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## Communications in Algebra

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# The level of pairs of polynomials 

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## ABSTRACT

Given a polynomial $f$ with coefficients in a field of prime characteristic $p$, it is known that there exists a differential operator that raises $1 / f$ to its $p^{\text {th }}$ power. We first discuss a relation between the "level" of this differential operator and the notion of "stratification" in the case of hyperelliptic curves. Next, we extend the notion of level to that of a pair of polynomials. We prove some basic properties and we compute this level in certain special cases. In particular, we present examples of polynomials $g$ and $f$ such that there is no differential operator raising $g / f$ to its $p^{\text {th }}$ power.

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## 1. Introduction

Let $k$ be any perfect field and $R=k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right]$ its polynomial ring in $d$ variables. In this case, it is known [12, IV, Théoreme 16.11.2] that the ring $\mathcal{D}_{R}$ of $k$-linear differential operators on $R$ is the $R$-algebra (which we take here as a definition)

$$
\left.\mathcal{D}_{R}:=R\left\langle D_{x_{i}, t}\right| i=1, \ldots, d \text { and } t \geq 1\right\rangle \subseteq \operatorname{End}_{k}(R),
$$

generated by the operators $D_{x_{i}, t}$, defined as

$$
D_{x_{i}, t}\left(x_{j}^{s}\right)= \begin{cases}\binom{s}{t} x_{i}^{s-t}, & \text { if } i=j \text { and } s \geq t \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

For a non-zero $f \in R$, let $R_{f}$ be the localization of $R$ at $f$; the natural action of $\mathcal{D}_{R}$ on $R$ extends uniquely to $R_{f}$ and it is known that $m \geq 1$ exists such that $R_{f}=\mathcal{D}_{R} \frac{1}{f^{m}}$. In characteristic 0 , there are examples where the minimal such $m$ is strictly larger than 1 (e.g. [14, Example 23.13]). On the other hand, if $\operatorname{char}(k)=p>0$, one may always take $m=1$ ( $[1$, Theorem 3.7 and Corollary 3.8]). This is shown by proving the existence of a differential operator $\delta \in \mathcal{D}_{R}$ such that $\delta(1 / f)=$ $1 / f^{p}$, that is, $\delta$ acts as Frobenius on $1 / f$. We want to mention here that the existence of this

[^1]differential operator was used as key ingredient in [3] to prove that local cohomology modules over smooth $\mathbb{Z}$-algebras have finitely many associated primes. On the other hand, the fact that $R_{f}$ is generated by $1 / f$ as $\mathcal{D}_{R}$-module remains valid for more general classes of rings $R$ : the interested reader may consult [1, Theorems 4.1 and 5.1], [13, Theorem 3.1], [26, Corollary 2.10 and Remark 2.11], and [2, Theorem 4.4] for details.

We will suppose that $k$ is a perfect field of positive characteristic $p$, and we fix an algebraic closure $\bar{k}$ of $k$. For an integer $e \geq 0$, let $R^{p^{e}} \subseteq R$ be the subring of all the $p^{e}$ powers of all the elements of $R$ and set $\mathcal{D}_{R}^{(e)}:=\operatorname{End}_{R^{p^{e}}}(R)$, the ring of -linear ring-endomorphism of $R$. Since $R$ is a finitely generated $R^{p}$-module, by [29, 1.4.8 and 1.4.9], it is

$$
\mathcal{D}_{R}=\bigcup_{e \geq 0} \mathcal{D}_{R}^{(e)}
$$

Therefore, for $\delta \in \mathcal{D}_{R}$, there exists $e \geq 0$ such that $\delta \in \mathcal{D}_{R}^{(e)}$ but $\delta \notin \mathcal{D}_{R}^{\left(e^{\prime}\right)}$ for any $e^{\prime}<e$. This number $e$ is called the level of $\delta$. For a polynomial $f$, the level is defined as the lowest level of an operator $\delta$ such that $\delta(1 / f)=1 / f^{p}$.

The level of a polynomial has been studied in $[1,6,4]$. In particular, results were established relating the level of a polynomial defining a (hyper)elliptic curve to $p$-torsion of the Jacobian; see also Section 2.

By $[7, \$ 4.4$ and 4.5], the level of a polynomial $f$ is closely related to the so-called Hartshorne-Speiser-Lyubeznik-Gabber number of the pair ( $R, f$ ), and the latter number can be explicitly calculated using Macaulay2. On the other hand, one can also calculate the level of $f$ in terms of $F$-jumping numbers [11, Proposition 6].

One of the goals of this article is to introduce and study the level of a pair of polynomials. Given $f, g$ polynomials defined over $\mathbb{F}_{p}$, one may ask whether there is a differential operator $\delta \in$ $\mathcal{D}_{R}$ mapping $g / f$ to $(g / f)^{p}$. Such an operator exists when $g=1$ by [1, Theorem 3.7 and Corollary 3.8], and more generally, when $f$ itself has level one, as pointed out in [6]. Keeping in mind all of this, it seems natural to define the level of $g$ and $f$ as

$$
\operatorname{level}(g, f):=\inf \left\{e \geq 0: \exists \delta \in \mathcal{D}^{(e)} \text { such that } \delta(g / f)=(g / f)^{p}\right\} .
$$

As we already mentioned, our goal in this article is to study this notion, and to calculate it in several interesting examples.

Part of our motivation for introducing it comes from [25], where the author gave a conceptual proof of a polynomial identity obtained in [24, Lemma 3.1] using hypergeometric series algorithms. This polynomial identity, and the corresponding results obtained by Singh concerning associated primes of local cohomology modules [24] were the basis of [20], where the authors proved, among other remarkable results, that local cohomology modules $H_{I_{t}(X)}^{m}(\mathbb{Z}[X])$ are rational vector spaces for any $m>\operatorname{height}\left(I_{t}(X)\right)$, where $X$ is a matrix of indeterminates, and $I_{t}(X)$ is the ideal of size $t$ minors of this matrix [20, Theorem 1.2]. The proof presented in [25] used as key ingredient certain differential operators defined over the integers that, modulo a prime $p$, act as the Frobenius endomorphism on quotients of polynomials [25, page 244].

