

STAR-CRITICAL RAMSEY NUMBERS OF CYCLES REVISITED

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Abstract

For integers $n \geq m \geq 3$, let $r_*(C_n, C_m)$ denote the star-critical Ramsey number for a cycle of length n versus a cycle of length m . The exact value of $r_*(C_n, C_m)$ was determined for $m = 4$ by Wu, Sun, and Radziszowski (*Wheel and star-critical Ramsey numbers for quadrilateral*, Discrete Appl. Math. 186 (2015) 260–271). Subsequently, Zhang, Broersma, and Chen (*On star-critical and upper size Ramsey numbers*, Discrete Appl. Math. 202 (2016) 174–180) established the exact value for all odd integers $m \geq 3$. However, the case of even $m \geq 6$ has remained open. In this paper, we determine the exact value of $r_*(C_n, C_m)$ for all even integers $m \geq 6$ and $n \geq \max\{3m/2 + 1, m + 6\}$, showing that

$$r_*(C_n, C_m) = \frac{m}{2} + 3.$$

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1. INTRODUCTION

A red-blue edge-coloring of a graph G refers to an assignment of each edge of G with one of two colors: red or blue. Given two graphs G_1 and G_2 , we write $G \rightarrow (G_1, G_2)$ to indicate that for every red-blue edge-coloring of G , there exists

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either a red copy of G_1 or a blue copy of G_2 as a subgraph. The *Ramsey number* $r(G_1, G_2)$ is defined as

$$r(G_1, G_2) = \min\{r \mid K_r \rightarrow (G_1, G_2)\}.$$

When $r = r(G_1, G_2)$, it is clear that $K_r \rightarrow (G_1, G_2)$, while $K_{r-1} \not\rightarrow (G_1, G_2)$. A more refined question is: if a graph G is a proper subgraph of K_r and contains K_{r-1} as a proper subgraph, does $G \rightarrow (G_1, G_2)$ necessarily hold? To address this, Hook [10] introduced the notion of the star-critical Ramsey number. The graph $K_{r-1} \sqcup K_{1,k}$ consists of a complete graph K_{r-1} together with an additional vertex that is adjacent to exactly k vertices of K_{r-1} . The *star-critical Ramsey number* $r_*(G_1, G_2)$ is defined as

$$r_*(G_1, G_2) = \min\{k \mid K_{r-1} \sqcup K_{1,k} \rightarrow (G_1, G_2), \text{ where } r = r(G_1, G_2)\}.$$

Cycles are among the most extensively studied graph classes in Ramsey theory. The Ramsey numbers of cycles were first investigated by Bondy and Erdős [1]. Shortly thereafter, Rosta [14, 15] and Faudree and Schelp [9] independently determined the Ramsey numbers for all cycles. Their result is as follows

$$r(C_n, C_m) = \begin{cases} 2n-1 & \text{for } 3 \leq m \leq n, \text{ } m \text{ odd, } (m, n) \neq (3, 3), \\ n-1 + m/2 & \text{for } 4 \leq m \leq n, \text{ } m \text{ and } n \text{ even, } (m, n) \neq (4, 4), \\ \max\{n-1 + m/2, 2m-1\} & \text{for } 4 \leq m < n, \text{ } m \text{ even and } n \text{ odd.} \end{cases}$$

In addition, $r(C_3, C_3) = r(C_4, C_4) = 6$. For other results concerning Ramsey numbers of cycles, we refer the reader to the dynamic survey [13].

We now turn our attention to star-critical Ramsey numbers. For recent developments in this area, we refer to the monograph [4] and the survey [11]. For certain pairs of graphs (G_1, G_2) , their star-critical Ramsey number exhibits a particularly simple form

$$r_*(G_1, G_2) = r(G_1, G_2) - 1.$$

That is, when $r = r(G_1, G_2)$, even the removal of a single edge e from K_r yields $K_r - e \not\rightarrow (G_1, G_2)$. Such a pair (G_1, G_2) is said to be *Ramsey-full* [17].

