

# Very Weak Zero One Law for Random Graphs with Order and Random Binary Functions

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**ABSTRACT:** Natural languages and random structures are given for which there are sentences  $A$  with no limit probability, yet for every  $A$  the difference between the probabilities that  $A$  holds on random structures of sizes  $n$  and  $n + 1$  approaches zero with  $n$ . © 1996 John Wiley & Sons, Inc. *Random Struct. Alg.*, **9**, 351–358 (1996)

## INTRODUCTION

Let  $G_{<}(n, p)$  denote the usual random graph  $G(n, p)$  on a totally ordered set of  $n$  vertices. (We naturally think of the vertex set as  $1, \dots, n$  with the usual  $<$ .) We will fix  $p = \frac{1}{2}$  for definiteness. Let  $L^{<}$  denote the first-order language with predicates equality ( $x = y$ ), adjacency ( $x \sim y$ ) and less than ( $x < y$ ). For any sentence  $A$  in  $L^{<}$  let  $f(n) = f_A(n)$  denote the probability that the random  $G_{<}(n, p)$  has property  $A$ . It is known (Compton, Henson, and Shelah [4]) that there are  $A$  for which  $f(n)$  does not converge. Here we show what is called a *very weak zero-one law* (from [8]):

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“The search for truth is more precious than its possession.”—Albert Einstein



Paul Erdős  
1913–1996

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**Theorem 0.1.** For every  $A$  in language  $L^<$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f_A(n+1) - f_A(n)) = 0.$$

Note, as an extreme example, that this implies the nonexistence of a sentence  $A$  holding with probability  $1 - o(1)$  when  $n$  is even and with probability  $o(1)$  when  $n$  is odd (as in Kaufman and Shelah [6]).

In Section 2 we give the proof, based on a circuit complexity result. In Section 3 we prove that result, which is very close to the now classic theorem, that parity cannot be given by an  $AC^0$  circuit. In Section 4 we give a very weak zero-one law for random two-place functions. The proof is very similar, the random function theorem being perhaps of more interest to logicians, the random graph theorem to discrete mathematicians.

On a work of Boppana and Spencer continuing this, see Section 3.2(5).

## 1. THE PROOF

Let  $G$  be a fixed graph on the ordered set  $1, \dots, 2n+1$ . For a property  $A$  and for  $i = n, n+1$ , let  $g(i) = g_{G,A}(i)$  denote the probability that  $G|_S$  satisfies  $A$ , where  $S$  is chosen uniformly from all subsets of  $1, \dots, 2n+1$  of size precisely  $i$ . We shall show

**Theorem 1.1.**  $g(n+1) - g(n) = o(1)$ .

More precisely, given  $A$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $n_0$  so that for any  $G$  as above with  $n \geq n_0$  we have  $|g(n+1) - g(n)| < \epsilon$ .

We first show that Theorem 0.1 follows from Theorem 1.1. The idea is that a random  $G_{<}(i, p)$  on  $i = n$  or  $n+1$  vertices is created by first taking a random  $G_{<}(2n+1, p)$  and then restricting to a random set  $S$  of size  $i$ . Thus (fixing  $A$ )  $f(n)$  and  $f(n+1)$  are the averages of  $g_G(n)$  and  $g_G(n+1)$  over all  $G$ . By Theorem 1.1 we have  $g_{G,A}(n) - g_{G,A}(n+1) = o(1)$  for all  $G$ , and therefore their averages are only  $o(1)$  apart.

Now we show Theorem 1.1. Fix  $G$  and  $A$  as above. Let  $P(S)$  be the Boolean value of the statement that  $G|_S$  satisfies  $A$ . For  $1 \leq x \leq 2n+1$  let  $z_x$  denote the Boolean value of " $x \in S$ " so that  $P(S)$  is a Boolean function of  $z_1, \dots, z_{2n+1}$ . We claim this function has a particularly simple form. Any  $A$  can be built up from primitives  $x = y$ ,  $x < y$ ,  $x \sim y$  by  $\wedge$ ,  $\neg$  and, critically,  $\exists_x$ . As  $G$  is fixed the primitives have values true or false. Let  $\wedge$  and  $\neg$  be themselves. Consider  $\exists_x W(x)$  where, for each  $1 \leq x \leq 2n+1$ , we let  $W(x)$  on  $G|_S$  is given by  $W^*(x)$ . Then  $\exists_x W(x)$  has the interpretation  $\exists_{x \in S} W(x)$  which is expressed as  $\bigvee_{x=1}^{2n+1} (z_x \wedge W^*(x))$ . For convenience we can be redundant and replace  $\bigvee_x W(x)$  by  $\bigwedge_{x=1}^{2n+1} (z_x \Rightarrow W^*(x))$ . For example  $\bigvee_x \exists_y x \sim y$  becomes

