

A combinatorial proof of Fisher's Inequality

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Abstract

In this note, we give a simple, counting based proof of Fisher's Inequality that does not use any tools from linear algebra.

1 Introduction

Let k be a positive integer and let \mathcal{A} be a family of subsets of $[n]$. Fisher's Inequality states that if the cardinality of the intersection of every pair of distinct sets in \mathcal{A} is k , then $|\mathcal{A}| \leq n$. R. A. Fisher [Fisher, 1940] while studying Balanced Incomplete Block Designs (BIBDs) proved that the number of points never exceeds the number of blocks. R.C. Bose [Bose, 1949] proved the Fisher's inequality when all the sets in the family \mathcal{A} are of the same size. In [De Bruijn and Erdős, 1948], it was shown that a maximal family of subsets of $[n]$ that has exactly one common element among every pair of distinct sets has cardinality at most n . The first proof of the general form of the Fisher's Inequality was given by K. N. Majumdar [Majumdar, 1953] using linear algebraic methods. László Babai in [Babai, 1987] remarked that it would be challenging to obtain a proof of Fisher's Inequality that does not rely on tools from linear algebra. D. R. Woodall [Woodall, 1997] took up the challenge and gave the first fully combinatorial proof of the inequality. Below, we give a simple, alternate proof of the inequality that does not rely on tools from linear algebra.

Theorem 1. (*Fisher's Inequality*) *Let k be a positive integer and let $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \dots, A_m\}$ be a family of subsets of $U = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$. If $|A_i \cap A_j| = k$ for each $1 \leq i < j \leq m$, then $m \leq n$.*

Proof. It is safe to assume that all the sets in \mathcal{A} are of size more than k . (Otherwise, let $A \in \mathcal{A}$ be a set of size exactly k . Then, the set $\{B \setminus A | B \in \mathcal{A} \setminus \{A\}\}$ partitions the elements of $[n]$ not present in A : this leads to $m \leq n - k + 1$.) For the sake of contradiction, assume that $m \geq n + 1$. Let $x_{i,j}$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, $1 \leq j \leq n$, be mn variables with

$$x_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } j \in A_i \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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Let $s > m^n$ be an integer. Consider a function $f : [m] \rightarrow [s]$. Let

$$\begin{aligned} f(1)x_{1,1} + f(2)x_{2,1} + \cdots + f(m)x_{m,1} &= c_1 && \text{(corresponding to element } e_1) \\ &\vdots && \\ f(1)x_{1,n} + f(2)x_{2,n} + \cdots + f(m)x_{m,n} &= c_n && \text{(corresponding to element } e_n) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

We define a *profile* of the function f corresponding to the family \mathcal{A} as the n -tuple (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n) . Note that the number of distinct functions from $[m]$ to $[s]$ is s^m and the number of distinct profiles is at most $(ms)^n$. Since the number of profiles is strictly less than the total number of functions from $[m]$ to $[s]$, by pigeonhole principle, it follows that there are two distinct functions f_1, f_2 that yield the same profile. Let $\tau = f_1 - f_2$. Since f_1 and f_2 are distinct, τ is not the zero function. From the set of Equations (1), it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \tau(1)x_{1,1} + \tau(2)x_{2,1} + \cdots + \tau(m)x_{m,1} &= 0 && \text{(Equation } (b_1)) \\ &\vdots && \\ \tau(1)x_{1,n} + \tau(2)x_{2,n} + \cdots + \tau(m)x_{m,n} &= 0 && \text{(Equation } (b_n)) \end{aligned}$$

Adding the LHS and RHS of Equations (b_1) to (b_n) , we get

$$\tau(1)|A_1| + \tau_2|A_2| + \cdots + \tau(m)|A_m| = 0. \quad (2)$$

Let $A_1 = \{e_{i_1}, e_{i_2}, \dots, e_{i_r}\}$. Adding the LHS and RHS of the Equations $(b_{i_1}), \dots, (b_{i_r})$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \tau(1)|A_1| + \tau(2)|A_1 \cap A_2| + \cdots + \tau(m)|A_1 \cap A_m| &= 0 \\ \implies \tau(1)|A_1| + k(\tau(2) + \cdots + \tau(m)) &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Writing similar equations corresponding to each set A_i in \mathcal{A} , we get m equations as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \tau(1)|A_1| + k(\tau(2) + \cdots + \tau(m)) &= 0 \\ \tau(2)|A_2| + k(\tau(1) + \tau(3) + \cdots + \tau(m)) &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ \tau(m)|A_m| + k(\tau(1) + \cdots + \tau(m-1)) &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Adding the LHS and RHS of every equation in (4), we get

$$\begin{aligned} \tau(1)|A_1| + \tau_2|A_2| + \cdots + \tau(m)|A_m| + k(m-1)(\tau(1) + \cdots + \tau(m)) &= 0 \\ \implies \tau(1) + \cdots + \tau(m) = 0 & \text{(Using Equation 2)}. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Since τ is not the zero function, without loss of generality, assume that $\tau(1) \neq 0$. From Equation 3, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \tau(1)|A_1| + k(\tau(2) + \cdots + \tau(m)) &= 0 \\ \implies \tau(1)|A_1| + k(-\tau(1)) &= 0 \text{ (From Equation 5)} \\ \implies \tau(1)(|A_1| - k) &= 0. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

This is a contradiction as $|A_1| > k$ and $\tau(1) \neq 0$. So, our assumption that $m \geq n + 1$ is false. \square

2 Concluding remarks

The pigeonholing argument used to show that there exists a non-trivial solution to the homogeneous system of linear equations (b_1) to (b_n) whose coefficients are either 0 or 1 can be extended to any homogeneous system of n linear equations on m ($> n$) variables whose coefficients are integers by taking an appropriately large s (Siegel's Lemma [Siegel, 1929]). Hence, a similar pigeonholing argument can be used to give a proof, that does not rely on 'tricks' of linear algebra, of other theorems in combinatorics that use a homogeneous system of linear equations like the Beck-Fiala Theorem [Beck and Fiala, 1981], Beck-Spencer Theorem [Beck and Spencer, 1983], etc. In [Vishwanathan, 2013], a counting based proof of the Graham-Pollak Theorem is given using similar ideas.

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