# Addition-deletion results for the minimal degree of a Jacobian syzygy of a union of two curves 

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#### Abstract

Let $C: f=0$ be a reduced curve in the complex projective plane. The minimal degree $m d r(f)$ of a Jacobian syzygy for $f$, which is the same as the minimal degree of a derivation killing $f$, is an important invariant of the curve $C$, for instance it can be used to determine whether $C$ is free or nearly free. In this note we study the relations of this invariant $m d r(f)$ with a decomposition of $C$ as a union of two curves $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$, without common irreducible components. When all the singularities that occur are quasihomogeneous, a result by Schenck, Terao and Yoshinaga yields finer information on this invariant in this setting. Using this, we give some geometrical criteria, the first ones of this type in the existing literature as far as we know, for a line to be a jumping line for the rank


[^0]Quasihomogeneous singularity 2 vector bundle of logarithmic vector fields along a reduced curve $C$.
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## 1. Introduction

Let $S=\mathbb{C}[x, y, z]$ be the polynomial ring in three variables $x, y, z$ with complex coefficients. We denote by $\partial_{x}, \partial_{y}, \partial_{z}$ the partial derivations with respect to $x, y, z$ respectively. Let $\operatorname{Der}(S)=\left\{\partial=a \partial_{x}+b \partial_{y}+c \partial_{z} \quad: a, b, c \in S\right\}$ be the free $S$-module of $\mathbb{C}$-derivations of the polynomial ring $S$.

Definition 1.1. Let $g \in S$ be a polynomial. The $S$-module $D(g)$ of derivations of $S$ preserving the principal ideal $(g) \subset S$ is by definition

$$
D(g)=\{\partial \in \operatorname{Der}(S): \partial g \in(g)\}
$$

Moreover, the $S$-module $D_{0}(g)$ of derivations of $S$ killing the polynomial $g$ is by definition

$$
D_{0}(g)=\{\partial \in \operatorname{Der}(R): \partial g=0\}
$$

When $g$ is a homogeneous polynomial, then both modules $D(g)$ and $D_{0}(g)$ are graded $S$-modules and one has

$$
D(g)=D_{0}(g) \oplus S(-1) \cdot E,
$$

where $E=x \partial_{x}+y \partial_{y}+z \partial_{z}$ denotes the Euler derivation. The curve $C_{g}: g=0$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ is said to be free if $D(g)$ or, equivalently, $D_{0}(g)$ is a free graded $S$-module.

Note that $D_{0}(g)$ can be identified with the $S$-module of all Jacobian relations for $g$, namely to

$$
A R(g)=\left\{(a, b, c) \in S^{3}: a g_{x}+b g_{y}+c g_{z}=0\right\}
$$

where $g_{u}=\partial_{u} g$, for $u=x, y, z$. An important numerical invariant associated to a reduced curve $C: f=0$ in the projective plane $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ is the minimal degree of a derivation killing $f$ or, equivalently, the minimal degree of a Jacobian relation (syzygy) for $f$. This is defined by

$$
m d r(f)=\min \left\{s \in \mathbb{N}: D_{0}(f)_{s} \neq 0\right\}=\min \left\{s \in \mathbb{N}: A R(f)_{s} \neq 0\right\}
$$

It can be used for instance to characterize the free or the nearly free curves, see (2.4) and (2.5) below. In this note we study the relations of this invariant with a decomposition
of $C$ as a union of two curves $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ and $C_{2}: f_{2}=0$, without common irreducible components. In particular, we would like to relate $r=m d r(f)=m d r\left(f_{1} f_{2}\right)$ to $r_{j}=$ $\operatorname{mdr}\left(f_{j}\right)$ for $j=1,2$. The case when $C_{1}$ is a line arrangement and $C_{2}$ is a line was studied in detail in [2].

In section 2 we recall some basic notations and facts, for instance the definition of the Jacobian module $N(f)$ and of free, nearly free and plus one generated curves which play a key role in this paper.

Then we consider in section 3 the case when $C_{2}$ is a line and $C_{1}$ is any reduced curve, not having $C_{2}$ as a component. We study in Theorem 3.3 the behavior of our invariant $m d r(f)$ when $C_{2}$ is a member of a pencil of lines in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, under the assumption that we know not only $r_{1}$, but also a non trivial derivation in $D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}}$. Several examples are given in section 4.

We study in section 5 the general case of two curves $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$, and get bounds for $r=m d r(f)$ in terms of the degrees $d_{j}=\operatorname{deg}\left(f_{j}\right)$ and of the invariants $r_{j}$ for $j=1,2$, see Theorem 5.1. As an example, we discuss in Proposition 5.5 all the possibilities when both $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ are smooth conics.

Finally, in section 6 , we assume that all the singularities of $C_{1}$ and $C$ are quasihomogeneous and that $C_{2}$ is a smooth curve (most of the time $C_{2}$ is also supposed to be rational). Under this assumption, we may use a key result by Schenck, Terao and Yoshinaga, see [25], to get finer information on $r$. Our Theorem 6.2 gives a description of the cohomology exact sequence associated to the short sheaf exact sequence obtained in [25], paying special attention to the description of the morphisms between the corresponding cohomology groups.

This approach was already used in [25] to relate the freeness of $C_{1}$ to the freeness of $C$. Here we show that even when the curve $C_{1}$ is not free, one can obtain valuable information on $r$ using this approach. This idea works best when the Jacobian module $N\left(f_{1}\right)$ is small, and this explains why we consider mostly free and nearly free curves $C_{1}$. Sometimes the determination of $r$ is rather easy, using just the knowledge of the numerical invariant $r_{1}$, as in most examples in section 6. In Example 6.16 we present a situation where one needs to use the morphisms in the exact sequence given by Theorem 6.2, namely the multiplication by $f_{2}^{2}$ between the two Jacobian modules $N\left(f_{1}\right)$ and $N(f)$. As a by-product, under the assumption for this final section, we get lower bounds on the number of points in the intersection $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$ in terms of $r_{1}$ when the curve $C_{1}$ is free or nearly free and $C_{2}$ is either a line or a smooth conic, see Corollary 6.6 and Corollary 6.9.

The study of the jumping lines of the rank 2 vector bundle $T\langle C\rangle$ of logarithmic vector fields along a reduced curve $C$ is a classical subject in Algebraic Geometry, see for instance $[15,16,24]$. At the end of the paper we give some geometrical criteria, the first ones of this type in the existing literature as far as we know, for a line $L$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ to be a jumping line for the vector bundle $T\langle C\rangle$, see Theorem 6.19 and Example 6.20 where this is applied to Thom-Sebastiani curves.

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## 2. Prerequisites

In this section we recall some basic facts, see for instance [5,12]. For any degree $e$ reduced homogeneous polynomial $g \in S_{e}$, let $N(g)=\widehat{J}_{g} / J_{g}$ be the Jacobian module of $g$, with $J_{g}$ the Jacobian ideal of $g$ in $S$, spanned by the partial derivatives $g_{x}, g_{y}, g_{z}$ of $g$, and $\widehat{J}_{g}$ the saturation of the ideal $J_{g}$ with respect to the maximal ideal $\mathbf{m}=(x, y, z)$ in $S$. We set $n(g)_{j}=\operatorname{dim} N(g)_{j}, T_{g}=3(e-2)$ and recall that we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
n(g)_{0} \leq n(g)_{1} \leq \ldots \leq n(g)_{\left\lfloor\frac{T_{g}}{2}\right\rfloor-1} \leq n(g)_{\left\lfloor\frac{T_{g}}{2}\right\rfloor} \geq n(g)_{\left\lfloor\frac{T_{g}}{2}\right\rfloor+1} \geq \ldots \geq n(g)_{T_{g}} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

For a reduced curve $C_{g}: g=0$, we consider the following invariants

$$
\sigma\left(C_{g}\right)=\min \left\{j: n(g)_{j} \neq 0\right\}=\operatorname{indeg}(N(f)) \text { and } \nu\left(C_{g}\right)=\max \left\{n(g)_{j}\right\}_{j}
$$

The self duality of the graded $S$-module $N(g)$ implies $n(g)_{j}=n(g)_{T_{g}-j}$, for any integer $j$, see [26]. In particular $n(g)_{k}>0$ exactly when $\sigma\left(C_{g}\right) \leq k \leq T_{g}-\sigma\left(C_{g}\right)$.

