# Asy Lower Bounds on Ramsey Numbers

**Exposition by William Gasarch** 

## **Summary Of Talk**

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- $\blacktriangleright$  We obtain asy lower bounds on R(k).
- We then use the method to do other things, outside of Ramsey Theory.

## **Recall Upper Bound on Ramsey Numbers**

We know that

$$R(k) \le 2^{2k-1}$$

One can also get

$$R(k) \leq {2k-2 \choose k-1} \sim \frac{2^{2k}}{\sqrt{k}}$$

We want to find lower bounds

**PROBLEM** We want to find a coloring of the edges of  $K_n$  w/o a mono  $K_k$ . for some n = f(k).

#### **A Lower Bound**

## Theorem $R(k) \ge (k-1)^2$ . Proof

Here is a coloring of the edges of  $K_{(k-1)^2}$  with no mono  $K_k$ : First partition  $[(k-1)^2]$  into k-1 groups of k-1 each.

$$COL(x,y) = \begin{cases} \text{RED} & \text{if } x,y \text{ are in same } V_i \\ \text{BLUE} & \text{if } x,y \text{ are in different } V_i \end{cases}$$
 (1)

Look at any k vertices.

- ▶ They can't all be in one  $V_i$ , so it can't have RED  $K_k$ .
- ▶ They can't all be in different  $V_i$ , so it can't have BLUE  $K_k$ .

$$(k-1)^2 \le R(k) \le 2^{2k-1}$$

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WRONG QUESTION I only need show that such a coloring exists.

## Pick a coloring at Random!

Numb of colorings:  $2^{\binom{n}{2}}$ .

Numb of colorings: that have mono  $K_k$  is bounded by

$$\binom{n}{k} \times 2 \times 2^{\binom{n}{2} - \binom{k}{2}}$$

Prob that a random 2-coloring HAS a homog set is bounded by

$$\frac{\binom{n}{k} \times 2 \times 2^{\binom{n}{2} - \binom{k}{2}}}{2^{\binom{n}{2}}} \le \frac{\binom{n}{k} \times 2}{2^{\binom{k}{2}}} \le \frac{n^k}{k! 2^{k^2/2}}$$

Want *n* large and  $\frac{n^k}{k!2^{k^2/2}} < 1$ .

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Slightly better lower bounds are known, but still roughly  $k2^{k/2}$ .

## DISTINCT DIFF SETS

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Can we do better?

STUDENTS break into small groups and try to either do better OR show that you best you can do is  $O(\log n)$ .



## An Approach

Let a be a number to be determined.

Pick a RANDOM  $A \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$  of size a.

What is the probability that all of the diffs in A are distinct?

We hope the prob is strictly GREATER THAN 0.

**KEY:** If the prob is strictly greater than 0 then there must be SOME set of *a* elements where all of the diffs are distinct.

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We only need to show that the prob is LESS THAN 1.

#### **Review a Little Bit of Combinatorics**

The number of ways to CHOOSE y elements out of x elements is

$$\binom{x}{y} = \frac{x!}{y!(x-y)!}.$$

If a RAND  $A \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$ , size a, want bound on prob all of the diffs in A are NOT distinct. Numb of ways to choose a elements out of  $\{1, ..., n\}$  is  $\binom{n}{a}$ .

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Two ways to create a set with a diff repeated:

#### Way One:

- ▶ Pick x < y. There are  $\binom{n}{2} \le n^2$  ways to do that.
- Pick diff d such that  $x + d \neq y$ ,  $x + d \leq n$ ,  $y + d \leq n$ . Can do  $\leq n$  ways. Put x, y, x + d, y + d into A.
- ▶ Pick a 4 more elements out of the n 4 left.

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Way Two: Pick x < y. Let d = y - x (so we do NOT pick d). Put x, y = x + d, y + d into A. Pick a - 3 more elements out of the n - 3 left.

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If you pick a RANDOM  $A \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$  of size a then a bound on the probability that all of the diffs in A are NOT distinct is

$$\frac{n^3 \times \binom{n-4}{a-4} + n^2 \times \binom{n-3}{a-3}}{\binom{n}{a}} = \frac{n^3 \times \binom{n-4}{a-4}}{\binom{n}{a}} + \frac{n^2 \times \binom{n-3}{a-3}}{\binom{n}{a}}$$
$$= \frac{n^3 a(a-1)(a-2)(a-3)}{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)} + \frac{n^2 a(a-1)(a-2)}{n(n-1)(n-2)}$$
$$\leq \frac{32a^4}{n} \text{ Need some Elem Algebra and uses } n \geq 5.$$

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$$a = \left(\frac{n}{33}\right)^{1/4}.$$

**UPSHOT:** For all  $n \ge 5$  there exists a all-diff-distinct subset of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  of size roughly  $n^{1/4}$ .

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- ► Caveat: If the Prob Proof has high prob of getting the object, then seems constructive. If all you prove is nonzero, than maybe not.

## **Actually Can Do Better**

- ▶ With a maximal set argument can do  $\Omega(n^{1/3})$ .
- ▶ Better is known:  $\Omega(n^{1/2})$  which is optimal

# SUM FREE SET PROBLEM

**Exposition by William Gasarch** 

#### Sum Free Set Problem

A More Sophisticated Use of Prob Method. **Definition:** A set of numbers A is *sum free* if there is NO  $x, y, z \in A$  such that x + y = z.

**Example:** Let  $y_1, \ldots, y_m \in (1/3, 2/3)$  (so they are all between 1/3 and 2/3). Note that  $y_i + y_j > 2/3$ , hence  $y_i + y_j \notin \{y_1, \ldots, y_m\}$ .

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**Def:** frac(x) is the fractional part of x. E.g., frac(1.414) = .414.

