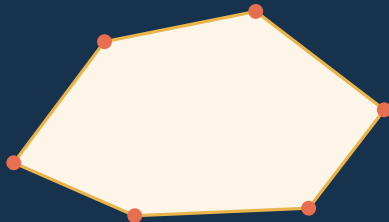


The Happy Ending Problem

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Hrishik



Convexity and the convex hull

Convex set

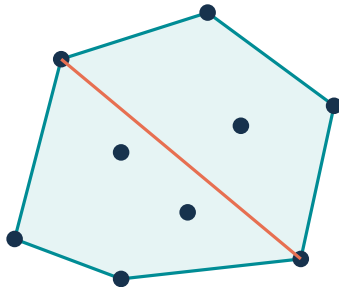
A set $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ is convex if, whenever $x, y \in C$, the whole segment $[x, y]$ lies in C .

Convex hull

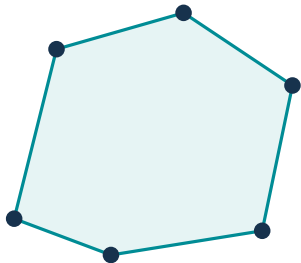
For $P = \{p_1, \dots, p_m\}$,

$$\text{conv}(P) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i p_i : \lambda_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i = 1 \right\}.$$

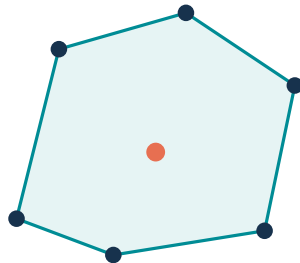
It is the smallest convex set containing P or the **convex hull** of P .



Convex Position



convex position



not in convex position

Equivalent test

P is in convex position iff no point of P belongs to $\text{conv}(P \setminus \{p\})$.

A Question & A General Assumption

Question

How many points do you need to create a k -gon?

Assumption

In general, the answer could be infinitely many if all points are collinear. So we assume that no 3 given points are collinear. From here on, whenever we say non-collinear we mean that no 3 points are collinear.

Answer

Now under our assumption, we can safely say that k vertices are enough to form a k -gon.

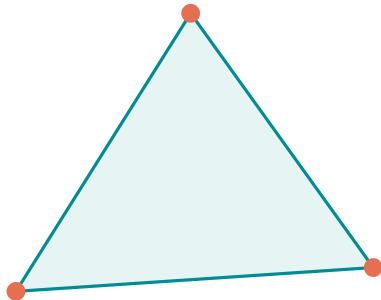
Triangles

Claim

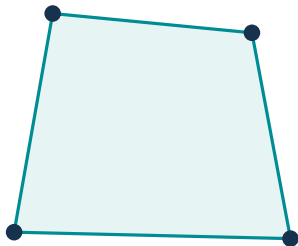
Three non-collinear points form a triangle or 3-gon, and in fact a convex 3-gon.

Why?

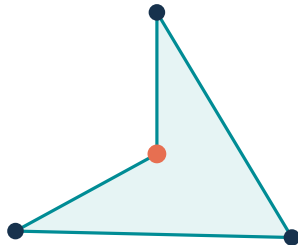
- ▶ Three non-collinear points are exactly the vertices of their triangular convex hull.
- ▶ Fewer than three points cannot form a triangle.



Four points have two order types



convex quadrilateral



So 4 points form a 4-gon or quadrilateral. But it does not force a convex 4-gon. So we move from the uninteresting question to the interesting one.

The Happy Ending Problem

The Interesting Question

How many non-collinear points do you need to create a convex k -gon?

Extremal function

For $k \geq 3$, let $ES(k)$ be the least integer M such that every set of M non-collinear points in the plane contains k points in convex position.

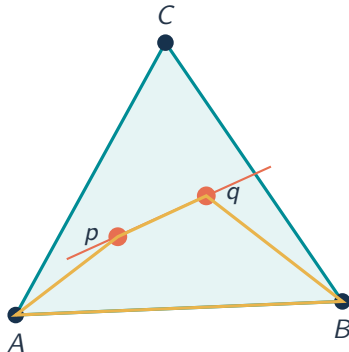
Why five points force a convex quadrilateral?

Let P contain five points.

