

Bounds on Ramsey numbers

Yuval Wigderson

ETH Zürich

UMass Amherst

December 9, 2024

Outline

What is Ramsey theory?

Fermat's last theorem and Ramsey numbers

Upper bounds on Ramsey numbers

Lower bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey theory and random graphs

Outline

What is Ramsey theory?

Fermat's last theorem and Ramsey numbers

Upper bounds on Ramsey numbers

Lower bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey theory and random graphs

What is Ramsey theory?

“Complete disorder is impossible.” –Theodore Motzkin

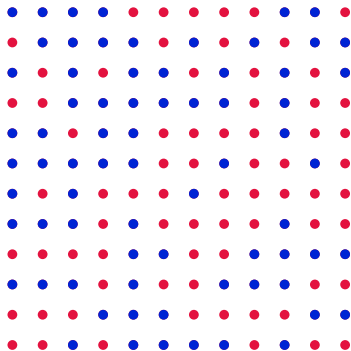
What is Ramsey theory?

“Complete disorder is impossible.” –Theodore Motzkin

Any **large** object contains a **large structured** subobject.

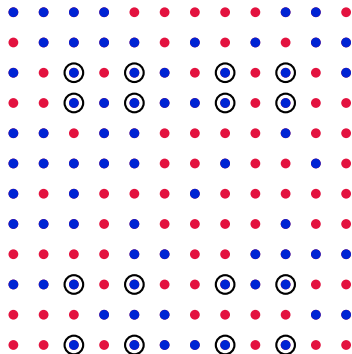
What is Ramsey theory?

Given an $N \times N$ grid, if the points are colored red or blue, how large of a **monochromatic subgrid** can we find?



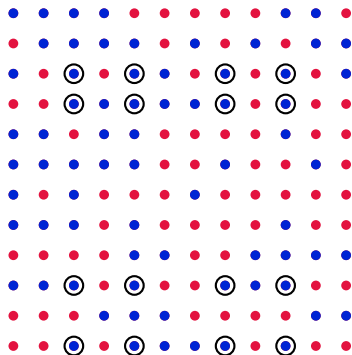
What is Ramsey theory?

Given an $N \times N$ grid, if the points are colored red or blue, how large of a **monochromatic subgrid** can we find?



What is Ramsey theory?

Given an $N \times N$ grid, if the points are colored red or blue, how large of a **monochromatic subgrid** can we find?



2-coloring = partition into two parts

monochromatic = entirely within one part

We are interested in the **worst case**, adversarial colorings.

What is Ramsey theory?

“Complete disorder is impossible.” –Theodore Motzkin

Any **large** object contains a **large structured** subobject.

Theorem (Kővári-Sós-Turán 1954, Chvátal 1969)

In any 2-coloring of an $N \times N$ grid, there is a $\log N \times \log N$ monochromatic subgrid.

What is Ramsey theory?

Given N points, if the points are colored red or blue, how many **evenly spaced** monochromatic points can we find?



What is Ramsey theory?

Given N points, if the points are colored red or blue, how many **evenly spaced** monochromatic points can we find?



What is Ramsey theory?

“Complete disorder is impossible.” –Theodore Motzkin

Any **large** object contains a **large structured** subobject.

Theorem (Kővári-Sós-Turán 1954, Chvátal 1969)

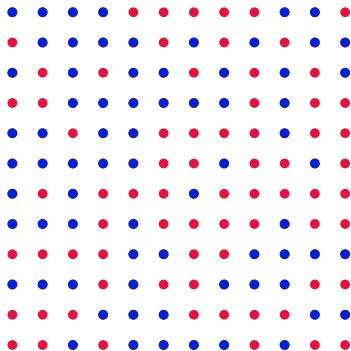
In any 2-coloring of an $N \times N$ grid, there is a $\log N \times \log N$ monochromatic subgrid.

Theorem (van der Waerden 1927, Gowers 2001)

In any 2-coloring of N points, there are $\log \log \log \log \log N$ evenly spaced monochromatic points.

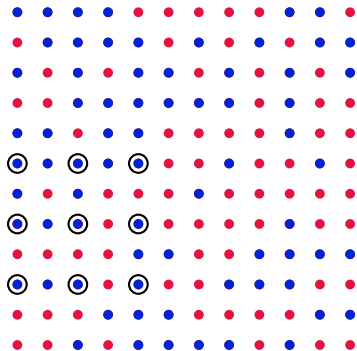
What is Ramsey theory?

Given an $N \times N$ grid, if the points are colored red or blue, how large of an **evenly spaced monochromatic subgrid** can we find?



What is Ramsey theory?

Given an $N \times N$ grid, if the points are colored red or blue, how large of an **evenly spaced monochromatic subgrid** can we find?



What is Ramsey theory?

“Complete disorder is impossible.” –Theodore Motzkin

Any **large** object contains a **large structured** subobject.

Theorem (Kővári-Sós-Turán 1954, Chvátal 1969)

*In any 2-coloring of an $N \times N$ grid, there is a $\log N \times \log N$ **monochromatic subgrid**.*

Theorem (van der Waerden 1927, Gowers 2001)

*In any 2-coloring of N points, there are $\log \log \log \log \log N$ **evenly spaced monochromatic points**.*

Theorem (Gallai 1945, Witt 1952, Shelah 1988)

*In any 2-coloring of an $N \times N$ grid, there is a $w(N) \times w(N)$ **evenly spaced monochromatic subgrid**.*

What is Ramsey theory?

“Complete disorder is impossible.” –Theodore Motzkin

Any **large** object contains a **large structured** subobject.

Theorem (Kővári-Sós-Turán 1954, Chvátal 1969)

*In any 2-coloring of an $N \times N$ grid, there is a $\log N \times \log N$ **monochromatic subgrid**.*

Theorem (van der Waerden 1927, Gowers 2001)

*In any 2-coloring of N points, there are $\log \log \log \log \log N$ **evenly spaced monochromatic points**.*

Theorem (Gallai 1945, Witt 1952, Shelah 1988)

*In any 2-coloring of an $N \times N$ grid, there is a $w(N) \times w(N)$ **evenly spaced monochromatic subgrid**.*

All of these hold for $q > 2$ colors, and even have **density** versions.

What is Ramsey theory?

“Complete disorder is impossible.” –Theodore Motzkin

Any **large** object contains a **large structured** subobject.

Theorem (Kővári-Sós-Turán 1969)

$f(N) \rightarrow \infty$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$

In any 2-coloring of an $N \times N$ grid, there is a $\log N \times \log N$ **monochromatic subgrid**.

Theorem (van der Waerden 1927, Gowers 2001)

In any 2-coloring of N points, there are $\log \log \log \log \log N$ **evenly spaced monochromatic points**.

Theorem (Gallai 1945, Witt 1952, Shelah 1988)

In any 2-coloring of an $N \times N$ grid, there is a $w(N) \times w(N)$ **evenly spaced monochromatic subgrid**.

All of these hold for $q > 2$ colors, and even have **density** versions.

What is Ramsey theory?

"Complete disorder is impossible." –Theodore Motzkin

Any **large** object contains a **large structured** subobject.

Theorem (Kővári-Sós-Turán 1969)

$$f(N) \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty$$

In any 2-coloring of an $N \times N$ grid, there is a $\log N \times \log N$ **monochromatic subgrid**.

Theorem (van der Waerden 1927, Gowers 2001)

In any 2-coloring of N points, there are $\log \log \log \log \log N$ **evenly spaced monochromatic points**.

