Perfect vector sets, properly overlapping partitions, and largest empty box

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Abstract

We revisit the following problem (along with its higher dimensional variant): Given a set $S$ of $n$ points inside an axis-parallel rectangle $U$ in the plane, find a maximum-area axis-parallel sub-rectangle that is contained in $U$ but contains no points of $S$.

(I) We present an algorithm that finds a large empty box amidst $n$ points in $[0, 1]^d$: a box whose volume is at least $\frac{\log d}{n + \log d + 1}$ can be computed in $O(n + d \log d)$ time.

(II) To better analyze the above approach, we introduce the concepts of perfect vector sets and properly overlapping partitions, in connection to the minimum volume of a maximum empty box amidst $n$ points in the unit hypercube $[0, 1]^d$, and derive bounds on their sizes.

Keywords: Largest empty box, Davenport-Schinzel sequence, perfect vector set, properly overlapping partition, qualitative independent sets and partitions, discrepancy of a point-set, van der Corput point set, Halton-Hammersley point set, approximation algorithm, data mining.

1 Introduction

Given an axis-parallel rectangle $U$ in the plane containing $n$ points, Maximum Empty Rectangle is the problem of computing a maximum-area axis-parallel empty sub-rectangle contained in $U$. This problem is one of the oldest in computational geometry, with multiple applications, e.g., in facility location problems [35]. In higher dimensions, finding the largest empty box has applications in data mining, such as finding large gaps in a multi-dimensional data set [20].

A box in $\mathbb{R}^d$, $d \geq 2$, is an open axis-parallel hyperrectangle $(a_1, b_1) \times \cdots \times (a_d, b_d)$ with $a_i < b_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq d$. Due to the fact that the volume ratio of any box inside another box is invariant under scaling, the problem can be reduced to the case when the enclosing box is a hypercube. Given a set $S$ of $n$ points in the unit hypercube $U_d = [0, 1]^d$, $d \geq 2$, an empty box is a box empty of points in $S$ and contained in $U_d$, and Maximum Empty Box is the problem of finding an empty box with the maximum volume. Note that an empty box of maximum volume must be maximal with respect to inclusion. Some planar examples of maximal empty rectangles are shown in Fig. 1. All rectangles and boxes considered in this paper are axis-parallel.

According to an early result of Naamad, Lee, and Hsu [35], the number of maximal empty rectangles amidst $n$ points in the unit square is $O(n^2)$ (and it is easy to exhibit tight examples); as such, the number of maximum empty rectangles amidst $n$ points in the unit square is also $O(n^2)$. Since then, this quadratic upper bound has been revisited numerous times [1, 2, 3, 6, 12, 16, 25, 37]. Only recently was the latter upper bound sharply reduced, to nearly linear, namely $O(n \log n 2^{o(n)})$.

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Figure 1: A maximal empty rectangle supported by one point on each side (left), and three maximal empty rectangles supported by both points and sides of $[0,1]^2$ (right).

Here $\alpha(n)$ is the extremely slowly growing inverse of Ackermann’s function$^1$. For any fixed $d \geq 2$, the number of maximum empty boxes amidst $n$ points in $U_d = [0,1]^d$, $d \geq 2$, is always $O(n^d)$ [26, 19] and sometimes $\Omega(n^{\lfloor d/2 \rfloor})$ [19].

Besides the number of maximum empty boxes, the volume of such boxes is another parameter of interest. Given a set $S$ of $n$ points in the unit hypercube $U_d = [0,1]^d$, where $d \geq 2$, let $A_d(S)$ be the maximum volume of an empty box contained in $U_d$, and let $A_d(n)$ be the minimum value of $A_d(S)$ over all sets $S$ of $n$ points in $U_d$. Rote and Tichy [37] proved that $A_d(n) = \Theta\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$ for any fixed $d \geq 2$. From one direction, for any $d \geq 2$, we have

$$A_d(n) < \left(2^{d-1} \prod_{i=1}^{d-1} p_i\right) \cdot \frac{1}{n},$$

where $p_i$ is the $i$th prime, as shown in [37, 17] using Halton-Hammersley generalizations [23, 24] of the van der Corput point set [14, 15]; see also [33, Ch. 2.1].

From the other direction, by slicing the hypercube with $n$ parallel hyperplanes, each incident to one of the $n$ points, the largest slice gives an empty box of volume at least $\frac{1}{n+1}$, and hence we have the lower bound $A_d(n) \geq \frac{1}{n+1}$ for each $d$. This trivial estimate can be improved using the following inequality [17, 18] that relates $A_d(n)$ to $A_d(b)$ for fixed $d \geq 2$ and $b \geq 2$:

$$A_d(n) \geq (b+1)A_d(b) - o(1) \cdot \frac{1}{n}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

In particular, with $b = 4$, the following bound$^2$ was obtained in [17]:

$$A_d(n) \geq A_2(n) \geq (5A_2(4) - o(1)) \cdot \frac{1}{n} = (1.25 - o(1)) \cdot \frac{1}{n}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

By exploiting the above observation of (2) in a more subtle and fruitful way, Aistleitner, Hinrichs, and Rudolf [4] recently proved that $A_d([\log d]) = \Omega(1)$. It follows that the dependence on $d$ in the volume bound is necessary, i.e., the maximum volume grows with the dimension $d$. As a consequence, the following lower bound is derived in [4]:

$$A_d(n) \geq \frac{\log d}{4(n + \log d)}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

Following this new development, we present an algorithm that finds a large empty box amidst $n$ points in $[0,1]^d$, whose volume is at least $\frac{\log d}{4(n + \log d)}$, in $O(n + d \log d)$ time. Also, inspired by the

$^1$See e.g. [38] for technical details on this and other similar functions.

