A Computability Theory of Real Numbers

Xizhong Zheng Department of Mathematics and Computer Science Arcadia University Glenside, PA 19038, USA zhengx@arcadia.edu

July 20-24, 2020

WDCM-2020, Novosibirsk, Russia.

The classical computability theory

- defines the computability and reducibility of sets and functions;
- is interested mainly in the non-computable objects;
- explores the levels of uncomputability (like unsolvability degrees) and the related structures;
- handles only the discrete structures of countable sets like ${f N}$ or Σ^* ;
- is not able to deal with the real numbers and real functions.

However, the computation related to the real numbers is one of the most important tasks in practice.

The classical computability theory

• defines the computability and reducibility of sets and functions;

- is interested mainly in the non-computable objects;
- explores the levels of uncomputability (like unsolvability degrees) and the related structures;
- handles only the discrete structures of countable sets like ${f N}$ or Σ^* ;
- is not able to deal with the real numbers and real functions.

However, the computation related to the real numbers is one of the most important tasks in practice.

The classical computability theory

- defines the computability and reducibility of sets and functions;
- is interested mainly in the non-computable objects;
- explores the levels of uncomputability (like unsolvability degrees) and the related structures;
- handles only the discrete structures of countable sets like ${f N}$ or Σ^* ;
- is not able to deal with the real numbers and real functions.

However, the computation related to the real numbers is one of the most important tasks in practice.

The classical computability theory

- defines the computability and reducibility of sets and functions;
- is interested mainly in the non-computable objects;
- explores the levels of uncomputability (like unsolvability degrees) and the related structures;
- handles only the discrete structures of countable sets like ${f N}$ or Σ^* ;
- is not able to deal with the real numbers and real functions.

However, the computation related to the real numbers is one of the most important tasks in practice.

The classical computability theory

- defines the computability and reducibility of sets and functions;
- is interested mainly in the non-computable objects;
- explores the levels of uncomputability (like unsolvability degrees) and the related structures;
- ullet handles only the discrete structures of countable sets like ${f N}$ or Σ^* ;
- is not able to deal with the real numbers and real functions.

However, the computation related to the real numbers is one of the most important tasks in practice.

The classical computability theory

- defines the computability and reducibility of sets and functions;
- is interested mainly in the non-computable objects;
- explores the levels of uncomputability (like unsolvability degrees) and the related structures;
- ullet handles only the discrete structures of countable sets like ${f N}$ or Σ^* ;
- is not able to deal with the real numbers and real functions.

However, the computation related to the real numbers is one of the most important tasks in practice.

The classical computability theory

- defines the computability and reducibility of sets and functions;
- is interested mainly in the non-computable objects;
- explores the levels of uncomputability (like unsolvability degrees) and the related structures;
- handles only the discrete structures of countable sets like ${f N}$ or Σ^* ;
- is not able to deal with the real numbers and real functions.

However, the computation related to the real numbers is one of the most important tasks in practice.

Two natural criteria:

Good computational properties

the computable real numbers should be somehow "calculable";

Good mathematical properties

e.g., the class of computable real numbers should be closed under arithmetical operations and computable functions.

Two natural criteria:

 Good computational properties the computable real numbers should be somehow "calculable";

Good mathematical properties

e.g., the class of computable real numbers should be closed under arithmetical operations and computable functions.

Two natural criteria:

Good computational properties

the computable real numbers should be somehow "calculable";

• Good mathematical properties

e.g., the class of computable real numbers should be closed under arithmetical operations and computable functions.

Two natural criteria:

Good computational properties

the computable real numbers should be somehow "calculable";

• Good mathematical properties

e.g., the class of computable real numbers should be closed under arithmetical operations and computable functions.

 $CA = \{ the limits of computable sequences of rational numbers \} - class of c.a. reals.$ The class CA has good mathematical properties:

- CA is closed under the arithmetical operations $+, -, \times$ and \div , i.e., it is a field.
- CA is closed under computable real functions.
- $CA = \Delta_2$, i.e., $x_A \in CA$ iff $A \in \Delta_2$, where $x_A := 0.A = \sum_{i \in A} 2^{-(i+1)}$.

CA does not have good computability theoretical property — not good enough!

A computable sequence (x_s) of rationals does not supply any "useful" information about its limit $x := \lim x_s$ in any finite moment.

E.g, after any finitely many steps

- we do not have an upper or lower bound of x;
- we cannot write down definitively any digital of the decimal expansion of x.

 $CA = \{the limits of computable sequences of rational numbers\}$ — class of c.a. reals. The class CA has good mathematical properties:

- CA is closed under the arithmetical operations $+, -, \times$ and \div , i.e., it is a field.
- CA is closed under computable real functions.
- $CA = \Delta_2$, i.e., $x_A \in CA$ iff $A \in \Delta_2$, where $x_A := 0.A = \sum_{i \in A} 2^{-(i+1)}$.

CA does not have good computability theoretical property — not good enough!

A computable sequence (x_s) of rationals does not supply any "useful" information about its limit $x := \lim x_s$ in any finite moment.

E.g, after any finitely many steps

- we do not have an upper or lower bound of x;
- we cannot write down definitively any digital of the decimal expansion of x.

 $CA = \{ the limits of computable sequences of rational numbers \} - class of c.a. reals.$ The class CA has good mathematical properties:

- CA is closed under the arithmetical operations $+, -, \times$ and \div , i.e., it is a field.
- CA is closed under computable real functions.
- $CA = \Delta_2$, i.e., $x_A \in CA$ iff $A \in \Delta_2$, where $x_A := 0.A = \sum_{i \in A} 2^{-(i+1)}$.

CA does not have good computability theoretical property — not good enough!

A computable sequence (x_s) of rationals does not supply any "useful" information about its limit $x := \lim x_s$ in any finite moment.

E.g, after any finitely many steps

- we do not have an upper or lower bound of x;
- we cannot write down definitively any digital of the decimal expansion of x.

 $\label{eq:CA} CA = \{ \text{the limits of computable sequences of rational numbers} \} - \text{class of c.a. reals.}$ The class CA has good mathematical properties:

- CA is closed under the arithmetical operations +, -, imes and \div , i.e., it is a field.
- CA is closed under computable real functions.
- $CA = \Delta_2$, i.e., $x_A \in CA$ iff $A \in \Delta_2$, where $x_A := 0.A = \sum_{i \in A} 2^{-(i+1)}$.

CA does not have good computability theoretical property — not good enough!

A computable sequence (x_s) of rationals does not supply any "useful" information about its limit $x := \lim x_s$ in any finite moment.

E.g, after any finitely many steps

- we do not have an upper or lower bound of x;
- we cannot write down definitively any digital of the decimal expansion of x.

 $\label{eq:CA} CA = \{ \text{the limits of computable sequences of rational numbers} \} \mbox{--class of c.a. reals.}$ The class CA has good mathematical properties:

- CA is closed under the arithmetical operations $+, -, \times$ and \div , i.e., it is a field.
- CA is closed under computable real functions.
- $CA = \Delta_2$, i.e., $x_A \in CA$ iff $A \in \Delta_2$, where $x_A := 0.A = \sum_{i \in A} 2^{-(i+1)}$.

CA does not have good computability theoretical property — not good enough!

A computable sequence (x_s) of rationals does not supply any "useful" information about its limit $x := \lim x_s$ in any finite moment.

E.g, after any finitely many steps

- we do not have an upper or lower bound of x;
- we cannot write down definitively any digital of the decimal expansion of x.

 $\label{eq:CA} CA = \{ \text{the limits of computable sequences of rational numbers} \} \ - \text{class of c.a. reals.}$ The class CA has good mathematical properties:

- CA is closed under the arithmetical operations $+, -, \times$ and \div , i.e., it is a field.
- CA is closed under computable real functions.
- $CA = \overline{\Delta_2}$, i.e., $x_A \in CA$ iff $A \in \overline{\Delta_2}$, where $x_A := 0.A = \sum_{i \in A} 2^{-(i+1)}$.

CA does not have good computability theoretical property — not good enough!

A computable sequence (x_s) of rationals does not supply any "useful" information about its limit $x := \lim x_s$ in any finite moment.

E.g, after any finitely many steps

- we do not have an upper or lower bound of x;
- we cannot write down definitively any digital of the decimal expansion of x.

 $CA = \{ the limits of computable sequences of rational numbers \} - class of c.a. reals.$ The class CA has good mathematical properties:

- CA is closed under the arithmetical operations $+, -, \times$ and \div , i.e., it is a field.
- CA is closed under computable real functions.
- $CA = \overline{\Delta_2}$, i.e., $x_A \in CA$ iff $A \in \overline{\Delta_2}$, where $x_A := 0.A = \sum_{i \in A} 2^{-(i+1)}$.

CA does not have good computability theoretical property — not good enough!

A computable sequence (x_s) of rationals does not supply any "useful" information about its limit $x := \lim x_s$ in any finite moment.

E.g, after any finitely many steps

- we do not have an upper or lower bound of x;
- we cannot write down definitively any digital of the decimal expansion of x.

 $CA = \{ the limits of computable sequences of rational numbers \} - class of c.a. reals.$ The class CA has good mathematical properties:

- CA is closed under the arithmetical operations $+, -, \times$ and \div , i.e., it is a field.
- CA is closed under computable real functions.
- $CA = \overline{\Delta_2}$, i.e., $x_A \in CA$ iff $A \in \overline{\Delta_2}$, where $x_A := 0.A = \sum_{i \in A} 2^{-(i+1)}$.

CA does not have good computability theoretical property — not good enough!

A computable sequence (x_s) of rationals does not supply any "useful" information about its limit $x := \lim x_s$ in any finite moment.

E.g, after any finitely many steps

- we do not have an upper or lower bound of x;
- we cannot write down definitively any digital of the decimal expansion of x.

 $CA = \{ the limits of computable sequences of rational numbers \} - class of c.a. reals.$ The class CA has good mathematical properties:

- CA is closed under the arithmetical operations $+, -, \times$ and \div , i.e., it is a field.
- CA is closed under computable real functions.
- $CA = \Delta_2$, i.e., $x_A \in CA$ iff $A \in \Delta_2$, where $x_A := 0.A = \sum_{i \in A} 2^{-(i+1)}$.

CA does not have good computability theoretical property — not good enough!

A computable sequence (x_s) of rationals does not supply any "useful" information about its limit $x := \lim x_s$ in any finite moment.

E.g, after any finitely many steps

- we do not have an upper or lower bound of x;
- we cannot write down definitively any digital of the decimal expansion of x.

 $CA = \{ the limits of computable sequences of rational numbers \} - class of c.a. reals.$ The class CA has good mathematical properties:

- CA is closed under the arithmetical operations $+, -, \times$ and \div , i.e., it is a field.
- CA is closed under computable real functions.
- $CA = \Delta_2$, i.e., $x_A \in CA$ iff $A \in \Delta_2$, where $x_A := 0.A = \sum_{i \in A} 2^{-(i+1)}$.

CA does not have good computability theoretical property — not good enough!

A computable sequence (x_s) of rationals does not supply any "useful" information about its limit $x := \lim x_s$ in any finite moment.

E.g, after any finitely many steps

- we do not have an upper or lower bound of x;
- we cannot write down definitively any digital of the decimal expansion of x.

Definition of Alan Turing (1936):

A real number is computable if its decimal expansion is calculable by finite means.

'finite means'' \implies ''automatic machine'' (Turing machine)

Church-Turing thesis:

TM computability = intuitive computability

More precisely:

 $x \in [0,1]$ is computable $\iff x = 0.f(0)f(1)f(2)\dots$ for a computable function f.

Some examples of computable real numbers (Turing 1936):

- all rational numbers (e.g., $\frac{1}{3}$);
- all algebraic reals (e.g., $\sqrt{2}$);

Definition of Alan Turing (1936):

A real number is computable if its decimal expansion is calculable by finite means.

"finite means" \implies "automatic machine" (Turing machine)

Church-Turing thesis:

TM computability = intuitive computability

More precisely:

 $x \in [0,1]$ is computable $\iff x = 0.f(0)f(1)f(2)\dots$ for a computable function f

Some examples of computable real numbers (Turing 1936):

- all rational numbers (e.g., $\frac{1}{3}$)
- all algebraic reals (e.g., $\sqrt{2}$);

Definition of Alan Turing (1936):

A real number is computable if its decimal expansion is calculable by finite means.

"finite means" \implies "automatic machine" (Turing machine)

Church-Turing thesis:

TM computability = intuitive computability

More precisely:

 $x \in [0,1]$ is computable $\iff x = 0.f(0)f(1)f(2)\dots$ for a computable function f.

Some examples of computable real numbers (Turing 1936):

- all rational numbers (e.g., $\frac{1}{3}$);
- all algebraic reals (e.g., $\sqrt{2}$);

Definition of Alan Turing (1936):

A real number is computable if its decimal expansion is calculable by finite means.

"finite means" \implies "automatic machine" (Turing machine)

Church-Turing thesis:

TM computability = intuitive computability

More precisely:

 $x \in [0,1]$ is computable $\iff x = 0.f(0)f(1)f(2)\dots$ for a computable function f.

Some examples of computable real numbers (Turing 1936):

- all rational numbers (e.g., $\frac{1}{3}$)
- all algebraic reals (e.g., $\sqrt{2}$);

Definition of Alan Turing (1936):

A real number is computable if its decimal expansion is calculable by finite means.

"finite means" \implies "automatic machine" (Turing machine)

Church-Turing thesis:

TM computability = intuitive computability

More precisely:

 $x \in [0,1]$ is computable $\iff x = 0.f(0)f(1)f(2)\dots$ for a computable function f.

