

## Combinatorics and quantifiers

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*Abstract.* Let  $\binom{I}{m}$  be the set of subsets of  $I$  of cardinality  $m$ . Let  $f$  be a coloring of  $\binom{I}{m}$  and  $g$  a coloring of  $\binom{I}{m}$ . We write  $f \rightarrow g$  if every  $f$ -homogeneous  $H \subseteq I$  is also  $g$ -homogeneous. The least  $m$  such that  $f \rightarrow g$  for some  $f : \binom{I}{m} \rightarrow k$  is called the  $k$ -width of  $g$  and denoted by  $w_k(g)$ . In the first part of the paper we prove the existence of colorings with high  $k$ -width. In particular, we show that for each  $k > 0$  and  $m > 0$  there is a coloring  $g$  with  $w_k(g) = m$ . In the second part of the paper we give applications of wide colorings in the theory of generalized quantifiers. In particular, we show that for every monadic similarity type  $t = (1, \dots, 1)$  there is a generalized quantifier of type  $t$  which is not definable in terms of a finite number of generalized quantifiers of a smaller type.

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### 1. The width of a coloring

Let  $\binom{I}{m}$  be the set of all subsets of  $I$  of cardinality  $m$ . (Thus  $\binom{I}{m} = \emptyset$  for  $|I| < m$ .) The set  $I$  is thought to be either infinite or a large finite set. A mapping  $f : \binom{I}{m} \rightarrow k$ , where  $k$  is finite, is called a *coloring*. A set  $H \subseteq I$  is called  *$f$ -homogeneous* if  $f$  restricted to the set  $\binom{H}{m}$  is a constant mapping.

Let  $f$  be a coloring of  $\binom{I}{m}$  and  $g$  a coloring of  $\binom{I}{n}$ . The following is the principal relation investigated in this paper: We write  $f \rightarrow g$  if every  $f$ -homogeneous  $H \subseteq I$  is  $g$ -homogeneous.

One can easily see that the relation “ $\rightarrow$ ” is a quasiorder. Observe also that for  $m > n$  the relation  $f \rightarrow g$  implies that  $g$  is a constant mapping. Thus for  $m \neq n$  the relation  $f \rightarrow g \rightarrow f$  is equivalent to both  $f$  and  $g$  being constant (i.e.  $|I|$  being both  $f$ - and  $g$ -homogeneous). Because of this we assume  $m \leq n$  when considering the relation  $f \rightarrow g$ .

Here is another less trivial example: If

$$g(\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}) = f(\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m\}),$$

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whenever  $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\} \in \binom{I}{n}$  and  $\alpha_1 < \dots < \alpha_n$ , then  $f \rightarrow g$ .

The least  $m$  such that  $f \rightarrow g$  for some  $f : \binom{I}{m} \rightarrow k$  is called the  $k$ -width of  $g$  and denoted by  $w_k(g)$ . If  $I$  is infinite, then the width  $w(g)$  of  $g$  is the number  $\min_{k < \omega} w_k(g)$ .

The main question we study in this chapter is: *How to construct wide colorings?*

First we consider the first non-trivial case of the width, i.e. 1. We can think of a 2-coloring  $g : \binom{I}{n} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  as a hypergraph  $G = (I, E)$ , where  $E$  is the set of sets with color 1. In this case we denote  $G$  by  $\hat{g}$ . The *cochromatic* number  $z(G)$  of an  $n$ -uniform hypergraph is the least  $k$  so that for some  $k$ -coloring of  $G$  every color class is either edgefree or complete ([4]). (A set  $K$  is complete in  $(I, E)$  if  $\binom{K}{n} \subseteq E$ .) We use  $\chi(G)$  to denote the chromatic number of  $G$ .

