

Proof of a Conjecture of Erdős on triangles in set-systems

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Abstract

A triangle is a family of three sets A, B, C such that $A \cap B, B \cap C, C \cap A$ are each nonempty, and $A \cap B \cap C = \emptyset$. Let \mathcal{A} be a family of r -element subsets of an n -element set, containing no triangle. Our main result implies that for $r \geq 3$ and $n \geq 3r/2$, we have $|\mathcal{A}| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$. This settles a longstanding conjecture of Erdős [7], by improving on earlier results of Bermond, Chvátal, Frankl, and Füredi. We also show that equality holds if and only if \mathcal{A} consists of all r -element subsets containing a fixed element.

Analogous results are obtained for nonuniform families.

1 Introduction.

Throughout this paper, X is an n -element set. For any nonnegative integer r , we write $X^{(r)}$ for the family of all r -element subsets of X . Define $X^{(\leq r)} = \cup_{0 \leq i \leq r} X^{(i)}$ and $X^{(\geq r)} = \cup_{r \leq i \leq n} X^{(i)}$. For $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(\leq n)}$ and $x \in X$, we let $\mathcal{A}_x = \{A \in \mathcal{A} : x \in A\}$.

A *triangle* is a family of three sets A, B, C such that $A \cap B, B \cap C, C \cap A$ are each nonempty, and $A \cap B \cap C = \emptyset$. Let $f(r, n)$ denote the maximum size of a family $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(r)}$ containing no triangle.

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A special case of Turán's theorem (proved by Mantel) implies that $f(2, n) = \lfloor n^2/4 \rfloor$. Motivated by this result, Erdős [7] asked for the determination of $f(r, n)$ for $r > 2$, and conjectured that

$$f(r, n) = \binom{n-1}{r-1} \quad \text{for} \quad n \geq 3r/2. \quad (1)$$

(Actually, in [7] it is stated more as a question, and $n \geq 3r/2$ is not explicitly mentioned, but later, e.g. in [3, 10], (1) is referred to as a conjecture of Erdős'.)

This conjecture attracted quite a few researchers. It was proved by Chvátal [3] for $r = 3$. In fact, he proved the more general statement that if $n \geq r + 2 \geq 5$, $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(r)}$, and $|\mathcal{A}| > \binom{n-1}{r-1}$, then \mathcal{A} contains r sets A_1, \dots, A_r such that every $r-1$ of them have nonempty intersection, but $\cap_i A_i = \emptyset$. This configuration is also called an $(r-1)$ -dimensional simplex. Chvátal generalized (1) as follows.

Conjecture 1 (Chvátal) *Let $r \geq d+1 \geq 3$, $n \geq r(d+1)/d$ and $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(r)}$. If \mathcal{A} contains no d -dimensional simplex, then $|\mathcal{A}| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$. Equality holds only when $\mathcal{A} = X_x^{(r)}$, for some $x \in X$.*

Recently Csákány and Kahn [6] gave a different proof of the $r = 3$ case of (1) using Homology theory. Frankl [9] settled (1) for $3r/2 \leq n \leq 2r$, and then Bermond and Frankl [2] proved (1) for infinitely many n, r , where $n < r^2$. About five years later, Frankl [10] settled (1) for $n > n_0(r)$, where $n_0(r)$ is an unspecified but exponentially growing function of r . In 1987, Frankl and Füredi [11] proved Conjecture 1 for $n > n_0(r)$. Frankl [10] had earlier verified Conjecture 1 for $(d+1)r/d \leq n < 2r$, using Katona's permutation method. Thus both (1) and Conjecture 1 remained open in the range $2r \leq n < n_0(r)$, where $n_0(r)$ is exponential in r . Also, the uniqueness of the extremal configuration remained open for $3r/2 \leq n < n_0(r)$ in both (1) and Conjecture 1.

Our main result settles (1) for all $n \geq 3r/2$ while also characterizing the extremal examples. A *nontrivial intersecting family* of size $d+1$ is a family of $d+1$ distinct sets A_1, \dots, A_{d+1} that have pairwise nonempty intersection, but $\cap_i A_i = \emptyset$.

Theorem 2 *Let $r \geq d+1 \geq 3$ and $n \geq (d+1)r/d$. Suppose that $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(r)}$ contains no nontrivial intersecting family of size $d+1$. Then $|\mathcal{A}| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$. Equality holds if and only if $\mathcal{A} = X_x^{(r)}$ for some $x \in X$.*

Note that the special case $d = 2$ above implies (1). Every d -dimensional simplex is a nontrivial intersecting family of size $d+1$, and in this sense Theorem 2 can be thought of as a solution to a weakening of Conjecture 1.

A hypergraph \mathcal{F} satisfies H_d , the Helly property of order d , if every subfamily of \mathcal{F} with empty intersection contains a subcollection of at most d sets with empty intersection. A related problem is to determine the maximum size of an $\mathcal{F} \in X^{(r)}$ that satisfies H_d . Theorem 2 implies that for $d = 2$, such an \mathcal{F} satisfies $|\mathcal{F}| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$, however, stronger results for this problem were obtained by several authors (see Bollobás and Duchet [4, 5], Tuza [15, 16], and Mulder [13]).

The proof of Theorem 2 actually gives a little more: we may allow $r \leq d \leq \min\{\binom{2r-2}{r-1}, \binom{n-1}{r-1}\}$. Theorem 2 is not valid when $r = 3$ and $d \geq 10$ however, as the next result attests (see Section 4):

Theorem 3 *Let $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(3)}$ contain no non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1 \geq 8$. Then*

$$|\mathcal{A}| \leq \left(\left\lfloor \frac{(d+2)}{3} \right\rfloor^{-1} + \left\lfloor \frac{(d+3)}{3} \right\rfloor^{-1} + \left\lfloor \frac{(d+4)}{3} \right\rfloor^{-1} \right)^{-1} \binom{n}{2} \leq \frac{1}{3} \left(\left\lceil \frac{d}{3} \right\rceil + \frac{1}{d+3} \right) \binom{n}{2}.$$

Furthermore, for $d + 1 \geq 11$ and infinitely many n , there exists such a family \mathcal{A} with $|\mathcal{A}| \geq \left(\frac{1}{3} \left\lceil \frac{d}{3} \right\rceil - \frac{1}{3}\right) \binom{n}{2}$.

