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Some Low Distortion Metric Ramsey Problems*

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Abstract. In this note we consider the metric Ramsey problem for the normed spaces ℓ_p . Namely, given some $1 \le p \le \infty$ and $\alpha \ge 1$, and an integer *n*, we ask for the largest *m* such that every *n*-point metric space contains an *m*-point subspace which embeds into ℓ_p with distortion at most α . In [1] it is shown that in the case of ℓ_2 , the dependence of *m* on α undergoes a phase transition at $\alpha = 2$. Here we consider this problem for other ℓ_p , and specifically the occurrence of a phase transition for $p \ne 2$. It is shown that a phase transition does occur at $\alpha = 2$ for every $p \in [1, 2]$. For p > 2 we are unable to determine the answer, but estimates are provided for the possible location of such a phase transition. We also study the analogous problem for isometric embedding and show that for every $1 there are arbitrarily large metric spaces, no four points of which embed isometrically in <math>\ell_p$.

1. Introduction

A Ramsey-type theorem states that large systems necessarily contain large, highly structured subsystems. Here we consider Ramsey-type problems for finite metric spaces, interpreting "highly structured" as having low distortion embedding in ℓ_p .

A mapping between two metric spaces $f : M \to X$ is called an embedding of M in X. The *distortion* of the embedding is defined as

 $\operatorname{dist}(f) = \sup_{\substack{x, y \in M \\ x \neq y}} \frac{d_X(f(x), f(y))}{d_M(x, y)} \cdot \sup_{\substack{x, y \in M \\ x \neq y}} \frac{d_M(x, y)}{d_X(f(x), f(y))}.$

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The least distortion required to embed M in X is denoted by $c_X(M)$. When $c_X(M) \le \alpha$ we say that $M \alpha$ -embeds in X. In this note we study the following notion.

Definition 1 (Metric Ramsey Function). We denote by $R_X(\alpha, n)$ the largest integer m such that every *n*-point metric space has a subspace of size *m* that α -embeds into *X*.

When $X = \ell_p$ we use the notations c_p and R_p . Note that for $p \in [1, \infty]$, it is always true that $R_p(\alpha, n) \ge R_2(\alpha, n)$. When $\alpha = 1$ we drop it from the notation, i.e., $R_X(n) = R_X(1, n).$

Bourgain et al. [4] study this function for $X = \ell_2$, as a metric analog of Dvoretzky's theorem [7]. They prove:

Theorem 1 [4]. For any $\alpha > 1$ there exists $C(\alpha) > 0$ such that $R_2(\alpha, n) \ge C(\alpha) \log n$. Furthermore, there exists $\alpha_0 > 1$ such that $R_2(\alpha_0, n) = O(\log n)$.

In [1] the metric Ramsey problem is studied comprehensively. In particular, the following phase transition is established in the case of $X = \ell_2$.

Theorem 2 [1]. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then:

- 1. For every $1 < \alpha < 2$: $c(\alpha) \log n \le R_2(\alpha, n) \le 2 \log n + C(\alpha)$, where $c(\alpha)$ and $C(\alpha)$ may depend only on α .
- 2. For every $\alpha > 2$: $n^{c'(\alpha)} \leq R_2(\alpha, n) \leq n^{C'(\alpha)}$, where $c'(\alpha)$ and $C'(\alpha)$ depend only on α and $0 < c'(\alpha) < C'(\alpha) < 1$. Moreover, $c'(\alpha)$ tends to 1 as α tends to ∞ .

By Dvoretzky's theorem, the lower bound in part 2 of Theorem 2 implies in particular that if $\alpha > 2$, and X is any infinite-dimensional normed space, then $R_X(\alpha, n) \ge n^{c'(\alpha)}$. Therefore, in our search for a possible phase transition for $R_p(\cdot, n)$, $p \neq 2$, it is natural to extend the upper bound in part 1 of Theorem 2 to this range. The main result proved in this note is the following:

Theorem 3. There is an absolute constant c > 0 such that for every $0 < \delta < 1$:

- 1. For $1 \le p < 2$, $R_p(2-\delta, n) \le e^{c/\delta^2} \log n$. 2. For $2 , <math>R_p(2^{2/p} \delta, n) \le e^{c/p^2\delta^2} \log n$.

Thus we extend the result of [1] to show that a phase transition occurs in the metric Ramsey problem for ℓ_p , $p \in [1, 2)$, at $\alpha = 2$. The asymptotic behavior of $R_p(\alpha, n)$ for p > 2, and $\alpha \in [2^{2/p}, 2]$, is left as an open problem. In particular, we do not know whether or not this function undergoes a similar phase transition. We find this problem potentially significant: if there is a phase transition at 2 also in the range 2 ,then this result will certainly be of great interest. On the other hand, if it is possible to improve the lower bound in part 2 of Theorem 2 for p > 2 and certain distortions strictly less than 2, then this would involve an embedding technique that is different from the method used in [1], which does not distinguish between the various ℓ_p spaces.

The proof of the upper bound on $R_2(\alpha, n)$ for $\alpha < 2$ stated in Theorem 2 uses the Johnson-Lindenstrauss dimension reduction lemma for ℓ_2 [10]. For ℓ_p , $p \neq 2$, no

such dimension reduction is known to hold. (Recent work [5], [11] shows that dimension reduction does not, in general, hold in ℓ_1 .) Our proof is based on a non-trivial modification of the random construction in [4], in the spirit of Erdös' upper bound on the Ramsey numbers [9], [3]. In the process we prove tight bounds on the embeddability of the metrics of complete bipartite graphs in ℓ_p . Specifically we show that

$$c_p(K_{n,n}) = \begin{cases} 2 - \Theta(n^{-1}), & p \in [1, 2], \\ 2^{2/p} - \Theta((pn)^{-1}), & p > 2. \end{cases}$$

The second part of this note addresses the isometric Ramsey problem for $p \in (1, \infty)$. It turns out that this problem is naturally tackled within the class of uniformly convex normed spaces (see Section 3 for the definition).

