

On the power of vanishing value measurements

Edwin Beggs^a, José Félix Costa^{b,c}, Diogo Poças^{b,c}, John V tucker^a

^a*School of Physical Sciences, Swansea University, Singleton Park, Swansea, SA2 8PP, Wales, U.K.*

^b*Instituto Superior Técnico, Universidade de Lisboa, Portugal*

^c*Centro de Matemática e Aplicações Fundamentais da Universidade de Lisboa*

Abstract

We consider the measurement of physical quantities that vanish in some experimental conditions. In [7], and definitely in [10], we speculated that physical experiments of measurement can be classified in three categories: two-sided, threshold and vanishing. The computational power of two-sided and threshold experiments, as dialogue between the discrete and analogue parts of a hybrid system, were analysed elsewhere, namely in [1, 2, 3, 5, 10]. In this paper we consider the vanishing protocol and prove lower and upper bounds of its computational power in two variants. We end with a suitable version of the Church-Turing postulate for analogue computation.

1. Introduction

Most of the work addressing the computational capabilities of dynamic systems with real valued parameters in discrete polynomial time is based on a measurement: part of the control structure of the system reads in linear time, bit by bit, the binary expansion of some parameter, possibly encoding an advice function to a Turing machine in some class $\mathcal{F}\star$ (in most cases $= \mathcal{F}$). Inter alia, this construction is found in the Analog Recurrent Neural Net (ARNN) model of Hava T. Siegelmann and Eduardo Sontag (see [20]), in the Optical Computer of Damien Woods and Thomas J. Naughton (see [21]), and in the mirror system of Olivier Bournez and Michel Cosnard (see [13]). E.g., in the ARNN case, a subsystem of about eleven neurones performs a measurement of the unique non-rational weight of the network, approximating its value both from above and from below. Once the measurement is done, up to some precision, the computation resumes to a Turing machine computation with advice simulated by a system of a thousand rational neurones interconnected with integer and a few rational weights. Thus, we concluded that,

Different models of analogue computation “execute” a measurement assisted by a Turing like computation followed by a Turing computation of arbitrary complexity.

The theory of dynamic system capabilities can then be reduced to Turing machines with the ability of making measurements. One way of doing so is by considering the measurement as an oracle consulting algorithm. This oracle has a cost function T of type $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ that gives the number

Email addresses: E.J.Beggs@swansea.ac.uk (Edwin Beggs), fgc@math.ist.utl.pt (José Félix Costa), diogopocas1991@gmail.com (Diogo Poças), J.V.Tucker@swansea.ac.uk (John V tucker)

of time steps allowed to perform the measurement of the next bit. The common dynamic systems in the computational literature, having real parameters, *perform non-physical measurements*, i.e., measurements that, even in the Platonic world, can not be done in linear time unless they are done through non-analytic functions. E.g., in a balance scale the pans move with acceleration that depends on the difference of masses placed in them, in a way such that the time needed to detect a mass difference increases exponentially with the precision of the measurement, no matter how small (yet fixed) that difference can be made. This measurement has an exponential cost that should be considered in the complexity of the decision problem. In the (non-analytic piecewise linear) neural net case the cost function is like the common oracle Turing machine: one step consultation device, since any further bit has the constant cost of k transitions, for some constant $k \in \mathbb{N}$ (see [20]). This is due to the fact that the activation function is piecewise linear instead of the common analytic sigmoid.

Dynamic systems that are able to read approximations to real numbers behave as hybrid systems: they perform digital computations, but occasionally they access some external values, let us say the temperature of the room. At that moment the “computer” / Turing machine has to execute some task on the analogue devices such like to test for a given value of some concept such that of temperature. In the perfect platonic world, this test is performed with infinite precision, in the sense that the real is taken as a whole entity, or with unbounded precision, in the sense that the machine can obtain as many bits of the real number as needed, or with fixed precision defined once and for all for that equipment in use. In any of these scenarios we are still in the platonic world. Such a model of computation requires a theory of computation with oracles that are stochastic (for the precision) and have a cost (for the measurement or consultation).

A possible objection of a more practical point of view is that a measurement is always limited in precision, for even if it is enough precise, it soon or later find the obstacle of the atomic structure of the involved materials. But, even quantum theory is infested with real-valued parameters and concepts. In fact, classical measurement (the one that is done even after a quantum measurement) has its own theoretic domain (see [4, 14, 16, 18]) and can only be conceived as a limiting procedure as stated by Geroch and Hartle in [15]:

Regard number w as measurable if there exists a finite set of instructions for performing an experiment such that a technician, given an abundance of unprepared raw materials and an allowed error ε , is able by following those instructions to perform the experiment, yielding ultimately a rational number within ε of w [...] Imagine that one had access to experiments in the physical world, but lacked any physical theory whatsoever. Then no number w could be shown to be measurable, for, to demonstrate experimentally that a given instruction set shows w measurable would require repeating the experiment an infinite number of times, for a succession of ε s approaching zero. One could not even demonstrate that a given instruction set shows measurability of any number at all, for it could turn out that, as ε is made smaller, the resulting sequence of experimentally determined rationals simply fails to converge. It is only a theory that can guarantee otherwise. The situation is analogous to that of trying to demonstrate that a given [...] program shows some number to be computable. There is no general algorithm for deciding this. In particular, it would not do merely to run the program for a few selected values of ε .

It means that measurement is such like complexity that can only be conceived asymptotically. Once we limit space or time resources, complexity as we know it disappears: all (now finite) sets can be decided in linear time and space 1. We could well say that tapes can have as many cells as the number of particles in the universe. But in that conditions no interesting theory of computability can be defined.

Any oracle can be encoded in a real number just by concatenating in lexicographic order all the words of the oracle. A real number is the right way of incorporating an oracle in an algebraic system making computations by sums, products and application of, let us say, piecewise linear maps, such as in the ARNN case. Then the oracle replaces the measurement: the neural model, the optical computer, the mirror system, etc., all these systems perform some measurement in linear time. However, the general oracle answers to queries in a time $T : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, on the size of the query, modeling the fact that successive approximations have a cost that is not necessarily linear in the number of bits of precision obtained (as we will see in the next section).

Our framework introduces another novelty that changes the mathematics of [1]-[2] and [3]: *not all measurements can be considered two-sided such like the balance scale*. In [3], we considered threshold measurements, such like the measurement of a threshold of a neurone. This value can be approximated just from one side, since from the other side the neurone is always firing. Different types of measurements may reveal different complexity classes.

A typical experiment settled to measure some concept x (the mass of a particle, the position of a wedge, etc.) consists of performing the experiment with a test value z , for which we could test one or both of the comparisons “ $z < x$ ” and “ $x < z$ ”. In this paper we provide the theory of a possible third class of measurements: the vanishing value type in which we are only able to test the condition “ $z \neq x$ ”. Instead of performing at each oracle consultation one instance of the experiment, two instances will be needed (two simultaneous queries in the sense of the previous types of experiments).

A measurement can be fundamental or derived. Measuring distance is fundamental, but measuring velocity is derived. Fundamental measurement (cf. [16]) is based on a partial order of comparisons that, taken to the limit, can identify a real number. Comparisons in the sense of Hempel (cf. [16]) are based on events in the experimental setup. The collection of oracles/measurements we described in [1, 3, 5, 6, 9] provide answers that are independent of the time. In this way, the stochasticity is related with the precision of the answers obtained from the oracles. The answers from the oracle are timed. Our devices are Turing machines consulting stochastic oracles possibly with a stochastic cost.

To sum up: experiments in physics provide the intuitions about these types of oracles, namely (a) that they are comparison concepts working by approximation, (b) that they have a cost and that the cost comes in diverse versions, (c) that they can be consulted with error, and (d) that they are stochastic. Experiments can be replaced by mathematical oracles of some kind. However, experiments provide valuable intuitions to reason about hybrid systems and analog-digital communication.

In the new model of vanish value oracle, we consider two types of precision: precision in the concept to be measured, such as mass, and precision in the time of oracle consultation. Since the events happening in the experimental apparatus define a timed comparative concept (see [4]), the order of events involves some precision. The precision ε in time is not asymptotic as the precision in the concept (i.e., $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$), but rather a time tolerance that can be quantified as a polynomial or an exponential or other in the size of the query. Thus, in this paper, besides the precision in the concept that can be (a) infinite, (b) unbounded or (c) finite (fixed), we consider also a time tolerance for the events happening in the experimental apparatus. The vanishing value experiment can be taken as oracle to a Turing machine in two protocol variants boosting differently the power of deterministic Turing machines clocked in polynomial time.

Note that *the Turing machines considered are deterministic*, but they can use the oracle both to get advice and to simulate the toss of a coin.

Theorem 1. 1. *If a set A is decided in polynomial time by a deterministic oracle Turing machine coupled with a type I vanishing value experiment of infinite or unbounded precisions, then $A \in P/poly$. If a set A is in $P/poly$, then A is decided by a deterministic oracle Turing machine coupled with a type I vanishing value experiment of infinite or unbounded precisions.*

2. *If a set A is decided by an oracle Turing machine coupled with a vanishing value experiment of fixed precision, then $A \in BPP//log\star$. If a set A is in $BPP//log\star$, then A is decided in polynomial time by an oracle Turing machine coupled with a vanishing value experiment of fixed precision.*

Theorem 2. 1. *If a set A is decided in polynomial time by a deterministic oracle Turing machine coupled with a type II vanishing value experiment of infinite precision, then $A \in P/poly$. If a set A is in $P/log\star$, then A is decided by a oracle Turing machine coupled with a vanishing value experiment of infinite precision.*

2. *If a set A is decided in polynomial time by a deterministic oracle Turing machine coupled with a type II vanishing value experiment of unbounded precision, then $A \in P/poly$. If a set A is decided in polynomial time by a deterministic oracle Turing machine coupled with a type II vanishing value experiment of unbounded precision and exponential protocol, then $A \in BPP//log\star$. If a set A is in $BPP//log\star$, then A is decided by a oracle Turing machine coupled with a vanishing value experiment of unbounded precision.*

3. *If a set A is decided by a deterministic oracle Turing machine coupled with a type II vanishing value experiment of fixed precision, then $A \in BPP//log\star$. If a set A is in $BPP//log\star$, then A is decided in polynomial time by a oracle Turing machine coupled with a vanishing value experiment of fixed precision.*

Vanishing oracles have not yet been considered in the literature (e.g., in [1, 8]) and the results about two-sided and threshold oracles do not apply to these systems. The upper bound known so far for the two-sided oracles with non-infinite precision is $P/poly$ (except for particular types of two-sided oracles considered in [2] and [8] for which the upper bounds are $P/poly$ and $BPP//log\star$, respectively). The upper bound known so far for the threshold oracles with non-infinite precision is $BPP//log^2\star$ (see [3]).

We will begin by introducing in Section 2 the vanishing value type of experiments focusing on the Vanishing Balance Experiment (VBE for short). In Sections 3 and 7, we discuss the operating protocols between Turing machines and stochastic oracles, as well as the procedures of using the oracles to generate fair coin tosses. In Sections 4, 5 and 6, we will introduce the VBE machines together with measurement algorithms for the three types of precision. Finally, for each type of precision, we will characterize the complexity classes decided by such machines in polynomial time. Lower bounds are proved in Section 9 and upper bounds in the following Section 10.

2. Examples of vanishing value experiments

We will now present two vanishing value experiments and adopt the second for simplicity.

2.1. The Brewster Angle Experiment

The Brewster Angle Experiment is an experiment based on the principles of classical optics. It was first described as an example of vanishing value experiment in [7]. The book [12] provides an useful reference for the experiment that we will now describe. When a plane wave falls on to

a boundary between two homogeneous media, it is split into two: a transmitted wave propagating into the second medium and a reflected wave propagated back into the first medium. Figure 1 provides an illustration of this phenomenon.

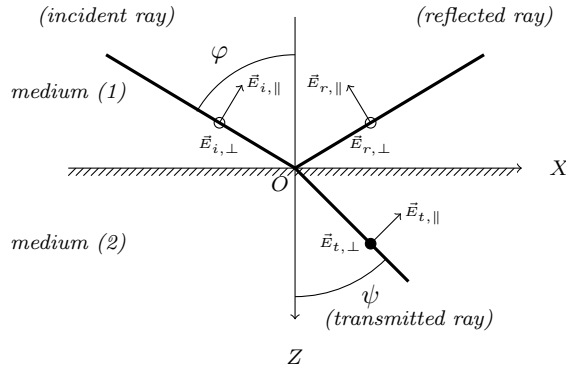


Figure 1: Elements of incident, reflected, and transmitted light rays. The indexes of the electrical field E denote the *incident*, I , *reflected*, R , and *transmitted*, T , rays, together with the *normal*, N , and the *parallel*, P , components of the field. The black circle denotes the normal component pointing forward and the white circle denotes the normal component pointing backwards.

The experimental apparatus consists of a surface dividing two media, projector and a light detector. We can send a light beam into the surface with a certain incidence angle φ . The electric field is perpendicular to the direction of propagation and can be decomposed into components parallel (subscript \parallel) and perpendicular (subscript \perp) to the plane of incidence. Let $E_{i,\parallel}$ and $E_{i,\perp}$ denote the components of the incident ray, $E_{r,\parallel}$ and $E_{r,\perp}$ the components of the reflected ray, and $E_{t,\parallel}$ and $E_{t,\perp}$ the components of the transmitted ray. Let φ be the angle of incidence and ψ be the angle of transmission. From optics we can deduce several relations between the components of the electric field, called Fresnel formulas:

$$E_{t,\parallel} = \frac{2 \sin \psi \cos \varphi}{\sin(\varphi + \psi) \cos(\varphi - \psi)} E_{i,\parallel}, \quad E_{t,\perp} = \frac{2 \sin \varphi \cos \psi}{\sin(\varphi + \psi)} E_{i,\perp}$$

$$E_{r,\parallel} = \frac{\tan(\varphi - \psi)}{\tan(\varphi + \psi)} E_{i,\parallel}, \quad E_{r,\perp} = -\frac{\sin(\varphi - \psi)}{\sin(\varphi + \psi)} E_{i,\perp}$$

The Brewster law states that *for some value of the angle of incidence, the reflected light is totally polarized in the direction normal to the plane of incidence*. From the Fresnel formulae we see that it occurs when $\varphi + \psi = \frac{\pi}{2}$, so that $E_{r,\parallel} = 0$. Our objective is to measure the Brewster angle φ_B . For the sake of simplicity we assume some scale such that $0 < \varphi_B < 1$. In this type of experiments, we cannot infer any information about the Brewster angle simply by sending a ray with desired angle ψ . The reason is that, as φ approaches φ_B , the intensity of the electric field decreases to 0, either if $\varphi < \varphi_B$ or if $\varphi > \varphi_B$.

Consider that an instance of the experiment begins by sending a light beam, polarized in the horizontal direction, with angle incidence φ so that $E_{i,\perp} = 0$, so that the reflected ray is also polarized. Furthermore, as φ approaches φ_B , the reflected ray vanishes completely. Denote by \mathbf{H}_r the magnetic field produced by the reflected ray. We know that \mathbf{H}_r is perpendicular to \mathbf{E}_r and

to the direction of propagation of the reflected ray; this implies that $\mathbf{H}_r = \mathbf{H}_{r,\perp}$. Furthermore we have the following relation between the amplitudes of the magnetic field and of the electric field: $H_r = nc\epsilon_0 E_r$, where n is the index of refraction of the first medium, c is the light speed in the vacuum and ϵ_0 is the vacuum permittivity. We assume the existence of a light detector on the reflection side that absorbs the energy of the reflected ray. This detector can be seen as a photovoltaic detector that reacts when it has absorbed energy above a threshold limit Ω . The directional energy flux of the reflected ray is then given by the Poynting vector, $\mathbf{S}_r = \mathbf{E}_r \times \mathbf{H}_r$ with the average magnitude of $\langle S \rangle = nc\epsilon_0 E_r^2/2$. Finally, let α be the cross section area of the light beam. The time taken for the light detector to absorb the threshold energy is given by

$$T_{exp} = \frac{\Omega}{\alpha \langle S \rangle} = \frac{2\Omega}{n\alpha c\epsilon_0 E_r^2}.$$

Even though the above expression seems very detailed, the important point is that the experimental time is proportional to the inverse of the square of the electric field of the reflected ray. Thus we get the following experimental time, T_{exp} , given in some abstract units,

$$T_{exp}(z, \psi) = \frac{\tan(\varphi + \psi)^2}{\tan(\varphi - \psi)^2}.$$

2.2. The Vanishing Balance Experiment

The following experiment (depicted in Figure 2) is a variation of the balance scale. The balance has two pans with a pressure stick below each pan. On the right pan there is a body with the unknown mass y . To measure y we place a test mass z on the left pan. If $z = y$, then the scale will not move since the lever is in equilibrium. But, if $z \neq y$, then one of the pans will move down and soon or later it will press one of the pressure sticks. However, when $z \neq y$, there is *no information about which of the pans sank*, only that one of them did.

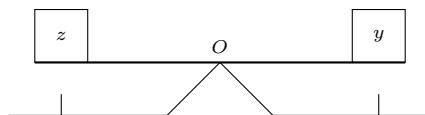


Figure 2: Schematic depiction of the *vanishing balance experiment*.