$^2$A weaker bound with $b = 3$ was inadvertently labeled as an improvement over this bound in [18].
technique of [4], we introduce the concepts of perfect vector sets and properly overlapping partitions as tools for bounding the minimum volume of a maximum empty box amidst \( n \) points in the unit hypercube \( U_d = [0,1]^d \). We show the equivalence of these two concepts, then derive an exact closed formula for the maximum size of a family of pairwise properly overlapping 2-partitions of \([n]\), and obtain exponential lower and upper bounds (in \( n \)) on the maximum size of a family of \( t \)-wise properly overlapping \( a \)-partitions of \([n]\) for all \( a \geq 2 \) and \( t \geq 2 \). These new concepts and corresponding bounds are connected to classical concepts in extremal set theory such as Sperner systems and the LYM inequality [10], and will likely see other applications.

**Notations.** Let \([n]\) denote the set \( \{1,2,\ldots,n\} \). For \( A \subseteq [n], \overline{A} = [n] \setminus A \) denotes the complement of \( A \). As usually, \( \Theta, O, \Omega \) notation is used to describe the asymptotic growth of functions. When writing \( f \sim g \), we ignore constant factors. The \( \Omega^* \) notation is used to describe the asymptotic growth of functions ignoring polynomial factors; if \( 1 < c_1 < c_2 \) are two constants, we frequently write \( \Omega^*(c_2^n) = \Omega(c_1^n) \).

## 2 A fast algorithm for finding a large empty box

We first give an efficient algorithm for finding a large empty box, i.e., one whose volume is at least that guaranteed by equation (3). We essentially proceed as directed by the proof by Aistleitner et al. [4].

**Theorem 1.** Given \( n \) points in \([0,1]^d\), an empty box of volume at least \( \frac{\log d}{4(n + d \log d)} \) can be computed in \( O(n + d \log d) \) time.

**Proof.** Let \( \ell = \lfloor \log d \rfloor \), and \( k = \lfloor n/(\ell + 1) \rfloor \). First partition the \( n \) points in \( U_d \) into \( k+1 \) boxes of equal volume by using parallel hyperplanes orthogonal to first axis. Select the box, say \( B \), containing the fewest points, at most \( \ell \); we may assume that \( B \) contains exactly \( \ell \) points in its interior. We have

\[
\text{vol}(B) = \frac{1}{k+1} \geq \frac{\ell + 1}{n + \ell + 1} \geq \frac{\log d}{n + \log d}.
\]

Clearly, \( B \) can be found in \( O(n) \) time by examining the first coordinate of each point and using the integer floor function. Assume that \( B = [a,b] \times [0,1]^{d-1} = \prod_{i=1}^{d} [a_i,b_i] \).

Second, encode the \( \ell \) points in \( B \) by \( d \) binary vectors of length \( \ell \), \( V = \{v_1,\ldots,v_d\} \), one for each coordinate: The \( j \)th bit of the \( i \)th vector, for \( j = 1,\ldots,\ell \), is set to 0 or 1 depending on whether the \( i \)th coordinate of the \( j \)th point is \( \leq (a_i + b_i)/2 \) or \( > (a_i + b_i)/2 \), respectively. Clearly, there are at most \( 2^\ell \) distinct binary vectors of length \( \ell \).

If there is a zero-vector in \( V \), say, \( v_1 \), all points are contained in the box

\[
\prod_{k<i} [a_k,b_k] \times \left[ a_i, \frac{a_i + b_i}{2} \right] \times \prod_{i<k} [a_k,b_k],
\]

and so the complementary box of volume \( \text{vol}(B)/2 \) is empty; the same argument holds if one of the \( d \) vectors in \( V \) has all coordinates equal to 1. If neither of these cases occurs, since \( 2^\ell - 2 < d \), then by the pigeonhole principle there is pair of equal vectors, say \( v_i, v_j \), with \( i < j \): i.e., \( v_i[r] = v_j[r] \) for each \( r \in [\ell] \). In particular, if \( a \in \{01,10\} \), then \( v_i[r] \neq v_j[r] \), for each \( r \in [\ell] \); we say that the binary combination (string) \( \alpha \) is uncovered by this pair of vectors. By construction, an uncovered combination, say 01, yields an empty “quarter” of \( B \):

\[
\prod_{k<i} [a_k,b_k] \times \left[ a_i, \frac{a_i + b_i}{2} \right] \times \prod_{i<k} [a_k,b_k] \times \left[ \frac{a_j + b_j}{2}, b_j \right] \times \prod_{j<k} [a_k,b_k].
\]
Its volume is obviously \( \text{vol}(B)/4 \), thus in all cases one finds an empty box of volume \( \text{vol}(B)/4 \).

The \( d \) binary vectors of size \( \ell \) can be viewed as \( d \) integers in the range from 0 to \( d \). These can be assembled in time \( O(d\ell) = O(d \log d) \). Finding a pair of duplicate vectors is easily done by sorting the \( d \) integers, say, using radix sort in \( O(d) \) time [13]; or by other method in time \( O(d \log d) \). Use the uncovered binary combination to output the corresponding empty box of \( U_d \). By (4), its volume is at least that guaranteed by equation (3), as required. The total running time is \( O(n + d \log d) \), as claimed.

\[ \square \]

Remark. Slightly improved parameters can be chosen according to the theory of perfect vector sets, e.g., by Theorem 2 in Section 3, however the effects in the outcome are negligible.

3 Perfect vector sets and properly overlapping partitions

Perfect vector sets. Let \( n \geq 2 \) and \( \Sigma = \{0, 1\} \). A set of binary vectors \( \mathcal{V} = \{v_1, \ldots, v_k\} \), where \( v_1, \ldots, v_k \in \{0, 1\}^n \) is called perfect if (i) \( |\mathcal{V}| \geq 2 \) and (ii) for every pair \( (v_i, v_j) \), \( 1 \leq i < j \leq k \), and for every \( \alpha \in \{0, 1\}^2 \), we have \( v_i[r] v_j[r] = \alpha \), for some \( r \in [n] \). We refer to the latter condition as the covering condition for the pair \( (v_i, v_j) \) and the binary string \( \alpha \). Since \( |\Sigma^2| = 4 \), the covering condition requires \( n \geq 4 \). For example, writing the elements in \( \Sigma^2 \) as the 4 rows of a \( 4 \times 2 \) binary matrix yields a perfect set of 2 binary vectors as the columns of this matrix. This shows the existence of perfect vector sets of length 4; and the existence of perfect vector sets of any higher length is implied. A vector set that is not perfect is called imperfect.

