## 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 $I \subseteq K\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]=R_{n+1}$ will be a homogeneous polynomial ideal in the polynomial ring $R_{n+1}$ over an infinite field $K$. Let $\mathfrak{m}=\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$. $Y=\left\{y_{0}, \ldots, y_{d}\right\}$ is a system of parameters (s.o.p) for $I$ if $\operatorname{dim}(I)=\operatorname{Krull}-\operatorname{dim}(I)=d+1$ 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) $\left(I, y_{0}, \ldots, y_{i-1}\right): y_{i} \subseteq\left(I, y_{0}, \ldots, y_{i-1}\right): \mathfrak{m}^{k}, 1 \leq i \leq d$. (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 $Y=\left\{y_{0}, \ldots, y_{d}\right\} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^{2 k}$ 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) $1 \leq t, \quad t \in T_{n+1}$,

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(ii) $t_{1}<t_{2}$ implies $t t_{1}<t t_{2}, t \in T_{n+1}$.

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 $I \subseteq R_{n+1}, \operatorname{in}(I)$ is the ideal generated by all $\operatorname{in}(p(x)), p(x) \in I$.

Definition 1.4. A Gröbner basis $G=\left\{G_{1}, \ldots, G_{s}\right\} \subseteq I$ for $I$ is a generating set for $I$ such that (in $\left(G_{1}\right), \ldots$, $\left.\operatorname{in}\left(G_{s}\right)\right)=\operatorname{in}(I)$.

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 $<, I$ 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 $e\left(R_{n+1} / I\right)$ 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 $\operatorname{dim}(I)=1$. 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 $<$ a term order. Then $i n(I: \mathfrak{J}) \subseteq i n(I): \mathfrak{J}$.

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 $I(r)=\left(x_{0} x_{1}^{r}-x_{2}^{r+1}, x_{0}^{r}\right) \subseteq R_{3}, r \geq 2, x_{1}>x_{2}, x_{0}>x_{2}$. Then $\operatorname{in}(I(r))=\left(x_{0} x_{1}^{r}, x_{0}^{r}, x_{0}^{r-1} x_{2}^{r+1}, x_{0}^{r-2} x_{2}^{2(r+1)}, \ldots, x_{0} x_{2}^{(r-1)(r+1)}, x_{2}^{r(r+1)}\right)$ and $\left\{x_{1}\right\}$ 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, $\operatorname{in}(I(r)): x_{1}^{r}=\left(x_{0}, x_{2}^{r(r+1)}\right) . x_{0}\left(x_{0}^{\alpha_{0}} x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} x_{2}^{\alpha_{2}}\right) \in$ $\operatorname{in}(I(r))$ iff $\alpha_{0} \geq r-1$ or $\alpha_{1} \geq r$ or $\alpha_{0}+1 \geq r-j$ and $\alpha_{2} \geq j(r+1), 1 \leq j \leq r-1$. Therefore $\operatorname{in}(I(r))$ is $k_{1}$ - Bbm , $r^{2}-1 \leq k_{1} \leq(r-1)+(r)+\left(r^{2}-1\right)-2=r^{2}+2 r-4$. 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 $I \subseteq R_{2}=K\left[x_{0}, x_{1}\right]$ assume:
(i) $x_{1}>x_{0}$ for some term order,
(ii) without loss of generality (since $K$ is infinite), $\left\{x_{1}\right\}$ is a s.o.p for $I$ and $\operatorname{in}(I)$,
(iii) $\operatorname{in}(I)$ is $1-B b m$. Then $I$ is $0-B b m$ or $1-B b m$

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 $(I): x_{1}=\operatorname{in}(I): x_{1}^{2}=\operatorname{in}(I): \mathfrak{m}$. Let

$$
F=x_{1}^{n-r} x_{0}^{r}+a_{r+1} x_{1}^{n-r-1} x_{0}^{r+1}+\cdots+a_{n} x_{0}^{n} \in I: x_{1}, \quad 0 \leq r \leq n .
$$