We conjecture that for $r \geq 4$ and n sufficiently large, the phenomenon exhibited by Theorem 3 does not arise:

Conjecture 4 *Let $r \geq 4$, $d \geq 2$, and let $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(r)}$ contain no non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$. Then, provided n is sufficiently large, $|\mathcal{A}| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$ with equality if and only if $\mathcal{A} = X_x^{(r)}$ for some $x \in X$.*

The following table summarizes the above results for $r = 3$:

| Size | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
|-----------------------|---|---|
| $3 \leq d + 1 \leq 7$ | $\binom{n-1}{2}$ | $\binom{n-1}{2}$ |
| $d + 1 = 8$ | $\binom{n-1}{2}$ | $\binom{n}{2}$ |
| $d + 1 = 9$ | $\binom{n-1}{2}$ | $\frac{12}{11} \binom{n}{2}$ |
| $d + 1 = 10$ | $\binom{n-1}{2}$ | $\frac{6}{5} \binom{n}{2}$ |
| $d + 1 \geq 11$ | $\frac{1}{3} (\left\lceil \frac{d}{3} \right\rceil - 1) \binom{n}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{3} (\left\lceil \frac{d}{3} \right\rceil + \frac{1}{d+3}) \binom{n-1}{2}$ |

It would be interesting to determine the exact bounds for $d + 1 \geq 11$. In the course of the proof of the lower bound in Theorem 3, it is proved that a Steiner $(n, 3, k - 1)$ -system, when it exists, contains no non-trivial intersecting family of size $3k + 1$ whenever $k \geq 2$. We conjecture that this is the extremal family for $r = 3$ and $k \geq 2$:

Conjecture 5 *Let n be sufficiently large and let $k \geq 2$. Let $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(3)}$ contain no non-trivial intersecting family of size $3k + 1$, and suppose there exists a Steiner $(n, 3, k - 1)$ -system. Then $|\mathcal{A}| \leq \frac{1}{3}(k - 1)\binom{n}{2}$, with equality if and only if \mathcal{A} is such a Steiner system.*

Non-uniform families: It is natural to consider these extremal problems for families that are not uniform. Perhaps the most basic statement in this context is the analogue of the Erdős-Ko-Rado Theorem.

If $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(\leq n)}$ is intersecting, then $|\mathcal{A}| \leq 2^{n-1}$.

The non-uniform analogue of Erdős' conjecture about triangles in uniform families was asked by Erdős and proved by Milner [7].

Theorem 6 (Milner) *Suppose that $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(\leq n)}$ is triangle free. Then $|\mathcal{A}| \leq 2^{n-1} + n$.*

Since Milner's proof has not been published, we give our own short proof of this result (see also Lossers [12]). Our proof also yields that equality holds if and only if $\mathcal{A} = X_x^{(\geq 2)} \cup X^{(1)} \cup \{\emptyset\}$ for some $x \in X$; this fact seems not to have been mentioned in the previous literature. We also prove the non-uniform analogue of Theorem 2 (see Section 4).

Theorem 7 *Let $d \geq 2$ and $n > \log_2 d + \log_2 \log_2 d + 2$. Suppose that $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(\leq n)}$ contains no non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$. Then $|\mathcal{A}| \leq 2^{n-1} + n$. Equality holds if and only if $\mathcal{A} = X_x^{(\geq 2)} \cup X^{(1)} \cup \{\emptyset\}$ for some $x \in X$.*

If $n \leq \lfloor \log_2 d \rfloor$, then trivially the bound $|\mathcal{A}| \leq 2^{n-1} + n$ in Theorem 7 does not hold. It can be shown that this remains true for $\lfloor \log_2 d \rfloor + 1$ and $\lfloor \log_2 d \rfloor + 2$. However, once $n > \lfloor \log_2 d \rfloor + \log_2 \log_2 d + 2$, Theorem 7 applies. It would be interesting to determine if the $\log_2 \log_2 d$ term in Theorem 7 can be replaced by an absolute constant.

2 Proof of Theorem 2.

We use the notation $[n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $[a, b] = \{a, a + 1, \dots, b - 1, b\}$. Let \mathcal{A} be a family of r -sets with $|\mathcal{A}| \geq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$, containing no non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$. We prove that \mathcal{A} consists of all sets containing a fixed element of X . The proof, for $n \geq (d + 1)r/d$, is split into three parts;

- Part I $n < 2r$ and $n = k(n - r) + \ell$ with $k \in [2, d]$ and some $\ell \in [n - r - 1]$,
Part II $n < 2r$ and $n = k(n - r)$ with $k \in [3, d + 1]$,
Part III $n \geq 2r \geq 8$.

Note that for $(d + 1)r/d \leq n \leq 2r - 1$, there exist $k \in [2, d]$ and $\ell \in [n - r - 1]$ such that $n = k(n - r) + \ell$ or $n = (k + 1)(n - r)$. Thus Parts I and II include all these values of n .

Part I uses Katona's permutation method, Part II uses Baranyai's Theorem [1] on partitioning $X^{(r)}$ into matchings, and in Part III we proceed by induction on n . Frankl [9] established the upper bound $|\mathcal{A}| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$ for $(d + 1)r/d \leq n \leq 2r - 1$; however, it is substantially more difficult to establish the case of equality in Theorem 2, which we achieve in Parts I and II of our proof.

Part I: $n = k(n - r) + \ell$.