$$\bigwedge_x [z_x \Rightarrow \bigvee_{y \sim x} z_y].$$

Thus  $P(S)$  can be built up from  $z_1, \dots, z_{2n+1}$  by means of the standard  $\neg$ ,  $\wedge$ ,  $\vee$ , and  $\exists$  over (at most)  $2n+1$  inputs. That is (see Section 3),  $P(S)$  can be expressed by an  $AC^0$  circuit over  $z_1, \dots, z_{2n+1}$  [of course, with the number of

levels bounded by the length  $d_A$  of the sequence  $A$  (can get less) and the number of nodes bounded by  $d_A n^{d_A}$ . Now  $g(i)$ , for  $i = n, n + 1$ , is the probability  $P$  holds when a randomly chosen set of precisely  $i$  of the  $z$ 's are set to True. From Theorem 2.1 below  $g(n + 1) - g(n) = o(1)$  giving Theorem 1.1 and hence Theorem 0.1.

## 2. $AC^0$ FUNCTIONS

We consider Boolean functions of  $z_1, \dots, z_m$ . (In our application  $m = 2n + 1$ .) The functions  $z_i$  and  $\neg z_i$ , called literals, are the level 0 functions. A level  $i + 1$  function is the  $\wedge$  or  $\vee$  of polynomially many level  $i$  functions. An  $AC^0$  function is a level  $d$  function for any constant  $d$ . By standard technical means we can express any  $AC^0$  function in a "leveled" form so that the level  $i + 1$  functions used are either all  $\wedge$ 's of level  $i$  functions or all  $\vee$ 's of level  $i$  functions and the choice alternates with  $i$  (at most doubling the number of levels). It is a classic result of circuit complexity that parity is not an  $AC^0$  function. Let  $C$  be an  $AC^0$  function. For  $0 \leq i \leq m$  let  $f(i) = f_C(i)$  denote the probability  $C$  holds when precisely  $i$  of the  $z_j$  are set to True and these  $i$  are chosen randomly.

**Theorem 2.1.**  $f(n + 1) - f(n) = o(1)$ .

Called a restriction  $\rho$  balanced if  $|\{i: \rho(i) = 0\}| = |\{i: \rho(i) = 1\}|$ . Now more fully the theorem says:

- (\*) For every  $\epsilon, d, t$  there is  $n_{\epsilon, d, t}$  satisfying: If  $n \geq n_{\epsilon, d, t}$  and  $C$  is an  $AC^0$  Boolean circuit of  $z_1, \dots, z_{2n+1}$  of level  $\leq d$  with  $\leq n^t$  nodes, then  $|f_C(n + 1) - f_C(n)| < \epsilon$ .

This statement is proved by induction on  $d$ .

We choose the following:

- (i)  $c_0 = (\ln 4)t > 0$ ,
- (ii)  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\epsilon_\ell = \frac{1}{2^{1+\ell}}$ ,
- (iii)  $k$  is such that  $\epsilon \cdot k \geq t$ ,
- (iv) we choose  $k_\ell$  inductively on  $\ell \leq k$  such that  $k_\ell$  large enough,
- (v)  $c_1$  is large enough to real,
- (vi)  $n_0$  is large enough.

For a node  $x$  of the circuit  $C$  let  $\mathcal{Y}_x$  be the set of nodes which fans into it; (without loss of generality in the level 1 we have only OR).

