ABOUT THE EXPRESSIVE POWER AND COMPLEXITY OF ORDER-INVARIANCE WITH TWO VARIABLES

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> ABSTRACT. Order-invariant first-order logic is an extension of first-order logic (FO) where formulae can make use of a linear order on the structures, under the proviso that they are order-invariant, i.e. that their truth value is the same for all linear orders. We continue the study of the two-variable fragment of order-invariant first-order logic initiated by Zeume and Harwath, and study its complexity and expressive power. We first establish CONEXPTIME-completeness for the problem of deciding if a given two-variable formula is order-invariant, which tightens and significantly simplifies the CON2EXPTIME proof by Zeume and Harwath. Second, we address the question of whether every property expressible in order-invariant two-variable logic is also expressible in first-order logic without the use of a linear order. While we were not able to provide a satisfactory answer to the question, we suspect that the answer is "no". To justify our claim, we present a class of finite tree-like structures (of unbounded degree) in which a relaxed variant of order-invariant two-variable FO expresses properties that are not definable in plain FO. On the other hand, we show that if one restricts their attention to classes of structures of bounded degree, then the expressive power of order-invariant two-variable FO is contained within FO.

1. Introduction

The main goal of finite model theory is to understand formal languages describing finite structures: their complexity and their expressive power. Such languages are ubiquitous in computer science, starting from descriptive complexity, where they are used to provide machine-independent characterisations of complexity classes, and ending up on database theory and knowledge-representation, where formal languages serve as fundamental querying formalism. A classical idea in finite model theory is to employ invariantly-used relations, capturing the data-independence principle in databases: it makes sense to give queries the ability to exploit the presence of the order in which the data is stored in the memory, but at the same time we would like to make query results independent of this specific ordering. It is not immediately clear that the addition of an invariantly-used linear order to first-order logic (FO) allow us to gain anything on the standpoint of expressive power. And indeed, as long as we consider arbitrary (i.e. not necessarily finite) structures it does not, which is a direct

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consequence of FO having the Craig Interpolation Property. However, as it was first shown by Gurevich [Lib04, Thm. 5.3], the claim holds true over finite structures: order-invariant FO is more expressive than plain FO.

Unfortunately, order-invariant FO is poorly understood. As stated in [BL16], one of the reasons why progress in understanding order-invariance is rather slow is the lack of logical toolkit. The classical model-theoretic methods based on types were proposed only recently [BL16], and order-invariant FO is not even a logic in the classical sense, as its syntax is undecidable. Moreover, the availability of locality-based methods is limited: order-invariant FO is known to be Gaifman-local [GS00, Thm. 2] but the status of its Hanf-locality remains open. This suggests that a good way to understand order-invariant FO is to first look at its fragments, e.q. the fragments with a limited number of variables.

Our contribution. We continue the line of research initiated in [ZH16], which aims to study the complexity and the expressive power of order-invariant FO², the two-variable fragment of order-invariant FO. From a complexity point of view, it is known that order-invariant FO² has a conexprime-complete validity problem (which is inherited from FO² with a single linear order, see [Ott01, Thm. 1.2]), and that whether a given FO²-formula is order-invariant is decidable in conexprime [ZH16, Thm. 12]. From an expressive power point of view, order-invariant FO² is more expressive than plain FO² as it can count globally, cf. [ZH16, Example 2]. It remains open [ZH16, Sec. 7], however, whether it is true that every order-invariant FO²-formula is equivalent to an FO-formula without the linear order predicate. This paper contributes to the field in the three following ways:

- We provide a tight bound for deciding order-invariance for FO²; namely, we show that this problem is CONEXPTIME-complete. Our proof method relies on establishing an exponential-size counter-model property, and is significantly easier than the proof of [ZH16, Thm. 12].
- We present a class C_{tree} of tree-like structures, inspired by [Pot94], and show that there exists an FO²-formula that is *order-invariant over* C_{tree} (but not over all finite structures!) which is not equivalent to any FO-formula without the linear order predicate. This leads us to believe that the answer to the question of [ZH16, Sec. 7] of whether the expressive power of order-invariant FO² lies inside FO is "no". The problem remains open, though.
- In stark contrast to the previous result, we show that order-invariant FO² cannot express properties beyond the scope of FO over classes of structures of bounded degree. We show that this upper bound remains when adding counting to FO².

This work is an extended version of [Bed22] and [Gra23].

2. Preliminaries

We employ standard terminology from finite model theory, assuming that the reader is familiar with the syntax and the semantics of first-order logic (FO) [Lib04, Sec. 2.1], basics on computability and complexity [Lib04, Secs. 2.2–2.3], and order-invariant queries [Lib04, Secs. 5.1–5.2]. By FO(Σ) we denote the first-order logic with equality (written FO when Σ is clear from the context) on a finite signature Σ composed of relation and constant symbols. By FO² we denote the fragment of FO in which the only two variables are x and y.

Structures. Structures are denoted by calligraphic upper-case letters \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} and their domains are denoted by the corresponding Roman letters A, B. We assume that structures have non-empty, *finite* domains. We write $\varphi[R/S]$ to denote the formula obtained from φ by replacing each occurrence of the symbol R with S. We write $\varphi(\bar{x})$ to indicate that all the free variables of φ are in \bar{x} . A sentence is a formula without free variables. By $\mathcal{A} \upharpoonright_{\Delta}$ we denote the substructure of the structure \mathcal{A} restricted to the set $\Delta \subseteq A$.

Order-invariance. A sentence $\varphi \in FO^2(\Sigma \cup \{<\})$, where < is a binary relation symbol not belonging to Σ , is said to be *order-invariant* if for every finite Σ -structure \mathcal{A} , and every pair of strict linear orders $<_0$ and $<_1$ on A, $(\mathcal{A}, <_0) \models \varphi$ if and only if $(\mathcal{A}, <_1) \models \varphi$. It is then convenient to omit the interpretation for the symbol <, and to write $\mathcal{A} \models \varphi$ if $(\mathcal{A}, <) \models \varphi$ for any (or, equivalently, every) linear order <. Note that φ is *not* order-invariant if there is a structure \mathcal{A} and two linear orders $<_0, <_1$ on \mathcal{A} such that $(\mathcal{A}, <_0) \models \varphi$ and $(\mathcal{A}, <_1) \not\models \varphi$. The set of order-invariant sentences using two variables is denoted <-inv FO². While determining whether an FO-sentence is order-invariant is undecidable [Lib04, Ex. 9.3], the situation improves when we allow only two variables: checking order-invariance for FO²-formulae was shown to be in CON2EXPTIME in [ZH16, Thm. 12].

Decision problems. The finite satisfiability (resp. validity) problem for a logic \mathcal{L} asks whether an input sentence φ from \mathcal{L} is satisfied in some (resp. every) finite structure. Recall that the finite satisfiability and validity for FO are undecidable [Tur38, Chu36], while for FO² they are respectively NEXPTIME-complete and CONEXPTIME-complete, cf. [GKV97, Thm. 5.3] and [Für83, Thm. 3]. Note that φ is finitely valid iff $\neg \varphi$ is finitely unsatisfiable.

Definability and similarity. Let \mathcal{L} , \mathcal{L}' be two logics defined over the same signature, and \mathcal{C} be a class of finite structures on this signature. We say that a property $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ is definable (or expressible) in \mathcal{L} on \mathcal{C} if there exists an \mathcal{L} -sentence φ such that $\mathcal{P} = \{\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{C} : \mathcal{A} \models \varphi\}$. When \mathcal{C} is the class of all finite structures, we omit it. We say that $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{L}'$ on \mathcal{C} if every property on \mathcal{C} definable in \mathcal{L} is also definable in \mathcal{L}' . Since a sentence which does not mention the linear order predicate is trivially order-invariant, we get the inclusion $FO^2 \subseteq \langle -\text{inv } FO^2 \rangle$. This inclusion is strict [ZH16, Example 2].

The quantifier rank of a formula is the maximal number of quantifiers in a branch of its syntactic tree. Given two Σ -structures \mathcal{A}_0 and \mathcal{A}_1 , and \mathcal{L} being one of FO, FO² and <-inv FO², we write $\mathcal{A}_0 \equiv_k^{\mathcal{L}} \mathcal{A}_1$ if \mathcal{A}_0 and \mathcal{A}_1 satisfy the same \mathcal{L} -sentences of quantifier rank at most k. In this case, we say that \mathcal{A}_0 and \mathcal{A}_1 are \mathcal{L} -similar at depth k.

We write $A_0 \simeq A_1$ if A_0 and A_1 are isomorphic.

Atomic types. An (atomic) 1-type over Σ is a maximal satisfiable set of atoms or negated atoms from Σ with a free variable x. Similarly, an (atomic) 2-type over Σ is a maximal satisfiable set of atoms or negated atoms with free variables x, y. Note that the total number of atomic 1- and 2-types over τ is bounded exponentially in $|\Sigma|$. We often identify a type with the conjunction of all its elements. The sets of 1-types and 2-types over the signature consisting of the symbols appearing in φ are respectively denoted α_{φ} and β_{φ} . Given a structure \mathcal{A} and an element $a \in A$ we say that a realises a 1-type α if α is the unique 1-type such that $\mathcal{A} \models \alpha[a]$. We then write $\mathrm{tp}_{\mathcal{A}}^0(a)$ to refer to this type. Similarly, for (non-necessarily distinct) $a, b \in A$, we denote by $\mathrm{tp}_{\mathcal{A}}^0(a, b)$ the unique 2-type realised

¹The authors of [ZH16] incorrectly stated the complexity in their Thm. 12, mistaking "invariance" with "non-invariance".

by the pair (a, b), *i.e.* the 2-type β such that $\mathcal{A} \models \beta[a, b]$. Finally, given a linearly ordered Σ -structure $(\mathcal{A}, <)$, we split $\operatorname{tp}^0_{(\mathcal{A}, <)}(a, b)$ into $\operatorname{tp}^0_{<}(a, b)$ and $\operatorname{tp}^0_{\mathcal{A}}(a, b)$, where $\operatorname{tp}^0_{<}(a, b)$ is one of $\{x < y\}, \{x > y\}$ and $\{x = y\}$.

Gaifman graphs and degree. The Gaifman graph $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ of a structure \mathcal{A} is the simple graph with vertices in A and undirected edges between any pair of distinct elements that appear in the same tuple of some relation of \mathcal{A} . By $\operatorname{dist}_{\mathcal{A}}(a,b)$ we denote the distance between a and b in $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$, defined in the usual way. For $B \subseteq A$, we note $N_{\mathcal{A}}(B)$ the set of elements at distance exactly 1 from B in $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$. In particular, $B \cap N_{\mathcal{A}}(B) = \emptyset$. The degree of \mathcal{A} is the maximal degree of its Gaifman graph. The class \mathcal{C} of Σ-structures is said to have bounded degree if there exists some $d \in \mathbb{N}$ such that the degree of every $\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{C}$ is at most d.