Theorem 4 (Isometric Ramsey Problem). Let *X* be a uniformly convex normed space with dim(*X*) ≥ 2 . Then $R_X(1, n) = 3$ for $n \ge 3$.

Since ℓ_p is uniformly convex for $p \in (1, \infty)$, the conclusion of Theorem 4 holds in these cases. Note that the theorem does not apply for ℓ_1 and ℓ_∞ which are not uniformly convex. Specifically, it is known that ℓ_∞ is universal in that it contains an isometric copy of every finite metric space, whence $R_\infty(n) = n$. It is known [6] that any four-point metric space is isometrically embeddable in ℓ_1 , and therefore $R_1(n) \ge 4$ for $n \ge 4$. The determination of $R_1(n)$ is left as an open problem.

2. An Upper Bound for $\alpha < 2$

In this section we prove that for any $\alpha < \min\{2, 2^{2/p}\}, R_p(\alpha, n) = O(\log n)$. Our technique both improves and simplifies the technique of [4], which is itself in the spirit of Erdös' original upper bound for the Ramsey coloring numbers. The basic idea is to exploit a universality property of random graphs $G \in G(n, \frac{1}{2})$. Namely, that any fixed graph of constant size appears as an induced subgraph of every induced subgraph of *G* of size $\Omega(\log n)$. More precisely, we define the following notion of universality.

Definition 2. Let H be a graph. A graph G is called (H, s)-universal if every set of s vertices in G contains an induced subgraph isomorphic to H.

Proposition 1. For every k-vertex graph H there exists a constant C > 0 and an integer n_0 such that for any $n > n_0$ there exists an $(H, C \log n)$ -universal graph on n vertices. Furthermore,

$$C \leq O(k^2 2^{\binom{k}{2}})$$
 and $n_0 \leq O(k^3 2^{\binom{k}{2}})$.

Such facts are well known in random graph theory, and similar arguments can be found for example in [13]. We sketch the standard details for the sake of completeness.

Recall that a family of sets \mathcal{F} is called *almost disjoint* if $|A \cap B| \leq 1$ for every $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$. In what follows, given a set S and an integer k, we denote by $\binom{S}{k}$ the set of all k-point subsets of S.

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Lemma 2. For every integer k and a finite set S of cardinality $s = |S| > 2k^2$, there exists an almost disjoint family $K \subset {S \choose k}$, such that $|K| \ge \lfloor s/2k \rfloor^2$.

Proof. Let p be a prime satisfying $s/2k \le p \le s/k$, and assume that

$$L = \{(i, j); i, j \in \mathbb{Z}_p, i \in \{0, \dots, k-1\}\} \subseteq S.$$

For each $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ (the field of residues modulo p), define

$$A_{a,b} = \{(i, j); j \equiv ai + b \pmod{p}, i \in \{0, \dots, k-1\}\},\$$

and take $K = \{A_{a,b} | a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p\}$. The set K is easily checked to satisfy the requirements.

As usual $G(n, \frac{1}{2})$ denotes the model of random graphs in which each edge on *n* vertices is chosen independently with probability $\frac{1}{2}$.

Lemma 3. Let *H* be a *k*-vertex graph and let $s > 2k^2$. The probability that a random graph $G \in G(s, \frac{1}{2})$ does not contain an induced subgraph isomorphic to *H*, is at most $(1 - 2^{-\binom{k}{2}})^{\lfloor s/2k \rfloor^2}$.

Proof. Construct, as in Lemma 2, an almost disjoint family \mathcal{F} of $\lfloor s/2k \rfloor^2$ subsets of $\{1, \ldots, s\}$, the vertex set of G. If $F_1 \neq F_2 \in \mathcal{F}$, then the event that the restriction of G to F_1 (resp. F_2) is isomorphic to H is independent. Hence, the probability that none of the sets $F \in \mathcal{F}$ spans a subgraph isomorphic to H is at most $(1 - 2^{-\binom{k}{2}})^{\lfloor s/2k \rfloor^2}$.

Proof of Proposition 1. Let *G* be a random graph in $G(n, \frac{1}{2})$. By the previous lemma, the expected number of sets of *s* vertices which contain no induced isomorphic copy of *H* is at most $\binom{n}{s}(1-2^{-\binom{k}{2}})^{\lfloor s/2k \rfloor^2}$. If this number is < 1, then there is an (H, s)-universal graph, as claimed. It is an easy matter to check that this holds with the parameters as stated.

A class *C* of finite metric spaces is called a *metric class* if it is closed under isometries. *C* is said to be *hereditary* if $M \in C$ and $N \subset M$ imply $N \in C$. We call a metric space (X, d) a $\{0, 1, 2\}$ metric space if for all $x, y \in X, d(x, y) \in \{0, 1, 2\}$. There is a simple 1:1 correspondence between graphs and $\{0, 1, 2\}$ metrics. Namely, associated with a $\{0, 1, 2\}$ metric space M = (X, d) is the graph G = (X, E) where $\{x, y\} \in E$ iff $d_M(x, y) = 1$.

