



commutative ring theory and applications

edited by Marco Fontana Salah-Eddine Kabbaj Sylvia Wiegand



commutative ring theory and applications

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Preface

This volume draws on the contributors' talks at the Fourth International Conference on Commutative Algebra held in Fez, Morocco. The goal of this conference was to present recent progress and new trends in the growing area of commutative algebra, with primary emphasis on commutative ring theory and its applications. The conference also facilitated a fruitful interaction among the participants, whose various mathematical interests shared the same (commutative) algebraic roots.

The book consists of 34 chapters which, while written as separate articles, provide nonetheless a comprehensive report on questions and problems of contemporary interest. Some articles are surveys of their subject, while others present a narrower, indepth view. All the manuscripts were subject to a strict refereeing process.

This volume encompasses wide-ranging topics in commutative ring theory (along with connections to algebraic number theory, algebraic geometry, homological algebra, and model-theoretic algebra). The topics covered include: algebroid curves, arithmetic rings, chain conditions, class groups, constructions of examples, divisibility and factorization, linear Diophantine equations, the going-down and going-up properties, graded modules and analytic spread, Gröbner bases and computational methods, homological aspects of commutative rings, ideal and module systems, integer-valued polynomials, integral dependence, Krull domains and generalizations, local cohomology, prime spectra and dimension theory, polynomial rings, power series rings, pullbacks, tight closure, ultraproducts, and zero-divisors.

Graduate students and established commutative algebraists will find the book a valuable and reliable source, as will researchers in many other branches of mathematics.

The conference was organized by the University of Fez with the scientific collaboration of the Università degli Studi "Roma Tre," Italy, and the University of Nebraska, U.S.A. Financial support was provided by the Commutative Algebra and Homological Aspects Laboratory, the Faculty of Sciences "Dhar Al-Mehraz," the International Mathematical Union (CDE), the "Espace Sciences & Vie" Association, and the Università degli Studi "Roma Tre."

We wish to express our gratitude to the local organizing committee, especially Professors A. Benkirane, Chairman of the Department of Mathematics, R. Ameziane Hassani, and A. Touzani, as well as to Professor M. H. Kadri and Mr. M. A. Chad, Dean and Secretary-General, respectively, of the Faculty of Sciences "Dhar Al-Mehraz" at Fez. Special thanks are due to Mr. A. Bennani and Mrs. T. Ibn Abdelmoula for their constant help with conference arrangements. The efforts of the contributors and the referees are greatly appreciated; without their work this volume would never have been produced. Last, we thank the editorial staff at Marcel Dekker, Inc., in particular, Maria Allegra and Ana Pacheco, for their patience, hard work, and assistance with this volume.

> Marco Fontana Salah-Eddine Kabbaj Sylvia Wiegand



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$D[X^2, X^3]$ Over an Integral Domain D

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1. INTRODUCTION

Let D be an integral domain with identity and quotient field K. In this paper, we study the ring $D[X^2, X^3] = D + X^2 D[X] \subset D[X]$, and we compare its behavior to its polynomial overring D[X]. Of course, $D[X^2, X^3]$ is never integrally closed (or seminormal, root closed, etc.); so in this paper, we are mainly interested in ring-theoretic properties that do not involve "closedness" conditions. Quite often $D[X^2, X^3]$ satisfies a given ring-theoretic property if and only if D[X] satisfies that property. However, in Section 3, the characteristic of D plays an important role. The ring $K[X^2, X^3]$ has proved useful in constructing examples concerning the Picard group (see Theorem 3.4) and nonunique factorization (see [10]). This paper gives several other cases where the ring $D[X^2, X^3]$ can be used to construct interesting, elementary examples (for instance, see Section 3). Many of the results in this paper generalize to monoid domains; we leave this to a future paper.

We first recall some of the properties we will investigate in this paper. An integral domain D is said to be a weakly factorial domain (WFD) [4] if each nonzero nonunit of D is a product of primary elements. Following [9], D is called a generalized weakly factorial domain (GWFD) if each nonzero prime ideal of D contains a primary element. Clearly, WFDs are GWFDs; however, if D is a Dedekind domain with nonzero torsion divisor class group, then R is a GWFD, but not a WFD (cf. [7, p. 912], [9, Proposition 3.1]). Following [5], D is called a weakly Krull domain if $D = \bigcap_{P \in X^{(1)}(D)} D_P$ and the intersection has finite character, where $X^{(1)}(D)$ is the set of height-one prime ideals of D. A Krull domain is weakly Krull, and a Noetherian domain is weakly Krull if and only if every grade-one prime ideal has height one. In [7, Theorem], it was shown that D is a WFD if and only if D is a weakly Krull domain and $Cl_t(D) = 0$. A Krull domain D is called almost factorial if Cl(D) is torsion. As in [5], we say that an integral domain D is an almost weakly factorial domain (AWFD) if for each nonzero nonunit $x \in D$, there is an integer $n = n(x) \ge 1$ such that x^n is a product of primary elements. Thus an AWFD is a GWFD. It was shown in [5, Theorem 3.4] that D is an AWFD if and only if D is a weakly Krull domain and $Cl_t(D)$ is torsion. We say that an integral domain D is an almost GCD-domain (AGCD-domain) if for all nonzero $x, y \in D$, there exists an integer $n = n(x, y) \ge 1$ such that $(x^n, y^n)_v$ is principal. In [6, Theorem 3.4], it was proved that $Cl_t(D)$ is torsion when D is an AGCD-domain.

Throughout this paper, D denotes an integral domain with quotient field K, Spec(D) its set of prime ideals, and $X^{(1)}(D)$ its set of height-one prime ideals. For $f \in K[X]$, let A_f be the fractional ideal of D generated by the coefficients of f. Recall that for a nonzero fractional ideal A of D, we have $A^{-1} = \{x \in K | xA \subseteq D\}$, $A_v = (A^{-1})^{-1}$, and $A_t = \bigcup \{(a_1, ..., a_n)_v | 0 \neq (a_1, ..., a_n) \subseteq A\}$. A nonzero fractional ideal A of D is called a *divisorial ideal* (resp., t-*ideal*) if $A_v = A$ (resp., $A_t = A$). We say that D has t-dimension one, written t-dimD = 1, if each prime t-ideal of D has height one (note that a height-one prime ideal is necessarily a t-ideal). A weakly Krull domain D has t-dimD = 1 [5, Lemma 2.1]. An integral ideal of D is said to be a maximal t-ideal if it is maximal with respect to being a t-ideal, and a

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maximal *t*-ideal is necessarily a prime ideal.

A nonzero fractional ideal A of D is said to be *t-invertible* if there exists a fractional ideal B of D with $(AB)_t = D$, and in this case we can take $B = A^{-1}$. It is well known that if A is a *t*-invertible *t*-ideal, then $A = J_v$ for some finitely generated subideal J of A. The set of *t*-invertible *t*-ideals of D forms an abelian group under the *t*-product $A * B = (AB)_t$. The *t*-class group of D is $Cl_t(D)$ - the group of *t*-invertible fractional *t*-ideals of D modulo its subgroup of principal fractional ideals. For D a Krull domain, $Cl_t(D) = Cl(D)$, the divisor class group; while for D a Prüfer domain or one-dimensional integral domain, $Cl_t(D) = C(D) = Pic(D)$, the ideal class group (or Picard group). For a recent survey article on the *t*-class group, see [8].

2. THE RING $D[X^2, X^3]$

In this section, we study the ring $D[X^2, X^3] = D + X^2 D[X]$ and prove some analogs of the polynomial ring D[X]. Our first goal is to show that $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a UMTdomain if and only if D is a UMT-domain. The next lemma also holds for monoid domains (cf. [11, Lemma 2.3]).

LEMMA 2.1. Let I be a nonzero fractional ideal of D. Then

- (1) $(ID[X^2, X^3])^{-1} = I^{-1}D[X^2, X^3].$
- (2) $(ID[X^2, X^3])_v = I_v D[X^2, X^3].$
- (3) $(ID[X^2, X^3])_t = I_t D[X^2, X^3].$

Proof. (1) It is clear that $I^{-1}D[X^2, X^3] \subseteq (ID[X^2, X^3])^{-1}$. Note that since $I(ID[X^2, X^3])^{-1} \subseteq D[X^2, X^3] \subseteq K[X^2, X^3]$, we have $(ID[X^2, X^3])^{-1} \subseteq K[X^2, X^3]$. If $f \in (ID[X^2, X^3])^{-1}$, then $A_f I \subseteq D$, and hence $A_f \subseteq I^{-1}$. So $f \in A_f D[X^2, X^3] \subseteq I^{-1}D[X^2, X^3]$. Therefore, $(ID[X^2, X^3])^{-1} = I^{-1}D[X^2, X^3]$.

(2) $(ID[X^2, X^3])_v = ((ID[X^2, X^3])^{-1})^{-1} = (I^{-1}D[X^2, X^3])^{-1} = I_v D[X^2, X^3]$ by (1).

(3) It is clear that if $f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_k \in ID[X^2, X^3]$, then

$$(f_1,\ldots,f_k)_v \subseteq ((A_{f_1},\ldots,A_{f_k})D[X^2,X^3])_v$$

 $= (A_{f_1}, ..., A_{f_k})_v D[X^2, X^3] \subseteq I_t D[X^2, X^3].$

So $(ID[X^2, X^3])_t \subseteq I_t D[X^2, X^3]$. For the converse, let J be a nonzero finitely generated subideal of I. Then $J_v D[X^2, X^3] = (JD[X^2, X^3])_v \subseteq (ID[X^2, X^3])_t$ by (2). Thus $I_t D[X^2, X^3] \subseteq (ID[X^2, X^3])_t$, and hence $(ID[X^2, X^3])_t = I_t D[X^2, X^3]$. \Box

LEMMA 2.2. (cf. [18, Proposition 1.1]) Let Q be a maximal t-ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$ such that $Q \cap D \neq 0$. Then $Q = (Q \cap D)[X^2, X^3]$. In particular, $Q \cap D$ is a maximal t-ideal of D.

Proof. It suffices to show that $c(Q)[X^2, X^3] \subseteq Q$, where c(Q) is the ideal of D generated by the coefficients of all the polynomials in Q. If $c(Q) \notin Q$, then $Q \subsetneq c(Q)[X^2, X^3]$. Since Q is a maximal t-ideal, we have $c(Q)_t[X^2, X^3] = (c(Q)[X^2, X^3])_t = D[X^2, X^3]$. So $c(Q)_t = D$; whence there is a polynomial $f \in Q$ such that $(A_f)_v = D$. Let $0 \neq a \in Q \cap D$.

We claim that $(a, f)^{-1} = D[X^2, X^3]$. First note that $(a, f)^{-1} \subseteq K[X^2, X^3]$ because for $g \in (a, f)^{-1}$, $ag \in D[X^2, X^3] \subseteq K[X^2, X^3]$. Next, if $g \in (a, f)^{-1}$, then there is an integer $m \ge 1$ such that $A_f^{m+1}A_g = A_f^mA_{fg}$ [16, Theorem 28.1]. Thus $(A_f^{m+1}A_g)_v = (A_f^mA_{fg})_v$ and $A_g \subseteq (A_g)_t = ((A_f^{m+1})_vA_g)_v = (A_f^{m+1}A_g)_v =$ $(A_f^mA_{fg})_v = ((A_f^m)_vA_{fg})_v = (A_{fg})_v \subseteq D$. Hence $g \in A_g[X^2, X^3] \subseteq D[X^2, X^3]$. Thus $(a, f)^{-1} = D[X^2, X^3]$, and hence $(a, f)_v = D[X^2, X^3]$, which is a contradiction since Q is a t-ideal. Therefore $c(Q)[X^2, X^3] = Q$, and hence Q = $(Q \cap D)[X^2, X^3]$. \Box

As in [18], D is called a *UMT-domain* if every upper to zero (a nonzero prime ideal of D[X] which contracts to zero in D) of D[X] is a maximal *t*-ideal. Recall that D[X] is a UMT-domain if and only if D is a UMT-domain [14, Theorem 3.4]. Thus, as a consequence of our next result, $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a UMT-domain if and only if D[X] is a UMT-domain.

THEOREM 2.3. $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a UMT-domain if and only if D is a UMT-domain.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose that $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a UMT-domain. Let P be a maximal tideal of D. Then $PD[X^2, X^3]$ is a maximal t-ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$ by Lemma 2.2. Also, note that $D[X^2, X^3]_{PD[X^2, X^3]} = D[X]_{P[X]}$. Since $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a UMTdomain, $D[X]_{P[X]}$ is a t-linkative UMT-domain [14, Theorem 1.5], and hence D_P

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is a t-linkative UMT-domain (see the proof of [14, Theorem 2.4]). Thus D is a UMT-domain [14, Theorem 1.5].