Some examples of computable real numbers (Turing 1936):

- all rational numbers (e.g., $\frac{1}{3}$);
- all algebraic reals (e.g., $\sqrt{2}$);

Theorem of Raphael Robinson (1951): The followings are equivalent:

- (Decimal representation) x is computable;
- (Binary representation) $x = x_A := 0.A = \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-(n+1)}$ for a computable set $A \subseteq \mathbf{N}$;
- (Dedekind cut representation) $L_x := \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r < x\}$ is a computable set;
- (Cauchy representation) There is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges to x effectively in the sense

$$(\forall n)(|x - x_n| \le 2^{-n}) \quad \text{or} \quad (\forall n)(|x_n - x_{n+1}| \le 2^{-n}).$$

(x is "effectively computable", $EC := \{x : x \text{ is computable}\}.$)

• (Nested interval representation) There is a computable sequence $((a_s, b_s))$ of rational intervals such that

$$(\forall s)(a_s < a_{s+1} < x < b_{s+1} < b_s) \& \lim_{s \to \infty} (b_s - a_s) = 0.$$

Theorem of Raphael Robinson (1951): The followings are equivalent:

- (Decimal representation) x is computable;
- (Binary representation) $x = x_A := 0.A = \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-(n+1)}$ for a computable set $A \subseteq \mathbf{N}$;
- (Dedekind cut representation) $L_x := \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r < x\}$ is a computable set;
- (Cauchy representation) There is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges to x effectively in the sense

$$(\forall n)(|x - x_n| \le 2^{-n}) \quad \text{or} \quad (\forall n)(|x_n - x_{n+1}| \le 2^{-n}).$$

(x is "effectively computable", $EC := \{x : x \text{ is computable}\}.$)

• (Nested interval representation) There is a computable sequence $((a_s, b_s))$ of rational intervals such that

$$(\forall s)(a_s < a_{s+1} < x < b_{s+1} < b_s) \& \lim_{s \to \infty} (b_s - a_s) = 0.$$

Theorem of Raphael Robinson (1951): The followings are equivalent:

- (Decimal representation) x is computable;
- (Binary representation) $x = x_A := 0.A = \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-(n+1)}$ for a computable set $A \subseteq \mathbf{N}$;
- (Dedekind cut representation) $L_x := \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r < x\}$ is a computable set;
- (Cauchy representation) There is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges to x effectively in the sense

$$(\forall n)(|x - x_n| \le 2^{-n}) \quad \text{or} \quad (\forall n)(|x_n - x_{n+1}| \le 2^{-n}).$$

(x is "effectively computable", $EC := \{x : x \text{ is computable}\}.$)

 (Nested interval representation) There is a computable sequence ((a_s, b_s)) of rational intervals such that

$$(\forall s)(a_s < a_{s+1} < x < b_{s+1} < b_s) \& \lim_{s \to \infty} (b_s - a_s) = 0.$$

Theorem of Raphael Robinson (1951): The followings are equivalent:

- (Decimal representation) x is computable;
- (Binary representation) $x = x_A := 0.A = \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-(n+1)}$ for a computable set $A \subseteq \mathbf{N}$;
- (Dedekind cut representation) $L_x := \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r < x\}$ is a computable set;
- (Cauchy representation) There is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges to x effectively in the sense

$$(\forall n)(|x - x_n| \le 2^{-n}) \quad \text{or} \quad (\forall n)(|x_n - x_{n+1}| \le 2^{-n}).$$

(x is "effectively computable", $EC := \{x : x \text{ is computable}\}$.)

 (Nested interval representation) There is a computable sequence ((a_s, b_s)) of rational intervals such that

$$(\forall s)(a_s < a_{s+1} < x < b_{s+1} < b_s) \& \lim_{s \to \infty} (b_s - a_s) = 0.$$

Theorem of Raphael Robinson (1951): The followings are equivalent:

- (Decimal representation) x is computable;
- (Binary representation) $x = x_A := 0.A = \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-(n+1)}$ for a computable set $A \subseteq \mathbf{N}$;
- (Dedekind cut representation) $L_x := \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r < x\}$ is a computable set;
- (Cauchy representation) There is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges to x effectively in the sense

$$(\forall n)(|x - x_n| \le 2^{-n}) \quad \text{or} \quad (\forall n)(|x_n - x_{n+1}| \le 2^{-n}).$$

(x is "effectively computable", $EC := \{x : x \text{ is computable}\}.$)

• (Nested interval representation) There is a computable sequence $((a_s, b_s))$ of rational intervals such that

$$(\forall s)(a_s < a_{s+1} < x < b_{s+1} < b_s) \& \lim_{s \to \infty} (b_s - a_s) = 0.$$

Theorem of Raphael Robinson (1951): The followings are equivalent:

- (Decimal representation) x is computable;
- (Binary representation) $x = x_A := 0.A = \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-(n+1)}$ for a computable set $A \subseteq \mathbf{N}$;
- (Dedekind cut representation) $L_x := \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r < x\}$ is a computable set;
- (Cauchy representation) There is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges to x effectively in the sense

$$(\forall n)(|x - x_n| \le 2^{-n}) \quad \text{or} \quad (\forall n)(|x_n - x_{n+1}| \le 2^{-n}).$$

(x is "effectively computable", $EC := \{x : x \text{ is computable}\}.$)

• (Nested interval representation) There is a computable sequence $((a_s, b_s))$ of rational intervals such that

$$(\forall s)(a_s < a_{s+1} < x < b_{s+1} < b_s) \& \lim_{s \to \infty} (b_s - a_s) = 0.$$

Properties of Computable Real Numbers

- The definition of omputable real numbers is very robust;
- Computable real numbers are calculable. (exact computation);
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under the arithmetical operations;
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under computable operators (computable functions).
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under effective limit operator. (The effective limit of a computable sequence of real numbers is computable.)

Properties of Computable Real Numbers

- The definition of omputable real numbers is very robust;
- Computable real numbers are calculable. (exact computation);
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under the arithmetical operations;
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under computable operators (computable functions).
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under effective limit operator. (The effective limit of a computable sequence of real numbers is computable.)

Properties of Computable Real Numbers

- The definition of omputable real numbers is very robust;
- Computable real numbers are calculable. (exact computation);
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under the arithmetical operations;
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under computable operators (computable functions).
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under effective limit operator. (The effective limit of a computable sequence of real numbers is computable.)

Properties of Computable Real Numbers

- The definition of omputable real numbers is very robust;
- Computable real numbers are calculable. (exact computation);
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under the arithmetical operations;
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under computable operators (computable functions).
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under effective limit operator. (The effective limit of a computable sequence of real numbers is computable.)

Properties of Computable Real Numbers

- The definition of omputable real numbers is very robust;
- Computable real numbers are calculable. (exact computation);
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under the arithmetical operations;
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under computable operators (computable functions).
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under effective limit operator. (The effective limit of a computable sequence of real numbers is computable.)

Properties of Computable Real Numbers

- The definition of omputable real numbers is very robust;
- Computable real numbers are calculable. (exact computation);
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under the arithmetical operations;
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under computable operators (computable functions).
- The class of computable real numbers is closed under effective limit operator. (The effective limit of a computable sequence of real numbers is computable.)

Primitive Recursive Real Numbers

Specker (1949) defined primitive recursive reals in the following ways.

- **PR**₃ by Dedekind's cuts
- PR₂ by Decimal expansions
- **PR**₁ by Cauchy sequences
- PR₀ by Nested interval sequences

Specker 1949 and Skordev 2001 have shown that

$\mathsf{PR}_3 \subsetneq \mathsf{PR}_2 \subsetneq \mathsf{PR}_1 \subsetneq \mathsf{PR}_0 = \mathsf{EC}$

 PR_1 is widely accepted as the definition of "primitive recursive reals" due to its good mathematical properties.

More complicated for the polynomial time computable real numbers.

Example of Specker (1949):

A set A is c.e. if it has a computable enumeration — a computable sequence (A_s) of finite sets such that

$$A_0 = \emptyset, \qquad (\forall s)(A_s \subseteq A_{s+1}), \qquad \bigcup A_s = A.$$

The real number $x_A := \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-(n+1)}$ is not computable, if the set A is c.e. but not computable.

Remark:

The real number x_A is the limit of an increasing computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers defined by $x_s := x_{A_s}$;

Consequence:

Example of Specker (1949):

A set A is c.e. if it has a computable enumeration — a computable sequence (A_s) of finite sets such that

$$A_0 = \emptyset, \qquad (\forall s)(A_s \subseteq A_{s+1}), \qquad \bigcup A_s = A.$$

The real number $x_A := \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-(n+1)}$ is not computable, if the set A is c.e. but not computable.

Remark:

The real number x_A is the limit of an increasing computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers defined by $x_s := x_{A_s}$;

Consequence:

Example of Specker (1949):

A set A is c.e. if it has a computable enumeration — a computable sequence (A_s) of finite sets such that

$$A_0 = \emptyset, \qquad (\forall s)(A_s \subseteq A_{s+1}), \qquad \bigcup A_s = A.$$

The real number $x_A := \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-(n+1)}$ is not computable, if the set A is c.e. but not computable.

Remark:

The real number x_A is the limit of an increasing computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers defined by $x_s := x_{A_s}$;

Consequence:

Example of Specker (1949):

A set A is c.e. if it has a computable enumeration — a computable sequence (A_s) of finite sets such that

$$A_0 = \emptyset, \qquad (\forall s)(A_s \subseteq A_{s+1}), \qquad \bigcup A_s = A.$$

The real number $x_A := \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-(n+1)}$ is not computable, if the set A is c.e. but not computable.

Remark:

The real number x_A is the limit of an increasing computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers defined by $x_s := x_{A_s}$;

Consequence:

x is left computable if it is the limit of an increasing computable sequence (x_s) of rationals.

- $x \in \mathsf{LC} \iff L_x := \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r < x\}$ is a c.e. set.
- (I.c. reals are also called c.e. or left-c.e.)

Theorem. [Soare 1969, Ambos-Spies et al 2000, Calude et al 2001] x is l.c. iff x = 0.A for a strongly ω -c.e. set A. Where a set A is strongly ω -c.e. if there is a computable sequence (A_s) of finite sets which convergences to A such that

$$(\forall n)(\forall s) \ (n \in A_s \setminus A_{s+1} \Longrightarrow (\exists m < n) (m \in A_{s+1} \setminus A_s))$$

Remark: A real with a c.e. binary expansion is called strongly c.e.

- For any strongly c.e. real x, if x is not computable, then there exists a strongly c.e. y such that neither x y nor y x is c.e.
- For any strongly c.e. real x, if x is not dyadic rational, then there is a strongly c.e. y such that x + y is not strongly c.e.

x is left computable if it is the limit of an increasing computable sequence (x_s) of rationals.

 $x \in \mathsf{LC} \iff L_x := \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r < x\}$ is a c.e. set.

(I.c. reals are also called c.e. or left-c.e.)

Theorem. [Soare 1969, Ambos-Spies et al 2000, Calude et al 2001] x is l.c. iff x = 0.A for a strongly ω -c.e. set A. Where a set A is strongly ω -c.e. if there is a computable sequence (A_s) of finite sets which convergences to A such that

$$(\forall n)(\forall s) \ (n \in A_s \setminus A_{s+1} \Longrightarrow (\exists m < n) (m \in A_{s+1} \setminus A_s))$$

Remark: A real with a c.e. binary expansion is called strongly c.e.

- For any strongly c.e. real x, if x is not computable, then there exists a strongly c.e. y such that neither x y nor y x is c.e.
- For any strongly c.e. real x, if x is not dyadic rational, then there is a strongly c.e. y such that x + y is not strongly c.e.

x is left computable if it is the limit of an increasing computable sequence (x_s) of rationals.

- $x \in \mathsf{LC} \iff L_x := \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r < x\}$ is a c.e. set.
- (I.c. reals are also called c.e. or left-c.e.)

Theorem. [Soare 1969, Ambos-Spies et al 2000, Calude et al 2001] x is l.c. iff x = 0.A for a strongly ω -c.e. set A. Where a set A is strongly ω -c.e. if there is a computable sequence (A_s) of finite sets which convergences to A such that

$$(\forall n)(\forall s) (n \in A_s \setminus A_{s+1} \Longrightarrow (\exists m < n) (m \in A_{s+1} \setminus A_s))$$

Remark: A real with a c.e. binary expansion is called strongly c.e.

- For any strongly c.e. real x, if x is not computable, then there exists a strongly c.e. y such that neither x y nor y x is c.e.
- For any strongly c.e. real x, if x is not dyadic rational, then there is a strongly c.e. y such that x + y is not strongly c.e.

x is left computable if it is the limit of an increasing computable sequence (x_s) of rationals.

- $x \in \mathsf{LC} \iff L_x := \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r < x\}$ is a c.e. set.
- (I.c. reals are also called c.e. or left-c.e.)

Theorem. [Soare 1969, Ambos-Spies et al 2000, Calude et al 2001] x is l.c. iff x = 0.A for a strongly ω -c.e. set A. Where a set A is strongly ω -c.e. if there is a computable sequence (A_s) of finite sets which convergences to A such that

$$(\forall n)(\forall s) \ (n \in A_s \setminus A_{s+1} \Longrightarrow (\exists m < n) (m \in A_{s+1} \setminus A_s))$$

Remark: A real with a c.e. binary expansion is called strongly c.e.

- For any strongly c.e. real x, if x is not computable, then there exists a strongly c.e. y such that neither x y nor y x is c.e.
- For any strongly c.e. real x, if x is not dyadic rational, then there is a strongly c.e. y such that x + y is not strongly c.e.

x is right computable if -x is l.c. (RC, or co-c.e.).

x is semi-computable if it is l.c. or r.c. (SC := $LC \cup RC$).