Then $x_{1}^{n-r} x_{0}^{r} \in \operatorname{in}\left(I: x_{1}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I): x_{1}$. Thus

$$
x_{0}^{r} \in \operatorname{in}(I): x_{1}^{n-r+1}=\operatorname{in}(I): x_{1},
$$

from which $x_{1} x_{0}^{r} \in \operatorname{in}(I)$. Therefore either
a) $F \equiv 0 \bmod I$ or
b) $F \equiv A x_{0}^{n} \bmod I, A \neq 0(\equiv$ 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

$$
x_{0}^{n} \in \operatorname{in}\left(I: x_{1}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I): x_{1}=\operatorname{in}(I): \mathfrak{m},
$$

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 $F=x_{1}^{n-r} x_{0}^{r}+a_{r-1} x_{1}^{n-r-1} x_{0}^{r+1}+\ldots+a_{n} x_{0}^{n} \in I: x_{1}^{2}$. As before $x_{1} x_{0}^{r} \in \operatorname{in}(I)$ and either a) $F \equiv 0$ $\bmod I$ or b) $F \equiv A x_{0}^{n} \bmod I, \quad A \neq 0$, and $x_{0}^{n+1} \in I$. In both cases $x_{1} F \in I\left(\right.$ for b)) since $x_{1} x_{0}^{r} \in \operatorname{in}(I)$ 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 $\operatorname{in}(I(n))$.
(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 $x_{1}>x_{2}>\ldots>x_{n}$ 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

$$
I(n)=\left(z\left(x_{1}+\ldots+x_{n}\right), M_{1}(n), \ldots, M_{h}(n), \ldots, M_{n}(n)\right),
$$

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

$$
M_{h}(n)=\left\{m \in R_{n+1}: z / m, x_{j} \nmid m, 1 \leq j \leq h-1, x_{h} \mid m, \partial(m)=h+1\right\}
$$

for $1 \leq h \leq n$. 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 $z^{2} \nmid m$, thus $\operatorname{in}(I(n)): z=\operatorname{in}(I(n)): z^{2}$. $\operatorname{in}(I(n)): z=\operatorname{in}(I(n)): \mathfrak{m}$ iff $m \in \operatorname{in}(I(n)): z \operatorname{implies}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) m \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I(n))$. 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 $M_{j}(n), 1 \leq j \leq i-1$. Assume $m \in \operatorname{in}(I(n)): z, \partial(m)=i+1$. 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 $\left.z m_{j}\left(x_{j}+x_{j+1}+\ldots+x_{n}\right), x_{h}\right\rangle m_{j}, 1 \leq h<j$, it follows that also modulo reduction the $i^{t h}$ nonzero $s$-polynomials are of the form $z m_{i}\left(x_{i}+\ldots+x_{n}\right), x_{h} \nmid m_{i}, 1 \leq h<i$, from which the claim. Therefore (2). By construction of $M_{i}(n)$ and the point $(2)$, if $z x_{n}^{d} \in \operatorname{in}(I(n))$ 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 $n \geq 2$ and note that $\left(I(n+1), x_{n+1}\right)=\left(I(n), x_{n+1}\right)$. Therefore $\operatorname{in}\left(I(n+1), x_{n+1}\right)=\operatorname{in}\left(I(n), x_{n+1}\right)=\left(\operatorname{in}(I(n)), x_{n+1}\right) \supseteq \operatorname{in}(I(n))$.

