## GENERICITY AND RANDOMNESS WITH ITTMS

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Abstract. We study genericity and randomness with respect to ITTMs, continuing the work initiated by Carl and Schlicht. To do so, we develop a framework to study randomness in the constructible hierarchy. We then answer several of Carl and Schlicht's question. We also ask a new question one the equality of two classes of randoms. Although the natural intuition would dictate that the two classes are distinct, we show that things are not as simple as they seem. In particular we show that the categorical analogues of these two classes coincide, in contradiction with the natural intuition. Even though we are not able to answer the question for randomness in this paper, we delineate and sharpen its contour and outline.

## §1. Introduction.

**1.1. Background.** The study of Infinite-Time Turing machines, ITTMs for short, goes back to a paper by Hamkins and Lewis [14]. Informally these machines work like regular Turing machines, with the addition that the time of computation can be any ordinal. Special rules are then defined to specify what happens at a limit step of computation.

This simple computational model yields several new non-trivial classes of objects, the first one being the class of objects which are computable using some ITTM. These classes have been later well understood and characterized by Welch [24]. ITTMs are not the first attempt of extending computability notions. This was done previously for instance with  $\alpha$ -recursion theory, an extension of recursion theory to  $\Sigma_1$ -definability of subsets of ordinals, within initial segments of the Gödel constructible hierarchy. Even though  $\alpha$ -recursion theory is defined in a rather abstract way, the specialists have a good intuition of what "compute" means in this setting, and this intuition relies on the rough idea of "some" informal machine carrying computation times through the ordinal. ITTMs appeared all the more interesting, as they consist of a precise machine model that corresponds to part of  $\alpha$ -recursion theory. It is worthy to note that there is now an exact characterization of  $\alpha$ -recursion via machine models due to Koepke and Seyfferth, using variants of ITTMs with an ordinal tape, in [17].

Recently Carl and Schlicht used the ITTM model to extend algorithmic randomness [6] and effective genericity notions [5] in this setting. Genericity and randomness are two different approaches to study typical objects, that is, objects having "all the typical properties" for some notion of typicality. For randomness, a property is typical if the class of reals sharing it is of measure 1, whereas for genericity, a property is typical if the class of reals sharing it is co-meager. In both cases, for any countable collection of typical properties, it is still a typical property to share all of them: the intersection of countably many measure-one sets is still a measure-one set, and the intersection of countably many co-meager sets is still a co-meager set. Depending on the countably many properties we consider, the reals that share all of them may be of great interest, in forcing constructions or to study various notions of degrees, from Turing to  $\alpha$ -degrees.

Algorithmic randomness has known an impressive development during the past twenty years. A very rich theory emerged, as a complex and beautiful answer to the original philosophical question of what are random objects. Just like recursion theory had been extended to higher recursion theory, to  $\alpha$ -recursion theory and to the theory of ITTMs, algorithmic randomness is meant to know a similar development. This has been started with Higher randomness by Hjorth and Nies [16], Chong and Yu [7] [8] and Bienvenu, Greenberg and Monin [13] [3] [21]. Recently this was extended to ITTMs by Carl and Schlicht [6]. The goal of this paper is first to pursue their work.

**1.2.** About this paper. We answer in this paper several open questions of Carl and Schlicht, and we ask new ones. This paper also aims at developing a framework that can be used in general to study randomness and genericity within Gödel's constructible hierarchy. For this reason, the first half of the paper focuses on recalling the main results (in Section 2) and on developing this framework (in Section 3). We include these rather long sections to the paper, in order to make it as self-contained as possible: it is meant to be readable by the trained logician, not necessarily familiar with ITTMs or constructibility. However some formal details of Section 2 and Section 3 may be a bit tedious to read, and there is no way around that. Any recursion theorist may have struggled in its early days to read all the technical details on the equivalence between various models of computations, and developed after that a very solid intuition of what is computable, without the necessity of coming back every time to the formal definitions. Also the reader who is not familiar with constructibility will certainly need to furnish a similar effort with some proof of Section 3 and maybe also Section 2, whereas the reader who is used to it will certainly have no problem admitting these theorems without reading the proofs. Despite the difficulties inherent to the material presented here, we tried as much as possible never to confuse rigor and formalism, by ensuring the former without getting trapped in the latter.

In Section 4, even though we answer several questions of [6], we feel that this section's main achievement is not there, but more in a new question (Question 4.9) that we ask on the separation of two randomness notions defined by Carl and Schlicht. It seems so clear at first that the two notions should be different, that the question was not asked so far. The reason is certainly that the analogues of this two notions in Higher randomness actually differ for simple reasons. We emphasize here that things are not so simple in the settings of ITTMs, and we show that the two notions are much closer than we think, even though we are not able to settle the question.

This question was the original motivation for Section 5: In order to argue that it is not absurd to think that these two randomness notions may actually coincide, we show that it is the case for their categorical analogues. Note that the versions of these analogues with Higher genericity are also known to differ for simple reasons, like it is the case with randomness. In some sense, Theorem 5.13 that shows equality of these notions, may actually be the most important of this paper: it uses the new phenomenons that occur within some levels of the constructible hierarchy to show that two classes collapse in a very unexpected way. Despite that, we decided to leave this section at the end, so that the paper follows the logic exposed so far, that we now sum up:

In Section 2 we expose the background (with a few original results such as Theorem 2.29 to Theorem 2.31), in Section 3 we develop a general framework to study randomness in any limit level of the constructible hierarchy, in Section 4 we study randomness notions with respect to ITTMs, focusing first on the question we mentioned above and proving several results meant to delineate and sharpen the contour and outline of this question. In this same section we then answer several questions of [6], the most interesting theorem about that being maybe Theorem 4.22. In Section 5 we then define and study, in the setting of ITTMs, the categorical analogues of the studied randomness notions. The section focuses on answering for categoricity the question that is still too hard in the randomness case.

§2. Background. Ordinals will be denoted by letters  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ . Ordinals will sometimes be seen as computation times, in which case they might also be denoted by letters r, s, t. Reals will be denoted by letters x, y, z, which will also denotes sometimes constructible sets. Integers will be denoted by letters n, m, k, i, j, e.

**2.1. Infinite-Time Turing machines.** We first briefly recall the three-tapes ITTM model as it was introduced in [14]. We then argue that this model is *essentially* equivalent, to a one-tape machine model that is the one we are going to use in this paper.

**2.1.1.** The three-tape machine model. In the three-tapes ITTM model, machines have an input tape, a working tape and an output tape. The input tape is meant to contain an oracle the machine can use during its computation, the working tape is where the machine is meant to perform its computation, and the output tape is where the machine is meant to write the result of its computation. Each tape is a sequence of cells indexed by  $\omega$ .

The head of the machine reads simultaneously the *n*-th value of the three tapes altogether. At a successor step of computation, the behavior is as the one of a standard Turing machine: Given the current state of the machine and given the values read by the head, it may write something where it is, then goes left or right, and the machine may change state, all according to a finite set of transition rules fixed in advance and which determines the machine.

At a limit step of computation, the machine enters a special "limit" state, the head goes back to the first cell, and the value of each cell is the lim inf of its previous values: if the value of a cell converges, it is set to its value of convergence, otherwise it is set to 0. Every machine also has a halting state. Whenever a machine enters this state, it stops.

**2.1.2.** The one-tape machine model. It will be convenient here to consider a one tape infinite-time Turing machine instead of a three-tapes infinite-time

Turing machine: it is not very hard to see that any three-tape ITTM M can be simulated by a one-tape ITTM N, where the *n*-th cell of M's input tape corresponds to 3n-th cell of N, the *n*-th cell of M's working tape corresponds to the (3n + 1)-th cell of N, and the *n*-th cell of M's output tape corresponds to (3n + 2)-th cell of N.

This is done formally in [15, Lemma 1.1]. Note that if one starts with the tape fully filled with the oracle, instead of filled only the part corresponding to the input tape of the three-tapes model, the equivalence between the one-tape model and the three-tapes model breaks. This is studied in [15]. Here this is not the case, and we work with the one-tape machine model as if it was the three-tape one, but with all the tapes condensed in one.

**2.1.3.** Notations. Given an ITTM M, we write  $M(x) \downarrow [\alpha]$  if the machine M starts with the real x on its input tape, and if M enters its halting state at stage  $\alpha + 1$ . Furthermore if at stage  $\alpha$  the real y is written on the output tape, we write  $M(x) \downarrow [\alpha] = y$ . We also write  $M(x)[\alpha] = y$  if at stage  $\alpha$  the real y is written on M's output tape (and the machine does not necessarily halt). If the machine M starts with its input tape empty, we simply write  $M \downarrow [\alpha] = y$  and  $M[\alpha] = y$ .

Given an ITTM M, we denote by  $C_M(n)[\alpha]$  the value (0 or 1) of the cell number n of M at stage  $\alpha$  (when M starts with the empty set on its input tape). We denote by  $C_M[\alpha]$  the sequence of values of all the cells at stage  $\alpha$ . The value  $C_M[\alpha]$ , together with the state of the machine and the position of its head, at stage  $\alpha$ , is called the *configuration* of the ITTM at stage  $\alpha$ . Note that at a limit stage  $\alpha$ , the configuration of an ITTM depends only of  $C_M[\alpha]$  (the head always being at the first cell and the state always being the limit state).

Finally it is straightforward, though tedious, to show that there is a universal ITTM, that simulates in parallel all the ITTMs (see [14] or [24]). This universal ITTM will be denoted by U.

**2.1.4.** Main theorems.

DEFINITION 2.1 (Hamkins, Lewis [14]). Let  $y \in 2^{\omega}$ .

- The real y is writable if there is an ITTM M such that  $M \downarrow [\alpha] = y$ .
- The real y is eventually writable if there is an ITTM M and an ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $\forall \beta \geq \alpha$  we have  $M[\beta] = y$ .
- The real y is accidentally writable if there is an ITTM M and a stage  $\alpha$  such that  $M[\alpha] = y$ .

For  $x \in 2^{\omega}$  we define the notions of x-writable, x-eventually writable and x-accidentally writable similarly, but with the ITTMs starting with x on their input tape.

Hamkins and Lewis introduced the three previous analogues of being computable by an ITTM. They used these notions to study the ordinals that are computable by an ITTM, with respect to these definitions. In what follows, we use the following coding system of countable ordinals by reals:  $x \in 2^{\omega}$  codes for  $\alpha$  if the order type of  $\langle x \rangle$  is the order-type of  $\alpha$ , where  $n \langle x \rangle$  iff  $\langle n, m \rangle \in x$ , where  $\langle , \rangle : \omega^2 \to \omega$  is fixed a computable bijection. We say that such a real x is a code for  $\alpha$ . DEFINITION 2.2 (Hamkins, Lewis [14]). An ordinal  $\alpha$  is writable, resp. eventually writable, resp. accidentally writable, if it has a writable code, resp. an eventually writable code, resp. an accidentally writable code. For  $x \in 2^{\omega}$  we define analogously the notion of x-writable, x-eventually writable and x-accidentally writable.

