REDUCIBILITIES IN
RECURSIVE FUNCTION THEORY
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ABSTRACT

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In this dissertation some reducibilities of recursive function theory are analyzed, with particular emphasis on the relationships between many-one reducibility and various kinds of truth-table reducibility.

In the first section, the theory of cylinders as developed by Rogers is given. Then the notion of "R-cylinder" is defined for any reducibility R, and the properties of R-cylinders are studied.

In the second section, the R-cylinders are characterized for many kinds of truth-table reducibilities. The characterizations are employed to prove that not every btt-degree has a maximum m-degree and several similar theorems. It is also shown that there are r.e., non-recursive, noncreative sets A such that $A \preceq_m A$.

In the third section, it is pointed out that the reducibilities mentioned in the second section differ in general on the r.e. sets, but theorems are proved to show that they occasionally coincide under special hypotheses.

In the fourth section, the notion of "semirecursive set" is introduced and studied. It is shown that there are semirecursive sets in every tt-degree and hyperimmune semirecursive sets in every r.e. non-recursive T-degree. It is proved that the p-degree of a semirecursive set consists of a single m-degree, where p-reducibility is as defined in section two. Priority constructions are used to prove that it is possible to have r.e. semirecursive sets A and B such that A join B is not semirecursive and r.e. sets A and B such that B is semirecursive, A is not semirecursive, and $A \preceq_B B$. Finally it is shown that immune semirecursive sets are hyperimmune, not hyperhyperimmune and in $E_1$ in the arithmetical hierarchy and that retraceable or effectively immune semi-recursive sets are co-r.e.

In the final section it is shown that the m-degrees of $A, A \preceq A, \ldots$ are all distinct for sets A such that A is simple but not hypersimple or $\bar{A}$ is immune, non-hyperimmune and retraced by a total function. From this it follows that every nonrecursive tt-degree has infinitely many m-degrees and every r.e. nonrecursive T-degree has infinitely many r.e m-degrees. It is also proved that every r.e. T-degree has an r.e. m-degree consisting of a single 1-degree. The theorems on r.e. non-recursive T-degrees depend on a construction of Yates for simple but not hypersimple sets and use the propositional calculus as a tool. These theorems seem to be bound together by the fact that if A is simple but not hypersimple, then $\{x | D_x \subset A\}$ acts in many ways like a creative set. Finally, the notion of "inverse R-cylinder" is defined and shown to be relevant only for m-reducibility.
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SECTION 0 PRELIMINARIES

The principal purpose of this dissertation is to study the relationships between various reducibilities, standard and otherwise, of recursive function theory. This study is carried out with the aid of the concept of "R-cylinder," the priority method of Friedberg, the notion of a "semirecursive set," and the propositional calculus. Among the theorems to be proved are the fact that not every btt-degree contains a maximum m-degree, the fact that every nonrecursive tt-degree contains infinitely many m-degrees, and the fact that every r.e. nonrecursive T-degree contains infinitely many r.e. m-degrees as well as an r.e. m-degree consisting of a single 1-degree.

It is assumed that the reader is familiar with elementary recursive function theory. Our notation, terminology, and point of view all follow closely those of Rogers [14]. In particular, proofs will be informal, and Church's Thesis will be freely used. Also, it is assumed that the reader is thoroughly familiar with the s-m-n theorem and the projection theorem (cf. Rogers [14]), as these theorems will be freely, and often tacitly, applied.

We now give some of the notations to be used.

N is the set of all nonnegative integers.

Functions, denoted f, g, h, ..., are mappings from N to N.

Partial functions, denoted \( \tau^N \), are mappings from a subset of N into N.

Sets, denoted A, B, C, ..., are subsets of N.

\( \overline{A} \) (the complement of A) is N - A.
Numbers (or integers) denoted $u,v,w, \ldots$ are elements of $\mathbb{N}$.

$A \leq_{\mathbf{m}} B$ means $(\exists$ recursive $f) \left( \forall x \right) \left[ x \in A \iff f(x) \in B \right]$.

$A \leq_{\mathbf{m}} B$ via $f$ means $f$ is recursive and $(\forall x) \left[ x \in A \iff f(x) \in B \right]$.

$A \leq_{\mathbf{1}} B$ means $(\exists$ recursive 1-1 $f) \left( \forall x \right) \left[ x \in A \iff f(x) \in B \right]$.

$A \leq_{\mathbf{1}} B$ via $f$ means $f$ is a 1-1 recursive function and $(\forall x) \left[ x \in A \iff f(x) \in B \right]$.

If $x = 2^{x_1} + 2^{x_2} + \ldots + 2^{x_n}$, where the $x_i$ are distinct, $D_x = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}; D_0 = \emptyset$

(Thus, given $x$, one may effectively write down a complete listing of the finite set $D_x$.)

The set $A$ is **immune** if $A$ is infinite but has no infinite r.e. subset.

The set $A$ is **hyperimmune** if $A$ is infinite and there is no recursive function $f$ such that for all $x$ and $y$, $(x \neq y) \Rightarrow D_f(x) \cap D_f(y) = \emptyset$

and $D_f(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset$

$f$ witnesses that $A$ is not hyperimmune if $f$ is recursive and, for all $x$ and $y$, $(x \neq y) \Rightarrow D_f(x) \cap D_f(y) = \emptyset)$ and $D_f(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset$

A is **simple** if $A$ is r.e. and $\overline{A}$ is immune.

A is **hypersimple** if $A$ is r.e. and $\overline{A}$ is hyperimmune.

$f$ witnesses that $A$ is not hypersimple if $f$ witnesses that $A$ is not hyperimmune.

$A \times B$ is the set-theoretic cartesian product of $A$ and $B$.

$\langle A, B \rangle$ is the ordered pair formed from $A$ and $B$.

For the following definitions, suppose that a 1-1 recursive function $\gamma$ from $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ onto $\mathbb{N}$ (a pairing function) has been fixed.
\[ \langle x, y \rangle = \tau(x, y) \]

\[ A \times B = \{ \langle x, y \rangle \mid x \in A \text{ and } y \in B \} \] ("the cartesian product of \( A \) and \( B \))

\[ A_1 \times A_2 \times \ldots \times A_n = (A_1 \times (A_2 \times (A_3 \times \ldots \times A_n))) \]

\[ \text{A join } B = \{ 2x \mid x \in A \} \cup \{ 2x + 1 \mid x \in B \} \]

\( \varphi_x \) is the \( x \)th partial recursive function in a standard Gödel numbering.

\( W_x \) is the domain of \( \varphi_x \)

A set \( A \) is productive if there exists a partial recursive function \( \psi \) such that, for all \( x \), \( W_x \subseteq A \Rightarrow \psi(x) \) defined and \( \forall x \in A \cdot W_x \).

A set \( B \) is creative if \( B \) is r.e. and \( \overline{B} \) is productive.

A set \( A \) is co-blah just in case \( \overline{A} \) is blah. (Example: \( A \) is cofinite means that \( \overline{A} \) is finite.)

\( |A| \) is the cardinality of the set \( A \).

Classes, denoted \( \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C} \), are collections of sets of integers.

\( \mathcal{P} \) is class of all subsets of \( \mathbb{N} \).

\( \lambda x \left[ f(x) \right] \) is the function \( f \).

\( f^n(x) = \underbrace{f \circ \ldots \circ f}_{n \text{ times}}(x); \ f^0(x) = x \)
SECTION 1. R-CYLINDERS

In this section, the notion of R-cylinder will be defined for any reducibility R. This concept will be used to prove that not every btt-degree has a maximum m-degree, in contrast to the situation for tt-reducibility. The special case of cylinders for m-reducibility, as developed by Rogers [14], will be developed before the general case to provide motivation and tools for the general case.

DEFINITION 1.1 (Rogers) A set A is a cylinder if there exists a set B such that $A \equiv_1 B \times N$.

THEOREM 1.2 (Rogers) Let A be any set.

(i) $A \leq_1 A \times N$

(ii) $A \times N \leq_m A$

(iii) A is a cylinder $\iff (C) \left[ C \leq_m A \Rightarrow C \leq_1 A \right]$ $\iff A \times N \leq_1 A$

Proof.

(i) $A \leq_1 A \times N$ via $\lambda x [\langle x, 0 \rangle]$

(ii) $A \times N \leq_m A$ via $\lambda \langle x, y \rangle [x]$

(iii) First suppose that A is a cylinder, and let B be any set with $A \equiv_1 B \times N$. Assume that $C \leq_m A$. Then $C \leq_m A \equiv_m B \times N \leq_m B$.

Let $C \leq_m B$ via $f$. Then $C \leq_1 B \times N$ via $\lambda x [\langle f(x), x \rangle]$. It follows that $C \leq_1 A$, which was to be shown.

Now assume that for every C if $C \leq_m A$, the $C \leq_1 A$. By (ii), $A \times N \leq_m A$. Therefore, $A \times N \leq_1 A$, which was to be shown.
Finally assume that $A \times N \preceq A$. Since $A \preceq A \times N$ by (i), it follows that $A \equiv A \times N$, so that $A$ is a cylinder. \hfill \text{qed.}

**COROLLARY 1.3** (Rogers) $A \preceq_m B \iff A \times N \preceq_1 B \times N$

**Proof** First suppose $A \preceq_m B$. Then,

$$A \times N \preceq_m A \preceq_m B \preceq_1 B \times N$$

So $A \times N \preceq_m B \times N$. But $B \times N$ is a cylinder, so by (ii),

$$A \times N \preceq_1 B \times N$$

Conversely, suppose $A \times N \preceq_1 B \times N$. We have

$$A \preceq_1 A \times N \preceq_m B \times N \preceq_m B$$

Therefore $A \preceq_m B$. \hfill \text{qed.}

The Corollary shows that $m$-reducibility can be characterized in terms of $1$-reducibility and in fact that there is a canonical homomorphism from the ordering of $m$-degrees to the ordering of $1$-degrees which is given by mapping each $m$-degree to the maximum $1$-degree in the $m$-degree.

The next theorem gives a useful characterization of cylinders due to Young [20]. A similar characterization can be found in Rogers [14].

**THEOREM 1.4** (Young) $A$ is a cylinder iff there exists a recursive function $h$ such that, for all $x$, $W_{h(x)}$ is infinite, and

$$(x \in A \Rightarrow W_{h(x)} \subseteq A) \text{ and } (x \not\in A \Rightarrow W_{h(x)} \subseteq \overline{A})$$

**Proof** First suppose that $A$ is a cylinder, and $A \times N \preceq_1 A$ via $f$. Let $h$ be a recursive function such that, for all $x$,

$$W_{h(x)} = f(\{x\} \times N)$$
Then $h$ has the desired properties.

Conversely, assume that $h$ has the properties stated in the theorem. Let $C$ be any set such that $C \leq_m A$. It will be shown that $C \leq_1 A$. Assume that $C \leq_m A$ via $f$, and define the recursive function $g$ by induction as follows:

$$
g(0) = f(0)
$$

$$
. . .
$$

$$
g(m + 1) = \text{the first number } y \text{ found in an effective listing of } W_{hf(m + 1)} \text{ such that } y \notin \{g(0), g(1), \ldots, g(m)\}
$$

Then $C \leq_1 A$ via $g$. qed.

Rogers [14] has developed an analogue to the above theory in which tt-reducibility takes the place of $m$-reducibility. This and several other examples will be considered in the framework now to be introduced.

DEFINITION 1.5 A reducibility is a transitive binary relation between sets of integers such that for all sets $A$ and $B$

$$
A \leq_1 B \Rightarrow \langle\langle A, B \rangle\rangle \in R.
$$

NOTATIONS 1.6

(i) If $R$ is a reducibility, $A \leq_R B$ shall mean $\langle\langle A, B \rangle\rangle \in R$.

(ii) The letters $R, S,$ and $T$ shall be understood to range over reducibilities.

The definition of $R$-cylinder is based on (iii) of theorem 1.2.
DEFINITION 1.7 An R-cylinder is a set $A$ such that

$$(B) \ [B \leq_{R} A \Rightarrow B \leq_{1} A]$$

Thus, every set is a 1-cylinder, and the $m$-cylinders are just the cylinders.

DEFINITION 1.8

(i) $A \equiv_{R} B$ means $A \leq_{R} B$ and $B \leq_{R} A$.

(ii) An R-degree is an equivalent class of the equivalence relation $\equiv_{R}$.

DEFINITION 1.9 A reducibility $R$ is cylindrical if every R-degree contains an R-cylinder.

1-reducibility is trivially cylindrical, and $m$-reducibility is cylindrical by theorem 1.2. An example of a non-cylindrical reducibility would be the trivial reducibility in which all sets are interreducible. Indeed this reducibility has no cylinders. But later we shall see that some "natural" reducibilities are not cylindrical.

DEFINITION 1.10 If $R$ is a cylindrical reducibility and $A$ is a set, then $A^{R}$ ("the R-cylindrification of $A"$) denotes the 1-degree of any R-cylinder in the R-degree of $A$. ($A^{R}$ must clearly be unique.)

---

1 For particular cylindrical reducibilities $R$, $A^{R}$ will often denote, by abuse of notation, a particular R-cylinder in the R-degree of $A$ which can be found from $A$ in a natural way. For example $A^{1} = A$ and $A^{n} = A \times N$. 
With this machinery, it is easy to prove an analogue to theorem 1.2.

**THEOREM 1.11** Let $R$ be a cylindrical reducibility.

(i) $A \leq R A$

(ii) $A \leq R A$

(iii) $A$ is an $R$-cylinder $\iff A \leq R A$

\[ A \equiv R B \text{ for some } B \]

(iv) $A \leq R B \iff A \leq R B$

(v) $A \leq R B \iff (C \mid (C \text{ an } R \text{-cylinder and } B \equiv C) \Rightarrow A \equiv C)$

**Proof** Parts (i) - (iv) are either obvious from definitions or are proved just as in theorem 1.2 and corollary 1.3.

To prove part (v), first assume $A \leq R B$. Let $C$ be any $R$-cylinder, and assume that $B \equiv C$. We have

$A \leq R B \leq C$

so $A \leq R C$. Since $C$ is an $R$-cylinder, it follows that $A \equiv C$.

Conversely, assume that $A$ is 1-1 reducible to every $R$-cylinder to which $B$ is 1-1 reducible. Then, in particular, $A \leq R B$, so

$A \leq R B$.

qed.

---

2 The statements of (i) - (iv) involve an obvious abuse of notation which is unimportant because of the assumption that $A \equiv B \Rightarrow A \equiv R B$. 
COROLLARY 1.12 If two cylindrical reducibilities $S$ and $T$ have the same cylinders, i.e., if

$$\text{(C) } \{C \text{ is an } S\text{-cylinder} \iff C \text{ is a } T\text{-cylinder}\}$$

Then $S = T$.

Proof Immediate from (v) qed.

Part (v) also suggests a way of obtaining a reducibility $R$ from a given class of sets which are to be $R$-cylinders.

DEFINITION 1.13 Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a class of sets. Define a binary relation $R(\mathcal{A})$ on sets of integers by

$$\langle A, B \rangle \in R(\mathcal{A}) \iff (C) [A \& B \perp C \Rightarrow A \perp B]$$

If $R$ is a reducibility, let $C(R)$ denote $\{C | C \text{ is an } R\text{-cylinder}\}$

If $R$ and $S$ are reducibilities $R$ is weaker than $S$ ($S$ is stronger than $R$) if $S \subseteq R$, i.e., if

$$\forall A \forall B [A \perp B \Rightarrow A \perp R B]$$

For example, if $\mathcal{A}$ is the class of all cylinders $R(\mathcal{A})$ is $m$-reducibility. If $\mathcal{A}$ is empty, the $R(\mathcal{A})$ is the reducibility in which any two sets are interreducible. If $\mathcal{A}$ is the collection of all finite sets, then it is easy to verify that

$$\langle A, B \rangle \in R(\mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow |A| = |B|$$

LEMMA 1.14

(i) For any $\mathcal{A}$, $R(\mathcal{A})$ is a reducibility

(ii) $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow R(\mathcal{B}) \supseteq R(\mathcal{A})$ for any classes $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$.

(iii) $S \subseteq T \Rightarrow C(S) \supseteq C(T)$, for any reducibilities $S, T$.

(iv) $S \subseteq R C(S)$ for any reducibility $S$. 
(v) $a \subseteq c_R(a)$ for any class $a$.

(vi) $R(a) = R \cap R(a)$ for any class $a$.

(vii) $C(R) = C \cap C(R)$ for any reducibility $R$.

(viii) For any class $a$, $R(a)$ is the unique weakest reducibility $R$ such that every set in $a$ is an $R$-cylinder.

**PROOF** Parts i-v are immediate from definitions.

Part vi is proved from parts i-v:

1. $a \subseteq c_R(a)$ by (v)
2. $R(a) \supseteq R \cap R(a)$ by (ii)

Also, $R(a) \subseteq R \cap R(a)$ by (iv)

3. $R(a) = R \cap R(a)$

The proof of vii is dual to that of vi.

(viii) Every set in $a$ is an $R(a)$-cylinder by (v).

Now assume that every set in $a$ is an $S$-cylinder for some reducibility $S$.

Then $a \subseteq C(S)$

So $R(a) \supseteq R \subseteq S$.

**qed.**

**DEFINITION 1.15** The closure of $R$ (denoted $\overline{R}$) is $R \cap C(R)$. The closure of $a$ (denoted $\overline{a}$) is $C_R(a)$. $R$ is closed if $R = \overline{R}$ and $a$ is closed if $a = \overline{a}$.

Lemma 1.12 shows that the notion of closure defined above has some of the usual properties of closure. For instance, the closure of $a$ is the smallest closed class containing $a$. In particular $\overline{a} = \overline{a}$.

We also see from lemma 1.12 that $R$ is closed iff $R = R(a)$ for some $a$. 
Therefore, every cylindrical reducibility is closed. On the other hand the trivial reducibility in which all sets are interreducible is closed but not cylindrical.

Lemma 1.12 shows that there is a natural 1-1 correspondence between closed reducibilities and closed classes that is in some ways analogous to the correspondence between the intermediate fields of a Galois extension and the closed subgroups of the Galois group which is studied in Galois theory. However, a basic difference between the two theories is that the closure operator defined here is not a Kuratowski closure operator, i.e. we do not get a topology on \( \mathcal{Z} \) from the above definition of "closed class". The problem is that, although arbitrary intersections of closed classes are closed, it is not always true that finite unions of closed sets are closed. To see this, let \( A \) be any set and define

\[
\mathcal{A} = \{ B \mid B \subseteq A \}.
\]

It is claimed that \( \mathcal{A} \) is closed. Well,

\[
C \subseteq R(A) \iff (D \subseteq A \implies C \subseteq A).
\]

Thus the reducibility \( R(A) \) has two degrees, one consisting of the sets which are 1-1 reducible to \( A \) and the other consisting of the sets not 1-1 reducible to \( A \). Hence, the cylinders in the former degree must be 1-equivalent to \( A \) because they are highest 1-degree in their \( R(A) \)-degree, and the latter degree has no maximum 1-degree (and hence no \( R(A) \)-cylinders) because it is uncountable. Thus every member of \( CR(A) \) is in \( \mathcal{A} \), and \( \mathcal{A} \) is closed.
Now if \( A \) is a creative set and \( E \) is an infinite and coinfinite recursive set,

\[
E \in a_A^\cup a_{\overline{A}}
\]

For let

\[
D \leq R(a_A^\cup a_{\overline{A}}) E
\]

Then since \( E \leq A \) and \( E \leq \overline{A} \), we have by transitivity

\[
D \leq R(a_A^\cup a_{\overline{A}}) A \land D \leq R(a_A^\cup a_{\overline{A}}) \overline{A}
\]

But since \( A \) and \( \overline{A} \) are \( R(a_A^\cup a_{\overline{A}}) \)-cylinders,

\[
D \leq A, \; D \leq \overline{A},
\]

whence \( D \) and \( \overline{D} \) are r.e. so that \( D \) is recursive and \( D \leq E \). This shows that \( E \) is an \( R(a_A^\cup a_{\overline{A}}) \)-cylinder although \( D \neq R(a_A^\cup a_{\overline{A}}) \), so that \( a_A^\cup a_{\overline{A}} \) is not closed.

The definition of \( R \)-cylinder we have chosen is in some respects arbitrary. For instance, we could have defined \( A \) to be an \( R \)-cylinder just in case the 1-degree of \( A \) was maximal among the 1-degrees occurring in the \( R \)-degree of \( A \) i.e. if (B) \( [B \equiv A \land A \leq B \Rightarrow B \leq A] \), and this definition would also coincide with the definitions of Rogers for many-one and truth-table reducibilities, although it is superficially a much weaker requirement to put on \( A \). We now show that these two definitions must yield the same \( R \)-cylinders for a certain important kind of reducibility.

**Definition 1.16** \( R \) is **regular** if every set of maximal 1-degree in its \( R \)-degree is an \( R \)-cylinder.
PROPOSITION 1.17 If for all A and B, the R-degree of A join B is the l.u.b. of the R-degrees of A and B (in the partial ordering of R-degrees induced by $\leq_R$) (i.e. if join is an l.u.b. for R), then R is regular.

Proof. Assume that join is an l.u.b. for R and let A have maximal 1-degree in its R-degree. Let $B \preceq A$.

To show: $B \preceq_1 A$. We have:

$A \preceq_1 B \text{ join } A$

$B \text{ join } A \preceq_1 A$ (since join is l.u.b. for R)

So, $B \text{ join } A \preceq_1 A$ by maximality of the 1-degree of A.

Hence, $B \preceq_1 A$.

Thus, A is an R-cylinder, which is the desired conclusion. qed.

