# Open Sets are Ramsey 

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## 1 Introduction

Notation 1.1 Let $a \in N .\binom{N}{a}$ is the set of all $a$-sized subsets of $N .\binom{N}{\omega}$ is the set of all infinite subsets of N .

Def 1.2 Let $a \in \mathrm{~N}$. Let $C O L$ be a 2-coloring of $\binom{N}{a}$. $H \in\binom{N}{\omega}$ is homogeneous if there exists a color $c$ such that every $X \in\binom{H}{a}$ is colored $c$. Note that we built into the definition of homogenous that the set is infinite.

Recall the infinite $a$-ary Ramsey's theorem (the 2-color case)
Theorem 1.3 For all $a \in N$, for all 2-colorings of $\binom{N}{a}$, there exists a homogenous set.
Why stop at $a \in \mathrm{~N}$ ? What about the case of $a=\omega$ ?
IS the following true:
Theorem? For all 2-colorings of $\binom{N}{\omega}$, there exists an infinite homogenous set.
NO. In Section 3 we provide a counterexample. But what if the coloring is well behaved?

## Def 1.4

1. A 2-coloring of $\binom{N}{\omega}$ is Ramsey if there exists a homogenous set.
2. A subset RED of $\binom{N}{\omega}$ is Ramsey if the coloring formed by coloring all elements of $R E D, R E D$, and coloring all other sets $B L U E$, is homogenous.
3. A subset $\mathcal{X}$ of $2\left(\begin{array}{c}(\underset{\omega}{\omega})\end{array}\right.$ is called Ramsey if every $A \in \mathcal{X}$ is Ramsey.

Convention 1.5 We identify elements of $\binom{N}{\omega}$ with elements of $\{0,1\}^{\omega}$ that have an infinite number of 1 's.

Def 1.6 Let $R E D$ be a subset of $\binom{N}{\omega}$.

1. If $\sigma \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ then

$$
O_{\sigma}=\left\{A \mid \sigma \preceq A \wedge\left(\exists^{\infty} i\right)[A[i]=1]\right\} .
$$

2. RED is a Basic Open Set if it is of the form $O_{\sigma}$. We denote the set of basic open sets by $\Sigma_{0}$ or $\Pi_{0}$.
3. $R E D$ is Open if it is a finite or countable union of basic open sets. We denote the set of open sets by $\Sigma_{1}$. Note that the open sets here are the same induced by the metric $d(x, y)=\frac{1}{1+i}$ where $i$ is the least number $x$ and $y$ differ on.
4. $R E D$ is Closed if it is the finite or countable intersection of basic open sets. We denote the set of open sets by $\Pi_{1}$. It is easy to show that a set if Closed iff its complement is open.
5. We define $\Sigma_{\alpha}, \Pi_{\alpha}$, and $\Delta_{\alpha}$ inductively for all countable ordinals $\alpha$.

- A set is in $\Sigma_{\alpha}$ if it is the finite or countable union of sets in $\Pi_{<\alpha}$.
- A set is in $\Pi_{\alpha}$ if it is the finite or countable intersection of sets in $\Sigma_{<\alpha}$.
- A set is $\Delta_{\alpha}$ if it is in both $\Sigma_{\alpha}$ and $\Pi_{\alpha}$.
- A set is Borel if there exists an $\alpha$ such that it is in $\Sigma_{\alpha}$ or $\Pi_{\alpha}$.

Are their elements of $\binom{N}{\omega}$ that are not Borel? Yes, the set of Borel sets is countable. Is there a nice class of sets that are just barely not Borel? Yes.

Def 1.7 Let GREEN be a subset of $\binom{N}{\omega} \times\binom{ N}{\omega}$.

1. GREEN is a Basic Open Set if it is the set of all pairs of strings with an infinite number of $1^{\prime}$ 's in $\sigma_{1}\{0,1\}^{\omega} \times \sigma_{2}\{0,1\}^{\omega}$. We denote the set of basic open sets by $\Sigma_{0}$ or $\Pi_{0}$.
2. $\Sigma_{\alpha}, \Pi_{\alpha}, \Delta_{\alpha}$, and Borel subsets of $\binom{N}{\omega} \times\binom{ N}{\omega}$ are defined similar to Definition 1.6.
3. Let $R E D$ be a subset of $\binom{N}{\omega} . R E D$ is analytic if there exists a Green Borel set GREEN $\subseteq\binom{\mathrm{N}}{\omega} \times\binom{\mathrm{N}}{\omega}$ such that

$$
R E D=\{X \mid(\exists Y)[(X, Y) \in G R E E N]\}
$$

It is known that there are analytic sets that are not Borel.
In Section 4 we show that open sets are Ramsey. Galvin and Prikry [2] first proved this. Actually they proved something stronger: that every Borel Set is Ramsey. More is known: Silver [5] showed that all Analytic sets are Ramsey. Ellentuck [1] and Tanaka [7] have alternative proofs.