1. If $\text{conv}(P)$ has at least four vertices in convex position, we are done.
2. Otherwise the hull is a triangle ABC , with two interior points p, q .
3. Two of A, B, C , say A, B , lie on the same side of the line pq .
4. Both AB and pq are boundary edges of $\text{conv}\{A, B, p, q\}$.

Thus A, B, p, q form a convex quadrilateral, so

$$\boxed{\text{ES}(4) = 5}.$$



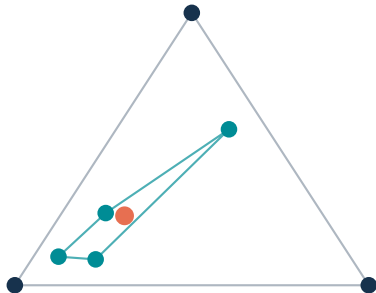
A Pentagon

Classical exact result

$$ES(5) = 9$$

Every set of 9 non-collinear points contains five points in convex position.

But 8 points can avoid every convex pentagon.
The picture shows one coordinate realization;
every five-point subset has at most four hull
vertices.



The Erdős–Szekeres conjecture

k	$ES(k)$	$2^{k-2} + 1$
3	3	3
4	5	5
5	9	9
6	17	17

Conjecture

The first four values suggest $ES(k) = 2^{k-2} + 1$. This is the Erdős–Szekeres conjecture.

The Erdős–Szekeres theorem (1935)

Theorem

For every positive integer N , every sufficiently large finite set of points in the plane in general position contains a subset of N points that form the vertices of a convex polygon.

Equivalently,

$$\forall N \geq 3, \quad \text{ES}(N) < \infty.$$

Detour: Erdős–Szekeres monotone subsequence theorem

Theorem

Every sequence of $rs + 1$ distinct real numbers contains either

- ▶ an increasing subsequence of length $r + 1$, or
- ▶ a decreasing subsequence of length $s + 1$.

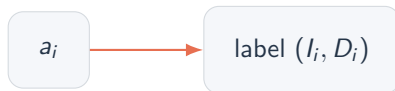
Setting $r = s = n$ gives the memorable form:

$n^2 + 1$ distinct numbers force a monotone subsequence of length $n + 1$.

Proof idea: a label for each entry

For each position i , define

l_i = length of the longest increasing subsequence ending at a_i ,
 D_i = length of the longest decreasing subsequence ending at a_i .



Assume there is no increasing $r + 1$ -subsequence and no decreasing $s + 1$ -subsequence, then

$$1 \leq l_i \leq r, \quad 1 \leq D_i \leq s.$$

Only rs different labels are available.

Proof: two positions cannot share a label

Take $1 \leq i < j \leq rs + 1$.

If $a_i < a_j$

Append a_j to a longest increasing subsequence ending at a_i :

$$l_j \geq l_i + 1.$$

If $a_i > a_j$

Append a_j to a longest decreasing subsequence ending at a_i :

$$D_j \geq D_i + 1.$$

Thus $(l_i, D_i) \neq (l_j, D_j)$ whenever $i \neq j$. We have $rs + 1$ entries but only rs possible labels. So by pigeonhole principle at least 2 of them share a label, which gives a contradiction. $\square$

Can we apply the monotone subsequence theorem directly to points?

Order points from left to right and write the consecutive slopes

$$m_i = \text{slope}(p_i, p_{i+1}).$$

It is tempting to find a monotone subsequence of the m_i .

Where it fails?

We might have a monotone increasing or decreasing subsequence of the slopes m_i but that does not necessarily imply that the slopes we get in the subsequence belong strictly to consecutive edges. But this is a viable direction that works with slight modification, and we exploit this but use a geometric version that removes the bottleneck.

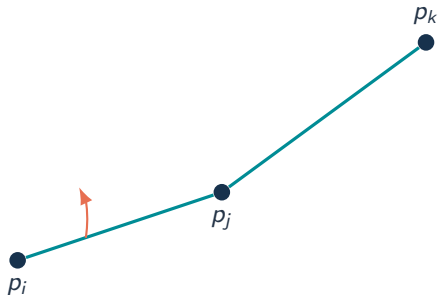
The right geometric encoding: compare adjacent slope

Take

$$x(p_1) < x(p_2) < \cdots < x(p_m).$$

For three consecutive selected points,

$$\text{turn}(p_i, p_j, p_k) > 0 \iff \text{slope}(p_i, p_j) < \text{slope}(p_j, p_k) \iff \text{the slope increases}$$



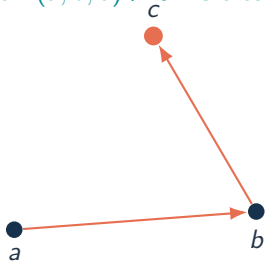
This produces the geometric analogues of increasing and decreasing subsequences: **cups and caps**.