It is clear that the writable, eventually writable, and accidentally writable ordinals, are all initial segments of the ordinals. Hamkins and Lewis showed that the supremum of the writable ordinals was eventually writable and that the supremum of the eventually writable ordinals was accidentally writable.

DEFINITION 2.3 (Hamkins, Lewis [14]). We define the following ordinals:

- $\lambda$  is the supremum of the writable ordinals.
- $\zeta$  is the supremum of the eventually writable ordinals.
- $\Sigma$  is the supremum of the accidentally writable ordinals.

 $\lambda^x, \zeta^x, \Sigma^x$  are defined the same way but relative to x.

Hamkins and Lewis also defined the clockable ordinals: an ordinal  $\alpha$  is clockable if it is the halting time of some ITTM M, that is,  $M \downarrow [\alpha]$ . It is clear that the supremum of the clockable ordinals is at least  $\lambda$ : if an ordinal  $\alpha$  is writable, one can design the machine that writes  $\alpha$  and then "counts down  $\alpha$ " in at least  $\alpha$ steps <sup>1</sup>. The question of equality between  $\lambda$  and the supremum of the clockable ordinals was one of the main question in Hamkins and Lewis [14]. It was later solved by Welch:

THEOREM 2.4 (Welch [24]). Let M be an ITTM.

- 1. If  $\{C_M(n)[\alpha]\}_{\alpha < \lambda}$  converges to  $i \in \{0,1\}$ , then  $C_M(n)[\alpha] = i$  for every  $\alpha \ge \lambda$ .
- 2. If  $\{C_M(n)[\alpha]\}_{\alpha < \zeta}$  converges to  $i \in \{0,1\}$ , then  $C_M(n)[\alpha] = i$  for every  $\alpha \ge \zeta$ .
- 3. If  $\{C_M(n)[\alpha]\}_{\alpha < \zeta}$  diverges iff  $\{C_M(n)[\alpha]\}_{\alpha < \Sigma}$  diverges.

We have in particular  $C_M[\zeta] = C_M[\Sigma]$ . Also  $\zeta, \Sigma$  is the lexicographically smallest pair of ordinals such that  $C_U[\zeta] = C_U[\Sigma]$  for the universal machine U.

Note that, while it is standard to state the theorem in this way, we could also have said that each entry is minimal:

COROLLARY 2.5 (Welch [24]). The ordinal  $\lambda$  is also the supremum of ITTMs' halting time.

PROOF. By Theorem 2.4, we have that if an ITTM M has not halted before stage  $\Sigma$ , then it will never halt, because the configuration of an ITTM at stage  $\Sigma$ is the same as the configuration of an ITTM at stage  $\zeta$ , and every 1 in the tape at stage  $\zeta$  will stay a 1 at every stage between  $\zeta$  and  $\Sigma$ . Thus the computation will loop forever, and if an ITTM halts it must halt before stage  $\Sigma$ . We can then run an ITTM which looks for all the accidentally writable ordinals  $\alpha$  (using some universal ITTM) and for each of them, which runs M for  $\alpha$  steps. When

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>For instance one can search for the smallest element of the order written on the tape, remove it and repeat that until the order is empty, then halts. This takes at least  $\alpha$  steps of computation.

the machine finds an accidentally writable ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $M[\alpha] \downarrow$ , then it writes  $\alpha$  and halts. By hypothesis on M our ITTM will write  $\alpha$  and halt at some point. Thus  $\alpha$  is a writable ordinal, which implies that M halts at a writable step.

Welch's theorem and proof provided a clear understanding of ITTMs allowing us, as we will see it soon, to cut ourselves off the machine model, and to reason within the constructible hierarchy.

## 2.2. The constructibles.

**2.2.1.** Notations. We denote by tc(x) the transitive closure of x. We recall that a formula of set theory is said to be  $\Delta_0$  if it has only bounded quantifiers, that is, of the form  $\exists x \in y \text{ or } \forall x \in y$ . The  $\Sigma_n$  and  $\Pi_n$  formulas are then built like their analogue in the language of arithmetic, but with the quantification done over all the sets of the model we consider.

DEFINITION 2.6. Let M be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure for some language  $\mathcal{L}$ , and  $p \in M$ . We say that  $P \subseteq M^k$  is  $\Sigma_n^M$  definable (or  $\Sigma_n$  definable in M) with parameter p if there is a  $\Sigma_n$  formula  $\Phi$  such that  $M \models \Phi(x_1, \ldots, x_k, p)$  iff  $(x_1, \ldots, x_k) \in P$ . The  $\Pi_n^M$  definable subsets of M are defined similarly, but with  $\Pi_n$  formulas.

We say that  $P \subseteq M^k$  is  $\Delta_n^M$  definable (or  $\Delta_n$  definable in M) with parameter p if it is both  $\Sigma_n^M$  and  $\Pi_n^M$  definable with parameter p. We sometimes write  $\Sigma_n^M(p)$  (resp.  $\Pi_n^M(p)$ ) to mean  $\Sigma_n^M$ -definable with param-

eter p (resp.  $\Pi_n^M$ -definable with parameter p).

2.2.2. The constructible universe. The study of ITTM is closely related to the study of  $\alpha$ -recursion theory, restricted to the three special ordinals  $\lambda, \zeta$  and  $\Sigma$ . One difference is that whereas in  $\alpha$ -recursion theory, we study subsets of ordinals, with ITTMs, we study subsets of integers. It involves a manipulation of initial segments of the constructible universe. We recall here the main definitions and theorems that will be used in the paper. This section is mainly for the computability theorist not yet comfortable with extending notions of computations to  $\Sigma_1$ -definability within initial segments of the constructible hierarchy. We will also focus on  $\Sigma_1$ -definability inside  $L_{\alpha}$  even when  $\alpha$  is not admissible (we will see that we need to do so because the smallest non-accidentally writable ordinal,  $\Sigma$ , is not admissible).

The constructible universe is usually defined starting with  $L_{\emptyset} = \emptyset$ . When using some oracle  $x \in 2^{\omega}$ , it starts with  $L_{\emptyset}(x) = \operatorname{tc}(x)$  (which equals  $\{x\} \cup \omega$ when x is infinite). In order to keep some consistency between the constructible universe defined with and without oracle, we start with  $L_{\emptyset} = \omega$ .

DEFINITION 2.7. The constructible universe is defined by induction over the ordinals as follow:

- $L_{\emptyset} = \omega$
- $L_{\alpha+1} = \{X \subseteq L_{\alpha} : X \text{ is first order definable in } L_{\alpha} \text{ with parameters in } L_{\alpha}\}$ •  $L_{\alpha} = \bigcup_{\gamma < \alpha} L_{\gamma}$  when  $\alpha$  is limit.

Let  $x \in 2^{\omega}$ . The constructible universe starting with x as an oracle is defined by induction over the ordinals as follow:

•  $L_{\emptyset}(x) = \{x\} \cup \omega$ 

- $L_{\alpha+1}(x) = \{X \subseteq L_{\alpha}(x) : X \text{ is first order definable in } L_{\alpha}(x) \text{ with parameters in } L_{\alpha}(x)\}$
- $L_{\alpha}(x) = \bigcup_{\gamma < \alpha} L_{\gamma}(x)$  when  $\alpha$  is limit.

For  $a \in L$ , the rank (or *L*-rank when confusion is possible) of *a*, denoted by rk(a), is the smallest  $\alpha$  such that  $a \in L_{\alpha+1}$ .

**2.2.3.** Admissibility and definition by induction. In order to safely conduct  $\Sigma_1$  inductions, we normally need to be in a model of KP: a weakening of set theory in which we have extensionality, pairing, union, Cartesian product, induction over the  $\in$  relation (suppose for all a we have  $[\forall b \in a \ \Phi(b)] \rightarrow \Phi(a)$ , then for all a we have  $\Phi(a)$ ),  $\Delta_0$ -comprehension and  $\Sigma_1$ -collection.

For any  $\alpha$  limit, we have that  $L_{\alpha}$  is a model of all these axioms, except  $\Sigma_1$ collection.

DEFINITION 2.8. Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, \epsilon)$  be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure for the language of set theory. We say that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\Sigma_n$ -admissible structure if  $\mathcal{A}$  is a model of extensionality, pairing, union, Cartesian product, induction over the  $\in$  relation,  $\Delta_n$ -comprehension and  $\Sigma_n$ -collection.

DEFINITION 2.9. We say that  $\alpha$  is admissible if  $L_{\alpha}$  is a model of KP, that is, if  $\alpha$  is limit and  $L_{\alpha}$  is a model of  $\Sigma_1$ -collection and  $\Delta_1$ -comprehension.

More generally we say that  $\alpha$  is  $\Sigma_n$ -admissible if  $L_{\alpha}$  is a  $\Sigma_n$  admissible structure.

Dealing with ITTMs, we will have to work with ordinals which are not necessarily admissible. We will see for instance that  $\Sigma$ , the smallest non-accidentally writable ordinal, is not admissible.

Fortunately, we can already define a lot of things in models  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  simply limit (and not necessarily admissible). Working with the constructibles involves constantly working with  $\Sigma_1$ -inductive definitions. Whereas these are perfectly safe in  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  admissible, some additional care needs to be taken when  $\alpha$  is not admissible. Let us determine what we need:

Let  $E \in L_{\alpha}$  and  $\langle \in L_{\alpha}$  be a well-founded order on elements of E. We define by induction the  $\langle$ -rank of elements  $a \in E$ , denoted by  $\operatorname{rk}_{\langle}(a)$ , to be the smallest ordinal  $\beta$  such that for every b < a, b has  $\langle$ -rank less than  $\beta$ . Let  $E_{\beta}$  be the elements of E of  $\langle$ -rank strictly smaller than or equal to  $\beta$ , let  $E_{\langle\beta\rangle}$  be the elements of E of  $\langle$ -rank smaller than  $\beta$  and  $E_{=\beta}$  the elements of E of  $\langle$ -rank suppose  $\gamma \leq \alpha$ .

