

## UNIVERSAL COUNTING OF LATTICE POINTS IN POLYTOPES

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**Abstract.** Given a lattice polytope  $P$  (with underlying lattice  $\mathbb{L}$ ), the universal counting function  $\mathcal{U}_P(\underline{L}') = |P \cap \mathbb{L}'|$  is defined on all lattices  $\mathbb{L}'$  containing  $\mathbb{L}$ . Motivated by questions concerning lattice polytopes and the Ehrhart polynomial, we study the equation  $\mathcal{U}_P = \mathcal{U}_Q$ .

### 1. THE UNIVERSAL COUNTING FUNCTION

We will denote by  $V$  a vector space of dimension  $n$ , by  $\mathbb{L}$  a lattice in  $V$ , of rank  $n$ . Let

$$\mathcal{G}_{\mathbb{L}} = \mathbb{L} \rtimes GL(\mathbb{L})$$

be the group of affine maps of  $V$  inducing isomorphism of  $V$  and  $\mathbb{L}$  into itself, in case

$$\mathbb{L} = \mathbb{Z}^n \subset V = \mathbb{Q}^n, \quad \mathcal{G}_{\mathbb{L}} = \mathbb{Z}^n \rtimes GL(\mathbb{Z}^n)$$

corresponds to affine unimodular maps. An  $\mathbb{L}$ -polytope is the convex hull of finitely many points from  $\mathbb{L}$ ;  $\mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{L}}$  denotes the set of all  $\mathbb{L}$ -polytopes. For a finite set  $A$  denote by  $|A|$  its cardinality. Finally, let  $\mathcal{M}_{\mathbb{L}}$  be the set of all lattices containing  $\mathbb{L}$ .

*Definition 1.* Given any  $\mathbb{L}$ -polytope  $P$ , the function  $\mathcal{U}_P : \mathcal{M}_{\mathbb{L}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  defined by

$$\mathcal{U}_P(\mathbb{L}') = |P \cap \mathbb{L}'|$$

is called the *universal counting function* of  $P$ .

This is just the restriction of another function  $\mathcal{U} : \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{L}} \times \mathcal{M}_{\mathbb{L}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  to a fixed  $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{L}}$ , where  $\mathcal{U}$  is given by

$$\mathcal{U}(P, \mathbb{L}') = |P \cap \mathbb{L}'|.$$

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Note, further, that  $\mathcal{U}_P$  is invariant under the group,  $\mathcal{G}_P$ , generated by  $\mathbb{L}$ -translations and the reflection with respect to the origin, but, of course, not invariant under  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathbb{L}}$ .

*Example 1.* Take for  $\mathbb{L}'$  the lattices  $\mathbb{L}_k = \frac{1}{k}\mathbb{L}$  with  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then

$$\mathcal{U}_P(\mathbb{L}_k) = \left| P \cap \frac{1}{k}\mathbb{L} \right| = |kP \cap \mathbb{L}| = E_P(k)$$

where  $E_P$  is the Ehrhart polynomial of  $P$  (see [Ehr]). We will need some of its properties that are described in the following theorem (see for instance [Ehr],[GW]). Just one more piece of notation: if  $F$  is a facet of  $P$  and  $H$  is the affine hull of  $F$ , then the relative volume volume of  $F$  is defined as

$$\text{rvol}(F) = \frac{\text{Vol}_{n-1}(F)}{\text{Vol}_{n-1}(D)}$$

where  $D$  is the fundamental parallelepiped of the  $(n-1)$ -dimensional sublattice of  $H \cap \mathbb{L}$ . For a face  $F$  of  $P$  that is at most  $(n-2)$ -dimensional let  $\text{rvol}(F) = 0$ . Note that the relative volume is invariant under  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathbb{L}}$  and can be computed, when  $\mathbb{L} = \mathbb{Z}^n$ , since then the denominator is the euclidean length of the (unique) primitive outer normal to  $F$  (when  $F$  is a facet).

**Theorem 1.** Assume  $P$  is an  $n$ -dimensional  $\mathbb{L}$ -polytope. Then  $E_P$  is a polynomial in  $k$  of degree  $n$ . Its main coefficient is  $\text{Vol}(P)$ , and its second coefficient equals

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{F \text{ a facet of } P} \text{rvol}(F).$$

It is also known that  $E_P$  is a  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathbb{L}}$ -invariant valuation, (for the definitions see [GW] or [McM]). The importance of  $E_P$  is reflected in the following statement from [BK]. For a  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathbb{L}}$ -invariant valuation  $\phi$  from  $\mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{L}}$  to an abelian group  $G$ , there exists a unique  $\gamma = (\gamma_i)_{i=0,\dots,n}$  with  $\gamma_i \in G$  such that

$$\phi(P) = \sum \gamma_i e_{P,i}$$

where  $e_{P,i}$  is the coefficient of  $k^i$  of the Ehrhart polynomial.