In this part, we consider the case $n < 2r$ and $n = k(n - r) + \ell$, for some $k \in [2, d]$ and $\ell \in [n - r - 1]$. For convenience, let $X = [n]$ and fix a (cyclic) permutation π of X . Let Q_i denote the interval $\{i, i + 1, \dots, i + r - 1\}$ (modulo n), and let \mathcal{A}_π denote the subfamily of \mathcal{A} consisting of those sets $A \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $\pi(Q_i) = A$ for some i :

$$\mathcal{A}_\pi = \{\pi(Q_i) : \pi(Q_i) \in \mathcal{A}\}.$$

Claim 1. *Let π be any permutation. Then $|\mathcal{A}_\pi| \leq r$ with equality if and only if there exists m such that*

$$\mathcal{A}_\pi = \{\pi(Q_m), \pi(Q_{m+1}), \dots, \pi(Q_{m+r-1})\}.$$

Proof. It is sufficient to prove Claim 1 for the identity permutation, since we may relabel X . Therefore $\mathcal{A}_\pi = \{Q_i : Q_i \in \mathcal{A}\}$. Without loss of generality, $Q_n \in \mathcal{A}_\pi$. For $j \in [n - r]$, let $P_j = \{i : i \equiv j \pmod{n - r}\} \cap [n]$, together with $\{n\}$ if $j \in [\ell + 1, n - r]$. Thus $|P_j| \leq k + 1 \leq d + 1$. For each $j \in [n - r]$, there is an $i \in P_j$ such that $Q_i \notin \mathcal{A}_\pi$, otherwise $\bigcap_{i \in P_j} Q_i = \emptyset$. Thus $Q_i \notin \mathcal{A}_\pi$ for at least $n - r$ values of i , so $|\mathcal{A}_\pi| \leq r$.

Equality holds only if there is a unique x_j such that $Q_{x_j(n-r)+j} \notin \mathcal{A}_\pi$ for all $j \in [n - r]$. We now show $x_1 \geq x_2 \geq \dots \geq x_{n-r} \geq x_1 - 1$. Let us illustrate the proof of this fact using Figures 1 and 2 below, where $y_j = x_j(n - r) + j$, and the box (i, j) represents the integer $(i - 1)(n - r) + j$:

If $x_j < x_{j+1}$ for some $j \in [\ell]$, then, since $\ell \leq n - r - 1$, the intersection of the $k + 1$ intervals $Q_{(i-1)(n-r)+j}$, where (i, j) is a shaded box in Figure 1, is empty (this is the only place in Part I where we use $\ell \leq n - r - 1$; the case $\ell = n - r - 1$ is the content of Part II). This contradiction implies that $x_j \geq x_{j+1}$. In a similar way, $x_j \geq x_{j+1}$ for $j \in [\ell + 1, n - r]$, using $Q_n \in \mathcal{A}_\pi$. Finally, if $x_{n-r} < x_1 - 1$, then the intersection of the intervals $Q_{(i-1)(n-r)+j}$, with (i, j) a shaded box in Figure 2, is empty, a contradiction. This proves that \mathcal{A}_π has the required form.

Without loss of generality, we assume that for the identity permutation ι , $\mathcal{A}_\iota = \{Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_r\}$.

Claim 2. For each permutation π , $\mathcal{A}_\pi = \{\pi(Q_1), \pi(Q_2), \dots, \pi(Q_r)\}$.

Proof. Each permutation π of $X \setminus \{r\}$ is a product of transpositions. Therefore it suffices to show that if τ is a transposition in which r is a fixed point, then

$$\mathcal{A}_\tau = \{\tau(Q_1), \tau(Q_2), \dots, \tau(Q_r)\}.$$

Suppose that τ transposes t and $t + 1$, with $r \notin \{t, t + 1\}$. Then Claim 1 implies that $\mathcal{A}_\tau = \{\tau(Q_m), \tau(Q_{m+1}), \dots, \tau(Q_{m+r-1})\}$ for some $m \in [n]$. We show below that $m = 1$.

Case 1. $n \notin \{t, t + 1\}$: Here $\tau(Q_1) = [r] = Q_1 \in \mathcal{A}$, and $\tau(Q_n) = \{1, \dots, r - 1, n\} = Q_n \notin \mathcal{A}$. Therefore $m = 1$.

Case 2. $t + 1 = n$: In this case $\tau(Q_i) = Q_i \in \mathcal{A}$ for each $i \in [r] \setminus \{n - r\}$. Consequently $\tau(Q_{n-r}) \in \mathcal{A}$ as well, and therefore $m = 1$.

Case 3. $t = n$: If $n < 2r - 1$, then $\tau(Q_r) = Q_r \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\tau(Q_{r+1}) = Q_{r+1} \notin \mathcal{A}$. Therefore $m = 1$. If $n = 2r - 1$, then $\tau(Q_i) = Q_i \in \mathcal{A}$ for $i = 2, \dots, r - 1$. This leaves the possibilities $m = 1, 2, n$. However, $\tau(Q_{r+1}) = Q_{r+1} \notin \mathcal{A}$, and $\tau(Q_n) = Q_n \notin \mathcal{A}$. Consequently, $\{\tau(Q_1), \tau(Q_r)\} \subset \mathcal{A}$ and $m = 1$ again.

We now complete Part I. For each $A \in \mathcal{A}$, there are $\frac{1}{2}r!(n - r)!$ families \mathcal{A}_π containing A . The total number of cyclic permutations of X is $(n - 1)!/2$. By Claim 1, $|\mathcal{A}_\pi| \leq r$ and therefore

$$\frac{1}{2}r!(n - r)!|\mathcal{A}| \leq \frac{1}{2}r(n - 1)!.$$

This establishes the upper bound $|\mathcal{A}| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$. By Claim 1, equality holds if and only if for every cyclic permutation π of X , we have $\mathcal{A}_\pi = \{\pi(Q_1), \pi(Q_2), \dots, \pi(Q_r)\}$. Set $x = r$. For any $A \subset (X \setminus \{x\})^{(r-1)}$, we may thus choose such a cyclic permutation π so that $\pi(Q_1) = A \cup \{x\}$. Therefore $A \cup \{x\} \in \mathcal{A}$, and $\mathcal{A} = X_x^{(r)}$ is the required family.

Part II: $n = k(n - r)$.

