

Normal Reduction Numbers for Normal Surface Singularities with Application to Elliptic Singularities of Brieskorn Type

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Abstract

In this paper, we give a formula for normal reduction number of an integrally closed mprimary ideal of a two-dimensional normal local ring (A, \mathfrak{m}) in terms of the geometric genus $p_g(A)$ of A. Also, we compute the normal reduction number of the maximal ideal of Brieskorn hypersurfaces. As an application, we give a short proof of a classification of Brieskorn hypersurfaces having elliptic singularities.

Keywords Normal reduction number · Geometric genus · Hypersurface of Brieskorn type

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1 Introduction

For a Noetherian local ring (A, \mathfrak{m}) and an \mathfrak{m} -primary ideal I, let \overline{I} denote the integral closure, that is, $z \in \overline{I}$ if and only if $z^n + c_1 z^{n-1} + \cdots + c_n = 0$ for some $n \ge 1$ and $c_i \in I^i$ (i = 1, ..., n).

For a given Noetherian local ring (A, \mathfrak{m}) and an integrally closed \mathfrak{m} -primary ideal I (i.e., $\overline{I} = I$) with minimal reduction Q, we are interested in the question:

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Question What is the minimal number r such that $\overline{I^r} \subset Q$ for every \mathfrak{m} -primary ideal I of A and its minimal reduction Q?

One example of this direction is the Briançon-Skoda Theorem saying; If (A, \mathfrak{m}) is a d-dimensional rational singularity (characteristic 0) or an F-rational ring (characteristic p > 0), then $\overline{I^d} \subset Q$ and d is the minimal possible number in this case (cf. [3, 9]).

The aim of our paper is to answer this question in the case of normal two-dimensional local rings using resolution of singularities.

In what follows, we always assume that (A, \mathfrak{m}) is an excellent two-dimensional normal local domain. For any \mathfrak{m} -primary integrally closed ideal $I \subset A$ (e.g., the maximal ideal \mathfrak{m}) and its minimal reduction Q of I, we define two normal reduction numbers as follows:

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{nr}(I) \, = \, \min\{n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \, | \, \overline{I^{n+1}} = Q \overline{I^n} \}, \\ & \bar{\operatorname{r}}(I) \, = \, \min\{n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \, | \, \overline{I^{N+1}} = Q \overline{I^N} \text{ for every } N \geq n \}. \end{split}$$

These are analogues of the reduction number $r_Q(I)$ of an ideal $I \subset A$. But in general, $r_Q(I)$ is not independent of the choice of a minimal reduction Q. On the other hand, $\operatorname{nr}(I) = \overline{\operatorname{r}}(I)$ is *not* known in general.

Also, we define the following:

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

 $\bar{r}(A) = max\{\bar{r}(I) \mid I \text{ is an } \mathfrak{m}\text{-primary integrally closed ideal of } A\}.$

These invariants of A characterize "good" singularities.

Example 1.1 (See [8] for (1), [12] for (2)) Suppose that A is not regular.

- (1) A is a rational singularity $(p_g(A) = 0)$ if and only if $nr(A) = \bar{r}(A) = 1$.
- (2) If A is an elliptic singularity, then $\bar{r}(A) = 2$, where we say that A is an elliptic singularity if the arithmetic genus of the fundamental cycle on any resolution of A is 1.

One of the main aims is to compare these invariants with geometric invariants (e.g., geometric genus $p_g(A)$). In [13], we have shown that $nr(A) \le p_g(A) + 1$. But actually, it turns out that we have a much better bound (see Theorem 2.9).

Theorem 1.2 If (A, \mathfrak{m}) is a normal two-dimensional local ring, then $p_g(A) \geq \binom{\operatorname{nr}(A)}{2}$.

On the other hand, sometimes we have nr(A) = nr(m). For example, if A = K[[x, y, z]]/(f), where f is a homogeneous polynomial of degree $d \ge 2$ with isolated singularity, it is easy to see nr(m) = d - 1. If $d \le 4$, we can see by Theorem 1.2 that nr(A) = nr(m) = d - 1. We do not have an answer yet if d = 5.

Question 1.3 If A is a homogeneous hypersurface singularity of degree d, then nr(A) = d - 1?

To have examples for this theory, we compute nr(m) of Brieskorn hypersurface singularities, that is, two-dimensional normal local domains

$$A = K[[x, y, z]]/(x^a + y^b + z^c),$$

where K is an algebraically closed field of any characteristic and $2 \le a \le b \le c$.





Note that our approach in this paper will be extended to the case of Brieskorn complete intersection singularity (see [11]).

We can get an explicit value of nr(m) in this case.

Theorem 3.1 Let A be a Brieskorn hypersurface singularity as above. Put $\mathfrak{m} = (x, y, z)A$ and Q = (y, z)A. Then

$$\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m}) = \overline{\mathbf{r}}(\mathfrak{m}) = \left| \frac{(a-1)b}{a} \right|.$$

Moreover, if we put $n_k = \lfloor \frac{kb}{a} \rfloor$ for each $k \geq 0$, then

$$\overline{\mathfrak{m}^n} = Q^n + x Q^{n-n_1} + x^2 Q^{n-n_2} + \dots + x^{a-1} Q^{n-n_{a-1}}.$$

As an application of the theorem, we can show that the Rees algebra $\mathcal{R}(\mathfrak{m})$ is normal if and only if $\bar{\mathfrak{r}}(\mathfrak{m}) = a-1$ (see Corollary 3.7). Moreover, we can determine $\ell_A(\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}/Q\mathfrak{m}^n)$ for every $n \geq 0$ and $q(\mathfrak{m}) = \ell_A(H^1(X, \mathcal{O}_X(-M)))$, where $X \to \operatorname{Spec} A$ denotes the resolution of singularity of $\operatorname{Spec} A$ and M denotes the maximal ideal cycle on X.