Remarks. Observe that the covering condition above implies the seemingly stronger covering condition: for every unordered pair \( \{i, j\} \subseteq [k] \) and for every \( \alpha \in \{0, 1\}^2 \), we have \( v_i[r] v_j[r] = \alpha \), for some \( r \in [n] \).

Further, observe that every perfect multiset is actually a set of vectors, i.e., no duplicates may exist. Indeed, assume that two elements of the multiset are the same vector: \( v_i = v_j = v \) for some \( i < j \); then the required covering condition fails for this ordered pair for both \( \alpha = 01 \) and \( \alpha = 10 \). We have thus shown that the notion of perfect vector sets cannot be extended to multisets.

Let \( p(n) \) denote the maximum size of a perfect set of vectors of length \( n \geq 4 \); by the above observations, \( 2 \leq p(n) \leq 2^n \). In Theorem 2 we give a finer estimate of \( p(n) \), in particular, it is shown that \( p(n) = \left(\binom{n-1}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1} \right) = \Theta(2^n n^{-1/2}) \).

\( t \)-wise perfect vector sets. We extend the above setup for larger alphabets and for multiple vectors as follows. Let \( \Sigma_a = \{0, 1, \ldots, a - 1\} \), where \( a \geq 2 \); let \( t \geq 2 \). A set of vectors \( \mathcal{V} = \{v_1, \ldots, v_k\} \), where \( v_1, \ldots, v_k \in \Sigma_a^n \) is called \( t \)-wise perfect with respect to \( \Sigma_a \) if (i) \( |\mathcal{V}| \geq t \) and (ii) for for every \( t \)-uple \( (v_{i_1}, \ldots, v_{i_t}) \), \( 1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \ldots < i_t \leq k \), and for every \( \alpha \in \Sigma_a^t \), we have \( v_{i_1}[r] \ldots v_{i_t}[r] = \alpha \), for some \( r \in [n] \). We refer to the latter condition as the \( t \)-wise covering condition for the \( t \)-uple \( (v_{i_1}, \ldots, v_{i_t}) \) and the string \( \alpha \), where \( |\alpha| = t \). If there exists a \( t \)-wise perfect set of vectors of length \( n \) over the alphabet \( \Sigma_a \), then we must have \( n \geq a^t \). As in the binary case, writing the elements in \( \Sigma_a^n \) as the \( a^t \) rows of a \( a^t \times t \) matrix yields a \( t \)-wise perfect set of \( t \) vectors over \( \Sigma_a \) as the columns of this matrix. This shows the existence of perfect vector sets of length \( a^t \); and the existence of \( t \)-wise perfect vector sets of any higher length is implied. A vector set that is not \( t \)-wise perfect is called \( t \)-wise imperfect. Throughout this paper we assume that \( a \) and \( t \) are fixed and \( n \) tends to infinity.
Remarks. Clearly, if \( s \leq t \), a vector set that is \( t \)-wise perfect with respect to \( \Sigma_a \) is also \( s \)-wise perfect with respect to \( \Sigma_a \). Again, the covering condition above implies the seemingly stronger covering condition that takes \( t \) vector indexes in any order. Finally, every perfect multiset is in fact a set of vectors, i.e., no duplicates may exist; that is, the notion of \( t \)-wise perfect vector sets cannot be extended to multisets.

Let \( p(a,t,n) \) denote the maximum size of a \( t \)-wise perfect set of vectors of length \( n \geq a^t \) over \( \Sigma_a \). By the above observations, \( t \leq p(a,t,n) \leq a^n \). By slightly abusing notation, we write \( p(n) \) instead of \( p(2,2,n) \).

Properly overlapping partitions. For any \( a \geq 2 \) and \( t \geq 2 \), we say that a family \( \mathcal{P} \) of (unordered) \( a \)-partitions of a set \( t \)-wise properly overlap if (i) \( |\mathcal{P}| \geq t \) and (ii) for any subfamily of \( t \) \( a \)-partitions \( P_1, \ldots, P_t \) in \( \mathcal{P} \), the intersection of any \( t \) parts, with one part from each \( P_i \), is nonempty. Observation 1 below shows that \( p(a,t,n) \), from the earlier setup with perfect vector sets, can be defined alternatively as the maximum size of a family of \( t \)-wise properly overlapping \( a \)-partitions of \([n]\). We thus must have \( n \geq a^t \).

Observation 1. Any family of \( t \)-wise perfect set of vectors of length \( n \) over the alphabet \( \Sigma_a \) can be put into a one-to-one correspondence with a same-size family of \( t \)-wise properly overlapping \( a \)-partitions of \([n]\). Conversely, any family of \( t \)-wise properly overlapping \( a \)-partitions of \([n]\) can be put into a one-to-one correspondence with a same-size family of \( t \)-wise perfect set of vectors of length \( n \) over the alphabet \( \Sigma_a \).

Proof. Let \( \mathcal{V} \) denote a family of \( t \)-wise perfect set of vectors of length \( n \) over the alphabet \( \Sigma_a \). Construct a family of partitions of \([n]\) as follows: For any vector \( v \in \mathcal{V} \), consider the \( a \)-partition of \([n]\) in which element \( r \) belongs to the set \( v[r], r = 1, 2, \ldots, n \). One can see that the above correspondence is one-to-one.

Suppose now that \( \mathcal{P} \) is a family of \( t \)-wise properly overlapping \( a \)-partitions of \([n]\). For any \( a \)-partition of \([n]\) consider the vector whose \( r \)-th position is the number of the set containing \( r \) (an element of \([a]\)). One can see that the above correspondence is one-to-one.

