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On the Grid Ramsey Problem and Related Questions

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The Hales–Jewett theorem is one of the pillars of Ramsey theory, from which many other results follow. A celebrated theorem of Shelah says that Hales–Jewett numbers are primitive recursive. A key tool used in his proof, now known as the cube lemma, has become famous in its own right. In its simplest form, this lemma says that if we color the edges of the Cartesian product $K_n \times K_n$ in r colors, then, for n sufficiently large, there is a rectangle with both pairs of opposite edges receiving the same color. Shelah's proof shows that $n = r^{\binom{r+1}{2}} + 1$ suffices. More than 20 years ago, Graham, Rothschild, and Spencer asked whether this bound can be improved to a polynomial in r . We show that this is not possible by providing a superpolynomial lower bound in r . We also discuss a number of related problems.

1 Introduction

Ramsey theory refers to a large body of deep results in mathematics whose underlying philosophy is captured succinctly by the statement that "Every large system contains a large well-organized subsystem." This is an area in which a great variety of techniques from many branches of mathematics are used and whose results are important not only to combinatorics but also to logic, analysis, number theory, and geometry.

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One of the pillars of Ramsey theory, from which many other results follow, is the Hales–Jewett theorem [13]. This theorem may be thought of as a statement about multidimensional multiplayer tic-tac-toe, saying that in a high enough dimension one of the players must win. However, this fails to capture the importance of the result, which easily implies van der Waerden’s theorem on arithmetic progressions in colorings of the integers and its multidimensional generalizations. To quote [11], “The Hales–Jewett theorem strips van der Waerden’s theorem of its unessential elements and reveals the heart of Ramsey theory. It provides a focal point from which many results can be derived and acts as a cornerstone for much of the more advanced work.”

To state the Hales–Jewett theorem formally requires some notation. Let $[m]$ be the set of integers $\{1, 2, \dots, m\}$. We will refer to elements of $[m]^n$ as points or words and the set $[m]$ as the alphabet. For any $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in [m]^n$, any $x \in [m]$ and any set $\gamma \subset [n]$, let $a \oplus x\gamma$ be the point of $[m]^n$ whose j -th component is a_j if $j \notin \gamma$ and x if $j \in \gamma$. A combinatorial line is a subset of $[m]^n$ of the form $\{a \oplus x\gamma : 1 \leq x \leq m\}$. The Hales–Jewett theorem is now as follows.

Theorem 1.1. For any m and r there exists an n such that any r -coloring of the elements of $[m]^n$ contains a monochromatic combinatorial line. \square

The original proof of the Hales–Jewett theorem is similar to that of van der Waerden’s theorem, using a double induction, where we prove the theorem for alphabet $[m + 1]$ and r colors by using the statement for alphabet $[m]$ and a much larger number of colors. This results in bounds of Ackermann type for the dependence of the dimension n on the size of the alphabet m . In the late 1980s, Shelah [18] made a major breakthrough by finding a way to avoid the double induction and prove the theorem with primitive recursive bounds. This also resulted in the first primitive recursive bounds for van der Waerden’s theorem (since drastically improved by Gowers [10]).

Shelah’s proof relied in a crucial way on a lemma now known as the Shelah cube lemma. The simplest case of this lemma says that if we color the edges of the Cartesian product $K_n \times K_n$ in r colors, then, for n sufficiently large, there is a rectangle with both pairs of opposite edges receiving the same color. Shelah’s proof shows that we may take $n \leq r^{\binom{r+1}{2}} + 1$. In the second edition of their book on Ramsey theory [11], Graham, Rothschild, and Spencer asked whether this bound can be improved to a polynomial in r . Such an improvement, if it could be generalized, would allow one to improve Shelah’s wowzer-type upper bound for the Hales–Jewett theorem to a tower-type bound. The main result of this paper, Theorem 1.2, answers this question in the negative by providing a

superpolynomial lower bound in r . We will now discuss this basic case of Shelah's cube lemma, which we refer to as the grid Ramsey problem, in more detail.

1.1 The grid Ramsey problem

For positive integers m and n , let the *grid graph* $\Gamma_{m,n}$ be the graph on vertex set $[m] \times [n]$ where two distinct vertices (i, j) and (i', j') are adjacent if and only if either $i = i'$ or $j = j'$. That is, $\Gamma_{m,n}$ is the Cartesian product $K_m \times K_n$. A *row* of the grid graph $\Gamma_{m,n}$ is a subgraph induced on a vertex subset of the form $\{i\} \times [n]$ and a *column* is a subgraph induced on a vertex subset of the form $[m] \times \{j\}$.

A rectangle in $\Gamma_{m,n}$ is a copy of $K_2 \times K_2$, that is, an induced subgraph over a vertex subset of the form $\{(i, j), (i', j), (i, j'), (i', j')\}$ for some integers $1 \leq i < i' \leq m$ and $1 \leq j < j' \leq n$. We will usually denote this rectangle by (i, j, i', j') . For an edge-colored grid graph, an *alternating rectangle* is a rectangle (i, j, i', j') such that the color of the edges $\{(i, j), (i', j)\}$ and $\{(i, j'), (i', j')\}$ are equal and the color of the edges $\{(i, j), (i, j')\}$ and $\{(i', j), (i', j')\}$ are equal, that is, opposite sides of the rectangle receive the same color. An edge coloring of a grid graph is *alternating-rectangle-free* (or *alternating-free*, for short) if it contains no alternating rectangle. The function we will be interested in estimating is the following.

Definition.

- (i) For a positive integer r , define $G(r)$ as the minimum integer n for which every edge coloring of $\Gamma_{n,n}$ with r colors contains an alternating rectangle.
- (ii) For positive integers m and n , define $g(m, n)$ as the minimum integer r for which there exists an alternating-free edge coloring of $\Gamma_{m,n}$ with r colors. Define $g(n) = g(n, n)$. □

Note that the two functions G and g defined above are in inverse relation to each other, in the sense that $G(r) = n$ implies $g(n-1) \leq r$ and $g(n) \geq r+1$, while $g(n) = r$ implies $G(r) \geq n+1$ and $G(r-1) \leq n$.

We have already mentioned Shelah's bound $G(r) \leq r^{\binom{r+1}{2}} + 1$. To prove this, let $n = r^{\binom{r+1}{2}} + 1$ and suppose that an r -coloring of $\Gamma_{r+1,n}$ is given. There are at most $r^{\binom{r+1}{2}}$ ways that one can color the edges of a fixed column with r colors. Since the number of columns is $n > r^{\binom{r+1}{2}}$, the pigeonhole principle implies that there are two columns which are identically colored. Let these columns be the j th column and the j' th column and consider the edges that connect these two columns. Since there are $r+1$ rows,

the pigeonhole principle implies that there are two rows that have the same color. Let these be the i th row and the i' th row. Then the rectangle (i, j, i', j') is alternating. Hence, we see that $G(r) \leq n$, as claimed. This argument in fact establishes the stronger bound $g(r + 1, r^{\binom{r+1}{2}} + 1) \geq r + 1$.

It is surprisingly difficult to improve on this simple bound. The only known improvement, $G(r) \leq r^{\binom{r+1}{2}} - r^{\binom{r-1}{2}+1} + 1$, which improves Shelah's bound by an additive term, was given by Gyárfás [12]. Instead, we have focused on the lower bound, proving that $G(r)$ is superpolynomial in r . As already mentioned, this addresses a question of Graham, Rothschild, and Spencer [11]. This question was also reiterated by Heinrich [14] and by Faudree, Gyárfás, and Szőnyi [8], who proved a lower bound of $\Omega(r^3)$. Quantitatively, our main result is the following.

Theorem 1.2. There exists a positive constant c such that

$$G(r) > 2^{c(\log r)^{5/2}/\sqrt{\log \log r}}. \quad \square$$

We will build up to this theorem, first giving a substantially simpler proof for the weaker bound $G(r) > 2^{c \log^2 r}$. The following theorem, which includes this result, also contains a number of stronger bounds for the off-diagonal case, improving results of Faudree, Gyárfás, and Szőnyi [8].

Theorem 1.3.

- (i) For all $C > e^2$, $g(r^{\log C/2}, r^{r/2C}) \leq r$ for large enough r .
- (ii) For all positive constants ε , $g(2^{\varepsilon \log^2 r}, 2^{r^{1-\varepsilon}}) \leq r$ for large enough r .
- (iii) There exists a positive constant c such that $g(cr^2, r^{r^2/2}/e^{r^2}) \leq r$ for large enough r . □

Part (i) of this theorem already shows that $G(r)$ is superpolynomial in r , while part (ii) implies the more precise bound $G(r) > 2^{c \log^2 r}$ mentioned above, though at the cost of a weaker off-diagonal result. For $(m, n) = (r + 1, r^{\binom{r+1}{2}})$, it is easy to find an alternating-free edge coloring of $\Gamma_{m,n}$ with r colors by reverse engineering the proof of Shelah's bound $G(r) \leq r^{\binom{r+1}{2}} + 1$. Part (iii) of Theorem 1.3 shows that n can be close to $r^{\binom{r+1}{2}}$ even when m is quadratic in r . This goes some way toward explaining why it is so difficult to improve the bound $G(r) \leq r^{\binom{r+1}{2}}$.

1.2 The Erdős–Gyárfás problem

The Ramsey-type problem for grid graphs considered in the previous subsection is closely related to a problem of Erdős and Gyárfás on generalized Ramsey numbers. To discuss this problem, we need some definitions.

Definition. Let k , p and q be positive integers satisfying $p \geq k + 1$ and $2 \leq q \leq \binom{p}{k}$.

- (i) For each positive integer r , define $F_k(r, p, q)$ as the minimum integer n for which every edge coloring of $K_n^{(k)}$ with r colors contains a copy of $K_p^{(k)}$ receiving at most $q - 1$ distinct colors on its edges.
- (ii) For each positive integer n , define $f_k(n, p, q)$ as the minimum integer r for which there exists an edge coloring of $K_n^{(k)}$ with r colors such that every copy of $K_p^{(k)}$ receives at least q distinct colors on its edges. \square

For simplicity, we usually write $F(r, p, q) = F_2(r, p, q)$ and $f(n, p, q) = f_2(n, p, q)$. As in the previous subsection, the two functions are in inverse relation to each other: $F(r, p, q) = n$ implies $f(n, p, q) \geq r + 1$ and $f(n - 1, p, q) \leq r$, while $f(n, p, q) = r$ implies $F(r, p, q) \geq n + 1$ and $F(r - 1, p, q) \leq n$.

The function $F(r, p, q)$ generalizes the Ramsey number since $F(2, p, 2)$ is equal to the Ramsey number $R(p)$. Call an edge coloring of K_n a (p, q) -coloring if every copy of K_p receives at least q distinct colors on its edges. The definitions of $F(r, p, q)$ and $f(n, p, q)$ can also be reformulated in terms of (p, q) -colorings. For example, $f(n, p, q)$ asks for the minimum integer r such that there is a (p, q) -coloring of K_n using r colors.

