Kruskal's theorem and Nash-Williams theory

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This is based on notes I took at Wilfrid's seminar for Ph.D. students at Queen Mary College, around autumn 1985. His seminars drew to some extent on [1, 3, 4, 5].

I started this latex version of the notes in about March 1992, and revised and expanded it beyond the material in the 1985 notes in Jan 2003. Section 6 is still incomplete. Some of the improvements may be bad improvements, and there are surely still some errors due to my bad note-taking and transcribing. Use at your own risk.

I strongly recommend and request that you do not cite these notes in your own publications. The notes are made available because they may be helpful, but they are not authoritative or formally published. The original sources are [1, 3, 4] and these should be cited in preference. Any results given here that are not in these papers are essentially just exercises.

Thanks to Sz. Mikulás for helpful comments.

1 Well-quasi-orderings

Definition 1.1 If S is any set and κ a cardinal, $[S]^{\kappa}$ is the set of subsets of S of size κ , and $[S]^{<\kappa}$ is the set of subsets of S of size less than κ .

Definition 1.2 A pre-order is a reflexive and transitive binary relation, usually written $\leq \subseteq$, etc. Given a pre-order \leq , we write x < y to abbreviate $x \leq y \land y \not\leq x$.

Definition 1.3 (wqo) A well-quasi-ordering (wqo) is a pre-order such that (i) it is well-founded (it has no infinite strictly descending (>) sequences), and (ii) there is no infinite antichain (a set of pairwise incomparable elements).

Lemma 1.4 If \leq is a pre-order on a set I, then the following are equivalent:

- 1. \leq is a wqo.
- 2. If $x_0, x_1, \ldots \in I$ then there are i < j with $x_i \leq x_j$.
- 3. If $x_0, x_1, \ldots \in I$ then there is an infinite $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_i \leq x_j$ for all i < j in X.
- 4. Any $X \subseteq I$ has a finite subset of minimal elements: there is finite $Y \subseteq X$ such that $\forall x \in X \exists y \in Y (y \leq x)$.

Proof. For the equivalence of 1–3, it is enough to show $1 \Rightarrow 3$. Assume (1). Let $f : [\mathbb{N}]^2 \to \{\leq, >, \bot\}$ be such that $x_i f(i, j) x_j$ for all $i < j < \omega$. Here, $a \bot b$ means a and b are incomparable. By Ramsey's theorem (see corollary 4.4 below), there is infinite $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $f \upharpoonright [X]^2$ is constant. Assuming (1), the constant value is not \bot or >; hence it is \leq , and we are done.

Clearly, $4 \Rightarrow 2$. To show $2 \Rightarrow 4$, assume $X \subseteq I$ fails (4). Define $x_0, x_1, \ldots \in X$ by induction: given $n < \omega$, since $\{x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1}\}$ is finite and X fails (4), there is $x_n \in X$ with $x_i \not\leq x_n$ for all i < n. Then the sequence x_0, x_1, \ldots fails (2). \Box

This is reminiscent of König's tree lemma: well-founded replaces the tree condition, and the lack of infinite antichains replaces the finitely-branching condition. The lemma's conclusion, that any infinite sequence of distinct elements contains an infinite increasing subsequence, corresponds to the infinite branch that König's lemma provides.

Now we see a little Nash-Williams theory.

Definition 1.5 Given a pre-order \leq on I, a bad sequence is an infinite sequence x_0, x_1, \ldots in I such that $x_i \not\leq x_j$ whenever i < j. We say such a sequence is minimal bad if it is bad, and for each n there is no bad sequence $x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1}, y_n, y_{n+1}, \ldots$ with $y_n < x_n$.

By the lemma, a wqo is one without bad sequences. Any infinite subsequence of a bad sequence is bad.

Lemma 1.6 If \leq is well-founded but is not a wqo then there is a minimal bad sequence.

Proof. By induction. There are bad sequences. Choose $x_0 \in I$ minimal such that it is the first element of a bad sequence — this is possible as \leq is well-founded. Inductively, if x_i (i < n) are chosen, choose x_n such that it is minimal such that x_0, \ldots, x_n extends to a bad sequence. Clearly the result x_0, x_1, \ldots is a minimal bad sequence.

Lemma 1.7 Let x_0, x_1, \ldots be minimal bad. Put $Y = \{x \in I : x < x_i \text{ for some } i\}$. Then \leq is a wqo on Y.

Proof. If not, then there is a bad sequence y_0, y_1, \ldots in Y. Each y_i is < some $x_{i'}$. Choose $i < \omega$ to make i' as small as possible. By throwing away y_0, \ldots, y_{i-1} we can assume i = 0.

Claim: $x_0, \ldots, x_{i'-1}, y_0, y_1, \ldots$ is bad.

Proof of Claim: If not, then as the x-part and y-part are from bad sequences, we must have $x_m \leq y_n$ for some m < i' and some n. Now by definition of Y, we have $y_n < x_{n'}$ for some n'. By choice of i' as small as possible, $n' \geq i'$. So $x_m \leq y_n < x_{n'}$ and m < n', contradicting x_0, x_1, \ldots being bad. This proves the claim.

The claim contradicts the choice of x_0, x_1, \ldots as minimal bad. Thus the lemma is proved.

Definition 1.8 Given a pre-order (I, \leq) , define $I^{<\omega}$ to be the set of all finite sequences of elements of I, ordered by: $(x_0, \ldots, x_{m-1}) \leq (y_0, \ldots, y_{n-1})$ iff there is a one-one order-preserving map $f : m \to n$ such that $x_i \leq y_{f(i)}$ for all i < m.

Lemma 1.9 The relation \leq on $I^{<\omega}$ is a pre-order, and if < is well-founded on I then < is well-founded on $I^{<\omega}$.

Proof. Reflexivity and transitivity of \leq on $I^{<\omega}$ are clear. If there is an infinite strictly decreasing chain \bar{x}_i $(i < \omega)$ in $I^{<\omega}$, then as the lengths of the \bar{x}_i must form a non-increasing sequence of natural numbers, we can assume the \bar{x}_i all have the same length, m say. For each i there is j < m such that $x_{i+1,j} < x_{ij}$. Hence there is j such that the above holds for infinitely many i. Thus $(x_{ij} : i < \omega)$ contains a strictly decreasing subsequence, contradicting the well-foundedness of < on I.

Theorem 1.10 (Higman) If \leq is a wqo on I, then \leq is a wqo on $I^{<\omega}$.