Another motivation comes from [9], where the authors use higher order differential operators to measure various kind of singularities in all characteristics. These higher order operators also play a key role in recent developments in the study of symbolic powers of ideals (see [10] and [9, Section 10] for details). We hope that the calculation of the level of a pair of polynomials might help in the understanding of these differential operators. The interplay between differential operators over the integers and their reduction modulo a prime $p$ (which is a delicate issue, see [15, Section 6] for details) was a key technical ingredient to prove in [3, Theorem 3.1] that local cohomology modules over $\mathbb{Z}$ can have $p$-torsion for at most finitely many primes $p$.

Now, we provide a more detailed overview of the contents of this manuscript for the convenience of the reader; first of all, in Section 2, we give some connection between being stratified for a nonlinear differential equation and the level of a polynomial in the case of hyperelliptic curves. Second, in Section 3, we formally define the level of a pair of polynomials, listing some of the properties it satisfies. In Section 4, we focus on specific calculations when $f$ and $g$ are both homogeneous polynomials; in particular, we will show, among other things, that level $(g, f)$ is, in general, not finite (see Proposition 4.9). We end this paper by raising some open questions to stimulate further research on this subject.

## 2. Stratified differential equations and hyperelliptic curves

The notion of stratification for nonlinear differential equations was introduced in [23]; we briefly recall it here. Let $C \supseteq \mathbb{F}_{p}$ be an algebraically closed field, let $C(z)$ be the one variable differential field extension of $C$ with derivation $\frac{d}{d z}$ and let $K$ be a finite separable extension of $C(z)$. Consider the differential equation $f\left(y^{\prime}, y\right)=0$, where $f \in K[S, T]$ is an absolutely irreducible polynomial such that the image $d$ of $d f / d S$ in $K[S, T] /(f)$ is nonzero; the differential algebra $A:=K\left[y^{\prime}, y, 1 / d\right]$ is given by the derivation $D$ with $D(z)=1$ and $D(y)=y^{\prime}$. One says that $f\left(y^{\prime}, y\right)=0$ is stratified if and only if $D^{p}=0$ [23, Theorem 1.1]; it was also proved in [23, Proposition 2.3] that, if $p \geq 3$ and $f$ is the defining equation of an elliptic curve $E$, then $f\left(y^{\prime}, y\right)=0$ is stratified if and only if $E$ is supersingular. By [6, Theorem 1.1], this is equivalent to the homogeneous polynomial corresponding to $f$ having level two.

Keeping in mind these characterizations, one may ask what is the connection between being stratified and the level of a polynomial. For this, we recall the following terminology. Let $X$ be a curve of genus $g$ defined over an algebraically closed field $k$ of characteristic $p>0$. The $p$-rank $f_{X}$ of $X$ is defined as the $\mathbb{F}_{p}$-dimension of the $p$-torsion of the $k$-points of the Jacobian of $X$. The $a$-number $a_{X}$ is defined as the dimension of the kernel of the Cartier-Manin matrix associated to $X$. Many properties of these numbers are discussed in the textbook [18]; the $p$-rank $f_{X}$ and the $a$-number $a_{X}$ satisfy $f_{X}+a_{X} \leq g$. Here equality does not hold in general, but $a_{X}=0 \Longleftrightarrow f_{X}=g \Longleftrightarrow X$ is ordinary, and $a_{X}=$ $g \Longleftrightarrow X$ is superspecial (see [22, Theorem 2] and [21, Theorem 4.1] for the latter).
Proposition 2.1. Given an algebraically closed field $k$ of prime characteristic $p \geq 3$, consider the hyperelliptic curve $\mathcal{H}$ of genus $g \geq 1$ defined by the equation $y^{2}=h(x)$, where $h(x) \in k[x]$ is squarefree and has degree $2 g+1$. The following statements are equivalent.
(i) $\mathcal{H}$ is not ordinary.
(ii) There exist $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{g-1} \in k$ with $a_{j} \neq 0$ for at least one $j$, such that the differential equation

$$
\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{2}=\frac{h(x)}{\left(a_{g-1} x^{g-1}+\ldots+a_{1} x+a_{0}\right)^{2}}
$$

is stratified.
(iii) The a-number of the Jacobian of $\mathcal{H}$ is not zero.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ be the modified Cartier operator defined in [30, Definition 2.1.]; by the argument pointed out in [23, page 312], the differential equation is stratified if and only the differential form $\omega:=\left(\left(a_{g-1} x^{g-1}+\ldots+a_{1} x+a_{0}\right) / y\right) d x$ is exact, which is equivalent to the condition $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}(\omega)=0$. Our goal now is to write down this condition in terms of the basis of differentials $\omega_{i}$ : $=\left(x^{i-1} / y\right) d x(1 \leq i \leq g)$; it is easy to see that $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}(\omega)=0$ if and only if

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{g} a_{i-1}^{1 / p} \mathcal{C}^{\prime}\left(\omega_{i}\right)=0
$$

Now, if one writes $h(x)^{(p-1) / 2}=\sum_{j=0}^{N} c_{j} x^{j}$, (where $\left.N=((p-1) / 2)(2 g+1)\right)$ then one has [30, page 381] that

$$
\mathcal{C}^{\prime}\left(\omega_{i}\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{g} c_{j p-i} \omega_{j}
$$

and therefore one ends up with the following equality:

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{g}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{g} a_{i-1}^{1 / p} c_{j p-i}\right) \omega_{j}=0
$$

Equivalently, since the $\omega_{j}^{\prime}$ 's are $k$-linearly independent, for any $1 \leq j \leq g$,

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{g} a_{i-1}^{1 / p} c_{j p-i}=0
$$

Summing up, if one denotes by $v$ the column vector $\left(a_{0}^{1 / p}, \ldots, a_{g-1}^{1 / p}\right)$ and by $C$ the Cartier-Manin matrix of the hyperelliptic curve $y^{2}=h(x)$ [30, Definition 2.2], one has that our differential equation is stratified if and only if $C \cdot v=0$, which, by [30, Theorem 3.1], is equivalent to the statement that the hyperelliptic curve $y^{2}=h(x)$ is not ordinary. This proves the equivalence between (i) and (ii); finally, the equivalence between (i) and (iii) follows immediately from the fact that the $a$-number of $\operatorname{Jac}(\mathcal{H})$ equals the corank of the Cartier-Manin matrix of $\mathcal{H}$ [18, 5.2.8].

