

# 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  $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_d$  are periodic functions in  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Prominent examples of quasi-polynomials 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 quasi-polynomials.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

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

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

where  $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_d$  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 [9, Chapter 4]. Arguably their best known appearance is in Ehrhart's fundamental work on integer-point enumeration in rational polytopes [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. For a general introduction to polytopes, we refer to [12]; for an introduction to Ehrhart theory, see [1].

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  $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_d$ . 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  $\mathcal{P}$ .

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The following theorem due to McMullen [8, 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 *genericity* 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*

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

*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  $j = 0, 1, \dots, d$  (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, 7] 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 [7] 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  $n^{\text{th}}$  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 proper rational function all of whose poles are primitive  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity. Then  $r$  is the generating function of a quasi-polynomial*

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

*where each  $c_j$  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 [11]. 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  $g_j = \text{lcm}\{\text{gcd}(\alpha_i, \beta_{j-i}) : 0 \leq i \leq d, 0 \leq j-i \leq e\}$  for  $j \geq 0$ , and let  $g_{-1} = 1$ . Then*

$$(2) \quad \gamma_{j+1} \mid \text{lcm}\{\alpha_{j+1}, \dots, \alpha_d, \beta_{j+1}, \dots, \beta_e, g_j\}.$$

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  $d \geq e$  and distinct positive integers  $\alpha_d \mid \alpha_{d-1} \mid \cdots \mid \alpha_e \mid \beta_e \mid \alpha_{e-1} \mid \beta_{e-1} \mid \cdots \mid \alpha_0 \mid \beta_0$ , let*

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

and

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

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

Suppose that the  $(d-1)$ -index of  $\mathcal{P}$  is  $m > 1$ , and that  $c_{d-1}$  is a constant. Then the leading coefficient of  $L_{\partial\mathcal{P}}(k)$  is constant, and the affine span of every facet of  $\mathcal{P}$  contains lattice points when dilated by any multiple of  $m$ . However, there are facets of  $\mathcal{P}$  whose affine spans contain no lattice points when dilated by  $jm+1$  for  $j \geq 0$ . Let  $F_1, \dots, F_n$  be these facets, and consider the polytopal complex  $\mathcal{P}' = \bigcup F_i$ . In fact, the lattice points of  $k\mathcal{P}' := \bigcup kF_i$  are counted by a quasi-polynomial  $L_{\mathcal{P}'}(k)$ . We can obtain  $L_{\mathcal{P}'}(k)$  by first starting with  $L_{\partial\mathcal{P}}(k)$ . Then for each facet of  $\mathcal{P}$  not among  $F_1, \dots, F_n$ , subtract its Ehrhart quasi-polynomial from  $L_{\partial\mathcal{P}}(k)$ . Some of the lower dimensional faces of  $\mathcal{P}'$  might now be uncounted by the resulting enumerator, so we play an inclusion-exclusion

game with their Ehrhart quasi-polynomials to get  $L_{\mathcal{P}'}(k)$  as a sum of Ehrhart quasi-polynomials of the faces of  $\mathcal{P}$ . We are concerned only with the leading coefficient function of  $L_{\mathcal{P}'}(k)$ , which is unaffected by this inclusion-exclusion. The Ehrhart quasi-polynomial for each facet not among  $F_1, \dots, F_n$  has constant leading term by McMullen's Theorem, so the leading term of  $L_{\mathcal{P}'}(k)$  is some constant  $c$ . This means that for large values of  $k$ , the number of lattice points in  $k\mathcal{P}'$  is asymptotically  $ck^{d-1}$ . However, by construction of  $\mathcal{P}'$ , we have  $L_{\mathcal{P}'}(jm+1) = 0$  for all  $j \geq 0$ , which gives a contradiction. Thus, if the  $(d-1)$ -index of  $\mathcal{P}$  is greater than 1, then  $c_{d-1}$  is not a constant.  $\square$

*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  $q|p$ .  $\square$

### 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 [9, 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 generating function  $r(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} q(k)x^k$  (which evaluates to a proper rational function). Then  $n$  is a period of  $q$  and  $q$  has degree  $d$  if and only if all poles of  $r$  are  $n^{\text{th}}$  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

