# TWO MORE CHARACTERIZATIONS OF K-TRIVIALITY

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ABSTRACT. We give two new characterizations of K-triviality. We show that if for all Y such that  $\Omega$  is Y-random,  $\Omega$  is  $(Y \oplus A)$ -random, then A is K-trivial. The other direction was proved by Stephan and Yu, giving us the first titular characterization of K-triviality and answering a question of Yu. We also prove that if A is K-trivial, then for all Y such that  $\Omega$  is Y-random,  $(Y \oplus A) \equiv_{\rm LR} Y$ . This answers a question of Merkle and Yu. The other direction is immediate, so we have the second characterization of K-triviality.

The proof of the first characterization uses a new cupping result. We prove that if  $A \not\leq_{\text{LR}} B$ , then for every set X there is a B-random set Y such that X is computable from  $Y \oplus A$ .

# 1. Preliminaries

We assume that the reader is familiar with basic notions from computability theory and effective randomness. For more information on these topics, we recommend either Nies [12] or Downey and Hirschfeldt [4].

The K-trivial sets have played an important role in the development of effective randomness. A set  $A \in 2^{\omega}$  is K-trivial if  $K(A \upharpoonright n) \leq^+ K(n)$ , where K denotes prefix-free Kolmogorov complexity. Chaitin [1] proved that such sets are always  $\Delta_2^0$ , while Solovay [16] constructed a noncomputable K-trivial set. Although these results date back to the 1970s, the importance of K-triviality did not become apparent until the 2000s, when several nontrivial characterizations were discovered. In particular:

**Theorem 1.1** (Nies [11]; Hirschfeldt, Nies, and Stephan [6]). The following are equivalent for a set  $A \in 2^{\omega}$ :

- (a) A is K-trivial,
- (b) A is low for K:  $K^A(n) \ge^+ K(n)$ ,
- (c) A is low for randomness: every random set is A-random,<sup>1</sup>
- (d) A is a base for randomness: there is an A-random set  $X \geq_{\mathrm{T}} A$ .

Nies [11] generalized (c) to LR-*reducibility*: we write  $A \leq_{\text{LR}} B$  to mean that every *B*-random set is *A*-random. In particular,  $A \leq_{\text{LR}} \emptyset$  means that *A* is low for randomness (hence *K*-trivial).

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Throughout this paper, we consistently use *random* to mean Martin-Löf random.

### 2 NOAM GREENBERG, JOSEPH S. MILLER, BENOIT MONIN, AND DANIEL TURETSKY

Much more has been proved about the K-trivial sets, including many other characterizations. We give two more. Our results relate to a weakening of lowness for randomness. If X is random, then we say that Y is *low for* X if X is Y-random. This notion was introduced in [6], where it is shown that a set is K-trivial if and only if it is  $\Delta_2^0$  and low for Chaitin's  $\Omega$ . However, many other sets are low for  $\Omega$ ; for example, every 2-random set.

The following recent result regarding K-triviality and lowness for  $\Omega$  was used by Stephan and Yu to prove one direction of our first characterization (see the discussion before Proposition 3.2). We will need it in the proof of Lemma 3.4.

**Theorem 1.2** (Simpson and Stephan [15, Theorem 3.11]). If S has PA degree and is low for  $\Omega$ , then S computes every K-trivial.

In addition to these facts about the K-trivial sets, we will use several fairly well-known theorems from effective randomness. Van Lambalgen's theorem [17] says that  $X \oplus Y$  is random if and only if X is random and Y is X-random. Two applications allow us to show that if X is random and Y is X-random, then X is Y-random. Every set is computable from some random set. Relativizing this to X:

**Theorem 1.3** (Kučera [9]; Gács [5]). For any sets X and C, there is an X-random set Y such that  $C \leq_{\mathrm{T}} Y \oplus X$ .