Theorem (Gallai 1945, Witt 1952, Shelah 1988)

In any 2-coloring of an $N \times N$ grid, there is a $w(N) \times w(N)$ **evenly spaced monochromatic subgrid**.

All of these hold for $q > 2$ colors, and even have **density** versions.

Quantitative question: How **quickly** does f grow?

Connections to other areas of mathematics

Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!

Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!

Ramsey theory

Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!

Extremal combinatorics

probabilistic method

Szemerédi's regularity lemma

dependent random choice

χ -boundedness

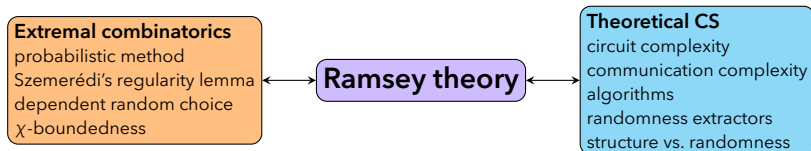


Ramsey theory

Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

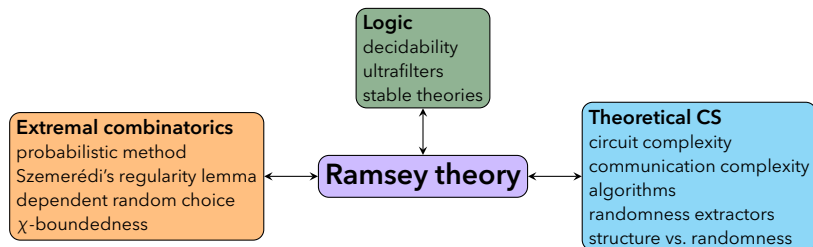
Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!



Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

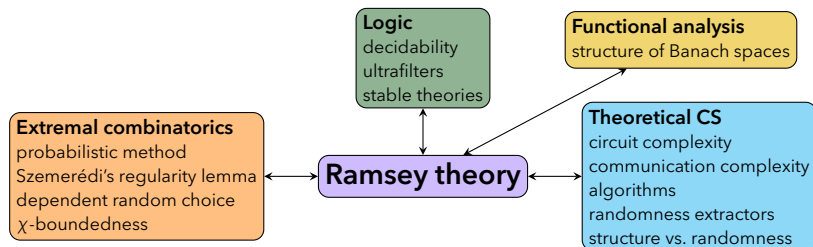
Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!



Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

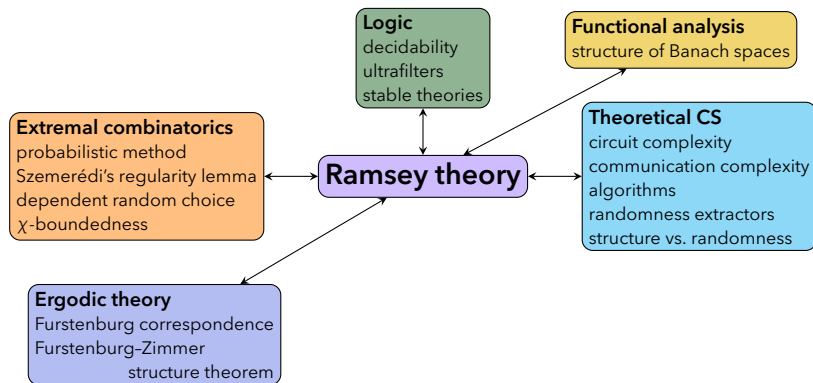
Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!



Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

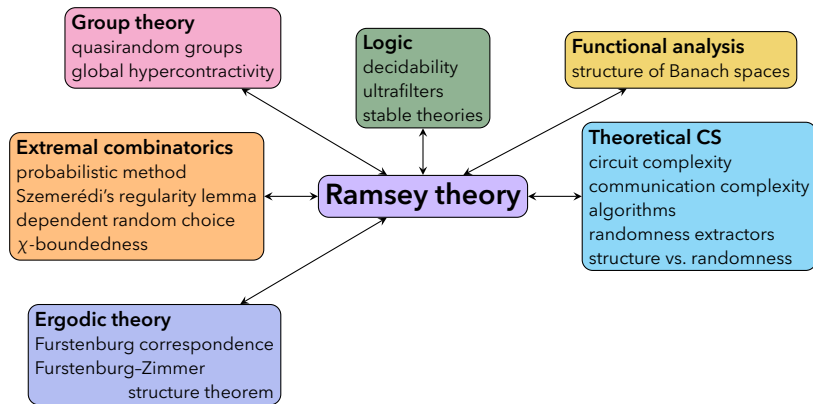
Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!



Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

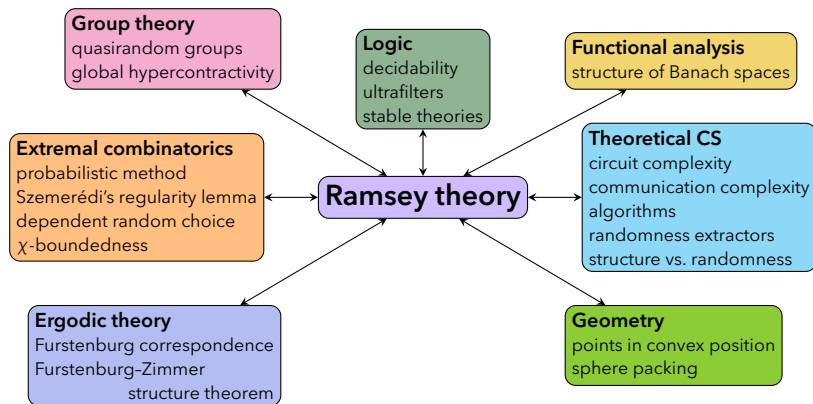
Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!



Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

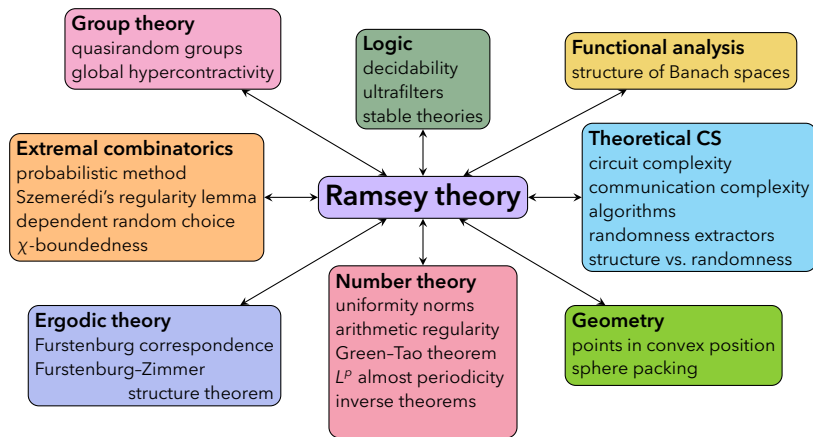
Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!



Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

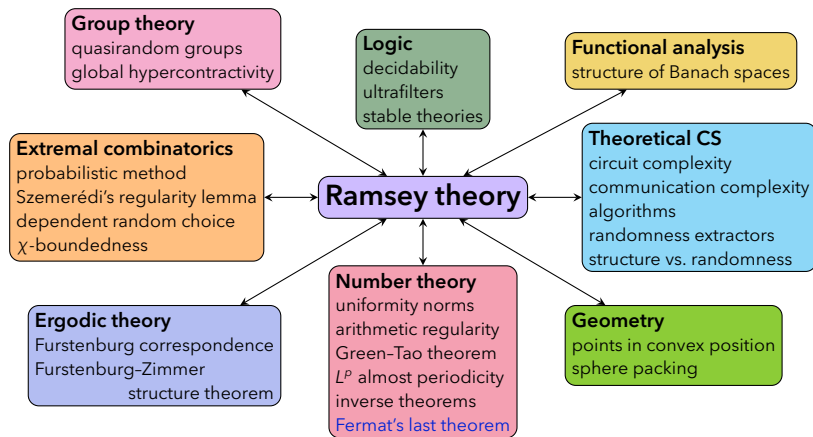
Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!



