

# Pair constructions for hypergraph Ramsey numbers

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## §1 Background

Today, we'll talk about lower bound constructions for the Ramsey numbers of 3-uniform hypergraphs. First, we'll give some background — we probably already think Ramsey numbers are interesting, but we'll now see why 3 is interesting, and what we know about lower bounds.

### §1.1 Hypergraphs

**Definition 1.1.** A  $k$ -graph (or  $k$ -uniform hypergraph) is a generalization of a graph where edges are (unordered)  $k$ -tuples of vertices — in other words, a  $k$ -graph is an object  $\mathcal{H} = (V, E)$  with  $E \subseteq \binom{V}{k}$ .

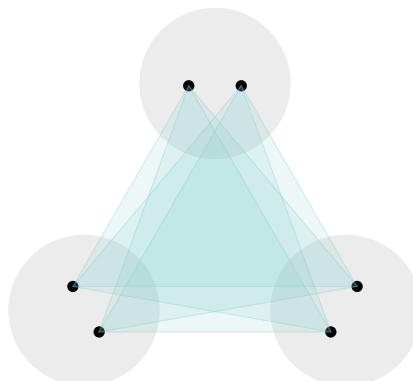
Here are some examples of hypergraphs.

#### Example 1.2

The complete  $k$ -uniform hypergraph on  $n$  vertices, denoted  $K_n^{(k)}$ , is the hypergraph where we have  $n$  vertices and an edge for *every*  $\binom{n}{k}$   $k$ -tuple.

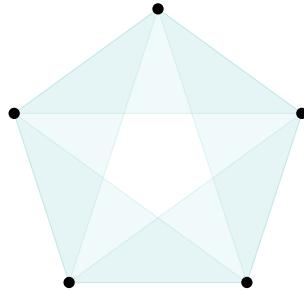
#### Example 1.3

The complete  $k$ -partite  $k$ -graph  $K_{n,\dots,n}^{(k)}$  is the blowup of a single edge — we have  $k$  vertex sets, each with  $n$  vertices, and all the edges consisting of one vertex from each set.

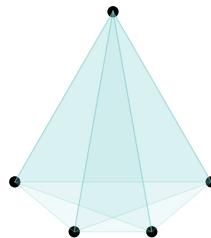


**Example 1.4**

The  $k$ -uniform [tight cycle](#) on  $s$  vertices, denoted  $C_s^{(k)}$ , is obtained by taking  $s$  points on a circle as our vertices and drawing an edge for every consecutive  $k$  points.

**Example 1.5**

The [star](#)  $S_s^{(k)}$  consists of  $s + 1$  vertices and  $\binom{s}{k-1}$  edges; we have a single distinguished vertex, and we draw an edge for all  $k$ -tuples containing that vertex.



We'll look at the Ramsey numbers of these hypergraphs — we're most interested in Ramsey numbers of complete  $k$ -graphs, but the others are interesting as well (and we understand some of them better).

**§1.2 Ramsey numbers**

**Definition 1.6.** Given  $k$ -graphs  $\mathcal{H}_1, \dots, \mathcal{H}_r$ , their [Ramsey number](#)  $r(\mathcal{H}_1, \dots, \mathcal{H}_r)$  is the smallest  $n$  such that any  $r$ -coloring of the edges of  $K_n^{(k)}$  contains a monochromatic  $\mathcal{H}_i$  in color  $i$  for some  $i$ .

**Theorem 1.7 (Ramsey's theorem)**

For any collection of hypergraphs  $\mathcal{H}_1, \dots, \mathcal{H}_r$ , their Ramsey number  $r(\mathcal{H}_1, \dots, \mathcal{H}_r)$  is finite.

In other words, given any  $\mathcal{H}_1, \dots, \mathcal{H}_r$ , there's some large number  $n$  that guarantees that no matter how we color our  $n$ -vertex complete  $k$ -graph, we'll find at least one of these monochromatic structures (in the correct color).