Suppose we have a  $\Delta_0$  formula F(a, f, r) such that for any  $a \in E$ , with  $\operatorname{rk}_{<}(a) = \beta$  whenever  $f \in L_{\alpha}$  is defined on  $E_{<\beta}$ , then there is a unique  $r \in L_{\alpha}$  such that  $L_{\alpha} \models F(a, f, r)$ . The classical theorem of set theory, that justifies definition by induction, says that we then have a unique function f defined on E and such that the  $\Delta_1$  formula  $\Phi(\gamma, f)$  is true, where:

 $\Phi(\gamma, f) \equiv$  For every  $\beta < \gamma$ , for every  $a \in E_{=\beta}$ , we have  $F(a, f \upharpoonright_{E_{\leq \beta}}, f(a))$ 

Indeed the function f, if it exists, must be unique and  $\Delta_1$ -recognizable by the formula  $\Phi(\gamma, f)$  (using parameter  $\gamma$ ). Also by induction one show that whenever  $f \upharpoonright_{E_{\leq \beta}}$  exists, then  $f \upharpoonright_{E_{\leq \beta+1}}$  must exists as it is  $\Delta_1$ -definable by F with  $f \upharpoonright_{E_{\leq \beta}}$  as

a parameter (see Proposition 2.10 below). This uses the axiom of  $\Sigma_1$  collection: if for all  $a \in E_{=\beta}$  there exists a unique  $r \in L_{\alpha}$  such that  $F(a, f \mid_{E_{<\beta}}, r)$ , then the corresponding function f' defined on  $E_{=\beta}$  must exists. However if the ranks of the r's are unbounded in  $L_{\alpha}$ , the function f' will not exist in  $L_{\alpha}$ . Fortunately most of the time, for simple tasks, the rank will be bounded in  $L_{\alpha}$  by something independent of  $a \in E_{=\beta}$ , but dependent only on  $\beta$ .

The axiom of  $\Sigma_1$ -collection also needs to be used at a limit step: If for any  $\gamma < \gamma$  $\beta$ , there exists a unique function  $f_{\gamma}$  defined on  $E_{\gamma}$  and such that  $\Phi(\gamma, f_{\gamma})$ , then by  $\Sigma_1$ -collection there exists a unique function  $f_\beta$  such that  $\Phi(\beta, f_\beta)$  (and the function  $f_{\beta}$  is simply the union of the functions  $f_{\gamma}$ ). Here again, this argument works within  $L_{\alpha}$  as long as the rank of each function  $f_{\gamma}$  is bounded in  $L_{\alpha}$ . We sum up in the following proposition conditions in which definitions by induction can be conducted in  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  limit:

**PROPOSITION 2.10** ( $\Delta_0$  Induction with bounded rank replacement). Let E be a class well-ordered by <. Let  $f: E \mapsto L$  be  $\Delta_0$ -definable by induction on <, such that for any  $\beta$  there exists  $k < \omega$  for which:

- 1.  $E_{\beta}$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\beta+k}}$ -definable uniformly in  $\beta$ , in particular  $E_{<\alpha} \subseteq L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  limit.
- 2. For any  $a \in E_{\beta}$ ,  $\operatorname{rk}_{<}(a)$  is  $\Delta_{1}^{L_{\beta+k}}$ -definable uniformly in  $\beta$ . 3. For any  $a \in E_{\beta}$  we have  $\operatorname{rk}(f(a)) < \beta + k$ .

Then f is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$ -definable uniformly in any limit ordinal  $\alpha$ . By this we mean that there are single  $\Pi_1$  and  $\Delta_1$  formulas that define  $f \upharpoonright_{E_{\leq \alpha}}$  when interpreted in  $L_{\alpha}$ .

**PROOF.** Let  $\Phi(\beta, f)$  be the  $\Delta_1$  formula defined in the discussion above. We shall show that for any  $\alpha$  limit we have:

- (a) For any  $\beta < \alpha$ , the function  $f \upharpoonright_{E_{\beta}}$  belongs, as a set, to  $L_{\beta+m}$  for some  $m < \omega$ .
- (b) The function  $f \upharpoonright_{E_{\leq \alpha}}$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$ -definable by the formulas:

$$\begin{split} f \upharpoonright_{E_{<\alpha}} (a) &= r &\equiv \quad \exists f \ \Phi(\mathrm{rk}_{<}(a), f) \land f(a) = r \\ &\equiv \quad \forall f \ \Phi(\mathrm{rk}_{<}(a), f) \to f(a) = r \end{split}$$

It is clear that for any  $\alpha$  limit we have (a) implies (b). Suppose now  $\alpha = 0$ or  $\alpha$  limit and (b) is true for  $\alpha$ , and let us show that (a) is true for  $\alpha + \omega$ . If  $\alpha = 0$  we clearly have  $f \upharpoonright_{E_{<\alpha}} \in L_{\alpha+1}$ . If  $\alpha$  is limit and (b) is true for  $\alpha$ , thus also it is clear by definition of L that  $f \upharpoonright_{E_{<\alpha}} \in L_{\alpha+1}$ . Now from  $f \upharpoonright_{E_{<\alpha}} \in L_{\alpha+1}$ together with (1) (2) and (3), by iterating inductively the same argument for  $n \in \omega$ , we easily obtain that  $f \upharpoonright_{E_{\alpha+n}}$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha+(n+1)k}}$ -definable and thus belongs to  $L_{\alpha+(n+1)k+1} \subseteq L_{\alpha+\omega}$ . Thus (b) is true for  $\alpha + \omega$ .

Suppose now that  $\alpha$  is limit of limit and that for any  $\beta < \alpha$  limit we have that (a) is true. Thus clearly (a) is true for  $\alpha$ , and therefore also (b). This concludes the proposition. -

We end by one last thing one needs to be careful about when working in  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  not admissible. In case  $\alpha$  is admissible, formulas of the form  $\forall n \in \omega \exists \beta \Phi(n, \beta)$ where  $\Phi(n,\beta)$  is  $\Delta_0$ , can be considered to be  $\Sigma_1$ -formulas, precisely because if the formula is true in  $L_{\alpha}$ , there must exists  $B \in L_{\alpha}$  such that  $\forall n \in \omega \exists \beta \in B \Phi(n, \beta)$ . This is of course not the case for  $\alpha$  not admissible, and one has to be careful about keeping  $\Sigma_n$  formulas truly  $\Sigma_n$ .

**2.2.4.** Theorems on definability. Using induction with bounded rank replacement, it is possible to show that the function  $\beta \mapsto L_{\beta}$  is absolute already in  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  limit. This is done formally in [10].

In order to show that the function  $\beta \mapsto L_{\beta}$  is absolute in any model  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  limit, the author of [10] uses a bounded rank argument as sketched above. In this case, this requires to be a bit careful with the encoding one uses for ZF formulas by sets (hereditary finite sets in case the formula has no parameter). In particular, it is worth noting that one uses partial function from n to  $\{p_1, \ldots, p_n\}$  to encode finite sequences. This way, as long as  $P \in L_{\alpha}$ , for any n, a function from n into P has its rank bounded by some  $\alpha + k$ , where k is an integer independent of n (even in  $L_{\omega}$ : recall that we start with  $L_{\emptyset} = \omega$ ).

Using such an encoding of formulas, we write  $\lceil \Phi \rceil$  for the code of  $\Phi$ . We have the following:

THEOREM 2.11 (Lemma I.9.10 of [10]). The predicate  $M \models \Phi(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  uniformly in any  $\alpha$  limit, in M, in  $\lceil \Phi \rceil$  and in the sequence  $\langle p_1, \ldots, p_n \rangle$ .

By the above, we formally mean the following: there is a  $\Sigma_1$  formula  $\Phi(M, e, p)$ , and a  $\Pi_1$  formula  $\Psi(M, e, p)$ , such that for any  $\alpha$  limit, as long as we take  $M, \langle p_1, \ldots, p_n \rangle$  in  $L_{\alpha}$ , we have:

$$M \models \phi(p_1, \dots, p_n)$$
  

$$\leftrightarrow \quad L_{\alpha} \models \Phi(M, \ulcorner \phi \urcorner, \langle p_1, \dots, p_n \rangle)$$
  

$$\leftrightarrow \quad L_{\alpha} \models \Psi(M, \ulcorner \phi \urcorner, \langle p_1, \dots, p_n \rangle)$$

We will also sometimes use the following version of the above: in case  $\Phi$  is a  $\Delta_0$  formula, then  $\Phi$  is true in  $L_{\alpha}$  iff  $\Phi$  is true in the model being the transitive closure of all the parameters involved in the formula. Using that such a model can be obtained uniformly and that satisfaction is absolute in any  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  limit, we also have:

COROLLARY 2.12. The predicate  $L_{\alpha} \models \Phi(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  uniformly in any  $\alpha$  limit and in the code of any  $\Delta_0$  formula  $\lceil \Phi \rceil$ .

Using that satisfaction is absolute in any  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  limit, we also have:

THEOREM 2.13 (Lemma II.2.8 of [10]). The function  $\beta \mapsto L_{\beta}$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  uniformly in any  $\alpha$  limit.

It is also well-known that L is well-ordered in L, that is, there is a well order  $<_L$  on elements of L, which is definable in L. Again, one can show that this order is absolute in any  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  limit.

THEOREM 2.14 (Lemma II.3.5 of [10]). The relation  $<_L$  and the function  $a \mapsto \{b : b <_L a\}$ , are  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$ , uniformly in any  $\alpha$  limit.

We end this section by showing that in the special case of  $\Sigma_n$ -admissibility in the constructible hierarchy, only the axiom of  $\Sigma_n$ -collection is needed when  $\alpha$  is limit.

PROPOSITION 2.15. Suppose  $L_{\alpha}$  is a model of  $\Sigma_n$ -collection for  $\alpha$  limit. Then,  $L_{\alpha}$  is a model of  $\Delta_n$ -comprehension.