Proof. By lemma 1.9, \leq is well-founded. If the theorem fails, then by lemma 1.9 there is a minimal bad sequence $\bar{x}_0, \bar{x}_1, \ldots$ of sequences $\bar{x}_i = (x_{i,0}, \ldots, x_{i,j_i-1})$. Now the null sequence is vacuously \leq any sequence, so each \bar{x}_i has length \geq 1. So we can write it as $(x_{i,0}, \operatorname{tail}(\bar{x}_i))$. As $\operatorname{tail}(\bar{x}_i)$ has length $< \operatorname{len}(\bar{x}_i)$, we have $\operatorname{tail}(\bar{x}_i) < \bar{x}_i$ in $I^{<\omega}$ (note the strict <). So by lemma 1.7, $Y = \{\operatorname{tail}(\bar{x}_i) : i < \omega\}$ is a subset of a well-quasi-ordered set, and so itself well-quasi-ordered. So by lemma 1.4 we can assume that $\operatorname{tail}(\bar{x}_0) \leq \operatorname{tail}(\bar{x}_1) \leq \ldots$ (This might not preserve minimal badness, but minimality is no longer needed.) Also, I is a wqo, so there are i < j with $x_{i,0} \leq x_{j,0}$. Hence by "piecing together", $\bar{x}_i \leq \bar{x}_j$, a contradiction.

Exercise 1.11 Let (I, \leq) be a wqo. Define a relation \leq on the set $\wp_{<\omega}(I)$ of finite subsets of I, by $s \leq t$ iff there is a map $f : s \to t$ with $i \leq f(i)$ for all $i \in s$. Show that $(\wp_{<\omega}(I), \leq)$ is a wqo (cf. [1, p. 32]). Repeat for the variant of \leq where f is required to be one-one.

Remark 1.12 (Rado) Theorem 1.10 fails for the set $I^{<\omega_1}$, the set of countable sequences of elements of I.

Proof. Let $I = \{(i, j) : i < j < \omega\}$, ordered by $(i, j) \leq (k, l)$ iff either i = kand $j \leq l$, or else i, j < k. One can check that this is a wqo on I. Now for $i < \omega$ let α_i be the sequence $((i, i + 1), (i, i + 2), \ldots)$. Then for all $i < j < \omega$, $\alpha_i \leq \alpha_j$. So the sequence $(\alpha_i : i < \omega)$ is bad. \Box

Exercise 1.13 Show that exercise 1.11 fails for the full power set $\wp(I)$.

Exercise 1.14 (cf. exercise 1.11) Let (I, \leq) be a wqo. Define a relation \preccurlyeq on $\wp_{<\omega}(I)$ by $s \preccurlyeq t$ iff there is a map $g: t \to s$ with $g(i) \leq i$ for all $i \in t$. Find (I, \leq) such that $(\wp_{<\omega}(I), \preccurlyeq)$ is not a wqo. [I think this non-preservation is well-known but thanks to Sz. Mikulás for pointing this example out to me.]

2 Kruskal's theorem

Definition 2.1 A tree is a finite connected graph without cycles. Let T, S be trees. We say that T immediately yields S if a tree isomorphic to S can be got from T by either removing one "leaf" vertex and its only attaching edge, or turning (a) into (b) below:



We write S > T if there are n > 1 and trees T_1, \ldots, T_n such that $S \cong T_1, T_n \cong T$ and T_i immediately yields T_{i+1} . We write $S \leq T$ if S < T or $S \cong T$.

Note that |S| < |T| if S < T. Hence < is well-founded on finite trees. Question: is there an infinite sequence of trees T_0, T_1, \ldots such that if i < j then $T_i \not\leq T_j$ (i.e., a bad sequence)? Kruskal answered "no". We'll prove this.

Definition 2.2 A pointed tree is a tree in which some vertex is distinguished as the "root". A tree is then partially ordered by: $x \leq y$ if the path from the root to y passes through x - x is nearer to the root than y. For any vertices x, y there's a greatest lower bound $x \wedge y$, the furthest node from the root on both paths to x and to y.

A decent embedding of pointed trees T, S is a 1-1 map $f : T \to S$ satisfying:

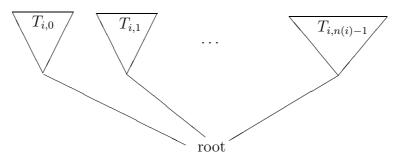
1. $u \le v \Rightarrow f(u) \le f(v)$

2.
$$f(u) \wedge f(v) = f(u \wedge v)$$
.

One can show that if there's a decent embedding $f: T \to S$ then $T \leq S$ as non-pointed trees. So it is enough to show that if we pre-order the class of pointed trees by $T \leq S$ iff there's a decent embedding from T to S, then \leq is a wqo.

Theorem 2.3 The pointed trees are a wqo under this ordering.

Proof. As trees are finite, it's clearly well-founded. If it's not a wqo, take a minimal bad sequence of trees, T_0, T_1, \ldots Since the sequence is bad, each T_i has at least two vertices (as the 1-point tree embeds decently into any pointed tree). So T_i can be written as in the diagram below.



Each T_{ij} is $\langle T_i$ (use the inclusion map; " \leq " fails because all trees are finite), and so $Y = \{T_{ij} : i < \omega, j < n(i)\}$ is a wqo by lemma 1.7. Hence by Higman's theorem, $Y^{<\omega}$ is also a wqo. Now replace T_i by the finite sequence $(T_{i,0}, \ldots, T_{i,n(i)-1})$. We deduce that there's i < j such that $(T_{i,0}, \ldots, T_{i,n(i)-1}) \leq (T_{j,0}, \ldots, T_{j,n(j)-1})$. We can now construct a decent embedding : $T_i \to T_j$, contradicting badness.

Kruskal's theorem is now proved. The argument seems to me to be essentially to be proving that a sequence T_0, T_1, \ldots is not bad by induction on the "slope" of a sequence T_0, T_1, \ldots of trees, where T_0, T_1, \ldots has slope $\langle U_0, U_1, \ldots$ iff $T_i \langle U_i$ for all *i*. This ordering is well-founded in the sense that non-empty "closed" sets of sequences (e.g., the bad sequences) have minimal elements. A tree is shown to be decomposable into a finite sequence of smaller pieces, in such a way that a decent embedding of sequences can be patched together to give a decent embedding of the original trees. Higman's theorem is used to extend the inductive hypothesis to *sequences* of smaller objects.

3 Prikry pairs and Ramsey sets

This section is central to what follows.

Definition 3.1

- 1. We say a set $S \subseteq [\omega]^{\omega}$ is Ramsey if there is some infinite set $M \subseteq \omega$ such that either $[M]^{\omega} \subseteq S$ or $[M]^{\omega} \cap S = \emptyset$.
- 2. We say $S \subseteq [\omega]^{\omega}$ is open if for every $X \in S$ there is $n < \omega$ such that whenever $Y \subseteq \omega$ is infinite and $Y \cap n = X \cap n$ then $Y \in S$.

Remark 3.2 $[\omega]^{\omega}$ is Ramsey. We can use the axiom of choice and diagonalisation to make a non-Ramsey set. $\mathcal{S} \subseteq [\omega]^{\omega}$ is open if whenever $X \in \mathcal{S}$ then some finite part of X puts it in \mathcal{S} .

