

Combinatorics 2017 Fall

week8 note

Teaching by: Professor Xiande Zhang

Reference:

Extremal Combinatorics with applications in Computer Science. 2nd Edition. Stasys Jukna, Springer.

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Intersecting Family

Definition: $\mathcal{F} \subset 2^X$, if $A, B \in \mathcal{F}, A \cap B \neq \emptyset$.

Example

- fix $a \in X, \mathcal{F} = \{A \subset X : a \in A\}. |\mathcal{F}| = 2^{n-1}$.
- $|X| = n, n$ is odd. $\mathcal{F} = \{A \subset X : |A| > \frac{n}{2}\}, |\mathcal{F}| = \sum_{i=\frac{n+1}{2}}^n \binom{n}{i}$.

Fact: For any intersecting family $\mathcal{F} \subset 2^X, |\mathcal{F}| \leq 2^{n-1}$.

k-uniform: $\mathcal{F} \subset \binom{X}{k}$, intersecting family.

Example

- $\mathcal{F} = \{A \subset X : |A| = k\}. |\mathcal{F}| = \binom{n-1}{k-1}$.
- $n < 2k, |\mathcal{F}| = \binom{X}{k}$.

Theorem1(Erdős-Ko-Rado *EKR*) If $n \geq 2k, \mathcal{F} \subset \binom{X}{k}$ is intersecting family, then $|\mathcal{F}| \leq \binom{n-1}{k-1}$.

Proof: consider a cyclic permutation $\pi = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$. in total $(n-1)!$ cyclic permutation. say π contain a subset A if A appears as consecutive elements in π . Suppose $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and A is contained in π . $\exists 2(k-1)$ subsets B contain in π . $B \neq A, B \cap A \neq \emptyset$. These $2(k-1)$ subsets can be partitioned into $k-1$ pairs of disjoint subsets and \mathcal{F} contains at most one subset from each

pair. $N = \#(\pi, A), s.t. A \in \mathcal{F}$. Fix A, $\#\{\pi \text{ contain } A\} = k!(n-k)!$. $N = \sum_{A \in \mathcal{F}} k!(n-k)! = |\mathcal{F}|k!(n-k)! \leq \sum_{\pi} k = (n-k)!k$. \square

Theorem2(EKR) If $n > 2k$., the intersecting family $\mathcal{F} \subset \binom{X}{k}$ with $|\mathcal{F}| = \binom{n-1}{k-1}$ must be a star.

Proof:

- (1) $\forall \pi$ contain exactly k subsets of \mathcal{F} .
- (2) if $\pi = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$. π contains $A_j \in \mathcal{F}$. where $A_j = (a_j, \dots, a_{j+k-1})$. Fix π , let $A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_k = \{a_k\}$. If $A_0 \in \mathcal{F}, a_k \in A_0$. Aim: $\mathcal{F} = \binom{A_1 \cup A_k}{k}$

Claim1: $\forall B \in \binom{A_1 \cup A_k}{k}$ and $a_k \in B$, then $B \in \mathcal{F}$.

Proof: $B \cap A_1 = \{a_k, b_1, \dots, b_s\}, B \cap A_k = \{a_k, c_1, \dots, b_t\}, s + t + 1 = k$. $\pi = (A_1 \setminus B, b_1, \dots, b_s, c_1, \dots, b_t, A_k \setminus B \dots)$. By (2), $B \in \mathcal{F}$. \square

Claim2: $A_0 \subseteq (A_1 \cup A_k) \setminus \{a_k\}$.

Proof: If $A_0 \not\subseteq A_1 \cup A_k, |A_0 \cap (A_1 \cup A_k)| \leq k-1$. $\exists B \in A_1 \cup A_k, |B| = k, a_k \in B$. By Claim1, $B \in \mathcal{F}$. But $A_0 \cap B = \emptyset$. contradiction. \square

Claim3: $\binom{A_1 \cup A_k}{k} \subset \mathcal{F}$.

Proof: $\forall C \in \binom{A_1 \cup A_k}{k}, a_k \notin C, C \cap A_0 = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_s\}$. $\pi = (\dots b_1, \dots, b_s \dots), C \in \mathcal{F}$. \square

Claim4: $\mathcal{F} = \binom{A_1 \cup A_k}{k}$.

Proof: $\exists B \in \mathcal{F}, B \not\subseteq A_1 \cup A_k, |B \cap (A_1 \cup A_k)| \leq k-1$. Then $\exists C \subset A_1 \cup A_k, |C| = k, C \cup B = \emptyset$. But by Claim3, $C \in \mathcal{F}$. contradiction. \square

Fisher Inequality: Let $A_1, \dots, A_m \in 2^X$. be distinct subsets. if $|A_i \cap A_j| = k, \exists i \neq j$. then $m \leq |X| = n$.

