

Under a constraint or a collection of constraints find the maximum number of sets satisfying the given constraint(s).

### Notations

1.  $[n] = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

2.  $\binom{[n]}{k} =_{\text{def}}$  the collection of  $k$ -subsets (all) of  $[n]$ .

3.  $\binom{n}{k} = \left| \binom{[n]}{k} \right|$ .

4.  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  is a set of  $n$  elements and " $\leq$ " is a partial order defined on  $X$ .  $\langle X, \leq \rangle$  is called a partial ordered set, Poset in short.

(\*) " $\leq$ " is a partial order <sup>of  $X$</sup>  if (i)  $a \leq a \forall a \in X$ , (ii)  $a \leq b$  (Reflexivity)

and  $b \leq a$  implies that  $a = b, \forall a, b \in X$ , and (iii)  $a \leq b$ , (Anti-symmetry)

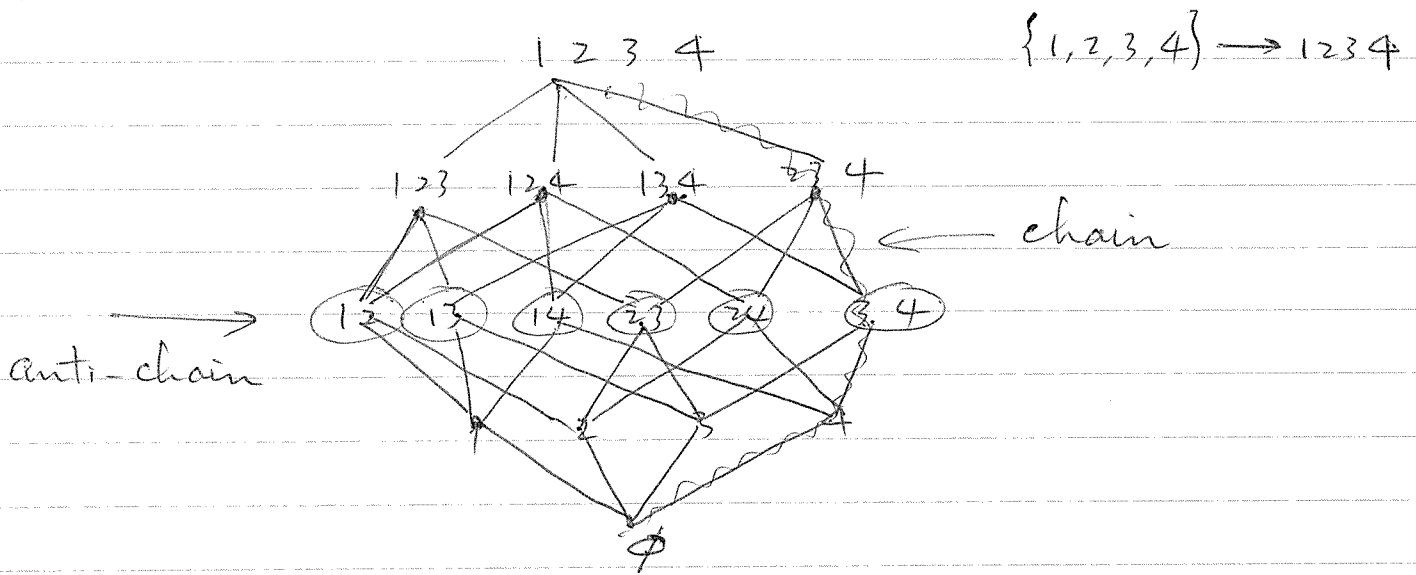
$b \leq c$ , implies that  $a \leq c \forall a, b, c \in X$ . (Transitivity)

(\*\*) " $\leq$ " is a total order of  $Y$  provided any two <sup>distinct</sup> elements

in  $Y$ ,  $y_i$  and  $y_j$ , either  $y_i \leq y_j$  or  $y_j \leq y_i$  but not both. ( $y_i$  and  $y_j$  are comparable.)