Theorem 3.3 (Galvin, Prikry) Every open set is Ramsey. (In fact, Borel sets are Ramsey.)

Fix $\mathcal{S} \subseteq [\omega]^{\omega}$. First a definition.

Definition 3.4

- 1. If $X, Y \subseteq \omega$ we write X < Y if for all $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$ we have x < y.
- 2. We say that an infinite set $M \subseteq \omega$ accepts a finite set $X \subseteq \omega$ if $X \cup N \in S$ for every infinite $N \subseteq M$ with X < N.
- 3. We say that M rejects X if no infinite $N \subseteq M$ accepts X.
- 4. We say that M determines X if it either accepts or rejects X.

Remark 3.5

- 1. If M accepts X, and $N \subseteq M$ is infinite, then N accepts X.
- 2. The same holds for "rejects".
- 3. By definition of "rejects", for any finite X and infinite M, there is infinite $N \subseteq M$ that determines X.

Definition 3.6 A Prikry pair is a pair (X, N) where $X, N \subseteq \omega$, X is finite, N is infinite and X < N. We partially order Prikry pairs by: (X, N) < (X', N') iff X' is an end extension of X, $N' \subseteq N$, $X' \setminus X \subseteq N$.

Lemma 3.7 There is an infinite $M \subseteq \omega$ that determines every finite subset of itself.

Proof. Inductively choose Prikry pairs (X_i, M_i) $(i < \omega)$ so that M_i determines every subset of X_i . We let $X_0 = \emptyset$ and take M_0 to be any infinite set determining \emptyset . Inductively, let $X_{i+1} = X_i \cup \min(M_i)$ and choose $M_{i+1} \subseteq M_i \setminus \min(M_i)$ that determines every subset of X_{i+1} (use (3) of the remark repeatedly). Let $M = \bigcup_{i < \omega} X_i$. Observe that $M \subseteq X_i \cup M_i$ for all i. We claim that M works. If $X \subseteq M$ is finite, then for all $i < \omega, X \subseteq X_i$ iff $M_i > X$. Let i be least such that this condition holds. Then if $N \subseteq M$ and N > X, we have $N \subseteq M_i$. But M_i determines X, and hence so does N. \Box

Lemma 3.8 There is infinite $N \subseteq \omega$ that either accepts each finite subset of itself, or rejects each finite subset of itself.

Proof. Take M as in lemma 3.7. Select elements $a_0 < a_1 < \ldots$ of M by induction, so that for each i, if $X \subseteq \{a_0, \ldots, a_{i-1}\}$ and M rejects X then M rejects $X \cup \{a_i\}$. For this, suppose that a_0, \ldots, a_{i-1} are all chosen. Let X_1, \ldots, X_k list all subsets of $\{a_0, \ldots, a_{i-1}\}$ that are rejected by M. We want a_i so that M rejects all of $X_1 \cup \{a_i\}, \ldots, X_k \cup \{a_i\}$.

Suppose there's no such a_i . Then for all $a_{i-1} < a \in M$ there's $j_a \leq k$ such that M doesn't reject $X_{j_a} \cup \{a\}$. By lemma 3.7, M accepts $X_{j_a} \cup \{a\}$. Clearly there is some $j \leq k$ such that $j = j_a$ for infinitely many a. Put $N = \{a : j_a = j\}$. Then $N \subseteq M$ is infinite, and accepts X_j . For let $P \subseteq N$ be infinite with $X_j < P$. If $p = \min(P)$, then by choice of N, M accepts $X_j \cup \{p\}$. So as $P \setminus \{p\} \subseteq M$, we have $X_j \cup \{p\} \cup (P \setminus \{p\}) \in S$. That is, $X_j \cup P \in S$ for all such P; this contradicts the fact that M rejects X_j .

So we can choose a_0, a_1, \ldots as stated. Put $N = \{a_i : i < \omega\}$. There are two cases. If N accepts \emptyset then by definition, $[N]^{\omega} \subseteq S$. So N accepts any finite subset of itself. If not, then it is easily seen by induction on |X| that N rejects any $X \subseteq N$.

Proof of theorem 3.3: By lemma 3.8, we can take an infinite N that uniformly decides all its finite subsets. If N accepts them, then as above, it accepts \emptyset so $[N]^{\omega} \subseteq S$. If it rejects them, we claim $[N]^{\omega} \cap S = \emptyset$. For if not, there's infinite $X \subseteq N$ such that $X \in S$. Now as S is open, we can take $n < \omega$ such that if $Y \cap n = X \cap n$ and Y is infinite then $Y \in S$. We can increase n as we like; so as X is infinite, we can assume that $n-1 \in X$. But now, if $P \subseteq N$ is infinite and $P > X \cap n$ then $\min(P) \ge n$. So $((X \cap n) \cup P) \cap n = X \cap n$, and $(X \cap n) \cup P \in S$. Hence, N accepts $X \cap n$, a contradiction.

It's a good exercise to prove Ramsey's theorem now. We will wait a little (see corollary 4.4).

4 Barriers

Definition 4.1 Let X be an infinite subset of ω .

- 1. We say that $\mathcal{B} \subseteq [X]^{<\omega}$ is a barrier on X if:
 - for every infinite $Y \subseteq X$, there is an initial segment of Y in \mathcal{B} ,
 - \mathcal{B} is an antichain with respect to \subseteq .
- 2. A barrier is a barrier on some infinite $X \subseteq \omega$.
- 3. Clearly, for a barrier \mathcal{B} on X and infinite $Y \subseteq X$, there is a unique initial segment of Y in \mathcal{B} . We write this initial segment as $Y \upharpoonright \mathcal{B}$.
- 4. The base of a barrier \mathcal{B} is defined to be $\bigcup \mathcal{B}$.

Remark 4.2 It can be checked that if \mathcal{B} is a barrier on X then $X = \bigcup \mathcal{B}$. Bearing in mind that X is order-isomorphic to ω , we see that any barrier is 'isomorphic' to a barrier on ω . We seem more interested in barrier-ness than in what the base of a barrier is.

For any $n < \omega$, $[\omega]^n$ is a barrier on ω . Thinking of n = 1, where $\{\{0\}, \{1\}, \ldots\}$ is a barrier, we will perhaps see (especially in definition 5.1) that a barrier is a kind of generalised sequence, or rather, the index set of such a sequence.

4.1 The Nash-Williams Ramsey theorem

Theorem 4.3 (Nash-Williams Ramsey theorem) Let \mathcal{B} be a barrier on $X \in [\omega]^{\omega}$. Suppose that $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2$. Then there is an infinite subset Y of X such that one of $\mathcal{B}_i \cap [Y]^{<\omega}$ (i = 1, 2) is a barrier on Y.

