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Bruno Courcelle. Axiomatizations of betweenness in order-theoretic trees. 2019. hal-02205829v1

HAL Id: hal-02205829 https://hal.science/hal-02205829v1

Preprint submitted on 31 Jul 2019 (v1), last revised 21 Apr 2020 (v2)

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Axiomatizations of betweenness in order-theoretic trees

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February 22, 2019

Abstract

The ternary betweenness relation of a tree, B(x, y, z), indicates that y is on the unique path between x and z. This notion can be extended to order-theoretic trees defined as partial orders such that the set of nodes greater than any node is linearly ordered. In such generalized trees, the unique "path" between two nodes can have infinitely many nodes.

We generalize some results obtained in a previous article for the betweenness of *join-trees*. Join-trees are order-theoretic trees such that any two nodes have a least upper-bound. The motivation was to define conveniently the rank-width of a countable graph. We have called *quasi-tree* the betweenness relation of a join-tree. We proved that quasi-trees are axiomatized by a first-order sentence.

Here, we obtain a monadic second-order axiomatization of betweenness in order-theoretic trees. We also define and compare several *induced betweenness relations*, *i.e.*, restrictions to sets of nodes of the betweenness relations in generalized trees of different kinds. We prove that induced betweenness in quasi-trees is characterized by a first-order sentence. The proof uses order-theoretic trees.

All trees and related structures are finite or countably infinite.

Keywords: Betweenness, order-theoretic tree, join-tree, first-order logic, monadic second-order logic, quasi-tree.

Introduction

In order to define the rank-width of a countable graph in such a way that it be the least upper-bound of those of its finite induced subgraphs, we defined in [3] generalized undirected trees called *quasi-trees* such that the unique path between any two nodes can have infinitely many nodes, in particular, can have the order-type of the interval [0, 1] of rational numbers. A related notion is that of an *order-theoretic tree* defined as a partial order such that the set of nodes greater than any node is linearly ordered. It is a *join-tree* if any two nodes have a least upper-bound. It may have no root, i.e., no largest element. Quasi-trees can be seen as undirected join-trees.

The betweenness relation of a usual tree is the ternary relation B, such that B(x,y,z) holds if and only if x,y,z are distinct and y is on the unique path between x and z. This notion can be generalized to order-theoretic trees. A quasi-tree is the betweenness relation of a (countable) join-tree, and quasi-trees are the countable structures (N,B) that satisfy (hence, are axiomatized by) a first-order sentence. We also obtained in [2,3] an algebraic characterization of the join-trees and quasi-trees that are the unique countable models of monadic-second order sentences. This type of characterization will be extended to order-theoretic trees in a future work. In this article, we obtain a monadic second-order axiomatization for betweenness in order-theoretic trees.

We also define and study several *induced betweenness relations*, i.e., the restrictions to sets of nodes of betweenness in generalized trees of different kinds. An induced betweenness in a quasi-tree need not be a quasi-tree. However, induced betweenness in quasi-trees is also characterized by a single first-order sentence, which does not follow immediately from the first-order characterization of quasi-trees by a general logical argument. The proof uses order-theoretic trees.

We distinguish four types of betweenness relations S = (N, B). In each case, such a structure S is defined from an order-theoretic tree T. Except for the case of induced betweenness in order-theoretic trees, some defining tree T can be described in S by monadic second-order formulas. In technical words, T is defined from S by a monadic second-order transduction (see [5] for a thorough study).

In order to obtain a concrete view of our generalized trees, we embed them in *topological trees*, defined as connected unions of straight half-lines in the plane that have no subset homeomorphic to a circle. Induced betweenness relations in topological trees and in quasi-trees are the same.

All trees and related structures (except lines in the plane in the definition of topological trees) are finite or countably infinite. We review definitions and notation in Section 1. We define four different notions of betweenness relations in Section 2 and we get first-order or monadic second-order axiomatizations for three of them. The case of induced betweenness in order-theoretic trees is left as a conjecture. We discuss whether monadic second-order transductions can produce witnessing trees from given betweenness structures. In Section 3, we

describe embeddings in topological trees. In an appendix we give an example of a first-order class of relational structures (actually of labelled graphs) whose induced substructures do not form a first-order (and even a monadic second-order) axiomatizable class.

1 Definitions and basic facts

All sets, trees, graphs and logical structures are countable, which means, finite or countably infinite. In some cases, we denote by $X \uplus Y$ the union of sets X and Y to insist that they are disjoint. Isomorphism of ordered sets, trees, graphs and other structures is denoted by \simeq . We denote by [n] the set of integers $\{1, ..., n\}$.

The arity of a relation R is $\rho(R)$. The restriction of a relation R defined on a set V to a subset X of V is denoted by R[X]. If S is an $\{R_1, ..., R_k\}$ -structure $(N, R_1, ..., R_k)$, then $S[X] := (X, R_1[X], ..., R_k[X])$.

The Gaifman graph of $S = (N, R_1, ..., R_k)$ has vertex set N and an edge between x and $y \neq x$ if and only if x and y belong to a same tuple of some relation R_i . We say that S is connected if its Gaifman graph is connected. If it is not, S is the disjoint union of connected structures, each of them corresponding to a connected component of its Gaifman graph.

A class of relational structures is *first-order* (resp. monadic second-order) axiomatzable if there exists a first-order (resp. a monadic second-order) sentence whose countable models form this class. See below Section 1.4 for details.

1.1 Partial orders

For partial orders $\leq, \preceq, \sqsubseteq, \ldots$ we denote respectively by $<, \prec, \sqsubseteq, \ldots$ the corresponding strict partial orders. We write $x \perp y$ if x and y are incomparable for the considered order.

Let (V, \leq) be a partial order. For $X, Y \subseteq V$, the notation X < Y means that x < y for every $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$. We write X < y instead of $X < \{y\}$ and similarly for x < Y. We use similar notation for \leq and \perp . The least upper-bound of x and y is denoted by $x \sqcup y$ if it exists and is called their *join*.

An interval X of (V, \leq) is a convex subset, i.e., $y \in X$ if x < y < z and $x, z \in X$. If $X \subseteq V$, then $N_{\leq}(X) := \{y \in V \mid y \leq x \text{ for every } x \in X\}$ (hence $N_{\leq}(X) \leq X$) and $\downarrow (X) := \{y \in V \mid y \leq x \text{ for some } x \in X\}$.

Let (N, \leq) and (N', \leq') be partial orders. An embedding $j: (N, \leq) \to (N', \leq')$ is an injective mapping such that $x \leq y$ if and only if $j(x) \leq' j(y)$; in this case, (N, \leq) is isomorphic by j to $(j(N), \leq'')$, where \leq'' is the restriction of \leq' to j(N); we will write more simply $(j(N), \leq')$. We say that j is a join-embedding if, furthermore, $j(x \sqcup y) = j(x) \sqcup' j(y)$ whenever $x \sqcup y$ is defined.

1.2 Trees

A tree is a countable, possibly empty, undirected graph that is connected and has no cycles. Hence, it has neither loops nor parallel edges. The set of nodes of a tree T is N_T .

A rooted tree is a nonempty tree equipped with a distinguished node called its root. We define on N_T the partial order \leq_T such that $x \leq_T y$ if and only if y is on the unique path between x and the root. The least upper-bound of x and y, denoted by $x \sqcup_T y$ is their least common ancestor. The minimal elements are the leaves, and the root is the greatest node.

We will specify a rooted tree T by (N_T, \leq_T) and we will omit the index T when the considered tree is clear.

A partial order (N, \leq) is (N_T, \leq_T) for some rooted tree T if and only if it has a largest element and, for each $x \in N$, the set $L_{\geq}(x) := \{y \in N \mid y \geq x\}$ is finite and linearly ordered. These conditions imply that any two nodes have a join.

1.3 Order-theoretic forests and trees

Definition 1.1: O-forests and O-trees.

In order to have a simple terminology, we will use the prefix O- to mean order-theoretic and to distinguish these generalized trees from those of [4].

- (a) An *O-forest* is a pair $F = (N, \leq)$ such that:
- 1) N is a countable, possibly empty set called the set of *nodes*,
- 2) \leq is a partial order on N such that, for every node x, the set $L_{\geq}(x)$ is linearly ordered.

It is called an *O-tree* if furthermore:

3) every two nodes x and y have an upper-bound.

An O-forest is thus the disjoint union of O-trees that are its connected components, with respect to its Gaifman graph. Two nodes are in a same composing O-tree if and only if they have an upper-bound.

The *leaves* are the minimal elements. If N has a largest element r ($x \le r$ for all $x \in N$) then F is a rooted O-tree and r is its root.

- (b) A line in an O-forest (N, \leq) is a linearly ordered subset L of N that is convex, i.e., such that $y \in L$ if $x, z \in L$ and x < y < z. A subset X of N is upwards closed (resp. downwards closed) if $y \in X$ whenever y > x (resp. y < x) for some $x \in X$. In an O-forest, the set of strict upper-bounds of a nonempty set $X \subseteq N$, denoted by $L_{>}(X)$, is an upwards closed line L.
- (c) An O-tree T is a join-tree¹ if every two nodes x and y have a least upper-bound denoted by $x \sqcup_T y$ and called their join (cf. Subsection 1.1). If T is a rooted tree, then (N_T, \leq_T) is a join-tree. Every finite O-tree is a join-tree

¹ An ordered tree is a rooted tree such that the set of sons of any node is linearly ordered. This notion is extended in [4] to join-trees. Ordered join-trees should not be confused with order-theoretical trees, that we call O-trees for simplicity.

of this form. In a join-tree, every finite set has a least upper-bound, but an infinite one may have none.

(d) Let $J = (N, \leq)$ be an O-forest and $X \subseteq N$. Then $J[X] := (X, \leq)$ is an O-forest². It is the *sub-O-forest* of J induced on X. Two elements x, y having a join in J may have no join in J[X], or they may have a different join. If J is an O-tree, J[X] may not be an O-tree. \square

Here is an example of a binary join-tree T defined by Fraïssé in [6] (Section 10.5.3). It is defined as $(Seq_+(\mathbb{Q}), \preceq)$ where $Seq_+(\mathbb{Q})$ is the set of nonempty sequences of rational numbers partially ordered as follows:

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(x_n,...,x_0) \leq (y_m,...,y_0) if and only if n \geq m, (x_{m-1},...,x_0) = (y_{m-1},...,y_0) and x_m \leq y_m.
Every O-tree (N, \leq) is isomorphic to T[X] for some subset X of Seq_+(\mathbb{Q}).
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Definition 1.2: Extending an O-forest.

Let $F = (N, \leq)$ be an O-forest and \mathcal{C} a family of downwards closed nonempty subsets of N that is *nonoverlapping*: if two sets intersect, then, one is included in the other. In such a case, we define $F(\mathcal{C}) := (\mathcal{C}, \subseteq)$. It is an O-forest.

Let $j: N \to \mathcal{P}(N)$ be such that $j(x) := N_{\leq}(x)$ (denoting $\{y \in N \mid y \leq x\}$). The family of sets j(x), denoted by $j\langle N \rangle$, is nonoverlapping and its elements are downwards closed in F. The mapping j is an isomorphism: $F \to F(j\langle N \rangle)$. If \mathcal{C} as above is nonoverlapping and contains $j\langle N \rangle$, then j is an embedding: $F \to F(\mathcal{C})$. Hence, \mathcal{C} defines an extension of F, but the joins are not necessarly preserved by j. We will use this construction to "add" certain joins to O-trees.

Example 1.3: Completing an O-forest into a join-tree.

Let $F=(N,\leq)$ be an O-forest. For every two, possibly identical, nodes x,y, we let $U(x,y):=N_{\leq}(L_{\geq}(x,y)),$ i.e., the set of nodes z such that $z\leq u$ for every $u\geq\{x,y\}$. We have $\{x,y\}\subseteq U(x,y).$ If $x\leq y,$ then $U(x,y)=N_{\leq}(y).$ If $x\sqcup y$ is defined, then $U(x,y)=N_{\leq}(x\sqcup y).$ If x and y have no upper-bound, then $U(x,y)=N_{\leq}(\emptyset)=N.$

The family \mathcal{U} of sets U(x,y) is countable. It is nonoverlapping: if $z \in U(x,y) \cap U(x',y')$ then $L_{\geq}(x,y) \subseteq L_{\geq}(x',y')$ or vice-versa; if $L_{\geq}(x,y) = L_{\geq}(x',y')$ then U(x,y) = U(x',y') and if $L_{\geq}(x,y) \subset L_{\geq}(x',y')$ there is w in $L_{\geq}(x',y') - L_{\geq}(x,y)$ and we have $U(x',y') \subseteq N_{\leq}(w) = U(w,w) \subseteq U(x,y)$. Hence $F(\mathcal{U})$ is an O-tree. It is even a join-tree: if $x \sqcup y$ is defined, then, $N_{\leq}(x \sqcup y)$ identified with $x \sqcup y$, is $x \sqcup_{F(\mathcal{U})} y$; otherwise, $x \sqcup_{F(\mathcal{U})} y = U(x,y)$. This fact is easy to check, as is the nonoverlapping condition.

We call $F(\mathcal{U})$ the *join-completion* of F. We denote it by \widehat{F} . Its construction adds to F the "missing joins". The existing joins are preserved.

It follows that every O-forest F with set of nodes N is $\widehat{F}[N]$ where \widehat{F} is a join-tree.

 $^{^2 \, \}text{We}$ recall from Subsection 1.1 that the notation \leq is used for the restriction of \leq to X. .

