Applying
Genetic
Algorithms
to Ramsey
Theory

David
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Wesleyan
University

# Applying Genetic Algorithms to Ramsey Theory 

David White<br>Wesleyan University

November 2, 2009

## Outline

Applying
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David
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Wesleyan
University
(1) Basic Graph Theory and graph coloring

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(1) Basic Graph Theory and graph coloring
(2) Pigeonhole Principle

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(2) Pigeonhole Principle
(3) Definition and examples of Ramsey Numbers

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© Basic Graph Theory and graph coloring
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- Definition and examples of Ramsey Numbers
- Generalizing Ramsey numbers


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- Ramsey's Theorem


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- One further generalization


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(10) Fitness function and code
(1) Results
(2. Other attacks plus further ways to push


## Basic Graph Theory

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## Definition

A graph $G$ is a pair $(V, E)$ where $V$ is a set of vertices, and $E$ is a set of pairs of points $\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$ called edges.

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For us $|V|$ will always be finite.

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Figure: A graph

## Complete Graphs

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The complete graph on $n$ vertices has $n$ vertices and edges between all pairs of vertices.

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The complete graph on $n$ vertices has $n$ vertices and edges between all pairs of vertices.

$K_{5}$

## Cycle Graphs

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An $n$-cycle $C_{n}$ has $n$ vertices forming a regular $n$-gon and edges around the perimeter.

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An $n$-cycle $C_{n}$ has $n$ vertices forming a regular $n$-gon and edges around the perimeter.

$C_{5}$
$C_{6}$

## Graph Colorings

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## Definition

A coloring of a graph is an assignment of colors from a finite set $\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{r}\right\}$ to the edges of the graph.

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Figure: A 2-colored graph

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We will be interested in colorings which avoid monochromatic subgraphs.

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A coloring of a graph is an assignment of colors from a finite set $\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{r}\right\}$ to the edges of the graph.


Figure: A 2-colored graph

We will be interested in colorings which avoid monochromatic subgraphs. This has no red triangle and no blue triangle, but last edge will force a monochromatic triangle.

## Pigeonhole Principle

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## Proposition (Pigeonhole Principle)

(1) If you are placing $n+1$ pigeons into $n$ holes, then some hole will end up containing at least two pigeons.

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If you have $2 n-1$ people at a party then at least $n$ are of the same gender.

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The notion of placing pigeons into 2 holes is exactly the same as 2-coloring the pigeons.

## Ramsey Theory

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Ramsey Theory generalizes the Pigeonhole Principle：

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Ramsey Theory generalizes the Pigeonhole Principle:

What is the minimum number of guests that must be invited so that at least $n$ will know each other?

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What is the minimum number of guests that must be invited so that at least $n$ will know each other?

## Definition

$R(n)$ is the smallest integer $m$ such that in any 2-coloring of $K_{m}$ there is a monochromatic $K_{n}$.

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$R(1)=1$ and $R(2)=2:$ an edge is a monochromatic edge.

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$R(1)=1$ and $R(2)=2$ : an edge is a monochromatic edge.
Generally: what is the smallest model guaranteed to contain the submodel I desire?

## Theorem on Friends and Strangers

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Theorem (Theorem on Friends and Strangers)
At any party with at least six people either three pairwise know each other or three are pairwise strangers.

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## Proof.

Here is a 2-coloring of $K_{5}$ with no monochromatic triangle.

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- Is the 3rd
Ramsey
number 5?

Figure: $R(3) \geq 6$

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- Is the 3rd Ramsey number 5?


No

- Is the 3rd Ramsey number 6?


Yes

Figure: $R(3) \leq 6$

## Proof.

A vertex has 5 edges touching it, so three of them are the same color, say green.

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\text { Figure: } R(3) \leq 6
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## Proof.

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Consider the three vertices those edges connect to.

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## Proof.