First we assume  $d > 2$ . Note:

- ⊗<sub>1</sub> Drawing as below a balanced restriction  $\rho$  with domain with  $\leq n$  elements, with probability  $\geq 1 - \epsilon/3$ , we have that, in  $C^1 = C \upharpoonright_\rho$ , every node of the level 1 (i.e., for which  $\mathcal{Y}_x$  is a set of atoms) satisfies  $|\mathcal{Y}_x| \leq c_0(\ln n)$ .

[Why? Choose randomly a set  $\mathbf{u}_0$  of  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  pairwise disjoint pairs of numbers among  $\{1, \dots, 2n+1\}$ , and then for each  $\{i, j\} \in \mathbf{u}_0$  decide with probability half that  $\rho(i) = 0, \rho(j) = 1$  and with probability half that  $\rho(i) = 1, \rho(j) = 0$  (independently for disjoint pairs). This certainly gives a balanced  $\rho$ .

Now if  $x$  is a node of  $C$  of the level 1, the probability that  $\rho$  does not decide the truth value which the node compute is  $\leq (\frac{1}{4})^{|\mathcal{Y}_x|}$ . Note: after drawing  $\mathbf{u}$ , if  $\mathcal{Y}_x$  contains a pair from  $\mathbf{u}$  the probability is zero, we only increase compared to drawing just a restriction. So the probability that, for *some*  $x$  of the level 1 of  $C$ ,  $|\mathcal{Y}_x| \geq (\ln 4)t(\ln n) + 1$  and the truth value is not computed, is  $\leq |C| \times (\frac{1}{4})^{(\ln 4)t(\ln n) + 1} \leq 1/2$ , so there is  $\rho_0$  for which for any such  $x$  the truth value is computed.]

Next, we say that a restriction  $\rho'$  extends a restriction  $\rho$  if  $\rho'(i) \neq \rho(i) \Rightarrow \rho(i) = *$ . Now:

- ⊗<sub>2</sub> Choosing randomly a restriction  $\rho_1$  as below we have:  $\rho_1$  is a balanced restriction extending  $\rho$  such that  $|\{i: i \in \{1, \dots, 2n+1\}, \rho(i) = *\}| \geq 2\lceil n^\epsilon \rceil + 1$  and with probability  $\geq 1 - \epsilon/3$  for every node  $y$  of  $C$  of the level 1 we have,  $|\mathcal{Y}_y| \leq k$ .

[Why? We draw a set  $\mathbf{u}_1$  of  $(2n+1 - |\text{dom}(\rho_0)| - (2\lceil n^{\epsilon_0} \rceil + 1))/2$  pairs from  $\{i: \rho_0(i) = *\}$  pairwise disjoint and for each  $\{i, j\} \in \mathbf{u}_1$ , decide with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$  that  $\rho_1(i) = 0, \rho_1(j) = 1$  and with probability half that  $\rho_1(i) = 1, \rho_1(j) = 0$ .

For each node  $y \in C^1$  of the level 1 the probability that “the number of  $y' \in \mathcal{Y}_y$  not assigned a truth value by  $\rho_1$  is  $\geq k+1$ ” is at most  $\binom{|\mathcal{Y}_y|}{k+1} \times (\frac{1}{2n^{\epsilon_0+1}})^{k+1} \leq (c_0 \ln n)^{k+1} \cdot n^{-\epsilon_0(k+1)} < n^{-t}$ .]

We now choose by induction on  $\ell \leq k$  a restriction  $\rho_{2,\ell}$  such that

- ⊗<sub>3</sub> (a)  $\rho_{2,\ell_0} = \rho_1, \rho_{2,\ell} \subseteq \rho_{2,\ell+1}, 2n+1 - (2\lceil n^{\epsilon_\ell} \rceil + 1) = |\text{dom } \rho_{2,\ell}|$ ,  
 (b) for every  $y \in C$  of the level 2 there is a set  $w_{y,\ell}$  of  $\leq k_\ell$  atoms such that if  $z \in \mathcal{Y}_y$ , then  $|\mathcal{Y}_z \setminus w_{y,\ell}| \leq k - \ell$ .

Now for  $C \upharpoonright_{\rho_{2,k}}$  we can invert AND and OR (multiplying the size by a constant  $\leq c_1$ ) decreasing  $d$  by 1, thus carrying the induction step.