Remark: x is s.c. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers converging to x monotonically in the sense that $(\forall s, t)(s > t \Longrightarrow |x - x_s| \le |x - x_t|)$.

Theorem. [Ambos-Spies, Weihrauch and Z. 2000] If $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ are Turing incomparable c.e. sets, then the real number $x := x_{A \oplus \overline{B}}$ is not semi-computable.

- $x_{A \oplus \overline{B}} = (x_{2A} + 1/3) x_{2B+1}$.
- SC is not closed under the subtraction.

x is right computable if -x is l.c. (RC, or co-c.e.).

x is semi-computable if it is l.c. or r.c. (SC := $LC \cup RC$).

Remark: x is s.c. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers converging to x monotonically in the sense that $(\forall s, t)(s > t \Longrightarrow |x - x_s| \le |x - x_t|)$.

Theorem. [Ambos-Spies, Weihrauch and Z. 2000] If $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ are Turing incomparable c.e. sets, then the real number $x := x_{A \oplus \overline{B}}$ is not semi-computable.

- $x_{A \oplus \overline{B}} = (x_{2A} + 1/3) x_{2B+1}$.
- SC is not closed under the subtraction.

x is right computable if -x is l.c. (RC, or co-c.e.).

x is semi-computable if it is l.c. or r.c. (SC := $LC \cup RC$).

Remark: x is s.c. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers converging to x monotonically in the sense that $(\forall s, t)(s > t \Longrightarrow |x - x_s| \le |x - x_t|)$.

Theorem. [Ambos-Spies, Weihrauch and Z. 2000] If $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ are Turing incomparable c.e. sets, then the real number $x := x_{A \oplus \overline{B}}$ is not semi-computable.

- $x_{A \oplus \overline{B}} = (x_{2A} + 1/3) x_{2B+1}$.
- SC is not closed under the subtraction.

x is right computable if -x is l.c. (RC, or co-c.e.).

x is semi-computable if it is l.c. or r.c. $(SC := LC \cup RC)$.

Remark: x is s.c. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers converging to x monotonically in the sense that $(\forall s, t)(s > t \Longrightarrow |x - x_s| \le |x - x_t|)$.

Theorem. [Ambos-Spies, Weihrauch and Z. 2000] If $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ are Turing incomparable c.e. sets, then the real number $x := x_{A \oplus \overline{B}}$ is not semi-computable.

- $x_{A \oplus \overline{B}} = (x_{2A} + 1/3) x_{2B+1}$.
- SC is not closed under the subtraction.

x is right computable if -x is l.c. (RC, or co-c.e.).

x is semi-computable if it is l.c. or r.c. $(SC := LC \cup RC)$.

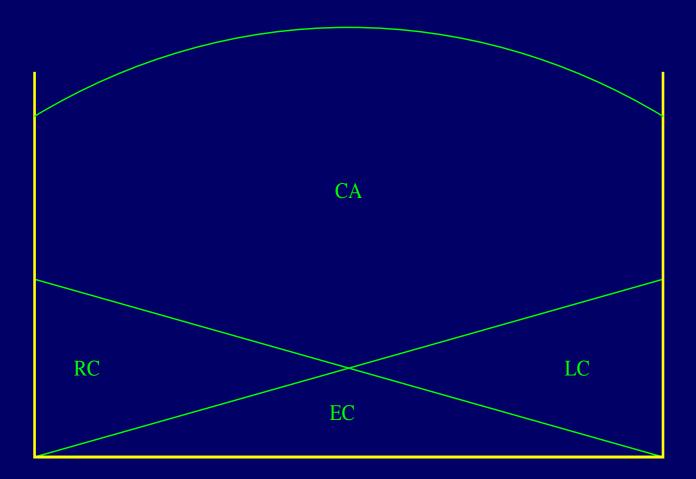
Remark: x is s.c. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers converging to x monotonically in the sense that $(\forall s, t)(s > t \Longrightarrow |x - x_s| \le |x - x_t|)$.

Theorem. [Ambos-Spies, Weihrauch and Z. 2000] If $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ are Turing incomparable c.e. sets, then the real number $x := x_{A \oplus \overline{B}}$ is not semi-computable.

Remark:

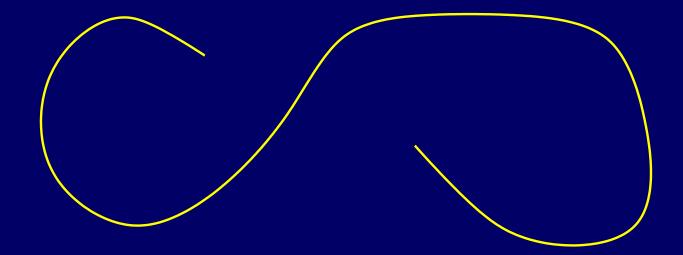
•
$$x_{A \oplus \overline{B}} = (x_{2A} + 1/3) - x_{2B+1}$$
.

• SC is not closed under the subtraction.



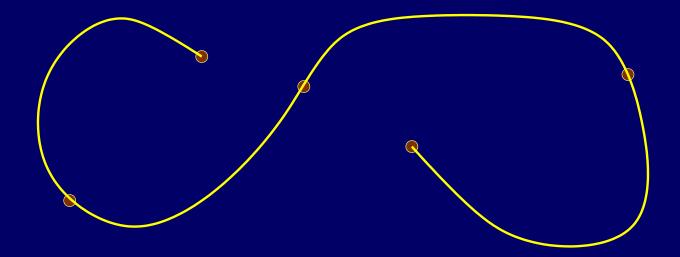
The length of a curve.

The length of a curve.



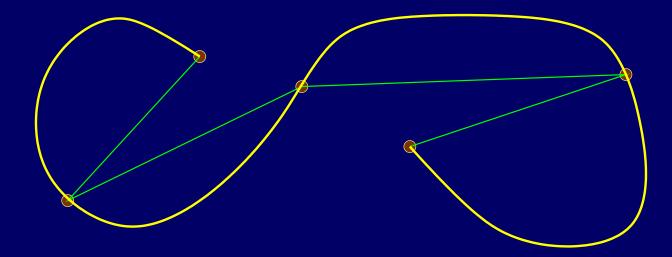
The length of a curve.

Definition von Camille Jordan (1882):



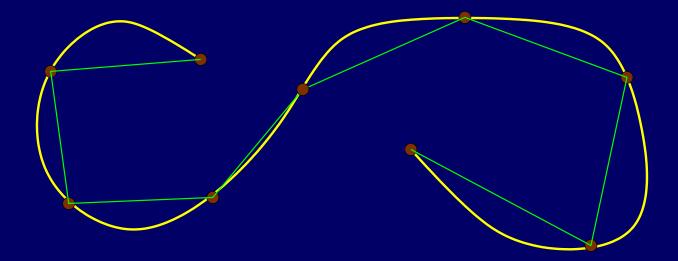
The length of a curve.

Definition von Camille Jordan (1882):



The length of a curve.

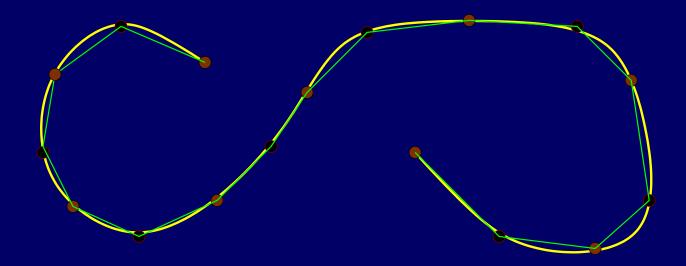
Definition von Camille Jordan (1882):



By increasing the cut points the polygon approximates the curve.

The length of a curve.

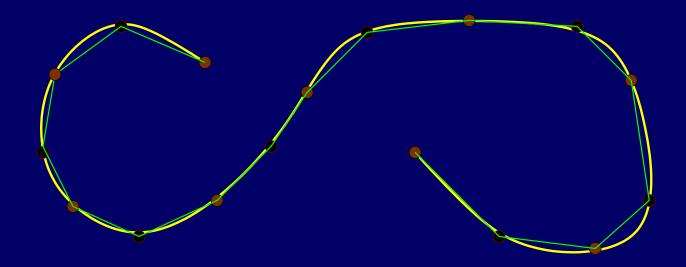
Definition von Camille Jordan (1882):



By incresing the cut points the polygon approximates the curve.

The length of a curve.

Definition von Camille Jordan (1882):



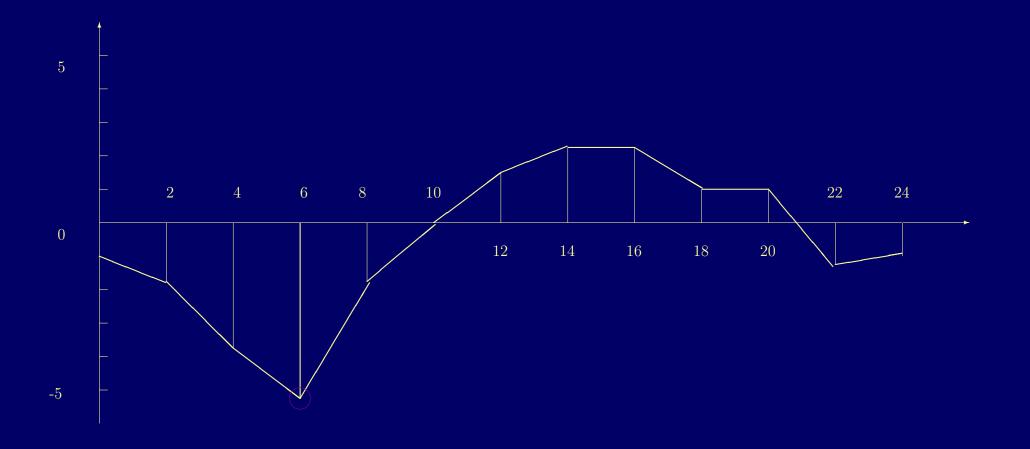
By incresing the cut points the polygon approximates the curve.

The length of the curve is defined as the limit $\lim_{n\to\infty} l_n$, where l_n is the length of the polygon with n+1 cut points.

Remark: All lengths l_n are lower bounds of the length of the curve.

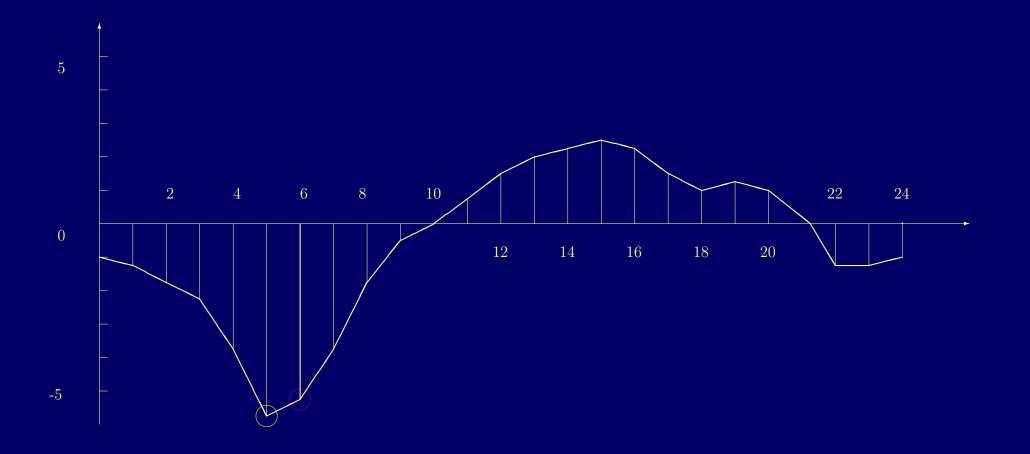
Example of Right Computable Real Numbers

The minimal temperature of a day.



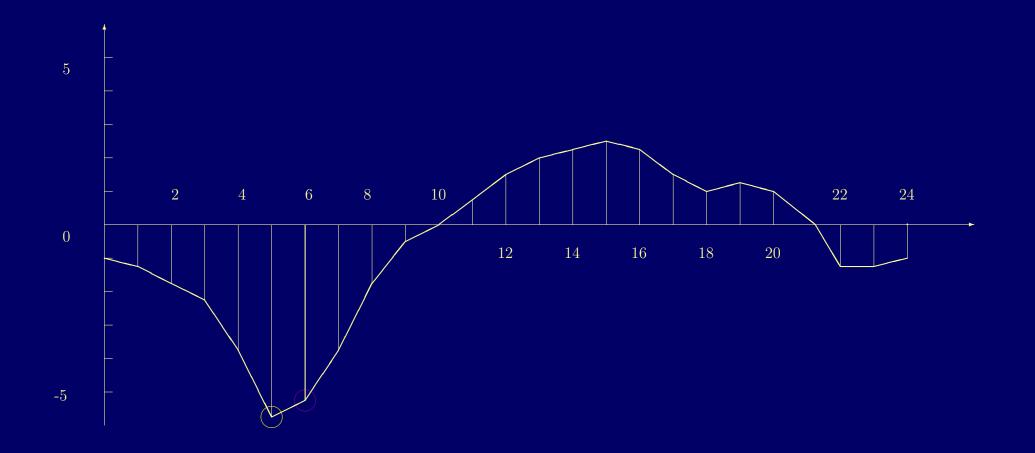
Example of Right Computable Real Numbers

The minimal temperature of a day.



Example of Right Computable Real Numbers

The minimal temperature of a day.



Problem: The class SC is not closed under the arithmetical operations!

