## Completeness

Compactness

## and an application to

Ramsey's Theorem

Dartmouth Logic Seminar April 6, 2009 Marcia J. Groszek

None of the results in this talk are due to me.

A first-order formal language for talking about a kind of mathematical structure (for example, the language of ordered rings) has
formulas, such as $(x<y+((1+1) * x))$;
sentences, such as $(\forall x)(x+0=x)$, which are formulas with no free variables;
built from:
logical symbols: $\forall, \exists,(),, \neg($ not $), \wedge($ and $), \vee$ (or), $\rightarrow, \leftrightarrow,=, x, y, z \ldots$
(parameter) constant (0, 1), function (,$+ *$ ), and predicate $(<)$ symbols.

A structure for the language consists of a nonempty set $X$ (the universe), together with elements of $X$, functions on $X$, and relations on $X$ designated by the constant, function, and relation symbols of the language.

Note that not every structure for the language of ordered rings is an ordered ring.

A structure is a model for a set $\Sigma$ of sentences (sometimes called axioms) if all the sentences of $\Sigma$ are true in that model.

An ordered ring is a structure for this language that is a model of the axioms for an ordered ring.

A set of axioms $\Sigma$ logically implies a sentence $\alpha$,

$$
\Sigma \models \alpha
$$

if $\alpha$ is true in every model of $\Sigma$.

So, if $\Sigma$ is the set of axioms for an ordered ring, $\Sigma \models \alpha$ just in case $\alpha$ is true in every ordered ring.
$\{\alpha \mid \Sigma \models \alpha\}$ is the theory with axioms $\Sigma$; in this example, it is the theory of ordered rings, in other words, the set of sentences true in every ordered ring.

A deduction (formal proof) of $\alpha$ from $\Sigma$ is a finite sequence of formulas, each one of which either is in $\Sigma$, or is in a certain set $\wedge$ of logical axioms, or is derived from earlier formulas in the sequence using one of a given set of logical rules.

Example logical axiom: $((\forall x(x+0=x)) \rightarrow(1+0=1))$.

Example logical rule:
From $\alpha$ and $(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$, derive $\beta$.

If there is a deduction of $\alpha$ from $\Sigma$, we say $\alpha$ is deducible from $\Sigma$,

$$
\Sigma \vdash \alpha .
$$

Key features of formal deductions:

Formal deductions are logically valid:

$$
\Sigma \vdash \alpha \Longrightarrow \Sigma \models \alpha .
$$

If $\Sigma$ is a finite set of axioms, then there is an algorithm that can tell whether a given finite sequence of formulas is a deduction from $\Sigma$ or not:

The set of deductions from $\Sigma$ is effectively decidable, or computable.

## IMPORTANT WARNING:

$$
\{\alpha \mid \Sigma \vdash \alpha\}
$$

is in general NOT decidable.

Although we can decide whether a given finite sequence of formulas is a deduction from $\Sigma$, to tell whether $\Sigma \vdash \alpha$ we would have to examine infinitely many potential deductions.

In fact, in the language of ordered rings,

$$
\{\alpha \mid \emptyset \vdash \alpha\}
$$

is not decidable.

## Gödel's Completeness Theorem:

$$
\Sigma \vDash \alpha \Longleftrightarrow \Sigma \vdash \alpha .
$$

For example, any sentence in the language of ordered rings is either provable from the axioms of ordered rings, or false in some ordered ring.

## Compactness Theorem:

If $\Sigma$ is a set of sentences such that every finite subset of $\Sigma$ has a model, then $\Sigma$ itself has a model.

Proof: Suppose $\Sigma$ has no model. Then, vacuously, $\Sigma \models \alpha$ for every sentence $\alpha$. By the Completeness Theorem, then, $\Sigma \vdash \alpha$ for every sentence $\alpha$. For example,

$$
\Sigma \vdash(\exists x)(x \neq x) .
$$

Because deductions are finite, there is a finite subset $\Delta \subseteq \Sigma$ such that

$$
\Delta \vdash(\exists x)(x \neq x) .
$$

But then $\Delta$ is a finite subset of $\Sigma$ with no model.

We use the Compactness Theorem to prove the finitary version of Ramsey's Theorem from the infinitary version.

First, some notation:

If $X$ is any set, and $n \in \omega(\omega=\mathbb{N})$,

$$
[X]^{n}=\{Y \subseteq X| | Y \mid=n\}
$$

A coloring of $X$ in $k$ colors is a function

$$
c: X^{n} \rightarrow P
$$

where $P$ is some set of size $k$.