Any random set Turing below a Z-random set is also Z-random. Relativizing this to Y:

**Theorem 1.4** (Miller and Yu [10, Theorem 4.3]). Assume that  $X \leq_{\mathrm{T}} W \oplus Y$ , X is Y-random, and W is  $Z \oplus Y$ -random. Then X is  $Z \oplus Y$ -random.

Finally, we will use the relativized form of the "randomness preservation" basis theorem:

**Theorem 1.5** (Downey, Hirschfeldt, Miller, Nies [3]; Reimann and Slaman [14]). If W is Y-random and P is a nonempty  $\Pi_1^0[Y]$  class, then there is a set  $S \in P$  that is low for W.

### 2. Cupping with B-random sets

As promised in the abstract, we prove the following cupping result.

**Theorem 2.1.** Assume that  $A \not\leq_{\text{LR}} B$ . Then for any set X, there is a B-random set Y such that  $X \leq_{\text{T}} Y \oplus A$  (in fact, we make Y weakly 2-random relative to B).

This theorem should be compared to the work of Day and Miller [2]. They proved that a set A is not K-trivial if and only if there is a random set  $Y \not\geq_{\mathrm{T}} \emptyset'$  such that  $\emptyset' \leq_{\mathrm{T}} Y \oplus A$ . Note that one direction of this follows from Theorem 2.1 by taking  $B = \emptyset$  and  $X = \emptyset'$ . This is because A is not K-trivial if and only if  $A \not\leq_{\mathrm{LR}} \emptyset$ , and if Y is weakly 2-random, then  $Y \not\geq_{\mathrm{T}} \emptyset'$ . Day and Miller generalized this basic cupping result by adding requirements to control the degrees of Y' and  $Y \oplus A$ . Theorem 2.1 offers a different generalization.

Our proof uses a result of Kjos-Hanssen. We state it here in a slightly stronger form than he stated it, though without adding any essential content.

**Theorem 2.2** (Kjos-Hanssen [8]).  $A \not\leq_{\text{LR}} B$  if and only if there is a  $\Sigma_1^0[A]$  class U of measure less than one that intersects every positive measure  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  class. Furthermore, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we can ensure that  $\lambda(U) < \varepsilon$ .

Kjos-Hanssen showed that  $A \leq_{\text{LR}} B$  if and only if each  $\Pi_1^0[A]$  class of positive measure has a  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  subclass of positive measure.<sup>2</sup> Taking the contrapositive:  $A \not\leq_{\text{LR}} B$  if and only if there is a  $\Pi_1^0[A]$  class T of positive measure that does not have a positive measure  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  subclass. So  $U = 2^{\omega} \smallsetminus T$  would be a  $\Sigma_1^0[A]$  class of measure less than one that intersects every positive measure  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  class.

The fact that U can be taken to have arbitrarily small measure also follows from the work in [8]. We use this fact below, so for completness, we sketch the argument. Assume that  $A \not\leq_{\text{LR}} B$ . So there is a *B*-random set *X* that is not *A*-random. Let *U* be a  $\Sigma_1^0[A]$  class containing every non-*A*-random set. We may assume, of course, that the measure of *U* is as small as we like. Let *P* be a positive measure  $\Pi_1^0[B]$ class. Relativizing a result of Kučera [9], every *B*-random set has a tail in *P*, so there is a tail *Y* of *X* in *P*. But *Y* is not *A*-random, so  $Y \in U$ .<sup>3</sup>

We need some basic notation for the proof of Theorem 2.1. If  $P \subseteq 2^{\omega}$  is measurable and  $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$ , let  $\lambda(P \mid \sigma)$  denote the *relative measure of* P *in*  $[\sigma]$ , i.e.,  $\lambda(P \cap [\sigma])/\lambda([\sigma])$ . If  $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$  and  $W \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ , let  $\sigma W = \{\sigma \tau : \tau \in W\}$ .

Proof of Theorem 2.1. Suppose that  $A \not\leq_{\mathrm{LR}} B$ . By Theorem 2.2, there is a  $\Sigma_1^0[A]$  class U such that  $\lambda(U) < 0.1$  and U intersects every positive measure  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  class. Let W be an A-c.e. prefix-free set of strings such that  $U = [W]^{\prec}$ .