Proof: \forall vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\langle x, y \rangle = x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n$. let v_1, \dots, v_m be columns of the incidence matrix of A_1, \dots, A_m , then it suffices to show that v_1, \dots, v_m are linearly independent over the reals. Assume the contrary, i.e. $\exists \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i v_i = 0$ with not all coefficients being zero. Since

$$\langle v_i, v_j \rangle = \begin{cases} |A_i|, & i = j \\ k, & i \neq j. \end{cases} \quad \text{then}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i v_i, \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j v_j \right\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^2 \langle v_i, v_i \rangle + \sum_{1 \leq i \neq j \leq m} \lambda_i \lambda_j \langle v_i, v_j \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^2 |A_i| + \sum_{1 \leq i \neq j \leq m} \lambda_i \lambda_j (|A_i| - k) + k \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^2 \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Note that $|A_i| \geq k$ for all i and $|A_i| = k$ for at most one i . since otherwise the intersection condition would not be satisfied.i.e if $\exists |A_i| \geq k, |A_j| = k$, then $|A_i \cap A_j| < k$. contradiction. If only one $\lambda_i \neq 0$, then $k(\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^2)^2 > 0$. Here $\text{RHS} > 0$. IF $\geq 2, \lambda_i \neq 0$, then $(\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^2)^2(|A_i| - k) > 0$. Both cases we have $\text{RHS} > 0$. a contradiction. \square

2017/11/17

Preliminaries A real symmetric matrix of order n .

- $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ different eigenvalues, $Au = \lambda_1 u, Av = \lambda_1 v$, then $(u, v) = 0$.
- if λ is an eigenvalue of A , then λ is a real number.
- if U is A -invariant subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , then U^\perp is also A -invariant.
- if $0 \neq U$ is A -invariant subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , then U contains a real eigenvalue of A .
- \mathbb{R}^n has an orthogonal basis consisting of eigen vectors of A .

Definition: Kneser graph $KG(n, k)$ for $n \geq 2k$ is a graph with vertex set $\binom{[n]}{k}$ s.t. $A, B \in \binom{[n]}{k}, A \sim B$ iff $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

Fact: an intersecting family $\mathcal{F} \subset \binom{[n]}{k}$ is an independent set in $KG(n, k)$. So EKR Theorem $\Leftrightarrow \alpha(KG(n, k)) \leq \binom{n-1}{k-1}$.

Definition: adjacency matrix $A_G = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$ of an n -vertex graph G is defined by $a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i \sim j \text{ in } G \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Definition: The eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$ of A_G is called the eigenvalues of the graph G , The eigenvalues v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n of A_G s.t. $A_G v_i = \lambda_i v_i, \|v_i\| = 1, v_i \perp v_j$ are called orthogonal eigenvectors of G .

Definition: A graph G is regular if all vertices have the same degree.

Theorem1(Hoffman's Theorem) If an n -vertex graph G is regular with eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$, then $\alpha(G) \leq n \frac{-\lambda_n}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_n}$.

Proof: Let v_1, \dots, v_n be the corresponding to orthogonal eigenvectors of $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$. let I be an independent set of G with $|I| = \alpha(G)$, let e_I be the column indicator vector of I , write $e_I = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i v_i$, Then $|I| = \langle e_I, e_I \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^2$. and $\alpha_i = \langle e_I, v_i \rangle$. since G is regular(all degree d), we have $\lambda_1 = d$ and $v_1 = (\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}})^T$. so $\alpha_1 = \langle e_I, v_1 \rangle = \frac{|I|}{\sqrt{n}}$. since I is an independent set of G , $e_I^T e_I = \sum_{i,j} x_i a_{ij} x_j = 0$. where $e_I = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$.

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= e_I^T A_G e_I = e_I^T \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i x_i v_i = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \lambda_i \langle e_I, v_i \rangle \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^2 \lambda_i \geq \alpha_1^2 \lambda_1 + (\alpha_2^2 + \dots + \alpha_n^2) \lambda_n \\
&= \left(\frac{|I|}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 \lambda_1 + \left(|I| - \frac{|I|^2}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \lambda_n \\
\Rightarrow 0 &\geq \frac{|I|^2}{\sqrt{n}} \lambda_1 + \left(|I| - \frac{|I|^2}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \lambda_n = |I| \left(\frac{|I|}{\sqrt{n}} \lambda_1 + \lambda_n - \frac{|I|}{\sqrt{n}} \lambda_n\right) \\
\Rightarrow \frac{|I|}{\sqrt{n}} \lambda_1 + \lambda_n - \frac{|I|}{\sqrt{n}} \lambda_n &\leq 0 \Rightarrow \frac{|I|}{\sqrt{n}} (\lambda_1 - \lambda_n) \leq -\lambda_n
\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow |I| \leq n \frac{-\lambda_n}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_n}$$