A vertex has 5 edges touching it, so three of them are the same color, say green.
Consider the three vertices those edges connect to. If any edge is green then we have a green triangle. So all of these edges must be red, giving a red triangle.

## Known and Unknown Ramsey Numbers

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$$
R(3)=6
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## Known and Unknown Ramsey Numbers

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$$
R(3)=6 . \quad R(4)=18
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## Known and Unknown Ramsey Numbers

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$R(3)=6 . \quad R(4)=18$. To show $R(4)>17$ :

## Known and Unknown Ramsey Numbers

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$R(3)=6 . R(4)=18$. To show $R(4)>17$ :

Find a 2-coloring of a $K_{17}$ without mono $K_{4}$.

## Known and Unknown Ramsey Numbers

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R(3)=6 . \quad R(4)=18 \text {. To show } R(4)>17 \text { : }
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Find a 2-coloring of a $K_{17}$ without mono $K_{4}$. Try coloring $(i, j)$ red if $i-j$ is a square modulo 17 and blue otherwise.

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$K_{4} \leq 18$ : Any 2-coloring of $K_{18}$ has a mono $K_{4}$.
$43 \leq R(5) \leq 49$ and $102 \leq R(6) \leq 165$ best bounds.

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There are $\binom{43}{2}$ edges and each has two choices,

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There are $\binom{43}{2}$ edges and each has two choices, so number of colorings is $2\binom{43}{2}$

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There are $\binom{43}{2}$ edges and each has two choices, so number of colorings is $2\binom{(43}{2} \approx 2^{1000}$.

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To prove $R(5) \neq 43$ need to consider all 2-colorings of $K_{43}$.
There are $\binom{43}{2}$ edges and each has two choices, so number of colorings is $2\binom{43}{2} \approx 2^{1000}$. This is a HARD problem.

## Lower Bound on $R(n)$

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## Proposition

$(n-1)^{2}<R(n)$

## Lower Bound on $R(n)$

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## Proposition

$(n-1)^{2}<R(n)$
Need to show there exists a coloring of $K_{(n-1)^{2}}$ without a monochromatic $K_{n}$. Have $4<R(3)$ and $9<R(4)$.

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Partition $K_{(n-1)^{2}}$ into $n-1$ disjoint red $K_{n-1}$ 's.

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Partition $K_{(n-1)^{2}}$ into $n-1$ disjoint red $K_{n-1}$ 's. Color all remaining edges blue. Clearly no red $K_{n}$. A blue $K_{n}$ would have $n$ vertices in $n-1$ groups so it needs 2 vertices in the same red group (Pigeonhole Principle),

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Constructive methods like this can give polynomial lower bounds of any fixed degree, but nothing reaching $c^{n}$.

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$R(n) \leq 4^{n}$

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$R(n) \leq 4^{n}$
Need to show that in ANY 2-coloring of $K_{4^{n}}$ there is a monochromatic $K_{n}$.

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This requires a proof, not an example.

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This requires a proof, not an example. There are MUCH better bounds and they use sophisticated mathematics.

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There are automated theorem provers, but Ramsey Theory proofs need tricks not logic.

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Need to show that in ANY 2-coloring of $K_{4^{n}}$ there is a monochromatic $K_{n}$.

This requires a proof, not an example. There are MUCH better bounds and they use sophisticated mathematics.

There are automated theorem provers, but Ramsey Theory proofs need tricks not logic. Computer science will likely not give better upper bounds than mathematics.

## Upper Bound on $R(n)$

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## Proposition

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Need to show that in ANY 2-coloring of $K_{4^{n}}$ there is a monochromatic $K_{n}$.

This requires a proof, not an example. There are MUCH better bounds and they use sophisticated mathematics.

There are automated theorem provers, but Ramsey Theory proofs need tricks not logic. Computer science will likely not give better upper bounds than mathematics.

We will focus on constructing lower bound examples.

