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Matthias Beck San Francisco State University

Jessica De Silva University of Nebraska

Gabriel Dorfsman-Hopkins Dartmouth College

Joseph Pruitt University of Illinois

Amanda Ruiz Harvey Mudd College

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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^{th} standard unit vector. The *interval* length of α_{ij} 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 $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_S)$ 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 Section 3 we study the *complete interval vector polytope* $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{[n]})$, 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* $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)$ 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* $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$, 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*th *pyramidal interval vector polytope* $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-i})$. 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 $t\mathcal{P} := \{tv \mid v \in \mathcal{P}\}$. Ehrhart [5] proved that $L_{\mathcal{P}}(t)$ is indeed a polynomial; see,

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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*th standard unit vector. He showed (among many other things) that the volume of Q_{n+1} is $C_n := \frac{1}{n+1} {2n \choose n}$, the *n*th Catalan number. In Section 3 we prove, in a discretegeometric sense, that Q_{n+1} and the complete interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{[n]})$ are interchangeable, that is, the two polytopes have the same Ehrhart polynomial.

Theorem 1. $L_{Q_{n+1}}(t) = L_{\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{[n]})}(t)$.

Corollary 2. The volume of the complete interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{[n]})$ equals the n^{th} Catalan number.

A unimodular simplex in \mathbb{R}^d is an *n*-dimensional lattice simplex Δ 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 Δ . In Section 4 we prove:

Theorem 3. The fixed interval vector polytope $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)$ 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 $f(\mathcal{P}) := (f_{-1}, f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_n)$ 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 $f_k(\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})) = \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n+1}{k+1}$.

The *f*-vector of $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$ is thus the *n*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 1st pyramidal interval vector polytope is simple:

Theorem 5. For $n \ge 3$, $vol(\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})) = 2(n-2)$.

Finally, in Section 6 we lay out future work on i^{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 $A = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, denoted conv(A), is defined as

(1)
$$\left\{\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_m v_m \mid \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_m \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i = 1\right\}.$$

The polytope $\operatorname{conv}(A)$ is contained in the *affine hull* $\operatorname{aff}(A)$ 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 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 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 $\frac{1}{d!}$ vol(\mathcal{P}).

A hyperplane is a set of the form

$$H := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \, | \, a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n = b \} \,,$$

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 $f(\mathcal{P}) := (f_{-1}, f_0, \ldots, f_n)$. For example, a triangle Δ is a 2-dimensional polytope with 3 vertices and 3 edges and thus has f-vector $f(\Delta) = (1, 3, 3, 1)$.

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 $B := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 0\}$; 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 $i \ge j$ and $t_{i,j} = 0$ otherwise. Then

$$T(B) \subseteq A := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \, | \, x_n = 0 \}.$$

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 $T|_B : B \to A$ is surjective, and therefore a linear bijection.

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

$$\Pi\left((x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1},0)\right) = (x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1}),$$

is clearly a linear bijection.

Now we show that the linear bijection $\Pi \circ T|_B : B \to \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ 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

$$C := \{ e_{i,n} = e_i - e_n \, | \, i < n \} \, .$$

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

$$\left(a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}, -\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i e_{i,n}$$

and so C is a lattice basis.

Note that $\Pi \circ T(e_{i,n}) = e_i + \cdots + e_{n-1} =: u_i$. Therefore

$$\Pi \circ T(C) = \{ u_i \, | \, i \le n - 1 \} =: U \, .$$

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 $\Pi \circ T|_B$ 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 $\mathcal{P}_{n-1}(\mathcal{I}_{[n-1]})$. By linearity, $\Pi \circ T(0) = 0$, and given any vertex $\alpha_{i,j}$ of $\mathcal{P}_{n-1}(\mathcal{I}_{[n-1]})$, we know that $\Pi \circ T(e_{i,j+1}) = \alpha_{i,j}$ where $i < j+1 \leq n$ so that $\Pi \circ T|_B$ 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 $T(e_i) = \alpha_{i,n}$ and $T(e_{i,j}) = \alpha_{i,j-1}$. 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 $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_S) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, we can construct the corresponding flowdimension graph $G_{\mathcal{I}_S} = (V, E)$ as follows. Let $\mathcal{E}_S = T^{-1}(\mathcal{I}_S)$. Let the vertex set V = [n]. Specify a subset $V_1 = \{j \in V \mid e_j \in \mathcal{E}_S\}$, and define the directed edge set $E = \{(i, j) \mid e_{i,j} \in \mathcal{E}_S\}$. 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 $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)$ 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

$$\mathcal{P}_5(\mathcal{I}_3) = \operatorname{conv}\left((1, 1, 1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 1, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1, 1, 1)\right)$$

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

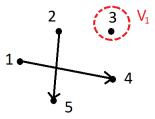


FIGURE 1. The flow-dimension graph of $\mathcal{P}_5(\mathcal{I}_3)$.

