CIMPA Research School:

Algebraic, Enumerative and Geometric Combinatorics - ECCO 2016

Triangulations of polytopes. Glossary (I)

0 Polytopes, affine geometry

• Affine combination, affine dependence: An affine combination of points $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is any point of the form

$$\lambda_1 p_1 + \dots + \lambda_n p_n$$

with $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sum \lambda_i = 1$.

An affine dependence is a valid expression of the form

$$\lambda_1 p_1 + \dots + \lambda_n p_n = 0$$

with
$$\sum \lambda_i = 0$$
.

Every affine combination $p = \lambda_1 p_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n p_n$ of n points gives rise to an affine dependence between them and the new one: $\lambda_1 p_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n p_n - p = 0$. Conversely, each point with nonzero coefficient in an affine dependence can be written as an affine combination of the rest.

• Affine space, affine span: A subset of \mathbb{R}^d is an affine (sub)-space, or a flat if it is closed under affine combinations.

The affine span of a set $V \subset \mathbb{R}$ is the smallest affine space containing V. Equivalently, it is the set of points that are affine combinations of V. It is denoted by $\mathrm{aff}(V)$.

• Convex hull: A convex combination is an affine combination with non-negative coefficients. A set is a convex set if it is closed under convex combinations.

The **convex hull** of a set V is the smallest convex set containing V. Equivalently, it is the set of points that are convex combinations of V. It is denoted by conv(V).

• **Polytope:** A polytope P is the convex hull of a finite set of points V. Its **dimension** is the dimension of its affine span aff(P) = aff(V).

For each linear functional $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ we call **face** of P induced by f the set

$$P^f := \{ x \in P : f(x) \ge f(y) \ \forall y \in P \}$$

that maximizes f. The empty set is considered a face (of dimension -1) and every face of a polytope is a polytope. The **boundary** of P is the union of all its proper faces, which range from dimensions -1 (the empty set), 0 (called **vertices**), 1 (**edges**), 2, ..., to d-1 (**facets**). Its set of vertices will be denoted by $\mathcal{V}(P)$.

• A polytopal (or polyhedral) complex is a finite, nonempty collection $S = \{P_1, \ldots, P_k\}$ of polytopes in \mathbb{R}^d such that every face of each $P_i \in S$ is in S, and such that $P_i \cap P_j$ is always a common face of both (possibly empty).

The elements of S are called **faces of** S, and the maximal elements are called **cells**. Knowing the cells of S is enough to recover the rest, since all faces are faces of a cell.

A complex is **pure of dimension** k is all cells are k-dimensional. The i-skeleton of S is the i-dimensional complex consisting of faces of dimension at most i.

For example, if P is a d-polytope, its faces form a pure d-dimensional complex with a single cell (P itself). Its (d-1)-skeleton is the boundary of P (a pure (d-1)-complex) and its 1-skeleton is usually called the **graph of** P.

• **Simplex:** A *d*-dimensional simplex is a *d*-polytope with exactly *d*+1 vertices. Equivalenty, it is the convex hull of a set of affinely independent points. We will also refer to the set of vertices of a *d*-simplex as a *d*-simplex.

Every face of a simplex is a simplex, and each subset of vertices defines a face. That is, a d-simplex has $\binom{d+1}{i+1}$ faces of each dimension $i = -1, 0, \ldots, d$. (The poset of faces of a simplex is a Boolean poset).

• **Simplicial complex:** A simplicial complex is a polytopal complex whose cells are simplices.

1 Triangulations and subdivisions of point configurations

From now on, V denotes a d-dimensional finite set of n points (we sometimes call it a **point configuration**).

There is no (much) loss of generality in assuming that V is full-dimensional (that is, $V \in \mathbb{R}^d$) because if $V \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and $\dim(V) = d < D$ then we can forget some coordinates and get a d-dimensional configuration V' in \mathbb{R}^d that is affinely isomorphic to V; all we are going to do is invariant under affine isomorphism. But sometimes we need to consider a subset W of V as a configuration in itself and, of course, it may be lower dimensional.

- Faces of a set: Let W be a subset of V. We say W is a face of V if there is a face F of the polytope P = conv(V) for which $W = V \cap F$. Note that W may include points that are not vertices of F.
- Subdivision: A (polyhedral) subdivision of V is a finite collection $S = \{S_1, \ldots, S_m\}$ of subsets of V, called **cells**, such that:
- (DP) For each $i \in \{1, ..., m\}$, $P_i := \text{conv}(S_i)$ is d-dimensional (a d-polytope);
- (UP) P is the union of P_1, \ldots, P_m ; and
- (IP) If $i \neq j$ then $F := S_i \cap S_j$ is a common (possibly empty) proper face of S_i and S_j , and $P_i \cap P_j = \text{conv}(F)$.

