Higher randomness and forcing with closed sets

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- Abstract

Kechris showed in [8] that there exists a largest Π_1^1 set of measure 0. An explicit construction of this largest Π_1^1 nullset has later been given in [6]. Due to its universal nature, it was conjectured by many that this nullset has a high Borel rank (the question is explicitly mentioned in [3] and [16]). In this paper, we refute this conjecture and show that this nullset is merely Σ_3^0 . Together with a result of Liang Yu, our result also implies that the exact Borel complexity of this set is Σ_3^0 .

To do this proof, we develop the machinery of effective randomness and effective Solovay genericity, investigating the connections between those notions and effective domination properties.

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1 Introduction

We will study in this paper the notion of forcing with closed sets of positive measure and several variants of it. This forcing is generally attributed to Solovay, who used it in [15] to produce a model of ZF + DC in which all sets of reals are Lebesgue measurable. Stronger and stronger genericity for this forcing coincides with stronger and stronger notions of randomness. It is actually possible to express most of the randomness definitions that have been made over the years by forcing over closed sets of positive measure.

In the first section we give a brief overview of the part of algorithmic randomness that we need in the paper. In the second section we make a modification to the usual definition of effective Solovay genericity directly inspired by a notion introduced by Jockusch in [7] about effective genericity for Cohen forcing. This new definition will reveal itself to be interesting for its connections with effective domination properties. In the third section we will give a quick description of what we need of higher computability theory and higher randomness to approach the last section. Finally in the last section we give higher analogues of the Solovay genericity notions studied in section two, and we show again their connections with randomness and higher effective domination properties. This will allow us to conclude with the Borel complexity of the largest Π_1^1 nullset.

2 General Background

In this paper, we will work in the space of infinite sequences of 0's and 1's, called the Cantor space, denoted by 2^{ω} . We will call **strings** finite sequences of 0's and 1's, **sequences** elements of the Cantor space and **sets** the sets of sequences. For a string σ , we will denote the set of sequences extending σ by $[\sigma]$.

The set of integers W_e will denote the domain of the computable function Φ_e , and $[W_e]$ will denote $\bigcup_{\sigma \in W_e} [\sigma]$, where W_e is seen as a set of strings. We will denote by \langle , \rangle a fixed

computable pairing function from $\omega \times \omega$ to ω .

We will consider computable functionals (computable functions using sequences as oracles) as functions from the Cantor space to the Baire space. Then a computable functional Φ is considered define on $X \in 2^{\omega}$ if $\forall n \Phi^X(n) \downarrow$ and we denote by dom Φ the set $\{X \mid \forall n \Phi^X(n) \downarrow\}$. We say that a function f is computable relative to X or X-computable if there is a computable functional defined on X such that $\Phi^X = f$.

The topology on Cantor space is generated by the basic intervals $[\sigma] = \{X \in 2^{\omega} \mid X \succ \sigma\}$ for σ a string. For $A \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ Lebesgue-measurable, $\lambda(A)$ will denote the Lebesgue measure of A, which is the unique Borel measure such that $\lambda([\sigma]) = 2^{-|\sigma|}$ for all strings σ .

2.1 About the arithmetical complexity of sets

In the Cantor space, open sets can be described as countable unions of strings. We call an open set **effective** if it can be described as the union of a computably enumerable set of strings, i.e. if it is equal to $[W_e]$ for some e. Such a set is said to be Σ^0_1 . On the other hand, when it is open but not necessarily effectively open, the set is said to be Σ^0_1 . However, a non-effective open set is always effective relatively to some oracle. If X is such an oracle, we say that the set is $\Sigma^0_1(X)$. A closed set is called effective if its complement is an effective open set, in which case we say that the closed set is a Π^0_1 set. We can then continue to describe the effective Borel sets through the arithmetical hierarchy as effective unions of effective Borel set of lower complexity and as their complements. So a Σ^0_{n+1} set will be an effective union of Π^0_n sets, and a Π^0_{n+1} set will be the complement of a Σ^0_{n+1} set. For example, a set A is Σ^0_4 if we have an integer e such that $A = \bigcup_{m_1 \in W_e} \bigcup_{m_2 \in W_{m_1}} [W_{m_3}]^c$.

We have a canonical surjection from integers to Σ_1^0 sets (The one which associates to e the computably enumerable set $[W_e]$), but also from integers to Σ_n^0 sets for a fixed n. In the above example, with n=4 the integer e is associated to the Σ_4^0 set A. In this context e will be called an **index** for the set A.

Also for a computably enumerable set of integers W, we denote by W[t] the enumeration of W up to stage t. We extend this definition to effective open sets: if O = [W], then O[t] = [W[t]]. Similarly, if $F = O^c$, $F[t] = O[t]^c$.

2.2 About algorithmic randomness

In 1966, Martin-Löf gave in [10] a definition capturing elements of the Cantor space that can be considered 'random'. Many nice properties of the Martin-Löf random sequences make this notion of randomness one of the most interesting and one of the most studied.

Intuitively a random sequence should not have any atypical property. A property is here considered atypical if the set of sequences having it is of measure 0. It also makes sense to consider only properties which can be described in some effective way (because any X has the property of being in the set $\{X\}$ and thus nothing would be random).

