# 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  $I \subseteq K[x_0, \ldots, x_n] = R_{n+1}$  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) = Krull-dim(I) = d+1 and (I, Y) is  $\mathfrak{m}$ -primary. For  $k \geq 0$ , Y is said to be an  $\mathfrak{m}^k$ -weak sequence for I if

(i)  $I: y_0 \subseteq I: \mathfrak{m}^k$ , (ii)  $(I, y_0, \dots, y_{i-1}): y_i \subseteq (I, y_0, \dots, y_{i-1}): \mathfrak{m}^k, 1 \le i \le d$ . (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  $Y = \{y_0, \ldots, y_d\} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^{2k}$  for *I*, the system *Y* is an  $\mathfrak{m}^k$ -weak sequence for *I*. If k = 0 then *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:

(i)  $1 \le t, t \in T_{n+1},$ 

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(ii)  $t_1 < t_2$  implies  $tt_1 < tt_2, t \in T_{n+1}$ .

From now on all term orders will be admissible. For  $0 \neq p(x) \in R_{n+1}$ , 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  $G = \{G_1, \ldots, G_s\} \subseteq I$  for I is a generating set for I such that  $(in(G_1), \ldots, in(G_s)) = in(I)$ .

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

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  $x_0 < x_1 < \ldots x_d$  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 <, Iis  $k_2$ -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  $F \in I : \mathfrak{J}, m = in(F) \in in(I : \mathfrak{J}), \overline{m} \in \mathfrak{J}$ , a monomial. Since  $in(\overline{m}) = \overline{m}$ , we have  $\overline{m}m = in(\overline{m}F) \in in(I)$ , thus  $m \in in(I) : \overline{m}$ . 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  $in(I(r)) = (x_0x_1^r, x_0^r, x_0^{r-1}x_2^{r+1}, x_0^{r-2}x_2^{2(r+1)}, \dots, x_0x_2^{(r-1)(r+1)}, x_2^{r(r+1)})$  and  $\{x_1\}$  is a s.o.p for I(r) and in(I(r)). Similarly,  $in(I(r)) : x_1^r = in(I(r)) : x_1^{r+1}, r$  minimal,  $in(I(r)) : x_1^r = (x_0, x_2^{r(r+1)})$ .  $x_0(x_0^{\alpha_0}x_1^{\alpha_1}x_2^{\alpha_2}) \in in(I(r))$  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 in(I(r)) is  $k_1$ -Bbm,  $r^2 - 1 \le k_1 \le (r-1) + (r) + (r^2 - 1) - 2 = r^2 + 2r - 4$ . But I(r) is  $k_2$ -Bbm with  $k_2 = 0$ , which is immediate by using reverse lexicographical term order with  $x_1$  the smallest linear term (see [5, Proposition 15.12]). For  $r = 1, k_1 = k_2 = 0$ .

**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) in(I) is 1-Bbm. Then I is 0-Bbm or 1-Bbm

*Proof.* By hypothesis

$$\operatorname{in}(I): \mathfrak{m} \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I): x_1 \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I): x_1^2 \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I): \mathfrak{m},$$

thus  $in(I) : x_1 = in(I) : x_1^2 = in(I) : \mathfrak{m}$ . Let

$$F = x_1^{n-r} x_0^r + a_{r+1} x_1^{n-r-1} x_0^{r+1} + \dots + a_n x_0^n \in I : x_1, \quad 0 \le r \le n.$$

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

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

from which  $x_1 x_0^r \in in(I)$ . 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  $x_0^{n+1} \in in(I)$  (otherwise  $x_0^{n+1} \notin (I)$ ). Hence  $x_0 F \in I$ , thus  $I : x_1 \subseteq I : \mathfrak{m}$ . Next let  $F = x_1^{n-r} x_0^r + a_{r-1} x_1^{n-r-1} x_0^{r+1} + \ldots + a_n x_0^n \in I : x_1^2$ . As before  $x_1 x_0^r \in in(I)$  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  $x_1x_0^r \in in(I)$  and  $x_{\alpha}^{n+1} \in I$ ), 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  $I(n), n \ge 2$  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)  $I(n): z = I(n): z^2 \subseteq I(n): \mathfrak{m}^n, n \text{ minimal, thus } I(n) \text{ is strictly } n\text{-Bbm.}$

