## Results in Combinatorics

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# Chapter 1

### Results on Families of Sets

**Lemma 1.1 (Lubell-Yamamoto-Meshalkin).** Let n be a positive integer and  $\mathcal{F}$  be a family of subsets of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  such that no set in  $\mathcal{F}$  is contained in some other set in  $\mathcal{F}$ . Then,

$$\sum_{A \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{\binom{n}{|A|}} \le 1$$

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{F} = \{A_1, \ldots, A_m\}$  and  $\pi_i$  be the set of all permutations of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  such that the first  $|A_i|$  elements of  $\pi_i$  are the elements of  $A_i$ . It is not hard to see that  $|\pi_i| = |A_i|!(n-|A_i|)!$ . Further, we note that any permutation  $\sigma$  of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  may be in at most one of the  $\pi_i$ 's. Thus, double counting the pairs  $(\pi_i, \sigma)$ , we obtain:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} |A_i|!(n-|A_i|)! \le n!$$

and we have the desired conclusion.

**Theorem 1.2 (Bollobás, 1965).** Let  $\{A_1, \ldots, A_m\}$  and  $\{B_1, \ldots, B_m\}$  be two families of subsets of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  such that

- $A_i \cap B_i = \emptyset$  for all  $1 \le i \le m$
- $A_i \cap B_j = \emptyset$  for all  $1 \le i, j \le m$  and  $i \ne j$

Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{\binom{|A_i| + |B_i|}{|A_i|}} \le 1$$

*Proof.* Let  $\pi_i$  be the set of all permutations of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  such that the elements of  $A_i$  occur before the elements of  $B_i$  (note that this is possible since  $A_i \cap B_i = \emptyset$ ). Then

$$|\pi_i| = \binom{n}{|A_i| + |B_i|} \cdot |A_i|! \cdot |B_i|! \cdot (n - |A_i| - |B_i|)! = \frac{n!}{\binom{|A_i| + |B_i|}{|A_i|}}$$

Finally, we note that for  $i \neq j$ ,  $\pi_i \cap \pi_j = \emptyset$ , which is not hard to show. This implies that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} |\pi_i| \le n!$$

giving us the desired conclusion.

**Lemma 1.3.** Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be an r-uniform family of sets. Such that the intersection of any k sets, with  $k \leq r + 1$  is non-empty. Then, the intersection of all sets in  $\mathcal{F}$  is non-empty.

*Proof.* Suppose not. Let  $\mathcal{F} = \{A_1, \ldots, A_m\}$  be a minimal counter-example to the statement. Obviously,  $m \geq r+2$  and for each i,  $\bigcup_{j \neq i} A_j$  is non-empty (since  $\mathcal{F}$  is a minimal counter-example) and thus, let  $b_i$  be one such element in said intersection. Suppose all  $b_i$ 's are distinct. Then,  $\{b_2, \ldots, b_m\} \subseteq A_1$ , implying that  $|A_1| \geq m-1 \geq r+1$ , which is not possible. Thus, there must exist indices i and j with  $i \neq j$  such that  $b_i = b_j$ . It is not hard to conclude from here that all sets in  $\mathcal{F}$  must contain  $b_i$ .

**Theorem 1.4 (Erdös-Ko-Rado, 1961).** Let n be a positive integer, X be an n-element set and  $k \le n/2$  be a positive integer. Further, let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a k-uniform, intersecting family of subsets of X. Then

$$|\mathcal{F}| \le \binom{n-1}{k-1}$$

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{F} = \{A_1, \ldots, A_m\}$ . Without loss of generality, let  $X = \{1, \ldots, n\}$  and  $\pi_i$  be the set of all cyclic permutations of X in which the elements of  $A_i$  occur consecutively. Of course,  $|\pi_i| = k!(n-k)!$  for each  $1 \le i \le m$ . Further, we note that any cyclic permutation of X may occur in at most k of the  $\pi_i$ 's. (This is an interesting argument). Then, double counting the pair  $(C, \pi_i)$  where C is a cyclic permutation, we have

$$m \cdot k!(n-k)! \leq k \cdot (n-1)!$$

this completes the proof.

**Theorem 1.5 (Benny Sudakov).** Let  $\mathscr{A} = \{A_1, \dots, A_m\}$  and  $\mathscr{B} = \{B_1, \dots, B_p\}$  be families of distinct subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  such that  $|A_i \cap B_j|$  is an odd number for all permissible i and j. Then  $mp \le 2^{n-1}$ .

# **Chapter 2**

### Combinatorial Nullstellensatz

**Theorem 2.1 (Alon-Tarsi, 1992).** Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field and  $f \in \mathbb{F}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ . Suppose  $\deg(f) = d = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i$  and the coefficient of  $\prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{d_i}$  is non-zero. Let  $L_1, \ldots, L_n$  be subsets of  $\mathbb{F}$  with  $|L_i| > d_i$ . Then there exist  $a_i \in L_i$  for each i such that  $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* The proof is by induction on n. The base case with n = 1 follows from the fact that a polynomial of degree n may have at most n zeros in a field, counting multiplicity. Suppose now that n > 1. Let us assume that  $|L_n| = d_n + 1$ . Define the polynomial h(x) as follows:

$$\prod_{t\in L_n}(x_n-t)=x^{d_n+1}-h(x)$$

One notes that for all  $t \in L_n$ ,  $h(t) = t^{d_n+1}$ . Let us now define  $\tilde{f}$  as the remainder obtained on dividing f by  $x_n^{d_n+1} - h(x_n)$ . We first note that the coefficient of  $\prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{d_i}$  does not change. Further, the degree of  $x_n$  in any term in  $\tilde{f}$  is at most  $d_n$ . We may now group the terms of  $\tilde{f}$  with respect to powers of  $x_n$ , that is

$$\tilde{f}(x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{d_n} g_i(x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1}) x_n^i$$

