

Combinatorial Convexity

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0 Some basic and convex facts

0.1 Notation. $\mathbb{R}^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n)^\top : x_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$ denotes the n -dimensional Euclidean space equipped with the Euclidean inner product $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and the Euclidean norm $|x| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$.

0.2 Definition [Linear, affine, positive and convex combination]. Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$, $1 \leq i \leq m$.

- i) $\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i$ is called a linear combination of x_1, \dots, x_m .
- ii) If $\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i = 1$ then $\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i$ is called an affine combination of x_1, \dots, x_m .
- iii) If $\lambda_i \geq 0$ then $\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i$ is called a positive combination of x_1, \dots, x_m .
- iv) If $\lambda_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i = 1$ then $\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i$ is called a convex combination of x_1, \dots, x_m .
- v) Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called linearly (affinely, positively, convexly) dependent of X , if x is a linear (affine, positive, convex) combination of finitely many points of X , i.e., there exist $x_1, \dots, x_m \in X$, $m \in \mathbb{N}$, such that x is a linear (affine, positive, convex) combination of the points x_1, \dots, x_m .

0.3 Definition [Linearly and affinely independent points]. $x_1, \dots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are called linearly (affinely) dependent, if one of the x_i is linearly (affinely) dependent of $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\} \setminus \{x_i\}$. Otherwise x_1, \dots, x_m are called linearly (affinely) independent.

0.4 Remark. Let $x_1, \dots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

- i) x_1, \dots, x_m are affinely dependent if and only if $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} x_m \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ are linearly dependent.
- ii) x_1, \dots, x_m are affinely dependent if and only if there exist $\mu_i \in \mathbb{R}$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, with $(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_m) \neq (0, \dots, 0)$, $\sum_{i=1}^m \mu_i = 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^m \mu_i x_i = 0$.
- iii) If $m \geq n + 1$ then x_1, \dots, x_m are linearly dependent.
- iv) If $m \geq n + 2$ then x_1, \dots, x_m are affinely dependent.

0.5 Definition [Linear subspace, affine subspace, cone and convex set]. $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is called

- i) linear subspace (set) if it contains all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ which are linearly dependent of X ,
- ii) affine subspace (set) if it contains all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ which are affinely dependent of X ,

- iii) (convex) cone if it contains all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ which are positively dependent of X ,
- iv) convex set if it contains all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ which are convexly dependent of X .

0.6 Notation. $\mathcal{C}^n = \{K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n : K \text{ convex}\}$ denotes the set of all convex sets in \mathbb{R}^n . The empty set \emptyset is regarded as a convex, linear and affine set.

0.7 Theorem. $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex if and only if

$$\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in K, \quad \text{for all } x, y \in K \text{ and } 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1.$$

0.8 Example. The closed n -dimensional ball $B_n(a, \rho) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x - a| \leq \rho\}$ with centre a and radius $\rho > 0$ is convex. The boundary of $B_n(a, \rho)$, i.e., $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x - a| = \rho\}$ is non-convex. In the case $a = 0$ and $\rho = 1$ the ball $B_n(0, 1)$ is abbreviated by B_n and is called n -dimensional unit ball. Its boundary is denoted by S^{n-1} .

0.9 Corollary. Let $K_i \in \mathcal{C}^n$, $i \in I$. Then $\bigcap_{i \in I} K_i \in \mathcal{C}^n$.

0.10 Definition [Linear, affine, positive and convex hull, dimension]. Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$.

- i) The linear hull $\text{lin } X$ of X is defined by

$$\text{lin } X = \bigcap_{\substack{L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, L \text{ linear,} \\ X \subseteq L}} L.$$

- ii) The affine hull $\text{aff } X$ of X is defined by

$$\text{aff } X = \bigcap_{\substack{A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, A \text{ affine,} \\ X \subseteq A}} A.$$

- iii) The positive (conic) hull $\text{pos } X$ of X is defined by

$$\text{pos } X = \bigcap_{\substack{C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, C \text{ convex cone,} \\ X \subseteq C}} C.$$

- iv) The convex hull $\text{conv } X$ of X is defined by

$$\text{conv } X = \bigcap_{\substack{K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, K \text{ convex,} \\ X \subseteq K}} K.$$

- v) The dimension $\dim X$ of X is the dimension of its affine hull, i.e., $\dim \text{aff } X$.

0.11 Theorem. *Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Then*

$$\text{conv } X = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i : m \in \mathbb{N}, x_i \in X, \lambda_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i = 1 \right\}.$$

0.12 Remark.

- i) $\text{conv } \{x, y\} = \{\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y : \lambda \in [0, 1]\}$.
- ii) $\text{lin } X = \{\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i : m \in \mathbb{N}, x_i \in X\}$.
- iii) $\text{aff } X = \{\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i : m \in \mathbb{N}, x_i \in X, \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i = 1\}$.
- iv) $\text{pos } X = \{\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i : m \in \mathbb{N}, x_i \in X, \lambda_i \geq 0\}$.

0.13 Definition [(Relative) interior point and (relative) boundary point].

Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$.

- i) $x \in X$ is called an interior point of X if there exists a $\rho > 0$ such that $B_n(x, \rho) \subseteq X$. The set of all interior points of X is called the interior of X and is denoted by $\text{int } X$.
- ii) $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called boundary point of X if for all $\rho > 0$ hold $B_n(x, \rho) \cap X \neq \emptyset$ and $B_n(x, \rho) \cap (\mathbb{R}^n \setminus X) \neq \emptyset$. The set of all boundary points of X is called the boundary of X and is denoted by $\text{bd } X$.
- iii) Let $A = \text{aff } X$. $x \in X$ is called a relative interior point of X if there exists a $\rho > 0$ such that $B_n(x, \rho) \cap A \subseteq X$. The set of all relative interior points is called the relative interior of X and is denoted by $\text{relint } X$.
- iv) Let $A = \text{aff } X$. $x \in A$ is called a relative boundary point of X if for all $\rho > 0$ hold $B_n(x, \rho) \cap X \neq \emptyset$ and $B_n(x, \rho) \cap (A \setminus X) \neq \emptyset$. The set of all relative boundary points of X is called relative boundary of X and is denoted by $\text{relbd } X$.

0.14 Remark. *Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be closed. Then $X = \text{relint } X \cup \text{relbd } X$.*

0.15 Theorem. *Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$, $x \in \text{relint } K$ and $y \in K$. Then $(1 - \lambda)x + \lambda y \in \text{relint } K$ for all $\lambda \in [0, 1)$.*

0.16 Corollary. *Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be closed. Let $x \in \text{relint } K$ and $y \in \text{aff } K \setminus K$. Then the segment $\text{conv } \{x, y\}$ intersects $\text{relbd } K$ in precisely one point.*

0.17 Definition [Polytope and simplex]. *Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ of finite cardinality, i.e., $\#X < \infty$.*

- i) $\text{conv } X$ is called a (convex) polytope.
- ii) A polytope $P \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ of dimension k is called a k -polytope.
- iii) If X is affinely independent and $\dim X = k$ then $\text{conv } X$ is called a k -simplex.

0.18 Notation. $\mathcal{P}^n = \{P \subset \mathbb{R}^n : P \text{ polytope}\}$ denotes the set of all polytopes in \mathbb{R}^n .

0.19 Lemma. Let $T = \text{conv}\{x_1, \dots, x_{k+1}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a k -simplex, and let $\lambda_i > 0$, $1 \leq i \leq k+1$, with $\sum \lambda_i = 1$. Then $\sum \lambda_i x_i \in \text{relint } T$.

0.20 Corollary. Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$, $K \neq \emptyset$. Then $\text{relint } K \neq \emptyset$.

0.21 Theorem. Let $P = \text{conv}\{x_1, \dots, x_m\} \in \mathcal{P}^n$. A point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ belongs to $\text{relint } P$ if and only if x admits a representation as $x = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i$ with $\lambda_i > 0$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, and $\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i = 1$.

0.22 Notation.

i) For two sets $X, Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ the vectorial addition

$$X + Y = \{x + y : x \in X, y \in Y\}$$

is called the Minkowski sum of X and Y . If X is just a singleton, i.e., $X = \{x\}$, then we write $x + Y$ instead of $\{x\} + Y$.

ii) For $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ we denote by λX the set

$$\lambda X = \{\lambda x : x \in X\}.$$

1 Support and separate

1.1 Notation. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $a \neq 0$, and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. The closed halfspaces $H^+(a, \alpha)$, $H^-(a, \alpha) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ are given by

$$H^+(a, \alpha) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle a, x \rangle \geq \alpha\}, \quad H^-(a, \alpha) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle a, x \rangle \leq \alpha\}.$$

The hyperplane $H(a, \alpha)$ is defined by

$$H(a, \alpha) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle a, x \rangle = \alpha\}.$$

1.2 Definition [Supporting hyperplane]. Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. A hyperplane $H(a, \alpha) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is called supporting hyperplane of X if:

$$\text{i) } H(a, \alpha) \cap X \neq \emptyset \quad \text{and} \quad \text{ii) } X \subseteq H^-(a, \alpha).$$

a is called outer normal vector of X and if, in addition, $|a| = 1$ then it is called outer unit normal vector of X .

1.3 Proposition. Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and let $H(a, \alpha)$ be a supporting hyperplane of X . Then

$$H(a, \alpha) \cap \text{conv } X = \text{conv}(H(a, \alpha) \cap X).$$

1.4 Remark. Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be compact and $a \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$. Then there exists a supporting hyperplane of X with outer normal vector a .

1.5 Definition [Nearest point map (or metric projection)]. Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be closed. The map $\Phi_K : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow K$, where for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the point $\Phi_K(x) \in K$ is given by $|x - \Phi_K(x)| = \min\{|x - y| : y \in K\}$ is called the nearest point map (metric projection) with respect to K .

