## MAXIMAL PERIODS OF (EHRHART) QUASI-POLYNOMIALS

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ABSTRACT. A quasi-polynomial is a function defined of the form  $q(k) = c_d(k) k^d + c_{d-1}(k) k^{d-1} + \cdots + c_0(k)$ , where  $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_d$  are periodic functions in  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Prominent examples of quasipolynomials appear in Ehrhart's theory as integer-point counting functions for rational polytopes, and McMullen gives upper bounds for the periods of the  $c_j(k)$  for Ehrhart quasi-polynomials. For generic polytopes, McMullen's bounds seem to be sharp, but sometimes smaller periods exist. We prove that the second leading coefficient of an Ehrhart quasi-polynomial always has maximal expected period and present a general theorem that yields maximal periods for the coefficients of certain quasi-polynomials. We present a construction for (Ehrhart) quasi-polynomials that exhibit maximal period behavior and use it to answer a question of Zaslavsky on convolutions of quasipolynomials.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

A quasi-polynomial is a function defined on  $\mathbb{Z}$  of the form

(1) 
$$q(k) = c_d(k) k^d + c_{d-1}(k) k^{d-1} + \dots + c_0(k),$$

where  $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_d$  are periodic functions in k, called the *coefficient functions* of q. Assuming  $c_d$  is not identically zero, we call d the *degree* of q. Quasi-polynomials play a prominent role in enumerative combinatorics [8, Chapter 4]. Arguably their best known appearance is in Ehrhart's fundamental work on integer-point enumeration in rational polytopes [1, 3]. For more applications, we refer to the recent article [4].

A rational polytope  $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is the convex hull of finitely many points in  $\mathbb{Q}^n$ . The dimension of a polytope  $\mathcal{P}$  is the dimension d of the smallest affine space containing  $\mathcal{P}$ , in which case we call  $\mathcal{P}$ a d-polytope. A face of  $\mathcal{P}$  is a subset of the form  $\mathcal{P} \cap H$ , where H is a hyperplane such that  $\mathcal{P}$  is entirely contained in one of the two closed half-spaces of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that H naturally defines. A (d-1)-face of a d-polytope is a facet, and a 0-face is a vertex. The smallest  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$  for which the vertices of  $k\mathcal{P}$  are in  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  is the denominator of  $\mathcal{P}$ . Ehrhart's theorem states that the integer-point counting function  $L_{\mathcal{P}}(k) := \# (k\mathcal{P} \cap \mathbb{Z}^n)$  is a quasi-polynomial of degree d in  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ , and the denominator of  $\mathcal{P}$  is a period of each of the coefficient functions.

In general, many of the coefficient functions will have smaller periods. Suppose q is given by (1). The minimum period of  $c_j$  is the smallest  $p \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$  such that  $c_j(k+p) = c_j(k)$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  (any multiple of p is, of course, also a period of  $c_j$ ). The minimum period of q is the least common multiple of the minimum periods of  $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_d$ . In this paper, we study the minimum periods of the  $c_j$ . All of our illustrating examples can be realized as Ehrhart quasi-polynomials. Ehrhart's theorem tells us that the minimum period of each  $c_j$  divides the denominator of  $\mathcal{P}$ .

Date: February 6, 2007.

<sup>2000</sup> Mathematics Subject Classification. Primary 05A15; Secondary 52C07.

Key words and phrases. Ehrhart quasi-polynomial, period, lattice points, rational polytope, quasi-polynomial convolution.

The following theorem due to McMullen [7, Theorem 6] gives a more precise upper bound for these periods. For  $0 \leq j \leq d$ , define the *j*-index of  $\mathcal{P}$  to be the minimal positive integer  $p_j$  such that the *j*-dimensional faces of  $p_j \mathcal{P}$  all span affine subspaces that contain integer lattice points.

**Theorem 1** (McMullen). Given a rational d-polytope  $\mathcal{P}$ , let  $p_j$  be the *j*-index of  $\mathcal{P}$ . If  $L_{\mathcal{P}}(k) = c_d(k) k^d + c_{d-1}(k) k^{d-1} + \cdots + c_0(k)$  is the Ehrhart quasi-polynomial of  $\mathcal{P}$ , then the minimum period of  $c_j$  divides  $p_j$ .