**Question 1.8.** How big are these Ramsey numbers quantitatively?

We're particularly interested in  $r(K_s^{(k)}, K_t^{(k)})$  is; we'll denote this by  $r_k(s, t)$  for convenience.

### §1.3 Known bounds for graph Ramsey numbers

We'll now talk about the previously known bounds for hypergraph Ramsey numbers; we'll first start with *graph* Ramsey numbers (i.e., the case  $k = 2$ ).

In the *diagonal* case — where we're interested in  $r_2(t, t)$  — we now know that

$$\sqrt{2}^t \leq r_2(t, t) \leq 3.999^t.$$

(The upper bound is a spectacular recent breakthrough of Campos, Griffiths, Morris, and Sahasrabudhe.) So broadly speaking, we know that  $r_2(t, t)$  is exponential in  $t$ , but we don't know the correct base of the exponent.

In the *off-diagonal* case, we fix  $s$  and take  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . For a long time, we were stuck at

$$t^{(s+1)/2} \lesssim r_2(s, t) \lesssim t^{s-1}$$

(we're dropping log factors in these bounds). But recently this year, we essentially solved  $r_2(4, t)$  — Mattheus and Verstraete (in 2023) showed that

$$r_2(4, t) \asymp t^3.$$

### §1.4 Known bounds for hypergraph Ramsey numbers

In the case of graph Ramsey numbers, we have a somewhat big gap between the upper and lower bounds — the two bounds have different bases of their exponents. But the gap for *hypergraphs* is actually much bigger. For  $k = 3$ , the best bounds we have are

$$2^{\Omega(t^2)} \leq r_3(t, t) \leq 2^{2^{O(t)}}.$$

(The lower bound, similarly to the  $k = 2$  case, is probabilistic — we take a random coloring.)

So starting from  $k = 3$ , we don't even know the correct *tower height* — the two bounds have a gap of 1 in tower height.

But the good news is that this gap doesn't get any bigger as we increase the uniformity (i.e., we have a gap of 1 in tower height of 1 for *all*  $k \geq 4$ ) — for all  $k \geq 4$ , we know

$$2^{r_{k-1}(\varepsilon t, \varepsilon t)} \leq r_k(t, t) \leq 2^{r_{k-1}(t, t)^{k-1}}$$

(for some  $\varepsilon$ ). So we can bound  $r_k(t, t)$  both above and below by something exponential in Ramsey numbers of the previous uniformity, which means the tower height increases by 1 when we increase uniformity. (The lower bound is due to Erdős–Hajnal — called the *stepping up lemma* — and the upper bound is due to Erdős–Rado.)

This means  $k = 3$  is in some sense the critical case — if we can understand the tower height for  $k = 3$ , then we can step up to any higher uniformity. We'll focus on lower bounds because for a long time, people have believed that the upper bound for  $r_3(t, t)$  should be the truth (i.e.,  $r_3(t, t)$  should be double-exponential). One reason to think this is that when we have *four* colors, then we *do* get something double-exponential — we know that

$$r_3(t, t, t, t) = 2^{2^{\Theta(t)}}$$

(this is due to Hajnal). So we don't know what happens for 2 colors, but we do know that we get double-exponential behavior for 4, and we might expect that the number of colors shouldn't affect the tower height. In fact, proving that  $r_3(t, t)$  is double-exponential was one of Erdős's problems.

**Question 1.9** (Erdős \$500). Prove that  $r_3(t, t) = 2^{2^{\Theta(t)}}$ .

Today, we'll talk about some ideas for improving lower bounds for 3-uniform Ramsey numbers.

## §2 Pair constructions

The bound  $r_3(t, t) \geq 2^{\Omega(t^2)}$  is proven using a random coloring. But there's another style of coloring that's often quite useful; we'll first see this construction for the off-diagonal case, but it turns out to actually also be useful for the diagonal case.