(\*) A subset of a poset in which no two distinct are comparable is called an anti-chain. On the other hand, a totally ordered set is called a chain.

Example (Poset with set-containment)



Forbidden poset problem

Given a configuration of posets, say  $\mathbb{P}_2 = \mathbb{I} :$  (y ≤ x),

find the maximum number of sets in  $2^{[n]}$  such that the induced partial ordered set contains no sub-poset  $(\mathbb{I})$  which is given.

(\*\*) We can change  $\mathbb{I}$  to  $\dots$ . For example,  $\mathbb{P}_3 :$  ,

or (Y or  $S_3$ )  
Star

The result solving  $P_2$  case is known as the Sperner's Theorem.

### Sperner's Theorem

Consider the collection of all subsets of  $[n]$ . The maximum number of subsets which do not contain each other is equal to  $\binom{n}{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor}$ . (The maximum anti-chain problem.)

Proof. Let  $A$  be the collection of subsets which attains the

maximum. Furthermore, let  $a_k$  be the number of sets in  $S$

whose size is  $k$ . Hence,  $|A| = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k$ . (Note that  $a_i$ 's may be

zero.) Since  $\binom{[n]}{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor}$  is clearly an anti-chain,  $|A| \geq \binom{n}{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor}$ . So,

it suffices to prove  $|A| \leq \binom{n}{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor}$ .

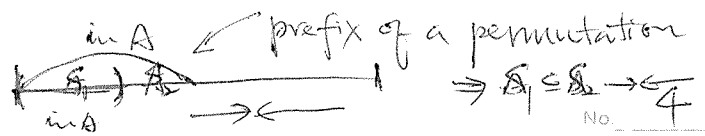
Claim (LYM inequality)

Lubell-Yamamoto-Meshalkin  $\sum_{k=0}^n a_k \binom{n}{k}^{-1} \leq 1$ .

Consider the set of permutations of  $[n]$ . Clearly, there are  $n!$ . Now, for each set  $S$  in  $A$ , we associate this set with

$|S|!(n-|S|)!$  permutations by taking  $\left( \begin{array}{c|c} S & [n] \setminus S \\ \hline \alpha(S) & \alpha([n] \setminus S) \end{array} \right) = \alpha$ .

(The first  $|S|$  elements of this permutation are exactly  $S$ .)



Note that each permutation can only be associated with a single set in  $A$ . (?)

$$\sum_{S \in A} |S|!(n-|S|)! = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \cdot k!(n-k)! \leq n!$$

This implies that  $\sum_{k=0}^n a_k \cdot \frac{k!(n-k)!}{n!} \leq 1$  and the proof follows.

$$\text{Now, since } 1 \geq \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{a_k}{\binom{n}{k}} \geq \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{a_k}{\binom{n}{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor}}, \quad \binom{n}{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \geq \sum_{k=0}^n a_k = |A|.$$

Example  $n=6$

$\{1, 2, 3\}$	$\{1, 3, 4\}$
(1 2 3)   (4 5 6)	(1 3 4)   (2 5 6)
(1 2)   (3)   (4 5 6)	(1 4)   (3)   (2 5 6)
(1 3)   (2)   (4 5 6)	(1 3)   (4)   (2 5 6)
(1 3 2)   (4 5 6)	(3 4)   (1)   (2 5 6) $\leftrightarrow \{3, 4\}$
(2 3)   (1)   (4 5 6)	(1 4 3)   (2 5 6)
(1)   (3)   (2)   (4 5 6)	(1)   (4)   (3)   (2 5 6)
⋮	⋮
⋮	⋮
⋮	⋮

Exercise (Bonus) 20 points

Find the maximum number of subsets in  $2^{[n]}$  such that their

induced poset does not contain  $P_3$ .

