# Rainbow Ramsey Problems for the Boolean Lattice 

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#### Abstract

We address the following rainbow Ramsey problem: For posets $P, Q$ what is the smallest number $n$ such that any coloring of the elements of the Boolean lattice $B_{n}$ either admits a monochromatic copy of $P$ or a rainbow copy of $Q$. We consider both weak and strong (non-induced and induced) versions of this problem.


Keywords Extremal set systems • Forbidden subposet problem • Ramsey theory

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## 1 Introduction

In this paper we consider rainbow Ramsey-type problems for posets. Given posets $P$ and $Q$, we say that $X \subseteq Q$ is a weak copy of $P$, if there is a bijection $\alpha: P \rightarrow X$ such that $p \leq_{P} p^{\prime}$ implies $\alpha(p) \leq_{Q} \alpha\left(p^{\prime}\right)$. If $\alpha$ has the stronger property that $p \leq_{P} p^{\prime}$ holds if and only if $\alpha(p) \leq_{Q} \alpha\left(p^{\prime}\right)$, then $X$ is a strong or induced copy of $P$. A copy $X$ of $P$ is monochromatic with respect to a coloring $\phi: Q \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{+}$, if $\phi(q)=\phi\left(q^{\prime}\right)$ for all $q, q^{\prime} \in X$ and rainbow if $\phi(q) \neq \phi\left(q^{\prime}\right)$ for all $q \neq q^{\prime} \in X$. We will be looking for monochromatic and/or rainbow copies of some posets in the Boolean lattice $B_{n}$, the subsets of an $n$-element set ordered by inclusion. The set of elements of $B_{n}$ corresponding to sets of the same size is called a level of $B_{n}$.

Definition 1.1 The weak Ramsey number $R\left(P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{k}\right)$ is the smallest number $n$ such that for any coloring of the elements of $B_{n}$ with $k$ colors, say $1,2, \ldots, k$ there is a monochromatic copy of the poset $P_{i}$ in color $i$ for some $1 \leq i \leq k$. We simply write $R_{k}(P)$ for $R\left(P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{k}\right)$, if $P_{1}=\ldots=P_{k}=P$. We define the strong Ramsey number $R^{*}\left(P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{k}\right)$ and $R_{k}^{*}(P)$ for strong copies of posets analogously.

Ramsey theory of posets is an old and well investigated topic, see e.g., [11, 15]. However, the study of Ramsey problems in the Boolean lattice was initiated only recently: weak Ramsey numbers were studied by Cox and Stolee [3] and strong Ramsey numbers were investigated by Axenovich and Walzer [1]. In addition, some results in the latter one were improved by Lu and Thompson [12].

In this article, we study rainbow Ramsey numbers for the Boolean lattice.
Definition 1.2 For two posets $P, Q$ the weak (or not necessarily induced) rainbow Ramsey number $R R(P, Q)$ is the minimum number $n$ such that any coloring (using an arbitrary number of colors) of $B_{n}$ admits either a monochromatic weak copy of $P$ or a rainbow weak copy of $Q$. The strong (or induced) rainbow Ramsey number can be defined analogously and is denoted by $R R^{*}(P, Q)$.

Rainbow Ramsey numbers for graphs have been intensively studied (they are sometimes called constrained Ramsey numbers or Gallai-Ramsey numbers), for a recent survey see [4]. The results on the rainbow Ramsey number for Boolean posets are sporadic [2, 10]. Nevertheless, the following easy observation connects (usual) Ramsey numbers to rainbow Ramsey numbers.

Proposition 1.3 For any pair $P$ and $Q$ of posets we have
(i) $R R(P, Q) \geq R_{|Q|-1}(P)$, and
(ii) $R R^{*}(P, Q) \geq R_{|Q|-1}^{*}(P)$.

Proof To see (i) observe that if a coloring $\phi$ uses at most $|Q|-1$ colors, then clearly it cannot contain a rainbow weak copy of $Q$. Therefore any such coloring showing $R_{|Q|-1}(P)>n$ also shows $R R(P, Q)>n$. An identical proof with strong copies implies (ii).

In this paper, we show many examples of posets $P, Q$ for which the inequality in (i) of Proposition 1.3 holds with equality, while in Section 3, we show another example of posets $P, Q$ for which (ii) of Proposition 1.3 holds with strict inequality. Unfortunately, we do not know whether there exist posets $P, Q$ for which (i) holds with strict inequality.

Many of the tools used in [1,3] come from the related Turán-type problem, the so-called forbidden subposet problem. Let us introduce some terminology. For a poset $P$, a family $\mathcal{F} \subseteq B_{n}$ of sets is called (induced) $P$-free if $\mathcal{F}$ does not contain a weak (strong) copy of $P$. The size of the largest (induced) $P$-free family in $B_{n}$ is denoted by $L a(n, P)$ (resp. $L a^{*}(n, P)$ ). For a poset $P$, we denote by $e(P)$ the maximum number $m$ such that for any $n$ the union of any consecutive $m$ levels of $B_{n}$ is $P$-free. The analogous strong parameter is denoted by $e^{*}(P)$. The most widely believed conjecture [5] in the area of forbidden subposet problems states that for any poset $P$ we have

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{L a(n, P)}{\binom{n}{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}}=e(P) \text { and } \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{L a^{*}(n, P)}{\binom{n}{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}}=e^{*}(P) .
$$

It is worth noting that this conjecture is already wide open for a very simple poset called the diamond poset $D_{2}$ (defined on four elements $a, b, c$, and $d$ with relations $a<b, c$ and $b, c<d)$. See [9] for the best known bounds in this direction.

