

Some old and new uses of the tree labeling method

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Reverse math, in one slide

Reverse mathematics is a foundational program for calibrating the computable and proof-theoretic content of mathematical principles.

Various **subsystems** of Z_2 are used as benchmarks against which to test the strength of theorems we are interested in: RCA_0 , WKL , ACA_0 , ...

RCA_0 consists of the algebraic axioms about the natural numbers, plus Δ_1^0 -comprehension and Σ_1^0 -induction.

A **model** of RCA_0 is a pair (N, \mathcal{S}) , where N is a (possibly nonstandard) first-order structure, and $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(N)$ is closed under Δ_1^0 -definability.

An **ω -model** is a model (N, \mathcal{S}) with $N = \omega$, which can thus be identified just with \mathcal{S} . If $\mathcal{S} \models RCA_0$ then \mathcal{S} is a **Turing ideal**.

The computability-theoretic perspective

We are interested in statements of the form

$$\forall X [\Phi(X) \rightarrow \exists Y \Psi(X, Y)],$$

where Φ and Ψ are some kind of properties of X and Y .

We think of this as a **problem**, “given X satisfying Φ , find Y satisfying Ψ ”.

We call the X such that $\Phi(X)$ holds the **instances** of the problem, and the Y such that $\Psi(X, Y)$ holds the **solutions** to X for this problem.

Typically, we look at problems whose instances and solutions are subsets of \mathbb{N} , and where the properties Φ and Ψ are arithmetical.

Basic question. Given an instance of a problem, how complex are its solutions?

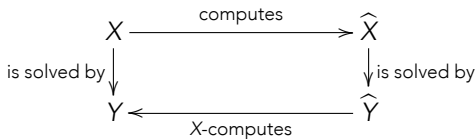
Computable reducibility

Let P and Q be problems.

P is **computably reducible** to Q , written $P \leq_c Q$, if

- ▶ every instance X of P computes an instance \widehat{X} of Q ,
- ▶ every Q -solution \widehat{Y} to \widehat{X} , together with X , computes a P -solution Y to X .

So the following diagram commutes:



(Dzhafarov '15; Hirschfeldt and Jockusch '16).

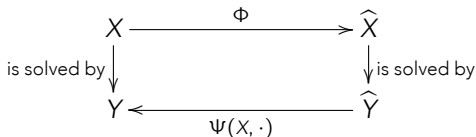
Weihrauch reducibility

Let P and Q be problems.

P is **Weihrauch reducible** to Q , written $P \leq_W Q$, if

- ▶ every instance X of P *uniformly* computes an instance \widehat{X} of Q ,
- ▶ every Q -solution \widehat{Y} to \widehat{X} , together with X , *uniformly* computes a P -solution Y to X .

So the following diagram commutes:



(Weihrauch '92; Brattka; Gherardi and Marcone '08; DDHMS '16).

Strong forms

Let P and Q be problems.

P is **strongly computably reducible** to Q , written $P \leq_{sc} Q$, if

- ▶ every instance X of P computes an instance \hat{X} of Q ,
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P is **strongly Weihrauch reducible** to Q , written $P \leq_{sW} Q$, if

- ▶ every instance X of P *uniformly* computes an instance \hat{X} of Q ,
- ▶ every Q -solution \hat{Y} to \hat{X} , ~~together with X~~ , *uniformly* computes a P -solution Y to X .

Some examples

Ramsey's theorem. For $n, k \geq 1$, RT_k^n is the following problem:

- ▶ instances are all colorings $c : [\omega]^n \rightarrow k$;
 - ▶ solutions are all infinite sets H homogeneous for c (i.e., c constant on $[H]^n$).
-

Theorem (Dorais, Dzhafarov, Hirst, Mileti, and Shafer).

If $n \geq 1$ and $k > j$, then $RT_k^n \not\leq_{sW} RT_j^n$.

Theorem (Hirschfeld and Jockusch; Brattka and Rakotonianina).

If $n \geq 1$ and $k > j$, then $RT_k^n \not\leq_W RT_j^n$.

Theorem (Dzhafarov). If $k > j$, then $RT_k^1 \not\leq_{sc} RT_j^1$.