The form of the minimal graded free resolution for the Milnor algebra $M(g)=S / J_{g}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \oplus_{i=1}^{m-2} S\left(-e_{i}\right) \rightarrow \oplus_{i=1}^{m} S\left(1-e-d_{i}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow S^{3}(1-e) \rightarrow S \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $e_{1} \leq e_{2} \leq \ldots \leq e_{m-2}$ and $1 \leq d_{1}^{\prime} \leq d_{2}^{\prime} \leq \cdots \leq d_{m}^{\prime}$. In this case the curve $C_{g}$ is said to be an m-syzygy curve with exponents $\left(d_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, d_{m}^{\prime}\right)$. The first degree $r_{g}=d_{1}^{\prime}$ is denoted by $\operatorname{mdr}(g)$ and is the minimal degree of a Jacobian relation (syzygy) for $g$. It follows from [20, Lemma 1.1] that one has

$$
e_{j}=e+d_{j+2}^{\prime}-1+\epsilon_{j},
$$

for $j=1, \ldots, m-2$ and some integers $\epsilon_{j} \geq 1$. The minimal resolution of $N(g)$ obtained from (2.2), by [20, Proposition 1.3], is

$$
0 \rightarrow \oplus_{i=1}^{m-2} S\left(-e_{i}\right) \rightarrow \oplus_{i=1}^{m} S\left(-\ell_{i}\right) \rightarrow \oplus_{i=1}^{m} S\left(d_{i}^{\prime}-2(e-1)\right) \rightarrow \oplus_{i=1}^{m-2} S\left(e_{i}-3(e-1)\right)
$$

where $\ell_{i}=e+d_{i}^{\prime}-1$. It follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma\left(C_{g}\right)=3(e-1)-e_{m-2}=2(e-1)-d_{m}^{\prime}-\epsilon_{m-2} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The following are important special cases, see $[1,11,12]$. Here $\tau\left(C_{g}\right)$ is the total Tjurina number of the curve $C_{g}$, which is the same as the degree of the Jacobian ideal $J_{g}$.
(1) $C_{g}$ is a free curve if and only if $m=2$ and $d_{1}^{\prime}+d_{2}^{\prime}=e-1$. In this case $\nu\left(C_{g}\right)=0$ and $N(g)=0$. The degrees $\left(d_{1}^{\prime}, d_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ are the exponents of the free curve $C_{g}$. Moreover, a reduced curve $C_{g}$ is free if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau\left(C_{g}\right)=(e-1)^{2}-r_{g}\left(e-r_{g}-1\right) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

see $[7,17]$.
(2) $C_{g}$ is a nearly free curve if and only if $m=3$ and $d_{1}^{\prime}+d_{2}^{\prime}=e, d_{3}^{\prime}=d_{2}^{\prime}$. In this case $\nu\left(C_{g}\right)=1$ and $\sigma\left(C_{g}\right)=e+d_{1}^{\prime}-3$. The degrees $\left(d_{1}^{\prime}, d_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ are the exponents of the nearly free curve $C_{g}$. Moreover, $C_{g}$ is nearly free if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau\left(C_{g}\right)=(e-1)^{2}-r_{g}\left(e-r_{g}-1\right)-1 \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

see [7].
(3) $C_{g}$ is a plus one generated curve if and only if $m=3$ and $d_{1}^{\prime}+d_{2}^{\prime}=e, d_{3}^{\prime}>d_{2}^{\prime}$, see [1] for the case $C_{g}$ a line arrangement and [12] for the general case. In this case $\nu\left(C_{g}\right)=d_{3}^{\prime}-d_{2}^{\prime}+1$ and $\sigma\left(C_{g}\right)=2 e-d_{3}^{\prime}-3$.

## 3. Adding a line to a reduced curve

Consider a reduced plane curve $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ of degree $d_{1}$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ such that $\operatorname{mdr}\left(f_{1}\right)=r_{1}$. Let $L$ be a line in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, which is not an irreducible component of $C_{1}$ and consider the curve $C=C_{1} \cup L: f=0$. Then $C$ has degree $d=d_{1}+1$, and we denote $r=m d r(f)$. In this section we analyze the relation between $r$ and $r_{1}$, starting with the following result.

Proposition 3.1. With the above notation, one has $r_{1} \leq r \leq r_{1}+1$.
Proof. Choose a coordinate system on $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ such that the line $L$ is given by $z=0$, and hence $f=z f_{1}$. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
a f_{x}+b f_{y}+c f_{z}=0 \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

be a Jacobian syzygy of minimal degree $r$ for $f$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{1} f_{1 x}+b_{1} f_{1 y}+c_{1} f_{1 z}=0 \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

a Jacobian syzygy of minimal degree $r_{1}$ for $f_{1}$. Note that one has

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{x}=z f_{1 x}, f_{y}=z f_{1 y} \text { and } f_{z}=z f_{1 z}+f_{1}=\frac{1}{d_{1}} x f_{1 x}+\frac{1}{d_{1}} y f_{1 y}+\frac{d}{d_{1}} z f_{1 z} . \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using (3.1) we get

$$
a z f_{1 x}+b z f_{1 y}+c\left(z f_{1 z}+f_{1}\right)=0
$$

and hence the polynomial $c$ is divisible by $z$, so we can write $c=z c^{\prime}$. Indeed, note that $f_{1}$ is not divisible by $z$ by our assumptions. With this notation, and using (3.3), we get after division by $z$ the following equation.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(a+\frac{1}{d_{1}} c^{\prime} x\right) f_{1 x}+\left(b+\frac{1}{d_{1}} c^{\prime} y\right) f_{1 y}+\frac{d}{d_{1}} c^{\prime} z f_{1 z}=0 . \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

This implies $r_{1} \leq r$. Similarly, using (3.2) and (3.3) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(d_{1} a_{1} z-c_{1} x\right) f_{x}+\left(d_{1} b_{1} z-c_{1} y\right) f_{y}+c_{1} d_{1} z f_{z}=0 \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that this is a non trivial syzygy, namely one cannot have

$$
d_{1} a_{1} z-c_{1} x=d_{1} b_{1} z-c_{1} y=c_{1} d_{1} z=0
$$

This implies $r \leq r_{1}+1$.
Remark 3.2. With the above notation, if $z$ divides $c_{1}$, the coefficient of $f_{1 z}$ in (3.2), then all the coefficients in (3.5) are divisible by $z$, and hence after simplification by $z$ we get $r=r_{1}$ in this case. When $\operatorname{dim} D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}}>1$, there is a choice of the syzygy (3.2) within a linear system, and some choices may be better than others, i.e. for the good ones $z$ divides $c_{1}$, see Example 4.4 below for such a situation.

To say more about the value of $r$, it is convenient to look not only at a single line $L$, but at all the lines in a pencil. The pencil we consider is formed by all the lines in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ passing through a point $p \in \mathbb{P}^{2}$, which may or may not be on the curve $C_{1}$. We choose a coordinate system on $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ such that $p=(1: 0: 0)$, hence a line in the pencil has the equation $L_{u}: s y+t z=0$ for some $u=(s: t) \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$. Assume that (3.1) and (3.2) are minimal degree Jacobian syzygies for $f=(s y+t z) f_{1}$ and respectively for $f_{1}$, with respect to this coordinate system. Note that the coefficients $a_{1}, b_{1}, c_{1}$ are known and independent of $u$, since they depend only on $C_{1}$ and the choice of the coordinate system. Let

$$
r=d_{1}^{\prime}(f) \leq d_{2}^{\prime}(f) \leq \cdots \leq d_{m}^{\prime}(f)
$$

be the degrees of a minimal set of generators for $A R(f)$ coming from the resolution (2.2) of the Milnor algebra $M(f)$, which depend in general on $u$, see Example 4.2 below. Elementary computations similar to those done above yield the following syzygy

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{u} f_{x}+B_{u} f_{y}+C_{u} f_{z}=0 \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A_{u}=d(s y+t z) a_{1}-x\left(s b_{1}+t c_{1}\right), B_{u}=d(s y+t z) b_{1}-y\left(s b_{1}+t c_{1}\right)$ and finally $C_{u}=d(s y+t z) c_{1}-z\left(s b_{1}+t c_{1}\right)$. Using this syzygy, we can prove the following result.

Theorem 3.3. With the above notation, if $s y+t z$ is a factor of $s b_{1}+t c_{1}$, then $r=r_{1}$. If $s y+t z$ is not a factor of $s b_{1}+t c_{1}$, then either
(1) $r=r_{1}+1$, or
(2) $r=r_{1}$ and $d_{2}^{\prime}(f) \leq r+1$.

Moreover, the case (2) is impossible when $2 r_{1}<d_{1}-1$, or when $2 r_{1}=d_{1}-1$ and $C$ is not free.

Proof. The first claim is obvious. Indeed, when $s y+t z$ is a factor of $s b_{1}+t c_{1}$, the coefficients $A_{u}, B_{u}$ and $C_{u}$ can be divided by $s y+t z$, and the syzygy (3.6) yields a syzygy of degree $r_{1}$. Since $r \geq r_{1}$ by Proposition 3.1, we get $r=r_{1}$. Assume now that $s y+t z$ is not a factor of $s b_{1}+t c_{1}$. Then we claim that the syzygy (3.6) is primitive, i.e. it is not a multiple of a syzygy of strictly lower degree. In other words, we have to show that $A_{u}, B_{u}$ and $C_{u}$ have no common factor in this case. Note that $y A_{u}-x B_{u}=d(s y+t z)\left(y a_{1}-x b_{1}\right)$, $z A_{u}-x C_{u}=d(s y+t z)\left(z a_{1}-x c_{1}\right)$ and $z B_{u}-y C_{u}=d(s y+t z)\left(z b_{1}-y c_{1}^{\prime}\right.$. Let $D$ be a common irreducible factor of $A_{u}, B_{u}$ and $C_{u}$, supposed to be a homogeneous polynomial of degree $>0$. It is clear that $D$ cannot be $s y+t z$, since $s y+t z$ is not a factor of $s b_{1}+t c_{1}$. Hence $D$ has to divide the polynomials $m_{12}=y a_{1}-x b_{1}, m_{13}=z a_{1}-x c_{1}$ and $m_{23}=z b_{1}-y c_{1}$. Recall now the construction of the Bourbaki ideal $B\left(C_{1}, \rho_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ associated to the curve $C_{1}$ and to the minimal degree syzygy $\rho_{1}^{\prime}$ given by (3.2), as described in [13, Section 5]. It follows that the Bourbaki ideal $B\left(C_{1}, \rho_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ is contained in the principal ideal generated by $D$. This is a contradiction, since the Bourbaki ideal $B\left(C_{1}, \rho_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ defines a subscheme which is either empty (when $C_{1}$ is a free curve), or zero-dimensional, see [13, Theorem 5.1].