The pair (C_3, C_3) serves as a classical example of a Ramsey-full pair. This fact was first pointed out by Erdős, Faudree, Rousseau, Schelp [7], who attributed the result to Chvátal. Consider the complete graph with vertex set $\{v_i \mid i \in [5]\}$, where $v_1v_2v_3v_4v_5v_1$ forms a red 5-cycle, and $v_1v_3v_5v_2v_4v_1$ forms a blue 5-cycle. Then, add a copy v'_1 of the vertex v_1 , preserving the same adjacency and edge-coloring pattern as v_1 . This yields a red-blue edge-colored graph $K_6 - e$ that

contains no monochromatic C_3 . Therefore, (C_3, C_3) is Ramsey-full. Using a similar construction, for any $m \geq 3$ and $n \geq 3$, the graph pair (K_m, K_n) is Ramsey-full.

Erdős and Faudree [8] further proved that the pair (C_4, C_4) is also Ramsey-full. They also raised the question of whether it is possible to characterize all Ramsey-full pairs or to find infinite families of Ramsey-full pairs.

When m is odd, $n \geq m \geq 3$, and $(m, n) \neq (3, 3)$, the second author of this paper, together with Broersma and Chen [17], established that

$$r_*(C_n, C_m) = n + 1.$$

When $n \geq m = 4$, Wu, Sun, and Radziszowski [16] determined the corresponding star-critical Ramsey number, obtaining

$$r_*(C_n, C_4) = 5.$$

When m is even and $n \geq m \geq 6$, the determination of $r_*(C_n, C_m)$ has remained open for the past decade. In this paper, we make progress on this problem by completely determining the corresponding star-critical Ramsey numbers under a slightly enlarged range of n .

Theorem 1. *For even $m \geq 6$ and $n \geq \max\{3m/2 + 1, m + 6\}$, we have*

$$r_*(C_n, C_m) = m/2 + 3.$$

At this point, the only unresolved cases for the star-critical Ramsey numbers of cycles are

$$\text{even } m \geq 6 \text{ and } m \leq n \leq \max\{3m/2, m + 5\}.$$

In this range, based on the results of Section 3, we have $r_*(C_n, C_m) \geq m/2 + 3$. Furthermore, when n is odd and $n \leq 3m/2$, it holds that $r(C_n, C_m) = 2m - 1$. In this situation, a stronger lower bound $r_*(C_n, C_m) \geq m + 1$ can be established. However, the methods employed in this paper are not sufficient to handle the remaining cases within this interval.

We now introduce additional notation and terminology. For a positive integer k , we use $[k]$ to denote the set $\{1, \dots, k\}$. For a graph G , we write $|G|$ and $e(G)$ to denote its number of vertices and edges, respectively, and \bar{G} for its complement. Given a vertex set $V_1 \subseteq V(G)$, we denote by $G[V_1]$ the subgraph induced by V_1 . For a vertex $v \in V(G)$, let $d(v)$ denote its degree. The minimum and maximum degrees of G are denoted by $\delta(G)$ and $\Delta(G)$, respectively. The lengths of the longest and shortest cycles in G are denoted by $c(G)$ and $g(G)$, respectively. A graph G is said to be *pancyclic* if it contains cycles of every length from 3 up to the order of a Hamiltonian cycle. It is called *weakly pancyclic* if it contains cycles of every length from $g(G)$ to $c(G)$. A *matching* in a graph G is a set of edges no

two of which share a common endpoint. For a red-blue edge-colored graph H , its subgraph H_R is defined as the graph with the same vertex set as H and whose edge set consists of all red edges of H ; likewise, the subgraph H_B has the same vertex set as H , and its edge set comprises all the blue edges of H .

In Section 2, we present eight lemmas required for establishing the upper bound in the proof of the main theorem. The lower and upper bounds of Theorem 1 will be proved in Sections 3 and 4, respectively.

2. USEFUL LEMMAS

Lemma 2 (Rosta [14, 15] and Faudree and Schelp [9] independently). $r(C_n, C_{2\ell}) = n + \ell - 1$ for $n \geq 3\ell$ and $\ell \geq 2$.

