Randomness and the linear degrees of computability

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Abstract

We show that there exists a real $\alpha$ such that, for all reals $\beta$, if $\alpha$ is linear reducible to $\beta$ ($\alpha \leq_\ell \beta$, previously denoted as $\alpha \leq_{\text{sw}} \beta$) then $\beta \leq_T \alpha$. In fact, every random real satisfies this quasi-maximality property. As a corollary we may conclude that there exists no $\ell$-complete $\Delta_2$ real. Upon realizing that quasi-maximality does not characterize the random reals – there exist reals which are not random but which are of quasi-maximal $\ell$-degree – it is then natural to ask whether maximality could provide such a characterization. Such hopes, however, are in vain since no real is of maximal $\ell$-degree.

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1. Introduction

In the process of computing a real $\alpha$ given an oracle for $\beta$ it is natural to consider the condition that for the computation of the first $n$ bits of $\alpha$ we are only allowed to use the information in the first $n$ bits of $\beta$. It is not difficult to see that this notion of oracle computation is complexity sensitive in many ways. We can then generalize this definition in a straightforward way by allowing that, in the computation of $\alpha \upharpoonright n$, access is permitted to $\beta \upharpoonright (n+c)$ for some fixed constant $c$.

The study of oracle computations of this kind and of the reducibility they induce on $2^\mathbb{N}$ was initiated by Downey, Hirschfeldt and LaForte \cite{6,5}, the motivation being that they might serve as a measure of relative randomness. They presented the induced reducibility as a restriction of the weak truth table reducibility and gave it the (perhaps unfortunate!) name \textit{strong weak truth table} reducibility—or \textit{sw} reducibility for short. After discussions with other researchers in the area we introduce here the terminology \textit{linear} reducible in place of \textit{strong weak truth table} reducible—while another reasonable contender for this title would certainly be the set of reductions in which the use on argument $n$ is bounded by $an + c$ for some constants $a$ and $c$ it would seem that reductions of this type for

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values of \( a \neq 1 \) are of small relevance in the study of computability theory. From a computational point of view, then, the linear reducibility can be seen as formalizing the notion of \textit{length efficient oracle computation}.

**Definition 1.1.** We say \( \alpha \) is linear reducible to \( \beta \) (\( \alpha \preceq \beta \)) if there is a Turing functional \( \Gamma \) and a constant \( c \) such that \( \Gamma^\beta = \alpha \) and the use of this computation on any argument \( n \) is bounded by \( n + c \). The Turing functionals which have their use restricted in such a way are called \( \ell \)-functionals.

The linear reducibility (in particular the case where \( c = 0 \)) was used in the recent work of Soare, Nabutovsky and Weinberger on applications of computability theory to differential geometry (see Soare [10]). If we consider partial computable functionals as operators from \( 2^{<\omega} \) to itself, the \( \ell \)-functionals are also closely related to the notion of Lipschitz continuous operators.

**Definition 1.2.** A partial operator \( \Gamma \) from a (pseudo-)metric space \( (X, d) \) to itself is Lipschitz continuous if there is a constant \( C \) such that

\[
d(\Gamma(x), \Gamma(y)) \leq C \cdot d(x, y)
\]

for all \( x, y \) in the domain of \( \Gamma \).

We consider the pseudo-metric \( d \) on \( 2^{<\omega} \) such that for incompatible strings \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \), \( d(\tau, \tau') = 2^{-n} \) where \( n \) is the least position where \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) differ, and such that \( d(\tau, \tau') = 0 \) if \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) are compatible.

**Proposition 1.1.** An \( \ell \)-functional is a partial computable and Lipschitz continuous operator from \( (2^{<\omega}, d) \) to itself. Conversely, every partial computable and Lipschitz continuous operator \( \Gamma : (2^{<\omega}, d) \rightarrow (2^{<\omega}, d) \) equals an \( \ell \)-functional on infinite strings.

