

## RANDOMNESS VIA INFINITE COMPUTATION AND EFFECTIVE DESCRIPTIVE SET THEORY

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**Abstract.** We study randomness beyond  $\Pi_1^1$ -randomness and its Martin-Löf type variant, which was introduced in [16] and further studied in [3]. Here we focus on a class strictly between  $\Pi_1^1$  and  $\Sigma_2^1$  that is given by the infinite time Turing machines (ITTMs) introduced by Hamkins and Kidder. The main results show that the randomness notions associated with this class have several desirable properties, which resemble those of classical random notions such as Martin-Löf randomness and randomness notions defined via effective descriptive set theory such as  $\Pi_1^1$ -randomness. For instance, mutual randomness do not share information and a version of van Lambalgen's theorem holds.

Towards these results, we prove the following analogue to a theorem of Sacks. If a real is infinite time Turing computable relative to all reals in some given set of reals with positive Lebesgue measure, then it is already infinite time Turing computable. As a technical tool towards this result, we prove facts of independent interest about random forcing over increasing unions of admissible sets, which allow efficient proofs of some classical results about hyperarithmetical sets.

**§1. Introduction.** Algorithmic randomness studies formal notions that express the intuitive concept of an *arbitrary* or *random* infinite bit sequence with respect to Turing programs. The most prominent such notion is *Martin-Löf randomness* (ML). A real number, i.e., a sequence of length the natural numbers with values 0 and 1, is ML-random if and only if it is not contained in a set of Lebesgue measure 0 that can be effectively approximated by a Turing machine in a precise sense. We refer the reader to comprehensive treatments of this topic in [12, 23].

Martin-Löf already suggested that the classical notions of randomness are too weak. Moreover, Turing computability is relatively weak in comparison with notions in descriptive set theory. Therefore higher notions of randomness have been considered, for instance, computably enumerable sets are replaced with  $\Pi_1^1$  sets (see [3, 16]). These notions were recently studied in [3], and in particular the authors defined a continuous relativization which allowed them to prove a variant of van Lambalgen's theorem for  $\Pi_1^1$ -ML-randomness. We will use this and the Martin-Löf variant of ITTM-random reals in Section 4.3.

There are various desirable properties for a notion of randomness, which many of the formal notions possess, and which can serve as criteria for the evaluation of such a notion. For instance, different approaches to the notion of randomness, such as not having effective rare properties, being incompressible or being

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unpredictable are often equivalent. Van Lambalgen's theorem states that each half of a random sequence is random with respect to the other half. Moreover, there is often a universal test. For instance ML-randomness and its  $\Pi_1^1$ -variant (see [16] and [3] for the relativization) satisfy these conditions. Some types of random reals are not informative and real numbers that are mutually random do not share any nontrivial information. This does not hold for ML-randomness and its variant at the level of  $\Pi_1^1$ , but it does hold for  $\Pi_1^1$ -randomness and the notion of ITTM-randomness studied in this article.

Higher randomness studies properties of classical randomness notions for higher variants. Various results can be extended to higher randomness notions, assuming sufficiently large cardinals (see e.g., [11]). However, already at the level of  $\Sigma_2^1$ , many properties of randomness notions are independent [8]. Therefore we consider classes strictly between  $\Pi_1^1$  and  $\Sigma_2^1$ .

The infinite time Turing machines introduced by Hamkins and Kidder (see [15]) combine the appeal of machine models with considerable strength. The notions decidable, semidecidable, computable, writable etc. will refer to these machines. The strength of these machines is strictly above  $\Pi_1^1$  and therefore, this motivates the consideration of notions of randomness based on ITTMs. This project was started in [8] and continued in [5, 6].

We consider the following notions of randomness as analogues to  $\Pi_1^1$ -random,  $\Delta_1^1$ -random and  $\Pi_1^1$ -ML-random reals.

- ITTM-random: avoids every semidecidable null set,
- ITTM-decidable random: avoids every decidable null set,
- ITTM<sub>ML</sub>-random: like ML-randomness, but via ITTMs instead of Turing machines.

With respect to the above criteria, they perform differently. As we show below, all notions satisfy van Lambalgen's theorem. We will see that there is a universal test for ITTM-randomness and ITTM<sub>ML</sub>-randomness, but not for ITTM-decidable randomness, and we will relate these notions to randomness over initial segments of the constructible hierarchy. A new phenomenon for ITTMs compared to the computable setting is the existence of *lost melodies*, i.e., noncomputable recognizable sets (see [15]). We will see that lost melodies are not computable from any ITTM-random real. Moreover, we observe that as in [16], ITTM<sub>ML</sub>-randomness is equivalent to a notion of incompressibility of the finite initial segments of the string.

The first main result is an analogue to a result of Sacks [12, Corollary 11.7.2]: computability relative to all elements of a set of positive Lebesgue measure implies computability (asked in [8, Section 3]). This result is used in several proofs below.

**THEOREM 1.1 (Theorem 3.12).** *Suppose that  $A$  is a subset of the Cantor space  $2^\omega$  with  $\mu(A) > 0$  and a real  $x$  is ITTM-computable from all elements of  $A$ . Then  $x$  is ITTM-computable.*

The proof rests on phenomena for infinite time computations that have no analogue in the context of Turing computability, in particular the difference between writable, eventually writable and accidentally writable reals (see Definition 3.1 or [28]).

We state some other main results. We obtain a variant for the stronger *hypermachines* with  $\Sigma_n$ -limit rules [13] in Theorem 3.14. We prove a variant of the previous

theorem for recognizable sets.<sup>1</sup> Thus we answer several questions posed in [6, Section 5] and [5, Section 6].

**THEOREM 1.2** (Theorem 3.16). *Suppose that  $A$  is a subset of the Cantor space  $2^\omega$  with  $\mu(A) > 0$  and a real  $x$  is ITTM-recognizable from all elements of  $A$ . Then  $x$  is ITTM-recognizable.*

The next result, which is joint with Philip Welch, characterizes ITTM-randomness by the values of an ordinal  $\Sigma$  that is associated to ITTM-computations, the supremum of the ordinals coded by accidentally writable reals, i.e., reals that can be written on the tape at some time in some computation.

**THEOREM 1.3** (Theorem 4.5). *The following conditions are equivalent for a real  $x$ .*

- (a)  $x$  is ITTM-random.
- (b)  $x$  is random over  $L_\Sigma$  and  $(\lambda^x, \zeta^x, \Sigma^x) = (\lambda, \zeta, \Sigma)$ .
- (c)  $x$  is random over  $L_{\lambda^x}$ .

The following is a desirable property of randomness that holds for  $\Pi_1^1$ -randomness, but not for Martin-Löf randomness. The property states that mutual randomness does not share noncomputable information. Here, two reals are considered random if their join is random.

**THEOREM 1.4** (Theorem 4.6). *If  $x$  is computable from both  $y$  and  $z$ , and  $y$  and  $z$  are mutual ITTM-randoms, then  $x$  is computable.*

We further analyze a decidable variant of ITTM-randomness that is analogous to  $\Delta_1^1$ -randomness. We characterize this notion in Theorem 4.8 and prove an analogue to Theorem 4.6 and to van Lambalgen's theorem for this variant.

All results in this article, except for the Martin-Löf variant in Section 4.3, work for Cohen reals instead of random reals, often with much simpler proofs, which we do not state explicitly.

The main tool is a variant of random forcing suitable for models of weak set theories such as Kripke–Platek set theory. Previously, some results were formulated for the ideal of meager sets instead of the ideal of measure null sets, since the proofs use Cohen forcing and this is a set forcing in such models. Random forcing, on the other hand, is a class forcing in this situation and it is worthwhile to note that random generic is not equivalent to random over these models (see [29, Remark after Theorem 6.6]). These difficulties are overcome through an alternative definition of the forcing relation, which we call the *quasi-forcing relation*.

As a by-product, the analysis of random forcing allows some more efficient proofs of classical results of higher recursion theory, such as Sacks' theorem that  $\{x \mid \omega_1^x > \omega_1^{\text{ck}}\}$  is a null set.

We assume some familiarity with infinite time Turing machines (see [15]), randomness (see [23]) and admissible sets (see [2]). Moreover, we frequently use the Gandy–Spector theorem to represent  $\Pi_1^1$  sets (see [14, Theorem 5.5]). In Section 4.3 we will further refer to several proofs in [16, Section 3] and [3, Section 3].

The article is structured as follows. In Section 2, we discuss random forcing over admissible sets and limits of admissible sets. In Section 3, we prove results about

<sup>1</sup>An element  $x$  of  $2^\omega$  is ITTM-recognizable if  $\{x\}$  is ITTM-decidable (see Definition 3.15).

infinite time Turing machines and computations from non-null sets. This includes the main theorem. In Section 4, we use the previous results to prove desirable properties of randomness notions.

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**§2. Random forcing over admissible sets.** In this section, we present some results about random forcing over admissible sets and unions of admissible sets that are of independent interest. They are essential for the following proofs. The results simplify the approach to forcing over admissible sets (see [24]) by avoiding a ranked forcing language.

We first fix some (mostly standard) notation. A *real* is a set of natural numbers or an element of the Cantor space  $2^\omega$ . The basic open subsets of the Cantor space  $2^\omega$  will be denoted by  $U_s = \{x \in 2^\omega \mid s \subseteq x\}$  for  $s \in 2^{<\omega}$ . The Lebesgue measure on  $2^\omega$  is the unique Borel measure  $\mu$  with size  $\mu(N_t) = 2^{-|t|}$  for all  $t \in 2^{<\omega}$ . An *admissible set* is a transitive set which satisfies Kripke–Platek set theory with the axiom of infinity. Moreover, an ordinal  $\alpha$  is called admissible if  $L_\alpha$  is admissible.

**2.1. The quasi-forcing relation.** We work with the version of random forcing that is given by Borel codes  $p$  for subsets  $[p]$  of  $2^\omega$  of positive measure, ordered by inclusion. Here we mean any standard way of coding Borel sets by reals or countable trees. In particular, a Borel code in some  $L_\alpha$  codes a set that is Borel from the viewpoint of  $L_\alpha$ .

It is worthwhile to note that over any admissible set, the following partial order densely embeds into random forcing. The conditions are perfect subtrees of  $2^{<\omega}$ , i.e., there are no end nodes and splitting nodes above all nodes. A tree is understood as a code for the set  $[T]$  of cofinal branches through  $T$ .

The results in this section are needed because random forcing is a class forcing over admissible sets, but not necessarily a set forcing. We work with the following reals instead of random generic reals.

**DEFINITION 2.1.** Suppose that  $\alpha$  is an ordinal and  $x \in {}^\omega 2$ . Then  $x$  is *random* over  $L_\alpha$  if  $x \in A$  for every Borel set  $A$  of measure 1 with a Borel code in  $L_\alpha$ .

We further distinguish between the forcing relation for random forcing over an admissible set and the *quasi-forcing relation* that is defined below. In its definition, the statement that a set of conditions is dense is replaced with the condition that the union of the conditions has full measure. Thus the quasi-forcing relation corresponds to the random reals defined in Definition 2.1, which are also called quasi-generics (see [17]), as opposed to random generic reals. We will show that this relation is definable over admissible sets, while we do not know if this holds for the forcing relation.

The following two examples illustrate the difference between sufficiently generic and quasi-generic reals.