Connections to other areas of mathematics

Techniques: Ramsey-theoretic questions have led to the development of powerful and general methods.

Applications: Proving something about an object is easier if you can pass to a structured subobject!



Outline

What is Ramsey theory?

Fermat's last theorem and Ramsey numbers

Upper bounds on Ramsey numbers

Lower bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey theory and random graphs

Fermat and Schur

Claim (Fermat 1637); Theorem (Wiles 1995)

For every $q \geq 3$, there is no *non-trivial* integer solution to

$$x^q + y^q = z^q.$$

Fermat and Schur

Claim (Fermat 1637); Theorem (Wiles 1995)

For every $q \geq 3$, there is no *non-trivial* integer solution to

$$x^q + y^q = z^q.$$

Theorem (Dickson 1909, Schur 1916)

If N is sufficiently large with respect to q , then *there is* a non-trivial integer solution to

$$x^q + y^q \equiv z^q \pmod{N}.$$

Fermat and Schur

Claim (Fermat 1637); Theorem (Wiles 1995)

For every $q \geq 3$, there is no *non-trivial* integer solution to

$$x^q + y^q = z^q.$$

Theorem (Dickson 1909, Schur 1916)

If N is sufficiently large with respect to q , then *there is* a non-trivial integer solution to

$$x^q + y^q \equiv z^q \pmod{N}.$$

Schur: "I will show how Dickson's theorem follows almost immediately from a very simple lemma, which belongs more to combinatorics than to number theory."

Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

*No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a **monochromatic solution** to*

$$x + y = z,$$

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

This is a **Ramsey-theoretic** statement, but it's still about numbers.

Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

This is a **Ramsey-theoretic** statement, but it's still about numbers. It follows from the following purely combinatorial statement.

Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

This is a **Ramsey-theoretic** statement, but it's still about numbers. It follows from the following purely combinatorial statement.

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.

Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

This is a **Ramsey-theoretic** statement, but it's still about numbers. It follows from the following purely combinatorial statement.

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.

1 2 3 4 5 • • • • • •

Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

This is a **Ramsey-theoretic** statement, but it's still about numbers. It follows from the following purely combinatorial statement.

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.



Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

This is a **Ramsey-theoretic** statement, but it's still about numbers. It follows from the following purely combinatorial statement.

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.



Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

This is a **Ramsey-theoretic** statement, but it's still about numbers. It follows from the following purely combinatorial statement.

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.



Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

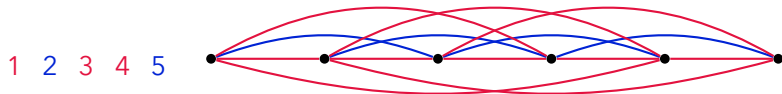
$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

This is a **Ramsey-theoretic** statement, but it's still about numbers. It follows from the following purely combinatorial statement.

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.



Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

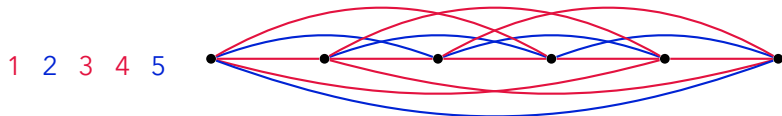
$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

This is a **Ramsey-theoretic** statement, but it's still about numbers. It follows from the following purely combinatorial statement.

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.



Schur's combinatorial lemma

To prove the theorem of Dickson and Schur, it suffices to prove:

No matter how we color the elements of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ with q colors, there is a *monochromatic solution* to

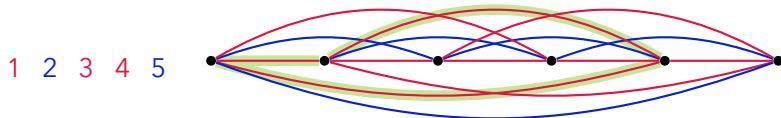
$$x + y = z,$$

q -coloring = partition into q parts
monochromatic = within one part

assuming N is sufficiently large with respect to q .

This is a **Ramsey-theoretic** statement, but it's still about numbers. It follows from the following purely combinatorial statement.

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.



Ramsey's theorem

Theorem (Schur 1916)

*No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a **monochromatic triangle**, assuming N is sufficiently large.*

Ramsey's theorem

Theorem (Schur 1916)

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.

Theorem (Ramsey 1929)

Fix integers t and q . If N is sufficiently large, then no matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic K_t* .

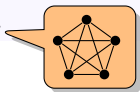
Ramsey's theorem

Theorem (Schur 1916)

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.

Theorem (Ramsey 1929)

Fix integers t and q . If N is *sufficiently large*, then no matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic K_t* .



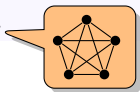
Ramsey's theorem

Theorem (Schur 1916)

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.

Theorem (Ramsey 1929)

Fix integers t and q . If N is *sufficiently large*, then no matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic K_t* .



How large?

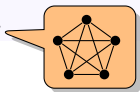
Ramsey's theorem

Theorem (Schur 1916)

No matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic triangle*, assuming N is sufficiently large.

Theorem (Ramsey 1929)

Fix integers t and q . If N is *sufficiently large*, then no matter how we color the edges between N vertices with q colors, there is a *monochromatic K_t* .



How large?

The **Ramsey number** $R(t; q)$ is the least N for which Ramsey's theorem holds.

Classical bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey (1929): Fix integers t and q . If N is sufficiently large, then in any q -coloring of $E(K_N)$, there is a monochromatic K_t .

The **Ramsey number** $R(t; q)$ is the least N for which this holds.

Classical bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey (1929): Fix integers t and q . If N is sufficiently large, then in any q -coloring of $E(K_N)$, there is a monochromatic K_t .

The **Ramsey number** $R(t; q)$ is the least N for which this holds.

Essentially every proof of Ramsey's theorem yields an **upper bound** on $R(t; q)$.

Classical bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey (1929): Fix integers t and q . If N is sufficiently large, then in any q -coloring of $E(K_N)$, there is a monochromatic K_t .

The **Ramsey number** $R(t; q)$ is the least N for which this holds.

Essentially every proof of Ramsey's theorem yields an **upper bound** on $R(t; q)$. Ramsey's proof gave $R(t; 2) \leq t!$.

Classical bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey (1929): Fix integers t and q . If N is sufficiently large, then in any q -coloring of $E(K_N)$, there is a monochromatic K_t .

The **Ramsey number** $R(t; q)$ is the least N for which this holds.

Essentially every proof of Ramsey's theorem yields an **upper bound** on $R(t; q)$. Ramsey's proof gave $R(t; 2) \leq t!$.

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935)

$$R(t; 2) < 4^t.$$

Classical bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey (1929): Fix integers t and q . If N is sufficiently large, then in any q -coloring of $E(K_N)$, there is a monochromatic K_t .

The **Ramsey number** $R(t; q)$ is the least N for which this holds.

Essentially every proof of Ramsey's theorem yields an **upper bound** on $R(t; q)$. Ramsey's proof gave $R(t; 2) \leq t!$.

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935)

$$R(t; 2) < 4^t.$$

For a **lower bound** on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Classical bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey (1929): Fix integers t and q . If N is sufficiently large, then in any q -coloring of $E(K_N)$, there is a monochromatic K_t .