Note that  $p_d|p_{d-1}|\cdots|p_0$ . Since  $p_0$  is the denominator of  $\mathcal{P}$ , this is a stronger version of Ehrhart's theorem. If we further assume that  $\mathcal{P}$  is full-dimensional, then  $p_d = 1$ , and so  $c_d(k)$  is a constant function. In this case, it is well known that  $c_d(k)$  is the Euclidean volume of  $\mathcal{P}$  [1, 3].

These bounds on the periods seem tight for generic rational polytopes, that is,  $p_j$  is the minimum period of  $c_j$ , but this statement is ill-formed (we make no claim what notion of the term *generic* should be used here) and conjectural. One of the contributions of this paper is a step in the right direction: for any  $p_d|p_{d-1}|\cdots|p_0$ , there does indeed exist a polytope such that  $c_j$  has minimum period  $p_j$ .

**Theorem 2.** Given distinct positive integers  $p_d|p_{d-1}|\cdots|p_0$ , the simplex

$$\Delta = \operatorname{conv}\left\{\left(\frac{1}{p_0}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \left(0, \frac{1}{p_1}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \dots, \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{p_d}\right)\right\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$$

has an Ehrhart quasi-polynomial  $L_{\Delta}(k) = c_d(k) k^d + c_{d-1}(k) k^{d-1} + \cdots + c_0(k)$ , where  $c_j$  has minimum period  $p_j$  for  $j = 0, 1, \ldots, d$  (and  $p_j$  is the *j*-index of  $\Delta$ ).

Note that  $\Delta$  is actually not a full-dimensional polytope; it is a *d*-dimensional polytope in  $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ . This allows us to state the theorem in slightly greater generality (we don't have to constrain  $p_d = 1$ , which is necessary for a full-dimensional polytope).

Theorem 2 complements recent literature [2, 6] that contains several special classes of polytopes that defy the expectation that  $c_j$  has minimum period  $p_j$ . De Loera–McAllister [2] constructed a family of polytopes stemming from representation theory that exhibit *period collapse*, i.e., the Ehrhart quasi-polynomials of these polytopes (which have arbitrarily large denominator) have minimum period 1—they are polynomials. McAllister–Woods [6] gave a class of polytopes whose Ehrhart quasi-polynomials have arbitrary period collapse (though not for the periods of the individual coefficient functions), as well as an example of non-monotonic minimum periods of the coefficient functions.

First, we will prove (in Section 2) that no period collapse is possible in the second leading coefficient  $c_{d-1}(k)$ :

**Theorem 3.** Given a rational d-polytope  $\mathcal{P}$ , let  $p_{d-1}$  be the (d-1)-index of  $\mathcal{P}$ . Let  $L_{\mathcal{P}}(k) = c_d(k) k^d + c_{d-1}(k) k^{d-1} + \cdots + c_0(k)$ . Then  $c_{d-1}$  has minimum period  $p_{d-1}$ .

In Section 3, we give some general results on quasi-polynomials with maximal period behavior. Namely, we will prove:

**Theorem 4.** Suppose c(k) is a periodic function with minimum period n, and m is some nonnegative integer. Then the rational generating function  $\sum_{k\geq 0} c(k)k^m x^k$  has as poles only  $n^{th}$  roots of unity, and each of these poles has order m + 1.

A direct consequence of this statement is the following:

**Corollary 5.** Suppose r(x) is a rational function all of whose poles are primitive  $n^{th}$  roots of unity. Then r is the generating function of a quasi-polynomial

$$r(x) = \sum_{k \ge 0} \left( c_d(k) \, k^d + c_{d-1}(k) \, k^{d-1} + \dots + c_0(k) \right) x^k,$$

where each  $c_i$  is either identically zero or has minimum period n.