### §2.1 The off-diagonal case

**Theorem 2.1** (Conlon–Fox–Sudakov)

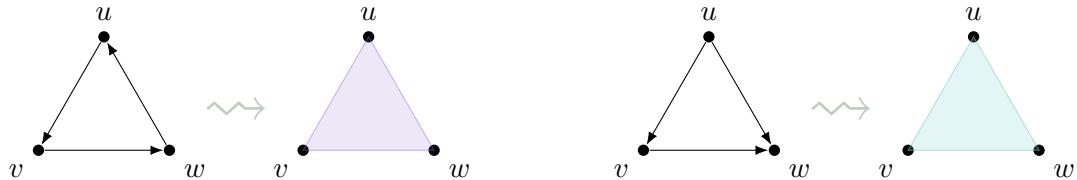
We have  $r_3(4, t) \geq 2^{\Omega(t \log t)}$ .

This improves previous work of Erdős–Hajnal that showed  $r_3(4, t) \geq 2^{\Omega(t)}$ . We'll start by proving this result, to get some idea of how these proofs work.

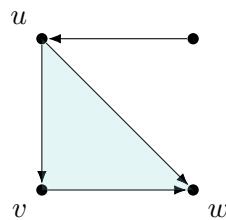
**Theorem 2.2** (Erdős–Hajnal)

We have  $r_3(4, t) \geq 2^{\Omega(t)}$ .

*Proof.* We start with a random *tournament*  $T$  on  $n = 2^{ct}$  vertices (for some  $c$ ) — i.e., a random orientation of the complete graph. We then use this graph structure to define a hypergraph coloring  $\chi$  of  $\binom{[n]}{3}$ . For each triple  $uvw$ , we look at  $uvw$  in our tournament, and there's two possibilities — it forms either a cyclic triangle or a transitive triangle. If it's a cyclic triangle then we color  $uvw$  red, and if it's a transitive triangle then we color it blue.



The beautiful property of this hypergraph coloring is that it can't have a red 4-clique, because we can't have too many cyclic triangles among four vertices — every vertex has either in-degree or out-degree 2, and if  $u$  has out-edges to both  $v$  and  $w$ , then  $uvw$  is not a cyclic triangle. This means we've *deterministically* guaranteed that there is no red 4-clique.



The randomness comes in to show that there's no big blue clique. A blue clique on  $t$  vertices in  $\chi$  would correspond to a set of  $t$  vertices in our tournament for which all triples are transitive, meaning that the *entire* set of  $t$  vertices has to be transitive. This is very unlikely — for a given set of  $t$  vertices, the probability it is transitive is

$$\mathbb{P}[v_1, \dots, v_t \text{ transitive}] = \frac{t!}{2^{\binom{t}{2}}}$$

(we first choose an order of the vertices, and then we must orient all edges according to it). The term of  $t!$  is tiny (compared to the denominator), so we end up with the same computation as in the probabilistic proof for the *graph* lower bound. So with positive probability there's no blue  $t$ -clique in  $\chi$ , and therefore we get  $r_3(t, t) > n$ .  $\square$

## §2.2 Pair constructions and pair complexity

The idea of Conlon–Fox–Sudakov to get  $2^{\Omega(t \log t)}$  is that there's actually a whole *family* of constructions you can build that look like this. We won't describe exactly what their construction is, but we'll give a general definition of the family we consider.

**Definition 2.3.** A 3-uniform pair construction is a coloring  $\chi: \binom{[n]}{3} \rightarrow \{\text{red, blue}\}$  such that  $\chi$  factors through two functions  $f: \binom{[n]}{2} \rightarrow [p]$  and  $g: [p]^3 \rightarrow \{\text{red, blue}\}$  — i.e., for all  $u < v < w$  we have

$$\chi(u, v, w) = g(f(uv), f(vw), f(wu)).$$

In other words, a pair construction is a coloring that we can induce from a 2-uniform coloring — we color a *graph* with finitely many colors (corresponding to  $f: \binom{[n]}{2} \rightarrow [p]$  — here  $p$  is the number of colors), and then use some deterministic rule to lift this to a hypergraph coloring (corresponding to  $g: [p]^3 \rightarrow \{\text{red, blue}\}$ ).