Second, the \( t \)-wise perfect condition with respect to \( \mathcal{V} \) is the same as the \( t \)-wise properly overlapping condition with respect to \( \mathcal{P} \): indeed, the \( t \)-wise covering condition for the \( t \)-uple \( (v_{i1} \ldots v_{it}) \) and the string \( \alpha \) is nothing else than the properly overlapping condition for the corresponding \( t \) \( a \)-partitions \( P_{i1}, \ldots, P_{it} \), i.e., the intersection of any \( t \) parts, with one part from each \( P_i \), is nonempty. \( \square \)

Note, if \( s \leq t \), then any family of \( t \)-wise properly overlapping \( a \)-partitions of \([n]\) are also \( s \)-wise properly overlapping, thus if \( n \geq a^s \), then \( p(a,t,n) \leq p(a,s,n) \); in particular \( p(a,t,n) \leq p(a,2,n) \). Asymptotics of \( p(a,2,n) \) for some small values of \( a \), as implied by Theorems 3 and 4 are displayed in Table 1, together with the exact value of \( p(2,2,n) \) from Theorem 2. The exact statements and the proofs are to follow.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( a )</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lower bd. on ( p(a,2,n) )</td>
<td>( \binom{n-1}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1} )</td>
<td>( \Omega(1.25^n) )</td>
<td>( \Omega(1.12^n) )</td>
<td>( \Omega(1.01^n) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upper bd. on ( p(a,2,n) )</td>
<td>( \binom{n-1}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1} )</td>
<td>( O(1.89^n) )</td>
<td>( O(1.76^n) )</td>
<td>( O(1.39^n) )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: \( p(a,2,n) \) for a few small \( a \).
4 An exact formula for \( p(n) = p(2, 2, n) \)

In this section we prove the following exact formula:

**Theorem 2.** For any \( n \geq 4 \), we have

\[
p(n) = \left( \frac{n-1}{n/2} \right).
\]

**Lower bound.** Consider the family \( \mathcal{P} \) consisting of all 2-partitions of the form \( A_i \cup B_i \), where \( 1 \in A_i \) and \( |A_i| = |n/2| \). We clearly have \( |\mathcal{P}| = \left( \frac{n-1}{n/2} \right) \). So it only remains to show that the 2-partitions in \( \mathcal{P} \) are properly overlapping. Let \( i < j \). Since \( 1 \in A_i \) and \( 1 \in A_j \) it follows that \( A_i \cap A_j \neq \emptyset \). The same premise also implies that \( B_i \cup B_j \subseteq \{2, 3, \ldots, n\} \); since \( |B_i| = |B_j| = |n/2| \), it follows that \( B_i \setminus B_j \neq \emptyset \). We now show that \( A_i \cap B_j \neq \emptyset \); assume for contradiction that \( A_i \cap B_j = \emptyset \); since \( |A_i| = |n/2| \) and \( |B_j| = |n/2| \), we have \( B_j = A_i \); however, \( B_i = \overline{A_i} \); and so \( B_i = B_j \) and \( A_i = A_j \); that is, \( A_i \cup B_i = A_j \cup B_j \) is the same 2-partition, which is a contradiction. We have shown that \( A_i \cap B_j \neq \emptyset \); a symmetric argument shows that \( A_j \cap B_i \neq \emptyset \), hence the 2-partitions in \( \mathcal{P} \) are properly overlapping, as required.

**Upper bound.** Consider a family \( \mathcal{P} \) of properly overlapping 2-partitions; write \( |\mathcal{P}| = m \). Each 2-partition is of the form \( A_i \cup B_i \), where (i) \( |A_i| \leq |B_i| \), and (ii) if \( |A_i| = |B_i| \), then \( 1 \in A_i \). Consider the family of sets \( \mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \ldots, A_m\} \). Since \( \mathcal{P} \) consists of properly overlapping 2-partitions, \( A_i \cap A_j \neq \emptyset \) for every \( i \neq j \).

We next show that \( A_i \nsubseteq A_j \), for every \( i \neq j \); that is, \( \mathcal{A} \) is an antichain. In particular, this will imply that \( \mathcal{A} \) consists of pairwise distinct sets, i.e., \( A_i \neq A_j \) for every \( i \neq j \). Assume for contradiction that \( A_i \subseteq A_j \) for some \( i \neq j \); since \( A_j \setminus B_j = \emptyset \) we also have \( A_i \cap B_j = \emptyset \), contradicting the fact that the 2-partitions in \( \mathcal{P} \) are properly overlapping. We next show that \( A_i \cup A_j \neq [n] \), for every \( i \neq j \). This holds if \( 1 \notin A_i \) and \( 1 \notin A_j \), since then \( 1 \notin A_i \cup A_j \). It also holds if \( 1 \in A_i \) and \( 1 \in A_j \), since then \( |A_i \cup A_j| \leq n - 1 \). Assume now (for the remaining 3rd case) that \( 1 \in A_i \) and \( 1 \notin A_j \); since \( 1 \notin A_j \), it follows that \( A_j < n/2 \), and consequently, \( |A_i \cup A_j| \leq n - 1 \).

To summarize, we have shown that \( \mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \ldots, A_m\} \) consists of \( m \) distinct sets such that, if \( i, j \in [m], i \neq j \), then

\[
A_i \cap A_j \neq \emptyset, \quad A_i \nsubseteq A_j, \quad A_i \cup A_j \neq [n].
\]

It is known [31, Problem 6C, p. 46] that under these conditions

\[
|\mathcal{A}| \leq \left( \frac{n-1}{n/2} \right).
\]

Since \( |\mathcal{A}| = |\mathcal{P}| \), the same bound holds for \( |\mathcal{P}| \) and this concludes the proof of the upper bound on \( p(n) \), and thereby the proof of Theorem 2.