The **Ramsey number** $R(t; q)$ is the least N for which this holds.

Essentially every proof of Ramsey's theorem yields an **upper bound** on $R(t; q)$. Ramsey's proof gave $R(t; 2) \leq t!$.

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935)

$$R(t; 2) < 4^t.$$

For a **lower bound** on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t . These are hard to find!

Classical bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey (1929): Fix integers t and q . If N is sufficiently large, then in any q -coloring of $E(K_N)$, there is a monochromatic K_t .

The **Ramsey number** $R(t; q)$ is the least N for which this holds.

Essentially every proof of Ramsey's theorem yields an **upper bound** on $R(t; q)$. Ramsey's proof gave $R(t; 2) \leq t!$.

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935)

$$R(t; 2) < 4^t.$$

For a **lower bound** on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t . These are hard to find!

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; 2) > 2^{t/2}.$$

Classical bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey (1929): Fix integers t and q . If N is sufficiently large, then in any q -coloring of $E(K_N)$, there is a monochromatic K_t .

The **Ramsey number** $R(t; q)$ is the least N for which this holds.

Essentially every proof of Ramsey's theorem yields an **upper bound** on $R(t; q)$. Ramsey's proof gave $R(t; 2) \leq t!$.

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935)

$$R(t; 2) < 4^t.$$

$$R(t; q) < q^{qt}.$$

For a **lower bound** on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t . These are hard to find!

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; 2) > 2^{t/2}.$$

$$R(t; q) > q^{t/2}.$$

Outline

What is Ramsey theory?

Fermat's last theorem and Ramsey numbers

Upper bounds on Ramsey numbers

Lower bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey theory and random graphs

Book graphs

Theorem (Ramsey 1929): If N is sufficiently large, every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935): $R(t;2) < 4^t$.

Book graphs

Theorem (Ramsey 1929): If N is sufficiently large, every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935): $R(t;2) < 4^t$.

Definition

The **book graph** $B_{s,m}$ consists of a K_s joined to m other vertices.

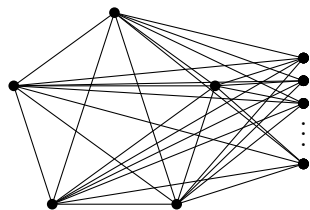
Book graphs

Theorem (Ramsey 1929): If N is sufficiently large, every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935): $R(t;2) < 4^t$.

Definition

The **book graph** $B_{s,m}$ consists of a K_s joined to m other vertices.



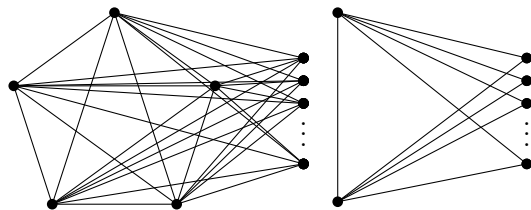
Book graphs

Theorem (Ramsey 1929): If N is sufficiently large, every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935): $R(t;2) < 4^t$.

Definition

The **book graph** $B_{s,m}$ consists of a K_s joined to m other vertices.



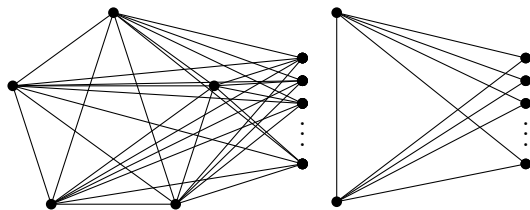
Book graphs

Theorem (Ramsey 1929): If N is sufficiently large, every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935): $R(t;2) < 4^t$.

Definition

The **book graph** $B_{s,m}$ consists of a K_s joined to m other vertices.



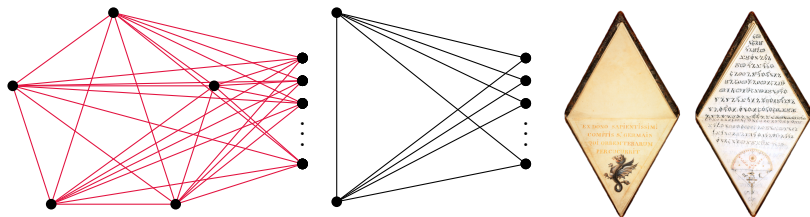
Book graphs

Theorem (Ramsey 1929): If N is sufficiently large, every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935): $R(t;2) < 4^t$.

Definition

The **book graph** $B_{s,m}$ consists of a K_s joined to m other vertices.



Key observation: Finding a large monochromatic book in K_N helps us find a monochromatic K_t .

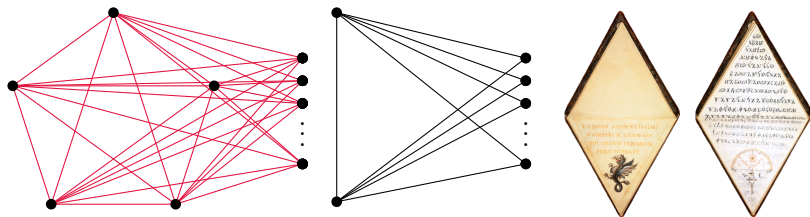
Book graphs

Theorem (Ramsey 1929): If N is sufficiently large, every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935): $R(t;2) < 4^t$.

Definition

The **book graph** $B_{s,m}$ consists of a K_s joined to m other vertices.



Key observation: Finding a large monochromatic book in K_N helps us find a monochromatic K_t .

In the m "page" vertices, it suffices to find a blue K_t or a red K_{t-s} .

Finding large books

Key observation: Finding a large monochromatic book in K_N helps us find a monochromatic K_t .

Finding large books

Key observation: Finding a large monochromatic book in K_N helps us find a monochromatic K_t .

Erdős-Faudree-Rousseau-Schelp (1978), Thomason (1982): How large of a monochromatic book can we guarantee?

Finding large books

Key observation: Finding a large monochromatic book in K_N helps us find a monochromatic K_t .

Erdős-Faudree-Rousseau-Schelp (1978), Thomason (1982): How large of a monochromatic book can we guarantee?

Theorem (Conlon 2019)

Every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic $B_{s,m}$ with

$$m \geq 2^{-s}N - o(N)$$

(and this is asymptotically tight).

Finding large books

Key observation: Finding a large monochromatic book in K_N helps us find a monochromatic K_t .

Erdős-Faudree-Rousseau-Schelp (1978), Thomason (1982): How large of a monochromatic book can we guarantee?

Theorem (Conlon 2019)

Every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic $B_{s,m}$ with

$$m \geq 2^{-s}N - O_s\left(\frac{N}{\log_* N}\right)$$

(and this is asymptotically tight).

Finding large books

Key observation: Finding a large monochromatic book in K_N helps us find a monochromatic K_t .

Erdős-Faudree-Rousseau-Schelp (1978), Thomason (1982): How large of a monochromatic book can we guarantee?

Theorem (Conlon 2019)

Every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic $B_{s,m}$ with

$$m \geq 2^{-s}N - O_s \left(\frac{N}{\log_* N} \right)$$

(and this is asymptotically tight).

Theorem (Conlon-Fox-W. 2022)

Every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic $B_{s,m}$ with

$$m \geq 2^{-s}N - O_s \left(\frac{N}{(\log \log \log N)^{1/25}} \right).$$

Finding large books

Key observation: Finding a large monochromatic book in K_N helps us find a monochromatic K_t .

Erdős-Faudree-Rousseau-Schelp (1978), Thomason (1982): How large of a monochromatic book can we guarantee?