1.6 Remark. We prove that the nearest point map is well-defined. Notice that since K is closed, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ there exist $y_x \in K$ such that $|x - y_x| = \min\{|x - y| : y \in K\}$. We show that y_x is uniquely determined. In fact, if there exists $\bar{y} \in K$, $\bar{y} \neq y_x$, with $|x - \bar{y}| = |x - y_x|$ then we may assume that $x - y_x$ and $x - \bar{y}$ are linearly independent. Hence

$$\left| x - \frac{y_x + \bar{y}}{2} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{2}(x - y_x) + \frac{1}{2}(x - \bar{y}) \right| < \frac{1}{2}|x - y_x| + \frac{1}{2}|x - \bar{y}| = |x - y_x|.$$

Since $(y_x + \bar{y})/2 \in K$ by the convexity of K , it contradicts the minimality of y_x .

1.7 Theorem. Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be closed and let $x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus K$. Let $a = x - \Phi_K(x)$ and $\alpha = \langle a, \Phi_K(x) \rangle$. Then $H(a, \alpha)$ is a supporting hyperplane of K with outer normal vector a .

1.8 Corollary. Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$, $K \neq \mathbb{R}^n$, be closed. Then

$$K = \bigcap_{\substack{H(a, \alpha) \text{ supporting} \\ \text{hyperplane of } K}} H^-(a, \alpha),$$

i.e., K is the intersection of all its “supporting halfspaces”.

1.9 Corollary. *Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $\text{conv } X$ is closed and $\text{conv } X \neq \mathbb{R}^n$. Then*

$$\text{conv } X = \bigcap_{X \subseteq H^-(a, \alpha)} H^-(a, \alpha),$$

i.e., $\text{conv } X$ is the intersection of all halfspaces containing X .

1.10 Lemma [Busemann-Feller Lemma]. *Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be closed. Then*

$$|\Phi_K(x) - \Phi_K(y)| \leq |x - y|$$

for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, i.e., the nearest point map does not increase distances. In particular, it is a continuous map.

1.11 Theorem. *Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be compact and let $\rho > 0$ such that $K \subset \text{int}(\rho B_n)$. The nearest point map restricted to ρS^{n-1} is surjective, i.e., $\Phi_K : \rho S^{n-1} \rightarrow \text{bd } K$ is surjective.*

1.12 Corollary. *Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be closed and let $x \in \text{relbd } K$. Then there exists a supporting hyperplane $H(a, \alpha)$ of K with $x \in H(a, \alpha)$.*

1.13 Theorem [Separation theorem]. *Let $K_1, K_2 \in \mathcal{C}^n$ with $K_1 \cap K_2 = \emptyset$. Then there exists a separating hyperplane $H(a, \alpha)$ of K_1 and K_2 , i.e., $K_1 \subseteq H^+(a, \alpha)$ and $K_2 \subseteq H^-(a, \alpha)$.*

If K_1 is closed and K_2 is compact, then there exists even a strictly separating hyperplane $H(a, \alpha)$ of K_1 and K_2 , i.e., $K_1 \subset \text{int } H^+(a, \alpha)$ and $K_2 \subset \text{int } H^-(a, \alpha)$.

1.14 Definition [Support function, breadth]. *Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$. The function $h(K, \cdot) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by*

$$h(K, u) = \sup\{\langle u, x \rangle : x \in K\}$$

is called support function of K . For $u \in S^{n-1}$ the breadth of K in the direction u is given by $h(K, u) + h(K, -u)$.

1.15 Remark. *Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be non-empty and compact. Then*

$$K = \bigcap_{u \in S^{n-1}} \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle u, x \rangle \leq h(K, u)\}.$$

1.16 Definition [Polar set]. *Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$.*

$$X^* = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle x, y \rangle \leq 1 \text{ for all } x \in X\}$$

is called the polar set of X .

1.17 Proposition.

- i) X^* is a convex and closed set and $0 \in X^*$.

- ii) If $X_1 \subseteq X_2$ then $X_2^* \subseteq X_1^*$.
- iii) Let M be a regular $n \times n$ matrix. Then $(MX)^* = M^{-\top}X^*$.
- iv) Let $X_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $i \in I$. Then $(\bigcup_{i \in I} X_i)^* = \bigcap_{i \in I} X_i^*$.
- v) $X \subseteq (X^*)^*$.
- vi) Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Then $X = X^*$ if and only if $X = B_n$.

1.18 Proposition.

- i) Let $P = \text{conv} \{x_1, \dots, x_m\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

$$P^* = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle x_i, y \rangle \leq 1, 1 \leq i \leq m\}.$$

- ii) Let $P = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle a_i, x \rangle \leq 1, 1 \leq i \leq m\}$ with $a_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

$$P^* = \text{conv} \{0, a_1, \dots, a_m\}.$$

1.19 Lemma. Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be closed with $0 \in K$. Then $(K^*)^* = K$.

2 Radon, Helly, Caratheodory and relatives

2.1 Theorem [Radon, 1921]. *Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. If $\#X \geq n + 2$ then there exist $X_1, X_2 \subset X$ with $X_1 \cap X_2 = \emptyset$ and $\text{conv } X_1 \cap \text{conv } X_2 \neq \emptyset$.*

2.2 Theorem [Helly, 1913]. *Let $K_1, \dots, K_m \in \mathcal{C}^n$, $m \geq n + 1$, such that for each $(n + 1)$ -index set $I \subseteq \{1, \dots, m\}$ we have $\bigcap_{i \in I} K_i \neq \emptyset$. Then all sets K_i have a point in common, i.e., $\bigcap_{j=1}^m K_j \neq \emptyset$.*

2.3 Remark.

- i) *Without any further restrictions/assumptions Helly's theorem is not true for infinitely many convex sets K_i . For instance, let $K_i = (0, \frac{1}{i}]$, $i \in \mathbb{N}$.*
- ii) *Helly's theorem, however, can be easily generalised to infinitely many compact (bounded and closed) convex sets.*

2.4 Corollary. *Let $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be compact. Then there exists $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with*

$$-C \subseteq t + nC.$$

2.5 Definition [Centerpoint]. *For a finite point set $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ a point $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called centerpoint if every closed halfspace containing c contains at least $\lceil \frac{1}{n+1} \#X \rceil$ points of X .*

2.6 Theorem. *Every finite set $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ has a centerpoint.*

2.7 Theorem [Carathéodory, 1907]. *Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Then*

$$\text{conv } X = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \lambda_i x_i : \lambda_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \lambda_i = 1, x_i \in X, i = 1, \dots, n + 1 \right\}.$$

2.8 Remark. *Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Then*

$$\text{conv } X = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\dim X + 1} \lambda_i x_i : \lambda_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{\dim X + 1} \lambda_i = 1, x_i \in X \right\}.$$

As a direct consequence of Carathéodory's Theorem 2.7 we get the following result.

2.9 Corollary. *A polytope is the union of simplices.*

2.10 Corollary. *The convex hull of a compact set is compact.*

2.11 Theorem [(weak)Fractional Helly theorem]. *Let $K_1, \dots, K_m \in \mathcal{C}^n$, $m \geq n + 1$, and let $\alpha \in (0, 1]$ such that for at least $\alpha \binom{m}{n+1}$ of the $(n + 1)$ -index sets $I \subseteq \{1, \dots, m\}$ we have $\bigcap_{i \in I} K_i \neq \emptyset$. Then there exists a point in common of at least $\frac{\alpha}{n+1} \cdot m$ sets K_i .*

2.12 Remark. *The (strong and sharp) fractional Helly theorem, which is due to Kalai, gives that $(1 - (1 - \alpha)^{1/(n+1)}) \cdot m$ sets have a point in common. Obviously, for $\alpha = 1$ we get again the classical Helly Theorem 2.2.*

2.13 Theorem [Colorful Carathéodory theorem]. *Let $X_1, \dots, X_{n+1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be finite point sets such that $0 \in \text{conv } X_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n + 1$. There exist $x_i \in X_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n + 1$, such that $0 \in \text{conv } \{x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}\}$.*

2.14 Theorem [Tverberg's theorem]. *Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and let $k \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$. If $\#X \geq (k - 1)(n + 1) + 1$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$, then there exist k subsets $X_1, \dots, X_k \subset X$ with $X_i \cap X_j = \emptyset$, $i \neq j$, but $\text{conv } X_1 \cap \text{conv } X_2 \cap \dots \cap \text{conv } X_k \neq \emptyset$.*

2.15 Theorem. *Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and let $\#X = m \geq n + 1$. Then there exists a point $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ contained in at least $\gamma_n \binom{m}{n+1}$ X -simplices, i.e., simplices of the form $\text{conv } S$, $S \subseteq X$, $\#S = n + 1$. Here γ_n is a positive constant depending only on the dimension, and X -simplices $\text{conv } S_1$, $\text{conv } S_2$ are considered different if $S_1 \neq S_2$.*

3 Polytopes

3.1 Definition [Polyhedron]. *The intersection of finitely many closed halfspaces is called a polyhedron.*

3.2 Theorem [Minkowski, 1896, Weyl, 1935].

- i) *A bounded polyhedron is a polytope.*
- ii) *A polytope is a bounded polyhedron.*

3.3 Notation [\mathcal{V} -Polytope, \mathcal{H} -Polytope]. *A polytope given as the convex hull of finitely many points is called a \mathcal{V} -polytope. If it is given as the bounded intersection of finitely many closed halfspaces, then it is called an \mathcal{H} -polytope.*

3.4 Corollary. *Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$.*

- i) *Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then $AP + t$ is a polytope.*
- ii) *Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be an affine subspace. Then $P \cap U$ is a polytope.*

3.5 Definition [Faces]. *Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be closed and let H be a supporting hyperplane of K . If $j = \dim(K \cap H)$, then $K \cap H$ is called a j -face of K . Moreover, K itself is regarded as a $(\dim K)$ -face and the empty set \emptyset as (-1) -face of K .*

3.6 Notation [Vertices, edges, facets]. *A 0-face of $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$, K closed, is called vertex, an 1-face is called edge and a $(\dim K - 1)$ -face is called facet of K . K itself and the empty set are called improper faces, whereas the remaining faces are called proper faces of K .*

The set of all vertices of a polytope P is denoted by $\text{vert } P$.