**Examples.** By Theorem 2, \( p(4) = 3 \). \( \mathcal{V} \) and \( \mathcal{P} \) below correspond to each other and make a tight example:

\[
\mathcal{V} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \quad \mathcal{P} = \{\{1, 2\}, \{3, 4\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 4\}, \{1, 4\}, \{2, 3\}\}.
\]
By Theorem 2, $p(5) = 4$. $V$ and $P$ below correspond to each other and make a tight example:

$$V = \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{cases}. $$

$$P = \{\{1,2\},\{3,4,5\}\}, \{\{1,3\},\{2,4,5\}\}, \{\{1,4\},\{2,3,5\}\}, \{\{1,5\},\{2,3,4\}\}. $$

5 General bounds on $p(a,t,n)$

In this section we prove the following theorem:

**Theorem 3.** Let $a \geq 3$ and $t \geq 2$ be fixed. Then there exist constants $c_1 = c_1(a,t) > 0$, $\lambda_1 = \lambda_1(a,t) > 1$ $c_2 = c_2(a) > 0$, $\lambda_2 = \lambda_2(a) < 2$, and $n_0(a,t) \geq a^t$ such that

$$p(a,t,n) \geq c_1 \lambda_1^n \quad \text{and} \quad p(a,2,n) \leq c_2 \lambda_2^n, $$

(6)

for $n \geq n_0(a,t)$. In particular,

$$p(a,t,n) \leq p(a,2,n) \leq \left(\frac{n-1}{|n/a| - 1}\right). $$

(7)

**Lower bound.** To prove the lower bound on $p(a,t,n)$ in (6) we construct a perfect set of vectors via a simple random construction. We randomly choose a set $V = \{v_1,\ldots,v_k\}$, of $k \geq t$ vectors, where each coordinate of each vector is chosen uniformly at random from $\Sigma = \{0,1,\ldots,a-1\}$, for a suitable $k$. We then show that for the chosen $k$, the set of vectors satisfies the required covering condition for each $t$-uple of vectors with positive probability.

For any $\alpha \in \Sigma_t^t$, $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \ldots < i_t \leq k$, and $r \in [n]$, we have

$$\text{Prob}(v_{i_1}[r] \ldots v_{i_t}[r] \neq \alpha) = 1 - a^{-t}. $$

Let $E(\alpha,i_1,\ldots,i_k)$ be the bad event that $v_{i_1}[r] \ldots v_{i_t}[r] \neq \alpha$ for each $r \in [n]$. Clearly,

$$\text{Prob}(E(\alpha,i_1,\ldots,i_k)) \leq (1 - a^{-t})^n. $$

Let $F$ be the bad event that there exists $\alpha \in \Sigma_t^t$, and a $t$-uple $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \ldots < i_t \leq k$, so that $E(\alpha,i_1,\ldots,i_k)$ occurs. Clearly

$$\text{Prob}(F) \leq a^t \left(\begin{pmatrix} k \\ t \end{pmatrix}\right) (1-a^{-t})^n \leq (ak)^t (1-a^{-t})^n. $$

Set now $k \geq t$ as large as possible so that Prob($F$) < 1, that is,

$$k < \frac{1}{a} \left(\frac{a}{(a^{-1})^{1/t}}\right)^n, \text{ for } n \geq n_0(a,t). $$

Since Prob($F$) < 1, by the basic probabilistic method (see, e.g., [5]), we conclude that the chosen set of vectors is $t$-wise perfect with nonzero probability. To satisfy the above inequality and thereby guarantee its existence, we set (for a small $\varepsilon > 0$)

$$c_1(a,t) = \frac{1}{a} - \varepsilon, \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_1(a,t) = \frac{a}{(a^{-1})^{1/t}} > 1, $$

...
and thereby complete the proof of the lower bound. Observe that for any fixed \( t \geq 2 \), the sequence

\[
x_m = \frac{m}{(m^t - 1)^{1/t}}, \quad m \geq 2,
\]

is strictly decreasing, \( x_2 \leq 2/\sqrt{3} \) and its limit is 1.

**Upper bound.** To bound \( p(a, 2, n) \) from above as in (6), let \( \mathcal{P} \) be a family of \( a \)-partitions of \([n]\) that pairwise properly overlap; write \(|\mathcal{P}| = m\). Each \( a \)-partition is of the form \( A_i \cup B_i \cup \ldots \), for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \), where \(|A_i| \leq |B_i| \leq \ldots \). By this choice, \(|A_i| \leq \lfloor n/a \rfloor \) for all \( i \in [n] \). Consider the family of sets \( \mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \ldots, A_m\} \). Since \( \mathcal{P} \) consists of properly overlapping \( a \)-partitions, \( A_i \cap A_j \neq \emptyset \) for every \( i \neq j \).

We next show that \( A_i \nsubseteq A_j \), for every \( i \neq j \); that is, \( \mathcal{A} \) is an antichain. In particular, this will imply that \( \mathcal{A} \) consists of pairwise distinct sets, i.e., \( A_i \neq A_j \) for every \( i \neq j \). Assume for contradiction that \( A_i \subseteq A_j \) for some \( i \neq j \); since \( A_j \cap B_j = \emptyset \) we also have \( A_i \cap B_j = \emptyset \), contradicting the fact that the \( a \)-partitions in \( \mathcal{P} \) are properly overlapping.

To summarize, we have shown that \( \mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \ldots, A_m\} \) consists of \( m \) distinct sets such that, if \( i, j \in [m], i \neq j \), then

\[
A_i \cap A_j \neq \emptyset, \quad A_i \nsubseteq A_j,
\]

and \(|A_i| \leq \lfloor n/a \rfloor \) for all \( i \in [n] \). It is known [31, Theorem 6.5, p. 46] that under these conditions

\[
|\mathcal{A}| \leq \left( \frac{n - 1}{\lfloor n/a \rfloor - 1} \right).
\]

Since \(|\mathcal{A}| = |\mathcal{P}| \), the same bound holds for \(|\mathcal{P}| \).

By Stirling’s formula,

\[
 n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} \left( \frac{n}{e} \right)^n \left( 1 + O \left( \frac{1}{n} \right) \right),
\]

hence

\[
\left( \frac{n - 1}{\lfloor n/a \rfloor - 1} \right) \leq \left( \frac{n}{\lfloor n/a \rfloor} \right) \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{a}{((a - 1)^a - 1)^{1/a}} \left( \frac{n}{\lfloor n/a \rfloor} \right)^n.
\]

(8)

Note that the sequence

\[
y_m = \frac{m}{((m - 1)^{m-1})^{1/m}}, \quad m \geq 2,
\]

is strictly decreasing, \( y_2 = 2 \), and its limit is 1. By (8) we can therefore set

\[
c_2(a) > 0 \text{ and } \lambda_2(a) = \frac{a}{((a - 1)^{a-1})^{1/a}} < 2,
\]

and note that if \( a \) is sufficiently large, then \( \lambda_2(a, 2) \) is arbitrarily close to 1, in agreement with the behavior of \( \lambda_1(a, t) \), for large \( a \); that is, for any fixed \( t \geq 2 \), we have \( \lim_{m \to \infty} x_m = \lim_{m \to \infty} y_m = 1 \).