Proof. [Rewritten Jan 2003]. X is in order-preserving bijection with ω , so we may assume without loss of generality that $X = \omega$. Let

 $\mathcal{S} = \{ Z \in [\omega]^{\omega} : Z \text{ has an initial segment in } \mathcal{B}_1 \}.$

Clearly, \mathcal{S} is open, and hence (by theorem 3.3) Ramsey. Take $Y \in [\omega]^{\omega}$ such that $[Y]^{\omega} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$ or $[Y]^{\omega} \cap \mathcal{S} = \emptyset$. If $[Y]^{\omega} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$, then clearly $\mathcal{B}_1 \cap [Y]^{<\omega}$ is a

barrier on Y. If on the other hand $[Y]^{\omega} \cap S = \emptyset$, then take any $Z \in [Y]^{\omega}$. Since \mathcal{B} is a barrier on ω , Z has an initial segment in \mathcal{B} . But $Z \notin S$. So that initial segment must be in \mathcal{B}_2 . Hence, $\mathcal{B}_2 \cap [Y]^{<\omega}$ is a barrier on Y. \Box

Corollary 4.4 (Ramsey's theorem) If $f : [\omega]^n \to k$ where $k, n < \omega$, then there is infinite $N \subseteq \omega$ such that $f \upharpoonright [N]^n$ is constant.

Proof. For some fixed n, let $\mathcal{B} = [\omega]^n$. Obviously, \mathcal{B} is a barrier on ω . If $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2 \cup \ldots \cup \mathcal{B}_k$, iterated application of the theorem gives an infinite $Y \subseteq \omega$ such that some $\mathcal{B}_i \cap [Y]^{<\omega}$ $(i \leq k)$ is a barrier on Y. If e.g., $\mathcal{B}_1 \cap [Y]^{<\omega}$ is a barrier on Y, then every *n*-element subset s of Y is in \mathcal{B}_1 . For if we end-extend s to an infinite subset S of Y, then S has an initial segment in \mathcal{B}_1 . As this must have size n, it must be s. The theorem now follows by letting $\mathcal{B}_i = f^{-1}(i-1)$ for each $1 \leq i \leq k$, since then $[Y]^n \subseteq f^{-1}(j)$ for some j < k.

4.2 The barrier $\mathcal{B}(2)$

Definition 4.5

- 1. If s,t are finite subsets of ω , we write $s \triangleleft t$ to mean that there are $i_1 < \ldots < i_k$ and j $(1 \leq j < k)$ such that $s = \{i_1, \ldots, i_j\}$ and $t = \{i_2, \ldots, i_k\}$.
- 2. Given a barrier \mathcal{B} and a pre-ordered set Q, we say that a map $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$ is bad if there are no $s, t \in \mathcal{B}$ with $s \triangleleft t$ and such that $f(s) \leq f(t)$.
- 3. A map $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$ is perfect if $f(s) \leq f(t)$ for all $s \triangleleft t$ in \mathcal{B} .

Note that j = 1 is allowed; k > j by barrier-ness. \triangleleft is not transitive in general.

Example 4.6 Suppose \mathcal{B} is a barrier on ω . For any infinite $X \subseteq \omega$, temporarily write $X_0 = X$ and $X_{n+1} = X_n \setminus \{\min(X_n)\}$. Each X_n has an initial segment $s_n \in \mathcal{B}$. Then $s_0 \triangleleft s_1 \triangleleft \cdots$. Moreover, if $s_0 \triangleleft s_1 \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft s_n$ in \mathcal{B} , choose infinite $X \subseteq \omega$ having $s_0 \cup \cdots \cup s_n$ as an initial segment. Then $s_i = X_i \upharpoonright \mathcal{B}$ for all $i \leq n$. This shows that s_0, \ldots, s_n are recoverable from $s_0 \cup \cdots \cup s_n$.

If a barrier \mathcal{B} 'is' the index set of a generalised sequence, and $s, t \in \mathcal{B}$, then $s \triangleleft t$ means that t is a 'higher' index than s.

Definition 4.7 Let \mathcal{B} be a barrier on X. Write $\mathcal{B}(2) = \{s \cup t : s \triangleleft t \text{ in } \mathcal{B}\}.$

Theorem 4.8 $\mathcal{B}(2)$ is a barrier on X.

Proof. We show that if $s, t, s', t' \in \mathcal{B}$, $s \triangleleft t, s' \triangleleft t'$, and $s \cup t \subseteq s' \cup t'$, then s = s' and t = t'. For let $s \cup t$ be $\{i_1, \ldots, i_k\}$ and $s' \cup t'$ be $\{j_1, \ldots, j_m\}$, in increasing order. Then $t = \{i_2, \ldots, i_k\}$ and $t' = \{j_2, \ldots, j_m\}$. Clearly $t \subseteq t'$; so as \mathcal{B} is a barrier, we have t = t'. Hence $i_2 = j_2$ (as $i_1 = j_1$). Hence s, s' are initial segments of $s \cup t$, and so they are equal as \mathcal{B} is a barrier. So there are no proper inclusions between elements of $\mathcal{B}(2)$.

Let Y be any infinite subset $\{y_0, y_1, \ldots\}$ of X, listed in increasing order. If \mathcal{B} is a barrier then Y has an initial segment $s \in \mathcal{B}$. Similarly, $Y \setminus \{y_0\}$ has an initial segment $t \in \mathcal{B}$. Then $s \triangleleft t$ by barrier-ness. So $s \cup t$ is an initial segment of Y in $\mathcal{B}(2)$.

Remark 4.9 The proof (and example 4.6) shows that each set $s \cup t \in \mathcal{B}(2)$ allows s, t to be recovered uniquely. So we will always write elements of $\mathcal{B}(2)$ in the form $s \cup t$, where (implicitly) $s, t \in \mathcal{B}$.

If $s \cup t, s' \cup t' \in \mathcal{B}(2)$ and $s \cup t \triangleleft s' \cup t'$, then clearly, t is an initial segment of $s' \cup t'$. Since s' is as well, we have $s' \subseteq t$ or $t \subseteq s'$. Since $s', t \in \mathcal{B}$, we have t = s'. So $s \triangleleft s'$ and $t \triangleleft t'$.

Exercise 4.10 Define $\mathcal{B}(n)$ for $2 \leq n < \omega$, and generalise the above to it.

Corollary 4.11 Given a barrier \mathcal{B} on a set $X \in [\omega]^{\omega}$, and a map $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$, there exists a barrier \mathcal{D} on some $Y \in [X]^{\omega}$ with $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, and such that the restriction $f \upharpoonright \mathcal{D}$ of f to \mathcal{D} is either bad or perfect.

Proof. Put

$$\mathcal{A}_1 = \{ s \cup t \in \mathcal{B}(2) : f(s) \le f(t) \}, \\ \mathcal{A}_2 = \{ s \cup t \in \mathcal{B}(2) : f(s) \le f(t) \}.$$

Since $\mathcal{A}_1 \cup \mathcal{A}_2 = \mathcal{B}(2)$, by the Nash-Williams Ramsey theorem, there is infinite $Y \subseteq X$ such that some $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A}_1$ or $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A}_2$ is a barrier on Y.