For  $\ell = 0$  let  $\rho_{2,0} = \rho_1$ . For  $\ell + 1$ , for each  $y \in C$  of level 2 let  $\Xi = \{\nu: \nu \text{ a restriction with domain } w_{y,\ell}\}$ , let

$$\mathcal{Y}_y^\nu = \{z \in \mathcal{Y}_y: \text{the truth value at } z \text{ is still not computed under } \rho_{2,\ell} \cup \nu\},$$

and try to choose by induction on  $i$  an atom  $z_{y,\ell,\nu,i} \in \mathcal{Y}_y^\nu \setminus \{z_{y,\ell,\nu,j}: j < i\}$ , such that  $\text{dom}(z_{y,\ell,\nu,i})$  is disjoint to  $\bigcup_{j < i} \text{dom}(z_{y,\ell,\nu,j}) \setminus w_{y,\ell}$ . Let it be defined if  $i < i_{y,\ell}$ .

Now  $\rho_{2,\ell+1}$  will for each  $\nu \in \Xi$  decide that  $\nu$  makes the truth value computed in  $y$  true, or will leave only  $\leq (k_{\ell+1} - k_\ell)/2^{k_\ell}$  of the atoms in  $\bigcup \text{dom } z_{y,\ell,\nu,i} \setminus w_{y,\ell}$  undetermined (this is done as in the previous two stages).

But now by ⊗<sub>1</sub> + ⊗<sub>2</sub>,  $C \upharpoonright_{\rho_{2,k}}$  can be considered having  $d-1$  levels (because, as said above we can invert the AND and OR in level 1 and 2).

We have translate our problem to one with  $\lceil n^{\epsilon_k} \rceil, d-1, \epsilon_k(t + \epsilon_1), \frac{\epsilon}{3}$  instead  $n, d, t$ , and  $\epsilon$  (the  $t + \epsilon$  is just for  $n^{t+\epsilon} > c_1 n^t$ ).

Also note that  $\epsilon$  and  $c_1$  do not depend on  $n$ . So we can use the induction hypothesis. We still have to check the case  $d \leq 2$ , we still are assuming level 1 consist of cases of OR, and for almost all random  $\rho_1$  (as in  $\otimes_1$ ) for every  $x$  of level 1 we have  $|\mathcal{Y}_x| \leq c_0 \ln n$  (so again changing  $n$ ).

So as above we can add this assumption. Choose randomly a complete restriction  $\rho^0$  with  $|\{i: \rho^0(i) = 1\}| = n$ , and let  $\rho^1$  be obtained from  $\rho^0$  by changing one zero to 1, so  $|\{i: \rho^1(i) = 1\}| = n + 1$ .

Now the probability that  $C_{\uparrow \rho^0} = 0$  but  $C_{\uparrow \rho^1} = 1$  is small: It requires, that, for some node,  $x$  of level 1 is made false in  $C_{\uparrow \rho^0}$  while there is no such  $x$  for  $C_{\uparrow \rho^1}$ , but if  $x(*)$  is such for  $C_{\uparrow \rho^0}$  that is made true, then with probability  $\geq 1 - \frac{|\mathcal{Y}_x|}{2n+1} \geq 1 - \frac{c_0 \ln n}{n}$  the  $z_i$  changed is not in  $\mathcal{Y}_{x(*)}$ . Contradiction, thus finishing the proof.

### 3. TWO PLACE FUNCTIONS

Here we consider the random structure  $([n], F_n)$ , where  $F_n(x, y)$  is a random function from  $[n] \times [n]$  to  $[n]$ . (We no longer have order. A typical sentence would be  $\forall_x \exists_y F(x, y) = x$ ): Again for any sentence  $A$  we define  $f(n) = f_A(n)$  to be the probability  $A$  holds in the space of structures on  $[n]$  with uniform distribution. Again it is known [4] that convergence fails; there are  $A$ 's for which  $f(n)$  does not converge. Again our result is a very weak zero-one law.