Combining Proposition 2.1 with [4, Theorems 1.3, 3.5 and 3.9], we obtain the following result. Corollary 2.2. Preserving the assumptions and notations of Proposition 2.1, let $g \geq 2, p>2 g^{2}-1$, and let $f=y^{2} z^{2 g-1}-z^{2 g+1} h(x / z)$. If level $(f) \geq 3$, then there are $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{g-1} \in k$ with $a_{j} \neq 0$ for at least one $j$ such that the equation

$$
\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{2}=\frac{h(x)}{\left(a_{g-1} x^{g-1}+\ldots+a_{1} x+a_{0}\right)^{2}}
$$

is stratified.
The next examples illustrate some of the results obtained above.
Example 2.3. Given $0 \neq b \in \mathbb{F}_{p}$, and $p>7$, consider the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{2}=\frac{x^{5}+b}{\left(a_{1} x+a_{0}\right)^{2}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and assume that $p \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$ (e.g. $p=13$ ). The hyperelliptic curve of genus two $\mathcal{H}$ defined by $y^{2}=x^{5}+b$ has the following Cartier-Manin matrix:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 0 \\
c & 0
\end{array}\right), \text { where } c:=\binom{(p-1) / 2}{(2 p-1) / 5} b^{(p-3) / 10}
$$

In particular, $\mathcal{H}$ is not ordinary. In this case, $\mathcal{H}$ is supersingular (but not superspecial) and therefore level $\left(y^{2} z^{3}-x^{5}-b z^{5}\right) \geq 3$ by [4, Corollary 3.10]. The equation (1) is stratified, if and only if $a_{1}=0$, as follows from the fact that the differential form $d x / y$ is in the kernel of the Cartier operator, whereas for $a_{1} \neq 0$ the form $a_{0} d x / y+a_{1} x d x / y$ is not in the kernel.

Assume that $p \equiv 4(\bmod 5)$ (e.g. $p=19$ ). In this case, by either [27, Theorem 2] or [28, Corollary of page 12], $\mathcal{H}$ is superspecial and therefore (1) is stratified for any value of $a_{1}, a_{0}$. In this case, level $\left(y^{2} z^{3}-x^{5}-b z^{5}\right) \geq 3$ by [4, Example 4.4]. In contrast, where $p \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$ (e.g. $p=11$ ), one can easily check that $\mathcal{H}$ is ordinary (this also follows from [28, Theorem 3]) and
therefore (1) is not stratified for any choice of $a_{1}, a_{0}$. In this case, using [4, Theorems 1.3, 3.5 and 3.9] one concludes that $\operatorname{level}\left(y^{2} z^{3}-x^{5}-b z^{5}\right)=2$.

Example 2.4. Given $p>17$, consider the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{2}=\frac{(x-1)^{8}-x^{8}}{\left(a_{2} x^{2}+a_{1} x+a_{0}\right)^{2}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

One can check that, under a Möbius transformation of the form

$$
(x, y) \mapsto\left(\frac{1}{x+1}, \frac{y}{(x+1)^{4}}\right)
$$

the hyperelliptic curve $\mathcal{H}$ defined by $y^{2}=(x-1)^{8}-x^{8}$ corresponds to $y^{2}=x^{8}-1$, and therefore both have the same $p$-rank. As shown in [17, Section 2], $\mathcal{H}$ is ordinary if and only if $p \equiv$ $1(\bmod 8)$, and supersingular (that is, its $p$-rank is 0$)$ if and only if $p \equiv 7(\bmod 8)$. In the ordinary case, we know that the level is 2 , and at least three in the supersingular (not superspecial) case. However, in the remaining cases (where $p \equiv 3,5(\bmod 8)$ ) the curve has $p$-ranks 1 and 2 respectively, and in these two cases, while we can ensure that there are non-zero choices of $a_{2}, a_{1}, a_{0}$ such that (2) can be either stratified or not, we cannot predict in general what is the level.

## 3. The level of a pair of polynomials

Hereafter, let $k$ be a perfect field of prime characteristic $p$, and let $R$ be the polynomial ring $k\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right]$. The aim of this section is to study the following concept.
Definition 3.1. Given polynomials $f, g$ with coefficients in $k$ and $f \neq 0$, one defines the level of ( $g, f$ ) as

$$
\operatorname{level}(g, f):=\inf \left\{e \geq 0: \exists \delta \in \mathcal{D}^{(e)} \text { such that } \delta(g / f)=(g / f)^{p}\right\} \in \mathbb{N}_{0} \cup\{\infty\}
$$

When $g=1$, one denotes level $(f)$ instead of $\operatorname{level}(1, f)$; this is the notion of level of a polynomial introduced in [6, Definition 2.6].

Remark 3.2. Note that level $(g, f)$ only depends on the quotient $g / f$, so one could also reasonably denote this notion by level $\left(\frac{g}{f}\right)$ instead. But this alternative notation is inconsistent with the one in [6] in the case $f=1$, so we stick with the notation $\operatorname{level}(g, f)$. In any case, one can usually assume that $g$ and $f$ are coprime, since common factors do not change the level of the pair.

Note also that level $(g, f)=0$ if and only if $g / f \in R$. If $g$ and $f$ are coprime, this only happens if $f$ is a constant.

In Proposition 4.9, we give an example of polynomials $f$ and $g$ such that $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=\infty$.
Before going on studying this notion, we review the so-called ideals of $p^{e}$ th roots; the interested reader can find a more detailed treatment in [1, page 465], [5, Definition 2.2], and [16, Definition 5.1]. For an ideal $I \subset R$ we denote by $I^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$ the ideal generated by the $p^{e}$-th powers of elements of $I$.
Definition 3.3. Given $g \in R$ and an integer $e \geq 0$, we define the ideal of $p^{e}$ th roots $I_{e}(g)$ to be the smallest ideal $J \subseteq R$ such that $g \in J^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$.

Remark 3.4. Under our assumptions, $R$ is a free $R^{p^{e}}$-module with basis given by the monomials $\left\{\mathbf{x}^{\alpha} \mid\|\alpha\| \leq p^{e}-1\right\}$. A polynomial $g \in R$ can therefore be written as

$$
g=\sum_{0 \leq\|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\| \leq p^{e}-1} g_{\alpha}^{p^{e}} \mathbf{x}^{\alpha},
$$

for unique $g_{\alpha} \in R$. Then $I_{e}(g)$ is the ideal of $R$ generated by elements $g_{\alpha}$ [5, Proposition 2.5].
The main relation between these ideals and differential operators is the following equality, valid for any polynomial $g \in R$ and any integer $e \geq 0$ (see [1, Lemma 3.1]):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{D}^{(e)} \cdot g=I_{e}(g)^{\left[p^{e}\right]} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using this, one can relate the level of a pair of polynomials to ideals of $p^{e}$ th roots as follows.
Lemma 3.5. Let $f, g \in R$ and $e \geq 0$ be given. Then the following are equivalent:
(i) $\operatorname{level}(g, f) \leq e$;
(ii) $\quad I_{e}\left(g^{p} f p^{e}-p\right) \subseteq I_{e}\left(g f p^{e-1}\right)$;
(iii) $\quad I_{e}\left(g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]} \subseteq I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$.

