

# The Probabilistic Method in Combinatorics 80721

Based on lectures by Dr. Yuval Peled, and the book by Alon and Spencer - *The probabilistic method*

Notes by Asaf Etgar  
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For any corrections, requests for additions or notes - please email me at  
asafetgar@gmail.com

*These notes have not been revised by the course staff, and some things may appear differently than in the lectures/ recitations.*

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# Chapter 1

## Introcuction

### 1.1 Ramsey Numbers

**Claim 1.1.1.** For any graph  $G = (V, E)$  there exists a partitioning of  $V = A \sqcup B$  such that at least half of the edges are  $A - B$  edges.

*Proof.* Consider a random partition of  $V$ ,  $A, B$ . That is, each vertex  $v$  is in  $A$  or in  $B$  w.p  $\frac{1}{2}$  independently. Then:

$$\mathbb{E}[e(A, B)] \stackrel{\text{linearity}}{=} |E| \cdot \Pr[e \text{ is an } A, B \text{ edge}] = \frac{|E|}{2}$$

Which implies that there exists. a partition with said property.  $\square$

*Remark.* One can prove this claim without the use of probability.

There are questions that we do not know yet how to solve without the use of probability:

**Definition 1.1** (Ramsey Number). The number  $R(k, l)$  is the minimal  $n$  such that every graph  $G$  over  $n$  vertices contains a  $k$ -clique or an  $l$ -anti-clique.

**Theorem 1.1** (Ramsey).  $R(k, l) \leq \binom{k-l-2}{k-1}$ . In particular,  $R(k, k) \leq \binom{2k-2}{k-1} \approx \frac{4^{k-1}}{\sqrt{\pi k}}$

**Theorem 1.2.** If  $\binom{n}{k} 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}} < 1$ , then  $R(k, k) > n$

*Proof.* Consider now a random graph  $G \sim G(n, \frac{1}{2})$ . For any  $A \in \binom{[n]}{k}$ , denote by  $M_A$  the event that  $A$  is a clique or anti-clique in  $G$ . Then:

$$\Pr[M_A] = \Pr[A \text{ is a clique}] + \Pr[A \text{ is an anti-clique}] = 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}}$$

And therefore

$$\Pr[\exists \text{ a clique or anti-clique of size } k] = \Pr\left[\bigcup_{A \in \binom{[n]}{k}} M_A\right] \leq \sum_{A \in \binom{[n]}{k}} \Pr[M_A] = \binom{n}{k} 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}} < 1$$

Hence there exists a graph over  $n$  vertices without a clique or anti-clique of size  $k$ .  $\square$

*Remark.* Note that

$$\binom{n}{k} 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}} < 1 \iff \binom{n}{k} < 2^{\binom{k}{2}-1}$$

And also,  $\binom{n}{k} \leq \frac{n^k}{k!}$ , and by Stirling's approximation -  $k! \geq \left(\frac{k}{e}\right)^k$ . Pluggin in the inequality:

$$\binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

Comparing this to the formula in 1.1, this is a very loose bound (at least for  $k, k$ ).

*Remark.* If  $n = 2^{k/2}$ , then:

$$\Pr[\text{A random graph contains a clique or anti-clique}] \leq \binom{n}{k} 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}} \xrightarrow{n,k} 0$$

Which means "almost all graphs are Ramsey graphs", but we do not yet have any explicit construction.

This theorem implies that we know the existence of a graph of order  $n$  and without clique or anti-clique of size  $k \approx 2 \log n$ . The best construction known without the use of probability is for  $k = \log^{C \cdot \log \log \log n} n$ .

## Chapter 2

# Linearity of Expectation

### 2.1 Sum-Free Sets

**Theorem 2.1.** For any  $B \in \binom{\mathbb{N}}{n}$  (with repetitions), there exists  $A \in \binom{B}{n/3}$  such that there are no  $a, b, c \in A$  with  $a + b = c$

*Proof (by Erdős).* Denote  $[x] = x - \lfloor x \rfloor$ , and for any  $t \in [0, 1]$  let  $A_t = \{b \in B \mid [tb] \in (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})\}$ . For any  $t$ ,  $A_t$  is sum-free: If  $a, b \in A_t$  and  $[ta], [tb] \in (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$ , then  $[a + b] \notin (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$ . We consider the probability space of the coin tosses of  $t$ . Denote  $X_i = \mathbf{1}_{b_i \in A_t}$ , then  $\Pr[X_i = 1] = \frac{1}{3}$ . Hence consider the expectation of a size of a random  $A_t$ :

$$\mathbb{E}[|A_t|] = \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \frac{n}{3}$$

□

*Remark.* The general idea of probabilistic methods is to find an object in which the property always holds, and then average over these objects

### 2.2 Tournaments

**Definition 2.1.** A tournament is an orientation of  $K_n$ .

**Definition 2.2.** We say a vertex  $v$  *overcomes* some  $A \subset V \setminus \{v\}$  if  $v \rightarrow x$  for any  $x \in A$  (that is, the orientation of  $vx \in E(K_n)$  is  $v \rightarrow x$ ).

**Theorem 2.2.** If  $\binom{n}{k} (1 - 2^{-k})^{n-k}$ , then there exists a tournament such that for any  $A \in \binom{V}{k}$  there exists  $v$  that overcomes  $A$ .

*Proof.* Denote by  $S_k$  the event that for any  $A$  of size  $k$  there exists an overcoming  $v$ . Consider a random tournament, and let  $A \in \binom{V}{k}$ , what is the probability that no  $v$  overcomes  $A$ ?

$$\Pr[\text{No } v \text{ overcomes } A] = (1 - 2^{-k})^{n-k}$$

(some  $v$  overcomes  $A$  w.p  $2^{-k}$ , and they are independent) Then:

$$\Pr[S_k^c] \leq \binom{n}{k} (1 - 2^{-k})^{n-k} < 1$$

□

*Remark.* The union bound is quite similar to linearity of expectation.