The function $f(n, p, q)$ was first introduced by Erdős and Shelah [5, 6] and then was systematically studied by Erdős and Gyárfás [7]. They studied the asymptotics of $f(n, p, q)$ as n tends to infinity for various choices of parameters p and q . It is clear that $f(n, p, q)$ is increasing in q , but it is interesting to understand the transitions in behavior as q increases. At one end of the spectrum, $f(n, p, 2) \leq f(n, 3, 2) \leq \lceil \log n \rceil$, while, at the other end, $f(n, p, \binom{p}{2}) = \binom{n}{2}$ (provided $p \geq 4$). In the middle range, Erdős and Gyárfás proved that $f(n, p, p) \geq n^{1/(p-2)} - 1$, which in turn implies that $f(n, p, q)$ is polynomial in n for any $q \geq p$. A problem left open by Erdős and Gyárfás was to determine whether $f(n, p, p - 1)$ is also polynomial in n .

For $p = 3$, it is easy to see that $f(n, 3, 2)$ is subpolynomial since it is equivalent to determining the multicolor Ramsey number of the triangle. For $p = 4$, Mubayi [16] showed that $f(n, 4, 3) \leq 2^{c\sqrt{\log n}}$ and Eichhorn and Mubayi [4] showed that $f(n, 5, 4) \leq 2^{c\sqrt{\log n}}$. Recently, Conlon *et al.* [3] resolved the question of Erdős and Gyárfás, proving

that $f(n, p, p - 1)$ is subpolynomial for all $p \geq 3$. Nevertheless, the function $f(n, p, p - 1)$ is still far from being well understood, even for $p = 4$, where the best known lower bound is $f(n, 4, 3) = \Omega(\log n)$ (see [9, 15]).

In this paper, we consider extensions of these problems to hypergraphs. The main motivation for studying this problem comes from an equivalent formulation of the grid Ramsey problem (actually, this is Shelah’s original formulation). Let $K^{(3)}(n, n)$ be the 3-uniform hypergraph with vertex set $A \cup B$, where $|A| = |B| = n$, and edge set consisting of all those triples which intersect both A and B . We claim that $g(n)$ is within a factor of two of the minimum integer r for which there exists an r -coloring of the edges of $K^{(3)}(n, n)$ such that any copy of $K_4^{(3)}$ has at least three colors on its edges. To see the relation, we abuse notation and regard both A and B as copies of the set $[n]$. For $i \in A$ and $j, j' \in B$, map the edge $\{(i, j), (i, j')\}$ of $\Gamma_{n,n}$ to the edge (i, j, j') of $K^{(3)}(n, n)$ and, for $i, i' \in A$ and $j \in B$, map the edge $\{(i, j), (i', j)\}$ of $\Gamma_{n,n}$ to the edge (i, i', j) of $K^{(3)}(n, n)$. Note that this defines a bijection between the edges of $\Gamma_{n,n}$ and the edges of $K^{(3)}(n, n)$, where the rectangles of $\Gamma_{n,n}$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the copies of $K_4^{(3)}$ in $K^{(3)}(n, n)$ intersecting both sides in two vertices. Hence, given a desired coloring of $K^{(3)}(n, n)$, we can find a coloring of $\Gamma_{n,n}$ where all rectangles receive at least three colors (and are thus alternating-free), showing that $g(n) \leq r$. Similarly, given an alternating-free coloring of $\Gamma_{n,n}$, we may double the number of colors to ensure that the set of colors used for row edges and those used for column edges are disjoint. This turns an alternating-free coloring of $\Gamma_{n,n}$ into a coloring where each $K_4^{(3)}$ receives at least three colors. Hence, as above, we see that $r \leq 2g(n)$.

Therefore, essentially the only difference between $g(n)$ and $f_3(2n, 4, 3)$ is that the base hypergraph for $g(n)$ is $K^{(3)}(n, n)$ rather than $K_{2n}^{(3)}$. This observation allows us to establish a close connection between the quantitative estimates for $f_3(n, 4, 3)$ and $g(n)$, as exhibited by the following pair of inequalities (that we will prove in Proposition 4.1):

$$g(n) \leq f_3(2n, 4, 3) \leq 2\lceil \log n \rceil^2 g(n). \tag{1}$$

This implies upper and lower bounds for $f_3(n, 4, 3)$ and $F_3(r, 4, 3)$ analogous to those we have established for $g(n)$ and $G(r)$. More generally, we have the following recursive upper bound for $F_k(r, p, q)$.

Theorem 1.4. For positive integers r, k, p and q , all greater than 1 and satisfying $r \geq k$, $p \geq k + 1$ and $2 \leq q \leq \binom{p}{k}$,

$$F_k(r, p, q) \leq r^{\binom{F_{k-1}(r, p-1, q)}{k-1}}.$$

The above is true even for $q > \binom{p-1}{k-1}$, where we trivially have $F_{k-1}(r, p-1, q) = p-1$. \square

By repeatedly applying Theorem 1.4, we see that for each fixed i with $0 \leq i \leq k$ and large enough p ,

$$F_k\left(r, p, \binom{p-i}{k-i} + 1\right) \leq r^{r^{\dots r^{c_k p}}},$$

where the number of r 's in the tower is i . For $0 < i < k$, it would be interesting to establish a lower bound on $F_k(r, p, \binom{p-i}{k-i})$ that is significantly larger than this upper bound on $F_k(r, p, \binom{p-i}{k-i} + 1)$. This would establish an interesting phenomenon of ‘sudden jumps’ in the asymptotics of $F_k(r, p, q)$ at the values $q = \binom{p-i}{k-i}$. We believe that these jumps indeed occur.

Let us examine some small cases of this problem. For graphs, as mentioned above, $F(r, p, p)$ is polynomial while $F(r, p, p-1)$ is superpolynomial. For 3-uniform hypergraphs, $F_3(r, p, \binom{p-1}{2} + 1)$ is polynomial in terms of r . Hence, the first interesting case is to decide whether the function $F_3(r, p, \binom{p-1}{2})$ is also polynomial. The fact that $F_3(r, 4, 3)$ is superpolynomial follows from Theorem 1.2 and (1), giving some evidence towards the conjecture that $F_3(r, p, \binom{p-1}{2})$ is superpolynomial. We provide further evidence by establishing the next case for 3-uniform hypergraphs.

Theorem 1.5. There exists a positive constant c such that $F_3(r, 5, 6) \geq 2^{c \log^2 r}$ for all positive integers r . \square

1.3 A chromatic number version of the Erdős–Gyárfás problem

A graph with chromatic number equal to p we call p -chromatic. In the process of studying $G(r)$ (and proving Theorem 1.2), we encountered the following variant of the functions discussed in the previous subsection, where K_p is replaced by p -chromatic subgraphs.

Definition. Let p and q be positive integers satisfying $p \geq 3$ and $2 \leq q \leq \binom{p}{2}$.

- (i) For each positive integer r , define $F_\chi(r, p, q)$ as the minimum integer n for which every edge coloring of K_n with r colors contains a p -chromatic subgraph receiving at most $q-1$ distinct colors on its edges.
- (ii) For each positive integer n , define $f_\chi(n, p, q)$ as the minimum integer r for which there exists an edge coloring of K_n with r colors such that every p -chromatic subgraph receives at least q distinct colors on its edges. \square

Call an edge coloring of K_n a *chromatic- (p, q) -coloring* if every p -chromatic subgraph receives at least q distinct colors on its edges. As before, the definitions of $F_\chi(r, p, q)$ and $f_\chi(n, p, q)$ can be restated in terms of chromatic- (p, q) -colorings. Also, an edge coloring of K_n is a chromatic- (p, q) -coloring if and only if the union of every $q - 1$ color classes induces a graph of chromatic number at most $p - 1$. In some sense, this looks like the most natural interpretation for the functions $F_\chi(r, p, q)$ and $f_\chi(n, p, q)$. If we choose to use this definition, then it is more natural to shift the numbers p and q by 1. However, we use the definition above in order to make the connection between $F_\chi(r, p, q)$ and $F(r, p, q)$ more transparent.

From the definition, we can immediately deduce some simple facts such as

$$F_\chi(r, p, q) \leq F(r, p, q), \quad f_\chi(n, p, q) \geq f(n, p, q) \tag{2}$$

for all values of r, p, q, n and

$$f_\chi\left(n, p, \binom{p}{2}\right) = f\left(n, p, \binom{p}{2}\right) = \binom{n}{2}$$

for all $n \geq p \geq 4$.

Let $n = F_\chi(r, p, q) - 1$ and consider a chromatic- (p, q) -coloring of K_n that uses r colors in total. Cover the set of r colors by $\lceil r/(q - 1) \rceil$ subsets of size at most $q - 1$. The chromatic number of the graph induced by each subset is at most $p - 1$ and thus, by the product formula for chromatic number, we see that

$$F_\chi(r, p, q) - 1 \leq (p - 1)^{\lceil r/(q-1) \rceil}.$$

This gives a general exponential upper bound.

On the other hand, when d is a positive integer, $p = 2^d + 1$ and $q = d + 1$, a coloring of the complete graph which we will describe in Section 2 implies that

$$F_\chi(r, 2^d + 1, d + 1) \geq 2^r + 1.$$

Whenever r is divisible by d , we see that the two bounds match to give

$$F_\chi(r, 2^d + 1, d + 1) = 2^r + 1. \tag{3}$$

Let us examine the value of $F_\chi(r, p, q)$ for some small values of p and q . By using the observations (2) and (3), we have

$$F_\chi(r, 3, 2) = 2^r + 1, \quad F_\chi(r, 3, 3) \leq F(r, 3, 3) \leq r + 2$$

for $p=3$ and

$$F_\chi(r, 4, 2) \geq 2^r + 1, \quad F_\chi(r, 4, 4) \leq F(r, 4, 4) \leq r^2 + 2$$

for $p=4$ and $r \geq 2$. The bound on $F(r, 4, 4)$ follows since every edge coloring of the complete graph on $r^2 + 2$ vertices with r colors contains a vertex v and a set X of size at least $r + 1$ such that all the edges connecting v to X have the same color, say red. If an edge e with vertices in X is red, we get a K_4 using at most three colors by taking v , the vertices of e , and any other vertex in X . So, we may suppose at most $r - 1$ colors are used on the edges with both vertices in X . In this case, as $|X| \geq F(r - 1, 3, 3)$, we can find three vertices in X with at most two colors used on the edges connecting them. Adding v to this set gives a set of four vertices with at most three colors used on the edges connecting them.

We show that the asymptotic behavior of $F_\chi(r, 4, 3)$ is different from both $F_\chi(r, 4, 2)$ and $F_\chi(r, 4, 4)$.