## Generalizing Ramsey numbers

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## Definition (Off-Diagonal Ramsey Numbers)

$R(s, t)=$ minimal $m$ such that for any 2 -coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$

## Generalizing Ramsey numbers

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## Definition (Off-Diagonal Ramsey Numbers)

$R(s, t)=$ minimal $m$ such that for any 2 -coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ there is a red $K_{s}$ or a blue $K_{t}$.

## Generalizing Ramsey numbers

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## Definition (Off-Diagonal Ramsey Numbers)

$R(s, t)=$ minimal $m$ such that for any 2 -coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ there is a red $K_{s}$ or a blue $K_{t} . R(n)=R(n, n)$

## Generalizing Ramsey numbers

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## Definition (Off-Diagonal Ramsey Numbers)

$R(s, t)=$ minimal $m$ such that for any 2 -coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ there is a red $K_{s}$ or a blue $K_{t} . R(n)=R(n, n)$
$R(2, s)=s$ for all $s \geq 2:$

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## Generalizing Ramsey numbers

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## Definition (Off-Diagonal Ramsey Numbers)

$R(s, t)=$ minimal $m$ such that for any 2-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ there is a red $K_{s}$ or a blue $K_{t} . R(n)=R(n, n)$
$R(2, s)=s$ for all $s \geq 2$ : either blue $K_{s}$ or red edge $R(3,4) \leq 9:$ any $K_{9}$ has red $K_{3}$ or blue $K_{4}$.

## Generalizing Ramsey numbers

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## Definition (Off-Diagonal Ramsey Numbers)

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$R(2, s)=s$ for all $s \geq 2$ : either blue $K_{s}$ or red edge
$R(3,4) \leq 9$ : any $K_{9}$ has red $K_{3}$ or blue $K_{4} . R(3,4)>8$ :


## A Useful Proposition

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## Proposition

$R(s, t) \leq R(s-1, t)+R(s, t-1)$,

## A Useful Proposition

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## Proposition

$R(s, t) \leq R(s-1, t)+R(s, t-1)$, so Ramsey numbers exist

## A Useful Proposition

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## Proposition

$$
R(s, t) \leq R(s-1, t)+R(s, t-1), \text { so Ramsey numbers exist }
$$

$$
R(s, t)=R(t, s) .
$$

## A Useful Proposition

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## Proposition

$R(s, t) \leq R(s-1, t)+R(s, t-1)$, so Ramsey numbers exist

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R(s, t)=R(t, s) . n_{1}=R(s-1, t), n_{2}=R(s, t-1), \\
& n=n_{1}+n_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## A Useful Proposition

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## Proposition

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$R(s, t)=R(t, s) . n_{1}=R(s-1, t), n_{2}=R(s, t-1)$, $n=n_{1}+n_{2}$. Any vertex $x$ in any 2 -coloring of $K_{n}$ has degree $n-1=n_{1}+n_{2}-1$.

## A Useful Proposition

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## A Useful Proposition

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## A Useful Proposition

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Red neighbors form a $K_{n_{1}}$, so this graph either has blue $K_{t}$ or red $K_{s-1}$.

## A Useful Proposition

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Red neighbors form a $K_{n_{1}}$, so this graph either has blue $K_{t}$ or red $K_{s-1}$. With $x$ this makes a red $K_{s}$.

## A Useful Proposition

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Red neighbors form a $K_{n_{1}}$, so this graph either has blue $K_{t}$ or red $K_{s-1}$. With $x$ this makes a red $K_{s}$. 2nd case similar.

