

# CROSS-INTERSECTING PAIRS OF HYPERGRAPHS

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ABSTRACT. Two hypergraphs  $H_1, H_2$  are called *cross-intersecting* if  $e_1 \cap e_2 \neq \emptyset$  for every pair of edges  $e_1 \in H_1, e_2 \in H_2$ . Each of the hypergraphs is then said to *block* the other. Given integers  $n, r, m$  we determine the maximal size of a sub-hypergraph of  $[n]^r$  (meaning that it is  $r$ -partite, with all sides of size  $n$ ) for which there exists a blocking sub-hypergraph of  $[n]^r$  of size  $m$ . The answer involves a self-similar sequence, first studied by Knuth. We also study the same question with  $\binom{[n]}{r}$  replacing  $[n]^r$ . These results yield new proofs of some known Erdős-Ko-Rado type theorems.

## 1. BLOCKERS IN $r$ -PARTITE HYPERGRAPHS

**1.1. Blockers.** For a set  $A$  and a number  $r$  let  $\binom{A}{r}$  be the set of all subsets of size  $r$  of  $A$ , in other words the complete  $r$ -uniform hypergraph on  $A$ . Given numbers  $r$  and  $n$  let  $[n] = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , and let  $[n]^r$  be the complete  $r$ -partite hypergraph with all sides being equal to  $[n]$ . Let  $U$  be either  $\binom{[n]}{r}$  or  $[n]^r$ , and let  $F$  be a sub-hypergraph of  $U$ . The *blocker*  $B(F) = B(U, F)$  of  $F$  is the set of those edges of  $U$  that meet all edges of  $F$ . For a number  $t$  we denote by  $b_p(t)$  (resp.  $b_c(t)$  - reference to the uniformity  $r$  is suppressed in both notations) the maximal size of  $|B([n]^r, F)|$  (resp.  $|B(\binom{[n]}{r}, F)|$ ), where  $F$  ranges over all sets of  $t$  edges in  $[n]^r$  (resp.  $\binom{[n]}{r}$ ). The subscript  $p$  alludes at “partite”, and the subscript  $c$  alludes at “complete”. The aim of this paper is to calculate  $b_p(t)$  and  $b_c(t)$  for all values of  $n, r$  and  $t$ . As a side benefit, this will enable us to give new proofs of some well-known Erdős-Ko-Rado type results.

**1.2. Cross intersecting versions of the Erdős-Ko-Rado theorem.** The famous Erdős-Ko-Rado (EKR) theorem [9] states that if  $r \leq \frac{n}{2}$  and a hypergraph  $H \subseteq \binom{[n]}{r}$  has more than  $\binom{n-1}{r-1}$  edges, then  $H$  contains two disjoint sets. Many extensions of this theorem have been proved for pairs of hypergraphs. In [17, 20] the following was proved:

**Theorem 1.1.** *If  $r \leq \frac{n}{2}$ , and  $H_1, H_2 \subseteq \binom{[n]}{r}$  satisfy  $|H_1||H_2| > \binom{n-1}{r-1}^2$  (in particular if  $|H_i| > \binom{n-1}{r-1}$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ ), then there exist disjoint edges,  $e_1 \in H_1, e_2 \in H_2$ .*

In [17] this was also extended to hypergraphs of different uniformities. Versions of this result were proved for cross  $t$ -intersecting pairs of hypergraphs, in [13, 21, 23].

The EKR theory has been also extended to sets living in  $[n]^r$ , rather than  $\binom{[n]}{r}$ . An easy observation is that any subset of  $[n]^r$  of size larger than  $n^{r-1}$  contains two disjoint edges. This can be proved from the fact that  $[n]^r$  is the union of  $n^{r-1}$  perfect matchings. More interesting are cross-intersecting type results:

**Theorem 1.2.** *A pair  $F_1, F_2$  of subsets of  $[n]^r$  satisfying  $|F_1| > n^{r-1}$  and  $|F_2| \geq n^{r-1}$  has a rainbow matching.*

And the even stronger:

**Theorem 1.3.** *If  $F_1, F_2 \subseteq [n]^r$  and  $|F_1||F_2| > n^{2(r-1)}$  then the pair  $(F_1, F_2)$  has a rainbow matching.*

Theorem 1.3 was proved in [18]. It was generalized to cross  $t$ -intersecting pairs of hypergraphs and to hypergraphs of different uniformities in [1, 3, 4, 13, 19, 22] ([1, 22] use spectral methods).

At the end of the next section we shall use the techniques of the present paper to give new proofs for these results.

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The research of the first author was supported by BSF grant no. 2006099, by GIF grant no. I-879-124.6/2005, by the Technion's research promotion fund, and by the Discount Bank chair. The research of the second author was supported by BSF grant no. 2006099, and by ISF grants Nos. 779/08, 859/08 and 938/06.