3.7 Remark.

- i) *Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be closed. Every (relative) boundary point of K lies in a suitable j -face, $0 \leq j \leq \dim K - 1$.*
- ii) *Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$, $\dim K = n$. Let F be a facet of K and H a supporting hyperplane of K with $F = K \cap H$. Then $H = \text{aff } F$.*

3.8 Proposition. *Each face of a polytope is a polytope, and a polytope has only finitely many faces.*

3.9 Definition [f -vector]. *For $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ let $f_i(P)$ be the number of i -faces of P , $-1 \leq i \leq \dim P$. Furthermore, let $f_i(P) = 0$ for $\dim P + 1 \leq i \leq n$. The vector $f(P)$ with entries $f_i(P)$, $-1 \leq i \leq n$, is called the f -vector of P .*

3.10 Remark.

- i) Let $T_n = \text{conv}\{0, e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ be the so called standard simplex. Then $f_i(T_n) = \binom{n+1}{i+1}$, i.e., any $(i+1)$ subset of the vertices are the vertices of an i -face.
- ii) For any n -polytope $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ we have $\sum_{i=-1}^n f_i(P) \geq 2^{n+1}$ with equality if and only if P is an n -simplex.

3.11 Lemma. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$.

- i) $v \in \text{vert } P$ can not be written as a convex combination of two other points of P , i.e., $v \notin \text{conv}(P \setminus \{v\})$.
- ii) If $P = \text{conv } W$, then $\text{vert } P \subseteq W$.
- iii) $P = \text{conv}(\text{vert } P)$.

3.12 Lemma. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be an n -polytope with $0 \in \text{int } P$. For a proper face F of P let

$$F^\diamond = \{y \in P^\star : \langle x, y \rangle = 1 \text{ for all } x \in F\}.$$

Then

- i) F^\diamond is a face of P^\star .
- ii) $F = (F^\diamond)^\diamond$.
- iii) If G is a face of P and $F \subseteq G$, then $G^\diamond \subseteq F^\diamond$.
- iv) $\dim F^\diamond = n - 1 - \dim F$.

3.13 Theorem. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be an n -polytope with $0 \in \text{int } P$. Then

$$f_{n-1-i}(P^\star) = f_i(P), \quad -1 \leq i \leq n.$$

3.14 Theorem. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be an n -polytope with facets F_1, \dots, F_m and let $H(a_i, \alpha_i)$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, be the supporting hyperplanes of F_i , $1 \leq i \leq m$. Then

$$P = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle a_i, x \rangle \leq \alpha_i, 1 \leq i \leq m\}.$$

3.15 Theorem. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be an n -polytope.

- i) The boundary of P is the union of all its facets.
- ii) A k -face is the intersection of (at least) $(n - k)$ facets.
- iii) An $(n - 2)$ -face is contained in exactly two facets.
- iv) If F, G are faces of P with $F \subseteq G$, then F is a face of G .
- v) A face of P is also a face of a facet of P .

3.16 Theorem. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be an n -polytope.

- i) Let G be a face of P and let F be a face of G . Then F is a face of P .
- ii) Let F_j be a j -face of P and let F_k be a k -face of P with $F_j \subset F_k$. There exist i -faces F_i of P , $j < i < k$, such that

$$F_j \subset F_{j+1} \subset \cdots \subset F_{k-1} \subset F_k.$$

3.17 Remark. Let v_0 be a vertex of an n -polytope P and let $\{v_1, \dots, v_r\}$ be all adjacent vertices of v_0 , i.e., $\text{conv}\{v_0, v_i\}$ is an edge of P . In other words, $\{v_1, \dots, v_r\}$ are the neighbours of v_0 . Then

i)

$$P \subset v_0 + \text{pos}\{v_1 - v_0, \dots, v_r - v_0\}.$$

ii) Let $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\langle c, v_0 \rangle \geq \langle c, v_i \rangle$, $1 \leq i \leq r$. Then

$$\max\{\langle c, x \rangle : x \in P\} = \langle c, v_0 \rangle.$$

3.18 Theorem [Euler-Poincaré formula]. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$. Then

$$\sum_{i=-1}^n (-1)^i f_i(P) = 0. \quad (3.18.1)$$

In particular, in the 3-dimensional case, i.e., $\dim P = 3$, it holds $f_0 - f_1 + f_2 = 2$.

3.19 Proposition. The Euler-Poincaré formula is the only linear equation satisfied by the f -vector, i.e., let $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$, such that $\sum_{i=-1}^n \lambda_i f_i(P) = 0$ for all $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$. Then there exists a constant $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$, such that $\lambda_i = \gamma (-1)^i$.

3.20 Definition [Simple and simplicial polytopes]. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$.

- i) P is called simplicial if all proper faces are simplices.
- ii) P is called simple if every vertex is contained in exactly $\dim P$ many facets.

3.21 Lemma. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be an n -polytope with $0 \in \text{int } P$. The following statements are equivalent:

- i) P is simplicial.
- ii) All facets of P are simplices.
- iii) P^* is simple.
- iv) Every k -face of P^* is contained in exactly $n - k$ facets for $k = 0, \dots, n - 1$.

3.22 Theorem. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be a simple n -polytope. Then

- i) Every vertex is contained in exactly $\binom{n}{k}$ k -faces of P , $k = 0, \dots, n - 1$.
- ii) The intersection of $k \leq n$ facets containing a common vertex is an $(n - k)$ -face of P .
- iii) Let v_1, \dots, v_n be the neighbours of a vertex v_0 of P . For each subset of $k < n$ neighbours v_{i_1}, \dots, v_{i_k} there exists a unique k -face F of P containing $v_0, v_{i_1}, \dots, v_{i_k}$.
- iv) A face of a simple polytope is simple.
- v) Every j face of P is contained in exactly $\binom{n-j}{k-j}$ k faces of P .

3.23 Theorem. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be a simple n -polytope.

- i) $n f_0(P) = 2 f_1(P)$.
- ii) $\sum_{k=0}^n f_k(P) \leq 2^n f_0(P)$.
- iii) $f_0(P) \leq 2 f_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}(P)$.

Here, for $\rho \in \mathbb{R}$ the number $\lceil \rho \rceil$ is the smallest integer greater or equal than ρ .

3.24 Corollary. Let P be a simple n -polytope with m facets. Then

$$f_0(P) \leq 2 \binom{m}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=0}^n f_k(P) \leq 2^{n+1} \binom{m}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}.$$

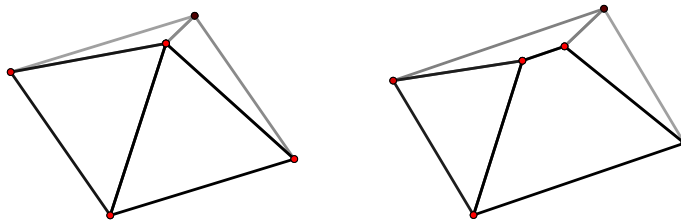
Or equivalently: Let P be a simplicial n -polytope with m vertices. Then

$$f_{n-1}(P) \leq 2 \binom{m}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=0}^n f_k(P) \leq 2^{n+1} \binom{m}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}.$$

Here, for $\rho \in \mathbb{R}$ the number $\lfloor \rho \rfloor$ is the largest integer not greater than ρ .

3.25 Lemma. Let P be an n -polytope.

- i) There exists a simple n -polytope Q with the same number of facets as P and $f_i(P) \leq f_i(Q)$, $0 \leq i \leq n - 2$.
- ii) There exists a simplicial n -polytope Q^* with the same number of vertices as P and $f_i(P) \leq f_i(Q^*)$, $1 \leq i \leq n - 1$.



3.26 Corollary. *Let P be an n -polytope with m facets. Then*

$$f_0(P) \leq 2 \binom{m}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}.$$

Or equivalently: Let P be an n -polytope with m vertices. Then

$$f_{n-1}(P) \leq 2 \binom{m}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}.$$

3.27 Definition [Cyclic polytopes]. *The curve $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ given by $\gamma(t) = (t, t^2, t^3, \dots, t^n)^\top$ is called moment curve. The convex hull of m points on the moment curve is called a cyclic polytope with m vertices and is denoted by $C(n, m)$.*

3.28 Proposition. *Any $n + 1$ points on the moment curve are affinely independent. In particular, cyclic polytopes are simplicial polytopes.*

3.29 Proposition [Gale's evenness condition]. *Let $t_i \in \mathbb{R}$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_m$, $\gamma(t_i) = (t_i, t_i^2, t_i^3, \dots, t_i^n)^\top$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, and let $S \subset \{1, \dots, m\}$ be a subset of cardinality n . $F_S = \text{conv} \{ \gamma(t_s) : s \in S \}$ is a facet of $C(n, m)$ if and only if $\#\{s \in S : i < s < j\}$ is even for all $i, j \in \{1, \dots, m\} \setminus S$.*

3.30 Remark. *All points $\gamma(t_i)$ are vertices of $C(n, m)$ and the number of i -faces of $C(n, m)$ is independent of the choice of the m -points on the moment curve.*

3.31 Proposition. *The cyclic polytope $C(n, m)$ is $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ -neighborly, i.e., the convex hull of any subset of the vertices of cardinality less than or equal $n/2$ is a face.*