Lemma 3 (Brandt [3]). *Every nonbipartite graph G with more than $(|G| - 1)^2/4 + 1$ edges is weakly pancyclic with $g(G) = 3$.*

Lemma 4 (Erdős and Gallai [6]). *Let G be a graph of order n and $3 \leq c \leq n$. If $e(G) > (n - 1)(c - 1)/2 + 1$, then $c(G) \geq c$.*

Lemma 5 (Dirac [5]). *Let G be a graph with at least three vertices. If $\delta(G) \geq |G|/2$, then G is Hamiltonian.*

Bondy and Chvátal [2] provided a result indicating that the sufficient condition $\delta(G) \geq |G|/2$ for a graph G to be Hamiltonian can be relaxed. The *closure* of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is defined as the graph obtained by recursively adding edges between non-adjacent vertex pairs whose degree sum is at least $|V|$, until no such pairs remain.

Lemma 6 (Bondy and Chvátal [2]). *A graph is Hamiltonian if and only if its closure is Hamiltonian.*

Lemma 7 (Jackson [12]). *Let $G = (X, Y)$ be a bipartite graph with partite sets X and Y such that $d(x) \geq k$ for all $x \in X$, where $|X| \geq 2$ and $2 \leq k \leq |Y| \leq 2k - 2$. Then G contains all cycles on $2m$ vertices for $2 \leq m \leq \min\{|X|, k\}$.*

Lemma 8. *For any graph G with at least six vertices, either $e(G) > (|G| - 1)^2/4 + 1$ or $e(\overline{G}) > (|G| - 1)^2/4 + 1$.*

Proof. Assume for contradiction that the statement does not hold. Then

$$\frac{|G|(|G| - 1)}{2} = e(G) + e(\overline{G}) \leq 2 \left(\frac{(|G| - 1)^2}{4} + 1 \right).$$

This implies $|G| \leq 5$, a contradiction. ■

Lemma 9. *Let G be a graph with a longest cycle C_p , and let X denote the set of vertices not on C_p . For a vertex $x \in X$, let W be the set of its neighbors on C_p . Fix an orientation of C_p and let W^+ denote the set of successors of the vertices in W along the orientation. Then $W^+ \cup \{x\}$ forms an independent set, and each vertex in $X \setminus \{x\}$ is adjacent to at most one vertex in W^+ .*

Proof. Given an orientation \vec{C}_p of the cycle C_p , let x_i^+ denote the successor of x_i along this orientation. Suppose that x is adjacent to some $x_i^+ \in W^+$. Since x is also adjacent to $x_i \in W$, it is adjacent to two consecutive vertices on C_p . Replacing the edge $x_i x_i^+$ on C_p with the path $x_i x x_i^+$ yields a cycle C_{p+1} , contradicting the maximality of C_p . Thus, x is not adjacent to any vertex in W^+ .

Suppose two vertices x_i^+ and x_j^+ in W^+ are adjacent. Then $x_i x x_j \overleftarrow{C}_p x_i^+ x_j^+ \overrightarrow{C}_p x_i$ forms a cycle of length $p+1$, again a contradiction. Hence, W^+ is an independent set.

Furthermore, suppose there exists a vertex $y \in X \setminus \{x\}$ that is adjacent to at least two vertices in W^+ , say x_i^+ and x_j^+ . Then the path $x_i x x_j \overleftarrow{C}_p x_i^+ y x_j^+ \overrightarrow{C}_p x_i$ forms a cycle of length $p+2$, which is again a contradiction. Therefore, each vertex in $X \setminus \{x\}$ is adjacent to at most one vertex in W^+ . \blacksquare

3. PROOF OF THE LOWER BOUND

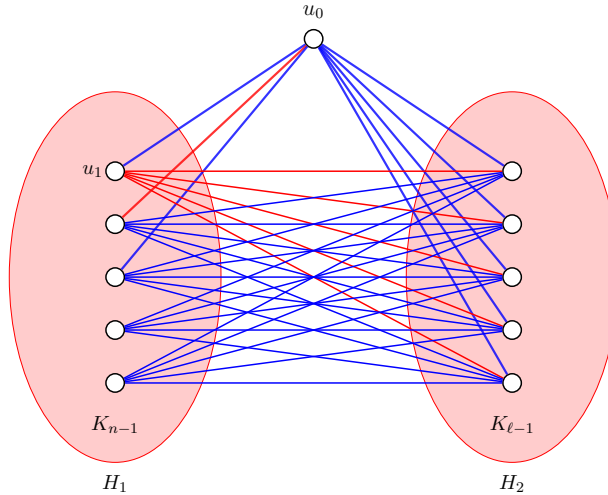


Figure 1. $K_{n+\ell-2} \sqcup K_{1,\ell+2}$ avoiding red C_n and blue $C_{2\ell}$.