In particular, level $(g, f)=\inf \left\{e \geq 0: I_{e}\left(g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}\right) \subseteq I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)\right\}$.
Proof. The equivalence of (ii) and (iii) is proved in the last paragraph of the proof of [1, Proposition 3.5]. We prove that (i) and (iii) are equivalent. Suppose that there is $\delta \in \mathcal{D}^{(e)}$ such that $\delta(g / f)=(g / f)^{p}$. Since $\delta$ is linear over $p^{e}$-powers, this implies that $\delta\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)=g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}$. By (3), this implies $g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p} \in I_{e}\left(g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$, so that $I_{e}\left(g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]} \subseteq I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$.

Conversely, suppose now that $I_{e}\left(g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]} \subseteq I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$. Again using (3), one has that $\mathcal{D}^{(e)}\left(g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}\right) \subseteq \mathcal{D}^{(e)}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$. In particular $g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p} \in \mathcal{D}^{(e)}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$, hence there is $\delta \in D^{(e)}$ such that $\delta\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)=g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}$. Multiplying this equality by $1 / f^{p^{e}}$ and using that $\delta$ is linear over $p^{e}$ th powers, we get $\delta(g / f)=(g / f)^{p}$.

Observe that the equality $\mathcal{D}^{(e)} \cdot g=I_{e}(g)^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$ is made explicit in, e.g., the proof of [6, Claim 3.4]. Using these techniques one can in case $e=\operatorname{level}(g, f)<\infty$, algorithmically construct an explicit operator $\delta \in \mathcal{D}_{R}^{(e)}$ with $\delta(g / f)=g^{p} / f^{p}$. However we do not know how to decide whether the level of a given pair is finite.

Remark 3.6. By the same argument as in $[4, \S 2.4]$, the level of a pair is invariant under linear coordinate changes.

In the next statement, our aim is to collect some properties that the level of a pair of polynomials satisfies.

Proposition 3.7. Let $f, g \in R$ be non-zero polynomials such that $\frac{g}{f} \notin R$. Then the following statements hold.
(i) $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=1$ if and only if $g \in I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)$.
(ii) If $\operatorname{level}(f)=1$, then $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=1$.
(iii) If either $I_{e}\left(g^{p} f p^{e}-p\right) \nsubseteq I_{e}\left(f p^{p^{e}-1}\right)$ or $I_{e}\left(g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}\right) \nsubseteq I_{e}(g)$, then level $(g, f)>e$.
(iv) If $f$ and $g$ are homogeneous, and $e \geq 1$ is an integer such that $p^{e}>\operatorname{deg} g-\operatorname{deg} f$, then $I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$ is generated by polynomials of degree at most $\operatorname{deg} f$.

Proof. The assumption that $f$ does not divide $g$ in $R$ implies that level $(g, f)>0$. Then (i) follows from Lemma 3.5 together with the easy observation that $I_{1}\left(g^{p}\right)=(g)$. Part (ii) was already proved
in [6, page 248]; we repeat the proof for the sake of completeness. Let $\delta^{\prime} \in \mathcal{D}^{(1)}$ such that $\delta^{\prime}(1 / f)=1 / f^{p}$. Then define $\delta:=\delta^{\prime} \circ\left(\cdot g^{p-1}\right)$. We find that $\delta(g / f)=\delta^{\prime}\left(g^{p} / f\right)=g^{p} \delta^{\prime}(1 / f)=$ $(g / f)^{p}$, as required.

Part (iii) follows immediately combining Lemma 3.5 with the fact that $I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right) \subseteq$ $I_{e}(g) I_{e}\left(f p^{p^{e}-1}\right)$ [1, Lemma 3.3]. Finally, to prove part (iv) fix $e \geq 1$ an integer and write

$$
g f^{p^{e}-1}=\sum_{0 \leq\|\alpha\| \leq p^{e}-1} c_{\alpha}^{p^{e}} \mathbf{x}^{\alpha}
$$

for some $c_{\alpha} \in R$. Since both $f$ and $g$ are homogeneous it follows that

$$
\operatorname{deg}(g)+\left(p^{e}-1\right) \operatorname{deg}(f)=p^{e} \operatorname{deg}\left(c_{\alpha}\right)+\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}\right)
$$

which implies that

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(c_{\alpha}\right) \leq \frac{\left(p^{e}-1\right) \operatorname{deg}(f)+\operatorname{deg}(g)}{p^{e}}=\operatorname{deg}(f)+\frac{\operatorname{deg} g-\operatorname{deg} f}{p^{e}} .
$$

The second term on the right hand side is smaller than 1 by assumption, and since both sides are integers, we get $\operatorname{deg} c_{\alpha} \leq \operatorname{deg} f$. The result follows.

## 4. Some examples

The goal of this section is to calculate the level of a pair of polynomials $(g, f)$ for several particular choices of $g$ and $f$; we will quickly see that, even for low degrees, most of the calculations are highly non-trivial. In particular, we show that $\operatorname{level}(g, f)$ is, in general, not always finite (see Example 4.9).

We want to start with the case considered by Singh, see for example [25].
Lemma 4.1. Let $p$ be a prime number, $X=\left(\begin{array}{lll}u & v & w \\ x & y & z\end{array}\right)$ be a matrix of indeterminates defined over $R=k[u, v, w, x, y, z]$, and set $\Delta_{1}:=v z-w y, \Delta_{2}:=w x-u z$, and $\Delta_{3}:=u y-v x$. Then, $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=1$ for each pair $(g, f) \in\left\{\left(w, \Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}\right),\left(v, \Delta_{1} \Delta_{3}\right),\left(u, \Delta_{2} \Delta_{3}\right)\right\}$.