## 2. A SELF-SIMILAR SEQUENCE

Denote the sides of  $[n]^r$  by  $V_1, \dots, V_r$  (so, all  $V_i$ 's are of size  $n$ ). Choose one vertex  $v_i$  from each  $V_i$ . Let  $\Psi_r$  be the set of (possibly empty) sequences  $\sigma$  of length at most  $r - 1$  consisting of  $\wedge$ 's and  $\vee$ 's. Let  $\Sigma_r = \Psi_r \cup \{\alpha, \omega\}$ , where  $\alpha = \alpha_r$  and  $\omega = \omega_r$  are new elements. Note that  $|\Sigma_r| = 2^r + 1$ . We define hypergraphs  $F_r(\sigma)$  for all  $\sigma \in \Sigma_r$ , as follows. Let  $F_r(\alpha) = \emptyset$  and  $F_r(\omega) = [n]^r$ . For a sequence  $\sigma \in \Psi_r$  having length  $m \geq 0$ , and whose  $j$ -th term is denoted by  $\sigma_j$  ( $j \leq m$ ), let:

$$F_r(\sigma) = \{e \in [n]^r \mid v_1 \in e \sigma_1(v_2 \in e \sigma_2(v_3 \in e \dots \sigma_m(v_{m+1} \in e) \dots))\}$$

For example,  $F_r(\emptyset) = \{e \in [n]^r \mid v_1 \in e\}$  and  $F_r(\wedge, \wedge, \vee)$  is the set of edges  $e \in [n]^r$  satisfying:

$$v_1 \in e \wedge (v_2 \in e \wedge (v_3 \in e \vee (v_4 \in e)))$$

Let  $f_r(\sigma) = |F_r(\sigma)|$ . Note that  $\Psi_{r-1} \subseteq \Psi_r$ .

**Lemma 2.1.**

If  $\sigma \in \Psi_{r-1}$  then

- (1)  $f_r(\sigma) = n f_{r-1}(\sigma)$
- (2)  $f_r(\wedge, \sigma) = f_{r-1}(\sigma)$
- (3)  $f_r(\vee, \sigma) = n^{r-1} + (n-1) f_{r-1}(\sigma)$

Part 1 is true since  $F_r(\sigma) = F_{r-1}(\sigma) \times V_r$ . Part 2 is true since an edge in  $F_r(\wedge, \sigma)$  is obtained from an edge  $f \in F_{r-1}(\sigma)$ , with indices shifted by 1, by adding  $v_1$ . Part 3 is true since  $F_r(\vee, \sigma) = \{v_1\} \times V_2 \times \dots \times V_r \cup (V_1 \setminus \{v_1\}) \times F_{r-1}(\sigma)$  (where, again, edges in  $F_{r-1}(\sigma)$  have their indices shifted by 1).

Order  $f_r(\sigma)$  by size:

$$0 = f_r(\alpha) < f_r(\sigma_1) < f_r(\sigma_2) < \dots < f_r(\sigma_{2^r}) = n^r$$

Let  $N(i) = f_r(\sigma_i)$  ( $0 \leq i \leq 2^r$ ) (the mention of  $r$  is suppressed in this notation).

*Example 2.2.*

- (1)  $N(0) = f_r(\alpha) = 0$ .
- (2)  $N(1) = f_r(\wedge, \wedge, \dots, \wedge)$  ( $r - 1$  times), which is 1.
- (3)  $N(2) = f_r(\wedge, \wedge, \dots, \wedge)$  ( $r - 2$  times), which is  $n$ .
- (4)  $N(2^{r-1}) = f_r(\emptyset) = n^{r-1}$ .
- (5)  $N(2^r) = f_r(\omega) = n^r$ .

In accord we order  $\Sigma_r$  as  $\sigma(i)$  ( $0 \leq i \leq 2^r$ ). For example  $\sigma(0) = \alpha$ ,  $\sigma(2^r) = \omega$ . We also define the inverse function, which we name “ $i$ ”: if  $\sigma(q) = \tau$ , then  $i(\tau) = q$ .

Clearly, for every  $\beta, \gamma, \delta \in \Psi_r$  such that  $(\beta, \wedge, \gamma)$  and  $(\beta, \vee, \delta)$  belong to  $\Psi_r$  we have:

$$(1) \quad i((\beta, \wedge, \gamma)) < i(\beta) < i((\beta, \vee, \delta))$$

The elements of  $\Psi_r$  can be viewed as the nodes of a binary tree, the depth of a node being the length of the sequence (so the root, with depth 0, is the empty sequence). The order on  $\Psi_r$ , uniquely determined by (1), is known as the “in-order depth first search” on the tree, where  $\wedge$  (“left”) precedes  $\vee$  (“right”).