**Theorem 1.** *The following conditions are equivalent for any 2-coloring  $g$  of  $\binom{I}{n}$ ,  $|I|$  infinite, and any  $k$ :*

- (1)  $w_k(g) \leq 1$ .
- (2)  $z(\hat{g}) \leq k$ .
- (3) *There are complete subgraphs  $H_1, \dots, H_l$ ,  $l \leq k$ , so that if they are removed from  $\hat{g}$ , leaving  $H$ , then  $\chi(H) \leq k - l$ .*

PROOF: To prove that (1) implies (2), suppose an  $f$  witnessing (1) exists. Then  $f$  colors  $\hat{g}$  with  $k$  colors. If some color class is neither edgefree nor complete, then  $f \not\rightarrow g$ . Hence  $z(\hat{g}) \leq k$ . It is obvious that (2) implies (1). To prove that (2) implies (3), suppose  $f$  is a  $k'$ -coloring of  $\hat{g}$ , witnessing  $z(\hat{g}) = k' \leq k$ . Remove the  $l$  ( $\leq k'$ ) complete color classes from  $\hat{g}$ , obtaining  $H$ . The remaining ones are edgefree. Hence  $\chi(H) \leq k' - l \leq k - l$ . Finally, to prove that (3) implies (1), suppose  $H$  is as in (3). Suppose  $f$  is a  $k-l$ -coloring of  $H$  witnessing  $\chi(H) \leq k-l$ . Extend  $f$  to the  $l$  removed cliques getting a  $k$ -coloring  $f'$  of  $\hat{g}$ . Thus  $z(\hat{g}) \leq k$ . □

**Corollary 2.** *The following conditions are equivalent for any 2-coloring  $g$  of  $\binom{I}{n}$ ,  $|I|$  infinite:*

- (1)  $w(g) \leq 1$ .
- (2)  $z(\hat{g}) < \omega$ .
- (3) *There are complete subgraphs  $H_1, \dots, H_l$ ,  $l < \omega$ , so that if they are removed from  $\hat{g}$ , leaving  $H$ , then  $\chi(H) < \omega$ .*

Using the above characterization we get numerous explicit examples of 2-colorings  $g$  of  $\binom{\omega}{n}$  of width 2.

**Example 3.** Let  $n \geq 2$  and let  $\{A_i : i \in \omega\}$  be a partition of  $\omega$  into infinitely many infinite classes. Let

$$g(\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \subseteq A_i \text{ for some } i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then  $\hat{g}$  is an infinite union of infinite cliques, hence  $z(\hat{g}) = \omega$ , and therefore  $w(g) \geq 2$ , for every  $n \geq 2$ . Actually, it is easy to see that  $w(g) = 2$ . For example, if we let

$$g(\{x, y\}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \text{ and } y \text{ have the same least prime factor,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

then  $w(g) = 2$ .

**Example 4.** Let  $n \geq 2$  and let  $\{A_i : i \in \omega\}$  be a partition of  $\omega$  so that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (|A_i| - i) = \infty$ . Let

$$g(\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \subseteq A_i \text{ for some } i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then  $z(\hat{g}) = \omega$ , and therefore  $w(g) \geq 2$  for every  $n \geq 2$ . Again, it is easy to see that  $w(g) = 2$ . For example, we could choose

$$g(\{x, y\}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \lfloor \sqrt{x} \rfloor = \lfloor \sqrt{y} \rfloor. \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and then  $w(g) = 2$ .

**Example 5.** Suppose  $G$  is the union of  $G_i = (G_i, E_i)$ ,  $i < \omega$ , so that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z(G_i) = \infty$ . Let

$$g(\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \in E_i \text{ for some } i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then  $z(\hat{g}) = \omega$ , and therefore  $w(g) \geq 2$ . For example, we could have

$$g(\{x, y\}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \leq y \leq 2^x, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and then  $w(g) = 2$ .

Now we discuss width 3. Although more complicated we still have a large variety of width 3 colorings.

