

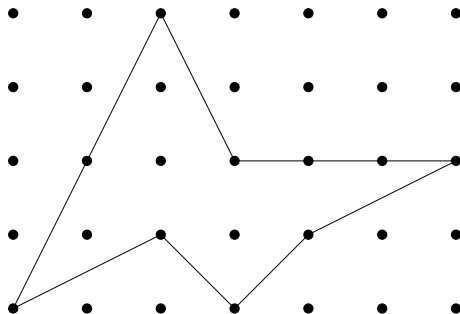
Lattice Points in Polytopes

Richard P. Stanley
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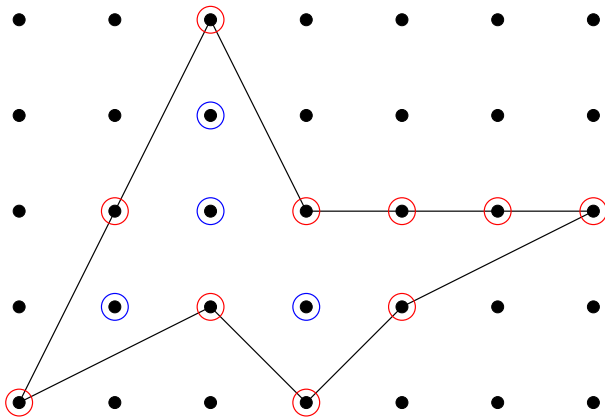
A lattice polygon

Georg Alexander Pick (1859–1942)

P : lattice polygon in \mathbb{R}^2
(vertices $\in \mathbb{Z}^2$, no self-intersections)



Boundary and interior lattice points



Pick's theorem

A = area of P

I = # interior points of P (= 4)

B = #boundary points of P (= 10)

Then

$$A = \frac{2I + B - 2}{2}.$$

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Example on previous slide:

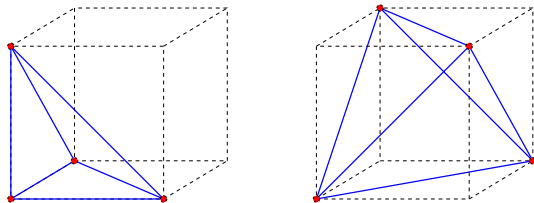
$$\frac{2 \cdot 4 + 10 - 2}{2} = 9.$$

Two tetrahedra

Pick's theorem (seemingly) fails in higher dimensions. For example, let T_1 and T_2 be the tetrahedra with vertices

$$\begin{aligned}v(T_1) &= \{(0, 0, 0), (1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\} \\v(T_2) &= \{(0, 0, 0), (1, 1, 0), (1, 0, 1), (0, 1, 1)\}.\end{aligned}$$

Failure of Pick's theorem in dim 3



Then

$$I(T_1) = I(T_2) = 0$$

$$B(T_1) = B(T_2) = 4$$

$$A(T_1) = 1/6, \quad A(T_2) = 1/3.$$

Polytope dilation

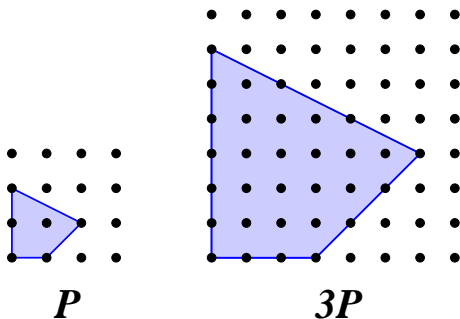
Let \mathcal{P} be a convex polytope (convex hull of a finite set of points) in \mathbb{R}^d . For $n \geq 1$, let

$$n\mathcal{P} = \{n\alpha : \alpha \in \mathcal{P}\}.$$

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$i(\mathcal{P}, n)$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} i(\mathcal{P}, n) &= \#(n\mathcal{P} \cap \mathbb{Z}^d) \\ &= \#\{\alpha \in \mathcal{P} : n\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}^d\}, \end{aligned}$$

the number of lattice points in $n\mathcal{P}$.