This description of the order on  $\Psi_r$  entails an explicit formula for  $\sigma(i)$ . Represent  $i \neq 0, 2^r$  in binary form:  $i = 2^{k_0} + 2^{k_1} + \dots + 2^{k_s}$ , where  $k_0 > k_1 > \dots > k_s$ . Then  $\sigma(i)$  is of length  $r - k_s - 1$ , and it consists of  $s$  symbols of  $\vee$  and  $r - k_s - 1 - s$  symbols of  $\wedge$ . It starts with  $r - k_0 - 1$  (possibly zero)  $\wedge$ 's; if  $s > 0$  these are followed by a  $\vee$ ; this is followed by  $k_0 - k_1 - 1$  (possibly zero)  $\wedge$ 's, and if  $s > 1$  this is followed by a  $\vee$ , followed by  $k_1 - k_2 - 1$   $\wedge$ 's, and so forth.

For example,  $\sigma_6(13) = \sigma_6(2^3 + 2^2 + 2^0) = (\wedge, \wedge, \vee, \vee, \wedge)$ .

The numbers  $N(i)$  can also be written explicitly:

$$N(i) = \sum_{s \leq i} n^{k_s} (n-1)^s$$

The explicit description of  $\sigma(i)$  and the formula for  $N(i)$  will not be used below, and hence their proofs are omitted.

*Example 2.3.* The values of  $N_3$  are:

$$0, 1, n, n+(n-1), n+n(n-1) = n^2, n^2+(n-1), n^2+(n-1)n, n^2+(n-1)(2n-1), n^2+(n-1)n^2 = n^3.$$

**Lemma 2.4.**

- (1) For  $i \leq 2^{r-1}$  we have  $N_r(i) = N_{r-1}(i)$ , namely the sequence  $N_{r-1}(i)$  is an initial segment of  $N_r(i)$ .
- (2)  $\sigma(2^p) = (\wedge, \wedge, \dots, \wedge)$ , a sequence of  $r-p-1$   $\wedge$ 's, and  $N(2^p) = n^p$ .
- (3) For  $i < 2^p$  the sequences  $\sigma(i)$  are of the form  $(\sigma(2^p), \wedge, \beta)$  ( $\beta$  being some sequence), and for  $2^p < i < 2^{p+1}$  the sequences  $\sigma(i)$  are of the form  $(\sigma(2^p), \vee, \beta)$ .
- (4) For  $p \leq r-1$  and  $i \leq 2^p$ , we have

$$N(2^p + i) = N(2^p) + (n-1)N(i) = n^p + (n-1)N(i)$$

Part 1 is true by part 2 of Lemma 2.1, since  $\sigma(1), \dots, \sigma(2^{r-1}-1)$  all start with a  $\wedge$ . Parts 2 and 3 follow from Equation (1) and the remark following it. Part 4 follows from part 3 of Lemma 2.1.

Part 4 says that for fixed  $n$ , the numbers  $N_r(i)$  have a self-similar pattern. Each sequence  $N_r$  is obtained from the sequence  $N_{r-1}$  by concatenating it with the sequence  $M$  defined by  $M(i) = n^r + (n-1)N_{r-1}(i)$ . The concatenation includes also an identification of elements: the first element of  $M$  is identified with the last element of  $N_{r-1}$ , both being equal to  $n^{r-1}$ . This entails:

**Lemma 2.5.** *If  $b, c \leq 2^p$  then  $N(2^p + b) - N(2^p + c) = (n-1)(N(b) - N(c))$ .*

**2.1. Shifting.** *Shifting* is an operation on a hypergraph  $H$ , defined with respect to a specific linear ordering " $<$ " on its vertices. For  $x < y$  in  $V(H)$  define  $s_{xy}(e) = e \cup x \setminus \{y\}$  if  $x \notin e$  and  $y \in e$ , provided  $e \cup x \setminus \{y\} \notin H$ ; otherwise let  $s_{xy}(e) = e$ . We also write  $s_{xy}(H) = \{s_{xy}(e) \mid e \in H\}$ . If  $s_{xy}(H) = H$  for every pair  $x < y$  then  $H$  is said to be *shifted*.

Given an  $r$ -partite hypergraph  $G$  with sides  $M$  and  $W$  together with linear orders on each of its sides, an  $r$ -partite *shifting* is a shifting  $s_{xy}$  where  $x$  and  $y$  belong to the same side.  $G$  is said to be  $r$ -partitely *shifted* if  $s_{xy}(H) = H$  for all pairs  $x < y$  that belong to the same side.

Given a collection  $\mathcal{H} = (H_i, i \in I)$  of hypergraphs, we write  $s_{xy}(\mathcal{H})$  for  $(s_{xy}(H_i), i \in I)$ .

As observed in [8] (see also [2]), shifting does not increase the matching number of a hypergraph. This can be generalized to rainbow matchings.