Let X be any set. We will construct  $Y = X(0)\sigma_0 X(1)\sigma_1 X(2)\sigma_2 \cdots$  such that each  $\sigma_i \in W$ . In this way, it is clear that  $X \leq_T Y \oplus A$ . To ensure that Y is weakly 2-random relative to B, we build it inside a nested sequence of  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  classes  $P_n$ of positive measure such that  $\bigcap_{n \in \omega} P_n$  is a subset of every  $\Sigma_1^0[B]$  class of measure one. The following claim will let us hit W and code the next bit of X while staying inside the current  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  class.

Claim. For any string  $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$  and any  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  class P such that  $\lambda(P \mid \sigma) > 0.1$ , there is a  $\tau \succeq \sigma$  such that  $\tau \in \sigma W$  and  $\lambda(P \mid \tau) \ge 0.8$ .

*Proof.* We first extend  $\sigma$  to a string  $\rho$  that has no prefix in  $\sigma W$  and such that  $\lambda(P \mid \rho) > 0.9$ . Let  $Q = 2^{\omega} \smallsetminus [\sigma W]^{\prec}$ . As  $\lambda(Q \mid \sigma) > 0.9$  and  $\lambda(P \mid \sigma) > 0.1$ , we have  $\lambda(Q \cap P \mid \sigma) > 0$ . By the Lebesgue density theorem, there is a  $\rho \succeq \sigma$  such that  $\lambda(Q \cap P \mid \rho) > 0.9$ . In particular,  $\lambda(P \mid \rho) > 0.9$  and  $\lambda(Q \mid \rho) > 0.9$ ; the latter implies that  $\rho$  cannot have a prefix in  $\sigma W$ .

We now extend  $\rho$  to a string  $\tau$  satisfying the claim:  $\tau \in \sigma W$  and  $\lambda(P \mid \tau) \geq 0.8$ . Consider the  $\Pi_1^0(B)$  class  $\tilde{P} = \{X \in P \cap [\rho] : (\forall n \geq |\rho|) \ \lambda(P \mid X \upharpoonright n) \geq 0.8\}$ . In words,  $\tilde{P}$  is the subclass of  $P \cap [\rho]$  in which we remove every basic neighborhood inside  $[\rho]$  where the relative measure of P drops below 0.8. It is not hard to show that we remove at most 0.8 from the relative measure of  $P \cap [\rho]$  inside  $[\rho]$  (consider the antichain of maximal basic neighborhoods that are removed). But  $\lambda(P \mid \rho) > 0.9$ , so  $\lambda(\tilde{P} \mid \rho) > 0.1$ . In particular,  $\tilde{P}$  is a positive measure subclass of  $[\sigma]$ , so by the choice of  $U = [W]^{\prec}$ , it must be the case that  $[\sigma W]^{\prec}$  intersects  $\tilde{P}$ . Take  $\tau \in \sigma W$  such that  $\tilde{P} \cap [\tau] \neq \emptyset$ . By the definition of  $\tilde{P}$ , we have  $\lambda(P \mid \tau) \geq 0.8$ .  $\diamondsuit$ 

We are ready to construct Y. We will construct it as the limit of a sequence  $\tau_0 \leq \tau_1 \leq \tau_2 \leq \cdots$  of strings, while staying inside a decreasing sequence  $P_0 \supseteq$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>This partial relativization of [8, Theorem 2.10] is stated in the proof of [8, Theorem 3.2].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>In fact,  $U \cap P$  has positive measure. Choose  $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$  such that  $Y \in [\sigma] \subseteq U$ . Then  $\tilde{P} = P \cap [\sigma] \subseteq P \cap U$  is a  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  class. Since it contains Y, which is *B*-random, it cannot have measure zero.