By induction hypothesis $z x_{n}^{n} \in \operatorname{in}(I(n))$, thus $z x_{n}^{n} \in \operatorname{in}\left(I(n+i), x_{n+1}\right)$, hence $z x_{n}^{n} \in \operatorname{in}(I(n+1))$. From the proof of (2) we get $z x_{n}\left(x_{n}+x_{n+1}\right) \in I(n+1)$. Since $x_{n} x_{n+1}^{n} \in M_{n}(n+1), z x_{n+1}^{n+1} \in \operatorname{in}(I(n+1))$, thus $M_{n+1}(n+1)=\left\{x_{n+1}^{n+2}\right\}$, 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 $z m \in \operatorname{in}(I(n))$.
(1) If $M_{n}$ is replaced by $M_{n+k_{1}}=\left\{x_{n}^{n+1+k_{1}}\right\}, k_{1} \geq 1$, then for the resulting ideal $I\left(n, k_{1}\right)$, in $\left(I\left(n, k_{1}\right)\right)$ is strictly $k_{1}$ - Bbm and $I\left(n, k_{1}\right)$ is strictly $\left(n+k_{1}\right)$ - Bbm .
(2) For $R_{n+d}=K\left[z, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{d-1}\right]$ and $I(n)$ as in Theorem 2.4, $\operatorname{dim}(I(n))=d$ 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 $\operatorname{in}(I(k))$ has $k_{1}=1$, i.e. is $1-\mathrm{Bbm}$, and $I(k)$ is strictly $k_{2}-\mathrm{Bbm}, k_{2}=k+1$. We do not obtain the results of Remark 2.5 (1) in this case.

Theorem 2.6. Let $k \geq 1$,
$P_{0}(k)=z\left(x^{2 k+1}+x^{(2 k+1)-1} y+\ldots+x y^{2 k}+y^{2 k+1}\right)$ and $I(k)=\left(P_{0}(k), M_{k}\right)$,
$M_{k}=\left\{x^{2 k+2}, x^{2 k+1} y, x^{(2 k+1)-1} y^{3}, \ldots, x^{k+1} y^{2 k+1}, x y^{2 k+2}, y^{2 k+3}\right\}$. Assume $x>y$. Then:

1. $\{z\}$ is a s.o.p for $I(k)$ and $\operatorname{in}(I(k))$.
2. $\operatorname{in}(I(k)): z=\operatorname{in}(I(k)): z^{2}=\operatorname{in}(I(k)): \mathfrak{m}$, thus $k_{1}=1$.
3. $I(k)$ is strictly $k_{2}-B b m$, 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 $s\left(F_{1}, F_{2}\right)$ the successor polynomial of $F_{1}, F_{2}$.

Step (1): $s\left(P_{0}(k), x^{2 k+2}\right) \rightarrow P_{1}(k)=z\left(x^{(2 k+1)-1} y^{2}+\ldots+x^{2} y^{2 k}+x y^{2 k+1}\right), s\left(P_{0}(k), m=x^{2 k+1} y\right) \rightarrow z y^{2 k+2}$, thus $s\left(P_{0}(k), \tilde{m}>m\right) \rightarrow 0$ since $y^{2 k+3} \in M_{k}$.

Step (2): $s\left(P_{1}(k), P_{0}(k)\right) \rightarrow 0$,
$s\left(\overline{P_{1}(k), m}=x^{(2 k+1)-1} y^{3}\right) \rightarrow P_{2}(k)=z\left(x^{(2 k+1)-2} y^{4}+\ldots+x^{2} y^{2 k+1}\right)$, thus
$s\left(P_{1}(k), \tilde{m}>m\right) \rightarrow 0 . s\left(P_{1}(k), \hat{m}=x^{2 k+1} y\right) \rightarrow 0$, thus $s\left(P_{1}(k), \tilde{m}<\hat{m}\right) \rightarrow 0$.
Step (i), $2 \leq i<k$ : Assume for $j \leq i$ we have obtained polynomials $P_{j} \overline{(k)}=z\left(x^{(2 k+1)-j} y^{2 j}+x^{(2 k+1)-(j+1)} y^{2 j+1}+\ldots+x^{j} y^{2 k+1}\right)$ such that for $j<i$
(i) $s\left(P_{h}(k), P_{j}(k)\right) \rightarrow 0, \quad h<j, h \neq j$.
(ii) $s\left(P_{j}(k), x^{(2 k+1)-j} y^{2 j+1}=m\right) \rightarrow P_{j+1}(k)$