3. Complexity of the invariance problem

We study the complexity of the problem of deciding if an input formula $\varphi \in FO^2$ is order-invariant. Starting from the lower bound first, let us consider the following program, inspired by [Sch13, Slide 9].

Procedure 1: From validity to <-invariance

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Input: An FO<sup>2</sup>-formula \varphi.
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- 1 If $\neg \varphi$ has a model with a single-element domain, return False. // a corner case
- **2** Let $\psi_{<} := \exists x (P(x) \land \forall y (y < x))$ for a fresh unary predicate P.

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// not <-inv on all P-expansions of {\mathcal A} as soon as |A| \geq 2
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3 Return True if $(\neg \varphi) \rightarrow \psi_{<}$ is <-invariant and False otherwise. // the reduction

The above procedure provides a Turing reduction from finite FO^2 -validity to testing order-invariance of FO^2 -sentences: Procedure 1 returns True iff its input is finitely valid. Its correctness follows from a straightforward case analysis. Hence, from the complexity of the finite validity problem for FO^2 [Für83, Thm. 3], we conclude:

Corollary 3.1. Testing whether an FO² formula is order-invariant is CONEXPTIME-hard.

Our upper bound uses the following fact, immediate from the definition of order-invariance.

Fact 3.2. An FO² sentence φ is *not* order-invariant iff the sentence $\varphi[</<_0] \land \neg \varphi[</<_1]$ is finitely satisfiable over structures interpreting $<_0$ and $<_1$ as linear orders over the domain.

Let $FO_-^2[<_0,<_1]$ be composed of sentences of the shape $\varphi[</<_0] \land \neg \varphi[</<_1]$ for all sentences $\varphi \in FO^2(\Sigma \cup \{<\})$ over any signature Σ . We always assume that (decorated) symbols < are interpreted as linear orders over the domain. To simplify the reasoning about such formulae, we rewrite them in the following way. Take any $\varphi \in FO^2(\Sigma \cup \{<\})$:

- By applying transformations from [GKV97, Sec. 3, p. 57–58], we may assume that all predicates appearing in φ are of arity at most two.
- Next, we get rid of constants symbols by introducing fresh unary relations and enforcing that they are interpreted by exactly one element. In a similar spirit, we can remove all nullary symbols from the vocabulary: for each of them, we introduce a fresh unary predicate symbol and enforce that either no element satisfy it, or all elements do.

Finally, we reduce φ[</<₀] ∧ ¬φ[</<₁] to a Scott-like normal form, cf. [GKV97, Sec. 4], [Ott01, Sec. 3.1]. It suffices to apply [ZH16, Lemma 1] (providing such a form for FO² with a linear order predicate) to both φ[</<₀] and ¬φ[</<₁] and take their conjunction. By summarizing all the above steps, we conclude:

Corollary 3.3. For any $FO_{-}^{2}[<_{0},<_{1}]$ -sentence there is an equi-satisfiable, polynomial-time computable $FO_{-}^{2}[<_{0},<_{1}]$ -sentence (over a purely relational signature composed of predicates of arity only 1 or 2) having the form:

$$\bigwedge_{i=0}^{1} \left(\forall x \forall y \ \chi_i(x,y) \land \bigwedge_{j=1}^{m_i} \forall x \exists y \ \gamma_i^j(x,y) \right),$$

where the decorated χ and γ are quantifier-free and the $<_i$ do not appear in χ_{1-i} and γ_{1-i}^j .

Given a model $\mathcal{A} \models \varphi$ of a formula φ in normal form and elements $a, b \in A$ such that $\mathcal{A} \models \gamma_i^j(a, b)$, we call b a γ_i^j -witness for a (or simply a witness).

The core of our upper bound proof is the following small model theorem, employing the circular witnessing scheme by Grädel, Kolaitis, and Vardi [GKV97, Thm. 4.3].

Lemma 3.4. Any finitely satisfiable sentence $\varphi \in FO^2_-[<_0,<_1]$ in normal form has a model with $\mathcal{O}(|\varphi|^3 \cdot 2^{|\varphi|})$ elements.

Proof. Let $M := \max(m_0, m_1)$ and let \mathcal{A} be a model of φ . We are going to construct from \mathcal{A} a model $\mathcal{B} \models \varphi$ whose domain $B := W_0 \cup W_1 \cup W_2 \cup W_3$ (where the sets W_i are constructed below) has cardinality at most $224 |\varphi|^3 \cdot 2^{|\varphi|}$.

Call a 1-type rare if it is realised by at most 32M elements in \mathcal{A} . Let the set S be composed of all elements of \mathcal{A} of rare 1-types, and of the 8M minimal and 8M maximal (w.r.t. each of $<_0^{\mathcal{A}}$, $<_1^{\mathcal{A}}$) realisations of each non-rare 1-type in \mathcal{A} . Define W_0 as the set composed of all elements realising rare 1-types, as well as the M minimal and M maximal (w.r.t. each of $<_0^{\mathcal{A}}$ and $<_1^{\mathcal{A}}$) realisations of each non-rare 1-type in \mathcal{A} . Put the rest of elements of S to W_1 . We clearly have $|W_0 \cup W_1| \leq 32M \cdot |\alpha_{\varphi}|$. The idea behind W_0 is that this set contains "dangerous" elements, i.e. the ones for which $\mathcal{A}|_{W_0}$ may be uniquely determined by φ . Elements from W_1 will help to restore the satisfaction of $\forall \exists$ conjuncts. According to the terminology from [GKV97], such elements would be called kings and the royal court.

We next close $W_0 \cup W_1$ twice under taking witnesses. More precisely, let W_2 be any \subseteq -minimal subset of A so that all elements from $W_0 \cup W_1$ have all the required γ_i^j -witnesses in $W_0 \cup W_1 \cup W_2$. Similarly, we define W_3 to be any \subseteq -minimal subset of A so that all elements from $W_0 \cup W_1 \cup W_2$ have all the required γ_i^j -witnesses in $W_0 \cup W_1 \cup W_2 \cup W_3$. Observe that:

 $|W_2| \le 2M|W_0 \cup W_1| \le 2M \cdot 32M|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\varphi}| = 64M^2|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\varphi}| \text{ and } |W_3| \le 2M|W_2| \le 128M^3|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\varphi}|.$ Consider the structure $\mathcal{B} := \mathcal{A}|_{W_0 \cup W_1 \cup W_2 \cup W_3}$. We see that:

$$|B| \leq |W_0 \cup W_1| + |W_2| + |W_3| \leq (32M + 64M^2 + 128M^3)|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\varphi}| \leq 224M^3|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\varphi}| \leq 224 |\varphi|^3 \cdot 2^{|\varphi|}.$$

Note that universal formulae are preserved under substructures, thus $<_1^{\mathcal{B}}, <_2^{\mathcal{B}}$ are linear orders over B and \mathcal{B} satisfies the $\forall \forall$ -conjuncts of φ . Hence, the only reason for \mathcal{B} to not be a model of φ is the lack of required γ_i^j -witnesses for elements from the set W_3 . We fix this issue by reinterpreting binary relations between the sets W_3 and W_1 .

Before we start, we are going to collect, for each non-rare 1-type α , pairwise-disjoint sets of M minimal and M maximal (w.r.t. each of $<_0^A$, $<_1^A$) realisations of α from W_1 . Formally: Fix a non-rare α . Let V_{α}^0 be composed of the first $M <_0$ -minimal elements from $\mathcal{A} \upharpoonright_{W_1 \backslash V_{\alpha}^0}$, Similarly, let V_{α}^2 be composed of the last $M <_0$ -maximal elements from $\mathcal{A} \upharpoonright_{W_1 \backslash (V_{\alpha}^0 \cup V_{\alpha}^1)}$. Finally let V_{α}^3 be composed of the last $M <_1$ -minimal elements from $\mathcal{A} \upharpoonright_{W_1 \backslash (V_{\alpha}^0 \cup V_{\alpha}^1 \cup V_{\alpha}^2)}$. Put $V_{\alpha} := \bigcup_{k=0}^3 V_{\alpha}^k$. Notice that all the components of V_{α} are pairwise disjoint (by construction), and they are well-defined since we included sufficiently many elements in W_1 .

Going back to the proof, we fix any element a from W_3 that violate some of the $\forall \exists$ -conjuncts of φ , and fix any $\forall \exists$ -conjunct $\psi := \forall x \exists y \ \gamma_i^j(x,y)$ whose satisfaction is violated by a. Since $\mathcal{A} \models \varphi$ we know that there is an element $b \in A$ such that b is a γ_i^j -witness for a and γ_i^j in \mathcal{A} and let α be the 1-type of b in \mathcal{A} . Observe that α is not rare (otherwise $b \in W_0$, and hence $b \in B$), and $a \neq b$. Moreover either $b <_i^{\mathcal{A}} a$ or $a <_i^{\mathcal{A}} b$ holds. Thus, we take V_{α}^{2i+k} (where k equals 0 if $b <_i^{\mathcal{A}} a$ and 1 otherwise) to be the corresponding set of M minimal/maximal $<_i$ realisations of α in the same direction to a as b is. Now it suffices to take the j-th element b_j from V_{α}^{2i+k} and change the binary relations between a and b_j in \mathcal{B} so that the equality holds $\operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}}^0(a,b) = \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{B}}^0(a,b_j)$ holds (which can be done as b and b_j have the same 1-type). We repeat the process for all remaining γ_i^j formulae violated by a. We stress that it is not a coincidence that we use the j-th element b_j from the corresponding set V_{α}^{2i+k} to be a fresh γ_i^j -witness for a: this guarantees that we never redefine connection between a and some element twice.

Observe that all elements from B that had γ_i^j -witnesses before our redefinition of certain 2-types, still do have them (as we did do not touch 2-types between them and their witnesses), \mathcal{B} still satisfies the $\forall \forall$ -component of φ (since the modified 2-type does not violate φ in \mathcal{A} it does not violate φ in \mathcal{B}) and a has all required witnesses. By repeating the strategy for all the other elements from W_3 violating φ , we obtain the desired "small" model of φ .

Lemma 3.4 yields an NEXPTIME algorithm for deciding satisfiability of $FO_{-}^{2}[<_{0},<_{1}]$ formulae: convert an input into normal form, guess its exponential size model and verify the modelhood with a standard model-checking algorithm (in PTIME [GO99, Prop. 4.1]). After applying Fact 3.2 and Corollary 3.1 we conclude:

Theorem 3.5. Checking if an FO^2 -formula is order-invariant is CONEXPTIME-complete.