Theorem (Patey). If $n \geq 2$ and $k > j$, then $RT_k^n \not\leq_c RT_j^n$.

Example: $RT_3^1 \not\leq_{sw} RT_2^1$

Fix Turing functionals Φ and Ψ .



We must construct:

- ▶ a coloring $c : \omega \rightarrow 3$,
- ▶ an infinite homogeneous set H for $\Phi^c : \omega \rightarrow 2$ such that either
 - (\uparrow) there are only finitely many x such that $\Psi^H(x) \downarrow = 1$, or
 - (\downarrow) there exists $x < y$ such that $\Psi^H(x) \downarrow = \Psi^H(y) \downarrow = 1$ and $c(x) \neq c(y)$.

Example: $RT_3^1 \not\leq_{sw} RT_2^1$

Theorem (Seetapun). One of the following is true:

- ▶ there is an infinite set I such that no $F \subseteq I$ satisfies $(\exists x)[\Psi^F(x) \downarrow = 1]$,
 - ▶ there are finite sets F_0, \dots, F_n such that $\Psi^{F_i}(x) \downarrow = 1$ for some x , and for every every $d : \omega \rightarrow 2$ there is an i such that F_i is homogeneous for d .
-

In the first case, let c be arbitrary. Take any homogeneous set $H \subseteq I$ for Φ^c . (↑)

In the second, find all the F_i , and for each, fix x with $\Psi^H(x) \downarrow = 1$:

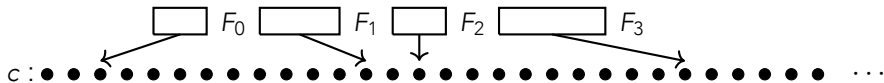
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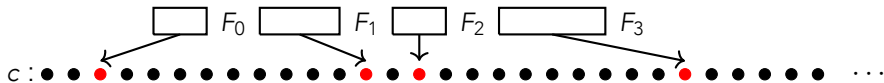
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Repeat for each of the other colors allowable for c . Obtain (↓).

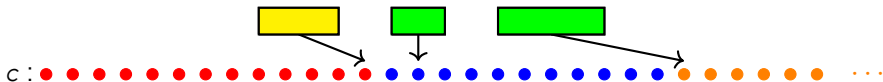
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A more complicated problem: SRT_2^2

A coloring $c : [\omega]^2 \rightarrow 2$ is **stable** if for every x , $\lim_y c(x, y)$ exists.

- ▶ The value of $\lim_y c(x, y)$ is the **limit color** of x .
- ▶ The least n s.t. $(\forall z > n)[c(x, z) = \lim_y c(x, y)]$ is the **stabilization point** of x .

Stable Ramsey's theorem. SRT_2^2 is the restriction of RT_2^2 to stable colorings.

Combinatorially, solutions to SRT_2^2 have **global structure** and **local structure**.

- ▶ The global structure ensures all elements have the same limit color.
- ▶ The local structure ensures all pairs of elements have the same color.

Typically: apply RT_2^1 to get global structure, then **thin** to get local structure.

Seetapun's combinatorial trick only works for global structure, not local.

Example: $RT_3^1 \not\leq_{sc} SRT_2^2$

We must construct:

- ▶ a coloring $c : \omega \rightarrow 3$,
 - ▶ for each Φ , if $\Phi^c : [\omega]^2 \rightarrow 2$ is stable, an infinite homogeneous set H such that for every Ψ , either
 - (\uparrow) there are only finitely many x such that $\Psi^H(x) \downarrow = 1$, or
 - (\downarrow) there exists $x < y$ such that $\Psi^H(x) \downarrow = \Psi^H(y) \downarrow 1$ and $c(x) \neq c(y)$.
-

In the (\downarrow) case, we can no longer postpone defining c until we find diagonalization opportunities.

This causes a serious tension: defining c to make some finite set F homogeneous (local structure) may make Ψ^F homogeneous for c .

The tree labeling construction

Let T be the set of all increasing $\alpha \in \omega^{<\omega}$ such that for all finite $F \subseteq \text{ran}(\alpha \upharpoonright |\alpha| - 1)$, it is not the case that $\Psi^F(x) \downarrow = 1$ for some x .