We assume  $x_1 > x_2 > \ldots > x_n$  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

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

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  $m \in in(I(n))$ , then  $z^2 \not m$ , thus  $in(I(n)) : z = in(I(n)) : z^2$ .  $in(I(n)) : z = in(I(n)) : \mathfrak{m}$  iff  $m \in in(I(n)) : z$  implies  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)m \subseteq in(I(n))$ . 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  $M_j(n), 1 \leq j \leq i-1$ . Assume  $m \in in(I(n)) : z, \partial(m) = i+1$ . If  $x_j \mid m, 1 \leq j < i, j$  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  $M_j(n), 1 \leq j \leq i-1$ , are obtained from nonzero polynomials  $zm_j(x_j + x_{j+1} + \ldots + x_n), x_h \not m_j, 1 \leq h < j$ , it follows that also modulo reduction the  $i^{th}$  nonzero s-polynomials are of the form  $zm_i(x_i + \ldots + x_n), x_h \not m_i, 1 \leq h < i$ , from which the claim. Therefore (2). By construction of  $M_i(n)$  and the point (2), if  $zx_n^d \in in(I(n))$  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  $n \geq 2$  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  $zx_n^n \in in(I(n))$ , thus  $zx_n^n \in in(I(n+i), x_{n+1})$ , hence  $zx_n^n \in in(I(n+1))$ . From the proof of (2) we get  $zx_n(x_n + x_{n+1}) \in I(n+1)$ . Since  $x_n x_{n+1}^n \in M_n(n+1), zx_{n+1}^{n+1} \in in(I(n+1))$ , thus  $M_{n+1}(n+1) = \{x_{n+1}^{n+2}\}$ , 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  $zm \in in(I(n))$ .
- (1) If  $M_n$  is replaced by  $M_{n+k_1} = \{x_n^{n+1+k_1}\}, k_1 \ge 1$ , 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  $I(k), k \ge 1$ , 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. Then: 1.  $\{z\}$  is a s.o.p for I(k) and in(I(k)). 2.  $in(I(k)) : z = in(I(k)) : z^2 = in(I(k)) : \mathfrak{m}$ , 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  $\rightarrow$  denoting "reduces to" and  $s(F_1, F_2)$  the successor polynomial of  $F_1, F_2$ .

 $\begin{array}{l} \underbrace{\operatorname{Step}(1):}_{s(P_0(k), x^{2k+2}) \to P_1(k) = z(x^{(2k+1)-1}y^2 + \ldots + x^2y^{2k} + xy^{2k+1}), \ s(P_0(k), \ m = x^{2k+1}y) \to zy^{2k+2}, \\ \operatorname{thus} \overline{s(P_0(k), \tilde{m} > m)} \to 0 \quad \operatorname{since} y^{2k+3} \in M_k. \\ \underbrace{\operatorname{Step}(2):}_{s(P_1(k), m = x^{(2k+1)-1}y^3) \to P_2(k) = z(x^{(2k+1)-2}y^4 + \ldots + x^2y^{2k+1}), \ \operatorname{thus} \\ s(P_1(k), \overline{m} > m) \to 0. \ s(P_1(k), \widehat{m} = x^{2k+1}y) \to 0, \ \operatorname{thus} s(P_1(k), \widetilde{m} < \widehat{m}) \to 0. \\ \underbrace{\operatorname{Step}(i), 2 \leq i < k:}_{s \text{ssume for} \ j \leq i \text{ we have obtained polynomials} \\ P_j(k) = z(x^{(2k+1)-j}y^{2j} + x^{(2k+1)-(j+1)}y^{2j+1} + \ldots + x^jy^{2k+1}) \ \operatorname{such} \ \operatorname{that} \ \operatorname{for} \ j < i \\ (i) \ s(P_h(k), P_j(k)) \to 0, \ h < j, h \neq j. \\ (ii) \ s(P_j(k), x^{(2k+1)-j}y^{2j+1} = m) \to P_{j+1}(k) \\ \ s(P_j(k), \widetilde{m} > m) \to 0, \ s(P_j(k), \widetilde{m} < m) \to 0. \\ \end{array}$ For \ i > j \ge 0, \ i \ge j + 1, \ \operatorname{thus} 2i > j + 1 \ \operatorname{or} 2i - j - 1 > 0. \\ \operatorname{Therefore} 2i \ 2i = (i) = x^{2i-2i} = x^{2i-2i} = (i) = x^{2i-2i} = x