Suppose $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A}_1$. Put

 $\mathcal{D} = \{ s \in \mathcal{B} : s \cup t \in \mathcal{C} \text{ for some } t \text{ with } s \triangleleft t \}.$

Then \mathcal{D} is a barrier on Y — certainly \mathcal{D} is an antichain since $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, and further, if $Z \subseteq Y$ is infinite, there is an initial segment $s \cup t$ of Z with $s \cup t \in \mathcal{C}$, so $s \in \mathcal{D}$ is an initial segment of Z.

Let $g = f \mid \mathcal{D}$; then g is perfect. For suppose $s \triangleleft t$ in \mathcal{D} . End-extend $s \cup t$ to an infinite set in Y. This has an initial segment $s' \cup t' \in \mathcal{C}$. As in the proof of theorem 4.8, s = s' and t = t'. So $s \cup t \in \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A}_1$.

The case $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A}_2$ is similar; we get a bad g.

5 Better-quasi-orderings

This is a long and interesting section.

Definition 5.1 (bqo) Let (Q, \leq) be a pre-order. We say that \leq is a betterquasi-ordering (bqo) if for every barrier \mathcal{B} on ω , there is no bad map $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$.

Because any barrier is isomorphic to a barrier on ω , if \leq is a bqo then for every barrier \mathcal{B} , there is no bad map : $\mathcal{B} \to Q$.

Example 5.2 (ω, \leq) is a bqo. For let \mathcal{B} be a barrier on ω , and $f: \mathcal{B} \to \omega$. Let s_n be an initial segment of $\omega \setminus n$ in \mathcal{B} . Then $s_0 \triangleleft s_1 \triangleleft \cdots$. If f is bad, then $f(s_0) \not\leq f(s_1) \not\leq \cdots$, which is impossible.

Considering the barrier $[\omega]^1 = \{\{n\} : n < \omega\}$, we see that a bqo is a wqo.

5.1 Combining bqos

Lemma 5.3 Let $\leq \subseteq$ be bound on the same set Q. Then $\preccurlyeq =_{def.} \leq \cap \sqsubseteq$ is also a bound on Q.

Proof. Certainly, \preccurlyeq is a pre-order. Let \mathcal{B} be a barrier on ω , and $f: \mathcal{B} \to Q$. By corollary 4.11, there exists a barrier $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ such that $f \upharpoonright \mathcal{D}$ is either bad or perfect with respect to (Q, \leq) . Since \leq is a bqo, $f \upharpoonright \mathcal{D}$ cannot be bad, so is perfect. Since \sqsubseteq is a bqo, $f \upharpoonright \mathcal{D}$ cannot be bad with respect to (Q, \sqsubseteq) , so there are $s \triangleleft t$ in \mathcal{D} with $f(s) \sqsubseteq f(t)$. By perfection, $f(s) \leq f(t)$. So $f(s) \preccurlyeq f(t)$, showing that f is not bad.

5.2 Power sets of bqos

Definition 5.4 Let (Q, \leq) be a pre-order. Define a pre-order \leq on $\wp(Q)$ by $\Gamma \leq \Delta$ iff for all $\delta \in \Delta$ there is $\gamma \in \Gamma$ with $\gamma \leq \delta$.

The following fails for wqos; cf. exercise 1.14.

Proposition 5.5 If (Q, \leq) is a bao then so is $(\wp(Q), \leq)$.

Proof. Let \mathcal{B} be a barrier on ω , and $f : \mathcal{B} \to \wp(Q)$. Assume for contradiction that f is bad. So for each $s \cup t \in \mathcal{B}(2)$, $f(s) \not\leq f(t)$, so there is an element $h(s \cup t) \in f(t)$ such that for every $q \in f(s)$ we have $h(s \cup t) \not\geq q$. (Recall from remark 4.9 that s, t are uniquely recoverable from $s \cup t \in \mathcal{B}(2)$.) We have therefore defined a map $h : \mathcal{B}(2) \to Q$.

By theorem 4.8, $\mathcal{B}(2)$ is a barrier on ω . As Q is a bqo, h is not bad, and there are $s \cup t \triangleleft s' \cup t'$ in $\mathcal{B}(2)$ with $h(s \cup t) \leq h(s' \cup t')$. By remark 4.9, t = s'. But now, $h(s' \cup t') \in f(t')$ is $\geq h(s \cup t) \in f(t) = f(s')$. This contradicts the definition of h.

5.3 Minimal bad maps

The presentation of the results of this and the following two sections is similar to that of [1].

Let Q be pre-ordered by \leq . We assume that Q also carries a transitive well-founded relation \prec such that $x \prec y \Rightarrow x < y$ for all $x, y \in Q$. We write $x \preccurlyeq y$ to mean $x \prec y$ or x = y.

Definition 5.6

- 1. For sets $s, t \subseteq \omega$, we write $t \leq s$ to mean that t is an initial segment of s, and t < s to mean that t is a proper initial segment of s.
- 2. For barriers \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C} on X, Y, we write $\mathcal{B} \sqsubseteq \mathcal{C}$ (\mathcal{B} foreruns \mathcal{C}) if $Y \subseteq X$ and every element of \mathcal{C} has an initial segment in \mathcal{B} .
- 3. We say $\mathcal{B} \sqsubset \mathcal{C}$ (strictly foreruns) if $\mathcal{B} \sqsubseteq \mathcal{C}$ and some element of \mathcal{C} has a proper initial segment in \mathcal{B} . Example: $\mathcal{B} \sqsubset \mathcal{B}(2)$.
- 4. Given $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$ and $g : \mathcal{C} \to Q$, we write $f \sqsubseteq g$ if
 - (a) $\mathcal{B} \sqsubseteq \mathcal{C}$,
 - (b) f(s) = g(s) for all $s \in \mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{C}$,
 - (c) for all $b \in \mathcal{B}$, $c \in \mathcal{C}$ with $b \prec c$, we have $g(c) \prec f(b)$.

We write $f \sqsubset g$ if $f \sqsubseteq g$ and $\mathcal{B} \sqsubset \mathcal{C}$.

- 5. We say that a bad map $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$ is minimal if there is no bad $g \sqsupset f$. (Minimality is with respect to \preccurlyeq , not $\sqsubseteq !$)
- 6. If $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$ is bad but not minimal bad, then there are $\mathcal{C} \sqsupset \mathcal{B}$ and a bad $g : \mathcal{C} \to Q$ with $f \sqsubset g$. So there are $b \in \mathcal{B}, c \in \mathcal{C}$ with $b \triangleleft c$. Write k for the greatest element of b. Fixing f, choose \mathcal{C}, g, b, c to make k minimal. We will write this least value of k as k(f).

Remark 5.7 It can be checked that both \sqsubseteq s are reflexive and transitive. (Take care with condition 4b.)

