

Complementary Ramsey numbers, graph factorizations and Ramsey graphs

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Ramsey Numbers

For a graph G ,

$\alpha(G)$ = independence number = $\max\{\#\text{independent set}\}$

$\omega(G)$ = clique number = $\max\{\#\text{clique}\} = \alpha(\bar{G})$.



$$\omega(C_5) = \alpha(C_5) = 2.$$

$\forall G$ with 6 vertices, $\omega(G) \geq 3$ or $\alpha(G) \geq 3$.

These facts can be conveniently described by the **Ramsey number**:

$$R(3, 3) = 6.$$

The smallest number of vertices required to guarantee $\alpha \geq 3$ or $\omega \geq 3$ (precise definition in the next slide).

Ramsey Numbers and a Generalization

The **Ramsey number** $R(m_1, m_2)$ is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} R(m_1, m_2) &= \min\{n \mid |V(G)| = n \implies \omega(G) \geq m_1 \text{ or } \alpha(G) \geq m_2\} \\ &= \min\{n \mid |V(G)| = n \implies \omega(G) \geq m_1 \text{ or } \omega(\bar{G}) \geq m_2\} \\ &= \min\{n \mid |V(G)| = n \implies \alpha(\bar{G}) \geq m_1 \text{ or } \alpha(G) \geq m_2\} \end{aligned}$$

A graph with n vertices defines a partition of $E(K_n)$ into **2** parts, “edges” and “non-edges”.

Generalized Ramsey numbers $R(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k)$ can be defined if we consider partitions of $E(K_n)$ into **k** parts, i.e., edge-colorings.

Let $[n] = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, and $E(K_n) = \binom{[n]}{2}$. The set of k -edge-coloring of K_n is denoted by $C(n, k)$:

$$C(n, k) = \{f \mid f : E(K_n) \rightarrow [k]\}.$$

We abbreviate

$$\omega_i(f) = \omega([n], f^{-1}(i)), \quad \alpha_i(f) = \alpha([n], f^{-1}(i)).$$

$$\begin{aligned} R(m_1, \dots, m_k) &= \min\{n \mid \forall f \in C(n, k), \exists i \in [k], \omega_i(f) \geq m_i\} \\ \bar{R}(m_1, \dots, m_k) &= \min\{n \mid \forall f \in C(n, k), \exists i \in [k], \alpha_i(f) \geq m_i\} \end{aligned}$$

The last one is called the **complementary Ramsey number**.

$$\bar{R}(m_1, m_2) = R(m_2, m_1) = R(m_1, m_2).$$

So we focus on the case $k \geq 3$. Also we assume $m_i \geq 3$.

History

- We submitted to our work to a conference proceedings, and received positive reviews, in 2013.
- We uploaded our paper arXiv:1406.2050.
- David Conlon notified to us, that the concept was introduced already by Erdős–Hajnal–Rado (1965), some results were proved by Erdős–Szemerédi (1972).
- Chung–Liu (1978), “ d -chromatic Ramsey numbers”,
 $\bar{R}(m_1, \dots, m_k) = R_{k-1}^k(K_{m_1}, \dots, K_{m_k})$.
 $\bar{R}(4, 4, 4) = 10$.
- Harborth–Moller (1999), “weakened Ramsey numbers”,
 $\bar{R}(m, \dots, m) = R_{k-1}^k(K_m)$.
- Xu–Shao–Su–Li (2009), “multigraph Ramsey numbers”,
 $\bar{R}(m_1, \dots, m_k) = f^{(k-1)}(m_1, \dots, m_k)$. $\bar{R}(5, 5, 5) \geq 20$.

Geometric Application

Given a metric space (X, d) and a positive integer k , classify subsets Y of X with the largest size subject to

$$|\{d(x, y) \mid x, y \in Y, x \neq y\}| \leq k.$$

For example, $X = \mathbb{R}^n$, $k = 1 \implies$ regular simplex.
The method is by induction on k .

The distance function d defines a k -edge-coloring of the complete graph on Y .

If

$$\bar{R}(\underbrace{m, m, \dots, m}_k) \leq |Y|,$$

then Y must contain an m -subset having only $(k - 1)$ distances (so we can expect to use already obtained results for $k - 1$).