4. Can order-invariant FO² express properties beyond the scope of FO?

While we do not solve the question stated in the heading of this section, we provide a partial solution. Let \mathcal{C} be some class of finite structures. A sentence $\varphi \in FO^2(\Sigma \cup \{<\})$, where < is a binary relation symbol not belonging to Σ , is said to be *order-invariant over* \mathcal{C} if for every finite Σ -structure \mathcal{A} in \mathcal{C} , and every pair of strict linear orders $<_0$ and $<_1$ on A, $(\mathcal{A}, <_0) \models \varphi$ iff $(\mathcal{A}, <_1) \models \varphi$. Note that this is a weakening of the classical condition of order-invariance, and that the usual definition is recovered when \mathcal{C} is the class of all finite structures.

In what follows, we present a class C_{tree} over the vocabulary $\Sigma_{C_{tree}} := \{T, D, S\}$ of tree-like finite structures, and a sentence $\varphi \in FO^2[\Sigma_{C_{tree}} \cup \{<\}]$ "expressing even depth" that is order-invariant over C_{tree} but not equivalent to any first-order sentence over $\Sigma_{C_{tree}}$.

A dendroid is a finite $\Sigma_{C_{tree}}$ -structure \mathcal{A} that, intuitively, is a complete directed binary tree decorated with a binary parent-child relation $T^{\mathcal{A}}$, a descendant relation $D^{\mathcal{A}}$, and a

sibling relation $S^{\mathcal{A}}$. Formally, a $\Sigma_{\mathcal{C}_{tree}}$ -structure \mathcal{A} is called a *dendroid* if there is a positive integer n such that

- $A = \{0, 1\}^{\leq n}$ (i.e. the set of all binary words of length at most n),
- $T^{\mathcal{A}} = \{(w, w0), (w, w1) \mid w \in A, |w| < n\},$ $D^{\mathcal{A}} = (T^{\mathcal{A}})^+$ (i.e. $D^{\mathcal{A}}$ is the transitive closure of $T^{\mathcal{A}}$), and
- $S^{\mathcal{A}} = \{(w0, w1), (w1, w0) \mid w \in A, |w| < n\}.$

We call the number n the depth of A, and call the length of a node $v \in A$ the level of v. We also use the terms "root" and "leaf" in the usual way.

Lemma 4.1. If A, B are dendroids of depth $\geq 2^{q+1}$ then $A \equiv_q B$.

Proof. This is a tedious generalisation of the winning strategy for the duplicator in the q-round Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé games on linear orders [Lib04, Thm 3.6 Proof #1].

As an immediate corollary we get:

Corollary 4.2. There is no $FO(\Sigma_{C_{tree}})$ -formula φ_{even} such that for every $A \in C_{tree}$ we have $\mathcal{A} \models \varphi_{even} \text{ iff the depth of } \mathcal{A} \text{ is even.}$

In contrast to the above corollary, we will show that the even depth query can be defined as an FO²($\Sigma_{C_{tree}} \cup \{<\}$)-formula which is order-invariant over C_{tree} (but unfortunately not over the class of all finite structures). Henceforth we considered ordered dendroids, i.e. dendroids that are additionally linearly-ordered by <. Given such an ordered dendroid \mathcal{T} , and an element c with children a, b we say that a is the left child of c iff $a <^{\mathcal{T}} b$ holds. Otherwise we call a the right child of c. A zig-zag in the ordered \mathcal{T} is a sequence of elements a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n , where a_n is a leaf of \mathcal{T} , a_0 is the root of \mathcal{T} , a_{2i+1} is the right child of a_{2i} for any $i \geq 0$ and a_{2i} is the left child of a_{2i-1} for any $i \geq 1$. A zig-zag is even if its last element is the left child of its parent, and odd otherwise. The underlying trees in dendroids are complete and binary, thus:

Observation 4.3. An ordered dendroid \mathcal{T} has an even zig-zag iff \mathcal{T} is of even depth. Moreover, if \mathcal{T} is a dendroid of even (resp. odd) depth then for any linear order < over its domain the ordered dendroid $(\mathcal{T}, <)$ has an even (resp. odd) zig-zag.

Proof. Immediate by induction after observing that $\mathcal{A}|_{\{0,1\}\leq n}$, for any positive integer n smaller than the depth of \mathcal{A} , is also a dendroid.

The above lemma suggests that a good way to express the evenness of the depth of a dendroid is to state the existence of an even zig-zag; this is precisely the property that we are going to describe with an FO²-formula. Let us first introduce a few useful macros:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathtt{ROOT}(x) := \neg \exists y \; T(y,x) \qquad \mathtt{LEAF}(x) := \neg \exists y \; T(x,y) \qquad \mathtt{2nd}(x) := \exists y \; T(y,x) \wedge \mathtt{ROOT}(y) \\ \mathtt{LS}(x) := \exists y \; S(x,y) \wedge x < y \qquad \mathtt{RS}(x) := \exists y \; S(x,y) \wedge y < x \end{aligned}$$

The first two macros have an obvious meaning. The third macro identifies a child of the root, while the last two macros identify, respectively, the left and the right siblings (according to the linear order <). Our desired formula $\varphi_{\text{even-zig-zag}}$ is then:

$$\exists x \; \big([\mathtt{LEAF}(x) \land \mathtt{LS}(x)] \land [\forall y \; (\mathtt{2nd}(y) \land D(y,x)) \to \mathtt{RS}(y)] \\ \land [\forall y \; (\neg \mathtt{ROOT}(y) \land \neg \mathtt{2nd}(y) \land D(y,x) \land \mathtt{RS}(y)) \to \exists x \; T(x,y) \land \mathtt{LS}(x)] \\ \land [\forall y \; (\neg \mathtt{ROOT}(y) \land \neg \mathtt{2nd}(y) \land D(y,x) \land \mathtt{LS}(y)) \to \exists x \; T(x,y) \land \mathtt{RS}(x)] \big)$$

Note that the above formula, by fixing a leaf, fixes the whole path from such a leaf to the root (since root-to-leaf paths in trees are unique). To say that such a path is an even zig-zag, we need a base of induction (the first line) stating that the selected leaf is a left child and the root's child lying on this path is its right one, as well as an inductive step stating that every left (resp. right) child on the path has a parent which is itself a right (resp. left) child, with the obvious exception of the root and its child. From there, it is easily shown that:

Proposition 4.4. An ordered dendroid \mathcal{T} satisfies $\varphi_{even-ziq-zaq}$ iff it has even depth.

Proof. To prove the right-to-left implication, we use Observation 4.3 to infer the existence of an even zig-zag a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{2n} in \mathcal{T} . Taking a_{2n} as a witness for the existential quantifier in front of $\varphi_{\text{even-zig-zag}}$ and going back to the definition of an even zig-zag, we get $\mathcal{T} \models \varphi_{\text{even-zig-zag}}$. For the other direction, consider a leaf a satisfying the properties enforced in $\varphi_{\text{even-zig-zag}}$. There is a unique path $\rho = a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n = a$ from the root of \mathcal{T} to a. The first line of $\varphi_{\text{even-zig-zag}}$ guarantees that a_n is a left child and a_1 is a right child. We then show by induction, relying on the last two lines of $\varphi_{\text{even-zig-zag}}$, that for any $i \geq 0$, a_{2i+1} is the right child of a_{2i} , and for $i \geq 1$, a_{2i} is the left child of a_{2i-1} . Thus ρ is an even zig-zag. By invoking Observation 4.3 again, we get that \mathcal{T} has even depth.

As a direct consequence of the previous statement, observe that our formula $\varphi_{\text{even-zig-zag}}$ is order-invariant over C_{tree} : whether an ordered dendroid has even depth only depends on the underlying dendroid, and not on the particulars of its linear order. Recalling Corollary 4.2, we conclude the following:

Theorem 4.5. There exists a class of finite structures C_{tree} and an $FO^2(\Sigma_{C_{tree}} \cup \{<\})$ -sentence which is order-invariant over C_{tree} , but is not equivalent to any $FO(\Sigma_{C_{tree}})$ sentence.

5. Expressive power when the degree is bounded

We have seen in the previous section that if we relax the order-invariant constraint (namely, by requiring invariance only on a restricted class of structures), then one is able to define, with two variables, properties that lie beyond the expressive power of FO. We conjecture that this is still the case when requiring invariance over the class of all finite structures.

In this section, we go the other way, and show that when one considers only classes of bounded degree, then <-inv FO 2 can only express FO-definable properties. Note that although the class C_{tree} from Section 4 contains tree-like structures, the descendant relation makes this a dense class of structures (as it contains cliques of arbitrarily large size), and in particular C_{tree} does not have a bounded degree.

5.1. Overview of the result. We give an upper bound to the expressive power of order-invariant FO^2 when the degree is bounded:

Theorem 5.1. Let C be a class of bounded degree. Then <-inv $FO^2 \subseteq FO$ on C.

For the remainder of this section, we fix a signature Σ , an integer d and a class C of Σ -structures of degree at most d.

Let us now show the skeleton of our proof. The technical part of the proof will be the focus of Sections 5.2 and 5.3. Our general strategy is to show the existence of a function $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that every formula $\varphi \in \langle -\text{inv FO}^2 \rangle$ of quantifier rank k is equivalent on C (i.e. satisfied by the same structures of C) to an FO-formula ψ of quantifier rank at most f(k).

To prove this, it is enough to show that for any two structures $\mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1 \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $\mathcal{A}_0 \equiv_{f(k)}^{FO} \mathcal{A}_1$, we have $\mathcal{A}_0 \equiv_k^{<\text{inv FO}^2} \mathcal{A}_1$. Indeed, the class of structures satisfying a formula φ of <-inv FO² of quantifier rank k is a union of equivalence classes for the equivalence relation $\equiv_k^{<\text{inv FO}^2}$, whose intersection with \mathcal{C} is in turn the intersection of \mathcal{C} with a union of equivalence classes for $\equiv_{f(k)}^{FO}$. It is folklore (see, e.g., [Lib04, Cor. 3.16]) that the equivalence relation $\equiv_{f(k)}^{FO}$ has finite index, and that each of its equivalence classes is definable by an FO-sentence of quantifier rank f(k). Then ψ is just the finite disjunction of these FO-sentences.

In order to show that $A_0 \equiv_k^{<\text{inv FO}^2} A_1$, we will construct in Section 5.2 two particular orders $<_0, <_1$ on these respective structures, and we will prove in Section 5.3 that

$$(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0) \equiv_k^{\text{FO}^2} (\mathcal{A}_1, <_1). \tag{5.1}$$

This concludes the proof, since any sentence $\theta \in <$ -inv FO² with quantifier rank at most k holds in \mathcal{A}_0 iff it holds in $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$ (by definition of order-invariance), iff it holds in $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$ (by (5.1)), iff it holds in \mathcal{A}_1 .

