ON THE HEREDITARY k-BUCHSBAUM PROPERTY FOR IDEALS I AND in(I)

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1. Introduction

For undefined subsequent terminology, we refer to [5]. Throughout $I \subseteq$ $K[x_0,...,x_n]=R_{n+1}$ will be a homogeneous polynomial ideal in the polynomial ring R_{n+1} over an infinite field K. Let $\mathfrak{m}=(x_0,\ldots,x_n)$. $Y=\{y_0,\ldots,y_d\}$ is a system of parameters (s.o.p) for I if $\dim(I) = \text{Krull-}\dim(I) = d+1$ and (I,Y)is m-primary. For k > 0, Y is said to be an \mathfrak{m}^k -weak sequence for I if

- (i) $I: y_0 \subseteq I: \mathfrak{m}^k$,
- (ii) $(I, y_0, ..., y_{i-1})$: $y_i \subseteq (I, y_0, ..., y_{i-1})$: $\mathfrak{m}^k, 1 \le i \le d$. (For $k = 0, \mathfrak{m}^0 = R_{n+1}$.)

Definition 1.1. I is said to be k-Buchsbaum (k-Bbm), if for every s.o.p $Y = \{y_0, \dots, y_d\} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^{2k}$ for I, the system Y is an \mathfrak{m}^k -weak sequence for I. If k = 0then I is also said to be Cohen-Macaulay or perfect.

Remark 1.2. It suffices for a single s.o.p to be as in Definition 1.1. For this and other equivalent definitions see [6] and the fundamental paper by Trung [11].

Definition 1.3. Let $T_{n+1} \subseteq R_{n+1}$ be the set of terms (i.e. monomials with coefficient 1). An admissible term order < on T_{n+1} satisfies:

- $\begin{array}{ll} \text{(i)} & 1 \leq t, \;\; t \in T_{n+1}, \\ \text{(ii)} & t_1 < t_2 \text{ implies } tt_1 < tt_2, \, t \in T_{n+1}. \end{array}$

From now on all term orders will be admissible. For $0 \neq p(x) \in R_{n+1}$, $\operatorname{in}(p(x))$ is the largest nonzero term of p(x). For the ideal $I \subseteq R_{n+1}$, in I is the ideal generated by all $in(p(x)), p(x) \in I$.

Definition 1.4. A Gröbner basis $G = \{G_1, ..., G_s\} \subseteq I$ for I is a generating set for I such that $(in(G_1),...,in(G_s)) = in(I)$.

Remark 1.5. For an algorithm to obtain G from a generating set of I see [4] or [**2**].

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By a now classical result in [1], for any term order <, in(I) perfect implies I perfect and if < is the reverse lexicographical term order, then the converse is obtained if $x_0 < x_1 < \dots x_d$ are the smallest linear terms and form a s.o.p for I. For almost all term orders the converse implication fails (see the discussion in [3]). However as a generalization of the first implication, it was shown in [7], that if in(I) is k_1 -Bbm, then, for any term order <, I is k_2 -Bbm for some k_2 . The main purpose of this paper is to investigate how k_1 and k_2 are related, in particular if for a fixed k_1, k_2 can grow without bound.

This can indeed happen; in general "almost anything" can occur and thus perfect ideals I are once again true to their nomenclature. In conclusion we discuss some upper bounds for k_2 and its relation to the multiplicity $e(R_{n+1}/I)$ defined by the Hilbert polynomial. In the sequel $k_i, i \in \{1, 2\}$ will denote strict Buchsbaumness, i.e. k_i is minimal.

2. Comparisons of k_1 and k_2

Our examples and constructions are mostly for ideals I with $\dim(I) = 1$. We start with an easy but useful Lemma.

Lemma 2.1. Assume $I \subseteq R_{n+1}$ is an ideal, $\mathfrak{J} \subseteq R_{n+1}$ is a monomial ideal and $\langle a \text{ term order. Then } in(I : \mathfrak{J}) \subseteq in(I) : \mathfrak{J}.$

Proof. Let $F \in I : \mathfrak{J}$, $m = \operatorname{in}(F) \in \operatorname{in}(I : \mathfrak{J})$, $\bar{m} \in \mathfrak{J}$, a monomial. Since $\operatorname{in}(\bar{m}) = \bar{m}$, we have $\bar{m}m = \operatorname{in}(\bar{m}F) \in \operatorname{in}(I)$, thus $m \in \operatorname{in}(I) : \bar{m}$. From this the claim follows.

We first give an example such that $k_1 - k_2$ can become arbitrarily large.