**Theorem 3.1** *For every  $A$*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_A(n + 1) - f_A(n) = 0.$$

Again let  $m = 2n + 1$ . Let  $F^*(x, y, z)$  be a *three*-place function from  $[m] \times [m] \times [m]$  to  $[m]$ . For  $S \subset [m]$  of cardinality  $i = n$  or  $n + 1$  we define  $F_S^*$ , a partial function from  $[S] \times [S]$  to  $[S]$  by setting  $F_S^*(x, y) = F^*(x, y, z)$ , where  $z$  is the minimal value for which  $F^*(x, y, z) \in S$ . If there is no such  $z$  then  $F_S^*(x, y)$  is not defined. This occurs with probability  $(\frac{m-i}{m})^m$  for any particular  $x, y$  so the probability  $f_S^*$  is not always defined is at most  $i^2 (\frac{m-i}{m})^m = o(1)$ .

We generate a random three-place  $F^*$  and then consider  $F_S^*$  with  $S$  a random set of size  $i = n$  or  $n + 1$ . Conditioning on  $F_S^*$  being always defined it then has the distribution of a random two-place function on  $i$  points. Thus  $\Pr[A]$  over  $[n], F_n$  is within  $o(1)$  of  $\Pr[A]$  when  $F_n = F_S^*$  is chosen in this manner. Thus, as in Section 2, it suffices to show for any  $F^*$  and  $A$  that, letting  $g(i)$  denote the probability that  $F_S^*$  satisfies  $A$  with  $S$  a uniformly chosen  $i$ -set,  $g(n + 1) - g(n) = o(1)$ . Again fix  $F^*$  and  $A$  and let  $z_x$  be the Boolean value of  $x \in S$  for  $1 \leq x \leq 2n + 1$ . In  $A$  replace the ternary relation  $F(a, b) = c$  by  $\wedge_{y < d} \neg z_{F(a,b,y)} \ \& \ z_{F(a,b,d)}$ . (For  $d = 1$  this is simply True.) As in Section 2 replace  $\exists_x P(x)$  by  $\vee_x (z_x \wedge P^*(x))$ , where  $P^*(x)$  has been inductively defined as the replacement of  $P(x)$ . Then the statement that  $F_S^*$  satisfies  $A$  becomes a Boolean function of the  $z_1, \dots, z_m$ , as before it is an  $AC^0$  function, and by Section 2 we have  $g(n + 1) - g(n) = o(1)$ .

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The following discussion is directed mainly for logicians but may be of interest for CS-oriented readers as well.

### Discussion 3.2.

- (1) Note that the results of [8] cannot be obtained in this way as the proof here uses high symmetry. The problem there was: let  $\bar{p} = \langle p_i : i \in \mathbb{N} \rangle$  be a sequence of probabilities such that  $\sum_i p_i < \infty$ . Let  $G(n, \bar{p})$  be the random graph with set of nodes  $[n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$  and the edges drawn independently, and for  $i \neq j$  the probability of  $\{i, j\}$  being an edge is  $p_{|i-j|}$ .

The very weak 0–1 law was proved for this context in [8] (earlier on this context (probability depending on distance) was introduced and investigated in Łuczak and Shelah [7]. Now drawing  $G(2n+1, \bar{p})$  and then restricting ourselves to a random  $S \subseteq \{1, \dots, 2n+1\}$  with  $n$ , and with  $n+1$  elements, fail as  $G(2n+1, \bar{p}) \upharpoonright_S$  does not have the same distribution as  $G(|S|, \bar{p})$ .

- (2) We may want to phrase the result generally;  
One way: just say that  $M_n, M_{n+1}$  can be obtained as above: Draw a model on  $[2n+1] = \{1, \dots, 2n+1\}$  (i.e., with this universe), and then choose randomly subsets  $P_n^\ell$  with  $n+\ell$  elements and restrict yourself to it.
- (3) Two random linear order satisfies the very weak 0–1 zero law (meaning take two random functions from  $[n]$  to  $[0, 1]_{\mathbb{R}}$ ). The proof should be clear.
- (4) All this is for fixed probabilities; we then allow probabilities depending on  $n$ , e.g., we may consider  $G_{<}(n, p_n)$  as the model with set of elements  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ , the order relation, and we draw edges with edge probability  $p_n$  depending on  $n$ . This call for estimating two number (for  $\varphi$  first-order sentence):

$$\alpha_n = |\text{Prob}(G_{<}(n, p_{n+1}) \models \varphi) - \text{Prob}(G_{<}(n, p_n) \models \varphi)|,$$

$$\beta_n = |\text{Prob}(G_{<}(n, p_{n+1}) \models \varphi) - \text{Prob}(G_{<}(n+1, p_{n+1}) \models \varphi)|.$$

