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# THE COMBINATORICS OF INTERVAL-VECTOR POLYTOPES 

MATTHIAS BECK, JESSICA DE SILVA, GABRIEL DORFSMAN-HOPKINS, JOSEPH PRUITT, AND AMANDA RUIZ


#### Abstract

An interval vector is a $(0,1)$-vector in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ for which all the 1 's appear consecutively, and an interval-vector polytope is the convex hull of a set of interval vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. We study three particular classes of interval vector polytopes which exhibit interesting geometric-combinatorial structures; e.g., one class has volumes equal to the Catalan numbers, whereas another class has face numbers given by the Pascal 3-triangle.


## 1. Introduction

An interval vector is a $(0,1)$-vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that, if $x_{i}=x_{k}=1$ for $i<k$, then $x_{j}=1$ for every $i \leq j \leq k$. In [2] Dahl introduced the class of interval-vector polytopes, which are formed by taking the convex hull of a set of interval vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Our goal is to derive combinatorial properties of certain interval-vector polytopes.

For $i \leq j$, let $\alpha_{i, j}:=e_{i}+e_{i+1}+\cdots+e_{j}$, where $e_{i}$ is the $i^{\text {th }}$ standard unit vector. The interval length of $\alpha_{i j}$ is $j-i+1$. Let $S \subset \mathbb{N}$. For a fixed $n$, let $\mathcal{I}_{S}$ be the set of interval vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with interval length in $S$. (If $S$ is small, we may leave out the brackets in the set notation; e.g., we will denote $\mathcal{I}_{\{i, j\}}$ by $\mathcal{I}_{i, j}$.) We will denote the set of all non-zero interval vectors in a given dimension as $\mathcal{I}_{[n]}$. Let $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{S}\right)$ be the convex hull of $\mathcal{I}_{S} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$.

There are three classes of interval vector polytopes that we will consider in this paper. In Section3 we study the complete interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{[n]}\right)$, the convex hull of all interval vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ except the zero vector. In Section 4 we look at the fixed interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ given by the convex hull of all interval vectors with interval length $i$. In Section 5 we introduce the first in a class of pyramidal interval polytopes: the first pyramidal interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$, the convex hull of all interval vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with interval length 1 or $n-1$. (The reason for the term pyramidal interval polytope will also become clear in Section 5.) In Section 6 we generalize this to the $i^{\text {th }}$ pyramidal interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-i}\right)$. We examine combinatorial characteristics of these polytopes such as the $f$-vector and volume and discover unexpected relations to well-known numerical sequences.

Let $t$ be a positive integer variable. For a lattice polytope $\mathcal{P}$ (i.e., the vertices of $\mathcal{P}$ all have integer coordinates), the Ehrhart polynomial $L_{\mathcal{P}}(t)$ is the counting function yielding the number of lattice points in $t \mathcal{P}:=\{t v \mid v \in \mathcal{P}\}$. Ehrhart [5] proved that $L_{\mathcal{P}}(t)$ is indeed a polynomial; see,

[^0]e.g., [1] for more about Ehrhart polynomials. The Ehrhart polynomial contains useful geometric information about a polytope; in particular, the leading coefficient of the Ehrhart polynomial gives the volume of the polytope.

In [9], Postnikov defines the complete root polytope $Q_{n} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ as the convex hull of 0 and $e_{i}-e_{j}$ for all $i<j$ where $e_{i}$ is the $i^{\text {th }}$ standard unit vector. He showed (among many other things) that the volume of $Q_{n+1}$ is $C_{n}:=\frac{1}{n+1}\binom{2 n}{n}$, the $n^{\text {th }}$ Catalan number. In Section 3 we prove, in a discretegeometric sense, that $Q_{n+1}$ and the complete interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{[n]}\right)$ are interchangeable, that is, the two polytopes have the same Ehrhart polynomial.