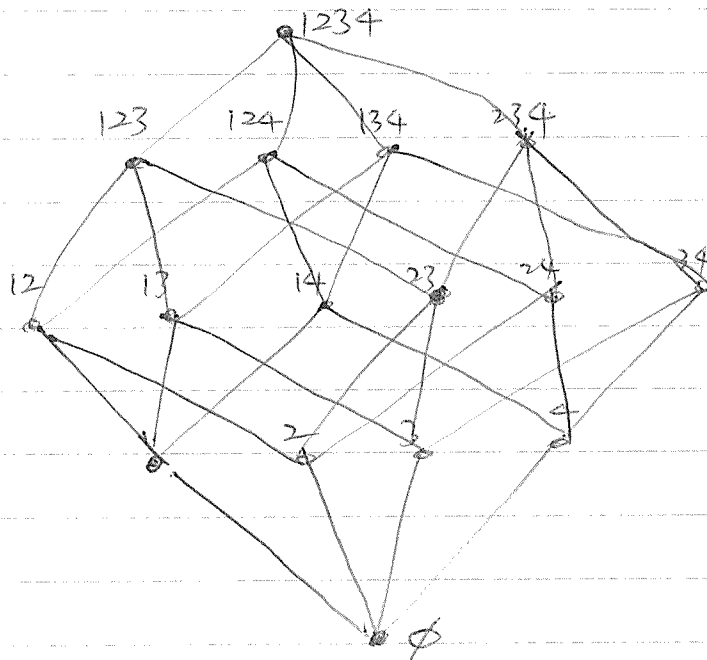
A good guess:  $\binom{n}{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} + \binom{n}{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor + 1}$ . In fact,  $ex_p(n; P_3) \geq P(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor, \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor + 1)$ .

$$P(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor, \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor + 1) = \begin{cases} 2 \binom{n}{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd; and} \\ \binom{n}{\frac{n}{2}} + \binom{n}{\frac{n}{2} + 1} & \text{if } n \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

We may use a graph to depict a partial ordered set (Poset),  $\langle S, \leq \rangle$ . It is known as the Hasse-diagram. Mainly if  $a, b \in S$  and  $a \leq b$ , then the vertex representing  $b$  is higher than  $a$  as shown in the following:



So, for example,  $\langle 2^{\{1,2,3,4\}}, \leq \rangle$  can be represented as follows.



### Forbidden Poset Problem

Find the maximum number of subsets such that its induced subgraph "does not contain a given graph," (elements)

for example,  $P_2, P_3, \dots, Y, N, \dots$

↑ Not  $P_4$  (in the sense of poset).

Maximum

Another beautiful result is the collection of sets  $B_{n,r}$  of size  $r$  which are

mutually intersecting, i.e.,  $\forall S_1, S_2 \in B_{n,r}$  (distinct)  $S_1 \cap S_2 \neq \emptyset$ .  $B_{n,r}$  is called an  $r$ -uniform intersecting family defined on  $[n]$ .

Theorem  $|B_{n,r}| = \binom{n-1}{r-1} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . (EKR Theorem)

Proof. Let  $B = \{S \subseteq [n] \mid S \text{ is } r\text{-uniform and } n \in S\}$ . Then,  $B$  is an intersecting

family of  $[n]$  since each set contains the element  $n$ . Hence,

$|B_{n,r}| \geq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$ . Next, we prove that  $|B_{n,r}| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$ .

Observe that if we let  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  be a cyclic permutation of  $[n]$ , then this cycle contains at most  $r$  sets of  $B_{n,r}$ . For

example,  $n=8$  and  $r=3$ , let  $(3, 1, 8, 2, 7, 5, 6, 4)$  be an arbitrary

cyclic permutation. Now, if  $\{8, 2, 7\} \in B_{8,3}$ , then we have two

more possible sets  $\{1, 8, 2\}$  and  $\{2, 7, 5\}$ . So, for general  $n$ , we have

at most  $r \cdot (n-1)!$  sets in  $B_{n,r}$ . By the same idea in Sperner's

Theorem, each set in  $B_{n,r}$  can be associated with  $r!(n-r)!$

permutations. So,  $|B_{n,r}| \cdot r!(n-r)! \leq r \cdot (n-1)!$ , and

thus  $|B_{n,r}| \leq \frac{(n-1)!}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} = \binom{n-1}{r-1}$ . □