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that *D* is a UMT-domain. To show that $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a UMT-domain, it is enough to show that if *Q* is a maximal *t*-ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$, then the integral closure of $D[X^2, X^3]_Q$ is a Prüfer domain [14, Theorem 1.5].

Let Q be a maximal t-ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$ and let $Q \cap D = P$. If $P \neq 0$, then $Q = P[X^2, X^3]$ by Lemma 2.2. Moreover, since $X^2 \notin P[X^2, X^3]$ we have $D[X^2, X^3]_Q = D[X]_{P[X]}$. Thus the integral closure of $D[X^2, X^3]_Q$ is a Prüfer domain by [14, Theorem 1.5] (note that D[X] is a UMT-domain [14, Theorem 2.4] and P[X] is a prime t-ideal of D[X]). If P = 0, then $D[X^2, X^3]_Q = K[X^2, X^3]_{QK[X^2, X^3]}$, and hence $D[X^2, X^3]_Q$ is a one-dimensional Noetherian domain. Thus the integral closure of $D[X^2, X^3]_Q$ is a Dedekind domain (cf. [22, Theorem 33.10]), and hence a Prüfer domain. \Box

LEMMA 2.4. If Q is a prime ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$, then there is a unique prime ideal of D[X] lying over Q. Thus the natural map $Spec(D[X]) \rightarrow Spec(D[X^2, X^3])$, given by $P \rightarrow P \cap D[X^2, X^3]$, is an order-preserving bijection.

Proof. Let Q be a prime ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$, $P = Q \cap D$, and $S = \{X^n | n = 0, 2, 3, ...\}$.

Case 1. P = 0. If $QD[X^2, X^3]_S = D[X^2, X^3]_S$, then $Q = XD[X] \cap D[X^2, X^3]$ and XD[X] is the unique prime ideal of D[X] lying over Q. Assume that $QD[X^2, X^3]_S$ $\subseteq D[X]_S$. Note that $D[X^2, X^3]_S = D[X]_S = D[X, X^{-1}]$. So $QD[X^2, X^3]_S \cap D[X]$ is the unique prime ideal of D[X] lying over Q.

Case 2. $P \neq 0$. If $Q = P[X^2, X^3]$, then P[X] is the unique prime ideal of D[X]lying over Q. Assume that $P[X^2, X^3] \subsetneq Q$. Note that $D[X^2, X^3]/P[X^2, X^3] \cong$ $(D/P)[X^2, X^3], D[X]/P[X] \cong (D/P)[X]$, and $(Q/P[X^2, X^3]) \cap (D/P)[X^2, X^3] =$ 0. Thus there is a unique prime ideal of (D/P)[X] lying over $Q/P[X^2, X^3]$ by Case 1. Since every prime ideal of D[X] lying over Q contains P[X], there is a unique prime ideal of D[X] lying over Q. \Box

We next show that the bijection in Lemma 2.4 preserves t-ideals.

THEOREM 2.5. Let Q be a prime ideal of D[X] and let $Q' = Q \cap D[X^2, X^3]$. Then Q' is a prime t-ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$ if and only if Q is a prime t-ideal of D[X]. *Proof.* Let $P = Q \cap D = Q' \cap D$ and $S = \{X^n | n = 0, 2, 3, ...\}$.

Case 1. P = 0. Then htQ' = htQ = 1 by Lemma 2.4. Thus Q and Q' are prime t-ideals of D[X] and $D[X^2, X^3]$, respectively.

Case 2. $P \neq 0$. Then Q = P[X] if and only if $Q' = P[X^2, X^3]$ (Lemma 2.4). Thus, by Lemma 2.1, Q is a prime t-ideal of D[X] if and only if P is a prime t-ideal of D, if and only if Q' is a prime t-ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$.

Case 3. $P \neq 0$. Then $P[X] \subsetneq Q$ if and only if $P[X^2, X^3] \subsetneq Q'$. Note that if either Q or Q' is a t-ideal, then $X \notin Q$. For if $0 \neq a \in P$, then $((a, X)D[X])_v =$ D[X] and $((a, X^2)D[X^2, X^3])_v = D[X^2, X^3]$. Note that $D[X^2, X^3]_S = D[X]_S$, $Q'D[X^2, X^3]_S = QD[X]_S$, $Q = QD[X]_S \cap D[X]$, and $Q' = Q'D[X^2, X^3]_S \cap$ $D[X^2, X^3]$. Thus it suffices to show that if either Q or Q' is a t-ideal, then $Q'D[X^2, X^3]_S = QD[X]_S$ is a t-ideal of $D[X]_S$ by [19, Lemma 3.17].

Let A be a fractional ideal of D[X] such that $A \cap D \neq 0$. We claim that $(AD[X]_S)^{-1} = A^{-1}D[X]_S$. It is clear that $A^{-1}D[X]_S \subseteq (AD[X]_S)^{-1}$. For the converse, let $u \in (AD[X]_S)^{-1}$. Then $uA \subseteq u(AD[X]_S) \subseteq D[X]_S$. Since $A \cap D \neq 0$, $u \in K[X]_S$. Thus $u = \frac{q}{X^m}$ for some $g \in K[X]$ and integer $m \geq 0$. For any $f \in A$, since $uf = (\frac{q}{X^m})f \in D[X]_S$, $fgX^n \in D[X]$ for some integer $n \geq 0$, and hence $fg \in D[X]$. Thus $g \in A^{-1}$ and $u = \frac{q}{X^m} \in A^{-1}D[X]_S$. Hence $(AD[X]_S)^{-1} \subseteq A^{-1}D[X]_S$, and thus $(AD[X]_S)^{-1} = A^{-1}D[X]_S$. A similar argument shows that if A is a fractional ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$ with $A \cap D \neq 0$, then $(AD[X]_S)^{-1} = A^{-1}D[X]_S$.

Suppose that Q is a *t*-ideal of D[X] and let B be a finitely generated subideal of Q. Note that $P \neq 0$, and for any $a \in Q$, (B, a) is also a finitely generated subideal of Q and $(BD[X]_S)_v \subseteq ((B, a)D[X]_S)_v$. So we may assume that $B \cap D \neq 0$. By the previous paragraph, we have that $(BD[X]_S)_v = B_vD[X]_S$. Thus $QD[X]_S$ is a *t*-ideal. Similarly, we have that if Q' is a *t*-ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$, then $Q'D[X^2, X^3]_S$ is a *t*-ideal. Therefore, the proof is completed. \Box

Recall that D is a Mori domain if it satisfies the ascending chain condition on integral divisorial ideals. The class of Mori domains includes Noetherian domains and Krull domains, and is closed under finite intersections. Recall that D[X] is a Mori domain if D is an integrally closed Mori domain [24]. However, an example is given in [25] of a Mori domain D for which D[X] is not a Mori domain. We say that an integral domain D satisfies the Principal Ideal Theorem (PIT) if each prime ideal of D which is minimal over a nonzero principal ideal has height one. It follows from [12, Proposition 3.1(b)] that an integral domain D satisfies PIT if and only if each nonzero prime ideal of D is a union of height-one prime ideals. An integral domain D is called an S-domain if htP[X] = 1 for each prime ideal P of D with htP = 1 [20]. Note that D[X] is an S-domain for any integral domain D[2, Theorem 3.2]. Also, note that if D[X] satisfies PIT, then D satisfies PIT and D is an S-domain [12, Proposition 6.1]; but, D satisfies PIT does not imply that D[X] satisfies PIT [12, Remark 6.2]. However, if D is integrally closed, then D[X]satisfies PIT if and only if D satisfies PIT and D is an S-domain [13, Theorem 4].

We next show that $D[X^2, X^3]$ satisfies any of the above three properties if and only if D[X] does.

THEOREM 2.6. Let D be an integral domain. Then

- (1) $D[X^2, X^3]$ is an S-domain.
- (2) $D[X^2, X^3]$ satisfies PIT if and only if D[X] satisfies PIT.
- (3) $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a Mori domain if and only if D[X] is a Mori domain.

Proof. (1) Since D[X] is integral over $D[X^2, X^3]$ (or by Lemma 2.4) and D[X] is an S-domain, $D[X^2, X^3]$ is also an S-domain.

 $(2)(\Rightarrow)$ Suppose that $D[X^2, X^3]$ satisfies PIT. Let Q be a prime ideal of D[X]and $P = Q \cap D[X^2, X^3]$. We need to show that $Q = \cup Q_\alpha$, where $\{Q_\alpha\}$ is the set of height-one prime ideals of D[X] contained in Q. Since $D[X^2, X^3]$ satisfies PIT, $P = \cup (Q_\alpha \cap D[X^2, X^3])$ by Lemma 2.4. If $X \in Q$, then $Q = (Q \cap D, X)$. Thus $P = (Q \cap D, X^2, X^3)$. Hence $Q = (Q \cap D, X) \subseteq \cup Q_\alpha$; so $Q = \cup Q_\alpha$. If $X \notin Q$, then $fX^2 \in P$ for any $f \in Q$. Then $fX^2 \in Q_\alpha$ for some Q_α , and hence $f \in Q_\alpha$; so $Q = \cup Q_\alpha$. Thus D[X] satisfies PIT. (\Leftarrow) Suppose that D[X] satisfies PIT. Let Pbe a prime ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$. By Lemma 2.4, $P = Q \cap D[X^2, X^3]$ for some prime ideal Q of D[X]. Since D[X] satisfies PIT, Q is a union of height-one prime ideals of D[X]. Since each height-one prime ideals of D[X] contracts to a height-one prime ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$ by Lemma 2.4, P is thus a union of height-one prime ideals. Hence $D[X^2, X^3]$ satisfies PIT.

(3)(\Rightarrow) Suppose that $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a Mori domain. Let $S = \{X^n | n = 0, 2, 3, ...\}$.

Then $D[X] = K[X] \cap D[X^2, X^3]_S$ and $D[X^2, X^3]_S$ is a Mori domain [23, Corollary 3]. Thus D[X] is also a Mori domain. (\Leftarrow) This follows since $D[X^2, X^3] = D[X] \cap K[X^2, X^3]$ and $K[X^2, X^3]$ is a one-dimensional Noetherian domain (and hence a Mori domain). \Box

Our next result is the $D[X^2, X^3]$ analog of [3, Proposition 4.11] that D[X] is a weakly Krull domain if and only if D is a weakly Krull UMT-domain.

PROPOSITION 2.7. (cf. [3, Proposition 4.11]) $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a weakly Krull domain if and only if D is a weakly Krull UMT-domain.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose that $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a weakly Krull domain, and hence $D[X^2, X^3]$ has t-dimension one. Let P be a prime t-ideal of D. Then $PD[X^2, X^3]$ is a prime t-ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$, and hence $htP = htP[DX^2, X^3] = 1$; whence t-dimD = 1. Moreover, if $0 \neq a \in D$, then the number of height-one prime ideals of $D[X^2, X^3]$ that contain a is finite. Hence $\{P \in X^1(D) | a \in P\}$ is finite, and thus D is weakly Krull.

Let $P \in X^1(D)$. Then $htP[X^2, X^3] = 1$, and hence htP[X] = 1, which implies that D is a UMT-domain because t-dimD = 1.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that *D* is a weakly Krull UMT-domain, and let $P \in X^1(D)$. Then $ht(P[X^2, X^3]) = 1$ by Lemma 2.4. Thus t-dim $(D[X^2, X^3]) = 1$ by Lemma 2.2 (note that t-dimD = 1 since *D* is weakly Krull). Hence by [17, Proposition 4] or [19, Proposition 2.8],

$$D[X^2, X^3] = \bigcap_{Q \in X^1(D[X^2, X^3])} D[X^2, X^3]_Q.$$

Let $0 \neq f \in D[X^2, X^3]$, $A = \{PD[X^2, X^3] | P \in X^1(D) \text{ and } f \in PD[X^2, X^3]\}$, and $B = \{Q \in X^1(D[X^2, X^3]) | Q \cap D = 0 \text{ and } f \in Q\}$. Since D is weakly Krull, Ais finite. Moreover, since $K[X^2, X^3]$ is a one-dimensional Noetherian domain, B is also finite. Therefore, $D[X^2, X^3]$ is weakly Krull. \Box

The final result of this section is the $D[X^2, X^3]$ analog of [24, Lemme 1].

