rightarrow \mathrm{Cl}(A) \stackrel{f}{\rightarrow} \mathrm{Cl}\left(S^{-1} A\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

where ker $f$ is generated by the prime divisorial ideals of $A$ that meet $S$. By Lemma 4.1 these are precisely the height one prime ideals which are bihomogeneous. By Lemma 4.2, $S^{-1} A$ is factorial, so $\mathrm{Cl}\left(S^{-1} A\right)=0$. Thus $\mathrm{Cl}(A)=$ ker $f$ is isomorphic to BIDiv $(A) / \mathrm{BP} \operatorname{Prin}(A)$.

Remurk. Theorem 4.3 clearly holds for more general gradings of $A$.
Let $A$ be an affine normal subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials with $A \subset B$ integral. We may assume that $A=k\left[X^{n}, X Y^{j}, X^{2} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.X^{n-1} Y^{\overline{(n-1) j}}, Y^{n}\right]$ where $0<j<n$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(j, n)=1$. Let $P$ be a prime bihomogeneous ideal of height one. Then some $X^{a} Y^{b}$ is in $P . A \subset B$ is integral, so $P$ can be lifted to a prime ideal $\bar{P}$ of $B$ of height one. But $X^{a} Y^{b} \in \bar{P}$, so $\bar{P}$ is either $X B$ or $Y B$. Thus $P=\bar{P} \cap A$ is either

$$
P_{1}=\left(X^{n}, X Y^{j}, \ldots, X^{n-1} Y^{\overline{(n-1) j})} \quad \text { or } \quad P_{2}=\left(X Y^{j}, \ldots, X^{n-1} Y^{\overline{(n-1) j}}, Y^{n}\right) .\right.
$$

So BDiv $(A)$ is the free abelian group on $\left(P_{1}\right)$ and $\left(P_{2}\right)$. Let [] denote the image of an element in BDiv $(A) / \operatorname{BPrin}(A)$.

Theorem 4.4. Let $k$ be a field and $A=k\left[X^{n}, X Y^{j}, X^{2} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, X^{n-1} Y^{\overline{(n-1) j}}\right.$, $\left.Y^{n}\right]$ where $0<j<n$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(j, n)=1$. Then $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} / n \mathbf{Z}$.

Proof. It is sufficient to show that
(1) $\left[P_{1}\right]^{n}=\left[P_{2}\right]^{n}=0$,
(2) $\left[P_{1}\right]\left[P_{2}\right]^{j}=0$, and
(3) for $0<m<n$, neither $\left[P_{1}\right]^{m}$ nor $\left[P_{2}\right]^{m}$ is 0 .

Proof of (1). We show that $\left[P_{1}\right]^{n}=0$. Let $I=P_{1}{ }^{n}$, we show that $A:(A: I)$ $=X^{n} A$. It is sufficient to show that any principal fractional ideal which contains $I$ also contains $X^{n} A$. For $I \subset X^{n} A$ and $A:(A: I)$ is the intersection of
all principal fractional ideals which contain $I$. Let $(f / g) A$ be a fractional ideal containing $I$. Since $I$ is bihomogeneous we may assume $f=X^{a} Y^{a}$ is in $A$. $X^{n^{2}}$ is in $I$, so $X^{n^{2}}=\left(X^{a} Y^{b}\right)(h / g)$ for some $h$ in $A$. Thus $g=x^{a-n^{2}} Y^{b} h$, so $f / g=X^{n^{2}} / h$, and hence $I \subset\left(X^{n^{2}} / h\right) A$. Also $X^{n} Y^{j n}$ is in $A$, so $X^{n} Y^{j n}=$ $X^{n^{2}}\left(h^{\prime} / h\right)$ for some $h^{\prime}$ in $A$. Thus $Y^{j n} \mid h^{\prime}$, so $X^{n}=\left(X^{n^{2}} / h\right)\left(h^{\prime} / Y^{j n}\right)$ is in $\left(X^{n^{2}} / h\right) A$ $=(f / g) A$. So $X^{n} A \subset(f / g) A$ and the proof is complete.

Proof of (2). Let $I=P_{1} P_{2}{ }^{j}$, we show that $A:(A: I)=X Y^{j} A$. It is sufficient to show that $I \subset\left(X^{a} Y^{b} / h\right) A$ with $X^{a} Y^{b}$ and $h$ in $A$ implies that $X Y^{j}$ is also in $\left(X^{a} Y^{b} / h\right) A . X Y^{j} Y^{j n}$ is in $I$, so $h X Y^{j+j n}=X^{a} Y^{b} h^{\prime}$ for some $h^{\prime}$ in $A$. Thus $X^{a} Y^{b} / h=X Y^{j+j n} / h^{\prime}$. For some $c, X^{c} Y \in P_{2}$ (see the remark after Theorem 2.5), so $X^{n+j c} Y^{j}$ is in $I$. Hence $h^{\prime} X^{n+j c} Y^{j}=X Y^{j+j n} g$ for some $g$ in $A$. But thus $h^{\prime} X^{n+j c}=X Y^{j n} g$, so $Y^{j n} \mid h^{\prime}$. Hence $\left(X^{a} Y^{b} / h\right) A=\left(X Y^{j} / h^{\prime \prime}\right) A$ for some $h^{\prime \prime}$ in $A$, so $X Y^{j}$ is in $\left(X^{a} Y^{b} / h\right) A$.