Lemma 4. Let C be a hereditary metric class of finite metric spaces, and suppose that there exists some finite $\{0, 1, 2\}$ metric space M_0 which is not in P. Then there exist metric spaces $M = M_n$ of arbitrarily large size n such that every subspace $S \subset M_n$ with at least C log n points is not in C. The constant C depends only on the cardinality of M_0 .

Proof. Let H_0 be the graph corresponding to the metric space M_0 . We apply Proposition 1, to construct arbitrarily large graphs $G_n = (V_n, E_n)$ with $|V_n| = n$, in which every

set of $\geq C \log n$ vertices contains an induced subgraph isomorphic to H_0 . Let M_n be the *n*-point metric space corresponding to G_n . It follows that every subspace of M_n of size $\geq C \log n$ contains a metric subspace that is isometric to M_0 . Since C is hereditary, $S \notin C$.

Note that {*M*; *M* is a metric space, $c_p(M) \le \alpha$ } is a hereditary metric class. Therefore, in order to show that for $\alpha < 2$, $R_p(\alpha, n) = O(\log n)$, it is enough to find a {0, 1, 2} metric space whose ℓ_p distortion is greater than α . We use the complete bipartite graphs $K_{n,n}$. The ℓ_p -distortion of $K_{n,n}$, $1 \le p < \infty$, is estimated in the following proposition.

Proposition 5. For every $1 \le p \le 2$,

$$2\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^{1/p} \le c_p(K_{n,n}) \le 2\sqrt{\frac{n-1}{n}}.$$

For every $2 \le p < \infty$,

$$2^{2/p} \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^{1/p} \le c_p(K_{n,n}) \le 2^{2/p} \left(1-\frac{1}{2n}\right)^{1/p}.$$

Before proving Proposition 5, we deduce the main result of this section:

Theorem 5. There is an absolute constant c > 0 such that for every $0 < \delta < 1$, if $1 \le p \le 2$, then

$$R_p(2-\delta,n) \le e^{c/\delta^2}\log n,$$

and if 2 , then

$$R_p(2^{2/p} - \delta, n) \le e^{c/p^2\delta^2} \log n.$$

Proof. Proposition 1 implies that there is an absolute constant C such that for every $n \ge 2^{Ck^3}$ there exists a $\{0, 1, 2\}$ metric space M_n such that any subset $S \subset M_n$ of cardinality at least $2^{Ck^2} \log n$ contains an isometric copy of $K_{k,k}$.

We start with $1 \le p \le 2$. Let $k = \lfloor 2/\delta \rfloor + 1$. By Proposition 5,

$$c_p(K_{k,k}) \ge 2\left(1-\frac{1}{k}\right)^{1/p} > 2\left(1-\frac{\delta}{2}\right) = 2-\delta,$$

so that for *n* large enough ($\geq e^{C'/\delta^3}$), and hence for all *n* (by proper choice of constants),

$$R_p(2-\delta,n) \le e^{C'/\delta^2}\log n.$$

When p > 2 take $k = 2\lfloor 4/p\delta \rfloor$. In this case one easily verifies that

$$c_p(K_{k,k}) \ge 2^{2/p} \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)^{1/p} \ge 2^{2/p} - \delta,$$

from which the required result follows as above.

In order to prove Proposition 5, we need some preparation.

Lemma 6. Let $A = (a_{ij})$ be an $n \times n$ matrix and $2 \le p < \infty$. Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(\left| \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{jk} \right|^{p} + \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ki} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{kj} \right|^{p} \right) \le \frac{(2n)^{p}}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|^{p}.$$

Proof. We identify $\ell_p^{n^2}$ with the space of all $n \times n$ matrices $A = (a_{ij})$, equipped with the ℓ_p norm:

$$||A||_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^p\right)^{1/p}.$$

Define a linear operator $T : \mathbb{R}^{n^2} \to \mathbb{R}^{n^2} \oplus \mathbb{R}^{n^2}$ by

$$T(a_{ij}) = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{jk}\right)_{ij} \oplus \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ki} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{kj}\right)_{ij}$$

For $q \ge 1$ denote $||T||_{q \to q} = \max_{A \ne 0} ||T(A)||_q / ||A||_q$. Our goal is to show that $||T||_{p \to p} \le 2^{1-1/p}n$. By a result from the complex interpolation theory for linear operators (see [2]), for $2 \le p \le \infty$, $||T||_{p \to p} \le ||T||_{2 \to 2}^{2/p} \cdot ||T||_{\infty \to \infty}^{1-2/p}$. It is therefore enough to prove the required estimate for p = 2 and $p = \infty$. The case $p = \infty$ is simple:

$$||T(A)||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i, j \le n} \max\left\{ \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{jk} \right|, \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ki} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{kj} \right| \right\} \le 2n ||A||_{\infty}.$$

For p = 2 we have to show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(\left| \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{jk} \right|^2 + \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ki} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{kj} \right|^2 \right) \le 2n^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|^2.$$

This inequality follows from the following elementary identity:

$$2n^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left[\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{jk} \right)^{2} + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ki} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{kj} \right)^{2} \right] \\ + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(na_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{kj} \right)^{2}.$$

Corollary 7. Let $1 \le p < \infty$ and $x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_n \in \ell_p$. Then if $2 \le p < \infty$,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(\|x_i - x_j\|_p^p + \|y_i - y_j\|_p^p \right) \le 2^{p-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \|x_i - y_j\|_p^p$$

If
$$1 \le p \le 2$$
, then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(\|x_i - x_j\|_p^p + \|y_i - y_j\|_p^p \right) \le 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \|x_i - y_j\|_p^p$$

Proof. By summation it is clearly enough to prove these inequalities for x_1, \ldots, x_n , $y_1, \ldots, y_n \in \mathbb{R}$. If $2 \le p < \infty$, then the required result follows from an application of Lemma 6 to the matrix $a_{ij} = x_i - y_j$. If $1 \le p \le 2$, then consider ℓ_p equipped with the metric $d(x, y) = ||x - y||_p^{p/2}$. It is well known (see [14]) that (ℓ_p, d) embeds isometrically in ℓ_2 , so that the case $1 \le p \le 2$ follows from the case p = 2.