Theorem (Conlon 2019)

Every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic $B_{s,m}$ with

$$m \geq 2^{-s}N - O_s \left(\frac{N}{\log_* N} \right)$$

(and this is asymptotically tight).

Theorem (Conlon-Fox-W. 2022)

Every 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$ contains a monochromatic $B_{s,m}$ with

$$m \geq 2^{-s}N - O_s \left(\frac{N}{(\log \log \log N)^{1/25}} \right).$$

This result is still **too weak** to improve the bound $R(t;2) < 4^t$.

The book algorithm

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935)

$$R(t;2) < 4^t.$$

$$R(t;q) < q^{qt}.$$

The book algorithm

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935)

$$R(t;2) < 4^t.$$

$$R(t;q) < q^{qt}.$$

Theorem (Campos-Griffiths-Morris-Sahasrabudhe 2023)

$$R(t;2) < 3.993^t.$$

The book algorithm

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935)

$$R(t;2) < 4^t.$$

$$R(t;q) < q^{qt}.$$

Theorem (Campos-Griffiths-Morris-Sahasrabudhe 2023)

$$R(t;2) < 3.993^t.$$

They introduced a “book algorithm” which can find **some** sufficiently large monochromatic book.

The book algorithm

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935)

$$R(t;2) < 4^t.$$

$$R(t;q) < q^{qt}.$$

Theorem (Campos-Griffiths-Morris-Sahasrabudhe 2023)

$$R(t;2) < 3.993^t.$$

They introduced a “book algorithm” which can find **some** sufficiently large monochromatic book.

Theorem (Gupta-Ndiaye-Norin-Wei 2024)

$$R(t;2) < 3.799^t.$$

The book algorithm

Theorem (Erdős-Szekeres 1935)

$$R(t;2) < 4^t.$$

$$R(t;q) < q^{qt}.$$

Theorem (Campos-Griffiths-Morris-Sahasrabudhe 2023)

$$R(t;2) < 3.993^t.$$

They introduced a “book algorithm” which can find **some** sufficiently large monochromatic book.

Theorem (Gupta-Ndiaye-Norin-Wei 2024)

$$R(t;2) < 3.799^t.$$

Theorem (Balister-Bollobás-Campos-Griffiths-Hurley-Morris-Sahasrabudhe-Tiba 2024)

$$R(t;q) < (q^q - \varepsilon_q)^t.$$

Outline

What is Ramsey theory?

Fermat's last theorem and Ramsey numbers

Upper bounds on Ramsey numbers

Lower bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey theory and random graphs

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; 2) > 2^{t/2}.$$

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; 2) > 2^{t/2}.$$

Proof: Let $N = 2^{t/2}$. Consider a **random** 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$.

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; 2) > 2^{t/2}.$$

Proof: Let $N = 2^{t/2}$. Consider a **random** 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{monochromatic } K_t]$$

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t;q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t;2) > 2^{t/2}.$$

Proof: Let $N = 2^{t/2}$. Consider a **random** 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{monochromatic } K_t] = \binom{N}{t} 2^{1-\binom{t}{2}}$$

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t;q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t;2) > 2^{t/2}.$$

Proof: Let $N = 2^{t/2}$. Consider a **random** 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{monochromatic } K_t] = \binom{N}{t} 2^{1-\binom{t}{2}} < 1.$$

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; 2) > 2^{t/2}.$$

Proof: Let $N = 2^{t/2}$. Consider a **random** 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{monochromatic } K_t] = \binom{N}{t} 2^{1 - \binom{t}{2}} < 1.$$

So there **exists** a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with < 1 monochromatic K_t . \square

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; 2) > 2^{t/2}.$$

Proof: Let $N = 2^{t/2}$. Consider a **random** 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{monochromatic } K_t] = \binom{N}{t} 2^{1 - \binom{t}{2}} < 1.$$

So there **exists** a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with < 1 monochromatic K_t . □

This is the origin of the **probabilistic method** in combinatorics.

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; q) > q^{t/2}.$$

Proof: Let $N = 2^{t/2}$. Consider a **random** 2-coloring of $E(K_N)$.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{monochromatic } K_t] = \binom{N}{t} 2^{1-\binom{t}{2}} < 1.$$

So there **exists** a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with < 1 monochromatic K_t . □

This is the origin of the **probabilistic method** in combinatorics.

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; q) > q^{t/2}.$$

Proof: Let $N = q^{t/2}$. Consider a **random** q -coloring of $E(K_N)$.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{monochromatic } K_t] = \binom{N}{t} q^{1 - \binom{t}{2}} < 1.$$

So there **exists** a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with < 1 monochromatic K_t . □

This is the origin of the **probabilistic method** in combinatorics.

Erdős's lower bound

For a lower bound on $R(t; q)$ we need a **construction**: a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with no monochromatic K_t .

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; q) > q^{t/2}.$$

Proof: Let $N = q^{t/2}$. Consider a **random** q -coloring of $E(K_N)$.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{monochromatic } K_t] = \binom{N}{t} q^{1 - \binom{t}{2}} < 1.$$

So there **exists** a coloring of $E(K_N)$ with < 1 monochromatic K_t . □

This is the origin of the **probabilistic method** in combinatorics.

The best known upper bound is essentially $(q^q)^t$ – a very big gap!

Multicolor Ramsey numbers

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; q) > \left(q^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)^t.$$

Multicolor Ramsey numbers

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t;q) > \left(q^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)^t.$$

Theorem (Abbott 1972)

$$R(t;q) > \left(2^{\frac{1}{4}q}\right)^t.$$

Multicolor Ramsey numbers

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; q) > \left(q^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)^t.$$

Theorem (Abbott 1972)

$$R(t; q) > \left(2^{\frac{1}{4}q}\right)^t.$$

Theorem (Conlon-Ferber 2021)

$$R(t; q) > \left(2^{\frac{7}{24}q}\right)^t.$$

Multicolor Ramsey numbers

Theorem (Erdős 1947)

$$R(t; q) > \left(q^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)^t.$$

Theorem (Abbott 1972)

$$R(t; q) > \left(2^{\frac{1}{4}q}\right)^t.$$

Theorem (Conlon-Ferber 2021)

$$R(t; q) > \left(2^{\frac{7}{24}q}\right)^t.$$

Theorem (W. 2021)

$$R(t; q) > \left(2^{\frac{3}{8}q}\right)^t.$$

The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

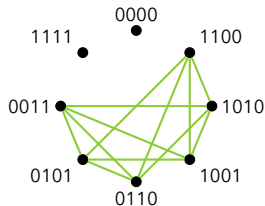
We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The green edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The green edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

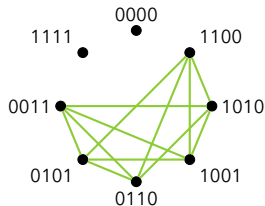


The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The green edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No green K_t .

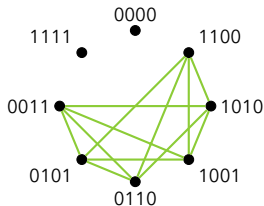


The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The green edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No green K_t .



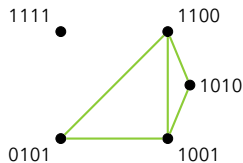
Keep each vertex with probability p .

The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The green edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No green K_t .



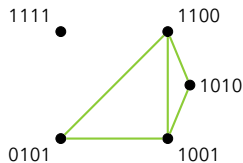
Keep each vertex with probability p .

The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The green edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No green K_t .



Keep each vertex with probability p .