Theorem 1.6. There exist positive constants C and r_0 such that for all $r \geq r_0$,

$$2^{\log^2 r/36} \leq F_\chi(r, 4, 3) \leq C \cdot 2^{130\sqrt{r \log r}}. \quad \square$$

Despite being interesting in its own right, our principal motivation for considering chromatic- (p, q) -colorings was to establish the following theorem, which is an important ingredient in the proof of Theorem 1.2.

Theorem 1.7. For every fixed positive integer n , there exists an edge coloring of the complete graph K_n with $2^{6\sqrt{\log n}}$ colors with the following property: for every subset X of colors with $|X| \geq 2$, the subgraph induced by the edges colored with a color from X has chromatic number at most $2^{3\sqrt{|X| \log |X|}}$. \square

This theorem has the following immediate corollary.

Corollary 1.8. For all positive integers n, r and $s \geq 2$,

$$f_\chi(n, 2^{3\sqrt{s \log s}} + 1, s + 1) \leq 2^{6\sqrt{\log n}} \quad \text{and} \quad F_\chi(r, 2^{3\sqrt{s \log s}} + 1, s + 1) \geq 2^{\log^2 r/36}. \quad \square$$

Our paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we review two coloring functions that will be used throughout the paper. In Section 3, we prove Theorems 1.2 and 1.3. In Section 4, we prove Theorems 1.4 and 1.5. In Section 5, we prove Theorems 1.6 and 1.7. We conclude with some further remarks and open problems in Section 6.

Notation. We use \log for the base 2 logarithm and \ln for the natural logarithm. For the sake of clarity of presentation, we systematically omit floor and ceiling signs whenever they are not essential. We also do not make any serious attempt to optimize absolute constants in our statements and proofs.

The following standard asymptotic notation will be used throughout. For two functions $f(n)$ and $g(n)$, we write $f(n) = o(g(n))$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n)/g(n) = 0$ and $f(n) = O(g(n))$ or $g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$ if there exists a constant M such that $|f(n)| \leq M|g(n)|$ for all sufficiently large n . We also write $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if both $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ are satisfied.

2 Preliminaries

We begin by defining two edge colorings of the complete graph K_n , one a $(3, 2)$ -coloring and the other a $(4, 3)$ -coloring. These will be used throughout the paper.

We denote the $(3, 2)$ -coloring by c_B , where ‘B’ stands for ‘binary’. To define this coloring, we let t be the smallest integer such that $n \leq 2^t$. We consider the vertex set $[n]$ as a subset of $\{0, 1\}^t$ by identifying x with (x_1, \dots, x_t) , where $\sum_{i=1}^t x_i 2^{i-1}$ is the binary expansion of $x - 1$. Then, for two vertices $x = (x_1, \dots, x_t)$ and $y = (y_1, \dots, y_t)$, $c_B(x, y)$ is the minimum i for which $x_i \neq y_i$. This coloring uses at most $\lceil \log n \rceil$ colors and is a $(3, 2)$ -coloring since three vertices cannot all differ in the i th coordinate. In fact, it is a chromatic- $(2^d + 1, d + 1)$ -coloring for all integers $d \geq 1$, since it gives an edge partition $E = E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_t$ of K_n for $t = \lceil \log n \rceil$ such that, for all $J \subset [t]$, the graph consisting of the edges $\bigcup_{j \in J} E_j$ has chromatic number at most $2^{|J|}$.

The $(4, 3)$ -coloring, which is a variant of Mubayi’s coloring [16], will be denoted by c_M . To define this coloring, we let t be the smallest integer such that $n \leq 2^{2^t}$ and $m = 2^t$. We consider the vertex set $[n]$ as a subset of $[m]^t$ by identifying x with (x_1, \dots, x_t) , this time by examining the base m expansion of $x - 1$. For two vertices $x = (x_1, \dots, x_t)$ and $y = (y_1, \dots, y_t)$, let

$$c_M(x, y) = (\{x_i, y_i\}, a_1, \dots, a_t),$$

where i is the minimum index in which x and y differ and $a_j = 0$ or 1 depending on whether $x_j = y_j$ or not (note that the coloring function c_M is symmetric in its two variables).

The coloring c_M is a $(3, 2)$ -coloring since it partitions the edge set of K_n into bipartite graphs and a simple case analysis similar to that given in [16] shows that it is a $(4, 3)$ -coloring (the proof of Theorem 1.6 given in Section 5 shows that c_M is even a

chromatic-(4, 3)-coloring). Since $2^{(t-1)^2} < n$, the total number of colors used is at most

$$m^2 \cdot 2^t = 2^{3t} < 2^{3(1+\sqrt{\log n})} \leq 2^{6\sqrt{\log n}}.$$

Hence, c_M uses at most $r = 2^{6\sqrt{\log n}}$ colors to color the edge set of the complete graph on $n = 2^{\log^2 r/36}$ vertices.

3 The Grid Ramsey Problem

In order to improve the lower bound on $G(r)$, we need to find an edge coloring of the grid graph which is alternating-free. The following lemma is the key idea behind our argument. For two edge-coloring functions c_1 and c_2 of the complete graph K_n , let $\mathcal{G}(c_1, c_2)$ be the subgraph of K_n where e is an edge if and only if $c_1(e) = c_2(e)$.

Lemma 3.1. Let m, n , and r be positive integers. There exists an alternating-rectangle-free edge coloring of $\Gamma_{m,n}$ with r colors if and only if there are edge colorings c_1, \dots, c_m of the complete graph K_n with r colors satisfying

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}(c_i, c_j)) \leq r$$

for all pairs of indices i, j . □

Proof. We first prove the ‘if’ statement. Consider the grid graph $\Gamma_{m,n}$. For each i , color the edges of the i th row using the edge coloring c_i . Then, for each distinct pair of indices i and i' , construct auxiliary graphs $H_{i,i'}$ whose vertex set is the set of edges that connect the i th row with the i' th row (that is, edges of the form $\{(i, j), (i', j)\}$) and where two vertices $\{(i, j), (i', j)\}$ and $\{(i, j'), (i', j')\}$ are adjacent if and only if the two row edges that connect these two column edges have the same color.

The fact that $\chi(\mathcal{G}(c_i, c_{i'})) \leq r$ implies that there exists a vertex coloring of $H_{i,i'}$ with r colors. Color the corresponding edges $\{(i, j), (i', j)\}$ according to this vertex coloring. Under this coloring, we see that whenever a pair of edges of the form $\{(i, j), (i, j')\}$ and $\{(i', j), (i', j')\}$ have the same color, the colors of the edges $\{(i, j), (i', j)\}$ and $\{(i, j'), (i', j')\}$ are distinct. This gives a coloring of the column edges. Hence, we found the required alternating-rectangle-free edge coloring of $\Gamma_{m,n}$ with r colors.

For the ‘only if’ statement, given an alternating-rectangle-free edge coloring of $\Gamma_{m,n}$ with r colors, define c_i as the edge-coloring function of the i th row of $\Gamma_{m,n}$, for each $i \in [m]$. One can easily reverse the process above to show that the colorings c_1, \dots, c_m satisfy the condition. We omit the details. ■

To find an alternating-rectangle-free edge coloring of $\Gamma_{m,n,r}$, we will find edge colorings of the rows which satisfy the condition of Lemma 3.1. Suppose that $E(K_n) = E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_t$ is a partition of the edge set of K_n . For an index subset $I \subset [t]$, we let \mathcal{G}_I be the subgraph of K_n whose edge set is given by $\bigcup_{i \in I} E_i$.

Lemma 3.2. Let m, n, r , and t be positive integers. Suppose that an edge partition $E(K_n) = E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_t$ of K_n is given. Let I be a random subset of $[t]$, where each element in I is chosen independently with probability $1/r$ and suppose that

$$\mathbb{P}[\chi(\mathcal{G}_I) \geq r + 1] \leq \frac{1}{2m}.$$

Then $g(m, n) \leq r$ and $G(r) \geq \min\{m, n\} + 1$. □

Proof. For each $i \in [2m]$, choose a vector $v_i \in [r]^t$ independently and uniformly at random. Let c_i be an edge coloring of K_n with r colors where for each $t' \in [t]$, we color all the edges in $E_{t'}$ using the value of the t' th coordinate of v_i . Color the i th row of $\Gamma_{2m,n}$ (which is a copy of K_n) using c_i .

For a pair of distinct indices $i, j \in [2m]$, let $I(i, j)$ be the subset of indices $t' \in [t]$ for which v_i and v_j have the same value on their t' th coordinates (thus implying that c_i and c_j use the same color on $E_{t'}$). Then $I(i, j)$ has the same distribution as a random subset of $[t]$ obtained by taking each element independently with probability $1/r$. Moreover,

$$\mathcal{G}(c_i, c_j) = \mathcal{G}_{I(i,j)}.$$

Hence,

$$\mathbb{P}[\chi(\mathcal{G}(c_i, c_j)) \geq r + 1] = \mathbb{P}[\chi(\mathcal{G}_{I(i,j)}) \geq r + 1] \leq \frac{1}{2m}.$$

Therefore, the expected number of pairs i, j with $i < j$ having $\chi(\mathcal{G}_{I(i,j)}) \geq r + 1$ is at most $\binom{2m}{2} \frac{1}{2m} \leq m$. Hence, there exists a choice of coloring functions c_i for which this number is at most m . If this event happens, then we can remove one row from each pair i, j having $\chi(\mathcal{G}_{I(i,j)}) \geq r + 1$ to obtain a set $R \subset [2m]$ of size at least m which has the property that $\chi(\mathcal{G}_{I(i,j)}) \leq r$ for all $i, j \in R$. By considering the subgraph of $\Gamma_{2m,n}$ induced on $R \times [n]$ and using Lemma 3.1, we obtain an alternating-rectangle-free edge coloring of $\Gamma_{m,n}$ with r colors. The result follows. ■

We prove Theorems 1.2 and 1.3 in the next two subsections. We begin with Theorem 1.3, which establishes upper bounds for $g(m, n)$ in various off-diagonal

regimes. As noted in the introduction, parts (i) and (ii) already yield weak versions of Theorem 1.2. In particular, part (i) implies that $G(r)$ is superpolynomial in r , while part (ii) yields the bound $G(r) > 2^{c \log^2 r}$. We recall the stronger off-diagonal statements below.

3.1 Proof of Theorem 1.3

Parts (i) and (ii): For all $C > e^2$, $\varepsilon > 0$ and large enough r , $g(r^{\log C/2}, r^{r/2C}) \leq r$ and $g(2^{\varepsilon \log^2 r}, 2^{r^{1-\varepsilon}}) \leq r$.