PROOF. The proof goes by induction on n. For n = 0 as  $\alpha$  is limit we always have that  $L_{\alpha}$  is a model of  $\Delta_0$ -comprehension. Suppose the result is true for nand let us show it is true for n + 1. Let  $L_{\alpha}$  be model of  $\Sigma_{n+1}$ -collection. Let  $\Phi(a, b)$  and  $\Psi(a, b)$  be  $\Pi_n^0$  formulas with parameters in  $L_{\alpha}$ . Let  $A \in L_{\alpha}$  and  $E \subseteq A$  be such that:

$$\begin{array}{rccc} a \in E & \leftrightarrow & L_{\alpha} \models \exists b \ \Phi(a,b) \\ a \notin E & \leftrightarrow & L_{\alpha} \models \exists b \ \Psi(a,b) \end{array}$$

We have in particular that  $L_{\alpha} \models \forall a \in A \exists \beta \exists b \in L_{\beta} \Phi(a, b) \lor \Psi(a, b)$ 

By  $\Sigma_{n+1}$ -collection there exists  $\beta < \alpha$  such that we have:

$$L_{\alpha} \models \forall a \in A \; \exists b \in L_{\beta} \; \Phi(a, b) \lor \Psi(a, b)$$

Note that we then have

$$\begin{array}{lll} a \in E & \leftrightarrow & L_{\alpha} \models \exists b \in L_{\beta} \ \Phi(a,b) \\ a \notin E & \leftrightarrow & L_{\alpha} \models \exists b \in L_{\beta} \ \Psi(a,b) \end{array}$$

It follows that we have :

$$a \notin E \quad \leftrightarrow \quad L_{\alpha} \models \forall b \in L_{\beta} \ \neg \Phi(a, b)$$
$$a \in E \quad \leftrightarrow \quad L_{\alpha} \models \forall b \in L_{\beta} \ \neg \Psi(a, b)$$

As  $L_{\alpha}$  is a model of  $\Sigma_n$ -collection, formulas  $\forall b \in L_{\beta} \neg \Phi(a, b)$  and  $\forall b \in L_{\beta} \neg \Psi(a, b)$  are both equivalent in  $L_{\alpha}$  to  $\Sigma_n$  formulas. Therefore E is in fact defined by a  $\Delta_n$  formula. By induction hypothesis we have that  $E \in L_{\alpha}$ .

 $\neg$ 

**2.2.5.** Theorems on stability. When lifting up notions of computability to various ordinals, new phenomenons start to appear, one of them central to the study of ITTMs is the notion of stability.

DEFINITION 2.16. For  $\alpha \leq \beta$  we say that  $L_{\alpha}$  is  $\Sigma_n$ -stable in  $L_{\beta}$ , and we write  $L_{\alpha} \prec_n L_{\beta}$  if for every  $\Sigma_n$  formula  $\Phi$  with parameters in  $L_{\alpha}$  we have  $L_{\alpha} \models \Phi$  iff  $L_{\beta} \models \Phi$ . Without confusion, we will also write  $\alpha \prec_n \beta$  for  $L_{\alpha} \prec_n L_{\beta}$ .

The notion of *n*-stability is the same as the notion of elementary substructure for  $\Sigma_n$  formulas in model theory. The following proposition is easy and will be used in various places of the paper:

PROPOSITION 2.17. Suppose  $L_{\alpha} \prec_n L_{\beta}$ . Let  $\Phi(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  be a  $\Pi_{n+1}$  formula and let  $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in L_{\alpha}$ . If  $L_{\beta} \models \Phi(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$  then  $L_{\alpha} \models \Phi(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ .

PROOF. The formula  $\Phi(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  is of the form  $\forall x \ \Psi(x, a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  for  $\Psi$  a  $\Sigma_n$  formula. Also for every  $x \in L_\alpha$  we have  $L_\beta \models \Psi(x, a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and thus  $L_\alpha \models \Psi(x, a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  by  $\Sigma_n$  stability. It follows that  $L_\alpha \models \forall x \ \Psi(x, a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ .

PROPOSITION 2.18. For  $\beta$  limit and  $\alpha < \beta$ , the predicate  $L_{\alpha} \prec_n L_{\beta}$  is  $\prod_n^{L_{\beta}}$ uniformly in  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$ .

**PROOF.** We start with  $\Sigma_1$ -stability. We have  $L_{\alpha} \prec_1 L_{\beta}$  iff

$$L_{\beta} \models \text{ For all } \Delta_0 \text{ formulas } \ulcorner \Phi(b, a_1, \dots, a_k) \urcorner \forall p_1, \dots, p_k \in L_{\alpha}$$
$$[\forall x \neg \Phi(x, p_1, \dots, p_k) \text{ or } L_{\alpha} \models \exists y \ \Phi(y, p_1, \dots, p_k)]$$

which is  $\Pi_1^{L_\beta}$  by Proposition 2.11 and 2.12. Suppose now that the predicate  $L_{\alpha} \prec_n L_{\beta}$  is  $\Pi_n^{L_{\beta}}$ . To show that  $L_{\alpha} \prec_{n+1} L_{\beta}$  is  $\Pi_{n+1}^{L_{\beta}}$ , we write first the formula

which says  $L_{\alpha} \prec_n L_{\beta}$ , in order to express that if  $L_{\alpha}$  satisfies a  $\Sigma_{n+1}$  formula, then also  $L_{\beta}$  satisfies this formula (see Proposition 2.17). This formula is  $\Pi_{n}^{L_{\beta}}$ . We then combine it with the following  $\Pi_{n+1}^{L_{\beta}}$  formula, which expresses that if  $L_{\beta}$ satisfies a  $\Sigma_{n+1}$  formula, then also  $L_{\alpha}$  satisfies this formula:

$$L_{\beta} \models \text{ For all } \Delta_{0} \text{ formulas } \ulcorner \Phi(b_{1}, \dots, b_{n+1}, a_{1}, \dots, a_{k}) \urcorner, \forall p_{1}, \dots, p_{k} \in L_{\alpha}, \\ \begin{cases} \forall x_{1} \exists x_{2} \cdots Q x_{n+1}, \neg \Phi(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n+1}, p_{1}, \dots, p_{k}) \\ \text{ or } L_{\alpha} \models \exists y_{1} \forall y_{2} \cdots Q y_{n+1} \Phi(y_{1}, \dots, y_{n+1}, p_{1}, \dots, p_{k}) \end{cases}$$

where  $Q \in \{\exists; \forall\}$  depends on the parity of *n*. This concludes the proof.

When dealing with the constructibles, stability presents additional features to the notion of elementary substructures in model theory. For instance, given that  $\alpha$  is limit, the set of elements which are  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\alpha}$  with no parameters is necessarily of the form  $L_{\beta}$ , and  $\beta$  is the smallest such that  $L_{\beta} \prec_1 L_{\alpha}$  [2, Theorem 7.8]. We also have the following:

THEOREM 2.19. Suppose  $\alpha < \beta$  for  $\beta$  limit, and  $L_{\alpha} \prec_n L_{\beta}$ . Then  $\alpha$  is  $\Sigma_n$ -admissible.

PROOF. The proof is easy for  $\Sigma_1$ -admissibility, but does not lift straightforwardly to  $\Sigma_n$ -admissibility.

We first show the theorem for  $\Sigma_1$ -admissibility. Suppose  $\alpha$  is not  $\Sigma_1$ -admissible. Then there exists  $a \in L_{\alpha}$  and a  $\Sigma_1$  formula  $\Phi(x, y) = \exists z \ \Phi_0(x, y, z)$  with parameters in  $L_{\alpha}$  witnessing the failure of  $\Sigma_1$ -admissibility, that is:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} L_{\alpha} &\models & \forall p \in a \quad \exists r & \exists z & \Phi_0(p,r,z) \\ \text{and} & L_{\alpha} &\nvDash & \exists \gamma & \forall p \in a \quad \exists r \in L_{\gamma} & \exists z \in L_{\gamma} & \Phi_0(p,r,z) \end{array}$$

As  $\alpha < \beta$  it is however clear that we have:

$$L_{\beta} \models \exists \alpha \ \forall p \in a \ \exists r \in L_{\alpha} \ \exists z \in L_{\alpha} \ \Phi_0(p, r, z)$$

In particular the above  $\Sigma_1$  formula is satisfied in  $L_\beta$  but not in  $L_\alpha$ , so we do not have  $L_\alpha \prec_1 L_\beta$ .

We continue by induction: suppose  $\alpha$  is not  $\Sigma_{n+1}$ -admissible. Then if  $L_{\alpha}$  is not  $\Sigma_n$ -stable in  $L_{\beta}$ , it is in particular not  $\Sigma_{n+1}$ -stable in  $L_{\beta}$  and the proposition is verified. Otherwise we have  $L_{\alpha} \prec_n L_{\beta}$ . Let  $a \in L_{\alpha}$  and let  $\Phi_0(x, y, z_1, \ldots, z_{n+1})$  be a  $\Delta_0$  formula (where  $Q \in \{\exists; \forall\}$  depends on the parity of n) such that:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} L_{\alpha} &\models & \forall p \in a \quad \exists r & \exists z_1 \forall z_2 \cdots Q z_{n+1} & \Phi_0(p,r,z_1,\ldots,z_{n+1}) \\ \text{and} & L_{\alpha} &\not\models & \exists \gamma & \forall p \in a \quad \exists r \in L_{\gamma} & \exists z_1 \forall z_2 \cdots Q z_{n+1} & \Phi_0(p,r,z_1,\ldots,z_{n+1}) \end{array}$$

Note that unlike with the  $\Sigma_1$ -case, we cannot necessarily bound the variables  $z_1, \ldots, z_{n+1}$  by  $L_{\gamma}$ . Indeed, it might be the case for every p in a there exists some r in  $L_{\gamma}$  which is  $\Sigma_{n+1}$ -definable in  $L_{\gamma}$ , even though it is not  $\Sigma_{n+1}$ -definable in  $L_{\alpha}$ . We need to use that  $L_{\alpha} \prec_n L_{\beta}$ . In particular we have:

$$L_{\beta} \models \exists \alpha \prec_{n} \beta \ \forall p \in a \ \exists r \in L_{\alpha} \ \text{ s.t. } L_{\alpha} \models \exists z_{1} \ \forall z_{2} \dots \ z_{n+1} \ \Phi_{0}(p, r, z_{1}, \dots, z_{n+1})$$

First let us note that by Proposition 2.18 the above formula is  $\Sigma_{n+1}$ . It is also clear that  $L_{\alpha}$  cannot be a model of this formula, because then, using Proposition 2.17, it would also be a model of:

$$\exists \gamma \ \forall p \in a \ \exists r \in L_{\gamma} \ \exists z_1 \ \forall z_2 \dots z_{n+1} \ \Phi_0(p, r, z_1, \dots, z_{n+1})$$

 $\neg$ 

**2.2.6.** Theorems on projectibles. Another central notion in  $\alpha$ -recursion theory is the notion of projectible ordinal. We are in particular able to lift most of the work done in algorithmic randomness and genericity, in the case  $\alpha$  is projectible into  $\omega$ .

DEFINITION 2.20 (Projectum). We say that  $\alpha$  is *projectible* in  $\beta \leq \alpha$  if there is a one-one function  $\Sigma_1$ -definable (with parameters) in  $L_{\alpha}$ , from  $\alpha$  into  $\beta$ . We call *projectum* and write  $\alpha^*$  for the smallest ordinal such that  $\alpha$  is projectible into  $\alpha^*$ . If  $\alpha^* < \alpha$  we say that  $\alpha$  is projectible. Otherwise we say that  $\alpha$  is not projectible.

