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Abstract Kechris showed in [9] 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 [7]. Due to its universal nature, it was conjectured by many that this nullset has a high Borel rank (the question is explicitly mentioned in [4] 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.

Keywords Effective descriptive set theory, Higher computability, Effective randomness, Genericity

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

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by a notion introduced by Jockusch in [8] 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 $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ 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 $\text{dom } \Phi$ 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_1^0 . On the other hand, when it is open but not necessarily effectively open, the set is said to be Σ_1^0 . 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 $\Sigma_1^0(X)$. 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_1^0 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_{n+1}^0 set will be an effective union of Π_n^0 sets, and a

Π_{n+1}^0 set will be the complement of a Σ_{n+1}^0 set. For example, a set A is Σ_4^0 if we have an integer e such that $A = \bigcup_{m_1 \in W_e} \bigcap_{m_2 \in W_{m_1}} \bigcup_{m_3 \in W_{m_2}} [W_{m_3}]^c$.

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 [11] 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 [11]). 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 [5] 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 [10]. Jockusch introduced and studied in [8] a slightly different notion.

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.

3.1 Forcing with Π_1^0 sets

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 1 *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 5 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 $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega$, 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 2 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 $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ 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 $\text{dom } \Phi = \{X \mid \forall n \Phi^X(n) \downarrow\}$ 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 build¹ 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

¹ 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.

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 the Π_2^0 sets P , of $P^\circ \cup P^c$. We will show later with Theorem 1 that this characterization is optimal: The set of computably dominated sequences is not Σ_3^0 .

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. It will also help us to show that the set of computably dominated sequence is not Σ_3^0 . Let us consider 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 would like to consider all Σ_2^0 sets which intersect with positive measure every Π_1^0 set of positive measure. In order to keep a genericity notion, we would like to avoid asking explicitly for the intersection to be of positive measure. To do so, we can consider the topology generated by Π_1^0 sets containing only Martin-Löf randoms: such sets are necessarily of positive measure, and if they intersect other Π_1^0 sets, then also the intersection must be of positive measure.

Definition 6 Let $\{G_i\}_{i \in \omega}$ be the collection of all Σ_2^0 sets A intersecting every Π_1^0 sets of Martin-Löf randoms. Then we say that X is **weakly- Π_1^0 -Solovay-generic** if it belongs to $\bigcap_i G_i$.

Definition 7 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 Martin-Löf randoms and disjoint from A such that X is in it.

Proposition 3 *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 2, 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 it is in particular Martin-Löf random and thus it must belong to a Π_1^0 set containing only Martin-Löf randoms. But the intersection of these two Π_1^0 sets must contain only Martin-Löf randoms and is disjoint from the Σ_2^0 set.

Conversely, suppose that X is Π_1^0 -Solovay-generic. It is weakly-2-random, because in particular it is in every Σ_2^0 set of measure 1. It is also by definition Π_1^0 -generic. Then by Proposition 2 we have that it is computably dominated.

We now use this notion of forcing with Π_1^0 sets of Martin-Löf randoms, in order to show that the set of computably dominated sequences is not Σ_3^0 . For this we adapt a technic that Liang Yu exposed in [16], in order to show that the Borel complexity of the weak-2-randoms is not Σ_3^0 . The proof we give is very similar and uses the same key lemma:

Lemma 1 (Yu Liang [16]) *For every Π_1^0 set P , there is a Π_2^0 set $\bigcap_n V_n$ of measure 0, such that for any string σ , if $P \cap [\sigma] \neq \emptyset$, then $P \cap [\sigma] \cap \bigcap_n V_n \neq \emptyset$.*

Theorem 1 *The set of computably dominated sequences is not Σ_3^0 .*

Proof Suppose that a Π_2^0 set $\bigcap_n U_n$ contains only computably dominated sequences. Let

$$B = \bigcup \{T \mid T \cap \bigcap_n U_n = \emptyset \text{ and } T \text{ is a } \Pi_1^0 \text{ set of Martin-Löf randoms}\}$$