In the last section, we discuss Brieskorn hypersurfaces with elliptic singularities. In fact, the first author proved that if A is an elliptic singularity then nr(A) = 2. In particular, if A is an elliptic singularity then $nr(m) \le 2$. If, in addition, A is a Brieskorn hypersurface singularity $A = K[[x, y, z]]/(x^a + y^b + z^c)$, then our theorem shows that $\lfloor (a-1)b/a \rfloor \le 2$. Using this fact, we can classify all Brieskorn hypersurfaces with elliptic singularity (see Theorem 4.4).

We are interested to know if nr(A) characterizes elliptic singularities or not. Namely, the question is equivalent to say, if A is not rational or elliptic, then does there exist I such that $nr(I) \ge 3$? We can find such an ideal for all non-elliptic Brieskorn hypersurface singularity except (a, b, c) = (3, 4, 6) or (3, 4, 7).

2 Normal Reduction Numbers and Geometric Genus

Throughout this paper, let (A, \mathfrak{m}) be a two-dimensional excellent normal local domain. In another word, A is a local domain with a resolution of singularities $f: X \to \operatorname{Spec}(A)$. For a coherent \mathcal{O}_X -Module \mathcal{F} , we denote by $h^i(\mathcal{F})$ the length $\ell_A(H^i(\mathcal{F}))$.

We define the *geometric genus* of A by the following:

$$p_g(A) = h^1(\mathcal{O}_X),$$

which is independent of the choice of resolution of singularities. When $p_g(A) = 0$, A is called a *rational singularity*.

Let $I \subset A$ be an m-primary integrally closed ideal. Then, there exist a resolution of singularity $X \to \operatorname{Spec} A$ and an anti-nef cycle Z on X so that $I\mathcal{O}_X = \mathcal{O}_X(-Z)$ and $I = H^0(\mathcal{O}_X(-Z))$. Then, we say that I is *represented* by Z on X and write $I = I_Z$. Then, $I_{nZ} = \overline{I^n}$ for every integer $n \ge 1$.

In what follows, let A, X, $I = I_Z$ be as above.

The authors have studied p_g -ideals in [13–15]. So, we first recall the notion of p_g -ideals in terms of q(kI).

Definition 2.1 Put $q(0I) = h^1(\mathcal{O}_X)$, $q(I) := h^1(\mathcal{O}_X(-Z))$ and $q(nI) = q(\overline{I^n})$ for every integer $n \ge 1$.



Theorem 2.2 [13] *The following statements hold.*

- $(1) \quad 0 \le q(I) \le p_g(A).$
- (2) $q(kI) \ge q((k+1)I)$ for every integer $k \ge 1$.
- (3) $q(nI) = q((n+1)I) = q((n+2)I) = \cdots$ for some integer $n \ge 0$.

Definition 2.3 [13] The ideal *I* is called the p_g -ideal if $q(I) = p_g(A)$.

Example 2.4 Any two-dimensional excellent normal local domain over an algebraically closed field admits a p_g -ideal. Moreover, if A is a rational singularity, then every m-primary integrally closed ideal is a p_g -ideal.

2.1 Upper Bound on Normal Reduction Numbers

Let Q be a minimal reduction of I. Then, there exists a nonnegative integer r such that $\overline{I^{r+1}} = Q\overline{I^r}$. This is independent of the choice of a minimal reduction Q of I (see, e.g., [5, Theorem 4.5]). So we can define the following notion.

Definition 2.5 (Normal reduction number) Put

$$\operatorname{nr}(I) = \min\{n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \mid \overline{I^{n+1}} = Q\overline{I^n}\},
\overline{\mathbf{r}}(I) = \min\{n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \mid \overline{I^{N+1}} = Q\overline{I^N} \text{ for every } N \geq n\}.$$

We call them the *normal reduction numbers* of I. We also define

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

 $\bar{\mathbf{r}}(A) = \max\{\bar{\mathbf{r}}(I) \mid I \text{ is a } \mathfrak{m}\text{-primary integrally closed ideal of } A\},$

which are called the *normal reduction numbers* of A.

Our study on normal reduction numbers is motivated by the following observation: For an m-primary ideal I in a two-dimensional excellent normal local domain A, I is a p_g -ideal if and only if $\bar{\mathbf{r}}(I) = 1$.

By definition, $\operatorname{nr}(I) \leq \overline{\operatorname{r}}(I)$ holds in general. In the next section, we show that $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m}) = \overline{\operatorname{r}}(\mathfrak{m})$ holds true for any Brieskorn hypersurface $A = K[[x, y, z]]/(x^a + y^b + z^c)$. But it seems to be open whether equality always holds for other integrally closed \mathfrak{m} -primary ideals.

Question 2.6 When does $nr(I) = \bar{r}(I)$ hold?

In order to state the main result in this section, we recall the following lemma, which gives a relationship between nr(I) and q(kI).