We'll use  $\chi_{f,g}$  to denote the pair construction corresponding to  $f$  and  $g$ .

**Remark 2.4.** This definition generalizes naturally to higher uniformities as well.

### Example 2.5

The Erdős–Hajnal construction is a pair construction with  $p = 2$  (we can represent a tournament as an edge-coloring of  $K_n$ , where we color an edge based on whether it's directed from the smaller to bigger or bigger to smaller vertex).

The construction by Conlon–Fox–Sudakov is also a pair construction, where  $p$  is logarithmic in  $n$  rather than constant.

**Definition 2.6.** Given a coloring  $\chi: \binom{[n]}{3} \rightarrow \{\text{red, blue}\}$ , the pair complexity of  $\chi$  is the smallest  $p$  such that  $\chi$  can be written as  $\chi_{f,g}$  for some  $f: \binom{[n]}{2} \rightarrow [p]$  and  $g: [p]^3 \rightarrow \{\text{red, blue}\}$ .

Note that *every* coloring  $\chi$  is a pair construction for sufficiently large  $p$  — if  $p$  is large, then we can choose  $f$  such that from  $(f(uv), f(vw), f(wu))$  we can read off the original triple  $(u, v, w)$ , which allows us to define  $g$ . So we are really interested in what we can do with *small* pair complexity.

It turns out that most 3-uniform Ramsey constructions that we know of have constant or logarithmic pair complexity; in contrast, a random construction would have linear pair complexity.

**Question 2.7.** Can *all* 3-uniform Ramsey bounds be proven with a construction with ‘small’ pair complexity, or do we ever need a construction with e.g. linear pair complexity?

If we take ‘small’ to mean *constant*, then there's an easy answer — we can't do very much with constant pair complexity. The reason for this is that if we have a constant number of colors in the  $f$ -layer (i.e., our graph coloring), then we can use multicolor Ramsey to find monochromatic cliques there, which will produce monochromatic cliques in  $\chi$  as well; this means the best constructions we can get this way will be exponential in  $t$ . (The Erdős–Hajnal construction used constant pair complexity and got an exponential bound; and here we've seen this is the best we can do.)

But with *logarithmic* pair complexity (where by ‘logarithmic’ we mean logarithmic in the number of vertices — i.e.,  $p \asymp \log n$ ), this doesn’t happen; we might be able to get any bound we could want.

**Remark 2.8.** For comparison (to see what sorts of bounds we would *like* to prove), the best-known *upper* bound for  $r_3(4, t)$  is

$$r_3(4, t) \leq 2^{O(t^2 \log t)}.$$

So we still have a gap between the upper and lower bounds; in particular, the possible range we have for  $r_3(4, t)$  overlaps with the one for  $r_3(t, t)$ .

**Remark 2.9.** The construction by Conlon–Fox–Sudakov nicely interpolates between the off-diagonal and diagonal case as well — it shows that for *any*  $s$  and  $t$ , we have

$$r_3(s, t) \geq 2^{\Omega(st \log(t/s))}.$$

In some sense, this means the lower bound of  $2^{\Omega(t^2)}$  in the diagonal case should be on the same level of ‘difficulty’ as the bound of  $2^{\Omega(t \log t)}$  in the off-diagonal case (in the sense that both come from the same construction). So if we improve the bound in the off-diagonal case, we might be able to improve it in the diagonal case as well.

## §2.3 Stepping up constructions

Another example of a construction with logarithmic complexity is the *stepping up* construction.

Suppose that  $\chi$  is any stepping-up coloring, as defined in the morning — this means we have a  $(k-1)$ -uniform coloring of  $[m]$  and want to define a  $k$ -uniform coloring of  $\{0, 1\}^m$ . To do so, for  $u, v \in \{0, 1\}^m$  we define  $\delta(u, v)$  as the first bit at which binary strings  $u$  and  $v$  differ. Then for each  $v_1 < \dots < v_k$ , we define  $\chi(v_1, \dots, v_k)$  based on the pattern formed by  $\delta(v_1, v_2), \delta(v_2, v_3), \dots, \delta(v_{k-1}, v_k)$  and the color of this  $(k-1)$ -tuple in the original coloring. This can be used to prove, for example, the lower bound

$$r_3(t, t, t, t) \geq 2^{2^{\Omega(t)}}$$

(the four-color double-exponential lower bound mentioned earlier).