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**Def:**  $\operatorname{frac}(x)$  is the fractional part of x. E.g.,  $\operatorname{frac}(1.414) = .414$ . **Lemma:** If  $y_1, y_2, y_3$  are such that  $\operatorname{frac}(y_1), \operatorname{frac}(y_2), \operatorname{frac}(y_3) \in (1/3, 2/3)$  then  $y_1 + y_2 \neq y_3$ .

## **ANOTHER EXAMPLE**

**Def:** frac(x) is the fractional part of x. E.g., frac(1.414) = .414.

**Lemma:** If  $y_1, y_2, y_3$  are such that

 $\operatorname{frac}(y_1), \operatorname{frac}(y_2), \operatorname{frac}(y_3) \in (1/3, 2/3) \text{ then } y_1 + y_2 \neq y_3.$ 

Proof: STUDENTS DO THIS. ITS EASY.

**Example:** Let  $A = \{y_1, \dots, y_m\}$  all have fractional part in

(1/3, 2/3). A is sum free by above Lemma.

## **QUESTION**

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#### VOTE:

- 1. There is a sumfree set of size roughly n/3.
- 2. There is a sumfree set of size roughly  $\sqrt{n}$ .
- 3. There is a sumfree set of size roughly  $\log n$ .

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STUDENTS - WORK ON THIS IN GROUPS.

## **SUM SET PROBLEM**

**Theorem** For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , for all A that are a set of n real numbers, there is a sum-free subset of A of size  $(1/3 - \epsilon)n$ . **Proof:** Let L be LESS than everything in A and U be BIGGER than everything in A. We will make U - L LARGE later. For  $a \in [L, U]$  let

$$B_a = \{x \in A : \operatorname{frac}(ax) \in (1/3, 2/3)\}.$$

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$$B_a = \{x \in A : frac(ax) \in (1/3, 2/3)\}.$$

For all a,  $B_a$  is sum-free by Lemma above. SO we need an a such that  $B_a$  is LARGE.

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$$\mathrm{Pr}_{a\in[L,U]}(\mathrm{frac}(ax)\in(1/3,2/3))$$

We take U-L large enough so that this prob is  $\geq (1/3 - \epsilon)$ .

$$E(|B_a|) = \sum_{x \in A} \Pr_{a \in [L, U]}(\operatorname{frac}(ax) \in (1/3, 2/3))$$
$$= \sum_{x \in A} (1/3 - \epsilon)$$
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So THERE EXISTS an a such that  $|B_a| \ge (1/3 - \epsilon)n$ . What is a? I DON"T KNOW AND I DON"T CARE! End of Proof

## **Turan's Theorem**

**Exposition by William Gasarch** 

## **Turan's Theorem**

**Theorem** If G = (V, E) is a graph, |V| = n, and |E| = e, then G has an ind set of size at least

$$\frac{n}{\frac{2e}{n}+1}$$
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## **Turan's Theorem**

**Theorem** If G = (V, E) is a graph, |V| = n, and |E| = e, then G has an ind set of size at least

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We proof this using Probability, but first need a lemma.

#### Lemma

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**Proof:** Try to count the edges by summing the degrees at each vertex. This counts every edge TWICE.

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Example:



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Example:



The set of vertices that have NO edges coming out on the right form an Ind Set. Call this set *I*.

## How Big is 1?

How big is I

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How big is / WRONG QUESTION!

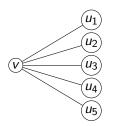
## How Big is 1?

How big is / WRONG QUESTION!

What is the EXPECTED VALUE of the size of *I*. (NOTE- we permuted the vertices RANDOMLY)

## What is Prob $v \in I$

Let  $v \in V$ . What is prob that  $v \in I$ 



v has degree  $d_v$ . How many ways can v and its vertices be laid out:  $(d_v + 1)!$ . In how many of them is v on the right?  $d_v!$ .

$$\Pr(v \in I) = \frac{d_v!}{(d_v + 1)!} = \frac{1}{d_v + 1}.$$

Hence

$$E(|I|) = \sum_{v \in V} \frac{1}{d_v + 1}.$$

## How Big is this Sum?

Need to find lower bound on

$$\sum_{v\in V}\frac{1}{d_v+1}.$$

## Rephrase

#### **NEW PROBLEM:**

Minimize

$$\sum_{v \in V} \frac{1}{x_v + 1}$$

relative to the constraint:

$$\sum_{v \in V} x_v = 2e.$$

**KNOWN:** This sum is minimized when all of the  $x_v$  are  $\frac{2e}{|V|} = \frac{2e}{n}$ . So the min the sum can be is

$$\sum_{v \in V} \frac{1}{\frac{2e}{n}+1} = \frac{n}{\frac{2e}{n}+1}.$$

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The min occurs when  $(\forall v)[x_v = \frac{2e}{n}]$ . Hence

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The min occurs when  $(\forall v)[x_v = \frac{2e}{n}]$ . Hence

$$E(I) \ge \sum_{v \in V} \frac{1}{x_v + 1} \ge \sum_{v \in V} \frac{1}{\frac{2e}{n} + 1} = \frac{n}{\frac{2e}{n} + 1}.$$

## **END OF THIS TALK/TAKEAWAY**

#### END OF THIS TALK

**TAKEAWAY:** There are TWO ways (probably more) to show that an object exists using probability.

- Show that the probability that it exists is NONZERO. Hence there must be some set of random choices that makes it exist. We did this for the distinct-sums problem.
- 2. You want to show that an object of a size  $\geq s$  exists. Show that if you do a probabilistic experiment then you (a) always get the object of the type you want, and (b) the expected size is  $\geq s$ . Hence again SOME set of random choices produces an object of size  $\geq s$ .