Lemma 2.7 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 Assume Q = (a, b) and consider the exact sequence as follows:

$$0 \to \mathcal{O}_X((n-1)Z) \to \mathcal{O}_X(-Z)(-nZ)^{\oplus 2} \to \mathcal{O}_X(-(n+1)Z) \to 0,$$





where the map $\mathcal{O}_X(-nZ)^{\oplus 2} \to \mathcal{O}_X(-(n+1)Z)$ is defined by $(x, y) \mapsto ax + by$ as in Lemma 4.3 of [15]. By taking the cohomology long exact sequence, we have the following exact sequence:

Since $\operatorname{Coker}(\varphi) \cong \overline{I^{n+1}}/Q\overline{I^n}$, we obtain the required assertion.

The lemma gives another description of nr(I) in terms of q(kI):

 $\operatorname{nr}(I) = \min\{n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1} \mid q((n-1)I), q(nI), q((n+1)I) \text{ forms an arithmetic sequence}\}.$ In particular,

$$nr(I) \le \min\{n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \mid q((n-1)I) = q(nI) = q((n+1)I) = \cdots\} = \bar{r}(I).$$

If the following question has an affirmative answer for I, then $nr(I) = \bar{r}(I)$ holds true.

Question 2.8 When is $\ell_A(\overline{I^{n+1}}/Q\overline{I^n})$ a non-increasing function of n?

The main result in this section is the following theorem, which refines an inequality $nr(I) \le p_g(A) + 1$ (see [14, Lemma 3.1]).

Theorem 2.9 For any \mathfrak{m} -primary integrally closed ideal $I \subset A$, we have

$$p_g(A) \ge \binom{r}{2} + q(rI),$$

where $r = \operatorname{nr}(I)$. In particular, $p_g(A) \ge \binom{\operatorname{nr}(A)}{2}$.

<u>Proof</u> Suppose $\operatorname{nr}(I) = r$. Then, since $\overline{I^{k+1}} \neq Q$ $\overline{I^k}$ for every $k = 1, 2, \dots, r-1$ and $\overline{I^{r+1}} = Q$ $\overline{I^r}$, we have

$$\begin{split} q((r-1)I) - q(rI) &= q(rI) - q((r+1)I), \\ q((r-2)I) - q((r-1)I) &\geq q((r-1)I) - q(rI) + 1, \\ &\vdots \\ p_{\varrho}(A) - q(I) &\geq q(I) - q(2I) + 1. \end{split}$$

Thus, if we put $a_k = q((r - k)I)$ for k = 0, 1, ..., r, then we get

$$a_k - a_{k-1} \ge a_{k-1} - a_{k-2} + 1 \ge \dots \ge \{a_1 - a_0\} + (k-1) \ge k - 1.$$

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.

The last assertion immediately follows from the definition of nr(A).

The above theorem gives a best possible bound (see also the next section).





Example 2.10 If $p_g(A) < \binom{\operatorname{nr}(J)+1}{2}$ for some \mathfrak{m} -primary integrally closed ideal $J \subset A$, then $\operatorname{nr}(A) = \operatorname{nr}(J)$.

Proof Suppose $nr(A) \neq nr(J)$. Then, $nr(A) \geq nr(J) + 1$. By assumption and the theorem, we have

$$\binom{\operatorname{nr}(A)}{2} \le p_g(A) < \binom{\operatorname{nr}(J) + 1}{2} \le \binom{\operatorname{nr}(A)}{2}.$$

This is a contradiction. Therefore, nr(A) = nr(J).

3 Normal Reduction Numbers of the Maximal Ideal of Brieskorn Hypersurfaces

Let K be a field of any characteristic, and let a, b, c be integers with $2 \le a \le b \le c$. Then, a hypersurface singularity

$$A = K[[x, y, z]]/(x^a + y^b + z^c), \quad \mathfrak{m} = (x, y, z)A$$

is called a *Brieskorn hypersurface singularity* if A is normal.

3.1 Normal Reduction Number of the Maximal Ideal

The main purpose in this section to give a formula for the reduction number of the maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} in a hypersurface of Brieskorn type: $A = K[[x, y, z]]/(x^a + y^b + z^c)$. Namely, we prove the following theorem.

Theorem 3.1 Let $A = K[[x, y, z]]/(x^a + y^b + z^c)$ be a Brieskorn hypersurface singularity. If we put Q = (y, z)A and $n_k = \lfloor \frac{kb}{a} \rfloor$ for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, a-1$, then, $\mathfrak{m} = \overline{Q}$ and we have

- (1) $\overline{\mathfrak{m}^n} = Q^n + x Q^{n-n_1} + x^2 Q^{n-n_2} + \dots + x^{a-1} Q^{n-n_{a-1}}$ for every $n \ge 1$.
- (2) $\bar{\mathbf{r}}(\mathfrak{m}) = \mathrm{nr}(\mathfrak{m}) = n_{a-1}$. In particular, if $\bar{\mathbf{r}}(\mathfrak{m}) \leq 2$, then, $\lfloor \frac{(a-1)b}{a} \rfloor \leq 2$.
- (3) $\overline{\mathcal{R}'(\mathfrak{m})}$ and $\overline{G}(\mathfrak{m})$ are Cohen-Macaulay.

Remark 3.2 Note $0 := n_0 \le n_1 < n_2 < \cdots < n_{a-1}$. In particular, $n_k \ge k$ for each $k = 0, 1, \ldots, a-1$.

In the following, we use the notation in this theorem and prove it.

Lemma 3.3 For integers k, n with $n \ge 1$ and $1 \le n \le a - 1$, we have that $x^k \in \overline{Q^n}$ if and only if $n \le n_k$.