3.32 Theorem* [McMullen's Upper Bound Theorem, 1971]. *Let P be an n -polytope with m vertices. Then*

$$f_i(P) \leq f_i(C(n, m)) = \begin{cases} \sum_{j=0}^{(n-1)/2} \frac{i+2}{m-j} \binom{m-j}{j+1} \binom{j+1}{i+1-j}, & n \text{ odd}, \\ \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \frac{m}{m-j} \binom{m-j}{j} \binom{j}{i+1-j}, & n \text{ even}. \end{cases}$$

In particular,

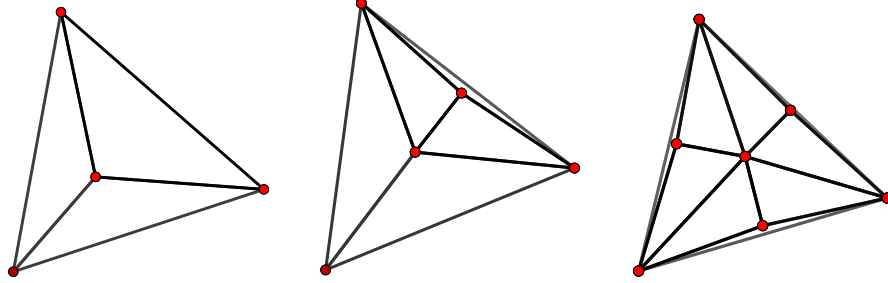
$$f_{n-1}(P) \leq f_{n-1}(C(n, m)) = \begin{cases} 2 \binom{m - \lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}, & n \text{ odd}, \\ \binom{m - \lfloor n/2 \rfloor}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} + \binom{m - \lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1}, & n \text{ even}. \end{cases}$$

For fixed n the right hand sides are of order $m^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}$.

3.33 Theorem* [Barnette's Lower Bound Theorem, 1971]. *Let P be a simplicial n -polytope with m vertices. P has at least as many i -faces as the so called stacked polytopes $P(n, m)$ with m vertices for which*

$$f_i(P(n, m)) = \begin{cases} m \binom{n}{i} - i \binom{n+1}{i+1}, & 0 \leq i \leq n-2, \\ n+1 + (m - (n+1))(n-1), & i = n-1. \end{cases}$$

$P(n, n+1)$ is an n -simplex, and for $m \geq n+2$ an m -vertex stacked n -polytope $P(n, m)$ is the convex hull of an $(m-1)$ -vertex stacked polytope with an additional point that is beyond exactly one facet.



3.34 Theorem [Dehn-Sommerville equations, 1905, 1927]. *Let P be a simple n -polytope. Then*

$$f_i(P) = \sum_{j=0}^i (-1)^j \binom{n-j}{n-i} f_j(P), \quad i = 0, \dots, n,$$

Or equivalently: *Let P be a simplicial n -polytope. Then*

$$f_{i-1}(P) = \sum_{j=i}^n (-1)^{n-j} \binom{j}{i} f_{j-1}(P), \quad i = 0, \dots, n.$$

3.35 Definition [h -vector]. *Let $P \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be a simple n -polytope. The vector $h(P) = (h_0(P), \dots, h_n(P))$ with entries*

$$h_i(P) = \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^{i-j} \binom{j}{i} f_j(P)$$

is called h -vector of P .

3.36 Remark. *In terms of the h -vector, the Dehn-Sommerville equations become $h_i(P) = h_{n-i}(P)$, $i = 0, \dots, n$.*

3.37 Theorem* [McMullen's g -Theorem]. *McMullen's g -theorem gives a complete characterization of the f -vectors of simple (or simplicial) polytopes in terms of its g -vector which is given by $g_i(P) = h_i(P) - h_{i-1}(P)$, $i = 1, \dots, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$.*

3.38 Remark. *For any n -polytope $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ we have $nf_0(P) \leq 2f_1(P)$ with equality iff P simple and $nf_{n-1}(P) \leq 2f_{n-2}(P)$ with equality iff P simplicial.*

3.39 Theorem [Steinitz, 1906]. *A non-negative integral vector (f_0, f_1, f_2) is the f -vector of a 3-polytope if and only if i) $f_0 - f_1 + f_2 = 2$, ii) $3f_0 \leq 2f_1$, and iii) $3f_2 \leq 2f_1$.*

3.40 Theorem [Figiel, Lindenstrauss, Milman, 1977]. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be a 0-symmetric n -polytope, i.e., $P = -P$. Then

$$\ln(f_0(P)) \ln(f_{n-1}(P)) \geq \frac{1}{16}n.$$

3.41 Conjecture [Kalai, 1989]. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be a 0-symmetric n -polytope. Then

$$\sum_{i=0}^n f_i(P) \geq 3^n.$$

Here we have equality, for instance, for the cube C_n and its polar, the cross-polytope C_n^* , or, more generally, for the class of Hanner-polytopes. Recently, the conjecture has been verified for all $n \leq 4$ (see <http://front.math.ucdavis.edu/0708.3661>).

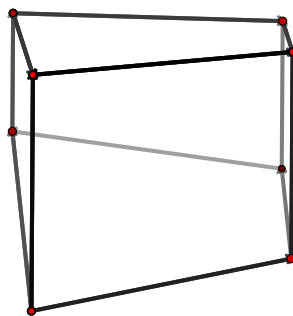
3.42 Theorem [Balinski, 1961]. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be an n -polytope. The graph of P consisting of its vertices and edges is n -connected, i.e., the graph is still connected if $n - 1$ vertices and their adjacent edges are removed.

3.43 Definition [Combinatorial diameter]. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$. The combinatorial distance $\delta_P(v, w)$ between two vertices $v, w \in \text{vert } P$ is the minimum length of an "edge path" connecting v and w , i.e., the minimum length of a sequence $[v, v_{i_1}, \dots, v_{i_l}, w]$, with $v_{i_j} \in \text{vert } P$ and two consecutive vertices form an edge.

$\delta(P) = \max\{\delta_P(v, w) : v, w \in \text{vert } P\}$ is called the (combinatorial) diameter of P . For $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ let

$$\Delta(n, m) = \max\{\delta(P) : P \in \mathcal{P}^n, \dim P = n \text{ and } f_{n-1}(P) = m\}.$$

3.44 Example. $\delta(T_n) = 1$, $\delta(C_n) = n$ and $\delta(C_n^*) = 2$.



3.45 Conjecture [Hirsch, 1957]. $\Delta(n, m) \leq m - n$.

3.46 Remark. It is known that

- i) the conjecture is true if $n \leq 3$ or $m \leq n + 5$ (Klee&Walkup, 1961/1965),
- ii) the conjecture would be false for unbounded polyhedra,

- iii) $\Delta(n, m) \leq \frac{1}{3} 2^{n-2} (m - n + \frac{5}{2})$ (Barnette, 1974),
- iv) $\Delta(n, m) \leq 2m^{\log(n)+1}$ (Kalai, 1992),
- v) it suffices to prove the conjecture for simple polytopes with $m = 2n$ (Klee&Walkup, 1961/1965)!
- vi) Disproof of the Hirsch conjecture by Francisco Santos, 2010, see <http://front.math.ucdavis.edu/1006.2814>

3.47 Definition [0/1-polytope]. Let $[0, 1]^n$ be the n -dimensional unit cube with vertices $\{0, 1\}^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n)^\top : x_i \in \{0, 1\}\}$. $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ is called 0/1-polytope if $\text{vert } P \subset \{0, 1\}^n$.

3.48 Lemma. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be a 0/1-polytope and let $\dim P \leq n - 1$. Then there exists a 0/1-polytope $\tilde{P} \in \mathcal{P}^{n-1}$ affinely isomorphic to P , i.e., there exists a bijective map between P and \tilde{P} .

3.49 Theorem [Naddef, 1989].

- i) Let P be a 0/1-polytope. Then $\delta(P) \leq \dim P$.
- ii) Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ be an n -dimensional 0/1-polytope with m facets. Then $\delta(P) \leq m - n$.

3.50 Remark.

- i) $f_{n-1}(P) \leq 2n!$ for a 0/1-polytope $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$.
- ii) There exist 0/1-polytopes $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ with

$$f_{n-1}(P) \geq \left(\frac{cn}{\log^2 n} \right)^{\frac{n}{2}},$$

where c is a universal constant (Gatzouras, Giannopoulos, Markoulakis, 2004).

4 A bit of Gale diagrams and triangulations

4.1 Definition. Let $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $m \geq n + 1$, such that their affine hull spans \mathbb{R}^n , and let $\bar{a}_i = (a_i, 1)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, and let $\bar{A} = (\bar{a}_1, \dots, \bar{a}_m) \in \mathbb{R}^{(n+1) \times m}$. Let $\bar{B} = (\bar{b}_1, \dots, \bar{b}_{m-(n+1)}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (m-(n+1))}$ be a basis of the subspace $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^m : \bar{A}x = 0\}$, i.e., of the kernel of \bar{A} , and let $\bar{B}^\top = (b_1, \dots, b_m) \in \mathbb{R}^{(m-(n+1)) \times m}$.

The vectors $b_1, \dots, b_m \in \mathbb{R}^{m-(n+1)}$ are called the Gale transform of the points a_1, \dots, a_m .

4.2 Remark.

- i) The Gale transform is unique up to linear isomorphisms of $\mathbb{R}^{(m-(n+1))}$.
- ii) For the vectors of a Gale transform always hold $\sum_{i=1}^m b_i = 0$.

4.3 Proposition. Let $P = \text{conv}\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ with vertices v_i , $1 \leq i \leq m$, and for $J \subseteq [m] = \{1, \dots, m\}$ let $V_J = \{v_j : j \in J\}$. Then $\text{conv} V_J$ is a face of P if and only if $\text{conv} V_{[m] \setminus J} \cap \text{aff} V_J = \emptyset$.

For $\#J = 1$ the statement is also true without the assumption that v_i are vertices.