Theorem 1. $L_{Q_{n+1}}(t)=L_{\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{[n]}\right)}(t)$.
Corollary 2. The volume of the complete interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{[n]}\right)$ equals the $n^{\text {th }}$ Catalan number.

A unimodular simplex in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ is an $n$-dimensional lattice simplex $\Delta$ whose edge direction at any vertex form a lattice basis for $\mathbb{Z}^{d} \cap \operatorname{aff}(\Delta)$, where $\operatorname{aff}(\Delta)$ is the affine hull of $\Delta$. In Section 4 we prove:

Theorem 3. The fixed interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ is an $(n-i)$-dimensional unimodular simplex.
Given an $n$-dimensional polytope $\mathcal{P}$ with $f_{k} k$-dimensional faces, the $f$-vector of $\mathcal{P}$ is written as $f(\mathcal{P}):=\left(f_{-1}, f_{0}, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)$ where $f_{-1}, f_{n}:=1$ (see, e.g., [7] for more about $f$-vectors). In Section 5 we show:

Theorem 4. For $n \geq 3$, the $f$-vector of the first pyramidal interval vector polytope satisfies $f_{k}\left(\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)\right)=\binom{n-1}{k}+\binom{n+1}{k+1}$.

The $f$-vector of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$ is thus the $n^{\text {th }}$ row of the Pascal 3-triangle (see, e.g., [10, Sequence A028262]), in particular, it is symmetric. We also show that the volume of the $1^{\text {st }}$ pyramidal interval vector polytope is simple:

Theorem 5. For $n \geq 3, \operatorname{vol}\left(\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)\right)=2(n-2)$.
Finally, in Section 6 we lay out future work on $i^{\text {th }}$ pyramidal interval vector polytopes.

## 2. Preliminaries

In this paper, we will be analyzing the properties of certain classes of convex polytopes which are formed by taking the convex hull of finitely many points in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. The convex hull of a set $A=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{m}\right\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$, denoted $\operatorname{conv}(A)$, is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{\lambda_{1} v_{1}+\lambda_{2} v_{2}+\cdots+\lambda_{m} v_{m} \mid \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{m} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \quad \text { and } \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_{i}=1\right\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The polytope $\operatorname{conv}(A)$ is contained in the affine hull aff $(A)$ of $A$, defined as in (1) but without the restriction that $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{m} \geq 0$. We call a set of points affinely (resp. convexly) independent if each point is not in the affine (resp. convex) hull of the rest. The vertex set of a polytope is the minimal convexly independent set of points whose convex hull form the polytope. A polytope is $d$-dimensional if the dimension of its affine hull is $d$. We denote the dimension of the polytope $\mathcal{P}$ as $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{P})$. We call a $d$-dimensional polytope a $d$-simplex if it has $d+1$ vertices.

A lattice point is a point with integral coordinates. A lattice polytope is a polytope whose vertices are lattice points. The normalized volume of a polytope $\mathcal{P}$, denoted $\operatorname{vol}(\mathcal{P})$, is the volume with
respect to a unimodular simplex (recall definition in Section 1). We will refer to the normalized volume of a polytope as its volume. Note that the leading coefficient of the Ehrhart polynomial of a lattice polytope $\mathcal{P}$ is $\frac{1}{d!} \operatorname{vol}(\mathcal{P})$.

A hyperplane is a set of the form

$$
H:=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid a_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} x_{n}=b\right\},
$$

where not all $a_{j}$ 's are 0 . The half-spaces defined by this hyperplane are formed by the two weak inequalities corresponding to the equation defining the hyperplane. A face of $\mathcal{P}$ is the intersection of a hyperplane and $\mathcal{P}$ such that $\mathcal{P}$ lies completely in one half-space of the hyperplane. This face is a polytope called a $k$-face if its dimension is $k$. A vertex is a 0 -face and an edge is a 1 -face. Given a $d$-dimensional polytope $\mathcal{P}$ with $f_{k} k$-dimensional faces, the $f$-vector of $\mathcal{P}$ is written as $f(\mathcal{P}):=\left(f_{-1}, f_{0}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)$. For example, a triangle $\triangle$ is a 2 -dimensional polytope with 3 vertices and 3 edges and thus has $f$-vector $f(\triangle)=(1,3,3,1)$.

