

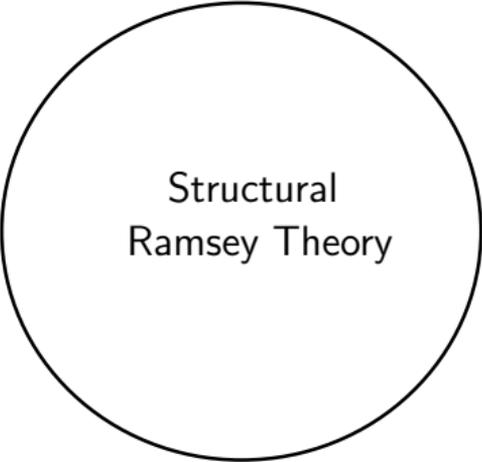
Ramsey theorem for trees with successor operation

Jan Hubička

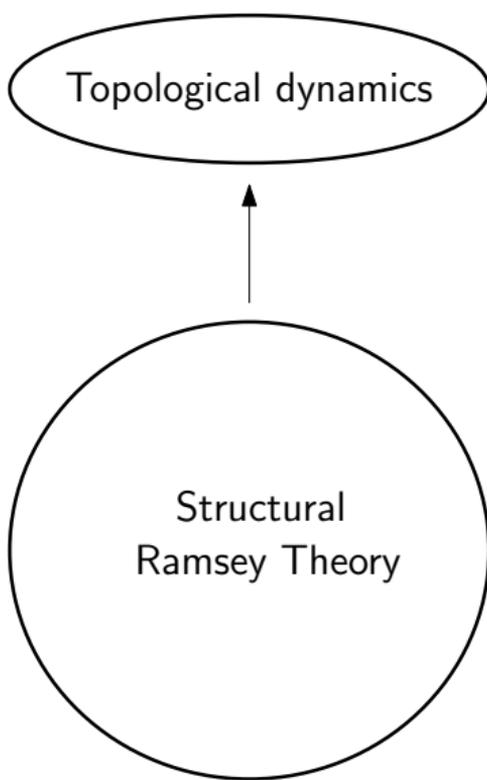
Department of Applied Mathematics
Charles University
Prague

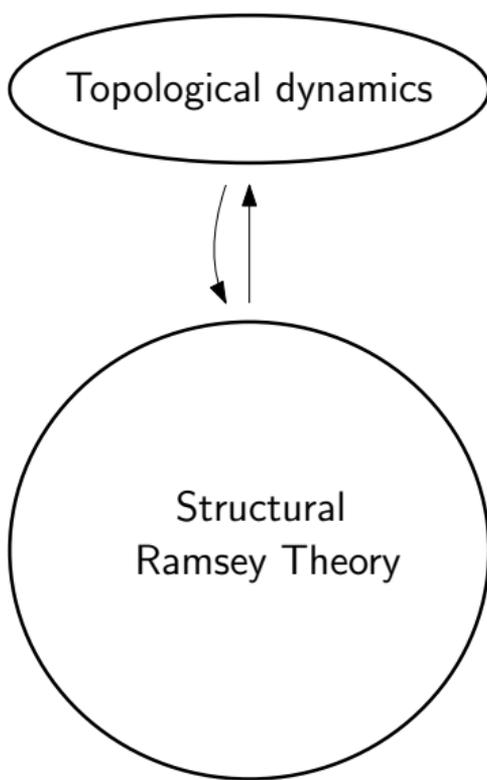
Joint work with Martin Balko, Samuel Bruanfeld, Natasha Dobrinen, David Chodounský, Matěj Konečný, Jaroslav Nešetřil, Noe de Rancourt, Stevo Todorčević, Lluís Vena, Andy Zucker