Such constructions can be viewed as pair constructions, with  $f(uv) = \delta(u, v)$ ; this means we have logarithmic pair complexity (since if there’s  $n = 2^m$  vertices, there’s  $m = \log n$  possible labels).

## §2.4 Some results

One result in this direction (previous work with Jacob Fox) is a proof of the Conlon–Fox–Sudakov bound for sparser hypergraphs.

### Theorem 2.10 (Fox–He)

For any  $s \geq 3$ , we have

$$r(S_s^{(3)}, K_t^{(3)}) \geq 2^{\Omega(st \log(t/s))}.$$

Recall that  $S_s^{(3)}$  is obtained by taking a single vertex and only putting in edges that contain this vertex, as opposed to putting in *all* edges — this means it has only quadratically many edges, rather than cubically many. Still, we get the same lower bound as for  $K_s^{(3)}$  in the Conlon–Fox–Sudakov result, even though  $S_s^{(3)}$  is much sparser. We might intuitively expect that the Ramsey number for  $K_s^{(3)}$  should be bigger in order

than the one for  $S_s^{(3)}$  (since  $K_s^{(3)}$  is much denser, so it should be easier to avoid); so this is another reason to think that the Ramsey numbers for complete hypergraphs should be bigger than the current best lower bound.

This construction again has logarithmic pair complexity — there's some delicate way of coloring pairs that guarantees you never have a red star.

The authors have been trying to generalize this kind of construction as much as possible and see what we can do with it — what's the best possible bound we can prove? The following result is in some sense the most general lower bound we can expect to prove with this method:

### Theorem 2.11

If  $H$  satisfies the property that every pair homomorphic image of  $H$  contains a Berge cycle, then

$$r(H, K_t^{(3)}) \geq 2^{\Omega(t \log t)}.$$

(The authors believe that this is exactly the property of  $H$  that characterizes when you can prove lower bounds of this type using a *random* pair construction — one where we choose  $f$  uniformly at random, and  $p$  is logarithmic.)

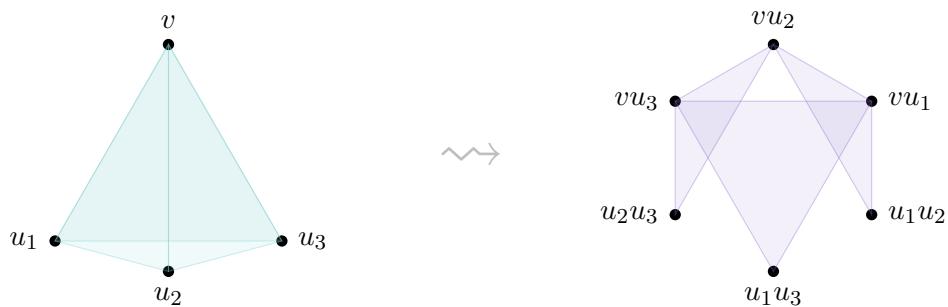
First, let's talk about what this property means.

**Definition 2.12.** A *pair homomorphism*  $f: H \rightarrow G$  (for two 3-uniform hypergraphs  $H$  and  $G$ ) is a function  $f: \binom{v(H)}{2} \rightarrow v(G)$  such that if  $uvw$  is an edge of  $H$ , then  $f(uv)f(vw)f(wu)$  is an edge of  $G$ .

(This is a new concept that's tailored towards understanding pair constructions. We're lying a bit in this definition — we actually need to order  $H$  and orient  $G$ . We'll sweep this under the rug; but some things will look trivial without it, and they don't look trivial when you take it into account.)