In this section and the next, to avoid fractional expressions, we replace the

even integer m in the theorem with 2ℓ . This substitution makes the arguments cleaner and more readable.

In this section, we establish the lower bound. We relax the conditions on n and ℓ , and prove that for $n \geq 4$, $\ell \geq 2$, and $n > \ell$, there exists a red-blue edge-coloring of the graph $K_{n+\ell-2} \sqcup K_{1,\ell+2}$ that contains neither a red copy of C_n nor a blue copy of $C_{2\ell}$. This coloring is illustrated in Figure 1 and described in detail below.

Let H_1 and H_2 be two disjoint red cliques on $n-1$ and $\ell-1$ vertices, respectively. Choose a vertex u_1 in H_1 , and color all edges between u_1 and the vertices of H_2 red. For every vertex in $H_1 - u_1$, color all edges to the vertices in H_2 blue. It is straightforward to verify that the resulting coloring of the complete graph $K_{n+\ell-2}$ contains neither a red C_n nor a blue $C_{2\ell}$.

Next, we introduce an additional vertex u_0 , and color all edges between u_0 and the vertices of H_2 blue. Also color the edge u_0u_1 blue, and between u_0 and the vertices of $H_1 - u_1$, include one blue edge and one red edge. This gives a red-blue edge-coloring of the graph $K_{n+\ell-2} \sqcup K_{1,\ell+2}$. Since u_0 is incident to only one red edge, it cannot lie on any red cycle C_n .

If u_0 is contained in a blue cycle $C_{2\ell}$, then such a cycle must include a blue edge from u_0 to $H_1 - u_1$ and another from u_0 to H_2 . However, in the complete graph $K_{n+\ell-2}$, there is no blue path of even length connecting a vertex in H_1 to a vertex in H_2 . Thus, u_0 cannot lie on any blue cycle $C_{2\ell}$.

Combining the above observations, we conclude that in this red-blue edge-coloring of $K_{n+\ell-2} \sqcup K_{1,\ell+2}$, there exists neither a red C_n nor a blue $C_{2\ell}$.

4. PROOF OF THE UPPER BOUND

In this section, we establish the upper bound. Specifically, we prove that when $n \geq \max\{3\ell + 1, 2\ell + 6\}$ and $\ell \geq 3$, we have $K_{n+\ell-2} \sqcup K_{1,\ell+3} \rightarrow (C_n, C_{2\ell})$. Let G denote the graph $K_{n+\ell-2}$, and let u be the vertex joined to G by $\ell + 3$ edges. We proceed by contradiction: suppose there exists a red-blue edge-coloring of $K_{n+\ell-2} \sqcup K_{1,\ell+3}$ that avoids both a red C_n and a blue $C_{2\ell}$.

Since $n - 1 \geq 3\ell$, it follows from Lemma 2 that G contains a red cycle C_{n-1} . Denote by H the complete subgraph induced by $V(C_{n-1})$, and let $X = V(G) \setminus V(C_{n-1})$. Then $|X| = \ell - 1$. We now present a series of claims.

Claim 10. G_R is not bipartite.

Proof. Since $n \geq 3\ell + 1$, we have $|G| = n + \ell - 2 \geq 4\ell - 1$. If G_R is bipartite, then by the pigeonhole principle, one of its partite sets would contain at least 2ℓ vertices. Thus, G would contain a blue $K_{2\ell}$ as a subgraph, which in turn contains a blue $C_{2\ell}$ as a subgraph, a contradiction. ■

Claim 11. *Suppose $V(G)$ is partitioned into two sets A and B with $|A| = n - 1$ and $|B| = \ell - 1$. If each vertex in B is incident to at most one red edge to A , then u is incident to at most two blue edges to A .*

Proof. Suppose not. Then there exist $a_1, a_2, a_3 \in A$ such that the edges ua_i are blue for each $i \in [3]$.