**Lemma 2.6.** *Let  $\mathcal{F} = (F_i \mid i \in I)$  be a collection of hypergraphs, sharing the same linearly ordered ground set  $V$ , and let  $x < y$  be elements of  $V$ . If  $s_{xy}(\mathcal{F})$  has a rainbow matching, then so does  $\mathcal{F}$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $R = s_{xy}(e_i)$ ,  $i \in I$ , be a rainbow matching for  $s_{xy}(\mathcal{F})$ . We may assume that  $s_{xy}(e_i) \neq e_i$  for some  $i \in I$ , meaning that  $y \in e_i$  and  $x \notin e_i$ . Since  $R$  is a matching, only one edge in  $R$  can contain  $x$ , so  $s_{xy}(e_j) = e_j$  for all  $j \neq i$ .

Assume first that  $y \notin s_{xy}(e_j)$  for any  $j \in I$ . Then replacing  $s_{xy}(e_i)$  by  $e_i$  as a representative for  $F_i$  results in a rainbow matching for  $\mathcal{F}$ . So, we may assume that  $y \in s_{xy}(e_j)$  for some  $j \neq i$ . Then  $e'_j = e_j \setminus \{y\} \cup \{x\} \in F_j$ , or else  $s_{xy}(e_j) \neq e_j$ , contrary to our previous conclusion. Then replacing  $e_j = s_{xy}(e_j)$  in  $R$  by  $e'_j$  as a representative for  $F_j$  and replacing  $s_{xy}(e_i)$  by  $e_i$  as a representative for  $F_i$  results in a rainbow matching for  $\mathcal{F}$ .

□

**2.2. The size of blocking hypergraphs.** For  $\sigma \in \Psi_r$  we denote by  $\bar{\sigma}$  the sequence obtained by replacing each  $\wedge$  by a  $\vee$  and vice versa. We also define  $\bar{\alpha} = \omega$  and  $\bar{\omega} = \alpha$ . Clearly,  $i(\sigma) > i(\tau)$  if and only if  $i(\bar{\sigma}) < i(\bar{\tau})$ , and hence we have:

$$(2) \quad i(\bar{\sigma}) = 2^r - i(\sigma)$$

By De Morgan's law, we have:

**Lemma 2.7.**  $B(F_r(\sigma)) = F_r(\bar{\sigma})$ .

**Lemma 2.8.**

- (1)  $N(j+i) \geq N(j) + N(i)$ .
- (2) If  $i \leq j$  then  $N(j+i) \geq N(j) + (n-1)N(i)$ .

*Proof.* Clearly, (2) implies (1). So, it suffices to prove (2) using an induction assumption on both (1) and (2), where the induction is on  $i+j$ . Assume that the lemma is true for all  $i', j'$  satisfying  $i' + j' < i + j$ . Let  $j = 2^p + s$ , where  $s < 2^p$ . Assume first that  $j+i \leq 2^{p+1}$ , and write  $j+i = 2^p + t$ , where  $t \leq 2^p$ . By part 4 of Lemma 2.4  $N$ -distances beyond  $2^p$  are the  $N$ -distances below  $2^p$  magnified  $(n-1)$ -fold. Hence we have

$$N(j+i) - N(j) = (n-1)(N(t) - N(s)).$$

By the induction hypothesis on (1)  $N(t) - N(s) \geq N(t-s) = N(i)$ , and thus  $N(j+i) - N(j) \geq (n-1)N(i)$ .

Assume next that  $j+i > 2^{p+1}$ . Let  $j+i = 2^{p+1} + w$ . Then  $i = 2^p + w - s$ . Since  $2^p + w < 2^{p+1} + w = i+j$ , we can apply the induction hypothesis on (1) to the pair  $(i, s)$ , to obtain

$$N(2^p + w) - N(s) \geq N(i).$$

By Lemma 2.5  $N(2^{p+1}) - N(2^p + s) = (n-1)(N(2^p) - N(s))$  and  $N(2^{p+1} + w) - N(2^{p+1}) = (n-1)(N(2^p + w) - N(2^p))$ . Adding the last two equalities gives  $N(j+i) - N(j) = (n-1)(N(2^p + w) - N(s))$ , which by the above is at least  $(n-1)N(i)$ , completing the proof. □

A converse inequality is also true, namely for every  $k > 1$  it is true that:

$$(3) \quad N(k) = \max\{N(j) + (n-1)N(i) \mid j+i=k, i \leq j\}$$

*Proof.* Let  $p$  be maximal such that  $2^p < k$ , and let  $k = 2^p + j$ . By Lemma 2.4 (4)  $N(k) = N(i) + (n-1)N(j)$ . Combining this with Lemma 2.8 proves the desired equality. □

In [16] (3) was used as a defining recursion rule for the sequence  $N(i)$  (which appeared there in a different context.)

