

Reducts of Homogeneous Structures I: The Ramsey Property

Michael Pinsker

Université Denis Diderot - Paris 7 (60%)

Technische Universität Wien (30%)

Hebrew University of Jerusalem (10%)

LMS Northern Regional Meeting
Workshop on Homogeneous Structures
2011

1 Reducts of homogeneous structures

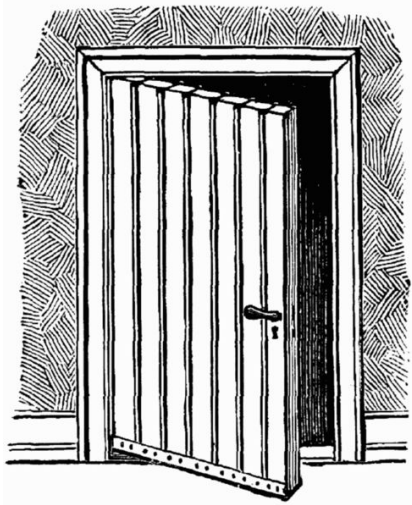
- First-order interdefinability
- Finer classifications
- Examples

2 Functions on homogeneous structures

- Groups, monoids, clones
- Canonical functions
- The Ramsey property
- Minimal functions

3 What we can do and what we cannot do

- Decidability of primitive positive definability
- Decidability of first order definability



Reducts of homogeneous structures

Reducts of homogeneous structures

Let Δ be a countable relational structure in a finite language which is *homogeneous*, i.e.,

Reducts of homogeneous structures

Let Δ be a countable relational structure in a finite language which is *homogeneous*, i.e.,

For all $A, B \subseteq \Delta$ finite, for all isomorphisms $i : A \rightarrow B$ there exists $\alpha \in \text{Aut}(\Delta)$ extending i .

Reducts of homogeneous structures

Let Δ be a countable relational structure in a finite language which is *homogeneous*, i.e.,

For all $A, B \subseteq \Delta$ finite, for all isomorphisms $i : A \rightarrow B$ there exists $\alpha \in \text{Aut}(\Delta)$ extending i .

Definition

A *reduct* of Δ is a structure with a first-order (fo) definition in Δ .

Reducts of homogeneous structures

Let Δ be a countable relational structure in a finite language which is *homogeneous*, i.e.,

For all $A, B \subseteq \Delta$ finite, for all isomorphisms $i : A \rightarrow B$ there exists $\alpha \in \text{Aut}(\Delta)$ extending i .

Definition

A *reduct* of Δ is a structure with a first-order (fo) definition in Δ .

Problem

Classify the reducts of Δ .

We call Δ the *base structure*.

Classifications up to first-order interdefinability

One possibility of classification:

We can consider two reducts Γ, Γ' of Δ *equivalent* iff Γ has a fo-definition from Γ' and vice-versa.

One possibility of classification:

We can consider two reducts Γ, Γ' of Δ *equivalent* iff Γ has a fo-definition from Γ' and vice-versa.

We say that Γ and Γ' are *fo-interdefinable*.

One possibility of classification:

We can consider two reducts Γ, Γ' of Δ *equivalent* iff Γ has a fo-definition from Γ' and vice-versa.

We say that Γ and Γ' are *fo-interdefinable*.

The relation “ Γ is fo-definable in Γ' ” is a quasiorder on the reducts.

One possibility of classification:

We can consider two reducts Γ, Γ' of Δ *equivalent* iff Γ has a fo-definition from Γ' and vice-versa.

We say that Γ and Γ' are *fo-interdefinable*.

The relation “ Γ is fo-definable in Γ' ” is a quasiorder on the reducts.

We factor this quasiorder by the equivalence relation of fo-interdefinability, and obtain a complete lattice.

Finer classifications (syntactic restrictions)

Finer classifications (syntactic restrictions)

A formula is *existential* iff

it is of the form $\exists x_1, \dots, x_n. \psi$, where ψ is quantifier-free.

Finer classifications (syntactic restrictions)

A formula is *existential* iff

it is of the form $\exists x_1, \dots, x_n. \psi$, where ψ is quantifier-free.

A formula is *existential positive* iff

it is existential and does not contain negations.

Finer classifications (syntactic restrictions)

A formula is *existential* iff

it is of the form $\exists x_1, \dots, x_n. \psi$, where ψ is quantifier-free.

A formula is *existential positive* iff

it is existential and does not contain negations.

A formula is *primitive positive* iff

it is existential positive and does not contain disjunctions.

Finer classifications (syntactic restrictions)

A formula is *existential* iff

it is of the form $\exists x_1, \dots, x_n. \psi$, where ψ is quantifier-free.

A formula is *existential positive* iff

it is existential and does not contain negations.

A formula is *primitive positive* iff

it is existential positive and does not contain disjunctions.

Can consider reducts Γ, Γ' equivalent iff

Γ has a \dots -definition from Γ' and vice-versa.

Finer classifications (syntactic restrictions)

A formula is *existential* iff

it is of the form $\exists x_1, \dots, x_n. \psi$, where ψ is quantifier-free.

A formula is *existential positive* iff

it is existential and does not contain negations.

A formula is *primitive positive* iff

it is existential positive and does not contain disjunctions.

Can consider reducts Γ, Γ' equivalent iff

Γ has a \dots -definition from Γ' and vice-versa.

The relation “ Γ is \dots -definable in Γ' ” is a quasiorder on the reducts.

Finer classifications (syntactic restrictions)

A formula is *existential* iff

it is of the form $\exists x_1, \dots, x_n. \psi$, where ψ is quantifier-free.

A formula is *existential positive* iff

it is existential and does not contain negations.

A formula is *primitive positive* iff

it is existential positive and does not contain disjunctions.