## 2 Examples

We will break with mathematical tradition and give some examples.

## Example 2.1

1. 

$$
R E D=\{x \mid x(1) x(2) x(3) x(4) x(5)=00110\} .
$$

$R E D$ is a basic open set. $R E D$ is Ramsey since the following is a $B L U E$-homoegenous set:

$$
\{x \mid x(1) x(2) x(3) x(4) x(5)=00000\} .
$$

There are no $R E D$-homogenous sets.
2.

$$
R E D=\{x \mid(\exists i)[i \in x \wedge i \text { is prime }]\} .
$$

$R E D$ is an open set as it is the union over all primes $p$ of

$$
\left\{x \mid 0^{p-1} 1 \preceq x\right\} .
$$

$R E D$ is Ramsey:

- The following set is $R E D$-homogenous: THE PRIMES.
- The following set is BLUE-homogenous: THE NONPRIMES.
(Prime can be replaced with any infinite subset of N and everything said here still holds.)

3. 

$$
R E D=\{x \mid(\forall i)[i \in x \Longrightarrow \quad i \text { is prime }]\} .
$$

Complement is

$$
\{x \mid(\exists i)[i \in x \Longrightarrow i \text { is not prime }]\} .
$$

By the above item $\overline{R E D}$ is open, so $R E D$ is closed.
4.

$$
R E D=\left\{x \mid\left(\exists^{\infty} i\right)[i \in x \wedge i \text { is prime }]\right\} .
$$

First let

$$
R E D_{n}=\{x \mid(\exists \text { at least } n i)[i \in x \wedge i \text { is prime }]\} .
$$

$R E D_{n}$ is open as it is the union as $\sigma$ has $\geq n$ primes in it of $O_{\sigma}$. So $R E D_{n}$ is $\Sigma_{1}$. Hence the intersection of all of the $R E D_{n}$ is $\Pi_{2}$. This is $R E D . R E D$ is Ramsey:

- The following set is $R E D$-homogenous: THE PRIMES.
- The following set is BLUE-homogenous: THE NONPRIMES.
(Prime can be replaced with any infinite subset of N and everything said here still holds.)

5. Let $x \in\{0,1\}^{\omega}$. Let $R E D=\{x\}$. So $R E D$ is a singleton set. $R E D$ is closed (or $\Pi_{1}$ ) since

$$
R E D=\bigcap_{\sigma \preceq x} O_{\sigma} .
$$

$R E D$ is Ramsey- let $H$ be any proper infinite subset of $x$. It is a $B L U E$-homoegenous set. There are no $R E D$-homogenous sets.
6. Let $R E D$ be a countable union of elements of $\{0,1\}^{*}$. Using the above item $R E D$ is a countable union of closed sets ( $\Pi_{1}$ sets) and hence $R E D$ is $\Sigma_{2}$. One can show that $R E D$ is Ramsey by constructing a $B L U E$ homogenous set via diagonziation.
7.

$$
R E D=\left\{x \mid\left(\exists^{\infty} i\right)[x[i]=1 \wedge(\forall 1 \leq j \leq i)[x[i+j]=0] \wedge x[2 i+1]=1\}\right.
$$

So there are an infinitely number of blocks that have $x[i]=1$ and then have $i 0$ 's and then a 1 . Let

$$
R E D_{n}=\{x \mid(\exists \text { at least } n i)[x[i]=1 \wedge(\forall 1 \leq j \leq i)[x[i+j]=0] \wedge x[2 i+1]=1\} .
$$

$R E D_{n}$ is open. $R E D$ is the intersection of the $R E D_{n}$ and hence is $\Pi_{2}$.

## 3 The Counter Example

We first do a counterexample to a different theorem that is instructive.
Theorem 3.1 There exists a 2-coloring of $\binom{N}{2}$ that has no computable homogenous set. (Note that we do not keep track of how complicated the 2-coloring is.)