In the first example, we note that it is easy to construct for any  $n$ , dense subsets  $D$  of the random forcing in  $L_{\omega_1^{\text{ck}}}$  such that the union of the conditions in  $D$  has

measure strictly below  $\frac{1}{n}$ . To this end, suppose that  $\vec{b} = \langle b_\alpha \mid \alpha < \omega_1^{\text{ck}} \rangle$  is an enumeration of all Borel codes  $b_\alpha$  in  $L_{\omega_1^{\text{ck}}}$  for Borel sets  $B_\alpha$  with positive measure and  $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  is a partial surjection, such that both are  $\Sigma_1$ -definable over  $L_{\omega_1^{\text{ck}}}$ . We can then construct a sequence of Borel sets  $A_\alpha \subseteq B_\alpha$  with  $0 < \mu(A_\alpha) < 2^{-(i+n+1)}$  and Borel codes  $a_\alpha$  for these sets, where  $i$  is least with  $f(i) = \alpha$ , and let  $D = \{a_\alpha \mid \alpha < \omega_1^{\text{ck}}\}$ . Note that the sequence  $\vec{a} = \langle a_\alpha \mid \alpha < \omega_1^{\text{ck}} \rangle$  can moreover be chosen to be  $\Sigma_1$ -definable over  $L_{\omega_1^{\text{ck}}}$ , so that  $D$  is a  $\Pi_1^1$  set by the Gandy–Spector theorem [14, Theorem 5.5].

The second example is Liang Yu’s result that  $\omega_1^x > \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  holds for any sufficiently random generic  $x$  over  $L_{\omega_1^{\text{ck}}}$ . This is implicit in [29, Lemma 6.3] and follows from this result with the additional facts that the collection of  $\Pi_1^1$ -ML random reals is  $\Sigma_2^0$  and every  $\Pi_1^1$ -ML-random is  $\Delta_1^1$ -random [10, Proposition 14.2.2]. It thus follows from Lemma 2.13 below that no sufficiently random generic over  $L_{\omega_1^{\text{ck}}}$  avoids every  $\Pi_1^1$  null set.

We now define Boolean values for the quasi-forcing relation. An  $\infty$ -Borel code is a set of ordinals that codes a set built from basic open subsets of  $2^\omega$  and their complements by forming intersections and unions of any ordinal length.<sup>2</sup> We will write  $\bigvee_{i \in I} x_i$  for the canonical code for the union of the sets coded by  $x_i$  for  $i \in I$ , and similarly for  $\bigwedge_{i \in I} x_i$  and  $\neg x$ .

**DEFINITION 2.2.** Suppose that  $L_\alpha$  is admissible or an increasing union of admissible sets. We define  $\llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket = \llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket^{L_\alpha}$  by induction in  $L_\alpha$ , where  $\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n \in L_\alpha$  are names for random forcing and  $\varphi(x_0, \dots, x_n)$  is a formula.

- (a)  $\llbracket \sigma \in \tau \rrbracket = \bigvee_{(v,p) \in \tau} \llbracket \sigma = v \rrbracket \wedge p$ .
- (b)  $\llbracket \sigma = \tau \rrbracket = (\bigwedge_{(v,p) \in \sigma} (\llbracket v \in \tau \rrbracket \vee \neg p)) \wedge (\bigwedge_{(v,p) \in \tau} (\llbracket v \in \sigma \rrbracket \vee \neg p))$ .
- (c)  $\llbracket \exists x \in \sigma_0 \varphi(x, \sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket = \bigvee_{(v,p) \in \sigma_0} \llbracket \varphi(v, \sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket \wedge p$ .
- (d)  $\llbracket \neg \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket = \neg \llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket$ .
- (e)  $\llbracket \exists x \varphi(x, \tau) \rrbracket = \bigvee_{\sigma \in L_\alpha} \llbracket \varphi(\sigma, \tau) \rrbracket$ .

We will leave out the exponent  $L_\alpha$  and will further identify  $\llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket$  with the subset of  ${}^\omega 2$  that it codes. The quasi-forcing relation is defined as follows.

**DEFINITION 2.3.** Suppose that  $\alpha$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles,  $p$  a random condition in  $L_\alpha$ ,  $\varphi(x_0, \dots, x_n)$  a formula and  $\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n$  random names in  $L_\alpha$ . We define  $p \Vdash^{L_\alpha} \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n)$  if  $\mu([p] \setminus \llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket) = 0$ .

**LEMMA 2.4.** Suppose that  $\alpha$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles. Then the function which associates the Boolean value in  $L_\alpha$  to  $\Delta_0$ -formulas  $\varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n)$  and the forcing relation for random forcing are  $\Delta_1$ -definable over  $L_\alpha$ .

**PROOF.** The Boolean values are defined by a  $\Delta_1$ -recursion and the measure corresponding to a code is definable by a  $\Delta_1$ -recursion. This implies that the forcing relation is  $\Delta_1$ -definable. ⊣

**DEFINITION 2.5.** Suppose that  $\alpha$  is an ordinal and  $x \in {}^\omega 2$ . We define  $\sigma^x = \{v^x \mid (v, p) \in \sigma, x \in [p]\}$  for  $\sigma \in L_\alpha$  by induction on the rank.

<sup>2</sup>These codes should not be confused with Borel codes, which are always reals.

- (a) The generic extension of  $L_\alpha$  by  $x$  is defined as  $L_\alpha[x] = \{\sigma^x \mid \sigma \in L_\alpha\}$ .
- (b) The  $\alpha$ -th level of the  $L$ -hierarchy built over  $x$ , with  $L_0^x = \text{tc}(\{x\})$ , is denoted by  $L_\alpha^x$ .

We will see in Lemmas 2.9 and 2.10 that the sets  $L_\alpha[x]$  and  $L_\alpha^x$  are equal if  $x$  is random over  $L_\alpha$  and  $\alpha$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles.

The next lemma follows by induction on the ranks of names and length of formulas.

LEMMA 2.6. *Suppose that  $L_\alpha$  is admissible or an increasing union of admissible sets,  $\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n \in L_\alpha$  are names for random forcing and  $\varphi(x_0, \dots, x_n)$  is a formula. Then*

$$L_\alpha[x] \models \varphi(\sigma_0^x, \dots, \sigma_n^x) \iff x \in \llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket.$$

The following is a version of the forcing theorem for the quasi-forcing relation.

LEMMA 2.7. *Suppose that  $\alpha$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles,  $p$  is a random condition in  $L_\alpha$  and  $\varphi(x_0, \dots, x_n)$  is a formula.*

- (1) *If  $\varphi$  is a  $\Delta_0$ -formula, then  $p \Vdash^{L_\alpha} \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n)$  holds if and only if  $L_\alpha[x] \models \varphi(\sigma_0^x, \dots, \sigma_n^x)$  holds for all random reals  $x \in [p]$  over  $L_\alpha$ .*
- (2) *If  $\alpha$  is countable in  $L_\beta$ , then  $p \Vdash^{L_\beta} \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n)$  holds if and only if  $L_\alpha[x] \models \varphi(\sigma_0^x, \dots, \sigma_n^x)$  for all random reals  $x \in [p]$  over  $L_\beta$ .*

PROOF. For the first claim, we assume that  $\varphi$  is a  $\Delta_0$ -formula. If  $p \Vdash^{L_\alpha} \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n)$ , then  $\mu([p] \setminus \llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket) = 0$ . If  $x \in [p]$  is random over  $L_\alpha$ , then  $x \in \llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket$  and hence  $L_\alpha[x] \models \varphi(\sigma_0^x, \dots, \sigma_n^x)$  by Lemma 2.6. On the other hand, if  $p \not\Vdash^{L_\alpha} \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n)$ , then  $\mu([p] \setminus \llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket) > 0$ . If  $x \in [p] \setminus \llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket$  is random over  $L_\alpha$ , then  $L_\alpha[x] \models \neg\varphi(\sigma_0^x, \dots, \sigma_n^x)$  by Lemma 2.6.

The proof of the second claim is analogous, except that now  $\llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket$  has a Borel code in  $L_\beta$  instead of  $L_\alpha$ . ⊣

The following is a version of the truth lemma for the quasi-forcing relation.

LEMMA 2.8. *Suppose that  $\alpha$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles and  $x$  is random over  $L_\alpha$ . Then  $L_\alpha[x] \models \varphi(\sigma^x)$  holds if and only if there is a random condition  $p$  in  $L_\alpha$  with  $x \in [p]$  and  $p \Vdash \varphi(\sigma)$ .*

PROOF. Suppose that  $x \in [p]$  and  $p \Vdash \varphi(\sigma)$ . Then  $\mu([p] \setminus \llbracket \varphi(\sigma) \rrbracket) = 0$ . Since  $x$  is random over  $L_\alpha$ , we have  $x \in \llbracket \varphi(\sigma) \rrbracket$ . Then  $x \in L_\alpha[x] \models \varphi(\sigma^x)$  by Lemma 2.6.

Suppose that  $L_\alpha[x] \models \varphi(\sigma^x)$  holds. Then  $x \in \llbracket \varphi(\sigma) \rrbracket$  by Lemma 2.6. Since  $\mu(\llbracket \varphi(\sigma) \rrbracket)$  is the supremum of  $\mu([p])$ , where  $p$  is a condition in  $L_\alpha$  with  $[p] \subseteq \llbracket \varphi(\sigma) \rrbracket$ , and  $x$  is random over  $L_\alpha$ , there is a condition  $p$  in  $L_\alpha$  with  $x \in [p]$ . Since  $[p] \subseteq \llbracket \varphi(\sigma) \rrbracket$ ,  $p \Vdash^{L_\alpha} \varphi(\sigma)$ . ⊣

**2.2. The generic extension.** If  $\alpha$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles and  $x$  is random over  $L_\alpha$ , we show that  $L_\alpha[x]$  is equal to  $L_\alpha^x$ .

LEMMA 2.9. *For any ordinal  $\beta$ , name  $\sigma \in L_\beta$  and real  $x$ , we have  $\sigma^x \in L_{\beta+2}^x$ .*

PROOF. For any ordinal  $\beta$ , we define the  $\beta$ -th approximate evaluation as the function

$$f_\beta : L_\beta \rightarrow L^x,$$

which maps  $(\tau, p)$  to  $\tau^x$  if  $x \in [p]$  and to  $\emptyset$  otherwise. Moreover we define the  $\beta$ -th approximation sequence  $G_\beta$  by letting  $G_\beta(\delta) = f_\delta$  for all  $\delta < \beta$ . In the following, we will show by a simultaneous induction that both  $f_\beta \in L_{\beta+1}^x$  and  $G_\beta \in L_{\beta+3}^x$  for all ordinals  $\beta$ .

The claim holds for  $f_0 = F_0 = \emptyset$ . If  $\beta = \delta + 1$ , then  $f_\delta \in L_{\delta+1}^x = L_\beta^x$  by the inductive hypothesis. We then define  $f_\beta$  over  $L_\beta^x$  by

$$f_\beta(\tau, p) = \{f_\delta(\rho, q) \mid x \in [p] \wedge (\rho, q) \in \tau\}$$

for  $(\tau, q) \in L_\beta$  so that  $f_\beta \in L_{\beta+1}^x$ . We further have  $F_\beta = F_\delta \cup \{(\delta, f_\delta)\} \in L_{\beta+3}^x$  as required.