This notion of projectibility is very useful to lift proofs from lower to higher recursion. This has been done in particular in the hyperarithmetic setting, for instance in [3], using the fact that  $\omega_1^{CK}$  is projectible into  $\omega$ . We will later see what is the projectum of the three ordinals  $\lambda, \zeta$  and  $\Sigma$ , associated with ITTMs. To do so, we give a general theorem on projectums. This theorem can be found in a similar form in [2], but we still include the proof for completeness.

THEOREM 2.21. Let  $\alpha$  be admissible. We have that  $\alpha^*$  is the smallest ordinal such that  $L_{\alpha}$  is not a model of  $\Sigma_1$ -comprehension for subsets of  $\alpha^*$ . If the  $\Sigma_1$ formula  $\Phi$  is a witness of this failure, then the projectum is definable with the same parameters as the ones used in  $\Phi$ .

PROOF. We first show that  $L_{\alpha}$  satisfies  $\Sigma_1$ -comprehension for subsets of ordinals smaller than  $\alpha^*$ . Let  $\delta < \alpha^*$  be an ordinal, and  $A \subseteq \delta$  be such that  $x \in A \Leftrightarrow L_{\alpha} \models \exists y \ \Phi(x, y)$  where  $\Phi$  is  $\Delta_0$ . Let f be the function defined on A, such that  $f(a) = \delta \times \gamma + a$  where  $\gamma$  is the smallest ordinal such that  $L_{\gamma} \models \exists y \ \Phi(a, y)$ . Obviously f is 1-1. We then collapse f[A] by defining  $g(\gamma)$  to be the first  $\beta \in f[A]$  that we find which is not in  $\{g(\gamma') : \gamma' < \gamma\}$ . Formally, let  $\exists y \ \Psi(a, \beta, y)$  with  $\Psi \ \Delta_0$  be the  $\Sigma_1$  formula defining f. Then we define the function g by  $g(\gamma) = \beta$  if there exists  $\eta$  for which  $\langle \beta, \eta \rangle$  is the smallest pair such that  $L_{\eta} \models \exists y \ \exists a \ \Psi(a, \beta, y)$  and  $\beta \notin \{g(\gamma') : \gamma' < \gamma\}$ . We have that  $f^{-1} \circ g$  is a  $\Sigma_1$ -definable bijection from an initial segment of  $\alpha$ , onto A. Also the domain of  $f^{-1} \circ g$  cannot be  $\alpha$  otherwise  $\alpha$  would be projectible into  $\delta < \alpha^*$ . Therefore the domain of  $f^{-1} \circ g$  is a strict initial segment of  $\alpha$  and thus the range of  $f^{-1} \circ g$ , which is A, is an element of  $L_{\alpha}$ .

We now exhibit a  $\Sigma_1$ -definable subset of  $\alpha^*$  which is not in  $L_{\alpha}$ . If p is a projection into  $\alpha^*$ , we have that  $p[\alpha] = A \subseteq \alpha^*$  is a subset of  $\alpha^*$  which is  $\Sigma_1$  definable in  $L_{\alpha}$ . This subset is not in  $L_{\alpha}$ , as otherwise the function  $g: \alpha^* \to \alpha$  defined by  $g(\beta) = \sup_{x \in A \land x \leq \beta} (p^{-1}(x))$  would contradict the admissibility of  $\alpha$ .

**2.3.** The ordinals  $\lambda, \zeta, \Sigma$ . We state in this section results regarding the three ordinals  $\lambda, \zeta, \Sigma$ , and their relative versions  $\lambda^x, \zeta^x$  and  $\Sigma^x$ . These ordinals first allow to establish a clear connection between ITTMs and constructibles, summed up in the two following theorems. We introduce the following coding of hereditary countable sets before we mention the first one: Let  $0 \in 2^{\omega}$  be a code for the empty set. Suppose that  $A = \{a_n : n \in \omega\}$  where  $a_n$  is coded by  $x_n \in 2^{\omega}$  for each n. Then  $\bigoplus_n x_n$  is a code for A.

THEOREM 2.22 (Welch [24]). The set  $L_{\lambda}$  (resp.  $L_{\zeta}$ , resp.  $L_{\Sigma}$ ) is the set of all sets with a writable (resp. eventually writable, resp. accidentally writable) code.

The following theorem is similar to Theorem 2.4, but with the constructible hierarchy in place of ITTM's tapes.

THEOREM 2.23 (Welch [24]). The triplet of ordinals  $(\lambda, \zeta, \Sigma)$  is the lexicographically smallest triplet such that

$$L_{\lambda} \prec_1 L_{\zeta} \prec_2 L_{\Sigma}$$

By relativization,  $(\lambda^x, \zeta^x, \Sigma^x)$  is the lexicographically smallest triplet such that

$$L_{\lambda^x}[x] \prec_1 L_{\zeta^x}[x] \prec_2 L_{\Sigma^x}[x]$$

COROLLARY 2.24. The ordinal  $\zeta$  is  $\Sigma_2$ -admissible, and there are cofinally in  $\zeta$  many eventually writable  $\Sigma_2$ -admissible ordinals.

PROOF. As  $L_{\zeta} \prec_2 L_{\Sigma}$ , we deduce from Theorem 2.19 that  $\zeta$  is  $\Sigma_2$ -admissible. In particular for any eventually writable  $\alpha$  we have that  $L_{\Sigma}$  is a model of "there exists  $\beta > \alpha$  which is  $\Sigma_2$ -admissible". It follows that  $L_{\zeta}$  is also a model of that and thus that there are cofinally many writable  $\Sigma_2$ -admissible ordinals.

COROLLARY 2.25 (Hamkins, Lewis [14]). The ordinal  $\lambda$  is  $\Sigma_1$ -admissible, and in  $\lambda$  there are cofinally many writable  $\Sigma_1$ -admissible ordinals.

An important question of [14] was to determine whether  $\Sigma$  was admissible or not. Welch's proof that ITTMs halt only at ordinals smaller than  $\lambda$  provides insight on the way ITTMs work, and helped to solve the question. The proof can also be found in [25].

THEOREM 2.26 (Welch). There is a function  $f : \omega \mapsto \Sigma$  which is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\Sigma}$  with  $\zeta$  as a parameter and such that  $\sup_n f(n) = \Sigma$ .

PROOF. Let U be the universal ITTM, which simulates every other ITTM. In particular we have by Theorem 2.4 that  $\Sigma$  is the smallest ordinal greater than  $\zeta$  such that  $C_U[\zeta] = C_U[\Sigma]$ . For every n let us define the function  $f_n$  such that  $f_n(0) = \zeta$  and  $f_n(m+1)$  is the smallest ordinal bigger than  $f_n(m)$  such that  $\forall i \leq n$  for which  $\{C_U(i)[\beta]\}_{\beta < \zeta}$  does not converge, we have that  $C_U(i)$  has changed at least once in the interval  $[f_n(m), f_n(m+1)]$ .

If there was some n such that  $\sup_m f_n(m) = \Sigma$ , this would prove the theorem already. It is actually possible to show, by combining  $\Sigma_2$ -stability of  $L_{\zeta}$  in  $L_{\Sigma}$ , together with admissibility of  $L_{\zeta}$ , that this cannot happen for any n. Let us then define the function f as follow: f(n) is the smallest ordinal  $\alpha$  greater than  $\zeta$  such that  $C_U[\zeta] \upharpoonright n = C_U[\alpha] \upharpoonright n$ . As for every m we have  $\sup_m f_n(m) < \Sigma$ , then  $f(n) < \Sigma$  and thus f is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\Sigma}$  with  $\zeta$  as a parameter. It is clear that  $f(n) \leq f(n+1)$ . It is also clear that  $f(n) < \sup_n f(n)$  as otherwise we would have  $C_U[\zeta] = C_U[\alpha]$  for some  $\alpha < \Sigma$ .

Let  $\alpha = \sup_n f(n)$  and let us show  $\alpha = \Sigma$ . Let  $n \in \omega$ . If  $\{C_U(n)[\beta]\}_{\beta < \zeta}$ converges then by (2) of Theorem 2.4 we have  $C_U(n)[\zeta] = C_U(n)[\alpha]$ . If we have that  $\{C_U(n)[\beta]\}_{\beta < \zeta}$  diverges then  $C_U(n)[\zeta] = 0$ . Then either  $\{C_U(n)[\beta]\}_{\beta < \alpha}$ converges to  $C_U(n)[\zeta] = 0$  or  $\{C_U(n)[\beta]\}_{\beta < \alpha}$  diverges and then  $C_U(n)[\alpha] = 0$ . In both cases we have  $C_U(n)[\alpha] = C_U(n)[\zeta]$ . This implies that  $C_U[\alpha] = C_U[\zeta]$ which implies  $\alpha = \Sigma$ . COROLLARY 2.27 (Welch). The ordinal  $\Sigma$  is not admissible.

The function of Theorem 2.26 will be used in various places of this paper. We however have the following:

THEOREM 2.28 (Welch). The ordinal  $\Sigma$  is a limit of admissible ordinals.

PROOF. By Lemma 2.24,  $\zeta$  is a limit of admissible ordinals. By  $\Sigma_2$ -stability,  $\Sigma$  must also be a limit of admissible ordinals.

 $\dashv$ 

 $\dashv$ 

We now study what effect the increase of one of the three main ordinals has on the others.

THEOREM 2.29. The following are equivalent:

 $\begin{array}{ll} 1. \ \zeta^x > \zeta \\ 2. \ \Sigma^x > \Sigma \\ 3. \ \lambda^x > \Sigma \end{array}$ 

PROOF. Suppose  $\zeta^x > \zeta$ . In particular  $\zeta$  is eventually writable in x. Let  $\{\zeta_s\}_s$  be the successive approximations of  $\zeta$  using an ITTM that eventually writes  $\zeta$  using x. We can run an ITTM M(x) which does the following: at step s, it uses  $\zeta_s$  as a parameter in the function  $f : \omega \mapsto \Sigma$  of Theorem 2.26, and whenever it has found values for every f(n) (and no new version of  $\zeta_s$  has arrived so far), it writes  $\Sigma_s = \sup_n f(n)$  on the output tape. At some stage s we will have  $\zeta_s = \zeta$  and thus  $\Sigma_s = \Sigma$  will be on the output tape. It follows that  $\Sigma^x > \Sigma$ .

Suppose now that we have  $\Sigma^x > \Sigma$ . We can run the ITTM M(x) which searches for two x-accidentally writable ordinals  $\alpha < \beta$  such that  $L_{\alpha} \prec_2 L_{\beta}$ , then writes  $\beta$  and halts. As  $\zeta < \Sigma$  is the smallest such pair of ordinals and as  $\Sigma^x > \Sigma$ , the ITTM will write an ordinal equal to or bigger than  $\Sigma$  at some point and halt. We then have  $\lambda^x > \Sigma$ .