## Proof:

List out all of the computable $0-1$ valued on one variable:

$$
f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots,
$$

We construct a coloring $C O L$ to satisfy the following requirements:
For all $e<\omega$ :
$R_{e}$ : if $\left(\exists^{\infty} i\right)\left[f_{e}(i)=1\right]$ then $f_{e}$ is not an indicator function for a homog set.
We color in stages. By state $e<\omega$ we will color at most $2 e$ pairs.

## Construction:

Stage $e$. We satisfy $R_{e}$. If $\left(\exists^{\infty} w\right)\left[f_{e}(w)=1\right]$ then do the following, else goto the next stage. Let $x, y, z$ be natural numbers such that

- $f_{e}(x)=f_{e}(y)=f_{e}(z)=1$,
- $\operatorname{COL}(x, y)$ is not yet defined, and
- $C O L(x, z)$ is not yet defined.
(We later show that such exists.) We define $C O L(x, y)=R E D$ and $C O L(x, z)=B L U E$. Now $f_{e}$ cannot be the indicator function for a homogenous set.

We need to show that such $x, y, z$ exist. Let

$$
W=\left\{i \mid f_{e}(i)=1\right\} .
$$

KEY: By state $e$ we will have only defined $C O L$ on a finite number of elements of $\binom{\mathrm{N}}{2}$ (at most $2 e$ ). Since $W$ is infinite there will exist $x, y, z \in W$ such that $C O L(x, y), C O L(x, z)$ are not defined. Hence $x, y, z$ exist.
State $\omega$ : For all $x, y$ such that $C O L(x, y)$ is not defined, we define it to be $R E D$.

## End of Construction

By comments made in the proof, the construction works.
The KEY to the proof was that there are only a countable number of requirements and, at every stage $e<\omega$, only a finite number of edges have been colored. The proof above would work with any countable number of functions you want to not have as indicator functions for homogenous sets. What if there is an uncountable number of functions that you want to not have as indicator functions of homogenous sets? The proof would not go through since by stage $\alpha$ where $\alpha$ is uncountable you would have already colored all of the edges. This is a good thing - if the proof did go through you would have disproved Ramsey's Theorem.

Note 3.2 Specker [6] (see also [3, 4] has shown that there is a computable coloring with no computable homogenous set.

Theorem 3.3 There exists a 2-coloring of $\binom{N}{\omega}$ that has no homogenous set.

## Proof:

List out all of the infinite subsets of N via their indicator functions.

$$
f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots,
$$

The $\ldots$ is tricky. Let $\alpha$ be the least ordinal of cardinality $2^{\aleph_{0}}$. We index the $f_{e}$ by all ordinals $<\alpha$ (this requires the Axiom of Choice). Note that for any $\beta<\alpha$ there are LESS THAN $2^{\aleph_{0}}$ functions in the set $\left\{f_{\gamma} \mid \gamma \leq \beta\right\}$.

We construct a coloring $C O L$ to satisfy the following requirements:
For all $\gamma<\alpha$
$R_{\gamma}$ : if $\left(\exists^{\infty} i\right)\left[f_{\gamma}(i)=1\right]$ then $f_{\gamma}$ is not an indicator function for a homog set.
Stage $\gamma$. We satisfy $R_{\gamma}$. If $\left(\exists^{\infty} w\right)\left[f_{\gamma}(w)=1\right]$ then do the following, else goto the next stage. Let $X, Y, Z \in\binom{N}{\omega}$ be disjoint sets such that

- for all $x \in X, y \in Y, z \in Z, f_{\gamma}(x)=f_{\gamma}(y)=f_{\gamma}(z)=1$,
- $C O L(X \cup Y)$ is not yet defined, and
- $C O L(X \cup Z)$ is not yet defined.
(We later show that such $X, Y, Z$ exists.)
We define $C O L(X \cup Y)=R E D$ and $C O L(X \cup Z)=B L U E$. Now $f_{\gamma}$ cannot be the indicator function for a homogenous set.

We need to show that such $X, Y, Z$ exist. Let

$$
W=\left\{i \mid f_{\gamma}(i)=1\right\}
$$

KEY: By state $\gamma$ we will have only defined $C O L$ on $<2^{\aleph_{0}}$ elements of $\binom{N}{\omega}$. Since $W$ is infinite there will exist $X, Y \subseteq^{\omega} W$ such that $C O L(X \cup Y), C O L(X \cup Z)$ are not defined. Hence $X, Y, Z$ exist.
State $\alpha$ : For all $X$ such that $\operatorname{COL}(X)$ is not defined, we define it to be $R E D$.
End of Construction

Note 3.4 The proof of Theorem 3.3 used the Axiom of Choice. What happens if the Axiom of Determinacy is used instead? Is the theorem false? Are all sets Ramsey? We believe these questions are open.