$$
s\left(P_{j}(k), \tilde{m}>m\right) \rightarrow 0, s\left(P_{j}(k), \tilde{m}<m\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
s\left(P_{j}(k), P_{i}(k)\right) & =y^{2 i-2 j} P_{j}(k)-x^{i-j} P_{j}(k) \\
& =z\left(x^{2 i-j-1} y^{2 k+2}+\ldots+x^{j} y^{2 k+1+2(i-j)}\right) \rightarrow 0
\end{aligned}
$$

(Note this remains true for $i=k$.)

$$
s\left(P_{i}(k), m=x^{(2 k+1)-i} y^{2 i+1}\right)=z x^{i} y^{2 k+2}+P_{i+1}(k) \rightarrow P_{i+1}(k),
$$

thus $s\left(P_{i}(k), \tilde{m}>m\right) \rightarrow 0$.

$$
s\left(P_{i}(k), \hat{m}=x^{(2 k+1)-i+1} y^{2 i-1}\right)=z x^{(2 k+1)-i} y^{2 i+1}+P_{i+1}(k) \rightarrow 0,
$$

thus $s\left(P_{i}(k), \tilde{m}<\bar{m}\right) \rightarrow 0$. This completes the induction.
To finish the proof we calculate first $s\left(P_{k}(k), m\right)$, for $m \in M_{k}$, where $P_{k}(k)=z\left(x^{(2 k+1)-k} y^{2 k}+x^{k} y^{2 k+1}\right) . \quad$ Since

$$
s\left(P_{k}(k), m=x^{k+1} y^{2 k+1}\right)=z x^{k} y^{2 k+2} \rightarrow 0,
$$

we get $s\left(P_{k}(k), \tilde{m}>m\right) \rightarrow 0$.
Similarly

$$
s\left(P_{k}(k), \hat{m}=x^{2 k+2} y^{2 k-1}\right)=z x^{k+1} y^{2 k+1} \rightarrow 0,
$$

implies $s\left(P_{k}(k), \tilde{m}<\hat{m}\right) \rightarrow 0$.
Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{in}(I(k))= & \left\{z x^{2 k+1}, z x^{(2 k+1)-1} y^{2}, \ldots, z x^{k+1} y^{2 k}, z y^{2 k+2}, x^{2 k+2}, x^{2 k+1} y,\right. \\
& \left.x^{(2 k+1)-1} y^{3}, \ldots, x^{k+1} y^{2 k+1}, x y^{2 k+2}, y^{2 k+3}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This implies conditions 1. and 2. Also $I(k): z=I(k): z^{2}=\left(P_{0}(k) / z, M_{k}\right)$. By $[7], I(k): z^{2} \subseteq I(k): m^{k_{2}}$. Since $y^{k}\left(P_{0}(k) / z\right) \rightarrow x^{k+1} y^{2 k}+\ldots+y^{3 k}$, but $x^{k+1} y^{2 k} \notin \operatorname{in}(I(k)), k_{2}>k . k_{2}=k+1$ is readily verified.