**Theorem 6.** *Suppose*

$$g(\{x, y, z\}) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x < y < z < \omega \text{ and } y - x < z - y, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

*Then  $w(g) = 3$ .*

**PROOF:** Let us suppose first the following Ramsey type result:

(\*) For any  $c$  there is an  $n$  so that for any coloring of  $[n]^2$  with  $c$  colors there is a homogeneous set  $\{x_1 < \dots < x_4\}$  with

$$x_2 - x_1 < x_4 - x_3 < x_3 - x_2.$$

Then the theorem follows: Suppose a coloring  $f$  of  $\binom{\omega}{2}$  is given with  $f \rightarrow g$ . Choose a large  $n$  and an  $f$ -homogeneous set  $\{x_1 < \dots < x_4\}$  with

$$x_2 - x_1 < x_4 - x_3 < x_3 - x_2.$$

Then the set  $\{x_1, \dots, x_4\}$  is not  $g$ -homogeneous. □

The second author was not able to prove (\*) and discussed the matter with Joel Spencer. Very soon Noga Alon [1] proved a stronger result. We present it here, with the kind permission of Noga Alon. For more on this theorem, see [11], where a doubly exponential upper bound is achieved.

Suppose  $x_1 < \dots < x_n$  are natural numbers. Let  $y_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$  for  $i = 2, \dots, n$ . For a permutation  $\sigma$  of  $[2, n]$  we say that  $x_1 < \dots < x_n$  has *type*  $\sigma$  provided that  $y_{\sigma 1} < \dots < y_{\sigma n}$ .

**Theorem 7** ([1]). *For any  $k_1, \dots, k_r$  and any permutations  $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r$  of  $[2, k_1], \dots, [2, k_r]$  there is  $n$  so that in any  $r$ -coloring of  $\binom{n}{2}$  for some  $i$ , there is a homogeneous set of color  $i$ , of size  $k_i$  and of type  $\sigma_i$ .*

PROOF: We use induction on the sum  $k_1 + \dots + k_r$ . Let  $l$  be large enough so that the claim holds for  $K_l$  and any sequence with smaller sum. Assume  $n$  is large. Let  $N_1, \dots, N_l$  be disjoint intervals of integers  $< n$  so that each has length about  $\frac{n}{6l}$  and they are at least  $\frac{n}{3l}$  apart from each other. Let  $f$  be a fixed  $r$ -coloring of  $\binom{n}{2}$ . Define a coloring  $c$  of  $B = N_1 \times \dots \times N_l$  by letting the color of  $(x_1, \dots, x_l)$  code the colors of all pairs  $\{x_i, x_j\}$ . Thus  $c$  uses  $r \binom{l}{2}$  colors. If we chose  $n$  large enough, then Gallai-Witt's Theorem implies that there are arithmetic progressions  $A_i \subseteq N_i$ ,  $|A_i| = l$ , so that every  $(x_1, \dots, x_l) \in A_1 \times \dots \times A_l$  has the same color. We now have an induced coloring  $\chi$  of  $\binom{l}{2}$ : If  $i \neq j$  are in  $[l]$ , we let the color of  $\{i, j\}$  be the color of any edge between  $A_i$  and  $A_j$ . We shall apply the induction hypothesis to the coloring  $\chi$ . For this purpose we reduce each permutation  $\sigma_i$  to a permutation  $\sigma'_i$  of  $[3, k_i]$  by leaving out number 2 from  $\text{dom}(\sigma_i)$ . The induction hypothesis gives a color  $j$ , call it red, and a monochromatic sequence  $i_2, \dots, i_{k_j}$  so that any edge between  $A_{i_u}$  and  $A_{i_v}$  is red. Let  $\sigma_j(2) = a$ .

**Case 1:** There are elements  $b < c$  in  $A_a$  so that the edge between them is red. Let  $b_u \in A_u$  for  $u \neq a$ . Then the homogeneous set  $\{b_u : u = 1, \dots, k_j, u \neq a\} \cup \{b, c\}$  has type  $\sigma_j$ .

