# NDMI011: Combinatorics and Graph Theory 1 

## Lecture \#11

# Ramsey theory and Kőnig's infinity lemma 

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December 21, 2020

- Reminder: For positive integers $k$ and $\ell, R(k, \ell)$ the smallest $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that every graph $G$ on at least $N$ vertices satisfies either $\omega(G) \geq k$ or $\alpha(G) \geq \ell$.
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- Numbers $R(k, \ell)$ (with $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$ ) are called Ramsey numbers, and we proved that they exist in Lecture Notes 10.
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- Numbers $R(k, \ell)$ (with $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$ ) are called Ramsey numbers, and we proved that they exist in Lecture Notes 10.
- There's another way to think about Ramsey numbers!
- Any graph G corresponds to a complete graph on the same vertex set, and whose edges are colored black or white, with an edge colored black if it was an edge of the graph $G$, and colored white otherwise.

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- Now $R(k, \ell)$ (with $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$ ) is the smallest $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that any complete graph on at least $N$ vertices, and whose edges are colored black or white, has either a monochromatic black complete subgraph of size $k$, or a monochromatic white complete subgraph of size $\ell$.
- Any graph $G$ corresponds to a complete graph on the same vertex set, and whose edges are colored black or white, with an edge colored black if it was an edge of the graph $G$, and colored white otherwise.

- Now $R(k, \ell)$ (with $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$ ) is the smallest $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that any complete graph on at least $N$ vertices, and whose edges are colored black or white, has either a monochromatic black complete subgraph of size $k$, or a monochromatic white complete subgraph of size $\ell$.
- If instead of black and white, we use colors 1 and 2 , then a coloring of the complete graph on vertex set $X$ is simply a function $c:\binom{X}{2} \rightarrow[2]$.
- $\binom{X}{p}$ is the set of all $p$-element subsets of $X$.
- So, $R(k, \ell)$ (with $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$ ) is the smallest $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all finite sets $X$ with $|X| \geq N$, and all colorings $c:\binom{X}{2} \rightarrow$ [2], either there exists a set $A_{1} \in\binom{X}{k}$ such that $c$ assigns color 1 to each set in $\binom{A_{1}}{2}$, or there exists a set $A_{2} \in\binom{X}{\ell}$ such that $c$ assigns color 2 to each set in $\binom{A_{2}}{2}$.
- So, $R(k, \ell)$ (with $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$ ) is the smallest $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all finite sets $X$ with $|X| \geq N$, and all colorings $c:\binom{X}{2} \rightarrow$ [2], either there exists a set $A_{1} \in\binom{X}{k}$ such that $c$ assigns color 1 to each set in $\binom{A_{1}}{2}$, or there exists a set $A_{2} \in\binom{X}{\ell}$ such that $c$ assigns color 2 to each set in $\binom{A_{2}}{2}$.
- This can be generalized!


## Definition

A hypergraph is an ordered pair $H=(V(H), E(H))$, where $V(H)$ is some non-empty finite set, and $E(H) \subseteq \mathscr{P}(V(H)) \backslash\{\emptyset\}$. Members of $V(H)$ are called vertices and members of $E(H)$ are called edges of the hypergraph $H$.

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For a positive integer $p$, a hypergraph is $p$-uniform if all its edges have precisely $p$ vertices. A hypergraph is uniform if it is $p$-uniform for some $p$.

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- So, if $H$ is a $p$-uniform hypergraph, then $E(H) \subseteq\binom{V(H)}{p}$.
- A graph is simply a 2-uniform hypergraph.


## Definition

Given $p, t, k_{1}, \ldots, k_{t} \in \mathbb{N}$, the Ramsey number $R^{p}\left(k_{1}, \ldots, k_{t}\right)$ is the smallest $N \in \mathbb{N}$ (if it exists) such that for all finite sets $X$ with $|X| \geq N$, and all colorings (i.e. functions) $c:\binom{X}{p} \rightarrow[t]$, ${ }^{a}$ there exist an index $i \in[t]$ and a set $A_{i} \in\binom{X}{k_{i}}$ such that $c$ assigns color $i$ to each element of $\binom{A_{i}}{p}$.