Finally if  $\lambda^x > \Sigma$  it is clear that  $\zeta^x > \zeta$ .

THEOREM 2.30. For every  $\lambda \leq \alpha < \zeta$ , there exists  $x \in 2^{\omega}$  such that  $\alpha \leq \lambda^x$ , such that  $\zeta^x = \zeta$  and  $\Sigma^x = \Sigma$ .

PROOF. Let  $\alpha$  be such that  $\lambda \leq \alpha < \zeta$ . Let  $x \in 2^{\omega}$  be an eventually writable code for  $\alpha$ . It is clear that  $\alpha \leq \lambda^x$ . Let us show  $\zeta^x = \zeta$ . Let  $\alpha$  be any *x*eventually writable ordinal, via some ITTM M. Let N be the ITTM which starts to eventually write x and in the same time uses the current version  $x_s$  of x to run  $M(x_s)$  and copy at every time the output tape of M on the output tape of N. There is some stage s such that for every stage  $t \geq s$  we will have  $x_s = x_t = x$ together with  $M(x)[s] = M(x)[t] = \alpha$ . This implies also  $N[s] = N[t] = \alpha$ . Thus  $\alpha$  is eventually writable. Here, we essentially used the fact from [23] that eventually writable reals are closed under eventually writability.

From Theorem 2.29 we have  $\Sigma^x = \Sigma$ , as  $\zeta^x = \zeta$ .

We now study the projectibility of the three ordinals  $\lambda$ ,  $\zeta$  and  $\Sigma$ . Intuitively  $\lambda$  is projectible into  $\omega$ , by the function which to  $\alpha < \lambda$  associates the code of the first ITTM which is witnessed to write  $\alpha$ . Such a thing is of course not possible to achieve with  $\zeta$ , which indeed is not projectible.

THEOREM 2.31.

- 1.  $\lambda$  is projectible into  $\omega$  without parameters.
- 2.  $\zeta$  is not projectible.

PROOF. A direct proof of (1) would be possible. It is also a direct consequence of Theorem 2.21: it is well known that the set  $\{e \in \omega : \text{the } e\text{-th ITTM halts}\}$  is not writable (by a standard diagonalization, see for instance [14]) and thus does not belong to  $L_{\lambda}$ . It is however  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\lambda}$  and thus  $L_{\lambda}$  is not a model of  $\Sigma_1$ -comprehension for subsets of  $\omega$ . It follows that  $\lambda^* = \omega$ , with no parameters.

To prove (2), we will show that  $L_{\zeta}$  satisfies  $\Sigma_1$ -comprehension for any set in  $L_{\zeta}$ . We shall first argue that for every  $\alpha < \zeta$ , there exists  $\beta \ge \alpha$  such that  $L_{\beta} \prec_1 L_{\zeta}$ . For every  $\alpha < \zeta$ , there exists by Theorem 2.30 some  $x \in 2^{\omega}$  such that  $\lambda^x > \alpha$ and such that  $\zeta^x = \zeta$  and  $\Sigma^x = \Sigma$ . In particular we have  $L_{\lambda^x} \prec_1 L_{\zeta^x} = L_{\zeta}$ . Now suppose that for  $\alpha < \zeta$  we have that  $A \subseteq L_{\alpha}$  is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\zeta}$  with parameters in  $L_{\alpha}$ . Let  $\beta \ge \alpha$  be such that  $L_{\beta} \prec_1 L_{\zeta}$ . In particular  $A \subseteq L_{\alpha}$  is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\beta}$ . It follows that  $A \in L_{\zeta}$ .

We now study the projectibility of  $L_{\Sigma}$ . We will show that it is projectible into  $\omega$  with parameter  $\zeta$ , in a strong sense, that is, with a bijection. To do so we first need to argue that  $L_{\Sigma}$  is a model of "everything is countable". It is clear intuitively: if x belongs to  $L_{\Sigma}$  then it has an accidentally writable code, and this code gives the bijection between x and  $\omega$ . Friedman showed a bit more:

LEMMA 2.32 (Friedman and Welch, [12]). Let  $\alpha$  be limit. Suppose there exists  $x \in L_{\alpha}$  such that  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "x is uncountable". Then there exists  $\gamma < \delta < \alpha$  such that  $L_{\gamma} \prec L_{\delta}$  (that is,  $L_{\gamma} \prec_n L_{\delta}$  for every n).

PROOF. Let us first argue that there must be a limit ordinal  $\delta < \alpha$  such that  $L_{\alpha} \models ``L_{\delta}$  is uncountable''. If  $\alpha$  is limit of limits this is clear, because there must be a limit ordinal  $\delta$  such that  $L_{\delta}$  contains an x which is uncountable in  $L_{\alpha}$ . As  $L_{\delta}$  is transitive, it must be itself uncountable in  $L_{\alpha}$ . If  $\alpha$  is not limit of limits, let  $\delta$  be limit such that  $\alpha = \delta + \omega$ . Suppose that  $L_{\delta}$  is countable in  $L_{\alpha}$ . Thus also by definition of L, every element of  $L_{\delta+\mu} = L_{\alpha}$  must be countable in  $L_{\alpha}$ , contradicting our hypothesis.

Thus there must be a limit ordinal  $\delta < \alpha$  such that  $L_{\alpha} \models "L_{\delta}$  is uncountable". We then conduct within  $L_{\alpha}$  the Löwenheim-Skolem proof to find a countable set  $A \subseteq L_{\delta}$  such that  $A \prec L_{\delta}$ . The Mostowski collapse A' of A is transitive, as  $A' \prec L_{\delta}$  and as  $L_{\delta}$  is a model of "everything is constructible" together with "for all  $\beta$  the set  $L_{\beta}$  exists" <sup>2</sup>, then A' must be of the form  $L_{\gamma}$  for some  $\gamma \leq \delta$ . As  $L_{\gamma}$  is countable in  $L_{\alpha}$  we must have  $\gamma < \delta$ .

COROLLARY 2.33. For any limit ordinal  $\alpha \leq \Sigma$ , we have that  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "everything is countable".

PROOF. It is immediate using that  $\Sigma$  is the smallest ordinal such that  $L_{\alpha} \prec_2 L_{\Sigma}$  for some  $\alpha < \Sigma$ .

THEOREM 2.34. Suppose  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "everything is countable" and  $\alpha$  is not admissible. Then there is a bijection  $b : \omega \to L_{\alpha}$  which is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\alpha}$  with the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Note that this is where we use that  $\delta$  is limit, using Theorem 2.13

same parameters than the ones used in a witness of non-admissibility of  $\alpha$ . In particular  $\alpha$  is projectible into  $\omega$ , with these parameters (using  $b^{-1}$  restricted to ordinals).

PROOF. We first show that there is a  $\Sigma_1$ -definable surjection from  $\omega$  onto  $L_\alpha$ . As  $\alpha$  is not admissible, there is a set  $a \in L_\alpha$  and a function  $g: a \mapsto \alpha$  which is  $\Sigma_1$ definable over  $L_\alpha$  with some parameter  $p \in L_\alpha$ , and such that  $\sup_{x \in a} g(x) = \alpha$ . Note that as  $L_\alpha \models$  "everything is countable", there is a bijection in  $L_\alpha$  between a and  $\omega$ . Using this bijection there is then a function  $f: \omega \to \alpha$  which is  $\Sigma_1$ definable over  $L_\alpha$  with parameters p, a, and such that  $\sup_{n \in \omega} f(n) = \alpha$  (the bijection does not need to be a parameter, as the smallest such can be  $\Sigma_1$ defined). Let  $\Psi(n, \beta)$  be the  $\Sigma_1$  functional formula with parameters p, a, which defines f.

We now define a  $\Sigma_1$  formula (with parameter p, a)  $\Phi(n, m, z)$  such that for every n, m there is a unique  $z \in L_{\alpha}$  for which  $L_{\alpha} \models \Phi(n, m, z)$ , and such that for every  $z \in L_{\alpha}$ , there exists n, m such that  $L_{\alpha} \models \Phi(n, m, z)$ . We define:

$$\begin{split} \Phi(n,m,z) &\equiv \exists g \; \exists \beta \; \text{ s.t.} \\ \Psi(n,\beta) \; \text{and} \\ g \; \text{is a bijection between } \omega \; \text{and} \; L_{\beta} \; \text{s.t.} \; g(m) = z \; \text{and} \\ \text{every } g' <_L g \; \text{is not a bijection between } \omega \; \text{and} \; L_{\beta} \end{split}$$

Note that  $\Phi$  is  $\Sigma_1$ . It is clear that for every n, m, there is at most one z such that  $\Phi(n, m, z)$ . The fact that every  $z \in L_{\alpha}$  is defined by  $\Phi$  for some n, m is clear because  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "everything is countable".

It follows that there is a surjection f from  $\omega$  onto  $L_{\alpha}$ , which is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\alpha}$  with parameters p, a. To obtain a bijection, we define the function  $h: \omega \to \omega$  such that h(0) = 0 and  $h(n+1) = \min\{m \in \omega : \forall n' \leq n \ f(h(n')) \neq f(m)\}$ . Note that h is defined by  $\Sigma_1$ -induction. As  $\alpha$  is not admissible, we should make sure we can do so. This relies on the fact that h is defined only on integers: we can then essentially rely on the admissibility of  $\omega$ . Indeed, to decide h(n+1) = m, we only need the finite function  $h \upharpoonright_n$  and the finite function  $f \upharpoonright_m$ . In particular only finitely many witnesses for values of f are needed and they then all belongs to some  $L_{\beta}$  for  $\beta < \alpha$ . Formally we can define h in  $L_{\alpha}$  as follow:

$$h(n) = m \equiv \exists \beta \exists h' \upharpoonright_{n} \forall k < n$$
  

$$h'(k+1) > h'(k) \land L_{\beta} \models \forall i < k \ f(h'(k)) \neq f(i) \land$$
  

$$\forall j \ \text{with} \ h'(k) < j < h'(k+1) \ L_{\beta} \models \exists i < j \ f(h'(j)) = f(i)$$
  
and 
$$h'(n) = m$$

The bijection is then given by b(n) = f(h(n)).

 $\dashv$ 

COROLLARY 2.35. There is a bijection  $b : \omega \to L_{\Sigma}$  which is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\Sigma}$  with  $\zeta$  as a parameter. In particular  $\Sigma$  is projectible into  $\omega$ , with parameter  $\zeta$ .