The converse to the above proposition is false, for 1-reducibility is trivially regular, although join does not give a l.u.b. for 1-reducibility. On the other hand, any reducibilities other than $\preceq_1$ which have been discussed in the literature do have join as a l.u.b.

Also, a wide class of 'closed' reducibilities as defined in definition 1.15 have join as an l.u.b.

PROPOSITION 1.18 If R is closed and weaker than $\preceq_m$, then join is an l.u.b. for R.

Proof. Since join gives a 1-upper bound, join is an upper bound operation for any reducibility R. Thus it suffices to show that

$A \preceq_C, B \preceq_C \Rightarrow A \text{ join } B \preceq_C$.

under the above hypotheses.
Let \( R = R(A) \). Suppose \( A \preceq_R C \) and \( B \preceq_R C \). Let \( D \subseteq A \) and \( C \preceq_D D \).

To show:

\[(A \text{ join } B) \preceq_D D.\]

Since \( D \) is an \( R \)-cylinder, and \( A \) and \( B \) are each \( R \)-reducible to \( D \),

\[A \preceq_D D \text{ and } B \preceq_D D\]

Therefore, \( A \text{ join } B \preceq_D D \) since join is a l.u.b. for \( m \)-reducibility.

But since \( D \) is an \( R \)-cylinder and \( R \) is weaker than \( m \)-reducibility, \( D \) is a cylinder, so

\[A \text{ join } B \preceq_D D.\]

qed.

Proposition 1.17 and 1.18 show that every closed reducibility weaker than \( m \)-reducibility is regular. I do not know whether proposition 1.18 is true without the hypothesis that \( R \) is closed.

The collection of all classes (of sets) forms a lattice under class inclusion. We shall now show that the reducibilities also form a lattice in a natural way and investigate the connection between these lattices.

**Definition 1.19**

\( A \preceq_{m} B \) means \( A \preceq_{R} B \) and \( A \preceq_{m} B \)

\( A \preceq_{m} B \) means that for some finite sequence of sets \( C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_n \)

\( A = C_1, B = C_n \) and for each \( i, 1 \leq i \leq n-1, C_i \preceq_R C_{i+1} \) or \( C_i \preceq_m C_{i+1} \).

**Proposition 1.20** \( R \cap S \) and \( R \text{ join } S \) are reducibilities. \( R \cap S \) is the weakest reducibility stronger than both \( R \) and \( S \) and \( R \text{ join } S \) is the strongest reducibility weaker than both \( R \) and \( S \).

**Proof** Immediate qed.
Of course, proposition 1.18 just says that the set of reducibilities forms a lattice with join as its l.u.b. operation and intersection as its g.l.b. operation when it is partially ordered under the relation "weaker than."

**PROPOSITION 1.21**

(i) \( C(R_1 \text{ join } R_2) = C(R_1) \cap C(R_2) \)

(ii) \( R(a \cup \emptyset) = R(a) \cap R(\emptyset) \)

(iii) If \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \) are closed, \( C(R_1 \cap R_2) = C(R_1) \cup C(R_2) \)

(iv) If \( a \) and \( \emptyset \) are closed, \( R(a \cap \emptyset) = R(a) \text{ join } R(\emptyset) \)

**Proof** (i). Clearly, \( C(R_1 \text{ join } R_2) \subseteq C(R_1) \cap C(R_2) \), since \( R_1 \text{ join } R_2 \) is weaker than \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \). Now suppose that \( A \) is an \( R_1 \)-cylinder and an \( R_2 \)-cylinder, and let \( B \subseteq R_1 \text{ join } R_2 A \). To show that \( A \) is an \( R_1 \text{ join } R_2 \)-cylinder, it must be shown that \( B \subseteq A \). By definition of \( R_1 \text{ join } R_2 \), there is a finite sequence \( C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_n \) such that \( B \subseteq C_1 \), \( A \subseteq C_n \), and for each \( i \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n-1 \),

\( C_i \subseteq R_i C_{i+1} \) or \( C_i \subseteq R_n C_{i+1} \). We will show by induction on \( i \) that \( C_i \subseteq A \).

\( C_1 \subseteq A \) since \( C_1 = A \). Now assume \( C_i \subseteq A \), where \( 1 \leq i \leq n-1 \). Assume \( C_{i+1} \subseteq R_i C_i \). (The other case is the same.)

Then by transitivity \( C_{i-1} \subseteq R_i A \). Thus \( C_i + 1 \subseteq A \). Thus in particular, \( C_n \subseteq A \), i.e., \( B \subseteq A \).

The proof of (ii) is immediate and (iii) and (iv) follow from (ii) and (i) respectively.
SECTION 2. EXAMPLES AND APPLICATIONS OF R-CYLINDERS

In this section, we shall mostly be concerned with various reducibilities of the truth-table type. It will turn out that R-cylinders have convenient characterizations for such reducibilities. These reducibilities will be defined using propositional formulas rather than truth-table conditions.

DEFINITION 2.1 A propositional formula (or, simply, formula) is a statement built up in the usual way from statement letters \( P_n(n \in \mathbb{N}) \) and the propositional connectives \( \lor, \land, \neg \) ("or", "and", and "not", respectively).

We assume that we have fixed an effective coding from the set of formulas onto \( \mathbb{N} \). In fact, formulas will often be identified with their code numbers.

DEFINITION 2.2

(i) A propositional formula \( \varphi \) is true of a set \( A \), just in case \( \varphi \) is true in the interpretation in which each \( P_n \) is true iff \( n \in A \).

(Example: \( P_5 \lor P_7 \) is true of \( A \) iff \( 5 \in A \) or \( 7 \in A \))

(ii) The norm of a formula \( \varphi \) (\( \text{norm} \)) is \( \{ n | P_n \text{ occurs in } \varphi \} \).

There are two natural ways to obtain a reducibility from a set of connectives. These are given in the following definition.

\[ \text{Most of the theorems to follow do not depend at all on this particular selection of connectives. However, the word "connective" as used here, will always mean one of the three connectives } \lor, \land \text{ and } \neg. \]
DEFINITION 2.3 Let $U$ be a set of connectives. Define two binary relations on sets of integers by:

$\langle A, B \rangle \preceq \sqrt{(U)} \iff (\exists$ recursive $f)(\exists m)(\forall x) \left[ \text{every connective in } f(x) \text{ is in } U \text{ and } (x \in A \iff f(x) \text{ is true of } B) \right]$

$\langle A, B \rangle \in \mathcal{B}(U) \iff (\exists$ recursive $f)(\exists m)(\forall x) \left[ \text{every connective in } f(x) \text{ is in } U \text{ and } \|f(x)\|_m \text{ and } (x \in A \iff f(x) \text{ is true of } B) \right]$ \footnote{In this definition, the identification of formulas with their code numbers several times.}

THEOREM 2.4 For any set $U$ of connectives, $\sqrt{(U)}$ and $\mathcal{B}(U)$ are reducibilities weaker than $\leq_m$. Also $\sqrt{(U)}$ & $\mathcal{B}(U)$ have join as a l.u.b. operation.

Proof First suppose $A \leq_m B$. It will be shown that $\langle A, B \rangle \in \mathcal{B}(U)$.

Let $A \leq_m B$ via $f$. Then $x \in A \iff f(x) \text{ is true of } B$.

Since $f(x)$ involves no connectives and has norm 1, we see that $\langle A, B \rangle \in \mathcal{B}(U)$ and hence $\langle A, B \rangle \in \sqrt{(U)}$.

Now suppose that $\langle A, B \rangle \in \sqrt{(U)} \& \langle B, C \rangle \in \sqrt{(U)}$. Let $f$ and $g$ be recursive functions such that

$(x \in A \iff f(x) \text{ is true of } B) \text{ and } f(x) \text{ uses only connectives from } U$

$(x \in B \iff g(x) \text{ is true of } C) \text{ and } g(x) \text{ uses only connectives from } U$.

Now let $h(x)$ be the code number for the formula obtained by substituting for every statement letter $P_n$ occurring in the formula $f(x)$ the formula with code number $g(n)$. It is immediate to verify that, for all $x,$
$(x \in A \iff h(x)$ is true of $C)$ and $h(x)$ uses only connectives from $U$.

Therefore $\langle A, C \rangle \in \mathcal{V}(U)$ so $\mathcal{V}(U)$ is a transitive relation.

The above proof also shows that $\mathcal{O}(U)$ is a transitive relation, so each relation is a reducibility weaker than $\mathcal{A}_m$. It is immediate to show that join l.u.b. operation for $\mathcal{O}(U)$ and $\mathcal{V}(U)$.

The above definitions yield ten reducibilities. All have been studied in the literature. The following table names the reducibilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{V}(v, \land v)$</td>
<td>truth-table reducibility</td>
<td>tt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{O}(v, \land v)$</td>
<td>bounded truth-table reducibility</td>
<td>btt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{V}({v, \land v})$</td>
<td>positive reducibility</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{O}({v, \land v})$</td>
<td>bounded positive reducibility</td>
<td>bp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{V}({\land v})$</td>
<td>conjunctive reducibility</td>
<td>c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{O}({\land v})$</td>
<td>bounded conjunctive reducibility</td>
<td>bc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{V}({v})$</td>
<td>disjunctive reducibility</td>
<td>q</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{O}({v})$</td>
<td>bounded disjunctive reducibility</td>
<td>bq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{V}({\neg v}) = \mathcal{O}({\neg v})$</td>
<td>norm-1 reducibility</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{V}(\phi) = \mathcal{O}(\phi)$</td>
<td>many-one reducibility</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\mathcal{V}$, $\mathcal{O}$, and $\mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{I}}$-reducibilities were introduced by Post in [13].

$^3$A positive formula is one which uses only the connectives $\land$ and $\lor$. 

q-reducibility and n-reducibility were introduced by Rogers [14]. The remaining reducibilities have been studied by Lachlan in [10] (with somewhat different terminology) and the writer.

We now characterize the R-cylinders for these reducibilities.

Let A be a set. Each connective "operates" on A as follows:

\[ A_\neg = \{ m \mid \neg P_m \text{ is true of } A \} = \overline{A} \]
\[ A_\land = \{ \langle m, n \rangle \mid P_m \land P_n \text{ is true of } A \} = A \times A \]
\[ A_\lor = \{ \langle m, n \rangle \mid P_m \lor P_n \text{ is true of } A \} = \overline{A} \times \overline{A} \]

**LEMMA 2.5** For any connective ε, 

\[ A_\epsilon \leq \mathfrak{A}(\langle \epsilon \rangle)A \]

**Proof**

\[ A_\neg \leq \mathfrak{A}(\langle \neg \rangle)A \text{ via } \lambda \neg[-P_n] \]
\[ A_\land \leq \mathfrak{A}(\langle \land \rangle)A \text{ via } \lambda \langle m, n \rangle [P_m \land P_n] \]
\[ A_\lor \leq \mathfrak{A}(\langle \lor \rangle)A \text{ via } \lambda \langle m, n \rangle [P_m \lor P_n]. \]

q.e.d.

**THEOREM 2.6** Let U be a set of connectives, and let A be any set.

(i) \( \sqrt{U} \) is cylindrical. If A \( \neq N \), the cylindrification of A is given by

\[ A^{\sqrt{U}} = \{ x \mid \text{every connective in } x \text{ is in } U \text{ and } x \text{ is true of } A \} \times N \]

(ii) The following statements are equivalent:

(a) A is a cylinder and \( A_\epsilon \leq \mathfrak{A}_mA \) for each connective \( \epsilon \) in U

(b) A is a \( \sqrt{U} \)-cylinder

(c) A is a \( \mathfrak{A}(U) \)-cylinder

(iii) \( \mathfrak{A}(U) = \sqrt{U} \)

4 The use of the word "via" is extended to truth-table reducibilities in the obvious way here.
(i) Suppose \( A \neq N \). It will be shown that \( A^{\mathcal{V}(U)} \) is the \( \mathcal{V}(U) \)-cylindrification of \( A \). \( A \models_{A^{\mathcal{V}(U)}} \lambda x[<x,x,0>] \). Let \( a' \notin A \), and define \( h \) by

\[
h(x) = \begin{cases} 
  x & \text{if every connective in } x \text{ is in } U \\
  a' & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

Then \( A^{\mathcal{V}(U)} \models h \), so \( A^{\mathcal{V}(U)} \models A \).

Now it must be shown that \( A^{\mathcal{V}(U)} \) is a \( \mathcal{V}(U) \)-cylinder.

Suppose \( B \models_{A^{\mathcal{V}(U)}} A^{\mathcal{V}(U)} \). Then, since \( A^{\mathcal{V}(U)} \models_{\mathcal{V}(U)} A \), there is a recursive function \( f \) such that \( f(x) \) uses only connectives from \( U \) and

\[
x \in B \iff f(x) \text{ is true of } A
\]

Then \( B \models_{A^{\mathcal{V}(U)}} A^{\mathcal{V}(U)} \) via \( \lambda x[f(x),x] \). Therefore \( A^{\mathcal{V}(U)} \) is a \( \mathcal{V}(U) \)-cylinder.

It may also be checked that \( N \) may be \( R \)-cylindrified as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
N^p &= N^c = N^q = N^m = N \\
N^{tt} &= N^n = \{2x \mid x \in N\}
\end{align*}
\]

(ii) \((a) \Rightarrow (b)\). Assume that \( A \) is a cylinder and \( A \neq m \) for each connective \( \varepsilon \) in \( U \). Assume also that \( A \neq N \), since the case \( A = N \) can be checked separately.\(^5\)

\(^{5}\) The exceptional case that \( A = N \) would not appear anywhere if we used, for each set \( U \) of connectives, an effective coding from the formulas having only connectives in \( U \) onto \( N \).
To show that $A$ is a $\mathcal{V}(U)$-cylinder, it is sufficient to show that $A \mathcal{V}(U) \subseteq A$, and therefore, since $A$ is a cylinder, it is sufficient to show that

\[
\{ x \mid \text{every connective in } x \text{ is in } U \text{ and } x \text{ is true of } A \} \subseteq m \ A.
\]

If $\neg \in U$, let $A_{\neg} \equiv A$ via $f$. If $\lor \in U$, let $A_{\lor} \equiv A$ via $g$.

If $\land \in U$, let $A_{\land} \equiv A$ via $h$.

Let $a' \not\in A$.

A recursive function $k$ will now be defined to give the desired reduction. If the formula $x$ has some connective not in $U$, define $k(x) = a'$. $k(x)$ is defined for other arguments by induction on the number of connectives in the formula $x$. If $x$ has no connectives, so that $x$ is some $P_n$, define $k(x) = n$. Assume now that $k(y)$ has been defined for all formulas $y$ having at most $m$ connectives, all in $U$, and that $k(x)$ has $m + 1$ connectives, all in $U$. Then define

\[
k(x) = \begin{cases} f(k(y)) & \text{if } x = \neg y \\ g(\langle k(y), k(z) \rangle) & \text{if } x = y \lor z \\ h(\langle k(y), k(z) \rangle) & \text{if } x = y \land z \end{cases}
\]

It is now immediate to verify by induction on the number of quantifiers in $x$ that every connective in $x$ is in $U$ and $x$ is true of $A \iff k(x) \in A$ so that $k$ furnishes the desired reduction.

(b) $\implies$ (c). Trivial.

(c) $\implies$ (a). Assume that $A$ is a $\mathcal{B}(U)$-cylinder. Then $A$ is a cylinder since $\mathcal{B}(U)$ is weaker than $m$-reducibility. Also, by lemma 2.5, $A \in \mathcal{B}(\{ \epsilon \}) \subseteq A$ for each $\epsilon \in U$. Thus, since $A$ is a $\mathcal{B}(U)$-cylinder, $A_\epsilon \subseteq A$ for each $\epsilon \in U$. 


(iii) Since $\mathcal{V}(U)$ is cylindrical, $\mathcal{V}(U)$ is closed. By (ii)
\[ C(\mathcal{V}(U)) = \mathcal{V}(U) \]
Therefore
\[ \mathcal{B}(U) = R C(\mathcal{B}(U)) = R C(\mathcal{V}(U)) = \mathcal{V}(U) = \mathcal{V}(U) \]
q.e.d.

Since $A_e$ is "easily calculable" for each connective $e$, the above theorem gives a convenient characterization of the $R$-cylinders for each reducibility $R$ which has been considered. For instance:

$C$ is a tt-cylinder $\iff C$ is a btt-cylinder $\iff C \times C \leq m C \leq m C$ and $C$ is a cylinder.

Thus, by theorem 1.11, it gives a method of defining each of these reducibilities from its cylinders, without referring to formulas or truth-tables. For instance,

$A \leq B \iff (C) \ [ (C \times C \leq m C \leq m C \times N \leq C \leq B \leq C) \implies A \leq C ]$

Finally, the theorem shows that the reducibility $\mathcal{V}(U)$ can be obtained in a "natural way" from the reducibility $\mathcal{B}(U)$.

**Definition 2.7** A set $A$ is $R$-complete if $A$ is r.e. and $B \leq A$ for every r.e. set $B$.

**Corollary 2.8** Let $U$ be any set of connectives.

(i) Each $\mathcal{B}(U)$-degree contains a maximal 1-degree iff
\[ \mathcal{B}(U) = \mathcal{V}(U). \]

(ii) There are btt, bp, bc and bq degrees which have no maximal 1-degrees.

**Proof**
(i) Suppose that each $\mathcal{B}(U)$-degree contains a maximal 1-degree.
Then, since join is an l.u.b. for $\Theta(U)$, each set of maximal 1-degree in its $\Theta(U)$ degree is a $\Theta(U)$-cylinder by proposition 1.17, so each $\Theta(U)$-degree has a $\Theta(U)$-cylinder. Therefore $\Theta(U)$ is cylindrical.

Since $\sqrt(U)$ is also cylindrical, $\Theta(U)$ and $\sqrt(U)$ are cylindrical reducibilities having the same cylinders and are thus identical.

Conversely, assume $\Theta(U) = \sqrt(U)$. Then, since $\sqrt(U)$ is cylindrical, each $\Theta(U)$ degree contains a maximal 1-degree.

(ii) Post 113) constructs a simple set $S^*$ which is c-complete and proves that no simple set is btt-complete. It follows immediately that,

$$tt \neq btt$$

$$p \neq bp$$

$$c \neq bc$$

Since $A \leq B$ iff $\bar{A} \leq \bar{B}$, it follows also that $bq \neq q$. qed.

The question of whether every btt-degree contains a maximal 1-degree is due to Rogers.

Although the definitions of various reducibilities R given in this section is convenient for the development of the theory of R-cylinders, a different kind of formulation, suggested by Rogers, is often more useful in applications. This will be given now.

**DEFINITION 2.9**

$D'_x$ is $D_x$ if $x \neq 0$; $D'_0$ is $\{0\}$.

**THEOREM 2.10**

(i) $A \leq B \iff (\exists$ recursive $f) (\forall x) [x \leq A \iff D'_f(x) \subseteq \Phi]$
(ii) \( A \iff B \iff (\exists \text{ rec. } f)(\forall x) [x \in A \iff (\exists y) [y \in D^1_f(x) \& D^1_y \subseteq B]] \)
\( \iff (\exists \text{ rec. } f)(\forall x) [x \in A \iff (\forall y) [y \in D^1_f(x) \Rightarrow D^1_y \cap B \neq \emptyset]] \)

(iii) \( A \iff B \iff (\exists \text{ rec. } f)(\exists m)(\forall x) [x \in A \iff (\exists y) [y \in D^1_f(x) \& D^1_y \subseteq B]] \)
\( \iff (\exists \text{ rec. } f)(\exists m)(\forall x) [x \in A \iff (\forall y) [y \in D^1_f(x) \& D^1_y \subseteq B]] \)

(iv) (Rogers) \( A \iff B \iff (\exists \text{ rec. } f)(\forall x) [x \in A \iff (\exists u)(\exists v) [\langle u, v \rangle \in D^1_f(x) \& D^1_u \subseteq B \& D^1_v \subseteq B]] \)

(v) \( A \iff B \iff (\exists \text{ rec. } f)(\exists m)(\forall x) [x \in A \iff (\exists u)(\exists v) [\langle u, v \rangle \in D^1_f(x) \& D^1_u \subseteq B \& D^1_v \subseteq B]] \)

(vi) \( A \iff B \iff (\exists \text{ rec. } f)(\forall x) [x \in A \iff f(x) \subseteq B \text{ join } B] \)

**Proof** For all parts, observe that \( P_{x_1} \land P_{x_2} \land \ldots \land P_{x_n} \) is true of \( A \iff D^1 \subseteq A \) where \( D^1 = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\} \)

Similar statements can be made for formulas involving only disjunction or only negation.

(i) is immediate by the above remark.

(ii) will follow from the above remark if it can be shown that every positive formula (i.e. formula using only \( \land \) and \( \lor \)) is equivalent both to a conjunction of disjunctions of statement letter and to a disjunction of conjunctions of statement letters. But both of these facts follow from an easy induction on the number of connectives in the positive formula.

(iii) follows by the same argument as (ii).

(iv) and (v) follow from the fact that every propositional formula is equivalent to a disjunction of formulas, each of which is a conjunction of statement letter and negation of statement letters.
(vi) is immediate, qed.

Of course, similar characterizations could have been given for any reducibility that has been introduced above. The reducibilities in the theorem are those which have the most relevance for this paper.