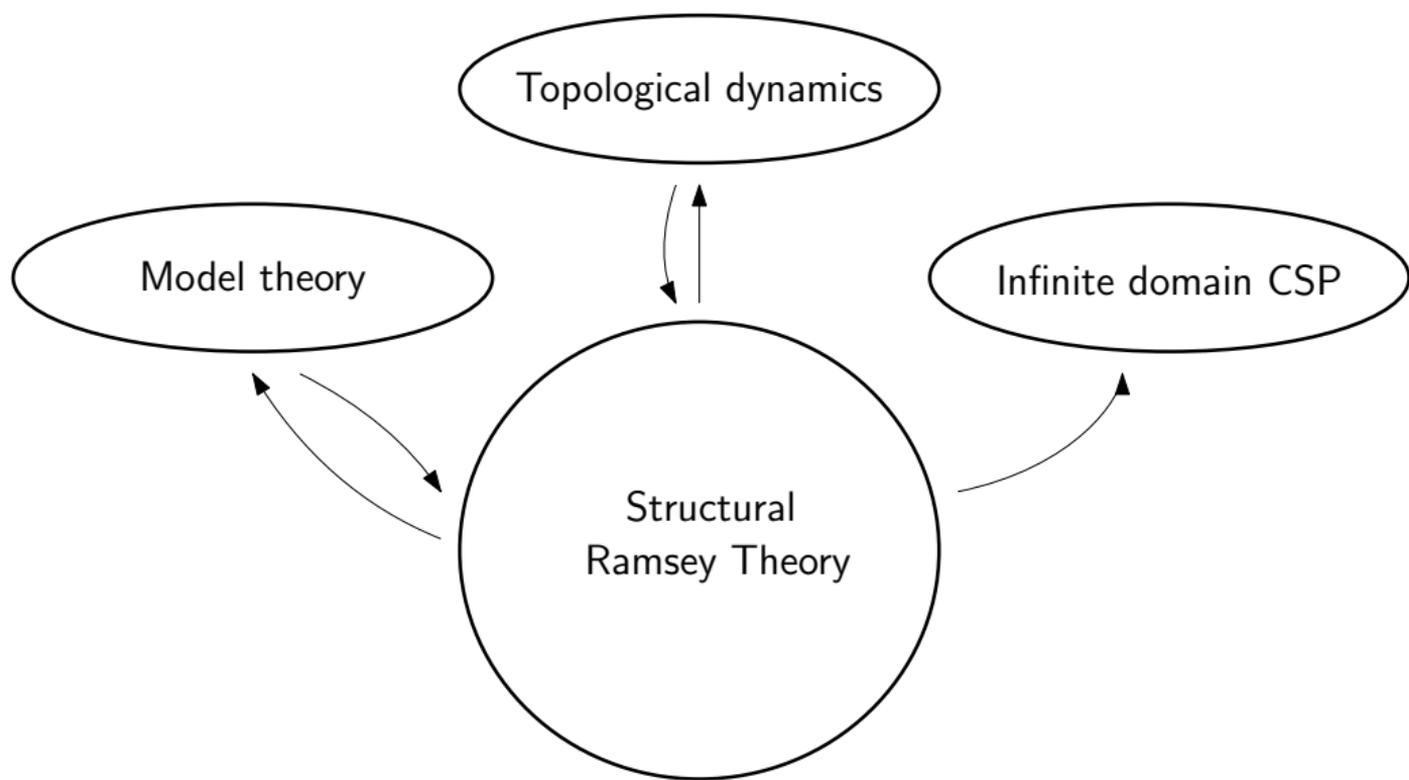
Winter school, 2023, Hejnice

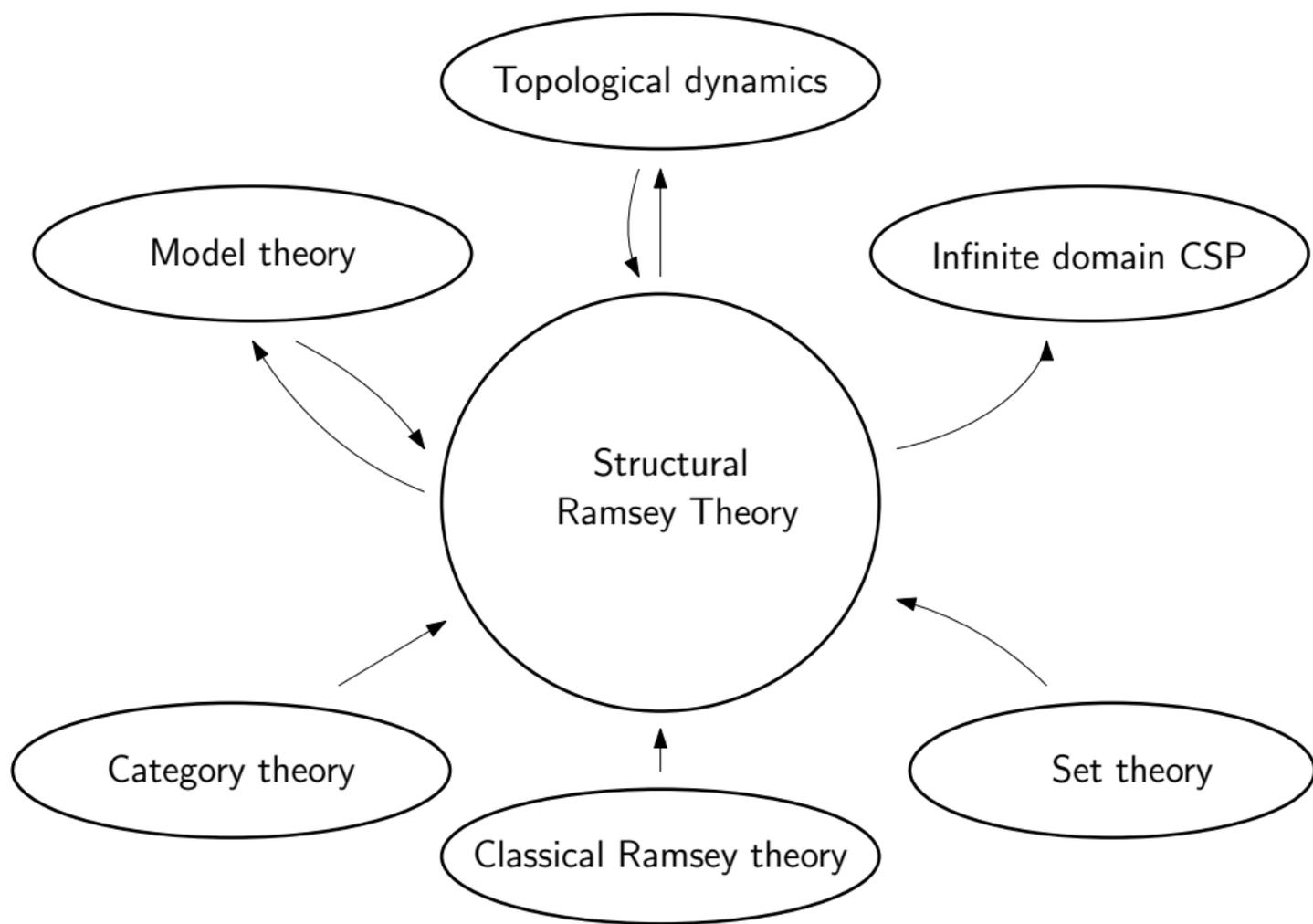


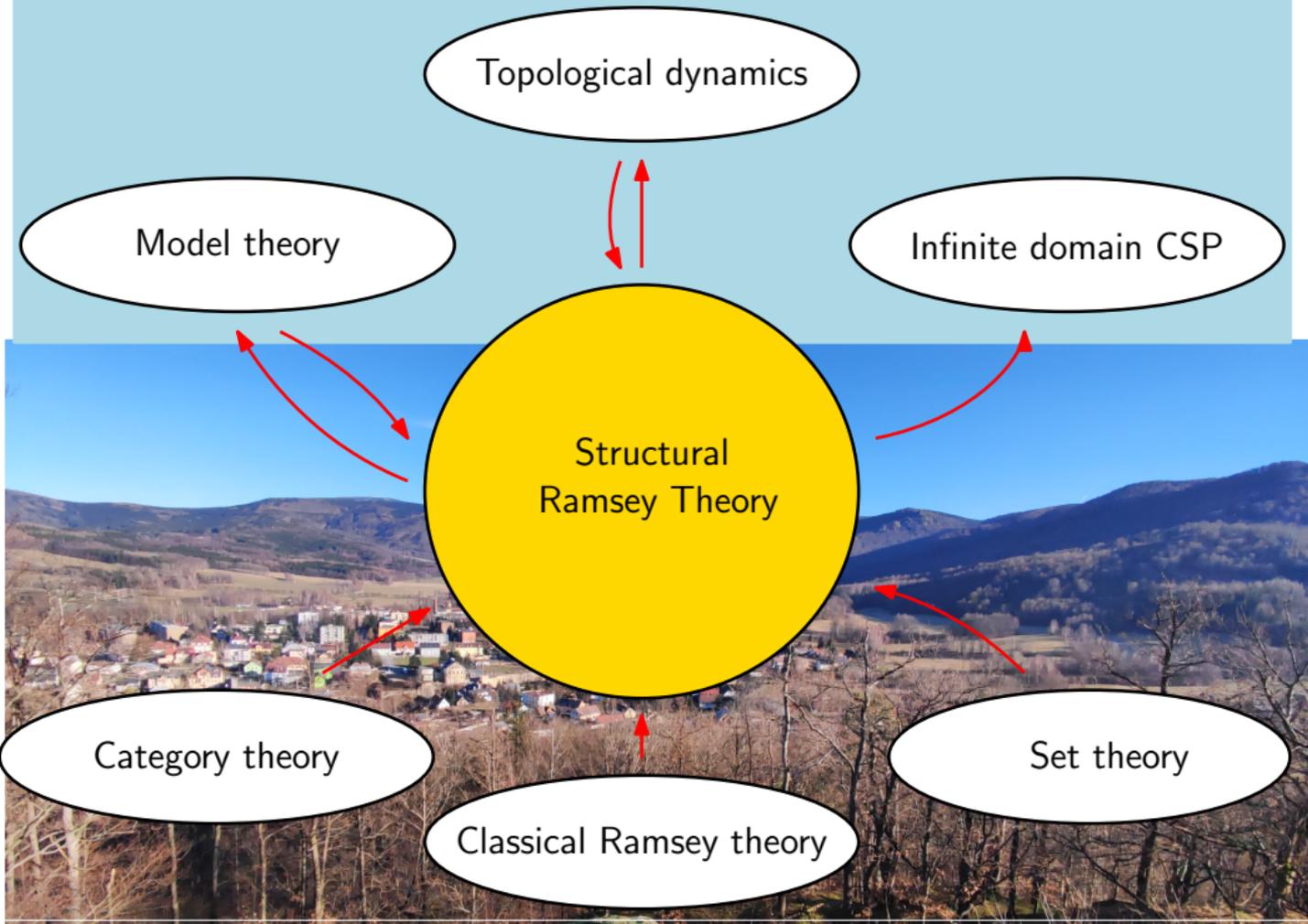
Structural
Ramsey Theory

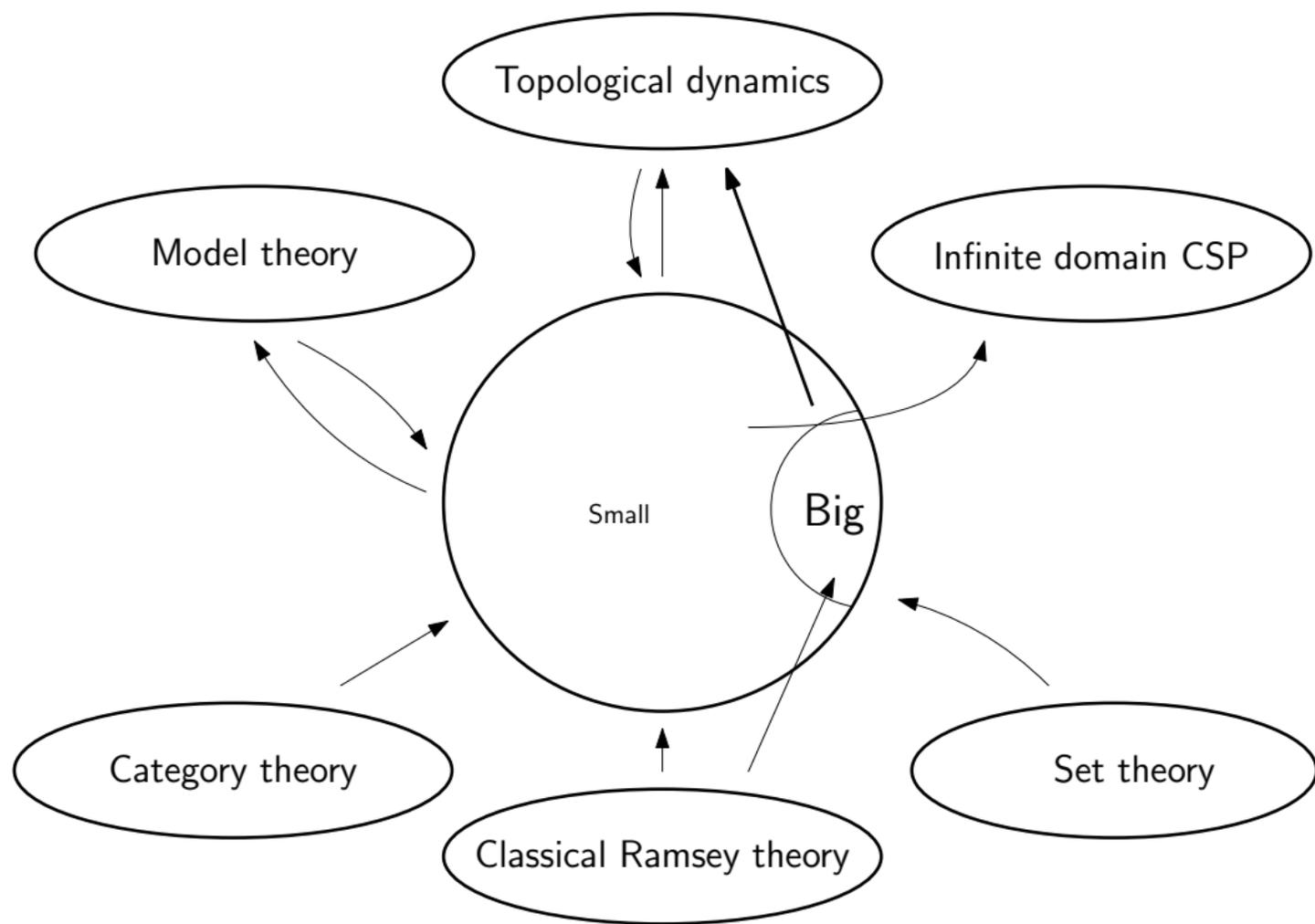


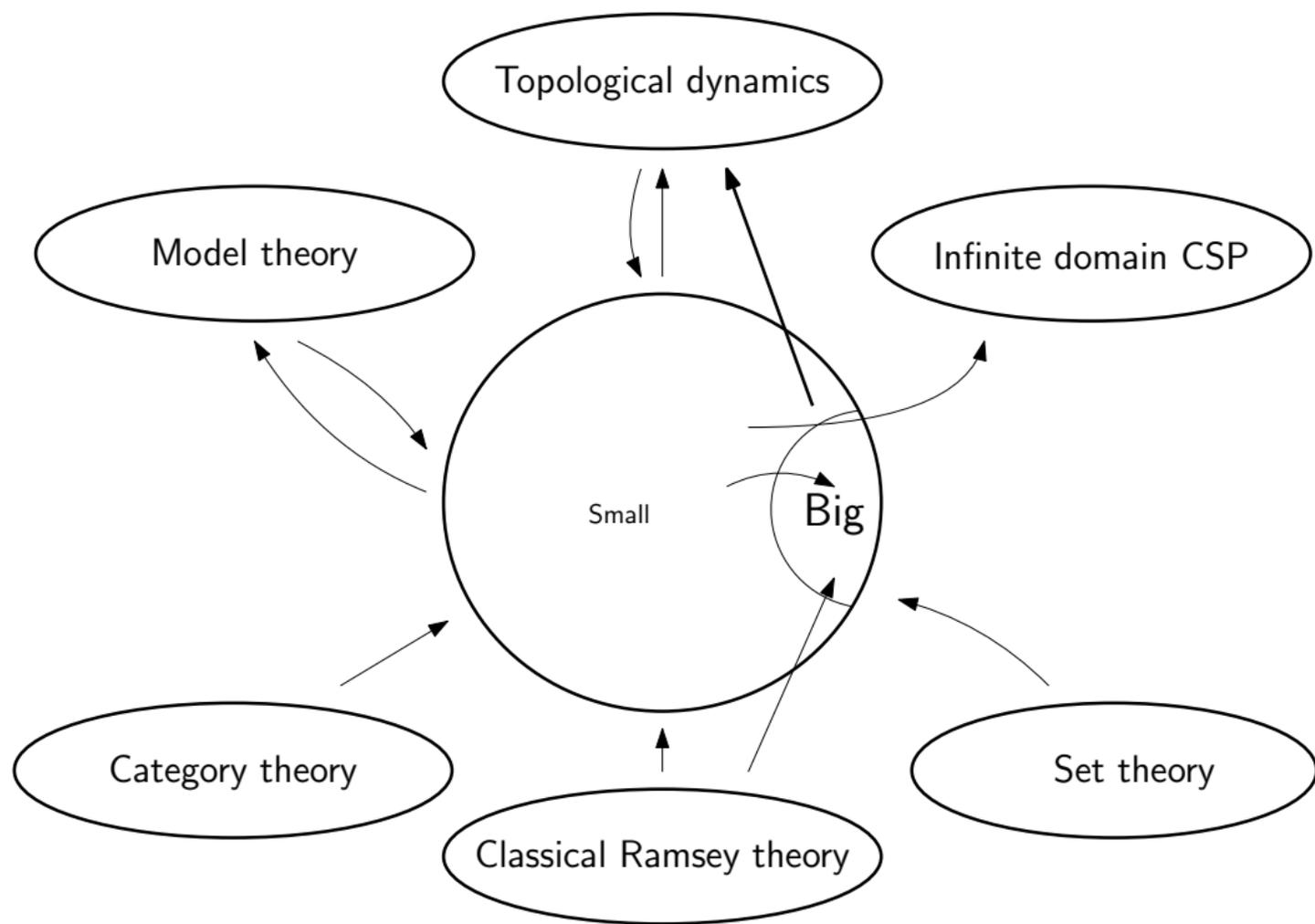


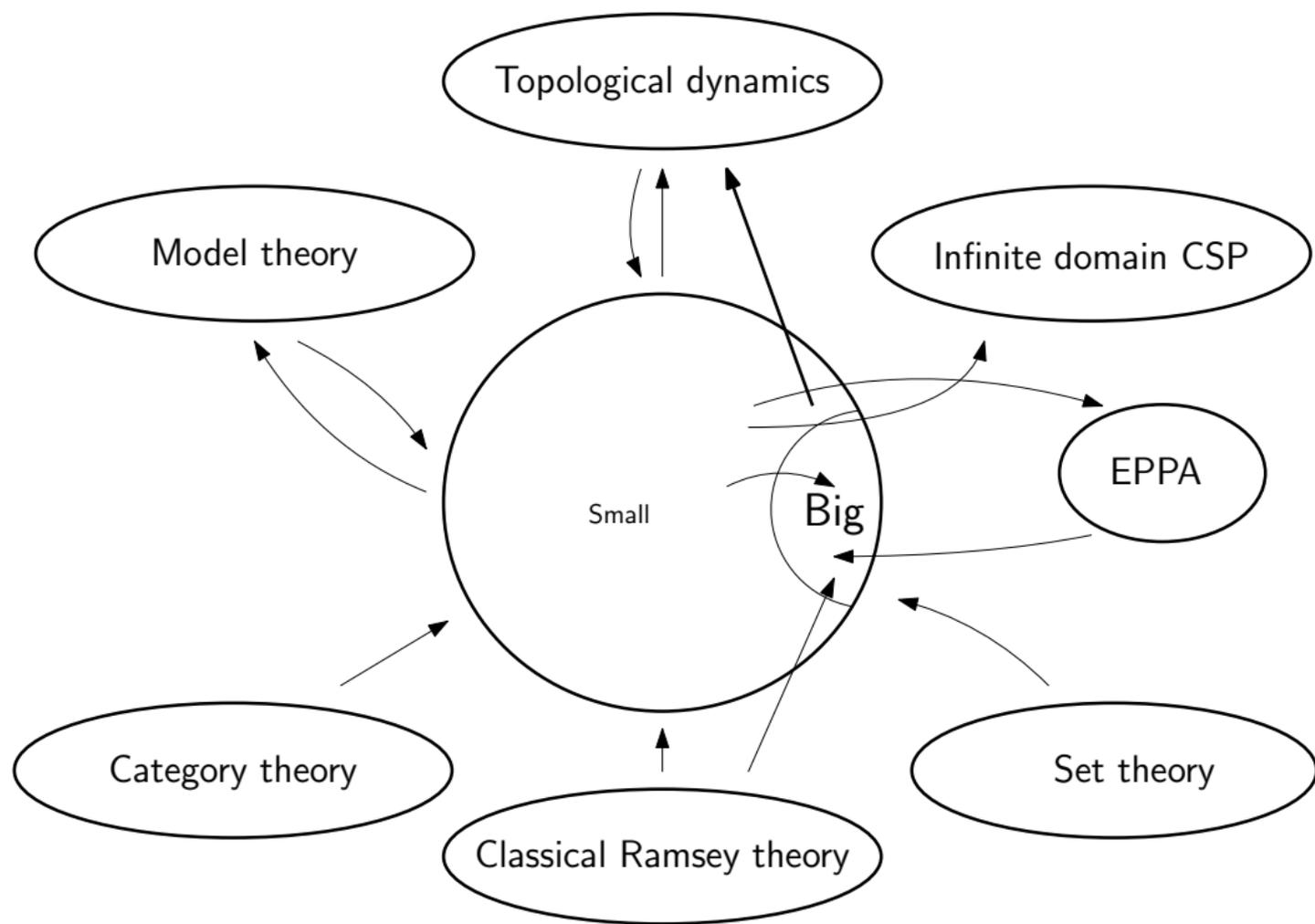


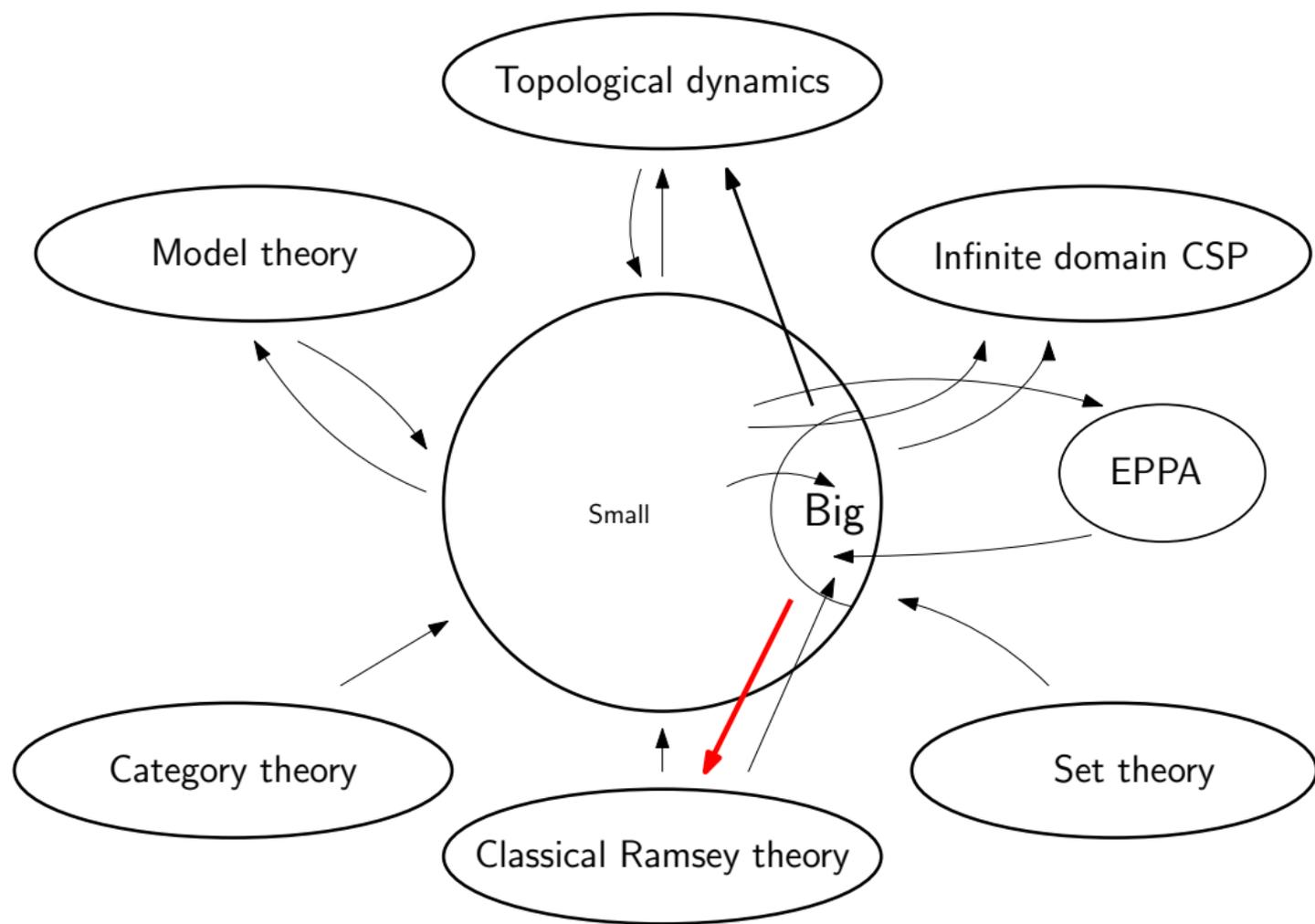












Big Ramsey Degrees of (\mathbb{Q}, \leq)

Theorem (Upper bound by Laver 1969, characterisation by Devlin 1979)

The order of rationals (\mathbb{Q}, \leq) has finite big Ramsey degrees: for every $n \in \omega$ there exists $T(n) \in \omega$ such that whenever n -element subsets of \mathbb{Q} are finitely colored, there exists a copy of (\mathbb{Q}, \leq) in itself touching at most $T(n)$ many colors.