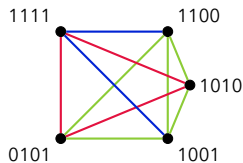
Color all remaining pairs red or blue at random.

The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The green edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No green K_t .



Keep each vertex with probability p .

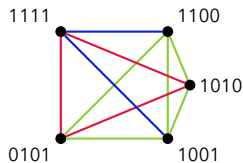
Color all remaining pairs red or blue at random.

The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The green edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No green K_t .



Keep each vertex with probability p .

Color all remaining pairs red or blue at random.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{red or blue } K_t] \leq$$

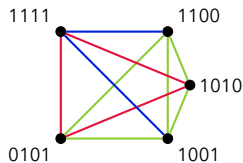
The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The green edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No green K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2}$ t -sets with no green edge.



Keep each vertex with probability p .

Color all remaining pairs red or blue at random.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{red or blue } K_t] \leq$$

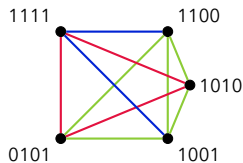
The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in red, blue, and green as follows.

The green edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No green K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2}$ t -sets with no green edge.



Keep each vertex with probability p .

Color all remaining pairs red or blue at random.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{red or blue } K_t] \leq 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2} \cdot p^t \cdot 2^{1-\binom{t}{2}}.$$

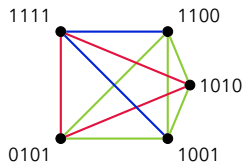
The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in **red**, **blue**, and **green** as follows.

The **green** edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No **green** K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2}$ t -sets with no **green** edge.



Keep each vertex with probability p .

Color all remaining pairs **red** or **blue** at random.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{red or blue } K_t] \leq 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2} \cdot p^t \cdot 2^{1-\binom{t}{2}}.$$

Choose $p = 2^{-\frac{1}{8}t}$ to make this < 1 , hence no **red** or **blue** K_t .

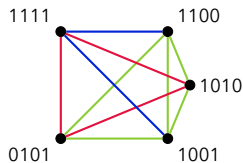
The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in **red**, **blue**, and **green** as follows.

The **green** edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No **green** K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2}$ t -sets with no **green** edge.



Keep each vertex with probability p .

Color all remaining pairs **red** or **blue** at random.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{red or blue } K_t] \leq 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2} \cdot p^t \cdot 2^{1-\binom{t}{2}}.$$

Choose $p = 2^{-\frac{1}{8}t}$ to make this < 1 , hence no **red** or **blue** K_t .

No **green** K_t by **Fact 1**, so $R(t;3) > N \approx p \cdot 2^t = 2^{\frac{7}{8}t}$.

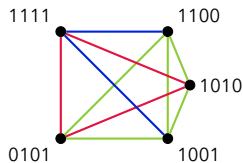
The Conlon-Ferber coloring for $q = 3$

We color $E(K_N)$ in **red**, **blue**, and **green** as follows.

The **green** edges are defined by linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Fact 1: No **green** K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2}$ t -sets with no **green** edge.



Keep each vertex with probability p .

Color all remaining pairs **red** or **blue** at random.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{red or blue } K_t] \leq 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2} \cdot p^t \cdot 2^{1-\binom{t}{2}}.$$

Choose $p = 2^{-\frac{1}{8}t}$ to make this < 1 , hence no **red** or **blue** K_t .

No **green** K_t by **Fact 1**, so $R(t;3) > N \approx p \cdot 2^t = 2^{\frac{7}{8}t}$.

This works over larger fields, but the bounds aren't very good.

A different approach for $q = 4$

A different approach for $q = 4$

We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

A different approach for $q = 4$

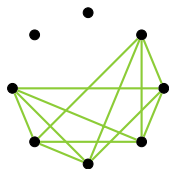
We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in green and yellow.

A different approach for $q = 4$

We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

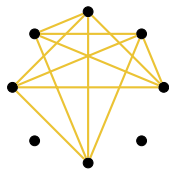
Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in green and yellow.



A different approach for $q = 4$

We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

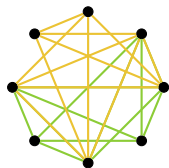
Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in green and yellow.



A different approach for $q = 4$

We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in green and yellow.

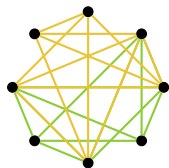


A different approach for $q = 4$

We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in green and yellow.

Fact 1: No green or yellow K_t .



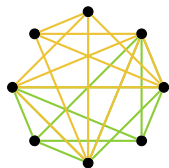
A different approach for $q = 4$

We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in green and yellow.

Fact 1: No green or yellow K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{1}{4}t^2}$ t -sets with no green and no yellow edge.



A different approach for $q = 4$

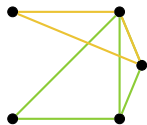
We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in green and yellow.

Fact 1: No green or yellow K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{1}{4}t^2}$ t -sets with no green and no yellow edge.

Keep each vertex with probability p .



A different approach for $q = 4$

We'll try coloring the edges in **red**, **blue**, **green**, and **yellow**.

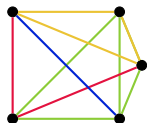
Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in **green** and **yellow**.

Fact 1: No **green** or **yellow** K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{1}{4}t^2}$ t -sets with no green and no yellow edge.

Keep each vertex with probability p .

Color all remaining pairs **red** or **blue** at random.



A different approach for $q = 4$

We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

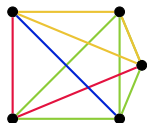
Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in green and yellow.

Fact 1: No green or yellow K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{1}{4}t^2}$ t -sets with no green and no yellow edge.

Keep each vertex with probability p .

Color all remaining pairs red or blue at random.



$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{red or blue } K_t] \leq 2^{\frac{1}{4}t^2} \cdot p^t \cdot 2^{1-\binom{t}{2}}.$$

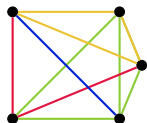
A different approach for $q = 4$

We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in green and yellow.

Fact 1: No green or yellow K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{1}{4}t^2}$ t -sets with no green and no yellow edge.



Keep each vertex with probability p .

Color all remaining pairs red or blue at random.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{red or blue } K_t] \leq 2^{\frac{1}{4}t^2} \cdot p^t \cdot 2^{1-\binom{t}{2}}.$$

Pick $p = 2^{\frac{1}{4}t}$ to obtain $R(t;4) > N \approx p \cdot 2^t = 2^{\frac{5}{4}t}$.

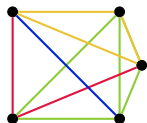
A different approach for $q = 4$

We'll try coloring the edges in red, blue, green, and yellow.

Overlay two random copies of the linear-algebraic graph in green and yellow.

Fact 1: No green or yellow K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq 2^{\frac{1}{4}t^2}$ t -sets with no green and no yellow edge.



Keep each vertex with probability p .

Color all remaining pairs red or blue at random.

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{red or blue } K_t] \leq 2^{\frac{1}{4}t^2} \cdot p^t \cdot 2^{1-\binom{t}{2}}.$$

Pick $p = 2^{\frac{1}{4}t}$ to obtain $R(t;4) > N \approx p \cdot 2^t = 2^{\frac{5}{4}t}$.

How are we picking $p > 1$???

Random homomorphisms to the rescue

Sometimes, one can handle probabilities larger than 1!

Random homomorphisms to the rescue

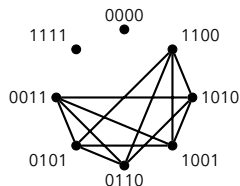
Sometimes, one can handle probabilities larger than 1!