Remark. In [8] Enflo defined the notion on generalized roundness of a metric space. A metric space (M, d) is said to have generalized roundness $q \ge 0$ if for every $x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_n \in M$,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (d(x_i, x_j)^q + d(y_i, y_j)^q) \le 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} d(x_i, y_j)^q.$$

Enflo proved that Hilbert space has generalized roundness 2 and in [12] the concept of generalized roundness was investigated and was shown to be equivalent to the notion of negative type (see [6] and [14] for the definition). Particularly, it was proved in [12] that for $1 \le p < 2$, ℓ_p has generalized roundness p, which is precisely the second statement in Corollary 7. For the case p = 1, simpler more direct proofs can be given which do not use reduction to the case p = 2, see, e.g., [6]. Observe that Lemma 6 would follow simply by convexity had it not been for the additional factor $\frac{1}{2}$ on the right-hand side. This factor is crucial for our purposes, and this is why the interpolation argument was needed.

Proof of Proposition 5. We identify $K_{n,n}$ with the metric on $\{u_1, \ldots, u_n, v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ where $d(u_i, u_j) = d(v_i, v_j) = 2$ for all $i \neq j$, and $d(u_i, v_j) = 1$ for every $1 \leq i, j \leq n$. Fix some $1 \leq p < \infty$ and let $f : \{u_1, \ldots, u_n, v_1, \ldots, v_n\} \rightarrow \ell_p$ be an embedding such that for every $x, y \in K_{n,n}$, $d(x, y) \leq ||f(x) - f(y)||_p \leq Ld(x, y)$. Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (\|f(u_i) - f(u_j)\|_p^p + \|f(v_i) - f(v_j)\|_p^p) \ge 2n(n-1)2^p$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \|f(u_i) - f(v_j)\|_p^p \le n^2 L^p.$$

For $1 \le p \le 2$ Corollary 7 gives

$$2n(n-1)^p 2^p \le 2n^2 L^p \implies L \ge 2\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^{1/p}.$$

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For $2 \le p < \infty$ we get that

$$2n(n-1)2^p \le 2^{p-1}n^2L^p \implies L \ge 2^{2/p}\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^{1/p}.$$

This proves the required lower bounds on $c_p(K_{n,n})$.

To prove the upper bound assume first that p = 2 and denote by $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ the standard unit vectors in ℓ_2 . Define $f : K_{n,n} \to \ell_2^{2n}$ by

$$f(u_i) = \sqrt{2} \left(e_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n e_j \right),$$

$$f(v_i) = \sqrt{2} \left(e_{n+i} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n e_{n+j} \right)$$

Then for $i \neq j$, $||f(u_i) - f(u_j)||_2 = ||f(v_i) - f(v_j)||_2 = 2 = d(u_i, u_j) = d(v_i, v_j)$. On the other hand,

$$\|f(u_i) - f(v_j)\|_2 = \sqrt{\|f(u_i)\|_2^2 + \|f(v_j)\|_2^2}$$
$$= \sqrt{4\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + 4(n-1) \cdot \frac{1}{n^2}} = 2\sqrt{\frac{n-1}{n}}$$

This finishes the calculation of $c_2(K_{n,n})$. For $1 \le p < 2$, since for every $\varepsilon > 0$ and for every k, ℓ_p contains a $(1 + \varepsilon)$ distorted copy of ℓ_2^k , we get the estimate $c_p(K_{n,n}) \le 2\sqrt{(n-1)/n}$.

The case $2 requires a different embedding. We begin by describing an embedding with distortion <math>2^{2/p}$ and then explain how to modify it so as to reduce the distortion by a factor of $(1 - 1/2n)^{1/p}$. Let z_1, \ldots, z_n be a collection of n mutually orthogonal ± 1 vectors of dimension m = O(n). (For example, the first n rows in an $m \times m$ Hadamard matrix.) In our first embedding we define $f(u_i)$ as the (2m)-dimensional vector $(z_i, 0)$, namely, z_i concatenated with m zeros. Likewise, $f(v_i) = (0, z_i)$ for all i. Now $||f(u_i) - f(u_j)||_p = 2(m/2)^{1/p}$ and $||f(u_i) - f(v_j)||_p = (2m)^{1/p}$, and so f has distortion $2^{2/p}$. To get the $(1 - 1/2n)^{1/p}$ improvement, note that for some $m \le 4n$ it is possible to select the z_i so that the mth coordinate in all of them is +1. Modify the previous construction to an embedding into 2m - 1 dimensions as follows: now $g(u_i)$ is z_i concatenated with m - 1 zeros, whereas $g(v_i)$ has zeros in the first m - 1 coordinates, 1 in the mth and this is followed by the first m - 1 coordinates of the vector z_i . The easy details are omitted.