Theorem 6 (Dahl [2]). If $0 \in \operatorname{aff}(\mathcal{I}_S)$, then the dimension of $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_S)$ is $n - k_0$. Else, if $0 \notin \operatorname{aff}(\mathcal{I}_S)$ then the dimension of $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_S)$ is $n - k_0 - 1$.

For a fixed i,

$$T^{-1}(\mathcal{I}_i) = \mathcal{E}_i = \{e_{k,k+i} \mid k \le n-i\} \cup \{e_{n-i+1}\}.$$

The corresponding flow-dimension graph is $G_{\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)} = (V, E)$ where $V = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $E = \{(k, k+i) | k \in [n-i]\}$. 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 $(a, q_0), (q_0, q_1), \ldots, (q_s, b) \in E$.

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

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

Proposition 8. $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)$ 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 $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)$ 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, $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)$ has n-i+1 vertices.

By Lemma 7 we know there are *i* connected components in the flow-dimension graph $G_{\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)}$ and since V_1 has only one element, $k_0 = i - 1$. Thus by Theorem 6 the dimension of $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)$ is n - i. Therefore $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)$ is an (n - i)-dimensional simplex.

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

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

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

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 $p = Y_1w_1 + \cdots + Y_{n-i}w_{n-i} + \alpha_{n-i+1,n}$.

We first notice that p can be expressed as

$$\left(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{n-i}, \sum_{\substack{j \le n-i \\ j \equiv t-i+1 \mod i}} (-p_j) + 1, \sum_{\substack{j \le n-i \\ j \equiv t-i+2 \mod i}} (-p_j) + 1, \dots, \sum_{\substack{j \le n-i \\ j \equiv t \mod i}} (-p_j) + 1\right)\right)$$

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

$$Y_t = \begin{cases} p_1 & \text{if } t = 1, \\ p_t - p_{t-1} & \text{if } 1 < t \le i, \\ p_t - Y_{t-i} & \text{if } i < t \le n-i. \end{cases}$$

Then each Y_t is an integer. We claim that

$$Y_1w_1 + \dots + Y_{n-i}w_{n-i} + \alpha_{n-i+1,n} = p.$$

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^{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^{th} position:

$$Y_t + Y_{t-1} + Y_{t-2} + \dots + Y_1 = p_t - p_{t-1} + p_{t-1} - p_{t-2} + \dots + p_2 - p_1 + p_1 = p_t$$

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

 $Y_t + Y_{t-1} + \dots + Y_{t-i+1} = (p_t - Y_{t-1} - \dots - Y_{t-i+1}) + Y_{t-1} + \dots + Y_{t-i+1} = p_t$

Finally, we consider the t^{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

$$-(Y_1+Y_2+\cdots+Y_{t-i})+1.$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} -(Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_{t-i}) + 1 &= -(Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_{t-2i} + p_{t-i}) + 1 \\ &= -(Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_{t-3i} + p_{t-2i} + p_{t-i}) + 1 \\ &= -\left(Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_{\langle t \rangle} + \sum_{\substack{i < j \le n-i \\ j \equiv t \bmod i}} p_j\right) + 1 \\ &= -\left(\sum_{\substack{j \le n-i \\ j \equiv t \bmod i}} p_j\right) + 1. \end{aligned}$$

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 $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)$ form a lattice basis, and so $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_i)$ is a unimodular simplex. \Box

5. The first pyramidal interval vector polytope

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

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

whose flow-dimension graph is depicted in Figure 2.

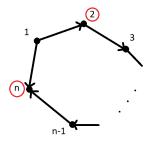


FIGURE 2. $G_{\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})}$.

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

Proof. The affine hull of e_1, \ldots, e_n is the (n-1)-dimensional set

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x_1 + \dots + x_n = 1\}$$

Since $\alpha_{1,n-1}$ is not in this set, $\dim(\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})) = n$.

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 $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$.

Lemma 10. Let $n \geq 3$. Then $\mathcal{B} := \operatorname{conv}(e_1, e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1}, \alpha_{2,n})$ is a 2-dimensional face of $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$.

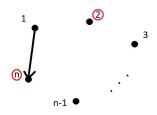


FIGURE 3. $G_{\mathcal{A}}$.

Proof. We first consider $\mathcal{A} = \operatorname{conv}(e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1}, \alpha_{2,n})$. The corresponding elementary vectors of the vertex set are $\{e_{1,n}, e_2, e_n\}$. 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 $\mathbf{0} \notin \operatorname{aff}(e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1}, \alpha_{2,n})$. So now by Theorem 6,

$$\dim(\operatorname{conv}(e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1}, \alpha_{2,n})) = n - k_0 - 1 = n - (n-3) - 1 = 2.$$

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 $\dim(\mathcal{B}) = 2$.

Corollary 11. Let $\mathcal{I} := \{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1}, \alpha_{2,n}\}$. For $2 \leq i \leq n-1$ each e_i adds a dimension to $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$, that is, $e_i \notin \operatorname{aff}(\mathcal{I} \setminus \{e_i\})$.