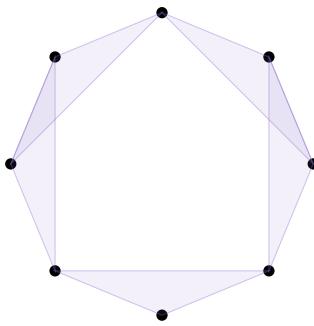
### Example 2.13

There is a pair homomorphism from the star on 4 vertices to the 'loose triangle' on six vertices.



Pair homomorphisms generally take something tight and turn it into something loose.

**Definition 2.14.** A *Berge cycle* is a cycle which allows both tight and loose moves — in other words, you put points on a circle and you get to choose edges by taking certain consecutive triples, as long as every two adjacent edges overlap.



The idea behind Theorem 2.11 is that if every pair-homomorphic image of  $H$  contains a cycle, we can find a pair construction  $\chi$  where  $g$  avoids all cycles of length at most  $v(H)$  in red, and this will mean we won't have a red  $H$  (deterministically). Then showing that we don't have a blue  $K_t^{(3)}$  is a probabilistic argument.

### §3 Linear hypergraphs

**Question 3.1.** If  $H$  doesn't satisfy the property in Theorem 2.11, do we expect that the bound is false?

The authors thought that this might be the case, and then immediately disproved it — even though Theorem 2.11 is the limit of *one* kind of construction, we can still use other methods to get bounds for hypergraphs that don't satisfy this condition at all.

**Definition 3.2.** A hypergraph is *linear* if every two edges intersect in at most one vertex.

#### Theorem 3.3

For all  $c > 1$ , there exists a hypergraph  $H$  which is linear and such that  $r(H, K_t^{(3)}) > 2^{(\log n)^c}$ .

This doesn't quite answer Question 3.1. But the point is that we have a system for proving lower bounds using random pair constructions, and this system does nothing for linear hypergraphs — you can map a linear hypergraph to whatever you want under a pair homomorphism, even a single edge. So you can't hope to avoid a linear hypergraph using this kind of machinery; and yet we can still prove lower bounds better than the easy polynomial ones.

**Remark 3.4.** The construction for Theorem 3.3 is also a pair construction with logarithmic pair complexity (based on stepping up), but here  $f$  is very deterministic (unlike the random pair constructions from earlier).

#### §3.1 Some further questions

**Question 3.5.** Is Theorem 3.3 true for almost all linear hypergraphs  $H$ ?

(More precisely, by ‘almost all’ we mean that you fix  $c$  and a number of vertices  $n \gg c$ , and sample from all linear hypergraphs with this number of vertices.)

The proof of Theorem 3.3 does involve sampling  $H$  randomly, but there we sample from the Erdős–Rényi graph  $\mathcal{G}^{(3)}(n, \frac{1}{n})$  and then delete some edges. The authors believe that if actually sampling  $H$  uniformly at random would also work; but proving this is a bit tricky.

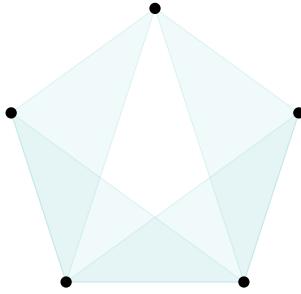
Here's another question, which is probably harder:

**Question 3.6.** Is Theorem 3.3 true for the Fano plane?

We still don't know superpolynomial lower bounds for the Fano plane — any lower bound  $r(F, K_t^{(3)}) > t^{\omega(1)}$  would be interesting.

Finally, here's one final question; if we knew the answer, it'd probably tell us whether we should keep going with pair constructions or try something else altogether.

**Question 3.7.** We know that  $t^{\Omega(1)} \leq r(C_5^{(3)} \setminus e, K_t^{(3)}) \leq 2^{O(t \log t)}$ . Which is correct?



This is the only 5-vertex hypergraph for which we don't know whether the answer is polynomial or exponential. It looks exactly like a tight path, except that you identify the last two vertices; and pair homomorphisms don't see that. So somehow we need a different way of distinguishing the two.