**Theorem 2.3.** *There exists a tournament with at least  $n! \cdot 2^{-(n-1)}$  Hamiltonian cycles.*

*Proof.* Consider a random tournament. Then:

$$\mathbb{E}[\# \text{ of Hamiltonian cycles}] = \sum_{\pi \in S_n} \Pr[\pi(V) \text{ is a cycle}] = n! 2^{-(n-1)}$$

(the last equation is the probability of this permutation defining a cycle) Then there must exist a tournament with at least this number of cycles.  $\square$

## 2.3 ??? If you have a suggestion for a name, let me know!

**Theorem 2.4.** *Let  $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be unit vectors. Then there exists  $\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n \in \{\pm 1\}$  such that*

$$\left\| \sum_{i \in [n]} \varepsilon_i v_i \right\| \leq \sqrt{n}$$

*and there exists such  $\varepsilon_i$  for the opposite inequality.*

*Proof.* Consider a random choice of  $\varepsilon_i$ . Denote  $X = \left\| \sum_{i \in [n]} \varepsilon_i v_i \right\|^2$ . Then:

$$X = \left\| \sum_{i \in [n]} \varepsilon_i v_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{i \in [n]} \varepsilon_i^2 v_i \cdot v_i + 2 \cdot \sum_{i < j} \varepsilon_i \varepsilon_j \langle v_i, v_j \rangle$$

then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = n + 2 \cdot \sum_{i < j} \langle v_i, v_j \rangle \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_i \varepsilon_j] = n$$

Since  $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_i \varepsilon_j] = \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_j] \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_i] = 0 \cdot 0 = 0$ , and the claim follows as usual.  $\square$

### 2.3.1 Derandomization

We would like to de-randomize the process and find an efficient algorithm of finding these  $\varepsilon_i$ . By the law of total expectation,  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[X \mid \varepsilon_1 = 1] + \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[X \mid \varepsilon_1 = -1]$ .

**Claim 2.3.1.** *If we've fixed  $\varepsilon_1 \dots \varepsilon_{i-1}$  such that  $\mathbb{E}[X \mid \varepsilon_1 \dots \varepsilon_{i-1}] \leq n$ , then we can efficiently find  $\varepsilon_i$  such that  $\mathbb{E}[X \mid \varepsilon_1 \dots \varepsilon_{i-1}, \varepsilon_i] \leq n$*

*Proof.*

$$\mathbb{E}[X \mid \varepsilon_1 \dots \varepsilon_{i-1}] \stackrel{\star}{=} \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[X \mid \varepsilon_1 \dots \varepsilon_{i-1}, \varepsilon_i = 1] + \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[X \mid \varepsilon_1 \dots \varepsilon_{i-1}, \varepsilon_i = -1]$$

with  $\star$  by law of total expectation (w.r.t the random variable  $\varepsilon_i$ ). But

$$\mathbb{E}[X \mid \varepsilon_1 \dots \varepsilon_{i-1}, \varepsilon_i = 1] = n + 2 \sum_{j' < j \leq i} \varepsilon_j \varepsilon_{j'} \langle v_j, v_{j'} \rangle + 0$$

And we know the values of  $\varepsilon_{j'}, \varepsilon_j$ , so we can compute it efficiently. Then we choose the epsilon from the book  $\square$

## 2.4 Turan's theorem

**Theorem 2.5.** *In any graph  $(V, E)$ , there exists an independent set of size at least  $\sum_{v \in V} \frac{1}{\deg(v)+1}$*

*Proof.* Consider a random ordering of  $V$ . We choose a vertex to add to the set  $I$  ("independent") if he appears before all of his neighbors. Clearly  $I$  is independent. And:

$$\mathbb{E}[|I|] = \sum_{v \in V} \Pr[v \in I] = \sum_{v \in V} \Pr[v \text{ is the first of his neighbors in the ordering}] = \sum_{v \in V} \frac{1}{\deg(v)+1}$$

□

**Corollary 2.6.** *In  $G$  there exists a clique of size  $\geq \sum_{v \in V} \frac{1}{n - \deg(v)}$*

**Theorem 2.7** (Turán). *If the maximal clique is of size  $r$ , then*

$$r \geq \sum_{v \in V} \frac{1}{n - \deg(v)} \geq \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 2|E|}$$

Therefore  $|E| \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{r}\right) \cdot \frac{n^2}{2}$

## 2.5 Unbalancing Lights

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix over  $\{\pm 1\}$ . There is a switch for every row and every column, which flips all bits corresponding to it.

**Theorem 2.8.** *There exists  $x, y \in \{\pm 1\}^n$  such that  $x^\top A y \geq \left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} + o(1)\right) n^{\frac{3}{2}}$*

*Proof.* Choose a random  $y$  (that is,  $y_i \sim U(\pm 1)$  iid. Let  $R_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} y_j$ . Since  $y_i$  are iid,  $A_{ij} y_j \sim$  a sum of  $n$  signs  $\pm 1$  iid. Then by CLT:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} R_i \xrightarrow{\text{distribution}} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

And therefore  $\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} |R_i|\right] \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}[|z|] = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}$ . Hence:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n |R_i|\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[|R_i|] = \left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} + o(1)\right) n^{\frac{3}{2}}$$

Then there exists  $y$  such that  $\sum_{i=1}^n |R_i| \geq \left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} + o(1)\right) n^{\frac{3}{2}}$ . As for  $x$ , note that

$$x^\top A y = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n x_i A_{ij} y_j = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i R_i \stackrel{\star}{=} \sum_{i=1}^n |R_i| \geq \left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} + o(1)\right) n^{\frac{3}{2}}$$

with  $\star$  since we can take  $x_i = \text{sign}(R_i)$ .<sup>II</sup>

□

## 2.6 2-colorings of hypergraphs

<sup>I</sup>think of  $x$  as responsible of rows, and  $y$  of columns

<sup>II</sup>In some sense, this is "the smartest move" in order to get as many light bulbs lit as possible.

**Definition 2.3** ( $k$ -uniform Hypergraph).  $H = (V, E)$  is a  $k$ -uniform Hypergraph with  $V(H)$  its vertices and  $E(H) \subset \binom{V(H)}{k}$ . In particular, a 2-uniform hypergraph is just a graph.

**Definition 2.4** (2-coloring of hypergraph). Let  $H$  be a  $k$ -graph. A 2-coloring of  $H$  is a function  $f : V(H) \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  such that there is no monochromatic edge, that is  $\forall e \in E(H) \exists x, y \in e \ f(x) \neq f(y)$ .