▶ **Definition 1.** An intersection of measurable sets $\bigcap_n A_n$ is said to be **effectively of measure** 0 if the function which to n associates the measure of A_n is bounded by a decreasing computable function whose limit is 0. A **Martin-Löf** test is a Π_2^0 set $\bigcap_n O_n$ effectively of measure 0. We say that $X \in 2^\omega$ is **Martin-Löf random** if it is in no Martin-Löf test.

One can iterate this idea by considering Π_n^0 sets effectively of measure 0 for any $n \geq 2$. Martin-Löf randomness is also called **1-randomness**, the use of Π_3^0 sets effectively of

measure 0 gives us **2-randomness**, Π_4^0 sets give us **3-randomness**, and so on. The requirement for a Martin-Löf test to be effectively of measure 0 is important and leads to very nice properties. In particular there exists a universal Martin-Löf test, i.e. a test containing all the others (see [10]). This is not the case anymore if we drop the 'effectively of measure 0' condition. Instead we get a notion known as weak-2-randomness.

▶ **Definition 2.** We say that $X \in 2^{\omega}$ is **weakly-2-random** if it is in no Π_2^0 nullset.

As a randomness notion, weak-2-randomness is a strictly stronger than 1-randomness, but is strictly weaker than 2-randomness (see [13] section 3.6).

3 Solovay genericity and its variants

Cohen introduced in [4] the general technique of forcing by forcing with all dense open sets of the Cantor space (with the usual topology) in a countable model of ZFC. The most basic effective version of this would be to say that X is generic if it belongs to all dense Σ_1^0 sets, a notion introduced by Kurtz in [9]. Jockusch introduced and studied in [7] a slightly different notion.

 \triangleright **Definition 3** (Kurtz, Jockusch). We say that X is weakly-1-generic if it belongs to all dense Σ_1^0 sets. We say that X is 1-generic if for any Σ_1^0 set U, either X belongs to U or X belongs to some other Σ_1^0 set U' disjoint from U.

We will apply Jockusch's idea behind 1-genericity to forcing with Π_1^0 sets. First note that by definition, the weakly-2-randoms are exactly the sequences which are in all Σ_2^0 sets of measure 1. If we consider the topology generated by Π_1^0 sets of positive measure, because Σ_2^0 sets of measure 1 are then dense open sets for this topology, we also get in some sense a genericity notion.

Forcing with Π_1^0 sets 3.1

Adding a measure requirement to the definition of genericity will always link us to randomness. We study what happens if we drop the measure requirement and if we consider instead the Σ_2^0 sets which are dense for the topology generated by the Π_1^0 sets, i.e. the Σ_2^0 sets which intersect all non-empty Π_1^0 set. It is clear that the Cantor space with this topology is a Baire space, i.e. has the property that an intersection of dense open sets is dense. This directly comes from the fact that a decreasing intersection of non-empty closed sets is non-empty. This justifies the following definition:

▶ **Definition 4.** Let $\{G_i\}_{i\in\omega}$ be the collection of all Σ_2^0 sets which intersect all the Π_1^0 sets. We say that X is **weakly-** Π_1^0 **-generic** if it belongs to $\bigcap_i G_i$.

As the next proposition shows, weak- Π_1^0 -genericity has nothing to do with randomness.

▶ Proposition 5. No weakly- Π_1^0 -generic sequence is 2-random.

Proof. We construct uniformly in n a Σ_2^0 set intersecting all Π_1^0 sets and with measure smaller than 2^{-n} . Let $\{F_e\}_{e\in\omega}$ be an enumeration of the Π_1^0 sets. For each e we initialize σ_e to the first string (using lexicographic order) of length n+e+1. Our Σ_2^0 set will consist of a computably enumerable set A of indices of Π_1^0 sets. We now describe the algorithm to enumerate elements of A: At stage t, for each substage e < t in increasing order, if the index of $F_e \cap [\sigma_e]$ has not been enumerated yet into A, then enumerate it. After that,

if $(F_e \cap [\sigma_e])[t] = \emptyset$ then reset σ_e to be the string of length n + e + 1 following σ_e in the lexicographic order. If σ_e is already the last such string, leave it unchanged.

Let us prove that the measure of the Σ_2^0 set represented by A is smaller than 2^{-n} . For each e, if $F_e \cap [\sigma_e] = \emptyset$ then by compactness $(F_e \cap [\sigma_e])[t] = \emptyset$ for some t. Thus at most one string σ_e of length n + e + 1 such that $F_e \cap [\sigma_e] \neq \emptyset$ has been enumerated into A, and the measure of A is bounded by $\sum_e 2^{-n-e-1} \leq 2^{-n}$. Now our Σ_2^0 set is dense because if F_e is not empty then there exists a string σ_e of length n + e + 1 such that $F_e \cap [\sigma_e]$ is not empty and then A will intersect F_e .

From this we can then construct a Π_3^0 set effectively of measure 0 and containing all the weakly- Π_1^0 -generic sequences.

Following Jockusch's 1-genericity idea we now define Π_1^0 -genericity:

▶ **Definition 6.** A sequence X is Π_1^0 -generic if for all Σ_2^0 sets G, either X is in G or there is a Π_1^0 set F disjoint from G such that X is in F.