For a family $\mathcal{F} \subseteq B_{n}$ of sets, its Lubell-mass is $\lambda_{n}(\mathcal{F})=\sum_{F \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{\left(\mid{ }_{|F|}^{n}\right)}$. For a poset $P$, we define $\lambda_{n}(P)$ to be the maximum value of $\lambda_{n}(\mathcal{F})$ over all $P$-free families $\mathcal{F} \subseteq B_{n}$ and $\lambda_{\max }(P)$ is defined to be $\sup _{n} \lambda_{n}(P)$. Its finiteness follows from the fact that every poset $P$ is a weak subposet of $C_{|P|}$ (where $C_{l}$ denotes the $l$-chain, the totally ordered set of size $l$ ) and the $k$-LYM-inequality stating that $\lambda_{n}(\mathcal{F}) \leq k$ for any $C_{k+1}$-free family $\mathcal{F} \subseteq B_{n}$. Analogously, $\lambda_{n}^{*}(P)$ is the maximum value of $\lambda_{n}(\mathcal{F})$ over all induced $P$-free families $\mathcal{F} \subseteq$ $B_{n}$ and $\lambda_{\max }^{*}(P)$ is defined to be $\sup _{n} \lambda_{n}^{*}(P)$. It was proved to be finite by Méroueh [13].

Observe that, by definition of $e(P)$ and $e^{*}(P)$, we have $e(P) \leq \lambda_{n}(P)$ and $e^{*}(P) \leq$ $\lambda_{n}^{*}(P)$ for every poset $P$ and integer $n \geq e(P)$ or $n \geq e^{*}(P)$. We say that a poset is uniformly Lubell-bounded if $e(P) \geq \lambda_{n}(P)$ holds for all positive integers $n$. Similarly, a poset is uniformly induced Lubell-bounded if $e^{*}(P) \geq \lambda_{n}^{*}(P)$ holds for all positive integers $n$. An instance of posets eqipped with this property is the class of chain posets $C_{l}$. For $k \geq 2$ the generalized diamond poset $D_{k}$ consists of $k+2$ elements $a, b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{k}, c$ with relations $a<b_{i}<c$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Griggs, Li and Lu [6] proved that infinitely many of the $D_{k}$ 's are uniformly Lubell-bounded and Patkós [14] proved that an overlapping but distinct and infinite subset of the $D_{k}$ 's is uniformly induced Lubell-bounded. For more uniformly Lubell-bounded posets, see [8].

In [1] and [3], it was observed that if $P$ is uniformly Lubell-bounded or uniformly induced Lubell-bounded, then $R_{k}(P)=k \cdot e(P)$ or $R_{k}^{*}(P)=k \cdot e^{*}(P)$ holds, respectively.

Our main result concerning weak rainbow Ramsey numbers extends the above observation.

Theorem 1.4 Let $P$ be a uniformly Lubell-bounded poset and $\mathcal{F} \subseteq B_{n}$ be a family of sets with $\lambda_{n}(\mathcal{F})>e(P)(k-1)$. Then any coloring of $\phi: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{+}$admits either a monochromatic weak copy of $P$ or a rainbow copy of $C_{k}$.

Corollary 1.5 If $P$ is uniformly Lubell-bounded, then $R R(P, Q)=e(P)(|Q|-1)$ holds for any poset $Q$.

Proof As $\lambda_{n}\left(B_{n}\right)=n+1$, the inequality $R R(P, Q) \leq e(P)(|Q|-1)$ is a direct consequence of Theorem 1.4 as any poset $Q$ is a weak subposet of $C_{|Q|}$.

Let $n=(|Q|-1) e(P)-1$. The lower bound $R R(P, Q)>n$ follows from coloring $B_{n}$ so that the color classes form a partition of the levels of $B_{n}$ into $|Q|-1$ intervals, each of size $e(P)$. As we use only $|Q|-1$ colors, we avoid rainbow copies of $Q$ and by definition of $e(P)$ we avoid monochromatic copies of $P$.

For strong copies of posets, the coloring from the proof of Corollary 1.5 yields the same lower bound $R R^{*}(P, Q) \geq e^{*}(P)(|Q|-1)$, but one can easily observe that in most cases this trivial lower bound can be improved by slightly modifying the above coloring: If $Q$ does not have a unique smallest element, then one can color $\emptyset$ with an otherwise unused color $i$. Since no other sets are colored $i$, it does not help to create a strong monochromatic copy of $P$, and since $Q$ does not have a unique smallest element, it does not help to create a strong rainbow copy of $Q$. Therefore one can introduce the following function. For any poset $Q$, let $f(Q)=0$, if $Q$ has both a unique largest and a unique smallest element, let $f(Q)=2$, if $Q$ has neither largest nor smallest element, and define $f(Q)=1$ otherwise. One obtains $R R^{*}(P, Q) \geq e^{*}(P)(|Q|-1)+f(Q)$ for all posets $P$ and $Q$. For this lower bound, the strong version of Corollary 1.5 would be expected for $P$ being uniformly induced Lubellbounded. Nonetheless, we will show the above inequality is strict when $P=C_{2}$, the chain of two elements, and $Q=A_{k}$, the antichain of size $k$ in Section 3. So we ask the following question.

Question 1.6 For which uniformly induced Lubell-bounded posets $P$, does one have

$$
\begin{equation*}
R R^{*}(P, Q)=e^{*}(P)(|Q|-1)+f(Q) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every poset $Q$ ?
Despite the above counterexample to Eq. 1, we prove that it holds for most uniformly induced Lubell-bounded posets $P$ and $Q=A_{3}$. Indeed, we have a general upper bound for $R R^{*}\left(P, A_{k}\right)$ for any poset $P$ and $k \geq 2$.