Encoding a triple by its orientation

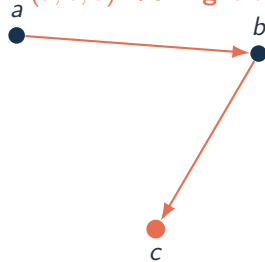
For $a = (a_x, a_y)$, $b = (b_x, b_y)$, $c = (c_x, c_y)$ define

$$\text{turn}(a, b, c) = \det \begin{pmatrix} b_x - a_x & b_y - a_y \\ c_x - a_x & c_y - a_y \end{pmatrix}.$$

$\text{turn}(a, b, c) > 0$: **left turn**



$\text{turn}(a, b, c) < 0$: **right turn**



Our non-collinearity condition guarantees that $\text{turn}(a, b, c) \neq 0$.

Geometric lemma

Order points by x-coordinate: $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N$.

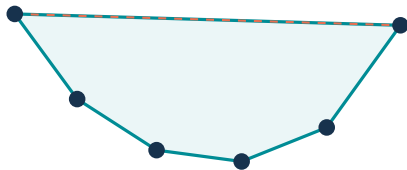
Lemma

If $\text{turn}(p_i, p_j, p_k) > 0$ for every $i < j < k$, then all p_i are in convex position. The same holds with all signs negative.

Indeed,

$$\text{turn}(p_i, p_j, p_k) > 0 \iff \text{slope}(p_i, p_j) < \text{slope}(p_j, p_k)$$

for consecutive points. Thus the chain makes strictly increasing turns. Also, each intermediate point lies below the chord $p_1 p_N$.



Cups and Caps

Let $p_1, \dots, p_k$ be ordered by increasing x-coordinate.

k -cup

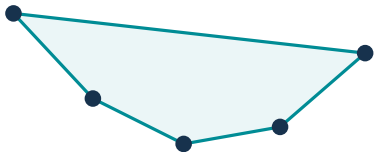
$$\text{slope}(p_1, p_2) < \text{slope}(p_2, p_3) < \dots < \text{slope}(p_{k-1}, p_k).$$

k -cap

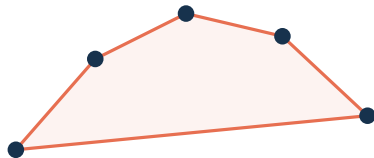
$$\text{slope}(p_1, p_2) > \text{slope}(p_2, p_3) > \dots > \text{slope}(p_{k-1}, p_k).$$

General position makes all comparisons strict. A cup bends upward; a cap bends downward.

Cups and Caps II



5-cup: slopes increase



5-cap: slopes decrease

Why every cup or cap is a convex polygon

Consider a k -cup $p_1, \dots, p_k$.

- ▶ Increasing consecutive slopes mean every internal vertex makes a strict left turn.
- ▶ Every point $p_2, \dots, p_{k-1}$ lies below the closing chord p_1p_k .
- ▶ Therefore the polygonal chain plus the chord p_kp_1 is the boundary of a convex k -gon.

The cap case is the reflected picture.

The cup–cap extremal function

Definition

Let $f(r, s)$ be the least integer M such that every M -point set in general position contains an r -cup or an s -cap.

The goal is to prove

$$f(r, s) \leq \binom{r+s-4}{r-2} + 1.$$

Since an k -cup or k -cap is a convex k -gon,

$$ES(k) \leq f(k, k).$$

The binomial coefficient will arise from Pascal's identity—but first we need a geometric recurrence.

Boundary cases: $f(r, 3) = r$

Take r points from left to right.

- ▶ If some three selected points form a 3-cap, we are done.
- ▶ Otherwise no consecutive triple turns downward.
- ▶ Hence all consecutive slopes strictly increase, so all r points form an r -cup.
- ▶ Also note that, an $r - 1$ cup contains neither a r cup nor a 3 cap.