## 3. Upper bounds for $k_{2}$.

We assume as before $<$ is a term order, $I \subseteq R_{n+1}=K\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ is a homogeneous ideal, $\operatorname{dim}(\operatorname{in}(I))=\operatorname{dim}(I)=$ 1 , the field $K$ is infinite and therefore without loss of generality $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ is a s.o.p for $I$ and $\operatorname{in}(I)$. Under these
assumptions $x_{i}^{\delta_{i}} \in \operatorname{in}(I), \delta_{i} \geq 1, \delta_{i}$ minimal, $1 \leq i \leq n$. Let $\mathfrak{K}=\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\delta_{i}-1\right)\right]+1$. Let $\delta_{0}$ be minimal such that $I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}}=I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}+1}$ and let $\nu=\left(\nu_{1}, \ldots, \nu_{l}\right), \nu_{i} \leq \nu_{i+1}$ be the degree vector of $I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}}$. Assume $I=(G)$, $G=\left\{G_{1}, \ldots, G_{l}\right\}$ 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 $k_{1}-B b m, k_{1} \geq 1$. Let $L=\mathfrak{K}+\left(k_{1}-1\right)-\nu_{1}$. Then $\mathfrak{J}=\mathfrak{m}^{L}\left(I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}}\right) \subseteq I$.
Proof. Let $F \in \mathfrak{J}$, then $\partial(F)=$ degree $(F) \geq \mathfrak{K}+k_{1}-1 \geq \mathfrak{K}$. Let $\operatorname{in}\left(F d_{t_{j}}=x_{0}^{\alpha_{0}} m, x_{0}\right\rangle m$.
(i) $\alpha_{0}=0$. Since $x_{i}^{\delta_{i}} \in \operatorname{in}(I)$, there exists $G_{j} \in G$ such that $F \xrightarrow{\rightarrow} F^{\prime}$, in $(F)>\operatorname{in}\left(F^{\prime}\right), \partial\left(F_{1}\right)=\partial(F) \geq$ $\mathfrak{K}+k_{1}-1 \geq \mathfrak{K}$.
(ii) $\alpha_{0}>0$. If $\alpha_{0}<k_{1}$, then $\partial(m) \geq \mathfrak{K}$, therefore as in (i) $F \xrightarrow{G_{i}} F^{\prime}, \quad \operatorname{in}(F)>\operatorname{in}\left(F^{\prime}\right), \partial(F)=\partial\left(F^{\prime}\right) \geq$ $\mathfrak{K}+k_{1}-1 \geq \mathfrak{K}$.
If $\alpha_{0} \geq k_{1}$, then, since

$$
\begin{aligned}
m \in \operatorname{in}\left(I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}}\right): x_{0}^{\alpha_{0}} \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}^{\delta_{0}+\alpha_{0}} & =\operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}^{k_{1}}=\operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}^{k_{1}+1} \\
& =\operatorname{in}(I): \mathfrak{m}^{k_{1}}=\operatorname{in}(I): \mathfrak{m}^{k_{1}+1}
\end{aligned}
$$