**Case 2:** There are no elements  $b < c$  in  $A_a$  so that the edge between them is red. In this case we have reduced the number of colors by one, and we can use induction hypothesis to the arithmetic progression  $A_a$  of length  $l$ . □

The following result gives an alternative construction of a coloring  $g$  of width 3 in the spirit of the proof in [9]:

**Theorem 8.** For each  $k$  there are  $N$  and  $g : \binom{N}{3} \rightarrow 2$  so that  $w_k(g) = 3$ .

PROOF: Choose  $n$  so that  $2^{n-1} > k$ . Let  $N$  be large. We consider the cartesian product  $N^n$ . For  $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ ,  $\vec{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in N^n$ , let  $s(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = (t_1, \dots, t_n)$ , where  $t_i = +$  if  $x_i < y_i$  and  $t_i = -$ , if  $x_i \geq y_i$ . Let  $t(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \{s(\vec{x}, \vec{y}), s(\vec{y}, \vec{x})\}$ . Define  $g : \binom{N^n}{3} \rightarrow 2$  by

$$g(\{\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z}\}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = t(\vec{y}, \vec{z}) = t(\vec{x}, \vec{z}), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Suppose  $f : \binom{N^n}{2} \rightarrow k$  is arbitrary. By Ramsey's Theorem there are  $C_1, \dots, C_n$  so that  $|C_i| \geq 4$  and  $f(\{\vec{x}, \vec{y}\})$  depends on  $t(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$  only for distinct  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in C_1 \times \dots \times C_n$ . Say

$$f(\{\vec{x}, \vec{y}\}) = \pi(t(\vec{x}, \vec{y})).$$

Since there are  $2^{n-1}$  sets of the form  $t(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$  and only  $k$  colors, there are two sets  $T_1 \neq T_2$  with  $\pi(T_1) = \pi(T_2)$ . It is easy to construct  $\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_4 \in C_1 \times \dots \times C_n$  so that  $t(\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2) = t(\vec{x}_2, \vec{x}_3) = t(\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_3) = T_1$ , but  $t(\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_4) = T_2$ . Hence  $\{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_4\}$  is  $f$ -homogeneous but not  $g$ -homogeneous.  $\square$

When we look for colorings of width  $> 3$ , there is a "very simple" argument on uncountable domains: Let  $\text{exp}_0(\kappa) = \kappa$  and  $\text{exp}_{n+1}(\kappa) = 2^{\text{exp}_n(\kappa)}$ .

**Theorem 9.** Let  $\kappa = (\text{exp}_{n-1}(\omega))^+$ . For every  $n$  there is a coloring  $g : \binom{\kappa}{n+1} \rightarrow 2$  so that  $w(g) = n + 1$ .

PROOF: We may assume  $n > 0$ . It is known that

$$\kappa \not\rightarrow (\aleph_1)_2^{n+1}.$$

Let  $g$  be a coloring of  $[\kappa]^{n+1}$  with two colors but without an uncountable homogeneous set. Suppose  $f \rightarrow g$  for some  $f : \binom{\kappa}{n} \rightarrow \omega$ . By the Erdős-Rado theorem

$$\kappa \rightarrow (\aleph_1)_\omega^n$$

we can find an uncountable  $H \subseteq \kappa$ , which is  $f$ -homogeneous. This set  $H$  cannot, however, be  $g$ -homogeneous, as  $g$  has no uncountable homogeneous sets whatsoever.  $\square$

For finite domains the problem is not so simple and we have to invoke the Structural Ramsey Theorem, see [10] [8]. The Structural Ramsey Theorem implies the validity of Ramsey theorem for partitions of substructures (such as  $n$ -sets) and guarantees a homogeneous (induced) substructure (such as  $\binom{n+2}{n}$  with an extra  $(n + 1)$ -tuple) while avoiding a given irreducible structure (such as  $\binom{n+2}{n+1}$ ). In the following proof we use a very special form of this result:

**Theorem 10.** For each  $n$  and  $k$  there is  $g : \binom{\omega}{n+1} \rightarrow 2$  so that  $w_k(g) = n + 1$ .

PROOF: By [10] there are  $M \subseteq \binom{\omega}{n}$  and  $M' \subseteq \binom{\omega}{n+1}$  so that:

1. For each  $k$  and for each  $f : M \rightarrow k$  there exists an  $f$ -homogeneous  $Y \subseteq \omega$  with  $|Y| = n + 2$  and  $\binom{Y}{n+1} \cap M' \neq \emptyset$ .
2. If  $Y \subseteq \omega$  with  $|Y| = n + 2$ , then  $\binom{Y}{n+1} \not\subseteq M'$ .