PROPOSITION 2.8. Let D be integrally closed and $0 \neq f \in K[X^2, X^3]$. Then

(1) $fK[X^2, X^3] \cap D[X^2, X^3] = fA_f^{-1}[X^2, X^3].$ (2) $fK[X] \cap D[X^2, X^3] = \begin{cases} fA_f^{-1}[X^2, X^3], & \text{if } f(0) \neq 0\\ fA_f^{-1}[X], & \text{if } f(0) = 0. \end{cases}$

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Proof. (1) Let $fg \in fK[X^2, X^3] \cap D[X^2, X^3]$. Then $A_f A_g \subseteq (A_f A_g)_v = (A_{fg})_v \subseteq D$ because D is integrally closed (cf. [16, Proposition 34.8]). Thus $g \in A_f^{-1}[X^2, X^3]$ and $fK[X^2, X^3] \cap D[X^2, X^3] \subseteq fA_f^{-1}[X^2, X^3]$. The converse is clear.

(2) Case 1. f(0) = 0. Let $fg \in fK[X] \cap D[X^2, X^3]$, where $g \in K[X]$. Since D is integrally closed, $A_f A_g \subseteq (A_f A_g)_v = (A_{fg})_v \subseteq D$ (cf. [16, Proposition 34.8]). Thus $g \in (A_f)^{-1}[X]$, and hence $fK[X] \cap D[X^2, X^3] \subseteq fA_f^{-1}[X]$. Moreover, since f(0) = 0, we have $fh \in D[X^2, X^3]$ for any $h \in (A_f)^{-1}[X]$. Therefore, $fK[X] \cap D[X^2, X^3] = fA_f^{-1}[X]$ for any $h \in (A_f)^{-1}[X]$.

Case 2. $f(0) \neq 0$. Since $f(0) \neq 0$, $fg \notin K[X^2, X^3]$ for any $g \in K[X] - K[X^2, X^3]$, which implies that the proof is identical to the proof of Case 1. \Box

3. GENERALIZED WEAKLY FACTORIAL DOMAINS

One of the purposes of this section is to find equivalent conditions for $D[X^2, X^3]$, over an almost factorial domain D, to be a GWFD. The other is to study the *t*-class group $Cl_t(D[X^2, X^3])$. Recall that a GWFD is weakly Krull and has *t*-dimension one [9, Corollary 2.3], and that an almost factorial domain is a Krull domain with torsion divisor class group.

THEOREM 3.1. The following statements are equivalent for an almost factorial domain D.

- (1) $D[X^2, X^3]$ is an AGCD-domain.
- (2) $D[X^2, X^3]$ is an AWFD.
- (3) $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a GWFD.
- (4) $charD = p \neq 0.$

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): Recall that a Krull domain is a weakly Krull UMT-domain. Thus $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a weakly Krull domain by Proposition 2.7. Also, note that an AGCD-domain has torsion *t*-class group. Hence $D[X^2, X^3]$ is an AWFD.

(2) \Rightarrow (3): Let Q be a nonzero prime ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$ and let $0 \neq f \in Q$. By the definition of an AWFD, there is an integer $n \geq 1$ such that f^n is a product of primary elements. Thus Q contains a nonzero primary element of $D[X^2, X^3]$. Therefore, $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a GWFD. (3) \Rightarrow (4): Since $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a GWFD, $D[X^2, X^3]_{D-\{0\}} = K[X^2, X^3]$ is also a GWFD by [9, Remark 2.5(4)]. Moreover, since charD = charK, it suffices to show that char $K \neq 0$.

Suppose that charK = 0, and let $Q = (1+X)K[X] \cap K[X^2, X^3]$. Since $K[X^2, X^3]$ is a GWFD, there is a primary element $f \in Q$ such that $Q = \sqrt{fK[X^2, X^3]}$. Let $S = \{X^n | n = 0, 2, 3, ...\}$. Then $K[X^2, X^3]_S = K[X]_S = K[X, X^{-1}]$. Note that $K[X]_S$ is a PID and $QK[X]_S = (1+X)K[X]_S$. Thus $fK[X]_S = (1+X)^n K[X]_S$ for some integer $n \ge 1$, and hence $f = \frac{u(1+X)^n}{X^m}$ for some integer m and $0 \ne u \in K$.

If $m \ge 0$, then $X^m f = u(1+X)^n$, and hence m = 0. Thus $f = u(1+X)^n$, and $u(1+X)^n \in K[X^2, X^3] \Leftrightarrow nuX \in K[X^2, X^3] \Leftrightarrow X \in K[X^2, X^3]$ (note that charK = 0), a contradiction. Hence m < 0 and $f = u(1+X)^n X^{-m} \in Q \cap (XK[X] \cap K[X^2, X^3])$, which contradicts that f is primary. Thus char $K \ne 0$.

(4) \Rightarrow (1): Let $0 \neq f, g \in D[X^2, X^3]$. Then there is an integer $k \geq 1$ and $h \in K[X]$ such that $(((f,g)D[X])^k)_v = ((f^k, g^k)D[X])_v = hD[X]$ (note that D[X] is a Krull domain with torsion divisor class group)[6, Lemma 3.3]. Thus $f^k = hf_1$ and $g^k = hg_1$ for some $f_1, g_1 \in D[X]$, and $((f_1, g_1)D[X])_v = D[X]$. Since char $D = p \neq 0, f_1^p, g_1^p \in D[X^2, X^3]$.

Assume that $(f_1^p, g_1^p)_v \subseteq D[X^2, X^3]$. Then there is a height-one prime ideal Q of $D[X^2, X^3]$ such that $(f_1^p, g_1^p)_v \subseteq Q$ (note that $t\text{-dim}(D[X^2, X^3]) = 1$ since $D[X^2, X^3]$ is weakly Krull). Since D[X] is integral over $D[X^2, X^3]$ (or by Lemma 2.4), there is a height-one prime ideal Q' of D[X] such that $Q' \cap D[X^2, X^3] = Q$. Thus

$$D[X] \supseteq Q' = Q'_t \supseteq ((f_1^p, g_1^p) D[X])_v = (((f_1, g_1) D[X])^p)_v$$
$$= ((((f_1, g_1) D[X])_v)^p)_v = (D[X]^p)_v = D[X],$$

a contradiction. Hence $(f_1^p, g_1^p)_v = D[X^2, X^3]$. Therefore,

$$(f^{kp}, g^{kp})_v = ((hf_1)^p, (hg_1)^p)_v = h^p (f_1^p, g_1^p)_v = h^p D[X^2, X^3].$$

Thus $D[X^2, X^3]$ is an AGCD-domain. \Box

COROLLARY 3.2. The following statements are equivalent for a field K.

- (1) $K[X^2, X^3]$ is an AGCD-domain.
- (2) $K[X^2, X^3]$ is an AWFD.

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- (3) $K[X^2, X^3]$ is a GWFD.
- (4) $charK = p \neq 0$.

Our next result generalizes Theorem 3.1.

THEOREM 3.3. (cf. [9, Theorem 3.3]) Let D be an integrally closed domain with charD = $p \neq 0$. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- (1) $D[X^2, X^3]$ is an AWFD.
- (2) $D[X^2, X^3]$ is a GWFD.
- (3) D[X] is an AWFD.
- (4) D[X] is a GWFD.
- (5) D is a generalized weakly factorial AGCD-domain.
- (6) D is an almost weakly factorial AGCD-domain.
- (7) D is a weakly Krull AGCD-domain.

Proof. $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$: This follows from the definitions.

(2) \Rightarrow (4) : By [9, Theorem 2.2], it suffices to show that if Q is a maximal t-ideal of D[X], then $Q = \sqrt{fD[X]}$ for some $f \in D[X]$ because t-dimD[X] = t-dim $D[X^2, X^3] = 1$. Let $P = Q \cap D$. If $P \neq 0$, then Q = P[X] and $P[X^2, X^3] = \sqrt{aD[X^2, X^3]}$ for some $a \in P$ (note that $P[X^2, X^3]$ is a height-one prime ideal). Thus $P[X] = \sqrt{aD[X]}$.

Assume that P = 0, and let $Q \cap D[X^2, X^3] = \sqrt{fD[X^2, X^3]}$. Note that if $g \in D[X]$, then $g^p \in D[X^2, X^3]$ because char $D = p \neq 0$. Thus $Q = \sqrt{fD[X]}$.

 $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$: Recall that D[X] is a weakly Krull domain $\Leftrightarrow D$ is a weakly Krull UMT-domain $\Leftrightarrow D[X^2, X^3]$ is a weakly Krull domain. Hence it suffices to show that $Cl_t(D[X^2, X^3])$ is torsion.

Let Q be a t-invertible t-ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$. Then $((QD[X])(Q^{-1}D[X]))_t = (QQ^{-1}D[X])_t \subseteq D[X]$. Since Q is t-invertible, QQ^{-1} is not contained in any height-one prime ideal of $D[X^2, X^3]$ (note that $t\text{-dim}D[X] = t\text{-dim}D[X^2, X^3] = 1$). Thus $(QD[X])(Q^{-1}D[X])$ is not contained in any height-one prime ideal of D[X], and hence $((QD[X])(Q^{-1}D[X]))_t = D[X]$. Since D[X] is an AWFD and thus has torsion t-class group, there is an integer $n \ge 1$ and an $f \in D[X]$ such that $((QD[X])^n)_v = (Q^nD[X])_v = fD[X]$. Since Q is a finite type t-ideal, by the same

argument as in the proof of $(4) \Rightarrow (1)$ in Theorem 3.1, we have that $(Q^{pn})_v = f^p D[X^2, X^3]$. Therefore, $D[X^2, X^3]$ is an AWFD.

 $(3) \Leftrightarrow (4) \Leftrightarrow (5) \Leftrightarrow (6) \Leftrightarrow (7)$: These implications are in [9, Theorem 3.3]. \Box

We close this paper with a discussion of $Cl_t(D[X^2, X^3])$. Recall that an integral domain D with quotient field K is seminormal if whenever $x^2, x^3 \in D$ for some $x \in K$, then $x \in D$; and that Pic(D[X]) = Pic(D) if and only if D is seminormal. Using the Mayer-Vietoris exact sequence for (U, Pic) (cf. [21, pp. 39-40]), one may show that $Pic(D[X^2, X^3]) = Pic(D) \oplus D$ (as additive abelian groups) when D is seminormal. Also, $Cl_t(D[X]) = Cl_t(D)$ if and only if D is integrally closed [15, Theorem 3.6]. In analogy with the Picard group case, we ask if $Cl_t(D[X^2, X^3]) =$ $Cl_t(D) \oplus K$ (as additive abelian groups) when D is integrally closed. Our final theorem shows that this does hold in the special case when D is a GCD-domain since then $Cl_t(D) = 0$. For example, letting $D = \mathbb{Z}$, we have $Pic(\mathbb{Z}[X^2, X^3]) = \mathbb{Z}$ and $Cl_t(\mathbb{Z}[X^2, X^3]) = \mathbb{Q}$.

THEOREM 3.4. Let D be a GCD-domain with quotient field K. Then, as additive abelian groups,

- (1) $Pic(D[X^2, X^3]) = D.$
- (2) $Cl_t(D[X^2, X^3]) = K.$

Proof. (1) This follows using the Mayer-Vietoris exact sequence for (U, Pic).

(2) Let $S = D - \{0\}$. Then S is an *lcm* splitting set in $D[X^2, X^3]$. Thus

$$Cl_t(D[X^2, X^3]) \cong Cl_t(D[X^2, X^3]_S) = Cl_t(K[X^2, X^3]) = Pic(K[X^2, X^3]) = K$$

by [1, Theorem 4.1].

QUESTION 3.5. Compute $Cl_t(D[X^2, X^3])$ for an arbitrary integral domain D with quotient field K. In particular, does $Cl_t(D[X^2, X^3]) = Cl_t(D) \oplus K$ (as additive abelian groups) when D is integrally closed?

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On the Complete Integral Closure of Rings that Admit a ϕ -Strongly Prime Ideal

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ABSTRACT:

Let R be a commutative ring with 1 and T(R) be its total quotient ring such that Nil(R) (the set of all nilpotent elements of R) is a divided prime ideal of R. Then R is called a ϕ -chained ring (ϕ -CR) if for every $x, y \in R \setminus Nil(R)$, either $x \mid y \text{ or } y \mid x$. A prime ideal P of R is said to be a ϕ -strongly prime ideal if for every $a, b \in R \setminus Nil(R)$, either $a \mid b$ or $aP \subset bP$. In this paper, we show that if R admits a regular ϕ -strongly prime ideal, then either R does not admit a minimal regular prime ideal and c(R) (the complete integral closure of R inside T(R)) = T(R) is a ϕ -CR or R admits a minimal regular prime ideal Q and c(R) = (Q : Q) is a ϕ -CR with maximal ideal Q. We also prove that the complete integral closure of a conducive domain is a valuation domain.