If  $\beta$  is a limit ordinal, we let  $F_\beta = \bigcup_{\delta < \beta} F_\delta$ . Note that for all  $\delta < \beta$ , the function  $F_\delta$  is the unique function with domain  $\delta$  that satisfies the following conditions in  $L_\beta^x$ :  $F_\delta(0) = \emptyset$ ,  $F_\delta$  is continuous at all limits and is defined as above for successors. Hence  $F_\beta$  is definable over  $L_\beta^x$ . Since  $f_\eta = F_\beta(\eta)$  for all  $\eta < \beta$ , we can now define  $f_\beta$  over  $L_\beta^x$  as

$$f_\beta(\tau, p) = \{F_\beta(\eta)(\rho, q) \mid x \in [p] \wedge \eta < \beta \wedge (\rho, q) \in \tau\}.$$

Since we assumed that  $\sigma \in L_\beta$ , its evaluation  $\sigma^x = \{f_\beta(\rho, q) \mid (\rho, q) \in \sigma\}$  is definable over  $L_{\beta+1}^x$ . ⊣

LEMMA 2.10. *Suppose that  $\alpha$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles and  $x$  is random over  $L_\alpha$ . Then  $L_\alpha^x \subseteq L_\alpha[x]$ .*

PROOF. It is sufficient to prove this for the case that  $\alpha$  is admissible. We will thus show that there is a sequence  $\langle \tau_\gamma, \alpha_\gamma \mid \gamma < \alpha \rangle$  that is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable over  $L_\alpha$  such that each  $\tau_\gamma$  is a name for  $L_\gamma^x$ ; this proves the claim since  $L_\gamma[x]$  is transitive. Moreover, the ordinals  $\alpha_\gamma < \alpha$  will be chosen such that the sequence  $\langle \alpha_\gamma \mid \gamma < \alpha \rangle$  is strictly increasing and  $\tau_\gamma$  is uniformly  $\Sigma_1$ -definable over  $L_{\alpha_\gamma}$  for all  $\gamma < \alpha$ .

We pick Borel codes  $c_n$  in  $L_\omega$  for the sets  $\{x \in {}^\omega 2 \mid x(n) = 1\}$  and work with the name  $\dot{x} = \{(\check{n}, p_n) \mid n \in \omega\} \in L_{\omega+1}$  for the random real. Moreover  $\varphi$  always denotes formulas in the forcing language with a predicate for  $\dot{x}$ . Let  $\tau_0 \in L_{\omega+\omega}$  be a name for  $L_0[\dot{x}] = \emptyset$  (with a predicate  $\dot{x}$ ) and  $\alpha_0 = \omega + \omega$ . Assuming that  $\tau_\gamma$  and  $\alpha_\gamma$  are already constructed, we first choose  $\alpha_{\gamma+1}$  as follows. Note that the  $\Sigma_1$ -recursion that defines the Boolean values  $\llbracket \varphi^{\tau_\gamma}(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket$  takes place in  $L_{\delta_{\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n}}$  for some  $\delta_{\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n} < \alpha$ , where  $\varphi(x_0, \dots, x_n)$  is any formula and  $\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n \in \text{tc}(\tau_\gamma)$  are names. Since  $\alpha$  is admissible, there is a least upper bound  $\alpha_{\gamma+1} < \alpha$  of  $\alpha_\gamma + 1$  and  $\delta_{\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n}$  for all  $\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n \in \text{tc}(\tau_\gamma)$ . Then the Boolean values  $\llbracket \varphi^{\tau_\gamma}(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n) \rrbracket$  are definable over  $L_{\alpha_{\gamma+1}}$  uniformly in  $\varphi$  and  $\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_n$ . We now use this fact to define  $\tau_{\gamma+1}$ . First let  $\tau_\gamma^{\varphi, \vec{v}} = \{(\sigma, p) \mid \sigma \in \text{tc}(\tau_\gamma), p \in L_{\alpha_{\gamma+1}}, p \Vdash \varphi^{\tau_\gamma}(\sigma, \vec{v})\}$  for all formulas  $\varphi(x_0, \dots, x_n)$  and  $\vec{v} = (v_0, \dots, v_n)$  with  $v_0, \dots, v_n \in \text{tc}(\tau_\gamma)$ . Moreover let  $\tau_{\gamma+1}$  be the set of all pairs  $(\tau_\gamma^{\varphi, \vec{v}}, 1)$ , where  $\varphi(x_0, \dots, x_n)$  is a formula and  $\vec{v} = (v_0, \dots, v_n)$  with  $v_0, \dots, v_n \in \text{tc}(\tau_\gamma)$ . Since  $p \Vdash \varphi^{\tau_\gamma}(\sigma, \vec{v})$  is equivalent to  $p \leq \llbracket \varphi^{\tau_\gamma}(\sigma, \vec{v}) \rrbracket$ , it follows that  $\tau_{\gamma+1}$  is definable over  $L_{\alpha_{\gamma+1}}$ . Finally let  $\tau_\gamma = \bigcup_{\beta < \gamma} \tau_\beta$  and  $\alpha_\gamma = \sup_{\beta < \gamma} \alpha_\beta$  for limits  $\gamma < \alpha$ . It is clear that  $\tau_\gamma$  is a name for  $L_\gamma[x]$  and thus the sequence is as required. ⊣

We now argue that  $L_\alpha[x]$  is admissible if  $\alpha$  is admissible and  $x$  is sufficiently random.

LEMMA 2.11. *Suppose that  $\alpha$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles, and  $x$  is random over  $L_{\alpha+1}$ . Then  $L_\alpha[x]$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles, respectively.*

PROOF. It is sufficient to prove this for the case where  $\alpha$  is admissible. Suppose that  $f$  is a  $\Sigma_1$ -definable function over  $L_\alpha[x]$  that is cofinal in  $\alpha$  and has domain  $\eta < \alpha$ . We will assume that  $\eta = \omega$  to simplify the notation. Now suppose that  $\dot{x}$  is a name for the random generic and  $\varphi(n, y, z)$  is a  $\Sigma_1$ -formula that defines the function  $f$  in  $L_\alpha[x]$  from a parameter with the name  $\dot{z}$ . Since  $f$  is a function in  $L_\alpha[x]$  and  $x$  is random over  $L_{\alpha+1}$ , we have

$$\mu\left(\bigcap_{n \in \omega} [\exists y \exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}]]\right) > 0$$

by Lemma 2.6. Let  $\epsilon = [\forall n \exists y \exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}]] = \bigcap_{n \in \omega} [\exists y \exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}]]$ ; equality holds by the definition of Boolean values.

CLAIM 2.12.  $\mu([\forall n \exists y \exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}]] \setminus [\exists y \forall n (\exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}])]) = 0$ .

PROOF. Suppose that  $\delta < \epsilon$  with  $\delta \in \mathbb{Q}$ . We consider the  $\Sigma_1$ -definable function that maps  $n$  to the least  $\gamma < \alpha$  with

$$\mu\left(\bigcap_{i \leq n} [\exists y \varphi(i, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}]]\right) \geq \delta$$

and this  $\Sigma_1$ -statement (i.e., the statement that the measure is at least  $\delta$ ) is witnessed in  $L_\gamma$ . Since  $\alpha$  is admissible, we obtain some  $\gamma < \alpha$  with  $\mu(\bigcap_{n \in \omega} [\exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}]]) \geq \delta$ . Using the fact that  $[\forall n \exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}]] = \bigcap_{n \in \omega} [\exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}]]$  by the definition of Boolean values, we have

$$\mu([\forall n \exists \alpha \exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\alpha] \setminus [\exists y \forall n (\exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}])]) \leq \epsilon - \delta$$

and since  $\delta < \epsilon$  was an arbitrary rational value, the measure is 0.  $\dashv$

Since the Boolean value in Claim 2.12 is definable over  $L_\alpha$  and the random real  $x$  over  $L_{\alpha+1}$  is an element of the set  $[\forall n \exists y \exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}]]$ , it is necessarily also in  $[\exists y \forall n (\exists y \varphi(n, y, \dot{z}) \wedge y \in L_\gamma[\dot{x}])]$ . It then follows from Lemma 2.6 that the values of  $f$  are bounded by some  $\gamma < \alpha$ , but this contradicts our assumption.  $\dashv$

As an example for how the previous can be applied to prove known theorems, we consider the following classical result (see [Theorem 9.3.9, Nies]). Note that random over  $L_{\omega_1^{\text{ck}}}$  in our notation is equivalent to  $\Delta_1^1$ -random.

LEMMA 2.13 (see [23, Theorem 9.3.9]). *A real  $x$  is  $\Pi_1^1$ -random if and only if  $x$  is  $\Delta_1^1$ -random and  $\omega_1^x = \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$ .*

PROOF. We first claim that  $\omega_1^x = \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  for every  $\Pi_1^1$ -random real. The set of random reals over  $L_{\omega_1^{\text{ck}+1}}$  has measure 1, and for these reals  $x$ , we have  $\omega_1^x = \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  by Lemma 2.11. Moreover  $\omega_1^x > \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  if and only if there is an admissible ordinal in  $L_{\omega_1^x}[x]$ , hence the set of these reals is  $\Pi_1^1$  by the Gandy–Spector theorem [14, Theorem 5.5]. Thus  $\omega_1^x = \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$ .

In the other direction, let  $A$  denote the largest  $\Pi_1^1$  null set (see [16, Theorem 5.2] and Section 4.1 below). By the Gandy–Spector theorem [14, Theorem 5.5], there are  $\Delta_1^1$  null sets  $A_\alpha$  for  $\alpha < \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  with  $A \subseteq \{x \mid \omega_1^x > \omega_1^{\text{ck}}\} \cup \bigcup_{\alpha < \omega_1^{\text{ck}}} A_\alpha$ . Since  $A$



is the largest  $\Pi_1^1$  null set, equality holds. If  $x$  is  $\Delta_1^1$ -random, then  $x \notin A_\alpha$  for all  $\alpha < \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  and if we additionally assume that  $\omega_1^x = \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  then  $x \notin A$ .  $\dashv$

**2.3. Side-by-side randoms.** Two reals  $x, y$  are *side-by-side random* over  $L_\alpha$  if  $\langle x, y \rangle$  is random over  $L_\alpha$  for the Lebesgue measure on  $2^\omega \times 2^\omega$ . The following Lemma 2.16 is analogous to known results for arbitrary forcings over models of set theory, however the classical proof does not work in our setting.

**LEMMA 2.14.** *If  $x, y$  are side-by-side random over  $L_\alpha$ , then  $x$  is random over  $L_\alpha$ .*

To see this, assume that  $A$  is a Borel subset of  $2^\omega$  of measure 1 with Borel code in  $L_\alpha$ ; then  $\langle x, y \rangle \in A \times 2^\omega$  and hence  $x \in A$ . We will further use the following lemma.

**LEMMA 2.15.** *Suppose that  $\langle A_s \mid s \in 2^{<\omega} \rangle$  is a system of Lebesgue measurable subsets of  $2^\omega$  such that  $A_t \subseteq A_s$  for all  $s \subseteq t$  in  $2^{<\omega}$  and  $\mu(\bigcap_n A_{x \upharpoonright n}) = 0$  for all  $x \in 2^\omega$ . Then for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is some  $n$  such that for all  $s \in 2^n$ , we have  $\mu(A_s) < \epsilon$ .*

If the lemma fails, then the tree  $T = \{s \in 2^{<\omega} \mid \mu(A_s) \geq \epsilon\}$  is infinite. By König’s lemma,  $T$  has an infinite branch  $x \in 2^\omega$  but then  $\mu(\bigcap_n A_{x \upharpoonright n}) \geq \epsilon$ , contradicting the assumption.

We can now use the forcing theorem for random forcing over admissible sets  $L_\alpha$  to prove an analogue to the fact that the intersection of mutually generic extensions is equal to the ground model.