For any $b_1, b_2 \in B$, each of them is connected to at least two of $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$ by blue edges. Hence, there exists a matching of two blue edges between $\{b_1, b_2\}$ and $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$. Without loss of generality, assume a_1b_1 and a_2b_2 are blue edges.

In $A \setminus \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$, there are at most $|B|$ vertices adjacent to B via red edges. The remaining vertices in $A \setminus \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$ are at least

$$|A \setminus \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}| - |B| = (n - 1 - 3) - (\ell - 1) \geq \ell + 3.$$

All edges between these vertices and B are blue. In other words, the induced bipartite subgraph between $A \setminus \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$ and B contains a blue $K_{\ell+3, \ell-1}$ as a subgraph. It is easy to find within this subgraph a blue path of length $2\ell - 4$ with endpoints b_1 and b_2 . Combined with the path $b_1a_1ua_2b_2$, this forms a blue cycle $C_{2\ell}$, leading to a contradiction. ■

Claim 12. G_B is not a bipartite graph.

Proof. We proceed by contradiction. Suppose that G_B is bipartite, and let its two partite sets be denoted by V_1 and V_2 . Without loss of generality, assume $|V_1| \geq |V_2|$. Clearly, $|V_1| \leq n - 1$, and hence $|V_2| \geq |G| - |V_1| \geq \ell - 1$.

If $|V_1| = n - 1$, then $|V_2| = \ell - 1$. Since G_B is bipartite, $G[V_1]$ induces a red complete subgraph K_{n-1} . As G does not contain a red C_n , each vertex in $V_2 \cup \{u\}$ has at most one red edge to V_1 . By Claim 11, the vertex u has at most two blue edges to V_1 . Therefore, the total degree of u is at most $3 + |V_2| \leq \ell + 2$, which leads to a contradiction. This contradiction implies that $|V_1| \leq n - 2$, and hence $|V_2| \geq \ell$.

We claim that there does not exist a matching of two red edges between V_1 and V_2 . Otherwise, suppose that v_1v_2 and v_3v_4 are red edges with $v_1, v_3 \in V_1$ and $v_2, v_4 \in V_2$. In $G[V_1]$, there exists a red path of order $|V_1|$ with endpoints v_1 and v_3 ; similarly, in $G[V_2]$, there exists a red path of order $n - |V_1|$ with endpoints v_2 and v_4 . The latter path exists since $|V_2| \geq n - |V_1| \geq 2$. These two red paths, together with the red edges v_1v_2 and v_3v_4 , form a red cycle C_n , which is again a contradiction. Therefore, there is no matching of two red edges between V_1 and V_2 . It follows that there exists a vertex v_0 in G_B such that all edges between $V_1 \setminus \{v_0\}$ and $V_2 \setminus \{v_0\}$ are blue. Note that for $i \in [2]$, if $v_0 \notin V_i$, then $V_i \setminus \{v_0\} = V_i$.

Since G has at least $4\ell - 1$ vertices and $|V_1| \geq |V_2|$, it follows that $V_1 \setminus \{v_0\}$ contains at least $2\ell - 1$ vertices. If $V_2 \setminus \{v_0\}$ contains at least ℓ vertices, then the graph contains a blue complete bipartite subgraph $K_{\ell, \ell}$, contradicting the

assumption that G does not contain a blue $C_{2\ell}$. Therefore, $V_2 \setminus \{v_0\}$ has at most $\ell - 1$ vertices. Since $|V_2| \geq \ell$, we must have $|V_2| = \ell$ and $v_0 \in V_2$. In this case, $|V_1| = n - 2$.

If v_0 has at least two blue edges to V_1 , let v_5 and v_6 be two such neighbors in V_1 . Because every vertex in V_1 is connected to every vertex in $V_2 \setminus \{v_0\}$ via blue edges, one can easily find a blue path of length $2\ell - 2$ with endpoints v_5 and v_6 . This blue path, together with $v_5v_0v_6$, forms a blue cycle $C_{2\ell}$, which yields a contradiction.

Therefore, we only need to consider the remaining case: v_0 has at most one blue edge to V_1 , i.e., v_0 has at least $n - 3$ red edges to V_1 . In this case, if u has at least two red edges to $V_1 \cup \{v_0\}$, then by Lemma 6, the subgraph $G[V_1 \cup \{v_0, u\}]$ contains a red Hamiltonian cycle C_n , which is a contradiction. Hence, the vertex u has at most one red edge to $V_1 \cup \{v_0\}$.