It is known that  $E_P$  does not determine  $P$ , even within  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathbb{L}}$  equivalence. [Ka] gives examples of lattice-free  $\mathbb{L}$ -simplices with identical Ehrhart polynomial that are different under  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathbb{L}}$ . The aim of this paper is to investigate whether and to what extent the universal counting function determines  $P$ .

We give another description of  $\mathcal{U}_P$ . Let  $\pi : V \rightarrow V$  be any isomorphism satisfying  $\pi(\mathbb{L}) \subset \mathbb{L}$ . Define, with a slight abuse of notation,

$$\mathcal{U}_P(\pi) = |\pi(P) \cap \mathbb{L}| = |P \cap \pi^{-1}(\mathbb{L})|.$$

Set  $\mathbb{L}' = \pi^{-1}(\mathbb{L})$ . Since  $\mathbb{L}'$  is a lattice containing  $\mathbb{L}$  we clearly have

$$\mathcal{U}_P(\pi) = \mathcal{U}_P(\mathbb{L}').$$

Conversely, given a lattice  $\mathbb{L}' \in \mathcal{M}_n$ , there is an isomorphism  $\pi$  satisfying the last equality. (Any linear  $\pi$  mapping a basis of  $\mathbb{L}'$  to a basis of  $\mathbb{L}$  suffices.) The two definitions of  $\mathcal{U}_P$  via lattices or isomorphisms with  $\pi(\mathbb{L}_P) \subset \mathbb{L}$  are equivalent. We will use the common notation  $\mathcal{U}_P$ .

*Example 2.* Anisotropic dilations. Take  $\pi : \mathbb{Z}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^n$  defined by

$$\pi(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (k_1 x_1, \dots, k_n x_n),$$

where  $k_1, \dots, k_n \in \mathbb{N}$ . The corresponding map  $\mathcal{U}_P$  extends the notion of Ehrhart polynomial and Example 1.

Simple examples show that  $\mathcal{U}_P$  is not a polynomial in the variables  $k_i$ .

## 2. A NECESSARY CONDITION

The dual  $\mathbb{L}^*$  of the  $n$ -dimensional lattice  $\mathbb{L} \subset V$  (when  $V$  is also  $n$ -dimensional) is defined (see e.g. [Lo]) as

$$\mathbb{L}^* = \{z \in V^* : z \cdot x \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ for every } x \in \mathbb{Z}^n\},$$

where  $z \cdot x$  denotes the scalar product of  $z$  and  $x$ .

Given a nonzero  $z \in \mathbb{L}^*$  and an  $\mathbb{L}$ -polytope  $P$ , define  $P(z)$  as the set of points in  $P$  where the functional  $z$  takes its maximal value. As is well known,  $P(z)$  is a face of  $P$ . Denote by  $H(z)$  the hyperplane  $z \cdot x = 0$ .  $H(z)$  is clearly a lattice subspace. As usual,  $z \in \mathbb{L}^*$  is called primitive if it cannot be written as  $kw$  with  $w \in \mathbb{L}^*$  and  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $k \geq 2$ .

**Theorem 2.** Assume  $P, Q$  are  $\mathbb{L}$ -polytopes with identical universal counting function. Then, for every primitive  $z \in \mathbb{L}^*$ ,

$$(*) \quad \text{rvol } P(z) + \text{rvol } P(-z) = \text{rvol } Q(z) + \text{rvol } Q(-z).$$

The theorem shows, in particular, that if  $P(z)$  or  $P(-z)$  is a facet of  $P$ , then  $Q(z)$  or  $Q(-z)$  is a facet of  $Q$ . Further, given an  $\mathbb{L}$ -polytope  $P$ , there are only finitely many possibilities for the outer normals and volumes of the facets of another polytope  $Q$  with  $\mathcal{U}_P = \mathcal{U}_Q$ . So a well-known theorem of Minkowski (see [BF]) implies,

**Corollary 1.** Assume  $P$  is an  $\mathbb{L}$ -polytope. Then, apart from lattice translates, there are only finitely many  $\mathbb{L}$ -polytopes with the same universal counting functions as  $P$ .

*Proof of Theorem 2.* We assume that  $P, Q$  are full dimensional polytopes. As the conditions and the statement of the theorem are affinely invariant, we may assume that  $\mathbb{L} = \mathbb{Z}^n$  and  $z = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$ . There is nothing to prove when none of  $P(z), P(-z), Q(z), Q(-z)$  is a facet since then both sides of  $(*)$  are equal to zero. So assume that, say,  $P(z)$  is a facet, that is,  $\text{rvol } P(z) > 0$ .