As an application to Theorem 2 (proved in Section 4), we turn to a question that stems from a recent theorem of Zaslavsky [9]. Suppose  $A(k) = a_d(k) k^d + a_{d-1}(k) k^{d-1} + \cdots + a_0(k)$  and  $B(k) = b_e(k) k^e + b_{e-1}(k) k^{e-1} + \cdots + b_0(k)$  are quasi-polynomials, where the minimum period of  $a_j$  is  $\alpha_j$  and the minimum period of  $b_j$  is  $\beta_j$ . Then the *convolution* 

$$C(k) := \sum_{m=0}^{k} A(k-m) B(m)$$

is another quasi-polynomial. If we write  $C(k) = c_{d+e+1}(k) k^{d+e+1} + c_{d+e}(k) k^{d+e} + \cdots + c_0(k)$ , and let  $c_j$  have minimum period  $\gamma_j$ , Zaslavsky proved the following result.

**Theorem 6** (Zaslavsky). Define  $g_j = \operatorname{lcm} \{ \operatorname{gcd}(\alpha_i, \beta_{j-i}) : 0 \le i \le d, 0 \le j-i \le e \}$  for  $j \ge 0$ , and let  $g_{-1} = 1$ . Then

(2) 
$$\gamma_{j+1} \left| \operatorname{lcm} \left\{ \alpha_{j+1}, \dots, \alpha_d, \beta_{j+1}, \dots, \beta_e, g_j \right\} \right|$$

We will reprove this result in Section 5 using the generating-function tools we develop. A natural problem, raised by Zaslavsky, is to construct two quasi-polynomials whose convolution satisfies (2) with equality. The answer is given by another application of Theorem 2 (Section 5).

**Theorem 7.** Given  $d \ge e$  and distinct positive integers  $\alpha_d |\alpha_{d-1}| \cdots |\alpha_e| \beta_e |\alpha_{e-1}| \beta_{e-1}| \cdots |\alpha_0| \beta_0$ , let

$$\Delta_1 = \operatorname{conv}\left\{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_0}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \left(0, \frac{1}{\alpha_1}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \dots, \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{\alpha_d}\right)\right\}$$

and

$$\Delta_2 = \operatorname{conv}\left\{ \left(\frac{1}{\beta_0}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \left(0, \frac{1}{\beta_1}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \dots, \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{\beta_e}\right) \right\}.$$

Then the convolution of  $L_{\Delta_1}$  and  $L_{\Delta_2}$  satisfies (2) with equality.

### 2. The Second Leading Coefficient of an Ehrhart Quasi-Polynomial

In this section we prove Theorem 3, namely the minimum period of the second leading coefficient of the Ehrhart quasi-polynomial of a rational *d*-polytope  $\mathcal{P}$  equals the (d-1)-index of  $\mathcal{P}$ . Most of the work towards Theorem 3 is contained in the proof of the following result.

**Proposition 8.** If  $\mathcal{P}$  is a rational d-polytope with Ehrhart quasi-polynomial  $L_{\mathcal{P}}(k) = c_d(k) k^d + c_{d-1}(k) k^{d-1} + \cdots + c_0(k)$ , then  $c_{d-1}$  is constant if and only if the (d-1)-index of  $\mathcal{P}$  is 1.

*Proof.* If the (d-1)-index of  $\mathcal{P}$  is 1, then  $c_{d-1}$  is constant by McMullen's Theorem 1.

For the converse implication, we use the *Ehrhart-Macdonald Reciprocity Theorem* [1, 5]. It says that for a rational *d*-polytope  $\mathcal{P}$ , the evaluation of  $L_{\mathcal{P}}$  at negative integers yields the lattice-point enumerator of the interior  $\mathcal{P}^{\circ}$ , namely,

$$L_{\mathcal{P}}(-k) = (-1)^d L_{\mathcal{P}^\circ}(k) \,.$$

This identity implies that the lattice-point enumerator for the boundary of  $\mathcal{P}$  is the quasi-polynomial  $L_{\partial \mathcal{P}}(k) = L_{\mathcal{P}}(k) - (-1)^d L_{\mathcal{P}}(-k)$ . Since  $L_{\partial \mathcal{P}}(k)$  counts integer points in a (d-1)-dimensional object, it is a degree d-1 quasi-polynomial, and we see that its leading coefficient is  $c_{d-1}(k) + c_{d-1}(-k)$ .