$\bar{i}(\mathcal{P}, n)$

Similarly let

$$\mathcal{P}^\circ = \text{interior of } \mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P} - \partial\mathcal{P}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{i}(\mathcal{P}, n) &= \#(n\mathcal{P}^\circ \cap \mathbb{Z}^d) \\ &= \#\{\alpha \in \mathcal{P}^\circ : n\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}^d\},\end{aligned}$$

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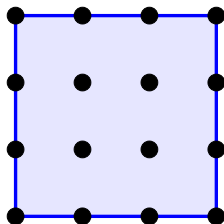
the number of lattice points in the **interior** of $n\mathcal{P}$.

Note. Could use any lattice L instead of \mathbb{Z}^d .

An example



P



$3P$

$$i(\mathcal{P}, n) = (n+1)^2$$

$$\bar{i}(\mathcal{P}, n) = (n-1)^2 = i(\mathcal{P}, -n).$$

The main result

Theorem (Ehrhart 1962, Macdonald 1963). *Let*

$$\mathcal{P} = \text{lattice polytope in } \mathbb{R}^N, \dim \mathcal{P} = d.$$

*Then $i(\mathcal{P}, n)$ is a polynomial (the **Ehrhart polynomial** of \mathcal{P}) in n of degree d .*

Reciprocity and volume

Moreover,

$$i(\mathcal{P}, 0) = 1$$

$$\bar{i}(\mathcal{P}, n) = (-1)^d i(\mathcal{P}, -n), \quad n > 0$$

(reciprocity).

Reciprocity and volume

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(reciprocity).

If $d = N$ then

$$i(\mathcal{P}, n) = V(\mathcal{P})n^d + \text{lower order terms,}$$

where $V(\mathcal{P})$ is the volume of \mathcal{P} .

Eugène Ehrhart

- April 29, 1906: born in Guebwiller, France
- 1932: begins teaching career in lycées
- 1959: Prize of French Sciences Academy
- 1963: begins work on Ph.D. thesis
- 1966: obtains Ph.D. thesis from Univ. of Strasbourg
- 1971: retires from teaching career
- January 17, 2000: dies

Photo of Ehrhart



Self-portrait



Generalized Pick's theorem

Corollary. *Let $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\dim \mathcal{P} = d$. Knowing any d of $i(\mathcal{P}, n)$ or $\bar{i}(\mathcal{P}, n)$ for $n > 0$ determines $V(\mathcal{P})$.*

Generalized Pick's theorem

Corollary. Let $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\dim \mathcal{P} = d$. Knowing any d of $i(\mathcal{P}, n)$ or $\bar{i}(\mathcal{P}, n)$ for $n > 0$ determines $V(\mathcal{P})$.

Proof. Together with $i(\mathcal{P}, 0) = 1$, this data determines $d + 1$ values of the polynomial $i(\mathcal{P}, n)$ of degree d . This uniquely determines $i(\mathcal{P}, n)$ and hence its leading coefficient $V(\mathcal{P})$. \square

Birkhoff polytope

Example. Let $\mathcal{B}_M \subset \mathbb{R}^{M \times M}$ be the **Birkhoff polytope** of all $M \times M$ **doubly-stochastic** matrices $A = (a_{ij})$, i.e.,

$$a_{ij} \geq 0$$

$$\sum_i a_{ij} = 1 \text{ (column sums 1)}$$

$$\sum_j a_{ij} = 1 \text{ (row sums 1).}$$

(Weak) magic squares

Note. $B = (b_{ij}) \in n\mathcal{B}_M \cap \mathbb{Z}^{M \times M}$ if and only if

$$b_{ij} \in \mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

$$\sum_i b_{ij} = n$$

$$\sum_j b_{ij} = n.$$

Example of a magic square

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (M = 4, n = 7)$$

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$$\in 7\mathcal{B}_4$$

$H_M(n)$

$$\begin{aligned} H_M(n) &:= \#\{M \times M \mathbb{N}\text{-matrices, line sums } n\} \\ &= i(\mathcal{B}_M, n) \end{aligned}$$

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$$H_1(n) = 1$$

$$H_2(n) = n + 1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & n-a \\ n-a & a \end{bmatrix}, \quad 0 \leq a \leq n.$$

The case $M = 3$

$$H_3(n) = \binom{n+2}{4} + \binom{n+3}{4} + \binom{n+4}{4}$$

(MacMahon)

