# Normal and core reduction numbers ${ }^{1}$ 

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Throughout this note, let $(A, \mathfrak{m})$ be a two-dimensional excellent normal local domain containing an algebraically closed residue field $k=\bar{k} \cong A / \mathfrak{m}$ unless otherwise specified. Then there exists a resolution of singularity $Y \rightarrow \operatorname{Spec} A$. Then $p_{g}(A)=\ell_{A}\left(H^{1}\left(Y, \mathcal{O}_{Y}\right)\right)$ is called the geometric genus of $A$, which is independent on the choice of resolution of singularities. This invariant plays a key role in our argument.

## 1. GEOMETRIC GENUS AND NORMAL REDUCTION NUMBER

Throughout this section, let $(A, \mathfrak{m})$ be a two-dimensional excellent normal local domain with algebraically closed residue field $k$, and let $I \subset A$ be an $\mathfrak{m}$-primary integrally closed ideal. Then there exists a resolution of singularity $X \rightarrow \operatorname{Spec} A$ and an anti-nef cycle $Z$ on $X$ so that $I \mathcal{O}_{X}=\mathcal{O}_{X}(-Z)$ and $I=H^{0}\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(-Z)\right)$. The ideal $I$ is represented by $Z$ on $X$ which is denoted by $I=I_{Z}$. Then $\overline{I^{n}}=I_{n Z}$.

We recall the definition of normal reduction numbers. In what follows, we always assume that $I=I_{Z}$.

Definition 1.1 (Normal reduction number). Let $Q$ be a minimal reduction of $I$, that is, $Q \subset I$ is a parameter ideal and there exists a positive integer $n$ such that $I^{n+1}=Q I^{n}$. Then

$$
\operatorname{nr}(I)=\inf \left\{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid \overline{I^{n+1}}=Q \overline{I^{n}}\right\}
$$

is independent on the choice of $Q$ by Huneke [6, Theorem 4.5] and so we call it the normal reduction number of $I$. Moreover, we can define

$$
\operatorname{nr}(A)=\max \{\operatorname{nr}(I) \mid I \text { is a m-primary integrally closed ideal of } A\}
$$

which is called the normal reduction number of $A$.
Remark 1.2. Put $\bar{r}(I)=\inf \left\{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid \overline{I^{N+1}}=Q \overline{I^{N}}(\forall N \geq n)\right\}$. In general, Lemma 2.1 and Lemma 2.3 imply $\operatorname{nr}(I)=\bar{r}(I)$ in our case. But we do not know whether equality holds true for higher-dimensional case.

The notion of "core" was introduced by Rees and Sally [18], and their properties have been studied by Corso-Ulrich, Huneke-Swanson, Huneke-Trung, Hyry-Smith, PoliniUlrich and so on; e.g. $[1,2,7,8,9]$. The core of $I$ is defined as follows:

$$
\operatorname{core}(I)=\bigcap_{Q: \text { a reduction of } I} Q
$$

In general, it is not so easy to calculate core $(I)$, but in the case of stable ideals, it is easy to compute.

[^0]Lemma $1.3([2,8,9])$. If $I^{2}=Q I$ holds true for some minimal reduction $Q$ of $I$, then $\operatorname{core}(I)=(Q: I) I$.

Let us introduce the following notion.
Definition 1.4 (Normal core reduction number). Let $I$ be an $\mathfrak{m}$-primary ideal of $A$. Then the core reduction number (resp. the normal core reduction number) is defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{cr}(I) & =\min \left\{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid I^{n+1} \subset \operatorname{core}(Q)\right\}, \\
\operatorname{ncr}(I) & =\min \left\{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid \overline{I^{n+1}} \subset \operatorname{core}(Q)\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

respectively. Moreover, we define

$$
\operatorname{ncr}(A)=\sup \{\operatorname{ncr}(I) \mid I \text { is an } \mathfrak{m} \text {-primary ideal with } \bar{I}=I\}
$$

which is called the normal core reduction number of $A$.
The main aim of this talk is to evaluate $\operatorname{nr}(A), \operatorname{ncr}(A)$ in terms of geometric invariants.
Example 1.5. Let $A$ be as above. Then
(1) $\operatorname{nr}(A)=0$ if and only if $A$ is regular (see [3]).
(2) $\operatorname{nr}(A)=1$ if and only if $A$ is a rational singularity which is not regular (see [10]).
(3) If A is an elliptic singularity, then $\operatorname{nr}(A)=2$. How about the converse? (see Okuma [11])
The following theorem is motivated by the previous example.
Theorem 1.6. For any $\mathfrak{m}$-primary integrally closed ideal $I \subset A$ with $r=\operatorname{nr}(I)$, we have

$$
p_{g}(A) \geq\binom{ r}{2}+\ell_{A}\left(H^{1}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(-r Z)\right)\right)
$$