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

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

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

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

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

*Proof of Corollary 5.* Consider the rational generating functions

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

We claim that the poles of each (not identically zero)  $r_j(x)$  are all  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity. Indeed, suppose not, and consider the largest  $j$  such that  $r_j(x)$  has a pole  $\omega$  which is not a  $n^{\text{th}}$  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  $r_d(x), r_{d-1}(x), \dots, r_{j+1}(x)$  (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  $r_{j-1}(x), r_{j-2}(x), \dots, r_0(x)$  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  $n^{\text{th}}$  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  $c_j$ , and Theorem 4 implies that  $n$  is the minimum period, proving the corollary.  $\square$

#### 4. EHRHART QUASI-POLYNOMIALS WITH MAXIMAL PERIODS

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

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

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

*Proof of Theorem 2.* The Ehrhart series of

$$\Delta = \left\{ (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_d) \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{d+1} : p_0 x_0 + p_1 x_1 + \dots + p_d x_d = 1 \right\}$$

is, by construction,

$$\text{Ehr}_\Delta(x) := \sum_{k \geq 0} L_\Delta(k) x^k = \frac{1}{(1 - x^{p_0})(1 - x^{p_1}) \dots (1 - x^{p_d})}.$$

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:

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

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  $r_j(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} c_j(k)k^j x^k$ , so that  $\text{Ehr}_\Delta(x) = r_d(x) + r_{d-1}(x) + \dots + r_0(x)$ . Since  $\omega$  is a pole of  $\text{Ehr}_\Delta(x)$ , it must be a pole of (at least) one of  $r_d, \dots, r_0$ . 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  $r_d(x), r_{d-1}(x), \dots, r_{J+1}(x)$ ,  $\omega$  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  $r_{J-1}(x), r_{J-2}(x), \dots, r_0(x)$  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.  $\square$

## 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  $q(k) = c_d(k)k^d + c_{d-1}(k)k^{d-1} + \cdots + c_0(k)$  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  $n^{\text{th}}$  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  $n^{\text{th}}$  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  $c_j$ .  $\square$

*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  $\alpha_{j+1}, \dots, \alpha_d$  give rise to poles of type (1),  $\beta_{j+1}, \dots, \beta_e$  give rise to poles of type (2), and  $g_j = \text{lcm}\{\text{gcd}(\alpha_i, \beta_{j-i}) : 0 \leq i \leq d, 0 \leq j-i \leq e\}$  stems from poles of type (3).  $\square$

*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  $\Delta = \text{conv}\left\{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_0}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \dots, \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{\alpha_d}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{\beta_0}, 0, \dots, 0\right), \dots, \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{\beta_e}\right)\right\}$ , which follows directly from the fact that the generating function of the convolution of two quasi-polynomials 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

$$\gamma_{2j} = \beta_j \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_{2j+1} = \alpha_j \quad \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq e,$$

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

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

Consider

$$g_j = \text{lcm}\{\text{gcd}(\alpha_i, \beta_{j-i}) : 0 \leq i \leq d, 0 \leq j-i \leq e\}.$$

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

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

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

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

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

Now

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

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

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

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

Here

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

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

## 6. OPEN PROBLEMS

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 [7] showed that period collapse can happen for any other coefficient, however, it is still a mystery to us to what extent. Tyrrell McAllister [6] constructed polygons whose Ehrhart periods are  $(1, s, t)$  (the minimum periods of  $c_2(k)$ ,  $c_1(k)$ , and  $c_0(k)$ , respectively).

In constructing the simplex with maximal period behavior, we required that the integers  $p_0, \dots, p_d$  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?

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  $\alpha_d|\alpha_{d-1}| \cdots |\alpha_0$  and  $\beta_e|\beta_{e-1}| \cdots |\beta_0$ . We conjecture that the theorem is still true in this case.

More generally, this would follow from a conjecture about a special class of generating functions:

**Conjecture 11.** *Let  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  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  $0 \leq j \leq d$ , let  $p_j = \text{lcm}\{m : b_m > j\}$ . Then the minimum period of  $c_j(k)$  is  $p_j$ .*

There are several multi-parameter versions of Ehrhart quasi-polynomials to which a generalization of McMullen’s Theorem 1 applies (see [8, Theorem 7] and [10]). Beyond McMullen’s theorem, not much is known 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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