(since $\operatorname{in}(I)$ is $k_{1}$ - Bbm$), x_{0}^{k_{1}} m \in \operatorname{in}(I)$, thus $F \xrightarrow{G_{i}} F^{\prime}, \quad \operatorname{in}(F)>\operatorname{in}\left(F^{\prime}\right), \quad \partial(F)=\partial\left(F_{1}\right) \geq \mathfrak{K}+k_{1}-1 \geq \mathfrak{K}$. 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 $k_{2} \leq L=\mathfrak{K}-\nu_{1}$. Proof. This follows immediately from Theorem 3.1.
Definition 3.3. $e\left(R_{n+1} / I\right)$ will denote the multiplicity as defined by the Hilbert polynomial.
An important result due to Macaulay is $e\left(R_{n+1} / I\right)=e\left(R_{n+1} / i n(I)\right)$. By [8] if in $(I)$ is 1-Bbm and $\operatorname{dim}(i n(I))=$ 1 , then $k_{2} \leq e\left(R_{n+1} / I\right)=e\left(R_{n+1} / i n(I)\right)$. (The proof uses the fact that $\left[H_{\mathfrak{m}}^{0}\left(R_{n+1} / I\right)\right]_{n}=\left[H_{\mathfrak{m}}^{0}\left(R_{n+1} / \operatorname{in}(I)\right]_{n}=0\right.$
for $n \leq 0, n$ denoting the $n^{t h}$ graded piece of the $0^{t h}$ local cohomology module $H_{\mathfrak{m}}^{0}(\ldots)$, and $k_{2} \leq a\left(H_{\mathfrak{m}}^{0}\left(R_{n+1} / I\right)\right)$ $\leq a\left(H_{\mathfrak{m}}^{0}\left(R_{n+1} / \operatorname{in}(I)\right)\right) \leq e\left(R_{n+1} /(\operatorname{in}(I))\right.$ 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 $\mathfrak{Q}_{0} \neq\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \subseteq R_{n+1}$ is a $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$-primary monomial ideal with $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ a s.o.p.
Let $\mathfrak{Q}_{0}=\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}}, \ldots, \quad x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}, M\right), \quad \alpha_{i} \geq 1, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$, 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) $l\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) / \mathfrak{Q}_{0}\right) \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\alpha_{i}-1\right)$,
(ii) $l\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} / \mathfrak{Q}_{0}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{u}\left(\alpha_{i}-1\right)$ 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 $\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\alpha_{i}-1\right)=1, \mathfrak{Q}_{0} \subset\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ is a saturated chain. Let $\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\alpha_{i}-1\right)=h+1, h \geq 1$. Without loss of generality assume $\delta_{1} \geq 2$. Consider $\mathfrak{Q}_{0} \subset\left(\mathfrak{Q}_{0}, x_{1}^{\delta_{1}-1}\right)=\mathfrak{Q}_{1} . x_{i} x_{j} \in \mathfrak{Q}_{0}, i \neq j, 1 \leq i, j \leq n$, implies if $m \notin \mathfrak{Q}_{0}$ and $m \neq x_{1}^{\delta_{1}-1}$, then

$$
m=x_{j}^{\delta_{j}-\beta_{j}}, \quad 1 \leq \beta_{j}, \quad 2 \leq j \leq n, \quad \text { or } \quad m=x_{1}^{\delta_{1}-\beta_{1}}, \quad 2 \leq \beta_{1}
$$

thus $\mathfrak{Q}_{0} \subset \mathfrak{Q}_{1}$ is saturated, from which the implication by induction.
$\Rightarrow$. Suppose without loss of generality that $x_{1} x_{2} \notin \mathfrak{Q}_{0}$, thus $\alpha_{1} \geq 2$ and $\alpha_{2} \geq 2$. But then

$$
\left(\mathfrak{Q}_{0}, x_{1}^{2}\right) \subset\left(\mathfrak{Q}_{0}, x_{1}^{2}, x_{1} x_{2}\right) \subset\left(\mathfrak{Q}_{0}, x_{1}\right)
$$

which constradicts the hypothesis.

Assume $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ is a s.o.p for $\operatorname{in}(I)$ and $\operatorname{in}(I)$ is strictly $k_{1}-\mathrm{Bbm}$, 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 $\operatorname{in}(I)=\left(x_{1}^{\delta_{1}}, \ldots, x_{n}^{\delta_{n}}, M\right), 1 \leq \delta_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$, and for $m \in M, m=x_{0}^{\beta_{0}} x_{1}^{\beta_{1}} \ldots x_{n}^{\beta_{n}}, \beta_{0} \leq k_{1}$, $\beta_{i}<\delta_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$. Then $\operatorname{in}(I)=\left(\mathfrak{Q}_{0}=\left(x_{1}^{\delta_{1}}, \ldots, x_{n}^{\delta_{n}},\left.M\right|_{x_{0}=1}\right)\right) \cap \mathfrak{Q}_{1}, \mathfrak{Q}_{1}=R_{n+1}$ or a trivial component.