In particular, $p_{g}(A) \geq\binom{\operatorname{nr}(A)}{2} \geq\binom{\operatorname{ncr}(A)}{2}$.
In the next section, we give a proof of this theorem.

## 2. Proof of Main theorem

Throughout this section, let $I=I_{Z}$ be an $\mathfrak{m}$-primary integrally closed ideal in a a two-dimensional excellent normal local domain $(A, \mathfrak{m})$ with algebraically closed residue field $k$. For a given ideal $I$, we define a function $q: \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ as follows:

$$
q(k):=q(k I):=\ell_{A}\left(H^{1}\left(X, \mathcal{O}_{X}(-k Z)\right) .\right.
$$

By definition, we put $q(0)=p_{g}(A)$ and $q(I)=q(1 I)$. Note that $q(n I)=q\left(\overline{I^{n}}\right)$ for every integer $n \geq 1$.

Let us recall the following fundamental properties of $q(k I)$.
Lemma 2.1 ( $[12,13])$. The following statements hold.
(1) $0 \leq q(I) \leq p_{g}(A)$. If $q(I)=p_{g}(A)$ holds true, then $I$ is said to be a $p_{g}$-ideal.
(2) The function $q(\cdot I)$ is decreasing: $q(k I) \geq q((k+1) I)$ for every integer $k \geq 1$.
(3) The function $q(\cdot I)$ stabilize: there exists an integer $n_{0}=n_{0}(I)\left(0 \leq n_{0} \leq p_{g}(A)\right)$ such that $q(n I)=q\left(n_{0} I\right)$ for $n \geq n_{0}$.

The $\mathfrak{m}$-primary ideal $I$ is called good (in the sense of Goto-Iai-Watanabe [4]) if $I^{2}=Q I$ and $I=Q: I$ for some (every) minimal reduction $Q$ of $I$.

Example 2.2 ( $[12,14])$. Any two-dimensional excellent normal local domain over $k=$ $A / \mathfrak{m}=\bar{k}$ admits a $p_{g}$-ideal. If, in addition, $A$ is not regular, then $A$ admits a good $p_{g}$-ideal.

In order to prove Theorem 1.6, we need the following lemma.
Lemma 2.3. For any integer $n \geq 1$, we have

$$
2 \cdot q(n I)+\ell_{A}\left(\overline{I^{n+1}} / Q \overline{I^{n}}\right)=q((n+1) I)+q((n-1) I) .
$$

Proof. It follows from the following exact sequence:
$0 \rightarrow \overline{I^{n+1}} / Q \overline{I^{n}} \rightarrow H^{1}\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(-(n-1) Z)\right) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(-n Z)\right)^{\oplus 2} \rightarrow H^{1}\left(\mathcal{O}_{X}(-(n+1) Z)\right) \rightarrow 0$.

Proof of Theorem 1.6. Suppose $\operatorname{nr}(I)=r$. Then since $\ell_{A}\left(\overline{I^{k+1}} / Q \overline{I^{k}}\right) \geq 1$ for every $k=$ $1,2, \ldots, r-1$ and $\ell\left(\overline{I^{r+1}} / Q \overline{I^{r}}\right)=0$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
q((r-1) I)-q(r I) & =q(r I)-q((r+1) I), \\
q((r-2) I)-q((r-1) I) & \geq q((r-1) I)-q(r I)+1, \\
q((r-3) I)-q((r-2) I) & \geq q((r-2) I)-q((r-1) I)+1, \\
& \vdots \\
q(0 I)-q(1 I) & \geq q(1 I)-q(2 I)+1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus if we put $a_{k}=q((r-k) I)$ for $k=1, \ldots, r$, then we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{k}-a_{k-1} & \geq a_{k-1}-a_{k-2}+1 \\
& \geq a_{k-2}-a_{k-3}+2 \\
& \geq \cdots \\
& \geq\left\{a_{1}-a_{0}\right\}+(k-1) \geq k-1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence

$$
p_{g}(A)=a_{r}=\sum_{k=1}^{r}\left(a_{k}-a_{k-1}\right)+a_{0} \geq \sum_{k=1}^{r}(k-1)+a_{0}=\frac{r(r-1)}{2}+q(r I),
$$

as required. In particular, we have $p_{g}(A) \geq\binom{ r}{2}$.
On the other hand, for any minimal reduction $Q$ of $I$, we get $\overline{I^{r+1}}=Q \overline{I^{r}} \subset Q$, which shows $\overline{I^{r+1}} \subset$ core $(I)$. Hence $r \geq \operatorname{ncr}(I)$. This yields that $\operatorname{nr}(I) \geq \operatorname{ncr}(I)$. Hence $\operatorname{nr}(A) \geq \operatorname{ncr}(A)$. Hence $p_{g}(A) \geq\binom{\operatorname{nr}(A)}{2} \geq\binom{\operatorname{ncr}(A)}{2}$.

The above theorem gives a best possible bound. In fact, we have the following example. See the next subsection for more details.

Example 2.4. Let $r \geq 1$ be an integer. Let $A=\mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]] /\left(x^{2}+y^{2 r}+z^{2 r}\right)$. Then $\operatorname{nr}(A)=\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})=r$ and

$$
p_{g}(A)=\binom{r}{2}=\binom{\operatorname{nr}(A)}{2}=\binom{\operatorname{ncr}(A)}{2} .
$$

In particular, we consider the case of $r=2$. Let $I \subset A$ be an $\mathfrak{m}$-primary integrally closed ideal. Then $0 \leq q(I) \leq p_{g}(A)=1$ implies $q(I)=0$ or $q(I)=1$.

If $q(I)=0$, then $q(2 I)=q(3 I)=\cdots=0$ by Lemma 2.1. Then by Lemma 2.3 we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\ell_{A}\left(\overline{I^{2}} / Q I\right) & =2 \cdot q(I)+\ell_{A}\left(\overline{I^{2}} / Q I\right)=q(2 I)+p_{g}(A)=1, \\
\ell_{A}\left(\overline{I^{k+1}} / Q \overline{I^{k}}\right) & =2 \cdot q(k I)+\ell_{A}\left(\overline{I^{k+1}} / Q \overline{I^{k}}\right)=q((k+1) I)+q((k-1) I)=0 \quad \text { for } k \geq 2 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $\operatorname{nr}(I)=\bar{r}(I)=2$.
On the other hand, if $q(I)=1$, then $I$ is a $p_{g}$-ideal and hence $\overline{I^{k+1}}=Q \overline{I^{k}}$ for every $k \geq 1$ and $q(I)=q(2 I)=\cdots=p_{g}(A)=1$. That is, $\operatorname{nr}(I)=\bar{r}(I)=1$.

For instance, $\mathfrak{m}=(x, y, z)$ satisfies $q(\mathfrak{m})=0$ and $I=\left(x^{2}, y, z\right)$ satisfies $q(I)=1$.

## 3. Normal reduction numbers of hypersurfaces of Fermat type

In what follows, let $R=\mathbb{C}[x, y, z] /\left(z^{2}+x^{a}+y^{b}\right)$ be a hypersurface with $2 \leq a \leq b$. Put $\mathfrak{m}=(x, y, z) A$ and $r=\left\lfloor\frac{a}{2}\right\rfloor$. Then the $\mathfrak{m}$-adic completion $A=\widehat{R_{\mathfrak{m}}}$ is a two-dimensional excellent normal local domain. Put $Q=(x, y)$. This gives a minimal reduction of $\mathfrak{m}$. Also we put $F_{k}=\overline{\mathfrak{m}^{k}}$ for every integer $k \geq 1$. First we calculate $\ell_{A}\left(F_{k+1} / Q F_{k}\right)$ for all $k \geq 0$. In order to do that we determine the normalization of the extended Rees algebra $\mathcal{R}^{\prime}(\mathfrak{m})=A\left[\mathfrak{m} t, t^{-1}\right]$