Remark. The upper bounds in Proposition 5 were not used in the proof of Theorem 5. Apart from their intrinsic interest, these upper estimates show that the above technique cannot prove an upper bound of $O(\log n)$ on $R_2(2 - \varepsilon, n)$ which is independent of ε . In fact, this can never be achieved using $\{0, 1, 2\}$ metric spaces due to the following proposition.

Proposition 8. Let X be an n-point $\{0, 1, 2\}$ metric space. Then $c_2(X) \le 2\sqrt{(n-1)/n}$.

Proof. We think of X as a metric on $\{1, ..., n\}$ and denote $d(i, j) = d_{ij}$. Define an $n \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ as follows:

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } d_{ij} = 2, \\ \frac{2}{n} & \text{if } d_{ij} = 1. \end{cases}$$

We claim that A is positive semidefinite. Indeed, for any $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\langle Az, z \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} z_i z_j$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2z_i^2 - \sum_{i \neq j} \frac{2}{n} |z_i| \cdot |z_j|$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2z_i^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{2}{n} |z_i| \cdot |z_j|$$

$$= 2 ||z||_2^2 - \frac{2}{n} ||z||_1^2 \ge 2 ||z||_2^2 - \frac{2}{n} n ||z||_2^2 = 0.$$

In particular, it follows that A has a square root, denoted $A^{1/2}$. Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be the standard unit vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . Define $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^n$ by $f(i) = A^{1/2}e_i$. Now,

$$\|f(i) - f(j)\|_2^2 = \langle Ae_i, e_i \rangle + \langle Ae_j, e_j \rangle - 2\langle Ae_i, e_j \rangle = a_{ii} + a_{jj} - 2a_{ij},$$

so that if $d_{ij} = 1$, then $||f(i) - f(j)||_2 = \sqrt{4 - 4/n}$ and if $d_{ij} = 2$, then $||f(i) - f(j)||_2 = 2$. It follows that

$$\operatorname{dist}(f) = 2\sqrt{\frac{n-1}{n}}.$$

3. The Isometric Ramsey Problem

In this section we prove that for $n \ge 3$, $1 , <math>R_p(n) = R_p(1, n) = 3$. In fact, we show that this is true for any uniformly convex normed space. We begin by sketching an argument that is specific to ℓ_2 :

Proposition 9. $R_2(n) = 3$ for $n \ge 3$.

Proof. That $R_2(n) \ge 3$ follows since any metric space on three points embeds isometrically in ℓ_2^2 . To show that $R_2(n) \le 3$, we construct a metric space on n > 3 points, no fourpoint subspace of which embeds isometrically in ℓ_2 . Fix an integer n > 3 and let $\{a_i\}_{i=0}^n$ be an increasing sequence such that $a_0 = 0, a_1 = 1$, and for $1 \le i < n, a_{i+1} \ge 2(n+1)a_i$. Fix some $0 < \varepsilon < 1/(2a_n)$. It is easily verified that $d(i, j) = |i - j| - \varepsilon a_{|i-j|}$ is a metric on $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$. We show that for ε small enough no four points in $(\{1, \ldots, n\}, d)$ embed isometrically in ℓ_2 . Fix four integers $1 \le i_1 < i_2 < i_3 < i_4 \le n$ and set $j = i_2 - i_1$,

 $k = i_3 - i_2, l = i_4 - i_3$. Suppose that for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists an isometric embedding $f : (\{i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4\}, d) \rightarrow \ell_2^3$. Without loss of generality we may assume that $f(i_1) = (\alpha, \beta, \gamma), f(i_2) = (0, 0, 0), f(i_3) = (k - \varepsilon a_k, 0, 0), \text{ and } f(i_4) = (p, q, 0)$. Then

$$2\alpha(k - \varepsilon a_k) = 2\langle f(i_1), f(i_3) \rangle$$

= $||f(i_1) - f(i_2)||_2^2 + ||f(i_3) - f(i_2)||_2^2 - ||f(i_3) - f(i_1)||_2^2$
= $(j - \varepsilon a_j)^2 + (k - \varepsilon a_k)^2 - (j + k - \varepsilon a_{j+k})^2.$

Hence,

$$\alpha \leq -j + \frac{\varepsilon}{k} [(k+j)a_{k+j} - ja_j - ka_k - ja_k] + O(\varepsilon^2).$$

Similarly,

$$p \ge (k+l) + \frac{\varepsilon}{k} [(k+l)a_k - (k+l)a_{k+l} - ka_k + la_l] + O(\varepsilon^2).$$

Now

$$j + k + l - \varepsilon a_{j+k+l}$$

$$= \|f(i_4) - f(i_1)\|_2$$

$$\geq p - \alpha$$

$$\geq j + k + l$$

$$+ \frac{\varepsilon}{k} [(k+l)a_k - (k+l)a_{k+l} + la_l - (k+j)a_{k+j} + ja_j + ja_k]$$

$$+ O(\varepsilon^2).$$

Letting ε tend to zero we deduce that

$$\begin{aligned} a_{j+k+l} &\leq \left(1 + \frac{j}{k}\right) a_{k+j} + \left(1 + \frac{l}{k}\right) a_{k+l} - \frac{l}{k} a_l - \frac{j}{k} a_j - \frac{j+k+l}{k} a_k \\ &< 2(n+1)a_{j+k+l-1}, \end{aligned}$$

which is a contradiction.