1 INTRODUCTION

We assume throughout that all rings are commutative with $1 \neq 0$. We begin by recalling some background material. As in [17], an integral domain R, with quotient field K, is called a *pseudo-valuation domain* (*PVD*) in case each prime ideal P of R is strongly prime, in the sense that $xy \in P, x \in K, y \in K$ implies that either $x \in P$ or $y \in P$. In [4], Anderson, Dobbs and the author generalized the study of pseudo-valuation domains to the context of arbitrary rings (possibly with nonzero zerodivisors). Recall from [4] that a prime ideal P of R is said to be strongly prime (in R) if aP and bR are comparable (under inclusion) for all $a, b \in R$. A ring R is called a *pseudo-valuation ring* (*PVR*) if each prime ideal of R is strongly prime. A PVR is necessarily quasilocal [4, Lemma 1(b)]; a chained ring is a PVR [4, Corollary 4]; and an integral domain is a PVR if and only if it is a PVD (cf. [1, Proposition 3.1], [2, Proposition 4.2], and [6, Proposition 3]). Recall from [7] and [14] that a prime ideal P of R is called divided if it is comparable (under inclusion) to every ideal of R. A ring R is called a divided ring if every prime ideal of R is divided.

In [8], the author gave another generalization of PVDs to the context of arbitrary rings (possibly with nonzero zerodivisors). As in [8], for a ring R with total quotient ring T(R) such that Nil(R) (the set of all nilpotent elements of R) is a divided

prime ideal of R, let $\phi: T(R) \longrightarrow K := R_{Nil(R)}$ such that $\phi(a/b) = a/b$ for every $a \in R$ and every $b \in R \setminus Z(R)$. Then ϕ is a ring homomorphism from T(R) into K, and ϕ restricted to R is also a ring homomorphism from R into K given by $\phi(x) = x/1$ for every $x \in R$. A prime ideal Q of $\phi(R)$ is called a K-strongly prime ideal if $xy \in Q, x \in K, y \in K$ implies that either $x \in Q$ or $y \in Q$. If each prime ideal of $\phi(R)$ is K-strongly prime, then $\phi(R)$ is called a K-pseudo-valuation ring (K-*PVR*). A prime ideal P of R is called a ϕ -strongly prime ideal if $\phi(P)$ is a K-strongly prime ideal of $\phi(R)$. If a ϕ -strongly prime ideal P of R contains a nonzerodivisor, then we say that P is a regular ϕ -strongly prime ideal. If each prime ideal of R is ϕ -strongly prime, then R is called a ϕ -pseudo-valuation ring ($\phi - PVR$). For an equivalent characterization of a ϕ -PVR, see Proposition 1.1(7). It was shown in [9, Theorem 2.6] that for each $n \ge 0$ there is a ϕ -PVR of Krull dimension n that is not a PVR. Also, recall from [10], that a ring R is called a ϕ -chained ring (ϕ -CR) if Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R and for every $x \in R_{Nil(R)} \setminus \phi(R)$, we have $x^{-1} \in \phi(R)$. For an equivalent characterization of a ϕ -CR, see Proposition 1.1(9). A ϕ -CR is a divided ring [10, Corollary 3.3(2)], and hence is quasilocal. It was shown in [10, Theorem 2.7] that for each $n \ge 0$ there is a ϕ -CR of Krull dimension *n* that is not a chained ring.

Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of a commutative ring R such that R admits a regular ϕ -strongly prime. In this paper, we show that c(R) (the complete integral closure of R inside T(R)) is a ϕ -chained ring. In fact, we will show that either c(R) = T(R) or $c(R) = (Q : Q) = \{x \in T(R) : xQ \subset Q\}$ for some minimal regular ϕ -strongly prime ideal Q of R.

In the following proposition, we summarize some basic properties of PVRs, ϕ -PVRs, and ϕ -CRs.

- PROPOSITION 1.1. 1. An integral domain is a PVR if and only if it is a φ-PVR if and only if it is a PVD([1, Proposition 3.1], [2, Proposition 4.2], [6, Proposition 3], and [8]).
 - 2. A PVR is a divided ring [4, Lemma 1], and hence is quasilocal.
 - 3. A ring R is a PVR if and only if for every $a, b \in R$, either $a \mid b$ in R or $b \mid ac$ in R for each nonunit c in R [4, Theorem 5].
 - 4. If R is a PVR, then Nil(R) and Z(R) are divided prime ideals of R ([4], [8]).
 - 5. A PVR is a ϕ -PVR [8, Corollary 7(3)].
 - 6. If P is a ϕ -strongly prime ideal of R, then P is a divided prime. In particular, if R is a ϕ -PVR, then R is a divided ring [8, Proposition 4], and hence is quasilocal.
 - 7. Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R. Then a prime ideal P of R is ϕ -strongly prime if and only if for every $a, b \in R \setminus Nil(R)$, either $a \mid b$ in R or $aP \subset bP$. In particular, a ring R is a ϕ -PVR if and only if for every $a, b \in R \setminus Nil(R)$, either $a \mid b$ in R or $b \mid ac$ in R for every nonunit $c \in R$ [8, Corollary 7].
 - Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R. If P is a φ-strongly prime ideal of R and Q is a prime ideal of R contained in P, then Q is a φ-strongly prime ideal of R [8, Proposition 5].

Integral Closure of Rings with a ϕ -Strongly Prime Ideal

- 9. Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R. Then a ring R is a ϕ -CR if and only if for every $a, b \in R \setminus Nil(R)$, either $a \mid b$ in R or $b \mid a$ in R [10, Proposition 2.3].
- 10. A ϕ -CR is a ϕ -PVR [10, Corollary 2.3]. \Box

2 The COMPLETE INTEGRAL CLOSURE OF RINGS THAT ADMIT A REGULAR φ-STRONGLY PRIME IDEAL

Throughout this section, Nil(R) denotes the set of all nilpotent elements of R, Z(R) denotes the set of all zerodivisor elements of R, and c(R) denotes the complete integral closure of R inside T(R). The following two lemmas are needed in the proof of Proposition 2.3.

LEMMA 2.1. Suppose Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R and P is a regular ϕ strongly prime ideal of R. If s is a regular element of R and $z \in Z(R)$, then $s \mid z$ in R. In particular, $Z(R) \subset P$.

Proof: Let s be a regular element of P and $z \in Z(R)$. Suppose that $s \not\mid z$ in R. Then $sP \subset zP$ by Proposition 1.1(7). Since $s \in P$, we have $z \mid s^2$ in R, which is impossible. Hence, $s \mid z$ in R. Thus, $Z(R) \subset P$. Now, suppose that s is a regular element of $R \setminus P$. Since P is divided by Proposition 1.1(6), we conclude that $P \subset (s)$. Hence, since $Z(R) \subset P$, we conclude that $s \mid z$ in R. \Box

LEMMA 2.2. Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R and P is a regular ϕ -strongly prime ideal of R. Then $x^{-1}P \subset P$ for each $x \in T(R) \setminus R$. In particular, if $x \in T(R) \setminus R$, then x is a unit of T(R).

Proof: First, observe that $Z(R) \subset P$ by Lemma 2.1. Now, let $x = a/b \in T(R) \setminus R$ for some $a \in R$ and for some $b \in R \setminus Z(R)$. Since $b \not\mid a$ in $R, Z(R) \subset P$, and P is divided, we conclude that $a \in R \setminus Z(R)$. Hence, $x^{-1} \in T(R)$. Thus, since $b \not\mid a$ in R, we have $bP \subset aP$ by Proposition 1.1(7). Thus $x^{-1}P = \frac{b}{a}P \subset P$. \Box

In light of the Lemmas 2.1 and 2.2, we have the following proposition.

PROPOSITION 2.3. Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R and P is a regular prime ideal of R. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- 1. P is a ϕ -strongly prime ideal of R.
- 2. (P:P) is a ϕ -CR with maximal ideal P.

Proof: (1) \implies (2). First, we show that P is the maximal ideal of (P:P). Let $s \in R \setminus P$. Then s is a regular element of R (because P is a divided regular prime ideal of R, and therefore $Z(R) \subset P$). Hence $1/s \in (P:P)$. Thus, s is a unit of (P:P). Hence, P is the maximal ideal of (P:P). Now, we show that (P:P) is a ϕ -CR. Since Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R, Nil((P:P)) = Nil(R). Let $x, y \in (P:P) \setminus Nil(R)$ and suppose that $x \not\mid y$ in (P:P). Then x = a/s, y = b/s

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for some $a, b \in R \setminus Nil(R)$, and some $s \in R \setminus Z(R)$. Since $x \not | y$ in (P : P), it is impossible that a be a regular element of R and $b \in Z(R)$. Thus, we consider three cases. Case 1: suppose that $a \in Z(R)$ and $b \in R \setminus Z(R)$. Then $b \mid a$ in R by Lemma 2.1. Hence, $y \mid x$ in (P : P). Case 2: suppose that $a, b \in R \setminus Z(R)$. Since $x \not | y$ in (P : P), we conclude that $w = y/x \in T(R) \setminus R$. Hence, $w^{-1}P = \frac{x}{y}P \subset P$ by Lemma 2.2. Hence, $y \mid x$ in (P : P). Case 3: suppose that $a, b \in Z(R)$. Since $x \not | y$ in (P : P), we conclude that $a \not | b$ in R. Thus, $aP \subset bP$ by Proposition 1.1(7). Let h be a regular element of P. Then ah = bc for some $c \in P$. Suppose that $h \mid c$ in R. Then $b \mid a$ in R. Hence, $y \mid x$ in (P : P). Thus, suppose that $h \not | c$ in R. Then, cis a regular element of P. Hence, $f = c/h \in T(R) \setminus R$. Thus, $f^{-1}P = \frac{h}{c}P \subset P$ by Lemma 2.2. Hence, $f^{-1} \in (P : P)$. Thus, ah = bc implies that $xf^{-1} = y$. Hence, $x \mid y$ in (P : P), a contradiction. Thus, $h \mid c$ in R, and therefore $y \mid x$ in (P : P). Hence, (P : P) is a ϕ -CR by Proposition 1.1(9). (2) \Longrightarrow (1). This is clear by Proposition 1.1(10). \Box

PROPOSITION 2.4. Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R and P is a regular ϕ -strongly prime ideal of R. Then $Q = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} (s^i)$ is a prime ideal of R for every regular element s of P.

Proof: Suppose that $xy \in Q$ for some $x, y \in R$. Since $Z(R) \subset (s^i)$ for each $i \ge 1$ by Lemma 2.1, we conclude that $Z(R) \subset Q$. Hence, we may assume that neither $x \in Z(R)$ nor $y \in Z(R)$. Thus, assume that $x \notin Q$. Then $s^n \not\mid x$ for some $n \ge 1$. Hence, $s^n P \subset xP$ by Proposition 1.1(7). In particular, since $s^n \in P$, we have $s^{2n} \subset xP$. Hence, we have $xy \in (s^{2n+i}) \subset xs^iP \subset (xs^i)$ for every $i \ge 1$. Thus, $y \in (s^i)$ for every $i \ge 1$. Hence, $y \in Q$. \Box

PROPOSITION 2.5. Let P be a regular prime ideal of R. Then $(P:P) \subset c(R)$.

Proof: Let $x \in (P : P)$, and let s be a regular element of P. Then $sx^n \in P$ for every $n \geq 1$. Hence, x is an almost integral element of R. Thus, $x \in c(R)$. \Box

PROPOSITION 2.6. Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R and P is a regular ϕ -strongly prime ideal of R. Then T(R) is a ϕ -CR.

Proof: First, observe that Nil(T(R)) = Nil(R). Hence, it suffices to show that if $a, b \in R \setminus Nil(R)$, then either $a \mid b$ in T(R) or $b \mid a$ in T(R). Hence, let $a, b \in R \setminus Nil(R)$. Suppose that $a \not b$ in T(R). Then $a \not b$ in R. Hence, $aP \subset bP$ by Proposition 1.1(7). Thus, let s be a regular element of P. Then as = bc for some $c \in P$. Thus, $a = b\frac{c}{s}$. Hence, $b \mid a$ in T(R). \Box

Now, we state our main result in this section

THEOREM 2.7. Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R and P is a regular ϕ -strongly prime ideal of R. Then exactly one of the following statements must hold:

- 1. R does not admit a minimal regular prime ideal and c(R) = T(R) is a ϕ -CR.
- 2. R admits a minimal regular prime ideal Q and c(R) = (Q : Q) is a ϕ -CR with maximal ideal Q.