We define  $g : \binom{\omega}{n+1} \rightarrow k$  by  $g(\{x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}\}) = 1$ , if  $\{x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}\} \in M'$ , and  $g(\{x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}\}) = 0$  otherwise. To prove that  $g$  is the coloring we need, suppose  $f : \binom{\omega}{n} \rightarrow k$  is arbitrary. Let  $Y$  be as in condition 1 above. By condition 2,  $Y$  is not  $g$ -homogeneous. □

### 2. Definability of generalized quantifiers

A *unary structure*  $\mathbf{A} = (A, P_1, \dots, P_n)$  consists of a set  $A$  together with some subsets  $P_1, \dots, P_n$  of  $A$ . We call the number  $n$  the *width* of  $\mathbf{A}$ . We denote the class of all unary structures of width  $n$  by  $\text{Str}(n)$ . The unary structure  $\mathbf{A}$  is called *basic* if the subsets  $P_1, \dots, P_n$  are disjoint. We can associate with a unary structure  $\mathbf{A}$  of width  $n$  a basic structure of width  $2^n - 1$  by considering intersections of the sets  $P_i$  and their complements. The old subsets and the new subsets are definable from each other in an obvious way.

A *unary quantifier* of width  $n$  is any collection  $Q$  of unary structures of width  $n$  so that  $Q$  is closed under isomorphisms. If  $Q$  consists of basic structures, it is called *basic*. This concept is due to Mostowski [7] for  $n = 1$  and to Lindström [5] for  $n > 1$ .

Here are some examples of unary quantifiers:

1.  $\exists = \{(A, P) : \emptyset \neq P \subseteq A\}$  and  $\forall = \{(A, P) : P = A\}$  are basic unary quantifiers of width 1.
2.  $Q_\alpha = \{(A, P) : P \subseteq A, |P| \geq \aleph_\alpha\}$  is a unary quantifier of width 1.
3. The *Rescher-quantifier*  $J = \{(A, B, C) : B, C \subseteq A, |B| \leq |C|\}$  is a unary quantifier of width 2. The related quantifier  $J' = \{(A, B, C, D) : A, B, C \text{ and } D \text{ disjoint, } |B \cup C| \leq |C \cup D|\}$  is a basic unary quantifier of width 3. Note that

$$(A, B, C) \in J \iff (A, B \setminus C, B \cap C, C \setminus B) \in J'$$

and

$$(A, B, C, D) \in J' \iff (A, B \cup C, C \cup D) \in J.$$

The *definability* of one quantifier in terms of others is defined by introducing a formal language (following [5] and [7]). We present an outline of the definition of this language for completeness:

**Definition 11.** Suppose  $Q_1, \dots, Q_n$  are quantifier of widths  $m_1, \dots, m_n$ , respectively. The first order language with the unary quantifiers  $Q_1, \dots, Q_n$ , in symbols  $\mathcal{L}_{\omega\omega}(Q_1, \dots, Q_n)$  consists of atomic formulas  $x_i = x_j$ ,  $\mathbf{P}_i(x_j)$  and the