**Definition 2.5.** Denote  $m(k)$  the minimal number of edges in a  $k$ -graph that is not 2-colorable.

**Example 2.1.**  $m(2) = 3$ , consider a triangle.

**Example 2.2.**  $m(3) = 7$ , consider the Fano Plane.

**Theorem 2.9.**  $m(k) \geq 2^{k-1}$

*Proof.* Let  $H$  be a hypergraph with less than  $m2^{k-1}$  edges. Let  $f$  be a uniformly random coloring of  $H$  Then

$$\Pr[e \text{ is monochromatic}] = 2^{1-k}$$

Therefore

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\text{monochromatic edges}] < m \cdot 2^{1-k} = 1$$

□

**Theorem 2.10.**  $m(k) = O(k^2 2^k)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $n = k^2$ , and choose  $c \cdot k^2 2^k$  (we specify  $c$  later) edges uniformly IID. We show that  $\mathbb{E}[\#\text{colorings without monochromatic edges}] < 1$ . Fix a coloring  $\varphi : [n] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ . Let  $a = |\varphi^{-1}(0)|$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[e \text{ is monochromatic under } \varphi] &= \\ \frac{\binom{a}{k} + \binom{n-a}{k}}{\binom{n}{k}} &\geq \frac{2 \cdot \binom{n/2}{k}}{\binom{n}{k}} \geq \frac{2 \cdot \frac{(\frac{n}{2}-k)^k}{k!}}{\frac{n^k}{k!}} = 2 \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{k}{n}\right)^k = 2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{2}{k}\right)^k \geq c \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k \end{aligned}$$

for some  $c$ . Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\#\text{colorings without monochromatic edges}] &= \sum_{\varphi} \Pr[\text{no edge is monochromatic under } \varphi] \leq \\ &\leq 2^n \left(1 - \frac{c}{2^k}\right)^m \leq e^{\log(2) \cdot n - c \cdot 2^{-k} \cdot m} \stackrel{*}{<} 1 \end{aligned}$$

With  $\star$  by choice of  $m = \frac{2 \log(2)}{c} k^2 \cdot 2^k$ . □

**Theorem 2.11** (Improvement on the bound from 2.9).  $m(k) \geq t 2^k \sqrt{\frac{k}{\log(k)}}$ .

*Proof.* Or proof is algorithmic: Let  $H$  be with  $t$  edges, color all  $V(H)$  in blue. Traverse  $V(H)$  in a random order, let  $v$  the current vertex. If  $v$  is the last-visited vertex in a monochromatic blue edge - alter its color to blue. The algorithm fails only if there is a monochromatic red edge. This happens only if the vertex  $v = e \cap f$ ,  $f$  is red,  $e$  is blue and  $v$  is the first in  $f$  and last in blue (this is a bad configuration). What is the probability of such configuration to occur? We consider the probability over the coin tosses of  $\pi \sim U(S_n)$ , and claim

$$\Pr[\text{there exists a bad configuration}] < 1$$



We note that:

$$\Pr[\text{there exists a bad configuration}] \leq \mathbb{E}[\#(e, f) \text{ are bad edges}] \stackrel{*}{\leq} m^2 \cdot \frac{((k-1)!)^2}{(2k-1)!} =$$

$$\frac{m^2}{(2k-1)\binom{2k-2}{k-1}} \stackrel{**}{=} \frac{m^2 \cdot (c + o(1))}{\sqrt{k} \cdot 4^k} \stackrel{?}{<} 1$$

with  $\star$  a bound on the number of edges that intersect in a unique vertex, times the probability of having a bad configuration, and  $**$  since  $\binom{2n}{n} = \frac{c+o(1)}{\sqrt{n}} 2^{2n}$ . In order to have  $?$ , take  $m < c' \cdot k^{\frac{1}{4}} \cdot 2^k$ . This is not the bound we want - as the power of  $k$  is  $\frac{1}{4}$ . The problem is the expectation sometimes lies - that is, the expectation can be much larger than the probability we want to bound (see the remark below).

We traverse the vertices differently: For a vertex  $v$ , choose  $r_v \sim U([0, 1])$  i.i.d, and traverse  $V(H)$  according to  $r_v$  from the smallest to largest. Let  $p$  be some probability chosen later, and denote

$$L = \left[0, \frac{1-p}{2}\right] \quad M = \left[\frac{1-p}{2}, \frac{1+p}{2}\right] \quad R = \left[\frac{1+p}{2}, 1\right]$$

Now:

$$\Pr[\text{there exists a bad configuration}] \leq$$

$$\overbrace{\Pr[\exists e \in L \cup R]}^1 + \overbrace{\Pr[\exists \text{bad configuration whose intersection is in } M]}^2 \leq$$

$$\overbrace{m \cdot 2(|L|)^k}^1 + \overbrace{m^2 \int_{\frac{1-p}{2}}^{\frac{1+p}{2}} r_v^{k-1} (1-r_v)^{k-1} dr_v}^2 =$$

$$m \cdot 2 \frac{1-p^k}{2} + m^2 \int_{\frac{1-p}{2}}^{\frac{1+p}{2}} r_v^{k-1} (1-r_v)^{k-1} dr_v \leq$$

$$2m \frac{e^{-pk}}{2^k} + m^2 \cdot p \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{k-1} \stackrel{?}{<} 1$$

Choosing  $p = \frac{\log k}{k}$  and  $m < \frac{1}{4} 2^k \sqrt{\frac{k}{\log k}}$  yields the result.  $\square$

*Remark.* Let  $X_n = n^2$  with probability  $1/n$  and 0 otherwise. Note that  $\Pr[X_n > 0] = 1/n$ , while  $\mathbb{E}[X_n] = n$ .

## Chapter 3

# Alterations Method

Up to this point, we made a random choice of object and use it. We now deal with the setting where a naïve random choice is not good enough - but we can alter it a little bit so it would be good. The idea here is to bound the expectations of alterations needed to the random object.

### 3.1 Dominating Sets

**Definition 3.1.** Let  $G$  be a graph.  $A \subset V$  is *Dominating* if any  $v \in V$  has a neighbor in  $A$ .

**Theorem 3.1.** Let  $G$  be of minimal degree  $\delta$ , then there exists a dominating set of size  $n \cdot \frac{\ln(1+\delta)}{1+\delta}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $B \subset V$  such that any  $v \in B$  with probability  $p$  (will be chosen later) independently. Let  $C_B$  be the collection of vertices that all of their neighbors are not in  $B$ , that is  $C_B = \{x \notin B \mid \forall vx \in E \quad v \notin B\}$ . Clearly  $A = B \cup C_B$  is dominating. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[|A|] = \mathbb{E}[|B|] + \mathbb{E}[|C_B|] = np + n\Pr[v \in C_B] \stackrel{\star}{\leq} npne^{-p(1+\delta)}$$

With  $\star$  since  $\Pr[v \in C_B] = (1-p)^{1+\deg(x)} \leq (1-p)^{1+\delta} \leq e^{-p(1+\delta)}$ . Find the optimal  $p$  by differentiating w.r.t  $p$ , and get  $p = \frac{\ln(1+\delta)}{1+\delta}$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[|A|] \leq n \left( \frac{\ln(1+\delta)+1}{1+\delta} \right)$   $\square$

### 3.2 Ramsey Numbers - Revisited

Recall that 1.2 gives us a lower bound on Ramsey numbers. We will use alterations to improve this lower bound.