6 Sharper bounds on \( p(a, t, n) \)

We next derive sharper bounds for \( t = 2 \) (in Theorem 4) via an explicit lower bound construction and via an upper bound argument specific to this case.

**Theorem 4.** Let \( b = \binom{\lfloor n/(2b) \rfloor}{2} \) and \( k = [n/(2b)] \). Then the following inequalities hold:

\[
\frac{1}{2} \binom{\lfloor 2k \rfloor}{k} \leq p(a, 2, n) \leq \binom{n}{\lfloor n/a \rfloor}/(2b).
\]

(9)
Lemma 1. Let \( b = \binom{a}{2} \). Let \( k = \lfloor n/(2b) \rfloor \). Then the set \([n]\) can be partitioned into \( b + 1 \) subsets, including \( b \) subsets \( B_{ij} \) of size \( 2k \), \( 1 \leq i < j \leq a \), and a possibly empty leftover subset \( C \).

Note that each \( B_{ij} \) has size \( 2k \) and hence exactly \( \frac{1}{2}(2^k) \) 2-partitions into two subsets of equal size \( k \). We next construct a family of \( \frac{1}{2}(2^k) \) pairwise properly overlapping \( a \)-partitions of \([n]\).

To obtain an \( a \)-partition \( (P_1, \ldots, P_a) \), initialize each \( P_i \) to an empty set, then take a distinct 2-partition of each \( B_{ij} \) and put the elements of the two parts into \( P_i \) and \( P_j \), respectively. Then each \( P_i \) has size \( k(a - 1) \). Finally, if the leftover subset \( C \) is not empty, add its elements to \( P_1 \).

For any two \( a \)-partitions \( (P_1, \ldots, P_a) \) and \( (Q_1, \ldots, Q_a) \) thus constructed, and for any pair \( i < j \), the intersection of any one of \( P_i, P_j \) and any one of \( Q_i, Q_j \) is not empty because in each case, the two sets contain two distinct non-complementary \( k \)-subsets of the same \( 2k \)-set \( B_{ij} \). Hence these \( a \)-partitions are pairwise properly overlapping as desired.

Finally, note that the size of this family is \( \frac{1}{2}(2^k) \), which is about \( 2^{n/b} \), ignoring polynomial factors. When \( a = 3 \), \( b = \binom{3}{2} = 3 \), we have a lower bound \( p(3, 2, n) = \Omega^*(\frac{2^{1/3}n}{n^2}) = \Omega(1.25^n) \).

We illustrate the construction for \( a = 3 \), \( n = 12 \); we get \( k = 2 \), \( |B_{ij}| = 4 \), for \( 1 \leq i < j \leq 3 \); and \( B_{12} = \{ 1, 2, 3, 4 \} \), \( B_{13} = \{ 5, 6, 7, 8 \} \), \( B_{23} = \{ 9, 10, 11, 12 \} \). Each \( B_{ij} \) has three 2-partitions; denote by \( P_{ij} \) the corresponding family.

\[
\begin{align*}
P_{12} &= \{\{1, 2\}, \{3, 4\}\}, \{\{1, 3\}, \{2, 4\}\}, \{\{1, 4\}, \{2, 3\}\}\}, \\
P_{13} &= \{\{5, 6\}, \{7, 8\}\}, \{\{5, 7\}, \{6, 8\}\}, \{\{5, 8\}, \{6, 7\}\}\}, \\
P_{23} &= \{\{9, 10\}, \{11, 12\}\}, \{\{9, 11\}, \{10, 12\}\}, \{\{9, 12\}, \{10, 11\}\}\}.
\end{align*}
\]

The resulting three 3-partitions are:

\[
\begin{align*}
P &= \{\{1, 2, 5, 6\}, \{3, 4, 9, 10\}, \{7, 8, 11, 12\}\}, \\
Q &= \{\{1, 3, 5, 7\}, \{2, 4, 9, 11\}, \{6, 8, 10, 12\}\}, \\
R &= \{\{1, 4, 5, 8\}, \{2, 3, 9, 12\}, \{6, 7, 10, 11\}\}.
\end{align*}
\]

For the upper bound we need the following two technical lemmas.

**Lemma 1.** Let \( a \geq 2 \), \( n_i \geq 1 \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq a \), and \( n = \sum_{i=1}^{a} n_i \). Then

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{a} \frac{1}{n_i} \geq \frac{a}{\binom{n}{\lfloor n/a \rfloor}}.
\]

**Proof.** The lemma clearly holds for \( a = 2 \) since \( \binom{n}{2} \) is maximized at \( n_i = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \) or \( \lceil n/2 \rceil \). Now let \( a \geq 3 \). First observe that we can have \( n_i > \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \) for at most one \( n_i \). If \( n_i > \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \) for some \( n_i \), then we must have \( n_j < \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \) for some \( n_j \). But then \( 1/\binom{n}{n_i} \geq 1/\binom{n}{n_i-1} \) and \( 1/\binom{n}{n_j} \geq 1/\binom{n}{n_j+1} \), where \( n_i - 1 \) is less than \( n_i \), and \( n_j + 1 \) remains at most \( \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \). Thus we can assume without loss of generality that \( n_i \leq \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \) for all \( n_i \). Recall the extension of the factorial function \( k! \) to the gamma function \( \Gamma(x) \) for real numbers \( x \), where \( \Gamma(k+1) = k! \). Correspondingly, we can extend \( 1/\binom{n}{k} \) to a real function \( f(x) = \Gamma(x+1)\Gamma(n-x+1)/\Gamma(n+1) \) such that \( f(k) = 1/\binom{n}{k} \). Since \( f(x) \) is convex and decreasing for \( 1 \leq x \leq \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \), it follows by Jensen's inequality that