Lemma 3.1. The normalization of $\mathcal{R}^{\prime}=\mathcal{R}^{\prime}(\mathfrak{m})=A\left[x t, y t, z t, t^{-1}\right]$ is given by

$$
\overline{\mathcal{R}^{\prime}}=\mathcal{R}^{\prime}\left[z t^{2}, \ldots, z t^{r}\right] \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z, U] /\left(Z^{2}+X^{2 r}+Y^{b} U^{b-2 r}\right) & \text { if } a=2 r, \\ \mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z, U] /\left(Z^{2}+X^{2 r+1} U+Y^{b} U^{b-2 r}\right) & \text { if } a=2 r+1\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Put $X=x t, Y=y t, Z=z t^{r}, U=t^{-1} \in Q\left(\mathcal{R}^{\prime}\right)$. Then $S=\mathbb{C}\left[x t, y t, z t, t^{-1}, z t^{2}, \ldots, z t^{r}\right]$ is generated by $X, Y, Z$ and $U$ as $\mathbb{C}$-algebra because $z t^{i}=Z U^{r-i}$ for each $i=0,1, \ldots, r-$ 1. Note that $a=2 r$ or $a=2 r+1$ by definition.

- The case of $a=2 r$

Then we have

$$
Z^{2}=\left(z t^{r}\right)^{2}=z^{2} t^{2 r}=-x^{2 r} t^{2 r}-y^{b} t^{2 r}=-X^{2 r}-Y^{b} U^{b-2 r},
$$

that is, $F:=Z^{2}+X^{2 r}+Y^{b} U^{b-2 r}=0$ in $S$. Clearly, $Z^{2}+X^{2 r}+Y^{b} U^{b-2 r}$ is a prime element of $\mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z, U]$ and thus $\operatorname{dim} \mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z, U] /(F)=3$. On the other hand, since $\operatorname{dim} \overline{\mathcal{R}^{\prime}}=\operatorname{dim} \mathcal{R}^{\prime}=3$ and $S$ is a homomorphic image of $\mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z, U] /(F)$, we can prove that $S \cong \mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z, U] /(F)$.

So it is enough to show that $S$ is normal. The Jacobian ideals of $S$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
J(F) & =\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial X}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial Y}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial Z}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial U}\right) \\
& =\left(2 r X^{2 r-1}, b Y^{b-1} U^{b-2 r}, 2 Z,(b-2 r) Y^{b} U^{b-2 r-1}\right) \\
& = \begin{cases}\left(Z, X^{2 r-1}, Y^{b-1} U^{b-2 r}, Y^{b} U^{b-2 r-1}\right) & \text { if } b \geq 2 r+1, \\
\left(Z, X^{2 r-1}, Y^{2 r-1}\right), & \text { if } b=2 r .\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $S$ is Cohen-Macaulay and height $J(F)=2, S$ is normal.

- The case of $a=2 r+1$

Then we have

$$
Z^{2}=\left(z t^{r}\right)^{2}=-x^{2 r+1} t^{2 r}-z^{b} t^{2 r}=-X^{2 r+1} U-Y^{b} U^{b-2 r},
$$

that is, $F_{o}:=Z^{2}+X^{2 r+1} U+Y^{b} U^{b-2 r}=0$ in $S$. Similar argument implies that $S \cong$ $\mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z, U] /\left(F_{o}\right)$.

So it is enough to show that $S$ is normal. The Jacobian ideals of $S$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
J\left(F_{o}\right) & =\left(\frac{\partial F_{o}}{\partial X}, \frac{\partial F_{o}}{\partial Y}, \frac{\partial F_{o}}{\partial Z}, \frac{\partial F_{o}}{\partial U}\right) \\
& =\left(2 Z,(2 r+1) X^{2 r} U, b Y^{b-1} U^{b-2 r}, \quad X^{2 r+1}+(b-2 r) Y^{b} U^{b-2 r-1}\right) \\
& = \begin{cases}\left(Z, X^{2 r} U, Y^{b-1} U^{b-2 r}, X^{2 r+1}+(b-2 r) Y^{b} U^{b-2 r-1}\right) & \text { if } b \geq 2 r+2, \\
\left(Z, X^{2 r} U, Y^{2 r} U, X^{2 r+1}+Y^{2 r+1}\right) & \text { if } b=2 r+1 .\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose $b \geq 2 r+2$ and $P \in \operatorname{Spec} K[X, Y, Z, U]$ such that

$$
P \supset\left(Z, X^{2 r} U, Y^{b-1} U^{b-2 r}, X^{2 r+1}+(b-2 r) Y^{b} U^{b-2 r-1}\right)
$$