**Proof.** If \( \Gamma \) is an \( \ell \)-functional, it is obviously partial computable but also Lipschitz continuous as a function on \( 2^{<\omega} \). Indeed, suppose we are given two finite binary strings \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) such that \( d(\Gamma^\tau, \Gamma^{\tau'}) = 2^{-t} \). If the use of \( \Gamma \) on \( n \) is \( n + c \) for some fixed constant \( c \), \( d(\tau, \tau') \) must be at least \( 2^{-t+\ell+c} \). Hence

\[
d(\Gamma^\tau, \Gamma^{\tau'}) \leq d(\tau, \tau') \cdot 2^c
\]

and \( \Gamma \) is Lipschitz continuous. On the other hand, if \( \Gamma \) is partial computable and Lipschitz continuous (say with constant \( 2^c \)) we show that we can construct an \( \ell \)-functional which is equal to \( \Gamma \) on infinite strings. To compute a total \( \Gamma^{\alpha} \) on \( n \) knowing the first \( n + c \) bits of \( \alpha \) we effectively find an extension \( \tau \) of \( \alpha \upharpoonright (n+c) \) such that \( \Gamma^\tau(n) \downarrow \). Since (2) holds, the distance between \( \Gamma^{\alpha} \upharpoonright (n+1) \) and \( \Gamma^\tau \upharpoonright (n+1) \) will be less than \( 2^{-n} \). So \( \Gamma^{\alpha}(n) = \Gamma^\tau(n) \).

The following are some results from the literature on the \( \ell \)-degrees (induced by \( \preceq \ell \)) which are relevant to our present considerations. For more background on this structure we refer the reader to [7,5].

**Definition 1.3.** A Solovay test is a c.e. set \( S \) of binary strings such that \( \sum_{\sigma \in S} 2^{-|\sigma|} < \infty \). A real number \( \alpha \) avoids \( S \) if for all \( \sigma \in S \), \( \sigma \nsubseteq \alpha \). A real \( \alpha \) is (Martin-Löf) random if it avoids all Solovay tests.

**Definition 1.4.** A real number is computably enumerable (c.e.) if it is the limit of a computable increasing sequence of rationals.

The main justification for \( \preceq \ell \) as a measure of relative randomness was the following:

**Proposition 1.2 (Downey et al. [6]).** If \( \alpha \leq \ell \beta \) then for all \( n \), the prefix-free complexity of \( \alpha \upharpoonright n \) is less than or equal to that of \( \beta \upharpoonright n \) (plus a constant).

In particular, then, \( \preceq \ell \) preserves randomness—if \( \alpha \) is a random real and \( \alpha \leq \ell \beta \) then \( \beta \) is random, so that any \( \ell \)-degree either contains only random or no random reals.

Yu and Ding proved the following:

**Theorem 1.1 (Yu and Ding [11]).** There is no \( \ell \)-complete c.e. real.

By a ‘uniformization’ of their proof they got two c.e. reals which have no c.e. real \( \ell \)-above them. Hence:

**Corollary 1.1 (Downey et al. [6]).** The structure of \( \ell \)-degrees is not an upper semi-lattice.
The main idea of their proof of Theorem 1.1 can be applied for the case of c.e. sets in order to get an analogous result. Using different ideas Birmpalias [1] proved the following stronger result.

**Theorem 1.2** (Birmpalias [1]). There are no \( \ell \)-maximal c.e. sets. That is, for every c.e. set \( A \), there exists a c.e. set \( W \) such that \( A <_\ell W \).

Note that since the Solovay degrees and the \( \ell \)-degrees coincide on the c.e. sets (see [5]) the following also holds.

**Corollary 1.2** (Birmpalias [1]). The substructure of the Solovay degrees consisting of the ones with c.e. members (i.e. containing c.e. sets) has no maximal elements.

In Birmpalias and Lewis [2] it was shown that there are c.e. reals \( \alpha \) that cannot be \( \ell \)-computed by any random c.e. real. That is, for any c.e. real \( \beta \geq_\ell \alpha \), \( \beta \) is not random. Also, in Birmpalias and Lewis [3] it was shown that strictly below every random \( \ell \)-degree there is another random \( \ell \)-degree. The first aim of this paper is to prove the following (perhaps rather surprising) result.

**Theorem 1.3.** There exists a (globally) quasi-maximal \( \ell \)-degree, i.e. there exists a real \( \alpha \) such that, for all reals \( \beta \), if \( \alpha \leq_\ell \beta \) then \( \beta \leq_T \alpha \). In fact every random real satisfies this quasi-maximality property.

The fascination of this result lies in the fact that we are generally not used to degree structures possessing anything like maximal elements in the global sense (where we consider the degrees of all reals).