 $P_1 \supseteq P_2 \supseteq \cdots$  of  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  classes. Let  $P_0 = 2^{\omega}$  and let  $\tau_0$  be the empty string. We start stage *n* of the construction with a  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  class  $P_n$  and a string  $\tau_n = X(0)\sigma_0 X(1)\cdots X(n-1)\sigma_{n-1}$  such that

$$(\star) \qquad \qquad \lambda(P_n \mid \tau_n X(n)) > 0.1.$$

(Note that this is true at stage 0.) First, we want to make progress towards Y being weakly 2-random relative to B. Let  $\bigcup_{m \in \omega} R_m$  be the *n*th  $\Sigma_2^0[B]$  class of measure one, where  $R_0 \subseteq R_1 \subseteq R_2 \subseteq \cdots$  is a nested sequence of  $\Pi_1^0[B]$  classes. Pick *m* large enough that  $\lambda(P_n \cap R_m \mid \tau_n X(n)) > 0.1$  and let  $P_{n+1} = P_n \cap R_m$ . So as long as we ensure that  $Y \in P_{n+1}$ , we have ensured that Y is in the *n*th  $\Sigma_2^0[B]$  class of measure one. Now apply the claim to get  $\tau_{n+1} \succeq \tau_n X(n)$  such that  $\lambda(P_{n+1} \mid \tau_{n+1}) \ge 0.8$  and  $\tau_{n+1} \in \tau_n X(n)W$ . Let  $\sigma_n$  be the string for which  $\tau_{n+1} = \tau_n X(n)\sigma_n$ ; in particular,  $\sigma_n \in W$ . Note that  $\lambda(P_{n+1} \mid \tau_{n+1}X(n+1)) \ge 0.6 > 0.1$ , so ( $\star$ ) holds at stage n+1.

Let  $Y = \bigcup_{n \in \omega} \tau_n = X(0)\sigma_0 X(1)\sigma_1 X(2)\sigma_2 \cdots$ . As promised, each  $\sigma_i$  is in W, so  $X \leq_{\mathrm{T}} Y \oplus A$ . By construction,  $P_0 \supseteq P_1 \supseteq P_2 \supseteq \cdots$ , and each  $\tau_n$  can be extended to an element of  $P_n$ . Therefore,  $Y \in \bigcap_{n \in \omega} P_n$ . This ensures that Y is in every  $\Sigma_2^0[B]$  class of measure one, so Y is weakly 2-random relative to B.

3. Low for X preserving

# **Definition 3.1.** Let X be random. A set A is low for X preserving if for all Y,

Y is low for  $X \implies Y \oplus A$  is low for X.

This notion was recently introduced by Yu Liang, who called it *absolutely low* for X. Stephan and Yu proved that every K-trivial is low for  $\Omega$  preserving (see [7, Fact 1.8]). Yu asked if the converse is true: if a set is low for  $\Omega$  preserving, is it K-trivial? We show that this holds.

### **Proposition 3.2.** If X is random, then low for X preserving implies K-triviality.

*Proof.* Assume that A is low for X preserving.

First, we claim that  $A \leq_{\text{LR}} X$ . If not, then Theorem 2.1 gives us an X-random set Y such that  $X \leq_{\text{T}} Y \oplus A$ . By Van Lambalgen's theorem, X is Y-random. But  $X \leq_{\text{T}} Y \oplus A$  implies that X is not  $(Y \oplus A)$ -random. This contradicts the assumption that A is low for X preserving. Therefore,  $A \leq_{\text{LR}} X$ .

By Theorem 1.3, there is an X-random set Y such that  $A \leq_T Y \oplus X$ . By Van Lambalgen's theorem, X is Y-random and because A is low for X preserving, we have that X is  $(Y \oplus A)$ -random. Furthermore, because Y is X-random and  $A \leq_{\text{LR}} X$ , we know that Y is A-random. Therefore, by Van Lambalgen's theorem relative to A,  $Y \oplus X$  is A-random. But  $Y \oplus X$  computes A, so A is a base for randomness. Therefore, it is K-trivial (see Theorem 1.1).

Together with the result of Stephan and Yu, we get a new characterization of K-triviality.