## 3. Complete Interval Vector Polytopes

In 2 Dahl provides a method for determining the dimension of these polytopes which we will use throughout this paper. We utilized the software packages polymake [6] and LattE [4, 8] to find most of the patterns described by our results.

Proof of Theorem 1. Each of the vertices of $Q_{n}$ are vectors with entries that sum to zero, so any linear combination (and specifically any convex combination) of these vertices also has entries who sum to zero. Define $B:=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}=0\right\}$; thus $Q_{n} \subset B$, and $B$ is an $(n-1)$-dimensional affine subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.

Consider the linear transformation $T$ given by the $n \times n$ lower triangular matrix with entries $t_{i, j}=1$ if $i \geq j$ and $t_{i, j}=0$ otherwise. Then

$$
T(B) \subseteq A:=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid x_{n}=0\right\} .
$$

Since (the matrix representing) $T$ has determinant 1 , it is injective when restricting the domain to $B$. For the same reason, we know that for any $y \in A$, there exists $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that $y=T(x)$. But since $y_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}=0$, then $x \in B$, so that $\left.T\right|_{B}: B \rightarrow A$ is surjective, and therefore a linear bijection.

Also, the projection $\Pi: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ given by

$$
\Pi\left(\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}, 0\right)\right)=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right),
$$

is clearly a linear bijection.
Now we show that the linear bijection $\left.\Pi \circ T\right|_{B}: B \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ is a lattice-preserving map, i.e., an isomorphism from $B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{n}$ to $\mathbb{Z}^{n-1}$ (viewed as additive groups). First we find a lattice basis for $B$. Consider

$$
C:=\left\{e_{i, n}=e_{i}-e_{n} \mid i<n\right\} .
$$

We notice that any integer point of $B$ can be represented as

$$
\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1},-\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_{i} e_{i, n}
$$

and so $C$ is a lattice basis.
Note that $\Pi \circ T\left(e_{i, n}\right)=e_{i}+\cdots+e_{n-1}=: u_{i}$. Therefore

$$
\Pi \circ T(C)=\left\{u_{i} \mid i \leq n-1\right\}=: U .
$$

We notice that $e_{n-1}=u_{n-1}$ and $e_{i}=u_{i}-u_{i+1}$, so that each of the standard unit vectors $e_{i}$ of $\mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ is an integral combination of the vectors in $U$. Since the standard basis is a lattice basis, so is $U$, thus $\left.\Pi \circ T\right|_{B}$ is a lattice-preserving map. Since our bijection is linear and lattice-preserving, all we have left to show is that the vertices of $Q_{n}$ map to those of $\mathcal{P}_{n-1}\left(\mathcal{I}_{[n-1]}\right)$. By linearity, $\Pi \circ T(0)=0$, and given any vertex $\alpha_{i, j}$ of $\mathcal{P}_{n-1}\left(\mathcal{I}_{[n-1]}\right)$, we know that $\Pi \circ T\left(e_{i, j+1}\right)=\alpha_{i, j}$ where $i<j+1 \leq n$ so that $\left.\Pi \circ T\right|_{B}$ maps vertices to vertices.

Corollary 2 follows directly from this theorem and [9], since the leading coefficient of the Ehrhart polynomial of $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ is $\frac{1}{n!}$ times the volume of $\mathcal{P}_{n}$.