There are also other assumptions that can be made explicit about the experiment: (a) y is a real number in $[0, 1]$, (b) the mass z can be set to any dyadic rational in the interval $[0, 1]$, (c) a pressure-sensitive stick is placed below each side of the balance, such that, when one of the pans touches the pressure-sensitive stick, it reacts producing a signal, (d) the mass z can be set so that the procedure starts from absolute rest, (e) the friction between the masses and the pans is large enough so that these will not slide away from their original position once the scale is in motion, and (f) the bar on which the masses are placed is made of an homogeneous material, so that the two pans have exactly the same weight. Assuming that the test mass weighs z and the unknown mass weighs y , the cost of the experiment, $T_{exp}(z, y)$, which is the time taken for one of the pans to touch the pressure stick, in some abstract units of time, is given by:¹

¹This expression for the time, namely exhibiting an exponential growth on the precision of z with respect to the unknown y , is typical in physical experiments, regardless the concept being measured.

$$T_{exp}(z, y) = \sqrt{\frac{z + y}{|z - y|}}. \quad (1)$$

3. Protocols

How do we make the connection between the digital computer (modeled as a Turing machine) and the analog device (modeled as an oracle)? The arguments so far developed (such as in [1, 5, 6, 9]) do not differ substantially from the classical analog-digital protocol that we can find in books on hybrid computation (see [11]).

The main device for the transference of data from the digital component to the analog component is a *query tape*. However, we have been working in a situation where the analog oracle device furnishes to the digital computer two bits of information: YES/FIRST/LEFT, NO/SECOND/RIGHT, TIMEOUT, and possibly INDISTINGUISHABLE. This is a restriction to the general analog-digital converter (as in [11]), but it makes our theory closer to the realizability of hybrid machines: an answer tape is not needed and the result of the consultation of the oracle is encoded immediately after in the resulting state of the Turing machine.

The protocols that we will adopt for the vanishing experiments will be different from the protocols considered in previous papers such like [1, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9]. It seems that performing one instance of the experiment does not give much information about the relationship between the test mass z and the unknown mass y . On the other hand, when we were studying two-sided experiments in [1] we saw that result “LEFT” would imply that $z < y$ and result “RIGHT” would imply that $z > y$. Also, when we were studying threshold experiments in [3] we saw that result “YES” would imply that $z > y$. But now, with vanishing experiments, we only have result “YES” and this only implies that $z \neq y$.²

We have to consider two instances of the experiment instead of one, with two different dyadic rationals, z_1 and z_2 and their respective experimental times $T_{exp}(z_1, y)$ and $T_{exp}(z_2, y)$. Now suppose that we can determine which of the instances of the experiment ends first. That is, suppose that, for any two dyadic rationals, we can determine whether $T_{exp}(z_1, y) < T_{exp}(z_2, y)$, $T_{exp}(z_1, y) = T_{exp}(z_2, y)$, or $T_{exp}(z_1, y) > T_{exp}(z_2, y)$. Then we could also determine, for a finite increasing sequence $z_1 < z_2 < \dots < z_n$, which of the z_i corresponds to the instance that ends last. This would then imply something about y , thanks to the simple fact that y should be closer to dyadic rationals that consume more experimental time. This conclusion is a consequence of the fact that T_{exp} is increasing in the interval $[0, y)$ and decreasing in the interval $(y, 1]$. Now we ponder on the assumption we made: given two dyadic rationals z_1 and z_2 , corresponding to different instances of the experiment, how can we determine which of the instances ends last? There are two possible implementations of the experiment that can answer the question:

- To perform two experiments simultaneously, that is, to use two copies of the balance with the same unknown mass y in the right pan. We can place masses z_1 and z_2 at the left pans of the balances and start both experiments at the same time. If $T_{exp}(z_1, y) < T_{exp}(z_2, y)$, then the experiment with test mass z_1 sends a first signal and if $T_{exp}(z_1, y) > T_{exp}(z_2, y)$, then the experiment with test mass z_1 calls back first.

²Of course, “TIMEOUT” occurs very rarely, and may even not occur at all for some choices of unknown mass and time schedule.

- Suppose we only have one balance, but now we can count the machine steps during an experiment until the end. In this way we can begin by performing an instance of the experiment for test mass z_1 , and counting the number T_1 of machine transitions that the experiment takes. Then we repeat the experiment for test mass z_2 , obtaining a number T_2 of machine transitions. Finally, we compare T_1 and T_2 . If $T_1 < T_2$, then we conclude that $T_{exp}(z_1) < T_{exp}(z_2)$; if $T_1 > T_2$, then we conclude that $T_{exp}(z_1) > T_{exp}(z_2)$.

The first solution overlooks a simple practical aspect. We are basically attempting to decide which of two events occurs first, but can we actually do it if the difference in times becomes very small? We could answer this question in the negative, and argue that there is a minimum time gap below which two events may appear simultaneous, so that we can not tell which of them happens first. The second solution also introduces a problem. First recall that we should set a bound on the time that we consider acceptable to wait for a response, the time schedule concept. If the experimental time exceeds the time schedule, then the count of steps and the experiment should be interrupted. This means that, when performing two instances of the experiment, any of them may result in a timeout. If one experiment times out and the other does not, we can still decide which of them ends first; nothing can be said when both experiments time out. However it is not a great deal to solve this problem, since we can in principle increase the time schedule (padding the query z with 0s) until one of the experiments ends. There is another subtler situation in which we cannot decide which of the instances takes more time, if the number of machine transitions *is the same*, that is, when $T_1 = T_2$. In this situation the two instances are indistinguishable. Increasing the time schedule will not help us at all, nor will do padding 0s.

We shall use these assumptions:

- In the first implementation, we assume that we can in fact distinguish the two events from one another.³ In this way, when we perform two instances of the experiment, there are three possible results: the first instance ends first; the second instance ends first; or both instances time out;
- In the second implementation, we assume that it is possible for two experiments to consume the same number of machine steps. In this way, when we perform two instances of the experiment, there are four possible results: the first instance ends first; the second instance ends first; both instances time out; or we could not decide which instance ends first (although none of them times out).

We must take into account the imprecision associated with placing a test mass in the left pan. We do this in the same way as we have done in the previous papers (e.g. [1, 8]), by considering three types of precision: (a) *infinite precision* (see Figures 3 and 4): when the dyadic z is read in the query tape, a test mass z is simultaneously placed in the left pan, (b) *unbounded precision* (see Figures 3 and 4): when the dyadic z is read in the query tape, a test mass z' is simultaneously placed in the left pan such that $z - 2^{-|z|} \leq z' \leq z + 2^{-|z|}$ and (c) *fixed precision* $\epsilon > 0$ (to be discussed later on): when the dyadic z is read in the query tape, a test mass z' is simultaneously placed in the left pan such that $z - \epsilon \leq z' \leq z + \epsilon$.

³This is, as we said, infeasible, but we are willing to consider it because it will provide us with some interesting results later on.

PROTOCOL “COMPARE[1, IP]”

“MASS”: Infinite precision case

Receive as input the binary description of two dyadic rationals z_1 and z_2 of size n
 (possibly padded with 0s);
 Place a mass z_1 in the left pan of the first balance;
 Place a mass z_2 in the left pan of the second balance;
 Start both experiments at the same time;
Wait $T(n)$ units of time;
 Check which pressure stick have sent a signal first:
If the first balance calls back first **Then Return** “FIRST”;
If the second balance calls back first **Then Return** “SECOND”;
If neither instance calls back, **Then Return** “TIMEOUT”.

Figure 3: Procedure that describes the VBE with the first implementation and infinite precision, for some unknown mass y and some time schedule T .

PROTOCOL “COMPARE[2, IP, g]”

“MASS”: Infinite precision case

Receive as input the description of two dyadic rationals z_1 and z_2 of size n
 (possibly padded with 0s);
 Place a mass z_1 in the left pan;
Wait $T(n)$ units of time, while
 counting the number of steps before receiving a signal from a pressure stick, T_1 ;
If the experiment does not call back, **Then** set $T_1 := T(n) + 1$;
 Place a mass z_2 in the left pan;
Wait $T(n)$ units of time,
While counting the number of steps before receiving a signal from a pressure stick, T_2 ;
If the experiment does not call back, set $T_2 := T(n) + 1$;
 Compare T_1 and T_2 :
If $T_1 < T_2$, **Then Return** “FIRST”;
If $T_1 > T_2$, **Then Return** “SECOND”;
If $T_1 = T_2 > T(n)$, **Then Return** “TIMEOUT”.
If $T_1 = T_2 \leq T(n)$, **Then Return** “INDISTINGUISHABLE”.

Figure 4: Procedure that describes the VBE with the second implementation and infinite precision, for some unknown mass y and some time schedule T .

In the second implementation, there is also a different notion of imprecision, that appears when we count the number of machine transitions while the oracle is being consulted. We are making also the assumption that *all machine transitions take the same amount of physical time*. However, this is not necessarily true. This means that, when we count T machine transitions, the actual time taken for the experiment may not be in $(T - 1, T]$. To formalize this consideration, we define a new kind of imprecision, now related with time: (d) *time precision* g , given a map $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$: when an experiment settled for the query word z takes an amount of time t , the number of machine transitions counted is T , where T is a natural number uniformly sampled in

$\lceil t \rceil - g(|z|), \lceil t \rceil + g(|z|)$. Good examples for g are $g(n) = 0$ (full precision and we get back the assumption that all machine transitions take the same amount of time), $g(n) = c$ (constant time precision), $g(n) = cn^k$ (polynomial time precision) and $g(n) = c2^{kn}$ (exponential time precision).

Thus, we have to consider six different types of protocols, three for the first implementation and three for the second implementation. However, there are more than six possible protocols; observe that, after choosing the implementation and the concept precision, there is still a lot of different possible choices for the function g abstracting the time precision. There will be many similarities between the six types of protocols, so we start by defining the protocols for the first implementation with infinite precision and for the second implementation with full precision.

To obtain alternative protocols for the first implementation, simply reinterpret the instructions in Figure 3, depending on whether you are considering unbounded precision or fixed precision ϵ . In the first case, we place the masses z'_1 and z'_2 in the left pans where $z'_1 \in (z_1 - 2^{\lfloor z_1 \rfloor}, z_1 + 2^{\lfloor z_1 \rfloor})$ and $z'_2 \in (z_2 - 2^{\lfloor z_2 \rfloor}, z_2 + 2^{\lfloor z_2 \rfloor})$; in the second case, we consider $z'_1 \in (z_1 - \epsilon, z_1 + \epsilon)$ and $z'_2 \in (z_2 - \epsilon, z_2 + \epsilon)$. In this way we obtain protocols $\text{Compare}[1, UP]$ and $\text{Compare}[1, FP(\epsilon)]$. To obtain alternate protocols for the second implementation, simply reinterpret the instructions of the second protocol in Figure 4, depending on whether you are considering unbounded precision or fixed precision ϵ . In the first case, we place the masses z'_1 and z'_2 in the left pans, where $z'_1 \in (z_1 - 2^{\lfloor z_1 \rfloor}, z_1 + 2^{\lfloor z_1 \rfloor})$ and $z'_2 \in (z_2 - 2^{\lfloor z_2 \rfloor}, z_2 + 2^{\lfloor z_2 \rfloor})$; in the second case, we consider $z'_1 \in (z_1 - \epsilon, z_1 + \epsilon)$ and $z'_2 \in (z_2 - \epsilon, z_2 + \epsilon)$. In this way we obtain protocols $\text{Compare}[2, UP, g]$ and $\text{Compare}[2, FP(\epsilon), g]$. Finally, the protocols for the second implementation and different choices of time precision do not differ, since the precision is implicitly present in counting machine transitions.

4. Measuring with the VBE machine with infinite precision

In what follows the suffix operation \lfloor_n on a word w , $w \lfloor_n$, denotes the prefix sized n of the ω -word $w0^\omega$, no matter the size of w .

We motivated in the previous section that comparing the experimental times relative to two different query words provides information about y . Consider calls with protocol $\text{Compare}[1, IP]$ for input (z_1, z_2) such that $z_1 < z_2$ and assume that no timeout occurs. The result of the experiment depends only on the relationship between z_1 , z_2 and y : (a) if $y < z_1 < z_2$, then the second experiment will end first, (b) if $z_1 < y < z_2$, then any of the two experiments can end first, and (c) if $z_1 < z_2 < y$, then the first experiment will end first. We can then deduce the relationship between z_1 , z_2 and y .

Proposition 1. *Let s be the result of $\text{Compare}[1, IP](z_1, z_2)$, for an unknown mass y and time schedule T , such that $|z_1| = |z_2| = n$ and $z_1 < z_2$. Then, (a) if $s = \text{"FIRST"}$, then $y > z_1$, (b) if $s = \text{"SECOND"}$, then $y < z_2$, and (c) if $s = \text{"TIMEOUT"}$, then $|y - z_1| < 2T(|m|)^{-2}$ and $|y - z_2| < 2T(|m|)^{-2}$.*

The idea for the measurement is the following: suppose that y lies on the interval $[z_0, z_4]$, where z_0 and z_4 are dyadic rationals. Split the interval in four parts by considering the points z_1 , z_2 , and z_3 where $z_2 = (z_0 + z_4)/2$, $z_1 = (z_0 + z_2)/2$ and $z_3 = (z_2 + z_4)/2$. Consider protocol calls for the pairs (z_1, z_2) and (z_2, z_3) with experimental times t_1 , t_2 and t_3 . Depending on the result we will obtain a new interval where y may belong: (a) if $t_1 > t_2$ (i.e., the first protocol call returns "SECOND"), then $y < z_2$ and thus $y \in [z_0, z_2]$, (b) if $t_2 < t_3$ (that is, the second protocol call returns "FIRST"), then $y > z_2$ and thus $y \in [z_2, z_4]$, (c) if $t_1 < t_2$ and $t_2 > t_3$ (that is, the first protocol call returns "FIRST" and the second protocol call returns "SECOND"), then $z_1 < y < z_3$ and thus

$y \in [z_1, z_3]$. Note that the new interval has half the length of the original one and so repeating this process will enable us to obtain approximations to y .

ALGORITHM “BINARYSEARCH[1, IP]”

“MASS”: Infinite precision case

Input a natural number ℓ – number of places to the right of the left leading 0;
 $x_0 := 0; x_4 := 1; x_2 := (x_0 + x_1)/2$;
While $x_4 - x_0 > 2^{-\ell}$ **Do Begin**
 $x_1 := (x_0 + x_2)/2$;
 $x_3 := (x_2 + x_4)/2$;
 $s_1 := \text{Compare}[1, IP](x_1|_\ell, x_2|_\ell)$;
 $s_2 := \text{Compare}[1, IP](x_2|_\ell, x_3|_\ell)$;
If $s_1 = \text{“SECOND”}$ **Then** $(x_0, x_2, x_4) := (x_0, x_1, x_2)$;
Else If $s_2 = \text{“FIRST”}$ **Then** $(x_0, x_2, x_4) := (x_2, x_3, x_4)$;
Else If $s_1 = \text{“FIRST”}$ **And** $s_2 = \text{“SECOND”}$ **Then** $(x_0, x_2, x_4) := (x_1, x_2, x_3)$;
Else If $s_1 = \text{“TIMEOUT”}$ **Or** $s_2 = \text{“TIMEOUT”}$ **Then** $x_0 := x_2; x_4 := x_2$;
End While;
Output the dyadic rational denoted by x_2 .

Figure 5: Procedure to obtain an approximation of an unknown mass y placed in the right pan of the balance.

Proposition 2. *For any unknown mass y and any time schedule T , (a) the time complexity of the algorithm of Figure 5, for input ℓ , is $\mathcal{O}(\ell T(\ell))$, (b) for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $T(\ell) \geq 2^{(k+1)/2}$ and the output relative to the input ℓ is a dyadic rational m such that $|y - m| < 2^{-k}$, moreover, ℓ is at most exponential in k , and (c) if $T(k)$ is exponential in k , then the value of ℓ witnessing $T(\ell) \geq 2^{(k+1)/2}$ can be taken to be linear in k .*

Proposition 3. *For any real number $y \in (0, 1)$, the VBE machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ operating with the type I protocol with infinite precision and exponential schedule is such that: (a) for all size $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathcal{M}(y)$ halts for the input word 1^n and the content of the output tape is a dyadic rational z such that $|z - y| < 2^{-n}$ and (b) the number of steps of $\mathcal{M}(y)$ is bounded by an exponential in n .*

Proof: For any $y \in (0, 1)$, we take the VBE machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ with unknown mass y and any exponential time schedule T , operating with type I protocol with infinite precision. According with Proposition 2 (b) and (c), there is a constant b such that, for all n , with $\ell = bn$, we have that $T(\ell) \geq 2^{(n+1)/2}$. The machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$, on input 1^n , just calls the binary search procedure of Figure 5 with input $\ell = bn$. Since $T(n)$ is exponential in n and ℓ is linear in n , the number of steps of the VBE machine, also in agreement with Proposition 2 (a), is in $\mathcal{O}(\ell 2^{a\ell}) \subseteq \mathcal{O}(2^{(a+1)\ell})$, for some $a \in \mathbb{N}$. \square

The next step is to provide a measurement algorithm for the type II protocol. We will try to adapt the same algorithm, but now we have to deal with the possibility of getting “INDISTINGUISHABLE”, meaning that both experimental times are too close to separate them. To solve this problem, we compute the time differences as we approach the unknown mass y . It would be interesting if the time differences of a protocol call increase, i.e., if on successive calls to $\text{Compare}[2, IP, g](z_1, z_2)$ the experimental time differences would become greater. That would mean that the answer “INDISTINGUISHABLE” would not occur (after some point on) and so we could deduce the position of y relative to z_1 and z_2 . Fortunately, this is indeed true if both test masses lie on the same side relative to y .