Can consider reducts Γ, Γ' equivalent iff

Γ has a \dots -definition from Γ' and vice-versa.

The relation “ Γ is \dots -definable in Γ' ” is a quasiorder on the reducts.

We factor this quasiorder by the equivalence relation of \dots -interdefinability and obtain a complete lattice.

Comparing the classifications

Observe:

Primitive positive (pp) interdefinability is finer than
existential positive (ep) interdefinability is finer than
existential (ex) interdefinability is finer than
first order (fo) interdefinability.

Comparing the classifications

Observe:

Primitive positive (pp) interdefinability is finer than
existential positive (ep) interdefinability is finer than
existential (ex) interdefinability is finer than
first order (fo) interdefinability.

In fact:

The lattice corresponding to fo-definability is a factor of
the lattice corresponding to ex-definability is a factor of
the lattice corresponding to ep-definability is a factor of
the lattice corresponding to pp-definability.

What is interesting?

What is interesting?

Which of the 4 lattices are interesting?

What is interesting?

Which of the 4 lattices are interesting?

Model theorists: First order!

What is interesting?

Which of the 4 lattices are interesting?

Model theorists: First order!

Complexity theorists: Primitive positive!

What is interesting?

Which of the 4 lattices are interesting?

Model theorists: First order!

Complexity theorists: Primitive positive!

Explanation:

- Every reduct defines a computational problem (Constraint Satisfaction Problem).
- Reducts which are pp-interdefinable have polynomial time-equivalent computational complexity.

What is interesting?

Which of the 4 lattices are interesting?

Model theorists: First order!

Complexity theorists: Primitive positive!

Explanation:

- Every reduct defines a computational problem (Constraint Satisfaction Problem).
- Reducts which are pp-interdefinable have polynomial time-equivalent computational complexity.

This talk: Method for pp (and ep - submethod).

What is interesting?

Which of the 4 lattices are interesting?

Model theorists: First order!

Complexity theorists: Primitive positive!

Explanation:

- Every reduct defines a computational problem (Constraint Satisfaction Problem).
- Reducts which are pp-interdefinable have polynomial time-equivalent computational complexity.

This talk: Method for pp (and ep - submethod).

STOP!

In practice helps also for fo.

Why is Δ homogeneous in a finite language?

Question makes sense for arbitrary base structure Δ .

Why is Δ homogeneous in a finite language?

Question makes sense for arbitrary base structure Δ .

ω -categoricity implies the following:

Why is Δ homogeneous in a finite language?

Question makes sense for arbitrary base structure Δ .

ω -categoricity implies the following:

- *fo-closed* reducts correspond to *closed groups*;

Why is Δ homogeneous in a finite language?

Question makes sense for arbitrary base structure Δ .

ω -categoricity implies the following:

- *fo-closed* reducts correspond to *closed groups*;
- *ep-closed* reducts correspond to *closed transformation monoids*;

Why is Δ homogeneous in a finite language?

Question makes sense for arbitrary base structure Δ .

ω -categoricity implies the following:

- *fo-closed* reducts correspond to *closed groups*;
- *ep-closed* reducts correspond to *closed transformation monoids*;
- *pp-closed* reducts correspond to *closed clones*.

Why is Δ homogeneous in a finite language?

Question makes sense for arbitrary base structure Δ .

ω -categoricity implies the following:

- *fo-closed* reducts correspond to *closed groups*;
- *ep-closed* reducts correspond to *closed transformation monoids*;
- *pp-closed* reducts correspond to *closed clones*.

Seems that homogeneity in finite language implies few *fo-closed* reducts.

Why is Δ homogeneous in a finite language?

Question makes sense for arbitrary base structure Δ .

ω -categoricity implies the following:

- *fo-closed* reducts correspond to *closed groups*;
- *ep-closed* reducts correspond to *closed transformation monoids*;
- *pp-closed* reducts correspond to *closed clones*.

Seems that homogeneity in finite language implies few *fo-closed* reducts.

For our method, we will need even “more” than homogeneity in a finite language:

The Ramsey property

Example: The dense linear order

Example: The dense linear order

Denote by $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$ be the order of the rationals, and set

$$\text{betw}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < y < x\}$$

$$\text{cycl}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < x < y \\ \text{or } y < z < x\}$$

$$\text{sep}(x, y, z, w) := \{(x, y, z, w) \in \mathbb{Q}^4 : \dots\}$$

Example: The dense linear order

Denote by $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$ be the order of the rationals, and set

$$\text{betw}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < y < x\}$$

$$\text{cycl}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < x < y \\ \text{or } y < z < x\}$$

$$\text{sep}(x, y, z, w) := \{(x, y, z, w) \in \mathbb{Q}^4 : \dots\}$$

Theorem (Cameron '76)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := (\mathbb{Q}; <)$. Then:

Example: The dense linear order

Denote by $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$ be the order of the rationals, and set

$$\text{betw}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < y < x\}$$

$$\text{cycl}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < x < y \\ \text{or } y < z < x\}$$

$$\text{sep}(x, y, z, w) := \{(x, y, z, w) \in \mathbb{Q}^4 : \dots\}$$

Theorem (Cameron '76)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := (\mathbb{Q}; <)$. Then:

- 1 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$, or

Example: The dense linear order

Denote by $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$ be the order of the rationals, and set

$$\text{betw}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < y < x\}$$

$$\text{cycl}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < x < y \\ \text{or } y < z < x\}$$

$$\text{sep}(x, y, z, w) := \{(x, y, z, w) \in \mathbb{Q}^4 : \dots\}$$

Theorem (Cameron '76)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := (\mathbb{Q}; <)$. Then:

- 1 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$, or
- 2 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; \text{betw})$, or