2. Random reals are quasi-maximal

Let \( \Psi_i \), the \( i \)th \( \ell \)-functional, satisfy the condition that the use in computing argument \( n \) is \( n + c_i + 1 \) (should this computation converge).

**Definition 2.1.** For \( \sigma \in 2^{<\omega} \) let \( II(\sigma, i) \) be the number of strings \( \tau \) of length \( |\tau| + c_i \) such that \( \sigma = \Psi^\tau_i \).

**Lemma 2.1.** For any \( \sigma, i \) we have \( II(\sigma 0, i) + II(\sigma 1, i) \leq 2II(\sigma, i) \).

**Proof.** Consider the set of all one bit extensions of those strings \( \tau \) of length \( |\tau| + c_i \) such that \( \Psi^\tau_i = \sigma \). There are \( 2II(\sigma, i) \) strings in this set. \( \square \)

The key to analyzing the relationship between Martin-Löf randomness and quasi-maximality lies in a theorem of Schnorr’s on effective super-martingales.

**Definition 2.2.** A super-martingale is a function \( f : 2^{<\omega} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\} \) such that for all \( \sigma, 2f(\sigma) \geq f(\sigma 0) + f(\sigma 1) \).
We say that the super-martingale succeeds on a real \( \sigma \) if \( \limsup_nf(\sigma \upharpoonright n) \rightarrow \infty \).

**Definition 2.3.** We say that the super-martingale \( f \) is effective if (i) for all \( \sigma, f(\sigma) \) is a c.e. real and (ii) there is a computable function \( f' \) such that, for all \( \sigma, \{f'(\sigma, s)\}_{s \in \omega} \) is an increasing sequence of rationals with limit \( f(\sigma) \).

**Theorem 1.2** (Schnorr [9]). A real \( \alpha \) is Martin-Löf random iff no effective super-martingale succeeds on \( \alpha \).

The proof of Theorem 1.3. For all \( \sigma, i \) let \( II_i(\sigma) = II(\sigma, i) \). Since each function \( II_i \) can be effectively approximated from below, Lemma 2.1 says precisely that every \( II_i \) is an effective super-martingale.

So suppose given \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) such that \( \alpha \) is a random real and \( \Psi^\beta_i = \alpha \). By Schnorr’s theorem we may define \( m^* \) to be the maximum \( m \) such that there exist an infinite number of \( n, II_i(\alpha \upharpoonright n) = m \). Let \( T_n \) be all those strings \( \tau \) of length \( n + c_i \) such that \( \Psi^\tau_i \) is the initial segment of \( \alpha \) of length \( n \) and let \( T = \bigcup_n T_n \). We say that a real lies on \( T \) if all but finitely many initial segments are in \( T \). Since there are a finite number of \( \beta' \) lying on \( T \) there exists \( \tau_0 \) \( \beta \) such that if \( \beta' \neq \beta \) \( \tau_0 \). Now suppose we are given \( \tau \supset \tau_0 \) which is not an initial segment of \( \beta \). Using an oracle for \( \alpha \) we can enumerate all tuples \( (n, \tau_1, \ldots, \tau_m) \) such that \( T_n = \{\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_m\} \) until we find such a tuple with no \( \tau_m \) compatible with \( \tau \)—whereupon we can deduce that \( \tau \) is not an initial segment of \( \beta \).

**Corollary 2.1.** There exist low reals which are of quasi-maximal \( \ell \)-degree.

**Proof.** There exist low random reals [7]. \( \square \)
Corollary 2.2 (The equivalent of the Yu–Ding Theorem for the $\Delta_2$ Reals). There exists no $\ell$-complete $\Delta_2$ real.

**Proof.** This follows immediately from the previous corollary. □

Corollary 2.3. Every Turing degree above $0'$ contains a set of quasi-maximal $\ell$-degree.

**Proof.** Every Turing degree above $0'$ contains a random real [8]. □

Corollary 2.4. The $\ell$-degrees are not an upper semi-lattice, in fact there exists a set of two $\ell$-degrees with no upper bound.

**Proof.** Just choose any $\alpha$ and $\beta$ which are random and Turing incomparable. □

Theorem 2.3 below, however, tells us that quasi-maximality does not characterize the random reals.