We now establish a simple but surprising connection with computability theory, which appears to be previously unknown. We say that a sequence X is **computably dominated** if for every total function $f: \omega \to \omega$, computable relative to X, there exists a total computable function g such that g dominates f (i.e. $\forall n \ f(n) \leq g(n)$).

▶ Proposition 7. A set X is Π_1^0 -generic iff it is computably dominated.

Proof. Suppose X is computably dominated and take any Σ_2^0 set $\bigcup_n F_n$. Suppose that X belongs to its complement, a Π_2^0 set $\bigcap_n O_n$. Let us define the X-computable function $f:\omega\to\omega$ which to n associates the smallest t so that $X\in O_n[t]$. As X is computably dominated, there is a computable function g which dominates f. Then $X\in\bigcap_n O_n[g(n)]$, an effectively closed set disjoint from $\bigcup_n F_n$.

Conversely suppose that X is Π_1^0 -generic and consider a functional Φ , defined on X. We have that dom $\Phi = \{X \mid \forall n \ \Phi^X(n) \downarrow \}$ is a Π_2^0 set containing X. But then as X is Π_1^0 -generic, it is contained in a Π_1^0 set F contained in the domain of Φ . Let us now build a computable function f such that $\forall X \in F \ \Phi^X < f$. To compute the value of f(n) we find the smallest pair $\langle m, t \rangle$ such that for all strings σ of size m with $[\sigma] \subseteq F[t]$, the functional Φ halts on n in less than t steps with σ as an oracle (considering that if Φ needs to use bits of the oracle at positions bigger than $|\sigma|$, it does not halt). Then we set f(n) to the sum of all those values plus one. All we need to show is that f is total. Fix n and let us prove there is a m so that for all $X \in F$ we have $\Phi^{X \upharpoonright_m}(n) \downarrow$. Suppose not, then for all m there is $X \in F$ with $\Phi^{\sigma_m}(n) \uparrow$ where $\sigma_m = X \upharpoonright_m$. As $\{\sigma_m\}_{m \in \omega}$ is infinite it has at least one limit sequence Y and as F is closed we have $Y \in F$. Also as $\Phi^{Y \upharpoonright_m}(n) \uparrow$ for all m we have that Φ is not defined on Y which contradicts the hypothesis. Thus for some t we have that F[t] is covered by a finite union $\bigcup_{i \leq k} [\sigma_i]$ such that $\Phi^{\sigma_i}(n) \downarrow$. It follows that for some t and some m we have that $\Phi^{\sigma}(n)$ halts in less than t steps for all strings σ of size m such that $[\sigma] \subseteq F[t]$.

A direct computation shows that the set of computably dominated sequences is Π_4^0 . The above proposition lowers down the Borel complexity to Π_3^0 : if for every set A we denote by A° the interior of A for the topology generated by Π_1^0 sets, i.e. the union of all Π_1^0 sets included in A, then the set of computably dominated sequences is the intersection over all

One can also directly deduce the existence of such a function f using the fact that the supremum of a computable function, over an effectively compact set, is right-ce.

the Π_2^0 sets P, of $P^{\circ} \cup P^c$. We now give a lower bound on the Borel complexity of the computably dominated sequences, however we do not know if it can be Σ_2^0 .

▶ **Proposition 8.** The set of computably dominated sequences is neither Σ_2^0 nor Π_2^0 .

Proof. Let us show that it is not Π_2^0 . First note that for any Π_2^0 set A, if A is dense (for the usual topology) in some $[\sigma]$ then it contains a weakly-1-generic sequence as defined by Kurtz. Indeed, the intersection of $A \cap [\sigma]$ with all dense Σ_1^0 sets will not be empty and will then contain weakly-1-generic sequences. But by a result of computability theory (see [9]), no weakly-1-generic is computably dominated. Thus a Π_2^0 set containing only computably dominated sequences is nowhere dense. But as the set of computably dominated sequences is dense, being closed under finite change of prefixes, such a Π_2^0 set cannot contain all of them.

To show that it is not Σ_2^0 , we adapt a technique that Liang Yu exposed in [16]. Suppose that the set of computably dominated sequences is described as $\bigcup_n F_n$ with each F_n closed. For each n let $B_n = \bigcup \{T \mid T \cap F_n = \emptyset \text{ and } T \text{ is a } \Pi_1^0 \text{ set with no computable member}\}$. Let us prove that the set B_n intersects any non-empty Π_1^0 set with no computable members. Take any non-empty Π_1^0 set G with no computable members. By a classical result of computability theory (see [13] proposition 1.5.12 combined with fact 1.8.36) G contains a non-computably dominated sequence. Thus G contains a sequence X which is not in F_n . Then as F_n is closed there is a string G such that $G \cap [G]$ but $G \cap [G] \cap F_n = \emptyset$. Thus $G \cap [G]$ is a non-empty Π_1^0 set with no computable sequence, intersecting G and disjoint from G consequently we have $G \cap G \neq \emptyset$ and then each $G \cap G \cap G$ is also dense for this topology. From Proposition 7 the set of computably dominated sequences is also dense for this topology. Then there is a computably dominated sequence in $G \cap G \cap G$. But we also have by design of the $G \cap G \cap G$ is a computably dominated sequence in $G \cap G$ is also dense for this topology. Then there is a computably dominated sequence in $G \cap G$ is also dense for this topology.