Let us prove that the set B intersects any non-empty Π_1^0 set containing only Martin-Löf randoms. Take any non-empty Π_1^0 set P containing only Martin-Löf randoms. We claim that there must exist a string σ such that $[\sigma] \cap P \neq \emptyset$ but such that $[\sigma] \cap P \cap \bigcap_n U_n = \emptyset$. Suppose otherwise and consider $\bigcap_n V_n$, the Π_2^0 set of measure 0 given by Lemma 1. Note that we can suppose that both $\bigcap_n U_n$ and $\bigcap_n V_n$ are decreasing intersections. Let σ_0 be such that $[\sigma_0] \cap P \neq \emptyset$. By hypothesis on $\bigcap_n V_n$ and $\bigcap_n U_n$, there must exist an extension σ_1 of σ_0 with $[\sigma_1] \subseteq V_0$, $[\sigma_1] \subseteq U_0$ and such that $[\sigma_1] \cap P \neq \emptyset$. By iterating the same argument, we can build a sequence of strings $\sigma_0 \prec \sigma_1 \prec \sigma_2 \prec \dots$ such that $[\sigma_{i+1}] \subseteq V_i$, $[\sigma_{i+1}] \subseteq U_i$ and such that $[\sigma_{i+1}] \cap P \neq \emptyset$. It follows that the unique sequence $Y \in \bigcap_n [\sigma_n] \cap P$ also belongs to $\bigcap_n V_n$ and $\bigcap_n U_n$. As $Y \in \bigcap_n U_n$ it must be computably dominated. As $Y \in \bigcap_n V_n$ it is not weakly-2-random. But as $Y \in P$ it is Martin-Löf random. Also by a classical result of algorithmic randomness, if X is Martin-Löf random but not weakly-2-random, it is not computably dominated (see for instance Proposition 3.6.4 of [13]), which gives a contradiction. Thus for every Π_1^0 set P containing only Martin-Löf randoms, there must exist some string σ such that $[\sigma] \cap P \neq \emptyset$ but such that $[\sigma] \cap P \cap \bigcap_n U_n = \emptyset$. Consequently B is dense for the topology generated by Π_1^0 sets of Martin-Löf randoms.

Consider now any countable union of Π_2^0 sets $\bigcup_n G_n$ containing only computably dominated sequences. For each set G_n we associate a set B_n defined as above, which is dense for the topology generated by Π_1^0 sets of Martin-Löf randoms. From Proposition 3, if something is sufficiently generic for this topology, it is computably dominated (and weakly-2-random). Thus there is a computably dominated sequence in $\bigcap_n B_n$. But we also have by design of the B_n that $\bigcap_n B_n \cap \bigcup_n G_n = \emptyset$, which contradicts the fact that $\bigcup_n G_n$ contains all the computably dominated sequences.

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.

Theorem 2 *For any function $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ there is an X weakly- Π_1^0 -Solovay-generic computing a function $g : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ which is above f infinitely often.*

Proof For this proof we will use the Kucěra-Gács theorem, saying that within any Π_1^0 set of positive measure, we can computably encode any real by some sequence of this Π_1^0 set. However for both the encoding and the decoding we need to know the same lower bound on the measure of the set. We give here the exact theorem that we use to do our proof:

Theorem 3 (Kucěra-Gács) *There is a computable function Φ such that uniformly in an integer n , a rational q and an index e for a Π_1^0 set F with $\lambda(F) > q$, one can find, relatively to the halting problem, a string σ so that $[\sigma] \cap F$ is still of positive measure and so that the function Φ with σ as an oracle and applied to $\langle e, q \rangle$, outputs n .*

One can find a detailed proof of this theorem in section 3.3.2 of [13]. Let us say that a Σ_2^0 set has the (*) property if it intersects with positive measure all Π_1^0 sets of positive measure. The weakly- Π_1^0 -Solovay-generic sequence X will be defined as the limit of a sequence of strings $\sigma_0 \prec \sigma_1 \prec \sigma_2 \prec \dots$ of longer and longer length. We first give a naive version of our argument: In the first Π_1^0 component F of the first Σ_2^0 set with the (*) property, we use the Kucěra-Gács theorem to encode $f(0) + 1$ using an index e for F and a lower bound q for the measure of F . It means that as specified in Theorem 3 we find a string σ_0 so that the function Φ with σ_0 as an oracle and applied to $\langle q, e \rangle$ will output $f(0) + 1$. As $[\sigma_0] \cap F$ still has positive measure there is a Π_1^0 set enumerated in the second Σ_2^0 set with the (*) property, which intersects $[\sigma_0] \cap F$ with positive measure. We then encode in this second Π_1^0 set the value $f(1) + 1$. We can continue like this for all Σ_2^0 sets with the (*) property.

There are two obstacles here. During the decoding, we do not know what Π_1^0 sets and what lower bound on their measure have been used for the encoding. So we do not just encode in each Π_1^0 set the value $f(n) + 1$, but also the index of the next Σ_2^0 set with the (*) property. But even if we have the right Σ_2^0 set, we still do not know which of its Π_1^0 sets have been used. We fix this by doing something special in both the encoding and the decoding. Fix in advance an enumeration $\{\langle n_i, q_i \rangle\}_{i < \omega}$ where n_i is an integer and q_i a rational. During the encoding, pick the Π_1^0 set number n_i such that the pair $\langle n_i, q_i \rangle$ is the first in the enumeration with the property that q_i is a lower bound of its measure. During the decoding, we will pick Π_1^0 sets in the order given by the same enumeration. If at some point the measure goes below the corresponding rational we will know it in a finite time. Then we restart the decoding with the next Π_1^0 set in the enumeration. We know that at some point we will have the right one.