For a number  $t \leq n^r$  denote by  $N^*(t)$  the number  $q$  such that  $N(q-1) < t \leq N(q)$ . This is an approximate inverse of  $N$ .

**Theorem 2.9.**  $b_p(t) = N(2^r - N^*(t))$  for every  $t \leq n^r$ .

*Proof.* Let  $F = F_r(\sigma(N^*(t)))$ . Then  $|F| \geq t$ , and since  $B(F) = F_r(\bar{\sigma})$ , we have  $|B(F)| = N(2^r - N^*(t))$ . This proves that  $b_p(t) \geq N(2^r - N^*(t))$ . To complete the proof we have to show that for every  $F \subseteq [n]^r$  of size  $t$  we have  $|B(F)| \leq N(2^r - N^*(t))$ . Write  $q = N^*(t)$ . We wish to show that  $|B(F)| \leq N(2^r - q)$ . We do this by induction on  $r$ . The case  $r = 1$  is easy, so assume that we know the result for  $r-1$  and we wish to prove it for  $r$ .

$$\text{Let } F^+ = \{e \setminus V_r \mid v_r \in e \in F\} \text{ and } F^- = \{e \setminus V_r \mid e \in F, v_r \notin e\}.$$

By Lemma 2.6 we may assume that  $F$  is  $r$ -partitely shifted, with  $v_i$  being the first element in  $V_i$  in the order used for the shifting. In particular, this entails  $F^- \subseteq F^+$ . Let  $B^+ = B_{[n]^{r-1}}(F^+)$  and  $B^- = B_{[n]^{r-1}}(F^-)$ , and let  $f^+ = |F^+|$ ,  $f^- = |F^-|$ ,  $b^+ = |B^+|$ ,  $b^- = |B^-|$ . Then  $b^- \leq b^+$ .

*Notation 2.10.* If  $H$  is a hypergraph and  $S$  a set disjoint from  $V(H)$ , we define  $H \diamond S = \{h \cup S \mid h \in H\}$ .

Clearly:

$$B(F) = (B^- \diamond \{v_r\}) \cup (B^+ \diamond (V_r \setminus \{v_r\}))$$

and hence

$$(4) \quad |B(F)| = b^- + (n-1)b^+$$

Let  $i = N^*(f^-)$  and  $j = N^*(f^+)$ . Also let  $i' = N^*(b^+)$ ,  $j' = N^*(b^-)$ . By Lemma 2.8 we have:

$$|F| \leq f^+ + (n-1)f^- \leq N(i+j)$$

and hence  $i+j \geq q$ . By the inductive hypothesis  $j' \leq 2^{r-1} - i$ , and  $i' \leq 2^{r-1} - j$ , and hence  $i' + j' \leq 2^r - (i+j) \leq 2^r - q$ . By (4) and Lemma 2.8,  $|B(F)| \leq N(i' + j') \leq N(2^r - q)$ , as desired.  $\square$

Our result readily implies Theorem 1.2. Let  $t = n^{r-1}$ . Then  $n^{r-1} = N(2^{r-1})$  and  $N^*(t) = 2^{r-1}$ . So it follows that  $b_p(t) = N(2^r - N^*(t)) = N(2^r - 2^{r-1}) = N(2^{r-1}) = n^{r-1}$ , yielding the theorem.

Theorem 1.3 also follows from Theorem 2.9. The proof requires yet another lemma:

**Lemma 2.11.**  $N(a)N(b) \leq N(ab)$ .

*Proof.* By induction on  $a+b$ . The case  $a+b=0$  is trivial. By (3)  $N(a) = N(c) + (n-1)N(d)$  for some  $c \leq d < a$  such that  $c+d=a$ , and  $N(b) = N(e) + (n-1)N(f)$  for some  $e \leq f < b$  such that  $e+f=b$ . Then

$$N(a)N(b) = N(c)N(e) + (n-1)[N(d)N(e) + N(c)N(f)] + (n-1)^2N(d)N(f)$$

Using the induction hypothesis, we get:

$$N(a)N(b) \leq N(ce) + (n-1)[N(d)N(e) + N(c)N(f)] + (n-1)^2N(df)$$

Using Lemma 2.8 twice we get:

$$N(a)N(b) \leq N(ce + cf) + (n-1)N(de + df) \leq N(ce + cf + de + df) = N(ab). \quad \square$$

The lemma implies that  $N(2^{r-1} - q)N(2^{r-1} + q) \leq N(2^{2(r-1)})$  for every  $q \leq 2^{r-1}$ , meaning that  $tb_p(t) \leq n^{2(r-1)}$  for every  $t \leq n^{r-1}$ , which is another way of formulating Theorem 1.3.