Therefore the syzygy (3.6) is indeed primitive. It follows that either $r=r_{1}+1$, or $r=r_{1}$ and $d_{2}(f) \leq r+1$. Note that in this latter case we have

$$
d_{1}=d-1 \leq d_{1}^{\prime}(f)+d_{2}^{\prime}(f) \leq r_{1}+r_{1}+1=2 r_{1}+1 .
$$

Indeed, recall that $d-1=d_{1}^{\prime}(f)+d_{2}^{\prime}(f)$ exactly when $C$ is free, and $d-1<d_{1}^{\prime}(f)+d_{2}^{\prime}(f)$ otherwise, see for instance [27].

Proposition 3.4. With the notation from Theorem 3.3, we have the following equivalent properties.
(1) $s y+t z$ is a factor of $s b_{1}+t c_{1}$ for infinitely many $u=(s: t) \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$;
(2) $s y+t z$ is a factor of $s b_{1}+t c_{1}$ for all $u=(s: t) \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$;
(3) the reduced curve $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ is the union of the curve $h=0$ with a pencil of lines $g=0$ passing through the point $p=(1: 0: 0)$.

Proof. The fact that (2) implies (1) is clear. First we show that (1) implies (3). Note that $s y+t z$ is a factor of $s b_{1}+t c_{1}$ for infinitely many $u=(s: t) \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$ if and only if there is a polynomial $h$ of degree $r_{1}-1$ such that $b_{1}=y h$ and $c_{1}=z h$. Replacing these values in (3.2) we conclude that $f_{1 x}$ is divisible by $h$, say $f_{1 x}=h g$, with $\operatorname{deg} g=d_{1}-r_{1} \geq 1$. If we divide the syzygy (3.2) by $h$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{1} g+y f_{1 y}+z f_{1 z}=0 \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

or, equivalently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{1} g+d_{1} f_{1}-x f_{1 x}=0 \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows that $g$ is a common factor of $f_{1}$ and $f_{1 x}$. To conclude the proof of the implication $(1) \Longrightarrow(3)$ we use the following result, communicated to us by Laurent Busé.

Lemma 3.5. With the above notation, assume that $g=G . C . D .\left(f_{1}, f_{1 x}\right)$ has degree $\geq 1$. Then $g$ is a homogeneous polynomial in $y$ and $z$ only, and

$$
f_{1}(x, y, z)=g(y, z) h(x, y, z)
$$

for some homogeneous polynomial $h \in S$. In geometric terms, the reduced curve $C_{1}$ : $f_{1}=0$ is the union of the curve $h=0$ with a pencil of lines $g=0$ passing through the point $p=(1: 0: 0)$.

Proof. Let $A$ be an irreducible common factor of $f_{1}$ and $f_{1 x}$, such that $f_{1}=A U$ for $U \in S$. This implies $f_{1 x}=A_{x} U+A U_{x}$, and hence, if $A_{x} \neq 0$, then $A$ has to divide $U$. Indeed, $A$ cannot divide $A_{x}$ since $\operatorname{deg} A_{x}<\operatorname{deg} A$. But this contradicts the fact that $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ is a reduced curve. Hence $A_{x}=0$, in other words $A$ is a homogeneous polynomial in $y$ and $z$ only. Since $g$ is a product of such polynomials, the claim is proved.

Finally we show that (3) implies (2). Assume that $g=G . C . D .\left(f_{1}, f_{1 x}\right)$ has degree $\geq 1$, then one can define $a_{1}$ using the above equation (3.8). Then, if we multiply the equation (3.7) by $h=f_{1 x} g^{-1}$, we get a primitive syzygy of the form (3.2), where $b_{1}=y h$ and $c_{1}=z h$.

## 4. Examples

Example 4.1. Assume $C_{1}$ is an irreducible nodal curve and $L_{u}: s y+t z=0$ is a line such that $C=C_{1} \cup L_{u}$ is nodal. Then it is known that $r_{1}=d_{1}-1$ and $r=d-2=d_{1}-1$, see $[10,18]$. Note that one has in this case $d_{2}(f)=r+1$, see [10, Theorem 4.1]. Hence the case (2) of Theorem 3.3 might occur.

Example 4.2. Consider the rational cuspidal curve $C_{1}: f_{1}=x y^{d_{1}-1}+z^{d_{1}}=0, d_{1} \geq 3$, which is nearly free, and $L_{u}: s y+t z=0$ a line passing through the singular point $p=(1: 0: 0)$. Then the syzygy (3.2) becomes

$$
\left(d_{1}-1\right) x f_{1 x}-y f_{1 y}=0
$$

Hence $s b_{1}+t c_{1}=-s y$ is divisible by $s y+t z$ only for $(s: t)=(1: 0)$ and for $(s: t)=$ ( $0: 1$ ), and we get in these cases $r=r_{1}=1$ using Theorem 3.3 as we see now. The curve $C^{\prime}: f=x y^{d_{1}}+y z^{d_{1}}=0$ corresponding to $(s: t)=(1: 0)$ is free, the two generating syzygies being

$$
\left(d_{1}\right)^{2} x f_{x}-d_{1} y f_{y}+z f_{z}=0
$$

and

$$
d_{1} z^{d_{1}-1} f_{x}-y^{d_{1}-1} f_{z}=0
$$

satisfying $d_{1}^{\prime}(f)+d_{2}^{\prime}(f)=1+\left(d_{1}-1\right)=d-1$. The curve $C^{\prime \prime}: f=x y^{d_{1}-1} z+z^{d_{1}+1}=0$ corresponding to $(s: t)=(0: 1)$, is nearly free with exponents $d_{1}^{\prime}(f)=1, d_{2}^{\prime}(f)=$ $d_{3}^{\prime}(f)=d-1$. Indeed, note that the curve $C^{\prime \prime}$ has two singularities, namely $p=(1: 0: 0)$ and $q=(0: 1: 0)$. The singularity at $q$ is a simple node $A_{1}$, and the singularity at $p$ is given in local coordinates $y^{\prime}=y / x$ and $z^{\prime}=z / x$ by $\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{d_{1}-1} z^{\prime}+\left(z^{\prime}\right)^{d_{1}+1}=0$. This is a quasi homogeneous singularity, with weights $w t\left(z^{\prime}\right)=d^{-1}$ and $w t\left(y^{\prime}\right)=d_{1}\left[\left(d_{1}-1\right) d\right]^{-1}$. It follows that

$$
\tau\left(C^{\prime \prime}, p\right)=\mu\left(C^{\prime \prime}, p\right)=d^{2}-3 d+1
$$

and hence the total Tjurina number of $C^{\prime \prime}$ is given by

$$
\tau\left(C^{\prime \prime}\right)=\tau\left(C^{\prime \prime}, q\right)+\tau\left(C^{\prime \prime}, p\right)=d^{2}-3 d+2
$$

The fact that $C^{\prime \prime}$ is nearly free follows now from (2.5).
For $d_{1} \geq 4$ and for $L_{u}: y+z=0$, we have $r=r^{\prime}+1=2$ by Theorem 3.3, since $2 r_{1}<d_{1}-1$ in this case. The corresponding curves $C_{u}$ are again nearly free, but this time with exponents $d_{1}^{\prime}(f)=2, d_{2}^{\prime}(f)=d_{3}^{\prime}(f)=d-2$. To see this, one notes that a curve $C_{u}$ in this family has two singularities, a node and a semi quasi homogeneous singularity $\left(C_{u}, p\right): g\left(y^{\prime}, z^{\prime}\right)=g_{0}\left(y^{\prime}, z^{\prime}\right)+g_{+}\left(y^{\prime}, z^{\prime}\right)=0$, where $g_{0}$ is quasi homogeneous and $g_{+}\left(y^{\prime}, z^{\prime}\right)$ is the sum of two monomials of strictly higher degree. Working in the Milnor algebra $M\left(g_{0}\right)$, we see that the Tjurina algebra of $g$ is isomorphic to the quotient $M\left(g_{0}\right) /\left(y^{d_{1}}\right)$. This implies that

$$
\mu\left(C_{u}, p\right)=\left(d_{1}\right)^{2}-d_{1}-1 \text { and } \tau\left(C_{u}, p\right)=\left(d_{1}-1\right)^{2}+1
$$

It follows that $\tau\left(C_{u}\right)=\left(d_{1}-1\right)^{2}+2=(d-2)^{2}+2=(d-1)^{2}-2(d-3)-1$, showing that $C_{u}$ is nearly free by (2.5).

Example 4.3. Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=\left(y^{2}-2 x y+z^{2}\right)\left(y^{2}+4 x y+z^{2}\right)=0$, be the union of two smooth conics tangent at one point $p=(1: 0: 0)$ and meeting transversely at $q_{ \pm}=(0: 1: \pm i)$. Then using Singular we see that $r_{1}=2$ and a minimal degree derivation is given by

$$
\partial^{\prime}=x z \partial_{x}-y z \partial_{y}+y^{2} \partial_{z} .
$$

Then the equation $s y+t z$ of a line $L$ passing through the tangency point $p$ divides

$$
s b_{1}+t c_{1}=y(t y-s z)
$$

if and only if either $(s: t)=(1: 0)$ or $(s: t)=(1: \pm i)$.
The case $(s: t)=(1: 0)$ corresponds to a common tangent $y=0$ to the two conics at $p$. Using Singular, we see that the corresponding curve

$$
C: f=y f_{1}=y\left(y^{2}-2 x y+z^{2}\right)\left(y^{2}+4 x y+z^{2}\right)=0
$$

is free with exponents $(2,2)$, in particular $r=2=r_{1}$ as predicted by Theorem 3.3.
The case $(s: t)=(1: \pm i)$ corresponds to a line joining the tangency point $p$ to one of the two nodes $q_{ \pm}$of $C_{1}$. Using Singular, we see that the corresponding curve

$$
C: f=(y \pm i z) f_{1}=(y \pm i z)\left(y^{2}-2 x y+z^{2}\right)\left(y^{2}+4 x y+z^{2}\right)=0
$$

is nearly free with exponents $(2,3)$, in particular, again $r=2=r_{1}$ as predicted by Theorem 3.3.