## 4. Fixed Interval Vector Polytopes

The following construction is due to [2]. We define the set of elementary vectors as containing all $e_{i, j}=e_{i}-e_{j}$, each unit vector $e_{i}$, and the zero vector. Let $T$ be the lower triangular matrix from the proof of Theorem 1. We notice that $T\left(e_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i, n}$ and $T\left(e_{i, j}\right)=\alpha_{i, j-1}$. So the image of an elementary vector is an interval vector. Since $T$ is invertible, for any set of interval vectors $\mathcal{I}$, there is a unique set $\mathcal{E}$ of elementary vectors such that $T(\mathcal{E})=\mathcal{I}$, namely $\mathcal{E}=T^{-1}(\mathcal{I})$.

Thus for any interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{S}\right) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$, we can construct the corresponding flowdimension graph $G_{\mathcal{I}_{S}}=(V, E)$ as follows. Let $\mathcal{E}_{S}=T^{-1}\left(\mathcal{I}_{S}\right)$. Let the vertex set $V=[n]$. Specify a subset $V_{1}=\left\{j \in V \mid e_{j} \in \mathcal{E}_{S}\right\}$, and define the directed edge set $E=\left\{(i, j) \mid e_{i, j} \in \mathcal{E}_{S}\right\}$. Let $k_{0}$ denote the number of connected components $\mathcal{C}$ of the graph $G$ (ignoring direction) so that $\mathcal{C} \cap V_{1}$ is empty.

Recall that the fixed interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ is the convex hull of all interval vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with interval length $i$. For example, the fixed interval vector polytope with $n=5, i=3$ is

$$
\mathcal{P}_{5}\left(\mathcal{I}_{3}\right)=\operatorname{conv}((1,1,1,0,0),(0,1,1,1,0),(0,0,1,1,1))
$$

and its flow-dimension graph is depicted in Figure 1 .


Figure 1. The flow-dimension graph of $\mathcal{P}_{5}\left(\mathcal{I}_{3}\right)$.

Theorem 6 (Dahl [2]). If $0 \in \operatorname{aff}\left(\mathcal{I}_{S}\right)$, then the dimension of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{S}\right)$ is $n-k_{0}$. Else, if $0 \notin \operatorname{aff}\left(\mathcal{I}_{S}\right)$ then the dimension of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{S}\right)$ is $n-k_{0}-1$.

For a fixed $i$,

$$
T^{-1}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)=\mathcal{E}_{i}=\left\{e_{k, k+i} \mid k \leq n-i\right\} \cup\left\{e_{n-i+1}\right\}
$$

The corresponding flow-dimension graph is $G_{\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)}=(V, E)$ where $V=\{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $E=$ $\{(k, k+i) \mid k \in[n-i]\}$. Then $V_{1}=\{n-i+1\}$ corresponds to $e_{n-i+1} \in \mathcal{E}_{i}$.

Two nodes $a, b$ in a graph $G=(V, E)$ are said to be connected if there exists a path from $a$ to $b$, that is there exist $q_{0}, \ldots, q_{s} \in V$ such that $\left(a, q_{0}\right),\left(q_{0}, q_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(q_{s}, b\right) \in E$.

Lemma 7. Let $a, b$ be nodes in the flow-dimension graph $G_{\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)}$. Then $a$ and $b$ are connected if and only if $a \equiv b \bmod i$.

Proof. The edges in $G_{\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)}$ are of the form $(k, k+i)$, and therefore the nodes of a path in $G_{\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)}$ are all in the same congruence class modulo $i$.

Proposition 8. $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ is an $(n-i)$-dimensional simplex.
Proof. For a given dimension and interval length, an interval vector is uniquely determined by the location of the first 1 , hence we can determine the number of vertices of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ by counting all possible placements of the first 1 in an interval of $i$ 1's. Since the string must have length $i$, the number of spaces before the first 1 must not exceed $n-i$ and so there are $n-i+1$ possible locations for the first 1 in the interval to be placed. Thus, $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ has $n-i+1$ vertices.

By Lemma 7 we know there are $i$ connected components in the flow-dimension graph $G_{\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)}$ and since $V_{1}$ has only one element, $k_{0}=i-1$. Thus by Theorem 6 the dimension of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ is $n-i$. Therefore $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ is an $(n-i)$-dimensional simplex.

