

# Multicolor, multipartite Ramsey numbers for quadrilaterals

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## Abstract

The  $p$ -partite Ramsey number for a quadrilateral, denoted by  $r_p(C_4, k)$ , is the least positive integer  $n$  such that any coloring of the edges of a complete  $p$ -partite graph with  $n$  vertices in each partition with  $k$  colors will result in a monochromatic copy of  $C_4$ . In this paper, we present an upper bound for  $r_p(C_4, k)$  and the exact values of  $r_p(C_4, 2)$  for all  $p \geq 2$ . In the tripartite case we show that  $r_3(C_4, k) \leq \lfloor (k+1)^2/2 \rfloor - 1$ , and the exact value of the 4-color tripartite Ramsey number,  $r_3(C_4, 4) = 11$ .

## 1 Introduction

In this paper all graphs considered are undirected, finite and contain neither loops nor multiple edges. Let  $G$  be such a graph. The vertex set of  $G$  is denoted by  $V(G)$ , the edge set of  $G$  by  $E(G)$ , and the number of edges in  $G$  by  $e(G)$ . Let  $\deg(v)$  be the degree of vertex  $v$  and  $\deg_i(v)$  denote the number of the edges incident to  $v$  colored with color  $i$ . The open neighborhood in color  $i$  of vertex  $v$  is  $N_i(v) = \{u \in V(G) \mid \{u, v\} \in E(G) \text{ and } \{u, v\} \text{ is colored with color } i\}$ . For vertex  $v \in V(G)$  and  $U \subset V(G)$ , let  $\deg_i(v, U)$  be the number of edges in color  $i$  between  $v$  and vertices from  $U$ . Define  $G[S]$  to be the subgraph of  $G$  induced by a set of vertices  $S \subset V(G)$

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and  $G^i$  to be the graph containing the edges of  $G$  in color  $i$ . Let  $C_n$  be the cycle on  $n$  vertices,  $K_n$  be the complete graph on  $n$  vertices, and  $K_n^p$  be the complete  $p$ -partite graph with every partition of size  $n$ .

For a given graph  $G$  and integer  $k \geq 2$ , the *multicolor Ramsey number*  $R_k(G)$  is the smallest integer  $n$  such that if we arbitrarily color with  $k$  colors the edges of the complete graph  $K_n$ , then it contains a monochromatic copy of  $G$  in one of the colors. In this paper we consider the Ramsey number for the quadrilateral ( $G = C_4$ ). In 1972 Chvátal and Harary [4] determined  $R_2(C_4) = 6$ . Bialostocki and Schönheim [2] proved that  $R_3(C_4) = 11$ . A lower bound for  $R_4(C_4)$  of 18 was determined by Exoo [7] and an upper bound by Sun Yongqi et al. [14]. Lazebnik and Woldar [11] showed that the best known bounds for the 5-color Ramsey number for a quadrilateral are  $27 \leq R_5(C_4) \leq 29$ . More bounds and general results for Ramsey numbers can be found in the regularly updated survey by Radziszowski [12].

The  *$p$ -partite Ramsey number* for the quadrilateral, denoted by  $r_p(C_4, k)$ , is the least positive integer  $n$  such that any coloring of the edges of  $K_n^p$  with  $k$  colors will result in a monochromatic copy of  $C_4$  in one of the colors.

The study of bipartite Ramsey numbers ( $p = 2$ ) was initiated by Beineke and Schwenk in 1976, and was continued by others, in particular, Exoo [6], Hattingh and Henning [9], Goddard, Henning, and Oellermann [8], and Lazebnik and Mubayi [10]. The exact values of  $r_2(C_4, k)$  are known for  $k \leq 4$ . Beineke and Schwenk [1] proved that  $r_2(C_4, 2) = 5$ , Exoo [6] found the value  $r_2(C_4, 3) = 11$  and, independently, Steinbach and Posthoff [13] and Dybizbański, Dzido and Radziszowski [5] showed that  $r_2(C_4, 4) = 19$ . We also know that for every integer  $k \geq 5$ , we have  $k^2 + 1 \leq r_2(C_4, k) \leq k^2 + k - 2$  (see [5]).

In the tripartite case ( $p = 3$ ), exact values of Ramsey numbers  $r_3(C_4, k)$  are known for  $k \leq 3$ . In 2014, Buada, Samana and Longani [3] proved that  $r_3(C_4, 3) = 7$ . In the same paper one can find a proof that  $r_3(C_4, 2) = 3$ .