Proof. By symmetry, it is enough to show that $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=1$ when $(g, f)=\left(w, \Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}\right)$. Set $f:=$ $\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}$, and notice that $f=1 \cdot(x z v w)+\left(-z^{2}\right) \cdot(u v)+\left(-w^{2}\right) \cdot(x y)+1 \cdot(y z u w)$. This shows that, if $p=2$, then $I_{1}(f)=R$ so $\operatorname{level}(f)=1$ and therefore $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=1$. Now, assume that $p \geq 3$, one can check that in the support of $f^{p-1}$ appears the monomial $(x y u v)^{(p-1) / 2}(z w)^{p-1}$ with coefficient $\binom{p-1}{(p-1) / 2}$; this shows again that level $(f)=1$ and therefore level $(g, f)=1$.

Remark 4.2. Notice that, in the setting considered in Lemma 4.1, Singh shows in [25] that the differential operator $\delta:=D_{u, p-1} D_{y, p-1} D_{z, p-1}$ (which is clearly of level one) is such that $\delta(g / f)=$ $(g / f)^{p}$, for $g / f$ any of the three fractions considered in Lemma 4.1.

Lemma 4.3. Let $k$ be a field of characteristic $p$, let $f=x^{d}$, assume that $p \geq d$, and let $g \in R=$ $k[x, y]$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree $d$ which is not a multiple of $f$. Then, $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=2$ unless $g \in\left(x^{d-1}\right)$, in which case level $(g, f)=1$.

Proof. Write $g=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} x^{i} y^{d-i}$; now, notice that

$$
g f^{p-1}=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} x^{i+d(p-1)} y^{d-i} .
$$

Given $0 \leq i \leq d$ write $i+d(p-1)=(d-1) p+(p+i-d)$, and notice that, unless $i=d, 0 \leq$ $p+i-d \leq p-1$ (here, we are also using that $d \leq p$ ). This shows that $I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)=$ $\left(a_{d}^{1 / p} x^{d}, a_{i}^{1 / p} x^{d-1}: 1 \leq i \leq d-1\right)=\left(x^{d-1}\right)$, so level $(g, f) \neq 1$ unless $g \in\left(x^{d-1}\right)$, in which case $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=1$. So, from now on, assume that $g \notin\left(x^{d-1}\right)$.

We have $I_{2}\left(g^{p} f^{p^{2}-p}\right)=I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)=\left(x^{d-1}\right)$. Now, write

$$
g f^{p^{2}-1}=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} x^{i+d\left(p^{2}-1\right)} y^{d-i} .
$$

Again, the equality $i+d\left(p^{2}-1\right)=(d-1) p^{2}+\left(p^{2}+i-d\right)$ and the fact unless $i=d, p^{2}+i-$ $d \leq p^{2}-1$, shows that $I_{2}\left(g f p^{2}-1\right)=\left(a_{d}^{1 / p^{2}} x^{d}, a_{i}^{1 / p^{2}} x^{d-1}: 1 \leq i \leq d-1\right)=\left(x^{d-1}\right)=I_{2}\left(g^{p} f p^{2}-p\right)$, and therefore level $(g, f)=2$, as claimed.

Lemma 4.3 has the following interesting consequence.
Lemma 4.4. Let $k$ be a field of prime characteristic $p$, and let $f, g \in k[x, y]$ be quadratic forms. If $\sqrt{(f)}$ denotes the radical of $(f)$, then
$\operatorname{level}(g, f)= \begin{cases}0, & \text { if } g \text { is a multiple of } f, \\ 1, & \text { if either } f \text { is not the square of a linear form, or if } g \in \sqrt{(f)} \backslash(f), \\ 2, & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}$
Proof. First of all, if $f$ is not the square of a linear form, then by [6, Proposition 5.7] level $(f)=1$ and therefore part (ii) of Proposition 3.7 implies that level $(g, f)=1$. So, hereafter we assume that $f$ is the square of a linear form; By Remark 3.6 we can assume that $f=x^{2}$ and that $g$ is again a quadratic form. Then, in this case, Lemma 4.3 says exactly that level $(g, f)=2$ unless $g \in(x)$, in which case level $(g, f)=1$; the proof is therefore completed.

As a more elaborate example we now consider level $(g, f)$ with $f=x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}$ and $g$ any homogeneous cubic in 3 variables which is not a scalar multiple of $f$. Since level $(f)=1$ in case the characteristic $p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$, Proposition 3.7 (ii) shows level $(g, f)=1$ for $p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$ and any such $g$.

We expect that the same holds for all characteristics $p \geq 5$. The next two special cases show that this is correct for most $g$. By Example 4.8, the same does not hold in characteristics $p=2,3$.

Claim 4.5. Let $p \geq 5$ with $p \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, let $f=x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}$, and let $g \in R=k[x, y, z]$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree 3 such that, if one writes $g=\sum_{a+b+c=3} g_{a, b, c} x^{a} y^{b} z^{c}$, and set $B$ : $=\binom{p-1}{(p-2) / 3,(p-2) / 3,(p+1) / 3}, C:=\binom{p-1}{(p-2) / 3}, D:=\binom{p-1}{1,2(p-2) / 3,(p-2) / 3}, E:=\binom{p-1}{1,(2 p-1) / 3,(p-5) / 3}$, and $F:=\binom{p-1}{(p+4) / 3,(p-2) / 3,(p-5) / 3}$, then the rank of

$$
A:=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
B g_{1,1,1} & C g_{2,0,1} & C g_{2,1,0} \\
C g_{0,2,1} & B g_{1,1,1} & C g_{1,2,0} \\
C g_{0,1,2} & C g_{1,0,2} & B g_{1,1,1} \\
B g_{2,0,1} & D g_{0,2,1} & C g_{3,0,0}+E g_{0,3,0}+D g_{0,0,3} \\
B g_{2,1,0} & C g_{3,0,0}+E g_{0,3,0}+D g_{0,0,3} & D g_{0,1,2} \\
B g_{3,0,0}+F g_{0,3,0}+F g_{0,0,3} & D g_{1,2,0} & D g_{1,0,2} \\
D g_{2,0,1} & B g_{0,2,1} & E g_{3,0,0}+C g_{0,3,0}+D g_{0,0,3} \\
E g_{3,0,0}+C g_{0,3,0}+D g_{0,0,3} & B g_{1,2,0} & D g_{1,0,2} \\
D g_{2,1,0} & F g_{3,0,0}+B g_{0,3,0}+F g_{0,0,3} & D g_{0,1,2} \\
D g_{2,1,0} & E g_{3,0,0}+D g_{0,3,0}+C g_{0,0,3} & B g_{0,1,2} \\
E g_{3,0,0}+D g_{0,3,0}+C g_{0,0,3} & D g_{1,2,0} & B g_{1,0,2} \\
D g_{2,0,1} & D g_{0,2,1} & F g_{3,0,0}+F g_{0,3,0}+B g_{0,0,3}
\end{array}\right)
$$

is three. Then level $(g, f) \leq 1$, with equality exactly if $g$ is not a multiple of $f$.
Proof. Write $g=\sum_{a+b+c=3} g_{a, b, c} x^{a} y^{b} z^{c}$, and

$$
g f^{p-1}=\sum_{a+b+c=3} \sum_{i+j+k=p-1} g_{a, b, c}\binom{p-1}{i, j, k} x^{3 i+a} y^{3 j+b} z^{3 k+c} .
$$