Proof Suppose $n \leq n_k$. Then,

$$(x^k)^a = (x^a)^k = (-1)^k (y^b + z^c)^k \in Q^{bk} \subset Q^{an_k} = (Q^{n_k})^a.$$

Hence, $x^k \in \overline{Q^{n_k}} \subset \overline{Q^n}$.

Next, we prove the converse. Suppose $x^k \in \overline{Q^n}$. Then, there exists a nonzero element $c \in A$ such that $c(x^k)^\ell \in Q^{n\ell}$ for all large integers ℓ . By Artin-Rees' lemma [10, Theorem 8.5], we can choose an integer $\ell_0 \ge 1$ such that $Q^\ell \cap cA = cQ^{\ell-\ell_0}$ for every $\ell \ge \ell_0$.





Now suppose that $n \ge n_k + 1$. Since $\frac{kb}{a} + \frac{1}{a} \le n_k + 1 \le n$, we get

$$(y^b+z^c)^{k\ell}=(-1)^kx^{ka\ell}\in Q^{na\ell}\colon c\subset Q^{na\ell-\ell_0}\subset Q^{(n_k+1)a\ell-\ell_0}\subset Q^{(bk+1)\ell-n_0}$$

for sufficiently large ℓ . This implies that $y^{bk\ell} \in (y^{bk\ell+1}, z)$ and this is a contradiction because y, z forms a regular sequence. Therefore, $n \le n_k$, as required.

Corollary 3.4 For an integer n > 1, if we put

$$L_n = Q^n + x Q^{n-n_1} + x^2 Q^{n-n_2} + \dots + x^{a-1} Q^{n-n_{a-1}},$$

then $Q^n \subset L_n \subset \overline{Q^n} = \overline{\mathfrak{m}^n}$.

Proof It is enough to prove $x^k y^i z^j \in \overline{Q^n}$ if and only if $i + j \ge n - n_k$. In fact, since Q = (y, z) is a parameter ideal in A, [6, Corollary 6.8.13] and Lemma 3.3 imply

$$x^{k}y^{i}z^{j} \in \overline{Q^{n}} \iff x^{k}y^{i-1}z^{j} \in \overline{Q^{n-1}}$$

$$\iff \cdots \cdots$$

$$\iff x^{k} \in \overline{Q^{n-i-j}}$$

$$\iff n - n_{k} \le i + j.$$

Hence, $L_n \subset \overline{Q^n}$.

Put $d = \gcd(a, b)$, $a' = \frac{a}{d}$ and $b' = \frac{b}{d}$. If we put

$$I_n = (x^k y^i z^j | kb' + ia' + ja' \ge n)A$$

for every $n \ge 1$, then $\{I_n\}_{n=1,2,...}$ is a filtration of A.

Lemma 3.5 $G(\{I_n\})$ is always reduced. In particular, $\mathcal{R}'(\{I_n\})$ is a Gorenstein normal domain.

Proof One can easily see

$$G(\{I_n\}) \cong \begin{cases} K[X, Y, Z]/(X^a + Y^b + Z^c) & \text{if } b = c \\ K[X, Y, Z]/(X^a + Y^b) & \text{if } b < c. \end{cases}$$
(3.1)

By assumption, $K[X, Y, Z]/(X^a + Y^b + Z^c)$ is a normal domain. If char K = 0, then $K[X, Y, Z]/(X^a + Y^b)$ is reduced. Otherwise, we put p = char K > 0. Since A is normal, we have that p does *not* divide $\gcd(a, b) = d$. Hence $K[X, Y]/(X^a + Y^b)$ is reduced.

As A is normal, $R = \mathcal{R}'(\{I_n\})$ is a Gorenstein normal domain because $G(\{I_n\}) \cong R/t^{-1}R$.

Lemma 3.6 $L_n = I_{na'}$ for every $n \ge 1$.

Proof Since L_n and $I_{na'}$ are monomial ideals, it suffices to show that $x^k y^i z^j \in L_n$ if and only if $x^k y^i z^j \in I_{na'}$. But this is clear from the definition.





We are now ready to prove the theorem.

Proof of Theorem 3.1 (1) Since $\mathcal{R}'(\{I_n\})$ is normal by Lemma 3.5, we have that every I_n is integrally closed. In particular, $L_n = I_{na'}$ is also integrally closed by Lemma 3.6. Therefore, $L_n = \overline{Q^n} = \overline{\mathfrak{m}^n}$ by Corollary 3.4.

- (2) One can easily see that $L_{n+1} = QL_n$ if and only if $n \ge n_{a-1}$. Hence, (2) is immediately follows from (1).
- (3) $\overline{\mathcal{R}'(\mathfrak{m})}$ is Cohen-Macaulay since it is a Veronese subring of a Cohen-Macaulay ring $\mathcal{R}'(\{I_n\})$. Then $\overline{G}(\mathfrak{m}) = \overline{\mathcal{R}'(\mathfrak{m})}/t^{-1}\overline{\mathcal{R}'(\mathfrak{m})}$ is also Cohen-Macaulay by [14, Theorem 4.1].

Corollary 3.7 *Let* (A, \mathfrak{m}) *be a Brieskorn hypersurface as in Theorem 3.1. Then,*

- (1) $\mathcal{R}(\mathfrak{m})$ is normal if and only if $\bar{\mathbf{r}}(\mathfrak{m}) = a 1$.
- (2) $\mathcal{R}(\mathfrak{m})$ is Cohen-Macaulay if and only if $\bar{r}(\mathfrak{m}) = 1$.
- (3) \mathfrak{m} is a p_g -ideal if and only if a = 2 and $\bar{\mathfrak{r}}(\mathfrak{m}) = 1$.