In this paper we show an upper bound for  $r_p(C_4, k)$  (Theorem 2.2), and exact values of  $r_p(C_4, 2)$  for all  $p \geq 2$  (Theorem 3.2). In the tripartite case we show that  $r_3(C_4, k) \leq \lfloor (k + 1)^2/2 \rfloor - 1$  (Theorem 4.1) and we determine the exact value of the 4-color tripartite Ramsey number:  $r_3(C_4, 4) = 11$  (Theorem 4.2).

## 2 Upper bound

The well-known version of the Cauchy-Schwarz theorem says that if  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  is a sequence of non-negative real numbers and  $M = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \geq M^2/n$ . Moreover,  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 = M^2/n$  if and only if  $a_i = M/n$  for every  $i$ . We will use another (integer) version of this theorem.

**Theorem 2.1.** *Let  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  be a sequence of non-negative integers and  $M = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$ . Then*

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \binom{a_i}{2} \geq r \binom{a+1}{2} + (M-r) \binom{a}{2},$$

where  $a$  and  $r$  are integers such that  $M = an + r$  and  $0 \leq r < n$ . Moreover, the minimum is reachable if and only if  $|a_i - a_j| \leq 1$  for every  $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ .

Note that:

- (1)  $\sum_{i=1}^n \binom{a_i}{2}$  has the minimum value if and only if  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2$  has the minimum value.
- (2) If  $a_j - a_i > 1$  for some  $i \neq j$  then setting  $a'_j = a_j - 1$  and  $a'_i = a_i + 1$  we obtain a sequence with smaller  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2$ .

**Theorem 2.2.** Let  $p, k \geq 2$  and  $n \geq 1$  be integers,  $w = \left\lceil \frac{2 \lceil n^2 p(p-1)/2k \rceil}{p} \right\rceil$ , and  $a$  and  $r$  be integers such that  $w = a(p-1)n + r$  and  $0 \leq r < (p-1)n$ . If

$$r \binom{a+1}{2} + ((p-1)n - r) \binom{a}{2} > \binom{n}{2} \tag{1}$$

then  $r_p(C_4, k) \leq n$ .

*Proof.* Let  $G = (V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_p, E)$  be a  $p$ -partite graph of order  $pn$ . For every  $1 \leq i \leq p$ ,  $V_i$  is an independent set and  $|V_i| = n$ . By the pigeonhole principle, there exists  $i$  ( $1 \leq i \leq p$ ), such that

$$\sum_{v \in V_i} \deg(v) \geq \left\lceil \frac{2|E|}{p} \right\rceil. \tag{2}$$

The complete  $p$ -partite graph  $K_n^p$  has  $n^2 p(p-1)/2$  edges, and in every  $k$ -edge-coloring there exists a color, say  $b$  (blue), containing at least

$$\left\lceil \frac{n^2 p(p-1)}{2k} \right\rceil$$

edges.

Moreover, by (2), there exists a partition  $j$ , say  $j = 1$ , such that

$$\sum_{v \in V_1} \deg_b(v) \geq \left\lceil \frac{2 \lceil n^2 p(p-1)/2k \rceil}{p} \right\rceil = w.$$

Let  $U = V \setminus V_1 = \cup_{l=2}^p V_l = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{(p-1)n}\}$ . For every  $i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq (p-1)n$ ,  $N_b(u_i) \cap V_1$  is the vertex set of blue neighbors of  $u_i$  in  $V_1$ . Denote by  $a_i = |N_b(u_i) \cap V_1| = \deg_b(u_i, V_1)$ . Vertex  $u_i$  has  $a_i$  blue neighbors in  $V_1$  and  $\binom{a_i}{2}$  pairs of blue neighbors in  $V_1$ . If  $\sum_{i=1}^{(p-1)n} \binom{a_i}{2} > \binom{n}{2}$  then, by the pigeonhole principle, there exists two vertices  $u_i$  and  $u_j$  with a common pair of blue neighbors, say  $y_1, y_2$  in  $V_1$ , and there is blue cycle  $(u_i, y_1, u_j, y_2)$  in the graph. Since  $\sum_{i=1}^{(p-1)n} a_i = \sum_{u \in U} \deg_b(u, V_1) = \sum_{v \in V_1} \deg_b(v) \geq w$ , by Theorem 2.1,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{(p-1)n} \binom{a_i}{2} \geq r \binom{a+1}{2} + (a(p-1)n) \binom{a}{2}$$

$$\geq r \binom{a+1}{2} + ((p-1)n - r) \binom{a}{2}.$$

Thus, if  $r \binom{a+1}{2} + ((p-1)n - r) \binom{a}{2} > \binom{n}{2}$  then every  $k$ -edge-coloring of  $K_n^p$  contains a monochromatic cycle  $C_4$ .  $\square$