Proof of (3). Let $I=P_{1}{ }^{m}$ with $0<m<n$, we show that $A:(A: I)$ is not principal. Clearly $A:(A: I) \subsetneq A$ because $I \subset P_{1} \subset\left(X^{n} / X^{n-1} Y^{(n-1) j}\right) A$ and $A \not \subset\left(X^{n} / X^{n-1} Y^{(n-1) j}\right) A$. So it is sufficient to show that $A$ is the only principal ideal of $A$ containing $I$. But if $I \subset f A$ with $f=X^{a} Y^{b}$ homogeneous, clearly $f=1$, so (3) is proved.

Corollary 4.5. Let $R$ be factorial and $A=R\left[X^{n}, X Y^{j}, X^{2} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, X^{n-1}-\right.$ $\left.Y^{\overline{(n-1) j}}, Y^{n}\right]$ with $0<j<n$ and $\mathrm{gcd}(j, n)=1$. Then $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} / n \mathbf{Z}$.

Proof. If $R$ is any Krull domain with quotient field $K$ and $S=R \backslash 0$, then again by Nagata's theorem there is a short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} f \rightarrow \mathrm{Cl}(A) \xrightarrow{f} \mathrm{Cl}\left(S^{-1} A\right) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

ker $f$ is generated by the height one prime ideals of $A$ which meet $S$. But these correspond to the beight one primes of $R$, so ker $f$ is isomorphic to $\mathrm{Cl}(R)$. Clearly $S^{-1} A=K\left[X^{n}, X Y^{j}, \ldots, X^{n-1} Y^{(n-1) j}, V^{n}\right]$, so $\mathrm{Cl}\left(S^{-1} A\right)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} / n \mathbf{Z}$. If $R$ is factorial, then $\mathrm{Cl}(R)=0$, so $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} / n \mathbf{Z}$.

Theorem 4.4 may be used to calculate $G_{0}(A)$. Recall that $G_{0}(A)$ is the Grothendieck group with generators $[M]$ for isomorphism classes of finitely generated $A$-modules and relations $[M]=\left[M^{\prime}\right]+\left[M^{\prime \prime}\right]$ for each short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0 . \widetilde{G}_{0}(A)$ is $G_{0}(A)$ modulo the subgroup generated by $[A]$. If $A$ is a domain, then $G_{0}(A)$ is naturally isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} \oplus \widetilde{G}_{0}(A)$. When $A$ is a Krull domain, there is a natural epimorphism $\widetilde{G}_{0}(A)$ $\rightarrow \mathrm{Cl}(A)[\mathbf{2}, \mathrm{p} .500]$. In general this map is not an isomorphism.

Let $A$ be an affine normal subring of $B=k[X, Y]$ generated by monomials. In $[\mathbf{1}]$ it is shown that all finitely generated projective $A$-modules are free, so $K_{0}(A)$ is just $\mathbf{Z}$. Here we show that $\widetilde{G}_{0}(A)$ is isomorphic to $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$, so $G_{0}(A)$ is $\mathbf{Z} \oplus \mathrm{Cl}(A)$.

Theorem 4.6. Let $A=k\left[X^{n}, X Y^{j}, X^{2} Y^{\overline{2 j}}, \ldots, X^{n-1} Y^{\overline{(n-1) j}}, Y^{n}\right]$ where $0<$ $j<n$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(j, n)=1$. Then $\widetilde{G}_{0}(A)$ is isomorphic to $\mathrm{Cl}(A)$ (isomorphic to $\mathbf{Z} / n \mathbf{Z}$.)

Proof. For $s \in A$ and $S=\left\{1, s, s^{2}, \ldots\right\}$, by $[\mathbf{6}, \mathrm{p} .122]$ the following localization sequence

$$
\widetilde{G}_{0}(A / s A) \rightarrow \widetilde{G}_{0}(A) \rightarrow \widetilde{G}_{0}\left(A_{S}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. Let $s=X^{n}$, then $A_{S}=A\left[1 / X^{n}\right]=k\left[X^{n}, X^{c} Y\right]\left[1 / X^{n}\right]$, so $\widetilde{G}_{0}\left(A_{S}\right)=0$. Let $R=A / X^{n} A$ and $B=R /$ nil $(R)$ where nil $(R)$ is the nilradical of $R$. The natural map $G_{0}(B) \rightarrow G_{0}(R)$ is an isomorphism [2, p. 454]. Clearly $B=k\left[\bar{Y}^{n}\right]$, so $G_{0}(B)=\mathbf{Z}$ on $[B]$. Thus $G_{0}(R)=\mathbf{Z}$ on $[B]$ also. As a $B$-module,
$R=B \oplus \bar{X} \bar{Y}^{j} B \oplus \ldots \oplus \bar{X}^{n-1} \bar{Y}^{(n-1) j} B$,
so $[R]=n[B]$ in $G_{0}(R)$. Hence $n[B]=0$ in $\widetilde{G}_{0}(R)$, so $\left|\widetilde{G}_{0}(R)\right| \mid n$. Thus $\left|\widetilde{G}_{0}(A)\right|$ $\mid n$, but $\widetilde{G}_{0}(A) \rightarrow \mathrm{Cl}(A) \approx \mathbf{Z} / n \mathbf{Z}$ is surjective; so it must be an isomorphism.

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