**Theorem 3.2.** For any  $n, k$ ,  $R(k, k) \geq n - \binom{n}{k} \cdot 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}}$

*Proof.* Consider  $G \sim \mathcal{G}(n, \frac{1}{2})$ . Note that  $\mathbb{E}[\#\text{monochromatic sets of size } k] = \binom{n}{k} 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}}$  as we've seen, therefore there exists a graph with at most this amount of monochromatic sets of size  $k$ , denote it  $G$ . Let  $G'$  be the graph obtained from  $G$  by removing a single vertex of any monochromatic set of size  $k$ . Then  $|V(G')|$  is at least  $n - \binom{n}{k} \cdot 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}}$ , and clearly in  $G'$  there is no monochromatic set of size  $k$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 3.3.**  $R(k, k) \geq n - \frac{e^n}{k} 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}}$  by the Stirling-esque estimation done in chapter 1. The optimal  $n$  is  $\frac{2^{k/2} \cdot k}{e}$  which yields  $R(k, k) \geq 2^{k/2} k \cdot \left( \frac{1+o(1)}{e} \right)$ .

### 3.3 Girth and coloring

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a graph.

**Definition 3.2** (Girth). The *girth* of  $G$  is the length of a minimal cycle in  $G$ .

*Remark.* In particular, if the girth is  $\geq g$ , then for any  $v \in V$ , its  $g$ -neighborhood looks like a tree.

**Definition 3.3** (Chromatic Number). The *chromatic number* of  $G$ , denoted  $\chi(G)$  is the minimal  $k$  such that there exists a proper coloring  $c : V \rightarrow [k]$  of  $G$ .

*Remark.* It is difficult to know what  $\chi(G)$  is - it is NP-hard

**Definition 3.4** (Independence number). The *Independence Number* of a graph  $G$ , denoted  $\alpha(G)$ , is the size of a largest independent set in  $G$ .

**Claim 3.3.1.** If  $T$  is a tree, then  $\chi(T) = 2$

*Proof.* It is bipartite - use BFS. □

**Theorem 3.4** (Erdős). For any  $k, g$  there exists a graph  $G$  with  $\chi(G) \geq k$  and  $\text{girth} \geq g$ .

*Remark.* This is surprising! Any neighborhood seems like  $\chi$  should be small (as neighborhoods look like trees) - but it turns out it cannot be considered locally;  $\chi$  is a *global* property of  $G$ .

For ease - we write  $\alpha(G) = \alpha$ , same for  $\chi$ .

**Lemma 3.4.1.**  $V(G) \leq \alpha \cdot \chi$ .

*Proof.* If  $c : V \rightarrow [\chi]$  is a proper coloring, any  $c^{-1}(i)$  is independent. □

**Lemma 3.4.2.** There exists a graph  $G$  over  $n$  vertices (for a large enough  $n = n(k, g)$ ) with the following properties:

1. The number of cycles of length  $\leq g$  is smaller than  $\frac{n}{2}$
2.  $\alpha(G) \leq 3 \log n \cdot n^{1 - \frac{1}{2g}}$

*Proof.* Let  $G \sim \mathcal{G}(n, p)$  with  $p = n^{\frac{1}{2g} - 1}$ . Let  $X$  be the number of cycles of length  $\leq g$ . Then:

$$\mathbb{E}[X] \stackrel{1}{=} \sum_{r=3}^g \binom{n}{r} \cdot \frac{(r-1)!}{2} \cdot p^r \stackrel{2}{\leq} \sum_{r=3}^g (n \cdot p)^r \stackrel{3}{\leq} g \cdot (n \cdot p)^g = g\sqrt{n}$$

Justifications:

1. Choose which vertices are in a cycle of length  $r$  ( $\binom{n}{r}$ ) and order them in a cycle  $((r-1)!/2$  options) and multiply by the probability of such cycle to exists.
2. Bound  $\binom{n}{r} \cdot \frac{(r-1)!}{2}$  from above naturally.
3. Bound the sum with the largest element in the summation.

Hence by Markov:

$$\Pr[X > n/2] \leq \frac{g\sqrt{n}}{n/2} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

Which implies the first property. For the second property, let  $t = 3 \log n \cdot n^{1 - \frac{1}{2g}}$ . Now:

$$\Pr[\alpha(G) \geq t] \leq \binom{n}{t} (1-p)^{\binom{t}{2}} \leq n^t (e^{-p})^{\binom{t}{2}} \leq n^t e^{-p \binom{t}{2}} = e^{t(\log n - \frac{p \cdot t}{2} + 1)} = e^{t(-\frac{1}{2} \log n + 1)} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

□

*Proof (of 3.4).* Let  $G'$  be a graph obtained from  $G$  by removing a single vertex from any cycle of length smaller than  $g$ . Then  $G'$ 's girth is at least  $g$ . And  $\alpha(G') \leq \alpha(G) \leq 3 \log n \cdot n^{1-\frac{1}{2g}}$ , and note that

$$\chi(G') \geq \frac{|V(G')|}{\alpha(G')} \geq \frac{\frac{n}{2}}{3 \log n \cdot n^{1-\frac{1}{2g}}} \geq \frac{n^{\frac{1}{2g}}}{6 \cdot \log(n)} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \infty$$

□

### 3.4 Heilbronn triangle problem

Let  $P \subset [0, 1]^2$ ,  $|P| = n$ , denote  $T(P) = \min_{x,y,z \in P} \text{Area}(xyz)$ , and let  $T(n) = \max_{|P|=n} T(P)$ . Heilbronn conjectured<sup>I</sup> that  $T(n) = \Theta(\frac{1}{n^2})$ .

**Theorem 3.5** (KPS, no proof).  $T(n) = \Omega\left(\frac{\log(n)}{n^2}\right)$

*Remark.* We still do not know some  $f$  for which  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ , the best upper bound is still not tight.

**Theorem 3.6.**  $T(n) \geq \frac{1}{70n^2}$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{70n^2}$ . Generate  $2n$  points  $\sim U([0, 1]^2)$  IID and remove a point from any triangle of area less than  $\varepsilon$ . Given a triangle  $xyz$ , Let  $t$  be the distance  $xy$ . then  $t$  has some density  $f_{\text{dist}}(t)$ . Then:

$$\Pr[\text{area}(xyz) \leq \varepsilon] \leq \int_0^{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{2} \cdot 4 \frac{\varepsilon}{t} f_{\text{dist}}(t) dt = (\star)$$

Note that  $f_{\text{dist}}(t) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \Pr[t \leq \text{dist}(x, y) \leq t + h]$  by the definition of density. Hence  $f_{\text{dist}(x,y)}(t) \leq \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \pi((t+h)^2 - t^2) = 2\pi t$ , then:

$$(\star) \leq \int_0^{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{2} \frac{4\varepsilon}{t} 2\pi t dt = 16\pi\varepsilon$$

Which implies

$$\mathbb{E}[\text{number of triangles with area smaller than } \varepsilon] \leq \binom{2n}{3} \frac{16\pi}{70n^2} < n$$

□

*Remark.* Erdős has a non-combinatorial construction. Let  $n$  be some prime, and consider the grid  $[n-1] \times [n-1]^{\text{II}}$  and take  $\{(k, k^2 \bmod n)\}_{k \in [n-1]}$ . Note that the smallest triangle of 3 points in  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  is of area  $1/2$ , unless the three points are on the same diagonal. If they are on the diagonal  $ax + b$ , this means that there exists three values of  $k$  such that  $(ak + b) = k^2 \bmod n$ , but this is a quadratic polynomial in  $\mathbb{F}_n[x]$ , therefore it cannot have more than 2 solutions. Hence by scaling,  $T(n) \geq \frac{1}{2(n-1)^2}$

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<sup>I</sup>falsely

<sup>II</sup>Can rescale for the unit cube later...