However, a last problem is that by the time we have the right Π_1^0 set, we might have decided a lot of values of the function f and maybe the one

that we have coded is already taken. The trick is to design the encoding in a way that we know in advance the time it will take to reach the right Π_1^0 set. The value of f we encode has to be chosen accordingly. We now give the details.

The encoding:

Without loss of generality we can suppose f strictly increasing. Let $\{S_i\}_{i \in \omega}$ be an enumeration of all the Σ_2^0 sets. For each S_i and each n let us define the Π_1^0 set $F_{i,n}$ so that $S_i = \bigcup_n F_{i,n}$. Now let $\{e_i\}_{i < \omega}$ be a list of indices for all the Σ_2^0 sets S_{e_i} having the $(*)$ property. Let $\{\langle n_i, q_i \rangle\}_{i < \omega}$ be an effective list of all pairs of integers and rationals.

Let us define a string $\sigma_0 = \epsilon$ (the empty string), a Π_1^0 set $T_0 = F_{e_0,0}$, and an integer representing time with $t_0 = 0$. Start by encoding $f(0) + 1$ and e_1 into $T_0 \cap [\sigma_0]$, assuming without loss of generality that it has measure bigger than some q that we will reuse in the decoding. Let σ_1 be the string encoding those values. Suppose now that for $i \leq k + 1$ the strings σ_i have been defined, and for $i \leq k$ the integers t_i and the Π_1^0 sets T_i have been defined. Let us define σ_{k+2} , t_{k+1} and T_{k+1} . Let i be the smallest integer such that $\lambda(F_{e_{k+1},n_i} \cap T_k \cap [\sigma_{k+1}]) \geq q_i$. Let t be the computational time necessary to decode the two values encoded in $T_k \cap [\sigma_k]$, which is also the computational time necessary to find σ_{k+1} during the decoding, assuming we already know X , T_k , σ_k , and the lower bound on the measure of $T_k \cap [\sigma_k]$ that has been used for the encoding. Let t' be the smallest computational time s so that for all $j < i$ we have $\lambda(F_{e_{k+1},n_j} \cap T_k \cap [\sigma_{k+1}])[s] < q_j$, and let $t_{k+1} = t_k + t + t'$. Let T_{k+1} be $F_{e_{k+1},n_i} \cap T_k$. Then we encode $f(t_{k+1} + 1) + 1$ and e_{k+2} into $T_{k+1} \cap \sigma_{k+1}$, using q_i as a lower bound. Finally let σ_{k+2} be the string encoding those values.

The decoding:

We set e_0 to be the same as the one used in the encoding, $n_0 = 0$, q_0 to be the measure used in the encoding of the first two values in $T_0 \cap [\sigma_0]$, and $T_0 = F_{e_0,n_0}$. For each $k > 0$ we initialize the Π_1^0 set $T_k = \emptyset$, the integers $e_k = 0$ and the pairs $\langle n_k, q_k \rangle$ to be the first element in the list $\{\langle n_i, q_i \rangle\}_{i < \omega}$. Then we set for each $k \geq 0$ the string $\sigma_k = \epsilon$.

At stage t for each substage $k \leq t$ in increasing order, if $T_k = \emptyset$ go to the stage $t + 1$. Otherwise check whether $\lambda(T_k \cap [\sigma_k])[t] \geq q_k$.

Case 1 : $\lambda(T_k \cap [\sigma_k])[t] \geq q_k$. Then perform the t first computation steps of the decoding with $T_k \cap [\sigma_k]$ as the Π_1^0 set and q_k as the lower bound on the measure. If in t steps or less we get two values a and b , set all the unassigned values of $g(m)$ for $m \leq t$ to be a and set e_{k+1} to be b . Also set σ_{k+1} to be the prefix used in the decoding and T_{k+1} to be $T_k \cap F_{e_{k+1},n_{k+1}}$. Then go to next substage, or next stage if it is the last substage.

Case 2 : $\lambda(T_k \cap [\sigma_k])[t] < q_k$. Then move $\langle n_k, q_k \rangle$ to the next element in the list $\{\langle n_i, q_i \rangle\}_{i < \omega}$. Set $T_k = T_{k-1} \cap F_{e_k,n_k}$. Also for all $k' > k$ reset $T_{k'}$ to be \emptyset and $\langle n_{k'}, q_{k'} \rangle$ to the first element in the list $\{\langle n_i, q_i \rangle\}_{i < \omega}$. Then restart at the

same stage t and the same substage k .