Theorem 1.7 Given an integer $k \geq 2$, let $m_{k}=\min \left\{m:\binom{m}{\lfloor m / 2\rfloor} \geq k\right\}$. For any poset $P$ we have

$$
R R^{*}\left(P, A_{k}\right) \leq\left\lfloor(k-1) \lambda_{\max }^{*}(P)\right\rfloor+m_{k}
$$

Moreover, if $P$ is not $C_{1}$ or $C_{2}$, then we have

$$
R R^{*}\left(P, A_{3}\right) \leq\left\lfloor 2 \lambda_{\text {max }}^{*}(P)\right\rfloor+2
$$

Since $\lambda_{\text {max }}^{*}(P)=e^{*}(P)$ for every uniformly induced Lubell-bounded poset $P$, we have the next corollary immediately from the latter part of Theorem 1.7.

Corollary 1.8 For every uniformly induced Lubell-bounded poset $P$ other than $C_{1}$ or $C_{2}$ we have

$$
R R^{*}\left(P, A_{3}\right)=2+2 e^{*}(P)
$$

Structure of the paper The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Theorem 1.4 and other results on weak copies are proved in Section 2. Section 3 contains the proofs of the counterexample to Eq. 1 and Theorem 1.7.

Notation For $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$we denote by $[n]$ the set $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. For a set $F$, we write $\mathcal{U}_{F}=$ $\mathcal{U}_{n, F}=\{G \subseteq[n]: F \subseteq G\}, \mathcal{D}_{F}=\mathcal{D}_{n, F}=\{G \subseteq[n]: G \subseteq F\}$, and $\mathcal{I}_{F}=\mathcal{I}_{n, F}=\mathcal{U}_{n, F} \cup$ $\mathcal{D}_{n, F}$. For sets $F \subseteq H$, we write $B_{F, H}=\{G: F \subseteq G \subseteq H\}$. For integers $0 \leq a \leq b \leq n$, we write $\lambda_{n}\left(B_{a, b}\right)=\lambda_{n}\left(B_{F, H}\right)$ for some $F \subseteq H \subseteq[n]$ with $|F|=a,|H|=b$. Let $B_{n}^{-}$ and $B_{F, H}^{-}$denote the truncated Boolean lattices obtained by removing the smallest and the largest element of the cubes $B_{n}$ and $B_{F, H}$, respectively. For a coloring $\phi: B_{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{+}$, let $\|\phi\|$ denote the number of colors used by $\phi$. For a coloring $\phi: B_{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{+}$and a positive
integer $i$, let $\mathcal{H}_{i}=\mathcal{H}_{\phi, i}=\{F \subseteq[n]: \phi(F)=i\}$. We use $\binom{n}{\leq k}$ to denote $\sum_{j=0}^{k}\binom{n}{j}$. All logarithms are of base 2 in this paper.

## 2 Weak Copies

In this section, we prove Theorem 1.4 and some other results on weak Ramsey and weak rainbow Ramsey numbers. We start with a couple of definitions.

We denote by $\mathbf{C}_{n}$ the set of all maximal chains in $B_{n}$. For a family $\mathcal{F} \subseteq B_{n}$ and set $F \in \mathcal{F}$, we define $\mathbf{C}_{n, F}=\mathbf{C}_{n, F, \mathcal{F}}$ to be the set of those maximal chains $\mathcal{C} \in \mathbf{C}_{n}$ for which the largest set of $\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{C}$ is $F$. Then the max-partition of $\mathbf{C}_{n}$ consists of the blocks $\mathbf{C}_{n, F}$ for each $F \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\mathbf{C}_{n,-}$ which contains all maximal chains $\mathcal{C}$ with $\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{C}=\emptyset$.

The Lubell mass $\lambda_{n}(\mathcal{F})=\sum_{F \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{\left(\mid{ }_{|F|}^{n}\right)}$ is the average number of sets of $\mathcal{F}$ in a maximal chain $\mathcal{C}$ chosen uniformly at random from $\mathbf{C}_{n}$. As observed by Griggs and Li [7], if we condition on the largest set $F$ in $\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{C}$, then we obtain

$$
\lambda_{n}(\mathcal{F})=\sum_{F \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{\left|\mathbf{C}_{n, F}\right|}{n!} \lambda_{|F|}\left(\mathcal{D}_{F} \cap \mathcal{F}\right) .
$$

Proof of Theorem 1.4 We proceed by induction on $k$. The base case $k=1$ is trivial as any colored set forms a "rainbow" copy of $C_{1}$. Let $k \geq 2$ and suppose the statement is proven for $k-1$ and let $\mathcal{F} \subseteq B_{n}$ be a family of sets with $\lambda_{n}(\mathcal{F})>e(P)(k-1)$. Fix a coloring $\phi: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{+}$and consider the max-partition $\left\{\mathbf{C}_{n, F}: F \in \mathcal{F}\right\} \cup\left\{\mathbf{C}_{n,-}\right\}$. Using

$$
\lambda_{n}(\mathcal{F})=\sum_{F \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{\left|\mathbf{C}_{n, F}\right|}{n!} \lambda_{|F|}\left(\mathcal{D}_{F} \cap \mathcal{F}\right),
$$

we obtain a set $F \in \mathcal{F}$ with $\lambda_{|F|}\left(\mathcal{D}_{F} \cap \mathcal{F}\right)>e(P)(k-1)$. Let $\mathcal{F}_{1}=\left\{G \in \mathcal{D}_{F}\right.$ : $\phi(G)=\phi(F)\}$. If $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ contains a weak copy of $P$, then we are done as, by definition, $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ is monochromatic. Otherwise, as $P$ is uniformly Lubell-bounded, we have $\lambda_{|F|}\left(\mathcal{F}_{1}\right) \leq e(P)$ and thus

$$
\lambda_{|F|}\left(\left(\mathcal{D}_{F} \cap \mathcal{F}\right) \backslash \mathcal{F}_{1}\right)>e(P)(k-1)-e(P)=e(P)(k-2) .
$$