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{a} \frac{1}{n_i} \geq a \cdot f(n/a) \geq a \cdot f(\lfloor n/a \rfloor) = \frac{a}{\binom{n}{\lfloor n/a \rfloor}}.
\]

\[ \Box \]
Lemma 2. Let \( m \geq 2, n \geq 2, \) and \( b \geq 1. \) Let \( \mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \ldots, A_m\} \) be a family of \( m \) distinct subsets of \([n]\) such that \( |A_i \setminus A_j| \geq b \) and \( |A_j \setminus A_i| \geq b \) for any two subsets \( A_i \) and \( A_j \) in \( \mathcal{A} \). Then

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{b}{(|A_i|)} \leq 1.
\]

Proof. Our proof is an adaptation of the proof of [31, Theorem 6.6]. Let \( \pi \) be a permutation of \([n]\) placed on a circle and let us say that \( A_i \in \pi \) if the elements of \( A_i \) occur consecutively somewhere on that circle. Then each subset \( A_i \in \pi \) corresponds to a closed circular arc with endpoints in \([n]\). For any two subsets \( A_i \) and \( A_j \) in \( \pi \), the condition \( |A_i \setminus A_j| \geq b \) and \( |A_j \setminus A_i| \geq b \) requires that the left (respectively, right) endpoints of the corresponding two circular arcs on the circle differ by at least \( b \) modulo \( n \). Therefore, if \( A_i \in \pi \), then \( A_j \in \pi \) for at most \( \lfloor n/b \rfloor \) values of \( j \) including \( i \).

Now define \( f(\pi, i) = \frac{1}{\lfloor n/b \rfloor} \) if \( A_i \in \pi \), and \( f(\pi, i) = 0 \) otherwise. By the argument above, we have

\[
\sum_{\pi} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f(\pi, i) \leq n!.
\]

Following a different order to evaluate the double summation, we can count, for each fixed \( A_i \), and for each fixed circular arc of \( |A_i| \) consecutive elements out of \( n \) elements on the circle, the number of permutations \( \pi \) such that \( A_i \) corresponds to the circular arc, which is exactly \( |A_i|!(n-|A_i|)! \). So we have

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{m} n \cdot |A_i|!(n-|A_i|)! \cdot \frac{1}{\lfloor n/b \rfloor} \leq n!,
\]

which yields the result.

Upper bound. We now proceed to prove the upper bound in Theorem 4. Let \( \mathcal{P} \) be a family of \( a \)-partitions of \([n]\) that pairwise properly overlap. Then each part of any \( a \)-partition in \( \mathcal{P} \) must have at least \( a \) elements to intersect the \( a \) disjoint parts of any other \( a \)-partition in \( \mathcal{P} \). Thus for any two parts \( A_i \) and \( A_j \) of the same \( a \)-partition, \( |A_i \setminus A_j| = |A_j \setminus A_i| = |A_j| \geq a \) and \( |A_i \setminus A_j| = |A_j| \geq a \). On the other hand, for any two parts \( A_i \) and \( A_j \) of different \( a \)-partitions, we must have \( |A_i \setminus A_j| \geq a-1 \) so that \( A_i \) can intersect the other \( a-1 \) parts of the \( a \)-partition that includes \( A_j \), and symmetrically, \( |A_j \setminus A_i| \geq a-1 \). Thus the family of subsets in all \( a \)-partitions in \( \mathcal{P} \) satisfies the condition of Lemma 2 with \( b = a-1 \). It follows that

\[
\sum_{\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}} \frac{a-1}{(|A_i|)} \leq 1.
\]

Then, by Lemma 1, we have

\[
|\mathcal{P}| \cdot \frac{a(a-1)}{\binom{n}{\lfloor n/a \rfloor}} \leq \sum_{\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}} \frac{a-1}{\binom{n}{|A_i|}} \leq 1.
\]

Thus the size of \( \mathcal{P} \) is at most \( \binom{n}{\lfloor n/a \rfloor}/(a(a-1)) \). Note that this upper bound matches our upper bound of \( \binom{n-1}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor-1} \) when \( a = 2 \) and \( n \) is even, and improves the upper bound of \( \binom{n-1}{\lfloor n/a \rfloor-1} \) by a factor of \( \frac{1}{a-1} \) when \( n \) is a multiple of \( a \).

7 Connections to classical concepts in extremal set theory

A family \( \mathcal{A} \) of sets is an antichain if for any two sets \( U \) and \( V \) in \( \mathcal{A} \), neither \( U \subseteq V \) nor \( V \subseteq U \) holds. For \( l \geq 1 \), a sequence \( \langle T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_l \rangle \) of \( l+1 \) sets is an \( l \)-chain (a chain of length \( l \)) if
A family of sets is said to be \( r \)-chain-free if it contains no chain of length \( r \); in particular, every antichain is 1-chain-free. Sperner \cite{S61} bounded the largest size of an antichain \( A \) consisting of subsets of \( [n] \):

\[
|A| \leq \binom{n}{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor},
\]

where equality is attained, for example, when \( A \) is the family of all subsets of \( [n] \) with exactly \( \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \) elements. Bollobás \cite{B64}, Lubell \cite{L64}, Yamamoto \cite{Y70}, and Meshalkin \cite{M70} independently discovered a stronger result known as the LYM inequality:

\[
\sum_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \frac{1}{\binom{|A|}{|A|}} \leq 1.
\]