combined formulas obtained by conjunction  $\phi \wedge \psi$ , negation  $\neg\phi$ , existential quantification  $\exists x_i\phi$  and  $Q_i$ -quantification  $\mathbf{Q}_i x_1 \dots x_{n_i} \phi_1 \dots \phi_{n_i}$ . The truth  $\mathbf{A} \models \phi(\mathbf{a})$ ,  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_m)$ , of a formula  $\phi(x, \dots, x_m)$  in a structure  $\mathbf{A} = (A, P_1, P_2, \dots)$  under the interpretation  $x_i \mapsto a_i$  of variables is defined with the conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} \models (x_i = x_j)(\mathbf{a}) &\iff a_i = a_j, \\ \mathbf{A} \models \mathbf{P}_i(x_j)(\mathbf{a}) &\iff a_j \in P_i, \\ \mathbf{A} \models (\phi \wedge \psi)(\mathbf{a}) &\iff \mathbf{A} \models \phi(\mathbf{a}) \text{ and } \mathbf{A} \models \psi(\mathbf{a}), \\ \mathbf{A} \models (\neg\phi)(\mathbf{a}) &\iff \mathbf{A} \not\models \phi(\mathbf{a}), \\ \mathbf{A} \models \exists x\phi(x, \mathbf{a}) &\iff \{a \in A : \mathbf{A} \models \phi(a, \mathbf{a})\} \neq \emptyset \\ \mathbf{A} \models \mathbf{Q}_i x_1 \dots x_{m_i} \phi_1(x_1, \mathbf{a}) \dots \phi_{m_i}(x_{m_i}, \mathbf{a}) &\iff (A, R_1, \dots, R_{m_i}) \in Q_i, \\ &\text{where } R_j = \{a \in A : \mathbf{A} \models \phi_j(a, \mathbf{a})\}. \end{aligned}$$

A quantifier  $Q$  of width  $n$  is definable in terms of quantifiers  $Q_1, \dots, Q_m$  if there is a formula  $\phi$  in  $\mathcal{L}_{\omega\omega}(Q_1, \dots, Q_m)$  so that

$$Q = \{\mathbf{A} \in \text{Str}(n) : \mathbf{A} \models_{\mathbf{a}} \phi \text{ for all } \mathbf{a}\}.$$

For example, the quantifiers  $J$  and  $J'$  are definable in terms of each other. Indeed, every quantifier of width  $n$  is definable in terms of an obvious basic quantifier of width  $2^n - 1$ . This means that, up to definability, the width hierarchy of basic quantifiers is finer than that of quantifiers. The quantifiers correspond to levels  $1, 3, 7, 15, 31, 63, \dots, 2^n - 1, \dots$  of the hierarchy of basic quantifiers. The topic of this paper is the problem:

**The Unary Width Problem:** Construct for each  $n$  a basic unary quantifier of width  $n + 1$  which is not definable in terms of basic unary quantifiers of width  $n$ .

Let  $Q$  be a quantifier of width  $n$ . We define a coloring  $f_Q$  of  $\binom{\omega}{n}$  as follows: Suppose  $x = \{m_1, \dots, m_n\} \in \binom{\omega}{n}$  with  $m_1 < \dots < m_n$ . Let  $\mathbf{A}_x$  be a basic unary structure  $(A, P_1, \dots, P_n)$ , where  $|P_i| = \aleph_{m_i}$  and  $|A \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n P_i| = \aleph_\omega$ . Let

$$f_Q(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \mathbf{A}_x \in Q, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

**Proposition 12.** *Suppose  $Q$  is a basic unary quantifier. If  $Q$  is definable in terms of basic unary quantifiers of width  $n$ , then  $w(f_Q) \leq n$ .*

PROOF: Suppose  $Q$  is of width  $t$  and is definable by a sentence  $\phi$  of length  $k$  of  $\mathcal{L}_{\omega\omega}(Q_1, \dots, Q_m)$ , where  $Q_1, \dots, Q_m$  are basic unary quantifiers of width  $n$ . The quantifiers  $Q_1, \dots, Q_m$  and the number  $k$  give rise to a coloring  $g$  of  $\binom{\omega}{n}$  as follows. Let  $m_1 < \dots < m_n < \omega$ . For any function

$$\sigma : [0, n] \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, k + n' + 1\}$$

let  $\mathbf{B}_\sigma(m_1, \dots, m_{n'})$  be the unary structure  $(B, R_1, \dots, R_n)$ , where

$$|R_i| = \begin{cases} \sigma(i), & \text{if } \sigma(i) \leq k, \\ \aleph_{m_{\sigma(i)-k}}, & \text{if } k < \sigma(i) \leq k + n', \\ \aleph_\omega, & \text{if } \sigma(i) = k + n' + 1, \end{cases}$$

and

$$|B \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^{n'} R_i| = \begin{cases} \sigma(0), & \text{if } \sigma(0) \leq k, \\ \aleph_{m_{\sigma(0)-k}}, & \text{if } k < \sigma(0) \leq k + n', \\ \aleph_\omega, & \text{if } \sigma(0) = k + n' + 1. \end{cases}$$