**COROLLARY 2.11** \( A \leq_p B, B \text{ r.e.} \Rightarrow A \text{ r.e.} \)

**Proof.** Immediate from (ii) and the projection theorem. qed.

**COROLLARY 2.12** (cf. definition 1.19).

(i) \( q \ join c = p \)

\( bq \ join bc = bp \)

\( n \ join c = n \ join q = n \ join p = tt \)

\( n \ join bc = n \ join bq = n \ join bp = btt \)

(ii) If \( V \) and \( W \) are sets of connectives, then \( \sqrt{V} \ join \sqrt{W} = \sqrt{V \cup W} \)

\( \mathcal{B}(V) \ join \mathcal{B}(W) = \mathcal{B}(V \cup W) \)

**Proof**

(i) \( q \ join c < p \), trivially. Suppose \( A \leq_p B \). Then by the theorem,

\[ A \leq \{ x | D_x \cap B \neq \emptyset \} \leq_p B \]

Therefore, \( A \leq_q \ join < c \). Thus \( q \ join c = p \). Similarly, \( bq \ join bc = bp \)

Now suppose \( A \leq_{tt} B \). Then, by the theorem,

\[ A \leq_p B \ join \bar{B} \leq_n B \]

\[ \]

This statement, unlike the rest in this section, appears to depend on the choice of \( \neg V \) and \( A \) as basic connectives. The writer has not explored the question of whether an analogue to (ii) holds for an arbitrary selection of connectives.
Therefore, $A \leq_{join_p} B$. Thus $tt \subset n$ join $p$.

Now it will be shown that $p \subset c$ join $n$. Suppose $A \leq_p B$.

Then

$$A \leq_{\subseteq_c} \{ x \mid D_x' \cap B \neq \emptyset \} \leq_{\subseteq_n} \{ x \mid D_x' \cap B \neq \emptyset \} = \{ x \mid D_x' \subseteq B \} =_{\subseteq_c} \overline{B} \equiv_{n} B$$

Therefore $A \not\leq_{c,join_n} B$, so $p \subset c$ join $n$.

Thus $tt \subset n$ join $p \subset c$ join $n = n$ join $c$. Since $n$ join $c = tt$ trivially, it follows that $n$ join $c = n$ join $p = tt$. Similarly, $n$ join $q = tt$. The statements for btt follow by the same argument.

(ii). (i) shows that all non-trivial instances of (ii) are true. qed.

It will be shown later that it is not necessarily true that

$$\mathcal{V}(V) \cap \mathcal{V}(W) = \mathcal{V}(V \cup W)$$

or $\mathcal{B}(V) \cap \mathcal{B}(W) = \mathcal{B}(V \cap W)$

and, in particular, that $m \not\leq bq \cap bc$.

The following four theorems concern $c$-reducibility.

**THEOREM 2.13** (Fischer) If $S^*$ is the simple $tt$-complete set constructed by Post, then $S^* \times S^* \not\leq_m S^*$. Thus $m$-reducibility and btt-reducibility differ on the r.e. nonrecursive sets.

**Proof** It follows immediately from Post's construction of $S^*$ that $S^*$ is $c$-complete, so that if $A$ is any r.e. set, $A \leq_c S^*$. Now assume that $S^* \times S^* \not\leq_m S^*$. Then by the characterization of $c$-cylinders, it follows that $A \not\leq_m S^*$, for any r.e. set $A$, so that $S^*$ is $m$-complete and thus creative. This contradicts the fact that $S^*$ is simple, so it follows that $S^* \times S^* \not\leq_{btt} S^*$. Since $S^* \times S^* \not\leq_{btt} S^*$, it follows that $m$-reducibility and btt-reducibility differ on the r.e.
nonrecursive sets.

Remark. The above theorem shows that if $A$ is any $c$-complete noncreative set, then $A \times A \not\equiv_m A$. Another generalization of this theorem, to be proved in section 5, is that if $A$ is any set which is simple but not hypersimple, then $A \times A \not\equiv_m A$.

**THEOREM 2.14** Every $c$-degree contains a set $A$ such that $A \times A \not\equiv_m A$.

Thus there are r.e. sets $A$ which are neither recursive nor creative such that $A \times A \not\equiv_m A$.

**Proof** Every $c$-degree contains a set $A$ such that $A \times A \not\equiv_m A$ since $c$-reducibility is cylindrical. In particular, the $c$-degree of a hypersimple set $B$ contains a set $A$ such that $A \times A \not\equiv_m A$. $A$ is r.e., but $A$ is not recursive since $B$ is not recursive, and $A$ is not creative since $B$ is not tt-complete and thus not $c$-complete.

Remark The above example answers a question of P.R. Young in [19].

A set of formulas in a first-order language is called a **theory** if every formula deducible from formulas in the set is itself in the set. A set of integers is called a **theory** if it is the image of a theory under some 1-1 effective coding from a first-order language onto the integers. As Rogers has pointed out in [14], if $B$ is a theory, then $B \times B \not\equiv_m B$; for if $\sigma_1$ and $\sigma_2$ are formulas of the language of the theory, then $\sigma_1$ and $\sigma_2$ are both in the theory iff the conjunction $\sigma_1 \land \sigma_2$ is in the theory. Also, it is easy to see from Young's characterization of cylinders that every theory is a cylinder. Hence every theory is a $c$-cylinder.
Feferman has shown that if $A$ is any non-empty set, then there is a theory $B$ such that $A \leq B$ and $B \leq A$. Hence every non-empty c-cylinder is isomorphic to a theory, and, therefore, every non-empty c-cylinder is a theory. Since no theory can be empty, it follows that the theories are precisely the non-empty c-cylinders. The result can be stated in more standard terminology as follows: $A$ is $m$-equivalent to some theory iff $A$ is non-empty and $A \times A \equiv_m A$.

**Theorem 2.15** $A$ is a c-cylinder iff $A \times A \equiv_A A$ and $|A| \neq 1$.

**Proof** If $A$ is a c-cylinder, then since $A \times A \equiv_A A$ and $A$ is a cylinder, $A \times A \equiv_A A$. Also, since $A$ is a cylinder, $|A| \neq 1$.

Now assume that $A \times A \equiv_A A$ via $f$, and $|A| \neq 1$. If $A$ is empty, $A$ is certainly a c-cylinder. So assume $A \neq \emptyset$, and let $m$ and $n$ be distinct members of $A$. An infinite r.e. subset of $A$ is defined as follows:

$$S_0 = \{m, n\}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$S_{n+1} = S_n \times S_n$$

$$B = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} S_n$$

It is clear by induction that each $S_n$ is a subset of $A$, so that $B$ is a subset of $A$. Also, since $f$ is 1-1, $|S_{n+1}| = |S_n|^2$. Thus, since $|S_0| = 2$, $B$ is infinite. Now let $g$ be a recursive function such that

$$W_g(x) = f(\{x\} \times B)$$

$W_g(x)$ is infinite since $B$ is infinite and $f$ is 1-1. Also

$$(x \in A \Rightarrow W_g(x) \subseteq A) \land (x \notin A \Rightarrow W_g(x) \subseteq \overline{A}).$$

Thus $W_g(x)$ witnesses that $A$ is a cylinder by Young's characterization. Therefore $A$ is a c-cylinder, since $A \times A \equiv_m A$. 

qed.
The above characterization could be applied to yield alternative
descriptions of R-cylinders for reducibilities other than
c-reducibility (such as tt-reducibility).

We now consider R-cylinders for a few reducibilities other than
the truth-table reducibilities discussed before.

The writer knows of no good characterization of T-cylinders.
Rogers [14] has shown that if K is a creative set, then no T-cylinders
lie above K in the T-ordering. Hence the closure of T-reducibility
has a maximum degree containing K, and T-reducibility certainly is not
closed. On the other hand Martin (unpublished) has shown that if
B \leq_T A, and there is no hyperimmune set in the T-degree of A, then
B \leq_{tt} A. Thus if A is a tt-cylinder and the T-degree of A has no
hyperimmune sets, A is a T-cylinder. Martin has also shown that
nonrecursive T-degrees exist which contains no hyperimmune sets, so
that nonrecursive T-cylinders do exist. It may be that the
T-cylinders are just the tt-cylinders which have hyperimmune-free
T-degree.\(^8\)

**DEFINITION 2.16** \(A \leq_T B\) iff \((\exists \varphi \text{ p.r. } T)(\forall x) [x \in A \iff \varphi(x) \text{ cgt. } \& \varphi(x) \in B].\)

This reducibility is introduced to facilitate the discussion of
i-reducibility which will follow. If one defines

\[ A^j = \{ x \mid \varphi_x(0) \text{ cgt. } \& \varphi_x(0) \in A \} \]

Then \(A^j\) is a j-cylindrification of A, and A is a j-cylinder iff \(A \equiv A^j\).

---

\(^8\)(Added in proof) It is easy to verify that the T-cylinders are
just the tt-cylinders of hyperimmune-free T-degree. The proof also
shows that every T-degree either consists of a single tt-degree or
contains infinitely many tt-degrees.
For,
\[ A^j \equiv_j A \text{ via } \lambda x[ \varphi_x(0) ] \]
and \( A \equiv A^j \text{ via } f \), where \( f \) is a 1-1 recursive function
such that, for all \( x \) and \( y \),
\[ \varphi_f(y) = x. \]
Now, if \( B \equiv A \text{ via } \gamma \), and \( f \) is a recursive function such that
\[ \varphi_f(y) = \begin{cases} 
\gamma(x) & \text{if } \gamma(x) \text{ cgt.} \\
\text{dgt.} & \text{otherwise} 
\end{cases} \]
Then \( x \in B \iff \gamma(x) \text{ cgt.} \) \& \( \gamma(x) \in A \iff \varphi_f(x)(0) \text{ cgt.} \) \& \( \varphi_f(x)(0) \in A \iff f(x) \in A^j \)
so \( B \equiv A^j \) via \( f \).
Thus, \( B \equiv_i A^i \Rightarrow B \equiv j A \Rightarrow B \equiv A^j \), so that \( A^j \) is a \( j \)-cylinder in the \( j \)-degree of \( A \).

**DEFINITION 2.17** \( A \equiv_i B \) (\( A \) is isolically reducible to \( B \)) if
\[ (\exists \text{ p.r. } 1-1 \gamma)(\forall x)[x \in A \iff (\gamma(x) \text{ cgt.} \& \gamma(x) \in B)] \]
Using Young's characterization of cylinders, it is easy to show that
\[ A \equiv_i B, \text{ } B \text{ a cylinder} \Rightarrow A \equiv_i B \]
Hence if \( A \) is a cylinder, \( A^j \) is an \( i \)-cylinder in the \( i \)-degree of \( A \).
However, if \( A \) is immune, then \( A^j \) is not in its \( i \)-degree, for every set \( i \)-reducible to an immune set is immune. I do not know whether any (or all) immune sets are \( i \)-equivalent to \( i \)-cylinders. In fact, the only \( i \)-cylinders I know of are the \( j \)-cylinders and the finite sets.
SECTION B REDUCIBILITIES ON THE R.E. SETS

It was mentioned in section 2 that many of the reducibilities defined there differed on the r.e. sets. Actually, it may be shown that the ten reducibilities defined in the table on page 22 all differ on the r.e. nonrecursive sets, except that \( n \) and \( m \) coincide on these sets. Lachlan has a general theorem to this effect in [10]. The theorem is proved by a priority argument, and, of course, each instance of the theorem may be proved by a straightforward Friedberg type priority argument. These arguments will not be presented.

In this section it will be shown that \( n \) and \( m \) reducibility coincide on the nonrecursive r.e. sets and that btt and bp reducibility coincide for certain special r.e. sets. Then it will be shown by a priority argument that there are r.e. sets \( A, B \) such that

\[ A \leq_m B, \quad A \leq_n B, \quad \text{and} \quad A \not\leq_m B. \]

Thus, \( m \)-reducibility is not the intersection of bq and bc.

**PROPOSITION 3.1** Suppose that \( A \) and \( B \) are r.e. and \( \mathbb{N} \not\in B \neq \emptyset \).

Then \( A \leq_n B \Rightarrow A \leq_m B \).

**Proof** Assume \( A \) and \( B \) are as above with \( f \) a recursive function such that \( A \leq_m B \) join \( B \) via \( f \). Let \( b \in B \) and \( b' \in B \). To compute \( g(x) \), first compute \( f(x) \). If \( f(x) \) is even, let \( g(x) = \frac{f(x)}{2} \). If \( f(x) \) is odd, then \( x \in A \iff \frac{f(x)-1}{2} \notin B \), so look for \( x \) in \( A \) and look for \( \frac{f(x)-1}{2} \) in \( B \) by effectively listing these sets. If \( x \) is found in \( A \), set \( g(x) = b \). If \( \frac{f(x)-1}{2} \) is found in \( B \), set \( g(x) = b' \). Then \( g \) is a recursive function, and \( A \leq_m B \) via \( g \).

**DEFINITION 3.2** (Friedberg) A set \( A \) is maximal if \( A \) is r.e. and coinfinite and for every r.e. set \( C \), either \( C \cap \overline{A} \) or \( \overline{C} \cap \overline{A} \) is finite.
THEOREM 3.3 If \( A \) is a maximal set and \( A \leq_{\text{btt}} B \), where \( B \) is r.e., then \( A \leq_{\text{bp}} B \).

Proof Assume the hypotheses of the theorem. Since \( A \leq_{\text{btt}} B \), there is a recursive function \( f \) and a number \( m \) such that for all \( x \)

\[
x \in A \iff (\exists u)(\exists v)[ <u,v> \in D_f(x) \land D_u \subseteq B \land D_v \subseteq \overline{B}] \land | U D_u U D_v | \leq m
\]

The function \( f \) exists by part (iv) of theorem 2.9 and the observation that the sets \( D_x \) may be used in place of the \( D'_x \) in that part of the theorem.

Define

\[
N(f) = \sup \{ \langle u,v \rangle | \langle u,v \rangle \in D_f(x) \land D_v \neq \emptyset \}
\]

\( N(f) \) ("the negativity of \( f \" ) measures, in a sense, the extent to which \( f \) fails to be a positive truth table reduction. In particular, if \( N(f) \) is zero, \( f \) immediately yields a bounded positive reduction, since in that case all the \( D' \)'s such that \( \langle u,v \rangle \) occur in any \( D_f(x) \) are empty. Thus the theorem holds if \( f \) has negativity zero. Now assume that the theorem holds for all \( f \)'s which btt-reduce \( A \) to \( B \) as above and have negativity \( n \). Let \( f' \) have negativity \( n+1 \), and assume \( A \leq_{\text{btt}} B \) via \( f' \) as above. Define a partial recursive function \( \gamma \) by

\[
\gamma(x) = \begin{cases} 
\text{the least } \langle u,v \rangle \text{ such that } \langle u,v \rangle \in D_f(x) \land v \neq 0, & \text{if such exists} \\
\text{divergent, otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

(The element \( \langle u,v \rangle \) will be "removed" from \( D_f(x) \) to yield a reduction of lower negativity.)
Define the "projection functions" $\pi_1$ and $\pi_2$ to be $\lambda <x,y>[x]$ and $\lambda <x, y>[y]$ respectively.

Let $C = \{x | \Psi(x) \text{ convergent } \& C_{\pi_2}\omega \cap B \neq \emptyset\}$

Since $C$ is r.e., either $C \cap \bar{A}$ is finite or $\bar{C} \cap A$ is finite.

**Case 1.** $C \cap \bar{A}$ is finite. Define a recursive function $f$ by

$$D_f(x) = \begin{cases} D_{\pi_2}(x) & \text{if } \Psi(x) \text{ dgt. (i.e. if } D_{\pi_2}(x) \text{ is "positive"}) \\ (D_{\pi_2}(x) - \{\Psi(x)\}) \cup \{\pi_1\Psi(x), 0\} & \text{if } \Psi(x) \text{ cgt. } \& x \notin C \cap \bar{A} \\ E & \text{if } x \in C \cap \bar{A} \end{cases}$$

where $E$ is a fixed positive "truth-table condition" which is false of $B$ such as

$$\{<2^b, 0>\}$$

where $b \notin B$.

$f$ is recursive since $C \cap \bar{A}$ is finite and the domain of $\Psi$ is recursive. From the definition of $C$, $A \preceq_B \bar{B}$ via $f$. Also, $f$ has negativity at most $n$. Hence, by the induction assumption, $A \preceq_B \bar{B}$.

**Case 2.** $C \cap \bar{A}$ is finite. A recursive function $g$ will be defined by the following instructions. Given $x$, see if $x \in C \cap \bar{A}$. If so, give output 0. If not, then $x \in C \cup A$. Simultaneously list $C$ and $A$ until $x$ appears in one or the other. Give output 1 if $x$ first appears in $C$ and output 2 if $x$ first appears in $A$. Now define $f$:

$$D_f(x) = \begin{cases} E & \text{if } g(x) = 0 \\ D_{\pi_2}(x) - \{\Psi(x)\} & \text{if } g(x) = 1 \\ F & \text{if } g(x) = 2 \end{cases}$$
where \( E \) is a fixed positive \( tt \)-condition false of \( B \) as in case 1 and \( F \) is a fixed positive \( tt \)-condition true of \( B \). \( f \) gives a reduction of \( A \) to \( B \), by the definition of \( C \).

\[ N(f) \leq n, \text{ so } A \leq_{bp} B. \]

Thus the theorem has been proved for all reductions of finite negativity, so it certainly holds for all bounded truth table reductions. qed.

It will be shown in section 4 that the following analogue to theorem 3.3. fails:

\[ A \text{ maximal, } B \text{ r.e., } A \leq_{tt} B \Rightarrow A \leq_{p} B \]

It can also be shown that it is not true that

\[ A \text{ hypersimple, } B \text{ r.e., } A \leq_{hyp} B \Rightarrow A \leq_{bp} B. \]

**THEOREM 3.4** There are r.e. sets \( A, B \) such that

\[ A \leq_{bc} B, A \leq_{bp} B, \text{ and } A \neq_{m} B. \]

**Proof** The sets \( A \) and \( B \) will be such that, for all \( x \)

\[ x \in A \iff (4x \not\in B \text{ and } 4x + 1 \in B) \]

and

\[ x \in A \iff (4x + 2 \not\in B \text{ or } 4x + 3 \in B) \]

Hence \( A \leq_{bc} B \) and \( A \leq_{bp} B \).

A straightforward priority construction of the Friedberg type will be used to ensure that \( A \neq_{m} B. \) We imagine that we have two infinite vertical lists of \( N \) which will be called the \( A \)-list and the \( B \)-list. We also have symbols "+" and "-" which can be associated with members of the \( A \)-list and the \( B \)-list as the construction proceeds. Finally, we have a movable marker \( [i] \) for each \( i \in N \) which can be
associated with numbers in the A-list and which can be moved to larger numbers in the A-list as the construction proceeds.

The construction will be given inductively by stages, and A and B will be defined by

\[
A = \{ x \mid x \text{ receives a "+" in the A-list at some stage} \}
\]
\[
B = \{ x \mid x \text{ receives a "+" in the B-list at some stage} \}
\]

The purpose of the movable marker \( j \) is to prevent \( \varphi_j \) from yielding an \( m \)-reduction of A to B. In particular, if \( j \) is associated with a number \( a_j \) in the A-list, the construction will try to ensure that

\[
a_j \in A \iff \varphi_j(a_j) \notin B
\]

Call an integer in the A-list free if neither \( x \) nor any larger number has any mark or marker associated with it in the A-list, and neither \( 4x \) nor any larger number has any mark associated with it in the B-list.

The construction is as follows:

**Stage n** (\( n \geq 0 \))

Associate \( n \) with the least free integer in the A-list.

Let \( a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \) be the present positions of the markers \( 0, 1, \ldots, n \). Let \( j \) be the smallest number \( i \) such that \( a_i \) has neither a "+" nor a "−" in the A-list and \( \varphi_i(a_i) \) is convergent in \( n \) or fewer steps

(If no such \( i \) exists, go to stage \( n + 1 \).)
Let \( c = \mathcal{Q}_j(a_j) \) We will try to arrange that
\[
\begin{align*}
&\quad a_j \in A \iff c \notin B \\
\end{align*}
\]

**Case 1.** \( c \) has a "+" in the \( B \)-list.

Put a "-" by \( a_j \) in the \( A \)-list and a "-" by each member of \( \{ 4x, 4x + 1, 4x + 2, 4x + 3 \} \) in the \( B \)-list.

**Case 2.** \( c \) does not have a " + " in the \( B \)-List and \( c \notin \{ 4x, 4x + 1 \} \)

Put a " - " by \( c \) in the \( B \)-list and a "+" by \( a_j \) in the \( A \)-list.

Also put a "+" by each member of \( \{ 4x, \ldots, 4x + 3 \} - \{ c \} \) in the \( B \)-list.

**Case 3.** \( c = 4x \) or \( c = 4x + 1 \)

Put a "+" by \( c \) in the \( B \)-list and a "-" by \( a_j \) in the \( A \)-list.

Also put a " - " by each member of \( \{ 4x, \ldots, 4x + 3 \} - \{ c \} \) in the \( B \)-list.

In any case, if \( j \leq n \), move the markers \( k \) such that \( j \leq k \leq n \) down to free integers in the \( A \)-list.

Note that the above stage was designed so that \( \mathcal{Q}_j \) cannot give an \( m \)-reduction between \( A \) and \( B \) if the " - " symbols introduced at that stage are not disturbed by some later stage.

\( A \) and \( B \) are r.e. because, given \( n \), it is possible to determine effectively what numbers are put into \( A \) and \( B \) at stage \( n \).

\( A \leq_{BC} B \) and \( A \leq_{BC} B \) because the reductions given at the beginning of the proof hold true for the partial listings of \( A \) and \( B \) obtained at the conclusion of each stage.

Observe that a marker \( k \) is caused to move only when a marker \( j \) such that \( j \leq k \) (i.e. a marker of higher priority) is attacked (i.e. plays the role of \( j \) in the construction.) Also, a marker
is attacked at most once at a given location. Hence, by a simple inductive argument, each marker moves only finitely often and thus achieves a final resting place.