Proof (1) Suppose $\bar{\mathbf{r}}(\mathfrak{m}) = a - 1$. Then, $n_{a-1} = a - 1$ by (1) and this implies that $n_k = k$ for each $k = 1, 2, \ldots, a - 1$. Then, one can easily see that $\overline{\mathfrak{m}}^n = (Q, x)^n = \mathfrak{m}^n$ for every $n \ge 1$. Hence, $\mathcal{R}(\mathfrak{m})$ is normal.

Conversely, if $\mathcal{R}(\mathfrak{m})$ is normal, then, $\overline{\mathfrak{m}^n} = \mathfrak{m}^n = (Q, x)^n$. Then, $n_{a-1} = a - 1$.

- (2) Since $F = {\overline{\mathfrak{m}^n}}$ is a good m-adic filtration, $\overline{\mathcal{R}(\mathfrak{m})} = \mathcal{R}(F)$ is Cohen-Macaulay if and only if G(F) is Cohen-Macaulay and $\overline{\mathfrak{r}}(\mathfrak{m}) 2 = a(G(F)) < 0$ by [2, Part 2, Corollary 1.2] and [4, Theorem 3.8].
- (3) \mathfrak{m} is a p_g -ideal if and only if $R(\mathfrak{m})$ is normal and Cohen-Macaulay. Hence, the assertion follows from (1), (2).

3.2 q(m) and $\ell_A(\overline{m^{n+1}}/Q\overline{m^n})$

In the proof of Theorem 3.1, we gave a formula of the integral closure of \mathfrak{m}^n . As an application, we give a formula of $q(\mathfrak{m})$ for Brieskorn hypersurface singularities.

Proposition 3.8 Let $A = K[[x, y, z]]/(x^a + y^b + z^c)$ be a Brieskorn hypersurface singularity. Under the same notation as in Theorem 3.1, we have

(1)
$$\ell_A(\overline{\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}}/Q\overline{\mathfrak{m}^n}) = \max\left(a - \lceil \frac{a(n+1)}{b} \rceil, \ 0\right).$$

(2)
$$q(\mathfrak{m}) = p_g(A) - \sum_{k=1}^{a-1} (n_k - n_{k-1})(a-k).$$

Proof Suppose $n_k \le n < n_{k+1}$ for some $0 \le k \le a-2$. Then $\overline{\mathfrak{m}^n} = Q^n + xQ^{n-n_1} + \cdots + x^k Q^{n-n_k} + (x^{k+1})$ and x^{k+1} , x^{k+2} , ..., x^{a-1} forms a K-basis of $\overline{\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}}/Q\overline{\mathfrak{m}^n}$ and thus $\ell_A(\overline{\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}}/Q\overline{\mathfrak{m}^n}) = a-1-k$. Hence,

$$\ell_A(\overline{\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}}/Q\overline{\mathfrak{m}^n}) = \begin{cases} a - 1 - k & \text{if } n_k \le n < n_{k+1}, \ k = 0, 1, \dots, a - 2; \\ 0 & \text{if } n \ge n_{a-1}. \end{cases}$$

Moreover, one can easily see $k = a - \lceil \frac{a(n+1)}{b} \rceil - 1$.





(2) Put $a_n = p_g(A) - q(n\mathfrak{m})$ and $v_n = \ell_A(\overline{\mathfrak{m}^{n+1}}/Q\overline{\mathfrak{m}^n})$ for every $n \ge 0$. Then, $a_0 = 0$ and $\{a_n\}$ is an increasing sequence and $a_{n+1} = a_n$ for sufficiently large n. By Lemma 2.7, we have

$$0 = a_{n+1} - a_n = a_n - a_{n-1} - v_n = \dots = a_1 - a_0 - \sum_{k=1}^n v_k$$

for sufficiently large $n \ge 1$. Hence, (1) yields

$$p_g(A) - q(\mathfrak{m}) = a_1 = \sum_{k=1}^n v_k = \sum_{k=1}^{a-1} (n_k - n_{k-1})(a-k),$$

as required.

When a = 2, one can obtain the following.

Example 3.9 Let $A = K[[x, y, z]]/(x^2 + y^b + z^c)$ be a Brieskorn hypersurface singularity and put $r = \lfloor \frac{b}{2} \rfloor$. Then,

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

(2) The normal Hilbert coefficients of m are given as follows:

$$\overline{e}_0(\mathfrak{m}) = 2, \quad \overline{e}_1(\mathfrak{m}) = r, \quad \overline{e}_2(\mathfrak{m}) = \binom{r}{2},$$

where

$$\ell_A(A/\overline{I^{n+1}}) = \overline{e}_0(I) \binom{n+2}{2} - \overline{e}_1(I) \binom{n+1}{1} + \overline{e}_2(I)$$

for sufficiently large n.

3.3 Geometric Genus

In this subsection, let us consider a graded ring

$$B = K[x, y, z]/(x^a + y^b + z^c)$$

with deg $x=q_0=bc$, deg $y=q_1=ac$ and deg $z=q_2=ab$. Put $\mathfrak{m}=(x,y,z)A$ and D=abc. In particular, the *a*-invariant of *B* is given by $a(B)=D-q_0-q_1-q_2$. Also, we have that $A=\widehat{B_{\mathfrak{m}}}$ is the completion of the local ring $B_{\mathfrak{m}}$. Then, we can calculate $p_g(A)$ using this formula.