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

(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

$$\begin{split} &\text{in}(I(k)) = \! \{ zx^{2k+1}, zx^{(2k+1)-1}y^2, \dots, zx^{k+1}y^{2k}, zy^{2k+2}, x^{2k+2}, x^{2k+1}y^2, \\ & x^{(2k+1)-1}y^3, \dots, x^{k+1}y^{2k+1}, xy^{2k+2}, y^{2k+3} \}. \end{split}$$

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  $x^{k+1}y^{2k} \notin in(I(k)), k_2 > k$ .  $k_2 = k + 1$  is readily verified.  $\Box$ 

## 3. Upper bounds for $k_2$ .

We assume as before < is a term order,  $I \subseteq R_{n+1} = K[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$  is a homogeneous ideal, dim(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  $x_i^{\delta_i} \in in(I), \delta_i \ge 1, \delta_i$  minimal,  $1 \le i \le n$ . Let  $\mathfrak{K} = [\sum_{i=1}^n (\delta_i - 1)] + 1$ . Let  $\delta_0$  be minimal such that  $I : x_0^{\delta_0} = I : x_0^{\delta_0+1}$  and let  $\nu = (\nu_1, \dots, \nu_l), \nu_i \le \nu_{i+1}$  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  $\operatorname{in}(I)$  is  $k_1 \operatorname{-Bbm}$ ,  $k_1 \ge 1$ . Let  $L = \mathfrak{K} + (k_1 - 1) - \nu_1$ . Then  $\mathfrak{J} = \mathfrak{m}^L(I : x_0^{\delta_0}) \subseteq I$ . Proof. Let  $F \in \mathfrak{J}$ , then  $\partial(F) = \operatorname{degree}(F) \ge \mathfrak{K} + k_1 - 1 \ge \mathfrak{K}$ . Let  $\operatorname{in}(F) = x_0^{\alpha_0}m$ ,  $x_0 \not\mid m$ . (i)  $\alpha_0 = 0$ . Since  $x_i^{\delta_i} \in \operatorname{in}(I)$ , there exists  $G_j \in G$  such that  $F \to F'$ ,  $\operatorname{in}(F) > \operatorname{in}(F')$ ,  $\partial(F_1) = \partial(F) \ge \mathfrak{K} + k_1 - 1 \ge \mathfrak{K}$ . (ii)  $\alpha_0 > 0$ . If  $\alpha_0 < k_1$ , then  $\partial(m) \ge \mathfrak{K}$ , therefore as in (i)  $F \to F'$ ,  $\operatorname{in}(F) > \operatorname{in}(F')$ ,  $\partial(F) = \partial(F') \ge \mathfrak{K} + k_1 - 1 \ge \mathfrak{K}$ . If  $\alpha_0 \ge k_1$ , then, since  $m \in \operatorname{in}(I : x_0^{\delta_0}) : x_0^{\alpha_0} \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0^{\delta_0 + \alpha_0} = \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0^{k_1} = \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0^{k_1 + 1} = \operatorname{in}(I) : \mathfrak{m}^{k_1 + 1}$ 

(since in(I) is  $k_1$ -Bbm),  $x_0^{k_1}m \in in(I)$ , thus  $F \xrightarrow{G_i} F'$ , in(F) > in(F'),  $\partial(F) = \partial(F_1) \ge \Re + k_1 - 1 \ge \Re$ . 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.

**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  $k_2 \leq e(R_{n+1}/I) = e(R_{n+1}/in(I))$ . (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  $n \leq 0$ , n denoting the  $n^{th}$  graded piece of the  $0^{th}$  local cohomology module  $H^0_{\mathfrak{m}}(\ldots)$ , and  $k_2 \leq a(H^0_{\mathfrak{m}}(R_{n+1}/I)) \leq a(H^0_{\mathfrak{m}}(R_{n+1}/\operatorname{in}(I))) \leq e(R_{n+1}/(\operatorname{in}(I)))$  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  $\mathfrak{Q}_0 \neq (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \subseteq R_{n+1}$  is a  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ -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  $x_i x_j \in \mathfrak{Q}_0, i \ne j, 1 \le i, j \le n.$ 

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

(ii)  $\leftarrow$ . For  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\alpha_i - 1) = 1$ ,  $\mathfrak{Q}_0 \subset (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  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

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

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.