## Chapter 4

# Second Moment Method

Up until now we discussed *first moment methods*. More formally, if  $X = X_n \geq 0$  is an integer valued random variable, then the first moment method tells us that if  $\mathbb{E}[X_n] \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$ , then  $\Pr[X_n > 0] \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$ .

**Example 4.1** (First Moment Method). When  $G \sim \mathcal{G}(n, p)$  is triangle-free? Denote  $X$  the number of triangles in  $G$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \binom{n}{3} p^3 \leq (np^3)$$

Then taking  $p = o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$  results in  $\Pr[X > 0] \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$ . Is this bound *tight*? We saw that the expectation does not always give us a good bound - we need a way to reason about when is  $X$  concentrated about its expectation - that is the variance.

**Definition 4.1** (Variance). The variance of  $X$  is  $\text{Var} X = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2]$

**Definition 4.2** (Covariance). The covariance of  $X, Y$  is

$$\text{cov} X, Y = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X]) \cdot (Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

**Theorem 4.1** (Chebyshev).  $\Pr[|X - \mathbb{E}[X]| \geq t] \leq \frac{\text{Var} X}{t^2}$

**Corollary 4.2.**  $\Pr[X = 0] \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{\mathbb{E}[X]^2}$

**Corollary 4.3.** If  $\text{Var} X = o(\mathbb{E}[X]^2)$  then  $\Pr[X = 0] \rightarrow 0$

This results in the *Second moment method*: If  $\text{Var} X = o(\mathbb{E}[X]^2)$  then  $\Pr[X \geq 0] \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$ . An equivalent condition is  $\mathbb{E}[X^2] = \mathbb{E}[X]^2 (1 + o(1))$ <sup>I</sup> An important case is when  $X = \sum_{i=1}^m X_i$ , in that case

$$\text{Var} X = \sum_{i=1}^m \text{Var} X_i + \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j \neq i}^m \text{cov} X_i, X_j$$

If we denote  $i \sim j$  when  $X_i, X_j$  are dependent, then

$$\text{Var} X = \sum_{i=1}^m \text{Var} X_i + \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j \sim i}^m \text{cov} X_i, X_j$$

<sup>I</sup>Since  $\text{Var} X = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$

**Assumptions:**

1.  $X_i = \mathbb{1}_{A_i}$ , then  $\text{Var} X_i = \Pr[A_i] \cdot (1 - \Pr[A_i]) \leq \Pr[A_i]$  and  $\text{Cov} X_i, X_j = \Pr[A_i \cap A_j] - \Pr[A_i] \cdot \Pr[A_j] \leq \Pr[A_i \cap A_j] = \Pr[A_i] \cdot \Pr[A_j | A_i]$ . Under this assumption, we get

$$\text{Var} X \leq \mathbb{E}[X] + \sum_i \Pr[A_i] \cdot \sum_{i \sim j} \Pr[A_j | A_i]$$

2. A symmetry assumption is  $\sum_{i \sim j} \Pr[A_j | A_i]$  is independent of  $i$ . This is usually true in many cases. We denote  $\sum_{i \sim j} \Pr[A_j | A_i] = \Delta^{*\text{II}}$ . With this notation,  $\text{Var} X \leq \mathbb{E}[X] (1 + \Delta^*)$ .

**Corollary 4.4.** *If  $\mathbb{E}[X] \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\Delta^* = o(\mathbb{E}[X])$ , then  $\Pr[X = 0] \rightarrow 0$ .*

## 4.1 $H$ -free graphs

The general question we deal with is

**Question 4.1.1.** *Given a small graph  $H$ , what is the threshold function of  $G \sim \mathcal{G}(n, p)$  containing  $H$ ?*

More formally:

**Definition 4.3** (Threshold Function). Let  $G \sim \mathcal{G}(n, p)$  and  $H$  some fixed small graph. We say  $f(n)$  is a *threshold function* for finding  $H$  in  $G$  if

$$\begin{aligned} p \ll f(n) &\Rightarrow \Pr[G \text{ contains a copy of } H] \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 \\ \text{and} \\ p \gg f(n) &\Rightarrow \Pr[G \text{ contains a copy of } H] \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 \end{aligned}$$

We now explore some threshold functions

### 4.1.1 Triangles in $\mathcal{G}(n, p)$

We've shown that if  $G \sim \mathcal{G}(n, p)$  and  $p \ll \frac{1}{n}$  then  $\Pr[G \text{ contains a triangle}] \rightarrow 0$ .

**Claim 4.1.1.** *If  $p \gg \frac{1}{n}$  then  $\Pr[G \text{ contains a triangle}] \rightarrow 1$*

*Remark.* In a case like this, we say that  $\frac{1}{n}$  is the *threshold function* for triangle existence in  $\mathcal{G}(n, p)$ .