Applying our inductive hypothesis to $\left(\mathcal{D}_{F} \cap \mathcal{F}\right) \backslash \mathcal{F}_{1}$ we either obtain a monochromatic weak copy of $P$ or a rainbow copy of $C_{k-1}$. As all sets in $\left(\mathcal{D}_{F} \cap \mathcal{F}\right) \backslash \mathcal{F}_{1}$ are colored differently than $F$, we can extend the rainbow copy of $C_{k-1}$ to a rainbow copy of $C_{k}$ by adding $F$.

Remark Note that a simple modification of the above proof shows that if $P$ is a uniformly induced Lubell-bounded poset and $\mathcal{F} \subseteq B_{n}$ is a family of sets with $\lambda_{n}(\mathcal{F})>e^{*}(P)(k-1)$, then any coloring of $\phi: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{+}$admits either a monochromatic strong copy of $P$ or a rainbow copy of $C_{k}$, and therefore $R R^{*}\left(P, C_{k}\right)=e^{*}(P)(k-1)$ holds.

The equality in Proposition 1.3 (i) holds for uniformly Lubell-bounded posets $P$ and any posets $Q$. To find posets $P$ and $Q$ with $R R(P, Q)>R_{|Q|-1}(P)$, we have to choose a non-uniformly Lubell-bounded poset as $P$. However, regardless of $P$, Proposition 1.3 (i) still holds with equality if $Q$ is one of the following posets: for $r \geq 2$ the $r$-fork poset $V_{r}$ consists of a minimum element and $r$ other elements that form an antichain. Similarly, for $s \geq 2$ the $s$-broom poset $\Lambda_{s}$ consists of a maximum element and $s$ other elements that form an antichain.

Proposition 2.1 For any poset $P$, we have
(i) $R R\left(P, V_{r}\right)=R_{r}(P)$, and
(ii) $R R\left(P, \Lambda_{s}\right)=R_{s}(P)$.

Proof By Proposition 1.3, $R R\left(P, V_{r}\right) \geq R_{r}(P)$. Let $n=R_{r}(P)$. Any coloring $\phi: B_{n} \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{Z}^{+}$with $\|\phi\| \geq r+1$ contains a rainbow weak copy of $V_{r}$ : the empty set and one representative from each of any other $r$ color classes.

The proof of (ii) is similar by taking the universal set $[n]$ and one representative from each of any $s$ other color classes if $\|\phi\| \geq s+1$.

If $P$ and $Q$ are both fork posets, then we have $R R\left(V_{r}, V_{k}\right)=R_{k}\left(V_{r}\right)$ for any $r, k \geq 1$. In our next result, we manage to determine this value asymptotically for fixed $k$. We write $f_{k}(r)=R_{k}\left(V_{r}\right)$ for simplicity. A simple way to define a $k$-coloring of $B_{n}$ is to color sets of the same size with the same color such that color classes consist of consecutive levels. Formally, let $i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{k}$ be positive integers with $\sum_{j=1}^{k} i_{j}=n+1$ and consider the coloring $\phi(F)=h$ if and only if $\sum_{j=1}^{h-1} i_{j} \leq|F|<\sum_{j=1}^{h} i_{j}$. (The empty sum equals 0 , so $\phi(F)=1$ if and only if $|F|<i_{1}$ holds.) We call such a coloring $\phi$ a consecutive level $k$-coloring and define $g_{k}(r)$ to be the smallest integer $n$ such that any consecutive level $k$-coloring of $B_{n}$ admits a monochromatic weak copy of $V_{r}$. By definition, we have $g_{k}(r) \leq f_{k}(r)$.

For $c \in(0,1)$ let $h(c)=-c \log c-(1-c) \log (1-c)$, the binary entropy function. Note that for $c \in(0,1)$ and $n$ large enough we have

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} 2^{n h(c)} \leq\binom{ n}{\lfloor c n\rfloor} \leq 2^{n h(c)} .
$$

We will use the fact that for $0<\varepsilon \leq 1 / 2$ and $k \leq(1 / 2-\varepsilon) n$ we have $\frac{\binom{n}{k-1}}{\binom{n}{k}}=\frac{k}{n-k} \leq$ $\frac{1 / 2-\varepsilon}{1 / 2+\varepsilon}=: c$. It implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\binom{n}{\leq k}=\sum_{i=0}^{k}\binom{n}{i} \leq\binom{ n}{k} \sum_{i=0}^{k} c^{k-i} \leq \frac{1}{1-c}\binom{n}{k} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the proof we omit floor and ceiling signs for simplicity.
Theorem 2.2 For any positive integer $k$ there exists a constant $c_{k}$ such that

$$
\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g_{k}(r)}{\log r}=\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f_{k}(r)}{\log r}=c_{k} .
$$

Moreover, $c_{1}=1$ and the sequence $\left\{c_{k}\right\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ satisfies the equality $c_{k+1} h\left(\frac{c_{k+1}-c_{k}}{c_{k+1}}\right)=1$ for any $k \geq 1$.

Proof The proof is based on the recursive inequalities contained in the following claim. In part (i) of Claim 2.3, the term $\min \left\{a:\binom{a+f_{k}(2 r-1)}{<a}>r\right\}$ ensures that in $B_{f_{k}(2 r-1)+a}$ the levels $0,1, \ldots, a$ contain together more than $r$ sets. Similarly, in part (ii) of Claim 2.3 the term $\max \left\{a:\binom{a+g_{k}(r)}{\leq a} \leq r\right\}$ ensures that in $B_{g_{k}(r)+a}$ the levels $0,1, \ldots, a$ contain together at most $r$ sets.