Let $n = 2^t$ for some t to be chosen later. The edge coloring c_B from Section 2 gives an edge partition $E = E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_t$ of K_n for $t = \log n$ such that, for all $J \subset [t]$,

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_J) = 2^{|J|}.$$

Hence, if we let I be a random subset of $[t]$ obtained by choosing each element independently with probability $1/r$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}[\chi(\mathcal{G}_I) \geq r + 1] &= \mathbb{P}[|I| \geq \log(r + 1)] \\ &\leq \binom{t}{\log(r + 1)} \frac{1}{r^{\log(r+1)}} \leq \left(\frac{et}{r \log(r + 1)} \right)^{\log(r+1)}. \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

For part (i), let C be a given constant and take $t = r \log r / 2C$. Then the right-hand side of (4) is at most $(r + 1)^{-\log(C/e)}$. In Lemma 3.2, we can take $m = \frac{1}{2}(r + 1)^{\log(C/e)} \geq r^{\log C/2}$ and $n = 2^t = r^{r/2C}$ to get

$$g(r^{\log C/2}, r^{r/2C}) \leq r.$$

For part (ii), let ε be a given constant and take $t = r^{1-\varepsilon}$. For large enough r , the right-hand side of (4) is at most $\frac{1}{2} r^{-\varepsilon \log r}$. Hence, by applying Lemma 3.2 with $m = r^{\varepsilon \log r} = 2^{\varepsilon \log^2 r}$ and $n = 2^t = 2^{r^{1-\varepsilon}}$, we see that

$$g(2^{\varepsilon \log^2 r}, 2^{r^{1-\varepsilon}}) \leq r.$$

Part (iii): There exists a positive constant c such that $g(cr^2, r^{r^2/2}/e^{r^2}) \leq r$ for large enough r .

Let $c = e^{-3}$. Let $n = cr^2$ and partition the edge set of K_n into $t = \binom{n}{2}$ sets E_1, \dots, E_t , each of size exactly one. As before, let I be a random subset of $[t]$ obtained by choosing each element independently with probability $1/r$. In this case, we get $\mathcal{G}_I = \mathcal{G}(n, \frac{1}{r})$ (where

$\mathcal{G}(n, p)$ is the binomial random graph). Therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}[\chi(\mathcal{G}_I) \geq r + 1] = \mathbb{P}[\chi(\mathcal{G}(cr^2, 1/r)) \geq r + 1].$$

The event $\chi(\mathcal{G}(cr^2, \frac{1}{r})) \geq r + 1$ is contained in the event that $\mathcal{G}(cr^2, \frac{1}{r})$ contains a subgraph of order $s \geq r + 1$ of minimum degree at least r . The latter event has probability at most

$$\sum_{s=r+1}^{cr^2} \binom{cr^2}{s} \binom{s^2/2}{rs/2} \left(\frac{1}{r}\right)^{rs/2} \leq \sum_{s=r+1}^{cr^2} \left(\left(\frac{ecr^2}{s}\right)^2 \left(\frac{es}{r}\right)^r \left(\frac{1}{r}\right)^r \right)^{s/2}. \tag{5}$$

For $s = r$, if r is large enough, then the summand is

$$\left((ecr)^2 e^r \left(\frac{1}{r}\right)^r \right)^{r/2} \leq \frac{e^{r^2}}{r^{r^2/2}}.$$

We next show that the summands are each at most a quarter of the previous summand. As the series starts at $s = r + 1$ and ends at $s = cr^2$, the series is then at most half the summand for $s = r$. The ratio of the summand for $s + 1$ to the summand for s , where $r + 1 \leq s + 1 \leq cr^2$, is

$$\left(\frac{s+1}{s}\right)^{s(r-2)/2} \left(\left(\frac{ecr^2}{s+1}\right)^2 \left(\frac{e(s+1)}{r}\right)^r \left(\frac{1}{r}\right)^r \right)^{1/2}$$

which is at most

$$e^{(r-2)/2} \left(\frac{e^{r+2} c^2 (s+1)^{r-2}}{r^{2r-4}} \right)^{1/2} \leq e^{(r-2)/2} (e^{r+2} c^r)^{1/2} = e^{-r/2} < \frac{1}{4},$$

for r sufficiently large.

Hence, the right-hand side of (5) is at most $e^{r^2} r^{-r^2/2} / 2$ and

$$\mathbb{P}[\chi(\mathcal{G}_I) \geq r + 1] \leq \frac{e^{r^2}}{2r^{r^2/2}}.$$

By Lemma 3.2, we conclude that $g(cr^2, r^{r^2/2}/e^{r^2}) \leq r$.

3.2 Proof of Theorem 1.2

In the previous subsection we used quite simple edge partitions of the complete graph as an input to Lemma 3.2 to prove Theorem 1.3. These partitions were already good enough to give the superpolynomial bound $G(r) > 2^{c \log^2 r}$. To further improve this bound and prove Theorem 1.2, we make use of a slightly more sophisticated edge partition guaranteed by the following theorem.

Theorem 3.3. There exists a positive real r_0 such that the following holds for positive integers r and positive reals $\alpha \leq 1$ satisfying $(\log r)^\alpha \geq r_0$. For $n = 2^{(\log r)^{2+\alpha}/200}$, there exists a partition $E = E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_{\sqrt{r}}$ of the edge set of the complete graph K_n such that

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_I) \leq 2^{3(\log r)^{\alpha/2}} \sqrt{|I| \log 2|I|}$$

for all $I \subset [\sqrt{r}]$. □

The proof of this theorem is based on Theorem 1.7, which is in turn based on considering the coloring c_M , and will be given in Section 5.

Now suppose that a positive integer r is given and let $\alpha \leq 1$ be a real to be chosen later. Let $E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_{\sqrt{r}}$ be the edge partition of K_n for $n = 2^{(\log r)^{2+\alpha}/200}$ given by Theorem 3.3. Let I be a random subset of $[\sqrt{r}]$ chosen by taking each element independently with probability $\frac{1}{r}$. Then, by Theorem 3.3, we have

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_I) \geq r + 1 \Rightarrow |I| \geq c \frac{(\log r)^{2-\alpha}}{\log \log r},$$

for some positive constant c . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}[\chi(\mathcal{G}_I) \geq r + 1] &\leq \mathbb{P}\left[|I| \geq c \frac{(\log r)^{2-\alpha}}{\log \log r}\right] \\ &\leq \binom{\sqrt{r}}{c(\log r)^{2-\alpha}/\log \log r} \left(\frac{1}{r}\right)^{c(\log r)^{2-\alpha}/\log \log r} \leq r^{-c'(\log r)^{2-\alpha}/\log \log r} \end{aligned}$$

holds for some positive constant c' . By Lemma 3.2, for $m = 2^{c'(\log r)^{3-\alpha}/\log \log r - 1}$, we have $g(m, n) \leq r$. We may choose α so that

$$m = n = e^{\Omega((\log r)^{5/2}/\sqrt{\log \log r})}.$$

This gives $G(r) \geq 2^{\Omega((\log r)^{5/2}/\sqrt{\log \log r})}$, as required.

4 The Erdős–Gyárfás Problem

In the introduction, we discussed how the grid Ramsey problem is connected to a hypergraph version of the Erdős–Gyárfás problem. We now establish this correspondence more formally.

Proposition 4.1. For all positive integers n , we have

$$g(n) \leq f_3(2n, 4, 3) \leq 2 \lceil \log n \rceil^2 g(n). \quad \square$$

Proof. Since $K^{(3)}(n, n)$ is a subhypergraph of $K_{2n}^{(3)}$, a $(4, 3)$ -coloring of $K_{2n}^{(3)}$ immediately gives a coloring of $K^{(3)}(n, n)$ such that every copy of $K_4^{(3)}$ receives at least three colors. Hence, by the correspondence between coloring functions for $K^{(3)}(n, n)$ and coloring functions for $\Gamma_{n,n}$ explained in the introduction, it follows that $g(n) \leq f_3(2n, 4, 3)$.

We prove the other inequality by showing that for all $m \leq n$,

$$f_3(2m, 4, 3) \leq f_3(m, 4, 3) + 2\lceil \log m \rceil g(m). \tag{6}$$

By repeatedly applying this recursive formula, we obtain the claimed inequality

$$f_3(2n, 4, 3) \leq 2\lceil \log n \rceil^2 g(n).$$

Thus it suffices to establish the recursive formula (6). We will do this by presenting a $(4, 3)$ -coloring of $K_{2m}^{(3)}$. Let A and B be two disjoint vertex subsets of $K_{2m}^{(3)}$, each of order m . Given a $(4, 3)$ -coloring of $K_m^{(3)}$ with $f_3(m, 4, 3)$ colors, color the hyperedges within A using this coloring and also the hyperedges within B using this coloring. Since we started with a $(4, 3)$ -coloring, every copy of $K_4^{(3)}$ lying inside A or B contains at least three colors on its edges. This leaves us with the copies which intersect both A and B .

Let H be the bipartite hypergraph that consists of the edges which intersect both parts A and B . By definition, we have an alternating-free edge coloring of the grid graph $\Gamma_{m,m}$ using $g(m)$ colors. We may assume, by introducing at most $g(m)$ new colors, that the set of colors used for the row edges and the column edges are disjoint. This gives an edge coloring of $\Gamma_{m,m}$, where each rectangle receives at least three colors. Let c_1 be a coloring of H using at most $2g(m)$ colors, where for an edge $\{i, j, j'\} \in H$ with $i \in A, j, j' \in B$, we color it with the color of the edge $\{(i, j), (i, j')\}$ in $\Gamma_{m,m}$ and for an edge $\{i, i', j\} \in H$ with $i, i' \in A, j \in B$, we color it with the color of the edge $\{(i, j), (i', j)\}$ in $\Gamma_{m,m}$. Let c_2 be a coloring of H constructed based on the coloring c_B given in Section 2 as follows: for an edge $\{i, j, j'\} \in H$ with $i \in A, j, j' \in B$, let $c_2(\{i, j, j'\}) = c_B(\{j, j'\})$ and for an edge $\{i, i', j\} \in H$ with $i, i' \in A, j \in B$, let $c_2(\{i, i', j\}) = c_B(\{i, i'\})$. Now color the hypergraph H using the coloring function $c_1 \times c_2$.

Consider a copy K of $K_4^{(3)}$ which intersects both parts A and B . If $|K \cap A| = |K \cap B| = 2$, then assume that $K = \{i, i', j, j'\}$ for $i, i' \in A$ and $j, j' \in B$. One can see that the set of colors used by c_1 on K is identical to the set of colors used on the rectangle (i, j, i', j') in $\Gamma_{m,m}$ considered above. Thus K receives at least three distinct colors. If $|K \cap A| = 1$ and $|K \cap B| = 3$, then the three hyperedges in K which intersect A use at least two colors

from the coloring c_2 , while the unique hyperedge of $K \cap B$ is colored with a different color. Hence K contains at least three colors. Similarly, K contains at least three colors if $|K \cap A| = 3$ and $|K \cap B| = 1$.