Values for small n

$$H_M(0) = ??$$

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Anand-Dumir-Gupta, 1966:

$$\sum_{M \geq 0} H_M(2) \frac{x^M}{M!^2} = ??$$

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Anand-Dumir-Gupta, 1966:

$$\sum_{M \geq 0} H_M(2) \frac{x^M}{M!^2} = \frac{e^{x/2}}{\sqrt{1-x}}$$

Anand-Dumir-Gupta conjecture

Theorem (Birkhoff-von Neumann). *The vertices of \mathcal{B}_M consist of the $M!$ $M \times M$ permutation matrices. Hence \mathcal{B}_M is a lattice polytope.*

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Corollary (Anand-Dumir-Gupta conjecture). *$H_M(n)$ is a polynomial in n (of degree $(M - 1)^2$).*

$H_4(n)$

Example.
$$H_4(n) = \frac{1}{11340} (11n^9 + 198n^8 + 1596n^7 + 7560n^6 + 23289n^5 + 48762n^5 + 70234n^4 + 68220n^2 + 40950n + 11340).$$

Reciprocity for magic squares

Reciprocity $\Rightarrow \pm H_M(-n) =$

$\#\{M \times M \text{ matrices } B \text{ of positive integers, line sum } n\}.$

But every such B can be obtained from an $M \times M$ matrix A of **nonnegative** integers by adding 1 to each entry.

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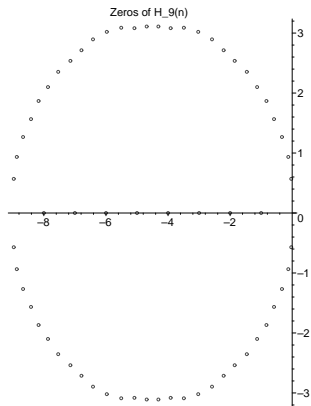
Corollary. $H_M(-1) = H_M(-2) = \dots = H_M(-M + 1) = 0$

$$H_M(-M - n) = (-1)^{M-1} H_M(n)$$

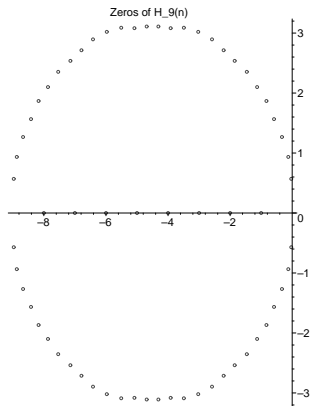
Two remarks

- Reciprocity greatly reduces computation.
- Applications of magic squares, e.g., to statistics (contingency tables).

Zeros of $H_9(n)$ in complex plane



Zeros of $H_9(n)$ in complex plane



No explanation known.

Zonotopes

Let $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k \in \mathbb{R}^d$. The **zonotope** $Z(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k)$ generated by $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$:

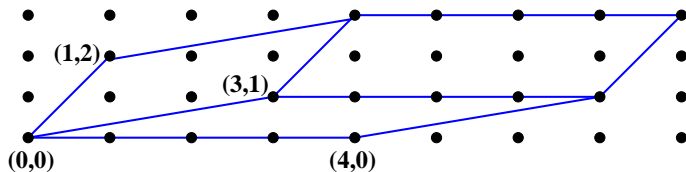
$$Z(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k) = \{\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \lambda_k \mathbf{v}_k : 0 \leq \lambda_i \leq 1\}$$

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Example. $\mathbf{v}_1 = (4, 0)$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = (3, 1)$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = (1, 2)$



Lattice points in a zonotope

Theorem. Let

$$Z = Z(v_1, \dots, v_k) \subset \mathbb{R}^d,$$

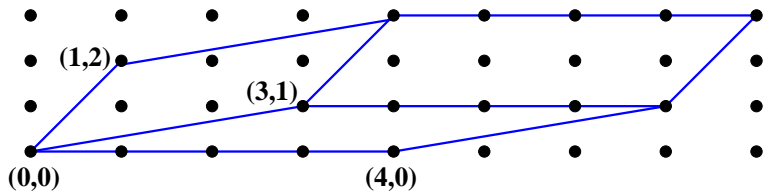
where $v_i \in \mathbb{Z}^d$. Then

$$i(Z, 1) = \sum_X h(X),$$

where X ranges over all linearly independent subsets of $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$, and $h(X)$ is the gcd of all $j \times j$ minors ($j = \#X$) of the matrix whose rows are the elements of X .