Now suppose the (d-1)-index of  $\mathcal{P}$  is m > 1. Then there is a facet of  $\mathcal{P}$  whose affine span has no lattice points when dilated by  $1, m + 1, 2m + 1, \ldots$  On the other hand, the affine span of *any* facet contains lattice points when dilated by multiples of m. The leading coefficient of the quasipolynomial  $L_{\partial \mathcal{P}}(mk)$  is a constant measuring the volume of the facets relative to the sublattices in their affine spans (for the same reason that the leading coefficient of  $L_{\mathcal{P}}(k)$  measures the volume of  $\mathcal{P}$ : asymptotically, the volume is a good approximation for the number of integer points). The same can be said for the leading coefficient of the polynomial  $L_{\partial \mathcal{P}}(1+mk)$ ; however, now some of these sublattices are empty, and thus the leading coefficient of  $L_{\partial \mathcal{P}}(1+mk)$  is smaller than the leading coefficient of  $L_{\partial \mathcal{P}}(mk)$ , i.e.,  $c_{d-1}(1+mk)+c_{d-1}(-1-mk) < c_{d-1}(mk)+c_{d-1}(-mk)$ . Hence  $c_{d-1}$  is not constant.

Proof of Theorem 3. Let p be the minimal period of  $c_{d-1}$  and q be the (d-1)-index of  $\mathcal{P}$ . By McMullen's Theorem 1, p|q. On the other hand, the second-leading coefficient of  $L_{p\mathcal{P}}$  is constant, and by Proposition 8, the (d-1)-index of  $p\mathcal{P}$  is 1, which implies q|p.

## 3. Some General Results on Quasi-Polynomial Periods

A key ingredient to proving Theorem 4 is a basic result (see, e.g., [1, Chapter 3] or [8, Chapter 4]) about a quasi-polynomial q(k) and its generating function  $r(x) = \sum_{k\geq 0} q(k)x^k$ , which is easily seen to be a rational function.

**Lemma 9.** Suppose q is a quasi-polynomial with rational generating function  $r(x) = \sum_{k\geq 0} q(k) x^k$ . Then n is a period of q and q has degree d if and only if all poles of r are  $n^{th}$  roots of unity of order  $\leq d+1$  and there is a pole of order d+1.

The above result will be useful again in the proof of Theorem 2. Recall that the statement of Theorem 4 is that given a periodic function c(k) with minimum period n and a nonnegative integer m, the only poles of the rational generating function  $\sum_{k\geq 0} c(k)k^m x^k$  are  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity, and each pole has order m + 1.

*Proof of Theorem* 4. We use induction on m. The case m = 0 follows directly from Lemma 9, as

$$\sum_{k\geq 0} c(k)k^0 x^k = \frac{c(0) + c(1)x + \dots + c(n-1)x^{n-1}}{1 - x^n}.$$

The induction step is a consequence of the identity

$$\sum_{k \ge 0} c(k)k^m x^k = x \frac{d}{dx} \sum_{k \ge 0} c(k)k^{m-1} x^k$$

and the fact that a pole of order m turns into a pole of order m+1 under differentiation.

Corollary 5 now follows like a breeze. Recall its statement: If r(x) is a rational function all of whose poles are primitive  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity, then r is the generating function of a quasi-polynomial

$$r(x) = \sum_{k \ge 0} \left( c_d(k) \, k^d + c_{d-1}(k) \, k^{d-1} + \dots + c_0(k) \right) x^k,$$

where each  $c_i \not\equiv 0$  has minimum period n.

Proof of Corollary 5. Consider the rational generating functions

$$r_j(x) := \sum_{k \ge 0} c_j(k) k^j x^k$$
, so that  $r(x) = r_d(x) + r_{d-1}(x) + \dots + r_0(x)$ .