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- One proof is a generalization of the proof of existence of the numbers $R(k, \ell)$ from Lecture Notes 10 .
- The other one uses the infinite version of Ramsey's theorem.
- Here, we will present only the second proof.
- But first, let's look at a geometric application!


## Definition

A set $X$ of points in the plane is convex if for all distinct $x_{1}, x_{2} \in X$, the line segment between $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ lies in $X$. The convex hull of a non-empty set $S$ of points in the plane is the smallest convex set in the plane that includes $S$.

convex

non-convex

- If $S$ is a finite set of points in the plane containing at least three non-collinear points, then the convex hull of $S$ is a convex polygon (with its interior), and the vertices of this polygon are all in $S$.

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- Equivalently, (pairwise distinct) points $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t}(t \geq 3)$ in the plane are in convex position if their convex hull is a convex $t$-gon whose vertices are precisely $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t}$ (not necessarily in that order).

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Any set of five points in the plane, no three of which are collinear, contains four points in convex position.

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WMA the convex hull is a triangle, for otherwise we are done.

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Proof (outline, continued).


If $a_{5} \in C_{i, j}$, then $a_{i}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{j}$ are the vertices of a convex quadrilateral, and we are done.

## The Erdős-Szekeres theorem

Let $t \geq 4$ be an integer. Any set of at least $R^{4}(5, t)$ points in the plane, no three of which are collinear, contains $t$ points in convex position.

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Proof (outline). We consider a set $S$ of at least $R^{4}(5, t)$ points in the plane, and we assume that no three of these points are collinear. We now consider a coloring $c:\binom{S}{4} \rightarrow$ [2] defined as follows: for all $X \in\binom{S}{4}, c(X)=1$ if the four points of $X$ are not in convex position, and $c(X)=2$ if they are in convex position.

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Proof (outline, continued).

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Proof (outline, continued). Suppose that there exists some $A_{1} \in\binom{S}{5}$ such that $c$ assigns color 1 to all elements of $\binom{A_{1}}{4}$.

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Proof (outline, continued). Suppose that there exists some $A_{1} \in\binom{S}{5}$ such that $c$ assigns color 1 to all elements of $\binom{A_{1}}{4}$. Then $A_{1}$ is a set of five points in the plane, no three of which are collinear, and no four of which are in convex position. But this contradicts Lemma 1.1.

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Proof (outline, continued). It now follows that there exists some $A_{2} \in\binom{S}{t}$ such that $c$ assigns color 2 to all elements of $\binom{A_{2}}{4}$. Then $A_{2}$ is a set of $t$ points in the plane, no three of which are collinear, and any four of which are in convex position.

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Proof (outline, continued).


If some point of $S$ is not a vertex of the polygon, then we get four points of $A_{4}$ that are not in convex position.

## Ramsey's theorem (infinite version)

For all $t, p \in \mathbb{N}$, all infinite sets $X$, and all colorings $c:\binom{X}{p} \rightarrow[t]$, there exists an infinite set $A \subseteq X$ such that $c \upharpoonright\binom{A}{p}$ is constant.

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Proof. We fix $t \in \mathbb{N}$, and we proceed by induction on $p$.
For $p=1$, we fix an infinite set $X$ and a coloring $c:\binom{X}{1} \rightarrow[t]$. For all $i \in[t]$, we set $C_{i}=\{x \in X \mid c(\{x\})=i\}$. Then $\left(C_{1}, \ldots, C_{t}\right)$ is a partition of $X$, and consequently, at least one of the sets $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{t}$, say $C_{i}$, is infinite. Furthermore, $c \upharpoonright\binom{C_{i}}{1}$ is constant (indeed, it assigns color $i$ to each element of $\binom{C_{i}}{1}$ ). So, the theorem is true for $p=1$.

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Proof (continued). Fix $p \in \mathbb{N}$, and assume the theorem is true for $p$. We must show that it is true for $p+1$.

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Proof (continued). Fix $p \in \mathbb{N}$, and assume the theorem is true for $p$. We must show that it is true for $p+1$. Fix an infinite set $X$ and a coloring $c:\binom{X}{p+1} \rightarrow[t]$.