Verification:

Let the stages t_k be those that we defined during the encoding process. Let us prove that at stage t_k and substage k of the decoding process we have the right Π_1^0 set T_k , the right string σ_k and the right value q_k used for the encoding.

It is obviously true for t_0 . Suppose this is true up to k and let us show this is true for $k + 1$. Let i be the index so that $\langle n_i, q_i \rangle$ is the first pair in the enumeration with $\lambda(F_{e_{k+1}, n_i} \cap T_k \cap [\sigma_{k+1}])[t] \geq q_i$. Recall that $t_{k+1} = t_k + t + t'$, where t' is the smallest time such that for all $j < i$ we have $\lambda(F_{e_{k+1}, n_j} \cap T_k \cap [\sigma_{k+1}])[t] < q_j$ and where t is the computational time necessary to find σ_{k+1} during the decoding, assuming we already know T_k , σ_k and the lower bound on the measure of $T_k \cap [\sigma_k]$ that have been used for the encoding. By the induction hypothesis we already have those three inputs at time t_k . Then at time $t_k + t$ we know T_k , σ_{k+1} , and using σ_{k+1} , we know e_{k+1} . Obviously by the time $t_k + t + t'$ we could eliminate all the F_{e_{k+1}, n_j} for $j < i$ and then we have the right T_{k+1} .

Now let us prove that g is infinitely often bigger than f . When we just moved to the right T_k , no more values of g will be decided until the two values are decoded inside $T_k \cap [\sigma_k]$. The reason is that for all $k' > k$ the set $T_{k'}$ is reset to \emptyset in the algorithm. Then until this is done the values of g are decided at most up to t_k . And once this is done we have the right value of $f(t_k + 1) + 1$ that we will have assigned to some $g(s)$ for at least one $s \leq t_k + 1$. As f is strictly increasing we have $g(s) > f(s)$.

Using Theorem 2, 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- Π_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 \mathcal{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}_α^X 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 hyperarithmetical 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 hyperarithmetical 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 [6] a theorem saying that a sequence X is hyperarithmetical iff it can be computed by an infinite-time Turing-machine in a computable ordinal length of time. Similarly we define what is hyperarithmetical for sets. We say that $A \subseteq 2^\omega$ is hyperarithmetical 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 hyperarithmetical 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 $\alpha \geq \omega_1^{ck}$. 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 is 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 4 (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 $\lambda(A - F) \leq \varepsilon$. 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 5 (Spector [14]) *If $f : \omega \rightarrow \mathcal{W}^X$ 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 8 (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 [12]), 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 [7] a higher analogue of Martin-Löf randomness.

Definition 9 (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 [4]).

Definition 10 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 11 (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 [9]). Later, Hjorth and Nies gave in [7] an explicit construction of this Π_1^1 nullset. Chong and Yu proved in [4] 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 [4]. 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 6 (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 [3]) strengthens Sacks' theorem:

Theorem 7 (Chong, Yu, Nies) *A sequence X is Π_1^1 -random iff it is Δ_1^1 -random and $\omega_1^X = \omega_1^{ck}$.*

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 8 (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 12 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 13 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 6 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 4 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 10), one can also consider this equivalence as the higher counterpart of Proposition 3.

We already know from Theorem 7 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 $f : \omega \rightarrow \mathcal{W}^X$ 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 4.

Lemma 2 *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 $S(X) \leftrightarrow \forall o \in \mathcal{W} e \notin \mathcal{W}_{|o|}^X$. Let S_o be the predicate $e \notin \mathcal{W}_{|o|}^X$. 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 4 a Σ_1^1 closed set F_o such that $F_o \subseteq S_o$ with $\lambda(S_o - F_o) \leq 2^{-o}2^{-n}$. 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:

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

We can now prove the desired theorem:

Theorem 9 *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 $P_n = \bigcup_{\alpha < \omega_1^{ck}} P_{n,\alpha}$.

From Lemma 2 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 4 one can prove that f is Π_1^1 . Let $\alpha^* = \sup_{n,m} |f(n, m)|$. By Theorem 5 we have that $\alpha^* < \omega_1^{ck}$. Then we have:

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

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 8 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 $\sup_n \Phi^X(n) \leq \alpha^* < \omega_1^{ck}$.

We can now prove the equivalence:

Theorem 10 *The set of Σ_1^1 -Solovay-generics is exactly the set of Π_1^1 -randoms.*

Proof Using Theorem 7 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 4 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 $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega$, 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 [3] 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 3.

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 1 *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 11 (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 11 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 author, together with Bienvenu and Greenberg separated recently in [2] the notion of weakly-Solovay- Σ_1^1 -generic from the one of Solovay- Σ_1^1 -generic: There exists a weakly- Π_1^1 -random sequence which is not Π_1^1 -random.

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