# Normal and core reduction numbers <sup>1</sup>

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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  $k = \overline{k} \cong A/\mathfrak{m}$  unless otherwise specified. Then there exists a resolution of singularity  $Y \to \operatorname{Spec} A$ . Then  $p_g(A) = \ell_A(H^1(Y, \mathcal{O}_Y))$ 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  $X \to \operatorname{Spec} A$  and an anti-nef cycle Zon X so that  $I\mathcal{O}_X = \mathcal{O}_X(-Z)$  and  $I = H^0(\mathcal{O}_X(-Z))$ . The ideal I is represented by Z on X which is denoted by  $I = I_Z$ . Then  $\overline{I^n} = I_{nZ}$ .

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  $I^{n+1} = QI^n$ . Then

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

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

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

which is called the *normal reduction number* of A.

Remark 1.2. Put  $\overline{r}(I) = \inf\{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid \overline{I^{N+1}} = Q\overline{I^N} \ (\forall N \ge n)\}$ . In general, Lemma 2.1 and Lemma 2.3 imply  $\operatorname{nr}(I) = \overline{r}(I)$  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, Polini–Ulrich 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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is not in final form. The detailed version will be submitted to elsewhere for publication.

**Lemma 1.3** ([2, 8, 9]). If  $I^2 = QI$  holds true for some minimal reduction Q of I, then 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

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

respectively. Moreover, we define

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

which is called the normal core reduction number of A.

The main aim of this talk is to evaluate nr(A), ncr(A) in terms of geometric invariants.

**Example 1.5.** Let A be as above. Then

- (1) nr(A) = 0 if and only if A is regular (see [3]).
- (2) 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 nr(A) = 2. How about the converse? (see Okuma [11])

The following theorem is motivated by the previous example.

**Theorem 1.6.** For any m-primary integrally closed ideal  $I \subset A$  with r = nr(I), we have

$$p_g(A) \ge \binom{r}{2} + \ell_A(H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X(-rZ))).$$

In particular,  $p_g(A) \ge {\binom{\operatorname{nr}(A)}{2}} \ge {\binom{\operatorname{ncr}(A)}{2}}$ .

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 **m**-primary integrally closed ideal in a a two-dimensional excellent normal local domain  $(A, \mathbf{m})$  with algebraically closed residue field k. For a given ideal I, we define a function  $q: \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  as follows:

$$q(k) := q(kI) := \ell_A(H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X(-kZ))).$$

By definition, we put  $q(0) = p_g(A)$  and q(I) = q(1I). Note that  $q(nI) = q(\overline{I^n})$  for every integer  $n \ge 1$ .

Let us recall the following fundamental properties of q(kI).

Lemma 2.1 ([12, 13]). The following statements hold.

- (1)  $0 \le q(I) \le p_q(A)$ . If  $q(I) = p_q(A)$  holds true, then I is said to be a  $p_q$ -ideal.
- (2) The function  $q(\cdot I)$  is decreasing:  $q(kI) \ge q((k+1)I)$  for every integer  $k \ge 1$ .
- (3) The function  $q(\cdot I)$  stabilize: there exists an integer  $n_0 = n_0(I)$   $(0 \le n_0 \le p_g(A))$ such that  $q(nI) = q(n_0I)$  for  $n \ge n_0$ .

The m-primary ideal I is called *good* (in the sense of Goto-Iai-Watanabe [4]) if  $I^2 = QI$ 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  $k = A/\mathfrak{m} = \overline{k}$  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  $n \ge 1$ , we have

$$2 \cdot q(nI) + \ell_A(\overline{I^{n+1}}/Q\overline{I^n}) = q((n+1)I) + q((n-1)I).$$

*Proof.* It follows from the following exact sequence:

$$0 \to \overline{I^{n+1}}/Q\overline{I^n} \to H^1(\mathcal{O}_X(-(n-1)Z)) \to H^1(\mathcal{O}_X(-nZ))^{\oplus 2} \to H^1(\mathcal{O}_X(-(n+1)Z)) \to 0.$$