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Proof: (1). Suppose that R does not admit a minimal regular prime ideal. We will show that $1/s \in c(R)$ for every regular element $s \in R$. Hence, let s be a regular element of R. Suppose that $s \in R \setminus P$. Then $1/s \in (P : P)$ because P is a divided prime ideal of R by Proposition 1.1(6). Hence $1/s \in (P : P) \subset c(R)$ by Proposition 2.5. Thus, suppose that $s \in P$. We will show that there is regular prime ideal $H \subset P$ such that $s \notin H$. Deny. Let $F = \{D : D \text{ is a regular prime ideal of } R$ and $D \subset P\}$ and $N = \bigcap_{D \in F} D$. Then, $s \in N$. Now, by Proposition 1.1(8) and (6), we conclude that the prime ideals in the set F are linearly ordered. Hence, N is a minimal regular prime ideal of R, which is a contradiction. Thus, there is a regular prime ideal $H \subset P$ such that $s \notin H$. Hence, once again $1/s \in (H : H) \subset c(R)$ by Proposition 2.5. Thus, c(R) = T(R). Now, T(R) is a ϕ -CR by Proposition 2.6.

(2). Suppose that Q is a minimal regular prime ideal of R. First, observe that $Q \,\subset P$ by Proposition 1.1(6). Thus, Q is a minimal ϕ -strongly prime ideal of R by Proposition 1.1(8). Now, $(Q:Q) \subset c(R)$ by Proposition 2.5. We will show that $c(R) \subset (Q:Q)$. Suppose there is an $x \in c(R) \setminus R$. Then x is a unit of T(R) by Lemma 2.2. We consider three cases. Case 1: suppose that $x^{-1} \in T(R) \setminus R$. Then $x \subseteq CQ$ by Lemma 2.2. Hence, $x \in (Q:Q)$. Case 2: suppose that $x^{-1} \in R \setminus Q$. Then $Q \subset (x^{-1})$ by Proposition 1.1(6). Thus, $x \in (Q:Q)$. Case 3: suppose that $x^{-1} \in Q$. This case can not happen, for if $x^{-1} \in Q$, then $D = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} (x^{-1})^i$ contains a regular element of R because $x \in c(R)$. But D is a prime ideal of R by Proposition 2.4. Hence, D is a regular prime ideal of R that is properly contained in Q. A contradiction, since Q is a minimal regular prime ideal of R. Hence, c(R) = (Q:Q). Now, c(R) = (Q:Q) is a ϕ -CR by Proposition 2.3. \Box

Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R and $P \neq Nil(R)$ is a ϕ strongly prime ideal of R. Then observe that $Nil(\phi(R))$ is a divided prime ideal of $\phi(R)$ and $\phi(P)$ is a regular K-strongly prime ideal of $\phi(R)$ (recall that $K = R_{Nil(R)}$).
Now, since $\phi(R)_{Nil(\phi(R))} = K_{Nil(R)}$, we may think of $\phi(P)$ as a ϕ -strongly prime
ideal of $\phi(R)$. In light of this argument and Theorem 2.7, we have the following
corollary.

COROLLARY 2.8. Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R and $P \neq Nil(R)$ is a ϕ -strongly prime ideal of R. Then exactly one of the following statements must hold:

- 1. $\phi(R)$ does not admit a minimal regular prime ideal and $c(\phi(R)) = T(\phi(R)) = K_{Nil(R)}$ is a K-CR.
- 2. $\phi(R)$ admits a minimal regular prime ideal Q and $c(\phi(R)) = (Q : Q)$ is a K-CR. \Box

COROLLARY 2.9. Suppose that R admits a regular strongly prime ideal. Then exactly one of the statements in Theorem 2.7 must hold. \Box

COROLLARY 2.10. Suppose that an integral domain R admits a nonzero strongly prime ideal of R. Then exactly one of the statements in Theorem 2.7 must hold (observe that in this case c(R) is a valuation domain). \Box

COROLLARY 2.11. Suppose that Nil(R) is a divided prime ideal of R and P is a regular ϕ -strongly prime ideal of R. If P contains a finite number, say n, of regular

prime ideals of R, $P_1 \subset P_2 \subset \cdots \subset P_{n-1} \subset P_n = P$, then $c(R) = (P_1 : P_1)$. \Box

Let J(R) denotes the Jacobson radical ideal of R. We have the following result.

COROLLARY 2.12. Suppose that R is a Prüfer domain such that J(R) contains a nonzero prime ideal of R. Then exactly one of the statements in Theorem 2.7 must hold (once again, observe that in this case c(R) is a valuation domain).

Proof: Let P be a nonzero prime ideal of R such that $P \subset J(R)$. Then P is a strongly prime ideal by [11, Proposition 1.3, and the proof of Theorem 4.3]. Hence, the claim is now clear. \Box

It is well-known [17, Proposition 3.2] that if R is a Noetherian pseudo-valuation domain (which is not a field), then R has Krull dimension one. The following is an alternative proof of this fact.

PROPOSITION 2.13. ([17, Proposition 3.2]). If R is a Noetherian pseudo-valuation domain (which is not a field), then R has Krull dimension one.

Proof: Deny. Let M be the maximal ideal of R. Then there is a nonzero prime ideal P of R such that $P \subset M$ and $M \neq P$. Hence, there is an element $m \in M \setminus P$. Since P is divided, we have $P \subset (m)$. Thus, $1/m \in c(R)$. Since R is Noetherian, 1/m is also integral over R, which is impossible. Hence, R has Krull dimension one. \Box

3 THE COMPLETE INTEGRAL CLOSURE OF CONDUCIVE DOMAINS

Throughout this section, R denotes an integral domain with quotient field K, and c(R) denotes the integral closure of R inside K. If I is a proper ideal of R, then Rad(I) denotes the radical ideal of R. Recall from [11], that Houston and the author defined an ideal I of R to be *powerful* if, whenever $xy \in I$ for elements $x, y \in K$, we have $x \in R$ or $y \in R$. Also, recall that in [13, Theorem 4.5] Bastida and Gilmer proved that a domain R shares an ideal with a valuation domain iff each overring of R which is different from the quotient field K of R has a nonzero conductor to R. Domains with this property, called *conducive domains*, were explicitly defined and studied by Dobbs and Fedder [15], and further studied by Barucci, Dobbs, and Fontana [12] and [16]. In [11, Theorem 4.1], Houston and the author proved the following result.

PROPOSITION 3.1. ([11, Theorem 4.1]) An integral domain R is a conducive domain if and only if R admits a powerful ideal. \Box

The following proposition is needed in the proof of Theorem 3.2.

PROPOSITION 3.2. ([11, Theorem 1.5 and Lemma 1.1]). Suppose that I is a proper powerful ideal of R. Then $I^2 \subset (s)$ for every $s \in R \setminus Rad(I)$, and $x^{-1}I^2 \subset R$ for every $x \in K \setminus R$. \Box

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Now, we state the main result of this section.

THEOREM 3.3. Suppose that R admits a nonzero proper powerful ideal I, that is, R is a conducive domain. Then exactly one of the following two statements must hold:

- 1. $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I^n \neq 0$ and exactly one of the following two statements must hold:
 - (a) R does not admit a minimal regular prime ideal and c(R) = K is a valuation domain.
 - (b) R admits a minimal regular prime ideal Q and c(R) = (Q : Q) is a valuation domain.
- 2. $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I^n = 0$ and $c(R) = \{x \in K : x^{-n} \notin Rad(I) \text{ for every } n \geq 1\}$ is a valuation domain.

Proof: (1). Suppose that $P = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I^n \neq 0$. Then P is a nonzero strongly prime ideal of R by [11, Proposition 1.8]. Hence, the claim is now clear by Theorem 2.7.

(2) Suppose that $P = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I^n = 0$. Let $S = \{x \in K : x^{-n} \notin Rad(I) \text{ for every } n \geq 1\}$, and let $x \in c(R)$. We will show that $x \in S$. Since P = 0 and $x \in c(R)$, $x^{-n} \notin I$ for every $n \geq 1$. Hence, $x \in S$. Thus, $c(R) \subset S$. Now, let $s \in S$. We will show that $s \in c(R)$. Let d be a nonzero element of I^2 . Hence, for every $n \geq 1$ we have either $s^{-n} \in K \setminus R$ or $s^{-n} \in R \setminus Rad(I)$. Thus, $ds^n \in R$ for every $n \geq 1$ by Proposition 3.2. Hence, $s \in c(R)$. Thus, $S \subset c(R)$. Therefore, S = c(R). Now, we show that c(R) = S is a valuation domain. Let $x \in K \setminus S$. Then $x^{-n} \in Rad(I)$ for some $n \geq 1$. Hence, $x^n \notin Rad(I)$ for every $n \geq 1$. Thus, $x^{-1} \in S$. Therefore, c(R) = S is a valuation domain. \Box

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ABSTRACT. We denote by \mathbb{N}_0 the set of nonnegative integers. Let $d \ge 1$ and $A = \{a_1, \ldots, a_d\}$ a set of positive integers. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, we write s(n) for the number of solutions $(x_1, \ldots, x_d) \in \mathbb{N}_0^d$ of the equation $a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_dx_d = n$. We set $g(A) = \sup\{n \mid s(n) = 0\} \cup \{-1\}$ the Frobenius number of A. Let S(A) be the subsemigroup of $(\mathbb{N}_0, +)$ generated by A. We set $S'(A) = \mathbb{N}_0 \setminus S(A)$, $N'(A) = \operatorname{Card} S'(A)$ and $N(A) = \operatorname{Card} S(A) \cap \{0, 1, \ldots, g(A)\}$. Let p be a multiple of lcm(A) and $F_p(t) = \prod_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p}{a_i}-1} t^{ja_i}$. We give an upper bound for g(A) and reduction formulas for g(A), N'(A) and N(A). Characterizations of these invariants as well as numerical symmetric and pseudo-symmetric semigroups in terms of $F_p(t)$, are also obtained.

1 INTRODUCTION

We denote by \mathbb{N}_0 (resp. \mathbb{N}) the set of nonnegative (resp. positive) integers. Let $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $A = \{a_1, \ldots, a_d\} \subset \mathbb{N}$. We set $\rho = \gcd(A)$ and $l = \operatorname{lcm}(A)$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, we write s(n) for the number of solutions $(x_1, \ldots, x_d) \in \mathbb{N}_0^d$ of the equation $a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_dx_d = n$. We set $g(A) = \sup\{n \mid s(n) = 0\} \cup \{-1\}$ the Frobenius number of A. Let S(A) be the subsemigroup of $(\mathbb{N}_0, +)$ generated by $A, S'(A) = \mathbb{N}_0 \setminus S(A)$, $N'(A) = \operatorname{Card} S'(A)$ and $N(A) = \operatorname{Card} S(A) \cap \{0, 1, \ldots, g(A)\}$. We say that S(A) is symmetric (resp. pseudo-symmetric) if $\gcd(A) = 1$ and N'(A) = N(A) (resp. N'(A) = N(A) + 1). The generating function of the s(n) is

$$\Phi(t)=\frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^d(1-t^{a_i})}.$$

Indeed, we have

$$\frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{d}(1-t^{a_i})} = \prod_{i=1}^{d} \sum_{j \ge 0} t^{ja_i} = \sum_{n \in S(A)} s(n)t^n.$$

For $p \in l\mathbb{N}$, we define the Frobenius polynomial

$$F_p(t) = \prod_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p}{a_i}-1} t^{ja_i} = \frac{(1-t^p)^d}{\prod_{i=1}^d (1-t^{a_i})}$$

and we write

$$\Phi(t) = \frac{F_p(t)}{(1 - t^p)^d}.$$
(1)

In theorem 3.1 we give formulas for g(A), N'(A) and N(A) in terms of $F_p(t)$. As a consequence we obtain an upper bound for the Frobenius number (corollary 3.2) which improves the upper bound given by Chrzastowski-Wachtel and mentioned in [9]. A characterization of numerical symmetric and pseudo-symmetric semigroups (corollary 3.4) is also obtained. In theorem 3.7 we prove reduction formulas for g(A), N'(A) and N(A). The first one generalizes a Raczunas and Chrzastowski-Wachtel theorem [9]. As a consequence (corollary 3.10) we obtain a generalization of a Rödseth formula [10]. It is known that the Hilbert function of a graded module over a polynomial graded ring as well as s(n) are numerical quasi-polynomial functions. In examples 4.9 and 4.10 we give a description of these functions in terms of the Frobenius polynomial.