## 4 Ramsey's Theorem is True for Open Colorings

Our goal is to show that if $C O L$ is a 2-coloring of $\binom{N}{\omega}$ where $R E D$ is an open set then there exists an infinite homogenous set.

For this section coloring means a 2-coloring of $\binom{N}{\omega}$. We won't need to use that $R E D$ is open until the very end.

Def 4.1 Let $C O L$ be a coloring. Let $X$ be a finite subset of N . Let $M, N$ be an infinite subset of N .

1. $X<M$ means that $\max (X)<\min (M)$. So every element of $M$ is bigger than every element of $X$.
2. $N \subseteq^{\omega} M$ means that $N$ is an infinite subset of $M$.
3. $M$ loves $X$ if, for all $N \subseteq^{\omega} M-X, C O L(X \cup N)=R E D$.
4. $M$ hates $X$ if $\left(\forall N \subseteq^{\omega} M-X\right)\left(\exists N^{\prime} \subseteq^{\omega} N\right)\left[C O L\left(X \cup N^{\prime}\right)=B L U E\right]$.

Note 4.2 It is quite possible to have an $M$ and an $X$ such that $M$ neither loves nor hates $X$.

Lemma 4.3 Let COL be a coloring. If $M$ loves $X$ then any subset of $M$ loves $X$. If $M$ hates $X$ then any subset of $M$ hates $X$.

## Examples

1. $R E D=$ all sets that contain all of the evens.
$M=\{x \mid s \geq 100 \wedge x$ is prime $\}$.
$X=\{2,4,6,8\}$.
Does $M$ love $X$ ? NO: $N=M-\{101\}$ is a subset of $M-X$ such that $N \cup X$ is $B L U E$.
Does $M$ hate $X$ ? YES: If $N \subseteq^{\omega} M-X$ then $N \cup X$ is $B L U E$.
Note: $M$ hates $\emptyset$.
2. $R E D=$ all sets that contain all of the evens.
$M=\{x \mid x \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \wedge x \geq 100\}$.
$X=\{2,4,6,8, \ldots, 98,100,102,104\}$.
Does $M$ love $X$ ? NO: $N=M-\{100,102,104,106\}$ is a subset of $M-X$ such that $N \cup X$ is BLUE.
Does $M$ hate $X$ ? YES: every proper $N \subseteq^{\omega} M-X$ will have $N \cup X B L U E$.
Note: $M$ hates $\emptyset$.
3. $R E D=$ all sets that contain an infinite number of evens
$M=\{x \mid x \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \wedge x \geq 100\}$.
$X=\{2,4,6,8, \ldots, 98,100,102,104\}$.
Does $M$ love $X$ ? YES: if $N \subseteq^{\omega} M-X$ then $X \cup X$ will have an infinite number of evens, so its $R E D$.

Note: $M$ loves $\emptyset$.
4. $R E D=$ all sets that contain an infinite number of evens
$M=\{x \mid x \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \wedge x \geq 100\}$.
$X=\{1,3,5,6\}$.
Does $M$ love $X$ ? YES: if $N \subseteq^{\omega} M-X$ then $X \cup X$ will have an infinite number of evens, so its $R E D$.
Note: $M$ loves $\emptyset$.
5. $R E D=$ all sets that contain an infinite number of evens
$M=\{x \mid x \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \wedge x \geq 100\} \cup\{x \mid x \equiv 0(\bmod 3) \wedge x \geq 100\}$.
$X=\{2,4,6,8, \ldots, 98,100,102,104\}$.
Does $M$ love $X$ ? NO: Take $N$ to be all numbers $\geq 100$ that are $\equiv 3(\bmod 6) . N \subseteq^{\omega}$ $O D D$ so $N$ is BLUE. This set has all odds in it so its BLUE.
Does $M$ hate $X$ ? NO: Take $N$ to be all numbers $\geq 100$ that are $\equiv 0(\bmod 2)$. All subsets of this set are $R E D$.
Note: $M$ has a subset that loves the empty set: the set of evens $\geq 100$.
6. $R E D=$ all sets such that if a number is IN then the successor is OUT.
$M=\{x \mid x \equiv 0(\bmod 2)\}$.
$X=\{1,3,9\}$.
$M$ loves $X$ : Its KEY that we are taking $N \subseteq^{\omega} M-X$ so we can't have $2 \in N$ and hence cannot have $1,2 \in X \cup N$.