Case 1. If T is not well-founded, let I be a path through T . Now commit to building H inside $\text{ran}(I)$, and obtain (\uparrow) .

The tree labeling construction

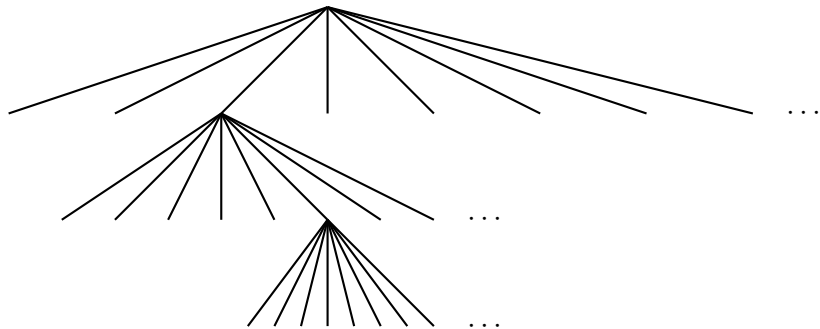
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Case 2. Suppose T is well-founded.

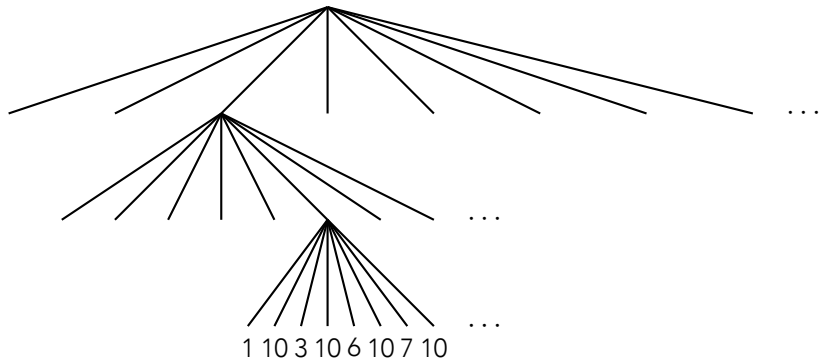
We **label** each $\alpha \in T$, either by some $x \in \omega$ or by the symbol ∞ .

- ▶ If α is a leaf, its label is the least x such that $\Psi^F(x) = 1$ for some $F \subseteq \text{ran}(\alpha)$.
- ▶ If α is not a leaf and infinitely many α_i have the same label $x \in \omega$, label α by the least such x .
- ▶ If α is not a leaf, and no $x \in \omega$ appears as the label of infinitely many α_i , label α by ∞ .