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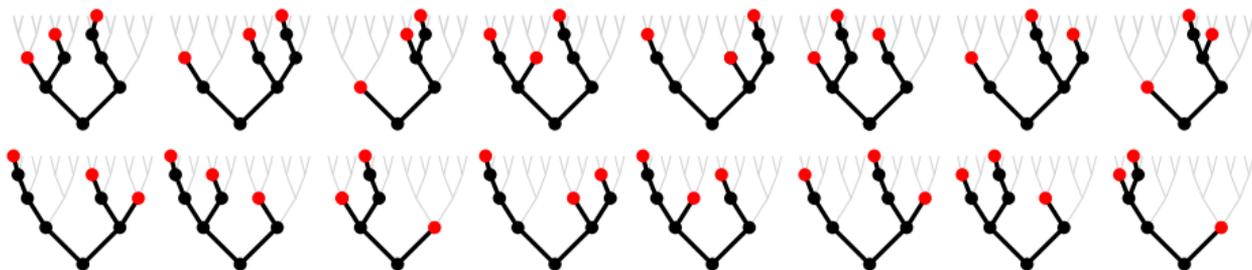
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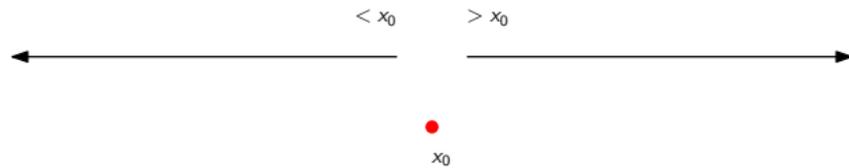
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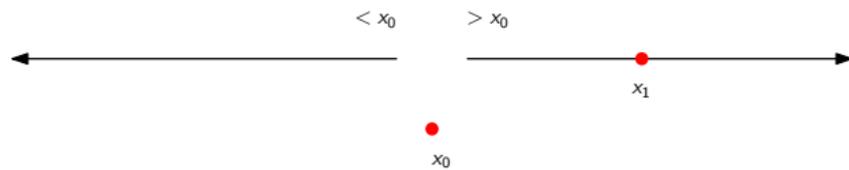
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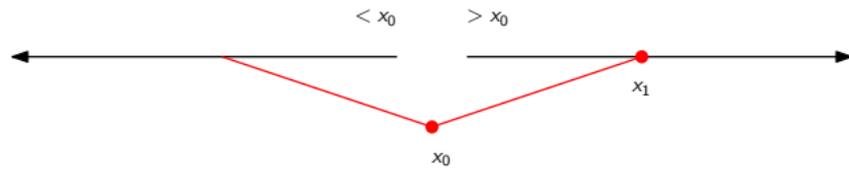
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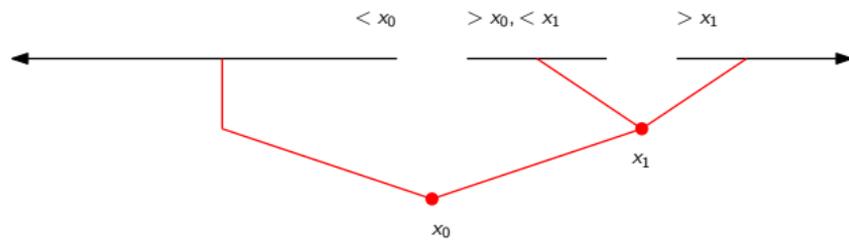
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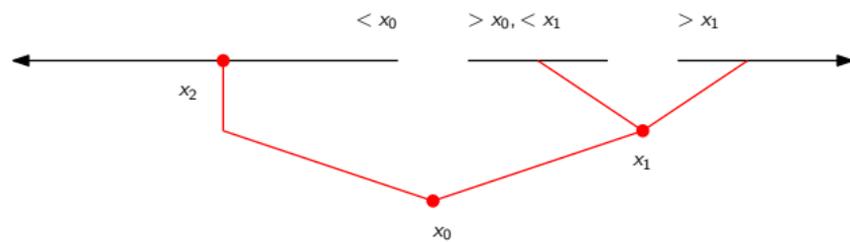
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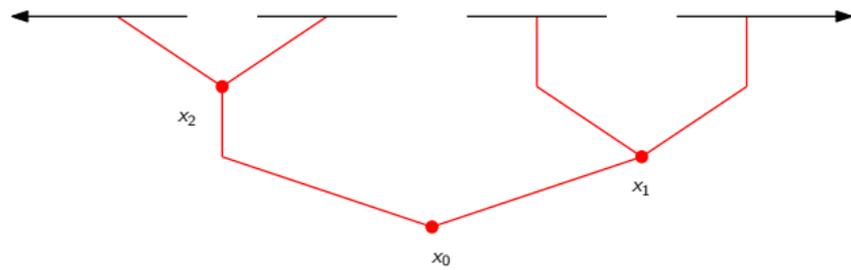
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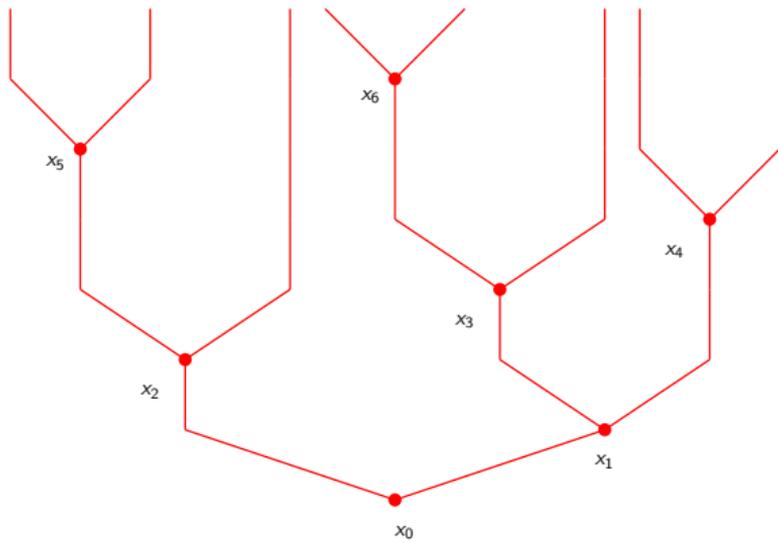
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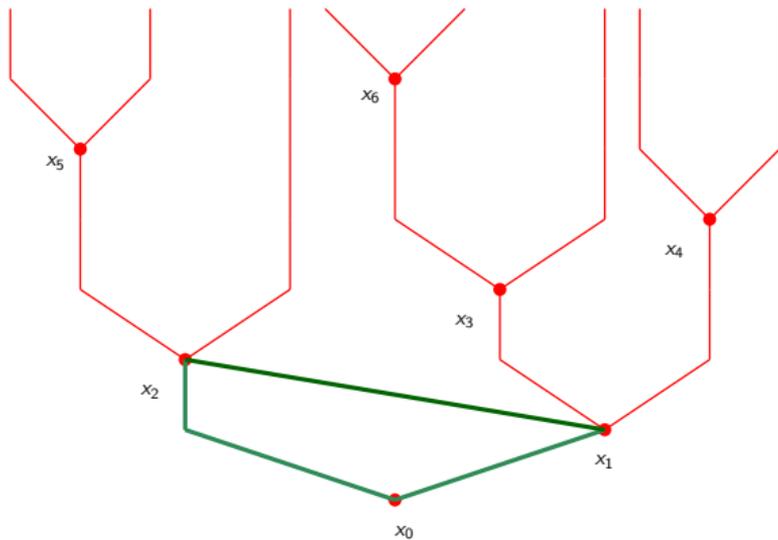
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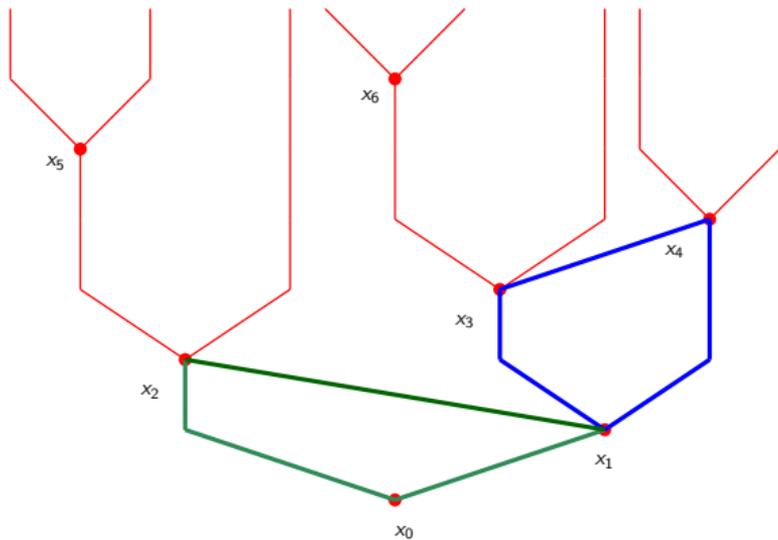


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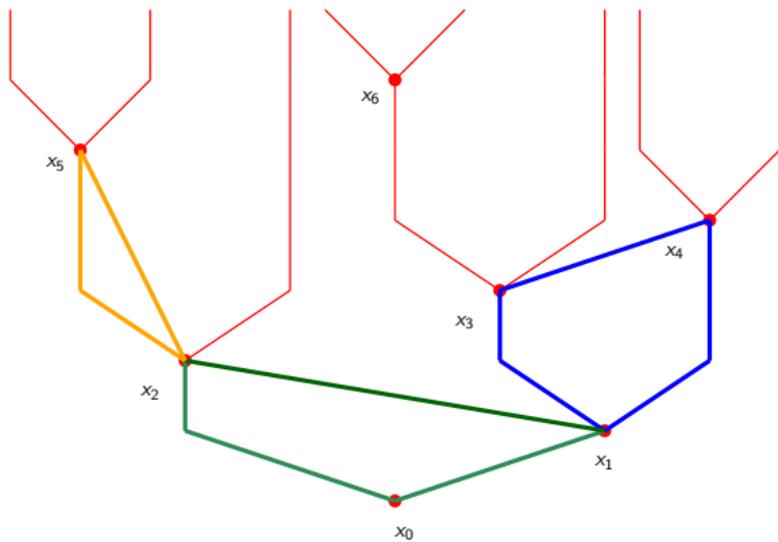
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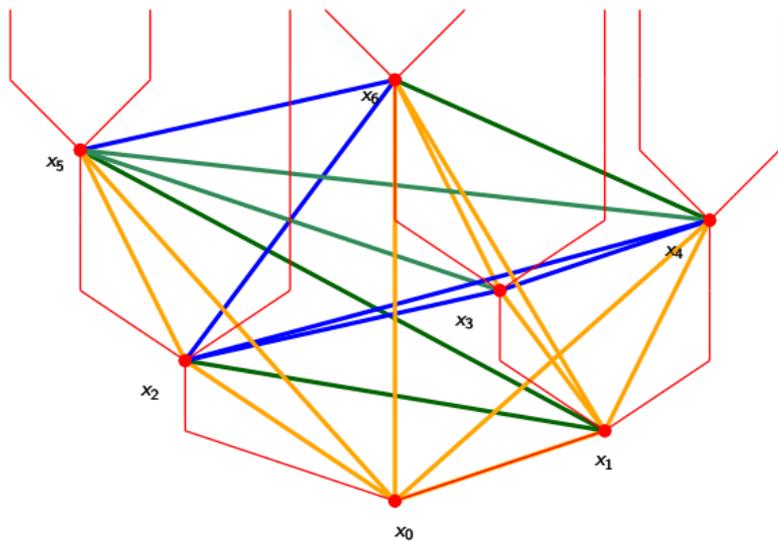
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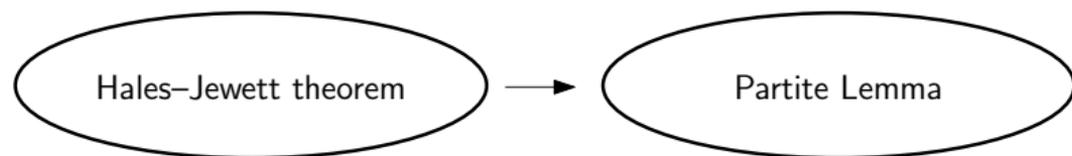
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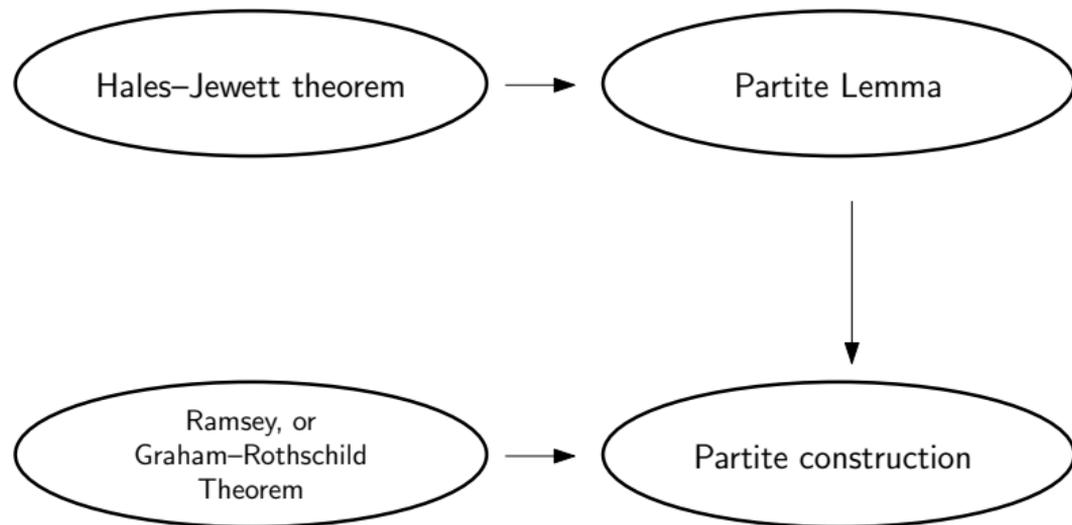