If $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ are barriers and $\mathcal{C} \sqsubseteq \mathcal{D}$, then $\mathcal{B} \sqsubseteq \mathcal{D}$. If $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q, g : \mathcal{D} \to Q$, and $f \upharpoonright \mathcal{C} \sqsubseteq g$, then $f \sqsubseteq g$. So if $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$ is minimal bad, then so is $f \upharpoonright \mathcal{C}$.

5.4 Nash-Williams/Laver theorem

Lemma 5.8 Given $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$ which is bad but not minimal bad, there are $\mathcal{D} \sqsupset \mathcal{B}$ and a bad $h : \mathcal{D} \to Q$ with $h \sqsupset f$, such that

- 1. for some $b \in \mathcal{B}$ with maximal element k(f), we have $b \notin \mathcal{D}$,
- 2. every $m \leq k(f)$ in the base $\bigcup \mathcal{B}$ of \mathcal{B} is in the base of \mathcal{D} .

Proof. Take bad $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$, not minimal bad, and $g \sqsupseteq f$ bad, such that $g : \mathcal{C} \to Q$ for some $\mathcal{C} \sqsupset \mathcal{B}$, and for some $s \in \mathcal{B}$ and $t \in \mathcal{C}$ we have $s \lt t$ and $\max(s) = k(f) = n$, say. Put

$$S = (\{0, 1, \dots, n\} \cap \bigcup \mathcal{B}) \setminus \bigcup \mathcal{C},$$

$$\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{C} \cup \{b \in \mathcal{B} : b \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{C} \cup S \text{ and } b \cap S \neq \emptyset\}.$$

Claim: \mathcal{D} is a barrier on $\bigcup \mathcal{C} \cup S$.

Proof of Claim: Certainly, $\mathcal{D} \subseteq [\bigcup \mathcal{C} \cup S]^{<\omega}$. We check that \mathcal{D} is an \subseteq -antichain. Since this is true for \mathcal{B} and for \mathcal{C} , it suffices to take $b \in \mathcal{B}$ with $b \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{C} \cup S$ and $b \cap S \neq \emptyset$, and $c \in \mathcal{C}$, and check that $b \not\subseteq c \not\subseteq b$. Since $c \cap S = \emptyset$, we have $b \not\subseteq c$. If $c \subseteq b$, then $c \subset b$. But c has an initial segment $b' \in \mathcal{B}$, so $b' \subset b$, contradicting that \mathcal{B} is a barrier.

Now let $X \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{C} \cup S$ be infinite; we want to find an initial segment of X in \mathcal{D} . If X has an initial segment in \mathcal{C} , we are done. Assume it doesn't. Let $b = X \upharpoonright \mathcal{B}$ (see definition 4.1). Certainly, $b \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{C} \cup S$. We claim that $b \cap S \neq \emptyset$, so that $b \in \mathcal{D}$.

Assume for contradiction that $b \cap S = \emptyset$. As X has no initial segment in \mathcal{C} , a barrier on $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$, we have $X \not\subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{C}$, and so $X \cap S \neq \emptyset$. Take $s \in X \cap S$. Now $b \cap S = \emptyset$, and $b \prec X$. So $\max(b) < s \leq n$.

Let $Y = X \cap \bigcup \mathcal{C}$. Then Y is infinite, so has an initial segment c in \mathcal{C} . Since $b \prec X$ and $b \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{C}$, we have $b \prec Y$ as well. So b, c are \leq -comparable. If $c \prec b$, then c has an initial segment b' in \mathcal{B} , and $b' \subset b$, which is impossible as \mathcal{B} is a barrier. So $b \leq c$. But max(b) < n, so by minimality of n we must have b = c. So X has an initial segment c in \mathcal{C} , a contradiction. This proves the claim.

We now show that \mathcal{D} has the two properties cited in the lemma. If $b \in \mathcal{B}$, $c \in \mathcal{C}$, and $b \prec c$, then $b \subset c \in \mathcal{D}$; so by the claim, $b \notin \mathcal{D}$. Since \mathcal{B} contains such a b with $\max(b) = n$, the first property is established. Also, every $x \in \{0, 1, \ldots, n\} \cap \bigcup \mathcal{B}$ is the least element of some infinite subset of $\bigcup \mathcal{C} \cup S$, which by the claim has an initial segment $d \in \mathcal{D}$. So $x \in d$, whence $\{0, 1, \ldots, n\} \cap \bigcup \mathcal{B} \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{D}$.

It is clear that $\mathcal{B} \sqsubset \mathcal{D}$. Define $h : \mathcal{D} \to Q$ by

$$h(d) = \begin{cases} f(d), & \text{if } d \in \mathcal{B}, \\ g(d), & \text{if } d \in \mathcal{C}. \end{cases}$$

This is well-defined, because $f \sqsubseteq g$. Trivially, if $d \in \mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{D}$, h(d) = f(d). Also, if $b \in \mathcal{B}$, $d \in \mathcal{D}$, and $b \prec d$, then $d \notin \mathcal{B}$. So $h(d) = g(d) \prec f(b)$ since $f \sqsubseteq g$. So $f \sqsubset h$.

Moreover, h is bad. For let $s \triangleleft t$ in \mathcal{D} . There are four cases.

- 1. If $s, t \in \mathcal{B}$, then as f is bad, $h(s) = f(s) \not\leq f(t) = h(t)$.
- 2. The case where $s, t \in \mathcal{C}$ is similar, using badness of g.
- 3. Assume that $s \in \mathcal{B}$ and $t \in \mathcal{C}$. Let $b \in \mathcal{B}$ be an initial segment of t. Since $f \sqsubseteq g$, we have $g(t) \preccurlyeq f(b)$, and so $g(t) \le f(b)$.

Since $s \triangleleft t$, $\min(s) \notin b$, so $s \neq b$, and hence as \mathcal{B} is a barrier, $b \not\subseteq s$. It follows that $s \triangleleft b$. If $h(s) \leq h(t)$ — i.e., $f(s) \leq g(t)$ — then by transitivity, $f(s) \leq f(b)$, contradicting badness of f. So $h(s) \not\leq h(t)$ as required.

4. Finally assume for contradiction that $s \in C \setminus \mathcal{B}$ and $t \in \mathcal{B} \setminus C$. Then $t \cap S \neq \emptyset$. As $s \cap S = \emptyset$, and $s \triangleleft t$, there is $x \in S \cap t$ larger than all elements of s. So $\max(s) < n$. But s has an initial segment b in \mathcal{B} , which must also have maximum < n. By minimality of n we have $s = b \in \mathcal{B}$, a contradiction.

The main theorem is next. The idea is that \mathcal{B} is to be refined in a stepby-step manner to $\mathcal{C} \sqsupset \mathcal{B}$ by reducing values of f. We may need to extend sequences to do this.