An example

Example. $v_1 = (4, 0)$, $v_2 = (3, 1)$, $v_3 = (1, 2)$

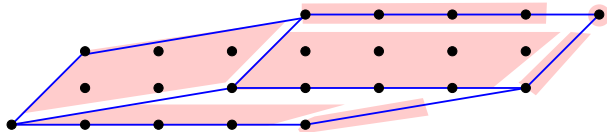


Computation of $i(Z, 1)$

$$\begin{aligned}i(Z, 1) &= \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} \\ &\quad + \gcd(4, 0) + \gcd(3, 1) \\ &\quad + \gcd(1, 2) + \det(\emptyset) \\ &= 4 + 8 + 5 + 4 + 1 + 1 + 1 \\ &= 24.\end{aligned}$$

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Corollaries

Corollary. *If Z is an integer zonotope generated by integer vectors, then the coefficients of $i(Z, n)$ are nonnegative integers.*

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Neither property (nonnegativity, integrality) is true for general integer polytopes. There are numerous conjectures concerning special cases.

The permutohedron

$$\Pi_d = \text{conv}\{(w(1), \dots, w(d)) : w \in S_d\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$$

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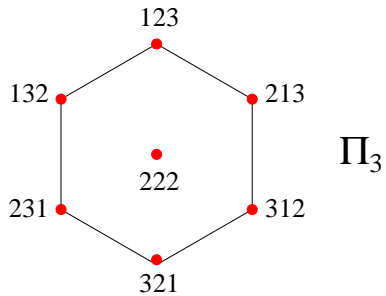
$$\dim \Pi_d = d - 1, \text{ since } \sum w(i) = \binom{d+1}{2}$$

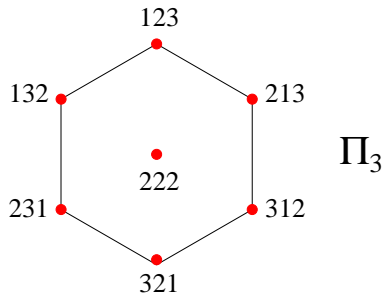
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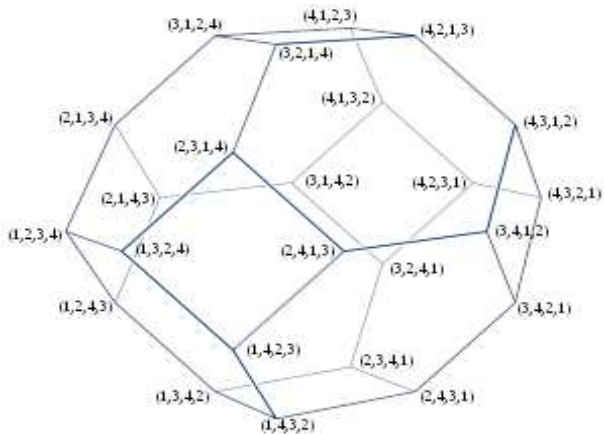
$$\dim \Pi_d = d - 1, \text{ since } \sum w(i) = \binom{d+1}{2}$$

$$\Pi_d \approx Z(e_i - e_j : 1 \leq i < j \leq d)$$

Π_3  Π_3

Π_3 

$$i(\Pi_3, n) = 3n^2 + 3n + 1$$



(truncated octahedron)

$i(\Pi_d, n)$

Theorem. $i(\Pi_d, n) = \sum_{k=0}^{d-1} f_k(d) n^k$, where

$$f_k(d) = \#\{\text{forests with } k \text{ edges on vertices } 1, \dots, d\}$$

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$$i(\Pi_3, n) = 3n^2 + 3n + 1$$

Can be greatly generalized (**Postnikov**, et al.).

Application to graph theory

Let G be a graph (with no loops or multiple edges) on the vertex set $V(G) = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Let

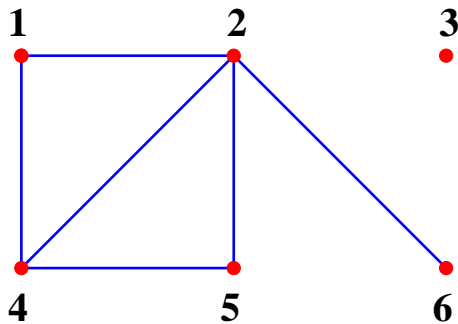
d_i = degree (# incident edges) of vertex i .