Since c_1 uses at most $2g(m)$ colors and c_2 uses at most $\lceil \log m \rceil$ colors, we see that $c_1 \times c_2$ uses at most $2\lceil \log m \rceil g(m)$ colors. Recall that we used at most $f_3(m, 4, 3)$ colors to color the edges inside A and B . Therefore, we have found a $(4, 3)$ -coloring of $K_{2m}^{(3)}$ using at most

$$f_3(m, 4, 3) + 2\lceil \log m \rceil g(m)$$

colors, thereby establishing (6). ■

4.1 A basic bound on $F_k(r, p, q)$

Here we prove Theorem 1.4 that provides a basic upper bound on the function $F_k(r, p, q)$. Recall that we are given positive integers r, k, p , and q all greater than 1 and satisfying $r \geq k$.

Let $N = r \binom{F_{k-1}(r, p-1, q)}{k-1}$ and suppose that we are given an edge coloring of $K_N^{(k)}$ with r colors (denoted by c). Let $[N]$ be the vertex set of $K_N^{(k)}$. For each integer t in the range $1 \leq t \leq F_{k-1}(r, p-1, q)$, we will inductively find a pair of disjoint subsets X_t and Y_t of $[N]$ with the following properties:

1. $|X_t| = t$ and $|Y_t| \geq \min\{N/r \binom{t}{k-1}, N - t\}$,
2. for all $x \in X_t$ and $y \in Y_t$, $x < y$,
3. for all edges $e \in \binom{X_t \cup Y_t}{k}$ satisfying $|e \cap X_t| \geq k - 1$, the color of e is determined by the first $k - 1$ elements of e (note that the first $k - 1$ elements necessarily belong to X_t).

For the base cases $t = 1, \dots, k - 2$, the pair of sets $X_t = \{1, 2, \dots, t\}$ and $Y_t = [N] \setminus X_t$ trivially satisfy the given properties. Now suppose that for some $t \geq k - 2$, we are given pairs X_t and Y_t and wish to construct sets X_{t+1} and Y_{t+1} . Since $t < F_{k-1}(r, p - 1, q)$, Property 1 implies that $|Y_t| \geq 1$ and in particular that Y_t is nonempty. Let x be the minimum element of Y_t and let $X_{t+1} = X_t \cup \{x\}$.

For each element $y \in Y_t \setminus \{x\}$, consider the vector of colors of length $\binom{|X_t|}{k-2}$ whose coordinates are $c(e' \cup \{x, y\})$ for each $e' \in \binom{X_t}{k-2}$. By the pigeonhole principle, there are at least $\frac{|Y_t| - 1}{r \binom{|X_t|}{k-2}}$ vertices which have the same vector. Let Y_{t+1} be these vertices. This choice immediately implies Properties 2 and 3. To check Property 1, note that

$$|Y_{t+1}| \geq \frac{|Y_t| - 1}{r^{\binom{|X_t|}{k-2}}} \geq \frac{N/r^{\binom{t}{k-1}} - t - 1}{r^{\binom{|X_t|}{k-2}}} = \frac{N}{r^{\binom{t+1}{k-1}}} - \frac{t+1}{r^{\binom{t}{k-2}}} > \frac{N}{r^{\binom{t+1}{k-1}}} - 1,$$

where the final inequality follows from $t \geq k - 2$ and $r \geq k$. Since $N = r^{\binom{F_{k-1}(r, p-1, q)}{k-1}}$, $F_{k-1}(r, p - 1, q) \geq t + 1$ and $|Y_{t+1}|$ is an integer, this implies that $|Y_{t+1}| \geq \frac{N}{r^{\binom{t+1}{k-1}}}$.

Let $T = F_{k-1}(r, p - 1, q)$ and note that $|X_T| = F_{k-1}(r, p - 1, q)$ and $|Y_T| \geq 1$. Construct an auxiliary complete $(k - 1)$ -uniform hypergraph over the vertex set X_T and color each edge with the color guaranteed by Property 3. This gives an edge coloring of $K_T^{(k-1)}$ with r colors and thus, by definition, we can find a set A of $p - 1$ vertices using fewer than q colors on its edges in the auxiliary $(k - 1)$ -uniform hypergraph. It follows from Property 3 that for an arbitrary $y \in Y_T$, $A \cup \{y\}$ is a set of p vertices using fewer than q colors on its edges in the original k -uniform hypergraph.

4.2 A superpolynomial lower bound for $F_3(r, 5, 6)$

In this subsection, we present a $(5, 6)$ -coloring of $K_n^{(3)}$ using $2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}$ colors. This shows that $f_3(n, 5, 6) = 2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}$ and $F_3(r, 5, 6) = 2^{\Omega(\log^2 r)}$.

The edge coloring is given as a product $c = c_1 \times c_2 \times c_3 \times c_4$ of four coloring functions c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4 . The first coloring c_1 is a $(4, 3)$ -coloring of $K_n^{(3)}$ using $f_3(n, 4, 3)$ colors. Combining Proposition 4.1 and Theorem 1.2, we see that $f_3(n, 4, 3) = 2^{O((\log n)^{2/5} (\log \log n)^{1/5})}$.

Let $n = 2^d$ and write the vertices of K_n as binary strings of length d . To define c_2, c_3 , and c_4 , for three distinct vertices u, v, w , assume that the least coordinate in which not all vertices have the same bit is the i th coordinate and let u_i, v_i, w_i be the i th coordinate of u, v, w , respectively. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $u_i = v_i \neq w_i$, i.e. $(u_i, v_i, w_i) = (0, 0, 1)$ or $(1, 1, 0)$. Define the second color c_2 of the triple of vertices $\{u, v, w\}$ as i . Thus c_2 uses at most $\log n$ colors. Define the third color c_3 as the value of w_i , which is either 0 or 1. Define the fourth color c_4 as $c_M(u, v)$, where c_M is the graph coloring given in Section 2, which is both a $(3, 2)$ and $(4, 3)$ -coloring. Recall that c_M uses at most $2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}$ colors.

The number of colors in the coloring c is

$$2^{O((\log n)^{2/5} (\log \log n)^{1/5})} \cdot \log n \cdot 2 \cdot 2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})} = 2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})},$$

as desired. Now we show that each set of five vertices receives at least six colors in the coloring c . Let i be the least coordinate such that the five vertices do not all agree.

Case 1: One of the vertices (call it v_1) has one bit at coordinate i , while the other four vertices (call them v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5) have the other bit. The six triples containing v_1 are different

colors from the other four triples. Indeed, the triples containing v_1 have $c_2 = i$, while the other triples have c_2 greater than i . Since c_M is a $(4, 3)$ -coloring of graphs, c_4 tells us that the triples containing v_1 have to use at least three colors. On the other hand, by the coloring c_1 , the triples in the four-set $\{v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5\}$ have to use at least three colors. Hence, at least six colors have to be used on the set of five vertices.

Case 2: Two of the vertices (call them v_1, v_2) have one bit at coordinate i , while the other three vertices (call them v_3, v_4, v_5) have the other bit. Let $V_0 = \{v_1, v_2\}$ and $V_1 = \{v_3, v_4, v_5\}$. Let A be the set of colors of triples in $\{v_1, \dots, v_5\}$. We partition A into A_0, A_1, A_2 as follows. For each $j \in \{0, 1, 2\}$, let A_j be the set consisting of the colors of triples containing exactly j vertices from V_0 . It follows from the colorings c_2 and c_3 that the three color sets A_0, A_1, A_2 form a partition of A . Indeed, the color in A_0 has second coordinate c_2 greater than i , while the colors in A_1 and A_2 have second coordinate $c_2 = i$. Furthermore, the colors in A_1 have third coordinate c_3 distinct from the third coordinate c_3 of the colors in A_2 . Note also that $|A_0| = 1$.

Case 2a: $|A_2| = 3$.

Since the coloring c_M is a $(3, 2)$ -coloring of graphs, c_4 implies that the triples containing v_1 whose other two vertices are in V_1 receive at least two colors. This implies that $|A_1| \geq 2$ and, therefore, the number of colors used is at least $|A_0| + |A_1| + |A_2| \geq 6$.

Case 2b: $|A_2| = 2$.

Suppose without loss of generality that (v_1, v_2, v_3) and (v_1, v_2, v_4) have the same color, which is different from the color of (v_1, v_2, v_5) . As each $K_4^{(3)}$ uses at least three colors in coloring c_1 , (v_1, v_3, v_4) , and (v_2, v_3, v_4) have different colors. Note that $c_4(v_1, v_3, v_4) = c_4(v_2, v_3, v_4) = c_M(v_3, v_4)$. Since c_M is a $(3, 2)$ -coloring of graphs, at least one of $c_M(v_3, v_5)$ or $c_M(v_4, v_5)$ is different from $c_M(v_3, v_4)$. Suppose, without loss of generality, that $c_M(v_3, v_5) \neq c_M(v_3, v_4)$. Since c is defined as the product of c_1, \dots, c_4 , we see that the color of (v_1, v_3, v_5) is different from both that of (v_1, v_3, v_4) and (v_2, v_3, v_4) . Thus $|A_1| \geq 3$. Then the number of colors used is at least $|A_0| + |A_1| + |A_2| \geq 6$.

Case 2c: $|A_2| = 1$.

This implies that the three edges (v_1, v_2, v_j) for $j = 3, 4, 5$ are of the same color. First note that as in the previous case, there are at least two different colors among $c_M(v_3, v_4)$, $c_M(v_3, v_5)$, and $c_M(v_4, v_5)$. Without loss of generality, suppose that $c_M(v_3, v_4) \neq c_M(v_3, v_5)$. Since c is defined as the product of c_1, \dots, c_4 , this implies that the set $A'_1 = \{c(v_1, v_3, v_4), c(v_2, v_3, v_4)\}$ is disjoint from the set $A''_1 = \{c(v_1, v_3, v_5), c(v_2, v_3, v_5)\}$. Now, by considering the coloring c_1 , since all three edges (v_1, v_2, v_j) for $j = 3, 4, 5$ are of the same color, we see that $|A'_1| = 2$ and $|A''_1| = 2$. Hence $|A_1| \geq |A'_1| + |A''_1| = 4$. Then the number of colors used is at least $|A_0| + |A_1| + |A_2| \geq 6$.

5 A Chromatic Number Version of the Erdős–Gyárfás Problem

5.1 Bounds on $F_\chi(r, 4, 3)$

In this subsection, we prove Theorem 1.6. This asserts that

$$2^{\log^2 r/36} \leq F_\chi(r, 4, 3) \leq C \cdot 2^{130\sqrt{r \log r}}.$$

In order to obtain the upper bound, we use the concept of dense pairs. Suppose that a graph G is given. For positive reals ε and d , a pair of disjoint vertex subsets (V_1, V_2) is (ε, d) -dense if for every pair of subsets $U_1 \subseteq V_1$ and $U_2 \subseteq V_2$ satisfying $|U_1| \geq \varepsilon|V_1|$ and $|U_2| \geq \varepsilon|V_2|$, we have

$$e(U_1, U_2) \geq d|U_1||U_2|,$$

where $e(U_1, U_2)$ is the number of edges of G with one endpoint in U_1 and the other in U_2 . The following result is due to Peng *et al.* [17]. Recall that the edge density of a graph G with m edges and n vertices is $m/\binom{n}{2}$.