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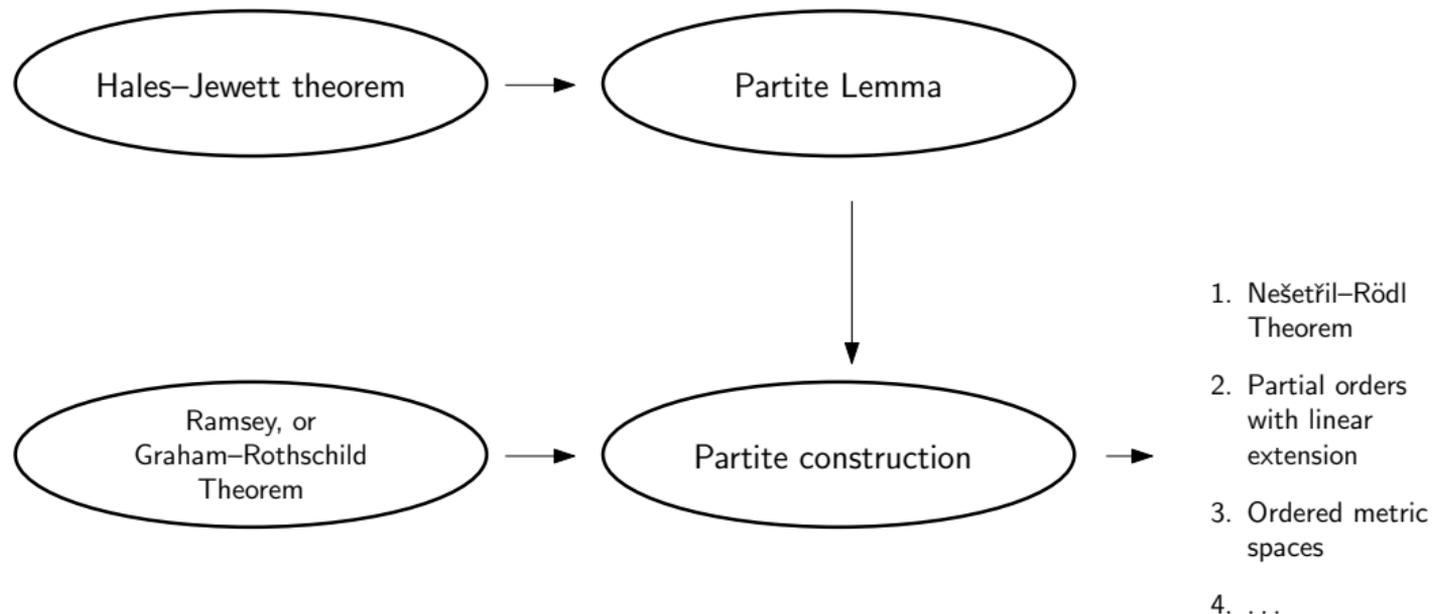
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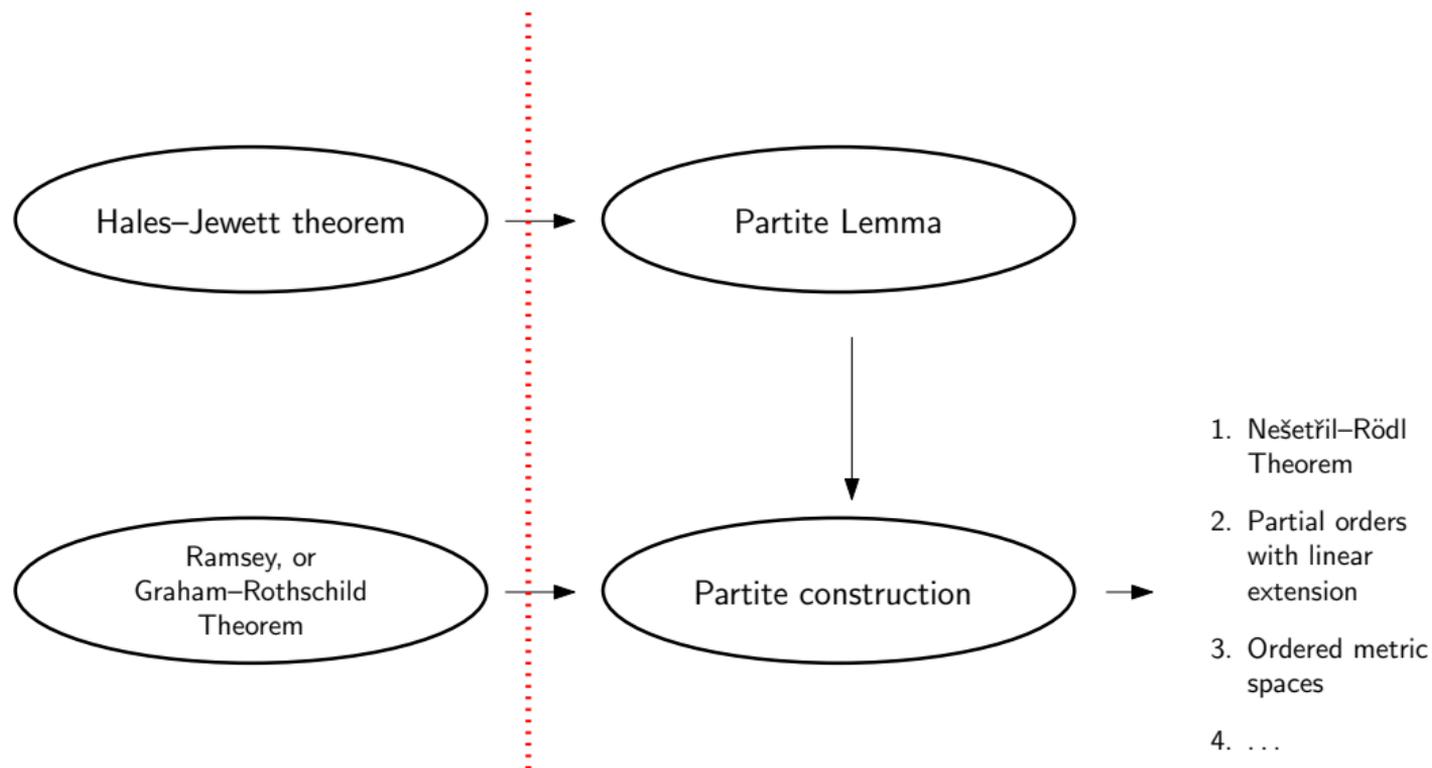
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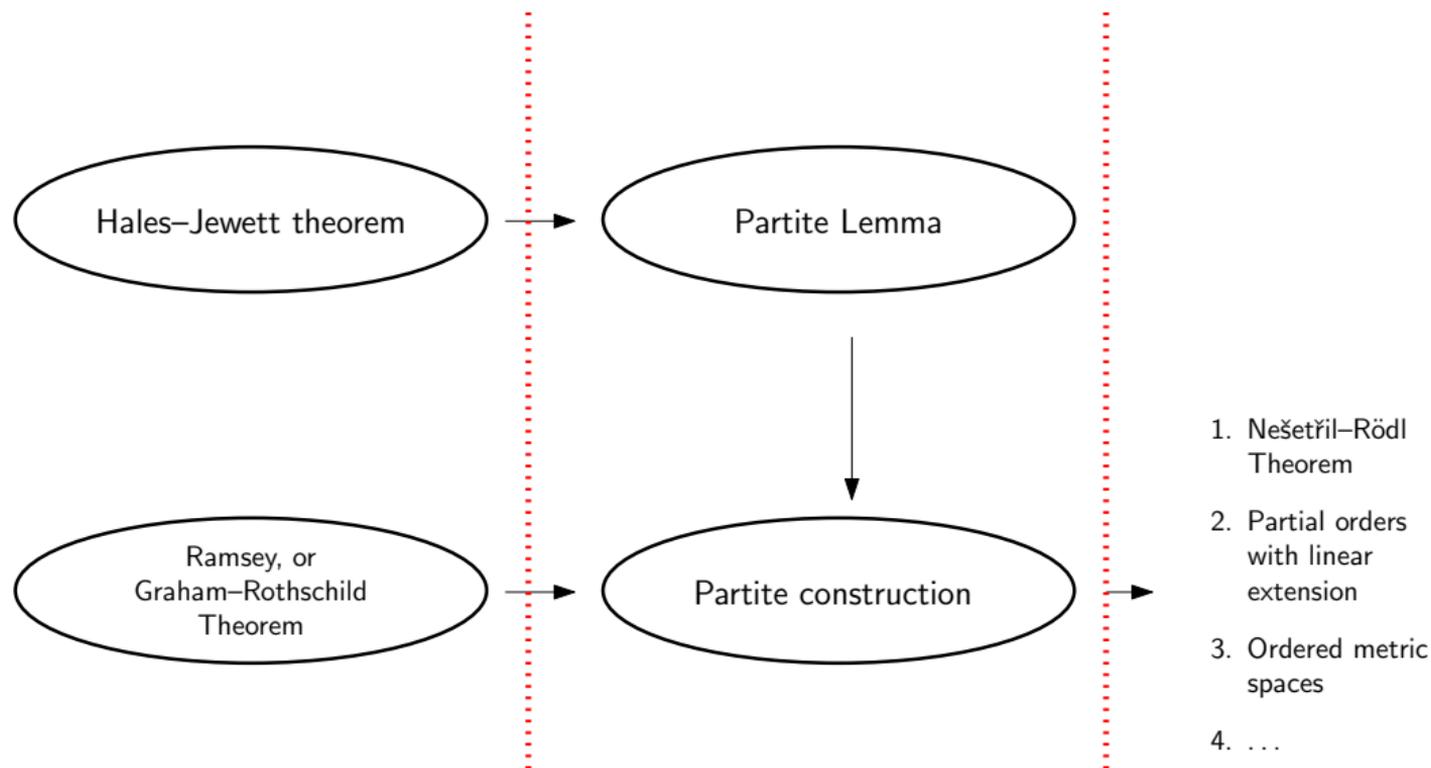
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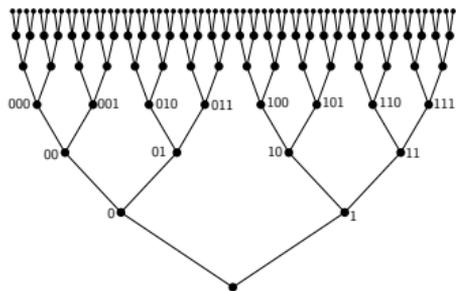


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Trees (terminology)

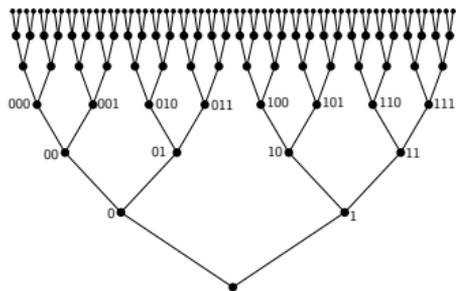
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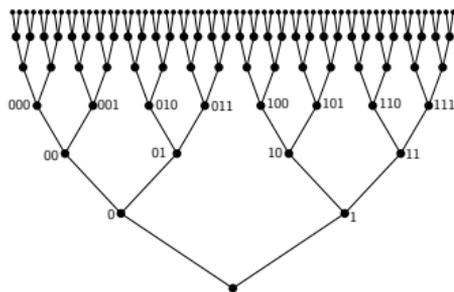
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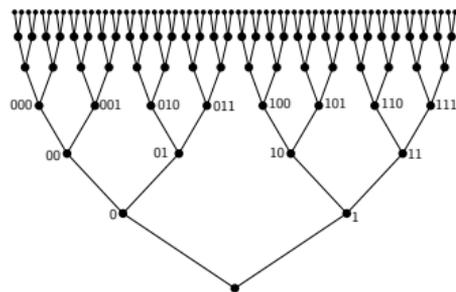
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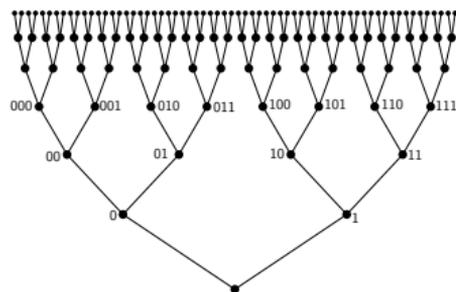
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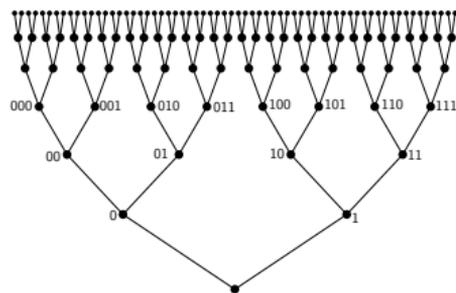
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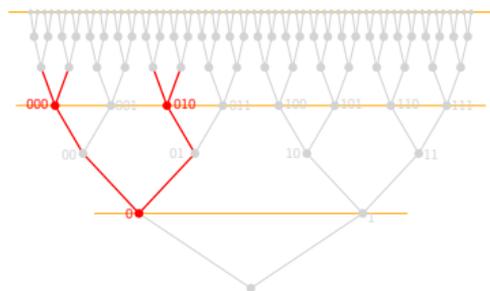
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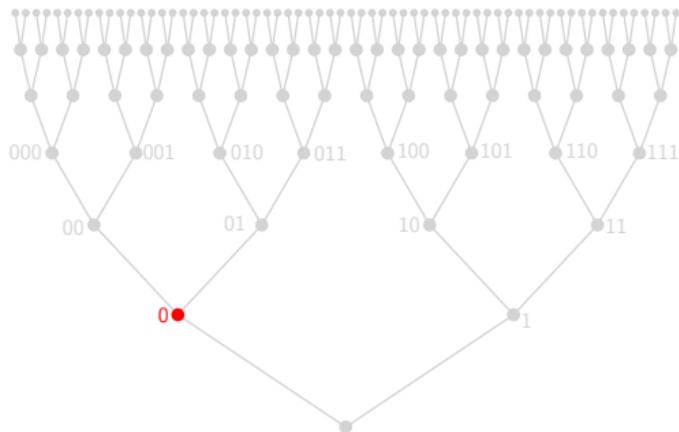
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- The **height** of T , denoted by $h(T)$, is the minimal natural number h such that $T(h) = \emptyset$. If there is no such number h , then we say that the height of T is ω .