Theorem 2.2 (Chaitin [4]). Consider a total computable prediction function $f$ which, given an arbitrary finite initial segment of a real $\alpha$, returns either “no prediction”, “the next bit is a 0”, or “the next bit is a 1”. If $\alpha$ is random and $f$ predicts infinitely many bits of $\alpha$ then in the limit the proportion of correct predictions to total predictions made tends to $\frac{1}{2}$.

Theorem 2.3. There exists $\alpha$ of quasi-maximal $\ell$-degree which is not random.

We make the following definitions.

**Definition 2.4.** For $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$ let $T(\sigma, i) = \min\{\Pi(\sigma', i) \mid \sigma' \supseteq \sigma\}$. Let $T^*(\sigma, i)$ be the least string $\sigma' \supseteq \sigma$ such that $\Pi(\sigma', i) = T(\sigma, i)$.

**Lemma 2.2.** Given $\sigma_0, i$, let $\sigma_1 = T^*(\sigma_0, i)$. For all $\sigma_2 \supseteq \sigma_1$ we have $\Pi(\sigma_2, i) = T(\sigma_0, i)$.

**Proof.** By induction on the length of $\sigma_2$. So suppose given $\sigma_2 \supseteq \sigma_1$ such that $\Pi(\sigma_2, i) = T(\sigma_0, i)$. Now if $\Pi(\sigma_2, 0) < T(\sigma_0, i)$ or $\Pi(\sigma_2, 1) < T(\sigma_0, i)$ this would contradict the fact that $\sigma_1 = T^*(\sigma_0, i)$. Thus by Lemma 2.1 $\Pi(\sigma_2, i) = T(\sigma_0, i)$.

**Lemma 2.3.** Given $\sigma_0, i$, let $\sigma_1 = T^*(\sigma_0, i)$. For all $\alpha \supseteq \sigma_1$ and all $\beta$ such that $\Psi_i^\beta = \alpha$ we have that $\beta \leq T \alpha$.

**Proof.** Given $\alpha$ and $\beta$ as in the statement of the lemma, let $T_n$ be all those strings $\tau$ of length $n + c_i$ such that $\Psi_i^\tau$ is the initial segment of $\alpha$ of length $n$ and let $T = \bigcup_n T_n$. The following facts follow immediately from the fact that, by Lemma 2.2, there are precisely the same number of strings (actually $T(\sigma_0, i)$) in $T_n$ for all sufficiently large $n$.

(i) There are a finite number of reals lying on $T$ (at most $T(\sigma_0, i)$).

(ii) We can compute (not just enumerate) $T$ using an oracle for $\alpha$.

By (i) there exists $\tau_0 \subset T$ such that if $\beta' \neq \beta$ lies on $T$ then $\tau_0 \not\subseteq \beta'$. If we are given $\tau_1 \supseteq \tau_0$ which is not an initial segment of $\beta$ then using an oracle for $\alpha$ it follows by (ii) that we can find $n$ such that there are no extensions of $\tau_1$ in $T_n$. □

For all $\sigma$, define $f(\sigma) = \lfloor n : \sigma(n) \downarrow = 0 \rfloor$. If $\alpha$ is a random real then, by Theorem 2.2:

$$\lim_n f(\alpha \upharpoonright n) \downarrow = \frac{1}{2}.$$  

The construction.

Let $\sigma_0$ be the empty string. Given $\sigma_i$ let $\sigma'_i = T^*(\sigma_i, i)$ and then define $\sigma_{i+1}$ to be $\sigma'_i$ concatenated with $2\vert \tau_i \vert$ zeros. Define $\alpha = \bigcup_i \sigma_i$.

The verification.

Since $\alpha \supseteq \sigma_{i+1}$ it follows by Lemma 2.3 that if $\alpha = \Psi_i^\beta$ then $\beta \leq T \alpha$. We have that $\alpha$ is not random since it clearly does not satisfy $\upharpoonright$.
3. Maximality

Having proved that quasi-maximality does not characterize the random reals it is natural to ask whether maximality might provide such a characterization. With the following theorem, however, we are able to answer this question in the negative.

Theorem 3.1. No real is of maximal $\ell$-degree.

Proof. Let the $\ell$-functionals $\varphi_0$ and $\varphi_1$ be defined inductively as follows. Suppose $d \in \{0, 1\}$.

(i) For both strings $\tau$ of length 1 we define $\varphi_0^\tau = d$.