Define the **ordered degree sequence** $d(G)$ of G by

$$d(G) = (d_1, \dots, d_n).$$

Example of $d(G)$

Example. $d(G) = (2, 4, 0, 3, 2, 1)$

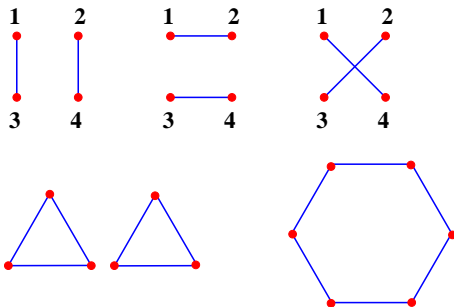


ordered degree sequences

Let $f(n)$ be the number of distinct $d(G)$, where $V(G) = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

$f(n)$ for $n \leq 4$

Example. If $n \leq 3$, all $d(G)$ are distinct, so $f(1) = 1$, $f(2) = 2^1 = 2$, $f(3) = 2^3 = 8$. For $n \geq 4$ we can have $G \neq H$ but $d(G) = d(H)$, e.g.,



In fact, $f(4) = 54 < 2^6 = 64$.

The polytope of degree sequences

Let **conv** denote convex hull, and

$$\mathcal{D}_n = \text{conv}\{d(G) : V(G) = \{1, \dots, n\}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n,$$

the **polytope of degree sequences** (Perles, Koren).

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Easy fact. Let e_i be the i th unit coordinate vector in \mathbb{R}^n . E.g., if $n = 5$ then $e_2 = (0, 1, 0, 0, 0)$. Then

$$\mathcal{D}_n = Z(e_i + e_j : 1 \leq i < j \leq n).$$

The Erdős-Gallai theorem

Theorem. Let

$$\alpha = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n.$$

Then $\alpha = d(G)$ for some G if and only if

- $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_n$
- $a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$ is even.

A generating function

Enumerative techniques leads to:

Theorem. *Let*

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= \sum_{n \geq 0} f(n) \frac{x^n}{n!} \\ &= 1 + x + 2 \frac{x^2}{2!} + 8 \frac{x^3}{3!} + 54 \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Then:

A formula for $F(x)$

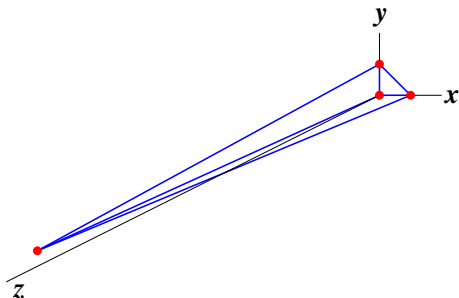
$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(1 + 2 \sum_{n \geq 1} n^n \frac{x^n}{n!} \right)^{1/2} \right. \\ &\quad \times \left. \left(1 - \sum_{n \geq 1} (n-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n!} \right) + 1 \right] \\ &\quad \times \exp \sum_{n \geq 1} n^{n-2} \frac{x^n}{n!} \quad (0^0 = 1) \end{aligned}$$

Coefficients of $i(\mathcal{P}, n)$

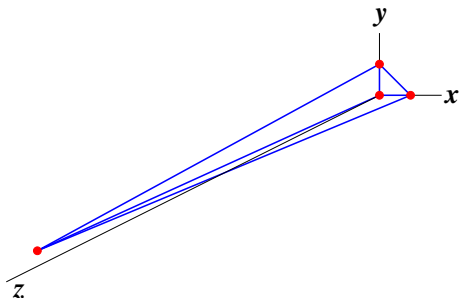
Let \mathcal{P} denote the tetrahedron with vertices $(0,0,0)$, $(1,0,0)$, $(0,1,0)$, $(1,1,13)$. Then

$$i(\mathcal{P}, n) = \frac{13}{6}n^3 + n^2 - \frac{1}{6}n + 1.$$

The “bad” tetrahedron



The “bad” tetrahedron



Thus in general the coefficients of Ehrhart polynomials are not “nice.” Is there a “better” basis?

The h^* -vector of $i(\mathcal{P}, n)$

Let \mathcal{P} be a lattice polytope of dimension d . Since $i(\mathcal{P}, n)$ is a polynomial of degree d , $\exists \mathbf{h}_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} i(\mathcal{P}, n)x^n = \frac{h_0 + h_1x + \cdots + h_dx^d}{(1-x)^{d+1}}.$$

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Definition. Define

$$\mathbf{h}^*(\mathcal{P}) = (h_0, h_1, \dots, h_d),$$

the h^* -vector of \mathcal{P} .