Therefore

$$f(r, 3) = r, \quad f(3, s) = s.$$

These agree with the proposed formula:

$$\binom{r-1}{r-2} + 1 = r.$$

The key recurrence: set up the partition

We prove

$$f(r, s) \leq f(r-1, s) + f(r, s-1) - 1.$$

Let P have $f(r-1, s) + f(r, s-1) - 1$ points. Define

$$L = \{p \in P : p \text{ is the leftmost point of an } (r-1)\text{-cup}\}.$$

If $|P \setminus L| \geq f(r-1, s)$, then $P \setminus L$ contains an $(r-1)$ -cup or an s -cap. The first is impossible by the definition of L .

Only one case remains.

Otherwise

$$|L| \geq f(r, s-1),$$

so L contains an r -cup or an $(s-1)$ -cap.

The key recurrence: the joining step

Suppose L contains an $(s-1)$ -cap

$$q_1, q_2, \dots, q_{s-1}.$$

Because its rightmost point q_{s-1} lies in L , it starts an $(r-1)$ -cup

$$q_{s-1} = u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{r-1}.$$

Compare the two slopes meeting at q_{s-1} .

If

$$\text{slope}(q_{s-2}, q_{s-1}) < \text{slope}(q_{s-1}, u_2),$$

then $q_{s-2}, q_{s-1}, u_2, \dots, u_{r-1}$ is an r -cup.

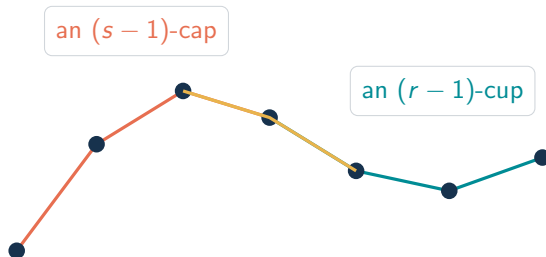
If the inequality is reversed, then

$$q_1, \dots, q_{s-1}, u_2$$

is an s -cap.

Equality is excluded by general position. Thus one desired pattern always appears.

The recurrence in one picture



$$f(r, s) \leq f(r-1, s) + f(r, s-1) - 1.$$

Pascal's identity solves the recurrence

Assume the bound for smaller values of $r + s$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(r, s) &\leq f(r-1, s) + f(r, s-1) - 1 \\ &\leq \left[\binom{r+s-5}{r-3} + 1 \right] + \left[\binom{r+s-5}{r-2} + 1 \right] - 1 \\ &= \binom{r+s-4}{r-2} + 1, \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality is Pascal's identity

$$\binom{n}{j-1} + \binom{n}{j} = \binom{n+1}{j}.$$

Together with the boundary cases, this completes the induction. $\square$

The classical Erdős–Szekeres upper bound

Set $r = s = k$. Any $f(k, k)$ points contain a k -cup or a k -cap, hence a convex k -gon. Therefore

$$\text{ES}(k) \leq \binom{2k-4}{k-2} + 1.$$

Using the central-binomial estimate,

$$\binom{2k-4}{k-2} \sim \frac{4^{k-2}}{\sqrt{\pi(k-2)}}.$$

So the proof gives a bound of order $O(\frac{4^k}{\sqrt{k}})$.

How large is the cup–cap bound?

k	exact/known $ES(k)$	cup–cap upper bound	conjectured
4	5	$\binom{4}{2} + 1 = 7$	5
5	9	$\binom{6}{3} + 1 = 21$	9
6	17	$\binom{8}{4} + 1 = 71$	17
7	unknown	$\binom{10}{5} + 1 = 253$	33
10	unknown	$\binom{16}{8} + 1 = 12871$	257

Ramsey numbers for ordinary graphs

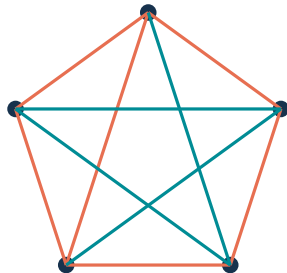
Two-color Ramsey number

The number $R(r, s)$ is the least n such that every red–blue coloring of the edges of the complete graph K_n contains either

- ▶ a red complete graph K_r , or
- ▶ a blue complete graph K_s .