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

$$q((r-1)I) - q(rI) = q(rI) - q((r+1)I),$$
  

$$q((r-2)I) - q((r-1)I) \ge q((r-1)I) - q(rI) + 1,$$
  

$$q((r-3)I) - q((r-2)I) \ge q((r-2)I) - q((r-1)I) + 1$$
  

$$\vdots$$
  

$$q(0I) - q(1I) \ge q(1I) - q(2I) + 1.$$

Thus if we put  $a_k = q((r-k)I)$  for k = 1, ..., r, then we get

$$a_{k} - a_{k-1} \geq a_{k-1} - a_{k-2} + 1$$
  

$$\geq a_{k-2} - a_{k-3} + 2$$
  

$$\geq \cdots$$
  

$$\geq \{a_{1} - a_{0}\} + (k-1) \geq k - 1$$

Hence

$$p_g(A) = a_r = \sum_{k=1}^r (a_k - a_{k-1}) + a_0 \ge \sum_{k=1}^r (k-1) + a_0 = \frac{r(r-1)}{2} + q(rI),$$

as required. In particular, we have  $p_g(A) \ge \binom{r}{2}$ .

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  $\overline{I^{r+1}} \subset \operatorname{core}(I)$ . 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  $r \ge 1$  be an integer. Let  $A = \mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]]/(x^2 + y^{2r} + z^{2r})$ . 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 **m**-primary integrally closed ideal. Then  $0 \le q(I) \le p_g(A) = 1$  implies q(I) = 0 or q(I) = 1.

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

$$\ell_A(\overline{I^2}/QI) = 2 \cdot q(I) + \ell_A(\overline{I^2}/QI) = q(2I) + p_g(A) = 1,$$
  
$$\ell_A(\overline{I^{k+1}}/Q\overline{I^k}) = 2 \cdot q(kI) + \ell_A(\overline{I^{k+1}}/Q\overline{I^k}) = q((k+1)I) + q((k-1)I) = 0 \quad \text{for } k \ge 2.$$

Hence  $\operatorname{nr}(I) = \overline{r}(I) = 2$ .

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  $k \ge 1$  and  $q(I) = q(2I) = \cdots = p_g(A) = 1$ . That is,  $\operatorname{nr}(I) = \overline{r}(I) = 1$ .

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

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

In what follows, let  $R = \mathbb{C}[x, y, z]/(z^2 + x^a + y^b)$  be a hypersurface with  $2 \le a \le b$ . Put  $\mathfrak{m} = (x, y, z)A$  and  $r = \lfloor \frac{a}{2} \rfloor$ . 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  $k \ge 1$ . First we calculate  $\ell_A(F_{k+1}/QF_k)$  for all  $k \ge 0$ . In order to do that we determine the normalization of the extended Rees algebra  $\mathcal{R}'(\mathfrak{m}) = A[\mathfrak{m}t, t^{-1}]$ 

**Lemma 3.1.** The normalization of  $\mathcal{R}' = \mathcal{R}'(\mathfrak{m}) = A[xt, yt, zt, t^{-1}]$  is given by

$$\overline{\mathcal{R}'} = \mathcal{R}'[zt^2, \dots, zt^r] \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z, U]/(Z^2 + X^{2r} + Y^b U^{b-2r}) & \text{if } a = 2r, \\ \mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z, U]/(Z^2 + X^{2r+1}U + Y^b U^{b-2r}) & \text{if } a = 2r+1. \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* Put X = xt, Y = yt,  $Z = zt^r$ ,  $U = t^{-1} \in Q(\mathcal{R}')$ . Then  $S = \mathbb{C}[xt, yt, zt, t^{-1}, zt^2, \dots, zt^r]$  is generated by X, Y, Z and U as  $\mathbb{C}$ -algebra because  $zt^i = ZU^{r-i}$  for each  $i = 0, 1, \dots, r-1$ . Note that a = 2r or a = 2r + 1 by definition.