For every  $p, k \geq 2$  inequality (1) is satisfied if  $n$  is big enough (for example,  $n = k^2$  for  $p \geq 3$ ). For  $p = 3$  and  $k = 4$ ,  $n = 11$  is the smallest integer satisfying (1), so  $r_3(C_4, 4) \leq 11$ . In a similar way we can bound other numbers. Table 1 presents examples of upper bounds for  $k$ -colored,  $p$ -partite Ramsey numbers  $r_p(C_4, k)$ , which can be obtained from Theorem 2.2 (for  $2 \leq p \leq 6$  and  $2 \leq k \leq 10$ ). In the bipartite case, we obtain results that are equal to the exact value for  $k \leq 4$  and one worse than the best known bound ( $k^2 + k + 1$ , [5]) for  $k \geq 5$ .

$k \setminus p$	bipartite	tripartite	4-partite	5-partite	6-partite
2 colors	<b>5</b>	<b>3</b>	3	3	3
3	<b>11</b>	<b>7</b>	5	4	4
4	<b>19</b>	<b>11</b>	9	7	6
5	29	17	12	11	9
6	41	23	17	14	13
7	55	31	23	18	16
8	71	39	28	23	20
9	89	49	35	29	24
10	109	59	43	34	29

Table 1: Upper bounds for  $r_p(C_4, k)$

### 3 Two-color multipartite Ramsey numbers

**Lemma 3.1.** *For positive integer  $p$ ,*

$$p \geq R_k(C_4) \text{ if and only if } r_p(C_4, k) = 1.$$

*Proof.* If  $p \geq R_k(C_4)$  then every  $k$ -edge-coloring of  $K_p = K_1^p$  contains a monochromatic  $C_4$  so  $r_p(C_4, k) = 1$ .

If  $1 \leq p < R_k(C_4)$ , then there exists a  $k$ -edge-coloring of  $K_1^p = K_p$  without a monochromatic  $C_4$ , so  $r_p(C_4, k) > 1$ .  $\square$

Since  $K_n^{p-1}$  is a subgraph of  $K_n^p$  and the latter is a subgraph of  $K_{n+1}^p$ , the following two monotonic properties hold:

- If  $k_1 > k_2$  then  $r_p(C_4, k_1) \geq r_p(C_4, k_2)$ .
- If  $p_1 > p_2$  then  $r_{p_1}(C_4, k) \leq r_{p_2}(C_4, k)$ .

**Theorem 3.2.** *Two-color multipartite Ramsey number for a quadrilateral are:*

$$r_p(C_4, 2) = \begin{cases} 5 & \text{for } p = 2, \\ 3 & \text{for } p = 3, \\ 2 & \text{for } p = 4 \text{ or } 5, \\ 1 & \text{for } p \geq 6. \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* Beineke and Schwenk in [1] showed that  $r_2(C_4, 2) = 5$ . Buada et al. [3] showed that  $r_3(C_4, 2) = 3$ . Since  $R_2(C_4) = 6$  [4], by Lemma 3.1 we have  $r_p(C_4, 2) = 1$ , for  $p \geq 6$ , and (by Lemma 3.1 and monotonicity)  $r_4(C_4, 2) \geq r_5(C_4, 2) > 1$ .