Example of an h^* -vector

Example. Recall

$$\begin{aligned}i(\mathcal{B}_4, n) = & \frac{1}{11340} (11n^9 \\ & + 198n^8 + 1596n^7 + 7560n^6 + 23289n^5 \\ & + 48762n^5 + 70234n^4 + 68220n^2 \\ & + 40950n + 11340).\end{aligned}$$

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Then

$$h^*(\mathcal{B}_4) = (1, 14, 87, 148, 87, 14, 1, 0, 0, 0).$$

Two terms of $h^*(\mathcal{P})$

- $h_0 = 1$
- $h_d = (-1)^{\dim \mathcal{P}} i(\mathcal{P}, -1) = l(\mathcal{P})$

Main properties of $h^*(\mathcal{P})$

Theorem A (nonnegativity). (McMullen, RS) $h_i \geq 0$.

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Main properties of $h^*(\mathcal{P})$

Theorem A (nonnegativity). (McMullen, RS) $h_i \geq 0$.

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B \Rightarrow A: take $\mathcal{Q} = \emptyset$.

Proofs: the Ehrhart ring

\mathcal{P} : (convex) lattice polytope in \mathbb{R}^d with vertex set V

$$\mathbf{x}^\beta = x^{\beta_1} \dots x^{\beta_d}, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}^d$$

Ehrhart ring (over \mathbb{Q}):

$$R_{\mathcal{P}} = \mathbb{Q} \left[x^\beta y^n : \beta \in \mathbb{Z}^d, n \in \mathbb{P}, \frac{\beta}{n} \in \mathcal{P} \right]$$

$$\deg x^\beta y^n = n$$

Proofs: the Ehrhart ring

\mathcal{P} : (convex) lattice polytope in \mathbb{R}^d with vertex set V

$$\mathbf{x}^\beta = x^{\beta_1} \dots x^{\beta_d}, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}^d$$

Ehrhart ring (over \mathbb{Q}):

$$R_{\mathcal{P}} = \mathbb{Q} \left[x^\beta y^n : \beta \in \mathbb{Z}^d, n \in \mathbb{P}, \frac{\beta}{n} \in \mathcal{P} \right]$$

$$\deg x^\beta y^n = n$$

$$R_{\mathcal{P}} = (R_{\mathcal{P}})_0 \oplus (R_{\mathcal{P}})_1 \oplus \dots$$

Simple properties of $R_{\mathcal{P}}$

Hilbert function of $R_{\mathcal{P}}$:

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This means (using finiteness of $R_{\mathcal{P}}$ over $\mathbb{Q}[V]$): if $\dim \mathcal{P} = m$ then there exist algebraically independent $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m \in (R_{\mathcal{P}})_1$ such that $R_{\mathcal{P}}$ is a finitely-generated free $\mathbb{Q}[\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m]$ -module.

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Corollary. $\sum_{n \geq 0} \underbrace{H(R_{\mathcal{P}}, n)}_{i(\mathcal{P}, n)} x^n = \frac{x^{e_1} + \dots + x^{e_r}}{(1-x)^m}$, so $h^*(\mathcal{P}) \geq 0$.

Monotonicity

The result $Q \subseteq P \Rightarrow h^*(Q) \leq h^*(P)$ is proved similarly.

We have $R_Q \subset R_P$. The key fact is that we can find an h.s.o.p. $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k$ for R_Q that extends to an h.s.o.p. for R_P .

The canonical module

Let $R = R_0 \oplus R_1 \oplus \dots$ be a Cohen-Macaulay graded algebra over a field $K = R_0$, with Krull dimension m and Hilbert series

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} (\dim_K R_n) x^n = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^r x^{e_j}}{(1 - x^{d_1}) \dots (1 - x^{d_m})}.$$

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canonical module: $\Omega(R) = \text{Ext}_A^{t-m}(R, A)$, a graded R -module.