For a positive integer  $k$  define the linear map  $\pi_k : V \rightarrow V$  by

$$\pi_k(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_1, kx_2, \dots, kx_n).$$

The condition implies that the lattice polytopes  $\pi_k(P)$  and  $\pi_k(Q)$  have the same Ehrhart polynomial. Comparing their second coefficients we get,

$$\sum_{F \text{ a facet of } P} \text{rvol } \pi_k(F) = \sum_{G \text{ a facet of } Q} \text{rvol } \pi_k(G),$$

since the facets of  $\pi_k(P)$  are of the form  $\pi_k(F)$  where  $F$  is a facet of  $P$ .

Let  $\zeta = (\zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^{n*}$  be the (unique) primitive outer normal to the facet  $F$  of  $P$ . Then  $\zeta' = (k\zeta_1, k\zeta_2, \dots, k\zeta_n)$  is an outer normal to  $\pi_k(F)$ , and so it is a positive integral multiple of the unique primitive outer normal  $\zeta''$ , that is  $\zeta' = m\zeta''$  with  $m$  a positive integer. When  $k$  is a large prime and  $\zeta$  is different from  $z$  and  $\zeta_1 \neq 0$ , then  $m = 1$  and  $\text{rvol } \pi_k(F) = O(k^{n-2})$ . When  $\zeta_1 = 0$ , then  $m = 1$ , again, and the ordinary  $(n-1)$ -volume of  $\pi_k(F)$  is  $O(k^{n-2})$ . Finally, when  $\zeta = \pm z$ ,  $\text{Vol } \pi_k(F) = k^{n-1} \text{Vol } F$ .

So the dominant term, when  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , is  $k^{n-1}(\text{rvol } P(z) + \text{rvol } P(-z))$  since by our assumption  $\text{rvol } P(z) > 0$ .  $\square$

## 3. DIMENSION TWO

Let  $P$  be an  $\mathbb{L}$ -polygon in  $V$  of dimension two. Simple examples show again that  $\mathcal{U}_P$  is not a polynomial in the coefficients of  $\pi$ .

In the planar case we abbreviate  $\text{rvol } P(z)$  as  $|P(z)|$ . Extending (and specializing) Theorem 1 we prove

**Proposition 3.** Suppose  $P$  and  $Q$  are  $\mathbb{L}$ -polygons. Then  $\mathcal{U}_P = \mathcal{U}_Q$  if and only if the following two conditions are satisfied:

- (i)  $\text{Area}(P) = \text{Area}(Q)$ ,
- (ii)  $|P(z)| + |P(-z)| = |Q(z)| + |Q(-z)|$  for every primitive  $z \in \mathbb{L}^*$ .

*Proof.* The conditions are sufficient: (i) and (ii) imply that, for any  $\pi$ ,  $\text{Area}(\pi(P)) = \text{Area}(\pi(Q))$  and  $|\pi(P)(z)| + |\pi(P)(-z)| = |\pi(Q)(z)| + |\pi(Q)(-z)|$ . We use Pick's formula for  $\pi(P)$ , (see [GW], say):

$$|\pi(P) \cap \mathbb{L}| = \text{Area } \pi(P) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{z \text{ primitive}} |\pi(P)(z)| + 1.$$

This shows that  $\mathcal{U}_P = \mathcal{U}_Q$ , indeed.

The necessity of (i) follows from Theorem 1 immediately, (via the main coefficient of  $E_P$ ), and the necessity of (ii) is the content of Theorem 2.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.** *Under the conditions of Proposition 3 the lattice widths of  $P$  and  $Q$ , in any direction  $z \in \mathbb{L}^*$  are equal.*

*Proof.* The lattice width,  $w(z, P)$ , of  $P$  in direction  $z \in \mathbb{L}^*$  is, by definition (see  $[KL, \S 10]$ ),

$$w(z, P) = \max\{z \cdot (x - y) : x, y \in P\}.$$

In the plane one can compute the width along the boundary of  $P$  as well which gives

$$w(z, P) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_e |z \cdot e|$$

where the sum is taken over all edges  $e$  of  $P$ . This proves the corollary.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.** *Suppose  $P$  and  $Q$  are  $\mathbb{L}$ -polygons. Then  $\mathcal{U}_P = \mathcal{U}_Q$  if and only if the following two conditions are satisfied:*

- (i)  $\text{Area}(P) = \text{Area}(Q)$ ,
- (ii) *there exist  $\mathbb{L}$ -polygons  $X$  and  $Y$  such that  $P$  resp.  $Q$  is a lattice translate of  $X + Y$  and  $X - Y$  (Minkowski addition).*

**Remark.** Here  $X$  or  $Y$  is allowed to be a segment or even a single point. In the proof we will ignore translates and simply write  $P = X + Y$  and  $Q = X - Y$ .

*Proof.* Note that (ii) implies the second condition in Proposition 3. So we only have to show the necessity of (ii).