Then, if one picks $i=j=(p-2) / 3$ and $k=(p+1) / 3$, then the corresponding term of $g f^{p-1}$ is

$$
\sum_{a+b+c=3} g_{a, b, c}\binom{p-1}{i, j, k} z^{p} \cdot\left(x^{p-2+a} y^{p-2+b} z^{c+1}\right) .
$$

Again, if $i=k=(p-2) / 3$ and $j=(p+1) / 3$, then the corresponding term of $g f^{p-1}$ is

$$
\sum_{a+b+c=3} g_{a, b, c}\binom{p-1}{i, j, k} y^{p} \cdot\left(x^{p-2+a} y^{b+1} z^{p-2+c}\right) .
$$

By the same reason, if $j=k=(p-2) / 3$ and $i=(p+1) / 3$, then the corresponding term of $g f^{p-1}$ is

$$
\sum_{a+b+c=3} g_{a, b, c}\binom{p-1}{i, j, k} x^{p} \cdot\left(x^{a+1} y^{p-2+b} z^{p-2+c}\right) .
$$

The above expansions show that the basis elements $x^{p-1} y^{p-1} z^{2}, x^{p-1} y^{2} z^{p-1}$ and $x^{2} y^{p-1} z^{p-1}$ contain respectively in their coefficient the below term, where $B:=\binom{p-1}{(p-2) / 3,(p-2) / 3,(p+1) / 3}$ :

$$
g_{1,1,1} B z^{p}, g_{1,1,1} B y^{p}, g_{1,1,1} B x^{p} .
$$

Hereafter, we only plan to prove that the coefficient of $x^{p-1} y^{p-1} z^{2}$ is exactly $C g_{0,1,2} x^{p}+$ $C g_{1,0,2} y^{p}+B g_{1,1,1} z^{p}$ and one can show using the same arguments that the coefficient of $x^{p-1} y^{2} z^{p-1} \quad$ (resp. $x^{2} y^{p-1} z^{p-1}$ ) is exactly $C g_{0,2,1} x^{p}+B g_{1,1,1} y^{p}+C g_{1,2,0} z^{p}$ resp. $B g_{1,1,1} x^{p}+$ $C g_{2,0,1} y^{p}+C g_{2,1,0} z^{p}$.

Indeed, we want to calculate the coefficient of $x^{p-1} y^{p-1} z^{2}$, so suppose that there are non-negative integers $\lambda, \mu, \gamma$ such that $3 i+a=\lambda p+p-1,3 j+b=\mu p+p-1,3 k+c=\gamma p+2$. Since $\operatorname{deg}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)=3 p$, it follows that $3 p=3 i+a+3 j+b+3 k+c=(\lambda+\mu+\gamma+2) p$, which implies that $\lambda+\mu+\gamma=1$, so we only have three possibilities for these integers; namely, $(1,0,0),(0,1$,

0 ) and $(0,0,1)$. For $(1,0,0)$, we get $i=(2 p-1-a) / 3, j=(p-1-b) / 3, k=(2-c) / 3$. Since $p \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, this forces $a=0, b=1$ and $c=2$. By the same argument, for $(0,1,0)$ one gets $a=1, b=0$ and $c=2$, and finally, for $(0,0,1)$ one ends up with $a=b=c=1$. This shows that the coefficient of $x^{p-1} y^{p-1} z^{2}$ is exactly $B\left(g_{0,1,2} x^{p}+g_{1,0,2} y^{p}+g_{1,1,1} z^{p}\right)$, as claimed.

One might ask from where the other rows of matrix $A$ appearing in our assumption comes from; following the same arguments, these rows corresponds to the calculation of the coefficients of the below basis elements:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
x^{3} y^{p-2} z^{p-1}, & x^{3} y^{p-1} z^{p-2}, & x^{4} y^{p-2} z^{p-2} \\
x^{p-2} y^{3} z^{p-1}, & x^{p-1} y^{3} z^{p-2}, & x^{p-2} y^{4} z^{p-2}, \\
x^{p-2} y^{p-1} z^{3}, & x^{p-1} y^{p-2} z^{3}, & x^{p-2} y^{p-2} z^{4} .
\end{array}
$$

Summing up, the foregoing implies, since by assumption the rank of $A$ is 3 , that $(x, y, z)=$ $I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)$, hence $g \in I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)$ and this shows that level $(g, f)=1$ by using part (i) of Proposition 3.7.

Claim 4.6. Let $p \geq 5$, let $f=x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}$, and let $g \in R=k[x, y, z]$ be a non-zero monomial of degree 3. Then, level $(g, f)=1$.