Example 2.2. Let $I(r) = (x_0x_1^r - x_2^{r+1}, x_0^r) \subseteq R_3, r \ge 2, x_1 > x_2, x_0 > x_2$. Then $\operatorname{in}(I(r)) = (x_0x_1^r, x_0^r, x_0^{r-1}x_2^{r+1}, x_0^{r-2}x_2^{2(r+1)}, \dots, x_0x_2^{(r-1)(r+1)}, x_2^{r(r+1)})$ and $\{x_1\}$ is a s.o.p for I(r) and $\operatorname{in}(I(r))$. Similarly, $\operatorname{in}(I(r)) : x_1^r = \operatorname{in}(I(r)) : x_1^{r+1}, r$ minimal, $\operatorname{in}(I(r)) : x_1^r = (x_0, x_2^{r(r+1)})$. $x_0(x_0^{\alpha_0}x_1^{\alpha_1}x_2^{\alpha_2}) \in \operatorname{in}(I(r))$ iff $\alpha_0 \ge r - 1$ or $\alpha_1 \ge r$ or $\alpha_0 + 1 \ge r - j$ and $\alpha_2 \ge j(r+1), 1 \le j \le r - 1$. Therefore $\operatorname{in}(I(r))$ is k_1 -Bbm, k_1 -Bbm, k_2 -Bbm with k_2 = 0, which is immediate by using reverse lexicographical term order with k_1 -Bbm smallest linear term (see [5, Proposition 15.12]). For k_1 -Bigorian respectively.

Proposition 2.3. For an ideal $I \subseteq R_2 = K[x_0, x_1]$ assume:

- (i) $x_1 > x_0$ for some term order,
- (ii) without loss of generality (since K is infinite), $\{x_1\}$ is a s.o.p for I and in(I).
- (iii) $\operatorname{in}(I)$ is 1-Bbm. Then I is 0-Bbm or 1-Bbm

Proof. By hypothesis

$$\begin{split} & \text{in}(I): \mathfrak{m} \subseteq \text{in}(I): x_1 \subseteq \text{in}(I): x_1^2 \subseteq \text{in}(I): \mathfrak{m}, \\ \text{thus in}(I): x_1 = in(I): x_1^2 = \text{in}(I): \mathfrak{m}. \text{ Let} \\ & F = x_1^{n-r} x_0^r + a_{r+1} x_1^{n-r-1} x_0^{r+1} + \dots + a_n x_0^n \in I: x_1, \quad 0 \le r \le n. \end{split}$$

Then $x_1^{n-r}x_0^r \in \operatorname{in}(I:x_1) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I):x_1$. Thus

$$x_0^r \in \operatorname{in}(I) : x_1^{n-r+1} = \operatorname{in}(I) : x_1,$$

from which $x_1x_0^r \in \text{in}(I)$. Therefore either

- a) $F \equiv 0 \mod I$ or
- b) $F \equiv Ax_0^n \mod I$, $A \neq 0$ (\equiv denotes reduction of F by a Gröbner basis of I).

Assume b). Since $I \subseteq I : x_1$ and $F \in I : x_1, x_0^n \in I : x_1$, we get

$$x_0^n \in \operatorname{in}(I:x_1) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I):x_1 = \operatorname{in}(I):\mathfrak{m},$$

it follows that $x_0^{n+1} \in \operatorname{in}(I)$ (otherwise $x_0^{n+1} \notin (I)$). Hence $x_0 F \in I$, thus $I: x_1 \subseteq I: \mathfrak{m}$.

Next let $F=x_1^{n-r}x_0^r+a_{r-1}x_1^{n-r-1}x_0^{r+1}+\ldots+a_nx_0^n\in I: x_1^2$. As before $x_1x_0^r\in\operatorname{in}(I)$ and either a) $F\equiv 0 \mod I$ or b) $F\equiv Ax_0^n\mod I,\ A\neq 0$, and $x_0^{n+1}\in I$. In both cases $x_1F\in I$ (for b)) since $x_1x_0^r\in\operatorname{in}(I)$ and $x_o^{n+1}\in I$), hence $I:x_1^2\subseteq I:x_1$, thus I is either 0-Bbm or 1-Bbm.

We obtain next a family of ideals $I(n), n \geq 2$ such that:

- (1) $\{z\}$ is a s.o.p for I(n) and in(I(n)).
- (2) $\operatorname{in}(I(n)): z = \operatorname{in}(I(n)): z^2 = \operatorname{in}(I(n)): \mathfrak{m}$, thus $\operatorname{in}(I(n))$ is 1-Bbm (even Bbm by Proposition 2.12, Chapter I in [10]).
- (3) $I(n): z = I(n): z^2 \subseteq I(n): \mathfrak{m}^n, n$ minimal, thus I(n) is strictly n-Bbm.

We assume $x_1 > x_2 > ... > x_n$ and for notational convenience we set $z = x_0$. s-polynomials are the successor polynomials of a Gröbner algorithm. m or \bar{m} will be monomials, $\partial_{x_k}(m)$ is the degree of m with respect to x_k , $\partial(m)$ its degree.