Subtrees and strong subtrees



- A **subtree** of a tree T is a subset $S \subseteq T$ viewed as a tree equipped with the induced partial ordering.
- Given a tree T and nodes $s, t \in T$ we say that s is a **successor** of t in T if $t \leq_T s$.
- The node s is an **immediate successor** of t in T if $t <_T s$ and there is no $s' \in T$ such that $t <_T s' <_T s$.
- Node with no successors is **leaf**.

Strong subtree

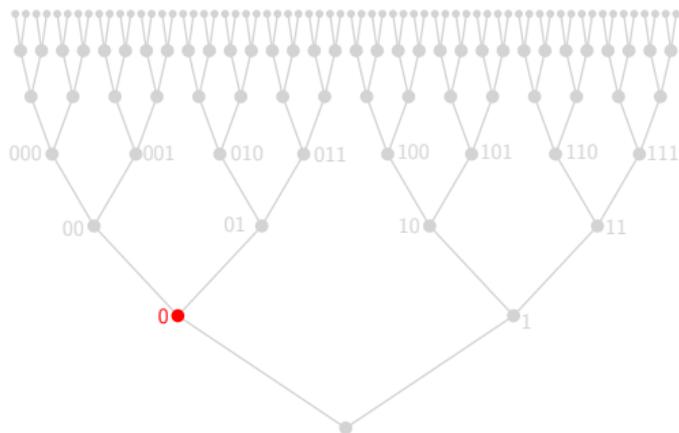


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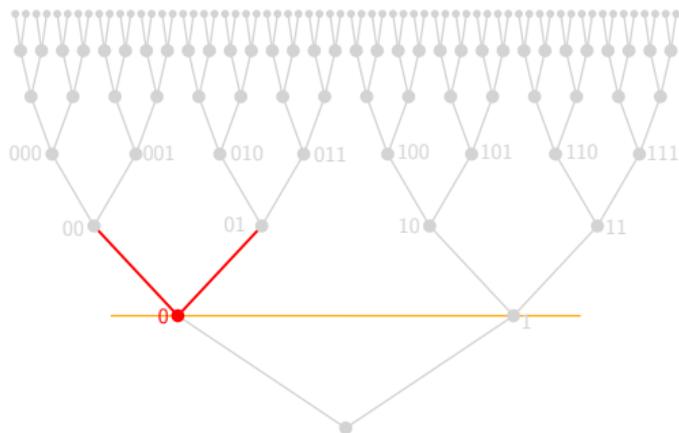


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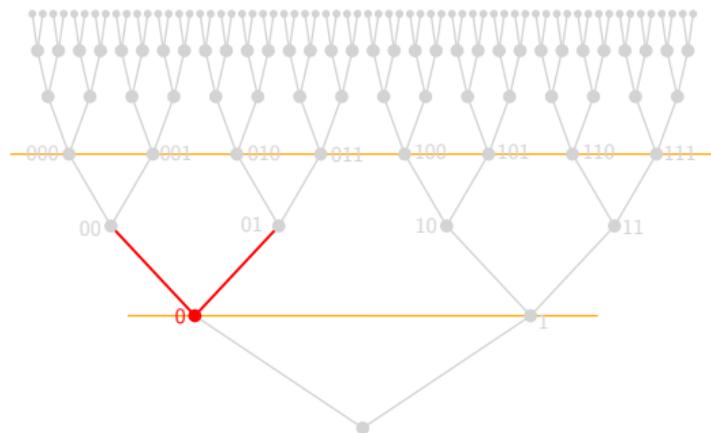


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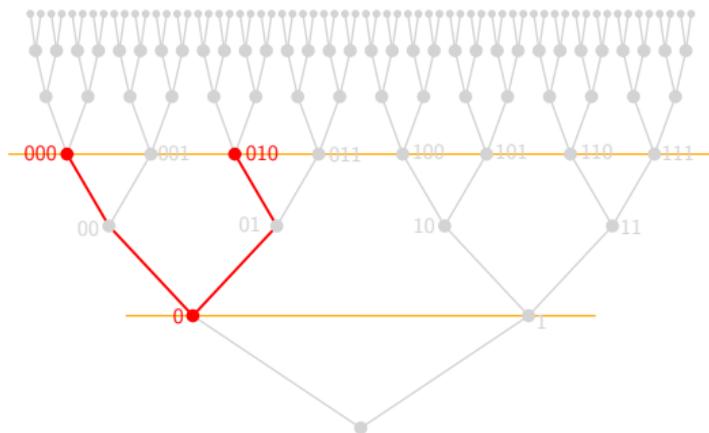


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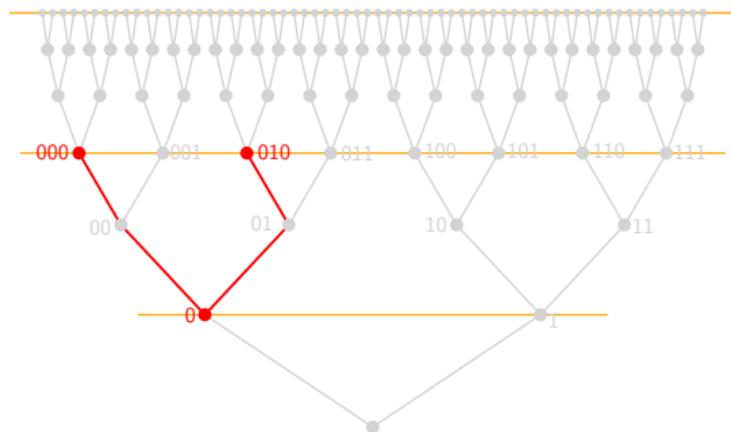


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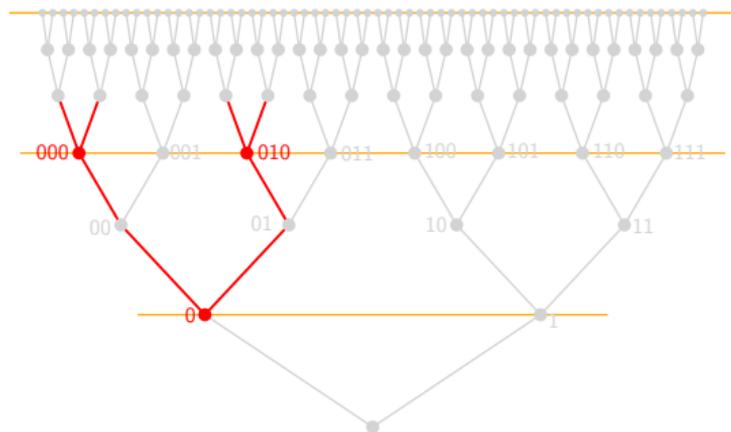


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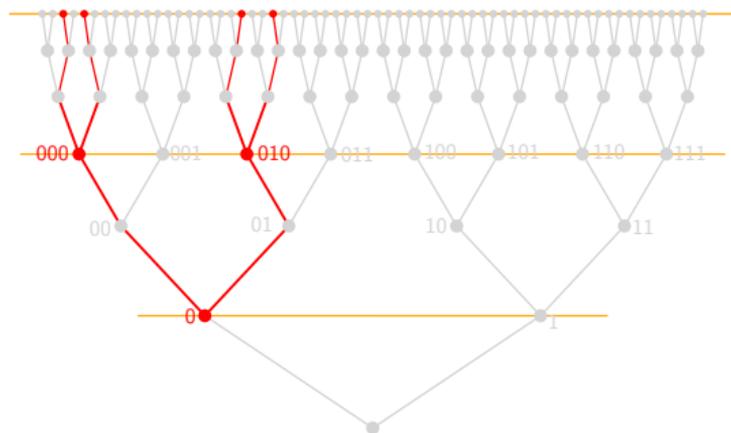


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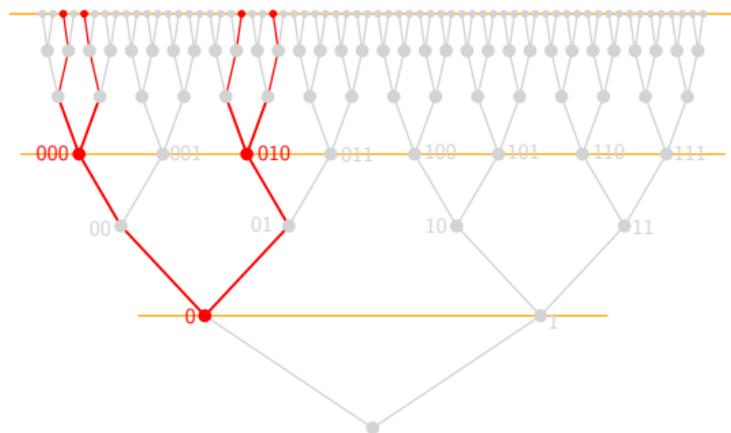


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- 4 S has height n .

Ramsey-type theorem for strong subtrees

Let T be a tree and $k \in \omega + 1$. We use $\text{Str}_k(T)$ to denote the set of all strong subtrees of T of height k .

Theorem (Milliken 1979)

For every rooted finitely branching tree T with no leaves, every $k \in \omega$ and every finite colouring of $\text{Str}_k(T)$ there is $S \in \text{Str}_\omega(T)$ such that the set $\text{Str}_k(S)$ is monochromatic.

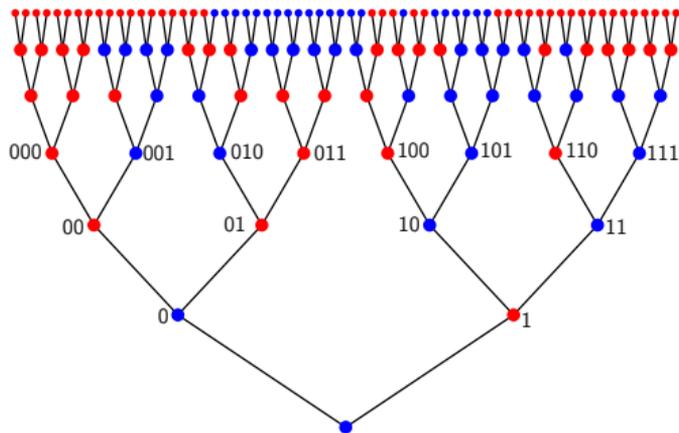
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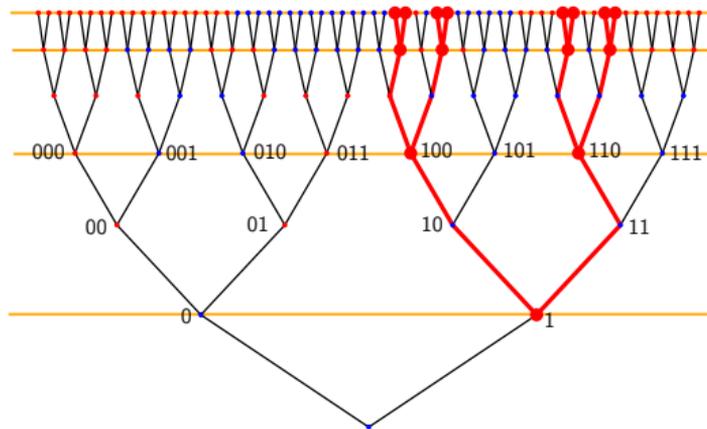
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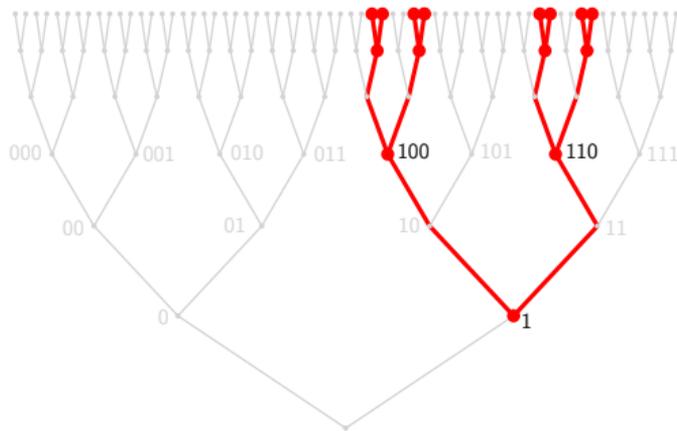
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The difficult case to prove is (product version of) $k = 1$ (**Halpern–Läuchli Theorem**, 1966)



Notice that for regularly branching tree the strong subtree is isomorphic to the original tree.

Some more recent results on big Ramsey degrees

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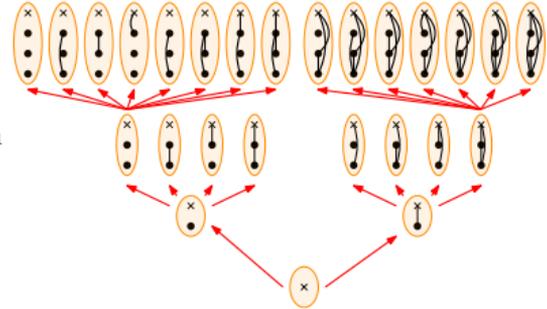
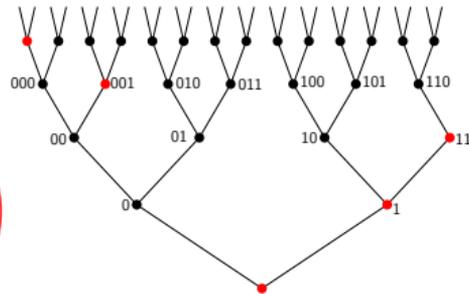
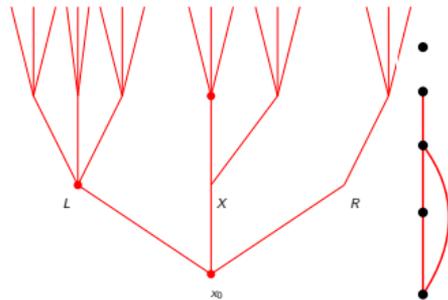
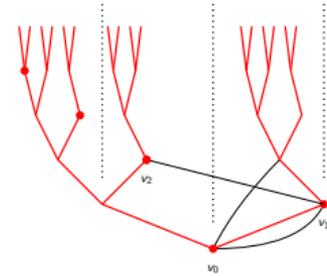
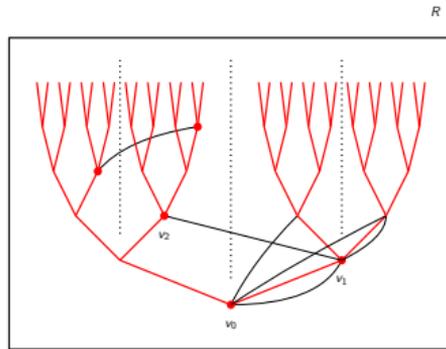
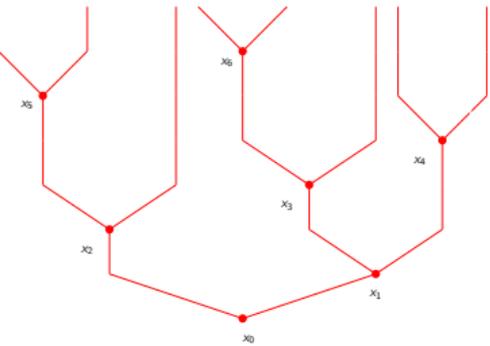
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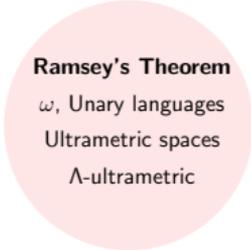
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- 11 Bice, de Rancourt, H., Konečný: metric big Ramsey degrees of ℓ_∞ and the **Urysohn sphere**, (2023+).