(ii) If $|\tau|$ is of the form $2^n$ for some $n \geq 1$ then let $\tau_0$ be the initial segment of $\tau$ of length $2^n - 1$. There exists a unique $\tau_1 \neq \tau_0$ of length $2^n - 1$ such that $\varphi_0^{\tau_1} = \varphi_0^{\tau_0}$. If $\tau_0$ is the leftmost of $\tau_0$, $\tau_1$ then define $\varphi_1^{\tau_1} = \varphi_0^{\tau_0}0$ and otherwise define $\varphi_1^{\tau_1} = \varphi_0^{\tau_0}1$.

(iii) If $|\tau|$ is not of the form $2^n$ for any $n \geq 0$ then let $\tau_0$ be the initial segment of $\tau$ of length $|\tau| - 1$. Let $c = \tau(|\tau| - 1)$ and define $\varphi_1^{\tau_0} = \varphi_0^{\tau_0}c$.

It is important to have an intuitive picture of the above inductive definition. Consider the range of $\varphi_0$. We begin by branching the empty sequence with two 0s. From then on, at levels $2^n$ (for any $n$) we extend with either two 1s or two 0s according to whether there is another node of the identity tree which is on the left and which is $\varphi_0$-mapped to the same string as the node we are on or not. At all other levels we extend the strings as we would the identity tree— that is, a 0 on the left branch and a 1 on the right branch. It can easily be seen that $\varphi_0$ has the following properties.

• For every $\tau$, $\varphi_0^{\tau} \downarrow$ and is a string of the same length.

• For every string $\sigma$ which begins with 0 there exist exactly two incompatible $\tau_0, \tau_1$ such that $\varphi_0^{\tau_0} = \varphi_0^{\tau_1} = \sigma$.

• If $|\sigma| = 2^k + c < 2^{k+1}$ consider the two $\tau_i$ such that $\varphi_0^{\tau_0} = \varphi_0^{\tau_1} = \sigma$. Then $\tau_0, \tau_1$ differ at their $c$-th bit from the end, i.e. their $|\sigma| - c - 1$ bit. In particular, if $\sigma$ is of length $2^k$ they differ on their last bit.

• For every real $\alpha$ which begins with 0 there is a unique $\beta$ such that $\varphi_0^{\beta} = \alpha$.

So now suppose given a real $\alpha$ and without loss of generality that $\alpha(0) = 0$. Then there exists a unique $\beta$ such that $\varphi_0^\beta = \alpha$. If $\beta$ is of $\ell$-degree strictly above $\alpha$ then we are done. So suppose instead that we are given $i$ such that $\varphi_0^i = \beta$. We shall define $\varphi_2$ for which there exists a total tree of reals $\beta'$ such that $\varphi_2^{\beta'} = \alpha$. This suffices to give the result, since then we can pick $\beta'$ on this tree which is not Turing below $\alpha$. Pick $n_0$ large enough such that $2^{n_0} - c_i > 2^{n_0-1} + 1$.

(i) For all $\tau$ which are of length $< 2^{n_0}$, $\varphi_2^{\tau} = \varphi_0^{\tau}$.

(ii) If $|\tau| > 2^{n_0}$, but is not of the form $2^n$ for any $n \geq 0$ then let $\tau_0$ be the initial segment of $\tau$ of length $|\tau| - 1$. Let $c = \tau(|\tau| - 1)$ and define $\varphi_2^{\tau} = \varphi_0^{\tau_0} c$.

(iii) If $|\tau|$ is of the form $2^n$ for some $n \geq n_0$, then let $\tau_0$ be the initial segment of $\tau$ of length $2^n - 1$. Let $\sigma = \varphi_2^{\tau_0}$, $c = \varphi_0^\sigma (2^n - 1)$ and define $\varphi_2^{\tau} = \varphi_2^{\tau_0} c$.

Now if $n \geq n_0 - 1$, then for every string $\tau$ of length $2^n$ such that $\varphi_2^{\tau}$ is compatible with $\alpha$, there exist two strings $\tau' \supset \tau$ of length $2^{n+1}$ such that $\varphi_2^{\tau'}$ is compatible with $\alpha$—the point being that $\beta(2^n - 1) = \alpha(2^{n+1} - 1)$. □

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References


Further reading