Theorem 2.4. Let

$$I(n)=(z(x_1+\ldots+x_n),M_1(n),\ldots,M_h(n),\ldots,M_n(n)),$$

be an ideal of R_{n+1} , where

$$M_h(n) = \{ m \in R_{n+1} : z \not| m, \ x_j \not| m, \ 1 \le j \le h-1, \ x_h | m, \ \partial(m) = h+1 \},$$
 for $1 \le h \le n$. Then $I(n)$ satisfies the conditions (1), (2), and (3).

Proof. By construction of I(n), the (1) is obtained. If $m \in \operatorname{in}(I(n))$, then $z^2 \not \mid m$, thus $\operatorname{in}(I(n)) : z = \operatorname{in}(I(n)) : z^2$. $\operatorname{in}(I(n)) : z = \operatorname{in}(I(n)) : \mathfrak{m}$ iff $m \in \operatorname{in}(I(n)) : z$ implies $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)m \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I(n))$. We show that the monomial sets $M_i(n)$ have enough monomials to satisfy this requirement. Since $M_1(n)$ is as claimed, we assume it to be true for $M_j(n), 1 \le j \le i-1$. Assume $m \in \operatorname{in}(I(n)) : z, \partial(m) = i+1$. If $x_j \mid m, 1 \le j < i, j$ minimal, then, by construction, for some $\tilde{m} \in M_j(n)$, $\tilde{m} \mid m$, thus m is as required. It remains to be shown that $x_i \mid m$ otherwise. Assuming inductively that the monomials $M_j(n), 1 \le j \le i-1$, are obtained from nonzero polynomials $zm_j(x_j+x_{j+1}+\ldots+x_n), x_h \not \mid m_j, 1 \le h < j$, it follows that also modulo reduction the i^{th} nonzero s-polynomials are of the form $zm_i(x_i+\ldots+x_n), x_h \not \mid m_i, 1 \le h < i$, from which the claim. Therefore (2). By construction of $M_i(n)$ and the point (2), if $zx_n^d \in \operatorname{in}(I(n))$ is of smallest degree, then d=n. We induct on n to show that such a monomial exists. For n=2 it is true. Assume it true for $n \ge 2$

and note that $(I(n+1), x_{n+1}) = (I(n), x_{n+1})$. Therefore $in(I(n+1), x_{n+1}) =$ $in(I(n), x_{n+1}) = (in(I(n)), x_{n+1}) \supseteq in(I(n)).$

By induction hypothesis $zx_n^n \in \operatorname{in}(I(n))$, thus $zx_n^n \in \operatorname{in}(I(n+i), x_{n+1})$, hence $zx_n^n \in \operatorname{in}(I(n+1))$. From the proof of (2) we get $zx_n(x_n+x_{n+1}) \in I(n+1)$. Since $x_n x_{n+1}^n \in M_n(n+1), z x_{n+1}^{n+1} \in \text{in}(I(n+1)), \text{ thus } M_{n+1}(n+1) = \{x_{n+1}^{n+2}\}, \text{ which}$ implies (3).

Remark 2.5. (0) It is possible to show that every monomial $m \in M_i(n)$ is actually obtained from a $zm \in \text{in}(I(n))$.

- (1) If M_n is replaced by $M_{n+k_1} = \{x_n^{n+1+k_1'}\}, k_1 \geq 1$, then for the resulting ideal $I(n, k_1), in(I(n, k_1))$ is strictly k_1 -Bbm and $I(n, k_1)$ is strictly $(n+k_1)$ -Bbm.
- (2) For $R_{n+d} = K[z, x_1, ..., x_n, y_1, ..., y_{d-1}]$ and I(n) as in Theorem 2.4, $\dim(I(n)) = d$ and (2) and (3) of Theorem 2.4 apply to I(n).

For the next family of 1-dimensional ideals $I(k), k \geq 1$, we restrict ourselves to three variables, x, y, z for notational convenience. We obtain in(I(k)) has $k_1 = 1$, i.e. is 1-Bbm, and I(k) is strictly k_2 -Bbm, $k_2 = k + 1$. We do not obtain the results of Remark 2.5 (1) in this case.

Theorem 2.6. Let $k \ge 1$, $P_0(k) = z(x^{2k+1} + x^{(2k+1)-1}y + \ldots + xy^{2k} + y^{2k+1})$ and $I(k) = (P_0(k), M_k)$, $M_k = \{x^{2k+2}, x^{2k+1}y, x^{(2k+1)-1}y^3, \ldots, x^{k+1}y^{2k+1}, xy^{2k+2}, y^{2k+3}\}$. Assume x > y.