A subset $H \subset X$ is homogeneous for $c$. or monochromatic, if for some color $i$,

$$
\left(\forall Y \in[H]^{n}\right)(c(Y)=i)
$$

If $a$ and $b$ are cardinal numbers (natural numbers or $\omega$ for our purposes), and $n$ and $k$ are natural numbers, then

$$
a \rightarrow(b)_{k}^{n}
$$

means that if $A$ is a set of size $a$, for every coloring of $[A]^{n}$ in $k$ colors, there is a homogenous subset $H \subset A$ of size $b$.

Ramsey's Theorem (Infinitary Version):

$$
(\forall n \in \omega)(\forall k \in \omega)\left(\omega \rightarrow(\omega)_{k}^{n}\right)
$$

Ramsey's Theorem (Finitary Version):

$$
(\forall n \in \omega)(\forall k \in \omega)(\forall b \in \omega)(\exists a \in \omega)\left(a \rightarrow(b)_{k}^{n}\right) .
$$

Proof of the finitary version of Ramsey's Theorem from the infinitary version:

Suppose the finitary version fails. Then, for some $n, k$, and $b$, for no $a \in \omega$ do we have

$$
\left(a \rightarrow(b)_{k}^{n}\right) .
$$

That is, for every $a \in \omega$ it is possible to color $n$-element subsets of a size $a$ set in $k$ colors so that no size $b$ subset is monochromatic.

For typographical ease, we assume $n=k=2$.

This means the following set $\Sigma$ of sentences has models of arbitrarily large finite size:

Our language has symbols $R$ and $B$, for colors red and blue. We interpret the formula Rxy to mean that $\{x, y\}$ is assigned color red. We include in our set $\Sigma$ axioms saying that this is really a coloring of sets of size 2 :

$$
\begin{gathered}
(\forall x)(\forall y)(x=y \rightarrow(\neg R x y \wedge \neg B x y)) ; \\
(\forall x)(\forall y)(x \neq y \rightarrow(R x y \leftrightarrow \neg B x y)) ; \\
(\forall x)(\forall y)(x \neq y \rightarrow(R x y \leftrightarrow R y x)) .
\end{gathered}
$$

We also include a sentence saying there is no size $b$ homgeneous set:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(\forall x_{1}\right) \cdots\left(\forall x_{b}\right)\left(\left(\bigwedge_{1 \leq i<j \leq b} x_{i} \neq x_{j}\right) \rightarrow\right. \\
\left.\left(\bigvee_{1 \leq i<j \leq b} R x_{i} x_{j}\right) \wedge\left(\bigvee_{1 \leq i<j \leq b}^{\bigvee} B x_{i} x_{j}\right)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

A model for $\Sigma$ is a set $X$ with a coloring of $[X]^{2}$ in colors $R$ and $B$ having no homogenous set of size $b$.

For every $a \in \omega$, because we do not have

$$
\left(a \rightarrow(b)_{2}^{2}\right)
$$

we do have a set $X$ of size $a$ with a coloring of $[X]^{2}$ in colors $R$ and $B$ having no homogeneous set of size $b$. That is, $\Sigma$ has a model of size $a$, for every finite $a$.

Let $\sigma_{a}$ be a sentence saying there are at least $a$ elements in the universe:

$$
\left(\exists x_{1}\right) \cdots\left(\exists x_{a}\right)\left(\bigwedge_{1 \leq i<j \leq a} x_{i} \neq x_{j}\right)
$$

Because $\Sigma$ has arbitrarily large finite models, every finite subset of $\Sigma^{\prime}$ has a model, where

$$
\Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma \cup\left\{\sigma_{a} \mid a \in \omega\right\}
$$

By Compactness, $\Sigma^{\prime}$ has a model, where

$$
\Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma \cup\left\{\sigma_{a} \mid a \in \omega\right\}
$$

That is, there is an infinite set $X$ with a coloring of $[X]^{2}$ in two colors with no homogeneous set of size $b$.

By restricting to a subset of $X$ (if necessary), we can assume $X$ is countable, $|X|=\omega$.

If there is no homogenous set of size $b$, certainly there is no homogeneous set of size $\omega$. That is, we have shown

$$
\omega \nrightarrow(\omega)_{2}^{2} .
$$

Hence the finitary version of Ramsey's Theorem (for $n=k=2$ ) follows from the infinitary version, via Compactness.

Here is a proof of the infinitary version of Ramsey's Theorem (for $n=k=2$ ). It's much easier than the proof for the finitary case (but gives less combinatorial information).
$8 \quad R \quad R \quad B \quad R \quad B \quad B \quad R \quad R$


$5 \quad B \quad R \quad R \quad B \quad R$
$4 \quad R \quad B \quad R \quad R$
$3 \quad R \quad B \quad R$
$2 R R$
$1 \quad B$
0

$$
\begin{array}{llllllll}
0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7
\end{array}
$$

A coloring of $[\omega]^{2}$ in two colors.