We claim that the poles of each (not identically zero)  $r_j(x)$  are all primitive  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity. Indeed, suppose not, and consider the largest j such that  $r_j(x)$  has a pole  $\omega$  which is not a primitive  $n^{\text{th}}$  root of unity. Theorem 4 says that  $\omega$  is a pole of  $r_j(x)$  of order j + 1. Since  $\omega$  is not a pole of  $r_d(x), r_{d-1}(x), \ldots, r_{j+1}(x)$  (we chose j as large as possible),  $\omega$  is a pole of

$$r_d(x) + r_{d-1}(x) + \dots + r_{j+1}(x) + r_j(x)$$

of order j + 1. On the other hand, Theorem 4 also implies that  $r_{j-1}(x), r_{j-2}(x), \ldots, r_0(x)$  have no poles of order greater than j. Summing over all the  $r_i$ ,  $\omega$  must be a pole of r(x) of order j + 1, contradicting that fact that r(x) has only poles that are primitive  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity.

Therefore the poles of each (not identically zero)  $r_j(x)$  are all primitive roots of unity. Lemma 9 implies that n is a period of each nonzero  $r_j(x)$ , and Theorem 4 implies that n is the minimum period, proving the corollary.

#### 4. Ehrhart Quasi-Polynomials with Maximal Periods

Recall that Theorem 2 says that for given distinct positive integers  $p_d | p_{d-1} | \cdots | p_0$ , the simplex

$$\Delta = \operatorname{conv}\left\{\left(\frac{1}{p_0}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \left(0, \frac{1}{p_1}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \dots, \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{p_d}\right)\right\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$$

has an Ehrhart polynomial  $L_{\Delta}(k) = c_d(k) k^d + c_{d-1}(k) k^{d-1} + \cdots + c_0(k)$ , where  $c_j$  has minimum period  $p_j$  for  $j = 0, 1, \ldots, d$ . Note that  $p_j$  is the *j*-index of  $\Delta$ .

Proof of Theorem 2. The Ehrhart series of

$$\Delta = \left\{ (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_d) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} : p_0 x_0 + p_1 x_1 + \dots + p_d x_d = 1 \right\}$$

is, by construction,

$$\operatorname{Ehr}_{\Delta}(x) := \sum_{k \ge 0} L_{\Delta}(k) \, x^k = \frac{1}{(1 - x^{p_0}) \, (1 - x^{p_1}) \cdots (1 - x^{p_d})}$$

Given j, let  $\omega$  be a primitive  $p_j^{\text{th}}$  root of unity. Then  $\omega$  is a pole of  $\text{Ehr}_{\Delta}(x)$  of order j + 1. We expand  $\text{Ehr}_{\Delta}(x)$  to yield the Ehrhart quasi-polynomial:

$$\operatorname{Ehr}_{\Delta}(x) = \sum_{k \ge 0} L_{\Delta}(k) \, x^k = \sum_{k \ge 0} \left( c_d(k) \, k^d + c_{d-1}(k) \, k^{d-1} + \dots + c_0(k) \right) x^k.$$

Let n be the minimum period of  $c_j(k)$ . By McMullen's Theorem 1,  $n|p_j$ . Therefore, we need to show that  $p_j|n$ . As before, let  $r_j(x) = \sum_{k\geq 0} c_j(k)k^jx^k$ , so that  $\operatorname{Ehr}_{\Delta}(x) = r_d(x) + r_{d-1}(x) + \cdots + r_0(x)$ . Since  $\omega$  is a pole of  $\operatorname{Ehr}_{\Delta}(x)$ , it must be a pole of (at least) one of  $r_d, \ldots, r_0$ . Let J be the largest index such that  $\omega$  is a pole of  $r_J(x)$ . By Theorem 4,  $\omega$  is a pole of  $r_J(x)$  of order J + 1. Since  $\omega$  is not a pole of  $r_d(x), r_{d-1}(x), \ldots, r_{J+1}(x), \omega$  is a pole of

$$r_d(x) + r_{d-1}(x) + \dots + r_{J+1}(x) + r_J(x)$$

of order J + 1. On the other hand, Theorem 4 also implies that  $r_{J-1}(x), r_{J-2}(x), \ldots, r_0(x)$  have no poles of order greater than J. Summing over all the  $r_i$ ,  $\omega$  must be a pole of  $\text{Ehr}_{\Delta}(x)$  of order J + 1. Since we saw that  $\omega$  is a pole of  $\text{Ehr}_{\Delta}(x)$  of order j + 1, we have that J = j, that is,  $\omega$  is a pole of  $r_j(x)$ . Since  $\omega$  is a primitive  $p_j^{\text{th}}$  root of unity, Theorem 4 says that  $p_j$  must divide the minimum period n, and so  $n = p_j$ , as desired.