Let p be any positive real number, and let $N = p \cdot 2^t$.

Random homomorphisms to the rescue

Sometimes, one can handle probabilities larger than 1!

Let p be **any** positive real number, and let $N = p \cdot 2^t$.

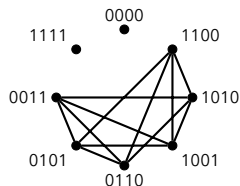


Random homomorphisms to the rescue

Sometimes, one can handle probabilities larger than 1!

Let p be any positive real number, and let $N = p \cdot 2^t$.

Pick a uniformly random function $f : [N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^t$.

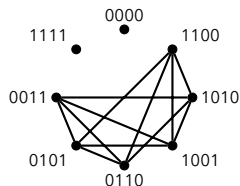
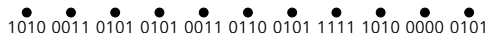


Random homomorphisms to the rescue

Sometimes, one can handle probabilities larger than 1!

Let p be any positive real number, and let $N = p \cdot 2^t$.

Pick a uniformly random function $f : [N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^t$.

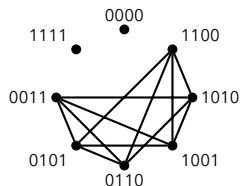
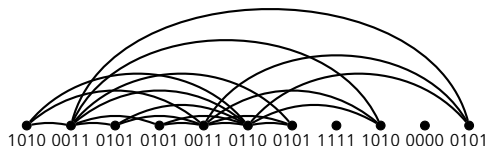


Random homomorphisms to the rescue

Sometimes, one can handle probabilities larger than 1!

Let p be any positive real number, and let $N = p \cdot 2^t$.

Pick a uniformly random function $f : [N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^t$.



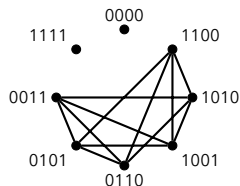
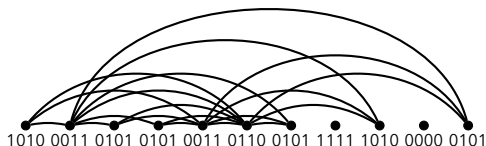
Connect vertices in $[N]$ iff their labels are adjacent.

Random homomorphisms to the rescue

Sometimes, one can handle probabilities larger than 1!

Let p be any positive real number, and let $N = p \cdot 2^t$.

Pick a uniformly random function $f : [N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^t$.



Connect vertices in $[N]$ iff their labels are adjacent.

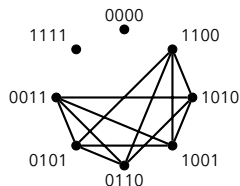
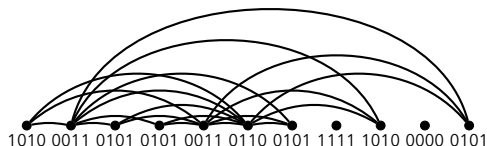
Fact 1: No K_t .

Random homomorphisms to the rescue

Sometimes, one can handle probabilities larger than 1!

Let p be any positive real number, and let $N = p \cdot 2^t$.

Pick a uniformly random function $f : [N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^t$.



Connect vertices in $[N]$ iff their labels are adjacent.

Fact 1: No K_t .

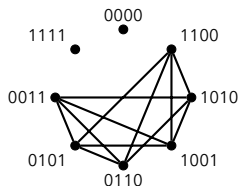
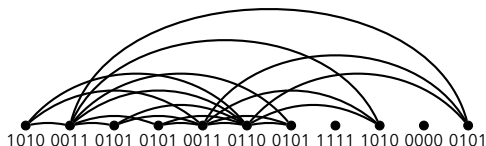
Fact 2: $\leq p^t \cdot 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2}$ t -sets with no edge.

Random homomorphisms to the rescue

Sometimes, one can handle probabilities larger than 1!

Let p be any positive real number, and let $N = p \cdot 2^t$.

Pick a uniformly random function $f : [N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^t$.



Connect vertices in $[N]$ iff their labels are adjacent.

Fact 1: No K_t .

Fact 2: $\leq p^t \cdot 2^{\frac{5}{8}t^2}$ t -sets with no edge.

So the above argument works for any p , if interpreted correctly.

Putting it all together

Theorem (W. 2021)

$$R(t;q) > \left(2^{\frac{3}{8}q - \frac{1}{4}}\right)^t.$$

Putting it all together

Theorem (W. 2021)

$$R(t; q) > \left(2^{\frac{3}{8}q - \frac{1}{4}}\right)^t.$$

Proof: Let $p = \left(2^{\frac{3}{8}q - \frac{5}{4}}\right)^t$, let $N = p \cdot 2^t$, and pick $q - 2$ random functions $[N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^t$. Overlay the resulting graphs in the first $q - 2$ colors, then color the remaining pairs randomly **red** or **blue**.

Putting it all together

Theorem (W. 2021)

$$R(t; q) > \left(2^{\frac{3}{8}q - \frac{1}{4}}\right)^t.$$

Proof: Let $p = \left(2^{\frac{3}{8}q - \frac{5}{4}}\right)^t$, let $N = p \cdot 2^t$, and pick $q - 2$ random functions $[N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^t$. Overlay the resulting graphs in the first $q - 2$ colors, then color the remaining pairs randomly **red** or **blue**. By optimizing this technique, Sawin proved that

$$R(t; q) > \left(2^{0.383q - 0.267}\right)^t.$$

Outline

What is Ramsey theory?

Fermat's last theorem and Ramsey numbers

Upper bounds on Ramsey numbers

Lower bounds on Ramsey numbers

Ramsey theory and random graphs

Folkman's theorem

Folkman's theorem

Theorem (Folkman 1970, Nešetřil-Rödl 1976)

For all integers t, q , there exists a graph G such that every q -coloring of $E(G)$ contains a monochromatic K_t

Folkman's theorem

Theorem (Folkman 1970, Nešetřil-Rödl 1976)

For all integers t, q , there exists a graph G such that every q -coloring of $E(G)$ contains a monochromatic K_t and G is K_{t+1} -free.

Folkman's theorem

G is q -color Ramsey for K_t

Theorem (Folkman 1970, Nešetřil-Rödl 1976)

For all integers t, q , there exists a graph G such that every q -coloring of $E(G)$ contains a monochromatic K_t and G is K_{t+1} -free.

Folkman's theorem

G is q -color Ramsey for K_t

Theorem (Folkman 1970, Nešetřil-Rödl 1976)

For all integers t, q , there exists a graph G such that every q -coloring of $E(G)$ contains a monochromatic K_t and G is K_{t+1} -free.

The original proofs produced unbelievably large G .

Folkman's theorem

G is q -color Ramsey for K_t

Theorem (Folkman 1970, Nešetřil-Rödl 1976)

For all integers t, q , there exists a graph G such that every q -coloring of $E(G)$ contains a monochromatic K_t and G is K_{t+1} -free.

The original proofs produced **unbelievably large** G .

Much better bounds can be proved using **random graphs**.

Folkman's theorem

G is q -color Ramsey for K_t

Theorem (Folkman 1970, Nešetřil-Rödl 1976)

For all integers t, q , there exists a graph G such that every q -coloring of $E(G)$ contains a monochromatic K_t and G is K_{t+1} -free.

The original proofs produced **unbelievably large** G .

Much better bounds can be proved using **random graphs**.

Let $G_{N,p}$ be a **random subgraph** of K_N obtained by keeping each edge with probability p .