3.2 Forcing with Π_1^0 sets of positive measure

We now introduce a notion of genericity which is a measure-theoretic variation of Π_1^0 -genericity defined in the previous section. The notion will be interesting for its counterpart in Higher computability. Let us now come back to the topology generated by Π_1^0 sets of positive measure. To obtain weak-2-randomness we consider only Σ_2^0 sets of measure 1. We now consider all Σ_2^0 sets which intersect with positive measure every Π_1^0 set of positive measure.

- ▶ **Definition 9.** Let $\{G_i\}_{i\in\omega}$ be the collection of all Σ_2^0 sets A such that for any Π_1^0 set F of positive measure we have $\lambda(A\cap F)>0$. Then we say that X is **weakly-** Π_1^0 **-Solovay-generic** if it belongs to $\bigcap_i G_i$.
- ▶ **Definition 10.** We say that X is Π_1^0 -Solovay-generic if for any Σ_2^0 set A, either X is in it or there exists a Π_1^0 set F of positive measure and disjoint from A such that X is in it.
- ▶ Proposition 11. A set X is Π_1^0 -Solovay-generic iff it is weakly-2-random and computably dominated.

Proof. Suppose that X is weakly-2-random and computably dominated. Take any Σ_2^0 set and suppose that X does not belong to it. By Proposition 7, as X is computably dominated, we have that X belongs to some Π_1^0 set disjoint from the Σ_2^0 set. Also as X is weakly-2-random this Π_1^0 set has positive measure.

Conversely, suppose that X is Π_1^0 -Solovay-generic. In particular it is weakly-2-random and Π_1^0 -generic. Then by Proposition 7 we have that it is computably dominated.

3.3 A separation for weak and non weak-genericity

We will now prove that weak-genericity is not enough to obtain computable domination. For this we shall adapt a proof of a theorem in [1] saying that for any function f, there is a weakly-2-random X and an X-computable function g not dominated by f. Here we want weak- Π_1^0 -Solovay-genericity instead of weak-2-randomness.

▶ Proposition 12. For any function $f: \omega \to \omega$ there is an X weakly- Π_1^0 -Solovay-generic computing a function $g: \omega \to \omega$ which is above f infinitely often.

The reader can see [12] for a proof of proposition 12, that we skip here, due to its length. Using Proposition 12, we have some weakly- Π_1^0 -Solovay-generics which are not computably dominated and so not Π_1^0 -Solovay-generic. One can prove that weakly- Π_1^0 -Solovay-genericity implies weakly- Π_1^0 -genericity by showing that any Σ_2^0 set intersecting all the Π_1^0 sets also intersects with positive measure all Π_1^0 sets of positive measure. Take any Σ_2^0 set intersecting all the Π_1^0 sets. Take now a set F of positive measure and consider the Σ_2^0 set $\bigcup_n F_n$ of Martin-Löf randoms (the complement of the universal Martin-Löf test). As it has measure 1, there is some F_n such that $F \cap F_n$ has positive measure. But by hypothesis our Σ_2^0 set intersects $F \cap F_n$. The intersection contains only Martin-Löf random sequences and thus is necessarily of positive measure. Thus there is also some weakly- Pi_1^0 -generics which are not Π_1^0 -generics.

4 Background on higher computability and higher randomness

We now give a few definitions of higher computability and higher randomness. The Turing reductions are replaced by hyperarithmetical reductions. One intuitive way to understand a hyperarithmetical computation is to think of a standard Turing computation, but with an infinite-time Turing machine. For those machines the computational time is not an integer anymore, but an ordinal. Tapes are infinite and pre-filled with 0's, at a successor stage everything happens as in a regular Turing machine. At a limit stage, the machine changes to a special 'limit' state, the head comes back to the first cell of the first tape and if the value of a cell of a tape does not converge, it is reset to 0 (otherwise it is set to the limit of its previous values). The rest works as usual.

For example, we can build the ordinal time Turing machine which on a tape, at finite computation time $t = \langle s, e \rangle$ write 1 on the cell number e of this tape if the program number e halts in less than s steps. At ordinal time ω we then have the halting problem on this tape. Then stages $\omega + n$ can be used to compute what one could compute with the halting problem. This can be iterated to compute anything that could be computed in a finite jump. But we can even go beyond a finite jump and continue through the ordinal jumps. To formalize this properly we need to fix the notion of notation for computable ordinals.

4.1 Computable ordinals

More details about this section can be found in [14]. An ordinal is defined as the order type of a well-ordered set. When the ordinal is infinite and countable it can be the order-type of a well-ordered set with domain ω . We say that a countable ordinal α is computable if we have a relation $R \subseteq \omega \times \omega$ which is a well-founded linear order of a subset of ω of order-type α and if there is some e such that $(n,m) \in R \leftrightarrow \langle n,m \rangle \in W_e$. In this case we say that e codes for α and we write $|e| = \alpha$. Let us denote by \mathcal{W} the set of integers which code for

computable ordinals and let us denote by W_{α} the set of integers which code for computable ordinals strictly smaller than α .