We let the color  $g(\{m_1, \dots, m_n\})$  code all triples  $(\sigma, j, d)$ , where  $\sigma$  is as above,  $j = 1, \dots, m$  and

$$d = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \mathbf{B}_\sigma(m_1, \dots, m_n) \in Q_j, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

To prove  $g \rightarrow f_Q$ , suppose there is a subset  $H$  of  $\omega$  so that  $H$  is  $g$ -homogeneous but not  $f_Q$ -homogeneous. In particular, there are  $x = \{m_1 < \dots < m_t\} \subseteq H$  and  $y = \{m'_1 < \dots < m'_t\} \subseteq H$  so that  $f_Q(x) \neq f_Q(y)$ . Thus  $\mathbf{A}_x \in Q \iff \mathbf{A}_y \notin Q$ , and therefore

$$\mathbf{A}_x \models \phi \iff \mathbf{A}_y \not\models \phi.$$

Let  $\mathbf{A}_x = (A, P_1, \dots, P_t)$  and  $\mathbf{A}_y = (A', P'_1, \dots, P'_t)$ .

We now prove by induction on  $k$  the following

**Claim:** If the length of  $\psi(x_1, \dots, x_r)$  is at most  $k$  and  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_r)$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_r)$  are such that

$$a_i = a_j \iff b_i = b_j$$

and

$$a_i \in P_j \iff b_i \in P'_j,$$

then

$$\mathbf{A}_x \models \psi(a_1, \dots, a_r) \iff \mathbf{A}_y \models \psi(b_1, \dots, b_r).$$

The only interesting induction step is that arising from one of the quantifiers  $Q_j$ . Suppose therefore that  $\mathbf{A}_x \models \mathbf{Q}_j x_1 \dots x_n \phi_1(x_1, \mathbf{a}) \dots \phi_n(x_n, \mathbf{a})$ . Let  $R_i = \{a \in A : \mathbf{A}_x \models \phi_i(a, \mathbf{a})\}$  and  $R'_i = \{b \in A : \mathbf{A}_y \models \phi_i(b, \mathbf{b})\}$ . Let  $m_0 = m$ ,  $R_0 = A \setminus \bigcup_i R_i$ , and  $P_0 = A \setminus \bigcup_i P_i$ . Note that each set  $R_i$  is closed under automorphisms of  $\mathbf{A}_x$  that fix  $\mathbf{a}$  pointwise. Hence there is a mapping  $h : [0, t] \rightarrow [0, n]$  so that if  $S_i = \bigcup\{P_j : h(j) = i\}$ , then  $R_i \triangle S_i \subseteq \{a_1, \dots, a_r\}$ . If  $S'_i = \bigcup\{P'_j : h(j) = i\}$ , then, by Induction Hypothesis,  $R'_i \triangle S'_i \subseteq \{b_1, \dots, b_r\}$ . Note that



$|P_j| = \aleph_{m_j}$  and  $|S_i| = 0$  or  $|S_i| = \aleph_{m_i^*}$ , where  $m_i^* = \max\{m_j : h(j) = i\}$ . Similarly,  $|P'_j| = \aleph_{m'_j}$  and  $|S'_i| = 0$  or  $|S'_i| = \aleph_{m'^*_i}$ , where  $m'^*_i = \max\{m'_j : h(j) = i\}$ . Let  $\pi$  be a permutation of  $[0, n]$  with

$$S_{\pi i} = \emptyset \iff i \in \{1, \dots, l\}, \text{ and } m^*_{\pi(l+1)} < \dots < m^*_{\pi n} < m^*_{\pi 0} = \omega.$$

Then also

$$S'_{\pi i} = \emptyset \iff i \in \{1, \dots, l\}, \text{ and } m'^*_{\pi(l+1)} < \dots < m'^*_{\pi n} < m'^*_{\pi 0} = \omega.$$