Example: The dense linear order

Denote by $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$ be the order of the rationals, and set

$$\text{betw}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < y < x\}$$

$$\text{cycl}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < x < y \\ \text{or } y < z < x\}$$

$$\text{sep}(x, y, z, w) := \{(x, y, z, w) \in \mathbb{Q}^4 : \dots\}$$

Theorem (Cameron '76)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := (\mathbb{Q}; <)$. Then:

- 1 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$, or
- 2 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; \text{betw})$, or
- 3 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; \text{cycl})$, or

Example: The dense linear order

Denote by $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$ be the order of the rationals, and set

$$\text{betw}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < y < x\}$$

$$\text{cycl}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < x < y \\ \text{or } y < z < x\}$$

$$\text{sep}(x, y, z, w) := \{(x, y, z, w) \in \mathbb{Q}^4 : \dots\}$$

Theorem (Cameron '76)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := (\mathbb{Q}; <)$. Then:

- 1 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$, or
- 2 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; \text{betw})$, or
- 3 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; \text{cycl})$, or
- 4 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; \text{sep})$, or

Example: The dense linear order

Denote by $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$ be the order of the rationals, and set

$$\text{betw}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < y < x\}$$

$$\text{cycl}(x, y, z) := \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : x < y < z \text{ or } z < x < y \\ \text{or } y < z < x\}$$

$$\text{sep}(x, y, z, w) := \{(x, y, z, w) \in \mathbb{Q}^4 : \dots\}$$

Theorem (Cameron '76)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := (\mathbb{Q}; <)$. Then:

- 1 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; <)$, or
- 2 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; \text{betw})$, or
- 3 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; \text{cycl})$, or
- 4 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; \text{sep})$, or
- 5 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(\mathbb{Q}; =)$.

Example: The random graph

Example: The random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph, and set for all $k \geq 2$

$$R^{(k)} := \{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \subseteq V^k : x_i \text{ distinct, number of edges odd}\}.$$

Example: The random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph, and set for all $k \geq 2$

$$R^{(k)} := \{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \subseteq V^k : x_i \text{ distinct, number of edges odd}\}.$$

Theorem (Thomas '91)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := G = (V; E)$. Then:

Example: The random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph, and set for all $k \geq 2$

$$R^{(k)} := \{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \subseteq V^k : x_i \text{ distinct, number of edges odd}\}.$$

Theorem (Thomas '91)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := G = (V; E)$. Then:

- 1 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; E)$, or

Example: The random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph, and set for all $k \geq 2$

$$R^{(k)} := \{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \subseteq V^k : x_i \text{ distinct, number of edges odd}\}.$$

Theorem (Thomas '91)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := G = (V; E)$. Then:

- 1 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; E)$, or
- 2 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; R^{(3)})$, or

Example: The random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph, and set for all $k \geq 2$

$$R^{(k)} := \{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \subseteq V^k : x_i \text{ distinct, number of edges odd}\}.$$

Theorem (Thomas '91)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := G = (V; E)$. Then:

- 1 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; E)$, or
- 2 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; R^{(3)})$, or
- 3 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; R^{(4)})$, or

Example: The random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph, and set for all $k \geq 2$

$$R^{(k)} := \{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \subseteq V^k : x_i \text{ distinct, number of edges odd}\}.$$

Theorem (Thomas '91)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := G = (V; E)$. Then:

- 1 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; E)$, or
- 2 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; R^{(3)})$, or
- 3 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; R^{(4)})$, or
- 4 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; R^{(5)})$, or

Example: The random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph, and set for all $k \geq 2$

$$R^{(k)} := \{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \subseteq V^k : x_i \text{ distinct, number of edges odd}\}.$$

Theorem (Thomas '91)

Let Γ be a reduct of $\Delta := G = (V; E)$. Then:

- 1 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; E)$, or
- 2 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; R^{(3)})$, or
- 3 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; R^{(4)})$, or
- 4 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; R^{(5)})$, or
- 5 Γ is first-order interdefinable with $(V; =)$.

Further examples

Theorem (Thomas '91)

The homogeneous K_n -free graph has 2 reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Further examples

Theorem (Thomas '91)

The homogeneous K_n -free graph has 2 reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Theorem (Thomas '96)

The homogeneous k -graph has $2^k + 1$ reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Further examples

Theorem (Thomas '91)

The homogeneous K_n -free graph has 2 reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Theorem (Thomas '96)

The homogeneous k -graph has $2^k + 1$ reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Theorem (Junker, Ziegler '08)

$(\mathbb{Q}; <, 0)$ has 116 reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Very recent examples

Theorem (Several people '11)

The homogeneous partial order has 5 reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Very recent examples

Theorem (Several people '11)

The homogeneous partial order has 5 reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Theorem (Pongrácz '11)

The homogeneous K_n -free graph plus constant has 13 reducts if $n = 3$, and 16 reducts if $n \geq 4$ up to fo-interdefinability.

Very recent examples

Theorem (Several people '11)

The homogeneous partial order has 5 reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Theorem (Pongrácz '11)

The homogeneous K_n -free graph plus constant has 13 reducts if $n = 3$, and 16 reducts if $n \geq 4$ up to fo-interdefinability.

Depressing fact (Horváth, Pongrácz, P. '11)

The random graph with a constant has too many reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Conjecture (Thomas '91)

Let Δ be homogeneous in a finite language.

Then Δ has finitely many reducts up to fo-interdefinability.