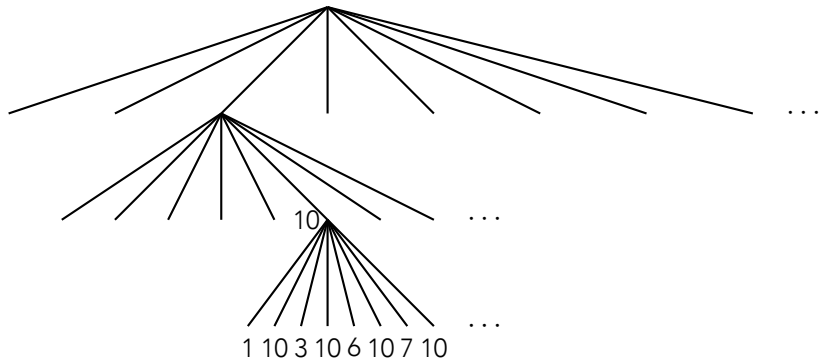
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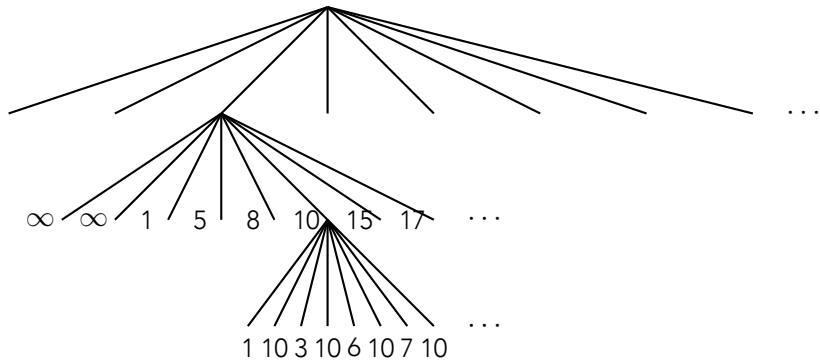
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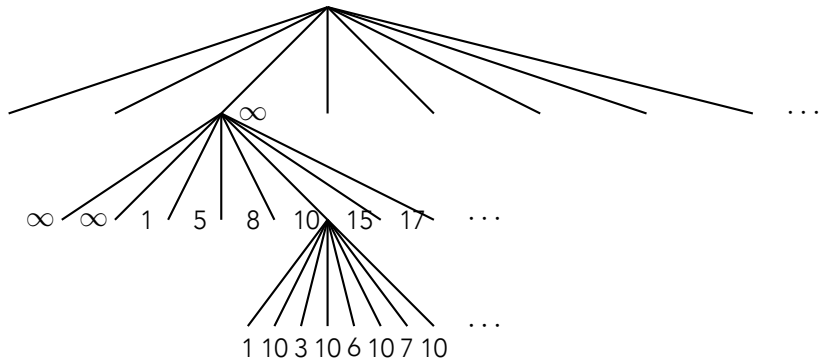
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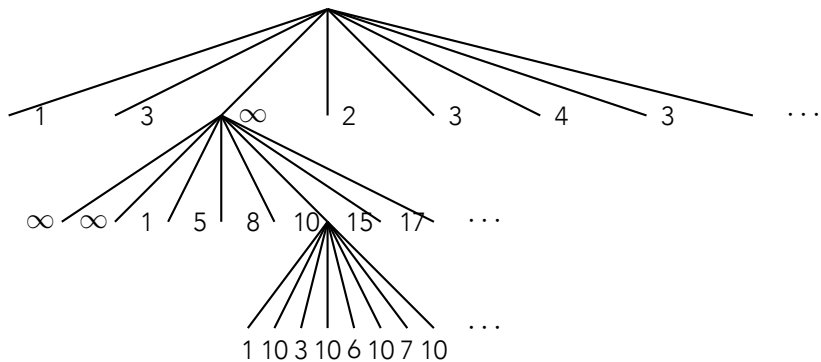
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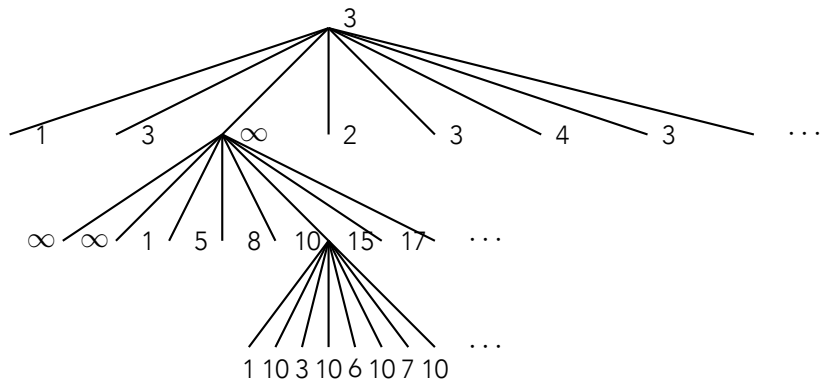
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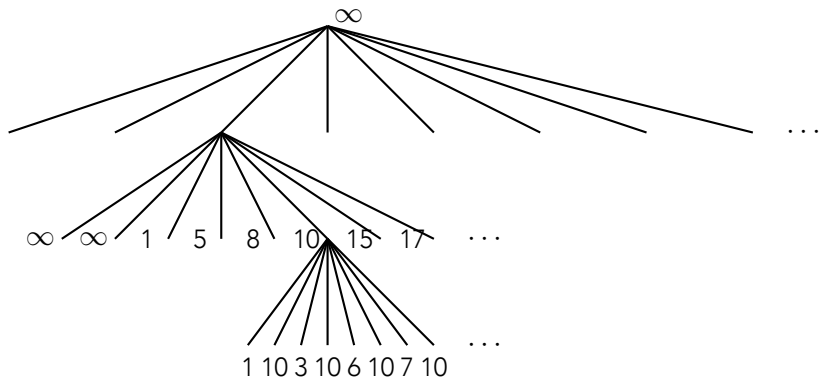
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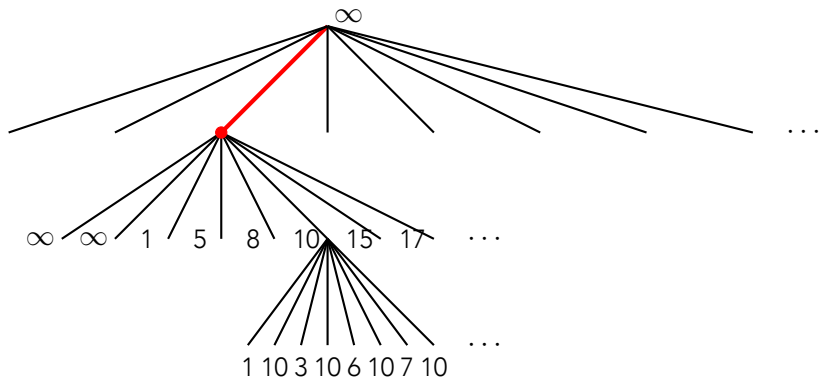
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Old applications