We define  $\sigma : [0, n] \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, k + n - l + 1\}$  as follows:

$$\sigma(i) = \begin{cases} |R_i|, & \text{if } |R_i| \leq k, \\ k + \pi^{-1}(i), & \text{if } k < |R_i| < \aleph_\omega, \\ k + n - l + 1, & \text{if } |R_i| = \aleph_\omega. \end{cases}$$

Now,

$$(A, R_1, \dots, R_n) \cong \mathbf{B}_\sigma(m^*_{\pi(l+1)}, \dots, m^*_{\pi n}) \in Q_j.$$

Respectively,

$$(A, R'_1, \dots, R'_n) \cong \mathbf{B}_\sigma(m'^*_{\pi(l+1)}, \dots, m'^*_{\pi n}).$$

Since  $H$  is  $g$ -homogeneous,  $\mathbf{B}_\sigma(\beta^*_{\pi(l+1)}, \dots, \beta^*_{\pi n}) \in Q_j$ . Since  $Q_j$  is closed under isomorphisms, we have  $(A, R'_1, \dots, R'_n) \in Q_j$ , or equivalently,  $\mathbf{A}_y \models \mathbf{Q}_j x_1 \dots x_n \phi_1(x_1, \mathbf{b}) \dots \phi_n(x_n, \mathbf{b})$ .

By letting  $\psi(x_1, \dots, x_r)$  be the sentence  $\phi$  in the claim, we get a contradiction, and the theorem is proved.  $\square$

Lindström [5] proved that the Rescher-quantifier is not definable in terms of quantifiers of width 1. His proof was based on the observation that using the Rescher-quantifier one can define well-ordering implicitly, while this is not possible using quantifiers of width 1 only. Subsequently many unary quantifiers of width 2 have been shown to be undefinable in terms of quantifiers of width 1, even on finite structures (see [3], [12]). We can get many more by means of Theorem 1.

For example, the following basic unary quantifiers of width 2 are not definable in terms of basic unary quantifiers of width 1:

$$Q = \{(A, P_1, P_2) : P_1 \cap P_2 = \emptyset, \\ |A| = \aleph_\omega, |P_1| = \aleph_n, |P_2| = \aleph_m, \text{ and } S(n, m) \text{ holds}\},$$

where  $S(n, m)$  may be any of the following predicates:

$n$  and  $m$  have the same smallest prime factor

$$[\sqrt{n}] = [\sqrt{m}] \\ n \leq m \leq 2^n.$$

**Theorem 13.** *The basic quantifier  $Left = \{(A, B, C, D) : \text{there are more cardinals between } |B| \text{ and } |C| \text{ than between } |C| \text{ and } |D|\}$  of width 3 is not definable in terms of basic quantifiers of width 2.*

PROOF: Follows from Theorem 8. □

Suppose  $n > 1$  and let  $g_n$  be the coloring of width  $n$  given by Theorem 10. We define a basic unary quantifier  $R_n$  of width  $n$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{A} \models R_n x_1 \dots x_n \phi_1(x_1) \dots \phi_n(x_n)$$

if the formulas are pairwise disjoint and for some  $m_1 < \dots < m_n \in \omega$  so that  $g_n(\{m_1, \dots, m_n\}) = 1$  we have  $|\phi_1^{\mathbf{A}}| = \aleph_{m_1}, \dots, |\phi_n^{\mathbf{A}}| = \aleph_{m_n}$ .

**Theorem 14.** *The basic unary quantifier  $R_{n+1}$  of width  $n+1$  cannot be defined in terms of any finite number of basic unary quantifiers of width  $n$ .*

PROOF: Follows from Theorem 9. □

Theorem 14 gives a full solution to the Unary Width Problem. Other solutions have been obtained, independently, by Kerkko Luosto [6] and Per Lindström [13]. The proof of Lindström uses a counting argument and it gives the result on finite models, too. This method has been further developed in [2]. Other results about the Unary Width Problem on finite structures can be found in [3] and [12].

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