Lemma 3.10 Under the above notation, we have

$$p_g(A) = \sum_{i=0}^{a(B)} \dim_K B_i = \sharp \{(t_0, t_1, t_2) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{\oplus 3} \mid D - q_0 - q_1 - q_2 \geq q_0 t_0 + q_1 t_1 + q_2 t_2 \}.$$

We can find many examples of Brieskorn hypersurfaces with $p_g(A) = p$ for a given $p \ge 1$ if nr(m) = 1, 2.

Example 3.11 Let $p \ge 1$ be an integer.



(1) If
$$A = \mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]]/(x^2 + y^3 + z^{6p+1})$$
, then $p_g(A) = p$ and $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m}) = \overline{r}(\mathfrak{m}) = 1$.
(2) If $A = \mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]]/(x^2 + y^4 + z^{4p+1})$, then $p_g(A) = p$ and $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m}) = \overline{r}(\mathfrak{m}) = 2$.

Example 3.12 Let $k \ge 1$ be an integer.

(1) Put $A = \mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]]/(x^2 + y^6 + z^{10k+i})$ for $i = 0, 1, \dots, 9$. Then, $nr(\mathfrak{m}) = \bar{r}(\mathfrak{m}) = 3$

$$p_g(A) = \begin{cases} 6k, & \text{(if } i = 0, 1, 2); \\ 6k + 1, & \text{(if } i = 3, 4, 5); \end{cases} \qquad p_g(A) = \begin{cases} 6k + 3, & \text{(if } i = 6, 7, 8); \\ 6k + 4, & \text{(if } i = 9, 10, 11). \end{cases}$$

(2) Put $A = \mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]]/(x^2 + y^7 + z^{14k+i})$ for i = 0, 1, ..., 13. Then, $nr(\mathfrak{m}) = \overline{r}(\mathfrak{m}) = 3$ and

$$p_g(A) = \begin{cases} 9k, & \text{(if } i = 0, 1, 2); \\ 9k + 1, & \text{(if } i = 3, 4); \\ 9k + 2, & \text{(if } i = 5); \\ 9k + 3, & \text{(if } i = 6, 7, 8); \end{cases} \qquad p_g(A) = \begin{cases} 9k + 4, & \text{(if } i = 9); \\ 9k + 5, & \text{(if } i = 10, 11); \\ 9k + 6, & \text{(if } i = 12, 13). \end{cases}$$

We discuss when $p_g(A) = \binom{\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})}{2}$ holds.

Proposition 3.13 Let $A = \mathbb{C}[[x, y, z]]/(x^a + y^b + z^c)$ with $2 \le a \le b \le c$. Then, $p_g(A) = \binom{\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})}{2}$ if and only if one of the following cases: • (a,b,c) = (2,2,n) $(n \ge 1)$. In this case, $\operatorname{nr}(A) = \operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m}) = 1$ and $p_g(A) = 0$.

- (a, b, c) = (2, 3, 3), (2, 3, 4), (2, 3, 5). In this case, nr(A) = nr(m) = 1 and $p_g(A) = 0$.
- (a, b, c) = (2, 4, 4), (2, 4, 5), (2, 4, 6), (2, 4, 7). In this case, nr(A) = nr(m) = 2 and $p_{g}(A) = 1.$
- (a, b, c) = (2, 2r, 2r), (2, 2r, 2r + 1), (2, 2r, 2r + 2) $(r \ge 3)$. In this case, nr(A) = $\operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m}) = r \text{ and } p_g(A) = \binom{r}{2} \ge 3.$
- $(a, b, c) = (2, 2r+1, 2r+1), (2, 2r+1, 2r+2) (r \ge 2)$. In this case, nr(A) = nr(m) = rand $p_g(A) = \binom{r}{2}$.
- (a, b, c) = (3, 3, 3), (3, 3, 4), (3, 3, 5). In this case, $nr(A) = nr(\mathfrak{m}) = 2$ and $p_g(A) = 1$.
- (a, b, c) = (3, 3s + 1, 3s + 1). In this case, $nr(A) = nr(\mathfrak{m}) = 2s$ and $p_g(A) = {2s \choose 2}$.
- (a, b, c) = (3, 3s + 2, 3s + 2), (3, 3s + 2, 3s + 3). In this case, nr(A) = nr(m) = 2s + 1and $p_g(A) = {2s+1 \choose 2}$.

Proof We give a proof of only if part. Put $r = \operatorname{nr}(\mathfrak{m})$. By Theorem 3.1, we have $\lfloor \frac{(a-1)b}{a} \rfloor$. So, we can write $(a-1)b = ra + \varepsilon$, where ε is an integer with $0 \le \varepsilon \le a-1$. Now suppose

$$abc - bc - ca - ab > bc\lambda_0 + ca\lambda_1 + ab\lambda_2$$
.

Then,

$$(ra + \varepsilon)c - ca - ab \ge bc\lambda_0 + ca\lambda_1 + ab\lambda_2.$$
 (eq.pg)

Suppose $\lambda_0 = 0$. Then,

$$\left(r - 1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{a} - \lambda_1\right) \frac{c}{b} \ge \lambda_2 + 1$$





and thus $\lambda_1 < r - 1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{a}$. By Lemma 3.10 and assumption, we have

$$\binom{r}{2} = p_g(A) \ge \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} \left\lfloor \left(r - 1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{a} - k\right) \frac{c}{b} \right\rfloor$$
$$\ge \sum_{k=0}^{r-2} \left\lfloor \left(r - 1 - k\right) \frac{c}{b} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{\varepsilon}{a} \cdot \frac{c}{b} \right\rfloor$$
$$\ge \sum_{k=0}^{r-2} \left(r - 1 - k\right) + \left\lfloor \frac{\varepsilon}{a} \cdot \frac{c}{b} \right\rfloor \ge \binom{r}{2}.$$

Hence, $\left(r-1+\frac{\varepsilon}{a}-k\right)\frac{c}{b} < r-k$ for each $k=0,1,\ldots,r-1$. Moreover, if $\lambda_0 \geq 1$, then, since $\lambda_1=\lambda_2=0$ does not satisfy the condition (eq.pg) by Theorem 2.9, we get the following:

$$abc - bc - ca - ab < bc$$
, that is, $\frac{2}{a} + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{c} > 1$.