Back to finer classifications

Theorem (Bodirsky, Chen, P. '08)

For the structure $\Delta := (X; =)$, there exist:

Theorem (Bodirsky, Chen, P. '08)

For the structure $\Delta := (X; =)$, there exist:

- 1 reduct up to first order / existential interdefinability

Theorem (Bodirsky, Chen, P. '08)

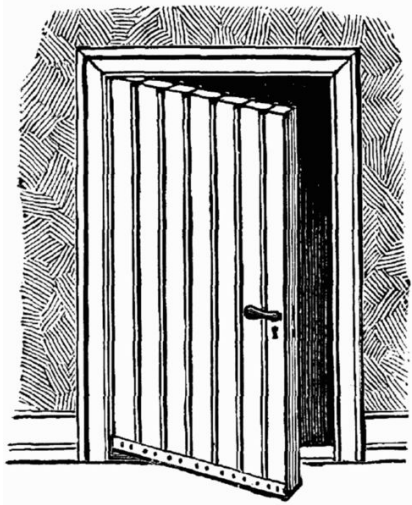
For the structure $\Delta := (X; =)$, there exist:

- 1 reduct up to first order / existential interdefinability
- \aleph_0 reducts up to existential positive interdefinability

Theorem (Bodirsky, Chen, P. '08)

For the structure $\Delta := (X; =)$, there exist:

- 1 reduct up to first order / existential interdefinability
- \aleph_0 reducts up to existential positive interdefinability
- 2^{\aleph_0} reducts up to primitive positive interdefinability



Functions on homogeneous structures

Permutation groups

Theorem (Ryll-Nardzewski)

Let Δ be ω -categorical.

The mapping

$$\Gamma \mapsto \text{Aut}(\Gamma)$$

is a one-to-one correspondence between
the *first-order closed* reducts of Δ and
the *closed permutation groups* containing $\text{Aut}(\Delta)$.

first order closed = contains all fo-definable relations

Theorem (follows from the Homomorphism preservation thm)

Let Δ be ω -categorical.

The mapping

$$\Gamma \mapsto \text{End}(\Gamma)$$

is a one-to-one correspondence between the *existential positive closed* reducts of Δ and the *closed transformation monoids* containing $\text{Aut}(\Delta)$.

A monoid of functions from Δ to Δ is *closed* iff it is closed in the Baire space Δ^Δ .

Theorem (Bodirsky, Nešetřil '03)

Let Δ be ω -categorical. Then

$$\Gamma \mapsto \text{Pol}(\Gamma)$$

is a one-to-one correspondence between the *primitive positive closed* reducts of Δ and the *closed clones* containing $\text{Aut}(\Delta)$.

A **clone** is a set of finitary operations on Δ which

- contains all projections $\pi_i^n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_i$, and
- is closed under composition.

$\text{Pol}(\Gamma)$ is the clone of all homomorphisms from finite powers of Γ to Γ .

A clone C is **closed** if for each $n \geq 1$, the set of n -ary operations in C is a closed subset of the Baire space Δ^{Δ^n} .

For ω -categorical Δ :

Reducts up to **fo-interdefinability** \leftrightarrow
closed **permutation groups** $\supseteq \text{Aut}(\Delta)$;

Reducts up to **ep-interdefinability** \leftrightarrow
closed **monoids** $\supseteq \text{Aut}(\Delta)$

Reducts up to **pp-interdefinability** \leftrightarrow
closed **clones** $\supseteq \text{Aut}(\Delta)$.

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Let \bar{G} be the graph that arises by switching edges and non-edges.

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Let \bar{G} be the graph that arises by switching edges and non-edges.

Let $- : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and \bar{G} .

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Let \bar{G} be the graph that arises by switching edges and non-edges.

Let $- : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and \bar{G} .

For $c \in V$, let G_c be the graph that arises by switching all edges and non-edges containing c .

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Let \bar{G} be the graph that arises by switching edges and non-edges.

Let $- : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and \bar{G} .

For $c \in V$, let G_c be the graph that arises by switching all edges and non-edges containing c .

Let $\text{sw}_c : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and G_c .

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Let \bar{G} be the graph that arises by switching edges and non-edges.

Let $- : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and \bar{G} .

For $c \in V$, let G_c be the graph that arises by switching all edges and non-edges containing c .

Let $\text{sw}_c : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and G_c .

Theorem (Thomas '91)

The closed groups containing $\text{Aut}(G)$ are the following:

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Let \bar{G} be the graph that arises by switching edges and non-edges.

Let $- : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and \bar{G} .

For $c \in V$, let G_c be the graph that arises by switching all edges and non-edges containing c .

Let $\text{sw}_c : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and G_c .

Theorem (Thomas '91)

The closed groups containing $\text{Aut}(G)$ are the following:

- 1 $\text{Aut}(G)$

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Let \bar{G} be the graph that arises by switching edges and non-edges.

Let $- : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and \bar{G} .

For $c \in V$, let G_c be the graph that arises by switching all edges and non-edges containing c .

Let $\text{sw}_c : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and G_c .

Theorem (Thomas '91)

The closed groups containing $\text{Aut}(G)$ are the following:

- 1 $\text{Aut}(G)$
- 2 $\langle \{-\} \cup \text{Aut}(G) \rangle$

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Let \bar{G} be the graph that arises by switching edges and non-edges.

Let $- : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and \bar{G} .

For $c \in V$, let G_c be the graph that arises by switching all edges and non-edges containing c .

Let $\text{sw}_c : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and G_c .

Theorem (Thomas '91)

The closed groups containing $\text{Aut}(G)$ are the following:

- 1 $\text{Aut}(G)$
- 2 $\langle \{-\} \cup \text{Aut}(G) \rangle$
- 3 $\langle \{\text{sw}_c\} \cup \text{Aut}(G) \rangle$

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Let \bar{G} be the graph that arises by switching edges and non-edges.

Let $- : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and \bar{G} .