PROOF. From Theorem 2.26 there is a function  $f : \omega \mapsto \Sigma$  which is  $\Sigma_1$ definable over  $L_{\Sigma}$  with parameter  $\zeta$  and such that  $\sup_n f(n) = \Sigma$ . From Corollary 2.33: we have that  $L_{\Sigma} \models$  "everything is countable". The result follows.  $\dashv$ 

**§3.** Forcing in the constructibles. Algorithmic randomness normally deals with Borel sets of positive measure. Working in the constructibles will make this task a little bit harder, and requires to go into usual naming and forcing in *L*.

We will however not formally define a forcing relation. Instead we go around the need of defining one, by directly dealing with Borel sets. The reason we do so is to stick with what is traditionally done with algorithmic randomness: the manipulation of Borel sets. We believe that for the purpose of this paper, it is a bit more clear to use Borel sets rather than a formal forcing relation.

**3.1. Borel codes.** In order to be able to speak about sets of reals in  $L_{\alpha}$ , we need to code them into elements of  $L_{\alpha}$ . We do that with the notion of  $\infty$ -Borel codes and Borel codes. In this paper, due to technical reasons that will be made clear later, we need to be careful about the *L*-rank of our Borel codes. In particular, if  $\{c_n\}_{n\in\omega}$  are Borel codes for  $\sum_{\alpha+k}^{0}$  sets  $\mathcal{B}_n$  such that each  $c_n$  has *L*-rank, say  $\beta$ , we need a code of  $\bigcap_{n\in\omega} \mathcal{B}_n$  also to have *L*-rank  $\beta$ . In particular we cannot for instance define a code of  $\bigcap_{n\in\omega} \mathcal{B}_n$  to be a set containing the codes  $c_n$ .

In what follows the coding trick is achieved with (3) and (4), by coding sequences of sequences of codes to be a partial function defined in  $F \subseteq \omega$ , using the usual bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\omega^2$ . This way the *L*-rank of a sequence of code stay at the same level.

DEFINITION 3.1 ( $\infty$ -Borel codes and Borel codes). We define, by induction,  $\infty$ -Borel codes together with their rank r, type  $t = \Sigma_r$  or  $\Pi_r$  and interpretation  $\iota$ :

- 1. The set  $c = \langle 2, \{\sigma_i\}_{i < k} \rangle$ , for any finite sequence  $\{\sigma_i\}_{i < k}$  with each  $\sigma_i \in 2^{<\omega}$ , is an  $\infty$ -Borel code, with rank r(c) = 0, type  $\Sigma_0 = \Pi_0 = \Delta_0$  and interpretation  $\iota(c) = \bigcup_{i < k} [\sigma_i]$
- 2. Suppose that for some set I, there exists a function  $f : i \in I \mapsto c_i$  such that  $c_i$  is an  $\infty$ -Borel code for every  $i \in I$ . Then  $d_0 = \langle 0, f \rangle$  and  $d_1 = \langle 1, f \rangle$  are  $\infty$ -Borel codes, with rank  $r(d_0) = r(d_1) = \sup_{i \in I} (r(c_i) + 1)$ , type respectively  $\Sigma_r^0$  and  $\Pi_r^0$  and interpretation  $\iota(d_0) = \bigcup_{i \in I} \iota(c_i)$  and  $\iota(d_1) = \bigcap_{i \in I} \iota(c_i)$ .
- 3. Suppose for some set I, there is  $k \in \omega$  and a function  $i \in I \mapsto c_i$  where for every  $i \in I$ , the set  $c_i = \langle 0, f_i : I^k \to L \rangle$  is an  $\infty$ -Borel code. Then we define  $f : I^{k+1} \to L$  by  $f(i, a_1, \ldots, a_k) = f_i(a_1, \ldots, a_k)$ . The set  $c = \langle 1, f :$  $I^{k+1} \to L \rangle$  is an  $\infty$ -Borel code, with rank  $r(c) = \sup_{i \in I} (r(c_i) + 1)$ , type  $\prod_r$ and interpretation  $\iota(c) = \bigcap_{i \in I} \iota(c_i)$ .
- 4. Suppose for some set I, there is  $k \in \omega$  and a function  $i \in I \mapsto c_i$  where for every  $i \in I$ , the set  $c_i = \langle 1, f_i : I^k \to L \rangle$  is an  $\infty$ -Borel code. Then we define  $f : I^{k+1} \to L$  by  $f(i, a_1, \ldots, a_k) = f_i(a_1, \ldots, a_k)$ . The set  $c = \langle 0, f : I^{k+1} \to L \rangle$  is an  $\infty$ -Borel code, with rank  $r(c) = \sup_{i \in I} (r(c_i) + 1)$ , type  $\Sigma_r$ and interpretation  $\iota(c) = \bigcup_{i \in I} \iota(c_i)$ .

A Borel code is an  $\infty$ -Borel code where each set I involved equals  $\omega$ . Note that a Borel code can be encoded by a real.

In order to lighten the notations, we will write  $b = \bigvee_{i \in I} b_i$  if b is the  $\infty$ -Borel code of  $\bigcup_{i \in I} \iota(b_i)$  and  $b = \bigwedge_{i \in I} b_i$  if b is the  $\infty$ -Borel code of  $\bigcap_{i \in I} \iota(b_i)$ . Note

that given a Borel code  $b = \bigvee_{i \in I} b_i$  or  $b = \bigwedge_{i \in I} b_i$ , one can uniformly find I (using the domain of the function involved in the code), and find the code  $b_i$ uniformly in  $i \in I$ :

**PROPOSITION 3.2.** We have:

- 1. The function which on an  $\infty$ -Borel code  $b = \bigvee_{i \in I} b_i$  and some  $i \in I$ , associates the  $\infty$ -Borel code  $b_i$ , is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$ -definable uniformly in  $\alpha$  limit. The same holds for  $b = \bigwedge_{i \in I} b_i$ .
- 2. The function which on an  $\infty$ -Borel code  $b \in L_{\gamma}$  associates the  $\infty$ -Borel code d of  $2^{\omega} - \iota(b)$  with  $d \in L_{\gamma}$  and r(b) = r(d), is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$ -definable uniformly in  $\alpha$  limit.
- 3. The function which on  $\infty$ -Borel codes  $b_0, \ldots, b_k \in L_{\gamma}$  associates the  $\infty$ -Borel code  $d \in L_{\gamma}$  with  $r(d) = \max_{i \leq k} (r(b_i))$  and  $\iota(d) = \bigcup_{i < k} \iota(b_i)$ , is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$ -definable uniformly in  $\alpha$  limit.

PROOF. (1) is rather obvious: A code  $b = \bigvee_{i \in I} b_i$  is of the form  $(0, f: I^{k+1} \to I^{k+1})$ L for some  $k \ge 0$ . If k = 0 then  $b_i$  is given by f(i). If k > 0 then  $b_i$  is given by  $\langle 1, f_i : I^k \to L \rangle$  where  $f_i$  is defined by  $f_i(a_1, \ldots, a_k) = f(i, a_1, \ldots, a_k)$ . This is easily uniformly definable in  $L_{\alpha}$  for any  $\alpha$  limit. The same holds for  $b = \bigwedge_{i \in I} b_i$ .

(2) goes by propagating the complement into the  $\infty$ -Borel code, and (3) by propagating the finite union in the  $\infty$ -Borel code. Both (2) and (3) are straightforward by induction on  $\gamma$ , using bounded rank replacement of Proposition 2.10.

**PROPOSITION 3.3.** The set of  $\infty$ -Borel codes and of Borel codes of  $L_{\alpha}$ , are  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$ -definable uniformly in any  $\alpha$  limit.

**PROOF.** We define by  $\Delta_0$ -induction on the rank of sets of  $L_{\alpha}$ , a total function  $f : L_{\alpha} \to \{0,1\}$ . The function returns 1 iff its parameter is a Borel code. It is defined as follow:

- f(c) = 1 if c is of the form  $\langle 2, \{\sigma_i\}_{i < k} \rangle$  for a sequence of strings  $\{\sigma_i\}_{i < k}$
- $= 1 \text{ if } c \text{ is of the form } \bigvee_{i \in \omega} c_i \text{ or } \bigwedge_{i \in \omega} c_i \\ \text{ and if for every } i \in \omega \text{ we have that } f(c_i) = 1$ 
  - 0 otherwise =

Note that we are in the conditions of Proposition 2.10, with sets  $L_{\beta}$  in place of sets  $E_{\beta}$ . One easily see that (1) (2) and (3) of Proposition 2.10 are verified, which implies that f is well-defined in  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  limit, using bounded rank replacement.  $\neg$ 

The proof is similar for  $\infty$ -Borel codes.

**3.2.** The naming system. We use the naming system presented by Cohen in [9]: a name for a set  $a \in L_{\alpha}(x)$  is given by the successive construction steps that lead to the construction of a, starting from an oracle x that we do not know.

We define  $P_0$  as the set of names for elements of  $L_0(x)$ , that is, for  $\{x\} \cup \omega$ . The integer 0 is a name for x and the integer n+1 is a name for  $n \in \omega$ .

Suppose now by induction that for an ordinal  $\alpha$ , the set of names  $P_{\alpha}$  for elements of  $L_{\alpha}(x)$  has been defined. We define the set of names  $P_{\alpha+1}$  for elements of  $L_{\alpha+1}(x)$ . Let  $b \in L_{\alpha+1}(x)$  be such that  $b = \{a \in L_{\alpha}(x) : L_{\alpha}(x) \models$  $\Phi(a, p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ , for  $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in L_{\alpha}(x)$ . A name for b is given by the following  $b = \langle P_{\alpha}, \lceil \Phi \rceil, \dot{p_1}, \ldots, \dot{p_n} \rangle$ , where  $\dot{p_1}, \ldots, \dot{p_n} \in P_{\alpha}$  are names for  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ .

Suppose now that the set of names  $P_{\beta}$  have been defined for  $\beta < \alpha$ . Then we define  $P_{\alpha} = \bigcup_{\beta < \alpha} P_{\beta}$ .

In general if  $a \in L_{\alpha}(x)$ , its corresponding name is written  $\dot{a}$ . Note that the naming system allows us to speak about elements of  $L_{\alpha}(x)$  without any requirement on x.

PROPOSITION 3.4. The function  $\beta \mapsto P_{\beta}$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$ -definable uniformly in  $\alpha$  is limit.