Finally, to see what happens when $s y+t z$ does not divide $s b_{1}+t c_{1}=y(t y-s z)$, namely when the line through $p$ is general, we consider the special case $(s: t)=(1: 1)$. Using Singular, we see that the corresponding curve

$$
C: f=(y+z) f_{1}=(y+z)\left(y^{2}-2 x y+z^{2}\right)\left(y^{2}+4 x y+z^{2}\right)=0
$$

is a maximal Tjurina curve of type $(d, r)=(5,3)$, see [14] for the definition and the properties of such curves, and in particular $C$ has exponents $(3,3,3,3)$. Hence $r=3=$ $r_{1}+1$. Note that we can show that for any line $L: s y+t z=0$ with $t \neq 0$, the singularity of $C$ at $p$ is of type $D_{6}$. Indeed, it follows easily that this singularity is semi weighted homogeneous of type $(2,1 ; 5)$, where $w t(y)=2$ and $w t(z)=1$. The claim follows using [6, Corollary (7.39)]. In particular, when $s y+t z$ does not divide $s b_{1}+t c_{1}=y(t y-s z)$, we always have $\tau(C)=10$, since there are 4 nodes $A_{1}$ on $C$ in addition to the $D_{6}$ singularity.

Example 4.4. Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=\left(y^{2}-x z\right)^{2}+y^{2} z^{2}+z^{4}=0$ be the curve considered in [12, Example 4.1]. This curve is plus one generated with exponents $\left(d_{1}^{\prime}, d_{2}^{\prime}, d_{3}^{\prime}\right)=(2,2,3)$, in particular $\operatorname{dim} D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{2}=2$. If we choose the right element in $D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{2}$, namely

$$
\partial^{\prime}=(2 x y+3 y z) \partial_{x}+\left(x z+2 z^{2}\right) \partial_{y}-y z \partial_{z}
$$

then $z$ divides the coefficient of $\partial_{z}$, and it follows that $r=r_{1}=2$ by Theorem 3.3.

## 5. The general case: the union of two curves

Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ and $C_{2}: f_{2}=0$ be two reduced curves in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, without common irreducible components. We denote $d_{j}=\operatorname{deg} f_{j}$ and $r_{j}=m d r\left(f_{j}\right)$ for $j=1,2$. Consider now the union of the two curves $C: f=f_{1} f_{2}=0$, and let $d=d_{1}+d_{2}=\operatorname{deg} f$ and $r=m d r(f)$.

Theorem 5.1. With the above notation, one has the following.
(1) If $\delta_{1} \in D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)$, then

$$
\delta=f_{2} \delta_{1}-\frac{\delta_{1}\left(f_{2}\right)}{d} E \in D_{0}(f)
$$

where $E=x \partial_{x}+y \partial_{y}+z \partial_{z}$ denotes the Euler derivation. In particular

$$
r \leq \min \left\{r_{1}+d_{2}, r_{2}+d_{1}\right\} .
$$

(2) $D_{0}(f) \subset D\left(f_{1}\right) \cap D\left(f_{2}\right)$. More precisely, for $\delta \neq 0$, one has $\delta \in D_{0}(f)$ if and only if $\delta$ can be written in a unique way in the form

$$
\delta=\frac{h}{d_{1}} E+\delta_{1}=-\frac{h}{d_{2}} E+\delta_{2},
$$

where $h \in S$ and $\delta_{j} \in D_{0}\left(f_{j}\right)$ are non-zero derivations. In particular

$$
r \geq \max \left\{r_{1}, r_{2}\right\}
$$

Proof. To prove (1), first we check that $\delta(f)=0$. Then we note that $\delta \neq 0$ if $\delta_{1} \neq 0$. Indeed, if $\delta_{1}\left(f_{2}\right)=0$, then clearly $\delta=f_{2} \delta_{1} \neq 0$. When $\delta_{1}\left(f_{2}\right) \neq 0$, note that

$$
\delta\left(f_{1}\right)=\frac{d_{1} f_{1} \delta_{1}\left(f_{2}\right)}{d} \neq 0
$$

The last claim follows by noting that if $\delta_{1}$ is a homogeneous derivation then also $\delta$ is a homogeneous derivation. Moreover, the roles played by $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are symmetric.

To prove (2), start with $\delta \in D_{0}(f)$ and hence

$$
\delta(f)=f_{2} \delta\left(f_{1}\right)+f_{1} \delta\left(f_{2}\right)=0
$$

If $\delta\left(f_{1}\right)=0$, then $\delta\left(f_{2}\right)=0$ and hence $\delta \in D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right) \cap D_{0}\left(f_{2}\right)$. If $\delta\left(f_{1}\right) \neq 0$, then $f_{2}$ divides the product $f_{1} \delta\left(f_{2}\right)$. Since $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ have no common factor by our assumptions, it follows that $f_{2}$ divides $\delta\left(f_{2}\right)$, hence $\delta \in D\left(f_{2}\right)$. This is possible only if $\delta \in D\left(f_{1}\right)$ as well. It follows that we can write $\delta \in D_{0}(f)$ in the form

$$
\delta=h_{j} E+\delta_{j}
$$

where $h_{j} \in S$ and $\delta_{j} \in D_{0}\left(f_{j}\right)$. Clearly $\delta_{j} \neq 0$, since otherwise $\delta(f) \neq 0$. Then $\delta\left(f_{1}\right)=$ $d_{1} h_{1} f_{1}$ and $\delta\left(f_{2}\right)=d_{2} h_{2} f_{2}$. It follows that

$$
0=\delta(f)=\delta\left(f_{1}\right) f_{2}+f_{1} \delta\left(f_{2}\right)=f_{1} f_{2}\left(d_{1} h_{1}+d_{2} h_{2}\right)
$$

Then one implication in the claim follows by taking $h=d_{1} h_{1}=-d_{2} h_{2}$. The other implication is obvious.

Remark 5.2. The inequality $r \geq \max \left\{r_{1}, r_{2}\right\}$ was already noticed in [4, Proposition 3.2. (ii)], where the $S$-module $D_{0}(g)=A R(g)$ is denoted by $\operatorname{Syz}\left(J_{g}\right)$ and $m d r(g)$ is denoted by $\operatorname{indeg}\left(\operatorname{Syz}\left(J_{g}\right)\right)$. Note also that in [4] one works over the polynomial ring in $n$-variables with coefficients in an arbitrary infinite field. The corresponding result for a product $f=f_{1} f_{2} \cdot \ldots \cdot f_{m}$ of $m \geq 2$ forms in $n$-variables is considered in [4, Proposition 3.5]. Interesting information on the invariant $\operatorname{indeg}\left(\operatorname{Syz}\left(J_{f}\right)\right)$ when $C: f=0$ is the union of several smooth plane curves meeting transversally is given in [28, Proposition 3.6].

Corollary 5.3. With the above notations, $r=m d r(f)$ is the minimal integer $s$ such that either $D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{s} \cap D_{0}\left(f_{2}\right)_{s} \neq 0$, or $D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{s}+D_{0}\left(f_{2}\right)_{s}$ contains a non-zero multiple of the Euler derivation $E$.

Proof. The first case corresponds to $h=0$ in Theorem 5.1 (2), while the second case corresponds to $h \neq 0$.

Example 5.4. Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}=0$ and $C_{2}: f_{1}=x^{2}+y^{2}-4 z^{2}=0$ be two smooth conics with 2 tacnodes as in Proposition 5.5 (3). Hence $d_{1}=d_{2}=2, r_{1}=r_{2}=1$. Note that $y \partial_{x}-x \partial_{y} \in D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{1} \cap D_{0}\left(f_{2}\right)_{1}$. Therefore, according to Corollary 5.3 we have $r=1$, see also Proposition 5.5, (3).

Consider next the case $C_{1}: f_{1}=x y z=0$ and $C_{2}: f_{2}=x y+y z+x z=0$. Then $C_{2}$ is a smooth conic circumscribed in the triangle $C_{1}$. Using Singular, we see that $r=2$ and $D_{0}(f)_{2}$ is spanned by

$$
\delta=2 x(y-z) \partial_{x}-y(3 y+2 z) \partial_{y}+z(2 y+3 z) \partial_{z}
$$

and

$$
\delta^{\prime}=x(3 x+4 y-2 z) \partial_{x}-y(2 x+6 y+2 z) \partial_{y}+z(-2 x+4 y+3 z) \partial_{z}
$$

Then $\delta\left(f_{1}\right)=x y z(y+3 z)=d_{2} h_{2} f_{1}$, which implies $h=-d_{2} h_{2}=-(y+3 z)$. Similarly $\delta^{\prime}\left(f_{1}\right)=x y z(-x+2 y-z)=d_{2} h_{2} f_{1}$, which implies that in this case $h=-d_{2} h_{2}=$ $x-2 y+z$. It follows that in this case $D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{2} \cap D_{0}\left(f_{2}\right)_{2}=0$. Therefore, both situations may occur in Corollary 5.3. The fact that $r=2$ in this case is discussed from another
view-point, without the use of Singular, in Example 6.12. The curve $C$ has three $D_{4}$ singularities and hence $\tau(C)=12$. Using the characterization of free curves in (2.4), it follows that $C$ is a free curve.