2 PRELIMINARIES

Given $Q(t) = \sum_j q_j t^j \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ and an integer $p \ge 1$, there exists a unique sequence $Q_0, \ldots, Q_{p-1} \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ such that $Q(t) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} t^r Q_r(t^p)$. Namely, $Q_r(t) = \sum_k q_{r+pk} t^k$. The Q_r are called the *p*-components of Q. We denote by $\omega(Q) = \inf\{j \mid q_j \neq 0\}$ the valuation of Q and $\deg(Q) = \sup\{j \mid q_j \neq 0\}$ the degree of Q, with $\omega(0) = +\infty$ and $\deg(0) = -\infty$. The following invariants will be associated with Q

$$\begin{split} \omega_p(Q) &= \sup\{\omega(t^r Q_r(t^p)) \mid 0 \le r \le p-1\} \text{ the } p\text{-valuation of } Q, \\ \delta_p(Q) &= \inf\{\deg(t^r Q_r(t^p)) \mid 0 \le r \le p-1\} \text{ the } p\text{-degree of } Q, \\ \Omega_p(Q) &= \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \omega(Q_r), \\ \Delta_p(Q) &= \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \deg(Q_r). \end{split}$$

Thus we have

 $\omega_p(Q) = +\infty = \Omega_p(Q)$ and $\delta_p(Q) = -\infty = \Delta_p(Q)$ if $Q_r = 0$ for some r.

We fix an integer $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and we set

$$\widehat{Q}(t) = t^n Q(t^{-1}).$$

So we have $\widehat{\widehat{Q}} = Q$ and

The *p*-components \hat{Q}_r of \hat{Q} can be deduced from the *p*-components of Q. Namely, we write $n = p\lambda + \gamma$ with $0 \le \gamma < p$, so we get

$$\widehat{Q}(t) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} t^{p\lambda+\gamma-r} Q_r(t^{-p}) = \sum_{r=0}^{\gamma} t^{\gamma-r} (t^p)^{\lambda} Q_r(t^{-p}) + \sum_{r=\gamma+1}^{p-1} t^{p+\gamma-r} (t^p)^{\lambda-1} Q_r(t^{-p}).$$

It follows from the uniqueness of the *p*-components that

$$\widehat{Q}_{r}(t) = t^{\lambda} Q_{\gamma - r}(t^{-1}) \text{ for } 0 \le r \le \gamma$$
(3)

and

$$\widehat{Q}_r(t) = t^{\lambda-1} Q_{p+\gamma-r}(t^{-1}) \text{ for } r > \gamma.$$
(4)

So we obtain

$$\widehat{Q}_r = 0 \Leftrightarrow Q_{\gamma - r} = 0 \text{ for } 0 \le r \le \gamma$$
(5)

and

$$\widehat{Q}_r = 0 \Leftrightarrow Q_{p+\gamma-r} = 0 \text{ for } r > \gamma.$$
(6)

If $\hat{Q}_r \neq 0$, we also deduce from (2)-(4) that

$$\lambda = \deg(\widehat{Q}_r) + \omega(Q_{\gamma-r}) \text{ when } 0 \le r \le \gamma$$
(7)

and

$$\lambda - 1 = \deg(\widehat{Q}_r) + \omega(Q_{p+\gamma-r}) \text{ when } r > \gamma.$$
(8)

Moreover, writing $n = p\lambda + r + (\gamma - r) = p(\lambda - 1) + r + (p + \gamma - r)$ we get

$$n = \deg(t^r \widehat{Q}_r(t^p)) + \omega(t^{\gamma - r} Q_{\gamma - r}(t^p)) \text{ for } 0 \le r \le \gamma$$

and

$$n = \deg(t^r \widehat{Q}_r(t^p)) + \omega(t^{p+\gamma-r} Q_{p+\gamma-r}(t^p)) \text{ for } r > \gamma.$$

Hence

$$n = \delta_p(\widehat{Q}) + \omega_p(Q) = \delta_p(Q) + \omega_p(\widehat{Q}).$$
(9)

Furthermore, using (7) and (8) we get

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\gamma} \left(\deg(\widehat{Q}_r) + \omega(Q_{\gamma-r}) \right) + \sum_{r=\gamma+1}^{p-1} \left(\deg(\widehat{Q}_r) + \omega(Q_{p+\gamma-r}) \right)$$
$$= (\gamma+1)\lambda + (p-\gamma-1)(\lambda-1) = n-p+1.$$

It follows that

$$\Delta_p(\widehat{Q}) + \Omega_p(Q) = n - p + 1 = \Delta_p(Q) + \Omega_p(\widehat{Q}).$$
(10)

Given $m, j \in \mathbb{Z}$, we consider the following polynomials

$$N_{m,j}(t) = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \prod_{i=1}^{m-1} (t-j+i) \text{ if } m > 1, N_{m,j}(t) = 0 \text{ if } m \le 0 \text{ and } N_{1,j}(t) = 1.$$

For $Q(t) = \sum_j q_j t^j \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ such that $Q(1) \neq 0$, we define

$$V_m(Q,t) = \sum_j q_j N_{m,j}(t).$$

Furthermore, let $Q_0, \ldots, Q_{p-1} \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ be the *p*-components of Q. We consider the polynomials $U_0, \ldots, U_{p-1} \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ defined as follows $U_r = 0$ if $Q_r = 0$ and $Q_r(t) = (1-t)^{i_r} U_r(t)$ with $U_r(1) \neq 0$ otherwise. For all $0 \leq r \leq p-1$, we put $m_r = m - i_r$ and we define the function

$$H_m(Q, .): \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}$$
 by $H_m(Q, r+pk) = V_{m_r}(U_r, k).$

In order to illustrate these definitions we give the following examples.

EXAMPLE 2.1 Let $Q(t) = F_{12} = \frac{(1-t^{12})^2}{(1-t^2)(1-t^3)} = 1 + t^2 + t^3 + t^4 + t^5 + 2t^6 + t^7 + 2t^8 + 2t^9 + 2t^{10} + 2t^{11} + t^{12} + 2t^{13} + t^{14} + t^{15} + t^{16} + t^{17} + t^{19}.$ We take p = 12, n = 19 and m = 2. We write $Q(t) = (1 + t^{12}) + t(2t^{12}) + t^2(1 + t^{12}) + t^3(1 + t^{12}) + t^4(1 + t^{12}) + t^5(1 + t^{12}) + t^$ t^{12}) + 2 t^{6} + $t^{7}(1 + t^{12})$ + 2 t^{8} + 2 t^{9} + 2 t^{10} + 2 t^{11} . We see that the 12-components of Q(t) are $Q_0(t) = Q_2(t) = Q_3(t) = Q_4(t) =$ $Q_5(t) = Q_7(t) = (1+t), Q_1(t) = 2t$ and $Q_6(t) = Q_8(t) = Q_9(t) = Q_{10}(t) = Q_{10}(t)$ $Q_{11}(t) = 2.$ We also have $\widehat{Q}(t) = t^{19}Q(t^{-1}) = Q(t).$ $\omega_{12}(Q) = 13, \ \delta_{12}(Q) = 6, \ \Omega_{12}(Q) = 1, \ \Delta_{12}(Q) = 7.$ $N_{2,0}(t) = t + 1, N_{2,1}(t) = t.$ $U_r = Q_r$ for all r. $V_2(U_r, t) = 2t + 1$ for $r \in \{0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7\}, V_2(U_1, t) = 2t$ and $V_2(U_r, t) = 2(t + 1)$ for $r \in \{6, 8, 9, 10, 11\}.$ We obtain $H_2(Q, 12k+r) = 2k+1$ for $r \in \{0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7\}, H_2(Q, 12k+1) = 2k$ and $H_2(Q, 12k + r) = 2(k + 1)$ for $r \in \{6, 8, 9, 10, 11\}$. EXAMPLE 2.2 Let $Q(t) = F_6(t) = 1 + t^2 + t^3 + t^4 + t^5 + t^7 = \frac{(1-t^6)^2}{(1-t^2)(1-t^3)}$. We take p = 6, n = 7 and m = 2. We obtain $\omega_6(Q) = 7, \ \delta_6(Q) = 0, \ \Omega_6(Q) = 1, \ \Delta_6(Q) = 1.$ $U_r = Q_r$ for all r. $N_{2,0}(t) = t + 1, N_{2,1}(t) = t.$ $V_2(U_r, t) = t + 1$ for $r \in \{0, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $V_2(U_1, t) = t$. $H_2(Q, 6k + r) = k + 1$ for $r \in \{0, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $H_2(Q, 6k + 1) = k$.

We observe that $H_2(F_6, .) = H_2(F_{12}, .)$.

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Given $\Phi(t) \in \mathbb{Q}[[t, t^{-1}]]$, we write $\Phi(t) = \sum_{n} \varphi(n)t^{n}$ and we introduce

$$g(\Phi) = \sup\{n \mid \phi(n) = 0\}.$$

$$S'(\Phi) = \{n \ge 0 \mid \varphi(n) = 0\}.$$

$$S(\Phi) = \{0 \le n \le g(\Phi) \mid \varphi(n) \ne 0\}.$$

$$N'(\Phi) = \text{Card } S'(\Phi).$$

$$N(\Phi) = \text{Card } S(\Phi).$$

LEMMA 2.3 Given $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $Q(t) = \sum_{j} q_{j}t^{j} \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ such that $Q(1) \neq 0$, we consider $\Phi(t) = \sum_{n} \varphi(n)t^{n}$ the expansion of $(1-t)^{-m}Q(t)$ as a formal power series. Then, the following conditions hold

- 1. $\varphi(n) = V_m(Q, n)$ for all $n > \deg(Q) m$.
- 2. We suppose that m > 0 and Q(t) has nonnegative coefficients. Then,
 - (a) $\varphi(n) = 0 \Leftrightarrow n < \omega(Q)$.
 - (b) $g(\Phi) = \omega(Q) 1.$
 - (c) $N'(\Phi) = \max\{\omega(Q), 0\}$. In particular, $N'(\Phi) = \omega(Q)$ if $Q(t) \in \mathbb{Q}[t]$.

PROOF. 1. Suppose m > 0. We have $\Phi(t) = (1-t)^{-m}Q(t) = (\sum_j q_j t^j) \sum_{j \ge 0} {j+m-1 \choose m-1} t^j$. So $\varphi(n) = \sum_{j=\omega(Q)}^n q_j {n-j+m-1 \choose m-1}$. Moreover, we have

$$\binom{n-j+m-1}{m-1} = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \prod_{i=1}^{m-1} (n-j+i) \text{ if } n \ge j.$$

Hence $\varphi(n) = V_m(Q, n)$ if $n \ge \deg(Q)$, in particular, the statement is true for m = 1. Now, suppose m > 1 and $\deg(Q) - m < n < \deg(Q)$ then $-m < n - \deg(Q) \le n-j < 0$ for all j such that $n < j \le \deg(Q)$. It follows that there exists $1 \le i \le m-1$ such that n - j + i = 0 thus $N_{m,j}(n) = 0$. So we can write

$$V_m(Q,n) = \sum_{j=\omega(Q)}^n q_j N_{m,j}(n) = \sum_{j=\omega(Q)}^n q_j \binom{n-j+m-1}{m-1} = \varphi(n).$$

Furthermore, if $m \leq 0$ then $\varphi(n) = 0$ for $n > \deg(Q) - m$ because $\Phi(t) \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ and $\deg(Q) - m = \deg \Phi(t)$.

2. Follows from the fact that $\varphi(n) = \sum_{j=\omega(Q)}^{n} q_j \binom{n-j+m-1}{m-1} > 0$ if $n \ge \omega(Q)$ and $\varphi(n) = 0$ if $n < \omega(Q) \square$

THEOREM 2.4 Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $p \in \mathbb{N}$. Given $Q(t) = \sum_j q_j t^j \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ such that $Q(1) \neq 0$, we consider $\Phi(t) = \sum_n \varphi(n)t^n$ the expansion of $(1 - t^p)^{-m}Q(t)$ as a formal power series. Then the following conditions hold

- 1. $\varphi(n) = H_m(Q, n)$ for all $n > \deg(Q) mp$.
- 2. We suppose that m > 0 and Q(t) has nonnegative coefficients. Then,
 - (a) $\varphi(pk+r) = 0 \Leftrightarrow k < \omega(Q_r).$

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(b)
$$g(\Phi) = \omega_p(Q) - p = \deg(Q) - p - \delta_p(\hat{Q})$$
 where $\hat{Q}(t) = t^{\deg(Q)}Q(t^{-1})$.
(c) $N'(\Phi) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \max\{\omega(Q_r), 0\}$.
In particular, $N'(\Phi) = \Omega_p(Q)$ if $Q(t) \in \mathbb{Q}[t]$.