If $U \notin P$, then $(X, Y, Z) \subset P$. Otherwise, $(X, Z, U) \subset P$. Hence height $J\left(F_{o}\right) \geq 2$.
Next suppose $b=2 r+1$ and $P \in \operatorname{Spec} K[X, Y, Z, U]$ such that

$$
P \supset\left(Z, X^{2 r} U, Y^{2 r} U, X^{2 r+1}+Y^{2 r+1}\right) .
$$

If $U \notin P$, then $(X, Y, Z) \subset P$. Otherwise, $(Z, U) \subset P$ and $X^{2 r+1}+Y^{2 r+1} \in P$. Take $\omega$ as one of $(2 r+1)$-th primitive roots of unity. Hence $\left(Z, U, X+\omega^{i} Y\right) \subset P$. Therefore height $J\left(F_{o}\right) \geq 2$ and $S$ is normal.

Lemma 3.2. We have $F_{k}=z \mathfrak{m}^{k-r}+\mathfrak{m}^{k}$ for every $k \geq 1$ and $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})=\bar{r}(\mathfrak{m})=r$. Furthermore, we get

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\ell_{A}\left(F_{2} / Q F_{1}\right)=\ell_{A}\left(F_{3} / Q F_{2}\right)=\cdots=\ell_{A}\left(F_{r} / Q F_{r-1}\right)=1, \\
\ell_{A}\left(F_{r+1} / Q F_{r}\right)=\ell_{A}\left(F_{r+2} / Q F_{r+1}\right)=\cdots=0 .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof. By the previous lemma, $A[\mathfrak{m} t]\left[z t^{2}, \ldots, z t^{r}\right]=A\left[x t, y t, z t, \ldots, z t^{r}, t^{-1}\right] \cap A[t]$ is normal. From this, one can easily see that $F_{k}=z \mathfrak{m}^{k-r}+\mathfrak{m}^{k}$ for every $k \geq 1$, where $\mathfrak{m}^{n}=A$ for each $n \leq 0$.

We will show that $\ell_{A}\left(F_{k+1} / Q F_{k}\right)=1$ for each $k=1,2, \ldots, r-1$. For such an integer $k$, we have $z^{2} \in \mathfrak{m}^{2 r} \subset \mathfrak{m}^{k+1}$. Thus

$$
z \mathfrak{m}+\mathfrak{m}^{k+1}=z Q+\mathfrak{m}^{k+1}=z Q+Q \mathfrak{m}^{k}=Q\left(z A+\mathfrak{m}^{k}\right)=Q F_{k} .
$$

It follows that $F_{k+1}=z A+Q F_{k}$ and $z \mathfrak{m} \subset Q F_{k}$. Hence $\ell_{A}\left(F_{k+1} / Q F_{k}\right)=1$ because $z \notin Q F_{k}$.

Next we will show that $F_{k+1}=Q F_{k}$ for every $k \geq r$. Since $z^{2} \in \mathfrak{m}^{2 r}$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q F_{k} & =(x, y)\left(z \mathfrak{m}^{k-r}+\mathfrak{m}^{k}\right) \\
& =z(x, y) \mathfrak{m}^{k-r}+Q \mathfrak{m}^{k} \\
& =\left(z^{2}, x z, y z\right) \mathfrak{m}^{k-r}+\mathfrak{m}^{k+1} \\
& =z \mathfrak{m}^{k+1-r}+\mathfrak{m}^{k+1}=F_{k+1},
\end{aligned}
$$

as required. By definition, we have $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})=\bar{r}(\mathfrak{m})=r$.