5.2. Constructing linear orders on A_0 and A_1 . Recall that our goal is to find a function f such that, given two structures A_0 , A_1 in C such that

$$\mathcal{A}_0 \equiv_{f(k)}^{\text{FO}} \mathcal{A}_1, \tag{5.2}$$

we are able to construct two linear orders $<_0,<_1$ such that $(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)\equiv_k^{\mathrm{FO}^2}(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)$.

In this section, we define f and we detail the construction of such orders. The proof of <-inv FO-similarity between $(A_0, <_0)$ and $(A_1, <_1)$ will be the focus of Section 5.3.

Let us now explain how we define f. For that, we need to introduce the notion of neighbourhood and neighbourhood type. These notions are defined in Section 5.2.1. We then explain in Section 5.2.2 how to divide neighbourhood types into rare ones and frequent ones. Finally, the details of the construction are given in Section 5.2.3.

5.2.1. *Neighbourhoods*. Let us now define the notion of neighbourhood of an element in a structure.

Let c be a new constant symbol, and let $A \in C$. For $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a \in A$, the (pointed) k-neighbourhood $\mathcal{N}_{A}^{k}(a)$ of a in A is the $(\Sigma \cup \{c\})$ -structure whose restriction to the vocabulary Σ is the substructure of A induced by the set $N_{A}^{k}(a) = \{b \in A : \operatorname{dist}_{A}(a,b) \leq k\}$, and where c is interpreted as a. In other words, it consists of all the elements at distance at most k from a in A, together with the relations they share in A; the center a being marked by the constant c. We sometimes refer to $N_{A}^{k}(a)$ as the k-neighbourhood of a in A as well, but the context will always make clear whether we refer to the whole substructure or only its domain. The k-neighbourhood type τ = neigh-tp $_{A}^{k}(a)$ of a in A is the isomorphism class of its k-neighbourhood. We say that τ is a k-neighbourhood type over Σ , and that a is an occurrence of τ . We denote by $|A|_{\tau}$ the number of occurrences of τ in A, and we write $[A_0]_k = {}^t [A_1]_k$ to mean that for every k-neighbourhood type τ , $|A_0|_{\tau}$ and $|A_1|_{\tau}$ are either equal, or both larger than t.

Let NEIGHTYPE^d denote the set of k-neighbourhood types over Σ occurring in structures of degree at most d. Note that NEIGHTYPE^d is a finite set.

The interest of this notion resides in the fact that when the degree is bounded, FO is exactly able to count the number of occurrences of neighbourhood types up to some threshold [FSV95]. We will only use one direction of this characterization, namely:

Proposition 5.2. For all integers k and t, there exists some $\hat{f}(k,t) \in \mathbb{N}$ (which also depends on the bound d on the degree of structures in C) such that for all structures $A_0, A_1 \in C$,

$$\mathcal{A}_0 \equiv_{\hat{f}(k,t)}^{FO} \mathcal{A}_1 \quad \rightarrow \quad \llbracket \mathcal{A}_0 \rrbracket_k =^t \llbracket \mathcal{A}_1 \rrbracket_k.$$

We now exhibit a function $\Theta: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that, if $[\![\mathcal{A}_0]\!]_k = ^{\Theta(k)} [\![\mathcal{A}_1]\!]_k$, then one can construct $<_0, <_1$ satisfying (5.1). Proposition 5.2 then ensures that $f: k \mapsto \hat{f}(k, \Theta(k))$ fits the bill. Let us now explain how the function Θ is chosen.

5.2.2. Frequency of a neighbourhood type. Let us denote $|NEIGHTYPE_k^d|$ as N.

Recall that every $A \in C$ has degree at most d. What this means is that if we consider the set $Freq[A]_k$ of k-neighbourhood types that have enough occurrences in A (where "enough" will be given a precise meaning later on), each type in $Freq[A]_k$ must have many occurrences that are scattered across A. Not only that, but we can also make sure that such occurrences are far from all the occurrences of every k-neighbourhood type not in $Freq[A]_k$, which by definition have few occurrences in A. Since the degree is bounded, N is bounded too, which prevents our distinction (which will be formalized later on) between rare neighbourhood types and frequent neighbourhood types from being circular.

Such a dichotomy is introduced and detailed in [Gra21]; we simply adapt this construction to our needs. In the remainder of this section, we describe this construction at a high level, and leave the technical details (such as the exact bounds) to the reader.

The proof of the following lemma (in the vein of [ADG08]) is straightforward, and relies on the degree boundedness hypothesis. Intuitively, Lemma 5.3 states that when the degree is bounded, it is not possible for all the elements of large sets to be concentrated in one corner of the structure, thus making it possible to pick elements in each set that are scattered across the structure.

Lemma 5.3. Given three integers m, δ , s, there exists a threshold $g(m, \delta, s) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $A \in C$, all $B \subseteq A$ of size at most s, and all subsets $C_1, \dots, C_n \subseteq A$ (with $n \leq N$) of size at least $g(m, \delta, s)$, it is possible to find elements $c_j^1, \dots, c_j^m \in C_j$ for all $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, such that for all $j, j' \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $i, i' \in \{1, \dots, m\}$, $dist_A(c_j^i, B) > \delta$ and $dist_A(c_j^i, c_{j'}^{i'}) > \delta$ if $(j, i) \neq (j', i')$.

Note that the N is this lemma could be replaced by any constant.

Our goal is, given a structure $A \in C$, to partition the k-neighbourhood types into two classes: the frequent types, and the rare types. The property we wish to ensure is that there exist in A some number m (which will be made precise later on, but only depends on k) of occurrences of each one of the frequent k-neighbourhood types which are both

- at distance greater than δ (which, as for m, is a function of k and will be fixed in the following) from one another, and
- at distance greater than δ from every occurrence of a rare k-neighbourhood type.

To establish this property, we would like to use Lemma 5.3, with s being the total number of occurrences of all the rare k-neighbourhood types, and C_1, \dots, C_n being the sets of occurrences of the n distinct frequent k-neighbourhood types.

The number N of different k-neighbourhood types of degree at most d is bounded by a function of k (as well as Σ and d, which are fixed). Hence, we can proceed according to the following (terminating) algorithm to make the distinction between frequent and rare types:

- (1) First, let us mark every k-neighbourhood type as frequent.
- (2) Among the types which are currently marked as frequent, let τ be one with the smallest number of occurrences in A.
- (3) If $|\mathcal{A}|_{\tau}$ is at least $g(m, \delta, s)$ (g being the function from Lemma 5.3) where s is the total number of occurrences of all the k-neighbourhood types which are currently marked as rare, then we are done and the marking frequent/rare is final. Otherwise, mark τ as rare, and go back to step 2 if there remains at least one frequent k-neighbourhood type.

Notice that we can go at most N times through step 2, where N depends only on k. Furthermore, each time we add a type to the set of rare k-neighbourhood types, we have the guarantee that this type has few occurrences (namely, less than $g(m, \delta, s)$, where s can be bounded by a function of k).

It is thus apparent that the threshold t such that a k-neighbourhood type τ is frequent in \mathcal{A} iff $|\mathcal{A}|_{\tau} \geq t$ can be bounded by some T depending only on k - importantly, T is the same for all structures of \mathcal{C} .

Let us now make the above more formal. For $t \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathcal{A} \in C$, let $\text{Freq}[\mathcal{A}]_k^{\geq t} \subseteq \text{NeighType}_k^d$ denote the set of k-neighbourhood types which have at least t occurrences in \mathcal{A} . By applying the procedure presented above, we derive the following lemma:

Lemma 5.4. Let $k, m, \delta \in \mathbb{N}$. There exists $T \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for every $A \in C$, there exists some $t \leq T$ such that

$$t \ge g(m, \delta, \sum_{\tau \notin F_{REQ}[\mathcal{A}]_k^{\ge t}} |\mathcal{A}|_{\tau}).$$

Let $\text{Freq}[\mathcal{A}]_k := \text{Freq}[\mathcal{A}]_k^{\geq t}$ for the smallest threshold t given in Lemma 5.4. Some k-neighbourhood type $\tau \in \text{NeighType}_k^d$ is said to be frequent in $\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{C}$ if it belongs to $\text{Freq}[\mathcal{A}]_k$; that is, if $|\mathcal{A}|_{\tau} \geq t$. Otherwise, τ is said to be frequent. With the definition of g in mind, Lemma 5.4 can then be reformulated as follows: in every structure $\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{C}$, one can find m occurrences of each frequent k-neighbourhood type which are at distance greater than δ from one another and from the set of occurrences of every rare k-neighbourhood type.

All that remains is for us to give a value (depending only on k) to the integers m and δ : let $M := \max\{|\tau| : \tau \in \text{NeighType}_k^d\}$ (M indeed exists, and is a function of k - recall that the signature Σ and the degree d are assumed to be fixed). Let us consider

$$m := 2 \cdot (k+1) \cdot M! \quad \text{and} \quad \delta := 4k. \tag{5.3}$$

We then define $\Theta(k)$ as the integer T provided by Lemma 5.4 for these values of m and δ . The threshold $\Theta(k)$ indeed only depends on k. Finally, notice that if $[\![\mathcal{A}_0]\!]_k = \Theta(k)$ $[\![\mathcal{A}_1]\!]_k$, then $\text{Freq}[\mathcal{A}_0]_k = \text{Freq}[\mathcal{A}_1]_k$.

then $\operatorname{FREQ}[\mathcal{A}_0]_k = \operatorname{FREQ}[\mathcal{A}_1]_k$. As discussed in Section 5.2.1, there exists a function f such that $\mathcal{A}_0 \equiv_{f(k)}^{\operatorname{FO}} \mathcal{A}_1$ entails $[\![\mathcal{A}_0]\!]_k = {}^{\Theta(k)} [\![\mathcal{A}_1]\!]_k$. We also make sure that $f(k) \geq \Theta(k) \cdot N + 1$ for every k. Let us now consider $\mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1 \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $\mathcal{A}_0 \equiv_{f(k)}^{\operatorname{FO}} \mathcal{A}_1$ for such an f. If $\operatorname{FREQ}[\mathcal{A}_0]_k = \emptyset$,

Let us now consider $\mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1 \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $\mathcal{A}_0 \equiv_{f(k)}^{\text{FO}} \mathcal{A}_1$ for such an f. If $\text{Freq}[\mathcal{A}_0]_k = \emptyset$, then $|\mathcal{A}_0| \leq \Theta(k) \cdot N$. This guarantees that $\mathcal{A}_0 \simeq \mathcal{A}_1$, and in particular that $\mathcal{A}_0 \equiv_k^{<\text{inv FO}^2} \mathcal{A}_1$. From now on, we suppose that there is at least one frequent k-neighbourhood type.

The construction of two linear orders $<_0$ and $<_1$ satisfying $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0) \equiv_k^{\mathrm{FO}^2} (\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$ is the object of Section 5.2.3.