- 1. $\{z\}$ is a s.o.p for I(k) and in(I(k)).
- 2. $\operatorname{in}(I(k)): z = \operatorname{in}(I(k)): z^2 = \operatorname{in}(I(k)): \mathfrak{m}, \text{ thus } k_1 = 1.$
- 3. I(k) is strictly k_2 -Bbm, and $k_2 = k + 1$.

Proof. For m and \tilde{m} in M_k , we write $m < \tilde{m}$ if $\partial_y(m) < \partial_y(\tilde{m})$ (or equivalently $\partial_x(m) > \partial_x(\tilde{m})$). We proceed inductively by different steps of a Gröbner algorithm

with
$$\to$$
 denoting "reduces to" and $s(F_1, F_2)$ the successor polynomial of F_1, F_2 .
Step (1): $s(P_0(k), x^{2k+2}) \to P_1(k) = z(x^{(2k+1)-1}y^2 + \ldots + x^2y^{2k} + xy^{2k+1}),$
 $s(P_0(k), m = x^{2k+1}y) \to zy^{2k+2},$ thus $s(P_0(k), \tilde{m} > m) \to 0$ since $y^{2k+3} \in M_k$.
Step (2): $s(P_1(k), P_0(k)) \to 0,$

$$s(\overline{P_1(k)}, \overline{m} = x^{(2k+1)-1}y^3) \to P_2(k) = z(x^{(2k+1)-2}y^4 + \dots + x^2y^{2k+1}), \text{ thus } s(P_1(k), \tilde{m} > m) \to 0. \ s(P_1(k), \hat{m} = x^{2k+1}y) \to 0, \text{ thus } s(P_1(k), \tilde{m} < \hat{m}) \to 0.$$

Step (i), $2 \le i < k$: Assume for $j \le i$ we have obtained polynomials

$$P_j(\overline{k}) = z(x^{(2k+1)-j}y^{2j} + x^{(2k+1)-(j+1)}y^{2j+1} + \dots + x^jy^{2k+1})$$
 such that for $j < i$

- $\begin{array}{ll} \text{(i)} \ \ s(P_h(k),P_j(k)) \to 0, \ \ h < j, h \neq j. \\ \text{(ii)} \ \ s(P_j(k),x^{(2k+1)-j}y^{2j+1} = m) \to P_{j+1}(k) \end{array}$ $s(P_i(k), \tilde{m} > m) \rightarrow 0, s(P_i(k), \tilde{m} < m) \rightarrow 0.$

For $i > j \ge 0, i \ge j + 1$, thus 2i > j + 1 or 2i - j - 1 > 0.

Therefore

$$s(P_j(k), P_i(k)) = y^{2i-2j} P_j(k) - x^{i-j} P_j(k)$$

= $z(x^{2i-j-1}y^{2k+2} + \dots + x^j y^{2k+1+2(i-j)}) \to 0$

(Note this remains true for i = k.)

$$s(P_i(k), m = x^{(2k+1)-i}y^{2i+1}) = zx^iy^{2k+2} + P_{i+1}(k) \to P_{i+1}(k),$$

thus $s(P_i(k), \tilde{m} > m) \rightarrow 0$.

$$s(P_i(k), \hat{m} = x^{(2k+1)-i+1}y^{2i-1}) = zx^{(2k+1)-i}y^{2i+1} + P_{i+1}(k) \to 0,$$

thus $s(P_i(k), \tilde{m} < \bar{m}) \to 0$. This completes the induction.

To finish the proof we calculate first $s(P_k(k), m)$, for $m \in M_k$, where $P_k(k) = z(x^{(2k+1)-k}y^{2k} + x^ky^{2k+1}).$ Since

$$s(P_k(k), m = x^{k+1}y^{2k+1}) = zx^ky^{2k+2} \to 0,$$

we get $s(P_k(k), \tilde{m} > m) \to 0$.

Similarly

$$s(P_k(k), \hat{m} = x^{2k+2}y^{2k-1}) = zx^{k+1}y^{2k+1} \to 0,$$

implies $s(P_k(k), \tilde{m} < \hat{m}) \rightarrow 0$.

Therefore

$$\operatorname{in}(I(k)) = \{zx^{2k+1}, zx^{(2k+1)-1}y^2, \dots, zx^{k+1}y^{2k}, zy^{2k+2}, x^{2k+2}, x^{2k+1}y, x^{2k+1}y^{2k}, x^{2k+1}y^{2k+1}, xy^{2k+2}, y^{2k+3}\}.$$

This implies conditions 1. and 2. Also $I(k): z = I(k): z^2 = (P_0(k)/z, M_k)$. By [7], $I(k): z^2 \subseteq I(k): m^{k_2}$. Since $y^k(P_0(k)/z) \to x^{k+1}y^{2k} + \ldots + y^{3k}$, but $x^{k+1}y^{2k} \notin \operatorname{in}(I(k)), k_2 > k$. $k_2 = k+1$ is readily verified.