#### 5. QUASI-POLYNOMIAL CONVOLUTION WITH MAXIMAL PERIODS

We start our last section with a generating-function proof of Zaslavsky's Theorem 6. It uses the following generalization of Lemma 9:

**Lemma 10.** Suppose  $q(k) = c_d(k) k^d + c_{d-1}(k) k^{d-1} + \dots + c_0(k)$  is a quasi-polynomial with rational generating function  $r(x) = \sum_{k\geq 0} q(k) x^k$ .

(a) If n is a period of  $c_j$ , then there is an  $n^{th}$  root of unity that is a pole of r of order at least j+1. (b) If all poles of r of order  $\geq j+1$  are  $n^{th}$  roots of unity, then n is a period of  $c_j$ .

*Proof.* Part (a) follows from Theorem 4.

For part (b), expand r (crudely) into partial fractions as r(x) = s(x) + t(x), such that s has as poles the poles of r of order  $\geq j + 1$  and t has as poles those of order  $\leq j$ . Now apply Lemma 9 to s and note that t does not contribute to  $c_j$ .

Proof of Theorem 6. Let  $f_A(x) = \sum_{k\geq 0} A(k) x^k$  and define  $f_B$  and  $f_C$  analogously. To determine  $\gamma_{j+1}$ , the period of  $c_{j+1}$ , Lemma 10(b) tells us that we need to consider the poles of  $f_C(x) = f_A(x)f_B(x)$  of order  $\geq j+2$ . These poles come in three types:

- (1) poles of  $f_A$  of order  $\geq j + 2$ ;
- (2) poles of  $f_B$  of order  $\geq j + 2$ ;

(3) common poles of  $f_A$  and  $f_B$  whose orders add up to at least j + 2.

Lemma 10(a) gives the statement of Theorem 6 instantly; the periods  $\alpha_{j+1}, \ldots, \alpha_d$  give rise to poles of type (1),  $\beta_{j+1}, \ldots, \beta_e$  give rise to poles of type (2), and  $g_j = \operatorname{lcm} \{ \operatorname{gcd}(\alpha_i, \beta_{j-i}) : 0 \le i \le d, 0 \le j-i \le e \}$  stems from poles of the type (3).

Proof of Theorem 7. The convolution of  $L_{\Delta_1}$  and  $L_{\Delta_2}$  equals  $L_{\Delta}$ , where  $\Delta$  is the (d+e+1)-simplex

$$\Delta = \operatorname{conv}\left\{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_0}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \dots, \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{\alpha_d}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{\beta_0}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \dots, \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{\beta_e}\right)\right\},\$$

which follows directly from the fact that the generating function of the convolution of two quasipolynomials is the product of their generating functions. Let  $L_{\Delta}(k) = c_{d+e+1}(k) k^{d+e+1} + c_{d+e}(k) k^{d+e} + \cdots + c_0(k)$  and suppose  $c_j(k)$  has minimum period  $\gamma_j$ . By construction and Theorem 2, we have

$$\gamma_{2j} = \beta_j$$
 and  $\gamma_{2j+1} = \alpha_j$  for  $0 \le j \le e$ 

and  $\gamma_{e+j+1} = \alpha_j$  for j > e. We will show that these values agree with the upper bounds given by Zaslavsky's Theorem 6. We distinguish three cases.

Case 1:  $j \leq 2e$  and j + 1 = 2m for some integer m. We need to show that

(3) 
$$\gamma_{j+1} = \operatorname{lcm} \left\{ \alpha_{j+1}, \alpha_{j+2}, \dots, \alpha_d, \beta_{j+1}, \beta_{j+2}, \dots, \beta_e, g_j \right\} = \beta_m \,.$$

Consider

$$j = \operatorname{lcm} \left\{ \operatorname{gcd} \left( \alpha_i, \beta_{j-i} \right) : \ 0 \le i \le d, \ 0 \le j - i \le e \right\}.$$

If  $2i \ge j$ , i.e.,  $i \ge m$ , then  $gcd(\alpha_i, \beta_{j-i}) = \beta_{j-i}$ . Thus

$$g_j = \operatorname{lcm} \{\alpha_j, \alpha_{j-1}, \dots, \alpha_{m+1}, \beta_m, \beta_{m+1}, \dots, \beta_j\} = \beta_m$$

which proves (3), since j + 1 > m.