Let $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ be smooth conics, hence $d_{1}=d_{2}=2$ and $r_{1}=r_{2}=1$. For $C=C_{1} \cup C_{2}$, Theorem 5.1 gives us $1 \leq r \leq 3$. We have the following precise result.

Proposition 5.5. The two conics $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ can be in one of the following four situations.
(1) $\left|C_{1} \cap C_{2}\right|=4$, and then all the intersection points are nodes for $C$. In this case $r=2$.
(2) $\left|C_{1} \cap C_{2}\right|=3$, and then one intersection point is a tacnode and the other two intersection points are nodes for $C$. In this case $r=2$.
(3) $\left|C_{1} \cap C_{2}\right|=2$. Then the two intersection points are either two tacnodes for $C$, and in this case $r=1$ and the curve $C$ is nearly free with exponents $(1,3)$, or a node $A_{1}$ and a singularity $A_{5}$ for $C$, and in this case $r=2$ and the curve $C$ is nearly free with exponents $(2,2)$.
(4) $\left|C_{1} \cap C_{2}\right|=1$, and then the intersection point is a singularity $A_{7}$ for $C, r=1$ and $C$ is a free curve.

Computations with Singular suggest that in case (1) the curve $C=C_{1} \cup C_{2}$ is a 4 -syzygy curve with exponents ( $2,3,3,3$ ), and in case (2) the curve $C=C_{1} \cup C_{2}$ is a plus one generated curve with exponents $(2,2,3)$.

Proof. The claim (1) follows from [10, Theorem 4.1]. For the claim (2) we use the inequalities involving $r$ and the Tjurina number $\tau(C)$ due to du Plessis and Wall, see [17]. In case (2) we have $\tau(C)=5$. We know that

$$
5=\tau(C) \geq(d-1)(d-1-r)=3(3-r)
$$

This implies $r \geq 2$. For $r=3$ we also have

$$
5=\tau(C) \leq(d-1)(d-1-r)+r^{2}-\binom{2 r-d+2}{2}=3
$$

a contradiction. So the only possibility is $r=2$. In case (3), when the contact between $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ consists of two tacnodes, using the results in [22], we see that a pair of conics in this situation is projectively equivalent to a pair of conics of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{1}: f_{1}=x^{2}-y^{2}-z^{2}=0 \text { and } C_{2}: f_{1}=x^{2}-y^{2}-k z^{2}=0, \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $k \in \mathbb{C}^{*}, k \neq 0$. We have $\tau(C)=6$, and the same approach as in Example 5.4 gives $r=1$ in this case. Since we have $\tau(C)=6$ in this case, the equality

$$
\tau(C)=(d-1)(d-1-r)+r^{2}-1
$$

holds, and it follows from (2.5) that $C$ is nearly free. Assume now that the smooth conics $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ have a contact of type $A_{5}$ at $(0: 0: 1)$. Choosing the coordinates, we may assume that $C_{1}: f_{1}=y z-x^{2}=0$. Then it is easy to see that the other conic has an equation of the form $C_{2}=f_{2}=y z-x^{2}+a \cdot x y+b \cdot y^{2}=0$ for some $a \in \mathbb{C}^{*}$ and $b \in \mathbb{C}$. Since $\tau(C)=6$, we get as above $r \leq 2$. To show that $r>1$ one can use Theorem 5.1 $(2)$, since we have a simple description of $D\left(f_{1}\right)_{1}$. We see that $\delta_{1}\left(f_{2}\right) \notin \mathbb{C} \cdot f_{2}$, for any $\delta_{1} \in D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{1}$. It follows that $r=2$ and we get the nearly freeness of $C$ as above.

In the case (4), it follows from [3, Proposition 1.3], that the equations of the two conics can be chosen as follows

$$
C_{1}: f_{1}=x(x+y)+y z-a \cdot y^{2}=0 \text { and } C_{2}: f_{2}=x(x+y)+y z+a \cdot y^{2}=0
$$

for some $a \in \mathbb{C}^{*}$. It follows that $\left(f_{1}\right)_{x}=\left(f_{2}\right)_{x},\left(f_{1}\right)_{z}=\left(f_{2}\right)_{z}, \delta=\left(f_{1}\right)_{z} \partial_{x}-\left(f_{1}\right)_{x} \partial_{z} \in$ $D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{1} \cap D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{1} \neq 0$, and hence $r=1$. Moreover, the freeness of $C$ follows from [7,17].

Example 5.6. Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right)\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-4 z^{2}\right)=0$ be the union of two smooth conics with 2 tacnodes as in Proposition 5.5 (3). Hence $d_{1}=4, r_{1}=1$. Let $C_{2}: f_{2}=(x-z)\left(3 y^{2}-(x+2 z)^{2}\right)=0$ be the union of 3 lines, forming a triangle which is inscribed in the conic $C_{2}$ and circumscribed to the conic $C_{1}$. Then $d_{2}=3, r_{2}=1$. For $C=C_{1} \cup C_{2}$, Theorem 5.1 gives us $1 \leq r \leq 3$. Using Singular we see that $r=3$, see also Example 6.13 below for a different approach. In fact, $C$ is a free curve with exponents $(3,3)$ as follows from (2.4), see also [8].

## 6. The case of quasihomogeneous singularities

Consider the sheafification

$$
E_{C}:=\widetilde{A R(f)}=\widetilde{D_{0}(f)}
$$

of the graded $S$-module $A R(f)=D_{0}(f)$, which is a rank two vector bundle on $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, see [26] for details. Moreover, recall that

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{C}=T\langle C\rangle(-1) \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $T\langle C\rangle$ is the sheaf of logarithmic vector fields along $C$ as considered for instance in $[19,21,9]$. One has, for any integer $k$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{0}\left(\mathbb{P}^{2}, E_{C}(k)\right)=D_{0}(f)_{k} \text { and } H^{1}\left(\mathbb{P}^{2}, E_{C}(k)\right)=N(f)_{k+d-1} \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d=\operatorname{deg}(f)$, for which we refer to [26, Proposition 2.1]. Return now to the setting of the previous section, where $C=C_{1} \cup C_{2}$ and $f=f_{1} f_{2}$, and recall the following result, see [25, Theorem 1.6 and Remark 1.8].

Theorem 6.1. With the above notation, assume that $C_{2}$ is an irreducible curve, and that all singularities of $C_{1}, C_{2}$ and $C$ are quasihomogeneous. If $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$ is contained in the smooth part of $C_{2}$, then there is an exact sequence of sheaves on $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ given by

$$
0 \rightarrow E_{C_{1}}\left(1-d_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{f_{2}} E_{C}(1) \rightarrow i_{2 *} \mathcal{F} \rightarrow 0
$$

where $i_{2}: C_{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2}$ is the inclusion and $\mathcal{F}$ a torsion free sheaf on $C_{2}$. Moreover, when $C_{2}$ is smooth, then one has $\mathcal{F}=\mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(-K_{C_{2}}-R\right)$, where $K_{C_{2}}$ is the canonical divisor on $C_{2}$ and $R$ is the reduced scheme of $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$.

For simplicity, in this note we consider only the case $C_{2}$ smooth. If we set

$$
\mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(1)=i_{2}^{*} \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{2}}(1)
$$

then one can write $\mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(1)=\mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(D)$, where the divisor $D$ corresponds to the intersection of a line in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ with the curve $C_{2}$, and hence $\operatorname{deg} D=d_{2}$. With this notation, by tensoring the above exact sequence with $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{2}}(k-1)$, for any integer $k$, we get the exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow E_{C_{1}}\left(k-d_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{f_{2}} E_{C}(k) \rightarrow i_{2 *} \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(-K_{C_{2}}-R+(k-1) D\right) \rightarrow 0 . \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

By taking the corresponding long cohomology sequence and using (6.2), we get the following result.

Theorem 6.2. With the above notation, assume that $C_{2}$ is a smooth curve, and that all singularities of $C_{1}$ and $C$ are quasihomogeneous. Then there is an exact sequence for any integer $k$ given by

$$
\begin{gathered}
0 \rightarrow D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{k-d_{2}} \xrightarrow{\phi_{k}} D_{0}(f)_{k} \rightarrow H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(-K_{C_{2}}-R+(k-1) D\right)\right) \rightarrow \\
\rightarrow N\left(f_{1}\right)_{k-d_{2}+d_{1}-1} \xrightarrow{\psi_{k}} N(f)_{k+d-1} \rightarrow H^{1}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(-K_{C_{2}}-R+(k-1) D\right)\right),
\end{gathered}
$$

where the morphism $\phi_{k}: D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)_{k-d_{2}} \rightarrow D_{0}(f)_{k}$ is given by

$$
\phi_{k}\left(\delta_{1}\right)=f_{2} \delta_{1}-\frac{\delta_{1}\left(f_{2}\right)}{d} E
$$

for $\delta_{1} \in D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)$ and $\psi_{k}$ is induced by the multiplication by $f_{2}^{2}$. In particular, if

$$
(k+2) d_{2}<d_{2}^{2}+|R|
$$

then the morphism $\phi_{k}$ is an isomorphism and $\psi_{k}$ is a monomorphism.