The argument above is quite specific to ℓ_2 , and so we now consider any uniformly convex normed space. The modulus of uniform convexity of a normed space *X* is defined by

$$\delta_X(\varepsilon) = \inf \left\{ 1 - \frac{\|a+b\|}{2}; \|a\|, \|b\| \le 1 \text{ and } \|a-b\| \ge \varepsilon \right\}.$$

X is said to be uniformly convex if $\delta_X(\varepsilon) > 0$ for every $0 < \varepsilon \le 2$. The L_p spaces 1 are known to be uniformly convex. For a uniformly convex space*X* $, <math>\delta_X$ is known to be continuous and strictly increasing on (0, 2].

Assume that *X* is a uniformly convex normed space and $a, b \in X \setminus \{0\}$. Then

$$\begin{split} \left\| \frac{a}{\|a\|} + \frac{b}{\|b\|} \right\| &= \left\| \left(\frac{1}{\|a\|} + \frac{1}{\|b\|} \right) (a+b) - \frac{a}{\|b\|} - \frac{b}{\|a\|} \right\| \\ &\geq \left(\frac{1}{\|a\|} + \frac{1}{\|b\|} \right) \|a+b\| - \frac{\|a\|}{\|b\|} - \frac{\|b\|}{\|a\|} \\ &= 2 - \left(\frac{1}{\|a\|} + \frac{1}{\|b\|} \right) (\|a\| + \|b\| - \|a+b\|) \end{split}$$

Now,

$$\begin{split} \delta_X \left(\left\| \frac{a}{\|a\|} - \frac{b}{\|b\|} \right\| \right) &\leq 1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left\| \frac{a}{\|a\|} + \frac{b}{\|b\|} \right\| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\|a\|} + \frac{1}{\|b\|} \right) (\|a\| + \|b\| - \|a + b\|). \end{split}$$

Hence

$$\left\|\frac{a}{\|a\|} - \frac{b}{\|b\|}\right\| \le \delta_X^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\|a\|} + \frac{1}{\|b\|}\right) (\|a\| + \|b\| - \|a + b\|)\right).$$

Take $x, y, z \in X$ and apply this inequality for a = x - y, b = y - z. It follows that

$$\left\| y - \left(\frac{\|y - z\|}{\|x - y\| + \|y - z\|} \cdot x + \frac{\|x - y\|}{\|x - y\| + \|y - z\|} \cdot z \right) \right\|$$

$$\leq \frac{\|x - y\| \cdot \|y - z\|}{\|x - y\| + \|y - z\|} \cdot \delta_X^{-1} \left(\frac{\|x - y\| + \|y - z\| - \|x - z\|}{\min\{\|x - y\|, \|y - z\|\}} \right).$$
(1)

This inequality is the way uniform convexity is going to be applied in the sequel. Indeed, we have the following "metric" consequence of it:

Lemma 10. Let X be a uniformly convex normed space and let $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 \in X$ be distinct. Then

$$\frac{\|x_1 - x_2\| + \|x_2 - x_3\| - \|x_1 - x_3\|}{2\|x_2 - x_3\|} \le \delta_X^{-1} \left(\frac{\|x_1 - x_3\| + \|x_3 - x_4\| - \|x_1 - x_4\|}{\min\{\|x_1 - x_3\|, \|x_3 - x_4\|\}} \right) + \delta_X^{-1} \left(\frac{\|x_2 - x_3\| + \|x_3 - x_4\| - \|x_2 - x_4\|}{\min\{\|x_2 - x_3\|, \|x_3 - x_4\|\}} \right)$$

Lemma 10 is a quantitative version of the fact that in a uniformly convex space, if $||x_1 - x_4||$ is approximately $||x_1 - x_3|| + ||x_3 - x_4||$ and $||x_2 - x_4||$ is approximately $||x_2 - x_3|| + ||x_3 - x_4||$, then $||x_1 - x_3||$ is approximately $||x_1 - x_2|| + ||x_2 - x_3||$. This fact is geometrically evident since the first assumption implies that x_3 is almost on the line segment connecting x_1 and x_4 and x_2 is almost on the line segment connecting x_1 and x_3 . It follows that x_2 is almost on the line segment connecting x_1 and x_3 , as required. Since we are dealing with bi-Lipschitz embeddings, we must formulate this phenomenon without referring to "line segments."

Proof of Lemma 10. Define

$$\lambda = \frac{\|x_3 - x_4\|}{\|x_1 - x_3\| + \|x_3 - x_4\|} \quad \text{and} \quad \mu = \frac{\|x_3 - x_4\|}{\|x_2 - x_3\| + \|x_3 - x_4\|}$$

An application of (1) twice gives

. . .

$$\|x_{3} - (\lambda x_{1} + (1 - \lambda)x_{4})\| \leq \frac{\|x_{1} - x_{3}\| \cdot \|x_{3} - x_{4}\|}{\|x_{1} - x_{3}\| + \|x_{3} - x_{4}\|} \\ \cdot \delta_{X}^{-1} \left(\frac{\|x_{1} - x_{3}\| + \|x_{3} - x_{4}\| - \|x_{1} - x_{4}\|}{\min\{\|x_{1} - x_{3}\|, \|x_{3} - x_{4}\|\}} \right)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \|x_3 - (\mu x_2 + (1 - \mu)x_4)\| &\leq \frac{\|x - 2 - x_3\| \cdot \|x_3 - x_4\|}{\|x_2 - x_3\| + \|x_3 - x_4\|} \\ &\cdot \delta_X^{-1} \left(\frac{\|x_2 - x_3\| + \|x_3 - x_4\| - \|x_2 - x_4\|}{\min\{\|x_2 - x_3\|, \|x_3 - x_4\|\}} \right). \end{aligned}$$