As there are uncountably many countable ordinals, not all of them are computable. Moreover it is known that they form a strict initial segment of the countable ordinals. We denote by ω_1^{ck} the smallest non-computable ordinal. This notion can then be relativised. We say that e is an X-code for the ordinal α if we have a relation $R \subseteq \omega \times \omega$ which is a well-founded linear order of a subset of ω of order-type α and if $(n,m) \in R \leftrightarrow \langle n,m \rangle \in W_e^X$. We then write $|e|^X = \alpha$. We denote by \mathcal{W}^X the set of X-codes for X-computable ordinals, and we denote by \mathcal{W}^X_{α} the set of X-codes for X-computable ordinals strictly smaller than α . Finally, we call ω_1^X the smallest ordinal which is non-computable relatively to X. Note that any countable ordinal is computable with a representation of itself as an oracle.

4.2 Second order definable sets

We say that a sequence X is hyperarithmetic if for some computable function f and some computable ordinal α we have $n \in X \leftrightarrow f(n) \in \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}$. One can define the hyperarithmetic sequences equivalently as the sequences we can Turing-compute with sufficiently many successive effective joins and iterations of the jump, constructed by induction over the computable ordinals. Also coming back to the analogy with infinite-time Turing machines we have in [5] a theorem saying that a sequence X is hyperarithmetic iff it can be computed by an infinite-time Turing-machine in a computable ordinal length of time. Similarly we define what is hyperarithmetic for sets. We say that $A \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is hyperarithmetic if there exists e and α computable such that $X \in A \leftrightarrow e \in \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}^{X}$.

We now define Π_1^1 sequences. While hyperarithmetic sequences can be considered to be the higher counterpart of computable sequences, Π_1^1 sequences can be considered to be the higher counterpart of computably enumerable sequences. They are the sequences one can define with a formula of arithmetic containing arbitrary many first order quantifications and only universal second order quantifications (with no negations in front of them). We have another equivalent definition. A sequence X is Π_1^1 if for some computable function f we have $n \in X \leftrightarrow \exists \alpha < \omega_1^{ck} \ f(n) \in \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}$. Coming back to the analogy with infinite-time Turing machines, the Π_1^1 sequences also correspond to the sets of integers one can enumerate along computable ordinal length of time with such a machine (when we interpret sequences as sets of integers, considering that n in the set iff the n-th bit of the sequence is one). The Σ_1^1 sequences are their complements (again, when we see sequences as sets of integers), the higher equivalent of co-recursively enumerable sequences. Finally a set A is Π_1^1 if we have an integer e so that $X \in A \leftrightarrow \exists \alpha < \omega_1 \ e \in \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}^X$. We also have a canonical surjection from integers to Π_1^1 sets, so like the arithmetical sets, they can be indexed (in the above example, e is an index for the Π_1^1 set A).

A set is called Δ_1^1 if it is both Σ_1^1 and Π_1^1 . By a theorem of Kleene (see chapter 2 in [14]) they are exactly the hyperarithmetical sets. An index for a Δ_1^1 set will consist of a pair of two indices. One expressing it as a Π_1^1 predicate and one expressing its complement as a Π_1^1 predicate.

Note that for Π_1^1 sets, the existential quantification over the ordinals goes up to ω_1 . Indeed, if $\omega_1^X > \omega_1^{ck}$ it is possible that $X \in A$ is witnessed by some X-code e for $\alpha \ge \omega_1^{ck}$. This leads us to a Π_1^1 set of great importance for this paper, the set $\{X \mid \omega_1^X > \omega_1^{ck}\}$ (the proof that this set if Π_1^1 can be found in section 9.1 of [13]). We now state two theorems that will be useful for the rest of the paper.

▶ Theorem 13 (Sacks [14]). Uniformly in ε and an index for a Δ_1^1 set A, one can compute an index for a Σ_1^1 closed set F so that $F \subseteq A$ and $\lambda(A - F) \le \varepsilon$. Also one can uniformly from an index of a Δ_1^1 set obtain an index for the Δ_1^1 real being the measure of this set.

▶ Theorem 14 (Spector [14]). If $f: \omega \to \mathcal{W}^X$ is a total $\Pi^1_1(X)$ functional predicate then $\sup_n |f(n)| < \omega_1^X$.

4.3 Higher randomness

We now introduce notions of randomness which are higher effective variations of the usual randomness notions.

▶ **Definition 15** (Sacks). We say that $X \in 2^{\omega}$ is Δ_1^1 -random if it is in no Δ_1^1 nullset.

Martin-Löf was actually the first to promote this notion (see [11]), suggesting that it was the appropriate mathematical concept of randomness. Even if his first definition undoubtedly became the most successful over the years, this other definition got a second wind recently on the initiative of Hjorth and Nies who started to study the analogy between the usual notions of randomness and their higher counterparts. In order to do so they created in [6] a higher analogue of Martin-Löf randomness.

▶ **Definition 16** (Hjorth, Nies). A Π_1^1 -Martin-Löf test is given by an effectively null intersection of open sets $\bigcap_n O_n$, each O_n being Π_1^1 uniformly in n. A sequence X is Π_1^1 -ML-random if it is in no Π_1^1 -Martin-Löf test.