### 3. BLOCKERS IN $\binom{[n]}{r}$

**3.1. Sequences of  $\vee$ 's and  $\wedge$ 's and the sets they define.** Let  $n$  be a positive integer. For a sequence  $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_m)$  of  $\wedge$ 's and  $\vee$ 's ( $m < n$ ) let  $T(\sigma)$  be the set of subsets  $e$  of  $[n]$ , satisfying

$$1 \in e \sigma_1 (2 \in e \sigma_2 (3 \in e \dots \sigma_m (m+1 \in e) \dots))$$

For a number  $r \leq n$  let  $T_r(\sigma) = T(\sigma) \cap \binom{[n]}{r}$ . Let also  $t_r(\sigma) = |T_r(\sigma)|$  (this is the analogue of  $f_r(\sigma)$  of the first section).

*Example 3.1.*

- (1) If  $\sigma = (\vee, \wedge, \vee, \wedge)$  then  $T(\sigma) = \{e \in [n] \mid 1 \in e \vee (2 \in e \wedge (3 \in e \vee (4 \in e \wedge 5 \in e)))\}$ .
- (2)  $T_r(\emptyset) = \{e \in \binom{[n]}{r} \mid 1 \in e\}$ , and thus  $t_r(\emptyset) = \binom{n-1}{r-1}$ .
- (3) If  $\sigma = \wedge^{r-1}$  (meaning that  $\sigma_i = \wedge$  for all  $i < r$ ) then  $T_r(\sigma) = \{e \in \binom{[n]}{r} \mid \{1, 2, \dots, r\} \subseteq e\} = \{[r]\}$ , meaning that  $t_r(\sigma) = 1$ .

For a positive integer  $r$ , let  $\Upsilon_r$  be the set of sequences  $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_m)$  consisting of fewer than  $r$  symbols of  $\wedge$  and fewer than  $r$  symbols of  $\vee$ . Let  $\Theta_r = \Upsilon_r \cup \{\alpha\} \cup \{\omega\}$ , where  $\alpha$  and  $\omega$  are two new elements. Define  $T_r(\alpha) = \emptyset$  and  $T_r(\omega) = \binom{[n]}{r}$ .

**Lemma 3.2.**  $|\Theta_r| = \binom{2r}{r} + 1$ .

*Proof.* define a map from  $\Upsilon_r \setminus \{\emptyset\}$  to the set of sequences of  $r$  symbols  $\wedge$  and  $r$  symbols  $\vee$ , in which  $\sigma$  goes to a sequence  $\psi(\sigma)$  obtained by appending to it at its end a sequence of the form  $\wedge \wedge \dots \wedge \vee \vee \dots \vee$  or  $\vee \vee \dots \vee \wedge \wedge \dots \wedge$ , in which the first symbol is the opposite of the last symbol of  $\sigma$ . Clearly,  $\sigma$  is reconstructible from  $\psi(\sigma)$ , since the last symbol of  $\sigma$  is recognizable - it is the first symbol, going from right to left, in the third stretch of identical symbols in  $\psi(\sigma)$ . The two sequences  $\vee \vee \dots \vee \wedge \wedge \dots \wedge$  and  $\wedge \wedge \dots \wedge \vee \vee \dots \vee$  are missing from the image, and remembering that  $\emptyset \in \Upsilon_r$  this proves that  $|\Upsilon_r| = \binom{2r}{r} - 1$ .  $\square$

We now wish to order  $\Theta_r$ . For this purpose we extend every sequence in  $\Upsilon_r$  by appending a symbol  $*$  at its end, and then ordering  $\Upsilon_r$  lexicographically, with the convention  $\wedge < * < \vee$  (the “\*” is then discarded). We also define  $\alpha$  to be the minimal element and  $\omega$  to be the largest element of  $\Theta_r$ .

**3.2. The sequence  $M_r(i)$ .** Write  $m = \binom{2r}{r}$ . Let  $\sigma_0 = \alpha < \sigma_1 < \sigma_2 < \dots < \omega = \sigma_m$  be the order defined above on  $\Theta_r$ , and let  $M_r(i) = t_r(\sigma_i)$ . The identity of  $r$  being assumed to be known, we omit its mention and write  $M(i)$ . This is the analogue of the sequence  $N(i)$  in the  $r$ -partite case.

**Observation 3.3.** *The sequence  $M(i)$  is strictly ascending.*

Here is for example the sequence for  $r = 3$  and general  $n$ :

$$0, 1, 2, 3, n-2, n-1, n, 2n-5, 2n-4, 3n-9, \binom{n-1}{2}, \binom{n-1}{2}+1, \binom{n-1}{2}+2, \binom{n-1}{2}+n-3, \binom{n-1}{2}+n-2, \binom{n-1}{2}+2n-7, \binom{n-1}{2}+\binom{n-2}{2}, \binom{n-1}{2}+\binom{n-2}{2}+1, \binom{n-1}{2}+\binom{n-2}{2}+n-4, \binom{n-1}{2}+\binom{n-2}{2}+\binom{n-3}{2}, \binom{n}{3}.$$

This sequence does not seem to behave as nicely as the sequence  $N(i)$ , but like the sequence  $N(i)$  it has landmarks.