3. Upper bounds for k_2 .

We assume as before < is a term order, $I \subseteq R_{n+1} = K[x_0, ..., x_n]$ is a homogeneous ideal, $\dim(\operatorname{in}(I)) = \dim(I) = 1$, the field K is infinite and therefore without loss of generality $\{x_0\}$ is a s.o.p for I and in(I). Under these assumptions $x_i^{\delta_i} \in \text{in}(I), \delta_i \geq$ $1, \delta_i$ minimal, $1 \leq i \leq n$. Let $\mathfrak{K} = [\sum_{i=1}^n (\delta_i - 1)] + 1$. Let δ_0 be minimal such that $I: x_0^{\delta_0} = I: x_0^{\delta_0+1}$ and let $\nu = (\nu_1, \dots, \nu_l), \nu_i \leq \nu_{i+1}$ be the degree vector of $I: x_0^{\delta_0}$. Assume $I = (G), G = \{G_1, \dots, G_l\}$ is a Gröbner basis of I for the term order <and let $F \xrightarrow{G_i} H$ denote " G_i reduces F to H" (reduction is on the initial term). An elementary but useful bound for k_2 follows from:

Theorem 3.1. Assume in(I) is k_1 -Bbm, $k_1 \ge 1$. Let $L = \Re + (k_1 - 1) - \nu_1$. Then $\mathfrak{J} = \mathfrak{m}^L(I: x_0^{\delta_0}) \subseteq I$.

Proof. Let $F \in \mathfrak{J}$, then $\partial(F) = \operatorname{degree}(F) \geq \mathfrak{K} + k_1 - 1 \geq \mathfrak{K}$. Let $\operatorname{in}(F) =$

- - (ii) $\alpha_0 > 0$. If $\alpha_0 < k_1$, then $\partial(m) \geq \mathfrak{K}$, therefore as in (i) $F \xrightarrow{G_i} F'$, $\operatorname{in}(F) > \operatorname{in}(F'), \partial(F) = \partial(F') \ge \mathfrak{K} + k_1 - 1 \ge \mathfrak{K}.$

If $\alpha_0 \geq k_1$, then, since

$$\begin{array}{lcl} m \in \operatorname{in}(I:x_0^{\delta_0}): x_0^{\alpha_0} \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I): x_0^{\delta_0 + \alpha_0} & = & \operatorname{in}(I): x_0^{k_1} = \operatorname{in}(I): x_0^{k_1 + 1} \\ & = & \operatorname{in}(I): \mathfrak{m}^{k_1} = \operatorname{in}(I): \mathfrak{m}^{k_1 + 1} \end{array}$$

(since $\operatorname{in}(I)$ is k_1 -Bbm), $x_0^{k_1}m \in \operatorname{in}(I)$, thus $F \xrightarrow{G_i} F'$, $\operatorname{in}(F) > \operatorname{in}(F')$, $\partial(F) = \partial(F_1) \geq \mathfrak{K} + k_1 - 1 \geq \mathfrak{K}$. From this $F \in I$.

Corollary 3.2. Under the hypothesis of Theorem 3.1, $k_2 \leq L$. In particular if $k_1 = 1$, then $k_2 \leq L = \Re - \nu_1$.

Proof. This follows immediately from Theorem 3.1. \Box

Definition 3.3. $e(R_{n+1}/I)$ will denote the multiplicity as defined by the Hilbert polynomial.

An important result due to Macaulay is $e(R_{n+1}/I) = e(R_{n+1}/in(I))$. By [8] if in(I) is 1-Bbm and dim(in(I)) = 1, then $k_2 \le e(R_{n+1}/I) = e(R_{n+1}/in(I))$. (The proof uses the fact that $[H^0_{\mathfrak{m}}(R_{n+1}/I)]_n = [H^0_{\mathfrak{m}}(R_{n+1}/in(I)]_n = 0$ for $n \le 0$, $n \ge 0$ denoting the n^{th} graded piece of the 0^{th} local cohomology module $H^0_{\mathfrak{m}}(\ldots)$, and $k_2 \le a(H^0_{\mathfrak{m}}(R_{n+1}/I)) \le a(H^0_{\mathfrak{m}}(R_{n+1}/in(I))) \le e(R_{n+1}/(in(I)))$ by Lemma 3.1 in [8], $a(\ldots)$ denoting the last nonzero graded piece.) We will improve on this bound in the sequel. Presently we relate the multiplicity to the bound L of Corollary 3.2.

Lemma 3.4. Assume $\mathfrak{Q}_0 \neq (x_1,...,x_n) \subseteq R_{n+1}$ is a $(x_1,...,x_n)$ -primary monomial ideal with $\{x_0\}$ a s.o.p.