Proof. If $p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$, then $\operatorname{level}(f)=1$ and therefore $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=1$ by part (ii) of Proposition 3.7, so hereafter we will assume that $p \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. By symmetry, it is enough to consider the monomials $g=x^{3}, g=x^{2} y$ and $g=x y z$. In each of these cases, we will simply construct an explicit differential operator of level 1 that does what is needed. For $g=x^{3}$, consider first

$$
\delta=D_{x, p-1} \circ D_{y, p-2} \circ D_{z, 3}
$$

(see the Introduction for the notation $D_{x, n}$ ). Clearly $\delta$ is of level 1 , since $p>3$. We have that

$$
g f^{p-1}=\sum_{i+j+k=p-1}\binom{p-1}{i, j, k} x^{3 i+3} y^{3 j} z^{3 k} .
$$

Applying $\delta$ gives us

$$
\delta\left(g f^{p-1}\right)=\sum_{i+j+k=p-1}\binom{p-1}{i, j, k}\binom{3 i+3}{p-1}\binom{3 j}{p-2}\binom{3 k}{3} x^{3 i+4-p} y^{3 j+2-p} z^{3 k-3},
$$

where we use the convention that $\binom{n}{k}=0$ for $k>n$. We investigate for which indices $i, j, k$ the coefficient in this term is zero. The first factor is never zero, since $p-1, i, j$ and $k$ are all between 0 and $p-1$. The second factor is zero unless $3 i+3 \equiv-1(\bmod p)$, as can be seen by writing out the product. Since $i$ lies between 0 and $p-1$, and since $p \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, the only integer value for $i$ such that $3 i+3 \equiv-1 \bmod p$ is $i=(2 p-4) / 3$. This means that $j$ is at most $(p+1) / 3$. The third factor $\binom{3 j}{p-2}$ is zero unless $3 j$ is either -1 or -2 modulo $p$. In the allowed range for $j$, the only integer possibility is $j=(p-2) / 3$. This leaves $k=1$, and for this value of $k$ we have $\binom{3 k}{3}=1 \neq 0$. So we see that the only non-zero term in $\delta\left(g f^{p-1}\right)$ is the one for indices $(i, j, k)=\left(\frac{2 p-4}{3}, \frac{p-2}{3}, 1\right)$. This gives

$$
\delta\left(g f^{p-1}\right)=\binom{p-1}{\frac{2 p-4}{3}, \frac{p-2}{3}, 1}\binom{2 p-1}{p-1}\binom{p-2}{p-2}\binom{3}{3} x^{p}=\binom{p-1}{\frac{2 p-4}{3}, \frac{p-2}{3}, 1} x^{p}
$$

Define now

$$
\Delta=\binom{p-1}{\frac{2 p-4}{3}, \frac{p-2}{3}, 1}^{-1} \cdot x^{2 p} \cdot \delta
$$

then $\Delta$ is also a differential operator of level 1 , and by construction we have $\Delta\left(g f^{p-1}\right)=x^{3 p}=$ $g^{p}$. Using that $\Delta$ is $R^{p}$-linear, we may divide both sides by $f^{p}$ and get $\Delta(g / f)=g^{p} / f^{p}$, as needed.

For the other cases $g=x^{2} y$ and $g=x y z$, a similar analysis shows that the operators

$$
C \cdot x^{p} y^{p} D_{x, p-2} D_{y, p-1} D_{z, 3}, \quad \text { resp. } \quad C^{\prime} \cdot y^{p} z^{p}, D_{x, p-3} D_{y, p-1} D_{z, 4}
$$

for suitably chosen non-zero constants $C, C^{\prime} \in \mathbb{F}_{p}$, have the required property.
Proposition 3.7(ii) shows that if level $(f)=1$ then $\operatorname{level}(g, f) \leq 1$. In the example considered in Lemma 4.5 one has level $(f)=2>\operatorname{level}(g, f)=1$. One might ask whether in general level $(g, f) \leq$ $\operatorname{level}(f)$. This is not the case, as the following example shows.

Example 4.7. Let $R=k[x, y, z, w], \mathrm{g}=\mathrm{y}$ and $f=x y^{p+1}+y z^{p+1}+z w^{p+1}$. Using Magma [8] we computed for the cases $p \in\{2,3,5\}$ that $\operatorname{level}(g)=1, \operatorname{level}(f)=2$, but $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=4$.

For any prime $p$, what is easy to show in this example is that $\operatorname{level}(g, f) \geq 2$; indeed, notice that

$$
g f^{p-1}=\sum_{\substack{0 \leq i, j, k \leq p-1 \\ i+j+k=p-1}}\binom{p-1}{i, j, k}\left(y^{i} z^{j} w^{k}\right)^{p} \cdot\left(x^{i} y^{p-k} z^{p-1-i} w^{k}\right) .
$$

We claim that, whereas $y^{p} \in I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right), g=y \notin I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)$. Indeed, if in the above expansion we pick $j=k=0$ and $i=p-1$, then one gets that $g f^{p-1}=\left(y^{p}\right)^{p}\left(x^{p-1}\right)+\ldots$, and this choice is the only one that makes the basis element $x^{p-1}$ appearing in this expansion. This shows that $y^{p} \in$ $I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)$; moreover, notice that, if one choices a $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{k}$ as above where $i<p-1$, then the coefficient of the corresponding basis element is made up by monomials that are divisible by either $z$ or w. This shows that $\mathrm{y}^{\mathrm{p}}$ is the smallest possible power of y that belongs to $I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)$, hence $g=$ $y \notin I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)$ and therefore level $(g, f) \geq 2$, as claimed.

Moreover, again about Lemma 4.6, we want to single out that the assumption $p \neq 2,3$ can not be removed, as the following examples show.
Example 4.8. Let $p=2$, let $R=k[x, y, z], f=x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}$ and $g=x y z$; we claim level $(g, f)=2$. Indeed, on the one hand, $g f^{p-1}=\left(x^{2}\right)^{2} \cdot(y z)+\left(y^{2}\right)^{2} \cdot(x z)+\left(z^{2}\right)^{2} \cdot(x y)$, so $g=x y z \notin$ $I_{1}\left(g f^{p-1}\right)=\left(x^{2}, y^{2}, z^{2}\right)$; this shows, by part (i) of Proposition 3.7, that $\operatorname{level}(g, f) \geq 2$. On the other hand,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g f^{p^{2}-1}= & \left(x^{2}\right)^{4} \cdot\left(x^{2} y z\right)+\left(y^{2}\right)^{4} \cdot\left(x y^{2} z\right)+\left(z^{2}\right)^{4} \cdot\left(x y z^{2}\right)+(x y)^{4} \cdot\left(x^{3} z\right)+(x y)^{4} \cdot\left(y^{3} z\right) \\
& +(x z)^{4} \cdot\left(x^{3} y\right)+(x z)^{4} \cdot\left(y z^{3}\right)+(y z)^{4} \cdot\left(x y z^{3}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

and $g^{p} f p^{2}-p=x^{8}(y z)^{2}+y^{8}(x z)^{2}+z^{8}(x y)^{2}$; these last two computations show that

$$
g^{p} f^{p^{2}-p} \in\left(x^{2}, y^{2}, z^{2}, x y, x z, y z\right)^{\left[p^{2}\right]}=I_{2}\left(g f^{p^{2}-1}\right)^{\left[p^{2}\right]}
$$

and therefore Lemma 3.5 ensures $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=2$, as claimed.