For \( p \geq 2 \), a \textit{p-composition} of a finite set \( S \) is an ordered \( p \)-partition of \( S \), that is, a tuple \((A_1, \ldots, A_p)\) of \( p \) disjoint sets whose union is \( S \). For any family \( \mathcal{A} \) of \( p \)-compositions \( A = (A_1, \ldots, A_p) \) of \([n]\), the \( i \)th component of \( A \), \( 1 \leq i \leq p \), is the family \( A_i := \{ A \mid A \in \mathcal{A} \} \) of subsets of \([n]\). Meshalkin \cite{M70} proved that if each component \( A_i \), \( 1 \leq i \leq p \), is an antichain, then the maximum size of a family \( \mathcal{A} \) of \( p \)-compositions is the largest \( p \)- multinomial coefficient

\[
|\mathcal{A}| \leq \binom{n}{n_1, \ldots, n_p},
\]

where the \( p \) integers \( n_i \) sum up to \( n \), and any two of them differ by at most 1. Beck and Zaslavsky \cite{BZ79} subsequently obtained an equality on componentwise-\( r \)-chain-free families of \( p \)-compositions, which subsumes the Meshalkin bound (as the \( r = 1 \) case) and generalizes the LYM inequality:

\[
\sum_{(A_1, \ldots, A_p) \in \mathcal{A}} \frac{1}{\binom{|A_1| \cdots |A_p|}{|A_1|}} \leq r^{p-1}.
\]

Our concept of \( t \)-wise properly overlapping \( a \)-partitions is analogous to the classical concept of componentwise-\( r \)-chain-free \( p \)-compositions when \( t = 2 \), \( r = 1 \), and \( a = p \). The difference in this case is that we consider unordered partitions and require that all parts of all partitions pairwise overlap and hence form an antichain (as shown in the proof of Theorem 2), whereas Meshalkin \cite{M70} considers ordered partitions and requires that in each component the corresponding parts of all partitions form an antichain.

\textbf{Added note.} After completion of the work on this manuscript, we learned that some of our results have been obtained earlier, in the the so-called framework of “qualitative independent sets and partitions”. More precisely, our proper \( t \)-wise overlapping partitions have been sometimes referred to as qualitative \( t \)-independent partitions or simply \( t \)-independent partitions in prior work. For instance, it is worth pointing out that our Theorem 2 was independently discovered by four papers with different motivations \cite{9,11,27,29}; see also \cite{21,22,28,30,36} for other related results. We also note that: (i) the lower bound in \cite[Theorem 4]{36} is a special case of the explicit lower bound in our Theorem 4; (ii) the lower bound in \cite[Theorem 5]{36} is analogous (and also obtained by a probabilistic argument) to the lower bound in our Theorem 3. While some of our bounds are superseded by bounds in earlier papers (e.g., the upper bound in \cite[Theorem 1]{36} is stronger than the upper bounds in our Theorems 3 and 4), overall our results cover a broad landscape; as such, the writing has been left unaltered. Our main focus has been determining the asymptotic growth rate of \( p(a, t, n) \) for fixed \( a \) and \( t \); Theorems 2, 3, and 4 provide the answers we need; their implications and connections with the maximum empty box problem are discussed in the next section.
8 Connections to maximum empty box and concluding remarks

Our motivation for studying perfect vector sets and properly overlapping partitions was determining whether the growth rate of \( p(a, t, n) \) is exponential in \( n \), and its relation to the growth rate of \( A_d(n) \) as a function in \( d \). We next show within our framework of perfect vectors sets (or that of properly overlapping partitions) that a subexponential growth in \( n \) of \( p(a, t, n) \) would imply a superlogarithmic growth in \( d \) of the maximum volume \( A_d(n) \) via an argument similar to that employed in the proof of Theorem 1; see also [4].

In the proof of Theorem 1, we have set \( \ell = \lfloor \log d \rfloor \) and found a box \( B \) containing exactly \( \ell \) points in its interior and with \( \text{vol}(B) \geq \frac{\ell+1}{n+\ell+1} \). We then encoded the \( \ell \) points in \( B \) by \( d \) binary vectors of length \( \ell \), \( V = \{v_1, \ldots, v_d \} \). If \( V \) is perfect, we have \( p(n) \leq 2^{n-1} \) by Theorem 2 if \( n \geq 4 \); when applied to \( V \), this yields \( d \leq 2^{\ell-1} \) and further that \( \ell \geq \log d + 1 \), which is a contradiction. Thus \( V \) is imperfect, in which case an uncovered binary combination yields an empty box of volume \( \text{vol}(B)/4 \) and we are done.

Similarly, assume for example that \( p(a, t, n) < n^c \), for some \( a, t \geq 2 \), and a positive constant \( c > 1 \). Set \( \ell = \lfloor d^{1/c} \rfloor \) and proceed as above to find a box \( B \) containing exactly \( \ell \) points in its interior and with \( \text{vol}(B) \geq \frac{\ell+1}{n+\ell+1} \). Encode the \( \ell \) points in \( B \) by \( d \) vectors of length \( \ell \) over \( \Sigma_a = \{0, 1, \ldots, a-1\} \) using the coordinates of the points and a uniform subdivision in \( a \) parts of each extent of \( B \); let \( V = \{v_1, \ldots, v_d \} \). The \( j \)th bit of the \( i \)th vector, for \( j = 1, \ldots, \ell \), is set to \( k \in \{0, 1, \ldots, a-1\} \) depending on whether the \( i \)th coordinate of the \( j \)th point lies in the \((k+1)\)th subinterval of the \( \ell \)th extent. If \( V \) is perfect, since \( p(a, t, n) < n^c \) by the assumption, this implies \( d < \ell^c \), or \( \ell > d^{1/c} \), which is a contradiction. It follows that \( V \) is imperfect, in which case an uncovered \( t \)-wise combination yields an empty box of volume \( a^{-t} \text{vol}(B) \geq a^{-t}d^{1/c}/n \) and we are done.

By Theorem 3, the growth rate of \( p(a, t, n) \) is exponential in \( n \), and so the above scenario does not materialize. This may suggest that \( A_d(n) \) is closer to \( \Theta \left( \frac{\log d}{n} \right) \) than to the upper bound in (1) which is exponential in \( d \). In particular, it would be interesting to establish whether \( A_d(n) \leq d^{O(1)}/n \).

Recall that we have \( A_d(\lfloor \log d \rfloor) = \Omega(1) \), as proved by Aistleitner et al. [4]; this gives a partial answer in relation to one of our earlier open problems from [17], namely whether \( A_d(d) = \Omega(1) \); this latter problem remains open. Under any circumstances, determining the asymptotic behavior of \( A_d(n) \) remains an exciting open problem.

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References