Let $\mathfrak{Q}_0 = (x_1^{\alpha_1}, \ldots, x_n^{\alpha_n}, M)$, $\alpha_i \geq 1$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, and $m \in M$ implies $m = x_0^{\beta_0} x_1^{\beta_1} \ldots x_n^{\beta_n}$, $\beta_i < \alpha_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then, if $l(\ldots)$ denotes length, we have:

(i)
$$l((x_1,...,x_n)/\mathfrak{Q}_0) \ge \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha_i - 1),$$

(ii)
$$l(x_1,...,x_n/\mathfrak{Q}_0) = \sum_{i=1}^{u} (\alpha_i - 1)$$
 iff $x_i x_j \in \mathfrak{Q}_0, i \neq j, 1 \leq i, j \leq n$.

Proof. (i) Lowering the exponent in $x_i^{\alpha_i}$ by one, results in a proper inclusion, thus (i).

(ii)
$$\Leftarrow$$
 . For $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\alpha_i - 1) = 1$, $\mathfrak{Q}_0 \subset (x_1, ..., x_n)$ is a saturated chain. Let

 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\alpha_i - 1) = h + 1, h \ge 1.$ Without loss of generality assume $\delta_1 \ge 2$. Consider $\mathfrak{Q}_0 \subset (\mathfrak{Q}_0, x_1^{\delta_1 - 1}) = \mathfrak{Q}_1$. $x_i x_j \in \mathfrak{Q}_0, i \ne j, 1 \le i, j \le n$, implies if $m \notin \mathfrak{Q}_0$ and $m \ne x_1^{\delta_1 - 1}$, then

$$m = x_i^{\delta_j - \beta_j}, \quad 1 \le \beta_j, \quad 2 \le j \le n, \text{ or } m = x_1^{\delta_1 - \beta_1}, \quad 2 \le \beta_1,$$

thus $\mathfrak{Q}_0 \subset \mathfrak{Q}_1$ is saturated, from which the implication by induction.

 \Rightarrow . Suppose without loss of generality that $x_1x_2 \notin \mathfrak{Q}_0$, thus $\alpha_1 \geq 2$ and $\alpha_2 \geq 2$. But then

$$(\mathfrak{Q}_0, x_1^2) \subset (\mathfrak{Q}_0, x_1^2, x_1 x_2) \subset (\mathfrak{Q}_0, x_1),$$

which constradicts the hypothesis.

Assume $\{x_0\}$ is a s.o.p for $\operatorname{in}(I)$ and $\operatorname{in}(I)$ is strictly k_1 -Bbm, i.e.

$$\operatorname{in}(I): x_0^{k_1} = \operatorname{in}(I): x_0^{k_1+1} = \operatorname{in}(I): \mathfrak{m}^{k_1} = \operatorname{in}(I): \mathfrak{m}^{k_1+1}$$

and k_1 is minimal. Let $\text{in}(I) = (x_1^{\delta_1}, \dots, x_n^{\delta_n}, M), \ 1 \leq \delta_i, \ 1 \leq i \leq n$, and for $m \in M, \ m = x_0^{\beta_0} x_1^{\beta_1} \dots x_n^{\beta_n}, \ \beta_0 \leq k_1, \ \beta_i < \delta_i, \ 1 \leq i \leq n$. Then $\text{in}(I) = (\mathfrak{Q}_0 = (x_1^{\delta_1}, \dots, x_n^{\delta_n}, M|_{x_0=1})) \cap \mathfrak{Q}_1, \ \mathfrak{Q}_1 = R_{n+1}$ or a trivial component.

Definition 3.5. Let

$$D(k_1) = \{ m : m = x_0^{\beta_0} x_j^{\delta_j - \varepsilon_j}, 1 \le \beta_0, \varepsilon_j \le k_1, \varepsilon_j < \delta_j, \varepsilon_j \text{ maximal}, \\ 1 \le j \le n, m \in M \}.$$

Define $\sigma(k_1) = \sum_{j=1}^n \varepsilon_j$. Put $\varepsilon_j = 0$, if ε_j does not occur in $D(k_1)$.

Theorem 3.6. $e(R_{n+1}/I) \ge \Re - \sigma(k_1)$.

Proof. Let in(I) = $\mathfrak{Q}_0 \cap \mathfrak{Q}_1$ be a primary decomposition with \mathfrak{Q}_0 (x_1, \ldots, x_n)-primary (thus unique), \mathfrak{Q}_1 either the trivial component or R_{n+1} . By [9] (see also the monomial construction there) and Lemma 3.4

$$e = e(R_{n+1}/\text{in}(I)) = 1 + l((x_1, ..., x_n)/\mathfrak{Q}_0)$$

$$\geq 1 + \sum_{j=1}^n [(\delta_i - \varepsilon_i) - 1] = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^n (\delta_i - 1) - \sigma(k_1) = \mathfrak{K} - \sigma(k_1).$$

Corollary 3.7. For $k_1 = 1$, n fixed, $e - k_2$ increases beyond bound with increasing ν_1 .