**LEMMA 2.16.** *Suppose that  $L_\alpha$  is admissible or an increasing union of admissible sets and that  $x, y$  are side-by-side random over  $L_\alpha$ . Then  $L_\alpha[x] \cap L_\alpha[y] = L_\alpha$ .*

**PROOF.** Let  $\mathbb{P}$  denote the random forcing on  $2^\omega$  in  $L_\alpha$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  the random forcing on  $2^\omega \times 2^\omega$  in  $L_\alpha$ . Suppose that  $z \in L_\alpha[x] \cap L_\alpha[y]$ . Moreover, suppose that  $\dot{x}, \dot{y}$  are  $\mathbb{P}$ -names for  $z$  with  $\dot{x}^x = z$  and  $\dot{y}^y = z$ . We can assume that  $\dot{x}, \dot{y}$  are  $\mathbb{Q}$ -names by identifying them with the  $\mathbb{Q}$ -names induced by  $\dot{x}, \dot{y}$ . Then every Borel subset of  $2^\omega$  that occurs in  $\dot{x}$  is of the form  $A \times 2^\omega$  and every Borel subset of  $2^\omega$  occurring in  $\dot{y}$  is of the form  $2^\omega \times A$ .

**CLAIM 2.17.** No condition  $p$  forces over  $L_\alpha$  that  $\dot{x} = \dot{y}$ .

**PROOF.** If  $p \Vdash \dot{x} = \dot{y}$  and  $\mu([p]) \geq \epsilon > 0$ , then  $p \Vdash \bigvee_{s \in {}^n 2} \dot{x} \upharpoonright n = \dot{y} \upharpoonright n = s$  for every  $n$  by Lemma 2.7. Let  $A_s = \llbracket \dot{x} \upharpoonright n = s \rrbracket$  and  $B_s = \llbracket \dot{y} \upharpoonright n = s \rrbracket$ , where  $n$  is the length of  $s$ . We then have  $\mu([p] \setminus \bigcup_{s \in {}^n 2} (A_s \times B_s)) = 0$  by Lemma 2.6. Now there is some  $n$  with  $\mu(A_s) < \epsilon$  for all  $s \in {}^n 2$  by Lemma 2.15. Since  $\sum_{s \in {}^n 2} \mu(B_s) = 1$ , we have  $\sum_{s \in {}^n 2} \mu(A_s)\mu(B_s) < \epsilon$ . Moreover, the assumption  $p \Vdash \dot{x} = \dot{y}$  implies that  $\mu([p] \setminus \bigcup_{s \in {}^n 2} A_s \times B_s) = 0$ . Therefore  $\mu([p]) \leq \mu(\sum_{s \in {}^n 2} \mu(A_s)\mu(B_s)) < \epsilon$ , contradicting the assumption that  $\mu([p]) \geq \epsilon$ .  $\dashv$

This completes the proof of Lemma 2.16.  $\dashv$

**§3. Computations from non-null sets.** In this section, we prove an analogue to the following result of Sacks: any real that is computable from all elements of a set of positive measure is itself computable. This is essential to analyze randomness notions later.

**3.1. Facts about infinite time Turing machines.** An infinite time Turing machine (ITTM) is a Turing machine that is allowed to run for an arbitrary ordinal time, with the rule of forming the inferior limit in each tape cell in each limit step of the computation and moving into a special limit state. The inputs and outputs of such machines are reals.

We recall some basic facts about these machines (see [15, 28]). The computable sequences are here called *writable* to distinguish this from the following concepts of computability. These notions from [15] are interesting on their own and will be essential in the following proofs via results in [28].

DEFINITION 3.1 (See [15]).

- (a) A real  $x$  is *writable* (or *computable*) if and only if there is an ITTM-program  $P$  such that  $P$ , when run on the empty input, halts with  $x$  written on the output tape.
- (b) A real  $x$  is *eventually writable* if and only if there is an ITTM-program  $P$  such that  $P$ , when run on the empty input, has from some point of time on  $x$  written on the output tape and never changes the content of the output tape from this time on.
- (c) A real  $x$  is *accidentally writable* if and only if there is an ITTM-program  $P$  such that  $P$ , when run with empty input, has  $x$  written on the output tape at some time (but may overwrite this later on).

We write  $P^x \downarrow = i$  if  $P^x$  halts with output  $i$ . The notation  $\Sigma_n$  will always refer to the standard Levy hierarchy, obtained by counting the number of quantifier changes around a  $\Delta_0$  kernel.

The ordinal  $\lambda$  is defined as the supremum of the halting times of ITTM-computations (i.e., the *clockable ordinals*), and equivalently [26, Theorem 1.1] the supremum of the writable ordinals, i.e., the ordinals coded by writable reals. Moreover,  $\zeta$  is defined as the supremum of the eventually writable ordinals, and  $\Sigma$  is the supremum of the accidentally writable ordinals. The ordinals  $\lambda^x$ ,  $\zeta^x$  and  $\Sigma^x$  are defined relative to an oracle  $x$ .

We will use the following theorem by Welch [28, Theorem 1, Corollary 2].

THEOREM 3.2 (see [28, Theorem 1, Corollary 2]). *Suppose that  $y$  is a real. Then  $\lambda^y, \zeta^y, \Sigma^y$  have the following properties.*

- (1)  $L_{\lambda^y}[y] \cap 2^\omega$  is the set of writable reals in  $y$ .
- (2)  $L_{\zeta^y}[y] \cap 2^\omega$  is the set of eventually writable reals in  $y$ .
- (3)  $L_{\Sigma^y}[y] \cap 2^\omega$  is the set of accidentally reals in  $y$ .

Moreover  $(\lambda^y, \zeta^y, \Sigma^y)$  is the lexically minimal triple of ordinals with

$$L_{\lambda^y}[y] \prec_{\Sigma_1} L_{\zeta^y}[y] \prec_{\Sigma_2} L_{\Sigma^y}[y].$$

It is worthwhile to note that the precise definition of the Levy hierarchy is important for the reflection in Theorem 3.2. The characterization of  $\lambda$ ,  $\zeta$  and  $\Sigma$  fails if we allow arbitrary additional bounded quantifiers in the Levy hierarchy, since this variant of  $\Sigma_2$ -formulas allows to express the fact that a set is admissible. However  $L_\zeta$  is admissible [28, Fact 2.2] while  $L_\Sigma$  is not admissible [28, Lemma 6].

We will also use the following information about  $\lambda$ ,  $\zeta$ , and  $\Sigma$ .

- THEOREM 3.3.** (1) *If the output of an ITTM-program  $P$  stabilizes, then it stabilizes before time  $\zeta$ .*  
 (2) *All nonhalting ITTM-computations loop from time  $\Sigma$  on.*  
 (3)  *$\lambda$  and  $\zeta$  are admissible limits of admissible ordinals (and more).*  
 (4) *In  $L_\lambda$  every set is countable, and the same holds for  $L_\zeta$  and  $L_\Sigma$ .*  
*Moreover, all of these statements relativize to oracles.*

The proofs can be found in [15, 28]. We will write  $x \leq_w y$ ,  $x \leq_{ew} y$ ,  $x \leq_{aw} y$  to indicate that  $x$  is writable, eventually writable, or accidentally writable, respectively, in the oracle  $y$ . The following equivalence is also discussed in [27, page 12].

**LEMMA 3.4.** *The following are equivalent for a subset  $A$  of  ${}^\omega 2$ .*

- (a)  *$A$  is ITTM-semidecidable.*
- (b) *There is a  $\Sigma_1$ -formula  $\varphi(x)$  such that for all  $x \in {}^\omega 2$ ,  $x \in A$  if and only if  $L_{\lambda^x}[x] \models \varphi(x)$ .*

**PROOF.** In the forward direction, the  $\Sigma_1$ -formula simply states the existence of a halting computation. In the other direction, we can search for a writable code for an initial segment of  $L_{\lambda^x}[x]$  which satisfies  $\varphi(x)$ , using the fact that every set in  $L_{\lambda^x}[x]$  has a writable code in  $x$  by Theorem 3.2. ⊢

We call a subset of  $2^{<\omega}$  *enumerable* if there is an ITTM listing its elements. It follows from Lemma 3.4 that it is equivalent for a subset  $A$  of  $2^{<\omega}$  that  $A$  is semidecidable,  $A$  is enumerable or that  $A$  is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable over  $L_\lambda$ .

Note that every ITTM-semidecidable set is absolutely  $\Delta_2^1$ , i.e., it remains  $\Delta_2^1$  with the same definition in any inner model and in any forcing extension. Therefore such sets are Lebesgue measurable and have the property of Baire by [19, Exercise 14.4].

**3.2. Preserving reflection properties by random forcing.** The following reflection argument is an essential step in the proof of the preservation of  $\lambda$ ,  $\zeta$  and  $\Sigma$  with respect to random forcing in Section 3.3 below. We show that for admissibles or limits of admissibles  $\alpha < \beta$ , the statement  $L_\alpha \prec_{\Sigma_n} L_\beta$  is preserved to generic extensions for sufficiently random reals.

**DEFINITION 3.5.** Suppose that  $A$  is a Lebesgue measurable subset of  ${}^\omega 2$ . An element  $x$  of  ${}^\omega 2$  is a (*Lebesgue*) *density point* of  $A$  if  $\lim_n \frac{\mu(A \cap U_{x \upharpoonright n})}{\mu(U_{x \upharpoonright n})} = 1$ . Let  $D(A)$  denote the set of density points of  $A$ .

We will use the following version of Lebesgue’s density theorem.

**THEOREM 3.6** (Lebesgue, see [1, Section 8]). *If  $A$  is any Lebesgue measurable subset of  ${}^\omega 2$ , then  $\mu(A \Delta D(A)) = 0$ .*

To prove the preservation of  $\Sigma_n$ -reflection, we will need the following result.

**LEMMA 3.7.** *Suppose that  $\alpha$  is admissible or a limit of admissible ordinals,  $t \in 2^{<\omega}$ ,  $\sigma \in L_\alpha$ ,  $\epsilon \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $n \geq 1$  and  $\varphi$  is a formula. The formulas in the following claims have the parameters  $t$ ,  $\sigma$  and  $\epsilon$ . Let  $m_{\sigma,t} = \mu(\llbracket \varphi(\sigma) \rrbracket \cap U_t)$ .*

- (1) *If  $\varphi$  is  $\Sigma_n$ , then*
  - (a)  *$m_{\sigma,t} > \epsilon$  is equivalent to a  $\Sigma_n$ -formula.*
  - (b)  *$m_{\sigma,t} \leq \epsilon$  is equivalent to a  $\Pi_n$ -formula.*
- (2) *If  $\varphi$  is  $\Pi_n$ , then*

- (a)  $m_{\sigma,t} < \epsilon$  is equivalent to a  $\Pi_n$ -formula.
- (b)  $m_{\sigma,t} \geq \epsilon$  is equivalent to a  $\Sigma_n$ -formula.

PROOF. The claim holds for  $\Delta_1$ -formulas  $\varphi$ , since the function mapping  $\sigma$  to  $\llbracket \varphi(\sigma) \rrbracket$  is  $\Delta_1$ -definable in the parameter  $\sigma$ . Assuming that  $\varphi(x, y)$  is a  $\Pi_n$ -formula, we now show the first claim for the formula  $\exists x \varphi(x, y)$ .

We have  $\mu(\llbracket \exists x \varphi(x, y) \rrbracket \cap U_t) > \epsilon$  if and only if there is some  $k$  and some  $\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_k$  such that  $\mu(\llbracket \bigvee_{i \leq k} \varphi(\sigma_i, \tau) \rrbracket \cap U_t) > \epsilon$ . By the Lebesgue density theorem (Theorem 3.6), the last inequality is equivalent to the statement that there is some  $l$ , a sequence  $t_0, \dots, t_l$  of pairwise incompatible extensions of  $t$  and some  $\epsilon_0, \dots, \epsilon_l \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $\epsilon = \sum_{j \leq l} \epsilon_j$  and for all  $j \leq l$ , there is some  $i \leq k$  such that  $\mu(\llbracket \varphi(\sigma_i, y) \rrbracket \cap U_{t_j}) > \epsilon_j$ . Using a universal  $\Sigma_n$ -formula, we obtain an equivalent  $\Sigma_n$ -statement. Moreover, we have  $\mu(\llbracket \exists x \varphi(x, y) \rrbracket \cap U_t) \leq \epsilon$  if and only if for all  $\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_k, \mu(\llbracket \bigvee_{i \leq k} \varphi(\sigma_i, \tau) \rrbracket) \leq \epsilon$ , and this is a  $\Pi_n$ -statement by argument in the previous case.