Claim 2.3 For any $k \geq 1$ and $r \geq 1$ we have
(i) $f_{k+1}(r) \leq f_{k}(2 r-1)+\min \left\{a:\binom{a+f_{k}(2 r-1)}{\leq a}>r\right\}$,
(ii) $g_{k+1}(r) \geq g_{k}(r)+\max \left\{a:\binom{a+g_{k}(r)}{\leq a} \leq r\right\}+1$.

Proof of the claim Let $N=f_{k}(2 r-1)+\min \left\{a:\left({ }^{a+f_{k}(2 r-1)} \leq a{ }^{\leq a}\right)>r\right\}$ and let us consider a coloring $\phi: B_{N} \rightarrow[k+1]$. Without loss of generality we may assume $\phi(\emptyset)=k+1$ for the empty set $\emptyset$. Assume first that there exists a set $F \in B_{N}$ with $|F| \leq \min \left\{a:\left({ }^{a+f_{k}(2 r-1)} \leq a,\right)>\right.$ $r\}$ and $\phi(F) \neq k+1$. Then consider the $k$-coloring $\phi^{\prime}: B_{F,[N]} \rightarrow[k]$ defined by $\phi^{\prime}(G)=$ $\phi(G)$, if $\phi(G) \in[k]$ and $\phi^{\prime}(G)=\phi(F)$ otherwise. As $N-|F| \geq f_{k}(2 r-1), \phi^{\prime}$ admits a monochromatic weak copy $C$ of $V_{2 r-1}$ in $B_{F,[N]}$. If its color is not $\phi(F)$, then its elements have the same color in $\phi$, thus $C$ is a monochromatic weak copy of $V_{2 r-1}$ with respect to $\phi$. If the color of $C$ is $\phi(F)$ and $C$ contains at least $r$ sets that were colored $k+1$ in the coloring $\phi$, then together with the empty set, they form a monochromatic weak copy of $V_{r}$ with respect to $\phi$. Otherwise $C$ contains at least $r+1$ sets, including $F$, that were colored $\phi(F)$. Then $F$ together with $r$ other such sets form a monochromatic weak copy of $V_{r}$ with respect to $\phi$.

Assume next that all sets of size at $\operatorname{most} \min \left\{a:\left({ }^{a+f_{k}(2 r-1)} \leq a\right)>r\right\}$ are colored $k+1$. Then the empty set and $r$ other such sets form a monochromatic weak copy of $V_{r}$. This proves (i).

To prove (ii), let us consider a consecutive level $k$-coloring $\psi: B_{g_{k}(r)-1} \rightarrow[k]$ defined by the positive integers $i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{k}$ such that $\psi$ does not admit a monochromatic weak copy of $V_{r}$. We "add max $\left\{a:\binom{a+g_{k}(r)}{\leq a} \leq r\right\}+1$ extra levels", i.e., we let $j_{1}:=\max \{a$ : $\left.\binom{a+g_{k}(r)}{\leq a} \leq r\right\}+1$, and $j_{h+1}:=i_{h}$ for all $1 \leq h \leq k$ and set $N^{\prime}:=\left(\sum_{h=1}^{k+1} j_{h}\right)-1$. We claim that the corresponding consecutive level $(k+1)$-coloring $\psi^{\prime}$ does not admit a monochromatic weak copy of $V_{r}$, which proves (ii). Indeed, by definition the union of the first $j_{1}$ layers does not contain $r+1$ sets, so no monochromatic $V_{r}$ exists in this color. To see the $V_{r}$-free property of the other color classes, observe that for any set $F$ of size $j_{1}$, the cube $B_{F,\left[N^{\prime}\right]}$ has dimension $g_{k}(r)-1$, and the consecutive level $k$-coloring that we obtain by restricting $\psi^{\prime}$ to $B_{F,\left[N^{\prime}\right]}$ is isomorphic to $\psi$. If $G$ is the set corresponding to the bottom element of a copy $C$ of $V_{r}$, then for a $j_{1}$-subset $F$ of $G$, the copy $C$ belongs to $B_{F,\left[N^{\prime}\right]}$, so it cannot be monochromatic.

To prove the theorem we proceed by induction on $k$. If one can use only one color, then all colorings are consecutive level 1-colorings and $B_{N}$ does not admit a monochromatic $V_{r}$ if and only if $2^{N} \leq r$, so $g_{1}(r)=f_{1}(r)=\lfloor\log r\rfloor+1$ and $c_{1}=1$.

Assume now that the statement of the theorem is proved for some $k \geq 1$ and let us fix $\varepsilon>0$. Observe that using Claim 2.3 (ii) and the inductive hypothesis we obtain that for $r$ large enough we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{k+1}(r) \geq g_{k}(r)+\max \left\{a:\binom{a+g_{k}(r)}{\leq a} \leq r\right\}+1, \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\left(c_{k}-\varepsilon\right) \log r \leq g_{k}(r) \leq\left(c_{k}+\varepsilon\right) \log r$. We claim that if $d_{k}$ is the constant that satisfies $\left(d_{k}+c_{k}\right) h\left(\frac{d_{k}}{d_{k}+c_{k}}\right)=1$, then the maximum $a$ in Inequality Eq. 3 is at least $\left(d_{k}-\varepsilon\right) \log r$. Indeed, there exist positive constants $c_{0}$ and $\delta$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\binom{\left(d_{k}-\varepsilon\right) \log r+g_{k}(r)}{\leq\left(d_{k}-\varepsilon\right) \log r} & \leq\binom{\left(d_{k}+c_{k}\right) \log r}{\leq\left(d_{k}-\varepsilon\right) \log r} \leq c_{0}\binom{\left(d_{k}+c_{k}\right) \log r}{\left(d_{k}-\varepsilon\right) \log r} \\
& \leq c_{0} 2^{h\left(\frac{d_{k}-\varepsilon}{\left(d_{k}+c_{k}\right.}\right)\left(d_{k}+c_{k}\right) \log r}=c_{0} r^{h\left(\frac{d_{k}-\varepsilon}{d_{k}+c_{k}}\right)\left(d_{k}+c_{k}\right)} \leq c_{0} r^{1-\delta}<r
\end{aligned}
$$