Proof. For $k_1 = 1$, L of Corollary 3.2 is $\Re - \nu_1$. By Theorem 3.6

$$e = e(R_{n+1}/I) \ge (\Re - \nu_1) + (\nu_1 - \sigma(1)) \ge k_2 + \nu_1 - \sigma(1).$$

Since $\sigma(1) \le n$, $e - k_2 \ge \nu_1 - n$, we get the claim.

Example 3.8. Let $I(m,m,p) = (x_1^{m-1}(x_1^p + x_0^p), x_0(x_1^p + x_0^p), x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}), p \geq 1, n \geq 2, m \geq 2$. Assume $x_1 > x_0$. It follows readily that $\operatorname{in}(I(m,n,p)) = (x_1^{p+m-1}, x_0x_1^p, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}),$ therefore $\{x_0\}$ is a s.o.p for I(m,n,p) and $\operatorname{in}(I(m,n,p))$. $\operatorname{in}(I(m,n,p)) : x_0 = (x_1^p, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}) = \operatorname{in}(I(m,n,p)) : x_0^2 \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I(m,n,p)) : \mathfrak{m}^{m-1}, (m-1) \text{ minimal. } I(m,n,p) : x_0 = (x_1^p + x_0^p, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}) = I(m,n,p) : x_0^2 \subseteq I(m,n,p) : \mathfrak{m}^{m-1}, (m-1) \text{ minimal. Thus } k_1 = k_2 = m-1.$ Also always $e = e(R_n/I(m,n,p)) = p$. Therefore, since m and p are independent parameters, in general there is no relationship between e and k_1, k_2 . We calculate next L of Corollary 3.2. We consider two cases:

(i)
$$n > 2$$
. Then $L = \Re + k_1 - \nu_1 - 1 = (p + m - 1) + (m - 1) - 1 - 1 = (p - 1) + 2m - 3 \ge k_2 = m - 1$. For $m = 2$ and $k_1 = k_2 = 1, L = p = e$.

(ii) n = 2. Then $L = (p + m - 1) + (m - 1) - p - 1 = 2m + 3 \ge m - 1$.

For m=2, thus $k_1=k_2=1, L=1 \le p=e$, thus the difference between L and e becomes arbitrarily large with increasing p.

Example 3.9. The ideals I(k) of Theorem 2.6 are as in Corollary 3.7.

For I(n) in Theorem 2.4, n is not fixed. We therefore investigate for $k_1 = 1$ another relation between k_2 and $e(R_{n+1}/in(I)) = e$ (from now on). For this we separate monomials m into:

- (i) $m \in \text{in}(I)$.
- (ii) $m \notin \text{in}(I)$, but $m \in \text{in}(I) : x_0 (\{x_0\} \text{ a s.o.p for in}(I) \text{ and } I)$.
- (iii) $m \notin \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0$.

Note that a monomial m such that $m \in \text{in}(I) : x_0 \text{ and } x_0 | m \text{ implies } m \in \text{in}(I)$.

Definition 3.10. A monomial m as in (ii) is called an obstruction.

Lemma 3.11. If
$$m = x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_i^{\alpha_i} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{\alpha_n}$$
, $\alpha_i \geq 1$, is an obstruction, then $x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_i^{\alpha_{i-1}} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{\alpha_n} \not\in \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0$.

Proof. $x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_i^{\alpha_i-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{\alpha_n} \in \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0 \text{ implies } x_0 x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_i^{\alpha_i-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{\alpha_n} \in \operatorname{in}(I), \text{ thus } x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_i^{\alpha_i} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{\alpha_n} \in \operatorname{in}(I), \text{ a contradiction.}$

In what follows, $\operatorname{in}(I) = \mathfrak{Q}_0 \cap \mathfrak{Q}_1, \mathfrak{Q}_0$ (x_1, \ldots, x_n) -primary, \mathfrak{Q}_1 a trivial component. Note: (i) $\operatorname{in}(I) : x_0 = \mathfrak{Q}_0$. (ii) If $\mathfrak{Q}_1 = R_{n+1}$, then $\operatorname{in}(I)$ is perfect, which, since $k_1 = 1$, is not the case.

Lemma 3.12. (i) $1 \notin \text{in}(I) : x_0$.

- (ii) m an obstruction and $x_i|m, x_j|m, i \neq j$ implies $m/x_i \neq m/x_j$ are not in $\operatorname{in}(I): x_0$.
- (iii) $x_i^{\alpha_i}, \alpha_i \geq 2$, such that $x_i^{\alpha_i-1}$ is the only monomial of degree $\alpha_i 1$ not in in(I): x_0 , implies $x_i^{\alpha_i}$ is the only monomial of degree α_i not in in(I) and $k_2 < \alpha_i + 1 \nu_1$.