Case 2:  $j \leq 2e$  and j = 2m for some integer m. We need to show that

(4) 
$$\gamma_{j+1} = \operatorname{lcm} \{ \alpha_{j+1}, \alpha_{j+2}, \dots, \alpha_d, \beta_{j+1}, \beta_{j+2}, \dots, \beta_e, g_j \} = \alpha_m \,.$$

Now

$$g_j = \operatorname{lcm} \{\alpha_j, \alpha_{j-1}, \dots, \alpha_m, \beta_{m+1}, \beta_{m+2}, \dots, \beta_j\} = \alpha_m$$

which proves (4), since j + 1 > m.

Case 3: j > 2e. We would like to show that

(5) 
$$\gamma_{j+1} = \operatorname{lcm} \left\{ \alpha_{j+1}, \alpha_{j+2}, \dots, \alpha_d, \beta_{j+1}, \beta_{j+2}, \dots, \beta_e, g_j \right\} = \alpha_{j-e} \,.$$

Here

 $g_j = \operatorname{lcm} \left\{ \operatorname{gcd} \left( \alpha_i, \beta_{j-i} \right) : j - e \leq i \leq j \right\}.$ 

However, for  $j - e \le i \le j$ , we have  $gcd(a_i, \beta_{j-i}) = \alpha_i$ , whence  $g_j = \alpha_{j-e}$ , which proves (5).

# 6. Open Problems

- (1) For an Ehrhart quasi-polynomial, period collapse cannot happen in relation to the *j*-index for the first two coefficients. On the other side, McAllister–Woods [6] showed that period collapse can happen for any other coefficient, however, it is still a mystery to what extent. For example, can one construct polygons whose Ehrhart periods are (1, s, t) (the minimum periods of  $c_2(x)$ ,  $c_1(x)$ , and  $c_0(x)$ , respectively), for given *s* and *t*? Even simple examples are not easy to come by, e.g., we could construct polygons with period sequence (1, s, 1) for  $1 \le s \le 5$  but have not been successful for s = 6.
- (2) In constructing the simplex with maximal period behavior, we required that the integers  $p_0, \ldots, p_d$  be distinct, but perhaps this restriction is not necessary. Does the statement still hold true if we weaken the conditions, or do there exist counterexamples?
- (3) In the example of periods of quasi-polynomial convolution, Theorem 7, our methods require that we assume that  $\alpha_d |\alpha_{d-1}| \cdots |\alpha_e| \beta_e |\alpha_{e-1}| \beta_{e-1}| \cdots |\alpha_0| \beta_0$ , rather than the more natural  $\alpha_d |\alpha_{d-1}| \cdots |\alpha_0| \alpha_0$  and  $\beta_e |\beta_{e-1}| \cdots |\beta_0$ . We conjecture that the theorem is still true in this case.
- (4) More generally, this would follow from a conjecture about a special class of generating functions:

**Conjecture 11.** Let  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  be given positive integers. Let  $q(k) = c_d(k) k^d + \cdots + c_0(k)$  be the quasi-polynomial whose generating function  $r(x) = \sum_{k\geq 0} q(k) x^k$  is given by

$$\frac{1}{(1-x^{a_1})(1-x^{a_2})\cdots(1-x^{a_n})}.$$

For a positive integer m, define  $b_m = \#\{i : m \mid a_i\}$ . For  $0 \le j \le d$ , let  $p_j = \operatorname{lcm}\{m : b_m > j\}$ . Then the minimum period of  $c_j(k)$  is  $p_j$ .

(5) There are several multi-parameter versions of Ehrhart polynomials to which a generalization of McMullen's Theorem 1 applies. Beyond McMullen's theorem, not much is know about periods and minimum periods (which are now lattices in some  $\mathbb{Z}^m$ ) of these multivariate quasi-polynomials and coefficient functions.

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