Let \( j \) be any given number. Let \( a_j \) be the final resting place of \( j \). It is easy to see that if \( \varphi_j(a_j) \) is convergent, then \( j \) must be attacked at some stage after \( j \) achieves its final resting place. Assume that \( \varphi_j(a_j) \) is convergent, and let \( n \) be a stage such that \( j \) is associated with \( a_j \) at stage \( n \) and is attacked at that stage. Then none of the "-" symbols introduced at that stage can ever be changed to "+" signs at a later stage lest \( j \) be caused to move. Thus, by the remark just after the construction, \( \varphi_j \) cannot yield an \( m \)-reduction of \( A \) to \( B \).

Therefore \( A \not\equiv_m B \). \( \text{qed.} \)

Arguments similar to the above can be used to show the distinctness of the various reducibilities of section 2 on the r.e. sets.
SECTION 4  SEMIRECURSIVE SETS

In this section, the notion of recursiveness will be generalized to that of semirecursiveness. Some existence theorems for semirecursive sets will be proved, the properties of semirecursive sets will be studied, and the information thus obtained will be applied to the study of reducibilities.

DEFINITION 4.1 A set $A$ is semirecursive if there exists a recursive function $f$ of two variables such that, for all $x$ and $y$,

( i ) $f(x,y) = x$ or $f(x,y) = y$, and

( ii ) $(x \in A \text{ or } y \in A) \Rightarrow f(x,y) \in A$.

Such a recursive function is called a selector function for $A$.

We now recall some standard definitions.

DEFINITION 4.2 (Dekker, Myhill, Tennenbaum)

( i ) Let $A$ be a set and let $a_0, a_1, \ldots$ be the members of $A$ in increasing order. $A$ is said to be retraceable if there is a partial recursive function $\Psi$ such that

$$\Psi(a_0) = a_0$$

and $\Psi(a_{i+1}) = a_i$ for each $i \geq 0$.

In such a case, $\Psi$ is called a partial retracing function for $A$.

( ii ) Let $A$ be a set, $A$ is said to be regressive if there is an enumeration $a_0, a_1, \ldots$ of $A$ and a partial recursive function $\Psi$ such that

$$\Psi(a_0) = a_0$$

and $\Psi(a_{i+1}) = a_i$ for each $i \geq 0$. 
In such a case, \( \psi \) is called a **partial regressing function** for \( A \).

It is easy to show that a retraceable set is recursive in every infinite subset and that a regressive set is recursively enumerable in every infinite subset. (See Dekker and Myhill \([3]\)). Hence every retraceable set is recursive or immune and every regressive set is r.e. or immune.

**Theorem 4.2** If \( A \) is r.e. and coregressive, then \( A \) is semirecursive.

**Proof** Suppose that \( A \) is r.e. and \( \bar{A} \) is regressive, with \( \psi \) a partial regressing function for \( \bar{A} \).

We will define a selector function \( f \): Given \( x \) and \( y \), simultaneously enumerate \( A \) and \( \{ \psi(y) \mid n \geq 0 \} \) and \( \{ \psi(x) \mid n \geq 0 \} \).

Stop the procedure the first time any one of the following occurs:

(i) \( x \) is found in \( A \)

(ii) \( y \) is found in \( A \)

(iii) \( x \) is found in \( \{ \psi(y) \mid n \geq 0 \} \)

(iv) \( y \) is found in \( \{ \psi(x) \mid n \geq 0 \} \)

If event (i) or (iv) stops the procedure, set \( f(x,y) = x \).

If event (ii) or (iii) stops the procedure, set \( f(x,y) = y \).

\( f \) is partial recursive. Also \( f \) is total, for if for some \( x \) and \( y \) the procedure never stops, then \( x \notin \bar{A} \) and \( y \notin \bar{A} \). Then it is clear from the definition of regressiveness that event (iii) or (iv) must occur. Thus \( f \) is recursive.

Now suppose \( f(x,y) \notin A \). It must be shown that \( x \notin A \) and \( y \notin A \).

Since \( f(x,y) \notin A \), \( f(x,y) \) was computed via event (iii) or event (iv).

Suppose, without loss of generality, that it was computed with event (iii). Thus \( f(x,y) = y \), so \( y \notin A \). Hence by the definition of
DEFINITION 4.4 An R-degree is r.e. \( \text{recursive} \) if it contains
an r.e. \( \text{recursive} \) set.

COROLLARY 4.5 Every r.e. nonrecursive Turing degree contains a
semirecursive hypersimple set.

Proof The hypersimple set constructed by Dekker in each r.e.
nonrecursive T-degree has been shown by Dekker and Myhill non-
traceable and thus coregressive.

We now prove a more extensive existence theorem for semirecursive
sets. The present writer introduced the notion of semirecursive set
and the following construction was first used by McLaughlin and Martin
to prove the existence of a continuum of semirecursive sets.

THEOREM 4.6 For any set \( A \), there is a set \( B \) such that \( B \) is
semirecursive, \( B \not\subseteq A \), and \( A \not\subseteq B \).

Proof Let \( A \) be given. To avoid trivial cases, assume that \( A \) is
infinite and coinfinite. Define a real number \( r \) by

\[
r = \sum_{n \in A} 2^{-n}
\]

For each integer \( x \), define a rational number \( r_x \) by

\[
r_x = \sum_{n \in D_x} 2^{-n}
\]

\( (\text{cf. definition 2.8}) \)

Define \( B = \{ x \mid r_x \leq r \} \).

Now \( B \) is semirecursive with the following selector function:

\[
f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 
x & \text{if } r_x \leq r_y \\
y & \text{if } r_y > r_x
\end{cases}
\]
To see that $B \preceq_p A$, first define a recursive function $h$ by

$$h(x) = \text{the largest member of } D_x$$

To see that $B \preceq_p A$, it will be sufficient to show that

$$x \in B \iff \text{for some } y \text{ such that } D'_y \subseteq \{0,1,\ldots,h(x)\} \& r_y \geq r_x$$

$$D'_y \subseteq A$$

Suppose $x \in B$. Let $D'_y = A \cap \{0,1,\ldots,h(x)\}$. Then, since $A$ is coinfinite, it follows from the fact that $r_x \preceq r$ and an elementary property of binary expansions, that $r \preceq r_x$ so the desired $y$ exists.

Now suppose that such a $y$ exists. Since $D'_y \subseteq A$, $r_y \preceq r_x$.

Since $r_x \preceq r_y$, it follows that $r_x \preceq r$ and so $x \notin B$.

To show that $A \preceq_{tt} B$, we will show, by induction on $n$, how to define $g(n)$ such that

$$n \in A \iff (\text{the formula}) \ g(n) \text{ is true of } B$$

The induction will be uniform in $n$, so $g$ will be recursive and it will follow that $A \preceq_{tt} B$.

$$0 \in A \iff r \geq 1 \iff 1 \in B \quad (\text{since } r = \sum_{n \in D'_y \neq \emptyset} 2^n = 1)$$

So let $g(0)$ be a code number for the formula "$P_1".

Now assume that $g(0), g(1), \ldots, g(n-1)$ have all been defined.

Let $D_1, D_2, \ldots, D_k$ be a list of all subsets of

$$\{0,1,\ldots,n-1\}$$. To make the procedure definite, assume $x_1 < x_2 < \ldots < x_k$.

Now,

$$n \in A \iff A \cap \{0,1,\ldots,n-1\} = D_{x_1} \& y_1 \in B \quad (\text{where } D_{y_1} = D_{x_1} \cup \{n\})$$

or

$$\vdots$$

or

$$A \cap \{0,1,\ldots,n-1\} = D_{x_k} \& y_k \in B \quad (\text{where } D_{y_k} = D_{x_k} \cup \{n\})$$
The above statement follows from the same reasoning about binary expansions that was used to show \( B \leq_r A \). Now by the induction assumption, for each \( i \) the statement "\( A \cap \{0,1,\ldots,n-1\} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i \)" can be uniformly translated into an equivalent statement about \( B \). Now let \( g(n) \) be the code number for the formula obtained from the right hand side of the above equivalence when these equivalent formulas are substituted in. This completes the induction. \( \text{qed.} \)

**COROLLARY 4.7** (i) (McLaughlin, Martin) There exist \( 2^{\aleph_0} \) semirecursive sets.

(ii) Every r.e. tt-degree contains an r.e. semirecursive set.

**THEOREM 4.8** The following statements are equivalent.

(i) \( A \) is semirecursive.

(ii) \( \overline{A} \times A \) and \( \overline{A} \times \overline{A} \) are recursively separable.

(iii) (3 rec. h) \( (\forall x) [D_x \cap A \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow h(x) \in D_x \cap A] \).

(iv) (McLaughlin, Appel) [unpublished] \( A \) is the lower half of of a cut in a recursive linear ordering of \( N \) (i.e. there is a recursive ordering linear \( \leq_0 \) of \( N \) such that \( y \leq A, x <_0 y \Rightarrow x \leq A \).)

**Proof** (i) \( \Leftrightarrow \) (ii) and (iii) \( \Rightarrow \) (i) are trivial. Thus it will be sufficient to show that (i) \( \Rightarrow \) (iv) \( \Rightarrow \) (iii).

Assume (i), and let \( A \) be semirecursive with a selector function \( f \). A function \( g \) mapping the integers 1-1 into the rationals will be defined such that there are recursive functions \( f_1, f_2, \) and \( f_3 \) with \( g(x) = (-1)^{f_1(x)} \frac{f_2(x)}{f_3(x)} \). Then the desired recursive ordering will be
defined by

\[ x \leq_0 y \iff g(x) \leq g(y) \]

\[ g(n) \text{ is defined by induction on } n. \]

Define \( g(0) = 0 \)

Now assume that \( g(0), g(1), \ldots, g(n) \) are all defined. Let \( x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n \) be the integers from 0 to \( n \) arranged in such a way that \( g(x_0) < g(x_1) < \ldots < g(x_n) \).

Case 1. \( f(n + 1, x_0) = n + 1 \) Then define \( g(n + 1) = g(x_0) - 1 \).

Case 2. \( f(n + 1, x_n) = x_n \) Then define \( g(n + 1) = g(x_n) + 1 \).

Case 3. Neither case 1 nor case 2 applies. Then let \( j \) be the largest number \( i \) such that \( f(n, x_i) = n \) Then define \( g(n + 1) = \frac{g(x_i) + g(x_{i+1})}{2} \)

Note that \( j \) exists and is less than \( n \) because neither case 1 nor case 2 applies.

This completes the definition of \( g \). The recursive ordering \( \leq_0 \) is defined as above. It is straightforward to verify by induction on \( \max \{ x, y \} \) that

\[ y \in A, x \leq_0 y \Rightarrow x \in A \]

Thus (iv) is proved.

Now assume (iv), and let \( \leq_0 \) be a recursive linear ordering of \( N \) such that \( A \) is the lower half of a cut in \( \leq_0 \). Let \( h(x) \) be the least member under \( \leq_0 \) of \( D_x \) if \( D_x \) is non-empty and 0 if \( D_x \) is empty. Then \( h \) is a recursive function, and

\[ D_x \cap A \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow h(x) \in D_x \cap A \]

Thus (iii) is proved. It should be noted that (iii) can also be proved directly from (i) without difficulty by defining \( h(x) \) inductively on the cardinality of \( D_x \).

qed.
The following theorem gives some simple properties of semi-recursive sets.

**THEOREM 4.9** Let \( A \) be semirecursive and let \( B \) be any set. Then,

(i) \( A \equiv_\mu A \times A, \overline{A} \equiv_\mu A \times A \)

(ii) \( B \leq \mu A \Rightarrow B \leq \mu A \)

(iii) \( B \leq \mu A \Rightarrow B \) semirecursive

(iv) The positive degree of \( A \) consists of a single \( m \)-degree.

(v) \( A \) immune \( \Rightarrow \) \( A \) hyperimmune

(vi) \( A \) immune \( \Rightarrow \) \( A \) recursive

**Proof** Let \( f \) be a selector function for \( A \) for remainder of proof.

(i) \( A \times A \equiv_\mu A \) via \( f \), or more precisely, via \( \lambda <x,y>[f(x,y)] \).

Thus \( \overline{A} \times A \equiv_\mu A \). The complement of \( A \) is also semirecursive, so \( A \times A \equiv_\mu A \).

(ii) By (i) and theorem 2.6 \( A \times N \) is a p-cylinder. Thus (ii) follows.

(iii) Assume \( B \neq \mu A \). Then \( B \neq \mu A \) by (ii). Let \( B \equiv_\mu A \) via \( g \).

Define \( h \):

\[
h(x,y) = \begin{cases} 
x & \text{if } f(g(x),g(y)) = g(x) \\
y & \text{if } f(g(x),g(y)) + g(x) \end{cases}
\]

Then \( h \) is a selector function for \( B \), so \( B \) is semirecursive.

(iv) Assume \( B \equiv \mu A \). To show: \( B \equiv_\mu A \). By (ii) \( B \equiv_\mu A \) by (iii), \( B \) is semirecursive. Hence by (ii) (applied with \( B \) and \( A \) interchanged), \( A \equiv_\mu B \).

(v) Assume that \( A \) is infinite and not hyperimmune. To show: \( A \) is not immune. Let \( k \) be a recursive function such that \( D_k(x) \) witnesses the non-hyperimmunity of \( A \) i.e., for all \( x \) and \( y \)

\[
D_k(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset \text{ and } (x \neq y) \Rightarrow (D_k(x) \cap D_k(y) = \emptyset)
\]
Let $h$ be a recursive function such that
\[ D \cap A \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow h(x) \in A. \]
Then since for each $x$, $hk(x) \in D_k(x) \cap A$, the function $hk$ is a 1-1 recursive function with range a subset of $A$, so $A$ is not immune.

(vi) Suppose $A \leq_p \overline{A}$. Then $A \leq_m \overline{A}$ by (ii). Let $A \leq_m \overline{A}$ via $g$.
Then
\[ x \in A \iff f(x, g(x)) = x \]
Hence $A$ is recursive.

Many facts about reducibilities can now be deduced immediately from the preceding theorem and the constructions at the beginning of this section.

**COROLLARIES 4.10**

(i) Each tt-degree contains a p-degree consisting of a single m-degree.

(ii) Each r.e. tt-degree contains an r.e. p-degree consisting of a single m-degree.

(iii) No p-complete set is semirecursive.

(iv) There exists a set which is tt-complete but not p-complete.

(v) Not every nonrecursive r.e. tt-degree contains a simple semirecursive set.

(vi) (Dekker) Each simple set having a regressive complement is hypersimple.

(vii) Each tt-degree contains incomparable p-degrees.

(viii) There exist hypersimple sets $A$ such that $A \cap A$ is a cylinder.
Proof

(i) follows from theorem 4.6 and (iv) of theorem 4.9

(ii) follows from Corollary 4.7 and (iv) of theorem 4.9

(iii) Assume $A$ is $p$-complete, and let $B$ be any set which is simple but not hypersimple. $B$ is not semirecursive by (v) of 4.9. Thus, since $B$ is not semirecursive and $B \preceq_A A$, $A$ is not semirecursive by (ii) of 4.9.

(iv) By (iii), the r.e. semirecursive set in the complete $tt$-degree is not $p$-complete.

(v) Any simple set in the complete $tt$-degree would be hypersimple, violating the theorem of Post that no hypersimple set is $tt$-complete.

(vi) A simple set with a regressive complement is semirecursive by theorem 4.3 and hence hypersimple by (v) of 4.9.

(vii) The recursive $tt$-degree contains $\emptyset$ and $\mathbb{N}$, which are $p$-incomparable. Any non-recursive $tt$-degree contains a semirecursive set which is $p$-incomparable with its complement by (vi) of 4.9.

(viii) Young [19] has shown that if $A$ is simple, then $A \times A$ is a cylinder iff $A \times A \leq_m A$. Thus if $A$ is any hypersimple semirecursive set, $A \times A$ is a cylinder.

Further results of this kind can be obtained from a theorem due to Yates. This theorem will be of fundamental importance in section 5.

**Theorem 4.11** (Yates) Each r.e. nonrecursive $T$-degree contains a simple set which is not hypersimple.

Proof. See Yates [17].
COROLLARY 4.12

(i) Each r.e. nonrecursive T-degree contains an r.e. set which is not semirecursive.

(ii) Each r.e. T-degree contains at least two p-degrees.

Proof (i) follows from the theorem and (v) of 4.9

(ii) follows from (i) above, from (iii) of 4.9 and corollary 4.5.

It will be shown that hyperhyperimmune sets are not semirecursive.

The proof is a slight strengthening of an argument due to Martin.

THEOREM 4.13 (Martin) Every infinite semirecursive set has an infinite co-r.e. retraceable subset.

Proof Let A be infinite and semirecursive. We may assume that A is immune, since otherwise A has an infinite r.e. subset and hence an infinite recursive subset and the result is immediate. Suppose that A is the lower half of a cut in a recursive linear ordering \( \preceq_\alpha \) of \( \mathbb{N} \). Define

\[ B = \{ x \mid (\forall y)[ x \leq y \Rightarrow x \preceq_\alpha y] \} \]

It is claimed that B is the desired infinite co-r.e. retraceable subset of A. Clearly B is co-r.e. To show that \( B \subseteq A \), assume \( x \in B \). Let \( y \) be any member of A which is greater than \( x \). Then \( x \preceq_\alpha y \), since \( x \in B \). Therefore \( x \in A \) by the definition of "cut." Hence \( B \subseteq A \).

Let \( b_0 \) be the least member of B. (B will later be shown non-empty). Then the recursive function will be a retracing function for B:

\[ f(x) = \begin{cases} b_0 & \text{if } x \preceq b_0 \\ \text{the largest number } z \text{ such that } z \preceq x \text{ and } \\
(\forall u)[ z \preceq u \preceq x \Rightarrow z \preceq_\alpha u ], & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]
f is total since if $x > b_0$ a number $z$ with the required property, i.e., $b_0$, will exist, and hence a largest such $z$ will exist. Now suppose $x \in B$ and $z < x$. Then

$$z \in B \iff (\forall u) \left[ z \leq u \leq x \Rightarrow z \leq u \right]$$

The implication to the right is immediate from the definition of $B$ and the implication to the left follows from the fact that $x \in B$ and $\leq_0$ is transitive.

Thus $f$ maps the least member of $B$ to itself and every other member of $B$ to the next smaller member and is therefore a retracing function for $B$.

It remains to show that $B$ is infinite. Assume not. Let $j$ be a member of which $A$ is larger than every member of $B$. Now the following recursive function $g$ will enumerate an infinite r.e. subset of $A$. This will contradict the assumption that $A$ was immune.

$g$ is defined inductively:

- $g(0) = j$.
- $g(n + 1) = \text{the smallest number } y \text{ such that }$ 
  - $y > g(n)$ and $y \leq_0 g(n)$

Range $g$ is a subset of $A$ since $j \notin A$ and $g$ is a decreasing function with respect to the ordering $\leq_0$. To show that $g$ is total, assume the opposite and let $n + 1$ be the least argument for which $g$ is not defined. Then for all $y$,

$$g(n) \leq y \implies g(n) \leq_0 y \quad \text{(since } \leq_0 \text{ is a total ordering)}$$

This says that $g(n) \in B$. But

$$g(n) \geq j$$
so the assumption that \( j \) was larger than every member of \( B \) is contradicted.

Range \( g \) is infinite and r.e. since \( g \) is a 1-1 recursive function. qed.

Now that it has been shown that every infinite semirecursive set has an infinite retraceable subset, it is natural to inquire whether every infinite retraceable set has an infinite semirecursive subset. The following corollary shows that this is far from being the case.

**COROLLARY 4.14** If a retraceable set \( A \) has an infinite semirecursive subset, then \( A \) is recursive in \( K \), where \( K \) is any creative set.

**Proof** Suppose \( A \) is retraceable and has an infinite semirecursive subset \( B \). By the theorem, \( B \) has an infinite co-r.e. subset \( C \). Since \( C \) is an infinite subset of \( A \) and \( A \) is retraceable, \( A \) is recursive in \( C \). Thus \( A \) is recursive in \( K \). qed.

**COROLLARY 4.15** Each infinite co-r.e. regressive set has an infinite co-r.e. retraceable subset.

**Proof** Each such set is semirecursive by theorem 4.3. qed.

The principal corollary of theorem 4.13 will be that no hyperhyper-simple set is semirecursive. To be able to make a stronger statement, we state a definition and theorem.

**DEFINITION 4.16**

(i) (Young, Martin) A set \( A \) is **finitely strongly hyperimmune** (FSHI) if \( A \) is infinite and there is no recursive function \( f \) such that and for all \( x \) and \( y \),

\[
\left[ (x \neq y) \implies \cap_{x} W_{f}(x) \cap \overline{W_{f}(y)} = \varnothing \right] \land W_{f}(x) \text{ finite } \land \bigcup_{x} W_{f}(x) = \mathbb{N} \]
(ii) (Yates) A function $f$ is basic if $f$ is finite-one i.e. if the set $f^{-1}(x)$ is finite for each $x$.

**Theorem 4.17** (Martin) A set $A$ is FSHI iff it is infinite and has no infinite subset retraced by a basic recursive function.

**Proof** Just the "only if" part of the theorem will be needed, and only this part will be proved. Suppose that the basic recursive function $f$ retraces an infinite subset of $A$. We may assume (cf. theorem 5.17) that $f(x) \leq x$ for each $x$. Then for every $x$ there exists an $n$ such that $f_{n+1}(x) = f_n(x)$. Hence if we define

$$W_{f(n)} = \{ x \mid n \text{ is the least number } m \text{ such that } f_{n+1}(x) = f_m(x) \}$$

the sets $W_{f(n)}$ witness that $A$ is not FSHI \[ \text{qed.} \]

**Corollary 4.18** No FSHI set is semirecursive.

**Proof** The retracing function $f$ defined in the proof of theorem 4.13 is a basic function so that the semirecursive set $A$ cannot be FSHI. It is not necessary to use the proof of 4.13, however, since it is easy to see that each co-r.e. retraceable set is retraced by some basic recursive function. \[ \text{qed.} \]

Since hyperhyperimmune sets are trivially FSHI, it of course follows that no hyperhyperimmune set is semirecursive. Thus no hyperhyperimmune set is $m$-reducible to a coregressive hypersimple set. However, Appel and McLaughlin have proved a stronger result by different methods.