Theorem 5.9 (Nash-Williams, interpreted by Laver) For every barrier \mathcal{B} and bad map $f : \mathcal{B} \to Q$, there are a barrier $\mathcal{C} \sqsupseteq \mathcal{B}$ and a minimal bad $g : \mathcal{C} \to Q$ with $f \sqsubseteq g$.

Proof. If \mathcal{B}_0 is a barrier and $f_0 : \mathcal{B}_0 \to Q$ is bad but not minimal bad, we can find a barrier \mathcal{B}_1 with $\mathcal{B}_0 \sqsubseteq \mathcal{B}_1$, and a bad map $f_1 : \mathcal{B}_1 \to Q$ with $f_1 \sqsupset f_0$ as in lemma 5.8. If f_1 is not minimal bad, we can repeat to get \mathcal{B}_2 and $f_2 : \mathcal{B}_2 \to Q$, etc. If this process stops after a finite number of iterations, we're done. Otherwise, it goes on infinitely many times. In this case, we claim that $k(f_0) \leq k(f_1) \leq \cdots$ and the sequence rises infinitely often. Certainly the sequence cannot fall, as $k(f_i)$ is minimal. Each application of the lemma removes from \mathcal{B}_i some set b with maximum $k(f_i)$, and \mathcal{B}_{i+1} contains some c with $b \prec c$. No later \mathcal{B}_j contains b, because $\mathcal{B}_{i+1} \sqsubseteq \mathcal{B}_j$, so there would be $b' \leq b$ in \mathcal{B}_{i+1} , so $b' \subset c$, contradicting that \mathcal{B}_{i+1} is a barrier. There are finitely many such sets b, so this cannot happen infinitely often. The claim is proved.

Let X_i be the base of \mathcal{B}_i $(i < \omega)$. Since $\mathcal{B}_0 \sqsubseteq \mathcal{B}_1 \sqsubseteq \cdots$, we have $X_0 \supseteq X_1 \supseteq \cdots$. Define $X = \bigcap_{n < \omega} X_n$. Since $k(f_i) \in X$ for all i (see lemma 5.8), we see by the claim that X is infinite. Let $\mathcal{D} = \{b : b \text{ is in cofinitely many } \mathcal{B}_i\}$.

Claim: \mathcal{D} is a barrier on X.

Proof of Claim: Certainly, if $b \in \mathcal{D}$ then $b \subseteq X_i$ for cofinitely many $i < \omega$, so $b \subseteq X$. Also, if $b, c \in \mathcal{D}$ and $b \subseteq c$, then b = c (as this holds in cofinitely many \mathcal{B}_i).

Consider any infinite $Y \subseteq X$. For each \mathcal{B}_i , we have $Y \subseteq X_i$, so some $b_i \in \mathcal{B}_i$ is an initial segment of Y. Clearly, $b_i \leq b_{i+1}$ or $b_{i+1} < b_i$. If $b_{i+1} < b_i$, then as $\mathcal{B}_i \sqsubseteq \mathcal{B}_{i+1}$, b_{i+1} has an initial segment $c \in \mathcal{B}_i$. So $c \subset b_i$, which is impossible since \mathcal{B}_i is a barrier. So $b_i \leq b_{i+1}$. If $b_i < b_{i+1}$, then $f_i(b_i) \succ f_{i+1}(b_{i+1})$. Otherwise, $b_i = b_{i+1}$, so since $f_{i+1} \sqsupset f_i$, we have $f_i(b_i) = f_{i+1}(b_{i+1})$. But \prec is well-founded, so the sequence $(b_i : i < \omega)$ becomes constant at j, say. Then $b_j \in \mathcal{D}$ is an initial segment of Y. The claim is proved.

We note that $\mathcal{D} \supseteq \mathcal{B}_i$ for each *i*.

We now define $g : \mathcal{D} \to Q$ to agree eventually with all f_i — i.e., for all $d \in \mathcal{D}$, $g(d) = f_i(d)$ for all i with $d \in \mathcal{B}_i$. This is well-defined since $f_0 \sqsubseteq f_1 \sqsubseteq \cdots$. We note that $g \sqsupset f_i$ for each i.

Claim: g is minimal bad.

Proof of Claim: If $d \triangleleft e$ in \mathcal{D} then $d \triangleleft e$ in some \mathcal{B}_i . So $g(d) = f_i(d) \not\leq f_i(e) = g(e)$. So g is bad.

If there are $\mathcal{E} \supseteq \mathcal{D}$ and bad $h : \mathcal{E} \to Q$ with $h \supseteq g$, then there are $s \in \mathcal{D}$ and $t \in \mathcal{E}$ with $s \triangleleft t$. We may choose $i < \omega$ with $s \in \mathcal{B}_i$ and $\max(s) < k(f_i)$ (as the $k(f_i)$ rise arbitrarily high). Then (cf. remark 5.7) $\mathcal{E} \supseteq \mathcal{B}_i$ and $h \supseteq f_i$, so h contradicts the value of $k(f_i)$. This proves theorem 5.9. \Box

5.5 Sequences

Now for some practical applications. Fix a set Q and a pre-order \leq on it.

Definition 5.10

- 1. We can extend \leq to $\bigcup_{\alpha \text{ ordinal}} Q^{\alpha}$ as follows. For $x \in Q^{\alpha}$, $y \in Q^{\beta}$, put $x \leq y$ iff there is a one-one order-preserving map $\varphi : \alpha \to \beta$ such that for all $i < \alpha$ we have $x_i \leq y_{\varphi(i)}$. (Regarding $Q = Q^1$, this is an extension of \leq on Q.) As usual, x < y means $x \leq y \leq x$.
- 2. For $x, y \in \bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$, define $x \prec y$ to mean x is isomorphic to a subsequence of y and dom(x) < dom(y) as ordinals. Clearly, \prec is transitive and well-founded (as ordinals are), and $x \prec y \Rightarrow x < y$ (< as above).

Theorem 5.11 If (Q, \leq) is a bop then so is $(\bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}, \leq)$.

Proof. Suppose for contradiction that there is a barrier \mathcal{B} and a bad map $f: \mathcal{B} \to \bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$. By theorem 5.9, we can assume that f is minimal bad. By the Nash-Williams Ramsey theorem (theorem 4.3), we can also assume that either all f(b) have successor length, or they all have limit length. By remark 5.7, this does not affect minimality.

Case I: the f(b) have successor length. Write $f(b) = f_1(b)^{\wedge} f_2(b)$ with $f_2(b) \in Q$ (we 'remove' the last element). By corollary 4.11, we can assume that each of f_1, f_2 is either bad or perfect. Now f_2 can't be bad, as Q is a bqo; hence it is perfect. But f is bad, so f_1 must be bad.

Define $g: \mathcal{B}(2) \to \bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$ by $g(s \cup t) = f_1(s)$. Then $\mathcal{B}(2) \sqsupset \mathcal{B}$; and because $f_1(s) \prec f(s)$ for all s, we have $g \sqsupset f$. Also, g is bad: for if $s \cup t \lhd t \cup v$ in $\mathcal{B}(2)$ (see remark 4.9), then because $s \lhd t$ and f_1 is bad, $g(s \cup t) = f_1(s) \not\leq f_1(t) = g(t \cup v)$. This contradicts the minimality of f.