The second claim follows by switching to negations. ⊖

We can now show the preservation of the statement  $L_\alpha \prec_{\Sigma_n} L_\beta$  for sufficiently random reals.

LEMMA 3.8. *Suppose that  $\beta$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles,  $x$  is random over  $L_\beta$  and  $L_\alpha \prec_{\Sigma_n} L_\beta$ , where  $\alpha < \beta$  and  $n \geq 1$ . If  $n \geq 2$ , then we additionally assume that  $x$  is random over  $L_\gamma$  for some  $\gamma$  such that  $\beta$  that is countable in  $L_\gamma$ . Then  $L_\alpha[x] \prec_{\Sigma_n} L_\beta[x]$ .*

PROOF. We first argue that  $L_\alpha$  is admissible. If  $z \in L_\alpha$  and  $f : z \rightarrow L_\alpha$  is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable over  $L_\alpha$ , then the set  $L_\alpha$  witnesses  $\Sigma_1$ -collection for  $f$  in  $L_\beta$ . Since  $L_\alpha \prec_{\Sigma_1} L_\beta$ , it follows that  $\Sigma_1$ -collection for  $f$  holds in  $L_\alpha$  and hence  $f \in L_\alpha$ .

To prove  $\Sigma_n$ -reflection, we assume that the statement  $\exists u \varphi(u, \tau^x)$  holds in  $L_\beta[x]$ , where  $n = m + 1$ ,  $\varphi$  is  $\Pi_m$  and  $\tau \in L_\alpha$ . Moreover, suppose that  $\sigma_0$  is a name in  $L_\beta$  with  $L_\beta[x] \models \varphi(\sigma_0^x, \tau^x)$ .

Let  $B = \llbracket \varphi(\sigma_0, \tau) \rrbracket$ . If  $n = 1$ , then  $B$  has a Borel code in  $L_\beta$ . If  $n \geq 2$ , then  $B$  has a Borel code in  $L_\gamma$  by the assumption that  $\beta$  is countable in  $L_\gamma$ . It thus follows from Lemma 2.7 that  $x \in B$  and  $\mu(B) > 0$ . Let  $A_l$  denote the set of  $s \in 2^{<\omega}$  such that

$$\frac{\mu(B \cap U_s)}{\mu(U_s)} > 1 - 2^{-l}.$$

In the next proof, by an *antichain* in a subset  $A^*$  of  $2^{<\omega}$ , we mean a subset of  $A^*$  whose elements are pairwise incomparable. Moreover, it is called *maximal* if it is not properly contained in any antichain in  $A^*$ .

In the next claim, we conclude from the Lebesgue density theorem that  $B$  is almost covered by the sets  $U_s$  for  $s \in A_n$ .

CLAIM 3.9. *If  $A^*$  is a maximal antichain in  $A_l$ , then  $\mu(B \cap \bigcup_{s \in A^*} U_s) = \mu(B)$ .*

PROOF. Assume that the claim fails and thus  $\mu(B \setminus \bigcup_{s \in B^*} U_s) > 0$ . Then  $B \setminus \bigcup_{s \in A^*} U_s$  has a density point  $z$  by the Lebesgue density theorem (Theorem 3.6). Therefore, there is some  $k$  with  $\frac{\mu(B \cap U_{z \upharpoonright k})}{\mu(U_{z \upharpoonright k})} > 1 - 2^{-l}$  and thus  $z \upharpoonright k \in A_l$ , by the definition of  $A_l$ . However,  $z \upharpoonright k$  is incomparable with all elements of  $A^*$ , since  $z \notin \bigcup_{s \in A^*} U_s$ . This contradicts the assumption that  $A^*$  is maximal. ⊖

We now choose a maximal antichain  $A_l^*$  in  $A_l$  for each  $l$ . If  $n = 1$ , then  $B$  has a Borel code in  $L_\beta$ , and since  $\beta$  is admissible or a limit of admissibles, we can choose  $A_l^*$  such that the sequence  $\langle A_l^* \mid l \in \omega \rangle$  is an element of  $L_\beta$ . On the other hand, if  $n \geq 2$ , then  $B$  has a Borel code in  $L_{\beta+1} \subseteq L_\gamma$  and hence we can choose  $A_l^*$  such that the sequence  $\langle A_l^* \mid l \in \omega \rangle$  is an element of  $L_\gamma$ .

We aim to reflect the  $\Sigma_n$ -statement  $\exists v \varphi(v, \tau^x)$  from  $L_\beta[x]$  to  $L_\alpha[x]$ . Since  $\sigma_0$  and the code for  $B$  are not necessarily elements of  $L_\alpha$ , we will obtain the required objects in  $L_\alpha$  by reflection. To this end, we define a subset  $C$  of  $B$  in  $L_\beta$  with full measure in  $B$  such that reflection will hold for all randoms over  $L_\beta$  in  $C$ .

Let  $B_\sigma = \llbracket \varphi(\sigma, \tau) \rrbracket$ , so that in particular  $B_{\sigma_0} = B$ . We now consider the formula  $\psi_k(s)$  stating that there is some name  $\sigma$  with  $\frac{\mu(B_\sigma \cap U_s)}{\mu(U_s)} > 1 - 2^{-k}$ . This is a  $\Sigma_n$ -statement by Lemma 3.7.

If  $s \in A_l$ , then  $\psi_l(s)$  holds in  $L_\beta$ . Since  $L_\alpha \prec_{\Sigma_n} L_\beta$  by our assumption, this implies that  $\psi_l(s)$  holds in  $L_\alpha$ . For all  $s \in A_l$ , let  $\sigma_s^l$  denote the  $<_L$ -least name in  $L_\alpha$  witnessing  $\psi_l(s)$ ; then  $\langle \sigma_s^l \mid l \in \omega \rangle$  is an element of  $L_\beta$  for any  $s \in A_l$ . We further let  $C_l = \bigcup_{s \in A_{2l}^*} B_{\sigma_s^{2l}}$  and  $C = \bigcup_l C_l$ . If  $n = 1$ , it follows that the sets  $C_l$  have Borel codes in  $L_\beta$  for all  $l \in \omega$  and moreover, the set  $C$  has a Borel code in  $L_\beta$ . If  $n \geq 2$ , then the same holds for  $L_\gamma$ .

CLAIM 3.10.  $\mu(B \setminus C) = 0$ .

PROOF. We have  $\frac{\mu(B \cap U_s)}{\mu(U_s)} > 1 - 2^{-2l}$  for all  $s \in A_{2l}^*$  by the definition of  $A_{2l}$  and  $\frac{\mu(B_s \cap U_s)}{\mu(U_s)} > 1 - 2^{-2l}$  for all  $s \in A_{2l}$  by the choice of  $\sigma_s^{2l}$ . Hence

$$\frac{\mu(B \cap B_s \cap U_s)}{\mu(B \cap U_s)} \geq \frac{\mu(B \cap B_s \cap U_s)}{\mu(U_s)} > 1 - 2^{-l}$$

for all  $s \in A_{2l}$ . Moreover,

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{s \in A_l^*} (B \cap U_s)\right) = \mu\left(B \cap \bigcup_{s \in A_l^*} U_s\right) = \mu(B)$$

by Claim 3.9. Since  $A_l^* \subseteq A_l$  is an antichain, the sets  $B \cap U_s$  for  $s \in A_l^*$  are pairwise disjoint. Therefore the previous inequality implies that

$$\frac{\mu(B \cap C_l)}{\mu(B)} > 1 - 2^{-l}.$$

Since  $C = \bigcup_l C_l$ , this implies that  $\frac{\mu(B \cap C)}{\mu(B)} = 1$  and thus  $\mu(B \setminus C) = 0$ . ←

CLAIM 3.11.  $\varphi((\sigma_s^{2l})^x, \tau^x)$  holds in  $L_\alpha[x]$ .

PROOF. We have  $x \in B$  by our assumption. We first assume that  $n = 1$ . Since  $B$  and  $C$  have Borel codes in  $L_\beta$ ,  $\mu(B \setminus C) = 0$  and  $x$  is random over  $L_\beta$ , it follows that  $x \in C$ . If  $n \geq 2$ , the same argument works for  $L_\gamma$ . Therefore  $x \in C_l$  for some  $l$  and thus  $x \in B_{\sigma_s^{2l}} = \llbracket \varphi(\sigma_s^{2l}, \tau) \rrbracket$  for some  $s \in A_{2l}^*$ . Now Lemma 2.7 implies that  $\varphi((\sigma_s^{2l})^x, \tau)$  holds in  $L_\alpha[x]$ . ←

The previous claims show that the statement  $\exists u \varphi(u, \tau^x)$  reflects to  $L_\alpha[x]$ . ←

The assumptions in Lemma 3.8 for  $n = 2$  are not optimal for the application to ITTMs below. We will see in Section 4.1 that ITTM-randomness is a sufficient assumption for the applications.

**3.3. Writable reals from non-null sets.** We will prove an analogue to the following theorem for infinite time Turing machines. Let  $\leq_T$  denote Turing reducibility.

**THEOREM 3.12** (Sacks, see [12, Corollary 11.7.2]). *A real  $x$  is computable if and only if  $\{y \mid x \leq_T y\}$  has positive Lebesgue measure.*

In [8], analogues of this theorem for other machines were considered. It was asked if this holds for infinite time Turing machines, and this was only proved for nonmeager Borel sets, via Cohen forcing over levels of the constructible hierarchy. With the results in Section 2, we prove this for Lebesgue measure.

- THEOREM 3.13.** (1) *A real  $x$  is writable if and only if  $\mu(\{y : x \leq_w y\}) > 0$ .*  
 (2) *A real  $x$  is eventually writable if and only if  $\mu(\{y : x \leq_{ew} y\}) > 0$ .*  
 (3) *A real  $x$  is accidentally writable if and only if  $\mu(\{y : x \leq_{aw} y\}) > 0$ .*

**PROOF.** The forward direction is clear in each case. In the other direction, we only prove the writable case, since the proofs of the remaining cases are analogous.

Let  $W_x := \{y : x \leq_w y\}$  and choose some sufficiently random  $r \in W_x$ . Since  $\Sigma$  is a limit of admissible ordinals (see [28, Fact 2.5, Lemma 6]),  $L_\Sigma[r] = L'_\Sigma$  by Lemmas 2.9 and 2.10 and  $L_\Sigma[r]$  is an increasing union of admissible sets by Lemma 2.11. We choose some sufficiently random  $s \in W_x$  over  $L_\Sigma[r]$ , in particular  $s$  is random over  $L_{\Sigma+1}$ . Since  $L_\lambda \prec_{\Sigma_1} L_\zeta \prec_{\Sigma_2} L_\Sigma$ , we have

$$L_\lambda[r] \prec_{\Sigma_1} L_\zeta[r] \prec_{\Sigma_2} L_\Sigma[r]$$

by Lemma 3.8, and we obtain the same elementary chain for  $s$ . Since  $(\lambda^r, \zeta^r, \Sigma^r)$  and  $(\lambda^s, \zeta^s, \Sigma^s)$  are lexically minimal and the values do not decrease in the extensions by  $r$  and  $s$ , this implies  $\lambda = \lambda^r = \lambda^s, \zeta = \zeta^r = \zeta^s$  and  $\Sigma = \Sigma^r = \Sigma^s$ .