**Theorem 4.19** (Appel and McLaughlin) Let $A$ be a hyperhypersimple set and let $B$ be hypersimple and coregressive. Then $A$ and $B$ are $m$-incomparable.
Proof See Appel and McLaughlin [1].

**COROLLARY 4.20** If $A$ is hyperhypersimple, then $\overline{A} \neq \overline{A}$.

**Proof** Let $A$ be a given hyperhypersimple set and let $B$ be obtained by the Dekker construction for $A$. Thus $B$ is hypersimple, coretraceable, and $B \leq \overline{A}$. Now assume $\overline{A} \leq \overline{A}$. Then $B \leq \overline{A}$ by theorem 2.6. But this contradicts theorem 4.19. \(\text{qed.}\)

Note that corollary 4.20 implies, independently of corollary 4.18, that no hyperhypersimple set is semirecursive.

Corollary 4.18 also implies that not every r.e. btt-degree contains an r.e. semirecursive set. In particular, no maximal set is btt-reducible to any r.e. semirecursive set, since otherwise the maximal set would also be bp-reducible to the semirecursive set by theorem 3.3, and hence would itself be semirecursive, contradicting corollary 4.18.

Corollary 4.18 also shows that there are r.e. sets $A$ and $B$ such that $A \leq \overline{A}$ but $A$ cannot be tt-reduced to $B$ via any $f$ with "finite negativity" in the sense of the proof of theorem 3.3. To see this, let $A$ be a maximal set and $B$ be any r.e. semirecursive set in the tt-degree of $A$. The desired fact now follows from the proof theorem 3.3, since if $A$ were tt-reducible to $B$ via some $f$ with finite negativity, $A$ would be p-reducible to $B$ and thus semirecursive.

Let $A$ be any set. It is immediate from (vi) of theorem 4.9 that $A \text{ join } \overline{A}$ semirecursive $\Rightarrow$ $A$ recursive.

Now letting $A$ be semirecursive but not recursive, it is clear that the join of two semirecursive sets need not be semirecursive and that some non-semirecursive set can be n-reduced (and hence btt-reduced) to a semirecursive set. The following theorems investigate whether
such phenomena still occur when all sets involved are required to be 

\textbf{THEOREM 4.21} There are r.e. and coretraceable (and therefore semirecursive) sets \(A, B\) such that \(A\) join \(B\) is not semirecursive.

\textbf{Proof} The construction will define two 1-1 recursive functions \(f\) and \(g\). Then if we define

\[
A = \{x \mid (\exists y) [y > x \& f(y) \neq f(x)]\}
\]

\[
B = \{x \mid (\exists y) [y > x \& g(y) \neq g(x)]\}
\]

\(A\) and \(B\) will be the desired sets.

The construction uses a single list and a set of movable markers. The movable markers will be associated with even integers in the list. An integer \(2z\) is said to be \textit{free} in the list at a given stage if there are no markers below it and \(f\) and \(g\) undefined for all arguments \(y \geq z\). A symbol \(\ast\) will be placed beside a number in the list when the marker associated with it has been "attacked".

\textbf{Stage \(n (n \geq 0)\)}

Let \(2k\) be the least free non-zero integer. Associate the marker \(n\) with \(2k\).

Define \(f(x) = 2x\) for each \(x \leq k + 1\) such that \(f(x)\) has not previously been defined.

Define \(g(x) = 2x\) for each \(x \leq k + 1\) such that \(g(x)\) has not previously been defined.

Let \(2a_0, 2a_1, \ldots, 2a_n\) be the present positions of \(0, 1, \ldots, n\). Calculate \(n\) steps in each of \(q_1 (2a_i, 2a_i + 1), 0 \leq i \leq n\). Let \(j\) be the least number such that \(q_j (2a_j, 2a_j + 1)\) is found to be convergent in \(n\) steps and \(2a_j\) does not have a \(\ast\). (If no such \(j\) exists, go to
stage n + 1.) Put a * by 2a,

If \( \varphi_j(2a_j, 2a_j + 1) \notin \{2a_j, 2a_j + 1\} \),
go to stage n + 1. Otherwise there are two cases.

\textbf{Case 1} \( \varphi_j(2a_j, 2a_j + 1) = 2a_j \)

To ensure that \( \varphi_j \) is not a selector function for A join B, we
want to put \( a_j \) into \( \bar{A} \cap B \). When the construction is complete, it will
be clear that

\[ f(a_j) = g(a_j) = 2a_j. \]

Hence we define

\[ f(k + 2) = 2k + 4 \quad \text{(Recall that 2k was the least} \]
\[ g(k + 2) = g(a_j) - 1 = 2a_j - 1 \]

\textbf{Case 2} \( \varphi_j(2a_j, 2a_j + 1) = 2a_j + 1 \)

In analogy to case 1, define

\[ f(k + 2) = f(a_j) - 1 = 2a_j - 1 \]
\[ g(k + 2) = 2k + 4 \]

Note that in case 1, each number 2a, \( j \leq k \leq n \) is thrown into B
and that in case 2 each of those numbers is thrown into A. Hence in
either case, if \( j < n \), move each marker \( \Box \), \( j \leq k \leq n \) down to free (even)
integers.

In either case 1 or 2, if the marker \( \Box \) is not caused to move by
a later stage, \( \varphi_j \) cannot be a selector function for A join B. But, by
an inductive argument, each marker moves only finitely often. Thus if
\( \varphi_j \) is a total function, the marker \( \Box \) must be attacked at some stage
after it achieves its final resting place, and hence \( \varphi_j \) cannot be a
selector function for A join B. \( \text{qed.} \)

\footnote{For this proof, assume that \( \varphi_j \) is the \( j \)th partial recursive
function of two variables.}
One immediate corollary to the above theorem is the fact that the join of immune retraceable co-r.e. sets need not be regressive. However, as Dekker has pointed out, this fact can easily be deduced from well-known theorems in the literature.

**PROPOSITION 4.20** Let $A$ and $B$ be r.e. sets with $A \leq \mu B$. If $B$ is semirecursive, then $A$ is semirecursive.

**Proof** If $B = \emptyset$ or $B = N$, the proposition is trivial. Otherwise by proposition 3.1, $A \leq \mu B$, so $A$ is semirecursive, if $B$ is. qed.

Since every r.e. tt-degree contains an r.e. semirecursive set, the tt-analogue to the above proposition fails. The following theorem shows that even the btt-analogue to the proposition fails.

**THEOREM 4.23** There are r.e. sets $A$ and $B$ with $A \leq \mu B$ and $B$ semirecursive and $A$ not semirecursive.

**Proof** The proof combines a priority argument with a Dekker construction in a manner similar to the proof of theorem 4.21. The construction yields a 1-1 recursive function $f$. The set $B$ is defined from $f$ by

$$B = \{x \mid (\exists y) [y > x \& f(y) < f(x)]\}$$

Then, as Dekker and Myhill have pointed out, the set $B$ is r.e. and coretraceable.

The set $A$ is defined from $B$ by

$$2z \in A \iff (3z + 1 \notin B \& 3z + 2 \in B) \text{ or } (3z \in B \& 3z + 1 \in B \& 3z + 2 \in B)$$

$$2z + 1 \in A \iff 3z + 1 \in B \& 3z + 2 \in B$$

Thus $A \leq \mu B$. 
The function $f$ will be defined with a priority argument in such a way to ensure that $A$ is not semirecursive. The construction uses a single list of the integers (the A-list) and a movable marker $\mathbf{1}$ for each integer $i$. The markers are associated with even numbers in the list and may be moved to larger numbers as the construction proceeds. The purpose of the $i$'th marker is to ensure that $\varphi_i^2$ is not a selector function for $A$. Also, a $\ast$ will be associated with certain members of the A-list as the construction proceeds. An even number $2k$ in the B-list is called free at a given stage neither $2k$ nor any larger number has any marker beside it and $f$ is undefined for all arguments $y$ such that $y \geq 3k$.

The construction proceeds in stages.

**Stage n**

Let $2k$ be the least free integer. Associate the marker $\mathbf{1}$ with $2k$. Now for every number $y$ such that $y \leq 3k + 2$ and $f(y)$ has not previously been defined, set

$$f(y) = 2y$$

Let $2a_0, 2a_1, \ldots, 2a_n$ be the present position of $\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{n}$. Let $j$ be the smallest number $i$ such that $2a_i$ does not have a $\ast$ and $\varphi_i(2a_i, 2a_i + 1)$ is convergent in $n$ or fewer steps. (If no such $i$ exists, go to stage $n + 1$) Place a $\ast$ by $2a_j$, and say that $\mathbf{i}$ is attacked.

If $\varphi_j(2a_j, 2a_j + 1) \notin \{2a_j, 2a_j + 1\}$ then $\varphi_j$ is not a selector function for any set. In this case, proceed to stage $n + 1$. Otherwise there are two cases.

\[\text{For this proof, assume that } \varphi_i \text{ is the } i\text{'th partial recursive function of two variables.}\]
Case 1 \( \varphi_j(2a_j, 2a_j + 1) = 2a_j + 1 \)

To ensure that \( \varphi_j \) is not a selector function for \( A \), it will be sufficient to put \( 2a_j \) into \( A \) and \( 2a_j + 1 \) into \( A \). It follows from the definition of \( A \) from \( B \) that this will be accomplished if \( 3a_j \) and \( 3a_j + 1 \) are put into \( \overline{B} \) and \( 3a_j + 2 \) is put into \( B \). Now when the construction is complete it will be evident that, since \( 2a_j \) has a movable marker associated with it, \( f(y) = 2y \) for \( y \in \{3a_j, 3a_j + 1, 3a_j + 2\} \)

Thus we define

\[
\begin{align*}
f(3k+3) &= f(3a_j+2) - 1 = 6a_j + 3 \\
&\text{(Recall: } 2k \text{ was least free integer)}
\end{align*}
\]

This definition puts each \( y, \; 3a_j + 2 \leq y \leq 3k+2 \) into \( B \) and hence may interfere with earlier stages. Thus, if \( j < n \), move all markers \( k \), \( j < k \leq n \) to free integers in the \( A \)-list.

Case 2 \( \varphi_j(2a_j, 2a_j + 1) = 2a_j \)

To ensure that \( \varphi \) is not a selector function for \( A \), it will be sufficient to put \( 2a_j \) into \( \overline{A} \) and \( 2a_j + 1 \) into \( A \), and this will be accomplished if \( 3a_j \) is put into \( \overline{B} \) and \( 3a_j + 1 \) and \( 3a_j + 2 \) are put into \( B \). Since \( f(y) = 2y \) for \( y \in \{3a_j, 3a_j + 1, 3a_j + 2\} \), define

\[
\begin{align*}
f(3k+3) &= f(3a_j + 1) - 1 = 6a_j + 1
\end{align*}
\]

This definition puts each \( y, \; 3a_j + 1 \leq y \leq 3k+2 \) into \( B \) and hence may interfere with earlier stages. Thus, if \( j < n \), move all markers \( k \), \( j < k \leq n \) to free integers in the \( A \)-list.

In either case 1 or 2, if the marker \( j \) is not caused to move by a later stage, \( \varphi_j \) cannot be a selector function for \( A \). But, by an inductive argument, each marker moves only finitely often. Thus for any number \( j \), if \( \varphi \) is a total function, the marker \( j \) must be attacked at some stage after it achieves its final resting place, and hence cannot be a selector function for \( A \). Therefore \( A \) is not semirecursive.
It remains only to verify that $A$ is r.e. For convenience, the definition of $A$ is repeated below:

$$2z \in A \iff (3z + 1 \notin B \land 3z + 2 \in B) \text{ or } (3z \in B \land 3z + 1 \in B \land 3z + 2 \in B)$$

$$2z + 1 \in A \iff 3z + 1 \in B \land 3z + 2 \in B$$

From the above definition and the fact that $B$ is r.e. it follows that

$$\{2z + 1 \mid 2z + 1 \in A\}$$

is r.e. Now is claimed that

$$2z \in A \iff \text{ there exists a stage } n \text{ and a marker } j \text{ such that } j \text{ is associated with } 2z \text{ at stage } n \text{ and } j \text{ is attacked at stage } n \text{ and case 1 applies or } 3z \in B \land 3z + 1 \in B \land 3z + 2 \in B$$

If the above claim can be proved, it will follow that $\{2z \mid 2z \in A\}$ is r.e. and hence that $A$ is r.e.

To prove the claim, first assume that $2z \in A$. Then, by the definition of $A$, either $3z + 1 \notin B$ and $3z + 2 \in B$ or $\{3z, 3z + 1, 3z + 2\} \subseteq B$.

If the second condition holds, then the right-hand side of the claim trivially holds, so there is nothing to prove. Assume that $3z + 1 \notin B$ and $3z + 2 \in B$. Then it follows from the construction that

$$f(3z + 1) = 2(3z + 1) = 6z + 2$$
$$f(3z + 2) = 2(6z + 2) = 6z + 4$$

so it follows from the definition of $B$ that, for some $y > 3z + 2$

$$f(y) = 6z + 3$$

Hence there is a stage $n$ and a marker $[j]$ such that $[j]$ is associated with $2z$ at stage $n$ and $[j]$ is attacked at stage $n$ and case 1 applies.
Conversely, if \( \{3z, 3z + 1, 3z + 2\} \subset B \), it follows from the definition of A that \( 2z \in A \). Now assume that \( n \) and \( j \) exist as in the above paragraph. Then there are two cases:

(i) The marker \( j \) is not caused to move at some stage later than \( n \). Then \( 3z + 1 \notin B \) and \( 3z + 2 \notin B \), so \( 2z \notin A \).

(ii) The marker \( j \) is caused to move at some stage after \( n \). Then \( \{3z, 3z + 1, 3z + 2\} \subset B \), so \( 2z \notin A \).

This proves the claim and concludes the proof of the theorem. \( \text{qed.} \)

We have seen that immune semirecursive sets are hyperimmune but not FSI. We will now show that such sets are in \( \Sigma_2 \) in the arithmetical hierarchy and that they can be shown with additional assumptions to be co-r.e. Some of the theorems will apply to immune sets \( A \) such that \( \overline{\text{Ax}} \not\leq_m A \) rather than just immune semirecursive \( A \).

**THEOREM 4.24**

(i) If \( A \) is immune and \( \overline{\text{Ax}} \not\leq_m A \), then \( A \in \Sigma_2 \).

(ii) If \( A \) is hyperimmune (or even if no sequence of sets of bounded cardinality witnesses \( A \) not hyperimmune), and, for any \( n \),

\[
\overline{\text{Ax}} ... \overline{\text{Ax}} \not\leq_m \overline{\text{Ax}} ... \overline{\text{Ax}}, \text{ then } A \in \Sigma_2.
\]

**Proof**

(i) Suppose that \( A \) is immune and \( \overline{\text{Ax}} \not\leq_m A \) via \( g \). Then

\[
(x \in A \text{ or } y \in A) \iff g(<x,y>) \notin A
\]

Claim \( x \in A \iff \{ g(<x,y>) \mid y \in \mathbb{N} \} \) is finite

If the claim is established, it will follow immediately that \( A \in \Sigma_2 \)

for

\[
x \in A \iff (\exists u)(\forall y)[g(<x,y>) \leq u]
\]
To prove the claim, first assume \( x \in A \). Then \( \{ g(<x,y>) \mid y \in \mathbb{N} \} \) is an r.e. subset of \( A \) and therefore finite.

Now suppose that there were a number \( x \) such that \( x \in \bar{A} \) and \( \{ g(<x,y>) \mid y \in \mathbb{N} \} \) is finite. Then, for all \( z \),

\[
  z \in A \iff g(<x,z>) \in A \cap \{ g(<x,y>) \mid y \in \mathbb{N} \}
\]

Thus \( A \) is recursive, contrary to assumption.

This proves the claim and therefore part (i).

(ii) Suppose that \( A \) and \( n \) are such that

\[
  \neg (\exists \text{ rec. } f)(\exists m)(\forall x)(\exists y) \left[ (x \neq y \Rightarrow D f(x) \wedge D f(y) = \emptyset) \&
  \begin{array}{c}
  n+1 \\
  \text{and } \bar{A}x \ldots \bar{A} \leq_m \bar{A} \bar{x} \ldots \bar{A}
  \end{array}
\right]
\]

It must be shown that \( A \in \Sigma_2 \). This will be proved by induction on \( n \). If \( n = 1 \), the result follows immediately from (i).

Now assume that the theorem is true for \( n = k \). To prove the theorem for \( n = k + 1 \), assume that

\[
  \bar{A}x \ldots \bar{A} \leq_m \bar{A} \bar{x} \ldots \bar{A}
\]

and let \( g \) be a recursive function such that

\[
  (x \in A \quad \text{or} \quad x \in A \quad \text{or} \ldots \quad \text{or} \quad x_k + 2 \in A) \iff
  D g(x_1, \ldots, x_{k+2}) \wedge D \left( \begin{array}{c}
  n \in \mathbb{N} \\
  D f(x) \wedge D f(y) = \emptyset \&
  \begin{array}{c}
  n+1 \\
  \text{and } \bar{A}x \ldots \bar{A} \leq_m \bar{A} \bar{x} \ldots \bar{A}
  \end{array}
  \end{array}\right)
\]

It will be shown that the equivalence

\[
  x \in A \iff (\exists D) \left[ D \text{ is a finite set } \&
  (\forall x_2) \ldots (\forall x_{k+2}) \left[ D g(x_2, \ldots, x_{k+2}) \wedge D f(x) \right]
\]

can be false only if \( A \in \Sigma_2 \). Since the above equivalence implies that \( A \in \Sigma_2 \), it will follow that \( A \in \Sigma_2 \).
First assume \( x \in A \). Then each of the sets \( g(x, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \) intersects \( A \). Since these sets have cardinality bounded by \( k + 1 \), there must exist a finite set which intersects all of them, since otherwise a disjoint subcollection of the sets could be constructed to get a sequence of sets of bounded cardinality witnessing \( A \) not hyper-immune. (cf. the proof of lemma 5.15)

Thus, if the above equivalence is false, there must be a number \( x \in \overline{A} \) and a finite set \( D \) such that every set of the form \( g(x, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \) intersects \( D \). Let \( a \) be a fixed member of \( A \), and define a recursive function \( h \) of \( k + 1 \) variables by:

\[
D_h(x_2, \ldots, x_k) = \begin{cases} 
D & \text{if } D \cap D \cap A = \emptyset \\
g(x, x_2, \ldots, x_k) & \text{if } D \cap D \cap A \neq \emptyset
\end{cases}
\]

Then \( h \) shows that \( \overline{A}x\overline{A}...\overline{A} \leq_m \overline{A}x\overline{A}...\overline{A} \), so \( \overline{A} \in \Sigma_2 \) by the induction assumption. qed.

**COROLLARY 4.25**

(i) There exist \( \mathcal{H}_o \) immune semirecursive sets.

(ii) If \( A \) is regressive and if there is an \( n \) such that \( \overline{A}x\overline{A}...\overline{A} \leq_m \overline{A}x\overline{A}...\overline{A} \), then \( A \in \Sigma_2 \).

**Proof**

(i) By theorem 4.3, there exist at least \( \mathcal{H}_o \) immune semirecursive sets, and by the present theorem there exist at most \( \mathcal{H}_o \) such sets.

(ii) Suppose that \( A \) is regressive. If \( A \) is r.e., there is nothing to prove. Otherwise \( A \) is immune, and Appel and McLaughlin [1] have proved that no immune regressive set is witnessed non-hyperimmune.
by a sequence of sets of bounded cardinality. Therefore, the theorem applies. qed.

**DEFINITION 4.26** Let A be immune.

(i) (Smullyan) A is said to be **effectively immune** if there is a recursive function f such that, for all x,

\[ W_x \subseteq A \implies |W_x| \leq f(x) \]

(ii) (McLaughlin) A is said to be **strongly effectively immune** if there is a recursive function g such that, for all x,

\[ W_x \subseteq A \implies W_x \subseteq \{0, 1, \ldots, g(x)\} \]

**THEOREM 4.27**

(i) If A is effectively immune and \( \overline{A \times A} \leq_m \overline{A} \), then \( \overline{A} \) is r.e.

(ii) If A is strongly effectively immune and semirecursive, then \( \overline{A} \) is r.e. and A is regressive.

**Proof**

(i) Suppose A is effectively immune and that \( \overline{A \times A} \leq_m \overline{A} \) via g.

By the argument of the preceding theorem,

\[ x \in \overline{A} \iff \{g(<x,y>) \mid y \in \mathbb{N}\} \text{ is infinite} \]

Let f be a recursive function such that

\[ W_x \subseteq A \implies |W_x| \leq f(x) \]

Let h be a recursive function such that

\[ W_{h(x)} = \{g(<x,y>) \mid y \in \mathbb{N}\} \]

Then \( x \in \overline{A} \iff \) there are more than hf(x) numbers of the form g(<x,y>)

Therefore, \( \overline{A} \) is r.e.