holds, where for the second inequality we used $d_{k}<c_{k}$ and Inequality Eq. 2 and for the penultimate inequality we used that the entropy function is strictly increasing in $(0,1 / 2)$. Therefore, we have $g_{k+1}(r) \geq\left(c_{k}+d_{k}-2 \varepsilon\right) \log r$.

On the other hand, according to Claim 2.3 (i), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{k+1}(r) \leq f_{k}(2 r-1)+\min \left\{a:\binom{a+f_{k}(2 r-1)}{\leq a}>r\right\} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the inductive hypothesis, for sufficiently large $r$ we have

$$
\left(c_{k}-\varepsilon\right) \log r \leq f_{k}(r) \leq f_{k}(2 r-1) \leq\left(c_{k}+\varepsilon\right) \log (2 r-1) \leq\left(c_{k}+2 \varepsilon\right) \log r
$$

We claim that the minimum $a$ in Inequality Eq. 4 is at most $\left(d_{k}+\varepsilon\right) \log r$. Indeed, for some positive $\delta^{\prime}$ and large enough $r$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\binom{\left(d_{k}+\varepsilon\right) \log r+f_{k}(2 r-1)}{\leq\left(d_{k}+\varepsilon\right) \log r} & \geq\binom{\left(d_{k}+c_{k}\right) \log r}{\left(d_{k}+\varepsilon\right) \log r} \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{\log r}} 2^{h\left(\frac{d_{k}+\varepsilon}{d_{k}+c_{k}}\right)\left(d_{k}+c_{k}\right) \log r} \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{\log r}} r^{h\left(\frac{d_{k}+\varepsilon}{d_{k}+c_{k}}\right)\left(d_{k}+c_{k}\right)} \geq \frac{r^{1+\delta^{\prime}}}{\sqrt{\log r}}>r
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, we have $f_{k+1}(r) \leq\left(c_{k}+d_{k}+3 \varepsilon\right) \log r$ and consequently

$$
\left(c_{k}+d_{k}-2 \varepsilon\right) \log r \leq g_{k+1}(r) \leq f_{k+1}(r) \leq\left(c_{k}+d_{k}+3 \varepsilon\right) \log r
$$

showing $c_{k+1}=c_{k}+d_{k}$. Plugging back to the defining equation $\left(d_{k}+c_{k}\right) h\left(\frac{d_{k}}{d_{k}+c_{k}}\right)=1$ we obtain $c_{k+1} h\left(\frac{c_{k+1}-c_{k}}{c_{k+1}}\right)=1$ as claimed.

Note that Cox and Steele [3] obtained general but not tight upper bounds on the Ramsey number $R\left(V_{r_{1}}, \ldots, V_{r_{s}}, \Lambda_{r_{s+1}}, \ldots, \Lambda_{r_{t}}\right)$. Theorem 2.2 is an improvement on their result in case all target posets are the same.

## 3 Strong Copies

The lower bounds in most of our theorems are obtained via trivial colorings where sets of the same size receive the same color. We introduce the following parameters: let $m(P)=$ $\max \left\{m: B_{m}\right.$ does not contain a weak copy of $\left.P\right\}$ and $m^{*}(P)=\max \left\{m: B_{m}\right.$ does not contain a strong copy of $P$ \}. We say that $Q \subset B_{n}$ is thin if $Q$ contains at most one set from each level. Also, let $r^{*}(P)=\max \left\{r: B_{r}\right.$ does not contain a thin, strong copy of $\left.P\right\}$. Note that the corresponding weak parameter $r(P)=\max \left\{r: B_{r}\right.$ does not contain a thin, weak copy of $P\}$ trivially equals $|P|-2$ as $B_{|P|-1}$ contains a chain of length $|P|$ and thus a weak copy of $P$. Also, it is not hard to see that $r^{*}(P) \leq 2|P|-2$. This is certainly true for all one and two-element posets. Then we proceed by induction on $|P|$. Fix a maximal element $p \in P$. By induction, there exists a thin, strong copy of $P \backslash\{p\}$ in $B_{N}$ with $N=2|P|-4$. Denote the embeddig by $\phi$. Set $A:=\cup_{p^{\prime}<p} \phi\left(p^{\prime}\right)$ and partition $P \backslash\{p\}$ into $R_{1}=\left\{p^{\prime}:\left|\phi\left(p^{\prime}\right)\right| \leq|A|\right\}$ and $R_{2}=\left\{p^{\prime}:\left|\phi\left(p^{\prime}\right)\right|>|A|\right\}$. Then it is easy to check that the embedding $\phi^{\prime}$ defined as $\phi^{\prime}\left(p^{\prime}\right)=\phi\left(p^{\prime}\right)$ if $p^{\prime} \in R_{1}, \phi^{\prime}\left(p^{\prime}\right)=\phi\left(p^{\prime}\right) \cup\{N+2\}$ if $p^{\prime} \in R_{2}$ and $\phi^{\prime}(p)=A \cup\{N+1\}$ creates a thin, strong copy of $P$ into $B_{N+2}$.