4.4 Theorem. Let $P = \text{conv}\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$, $\dim P = n$, with vertices v_i , $1 \leq i \leq m$, and for $J \subseteq [m] = \{1, \dots, m\}$ let $V_J = \{v_j : j \in J\}$. Let $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$ be the Gale transform of $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$. Then $\text{conv} V_J$ is a face of P if and only if $J = [m]$ or $0 \in \text{relint}(\text{conv}\{b_k : k \notin J\})$.

For $\#J = 1$ the statement is also true without the assumption that v_i are vertices.

4.5 Corollary. $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\} \in \mathbb{R}^{m-(n+1)}$ is the Gale transform of the vertex set $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ of a polytope if and only if for each hyperplane $H(a, 0) \subset \mathbb{R}^{m-(n+1)}$ the halfspaces $H^+(a, 0)$ and $H^-(a, 0)$ contain at least two points of $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$ in its interior.

4.6 Definition [Face lattice]. For a polytope $P \in \mathcal{P}^n$ let $\mathcal{F}(P)$ be the set of all its faces. Together with the inclusion relation " \subseteq " on $\mathcal{F}(P)$ the faces form a partially ordered set (poset) denoted by $(\mathcal{F}(P), \subseteq)$ and which is called the face lattice of P .

4.7 Definition [Combinatorially isomorphic]. Two polytopes $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}^n$ are called combinatorially isomorphic or combinatorially equivalent if the face lattices $(\mathcal{F}(P), \subseteq)$ and $(\mathcal{F}(Q), \subseteq)$ are isomorphic, i.e., there exists an inclusion preserving bijection between the faces of P and Q .

4.8 Theorem. There are precisely $\lfloor \frac{1}{4}n^2 \rfloor$ combinatorial different types of n -polytopes with $n + 2$ vertices.

Proof. For such an n -polytope $P = \text{conv}\{v_1, \dots, v_{n+2}\}$ the Gale transform $\{b_1, \dots, b_{n+2}\}$ is one-dimensional. Since $0 \in \text{int conv}\{b_1, \dots, b_{n+2}\}$ we can classify the Gale transform by the number of points l, e, g which are $< 0, = 0$ and > 0 , respectively. Then we have $l + e + g = n + 2$ and according to Corollary 4.5 we have $l, g \geq 2$ and by symmetry we may assume $l \leq g$. So for a fixed $e \in \{0, \dots, n - 2\}$ the parameter l is bounded between 2 and $\lfloor (n + 2 - e)/2 \rfloor$, and so there are $\lfloor (n - e)/2 \rfloor$ possibilities. Altogether we have found

$$\sum_{e=0}^{n-2} \left\lfloor \frac{n-e}{2} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{1}{4}n^2 \right\rfloor$$

different possibilities of Gale transforms which correspond by Corollary 4.5 to all n polytopes with $(n + 2)$ vertices. It remains to show that these polytopes are combinatorially inequivalent. To this end let (l_i, e_i, g_i) be two different sequences with polytopes $P_i, i = 1, 2$, and assume that the polytopes are combinatorially equivalent. Let ϕ be an isomorphism between the face lattices of P_i which induces an isomorphism on the points of the Gale transforms. First we observe that all points of the groups " e_i " have to be mapped onto each other, since removing all other points yields a face of the polytope in view of Theorem 4.4. So we may assume $e_1 = e_2$ and suppose $1 < l_1 < l_2 \leq g_2 < g_1$. The image of the points of the first group " l_1 " cannot consist of all points of l_2 or of all points of g_2 . Hence removing the image of the points yields a face of P_2 but not of P_1 according to Theorem 4.4. Hence we get a contradiction. \square

4.9 Definition [Point configuration]. A point configuration in \mathbb{R}^n is a finite set of (perhaps repeated) points with (non-repeated) labels. It is identified with its matrix $A = (a_1, \dots, a_m) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

4.10 Definition [Triangulation]. A triangulation of a point configuration $A = (a_1, \dots, a_m) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ is a collection \mathcal{T} of simplices, with vertices in A , that satisfies the following properties:

- i) All faces of simplices of \mathcal{T} are in \mathcal{T} .
- ii) The intersection of any two simplices of \mathcal{T} is a face (possibly empty) of both.
- iii) The union of all simplices of \mathcal{T} equals $\text{conv } A$.

4.11 Remark.

- i) All vertices of $\text{conv } A$ are in \mathcal{T} .
- ii) Let F be a face of $\text{conv } A$. Then $\mathcal{T}_F := \{\sigma \in \mathcal{T} : \sigma \subset F\}$ is a triangulation of $A \cap F$.
- iii) The first two properties of Definition 4.10 are the definition of a (geometric) simplicial complex.

4.12 Definition [Height function and lower convex hull]. Let $A = (a_1, \dots, a_m) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be a point configuration. Let $\eta : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be a function and let

$$A_\eta = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_m \\ \eta(a_1) & \eta(a_2) & \dots & \eta(a_m) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n+1) \times m}$$

be the lifted point configuration (also called a *lifting*). Then η is called a height function. The union of the faces of $\text{conv } A_\eta$ which are visible from below are called the lower convex hull of $\text{conv } A_\eta$. More precisely, $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n, y_{n+1})^\top \in \text{conv } (A_\eta)$ belongs to the lower convex hull if the segment $\text{conv } \{y, (y_1, \dots, y_n, 0)^\top\}$ intersects $\text{conv } A_\eta$ only in y .

4.13 Definition [Regular triangulation]. A triangulation of a point configuration $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ is called a regular triangulation if it can be obtained by projecting the lower convex hull of a lifting of A .

4.14 Theorem. Every point configuration $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ has regular triangulations.

4.15 Definition [Delaunay triangulation]. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be a point configuration containing $n + 1$ affinely independent points. Let $\eta : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be the height function given by $\eta(x) = |x|^2$. If the projection of the lower convex hull of $\text{conv } A_\eta$ yields a triangulation, then it is called Delaunay triangulation.

4.16 Lemma. Let $C \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ be the paraboloid $C = \{(x, |x|^2)^\top : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$. Let $H(a, \alpha)$, $a \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, $a_{n+1} \neq 0$, be a hyperplane, and let $\Pi : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be the projection forgetting the last coordinate. Then $\Pi(C \cap H(a, \alpha))$ is either empty, a point or an n -dimensional sphere.

4.17 Corollary. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be a point configuration containing $n + 1$ affinely independent points. Let $\eta : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be the height function given by $\eta(x) = |x|^2$. Let $B \subseteq A$ such that B contains $n + 1$ affinely independent points. Then B corresponds to the vertex set of a facet of the lower convex hull of the lifted points if and only if there is sphere passing through all points of B and leaving all points of $A \setminus B$ outside.

4.18 Remark. In particular, simplices in a Delaunay triangulation \mathcal{T} are characterized by the "empty sphere" property: $\sigma \in \mathcal{T}$ if and only if there is an Euclidean sphere with all vertices of σ on the sphere and with the rest of the points outside.

5 A glimpse of Ehrhart theory

5.1 Notation. For $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, S bounded, we denote by $G(S)$ its lattice point enumerator, i.e.,

$$G(S) = \#(S \cap \mathbb{Z}^n).$$

Almost all results of this section are valid for arbitrary lattices; for simplification, however, we state most of them only for the standard lattice \mathbb{Z}^n .

5.2 Definition [Lattice polytope]. A polytope $P = \text{conv}\{v_1, \dots, v_m\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a lattice polytope if $v_i \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, $1 \leq i \leq m$. The set of all lattice polytopes is denoted by $\mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$.

5.3 Lemma. Let $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ be linearly independent, and let P be the half open parallelepiped $P = \{\rho_1 a_1 + \dots + \rho_n a_n : 0 \leq \rho_i < 1\}$. Then

$$G(P) = \text{vol}(P) = |\det(a_1, \dots, a_n)|.$$

5.4 Lemma. Let $T = \text{conv}\{0, v_1, v_2\} \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^2$ be a lattice triangle, i.e., $v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ are linearly independent. Then

$$G(T) = \text{vol}(T) + \frac{1}{2}G(\text{bd } T) + 1.$$

5.5 Theorem [Pick].¹ Let $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^2$, $\dim P = 2$. Then

$$G(P) = \text{vol}(P) + \frac{1}{2}G(\text{bd } P) + 1.$$

5.6 Corollary.

i) Let $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^2$, $\dim P = 2$, with edges F_1, \dots, F_m . Then

$$G(P) = \text{vol}(P) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\text{vol}_1(F_i)}{\det(\text{aff } F_i \cap \mathbb{Z}^2)} + 1.$$

Here $\det(\text{aff } F_i \cap \mathbb{Z}^2)$ is the distance of two consecutive lattice points on $\text{aff } F_i$.

ii) Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^2$. Then $G(K) \leq \text{vol}(K) + \frac{1}{2}F(K) + 1$, where $F(K)$ denotes the perimeter of K .

5.7 Remark.

¹Georg Alexander Pick; 10.08.1859 (Vienna) – 26.07.1942 (concentration camp Theresienstadt)

- i) Inequality ii) of Corollary 5.6 can not be generalized in a straightforward and best possible way to arbitrary lattices, since the perimeter is not an affine equivariant functional, in contrast to the area.
- ii) Pick's theorem itself, however, can be generalized in various ways. Its proof is only based on the property that a set S can be subdivided into lattice triangle such that the intersection of any two of them is a face of both. For those sets it was shown by Hadwiger&Wills that

$$G(S) = \text{vol}(S) + \frac{1}{2}E(S) + \chi(S).$$

Here $\chi(S)$ is the Euler-Poincaré characteristic of S , and $E(S)$ is the number of segments between two consecutive lattice points in the boundary of S , where segments are counted twice which are not bordering a 2-dimensional cell.