(ii) Suppose that A is strongly effectively immune and semi-
recursive. Then $\overline{A}$ is r.e. by (i). Assume that $A$ is the lower half of a cut in a recursive linear ordering $\preceq_o$ of $\mathbb{N}$. Say that $y$ is an o-predecessor of $x$ if $y \preceq_o x$. Any $x$ in $A$ has only finitely many o-predecessors, because the set of its o-predecessors is an r.e. subset of $A$. Thus the restriction of $\preceq_o$ to $A \times A$ is an ordering in which every element has only finitely many predecessors and hence is order-isomorphic to $\mathbb{N}$ with the usual ordering. Thus there is an enumeration $a_0, a_1, \ldots$ of $A$ such that

$$a_0 <_o a_1 <_o a_2 <_o \ldots$$

Observe that if $x$ is given, it is possible to compute effectively an r.e. index for the set of o-predecessors of $x$. Thus, since $A$ is strongly effectively simple, there is a recursive function $g$ such that if $x$ is in $A$, every o-predecessor of $x$ is less than or equal to $g(x)$.

Now the following recursive function $\Upsilon$ will regress the enumeration $a_0, a_1, \ldots$ of $A$:

$$\Upsilon(x) = \begin{cases} 
a_0 & \text{if } x = a_0 \\
\text{the largest } y \text{ (with respect to the ordering } \preceq_o) & \text{such that } y \neq x, \ y \preceq_o x, \ \& y \preceq g(x) \text{ if } x \neq a_0 \\
\text{and such a } y \text{ exists.} & 0 \text{ otherwise}
\end{cases}$$

Therefore, $A$ is regressive. qed.

**Theorem 4.28** Suppose that $A$ is retraceable and that $\overline{\overline{A} \times A} \preceq_w A$.

Then $\overline{A}$ is r.e.

**Proof** Suppose that $\Upsilon$ is a partial recursive retracing function for $A$ and that $g$ is a recursive function such that for all $x$ and $y$

$$x \in A \text{ or } y \in A \iff g(x, y) \in A$$
Suppose also that $A$ is nonrecursive, since otherwise the result is immediate.

Let $a_0$ be the least member of $A$. Define $B$ by

$$B = \{ x \mid (\exists n) (\exists y) \left[ g(x,y) > x & \forall^n g(x,y) = a_0 & x \notin \{ g(x,y), g(x,y), y g(x,y), g(x,y), ..., y g(x,y) \} \right] \}$$

$B$ is r.e. by the projection theorem. It is claimed that $B = \overline{A}$.

To show that $B \subset \overline{A}$, assume that some number $x$ were in $B \cap A$. Let $n$ and $y$ be such that

$$g(x,y) > x & \forall^n g(x,y) = a_0 & x \notin \{ g(x,y), g(x,y), y g(x,y), g(x,y), ..., y g(x,y) \}$$

Since $x \notin A$, $g(x,y) \in A$. Since $\forall^n g(x,y) = a_0$, every member of $A$ which is less than $g(x,y)$ is in $\{ g(x,y), ..., \forall^n g(x,y) \}$. In particular, $x \in \{ g(x,y), ..., \forall^n g(x,y) \}$, contradicting the assumption on $n$ and $y$.

To show that $\overline{A} \subset B$, assume that $x \in \overline{A}$. Then the set $C$ is infinite, where

$$C = \{ g(x,y) \mid y \in A \} \subset A$$

For if $C$ were finite, the obvious equivalence

$$y \in A \iff g(x,y) \in C$$

would show that $A$ is recursive.

Since $C$ is infinite, there is a number $y \in A$, such that $g(x,y) > x$. Since $y \in A$, $g(x,y) \in A$, so there is a number $n$ with $\forall^n g(x,y) = a_0$.

Also, since $g(x,y) \in A$ and $x \in \overline{A}$,

$$x \notin \{ g(x,y), g(x,y), g(x,y), ..., g(x,y) \}$$

Thus this $n$ and this $y$ show that $x \in B$.

Therefore $\overline{A} = B$, so $\overline{A}$ is r.e. 

qed.
The above theorem becomes false when the hypothesis that \( A \) is retraceable is weakened to the hypothesis that \( A \) is regressive, since, for example, if \( A \) is creative, then \( A \) is a regressive set such that \( \overline{AxA} \leq_m A \) and \( \overline{A} \) is not r.e. However, it may be shown by a slight modification of the above proof that every regressive set \( A \) such that \( \overline{AxA} \leq_m A \) is the difference of r.e. sets. It is not known whether every such set is either r.e. or co-r.e.

The theorem makes it easy to give some necessary and sufficient conditions for a retraceable set to be semirecursive.

**COROLLARY 4.29** Let \( A \) be retraceable. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) \( A \) is semirecursive
(ii) \( \overline{AxA} \leq_m A \)
(iii) \( \overline{A} \) is r.e.

**Proof** Let \( A \) be retraceable.

(i) \( \Rightarrow \) (ii) by part (i) of theorem 4.9

(ii) \( \Rightarrow \) (iii) by the above theorem

(iii) \( \Rightarrow \) (i) by theorem 4.3 \( \text{qed.} \)

**COROLLARY 4.30** If \( A \) is retraceable, immune, and non-hyperimmune, then \( \overline{AxA} \neq_m A \).

**Proof** If \( A \) is a retraceable set and \( \overline{AxA} \leq_m A \), then by the theorem \( \overline{A} \) is r.e. Thus, since \( A \) is retraceable, if \( A \) is immune, then \( A \) is hyperimmune. \( \text{qed.} \)

It is not known whether the conclusion of corollary 4.30 can be strengthened to read that the m-degrees of \( \overline{A}, \overline{AxA}, \overline{AxAxA}, \ldots \) are all distinct. However, in section 5 it will be shown under the assumption...
that A is immune, non-hyperimmune and retraced by a total recursive function that these m-degrees are all distinct.

The preceding two theorems characterize semirecursive sets which are strongly effectively immune or retraceable fairly adequately. However, they do not go far towards classifying all immune semirecursive sets. In particular, the following elementary questions remain unanswered:

(i) Is every immune semirecursive set regressive?

(ii) Is every immune semirecursive set co-r.e.?

(iii) Are there semirecursive sets which are both immune and co-immune?

The existence of semirecursive sets which are both immune and co-immune would be of particular interest, since by some of the theorems in this section, such sets would have several interesting properties.
SECTION 5. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN REDUCIBILITIES

In the previous section it was proved that every tt-degree contains a p-degree consisting of a single m-degree and contains incomparable p-degrees. In this section, more results of this kind will be proved, but by quite different methods. Certain types of immune but not hyper-immune sets will be studied, with propositional logic used as a tool in this study. Also it will be shown that each r.e. nonrecursive T-degree contains r.e. sets which have many of the properties of creative sets.

THEOREM 5.1 Let A be a simple set which is not hypersimple. Let B be any set. Then \[ \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \models B \Rightarrow \overline{B} \text{ not immune} \]

Proof

Propositional logic will be used to abbreviate the proof. First we introduce some conventions. Recall what it means for a propositional formula \( \sigma \) to be true of a set A:

\( \sigma \) is true of A iff \( \sigma \) is true when each statement letter \( P_n \) is interpreted as true when \( n \in A \) and false when \( n \notin A \).

Hence, when we know that a formula \( \sigma \) will be interpreted in a set A, we may use the symbol " \( n \in A \)" in place of the statement letter \( P_n \). Abbreviating further, we may use the symbol " \( D_x \subseteq A \)" in place of the statement

\[ x_1 \in A \land x_2 \in A \land \ldots \land x_k \in A \quad \text{where} \quad D_x = \{ x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_k \} \]

Similar abbreviations will be freely used.

Finally statements referring to two sets may be thought of as propositional formulas to be interpreted in the join of the two sets, e.g

\[ 5 \in A \land 6 \notin B \] abbreviates the statement

\[ 10 \in A \text{ join } B \land 13 \notin A \text{ join } B. \]
We will use two facts from elementary logic: the set of logical consequences of a recursively enumerable set of formulas is itself recursively enumerable (when formulas are coded effectively to integers) and when every formula in a some set of formulas is true in some fixed interpretation, then every formula deducible from that set is also true in the interpretation. The latter result is called the "soundness theorem."

Now assume the theorem false, so that \( \mathcal{A} \) is simple and not hyper-simple and \( \mathcal{B} \) is coimmune, and
\[
\{x \mid \mathcal{D}_x \subseteq \mathcal{A} \} \leq_m \mathcal{B}
\]

Let \( \{ \mathcal{D}_{f(x)} \} \) witness the non-hyperimmunity of \( \mathcal{A} \). Let \( \{x \mid \mathcal{D}_x \subseteq \mathcal{A} \} \leq_m \mathcal{B} \) via \( g \).

Consider the following set of axioms \( \mathcal{T} \):
\[
\begin{align*}
1_x & \quad \mathcal{D}_{f(x)} \cap \overline{A} \neq \emptyset & \text{all } x \\
2_x & \quad x \in \mathcal{A} & \text{all } x \in \mathcal{A} \\
3_x & \quad \mathcal{D} \cap \overline{A} \neq \emptyset \iff g(x) \in \overline{\mathcal{B}} & \text{all } x
\end{align*}
\]

If \( \sigma \) is a propositional formula, let \( \vdash_\mathcal{T} \sigma \) mean that \( \sigma \) is provable from the above statements by the rules of propositional calculus when they are viewed as propositional formulas.

Now consider the set \( \mathcal{C} \), where
\[
\mathcal{C} = \{x \mid \vdash_\mathcal{T} x \in \overline{\mathcal{B}}\}
\]

Since the axioms are all true and form a recursively enumerable set of statements, \( \mathcal{C} \) is an r.e. subset of \( \overline{\mathcal{B}} \), and thus finite. But by the axioms
\[
\vdash_\mathcal{T} \mathcal{D}_x \cap \overline{A} \neq \emptyset \iff \vdash_\mathcal{T} g(x) \in \overline{\mathcal{B}} \iff g(x) \in C
\]

Thus the set \( \mathcal{D} \) is recursive, where
\[
\mathcal{D} = \{x \mid \vdash_\mathcal{T} \mathcal{D}_x \cap \overline{A} \neq \emptyset\}\]
For convenience in giving later proofs, the rest of this proof will be given in a lemma.

**Lemma 5.2** Suppose that A is simple and not hypersimple, and that \( \{D_f(x)\} \) witnesses that A is not hypersimple. Suppose that C is a class of non-empty finite sets such that

1. \( D_f(x) \subset C \) for all \( x \)
2. \( D_x, y \in A \Rightarrow (D_x - \{y\}) \subset C \)

Then \( \{x | D_x \subset C\} \) is not recursive.

First we note that the theorem now follows at once from the lemma. For if we let \( C = \{D_x | D_x \cap \bar{A} = \emptyset\} \), then each member of C is non-empty because each member of C intersects \( \bar{A} \), by the soundness theorem. C satisfies conditions (i) and (ii) because of the axioms 1 and 2. Finally, it has already been remarked that \( D = \{x | D_x \subset C\} \) is recursive, which contradicts the lemma.

**Proof of Lemma**

Suppose the lemma is false. Let C be a class of finite sets satisfying the hypotheses of the lemma such that \( \{x | D_x \subset C\} \) is recursive. Let

\[
M = \{x | D_x \subset C \wedge (\forall y) [D_y \nsubseteq D_x \Rightarrow D_y \nsubseteq \bar{C}]\}
\]

and let \( G = \bigcup_{x \in M} D_x \)

It is claimed that G is an infinite r.e. subset of \( \bar{A} \). If this claim is proved, the simplicity of A will be contradicted.

Since \( \{x | D_x \subset C\} \) is recursive, M is recursive, and thus G is r.e. Call a set \( D_x \) minimal if \( x \in M \). Now any member of C which intersects A has a proper subset in C, by condition (ii) on C. Hence every minimal set is a subset of \( \bar{A} \), and G is a subset of \( \bar{A} \). Finally note
that every member \( D_x \) of \( C \) has a minimal subset, e.g. any subset \( D \) of \( D_x \) which has minimal cardinality among the subsets of \( D_x \) which are members of \( C \). Thus each \( D \) \( f(x) \) has a minimal subset and therefore each \( D \) \( f(x) \) intersects \( G \), since all members of \( C \) are non-empty. Hence \( G \) is infinite.

**COROLLARY 5.2** If \( A \) is simple but not hypersimple, then \( A \overline{\overline{A}} \neq M A \).

**Proof** Assume that \( A \) is simple and not hypersimple and that \( A \neq \overline{\overline{A}} \). Then \( A \overline{\overline{A}} \) is a \( c \)-cylinder and, since \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \triangleq_c A \), \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \triangleq M A \).

This contradicts the theorem.

Since there are hypersimple semirecursive sets, the above corollary, and hence the theorem, fails when the hypothesis "\( A \) is not hypersimple" is dropped.

Theorem 5.1 implies in particular that no creative set can be \( m \)-reduced to a coimmune set, i.e. no productive set is immune. In this section, several other facts about creative sets will be generalized to sets of the form \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \) for simple, non-hypersimple \( A \). The proofs will thus give an alternate method for proving some of the standard facts about creative sets. More importantly, since Yates has shown the existence in every r.e. nonrecursive Turing degree of a simple set which is not hypersimple, the theorems to come will show that r.e. sets which share many of the properties of creative sets exist in every r.e. nonrecursive \( T \)-degree. This in turn will make it possible to show that each nonrecursive r.e. Turing degree shares some of the standard properties of the complete degree.
DEFINITION 5.4 B is a strong cylinder if B is a cylinder and

\((\forall c) [ B \leq_m c \Rightarrow B \leq_1 c ]\)

PROPOSITION 5.5. If B is a strong cylinder, the \(m\)-degree of B consists of a single 1-degree.

Proof Trivial. qed.

It is well known that creative sets are strong cylinders. We are heading towards a generalization of this fact. We first "localize" the notion of cylinder in a way motivated by Young's characterization of cylinders (theorem 1.4.)

DEFINITION 5.6 For sets D and \(E\), \(D\) is a \(E\)-cylinder if there is a recursive function \(h\) such that, for all \(x\)

\[(x \in D \Rightarrow W_h(x) \subseteq D) \& (x \in D \Rightarrow W_h(x) \subseteq D) \&

(x \in E \Rightarrow W_h(x) \text{ infinite})\]

LEMMA 5.7 \(F \leq_m D\) via \(g\), \(D\) a \((\text{range } g)\)-cylinder \(\Rightarrow F \leq_1 D\).

Proof The proof is a straightforward relativization of the proof of theorem 1.4). Assume \(F \leq_m D\) via \(g\) and let \(h\) be a recursive function showing that \(D\) is a \((\text{range } g)\)-cylinder. Define a recursive 1-1 function \(k\) by induction:

\[k(0) = g(0)\]

\[k(n+1) = \text{the first number found in } W_{hg(n+1)} \text{ which is not a member of } \{0, 1, \ldots, k(n)\}\]

Then \(F \leq_1 D\) via \(h\). qed.

THEOREM 5.8 Let \(A\) be simple but not hypersimple and let \(C\) be any non-empty set. Then \(\{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \times C\) is a strong cylinder.
Proof Let a function \( i, \) (the index function) mapping finite sets to integers, be defined by
\[
i(D_x) = x
\]
To see that \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \times C \) is a cylinder, let
\[
W_p(<u,v>) = \{ <i(D_u \cup D_x), v> \mid D_x \subseteq A \}
\]
Then, \( W_p(<u,v>) \) shows that \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \times C \) is a cylinder, by Young's characterization of cylinders.

Now let \( B = \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \), and suppose \( B \times C \leq_m D \) via \( g \). It must be shown that \( B \times C \leq_1 D \), so by the lemma it suffices to show that \( D \) is a (range \( g \))-cylinder. It follows from theorem 5.1 that \( D \) has an infinite r.e. subset, since
\[
\{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \leq_m \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \times C \leq_m D
\]
(It is at this point that the fact that \( C \) is non-empty is used.)

Let \( G \) be an infinite r.e. subset of \( D \).

Let \( \{ f(x) \} \) witness that \( A \) is not hypersimple.

We now write everything we know in the form of axioms :
1. \( <u,v> \notin B \times C \iff g(<u,v>) \in D \) all \( <u,v> \)
2. \( x \notin D \) all \( x \in G \)
3. \( x \in A \) all \( x \in A \)
4. \( x \in D \cap \overline{A} \neq \emptyset \) all \( x \)

The set of axioms given above is recursively enumerable and each axiom is true when given the obvious interpretation. Hence there is a recursive function \( h \) such that
\[
W_h(x) = \{ y \mid \exists y \in D \iff x \in D \}
\]
and \( x \in D \Rightarrow W_h(x) \subseteq D \) & \( x \notin D \Rightarrow W_h(x) \subseteq \overline{D} \), where as before
\( \vdash \sigma \) means \( \sigma \) is provable from the above axiom.

Thus to show that \( D \) is a \((\text{range } g)\)-cylinder it suffices to show that

\[ x \in \text{range } g \Rightarrow W_h(x) \text{ infinite} \]

Assume the above is false. Let \( x_0 \) be a member of range \( g \) such that \( W_h(x_0) \) is finite. Let \( x_0 = g(<u_0, v_0>) \). Define

\[ C = \{ D_u \mid \vdash [ (D_u \cup D_{u_0}) \subset A \land v_0 \in C ] \leftrightarrow [D_{u_0} \subset A \land v_0 \in C] \} \]

(\( \vdash \sigma \) means that \( \sigma \) cannot be proved from \( T \))

We will show that \( C \) gives a counterexample to lemma 5.2 and thus obtain a contradiction. First note that every member of \( C \) is non-empty, for trivially,

\[ \vdash [ (\emptyset \cup D_{u_0}) \subset A \land v_0 \in C ] \leftrightarrow [D_{u_0} \subset A \land v_0 \in C] \]

Also \( \{ u \mid D_u \in C \} \) is recursive, since

\[ D_u \in C \iff \vdash [ (D_u \cup D_{u_0}) \subset A \land v_0 \in C ] \leftrightarrow [D_{u_0} \subset A \land v_0 \in C] \]

\[ \iff \vdash \varepsilon(<i(D_u \cup D_{u_0}), v_0>) \in D \leftarrow \varepsilon(<u_0, v_0>) \in W_h(x_0) \]

Since \( W_h(x_0) \) was finite, the last line gives an effective test to see whether \( D_{u_0} \in C \).

Now it must be shown that each \( D_{f(x)} \notin C \). Assume the contrary: let \( x \) be such that \( D_{f(x)} \notin C \). Then

\[ \vdash [ D_{f(x)} \cup D_{u_0} \subset A \land v_0 \in C ] \leftrightarrow [D_{u_0} \subset A \land v_0 \in C] \]

But by axiom \( I_2 \):

\[ \vdash D_{f(x)} \cap \overline{A} \neq \emptyset \]

\[ \vdash \neg (D_{u_0} \subset A \land v_0 \in C) \]

\[ \vdash x_0 \in D \]

All members of the set \( G \) are also provably not in \( D \). Thus

\[ G \subset W_\varepsilon(x_0) \]
This contradicts the assumption that $W$ was finite.

Finally it must be shown that $D_u \in C$, $y \in A \Rightarrow (D_u \setminus \{y\}) \notin C$.

This will be proved in the form: $(D_u \setminus \{y\}) \notin C$, $y \in A \Rightarrow D_u \notin C$.

Suppose $(D_u \setminus \{y\}) \notin C$ and $y \in A$. Thus

$$
\vdash T \left[ (D_u \setminus \{y\}) \cup D_{u_0} \subseteq A \land v \in C \right] \iff \left[ D_{u_0} \subseteq A \land v \in C \right]
$$

But then, since $y \in A$, by axiom $\exists y$:

$$
\vdash T \left[ (D_u \setminus \{y\}) \cup D_{u_0} \subseteq A \land v \in C \right] \iff \left[ D_u \cup D_{u_0} \subseteq A \land v \in C \right]
$$

Combining these two equivalences it follows that

$$
\vdash T \left[ D_u \cup D_{u_0} \subseteq A \land v \in C \right] \iff \left[ D_{u_0} \subseteq A \land v \in C \right]
$$

Therefore $D_u \notin C$, which was to be shown.

Thus it has been shown that the class $C$ provides a counterexample to lemma 5.2, and the theorem is proved. qed.

The first corollary is a special case of the theorem which generalizes the fact that creative sets are strong cylinders.

**COROLLARY 5.9** If $A$ is simple but not hypersimple, then $\{x \mid D_x \subseteq A\}$ is a strong cylinder.

**Proof** Take $C = N$ in the theorem. qed.

Of course, the theorem also shows that the cartesian product of a creative set with any non-empty set is a strong cylinder. This fact does not seem to the writer to be obvious from the classical proof with the recursion theorem that creative sets are strong cylinders, although the present proof would not have been simplified (except notationally) by considering $\{x \mid D_x \subseteq A\}$ rather than $\{x \mid D_x \subseteq A\} \times C$. However, this is the only example known where the present method yields new information about creative sets.
COROLLARY 5.10 Every r.e. T-degree contains an r.e. m-degree consisting of a single 1-degree.

Proof The recursive T-degree certainly contains such an m-degree. By the theorem of Yates mentioned in the previous section (theorem 4.11) each nonrecursive T-degree contains a simple but not hypersimple set $A$ and thus contains a strong cylinder, e.g. $\{x \mid D_x \subseteq A\}$. By proposition 5.5, the m-degree of this strong cylinder consists of a single 1-degree.

Corollary 5.10 answers a question raised by P.R. Young, who showed in [20] that every nonrecursive m-degree either consists of a single 1-degree or contains a linearly ordered collection of 1-degrees with the order type of the rationals and inquired whether there were nonrecursive, noncreative r.e. m-degree consisting of a single 1-degree.

We now prove a weakened analogue of the theorem that btt-complete sets are not simple.

THEOREM 5.11 Let $A$ be simple but not hypersimple, and suppose that

$$\{x \mid D_x \subseteq A\} \leq b \uparrow C$$

Then $C$ is not simple.