**Theorem 3.4.**

- (1)  $\sigma\left(\binom{2r-i}{r}\right) = \wedge^{i-1}$ .
- (2)  $\sigma\left(\binom{2r}{r} - \binom{2r-i}{r-i}\right) = \vee^{i-1}$ .
- (3)  $M\left(\binom{2r-i}{r}\right) = \binom{n-i}{r-i}$ .
- (4)  $M\left(\binom{2r}{r} - \binom{2r-i}{r-i}\right) = \binom{n-1}{r-1} + \binom{n-2}{r-1} + \dots + \binom{n-i}{r-1}$ .

*Proof.* Part (1): the sequences preceding  $\wedge^{i-1}$  are those that start with  $\wedge^i$ . Using the same idea as in the proof of Lemma 3.2, we define a map between the set of the sequences  $\sigma$  preceding  $\wedge^{i-1}$  and the set of sequences of  $r$  symbols of  $\vee$  and  $r-i$  symbols of  $\wedge$ : we complete  $\sigma$  to a sequence of  $r$  symbols  $\vee$  and  $r$  symbols  $\wedge$  by appending to  $\sigma$  at its end a sequence  $\vee \vee \dots \vee \wedge \wedge \dots \wedge$  or  $\wedge \wedge \dots \wedge \vee \vee \dots \vee$ , where the first symbol of the appended sequence is the opposite of the last symbol of  $\sigma$ . The only sequence that is not in the image of this map is  $\wedge^r \vee^r$ , and hence the number of sequences preceding  $\wedge^{i-1}$  is  $\binom{2r-i}{r}-1$ .

Part (2) follows by symmetry. Parts (3) and (4) follow by simple counting.  $\square$

**3.3. Calculating  $b_c(t)$  for  $t \leq \binom{n}{r}$ .** For  $\sigma \in \Upsilon_r$  denote by  $\bar{\sigma}$  the sequence obtained from  $\sigma$  by replacing each  $\wedge$  by a  $\vee$  and vice versa. Also define  $\bar{\alpha} = \omega$  and  $\bar{\omega} = \alpha$ . By De Morgan’s law, we have:

**Lemma 3.5.**  $B(T_r(\sigma)) = T_r(\bar{\sigma})$ .

The main result of this section is:

**Theorem 3.6.** *For every number  $0 \leq t \leq \binom{n}{r}$  there exists  $0 \leq i \leq \binom{2r}{r}$  such that  $b_c(t) = M(i)$ .*

The proof uses an already mentioned idea of Daykin [5], who gave a proof of the EKR theorem using the Kruskal-Katona theorem.

For a hypergraph  $F$  and a number  $r$ , the  $r$ -shadow of  $F$ , denoted by  $S_r(F)$ , is  $\bigcup_{f \in F} \binom{f}{r}$ . A hypergraph  $F$  of uniformity  $k$  is said to be in “cascade form” if there exist sets  $B_0 = [n] \supseteq B_1 \supseteq \dots \supseteq B_{s+1}$  and elements  $x_i \in B_{i-1} \setminus B_i$  ( $1 \leq i \leq s$ ), such that

$$F = \binom{B_1}{k} \cup x_1 \diamond \binom{B_2}{k-1} \cup x_1 \diamond x_2 \diamond \binom{B_3}{k-2} \cup \dots \cup x_1 \diamond x_2 \diamond \dots \diamond x_s \diamond \binom{B_{s+1}}{k-s}$$

Here  $x \diamond S$  stands for  $\{x\} \diamond S$  (for the meaning of the latter, see Notation 2.10).

**Theorem 3.7.** [14, 15] *Given numbers  $m, n$  and  $r \leq k$ , the minimum of  $|S_r(H)|$  over all  $H \subseteq \binom{H}{k}$  is attained at a hypergraph  $H$  having cascade form.*

*Proof of Theorem 3.6* We have to show that there exists  $\beta \in \Upsilon_r$  satisfying the following condition: the maximum of  $|B(H)|$  over all hypergraphs  $H \subseteq \binom{n}{r}$  of cardinality  $t$  is attained at a hypergraph  $H$  for which  $B(H) = T_r(\beta)$  for some sequence  $\beta \in \Upsilon_r$ .