5.2.3. Construction of $<_0$ and $<_1$. This section is dedicated to the definition of two linear orders $<_0,<_1$ on $\mathcal{A}_0,\mathcal{A}_1\in\mathcal{C}$. We then prove in Section 5.3 that $(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)$ and $(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)$ are FO²-similar at depth k.

Recall that by hypothesis, \mathcal{A}_0 and \mathcal{A}_1 are FO-similar at depth f(k), which entails that they have the same number of occurrences of each $\tau \in \text{NEIGHTYPE}_k^d$ up to a threshold $\Theta(k)$.

To construct our two linear orders, we need to define the notion of k-environment: given $\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{C}$, a linear order < on $A, k \in \mathbb{N}$ and an element $a \in A$, we define the k-environment $\mathcal{E}\operatorname{nv}_{(\mathcal{A},<)}^k(a)$ of a in $(\mathcal{A},<)$ as the restriction of $(\mathcal{A},<)$ to the k-neighbourhood of a in \mathcal{A} , where a is the interpretation of the constant symbol c. Note that the order is not taken into account when determining the domain of the substructure (it would otherwise be A, given that any two distinct elements are adjacent for <). The k-environment type env-tp $_{(\mathcal{A},<)}^k(a)$ is the isomorphism class of $\mathcal{E}\operatorname{nv}_{(\mathcal{A},<)}^k(a)$. In other words, env-tp $_{(\mathcal{A},<)}^k(a)$ contains the information of $\mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{A}}^k(a)$ together with the order of its elements in $(\mathcal{A},<)$.

Given $\tau \in \text{NeighType}_k^d$, we define $<_0$ as the set of k-environment types whose underlying k-neighbourhood type is τ .

For $i \in \{0,1\}$, we aim to partition A_i into 2(2k+1)+2 segments:

$$A_i = X_i \cup \bigcup_{j=0}^{2k} (L_i^j \cup R_i^j) \cup M_i.$$

Once we have set a linear order on each segment, the linear order $<_i$ on A_i will result from the concatenation of the orders on the segments as follows:

$$(A_i, <_i) := X_i \cdot L_i^0 \cdot L_i^1 \cdots L_i^{2k} \cdot M_i \cdot R_i^{2k} \cdots R_i^1 \cdot R_i^0.$$

Each segment L_i^j , for $j \in \{0, \cdots, 2k\}$ is itself decomposed into two segments $NL_i^j \cdot UL_i^j$. The UL_i^j for $j \in \{k+1, \cdots, 2k\}$ will be empty; they are defined solely in order to keep the notations uniform. The 'N' stands for "neighbour" and the 'U' for "universal", for reasons that will soon become apparent. Symmetrically, each R_i^j is decomposed into $UR_i^j \cdot NR_i^j$, with empty UR_i^j as soon as $j \geq k+1$.

For $i \in \{0,1\}$ and $r \in \{0,\cdots,2k\}$, we define S_i^r as

$$S_i^r := X_i \cup \bigcup_{j=0}^r (L_i^j \cup R_i^j).$$

Let us now explain how the segments are constructed in A_0 ; see Figure 1 for an illustration.

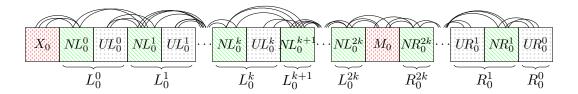


Figure 1: The black curvy edges represent the edges between elements belonging to different segments. Edges between elements of the same segment are not represented here. The order $<_0$ grows from the left to the right.

For every $\tau \in \text{Freq}[\mathcal{A}_0]_k$, let $\tau_1, \dots, \tau_{|\text{Env}(\tau)|}$ be an enumeration of $<_0$. Recall that we defined M in Section 5.2.2 as $\max\{|\tau|:\tau\in \text{NeighType}_k^d\}$. Thus, we have $|\text{Env}(\tau)|\leq M!$ for every $\tau \in \text{NeighType}_k^d$.

In particular, by definition of frequency, and by choice of m and δ in (5.3), Lemma 5.4 ensures that we are able to pick, for every $\tau \in \text{Freq}[A_0]_k$, every $l \in \{1, \dots, |\text{Env}(\tau)|\}$ and every $j \in \{0, \dots, k\}$, two elements $a[\tau_l]_L^j$ and $a[\tau_l]_R^j$ which have τ as k-neighbourhood type in \mathcal{A}_0 , such that all the $a[\tau_l]_*^j$ are at distance at least 4k+1 from each other and from any occurrence of a rare k-neighbourhood type in A_0 .

Construction of X_0 and NL_0^0 . We start with the set X_0 , which contains all the occurrences of rare k-neighbourhood types, together with their k-neighbourhoods.

Formally, the domain of X_0 is $\bigcup_{a \in A_0: \text{ neigh-tp}_{A_0}^k(a) \notin FREQ[A_0]_k} N_{A_0}^k(a)$.

We set $NL_0^0 := N_{\mathcal{A}_0}(X_0)$ (the set of neighbours of elements of X_0), and define the order $<_0$ on X_0 and on NL_0^0 in an arbitrary way.

Construction of UL_0^j . If $k < j \le 2k$, then we set $UL_0^j := \emptyset$. Otherwise, for $j \in \{0, \dots, k\}$, once we have constructed L_0^0, \dots, L_0^{j-1} and NL_0^j , we construct UL_0^j as follows. The elements of UL_0^j are $\bigcup_{\tau \in \text{Freq}[\mathcal{A}_0]_k} \bigcup_{l=1}^{|\text{Env}(\tau)|} N_{\mathcal{A}_0}^k(a[\tau_l]_L^j)$.

Note that UL_0^j does not intersect the previously constructed segments, by choice of the $a[\tau_l]_L^j$ and of $\delta = 4k$ in (5.3). Furthermore, the $N_{A_0}^k(a[\tau_l]_L^j)$ are pairwise disjoint, hence we can fix $<_0$ freely and independently on each of them. Unsurprisingly, we order each $N_{A_0}^k(a[\tau_l]_L^j)$ so that env-tp $_{(A_0,<_0)}^k(a[\tau_l]_L^j)=\tau_l$. This is possible because for every $\tau\in\mathrm{FREQ}[A_0]_k$ and each l, neigh- $\operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^k(a[\tau_l]_L^j) = \tau$ by choice of $a[\tau_l]_L^j$.

Once each $N_{A_0}^k(a[\tau_l]_L^j)$ is ordered according to τ_l , the linear order $<_0$ on UL_0^j can be completed in an arbitrary way. Note that every possible k-environment type extending a frequent k-neighbourhood type in \mathcal{A}_0 occurs in each $UL_0^{\mathfrak{I}}$. The $UL_0^{\mathfrak{I}}$ are universal in that sense.

Construction of NL_0^j . Now, let us see how the NL_0^j are constructed. For $j \in \{1, \dots, 2k\}$, suppose that we have constructed L_0^0, \dots, L_0^{j-1} . The domain of NL_0^j consists of all the neighbours (in \mathcal{A}_0) of the elements of L_0^{j-1} not already belonging to the construction so far. Formally, $N_{\mathcal{A}_0}(L_0^{j-1}) \setminus (X_0 \cup \bigcup_{m=0}^{j-2} L_0^m)$.

The order $<_0$ on NL_0^j is chosen arbitrarily.

Construction of R_0^j . We construct similarly the R_0^j , for $j \in \{0, \dots, 2k\}$, starting with $NR_0^0 := \emptyset$, then UR_0^0 which contains each $a[\tau_l]_R^0$ together with its k-neighbourhood in \mathcal{A}_0 ordered according to τ_l , then $NR_0^1 := N_{\mathcal{A}_0}(R_0^0)$, then UR_0^1 , etc.

Note that the $a[\tau_l]_R^{\mathfrak{I}}$ have been chosen so that they are far enough in \mathcal{A}_0 from all the segments that have been constructed so far, allowing us once more to order their k-neighbourhood in \mathcal{A}_0 as we see fit.

Construction of M_0 . M_0 contains all the elements of A_0 besides those already belonging to S_0^{2k} . The order $<_0$ chosen on M_0 is arbitrary.

Transfer on \mathcal{A}_1 . Suppose that we have constructed S_0^{2k} . We can make sure, retrospectively, that the index f(k) in (5.2) is large enough so that there exists a set $S \subseteq A_1$ so that $\mathcal{A}_0 \upharpoonright_{S_0^{2k} \cup N_{\mathcal{A}_0}(S_0^{2k})} \simeq \mathcal{A}_1 \upharpoonright_S$ (this is ensured as long as $f(k) \geq |S_0^{2k} \cup N_{\mathcal{A}_0}(S_0^{2k})| + 1$, which can be bounded by a function of k, independent of \mathcal{A}_0 and \mathcal{A}_1).

Let $\varphi_0: \mathcal{A}_0 \upharpoonright_{S_0^{2k}} \to \mathcal{A}_1 \upharpoonright_{S'}$ be the restriction to S_0^{2k} of said isomorphism, and let φ_1 be its converse. By construction, the k-neighbourhood of every $a \in S_0^k$ is included in S_0^{2k} ; hence every such a has the same k-neighbourhood type in \mathcal{A}_0 as has $\varphi_0(a)$ in \mathcal{A}_1 .

We transfer alongside φ_0 all the segments, with their order, from $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$ to \mathcal{A}_1 , thus defining $X_1, NL_1^j, UL_1^j, \cdots$ as the respective images by φ_0 of $X_0, NL_0^j, UL_0^j, \cdots$, and define M_1 as the counterpart to M_0 . Note that the properties concerning neighbourhood are transferred; e.g. all the neighbours of an element in L_1^j , $1 \leq j < 2k$, belong to $L_1^{j-1} \cup L_1^j \cup L_1^{j+1}$.

By construction, we get the following lemma:

Lemma 5.5. For each
$$a \in S_0^k$$
, we have $env\text{-}tp_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^k(a) = env\text{-}tp_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^k(\varphi_0(a))$.

Lemma 5.5 has two immediate consequences:

- The set X_1 contains the occurrences in A_1 of all the rare k-neighbourhood types (just forget about the order on the k-environments, and remember that A_0 and A_1 have the same number of occurrences of each rare k-neighbourhood type).
- All the universal segments UL_1^j and UR_1^j , for $0 \le j \le k$, contain at least one occurrence of each environment in $<_0$, for each $\tau \in \text{FREQ}[\mathcal{A}_0]_k$.

Our construction also guarantees the following result:

Lemma 5.6. For each
$$a, b \in S_0^k$$
, we have $tp_{(A_0,<_0)}^0(a,b) = tp_{(A_1,<_1)}^0(\varphi_0(a), \varphi_0(b))$.
In particular, for $a = b \in S_0^k$, we have $tp_{(A_0,<_0)}^0(a) = tp_{(A_1,<_1)}^0(\varphi_0(a))$.