## A Useful Proposition

## Applying

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## Proposition

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$$
R(4,4) \leq R(3,4)+R(4,3)=9+9=18 . \text { Sharp }
$$

## A Useful Proposition

## Applying

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## Proposition

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$$
\begin{aligned}
& R(4,4) \leq R(3,4)+R(4,3)=9+9=18 . \text { Sharp } \\
& R(3,5) \leq R(2,5)+R(3,4)=5+9=14 . \text { Sharp }
\end{aligned}
$$

## A Useful Proposition

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## Proposition

$R(s, t) \leq R(s-1, t)+R(s, t-1)$, so Ramsey numbers exist
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$R(4,4) \leq R(3,4)+R(4,3)=9+9=18$. Sharp
$R(3,5) \leq R(2,5)+R(3,4)=5+9=14$. Sharp
$R(3,4) \leq R(3,3)+R(2,4)=10$.

## A Useful Proposition

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## Proposition

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$R(3,4) \leq R(3,3)+R(2,4)=10$. NOT sharp!

## Generalizing Ramsey numbers

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## Theorem (Ramsey's Theorem)

Given integers $n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}$ there is a number $m=R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right)$ such that for any $r$-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$

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Induction proof:
$R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right) \leq R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r-2}, R\left(n_{r-1}, n_{r}\right)\right)$

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$R(3,3,3)=17$.

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Induction proof:
$R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right) \leq R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r-2}, R\left(n_{r-1}, n_{r}\right)\right)$
$R(3,3,3)=17$. Only non-trivial $R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right)$ known.

## Generalizing Ramsey numbers

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$R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right) \leq R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r-2}, R\left(n_{r-1}, n_{r}\right)\right)$
$R(3,3,3)=17$. Only non-trivial $R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right)$ known.
$R(s, t, 2)=R(s, t)$ because need to avoid green edge.

## Generalizing Ramsey numbers

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Induction proof:
$R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right) \leq R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r-2}, R\left(n_{r-1}, n_{r}\right)\right)$
$R(3,3,3)=17$. Only non-trivial $R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right)$ known.
$R(s, t, 2)=R(s, t)$ because need to avoid green edge.
$30 \leq R(3,3,4) \leq 31$ is next closest to being finished

## Generalizing Ramsey numbers

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## Theorem (Ramsey's Theorem)

Given integers $n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}$ there is a number $m=R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right)$ such that for any $r$-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ for some $i$ there is a $K_{n_{i}}$ monochromatic in color $i$.

Induction proof:
$R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right) \leq R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r-2}, R\left(n_{r-1}, n_{r}\right)\right)$
$R(3,3,3)=17$. Only non-trivial $R\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r}\right)$ known.
$R(s, t, 2)=R(s, t)$ because need to avoid green edge.
$30 \leq R(3,3,4) \leq 31$ is next closest to being finished
$55 \leq R(3,4,4) \leq 79$

## One further generalization

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Theory

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## Definition

$R\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{r}\right)$ is the smallest $m$ such that for any $r$-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$

## One further generalization

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## Definition

$R\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{r}\right)$ is the smallest $m$ such that for any $r$-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ for some $i$ there is a monochromatic $G_{i}$ in color $i$.

## One further generalization

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Theory

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## Definition

$R\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{r}\right)$ is the smallest $m$ such that for any r-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ for some $i$ there is a monochromatic $G_{i}$ in color $i$.

$$
R\left(K_{3}, K_{3}\right)=R(3)=6
$$

## One further generalization

Applying Genetic Algorithms to Ramsey
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## Definition

$R\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{r}\right)$ is the smallest $m$ such that for any $r$-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ for some $i$ there is a monochromatic $G_{i}$ in color $i$.

$$
R\left(K_{3}, K_{3}\right)=R(3)=6 \text { and } R\left(K_{3}, K_{4}\right)=R(3,4)=9
$$

## One further generalization

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## Definition

$R\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{r}\right)$ is the smallest $m$ such that for any $r$-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ for some $i$ there is a monochromatic $G_{i}$ in color $i$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R\left(K_{3}, K_{3}\right)=R(3)=6 \text { and } R\left(K_{3}, K_{4}\right)=R(3,4)=9 \\
& R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}, C_{4}\right)=11,
\end{aligned}
$$