We can assume that  $r$  is random over  $L_\gamma$  and  $s$  is random over  $L_\gamma[r]$  for some  $\gamma > \Sigma$  such that  $L_\gamma$  satisfies a sufficiently strong theory to prove the forcing theorem and facts about random forcing, and such that generics and quasi-generics over  $L_\gamma$  coincide (see [18, Lemma 26.4]). Since the 2-step iteration of random forcing is equivalent to the side-by-side random forcing (see [4, Lemma 3.2.8]),  $(r, s)$  is side-by-side random over  $L_{\Sigma+1}$ .<sup>3</sup>

Since  $x$  is writable relative to  $r$  and relative to  $s, x \in L_\lambda[r] \cap L_\lambda[s] = \lambda$  by Lemma 2.16, therefore  $x$  is writable. ⊖

As far as we know, the following class is the largest class between  $\Pi_1^1$  and  $\Sigma_2^1$  that has been studied. We write  $x \leq_{n\text{-hyp}} y$  if  $x$  is computable from  $y$  by a  $\Sigma_n$ -hypermachine introduced in [13].

**THEOREM 3.14.** *For all  $n \geq 1$ , a real  $x$  is writable by a  $\Sigma_n$ -hypermachine if and only if  $\mu(\{y : x \leq_{n\text{-hyp}} y\}) > 0$ .*

The proof is analogous to the proof of Theorem 3.13 via the results of [13] and the version of Lemma 3.8 for  $\Sigma_n$ -formulas instead of  $\Sigma_2$ -formulas.

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<sup>3</sup>Alternatively, the proof of the product lemma or the 2-step lemma [18, Lemma 15.9, Theorem 16.2] can be easily adapted to show directly that  $(r, s)$  is side-by-side random over  $L_{\Sigma+1}$ .

**3.4. Recognizable reals from non-null sets.** We will prove an analogous result as in the previous section, where computable reals are replaced with *recognizable reals* from [15]. This is an interesting and much weaker alternative notion to computability. The divergence between computability and recognizability is studied in [9, 15].

A real is recognizable if its singleton is decidable. *Lost melodies*, i.e., recognizable noncomputable sets, neither appear in Turing computation nor in the hyperarithmetic setting, since every  $\Delta_1^1$  singleton is hyperarithmetic.

- DEFINITION 3.15. (a) A real  $x$  is *recognizable* from a real  $y$  if and only if there is an ITTM-program  $P$  such that  $P(y)$  halts for every real  $y$ , and  $P(y \oplus z)$  halts with output 1 if and only if  $x = z$ .
- (b) A real  $x$  is a *lost melody* if it is recognizable, but not writable.

A simple example for a lost melody is the constructibly least code for a model of  $ZF^- + V=L$  [15]. It was demonstrated in [6, Theorem 3.12] that every real that is recognizable from all elements of a nonmeager Borel set is itself recognizable. The new observation for the following proof is that one can avoid computing generics by working with the forcing relation. This also leads to a simpler proof in the nonmeager case.

THEOREM 3.16. *Suppose that a real  $x$  is recognizable from all elements of  $A$  and  $\mu(A) > 0$ . Then  $x$  is recognizable.*

PROOF. We can assume that there is a single program  $P$  which recognizes  $x$  from all oracles in  $A$ , since the set of oracles which recognize  $x$  for a fixed program is absolutely  $\Delta_2^1$  and hence Lebesgue measurable (see [19, Exercise 14.4]).

Let  $D$  be the set of the conditions  $p$  in  $L_{\lambda^x}$  that decide whether  $x$  is accepted or rejected by  $P$  relative to the random real  $y$  over  $L_{\Sigma^{x+1}}$ , i.e., either  $P$  accepts  $x \oplus y$  for all random reals  $y \in [p]$  over  $L_{\Sigma^{x+1}}$  or  $P$  rejects  $x \oplus y$  for all such reals. We will use the simplified notation  $\bigcup D$  for the set  $\bigcup_{p \in D} [p]$ .

CLAIM 3.17.  $\mu(A \setminus \bigcup D) = 0$ .

PROOF. If the conclusion fails, then there is a random real  $y$  over  $L_{\Sigma^{x+1}}$  in  $A \setminus \bigcup D$ . Since  $P^{x \oplus z}$  converges for any  $z \in A$ ,  $P^{x \oplus y} \downarrow = i$  for some  $i$ . Since  $\lambda^{x \oplus y} = \lambda^x$  by Theorem 3.8 and  $L_{\lambda^x}[x \oplus y] = L_{\lambda^x}^{x \oplus y}$  by Lemmas 2.9 and 2.10, there is a name  $\dot{C}$  in  $L_{\lambda^x}$  and a condition  $p$  in  $L_{\lambda^x}$  with  $y \in [p]$  that forces  $\dot{C}$  to be a computation of  $P$  with input  $x \oplus y$  and output  $i$ . Then  $p \in D$  and  $y \in \bigcup D$ , contradicting the assumption on  $y$ . ⊥

By the Lebesgue density theorem, there is an open interval with rational endpoints for which the relative measure of  $A$  is strictly larger than  $1 - \epsilon$  for some  $\epsilon < \frac{1}{3}$ . We can assume that this interval is equal to  ${}^\omega 2$ .

The procedure  $Q$  for recognizing  $x$  works as follows. Suppose that  $\dot{y}$  is a name for the random real over  $L_{\Sigma+1}$ . Given an oracle  $z$ , we enumerate  $L_{\lambda^z}[z]$  via a universal ITTM. In parallel, we search for pairs  $(p, \dot{C})$  in  $L_{\lambda^z}[z]$  such that  $p$  is a condition and  $\dot{C}$  is a name such that  $p$  forces over  $L_{\lambda^z}[z]$  that  $\dot{C}$  is a computation of  $P$  in the oracle  $z \oplus \dot{y}$  that halts with output 0 or 1. Note that these are  $\Delta_0$  statements and that the forcing relation for such statements is  $\Delta_1$  by Lemma 2.6 and hence ITTM-decidable. We keep track of the conditions that force the corresponding computation to halt

with output 0 or with output 1 on separate tapes. Moreover, we keep track of the measures  $u_0$  and  $u_1$  of the union of all conditions on the two tapes. Note that the measure of Borel sets can be computed in admissible sets by a  $\Delta_1$ -recursion and hence it is ITTM-computable. Since  $\mu(A) > 1 - \epsilon$  and  $\mu(A \setminus \bigcup D) = 0$ , eventually  $u_0 + u_1 > 1 - \epsilon$ . As soon as this happens, we output 1 if  $u_0 > 1 - 2\epsilon$  and 0 otherwise. We claim that  $Q^z$  outputs 1 if and only if  $z = x$ .

CLAIM 3.18.  $Q^x \downarrow = 1$ .

PROOF. The measure of a countable union of sets can be approximated with arbitrary precision by unions of a finite number of sets. Since  $\mu(A \setminus \bigcup D) = 0$  and  $\mu(A) > 1 - \epsilon$ ,  $\mu(\bigcup D) > 1 - \epsilon$ . There are disjoint conditions  $p, q \in L_{\lambda^x}[x]$  with  $\mu([p] \cup [q]) > 1 - \epsilon$  such that  $p$  forces  $Q^{x \oplus y} \downarrow = 1$ , and  $q$  forces  $P^{x \oplus y} \downarrow = 0$ . Since  $\mu(\bigcup D) > 1 - \epsilon$ ,  $\mu([q]) \leq \epsilon$  and hence  $\mu([p]) > 1 - 2\epsilon$ . Eventually, such a condition  $p$  will be found and hence the procedure halts with output 1.  $\dashv$

CLAIM 3.19.  $Q^z \downarrow = 0$  if  $z \neq x$ .

PROOF. Suppose that the claim fails. Since  $Q$  always halts, we have  $Q^z \downarrow = 1$ . Then there is a condition  $p$  with  $\mu([p]) > 1 - 2\epsilon$  which forces  $P^{z \oplus y} \downarrow = 1$ . Since  $\mu(A) > 1 - \epsilon$  and  $\epsilon < \frac{1}{3}$ ,  $\mu(A \cap [p]) > 0$  and hence there is a random  $y$  in  $A \cap [p]$  over  $L_{\lambda^z}[z]$ . Since  $y \in [p]$ ,  $P^{z \oplus y} \downarrow = 1$ . Since  $y \in A$  and  $z \neq x$ ,  $P^{z \oplus y} \downarrow = 0$ .  $\dashv$

This completes the proof of Theorem 3.16.  $\dashv$

The results in Section 2 also imply analogues of Theorems 3.13 and 3.16 for other notions of computation and recognizability, for instance the infinite time register machines [7] and a weaker variant [21]. We explore this in further work.

**§4. Random reals.** We introduce natural randomness notions associated with infinite time Turing machines and show that they have various desirable properties.

This is the motivation for the previous results, which we will apply here. The results resemble the hyperarithmetic setting, although some proofs are different. Theorem 4.8 shows a difference to the hyperarithmetic case.

**4.1. ITTM-random reals.** The following is a natural analogue to  $\Pi_1^1$ -randomness.

DEFINITION 4.1. A real  $x$  is ITTM-random if it is not an element of any ITTM-semidecidable null set. The definition relativizes to reals.

We first note that there is a universal test. This follows from the following lemma as in [16, Theorem 5.2].

LEMMA 4.2. We can effectively assign to each ITTM-semidecidable set  $S$  an ITTM-semidecidable set  $\hat{S}$  with  $\mu(\hat{S}) = 0$ , and  $\hat{S} = S$  if  $\lambda(S) = 0$ .

PROOF. Suppose that  $S$  is an ITTM-semidecidable set, given by a program  $P$ . We define  $S_\alpha$  as the set of  $z$  such that  $P(z)$  halts before  $\alpha$ . Note that if  $M$  is admissible and contains a code for  $\alpha$ , then there is a Borel code for  $S_\alpha$  in  $M$  and hence  $\mu(S_\alpha)$  can be calculated in  $M$ . In particular,  $\mu(S_\alpha)$  is ITTM-writable from any code for  $\alpha$ . Moreover,  $\alpha$  is ITTM-writable in  $z$  since  $\alpha < \lambda^z$ . Hence there is a code for  $\alpha$  in  $L_{\lambda^z}$ . Let  $\hat{S}$  be the set of all  $z$  such that there exists some  $\alpha < \lambda^z$  with  $z \in S_\alpha$  and  $\mu(S_\alpha) = 0$ . Moreover, let  $\hat{S}_\alpha$  denote the set of  $z$  with  $z \in S_\alpha$  and  $\mu(S_\alpha) = 0$ .



Since the set of  $z$  with  $\lambda^z = \lambda$  is co-null by Theorem 3.13,  $\hat{S}$  is the union of a null set and the sets  $\hat{S}_\alpha$  for all  $\alpha < \lambda$ . ⊖

The universal test is the union of all sets  $\hat{S}$ , where  $S$  ranges over the ITTM-semidecidable sets. The following notion is analogous to  $\Pi_1^1$ -random.

The following is a variant of van Lambalgen’s theorem for ITTMs. We say that reals  $x$  and  $y$  are *mutually random*, in any given notion of randomness, if their join  $x \oplus y$  is random.