This implies a=2, 3. If a=2, then $\varepsilon=0, 1$. If a=3, then $\varepsilon=0, 1, 2$.

Now suppose a=3 and $\varepsilon=2$. Then, as 2b=3r+2, we can write r=2s, b=3s+1, where $s\geq 1$. Moreover, the condition holds true if and only if $(2s+\frac{2}{3}-1)\frac{c}{3s+1}<2s$. This means $c<3s+1+\frac{3s+1}{6s-1}$. Hence, c=3s+1 because $c\geq b=3s+1$. Similarly, easy calculation yields the required assertion.

3.4 Weighted Dual Graph

In this subsection, let us explain how to construct the weighted dual graph of the minimal good resolution of singularity $X \to \operatorname{Spec} A$ for a Brieskorn hypersurface singularity $A = K[[x, y, z]]/(x^a + y^b + z^c)$. Though it is obtained in [7], we use the notation of [11] in which the first author studies complete intersection singularities of Brieskorn type. Let E be the exceptional set of $X \to \operatorname{Spec} A$ and E_0 the central curve with genus g and $E_0^2 = -c_0$. We define positive integers a_i , ℓ_i , α_i , λ_i , $\widehat{g_i}$ (i = 1,2,3), \widehat{g} , and ℓ as follows:

$$a_{1} = a, a_{2} = b, a_{3} = c,$$

$$\ell_{1} = \operatorname{lcm}(b, c), \ell_{2} = \operatorname{lcm}(a, c), \ell_{3} = \operatorname{lcm}(a, b),$$

$$\alpha_{1} = \frac{a_{1}}{(a_{1}, \ell_{1})}, \alpha_{2} = \frac{a_{2}}{(a_{2}, \ell_{2})}, \alpha_{3} = \frac{a_{3}}{(a_{3}, \ell_{3})},$$

$$\lambda_{1} = \frac{\ell_{1}}{(a_{1}, \ell_{1})}, \lambda_{2} = \frac{\ell_{2}}{(a_{2}, \ell_{2})}, \lambda_{3} = \frac{\ell_{3}}{(a_{3}, \ell_{3})},$$

$$\hat{g}_{1} = (b, c), \hat{g}_{2} = (a, c), \hat{g}_{3} = (a, b).$$

We put $\widehat{g} = \frac{abc}{\operatorname{lcm}(a,b,c)}$ and $\ell = \operatorname{lcm}(a,b,c)$, and define integers β_i by the following condition:

$$\lambda_i \beta_i + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{\alpha_i}, \quad 0 \leq \beta_i < \alpha_i.$$

Then, E_0 has $\hat{g}_1 + \hat{g}_2 + \hat{g}_3$ branches. For each w = 1, 2, 3, we have \hat{g}_w branches as follows:

$$B_w: E_{w,1} - E_{w,2} - \cdots - E_{w,s_w},$$





where $E_{w,j}^2 = -c_{w,j}$ and

$$\frac{\alpha_w}{\beta_w} = [[c_{w,1}, c_{w,2}, \dots, c_{w,s_w}]]$$

is a Hirzebruch-Jung continued fraction if $\alpha_w \geq 2$, we regard B_w empty if $\alpha_w = 1$. Moreover, we have

$$2g - 2 = \hat{g} - \sum_{w=1}^{3} \hat{g}_{w}, \qquad c_{0} = \sum_{w=1}^{3} \frac{\hat{g}_{w} \beta_{w}}{\alpha_{w}} + \frac{\hat{g}}{\ell}.$$

For instance, if (a, b, c) = (3, 4, 7), then we have the following:

$$a_1 = 3$$
, $a_2 = 4$, $a_3 = 7$, $\ell_1 = 28$, $\ell_2 = 21$, $\ell_3 = 12$, $\alpha_1 = 3$, $\alpha_2 = 4$, $\alpha_3 = 7$, $\lambda_1 = 28$, $\lambda_2 = 21$, $\lambda_3 = 12$, $\beta_1 = 2$, $\beta_2 = 3$, $\beta_3 = 4$, $\hat{g}_1 = 1$, $\hat{g}_2 = 1$, $\hat{g}_3 = 1$, $\hat{g}_3 = 1$, $\ell = 84$.

Thus, g = 0 and $c_0 = 2$. Therefore, each irreducible component of E is a rational curve, and the weighted dual graph of E is represented as in Fig. 1, where the vertex \blacksquare has weight -4 and other vertices \bullet have weight -2.

See [11, 4.4] for more details.

4 Brieskorn Hypersurfaces with Elliptic Singularities

We use the notation of Section 3.4. Let Z_E denote the fundamental cycle.

We call $p_f(A) := p_a(Z_E)$ the fundamental genus of A. The singularity A is said to be elliptic if $p_f(A) = 1$. We have the following.

Theorem 4.1 [12] If $p_f(A) = 1$, then $\bar{r}(A) = 2$.