- iii) By Pick's theorem we immediately get the following polynomial behaviour of the lattice point enumerator of a lattice polygon $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^2$

$$\begin{aligned} G(kP) &= \text{vol}(P)k^2 + \frac{1}{2}G(\text{bd } P)k + 1, \\ G(\text{int}(kP)) &= \text{vol}(P)k^2 - \frac{1}{2}G(\text{bd } P)k + 1. \end{aligned}$$

5.8 Notation. For integers m, n we denote by

$$\binom{x+m}{n} = \frac{1}{n!} \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (x+m-i)$$

the polynomial of degree n with roots $i-m$, $i=0, \dots, n-1$, and leading coefficient $1/n!$. In particular, the polynomials $\binom{x+n-i}{n}$, $i=0, \dots, n$, form a basis of the space of all polynomials of degree at most n .

5.9 Lemma. Let $T = \text{conv}\{0, v_1, \dots, v_n\} \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$ be a lattice simplex, i.e., $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ are linearly independent, and for $0 \leq i \leq n$ let

$$a_i(T) = \# \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j v_j \in \mathbb{Z}^n : 0 \leq \lambda_j < 1, i-1 < \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j \leq i \right\}.$$

Then for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $k \geq 1$, we have

$$G(kT) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i(T) \binom{k+n-i}{n}.$$

5.10 Notation [Characteristic Function]. For a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ let $\chi_A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ with

$$\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in A, \\ 0, & x \notin A. \end{cases}$$

be its characteristic function.

5.11 Lemma [Inclusion-Exclusion Formula]. Let $A_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, with characteristic functions $\chi(A_i)$. Then

$$\chi(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_m) = \sum_{\substack{I \subseteq \{1, \dots, m\} \\ I \neq \emptyset}} (-1)^{\#I-1} \chi\left(\bigcap_{j \in I} A_j\right).$$

5.12 Remark. By evaluating and summing both sides of Lemma 5.11 over all lattice points \mathbb{Z}^n we find for bounded sets $A_i \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $1 \leq i \leq m$

$$G(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_m) = \sum_{\substack{I \subseteq \{1, \dots, m\} \\ I \neq \emptyset}} (-1)^{\#I-1} G\left(\bigcap_{j \in I} A_j\right).$$

5.13 Theorem [Ehrhart, 1967].² Let $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$. Then there exist numbers $G_i(P) \in \mathbb{Q}$, $0 \leq i \leq n$, depending only on P , such that for all $k \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$

$$G(kP) = \sum_{i=0}^n G_i(P) k^i.$$

The right hand side is called Ehrhart-polynomial.

5.14 Definition.

- i) Let $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{Z}) = \{U \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n} : |\det U| = 1\}$ be the group of unimodular matrices. For $U \in \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{Z})$ and $z \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ the map $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ with $f(x) = Ux + z$ is called an unimodular transformation.
- ii) A functional $g : \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with

$$g(P \cup Q) + g(P \cap Q) = g(P) + g(Q)$$

for all $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$ with $P \cup Q, P \cap Q \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$ is called additive.

5.15 Proposition. The unimodular transformations are exactly those affine transformations $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ which leaves \mathbb{Z}^n invariant, i.e., $f(\mathbb{Z}^n) = \mathbb{Z}^n$.

5.16 Proposition. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$.

- i) $G_n(P) = \text{vol}(P)$.
- ii) $G_i : \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is homogeneous of degree i , invariant with respect to unimodular transformations and additive, $0 \leq i \leq n$.
- iii) $G_i(P)$ are independent of the dimension of the space in which P is embedded, i.e., let $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$ and let $\tilde{P} = \text{conv}\{(v, 0)^{\top} : v \in P\} \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{n+1}$. Then $G_i(P) = G_i(\tilde{P})$, $i = 0, \dots, n$.

²Eugène Ehrhart, 29.04.1906 (Guebwiller (Haut-Rhin, France)) – 17.01.2000 (Strasbourg)

5.17 Theorem* [Betke, Kneser, 1985].^{3 4} Every additive and unimodular invariant functional on the space of all lattice polytopes is a linear combination of the $n + 1$ functionals $G_i(\cdot)$.

5.18 Remark. Some of the coefficients $G_i(P)$ might be negative. One family of standard examples in this context are the so called Reeve-simplices: let $R_m = \text{conv} \{0, e_1, e_2, (1, 1, m)^\top\} \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^3$ for $m \in \mathbb{N}$. The only lattice points contained in R_m are the four vertices, the volume, however, can be arbitrarily large. Hence some $G_i(R_m)$ must be negative for large m . More precisely, it is $G_3(R_m) = m/6$, $G_2(R_m) = 1$, $G_1(R_m) = (12 - m)/6$ and $G_0(R_m) = 1$.

Of course, we can also rewrite the Ehrhart polynomial in terms of the binomial basis $\binom{k+n-i}{n}$ and get

5.19 Corollary. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$. Then there exist numbers $a_i(P) \in \mathbb{Q}$, $0 \leq i \leq n$, such that for all $k \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$

$$G(kP) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i(P) \binom{k+n-i}{n}.$$

5.20 Example.

i) Let $T_n = \text{conv} \{0, e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$. Then

$$\#(kT_n \cap \mathbb{Z}^n) = \binom{n+k}{n},$$

and so we have $a_i(T_n) = 0$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, and $a_0(T_n) = 1$. The $G_i(T_n)$ are – up to ± 1 – Stirling numbers of the first kind.

ii) Let $C_n = [-1, 1]^n$. Then $G(kC_n) = (2k+1)^n$ and so $G_i(C_n, \mathbb{Z}^n) = 2^i \binom{n}{i}$, $0 \leq i \leq n$. Here the $a_i(C_n)$ are some combinatorial numbers, the so called Eulerian numbers.

iii) Let $C_n^* = \text{conv} \{\pm e_i : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. Then

$$G(kC_n^*) = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} \binom{k+n-i}{n},$$

and so $a_i(C_n^*) = \binom{n}{i}$, $i = 0, \dots, n$.

³Martin Kneser, 21.01.1928 (Greifswald) – 16.02.2004 (Göttingen)

⁴Ulrich Betke, ???.?.1948 (???) – 24.05.2008 (Siegen)

iv) Let $\widehat{T}_2 = \text{conv}\{0, e_1, e_2\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ be the 2-dimensional standard triangle embedded in \mathbb{R}^3 . Then by Pick's Theorem 5.5

$$G(k\widehat{T}_2) = \frac{1}{2}k^2 + \frac{3}{2}k + 1 = (-1) \binom{k}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \binom{k+1}{3} - \frac{1}{2} \binom{k+2}{3} + \binom{k+3}{3}.$$

Hence, in this case we have $a_3(\widehat{T}_2) = -1$, $a_2(\widehat{T}_2) = 1/2$, $a_1(\widehat{T}_2) = -1/2$, $a_0(\widehat{T}_2) = 1$.

Finally, we state without proof some highlights of Ehrhart theory (and which are left to the lecture in the next term).

5.21 Remark.

- i) Stanley's Non-Negativity Theorem: Let $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$, $\dim P = n$. Then $a_i(P) \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$, $0 \leq i \leq n$.
- ii) Stanley's Monotonicity Theorem: Let $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$, $\dim P = \dim Q = n$ with $P \subseteq Q$. Then $a_i(P, \mathbb{Z}^n) \leq a_i(Q, \mathbb{Z}^n)$, $0 \leq i \leq n$.
- iii) Ehrhart-Macdonald Reciprocity: Let $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$, $\dim P = n$. Then

$$G(\text{int } kP) = (-1)^n \sum_{i=0}^n G_i(P)(-k)^i.$$

iv) Let $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{Z}}^n$, $\dim P = n$. Then for $i \neq n \pmod{2}$

$$G_i(P) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=i}^{n-1} (-1)^{i+j} \sum_{F_j\text{-face of } P} G_i(F).$$

In particular,

$$G_{n-1}(P) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{F \text{ facet of } P} \frac{\text{vol}_{n-1}(F)}{\det(\text{aff } F \cap \mathbb{Z}^n)}.$$

6 Borsuk, Hadwiger and planks

6.1 Definition [Diameter]. Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be bounded.

$$D(X) = \sup\{|x - y| : x, y \in X\}$$

is called diameter of X .

6.2 Remark. Let $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ be a convex body with support function $h(K, \cdot)$. Let $x, y \in K$ such that $D(K) = |x - y|$, and let $u = (x - y)/|x - y|$. The hyperplanes $H(u, \langle u, x \rangle)$ and $H(-u, \langle -u, y \rangle)$ are supporting hyperplanes in x, y , respectively, and it is

$$D(K) = \sup_{u \in S^{n-1}} h(K, u) + h(K, -u).$$

6.3 Definition [Convex body, smooth convex body]. A convex body is a convex compact set, $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$. It is called smooth if there exists a unique supporting hyperplane for any boundary point of K . The set of all convex bodies is denoted by \mathcal{K}^n .

6.4 Definition [Borsuk number]. Let $\mathfrak{B}(n)$ be the smallest number $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that any bounded set $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ can be partitioned into k sets having smaller diameter than X .

6.5 Remark. A regular simplex shows that $\mathfrak{B}(n) \geq n + 1$ and in 1932 Karol Borsuk⁵ asked the question whether $\mathfrak{B}(n) = n + 1$ which led to the so called Borsuk conjecture.

6.6 Theorem [Borsuk-Ulam]. Let $S^{n-1} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x| = 1\}$ be the boundary of the n -dimensional unit ball B_n . Let $f : S^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be a continuous mapping. Then there exists a $x \in S^{n-1}$ with $f(x) = f(-x)$.