By symmetry, we may assume without loss of generality that $\lambda \leq \mu.$ Now,

$$\begin{split} \left\| x_2 - \frac{\lambda(1-\mu)}{\mu(1-\lambda)} x_1 - \frac{\mu-\lambda}{\mu(1-\lambda)} x_3 \right\| \\ &= \frac{1}{\mu} \left\| \mu x_2 + (1-\mu)x_4 - x_3 + \frac{1-\mu}{1-\lambda} (x_3 - \lambda x_1 - (1-\lambda)x_4) \right\| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\mu} \| x_3 - \mu x_2 - (1-\mu)x_4 \| + \frac{1-\mu}{\mu(1-\lambda)} \cdot \| x_3 - \lambda x_1 - (1-\lambda)x_4 \| \\ &\leq \frac{\| x_2 - x_3 \| + \| x_3 - x_4 \|}{\| x_3 - x_4 \|} \cdot \frac{\| x_2 - x_3 \| \cdot \| x_3 - x_4 \|}{\| x_2 - x_3 \| + \| x_3 - x_4 \|} \\ &\quad \cdot \delta_X^{-1} \left(\frac{\| x_2 - x_3 \| + \| x_3 - x_4 \| - \| x_2 - x_4 \|}{\min\{\| x_2 - x_3 \|, \| x_3 - x_4 \|\}} \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{\| x_2 - x_3 \|}{\| x_3 - x_4 \|} \frac{\| x_1 - x_3 \| + \| x_3 - x_4 \|}{\| x_1 - x_3 \| + \| x_3 - x_4 \|} \\ &\quad \cdot \delta_X^{-1} \left(\frac{\| x_1 - x_3 \| + \| x_3 - x_4 \| - \| x_1 - x_4 \|}{\min\{\| x_1 - x_3 \|, \| x_3 - x_4 \|\}} \right) \\ &= \| x_2 - x_3 \| \delta_X^{-1} \left(\frac{\| x_1 - x_3 \| + \| x_3 - x_4 \| - \| x_1 - x_4 \|}{\min\{\| x_1 - x_3 \|, \| x_3 - x_4 \|\}} \right) \\ &\quad + \| x_2 - x_3 \| \delta_X^{-1} \left(\frac{\| x_2 - x_3 \| + \| x_3 - x_4 \| - \| x_2 - x_4 \|}{\min\{\| x_2 - x_3 \|, \| x_3 - x_4 \|\}} \right). \end{split}$$

Additionally,

$$\|x_{2} - x_{1}\| \leq \left\|x_{2} - \frac{\lambda(1 - \mu)}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{1} - \frac{\mu - \lambda}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{3}\right\| \\ + \left\|x_{1} - \frac{\lambda(1 - \mu)}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{1} - \frac{\mu - \lambda}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{3}\right\| \\ = \left\|x_{2} - \frac{\lambda(1 - \mu)}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{1} - \frac{\mu - \lambda}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{3}\right\| + \frac{\mu - \lambda}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}\|x_{1} - x_{3}\|$$

and

$$\|x_{2} - x_{3}\| \leq \left\|x_{2} - \frac{\lambda(1 - \mu)}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{1} - \frac{\mu - \lambda}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{3}\right\| \\ + \left\|x_{3} - \frac{\lambda(1 - \mu)}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{1} - \frac{\mu - \lambda}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{3}\right\| \\ = \left\|x_{2} - \frac{\lambda(1 - \mu)}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{1} - \frac{\mu - \lambda}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}x_{3}\right\| + \frac{\lambda(1 - \mu)}{\mu(1 - \lambda)}\|x_{1} - x_{3}\|$$

Summing up these estimates gives the required result.

We can now prove the main result of this section:

Theorem 6. Let X be a uniformly convex normed space with $\dim(X) \ge 2$. Then for every $n \ge 3$, $R_X(n) = 3$. Moreover, for every $\delta : (0, 2] \to (0, \infty)$ which is continuous, increasing, and $\delta \le \delta_{\ell_2}$, let UC_{δ} be the class of all normed spaces X with $\delta_X \ge \delta$. Then for each $n \ge 3$ there is a constant $\varepsilon_n(\delta) > 0$ such that $R_{UC_{\delta}}(1 + \varepsilon_n(\delta), n) = 3$.

The proof of Theorem 6 proceeds by constructing a space in which each quadruple violates the conclusion of Lemma 10. The construction is done iteratively, by adding one point at a time.

Proof of Theorem 6. That $R_X(n) \ge 3$ follows since any three-point metric embeds isometrically into any two-dimensional normed space, by a standard continuity argument.

Fix some $\delta : (0, 2] \to (0, \infty)$ which is continuous, increasing, and $\delta \leq \delta_{\ell_2}$. We shall construct inductively a sequence $\{M_n\}_{n=3}^{\infty}$ of metric spaces and numbers $\{\eta_n\}_{n=3}^{\infty}$ such that:

(a) For every $n \ge 3$, $\eta_n > 0$. Each M_n is a metric on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$, and we denote $d_{ij}^n = d_{M_n}(i, j)$.

(b) For every
$$1 \le i < j < k \le n$$
,

$$\geq 2d_{j,k}^{n} \left[\delta^{-1} \left(\frac{d_{i,k}^{n} + d_{k,n}^{n} - d_{i,n}^{n}}{\min\{d_{i,k}^{n}, d_{k,n}^{n}\}} \right) + \delta^{-1} \left(\frac{d_{j,k}^{n} + d_{k,n}^{n} - d_{j,n}^{n}}{\min\{d_{j,k}^{n}, d_{k,n}^{n}\}} \right) \right].$$

Lemma 10 immediately implies that there is a constant $\varepsilon_n(\delta) > 0$ such that for every $1 \le i < j < k < l \le n$ and for every normed space *X* with $\delta_X \ge \delta$,

$$c_X(\{i, j, k, l\}, d_{M_n}) \ge 1 + \varepsilon_n(\delta),$$

as required.