Theorem 5.1. For all positive reals d and ε , every graph on n vertices of edge density at least d contains an $(\varepsilon, d/2)$ -dense pair (V_1, V_2) for which

$$|V_1| = |V_2| \geq \frac{1}{8}nd^{12/\varepsilon}. \quad \square$$

The original theorem of Peng *et al.* takes a bipartite graph with n vertices in each part and dn^2 edges as input and outputs an $(\varepsilon, d/2)$ -dense pair with parts of size at least $\frac{1}{2}nd^{12/\varepsilon}$. The theorem as stated above is an immediate corollary since every n -vertex graph of density d contains a bipartite subgraph with $m = \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor \geq \frac{n}{4}$ vertices in each part and at least dm^2 edges.

Proof of upper bound in Theorem 1.6. Let $n = F_\chi(r, 4, 3) - 1$ and suppose that a chromatic- $(4, 3)$ -coloring of K_n using r colors is given. Take a densest color, say red, and consider the graph \mathcal{G} induced by the red edges. This graph has density at least $\frac{1}{r}$. By applying Theorem 5.1 with $\varepsilon = (\frac{\ln r}{r})^{1/2}$, we obtain an $(\varepsilon, \frac{1}{2r})$ -dense pair (V_1, V_2) in \mathcal{G} such that

$$|V_1| = |V_2| \geq \frac{1}{8}n \left(\frac{1}{r}\right)^{12/\varepsilon} \geq ne^{-13\sqrt{r \ln r}}.$$

For a color c which is not red, let \mathcal{G}_{+c} be the graph obtained by adding all edges of color c to the graph \mathcal{G} . Since the given coloring is a chromatic- $(4, 3)$ -coloring, we see

that \mathcal{G}_{+c} is 3-colorable for all c . Consider an arbitrary proper 3-coloring of \mathcal{G}_{+c} . If there exists a color class in this proper coloring which intersects both V_1 and V_2 in at least $\varepsilon|V_1|$ vertices, then, since (V_1, V_2) is an $(\varepsilon, \frac{1}{2r})$ -dense pair, there exists an edge between the two intersections, thereby contradicting the fact that the 3-coloring is proper.

Hence, \mathcal{G}_{+c} has an independent set I_c of size at least $(1 - 2\varepsilon)|V_1|$ in either V_1 or V_2 . For $i = 1, 2$, define C_i to be the set of colors $c \in [r]$ for which this independent set I_c is in V_i . Since $|C_1| + |C_2| \geq r - 1$, we may assume, without loss of generality, that $|C_1| \geq \frac{r-1}{2}$.

For each $v \in V_1$, let $d(v)$ be the number of colors $c \in C_1$ for which $v \in I_c$. Note that

$$\sum_{v \in V_1} d(v) = \sum_{c \in C_1} |I_c| \geq |C_1| \cdot (1 - 2\varepsilon)|V_1|. \tag{7}$$

For each $X \subset C_1$ of size $\frac{r}{4}$, let $I_X = \bigcap_{c \in X} I_c$. We have

$$\sum_{\substack{X \subset C_1 \\ |X|=r/4}} |I_X| = \sum_{v \in V_1} \binom{d(v)}{r/4} \geq |V_1| \cdot \binom{|C_1| \cdot (1 - 2\varepsilon)}{r/4},$$

where the inequality follows from (7) and convexity. Since $|C_1| \geq \frac{r-1}{2}$, we have

$$\sum_{\substack{X \subset C_1 \\ |X|=r/4}} |I_X| \geq (1 - 8\varepsilon)^{r/4} |V_1| \cdot \binom{|C_1|}{r/4}.$$

Thus we can find a set $X \subset C_1$ for which $|I_X| \geq (1 - 8\varepsilon)^{r/4} |V_1|$. By definition, the set I_X does not contain any color from X and hence the original coloring induces a chromatic- $(4, 3)$ -coloring of a complete graph on $|I_X|$ vertices using at most $3r/4$ colors. This gives

$$F_\chi \left(\frac{3r}{4}, 4, 3 \right) - 1 \geq |I_X| \geq (1 - 8\varepsilon)^{r/4} |V_1|.$$

For $\varepsilon \leq \frac{1}{16}$, the inequality $1 - 8\varepsilon \geq e^{-16\varepsilon}$ holds. Hence, for large enough r , the right-hand side above is at least

$$e^{-4\varepsilon r} \cdot ne^{-13\sqrt{r \ln r}} = e^{-4\sqrt{r \ln r}} \cdot ne^{-13\sqrt{r \ln r}} = (F_\chi(r, 4, 3) - 1)e^{-17\sqrt{r \ln r}}.$$

We conclude that there exists r_0 such that if $r \geq r_0$, then

$$F_\chi(r, 4, 3) \leq e^{17\sqrt{r \ln r}} F_\chi \left(\frac{3r}{4}, 4, 3 \right).$$

We now prove by induction that there is a constant C such that $F_\chi(r, 4, 3) \leq Ce^{130\sqrt{r \ln r}}$ holds for all r . This clearly holds for the base cases $r < r_0$, so suppose $r \geq r_0$.

Using the above inequality and the induction hypothesis, we obtain

$$F_\chi(r, 4, 3) \leq e^{17\sqrt{r \ln r}} F_\chi\left(\frac{3r}{4}, 4, 3\right) \leq e^{17\sqrt{r \ln r}} C e^{130\sqrt{(3r/4) \ln(3r/4)}} \leq C e^{130\sqrt{r \ln r}},$$

which completes the proof. ■

We now turn to the proof of the lower bound. In order to establish the lower bound, we show that Mubayi's coloring c_M is in fact a chromatic-(4, 3)-coloring. This then implies that $F_\chi(r, 4, 3) \geq 2^{\log^2 r/36}$, as claimed. Recall that in the coloring c_M , we view the vertex set of K_n as a subset of $[m]^t$ for some integers m and t and, for two vertices $x, y \in [m]^t$ of the form $x = (x_1, \dots, x_t)$ and $y = (y_1, \dots, y_t)$, we let

$$c_M(x, y) = (\{x_i, y_i\}, a_1, \dots, a_t),$$

where i is the minimum index for which $x_i \neq y_i$ and $a_j = \delta(x_j, y_j)$ is the Dirac delta function.

Proof of lower bound in Theorem 1.6. Consider the coloring c_M on the vertex set $[m]^t$. Suppose that two colors c_1 and c_2 are given and let

$$c_1 = (\{x_1, y_1\}, a_{1,1}, \dots, a_{1,t}) \quad \text{and} \quad c_2 = (\{x_2, y_2\}, a_{2,1}, \dots, a_{2,t}).$$

Suppose that a_{1,i_1} is the first non-zero $a_{1,j}$ term and a_{2,i_2} is the first non-zero $a_{2,j}$ term. In other words, for a pair of vertices which are colored by c_1 , the first coordinate in which the pair differ is the i_1 th coordinate (and a similar claim holds for c_2).

Let \mathcal{G} be the graph induced by the edges which are colored by either c_1 or c_2 . We will prove that $\chi(\mathcal{G}) \leq 3$ by presenting a proper vertex coloring of \mathcal{G} using three colors, red, blue, and green.

Case 1: $i_1 = i_2 = i$ for some index i .

First, color all the vertices whose i th coordinate is equal to x_1 in red. Second, color all the vertices whose i th coordinate is equal to x_2 in blue (if $x_1 = x_2$, there are no vertices of color blue). Third, color all other vertices in green.

To show that this is a proper coloring, note that if the color between two vertices $z, w \in [m]^t$ is either c_1 or c_2 , then the i th coordinate of z and w must be different. This shows that the set of red vertices and the set of blue vertices are both independent sets. It remains to show that the set of green vertices is an independent set. To see this, note that if the color between z and w is either c_1 or c_2 , then the i th coordinates z_i and w_i

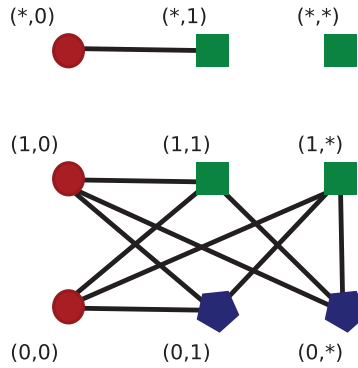


Fig. 1. Graph $\mathcal{H} = \pi(\mathcal{G})$ when $a_{1,i_2} = 1$.

must satisfy

$$\{z_i, w_i\} = \{x_1, y_1\} \quad \text{or} \quad \{x_2, y_2\},$$

as this is the only way the first coordinate of $c_M(z, w)$ can match that of c_1 or c_2 . However, all vertices which have i th coordinate x_1 or x_2 are excluded from the set of green vertices. This shows that our coloring is proper.

Case 2: $i_1 \neq i_2$.

Without loss of generality, we may assume that $i_1 < i_2$. We will find a proper coloring by considering only the i_1 th and i_2 th coordinates. For $v \in [m]^t$ of the form $v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_t)$, let

$$\pi_{i_1}(v) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } v_{i_1} = x_1 \\ 1 & \text{if } v_{i_1} = y_1 \\ * & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_{i_2}(v) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } v_{i_2} = x_2 \\ 1 & \text{if } v_{i_2} = y_2 \\ * & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} .$$

Consider the projection map

$$\pi : [m]^t \rightarrow \{0, 1, *\} \times \{0, 1, *\}$$

defined by $\pi(v) = (\pi_{i_1}(v), \pi_{i_2}(v))$ and let $\mathcal{H} = \pi(\mathcal{G})$ be the graph on $\{0, 1, *\} \times \{0, 1, *\}$ induced by the graph \mathcal{G} and the map π . More precisely, a pair of vertices $v, w \in \{0, 1, *\} \times \{0, 1, *\}$ forms an edge if and only if there exists an edge of \mathcal{G} between the two sets $\pi^{-1}(v)$ and $\pi^{-1}(w)$ (see Figure 1). Note that a proper coloring of \mathcal{H} can be pulled back via π^{-1} to give a proper coloring of \mathcal{G} . It therefore suffices to find a proper 3-coloring of \mathcal{H} .

Consider two vertices $z, w \in [m]^t$. If $c_M(z, w) = c_2$, then the first coordinate in which z and w differ is the i_2 th coordinate. This implies that z and w have identical i_1 th coordinate. Hence, the set of possible edges of the form $\{\pi(z), \pi(w)\}$ is $E_2 = \{\{00, 01\}, \{10, 11\}, \{*0, *1\}\}$.