PROOF. We write $\Phi(t) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} t^r (1-t^p)^{-m} Q_r(t^p) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} t^r (1-t^p)^{-m_r} U_r(t^p) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} t^r \Phi_r(t^p)$ where $\Phi_r(t) = (1-t^p)^{-m_r} U_r(t^p) = \sum_k \varphi_r(k) t^k$. It follows from lemma 2.3.1, that $\varphi(pk+r) = \varphi_r(k) = V_{m_r}(U_r,k)$ for all $k > \deg(U_r) - m_r$. Therefore, $\varphi(n) = H_m(Q, n)$ for $n > \deg(Q) - pm$ because $n = pk + r > \deg(Q) - pm \ge p(\deg(Q_r) - m) + r \Rightarrow k > \deg(Q_r) - m = \deg(U_r) - m_r$. 2 (a) follows from lemma 2.3.2 (a). b) We have $g(\Phi) = \max\{pg(\Phi_r) + r \mid 0 \le r \le p-1\} = \max\{p(\omega(Q_r) - 1) + r \mid 0 \le r \le p-1\} = \omega_p(Q) - p$. Moreover, if $Q_r \ne 0$ for all r we have $\omega_p(Q) - p = \deg(Q) - p - \delta_p(\hat{Q})$ by (9). Since $\omega_p(Q) = +\infty = -\delta_p(\hat{Q})$ if $Q_r = 0$ for some r, the equality is still true in this case.

c) Follows from lemma 2.3.2 (c) \Box

LEMMA 2.5 Let $\xi = e^{\frac{2i\pi}{p}}$ be a primitive p-th root of unity and $Q(t) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} t^r Q_r(t^p) \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$. Then, the following conditions are equivalent

- 1. $Q(\xi^j) = 0$ for 0 < j < p.
- 2. $Q(1) = pQ_r(1)$ for $0 \le r \le p 1$.

PROOF. By successive substitutions of $1, \xi, \ldots, \xi^{p-1}$ for t in $Q(t) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} t^r Q_r(t^p)$ we obtain a Vandermonde linear system $\sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \xi^{rj} Q_r(1) = Q(\xi^j)$ for $j = 0, \ldots, p-1$. If $Q(\xi) = \cdots = Q(\xi^{p-1}) = 0$, the unique solution is $Q_r(1) = \frac{1}{p}Q(1)$ for every $0 \le r \le p-1$. Conversely, if $\frac{Q(1)}{p}$ is the common value of the $Q_r(1)$ then $\frac{Q(1)}{p} \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \xi^{rj} = 0 = Q(\xi^j)$ for $j = 1, \ldots, p-1$

LEMMA 2.6 Let p, q, u be positive integers and $Q(t), K(t) \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ such that p = qu and $K(t^u) = Q(t)$. We denote by Q_r (resp. K_s) the p-components of Q (resp. the q-components of K). Then,

- 1. $Q_{su} = K_s$ and $Q_r = 0$ for all $r \notin u\mathbb{Z}$.
- 2. We set $\xi = e^{\frac{2i\pi}{p}}$, then the following conditions are equivalent
 - (a) $Q(\xi^j) = 0$ for 0 < j < q.
 - (b) $Q(\xi^q) = qQ_r(1) = K(1)$ for all $r \in u\mathbb{Z}$.

PROOF. We can write $Q(t) = K(t^u) = \sum_{s=0}^{q-1} t^{us} K_s(t^p)$. It follows from the uniqueness of the Q_r that $Q_{su} = K_s$ for $0 \le s < q$. Now, $Q(\xi^q) = K(1)$ and $Q(\xi^j) = K(\alpha^j)$ with $\alpha = e^{\frac{21\pi}{q}} = \xi^u$. We apply lemma 2.5 \Box

For every $p \in l\mathbb{N}$, we set $F_p(t) = \prod_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p}{a_i}-1} t^{ja_i}$ the Frobenius polynomial of A. We write $F_{p,r}$ for the p-components of F_p . It is easy to see that for $n = \deg(F_p) = pd - \sum_{i=1}^d a_i$, we have $\widehat{F}_p(t) = t^n F_p(t^{-1}) = F_p(t)$. Let us write $p = q\rho$ and $a_i = b_i\rho$

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for all $1 \le i \le d$, where $\rho = \gcd(A)$. So we can write $F_p(t) = K(t^{\rho})$ with

$$K(t) = \frac{(1-t^q)^d}{\prod_{i=1}^d (1-t^{b_i})}.$$

Moreover, for 0 < j < q the number $\xi^j = e^{\frac{2ij\pi}{q}}$ is a root of $\prod_{i=1}^d (1-t^{b_i})$ of multiplicity < d because $gcd(b_1, ..., b_d) = 1$ whereas ξ^j is a root of $(1-t^q)^d$ of multiplicity = d, then $K(\xi^j) = 0$. It follows from lemma 2.6 that $F_{p,r} = K_{\frac{r}{\rho}}$ if $r \in \rho\mathbb{Z}$ and $F_{p,r} = 0$ otherwise. We also deduce that $F_{p,r}(1) = \frac{1}{q}K(1) = \frac{\rho p^{d-1}}{\prod_{i=1}^d a_i}$ if $r \in \rho\mathbb{Z}$

3 FROBENIUS NUMBER AND NUMERICAL SEMIGROUPS

In the case of the Frobenius polynomial F_p we set $\omega_p(F_p) = \omega_p(A)$, $\delta_p(F_p) = \delta_p(A)$, $\Omega_p(F_p) = \Omega_p(A)$, $\Delta_p(F) = \Delta_p(A)$.

THEOREM 3.1 For every $p \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

1.
$$g(A) = \omega_p(A) - p = p(d-1) - \sum_{i=1}^d a_i - \delta_p(A) = l(d-1) - \sum_{i=1}^d a_i - \delta_l(A).$$

2. $N'(A) = \Omega_p(A) = \Omega_l(A).$
3. $N(A) = \Delta_p(A) - \delta_p(A) = \Delta_l(A) - \delta_l(A).$

PROOF. We see that for every $p \in l\mathbb{N}$, the function $\Phi(t) = (1 - t^p)^{-d} F_p(t) = \sum_n s(n)t^n$ is the generating function of the s(n) so $g(A) = g(\Phi)$.

- 1. follows from theorem 2.4.2 (b).
- 2. follows from theorem 2.4.2 (c).
- 3. is a consequence of $(10)\square$

COROLLARY 3.2

1. For every $p \in l\mathbb{N}$, we have

$$g(A) = p(d-1) - \sum_{i=1}^{d} a_i \text{ if and only if } \delta_p(A) = 0.$$

- 2. $g(A) = +\infty$ if and only if $\rho > 1$.
- 3. If $\rho = 1$, we have the following upper bound for the Frobenius number

$$g(A) \leq l(d-1) - \sum_{i=1}^{d} a_i.$$

4. If there exists h such that $1 \le h \le d$ and $gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_h) = 1$ then $g(A) \le lcm(a_1, \ldots, a_h)(h-1) - \sum_{i=1}^h a_i$.

REMARK 3.3 The upper bound we give in 3) improves the following inequality

$$g(A) \le l(d-1)$$

proved by Chrzastowski-Wachtel and mentioned in [9].

COROLLARY 3.4 Suppose gcd(A) = 1. Then the following conditions hold

- 1. S(A) is symmetric $\Leftrightarrow \Delta_p(A) = \Omega_p(A) + \delta_p(A)$ for some $p \in l\mathbb{N} \Leftrightarrow \Delta_p(A) = \Omega_p(A) + \delta_p(A)$ for all $p \in l\mathbb{N}$.
- 2. S(A) is peudo-symmetric $\Leftrightarrow \Delta_p(A) + 1 = \Omega_p(A) + \delta_p(A)$ for some $p \in l\mathbb{N} \Leftrightarrow \Delta_p(A) + 1 = \Omega_p(A) + \delta_p(A)$ for all $p \in l\mathbb{N}$.

We suppose gcd(A) = 1. Let $q_1, ..., q_d$ be positive integers such that for all $1 \le i \le d$, q_i is a divisor of $gcd(a_1, ..., a_{i-1}, a_{i+1}, ..., a_d)$. So $gcd(q_i, q_j) = 1$ for $i \ne j$ because gcd(A) = 1. We set $\hat{q} = \prod_{j=1}^d q_j$, $\hat{q}_i = \prod_{j \ne i} q_j$, $a_i = b_i \hat{q}_i$ and $B = \{b_1, ..., b_d\}$. We have gcd(B) = 1 and $l = lcm(A) = \hat{q}lcm(B)$. For $p \in l\mathbb{N}$, we write $p = \hat{q}u$ with $u \in lcm(B)\mathbb{N}$.

THEOREM 3.5 The following formulas hold

1.
$$\delta_p(A) = \hat{q}\delta_u(B).$$

2. $\omega_p(A) = \hat{q}\omega_u(B) + \sum_{i=1}^d (q_i - 1)a_i.$
3. $\Omega_p(A) = \hat{q}\Omega_u(B) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^d (q_i - 1)a_i - \hat{q} + 1 \right).$
4. $\Delta_p(A) = \hat{q}\Delta_u(B) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^d (q_i - 1)a_i - \hat{q} + 1 \right).$

In order to prove this theorem we need a lemma.

LEMMA 3.6 Let q and c be two positive integers, $B = \{b_1, ..., b_{d-1}, c\}$, and $A = \{a_1, ..., a_{d-1}, c\}$ where $a_1 = qb_1, ..., a_{d-1} = qb_{d-1}$. Suppose gcd(A) = 1 and choose $p \in lcm(B)\mathbb{N}$ so gcd(q, c) = 1 and $qp \in lcm(A)\mathbb{N}$. Then, the following formulas hold

1. $\delta_{qp}(A) = q \delta_p(B)$. 2. $\omega_{qp}(A) = q \omega_p(B) + (q-1)c$. 3. $\Omega_{qp}(A) = q \Omega_p(B) + \frac{1}{2}(q-1)(c-1)$. 4. $\Delta_{qp}(A) = q \Delta_p(B) + \frac{1}{2}(q-1)(c-1)$.

PROOF. We denote by

$$F(t) = F_p(t) = \frac{(1-t^p)^d}{(1-t^c)\prod_{i=1}^{d-1}(1-t^{b_i})} = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} t^r F_r(t^p)$$

the Frobenius polynomial associated with B and

$$G(t) = G_{qp}(t) = \frac{(1 - t^{qp})^d}{(1 - t^c) \prod_{i=1}^{d-1} (1 - t^{a_i})} = \sum_{s=0}^{qp-1} t^s G_s(t^{qp})$$

the Frobenius polynomial associated with A. We see that

$$G(t) = (1 + t^{c} + ... + t^{(q-1)c})F(t^{q}) = (1 + t^{c} + ... + t^{(q-1)c})\sum_{r=0}^{p-1} t^{qr}F_{r}(t^{qp}).$$

So we obtain

$$G(t) = \sum_{\substack{k=ic+jq\\0\le i\le q-1}} t^k F_j(t^{qp}) = \sum_{\substack{0\le k=ic+jq\le qp-1\\0\le i\le q-1}} t^k F_j(t^{qp}) + \sum_{\substack{k>qp-1\\0\le i\le q-1}} t^{k-qp} t^{qp} F_j(t^{qp})$$