Proposition 4. Consider an instance of the VBE with unknown mass y and test masses z_1, z_2 . Suppose that either $y < z_1, z_2$ or $z_1, z_2 < y$, that $|z_2 - z_1| \geq \delta$, $|z_1 - y| \leq \zeta$ and $|z_2 - y| \leq \zeta$. Then $|T_{exp}(z_2, y) - T_{exp}(z_1, y)| \geq a\delta/(\zeta\sqrt{\zeta})$, where $a = y/\sqrt{1+y}$.

Proof: The experimental time and its derivative are given by

$$T_{exp}(z, y) = \sqrt{\frac{z+y}{|z-y|}} \quad |T'_{exp}(z, y)| = \frac{y}{\sqrt{z+y}\sqrt{|z-y|^3}}.$$

To get the desired inequality, we just apply the mean value theorem and the assumption $|z_1 - z_2| \geq \delta$. We conclude that there is some value ξ between z_1 and z_2 such that

$$|T_{exp}(z_2, y) - T_{exp}(z_1, y)| = |z_2 - z_1| |T'_{exp}(\xi, y)| \geq \frac{y\delta}{\sqrt{\xi+y}\sqrt{|\xi-y|^3}} \geq \frac{y}{\sqrt{1+y}} \frac{\delta}{\zeta\sqrt{\zeta}},$$

where on the last step we use the facts that $\xi < 1$ and that $|\xi - y| < \zeta$. □

ALGORITHM “BINARYSEARCH[2, IP, g]”

“MASS”: Infinite precision case

Input a natural number ℓ — number of places to the right of the left leading 0;
 $x_0 := 0$;
 $x_4 := 1$;
 $x_2 := (x_0 + x_1)/2$;
While $x_4 - x_0 > 2^{-\ell}$ **Do Begin**
 $x_1 := (x_0 + x_2)/2$;
 $x_3 := (x_2 + x_4)/2$;
 $s_1 := \text{Compare}[1, IP](x_{1\ell+1}, x_{2\ell+1})$;
 $s_2 := \text{Compare}[1, IP](x_{2\ell+1}, x_{3\ell+1})$;
 If $s_1 = \text{“SECOND”}$ **Or** $\text{“INDISTINGUISHABLE”}$ **Then** $(x_0, x_2, x_4) := (x_0, x_1, x_2)$;
 Else If $s_2 = \text{“FIRST”}$ **Or** $\text{“INDISTINGUISHABLE”}$ **Then** $(x_0, x_2, x_4) := (x_2, x_3, x_4)$;
 Else If $s_1 = \text{“FIRST”}$ **And** $s_2 = \text{“SECOND”}$ **Then** $(x_0, x_2, x_4) := (x_2, x_3, x_4)$;
 Else If $s_1 = \text{“TIMEOUT”}$ **Or** $s_2 = \text{“TIMEOUT”}$ **Then** $x_0 := x_2$; $x_4 := x_2$;
End While;
Output the dyadic rational denoted by x_2 .

Figure 6: Procedure to obtain an approximation of an unknown mass y in the right pan of the balance.

The measurement algorithm for the type II protocol will be very similar to the one for the type I. We begin with the interval $[0, 1]$; at step k , we have an interval of size 2^{-k} containing y ; then we split the interval in four intervals, obtaining dyadic rationals z_0, z_1, z_2, z_3 , and z_4 that are separated by 2^{-k-2} ; we perform two protocol calls, one involving z_1 and z_2 and the other involving z_2 and z_3 ; depending on the answers, we choose one of the intervals (z_0, z_2) , (z_1, z_3) or (z_2, z_4) as the next interval, thus obtaining an interval with half of the length of the previous one. To simplify, consider first the case $g = 0$. Suppose that y does not belong to (z_1, z_2) . We know that $|z_1 - z_2| = 2^{-k-2}$ and that both $|z_1 - y|$ and $|z_2 - y|$ are at most 2^{-k} . By Proposition 4, we obtain that the time difference in protocol call $\text{Compare}[2, IP, g](z_1, z_2)$ is at least $a \times 2^{k/2}/4$, where a is a constant. In the same way, if y does not belong to (z_2, z_3) , the time difference in protocol call $\text{Compare}[2, IP, g](z_2, z_3)$ is at least $a \times 2^{k/2}/4$. We conclude that the time difference increase exponentially step by step, which

implies that we will not get “INDISTINGUISHABLE” whenever the two dyadic rationals lie on the same side relative to y . That is, *if the answer to a protocol call $\text{Compare}[2, IP, g](z, z')$ with $z < z'$ is “INDISTINGUISHABLE”, then $z < y < z'$* . At step k , we make protocol calls with words of size $k + 2$. Suppose that y does not lie in (z_1, z_2) , so that the time difference is at least $a \times 2^{k/2}/4$. If $g = 0$, then we get an answer of “FIRST” (implying that $y > z_1$), “SECOND” (implying that $y < z_2$) or “TIMEOUT” (implying that y is very close to z_1 and z_2). We need g to be small enough so that we do not get a wrong answer, that is, the number of machine transitions must not differ too much from the real experimental time. Observe that, for any g , the time differences observed (that is, the difference in the number of machine transitions) is at least $a \times 2^{k/2}/4 - 2g(k + 2)$. Thus, if g is such that $g(k) < a \times 2^{k/2}/16$, then the imprecision in time is not enough to induce a different answer to the protocol call. Thus, any constant time precision, polynomial time precision, or exponential time precision $g(n) = c2^{kn}$ with $k < 1/2$ does not prejudice our algorithm. Most of these results are asymptotic, i.e., we can only guarantee that, for a certain point on, the time difference is great enough so that we do not get answers of “INDISTINGUISHABLE”. However, in the first iterations, it is not impossible to obtain “INDISTINGUISHABLE” as the answer to $\text{Compare}[2, IP, g](z, z')$ in a situation where y does not belong in (z, z') . To deal with this problem, note that we could simply begin the measurement with a subinterval of $[0, 1]$, small enough so that it does not happen. The specification of this subinterval only requires a finite amount of information (two dyadic rationals of size k , for k large enough) that only depend on y and g , and thus it could be hard-wired in the measurement algorithm. Thus, we can in fact build a measurement algorithm for the second implementation.

Proposition 5. *For any unknown mass y , any time schedule T and any time precision g such that $g \in o(\lambda n \times 2^{n/2})$, (a) the time complexity of algorithm of Figure 6 for input ℓ is $\mathcal{O}(\ell T(\ell))$, (b) for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $T(\ell) \geq 2^{(k+1)/2}$ and the output for input ℓ is a dyadic rational m such that $|y - m| < 2^{-k}$, moreover ℓ is at most exponential in k , (c) if $T(k)$ is exponential in k , then the value of ℓ witnessing $T(\ell) \geq 2^{k/2}$ can be taken to be linear in k .*

Proposition 6. *For any real number $y \in (0, 1)$, there exists a VBE machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ with the type II protocol with infinite precision in the mass and any time precision $g \in o(\lambda n \cdot 2^{n/2})$ such that: (a) for all size $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathcal{M}(y)$ halts for input word 1^n and the content of the output tape is a dyadic rational z such that $|z - y| < 2^{-n}$ and (b) the number of steps of $\mathcal{M}(y)$ is bounded by an exponential in n .*

Proof: For any $y \in (0, 1)$, we take the VBE machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ with the type II protocol with infinite precision and any exponential time schedule T . The machine \mathcal{M} , on input 1^n , just calls the binary search procedure of Figure 6 with input $\ell = bn$. The desired approximation is produced with probability 1. Since $T(n)$ is exponential in n and ℓ is linear in n , the number of steps of the VBE machine, in agreement with Proposition 5 (a), is in $\mathcal{O}(\ell 2^{an}) \subseteq \mathcal{O}(2^{(a+1)n})$ for some $a \in \mathbb{N}$. \square

In the end of this section, we offer a different measurement algorithm for the first implementation. We have seen that it is possible, in polynomial time, to obtain a logarithmic amount of bits of the unknown mass. We will now consider other possibilities for the measurement. For example, suppose that $y > 1/2$ and we want to measure the point $z > 1/2$ at which $T_{\text{exp}}(z, y) = T_{\text{exp}}(1/2, y)$. With type I protocol, this is indeed possible, as the algorithm of Figure 7 suggests.

Proposition 7. *Let s be a possible result of $\text{Compare}[1, IP](1|_{\ell}, m|_{\ell})$,⁴ for any unknown mass*

⁴Note that $1|_{\ell}$ is the ℓ -bits dyadic rational $0.10 \dots 0$.

$y > 1/2$, and $r > 1/2$ denote the point such that $T_{exp}(1/2, y) = T_{exp}(r, y)$. Then, if $s = \text{“FIRST”}$, then $r \geq m$, and, if $s = \text{“SECOND”}$, then $r \leq m$.

Proposition 8. *For any unknown mass $1/2 < y < \sqrt{2}/2$ and any time schedule T , let $r > 1/2$ denote the point such that $T_{exp}(1/2, y) = T_{exp}(r, y)$. Then (a) the time complexity of algorithm of Figure 7 for input ℓ is $\mathcal{O}(\ell T(\ell))$ and (b) if $T(\ell) > T_{exp}(1/2, y)$, then the output for input ℓ is a dyadic rational m such that $|r - m| < 2^{-\ell}$.*

ALGORITHM “BINARYSEARCH[3, IP]”

“MASS”: Infinite precision case

Input a natural number ℓ – number of places to the right of the left leading 0;
 $x_0 := 1/2$;
 $x_1 := 1$;
While $x_1 - x_0 > 2^{-\ell}$ **Do Begin**
 $m := (x_0 + x_1)/2$;
 $s := \text{Compare}[1, IP](1_\ell, m_\ell)$;
 If $s = \text{“FIRST”}$ **Then** $x_0 = m$ **Else** $x_1 = m$
End While;
Output the dyadic rational denoted by m .

Figure 7: Procedure to obtain an approximation of a real number y , with a test mass z in the right pan of the balance.

Proposition 9. *For any real number $y \in (1/2, \sqrt{2}/2)$, there exists a VBE machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ operating on the mass y with type I protocol with infinite precision such that: (a) for all size $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathcal{M}(y)$ halts for the input word 1^n and the content of the output tape is a dyadic rational z such that $|z - r| < 2^{-n}$ and (b) the number of steps of $\mathcal{M}(y)$ is bounded by a polynomial in n .*

Proof: The map $z \mapsto \frac{z+1}{2}$ is a bijection $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [1/2, 1]$ that works by simply prefixing a 1 to the binary expansion of the argument z . Suppose we want to measure $r \in (0, 1)$. We take the VBE machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ with unknown mass y such that $T_{exp}(1/2, y) = T_{exp}(f(r), y)$ ⁵ and T as any polynomial time schedule. Let ℓ_0 be such that $T(\ell_0) > T_{exp}(1/2, r)$. The oracle Turing machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ on input 1^n calls the procedure BinarySearch[3, IP](ℓ), where $\ell = \max\{n + 1, \ell_0\}$, from which it gets m , and computes the value $2m - 1$. Since $|f(r) - m| < 2^{-\ell}$, we also have that $|r - (2m - 1)| < 2^{-n}$. Since $T(n)$ is polynomial, by Proposition 8 (a) the number of steps is bounded by a polynomial. \square

5. Measuring with the VBE machine with unbounded precision

The measuring algorithm provided for protocol of type I operating with unbounded precision is very similar to algorithm BinarySearch[3, IP]. Its goal is again to measure the value $r > 1/2$ for which $T_{exp}(1/2, y) = T_{exp}(r, y)$, where y is the “unknown mass”.

⁵It can be easily proved that $r = 2y^2$.

Proposition 10. *Let s be a possible result of $\text{Compare}[1, UP](1\lfloor_\ell, m\lfloor_\ell)$, for any unknown mass $1/2 < y < \sqrt{2}/2$. Let $r > 1/2$ denote the point such that $T_{exp}(1/2, y) = T_{exp}(r, y)$. Suppose that ℓ and h are such that $2^{-\ell} < 1/2|1/2 - y|$ and $2^h \geq \sqrt{(1+y)/(y|y - 1/2|^3)} + 1$. Then, (a) if $s = \text{"FIRST"}$, then $r \geq m - 2^{-\ell+h}$ and (b) if $s = \text{"SECOND"}$, then $r \leq m + 2^{-\ell+h}$.*

Proof: When we perform the protocol $\text{Compare}[1, UP](1\lfloor_\ell, m\lfloor_\ell)$, the test mass to be placed on the first balance, which we denote by z_1 , lies in $(1/2 - 2^{-\ell}, 1/2 + 2^{-\ell})$. The imprecision in the mass induces an imprecision in the experimental time, that is, the experimental time $T_{exp}(z_1, y)$ lies in $(T_{exp}(1/2, y) - \Delta t, T_{exp}(1/2, y) + \Delta t)$, for some value of Δt . This imprecision induces an imprecision in the mass close to r , that is, there is an interval $(r - \Delta r, r + \Delta r)$ that contains the values z_2 of masses close to r such that $T_{exp}(z_2, y) \in (T_{exp}(1/2, y) - \Delta t, T_{exp}(1/2, y) + \Delta t)$. The assumption $2^{-\ell} < 1/2|1/2 - y|$ allows us to use the mean value theorem, just as we did in the proof of Proposition 4, to estimate Δr . For any $z_1 \in (1/2 - 2^{-\ell}, 1/2 + 2^{-\ell})$ let z_2 be close to r such that $T_{exp}(z_1, y) = T_{exp}(z_2, y)$. There are $\xi_1 \in (1/2 - 2^{-\ell}, 1/2 + 2^{-\ell})$ and $\xi_2 \in (r - \Delta r, r + \Delta r)$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} |z_1 - \frac{1}{2}| |T'_{exp}(\xi_1, y)| &= |T_{exp}(z_1, y) - T_{exp}(1/2, y)| = |T_{exp}(z_2, y) - T_{exp}(r, y)| \\ &= |z_2 - r| |T'_{exp}(\xi_2, y)|. \end{aligned}$$

After some calculations and using the inequalities $\xi_1 \geq 0, |\xi_1 - y| \geq 1/2|1/2 - y|, \xi_2 \leq 1, |\xi_2 - y| \leq 1/2$, we obtain, from Proposition 4, $|z_2 - r| \leq \sqrt{(1+y)/(y|y - 1/2|^3)} \times 2^{-\ell}$. Thus, we can take $\Delta r = \sqrt{(1+y)/(y|y - 1/2|^3)} \times 2^{-\ell}$. Let us consider again $\text{Compare}[1, UP](1\lfloor_\ell, m\lfloor_\ell)$. If $m > r + \Delta r + 2^{-\ell}$, then the result cannot be “FIRST” (the experimental time $T_{exp}(m, y)$ is simply too low). By the same reasoning, if $m < r - \Delta r - 2^{-\ell}$, then the result cannot be “SECOND”. From these two facts, with $2^h \geq \sqrt{(1+y)/(y|y - 1/2|^3)} + 1$, we obtain the desired results. \square

ALGORITHM “BINARYSEARCH[1, UP]”

“MASS”: Unbounded precision case

Input a natural number ℓ – number of places to the right of the left leading 0;
 $x_0 := 1/2$;
 $x_1 := 1$;
While $x_1 - x_0 > 2^{-\ell}$ **Do Begin**
 $m := (x_0 + x_1)/2$;
 $s := \text{Compare}[1, UP](1\lfloor_\ell, m\lfloor_\ell)$;
 If $s = \text{"FIRST"}$ **Then** $x_0 = m$ **Else** $x_1 = m$
End While;
Output the dyadic rational denoted by m .

Figure 8: Procedure to obtain an approximation of a real number y , with a test mass z in the left pan of the balance.

Proposition 11. *For any unknown mass $y > 1/2$ and any time schedule T , let $r > 1/2$ be such that $T_{exp}(1/2, y) = T_{exp}(r, y)$ and h be a non-negative integer such that $2^h \geq \sqrt{(1+y)/(y|y - 1/2|^3)} + 1$. Then (a) the time complexity of algorithm Binary Search 1 UP for input ℓ is $O(\ell T(\ell))$ and (b) if $T(\ell) > T_{exp}(1/2, y)$ and $2^{-\ell} < \sqrt{(1+y)/(y|y - 1/2|^3)}$, then the output of algorithm Binary Search 1 UP for input ℓ is a dyadic rational m such that $|r - m| < 2^{-\ell+h+1}$.*

Proposition 12. *For any real number $y \in (0, 1)$, there exists a VBE machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ operating on the mass y with type I protocol with unbounded precision such that: (a) for all size $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathcal{M}(y)$ halts for the input word 1^n and the content of the output tape is a dyadic rational z such that $|z - r| < 2^{-n}$ and (b) the number of steps of $\mathcal{M}(y)$ is bounded by a polynomial in n .*

Proof: This is a consequence of Proposition 11. For any real value r , we take $r' = \frac{r+1}{2}$ and VBE as the intended experiment, where the unknown mass y is chosen such that $T_{exp}(1/2, y) = T_{exp}(r', y)$. Take T as any polynomial time schedule. Then there is a constant ℓ_0 such that $T(\ell_0) > T_{exp}(1/2, y)$ and $2^{-\ell_0} < \sqrt{(1+y)/(y|y-1/2|^3)}$. Take h such that $2^h \geq \sqrt{(1+y)/(y|y-1/2|^3)} + 1$. The oracle Turing machine, for input 1^k , consists in a call to `BinarySearch`[1, UP](ℓ) where $\ell = \max\{k + h + 2, \ell_0\}$, obtaining a result m , and then returns the value $2m - 1$. Since $|r' - m| < 2^{-\ell+h+1}$, we also have that $|r - (2m - 1)| < 2^{-k}$ with probability 1. Since $T(k)$ is polynomial, the number of steps is then bounded by a polynomial. \square

The measuring algorithm for protocol type 2 operating with unbounded precision and tolerance g is different from the measurement algorithm for protocol type 1 operating with unbounded precision. When we were considering protocol type 1 operating with infinite precision, we saw that, in `Compare`[2, IP, g](z_1, z_2) at step k , we had $|z_1 - z_2| = 2^{-k-2}$ and $|z_1 - a|, |z_2 - a| \leq 2^{-k}$. In the following algorithm, we make oracle queries for words of size $\ell + 3$. In this way, we guarantee that at step k , $k = 0, \dots \leq \ell - 1$, the imprecision in placing the test masses is at most $2^{-\ell-3} \leq 2^{-k-4}$, thus ensuring that in the call to `Compare`[2, UP, g](z_1, z_2) we have that $|z_1 - z_2| \geq 2^{-k-3}$. In this way we obtain a time difference greater than or equal to $const. \times 2^{k/2}/8$. Therefore, our algorithm will work for all choices of time precision g such that $g \in o(\lambda n \cdot 2^{n/2})$.