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

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 $\{e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1}, \alpha_{2,n}\}$ are three vertices of \mathcal{B} . If $e_1 \in \operatorname{conv}(e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1}, \alpha_{2,n})$ then

(2)
$$e_1 = \lambda_1 e_n + \lambda_2 \alpha_{1,n-1} + \lambda_3 \alpha_{2,n}$$

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 (2). So $e_1 \notin \operatorname{conv}(e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1}, \alpha_{2,n})$ 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 $A \notin aff(K)$) (the apex of P).

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

$$f_0(P) = f_0(K) + 1$$

$$f_k(P) = f_k(K) + f_{k-1}(K) \quad \text{for } 1 \le k \le d-2$$

$$f_{d-1}(P) = 1 + f_{d-2}(K).$$

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

Proof of Theorem 4. Recall that $\mathcal{I} = \{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1}, \alpha_{2,n}\}$ is the vertex set for $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$ with $n \geq 3$, and let $\mathcal{R}_k := \operatorname{conv}(\mathcal{I} \setminus \{e_k, e_{k+1}, \ldots, e_{n-1}\})$ for $1 \leq k < n$. Then it is clear that $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$ is the convex hull of the union of the (n-1)-dimensional polytope \mathcal{R}_{n-1} and $e_{n-1} \notin \operatorname{aff}(\mathcal{R}_{n-1})$ (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 $e_{n-2} \notin \operatorname{aff}(\mathcal{R}_{n-2})$ (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 $e_2 \notin \operatorname{aff}(\mathcal{R}_2)$. But we notice that $\mathcal{R}_2 = \mathcal{B}$, so by Lemma 12, $f_0(\mathcal{R}_2) = f_1(\mathcal{R}_2) = 4$. From here we can build the f-vector of $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$ recursively, using Theorem 13.

Our next goal is to compute the volume of $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$. A simple induction proof gives:

Lemma 14. The determinant of the $n \times n$ -matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ & & \ddots & & \\ 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

is $(-1)^{n-1}(n-1)$.

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

$$\Delta_1 = \operatorname{conv}(e_1, e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1})$$
 and $\Delta_2 = \operatorname{conv}(e_n, \alpha_{1,n-1}, \alpha_{2,n}).$

By Corollary 11, each e_2, \ldots, e_{n-1} adds a dimension so that the convex hull of these points and Δ_1 is an *n*-dimensional simplex. The same can be said of Δ_2 . Call these simplices S_1 and S_2 respectively; thus S_1 and S_2 triangulate $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$, and the sum of their volumes is equal to the volume of $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$. 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

$$\begin{bmatrix} e_1 - \alpha_{1,n-1} & e_2 - \alpha_{1,n-1} & \cdots & e_n - \alpha_{1,n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 & -1 & \cdots & -1 \\ & & & \ddots & & \\ -1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$(3) \qquad \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & \cdots & -1 \\ & \ddots & & \\ -1 & \cdots & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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 $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-1})$ is 2(n-2), as desired.

6. The i^{TH} pyramidal interval vector polytope

Recall that the i^{th} pyramidal interval vector polytope is $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-i})$, 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,

$$\mathcal{P}_{6}(\mathcal{I}_{1,4}) = \operatorname{conv}\left((1,0,0,0,0,0), (0,1,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,1,0,0,0), (0,0,0,1,0,0), (0,0,0,0,1,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,1,1,1,1,0), (0,0,0,1,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0,0,0,0), (0,0$$

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

Proposition 16. The dimension of $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-i})$ is n. Furthermore, $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-i})$ 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

conv
$$(\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_i, e_{n-i+1}, \dots, e_n, \alpha_{1,n-i}, \alpha_{2,n-i-1}, \dots, \alpha_{i+1,n}\})$$
.

Using polymake to generate f-vectors for varying n, we observed that the f-vectors of $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-i})$ 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 $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-i})$ equals $2^i(n-(i+1))$.

We conjecture something more concrete: namely, that $\mathcal{P}_n(\mathcal{I}_{1,n-i})$ 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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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, SAN FRANCISCO STATE UNIVERSITY, SAN FRANCISCO, CA 94132, USA *E-mail address*: mattbeck@sfsu.edu

Department of Mathematics, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, NE 68588, USA $E\text{-}mail\ address:\ \texttt{jessica.desilva@huskers.unl.edu}$

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, DARTMOUTH COLLEGE, HANOVER, NH 03755, USA *E-mail address*: Gabriel.D.Dorfsman-Hopkins.13@dartmouth.edu

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, URBANA-CHAMPAIGN, IL 61801, USA *E-mail address*: j92pruitt@gmail.com

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, HARVEY MUDD COLLEGE, CLAREMONT, CA 91711, USA *E-mail address:* amruiz@hmc.edu

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