In the next proposition, we prove some lower bounds using non-trivial colorings. A poset $P$ is said to be connected if for any pair $p, q \in P$ there exists a sequence $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{k}$ such that $r_{1}=p, r_{k}=q$ and $r_{i}, r_{i+1}$ are comparable for any $i=1,2, \ldots, k-1$.

Proposition 3.1 If $P$ is a connected poset with $|P| \geq 2$ and $Q$ is an arbitrary poset, then we have
(i) $R R(P, Q)>m(P)+|Q|-2$,
(ii) $R R^{*}(P, Q)>m^{*}(P)+|Q|-2$,
(iii) $R R^{*}(P, Q)>r^{*}(Q)$.

Proof Set $N=m(P)+|Q|-2, N^{*}=m^{*}(P)+|Q|-2$ and $R=[|Q|-2]$. Consider the colorings $\phi: B_{N} \rightarrow\{1, \ldots,|Q|-1\}$ and $\phi^{*}: B_{N^{*}} \rightarrow\{1, \ldots,|Q|-1\}$ defined by $\phi(F)=|F \cap R|+1$ and $\phi^{*}(G)=|G \cap R|+1$. Observe that $\phi$ and $\phi^{*}$ do not admit a rainbow copy of $Q$ as only $|Q|-1$ colors are used.

By definition of $m(P)$, for any set $T \subseteq R$ the family $\mathcal{F}_{T}=\{F \subseteq[N]: F \cap R=T\}$ cannot contain a weak copy of $P$. Thus a monochromatic weak copy of $P$ (admitted by $\phi$ ) must contain two sets $F, F^{\prime}$ with $F \in \mathcal{F}_{T}$ and $F^{\prime} \in \mathcal{F}_{T^{\prime}}$ such that $|T|=\left|T^{\prime}\right|$ and $T \neq T^{\prime}$. As $P$ is connected, we can choose $F, F^{\prime}$ to be comparable. However, since each $F \in \mathcal{F}_{T}$ is incomparable to each $F^{\prime} \in \mathcal{F}_{T^{\prime}}$ as $T$ is incomparable to $T^{\prime}$, this is a contradiction. So the coloring $\phi$ does not admit a monochromatic weak copy of $P$. This proves (i), and one can prove (ii) in a similar way.

To see (iii) let us consider the trivial coloring $\phi: B_{r^{*}(Q)} \rightarrow\left\{1, \ldots, r^{*}(Q)+1\right\}$ defined by $\phi(F)=|F|+1$. As $P$ is connected with $|P| \geq 2, \phi$ does not admit a monochromatic copy of $P$ and by definition of $r^{*}(Q), \phi$ does not admit a rainbow strong copy of $Q$.

Proposition 3.2 If $n \geq 4$, then $r^{*}\left(A_{n}\right)=n+1$ holds.
Proof Let $\mathcal{F} \subset B_{n}$ be a thin antichain. Then we claim $|\mathcal{F}| \leq n-2$ holds, which shows $r^{*}\left(A_{n}\right) \geq n+1$. Indeed, if $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ or $[n] \in \mathcal{F}$, then $\mathcal{F}=\{\emptyset\}$ or $\mathcal{F}=\{[n]\}$. Also, if both a 1 -element and an $(n-1)$-element sets are in $\mathcal{F}$, they have to be complements, and then no other sets can be in $\mathcal{F}$.

For the upper bound we prove the stronger statement that $B_{n}$ contains a thin antichain of size $n-2$ with set sizes $1,2, \ldots, n-2$. We proceed by induction on $n$. The statement is trivial for $n=4$ and $n=5$. Assume the statement holds for some $n \geq 4$, and we prove it for $n+2$. Hence we can find a thin antichain $\mathcal{F}$ in $B_{n}$ that has cardinality $n-2$ with set sizes $1,2, \ldots, n-2$. Then let $\mathcal{F}^{\prime}=\{F \cup\{n+1\}: F \in \mathcal{F}\} \cup\{[n],\{n+2\}\}$. It is easy to see that $\mathcal{F}^{\prime} \subset B_{n+2}$ is a thin antichain of size $n$ with set sizes $1,2, \ldots, n$.

Propositions 3.1 and 3.2 together yield $R R^{*}\left(C_{2}, A_{k}\right) \geq k+2$, which is larger than both $e^{*}\left(C_{2}\right)\left(\left|A_{k}\right|-1\right)+f\left(A_{k}\right)=k+1$ and $R_{k-1}^{*}\left(C_{2}\right)=k-1$, showing that $C_{2}$ does not possess the property of Question 1.6 and that there exists a pair of posets for which Proposition 1.3 (ii) holds with a strict inequality.

Definition 3.3 We say that the families $\mathcal{F}_{1}, \mathcal{F}_{2}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{l}$ are mutually comparable if for any $F_{i} \in \mathcal{F}_{i}$ and $F_{j} \in \mathcal{F}_{j}$ with $1 \leq i<j \leq l$ we have $F_{i} \subseteq F_{j}$ or $F_{j} \subseteq F_{i}$, and they are mutually incomparable if for any $F_{i} \in \mathcal{F}_{i}$ and $F_{j} \in \mathcal{F}_{j}$ with $1 \leq i<j \leq l$ we have $F_{i} \nsubseteq F_{j}$ and $F_{j} \nsubseteq F_{i}$.