By virtue of the previous lemma, we can determine $q(i \mathfrak{m})$ completely in our case.
Theorem 3.3. Put $p=p_{g}(A)$. Then we have

$$
q(i \mathfrak{m})= \begin{cases}p-i(r-1)+\binom{i}{2} & 1 \leq i \leq r-1 ; \\ p-\binom{r}{2} & i \geq r .\end{cases}
$$

In particular, $q(\mathfrak{m})=p-(r-1)$. Moreover, for all $n \geq r-1$, we get

$$
\ell_{A}\left(A / \overline{\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}}\right)=2 \cdot\binom{n+2}{2}-r \cdot\binom{n+1}{1}+\binom{r}{2}
$$

In particular, we have

$$
e_{0}(\mathfrak{m})=2, \quad e_{1}(\mathfrak{m})=r, \quad e_{2}(\mathfrak{m})=\binom{r}{2} .
$$

Proof. Put $k=p-q(\mathfrak{m}) \geq 0$. Then we prove the following claim.
Claim 1: $q(i \mathfrak{m})=p-i k+\binom{i}{2}$ for all $i=1,2, \ldots, r$.
Use an induction on $i$. It is easy to check the case of $i=1$. Now suppose $2 \leq i+1 \leq r$, and the above equation holds true for $j \leq i$. Then by assumption, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
q((i+1) \mathfrak{m}) & =2 \cdot q(i \mathfrak{m})-q((i-1) \mathfrak{m})+\ell_{A}\left(F_{i+1} / Q F_{i}\right) \\
& =2\left[p-i k+\binom{i}{2}\right]-\left[p-(i-1) k+\binom{i-1}{2}\right]+1 \\
& =p-(i+1) k+\binom{i+1}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Next we show that
Claim 2: $q((r+i) \mathfrak{m})=p-r k+\binom{r}{2}+i(r-1-k)$ for all $i=1,2, \ldots$.

Use an induction on $i$. When $i=1$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
q((r+1) \mathfrak{m}) & =2 \cdot q(r \mathfrak{m})-q((r-1) \mathfrak{m})+\ell_{A}\left(F_{r+1} / Q F_{r}\right) \\
& =2\left[p-r k+\binom{r}{2}\right]-\left[p-(r-1) k+\binom{r-1}{2}\right] \\
& =p-(r+1) k+\binom{r+1}{2}-1 \\
& =p-r k+\binom{r}{2}+(r-1-k)
\end{aligned}
$$

as required. Now suppose $i \geq 2$ and the above equation holds true for any $j \leq i$. Then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
q((r+i+1) \mathfrak{m})= & 2 \cdot q((r+i) \mathfrak{m})-q((r+i-1) \mathfrak{m})+\ell_{A}\left(F_{r+i+1} / Q F_{r+i}\right) \\
= & 2\left[p-r k+\binom{r}{2}+i(r-1-k)\right] \\
& \quad-\left[p-r k+\binom{r}{2}+(i-1)(r-1-k)\right] \\
= & p-r k+\binom{r}{2}+(i+1)(r-1-k) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $q(i \mathfrak{m})$ is stable for sufficiently large $i$, we obtain that $k=r-1$. Indeed, if $k \leq r-2$, then $q((k+2) \mathfrak{m})>q((k+1) \mathfrak{m})$. On the other hand, if $k \geq r$, then $q(i \mathfrak{m})$ becomes strictly decreasing function on $i$. This is a contradiction. Hence $k=r-1$. Thus

$$
q(i \mathfrak{m})= \begin{cases}p-i(r-1)+\binom{i}{2} & 1 \leq i \leq r-1 \\ p-\binom{r}{2} & i \geq r .\end{cases}
$$

By [13], we obtain

$$
\bar{e}_{1}(\mathfrak{m})=e_{0}(\mathfrak{m})-\ell_{A}(A / \mathfrak{m})+\left[p_{g}(A)-q(\mathfrak{m})\right]=2-1+[p-(p-(r-1))]=r
$$

and

$$
\bar{e}_{2}(\mathfrak{m})=p-q(r \mathfrak{m})=p-\left[p-\binom{r}{2}\right]=\binom{r}{2} .
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\ell_{A}\left(A / \overline{\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}}\right)=2 \cdot\binom{n+2}{2}-r \cdot\binom{n+1}{1}+p-q((n+1) \mathfrak{m})
$$