By identification we deduce that $G_s(t^{qp}) = F_j(t^{qp})$ when s = ic + jq and $G_s(t^{qp}) = t^{qp}F_j(t^{qp})$ when s = ic + jq - qp = ic - (p - j)q. In particular, we have deg $(G_s) = deg(F_j)$ and $\omega(G_s) = \omega(F_j)$ when s = ic + jq and deg $(G_s) = 1 + deg(F_j)$ and $\omega(G_s) = 1 + \omega(F_j)$ when s = ic + jq - qp. Therefore, for all s which can be written in the form s = ic + jq we get deg $(t^sG_s(t^{qp})) = ic + jq + qp deg(F_j)$ and $\omega(t^sG_s(t^{qp})) = ic + jq + qp deg(F_j)$. For all s which can be written in the form $s = ic + jq + qp\omega(F_j)$. For all s which can be written in the form $s = ic + jq + qp\omega(F_j)$. For all s which can be written in the form s = ic + jq - qp, we get deg $(t^sG_s(t^{qp})) = ic + jq - qp + qp(1 + deg(F_j)) = ic + jq + qp deg(F_j)$ and $\omega(t^sG_s(t^{qp})) = ic + jq - qp + qp(1 + deg(F_j)) = ic + jq + qp deg(F_j)$ and $\omega(t^sG_s(t^{qp})) = ic + jq - qp + qp(1 + deg(F_j))$. It follows that $\delta_{qp}(G) = \min\{ic + jq + qp deg(F_j)\} = (q-1)c + q \max\{j + p\omega(F_j)\} = q\omega_p(F) + (q-1)c$. We also have

$$\Omega_{qp}(G) = \sum_{s=ic+jq} \omega(G_s) + \sum_{s=ic+jq-qp} \omega(G_s) = \sum_{s=ic+jq} \omega(F_j) + \sum_{s=ic-jq} (\omega(F_j) + 1)$$

$$= q\Omega_p(F) + N'(c,q) = q\Omega_p(F) + \frac{1}{2}(q-1)(c-1). \text{ It follows that} \\ \Delta_{qp}(G) = \Omega_{qp}(G) + \delta_{qp}(G) = q(\Omega_p(F) + \delta_p(F)) + \frac{1}{2}(q-1)(c-1)\Box$$

PROOF OF THEOREM 3.5. By induction on the number h = d - k + 1 such $q_1 = q_2 = ... = q_{k-1} = 1$. If h = 1 the result is given by lemma 3.6. Suppose that the result is true when $q_1 = q_2 = ... = q_{k-1} = 1$. We choose $p \in lcm(A)\mathbb{N}$ and we set $v = \frac{p}{q_k}$, $t_i = q_i$ for $i \neq k$ and $t_k = 1$. Then, we get $\hat{t}_i = \frac{\hat{q}_i}{q_k}$ for all $i \neq k$, $\hat{t}_k = \hat{q}_k$ and $\hat{t} = \frac{\hat{q}}{q_k}$. We also have $\frac{a_i}{q_k} = \frac{b_i \hat{q}_i}{q_k} = b_i \hat{t}_i$ for all $i \neq k$ and $a_k = b_k \hat{t}_k$. We put $c_i = b_i \hat{t}_i$ for all i and $C = \{c_1, ..., c_d\}$, thus $a_i = q_k c_i$ for all $i \neq k$ and $a_k = c_k$. It follows from lemma 3.6 and the induction hypothesis that

1) $\delta_p(A) = q_k \delta_v(C) = q_k \hat{t} \delta_u(B) = \hat{q} \delta_u(B).$ 2) $\omega_p(A) = q_k \omega_v(C) + (q_k - 1)c_k = q_k \{\hat{t} \omega_u(B) + \sum_{i=1}^d (t_i - 1)c_i\} + (q_k - 1)c_k = \hat{q} \omega_u(B) + \sum_{i=1}^d (q_i - 1)a_i.$ 3) $\Omega_p(A) = q_k \Omega_v(C) + \frac{1}{2}(q_k - 1)(a_k - 1) = q_k \{\hat{t} \Omega_u(B) + \frac{1}{2}(\sum_{i=1}^d (t_i - 1)c_i - \hat{t} + 1)\} + \frac{1}{2}(q_k - 1)(a_k - 1) = \hat{q} \Omega_u(B) + \frac{1}{2}(\sum_{i=1}^d (q_i - 1)a_i - \hat{q} + 1).$ 4) $\Delta_p(A) = \Omega_p(A) + \delta_p(A) = \hat{q} \Delta_u(B) + \frac{1}{2}(\sum_{i=1}^d (q_i - 1)a_i - \hat{q} + 1) \square$

THEOREM 3.7 The following formulas hold

1.
$$g(A) = \hat{q}g(B) + \sum_{i=1}^{d} (q_i - 1)a_i.$$

2. $N'(A) = \hat{q}N'(B) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} (q_i - 1)a_i - \hat{q} + 1 \right).$

3.
$$N(A) = \hat{q}N(B) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} (q_i - 1)a_i - \hat{q} + 1 \right).$$

REMARK 3.8 In formula 1) if we take $q_1 = ... = q_{d-1} = 1$ then we obtain a Brauer and Shockley formula [5] and if we take $q_i = \text{gcd}(A \setminus \{a_i\})$ for all *i*, we obtain a Raczunas and Chrzastowski-Wachtel formula [9]. Moreover formula 2) is a generalization of a Rödseth formula [10] which is obtained for $q_1 = ... = q_{d-1} = 1$.

THEOREM 3.9 The following conditions hold

- 1. S(A) is symmetric if and only if S(B) is symmetric.
- 2. If $\hat{q} > 1$ then S(A) is not pseudo-symmetric.

COROLLARY 3.10 Suppose there exists i such that $b_i = 1$ (i.e. $a_i = \hat{q}_i$). Then, S(A) is symmetric and we have

- 1. (a) $g(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} (q_i 1)a_i \hat{q}.$ (b) $N(A) = N'(A) = \frac{1}{2} (\sum_{i=1}^{d} (q_i - 1)a_i - \hat{q} + 1).$
- 2. Suppose, in addition, that $b_i = 1$ (i.e. $a_i = \hat{q}_i$) for all *i*. Then, we have
 - (a) $g(A) = l(d-1) \sum_{i=1}^{d} a_i$. (b) $N(A) = N'(A) = \frac{1}{2}(l(d-1) - \sum_{i=1}^{d} a_i + 1)$.

PROOF. Since $1 \in B$, we have $S(B) = \mathbb{N}_0$ then g(B) = -1 and N(B) = N'(B) = 0. So 1. follows from theorem 3.7. To prove 2., we observe that $q_i a_i = \hat{q} = l = \operatorname{lcm}(A)$ if $a_i = \hat{q}_i$ for all $i\square$

COROLLARY 3.11 Let b, d, h, v be positive integers such that $b \ge d \ge 2$ and gcd(b, v) = 1. Let $B = \{b, hb + v, ..., hb + (i - 1)v, ..., hb + (d - 1)v\}$, $((b_1, ..., b_d)$ is called an "almost" arithmetic sequence). Then,

S(A) is symmetric $\Leftrightarrow S(B)$ is symmetric $\Leftrightarrow d = 2$ or $b \equiv 2 \mod(d-1)$.

PROOF. We write $b-1 = \beta(d-1) + \alpha$ with $0 \le \alpha < d-1$, and we use the following known formulas $g(B) = \left(h \lfloor \frac{b-2}{d-1} \rfloor + h - 1\right)b + bv - v$ [8] and $N'(B) = \frac{1}{2}\{(b-1)(h\beta + v + h - 1) + h\alpha(\beta + 1)\}$ [11] \Box

EXAMPLE 3.12 Let $A = \{150, 462, 840, 1365\} = \{5(2 \times 3 \times 5), 11(2 \times 3 \times 7), 12(2 \times 5 \times 7), 13(3 \times 5 \times 7)\}$. We set $q_1 = 7, q_2 = 5, q_3 = 3, q_4 = 2$ and $B = \{5, 11, 12, 13\}$. This is an almost arithmetic sequence with b = 5, v = 1, h = 2, d = 4. We see that $b \equiv 2 \mod(d-1)$ hence S(B) is symmetric and we have g(B) = 19, N'(B) = N(B) = 10. Moreover, it follows from theorem 3.9 that S(A) is symmetric. Using theorem 3.7 we obtain $g(A) = 210 \times 19 + 6 \times 150 + 4 \times 462 + 2 \times 840 + 1365 = 9783$. $N'(A) = N(A) = 210 \times 10 + \frac{1}{2}(6 \times 150 + 4 \times 462 + 2 \times 840 + 1365 - 210 + 1) = 4892$.

4 QUASI-POLYNOMIALS

DEFINITION 4.1 A quasi-polynomial P of period p and degree d is a sequence $P = (P_0, \ldots, P_{p-1})$ with $P_r \in \mathbb{Q}[t]$ such that $d = \sup\{\deg(P_r) \mid 0 \le r \le p-1\}$. A quasi-polynomial P is said to be uniform if all the P_r have the same degree d

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and the same leading coefficient c(P). Given a function $h: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, we define $h_r: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}, k \mapsto h(pk+r)$. We say that h is a quasi-polynomial function if there exists a quasi-polynomial $P = (P_0, \ldots, P_{p-1})$ such that $h_r(k) = P_r(k)$ for all $k \gg 0$ and $0 \le r \le p$. We also say that h is P-quasi-polynomial. It is easily seen that a quasi-polynomial function h has a minimal period and every period of h is a multiple of this minimal period. Furthermore, for a fixed period p, his a P-quasi-polynomial for a unique sequence $P = (P_0, \ldots, P_{p-1})$. A P-quasipolynomial h is said to be uniform if P is uniform. We write $\deg(h) = \deg(P)$ and c(h) = c(P). We denote by $F(\mathbb{Z})$ the set of all functions $h: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}$. For every integer $i \ge 0$ we consider the operators E^i and Δ_i , which act as follows: $(E^ih)(n) = h(n+i), (\Delta_ih)(n) = h(n+i) - h(n)$. We set $E^0 = I, E^1 = E$ and $\Delta_1 = \Delta$ so $\Delta = E - I, \Delta_0 = 0$ and $\Delta_i = E^i - I$. For $a \ge 0$ and $n \ge 1$, we have $(I + E^a + \cdots + E^{(n-1)a}) \circ (E^a - I) = E^{na} - I = \Delta_{na}$.

LEMMA 4.2 Given $h \in F(\mathbb{Z})$, then the following identities hold

- 1. $(E^{pi}h)_r = E^i h_r$ for $i \ge 0$.
- 2. $(\Delta_p^m h)_r = \Delta^m h_r$ for $m \ge 0$.

PROOF. 1. We write $(E^{pi}h)_r(k) = (E^{pi}h)(pk+r) = h(p(k+i)+r) = h_r(k+i) = (E^ih_r)(k)$.

2. We have $\Delta_p^m = (E^p - I)^m = \sum_{i=0}^m (-1)^{m-i} {m \choose i} E^{pi}$. Therefore, $(\Delta_p^m h)_r = \sum_{i=0}^m (-1)^{m-i} {m \choose i} (E^{pi} h)_r = \sum_{i=0}^m (-1)^{m-i} {m \choose i} E^i h_r = (E - I)^m h_r = \Delta^m h_r \square$

PROPOSITION 4.3 A function $h \in F(\mathbb{Z})$ is quasi-polynomial of period p and degree d if and only if there exists $(c_0, \ldots, c_{p-1}) \neq (0, \ldots, 0)$ such that $(\Delta_p^d h)_r(k) = c_r$ for all $k \gg 0$ and $0 \le r \le p-1$.

PROOF. Follows from lemma 4.2 and [6, lemma 4.1.2] \Box

COROLLARY 4.4 For $h \in F(\mathbb{Z})$, if $\prod_{i=1}^{d} (E^{a_i} - I)(h)(n) = 0$ for $n \gg 0$, then h is quasi-polynomial of period $p \in l\mathbb{N}$ and degree < d.

PROOF. Follows from $\Delta_p^d = (E^p - I)^d = (\prod_{i=1}^d (\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p}{a_i}-1} E^{ja_i})) \circ (\prod_{i=1}^d (E^{a_i} - I) \square$

EXAMPLE 4.5 Given $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $Q(t) \in \mathbb{Q}[t, t^{-1}]$ such that $Q(1) \neq 0$. The function $H_m(Q, .)$ associated with Q is a P-quasi-polynomial of period p, where $P = (P_0, .., P_{p-1})$ is given by $P_r = V_{m_r}(U_r, .)$.

REMARK 4.6 Suppose m > 0. Then, we have

- 1. $\deg(H_m(Q, .)) = m 1.$
- 2. $m_r > 0 \Rightarrow \deg(P_r) = m_r 1$ and $c(P_r) = \frac{U_r(1)}{(m_r 1)!}$.
- 3. If $Q(1) = pQ_r(1) \neq 0$ for all $0 \leq r \leq p-1$, then $H_m(Q, .)$ is uniform of degree m-1 and its leading coefficient is $c(H_m(Q, .)) = \frac{Q_r(1)}{(d-1)!} = \frac{Q(1)}{p(d-1)!}$.