1.4 Monadic second-order logic

We will express properties of relational structures by first-order (FO in short) and monadic second-order (MSO) formulas and sentences. Logical structures are relational and countable.

Definitions 1.4: Quick review of terminology and notation.

Monadic second-order logic extends first-order logic by the use of set variables X, Y, Z ... denoting subsets of the domain of the considered logical structure. The atomic formula $x \in X$ expresses the membership of x in X. We call first-order a formula where set variables are not quantified. For example, a first-order formula can express that $X \subseteq Y$.

A sentence is a formula without free variables.

A property P of \mathcal{R} -structures where \mathcal{R} is a finite set of relation symbols, is first-order or monadic second-order expressible (FO or MSO expressible) if it is equivalent to the validity, in every \mathcal{R} -structure S, of a first-order or monadic second-order sentence φ . The validity of φ in S is denoted by $S \models \varphi$. We say that a property of tuples of subsets $X_1, ..., X_n$ of the domain D_S of structures S in a class \mathcal{C} is FO or MSO definable if it is equivalent to $S \models \varphi(X_1, ..., X_n)$ in every \mathcal{R} -structure S in \mathcal{C} where φ is a fixed FO or MSO formula with n free set variables.

Transitive closures and choices of sets, typically in coloring problems, are MSO but not FO expressible. See [5] for a detailed study of MSO expressible graph properties. Other comprehensive books are [7, 8].

Examples 1.5: Partial orders and graphs.

(1) A simple graph G can be identified with the $\{edg\}$ -structure (V_G, edg_G) where V_G is its vertex set and $edg_G(x, y)$ means that there is an edge from x to y, or between x and y if G is undirected. For example, 3-colorability is expressed by the MSO sentence:

$$\exists X, Y[X \cap Y = \emptyset \land \neg \exists u, v(edg(u, v) \land [(u \in X \land v \in X) \lor (u \in Y \land v \in Y) \land (u \notin X \cup Y \land v \notin X \cup Y)])].$$

(2) For partial orders, we will use the following FO and MSO formulas. The FO formula Lin(X) defined as

$$\forall x, y. [(x \in X \land y \in X) \Longrightarrow (x \le y \lor y \le x)]$$

expresses that a subset X of N, partially ordered by \leq , is linearly ordered. The MSO formula

$$Lin(X) \wedge \exists a, b. [Min(X, a) \wedge Max(X, b) \wedge \theta(X, a, b)]$$

expresses that X is linearly ordered and finite, where Min(X,a) and Max(X,b) are FO formulas expressing respectively that X has a least element a and a largest one b, and $\theta(X,a,b)$ is an MSO formula expressing that :

- (i) each element x of X except b has a successor c in X (i.e., c is the least element of $\{y \in X \mid y > x\}$), and
- (ii) $(a, b) \in Suc^*$, where Suc is the above defined successor relation (depending on X) and Suc^* is its reflexive and transitive closure.

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Assertion (ii) is expressed by the MSO formula: \forall U[U \subseteq X \land a \in U \land \forall x, y((x \in U \land (x, y) \in Suc) \Longrightarrow y \in U) \Longrightarrow b \in U].
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First-order formulas expressing $U \subseteq X$, $(x,y) \in Suc$ and Property (i) are easy to write. Without a linear order, the finiteness of a set X is not MSO expressible.

Definitions 1.6: Transformations of relational structures.

As in [5], we call *transduction* a transformation of relational structures specified by logical formulas³. We will try to be both not too formal but still precise.

(a) The basic type of transduction τ is as follows. A structure $S' = (D', R'_1, ..., R'_m)$ is defined from a structure $S = (D, R_1, ..., R_n)$ and a p-tuple $(X_1, ..., X_p)$ of subsets of D called *parameters* by means of formulas $\chi, \delta, \theta_{R'_1}, ..., \theta_{R'_m}$ used as follows:

```
\tau(S,(X_1,...,X_p))=S' is defined if and only if S\models\chi(X_1,...,X_p), S'=(D',R'_1,...,R'_m) has domain D'\subseteq D such that d\in D' if and only if S\models\delta(X_1,...,X_p,d), R'_i is the set of tuples (d_1,...,d_s)\in D'^s,\ s=\rho(R'_i), such that S\models\theta_{R'_i}(X_1,...,X_n,d_1,...,d_s).
```

We call τ an FO or an MSO transduction if the formulas that define it are first-order or monadic second-order ones.

As an example, the mapping from a graph G=(V,edg) to the connected component (V',edg[V']) containing a vertex u is defined by χ,δ and θ_{edg} where $\chi(X)$ expresses that X is a singleton $\{u\}$, $\delta(X,d)$ expresses that there is a path between d and the vertex in X, and $\theta_{edg}(x,y)$ is the formula always true, say, x=x. It is an MSO transduction as path properties are expressible by monadic second-order formulas.