## One further generalization

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## Definition

$R\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{r}\right)$ is the smallest $m$ such that for any $r$-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ for some $i$ there is a monochromatic $G_{i}$ in color $i$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R\left(K_{3}, K_{3}\right)=R(3)=6 \text { and } R\left(K_{3}, K_{4}\right)=R(3,4)=9 \\
& R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}, C_{4}\right)=11, R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}, K_{3}\right)=12,
\end{aligned}
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## One further generalization

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## Definition

$R\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{r}\right)$ is the smallest $m$ such that for any r-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ for some $i$ there is a monochromatic $G_{i}$ in color $i$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R\left(K_{3}, K_{3}\right)=R(3)=6 \text { and } R\left(K_{3}, K_{4}\right)=R(3,4)=9 \\
& R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}, C_{4}\right)=11, R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}, K_{3}\right)=12, R\left(C_{5}, C_{5}, C_{5}\right)=17
\end{aligned}
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## One further generalization

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## Definition

$R\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{r}\right)$ is the smallest $m$ such that for any $r$-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ for some $i$ there is a monochromatic $G_{i}$ in color $i$.

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& R\left(K_{3}, K_{3}\right)=R(3)=6 \text { and } R\left(K_{3}, K_{4}\right)=R(3,4)=9 \\
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\end{aligned}
$$

Our $K_{8}$ coloring had a yellow $C_{4}$.

## One further generalization

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## Definition

$R\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{r}\right)$ is the smallest $m$ such that for any $r$-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ for some $i$ there is a monochromatic $G_{i}$ in color $i$.

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& R\left(K_{3}, K_{3}\right)=R(3)=6 \text { and } R\left(K_{3}, K_{4}\right)=R(3,4)=9 \\
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Our $K_{8}$ coloring had a yellow $C_{4}$.
$R(G, H) \geq(\chi(G)-1)(c(H)-1)+1$ for $\chi=$ chromatic number, $c=$ size of largest connected component

## One further generalization

Applying

## Definition

$R\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{r}\right)$ is the smallest $m$ such that for any $r$-coloring of the edges of $K_{m}$ for some $i$ there is a monochromatic $G_{i}$ in color $i$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R\left(K_{3}, K_{3}\right)=R(3)=6 \text { and } R\left(K_{3}, K_{4}\right)=R(3,4)=9 \\
& R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}, C_{4}\right)=11, R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}, K_{3}\right)=12, R\left(C_{5}, C_{5}, C_{5}\right)=17
\end{aligned}
$$

Our $K_{8}$ coloring had a yellow $C_{4}$.
$R(G, H) \geq(\chi(G)-1)(c(H)-1)+1$ for $\chi=$ chromatic number, $c=$ size of largest connected component

$$
R\left(T_{m}, K_{n}\right)=(m-1)(n-1)+1 \text { for any tree } T_{m}
$$

## Examples

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Early $K_{5}$ coloring shows $R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}\right)>5$.

## Examples

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Early $K_{5}$ coloring shows $R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}\right)>5 . R\left(K_{3}, C_{4}\right)>6$ :

## Examples

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Early $K_{5}$ coloring shows $R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}\right)>5 . R\left(K_{3}, C_{4}\right)>6$ :


## Examples

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Early $K_{5}$ coloring shows $R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}\right)>5 . R\left(K_{3}, C_{4}\right)>6$ :

$\left[\begin{array}{llllll} & y & y & b & b & b \\ y & & y & b & b & b \\ y & y & & b & b & b \\ b & b & b & & y & y \\ b & b & b & y & & y \\ b & b & b & y & y & \end{array}\right]$

## EC Encoding

Applying
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to Ramsey
Theory
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The adjacency matrix is symmetric,

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The adjacency matrix is symmetric, so we only need to store lower triangle

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The adjacency matrix is symmetric, so we only need to store lower triangle and can use a single dimensional array.