Reciprocity redux

Basic result in commutative/homological algebra:

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} (\dim_K \Omega(R)_n) x^n = \frac{x^c \sum_{j=1}^r x^{-e_j}}{(1 - x^{d_1}) \cdots (1 - x^{d_m})}.$$

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$$\Omega(R_{\mathcal{P}}) = \text{span}_{\mathbb{Q}} \{x^{\beta} y^n : \beta \in \mathbb{Z}^d, n \in \mathbb{P}, \frac{\beta}{n} \in \text{interior}(\mathcal{P})\}$$

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Corollary. $\bar{i}(\mathcal{P}, n) = (-1)^d i(\mathcal{P}, n)$.

Further properties: I. Brion's theorem

Example. Let \mathcal{P} be the polytope $[2, 5]$ in \mathbb{R} , so \mathcal{P} is defined by

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Let

$$F_1(t) = \sum_{\substack{n \geq 2 \\ n \in \mathbb{Z}}} t^n = \frac{t^2}{1-t}$$
$$F_2(t) = \sum_{\substack{n \leq 5 \\ n \in \mathbb{Z}}} t^n = \frac{t^5}{1-\frac{1}{t}}.$$

$F_1(t) + F_2(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} F_1(t) + F_2(t) &= \frac{t^2}{1-t} + \frac{t^5}{1-\frac{1}{t}} \\ &= t^2 + t^3 + t^4 + t^5 \\ &= \sum_{m \in \mathcal{P} \cap \mathbb{Z}} t^m. \end{aligned}$$

Cone at a vertex

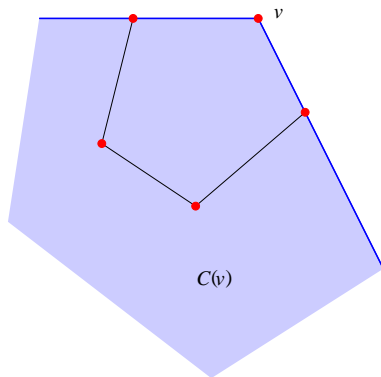
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The general result

$$\text{Let } F_i(t_1, \dots, t_N) = \sum_{(m_1, \dots, m_N) \in \mathcal{C}_i \cap \mathbb{Z}^N} t_1^{m_1} \dots t_N^{m_N}.$$

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Theorem (Brion). *Each F_i is a rational function of t_1, \dots, t_N , and*

$$\sum_{i=1}^k F_i(t_1, \dots, t_N) = \sum_{(m_1, \dots, m_N) \in \mathcal{P} \cap \mathbb{Z}^N} t_1^{m_1} \dots t_N^{m_N}$$

(as rational functions).

II. Complexity

Computing $i(\mathcal{P}, n)$, or even $i(\mathcal{P}, 1)$ is **$\#P$ -complete**. Thus an “efficient” (polynomial time) algorithm is extremely unlikely. However:

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Theorem (A. Barvinok, 1994). For **fixed** $\dim \mathcal{P}$, \exists polynomial-time algorithm for computing $i(\mathcal{P}, n)$.

III. Fractional lattice polytopes

Example. Let $S_M(n)$ denote the number of **symmetric** $M \times M$ matrices of nonnegative integers, every row and column sum n .
Then

$$\begin{aligned} S_3(n) &= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{8}(2n^3 + 9n^2 + 14n + 8), & n \text{ even} \\ \frac{1}{8}(2n^3 + 9n^2 + 14n + 7), & n \text{ odd} \end{cases} \\ &= \frac{1}{16}(4n^3 + 18n^2 + 28n + 15 + (-1)^n). \end{aligned}$$

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Why a different polynomial depending on n modulo 2?

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Thus if v is a vertex of \mathcal{T}_M then $2v \in \mathbb{Z}^{M \times M}$.

$S_M(n)$ in general

Theorem. *There exist polynomials $P_M(n)$ and $Q_M(n)$ for which*

$$S_M(n) = P_M(n) + (-1)^n Q_M(n), \quad n \geq 0.$$

Moreover, $\deg P_M(n) = \binom{M}{2}$.

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Difficult result (**Dahmen** and **Micchelli**, 1988):

$$\deg Q_M(n) = \begin{cases} \binom{M-1}{2} - 1, & M \text{ odd} \\ \binom{M-2}{2} - 1, & M \text{ even.} \end{cases}$$

IV. Some curious triangles

For $\alpha > 0$ let T_α be the triangle in \mathbb{R}^2 with vertices $(0,0), (0,\alpha), (1/\alpha,0)$, so $\text{area}(T_\alpha) = \frac{1}{2}$. Can define

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- $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}(3 + \sqrt{5})$

The last slide

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