Proof. (i) is true since $\{x_0\}$ is a s.o.p for $\operatorname{in}(I)$. (ii) follows from Lemma 3.11. (iii) Let $\tilde{m} \neq x_i^{\alpha_i}$ be of degree α_i . $x_i | \tilde{m}$ implies $\tilde{m}/x_i \neq x_i^{\alpha_i-1}$, thus $\tilde{m}/x_i \in \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0$, hence $x_i \tilde{m}/x_i = \tilde{m} \in \operatorname{in}(I)$. $x_i | \tilde{m}$, then for some $x_j \neq x_i \tilde{m}/x_j \neq x_i^{\alpha_i-1}$, thus, as before, $x_j \tilde{m}/x_j = \tilde{m} \in \operatorname{in}(I)$. Consider

$$m \in \operatorname{in}(\mathfrak{m}^{\alpha_i + 1 - \nu_1}(I : x_0^{\delta_0} = I : x_0^{\delta_0 + 1})) \cap K[x_1, \dots, x_n] \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I : x_0^{\delta_0}) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0^{\delta_0})$$
$$= \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0, \partial(m) = \alpha_i + 1,$$

thus of minimal degree. By the above and since $k_1 = 1$, we get $m \in \operatorname{in}(I)$; thus $\operatorname{in}(\mathfrak{m}^{\alpha_i + 1 - \nu_1}(I : x_0^{\delta_0})) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I)$ since if $m \in \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0$ and $x_0 | m$, then $m \in \operatorname{in}(I)$. Therefore $k_2 \leq \alpha_i + 1 - \nu_1$.

Theorem 3.13. For $k_1 = 1$, $k_2 \le e/2$ if $2 \le \nu_1$ and, $k_2 \le (e+2)/2$ if $\nu_1 = 1$.

Proof. For $k_2=0$, the bounds obviously are correct. Let $k_2=1$. If $\nu_1=1$, the bound is correct. If $2 \le \nu_1$ and $\operatorname{in}(I): x_0=\mathfrak{Q}_0 \ne (x_1,\ldots,x_n)$, the bound is correct. If $\mathfrak{Q}_0=(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=\operatorname{in}(I): x_0$ and $\nu_1\ge 2$, then all quadratic monomials, except x_0^2 , are in $\operatorname{in}(I)$. Therefore, $I:x_0\subseteq I$, by reduction with a Gröbner basis in (I), thus $k_2=0$ which contradics $k_2=1$.

Assume $k_2 \geq 2$. We consider the obstructions of lowest degree in

$$\operatorname{in}(\mathfrak{m}^{\rho}(I:x_0^{\delta_0})) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I:x_0^{\delta_0}) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I):x_0^{\delta_0} = \operatorname{in}(I):x_0, 0 \le \rho \le k_2 - 1.$$

Starting with $\rho = 0$, we obtain obstructions m_0 of degree d_0 , giving rise to monomials $\tilde{m}_0 \notin \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0$ of degree $d_0 - 1$. Since $\mathfrak{m}(m_0) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I)$, we obtain a sequence of monomials $\tilde{m} \notin \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0$ of degrees $d_0 - 1 < d_1 - 1 < \cdots < d_{k_2-1} - 1$. Possibilities for a single such monomial, by Lemma 3.12 are:

- $\begin{array}{ll} \text{(i)} & d_0 = \nu_1 = 1, m_0 = 1, \\ \text{(ii)} & x_i^{\alpha_i 1} = x_1^{d_{k_2 1} 1}. \end{array}$

If $\nu_1 \geq 2$, we can add the monomial 1 to the possibility (ii), thus $2k_2 \leq e$ (the count starts at 0). If $\nu_1 = 1$, we obtain $2(k_2 - 1) \le e$, which finishes the proof. \square

Example 3.14. For I and in(I) as in Theorem 3.13, if 2 < e, then $k_2 < e$. We give two examples with $e = k_2 = 1$ and $e = k_2 = 2$.

- 1. If m = 2, p = 1, n > 2 in Example 3.8, then $k_1 = k_2 = e = 1 = \nu_1$.
- 2. Let n = 2 for I(n) of Theorem 2.4. Then $I(2) = (z(x_1 + x_2), M_1 =$ $\{x_1^2, x_1 x_2\}, M_2 = \{x_3^3\}, \text{ in}(I(2)) = (zx_1, zx_1^2, x_1^2, x_1^2, x_1 x_2, x_2^3).$ Therefore $\nu_1 = k_1 = 1$ and $k_2 = e = 2$.

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