Proof. The exact sequence above is part of the long cohomology exact sequence associated to the exact sequence of sheaves (6.3). It remains to explain the claims about the morphisms $\phi_{k}$ and $\psi_{k}$. Using the identification $D_{0}(g)=D(g) / S E$, valid for any homogeneous polynomial $g \in S$, it is shown in [25] that the morphism $E_{C_{1}}\left(1-d_{2}\right) \rightarrow E_{C}(1)$ is induced by the multiplication by $f_{2}$. In terms of the modules $D_{0}(g)$, this is precisely the mapping $D_{0}\left(f_{1}\right)\left(-d_{2}\right) \rightarrow D_{0}(f)$ given by

$$
\phi: \delta_{1} \mapsto \delta=f_{2} \delta_{1}-\frac{\delta_{1}\left(f_{2}\right)}{d} E
$$

as constructed in Theorem 5.1. To explain the formula for $\psi_{k}$, consider the diagram of graded $S$-modules


Here $\iota$ are the obvious inclusions, $\phi$ is the morphism defined above and its extension to a map $\operatorname{Der}(S)\left(-d_{2}\right)=S^{3}\left(-d_{2}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(S)=S^{3}$ given by the same formula, $\nabla f: S^{3} \rightarrow J_{f}$ is the map $(a, b, c) \mapsto a f_{x}+b f_{y}+c f_{z}$ and similarly for $\nabla f_{1}$, while

$$
f_{2}^{2}: J_{f_{1}}\left(d_{1}-d_{2}-1\right) \rightarrow J_{f}(d-1)
$$

is the multiplication by $f_{2}^{2}$. A simple computation shows that this diagram is commutative. Since $N\left(f_{1}\right)=\widehat{J}_{f_{1}} / J_{f_{1}}$ and $N(f)=\widehat{J}_{f} / J_{f}$, it follows that the morphism $N\left(f_{1}\right)_{k-d_{2}+d_{1}-1} \xrightarrow{\psi_{k}} N(f)_{k+d-1}$ induced by the long cohomology exact sequence, and hence coming from $\phi$, is nothing else but multiplication by $f_{2}^{2}$. The final inequality says that

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(-K_{C_{2}}-R+(k-1) D\right)<0
$$

and so the claim follows from the exact sequence. To see this, recall that

$$
\operatorname{deg} K_{C_{2}}=2 g_{C_{2}}-2=d_{2}^{2}-3 d_{2}
$$

where $g_{C_{2}}$ is the genus of the smooth curve $C_{2}$.

Remark 6.3. The formula for $\psi_{k}$ given in Theorem 6.2 implies the following fact: for any $h \in \widehat{J}_{f_{1}}$, one has $f_{2}^{2} h \in \widehat{J}_{f}$. When $C_{1}$ is a smooth curve, then $\widehat{J}_{f_{1}}=S$ and this situation occurs already in [4, Proposition 3.2. (i)], where $S$ is the polynomial ring in $n$-variables with coefficients in an arbitrary infinite field.

Corollary 6.4. With the above notation, assume that $C_{2}$ is a smooth curve, and that all singularities of $C_{1}$ and $C$ are quasihomogeneous. Let $R$ be the reduced scheme of $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$. If

$$
|R|>\left(r_{1}+1\right) d_{2}
$$

then $r=r_{1}+d_{2}$. This applies in particular when $C_{2}$ is a generic curve and $r_{1} \neq d_{1}-1$.

Proof. The hypothesis $|R|>\left(r_{1}+1\right) d_{2}$ implies that the inequality

$$
(k+2) d_{2}<d_{2}^{2}+|R|
$$

holds for all $k \leq r_{1}+d_{2}-1$. Using Theorem 6.2 and the definition of $r_{1}$, it follows that $D_{0}(f)_{k}=0$ for all $k \leq r_{1}+d_{2}-1$. The exact sequence in Theorem 6.2 also implies that $D_{0}(f)_{r_{1}+d_{2}} \neq 0$, which proves our claim. When $C_{2}$ is a generic curve, then $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$ consists of $d_{1} d_{2}$ nodes for $C$ and the claim is clear.

Example 6.5. Let $C_{1}$ be a reduced curve satisfying $r_{1} \neq d_{1}-1$ and such that all the singularities of $C_{1}$ are quasihomogeneous. Then for any point $p \notin C_{1}$ and any line $C_{2}$ through $p$ such that $C_{2}$ meets transversally $C_{1}$ at smooth points, one has $r=r_{1}+1$. The claim follows from Corollary 6.4, since $d_{2}=1$ and $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$ consists of $d_{1}$ nodes for $C$ in this case. This result should be compared to Theorem 3.3. Moreover, Example 4.1 shows that the restriction $r_{1} \neq d_{1}-1$ is necessary. If we take $p \in C_{1}$, then the condition that $(C, p)$ is quasihomogeneous limits drastically the choices for the line $C_{2}$ passing through $p$. Consider the rational cuspidal curve $C_{1}: f_{1}=x y^{d_{1}-1}+z^{d_{1}}=0$, with $d_{1}>2$. We have seen in Example 4.2 that, if we take $C_{2}$ to be the line through the singular point $p=(1: 0: 0)$ given by $y=0$ or $z=0$, then $(C, p)$ is quasihomogeneous, and $r=r_{1}$ in these two cases. In fact, in these cases $|R|=1$ and Corollary 6.4 does not apply. When $C_{2}$ is given by $s y+t z=0$ with $s t \neq 0$, then the singularity $(C, p)$ is not quasihomogeneous, as we have seen in Example 4.2 for the case $s=t=1$.

Assume from now on that $|R| \leq\left(r_{1}+1\right) d_{2}$, or equivalently $(k+2) d_{2} \geq d_{2}^{2}+|R|$ and set

$$
k_{0}=d_{2}-2+\left\lceil\frac{|R|}{d_{2}}\right\rceil .
$$

To simplify the discussion, we also assume that $C_{2}$ is a smooth rational curve, hence $d_{2} \in\{1,2\}$. It follows that $k_{0}$ is the smallest integer $k$ such that $H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(-K_{C_{2}}-\right.\right.$ $R+(k-1) D)) \neq 0$. If we assume in addition that $C_{1}$ is a free curve, then $N\left(f_{1}\right)=0$ and Theorem 6.2 implies the following.

Corollary 6.6. With the above notation and assumptions, if in addition $C_{1}$ is a free curve and $C_{2}$ is rational, then $|R| \leq\left(r_{1}+1\right) d_{2}$ implies $k_{0} \geq r_{1}$ and

$$
r_{1} \leq r=k_{0} \leq r_{1}+d_{2}-1
$$

In particular, $|R|>\left(r_{1}+1\right) d_{2}-d_{2}^{2}$, that is we have the following cases.
(1) Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ be a free curve and $L$ be a line such that $C_{1}$ and $C_{1} \cup L$ have only quasihomogeneous singularities. Then

$$
\left|C_{1} \cap L\right|>r_{1}=\operatorname{mdr}\left(f_{1}\right)
$$

(2) Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ be a free curve and $Q$ be a smooth conic such that $C_{1}$ and $C_{1} \cup Q$ have only quasihomogeneous singularities. Then

$$
\left|C_{1} \cap Q\right|>2 r_{1}-2, \text { where } r_{1}=\operatorname{mdr}\left(f_{1}\right)
$$

Proof. Note that $r \geq r_{1}$ implies $k_{0} \geq r_{1}$, which yields in particular the last claim.

When $C_{2}$ is a line, then $r=r_{1}$ and $|R|=r_{1}+1$ in these conditions, a known result when $C_{1}$ is a line arrangement, see for instance [2, Theorem 3.6 (2)].

Example 6.7. Consider $C_{1}: x y z(x-y)(y-z)(x-z)=0$, which is free with $d_{1}=6$ and $r_{1}=2$. Let $C_{2}$ be a general conic passing through 2 triple points and 2 double points of $C_{1}$, for instance $C_{2}: x^{2}+z^{2}-x y-y z=0$. Then $d_{2}=2, r_{2}=1$ and $|R|=6$. Corollary 6.6 implies $r=k_{0}=3$. It follows that the curve $C$ is free with exponents $(3,4)$ by $(2.4)$. Indeed, this curve $C$ has 3 nodes, 4 ordinary triple points and 2 ordinary quadruple points, hence $\tau(C)=37$.

The application to the exact sequence (6.3) to study free curves goes back to [25]. Now we show that this sequence gives valuable information even when $C_{1}$ is not a free curve. We start with the case $C_{2}$ is a line, hence we have to decide by Proposition 3.1 or by Theorem 3.3 whether $r=r_{1}$ or $r=r_{1}+1$.

Corollary 6.8. With the above notation, assume that $C_{2}$ is a line and that all singularities of $C_{1}$ and $C$ are quasihomogeneous. Let $R$ be the reduced scheme of $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$. If

$$
|R| \leq r_{1}+1
$$

then there is the following exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow D_{0}(f)_{r_{1}} \rightarrow H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(r_{1}+1-|R|\right)\right) \rightarrow N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-2} \rightarrow N(f)_{r_{1}+d_{2}+d-2} \rightarrow 0
$$

Proof. The proof is as above, using Theorem 6.2 for $k=r_{1}$ and the fact that $H^{1}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(\ell)\right)=0$ if $\ell \geq 0$.

## Corollary 6.9.

(1) Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ be a nearly free curve and $L$ be a line such that $C_{1}$ and $C_{1} \cup L$ have only quasihomogeneous singularities. Then

$$
\left|C_{1} \cap L\right| \geq r_{1}=\operatorname{mdr}\left(f_{1}\right)
$$

(2) Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ be a nearly free curve and $Q$ be a smooth conic such that $C_{1}$ and $C_{1} \cup Q$ have only quasihomogeneous singularities. Then

$$
\left|C_{1} \cap Q\right| \geq 2 r_{1}-1, \text { where } r_{1}=\operatorname{mdr}\left(f_{1}\right)
$$

Proof. The proof is as above, using Theorem 6.2 for $k=r_{1}-1$ and the fact that $\left.\operatorname{dim} H^{( } C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(\ell)\right) \geq 2>\nu\left(C_{1}\right)=1$ if $\ell \geq 1$. For $d_{2}=2$, we use the stronger fact that $\sigma\left(C_{1}\right)=d_{1}+r_{1}-3$.