Let us now focus on  $g_{d_n}(x_1,...,x_{n-1})$ , in which the coefficient of the term  $\prod_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i^{d_i}$  is equal to the coefficient of the term  $\prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{d_i}$  in  $\tilde{f}(x_1,...,x_n)$ , which we have concluded to be non-zero. Therefore, due to the induction hypothesis, there must

exist  $a_1 \in L_1, \dots, a_{n-1} \in L_{n-1}$  such that  $g_{d_n}(a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}) \neq 0$ . Finally, we can choose a suitable  $x_n$  in  $L_n$  such that the polynomial

$$\sum_{i=0}^{d_n} g_i(a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1}) x_n^i$$

is non-zero, since its leading coefficient is non-zero. This finishes the proof.

#### **Theorem 2.2 (Cauchy-Davenport).** Let p be a prime and A, $B \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Then

$$|A + B| \ge \min\{p, |A| + |B| - 1\}$$

where

$$A + B = \{a + b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$$

*Proof.* First, suppose |A| + |B| > p. Then, for any  $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , the sets A, g - B must intersect. Suppose now that  $|A| + |B| \le p$ . Assume for the sake of contradiction that the cardinality of C = A + B is less than |A| + |B| - 1. Consider the polynoimal:

$$f(x,y) = \prod_{c \in C} (x + y - c)$$

the degree of this polynoimal is  $|C| \le |A| + |B| - 2$ , as a result, there exist  $t_A, t_B \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $t_A + t_B = |C|$ ,  $t_A \le |A| - 1$ ,  $t_B \le |B| - 1$  and the coefficient of  $x^{t_A}y^{t_B}$  is non-zero, this is because any binomial coefficient of the form  $\binom{|C|}{x}$  is not divisible by p. Then, due to the Combinatorial Nullstellensatz, there exists  $(a, b) \in A \times B$  such that  $f(a, b) \ne 0$ , a contradiction. This finishes the proof.

#### **Example (IMO 2007/6).** Let n be a positive integer. Consider

$$S = \{(x, y, z) \mid x, y, z \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}, x + y + z > 0\}$$

as a set of  $(n + 1)^3 - 1$  points in the three-dimensional space. Determine the smallest possible number of planes, the union of which contains S but does not include (0,0,0).

*Proof.* The answer is 3n, with the planes being x + y + z = i for  $1 \le i \le 3n$ . Suppose k < 3n is achievable by the set of planes  $\{a_ix + b_iy + c_iz - d_i = 0\}$ . Consider now the polynomial:

$$P(x,y,z) = \alpha \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x-i)(y-i)(z-i) - \prod_{i=1}^{k} (a_i x + b_i y + c_i z - d_i)$$

with  $\alpha$  chosen such that P(0,0,0)=0. First, note that  $\deg(P)=3n$ , since we have assumed k<3n and the coefficient of  $x^ny^nz^n$  is  $\alpha\neq 0$  since none of the  $d_i$ 's can be zero. Then, due to the Combinatorial Nullstellensatz on the three sets  $L_x=L_y=L_z=\{0,\ldots,n\}$ , we may conclude that there is a solution to  $P(x,y,z)\neq 0$  in  $L_x\times L_y\times L_z$ , a contradiction.

#### **Theorem 2.3 (Erdös-Heillbronn).** Let p be a prime and $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Then

$$|A + A| \ge \min\{p, 2|A| - 3\}$$

*Proof.* We may suppose that 2a - 3 < p where a = |A| and let C = A + A with |C| = m. Consider the polynoimal

$$f(x,y) = (x-y) \prod_{c \in C} (x+y-c)$$

of degree m + 1. The coefficient of  $x^{a-1}y^{m-a+2}$  is

$$\binom{m}{a-2} - \binom{m}{a-1} = \left(\frac{m-2a+3}{m-a+2}\right) \binom{m}{a-2}$$

Now, suppose that m < 2a - 3, then the coefficient is non-zero and m - a + 2 < a - 1 < a. As a result, there is a solution  $(a_1, a_2)$  such that  $f(a_1, a_2) \neq 0$  and thus  $a_1 \neq a_2$ . A contradiction. This finishes the proof.

## Miscellaneous

**Example.** Let  $\sigma \in \text{Sym}(\{1,...,n\})$ , and let  $\varepsilon(\sigma) = 1$  if  $\sigma$  is even and -1 otherwise. Let  $f(\sigma)$  be the number of fixed points of  $\sigma$ . Prove that

$$\sum_{\sigma} \frac{\varepsilon(\sigma)}{1 + f(\sigma)} = (-1)^{n+1} \frac{n}{n+1}$$

*Proof.* Let  $A_{n \times n}$  be the matrix such that

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} x & i = j \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We see that

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma} \varepsilon(\sigma) x^{f(\sigma)}$$

but we know that  $det(A) = (x - 1)^{n-1}(x + n - 1)$ . Then, we may write

$$\int_0^1 \sum_{\sigma} \varepsilon(\sigma) x^{f(\sigma)} dx = \int_0^1 (x - 1)^{n - 1} (x + n - 1) dx$$
$$\sum_{\sigma} \frac{\varepsilon(\sigma)}{1 + f(\sigma)} = (-1)^{n + 1} \frac{n}{n + 1}$$

This finishes the proof.

**Example (Putnam 2016/B4).** Let A be a  $2n \times 2n$  matrix, with entries chosen independently at random. Every entry is chosen to be 0 or 1, each with probability 1/2. Find the expected value of  $\det(A - A^T)$  (as a function of n), where  $A^T$  is the transpose of A.