Now suppose that $c_M(z, w) = c_1$. Then the possible edges of the form $\{\pi(z), \pi(w)\}$ differ according to the value of a_{1,i_2} .

Case 2a: $a_{1,i_2} = 0$.

In this case, the i_2 th coordinates of z and w must be the same and thus the possible edges of the form $(\pi(z), \pi(w))$ are $E_1 = \{\{00, 10\}, \{01, 11\}, \{0*, 1*\}\}$. One can easily check that the graph with edge set $E_1 \cup E_2$ is bipartite.

Case 2b: $a_{1,i_2} = 1$.

In this case, the i_2 th coordinates of z and w must be different and thus the possible edges of the form $(\pi(z), \pi(w))$ are $E_1 = \{\{00, 11\}, \{00, 1*\}, \{01, 10\}, \{01, 1*\}, \{0*, 10\}, \{0*, 11\}, \{0*, 1*\}\}$. A 3-coloring of the graph with edge set $E_1 \cup E_2$ is given by coloring the set of vertices $\{00, 10, *0\}$ in red, $\{01, 0*\}$ in blue and $\{11, 1*, *1, **\}$ in green (see Figure 1). ■

5.2 An edge partition with slowly growing chromatic number

In this section, we will prove Theorem 1.7 by showing that c_M has the required property.

Theorem 1.7. The coloring c_M has the following property: for every subset X of colors with $|X| \geq 2$, the subgraph induced by the edges colored with a color from X has chromatic number at most $2^{3\sqrt{|X|\log|X|}}$. □

Proof. Consider the coloring c_M on the vertex set $[m]^t$. For a set of colors X , let \mathcal{G}_X be the graph induced by the edges colored by a color from the set X . Recall that each color c under this coloring is of the form

$$c = (\{v_i, w_i\}, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t).$$

Define $\iota(c) = i$ to be the minimum index i for which $a_i = 1$. For this index i , define $\eta_1(c) = v_i$ and $\eta_2(c) = w_i$, where we break symmetry by imposing $v_i < w_i$. Let $a_j(c) = a_j$ for $j = 1, \dots, t$.

Given a set of colors X , construct an auxiliary graph \mathcal{H} over the vertex set X whose edges are defined as follows. For two colors $c_1, c_2 \in X$, let $i_1 = \iota(c_1)$, $i_2 = \iota(c_2)$ and assume that $i_1 \leq i_2$. Then c_1 and c_2 are adjacent if and only if $a_{i_2}(c_1) = 1$ (it is well-defined

since if $i_1 = i_2$, then $a_{i_2}(c_1) = a_{i_1}(c_2) = 1$). Let \mathcal{I} be the family of all independent sets in \mathcal{H} . We make the following claim, whose proof will be given later.

Claim 5.2. The following holds:

- (i) For all $I \in \mathcal{I}$, the graph \mathcal{G}_I is bipartite.
- (ii) $\chi(\mathcal{G}_X) \leq |\mathcal{I}|$. □

Suppose that the claim is true. Based on this claim, we will prove by induction on $|X|$ that $\chi(\mathcal{G}_X) \leq 2^{3\sqrt{|X|\log|X|}}$ for $|X| \geq 2$. For $|X| = 2$, we proved in the previous subsection that c_M is a chromatic-(4, 3)-coloring, that is, the union of any two color classes is 3-colorable. This clearly implies the required result in this case. Now suppose that the statement has been established for all sets of size less than $|X|$.

Let $\alpha = \lceil \sqrt{\frac{|X|}{\log|X|}} \rceil$. If there exists an independent set $I \in \mathcal{I}$ of size at least α , then, by the fact that $\mathcal{G}_X = \mathcal{G}_I \cup \mathcal{G}_{X \setminus I}$ and Claim 5.2 (i), we have

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_X) \leq \chi(\mathcal{G}_I) \cdot \chi(\mathcal{G}_{X \setminus I}) \leq 2\chi(\mathcal{G}_{X \setminus I}).$$

If $|X \setminus I| \geq 2$, then the right-hand side is at most $2 \cdot 2^{3\sqrt{|X \setminus I|\log|X \setminus I|}} < 2^{3\sqrt{|X|\log|X|}}$ (the inequality comes from $|I| \geq \alpha$) by the inductive hypothesis, and if $|X \setminus I| \leq 1$, then since $\chi(\mathcal{G}_{X \setminus I}) \leq 2$, the right-hand side is at most 4. Hence the claimed bound holds in both cases.

On the other hand, if the independence number is less than α , then, by Claim 5.2 (ii) and the fact that $|X| \geq 2$, we have

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_X) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\alpha-1} \binom{|X|}{i} \leq |X|^{2\sqrt{|X|/\log|X|}} = 2^{2\sqrt{|X|\log|X|}}.$$

This proves the theorem up to Claim 5.2, which we now consider. ■

Proof of Claim 5.2. (i) Suppose that $I \in \mathcal{I}$ is given. By definition, for each color $c \in I$, we have distinct values of $\iota(c)$. For each $c \in I$, consider the map $\pi_c : [m]^t \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, where for $x \in [m]^t$ of the form $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_t)$, we define

$$\pi_c(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x_{\iota(c)} \leq \eta_1(c) \\ 1 & \text{if } x_{\iota(c)} > \eta_1(c). \end{cases}$$

Define the map $\pi : [m]^t \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^I$ as

$$\pi(x) = (\pi_c(x))_{c \in I}.$$

Consider the graph $\pi(\mathcal{G}_I)$ over the vertex set $\{0, 1\}^I$. Let c and c' be two distinct colors in I . If $\iota(c') < \iota(c)$, then $a_{\iota(c')}(c) = 0$ since $\iota(c)$ is the minimum index i for which $a_i(c) = 1$ and if $\iota(c') > \iota(c)$, then $a_{\iota(c')}(c) = 0$ since I is an independent set in the auxiliary graph \mathcal{H} defined above. Hence, if $e = \{y, z\}$ is an edge of color c , then the two vectors y and z have identical $\iota(c')$ -coordinate for all $c' \neq c$, thus implying that $\pi(y)$ and $\pi(z)$ have identical c' -coordinate for all $c' \neq c$. Further, note that for $x \in [m]^t$, we have $\pi_c(x) = 0$ if the $\iota(c)$ th coordinate of x is $\eta_1(c)$ and $\pi_c(x) = 1$ if the $\iota(c)$ th coordinate of x is $\eta_2(c)$. Since $\{y_{\iota(c)}, z_{\iota(c)}\} = \{\eta_1(c), \eta_2(c)\}$, we see that $\pi_c(y) \neq \pi_c(z)$.

Therefore, two vertices $v, w \in \{0, 1\}^I$ can be adjacent in $\pi(\mathcal{G}_I)$ if and only if v and w differ in exactly one coordinate, implying that $\pi(\mathcal{G}_I)$ is a subgraph of the hypercube, which is clearly bipartite. A bipartite coloring of this graph can be pulled back to give a bipartite coloring of \mathcal{G}_I .

(ii) We prove this by induction on the size of the set X . The claim is trivially true for $|X| = 0$ and 1 , since $|T| = 1$ and 2 , respectively, and the graph \mathcal{G}_X has chromatic number 1 and 2 , respectively.

Now suppose that we are given a set X and the family \mathcal{I} of independent sets in \mathcal{H} (as defined above). Let $c \in X$ be a color with maximum $\iota(c)$ and let $i = \iota(c)$. Let \mathcal{I}_c be the family of independent sets containing c and \mathcal{I}'_c be the family of all other independent sets.

Let A be the subset of vertices of $[m]^t$ whose i th coordinate is $\eta_1(c)$. For two vectors $x, y \in A$, we have $a_i(c_M(x, y)) = 0$, since both x and y have i th coordinate $\eta_1(c)$. Hence, in the subgraph of \mathcal{G}_X induced on the set A , we see only colors $c' \in X$ which have $a_i(c') = 0$. Let $X_c \subseteq X$ be the set of colors c' such that $a_i(c') = 0$. The above-observation implies that $\mathcal{G}_X[A]$ is a subgraph of \mathcal{G}_{X_c} . By the inductive hypothesis, $\chi(\mathcal{G}_{X_c})$ is at most the number of independent sets of $\mathcal{H}[X_c]$. Moreover, by the definitions of X_c and \mathcal{I}_c and the choice of c , the independent sets of $\mathcal{H}[X_c]$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the independent sets in \mathcal{I}_c . Thus, we have

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_X[A]) \leq \chi(\mathcal{G}_{X_c}) \leq |\mathcal{I}_c|.$$

Now consider the set $B = [m]^t \setminus A$. The subgraph of \mathcal{G}_X induced on B does not contain any edge of color c and therefore $\mathcal{G}_X[B]$ is a subgraph of $\mathcal{G}_{X \setminus \{c\}}$. By the inductive hypothesis, $\chi(\mathcal{G}_{X \setminus \{c\}})$ is at most the number of independent sets of $\mathcal{H}[X \setminus \{c\}]$. By definition, the independent sets of $\mathcal{H}[X \setminus \{c\}]$ are in one-to-one correspondence with independent sets in \mathcal{I}'_c . Therefore, we have

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_X[B]) \leq \chi(\mathcal{G}_{X \setminus \{c\}}) \leq |\mathcal{I}'_c|.$$

Hence,

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_X) \leq \chi(\mathcal{G}_X[A]) + \chi(\mathcal{G}_X[B]) \leq |\mathcal{I}_c| + |\mathcal{I}'_c| = |\mathcal{I}|,$$

and the claim follows. ■

Using Theorem 1.7, we can now prove Theorem 3.3, which we restate here for the reader's convenience. Recall that for an edge partition $E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_t$ of the complete graph K_n and a set $I \subseteq [t]$, we define \mathcal{G}_I as the subgraph of K_n with edge set $\bigcup_{i \in I} E_i$.

Theorem 3.3. There exists a positive real r_0 such that the following holds for every positive integer r and positive real $\alpha \leq 1$ satisfying $(\log r)^\alpha \geq r_0$. For $n = 2^{(\log r)^{2+\alpha}/200}$, there exists a partition $E = E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_{\sqrt{r}}$ of the edge set of the complete graph K_n such that

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_I) \leq 2^{3(\log r)^{\alpha/2} \sqrt{|I| \log 2|I|}}$$

for all $I \subset [\sqrt{r}]$. □

Proof. Let $N = 2^{\log^2 r/200}$ and $t = (\log r)^\alpha$ (since $(\log r)^\alpha \geq r_0$ and $\alpha \leq 1$, we can guarantee that N and t are large enough by asking that r_0 be large enough). Color the edge set of the complete graph on the vertex set $[N]^t$ as follows. For two vectors $v, w \in [N]^t$ of the form $v = (v_1, \dots, v_t)$ and $w = (w_1, \dots, w_t)$, we let

$$c(v, w) = (i, c_M(v_i, w_i)),$$

where i is the minimum index for which $v_i \neq w_i$. Since c_M on K_N uses at most $2^6 \sqrt{\log N} \leq \frac{\sqrt{r}}{\log r}$ colors (see the discussion in Section 2), our coloring uses at most

$$t \cdot \frac{\sqrt{r}}{\log r} \leq \sqrt{r}$$

colors in total. Since $n = N^t$, this coloring gives an edge partition $E = E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_s$ of the complete graph on n vertices, for some integer $s \leq \sqrt{r}$.

