

## Short Notes March 31st Lecture

### 1 Introduction

These notes are helpful if you both watched the recording and attended class (by zoom). Otherwise I doubt they are helpful.

**Convention 1.1** Every time we mention a set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  they have no three colinear

### 2 Happy Ending Theorem

**Def 2.1** Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  of size  $k$ . The points in  $A$  form a *convex  $k$ -gon* if for every  $x, y, z \in A$ , there is no point of  $A$  in the triangle formed by  $x, y, z$ . Henceforth we just say  *$k$ -gon*.

**Theorem 2.2** (*Esther Klein*) For every 5 points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  there exists a 4-gon.

**Theorem 2.3** (*Erdős and Szekeres*) For all  $k \geq 3$  there exists  $n$  such that for every set of  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  there exists  $k$  of them that form a  $k$ -gon.

**Sketch:**

$k = 3$ : Take  $n = 3$ .

$k = 4$ : Take  $n = 5$  and use Klein's Theorem.

We assume  $k \geq 5$ .

We went over three proofs that used the following three colorings.

The points are  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . The ordering on the points is arbitrary; however, for the third proof we need the ordering.

**Proof 1:**  $n = R_4(k)$ . We have any  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$

$COL(w, x, y, z)$  is RED if the for points form a 4-gon, and BLUE if they do not.

The homog set can't be BLUE since if was then there would be  $k \geq 5$  points such that NO 4-subset was a 4-gon, which contradicts Klein's Theorem.

Hence there are  $k$  points so that every set of 4 of them forms a 4-gon. One can show that the entire set is a  $k$ -gon.

**Proof 1':** We can use  $n = R_4(k, 5)$  which is the smallest  $n$  such that any 2-coloring of  $\binom{[n]}{4}$  has either a RED Homog set of size  $k$  or a BLUE homog set of size 5.

**Proof 2:**  $n = R_3(k)$ . We have any  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$

$COL(w, x, y)$  is RED if there is an EVEN number of points inside the  $x, y, z$  triangle, BLUE otherwise.

Both cases are possible. One can show that in either case the set is a  $k$ -gon using a parity argument.

**Proof 3:**  $n = R_3(k)$ . We have any  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$

$COL(p_i, p_j, p_k)$  where  $i < j < k$  is RED if  $p_i, p_j, p_k$  is clockwise, and BLUE if counterclockwise.

Some cases, finishing the proof will be on the HW I give out next Tuesday.

■

These bounds are quite large. The following upper and lower bounds are known.

#### Theorem 2.4

1. (Erdős and Szekeres) For all  $k \geq 3$  there exists  $n \leq \binom{2n-4}{n-2} + 1 = 4^{n+o(n)}$  such that for every set of  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  there exists  $k$  of them that form a  $k$ -gon.
2. (Andrew Suk) For all  $k \geq 3$  there exists  $n \leq 2^{n+o(n)}$  such that for every set of  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  there exists  $k$  of them that form a  $k$ -gon.
3. (a) For all sets of 3 points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  there exists a subset of 3 that form a 3-gon (this is trivial). This is tight.  
 (b) For all sets of 5 points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  there exists a subset of 4 that form a 4-gon. This is tight.  
 (c) For all sets of 9 points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  there exists a subset of 5 that form a 5-gon. This is tight.  
 (d) For all sets of 17 points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  there exists a subset of 6 that form a 6-gon. This is tight.
4. For all  $k \geq 3$  there exists a set of  $2^{k-2}$  points such that there is NO subset of size  $k$  that form a  $k$ -gon.

The lower bound in the last part of the last theorem is the conjecture.

**Conjecture 2.5** *For all  $k \geq 3$  for every set of  $2^{k-2} + 1$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  there exists  $k$  of them that form a  $k$ -gon.*

### 3 Extends to Higher Dimensions

This was also on the Wikipedia Page of *The Happy Ending Problem*, so even though I just thought of it on the morning of March 31, it was somewhat studied. I am not surprised. But its gotten A LOT less attention than the planar case. In fact, I could not find it anywhere else on the web. If you can then let me know.

**Convention 3.1** Every time we mention a set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  they have no four coplanar.

**Def 3.2** Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  of size  $k$ . The points in  $A$  form a *convex  $k$ -gon* if for every  $w, x, y, z \in A$ , there is no point of  $A$  is in the tetrahedron formed by  $w, x, y, z$ . Henceforth we just say  *$k$ -gon*.

**Theorem 3.3** (*Gasarch the Morning of March 31, but others many years ago*) *For all  $k \geq 3$  there exists  $n$  such that for every set of  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  there exists  $k$  of them that form a  $k$ -gon.*

**Sketch:**

$k = 3$ : Take  $n = 3$ .

$k = 4$ : Take  $n = 5$  and use Klein's Theorem.

We assume  $k \geq 5$ .

We went over three proofs that used the following three colorings.

The points are  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . The ordering on the points is arbitrary; however, for the third proof we need the ordering.

**Proof 1:**  $n = R_a(k)$ . We have any  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$

I DO NOT KNOW HOW TO FINISH THIS PROOF. Need an analog of Klein's theorem in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . I am sure that some such theorem is true. Thats why I don't know what  $a$  is.