Note: $M$ loves $\emptyset$.
7. $R E D=$ all sets that contain an infinite number of evens
$M=\{x \mid x \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \wedge x \geq 100\} \cup\{x \mid x \equiv 0(\bmod 3) \wedge x \geq 100\}$.
$X=\{2,3\}$.
$M$ does NOT love $X$ since every set that contains $X$ is $B L U E$
$M$ hates $X$.

## End of Examples

For the rest of this section we fix a coloring $C O L$. Love and Hate will be defined relative to $C O L$. We will only in the very last theorem put a condition on $C O L$.

Lemma 4.4 Let $X$ be finite. For all $M>X, M$ infinite,

- there exists $M^{\prime} \subseteq{ }^{\omega} M-X$ such that $M^{\prime}$ loves $X$, or
- there exists $M^{\prime} \subseteq^{\omega} M-X$ such that $M^{\prime}$ hates $X$.

Proof: There are two cases.

1. There exists $N \subseteq^{\omega} M-X$ such that for all $M^{\prime \prime} \subseteq^{\omega} N, C O L\left(X \cup M^{\prime \prime}\right)=R E D$. Then just $M^{\prime}=N$. Note that this case can be written as

$$
\left(\exists N \subseteq^{\omega} M-X\right)\left(\forall M^{\prime \prime} \subseteq^{\omega} N\right)\left[C O L\left(X \cup M^{\prime \prime}\right)=R E D\right] .
$$

2. For all $N \subseteq^{\omega} M-X$ there exists $M^{\prime \prime} \subseteq^{\omega} N$ such that $C O L\left(X \cup M^{\prime \prime}\right)=B L U E$. This is the very definition of $M$ hates $X$ so take $M^{\prime}=M$.

Lemma 4.5 There exists an infinite set $M$ such that, for all finite $X \subseteq M$, either $M$ loves $X$ or $M$ hates $X$.

## Proof:

If $M$ is an infinite set and $X$ is a finite set then let $L(M, X)$ be the infinite set that results from applying Lemma 4.4.

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{0} & =\mathrm{N} \\
M_{1} & =L\left(M_{0}, \emptyset\right) \\
a_{1} & =\text { the least element of } M_{1} \\
M_{2} & =L\left(M_{1},\left\{a_{1}\right\}\right) \\
a_{2} & =\text { the least element of } M_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

We need to do the $L$-operator to BOTH $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}\right\}$ and $\left\{a_{2}\right\}$. (We do not need to do the $L$-operator with $\left\{a_{1}\right\}$ because all later subsets already love or hate $\left\{a_{1}\right\}$ by Lemma 4.3.) We will not define a new $a_{3}$ until we are done. To avoid too much notation we will reuse $M_{3}$. We write this in a way so it will generalize.

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{3} & =M_{2} \\
M_{3} & =L\left(M_{3}, \emptyset \cup\left\{a_{2}\right\}\right) \\
M_{3} & =L\left(M_{3},\left\{a_{1}\right\} \cup\left\{a_{2}\right\}\right) \\
a_{3} & =\text { the least element of } M_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Now the general case. Assume that $M_{n-1}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1}, a_{n}$ are defined. Let $Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{2^{n-1}}$ be all subsets of $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\right\}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{n} & =M_{n-1} \\
M_{n} & =L\left(M_{n}, Y_{1} \cup\left\{a_{n}\right\}\right) \\
M_{n} & =L\left(M_{n}, Y_{2} \cup\left\{a_{n}\right\}\right) \\
\vdots & =\vdots \\
M_{n} & =L\left(M_{n}, Y_{2^{n-1}} \cup\left\{a_{n}\right\}\right) \\
a_{n+1} & =\text { the least element of } M_{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $M=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots\right\}$. We show that this works. Let $X$ be a finite subset of $M$. Let $a_{n}$ be the max element of $X$. When $M_{n}$ was defined $M_{n}$ either hated of loved $X$. Note that $M \subseteq^{\omega} M_{n}$. By Lemma 4.3 $M$ will either love or hate $X$.