For $c \in V$, let G_c be the graph that arises by switching all edges and non-edges containing c .

Let $\text{sw}_c : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and G_c .

Theorem (Thomas '91)

The closed groups containing $\text{Aut}(G)$ are the following:

- 1 $\text{Aut}(G)$
- 2 $\langle \{-\} \cup \text{Aut}(G) \rangle$
- 3 $\langle \{\text{sw}_c\} \cup \text{Aut}(G) \rangle$
- 4 $\langle \{-, \text{sw}_c\} \cup \text{Aut}(G) \rangle$

The reducts of the random graph, revisited

Let $G := (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Let \bar{G} be the graph that arises by switching edges and non-edges.

Let $- : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and \bar{G} .

For $c \in V$, let G_c be the graph that arises by switching all edges and non-edges containing c .

Let $\text{sw}_c : V \rightarrow V$ be an isomorphism between G and G_c .

Theorem (Thomas '91)

The closed groups containing $\text{Aut}(G)$ are the following:

- 1 $\text{Aut}(G)$
- 2 $\langle \{-\} \cup \text{Aut}(G) \rangle$
- 3 $\langle \{\text{sw}_c\} \cup \text{Aut}(G) \rangle$
- 4 $\langle \{-, \text{sw}_c\} \cup \text{Aut}(G) \rangle$
- 5 The full symmetric group S_V .

Climb up the lattice!

Canonical functions on the Random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Definition. $f : G \rightarrow G$ is *canonical* iff

Canonical functions on the Random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Definition. $f : G \rightarrow G$ is *canonical* iff

for all $x, y, u, v \in V$,

if (x, y) and (u, v) have the same type in G ,

Canonical functions on the Random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Definition. $f : G \rightarrow G$ is *canonical* iff

for all $x, y, u, v \in V$,

if (x, y) and (u, v) have the same type in G ,

then $(f(x), f(y))$ and $(f(u), f(v))$ have the same type in G .

Canonical functions on the Random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Definition. $f : G \rightarrow G$ is *canonical* iff

for all $x, y, u, v \in V$,

if (x, y) and (u, v) have the same type in G ,

then $(f(x), f(y))$ and $(f(u), f(v))$ have the same type in G .

Examples.

Canonical functions on the Random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Definition. $f : G \rightarrow G$ is *canonical* iff

for all $x, y, u, v \in V$,

if (x, y) and (u, v) have the same type in G ,

then $(f(x), f(y))$ and $(f(u), f(v))$ have the same type in G .

Examples.

- Automorphisms are canonical.

Canonical functions on the Random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Definition. $f : G \rightarrow G$ is *canonical* iff

for all $x, y, u, v \in V$,

if (x, y) and (u, v) have the same type in G ,

then $(f(x), f(y))$ and $(f(u), f(v))$ have the same type in G .

Examples.

- Automorphisms are canonical.
- Embeddings are canonical.

Canonical functions on the Random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Definition. $f : G \rightarrow G$ is *canonical* iff

for all $x, y, u, v \in V$,

if (x, y) and (u, v) have the same type in G ,

then $(f(x), f(y))$ and $(f(u), f(v))$ have the same type in G .

Examples.

- Automorphisms are canonical.
- Embeddings are canonical.
- – is canonical.

Canonical functions on the Random graph

Let $G = (V; E)$ be the random graph.

Definition. $f : G \rightarrow G$ is *canonical* iff

for all $x, y, u, v \in V$,

if (x, y) and (u, v) have the same type in G ,

then $(f(x), f(y))$ and $(f(u), f(v))$ have the same type in G .

Examples.

- Automorphisms are canonical.
- Embeddings are canonical.
- $-$ is canonical.
- sw_c is canonical except around c .

The class of finite graphs has the following **Ramsey property**:

The class of finite graphs has the following **Ramsey property**:

For all graphs H
there exists a graph S such that

The class of finite graphs has the following **Ramsey property**:

For all graphs H

there exists a graph S such that

if the edges of S are colored with 3 colors,

The class of finite graphs has the following **Ramsey property**:

For all graphs H
there exists a graph S such that
if the edges of S are colored with 3 colors,
then there is a copy of H in S
on which the coloring is constant.

Finding canonical behaviour

The class of finite graphs has the following **Ramsey property**:

For all graphs H
there exists a graph S such that
if the edges of S are colored with 3 colors,
then there is a copy of H in S
on which the coloring is constant.

Given $f : G \rightarrow G$, color the edges of G
according to the type of their image: 3 possibilities.

Same for non-edges.

Finding canonical behaviour

The class of finite graphs has the following **Ramsey property**:

For all graphs H
there exists a graph S such that
if the edges of S are colored with 3 colors,
then there is a copy of H in S
on which the coloring is constant.

Given $f : G \rightarrow G$, color the edges of G
according to the type of their image: 3 possibilities.

Same for non-edges.

Conclusion: Every finite graph has a copy in G on which f is canonical.

Patterns in functions on the random graph

A canonical function on G induces a function from the 2-types in G to the 2-types in G .

Patterns in functions on the random graph

A canonical function on G induces a function from the 2-types in G to the 2-types in G .

Converse does not hold.

Patterns in functions on the random graph

A canonical function on G induces a function from the 2-types in G to the 2-types in G .

Converse does not hold.

The following are all possibilities of canonical functions:

Patterns in functions on the random graph

A canonical function on G induces a function from the 2-types in G to the 2-types in G .

Converse does not hold.

The following are all possibilities of canonical functions:

- Turning everything into edges (e_E)

Patterns in functions on the random graph

A canonical function on G induces a function from the 2-types in G to the 2-types in G .

Converse does not hold.