Lemma2: The eigenvalues of $\text{Kg}(n, k)$ are $u_j = (-1)^j \binom{n-k-j}{k-j}$ of multiplicity $\binom{n}{j} - \binom{n}{j-1}$ for every $0 \leq j \leq k$. □

Recall: Any intersecting family \mathcal{F} is an independent set of $\text{KG}(n, k)$. Let $\alpha(G) = \max |I|$ over all independent set I of G . Thus, EKR Theorem $\iff \alpha(\text{KG}(n, k)) \leq \binom{n-1}{k-1}$. The second proof of EKR Theorem: consider the eigenvalues of $\text{KG}(n, k)$, say $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_k \binom{n}{k}$,

where $\lambda_1 = \binom{n-k}{k} = u_0, \lambda_k \binom{n}{k} = -\binom{n-k-1}{k-1} = u_1$. By Hoffman's bound, $\alpha(\text{KG}(n, k)) \leq$

$$\binom{n}{k} \frac{\binom{n}{k}^{-\lambda}}{\binom{n}{k}^{\lambda_1 - \lambda}} = \binom{n}{k} \frac{\binom{n-k-1}{k-1}}{\binom{n-k}{k} + \binom{n-k-1}{k-1}} = \binom{n-1}{k-1}.$$

Let $X = [v]$ be a set of points.

Definition: A (v, k, λ) design over X is a collection D of distinct subsets of X (called blocks) such that:

- (1) $\forall B \in D, |B| = k$.
- (2) \forall pair of distinct points is contained in exactly λ blocks. Denote $b = |D|$, if we replace (2) by

- (2') every t -subset of X is contained in exactly λ blocks.

then D is called a $t - (v, k, \lambda)$ design. If $\lambda = 1$, a $t - (v, k, \lambda)$ design is called a Steiner system $S(t, k, v)$. If $b = v$, then a $t - (v, k, \lambda)$ design is called symmetric. A family of sets \mathcal{F} is called r -regular if every point lies in exactly r sets, r is the replication number of \mathcal{F} .

Theorem3: D is a (v, k, λ) design with b blocks, then D is r -regular satisfying $r(k - 1) = \lambda(v - 1)$ and $bv = vr$.

Proof: For any fixed $a \in X$, assume a occurs in r_a blocks, double count the cordinality of $S = \{(x, B) : B \in D; a, x \in B; x \neq a\}$

- there are $v-1$ possibilities of $x(x \neq a)$, and for each x there are exactly λ blocks B containing both x and a , Hence $|S| = (v - 1)\lambda$.
- for each of the r_a blocks B containing a , there are $k-1$ ways to choose an element $x \in B \setminus a$. so $|S| = r_a(k - 1)$.

Hence $r_a(k - 1) = (v - 1)\lambda$, r_a is independent of a i.e. D is regular. To prove $bv = vr$, double count $T = \{(X, B) : B \in D, x \in B\}$.

- $\forall x \in X, B$ can be chosen in r ways, so $|T| = vr$.
- $\forall B \in D, x$ can be chosen in k ways, so $|T| = nk$.

□

A finite linear space over a set X is a family \mathcal{L} of its subsets, called lines, such that:

- every line contains at least two points.
- any two points are on exactly one line.

Theorem4: If \mathcal{L} is a linear space over X , then $|\mathcal{L}| \geq |X|$, with equality holds iff any two lines share exactly one point. Proof:(Conway) Let $b = |\mathcal{L}| \geq 2$, and $v = |X|$, $\forall x \in X$, let r_x be the replication number, i.e. the number of lines in \mathcal{L} containing x . If $x \notin L$, then $r_x \geq |L|$ since there are $|L|$ lines joining x to the points on L , suppose $b \leq v$, for $x \notin L$, we have $b(v - |L|) = bv - b|L| \geq bv - v|L| \geq v(b - r_x)$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} b &= \sum_{L \in \mathcal{L}} 1 = \sum_{L \in \mathcal{L}} \sum_{x: x \notin L} \frac{1}{v - |L|} \leq \frac{b}{v} \sum_{L \in \mathcal{L}} \sum_{x: x \notin L} \frac{1}{b - r_x} \\ &= \frac{b}{v} \sum_{x: x \notin L} \sum_{L \in \mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{b - r_x} = \frac{b}{v} \sum_{x \in X} 1 = b. \end{aligned}$$

This implies all inequalities are equalities so that $b=v$. and $v_x = |L|$ whenever $x \notin L$, i.e. any line containing x share one point with L . □