Now, assume that $p=3$ ( $g$ and $f$ are the same); in this case, one can check that $J:=I_{1}\left(g f^{2}\right)=$ $\left(x^{2}+2 x y+y^{2}+2 x z+2 y z+z^{2}\right)$ and $g=x y z \notin J$. One way to check it is the following; denote by $V(J)$ the hypersurface defined by $J$. This hypersurface contains the point $(1,1,1)$, which is a point which does not belong to $V(x y z)$. This shows that $x y z \notin J$.

The above argument shows that $\operatorname{level}(g, f) \geq 2$ and, actually, one can check either by hand or by computer that level $(g, f)=2$.

We conclude this section with an example showing that the level of a pair of polynomials is, in general, not finite. This in fact answers a question raised in [6, Section 5].

Proposition 4.9. Let $R=k[x, y]$ with chark $=p$, and let $f=x^{p+1}+y^{p+1}$ and $g=x$. Then $\operatorname{level}(g, f)=\infty$. In particular, no $\delta \in \mathcal{D}_{R}$ exists with $\delta(g / f)=g^{p} / f^{p}$.

Proof. Let $e \geq 2$ be an arbitrary even integer. We will show that level $(g, f)>e$. By Lemma 3.5, this is equivalent to showing that $I_{e}\left(g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]} \nsubseteq I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$.

First, we show that $I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$ is a monomial ideal. Indeed, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
g f^{p^{e}-1}=\sum_{i=0}^{p^{e}-1}\binom{p^{e}-1}{i} x^{i(p+1)+1} y^{\left(p^{e}-1-i\right)(p+1)} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the description of $I_{e}$ in Remark 3.4, to find generators of $I_{e}\left(g f p^{e}-1\right)$, express $g f^{p^{e}-1}$ as an $R^{p^{e}}$-linear combination of monomials with exponents below $p^{e}$, and take $p^{e}$-th roots of the coefficients. If for two indices $i$ and $j$ the corresponding terms in (4) differ by a $p^{e}$-th power, then they both contribute to the same generator. But this happens only if the exponents for $x$ and $y$ are congruent modulo $p^{e}$. From $i(p+1)+1 \equiv j(p+1)+1\left(\bmod p^{e}\right)$ we obtain $i \equiv j\left(\bmod p^{e}\right)$ since $p+1$ is a unit modulo $p^{e}$. But if $0 \leq i, j \leq p^{e}-1$ and $i \equiv j\left(\bmod p^{e}\right)$, then $i=j$. So we see that the terms occurring in $g f^{p^{e}-1}$ are independent over $\operatorname{Frac}\left(R^{p^{e}}\right)$. Hence the generators for $I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$ that we get from Remark 3.4 are monomials, and so $I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$ is a monomial ideal. It follows that also $I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$ is a monomial ideal.

Now we show that $g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p} \notin I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$. Since the latter is a monomial ideal, it is sufficient to find a monomial that occurs in $g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}$ with non-zero coefficient which is not in this ideal. For this, set $m:=x^{p^{e}-p^{2}+p} y^{p^{e+1}-p}$. We claim that this monomial occurs in $g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}$ with non-zero coefficient. We have

$$
g^{p} f^{p^{e}-p}=\sum_{i=0}^{p^{e}-p}\binom{p^{e}-p}{i} x^{i(p+1)+p} y^{\left(p^{e}-p-i\right)(p+1)}
$$

We see that our monomial $m$ occurs for index $i=\left(p^{e}-p^{2}\right) /(p+1)$, which is an integer because $e$ is even. To evaluate the binomial coefficient for this value of $i$, we can look at the $p$-adic digits of the numbers involved. We have $p^{e}-p=(p-1) p^{e-1}+(p-1) p^{e-2}+\ldots+(p-1) p$, and we have $i=(p-1) p^{e-2}+(p-1) p^{e-4}+\ldots+(p-1) p^{2}$. Using Lucas's theorem [19, pp. 51-52], we find that the binomial coefficient evaluates to 1 , so in particular it is non-zero.

Now we need to show that $m \notin I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$. This ideal is generated by monomials which are also $p^{e}$-th powers, and $m$ is an element of this ideal if and only if at least one of these monomials divides $m$. The largest $p^{e}$-th power dividing $m$ is $y^{(p-1) p^{e}}$. Hence, it is enough to show that $y^{(p-1) p^{e}} \notin I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)^{\left[p^{e}\right]}$, or equivalently, that $y^{p-1} \notin I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$. In view of Remark 3.4, we look at terms in the product $g f^{p^{e}-1}$ that contribute something of the form $y^{n}$ to $I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$. A term does this if and only if the exponent for $x$ is strictly lower than $p^{e}$. In Equation (4) above, this happens for terms with index $i$ for which $i(p+1)+1 \leq p^{e}-1$, which is equivalent to

$$
i \leq\left\lfloor\frac{p^{e}-2}{p+1}\right\rfloor=\frac{p^{e}-p-2}{p+1},
$$

where we used again that $e$ is even. But for such indices $i$, the exponent for $y$ is given by

$$
\left(p^{e}-1-i\right)(p+1) \leq p^{e+1}+p^{e}-p-1-p^{e}+p+2=p^{e+1}+1 .
$$

So the contribution of these terms to $I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$ is at least $y^{p}$. Thus the lowest exponent $n$ such that $y^{n} \in I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$ is $n=p$, and in particular $y^{p-1} \notin I_{e}\left(g f^{p^{e}-1}\right)$.

### 4.1. Some open questions

Question 4.10. The following questions are open, to the best of our knowledge.
(i) Does an algorithm exist which, on input polynomials $f$ and $g$, decides whether $\operatorname{level}(g, f)<\infty$ ?
(ii) Under which conditions one can ensure that $\operatorname{level}(g, f) \leq \operatorname{level}(f)$ ?
(iii) In [11, Proposition 6], it is shown that, if $R$ is an $F$-finite ring of characteristic $p \geq 3, f \in R$, and $e$ is the largest $F$-jumping number of $f$ that lies inside $(0,1)$, then $\operatorname{level}(f)=\left\lceil 1-\log _{p}(1-e)\right\rceil$. Is it possible to obtain a similar result for level $(g, f)$ ?

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