The following are all possibilities of canonical functions:

- Turning everything into edges (e_E)
- turning everything into non-edges (e_N)

Patterns in functions on the random graph

A canonical function on G induces a function from the 2-types in G to the 2-types in G .

Converse does not hold.

The following are all possibilities of canonical functions:

- Turning everything into edges (e_E)
- turning everything into non-edges (e_N)
- behaving like –

Patterns in functions on the random graph

A canonical function on G induces a function from the 2-types in G to the 2-types in G .

Converse does not hold.

The following are all possibilities of canonical functions:

- Turning everything into edges (e_E)
- turning everything into non-edges (e_N)
- behaving like –
- being constant

Patterns in functions on the random graph

A canonical function on G induces a function from the 2-types in G to the 2-types in G .

Converse does not hold.

The following are all possibilities of canonical functions:

- Turning everything into edges (e_E)
- turning everything into non-edges (e_N)
- behaving like –
- being constant
- behaving like the identity.

Patterns in functions on the random graph

A canonical function on G induces a function from the 2-types in G to the 2-types in G .

Converse does not hold.

The following are all possibilities of canonical functions:

- Turning everything into edges (e_E)
- turning everything into non-edges (e_N)
- behaving like –
- being constant
- behaving like the identity.

Given any $f : G \rightarrow G$, we know that one of these behaviors appears for arbitrary finite subgraphs of G .

Patterns in functions on the random graph

A canonical function on G induces a function from the 2-types in G to the 2-types in G .

Converse does not hold.

The following are all possibilities of canonical functions:

- Turning everything into edges (e_E)
- turning everything into non-edges (e_N)
- behaving like –
- being constant
- behaving like the identity.

Given any $f : G \rightarrow G$, we know that one of these behaviors appears for arbitrary finite subgraphs of G .

Problem: Identity.

Adding constants

Let $f : G \rightarrow G$.

If $f \notin \text{Aut}(G)$, then there are $c, d \in V$ witnessing this.

Adding constants

Let $f : G \rightarrow G$.

If $f \notin \text{Aut}(G)$, then there are $c, d \in V$ witnessing this.

Fact.

The structure $(V; E, c, d)$ has similar Ramsey properties as $(V; E)$.

Adding constants

Let $f : G \rightarrow G$.

If $f \notin \text{Aut}(G)$, then there are $c, d \in V$ witnessing this.

Fact.

The structure $(V; E, c, d)$ has similar Ramsey properties as $(V; E)$.

Consider f as a function from $(V; E, c, d)$ to $(V; E)$.

Adding constants

Let $f : G \rightarrow G$.

If $f \notin \text{Aut}(G)$, then there are $c, d \in V$ witnessing this.

Fact.

The structure $(V; E, c, d)$ has similar Ramsey properties as $(V; E)$.

Consider f as a function from $(V; E, c, d)$ to $(V; E)$.

Again, f is canonical on arbitrarily large finite substructures of $(V; E, c, d)$.

Adding constants

Let $f : G \rightarrow G$.

If $f \notin \text{Aut}(G)$, then there are $c, d \in V$ witnessing this.

Fact.

The structure $(V; E, c, d)$ has similar Ramsey properties as $(V; E)$.

Consider f as a function from $(V; E, c, d)$ to $(V; E)$.

Again, f is canonical on arbitrarily large finite substructures of $(V; E, c, d)$.

We can assume that it shows the *same* behavior on all these substructures.

Adding constants

Let $f : G \rightarrow G$.

If $f \notin \text{Aut}(G)$, then there are $c, d \in V$ witnessing this.

Fact.

The structure $(V; E, c, d)$ has similar Ramsey properties as $(V; E)$.

Consider f as a function from $(V; E, c, d)$ to $(V; E)$.

Again, f is canonical on arbitrarily large finite substructures of $(V; E, c, d)$.

We can assume that it shows the *same* behavior on all these substructures.

By topological closure, f generates a function which:

- behaves like f on $\{c, d\}$, and
- is canonical as a function from $(V; E, c, d)$ to $(V; E)$.

The minimal monoids on the random graph

Theorem (Thomas '96)

Let $f : G \rightarrow G$ a function
which does not locally look like an automorphism.

(that is, it violates at least one edge or a non-edge.)

Then f generates one of the following:

- A constant operation
- e_E
- e_N
- —
- SW_C

The minimal monoids on the random graph

Theorem (Thomas '96)

Let $f : G \rightarrow G$ a function
which does not locally look like an automorphism.

(that is, it violates at least one edge or a non-edge.)

Then f generates one of the following:

- A constant operation
- e_E
- e_N
- —
- SW_C

We thus know the *minimal closed monoids* containing $\text{Aut}(G)$.

The minimal clones on the random graph

Theorem (Bodirsky, P. '10)

Let f be a finitary operation on G which does not locally look like an automorphism.

(that is, either f depends on at least two variables, or f violates an edge or a non-edge.)

Then f generates one of the following:

- One of the five minimal unary functions of the previous theorem;
- One of 9 canonical binary injections.

The minimal clones on the random graph

Theorem (Bodirsky, P. '10)

Let f be a finitary operation on G which does not locally look like an automorphism.

(that is, either f depends on at least two variables, or f violates an edge or a non-edge.)

Then f generates one of the following:

- One of the five minimal unary functions of the previous theorem;
- One of 9 canonical binary injections.

We thus know the *minimal closed clones* containing $\text{Aut}(G)$.

The minimal clones on the random graph

Theorem (Bodirsky, P. '10)

Let f be a finitary operation on G which does not locally look like an automorphism.

(that is, either f depends on at least two variables, or f violates an edge or a non-edge.)

Then f generates one of the following:

- One of the five minimal unary functions of the previous theorem;
- One of 9 canonical binary injections.