Definition 3.5. Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
D\left(k_{1}\right)=\{m: m= & x_{0}^{\beta_{0}} x_{j}^{\delta_{j}-\varepsilon_{j}}, \quad 1 \leq \beta_{0}, \varepsilon_{j} \leq k_{1}, \quad \varepsilon_{j}<\delta_{j}, \quad \varepsilon_{j} \text { maximal, } \\
& 1 \leq j \leq n, m \in M\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Define $\sigma\left(k_{1}\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \varepsilon_{j}$. Put $\varepsilon_{j}=0$, if $\varepsilon_{j}$ does not occur in $D\left(k_{1}\right)$.
Theorem 3.6. $e\left(R_{n+1} / I\right) \geq \mathfrak{K}-\sigma\left(k_{1}\right)$.
Proof. Let in $(I)=\mathfrak{Q}_{0} \cap \mathfrak{Q}_{1}$ be a primary decomposition with $\mathfrak{Q}_{0}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$-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

$$
\begin{aligned}
e & =e\left(R_{n+1} / \operatorname{in}(I)\right)=1+l\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) / \mathfrak{Q}_{0}\right) \\
& \geq 1+\sum_{j=1}^{n}\left[\left(\delta_{i}-\varepsilon_{i}\right)-1\right]=1+\sum_{j=1}^{n}\left(\delta_{i}-1\right)-\sigma\left(k_{1}\right)=\mathfrak{K}-\sigma\left(k_{1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $\mathfrak{K}-\nu_{1}$. By Theorem 3.6

$$
e=e\left(R_{n+1} / I\right) \geq\left(\mathfrak{K}-\nu_{1}\right)+\left(\nu_{1}-\sigma(1)\right) \geq k_{2}+\nu_{1}-\sigma(1) .
$$

Since $\sigma(1) \leq n, \quad e-k_{2} \geq \nu_{1}-n$, we get the claim.
Example 3.8. Let $I(m, m, p)=\left(x_{1}^{m-1}\left(x_{1}^{p}+x_{0}^{p}\right), x_{0}\left(x_{1}^{p}+x_{0}^{p}\right), x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right), p \geq 1, n \geq 2, m \geq 2$. Assume $x_{1}>x_{0}$. It follows readily that $\operatorname{in}(I(m, n, p))=\left(x_{1}^{p+m-1}, x_{0} x_{1}^{p}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)$, therefore $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ is a s.o.p for $I(m, n, p)$ and $\operatorname{in}(I(m, n, p)) . \quad \operatorname{in}(I(m, n, p)): x_{0}=\left(x_{1}^{p}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)=\operatorname{in}(I(m, n, p)): x_{0}^{2} \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I(m, n . p)):$ $\mathfrak{m}^{m-1},(m-1)$ minimal. $I(m, n, p): x_{0}=\left(x_{1}^{p}+x_{0}^{p}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)=I(m, n, p): x_{0}^{2} \subseteq I(m, n, p): \mathfrak{m}^{m-1},(m-1)$ minimal. Thus $k_{1}=k_{2}=m-1$. Also always $e=e\left(R_{n} / I(m, n, p)\right)=p$. 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 $L=\mathfrak{K}+k_{1}-\nu_{1}-1=(p+m-1)+(m-1)-1-1=(p-1)+2 m-3 \geq k_{2}=m-1$. For $m=2$ and $k_{1}=k_{2}=1, L=p=e$.
(ii) $n=2$. Then $L=(p+m-1)+(m-1)-p-1=2 m+3 \geq m-1$.

For $m=2$, thus $k_{1}=k_{2}=1, L=1 \leq p=e$, 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 $e\left(R_{n+1} / i n(I)\right)=e$ (from now on). For this we separate monomials $m$ into:
(i) $m \in \operatorname{in}(I)$.
(ii) $m \notin \operatorname{in}(I)$, but $m \in \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}\left(\left\{x_{0}\right\}\right.$ a s.o.p for $\operatorname{in}(I)$ and $\left.I\right)$.
(iii) $m \notin \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}$.