**LEMMA 4.3.** *A real  $x$  is ITTM-random and a real  $y$  is ITTM-random relative to  $x$  if and only if  $x$  and  $y$  are mutually ITTM-random.*

**PROOF.** Suppose that  $x$  is ITTM-random and  $y$  is ITTM-random relative to  $x$ . Moreover, suppose that  $x$  and  $y$  are not mutual ITTM-randoms. Then there is an ITTM-semidecidable null set  $A$  given by a program  $P$  such that  $x \oplus y \in A$ . Let  $A_u = \{v \mid u \oplus v \in A\}$  denote the section of  $A$  at  $u$ . Let

$$A_{>q} := \{u \mid \mu(A_u) > q\}$$

for  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Note that  $u \in A_{>q}$  if and only if some condition in  $L_{\Sigma^u}$  with measure  $r > q$  in  $\mathbb{Q}$  forces that  $P(\check{u}, \check{v})$  halts, where  $\check{v}$  is a name for the random real over  $L_{\Sigma^v}$ , by Lemma 2.6. This is a  $\Sigma_1$ -statement in  $L_{\Sigma^u}$  and therefore in  $L_{\lambda^u}$ . Then the set  $A_{>q}$  is semidecidable by Lemma 3.4, uniformly in  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Since  $\mu(A) = 0$ ,  $\mu(A_{>0}) = 0$ . Since  $x$  is ITTM-random,  $x \notin A_{>0}$  and hence  $\mu(A_x) = 0$ . Note that  $A_x$  is semidecidable in  $x$ . Since  $y$  is ITTM-random relative to  $x$ , this implies  $y \notin A_x$ , contradicting the assumption that  $x \oplus y \in A$ .

Now suppose that  $x$  and  $y$  are mutually ITTM-random. To show that  $x$  is ITTM-random, suppose that  $A$  is a semidecidable null set with  $x \in A$ . Then  $A \oplus \omega^2$  is a semidecidable null set containing  $x \oplus y$ , contradicting the assumption that  $x$  and  $y$  are mutually ITTM-random. To show that  $y$  is ITTM-random relative to  $x$ , suppose that  $y$  is an element of a semidecidable null set  $A$  relative to  $x$ . Since the construction of  $\hat{S}$  in Lemma 4.2 is effective, there is a semidecidable null subset  $B$  of  $\omega^2 \times \omega^2$  with  $A = B_x$  (in fact, all sections of  $B$  are null). Then  $x \oplus y \in A$ , contradicting the assumption that  $x$  and  $y$  are mutual ITTM-randoms. ⊖

The next result is analogous to the statement that a real  $x$  is  $\Pi_1^1$ -random can be characterized by  $\Delta_1^1$ -randomness and  $\omega_1^x = \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  (see [23, Theorem 9.3.9]). The fact that  $\zeta^x = \zeta$  holds in the next result was noticed by Philip Welch.

**THEOREM 4.4.** *A real  $x$  is ITTM-random if and only if it is random over  $L_\Sigma$  and  $\Sigma^x = \Sigma$ . Moreover, this implies  $\lambda^x = \lambda$  and  $\zeta^x = \zeta$ .*

**PROOF.** First suppose that  $x$  is ITTM-random. We first claim that  $x$  is random over  $L_\Sigma$ . Since every real in  $L_\Sigma$  is accidentally writable, we can enumerate all Borel codes in  $L_\Sigma$  for sets  $A$  with  $\mu(A) = 0$  and test whether  $x$  is an element of  $A$ . Therefore the set of reals which are not random over  $L_\Sigma$  is an ITTM-semidecidable set with measure 0, and hence  $x$  is random over  $L_\Sigma$ . We now claim that  $\Sigma^x = \Sigma$ . Since  $\Sigma^y = \Sigma$  holds for all sufficiently random reals by Lemma 3.8, the set  $A$  of reals  $y$  with  $\Sigma^y > \Sigma$  has measure 0. Since the existence of  $\Sigma$  is a  $\Sigma_1$ -statement over  $L_{\Sigma^y}$ , the set  $A$  is semidecidable. Since  $x$  is ITTM-random,  $x \notin A$  and hence  $\Sigma^x = \Sigma$ .

Second, suppose that  $x$  is random over  $L_\Sigma$  and  $\Sigma^x = \Sigma$ . Suppose that  $A$  is a semidecidable null set containing  $x$  given by a program  $P$ . Then  $P(x)$  halts before

$\lambda^x < \Sigma^x = \Sigma$  and hence some condition  $p$  forces over  $L_\Sigma$  that  $P(x)$  halts, by Lemma 2.6. Then  $\mu(A) > 0$ , contradicting the assumption that  $A$  is null.

To show that  $\lambda^x = \lambda$ , note that  $L_\lambda[x] \prec_{\Sigma_1} L_\Sigma[x] = L_{\Sigma^x}[x]$  by Lemma 3.8. Since  $\lambda^x$  is minimal with this property,  $\lambda^x \leq \lambda$ .

To show that  $\zeta^x = \zeta$ , note that we have  $L_{\zeta^x}[x] \prec_{\Sigma_2} L_{\Sigma^x}[x] = L_\Sigma[x]$  and hence  $L_{\zeta^x} \prec_{\Sigma_2} L_\Sigma$ . Since  $L_\zeta$  is the only proper  $\Sigma_2$ -elementary submodel of  $L_\Sigma$ , the claim follows.  $\dashv$

This shows that the level of randomness in the assumption of Lemma 3.8 can be improved to ITTM-random for  $\alpha = \zeta$ ,  $\beta = \Sigma$ .

Following the proof of the previous theorem, Philip Welch showed that it is further equivalent to assume that  $x$  is random over  $L_\lambda$  and  $\lambda^x = \lambda$ , or that  $x$  is random over  $L_\zeta$  and  $\zeta^x = \zeta$ . These equivalences follow immediately from the following result.

**THEOREM 4.5.** *The following conditions are equivalent for a real  $x$ .*

- (a)  $x$  is ITTM-random.
- (b)  $x$  is random over  $L_\Sigma$  and  $(\lambda^x, \zeta^x, \Sigma^x) = (\lambda, \zeta, \Sigma)$ .
- (c)  $x$  is random over  $L_{\lambda^x}$ .

**PROOF.** It follows from Theorem 4.4 that (a) implies (b) and this implies (c). The following argument by Philip Welch proves the implication from (c) to (a). If  $\lambda^x > \Sigma$ , then the conclusion follows from Lemma 3.8. We can hence assume that  $\lambda^x \leq \Sigma$ . Moreover, assume that  $x$  is random over  $L_{\lambda^x}$  and that  $x$  is in an ITTM-semidecidable set  $A$  that is given by a  $\Sigma_1$ -formula  $\varphi$ . Then  $L_{\lambda^x}[x] \models \varphi(x)$ . Hence some condition  $p$  forces  $\varphi(x)$  over  $L_{\lambda^x}$ . For any  $y \in [p]$ , we have  $L_{\lambda^y}[y] \prec_{\Sigma_1} L_{\Sigma^y}[y]$ ,  $\lambda^x \leq \Sigma \leq \Sigma^y$  and  $L_{\lambda^x}[y] \models \varphi(y)$ . Hence  $L_{\lambda^y}[y] \models \varphi(y)$  and thus  $y \in A$ . It follows that  $\mu(A) > 0$  and  $x$  must be ITTM-random.  $\dashv$

We obtain the following variant of Theorem 3.13.

**THEOREM 4.6.** *If  $x$  is computable from both  $y$  and  $z$  and  $y$  is ITTM-random in  $z$ , then  $x$  is computable. In particular, this holds if  $y$  and  $z$  are mutual ITTM-randoms.*

**PROOF.** Suppose that  $P(y) = Q(z) = x$ . Then  $A = \{u \mid P(u) = Q(z)\}$  is semidecidable in  $z$ . If  $\mu(A) > 0$ , then  $x$  is computable from all element of a set of positive measure and hence  $x$  is computable by Theorem 3.13. Suppose that  $\mu(A) = 0$ . Then  $y \notin A$ , since  $y$  is ITTM-random in  $z$ , contradicting the assumption that  $y \in A$ .  $\dashv$

**4.2. A decidable variant.** Martin-Löf suggested to study  $\Delta_1^1$ -random reals. The following variant of ITTM-randomness is an analogue to  $\Delta_1^1$ -randomness.

**DEFINITION 4.7.** A real is ITTM-decidable random if it is not an element of any decidable null set.

We now give a characterization of this notion. We call a real co-ITTM-random if it avoids the complement of every semidecidable set of measure 1. The following result is analogous to the equivalence of  $\Delta_1^1$ -random and  $\Sigma_1^1$ -random [11, Exercise 14.2.1].

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

- (a)  *$x$  is co-ITTM-random.*
- (b)  *$x$  is ITTM-decidable random.*
- (c)  *$x$  is random over  $L_\lambda$ .*

**PROOF.** The first implication is clear. For the second implication, note that since every Borel set with a Borel code in  $L_\lambda$  is ITTM-decidable, every ITTM-decidable random real  $x$  is random over  $L_\lambda$ .

For the remaining implication, suppose that  $x$  is random over  $L_\lambda$  and  $P$  is a program that decides the complement of a null set  $A$  with  $x \in A$ . Suppose that  $\dot{x}$  is the canonical name for the random real (note that this name is equal for randoms over arbitrary admissible sets). Relative to every random real  $y$  over  $L_{\Sigma+1}$ ,  $A$  is definable over  $L_\Sigma$ , since  $\Sigma^y = \Sigma$  by Theorem 3.8. Hence  $y \notin A$  and  $P(y)$  halts before  $\lambda^y = \lambda$  for any such real. Therefore in  $L_\Sigma$ , there is some  $\gamma$  (namely  $\lambda$ ) such that the Boolean value of the statement that  $P(\dot{x})$  halts strictly before  $\gamma$  is equal to 1. The existence of such an ordinal  $\gamma$  is a  $\Sigma_1$ -statement, hence there is such an ordinal  $\bar{\gamma} < \lambda$  such that the statement holds in  $L_\lambda$  for  $\bar{\gamma}$ , by  $\Sigma_1$ -reflection. Let  $A$  denote the Boolean value of the statement that  $P(\dot{x})$  halts before  $\bar{\gamma}$ . Then  $A$  is a Borel set with a Borel code in  $L_\lambda$  and  $\mu(A) = 1$ . Therefore  $x \in A$  and  $P(x)$  halts before  $\lambda$ , contradicting the assumption that  $x \in A$ . ⊥

Hence the distance between the analogues to  $\Delta_1^1$ -random and  $\Pi_1^1$ -random is larger than for the original notions.

**LEMMA 4.9.** *There is no universal ITTM-decidable random test.*

**PROOF.** Suppose that  $A$  is a universal ITTM-decidable random test. In particular, the complement of  $A$  is ITTM-semidecidable. By the characterization of ITTM-semidecidable reals in Lemma 3.4 and [25, Corollary 8], ITTM-semidecidable uniformization holds.<sup>4</sup> Therefore, every semidecidable set, in particular the complement of  $A$ , has a recognizable element. This contradicts the assumption that  $A$  is a universal test. ⊥

We call a program  $P$  *deciding* if  $P(x)$  halts for every input  $x$ . The following is a version of van Lambalgen’s theorem for ITTM-decidability.

**LEMMA 4.10.** *A real  $x$  is ITTM-decidable random and a real  $y$  is ITTM-decidable random relative to  $x$  if and only if  $x \oplus y$  is ITTM-decidable random.*

**PROOF.** Suppose that  $x \oplus y$  is ITTM-decidable random. The forward direction is a slight modification of the proof of von Lambalgen’s theorem for ITTMs in Lemma 4.3, so we omit it. In the other direction, the only missing piece is the following claim.