The pair $(a, b)$, where $a<b$, represents the set $\{a, b\}$.
$\begin{array}{lllllllll}81 & R & R & R & R & R & R & R & R\end{array}$
$56 \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R$
$55 \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R$
$34 \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R$
$30 \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R$
$24 \quad R \quad R \quad R$
$20 \quad R \quad R$
$7 \quad R$
0
$\begin{array}{llllllll}0 & 7 & 20 & 24 & 30 & 34 & 55 & 56\end{array}$
$H=\{0,7,20,24,30,34,55,56,81, \ldots\}$ is homogeneous in color red.

To construct a homogeneous set:

| 8 |  | $R$ | $R$ | $B$ | $R$ | $B$ | $B$ | $R$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

$X_{0}=\left\{b \in \omega-\left\{x_{0}\right\} \mid c(\{0, b\})=R\right\}$ if this is infinite;
$X_{0}=\left\{b \in \omega-\left\{x_{0}\right\} \mid c(\{0, b\})=B\right\}$ otherwise.
$C(0)=R$ or $C(0)=B$, respectively.

$$
\begin{array}{cllllllll}
14 & R & B & B & B & B & R & R & R \\
11 & R & B & R & R & R & B & R & \\
10 & R & R & B & B & R & B & & \\
8 & R & B & R & B & R & & & \\
7 & R & B & B & R & & & & \\
4 & R & R & R & & & & & \\
3 & R & R & & & & & & \\
2 & R & & & & & & & \\
0 & & & & & & & & \\
& 0 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 7 & 8 & 10 & 11
\end{array}
$$

$\left.\begin{array}{|ll|lll|l|l|l|}\hline 14 & & R & B & B & B & B & R \\ \hline\end{array}\right) R$
$x_{1}=\min \left(X_{0}\right)$
$X_{1}=\left\{b \in X_{0}-\left\{x_{1}\right\} \mid c\left(\left\{x_{1}, b\right\}\right)=R\right\}$ if this is infinite;
$X_{1}=\left\{b \in X_{0}-\left\{x_{1}\right\} \mid c\left(\left\{x_{1}, b\right\}\right)=B\right\}$ otherwise.
$C\left(x_{1}\right)=R$ or $C\left(x_{1}\right)=B$, respectively.


$18 \quad R \quad B \quad R \quad R \quad R \quad R$
$14 \quad R \quad B \quad B \quad R \quad R$
$11 \quad R \quad B \quad R \quad B$
$8 \quad R \quad B \quad R$
$7 \quad R \quad B$

| 2 | $R$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 0 |  |


| 0 | 2 | 7 | 8 | 11 | 14 | 18 | 20 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Continue: $x_{n+1}=\min \left(X_{n}\right)$
$X_{n+1}=\left\{b \in X_{n}-\left\{x_{n+1}\right\} \mid c\left(\left\{x_{n+1}, b\right\}\right)=R\right\}$ if this is infinite;
$X_{n+1}=\left\{b \in X_{n}-\left\{x_{n+1}\right\} \mid c\left(\left\{x_{n+1}, b\right\}\right)=B\right\}$ otherwise.
$C\left(x_{n+1}\right)=R$ or $C\left(x_{n+1}\right)=B$, respectively.

$$
\left.\begin{array}{lllllllll}
30 & R & B & R & B & B & R & B & R \\
24 & R & B & R & B & B & R & B & \\
23 & R & B & R & B & B & R & & \\
20 & R & B & R & B & B & & & \\
11 & R & B & R & B & & & & \\
8 & R & B & R & & & & & \\
7 & R & B & & & & & & \\
2 & R & & & & & & & \\
0 & & & & & & & & \\
& 0 & 2 & 7 & 8 & 11 & 20 & 23 & 24 \\
X=\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}, \ldots\right.
\end{array}\right\} .
$$

| 30 | R | $B$ | $R$ | $B$ | B | R | B | R |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 24 | R | $B$ | R | $B$ | B | R | $B$ |  |
| 23 | $R$ | $B$ | $R$ | B | B | $R$ |  |  |
| 20 | R | $B$ | R | B | B |  |  |  |
| 11 | $R$ | $B$ | $R$ | $B$ |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | $R$ | $B$ | $R$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | R | $B$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | $R$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 0 | 2 | 7 | 8 | 11 | 20 | 23 | 24 |

$$
H=\{x \in X \mid C(x)=B\} \text { otherwise. }
$$

| 81 | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 56 | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ |  |
| 55 | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ |  |  |
| 34 | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ |  |  |  |
| 30 | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ |  |  |  |  |
| 24 | $R$ | $R$ | $R$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20 | $R$ | $R$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | $R$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

$$
\begin{array}{llllllll}
0 & 7 & 20 & 24 & 30 & 34 & 55 & 56
\end{array}
$$

$H$ is homogeneous in color $R$ or $B$, respectively.