**Proof 1':** We can use  $n = R_a(k, b)$  which is the smallest  $n$  such that any 2-coloring of  $\binom{[n]}{a}$  has either a RED Homog set of size  $k$  or a BLUE homog set of size  $b$ . Don't know what  $a$  or  $b$  are.

**Proof 2:**  $n = R_4(k)$ . We have any  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$

$$COL(w, x, y, z) = \begin{cases} RED & \text{if numb of pts in tetra formed by } w, x, y, z \text{ is } \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \\ BLUE & \text{if numb of pts in tetra formed by } w, x, y, z \text{ is } \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \\ GREEN & \text{if numb of pts in tetra formed by } w, x, y, z \text{ is } \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

A mod-3 argument works here.

**Proof 3:**  $n = R_a(k)$ . We have any  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$

Color sets of  $a$ -points based on *orientation*. I do not know what that means or how to finish this proof. ■

There is a generalization to  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . There was a debate about if you need to increase the colors or if you use 2 colors for  $d \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$  and 3 colors for  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ . I leave you to figure all of that out.

## 4 Large Ramsey, Those $\phi$ -functions, and the Busy Beaver Function

Recall the following

**Def 4.1** Let  $H \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ .  $H$  is *large* if  $|H| > \min(H)$ .

**Theorem 4.2** (*a-ary Large Ramsey*) For every  $a, c \in \mathbb{N}$ , for every  $k$  there exists  $n$  such that for every coloring  $COL : \binom{\{k, \dots, n\}}{a} \rightarrow [c]$  there exists a homog  $H$  that is large. We denote  $n$  by  $LR(a, k, c)$ .

The function  $LR(a, k, c)$  grows very fast. How fast? First we put it in terms of one variable:  $LR(x, x, x)$ .

We define a sequence of functions to demonstrate.

**Def 4.3**

1.  $\Phi_0(x) = x + 1$
2.  $\Phi_1(x) = \Phi_0^{(x)}(x)$ . This means we do  $\Phi_0(\Phi_0(\dots))$   $x$  times.  $(\dots(x+1)+1)\dots) = 2x$ .
3.  $\Phi_2(x) = \Phi_1^{(x)}(x)$ . This is  $x2^x$ .
4.  $\Phi_{n+1}(x) = \Phi_n^{(x)}(x)$ .

These functions are all *Primitive Recursive*. The function  $\Phi_n$  is at the  $n$ th level of the Primitive Rec Hierarchy. All primitive recursive functions are bounded by some  $\Phi_n$ . We now define a function that is NOT Primitive Recursive

$$\Phi_\omega(x) = \Phi_x(x).$$

This function eventually grows faster than any  $\Phi_i$  and hence is not Primitive Recursive. This function is close to Ackermann's function, the standard example of a non-prim-rec function.

So does  $LR(x, x, x)$  grow about as fast as  $\Phi_\omega(x)$ ? No.  $LR(x, x, x)$  grows much faster.

We can define

$$\Phi_{\omega+1}(x) = \Phi_\omega^{(x)}(x)$$

We can keep defining  $\Phi_{\omega+2}$ ,  $\Phi_{\omega+3}$ , and so on- until

$$\Phi_{2\omega}(x) = \Phi_{\omega+x}(x).$$

More generally:

**Def 4.4** Let  $\alpha$  be a countable ordinal.

1. If  $\alpha = \beta + 1$  then

$$\Phi_\alpha(x) = \Phi_\beta^{(x)}(x).$$

2. If  $\alpha$  is NOT one more than some other ordinal (like  $\omega$  and  $2\omega$ ) then there is a sequence that converges to them  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots$ . Now define

$$\Phi_\alpha(x) = \Phi_{\alpha_x}(x).$$

Let  $\alpha$  be the limit of  $\omega, \omega^\omega, \omega^{\omega^\omega}, \dots$   
 $LR(x, x, x)$  grows at around the same rate as  $\Phi_\alpha$ .

## 5 Are There Faster Functions Than $LR(x, x, x)$ ?

The function  $LR(x, x, x)$  certainly grows faster. Are there functions that grow faster? The obvious answer is

$$LR(x, x, x) + 1.$$

One can also construct contrived functions that grow faster. Are there natural functions that grow faster (I will not define natural).

Note that  $LR(x, x, x)$  is computable. One could write a program that will, on input  $x$ , compute  $LR(x, x, x)$ . One would not want to and one would not want to run such a program. We define a non-computable function that NO computable function can bound.

**Def 5.1** Let  $M_1, M_2, \dots$ , be a list of all Turing Machines (if you do not know what Turing Machines are then it can be a list of all Java Programs).

We give a procedure to compute  $BB(x)$ , though one of the steps one could not really do.

Run  $M_1(0), \dots, M_x(0)$  until those that are going to halt, halt (we do not know which ones will halt, so this really could not be done). Let  $t$  be the max time taken by all those that halt, to halt.

If  $f$  is ANY computable function then there exists an  $x_0$  such that

$$(\forall x \geq x_0)[f(x) < BB(x)].$$

Since  $LR(x, x, x)$  is computable,  $BB(x)$  dominates it.

Is  $BB(x)$  natural? Perhaps not since it involves Turing Machines. In that light,  $LR(x, x, x)$  may be the fastest growing natural function, or perhaps the fastest growing natural computable function.