Proof Suppose the theorem is false. Let $A$ be simple, and let $\{D_f(x)\}$ witness that $A$ is not hypersimple. Suppose that $C$ is a simple set such that there exists a recursive function $g$ and a number $m$ such that, for all $x$,

$$D_x \subseteq A \iff (\exists u) [u \in D_g(x) \land D_u \subseteq C] \land \bigcup_u D_g(x) \subseteq m$$

Now consider the following axioms $T$:

$$1. \quad x \subseteq A \iff (\forall u) [u \in D_g(x) \Rightarrow D_u \cap C \neq \emptyset] \quad \text{all } x$$

$$2. \quad x \in A \quad \text{all } x \in A$$
Let \( \vdash \) mean that the formula \( \sigma \) is provable from the above axioms.

Let \( C = \{ D_x \mid \vdash D_x \cap \bar{A} \neq \emptyset \} \)

We will apply lemma 5.2. \( C \) is clearly a class of non-empty sets which satisfies conditions (i) and (ii) in lemma 5.2. Thus, to get a contradiction, it is sufficient to show that \( \{ x \mid D_x \in C \} \) is recursive.

Observe that by axiom \( 1 \),

\[
\vdash D_x \cap \bar{A} \neq \emptyset \iff \vdash D_{u_1} \cap \bar{b} \neq \emptyset \land \vdash D_{u_2} \cap \bar{c} \neq \emptyset \land \cdots \land \vdash D_{u_n} \cap \bar{d} \neq \emptyset
\]

where \( D_g(x) = \{ u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \} \). By the assumption on the boundedness of the reduction, \( |D_u| \leq m \), for \( u \) in any \( D_g(x) \). Thus to see that \( \{ x \mid \vdash D_x \cap \bar{A} \neq \emptyset \} \) is recursive, it is sufficient to show that \( S_n \) is recursive for all \( n \) where

\[
S_n = \{ u \mid D_u \leq n \land \vdash D_u \cap \bar{A} \neq \emptyset \}
\]

This is proved by induction on \( n \) using techniques similar to those in the proof of lemma 5.2. \( S_0 \) is trivially recursive. Now assume that \( S_n \) is recursive. Let

\[
M_n + 1 = \{ u \mid D_u \leq n + 1 \land \vdash D_u \cap \bar{b} \neq \emptyset \land (\forall v)[D_v \subseteq D_u \Rightarrow \vdash D_v \cap \bar{c} \neq \emptyset] \}
\]

\[
= \{ u \mid u \in S_{n+1} \land (\forall v)[D_v \subseteq D_u \Rightarrow v \subseteq S_n] \}
\]

Since the set of axioms given above is r.e., \( S_{n+1} \) is r.e. By the induction assumption \( S_n \) is recursive. Hence \( M_n \) is r.e. Let

\[
G_{n+1} = \bigcup_{u \in M_{n+1}} D_u
\]

Since \( M_{n+1} \) is r.e., \( G_{n+1} \) is r.e. Also, \( G_{n+1} \) is a subset of \( \bar{C} \), since, by axioms 3, \( x \in M_{n+1} \Rightarrow D \subseteq \bar{C} \). Thus \( M_n \) is finite and hence \( G_{n+1} \) is finite. But now, the equivalence
u \in S_{n+1} \Leftrightarrow u \in G_{n+1} \text{ or, for some } v \text{ such that } D_v \subseteq D_u, \quad \forall v \in S_n

d_1 - d_2 - d_1 - d_2 - n

shows that \( S_{n+1} \) is recursive, completing the induction. \( \text{qed.} \)

**Corollary 5.12** If \( A \) is simple but not hypersimple, then the \( m \)-degrees of \( A, A \times A, A \times A \times A, \ldots \) are all distinct.

**Proof** Suppose the corollary is false. Let \( A \) be a simple but not hypersimple set and \( n \) a number such that \( A^{n+1} \leq^m A^n \), where for all \( k > 0 \),

\[
A_k = \underbrace{A \times \ldots \times A}_k
\]

Let \( A_k = \{ x \mid |D_x| \leq k \land D_x \subseteq A \} \). It is easy to check that for all \( k > 0 \),

\[
A_k \equiv^m A
\]

Hence \( A^n + 1 \leq^m A^n \), say via \( g \), so that

\[
D_x \subseteq A \land |D_x| \leq n + 1 \Leftrightarrow D_g(x) \subseteq A \land |D_x| \leq n
\]

A recursive function \( h \) will now be defined so that \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \leq^m A^n \) via \( h \).

If \( |D_x| \leq n \), define \( h(x) = x \).

If \( |D_x| > n \), let \( y \) be the smallest number so that \( D_y \subseteq D_x \) and \( |D_y| = n + 1 \). Let \( x' = (D_x - D_y) \cup D_g(y) \). Observe that

\[
|D_{x'}| < |D_x| \quad \text{and} \quad (D_{x'} \subseteq A \iff D_x \subseteq A)
\]

If for any set \( D_x \) all the sets \( D_x, D_x', D_x'', \ldots \) had cardinality greater than \( n \), then the numbers \( |D_x|, |D_x'|, |D_x''|, \ldots \) would form a strictly decreasing chain of integers, which is impossible.

Thus if \( |D_x| > n \), define \( D_{h(x)} = D_x \rightarrow_{m} \ldots \), where \( m \) is the smallest number such that \( |D_x| \rightarrow_{m} \ldots | \leq n \).
Clearly, \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \leq_m A_n \) via \( h \). But also, \( A_n \not\leq_{bp} A \), so 
\( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \not\leq_{bp} A \), which contradicts the theorem, with \( A = C \). \( \text{qed.} \)

**COROLLARY 5.13** Every r.e. nonrecursive T-degree contains infinitely many r.e. m-degrees.

**Proof** By the theorem of Yates, each such T-degree contains a simple but not hypersimple set \( A \), and hence the m-degrees of \( A, \overline{A} \dot{\ldots} \) from the desired infinite collection \( \text{qed.} \)

In view of the well known theorem of Post that no creative set can be btt-reduced to a simple set, it is natural to inquire whether sets of the form \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \) for simple, non-hypersimple \( A \) can be btt-reduced to simple sets. The writer has been unable to answer this question, although the methods of the previous theorem do show some promise. More precisely, if the conclusion of Lemma 5.2 could be strengthened to:

"Then \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq C \} \) is not recursively separable from \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \)"

it would follow by an elaboration of the methods of Theorem 5.11 that no set of the form \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \) for simple but not hypersimple \( A \) could be btt-reduced to a simple set.

It is also natural to ask whether sets of the form \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \) for simple but not hypersimple \( A \) can be tt-reduced to hypersimple sets. Since \( A \equiv_p \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq A \} \), this is equivalent to asking whether simple but not hypersimple sets can be tt-reduced to hypersimple sets. Here again the answer is not known, but we can prove a positive analogue to the classical theorems.

**Theorem 5.14** No simple, non-hypersimple set can be p-reduced to
any hypersimple set.

Proof. The first part of the proof consists of a lemma which shows that it suffices to prove the theorem for c-reducibility.

**Lemma 5.15**

C hyperimmune \( \Rightarrow \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq C \} \) hyperimmune

**Proof of Lemma**

Suppose that \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq C \} \) is infinite and not hyperimmune. Let \( D_h(x) \) witness that \( \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq C \} \) is not hyperimmune. Assume \( 0 \notin \bigcup_x D_h(x) \) to avoid difficulties with the empty set. Now define a recursive function \( k \) by

\[
D_k(x) = \{ u \mid u \text{ is the largest member of some set } D_y \text{ with } y \subseteq D_h(x) \}
\]

Now each \( D_k(x) \) intersects \( C \), because each \( D_k(x) \) contains some member of a subset of \( C \). However, the sets \( D_k(x) \) need not be disjoint. On the other hand, they can be made disjoint using a simple technique due to Post: define a recursive function \( l \) by

\[
D_l(0) = D_k(0)
\]

\[
D_l(n + 1) = D_k(y) \text{ where } y \text{ is the smallest number such that } D_k(y) \text{ is disjoint from } \bigcup_{i=0}^n D_l(i)
\]

To show that \( C \) is not hypersimple, it is sufficient to show that \( l \) is total, i.e. that the number \( y \) referred to in the definition of \( l \) always exists. Suppose that this \( y \) fails to exist for some \( n + 1 \). Then every \( D_k(y) \) intersects the finite set \( \bigcup_{i=0}^n D_l(i) \). Thus some number \( u \) is in infinitely many \( D_k(y) \). Thus, by the definition of \( D_k(y) \), \( u \) is the largest member of infinitely many sets, which is impossible. Thus \( l \) is total.

qed.

**Proof of theorem**

Suppose the theorem is false, and let \( A \neq \epsilon B \).
where $B$ is hypersimple and $A$ is simple but not hypersimple. Let

$$D = \{ x \mid D_x \cap B \neq \emptyset \}$$

Since $D$ is r.e. and

$$\overline{D} = \{ x \mid D_x \subseteq \overline{B} \}$$

$D$ is hypersimple by lemma 5.15. Also $A \not\leq_c D$, by theorem 2.9. Let $f$ be a recursive function such that, for all $x$,

$$x \in A \iff D_f(x) \subseteq D$$

Let $D_g(x)$ witness that $A$ is not hypersimple. Define a recursive function $p$ by

$$D_p(x) = \bigcup_{y \in D_g(x)} D_f(y)$$

Each $D_p(x)$ intersects $\overline{D}$. Define the r.e. set $E$ by

$$E = \{ y \mid (\exists x) [(D_y \cup D) \supset D_p(x)] \}$$

Since each $D_p(x)$ intersects $\overline{E}$, each member of $E$ is the canonical index of a set intersecting $\overline{B}$. Let $k$ be a recursive function with range $E$. Now, just as in the proof of lemma 5.15, the $D_{k(x)}$ can be replaced by a subsequence of disjoint sets to witness $B$ not hypersimple unless there is some finite set, say $F$, which intersects every $D_{k(x)}$. If $F$ is such a set, then $F \cap \overline{B}$ intersects every $D_p(x)$. Thus some number $u \in \overline{B}$, would be in $D_p(x)$ for infinitely many $x$ and

$$\{ x \mid u \in D_f(x) \}$$

would be an infinite r.e. subset of $\overline{A}$, contradicting the assumption that $A$ is simple. Thus the $D_{k(x)}$ can be disjointified to witness $B$ not hypersimple.

$qed.$

A counterpart to the above theorem for $m$-reducibility was first proved by Young. Martin has proved the btt-analogue of the above theorem.
One corollary of the above theorem is that every r.e. Turing degree contains at least two p-degrees. However, this fact has already been pointed out as corollary 3.10.

We now turn to non-r.e. sets. The goal of the present section is to prove that every nonrecursive tt-degree contains infinitely many m-degrees. For the present methods, the analogue of the simple but not hypersimple sets will be the immune but not hyperimmune sets which are retraced by total functions.

**PROPOSITION 5.16** Every nonrecursive tt-degree contains a set which is immune but not hyperimmune and retraced by a (total)recursive function.

**Proof**

The binary tree is the collection of all finite sequences of 0's and 1's.

Let be a 1-1 effective coding of the binary tree onto the integers such that, for any sequences a and b in the binary tree,

\[ a \text{ longer than } b \Rightarrow \sigma(a) > \sigma(b) \]

Let B be any given nonrecursive set. With B associate first the infinite sequence \( S = c_B(0), c_B(1), \ldots \), where \( c_B \) is the characteristic function of B. Now associate with B the set A, where A is defined by

\[ A = \{ \sigma(a) \mid a \text{ is a finite initial subsequence of } S \} \]

It is claimed that A is the desired immune not hyperimmune set retraced by a recursive function such that \( A \equiv_{tt} B \).

First we show that \( B \not\leq_{tt} A \). We have \( B \not\leq_{tt} A \), since, for all \( n \)

\[ n \not\in B \iff \text{some sequence of length } n \text{ ending in a } 1 \text{ is in } A \] and given n, one can effectively compute the canonical index for the set
of all code numbers for sequences of length \( n \) which end in a 1. Also, \( A \equiv_t B \), since for all \( n \)

\[ n \in A \iff \text{the sequence with code number } n \text{ is a finite initial subsequence of} \]

\[ \langle c_B(0), c_B(1), \ldots \rangle \]

and the right hand side of the above equivalence can be written as a tt-condition on \( B \) uniformly in \( n \).

Now we show that \( A \) is retraceable. Define a function \( f \) which maps finite sequences to finite sequences by

\[ f(a) = \begin{cases} a, & \text{if } a \text{ is the empty sequence} \\ \text{the sequence obtained from } a \text{ by deleting the last term of } a, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]

Now let \( f' \) be the corresponding function mapping \( \mathbb{N} \) to \( \mathbb{N} \);

\[ f' = \sigma f \sigma^{-1} \]

By the condition that longer sequences have larger code numbers, \( f' \) is a retracing function for \( A \). By the effectiveness of the coding, \( f' \) is recursive.

Since \( A \) is retraceable and nonrecursive, \( A \) is immune. The sets

\[ \{ D_g(n) \} \]

witnesses that \( A \) is not hyperimmune, where

\[ D_g(n) = \{ x \mid x \text{ is the code number for a sequence of length } n \} \]

qed.

**THEOREM 5.17** Suppose that \( A \) is retraced by a total recursive function. Then,

(i) \( A \neq_m A \)

(ii) If \( A \) is immune but not hyperimmune, then the m-degrees of \( \bar{A}, \bar{A} \bar{A}, \bar{A} \bar{A} \bar{A}, \ldots \)
are all distinct.

(iii) If \( A \) is immune but not hyperimmune, then \( A \) and \( \bar{A} \) are \( m \)-incomparable.

(iv) If \( A \) is not hyperimmune, \( A \equiv p \bar{A} \).

Proof Suppose for the proof of all parts, that \( A \) is retraced by the recursive function \( f' \). Then the recursive function \( f \) also retraces \( A \), where

\[
f(x) = \begin{cases} 
  f'(x) & \text{if } f'(x) \leq x \\
  x & \text{if } f'(x) > x
\end{cases}
\]

\( f \) will be used throughout the proof because it has the useful property that \( f(x) \leq x \) for all \( x \).

Some terminology will be introduced now for this proof only. Let "\( x \) retraces to \( y \)" mean

\[
(\exists n) [ n \geq 0 \wedge f^n(x) = y ]
\]

Since \( f(x) \leq x \) for all \( x \) and there are no infinite descending chains of integers, \( \{ x, y \mid x \text{ retraces to } y \} \) is a recursive set.

Let "\( x \) and \( y \) are comparable" mean that \( x \) retraces to \( y \) or \( y \) retraces to \( x \), and let "\( x \) is incomparable with \( y \)" mean that \( x \) and \( y \) are not comparable.

(i) To show that \( A x A \leq_m A \), let \( a' \) be a fixed member of \( \bar{A} \), and define the recursive function \( g' \) by

\[
g'(\langle x, y \rangle) = \begin{cases} 
  x & \text{if } x \text{ retraces to } y \\
  y & \text{if } y \text{ retraces to } x \\
  a' & \text{if } x \text{ and } y \text{ are incomparable}
\end{cases}
\]

It is claimed that \( A x A \leq_m A \) via \( g' \). If both \( x \) and \( y \) are in \( A \), then \( x \) and \( y \) are comparable, so \( g'(\langle x, y \rangle) = x \) or \( g'(\langle x, y \rangle) = y \).
Therefore \( g'( <x,y> ) \in A \). Conversely, if \( g'( <x,y> ) \in A \), then \( g'( <x,y> ) \neq a' \), so \( g'( <x,y> ) \) retraces to both \( x \) and \( y \).

Therefore, \( x \) and \( y \) are in \( A \). This proves part (i).

(ii) To prove part (ii), assume for reductio ad absurdum that \( A \) is immune and not hyperimmune and

\[
\underbrace{A \bar{A} \bar{A} \ldots \bar{A}}_{k+1 \text{ factors}} \preceq \underbrace{A \bar{A} \bar{A} \ldots \bar{A}}_{k \text{ factors}}
\]

where \( k \) is fixed. Since it is easy to check that for all \( j > 0 \)

\[
\underbrace{A \bar{A} \bar{A} \ldots \bar{A}}_{j \text{ factors}} \preceq \underbrace{A \bar{A} \bar{A} \ldots \bar{A}}_{k+1 \text{ factors}}
\]

it follows that

\[
\{ y \mid D_y \leq k+1 \text{ and } D_y \cap A \neq \emptyset \} \preceq_m \{ y \mid D_y \leq k \text{ and } D_y \cap A \neq \emptyset \}
\]

Let \( g \) be a recursive function such that for all \( y \) with \( |D_y| \leq k+1 \),

\[
|D_g(y)| \leq k \text{ and } (D_y \cap A \neq \emptyset \iff D_g(y) \cap A \neq \emptyset)
\]

The properties of \( f \) and \( g \) are now used to obtain an r.e. subset \( B \) of \( \overline{A} \). Let \( B = B_1 \cup B_2 \), where

\[
B_1 = \{ x \mid (\exists y) [ |D_y| \leq k+1 \text{ and } x \in D_y \text{ and } x \text{ is incomparable with every member of } D_g(y) ] \}
\]

\[
B_2 = \{ x \mid (\exists y) [ |D_y| \leq k+1 \text{ and } x \text{ is incomparable with every member of } D_y \text{ and } x \text{ retraces to some member of } D_g(y) ] \}
\]

\( B_1 \) and \( B_2 \) are r.e., so \( B \) is r.e. To see that \( B_1 \subseteq \overline{A} \), suppose that some number \( x \) were in \( B_1 \cap A \). Let \( y \) be such that \( |D_y| \leq k+1 \) and \( x \in D_y \) and \( x \) is incomparable with every member of \( D_g(y) \). Since \( x \in D_y \cap A \), \( D_y \cap A \neq \emptyset \); hence \( D_y \cap A \neq \emptyset \). But any element of \( A \) is comparable with \( x \), so \( D_g(y) \) contains a number comparable with \( x \), contrary to assumption. Thus \( B_1 \subseteq \overline{A} \).

To see that \( B_2 \subseteq \overline{A} \), suppose that some number \( x \) were in \( B_2 \cap A \).
Let $y$ be such that $|D_y| \leq k + 1$ and $x$ is incomparable with every member of $D_y$ and $x$ retraces to some member of $D_{g(y)}$. Since $x \not\in A$, and $x$ is incomparable with every member of $D_y, D_y \cap A = \emptyset$. Hence $D_{g(y)} \cap A = \emptyset$.

But $x$ retraces to some member of $D_{g(y)}$, so $x$ retraces to a nonmember of $A$, which is impossible. Thus $B_2 \subseteq A$, so $B \subseteq A$.

It will be shown that $B$ is "large" in a sense to be made precise with the use of the recursive function $n$ defined below:

$$n(x) = \text{the least number } m \text{ such that } f^m(x) = f^m(y)$$

Observe that $n(x)$ ("the norm of $x$") is always defined because $f(x) \leq x$ for all $x$ and there are no infinite descending chains of integers.

(Note: This proof can be visualized in terms of the "retracing tree." (cf. Rogers [14]). For example, $n(x)$ is the "level" of $x$ in the retracing tree.)

Now it is claimed that for every $j$ there are at most $2^k$ numbers which have norm $j$ and are not in $B$. (Recall that $k$ was fixed earlier.) To facilitate the proof of the claim, a partial ordering $\preceq$ of $\mathbb{N}$ will be defined such that any two numbers $x$ and $y$ are comparable with respect to $\preceq$ if and only if $n(x) = n(y)$. $x \preceq y$ is defined inductively on $n(x) = n(y)$:

$$x \preceq y \quad \text{means } x \preceq y \text{ if } n(x) = n(y) = 0$$

$$x \preceq y \quad \text{means } n(x) \preceq n(y) \text{ or } (f(x) = f(y) \text{ and } x \preceq y)$$

if $n(x) = n(y) > 0$, and $u \preceq v$ has already been defined for all $u, v$ with $n(u) = n(v) \leq n(x)$.

The above definition makes sense because, if $n(x) > 0$, then $nf(x) \preceq n(x)$.

It is easy to verify that $\preceq$ is a partial ordering under which any two numbers of equal norm are comparable and that for any $x, y, z$
\[ x \preceq y \Rightarrow f^2(x) \preceq f^2(y) \]

(Intuitively, \( x \preceq y \) means that \( x \) and \( y \) have the same level in the retracing tree, and \( x \) is to the left of \( y \) in the tree, if the tree is coded so that code numbers increase as one moves from left to right at a given level.)

Now suppose the claim made above is false, i.e., assume that there is some number \( j \) such that \( 2k + 1 \) nonmembers of \( B \) have norm \( j \). Let \( x_1, \ldots, x_{2k + 1} \) be \( 2k + 1 \) nonmembers of \( B \) of norm \( j \). Assume that the \( x_i \) are indexed so that

\[ x_1 \preceq x_2 \preceq \ldots \preceq x_{2k + 1} \]

Let \( D_y = \{ x_1, x_3, x_5, \ldots, x_{2k + 1} \} \). Since no member of \( D_y \) is in \( B \), every member of \( D \) is comparable with some member of \( D_y \). But

\[ |D_y| = k + 1, \quad |D_{g(y)}| = k. \]

Thus there is some member \( w \) of \( D_{g(y)} \) which is comparable with two distinct members, say \( x_{2m + 1} \) and \( x_{2n + 1} \) of \( D_y \). Thus, since \( x_{2m + 1} \) and \( x_{2n + 1} \) have the same level, there is a \( z \) such that

\[ f^2(x_{2m + 1}) = f^2(x_{2n + 1}) = w. \]

Assume \( m < n \). It will be shown that \( x_{2m + 2} \notin B_2 \). This will give the desired contradiction and prove the claim. Note that

\[ x_{2m + 1} \preceq x_{2m + 2} \preceq x_{2n + 1} \]

Thus

\[ f^2(x_{2m + 1}) \preceq f^2(x_{2m + 2}) \preceq f^2(x_{2n + 1}) \]

So \( f^2(x_{2m + 2}) = w \).