ALGORITHM “BINARYSEARCH[2, UP, g]”

“MASS”: Unbounded precision case

Input a natural number ℓ — number of places to the right of the left leading 0;
 $x_0 := 0$;
 $x_4 := 1$;
 $x_2 := (x_0 + x_1)/2$;
While $x_4 - x_0 > 2^{-\ell}$ **Do Begin**
 $x_1 := (x_0 + x_2)/2$;
 $x_3 := (x_2 + x_4)/2$;
 $s_1 := \text{Compare}[2, UP, g](x_{1\ell+3}, x_{2\ell+3})$;
 $s_2 := \text{Compare}[2, UP, g](x_{3\ell+3}, x_{4\ell+3})$;
 If $s_1 = \text{“SECOND”}$ **Or** “INDISTINGUISHABLE” **Then** $(x_0, x_2, x_4) := (x_0, x_1, x_2)$;
 Else If $s_2 = \text{“FIRST”}$ **Or** “INDISTINGUISHABLE” **Then** $(x_0, x_2, x_4) := (x_2, x_3, x_4)$;
 Else If $s_1 = \text{“FIRST”}$ **And** $s_2 = \text{“SECOND”}$ **Then** $(x_0, x_2, x_4) := (x_2, x_3, x_4)$;
 Else If $s_1 = \text{“TIMEOUT”}$ **Or** $s_2 = \text{“TIMEOUT”}$ **Then** $x_0 := x_2$; $x_4 := x_2$;
End While;
Output the dyadic rational denoted by x_2 .

Figure 9: Procedure to obtain an approximation of an unknown mass y in the right pan of the balance.

Proposition 13. *For any unknown mass y , any time schedule T and any time precision g such that $g \in o(\lambda n \cdot 2^{n/2})$, let s be a possible result of one of the calls `Compare`[2, UP, g]($z_{1\ell+3}, z_{2\ell+3}$) during algorithm `BinarySearch`[2, UP]. Then, (a) if $s = \text{“FIRST”}$, then $y \geq z_1 - 2^{-\ell-3}$, (b) if $s = \text{“SECOND”}$,*

then $y \leq z_2 + 2^{-\ell-3}$, (c) if $s = \text{"UNDISTINGUISHABLE"}$, then $z_1 - 2^{-\ell-3} \leq y \leq z_2 + 2^{-\ell-3}$, and (d) if $s = \text{"TIMEOUT"}$, then $|y - z_1| < (\mu/T(\ell+3))^2 + 2^{-\ell-3}$ and $|y - z_2| < (\mu/T(\ell+3))^2 + 2^{-\ell-3}$.

Proposition 14. *For any unknown mass y , any time schedule T and any time precision g such that $g \in o(\lambda n \cdot 2^{n/2})$, (a) the time complexity of algorithm `BinarySearch[2, UP]` on input ℓ is $\mathcal{O}(\ell T(\ell))$, (b) for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $T(\ell+3) \geq \mu 2^{(k+1)/2}$ and thus the output of algorithm `BinarySearch[2, UP]` for input ℓ is a dyadic rational m such that $|y-m| < 2^{-k}$, moreover ℓ is at most exponential in k , and (c) if $T(k)$ is exponential in k , then the value of ℓ witnessing $T(\ell) \geq \mu 2^{k/2}$ can be taken to be linear in k .*

Proposition 15. *For any real number $y \in (0, 1)$, there exists a VBE machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ operating on the mass y with type II protocol with unbounded precision and time tolerance $g \in o(\lambda n \cdot 2^{n/2})$ such that: (a) for all size $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathcal{M}(y)$ halts for the input word 1^n and the content of the output tape is a dyadic rational z such that $|z - r| < 2^{-n}$ and (b) the number of steps of $\mathcal{M}(y)$ is bounded by a polynomial in n .*

Proof: This is a consequence of Proposition 14. For any real value y , we take VBE as the intended experiment with unknown mass y . Take T as any exponential time schedule. The oracle Turing machine, for input 1^n , consists simply in a call to `BinarySearch[1, IP](\ell)`, where ℓ is chosen such that $\ell \geq n+1$ and $T(\ell+3) \geq 2^{(n+2)/2}$ (moreover ℓ is linear in n), thus producing the desired approximation with probability 1. Since $T(n)$ is exponential in n and ℓ is linear in n , the number of steps of the VBE machine is bounded by a function in $\mathcal{O}(\ell 2^{an}) \subseteq \mathcal{O}(2^{(a+1)n})$, for some a . \square

6. Measuring with the VBE machine with fixed precision

The final case to consider is that of fixed precision. The measurement algorithms that we are going to specify do not produce approximations to a given mass. Instead, the goal is to compute the approximation to the probability of some particular event. We are going to obtain approximations to the probability of getting “FIRST” from `Compare[...](1\ell, 1\ell)`, corresponding to the test masses $1/2$ and $3/4$, with fixed precision ϵ for the mass and time tolerance g , either in the type I or type II protocols.

Proposition 16. *Let T be a time schedule such that $T(2) > T_{exp}(1/2, 3/4) = \sqrt{5}$. For any mass $y \in (1/2, 3/4)$, let $P_{\text{FIRST}}(y)$ denote the probability of obtaining result “FIRST” in protocol `Compare[1, FP(\epsilon)](10, 11)` (resp. `Compare[2, FP(\epsilon), g](10, 11)`, for any time tolerance g) for the experiment with test mass y . Then, for any sufficiently small ϵ , $P_{\text{FIRST}}(1/2) = 0$, $P_{\text{FIRST}}(3/4) = 1$ and P_{FIRST} is a continuous, increasing function in $(1/2, 3/4)$.*

The above proposition entails that, by the intermediate value theorem, for any intended probability p , there is some mass y such that $P_{\text{FIRST}}(y) = p$, and so we can compute approximations to p by setting y as desired and repeating several times the protocol call `Compare[...](10, 11)`. All that is left is to formalize the algorithm and state its properties.

Proposition 17. *In the fixed precision scenario, with protocol type I or II, with any time tolerance, for any time schedule T such that $T(2) > T_{exp}(1/2, 3/4)$, there exists a sufficiently small ϵ such that, for any unknown mass y and natural number h , (a) the time complexity of algorithm `FreqCountFP(\epsilon, h)` of Figure 10 is $\mathcal{O}(2^{2\ell})$, where ℓ is the input, and (b) with probability of error 2^{-h} , the output of algorithm `FreqCountFP(\epsilon, h)` on input ℓ is a dyadic rational m such that $|P_{\text{FIRST}}(y) - m| < 2^{-\ell}$.*

Proof: The procedure $\text{Compare}[P](10, 11)$ can be seen as a Bernoulli trial with probability of success p . Let α be the quantity of experiments returning “FIRST” in $\zeta = 2^{2\ell+h-2}$ trials and X denote the estimator $X = \alpha/\zeta$. we conclude that $\mathbb{E}[X] = p$ and $\mathbb{V}[X] \leq 1/(4\zeta)$. The probability that $|X - p| > 2^{-\ell}$ can be bounded by the Chebyshev’s inequality, $P(|X - p| > 1/2^\ell) \leq \mathbb{V}[X] \times 2^{2\ell} \leq 2^{2\ell}/(4\zeta) = 2^{-h}$. \square

ALGORITHM “FREQCOUNTFP(ϵ, h)”

“MASS”: Finite precision case

Input a natural number ℓ – used to set the precision of the approximation;
 $counter := 0$;
 $\zeta := 2^{2\ell+h-2}$;
Repeat ζ vezes
 $s := \text{Compare}[P](10, 11)$; %P is both for the first and the second types
 If $s = \text{“FIRST”}$ **Then** $counter := counter + 1$
End Repeat;
Output the dyadic rational denoted by $counter/\zeta$.

Figure 10: Procedure to obtain an approximation of a real probability p , assuming fixed precision ϵ and unknown mass y such that $P_{\text{FIRST}}(y) = p$. The value h is an integer number used to bound the probability of error.

Proposition 18. *For any real number $y \in (0, 1)$, for all sufficiently small ϵ , and for all $\gamma \in (0, 1/2)$, there exists a VBE machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ clocked in exponential time operating, either with type I protocol or type II protocol with arbitrary tolerance, with fixed precision ϵ , such that, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, every computation of $\mathcal{M}(y)$ on input word 1^n halts with a dyadic rational z as output, such that, with probability of failure at most γ , $|z - r| < 2^{-n}$.*

Proof: This is a consequence of Proposition 17. We take any time schedule T such that $T(2) > T_{\text{exp}}(1/2, 3/4)$, any $\epsilon \in (0, 1/2)$ in the conditions of Proposition 16 and, for any $\gamma \in (0, 1)$, any positive integer number h such that $2^{-h} \leq \gamma$. Now consider the oracle Turing machine that, for input word 1^ℓ , makes a call to $\text{FreqCountFP}(\epsilon, h)(\ell)$. For any real number r we take a VBE machine with unknown mass y chosen such that $P_{\text{FIRST}}(y) = r$, where P_{FIRST} is given by Proposition 16. The above machine produces the desired approximation with probability of failure at most $2^{-h} \leq \gamma$. Furthermore, the number of steps is bounded by a function of the order of $\mathcal{O}(2^{2\ell})$. \square

7. Tossing coins with the VBE machine

The final step before establishing lower bounds is to find out which protocols can be used with the VBE to simulate coin tosses. As expected, any probabilistic protocol suffices; that is, only type I and Type II protocols operating with infinite precision and infinite precision and tolerance 0, respectively, do not allow for fair coin tosses.

Proposition 19. *The VBE machine operating with type I protocol with unbounded or fixed precision for sufficiently small ϵ permits coin tosses.*

Proof: For a given y , let z be a dyadic rational such that $z \neq y$ and let $\ell \geq |z|$ be such that $T(\ell) > T_{\text{exp}}(z, y)$. Observe that both calls $\text{Compare}[\dots, UP, \dots](\mathbb{Z}_\ell, \mathbb{Z}_\ell)$ and $\text{Compare}[\dots, FP(\epsilon), \dots](\mathbb{Z}_\ell, \mathbb{Z}_\ell)$

have more than one possible result (in fact, both return “FIRST” or “SECOND” with the same, non-null probability). \square

Proposition 20. *The VBE machine operating with type II protocol with infinite, unbounded, or fixed precision, for sufficiently small ϵ and non-null tolerance g , permits coin tosses.*

Proof: For a given y , let z be a dyadic rational such that $z \neq y$ and let $\ell \geq |z|$ be such that $T(\ell) > T_{exp}(z, y)$ and $g(\ell) > 0$. Now observe that protocol call $\text{Compare}[2, P, g](z_\ell, z_\ell)$, where P is any of the protocol variants, has more than one possible result (in fact, both return “FIRST” or “SECOND” with the same, non-null probability). \square

Proposition 21. *The VBE machine operating with type II protocol with unbounded or fixed precision, for sufficiently small ϵ and tolerance 0, permits coin tosses.*

Proof: For a given unknown mass y , we will find a dyadic rational z of size ℓ such that the protocol call $\text{Compare}[2, UP, 0](z_\ell, z_\ell)$ (resp. $\text{Compare}[2, FP(\epsilon), 0](z_\ell, z_\ell)$) returns “FIRST” or “SECOND” with the same probability. We will require that $T(\ell) > T_{exp}(z, y)$ (this ensures that we do not get “TIMEOUT” with probability 1) and $\lceil T_{exp}(z - 2^{-\ell}, y) \rceil \neq \lceil T_{exp}(z + 2^{-\ell}, y) \rceil$ (resp. $\lceil T_{exp}(z - \epsilon, y) \rceil \neq \lceil T_{exp}(z + \epsilon, y) \rceil$); this ensures that we do not get “UNDISTINGUISHABLE” with probability 1). The above constraints are satisfied by considering a large enough integer k such that equation $T_{exp}(x, y) = k$, for fixed y , has a solution x . We then take ℓ such that $T(\ell) > k$ and z of size ℓ such that $z - 2^{-\ell} < x \leq z$ (resp. $z - \epsilon < x \leq z$). \square

8. The Cantor set \mathcal{C}_3

We denote by \mathcal{C}_3 (the *Cantor numbers*) the set of real numbers x such that $x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k 2^{-3k}$, where $x_k \in \{1, 2, 4\}$, i.e., the numbers composed by triples of the form 001, 010, or 100.

Proposition 22. *For every $x \in \mathcal{C}_3$ and for every dyadic rational $z \in (0, 1)$ with size $|z| = m$,*
(a) if $|x - z| \leq 1/2^{i+5}$, then the binary expansions of x and z coincide in the first i bits and
(b) $|x - z| > 1/2^{m+10}$.

Proof: (a) First suppose that z and x coincide on the first $i - 1$ bits and differ on the i th bit. We have two relevant cases.

$z < x$: In this case $z_i = 0$ and $x_i = 1$. In the worst cases the binary expansion for z after the i th position begins with a sequence of 1s and the binary expansion for x after the i th position begins with a sequence of 0s:

	i	lower bound of $ x - z $
z	$\dots 011111 \dots$	
x (case $i \equiv_3 0$)	$\dots 100100 \dots$	$> 2^{-(i+3)}$
x (case $i \equiv_3 1$)	$\dots 100001 \dots$	$> 2^{-(i+5)}$
x (case $i \equiv_3 2$)	$\dots 100010 \dots$	$> 2^{-(i+4)}$

$z > x$: In this case $z_i = 1$ and $x_i = 0$. In the worst cases the binary expansion for z after the i th position begins with a sequence of 0s and the binary expansion for x after the i th position begins

with a sequence of 1s:

	i	lower bound of $ x - z $
z	$\dots 1000 \dots$	
x (case $i \equiv_3 0$)	$\dots 0100 \dots$	$> 2^{-(i+2)}$
x (case $i \equiv_3 1$)	$\dots 0101 \dots$	$> 2^{-(i+2)}$
x (case $i \equiv_3 2$)	$\dots 0110 \dots$	$> 2^{-(i+3)}$

We conclude that in any case $|x - z| > 2^{-(i+5)}$. Thus, if $|x - z| \leq 2^{-(i+5)}$, then x and z coincide in the first i bits.

(b) Since the binary expansion of z after the m th bit is exclusively composed of 0s and any Cantor number $x \in \mathcal{C}_3$ has at most four consecutive 0s in its binary expansion, we conclude that, in the best fit, z and x can not coincide in the $m + 5$ th bit. Thus, by (a), $|x - z| > 2^{-(m+10)}$. \square

Now we will encode a given advice function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ into a real number in $(0, 1)$.

Definition 1. *The encoding of a word $w \in \Sigma^*$, denoted by $c(w)$, is the binary expression of the real number obtained first by converting w to a string of 0's and 1's, and then replacing every 0 by 100 and every 1 by 010. Given a function $f \in \log\star$, we denote the encoding of f by the real number $\mu(f) = \lim \mu(f)(n)$, recursively defined by (a) $\mu(f)(0) = 0 \cdot c(f(0))$, (b) $\mu(f)(n+1) = \mu(f)(n)c(s)$ whenever $f(n+1) = f(n)s$ and $n+1$ is not a power of two, and (c) $\mu(f)(n+1) = \mu(f)(n)c(s)001$, whenever $f(n+1) = f(n)s$ and $n+1$ is a power of two.*

The encoding above consists on replacing the bits of f by triples 100 and 010, adding 001 at the end of each code of $f(2^k)$, with $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Observe that, by construction, $\mu(f) \in \mathcal{C}_3$. Also, from the encoding to get back values of the advice f . To obtain $f(2^k)$, we just have to read the bits of $\mu(f)$ in triples until the $(k+1)$ -th triple 001 is found. Consequently, one may say that, whenever $f \in \log\star$, by knowing $\mathcal{O}(k)$ bits of the real number $\mu(f)$, we can know $f(2^k)$.

9. Lower bounds on the VBE machine

We studied all variety of protocols sufficiently enough to prove the following theorems.