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

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

and  $k_1$  is minimal. Let  $in(I) = (x_1^{\delta_1}, \dots, x_n^{\delta_n}, M), 1 \leq \delta_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$ , 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  $in(I) = (\mathfrak{Q}_0 = (x_1^{\delta_1}, \dots, x_n^{\delta_n}, M|_{x_0=1})) \cap \mathfrak{Q}_1, \mathfrak{Q}_1 = R_{n+1}$  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  $\varepsilon_j$  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

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

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

**Corollary 3.7.** For  $k_1 = 1$ , n fixed,  $e - k_2$  increases beyond bound with increasing  $\nu_1$ .

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

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

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

**Example 3.8.** Let  $I(m,m,p) = (x_1^{m-1}(x_1^p + x_0^p), x_0(x_1^p + x_0^p), x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}), p \ge 1, n \ge 2, m \ge 2$ . Assume  $x_1 > x_0$ . It follows readily that  $in(I(m,n,p)) = (x_1^{p+m-1}, x_0x_1^p, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1})$ , therefore  $\{x_0\}$  is a s.o.p for I(m,n,p) and in(I(m,n,p)).  $in(I(m,n,p)) : x_0 = (x_1^p, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}) = in(I(m,n,p)) : x_0^2 \subseteq in(I(m,n,p)) : \mathfrak{m}^{m-1}, (m-1)$  minimal.  $I(m,n,p) : x_0 = (x_1^p + x_0^p, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}) = I(m,n,p) : x_0^2 \subseteq I(m,n,p) : \mathfrak{m}^{m-1}, (m-1)$  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)  $m \in in(I)$ . (ii)  $m \notin in(I)$ , but  $m \in in(I) : x_0$  ( $\{x_0\}$  a s.o.p for in(I) and I). (iii)  $m \notin in(I) : x_0$ .

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

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

**Lemma 3.11.** If  $m = x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_i^{\alpha_i} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{\alpha_n}, \alpha_i \ge 1$ , is an obstruction, then

$$x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_i^{\alpha_i - 1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{\alpha_n} \notin \operatorname{in}(I) : x_0$$

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

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

**Lemma 3.12.** (i)  $1 \notin in(I) : x_0$ .

- (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  $in(I) : x_0$ .
- (iii)  $x_i^{\alpha_i}, \alpha_i \ge 2$ , 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  $\alpha_i$  not in in(I) and  $k_2 \le \alpha_i + 1 \nu_1$ .

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

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

thus of minimal degree. By the above and since  $k_1 = 1$ , we get  $m \in in(I)$ ; thus  $in(\mathfrak{m}^{\alpha_i+1-\nu_1}(I:x_0^{\delta_0})) \subseteq in(I)$ since if  $m \in in(I): x_0$  and  $x_0|m$ , then  $m \in in(I)$ . 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  $in(I) : x_0 = \mathfrak{Q}_0 \ne (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ , the bound is correct. If  $\mathfrak{Q}_0 = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) = in(I) : x_0$  and  $\nu_1 \ge 2$ , then all

quadratic monomials, except  $x_0^2$ , are in 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

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

Starting with  $\rho = 0$ , we obtain obstructions  $m_0$  of degree  $d_0$ , giving rise to monomials  $\tilde{m}_0 \notin in(I) : x_0$  of degree  $d_0 - 1$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}(m_0) \subseteq in(I)$ , we obtain a sequence of monomials  $\tilde{m} \notin in(I) : x_0$  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:

(i)  $d_0 = \nu_1 = 1, m_0 = 1,$ (ii)  $x_i^{\alpha_i - 1} = x_1^{d_{k_2 - 1} - 1}.$ 

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

**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  $I(2) = (z(x_1 + x_2), M_1 = \{x_1^2, x_1x_2\}, M_2 = \{x_3^3\})$ ,  $in(I(2)) = (zx_1, zx_1^2, x_1^2, x_1x_2, x_2^3)$ . Therefore  $\nu_1 = k_1 = 1$  and  $k_2 = e = 2$ .
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