Big Ramsey degrees



Big Ramsey degrees by proof techniques



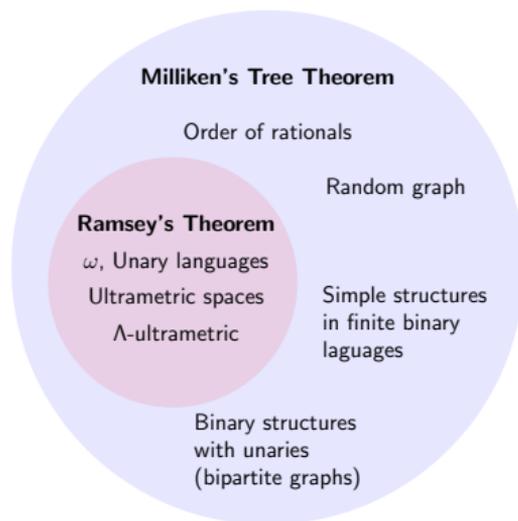
Ramsey's Theorem

ω , Unary languages

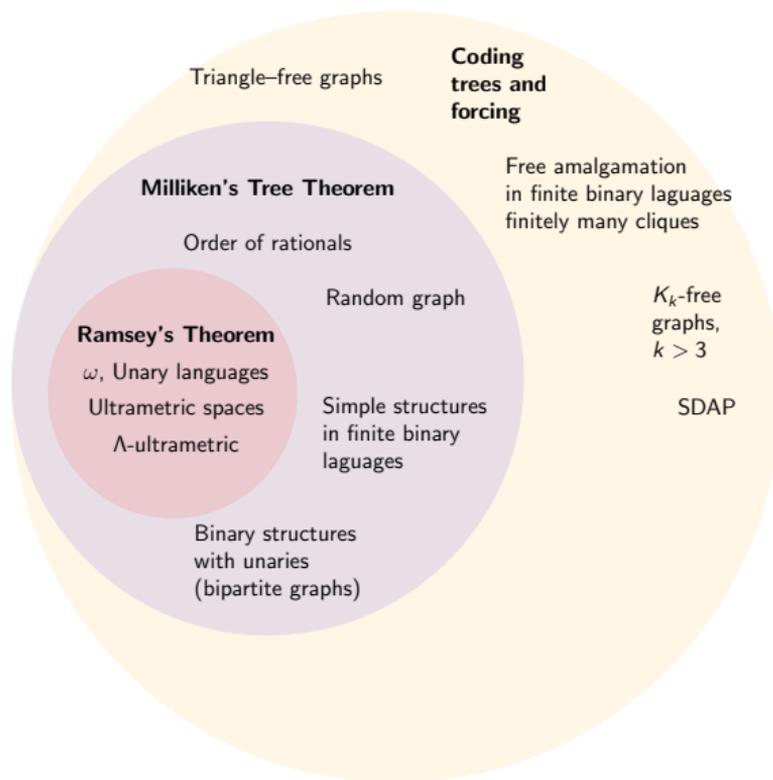
Ultrametric spaces

Λ -ultrametric

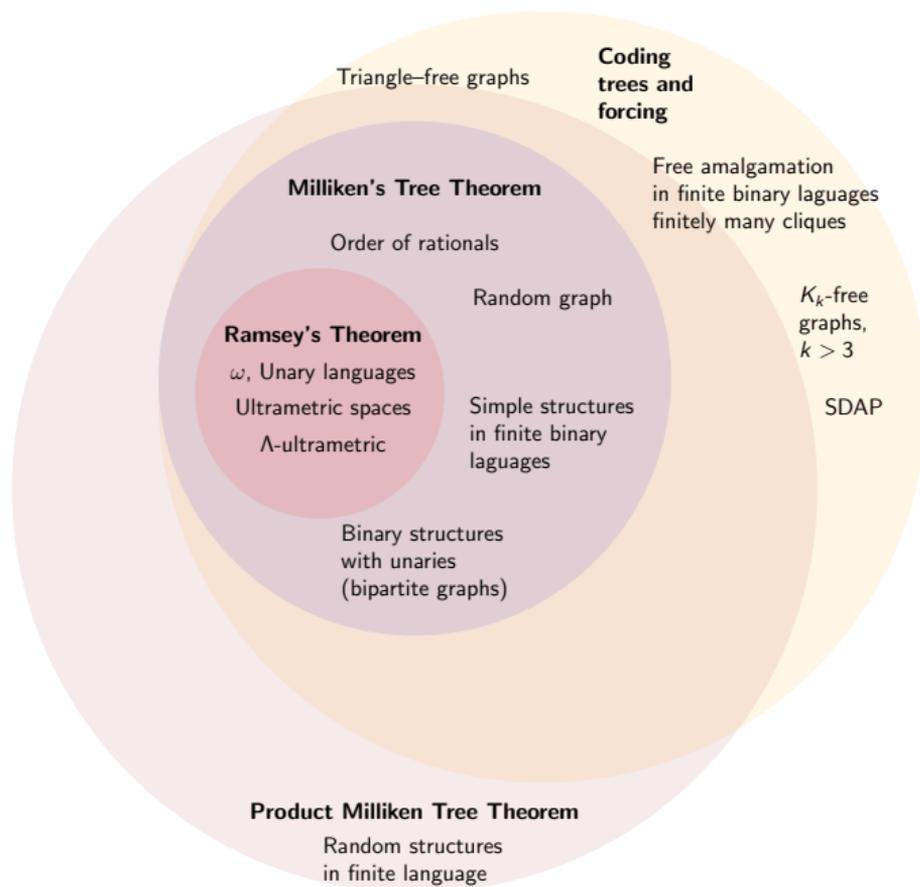
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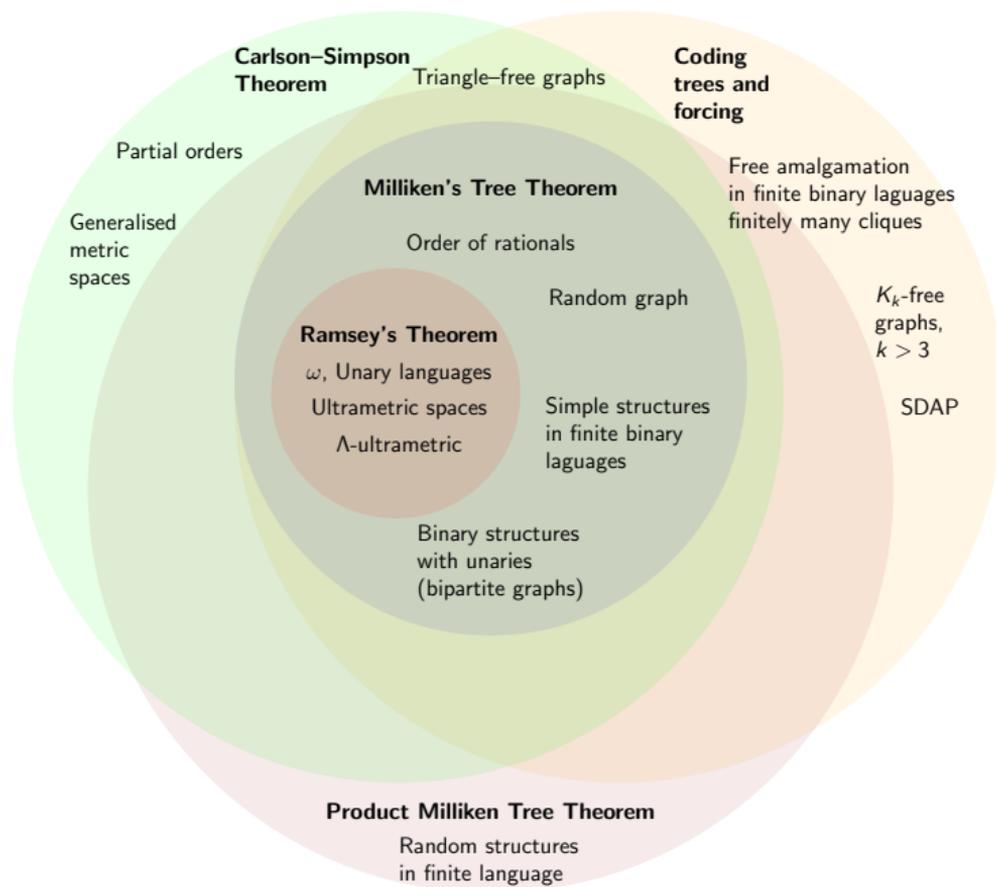
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Big Ramsey degrees by proof techniques



Trees with a successor operation

While most Ramsey-type theorems are concerned about regularly branching trees, we need more general notion allowing trees with finite but unbounded branching.

Definition (\mathcal{S} -tree)

An \mathcal{S} -tree is a quadruple $(T, \preceq, \Sigma, \mathcal{S})$ where (T, \preceq) is a countable finitely branching tree with finitely many nodes of level 0, Σ is a set called the **alphabet** and \mathcal{S} is a partial function $\mathcal{S}: T \times T^{<\omega} \times \Sigma \rightarrow T$ called the **successor operation** satisfying the following three axioms:

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Example: a binary tree

Consider \mathcal{S} -tree is $(2^{<\omega}, \sqsubseteq, \{0, 1\}, \mathcal{S})$.

\mathcal{S} is defined only for empty parameters \bar{p} by concatenation: $\mathcal{S}(a, c) = a \frown c$.

$$\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{S}(\emptyset), 0), 1), 0), 1), 1) = 01011.$$

Trees with a successor operation

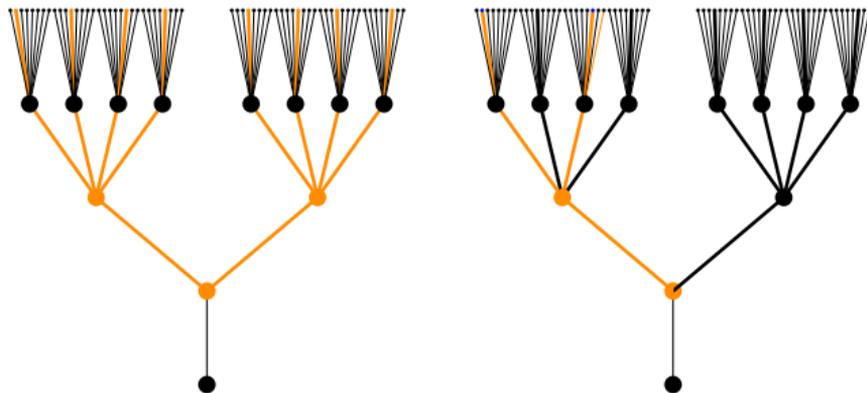
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Shape-preserving functions

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$$(\forall_{a,b \in T}) : (\ell(a) = \ell(b)) \implies (\ell(F(a)) = \ell(F(b)))$$