Proposition 23. *If $A \in P/poly$, then A is decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating with type I protocol using infinite precision.*

Proof: This proof of this proposition follows the steps of Proposition 25, mutatis mutandis. \square

Proposition 24. *(a) If $A \in P/poly$, then A is decidable in polynomial time by the VBE machine operating with type I protocol using unbounded precision. (b) If $A \in BPP/\log\star$, then A is decidable in polynomial time by the VBE machine operating with type I protocol and sufficiently small fixed precision ϵ .*

Proof: This proof of this proposition follows the steps of Proposition 26, mutatis mutandis, noting that $P/poly = BPP/\log\star$. \square

Proposition 25. *If $A \in P/\log\star$, then A is decidable in polynomial time by the VBE machine operating with type II protocol using infinite precision and tolerance zero.*

Proof: Let f be a prefix function in \log and \mathcal{M} be a Turing machine running in polynomial time such that, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and every word w of size less than or equal to n , $w \in A$ iff \mathcal{M} accepts $\langle w, f(n) \rangle$. Take y to be the encoding of f as a real number in $(0, 1)$. According with Proposition 6, there exists an integer k , an oracle Turing machine $\mathcal{M}'(y)$ and a time schedule T , such that (a) for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathcal{M}'(y)$ on input 1^n halts and outputs the dyadic rational z such that $|z - r| < 2^{-n}$ and (b) the number of steps of $\mathcal{M}'(y)$ is bounded by a function in $2^{\mathcal{O}(n)}$. Our next step is to define the oracle Turing machine, $\mathcal{M}''(y)$, that decides A . For a given input w of size n , we perform a sequence of experiments to compute $f(n')$, for some $n' > n$. We take $n' = 2^{\lceil \log(n) \rceil}$. In this way, we can obtain $f(n')$ if we know the binary expansion of y up to the $(\lceil \log(n) \rceil + 1)$ -th triple of the form 001.

Since $f \in \log$, this means that there are constants a and b such that, for all n , $|f(n)| \leq a \log(n) + b$. In particular, $|f(n')| \leq a \lceil \log(n) \rceil + b$. Thus, we need to know at most the first $3(a \lceil \log(n) \rceil + b) + 3(\lceil \log(n) \rceil + 1)$ bits of the binary expansion of y to get to the desired triple 001. Finally, we specify our VBE machine, $\mathcal{M}''(y)$ using time schedule T . For a given input word w of size n , it simulates the machine $\mathcal{M}'(y)$ for input 1^ℓ , where $\ell = 3(a + 1)\lceil \log(n) \rceil + 3b + 8$. By the discussion above, the result is a dyadic rational z such that $|z - r| < 2^{-\ell}$ and thus z and r coincide in the first $\ell - 5 = 3(a + 1)\lceil \log(n) \rceil + 3(b + 1)$ bits, and so z can be used to decode $f(n')$. Afterwards, simulate \mathcal{M} for the input word $\langle w, f(n') \rangle$ and accept or reject based on the result of the simulation. It is clear that this machine decides A . The time complexity of the simulation of $\mathcal{M}'(y)$ is $\mathcal{O}(2^{a\ell})$. Since ℓ is logarithmic on n , the result is polynomial in n . And since \mathcal{M} runs in polynomial time, we conclude that $\mathcal{M}''(y)$ also runs in polynomial time. \square

Proposition 26. (a) If $A \in BPP//\log\star$, then A is decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating with type II protocol with unbounded precision and time tolerance $g \in o(\lambda n \cdot 2^{n/2})$. (b) If $A \in BPP//\log\star$, then A is decidable in polynomial time by the VBE machine operating with type II protocol with sufficiently small fixed precision and any time tolerance.

Proof: We prove for the case of unbounded precision. The proof relative to the fixed precision case is similar. We use a proof similar to the proof of Proposition 25, but now we have to take into account both the error probability in measuring and the simulation of a fair coin toss.

Let f be a prefix function in \log , γ_1 be a real number in $(0, 1/2)$ and \mathcal{N} be a Turing machine running in polynomial time such that, for any natural number n and any word w of size less than or equal to n ,

if $w \in A$, then \mathcal{N} rejects $\langle w, f(n) \rangle$ with probability at most γ_1 ;
if $w \notin A$, then \mathcal{N} accepts $\langle w, f(n) \rangle$ with probability at most γ_1 .

Let p_3 be a polynomial bound on the running time of \mathcal{N} . Let also r be the coding $y = \mu(f)$ and γ_3 be such that $\gamma_1 + \gamma_3 < 1/2$. Then, according with Propositions 15 (unbounded precision) and 18 (fixed precision), there is an integer k , an oracle Turing machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$, and a time schedule T such that: (a) for all size n , every computation of $\mathcal{M}(y)$, for input word 1^n , halts and, with probability of failure at most γ_3 , the content of the output tape is a dyadic rational z such that $|z - y| < 2^{-n}$ and (b) the number of steps of $\mathcal{M}(y)$ is bounded by a function in $\mathcal{O}(2^{an})$.

Furthermore, in agreement with Propositions 20 or 21, we conclude that there is a dyadic rational z such that the protocol call with query z has more than one possible results with non-null probability. This means that protocol call has a probability of δ of producing some result r_1 , with $\delta \in (0, 1)$. Let also γ_2 be a positive real number such that $\gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \gamma_3 < 1/2$. There is an integer

K (depending on δ and γ_2) such that, for all n , we can use Kn independent biased coin tosses to simulate n fair coin tosses, with probability of failure at most γ_2 .

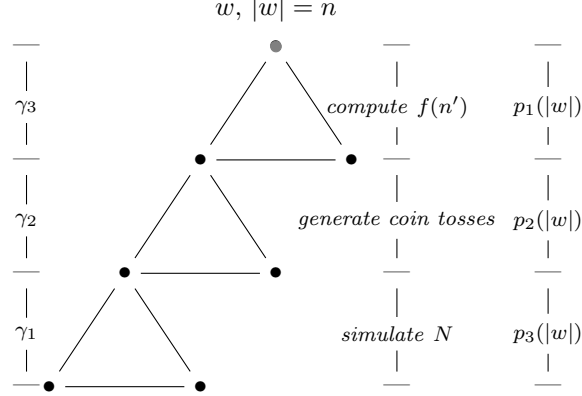


Figure 11: Behaviour of the oracle Turing machine M' .

Our next goal is to define the oracle Turing machine \mathcal{M}' that will be used to decide A . For a given input w of size n , the idea is again to use the experiment to compute $f(n')$ where $n' = 2^{\lceil \log n \rceil}$, and to do that we need to know at most the first $3(C_1 \lceil \log(n) \rceil + C_2) + 3(\lceil \log(n) \rceil + 1)$ bits of the binary expansion of y , for some constants C_1 and C_2 . Thus, begin by simulating \mathcal{M} for input word 1^ℓ where $\ell = 3(C_1 + 1)\lceil \log(n) \rceil + 3C_2 + 8$. By the above discussion, with probability of failure at most γ_3 , the result is a dyadic rational m such that $|m - y| < 2^{-\ell}$ and thus, by Proposition 22, m and r coincide in the first $\ell - 5 = 3(C_1 + 1)\lceil \log(n) \rceil + 3(C_2 + 1)$ bits, and so m can be used to decode $f(n')$.

In the next step, use the dyadic rational z to produce a sequence of $Kp_3(n)$ independent biased coin tosses, and then attempt to extract from that sequence $p_3(n)$ fair coin tosses. In case of failure (with probability at most γ_2) simply reject the input word. Otherwise, simulate \mathcal{N} for the input word $\langle w, f(n') \rangle$, using the sequence of fair coin tosses to choose the path of computation. To finish the computation, accept or reject based on the result of the simulation.

Let us see that the machine decides A . If $w \in A$, then the machine may reject w if the wrong approximation of $f(n')$ was produced or if it failed in producing the sequence of independent coin tosses or if the simulation of \mathcal{N} rejected $\langle w, f(n') \rangle$. This happens with probability at most $\gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \gamma_3$. If $w \notin A$, then the machine may accept A if the wrong approximation of $f(n')$ was produced or if the simulation of \mathcal{N} accepted $\langle w, f(n') \rangle$, which happens with probability at most $\gamma_1 + \gamma_3$. So this means that the probability of failure is bounded by $\gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \gamma_3 < 1/2$.

Let us see that the machine runs in polynomial time. The time complexity of the first step is $\mathcal{O}(2^{a\ell})$, which is again bounded by some polynomial in n , $p_1(n)$. The second step also ends in some polynomial time $p_2(n)$ since we need only $Kp_3(n)$ biased coin tosses, which is a polynomial amount, and each coin toss takes constant time. And since \mathcal{N} runs in polynomial time p_3 , we conclude that \mathcal{M}' runs in polynomial time $p_1 + p_2 + p_3$. \square

10. Upper bounds on the VBE machine

Given a vanishing value oracle (that is, an oracle with three or four possible random answers), we can depict the sequence of the answers in a binary tree, where each path is labeled with its probability. The leaves of these trees are marked with an accept or reject. Then, to get the probability of acceptance of a particular word, we simply add the probabilities for each path that ends in acceptance. The next basic idea is to think of what would happen if we change the probabilities in the tree. This means that we are using the same procedure of the Turing machine, but now with a different probabilistic oracle. Suppose that the tree has depth m and there is a real number β that bounds the difference in the probabilities labeling all pair of corresponding edges in the two trees. Proposition 2.1 of [2], states that the difference in the probabilities of acceptance of the two trees is at most $2m\beta$. We need to state and prove a result equivalent to this one in [2] but for 3-adic and 4-adic trees (see Figure 12). In [2] we defined $f_d(m, \beta)$ as the largest possible difference in probabilities of acceptance for two different assignments of probabilities with difference at most β in a d -adic probabilistic tree of height m .

Definition 2. Let d be an integer with $d \geq 2$. By a d -adic probabilistic tree we mean a pair (\mathcal{T}, D) where:

- \mathcal{T} is a tree with some set of nodes or vertices V , some set of edges E and some set of leaves $L \subseteq V$;
- $D : E \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a map that assigns to each edge u a probability $D(u)$;
- \mathcal{T} is a d -adic tree, that is, each inner node has exactly d childs; moreover, if u_1, \dots, u_d are its outgoing edges then $D(u_1) + \dots + D(u_d) = 1$;
- Each leaf is either an accepting node (labeled with 'A') or a rejecting node (labeled with 'R').

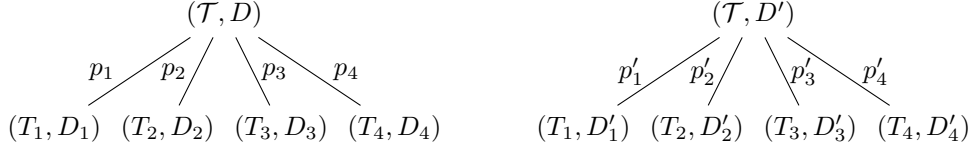


Figure 12: Proving Proposition 27

Given two d -adic probabilistic trees (\mathcal{T}, D) and (\mathcal{T}, D') with the same d -adic tree \mathcal{T} , we define the distance $d(D, D')$, as $d(D, D') = \sqcup_{u \in E} |D(u) - D'(u)|$. Let \mathcal{T}_m^d denote the set of d -adic trees of height at most m and $\mathcal{T} \in \mathcal{T}_m^d$. We define a function $f_d : \mathbb{N} \times [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ by

$$f_d(m, \beta) = \bigsqcup_{d(D, D') \leq \beta} |P(\mathcal{T}, D) - P(\mathcal{T}, D')|$$

Thus $f_d(m, \beta)$ gives the largest possible difference in probabilities of acceptance for two different assignments of probabilities with difference at most β .

Proposition 27. For any $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\beta \in [0, 1]$, $f_3(m, \beta) \leq 2m\beta$ and $f_4(m, \beta) \leq 3m\beta$.

Proof: This proposition is a generalization of Proposition 2.1 in [2]. The proof involves some algebra but is more or less straightforward. \square

Proposition 28. *If A is decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating with any protocol P with exponential time schedule, then $A \in P/\text{poly}$.*

Proof: Let A be a set decidable by a VBE machine operating with protocol P with an exponential schedule T . Let c and d be constants such that, for an input word of size n , all queries have size at most $\lceil c \log n + d \rceil$. A query of size k is defined by two dyadic rationals of size k , so there are exactly 2^{2k} possible queries of size k . This means that the number of different possible queries in a computation with an input word of size n is at most polynomial in n :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\lceil c \log n + d \rceil} 2^{2i} < \frac{2^{2d+2}}{3} n^{2c}.$$

If P is deterministic, then the advice function f is the concatenation of all triples $\langle z_1, z_2, r \rangle$ such that z_1 and z_2 are dyadic rationals of size $k \leq \lceil c \log n + d \rceil$ and r encodes the result of protocol call $\text{Compare}[P](z_1, z_2)$.⁶ If P is probabilistic, then the advice function f is the concatenation of all tuples $\langle z_1, z_2, p_f, p_s, p_t, p_u \rangle$ such that z_1 and z_2 are dyadic rationals of size $k \leq \lceil c \log n + d \rceil$ and p_f, p_s, p_t, p_u are approximations to the probabilities of obtaining each possible result (“FIRST”, “SECOND”, “TIMEOUT” or “UNDISTINGUISHABLE”) of protocol call $\text{Compare}[P](z_1, z_2)$. We will approximate each probability with a dyadic rational of size k such that the error in the probability of any query is bounded by 2^{-k} . To find the suitable value of k , we observe that the VBE machine deciding A runs in polynomial time $\mathcal{O}(n^a)$ and so the number of possible queries in the computation of any word of size n is at most bn^a , for some constant b . The probabilistic tree induced by the computation has a depth at most bn^a . Now, if γ is the bound on the error probability associated with the machine, by Proposition 27, we take k such that $3bn^a 2^{-k} < 1/2 - \gamma$, that is, $2^k > 3bn^a/(1/2 - \gamma)$. Such a k can then be taken to be logarithmic in n . In either case $f \in \text{poly}$ since f is the concatenation of a polynomial amount of tuples each with logarithmic size.

We specify a Turing machine \mathcal{M} to decide A in polynomial time using f as advice. \mathcal{M} simulates the VBE machine for the same input word. When reaching a query state with query words z_1 and z_2 , it reads the appropriate tuple in f . In the deterministic case, the machine resumes the computation in the proper outcome state. In the probabilistic case, the machine uses the approximations to the probabilities of each result and choose one of them with k coin tosses. In the deterministic case, it is clear that this machine decides A in polynomial time. In the probabilistic case, this machine induces a probabilistic tree in the same way as the original machine, with depth less than bn^a and edge difference lower than 2^{-k} . Then, by Proposition 27 and the above calculations, the difference in the probabilities of acceptance is then bounded by a constant less than $1/2 - \gamma$. Thus, the probability that this machine gives a wrong answer is bounded by a constant less than $1/2$, and so the machine specified decides A in polynomial time. \square

This proposition is not enough for our purposes: in the first implementation we will be looking for non-exponential time schedules and in the second implementation we want to establish the upper bounds of P/\log^* or BPP/\log^* .

⁶There are either three or four possible results, so r may be encoded with only two bits.

10.1. Upper bounds for type I protocol

The technique that will be applied to type I protocol relies on Proposition 29, that can be used to decide the result of an oracle query for the infinite precision case. We begin by defining the boundary numbers.

Definition 3. Let $y \in (0, 1)$ be the unknown mass and T the time schedule of a particular VBE machine. Then, for every natural number k , we define ℓ_k and r_k as the real numbers in $(0, 1)$ such that $\ell_k < y < r_k$ and $T_{exp}(\ell_k, y) = T_{exp}(r_k, y) = T(k)$.

Proposition 29. Let $y \in (0, 1)$ be the unknown mass and T the time schedule of a particular VBE machine for the first protocol type operating with infinite precision. Let z_1 and z_2 be two dyadic rationals of size k . Let s be the result of the protocol call $\text{Compare}[1, IP](z_1, z_2)$. Then, (a) if $\ell_k \leq z_1, z_2 \leq r_k$, then $s = \text{"TIMEOUT"}$, (b) if $z_1 < \ell_k \leq z_2 < r_k$ or $\ell_k \leq z_2 \leq r_k < z_1$, then $s = \text{"FIRST"}$, (c) if $z_2 < \ell_k \leq z_1 \leq r_k$ or $\ell_k \leq z_1 \leq r_k < z_2$, then $s = \text{"SECOND"}$, (d) if $z_1 < z_2 < \ell_k$ or $r_k < z_2 < z_1$, then $s = \text{"FIRST"}$, (e) if $z_2 < z_1 < \ell_k$ or $r_k < z_1 < z_2$, then $s = \text{"SECOND"}$, (f) if $z_1 < \ell_k < r_k < z_2$ and $z_1 z_2 \leq y^2$, then $s = \text{"FIRST"}$, (g) if $z_1 < \ell_k < r_k < z_2$ and $z_1 z_2 > y^2$, then $s = \text{"SECOND"}$, (h) if $z_2 < \ell_k < r_k < z_1$ and $z_1 z_2 > y^2$, then $s = \text{"FIRST"}$, and (i) if $z_2 < \ell_k < r_k < z_1$ and $z_1 z_2 \leq y^2$, then $s = \text{"SECOND"}$.

Proof: All the cases except for the last four are obvious. For the last four cases, we can assume, without loss of generality, that $z_1 < \ell_k < r_k < z_2$. To know the answer of protocol call $\text{Compare}[1, IP](z_1, z_2)$ we need to compare $T_{exp}(z_1, y)$ and $T_{exp}(z_2, y)$. Using the fact that $z_1 < y$ and $z_2 > y$, a quick calculation reveals that $T_{exp}(z_1, y) < T_{exp}(z_2, y)$ if and only if $\sqrt{(z_1 + y)/(y - z_1)} < \sqrt{(z_2 + y)/(z_2 - y)}$ if and only if $z_1 z_2 < y^2$. \square

We can then use the following algorithm to simulate oracle queries for the first oracle type with infinite precision.