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Proof (continued). Fix $p \in \mathbb{N}$, and assume the theorem is true for $p$. We must show that it is true for $p+1$. Fix an infinite set $X$ and a coloring $c:\binom{X}{p+1} \rightarrow[t]$. Our goal is to recursively construct a sequence $\left\{X_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of infinite subsets of $X$ and a sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of elements of $X$ with the following three properties:

- $x_{n} \in X_{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$;
- $X_{n+1} \subseteq X_{n} \backslash\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$;
- for all $n \in \mathbb{N}, c$ assigns the same color to all sets of the form $\left\{x_{n}\right\} \cup X$, with $X \in\binom{X_{n+1}}{p}$.


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Proof (continued). First, we set $X_{1}=X$ and we choose $x_{1} \in X$ arbitrarily. Now, having constructed $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, we construct $X_{n+1}$ and $x_{n+1}$ as follows. We define an auxiliary coloring $c_{n}:\left(\underset{p}{X_{n} \backslash\left\{x_{n}\right\}}\right) \rightarrow[t]$ by setting $c_{n}(A)=c\left(A \cup\left\{x_{n}\right\}\right)$ for all $A \in\binom{X_{n} \backslash\left\{x_{n}\right\}}{p}$. Since $X_{n} \backslash\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ is infinite, the induction hypothesis guarantees that there exists some infinite set $X_{n+1} \subseteq X_{n} \backslash\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ such that $c_{n} \upharpoonright\binom{X_{n+1}}{p}$ is constant. But now by construction, we have that $c$ assigns the same color to all sets of the form $\left\{x_{n}\right\} \cup X$, with $X \in\binom{X_{n+1}}{p}$. Finally, we choose $x_{n+1} \in X_{n+1}$ arbitrarily.

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For all $t, p \in \mathbb{N}$, all infinite sets $X$, and all colorings $c:\binom{X}{p} \rightarrow[t]$, there exists an infinite set $A \subseteq X$ such that $c \upharpoonright\binom{A}{p}$ is constant.

Proof (continued). We have now constructed a sequence $\left\{X_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of infinite subsets of $X$ and a sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of elements of $X$ with the following three properties:

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- for all $n \in \mathbb{N}, c$ assigns the same color to all sets of the form $\left\{x_{n}\right\} \cup X$, with $X \in\binom{x_{n+1}}{p}$.
It follows from the construction that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the coloring $c$ assigns the same color to all sets of the form $\left\{x_{n}\right\} \cup\left\{x_{j_{1}}, \ldots, x_{j_{p}}\right\}$, with $n<j_{1}<\cdots<j_{p}$; let us say this color is associated with $x_{n}$.


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Proof (continued). Reminder: For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the coloring $c$ assigns the same color to all sets of the form $\left\{x_{n}\right\} \cup\left\{x_{j_{1}}, \ldots, x_{j_{p}}\right\}$, with $n<j_{1}<\cdots<j_{p}$; this color is associated with $x_{n}$.

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For all $i \in[t]$, we let $A_{i}=\left\{x_{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, i\right.$ is associated with $\left.x_{n}\right\}$.

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For all $i \in[t]$, we let $A_{i}=\left\{x_{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, i\right.$ is associated with $\left.x_{n}\right\}$. Then $\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{t}\right)$ is a partition of the infinite set $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots\right\}$, and we deduce that at least one of the sets $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{t}$, say $A_{i}$, is infinite. But now $c \upharpoonright\binom{A_{i}}{p+1}$ is constant (it assigns $i$ to all elements of $\binom{A_{i}}{p+1}$ ). This completes the induction.

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A ray in an infinite graph $G$ is a sequence $x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots$ of pairwise distinct vertices such that for all integers $n \geq 0, x_{n} x_{n+1}$ is an edge of $G$.

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## Kőnig's infinity lemma

Every infinite, locally finite rooted tree ( $T, r$ ) contains a ray starting at $r$ (i.e. a ray of the form $r, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots$ ).