Proof of Theorem [3. It remains to show that $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ is unimodular. Consider the affine space where the sum over every $i^{\text {th }}$ coordinate is 1 ,

$$
A=\left\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid \sum_{j \equiv k \bmod i} x_{j}=1, \text { for all } k \in[i]\right\}
$$

Since the vertices of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ have interval length $i$, they are in $A$; thus $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right) \subset A$. We want to show that the following vectors in $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ form a lattice basis for $A$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
w_{1} & =\alpha_{1, i}-\alpha_{n-i+1, n} \\
w_{2} & =\alpha_{2, i+1}-\alpha_{n-i+1, n} \\
& \vdots \\
w_{n-i}= & \alpha_{n-i, n-1}-\alpha_{n-i+1, n}
\end{aligned}
$$

We will do this by showing that any integer point $p \in A$ can be expressed as an integral linear combination of the proposed lattice basis, that is, there exist integer coefficients $Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{n-i}$ so that $p=Y_{1} w_{1}+\cdots+Y_{n-i} w_{n-i}+\alpha_{n-i+1, n}$.

We first notice that $p$ can be expressed as

$$
\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{n-i}, \sum_{\substack{j \leq n-i \\ j \equiv t-i+1 \bmod i}}\left(-p_{j}\right)+1, \sum_{\substack{j \leq n-i \\ j \equiv t-i+2 \bmod i}}\left(-p_{j}\right)+1, \ldots, \sum_{\substack{j \leq n-i \\ j \equiv t \bmod i}}\left(-p_{j}\right)+1\right)
$$

by solving for the last term in each of the equations defining $A$. Let

$$
Y_{t}=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
p_{1} & \text { if } & t=1, \\
p_{t}-p_{t-1} & \text { if } & 1<t \leq i, \\
p_{t}-Y_{t-i} & \text { if } & i<t \leq n-i .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Then each $Y_{t}$ is an integer. We claim that

$$
Y_{1} w_{1}+\cdots+Y_{n-i} w_{n-i}+\alpha_{n-i+1, n}=p .
$$

Clearly the first coordinate is $p_{1}$ since $w_{1}$ is the only vector with an element in the first coordinate. Next consider the $t^{\text {th }}$ coordinate of this linear combination for $1<t \leq i$, by summing the coefficients
of all the vectors who have a 1 in the $t^{\text {th }}$ position:

$$
Y_{t}+Y_{t-1}+Y_{t-2}+\cdots+Y_{1}=p_{t}-p_{t-1}+p_{t-1}-p_{t-2}+\cdots+p_{2}-p_{1}+p_{1}=p_{t}
$$

We next consider the $t^{\text {th }}$ coordinate of the combination for $i<t \leq n-i$ by summing the coefficients of the vectors who have a 1 in the $t^{\text {th }}$ position.

$$
Y_{t}+Y_{t-1}+\cdots+Y_{t-i+1}=\left(p_{t}-Y_{t-1}-\cdots-Y_{t-i+1}\right)+Y_{t-1}+\cdots+Y_{t-i+1}=p_{t}
$$

Finally, we consider the $t^{\text {th }}$ coordinate of the combination for $n-i<t \leq n$, noticing that each coordinate from $w_{1}$ to $w_{t}$ has a -1 in the $(t-i)^{\text {th }}$ position, and $\alpha_{n-i+1, n}$ has a 1 in this position. This gives