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For this permutation encoding we need an order-based GA.

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- Partially matched cross-over


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- Partially matched cross-over
- Order cross-over
- Cycle cross-over


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For this permutation encoding we need an order-based GA.
Rao experimented with three crossovers:

- Partially matched cross-over
- Order cross-over
- Cycle cross-over

A lookup table is used to get values of $i$ and $j$ from given edge $e=(i, j)$.

## Cycle Cross-over

Applying
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to Ramsey
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White Wesleyan University

Insists $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$ or $c[i]=p_{2}[i]$ for all $i$.

## Cycle Cross-over

Applying Genetic Algorithms to Ramsey

Theory
David
White Wesleyan University

Insists $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$ or $c[i]=p_{2}[i]$ for all $i$.
Put $c[1]=p_{1}[1]$.

## Cycle Cross-over

Applying Genetic Algorithms to Ramsey

Theory
David
White Wesleyan University

Insists $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$ or $c[i]=p_{2}[i]$ for all $i$.
Put $c[1]=p_{1}[1]$. Find where $p_{2}[1]$ appears in $p_{1}$.

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Theory

David
White Wesleyan University

Insists $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$ or $c[i]=p_{2}[i]$ for all $i$.
Put $c[1]=p_{1}[1]$. Find where $p_{2}[1]$ appears in $p_{1}$. Call this place $i$ and put $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$.

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Put $c[1]=p_{1}[1]$. Find where $p_{2}[1]$ appears in $p_{1}$. Call this place $i$ and put $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$. Find where $p_{2}[i]$ appears in $p_{1}$. Call this place $j$ and put $c[j]=p_{1}[j]$.

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Example: $p_{1}=(23564178)$ and $p_{2}(14236587)$

## Cycle Cross-over

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Insists $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$ or $c[i]=p_{2}[i]$ for all $i$.
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Example: $p_{1}=(23564178)$ and $p_{2}(14236587)$ $c=(2 x x x x 1 x x)$

## Cycle Cross-over

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Example: $p_{1}=(23564178)$ and $p_{2}(14236587)$ $c=(2 x x x x 1 x x)=(2 x 5 x x 1 x x)$

## Cycle Cross-over

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Insists $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$ or $c[i]=p_{2}[i]$ for all $i$.
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Example: $p_{1}=(23564178)$ and $p_{2}(14236587)$ $c=(2 x x x x 1 x x)=(2 x 5 x x 1 x x)$ and $p_{1}[3]=5 \Rightarrow p_{2}[3]=2=p_{1}[1]$, giving a cycle:

## Cycle Cross-over

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Insists $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$ or $c[i]=p_{2}[i]$ for all $i$.
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Example: $p_{1}=(23564178)$ and $p_{2}(14236587)$
$c=(2 x x x x 1 x x)=(2 x 5 x x 1 x x)$ and $p_{1}[3]=5 \Rightarrow p_{2}[3]=2=p_{1}[1]$, giving a cycle:
$c=(24536178)$
Example: $p_{1}=(123456789)$ and $p_{2}=(412876935)$

## Cycle Cross-over

Applying Genetic Algorithms to Ramsey

Theory
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Insists $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$ or $c[i]=p_{2}[i]$ for all $i$.
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Example: $p_{1}=(23564178)$ and $p_{2}(14236587)$
$c=(2 x x x x 1 x x)=(2 x 5 x x 1 x x)$ and $p_{1}[3]=5 \Rightarrow p_{2}[3]=2=p_{1}[1]$, giving a cycle:
$c=(24536178)$
Example: $p_{1}=(123456789)$ and $p_{2}=(412876935)$ $c=(1 x x 4 x x x x x)$