Folkman's theorem

G is q -color Ramsey for K_t

Theorem (Folkman 1970, Nešetřil-Rödl 1976)

For all integers t, q , there exists a graph G such that every q -coloring of $E(G)$ contains a monochromatic K_t and G is K_{t+1} -free.

The original proofs produced unbelievably large G .

Much better bounds can be proved using random graphs.

Let $G_{N,p}$ be a random subgraph of K_N obtained by keeping each edge with probability p .

Question

When is

$$\Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is } q\text{-color Ramsey for } K_t)$$

close to 1? Close to 0?

Folkman's theorem

G is q -color Ramsey for K_t

Theorem (Folkman 1970, Nešetřil-Rödl 1976)

For all integers t, q , there exists a graph G such that every q -coloring of $E(G)$ contains a monochromatic K_t and G is K_{t+1} -free.

The original proofs produced unbelievably large G .

Much better bounds can be proved using random graphs.

Let $G_{N,p}$ be a random subgraph of K_N obtained by keeping each edge with probability p .

Extremely general question

For fixed graphs H_1, \dots, H_q , when is

$$\Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is Ramsey for } (H_1, \dots, H_q))$$

close to 1? Close to 0?

Folkman's theorem

G is q -color Ramsey for K_t

Theorem (Folkman 1970, Nešetřil-Rödl 1976)

For all integers t, q , there exists a graph G such that every q -coloring of $E(G)$ contains a monochromatic K_t and G is K_{t+1} -free.

The original proofs produced unbelievably large G .

Much better bounds can be proved using random graphs.

Let $G_{N,p}$ be a random subgraph of K_N obtained by keeping each edge with probability p .

Extremely general question

For fixed graphs H_1, \dots, H_q , when is

$$\Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is Ramsey for } (H_1, \dots, H_q))$$

close to 1? Close to 0?

This is the central question at the intersection of Ramsey theory and random graph theory.

Folkman's theorem

G is q -color Ramsey for K_t

Theorem (Folkman 1970, Nešetřil-Rödl 1976)

For all integers t, q , there exists a graph G such that every q -coloring of $E(G)$ contains a monochromatic K_t and G is K_{t+1} -free.

The original proofs produced unbelievably large G .

Much better bounds can be proved using random graphs.

Let $G_{N,p}$ be a random subgraph of K_N obtained by keeping each edge with probability p .

Extremely general question

For fixed graphs H_1, \dots, H_q , when is

$$\Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is Ramsey for } (H_1, \dots, H_q))$$

close to 1? Close to 0?

This is the central question at the intersection of Ramsey theory and random graph theory.

An exact answer was conjectured by Kohayakawa-Kreuter (1997).

The Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

The Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

Let H_1, \dots, H_q be graphs

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is Ramsey for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq \end{cases}$$

The Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

Let H_1, \dots, H_q be graphs

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is Ramsey for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N), \end{cases}$$

where $C > c > 0$ are constants, and $\theta(N) =$

The Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

Let H_1, \dots, H_q be graphs with $m_2(H_1) \geq \dots \geq m_2(H_q)$ & $m_2(H_2) > 1$.

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is Ramsey for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N), \end{cases}$$

where $C > c > 0$ are constants, and $\theta(N) = N^{-1/m_2(H_1, H_2)}$ for

$$m_2(H) := \max_{J \subseteq H} \frac{e_J - 1}{v_J - 2} \quad \text{and} \quad m_2(H_1, H_2) := \max_{J \subseteq H_1} \frac{e_J}{v_J - 2 + \frac{1}{m_2(H_2)}}.$$

The Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

Let H_1, \dots, H_q be graphs with $m_2(H_1) \geq \dots \geq m_2(H_q)$ & $m_2(H_2) > 1$.

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is Ramsey for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N), \end{cases}$$

where $C > c > 0$ are constants, and $\theta(N) = N^{-1/m_2(H_1, H_2)}$ for

$$m_2(H) := \max_{J \subseteq H} \frac{e_J - 1}{v_J - 2} \quad \text{and} \quad m_2(H_1, H_2) := \max_{J \subseteq H_1} \frac{e_J}{v_J - 2 + \frac{1}{m_2(H_2)}}.$$

Assuming the conjecture, one obtains a three-line proof of Folkman's theorem with good bounds.

Progress on the Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is Ramsey for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N). \end{cases}$$

Progress on the Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is } \textit{Ramsey} \text{ for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N). \end{cases}$$

For ~25 years: Only proved in certain special cases.

Progress on the Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is } \textit{Ramsey} \text{ for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N). \end{cases}$$

For ~25 years: Only proved in certain special cases.

Theorem (Mousset-Nenadov-Samotij 2020)

The 1-statement is true.

Progress on the Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is } \textit{Ramsey} \text{ for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N). \end{cases}$$

For ~25 years: Only proved in certain special cases.

Theorem (Mousset-Nenadov-Samotij 2020)

The 1-statement is true.

Theorem (Bowtell-Hancock-Hyde, Kuperwasser-Samotij-W. 2023)

The 0-statement is equivalent to a deterministic statement.

Progress on the Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is } \textit{Ramsey} \text{ for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N). \end{cases}$$

For ~25 years: Only proved in certain special cases.

Theorem (Mousset-Nenadov-Samotij 2020)

The 1-statement is true.

Theorem (Bowtell-Hancock-Hyde, Kuperwasser-Samotij-W. 2023)

*The 0-statement is equivalent to a deterministic statement.
The only possible obstructions are constant-sized subgraphs of $G_{N,p}$.*

Progress on the Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is } \textit{Ramsey} \text{ for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N). \end{cases}$$

For ~25 years: Only proved in certain special cases.

Theorem (Mousset-Nenadov-Samotij 2020)

The 1-statement is true.

Theorem (Bowtell-Hancock-Hyde, Kuperwasser-Samotij-W. 2023)

*The 0-statement is equivalent to a deterministic statement.
The only possible obstructions are constant-sized subgraphs of $G_{N,p}$.*

Theorem (Christoph-Martinsson-Steiner-W. 2024)

The deterministic statement is true (hence so is the KK conjecture).

Progress on the Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is } \textit{Ramsey} \text{ for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N). \end{cases}$$

For ~25 years: Only proved in certain special cases.

Theorem (Mousset-Nenadov-Samotij 2020)

The 1-statement is true.

Theorem (Bowtell-Hancock-Hyde, Kuperwasser-Samotij-W. 2023)

*The 0-statement is equivalent to a deterministic statement.
The only possible obstructions are constant-sized subgraphs of $G_{N,p}$.*

Theorem (Christoph-Martinsson-Steiner-W. 2024)

The deterministic statement is true (hence so is the KK conjecture).

We prove a **much more general** graph partitioning theorem.

Progress on the Kohayakawa-Kreuter conjecture

Conjecture (Kohayakawa-Kreuter 1997)

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(G_{N,p} \text{ is } \textit{Ramsey} \text{ for } (H_1, \dots, H_q)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \leq c\theta(N), \\ 1 & \text{if } p \geq C\theta(N). \end{cases}$$

For ~25 years: Only proved in certain special cases.

Theorem (Mousset-Nenadov-Samotij 2020)

The 1-statement is true.

Theorem (Bowtell-Hancock-Hyde, Kuperwasser-Samotij-W. 2023)

*The 0-statement is equivalent to a deterministic statement.
The only possible obstructions are constant-sized subgraphs of $G_{N,p}$.*

Theorem (Christoph-Martinsson-Steiner-W. 2024)

The deterministic statement is true (hence so is the KK conjecture).

We prove a **much more general** graph partitioning theorem.

The proof uses **max-flow min-cut**, ideas from **matroid theory**,...

Thank you!