Conjecture

The vertices of the regular icosahedron is the only 12-point 3-distance set in \mathbb{R}^3 .

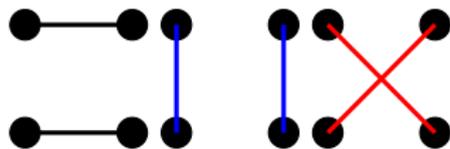
- Claimed to be proven by Shinohara, arXiv:1309.2047.
- It would simplify the proof if we had $\bar{R}(5, 5, 5) = 12$, but this was not the case.
- Xu–Shao–Su–Li (2009), $\bar{R}(5, 5, 5) \geq 20$.
- What is $\bar{R}(5, 5, 5)$? It should be easier than determining $\bar{R}(5, 5) = R(5, 5)$, which is known to satisfy

$$43 \leq R(5, 5) \leq 48.$$

In fact,

$$R(m, m) = \bar{R}(m, m) \geq \bar{R}(m, m, m) \geq \bar{R}(m, m, m, m) \cdots .$$

$\bar{R}(3, 3, 3) = 5$ by factorization



- K_4 has a 3-edge-coloring f into $2K_2$ (a 1-factorization). Then $\alpha_i(f) = 2$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$. This implies

$$\bar{R}(3, 3, 3) > 4.$$

The argument can be generalized to give:

Theorem

If K_{mn} is factorable into k copies of nK_m , then

$$\bar{R}(\underbrace{n+1, \dots, n+1}_k) = mn + 1.$$

Setting $m = n = 2$ and $k = 3$, we obtain $\bar{R}(3, 3, 3) = 5$.

Theorem

If K_{mn} is factorable into k copies of nK_m , then

$$\bar{R}(\underbrace{n+1, \dots, n+1}_k) = mn + 1.$$

- Setting $m = 3$, $n = 2t + 1$, $k = 3t + 1$, the existence of a **Kirkman triple system** in K_{3n} implies

$$\bar{R}(\underbrace{2t+2, \dots, 2t+2}_{3t+1}) = 6t + 4.$$

- Harborth–Möller (1999): Setting $m = n$, $k = n + 1$, if $n - 1$ **MOLS** of order n exist, then

$$\bar{R}(\underbrace{n+1, \dots, n+1}_{n+1}) = n^2 + 1.$$

The converse of the last statement also holds.

Ramsey (s, t) -graph

A graph G is said to be a **Ramsey (s, t) -graph** if

$$\omega(G) < s \text{ and } \alpha(G) < t.$$

We write $G \subset H$ if H is an edge-subgraph of G , and write $(V(G), E(G) \setminus E(H)) = G - H$.

Theorem

For $m_1, m_2, m_3, n \geq 2$, the following are equivalent.

- (i) $\bar{R}(m_1, m_2, m_3) \leq n$,
- (ii) for any two Ramsey (m_1, m_2) -graphs G and H on the vertex set $[n]$ such that $G \supset H$, one has $\alpha(G - H) \geq m_3$.

Small complementary Ramsey numbers

Chung–Liu (1978):

k	3	4	5	6	7	8
$\bar{R}(k, 3, 3)$	5	5	5	6
$\bar{R}(k, 4, 3)$	5	7	8	8	9	...
$\bar{R}(k, 5, 3)$	5	8	9	11	12	12

and

$$\bar{R}(k, 5, 3) = \begin{cases} 13 & \text{if } 9 \leq k \leq 13, \\ 14 & \text{if } k \geq 14. \end{cases}$$

Small complementary Ramsey numbers

We abbreviate

$$\bar{R}(m; k) = \bar{R}(\underbrace{m, \dots, m}_k).$$

k	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	...	15	16
$\bar{R}(3; k)$	5	3	...									
$\bar{R}(4; k)$	10	10	7	5	4	...						
$\bar{R}(5; k)$?	?	17	10	9	6	6	6	5	...		
$\bar{R}(6; k)$?	?	?	26	16	11	11	8	7	...	7	6

Thank you very much for your attention!