Definition. A real x is called d-c.e. if x = y - z for left computable reals y, z.

The class **DCE** — difference of c.e.

Theorem. [Ambos-Spies, Weihrauch, Z. 2000] x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges weakly effectively to x in the sense that,

 $\sum |x_s - x_{s+1}| \le \infty.$

Remark: (x_s) converges effectively if $|x_s - x_{s+1}| \le 2^{-s}$ for all s. Then $\sum |x_s - x_{s+1}| \le 2$

D-c.e. reals are also called weakly computable, (WC = DCE)

- WC = Arithm(SC).
- WC is a real closed field.
- $\mathsf{SC} \subsetneq \mathsf{WC} \subsetneq \mathsf{CA}$

Definition. A real x is called d-c.e. if x = y - z for left computable reals y, z.

The class **DCE** — difference of c.e.

Theorem. [Ambos-Spies, Weihrauch, Z. 2000] x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges weakly effectively to x in the sense that,

 $\sum |x_s - x_{s+1}| \le \infty.$

Remark: (x_s) converges effectively if $|x_s - x_{s+1}| \le 2^{-s}$ for all s. Then $\sum |x_s - x_{s+1}| \le 2$

D-c.e. reals are also called weakly computable, (WC = DCE)

- WC = Arithm(SC).
- WC is a real closed field.
- $\mathsf{SC} \subsetneq \mathsf{WC} \subsetneq \mathsf{CA}$

Definition. A real x is called d-c.e. if x = y - z for left computable reals y, z.

The class **DCE** — difference of c.e.

Theorem. [Ambos-Spies, Weihrauch, Z. 2000] x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges weakly effectively to x in the sense that,

 $\sum |x_s - x_{s+1}| \le \infty.$

Remark: (x_s) converges effectively if $|x_s - x_{s+1}| \le 2^{-s}$ for all s. Then $\sum |x_s - x_{s+1}| \le 2$

D-c.e. reals are also called weakly computable, (WC = DCE)

- WC = Arithm(SC).
- WC is a real closed field.
- $\mathsf{SC} \subsetneq \mathsf{WC} \subsetneq \mathsf{CA}$.

Definition. A real x is called d-c.e. if x = y - z for left computable reals y, z.

The class **DCE** — difference of c.e.

Theorem. [Ambos-Spies, Weihrauch, Z. 2000] x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges weakly effectively to x in the sense that,

 $\sum |x_s - x_{s+1}| \le \infty.$

Remark: (x_s) converges effectively if $|x_s - x_{s+1}| \le 2^{-s}$ for all s. Then $\sum |x_s - x_{s+1}| \le 2$

D-c.e. reals are also called weakly computable, (WC = DCE)

- WC = Arithm(SC).
- WC is a real closed field.
- $\mathsf{SC} \subsetneq \mathsf{WC} \subsetneq \mathsf{CA}$

Definition. A real x is called d-c.e. if x = y - z for left computable reals y, z.

The class **DCE** — difference of c.e.

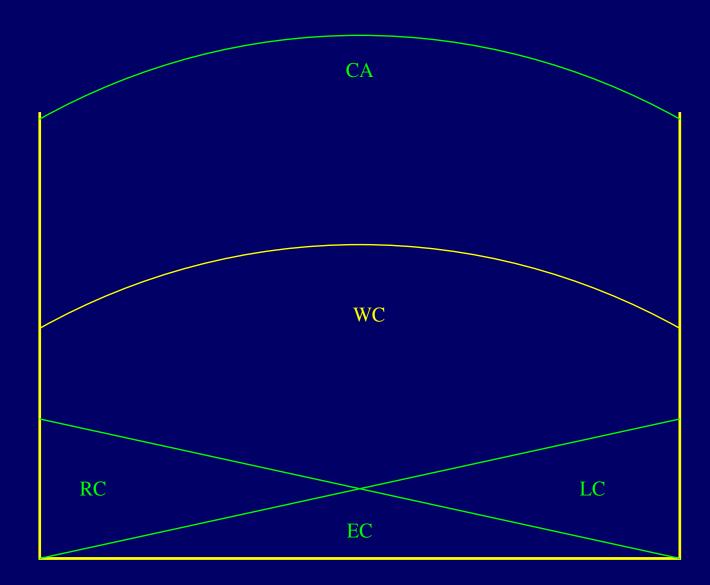
Theorem. [Ambos-Spies, Weihrauch, Z. 2000] x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges weakly effectively to x in the sense that,

 $\sum |x_s - x_{s+1}| \le \infty.$

Remark: (x_s) converges effectively if $|x_s - x_{s+1}| \le 2^{-s}$ for all s. Then $\sum |x_s - x_{s+1}| \le 2$

D-c.e. reals are also called weakly computable, (WC = DCE)

- WC = Arithm(SC).
- WC is a real closed field.
- $SC \subsetneq WC \subsetneq CA$.



The Fourth Characterization of D-c.e. Reals

A sequence (x_s) converges c.e. bounded if $(\forall s)(|x - x_s| \leq \sigma_s)$ where (σ_s) is a computable sequence of c.e. reals which converges to 0. $(\sigma_s := \sum_{i \geq s} \delta_i$ for a computable sequence (δ_s) of rationals such that the sum $\sum_s \delta_s$ is finite.)

Theorem. [Retting and Z. 2005] A real number x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers which converges to x c.e. bounded.

Thereofore, the following are equivalent:

- 1. x = y z for some c.e. real numbers y and z;
- 2. x belongs to the arithmetical closure of c.e. real numbers;
- 3. There is a computable sequence of rational numbers which converges weakly effectively to x;
- 4. There is a computable sequence of rational number which converges to x c.e. bounded.

The fifth characterization of DCE related to relative randomness.

The Fourth Characterization of D-c.e. Reals

A sequence (x_s) converges c.e. bounded if $(\forall s)(|x - x_s| \leq \sigma_s)$ where (σ_s) is a computable sequence of c.e. reals which converges to 0. $(\sigma_s := \sum_{i \geq s} \delta_i$ for a computable sequence (δ_s) of rationals such that the sum $\sum_s \delta_s$ is finite.)

Theorem. [Retting and Z. 2005] A real number x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers which converges to x c.e. bounded.

Thereofore, the following are equivalent:

- 1. x = y z for some c.e. real numbers y and z;
- 2. x belongs to the arithmetical closure of c.e. real numbers;
- 3. There is a computable sequence of rational numbers which converges weakly effectively to x;
- 4. There is a computable sequence of rational number which converges to x c.e. bounded.

The fifth characterization of DCE related to relative randomness.

A sequence (x_s) converges c.e. bounded if $(\forall s)(|x - x_s| \leq \sigma_s)$ where (σ_s) is a computable sequence of c.e. reals which converges to 0. $(\sigma_s := \sum_{i \geq s} \delta_i$ for a computable sequence (δ_s) of rationals such that the sum $\sum_s \delta_s$ is finite.)

Theorem. [Retting and Z. 2005] A real number x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers which converges to x c.e. bounded.

Thereofore, the following are equivalent:

- 1. x = y z for some c.e. real numbers y and z;
- 2. x belongs to the arithmetical closure of c.e. real numbers;
- 3. There is a computable sequence of rational numbers which converges weakly effectively to x;
- 4. There is a computable sequence of rational number which converges to x c.e. bounded.

A sequence (x_s) converges c.e. bounded if $(\forall s)(|x - x_s| \leq \sigma_s)$ where (σ_s) is a computable sequence of c.e. reals which converges to 0. $(\sigma_s := \sum_{i \geq s} \delta_i$ for a computable sequence (δ_s) of rationals such that the sum $\sum_s \delta_s$ is finite.)

Theorem. [Retting and Z. 2005] A real number x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers which converges to x c.e. bounded.

Thereofore, the following are equivalent:

- 1. x = y z for some c.e. real numbers y and z;
- 2. x belongs to the arithmetical closure of c.e. real numbers;
- 3. There is a computable sequence of rational numbers which converges weakly effectively to x;
- 4. There is a computable sequence of rational number which converges to x c.e. bounded.

A sequence (x_s) converges c.e. bounded if $(\forall s)(|x - x_s| \leq \sigma_s)$ where (σ_s) is a computable sequence of c.e. reals which converges to 0. $(\sigma_s := \sum_{i \geq s} \delta_i$ for a computable sequence (δ_s) of rationals such that the sum $\sum_s \delta_s$ is finite.)

Theorem. [Retting and Z. 2005] A real number x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers which converges to x c.e. bounded.

Thereofore, the following are equivalent:

- 1. x = y z for some c.e. real numbers y and z;
- 2. x belongs to the arithmetical closure of c.e. real numbers;
- 3. There is a computable sequence of rational numbers which converges weakly effectively to x;
- 4. There is a computable sequence of rational number which converges to x c.e. bounded.

A sequence (x_s) converges c.e. bounded if $(\forall s)(|x - x_s| \leq \sigma_s)$ where (σ_s) is a computable sequence of c.e. reals which converges to 0. $(\sigma_s := \sum_{i \geq s} \delta_i$ for a computable sequence (δ_s) of rationals such that the sum $\sum_s \delta_s$ is finite.)

Theorem. [Retting and Z. 2005] A real number x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers which converges to x c.e. bounded.

Thereofore, the following are equivalent:

- 1. x = y z for some c.e. real numbers y and z;
- 2. x belongs to the arithmetical closure of c.e. real numbers;
- 3. There is a computable sequence of rational numbers which converges weakly effectively to x;
- 4. There is a computable sequence of rational number which converges to x c.e. bounded.

A sequence (x_s) converges c.e. bounded if $(\forall s)(|x - x_s| \leq \sigma_s)$ where (σ_s) is a computable sequence of c.e. reals which converges to 0. $(\sigma_s := \sum_{i \geq s} \delta_i$ for a computable sequence (δ_s) of rationals such that the sum $\sum_s \delta_s$ is finite.)

Theorem. [Retting and Z. 2005] A real number x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers which converges to x c.e. bounded.

Thereofore, the following are equivalent:

- 1. x = y z for some c.e. real numbers y and z;
- 2. x belongs to the arithmetical closure of c.e. real numbers;
- 3. There is a computable sequence of rational numbers which converges weakly effectively to x;
- 4. There is a computable sequence of rational number which converges to x c.e. bounded.

A sequence (x_s) converges c.e. bounded if $(\forall s)(|x - x_s| \leq \sigma_s)$ where (σ_s) is a computable sequence of c.e. reals which converges to 0. $(\sigma_s := \sum_{i \geq s} \delta_i$ for a computable sequence (δ_s) of rationals such that the sum $\sum_s \delta_s$ is finite.)

Theorem. [Retting and Z. 2005] A real number x is d-c.e. iff there is a computable sequence (x_s) of rational numbers which converges to x c.e. bounded.

Thereofore, the following are equivalent:

- 1. x = y z for some c.e. real numbers y and z;
- 2. x belongs to the arithmetical closure of c.e. real numbers;
- 3. There is a computable sequence of rational numbers which converges weakly effectively to x;
- 4. There is a computable sequence of rational number which converges to x c.e. bounded.

• The Kolmogorov complexity of a binary word σ relative to a Turing machine M is

 $K_M(\sigma) := \min\{|\tau| : M(\tau) = \sigma\}.$

- The (prefix-free) Kolmogorov complexity of σ is defined by $K(\sigma) := K_M(\sigma)$ for a universal prefix free Turing machine M.
- A binary sequence A is called Kolmogorov-Levin-Chaitin random if

 $(\exists c)(\forall n)(K(A \upharpoonright n) \ge n - c).$

- A real number is called random if its binary expansion is a random sequence.
- Example: The halting-probability $\Omega_U := \sum \{2^{-|\sigma|} : U(\sigma) \downarrow\}$ of a prefix-free universal Turing machine U is a c.e. random number (Ω -number, Chaitin 1975)

 $\bullet\,$ The Kolmogorov complexity of a binary word σ relative to a Turing machine M is

 $K_M(\sigma) := \min\{|\tau| : M(\tau) = \sigma\}.$

- The (prefix-free) Kolmogorov complexity of σ is defined by $K(\sigma) := K_M(\sigma)$ for a universal prefix free Turing machine M.
- A binary sequence A is called Kolmogorov-Levin-Chaitin random i

 $(\exists c)(\forall n)(K(A \upharpoonright n) \ge n - c).$

- A real number is called random if its binary expansion is a random sequence.
- Example: The halting-probability $\Omega_U := \sum \{2^{-|\sigma|} : U(\sigma) \downarrow\}$ of a prefix-free universal Turing machine U is a c.e. random number (Ω -number, Chaitin 1975)

 $\bullet\,$ The Kolmogorov complexity of a binary word σ relative to a Turing machine M is

 $K_M(\sigma) := \min\{|\tau| : M(\tau) = \sigma\}.$

- The (prefix-free) Kolmogorov complexity of σ is defined by $K(\sigma) := K_M(\sigma)$ for a universal prefix free Turing machine M.
- A binary sequence A is called Kolmogorov-Levin-Chaitin random if $(\exists c)(\forall n)(K(A \upharpoonright n) \ge n - c).$

A real number is called random if its binary expansion is a random sequence.