 M_3 is the equilateral metric on $\{1, 2, 3\}$, in which case $\eta_3 = 1$. We construct $M_{n+1} = (\{1, \dots, n+1\}, d^{n+1})$ as an extension of M_n , by setting

$$d_{n,n+1}^{n+1} = 1 - s/2$$
 and $\forall 1 \le i < n$, $d_{i,n+1}^{n+1} = d_{in}^n + 1 - s$.

This is indeed a definition of a metric as long as $0 < s \le \min\{1, 2\min_{1\le i < n} d_{i,n}^n\}$ (this fact follows from a simple case analysis).

We are left to check condition (b). Fix $1 \le i < j < k \le n$. If $k \ne n$, then

$$\begin{split} d_{i,j}^{n+1} + d_{j,k}^{n+1} - d_{i,k}^{n+1} - \eta_n \\ &= d_{i,j}^n + d_{j,k}^n - d_{i,k}^n - \eta_n \\ &\geq 2d_{j,k}^n \left[\delta^{-1} \left(\frac{d_{i,k}^n + d_{k,n}^n - d_{i,n}^n}{\min\{d_{i,k}^n, d_{k,n}^n\}} \right) + \delta^{-1} \left(\frac{d_{j,k}^n + d_{k,n}^n - d_{j,n}^n}{\min\{d_{j,k}^n, d_{k,n}^n\}} \right) \right] \\ &\geq 2d_{j,k}^n \left[\delta^{-1} \left(\frac{d_{i,k}^n + (d_{k,n}^n + 1 - s) - (d_{i,n}^n + 1 - s)}{\min\{d_{i,k}^n, d_{k,n}^n + 1 - s\}} \right) \right] \\ &+ \delta^{-1} \left(\frac{d_{j,k}^n + (d_{k,n}^n + 1 - s) - (d_{j,n}^n + 1 - s)}{\min\{d_{j,k}^n, d_{k,n}^n + 1 - s\}} \right) \right] \\ &= 2d_{j,k}^{n+1} \left[\delta^{-1} \left(\frac{d_{i,k}^{n+1} + d_{k,n+1}^{n+1} - d_{i,n+1}^{n+1}}{\min\{d_{i,k}^{n+1}, d_{k,n+1}^{n+1}\}} \right) \\ &+ \delta^{-1} \left(\frac{d_{j,k}^{n+1} + d_{k,n+1}^{n+1} - d_{j,n+1}^{n+1}}{\min\{d_{j,k}^{n+1}, d_{k,n+1}^{n+1}\}} \right) \right]. \end{split}$$

It remains to check (b) for the quadruple $\{i, j, n, n+1\}$. Condition (b) for M_n implies that

$$d_{ij}^{n+1} + d_{jn}^{n+1} - d_{in}^{n+1} \ge \eta_n.$$

On the other hand,

$$2d_{j,n}^{n+1} \left[\delta^{-1} \left(\frac{d_{i,n}^{n+1} + d_{n,n+1}^{n+1} - d_{i,n+1}^{n+1}}{\min\{d_{i,n}^{n+1}, d_{n,n+1}^{n+1}\}} \right) + \delta^{-1} \left(\frac{d_{j,n}^{n+1} + d_{n,n+1}^{n+1} - d_{j,n+1}^{n+1}}{\min\{d_{j,n}^{n+1}, d_{n,n+1}^{n+1}\}} \right) \right]$$
$$= 2d_{j,n}^{n} \left[\delta^{-1} \left(\frac{s/2}{\min\{d_{i,n}^{n}, 1 - s/2\}} \right) + \delta^{-1} \left(\frac{s/2}{\min\{d_{j,n}^{n}, 1 - s/2\}} \right) \right],$$

so that condition (b) will hold when *s* is small enough such that the quantity above is at most $\eta_n/2$ and with $\eta_{n+1} = \eta_n/2$.

Corollary 11. For all $1 , <math>R_p(n) = 3$ for $n \ge 3$.

We end this section with a simple lower bound for the isometric Ramsey problem for graphs. We do not know the asymptotically tight bound in this setting.

Proposition 12. Let G be an unweighted graph of order n. Then there is a set of $\Omega\left(\sqrt{\log n/\log \log n}\right)$ vertices in G whose metric embeds isometrically into ℓ_2 .

Proof. Let Δ be the diameter of *G*. The shortest path between two diameterically far vertices is isometrically embeddable in ℓ_2 . On the other hand, the Bourgain et al. theorem

[4] yields, for every $0 < \varepsilon < 1$, a subset $N \subset V$ which is $(1 + \varepsilon)$ embeddable in Hilbert space and $|N| = \Omega((\varepsilon/\log(2/\varepsilon)) \log n)$. When $\varepsilon = 1/2\Delta$, such an embedding is an isometry. Hence we can always extract a subset of *V* which is isometrically embeddable in ℓ_2 with cardinality

$$\Omega\left(\max\left\{\Delta, \frac{\log n}{\Delta\log\Delta}\right\}\right) = \Omega\left(\sqrt{\frac{\log n}{\log\log n}}\right),$$

as claimed.

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