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Example: $p_{1}=(23564178)$ and $p_{2}(14236587)$
$c=(2 x x x x 1 x x)=(2 x 5 x x 1 x x)$ and $p_{1}[3]=5 \Rightarrow p_{2}[3]=2=p_{1}[1]$, giving a cycle:
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Example: $p_{1}=(123456789)$ and $p_{2}=(412876935)$
$c=(1 x x 4 x x x x x)=(1 x 34 x x x 8 x)$

## Cycle Cross-over

Applying Genetic Algorithms to Ramsey

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Insists $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$ or $c[i]=p_{2}[i]$ for all $i$.
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Example: $p_{1}=(23564178)$ and $p_{2}(14236587)$
$c=(2 x x x x 1 x x)=(2 x 5 x x 1 x x)$ and $p_{1}[3]=5 \Rightarrow p_{2}[3]=2=p_{1}[1]$, giving a cycle: $c=(24536178)$

Example: $p_{1}=(123456789)$ and $p_{2}=(412876935)$
$c=(1 x x 4 x x x x x)=(1 x 34 x x x 8 x)$
$=(1234 x x x 8 x)$

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Insists $c[i]=p_{1}[i]$ or $c[i]=p_{2}[i]$ for all $i$.
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Example: $p_{1}=(23564178)$ and $p_{2}(14236587)$
$c=(2 x x x x 1 x x)=(2 x 5 x x 1 x x)$ and $p_{1}[3]=5 \Rightarrow p_{2}[3]=2=p_{1}[1]$, giving a cycle:
$c=(24536178)$
Example: $p_{1}=(123456789)$ and $p_{2}=(412876935)$
$c=(1 x x 4 x x x x x)=(1 x 34 x x x 8 x)$
$=(1234 x x x 8 x)$ and $p_{1}[2]=2 \Rightarrow p_{2}[2]=1=p_{1}[1]$,
giving a cycle:

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Example: $p_{1}=(23564178)$ and $p_{2}(14236587)$
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Example: $p_{1}=(123456789)$ and $p_{2}=(412876935)$
$c=(1 x x 4 x x x x x)=(1 x 34 x x x 8 x)$
$=(1234 x x x 8 x)$ and $p_{1}[2]=2 \Rightarrow p_{2}[2]=1=p_{1}[1]$,
giving a cycle: $c=(123476985)$

## Selection and Mutation

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Tournament Selection:

## Selection and Mutation

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Tournament Selection: run two tournaments and record winners and losers.

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Tournament Selection: run two tournaments and record winners and losers. Tournament is filled randomly and all individuals are compared to get best and worst.

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Tournament Selection: run two tournaments and record winners and losers. Tournament is filled randomly and all individuals are compared to get best and worst.

Children of winners replace the losers.

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Tournament Selection: run two tournaments and record winners and losers. Tournament is filled randomly and all individuals are compared to get best and worst.

Children of winners replace the losers. Each generation only replaces the worst pair (steady state).

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Pros: slow convergence,

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Tournament Selection: run two tournaments and record winners and losers. Tournament is filled randomly and all individuals are compared to get best and worst.

Children of winners replace the losers. Each generation only replaces the worst pair (steady state).

Pros: slow convergence, cheap to evaluate new fitness.

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Tournament Selection: run two tournaments and record winners and losers. Tournament is filled randomly and all individuals are compared to get best and worst.

Children of winners replace the losers. Each generation only replaces the worst pair (steady state).

Pros: slow convergence, cheap to evaluate new fitness. Cons: very little exploration,

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Tournament Selection: run two tournaments and record winners and losers. Tournament is filled randomly and all individuals are compared to get best and worst.

Children of winners replace the losers. Each generation only replaces the worst pair (steady state).

Pros: slow convergence, cheap to evaluate new fitness. Cons: very little exploration, VERY slow convergence,

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Children of winners replace the losers. Each generation only replaces the worst pair (steady state).

Pros: slow convergence, cheap to evaluate new fitness. Cons: very little exploration, VERY slow convergence, new parameter of tournament size

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Mutation is not explicitly described in the thesis.