(b) Transductions of the general type may enlarge the domain of the input structure. A structure $S' = (D', R'_1, ..., R'_m)$ is defined from $S = (D, R_1, ..., R_n)$ and a p-tuple $(X_1, ..., X_p)$ of parameters as above by means of formulas $\chi, \delta_1, ..., \delta_k$ and others, $\theta_{R'_i, i_1, ..., i_s}$, used as follows:

```
\tau(S,(X_1,..,X_p)) = S' \text{ is defined if and only if } S \models \chi(X_1,...,X_p), S' = (D',R_1',..,R_m') \text{ has domain } D' \subseteq (D \times \{1\}) \uplus ... \uplus (D \times \{k\}) such that (d,i) \in D' if and only if S \models \delta_i(X_1,...,X_p,d),
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³The usual terminology of *interpretation* is inconvenient as it is frequently unclear what is defined from what. The term transduction is borrowed to formal language theory that is concerns with transformations of words, trees and terms.

 R'_i is the set of tuples $((d_1, i_1), ..., (d_s, i_s)) \in D'^s$, $s = \rho(R'_i)$, such that

$$S \models \theta_{R'_s, i_1, ..., i_s}(X_1, ..., X_p, d_1, ..., d_s).$$

If D is finite, then $|D| \le k |D'|$.

An easy example consists in the duplication of a graph G = (V, edg) into the graph $H := G \oplus G$, that is G together with a disjoint copy of it. We get a graph H up to isomorphism, because of the use of disjoint isomorphic copies. To define a transduction, we take k = 2, p = 0 (no parameter is needed), χ, δ_1, δ_2 always true, $\theta_{edg,i,j}(x,y)$ always f alse if $i \neq j$, and equal to edg(x,y) if i = j, where $i, j \in [2]$.

Another more complicated example is the transformation of an O-forest $F = (N, \leq)$ into its join-completion \widehat{F} . We define concretely the set of nodes of \widehat{F} as $(N \times \{1\}) \uplus (M \times \{2\})$ where M is a subset of N in bijection with the set of sets U(x,y) such that x and y have no join, cf. Example 1.3. This bijection can be made MSO definable, and so is the order relation of \widehat{F} . Defining M is not straightforward because the sets U(x,y) are not pairwise disjoint. We can use a notion of structuring of O-trees: see Remark 2.41.

2 Quasi-trees and betweenness in O-trees

In this section, we will define a *betweenness relation* in O-trees, and compare it with the *betweenness relation induced* by sets of nodes of join-trees or O-trees. We generalize the notion of quasi-tree defined and studied in [3] and [4].

For a ternary relation B on a set N and $x,y \in N$, we define $[x,y]_B := \{x,y\} \cup \{z \in N \mid (x,z,y) \in B\}$. If n > 2, then the notation $\neq (x_1,x_2,...,x_n)$ means that $x_1,x_2,...,x_n$ are pairwise distinct.

2.1 Betweenness in trees and quasi-trees

Definition 2.1: Betweenness in linear orders and trees.

(a) Let $L = (X, \leq)$ be a linear order. Its betweenness relation B_L is the ternary relation on X defined by :

$$B_L(x, y, z) : \iff x < y < z \text{ or } z < y < x.$$

(b) If T is a tree or a forest, its betweenness relation B_T is the ternary relation on N_T defined by :

 $B_T(x, y, z) : \iff x, y, z$ are pairwise distinct and y is on the unique path between x and z.

If R is a rooted tree, we define its *betweenness relation* B_R as $B_{Und(R)}$ where Und(R) is the tree obtained from R by forgetting its root and its edge directions. We have:

$$B_R(x,y,z) \Longleftrightarrow x,y,z$$
 are pairwise distinct and $x <_R y \le_R x \sqcup_R z$ or $z <_R y \le_R x \sqcup_R z$.

(c) With a ternary relation B on a set X, we associate the ternary relation A, also on X:

$$A(x, y, z) : \iff B(x, y, z) \lor B(x, z, y) \lor B(y, x, z).$$

It is to be read: x, y, z are aligned. If $n \ge 3$, then $B^+(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ stands for the conjunction of the conditions $B(x_i, x_j, x_k)$ for all $1 \le i < j < k \le n$ and all $1 \le k < j < i \le n$.

The following is Proposition 5.2 in [4].

Proposition 2.2: (a) The betweenness relation B of a linear order (X, \leq) satisfies the following properties for all $x, y, z, u \in X$.

(b) The betweenness relation B of a tree T satisfies the properties A1-A6 for all x, y, z, u in N_T together with the following weakening of A7':

$$A7: \neq (x, y, z) \Rightarrow A(x, y, z) \lor \exists w. (B(x, w, y) \land B(y, w, z) \land B(x, w, z)).$$

Properties A1-A6 imply that the two cases of the conclusion of A7 are exclusive⁴ and that, in the second one, there is a unique node w satisfying $B(x, w, y) \wedge B(y, w, z) \wedge B(x, w, z)$ (by Lemma 11 of [3]), that is denoted by $M_S(x, y, z)$.

The letter B and its variants, B_T , B_1 , etc. will denote ternary relations.

Definitions 2.3 : More betweenness properties. We define the following properties of a structure (N, B):

⁴The three cases of A(x, y, z) are exclusive by A2 and A3.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{A8}: \, \forall u, x, y, z. [\neq (u, x, y, z) \land B(x, y, z) \Rightarrow \\ B(u, x, y) \lor B(u, y, z) \lor B(x, y, u) \lor B(y, z, u)]. \\ \mathsf{A8}': \, \forall u, x, y, z. [\neq (u, x, y, z) \land B(x, y, z) \land \neg A(y, z, u) \Rightarrow B(x, y, u)]. \end{aligned}$$

If (N, B) satisfies A1-A6, the four cases of the conclusion of A8 are not exclusive: B(u, x, y) implies B(u, y, z) (because of B(x, y, z) and A4).

In the following proofs and discussions about a structure (N, B), we will always assume (unless otherwise specified) that A1-A6 hold, and we will not make their use explicit. We say that (N, B) is trivial if $B = \emptyset$. In this case, Properties A1-A6, A8 and A8' hold trivially.

Example 2.4: A1-A6 do not imply A8'.

Consider S := ([5], B) where B satisfies (only) $B^+(1, 2, 3, 4) \wedge B^+(5, 3, 4)$. Conditions A1-A6 hold but A8 does not, because we have $\neg A(2, 3, 5) \wedge B(1, 2, 3)$. Then, A8' would imply B(1, 2, 5) that is not assumed. By the next lemma, A1-A6 do not imply A8 either.

Lemma 2.5: Let (N, B) satisfy A1-A6.

- (1) A8 is equivalent to A8'.
- (2) A7 implies A8, and thus, A8'.
- (3) If A8 holds, then the Gaifman graph⁵ of (N, B) is either edgeless (if $B = \emptyset$) or connected.
- **Proof:** (1) If $B = \emptyset$, then A8 and A8' both holds. Otherwise, assume that A8 holds and that we have $\neq (u, x, y, z) \land B(x, y, z) \land \neg A(u, y, z)$. Then, A8 yields the following possibilities:
- (1.1) B(u, x, y): we have $B^+(u, x, y, z)$, which implies B(u, y, z), and thus A(u, y, z),
 - (1.2) B(u, y, z), which implies A(u, y, z),
 - (1.3) B(y,z,u), which implies A(u,y,z).

These three cases cannot hold since we assume $\neg A(u, y, z)$. The only remaining case is :

(1.4) B(x, y, u): this is the desired conclusion.

Hence, A8' is valid.

Conversely, assume that A8' holds and we have $\neq (u, x, y, z) \land B(x, y, z)$.

If A(u,y,z) holds, we have $B(y,u,z) \vee B(u,y,z) \vee B(y,z,u)$. Because of B(x,y,z), B(y,u,z) implies B(x,y,u). Hence we have $B(x,y,u) \vee B(u,y,z) \vee B(y,z,u)$. If $\neg A(u,y,z)$, then A8' yields B(x,y,u), and the desired fact.

(2) We prove that A7 entails A8'. Assume we have $\neq (u, x, y, z) \land B(x, y, z) \land \neg A(u, y, z)$. There is w such that $B(u, w, y) \land B(y, w, z) \land B(u, w, z)$. With B(x, y, z), we get: $B^+(x, y, w, z)$, hence, B(x, y, w). With B(y, w, u), we get B(x, y, u), as desired.

⁵Defined in Section 1.

(3) Clear from definitions. \square

Definition 2.6: Quasi-trees [3].

- (a) A quasi-tree is a structure S = (N, B) such that B is a ternary relation on N, called the set of *nodes*, that satisfies conditions A1-A7. To avoid uninteresting special cases, we also require that N has at least 3 nodes. We say that S is discrete if $[x, y]_B$ is finite for all x, y.
 - (b) From a join-tree $J = (N, \leq)$, we define a ternary relation B_J on N by :

$$B_J(x, y, z) : \iff \neq (x, y, z) \land ([x < y \le x \sqcup z] \lor [z < y \le x \sqcup z]),$$

called its *betweenness relation*. As a definition, we use here the observation made for rooted trees in Definition 2.1(b).

Theorem 2.7 [Proposition 5.6 of [4]]:

- (1) The structure $qt(J) := (N, B_J)$ associated with a join-tree $J = (N, \leq)$ with at least 3 nodes is a quasi-tree and every quasi-tree S is qt(J) for some join-tree J.
 - (2) A quasi-tree is discrete if and only if it is qt(J) for some tree J.

2.2 Other betweenness relations

Definition 2.8: Induced betweenness in a quasi-tree

(a) If Q = (N, B) is a quasi-tree, $X \subseteq N$, we say that Q[X] := (X, B[X]) is an *induced betweenness in Q*. It is *induced on X*. It need not be a quasi-tree because A7 does not hold for a triple (x, y, z) such that $M_Q(x, y, z)$ is not in X (cf. Proposition 2.2).

Our objective is to axiomatize induced betweenness in quasi-trees (equivalently in join-trees), similarly as betweenness in join-trees is, by A1-A7 in Proposition 2.7(1).

Proposition 2.9 : An induced betweenness in a quasi-tree satisfies properties A1-A6 and A8.

Proof: The sentences expressing A1-A6 and A8 are universal, that is, are of the form $\forall x, y, ..., z. \varphi(x, y, ..., z)$ where φ is quantifier-free. The validity of such sentences is preserved under taking induced substructures (we are dealing with relational structures). The result follows from Theorem 2.7 and Lemma 2.5(2) showing that a quasi-tree satisfies A8. \square

Our objective is to prove that a ternary relation is an induced betweenness in a quasi-tree if and only if it satisfies Properties A1-A6 and A8. Our proof will use O-trees.

Definition 2.10: Betweenness in O-forests.

(a) From an O-forest $F = (N, \leq)$, we define a ternary relation B_F on N, called its *betweenness relation*, by:

$$B_F(x, y, z) : \iff \neq (x, y, z) \land [(x < y \le x \sqcup z) \lor (z < y \le x \sqcup z)].$$

The difference with Definition 2.6(b) is that if x and z have no least upper-bound (i.e., if $x \sqcup z$ is undefined; this case implies that x and z are incomparable, denoted by $x \bot z$), then B_F contains no triple of the form (x, y, z). If F is a finite O-tree, it is a join-tree and thus, (N, B_F) is a quasi-tree.

(b) If $F = (N, \leq)$ is an O-forest and $X \subseteq N$, then $(X, B_F[X])$ is an induced betweenness relation in F.

Thus we have four classes of betweenness relations S=(N,B): quasi-trees, induced betweenness in quasi-trees, betweenness and induced betweenness in O-forests. Here are some easy observations.

- (1) The induced betweenness (X, B) on a set X of leaves of a tree is *trivial*, which means that $B = \emptyset$.
- (2) The Gaifman graph of a betweenness structure S is connected in the following cases: S is a quasi-tree, or it is a nontrivial induced betweenness in a quasi-tree (by A8) or it is the betweenness relation of an O-tree with at least 3 nodes (easy proof). It may be not connected in the other cases.
- (3) If S is an induced betweenness in an O-forest consisting of several disjoint O-trees, then two nodes in the different O-trees cannot belong to a same triple, hence, cannot be linked by a path in the Gaifman graph of S. Hence, a structure (N,B) is the betweenness of an O-forest, or an induced betweenness in an O-forest if and only if each of its connected components is so in an O-tree. We will only consider betweenness of O-trees (class \mathbf{BO}) and induced betweenness in O-trees (class \mathbf{IBO}).

We will denote by **QT** the class of quasi-trees and by **IBQT** the class of induced betweenness relations in quasi-trees. Figure 3 below illustrates the following inclusions.

Proposition 2.11: We have the following strict inclusions:

$$\mathbf{QT} \subset \mathbf{IBQT}, \, \mathbf{QT} \subset \mathbf{BO} \subset \mathbf{IBO} \text{ and } \mathbf{QT} \subset \mathbf{IBQT} \cap \mathbf{BO}.$$

The classes **IBQT** and **BO** are incomparable. For finite structures, we have $\mathbf{OT} = \mathbf{BO}$.

Proof: All inclusions are clear from the definitions. We give examples to prove the strictness assertions. We recall that S[X] := (X, B[X]) if S = (N, B) and $X \subseteq N$.

(1) Let $S_1 := ([6], B_1)$ be defined by the facts : $B_1^+(1, 2, 3, 4), B_1^+(1, 2, 5, 6)$ and $B_1^+(4, 3, 5, 6)$. It satisfies A1-A6 but not A7 $(M_{S_1}(2, 3, 5)$ is missing). In Figure 1(a), the curve lines indicate that $B_1^+(1, 2, 3, 4), B_1^+(1, 2, 5, 6)$ and $B_1^+(4, 3, 5, 6)$ hold.

The structure S_1 is in **IBQT**: by adding 7 together with the facts $B^+(1, 2, 7, 3, 4), B^+(1, 2, 7, 5, 6)$ and $B^+(4, 3, 7, 5, 6)$ we get a quasi-tree. But S_1 is not a

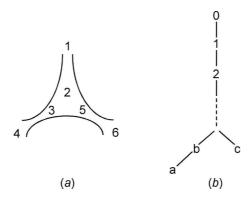


Figure 1: (a) shows S_1 and (b) shows S_2 of the proof of Proposition 2.11.

quasi-tree. It is not in **BO** either, because otherwise, it would be a quasi-tree as it is finite.

(2) Similarly, we consider $S_2 = (N_2, B_2)$, $N_2 := \mathbb{N} \cup \{a, b, c\}$ and the following facts: $B_2^+(a, b, i, j, k)$ and $B_2^+(c, i, j, k)$ for all i, j, k in \mathbb{N} such that k < j < i. It is the betweenness relation of the O-tree $T_2 := (N_2, \preceq)$ in Figure 1(b), such that $a \prec b \prec i \prec j$ and $c \prec i \prec j$ for all all i, j in \mathbb{N} such that j < i. Since b and c have no least upper-bound in T_2 , we do not have $B_{T_2}(a, b, c)$. Hence, S_2 is in **BO** but not in **IBQT**, as it does not satisfy A8': we have $\neg A_{T_2}(0, b, c) \land B_{T_2}(a, b, 0)$ but not $B_{T_2}(a, b, c)$. Hence, the classes **IBQT** and **BO** are incomparable.

Note that if we take c as root, we obtain a join-tree T'_2 where $a \prec b \prec c$ and $0 \prec 1 \prec 2 \prec ... \prec i \prec ... \prec c$. Clearly, $B_{T_2} \neq B_{T'_2}$. To the opposite, in the case of quasi-trees and induced betweenness in quasi-trees, any node can be taken as root in the constructions of the relevant join-trees (cf. [4] for quasi-trees, the proof of Theorem 2.12 and Remark 2.15(d)).

(3) To prove that the trivial inclusion of **BO** in **IBO** is strict, we consider $S_3 := (N_3, B_{T_3}), N_3 := \{a, b, c, d\} \cup \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } T_3 := (N_3, \prec) \text{ with order } : a \prec b \prec i \prec j \text{ and } d \prec c \prec i \prec j \text{ for all } i, j \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } j < i \text{ and } i' \prec j' \prec i \prec j \text{ if } i, j \in \mathbb{N}, i', j' < 0, j < i \text{ and } j' < i'. \text{ This O-tree is shown in Figure 2}(a). We let then <math>S_4 := S_3[\{a, b, c, d, -1, 0, 1\}]$ with corresponding O-tree T_4 (Figure 2(b)). It is in **IBO** but not in **BO**. Otherwise, as it is finite, it would be a quasi-tree. But S_4 does not satisfy A8': we have $\neg A_{T_3}(0, b, c) \land B_{T_3}(a, b, 0)$ but not $B_{T_3}(a, b, c)$. For this reason, S_4 is not in **IBQT** either.

Note that S_4 in **IBO** is finite but is not the induced betweenness relation of a *finite* O-tree. Otherwise, it would be in **IBQT** because a finite O-tree is a join-tree.

(4) Let T_5 bethe O-tree $T_2[N_5]$ where $N_5 := \mathbb{N} \cup \{b, c\}$ and $S_5 := (N_5, B_{T_5})$. It is in **BO**, and also in **IBQT**: just add to T_5 a least upper-bound m for b and c such that $m < \mathbb{N}$, one obtains a join-tree. It is not a quasi-tree because A7 does not hold for the triple (0, b, c). Hence, we have $\mathbf{QT} \subset \mathbf{IBQT} \cap \mathbf{BO}$. \square

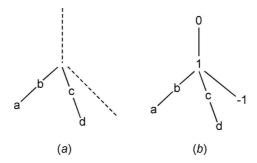


Figure 2: (a) shows T_3 and (b) shows T_4 of the proof of Proposition 2.11.

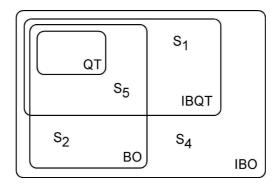


Figure 3: Four classes and witnesses of proper inclusions.

Figure 3 shows how these examples are located in the different classes of betweenness relations. The structures S_1 and S_4 are finite, S_2 and S_5 are infinite, which is necessary because the finite structures in **BO** and **QT** are the same.

An alternative notion of betweenness for an O-forest $F=(N,\leq)$ could be defined as $B_F':=B_{\widehat{F}}[N]$. As it is an induced betweenness in a join-tree, this definitions does not bring anything new. If F is an O-tree, we have :

 $(x, y, z) \in B'_F$ if and only if $\neq (x, y, z)$ and,

 $x < y \le m \ge z$ or $z < y \le m \ge x$, for some m that need not be the join of x and z.

2.3 Axiomatizations

2.3.1 Induced betweenness in quasi-trees.

The first main theorem of this section is the following first-order axiomatization of the class \mathbf{IBQT} . The letter B designates always ternary relations.

Theorem 2.12 : A structure (N, B) is an induced betweenness relation in a quasi-tree if and only if it satisfies Axioms A1-A6 and A8.

We recall that we only consider countable structures. Hence, these axioms characterize **IBQT** among countable structures. The same will hold for other axiomatizations to be given below.

Let S = (N, B) and $r \in N$. We define a binary relation on N:

$$x \leq_r y : \iff x = y \vee y = r \vee B(x, y, r).$$

Lemma 2.13 : Let S = (N, B) satisfy Axioms A1-A6 and $r \in N$.

- (1) $T(S,r) := (N, \leq_r)$ is an O-tree.
- (2) If $(x, y, z) \in B$, $x <_r y$ and $z <_r y$, then $y = x \sqcup_r z$.
- (3) If $(x, y, z) \in B$ and $x <_r w <_r y$, we do not have $z <_r w$.

Proof: (1) It is easy to check that \leq_r is a partial order and that the set of upper-bounds of any node is linearly ordered.

- (2) Assume $(x, y, z) \in B$, $x <_r y$, $z <_r y$. We cannot have $x <_r z$ or $z <_r x$, because otherwise, we have $(x, z, y) \in B$ or $(z, x, y) \in B$, contradicting $(x, y, z) \in B$. Assume for a contradiction, that $x <_r w <_r y$ and $z <_r w <_r y$. Then, we have $(x, w, y) \in B$ and $(z, w, y) \in B$, whence $B^+(x, w, y, z)$, and $B^+(z, w, y, x)$, which gives $(w, y, z) \in B$ and $(z, w, y) \in B$, contradicting $A \ge A \ge A$.
 - (3) This assertion follows immediately. \square

Lemma 2.14: Let S := (N, B) satisfy A1-A6 and A8, and $r \in N$.

- (1) Let x and y are incomparable with respect to \leq_r . If $z <_r y$, then $(x, y, z) \in B$.
 - (2) If $(x, y, z) \in B$, then $x <_r y$ or $z <_r y$.
 - (3) We have $B \subseteq B_{T(S,r)}$ if N is finite.

Proof: In this proof, the notations <, \leq and \sqcup will denote <_r, \leq _r and \sqcup _r.

- (1) Let x and y are incomparable and z < y. The root r is not any of x, y, z. If $(x, r, y) \in B$, then, since $(r, y, z) \in B$, we have $B^+(x, r, y, z)$ hence $(x, y, z) \in B$. Otherwise, A(x, y, r) does not hold, and as we have $(z, y, r) \in B$, we get $(z, y, x) \in B$ by A8', hence $(x, y, z) \in B$.
 - (2) Consider a triple $(x, y, z) \in B$.

Case 1: The nodes x,y,z are pairwise incomparable w.r.t. <. If we have $(x,r,y) \in B$, then we have $B^+(x,r,y,z)$, hence $(r,y,z) \in B$ and z < y. Otherwise, A(x,y,r) does not hold, hence by A8', we have $(z,y,r) \in B$, hence z < y.

Case 2: x and y are comparable. If x < y, we are done. If y < x, we have $(y, x, r) \in B$, hence $B^+(z, y, x, r)$ which gives z < y. The case where z and y are comparable is similar because $(z, y, x) \in B$.

Case 3: x and z are comparable. If x < z, we have B(x, z, r), hence $B^+(x, y, z, r)$ which gives x < y. If z < x, the proof is similar.

(3) Consider a triple $(x,y,z) \in B$. As N is finite, x and z have a join $x \sqcup z$. We have x < y or z < y by (2). If x < y, then there are two cases: if $y \le x \sqcup z$, we have $(x,y,z) \in B_{T(S,r)}$; if $x \sqcup z < y$, we cannot have $x \sqcup z = z$ because then $(x,z,y) \in B$ and we cannot have $x \bot z$ because then $x < x \sqcup z < y$ and $z < x \sqcup z < y$ and $(x,y,z) \notin B$ by Lemma 2.13(2). The case z < y is similar. \square

Examples 2.15: (a) In statement (3) above, we may have a strict inclusion. Consider S_6 defined as (N_6, B_6) with $N_6 := \{0, 1, 2, b, c\}$, $B_6^+(0, 1, 2, b)$, $B_6^+(0, 1, 2, c)$ and r := 0. Then $T(S_6, 0) = T_2[N_6]$ where T_2 is as in Proposition 2.11, see Figure 1(b). Then (b, 2, c) is in $B_{T(S_6, 0)}$ but not in B_6 .

- (b) The inclusion $B \subseteq B_{T(S,r)}$ may be false if S is infinite. Consider $S_7 = (\mathbb{N} \cup \{a,b,c\}, B_7)$ defined as S_2 in the proof of Proposition 2.11, augmented with the triples (a,b,c) and (c,b,a). Then $T(S_7,0) = T_2$ of this proof, but $(a,b,c) \notin B_{T(S_7,0)}$.
 - (c) The following example indicates how we will prove Theorem 2. 12.

Let $S_8 := (N_8, B_8)$ such that $N_8 := \{0, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h\}$ and the following conditions (and no other one) hold:

```
B_8^+(0, a, b), B_8^+(0, c, d), B_8^+(0, e, f), B_8^+(0, g, h),

B_8^+(b, a, c, d), B_8^+(f, e, g, h),

B_8^+(b, a, 0, e, f), B_8^+(d, c, 0, e, f), B_8^+(b, a, 0, g, h), B_8^+(d, c, 0, g, h).
```

Figure 4(a) shows this structure in the style of Figure 1(a) without showing the last four conditions for the purpose of clarity.

By adding new nodes 1 and 2 to $T(S_8, 0)$ such that a < 1 < 0, c < 1 < 0, e < 2 < 0 and g < 2 < 0, we get the rooted tree T_8 of Figure 4(b). Then $B_7 = B_{T_8}[N_7]$, hence, is in **IBQT**.

The proof of Theorem 2.12 will consist in adding new elements in T(S, r) for such cases.

(d) If S=(N,B) satisfies A1-A7 (and thus A8 by Lemma 2.5), then, for each $r\in N,\, T(S,r)$ is a join-tree and $B=B_{T(S,r)}$ [4]. \square

Definitions 2.16: Directions in O-trees.

(a) Let $T=(N,\leq)$ be an O-tree⁶. Let $L\subseteq N$ be linearly ordered and upwards closed⁷. Two nodes x and y in $N_{<}(L)$ (defined as $\{x\in N\mid x< L\}$) are in the same direction w.r.t. L if $x\leq u$ and $y\leq u$ for some $u\in N_{<}(L)$. This

⁶Or an O-forest, but we will use the notion of direction only for O-trees.

⁷In particular, if $X \neq \emptyset$, the set $L_{>}(X) := \{y \in N \mid y > X\}$ is linearly ordered and upward closed.

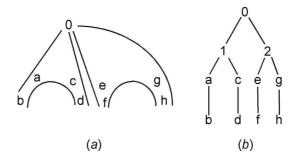


Figure 4: (a) shows S_8 and (b) shows T_8 , Example 2.15.

is an equivalence relation that we denote by \sim_L . Clearly, $x \leq y$ implies $x \sim_L y$. Each equivalence class is called a *direction relative to L*. We denote by $Dir_L(x)$ the direction relative to L that contains x such that x < L. In the definition of a C-term (Definition 1.9(b)), the condition on the underlying join-tree (N, \leq) that each node u that is not a leaf is the join of two leaves implies that each line $L_>(u)$ has at least two directions.

(b) Let S = (N, B) satisfy A1-A6 (and not necessarly A8) and r be any node taken as root. Let $T = (N, \leq_r)$ be the O-tree T(S, r). We will denote \leq_r by \leq . Related notations are <, \sqcup and \bot . If x and y in N are incomparable, denoted by $x \bot y$, we let $L_>(x, y) := L_>(\{x, y\})$. This set is an upwards closed line that contains r, but not x and y. We denote by \mathfrak{L} the countable set of such lines.

(c) For $L \in \mathfrak{L}$, we denote by $\mathfrak{D}(L)$ the set of directions relative to L. We have $L = L_{>}(N_{<}(L))$.

We will examine the directions relative to the sets $L = L_{>}(x, y)$. Clearly, $N_{<}(L)$ is the disjoint union of the directions relative to L, and there are at least two different ones, those of x and y.

Lemma 2.17: Let S = (N, B), r and < be as in Definition 2.16(b) and $L \in \mathfrak{L}$. Let $u, v \in D$ for some direction D relative to L, and w < m with $m \in L$. Then $(u, m, w) \in B$ if and only if $(v, m, w) \in B$.

Proof: We have $\{u, v\} < a < m$ for some $a \in D$. Then $(u, a, m) \in B$ and $(v, a, m) \in B$.

Now, if $(u, m, w) \in B$, then we have $B^+(u, a, m, w)$, hence $(a, m, w) \in B$. With $(v, a, m) \in B$, we get $B^+(v, a, m, w)$, hence $(v, m, w) \in B$. \square

It follows that we can define, for $D, D' \in \mathfrak{D}(L)$ and $m \in L$:

 $B(D, m, D') : \iff B(u, m, w) \text{ for some } u \in D \text{ and } w \in D'.$

This is actually equivalent to : B(u, m, w) for all $u \in D$ and $w \in D'$.

Lemma 2.18: Let S = (N, B) satisfy A1-A6 and A8. Let $r \in N$, $T = T(S, r) := (N, \leq_r)$ and $m \in L \in \mathfrak{L}$. The binary relation $\neg B(D, m, D')$ for $D, D' \in \mathfrak{D}(L)$ is an equivalence relation.

Proof: Reflexivity and symmetry are clear. Assume that we have $\neg B(D, m, D')$ and $\neg B(D', m, D'')$ for distinct directions D, D', D''. Hence, $\neg B(u, m, v)$ and $\neg B(v, m, w)$ for some u, v, w respectively in D, D', D'', and for a contradiction, assume that B(u, m, w) holds.

Hence, we have $\neg B(u, m, v)$ and also $\neg B(m, u, v)$ and $\neg B(m, v, u)$ because $u \perp v$. Hence we have $\neg A(m, u, v) \land B(v, m, w)$, and so, A8' gives B(v, m, w), contradicting the hypothesis that B(D', m, D'') does not hold. Hence, $\neg B(u, m, w)$ holds for all u, w respectively in D, D'', so that $\neg B(D, m, D'')$. \square

If $D, D' \in \mathfrak{D}(L)$, we define $D \approx_L D'$ if B(D, m, D') holds for no $m \in L$. By Lemma 2.13(2), B(D, m, D') can hold only if m is the smallest element of L. Hence, $D \approx_L D'$ holds if and only if, either L has no smallest element or $B(D, \min(L), D')$ does not hold. Hence, by Lemma 2.18, \approx_L is an equivalence relation⁸.

For each $D \in \mathfrak{D}(L)$, we denote by \overline{D} the union of the directions that are \approx_L -equivalent to D. The sets \overline{D} form a partition of $N_{<}(L)$. We define $\mathcal{C} := \mathcal{C}_1 \uplus \mathcal{C}_2$ as the set of downward closed subsets of N where :

 $C_1 := \{N_{\leq}(x) \mid x \in N\}$ (in particular $N = N_{\leq}(r)$) and $C_2 := \{\overline{D} \mid D \in \mathfrak{D}(L), L \in \mathfrak{L} \text{ and } \overline{D} \text{ is the union of at least two directions}\}.$

Lemma 2.19: We assume that S is as in Lemma 2.18.

- (1) The family \mathcal{C} is not overlapping.
- (2) It is first-order definable in S.

Proof: (1) Consider E and E' in C such that $w \in E \cap E'$.

There are three possible cases to consider.

Case $1: E=N_{\leq}(x), E'=N_{\leq}(y)$. Then $x\leq y$ or $y\leq x$ because $w\leq x$ and $w\leq y$, which gives $E\subseteq E'$ or $E'\subseteq E$.

Case $2: E = N_{\leq}(x), w \leq x, E' = \overline{D}, D = Dir_L(w)$ where $L \in \mathfrak{L}$. Then x < L (in particular if x = w) or $x \in L$, which gives $E \subseteq D \subseteq E'$ or $E' \subseteq E$.

Case $3: E = \overline{D}, D \in \mathfrak{D}(L)$, and $E' = \overline{D'}, D' \in \mathfrak{D}(L')$. Then $L \cup L' \subseteq L_{>}(w)$, hence $L' \subset L$ or $L \subset L'$ or L = L'. In the first case, we have $Dir_L(w) \subseteq E \subseteq N_{\leq}(x)$ for any $x \in L - L'$. We have x < L'. Then, $N_{\leq}(x) \subseteq Dir_{L'}(w) \subseteq E'$. The second case is similar and the last one gives $Dir_L(w) = Dir_{L'}(w)$, hence, E = E'

(2) There exists an FO formula $\varphi(X,r)$ (not depending on S) such that for every $r \in N$ and $X \subseteq N$,

$$S = (N, B) \models \varphi(X, r)$$
 if and only if $X \in \mathcal{C}$.

 $^{^8 \, \}mathrm{Not}$ to be confused with \sim_L (Definition 2.16(a)) whose classes are directions.

Since \mathcal{C} is defined from T(S, r), this formula has free variable r. The partial order \leq_r (denoted by \leq) is FO definable in S in terms of r.

An FO formula $\varphi_1(X,r)$ can express that $X = N_{\leq}(x)$ for some $x \in N$.

Next we consider the sets \overline{D} . Let x and y be incomparable in $T = T(S, r) = (N, \leq)$. Let $L = L_{>}(x, y)$ and u, v < L. The nodes u and v are in a same set \overline{D} for some $D \in \mathfrak{D}(L)$ (actually $D = Dir_L(u)$) if and only if:

$$(N, B) \models \forall z. (z \in L \Longrightarrow \neg B(u, z, v)),$$

which can be expressed by an FO formula $\sigma(r, x, y, u, v)$ because $z \in L$ is FO expressible⁹ in terms of r, x and y.

If u < L, then $Dir_L(u)$ is the union of at least two directions in $\mathfrak{D}(L)$ if and only if:

$$(N, B) \models u < L \land \exists v. (v < L \land \neg \sigma(r, x, y, u, v))$$

which is expressed by an FO formula $\delta(r, x, y, u)$ (for convenience, this formula includes the condition u < L).

Let $\varphi_2(X,r)$ be the FO formula expressing that :

$$\exists x, y.[x \bot y \land \exists u.(u \in X \land \delta(r, x, y, u)) \land \\ \forall u.(u \in X \Longrightarrow \forall v.(v \in X \Longleftrightarrow \sigma(r, x, y, u, v)))].$$

(The condition $x \perp y$ is FO expressible in terms of r). It expresses that $X = \overline{Dir_{L_{>}(x,y)}(u)}$ for some incomparable elements x,y and some $u < L_{>}(x,y)$, and that X is the union of at least two directions in $\mathfrak{D}(L_{>}(x,y))$.

Hence, the formula $\varphi_1(X,r) \vee \varphi_2(X,r)$ expresses that $X \in \mathcal{C}$. \square

We will use $F(\mathcal{C})$ (cf. Definition 1.2), rather denoted by $T(\mathcal{C})$ as it is an O-tree, with root $N_{\leq}(r) = N$. We have $T \subseteq T(\mathcal{C})$, where we identify a node x of T with its image under the embedding $T \to T(\mathcal{C})$ that map x to $N_{\leq}(x)$. We will use the following obvious facts, holding for all $x, y \in N$, $D \in \mathfrak{D}(L)$, $D' \in \mathfrak{D}(L')$ and $L, L' \in \mathfrak{L}$:

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Fact 1: N_{<}(x) \subset N_{<}(y) if and only if x < y.
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Fact $2: \underline{N}_{\leq}(x) \subset \overline{D}$ if and only if x < L and $\overline{Dir_L(x)} = \overline{D}$,

Fact $3: \overline{D} \subset N_{<}(x)$ if and only if $x \in L$,

Fact 4: $\overline{D} \subset \overline{D'}$ if and only if $L' \subset L$.

Hence, if $\overline{D} \subset \overline{D'}$, we have $\overline{D} \subseteq N_{<}(x) \subseteq \overline{D'}$ for some x in L - L'.

In the next three lemmas, S and the related objects are as in Lemmas 2.18 and 2.19.

Lemma 2.20 : $T(\mathcal{C})$ is a join-tree.

Proof: Let E and E' be incomparable elements in $T(\mathcal{C})$. We will prove they have a join $E \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} E'$ in $T(\mathcal{C})$. These sets are disjoint. There are three cases and several subcases.

Case 1 :
$$E = N_{\leq}(x), E' = N_{\leq}(y)$$
 where $x \perp y$.

⁹This is a key point of the proof. In the proof of Theorem 2.34, we will use an alternative description of sets L in \mathfrak{L} in which membership is still FO expressible.

Subcase 1.1: $(\underline{x}, \underline{m}, \underline{y}) \notin B$ for all m in $L := L(\underline{x}, \underline{y})$. Then $Dir_L(\underline{x}) \approx_L Dir_L(\underline{y})$ and $E'' := \overline{Dir}_L(\underline{x}) \supseteq E \uplus E'$. We have $\overline{Dir}_L(\underline{x}) \in \mathcal{C}$ because $Dir_L(\underline{x}) \neq Dir_L(\underline{y})$.

We prove by contradiction that $E'' = E \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} E'$. If this is not the case, we may have $E'' \supset N_{\leq}(z) \supseteq E \uplus E'$. But then x,y < z, hence $z \in L$ and $N_{\leq}(z) \supseteq N_{\leq}(L)$. So we cannot have $N_{\leq}(z) \subset E'' \subseteq N_{\leq}(L)$.

If $E'' \supset \overline{D'} \supseteq E \uplus E'$ then $\overline{D'} = \overline{Dir_{L'}(x)} = \overline{Dir_{L'}(y)}$ where $L \subset L'$. Let $z \in L' - L$. Then x, y < z, hence $z \in L$, contradicting the choice of z.

Note that E'' is not of the form $N_{\leq}(z)$ for any z because it is the disjoint union of at least two directions. If $E'' = N_{\leq}(z)$, then z would belong to one direction, say D'', and all these directions, in particular $Dir_L(x)$ and $Dir_L(y)$, would be included in D'' hence equal to D'' because directions do not overlap.

Subcase 1.2: $(x, m, y) \in B$ where $m = x \sqcup_T y = \min(L)$. Let $E'' := N \leq (m) \supset E \uplus E'$.

We prove by contradiction that $E'' = E \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} E'$. If this is not the case, we might have $E'' = N_{\leq}(m) \supset N_{\leq}(z) \supseteq E \uplus E'$. But then $\{x, y\} < z < m$, hence m is not the join of x and y.

If $E'' = N_{\leq}(m) \supset \overline{D'} \supseteq E \uplus E'$ then $\overline{D'} = \overline{Dir_{L'}(x)} = \overline{Dir_{L'}(y)}$ where $L \subset L'$. Let $z \in L' - L$. Then $\{x, y\} < z < m$, hence m is not the join of x and y.

Case 2: $E = N_{\leq}(x), E' = \overline{Dir_L(y)}$. Since $N_{\leq}(x) \cap \overline{Dir_L(y)} = \emptyset$, we do not have $Dir_L(y) \approx_L Dir_L(y)$, hence we have $(x, m, y) \in B$ for some m that must be $x \sqcup_T y = \min(L)$. We claim that $N_{\leq}(m) = E \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} E'$. The proof by contradiction is as in Subcase 1.2.

Case $3: E = \overline{D}, D \in \mathfrak{D}(L)$, and $E' = \overline{D'}, D' \in \mathfrak{D}(L')$. If L = L' then, as $\overline{D} \neq \overline{D'}$, we have B(D, m, D') with $m = \min(L) = x \sqcup_T y \in L$, and then $E \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} E' = N_{\leq}(m)$, as in Case 2. Otherwise, if $L \subset L'$, let $y \in L' - L$, $x \in \overline{D}$, and $(x, m, y) \in B$ for some $m \in L$. Hence, $m = \min(L)$ and $N_{\leq}(m) = E \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} E'$.

Lemma 2.21 : $B \subseteq B_{T(\mathcal{C})}[N]$.

Proof: We recall that < denotes $<_r = <_{T(S,r)}$ that is, by Fact 1, the restriction of $<_{T(C)}$ to N. The joins in T(S,r) and T(C) are not always the same.

Consider $(x, y, z) \in B$. By Lemma 2.14(2), we have x < y or z < y. Assume the first.

If y < z then $x <_{T(\mathcal{C})} y <_{T(\mathcal{C})} z$, hence $(x, y, z) \in B_{T(\mathcal{C})}[N]$.

If z < y, then $y = x \sqcup_{T(S,r)} z$, by Lemma 2.13(2). We are in Subcase 1.2 of Lemma 2.20, hence, $y = x \sqcup_{T(C)} z$ and $(x, y, z) \in B_{T(C)}$.

If $y \perp z$, then, let $E := y \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} z$. We have $x < y <_{T(\mathcal{C})} E$, hence $(x, y, E) \in B_{T(\mathcal{C})}$, and also $(y, E, z) \in B_{T(\mathcal{C})}$, hence $(x, y, z) \in B_{T(\mathcal{C})}$.

The case z < y is similar. \Box

Lemma 2.22 : $B_{T(\mathcal{C})}[N] \subseteq B$.

Proof: Let $x, y, z \in N$ such that $(x, y, z) \in B_{T(\mathcal{C})}$.

If we have x < y < z or z < y < x, then $(x, y, z) \in B$ by the definition of < as $<_{T(S,r)}$.

Otherwise $x \perp z$ and, $x < y \leq_{T(\mathcal{C})} u >_{T(\mathcal{C})} z$ where $u = y \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} z = x \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} z$ or, similarly, $x <_{T(\mathcal{C})} u \geq_{T(\mathcal{C})} y > z$. We assume the first.

Case 1: $y \perp z$. Then we have $(x, y, z) \in B$ by Lemma 2.14(1).

Case 2: If y and z comparable, we must have y > z. As $x < y \le_{T(\mathcal{C})} u = x \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} z$, we must have y = u. This means that we cannot be in Subcase 1.1 of Lemma 2.20 (for the definition of $x \sqcup_{T(\mathcal{C})} z$); hence we are in Subcase 1.2 with $y = x \sqcup_{T(S,r)} z$ and $(x,y,z) \in B$.

This completes the proof. \square

Proof of Theorem 2.12: From (N,B) satisfying A1-A6 and A8, we have built a join-tree $T(\mathcal{C})$ whose nodes \mathcal{C} contains N (with x identified with $N_{\leq}(x)$) such that, by Lemmas 2.21 and 2.22, the restriction of its betweenness relation to N is B. Hence, together with Proposition 2.9, a structure (N,B) is in **IBQT** if and only if it satisfies A1-A6 and A8. \square

We know from Definition 10 and Proposition 17 of [3] that a quasi-tree (N, B) is the betweenness relation of a tree if and only if B is discrete, i.e., that each set $[x, y]_B := \{x, y\} \cup \{z \in N \mid B(x, z, y)\}$ is finite (cf. Definition 2.6).

Corollary 2.23: A nontrivial structure (N, B) is an induced betweenness relation in a tree if and only if it satisfies axioms A1-A6, A8 and is discrete. These conditions are monadic second-order expressible.

Proof: An induced relation (N, B) of a discrete one is discrete, which gives the only if directions by Proposition 2.9.

If S = (N, B) satisfies axioms A1-A6, A8 and is discrete, then for all $x, y \in N$ such that $x <_{T(S,r)} y$, the set $\{z \in N \mid x <_{T(S,r)} z <_{T(S,r)} y\}$ is finite. Hence, T(S,r) is a rooted tree.

From Fact 4 after Lemma 2.19, we get that, for all $x, y \in N_{T(\mathcal{C})}$ such that $x <_{T(\mathcal{C})} y$, the set $\{z \in N_{T(\mathcal{C})} \mid x <_{T(\mathcal{C})} z <_{T(\mathcal{C})} y\}$ is finite. Hence, $T(\mathcal{C})$ is a rooted tree.