*Proof.* Denote by  $X$  the number of triangles in  $G$ , then:

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \binom{n}{3} p^3 = (1_o(1)) \frac{n^3 p^3}{6} \xrightarrow{p \gg \frac{1}{n}} \infty$$

Denote by  $T$  a triangle in  $G$ .

$$\Delta^* = \sum_{T' \sim T} \Pr[A_{T'} | A_T] \stackrel{*}{=} 3 \cdot (n-3)p^2 \leq 3np^2$$

---

<sup>II</sup>Usually  $\sum_i \Pr[A_i] \cdot \sum_{i \sim j} \Pr[A_j | A_i] := \Delta$

With  $\star$  since any  $T'$  dependent on  $T$  is taken by choosing 2 vertices in  $T$  and a vertex not in  $T$ . Now we have

$$\frac{\Delta^*}{\mathbb{E}[X]} \leq \frac{18}{n^2 p} \rightarrow 0$$

And we are done.  $\square$

*Remark.* In fact we've shown that  $\frac{X}{\mathbb{E}[X]} \xrightarrow{\text{in probability}} 1$ . This is some kind of law of large numbers. This can be seen by 4.1:

$$\Pr[|X - \mathbb{E}[X]| > \varepsilon \mathbb{E}[X]] \leq \frac{\text{Var} X}{\varepsilon^2 \mathbb{E}[X]^2} \rightarrow 0$$

#### 4.1.2 $K_4$ in $\mathcal{G}(n, p)$

Denote  $X$  the number of  $K_4$  copies in  $G$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \binom{n}{4} p^6 = \frac{1 + o(1)}{24} n^4 p^6$$

Then if  $p \ll n^{-2/3}$ ,  $\Pr[X = 0] \rightarrow 0$ , and otherwise  $\mathbb{E}[X] \rightarrow \infty$ . Now denote by  $S$  a fixed copy of  $K_4$  in  $G$ . Then:

$$\Delta^* = \sum_{S' \sim S} \Pr[A_{S'} | A_S] \leq \overbrace{6n^2 p^5}^{\text{Share 2 vertices}} + \overbrace{4np^3}^{\text{Share 3 vertices}}$$

Then

$$\frac{\Delta^*}{\mathbb{E}[X]} \leq O\left(\frac{1}{n^2 p} + \frac{1}{n^3 p^3}\right) \xrightarrow{p \gg n^{-2/3}} 0$$

#### 4.1.3 $K_4 * e$ in $\mathcal{G}(n, p)$

In this case

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = 5 \binom{n}{5} p^7 = \frac{1 + o(1)}{24} n^5 p^7$$

Then  $p \ll n^{-5/7}$  implies  $\Pr[X > 0] \rightarrow 0$ . Is it true that  $p \gg n^{-5/7}$  implies  $\Pr[X = 0] \rightarrow 1$ ? Note that  $n^{-5/7} \ll n^{-2/3}$ , and since existence of  $K_4 * e$  implies existence of  $K_4$ , had  $n^{-5/7}$  been the threshold, it would contradict our previous proof.

**Definition 4.4** (Maximal Subgraph Density). Given  $H$ , we define its maximal density by

$$m(H) := \max_{\emptyset \neq A \subset V(H)} \frac{e(A)}{|A|}$$

*Remark.* First moment argument shows that  $p \ll n^{-\frac{1}{m(H)}}$ .

**Theorem 4.5** (Threshold characterization). *The threshold function of  $H$  is  $n^{-\frac{1}{m(H)}}$*

## 4.2 Cliques in $\mathcal{G}(n, 1/2)$

**Theorem 4.6.** *Let  $G \sim \mathcal{G}(n, 1/2)$ . Denote  $X$  = size of maximal clique in  $G$ . There exists  $k = k(n)$  and  $k = \Theta(2 \log_2(n))$  such that*

$$\Pr[X \in \{k, k+1\}] \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 1$$

*Proof (Sketch).* Define  $f(k) = \mathbb{E}[\text{\#of } k\text{-cliques in } G] = \binom{n}{k} 2^{-\binom{k}{2}}$ . We claim that if  $f(k) \rightarrow \infty$  then there exists a clique of size  $k$ .

$$\Delta^* = \sum_{i=2}^{k-1} \binom{k}{i} \cdot \binom{n-k}{k-i} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\binom{k}{2} - \binom{i}{2}}$$

Now it can be shown that  $k \sim 2 \log_2(n)$ , if  $f(k) \rightarrow \infty$  then  $\frac{\Delta^*}{f(k)} \rightarrow 0$  by case analysis. We note that

$$\frac{f(k+1)}{f(k)} = \frac{\binom{n}{k+1} 2^{-\frac{k(k+1)}{2}}}{\binom{n}{k} 2^{-\frac{k(k-1)}{2}}} = \frac{n-k}{(k+1)} 2^{-k} \approx 2^{-2 \log_2(n)} < \frac{1}{n}$$

We now consider a  $k_0$  such that  $f(k_0) \geq 1$  and  $f(k_0+1) < 1$ . If  $f(k_0(n))$  tends to  $\infty$  with  $n$  and  $f(k_0) = o(n)$ , then  $f((k_0+1)(n)) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$ . In this case, there exists a maximal  $k_0$ -clique, and no  $(k_0+1)$ -clique, so the maximal clique of  $k_0$ . A similar argument may show the result, but it's quite annoying. The book has the complete proof  $\square$

## 4.3 Distinct Sums Problems

The *Distinct Sums Problems* is a problem suggested by Erdős<sup>III</sup>.

**Problem.** *What is the maximal size of  $S \subset [n]$  with distinct partial sums?*

**Solution** (lower bound). Take  $S = \{1, 2, 4, 8, \dots\}$ , then  $|S| = \log_2(n)$ .

**Question 4.3.1.** *Is  $|S| \leq \log_2(n) + o(1)$ ?*

**Solution** (Upper bound).  $2^{|S|} \leq n \cdot |S|$

**Corollary 4.7.**  $|S| \leq \log(n) + \log \log(n) + o(1)$

**Claim 4.3.1.** <sup>IV</sup>  $|S| \leq \log(n) + 0.5 \log \log(n) + o(1)$

*Proof.* Let  $S = \{s_1 \dots s_m\}$  and consider a random partial sum  $X = \sum_{i=1}^m b_i s_i$  with  $b_i \sim U(\{0, 1\})$ .

$$\mu := \mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{s_i}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Var} X = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{s_i^2}{4}$$

Now try to bound the variation:

$$\text{Var} X = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^m s_i^2 \stackrel{s_i \leq n}{\leq} \frac{mn^2}{4}$$

Then

$$\Pr[|x - \mu| \leq \lambda] \stackrel{\text{Chebyshev}}{\geq} 1 - \frac{mn^2}{4\lambda^2}$$

$$\Pr[|x - \mu| \leq \lambda] \stackrel{\text{distinct sums}}{\leq} (2\lambda + 2)2^{-m}$$

<sup>III</sup>And it is still open with a \$300 prize awaiting to the solver!

<sup>IV</sup>This is worth \$150!



So

$$(2\lambda + 2)2^{-m} \geq 1 - \frac{mn^2}{4\lambda^2} \quad \text{Take } \lambda = \sqrt{3}\sqrt{mn} \\ c\sqrt{mn}2^{-m} \geq \frac{4}{c'mn^2} \geq \frac{11}{12}$$

Therefore  $2^m \leq \tilde{C}\sqrt{mn}$  And some computations result in the bound.  $\square$

## 4.4 Hardy- Ramanujan Thoerem

The question we deal with is "how many prime numbers divide a random number  $\sim U([n])$ ?"