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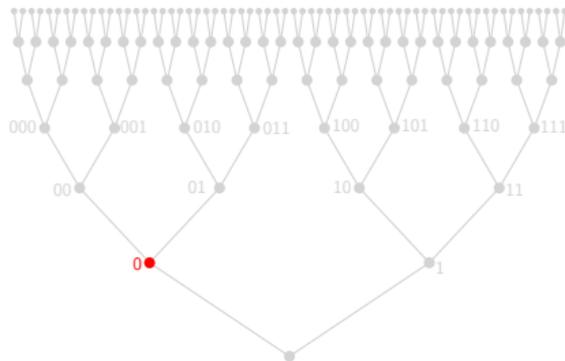
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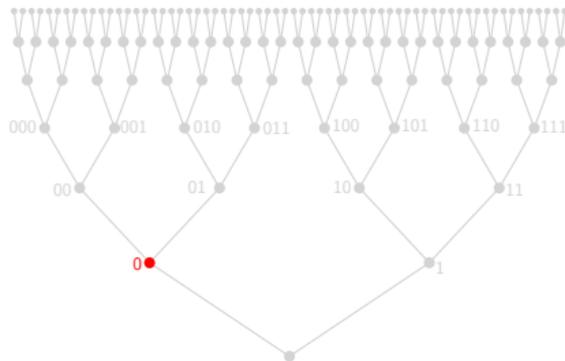
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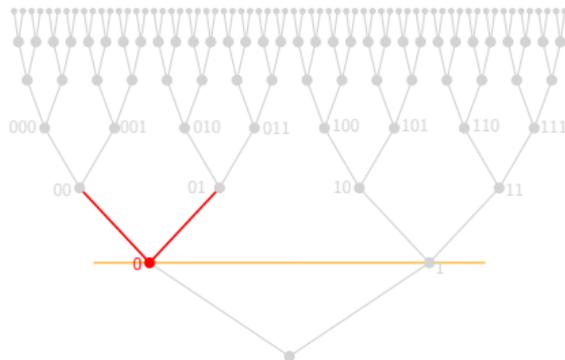
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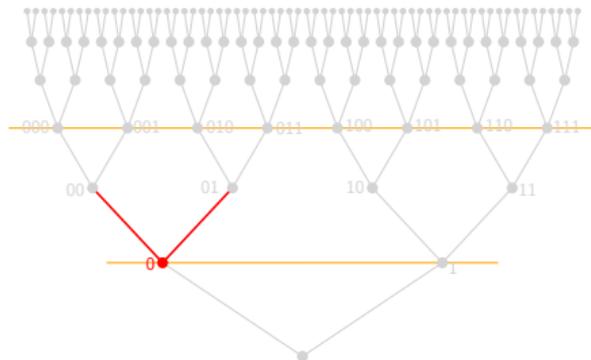
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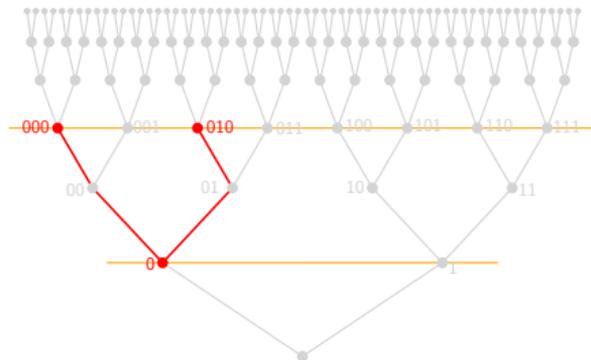
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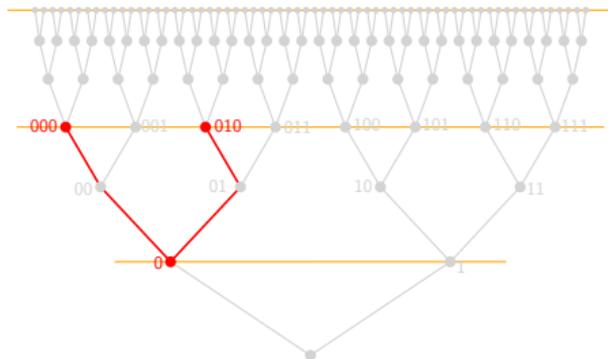
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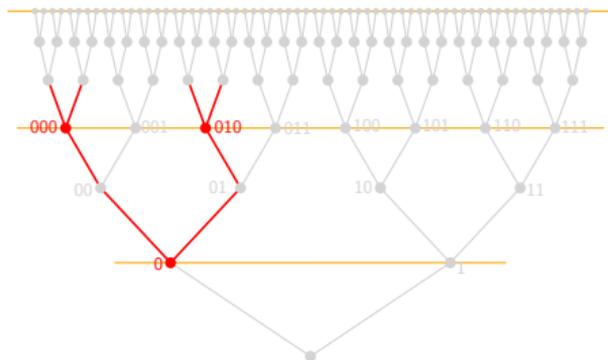
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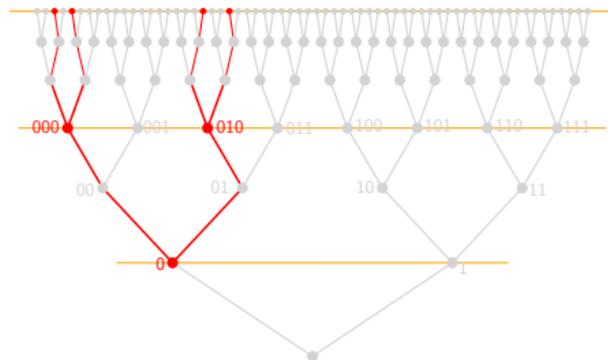
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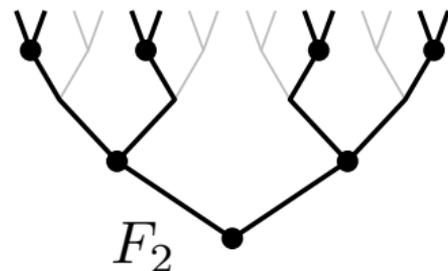
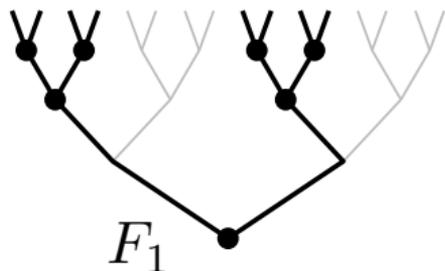
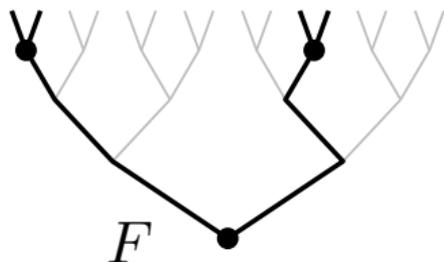
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Monoids of shape-preserving functions

For a level-preserving function $F: S \rightarrow T$, we denote by \tilde{F} the function $\tilde{F}: \ell(S) \rightarrow \omega$ defined by $\tilde{F}(n) = \ell(F(a))$ for some $a \in S$ with $\ell(a) = n$.

We say that F is **skipping level m** if $m \notin \tilde{F}[\omega]$ and that F is **skipping only level m** if $\tilde{F}[\omega] = \omega \setminus \{m\}$.



$\tilde{F}(0) = 0, \tilde{F}(1) = 2$: F skips levels 1 and 2.

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For a level-preserving function $F: S \rightarrow T$, we denote by \tilde{F} the function $\tilde{F}: \ell(S) \rightarrow \omega$ defined by $\tilde{F}(n) = \ell(F(a))$ for some $a \in S$ with $\ell(a) = n$.

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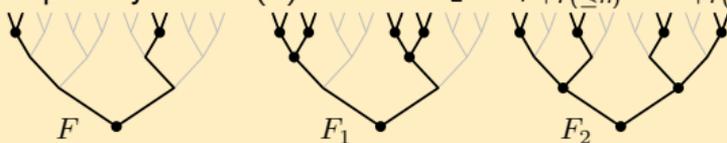
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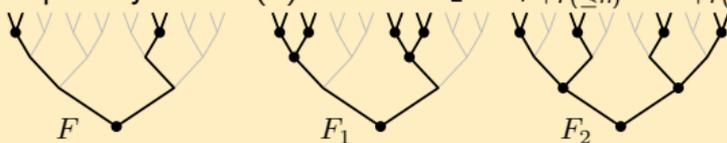
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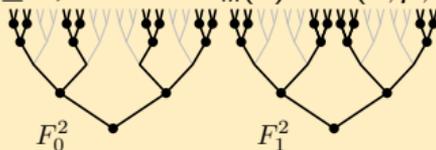
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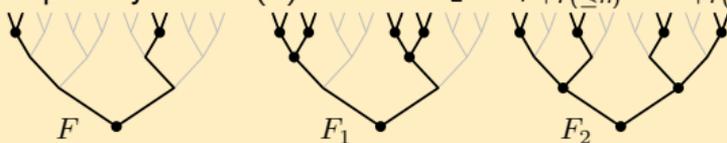
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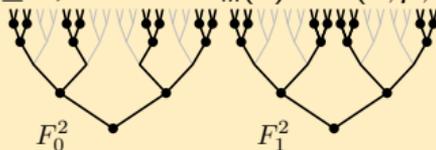
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Put $\mathcal{M}^n = \{F \in \mathcal{M} : F \upharpoonright_{T(<n)} \text{ is identity}\}$, $\mathcal{AM}_k^n = \{F \upharpoonright_{T(<n+k)} : F \in \mathcal{M}^n\}$.

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Ellentuck topology on $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M})$ -trees

Recall that a subset \mathcal{X} of a topological space is

- 1 **nowhere dense** if every non-empty open set contains a non-empty open subset that avoids \mathcal{X} .
- 2 **meager** if is the union of countably many nowhere dense sets,
- 3 has the **Baire property** if it can be written as the symmetric difference of an open set and a meager set.

Put $\mathcal{AM} = \{F \upharpoonright_{T(<n)} : F \in \mathcal{M}, n \in \omega\}$.

Definition (Ellentuck topological space \mathcal{M})

Given an $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M})$ -tree $(T, \preceq, \Sigma, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M})$ we equip \mathcal{M} with the **Ellentuck topology** given by the following basic open sets:

$$[f, F] = \{F \circ F' : F' \in \mathcal{M} \text{ and } F \circ F' \text{ extends } f\}$$

for every $f \in \mathcal{AM}$ and $F \in \mathcal{M}$.

Topological Ramsey theorem for trees with successor operation

Given a shape-preserving function $F \in \mathcal{M}$ and $f: T(\leq n) \rightarrow T$ such that $f \in \mathcal{AM}$ we define $\text{depth}_F(f) = \tilde{g}(n)$ for $g \in \mathcal{AM}$ satisfying $F \circ g = f$. We set $\text{depth}_F(f) = \omega$ if there is no such g .

Definition

Let \mathcal{X} be a subset of \mathcal{M} .

- 1 We call \mathcal{X} **Ramsey** if for every non-empty basic set $[f, F]$ there is $F' \in [F \upharpoonright_{\text{depth}_F(f)}, F]$ such that either $[f, F'] \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ or $[f, F'] \cap \mathcal{X} = \emptyset$.
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Let $(T, \preceq, \Sigma, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M})$ be an $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M})$ -tree and consider \mathcal{M} with the Ellentuck topology. Then every property of Baire subset of \mathcal{M} is Ramsey and every meager subset is Ramsey null.

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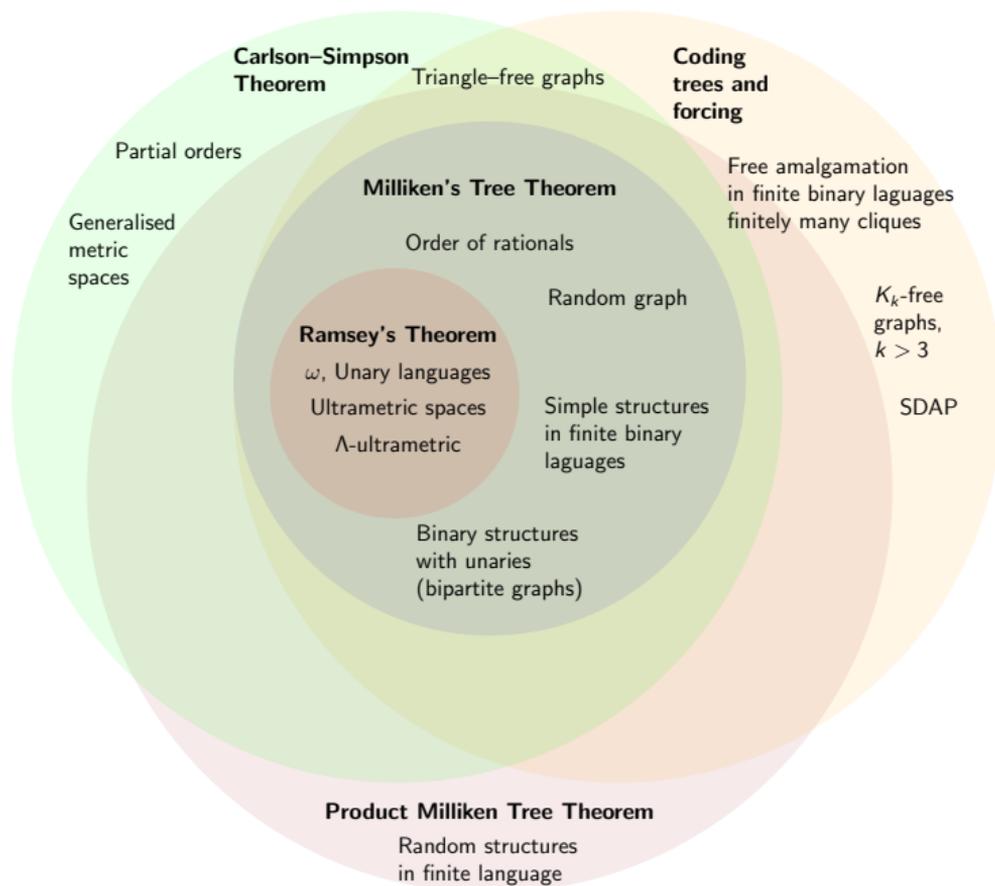
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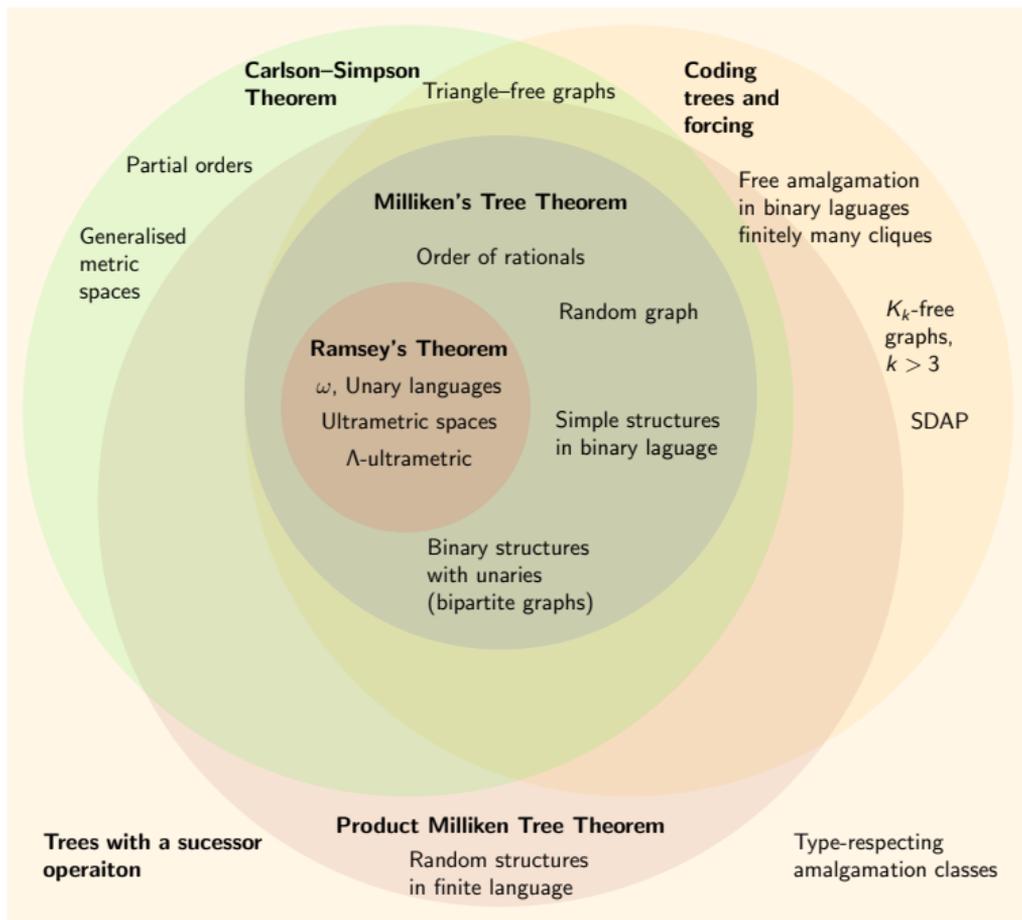
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We obtain an interesting example of Ramsey space where Todorčević A3.2 axiom is not satisfied.