The property that an interval of a linear order is finite is monadic secondorder expressible as recalled in Section 1.4.

Examples and remarks 2.24: About the proof of Theorem 2.12.

- (1) Consider the structure S_8 of Figure 4(a). The O-tree $T(S_8,0)$ is T_8 (in Figure 4(b)) minus nodes 1 and 2. There are four directions relative to $L := \{0\} = L_>(a,c) : D(a)$, the direction of a, and similarly, D(c), D(e) and D(g). The two equivalence classes of $\mathfrak{D}(L)$ are $\overline{D(a)} = D(a) \uplus D(c) = \{a,b,c,d\}$ and $\overline{D(e)} = D(e) \uplus D(g) = \{e,f,g,h\}$. The nodes 1 and 2 of Figure 4(b) represent the two nodes $\overline{D(a)}$ and $\overline{D(e)}$ added to $T(S_8,0)$ to form the tree T_8 such that $S_8 = B_{T_8}$.
- (2) Consider Figure 1(b) to which we add the fact $B^+(a, b, c)$. Let $L := \mathbb{N}$. The two directions relative to L are $\{a, b\}$ and $\{c\}$. They are \approx_L -equivalent. Only one node is added : $\{a, b, c\} = D(a) \uplus D(c)$.
- (3) Let $T = (N, \leq)$ be a join-tree with root r. Let $S := (N, B_T)$. Then, T = T(S, r). We now apply the construction of Theorem 2.12.

Each $L \in \mathfrak{L}$ has a minimal element, because T is a join-tree. It follows that no two different directions relative to L are equivalent with respect to \approx_L . Hence, The family \mathcal{C} consists only of the sets $N_{\leq}(x)$ and so, $T(\mathcal{C}) = T(S, r) = T$.

(4) If S = (N, B) is an induced betweenness in a quasi-tree, then any node r can be taken as root for defining an O-tree T(S, r) and from it, a join-tree T(C). This fact generalizes the observation that the betweenness in a tree T does not dependent on any root. Informally, quasi-trees and induced betweenness in quasi-trees are "undirected notions". This will not be true for betweenness in O-trees. See the remark about T'_2 in the proof of Proposition 2.11. \square

2.3.2 Betweenness in O-trees.

We let **BO**_{root} be the class of betweenness relations of rooted O-trees. These relations satisfy A1-A6.

Proposition 2.25 : The class $\mathbf{BO_{root}}$ is axiomatized by a first-order sentence.

Proof: Consider S = (N, B). If B is the betweenness relation of an O-tree (N, \leq) with root r, then, \leq is nothing but \leq_r defined before Lemma 2.13 from B and r. Let φ be the FO sentence that expresses properties A1-A6 (relative to B) and the following one:

A9: there exists $r \in N$ such that the O-tree $T(S, r) = (N, \leq_r)$ whose partial order is defined by $x \leq_r y :\iff x = y \vee y = r \vee B(x, y, r)$ has a betweenness relation $B_{T(S,r)}$ equal to B.

That S satisfies A1-A6 insures that (N, \leq_r) is an O-tree with root r. The sentence φ holds if and only if S is in $\mathbf{BO_{root}}$. When it holds, the found node r defines via \leq_r the relevant O-tree. \square

Example 2.26: BO_{root} is strictly included in BO.

Let T be the O-tree with set of nodes \mathbb{Q} and defining partial order \leq such that $x \leq y :\iff x \leq y \land y \in \mathbb{Q} - \mathbb{Z}$ (see Figure 5). Any two elements of \mathbb{Z} are incomparable and no two incomparable elements have a join. We claim that B_T is not in $\mathbf{BO_{root}}$.

Assume that $B_T = B_U$ for some O-tree U with root $r \in \mathbb{Q}$. We will derive a contradiction.

If $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ we take, without loss of generality, r = 0. Let a = -1/2 and b = -3/2. These nodes are incomparable in U otherwise, we would have (0, a, b) or (0, b, a) in $B_U = B_T$ which is false. Hence $(a, 0, b) \in B_U$, but $(a, 0, b) \notin B_T$.

If $r \in \mathbb{Q} - \mathbb{Z}$ we take, without loss of generality, r = 1/2. Let a = 1 and b = 2. These nodes are incomparable in U otherwise, we would have (1/2, a, b) or (1/2, b, a) in $B_U = B_T$ which is false. Hence $(a, 1/2, b) \in B_U$, but $(a, 1/2, b) \notin B_T$.

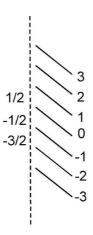


Figure 5: The O-tree of Example 2.26.

Theorem 2.27: The class **BO** is axiomatized by a monadic second-order sentence.

In the proof of Proposition 2.25, we have defined from S = (N, B) satisfying A1-A6 and any node r a candidate partial order \leq_r for (N, \leq_r) to be an O-tree with root r whose betweenness relation would be B. The order \leq_r being expressible by a first-order sentence, we finally obtained a first-order characterization of $\mathbf{BO_{root}}$.

For **BO**, a candidate order will be defined from a *line*, not from a single node. It follows that we will need for our construction a set quantification.

The next lemma is Proposition 5.3 of [4].

Lemma 2.28: Let (L,B) satisfy properties A1-A7' (for all $u,x,y,z \in L$, cf. Proposition 2.2). Let a,b be distinct elements of L. There exist a unique linear order \leq on L such that a < b and $B_{(L,\leq)} = B$. This order is quantifier-free definable in the logical structure (L,B) in terms of a and b.

We will denote this order by $\leq_{L,B,a,b}$. There is a quantifier-free formula λ , written with the ternary relation symbol B, such that, for all a, b, u, v in L, $(L,B) \models \lambda(a,b,u,v)$ if and only if $u \leq_{L,B,a,b} v$.

A line L in an O-tree T is a linearly ordered set that is convex : $x \leq_T y \leq_T z$ and $x, z \in L$ imply $y \in L$.

Lemma 2.29: Let $T = (N, \leq_T)$ be an O-tree, L a maximal line in T that has no largest node. Let $a, b \in L$, such that $a <_L b$, where $<_L$ is the restriction of $<_T$ to L.

- (1) The partial order \leq_T is first-order definable in a unique way in the structure (N, B_T) in terms of L, \leq_L, a and b.
- (2) It is first-order definable in (N, B_T) in terms of L, a and b.

Maximality of L is for set inclusion. This condition implies that L is upwards closed, and furthermore, infinite.

Proof: Let $x, y \in N$. We first prove the following facts.

Fact 1: If $x, y \in L$, then $x <_T y$ if and only if $x <_L y$.

Fact 2: If $x \notin L, y \in L$, then $x <_T y$ if and only if $(x, y, z) \in B_T$ for some $z \in L$ such that $z >_L y$.

Fact 3: If $x, y \notin L$, then $x <_T y$ if and only if $B_T^+(x, y, z, u)$ holds for some z, u in L, such that $u >_L z$.

Fact 1 is clear from the definitions.

For Fact 2, we have some $z >_L y$ because L has no largest element. If $x <_T y <_L z$, then $(x, y, z) \in B_T$.

Assume now that $(x, y, z) \in B_T$ for some $z >_L y$. By the definition of B_T , we have $x <_T y \leq_T x \sqcup_T z$ or $z <_T y \leq_T x \sqcup_T z$. Since $z >_L y$, we cannot have $z <_T y$. Hence, $x <_T y$. (We have actually $(x, y, z) \in B_T$ for every $z >_L y$).

For Fact 3, we note that for every $y \notin L$, we have some $z \in L$, $z >_T y$: take for z any upper-bound of y and some element of L, then $z \in L$ because T is an O-tree. Hence, we have $z, u \in L$ such that $y <_T z <_L u$ because L has no largest element, hence $(y, z, u) \in B_T$ by Fact 2.

If $x <_T y$, we have $x <_T y <_T z$ hence, $(x, y, z) \in B_T$ and $B_T^+(x, y, z, u)$ holds.

Assume now for the converse that $B_T^+(x,y,z,u)$ holds for $z,u\in L$ such that $z<_L u$. We have $(x,y,z)\in B_T$ and $z>_T y$ by Fact 2. By the definition of B_T , we have $x<_T y\leq x\sqcup_T z$ or $z<_T y\leq x\sqcup_T z$. Since $z>_T y$, we cannot have $z<_T y$, hence, $x<_T y$.

We now prove the two assertions of the statement.

- (1) The above equivalences show that \leq_T is first-order definable in (N, B_T) in terms of L, \leq_L, a and b. More precisely, Facts 1,2 and 3 can be expressed as a first-order formula θ written with the relation symbols L, B and R of respective arities 1,3 and 2, such that, if L is a maximal line in T that has no largest node, $a, b \in L$ and $a <_L b$, then, for all $u, v \in N$, $(N, L, B_T, \leq_L) \models \theta(a, b, u, v)$ if and only if $u \leq_T v$. For the validity of $\theta(a, b, u, v)$, B_T is the value of B, and \leq_L is that of R.
- (2) However, \leq_L is quantifier-free definable in $(L, B_T[L])$ by Lemma 2.28. By replacing the atomic formulas R(x,y) by $\lambda(a,b,x,y)$, we ensure that R is \leq_L , hence, we obtain a first-order formula $\psi(a,b,u,v)$, written with L and B such that, for $u,v \in N$:
 - $(N, B_T) \models \psi(a, b, u, v)$ if and only if $u <_T v$ where B_T is the value of B. \square

A line in a structure S=(N,B) that satisfies A1-A6 is a set $L\subseteq N$ of at least 3 elements in which any 3 different elements are aligned (cf. Definition 2.1(c)) and that is convex, i.e., $[x,y]_B\subseteq L$ for all x,y in L.

Theorem 2.30: The class ${\bf BO}$ is axiomatized by a monadic second-order sentence.

Proof: Let $\varphi(L)$ be the monadic second-order formula expressing the following properties of a structure S = (N, B) and a set $L \subseteq N$:

- (i) S satisfies A1-A6,
- (ii) L is a maximal line in S,
- (iii) there are $a, b \in L$ such that the formula $\psi(a, b, u, v)$ of Lemma 2.29 defines a partial order \leq on N such that a < b,
- (iv) (N, \leq) is an O-tree U, in which L is a maximal line without largest element, and
- (v) $B_U = B$.

We need a set quantification to express the maximality of L. All other conditions are first-order expressible.

If $S = (N, B_T)$ is the betweenness relation of an O-tree $T = (N, \leq)$ without root, and L is a maximal line in T, then L is also a maximal line in S. As T has no root, L has no largest element. Then $\varphi(L)$ holds where $a, b \in L$ are such that $a <_L b$. Hence, $S \models \exists L. \varphi(L)$.

Conversely, if S=(N,B) satisfies $\exists L.\varphi(L)$, then, conditions (iv) and (v) show that S is in the class **BO**.

Together with Proposition 2.25, we can express by an MSO sentence that (S, N) is the betweenness relation of an O-tree, with or without root.

A structure S=(N,B) is the betweenness relation of an O-forest if and only if its connected components (cf. Definition 2.10) that are the betweenness relations of O-trees. Hence, we get a monadic second-order sentence expressing that a structure S is the betweenness relation of an O-forest. \square

Next we examine in a similar way the class **IBO**. It is easy to see that **IBO** = IBO_{root} .

Proposition 2.31: Every structure in the class **IBO** satisfies Properties A1-A6 but these properties do not characterize this class.

Proof: Every structure S in the class **IBO** is an induced substructure of some S' in **BO**, that thus satisfies Properties A1-A6. Hence, S satisfies also these properties as they are expressed by universal sentences.

Now, we give an example of a structure U = (N, B) that satisfies Properties A1-A6 but is not in $\mathbf{IBO_{root}}$.

We let $N:=\{a,b,c,d,e,f,g\}$ and B such that $B^+(a,b,c),\ B^+(c,b,d,e),\ B^+(e,d,f,g)$ hold, and nothing else. See Figure 6(a), with the conventions of

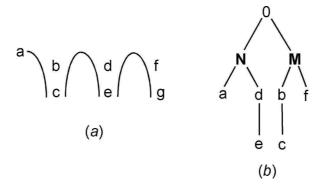


Figure 6: Structure U of Proposition 2.31 (the counter-example) and O-tree T of Remark 2.32.

Fig 4(a). Assume that $B = B_T[N]$ where T is an O-tree (M, \leq) such that $N \subseteq M$. We will consider several cases leading all to $B \subset B_T[N]$, hence a contradiction.

(1) We first assume that a, c, e, g are pairwise incomparable.

The joins $a \sqcup c$, $c \sqcup e$ and $e \sqcup g$ must be defined (because (a, b, c), (c, b, e) and (e, f, g) are in B_T) and furthermore $b \leq a \sqcup c$, $b \leq c \sqcup e$, $d \leq c \sqcup e$, $d \leq e \sqcup g$ and $f \leq e \sqcup g$. The joins $a \sqcup c$ and $c \sqcup e$ must be comparable and so must be $c \sqcup e$ and $e \sqcup g$.

- (1.1) These joins are pairwise distinct, otherwise $B_T[N]$ contains triples not in B, as we now prove.
- (1.1.1) Assume $a \sqcup c = c \sqcup e = e \sqcup g = \alpha$. At least one of $a \sqcup e, c \sqcup g$ and $a \sqcup g$ is defined and equal to α .

If $a \sqcup e = \alpha = a \sqcup c = c \sqcup e$, then either $c < d \le \alpha$ or $e < d \le \alpha$ because $(c, d, e) \in B_T$. Hence, we have (a, d, c) or (a, d, e) in $B_T[N]$ but these triples do not belong to B. All other proofs will be of this type.

If $c \sqcup g = \alpha = c \sqcup e = e \sqcup g$, then (c, f, e) or (c, f, g) is in $B_T[N] - B$ if, respectively, $e < f \le \alpha$ or $g < f \le \alpha$ (because $(e, f, g) \in B_T$).

If $a \sqcup g = \alpha = c \sqcup e = e \sqcup g$, then (a, f, g) or (c, f, e) is in $B_T[N] - B$, if, respectively, $g < f \le \alpha$ or $e < f \le \alpha$ (because $(e, f, g) \in B_T$).

(1.1.2) We now consider the cases where only two of $a \sqcup c, c \sqcup e$ and $e \sqcup g$ are equal.

If $a \sqcup c = c \sqcup e = \alpha$, then if $\alpha < e \sqcup g$, then (a, b, g) or (c, b, g) is in $B_T[N] - B$ (because $(a, b, c) \in B_T$); if $e \sqcup g < \alpha$, then (c, f, e) or (c, f, g) is in $B_T[N] - B$ because $\alpha = c \sqcup e = c \sqcup g$.

If $c \sqcup e = e \sqcup g = \alpha$ and $a \sqcup c < \alpha$, then $e < d \le \alpha$ or $c < d \le \alpha$ which gives (a, d, e) or (a, d, c) in $B_T[N] - B$; if $\alpha < a \sqcup c$, then (a, f, g) or (a, f, e) is in $B_T[N] - B$.

If $a \sqcup c = e \sqcup g = \alpha$, then we have $c \sqcup e < \alpha$ and $a \sqcup e = \alpha$. Hence, (a, d, c) or (a, d, e) is in $B_T[N] - B$. We cannot have $\alpha < c \sqcup e$ because then $c, e < \alpha < c \sqcup e$.

- (1.2) If $a \sqcup c$ and $e \sqcup g$ are incomparable, then $a \sqcup c < c \sqcup e$ and $e \sqcup g < c \sqcup e$. We have then $c \sqcup e = c \sqcup g = a \sqcup g$. Hence, we get that (a,b,g) or (c,b,g) is in $B_T[N] B$.
- (1.3) Hence, $a \sqcup c$, $c \sqcup e$ and $e \sqcup g$ are pairwise different but comparable. We have six cases to consider: $a \sqcup c < c \sqcup e < e \sqcup g$ and five other ones, corresponding to the six sequences of three objects.

If $a \sqcup c < c \sqcup e < e \sqcup g$ then, $a < b < a \sqcup c$ or $c < b < a \sqcup c$ and (a, b, g) or $(c, b, g) \in B_T[N] - B$.

The verifications are similar in the five other cases.

(2) We consider cases where a, c, e, g are not pairwise incomparable.

Observation: If $u < x, (x, y, z) \in B_T$ and we do not have x > z, then $B_T^+(u, x, y, z)$ holds. (If x > z, then x may not be the join of u and z).

If a > c, then we have a > b > c and $c \sqcup e > c$. Hence $c \sqcup e \ge b$, or $b > c \sqcup e$. We get triples (e, b, c) or (a, b, e) in $B_T[N] - B$.

If a < c, then we have $a < b < c \le c \sqcup e$. Hence $(a, c, e) \in B_T[N] - B$.

Hence $a \perp c$. By the observation, we cannot have e < c, g < c, e < a or g < a. If c < e, then, if $a \sqcup c \leq e$ we have (e, b, c) or (e, b, a) in $B_T[N] - B$; if

 $e < a \sqcup c$, then $(a, e, c) \in B_T[N] - B$. Hence, $c \perp e$. By the observation, we cannot have a < c, a < e, or g < e.

If e < g, then, either $c \sqcup e \le g$ or $g < c \sqcup e$ which gives (g, b, c), (g, b, e) or (c, g, e) in $B_T[N] - B$.

Hence, $e \perp g$. By the observation, we cannot have a < g or c < g. All cases yield $B \subset B_T[N]$. Hence, S is not in **IBO**.

Remarks 2.32: (1) If we modify U of the previous proof by replacing $B^+(c,b,d,e)$ by $B^+(c,d,e)$, we get a modified structure U' for which the same result holds, by a similar proof.

- (2) If we delete g from U, we get a structure W that is in $\mathbf{IBO_{root}}$. A witnessing O-tree T is shown in Figure 6(b) where \mathbf{N} and \mathbf{M} represent two copies of \mathbb{N} ordered top-down as in T_2 (Figure 1(b) and proof of Proposition 2.11).
- (3) For every finite structure $H = (N_H, B_H)$, let φ_H be a first-order sentence expressing that a given structure (N, B) has an induced substructure isomorphic to H. Hence, every structure in **IBO** satisfies properties A1-A6 and $\neg \varphi_U \land \neg \varphi_{U'}$.