**Theorem 4.8** (Hardy- Ramanujan). *For  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  let  $\nu(x)$  be the number of prime divisors of  $x$  (without multiplicity). If  $x \in U([n])$ , then for a large enough  $n$ ,*

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists A > 0 \quad \Pr \left[ |\nu(x) - \log \log n| > A\sqrt{\log \log n} \right] < \varepsilon$$

**Theorem 4.9** (Erdős-Kac). *With the same notations,*

$$\frac{\nu(x) - \log \log n}{\sqrt{\log \log n}} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

**Theorem 4.10** (Merten).  $\sum_{p \leq m} \frac{1}{p} = \log \log M = O(1)$

*Proof(of 4.8).* Denote by  $X(x)$  the amount of prime divisors of  $x$  not greater then  $n^{1/10}$ . Clearly  $X \leq \nu$ . Since there cannot be more than 10 divisors larger than  $n^{1/10}$ , we have  $\nu - 10 \leq X$ . Denote  $\chi_p \mathbf{1}_{p|x}$ . Then:

$$X = \sum_{p \leq n^{1/10}} \chi_p \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}[\chi_p] = \frac{\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \rfloor}{n} = \frac{1}{p} + O(1/n) \Rightarrow \\ \mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{p \leq n^{1/10}} \frac{1}{p} + O(1) \stackrel{4.10}{=} \log \log n + O(1)$$

Now we calculate the  $\Delta^*$  part. For any  $p, q$  primes, we have  $\Pr[\chi_p \cdot \chi_q] = \frac{\lfloor \frac{n}{pq} \rfloor}{n}$  (by the Chinese Reminder Theorem), therefore:

$$\text{cov}(\chi_p, \chi_q) = \mathbb{E}[\chi_p \chi_q] - \mathbb{E}[\chi_p] \mathbb{E}[\chi_q] = \frac{\lfloor \frac{n}{pq} \rfloor}{n} - \frac{\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \rfloor}{n} \frac{\lfloor \frac{n}{q} \rfloor}{n} = \frac{1}{pq} - \left( \frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \left( \frac{1}{q} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \leq \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} \right)$$

So

$$\text{Var} X = \sum_p \text{Var} \chi_p + \sum_{p \neq q} \text{cov} \chi_p, \chi_q \leq \log \log n + O(1) + \sum_{p \neq q} \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} \right) \leq \\ \log \log n + O(1) + (n^{1/10})^2 \frac{1}{n} = \log \log n + o(1)$$

So the result follows from Chebyshev.  $\square$

## 4.5 The Röde Nibble

The question deals with the existence of designs.

---

<sup>v</sup>Let  $m$  be the number of divisors larger than  $n^{1/10}$ , then  $x$  is at least  $n^{m/10} \leq x \leq n$ .

**Definition 4.5**  $((n, k, r)$  - design). : An  $(n, k, r)$  - design is a  $k$ -graph over  $n$  vertices such that any  $r$ -set of vertices is contained exactly in one edge.

**Example 4.2.**  $k = 2, r = 1$  means a perfect matching.

**Question 4.5.1.** *Is it true that for any  $r < k \ll n$  there exists a corresponding design?*

Of course not! Take an odd  $n$ , one cannot find a perfect matching in a graph over an odd number of vertices. We get division requirements: Denote by  $e$  the number of edges in a design. Then

$$e \cdot \binom{k}{r} = \binom{n}{r} \Rightarrow \binom{k}{r} \mid \binom{n}{r}$$

**Definition 4.6.** The Complementary design with respect to  $A \subset [n]$  with  $|A| < r$  is with the edges

$$E_A = \{e \setminus A \mid A \subset e \in E\}$$

#### 4.5.1 Approximations

**Definition 4.7** (Covering). a covering is a relaxation of designs, when we demand that any  $r$ -tuple is contained in *at least* one edge

**Definition 4.8** (Packing). a covering is a relaxation of designs, when we demand that any  $r$ -tuple is contained in *at most* one edge

*Remark.* In these cases, clearly  $|E| \geq \frac{\binom{n}{r}}{\binom{k}{r}}$  and  $|E| \leq \frac{\binom{n}{r}}{\binom{k}{r}}$  respectively.

The *Erdős Hananni conjecture* is that for any  $k, r$ , when  $n \rightarrow \infty$  there exists a covering of size  $VI$   $(1 + o(1)) \frac{\binom{n}{r}}{\binom{k}{r}}$ . This is equivalent of having a packing of size  $(1 - o(1)) \frac{\binom{n}{r}}{\binom{k}{r}}$ . This conjecture was proved by using the *Röde Nibble*.

*Proof (for the case  $r = 2, k = 3$ ).* <sup>VII</sup> We look for a collection of  $(1 + o(1)) \frac{\binom{n}{2}}{3}$  triplets that cover all edges. Had we tried to choose any triangle independently with probability  $1/n$ , we would have failed miserably:

$$\Pr[\text{A specific edge is not covered}] = (1 - 1/n)^{n-2} \approx \frac{1}{e}$$

Which means that this method "misses" a constant amount of edges!

We try to choose any triangle with probability  $\frac{\varepsilon}{n}$ , which results in approximately  $\frac{\varepsilon n^2}{6}$  triangles. Then:

$$\Pr[\text{A specific edge is not covered}] = (1 - 1/n)^{n-2} \approx \frac{1}{e^\varepsilon}$$

So

$$\Pr[\text{a specific edge is covered}] \approx 1 - e^{-\varepsilon} \approx \varepsilon - \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \dots$$

□

<sup>VI</sup>In the sense of  $|E|$

<sup>VII</sup>Steiner Triplet systems

**Definition 4.9** (Typical Graph). A graph with  $m$  edges is called  $(D, \delta, k)$ -Typical if:

1. Aside from  $\delta \cdot m$  edges, all edge is contained in  $D(1 \pm \delta)$  triangles.
2. Any edge is contained in at most  $kD$  triangles.

**Lemma 4.10.1.** For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , large enough  $D$ ,  $k$  and  $\delta > 0$ , there exists  $\gamma > 0$  such that in any  $(D, \delta, k)$  typical graph there is a collection of  $\frac{\varepsilon}{3}(m \pm \gamma)$  triangles, denoted  $T$  such that  $G \setminus T$  is a graph with  $m \cdot e^{-\varepsilon}(1 \pm \gamma)$  edges, and is  $(De^{-2\varepsilon}, \gamma, ke^{2\varepsilon})$ -typical

*Proof.* We sample each triangle i.i.d with probability  $\frac{\varepsilon}{D}$ . The number of triangles in the graph is at least  $\frac{(1-\delta)mD(1-\delta)}{3} = \frac{mD}{3}(1-\delta_1)$ , and at most  $\frac{\delta mkD + (1-\delta)mD(1+\delta)}{3} = \frac{mD}{3}(1+\delta_1)$ . Let  $T$  be the number of triangles. Then  $T \sim \text{Bin}\left[\frac{mD}{3}(1 \pm \delta_1), \frac{\varepsilon}{D}\right]$  and the first item in the definition is gained by first moment argument.