The sets $V_1 \cup \{v_0\}$ and $V_2 \setminus \{v_0\}$ correspond to the sets A and B , respectively, in Claim 11. By that claim, u has at most two blue edges to $V_1 \cup \{v_0\}$.

Consequently, the total degree of u is at most $1 + 2 + (|V_2| - 1) = \ell + 2$, again a contradiction. Therefore, G_B is not bipartite. ■

Claim 13. *The number of edges in G_B is at most $(|G| - 1)^2/4 + 1$.*

Proof. Suppose the claim is false. By Lemma 3 and Claim 12, the graph G_B is weakly pancyclic with girth $g(G_B) = 3$.

Since $|G| \geq n + \ell - 2 \geq 4\ell - 1$, it follows that

$$(|G| - 1)^2/4 + 1 > (|G| - 1)(2\ell - 1)/2.$$

By Lemma 4, we then have $c(G) \geq 2\ell$.

This implies that G_B contains a cycle $C_{2\ell}$ as a subgraph, a contradiction. ■

Claim 14. *The graph G_R contains no cycle of length at least n .*

Proof. By Lemmas 3 and 8, together with Claims 10 and 13, the graph G_R is weakly pancyclic with girth $g(G_R) = 3$.

If G_R contains a cycle of length at least n , then it contains a copy of C_n as a subgraph, which gives a contradiction. ■

Claim 15. *Each vertex in X has at most ℓ red edges to $V(H)$.*

Proof. Suppose not. Assume there exists a vertex $x \in X$ that has at least $\ell + 1$ neighbors in $V(H)$ via red edges. Let W be a set of $\ell + 1$ neighbors of x in $V(H)$ joined by red edges. For an orientation of the cycle C_{n-1} , let W^+ denote the set of successors of the vertices in W . By Lemma 9, the subgraph $G[W^+ \cup \{x\}]$ is a blue complete graph, and each vertex in $X \setminus \{x\}$ has at most one red edge to W^+ .

Consider the graph $G[W^+ \cup X]$, which has 2ℓ vertices and each vertex is incident to at least ℓ blue edges. By Lemma 5, the subgraph $G[W^+ \cup X]$ contains a blue cycle $C_{2\ell}$. This contradiction completes the proof of the claim. ■

Claim 16. $\Delta(H_B) \leq \ell + 1$.

Proof. Suppose to the contrary that $\Delta(H_B) \geq \ell + 2$. That is, there exists a vertex v in H that is incident to at least $\ell + 2$ blue edges in H . We choose a set of $2\ell + 2$ vertices from $H - v$, among which at least $\ell + 2$ are neighbors of v via blue edges. Denote this set of $2\ell + 2$ vertices by Y .

Since $|Y| = 2\ell + 2$ and by Claim 15, each vertex in X has at least $\ell + 2$ blue edges to Y . Viewing $X \cup \{v\}$ as the set X in Lemma 7 and taking $k = \ell + 2$ in the lemma, it follows from Lemma 7 that there exists a blue cycle of length 2ℓ . This contradiction proves that $\Delta(H_B) \leq \ell + 1$. ■

Claim 17. *Each vertex in $X \cup \{u\}$ has at most one red edge to $V(H)$.*

Proof. Suppose not. Then there exists a vertex $x \in X \cup \{u\}$ with at least two red edges to $V(H)$.

By Claim 16, we have $\delta(H_R) \geq |H| - 1 - (\ell + 1) = n - \ell - 3$. Since $n \geq 2\ell + 6$, it follows that $\delta(H_R) \geq n/2$. By Lemma 6, the subgraph induced by $V(H) \cup \{x\}$ contains a red Hamiltonian cycle, contradicting the assumption that the graph contains no red C_n . ■

By Claims 11 and 17, the vertex u has at most two blue edges to $V(H)$. Together with Claim 17, it follows that u has at most three edges to $V(H)$ in total. Since u has at most $|X| = \ell - 1$ edges to X , the total degree of u is at most $\ell + 2$, yielding a final contradiction.

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