To finish the proof, we shall show that every 2-edge-coloring of  $K_2^4$  with partition sets  $X_1 = \{x_1, x_2\}$ ,  $X_2 = \{w_1, w_2\}$ ,  $X_3 = \{y_1, y_2\}$ , and  $X_4 = \{z_1, z_2\}$ , contains a monochromatic  $C_4$ . Consider any 2-edge-coloring of  $G = K_2^4 = (\{x_1, x_2, w_1, w_2, y_1, y_2, z_1, z_2\}, E(G))$ , say  $(G^r = (V(G), E_r), G^b = (V(G), E_b))$ , where

$$E_r \cup E_b = E(G) = \binom{V(G)}{2} \setminus \{\{x_1, x_2\}, \{w_1, w_2\}, \{y_1, y_2\}, \{z_1, z_2\}\}.$$

Now, we have the following claims:

**Claim 3.3.** *If there exists a vertex of  $V(G)$ , say  $x_1 \in X_1$ , and a color, say red, such that  $\deg_r(x) \geq 4$ , then the coloring contains a monochromatic  $C_4$ .*

*Proof.* Consider vertex  $x_2$ . Since we aim to avoid  $C_4$ , at least three edges from  $x_2$  to  $N_r(x_1)$  must be colored blue (denoted as color  $b$ ). Consider three vertices  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\} \subset N_r(x_1) \cap N_b(x_2)$ .

- If those vertices are in a different partition then consider the triangle  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ . Two of the edges of this triangle must have the same color. These two edges create a monochromatic  $C_4$  with  $x_1$  (if they are red) or  $x_2$  (if blue).
- Suppose that two of those vertices are in the same partition. Without loss of generality we can assume that  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\} = \{y_1, y_2, z_1\}$ . Consider vertex  $w_1$  and colors of the edges  $\{w_1, y_1\}$ ,  $\{w_1, y_2\}$  and  $\{w_1, z_1\}$ . Two of these edges must have the same color, creating a monochromatic  $C_4$  with  $x_1$  or  $x_2$ .  $\square$

In the sequel we assume that every vertex in each color has degree 3.

**Claim 3.4.** *If there exists a vertex of  $V(G)$ , say  $x_1 \in X_1$ , and a color say  $b$ , such that  $X_i \subseteq N_b(x_1)$  for one  $i \in \{2, 3, 4\}$ , then the coloring contains a monochromatic  $C_4$ .*

*Proof.* Without loss of generality let  $N_b(x_1) = \{w_1, w_2, y_1\}$ . Therefore  $N_r(x_1) = \{y_2, z_1, z_2\}$ . Now considering  $x_2$ , one can check that  $\{w_1, w_2\} \subseteq N_r(x_2)$  and  $\{z_1, z_2\} \subseteq N_b(x_2)$ . Otherwise, on the contrary assume that  $x_2z_1 \in E_r$  (for the other case the proof is the same). Hence as  $\deg_b(z_1) = \deg_r(z_1) = 3$ , and  $x_iz_1 \in E_r$ , one can say that  $x_1, z_1$  and two vertices from  $N_b(x_1) \cap N_b(z_1)$  create a blue  $C_4$ . If  $x_2y_1 \in E_b$  then as  $\deg_r(y_1) = \deg_b(y_1) = 3$ , and  $x_iy_1 \in E_b$ , one can say that either  $x_1, y_1$  and two vertices from  $N_r(x_1) \cap N_r(y_1)$  create a red  $C_4$ , or  $x_2, y_1$  and two vertices from  $N_r(x_2) \cap N_r(y_1)$  create a red  $C_4$ . So assume that  $N_r(x_1) = N_b(x_2)$  and  $N_r(x_2) = N_b(x_1)$ . For one  $i = 1, 2, y_2z_i \in E_b$ , or otherwise  $C_4 \subseteq G^r$ . Without loss of generality let  $y_2z_1 \in E_b$ . Therefore as  $\deg_r(z_1) = 3$ , and  $x_2z_1, y_2z_1 \in E_b$ , one can say that  $x_2, z_1$  and two vertices from  $N_r(x_2) \cap N_r(z_1)$  create a red  $C_4$ . Hence the claim holds.  $\square$