• The case of a = 2r

Then we have

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

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

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

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

• The case of a = 2r + 1

Then we have

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

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

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

$$\begin{split} J(F_o) &= \left(\frac{\partial F_o}{\partial X}, \frac{\partial F_o}{\partial Y}, \frac{\partial F_o}{\partial Z}, \frac{\partial F_o}{\partial U}\right) \\ &= (2Z, \ (2r+1)X^{2r}U, \ bY^{b-1}U^{b-2r}, \ X^{2r+1} + (b-2r)Y^bU^{b-2r-1}) \\ &= \begin{cases} (Z, \ X^{2r}U, \ Y^{b-1}U^{b-2r}, \ X^{2r+1} + (b-2r)Y^bU^{b-2r-1}) & \text{if } b \ge 2r+2, \\ (Z, \ X^{2r}U, \ Y^{2r}U, \ X^{2r+1} + Y^{2r+1}) & \text{if } b = 2r+1. \end{cases}$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{cases} \ell_A(F_2/QF_1) = \ell_A(F_3/QF_2) = \dots = \ell_A(F_r/QF_{r-1}) = 1, \\ \ell_A(F_{r+1}/QF_r) = \ell_A(F_{r+2}/QF_{r+1}) = \dots = 0. \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* By the previous lemma,  $A[\mathfrak{m}t][zt^2, \ldots, zt^r] = A[xt, yt, zt, \ldots, zt^r, t^{-1}] \cap A[t]$  is normal. From this, one can easily see that  $F_k = z\mathfrak{m}^{k-r} + \mathfrak{m}^k$  for every  $k \ge 1$ , where  $\mathfrak{m}^n = A$  for each  $n \le 0$ .

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

$$z\mathfrak{m} + \mathfrak{m}^{k+1} = zQ + \mathfrak{m}^{k+1} = zQ + Q\mathfrak{m}^k = Q(zA + \mathfrak{m}^k) = QF_k.$$

It follows that  $F_{k+1} = zA + QF_k$  and  $z\mathfrak{m} \subset QF_k$ . Hence  $\ell_A(F_{k+1}/QF_k) = 1$  because  $z \notin QF_k$ .

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

$$QF_k = (x, y)(z\mathfrak{m}^{k-r} + \mathfrak{m}^k)$$
  
=  $z(x, y)\mathfrak{m}^{k-r} + Q\mathfrak{m}^k$   
=  $(z^2, xz, yz)\mathfrak{m}^{k-r} + \mathfrak{m}^{k+1}$   
=  $z\mathfrak{m}^{k+1-r} + \mathfrak{m}^{k+1} = F_{k+1},$ 

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

By virtue of the previous lemma, we can determine  $q(i\mathbf{m})$  completely in our case.

**Theorem 3.3.** Put  $p = p_g(A)$ . Then we have

$$q(i\mathfrak{m}) = \begin{cases} p - i(r-1) + {i \choose 2} & 1 \le i \le r-1; \\ p - {r \choose 2} & i \ge r. \end{cases}$$

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

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

In particular, we have

$$e_0(\mathfrak{m}) = 2, \qquad e_1(\mathfrak{m}) = r, \qquad e_2(\mathfrak{m}) = \binom{r}{2}$$

*Proof.* Put  $k = p - q(\mathfrak{m}) \ge 0$ . Then we prove the following claim.

Claim 1:  $q(i\mathbf{m}) = p - ik + \binom{i}{2}$  for all i = 1, 2, ..., r.

Use an induction on *i*. It is easy to check the case of i = 1. Now suppose  $2 \le i + 1 \le r$ , and the above equation holds true for  $j \le i$ . Then by assumption, we get

$$q((i+1)\mathfrak{m}) = 2 \cdot q(i\mathfrak{m}) - q((i-1)\mathfrak{m}) + \ell_A(F_{i+1}/QF_i)$$
  
=  $2\left[p - ik + \binom{i}{2}\right] - \left[p - (i-1)k + \binom{i-1}{2}\right] + 1$   
=  $p - (i+1)k + \binom{i+1}{2}.$ 

Next we show that

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

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

$$q((r+1)\mathfrak{m}) = 2 \cdot q(r\mathfrak{m}) - q((r-1)\mathfrak{m}) + \ell_A (F_{r+1}/QF_r)$$
  
=  $2\left[p - rk + \binom{r}{2}\right] - \left[p - (r-1)k + \binom{r-1}{2}\right]$   
=  $p - (r+1)k + \binom{r+1}{2} - 1$   
=  $p - rk + \binom{r}{2} + (r-1-k),$ 