Example 6.10. Let $C_{1}$ be a nearly free curve having only quasihomogeneous singularities. Let $C_{2}$ be a line such that $|R|=r_{1}$, the minimal possible value, and $C=C_{1} \cup C_{2}$ has again only quasihomogeneous singularities. Then in the exact sequence of Corollary 6.8 we have

$$
\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(r_{1}+1-|R|\right)\right) \geq 2=\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(1)\right)>\operatorname{dim} N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-2}=1
$$

The last equality follows from the equality $\sigma\left(C_{1}\right)=d_{1}+r_{1}-3$, see [11, Corollary 2.17]. This implies $r=r_{1}$ in this situation.

A first explicit example of such a situation is provided by the curves $C_{1}$ discussed in Example 4.2 with the line $C_{2}$ given by $y=0$ or $z=0$, when $r_{1}=1$.

A second example is provided by the quartic with 3 cusps

$$
C_{1}: x^{2} y^{2}+y^{2} z^{2}+x^{2} z^{2}-2 x y z(x+y+z)=0
$$

which is nearly free with $r_{1}=2$, see [11, Example 2.13] and $C_{2}: z=0$, a line joining 2 cusps. The curve $C$ has in this case one cusp $A_{2}$ and two $D_{5}$ singularities, hence has only quasihomogeneous singularities. Since $|R|=2=r_{1}$, the above discussion applies and it follows that $r=r_{1}=2$. Using [7,17], it follows that the obtained quintic curve

$$
C: x^{2} y^{2} z+y^{2} z^{3}+x^{2} z^{3}-2 x y z^{2}(x+y+z)=0
$$

is free with exponents $(2,2)$.

As a third example, consider $C_{1}$ to be the union of two smooth conics tangent to each other in two points, as in Proposition 5.5. Let $C_{2}$ be the line joining these two points. Then $C$ has two $D_{6}$ singularities, $2=|R|>r_{1}=1$. Hence Corollary 6.8 cannot be used to conclude. Note that using the equation (5.1), we see that $y \partial_{x}+x \partial_{y} \in D\left(f_{1}\right)_{1} \cap D\left(f_{2}\right)_{1} \neq 0$, and hence $r=1$. Using [7] it follows that this curve $C$ is nearly free with exponents $(1,4)$.

Here is the version of Corollary 6.8 when $C_{2}$ is a smooth conic. Here we know already that $r_{1} \leq r \leq r_{1}+2$ by Theorem 5.1.

Corollary 6.11. With the above notation, assume that $C_{2}$ is a smooth conic and that all singularities of $C_{1}$ and $C$ are quasihomogeneous. Let $R$ be the reduced scheme of $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$. If

$$
|R| \leq 2\left(r_{1}+1\right)
$$

then there is the following exact sequences.

$$
0 \rightarrow D_{0}(f)_{r_{1}} \rightarrow H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(2 r_{1}-|R|\right)\right) \rightarrow N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-3} \rightarrow N(f)_{r_{1}+d_{2}+d-3}
$$

and
$0 \rightarrow D_{0}(f)_{r_{1}+1} \rightarrow H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(2 r_{1}+2-|R|\right)\right) \rightarrow N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-2} \rightarrow N(f)_{r_{1}+d_{2}+d-2} \rightarrow 0$.
Proof. Use Theorem 6.2 for $k=r_{1}$ and for $k=r_{1}+1$.
Example 6.12. Consider next the case $C_{1}: f_{1}=x y z=0$ and $C_{2}: f_{2}=x y+y z+x z=0$. Then $C_{2}$ is a smooth conic circumscribed in the triangle $C_{1}$, as in the second part of Example 5.4. In this case $r_{1}=1$ and $|R|=3$, hence we can apply Corollary 6.11. The first exact sequence implies that $D_{0}(f)_{1}=0$, and the second exact sequence implies that

$$
\operatorname{dim} D_{0}(f)_{2}=2=\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(1)\right)
$$

since $C_{1}$ is a free curve, and hence $N\left(f_{1}\right)=0$.
Example 6.13. Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=(x-z)\left(3 y^{2}-(x+2 z)^{2}\right)\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-4 z^{2}\right)=0$ be a smooth conic $Q$ circumscribed in a triangle $\Delta$ as in Example 6.12. Let $C_{2}: f_{2}=\left(x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}\right)=0$ be a conic inscribed in the triangle $\Delta$ and tangent to the conic $Q$ in two points. Then $d_{2}=2, r_{2}=1$. In this case $r_{1}=2$ and $|R|=5$, hence we can apply Corollary 6.11. The first exact sequence implies that $D_{0}(f)_{2}=0$, and the second exact sequence implies that

$$
\operatorname{dim} D_{0}(f)_{3}=3=\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(1)\right)
$$

since $C_{1}$ is a free curve, and hence $N\left(f_{1}\right)=0$.

Example 6.14. Let $C_{1}$ be a nearly free curve having only quasihomogeneous singularities. Let $C_{2}$ be a smooth conic such that either $|R| \leq 2 r_{1}-1$ or $|R|=2 r_{1}+1$ and $C=C_{1} \cup C_{2}$ has again only quasihomogeneous singularities. Then, when $|R|=2 r_{1}-1$, we get exactly as in Example 6.10 that $r=r_{1}$. Assume now that $|R|=2 r_{1}+1$. In the first exact sequence of Corollary 6.11 we have

$$
H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(2 r_{1}-|R|\right)\right)=H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(-1)\right)=0
$$

and hence $D_{0}(f)_{r_{1}}=0$. In the second exact sequence of Corollary 6.11 we have

$$
2=\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(2 r_{1}+2-|R|\right)\right)=H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(1)\right)>\operatorname{dim} N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-3}=1
$$

The last equality follows from the equality $\sigma\left(C_{1}\right)=d_{1}+r_{1}-3$, see [11, Corollary 2.17]. This implies $r=r_{1}+1$ in this situation.

To have an explicit example, we consider again the quartic $C_{1}$ with 3 cusps from Example 6.10, and take now $C_{2}$ to be a smooth generic conic passing through the 3 cusps, then the resulting curve $C$ will have $3 D_{5}$ singularities and 2 nodes $A_{1}$. It follows that $|R|=5=2 r_{1}+1$. It follows that in this case $r=r_{1}+1=3$. As an explicit example, one can take

$$
C:(x y+y z+x z)\left(x^{2} y^{2}+y^{2} z^{2}+x^{2} z^{2}-2 x y z(x+y+z)\right)=0
$$

which is a plus one generated curve with exponents $(3,3,4)$.
Example 6.15. Let $C_{1}$ be a nearly free curve having only quasihomogeneous singularities. Let $C_{2}$ be a smooth conic such that $|R|=2 r_{1}+2$. In the first exact sequence of Corollary 6.11 we have

$$
\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(2 r_{1}-|R|\right)\right)=\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(-2)\right)=0
$$

and in the second exact sequence of Corollary 6.11 we have

$$
\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(2 r_{1}+2-|R|\right)\right)=\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\right)=1
$$

If $N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-2}=0$, then we have $r=r_{1}+1$. We consider the following explicit situation. Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=x^{2} y^{2}+z^{4}-x z^{3}-2 x y z^{3}=0$, which has an $A_{4}$-singularity at $p=(0: 1: 0)$ and an $A_{2}$-singularity at $q=(1: 0: 0)$. Then $C_{1}$ is a nearly free curve with $d_{1}=4$ and $r_{1}=2$, see [11, Example 2.13]. Let $C_{2}: x y+y z+x z=0$ be a smooth conic, passing transversely through $p$ and $q$ and meeting $C_{1}$ transversally at another 4 points. It follows that $|R|=2+4=6=2 r_{1}+2$ and $C$ has 4 nodes $A_{1}$, one $D_{5}$ singularity and one $D_{7}$-singularity in all. Note that

$$
\sigma\left(C_{1}\right)=d_{1}+r_{1}-3=T_{f_{1}} / 2=3 .
$$

This implies that $N\left(f_{1}\right)_{4}=0$, exactly what we need to conclude that $r=r_{1}+1=3$.
Example 6.16. We end with an example in order to conclude via Corollary 6.11 we need to analyze the morphism

$$
N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-3} \xrightarrow{f_{2}^{2}} N(f)_{r_{1}+d-1}
$$

Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=\left(x^{2}-2 x z+y^{2}\right)\left(x^{2}+2 x z+y^{2}\right)=0$, hence $C_{1}$ is a pair of smooth conics tangent at one point, as in Proposition 5.5 (2). This curve $C_{1}$ is a plus one generated curve with exponents $(2,2,3)$. Hence $d_{1}=4$ and $r_{1}=2$. Let $C_{2}: x^{2}+y^{2}-4 z^{2}=0$, a circle tangent to each circle in $C_{1}$ at one point and passing through the 2 nodes of $C_{1}$. Hence $C$ has 3 singularities $A_{3}$ and 2 singularities $D_{4}$. It follows that $|R|=4=2 r_{1}$. In the first exact sequence of Corollary 6.11 we have

$$
\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(2 r_{1}-|R|\right)\right)=\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\right)=1
$$

and $\operatorname{dim} N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-3}=2$. More precisely, a basis of $N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-3}$ is given by the monomials $x y z$ and $x z^{2}$. A computation using Singular shows that the kernel of the morphism

$$
N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-3} \xrightarrow{f_{2}^{2}} N(f)_{r_{1}+d-1}
$$

is 1-dimensional, generated by $x y z-x z^{2}$. As a result $D_{0}(f)_{2}=0$. In the second exact sequence of Corollary 6.11 we have

$$
\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(2 r_{1}+2-|R|\right)\right)=\operatorname{dim} H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(2)\right)=3
$$

and $\operatorname{dim} N\left(f_{1}\right)_{r_{1}+d_{1}-2}=1$. Therefore we have $r=r_{1}+1=3$. A computation with Singular shows that $C$ is a plus one generated curve with exponents $(3,3,4)$.
6.17. An application to the jumping lines of the rank 2 vector bundle $E_{C_{1}}$