$$
-\left(Y_{1}+Y_{2}+\cdots+Y_{t-i}\right)+1
$$

Applying the two relations we have defined between coordinates, and calling $\langle t\rangle$ the least residue of $t \bmod i$, we see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
-\left(Y_{1}+Y_{2}+\cdots+Y_{t-i}\right)+1 & =-\left(Y_{1}+Y_{2}+\cdots+Y_{t-2 i}+p_{t-i}\right)+1 \\
= & -\left(Y_{1}+Y_{2}+\cdots+Y_{t-3 i}+p_{t-2 i}+p_{t-i}\right)+1 \\
= & -\left(Y_{1}+Y_{2}+\cdots+Y_{\langle t\rangle}+\sum_{\substack{i<j \leq n-i \\
j \equiv t \bmod i}} p_{j}\right)+1 \\
= & -\left(\sum_{\substack{j \leq n-i \\
j \equiv t \bmod i}} p_{j}\right)+1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $p=Y_{1} w_{1}+Y_{2} w_{2}+\cdots+Y_{n-i} w_{n-i}+\alpha_{n-i+1, n}$ and so $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n-i}$ form a lattice basis of $A$. Thus the vertices of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ form a lattice basis, and so $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{i}\right)$ is a unimodular simplex.

## 5. The first pyramidal interval vector polytope

Recall that $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$ is the convex hull of all vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with interval length 1 or $n-1$. For example,

$$
\mathcal{P}_{4}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1,3}\right)=\operatorname{conv}((1,0,0,0),(0,1,0,0),(0,0,1,0),(0,0,0,1),(1,1,1,0),(0,1,1,1))
$$

whose flow-dimension graph is depicted in Figure 2 .


Figure 2. $G_{\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)}$.

Proposition 9. The dimension of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$ is $n$.

Proof. The affine hull of $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ is the ( $n-1$ )-dimensional set

$$
\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid x_{1}+\cdots+x_{n}=1\right\} .
$$

Since $\alpha_{1, n-1}$ is not in this set, $\operatorname{dim}\left(\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)\right)=n$.
Recall that the $f$-vector of a polytope tells us the number of faces the polytope has of each dimension. Our next task is to compute the $f$-vector of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$.

Lemma 10. Let $n \geq 3$. Then $\mathcal{B}:=\operatorname{conv}\left(e_{1}, e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}, \alpha_{2, n}\right)$ is a 2-dimensional face of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$.


Figure 3. $G_{\mathcal{A}}$.

Proof. We first consider $\mathcal{A}=\operatorname{conv}\left(e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}, \alpha_{2, n}\right)$. The corresponding elementary vectors of the vertex set are $\left\{e_{1, n}, e_{2}, e_{n}\right\}$. So we build the flow-dimension graph as seen in Figure 2, $G_{\mathcal{A}}=(V, E)$ where $V=[n], E=\{(1, n)\}$ corresponding to $e_{1, n}$. The subset $V_{1}=\{2, n\}$ (circled in Figure 2) corresponds to $e_{2}$ and $e_{n}$. This graph has $n-1$ connected components, two of which contain elements of $V_{1}$ so that $k_{0}=n-3$.

If we let $\lambda_{1} e_{n}+\lambda_{2} \alpha_{1, n-1}+\lambda_{3} \alpha_{2, n}=\mathbf{0}$, we first notice that $\lambda_{2}=0$ since $\alpha_{1, n-1}$ is the only vector with a nonzero first coordinate. But this implies that $\lambda_{1}=\lambda_{3}=0$. Since the coefficients cannot sum to 1 , we conclude that $\mathbf{0} \notin \operatorname{aff}\left(e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}, \alpha_{2, n}\right)$. So now by Theorem 6 ,

$$
\operatorname{dim}\left(\operatorname{conv}\left(e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}, \alpha_{2, n}\right)\right)=n-k_{0}-1=n-(n-3)-1=2 .
$$

Finally $e_{1}=(1) \alpha_{1, n-1}+(-1) \alpha_{2, n}+(1) e_{n}$ is in the affine hull of $\mathcal{A}$ and thus does not add a dimension. We conclude that $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{B})=2$.

Corollary 11. Let $\mathcal{I}:=\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}, \alpha_{2, n}\right\}$. For $2 \leq i \leq n-1$ each $e_{i}$ adds a dimension to $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$, that is, $e_{i} \notin \operatorname{aff}\left(\mathcal{I} \backslash\left\{e_{i}\right\}\right)$.