Proof of Theorem 1.7 Set $N=\left\lfloor\lambda_{\text {max }}^{*}(P)(k-1)\right\rfloor+m_{k}$ and consider a coloring $\phi: B_{N} \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{Z}^{+}$. Observe that if $\phi$ does not admit a monochromatic induced copy of $P$, then for any set $S \subseteq\left[m_{k}\right], \phi$ must admit at least $k$ colors on the family $\mathcal{Q}_{S}=\left\{S \cup T: T \subseteq[N] \backslash\left[m_{k}\right]\right\}$. Indeed, if there are at most $k-1$ colors on some $\mathcal{Q}_{S}$, then consider the corresponding coloring $\phi^{\prime}$ of $B_{N-m_{k}}$ such that $\phi^{\prime}\left(\left\{i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{\ell}\right\}\right)=\phi\left(S \cup\left\{i_{1}+m_{k}, i_{2}+m_{k}, \ldots, i_{\ell}+\right.\right.$ $\left.m_{k}\right\}$ ) for every set $\left\{i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{\ell}\right\} \in B_{\left[N-m_{k}\right]}$. Then $\phi^{\prime}$ is a $(k-1)$-coloring of $B_{N-m_{k}}$,
and one of the color classes has Lubell-mass strictly larger than $\lambda_{\text {max }}^{*}(P)$. So $\phi^{\prime}$ admits a monochromatic induced copy of $P$ in $B_{N-m_{k}}$. This implies that $\phi$ admits a monochromatic induced copy of $P$ in $\mathcal{Q}_{S}$.

By the definition of $m_{k}$, we can pick $k$ subsets $S_{1}, S_{2}, \ldots, S_{k}$ of $\left[m_{k}\right]$ of size $\left\lfloor m_{k} / 2\right\rfloor$. As the $S_{i}$ 's form an antichain, the families $\mathcal{Q}_{S_{1}}, \mathcal{Q}_{S_{2}}, \ldots, \mathcal{Q}_{S_{k}}$ are mutually incomparable. By the above paragraph, on each of these families $\phi$ admits at least $k$ colors otherwise we find a monochromatic induced copy of $P$. But then we can pick a rainbow antichain from the $\mathcal{Q}_{S_{i}}$ 's greedily: a set $F_{1}$ from $\mathcal{Q}_{S_{1}}$, then $F_{2}$ from $\mathcal{Q}_{S_{2}}$ and so on with $\phi\left(F_{i}\right) \neq \phi\left(F_{j}\right)$ for all $i<j$. This completes the proof of the first part of Theorem 1.7.

Now we prove the second part. For any $P$ other than $C_{1}$ or $C_{2}, \mathcal{F}=\{\emptyset,[n]\} \subset B_{n}$ is induced $P$-free for all $n \geq 2$. Hence $\lambda_{\text {max }}^{*}(P)=\sup \lambda_{n}^{*}(P) \geq 2$. Let $N=\left\lfloor 2 \lambda_{\text {max }}^{*}(P)\right\rfloor+2$. For any coloring $\psi$ of $B_{N}^{-}$, we show that it admits either a monochromatic induced copy of $P$ or a rainbow copy of $A_{3}$. If $\|\psi\| \leq 2$, then $\lambda_{N}^{*}\left(B_{N}^{-}\right)=N-1$ hence one of the color classes has Lubell-mass strictly larger than $\lambda_{\text {max }}^{*}(P)$, so by the definition of $\lambda_{\text {max }}^{*}, \psi$ admits a monochromatic induced copy of $P$.

Therefore, we can assume that $\|\psi\| \geq 3$. Let $\mathcal{Q}_{i}=\{\{i\} \cup T: T \subseteq[N] \backslash[2]\}$ for $i=1,2$. Note that $\mathcal{Q}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{Q}_{2}$ are mutually incomparable. By the same reasoning as in the previous case, if $\psi$ admits only 2 colors on some $\mathcal{Q}_{i}$, then we can find a corresponding 2-coloring $\psi^{\prime}$ of $B_{N-2}$ and a monochromatic copy of $P$ in $B_{N-2}$ with respect to $\psi^{\prime}$. As before, this implies that there is a monochromatic copy of $P$ in $\mathcal{Q}_{i}$ with respect to $\psi$. Hence we consider the case that $\psi$ admits at least three colors on each $\mathcal{Q}_{i}$. If there are two sets $F_{1}, F_{2} \in \mathcal{Q}_{1}$ of the same size with distinct colors, then a set of third color in $\mathcal{Q}_{2}$ together with $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ form a rainbow $A_{3}$. So we may assume that all subsets of the same size in $\mathcal{Q}_{1}$ have the same color. Now if all sets in $\mathcal{Q}_{1} \backslash\{\{1\}$, ([N] \[2]) $\cup\{1\}\}$ are of the same color, then the corresponding coloring $\psi^{\prime}$ admits only one color on $B_{N-2}^{-}$. Since $\lambda_{\text {max }}^{*}(P) \geq 2$, we have $\lambda_{N-2}^{*}\left(B_{N-2}^{-}\right)=N-3=\left\lfloor 2 \lambda_{\max }^{*}(P)\right\rfloor-1>\lambda_{\max }^{*}(P)$. Thus, $\psi^{\prime}$ admits a monochromatic $P$ in $B_{N-2}$ and then $\psi$ admits a monochromatic $P$ in $\mathcal{Q}_{1}$ as well. If there are at least two colors on $\mathcal{Q}_{1} \backslash\{\{1\}$, ([N] \[2]) $\cup\{1\}\}$ and sets of the same size have the same color, then we can easily find two incomparable sets from two levels of distinct colors. The two sets together with a set of third color in $\mathcal{Q}_{2}$ form a rainbow $A_{3}$. This completes the proof.

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## Declarations

Conflict of Interests The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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