ALGORITHM "SIMULATE(1, IP)"

Input two dyadic rational numbers z_1 and z_2 with same size k ;

Advice consists of three dyadic rational numbers ℓ_k, r_k (with size k) and y^2 (with size $2k$);

```

If  $\ell_k \leq z_1, z_2 \leq r_k$  Then Return "TIMEOUT";
If  $z_1 < \ell_k \leq z_2 \leq r_k$  Or  $\ell_k \leq z_2 \leq r_k < z_1$ , Then Return "FIRST";
If  $z_2 < \ell_k \leq z_1 \leq r_k$  Or  $\ell_k \leq z_1 \leq r_k < z_2$ , Then Return "SECOND";
If  $z_1 < z_2 < \ell_k$  Or  $r_k < z_2 \leq z_1$ , Then Return "FIRST";
If  $z_2 < z_1 < \ell_k$  Or  $r_k < z_1 \leq z_2$ , Then Return "SECOND";
If  $z_1 < \ell_k < r_k < z_2$  And  $z_1 z_2 \leq y^2$ , Then Return "FIRST";
If  $z_1 < \ell_k < r_k < z_2$  And  $z_1 z_2 > y^2$ , Then Return "SECOND";
If  $z_2 < \ell_k < r_k < z_1$  And  $z_1 z_2 > y^2$ , Then Return "FIRST";
If  $z_2 < \ell_k < r_k < z_1$  And  $z_1 z_2 \leq y^2$ , Then Return "SECOND".

```

Figure 13: Procedure to simulate an oracle query of size k ; it receives as advice the suitable approximations of the boundary numbers ℓ_k and r_k and of y^2 , where y is the unknown mass.

Proposition 30. If A is a set decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine with type I protocol

operating with infinite precision, then $A \in P/\text{poly}$.⁷

Proof: Let $\mathcal{M}(y)$ be a VBE machine with protocol of the first type operating with infinite precision that decides A in polynomial time. Since $\mathcal{M}(y)$ runs in polynomial time, there is a polynomial bound bn^a to the size of the queries during the computation relative to an input of size n . Consider the advice function f such that $f(n) = \ell_1 \downarrow_1 \# r_1 \downarrow_1 \# \dots \# \ell_t \downarrow_t \# r_t \downarrow_t \# y^2 \downarrow_{2t}$, where y is the unknown mass associated with \mathcal{M} , ℓ_k and r_k are the corresponding boundary numbers and $t = bn^a$, so that $f \in \text{poly}$. Now consider the Turing machine \mathcal{M}' with advice f that, for an input word of size n , simulates the VBE machine $\mathcal{M}(y)$ and, whenever in the query state, runs the algorithm $\text{Simulate}(1, IP)$ for the input z_1 and z_2 of size k , i.e. the content of the query tape, using $\ell_k \downarrow_k$, $r_k \downarrow_k$ and $y^2 \downarrow_{2k}$ as advice. Clearly, \mathcal{M}' has the same behaviour as $\mathcal{M}(y)$ and, since each simulation can be done in polynomial time, this machine also runs in polynomial time. It follows that $A \in P/\text{poly}$. \square

For the unbounded precision case remember that when a word z is written on the query tape the actual test mass is a real number uniformly sampled in the interval $(z - 2^{-|z|}, z + 2^{-|z|})$. To simulate an oracle query, we will first randomly choose a dyadic rational of size $|z| + s$ in the interval $(z - 2^{-|z|}, z + 2^{-|z|})$ (that is, we approach the real test mass with a dyadic test mass); this can be done with $s + 1$ coin tosses. Doing this twice we obtain two dyadic rationals z'_1 and z'_2 close to z_1 and z_2 , respectively; then we simulate an experiment with infinite precision with z'_1 and z'_2 , using approximations of ℓ_k , r_k and y^2 (using the algorithm $\text{Simulate}[1, IP]$). The whole idea is described in Figure 14.

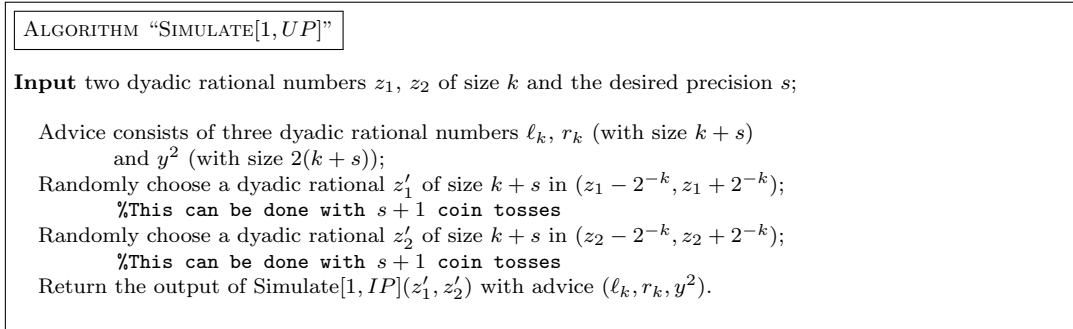


Figure 14: Procedure to simulate an oracle query of size k ; it receives as advices approximations of the boundary numbers ℓ_k and r_k and of y^2 , where y is the unknown mass.

We observe that the algorithm $\text{Simulate}[1, UP](z_1, z_2, s)$ is probabilistic, like the protocol call $\text{Compare}[1, UP](z_1, z_2)$. The next step should be to bound the difference in probabilities between these two procedures. As the following proposition shows, this bound depends on the *precision* s of the quantizer.

Proposition 31. *If p is the probability of obtaining result “FIRST”, “SECOND” or “TIMEOUT” in the protocol call $\text{Compare}[1, UP](z_1, z_2)$, for the unbounded precision case, for an unknown mass y and any time schedule T , and q is the probability of obtaining the same result in algorithm*

⁷Note the difference relative to Proposition 28: Proposition 30 is independent of the time schedule.

$\text{Simulate}[1, UP](z_1, z_2, s)$, receiving as advice approximations of y^2 as well as the boundary numbers ℓ_k and r_k associated with y and T , then $|p - q| < 2^{-s+1}$.

Proof: When protocol call $\text{Compare}[1, UP](z_1, z_2)$ is made for dyadic rationals of size k , we can think of the actual test masses used as a point (ξ, v) uniformly sampled in the two-dimensional region $R = (z_1 - 2^{-k}, z_1 + 2^{-k}) \times (z_2 - 2^{-k}, z_2 + 2^{-k})$. This region can be divided in three different regions: (a) the region R_f where the result is “FIRST”, that is defined by the equations $(\xi < \ell_k \wedge \xi < v < y^2/\xi) \vee (\xi > r_k \wedge y^2/\xi < v < \xi)$, (b) the region R_s where the result is “SECOND”, that is defined by the equations $(v < \ell_k \wedge v < \xi < y^2/v) \vee (v > r_k \wedge y^2/v < \xi < v)$, (c) the region R_t where the result is “TIMEOUT”, that is defined by the equations $(\ell_k < \xi < r_k) \wedge (\ell_k < v < r_k)$. Then, the probability of obtaining some result “FIRST”, “SECOND” or “TIMEOUT” is simply the area of the corresponding region divided by the area of the full square, which is 2^{-2k+2} . Figure 15 shows the various regions for a possible situation.

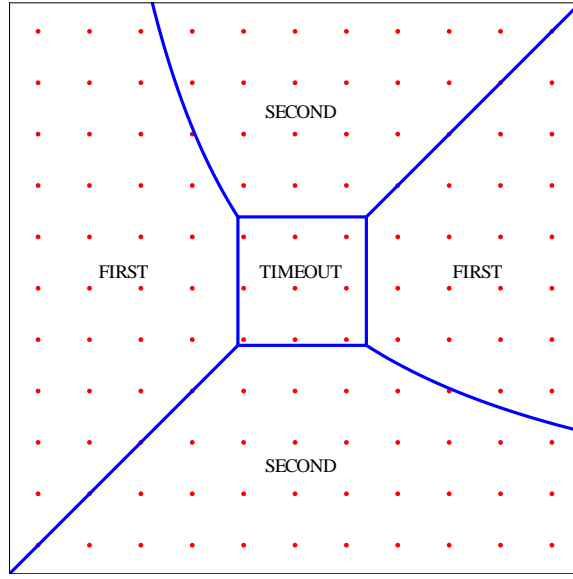


Figure 15: Regions.

When we are simulating the oracle query with algorithm $\text{Simulate}[1, UP]$, we are basically approximating each region by a union of small squares; we are dividing R into an array of 2^{s+1} by 2^{s+1} squares, each of these squares has a representative (ξ, v) where ξ and v are dyadic rationals of size 2^{k+s} . Then, the probability of obtaining a given result is simply the number of squares for which its representative falls in the corresponding region, divided by the total number of squares, which is 2^{2s+2} . To bound the difference in probability we observe that this difference comes from the squares containing points in more than one region. We call these squares *tainted*. Observe that, whenever a square is not tainted, that is, completely confined to one of the regions R_f , R_s , R_t , it does not contribute to the error in the probability used in the simulation. In other words, *only the tainted squares contribute to the error*. This step is decisive, since it implies that the absolute difference $|p - q|$ is bounded by the total area of the tainted squares. Finally, a simple counting argument

reveals that the total number of tainted squares is at most $2(2 \times 2^{s+1} - 1) - 1 < 2^{s+3}$. In this way, we obtain the desired bound in the difference of probabilities, as $|p - q| < 2^{s+3}/2^{2s+2} = 2^{-s+1}$. \square

Proposition 32. *If A is a set decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating with type I protocol and unbounded precision, then $A \in P/poly$.⁸*

Proof: Let A be decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating with type I protocol and unbounded precision. We will prove that $A \in BPP/poly$. There is a polynomial bound bn^a on both the size of a query and the number of queries that can be made during the computation on an input word of size n . We want to approximate the probability of any possible result of any possible query with a dyadic rational of size e , for a suitable e , such that the difference in probabilities of any query is bounded by 2^{-e} . If γ is the bound on the error probability associated with the VBE machine, then, by Proposition 27, the suitable value of e must be such that $2 \times bn^a 2^{-e} < 1/2 - \gamma$, that is, $2^e > 2bn^a/(1/2 - \gamma)$.⁹ Such a e can be taken to be logarithmic in n .

Now we consider the advice function f such that $f(n) = \ell_{\lfloor 2^{+e} \rfloor} \# r_{\lfloor 2^{+e} \rfloor} \# \dots \# \ell_{\lfloor 2^{+e+1} \rfloor} \# r_{\lfloor 2^{+e+1} \rfloor} \# y^2_{\lfloor 2^{+e+1} \rfloor}$, where y is the unknown mass associated with the VBE machine, ℓ_k and r_k are the corresponding boundary numbers and $t = bn^a$. It is immediate that $f \in poly$. We specify a machine for deciding the set A in polynomial time, using f as advice. This machine simulates the VBE machine for the same input word. Whenever in a query state with query words z_1 and z_2 of size k , it runs algorithm `Simulate(1, UP)` for the input z_1, z_2 (in the query tape) and $e + 1$, using $\ell_{\lfloor k+e+1 \rfloor}$, $r_{\lfloor k+e+1 \rfloor}$ and $y^2_{\lfloor 2^{+e+1} \rfloor}$ as advice. This machine induces a probabilistic tree in the same way as the original machine, with depth lower than bn^a . Thanks to Proposition 31, the edge difference is also lower than 2^{-e} . Then, by Proposition 27, the difference in the probabilities of acceptance is bounded by a constant less than $1/2 - \gamma$. Since each simulation can be done in polynomial time, this machine also runs in polynomial time. It follows that $A \in BPP/poly = P/poly$. \square

The remaining case is that of the fixed precision ϵ . The idea is the same as in the unbounded precision case, that is, we will devise a randomized algorithm to simulate oracle queries. For two given dyadic rationals z_1, z_2 we discretize the region $R = (z_1 - \epsilon, z_1 + \epsilon) \times (z_2 - \epsilon, z_2 + \epsilon)$. In the unbounded precision case it was easy to select a dyadic rational of fixed size in the interval $(z - 2^{-|z|}, z + 2^{-|z|})$ since the amplitude was itself a dyadic rational; for the fixed precision we have to deal with the fact that ϵ may not be a dyadic rational. The idea that we will use is as follows: let t be a natural number such that $2^{-t-1} < \epsilon \leq 2^{-t}$; we randomly choose a dyadic rational $z' \in (z - 2^{-t}, z + 2^{-t})$ of size σ (this can be done with $\sigma - t + 1$ coin tosses);¹⁰ then with probability at least $1/2$ we obtain that $z' \in (z - \epsilon, z + \epsilon)$. If we repeat the above procedure h times then we can get a dyadic rational of size σ with probability of failure less than 2^{-h} . Moreover all dyadic rationals of size σ in the interval have the same probability of being chosen. This is the core idea for simulating oracle queries with fixed precision.

Proposition 33. *If p is the probability of obtaining result “FIRST”, “SECOND” or “TIMEOUT” in the protocol call `Compare[1, FP(ϵ)](z_1, z_2)`, for an unknown mass y and any time schedule T , and q is the probability of obtaining the same result in algorithm `Simulate[1, FP(ϵ)](z_1, z_2, σ, h)` receiving as advice approximations of y^2 and ϵ as well as the boundary numbers ℓ_k and r_k associated with y and T , then $|p - q| < 2^{-h+1} + \epsilon 2^{-\sigma+3} + 2^{-\sigma+2}/\epsilon$.*

⁸Again, this result does not depend on any particular time schedule.

⁹The probabilistic tree induced by the VBE machine is ternary in this case.

¹⁰Observe that σ may be smaller than $|z|$; i.e. the dyadic rational generated has smaller size than z ; the intuitive meaning of this is that increasing the size of the queries does not contribute to increase their precision.

Proof: There are three situations that change the probability of a given result: (a) the algorithm fails to produce the desired dyadic rational of size σ , (b) the algorithm does not take into account a small area in the outer part of the region R , and (c) the algorithm has different probabilities in the inner part of the region R . The first situation occurs with probability less than $2^{-h} + 2^{-h}$. Regarding the second situation, let $N = \lfloor \epsilon \times 2^\sigma \rfloor$; observe that the dyadic rationals produced by the algorithm that are in $(z - \epsilon, z + \epsilon)$ belong in fact to the interval $(z - N2^{-\sigma}, z + N2^{-\sigma})$; this means that we are approaching region R of Figure 15 by region $R' = (z_1 - N2^{-\sigma}, z_1 + N2^{-\sigma}) \times (z_2 - N2^{-\sigma}, z_2 + N2^{-\sigma})$. This means that we must account for the difference between the areas of these two regions, which is bounded by $4 \times 2\epsilon \times 2^{-\sigma}$. Finally, the calculations for the third situation are the same as in the proof of Proposition 31; we divide R' by an array of $2N$ by $2N$ squares; counting the number of tainted squares we conclude that the difference in probabilities is less than $2/N$. Now using the fact that $N > \epsilon 2^\sigma / 2$ we obtain the desired bound of $2^{-h+1} + \epsilon 2^{-\sigma+3} + 2^{-\sigma+2}/\epsilon$. \square

ALGORITHM “SIMULATE($1, FP(\epsilon)$)”

Input two dyadic rational numbers z_1 and z_2 with size k , the desired precision σ , and h ;
 Advice consists of four dyadic rational numbers ℓ_k, r_k (size σ), y^2 (size 2σ) and ϵ (size σ);
 Find t such that $2^{-t-1} < \epsilon \leq 2^{-t}$; %Just count the number of 0s in the head of ϵ
Repeat h times
 Randomly choose a dyadic rational z'_1 of size σ in $(z_1 - 2^{-t}, z_1 + 2^{-t})$;
 %This can be done with $\sigma - t + 1$ coin tosses
 If $z'_1 \in (z_1 - \epsilon, z_1 + \epsilon)$ **Then Break**;
End Repeat;
If $z'_1 \notin (z_1 - \epsilon, z_1 + \epsilon)$ **Then Return** “TIMEOUT”;
Repeat h times
 Randomly choose a dyadic rational z'_2 of size σ in $(z_2 - 2^{-t}, z_2 + 2^{-t})$;
 %This can be done with $\sigma - t + 1$ coin tosses
 If $z'_2 \in (z_2 - \epsilon, z_2 + \epsilon)$ **Then Break**;
End Repeat;
If $z'_2 \notin (z_2 - \epsilon, z_2 + \epsilon)$ **Then Return** “TIMEOUT”;
 Simulate[1, IP](z'_1, z'_2) with advice (ℓ_k, r_k, y^2)

Figure 16: Procedure to simulate an oracle query of size k ; it receives as advice approximations of the boundary numbers ℓ_k and r_k , of y^2 where y is the unknown mass, and of the fixed precision ϵ . Observe that the result “TIMEOUT” in two instructions is irrelevant; we could choose any other result, since the probability of the algorithm ending in any of this instructions will decrease to 0 as we increase the value of h .

Proposition 34. *If A is a set decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating with type I protocol and fixed precision ϵ , then $A \in P/poly$.*

Proof: Let A be decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating on a mass y with type I protocol and fixed precision ϵ . First we observe that, to obtain a bound of 2^{-e} on the difference of probability in any oracle query, it suffices to consider h and σ such that $h = e + 2$ and $\sigma = e + 3 + \lceil \log(2\epsilon + 1/\epsilon) \rceil$ and invoke Proposition 33.¹¹ Since there is a polynomial bound bn^a on both the size of a query and the number of queries that can be made during the computation on an input word of size n , we take e such that $2^e > 2bn^a/(1/2 - \gamma)$. Next we consider the advice function f such that $f(n) = \ell_1 \# \sigma \# r_1 \# \sigma \# \dots \# \ell_t \# \sigma \# r_t \# \sigma \# y^2 \# 2\sigma \# \epsilon \# \sigma$, where y is the unknown mass

¹¹The constant $3 + \lceil \log(2\epsilon + 1/\epsilon) \rceil$ can be hard-wired into the machine.

associated with VBE machine, ℓ_k and r_k are the corresponding boundary numbers and $t = bn^a$. It is immediate that $f \in \text{poly}$ (actually, σ is logarithmic in n).