5.3. **Proof of the FO**²-similarity of $(A_0, <_0)$ and $(A_1, <_1)$. In this section, we aim to show the following result:

Proposition 5.7. We have that
$$(A_0, <_0) \equiv_k^{FO^2} (A_1, <_1)$$
.

5.3.1. The two-pebble Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé game. To establish Proposition 5.7, we use Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé games with two pebbles. These games have been introduced by Immerman and Kozen [IK89]. Let us adapt their definition to our context.

The k-round two-pebble Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé game on $(A_0, <_0)$ and $(A_1, <_1)$ is played by two players: the spoiler and the duplicator. The spoiler tries to expose differences between the two structures, while the duplicator tries to establish their indistinguishability.

There are two pebbles associated with each structure: p_0^x and p_0^y on $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$, and p_1^x and p_1^y on $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$. Formally, these pebbles can be seen as the interpretations in each structure of two new constant symbols, but it will be convenient to see them as moving pieces.

At the start of the game, the duplicator places p_0^x and p_0^y on elements of $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$, and p_1^x and p_1^y on elements of $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$. The spoiler wins if the duplicator is unable to ensure that $\operatorname{tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)}^0(p_0^x, p_0^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)}^0(p_1^x, p_1^y)$. Otherwise, the proper game starts. Note that in the usual definition of the starting position, the pebbles are not on the board; however, it will be convenient to have them placed in order to uniformize our invariant. This change is not profound and does not affect the properties of the game.

For each of the k rounds, the spoiler starts by choosing a structure and a pebble in this structure, and places this pebble on an element of the chosen structure. In turn, the duplicator must place the corresponding pebble in the other structure on an element of that structure. The spoiler wins at once if $\operatorname{tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^0(p_0^x,p_0^y) \neq \operatorname{tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^0(p_1^x,p_1^y)$. Otherwise, another round is played. If the spoiler has not won after k rounds, then the duplicator wins.

The main interest of these games is that they capture the expressive power of FO² [IK89]. We will only need the fact that these games are correct:

Theorem 5.8. If the duplicator has a winning strategy in the k-round two-pebble Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé game on $(A_0, <_0)$ and $(A_1, <_1)$, then $(A_0, <_0) \equiv_k^{FO^2} (A_1, <_1)$.

Thus, in order to prove Proposition 5.7, we show that the duplicator wins the k-round two-pebble Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé game on $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$ and $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$. For that, let us show by a decreasing induction on $r = k, \dots, 0$ that the duplicator can ensure, after k - r rounds, that the three following properties (described below) hold:

$$\forall i \in \{0,1\}, \forall \alpha \in \{x,y\}, \ p_i^{\alpha} \in S_i^r \rightarrow p_{1-i}^{\alpha} = \varphi_i(p_i^{\alpha}) \tag{S_r}$$

$$\forall \alpha \in \{x, y\}, \text{ env-tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)}^r(p_0^\alpha) = \text{env-tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)}^r(p_1^\alpha)$$
 (E_r)

$$\operatorname{tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^0(p_0^x, p_0^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^0(p_1^x, p_1^y) \tag{T_r}$$

The first property, (S_r) , guarantees that if a pebble is close (in a sense that depends on the number of rounds left in the game) to one of the $<_i$ -minimal or $<_i$ -maximal elements, the corresponding pebble in the other structure is located at the same position with respect to this $<_i$ -extremal element.

As for (E_r) , it states that two corresponding pebbles are always placed on elements sharing the same r-environment type. Once again, the safety distance decreases with each round that goes.

Finally, (T_r) controls that both pebbles have the same relative position (both with respect to the order and the original vocabulary) in the two ordered structures. In particular, the duplicator wins the game if (T_r) is satisfied at the beginning of the game, and after each of the k rounds of the game.

5.3.2. Base case: proofs of (S_k) , (E_k) and (T_k) . We start by proving (S_k) , (E_k) and (T_k) . At the start of the game, the duplicator places both p_0^x and p_0^y on the $<_0$ -minimal element of $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$, and both p_1^x and p_1^y on the $<_1$ -minimal element of $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$. In particular,

$$p_1^x = p_1^y = \varphi_0(p_0^x) = \varphi_0(p_0^y).$$

This ensures that (S_k) holds, while (E_k) and (T_k) respectively follow from Lemmas 5.5—5.6.

5.3.3. Strategy for the duplicator. We now describe the duplicator's strategy to ensure that (S_r) , (E_r) and (T_r) hold no matter how the spoiler plays.

Suppose that we have (S_{r+1}) , (E_{r+1}) and (T_{r+1}) for some $0 \le r < k$, after k-r-1 rounds of the game. Without loss of generality, we may assume that, in the (k-r)-th round of the Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé game between $(A_0, <_0)$ and $(A_1, <_1)$, the spoiler moves p_0^x in $(A_0, <_0)$. Let us first explain informally the general idea behind the duplicator's strategy.

(1) If the spoiler plays around the endpoints (by which we mean the elements that are \leq_i -minimal and maximal), the duplicator has no choice but to play a tit-for-tat strategy, *i.e.* to respond to the placement of p_i^{α} near the endpoints by moving p_{1-i}^{α} on $\varphi_i(p_i^{\alpha})$.

If the duplicator does not respond this way, then the spoiler will be able to expose the difference between $(A_0, <_0)$ and $(A_1, <_1)$ in the subsequent moves, by forcing the duplicator to play closer and closer to the endpoint, which will prove to be impossible at some point.

On top of that, the occurrences of rare neighbourhood types are located in $(A_i, <_i)$ near the $<_i$ -minimal element. If the duplicator does not play according to φ_0 in this area, it will be easy enough for the spoiler to win the game.

The reason we introduced the segments NL_i^j, UL_i^j, NR_i^j and UR_i^j is precisely to bound the area in which the duplicator must implement the tit-for-tat strategy. Indeed, as soon as a pebble is placed in M_i , there is no way for the spoiler to join the endpoints in less than k moves while forcing the duplicator's hand.

The case where the spoiler plays near the endpoints corresponds to Case ((I)) below, and is detailed in Section 5.3.4.

(2) Next, suppose that the spoiler places a pebble, say p_0^x , next (in \mathcal{A}_0) to p_0^y , i.e. such that $p_0^x \in N_{\mathcal{A}_0}^1(p_0^y)$. The duplicator must place p_1^x on an element whose relative position to p_1^y is the same as the relative position of p_0^x with respect to p_0^y . Note that once this is done, the spoiler can change variable, and place p_0^y (or p_1^y , if they decide to play in $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$) in $N_{\mathcal{A}_0}^1(p_0^x)$, thus forcing the duplicator to play near p_1^x . In order to prevent the spoiler from being able, in k such moves, to expose the difference between $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$ and $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$, the duplicator must make sure, with r rounds left, that p_0^x and p_1^x (as well as p_0^y and p_1^y) share the same r-environment in $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$ and $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$. This will guarantee that the duplicator can play along if the spoiler decides to take r moves adjacent (in \mathcal{A}_i) to one another.

The case where the spoiler places a pebble next (in the structure without ordering) to the other pebble is our Case ((II)), and is treated in Section 5.3.5.

(3) Suppose now that the spoiler's move does not fall under the previous templates. Let us assume that the spoiler plays in $(A_0, <_0)$, and moves p_0^x to the left of p_0^y (*i.e.* such that $(A_0, <_0) \models p_0^x < p_0^y$).

In order to play according to the remarks from Cases 1 and 2, the duplicator must place p_1^x on an element which shares the same r-environment with p_0^x (where r is the number of rounds left in the game), which is not near the endpoints.

It must be the case that the k-neighbourhood type of p_0^x in \mathcal{A}_0 is frequent, since it is not near the endpoints of $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$, hence not in X_0 . By construction, every universal segment UL_1^j , for $0 \le j \le k$, contains elements of each k-environment type extending any frequent k-neighbourhood type. In particular, it contains an element having the same r-environment as p_0^x . The duplicator will place p_1^x on such an element in the leftmost segment UL_1^j which is not considered to be near the endpoints (this notion depends on the number r of rounds left in the game). This is detailed in Cases ((III)) and ((V)) (for the symmetrical case where p_0^x is placed to the right of p_0^y) below.

However, we have to consider a subcase, where p_1^y is itself in the leftmost segment L_1^j which is not near the endpoints. Indeed, in this case, placing p_1^x as discussed may result in p_1^x being to the right of p_1^y , or being in $N_{\mathcal{A}_1}^1(p_1^y)$; either of which being game-losing to the duplicator. However, since p_1^y was considered to be near the endpoints in the

previous round of the game, we know that the duplicator played a tit-for-tat strategy at that point, which allows us to replicate the placement of p_0^x according to φ_0 . This subcase, as well as the equivalent subcase where the spoiler places p_0^x to the right of p_0^y are formalized in Cases ((IV)) and ((VI)) below.

We are now ready to describe formally the strategy implemented by the duplicator:

- (I) If $p_0^x \in S_0^r$, then the duplicator responds by placing p_1^x on $\varphi_0(p_0^x)$. This corresponds to the tit-for-tat strategy implemented when the spoiler plays near the endpoints, as discussed in Case 1.
- (II) Else, if $p_0^x \notin S_0^r$, and $p_0^x \in N_{\mathcal{A}_0}^1(p_0^y)$, then (E_{r+1}) ensures that there exists an isomorphism $\psi : \mathcal{E}nv_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^{r+1}(p_0^y) \to \mathcal{E}nv_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^{r+1}(p_1^y)$. The duplicator responds by placing p_1^x on $\psi(p_0^x)$.

This makes formal the duplicator's response to a move next to the other pebble, as discussed in Case 2 above.

(III) Else suppose that $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0) \models p_0^x < p_0^y$ and $p_0^y \notin L_0^{r+1}$. Note that $\tau := \text{neigh-tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^k(p_0^x) \in \text{FREQ}[\mathcal{A}_0]_k$, since $p_0^x \notin X_0$. Let $\tau_l := \text{env-tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)}^k(p_0^x)$.

The duplicator responds by placing p_1^x on $\varphi_0(a[\tau_l]_L^{r+1})$.

- (IV) Else, if $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0) \models p_0^x < p_0^y$ and $p_0^y \in L_0^{r+1}$, then the duplicator moves p_1^x on $\varphi_0(p_0^x)$ (by (S_{r+1}) , p_0^x indeed belongs to the domain of φ_0).

 (V) Else, suppose that $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0) \models p_0^y < p_0^x$ and $p_0^y \notin R_0^{r+1}$. This case is symmetric to
- Case ((III)).

Similarly, the duplicator opts to play p_1^x on $\varphi_0(a[\tau]_R^{r+1})$, where $\tau_1 := \text{env-tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_0, \leq_0)}^k(p_0^x)$.

(VI) If we are in none of the cases above, it means that the spoiler has placed p_0^x to the right of p_0^y , and that $p_0^y \in R_0^{r+1}$. This case is symmetric to Case ((IV)).