For a reduced plane curve $C$ and a line $L$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, the pair of integers $\left(d_{1}^{L}(C), d_{2}^{L}(C)\right)$ such that $d_{1}^{L}(C) \leq d_{2}^{L}(C)$ and $\left.E_{C}\right|_{L} \simeq \mathcal{O}_{L}\left(-d_{1}^{L}(C)\right) \oplus \mathcal{O}_{L}\left(-d_{2}^{L}(C)\right)$ is called the (ordered) splitting type of $E_{C}$ along $L$, see for instance [23]. For a generic line $L_{0}$, the corresponding splitting type $\left(d_{1}^{L_{0}}(C), d_{2}^{L_{0}}(C)\right)$ is known to be constant, see [23, Definition 2.2.3 and Lemma 3.2.2]. A line $L$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ is called a jumping line for $E_{C}$ or, equivalently, for $T\langle C\rangle$, if

$$
d_{1}^{L_{0}}(C)-d_{1}^{L}(C)>0
$$

The following result relates the splitting type of $E_{C}$ along a line $L: \alpha_{L}=0$, to the Lefschetz properties of the Jacobian module $N(f)$ with respect to the multiplication by $\alpha_{L}$, see [13, Proposition 4.1].

Proposition 6.18. For any reduced curve $C: f=0$ and any line $L: \alpha_{L}=0$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, we have $d_{1}^{L}(C)=\min \{\operatorname{mdr}(f), k(f, L)\}$, where

$$
k(f, L)=\min \left\{k \in \mathbb{N}: N(f)_{k+d-2} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{L}} N(f)_{k+d-1} \text { is not injective }\right\} .
$$

Using this result, we give now an easy geometric way to check that a line is a jumping line, under some conditions.

Theorem 6.19. Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ be a reduced curve and $C_{2}: f_{2}=0$ be a line in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$. Assume that all the singularities of $C_{1}$ and of $C=C_{1} \cup C_{2}$ are quasihomogeneous, and let $R$ be the reduced scheme of $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$. If $|R|<r_{1}+1$, then for any $k$ satisfying $|R|-1 \leq k<r_{1}$, the morphism

$$
\psi_{k}^{\prime}: N\left(f_{1}\right)_{k+d_{1}-2} \xrightarrow{f_{2}} N\left(f_{1}\right)_{k+d_{1}-1}
$$

is not injective and one has

$$
d_{1}^{C_{2}}\left(C_{1}\right)=k\left(f_{1}, C_{2}\right) \leq|R|-1 .
$$

Moreover, if one of the following two conditions holds
(1) either $2 r_{1}<d_{1}$, or

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 r_{1} \geq d_{1} \text { and }|R|-1<\left\lfloor\frac{d_{1}-1}{2}\right\rfloor \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $C_{2}$ is a jumping line for the rank two vector bundle $E_{C_{1}}$.
Proof. Note that the condition $k \geq|R|-1$ implies that

$$
H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}\left(-K_{C_{2}}-R+(k-1) D\right)\right)=H^{0}\left(C_{2}, \mathcal{O}_{C_{2}}(k+1-|R|)\right) \neq 0
$$

in the exact sequence from Theorem 6.2. On the other hand, the condition $k<r_{1}$ implies that $D_{0}(f)_{k}=0$. Hence, using Theorem 6.2, we see that the morphism

$$
\psi_{k}: N\left(f_{1}\right)_{k+d_{1}-2} \xrightarrow{f_{2}^{2}} N(f)_{k+d_{1}},
$$

is not injective. To prove our claim, it is enough to show that

$$
\operatorname{ker} \psi_{k} \subset \operatorname{ker} \psi_{k}^{\prime}
$$

Let $h \in \operatorname{ker} \psi_{k}$ be (the representative of) some element in this kernel. This means that $f_{2}^{2} h \in J_{f}$, in other words there is a derivation $\delta \in \operatorname{Der}(S)$ such that

$$
f_{2}^{2} h=\delta(f)=f_{2} \delta\left(f_{1}\right)+f_{1} \delta\left(f_{2}\right)
$$

Since $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ have no common factor, this means that $\delta\left(f_{2}\right)$ is divisible by $f_{2}$, say $\delta\left(f_{2}\right)=f_{2} g$ for some $g \in S$. Dividing the above relation by $f_{2}$ we get

$$
f_{2} h=\delta\left(f_{1}\right)+f_{1} g
$$

which implies $f_{2} h \in J_{f_{1}}$. Hence $h \in \operatorname{ker} \psi_{k}^{\prime}$ as we claimed. Now we prove the final claims in Theorem 6.19. Since we know that $\psi_{k}^{\prime}$ is not injective for $|R|-1 \leq k<r_{1}$, it follows by Proposition 6.18 that

$$
d_{1}^{C_{2}}\left(C_{1}\right)=k\left(f_{1}, C_{2}\right) \leq|R|-1
$$

Assume now $2 r_{1}<d_{1}$. First note that the curve $C_{1}$ cannot be a free curve in view of Corollary 6.6 (1) saying that in this case $|R|>r_{1}$. If $C_{1}$ is a nearly free curve, then the exponents $r=d_{1}^{\prime} \leq d_{2}^{\prime}$ verify $d_{1}^{\prime}+d_{2}^{\prime}=d_{1}$, and hence the condition $2 r_{1}<d_{1}$ implies $d_{1}^{\prime}<d_{2}^{\prime}$. Using for instance [13, Example 4.8] we see that in this case $d_{1}^{L_{0}}\left(C_{1}\right)=r_{1}$. The same equality holds for all the other non free reduced plane curves $C_{1}$ satisfying $2 r_{1}<d_{1}$, see [13, Corollary 4.5]. This fact implies that $C_{2}$ is a jumping line for $E_{C_{1}}$ in the case (1). The claim in case (2) follows from [13, Corollary 4.6 and Example 4.8]. Indeed, these results imply that we have

$$
d_{1}^{L_{0}}\left(C_{1}\right)=\left\lfloor\frac{d_{1}-1}{2}\right\rfloor
$$

when $2 r_{1} \geq d_{1}$.
Example 6.20. Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ be a Thom-Sebastiani plane curve, i.e. a curve such that $f_{1}(x, y, z)=g(x, y)+z^{d_{1}}$, where $g$ is a homogeneous polynomial of degree $d_{1}$ in $S^{\prime}=\mathbb{C}[x, y]$. Assume that

$$
g=\ell_{1}^{k_{1}} \cdots \ell_{m}^{k_{m}}
$$

where the linear forms $\ell_{j} \in S^{\prime}$ are distinct and $m \geq 2$. It follows that $C_{1}$ is a 3 -syzygy curve with exponents $r_{1}=d_{1}^{\prime}=m-1$ and $d_{2}^{\prime}=d_{3}^{\prime}=d_{1}-1$ for $m \geq 3$ and $C_{1}$ is nearly free with exponents $r_{1}=d_{1}^{\prime}=1$ and $d_{2}^{\prime}=d_{1}-1$ for $m=2$, see [12, Example 4.5].

Assume first that $2(m-1)<d_{1}$ and take the line $C_{2}$ to be given by one of the factors of $g$, say $C_{2}: f_{2}=\ell_{1}=0$. Then it is easy to check that all the singularities of $C_{1}$ and of $C=C_{1} \cup C_{2}$ are quasihomogeneous. To do this, one can assume that $\ell_{1}=x$ and hence $R$ is the point ( $0: 1: 0$ ). It follows that $|R|=1<r_{1}+1$, and Theorem 6.19 (1) implies that the line $C_{2}$ is a jumping line for $E_{C_{1}}$ and moreover

$$
d_{1}^{C_{2}}\left(C_{1}\right)=k\left(f_{1}, C_{2}\right)=0
$$

Note that the inequality $d_{1}^{C_{2}}\left(C_{1}\right)=k\left(f_{1}, C_{2}\right) \geq 0$ holds in general, see for instance [13, Proposition 2.5].

If we assume now that $2(m-1) \geq d_{1} \geq 3$, then we get the same result using Theorem 6.19 (2). In this way we have found out $m$ jumping lines $\ell_{j}=0$ for $j=1, \ldots, m$ for the vector bundle $E_{C_{1}}$.

Recall that when $C_{1}$ is a free curve, then all the lines $L$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ are not jumping lines for the vector bundle $E_{C_{1}}$. With this in mind, the following result, which is a reformulation of Theorem 6.19, can be regarded as a generalization of Corollary 6.6 (1).

Corollary 6.21. Let $C_{1}: f_{1}=0$ be a reduced curve and $L$ be a line in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, which is not a jumping line for the vector bundle $E_{C_{1}}$. Let $d_{1}=\operatorname{deg}\left(f_{1}\right)$ and $r_{1}=m d r\left(f_{1}\right)$. If all the singularities of $C_{1}$ and of $C_{1} \cup L$ are quasihomogeneous, then

$$
\left|C_{1} \cap L\right|>d_{1}^{L}\left(C_{1}\right)= \begin{cases}r_{1} & \text { if } 2 r_{1}<d_{1} \\ \left\lfloor\frac{d_{1}-1}{2}\right\rfloor & \text { if } 2 r_{1} \geq d_{1}\end{cases}
$$

## Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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