The argument here is different to that of Part I; we use a result of Baranyai [1], stating that the family $X^{(r)}$ may be partitioned into perfect matchings when r divides n . This result is only needed for the characterization of the extremal family \mathcal{A} . Recall that $\overline{\mathcal{A}} = \{X \setminus A : A \in \mathcal{A}\}$.

Claim 3. *If $A \in X^{(n-r)} \setminus \overline{\mathcal{A}}$, then $(X \setminus A)^{(n-r)} \subset \overline{\mathcal{A}}$.*

Proof. Pick $A' \in (X \setminus A)^{(n-r)}$. We will show that $A' \in \overline{\mathcal{A}}$. By Baranyai's Theorem, there is a partition of $X^{(n-r)}$ into perfect matchings $\mathcal{M}_1, \dots, \mathcal{M}_t$ of size k , where $t = \frac{1}{k} \binom{n}{n-r}$. By relabelling X if necessary, we may assume that $\mathcal{M}_1 \supset \{A, A'\}$. Since $\overline{\mathcal{A}}$ has no perfect matching, and $n = kr/(k - 1)$,

$$|\overline{\mathcal{A}}| \leq (k - 1)t = \frac{k - 1}{k} \binom{n}{n - r} = \frac{k - 1}{k} \binom{n}{r} = \frac{k - 1}{k} \frac{n}{r} \binom{n - 1}{r - 1} = \binom{n - 1}{r - 1}.$$

Therefore $|\mathcal{A}| = |\overline{\mathcal{A}}| = \binom{n-1}{r-1}$, and $|\overline{\mathcal{A}} \cap \mathcal{M}_i| = k - 1$ for all i . Since $\mathcal{M}_1 \supset \{A, A'\}$ and $A \notin \overline{\mathcal{A}}$, we must have $A' \in \overline{\mathcal{A}}$. Therefore Claim 3 is verified.

We now complete the proof of Theorem 2 for $n = k(n - r)$. Let $\mathcal{B} = X^{(n-r)} \setminus \overline{\mathcal{A}}$. Then $n(\mathcal{B}) = \frac{k}{k-1}r \geq 2(n - r)$ as $k \geq 2$ and $n < 2r$. Furthermore, \mathcal{B} is an intersecting family, by Claim 3, and $|\mathcal{B}| = \binom{n}{n-r} - |\overline{\mathcal{A}}| = \binom{n-1}{n-r-1}$. By Theorem 1, $\mathcal{B} = X_x^{(n-r)}$ for some $x \in X$. This shows that $\mathcal{A} = X_x^{(r)}$, and Part II is complete.

Part III: $n \geq 2r$.

Throughout Part III, we assume $r \geq 4$. Addition of technical details in Claim 3 in the proof below accommodates the case $r = 3$. However, a short proof in this case was presented by weight counting techniques in Frankl and Füredi [11], which we revisit in Section 5.

We need the following notations.

For $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(r)}$, let $V(\mathcal{A}) = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$ and $n(\mathcal{A}) = |V(\mathcal{A})|$. For $Y \subset X$, we define $\mathcal{A} - Y = \{A \in \mathcal{A} : A \cap Y = \emptyset\}$. We also write $\overline{\mathcal{A}} = \{X \setminus A : A \in \mathcal{A}\}$. The following five definitions and the associated notations will be used repeatedly throughout the paper:

Sum of Families. The *sum of families* $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots, \mathcal{A}_t$, denoted $\sum_i \mathcal{A}_i$, is the family of all sets in each \mathcal{A}_i . Note that $\sum \mathcal{A}_i$ may have repeated sets, even if none of the \mathcal{A}_i have repeated sets.

Trace of a Set. The *trace of a set* Y in \mathcal{A} is defined by $\text{tr}(Y) = \text{tr}_{\mathcal{A}}(Y) = \{A \subset X : A \cup Y \in \mathcal{A}\}$. We define $\text{tr}(\mathcal{A}) = \sum_{x \in X} \text{tr}(x)$.

Degree of a Set. The *edge neighborhood of a set* Y is $\Gamma(Y) = \Gamma_{\mathcal{A}}(Y) = \{A \in \mathcal{A} : A \cap Y \neq \emptyset \text{ and } A \neq Y\}$, and the *degree of* Y is $\deg_{\mathcal{A}}(Y) = |\Gamma_{\mathcal{A}}(Y)|$. If $Y = \{y\}$, then we write y instead of $\{y\}$, and $\deg_{\mathcal{A}}(y) = |\Gamma_{\mathcal{A}}(y)| = |\mathcal{A}_y|$.

The families \mathcal{S}_x and \mathcal{L}_x . Let \mathcal{A} be an r -uniform family of sets in X and $x \in X$. Then we define

$$\mathcal{S}_x = \{Y \in \text{tr}(x) : |\text{tr}(Y)| = 1\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{L}_x = \text{tr}(x) \setminus \mathcal{S}_x.$$

We write $\mathcal{S} = \sum_{x \in X} \mathcal{S}_x$ and $\mathcal{L} = \sum_{x \in X} \mathcal{L}_x = \text{tr}(\mathcal{A}) \setminus \mathcal{S}$. Note that if $A \in \mathcal{L}_x$, then there exists $y \neq x$ such that $A \in \mathcal{L}_y$.

Paths and Connectivity. A *path* in \mathcal{A} is a family \mathcal{P} of sets A_1, A_2, \dots such that $A_i \cap A_j \neq \emptyset$ if and only if $|i - j| \leq 1$. Family \mathcal{A} is *connected* if every pair of vertices in $V(\mathcal{A})$ is contained in some path in \mathcal{A} . A *component* of \mathcal{A} is a maximal non-empty connected subfamily of \mathcal{A} .

We begin with the following simple lemma. Recall that $\mathcal{B} - \mathcal{S} = \{A \in \mathcal{B} : A \cap \mathcal{S} = \emptyset\}$.