This definition is strictly stronger than Δ_1^1 -randomness (see Corollary 9.3.5 in [13]). The higher analogue of weak-2-randomness has also been studied (see [3]).

▶ **Definition 17.** We say that X is **weakly-** Π_1^1 **-random** if it belongs to no $\bigcap_n O_n$ with each O_n open set Π_1^1 uniformly in n and with $\lambda(\bigcap_n O_n) = 0$.

Earlier, Sacks gave an even stronger definition, made possible by a theorem of Lusin saying that even though Π_1^1 sets are not necessarily Borel, they remain all measurable.

▶ **Definition 18** (Sacks). We say that $X \in 2^{\omega}$ is Π_1^1 -random if it is in no Π_1^1 nullset.

This last definition is of great importance. Kechris proved that there is a universal Π_1^1 nullset, in the sense that it contains all the others (see [8]). Later, Hjorth and Nies gave in [6] an explicit construction of this Π_1^1 nullset. Chong and Yu proved in [3] that weakly- Π_1^1 -randomness is strictly stronger than Π_1^1 -Martin-Löf-randomness, but it is still unknown whether Π_1^1 -randomness coincides with weakly- Π_1^1 -randomness.

To separate the two notions, the idea of showing they have different Borel complexity was promoted in [3]. In the next section we show that this will not be possible, by proving that the biggest Π_1^1 nullset has the surprisingly small Borel complexity of Σ_3^0 . Using results of [17] we will conclude that the Borel complexity of both the weakly-2-randoms and the Π_1^1 -randoms, is strictly Π_3^0 . We now give some important results about higher randomness, that will be needed to achieve this:

▶ Theorem 19 (Sacks). The set $\{X \mid \omega_1^X > \omega_1^{ck}\}$ has measure 0.

Thus no X such that $\omega_1^X > \omega_1^{ck}$ is Π_1^1 -random. The following beautiful theorem of Chong, Yu and Nies (see [2]) strengthens Sacks' theorem:

▶ Theorem 20 (Chong, Yu, Nies). A sequence X is Π^1_1 -random iff it is Δ^1_1 -random and $\omega^X_1 = \omega^{ck}_1$.

One could also define the randomness notion introduced by Σ_1^1 nullsets, but this turns out to be equivalent to Δ_1^1 -randomness.

▶ **Theorem 21** (Sacks). A Δ_1^1 -random sequence is in no Σ_1^1 nullset. Therefore Σ_1^1 -randomness coincides with Δ_1^1 -randomness.

5 Higher Solovay genericity and its variants

- ▶ **Definition 22.** We say that X is **weakly-** Σ_1^1 -**Solovay-generic** if it belongs to all sets of the form $\bigcup_n F_n$ which intersect with positive measure all the Σ_1^1 closed sets of positive measure, where each F_n is a Σ_1^1 closed set uniformly in n.
- ▶ **Definition 23.** We say that X is Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generic if for any set of the form $\bigcup_n F_n$ where each F_n is a Σ_1^1 closed set uniformly in n, either X is in $\bigcup_n F_n$ or X is in some Σ_1^1 closed set of positive measure F, disjoint from $\bigcup_n F_n$.

As in the lower case, one could drop the measure requirement in the definition of Σ_1^1 -Solovay-genericity and obtain interesting relations with domination properties. However we will focus in this paper only on (weakly-) Σ_1^1 -Solovay-genericity.

Unlike in the lower case, we have that the set of weakly- Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generics is of measure 1. We can actually prove easily that they coincide with the weakly- Π_1^1 -randoms. Let $\bigcup_n F_n$ be a uniform union of Σ_1^1 closed sets with measure strictly smaller than 1. Let $\bigcap_n O_n$ be its complement. As it is a Π_1^1 set, we have e such that $X \in \bigcap_n O_n \leftrightarrow \exists \alpha < \omega_1 \ e \in \mathcal{W}_\alpha^X$. But by Theorem 19 we have that $\{X \mid \exists \alpha \geq \omega_1^{ck} \ e \in \mathcal{W}_\alpha^X\} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$ is of measure 0. Thus for some computable α we have that $\{X \mid e \in \mathcal{W}_\alpha^X\}$ has positive measure. As it is a Δ_1^1 set, we can find using Theorem 13 a Σ_1^1 closed set of positive measure contained in it. Thus $\bigcup_n F_n$ does not intersect all Σ_1^1 closed sets of positive measure. Conversely a uniform union of Σ_1^1 closed sets of measure 1 intersects with positive measure any Σ_1^1 closed set of positive measure. Then the weakly- Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generics are exactly the weakly- Π_1^1 -randoms.

We will now prove that the notion of Σ_1^1 -Solovay-genericity is exactly the notion of Π_1^1 -randomness. As explained at the end of the section (after Theorem 26), one can also consider this equivalence as the higher counterpart of Proposition 11.

We already know from Theorem 20 that if X is weakly- Π_1^1 -random but not Π_1^1 -random, then $\omega_1^X > \omega_1^{ck}$. We will show that if X is Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generic then $\omega_1^X = \omega_1^{ck}$ which will prove the difficult part of the equivalence.