• Example: The halting-probability $\Omega_U := \sum \{2^{-|\sigma|} : U(\sigma) \downarrow\}$ of a prefix-free universal Turing machine U is a c.e. random number (Ω -number, Chaitin 1975)

 $\bullet\,$ The Kolmogorov complexity of a binary word σ relative to a Turing machine M is

 $K_M(\sigma) := \min\{|\tau| : M(\tau) = \sigma\}.$

- The (prefix-free) Kolmogorov complexity of σ is defined by $K(\sigma) := K_M(\sigma)$ for a universal prefix free Turing machine M.
- $\bullet\,$ A binary sequence A is called Kolmogorov-Levin-Chaitin random if

 $(\exists \overline{c})(\forall \overline{n})(K(A \upharpoonright \overline{n}) \ge \overline{n-c}).$

- A real number is called random if its binary expansion is a random sequence.
- Example: The halting-probability $\Omega_U := \sum \{2^{-|\sigma|} : U(\sigma) \downarrow\}$ of a prefix-free universal Turing machine U is a c.e. random number (Ω -number, Chaitin 1975)

 $\bullet\,$ The Kolmogorov complexity of a binary word σ relative to a Turing machine M is

 $K_M(\sigma) := \min\{|\tau| : M(\tau) = \sigma\}.$

- The (prefix-free) Kolmogorov complexity of σ is defined by $K(\sigma) := K_M(\sigma)$ for a universal prefix free Turing machine M.
- A binary sequence A is called Kolmogorov-Levin-Chaitin random if

 $(\exists c)(\forall n)(K(A \upharpoonright n) \ge n - c).$

- A real number is called random if its binary expansion is a random sequence.
- Example: The halting-probability $\Omega_U := \sum \{2^{-|\sigma|} : U(\sigma) \downarrow\}$ of a prefix-free universal Turing machine U is a c.e. random number (Ω -number, Chaitin 1975)

 $\bullet\,$ The Kolmogorov complexity of a binary word σ relative to a Turing machine M is

 $K_M(\sigma) := \min\{|\tau| : M(\tau) = \sigma\}.$

- The (prefix-free) Kolmogorov complexity of σ is defined by $K(\sigma) := K_M(\sigma)$ for a universal prefix free Turing machine M.
- A binary sequence A is called Kolmogorov-Levin-Chaitin random if

 $(\exists c)(\forall n)(K(A \upharpoonright n) \ge n - c).$

- A real number is called random if its binary expansion is a random sequence.
- Example: The halting-probability $\Omega_U := \sum \{2^{-|\sigma|} : U(\sigma) \downarrow\}$ of a prefix-free universal Turing machine U is a c.e. random number (Ω -number, Chaitin 1975)

Definition. [Solovay 1975] A c.e. real x is Solovay reducible to c.e. real y ($x \leq_S y$) if there are computable increasing sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rationals s.t.

Lemma. [Solovay] The Solovay reducibility has the Solovay property

 $x \leq_S y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Theorem. [Chaitin, Solovay, Kuçera, Slaman and Calude et al] For any real x, the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. x is c.e. and random real;
- 2. x is an Ω -number;
- 3. x is Solovay Complete on c.e. reals, i.e., $y \leq_S x$ for all c.e. real y.

Definition. [Solovay 1975] A c.e. real x is Solovay reducible to c.e. real y ($x \leq_S y$) if there are computable increasing sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rationals s.t.

Lemma. [Solovay] The Solovay reducibility has the Solovay property

 $x \leq_S y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Theorem. [Chaitin, Solovay, Kuçera, Slaman and Calude et al] For any real x, the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. x is c.e. and random real;
- 2. x is an Ω -number;
- 3. x is Solovay Complete on c.e. reals, i.e., $y \leq_S x$ for all c.e. real y.

Definition. [Solovay 1975] A c.e. real x is Solovay reducible to c.e. real y ($x \leq_S y$) if there are computable increasing sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rationals s.t.

 $\lim x_n = x,$

Lemma. [Solovay] The Solovay reducibility has the Solovay property

 $x \leq_S y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Theorem. [Chaitin, Solovay, Kuçera, Slaman and Calude et al] For any real x, the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. x is c.e. and random real;
- 2. x is an Ω -number;
- 3. x is Solovay Complete on c.e. reals, i.e., $y \leq_S x$ for all c.e. real y.

Definition. [Solovay 1975] A c.e. real x is Solovay reducible to c.e. real y ($x \leq_S y$) if there are computable increasing sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rationals s.t.

 $\lim x_n = x, \quad \lim y_n = y,$

Lemma. [Solovay] The Solovay reducibility has the Solovay property

 $x \leq_S y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Theorem. [Chaitin, Solovay, Kuçera, Slaman and Calude et al] For any real x, the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. x is c.e. and random real;
- 2. x is an Ω -number;
- 3. x is Solovay Complete on c.e. reals, i.e., $y \leq_S x$ for all c.e. real y.

Definition. [Solovay 1975] A c.e. real x is Solovay reducible to c.e. real y ($x \leq_S y$) if there are computable increasing sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rationals s.t.

 $\lim x_n = x, \quad \lim y_n = y, \quad (\exists c)(\forall n)(x - x_n \le c \cdot (y - y_n)).$

Lemma. [Solovay] The Solovay reducibility has the Solovay property

 $x \leq_S y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Theorem. [Chaitin, Solovay, Kuçera, Slaman and Calude et al] For any real x, the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. x is c.e. and random real;
- 2. x is an Ω -number;
- 3. x is Solovay Complete on c.e. reals, i.e., $y \leq_S x$ for all c.e. real y.

Definition. [Solovay 1975] A c.e. real x is Solovay reducible to c.e. real y ($x \leq_S y$) if there are computable increasing sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rationals s.t.

 $\lim x_n = x, \quad \lim y_n = y, \quad (\exists c)(\forall n)(x - x_n \le c \cdot (y - y_n)).$

Lemma. [Solovay] The Solovay reducibility has the Solovay property

 $x \leq_S y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Theorem. [Chaitin, Solovay, Kuçera, Slaman and Calude et al] For any real *x*, the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. x is c.e. and random real;
- 2. x is an Ω -number;
- 3. x is Solovay Complete on c.e. reals, i.e., $y \leq_S x$ for all c.e. real y.

Definition. [Solovay 1975] A c.e. real x is Solovay reducible to c.e. real y ($x \leq_S y$) if there are computable increasing sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rationals s.t.

 $\lim x_n = x, \quad \lim y_n = y, \quad (\exists c)(\forall n)(x - x_n \le c \cdot (y - y_n)).$

Lemma. [Solovay] The Solovay reducibility has the Solovay property

$$x \leq_S y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$$

Theorem. [Chaitin, Solovay, Kuçera, Slaman and Calude et al] For any real x, the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. x is c.e. and random real;
- 2. x is an Ω -number;
- 3. x is Solovay Complete on c.e. reals, i.e., $y \leq_S x$ for all c.e. real y.

Definition. [Solovay 1975] A c.e. real x is Solovay reducible to c.e. real y ($x \leq_S y$) if there are computable increasing sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rationals s.t.

 $\lim x_n = x, \quad \lim y_n = y, \quad (\exists c)(\forall n)(x - x_n \le c \cdot (y - y_n)).$

Lemma. [Solovay] The Solovay reducibility has the Solovay property

$$x \leq_S y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$$

Theorem. [Chaitin, Solovay, Kuçera, Slaman and Calude et al] For any real x, the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. x is c.e. and random real;
- 2. x is an Ω -number;
- 3. x is Solovay Complete on c.e. reals, i.e., $y \leq_S x$ for all c.e. real y.

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] A c.a. real x is Solovay reducible to a c.a. real y $(x \leq_S^2 y)$ if there are computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rational numbers such that

Lemma. Extended Solovay reducibility has the following properties

- 1. \leq_S^2 is reflexive and transitive;
- 2. \leq^2_S coincides with the original reducibility of Solovay on c.e. reals;
- 3. If x is computable, then $x \leq_S^2 y$ for any y;
- 4. \leq^2_S has Solovay property, i.e.,

 $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow (\exists c)(\forall n)(K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] A c.a. real x is Solovay reducible to a c.a. real y $(x \leq_S^2 y)$ if there are computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rational numbers such that

Lemma. Extended Solovay reducibility has the following properties

- 1. \leq_S^2 is reflexive and transitive;
- 2. \leq_S^2 coincides with the original reducibility of Solovay on c.e. reals;
- 3. If x is computable, then $x \leq_S^2 y$ for any y;
- 4. \leq^2_S has Solovay property, i.e.,

 $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] A c.a. real x is Solovay reducible to a c.a. real y $(x \leq_S^2 y)$ if there are computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rational numbers such that $\lim x_s = x$,

Lemma. Extended Solovay reducibility has the following properties

- 1. \leq_S^2 is reflexive and transitive;
- 2. \leq^2_S coincides with the original reducibility of Solovay on c.e. reals;
- 3. If x is computable, then $x \leq_S^2 y$ for any y;
- 4. \leq^2_S has Solovay property, i.e.,

 $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] A c.a. real x is Solovay reducible to a c.a. real y $(x \leq_S^2 y)$ if there are computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rational numbers such that

 $\lim x_s = x, \quad \lim y_s = y,$

Lemma. Extended Solovay reducibility has the following properties

1. \leq_S^2 is reflexive and transitive;

2. \leq^2_S coincides with the original reducibility of Solovay on c.e. reals;

- 3. If x is computable, then $x\leq^2_S y$ for any y;
- 4. \leq^2_S has Solovay property, i.e.,

 $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] A c.a. real x is Solovay reducible to a c.a. real y $(x \leq_S^2 y)$ if there are computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rational numbers such that

 $\lim x_s = x, \quad \lim y_s = y, \quad (\exists c) (\forall s) (|x - x_s| \le c(|y - y_s| + 2^{-s}))$

Lemma. Extended Solovay reducibility has the following properties

- 1. \leq_S^2 is reflexive and transitive;
- 2. \leq^2_S coincides with the original reducibility of Solovay on c.e. reals;
- 3. If x is computable, then $x\leq^2_S y$ for any y;
- 4. \leq^2_S has Solovay property, i.e.,

 $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] A c.a. real x is Solovay reducible to a c.a. real y $(x \leq_S^2 y)$ if there are computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rational numbers such that

 $\lim x_s = x, \quad \lim y_s = y, \quad (\exists c) (\forall s) \left(|x - x_s| \le c(|y - y_s| + 2^{-s}) \right)$

Lemma. Extended Solovay reducibility has the following properties

- 1. \leq_S^2 is reflexive and transitive;
- 2. \leq^2_S coincides with the original reducibility of Solovay on c.e. reals;
- 3. If x is computable, then $x\leq^2_S y$ for any y;
- 4. \leq^2_S has Solovay property, i.e.,

 $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] A c.a. real x is Solovay reducible to a c.a. real y $(x \leq_S^2 y)$ if there are computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rational numbers such that

 $\lim x_s = x, \quad \lim y_s = y, \quad (\exists c) (\forall s) \left(|x - x_s| \le c(|y - y_s| + 2^{-s}) \right)$

Lemma. Extended Solovay reducibility has the following properties

- 1. \leq_S^2 is reflexive and transitive;
- 2. \leq^2_S coincides with the original reducibility of Solovay on c.e. reals;
- 3. If x is computable, then $x\leq^2_S y$ for any y;
- 4. \leq^2_S has Solovay property, i.e.,

 $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] A c.a. real x is Solovay reducible to a c.a. real y $(x \leq_S^2 y)$ if there are computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rational numbers such that

 $\lim x_s = x, \quad \lim y_s = y, \quad (\exists c) (\forall s) \left(|x - x_s| \le c(|y - y_s| + 2^{-s}) \right)$

Lemma. Extended Solovay reducibility has the following properties

- 1. \leq_S^2 is reflexive and transitive;
- 2. \leq_S^2 coincides with the original reducibility of Solovay on c.e. reals;
- 3. If x is computable, then $x \leq_S^2 y$ for any y;
- 4. \leq^2_S has Solovay property, i.e.,

 $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] A c.a. real x is Solovay reducible to a c.a. real y $(x \leq_S^2 y)$ if there are computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rational numbers such that

 $\lim x_s = x, \quad \lim y_s = y, \quad (\exists c) (\forall s) \left(|x - x_s| \le c(|y - y_s| + 2^{-s}) \right)$

Lemma. Extended Solovay reducibility has the following properties

- 1. \leq_S^2 is reflexive and transitive;
- 2. \leq_S^2 coincides with the original reducibility of Solovay on c.e. reals;
- 3. If x is computable, then $x \leq_S^2 y$ for any y;
- 4. \leq^2_S has Solovay property, i.e.,

 $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] A c.a. real x is Solovay reducible to a c.a. real y $(x \leq_S^2 y)$ if there are computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rational numbers such that

 $\lim x_s = x, \quad \lim y_s = y, \quad (\exists c) (\forall s) \left(|x - x_s| \le c(|y - y_s| + 2^{-s}) \right)$

Lemma. Extended Solovay reducibility has the following properties

- 1. \leq_S^2 is reflexive and transitive;
- 2. \leq_S^2 coincides with the original reducibility of Solovay on c.e. reals;
- 3. If x is computable, then $x \leq_S^2 y$ for any y;
- 4. \leq_S^2 has Solovay property, i.e.,

 $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow (\exists c) (\forall n) (K(x \upharpoonright n) \leq K(y \upharpoonright n) + c).$

Definition. A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is locally Lipschitz if for each $\vec{x} \in \text{dom}(f)$, there is a neighborhood U of \vec{x} and a constant L such that

 $(\forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in U)(|f(\vec{u}) - f(\vec{v})| \le L \cdot |\vec{u} - \vec{v}|)$

Theorem. Let d be a c.a. real. The class $S(\leq d) := \{y : y \leq_S^2 d\}$ is closed under locally Lipschitz computable functions.