Thus $P_{\mathfrak{m}}(n)=H_{\mathfrak{m}}(n)$ if and only if $n \geq r-1$.
In the last of this section, we calculate the geometric genus of $A$. We regard $R=$ $\mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z] /\left(Z^{2}-X^{a}-Y^{b}\right)$ as a graded ring by $\operatorname{deg} Z=a b=: q_{0}, \operatorname{deg} X=2 b=: q_{1}$,
$\operatorname{deg} Y=2 a:=q_{2}$. If we put $D=2 a b$, then the $a$-invariant of $R$ is given by $a(R)=$ $D-q_{0}-q_{1}-q_{2}$. Then we can calculate the geometric genus of $A$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{g}(A) & =\sum_{n=0}^{a(R)} \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{C}} R_{n} \\
& =\sharp\left\{\left(\lambda_{0}, \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{3} \mid D-\left(q_{0}+q_{1}+q_{2}\right) \geq \lambda_{0} q_{0}+\lambda_{1} q_{1}+\lambda_{2} q_{2}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In this case, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{g}(A) & =\sharp\left\{\left(\lambda_{0}, \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{3} \mid 2 a b-a b-2 b-2 a \geq a b \lambda_{0}+2 b \lambda_{1}+2 a \lambda_{2}\right\} \\
& =\sharp\left\{\left(\lambda_{0}, \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{3} \mid a b-2 b-2 a \geq a b \lambda_{0}+2 b \lambda_{1}+2 a \lambda_{2}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then one can easily see that $\lambda_{0}=0$. Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{g}(A)=\sharp\left\{\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2} \mid a b-2 a-2 b \geq 2 b \lambda_{1}+2 a \lambda_{2}\right\} . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Example 3.4. Let $p \geq 1$ be an integer. Let $A=\mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]] /\left(x^{2}+y^{3}+z^{6 p+1}\right)$. Then $p_{g}(A)=p$ and $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})=1$.

Example 3.5. Let $p \geq 1$ be an integer. Let $A=\mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]] /\left(x^{2}+y^{4}+z^{4 p+1}\right)$. Then $p_{g}(A)=p$ and $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})=2$.

## 4. An example of normal core reduction number

In the last of this note, we prove Example 2.4.
Proposition 4.1. Let $r \geq 2$ be an integer, and let $A=\mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]] /\left(z^{2}+x^{2 r}+y^{2 r}\right)$. Then
(1) $p_{g}(A)=\binom{r}{2}$.
(2) $\operatorname{nr}(A)=\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})=r$.
(3) $\operatorname{ncr}(A)=\operatorname{ncr}(\mathfrak{m})=r$.

Proof. Put $R=\mathbb{C}[x, y, z] /\left(z^{2}+x^{2 r}+y^{2 r}\right)$.
(1) By the formula (3.1), we have

$$
p_{g}(A)=\sharp\left\{\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2} \mid r-2 \geq \lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}\right\}=\binom{r}{2} .
$$

(2) One can easily see that $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})=\bar{r}(\mathfrak{m})=r$ and our main theorem implies that $p_{g}(A) \geq$ $\binom{\mathrm{nr}(I)}{2}$ for any integrally closed $\mathfrak{m}$-primary ideal and thus $\operatorname{nr}(A) \leq r$. Hence we obtain that $\operatorname{nr}(A)=\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})=r$.
(3) By definition, we have $\operatorname{ncr}(I) \leq \operatorname{nr}(I)$ for any $\mathfrak{m}$-primary integrally closed ideal $I \subset A$. On the other hand, since $\mathfrak{m}^{2}=Q \mathfrak{m}$, we have core $(\mathfrak{m})=(Q: \mathfrak{m}) \mathfrak{m}=\mathfrak{m}^{2}$. Hence $\overline{\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}}=$ $F_{n+1} \subset \operatorname{core}(\mathfrak{m})=\mathfrak{m}^{2}$ if and only if $n \geq r$. Thus ncr $(\mathfrak{m})=r$.
For any $\mathfrak{m}$-primary integrally closed ideal $I$, since $\operatorname{nr}(I) \leq \operatorname{nr}(A)=r$, we have that $\overline{I^{r+1}} \subset Q^{\prime}$ for any minimal reduction $Q^{\prime}$ of $I$. Hence $\operatorname{ncr}(I) \leq r=\operatorname{ncr}(\mathfrak{m})$ and thus $\operatorname{ncr}(A)=r$, as required.

Question. The following questions are interesting.
(1) When does $\operatorname{ncr}(A)=\operatorname{ncr}(\mathfrak{m})$ hold?
（2）When does $\operatorname{nr}(A)=\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})$ hold？
（3）When does $\operatorname{ncr}(A)=\operatorname{nr}(A)$ hold？
（4）When does $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})=\binom{r}{2}$ hold？

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is not in final form. The detailed version will be submitted to elsewhere for publication.