Remark 4.2 By [1], $\operatorname{nr}(A) = 1$ if and only if A is rational. Therefore, $\operatorname{nr}(A) = \overline{\operatorname{r}}(A)$ if $\overline{\operatorname{r}}(A) = 2$.

It is natural to ask whether the converse of Theorem 4.1 holds or not. In the following, we classify Brieskorn hypersurface singularities with $p_f(A) = 1$ or $\bar{r}(A) = 2$ as an application of results in Section 3. Before doing that, we need the following formula of $p_f(A)$ in the case of Brieskorn hypersurfaces. Put $\alpha = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3$.

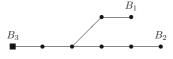


Fig. 1 The weighted dual graph of $k[[x, y, z]]/(x^3 + y^4 + z^7)$





Lemma 4.3 ([16], [7, Theorem 1.7], [11, 5.4]) If $\lambda_3 \leq \alpha$, then $-Z_E^2 = \hat{g}_3 \lceil \lambda_3 / \alpha_3 \rceil$ and

$$p_f(A) = \frac{1}{2}\lambda_3 \left\{ \hat{g} - \frac{(2\lceil \lambda_3/\alpha_3 \rceil - 1)\hat{g}_3}{\lambda_3} - \frac{\hat{g}_1}{\alpha_1} - \frac{\hat{g}_2}{\alpha_2} \right\} + 1$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} (ab - a - b - (2\lceil \lambda_3/\alpha_3 \rceil - 1)(a, b)) + 1.$$

We are now ready to state our result in the case of $p_f(A) = 1$.

Theorem 4.4 (A, \mathfrak{m}) is elliptic (i.e., $p_f(A) = 1$) if and only if (a, b, c) is one of the following.

- (1) $(2, 3, c), c \ge 6$.
- (2) $(2, 4, c), c \ge 4$.
- (3) (2,5,c), $5 \le c \le 9$.
- (4) $(3, 3, c), c \ge 3.$
- (5) $(3, 4, c), 4 \le c \le 5.$

Proof If *A* is elliptic, then by Theorem 4.1 and Theorem 3.1, we have $\lfloor \frac{(a-1)b}{a} \rfloor \le 2$. Thus possible pairs (a, b) are as follows:

$$(2, 2), (2, 3), (2, 4), (2, 5), (3, 3), (3, 4).$$

We know that A is rational if (a,b,c)=(2,2,c) with $2 \le c$ or (2,3,c) with $3 \le c \le 5$. We obtain the assertion by Lemma 4.3, for example, $p_f(A)=3-\lceil 10/c \rceil$ for (a,b,c)=(2,5,c), and $p_f(A)=4-\lceil 12/c \rceil$ for (a,b,c)=(3,4,c).

We can classify Brieskorn hypersurface singularities with $\bar{\mathbf{r}}(A) = 2$ except (a, b, c) = (3, 4, 6) or (3, 4, 7).

Proposition 4.5 $\bar{\mathbf{r}}(A) = 2$ if and only if $p_f(A) = 1$, except (a, b, c) = (3, 4, 6), or (3, 4, 7).

Proof It suffices to check whether $nr(A) \ge 3$ for singularities with $\bar{r}(m) = 2$ and $p_f(A) \ge 2$.

Suppose $(a, b, c) = (2, 5, c), c \ge 10$. Let $Q = (y, z^2)$ and $J = \overline{Q}$. Then, $xz \notin Q$ and $(xz)^2 = (y^5 + z^c)z^2 \in Q^6 = (Q^3)^2$. Hence, $nr(J) \ge 3$.

Next suppose that $(a, b, c) = (3, 4, c), c \ge 8$. Let $Q = (y, z^2)$ and $J = \overline{Q}$, again. Then, $x^2z \notin Q$ and $(x^2z)^3 = (y^4 + z^c)^2z^3 \in Q^9 = (Q^3)^3$. Hence, $\operatorname{nr}(J) \ge 3$.

Applying the result of [11], we can show that the formula for $\bar{r}(m)$ for Brieskorn complete intersection singularities. Thus, the statement above can be extended to those singularities.

Remark 4.6 Suppose that $p_g(A) = 3$. It follows from Theorem 2.9 and its proof that $\operatorname{nr}(I) = 3$ if and only if q(I) = 1 and q(nI) = 0 for $n \ge 2$. In particular, q(nI) = q(I) for $n \ge 2$ if $q(I) \ge 2$.

Remark 4.7 If (a, b, c) = (3, 4, 6) or (3, 4, 7), we have the following:

- (1) $p_g(A) = 3$, $p_f(A) = 2$, $h^1(\mathcal{O}_X(-Z_E)) = 1$.
- (2) There exists a point $p \in E$ such that $\mathfrak{m}\mathcal{O}_X = \mathcal{I}_p\mathcal{O}_X(-Z_E)$, where $\mathcal{I}_p \subset \mathcal{O}_X$ is the ideal sheaf of the point p; so $\mathfrak{m} = H^0(\mathcal{O}_X(-Z_E))$, but \mathfrak{m} is not represented by Z_E .



Note that $H^0(\mathcal{O}_X(-nZ_E)) \neq \overline{\mathfrak{m}^n}$ for $n \geq 2$. On the other hand, $\mathcal{O}_X(-2Z_E) = \mathcal{O}_X(K_X)$ is generated by global sections. By the vanishing theorem, $h^1(\mathcal{O}_X(-nZ_E)) = 0$ for $n \geq 2$.

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