Corollary. The class $S(\leq d)$ is a closed field for any c.a. reals d.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] $S(\leq \Omega) = WC$

Proof idea:

 $S(\leq \Omega)$ contains all c.e. real and is a field $\Longrightarrow WC \subseteq S(\leq \Omega)$;

Definition. A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is locally Lipschitz if for each $\vec{x} \in \text{dom}(f)$, there is a neighborhood U of \vec{x} and a constant L such that

 $(\forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in U)(|f(\vec{u}) - f(\vec{v})| \le L \cdot |\vec{u} - \vec{v}|)$

Theorem. Let d be a c.a. real. The class $S(\leq d) := \{y : y \leq_S^2 d\}$ is closed under locally Lipschitz computable functions.

Corollary. The class $S(\leq d)$ is a closed field for any c.a. reals d.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] $S(\leq \Omega) = WC$

Proof idea:

 $S(\leq \Omega)$ contains all c.e. real and is a field $\Longrightarrow WC \subseteq S(\leq \Omega)$;

Definition. A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is locally Lipschitz if for each $\vec{x} \in \text{dom}(f)$, there is a neighborhood U of \vec{x} and a constant L such that

 $(\forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in U)(|f(\vec{u}) - f(\vec{v})| \le L \cdot |\vec{u} - \vec{v}|)$

Theorem. Let d be a c.a. real. The class $S(\leq d) := \{y : y \leq_S^2 d\}$ is closed under locally Lipschitz computable functions.

Corollary. The class $S(\leq d)$ is a closed field for any c.a. reals d.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] $S(\leq \Omega) = WC$

Proof idea:

 $S(\leq \Omega)$ contains all c.e. real and is a field $\Longrightarrow WC \subseteq S(\leq \Omega)$;

Definition. A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is locally Lipschitz if for each $\vec{x} \in \text{dom}(f)$, there is a neighborhood U of \vec{x} and a constant L such that

 $(\forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in U)(|f(\vec{u}) - f(\vec{v})| \le L \cdot |\vec{u} - \vec{v}|)$

Theorem. Let d be a c.a. real. The class $S(\leq d) := \{y : y \leq_S^2 d\}$ is closed under locally Lipschitz computable functions.

Corollary. The class $S(\leq d)$ is a closed field for any c.a. reals d.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] $S(\leq \Omega) = WC$

Proof idea:

 $S(\leq \Omega)$ contains all c.e. real and is a field $\Longrightarrow WC \subseteq S(\leq \Omega)$;

Definition. A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is locally Lipschitz if for each $\vec{x} \in \text{dom}(f)$, there is a neighborhood U of \vec{x} and a constant L such that

 $(\forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in U)(|f(\vec{u}) - f(\vec{v})| \le L \cdot |\vec{u} - \vec{v}|)$

Theorem. Let d be a c.a. real. The class $S(\leq d) := \{y : y \leq_S^2 d\}$ is closed under locally Lipschitz computable functions.

Corollary. The class $S(\leq d)$ is a closed field for any c.a. reals d.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] $S(\leq \Omega) = WC$

Proof idea:

 $S(\leq \Omega)$ contains all c.e. real and is a field $\Longrightarrow WC \subseteq S(\leq \Omega)$;

Definition. A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is locally Lipschitz if for each $\vec{x} \in \text{dom}(f)$, there is a neighborhood U of \vec{x} and a constant L such that

 $(\forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in U)(|f(\vec{u}) - f(\vec{v})| \le L \cdot |\vec{u} - \vec{v}|)$

Theorem. Let d be a c.a. real. The class $S(\leq d) := \{y : y \leq_S^2 d\}$ is closed under locally Lipschitz computable functions.

Corollary. The class $S(\leq d)$ is a closed field for any c.a. reals d.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004] $S(\leq \Omega) = WC$

Proof idea:

 $S(\leq \Omega)$ contains all c.e. real and is a field $\Longrightarrow WC \subseteq S(\leq \Omega)$;

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004]

1. If d is a c.e. random real number, then $S(\leq d) = \mathsf{DCE}$;

2. The c.e. random reals are S-complete for DCE;

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004]

1. If d is a c.e. random real number, then $S(\leq d) = \mathsf{DCE}$;

2. The c.e. random reals are S-complete for DCE;

- Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004]
- 1. If d is a c.e. random real number, then $S(\leq d) = \mathsf{DCE}$; (A real is d-c.e. iff it is Solovay reducible to a c.e. random real.)
- 2. The c.e. random reals are S-complete for DCE;

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004]

1. If d is a c.e. random real number, then $S(\leq d) = \mathsf{DCE}$; (A real is d-c.e. iff it is Solovay reducible to a c.e. random real.)

2. The c.e. random reals are S-complete for DCE;

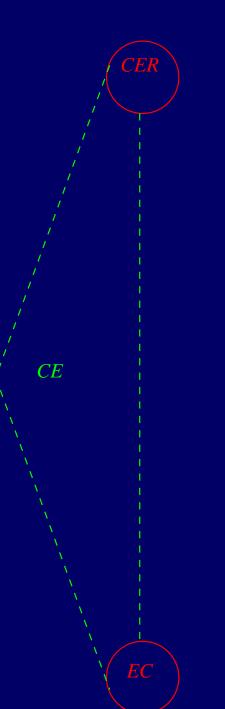
- Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004]
- 1. If d is a c.e. random real number, then $S(\leq d) = \mathsf{DCE}$; (A real is d-c.e. iff it is Solovay reducible to a c.e. random real.)
- 2. The c.e. random reals are S-complete for DCE;
 (The Chaitin's Ω-numbers are S-complete for DCE.)
- 3. Any d-c.e. random real number is either c.e. or co-c.e.

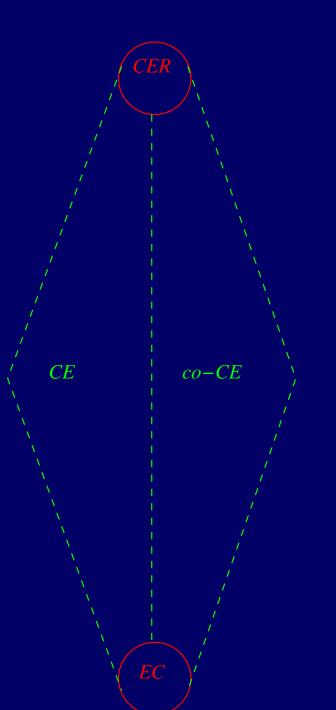
- Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004]
- 1. If d is a c.e. random real number, then $S(\leq d) = \mathsf{DCE}$; (A real is d-c.e. iff it is Solovay reducible to a c.e. random real.)
- 2. The c.e. random reals are S-complete for DCE;
 (The Chaitin's Ω-numbers are S-complete for DCE.)
- 3. Any d-c.e. random real number is either c.e. or co-c.e.

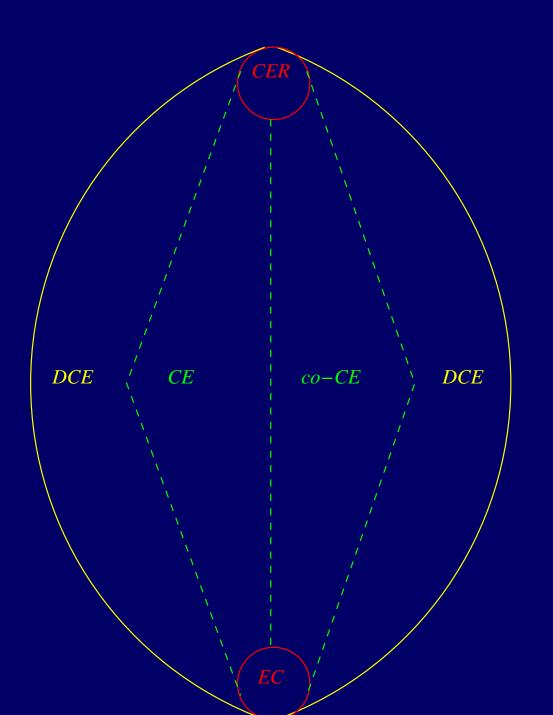
- Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2004]
- 1. If d is a c.e. random real number, then $S(\leq d) = \mathsf{DCE}$; (A real is d-c.e. iff it is Solovay reducible to a c.e. random real.)
- 2. The c.e. random reals are S-complete for DCE;
 (The Chaitin's Ω-numbers are S-complete for DCE.)
- 3. Any d-c.e. random real number is either c.e. or co-c.e. (Co-c.e. reals are the limits of decreasing computable sequences of rationals.)

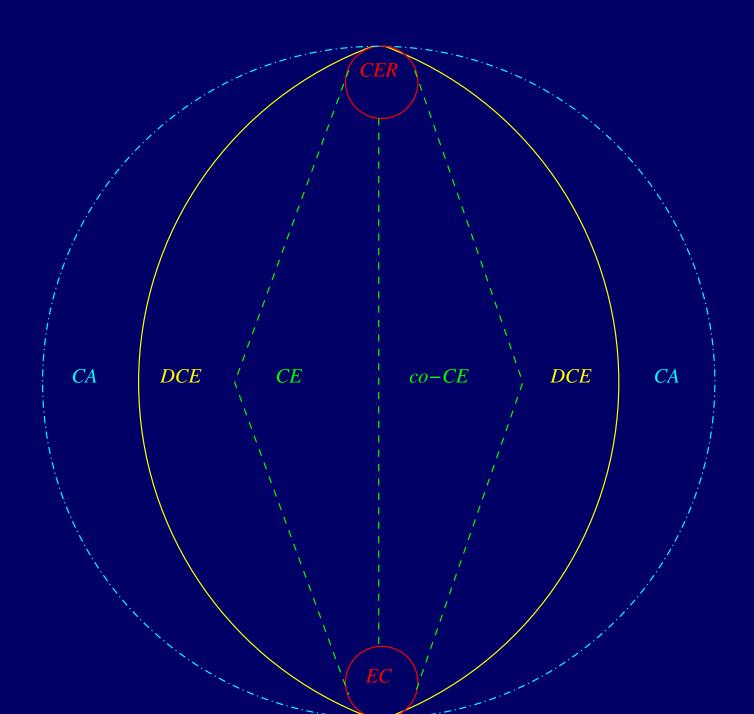


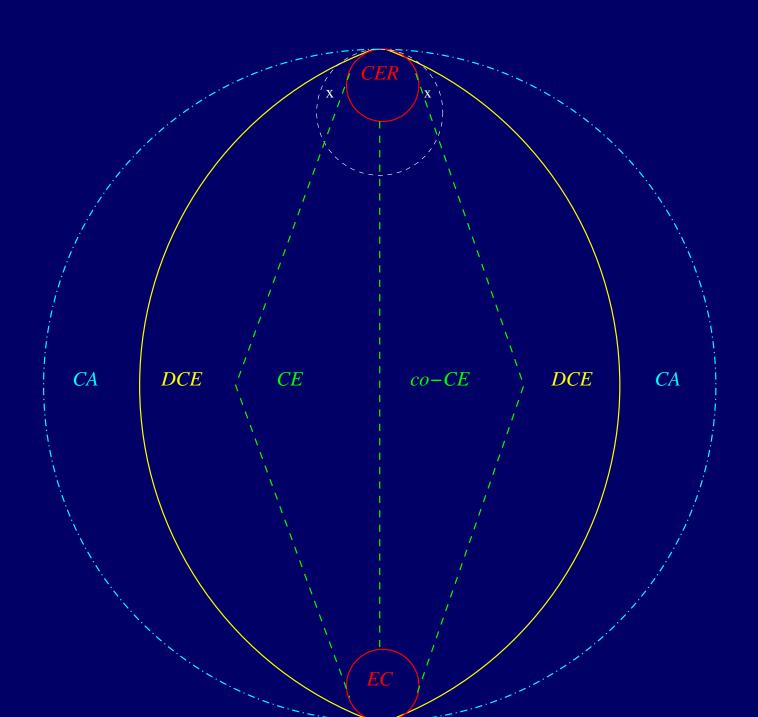


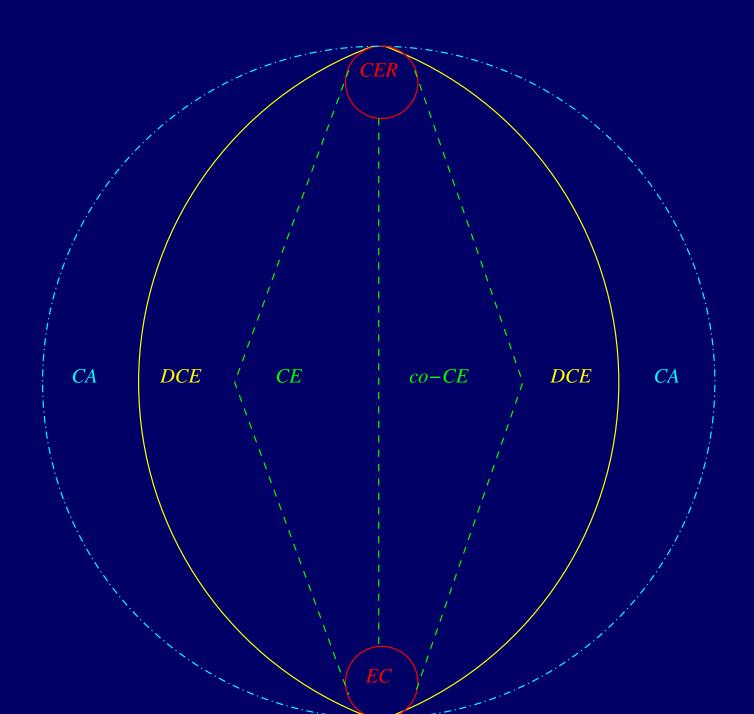












Five Characterizations of DCE

The class **DCE** has at least five equivalent characterizations:

- 1. x = y z for $y, z \in CE$
- 2. $\mathsf{DCE} = \operatorname{Arithm}(\mathsf{CE})$
- 3. Weakly computable.
- 4. C.e. bounded convergence
- 5. $x \leq_S^2 \Omega$.