Clearly,  $B(H) = S_r(\bar{H})^c$ , where  $\bar{H}$  is the set of complements of edges in  $H$ , and  $S_r(\bar{H})^c$  denotes the set of all edges of size  $r$  that do not belong to  $S_r(\bar{H})$ . By Theorem 3.7 the maximal value of  $|B(H)|$  over all  $H \subseteq \binom{n}{r}$  is attained at a hypergraph  $H$  for which  $\bar{H}$  has cascade form. Let this form be

$$(5) \quad \bar{H} = \binom{B_1}{n-r} \cup x_1 \diamond \binom{B_2}{n-r-1} \cup x_1 \diamond x_2 \diamond \binom{B_3}{n-r-2} \cup \dots \cup x_1 \diamond x_2 \diamond \dots \diamond x_s \diamond \binom{B_{s+1}}{n-r-s}$$

Here possibly  $s = 0$ . As above, we define  $B_0 = [n]$ . For each  $0 \leq i \leq s$  let  $B_i \setminus (B_{i+1} \cup \{x_i\}) = \{z_1^i, \dots, z_{t_i}^i\}$ , where  $t_i = |B_i \setminus B_{i+1}| - 1$  (Here possibly  $t_i = 0$ ).

**Assertion 3.8.**  $B(H) = T(\theta)$ , where

$$\theta = z_1^0 \vee (z_2^0 \dots \vee (z_{t_0}^0 \vee (x_1 \wedge (z_1^1 \vee (z_2^1 \vee \dots \vee (z_{t_1}^1 \vee (x_2 \wedge (z_1^2 \vee (z_2^2 \vee \dots \vee (z_{t_2}^2 \dots$$

if  $B_1 \neq [n]$  and  $\theta = \alpha$  if  $B_1 = [n]$ .

To prove the assertion, we have to show that a set  $e$  of size  $r$  belongs to  $S_r(\bar{H})^c$  if and only if it satisfies the conditions imposed by  $\theta$ . If  $e$  contains one of  $z_1^0, z_2^0, \dots, z_{t_0}^0$  then it does not belong to  $S_r(\bar{H})$  because edges in  $\bar{H}$  are contained in  $\{x_1\} \cup B_0$ . If  $e$  does not contain any of these vertices, it may still belong to  $S_r(\bar{H})^c$ , if it contains  $x_1$ . In such a case if  $e$  also contains none of  $z_1^1, z_2^1, \dots, z_{t_1}^1, x_2$  then it belongs to  $S_r(\bar{H})$ . So, we may assume that  $e$  contains one of these vertices or it contains  $x_2$  together with  $x_1$ , and so on. This completes the proof of the assertion.

Next note that since  $e$  is of size  $r$ , it suffices to stop just after  $x_r$ , and obtain a condition that is satisfied by  $e$  if and only if  $e \in T(\theta)$ . For example, for  $r = 2$  a set of size 2 satisfies the condition

$$x_1 \wedge (z_1^1 \vee (x_2 \wedge (z_1^2 \vee x_3)))$$

if and only if it satisfies the condition

$$x_1 \wedge (z_1^1 \vee x_2)$$

Let  $\beta$  be the formula obtained by truncating  $\theta$  after  $x_r$ , if indeed  $x_r$  appears, and let  $\beta = \theta$  otherwise.

Note also that the number of  $\vee$ 's in  $\theta$  is equal to the number of  $z_i^j$ 's in  $\theta$ . The assumption is that the set  $\binom{B_{s+1}}{n-r-s}$  appearing in (5) is non-empty, which implies that  $|B_{s+1}| \geq n - r - s$ . This is easily seen to imply that the number of  $z_i^j$ 's is at most  $r$ . Thus  $\beta \in \Upsilon_r$ , which completes the proof of Theorem 3.6.

We can now achieve our aim - the calculation of  $b_c(t)$  for every  $t \leq \binom{n}{r}$ .

**Theorem 3.9.** *If  $M(i-1) < t \leq M(i)$  then  $b_c(t) = M(\binom{2r}{r} - i)$ .*

*Proof.* By Lemma 3.5  $b_c(M(j)) = M(\binom{2r}{r} - j)$  for all  $0 \leq j \leq \binom{2r}{r}$ . Since  $b_c(c) \leq b_c(d)$  whenever  $c \geq d$ , this implies that  $M(\binom{2r}{r} - i) \leq b_c(t) \leq M(\binom{2r}{r} - i + 1)$ , and by Theorem 3.6 it follows that either  $b_c(t) = M(\binom{2r}{r} - i + 1)$  or  $b_c(t) = M(\binom{2r}{r} - i)$ . By the definition of the function  $b$  we have  $b_c(b_c(t)) \geq t$ , and hence if  $b_c(t) = M(\binom{2r}{r} - i + 1)$  then  $t \leq b_c(M(\binom{2r}{r} - i + 1)) = M(i - 1)$ , contradicting the assumption of the theorem. Thus  $b_c(t) = M(\binom{2r}{r} - i)$ .  $\square$

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