We thus know the *minimal closed clones* containing $\text{Aut}(G)$.

More involved argument: Extend G by a random dense linear order.

Ramsey classes

Ramsey classes

Let S, H, P be structures in the same signature τ .

$$S \rightarrow (H)^P$$

means:

Ramsey classes

Let S, H, P be structures in the same signature τ .

$$S \rightarrow (H)^P$$

means:

For any coloring of the copies of P in S with 2 colors
there exists a copy of H in S
such that the copies of P in H all have the same color.

Ramsey classes

Let S, H, P be structures in the same signature τ .

$$S \rightarrow (H)^P$$

means:

For any coloring of the copies of P in S with 2 colors
there exists a copy of H in S
such that the copies of P in H all have the same color.

Definition

A class \mathcal{C} of τ -structures is called a *Ramsey class* iff
for all $H, P \in \mathcal{C}$ there exists S in \mathcal{C} such that $S \rightarrow (H)^P$.

Canonical functions on Ramsey structures

Let Δ now be an arbitrary structure.

Canonical functions on Ramsey structures

Let Δ now be an arbitrary structure.

Definition

$f : \Delta \rightarrow \Delta$ is *canonical* iff

for all tuples $(x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ of the same type
 $(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n))$ and $(f(y_1), \dots, f(y_n))$ have the same type too.

Canonical functions on Ramsey structures

Let Δ now be an arbitrary structure.

Definition

$f : \Delta \rightarrow \Delta$ is *canonical* iff

for all tuples $(x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ of the same type $(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n))$ and $(f(y_1), \dots, f(y_n))$ have the same type too.

Observation. If Δ is

- Ramsey
- ordered
- ω -categorical,

then all finite substructures of Δ have a copy in Δ on which f is canonical.

Canonical functions on Ramsey structures

Let Δ now be an arbitrary structure.

Definition

$f : \Delta \rightarrow \Delta$ is *canonical* iff

for all tuples $(x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ of the same type $(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n))$ and $(f(y_1), \dots, f(y_n))$ have the same type too.

Observation. If Δ is

- Ramsey
- ordered
- ω -categorical,

then all finite substructures of Δ have a copy in Δ on which f is canonical.

Thus: If Δ is in addition **homogeneous** in a finite language, then any $f : \Delta \rightarrow \Delta$ generates a canonical function,

Canonical functions on Ramsey structures

Let Δ now be an arbitrary structure.

Definition

$f : \Delta \rightarrow \Delta$ is *canonical* iff

for all tuples $(x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ of the same type $(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n))$ and $(f(y_1), \dots, f(y_n))$ have the same type too.

Observation. If Δ is

- Ramsey
- ordered
- ω -categorical,

then all finite substructures of Δ have a copy in Δ on which f is canonical.

Thus: If Δ is in addition **homogeneous** in a finite language, then any $f : \Delta \rightarrow \Delta$ generates a canonical function, **but it could be the identity**.

What we would like to do...

What we would like to do...

We would like to fix c_1, \dots, c_n witnessing $f \notin \text{Aut}(\Gamma)$,
and have canonical behavior of f as a function
from $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ to Γ .

What we would like to do...

We would like to fix c_1, \dots, c_n witnessing $f \notin \text{Aut}(\Gamma)$,
and have canonical behavior of f as a function
from $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ to Γ .

Why don't you just do it?

Adding constants to Ramsey classes

Problem

If Γ is Ramsey, is $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ still Ramsey?

Adding constants to Ramsey classes

Problem

If Γ is Ramsey, is $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ still Ramsey?

Theorem (Kechris, Pestov, Todorcevic '05)

An ordered homogeneous structure Δ is Ramsey iff its automorphism group is *extremely amenable*, i.e., it has a fixed point whenever it acts on a compact Hausdorff space.

Adding constants to Ramsey classes

Problem

If Γ is Ramsey, is $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ still Ramsey?

Theorem (Kechris, Pestov, Todorcevic '05)

An ordered homogeneous structure Δ is Ramsey iff its automorphism group is *extremely amenable*, i.e., it has a fixed point whenever it acts on a compact Hausdorff space.

Observation

Every open subgroup of an extremely amenable group is extremely amenable.

Adding constants to Ramsey classes

Problem

If Γ is Ramsey, is $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ still Ramsey?

Theorem (Kechris, Pestov, Todorcevic '05)

An ordered homogeneous structure Δ is Ramsey iff its automorphism group is *extremely amenable*, i.e., it has a fixed point whenever it acts on a compact Hausdorff space.

Observation

Every open subgroup of an extremely amenable group is extremely amenable.

Corollary

If Γ is ordered, homogeneous, and Ramsey, then so is $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$.

Minimal monoids above Ramsey structures

Thus: If Γ is ordered Ramsey, $f : \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma$, and $c_1, \dots, c_n \in \Gamma$, then f generates a function which

- is canonical as a function from $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ to Γ
- behaves like f on $\{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$.

Minimal monoids above Ramsey structures

Thus: If Γ is ordered Ramsey, $f : \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma$, and $c_1, \dots, c_n \in \Gamma$, then f generates a function which

- is canonical as a function from $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ to Γ
- behaves like f on $\{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$.

Theorem (Bodirsky, P., Tsankov '10)

Let Γ be a reduct of a finite language homogeneous ordered Ramsey structure Δ . Then:

Minimal monoids above Ramsey structures

Thus: If Γ is ordered Ramsey, $f : \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma$, and $c_1, \dots, c_n \in \Gamma$, then f generates a function which

- is canonical as a function from $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ to Γ
- behaves like f on $\{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$.