In order to prove this, we use a technique developed by Sacks and simplified by Greenberg, to show that the set of X with $\omega_1^X > \omega_1^{ck}$ has measure 0. First note that if $\omega_1^X > \omega_1^{ck}$ then there is $o \in \mathcal{W}^X$ such that $|o|^X = \omega_1^{ck}$. In particular for each n we can uniformly restrain the relation coded by o to all elements smaller than n. If $|o|^X$ is a limit ordinal this gives a set of X-codes for ordinals smaller than $|o|^X$ but cofinal (i.e. unbounded) in $|o|^X$. Thus if $\omega_1^X > \omega_1^{ck}$, there is a function $f: \omega \to \mathcal{W}^X$ computable in X such that $\sup_n |f(n)|^X = \omega_1^{ck}$. The idea is the following. Suppose that for some X we have a computable function Φ_e such that:

$$\forall n \ \exists \alpha < \omega_1^{ck} \ \Phi_e^X(n) \in \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}^X$$

Suppose also that X is Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generic. Then we will show that the supremum of $|\Phi_e^X(n)|$ over $n \in \omega$ is strictly smaller than ω_1^{ck} . To show this we need an approximation lemma, which can be seen as an extension of Theorem 13.

▶ Lemma 24. For a Σ_1^1 predicate $S(X) \leftrightarrow \forall \alpha < \omega_1^{ck} \ e \notin \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}^X$, uniformly in e and n one can find a Σ_1^1 closed set $F \subseteq S$ with $\lambda(S - F) \leq 2^{-n}$.

Proof. One can equivalently write $S(X) \leftrightarrow \forall o \in \mathcal{W} \ e \notin \mathcal{W}^X_{|o|}$. Let S_o be the predicate $e \notin \mathcal{W}^X_{|o|}$. If $o \in \mathcal{W}$ one can uniformly in o and e obtain an index for the Δ^1_1 predicate S_o . The Π^1_1 index for it corresponds to the property: "There exists no bijection from |e| to a strict initial segment of $|o|^X$ ", and a Π^1_1 index for its complement is: "There exists no infinite backward sequence in |e|, and there exists no bijection from $|o|^X$ to an initial segment of |e|." Note that if $o \notin \mathcal{W}$, the index is still well defined but does not correspond to anything specific.

Then uniformly in an index for S_o and in n we can find using Theorem 13 a Σ_1^1 closed set F_o such that $F_o \subseteq S_o$ with $\lambda(S_o - F_o) \le 2^{-o}2^{-n}$. Now let us define $F(X) \leftrightarrow \forall o \in \mathcal{W} \ X \in F_o$. As an intersection of closed sets, the set F is closed. And as \mathcal{W} is Π_1^1 and F_o is Σ_1^1 uniformly in o, we have that F is Σ_1^1 . To conclude we also we have that:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \lambda(S-F) & = & \lambda(\bigcup_{o \in \mathcal{W}} S - F_o) \\ & \leq & \lambda(\bigcup_{o \in \mathcal{W}} S_o - F_o) \\ & \leq & \sum_{o \in \mathcal{W}} \lambda(S_o - F_o) \leq 2^{-n}. \end{array}$$

We can now prove the desired theorem:

▶ Theorem 25. If Y is Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generic then $\omega_1^Y = \omega_1^{ck}$.

Proof. Suppose that Y is Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generic. For any functionnal Φ , consider the set

$$P = \{ X \mid \forall n \ \exists \alpha < \omega_1^{ck} \ \Phi^X(n) \in \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}^X \}.$$

Let $P_n = \{X \mid \exists \alpha < \omega_1^{ck} \ \Phi^X(n) \in \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}^X\}$ and $P_{n,\alpha} = \{X \mid \Phi^X(n) \in \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}^X\}$, so $P = \bigcap_n P_n$ and $P_n = \bigcup_{\alpha < \omega_n^{ck}} P_{n,\alpha}$.

From Lemma 24 we can find uniformly in n a uniform union of Σ_1^1 closed sets included in P_n^c with the same measure as P_n^c . From this we can find a uniform union of Σ_1^1 closed sets included in P^c with the same measure as P^c . Suppose that Y is in P, as it is Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generic we have a Σ_1^1 closed set F of positive measure containing Y which is disjoint from P^c up to a set of measure 0, formally $\lambda(F \cap P^c) = 0$. In particular for each n we have $\lambda(F \cap P_n^c) = 0$ and then $\lambda(F^c \cup P_n) = 1$. Then let f be the total function which to each pair $\langle n, m \rangle$ associates the smallest code $o_{n,m} \in \mathcal{W}$ such that:

$$\lambda(F_{|o_{n,m}|}^c \cup P_{n,|o_{n,m}|}) > 1 - 2^{-m}$$

where F_{α}^{c} is the Δ_{1}^{1} set of strings which are witnessed to be in F^{c} via an ordinal smaller than α . Using second part of Theorem 13 one can prove that f is Π_{1}^{1} . Let $\alpha^{*} = \sup_{n,m} |f(n,m)|$. By Theorem 14 we have that $\alpha^{*} < \omega_{1}^{ck}$. Then we have:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} & \forall n \ \lambda(F^c_{\alpha^*} \cup \bigcup_{\alpha < \alpha^*} P_{\alpha,n}) & = & 1 \\ \rightarrow & \forall n \ \lambda(F_{\alpha^*} \cap \bigcap_{\alpha < \alpha^*} P^c_{\alpha,n}) & = & 0 \\ \rightarrow & \forall n \ \lambda(F - \bigcup_{\alpha < \alpha^*} P_{\alpha,n}) & = & 0 \\ \rightarrow & \lambda(F - \bigcap_n \bigcup_{\alpha < \alpha^*} P_{\alpha,n}) & = & 0 \end{array}$$