## Selection and Mutation

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Mutation is not explicitly described in the thesis. We can assume it makes a small random change, say swapping an edge color.

## Selection and Mutation

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Children of winners replace the losers. Each generation only replaces the worst pair (steady state).

Pros: slow convergence, cheap to evaluate new fitness. Cons: very little exploration, VERY slow convergence, new parameter of tournament size

Mutation is not explicitly described in the thesis. We can assume it makes a small random change, say swapping an edge color. Changing the order doesn't matter.

## Selection Code

## Applying

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## Selection Code

Applying
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to Ramsey
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best_fitness $=-9999$
worst_fitness $=9999$

## Selection Code

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best_fitness $=-9999$
worst_fitness $=9999$
for $i=0$ to tournament_size- 1 do get a random $j$ (no repeats allowed)

## Selection Code

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University
best_fitness $=-9999$
worst_fitness $=9999$
for $i=0$ to tournament_size- 1 do get a random $j$ (no repeats allowed) if fitness[j] > best_fitness then best_fitness $=$ fitness [j] winner $=\mathrm{j}$ endif

## Selection Code

Applying
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Theory
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White
Wesleyan University

```
best_fitness = -9999
worst_fitness = 9999
for i=0 to tournament_size-1 do
    get a random j (no repeats allowed)
    if fitness[j] > best_fitness then
            best_fitness = fitness[j]
            winner = j endif
    if fitness[j] < worst_fitness then
        worst_fitness = fitness[j]
        loser = j endif
end
```


## Selection Code

Applying
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```
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```

Note the random filling of the tournament.

## Selection Code

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```
best_fitness = -9999
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            winner = j endif
    if fitness[j] < worst_fitness then
            worst_fitness = fitness[j]
            loser = j endif
end
```

Note the random filling of the tournament. Might be better to bias this towards getting some of the highest and some of the lowest fitness individuals.

## Fitness Function

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White Wesleyan University

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## Fitness Function

Applying Genetic Algorithms to Ramsey

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You could improve on Rao by making a smarter fitness function. His does not take into account how badly a graph fails, and it only has the -1 rather than something more sophisticated.

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Checking for other $G_{a}$ is similar and easy.

## Implementation

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## Statistics

Applying
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There are five parameters that affect performance:

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Rao matched known bounds for $R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}, C_{4}\right)$, $R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}, K_{3}\right), R\left(C_{4}, K_{3}, K_{3}\right)$, and $R\left(C_{5}, C_{5}, C_{5}\right)$.

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He found new bounds on never before investigated numbers: $R\left(C_{4}, C_{4}, K_{3}, K_{3}\right) \geq 25$ and $R\left(C_{5}, C_{4}, K_{3}\right) \geq 13$.

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He found numerous different colorings to prove these, but one coloring suffices for a proof.

## How to improve on this

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- Ask about Ramsey numbers of directed graphs or hypergraphs.


## Is there any hope?

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Will EAs be able to make progress on finding lower bounds for Ramsey numbers?

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No one has attacked Ramsey theory using EAs in even a remotely clever way. Plenty of room for improvement. We finish with some ideas for how to do this.

## Other attacks

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Geoffrey Exoo (1998) used simulated annealing.

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Geoffrey Exoo (1998) used simulated annealing. Went from random search to Tabu search. The annealing was very fast, and he didn't play with that parameter, so there is room for improvement. But he improved bounds on $R(5, t)$ for $9 \leq t \leq 15$

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Use a hierarchical GA: solve smaller instances of the problem and then combine solutions. If $R\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)=n$ avoid an uncolored $K_{n}$ when you have only 2 colors left.

## References

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Images from:
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(2) Wolfram: www.mathworld.wolfram.com
(3) Mathematica Player 7 program: 'GraphsAndTheirComplements'
(1) Professor Tibor Szabó: http://www.ti.inf.ethz.ch/ew/teaching/tspz-01.html