Lemma 8 *Let \mathcal{B}_0 be a finite family of sets. Then there exist disjoint sets $S_0, S_1, \dots, S_{t-1} \in V(\mathcal{B}_0)$, such that the families $\mathcal{B}_i = \mathcal{B}_0 - \cup_{j=0}^{i-1} S_j$ for $i = 1, \dots, t$ satisfy*

- (1) $S_i \in \mathcal{B}_i$ and $\deg_{\mathcal{B}_i}(S_i) < d - 1$ for every $i < t$,
- (2) $\deg_{\mathcal{B}_i}(S) \geq d - 1$ for every $S \in \mathcal{B}_i$.

Proof. For $i \geq 0$, if there exists a $T \in \mathcal{B}_i$ with $\deg_{\mathcal{B}_i}(T) < d - 1$, then set $S_i = T$. Form \mathcal{B}_{i+1} and repeat for $i + 1$. If there is no such T , then set $i = t$ and stop. \square

For $n \geq 2r - 1$, we proceed by induction on n . The base case $n = 2r - 1$ has been proved in Part I. Suppose that $n \geq 2r$, $|\mathcal{A}| = \binom{n-1}{r-1}$, and \mathcal{A} contains no nontrivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$. We will prove that $\mathcal{A} = X_y^{(r)}$ for some $y \in X$. This implies that if $\mathcal{A}' \subset X^{(r)}$ contains no nontrivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$, then $|\mathcal{A}'| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$, by the following argument: If $|\mathcal{A}'| > \binom{n-1}{r-1}$, then \mathcal{A}' contains an r -set R in addition to $X_y^{(r)}$ by our assumption. Now consider the subfamily consisting of all r -sets of $X_y^{(r)}$ intersecting R as well as R itself. This is clearly a nontrivial intersecting family, and it has size

$$1 + \binom{n-1}{r-1} - \binom{n-1-r}{r-1} > 1 + r > d + 1.$$

Consequently, $|\mathcal{A}'| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1}$ as claimed.

Our approach is to show that there exists a vertex $x \in X$ with $\deg_{\mathcal{A}}(x) \leq \binom{n-2}{r-2}$. Subsequently, the family $\mathcal{A} - \{x\}$ has size at least $\binom{n-1}{r-1} - \binom{n-2}{r-2} = \binom{n-2}{r-1}$. By induction, equality holds and $\mathcal{A} - \{x\} = X_y^{(r)}$ for some $y \in X$; it is easy to see that every set in \mathcal{A} containing x also contains y and \mathcal{A} is the required family. Let us show that $\deg(x) \leq \binom{n-2}{r-2}$ if $|\mathcal{L}_x|$ is a maximum.

Claim 1. $|\mathcal{L}_x| > \binom{n-3}{r-2}$.

Proof. Note that $r|\mathcal{A}| = \sum_y \deg(y) = \sum_y |\mathcal{S}_y| + \sum_y |\mathcal{L}_y|$. By the choice of x , this is at most $|\mathcal{S}| + n|\mathcal{L}_x|$. Also, $\mathcal{S} \cap \mathcal{L}_x = \emptyset$, so $|\mathcal{S}| \leq \binom{n-1}{r-1} - |\mathcal{L}_x|$. Consequently

$$(n-1)|\mathcal{L}_x| \geq r|\mathcal{A}| - \binom{n}{r-1} = r \binom{n-1}{r-1} - \binom{n}{r-1} > (n-1) \binom{n-3}{r-2},$$

where the last inequality follows from a short computation and the fact that $r \geq 4$. Dividing by $n - 1$, we obtain $|\mathcal{L}_x| > \binom{n-3}{r-2}$.

Applying Lemma 8 to $\mathcal{L}_x = \mathcal{B}_0$, let $(S_0, S_1, \dots, S_{t-1})$ be the sets in $V(\mathcal{L}_x)$ satisfying (1) and (2), and let \mathcal{B}_i be as in Lemma 8. Note that $\mathcal{B}_t \neq \emptyset$, since otherwise

$$|\mathcal{L}_x| \leq \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} (\deg_{\mathcal{B}_i}(S_i) + 1) \leq t(d-1) \leq \frac{n-1}{r-1}(r-2) < n-1, \quad (2)$$

contradicting Claim 1. Let $\mathcal{K}_0, \mathcal{K}_1, \dots, \mathcal{K}_s$ be the components of \mathcal{B}_t . We let \mathcal{K}'_i denote the union of \mathcal{K}_i and the family of all sets in \mathcal{S}_x intersecting $V(\mathcal{K}_i)$.

Claim 2. *The family \mathcal{K}'_i is an intersecting family.*

Proof. Suppose, for a contradiction, that \mathcal{K}'_i contains disjoint sets A_0, B_0 . Since \mathcal{K}_i is connected, $\mathcal{K}_i \cup \{A_0, B_0\}$ is also connected. Choose a path $A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots, B_0$ in $\mathcal{K}_i \cup \{A_0, B_0\}$ (possibly $A_2 = B_0$). Then $A_1 \in \mathcal{K}_i$. Lemma 8 part (2) implies that $\deg_{\mathcal{K}_i}(A_1) \geq d - 1$, hence (if $d \geq 4$) there exist sets $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{d-3} \in \mathcal{K}_i \setminus \{A_0, A_2\}$ each of which intersects A_1 . By definition of \mathcal{L}_x , there exists $y \in X \setminus \{x\}$ such that $A_1 \in \mathcal{L}_y$. Consequently,

$$\{A_0 \cup x, A_1 \cup x, A_2 \cup x, C_1 \cup x, \dots, C_{d-3} \cup x, A_1 \cup y\}$$

is a non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$ in \mathcal{A} , since $A_0 \cap A_2 = \emptyset$, a contradiction.