Proof. This follows from Proposition 9 and Lemma 10. Since $\mathcal{B}$ has dimension 2 and $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$ has dimension $n$, then the $n-2$ remaining vertices must add the remaining $n-2$ dimensions.

Lemma 12. Let $\mathcal{B}$ as in Lemma 10. Then $\mathcal{B}$ has $f$-vector $(1,4,4,1)$.
Proof. Since $\mathcal{B}$ has dimension 2, $f_{1}=f_{0}$. We know that $\left\{e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}, \alpha_{2, n}\right\}$ are three vertices of $\mathcal{B}$. If $e_{1} \in \operatorname{conv}\left(e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}, \alpha_{2, n}\right)$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{1}=\lambda_{1} e_{n}+\lambda_{2} \alpha_{1, n-1}+\lambda_{3} \alpha_{2, n} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the coefficients sum to 1 . Since $\alpha_{1, n-1}$ is the only vector with a nonzero coordinate in the first position, $\lambda_{2}=1$. This in turn implies that $\lambda_{1}=\lambda_{3}=0$, contradicting (22). So $e_{1} \notin$ $\operatorname{conv}\left(e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}, \alpha_{2, n}\right)$ and therefore forms a fourth vertex.

We can tie all this together with the following theorem. First we define a $d$-pyramid $P$ as the convex hull of a ( $d-1$ )-dimensional polytope $K$ (the basis of $P$ ) and a point $A \notin \operatorname{aff}(K)$ ) (the apex of $P$ ).

Theorem 13 (see, e.g., [7). If $P$ is a d-pyramid with basis $K$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{0}(P) & =f_{0}(K)+1 \\
f_{k}(P) & =f_{k}(K)+f_{k-1}(K) \quad \text { for } 1 \leq k \leq d-2 \\
f_{d-1}(P) & =1+f_{d-2}(K) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We notice that the rows of Pascal's 3-triangle act in the same manner and we claim the face numbers for $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$ can be derived from Pascal's 3 -triangle.

Proof of Theorem \& Recall that $\mathcal{I}=\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}, \alpha_{2, n}\right\}$ is the vertex set for $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$ with $n \geq 3$, and let $\mathcal{R}_{k}:=\operatorname{conv}\left(\mathcal{I} \backslash\left\{e_{k}, e_{k+1}, \ldots, e_{n-1}\right\}\right)$ for $1 \leq k<n$. Then it is clear that $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$ is the convex hull of the union of the ( $n-1$ )-dimensional polytope $\mathcal{R}_{n-1}$ and $e_{n-1} \notin$ $\operatorname{aff}\left(\mathcal{R}_{n-1}\right)$ (by Corollary 11), and thus is a pyramid and its face numbers can be computed as in Theorem 13 from the face numbers of $\mathcal{R}_{n-1}$.

Notice next that $\mathcal{R}_{n-1}$ is the convex hull of the ( $n-2$ )-dimensional polytope $\mathcal{R}_{n-2}$ and $e_{n-2} \notin$ $\operatorname{aff}\left(\mathcal{R}_{n-2}\right)$ (again by Corollary 11), so we can compute the face numbers of $\mathcal{R}_{n-1}$ from those of $\mathcal{R}_{n-2}$ as in Theorem 13 .

We can continue this process until we get that $\mathcal{R}_{3}$ is the convex hull of $\mathcal{R}_{2}$ and $e_{2} \notin \operatorname{aff}\left(\mathcal{R}_{2}\right)$. But we notice that $\mathcal{R}_{2}=\mathcal{B}$, so by Lemma 12, $f_{0}\left(\mathcal{R}_{2}\right)=f_{1}\left(\mathcal{R}_{2}\right)=4$. From here we can build the $f$-vector of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$ recursively, using Theorem 13 .