**CLAIM 4.11.** *Suppose that  $A$  is a decidable set given and  $A_x = \{y \mid x \oplus y \in A\}$  is null. Then there is a decidable set  $B$  such that  $A_x = B_x$  and all sections of  $B$  are null.*

**PROOF.** It was shown in the proof of Lemma 4.3 that the set

$$A_{>q} = \{u \mid \mu(A_u) > q\}$$

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<sup>4</sup>The proof of [25, Corollary 8] is a variant of the proof of  $\Pi_1^1$ -uniformization.

is semidecidable for all rationals  $q$ , uniformly in  $q$ , since the statement  $u \in A_{>q}$  is  $\Sigma_1$  over  $L_{\Sigma^u}$ . Since  $L_{\lambda^u} \prec_{\Sigma_1} L_{\Sigma^u}$ , this statement reflects to  $L_{\lambda^u}$ . Let

$$A_{\geq q} = \{u \mid \mu(A_u) \geq q\}.$$

Then the statement  $u \in A_{\geq q}$  is equivalent to  $u \in A_{>r}$  for unboundedly many rationals  $r < q$ . Since  $\lambda^u$  is  $u$ -admissible, this is a  $\Sigma_1$ -statement in  $u$  over  $L_{\lambda^u}$ . Hence  $A_{\geq q}$  is semidecidable, uniformly in  $q$ .

Therefore, if  $A$  is decidable, then  $A_{>q}$  and  $A_{\geq q}$  are semidecidable, uniformly in  $q$ . Using the fact that  $A_{=0} = \{u \mid \mu(A_u) = 0\}$  is decidable, it is easy to define a decidable set  $B$  as in the claim.  $\dashv$

This completes the proof of Lemma 4.10.  $\dashv$

Lemmas 4.8 and 4.10 immediately imply that  $x$  and  $y$  are mutually random over  $L_\lambda$  if and only if  $x$  is random over  $L_\lambda$  and  $y$  is random over  $L_{\lambda^x}$ .

The following variant of Lemma 4.6 for reals computable from two mutually randoms can be shown for the following stronger reduction. A *safe ITTM-reduction* of a real  $x$  to a real  $y$  is a deciding ITTM (i.e.,  $P$  halts on every input) with  $P(x) = y$ . We call reals  $x$  and  $y$  *mutually ITTM-decidable random* if  $x \oplus y$  is ITTM-decidable random.

**LEMMA 4.12.** *If  $x$  is safely ITTM-reducible both to  $y$  and  $z$ , and  $y$  and  $z$  are mutually ITTM-decidable random, then  $x$  is ITTM-computable.*

**PROOF.** Suppose that  $P$  is a safe reduction of  $x$  to  $y$  and  $Q$  is a safe reduction of  $x$  to  $z$ . Since  $P$  is a safe reduction, the set  $A = \{u \mid P(u) = Q(z)\}$  is ITTM-decidable relative to  $z$ . As  $P(y) = x = Q(z)$ ,  $y \in A$ . Since  $y$  is ITTM-decidable random relative to  $z$ ,  $A$  is not null. Then  $P$  computes  $x$  from all elements of a non-null Lebesgue measurable set, and hence  $x$  is computable by Theorem 3.13.  $\dashv$

Lemma 4.10 can be interpreted as the statement that  $x$  and  $y$  are mutually random (i.e.,  $x \oplus y$  is random) over  $L_\lambda$  if and only if  $x$  is random over  $L_\lambda$  and  $y$  is random over  $L_{\lambda^x}$ , by the relativized version of Lemma 4.8.

Intuitively, a random sequence should not be able to compute any noncomputable sequence with special properties, such as recognizable sequences. The following result confirms this.

**LEMMA 4.13.** *Any recognizable real  $x$  that is computable from an ITTM-random real  $y$  is already computable.*

**PROOF.** Suppose that  $P$  recognizes  $x$  and  $Q(y) = x$ . Then the set

$$A = \{z \mid P^{Q(z)} = 1\}$$

is semidecidable and contains  $y$ , where  $Q(z)$  is the output of the computation  $Q$  with input  $z$ . Note that  $x$  is computable from every element of  $A$  via  $Q$ . If  $A$  is not null, then  $x$  is computable by Theorem 3.13. If  $A$  is null, this contradicts the assumption that  $y$  is ITTM-random and thus avoids  $A$ .  $\dashv$

Hence there are real numbers that are not computable from any ITTM-random real, and therefore there is no analogue for ITTM-randoms to the Kučera-Gács theorem (see [12, Theorem 8.3.2]).

**REMARK 4.14.** The previous results and proofs relativize to reals. Moreover, they do not use any specific properties of Lebesgue measure and therefore hold

for arbitrary measures  $\nu$  with the property that the function that maps  $s \in 2^{<\omega}$  to  $\nu(N_s)$  is computable. Finally, most results in this section hold for genericity instead of randomness and for some other machine models, for instance ITRM-genericity [5].

**4.3. Comparison with a Martin-Löf type variant.** Hjorth and Nies introduced a  $\Pi_1^1$ -version of Martin-Löf randomness [16] and proved variants of the Levin–Schnorr theorem, the Kraft-Chaitin theorem and the coding theorem. In particular, they showed that  $\Pi_1^1$ -ML-randomness can be characterized by initial segment complexity. They further compared this notion with  $\Pi_1^1$ -randomness and observed that the latter is strictly stronger. It is therefore natural to consider an ITTM-variant of Martin-Löf randomness.

We first discuss analogues of the theorems of van Lambalgen and Levin–Schnorr for  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -random reals. In the following discussion, we will refer to [16, Section 3] and [3, Sections 1.1 and 3] and expect that the reader is familiar with the results and proofs there. Moreover, since the proofs mentioned below are minor modifications of the proofs in these articles without new ideas, we will only point out the differences to our setting.

Towards van Lambalgen’s theorem for  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -random reals, one defines a continuous relativization as in [3, Section 1.1] as follows. For any functional  $\Psi \subseteq 2^{<\omega} \times 2^{<\omega}$  and  $x \in 2^\omega$ , we let

$$\Psi^{(x)} = \bigcup \{t \mid \exists n < \omega (x \upharpoonright n, t) \in \Psi\}.$$

Moreover, a subset  $A$  of  ${}^\omega 2$  is called  $\text{ITTM}^{(x)}$ -semidecidable if  $A = \Psi^{(x)}$  for some ITTM-enumerable set  $\Psi$ . One then obtains the following result as in [3, Section 3].

**LEMMA 4.15.** *A real  $x \oplus y$  is  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -random if and only if  $x$  is  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -random and  $y$  is  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}^{(x)}$ -random.*

The difference in the proof is that  $\omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  is replaced with  $\lambda$  and the projectum function on  $\omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  is replaced with a projectum function on  $\lambda$ , i.e., an injective function  $p: \lambda \rightarrow \omega$  such that its graph is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable over  $L_\lambda$ . For instance, we may consider the function  $p$  which maps an ordinal  $\alpha < \lambda$  to the least program that writes a code for  $\alpha$ . Moreover, the need for a continuous relativization is discussed in detail in [3].

Towards a version of the Levin–Schnorr theorem for ITTMs, a standard argument shows that there is an effective list  $\langle M_d \mid d \in \omega \setminus \{0\} \rangle$  of all prefix-free ITTMs. Such a list can be defined effectively by replacing each ITTM  $P$  by a prefix-free ITTM  $\hat{P}$ , by simulating  $P$  on all inputs with increasing length. Given such a list, we obtain a universal prefix-free ITTM  $U$  by defining  $U(0^{d-1}1\sigma) = M_d(\sigma)$ . The ITTM-version of the prefix-free Kolmogorov–Solomonoff complexity is defined as

$$K(x) = K_U(x) = \min\{|\sigma| \mid U(\sigma) = x\}.$$

The following analogue to the Levin–Schnorr theorem, which characterize randomness via incompressibility, is proved as in [16, Theorem 3.9], by replacing  $\omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  with  $\lambda$ .

**THEOREM 4.16.** *The following properties are equivalent for infinite strings  $x$ .*

- (a)  $x$  is  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -random.
- (b)  $\exists b \forall n K(x \upharpoonright n) > n - b$ .

We now compare the introduced randomness notion with  $\Pi_1^1$ -randomness. It is easy to see that there is an ITTM-writable  $\Pi_1^1$ -random real. For example, let  $x$  be the  $<_L$ -least real that is random over  $L_{\omega_1^{\text{ck}}+1}$ . Since  $L_\lambda$  is admissible and  $\omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  is countable in  $L_\lambda$ ,  $x \in L_\lambda$  and hence  $x$  is ITTM-writable. Moreover,  $x$  is  $\Pi_1^1$ -random by Lemmas 2.11 and 2.13.

The next results show that  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -random is strictly between  $\Pi_1^1$ -random and ITTM-random. For the next lemma, recall that a real  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  is called *left- $\Pi_1^1$*  if the set  $\{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid q \leq r\}$  is  $\Pi_1^1$ . We give a short proof of this result for the benefit of the reader.

LEMMA 4.17 (Tanaka, see [20, Section 2.2 page 15]). *The measure of  $\Pi_1^1$  sets is uniformly left- $\Pi_1^1$ .*

PROOF. Using the Gandy–Spector theorem and Sacks' theorem that the set of reals  $x$  with  $\omega_1^x = \omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  has full measure (see Lemma 2.11), we can associate to a given  $\Pi_1^1$  set a sequence of length  $\omega_1^{\text{ck}}$  of hyperarithmetic subsets, such that their union approximates the set up to measure 0. This shows that the measure is left- $\Pi_1^1$ . Moreover, in the proof of the Gandy–Spector theorem (see [14, Theorem 5.5]) for a  $\Pi_1^1$  set  ${}^\omega 2 \setminus p[T]$ , the  $\Sigma_1$ -formula states that  $T_x$  is well-founded, and hence the parameter in the formula is uniformly computable from  $T$ , and the assignment is uniform.  $\dashv$

LEMMA 4.18. *Every ITTM-random real is  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -random and every  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -random real is  $\Pi_1^1$ -random.*

PROOF. The first implication is obvious. For the second implication, suppose that  $A = p[T]$  is a  $\Sigma_1^1$ . Using Lemma 4.17, we can inductively build finitely splitting subtrees  $S_n$  of  $T$  with  $\mu([T] \setminus [S_n]) \leq 2^{-n}$ , uniformly in  $n$ . Moreover, this sequence can be written by an ITTM.  $\dashv$

**§5. Questions.** We conclude with several open questions about the properties of randomness notions. The following question asks if a property of ML-random reals and  $\Delta_1^1$ -random reals (see [11, Theorem 14.1.10]) holds in this setting.

QUESTION 5.1. *Is  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -randomness strictly stronger than randomness over  $L_\lambda$ ?*

The fact that  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -randomness is strictly stronger than  $\Pi_1^1$ -randomness suggests an analogue for  $\Sigma_n$ -hypermachines [13].

QUESTION 5.2. *Is every ML-random real with respect to  $\Sigma_{n+1}$ -hypermachines already semidecidable random with respect to  $\Sigma_n$ -hypermachines?*

Since the complexity of the set of  $\Pi_1^1$ -randoms is  $\Pi_3^0$  [22, Corollary 27] and this is optimal (see [22, Theorem 28] and [29]), this suggests the following question.

QUESTION 5.3. *What is the Borel complexity of the set of ITTM-random reals?*

The set NCR is defined as the set of reals that are not random with respect to any continuous measure. It is known that this set has different properties in the hyperarithmetic setting [10] and for randomness over the constructible universe  $L$  [30].

QUESTION 5.4. *Is there a concrete description of the set NCR, defined with respect to ITTM-randomness?*

Moreover, it is open whether Theorem 4.6 fails for  $\text{ITTM}_{\text{ML}}$ -randomness. More precisely, we can ask for an analogue to the counterexample or ML-randomness (see [23, Section 5.3]).

**QUESTION 5.5.** *Let  $\Omega_0$  and  $\Omega_1$  denote the halves of the ITTM-version of Chaitin's  $\Omega$  (i.e., the halting probability for a universal prefix-free machine). Is some noncomputable real computable from both  $\Omega_0$  and  $\Omega_1$ ?*

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