Now consider the set \( D_y = \{ x_1, x_3, \ldots, x_{2k + 1} \} \). Every member of \( D_y \) is incomparable with \( x_{2m + 2} \), since \( x_{2m + 2} \notin D_y \), and every member of \( D_y \) has the same norm as \( x_{2m + 2} \). Also \( x_{2m + 2} \)
retraces to some member, \(w\), of \(D_g(y)\). Thus \(x_{2m+2} \in B_2\), which was to be shown.

The fact that \(A\) is not hyperimmune will now be used. Let \(a_0, a_1, \ldots\) be the members of \(A\) in increasing order. Rice has shown that since \(A\) is infinite and not hyperimmune there is a recursive function \(h\) which majorizes \(A\), i.e., which is such that for all \(n\),

\[ h(n) > a_n \]

We now define a sequence of disjoint sets \(D_p(x)\) all intersecting \(A\). To find \(D_p(x)\), list \(B\) until at most \(2j\) numbers which have norm \(x\) and are less than \(h(x)\) have not appeared in the list of \(B\). By the previous argument, this state of affairs must be reached for every \(x\). Then let \(D_p(x)\) be the set whose members are these at most \(2j\) numbers which have norm \(x\) and are less than \(h(x)\) and have not yet appeared in the listing of \(B\). Now \(D_p(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset\) because \(a_x \in D_p(x) \cap A\). Now the proof could be concluded at this point by quoting a lemma of Appel and McLaughlin [1] which states that no regressive immune set is witnessed nonhyperimmune by a collection of sets \(\{D_p(x)\}\) of bounded cardinality, since we have, for all \(x\), \(|D_p(x)| \leq 2j\). However, we prove below just the special case of the Appel-McLaughlin lemma needed for the proof.

**Lemma 5.18** If \(A\) is an immune set retraced by a total function and \(\{D_{k(x)}\}\) witnesses that \(A\) is not hyperimmune, then there is no constant \(c\) such that, for all \(x\)

\[ |D_{p(x)}| \leq c \]

**Proof of lemma** Suppose there were such a constant \(c\). Consider

\[ C = \{ y \mid (\exists x) [\text{Every member of } D_{p(x)} \text{ retracts to } y ] \} \]

(We continue to use the terminology of the proof of the theorem)
Since each $D_p(x)$ intersects $A$, $C$ is an r.e. subset of $A$ and thus finite.

Let $y_o$ be a member of $A$ which is not in $C$. Define $D'_p(x)$ by

$$D'_p(x) = D_p(x) - \{ z \mid z \in D_p(x) \& z \text{ does not retrace to } y_o \}$$

It is claimed that all but finitely many $D'_p(x)$ intersect $A$.
This is so because if $D'_p(x)$ fails to intersect $A$, then $D_p(x)$ must have contained a member of $A$ which did not retrace to $y_o$, i.e. $D_p(x)$ must have contained a number to which $y_o$ retraced, and there are only finitely many such numbers. Thus by eliminating these finitely many sets we obtain the sets $D'_p(x)$ which witness $A$ nonhypersimple and which are bounded in cardinality by $c-1$, since each $D_p(x)$ contained a number which did not retrace to $y_o$. Iterating this procedure $c$ times, we obtain a sequence of empty sets witnessing the nonhypersimplicity of $A$, which is absurd. $\text{qed.}$

Since the $D_p(x)$ defined in the proof of the theorem are bounded in cardinality, we have contradiction, and part (ii) is proved.

(iii) To prove part (iii), assume that $A$ is immune and not hyperimmune. Assume also that $A$ and $\overline{A}$ are $m$-comparable, so that $A \equiv_m \overline{A}$.

Then by part (i),

$$\overline{A}x \overline{A} \equiv_m A \land \overline{A}x A \equiv_m \overline{A}$$

This contradicts part (ii).

To prove part (iv), assume that $A$ is non-hyperimmune. Let the functions $n$ and $h$ be as in the proof of part (ii).

Then, for any $x$

$$x \in \overline{A} \iff (\exists y) \{ y \neq x \& n(y) = n(x) \& y \leq h(x) \& y \in A \}$$

Thus $\overline{A} \not\equiv_p A$, so $A \not\equiv_p \overline{A}$ and $A \equiv_p \overline{A}$. $\text{qed.}$
COROLLARY 5.19

(i) Every nonrecursive tt-degree contains infinitely many m-degrees.

(ii) Every nonrecursive tt-degree contains a p-degree with incomparable m-degrees.

Proof

(i) By proposition 5.16 each nonrecursive tt-degree contains an immune but not hyperimmune set $A$ which is retraced by a recursive function. Thus it contains the m-degrees of $\overline{A}, \overline{A} \times \overline{A}, ...$

and by theorem 5.18 this is an infinite collection of m-degrees.

(ii) By proposition 5.16 each nonrecursive tt-degree contains an immune but not hyperimmune set $A$ which is retraced by a total function. By theorem 5.17 the positive degree of $A$ contains the m-degrees of $A$ and $\overline{A}$ which are incomparable.

qed.

We now show that every r.e. nonrecursive tt-degree contains a strong cylinder.

THEOREM 5.20 If $A$ is an r.e. nonrecursive set, $A^{tt}$ is a strong cylinder, where $A^{tt}$ is defined as $\{x | x$ is true of $A\}$. (cf. theorem 2.6)

Proof For any $A, A^{tt}$ is a cylinder. Let $A$ be r.e. and nonrecursive and suppose $A \leq_{m} B$ via $g$. It must be shown that $A \leq_{m} B$, so by lemma 5.7 it is sufficient to show that $B$ is a (range $g$)-cylinder. Let $h$ be a recursive function such that for all $y$,

$$W_{h}(y) = \{ f(x, A (n \in A)) \mid f(x) = y \land n \in A \}$$

$$\cup \{ f(x, y) (-n \in A) \mid f(x) = y \land n \in A \}$$

(Recall that formulas are conventionally identified with their
code numbers so that, for example, \( x \land (n \in A) \) refers to the code number for the formula obtained by conjoining the formula with code number \( x \) with the formula "\( n \in A \)".

To show that \( B \) is a (range \( g \))-cylinder it is sufficient to show that

\[
y \in B \implies W_h(y) \subseteq B, \quad y \in \overline{B} \implies \overline{W_h(y)} \subseteq \overline{B}
\]

& \( y \in \text{range } g \implies W_h(y) \text{ infinite} \)

Note that for any \( x,y \), and \( n \) with \( n \in A \) and \( f(x) = y \)

\[
y \in B \iff x \in A^t \iff (x \land n \in A) \in A^t \iff (x \lor \neg n \in A) \in A^t \quad \downarrow
\]

\[
g(x \land n \in A) \in B \quad g(x \lor \neg n \in A) \in B
\]

Thus \( (y \in B \implies W_h(y) \subseteq B) \) & \( (y \in \overline{B} \implies \overline{W_h(y)} \subseteq \overline{B}) \).

Now suppose that \( W_h(y_0) \) were finite for some number \( y_0 \) in range \( g \). Let \( y_0 = g(x_0) \). We will get a contradiction by showing that \( A \) is recursive.

First suppose that \( y_0 \in B \). Then, for all \( n \),

\[
n \in A \iff g(x_0 \land n \in A) \in W_h(y_0)
\]

The arrow to the right above is immediate from the definition of \( W_h(y_0) \). To prove the arrow to the left, assume that \( g(x_0 \land n \in A) \in W_h(y_0) \). Since \( y_0 \in B \), \( W_h(y_0) \subseteq B \), so \( g(x_0 \land n \in A) \in B \). Thus

\[
(x_0 \land n \in A) \in A^t \quad \text{so } (n \in A) \in A^t. \quad \text{Therefore, } n \in A.
\]

But the equivalence proved above shows that \( A \) is recursive, since \( W_h(y_0) \) is finite.

Now suppose that \( y_0 \notin B \). Then, for all \( n \),

\[
n \in A \iff g(x_0 \lor \neg n \in A) \in W_h(y_0)
\]

The arrow to the right above is immediate from the definition of
To prove the arrow to the left, assume that 
\[ g(x_0 \land y_0 \in A) \in W(y_0) \]. Since \( y_0 \in B \), \( W(y_0) \subseteq \overline{B} \), so \( g(x_0 \land y_0 \in A) \in \overline{B} \).

Thus \( (x_0 \land y_0 \in A) \notin \overline{B} \), so \( (n \notin A) \notin \overline{B} \). Therefore \( n \notin A \).

Again, we have that \( A \) is recursive.

Thus we see that \( W(y) \) is infinite for \( y \in \text{range } g \), and the proof is complete. 

\begin{flushright}
\text{qed.}
\end{flushright}

**COROLLARY 5.21** Every r.e. tt-degree contains an m-degree consisting of a single 1-degree.

**Proof** The recursive tt-degree obviously contains an m-degree consisting of a single 1-degree and each nonrecursive r.e. tt-degree contains a strong cylinder, which, by proposition 5.5, belongs to an m-degree consisting of a single 1-degree. 

\begin{flushright}
\text{qed.}
\end{flushright}

It should be noted that corollary 5.21 is not a generalization of corollary 5.10, which states that every r.e. Turing degree contains an r.e. m-degree consisting of a single 1-degree. The common generalization of these two corollaries, i.e. the statement that every r.e. tt-degree contains an r.e. m-degree consisting of a single 1-degree, would follow immediately from corollary 5.9 if it could be shown that every r.e. nonrecursive tt-degree contains a simple set which is not hypersimple. Likewise, it would follow that every r.e. nonrecursive tt-degree contains infinitely many m-degrees. However, it is probably not the case that every r.e. nonrecursive tt-degree contains a simple set which is not hypersimple.

In theorem 5.21 the hypothesis that \( A \) is not recursive obviously cannot be dropped. The writer does not know whether the theorem remains
true when the requirement that $A$ be r.e. is dropped.

We now study an inversion of the notion of $R$-cylinder. As we shall see, the notion seems to be of interest only for $m$-reducibility.

**DEFINITION 5.22** Let $R$ be a reducibility. $A$ is an **inverse $R$-cylinder** if

$$(orall B) [ A \leq_R B \Rightarrow A \leq_1 B ]$$

$A$ is an **inverse cylinder** if $A$ is an inverse $m$-cylinder.

Since strong cylinders are precisely the sets which are both cylinders and inverse cylinders, we have already shown that a variety of inverse cylinders exist. We now show, however, that practically no reducibilities $R$ strictly weaker than $m$-reducibility have any inverse $R$-cylinders.

**THEOREM 5.23** No reducibility $R$ weaker than $bq$ (or $bc$) reducibility has any inverse $R$-cylinders.

**Proof** Suppose it can be shown that there are no inverse $bq$-cylinders. Then it follows trivially that no reducibility $R$ weaker than $bq$ has any inverse $R$-cylinders. Also, since

$$A \leq_{bq} B \iff \bar{A} \leq_{bc} \bar{B} \quad \& \quad A \leq_1 B \iff \bar{A} \leq_1 \bar{B}$$

it follows that there are no inverse $bc$-cylinders and hence no inverse $R$-cylinders for any reducibility weaker than $bc$-reducibility.

Thus it is sufficient to show that there are no inverse $bq$-cylinders.

Suppose that some set $A$ is an inverse $bq$-cylinder.

**Case 1** $A$ is finite. Then let $B$ be any coimmune set. We have

$$A \leq_m B.$$  

Thus, $A \leq_{bq} B$.

Thus, since $A$ is an inverse $bq$-cylinder, $A \not\leq_1 B$. Hence $\bar{A} \not\leq_1 \bar{B}$.
Thus a cofinite set is 1-1 reducible to an immune set, which is impossible.

**Case 2** A is infinite. Let B be a set which is both immune and coimmune. (Post has shown the existence of such sets.) Let C be given by

\[ C = (A \cup A) \cap (B \cup B) \]

Note that the set C is a subset of the immune set B join B and that C is infinite, since A is infinite. Thus C is immune. Note also that

\[ x \in A \iff (2x \in C) \text{ or } (2x + 1) \in C \]

so that \( A \leq_{bl} C \), so \( A \leq_1 C \). Thus since A is infinite, A is immune.

Let a be any member of A. We have \( A \leq_m A - \{a\} \), so \( A \leq_m A - \{a\} \), and therefore \( A \leq_1 A - \{a\} \). But this last statement contradicts a well-known theorem of Dekker and Myhill, since A is immune. qed.

We now study inverse \((m)\)-cylinders. Note that it follows from the proof of the previous theorem that no inverse cylinder is \(m\)-reducible to any immune set. Hence not all \(m\)-degrees contain inverse cylinders and, in particular, there are cylinders which are not inverse cylinders. However, it is not known whether there are inverse cylinders which are not cylinders. It is also not known whether the join of two inverse cylinders is an inverse cylinder, although, of course, the join of two cylinders is a cylinder. Below will be given two theorems which will make it easy to explore the connection between these questions.

**Theorem 5.24** For any set A, the following statements are equivalent.

( i ) A is a cylinder

( ii ) A join A is a cylinder
(iii) \( A \text{ join } A \leq_m A \)

Proof (i) \( \Rightarrow \) (ii) since the join of two cylinders is always a cylinder. (i) \( \Rightarrow \) (iii) since it is always true that \( A \text{ join } A \leq_m A \).

To prove (ii) \( \Rightarrow \) (i), assume that \( A \text{ join } A \) is a cylinder and that \( g \) is a recursive function such that, for all \( x \)

\[
\begin{align*}
& g(x) \text{ is infinite } \& (x \in A \text{ join } A \Rightarrow g(x) \subseteq A \text{ join } A) \\
& \quad \& (x \in A \text{ join } A \Rightarrow g(x) \subseteq A \text{ join } A)
\end{align*}
\]

\( g \) exists by Young's characterization of cylinders. Now let \( h \) be a recursive function such that, for all \( x \)

\[
W_{h(x)} = \{ x | 2x \in \text{ or } (2x + 1) \in W_{g(x)} \}
\]

Then \( h \) witnesses that \( A \) is a cylinder by Young's characterization.

Now suppose that \( A \text{ join } A \leq_m A \). It must be shown that \( A \) is a cylinder. Let a number \( x \) be given. Define a sequence \( \{ S_n \} \) of finite sets inductively:

\[
S_0 = \{ x \} \\
S_{n+1} = \{ f(2x) \mid x \in S_n \} \cup \{ f(2x + 1) \mid x \in S_n \}
\]

Since \( f \) is 1-1, \( |S_n| = 2^n \). Thus \( \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} S_n \) is infinite. Also, if \( y \in S_n, x \in A \text{ iff } x \in A \). Thus if we let \( h \) be a recursive function such that, for each \( x \), \( W_{h(x)} = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} S_n \), \( h \) witnesses that \( A \) is a cylinder.

qed.

The above theorem allows one to prove a special case of Young's result that every nonrecursive \( m \)-degree either consists of a single 1-degree or contains a collection of 1-degrees which is linearly ordered under \( \leq_1 \) with the order type of rationals.

**COROLLARY 5.25** Every \( m \)-degree either consists of a single 1-degree
or contains an infinite collection of 1-degrees with the order type of the integers.

Proof If an m-degree does not consist of a single 1-degree it contains a non-cylinder A. Define the sequence $A^i$ inductively:

$$A^0 = A$$

$$A^{n+1} = A^n \text{ join } A^n$$

Then from the equivalence (i)$\iff$(ii) in the theorem, each $A^n$ is a non-cylinder, so by the equivalence (i)$\iff$(iii) we have

$$A^n \preceq A^{n+1}$$

Since for all $n$, $A^n \equiv_m A$, the proof is complete. qed.

Theorem 5.26 If either A or B is a cylinder, then the 1-degree of A join B is the least upper bound to the 1-degrees of A and B in the 1-ordering.

Proof For any A and B, the 1-degree of A join B is an upper bound to the 1-degrees of A and B. Now assume that A is a cylinder.

To show that the 1-degree of A join B is the l.u.b. to the 1-degrees of A and B we must show that for any set C with $A \preceq_i C$ and $B \preceq_i C$, it is the case that

$$A \text{ join } B \preceq_i C$$

Assume that $A \preceq_i C$ via $f$ and $B \preceq_i C$ via $g$. Let $h$ be a recursive function such that, for all $x$,

$$W_h(x) \text{ infinite } \& (x \in A \implies W_h(x) \subseteq A) \& (x \in A \implies W_h(x) \subseteq A)$$

We now define a 1-1 recursive function $k$ by induction so that

$$A \text{ join } B \preceq_i C \text{ via } k.$$
\[ k(0) = f(0) \]
\[
= \ldots
\]
\[ k(2n) = y \quad \text{where } y \text{ is the first number found in an}
\]
\[ \text{effective listing of } f(W_h(n)) \text{ such that}
\]
\[ y \notin \{k(0), k(1), \ldots, k(2n-1)\} \quad (n > 0) \]
\[ k(2n+1) = g(n) \text{ if } g(n) \notin \{k(0), k(1), \ldots, k(2n)\} \].

Otherwise use the instructions below to compute \( k(2n+1) \).

If \( g(n) \notin \{k(0), k(1), \ldots, k(2n)\} \), list the sets \( f(W_h(x)) \) for \( x \leq n \)
until \( g(n) \) is found in one of these sets, say \( f(W_h(z)) \). Then let
\[ k(2n+1) = y, \text{ where } y \text{ is the first number found in an effective listing}
\]
of \( f(W_h(z)) \) such that \( y \notin \{k(0), k(1), \ldots, k(2n)\} \).

Clearly, if \( k \) is total, \( A \) join \( B \leq C \) via \( k \).

\( k \) is clearly defined for even arguments and for odd arguments
\( 2n+1 \) such that \( g(n) \notin \{k(0), k(1), \ldots, k(2n)\} \). So it is sufficient
to show that \( k(2n+1) \) is defined when \( g(n) \notin \{k(0), k(1), \ldots, k(2n)\} \).

It follows from the definition of \( k \), that for any \( m \leq 2n \), either
\[ k(m) = g(u) \text{ where } u < n, \text{ or } k(m) \notin \bigcup_{x=0}^{n} f(W_h(x)). \]
Since
\[ g(n) \notin \{k(0), k(1), \ldots, k(2n)\}, \text{ then } g(n) = g(u) \text{ where } u < n, \text{ or}
\]
\[ g(n) \notin \bigcup_{x=0}^{n} f(W_h(x)). \]
Since \( g \) is 1-1, it follows that \( g(n) \notin \bigcup_{x=0}^{n} f(W_h(x)) \)
so it is apparent from the definition of \( k \) that \( k(2n+1) \) is defined. \( \Box \).

In contrast to the above theorem, it may be shown that \( A \) join \( B \)
is never a least upper bound to \( A \) and \( B \) in the 1-ordering when \( A \) and \( B \)
are immune. In fact, Young [18] has shown that if \( A \) and \( B \) are simple
sets incomparable under \( \leq_1 \), then \( A \) and \( B \) have no l.u.b. in the 1-ordering.
COROLLARY 5.27

(i) If A is a strong cylinder and B is an inverse cylinder, then A join B is an inverse cylinder.

(ii) If A and B are strong cylinders, then A join B is a strong cylinder.

Proof

(i) Suppose that A is a strong cylinder and B is an inverse cylinder and

\[ A \join B \leq_m C. \]

It must be shown that \( A \join B \leq_1 C. \) Since A and B are \( m \)-reducible to \( A \join B \), A and B are each \( m \)-reducible to C. Since A and B are inverse cylinders, it follows that A and B are each \( 1 \)-reducible to C. Since A is a cylinder, the theorem implies that \( A \join B \) is \( 1 \)-reducible to C.

(ii) Suppose that A and B are strong cylinders. Then by part (i), \( A \join B \) is an inverse cylinder. Also, since A and B are cylinders, \( A \join B \) is a cylinder, so \( A \join B \) is a strong cylinder.

qed.

The question of whether every inverse cylinder is a cylinder or, equivalently, whether every inverse cylinder is a strong cylinder, has been left open. The following corollary gives an alternative formulation of the question.

COROLLARY 5.28 The following two propositions are equivalent.

(i) Every inverse cylinder is a cylinder.

(ii) The join of any two inverse cylinders is an inverse cylinder.

Proof

Assume (i) and let A and B be inverse cylinders. Thus A and B are
strong cylinders. Then by the preceding corollary, $A \cup B$ is a strong cylinder and thus an inverse cylinder.

Assume (ii), and let $A$ be an inverse cylinder. By (ii), $A \cup A$ is an inverse cylinder. Thus, since $A \cup A \leq_m A$, $A \cup A \leq_1 A$. Now it follows from theorem 5.25 that $A$ is a cylinder. qed.

It is easy to show that if $A$ is a cylinder and $B$ is any set, then $A \times B$ is a cylinder. The corresponding statement for inverse cylinders is false, for if $A$ is an inverse cylinder and $B$ is empty, then $A \times B$ is empty and hence not an inverse cylinder. However, the writer does not know whether $A \times B$ is an inverse cylinder when $A$ is an inverse cylinder and $B$ is non-empty. The inverse cylinders exhibited in theorem 5.8, i.e. sets of the form $\{x \mid D \subseteq A \} \times C$ for simple but not hypersimple $A$ and non-empty $C$, have the property that their cartesian product with any non-empty set is still an inverse cylinder. However, it does not seem clear that the inverse cylinders exhibited in theorem 5.20, i.e. sets of the form $A^{\text{tt}}$ for r.e. but not recursive $A$, share this property, much less whether all inverse cylinders share this property.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


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