Let  $X_e$  be the indicator of the event "e is not covered". Then if  $d_e = D(1 \pm \delta)^{\text{VIII}}$ , we get

$$\mathbb{E}[X_e] = \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{D}\right)^{D(1 \pm \delta)} = e^{-\varepsilon}(1 + \delta_1)$$

Let  $X = \sum_e X_e$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[X] = me^{-\varepsilon}(1 + \delta_1)$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}X_e, X_{e'} &= \Pr[\text{both not covered}] - \Pr[e \text{ is not covered}] \Pr[e' \text{ is not covered}] \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{D}\right)^{d_e + d_{e'} - 1} - \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{D}\right)^{d_e} \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{D}\right)^{d_{e'}} \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{D} \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\text{Var}X \leq me^{-\varepsilon}(1 + \delta_1) + mD(1 + \delta)2\frac{\varepsilon}{D} = O(m)$$

Then by Chebyshev,  $\Pr[\text{The number of edges} \notin me^{-\varepsilon}(1 \pm \delta_2) < 0.01] \rightarrow 0$ . It is left to show that  $G \setminus T$  is typical.

**Claim 4.5.1.** Other than  $\delta_1 m$  edges, all edges are both good and contained in  $(1 \pm \delta_1)D$  triangles whose edges are good.

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[d_e(G \setminus T)] &= (1 \pm \delta_1)De^{-2\varepsilon}(1 \pm \delta_1)^2 \\ \text{Var}d_e(G \setminus T) &\leq \mathbb{E}[d_e(G \setminus T)] + D^2\frac{\varepsilon}{D} = O(D) \end{aligned}$$

Wo once again, Chebyshev we are done. □

□

*Proof (Röde's Nibble - general case).* Denote  $p = e^{-\varepsilon}$ . Let  $G_0 = K_n$ . Let  $G_{i+1}$  be obtained from  $G_i$  by removing each triangle with probability  $\frac{\varepsilon}{p^{2i}D}$ . Then  $|E(G_i)| \approx p^i \binom{n}{2}$ : With this step we've chosen

$$\approx \frac{\varepsilon}{p^{2i}D} \cdot \overbrace{p^i \binom{n}{2}}^{\# \triangle \text{ in typical edge}} \cdot \frac{\overbrace{p^{2i}n}}{3} = \varepsilon p^i \frac{n^2}{6}$$

Hence the number of triangles in the cover is

$$p^t \binom{n}{2} + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon p^i \frac{n^2}{6} \leq \frac{n^2}{6} \left( 3e^{-\varepsilon t} + \varepsilon \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\varepsilon}} \right) = \star$$

So when  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , we can choose a large enough  $t$ , we may have  $\star \leq (1 + \delta) \frac{n^2}{6}$ . The thing is - we've hidden all the error terms, but this can be dealt with. Super annoyingly. □

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<sup>VIII</sup>The number of triangles containing  $e$

## Chapter 5

# Lovász's Local Lemma

Up to this point we used probability to find an object of interest with high probability. The *Local Lemma* is a tool to prove an object's existence even if the probability of finding them is small - even exponentially. In fact, this is an *algorithmic* approach.

**Lemma 5.0.1** (The local Lemma, Symmetric). *Let  $(A_i)_{i \in [n]}$  be events such that:*

1.  $A_i$  is independent in all  $A_j$ , except for at most  $d$  of them<sup>a</sup>
2.  $\Pr[A_i] \leq p$
3.  $e \cdot p \cdot (d + 1) \leq 1$

*Then  $\Pr\left[\bigcap_{i \in [n]} \overline{A_i}\right] > 0$*

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<sup>a</sup>Not in pairs!  $A_i$  is dependent on the event  $\bigcup_{j \in K} A_j$  for some  $K \in \binom{[n] \setminus i}{d}$

### 5.1 Results from the lemma

**Theorem 5.1** (Improvement on 1.1). *If  $e \cdot 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}} \left( \binom{k}{2} \binom{n}{k-2} + 1 \right) < 1$ , then  $R(k, k) > n$*

*Proof.* Let  $G \sim \mathcal{G}(n, 1/2)$ . For any  $S \in \binom{[n]}{k}$ , denote  $A_S$  the event that  $S$  is a clique or an anti-clique. We know that  $\Pr[A_S] = 2^{1-\binom{k}{2}}$ . Note that  $A_S$  is independent in all  $A_M$  other than at most  $\binom{k}{2} \binom{n}{k-2}$ . Then by the 5.0.1 - there exists a graph in which no  $A_S$  occurs.  $\square$

**Exercise.** Consider a  $k$ -SAT in which any variable appears in at most  $r$  clauses ( $k > 3r$ ). Show a polynomial algorithm to decide satisfiability.

**Theorem 5.2.** *Any  $k$ -graph (a  $k$ -uniform hypergraph) in which any edge intersects at most  $\frac{2^{k-1}}{e} - 1$  other edges is 2-colorable.*

*Proof.* Consider a random 2 coloring  $c : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ . Assume  $A_i$  is the event "the  $i$ 'th edge is monochromatic", then  $\Pr[A_i] = 2^{1-k}$ , and  $d = \frac{2^{k-1}}{e} - 1$ , and the result follows from LLL<sup>1</sup>.  $\square$

#### 5.1.1 Colorings of $\mathbb{R}$

Consider a coloring  $c : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [k]$ . We say  $T$  is *Colorful* if  $c[T] = [k]$ . The question Lovász and ??? asked is given a finite  $S$ , can we color  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $S$  and all of its translations are colorful.

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<sup>1</sup>Lovász's Local Lemma

**Theorem 5.3.** *For any  $k$  and for any  $S$  of cardinality  $m$  such that*

$$e \cdot k \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)^m (m(m-1) + 1) \leq 1$$

*there exists a coloring  $c : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [k]$  such that all of  $S$ 's translations are colorful.*<sup>II</sup>

*Proof.* Denote  $c_x = \{c \mid x + S \text{ is colorful}\}$ . We want to show that  $\bigcap_{x \in \mathbb{R}} c_x \neq \emptyset$ . By compactness arguments, it is sufficient to show that for any finite  $X$ ,  $\bigcap_{x \in X} c_x \neq \emptyset$ . □

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<sup>II</sup>Doing the calculations, we get  $m \approx (3 + o(1))k \log k$