The machine that decides the set A in polynomial time, using f as advice, simply simulates the VBE machine for the same input word and replaces oracle calls by algorithm $\text{Simulate}[2, FP(\epsilon)]$ using as input the content of the query tape as well as k and σ , and using as advice the appropriate ℓ_k and r_k as well as y^2 and ϵ . This machine induces a probabilistic tree in the same way as the original machine. By Proposition 27 and the above discussion, the difference in the probabilities of acceptance is bounded by a constant less than $1/2 - \gamma$. Since each simulation can be done in polynomial time, this machine also runs in polynomial time. It follows that $A \in BPP//\text{poly} = P//\text{poly}$. \square

Proposition 35. *If A is a set decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating with type I protocol and fixed precision ϵ , then $A \in BPP//\log^*$.*

Proof: We strengthen the proof of Proposition 34 assuming without loss of generality that, as a function of n , we have $T(n)^2 > 2$. The boundary numbers ℓ_k and r_k are such that

$$\ell_k = y(1 - \frac{2}{T(k)^2 + 1}) \quad r_k = y(1 + \frac{2}{T(k)^2 - 1})$$

We can use $d + 2$ digits of y to obtain a precision of d digits on ℓ_k and r_k . As in the previous proof, σ can be taken as logarithmic in n , i.e. $\sigma = \xi \lceil \log(n) \rceil + e$, with $\xi, e \in \mathbb{N}$. We define an auxiliary function \tilde{f} such that (a) $\tilde{f}(0)$ is the concatenation of the first $e + 2$ bits of y , the first $2e$ bits of y^2 , and the first e bits of ϵ , and (b) $\tilde{f}(t + 1)$ is the concatenation of $\tilde{f}(t)$, the bits from $e + \xi t + 3$ to $e + \xi t + \xi + 2$ of y , the bits from $2e + 2\xi t + 1$ to $2e + 2\xi t + \xi$ of y^2 , and the bits from $e + \xi t + 1$ to $e + \xi t + \xi$ of ϵ .

We can use $\tilde{f}(t)$ to obtain the first $\xi t + e + 2$ digits of y , the first $2\xi t + 2e$ digits of y^2 , and the first $\xi t + e$ digits of ϵ . By the previous discussion, we can then use the approximations of y to compute the first $\xi t + e$ bits of any real ℓ_i or r_i . Also, we can see that $|\tilde{f}(t)| = \xi t + e + 2 + 2\xi t + 2e + \xi t + e = \mathcal{O}(t)$. Finally, the advice function required is $\tilde{g}(n) = \tilde{f}(\lceil \log(n) \rceil)$. Observe that \tilde{g} is a prefix function and that $|\tilde{g}(n)| = \mathcal{O}(\log(n))$. Furthermore, $\tilde{g}(n)$ can be used to compute $f(n)$ on the proof of Proposition 34. Now we specify a probabilistic machine for deciding set A in polynomial time, using \tilde{g} as advice. Simply retrieve f from \tilde{g} and then use the machine specified in the proof of the previous proposition. Since this retrieval can be made in polynomial time and the above machine also runs in polynomial time, we conclude that A is decided by this procedure in polynomial time, as we wanted to prove. \square

ALGORITHM “RANDOM”

Input natural numbers g – defines the range $[-g, g]$ – and h – number of iterations;
 $s = \lceil \log(2g + 1) \rceil$; % $2^s + 1$ is the number of possible results
Repeat h times
 Randomly choose a natural number $r \in [0, 2^s]$; %It can be done with s coin tosses;
 If $r \leq 2g$ **Then Break**; %This happens with probability greater than $1/2$
End Repeat;
If $r > 2g$ **Then Return** “FAIL”;
Return $r - g$.

Figure 17: Probabilistic procedure to find an integer in the range $[-g, g]$ with probability of failure bounded by 2^{-h} .

10.2. Upper bounds for type II protocol

We consider now the type II protocol. In this implementation there are two aspects to consider in order to simulate oracle queries: (a) the need to compute the exact number of machine steps that an experiment takes and (b) the need to produce integer numbers in the range $[-g(k), g(k)]$ where g is the time tolerance and k is the query size. The first is solved with a suitable advice and the second is solved by the randomizer of Figure 17.

Proposition 36. *For any $h \in \mathbb{N}$, (a) the time complexity of algorithm *Random* for an input g of size n and number h is $\mathcal{O}(hn)$ and (b) with probability of failure less than 2^{-h} , the output of algorithm *Random* for input g is an integer in $[-g, g]$.*

We will use algorithm *Random* several times in the following proofs; observe also that not all time tolerances are simulatable; in particular, we prove upper bounds under the assumption that g is computable in polynomial time. We also need to define a sequence of real numbers, similar to the boundary numbers.

Definition 4. *Let $y \in (0, 1)$ be the unknown mass of a particular VBE machine. We define the section numbers ℓ'_k and r'_k for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$, as the real numbers in $(0, 1)$ such that $\ell'_k < y < r'_k$ and $T_{exp}(\ell'_k, y) = T_{exp}(r'_k, y) = k$.*

The section numbers effectively split the interval $[0, 1]$ according to the corresponding experimental time. Moreover, given a dyadic rational z , in order to compute the time taken for an experiment with test mass z (assuming infinite precision and zero time tolerance) we simply need to find k such that either $\ell'_{k-1} < z \leq \ell'_k$ or $r'_k < z \leq r'_{k-1}$. Observe also that the boundary numbers are a particular case of section numbers since $\ell_k = \ell'_{T(k)}$ and $r_k = r'_{T(k)}$.

ALGORITHM “SIMULATE[2, IP, g]”

Input two dyadic rational numbers z_1 and z_2 – both with same size k – and a natural number h – precision desired;
 Advice consists of a sequence of dyadic rationals $\ell''_1, \dots, \ell''_T, r''_T, \dots, r''_1$ approximating the section numbers;
 T is half of the number of dyadic rationals in the above sequence;
 Find T_1 such that $\ell''_{T_1-1} < z \leq \ell''_{T_1}$ or $r''_{T_1} < z \leq r''_{T_1-1}$;
If no such T_1 exists **Then** $T_1 = T + 1$;
 Find T_2 such that $\ell''_{T_2-1} < z \leq \ell''_{T_2}$ or $r''_{T_2} < z \leq r''_{T_2-1}$;
If no such T_2 exists **Then** $T_2 = T + 1$;
 $T_1 := T_1 + \text{Random}(g(k))$;
 $T_2 := T_2 + \text{Random}(g(k))$;
 Compare T_1 and T_2 :
If $T_1 > T$ **And** $T_2 > T$ **Then Return** “TIMEOUT”;
If $T_1 < T_2$ **Then Return** “FIRST”;
If $T_1 > T_2$ **Then Return** “SECOND”;
If $T_1 = T_2$ **Then Return** “INDISTINGUISHABLE”.

Figure 18: Procedure to simulate an oracle query of size k ; it receives as advice approximations $\ell''_1, \dots, \ell''_T$ and r''_1, \dots, r''_T of the section numbers ℓ'_1, \dots, ℓ'_T and r'_1, \dots, r'_T as in the proof of Proposition 37; assume that $g \in PF$.

Proposition 37. *If A be a set decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating with type II protocol with infinite precision and time tolerance $g \in PF$, then $A \in P/poly$.*

Proof: Let $\mathcal{M}(y)$ be a VBE machine operating with mass y and deciding A in polynomial time with protocol $(2, IP, g)$, where $g \in PF$. In the case that $g \neq 0$, let $\gamma \in (0, 1/2)$ bound the probability of failure. Since $\mathcal{M}(y)$ runs in polynomial time, there is a polynomial bn^a such that, for every input word of size n : (a) it bounds the number of possible queries and (b) it bounds the maximum possible size of a query. Consider the advice function f such that $f(n) = \ell'_1|_t \# \ell'_2|_t \# \dots \# \ell'_t|_t \# \dots \# r'_1|_t \# \dots \# r'_t|_t$, where $t = bn^a$. That is, $f(n)$ is a non-decreasing sequence of dyadic rationals of size t that divide the interval $[0, 1]$ in intersecting sub-intervals corresponding to each experimental time. Observe that timeouts occur when the test mass lies in (ℓ'_t, r'_t) .

The machine that decides the set A in polynomial time, using f as advice, simply simulates \mathcal{M} for the same input word of size n . Whenever in a query state, $\mathcal{M}(y)$ sequentially compares the query words z_1 and z_2 with the dyadic rationals in the advice, thus obtaining T_1 and T_2 such that $\lceil T_{exp}(z_1, y) \rceil = T_1$ and $\lceil T_{exp}(z_2, y) \rceil = T_2$. In the case that $\ell_t < z_i < r_t$ (that is, the experiment times out), we take T_i as $t + 1$.

In the case that g is the null function, we can simply resume the computation in the corresponding state (“FIRST”, “SECOND”, “TIMEOUT” or “INDISTINGUISHABLE”) by comparing T_1, T_2 and t . For a non-null g , we produce two random integers r_1 and r_2 with two calls to $\text{Random}(g(|z_1|, h))$ for a suitable value of h .¹² If any of these calls fail (with probability less than 2^{-h}) we resume the computation in the state “TIMEOUT”. Otherwise we compare $T_1 + r_1, T_2 + r_2$ and t and resume the computation in the corresponding state. To find the suitable value of h , observe that this machine induces a probabilistic tree in the same way as $\mathcal{M}(y)$, with edge difference lower than 2×2^{-h} . The depth of the tree is bounded by t which is polynomial in n . Thus, we take h such that $3 \times t \times 2 \times 2^{-h} < 1/2 - \gamma$, that is, $2^h > 6t/(1/2 - \gamma)$, so that h is polylogarithmic in n . Then, by Proposition 27, the difference in the probabilities of acceptance is bounded by a constant less than $1/2 - \gamma$ and so the probability that this machine gives a wrong answer is bounded by a constant less than $1/2$. In either case ($g \equiv 0$ or $g \neq 0$) each simulation can be done in polynomial time, so this machine also runs in polynomial time. It follows that $A \in P/poly$ or $A \in BPP//poly$, which are the same. \square

ALGORITHM “SIMULATE[2, UP, g]”

Input two dyadic rational numbers z_1 and z_2 — both with same size k
— and natural numbers s and h — desired precision;
Advice consists of a sequence of dyadic rationals $\ell''_1, \dots, \ell''_t, r''_1, \dots, r''_t$
approximating the section numbers;
Randomly choose a dyadic rational z'_1 of size $k + s$ in $(z_1 - 2^{-k}, z_1 + 2^{-k})$;
%This can be done with $s + 1$ coin tosses
Randomly choose a dyadic rational z'_2 of size $k + s$ in $(z_2 - 2^{-k}, z_2 + 2^{-k})$;
%This can be done with $s + 1$ coin tosses
Return the output of Simulate[2, IP, g](z'_1, z'_2, h) with the same advice.

Figure 19: Procedure to simulate an oracle query of size k ; it receives as advice approximations $\ell''_1, \dots, \ell''_t$ and r''_1, \dots, r''_t of the section numbers ℓ'_1, \dots, ℓ'_t and r'_1, \dots, r'_t as in the proof of the Proposition 37; assume that $g \in PF$.

For the other precision cases, we again consider a technique similar to quantization. To simulate an oracle query with test masses z_1 and z_2 of size k , we first generate in a random way dyadic

¹²This is the step in which we assume that $g \in PF$.

rational numbers z'_1 and z'_2 of a suitable size close to z_1 and z_2 , respectively; then we simulate an experiment with infinite precision with z'_1 and z'_2 using algorithm $\text{Simulate}[2, IP, g]$.

Proposition 38. *If p be the probability of obtaining either result “FIRST”, “SECOND”, “TIMEOUT” or “INDISTINGUISHABLE” in protocol $\text{Compare}[2, UP, g](z_1, z_2)$, for an unknown mass y , any time schedule T , and any time tolerance $g \in PF$, and q is the probability of obtaining the same result in algorithm $\text{Simulate}[2, UP, g](z_1, z_2, s, h)$, where z_1 and z_2 have size k , receiving as advice dyadic rationals $\ell''_1, \dots, \ell''_t, r''_t, \dots, r''_1$ approximating the section numbers $\ell'_1, \dots, \ell'_t, r'_t, \dots, r'_1$ such that $|\ell''_i - \ell'_i|, |r''_i - r'_i| < 2^{-k-s}$, then $|p - q| < 2^{-h+1} + 2^{-s+2} T(k)$.*

Proof: We can think that the actual test masses used are points (ξ, v) uniformly sampled in the two-dimensional region $R = (z_1 - 2^{-k}, z_1 + 2^{-k}) \times (z_2 - 2^{-k}, z_2 + 2^{-k})$. This region can be divided in regions R_i , $i \in \mathbb{N}$, where R_i is the set of points (ξ, v) such that $\lceil T_{exp}(\xi, y) \rceil - \lceil T_{exp}(v, y) \rceil = i$. Then, the probability of obtaining a time difference of i (not accounting for the time tolerance) is simply the area of the corresponding region divided by the area of the full square, which is 2^{-2k+2} . Figure 20 shows the various regions for a possible situation.

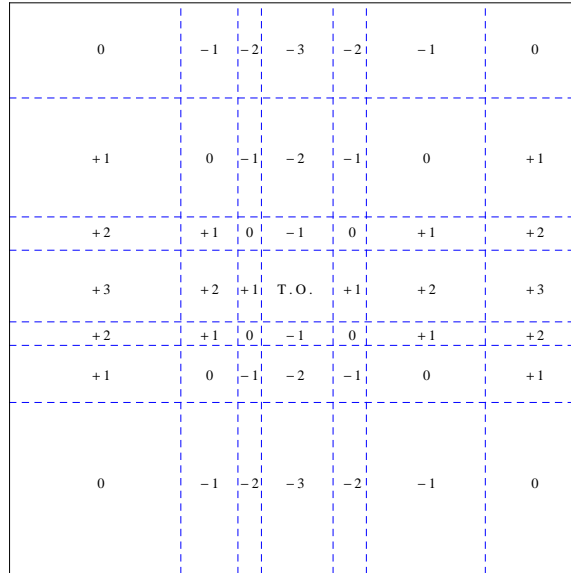


Figure 20: Example of the regions, for the square $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, with $y = 1/2$.

Finally, the probability of obtaining a given result “FIRST”, “SECOND”, “TIMEOUT” or “INDISTINGUISHABLE” is the weighted sum of the above probabilities, such that region R_i has a weighted probability corresponding to the probability of obtaining that result given that the time difference is i . When we are simulating the oracle query with algorithm $\text{Simulate}[2, UP, g]$, we are dividing R into an array of 2^{s+1} by 2^{s+1} squares, each of these squares has a representative (ξ, v) where ξ and v are dyadic rationals of size 2^{k+s} . Then, the probability of obtaining a time difference of i is the number of squares for which its representative falls in the corresponding region, divided by the total number of squares, which is 2^{2s+2} . To bound the difference in probability we observe

that once more only the tainted squares contribute for a difference in probabilities; in this case the tainted squares are those that lie in a zone where the integer part of the time changes (in Figure 20 this correspond to the dashed lines). Thus the absolute difference $|p - q|$ is bounded by the total area of the tainted squares. A simple counting argument reveals that the total number of tainted squares is less than $4 \times 2^{s+1} \times m$ where m is the number of vertical lines (m is bounded by twice the largest value of the time schedule). We also need to add the probability of getting failures when performing algorithm Random which is 2^{-h+1} . Thus, we obtain the desired bound in the difference of probabilities, as $|p - q| < 2^{-h+1} + 8 \times T(k) \times 2^{s+1}/2^{2s+2} = 2^{-h+1} + 2^{-s+2}T(k)$. \square

Proposition 39. *If A is a set decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating with type II protocol with unbounded precision and time tolerance $g \in PF$, then $A \in P/poly$. Moreover, if the time schedule T is exponential, then $A \in BPP//log\star$.*

Proof: Let $\mathcal{M}(y)$ be a VBE machine operating with mass y deciding A in polynomial time with protocol $(2, UP, g)$ where $g \in PF$. Let $\gamma \in (0, 1/2)$ bound the probability of failure. Since \mathcal{M} runs in polynomial time, there is a polynomial bn^a bounding all of the following, in the computation of an input word of size n : (a) the number of queries made, (b) the maximum possible size of a query, and (c) the largest value taken by the time schedule (that is, $T(k)$ where k is the maximum possible size of a query). Consider the advice function f such that $f(n) = \ell'_1 \# \ell'_2 \# \dots \# \ell'_t \# r'_1 \# \dots \# r'_t \# t$, where $t = bn^a$ and $t+s$ for a suitable choice of s . That is, $f(n)$ is a non-decreasing sequence of dyadic rationals of size $t+s$ dividing the interval $[0, 1]$ in sub-intervals corresponding to each experimental time. Observe that timeouts occur when the test mass lies in (ℓ'_t, r'_t) .