Theorem. [Z. 2003, Downey, Wu, Z. 2004] On the Turing degrees of d-c.e. reals, we have

- There is a d-c.e. real which does not have an ω -c.e. degree.
- Every ω-c.e. degree contains a d-c.e. real.
- There is a Δ_2^0 degree with no d-c.e. reals.

Five Characterizations of DCE

The class **DCE** has at least five equivalent characterizations:

- 1. x = y z for $y, z \in CE$
- 2. $\mathsf{DCE} = \operatorname{Arithm}(\mathsf{CE})$
- 3. Weakly computable.
- 4. C.e. bounded convergence
- 5. $x \leq_S^2 \Omega$.

Theorem. [Z. 2003, Downey, Wu, Z. 2004] On the Turing degrees of d-c.e. reals, we have

- There is a d-c.e. real which does not have an ω -c.e. degree.
- Every ω-c.e. degree contains a d-c.e. real.
- There is a Δ_2^0 degree with no d-c.e. reals.

Derivation on DCE

Definition. [Miller 2017] Let x be a d-c.e. and (x_s) be a computable sequence of rationals which converges to x weakly effectively. Let (Ω_s) be a computable increasing sequence of rationals which converges to Ω . Let

$$\partial x = \lim_{s \to \infty} \frac{x - x_s}{\Omega - \Omega_s}$$

Theorem. [Miller 2017] For any d-c.e. real x.

- ∂x converges and is not dependent on the d-c.e. approximations of x.
- $\partial x = 0$ iff x is not random.
- $\partial x > 0$ iff x is a random left-c.e. real.
- $\partial x < 0$ iff x is a random right-c.e. real.
- The class of nonrandom d-c.e. reals forms a real closed field.
- If f is computable differentiable function and x is d-c.e. Then, f(x) is d-c.e. and $\partial f(x) = f'(x)\partial x$ (DCE is closed under computable differentiable functions.)

Derivation on DCE

Definition. [Miller 2017] Let x be a d-c.e. and (x_s) be a computable sequence of rationals which converges to x weakly effectively. Let (Ω_s) be a computable increasing sequence of rationals which converges to Ω . Let

$$\partial x = \lim_{s \to \infty} \frac{x - x_s}{\Omega - \Omega_s}$$

Theorem. [Miller 2017] For any d-c.e. real x.

- ∂x converges and is not dependent on the d-c.e. approximations of x.
- $\partial x = 0$ iff x is not random.
- $\partial x > 0$ iff x is a random left-c.e. real.
- $\partial x < 0$ iff x is a random right-c.e. real.
- The class of nonrandom d-c.e. reals forms a real closed field.
- If f is computable differentiable function and x is d-c.e. Then, f(x) is d-c.e. and $\partial f(x) = f'(x)\partial x$ (DCE is closed under computable differentiable functions.)

Derivation on DCE

Definition. [Miller 2017] Let x be a d-c.e. and (x_s) be a computable sequence of rationals which converges to x weakly effectively. Let (Ω_s) be a computable increasing sequence of rationals which converges to Ω . Let

$$\partial x = \lim_{s \to \infty} \frac{x - x_s}{\Omega - \Omega_s}$$

Theorem. [Miller 2017] For any d-c.e. real x.

- ∂x converges and is not dependent on the d-c.e. approximations of x.
- $\partial x = 0$ iff x is not random.
- $\partial x > 0$ iff x is a random left-c.e. real.
- $\partial x < 0$ iff x is a random right-c.e. real.
- The class of nonrandom d-c.e. reals forms a real closed field.
- If f is computable differentiable function and x is d-c.e. Then, f(x) is d-c.e. and $\partial f(x) = f'(x)\partial x$ (DCE is closed under computable differentiable functions.)

The class **DCE** is not closed under total computable real functions.

- Turing's promise (1936)
- Banach-Mazur (193?, 1963) sequential computability
- Specker (1949) (Primitive) recursive real functions effective limits of (primitive) recursive sequences of (primitive) recursive functions on rational numbers.
- Grzegorczyk & Lacombe (1955) sequential computability + effectively uniform continuity
- Weihrauch 1987 Typ-2 Turing machine
- Ko 1991 Oracle-Turing machine

- Turing's promise (1936)
- Banach-Mazur (193?, 1963) sequential computability
- Specker (1949) (Primitive) recursive real functions effective limits of (primitive) recursive sequences of (primitive) recursive functions on rational numbers.
- Grzegorczyk & Lacombe (1955) sequential computability + effectively uniform continuity
- Weihrauch 1987 Typ-2 Turing machine
- Ko 1991 Oracle-Turing machine

- Turing's promise (1936)
- Banach-Mazur (193?, 1963) sequential computability
- Specker (1949) (Primitive) recursive real functions effective limits of (primitive) recursive sequences of (primitive) recursive functions on rational numbers.
- Grzegorczyk & Lacombe (1955) sequential computability + effectively uniform continuity
- Weihrauch 1987 Typ-2 Turing machine
- Ko 1991 Oracle-Turing machine

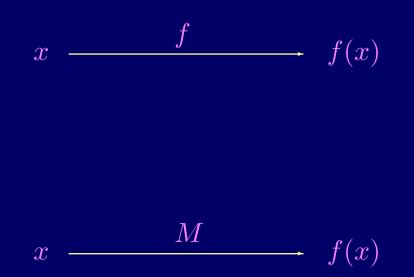
- Turing's promise (1936)
- Banach-Mazur (193?, 1963) sequential computability
- Specker (1949) (Primitive) recursive real functions effective limits of (primitive) recursive sequences of (primitive) recursive functions on rational numbers.
- Grzegorczyk & Lacombe (1955) sequential computability + effectively uniform continuity
- Weihrauch 1987 Typ-2 Turing machine
- Ko 1991 Oracle-Turing machine

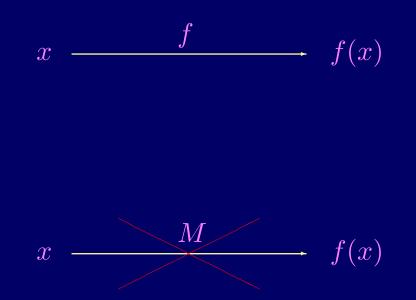
- Turing's promise (1936)
- Banach-Mazur (193?, 1963) sequential computability
- Specker (1949) (Primitive) recursive real functions effective limits of (primitive) recursive sequences of (primitive) recursive functions on rational numbers.
- Grzegorczyk & Lacombe (1955) sequential computability + effectively uniform continuity
- Weihrauch 1987 Typ-2 Turing machine
- Ko 1991 Oracle-Turing machine

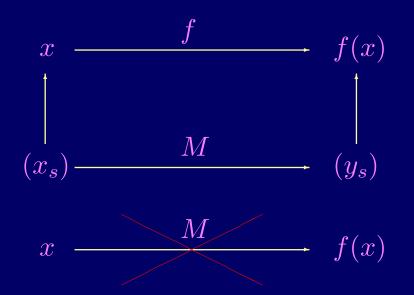
- Turing's promise (1936)
- Banach-Mazur (193?, 1963) sequential computability
- Specker (1949) (Primitive) recursive real functions effective limits of (primitive) recursive sequences of (primitive) recursive functions on rational numbers.
- Grzegorczyk & Lacombe (1955) sequential computability + effectively uniform continuity
- Weihrauch 1987 Typ-2 Turing machine
- Ko 1991 Oracle-Turing machine

- Turing's promise (1936)
- Banach-Mazur (193?, 1963) sequential computability
- Specker (1949) (Primitive) recursive real functions effective limits of (primitive) recursive sequences of (primitive) recursive functions on rational numbers.
- Grzegorczyk & Lacombe (1955) sequential computability + effectively uniform continuity
- Weihrauch 1987 Typ-2 Turing machine
- Ko 1991 Oracle-Turing machine

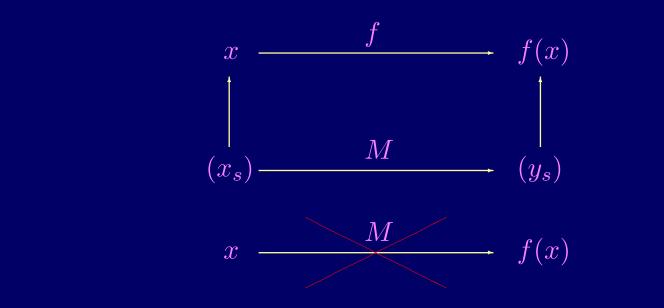
 $x \xrightarrow{f} f(x)$



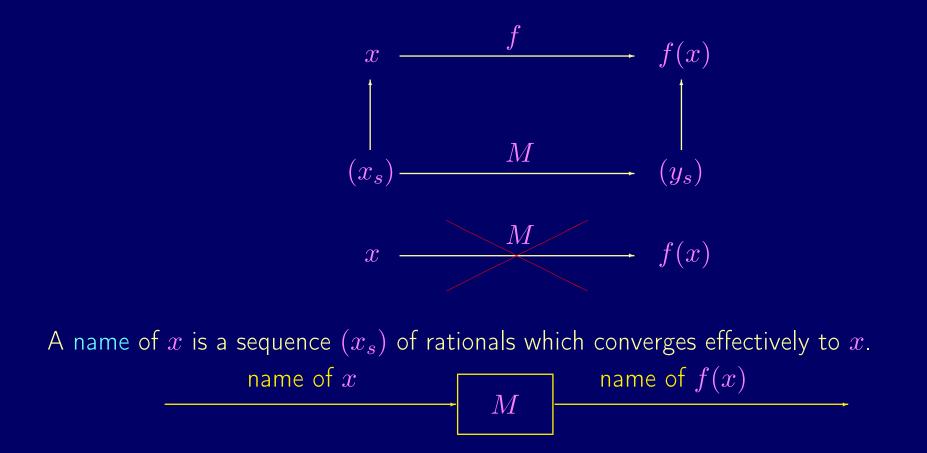




A name of x is a sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges effectively to x.



A name of x is a sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges effectively to x. name of x name of f(x)M



Definition. [Weihrauch 1987] A function $f :\subseteq \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ is computable if there is a (type-2) Turing machine M which transfers each name of $x \in \text{dom}(f)$ to a name of f(x).

Closure under Computable Real Functions

The classes EC and CA are closed under the computable real functions.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005] The classes SC und WC are not closed under total computable real functions. But their closures are the same.

Question: What is the closure of the classes **SC** and **WC** under total computable real functions?

Remark: The closure of real number classes under partial computable real functions is relative simple because of the following property of Ko:

y = f(x) for a computable real function $f \iff y \leq_T x$.

Closure under Computable Real Functions

The classes EC and CA are closed under the computable real functions.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005] The classes SC und WC are not closed under total computable real functions. But their closures are the same.

Question: What is the closure of the classes **SC** and **WC** under total computable real functions?

Remark: The closure of real number classes under partial computable real functions is relative simple because of the following property of Ko:

y = f(x) for a computable real function $f \iff y \leq_T x$.

Closure under Computable Real Functions

The classes EC and CA are closed under the computable real functions.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005] The classes SC und WC are not closed under total computable real functions. But their closures are the same.

Question: What is the closure of the classes **SC** and **WC** under total computable real functions?

Remark: The closure of real number classes under partial computable real functions is relative simple because of the following property of Ko:

y = f(x) for a computable real function $f \iff y \leq_T x$.

Closure under Computable Real Functions

The classes EC and CA are closed under the computable real functions.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005] The classes SC und WC are not closed under total computable real functions. But their closures are the same.

Question: What is the closure of the classes **SC** and **WC** under total computable real functions?

Remark: The closure of real number classes under partial computable real functions is relative simple because of the following property of Ko:

y = f(x) for a computable real function $f \iff y \leq_T x$.

Closure under Computable Real Functions

The classes EC and CA are closed under the computable real functions.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005] The classes SC und WC are not closed under total computable real functions. But their closures are the same.

Question: What is the closure of the classes **SC** and **WC** under total computable real functions?

Remark: The closure of real number classes under partial computable real functions is relative simple because of the following property of Ko:

y = f(x) for a computable real function $f \iff y \leq_T x$.

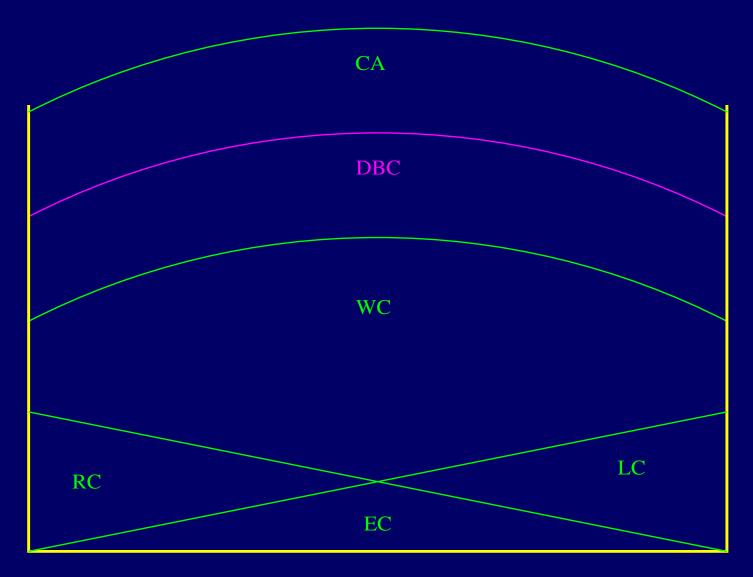
The Class DBC

A real x is called divergence bounded computable (DBC) if x = f(y) for a d-c.e. real y and a total computable real function f. (DBC = Comp(WC))

The Class DBC

A real x is called divergence bounded computable (DBC) if x = f(y) for a d-c.e. real y and a total computable real function f. (DBC = Comp(WC))

That is, the class DBC is the closure of WC under total computable real functions.