# **Theorem 3.3.** A set A is K-trivial if and only if it is low for $\Omega$ preserving.

Our next lemma can be viewed as a slight generalization of Stephan and Yu's result. Assume that A is K-trivial and Y is low for  $\Omega$ . Stephan and Yu showed that  $Y \oplus A$  is also low for  $\Omega$ . Merkle and Yu [7, Question 1.11] asked if, in fact,  $Y \oplus A$  has exactly the same derandomizing power as Y. This is the case:

**Lemma 3.4.** If A is K-trivial and Y is low for  $\Omega$ , then  $Y \equiv_{LR} (Y \oplus A)$ .

Proof. Let A be K-trivial and Y be low for  $\Omega$ . Let X be any Y-random. By Theorem 1.3, there is a Y-random set W such that both  $\Omega$  and X are computable from  $W \oplus Y$ . There is a nonempty  $\Pi_1^0[Y]$  class containing only members with PA degree relative to Y. So by Theorem 1.5, there is a low for W set S with PA degree relative to Y. Thus W is S-random and  $Y \leq_{\mathrm{T}} S$ . By Theorem 1.4, both X and  $\Omega$  are also S-random. Since S has PA degree and is low for  $\Omega$ , by Theorem 1.2, S computes every K-trivial. In particular,  $A \leq_{\mathrm{T}} S$ . Because  $Y \oplus A \leq_{\mathrm{T}} S$  and X is S-random, X is  $Y \oplus A$ -random. But X was any Y-random set, so  $Y \equiv_{\mathrm{LR}} Y \oplus A$ .  $\Box$ 

The converse to Lemma 3.4 is easy, giving us our second characterization of K-triviality.

**Theorem 3.5.** A set A is K-trivial if and only if for all Y

 $Y \text{ is low for } \Omega \implies Y \equiv_{\mathrm{LR}} (Y \oplus A).$ 

*Proof.* One direction is Lemma 3.4. For the other direction, assume that A has the given property. Note  $\Omega$  is  $\emptyset$ -random, so  $\emptyset \equiv_{\mathrm{LR}} \emptyset \oplus A \equiv_{\mathrm{LR}} A$ . In other words, A is low for randomness, hence K-trivial (see Theorem 1.1).

It is natural to ask if low for X preserving is equivalent to K-triviality for all random X. As we shall see, this is not the case, though it is true for some X.

**Proposition 3.6.** If  $\Omega \leq_{\mathrm{T}} X$  and X is random, then low for X preserving is equivalent to K-triviality.

*Proof.* One direction is given by Proposition 3.2. For the other direction, let A be K-trivial and take any Y such that X is Y-random. By (the unrelativized form of) Theorem 1.4,  $\Omega$  is also Y-random. By Lemma 3.4,  $Y \equiv_{\text{LR}} (Y \oplus A)$ . Therefore, X is  $(Y \oplus A)$ -random.

For certain other X, low for X preserving is equivalent to being computable.

**Proposition 3.7.** If X is Schnorr[ $\emptyset$ '] random but not 2-random, then only the computable sets are low for X preserving.

*Proof.* We prove the contrapositive. Assume that A is not computable. If A is not  $\Delta_2^0$ , then it is not K-trivial, hence by Proposition 3.2, it is not low for X preserving. So assume that A is  $\Delta_2^0$ . By Posner–Robinson [13], there is a low set Y such that  $Y \oplus A \equiv_T \emptyset'$ . Because X is Schnorr $[\emptyset']$  random, it is random relative to any low set,<sup>4</sup> so it is Y-random. But X is not 2-random, so it is not  $(Y \oplus A)$ -random. Therefore, A is not low for X preserving.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>In fact, this property characterizes Schnorr $[\emptyset']$  randomness: Yu [18] showed that X is Schnorr $[\emptyset']$  random if and only if X is Z-random for every low set Z.

- 6 NOAM GREENBERG, JOSEPH S. MILLER, BENOIT MONIN, AND DANIEL TURETSKY
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