For example, $\{1245, 1345\}$ and $\{124, 134\}$ are subdivisions of the configuration in Figure 1, and we consider them different subdivisions. Observe that the second one does not use point 5, but that is ok. But $\{1245, 134\}$ is not a subdivision. The triangles $\operatorname{conv}\{1245\}$ and $\operatorname{conv}\{134\}$ intersect in a common face (the edge from 1 to 4) but the $\operatorname{sets}\{1245, 134\}$ do not: their intersection is $\{14\}$, which is not a face of $\{1245\}$.

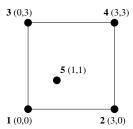


Figure 1: 5 points in the plane

The collection of polytopes P_1, \ldots, P_m , together with their faces, is a pure polytopal complex.

When V is the vertex set of a polytope P we say that S is a **subdivision of** P with no extra vertices.

- **Triangulation:** A subdivision of V is a triangulation if every cell is affinely independent (a simplex). Since every subset of a simplex is a face of it, for triangulations property (IP) reduces to
 - (IP) If $i \neq j$ then $conv(S_i) \cap conv(S_j) = conv(S_i \cap S_j)$.

For example, {124,134} is a triangulation but {1245,1345} is not a triangulation, in the above point configuration.

• Refinement of a subdivision: Suppose $S = \{S_1, \ldots, S_l\}$ and $T = \{T_1, \ldots, T_m\}$ are two subdivisions of V. We say T is a refinement of S if for each $j, 1 \leq j \leq m$, there exists $i, 1 \leq i \leq l$, such that $T_j \subseteq S_i$. We write $T \preceq S$ if T refines S because refinement of subdivisions is a partial order (poset). The unique maximal element in the poset is the **trivial subdivision** (the subdivision $\{V\}$ with a single cell, the set V). The minimal elements are the **triangulations**.

For example, in the above configuration we have the following chain from a triangulation to the trivial subdivision:

$$\{124, 134\} \leq \{1245, 1345\} \leq \{12345\}$$

CIMPA Research School:

Algebraic, Enumerative and Geometric Combinatorics - ECCO 2016

Triangulations of polytopes. Glossary (II)

2 Oriented matroids

• Affine dependences and affine evaluations: Let $V = \{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$ be a set of n points with $\dim(V) = d$.

We regard each **affine dependence** $\sum \lambda_i p_i = 0$ with $\sum \lambda_i = 0$ as a vector $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Similarly, we are interested in **affine evaluations**: for each affine function $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$, the affine evaluation produced by f is the vector $(f(p_1), \ldots, f(p_n)) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. It is easy to show that:

Lemma 1 Affine dependences and affine evaluations of V are complementary linear subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n , of dimensions n-d-1 and d+1, respectively.

In fact, since every affine functional is of the form $f(x_1, \ldots, x_d) = a_0 + a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_dx_d$, affine evaluations are generated by the evaluations corresponding to a constant functional and to the coordinate functionals. The fact the V is full-dimensional implies these d+1 evaluations are independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^n .

A more compact way of looking at dependences and evaluations is to consider the $(d+1) \times n$ matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 & \dots & p_n \\ 1 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In these conditions:

Lemma 2 Affine dependences are the kernel of A and affine evaluations are the rowspace of A (the linear subspace generated by rows, which is the same as the image of A^t).

• **Signature** of a vector. For a vector $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the signature of λ is the vector $(s_1, \ldots, s_n) \in \{-1, 0, +1\}^n$ of signs of λ . (That is, $s_i = \lambda_i/|\lambda_i|$, with 0/0 taken as 0). The signature of a vector will normally be represented as a pair (S^+, S^-) where

$$S^+ := \{i : \lambda_i > 0\}$$
 and $S^- := \{i : \lambda_i < 0\}.$

That is, there is a bijection between possible signatures of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n and pairs (S^+, S^-) of disjoint subsets of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$.

• (Oriented) circuits, Radon partitions: A circuit is a set $V = \{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$ of affinely dependent points such that every proper subset is affinely independent. This implies, in particular, that $k = \dim(V) + 2$ and that there is a unique (up to rescaling) affine dependence $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k)$ of V. Since λ has no zero entries, the signature (C^+, C^-) of λ is a partition of V into two parts. (Here we are identifying each point c_i with its label i). This partition is called the **oriented circuit** or **Radon partition** of V and it is the unique partition of V into two disjoint subsets such that $\operatorname{conv}(C^+) \cap \operatorname{conv}(C^-) \neq \emptyset$.

For a general V, we call **circuits of** V its minimal affinely dependent subsets and **oriented circuits of** V the corresponding signatures. Each circuit produces two opposite oriented circuits. Put differently: oriented circuits of V are the dependence signatures with minimal support.