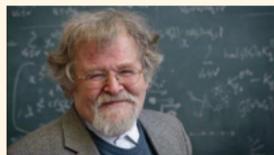
Applications to Big Ramsey degrees



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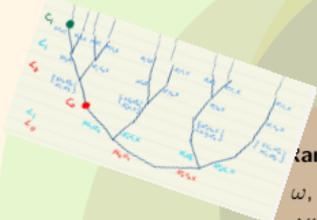
Simon-Simpson
theorem

Triangle-free graphs

Codir
trees



...many cliques



Ramsey's Theorem

ω , Uncountable

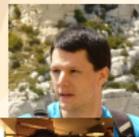
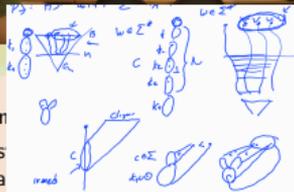
Ultra



K_k -free
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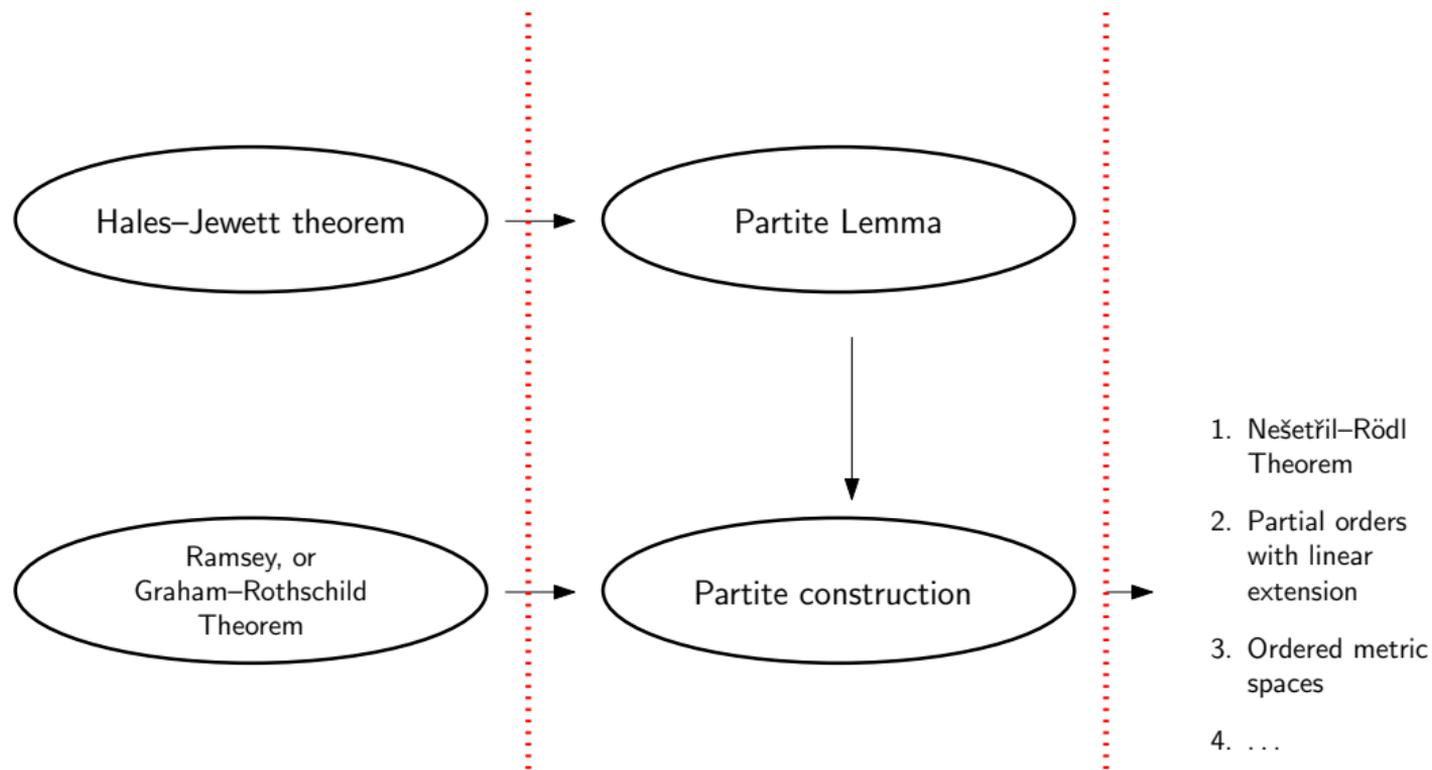
Trees with a successor
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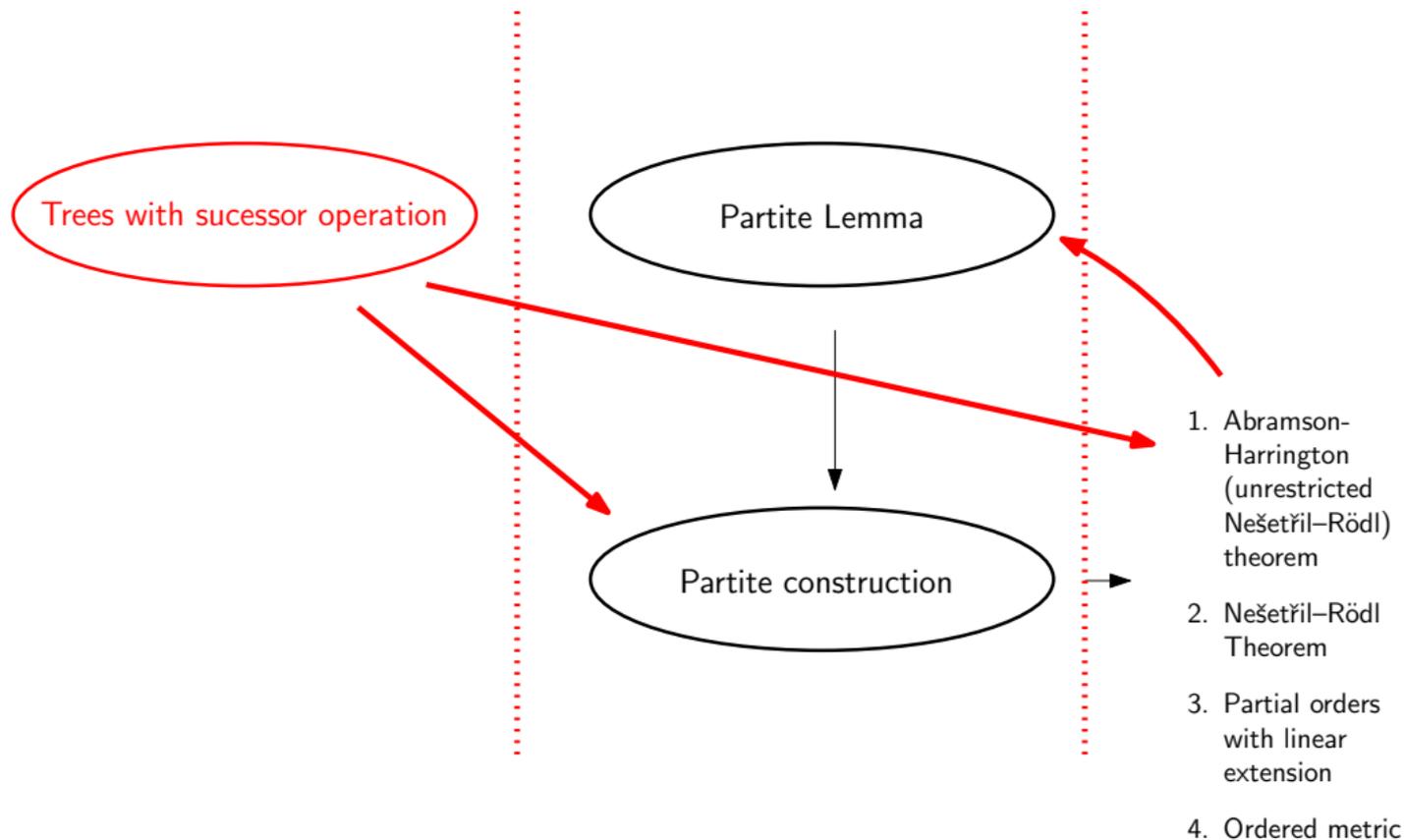
Trees



Applications to small Ramsey degrees



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Abramson–Harrington theorem

Theorem (Nešetřil 1977, Abramson–Harrington 1978)

Let L be a relational language and \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} finite ordered L -structures. Then there exists finite ordered L -structure \mathbf{C} satisfying $\mathbf{C} \rightarrow (\mathbf{B})_2^{\mathbf{A}}$.

Proof, step 1: associate vertices of structure \mathbf{B} with words.

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- 3 Put $p = 2^n - 1$ and enumerate all non-empty substructures of \mathbf{B} as $\mathbf{B}^0, \mathbf{B}^1, \dots, \mathbf{B}^{p-1}$ in the increasing order (given by \prec). For each $i < p$

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- 4 For each $i < N$ find lexicographically first substructure \mathbf{D}^i isomorphic to \mathbf{B}^i and denote by f^i the unique isomorphism $\mathbf{B}^i \rightarrow \mathbf{D}^i$.

$$\varphi(v)_i = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } v \notin B^i \\ f^i(v) & \text{if } v \in B^i \end{cases} \text{ for every } v \in B \text{ and } i < p.$$

		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
\mathbf{B}	• 0	$\varphi(0) =$	0	n	n	0	0	n	0
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	• 2	$\varphi(2) =$	n	n	0	n	2	1	2

Proof, step 2: structure \mathbf{C}_ℓ on Σ^ℓ .

Consider regularly branching tree $(\Sigma^{<\omega}, \sqsubseteq)$ with $\Sigma = B \cup \{-1\}$.

Abramson–Harrington theorem

		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
B	• 0	$\varphi(0) =$	0	n	n	0	0	n	0
	• 1	$\varphi(1) =$	n	0	n	1	n	0	1
	• 2	$\varphi(2) =$	n	n	0	n	2	1	2

Proof, step 2: structure \mathbf{C}_ℓ on Σ^ℓ .

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Given $k, \ell \in \omega$, and a tuple $\bar{w} = (w^0, w^1, \dots, w^{k-1})$ of elements of Σ^ℓ

- 1 we say that \bar{w} **decides a structure on level $i < \ell$** if $0 \leq w_i^0 < w_i^1 < \dots < w_i^{k-1}$ and i is a minimal with this property.

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			0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
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- ② we say that \bar{w} **become incompatible on level $i' < \ell$** if either
 - ① $k = 2$ and $w_{i'}^0 \geq w_{i'}^1 \geq 0$,
 - ② $0 \leq w_{i'}^0 < w_{i'}^1 < \dots < w_{i'}^{k-1}$ however there exists $i < i'$ such that \bar{w} decides structure on level i and $B \upharpoonright_{\{w_i^0, w_i^1, \dots, w_i^{k-1}\}}$ is not isomorphic to $B \upharpoonright_{\{w_{i'}^0, w_{i'}^1, \dots, w_{i'}^{k-1}\}}$.

Abramson–Harrington theorem

			0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
B	{	• 0	$\varphi(0) =$	0	n	n	0	0	n	0
		• 1	$\varphi(1) =$	n	0	n	1	n	0	1
		• 2	$\varphi(2) =$	n	n	0	n	2	1	2

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For every $\ell \in \omega$ construct an ordered L -structure \mathbf{C}_ℓ as a structure satisfying the following:

- ① The vertex set of \mathbf{C}_ℓ is $C_\ell = \Sigma^\ell$,
- ② $\leq_{\mathbf{C}_\ell}$ is the lexicographic ordering of Σ^ℓ ,
- ③ whenever $(w^0, w^1, \dots, w^{k-1}) \in \Sigma^\ell$ is compatible and decides structure on some level i then $B \upharpoonright_{\{w^0, w^1, \dots, w^{k-1}\}}$ is isomorphic to $B \upharpoonright_{\{w_i^0, w_i^1, \dots, w_i^{k-1}\}}$.

Abramson–Harrington theorem

Proof step 3: Building $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M})$ -tree.

Define successors by concatenation.

Let \mathcal{M} denote the set of all shape-preserving functions $F: \Sigma^{<\omega} \rightarrow \Sigma^{<\omega}$ satisfying for every $\ell \in \omega$ and every lexicographically increasing sequence \bar{w} of elements of Σ^ℓ the following two properties:

- 1 if $F(\bar{w})$ decides structure on level i then $i \in \tilde{F}[\omega]$.
- 2 if $F(\bar{w})$ become inconsistent on level i' then $i' \in \tilde{F}[\omega]$.

Abramson–Harrington theorem

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Let N be given by our theorem for $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M})$ -tree, $2^{|\mathbf{A}|} - 1$ and $2^{|\mathbf{B}|} - 1$. Then

$$\mathbf{C}_\ell \longrightarrow (\mathbf{B})_2^{\mathbf{A}}.$$

□

			0	1	2	3	4	5	6
B	• 0	$\varphi(0) =$	0	n	n	0	0	n	0
	• 1	$\varphi(1) =$	n	0	n	1	n	0	1
	• 2	$\varphi(2) =$	n	n	0	n	2	1	2

			0	1	2
A	• 0	$\varphi(0) =$	0	n	0
	• 1	$\varphi(1) =$	n	0	1

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B		$\varphi(0) =$	$\varphi(1) =$	<table style="border-collapse: collapse; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">1</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">2</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">3</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">4</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">5</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">6</td> </tr> <tr style="border-top: 1px solid black;"> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">n</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">n</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">n</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">n</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">n</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">1</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">n</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">1</td> </tr> </table>	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	0	n	n	0	0	n	0	n	0	n	1	n	0	1
0	1	2	3	4	5	6																			
0	n	n	0	0	n	0																			
n	0	n	1	n	0	1																			

A		$\varphi(0) =$	$\varphi(1) =$	<table style="border-collapse: collapse; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">1</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">2</td> </tr> <tr style="border-top: 1px solid black;"> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">n</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">n</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">0</td> <td style="padding: 0 5px;">1</td> </tr> </table>	0	1	2	0	n	0	n	0	1
0	1	2											
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Abramson–Harrington theorem

Proof step 3: Building $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M})$ -tree.

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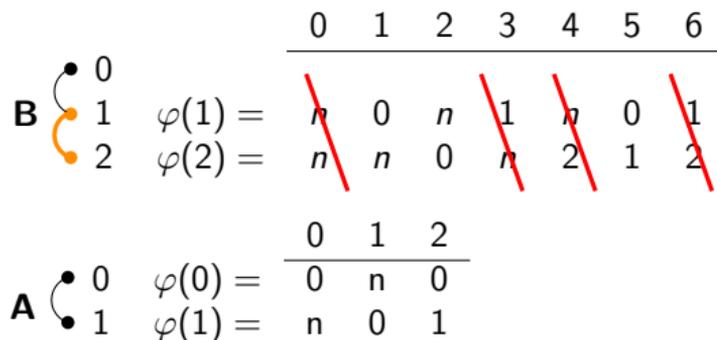
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Thank you for the attention

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