The machine that decides set A in polynomial time, using f as advice, simply simulates $\mathcal{M}(y)$ for the same input word of size n and replaces protocol calls with $\text{Simulate}(2, UP, g)(z_1, z_2, s, h)$ for a suitable choice of h . The difference in probabilities, by Proposition 38, is less than $2^{-h+1} + 2^{-s+2}t$. To find the suitable values of s and h , observe that this machine induces a probabilistic tree in the same way as $\mathcal{M}(y)$, with depth bounded by t which is polynomial in n . Thus, we take h and s such that $3 \times t \times (2^{-h+1} + 2^{-s+2}t) < 1/2 - \gamma$, for example, taking $2^h > 12t/(1/2 - \gamma)$ and $2^s > 24t^2/(1/2 - \gamma)$, so that h and s are logarithmic in n . Then, by Proposition 27, the difference in the probabilities of acceptance is bounded by a constant less than $1/2 - \gamma$ and so the probability that this machine gives a wrong answer is bounded by a constant less than $1/2$. Since each simulation can be done in polynomial time, this machine also runs in polynomial time. It follows that $A \in P/poly$.

Finally, in the assumption that T is exponential, the maximum possible size of a query is bounded by some value σ which is logarithmic in n . But in this case we can take an advice function \tilde{f} consisting on the binary expansion of y from which we can retrieve approximations of ℓ'_i and r'_i by taking $\ell''_i = y(i^2 - 1)/(i^2 + 1)$ and $r''_i = y(i^2 + 1)/(i^2 - 1)$. It can be seen in a similar reasoning to previous proofs that to get an approximation with precision $2^{-\sigma-s}$ we need $\sigma + s + 2$ digits of y , thus \tilde{f} can be taken to be a prefix function in \log . Now we can retrieve f from \tilde{f} and repeat the same procedure to decide A in polynomial time, thus concluding that $A \in BPP//log\star$. \square

For the fixed precision case, all we need to do is devise once more an algorithm to simulate queries and then prove the upper bound.

Proposition 40. *Let r be either result “FIRST”, “SECOND”, “TIMEOUT” or “INDISTINGUISHABLE”. If p is the probability of obtaining result r in protocol call $\text{Compare}[2, FP(\epsilon), g](z_1, z_2)$, for an unknown mass y , any time schedule T and any time precision $g \in PF$, and q is the probability of obtaining result r in algorithm $\text{Simulate}[1, FP(\epsilon), g](z_1, z_2, \sigma, h)$ receiving as advice dyadic rationals*

$\ell_1'', \dots, \ell_t'', r_1'', \dots, r_t''$ such that $|\ell_i'' - \ell_i'|, |r_i'' - r_i'| < 2^{-\sigma}$ and an approximation of ϵ with error less than $2^{-\sigma}$, then $|p - q| < 2^{-h+2} + \epsilon 2^{-\sigma+3} + 2^{-\sigma+3} T(|z_1|)/\epsilon$.

Proof: There are four situations that change the probability of a given result: (a) the algorithm failed in producing a desired dyadic rational of size σ , (b) the algorithm failed in sampling a random integer in $[-g(z_1), g(z_1)]$, (c) the algorithm does not take into account a small area on the outer part of the region R , and (d) the algorithm has different probabilities in the inner part of the region R . The first situation occurs with probability less than $2^{-h} + 2^{-h}$. The second situation occurs also with probability less than $2^{-h} + 2^{-h}$. Regarding the third and fourth situations, let $N = \lfloor \epsilon \times 2^\sigma \rfloor > \frac{1}{2} \epsilon 2^\sigma$; the small region that is not accounted has area less than $4 \times 2\epsilon \times 2^{-\sigma}$. For the last situation we repeat the reasoning as in Proposition 38; the number of tainted squares is less than $4NT(|z_1|)$. We obtain the desired bound of $2^{-h+2} + \epsilon 2^{-\sigma+3} + 2^{-\sigma+3} T(|z_1|)/\epsilon$. \square

ALGORITHM “SIMULATE[2, $FP(\epsilon)$]”

Input two dyadic rational numbers z_1 and z_2 – both with same size k –
and natural numbers σ and h – precision desired;
Advice consists of a sequence of dyadic rationals $\ell_1'', \dots, \ell_t'', r_1'', \dots, r_t''$
approximating the section numbers and ϵ (size σ);
Find t such that $2^{-t-1} < \epsilon \leq 2^{-t}$; %Just count the number of 0s in the head of ϵ ;
%This can be done with $s+1$ coin tosses
Repeat h times
Randomly choose a dyadic rational z_1' of size σ in $(z_1 - 2^{-t}, z_1 + 2^{-t})$;
%This can be done with $\sigma - t + 1$ coin tosses
If $z_1' \in (z_1 - \epsilon, z_1 + \epsilon)$ **Then Break**
End Repeat;
If $z_1' \notin (z_1 - \epsilon, z_1 + \epsilon)$ **Then Return** “TIMEOUT”;
Repeat h times
Randomly choose a dyadic rational z_2' of size σ in $(z_2 - 2^{-t}, z_2 + 2^{-t})$;
%This can be done with $\sigma - t + 1$ coin tosses
If $z_2' \in (z_2 - \epsilon, z_2 + \epsilon)$ **Then Break**
End Repeat;
If $z_2' \notin (z_2 - \epsilon, z_2 + \epsilon)$ **Then Return** “TIMEOUT”;
Simulate(2, IP, g)(z_1', z_2', h) with advice given by the section numbers

Figure 21: Procedure to simulate an oracle query of size k ; receives as advices approximations ℓ_1', \dots, ℓ_t' and r_1', \dots, r_t' of the section numbers ℓ_1, \dots, ℓ_t and r_1, \dots, r_t and of the fixed precision ϵ ; assume that $g \in PF$.

Proposition 41. *If A is a set decidable in polynomial time by a VBE machine operating with type II protocol with fixed precision ϵ and time precision $g \in PF$, then $A \in BPP//\log\star$.*

Proof: Let $\mathcal{M}(y)$ be a VBE machine operating with mass y deciding A in polynomial time with protocol $(2, FP(\epsilon), g)$ where $g \in PF$. Let $\gamma \in (0, 1/2)$ bound the probability of failure. Since $\mathcal{M}(y)$ runs in polynomial time, there is a polynomial bn^a bounding the number of queries made (which bounds the depth of the computation tree) and the largest value taken by the time schedule, during any computation of any word of size n . We consider an advice function such that $f(n)$ contains the bits of y and ϵ . For an input word of size n , let $t = bn^a$. First we take h and σ such that $3 \times t \times (2^{-h+2} + \epsilon 2^{-\sigma+3} + 2^{-\sigma+3} t)/\epsilon < (1/2 - \gamma)$, which can be achieved with $2^h > 24t/(1/2 - \gamma)$ and $2^\sigma > 48t(\epsilon + t/\epsilon)/(1/2 - \gamma)$. Once more, h and σ are logarithmic in n . To get approximations of the section numbers with error less than $2^{-\sigma}$ we need $\sigma + 2$ bits of y . This means that our advice

f will contain the first $\sigma + 2$ bits of y and σ bits of ϵ . The advice function can be specified as in previous proofs, that is, at each new power of 2 we append to the advice a constant amount of bits of each of these three constants. Thus f is a prefix function in log.

The machine that decides set A in polynomial time, using f as advice, begins by using the approximations of y to produce approximations to the section numbers. Then it simulates $\mathcal{M}(y)$ for the same input word and replaces protocol calls with $\text{Simulate}(2, FP(\epsilon), g)(z_1, z_2, \sigma, h)$ for the suitable choices of σ and h mentioned above, using as advice the approximations of the section numbers and of ϵ . The difference in probabilities, by Proposition 38, is less than $2^{-h+2} + \epsilon 2^{-\sigma+3} + 2^{-\sigma+3} t/\epsilon$. Then, by Proposition 27, the difference in the probabilities of acceptance is bounded by a constant less than $1/2 - \gamma$ and so the probability that this machine gives a wrong answer is bounded by a constant less than $1/2$. Since each simulation can be done in polynomial time, this machine also runs in polynomial time. It follows that $A \in BPP//\log^*$. \square

11. Conclusions

Measurement theory of Hempel (see [16]) and Carnap (see [14]), developed in Suppes et al. (see [18]), is a theory about operations on the real world that taken to the limit define real numbers. In this paper we have considered the abstract experimenter (e.g. the experimental physicist) as a Turing machine and the abstract experiment of measuring a physical quantity (using a specified physical apparatus) as an oracle to the Turing machine. The algorithm running in the Turing machine abstracts the experimental method of measurement chosen by the experimenter (encoding the recursive structure of experimental actions). Scientific activity seen as algorithm running in a Turing machine is also not new in computational learning theory (see [17]).

It is standard to consider that to measure a real number μ , e.g. the value of a physical quantity, the experimenter (the Turing machine) should proceed by approximations – *oracle consultations*. Thus, besides the value of μ , we have considered dyadic rational approximations (denoted by finite binary strings), and a procedure to measure μ *proved to be universal* in specific settings (see [5] for the proof of universality of binary search method in the case of two-sided experiments). In principle, whenever possible, the algorithm conducting the experiment should approximate the unknown in a series of convergent experimental values. The time needed to consult the oracle is not any more a single step of computation but a number of time steps that will depend on the size of the query (precision). Provided with such mathematical constructions, the main complexity classes of Turing machines coupled with these measurements have been studied herein for the case of vanishing value measurements. Two-sided measurements have been considered in [1, 5, 6, 9, 10] and threshold experiments in [3, 10].

Two-sided experiments of measurement and their variants (see [1, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10]) have the following common characteristics:

- A *real value* is being measured.
- (AXIOM 1) A *query* corresponds to a classical query to the oracle in the following sense: the answer is “yes”, or “no”, or “timeout” (meaning no answer in the given time).
- *Queries* express dyadic rational putative values of the concept being measured.
- The *cost* of the oracle to the Turing machine expresses the time required by the experiment.¹³

¹³Remember that the classical connection between the Turing machine and the oracle is a one step computation.

Note that AXIOM 1 clarifies that the answer should be a qualitative aspect of the experimental apparatus, e.g. a detection, and not dependent on prior measurements, that is a *fundamental measurement*. The threshold oracles introduced in [3, 7, 10] have a different AXIOM 1, namely

- AXIOM 2 A *query* corresponds to a classical query to the oracle in the following sense: the answer is “yes”, or “timeout”.

The vanishing oracles introduced in [7, 10] and fully studied in this paper differ also in AXIOM 1, 2, namely

- AXIOM 3 A *query* does not correspond to a classical query to the oracle in the following sense: two queries are made at the same machine (experimenter) time; if the oracle answers first to query number one, then it is interpreted as a “yes”, else if the oracle answers first to query number two, then is interpreted as a “no”, else a “timeout” or an “indistinguishable” is returned.

Notice that vanishing experiments correspond to an intuition about a mathematical object – an oracle – of a specified form. The physical experiment helps in understanding that the oracle has a cost of consultation and is stochastic, it gives intuitions about the fact that exponential time on the size of the query is common if not universal in Physics. In this sense, the common limits of computational power established in [19] drops from $P/poly$ to $BPP//log\star$. The power $P/poly$, corresponding to type I vanishing value experiments, is supported by an analog device – the oracle – that is able to distinguish precedence between two events no matter how close in time they happened, fact that corresponds to an impossibility in Physics, a fact that should be considered as impossible as the existence of piecewise linear activation functions.

By this time, and with this paper, we have characterized the three identified types of physical oracles – two-sided, threshold and vanishing value – in terms of their computation capabilities in polynomial time. In [5], we also defined *measurable number*, partially agreeing with Geroch and Hartle in their [15], identifying non-measurable numbers.

Type of Oracle		Infinite	Unbounded	Finite
Two-sided	lower bound	$P/log\star$	$BPP//log\star$	$BPP//log\star$
	upper bound	$P/poly$	$P/poly$	$P/poly$
	upper bound (w/ exponential T)	—	—	—
Threshold	lower bound	$P/log\star$	$BPP//log\star$	$BPP//log\star$
	upper bound	—	—	—
	upper bound (w/ exponential T)	$P/log\star$	$BPP//log\star$	$BPP//log\star$
Vanishing1	lower bound	$P/poly$	$P/poly$	$BPP//log\star$
	upper bound	$P/poly$	$P/poly$	$BPP//log\star$
	upper bound (w/ exponential T)	—	—	—
Vanishing2 (Time tolerance)	lower bound	$P/log\star$	$BPP//log\star$	$BPP//log\star$
	upper bound	$P/poly$	$P/poly$	$BPP//log\star$
	upper bound (w/ exponential T)	—	$BPP//log\star$	—

Figure 22: Table of complexity classes of different experiments considered with different concept precision and time tolerance. Two-sided experiments have been considered in [1, 2, 5, 6, 8, 9] and threshold experiments in [3].

Having studied the three categories of physical measurements that give rise to three types of oracles with possible variants, we recently identified a new phenomenon of boosting computations in polynomial time by means of non-computable schedules, increasing the computational power of the analog-digital Turing machines in polynomial time again from $BPP//log\star$ to $P/poly$.

Table of Figure 22 reports on lower and upper bounds of VBE machines. We added the results of our previous research on the two-sided (see [5]) and threshold oracles (see [3]).

Acknowledgements. The research of José Félix Costa is supported by Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia, PEst – OE/MAT/UI0209/2011.

12. References

- [1] Edwin Beggs, José Félix Costa, Bruno Loff, and John V. Tucker. Computational complexity with experiments as oracles. *Proceedings of the Royal Society, Series A (Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences)*, 464(2098):2777–2801, 2008.
- [2] Edwin Beggs, José Félix Costa, Bruno Loff, and John V. Tucker. Computational complexity with experiments as oracles II. Upper bounds. *Proceedings of the Royal Society, Series A (Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences)*, 465(2105):1453–1465, 2009.
- [3] Edwin Beggs, José Félix Costa, Diogo Poças, and John V. Tucker. On the power of threshold measurements as oracles. In Giancarlo Mauri, Alberto Dennunzio, Luca Manzoni, and Antonio E. Porreca, editors, *Unconventional Computation and Natural Computation (UCNC 2013)*, volume 7956 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 6–18. Springer, 2013.
- [4] Edwin Beggs, José Félix Costa, and John V. Tucker. Computational Models of Measurement and Hempel’s Axiomatization. In Arturo Carsetti, editor, *Causality, Meaningful Complexity and Knowledge Construction*, volume 46 of *Theory and Decision Library A*, pages 155–184. Springer, 2010.
- [5] Edwin Beggs, José Félix Costa, and John V. Tucker. Limits to measurement in experiments governed by algorithms. *Mathematical Structures in Computer Science*, 20(06):1019–1050, 2010. Special issue on Quantum Algorithms, Editor Salvador Elías Venegas-Andraca.
- [6] Edwin Beggs, José Félix Costa, and John V. Tucker. Physical oracles: The Turing machine and the Wheatstone bridge. *Studia Logica*, 95(1–2):279–300, 2010. Special issue on Contributions of Logic to the Foundations of Physics, Editors D. Aerts, S. Smets & J. P. Van Bendegem.
- [7] Edwin Beggs, José Félix Costa, and John V. Tucker. The Turing machine and the uncertainty in the measurement process. In Hélia Guerra, editor, *Physics and Computation, P&C 2010*, pages 62–72. CMATI – Centre for Applied Mathematics and Information Technology, University of Azores, 2010.
- [8] Edwin Beggs, José Félix Costa, and John V. Tucker. Axiomatising physical experiments as oracles to algorithms. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, Series A (Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences)*, 370(12):3359–3384, 2012.
- [9] Edwin Beggs, José Félix Costa, and John V. Tucker. The impact of models of a physical oracle on computational power. *Mathematical Structures in Computer Science*, 22(5):853–879, 2012. Special issue on Computability of the Physical, Editors Cristian S. Calude and S. Barry Cooper.
- [10] Edwin Beggs, José Félix Costa, and John V. Tucker. Three forms of physical measurement and their computability, 2013. Submitted.

- [11] George A. Bekey and Walter J. Karplus. *Hybrid Computation*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968.
- [12] Max Born and Emil Wolf. *Principles of Optics. Electromagnetic Theory of Propagation, Interference and Diffraction of Light*. Pergamon Press, second (revised) edition, 1964.
- [13] Olivier Bournez and Michel Cosnard. On the computational power of dynamical systems and hybrid systems. *Theoretical Computer Science*, 168(2):417–459, 1996.
- [14] Rudolf Carnap. *Philosophical Foundations of Physics*. Basic Books, 1966.
- [15] Robert Geroch and James B. Hartle. Computability and physical theories. *Foundations of Physics*, 16(6):533–550, 1986.
- [16] Carl G. Hempel. Fundamentals of concept formation in empirical science. *International Encyclopedia of Unified Science*, 2(7), 1952.
- [17] Sanjay Jain, Daniel N. Osherson, James S. Royer, and Arun Sharma. *Systems That Learn. An Introduction to Learning Theory*. The MIT Press, second edition, 1999.
- [18] David H. Krantz, Patrick Suppes, R. Duncan Luce, and Amos Tversky. *Foundations of Measurement*. Dover, 2009.
- [19] Hava T. Siegelmann. *Neural Networks and Analog Computation: Beyond the Turing Limit*. Birkhäuser, 1999.
- [20] Hava T. Siegelmann and Eduardo D. Sontag. Analog computation via neural networks. *Theoretical Computer Science*, 131(2):331–360, 1994.
- [21] Damien Woods and Thomas J. Naughton. An optical model of computation. *Theoretical Computer Science*, 334(1-3):227–258, 2005.