Lemma 4.6 Let $M$ be the set from Lemma 4.5. Let $X$ be finite such that $X \subseteq M$. If $M$ hates $X$ then, for almost all $n \in M, M$ hates $X \cup\{n\}$.
Proof: Let

$$
N=\{n \mid n \in M \wedge M \text { loves } X \cup\{n\}\} .
$$

We show that $N$ is finite. Since for all $n M$ either hates or loves $X \cup\{n\}$ we obtain the lemma.

Assume, by way of contradiction, that $N$ is infinite. Note that $N \subseteq^{\omega} M$. We show that EVERY $N^{\prime} \subseteq^{\omega} N$ is such that $C O L\left(X \cup N^{\prime}\right)=R E D$. This will contradict $M$ hating $X$.

Let $n$ be the least element of $N^{\prime}$ and $N^{\prime \prime}=N^{\prime}-\{n\}$. Note that $X \cup N^{\prime}=(X \cup\{n\}) \cup N^{\prime \prime}$ Since $n \in N, M$ loves $X \cup\{n\}$. Hence

$$
C O L\left(X \cup N^{\prime}\right)=C O L\left((X \cup\{n\}) \cup N^{\prime \prime}\right)=R E D
$$

Lemma 4.7 Let $M$ be the set from Lemma 4.5. If $M$ hates $\emptyset$ then there exists $N \subseteq^{\omega} M$ such that $N$ hates every finite subset of itself.
Proof: Assume that $M$ hates $\emptyset$. By Lemma 4.6 there exists $a_{1} \in M$ such that $M$ hates $\left\{a_{1}\right\}$.

Assume that $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in M$ are defined such that $M$ hates all subsets of $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\right\}$. By Lemma 4.6 (applied $2^{n-1}$ times) there exists $a_{n} \in M$ such that $M$ hates all subsets of $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$.

Let $N=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots,\right\}$. Since $M$ hates every finite subset of $N$, and $N \subseteq M$, by Lemma 4.3 $N$ hates every subset of $N$.

Theorem 4.8 If RED is an open set then there exists an infinite homogenous set.

## Proof:

Let $M$ be the set constructed in Lemma 4.5. If $M$ loves $\emptyset$ then $M$ is a homogenous set (since every subset of it is $R E D$ ). If not, then by Lemma 4.7, there exists a infinite set $N$ that hates every subset of itself.

We show that every infinite subset of $N$ is $B L U E$. Assume, by way of contradiction, that some $N^{\prime} \subseteq^{\omega} N$ was $R E D$. Since the $R E D$ is an open set there exists $\sigma$ such that

- $\sigma$ is an initial segment of $N^{\prime}$
- Every set with initial segment $\sigma$ is $R E D$. Hence every subset of $N^{\prime}$ that includes $\sigma$ is $R E D$.

Let $X$ be the finite set coded by $\sigma$. Every subset of $N^{\prime}$ that includes $X$ is $R E D$. This contradicts $N$ hating $X$.

## 5 Are there any Interesting Examples?

In this section we look at particular open sets (which we will call $R E D$ ) and see what the homogenous set is. None of them seem to need the full strength of the proof of the theorem. We would like to see either an interesting open set that uses the full strength of the theorem, or an easier proof.

Let $A \subseteq\{0,1\}^{*}$ and

$$
R E D=\bigcup_{\sigma \in A} \sigma\{0,1\}^{\omega} .
$$

We look at a variety of types of sets $A$.

## Examples

1) $(\exists n)(\forall \sigma \in A)[\sigma(n)=1]$.

So every RED set has $n$. Just let The set $H=\mathrm{N}-\{n\}$ is homogenous BLUE. There are no $R E D$ homogeneous sets: If $H$ is an infinite subsets then $H-\{n\}$ is $B L U E$.
2) $(\forall \sigma \in A)(\exists i \in \mathrm{~N})[\sigma(i) \sigma(i+1)=11]$.

So every $R E D$ set has two consecutive numbers in it. The set $H=E V E N$ is homogenous $B L U E$. There are no $R E D$ homogeneous sets: If $H$ is an infinite subsets then one can carefully remove elements so that there are never two in a row (but there are still an infinite number).
3) $(\exists X \subseteq \mathrm{~N})(\forall \sigma \in A)(\exists i \in X)\left[0^{i} 1 \preceq \sigma\right]$.

As an example let $X$ be the primes. We are saying that every set in $A$ has as its first elements some primes. The set $H=X$ is homogenous $R E D$. No matter how many elements you remove it will still have as its first element some element of $X$ The set $H=\bar{X}$ is homogenous $B L U E$ for the same reason.

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