Claim 3. *$\mathcal{L}_x = \mathcal{K}_0$ and $n(\mathcal{L}_x) \geq n - 2$.*

Proof. We first show $t = s = 0$, so that $\mathcal{L}_x = \mathcal{K}_0$. For a contradiction, suppose $t > 0$ or $s > 0$. By Claim 2, $\mathcal{K}_i \subset \mathcal{K}'_i$ is an intersecting family of $(r - 1)$ -sets. Therefore, for $n(\mathcal{K}_i) \geq 2(r - 1)$, the Erdős-Ko-Rado theorem shows $|\mathcal{K}_i| \leq \binom{n(\mathcal{K}_i)-1}{r-2} \leq \binom{n(\mathcal{K}_i)}{r-2}$. If $n(\mathcal{K}_i) \leq 2r - 3$, then $|\mathcal{K}_i| \leq \binom{n(\mathcal{K}_i)}{r-1}$, and this is at most $\binom{n(\mathcal{K}_i)}{r-2}$. Since $n(\mathcal{K}_i) \geq r - 1$ for $i \leq s$, convexity of binomial coefficients yields

$$\sum_{i=0}^s |\mathcal{K}_i| \leq \sum_{i=0}^s \binom{n(\mathcal{K}_i)}{r-2} = \binom{n(\mathcal{K}_0)}{r-2} + \sum_{i=1}^s \binom{n(\mathcal{K}_i)}{r-2} \leq \binom{[\sum_{i=0}^s n(\mathcal{K}_i)] - s(r-1)}{r-2} + \sum_{i=1}^s \binom{r-1}{r-2}.$$

Recalling that $n(\mathcal{L}_x) = \sum_{i=0}^s n(\mathcal{K}_i) + t(r - 1)$, we obtain

$$\sum_{i=0}^s |\mathcal{K}_i| \leq \binom{n(\mathcal{L}_x) - s(r-1) - t(r-1)}{r-2} + s(r-1).$$

By the argument giving the first two inequalities of (2), and $d - 1 \leq r - 1$, we have

$$|\mathcal{L}_x| = \sum_{i=0}^s |\mathcal{K}_i| + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} (\deg_{\mathcal{B}_i}(S_i) + 1) \leq \binom{n(\mathcal{L}_x) - (s+t)(r-1)}{r-2} + s(r-1) + t(r-1).$$

If $s + t \geq 1$ then, by convexity of binomial coefficients,

$$|\mathcal{L}_x| \leq \binom{n(\mathcal{L}_x) - (r-1)}{r-2} + (r-1) \leq \binom{n-r}{r-2} + (r-1).$$

As $n \geq 2r$ and $r \geq 4$, this contradicts Claim 1. Thus $s = t = 0$, and \mathcal{L}_x consists of one component, \mathcal{K}_0 .

We now show that $n(\mathcal{L}_x) \geq n - 2$. By the arguments above, $|\mathcal{K}_0| \leq \binom{n(\mathcal{K}_0)}{r-2}$. Therefore, by Claim 1, $n(\mathcal{K}_0) = n(\mathcal{L}_x) \geq n - 2$. This completes the proof of Claim 3.

We now complete Part III and the proof of Theorem 2, by showing that $\deg(x) \leq \binom{n-2}{r-2}$. By Claim 2, \mathcal{K}'_0 is an intersecting family. Since $n(\mathcal{K}_0) \geq n - 2 > n - r + 1$, $\text{tr}(x) = \mathcal{K}'_0$ so $\text{tr}(x)$ is itself an intersecting family of $(r - 1)$ -sets. As $n - 1 \geq n(\mathcal{K}'_0) \geq n(\mathcal{K}_0) \geq n - 2 \geq 2(r - 1)$, the Erdős-Ko-Rado theorem implies that

$$\deg(x) = |\mathcal{K}'_0| = |\text{tr}(x)| \leq \binom{n-2}{r-2}.$$

This completes the proof of Theorem 2. \square

3 Proof of Theorem 3.

Part III of the proof of Theorem 2 can be extended to the case $r = 3$ and $2 \leq d \leq 6$ by addition of some technical details. However, Chvátal [3] and Frankl and Füredi [11] already settled the case $r = 3$ and $d = 2$ so we do not consider this case here. In fact, from the proof below, it follows that for $2 \leq d \leq 6$ and $n \geq 15$, a family $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(3)}$ containing no non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$ has at most $\binom{n-1}{2}$ members, with the equality as in Theorem 2.

We now prove Theorem 3, employing the weight counting methods of Frankl and Füredi.

Proof of Theorem 3. Let $\mathcal{A} \subset X^{(3)}$ and suppose \mathcal{A} contains no non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$. Following Frankl and Füredi, the *weight of a set* $A \in \mathcal{A}$ is defined by

$$\omega(A) = \sum_{\{x,y\} \subset A} \frac{1}{|\text{tr}\{x,y\}|}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \omega(A) &= \sum_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{\{x,y\} \subset A} \frac{1}{|\text{tr}\{x,y\}|} \\ &\leq \sum_{\{x,y\} \in X} \sum_{\substack{A \in \mathcal{A} \\ \{x,y\} \in A}} \frac{1}{|\text{tr}\{x,y\}|} \leq \sum_{\{x,y\} \in X} 1 = \binom{n}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Equality holds if and only if every pair in X is contained in some set in \mathcal{A} .

As \mathcal{A} contains no non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$, $|\text{tr}\{x, y\}| = 1$ for some $\{x, y\} \in \mathcal{A}$ or $\sum_{x, y \in A} |\text{tr}\{x, y\}| \leq d + 2$. This implies that for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$,

$$\omega(A) \geq \min\left\{1 + \frac{2}{n-2}, \left\lfloor \frac{(d+2)}{3} \right\rfloor^{-1} + \left\lfloor \frac{(d+3)}{3} \right\rfloor^{-1} + \left\lfloor \frac{(d+4)}{3} \right\rfloor^{-1}\right\}.$$

For $d \geq 7$, the second term is smaller (in fact, less than 1). Therefore

$$\sum_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \omega(A) \geq \left(\left\lfloor \frac{(d+2)}{3} \right\rfloor^{-1} + \left\lfloor \frac{(d+3)}{3} \right\rfloor^{-1} + \left\lfloor \frac{(d+4)}{3} \right\rfloor^{-1}\right) |\mathcal{A}|.$$

Together with $\sum_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \omega(A) \leq \binom{n}{2}$, this gives the upper bound on $|\mathcal{A}|$ in Theorem 3, which is for $d \geq 7$.