In the symmetric case, $R(k, k)$ asks:

How many vertices force a monochromatic K_k ?



$$R(3, 3) \leq 6$$

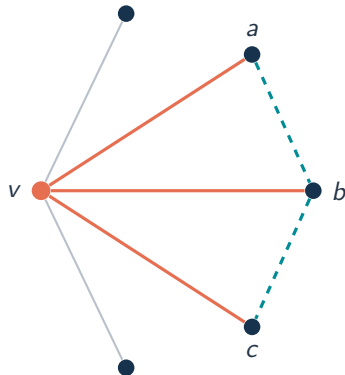
Take any red–blue coloring of all edges of K_6 and choose a vertex v . The five edges from v have only two colors. By the pigeonhole principle, at least three have one color; suppose

va, vb, vc are red.

Now inspect the three edges ab, bc, ca :

- ▶ if one is red, it forms a red triangle with v ;
- ▶ if none is red, all three are blue, so abc is a blue triangle.

Thus every coloring of K_6 has a monochromatic triangle.



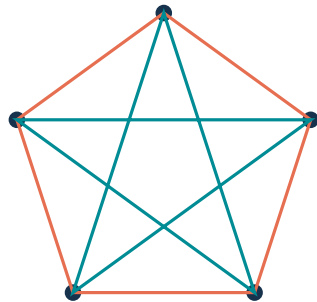
$$R(3,3) > 5$$

To show that five vertices are not enough, we exhibit a coloring of K_5 with no monochromatic triangle.

- ▶ Color the five edges of a pentagon red.
- ▶ Color its five diagonals blue.
- ▶ The red graph is a 5-cycle, so it has no triangle.
- ▶ The blue graph is also a 5-cycle, drawn as a star, so it has no triangle.

Therefore $R(3,3) > 5$. Together with the previous slide,

$$R(3,3) = 6.$$



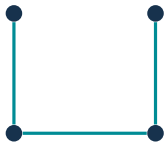
red cycle

blue star

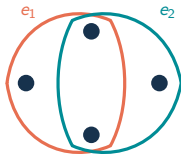
From graphs to hypergraphs

Definition

A **hypergraph** consists of a vertex set V and a collection of subsets of V , called hyperedges. It is k -uniform if every hyperedge contains exactly k vertices.



2-uniform
an ordinary graph



3-uniform
a 3-uniform hypergraph

For the Happy Ending Problem:

- ▶ vertices are planar points;
- ▶ every triple is a 3-hyperedge;
- ▶ color it by left or right orientation.

The corresponding Ramsey number is written $R_3(N, N)$; the subscript records that the colored hyperedges have size 3.

Finite Ramsey theorem, special case

For every N , there exists an integer $R_3(N, N)$ such that every red–blue coloring of the triples of an $R_3(N, N)$ -element set contains N elements whose every triple has the same color.

The number $R_3(N, N)$ is enormous, but **finite**.

What does Ramsey's theorem for triples mean?

For a vertex set V , write $\binom{V}{3} = \{T \subseteq V : |T| = 3\}$ for the collection of all triples. A coloring is a function $\chi : \binom{V}{3} \rightarrow \{\text{red}, \text{blue}\}$.

What is $R_3(N, N)$ if put in a simpler but rigorous manner?

$R_3(N, N)$ is the least M with the property that for every set V with $|V| = M$ and every coloring χ , there are a subset $S \subseteq V$ and a color c such that

$$|S| = N \quad \text{and} \quad \chi(T) = c \quad \text{for every } T \in \binom{S}{3}.$$

Thus all $\binom{N}{3}$ triples determined by the same N vertices are red, or all are blue.

Finiteness of $R_3(N, N)$

Let $t = R(N, N) < \infty$, using the ordinary graph Ramsey theorem. Begin with a sufficiently large finite reservoir W .