Theorem (Bodirsky, P., Tsankov '10)

Let Γ be a reduct of a finite language homogeneous ordered Ramsey structure Δ . Then:

- Every minimal closed supermonoid of $\text{End}(\Gamma)$ is generated by such a canonical function.

Minimal monoids above Ramsey structures

Thus: If Γ is ordered Ramsey, $f : \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma$, and $c_1, \dots, c_n \in \Gamma$, then f generates a function which

- is canonical as a function from $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ to Γ
- behaves like f on $\{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$.

Theorem (Bodirsky, P., Tsankov '10)

Let Γ be a reduct of a finite language homogeneous ordered Ramsey structure Δ . Then:

- Every minimal closed supermonoid of $\text{End}(\Gamma)$ is generated by such a canonical function.
- If Γ has a finite language, then there are finitely many minimal closed supermonoids of $\text{End}(\Gamma)$.

Minimal monoids above Ramsey structures

Thus: If Γ is ordered Ramsey, $f : \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma$, and $c_1, \dots, c_n \in \Gamma$, then f generates a function which

- is canonical as a function from $(\Gamma, c_1, \dots, c_n)$ to Γ
- behaves like f on $\{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$.

Theorem (Bodirsky, P., Tsankov '10)

Let Γ be a reduct of a finite language homogeneous ordered Ramsey structure Δ . Then:

- Every minimal closed supermonoid of $\text{End}(\Gamma)$ is generated by such a canonical function.
- If Γ has a finite language, then there are finitely many minimal closed supermonoids of $\text{End}(\Gamma)$.
- Every closed supermonoid of $\text{End}(\Gamma)$ contains a minimal closed supermonoid of $\text{End}(\Gamma)$.

Minimal clones above Ramsey structures

Going to products of Γ , we get:

Going to products of Γ , we get:

Theorem (Bodirsky, P., Tsankov '10)

Let Γ be a reduct of a finite language homogeneous ordered Ramsey structure Δ . Then:

Going to products of Γ , we get:

Theorem (Bodirsky, P., Tsankov '10)

Let Γ be a reduct of a finite language homogeneous ordered Ramsey structure Δ . Then:

- Every minimal closed superclone of $\text{Pol}(\Gamma)$ is generated by such a canonical function.

Going to products of Γ , we get:

Theorem (Bodirsky, P., Tsankov '10)

Let Γ be a reduct of a finite language homogeneous ordered Ramsey structure Δ . Then:

- Every minimal closed superclone of $\text{Pol}(\Gamma)$ is generated by such a canonical function.
- If Γ has a finite language, then there are finitely many minimal closed superclones of $\text{Pol}(\Gamma)$.

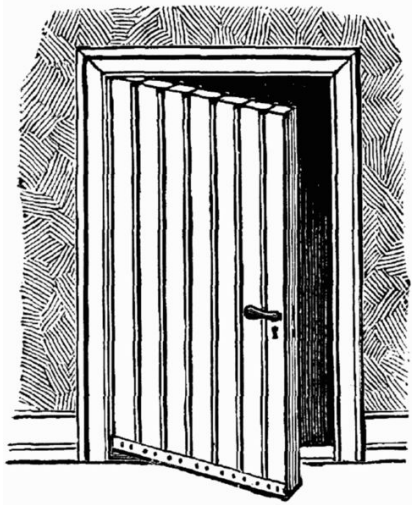
(Arity bound!)

Going to products of Γ , we get:

Theorem (Bodirsky, P., Tsankov '10)

Let Γ be a reduct of a finite language homogeneous ordered Ramsey structure Δ . Then:

- Every minimal closed superclone of $\text{Pol}(\Gamma)$ is generated by such a canonical function.
- If Γ has a finite language, then there are finitely many minimal closed superclones of $\text{Pol}(\Gamma)$.
(Arity bound!)
- Every closed superclone of $\text{Pol}(\Gamma)$ contains a minimal closed superclone of $\text{Pol}(\Gamma)$.



What we can do
and
what we cannot do

What we can do

What we can do

- Climb up the monoid and clone lattices

What we can do

- Climb up the monoid and clone lattices
- Decide pp and ep interdefinability:

What we can do

- Climb up the monoid and clone lattices
- Decide pp and ep interdefinability:

Theorem (Bodirsky, P., Tsankov '10)

Let Δ be

- ordered
- homogeneous
- Ramsey
- with finite language
- *finitely bounded*.

Then the following problem is decidable:

INPUT: Two finite language reducts Γ, Γ' of Δ .

QUESTION: Are Γ, Γ' pp (ep-) interdefinable?

What we cannot do

What we cannot do

We do not know how to:

What we cannot do

We do not know how to:

- Climb up the permutation group lattice

What we cannot do

We do not know how to:

- Climb up the permutation group lattice
- Decide fo-interdefinability

What we cannot do

We do not know how to:

- Climb up the permutation group lattice
- Decide fo-interdefinability

Open problems:

What we cannot do

We do not know how to:

- Climb up the permutation group lattice
- Decide fo-interdefinability

Open problems:

- Does Thomas' conjecture hold in the ordered Ramsey context?

What we cannot do

We do not know how to:

- Climb up the permutation group lattice
- Decide fo-interdefinability

Open problems:

- Does Thomas' conjecture hold in the ordered Ramsey context?
- Is the **ordered Ramsey context** really a proper special case of the **homogeneous in a finite language context**?

What we cannot do

We do not know how to:

- Climb up the permutation group lattice
- Decide fo-interdefinability

Open problems:

- Does Thomas' conjecture hold in the ordered Ramsey context?
- Is the **ordered Ramsey context** really a proper special case of the **homogeneous in a finite language context**?
- Is fo-interdefinability decidable?

Reducts of Ramsey structures

by Manuel Bodirsky and Michael Pinsker