For the lower bound in Theorem 3, it suffices to show that every non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1 \geq 11$ contains a pair in at least $\lceil \frac{d}{3} \rceil$ of its edges. Then a Steiner $(n, 3, \lceil \frac{d}{3} \rceil - 1)$ -system, for those n for which such a structure exists, does not contain such an intersecting family.

Lemma 9 *Let $\mathcal{F} \subset X^{(3)}$ be a non-trivial intersecting family with $|\mathcal{F}| \geq 11$. Then there exist distinct elements $x, y \in X$ such that*

$$|\text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}}\{x, y\}| \geq \frac{1}{3}(|\mathcal{F}| - 1).$$

Proof. For $a, b \in X$, we let $d(a, b) = |\text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}}\{a, b\}|$. First suppose that there exist $x, y \in X$ with $d(x, y) \geq 3$. Now let $u, v, w \in \text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}}\{x, y\}$. Throughout the proof, we assume $d(x, y) \leq \lceil \frac{1}{3}(|\mathcal{F}| - 1) \rceil - 1$, otherwise we are done. Let $L_x = \text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}}(x) - \{y\} = \{A \in \text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}}(x) : y \notin A\}$ and let $L_y = \text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}}(y) - \{x\} = \{A \in \text{tr}_{\mathcal{F}}(y) : x \notin A\}$. Since \mathcal{F} is an intersecting family,

$$A \cap B \neq \emptyset \text{ for every } A \in L_x \text{ and } B \in L_y \quad (*).$$

Case 1: L_x contains a matching of size three.

In this case, L_x consists of three stars with distinct centers in X . By (*), every pair in L_y intersects all three centers. This implies $L_y = \emptyset$. As \mathcal{F} is a non-trivial intersecting family, there is a triple in \mathcal{F} disjoint from x . Since $L_y = \emptyset$ and $d(x, y) \geq 3$, this triple must be $\{u, v, w\}$ and $d(x, y) = 3$. Since \mathcal{F} is intersecting, the centers of the three stars must also be u, v, w . Now every $F \in \mathcal{F} - \{y\}$ with $F \neq \{u, v, w\}$ contains x . Therefore, assuming $d(x, u) \geq d(x, v) \geq d(x, w)$, we find

$$d(x, u) \geq \frac{1}{3}(|\mathcal{F}| - 4) + 1 = \frac{1}{3}(|\mathcal{F}| - 1).$$

This completes the proof in Case 1.

Case 2: L_x and L_y contain no matching of size three.

It is not hard to see by (*) that $|L_x| + |L_y| \leq 2(\lceil \frac{1}{3}(|\mathcal{F}| - 1) \rceil - 1) + 1$, with equality if and only if L_x consists of a pair of stars of size $\lceil (|\mathcal{F}| - 1)/3 \rceil - 1$ with distinct centers a, b and L_y consists of the pair $\{a, b\}$. Then $|\mathcal{F}| - |L_x| - |L_y| - d(x, y) \geq 2$, unless $|\mathcal{F}| = 3k + 2$, $k \geq 3$ and L_x and L_y are as described above. By (*), any triple in $\mathcal{F} - \{x, y\}$ contains u, v and w . This shows $|\mathcal{F} - \{x, y\}| = 1$, and therefore $|\mathcal{F}| = 3k + 2$, $k \geq 3$. In this case, $\{u, v, w\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $a, b \in \{u, v, w\}$, since \mathcal{F} is intersecting. Therefore $d(a, x) \geq 4$ (and also $d(b, x) \geq 4$), completing the proof in Case 2.

If every pair $a, b \in X$ has $d(a, b) \leq 2$, then the arguments in Cases 1 and 2 still apply to give a contradiction with $|\mathcal{F}| \geq 11$, since in this case $|\mathcal{F}| = 8$. This completes the proof of the Lemma.

□

4 Proof of Theorem 7.

Let \mathcal{A} be a family of subsets of X containing no non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$. We prove Theorem 7 by showing that $\mathcal{A}' = \mathcal{A} \cap X^{(\geq 2)}$ has size at most $2^{n-1} - 1$, with equality if and only if $\mathcal{A}' = X_x^{(\geq 2)}$ for some $x \in X$. Theorem 7 is proved in two parts. Part I deals with the case $d = 2$, by induction on $n \geq 1$. In Part II, we use Part I to prove Theorem 7 for $d \geq 3$.

Part I: $d = 2$

Theorem 7 is easily verified for $n \leq 3$. Now let $n \geq 4$ and $w \in X$.

Case 1: For every partition of $X \setminus \{w\}$ into two non-empty sets Y and Z , there exists a set $A \in \mathcal{A}' - \{w\}$ such that $A \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ and $A \cap Z \neq \emptyset$. Then, for each partition of $X \setminus \{w\}$ into sets Y and Z , either $Y \cup \{w\} \notin \mathcal{A}$ or $Z \cup \{w\} \notin \mathcal{A}'$ - otherwise \mathcal{A}' contains a triangle. Therefore $\deg_{\mathcal{A}'}(w) \leq 2^{n-2}$. By induction, $\mathcal{A}'' = \mathcal{A}' - \{w\}$ has size at most $2^{n-2} - 1$, with equality if and only if $\mathcal{A}'' = (X \setminus \{w\})_x^{(\geq 2)}$ for some $x \in X - \{w\}$. Thus

$$|\mathcal{A}'| = \deg_{\mathcal{A}'}(w) + |\mathcal{A}''| \leq 2^{n-2} + (2^{n-2} - 1) = 2^{n-1} - 1.$$