Case II: each f(b) has limit length. Consider $s \triangleleft t$ in \mathcal{B} . Because of the poor quality of f we have $f(s) \not\leq f(t)$. Define an order-preserving map $\varphi : \operatorname{dom}(f(s)) \to \operatorname{dom}(f(t))$ by induction: at each stage, φ maps the next element $i < \operatorname{dom}(f(s))$ to the least $j < \operatorname{dom}(f(t))$ such that $f(t)_j \geq f(s)_i$ and $j > \varphi(k)$ for all k < i. If this succeeded, we'd have $f(s) \leq f(t)$; so there must be a proper initial segment of f(s) that's $\not\leq f(t)$. Take (say) the shortest such $- f(s)_t$, say.

Define $g: \mathcal{B}(2) \to \bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$ by $g(s \cup t) = f(s)_t$. This is a non-trivial use of $\mathcal{B}(2)$. As $\mathcal{B} \sqsubset \mathcal{B}(2)$, and $f(s)_t \prec f(s)$ whenever $s \triangleleft t$, we have $f \sqsubset g$. But g is bad, for if $s \cup t \triangleleft t \cup v$ then $g(s \cup t) = f(s)_t \not\leq f(t)$, so $g(s \cup t) \not\leq f(t)_v = g(t \cup v)$. This is a contradiction. \Box

5.6 Matrices

Fix $1 \leq d < \omega$, and write Q for ω^d . Recall from example 5.2 that (ω, \leq) is a bqo. Extend \leq to $\bigcup_{\alpha} \omega^{\alpha}$, as in definition 5.10. By theorem 5.11, $(\bigcup_{\alpha} \omega^{\alpha}, \leq)$

is a bqo, and hence so is its subset (Q, \leq) . Note that $x \leq y$ in Q iff $x_i \leq y_i$ for all i < d.

By definition 5.10 and theorem 5.11 again, we may extend the order \leq on Q to an order \leq on $\bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$, and it is a bqo.

Definition 5.12 Define \sqsubseteq on $\bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$ by: if $\xi \in Q^{\alpha}$, $\eta \in Q^{\beta}$, then $\xi \sqsubseteq \eta$ iff $\forall j < \beta \exists i < \alpha \ (\xi_i \leq \eta_j)$

Lemma 5.13 $(\bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}, \sqsubseteq)$ is a bqo.

Proof. For a sequence $\xi = (\xi_i : i < \alpha) \in Q^{\alpha}$, write $\operatorname{rng}(\xi)$ for the set $\{\xi_i : i < \alpha\} \in \wp(Q)$. Given a barrier \mathcal{B} on ω and a map $f : \mathcal{B} \to \bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$, define $g : \mathcal{B} \to \wp(Q)$ by $g(s) = \operatorname{rng}(f(s))$. By proposition 5.5, there are $s \triangleleft t$ in \mathcal{B} such that for all $q \in g(t)$ there is $p \in g(s)$ with $p \leq q$. So clearly, $f(s) \sqsubseteq f(t)$.

Definition 5.14 Define \preccurlyeq on $\bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$ by: $\xi \preccurlyeq \eta$ iff $\xi \leq \eta$ and $\xi \sqsubseteq \eta$.

By lemma 5.3, \preccurlyeq is a bqo on $\bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$.

Definition 5.15

- 1. For an ordinal α , let \mathcal{M}_{α} be the set of all maps $m : \alpha \times d \to \omega$.
- 2. Define a bijection $\theta_{\alpha} : Q^{\alpha} \to \mathcal{M}_{\alpha}$ by $\theta_{\alpha}(\xi) = m$, where $m(i, j) = (\xi_i)_j$ for $i < \alpha, j < d$.
- 3. Let $\mathcal{M} = \bigcup_{\alpha} \mathcal{M}_{\alpha}$. Define a bijection $\theta = (\bigcup_{\alpha} \theta_{\alpha}) : \bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha} \to \mathcal{M}$.
- 4. For $m, n \in \mathcal{M}$, write $m \leq n$ if, given that $m \in \mathcal{M}_{\alpha}$ and $n \in \mathcal{M}_{\beta}$, there is surjective $f : \beta \to \alpha$ such that $m(f(i), j) \leq n(i, j)$ for all $i < \beta$, j < d.

Theorem 5.16 For any sequence m_0, m_1, \ldots in \mathcal{M} , there are $n < k < \omega$ with $m_n \leq m_k$. Indeed, (\mathcal{M}, \leq) is a (class) bqo.

Proof. Let $\xi^0, \xi^1, \ldots \in \bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$ be such that $\theta(\xi^i) = m_i$ for $i < \omega$. Since $(\bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}, \preccurlyeq)$ is a bqo and $\mathcal{B} = \{\{n\} : n < \omega\}$ is a barrier on ω , the map $(\{n\} \mapsto \xi^n) : \mathcal{B} \to \bigcup_{\alpha} Q^{\alpha}$ is not \preccurlyeq -bad, and so there are $n < k < \omega$ with $\xi^n \preccurlyeq \xi^k$.

Write ξ for ξ^n and η for ξ^k ; suppose that $\xi \in Q^{\alpha}$ and $\eta \in Q^{\beta}$. By $\xi \leq \eta$, there is a one-one order-preserving map $\varphi : \alpha \to \beta$ with $\xi_i \leq \eta_{\varphi(i)}$ for all

 $i < \alpha$. By $\xi \sqsubseteq \eta$, for all $i < \beta$ there is $\psi(i) < \alpha$ with $\xi_{\psi(i)} \le \eta_i$. Define $f : \beta \to \alpha$ by

$$f(i) = \begin{cases} \varphi^{-1}(i), & \text{if } i \in \operatorname{rng}(\varphi), \\ \psi(i), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then f is surjective, and $\xi_{f(i)} \leq \eta_i$ in Q for all $i < \beta$. Since $\theta(\xi) = m_n$ and $\theta(\eta) = m_k$, that is

$$m_n(f(i), j) = (\xi_{f(i)})_j \le (\eta_i)_j = m_k(i, j)$$
 for all $i < \beta, j < d$.

So $m_n \leq m_k$. The bqo part is an exercise.

Probably one can generalise to higher dimensions.

6 Countable linear orderings

Notation 6.1 We will write $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \ldots$ for linear orderings. i, j, k, \ldots will denote ordinals. We write $\alpha \leq \beta$ if α embeds into β in an order-preserving fashion. We write $\alpha < \beta$ if $\alpha \leq \beta \not\leq \alpha$.

Theorem 6.2 (Laver) The class of countable linear orderings is a bqo under <.

(Transcription of notes is incomplete. Please see [1, 3, 4] for the proofs.)

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