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

$$q((r+i+1)\mathfrak{m}) = 2 \cdot q((r+i)\mathfrak{m}) - q((r+i-1)\mathfrak{m}) + \ell_A(F_{r+i+1}/QF_{r+i})$$
  
=  $2\left[p - rk + \binom{r}{2} + i(r-1-k)\right]$   
 $-\left[p - rk + \binom{r}{2} + (i-1)(r-1-k)\right]$   
=  $p - rk + \binom{r}{2} + (i+1)(r-1-k).$ 

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

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

By [13], we obtain

$$\overline{e}_1(\mathfrak{m}) = e_0(\mathfrak{m}) - \ell_A(A/\mathfrak{m}) + [p_g(A) - q(\mathfrak{m})] = 2 - 1 + [p - (p - (r - 1))] = r$$

and

$$\overline{e}_2(\mathfrak{m}) = p - q(r\mathfrak{m}) = p - \left[p - \binom{r}{2}\right] = \binom{r}{2}.$$

On the other hand,

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

Thus  $P_{\mathfrak{m}}(n) = H_{\mathfrak{m}}(n)$  if and only if  $n \ge r-1$ .

In the last of this section, we calculate the geometric genus of A. We regard  $R = \mathbb{C}[X, Y, Z]/(Z^2 - X^a - Y^b)$  as a graded ring by deg  $Z = ab =: q_0$ , deg  $X = 2b =: q_1$ ,

deg  $Y = 2a := q_2$ . If we put D = 2ab, 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

$$p_g(A) = \sum_{n=0}^{a(R)} \dim_{\mathbb{C}} R_n$$
  
=  $\sharp\{(\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \lambda_2) \in \mathbb{Z}^3_{\geq 0} | D - (q_0 + q_1 + q_2) \geq \lambda_0 q_0 + \lambda_1 q_1 + \lambda_2 q_2\}.$ 

In this case, we have

$$p_g(A) = \#\{(\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \lambda_2) \in \mathbb{Z}^3_{\geq 0} \mid 2ab - ab - 2b - 2a \geq ab\lambda_0 + 2b\lambda_1 + 2a\lambda_2\} \\ = \#\{(\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \lambda_2) \in \mathbb{Z}^3_{\geq 0} \mid ab - 2b - 2a \geq ab\lambda_0 + 2b\lambda_1 + 2a\lambda_2\}.$$

Then one can easily see that  $\lambda_0 = 0$ . Hence

(3.1) 
$$p_g(A) = \sharp\{(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^2 \mid ab - 2a - 2b \geq 2b\lambda_1 + 2a\lambda_2\}.$$

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

**Example 3.5.** Let  $p \ge 1$  be an integer. Let  $A = \mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]]/(x^2 + y^4 + z^{4p+1})$ . 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  $r \ge 2$  be an integer, and let  $A = \mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]]/(z^2 + x^{2r} + y^{2r})$ . 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  $R = \mathbb{C}[x, y, z]/(z^2 + x^{2r} + y^{2r}).$ 

(1) By the formula (3.1), we have

$$p_g(A) = \sharp\{(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) \in \mathbb{Z}^2_{\geq 0} | r - 2 \geq \lambda_1 + \lambda_2\} = \binom{r}{2}.$$

(2) One can easily see that  $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m}) = \overline{r}(\mathfrak{m}) = r$  and our main theorem implies that  $p_g(A) \ge \binom{\operatorname{nr}(I)}{2}$  for any integrally closed  $\mathfrak{m}$ -primary ideal and thus  $\operatorname{nr}(A) \le r$ . 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  $\operatorname{core}(\mathfrak{m}) = (Q \colon \mathfrak{m})\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}^2$ . 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  $\operatorname{ncr}(\mathfrak{m}) = r$ .

For any  $\mathfrak{m}$ -primary integrally closed ideal I, since  $\operatorname{nr}(I) \leq \operatorname{nr}(A) = r$ , we have that  $\overline{I^{r+1}} \subset Q'$  for any minimal reduction Q' 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  $ncr(A) = ncr(\mathfrak{m})$  hold?

- (2) When does  $nr(A) = nr(\mathfrak{m})$  hold?
- (3) When does ncr(A) = nr(A) hold?
- (4) When does  $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m}) = \binom{r}{2}$  hold?

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