Now suppose that equality holds above. We will show that every set in \mathcal{A}' containing w also contains x . Suppose on the contrary that $w \in S \in \mathcal{A}'$ and $x \notin S$. Among all such S , choose the one of minimum size, call it S_0 . Let T be another set containing w . By the choice of S_0 , either $T \supset S_0$, or there exist $t \in T - S_0$, and $s \in S_0 - T$ (possibly $t = x$). In the latter case, $\{x, s, t\}, S_0, T$ form a triangle (replace $\{x, s, t\}$ by $\{s, t\}$ if $t = x$). We may therefore assume that every set in \mathcal{A}' containing w also contains S_0 . Hence $2^{n-2} = \deg_{\mathcal{A}'}(w) \leq 2^{n-|S_0|-1}$ from which we conclude that $S_0 = \{s\}$, and $E \cup \{w\} \in \mathcal{A}'$ for every $E \subset X \setminus \{w, s\}$. Since $|X| \geq 4$, there exist distinct a, b for which $\{w, s, a\}$ and $\{w, s, b\}$ lie in \mathcal{A}' . Together with $\{x, a, b\}$ (or just $\{a, b\}$ if $a = x$ or $b = x$) this once again forms a triangle.

Case 2: There exists a partition of $X \setminus \{w\}$ into two nonempty sets Y and Z such that no member of \mathcal{A}' in $X \setminus \{w\}$ contains an element of both Y and Z . By induction, at most $2^{|Y|} - 1$ elements of \mathcal{A}' are contained in $Y \cup \{w\}$, and similarly for Z . The number of sets which contain an element of Y and an element of Z is, by the choice of Y and Z , at most $2^{n-1} - 1 - (2^{|Y|} - 1) - (2^{|Z|} - 1)$. Therefore

$$|\mathcal{A}'| \leq (2^{|Y|} - 1) + (2^{|Z|} - 1) + (2^{n-1} - 1 - (2^{|Y|} - 1) - (2^{|Z|} - 1)) = 2^{n-1} - 1.$$

If equality holds, then by induction there exist $y \in Y \cup \{w\}, z \in Z \cup \{w\}$ with $(Y \cup \{w\})_y^{(\geq 2)} \cup (Z \cup \{w\})_z^{(\geq 2)} \subset \mathcal{A}'$. Since $|X| \geq 4$, we may assume by symmetry that $|Y| \geq 2$. We next show that $y = w$. Observe that for every set $S \subset X \setminus \{w\}$ containing an element of both Y and Z , we have $S \cup \{w\} \in \mathcal{A}'$. If $y \neq w$, then $\{y, a\} \in \mathcal{A}'$ for some $a \in Y \setminus \{y\}$. The set $\{y, a\}$ together with $\{y, w\}$ and $\{w, a, b\}$ for some $b \in Z$ forms a triangle. Consequently $y = w$, and $z = w$ as well unless $Z = \{z\}$. But in this case $(Z \cup \{w\})_z^{(\geq 2)} = (Z \cup \{w\})_w^{(\geq 2)}$, therefore $\mathcal{A}' = X_w^{(\geq 2)}$.

Part II: $d \geq 3$

Define a function f on the positive integers by $f(1) = f(2) = f(3) = 1$, and for $n \geq 4$,

$$f(n) = \max\{0, f(n-3) + d - 2^{n-4}\}. \quad (*)$$

It is easy to see that if $n \geq 4$, and $f(n) \geq 0$, then

$$f(n) = 1 + \left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{3} \right\rceil - 1 \right) d - \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor (n-4)/3 \rfloor} 2^{n-4-3i}.$$

Set $n_d = \log_2 d + \log_2 \log_2 d + 2$. An easy calculation now shows that $f(n) = 0$ whenever $n \geq n_d$ and $f(n) > f(n-3) + d - 2^{n-4}$ when $n > n_d$.

In this part of the proof, we proceed by induction on $n \geq 1$, with the following hypothesis: Let $\mathcal{A}' \subset X^{(\geq 2)}$ contain no non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$. Then $|\mathcal{A}'| \leq 2^{n-1} - 1 + f(n)$.

For $n \leq 3$, the result is true as

$$|\mathcal{A}'| \leq |X^{(\geq 2)}| = 2^n - n - 1 \leq 2^{n-1} - 1 + f(n).$$

Now suppose that $n \geq 4$. By Part I, we may assume \mathcal{A}' contains a triangle $\mathcal{F} = \{F_1, F_2, F_3\}$, otherwise the proof is complete.

Let x, y, z be elements in $F_1 \cap F_2$, $F_2 \cap F_3$ and $F_3 \cap F_1$ respectively. Then at most d sets in \mathcal{A}' intersect $\{x, y, z\}$ in at least two points, otherwise \mathcal{F} together with another $d - 2$ of these sets forms a non-trivial intersecting family of size $d + 1$. The total number of sets in \mathcal{A}' intersecting $\{x, y, z\}$ is therefore at most $3 \cdot 2^{n-3} + d$. Let $\mathcal{A}'' = \mathcal{A}' - \{x, y, z\}$. Then

$$|\mathcal{A}'| \leq |\mathcal{A}''| + 3 \cdot 2^{n-3} + d.$$

As \mathcal{A}'' contains no non-trivial family of size $d + 1$, the induction hypothesis shows $|\mathcal{A}''| \leq 2^{n-4} - 1 + f(n - 3)$. This gives

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathcal{A}'| &\leq 2^{n-4} - 1 + f(n - 3) + 3 \cdot 2^{n-3} + d \\ &= 2^{n-1} - 1 + f(n) - (f(n) - f(n - 3) - d + 2^{n-4}) \\ &\leq 2^{n-1} - 1 + f(n), \quad (**) \end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality follows from (*). By the choice of n_d , we know that $f(n) = 0$ for $n \geq n_d$, so $|\mathcal{A}'| \leq 2^{n-1} - 1$ for $n \geq n_d$, completing the proof of the upper bound in Theorem 7.

Now suppose that $|\mathcal{A}'| = 2^{n-1} - 1$ and $n > n_d$. Then the inequality (**) is strict. This gives the contradiction $|\mathcal{A}'| < 2^{n-1} - 1$. Consequently \mathcal{A}' contains no triangle and Part I of the proof applies to give the case of equality. \square

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