As an example, the following is the full list of circuits of the configuration in Figure 1. For brevity, sets are written as strings of labels. That is, 123 denotes the set $\{1, 2, 3\}$ or the set $\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}$.

$$(14,5), (123,5), (14,23), (45,23), (5,14), (5,123), (23,14), (23,45).$$

• (Oriented) cocircuits: It makes sense to do the same for evaluations as we did above for dependences. We call cocircuits of V the minimal supports of affine evaluations in V, and call oriented cocircuits their signatures. Each cocircuit produces two opposite oriented cocircuits. For example, the list of cocircuits of our running example is:

```
(\emptyset, 125), (\emptyset, 135), (\emptyset, 245), (\emptyset, 345), (1, 24), (1, 34), (2, 3), (125, \emptyset), (135, \emptyset), (245, \emptyset), (345, \emptyset), (24, 1), (34, 1), (3, 2).
```

- Oriented matroid of a point configuration V: The oriented matroid of a point configuration V is its set of oriented circuits, or its set of oriented cocircuits (both carry the same information about V). Observe that from the oriented matroid of V we can recover several things:
 - The facets of V (as a set) are the complements of the positive cocircuits. That is, F is a facet if and only if $(V \setminus F, \emptyset)$ is a cocircuit.
 - The faces of V are all possible intersections of facets.
 - If W is a subset of V, the circuits of S are the circuits of V contained in W and the cocircuits of W are a subset of the restrictions to W of the cocircuits of V (explanation: every evaluation

on V, restricted to W, is an evaluation on W. But some of the evaluations that have minimal support in V may not have minimal support in W; those have to be discarded from the list of cocircuits).

- In particular, we can compute faces of all subsets of V.
- Affinely independent subsets of V are those that do not contain any circuit. In particular, from the oriented matroid we can compute the rank of V and the rank of every subset of V.

With some extra effort one can prove the following:

Theorem 3 Let S be a collection of subsets of a point set V. Then, knowing the oriented matroid of V (and forgetting the points) is enough information to check whether S is a subdivision of V, and whether it is a triangulation.

• Oriented matroid of a *vector* configuration *V*:

Oriented matroids can be defined (and are usually defined) for **vector** configurations. If $V = \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a vector configuration (a finite subset of vectors of \mathbb{R}^n) then we define its dependences, evaluations, circuits and cocircuits as above, simply changing the word affine to linear everywhere. Of course, one can say that a point configuration and a vector configuration are the same thing, a finite subset of \mathbb{R}^d . What makes a difference is whether we are doing affine geometry or linear algebra in \mathbb{R}^d .

Observe that the oriented matroid of the point configuration $\{p_1, \ldots, p_n\}$ is the same as the oriented matroid of the vector configuration $\{\binom{p_1}{1}, \ldots, \binom{p_n}{1}\}$.

• Gale transform, dual oriented matroid: Let V and W be two vector configurations with n elements in \mathbb{R}^k and \mathbb{R}^l , with k+l=n, and represent them as a $k \times n$ A and an $l \times n$ matrix B, respectively (putting the vectors as columns). We say that W is a **Gale transform** of V if the row spaces of A and B are orthogonal complements to one another.

If this happens, then the linear dependences of V are the same as the linear evaluations of W, and vice-versa, so the circuits of V are the cocircuits of W and vice-versa. We say that the oriented matroids of V and W are **dual** to one another.

For every V there is some Gale transform W. Simply write V as a matrix A, compute a basis of the orthogonal complement of the row space of A, and use that as the rows for W. One trick to quickly compute a Gale transform is: without loss of generality, assume that

the first k vectors of V are independent (if this is not the case, reorder them) and change coordinates to make these vectors be the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^k . That is, your matrix A is of the form (I|A') where I is the identity matrix and A' is some $k \times (n-k)$ matrix. Then, take

$$B = (-A^{\prime t}|I)$$

and let W consist of the columns of B.

Let us compute, as an example, the dual oriented matroid of the point configuration of Figure 1. The matrix A is

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

One Gale transffrm is as follows (check that row spaces of A and B are orthogonal), which is drawn as a set of vectors in Figure $\ref{eq:analytime}$??.

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

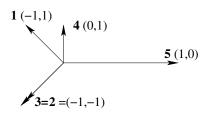


Figure 2: 5 vectors in the plane

Observe that vectors 2 and 3 coincide. This is in agreement with the fact that (2,3) was a cocircuit in V (corresponding to the evaluation (0,3,-3,0,0) of the functional x-y), so (2,3) must now be a cocircuit and (0,3,-3,0,0) a linear dependence. These two "equal vectors" must be considered different elements in the oriented matroid, and in the vector configuration, distinguished by their labels.