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## Definition

Given $p, t, k_{1}, \ldots, k_{t} \in \mathbb{N}$, the Ramsey number $R^{p}\left(k_{1}, \ldots, k_{t}\right)$ is the smallest $N \in \mathbb{N}$ (if it exists) such that for all finite sets $X$ with $|X| \geq N$, and all colorings (i.e. functions) $c:\binom{X}{p} \rightarrow[t]$, ${ }^{a}$ there exist an index $i \in[t]$ and a set $A_{i} \in\binom{X}{k_{i}}$ such that $c$ assigns color $i$ to each element of $\binom{A_{i}}{p}$.
${ }^{a}$ So, $c$ is an assignment of colors to the edges of the "complete" $p$-uniform hypergraph on vertex set $X$.

## Ramsey's theorem (hypergraph version)

For all $p, t, k_{1}, \ldots, k_{t} \in \mathbb{N}$, the number $R^{p}\left(k_{1}, \ldots, k_{t}\right)$ exists.

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Proof. Clearly, it suffices to show that for all $p, t, k \in \mathbb{N}$, the Ramsey number $R^{p}(\underbrace{k, \ldots, k}_{t})$ exists.

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Proof. Clearly, it suffices to show that for all $p, t, k \in \mathbb{N}$, the Ramsey number $R^{p}(\underbrace{k, \ldots, k}_{t})$ exists. Suppose that for some $p, t, k \in \mathbb{N}$, the number $R^{p}(\underbrace{k, \ldots, k}_{t})$ does not exist. Now, for each integer $n \geq p$, we say that a coloring $c:\binom{[n]}{p} \rightarrow[t]$ is $n$-bad if there is no set $A \in\binom{[n]}{k}$ such that $c \upharpoonright\binom{A}{p}$ is constant; a coloring is bad if it is $n$-bad for some integer $n \geq p$.

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Proof (continued). Now, let $C$ be the set of all bad colorings, and let $T$ be the graph on the vertex set $C \cup\{r\}$ (where $r \notin C$ ), with adjacency as follows:

- $r$ is adjacent to all $p$-bad colorings, and to no other elements of $C$;
- for all integers $n \geq p$, $n$-bad colorings are pairwise non-adjacent;
- for all integers $n \geq p$, an $n$-bad coloring $c_{n}$ is adjacent to an ( $n+1$ )-bad coloring $c_{n+1}$ iff $c_{n+1}$ is an extension of $c_{n} ;{ }^{1}$
- for all integers $n_{1}, n_{2} \geq p$ such that $\left|n_{1}-n_{2}\right| \geq 2$, no $n_{1}$-bad coloring is adjacent to any $n_{2}$-bad coloring.


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Now $(T, r)$ is a rooted tree. Furthermore, for each integer $n \geq p$, the number of $n$-bad colorings is finite, and it follows from the construction of $T$ that the $T$ is locally finite.


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Now $(T, r)$ is a rooted tree. Furthermore, for each integer $n \geq p$, the number of $n$-bad colorings is finite, and it follows from the construction of $T$ that the $T$ is locally finite. So, by Kőnig's infinity lemma, there is a ray $r_{,}, c_{p}, c_{p+1}, c_{p+2}, \ldots$ in $T$.


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Proof (continued). Set $c=\bigcup_{n=p}^{\infty} c_{n}$; then $c:\binom{\mathbb{N}}{p} \rightarrow[t]$, and so by the infinite version of Ramsey's theorem, there is an infinite set $A$ such that $c \upharpoonright\binom{A}{p}$ is constant.

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We now choose any subset $A_{k} \in\binom{A}{k}$, and we observe that $c \upharpoonright\binom{A_{k}}{p}$ is constant. Now, $A_{k}$ is a finite subset of $\mathbb{N}$, and consequently, there exists some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A_{k} \subseteq[n]$; we may assume that $n \geq p$. Now $A_{k} \in\binom{[n]}{k}$, and $c_{n} \upharpoonright\binom{A_{k}}{p}=c \upharpoonright\binom{A_{k}}{p}$ is constant, contrary to the fact that $c_{n}$ is bad.


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