Once again, the duplicator places p_1^x on $\varphi_0(p_0^x)$.

It remains to show that this strategy satisfies our invariants: under the inductive assumption that (S_{r+1}) , (E_{r+1}) and (T_{r+1}) hold, for some $0 \le r < k$, we need to show that this strategy ensures that (S_r) , (E_r) and (T_r) hold.

We treat each case in its own section: Section 5.3.4 is devoted to Case (I) while Section 5.3.5 covers Case ((II)). Both Cases ((III)) and ((IV)) are treated in Section 5.3.6. Cases (V) and (VI), being their exact symmetric counterparts, are left to the reader.

Remark 5.9. Note that some properties need no verification. Since p_0^y and p_1^y are left untouched by the players, (S_{r+1}) ensures that half of (S_r) automatically holds, namely that

$$\forall i \in \{0,1\}, \quad p_i^y \in S_i^r \quad \to \quad p_{1-i}^y = \varphi_i(p_i^y).$$

Similarly, the part of (E_r) concerning p_0^y and p_1^y follows from (E_{r+1}) :

$$\operatorname{env-tp}_{(A_0,<_0)}^r(p_0^y) = \operatorname{env-tp}_{(A_1,<_1)}^r(p_1^y).$$

Lastly, notice that once we have shown that (E_r) holds, it follows that

$$\begin{cases} \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^x) = \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_1}^0(p_1^x) \\ \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_1}^0(p_1^y) \end{cases}$$

5.3.4. When the spoiler plays near the endpoints: Case (I). In this section, we treat the case where the spoiler places p_0^x near the $<_0$ -minimal or $<_0$ -maximal element of $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$. Obviously, what "near" means depends on the number of rounds left in the game; the more rounds remain, the more the duplicator must be cautious regarding the possibility for the spoiler to reach an endpoint and potentially expose a difference between $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$ and $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$.

As we have stated in Case ((I)), with r rounds left, we consider a move on p_0^x by the spoiler to be near the endpoints if it is made in S_0^r . In that case, the duplicator responds along the tit-for-tat strategy, namely by placing p_1^x on $\varphi_0(p_0^x)$.

Let us now prove that this strategy guarantees that (S_r) , (E_r) and (T_r) hold. Recall from Note 5.9 that part of the task is already taken care of.

Proof of (S_r) in Case ((I)). We have to show that $\forall i \in \{0,1\}, \ p_i^x \in S_i^r \to p_{1-i}^x = \varphi_i(p_i^x)$. This follows directly from the duplicator's strategy, since $p_1^x = \varphi_0(p_0^x)$ (thus $p_0^x = \varphi_1(p_1^x)$).

Proof of (E_r) in Case ((I)). We need to prove that $\operatorname{env-tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^r(p_0^x) = \operatorname{env-tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^r(p_1^x)$, which is a consequence of Lemma 5.5 given that $p_1^x = \varphi_0(p_0^x)$ and r < k.

Proof of (T_r) in Case ((I)). First, suppose that $p_0^y \in S_0^{r+1}$. By (S_{r+1}) , we know that $p_1^y = \varphi_0(p_0^y)$. Thus, Lemma 5.6 allows us to conclude that $\operatorname{tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^0(p_0^x,p_0^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^0(p_1^x,p_1^y)$.

Otherwise, $p_0^y \notin S_0^{r+1}$ and (S_{r+1}) entails that $p_1^y \notin S_1^{r+1}$. We have two points to establish:

$$\operatorname{tp}_{A_0}^0(p_0^x, p_0^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{A_1}^0(p_1^x, p_1^y) \tag{5.4}$$

$$tp_{\leq 0}^{0}(p_{0}^{x}, p_{0}^{y}) = tp_{\leq 1}^{0}(p_{1}^{x}, p_{1}^{y})$$
(5.5)

Notice that

$$\begin{cases} \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^x, p_0^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^x) \cup \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^y) \\ \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_1}^0(p_1^x, p_1^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_1}^0(p_1^x) \cup \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_1}^0(p_1^y) \end{cases}$$

This is because, by construction, the neighbours in \mathcal{A}_i of an element of S_i^r all belong to S_i^{r+1} . Equation (5.4) follows from this remark and Note 5.9. As for Equation (5.5), either

$$p_0^x \in X_0 \cup \bigcup_{0 \le j \le r} L_0^j$$
 and $p_1^x \in X_1 \cup \bigcup_{0 \le j \le r} L_1^j$,

in which case $\operatorname{tp}^0_{<_0}(p_0^x, p_0^y) = \{x < y\} = \operatorname{tp}^0_{<_1}(p_1^x, p_1^y)\,,$ or

$$p_0^x \in \bigcup_{0 \le j \le r} R_0^j$$
 and $p_1^x \in \bigcup_{0 \le j \le r} R_1^j$,

in which case $\operatorname{tp}_{\leq_0}^0(p_0^x, p_0^y) = \{x > y\} = \operatorname{tp}_{\leq_1}^0(p_1^x, p_1^y)$.

5.3.5. When the spoiler plays next to the other pebble: Case ((II)). Suppose now that the spoiler places p_0^x next to the other pebble in \mathcal{A}_0 (i.e. $p_0^x \in N^1_{\mathcal{A}_0}(p_0^y)$), but not in S_0^r (for that move would fall under the jurisdiction of Case ((I))). In that case, the duplicator must place p_1^x so that the relative position of p_1^x and p_1^y is the same as that of p_0^x and p_0^y .

For that, we can use (E_{r+1}) , which guarantees that env-tp $_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^{r+1}(p_0^y) = \text{env-tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^{r+1}(p_1^y)$. Thus there exists an isomorphism ψ between $\operatorname{\mathcal{E}nv}_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^{r+1}(p_0^y)$ and $\operatorname{\mathcal{E}nv}_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^{r+1}(p_1^y)$. Note that this isomorphism is unique, by virtue of $<_0$ and $<_1$ being linear orders.

The duplicator's response is to place p_1^x on $\psi(p_0^x)$. Let us now prove that this strategy is correct with respect to our invariants (S_r) , (E_r) and (T_r) .

Proof of (S_r) in Case ((II)). Because the spoiler's move does not fall under Case ((I)), we know that $p_0^x \notin S_0^r$.

Let us now show that p_1^x is not near the endpoints either: suppose that $p_1^x \in S_1^r$. By construction, since p_1^x and p_1^y are neighbours in \mathcal{A}_1 , this entails that $p_1^y \in S_1^{r+1}$. But then, we know by (S_{r+1}) that $p_0^y = \varphi_1(p_1^y)$; and because ψ is the unique isomorphism between $\operatorname{\mathcal{E}nv}_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^{r+1}(p_0^y)$ and $\operatorname{\mathcal{E}nv}_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^{r+1}(p_1^y)$, ψ is equal to the restriction $\widetilde{\varphi}_0$ of φ_0 :

$$\widetilde{\varphi_0} : \mathcal{E}\mathrm{nv}^{r+1}_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}(p_0^y) \to \mathcal{E}\mathrm{nv}^{r+1}_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}(p_1^y).$$

Thus $p_0^x = \psi^{-1}(p_1^x) = \widetilde{\varphi_0}^{-1}(p_1^x) = \varphi_1(p_1^x)$, and by definition of the segments on $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$, which are just a transposition of the segments of $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$ via $\varphi_0, p_1^x \in S_1^r$ then entails that $p_0^x \in S_0^r$, which is clearly a contradiction.

Since we neither have $p_0^x \in S_0^r$ nor $p_1^x \in S_1^r$, (S_r) holds - recall from Note 5.9 that the part concerning p_0^y and p_1^y is always satisfied.

Proof of (E_r) in Case ((II)). Recall that the duplicator placed p_1^x on the image of p_0^x by the isomorphism

$$\psi : \mathcal{E}nv_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^{r+1}(p_0^y) \to \mathcal{E}nv_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^{r+1}(p_1^y).$$

It is easy to check that the restriction $\widetilde{\psi}$ of ψ : $\widetilde{\psi}$: $\operatorname{Env}_{(\mathcal{A}_0,<_0)}^r(p_0^x) \to \operatorname{Env}_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^r(p_1^x)$ is well-defined, and is indeed an isomorphism.

This ensures that env-tp^r_($\mathcal{A}_0,<_0$) $(p_0^x) = \text{env-tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}^r(p_1^x)$, thus completing the proof of (E_r) .

Proof of (T_r) in Case ((II)). This follows immediately from the fact that the isomorphism ψ maps p_0^x to p_1^x and p_0^y to p_1^y : all the atomic facts about these elements are preserved.

5.3.6. When the spoiler plays to the left: Cases ((III)) and ((IV)). We now treat our last case, which covers both Cases ((III)) and ((IV)), i.e. the instances where the spoiler places p_0^x to the left of p_0^y (formally: such that $(A_0, <_0) \models p_0^x < p_0^y$), which do not already fall in Cases ((I)) and ((II)).

Note that the scenario in which the spoiler plays to the right of the other pebble is the exact symmetric of this one (since the X_i play no role in this case, left and right can be interchanged harmlessly).

The idea here is very simple: since the spoiler has placed p_0^x to the left of p_0^y , but neither in S_0^r nor in $N_{\mathcal{A}_0}^1(p_0^y)$, the duplicator responds by placing p_1^x on an element of UL_1^{r+1} (the leftmost universal segment not in S_1^r) sharing the same k-environment. This is possible by construction of the universal segments: if $\tau_l := \text{env-tp}_{(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)}^k(p_0^x)$ (which must extend a frequent k-neighbourhood type, since $p_0^x \notin X_0$), then $\varphi_0(a[\tau_l]_L^{r+1})$ satisfies the requirements.

There is one caveat to this strategy. If p_1^y is itself in L_1^{r+1} , two problems may arise: first, it is possible for p_1^x and p_1^y to be in the wrong order (i.e. such that $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1) \models p_1^x > p_1^y$). Second, it may be the case that p_1^x and p_1^y are neighbours in \mathcal{A}_1 , which, together with the fact that p_0^x and p_0^y are orthogonal in \mathcal{A}_0 (i.e. $\operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^x, p_0^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^x) \cup \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^y)$), would break (T_r) .

This is why the duplicator's strategy depends on whether $p_1^y \in L_1^{r+1}$:

- if this is not the case, then the duplicator places p_1^x on $\varphi_0(a[\tau_l]_L^{r+1})$. This corresponds to Case ((III)).
- if $p_1^y \in L_1^{r+1}$, then (S_{r+1}) guarantees that $p_0^y \in L_0^{r+1}$. Hence p_0^x , which is located to the left of p_0^y , is in the domain of φ_0 : the duplicator moves p_1^x to $\varphi_0(p_0^x)$. This situation corresponds to Case ((IV)).