Theorem (Dzhafarov). $RT_2^1 \not\leq_{sc} SRT_3^2$.

Theorem (Dzhafarov, Patey, Solomon, Westrick). If $k > j$ then $RT_k^1 \not\leq_{sc} SRT_j^2$.

Let P and Q be problems.

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Theorem (Dzhafarov, Patey, Solomon, Westrick). If $k > j$ then $RT_k^1 \not\leq_{soc} SRT_j^2$.

Same argument, but now force over a ctbl model of ZFC, apply absoluteness.

New applications

Polarized Ramsey's theorem (Erdős and Rado).

Fix a coloring $c : [\omega]^2 \rightarrow k$. A pair (H_0, H_1) of infinite sets is

- ▶ p -homogeneous if c is constant on $H_0 \times H_1 \cup H_1 \times H_0$.
- ▶ increasing p -homogeneous if c is constant on $H_0 \times H_1$.

Analogues of RT_k^2 and SRT_k^2 : denoted PT_k^2 and SPT_k^2 , and IPT_k^2 and $SIPT_k^2$.

Theorem (Dzhafarov and Hirst). $RCA_0 \vdash RT_2^2 \leftrightarrow PT_k^2 \rightarrow IPT_k^2 \rightarrow SRT_k^2$.

Theorem (Chong, Lempp, and Yang). $RCA_0 \vdash SRT_2^2 \leftrightarrow SPT_k^2 \leftrightarrow SIPT_k^2$.

Theorem (David Nichols 2019). $SRT_k^2 \not\leq_{sc} SPT_k^2 \not\leq_{sc} SIPT_k^2$.

New applications

Chain/antichain principle (Dilworth; Hirschfeldt and Jockusch).

CAC: Every infinite partial order has an infinite chain or antichain.

SCAC: Every partial order of type $\omega + \omega^*$ has an infinite chain or antichain.

A partial order \leq_P of ω is **ordered** if $x \leq_P y \rightarrow x \leq y$.

CAC^{ord} and **SCAC^{ord}**: restrictions of CAC and SCAC to ordered partial orders.

Theorem (Towsner). $\text{RCA}_0 \vdash \text{CAC} \leftrightarrow \text{CAC}^{\text{ord}}$ and $\text{RCA}_0 \vdash \text{SCAC} \leftrightarrow \text{SCAC}^{\text{ord}}$.

Theorem (Noah Hughes 2021).

▶ $\text{CAC} \not\equiv_c \text{CAC}^{\text{ord}}$.

▶ $\text{SCAC} \equiv_c \text{SCAC}^{\text{ord}}$, but $\text{SCAC} \not\equiv_W \text{SCAC}^{\text{ord}}$ and $\text{SCAC} \not\equiv_{\text{sc}} \text{SCAC}^{\text{ord}}$.

Thank you for your attention!