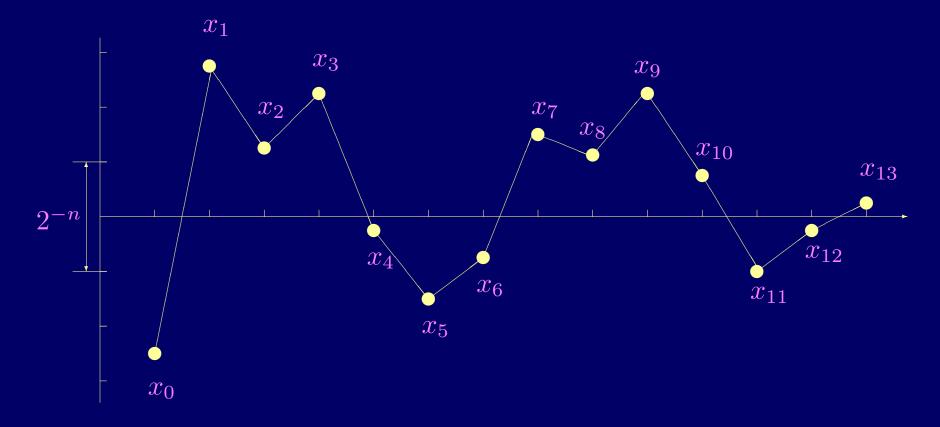


Jumps of a Sequence

A jump of size α of a sequence (x_s) is an index-pair (i, j) with $|x_i - x_j| = \alpha$.

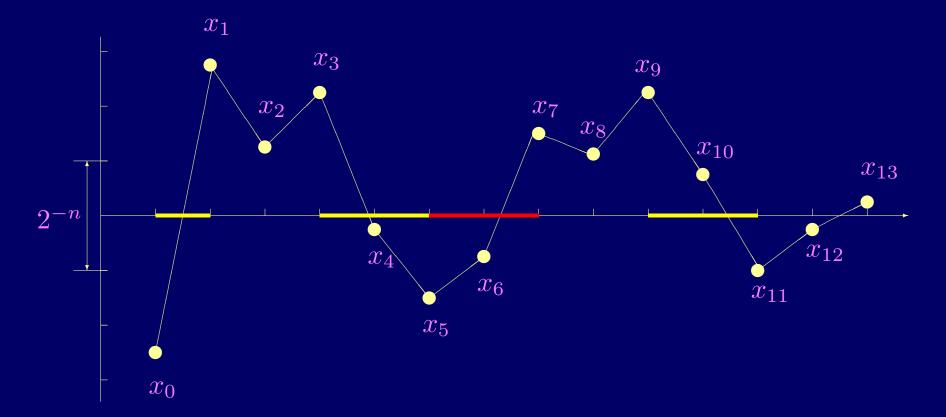
Jumps of a Sequence

A jump of size α of a sequence (x_s) is an index-pair (i, j) with $|x_i - x_j| = \alpha$.



Jumps of a Sequence

A jump of size α of a sequence (x_s) is an index-pair (i, j) with $|x_i - x_j| = \alpha$.



The index-pairs (0,1), (3,5), (5,7), (9,11) are four non-overlapping jumps of the size larger than 2^{-n} .

Definition.

- A sequence converges h-bounded, if it has at most h(n) non-overlapping jumps of size larger than 2^{-n} for all n.
- A real x is called h-bc (bounded computable) if there is an h-bounded computable sequence of rationals which converges to x.
- A real x is called C-bc if there is an $h \in C$ and an h-bounded computable sequence of rationals which converges to x. (C-BC)

- DCE $\subsetneq o(2^n)$ -BC. (Open problem: DCE = C-BC for some C??)
- g-BC \neq h-BC iff the difference |g(n) h(n)| is unbounded.
- C-BC is a filed if C contains the constant functions and successor function and is closed under the addition and composition.

Definition.

- A sequence converges h-bounded, if it has at most h(n) non-overlapping jumps of size larger than 2^{-n} for all n.
- A real x is called h-bc (bounded computable) if there is an h-bounded computable sequence of rationals which converges to x.
- A real x is called C-bc if there is an $h \in C$ and an h-bounded computable sequence of rationals which converges to x. (C-BC)

- DCE $\subsetneq o(2^n)$ -BC. (Open problem: DCE = C-BC for some C??)
- g-BC \neq h-BC iff the difference |g(n) h(n)| is unbounded.
- C-BC is a filed if C contains the constant functions and successor function and is closed under the addition and composition.

Definition.

- A sequence converges h-bounded, if it has at most h(n) non-overlapping jumps of size larger than 2^{-n} for all n.
- A real x is called h-bc (bounded computable) if there is an h-bounded computable sequence of rationals which converges to x.
- A real x is called C-bc if there is an $h \in C$ and an h-bounded computable sequence of rationals which converges to x. (C-BC)

- $\mathsf{DCE} \subsetneq o(2^n)$ - BC . (Open problem: $\mathsf{DCE} = C$ - BC for some C??)
- g-BC \neq h-BC iff the difference |g(n) h(n)| is unbounded.
- C-BC is a filed if C contains the constant functions and successor function and is closed under the addition and composition.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005] $x \in DBC$ iff there is a total computable function $h : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ and a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges h-bounded to x. That is DBC = C-BC where C is the set of all total computable functions.

- **DBC** divergence bounded computable
- Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005]
- DBC is a field;
- **DBC** is strictly between the classes **DCE** and **CA**;
- DBC is the closure of the class DCE under total computable real functions.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005] $x \in DBC$ iff there is a total computable function $h : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ and a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges h-bounded to x. That is DBC = C-BC where C is the set of all total computable functions.

- **DBC** divergence bounded computable
- Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005]
- DBC is a field;
- **DBC** is strictly between the classes **DCE** and **CA**;
- DBC is the closure of the class DCE under total computable real functions.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005] $x \in DBC$ iff there is a total computable function $h : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ and a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges h-bounded to x. That is DBC = C-BC where C is the set of all total computable functions.

DBC — divergence bounded computable

- DBC is a field;
- **DBC** is strictly between the classes **DCE** and **CA**;
- DBC is the closure of the class DCE under total computable real functions.

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2005] $x \in DBC$ iff there is a total computable function $h : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ and a computable sequence (x_s) of rationals which converges h-bounded to x. That is DBC = C-BC where C is the set of all total computable functions.

DBC — divergence bounded computable

- DBC is a field;
- DBC is strictly between the classes DCE and CA;
- DBC is the closure of the class DCE under total computable real functions.

Convergence-Dominated Reducibility

Definition. [Rettinger and Z. 2018] x is CD-reducible to y ($x \leq_{CD} y$) if there is a monotone total computable real function h with h(0) = 0 and two computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rationals with $\lim x_s = x$, $\lim y_s = y$ and

$$(\forall s) (|x - x_s| \le h(|y - y_s|) + 2^{-s})$$

(Extended Solovay: $(\forall s) (|x - x_s| \le c(|y - y_s| + 2^{-s})))$

Lemma. $x \leq_{CD} y$ iff there is a computable function $h : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ and two computable sequences (x_s) and (y_s) of rationals with $\lim x_s = x$, $\lim y_s = y$ and

$$(\forall s, n) \left(|y - y_s| \le 2^{-h(n)} \Longrightarrow |x - x_s| \le 2^{-n} + 2^{-s} \right)$$

Theorem. [Rettinger and Z. 2018] 1. $x \leq_S^2 y \Longrightarrow x \leq_{CD} y$

2. $x \in \mathsf{DBC} \iff x \leq_{CD} \Omega$, i.e. $\mathsf{DBC} = \mathrm{DC}(\leq_{DC} \Omega)$

Equivalent Characterizations of DBC

The class of **DBC** can be equivalently characterized in the following ways.

- Computable closure of **DBC**
- Computable closure of **CE**
- Class of d.b.c. reals (DBC = C-BC for computable function class C)
- Class of reals which are CD-reducible to Ω .

Regarding the Turing degrees, we have

- There exists Δ_2^0 degree which has no d.b.c real numbers.
- There exists d.b.c. degree which has no d-c.e. real numbers.

Equivalent Characterizations of DBC

The class of **DBC** can be equivalently characterized in the following ways.

- Computable closure of **DBC**
- Computable closure of **CE**
- Class of d.b.c. reals (DBC = C-BC for computable function class C)
- Class of reals which are CD-reducible to Ω .

Regarding the Turing degrees, we have

- There exists Δ_2^0 degree which has no d.b.c real numbers.
- There exists d.b.c. degree which has no d-c.e. real numbers.

Equivalent Characterizations of DBC

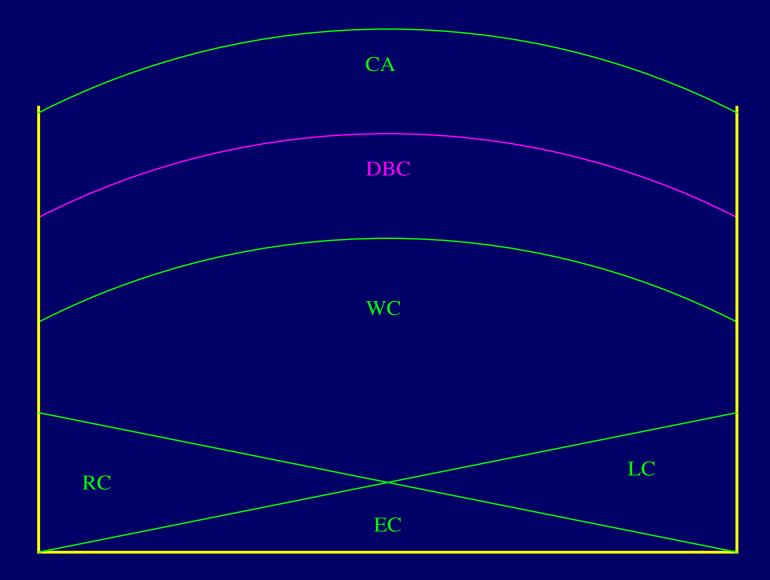
The class of **DBC** can be equivalently characterized in the following ways.

- Computable closure of **DBC**
- Computable closure of **CE**
- Class of d.b.c. reals (DBC = C-BC for computable function class C)
- Class of reals which are CD-reducible to Ω .

Regarding the Turing degrees, we have

- There exists Δ_2^0 degree which has no d.b.c real numbers.
- There exists d.b.c. degree which has no d-c.e. real numbers.

A Finite Hierarchy



1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:

- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

EC

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

 $\begin{array}{cc} \mathsf{EC} & \subsetneq & \mathsf{LC} \\ \mathsf{RC} \end{array}$

3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:

- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

$$\mathsf{EC} \ \subsetneq \ \frac{\mathsf{LC}}{\mathsf{RC}} \ \subsetneq \mathsf{SC}$$

3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:

- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

$$\mathsf{EC} \ \subsetneq \ \frac{\mathsf{LC}}{\mathsf{RC}} \ \subsetneq \mathsf{SC} \ \subsetneq \mathsf{WC}$$

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

$$\mathsf{EC} \ \subsetneq \ \frac{\mathsf{LC}}{\mathsf{RC}} \ \subsetneq \mathsf{SC} \ \subsetneq \mathsf{WC} \ \subsetneq \mathsf{DBC}$$

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

$$\mathsf{EC} \ \ \, \subseteq \ \, \frac{\mathsf{LC}}{\mathsf{RC}} \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{SC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{WC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{DBC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{CA}$$

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

$$\mathsf{EC} \ \ \, \subseteq \ \, \frac{\mathsf{LC}}{\mathsf{RC}} \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{SC} \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{WC} \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{DBC} \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{CA}$$

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- h-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

$$\mathsf{EC} \ \ \, \subseteq \ \, \frac{\mathsf{LC}}{\mathsf{RC}} \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{SC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{WC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{DBC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{CA}$$

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- h-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|).$
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

$$\mathsf{EC} \ \ \, \subseteq \ \, \frac{\mathsf{LC}}{\mathsf{RC}} \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{SC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{WC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{DBC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{CA}$$

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

$$\mathsf{EC} \ \ \, \subseteq \ \, \frac{\mathsf{LC}}{\mathsf{RC}} \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{SC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{WC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{DBC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{CA}$$

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

$$\mathsf{EC} \ \ \, \subsetneq \ \, \frac{\mathsf{LC}}{\mathsf{RC}} \ \, \subsetneq \mathsf{SC} \ \, \subsetneq \mathsf{WC} \ \, \subsetneq \mathsf{DBC} \ \, \subsetneq \mathsf{CA}$$

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

1. Computability theory of real numbers is a subarea of a more comprehensive research area CCA (Computability and Complexity in Analysis). (http://cca-net.de/.)

2. The following classes of real numbers are explored in this talk:

$$\mathsf{EC} \ \ \, \subseteq \ \, \frac{\mathsf{LC}}{\mathsf{RC}} \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{SC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{WC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{DBC} \ \ \, \subseteq \mathsf{CA}$$

- 3. There are further, also infinite, hierarchies of the class CA:
- the Ershov type hierarchies;
- *h*-monotone computability $(m > n \Longrightarrow |x x_m| \le h(n)|x x_n|)$.
- Turing degree hierarchies.
- etc.

Thank you very much