Let us prove that (S_r) , (E_r) and (T_r) hold in both of these instances.

Proof of (S_r) in Case ((III)). Since the spoiler's move does not fall under Case ((I)), we have that $p_0^x \notin S_0^r$.

By construction, $a[\tau_l]_L^{r+1} \in L_0^{r+1}$, thus $\varphi_0(a[\tau_l]_L^{r+1}) \in L_1^{r+1}$, and $p_1^x \notin S_1^r$.

Proof of (E_r) in Case ((III)). It follows from env-tp $_{(A_0,<_0)}^k(a[\tau]_L^{r+1}) = \tau_l$ together with Lemma 5.5 that

$$\text{env-tp}_{(A_0,<_0)}^k(p_0^x) = \text{env-tp}_{(A_1,<_1)}^k(p_1^x).$$

A fortiori, env-tp^r_($\mathcal{A}_0,<_0$) $(p_0^x) = \text{env-tp}^r_{(\mathcal{A}_1,<_1)}(p_1^x).$

Proof of (T_r) in Case ((III)). Because the spoiler's move does not fall under Case ((II)), $p_0^x \notin N_{\mathcal{A}_0}^1(p_0^y)$. In other words,

$$\operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^x, p_0^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^x) \cup \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^y).$$

Recall the construction of UL_0^{r+1} : the whole k-neighbourhood of $a[\tau_l]_L^{r+1}$ was included in this segment. In particular, $N_{\mathcal{A}_1}^1(p_1^x) = N_{\mathcal{A}_1}^1(\varphi_0(a[\tau_l]_L^{r+1})) \subseteq UL_1^{r+1}$. By assumption, $p_1^y \notin L_1^{r+1}$, which entails that $\operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_1}^0(p_1^x, p_1^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_1}^0(p_1^x) \cup \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_1}^0(p_1^y)$.

It then follows from the last observation of Note 5.9 that $\operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_0}^0(p_0^x, p_0^y) = \operatorname{tp}_{\mathcal{A}_1}^0(p_1^x, p_1^y)$.

Let us now prove that $tp_{<_1}^0(p_1^x, p_1^y) = \{x < y\}.$

We claim that $p_1^y \notin X_1 \cup \bigcup_{0 \le j \le r+1} L_1^j$. Suppose otherwise: (S_{r+1}) would entail that $p_0^y \in X_0 \cup \bigcup_{0 \le j \le r+1} L_0^j$ which, together with the hypothesis $p_0^y \notin L_0^{r+1}$ and $p_0^x < p_0^y$, would result in p_0^x be a sum of p_0^x which is absurd.

Thus, $\operatorname{tp}_{<_1}^0(p_1^x, p_1^y) = \{x < y\} = \operatorname{tp}_{<_0}^0(p_0^x, p_0^y)$, which concludes the proof of (T_r) .

Proof of (S_r) , (E_r) and (T_r) in Case ((IV)). Let us now move to the case where $p_1^y \in L_1^{r+1}$. Recall that under this assumption, $p_0^y = \varphi_1(p_1^y) \in L_0^{r+1}$ and since $p_0^x < p_0^y$ and $p_0^x \notin S_0^r$, we have that $p_0^x \in L_0^{r+1}$.

The duplicator places the pebble p_1^x on $\varphi_0(p_0^x)$; in particular, $p_1^x \in L_1^{r+1}$.

The proof of (S_r) follows from the simple observation that $p_0^x \notin S_0^r$ and $p_1^x \notin S_1^r$. As for (E_r) and (T_r) , they follow readily from Lemma 5.5 and 5.6 and the fact that $p_1^x = \varphi_0(p_0^x)$ and $p_1^y = \varphi_0(p_0^y)$. 5.4. Counting quantifiers. We now consider the natural extension C^2 of FO^2 , where one is allowed to use counting quantifiers of the form $\exists^{\geq i} x$ and $\exists^{\geq i} y$, for $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Such a quantifier, as expected, expresses the existence of at least i elements satisfying the formula which follows it. This logic C^2 has been extensively studied. On an expressiveness standpoint, C^2 strictly extends FO^2 (which cannot count up to three), and contrary to the latter, C^2 does not enjoy the small model property (meaning that contrary to FO^2 , there exist satisfiable C^2 -sentences which do not have small - or even finite - models). However, the satisfiability problem for C^2 is still decidable [GOR97, Pra07, Pra10]. To the best of our knowledge, it is not known whether <-inv C^2 has a decidable syntax. Let us now explain how the proof of Theorem 5.1 can be adapted to show the following stronger version:

Theorem 5.10. Let C be a class of structures of bounded degree. Then <-inv $C^2 \subseteq FO$ on C.

Proof. The proof is very similar as to that of Theorem 5.1. The difference is that we now need to show, at the end of the construction, that the structures $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$ and $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$ are not only FO²-similar, but C²-similar. More precisely, we show that for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists some $f(k) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that if $\mathcal{A}_0 \equiv_{f(k)}^{FO} \mathcal{A}_1$, then it is possible to construct two linear orders $<_0$ and $<_1$ such that $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$ and $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$ agree on all C²-sentences of quantifier rank at most k, and with counting indexes at most k, which we denote $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0) \equiv_{k,k}^{C^2} (\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$. This is enough to complete the proof, as these classes of C²-sentences cover all the C²-definable properties.

In order to prove that $(A_0, <_0) \equiv_{k,k}^{C^2} (A_1, <_1)$, we need an Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé-game capturing $\equiv_{k,k}^{C^2}$. It is not hard to derive such a game from the Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé-game for C^2 [IL90]. This game only differs from the two-pebble Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé-game in that in each round, once the spoiler has chosen a structure (say $(A_0, <_0)$) and a pebble to move (say p_0^x), the spoiler picks not only one element of that structure, but a set P_0 of up to k elements. Then the duplicator must respond with a set P_1 of same cardinality in $(A_1, <_1)$. The spoiler then places p_1^x on any element of P_1 , to which the duplicator responds by placing p_0^x on some element of P_0 . As usual, the spoiler wins after this round if $\operatorname{tp}_{(A_0,<_0)}^0(p_0^x,p_0^y)\neq\operatorname{tp}_{(A_1,<_1)}^0(p_1^x,p_1^y)$. Otherwise, the game goes on until k rounds are played.

It is not hard to establish that this game indeed captures $\equiv_{k,k}^{C^2}$, in the sense that $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0) \equiv_{k,k}^{C^2} (\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$ if and only if the duplicator has a winning strategy for k rounds of this game. The restriction on the cardinal of the set chosen by the spoiler (which is at most k) indeed corresponds to the fact that the counting indexes of the formulae are at most k. As for the number of rounds (namely, k), it corresponds as usual to the quantifier rank. This can be easily derived from a proof of Theorem 5.3 in [IL90], and is left to the reader.

Let us now explain how to modify the construction of $<_0$ and $<_1$ presented in Section 5.2 in order for the duplicator to maintain similarity for k-round in such a game. The only difference lies in the choice of the universal elements. Recall that in the previous construction, we chose, for each k-environment type τ_l extending a frequent k-neighbourhood type and each segment UL_0^j , an element $a[\tau_l]_L^j$ whose k-environment type in $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$ is destined to be τ_l (and similarly for UR_0^j and $a[\tau_l]_R^j$).

In the new construction, we pick k such elements, instead of just one. Just as previously, all these elements must be far enough from one another in the Gaifman graph of \mathcal{A}_0 . Once again, this condition can be met by virtue of the k-neighbourhood type τ underlying τ_l being frequent, and thus having many occurrences scattered across \mathcal{A}_0 (remember that we

have a bound on the degree of A_0 , thus all the occurrences of τ cannot be concentrated). We only need to multiply the value of m by k in (5.3).

When the spoiler picks a set of elements of size at most k in one of the structures (say P_0 in $(\mathcal{A}_0, <_0)$), the duplicator responds by selecting, for each one of the elements of P_0 , an element in $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$ along the strategy for the FO²-game explained in Section 5.3.3. All that remains to be shown is that it is possible for the duplicator to answer each element of P_0 with a different element in $(\mathcal{A}_1, <_1)$.

Note that if the duplicator follows the strategy from Section 5.3.3, they will never answer two moves by the spoiler falling under different cases among Cases ((I))-((VI)) with the same element. Thus we can treat separately each one of these cases; and for each case, we show that if the spoiler chooses up to k elements in $(A_0, <_0)$ falling under this case in P_0 , then the duplicator can find the same number of elements in $(A_1, <_1)$, following the aforementioned strategy.

- For Case ((I)), this is straightforward, since the strategy is based on the isomorphism between the borders of the linear orders. The same goes for Cases ((II)), ((IV)) and ((VI)), as the strategy in these cases also relies on an isomorphism argument.
- Suppose now that $p_0^y \notin L_0^{r+1}$, and assume that the spoiler chooses several elements to the left of p_0^y , but outside of S_0^r and not adjacent to p_0^y . This corresponds to Case ((III)). Recall that our new construction guarantees, for each k-environment type extending a frequent k-neighbourhood type, the existence in L_1^{r+1} of k elements having this environment. This lets us choose, in L_1^{r+1} , a distinct answer for each element in the set selected by the spoiler, sharing the same k-environment type. Case ((V)) is obviously symmetric.

This concludes the proof of Theorem 5.10.

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we made significant progress towards a better understanding of the two-variable fragment of order-invariant first-order logic:

- From a complexity point of view, we established the CONEXPTIME-completeness of the problem of deciding if a given FO²-sentence is order-invariant (Theorem 3.5), significantly simplifying and improving the result by Zeume and Harwath [ZH16, Thm. 12].
- From an expressivity point of view, we addressed the question of whether every property definable in order-invariant FO² can also be expressed in plain FO. We failed short of fully answering the question, but provided two interesting results. The first one (namely, Theorem 4.5) establishes that under a more relaxed notion of order-invariance, the answer to the above question is "no". While this does not bring a fully-satisfactory answer to the problem, this leads us to believe that order-invariant FO² can indeed express properties beyond the scope of FO. The second one (Theorem 5.1) states that when the degree is bounded, every property expressible in order-invariant FO² is definable in FO without the use of the order. This is an important step towards resolving the conjecture that order-invariant FO over classes of structures of bounded degree cannot express properties beyond the reach of FO.

Results of Section 5 also apply to the case of the two-variable logic with counting, C^2 . While order-invariant C^2 has decidable satisfiability and validity problems [CW16, Theorem 6.20], it is open if it has a decidable syntax (*i.e.* whether the problem of determining if a given C^2 -sentence is order-invariant is decidable). Unfortunately the techniques introduced

in Section 3 are of no use here, as C^2 lacks the finite model property. Finally, it might be a good idea to study order-invariant FO^2 over graph classes beyond classes of bounded-degree, e.g. planar graphs or nowhere-dense classes of graphs.

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