As X is Σ^1_1 -Solovay-generic it is in particular weakly- Σ^1_1 -Solovay-generic and then weakly- Π^1_1 -random. Thus by Theorem 21 it belongs to no Σ^1_1 set of measure 0. Then as $F - \bigcap_n \bigcup_{\alpha < \alpha^*} P_{\alpha,n}$ is a Σ^1_1 set of measure 0 we have that X belongs to $\bigcap_n \bigcup_{\alpha < \alpha^*} P_{\alpha,n}$ and then $\sup_n \Phi^X(n) \leq \alpha^* < \omega^{ck}_1$.

We can now prove the equivalence:

▶ **Theorem 26.** The set of Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generics is exactly the set of Π_1^1 -randoms.

Proof. Using Theorem 20 we have that the Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generics are included in the Π_1^1 -randoms. We just have to prove the reverse inclusion.

Suppose Y is not Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generic. If $\omega_1^Y > \omega_1^{ck}$ then Y is not Π_1^1 -random. Otherwise $\omega_1^Y = \omega_1^{ck}$ and in this case there is a sequence of Σ_1^1 closed sets $\bigcup_n F_n$ of positive measure such that X is not in $\bigcup_n F_n$ and such that any Σ_1^1 closed set of positive measure which is disjoint from $\bigcup_n F_n$ does not contain Y. The complement of $\bigcup_n F_n$ is a Π_1^1 set P containing Y. Let e be so that $P(X) \leftrightarrow \exists \alpha < \omega_1 \ e \in \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}^X$. As $\omega_1^Y = \omega_1^{ck}$ and P(Y), we have that $\exists \alpha < \omega_1^{ck} \ e \in \mathcal{W}_{\alpha}^Y$. But then Y is in a Δ_1^1 set that one can approximate using Theorem 13 by an effective union of Σ_1^1 closed sets of the same measure. Thus as X can be in none of them it is in a Π_1^1 set of measure 0 and then not Π_1^1 -random.

The previous theorem gives an interesting corollary, making a connection with another domination property. We say that a sequence X is hyp-dominated if for every total function $f:\omega\to\omega$, Δ^1_1 relative to X, there exists a total Δ^1_1 function g such that g dominates f (i.e. $\forall n\ f(n)\leq g(n)$). Chong, Yu and Nies proved in [2] that all Π^1_1 -random sequences are hyp-dominated. It follows from that and from the previous theorem that a sequence X is Σ^1_1 -Solovay-generic iff it is weakly-2-random and hyp-dominated. This can be seen as the higher counterpart of Proposition 11.

We have a second corollary, giving a higher bound on the Borel complexity of the Π_1^1 -randoms, and then on the biggest Π_1^1 nullset.

▶ Corollary 27. The set of Π_1^1 -randoms is Π_3^0 .

The Π_3^0 set is obtained exactly the same way we obtain the Π_3^0 set of computably dominated sequences. The following result of Liang Yu (see [17]) can be used to prove that the set of Π_1^1 -randoms is not Σ_3^0 .

▶ Theorem 28 (Liang Yu). Let $\bigcap_n O_n$ be a Π_2^0 sets containing only weakly- Π_1^1 -randoms. Then the set $\{F \mid F \text{ is a } \Sigma_1^1 \text{ closed set and } \bigcap_n O_n \cap F = \emptyset\}$ intersects with positive measure any Σ_1^1 closed sets of positive measure.

It follows that the set of weakly- Π_1^1 -randoms cannot be Σ_3^0 but also that the set of Π_1^1 -randoms cannot be Σ_3^0 . Indeed, suppose that the set of Π_1^1 -randoms is equal to $\bigcup_n \bigcap_m O_{n,m}$ each $O_{n,m}$ being open. For each n let $A_n = \{F \mid F \text{ is a } \Sigma_1^1 \text{ closed set and } \bigcap_m O_{n,m} \cap F = \emptyset\}$. We have $\bigcap_n A_n \cap \bigcup_n \bigcap_m O_{n,m} = \emptyset$, and from Theorem 28 we have that $\bigcap_n A_n$ contains some Solovay- Σ_1^1 -generic elements, which contradicts that $\bigcup_n \bigcap_m O_{n,m}$ contains all of them.

The question whether it is possible for X to be weakly-Solovay- Σ_1^1 -generic but not Solovay- Σ_1^1 -generic (equivalently weakly- Π_1^1 -random but not Π_1^1 -random) is still open. The technique that we use in the lower case to separate weak genericity from non weak genericity does not seem to work here.

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