Our next goal is to compute the volume of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$. A simple induction proof gives:
Lemma 14. The determinant of the $n \times n$-matrix

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\
& & \ddots & & \\
1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

is $(-1)^{n-1}(n-1)$.
Proof of Theorem 5. In order to calculate the volume of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$ we will first triangulate the 2-dimensional base of the pyramid $\mathcal{B}$ from Lemma 10 namely, $\mathcal{B}$ is the union of

$$
\triangle_{1}=\operatorname{conv}\left(e_{1}, e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \triangle_{2}=\operatorname{conv}\left(e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-1}, \alpha_{2, n}\right)
$$

By Corollary 11, each $e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n-1}$ adds a dimension so that the convex hull of these points and $\triangle_{1}$ is an $n$-dimensional simplex. The same can be said of $\triangle_{2}$. Call these simplices $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ respectively; thus $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ triangulate $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$, and the sum of their volumes is equal to the volume of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$. In order to calculate the volume of $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$, we will use the Cayley Menger
determinant [3]. Consider $S_{1}$, whose volume is the determinant of the matrix

$$
\left[\begin{array}{llll}
e_{1}-\alpha_{1, n-1} & e_{2}-\alpha_{1, n-1} & \cdots & e_{n}-\alpha_{1, n-1}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & -1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & -1 \\
-1 & 0 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & -1 \\
-1 & -1 & 0 & -1 & \cdots & -1 \\
& & & \ddots & & \\
-1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & 0 & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Cofactor expansion on the last row will leave us with the determinant, up to a sign, of the ( $n-$ 1) $\times(n-1)$ matrix

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & -1 & -1 & \cdots & -1  \tag{3}\\
-1 & 0 & -1 & \cdots & -1 \\
& & \ddots & & \\
-1 & \cdots & -1 & 0 & -1 \\
-1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

which, when ignoring sign, by Lemma 14 is $n-2$. Therefore the volume of $S_{1}$ is $n-2$.
A similar computation gives the volume of $S_{2}$ as $n-2$, and so the volume of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-1}\right)$ is $2(n-2)$, as desired.

## 6. The $i^{\text {Th }}$ pyramidal interval Vector polytope

Recall that the $i^{\text {th }}$ pyramidal interval vector polytope is $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-i}\right)$, the convex hull of all interval vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with interval length 1 or $n-i$.

Example 15. For $n=6$ and $i=2$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{P}_{6}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1,4}\right)=\operatorname{conv} & ((1,0,0,0,0,0),(0,1,0,0,0,0,0),(0,0,1,0,0,0),(0,0,0,1,0,0),(0,0,0,0,1,0) \\
& (0,0,0,0,0,1),(1,1,1,1,0,0),(0,1,1,1,1,0),(0,0,1,1,1,1))
\end{aligned}
$$

The following proposition collects certain properties of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-i}\right)$. We omit its proof, since it is similar to the proofs in Section 5 .

Proposition 16. The dimension of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-i}\right)$ is n. Furthermore, $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-i}\right)$ can be constructed by taking iterative pyramids (with the sequence of top vertices $e_{i+1}, e_{i+2}, \ldots, e_{n-i}$ ) over the $2 i$ dimensional base

$$
\operatorname{conv}\left(\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{i}, e_{n-i+1}, \ldots, e_{n}, \alpha_{1, n-i}, \alpha_{2, n-i-1} \ldots, \alpha_{i+1, n}\right\}\right)
$$

Using polymake to generate $f$-vectors for varying $n$, we observed that the $f$-vectors of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-i}\right)$ correspond to the sum of multiple shifted Pascal triangles; this is again due to its pyramid property. We also offer the following:

Conjecture 17. The volume of $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-i}\right)$ equals $2^{i}(n-(i+1))$.
We conjecture something more concrete: namely, that $\mathcal{P}_{n}\left(\mathcal{I}_{1, n-i}\right)$ can be triangulated into $2^{i}$ simplices, and pyramiding over each of these simplices each yields a volume of $n-(i+1)$.

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