Now by Claim 3.4, without loss of generality we may suppose that  $N_b(x_1) = \{w_1, y_1, z_1\}$ . Assume that  $|N_b(x_1) \cap N_b(x_2)| \neq 0$ , and without loss of generality let  $w_1 \in N_b(x_2)$ . Hence by Claim 3.4,  $x_1w_2, x_2w_2 \in E_r$ . Now, as  $\deg_r(w_1) = 3$  and  $w_1x_i \in E_b$ , either  $x_1, w_1$  and two vertices from  $N_r(x_1) \cap N_r(w_1)$  create a red  $C_4$ , or  $x_2, w_1$  and two vertices from  $N_r(x_2) \cap N_r(w_1)$  create a red  $C_4$ . So, let  $N_b(x_2) = N_r(x_1)$  and  $N_r(x_2) = N_b(x_1)$ . Consider  $w_1$  and without loss of generality assume that  $w_1z_1 \in E_b$ . Therefore by Claim 3.4 we have  $w_1z_2, w_2z_1 \in E_r$  and  $w_2z_2 \in E_b$ . If either  $w_1y_1 \in E_b$  or  $y_1z_1 \in E_b$  then one can check that  $C_4 \subseteq G^b[\{x_1, w_1, y_1, z_1\}]$ . So we may suppose that  $w_1y_1, y_1z_1 \in E_r$ , and in this case we have  $C_4 \subseteq G^r[\{x_2, w_1, y_1, z_1\}]$ ; hence the proof is complete.  $\square$

### 4 Tripartite Ramsey numbers

**Theorem 4.1.** *For every integer  $k \geq 2$ ,*

$$r_3(C_4, k) \leq \begin{cases} \frac{(k+1)^2-1}{2} - 1 & \text{for even } k, \\ \frac{(k+1)^2}{2} - 1 & \text{for odd } k. \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* For  $k = 2$  we know (from [3]) that  $r_3(C_4, 2) = 3 = \frac{(2+1)^2-1}{2} - 1$ . For even  $k > 2$ , we use Theorem 2.2. Note that, for  $n = \frac{(k+1)^2-1}{2} - 1$ :

- $\left\lceil \frac{n^2p(p-1)}{2k} \right\rceil = \frac{3}{4}k^3 + 3k^2 - 5$ ;
- $w = \frac{1}{2}k^3 + 2k^2 - 3$ ;
- $a = \frac{k}{2}$ ;
- $r = k^2 + k - 3$ ;

and the inequality  $r \binom{a+1}{2} + ((p-1)n - r) \binom{a}{2} > \binom{n}{2}$  can be simplified to  $k > 2$ , so that  $r_p(C_4, k) \leq n$  for even  $k \geq 2$ .

For odd  $k > 1$  note that, for  $n = \frac{(k+1)^2}{2} - 1$ :

- $\left\lceil \frac{n^2 p(p-1)}{2k} \right\rceil = \frac{3}{4}k^3 + 3k^2 + \frac{3}{2}k - \frac{9}{4} - \frac{1}{4}((k-1) \bmod 4);$
- $w = \frac{k^3}{2} + 2k^2 + k - \frac{3}{2};$
- $a = \frac{k+1}{2};$
- $r = \frac{k^2+k-2}{2};$

and the inequality  $r\binom{a+1}{2} + ((p-1)n-r)\binom{a}{2} > \binom{n}{2}$  can be simplified to  $k(k+2) > 3$ , so  $r_p(C_4, k) \leq n$  for odd  $k \geq 3$ . □

From [3] we know the exact values  $r_3(C_4, 2) = 3$  and  $r_3(C_4, 3) = 7$ . The next theorem shows that the upper bound presented in Theorem 4.1 is sharp for  $k = 4$ .

**Theorem 4.2.**  $r_3(C_4, 4) = 11$ .

*Proof.* From Theorem 4.1 we have  $r_3(C_4, 4) \leq 11$ . For the lower bound we present the adjacency matrix of a 4-coloring of  $K_{10}^3$  (see Table 2). The entry in the  $i$ -th row and  $j$ -th column of the matrix refers to the color of edge  $(i, j)$ . Value 0 means that there is no edge, and values greater than 0 are colors.

The matrix in Table 2 is written in partitioned form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & M_{1,2} & M_{1,3} & M_{1,4} & M_{1,5} \\ 0 & 0 & M_{2,2} & M_{2,3} & M_{2,4} & M_{2,5} \\ M_{1,2}^T & M_{2,2}^T & 0 & 0 & M_{3,4} & M_{3,5} \\ M_{1,3}^T & M_{2,3}^T & 0 & 0 & M_{4,4} & M_{4,5} \\ M_{1,4}^T & M_{2,4}^T & M_{3,4}^T & M_{4,4}^T & 0 & 0 \\ M_{1,5}^T & M_{2,5}^T & M_{3,5}^T & M_{4,5}^T & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

where each block  $M_{i,j}$  in this partitioned matrix is the  $5 \times 5$  matrix of the form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d & e \\ e & a & b & c & d \\ d & e & a & b & c \\ c & d & e & a & b \\ b & c & d & e & a \end{bmatrix},$$