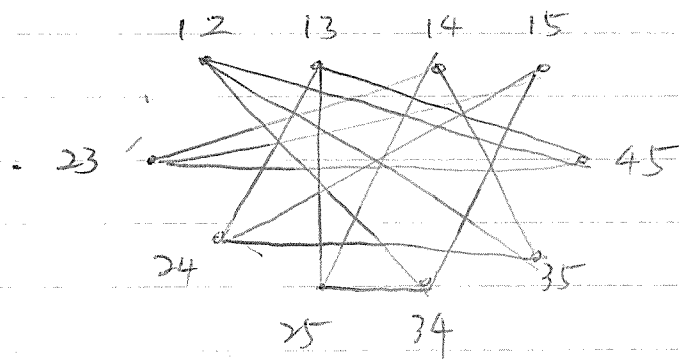
Example  $|B_{7,3}| = \binom{7}{3} = 35.$

Another good problem to study related to sets.

Let  $n = 2t + 1$ . Then, we may define a graph  $G$  as follows:

$V(G) = \binom{[n]}{t}$  and two vertices are adjacent if and only if their intersection is an empty set.

Example  $n = 5, t = 2$



This graph is in fact the Petersen graph.

- (•) The graph  $G$  is known as an order graph of order  $n$ , denoted by  $O_n$
- (••) Study the structure of  $O_n$  is an important problem in both Graph Theory and Design Theory.

If we further require that any two sets in  $B_{n,r}$  can have at most one element in common, thus exactly one element in common, then the collection of such sets in  $B_{n,r}$ , denoted by

$B_{n,r}^{(1)}$  has at most  $\frac{n(n-1)}{r(r-1)}$  sets.

To see this, we notice that any pair of elements in  $[n]$  can occur in at most one  $r$ -set of  $B_{n,r}^{(1)}$ . Hence, the pairs

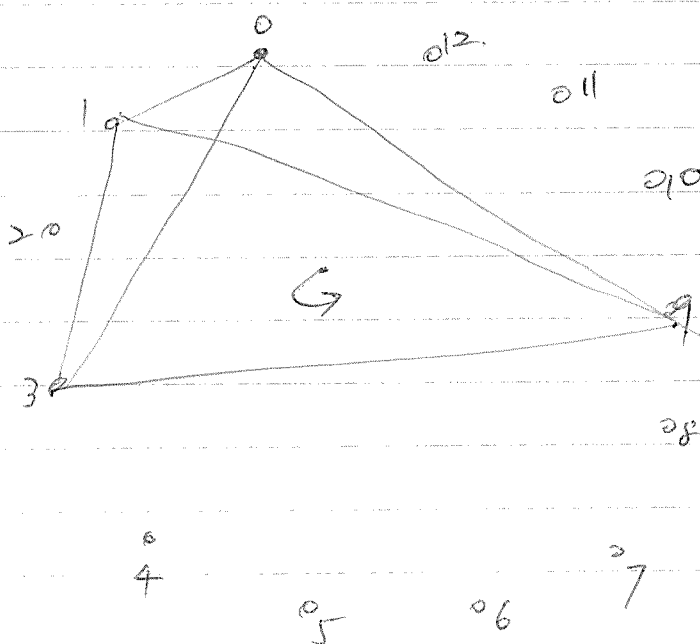
we have in total is  $n(n-1)/2 = \binom{n}{2}$  and each  $r$ -set can

use  $\binom{r}{2} = \frac{r(r-1)}{2}$  pairs, this implies that  $|B_{n,r}^{(1)}| \leq \frac{\binom{n}{2}}{\binom{r}{2}}$ .

In fact, for some  $n$  and  $r$ , the equality does hold.

For example,  $B_{7,3}^{(1)} = \{124, 235, 346, 457, 561, 672, 713\}$  (Fano

plane) and  $|B_{13,4}^{(1)}| = \frac{13 \cdot 12}{4 \cdot 3} = 13$ .  $B_{13,4}^{(1)} = \{ \{0, 1, 3, 9\} + i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}_3 \}$



We can check any two of them have one element in common!