As for  $\beta_n$  the question is how much does the proof here depend on having the probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Direct inspection on the proof shows that it does not at all (this just influence on determining the specific Boolean function with  $2n+1$  variables) so we know that the  $\beta_n$  converge to zero.

As for  $\alpha_n$ , clearly the question is how fast the  $p_n$  change.

- (5) As stated in [8], we can also consider  $\lim(\text{Prob}_{n+h(n)}(M_{n+h(n)} \models \psi) - \text{Prob}_n(M_n \models \psi)) = 0$ , i.e., characterize the function  $h$  for which this holds, but this was not dealt with there. Hopefully there is a threshold phenomena. Probably this family of problems will appeal to mathematicians with an analytic background.

Another problem, closer to my heart, is to understand the model theory:

In some sense first-order formulas cannot express too much, but can we find a more direct statement fulfilling this?

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Another way to present the first problem for our case is: Close (or at least narrow) the analytic gap between [4] and the present paper.

After this work, Boppana and Spencer [3], continuing the present paper and [8], address the problem and completely solve it. More specifically they proved the following.

For every sentence  $A$  there exists a number  $t$  so that  $m(n) = O(n \ln^{-t} n)$  implies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_A(n + m(n)) - f(A)(n) = 0.$$

Also,

For every number  $t$  there exists a sentence  $A$  and a function  $m(n) = O(n \ln^{-t} n)$  so that  $f_A(n + m(n)) - f_A(n)$  does not approach zero.

Together we could say: A function  $m(n)$  has the property that for all  $A$  and all  $m'(n) \leq m(n)$  we have  $f_A(n + m'(n)) - f_A(n) \rightarrow 0$  if and only if  $m(n) = o(n \ln^{-t} n)$  for all  $t$ .

For improving the bound from this side they have used Hastad switching lemma [Hastad] (see [1], Section 11.2, Lemma 2.1).

(6) If we use logic stronger than first order it cannot be too strong (on monadic logic see [6]), but we may allow quantification over subsets of size  $k_n$ ; e.g.,  $\log(n)$  there are two issues:

- (A) When for both  $n$  and  $n + 1$  we quantify over subsets of size  $k_n$ , we should just increase  $M$  by having the set  $[n]^{k_n}$  as a set of extra elements, so in (\*),  $P$  is chosen as a random subset of  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, 2n, 2n + 1\}$  with  $n$  or  $n + 1$  elements but the model has about  $(2n + 1)^{k_n}$  elements; this requires a stronger theorem, still true (up to very near to exponentiation).
- (B) If  $k_n \neq k_{n+1}$ , we need to show that it does not matter; we may choose to round  $k_n = \log_2(n)$  so only for rare  $n$  do the values change. Thus we weaken a little the theorem or we may look at sentences for which this does not matter.

Maybe more naturally, together with randomly choosing  $\mathcal{M}_n$  we choose a number  $\underline{k}_n$ , and the probability of  $\underline{k}_n = k_n + i$  if  $i \in [-k_n/2, k_n/2]$  being  $1/k_n$ .

And we ask for  $p_n^\varphi =: \text{Prob}(\mathcal{M}_n \models \varphi)$ , where the monadic quantifier is interpreted as varying on set with  $\leq \underline{k}_n$  elements) for sentence  $\varphi$  (the point of the distribution of  $\underline{k}_n$  is just that for  $n, n + 1$  they differ a



little). For example, if for a random graph on  $n$  (probability 0.5) we ask on the property that “the size of maximal clique of size at most  $\lceil \log_2 n \rceil^2$  is even,” it satisfies the very weak zero–one law.

Of course, we know much more on this, still it shows that this old result (more exactly, a weakened version) can be put in our framework.

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