Assume the contrary and let  $P, Q$  be a counterexample to the statement with the smallest possible number of edges. We show first that for every (primitive)  $z \in \mathbb{L}^*$  at least one of the sets  $P(z), P(-z), Q(z), Q(-z)$  is a point.

If this were not the case, all four segments would contain a translated copy of the shortest among them, which, when translated to the origin, is of the form  $[0, t]$ . But then  $P = P' + [0, t]$  and  $Q = Q' + [0, t]$  with  $\mathbb{L}$ -polygons  $P', Q'$ .

We claim that  $P', Q'$  satisfy conditions (i) and (ii) of Proposition 3. This is obvious for (ii). For the areas we have that  $\text{Area } P - \text{Area } P'$  equals the area of the parallelogram with base  $[0, t]$  and height  $w(z, P)$ . The same applies to  $\text{Area } Q - \text{Area } Q'$ , but there the height is  $w(z, Q)$ . Then Corollary 2 implies the claim.

So the universal counting functions of  $P', Q'$  are identical. But the number of edges of  $P'$  and  $Q'$  is smaller than that of  $P$  and  $Q$ . Consequently there are polygons  $X', Y'$  with  $P' = X' + Y'$ , and  $Q' = X' - Y'$ . But then, with  $X = X' + [0, t]$ ,  $P = X + Y$  and  $Q = X - Y$ , a contradiction.

Next, we define the polygons  $X, Y$  by specifying their edges. It is enough to specify the edges of  $X$  and  $Y$  that make up the edges  $P(z), P(-z), Q(z), Q(-z)$  in  $X + Y$  and  $X - Y$ . For this end we orient the edges of  $P$  and  $Q$  clockwise and set

$$P(z) = [a_1, a_2], P(-z) = [b_1, b_2], Q(z) = [c_1, c_2], Q(-z) = [d_1, d_2]$$

each of them in clockwise order. Then

$$a_2 - a_1 = \alpha t, b_2 - b_1 = \beta t, c_2 - c_1 = \gamma t, d_2 - d_1 = \delta t$$

where  $t$  is orthogonal to  $z$  and  $\alpha, \gamma \geq 0, \beta, \delta \leq 0$  and one of them equals 0. Moreover, by condition (ii) of Proposition 3,  $\alpha - \beta = \gamma - \delta$ .

Here is the definition of the corresponding edges,  $x, y$  of  $X, Y$ :

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \alpha t, y = \beta t \text{ if } \delta = 0, \\ x &= 3t, y = \alpha t \text{ if } \gamma = 0, \\ x &= \gamma t, y = -\delta t \text{ if } \beta = 0, \\ x &= \delta t, y = -\gamma t \text{ if } \alpha = 0. \end{aligned}$$

With this definition,  $X + Y$  and  $X - Y$  will have exactly the edges needed. We have to check yet that the sum of the  $X$  edges (and the  $Y$  edges) is zero, otherwise they won't make up a polygon. But  $\sum(x + y) = 0$  since this is the sum of the edges of  $P$ , and  $\sum(x - y) = 0$  since this is the sum of the edges of  $Q$ . Summing these two equations gives  $\sum x = 0$ , subtracting them yields  $\sum y = 0$ .  $\square$

#### 4. AN EXAMPLE AND A QUESTION

Let  $X$ , resp.  $Y$  be the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(2, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(0, 3)$ . As it turns out the areas of  $P = X + Y$  and  $Q = X - Y$  are equal. So Theorem 3 applies:  $\mathcal{U}_P = \mathcal{U}_Q$ . At the same time,  $P$  and  $Q$  are not congruent as  $P$  has six vertices while  $Q$  has only five.

However, it is still possible that polygons with the same universal counting function are equidecomposable. Precisely:  $P_1, \dots, P_m$  is said to be a subdivision of  $P$  if the  $P_i$  are  $\mathbb{L}$ -polygons with pairwise disjoint relative interior, their union is  $P$ , and the intersection of the closure of any two of them is a face of both. Recall from section 1 the group  $\mathcal{G}_m$  generated by  $\mathbb{L}$ -translations and the reflection with respect to the origin. Two  $\mathbb{L}$ -polygons  $P, Q$  are called  $\mathcal{G}_m$ -equidecomposable if there are subdivisions  $P = P_1 \cup \dots \cup P_m$  and  $Q = Q_1 \cup \dots \cup Q_m$  such that each  $P_i$  is a translate, or the reflection of a translate of  $Q_i$  with the extra condition that  $P_i$  is contained in the boundary of  $P$  if and only if  $Q_i$  is contained in the boundary of  $Q$ .

We finish the paper with a question which has connections to a theorem of the late Peter Greenberg [Gr]. Assume  $P$  and  $Q$  have the same universal counting function. Is it true then that they are  $\mathcal{G}_m$ -equidecomposable? In the example above, as in many other examples, they are.

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