1. Choose $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_t$ successively. After choosing v_j , for every $i < j$ split the remaining W according to the color of $\{v_i, v_j, w\}$ and retain the larger half.
2. Consequently, every pair v_i, v_j has a fixed color c_{ij} satisfying $\chi(\{v_i, v_j, v_k\}) = c_{ij}$ whenever $i < j < k$.
3. Color the edge $v_i v_j$ of K_t by c_{ij} . Since $t = R(N, N)$, there are N vertices whose pair-colors are all the same, say c .
4. Any three of these vertices, indexed $i < j < k$, form a triple of color $c_{ij} = c$. Hence all their triples are monochromatic.

Why the construction terminates

There are only $\binom{t}{2}$ halvings. Starting with, for example, 2^{t^2} vertices leaves enough points to choose all $v_1, \dots, v_t$. Therefore $R_3(N, N) < \infty$.

Proof of finiteness of $ES(N)$

Fix $N \geq 3$ and take at least $M = R_3(N, N)$ non-collinear points.

1. Label the points $p_1, \dots, p_M$ from left to right.
2. Color each triple $i < j < k$ by the sign of $\text{turn}(p_i, p_j, p_k)$.
3. Ramsey's theorem gives indices $i_1 < \dots < i_N$ such that every triple among them has the same color.
4. By the geometric lemma, $p_{i_1}, \dots, p_{i_N}$ are in convex position.

Conclusion

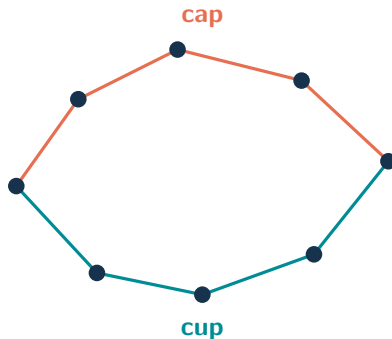
$$ES(N) \leq R_3(N, N) < \infty.$$

This also proves the Erdős–Szekeres theorem.

Why a convex polygon need not be one cup or one cap

A general convex polygon has two x -monotone boundary chains:

- ▶ a lower chain, which is a cup;
- ▶ an upper chain, which is a cap.



The lower bound and the conjecture

Erdős and Szekeres constructed, for every k , a set of 2^{k-2} non-collinear points with no k points in convex position. Thus

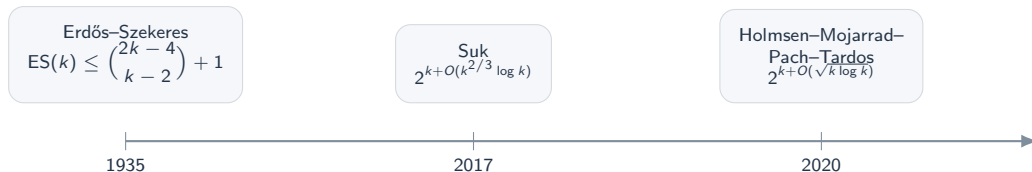
$$\text{ES}(k) \geq 2^{k-2} + 1.$$

Erdős–Szekeres conjecture

For every $k \geq 3$,

$$\text{ES}(k) = 2^{k-2} + 1.$$

Known general upper bounds



Recent progress

Split k -gon

A split k -gon is the union of an a -cap and a u -cup that share their **rightmost point**, where

$$a + u = k + 2.$$

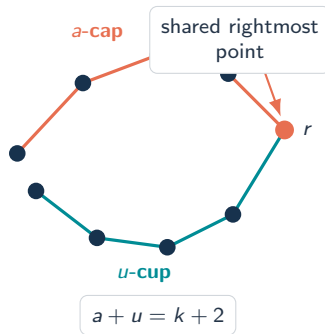
It has $k + 1$ points if only the right endpoint is shared. If the left endpoint is also shared, it has k points in convex position and is an ordinary convex k -gon.

Baek–Balko theorem (2025)

Let $\text{ES}_{\text{split}}(k)$ be the least number of points that forces a split k -gon. For every $k \geq 2$,

$$\text{ES}_{\text{split}}(k) = 2^{k-2} + 1.$$

Thus the conjectured threshold is exact for this relaxed version of convex position.



Further research questions

1. Is $ES(7) = 33$?
2. Can the upper bound $2^{k+O(\sqrt{k \log k})}$ be pushed all the way to $2^{k-2} + 1$?
3. Which restrictions on triple-orientation colorings capture exactly those arising from planar point sets?
4. What changes for **empty** convex polygons, where the chosen polygon may contain no other points of the original set?

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