6.7 Proposition. B_n can be partitioned into $n + 1$ sets of smaller diameter, but not less.

6.8 Theorem. Any smooth convex body $K \in \mathcal{C}^n$ can be partitioned into $n + 1$ sets of smaller diameter.

6.9 Proposition. $\mathfrak{B}(n) \leq 2^n$.

6.10 Theorem [Kahn&Kalai]. For large n it is $\mathfrak{B}(n) \geq (1.1)^{\sqrt{n}}$.

6.11 Remark. The smallest known dimension with $\mathfrak{B}(n) > n + 1$ is 298. More precisely, Hinrichs&Richter proved $\mathfrak{B}(n) > n + 11$ for all $n \geq 298$.

⁵Karol Borsuk (8. Mai 1905 in Warschau – 24. Januar 1982 in Warschau)

6.12 Definition [Gohberg-Markus-Hadwiger number]. Let $\mathfrak{H}(n)$ be smallest number $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that any convex body $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ can be covered by m smaller homothetic copies of K . $\mathfrak{H}(n)$ is called the Gohberg⁶-Markus-Hadwiger⁷ number.

6.13 Remark.

- i) The cube C_n shows that $\mathfrak{H}(n) \geq 2^n$, and it is conjectured that this lower bound is extremal, i.e., $\mathfrak{H}(n) = 2^n$. The problem or conjecture is known as the Gohberg-Markus-Hadwiger problem/conjecture.
- ii) So far the conjecture has only been confirmed for $n \leq 2$ (and possible for $n \leq 3$) and for some special classes of convex bodies. In particular for smooth bodies, where always $n + 1$ smaller homothetic copies suffice.
- iii) A boundary point x of a convex body $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ is illuminated by a direction $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, if the line $x + \mathbb{R}v$ intersects the interior of K . The minimal number m needed to illuminate any convex body in \mathbb{R}^n by m directions is called the illumination number and it is denoted by $\mathfrak{I}(n)$. It was shown by Boltjanski that $\mathfrak{H}(n) = \mathfrak{I}(n)$.

6.14 Definition [Minimal Width, plank].

- i) Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ be convex body with support function $h(K, \cdot)$. The minimal breadth of K , i.e.,

$$\min_{u \in S^{n-1}} h(K, u) + h(K, -u)$$

is called the minimal width of K and will be denoted by $\Delta(K)$.

- ii) For a vector $u \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ the set

$$S(u, \alpha, \beta) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \beta \leq \langle u, x \rangle \leq \alpha\}$$

is called a (parallel) strip or plank of width $(\alpha - \beta)/|u|$.

6.15 Remark [Plank problem]. Tarski⁸ asked the following: Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ be a convex body of minimal width $\Delta(K)$ which is entirely covered by m planks of width μ_i , say. Is it true that

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \mu_i \geq \Delta(K)?$$

6.16 Lemma. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ be a convex body and let $v \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$. Then there exists a chord in direction v with parallel supporting hyperplanes at its ends, i.e., there exists a $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that the two boundary points $\{v, w\} = \{t + \mathbb{R}v\} \cap \text{bd } K$ have parallel supporting hyperplanes.

⁶Israel Gohberg, 23. August 1928 – 12. Oktober 2009

⁷Hugo Hadwiger, 23. Dezember 1908 – 29. Oktober 1981

⁸Alfred Tarski bzw. ursprünglich Alfred Tajtelbaum oder Teitelbaum, 14. Januar 1901 – 26. Oktober 1983

6.17 Lemma. *Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ be a convex body of minimal width $\Delta(K)$ and let $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $|y| < \Delta(K)/2$. Then $L_y = (K - y) \cap (K + y) \in \mathcal{K}^n$ is non-empty with $\Delta(L_y) \geq \Delta(K) - 2|y|$.*

6.18 Notation.

- i) *In the following we will assume that for a plank $S(u, \alpha, \beta)$ the length of u is 1/2 of its width, i.e., $2|u|^2 = \alpha - \beta$ and so we may write $\alpha = |u|^2 - \gamma$ and $\beta = -|u|^2 - \gamma$ for a certain constant γ . In this way, a plank is uniquely determined by u and γ and therefore we may write $S(u, \gamma)$ for a plank.*
- ii) *For a set of planks $S(u_i, \gamma_i)$ of widths $2|u_i|$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, and for a sign vector $\epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}^m$ let*

$$P_\epsilon = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle u_i, x \rangle \begin{cases} \geq |u_i|^2 - \gamma_i, & \epsilon_i = 1 \\ \leq -|u_i|^2 - \gamma_i, & \epsilon_i = -1 \end{cases}, 1 \leq i \leq m \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle \epsilon_i u_i, x \rangle \geq |u_i|^2 - \epsilon_i \gamma_i, 1 \leq i \leq m \right\}$$

be a polyhedron "outside the planks".

6.19 Lemma. *Let $S(u_i, \gamma_i) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be planks of widths $2|u_i|$, $1 \leq i \leq m$. Then*

$$\bigcup_{\epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}^m} \left(P_\epsilon - \sum_{i=1}^m \epsilon_i u_i \right) = \mathbb{R}^n.$$

6.20 Theorem [Bang]. *The answer to the Plank problem is "Yes", i.e., let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ be a convex body of minimal width $\Delta(K)$ which is entirely covered by m planks $S(u_i, \alpha_i, \beta_i)$ of width μ_i , say. Then $\sum_{i=1}^m \mu_i \geq \Delta(K)$.*

6.21 Remark. *Bang also raised the following stronger question: Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ be a convex body with support function $h(K, \cdot)$, and suppose K is covered by m planks $S(u_i, \alpha_i, \beta_i)$ with $u_i \in S^{n-1}$ and width $\alpha_i - \beta_i$, $1 \leq i \leq m$. Is it true that*

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\alpha_i - \beta_i}{h(K, u_i) + h(K, -u_i)} \geq 1?$$

For centrally symmetric bodies it was proven by Keith Ball in 1991.

7 Packings

7.1 Definition [Packing sets]. A subset $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a packing set of $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ if for all $x, y \in D$, $x \neq y$,

$$(x + \text{int } K) \cap (y + \text{int } K) = \emptyset.$$

The family of all packing sets of K is denoted by $\mathcal{P}(K)$.

7.2 Definition [Density of a Packing]. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ and $D \in \mathcal{P}(K)$.

$$\delta(K, D) = \limsup_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{vol}(K) \# \{x \in D : x + K \subset \lambda C_n\}}{\text{vol}(\lambda C_n)}$$

is called the density of the packing $D + K$ (with respect to the gauge body $C_n = [-1, 1]^n$).

7.3 Remark. $\delta(K, D)$ depends on the gauge body C_n . For instance, let $D = \{z \in \mathbb{Z}^n : z \geq 0\} \in \mathcal{P}([0, 1]^n)$. Then $\delta([0, 1]^n, D) = \frac{1}{2^n}$. Now let $H_n = C_n \cap \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x_1 - x_2 + x_3 + \cdots + x_n| \leq n - 1\}$. Then $[0, 1]^n \subset H_n$, $\text{vol}(H_n) = 2^n - 2/n!$ and we get

$$\limsup_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{vol}([0, 1]^n) \# \{x \in D : x + [0, 1]^n \subset \lambda H_n\}}{\text{vol}(\lambda H_n)} = \frac{1}{2^n - \frac{2}{n!}}.$$

7.4 Theorem. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$. The supremum $\sup\{\delta(K, D) : D \in \mathcal{P}(K)\}$ is independent of the chosen gauge body, and there exists a packing set $D_K \in \mathcal{P}(K)$ such that

$$\sup\{\delta(K, D) : D \in \mathcal{P}(K)\} = \delta(K, D_K).$$

7.5 Definition [Density of a Densest Packing]. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$.

$$\delta(K) = \sup\{\delta(K, D) : D \in \mathcal{P}(K)\}$$

is called the density of a densest packing of K and a set $D_K \in \mathcal{P}(K)$ with $\delta(K) = \delta(K, D_K)$ is called a densest packing set of K .

7.6 Proposition. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$. The following properties hold:

- i) $0 < \delta(K) \leq 1$.
- ii) $\delta(t + AK) = \delta(K)$ for all $A \in \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- iii) Let $K \in \mathcal{K}_0^n$. Then $D \in \mathcal{P}(K)$ if and only if $|x - y|_K \geq 2$ for all $x, y \in D$, $x \neq y$.

iv) Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ and $D \in \mathcal{P}(K)$. Then

$$\delta(K, D) = \limsup_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{vol}(K) \# \{D \cap \lambda C_n\}}{\text{vol}(\lambda C_n)}.$$

v) $\mathcal{P}(K) = \mathcal{P}(\frac{1}{2}(K - K))$ and for $D \in \mathcal{P}(K)$ we have

$$\delta(K, D) = \delta\left(\frac{1}{2}(K - K), D\right) \frac{\text{vol}(K)}{\text{vol}\left(\frac{1}{2}(K - K)\right)},$$

and consequently

$$\delta(K) = \delta\left(\frac{1}{2}(K - K)\right) \frac{\text{vol}(K)}{\text{vol}\left(\frac{1}{2}(K - K)\right)}.$$

7.7 Lemma. Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a bounded and measurable set with $\text{vol}(S) > 0$ and let $D \in \mathcal{P}(K)$. Then there exist $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$\frac{\text{vol}(K) \# \{(w + S) \cap D\}}{\text{vol}(S)} \leq \delta(K, D) \leq \frac{\text{vol}(K) \# \{(v + S) \cap D\}}{\text{vol}(S)}.$$

7.8 Remark. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$.

$$R(K) = \min\{R > 0 : \exists x \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ with } K \subseteq x + R B_n\}$$

is called the circumradius of K . The point $t_c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $K \subseteq t_c + R(K) B_n$ is called circumcenter and it is uniquely determined. Moreover, for some $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, there exist $k + 1$ points $x_0, \dots, x_k \in \text{bd } K \cap \text{bd}(t_c + R(K) B_n)$ and $\lambda_i > 0$, $0 \leq i \leq k$, with $\sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i = 1$ such that $t_c = \sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i x_i$.