□

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X 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	1 4 2 3 2	2 1 3 4 4	1 3 2 2 3	4 1 1 4 3
0 X 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	2 1 4 2 3	4 2 1 3 4	3 1 3 2 2	3 4 1 1 4
0 0 X 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	3 2 1 4 2	4 4 2 1 3	2 3 1 3 2	4 3 4 1 1
0 0 0 X 0	0 0 0 0 0	2 3 2 1 4	3 4 4 2 1	2 2 3 1 3	1 4 3 4 1
0 0 0 0 X	0 0 0 0 0	4 2 3 2 1	1 3 4 4 2	3 2 2 3 1	1 1 4 3 4
0 0 0 0 0	X 0 0 0 0	3 2 3 1 4	3 1 1 2 4	4 4 1 2 1	3 2 4 2 3
0 0 0 0 0	0 X 0 0 0	4 3 2 3 1	4 3 1 1 2	1 4 4 1 2	3 3 2 4 2
0 0 0 0 0	0 0 X 0 0	1 4 3 2 3	2 4 3 1 1	2 1 4 4 1	2 3 3 2 4
0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 X 0	3 1 4 3 2	1 2 4 3 1	1 2 1 4 4	4 2 3 3 2
0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 X	2 3 1 4 3	1 1 2 4 3	4 1 2 1 4	2 4 2 3 3
1 2 3 2 4	3 4 1 3 2	X 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	3 3 4 1 1	4 4 1 2 2
4 1 2 3 2	2 3 4 1 3	0 X 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	1 3 3 4 1	2 4 4 1 2
2 4 1 2 3	3 2 3 4 1	0 0 X 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	1 1 3 3 4	2 2 4 4 1
3 2 4 1 2	1 3 2 3 4	0 0 0 X 0	0 0 0 0 0	4 1 1 3 3	1 2 2 4 4
2 3 2 4 1	4 1 3 2 3	0 0 0 0 X	0 0 0 0 0	3 4 1 1 3	4 1 2 2 4
2 4 4 3 1	3 4 2 1 1	0 0 0 0 0	X 0 0 0 0	2 4 2 4 3	1 3 1 3 2
1 2 4 4 3	1 3 4 2 1	0 0 0 0 0	0 X 0 0 0	3 2 4 2 4	2 1 3 1 3
3 1 2 4 4	1 1 3 4 2	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 X 0 0	4 3 2 4 2	3 2 1 3 1
4 3 1 2 4	2 1 1 3 4	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 X 0	2 4 3 2 4	1 3 2 1 3
4 4 3 1 2	4 2 1 1 3	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 X	4 2 4 3 2	3 1 3 2 1
1 3 2 2 3	4 1 2 1 4	3 1 1 4 3	2 3 4 2 4	X 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0
3 1 3 2 2	4 4 1 2 1	3 3 1 1 4	4 2 3 4 2	0 X 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0
2 3 1 3 2	1 4 4 1 2	4 3 3 1 1	2 4 2 3 4	0 0 X 0 0	0 0 0 0 0
2 2 3 1 3	2 1 4 4 1	1 4 3 3 1	4 2 4 2 3	0 0 0 X 0	0 0 0 0 0
3 2 2 3 1	1 2 1 4 4	1 1 4 3 3	3 4 2 4 2	0 0 0 0 X	0 0 0 0 0
4 3 4 1 1	3 3 2 4 2	4 2 2 1 4	1 2 3 1 3	0 0 0 0 0	X 0 0 0 0
1 4 3 4 1	2 3 3 2 4	4 4 2 2 1	3 1 2 3 1	0 0 0 0 0	0 X 0 0 0
1 1 4 3 4	4 2 3 3 2	1 4 4 2 2	1 3 1 2 3	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 X 0 0
4 1 1 4 3	2 4 2 3 3	2 1 4 4 2	3 1 3 1 2	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 X 0
3 4 1 1 4	3 2 4 2 3	2 2 1 4 4	2 3 1 3 1	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 X

Table 2: Matrix of 4-edge-coloring of  $K_{10}^3$  without monochromatic  $C_4$ .

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