We do not know whether this first-order sentence axiomatizes the class **IBO**, and more generally, whether there exists a finite set of "excluded" finite induced structures like U and U', that would characterize the class **IBO**. The existence of such a set would give a first-order axiomatization of **IBO**.

The construction of Theorem 2.30 does not extend to **IBO** because, as we noted in the proof of Proposition 2.11 (point (3)), a finite structure in **IBO** may not be an induced betweenness relation of any finite O-tree. No construction like that of $T(\mathcal{C})$ in the proof of Theorem 2.12 can produce an infinite structure from a finite one. Nevertheless:

Conjecture 2.33: The class **IBO** is axiomatized by a monadic second-order sentence.

2.4 Logically defined constructions

Each betweenness relation is a structure S=(N,B) defined from a structure $T=(N',\leq,N)$ where (N',\leq) is an O-tree and $N\subseteq N'$ is handled as a unary relation. The different cases are shown in Table 1. In each case a first-order sentence can check whether the structure (N',\leq,N) is of the appropriate type, and the relation B is first-order definable in (N',\leq,N) .

Structure	Axiomatization	Source	From (N, B) to a
(N,B)		structure	source structure
$\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{T}$	FO : A1-A7, Prop. 2.7	join-tree (N, \leq, N)	FOT
IBQT	FO: A1-A6, A8, Thm 2.12	join-tree (N', \leq, N)	MSOT
ВО	MSO: Theorem 2.30	O-tree (N, \leq, N)	MSOT
IBO	MSO?: Conjecture 2.33	O-tree (N', \leq, N)	not MSOT

Table 1

The last colomun indicates which type of transduction (FO transduction or MSO transduction) can produce, from a structure (N, B), a relevant source structure (N', \leq, N) . For \mathbf{QT} , this follows from the proof of Theorem 2.7(1): if S = (N, B) satisfies A1-A7, if $r \in N$, then, the O-tree $T(S, r) = (N, \leq_r)$ is a join-tree and $B = B_{T(S,r)}$. For \mathbf{BO} , the MSO sentence that axiomatizes the class constructs a relevant O-tree (it guesses one and checks that the guess is correct). For \mathbf{IBO} , we observed that the source tree may need to be infinite for defining a finite betweenness structure, which excludes the existence of an MSO transduction, because these transformations produce structures whose domain size is linear in that of the input structure. (cf. Definition 1.6, and Chapter 7 of [5]).

It remains to prove the case of **IBQT**.

Theorem 2.34: A join-tree (N', \leq, N) witnessing that a given structure S = (N, B) is in the class **IBQT** can be defined from S by MSO formulas.

We first describe the proof strategy. We want to prove that, for a given structure S = (N, B) that satisfies Axioms A1-A6 and A8, the tree $T(\mathcal{C})$ of the proof of Theorem 2.12 can be constructed by MSO formulas (of course independent of S).

The first step is the construction of $T(S, r) = (N, \leq_r)$: one chooses a node r and the partial order \leq_r is FO definable in S by using r as value of a variable.

The nodes of $T(\mathcal{C})$ (constructed from T(S,r)) are the sets in \mathcal{C} and they are of two types :

either $N_{<}(z)$, they are in C_1 ,

or $\overline{Dir_L(u)}$ for u < L and $L \in \mathfrak{L}$ such that $\overline{Dir_L(u)}$ is the union of at least two directions (cf. Lemma 2.19); they are in C_2 .

A set $N_{\leq}(z)$ is represented by its maximal element z in a natural way, and T embeds in $T(\mathcal{C})$ (cf. Example 1.3).

A set $\overline{Dir_L(u)}$ is a new node added to T. In order to make the transformation of $S \longmapsto T(\mathcal{C})$ into a transduction as in Definition 1.6(b), we define $N_{T(\mathcal{C})}$ as $(N \times \{1\}) \uplus (M \times \{2\})$ where (x, 1) encodes $N_{\leq}(x)$ and each $w \in M \subseteq N$ encodes (bijectively) some set $\overline{Dir_L(u)} \in \mathcal{C}_2$. An MSO formula $\psi(w, U)$ will express that w encodes $U = \overline{Dir_L(u)}$, for some L and u. We will write this $w = \widehat{U}$.

Lemma 2.19(2) has shown that each set $Dir_L(u)$ in C_2 can be defined from three nodes x, y and u. We need a definition by a single node, in order to obtain a monadic second-order transduction. The sets U in C_2 are FO definable but not pairwise disjoint. Hence, one cannot select arbitrarily an element of U to represent it. We will use a notion of structuring of O-trees, similar to the one defined in [4] for join-trees, that we will also use in Section 3. We will also have to prove that the partial order $\leq_{T(C)}$ is defined by MSO formulas, but this will be straightforward by means of the formula $\psi(w, U)$.

Definition 2.35: Structurings of O-trees.

In the following definitions, $T = (N, \leq)$ is an O-tree.

- (a) If U and W are two lines (convex linearly ordered subsets of N), we say that W covers U, denoted by $U \prec W$, if U < w for some w in W and, for any such w and $x \in N$, if U < x < w, then $x \in W$.
- (b) A structuring of T is a set \mathcal{U} of nonempty lines that forms a partition of N and satisfies the following conditions:
- 1) One single line called the *axis* is upwards closed. (No two disjoint lines can be upwards closed).
 - 2) There are no two lines $U, U' \in \mathcal{U}$ such that U < U'.
- 3) For each x in N, $L_{\geq}(x) = I_k \uplus I_{k-1} \uplus ... \uplus I_0$ for nonempty intervals $I_0, ..., I_k$ of $(L_{\geq}(x), \leq)$ such that:
 - (i) $x = \min(I_k)$ and $I_k < I_{k-1} < ... < I_0$,
- (ii) for each j, there is a line $U \in \mathcal{U}$ such that $I_j \subseteq U$, and it is denoted by U_j ; U_0 is the axis,
- (iii) each I_j is upwards closed in U_j , that is, if $x \in U_j$ and $x > y \in I_j$ then $x \in I_j$.

Hence, $U_j \neq U_{j'}$ if $j \neq j'$, and $U_j \prec U_{j-1}$ for j = 1, ..., k. The sequence $I_0, I_1, ..., I_k$ is unique for each x, and k is defined as the *depth* of x and also of U_k .

If $x \in N$, then U(x) denotes the line that contains x.

We say that $T = (N, \leq, \mathcal{U})$ is a structured O-tree.

(c) If (N, \leq, \mathcal{U}) is a structured O-tree, we define $S(N, \leq, \mathcal{U})$ as the relational structure (N, \leq, N_0, N_1) such that N_0 is the set of nodes at even depth and $N_1 := N - N_0$ is the set of those at odd depth. \square

Let X be a subset of a partial order (N, \leq) . A strict upper-bound of X is an element y such that y > X. We denote by lsub(X) the least strict upper-bound of X if it exists. If X has no maximum element and a least upper-bound m, then lsub(X) = m. If X has a maximum element m, its least strict upper-bound if it exists covers m, that is, lsub(X) > m and there is no p, lsub(X) > p > m.

Proposition 2.36: Let \mathcal{U} be a structuring of an O-tree $T=(N,\leq)$. Then, T is a join-tree if and only if each $U\in\mathcal{U}$ that is not the axis has a least strict upper-bound, and $lsub(U)\in W$ where W is the line in \mathcal{U} that covers U.

Proof: Clear from Definition 2.35. \square

Proposition 2.37: Every O-tree has a structuring.

Proof: The proof is similar to that of [4] establishing that every join-tree has a structuring. We give it for completeness. Let $T = (N, \leq)$ be an O-tree. We choose an enumeration $x_0, x_1, ..., x_n, ...$ of N and a maximal line B_0 ; it is thus upwards closed.

For each i > 0, we choose a maximal line B_i containing the first node not in $B_{i-1} \cup ... \cup B_0$. We define $U_0 := B_0$ and, for i > 0, $U_i := B_i - (U_{i-1} \uplus ... \uplus U_0) = B_i - (B_{i-1} \cup ... \cup B_0)$. We define \mathcal{U} as the set of lines U_i . It is a structuring of J. The axis is U_0 . Condition 2) is guaranteed because we choose a maximal line B_i at each step. \square

Lemma 2.38 : (1) It is MSO expressible that some structure (N, \leq, N_0, N_1) actually represents a structured O-tree.

(2) There is a first-order formula $\nu(X, N_0, N_1)$ expressing in every structure $S(N, \leq, \mathcal{U})$ representing a structured O-tree that a set X belongs to \mathcal{U} .

Proof: (1) The proof is, up to minor details, that Proposition 3.7(1) in [4]. (2) We let $\nu(X, N_0, N_1)$ express that:

- (i) X is nonempty, linearly ordered and convex,
- (ii) $X \subseteq N_0$ or $X \subseteq N_1$,
- (iii) if $x \in N_0 \cap X$ and $[x, y] \subseteq N_0$ or $[y, x] \subseteq N_0$ then $y \in X$,
- (iv) the same holds for N_1 instead of N_0 .

Let $X \in \mathcal{U}$. Condition 3) of Definition 2.35 yields that, if x < y, then $[x,y] \subseteq N_0$ or $[x,y] \subseteq N_1$ if and only if x and y belong to the same line in \mathcal{U} (in particular because if $[x,y] \subseteq N_0$ or $[x,y] \subseteq N_1$, then $[x,y] \subseteq I_k \subseteq U_k$). Conditions (i)-(iv) hold.

Conversely, assume that $\nu(X, N_0, N_1)$ holds. Let $x \in X$. We have $X \subseteq U(x)$: let $y \in X$; if x < y, then $[x, y] \subseteq N_0 \cap X$ or $[x, y] \subseteq N_1 \cap X$. Hence, $y \in U(x)$ by the above remark; if y < x, then, $x \in U(y)$ and so $y \in U(x)$.

If there is $z \in U(x) - X$, then, as X is an interval, we have z < X or X < z. The intervals [z, x] (or [x, z]) is contained in N_0 or in N_1 , hence, $z \in X$ by (iii). Contradiction. Hence, X = U(x). \square

The formula $x \in X \land \nu(X)$ expresses that X = U(x).

Some more notation: Let $T = (N, \leq, \mathcal{U})$ be a structured O-tree with axis A. Let $x \in N - A$ and $L_{\geq}(x) = I_k \uplus I_{k-1} \uplus ... \uplus I_0$ as in Definition 2.35(b). We define $L^+(x) := I_{k-1} \uplus ... \uplus I_0$. We have $U_{k-1} = W_{k-1} \uplus I_{k-1}$ for some interval W_{k-1} of U_{k-1} such that $W_{k-1} < I_{k-1}$. Together with the hypothesis of Lemma 2.38:

Lemma 2.39: (1) The interval W_{k-1} is not empty.

- (2) For every $y \in \downarrow (W_{k-1})$, we have $L_{>}(x,y) = L^{+}(x)$.
- (3) Every set $L \in \mathfrak{L}$ is of the form $L^+(z)$ for some z.

Proof: (1) If W_{k-1} is empty, then $U_k < I_{k-1} = U_{k-1}$, contradiction Condition 2) of Definition 2.35(b).

- (2) Clear from Condition 2) of Definition 2.35(b).
- (3) Let $L = L_{>}(x,y)$. Let $L_{\geq}(x) = I_k \uplus I_{k-1} \uplus ... \uplus I_0$ and $L_{\geq}(y) = J_{\ell} \uplus J_{\ell-1} \uplus ... \uplus J_0$ (cf. Condition 3) of Definition 2.35(b)).

We have three cases:

Case 1: $I_{m-1} \uplus ... \uplus I_0 = J_{m-1} \uplus ... \uplus J_0$ for some $m \leq \min(k,\ell)$ such that $I_m \cap J_m = \emptyset$.

Then $L_>(x,y)=L^+(z)$ for any z in $I_m\cup J_m$ (or even in $U_m\cup U'_m$, where $J_m\subseteq U'_m\in \mathcal{U}$). We have also :

$$L_{>}(x,y) = L_{>}(x',y') = L_{>}(x',u) = L_{>}(y',u)$$
 for every $x' \in \downarrow (I_m)$, $y' \in \downarrow (J_m)$ and $u \in \downarrow (U_{m-1} - I_{m-1})) = \downarrow (W_{m-1})$, (cf. (1) and (2)).

Case $2: I_{m-1} \subset J_{m-1}$ and $I_p = J_p$ for every p < m-1. Then $L_{>}(x,y) = L^{+}(z)$ for any z in I_m (or even in U_m). We have also

$$L_{>}(x,y) = L_{>}(x',u)$$
 for every $x' \in \downarrow (I_m)$, and $u \in \downarrow (U_{m-1} - I_{m-1}) = \downarrow (W_{m-1})$.

Case 3: Similar to Case 2 by exchanging x and y. \square

In Case 1, the sets $\downarrow (I_m)$, $\downarrow (J_m)$ and $\downarrow (U_{m-1} - I_{m-1})$ are three different directions relative to L. In Case 2, $\downarrow (I_m)$ and $\downarrow (U_{m-1} - I_{m-1})$ are similarly different directions.

Lemma 2.40 : (1) There exists a FO formula $\alpha(N_0, N_1, x, r, z)$ expressing that $x \in L^+(z)$.

(2) There exists a FO formula $\beta(N_0, N_1, X, r, z)$ expressing that $X = \overline{Dir_{L^+(z)}(z)}$ and $X \in \mathcal{C}_2$.

Proof: (1) The property $x \in L^+(z)$ is expressed by the following FO formula $\alpha(N_0, N_1, x, r, z)$:

 $(z \in N_0 \land \exists y. (z < y \le x \land y \in N_1)) \lor (z \in N_1 \land \exists y. (z < y \le x \land y \in N_0)).$

(2) Lemma 2.19(2) shows that $X = Dir_L(z) \wedge X \in \mathcal{C}_2$ is FO expressible provided $x \in L$ is. Assertion (1) shows precisely that $x \in L^+(z)$ is FO expressible. \square

Proof of Theorem 2.34: By using the previous lemmas, we now prove the existence of MSO formulas that can define from a structure S = (N, B) that satisfies A1-A6 and A8, a join-tree T such that $N_T \supseteq N$ and $B = B_T[N]$. In the technical terms of [5] there is a monadic second-order transduction that transforms a structure S = (N, B) into such a join-tree.

It is important that z defines a unique set $\overline{Dir_{L^+(z)}(z)} \in \mathcal{C}_2$. We may have $\overline{Dir_{L^+(z)}(z)} = \overline{Dir_{L^+(w)}(w)}$ where $z \neq w$, but we wish to have each set in \mathcal{C}_2 encoded by a unique node. For insuring this, we choose a set M of nodes such that each set in \mathcal{C}_2 is $\overline{Dir_{L^+(z)}(z)}$ for a unique node $z \in M$.

We now have the set of nodes of $T(\mathcal{C})$ defined as $N_{T(\mathcal{C})} := (N \times \{1\}) \uplus (M \times \{2\})$ where (x,1) encodes $N_{\leq}(x)$ and each $w \in M$ in a pair (w,2) encodes a unique set in C_2 . Then $T(\mathcal{C}) = (N_{T(\mathcal{C})}, \leq)$ where \leq is the inclusion of the sets encoded by the pairs in $N_{T(\mathcal{C})}$. This is easy by using the formula β .

To sum up, the formulas will use the parameters r, N_0 and M:

r is to be the root of the O-tree $T(S,r) = (N, \leq_r)$,

 $N_0 \subseteq N$ is such that the structure $(N, \leq_r, N_0, N - N_0)$ represents a structured O-tree,

M is intended to be in bijection with \mathcal{C}_2 .

First-order formulas can check that these parameters are correctly chosen. However, the choices of N_0 and M need set quantifications.

We obtain a join-tree T' with set of nodes $N_{T'} = (N \times \{1\}) \uplus (M \times \{2\})$. Then S = (N, B) is isomorphic to $(N \times \{1\}, B_{T'}[N \times \{1\}])$ where (x, 1) corresponds to $x \in N$. Hence, S is defined by $(N_{T'}, \leq_{T'}, N \times \{1\})$ constructed by MSO formulas. \square

Remark 2.41: About join-completion.

The join-completion builds an O-tree T from the sets U(x,y), cf. Example 1.3. If x and y have no join, then U(x,y) defined as $N_{\leq}(L_{\geq}(x,y))$ is equal to $N_{\leq}(L_{>}(x,y))$. By means of a structuring of T, such a set is of the form $N_{\leq}(L^{+}(z))$, hence can be encoded by a single node z. The technique of Theorem 2.34 is applicable to prove that join-completion is an MSO transduction.

3 Embeddings in the plane

We will give a geometric characterization of join-trees and of induced betweenness in quasi-trees (equivalently, in join-trees). We first define how a structured join-tree can be embedded in straight lines in the plane.

Definition 3.1: Trees of lines in the plane.

- (a) In the Euclidean plane, let $\mathcal{L} = (L_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a family of straight halflines (simply called *lines* below) with respective origins $o(L_i)$, that satisfies the following conditions:
 - (i) if i > 0, then $o(L_i) \in L_j$ for some j < i,
- (ii) for all $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$, $L_i \cap L_j$ is $\{o(L_i)\}$ or $\{o(L_j)\}$ or is empty. (We may have $o(L_i) = o(L_j)$).

We call \mathcal{L} a tree of lines: the union of the lines L_i is a connected set $\mathcal{L}^{\#}$ in the plane. A path (resp. a cycle) in $\mathcal{L}^{\#}$ is a homeomorphism h of the interval [0,1] of real numbers (respectively of the circle S^1) into $\mathcal{L}^{\#}$ such that h(0) = x and h(1) = y in the case of a path. For any two distinct $x, y \in \mathcal{L}^{\#}$, there is a unique path from x to y (it "follows the lines"), and consequently, there is no cycle. This path goes through lines L_k such that $k \leq \max\{i, j\}$ where $x \in L_i$ and $y \in L_j$, hence, through finitely many of them. This path uses a single interval of each line it goes through, otherwise, there is a cycle.

(b) We obtain a ternary betweenness relation:

```
B_{\mathcal{L}}(x,y,z) : \iff \neq (x,y,z) and y is on the path between x and z.
```

(c) On each line L_i , we define a linear order as follows:

$$x \leq_i y$$
 if and only if $y = x$ or $y = o(L_i)$ or y is between x and $o(L_i)$.

On $\mathcal{L}^{\#}$, we define a partial order by :

$$x \leq y$$
 if and only if $x = y$ or
$$x \prec_{i_k} o(L_{i_k}) \prec_{i_{k-1}} o(L_{i_{k-1}}) \prec_{i_{k-2}} \ldots \prec_{i_1} o(L_{i_1}) \prec_{i_0} y$$
 for some $i_0 < i_1 < \ldots < i_k$. If $k = 0$, then $x \prec_{i_0} y$.

It is clear that $(\mathcal{L}^{\#}, \preceq)$ is an uncountable rooted O-tree : for each x in $\mathcal{L}^{\#}$, the set $\{y \in \mathcal{L}^{\#} \mid x \preceq y\}$ is linearly ordered with greatest element $o(L_0)$.

Definition 3.2: Embeddings of join-trees in trees of lines.

Let $T=(N,\leq,\mathcal{U})$ be a structured join-tree (cf. Definition 2.35). An *embedding* of T into a tree of lines \mathcal{L} is an injective mapping $m:N\to\mathcal{L}^\#$ such that:

```
for each U \in \mathcal{U}, m is order preserving : (U, \leq) \to (L_i, \leq_i) for some i \in \mathbb{N}, and
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if U is not the axis, then $m(lsub(U)) = o(L_i)$.

Lemma 3.3: If T is a structured join-tree embedded by m into a tree of lines \mathcal{L} , then, its betweenness satisfies:

$$B_T(x,y,z)$$
 if and only if $\neq (x,y,z) \land B_L(m(x),m(y),m(z))$.

Proof sketch: Let $(x, y, z) \in B_T$. Assume that $x < y < x \sqcup z$ and let us compare $L_{\geq}(x) = I_k \uplus I_{k-1} \uplus ... \uplus I_0$ and $L_{\geq}(z) = J_{\ell} \uplus J_{\ell-1} \uplus ... \uplus J_0$ (as in the proof of Lemma 2.39(3)). There are three cases. In each of them, we have a "path" in T between x and z, that goes through y and is a concatenation of intervals of lines of the structuring of T. By concatenating the corresponding segments of the lines in \mathcal{L} , we get a (topological) path between m(x) and m(z) that contains m(y). Hence, we have (m(x), m(y), m(z)) in $B_{\mathcal{L}}$.

The proof is similar in the other direction. \square

Theorem 3.4: If \mathcal{L} is a tree of lines and N is a countable subset of $\mathcal{L}^{\#}$, then $S := (N, B_{\mathcal{L}}[N])$ is an induced betweenness in a quasi-tree. Conversely, every induced betweenness in a quasi-tree is isomorphic to S as above for some tree of lines \mathcal{L} .

Proof: If \mathcal{L} is a tree of lines and $N \subset \mathcal{L}^{\#}$ is countable, then $S := (N, B_{\mathcal{L}}[N])$ is in **IBQT**. A witnessing join-tree T is built as follows. Its set of nodes is $N \cup O$ where O is the set of origins of all lines in \mathcal{L} . Its order is the restriction to $N \cup O$ of the order \preceq on $\mathcal{L}^{\#}$. Then $(N, B_{\mathcal{L}}[N]) = (N, B_{T}[N])$ hence belongs to **IBQT**.

Conversely, let $S = (N, B_T[N])$ such that T is a structured join-tree. It is isomorphic to $(N, B_L[N])$ for some tree of lines by the following proposition.

Proposition 3.5: Every structured join-tree embeds into some tree of lines \mathcal{L} .

The proof will use notions of geometry relative positions of lines in the plane.

Definitions 3.6: Angles and line drawings.

An orientation of the plane, say the trigonometric one is fixed.

(a) Let L, K be two lines with same origin. Their angle $L \triangle K$ is the real number $\alpha, 0 \le \alpha < 2\pi$, such that L becomes K by a rotation of angle α .

If o(K) is in $L-\{o(L)\}$, we define $L\triangle K:=L'\triangle K$ where L' is the unbounded half-line included in L with origin o(K).

(b) For a line L, an angle α such that $0 < \alpha < \pi$ and $O \in L$, we define $S(L, O, \alpha)$ as the union of the lines K with origin O such that $0 \le L \triangle K < \alpha$. We call sector such a set.

Lemma 3.7: For given L and α as above, one can draw countably many lines with origin o(L) inside the sector $S(L, o(L), \alpha)$.

Proof: We draw $K_1, K_2, ..., K_i, ...$ such that $L \triangle K_1 = \alpha/2$ and $K_i \triangle K_{i+1} = \alpha/2^{i+1}$ for each i. \square

Lemma 3.8: Let L, α be as above and X be a countable set enumerated as $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_i, ...\} \subseteq L - \{o(L)\}$. One can draw lines $K_1, K_2, ..., K_i, ...$ in the sector $S(L, o(L), \alpha)$ in such a way that $o(K_i) = x_i$ for each i, no two lines are parallel or meet except at their origins, and none is included in L.

Proof: We must have $0 < L \triangle K_i < \alpha$ for each i.

For each i, we let $\gamma_i := \alpha/2^{i+1}$ and $\beta_i := \Sigma\{\gamma_j \mid x_j \prec x_i\} < \alpha$ where $x_j \prec x_i$ means that x_i is between o(L) and x_j . Then, we draw $K_1, K_2, ..., K_i, ...$ with respective origins $x_1, x_2, ..., x_i, ...$ such that $L \triangle K_i = \beta_i$. \square

For each i, the sector $S(K_i, x_i, \gamma_i)$ contains nothing else than K_i . By Lemma 3.8, one can draw inside $S(K_i, x_i, \gamma_i)$ countably many lines with origin x_i .

Proof of Proposition 3.5: Let \mathcal{U} be a structuring of a join-tree T. Let A be the axis. Hence, lsub(A) is undefined.

The depth $\partial(U)$ of $U \in \mathcal{U}$ is defined in Definition 2.35 for O-trees. It satisfies the following induction :

```
\partial(A)=0, \partial(U)=\partial(U')+1 if U' has the minimal depth such that lsub(U)\in U'. (Hence, lsub(U)\neq lsub(U')).
```

We draw lines $L_0, L_1, ...$ and define an embedding m such that the conditions of Definition 3.2 hold. We first draw L_0 and define m on A, as required. We choose α such that $0 < \alpha < \pi$. All further constructions will be inside the sector $S(L_0, o(L_0), \alpha)$.By Lemmas 3.7 and 3.8, we can draw the lines of depth 1. There is space for drawing the lines of depth 2. We continue in this way¹⁰. \square

4 Conclusion

We have defined betweenness relations in different types of generalized trees, and obtained first-order or monadic second-order axiomatizations. In Section 3, we have also given a geometric characterization of join-trees and the associated betweenness relations.

We have proved that the class **IBQT** of induced substructures of the first-order class **QT** of quasi-trees is first-order axiomatizable. This is not an immediate consequence of the FO axiomatization of **QT** as shown in the appendix.

We conjecture that betweenness in O-trees is *not first-order axiomatizable*. We also conjecture that the class **IBO** of induced betweenness relations in O-trees has a monadic second-order axiomatization.

In [4], we have defined quasi-trees and join-trees of different kinds from regular infinite terms, and proved they are equivalently the unique models of monadic second-order sentences. Both types of characterizations yield finitary descriptions and decidability results, in particular for deciding isomorphism. In a future work, we will extend these results to O-trees and to their betweenness relations.

¹⁰The angles γ_i are of course very small as depth increases.

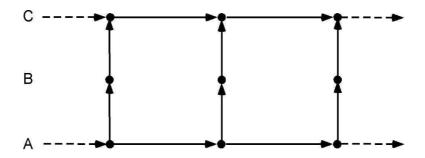


Figure 7: The ladder of Example 6.1.

5 Appendix: Induced relational structures

The following example shows that the FO characterization of **IBQT** does not follow from the FO characterization of the class **QT**.

Counter-example: Taking induced substructure does not preserve first-order axiomatizability.

We prove a little more. We define an FO class \mathcal{C} of relational structures such that $Ind(\mathcal{C})$, the class of induced substructures of those in \mathcal{C} , is not MSO axiomatizable.

Let R be a binary relation symbol and A, B, C be unary. We let C be the class of structures S = (V, R, A, B, C) that satisfy the following conditions (i) to (iv):

- (i) A, B, C form a partition of V,
- (ii) R is irreflexive.

Hence S can be considered as a loop-free directed graph whose vertices forming the set V are "colored" by A, B or C. Further conditions are as follows:

- (iii) each infinite connected component of S is an "horizontal ladder" that is infinite in both directions, a portion of which is shown in Figure 7; the sets of A- and C-colored vertices form each a biinfinite horizontal directed path.
- (iv) each finite connected component is a closed "ring", with two directed cycles of A- and C-colored vertices; Figure 7 shows a portion of this ring.

Conditions (iii) and (iv) can be expressed by an FO sentence saying in particular :

- (a) Every vertex x_A in A has a unique successor y_A in A and a unique successor x_B in B; x_B has a unique successor x_C in C; y_A has a unique successor in y_B in B; y_B has a unique successor y_C in C that is also the unique successor of x_C in C.
- (b) Similar condition with predecessor instead of successor for A- and C-colored vertices.
 - (c) There are no other edges than those specified by (a) and (b).

By a successor (or predecessor) of x, we mean a vertex y such that $(x, y) \in R$ (or $(y, x) \in R$ respectively).

Let us assume that $Ind(\mathcal{C})$ is characterized by an MSO sentence ψ . We will derive a contradiction.

Let θ be an MSO sentence expressing that S = (V, R, A, B, C) consists of six vertices x_A , z_A , x_B , z_B , x_C , z_C , of directed edges x_Ax_B , x_Bx_C , z_Az_B and z_Bz_C , of a directed path p_A of A-colored vertices from x_A to z_A and of a directed path p_C of C-colored vertices from x_C to z_C . Its construction is routine. Set quantifiers are necessary for expressing the existence of paths p_A and p_C because first-order logic cannot express transitive closures.

Then, the structures that satisfy $\theta \wedge \psi$ are exactly those that satisfy θ and have paths p_A and p_C of equal lengths. But such an equality is not MSO expressible (cf. [5]). Hence, no MSO sentence ψ can characterize $Ind(\mathcal{C})$. \square

This example shows that the first-order axiomatization of the class **IBQT** (Theorem 2.12) is not an immediate consequence of the first-order axiomatization of quasi-trees. To the opposite, the proof of Proposition 2.9 has used such an argument based on the structure of logical formulas.

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