Now suppose that a set $I \subset [s]$ is given. The set I can be partitioned into t sets $I_1 \cup \dots \cup I_t$ according to the value of the first coordinate as follows: for each $i \in [t]$, define I_i as the set of indices $j \in I$ for which the color of the edges E_j has i as its first coordinate. For each i , let $\pi_i : [N]^t \rightarrow [N]$ be the projection map to the i -th coordinate. Then the graph $\pi_i(\mathcal{G}_{I_i})$ becomes a subgraph of K_N induced by the union of $|I_i|$ colors of c_M . Hence, by

Theorem 1.7, we know that

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_{I_i}) \leq \chi(\pi_i(\mathcal{G}_{I_i})) \leq 2^{3\sqrt{|I_i| \log 2|I_i|}}$$

for each $i \in [t]$, where we introduce the extra 2 in the logarithm to account for the possibility that $|I_i| = 1$. Therefore, we see that

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}_I) \leq \prod_{i \in [t]} \chi(\mathcal{G}_{I_i}) \leq 2^{3 \sum_{i \in [t]} \sqrt{|I_i| \log 2|I_i|}}.$$

Since $\sqrt{x \log 2x}$ is concave, Jensen’s inequality implies that the sum in the exponent satisfies

$$\sum_{i \in [t]} \sqrt{|I_i| \log 2|I_i|} \leq t \sqrt{(|I|/t) \log(2|I|/t)} \leq \sqrt{t|I| \log 2|I|} = (\log r)^{\alpha/2} \sqrt{|I| \log 2|I|}.$$

This implies the required result. ■

6 Concluding Remarks

6.1 The grid Ramsey problem with asymmetric colorings

One may also consider an asymmetric version of the grid Ramsey problem, where we color the row edges using r colors but are allowed to use only two colors on the column edges. Let $G(r, 2)$ be the minimum n for which such a coloring is guaranteed to contain an alternating rectangle. One can easily see that

$$r \leq G(r, 2) \leq r^3 + 1.$$

The following construction improves the lower bound to $G(r, 2) \geq \frac{1}{4}r^2$. Let $n = \frac{1}{4}r^2$ and p be a prime satisfying $\frac{r}{2} \leq p \leq r$ and $n \leq 2^p$ (the existence of such a prime follows from Bertrand’s postulate). Consider the $n \times n$ grid. For each $i \in [n]$, assign to the i th row a sequence $(a_{i,1}, \dots, a_{i,p}) \in [r]^p$ so that for all distinct i and i' there exists at most one coordinate $j \in [p]$ for which $a_{i,j} = a_{i',j}$ (the construction will be given below). Given these sequences, for each $i \in [n]$ and distinct $j, j' \in [n]$, color the edge $\{(i, j), (i, j')\}$ as follows: examine the binary expansions of $j - 1$ and $j' - 1$ to identify the first bit t in which the two differ and color the edge with color $a_{i,t}$ (this is possible since $2^p \geq n$). For two distinct rows, suppose that the sequences corresponding to these rows coincide in the k th coordinate. Then the intersection of the two rows is a subgraph of the graph connecting vertices whose k th bit in the binary expansion is 0 to those whose k th bit in the binary expansion is 1. Thus, the intersection of any two rows is a bipartite graph and therefore,

by the same argument as in the proof of Lemma 3.1, we obtain $G(r, 2) \geq n$ (note that we in fact obtain a coloring of the $cr^2 \times 2^{cr}$ grid).

It suffices to construct a collection of sequences with the property claimed above. For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, consider the following sequence with entries in \mathbb{Z}_p :

$$B_{a,b} = (a, a + b, a + 2b, \dots, a + (p - 1)b).$$

For two distinct pairs (a, b) and (a', b') , the sequences $B_{a,b}$ and $B_{a',b'}$ can overlap in the i th coordinate if and only if $a + ib = a' + ib'$, which is equivalent to $(b - b')i = a' - a$. Since $(a, b) \neq (a', b')$, we see that there exists at most one index i in the range $0 \leq i \leq p - 1$ for which $a + ib = a' + ib'$. Thus the sequences $B_{a,b}$ have the claimed property. Note that the total number of sequences is at least $p^2 \geq n$. Moreover, since $p \leq r$, by abusing notation, we may assume that the sequences are in fact in $[r]^p$ and, therefore, we can use them in the construction of our coloring.

The following question may be more approachable than the corresponding problem for $G(r)$.

Question 6.1. Can we improve the upper bound on $G(r, 2)$? □

6.2 The Erdős–Gyárfás problem in hypergraphs

As mentioned in the introduction, for each fixed i with $0 \leq i \leq k$ and large enough p ,

$$F_k\left(r, p, \binom{p-i}{k-i} + 1\right) \leq r^{r^{\dots r^{c_k, p}}},$$

where the number of r s in the tower is i . It would be interesting to establish a lower bound on $F_k(r, p, \binom{p-i}{k-i})$ exhibiting a different behavior.

Problem 6.2. Let p, k and i be positive integers with $k \geq 3$ and $0 < i < k$. Establish a lower bound on $F_k(r, p, \binom{p-i}{k-i})$ that is significantly larger than the upper bound on $F_k(r, p, \binom{p-i}{k-i} + 1)$ given above. □

We have principally considered the $i = 1$ case of this question. For example, the Erdős–Gyárfás problem on whether $F(n, p, p - 1)$ is superpolynomial for all $p \geq 3$ corresponds to the case where $k = 2$ and $i = 1$. Theorems 1.2 and 1.5 represent progress on the analogous problem with $k = 3$. The next open case, showing that $F_3(r, 6, 10)$ is superpolynomial, appears difficult.

For $i \geq 2$, it seems likely that one would have to invoke a variant of the stepping-up technique of Erdős and Hajnal (see, for example, [11]). In particular, we would like to know the answer to the following question.

Question 6.3. Is $F_3(r, p, p - 2)$ larger than 2^{r^c} for any fixed c ? □

For $p = 4$, a positive solution to this problem follows since we know that the Ramsey number of $K_4^{(3)}$ is double exponential in the number of colors (see, for example, [2]). The general case appears to be much more difficult.

Another case of particular importance is $F_{2d-1}(r, 2d, d + 1)$, since it is this function (or rather a d -partite variant) which is used by Shelah in his proof of the Hales–Jewett theorem. If the growth rate of this function is a tower of bounded height for all d , then it would be possible to give a tower-type bound for Hales–Jewett numbers. However, we expect that this is not the case.

Problem 6.4. Show that for all s there exists d such that

$$F_{2d-1}(r, 2d, d + 1) \geq 2^{2^{\dots^{2^r}}},$$

where the number of 2's in the tower is at least s . □

6.3 Studying the chromatic number version of the Erdős–Gyárfás problem

Since we know that both $F(r, p, p - 1)$ and $F_\chi(r, 4, 3)$ are superpolynomial in r , it is natural to ask the following question (see also [3]).

Question 6.5. Is $F_\chi(r, p, p - 1)$ superpolynomial in r ? □

By following a similar line of argument to the lower bound for $F_\chi(r, 4, 3)$, we can show that c_M is also a chromatic-(5, 4)-coloring. Therefore, $F_\chi(r, 5, 4) = 2^{\Omega(\log^2 r)}$, answering Question 6.5 for $p = 5$. Since the proof is based on rather tedious case analysis, we will post a supplementary note rather than including the details here. It would be interesting to determine whether the $(p, p - 1)$ -colorings defined in [3] are also chromatic- $(p, p - 1)$ -colorings. If so, they would provide a positive answer to Question 6.5.

In Theorem 1.6, we showed that $2^{\Omega(\log^2 r)} \leq F_\chi(r, 4, 3) \leq 2^{O(\sqrt{r \log r})}$. It would be interesting to reduce the gap between the lower and upper bounds. Since $F_\chi(r, 4, 2) \geq 2^r + 1$, we see that $F_\chi(r, 4, 2)$ is exponential in r , while $F_\chi(r, 4, 3)$ is subexponential in r . For $p \geq 5$, the value of q for which the transition from exponential to subexponential happens is not known. However, recall that $F_\chi(r, 2^d + 1, d + 1)$ is exponential in r for all

$d \geq 1$. This followed from showing that in the edge coloring c_B the union of every d color classes induces a graph of chromatic number 2^d (see Section 2). The following question asks whether or not a similar edge coloring exists if we want the union of every d color classes to induce a graph of chromatic number at most $2^d - 1$.

Question 6.6. Is $F_\chi(r, 2^d, d + 1) = 2^{o(r)}$ for all $d \geq 2$? □

A positive answer to Question 6.6 would allow us to determine, for all p , the maximum value of q for which $F_\chi(r, p, q)$ is exponential in r . Indeed, for $2^{d-1} < p \leq 2^d$, we have

$$F_\chi(r, p, d) \geq F_\chi(r, 2^{d-1} + 1, d) = 2^{\Omega(r)},$$

while a positive answer to Question 6.6 would imply

$$F_\chi(r, p, d + 1) \leq F_\chi(r, 2^d, d + 1) = 2^{o(r)}.$$

Hence, given a positive answer to Question 6.6, the maximum value of q for which $F_\chi(r, p, q)$ is exponential in r would be $q = \lceil \log p \rceil$.

A key component in our proof of Theorem 1.2 was Theorem 1.7, which says that in the coloring c_M , the chromatic number of the union of any s color classes is not too large. We suspect that our estimate on the chromatic number is rather weak. It would be interesting to improve it further. More generally, we have the following rather informal question, progress on which might allow us to improve the bounds in Theorem 1.2.

Question 6.7. Given an edge partition of the complete graph K_n , how slowly can the chromatic number of the graph determined by the union of s color classes grow? □

Finally, let \mathcal{F} be a family of graphs and define $F(r, q; \mathcal{F})$ to be the minimum integer n for which every edge coloring of K_n with r colors contains a subgraph $F \in \mathcal{F}$ that contains fewer than q colors. $F(r, q; \mathcal{F})$ generalizes both $F(r, p, q)$ and $F_\chi(r, p, q)$ since we may take \mathcal{F} to be $\{K_p\}$ for $F(r, p, q)$ and the family of all p -chromatic graphs for $F_\chi(r, p, q)$. Our results suggest that $F(r, q; \mathcal{F})$ is closely related to the chromatic number of the graphs in \mathcal{F} . The case where \mathcal{F} consists of a single complete bipartite graph was studied in [1].

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