Note that a monomial $m$ such that $m \in \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}$ and $x_{0} \mid m$ implies $m \in \operatorname{in}(I)$.
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

$$
x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}} \notin \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}
$$

Proof. $x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}} \in \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}$ implies $x_{0} x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}} \in \operatorname{in}(I)$, thus $x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_{n}^{\alpha_{n}} \in$ in $(I)$, a contradiction.

In what follows, $\operatorname{in}(I)=\mathfrak{Q}_{0} \cap \mathfrak{Q}_{1}, \mathfrak{Q}_{0}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$-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 $\operatorname{in}(I)$ is perfect, which, since $k_{1}=1$, is not the case.

## Lemma 3.12. (i) $1 \notin \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}$.

(ii) $m$ an obstruction and $x_{i}\left|m, x_{j}\right| m, i \neq j$ 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 $\operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}$, implies $x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}$ is the only monomial of degree $\alpha_{i}$ not in $\operatorname{in}(I)$ and $k_{2} \leq \alpha_{i}+1-\nu_{1}$.

Proof. (i) is true since $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ 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 $\alpha_{i} . x_{i} \mid \tilde{m}$ implies $\tilde{m} / x_{i} \neq x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}-1}$, thus $\tilde{m} / x_{i} \in \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}$, hence $x_{i} \tilde{m} / x_{i}=\tilde{m} \in$ $\operatorname{in}(I) . x_{i} \nmid \tilde{m}$, 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

$$
\begin{aligned}
m \in \operatorname{in}\left(\mathfrak{m}^{\alpha_{i}+1-\nu_{1}}\left(I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}}=I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}+1}\right)\right) & \cap K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \subseteq \operatorname{in}\left(I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}^{\delta_{0}} \\
& =\operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}, \partial(m)=\alpha_{i}+1
\end{aligned}
$$

thus of minimal degree. By the above and since $k_{1}=1$, we get $m \in \operatorname{in}(I)$; thus $\operatorname{in}\left(\mathfrak{m}^{\alpha_{i}+1-\nu_{1}}\left(I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}}\right)\right) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I)$ since if $m \in \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}$ and $x_{0} \mid m$, then $m \in \operatorname{in}(I)$. Therefore $k_{2} \leq \alpha_{i}+1-\nu_{1}$.

Theorem 3.13. For $k_{1}=1, k_{2} \leq e / 2$ if $2 \leq \nu_{1}$ and, $k_{2} \leq(e+2) / 2$ 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 $2 \leq \nu_{1}$ and $\operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}=\mathfrak{Q}_{0} \neq\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$, the bound is correct. If $\mathfrak{Q}_{0}=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}$ and $\nu_{1} \geq 2$, 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

$$
\operatorname{in}\left(\mathfrak{m}^{\rho}\left(I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}}\right)\right) \subseteq \operatorname{in}\left(I: x_{0}^{\delta_{0}}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}^{\delta_{0}}=\operatorname{in}(I): x_{0}, 0 \leq \rho \leq k_{2}-1 .
$$

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 $\mathfrak{m}\left(m_{0}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{in}(I)$, 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:
(i) $d_{0}=\nu_{1}=1, m_{0}=1$,
(ii) $x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}-1}=x_{1}^{d_{k_{2}-1}-1}$.

If $\nu_{1} \geq 2$, we can add the monomial 1 to the possibility (ii), thus $2 k_{2} \leq e$ (the count starts at 0 ). If $\nu_{1}=1$, we obtain $2\left(k_{2}-1\right) \leq e$, which finishes the proof.

Example 3.14. For $I$ and $\operatorname{in}(I)$ 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 $I(2)=\left(z\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right), M_{1}=\left\{x_{1}^{2}, x_{1} x_{2}\right\}, \quad M_{2}=\left\{x_{3}^{3}\right\}\right), \operatorname{in}(I(2))=$ $\left(z x_{1}, z x_{1}^{2}, x_{1}^{2}, x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2}^{3}\right)$. Therefore $\nu_{1}=k_{1}=1$ and $k_{2}=e=2$.
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