7.9 Corollary. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}_0^n$. Then

- i) $\delta(K) \geq 2^{-n}$,
- ii) $\delta(B_n) \leq (n + 1) \sqrt{2}^{-n}$.

7.10 Remark. Chronologically, the first upper bound is due to Blichfeldt (1928), who proved

$$\delta(B_n) \leq \frac{n + 2}{2} \sqrt{2}^{-n}.$$

This was slightly improved by Rogers (1958) by a factor of $2/e$, roughly speaking. In 1973/74 Sidelnikov showed that

$$\delta(B_n) \leq 2^{-(0.509 + o(1))n}, \quad n \text{ large.}$$

Subsequently, this bound was improved by Levenštejn (1975), Kabatjanskiĭ and Levenštejn (1978) to

$$\delta(B_n) \leq 2^{-(0.599 + o(1))n}, \quad n \text{ large,}$$

which is still the best known bound.

7.11 Definition [Lattice]. Let $b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be linearly independent. The set

$$\Lambda = \{z_1 b_1 + z_2 b_2 + \dots + z_n b_n : z_i \in \mathbb{Z}, 1 \leq i \leq n\}$$

is called lattice. The set of generating vectors $\{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ or the matrix $B = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$ with columns b_i is called basis of Λ . An element $b \in \Lambda$ is called lattice point of Λ . The set of all lattices in \mathbb{R}^n is denoted by \mathcal{L}^n .

7.12 Definition [Unimodular matrix]. An integral matrix $U \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$ is called unimodular iff $|\det U| = 1$. The group of all unimodular matrices is denoted by $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{Z})$.

Observe that a matrix is unimodular if and only if the matrix and its inverse are integral matrices.

7.13 Proposition. $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{Z}) = \{U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : U\mathbb{Z}^n = \mathbb{Z}^n\}$.

7.14 Lemma. Let $\Lambda = B\mathbb{Z}^n \in \mathcal{L}^n$. $A = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$ is a basis of Λ iff there exists a $U \in \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{Z})$ such that $A = BU$.

7.15 Definition [Determinant, fundamental cell]. Let $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}^n$ with basis $B = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$.

- i) $\det \Lambda = |\det B|$ is called determinant of Λ .
- ii) $P_B = \{\rho_1 b_1 + \dots + \rho_n b_n : 0 \leq \rho_i < 1, 1 \leq i \leq n\} = B[0, 1)^n$ is called fundamental cell or fundamental parallelepiped of Λ (w.r.t. the basis B).

7.16 Remark.

- i) $\det \Lambda$ is independent of the choice of the basis (cf. Lemma 7.14).
- ii) $\det \Lambda = \text{vol}(P_B)$ and $\det(\mu\Lambda) = |\mu|^n \det \Lambda$, $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$.
- iii) $\det \Lambda \leq |b_1| |b_2| \dots |b_n|$, with equality if and only if the vectors b_i are pairwise orthogonal (Hadamard inequality).
- iv) $P_B \cap \Lambda = \{0\}$. Since $(P_B - P_B) = B(-1, 1)^n$ we even have $(P_B - P_B) \cap \Lambda = \{0\}$.

7.17 Proposition. Let $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}^2$ and let $a_1, a_2 \in \Lambda$ be linearly independent. Then

$$a_1, a_2 \text{ basis of } \Lambda \Leftrightarrow \text{conv}\{0, a_1, a_2\} \cap \Lambda = \{0, a_1, a_2\}.$$

7.18 Remark. An analogous statement to Lemma 7.17 does not exist in dimension ≥ 3 . For $n \geq 3$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}$ let $b(m) = (1, \dots, 1, m)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $T^n(m) = \text{conv}\{0, e_1, \dots, e_{n-1}, b(m)\}$. Then

$$T^n(m) \cap \mathbb{Z}^n = \{0, e_1, \dots, e_{n-1}, b(m)\},$$

but the determinant of the lattice with basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_{n-1}, b(m)\}$ is m . $T^n(m)$ are called Reeve simplices.

7.19 Proposition. Let $\Lambda = B\mathbb{Z}^n \in \mathcal{L}^n$. Then

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \bigcup_{b \in \Lambda} (b + P_B),$$

i.e., \mathbb{R}^n is the pairwise disjoint union of the lattice translates $b + P_B$.

7.20 Corollary. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ and $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}^n \cap \mathcal{P}(K)$. Then

$$\delta(K, \Lambda) = \frac{\text{vol}(K)}{\det \Lambda}.$$

7.21 Definition [Density of a densest Lattice Packing]. For $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$ the set $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{L}}(K) = \mathcal{L}^n \cap \mathcal{P}(K)$ is called the family of all packing lattices of K . For $\Lambda \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{L}}(K)$ the arrangement $\Lambda + K$ is called a lattice packing of K and

$$\delta_{\mathcal{L}}(K) = \sup\{\delta(K, \Lambda) : \Lambda \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{L}}(K)\}$$

is called the density of a densest lattice packing of K .

7.22 Definition [Critical determinant and admissible lattices]. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}_0^n$. A lattice Λ is called admissible for K (or K -admissible) if $\text{int } K \cap \Lambda = \{0\}$.

$$\Delta(K) = \inf\{\det \Lambda : \Lambda \text{ admissible for } K\}$$

is called the critical determinant of K .

7.23 Remark. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}_0^n$ and $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}^n$. Then $(1/\lambda_1(K, \Lambda)) \Lambda$ is admissible for K .

7.24 Proposition [Critical lattice]. For $K \in \mathcal{K}_0^n$ there exists a K -admissible lattice Λ_K with $\det \Lambda_K = \Delta(K)$. Such a lattice will be called a critical lattice of K .

7.25 Proposition. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^n$. Then

$$\delta_{\mathcal{L}}(K) = \frac{\text{vol}(K)}{\Delta(K - K)}.$$

7.26 Remark.

- i) $0 < \delta_{\mathcal{L}}(K) \leq \delta(K) \leq 1$.
- ii) $\delta_{\mathcal{L}}(AK + t) = \delta_{\mathcal{L}}(K)$ for all $A \in \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- iii) For $K \in \mathcal{K}_0^n$ we have $\delta_{\mathcal{L}}(K) = 2^{-n} \text{vol}(K) / \Delta(K)$.

7.27 Theorem [Minkowski-Hlawka, 1943]. Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a bounded Jordan-measurable set with $\text{vol}(S) < 1$. Then there exists a lattice $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}^n$ with

$$\det \Lambda = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad S \cap \Lambda \setminus \{0\} = \emptyset.$$

7.28 Remark. Theorem 7.27 remains true for Jordan-measurable, unbounded, closed sets.

7.29 Corollary. Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a bounded Jordan-measurable set with $S = -S$ and with $\text{vol}(S) < 2$. Then there exists a lattice $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}^n$ with

$$\det \Lambda = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad S \cap \Lambda \setminus \{0\} = \emptyset.$$

7.30 Corollary. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}_0^n$. Then

$$\delta_{\mathcal{L}}(K) \geq 2^{-(n-1)} \quad \left[\Leftrightarrow \Delta(K) \leq \frac{\text{vol}(K)}{2} \right].$$

7.31 Theorem. Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $n \geq 2$, be a bounded ray set (i.e., if $x \in S$ then $\lambda x \in S$ for all $\lambda \in [0, 1]$) with $\text{vol}(S) < \zeta(n)$. Then there exists a lattice $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}^n$ with $\det \Lambda = 1$ and $S \cap \Lambda \setminus \{0\} = \emptyset$.

Here $\zeta(n) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^{-n}$ denotes the (Riemann) zeta function (ζ -function).

7.32 Theorem [K. Ball, 1992]. $\delta(B_n) \geq (n-1)2^{-(n-1)}\zeta(n)$.

7.33 Remark. The densest lattice packings of balls are only known in dimensions $n \leq 8$ (Lagrange 1773, Gauß 1840, Korkine-Zolotareff 1872/73, Blichfeldt, 1934) and $n = 24$ (Cohn& Kumar, 2004).

7.34 Theorem [Swinnerton-Deyer, 1953]. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}_0^n$ and let $\Lambda_K \in \mathcal{L}^n$ be a critical lattice of K . Then

$$\#(K \cap \Lambda_K \setminus \{0\}) \geq n(n+1).$$

7.35 Theorem. Let $K \in \mathcal{K}_0^2$.

- i) Let $b_1, b_2 \in \text{bd } K$ such that $b_2 - b_1 \in \text{bd } K$. Then the lattice $\Lambda = (b_1, b_2)\mathbb{Z}^2$ is admissible for K .
- ii) Let $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}^2$ be a critical lattice of K . Then there exists a basis b_1, b_2 of Λ such that $b_1, b_2, b_2 - b_1 \in \text{bd } K$.

7.36 Corollary. *Let $K \in \mathcal{K}_0^2$ and H_K be an affinely regular hexagon of minimal volume with vertices on $\text{bd } K$. Then*

$$\delta_{\mathcal{L}}(K) = \frac{3}{4} \frac{\text{vol}(K)}{\text{vol}(H_K)} \quad \left[\Leftrightarrow \Delta(K) = \frac{1}{3} \text{vol}(H_K) \right].$$

7.37 Theorem [Fejes Tóth, 1950; Rogers, 1951]. *Let $K \in \mathcal{K}^2$. Then*

$$\delta(K) = \delta_{\mathcal{L}}(K).$$

7.38 Theorem [Hales, 1998/2005].

$$\delta(B_3) = \delta_{\mathcal{L}}(B_3) = \frac{\pi}{3\sqrt{2}}.$$

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