PROOF. We only sketch the proof here. It is straightforward by  $\Delta_0$ -induction on ordinals, using bounded rank replacement of Proposition 2.10, where  $E_{<\beta}$  is simply  $\beta$ . One should show that for any  $\beta$ , the set  $P_{\beta}$  belongs to  $L_{\beta+k}$  for some  $k \in \omega$ . This ensures (3) of Proposition 2.10, whereas (1) and (2) are obvious.  $\dashv$ 

We shall now argue that given a name  $p \in P_{\alpha}$  and given  $x \in 2^{\omega}$ , we can, uniformly in p and x, define the set of  $L_{\alpha}(x)$  that is coded by the name. Such a set will be denoted by p[x], and is defined by induction on the rank of p as follows:

- If p = 0 then p[x] = x. If  $p = n \in \omega \{0\}$  then p[x] = n 1.
- Suppose p[x] has been defined for every name  $p \in P_{\alpha}$ . We define

$$P_{\alpha}[x] = \{p[x] : p \in P_{\alpha}\}$$

Note that  $P_{\alpha}[x]$  is intended to equal  $L_{\alpha}(x)$ . Let  $p = \langle P_{\alpha}, \lceil \Phi \rceil, \dot{p_1}, \ldots, \dot{p_n} \rangle$  be a name of  $P_{\alpha+1}$ . Then p[x] is defined as:

$$p[x] = \{q[x] : q \in P_{\alpha} \text{ s.t. } P_{\alpha}[x] \models \Phi(q[x], \dot{p_1}[x], \dots, \dot{p_n}[x])\}$$

It is clear by induction that for any ordinal  $\alpha$ , for any  $x \in 2^{\omega}$  and any  $p \in L_{\alpha}(x)$ , we have  $\dot{p}[x] = p$ .

Note that with the definition we gave, we do not have  $P_{\alpha} \subseteq P_{\alpha+1}$ . However for  $\beta < \alpha$  and  $p \in P_{\beta}$ , one can uniformly obtain a name  $q \in P_{\alpha}$  such that p[x] = q[x].

PROPOSITION 3.5. The function which to ordinals  $\gamma < \beta$  and names  $\dot{p_{\gamma}} \in P_{\gamma}$ of elements  $p \in L_{\gamma}(x)$ , associates names  $\dot{p_{\beta}} \in P_{\beta}$  for the same element p, is  $\Delta_{1}^{L_{\alpha}}$ uniformly in  $\alpha$  limit.

PROOF. This is again  $\Delta_0$ -induction on ordinals, using bounded rank replacement of Proposition 2.10. If  $\beta = 1$ , given  $\dot{p_0} \in P_0$ , a name for some  $p \in L_0(x)$ , we let  $\dot{p_\beta} = \langle P_0, \lceil a \in z \rceil, \dot{p_0} \rangle \in P_1$ . Note that z is a free variable in the formula, meant to be replaced by  $\dot{p_0}$ . It is clear that  $\dot{p_\beta} \in L_k$  for some  $k < \omega$  and that  $\dot{p_\beta}$ is also a name for p.

Let  $\beta$  and let f be the function of the theorem defined on any  $\gamma' < \beta' \leq \beta$ and names of  $P_{\gamma'}$ . Let us show that we can extend f on any  $\gamma < \beta + 1$  and any name of  $P_{\gamma}$ . Let  $\gamma < \beta + 1$  and  $\dot{p_{\gamma}} \in P_{\gamma}$  be a name for some  $p \in L_{\gamma}(x)$ . If  $\gamma < \beta$ , using f we can find  $\dot{p_{\beta}} \in P_{\beta}$ , a name for p. Thus we can work as in the case  $\gamma = \beta$  and consider that we always have a name  $\dot{p_{\beta}} \in P_{\beta}$ . In particular we have that  $\dot{p_{\beta}}$  equals  $\langle P_{\gamma}, \lceil \Phi(a, \overline{z_i}) \rceil, \overline{p_i} \rangle$  for some  $\lceil \Phi(a, \overline{z_i}) \rceil$ , some  $\overline{p_i} \in P_{\gamma}$ , and some  $\gamma < \beta$  (with  $\gamma = \beta - 1$  if  $\beta$  is successor). Using f one can find names  $\overline{q_i} \in P_\beta$  corresponding to the names  $\overline{p_i} \in P_\gamma$ . Note that a name for  $L_\gamma$  is given by  $\langle P_\gamma, \lceil a = a \rceil \rangle$ . Let  $\Psi(a, r, \overline{p_i})$  be the conjunction of the formula  $a \in r$ , together with the formula  $\Phi(a, \overline{p_i})$  where every instance of  $\exists x \text{ (resp. } \forall x) \text{ is replaced by } \exists x \in r \text{ (resp. } \forall x \in r).$  The name  $p_{\beta+1} \in P_{\beta+1}$  is then given by:

$$\langle P_{\beta}, \ulcorner \Psi(a, r, \overline{q_i}) \urcorner, \langle P_{\gamma}, \ulcorner a = a \urcorner \rangle, \overline{q_i} \rangle$$

If is clear that  $p_{\beta+1} \in L_{\beta+k}$  for some k. Therefore we are in the conditions of Proposition 2.10 and the function of the proposition is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  uniformly in  $\alpha$  limit.

Also for the limit case the induction is clear as for  $\beta$  limit we have  $P_{\beta} = \bigcup_{\gamma < \beta} P_{\gamma}$ .

**3.3. The canonical Borel sets.** We develop here the notations and the main theorem to deal with the canonical sets with  $\infty$ -Borel codes, that will be used in this paper. Let  $\beta$  be an ordinal. Let  $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in P_{\beta}$ . Let  $\Phi(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$  be a formula. Then we write:

$$B^{\beta}_{\Phi}(p_1,\ldots,p_n)$$
 for the set  $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\beta}(x) \models \Phi(p_1[x],\ldots,p_n[x])\}$ 

The upcoming theorem makes sure that  $B^{\beta}_{\Phi}(p_1,\ldots,p_n)$  truly has an  $\infty$ -Borel code, definable uniformly in  $\lceil \Phi \rceil$ ,  $\beta$  and  $p_1,\ldots,p_n$ .

We will sometimes write  $B_{\Phi}$  or  $B_{\Phi}^{\beta}$  when the ordinal  $\beta$  and/or parameters  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$  are not specified. Also given an  $\infty$ -Borel set  $B_{\Phi}$  for a  $\Sigma_n$  formula  $\Phi$ , we say that  $B_{\Phi}^{\beta}$  is a  $\Sigma_n^{\beta} \infty$ -Borel set. Note that a fixed formula  $\Phi$  gives rise to many possible  $\infty$ -Borel sets depending on the model  $L_{\beta}$  that we consider.

The second part of the following theorem says that for  $\alpha$  limit, if  $\Phi$  is  $\Delta_0$ , then an  $\infty$ -Borel code for  $B^{\alpha}_{\Phi}(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$  belongs to  $L_{\alpha}$ , and can be found uniformly. It follows that one can picture a  $\Sigma^{\alpha}_n$  Borel set with similar intuitions one has with the usual  $\Sigma_n$  Borel sets used in the realm of computable objects and algorithmic randomness : The  $\Sigma^{\alpha}_1$  Borel sets can be seen as increasing uniform unions of  $\Delta^{\alpha}_0$ Borel sets over the names of elements of  $L_{\alpha}$ . Note that if  $\alpha$  is limit we have  $P_{\alpha} \subseteq L_{\alpha}$  and:

$$\{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \exists z \ \Phi(z, p_1[x], \dots, p_n[x]) \}$$
$$= \bigcup_{\dot{z} \in P_{\alpha}} \{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \Phi(\dot{z}[x], p_1[x], \dots, p_n[x]) \}$$

Similarly,  $\Sigma_2^{\alpha}$  Borel sets are unions of intersections of  $\Delta_0^{\alpha}$  Borel sets. Indeed we have for  $\alpha$  limit that:

$$\{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \exists z_1 \ \forall z_2 \ \Phi(z_1, z_2, p_1[x], \dots, p_n[x])\}$$

 $= \bigcup_{z_1 \in P_{\alpha}} \bigcap_{z_2 \in P_{\alpha}} \{ x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \Phi(z_1[x], z_2[x], p_1[x], \dots, p_n[x]) \}$ 

One easily sees how to continue for  $\Sigma_n^{\alpha}$  Borel sets in general.

THEOREM 3.6. Let  $\alpha$  be limit. Then, we have the following:

- 1. A function which on  $\beta$ ,  $\lceil \Phi(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \rceil$  and  $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in P_\beta$ , associates an  $\infty$ -Borel code for  $B^{\beta}_{\Phi}(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$  is  $\Delta^{L_{\alpha}}_1$  uniformly in  $\alpha$ .
- 2. A function which on  $\Delta_0$  formulas  $\ulcorner \Phi(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \urcorner$  and  $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in P_\alpha$ , associates an  $\infty$ -Borel code for  $B^{\alpha}_{\Phi}(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  uniformly in  $\alpha$ .

PROOF. (1) is proved by a  $\Delta_0$ -induction, using bounded rank replacement of Proposition 2.10, with the class of elements of the form  $(\beta, \lceil \Phi(\overline{x}) \rceil, \overline{p})$  in place of E: an ordinal  $\beta$ , a formula with n free variables, and n parameters of  $P_{\beta}$ . The induction is done only on the ordinal  $\beta$ . For a set F of formulas (for instance the atomic formulas) let  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F)$  be the induction hypothesis:

 $(\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F)) \qquad \text{The function } f \text{ which on } \beta, \text{ formulas } \lceil \Phi(\overline{x}) \rceil \in F \text{ and } \overline{p} \in P_{\beta}$ 

 $(\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F))$  associates an  $\infty$ -Borel code for  $B_{\Phi}^{\beta}(\overline{p})$ , belongs to  $L_{\beta+k}$  for some k

Let  $F_0$  be the set of atomic formulas and  $F_{\infty}$  be the set of all formulas. We will show  $\mathcal{H}_0(F_0)$ . Then we will show  $\mathcal{H}_\beta(F_0)$  implies  $\mathcal{H}_\beta(F_\infty)$ , then we will show  $\mathcal{H}_\beta(F_\infty)$  implies  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta+1}(F_0)$ . Finally we will show  $\bigwedge_{\gamma<\beta}\mathcal{H}_\gamma(F_\infty) \to \mathcal{H}_\beta(F_0)$ , together with (2) of the Theorem.

Let us begin with  $\mathcal{H}_0(F_0)$ , Let  $p_1, p_2 \in P_0$ . Consider  $B_{=} = \{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_0(x) \models p_1[x] = p_2[x]\}$  and  $B_{\in} = \{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_0(x) \models p_1[x] \in p_2[x]\}$ . Recall that  $p_1, p_2$  must be integers, with 0 coding for x and n + 1 coding for n. Therefore we have  $B_{=} = 2^{\omega}$  if  $p_1 = p_2$  and  $B_{=} = \emptyset$  otherwise. We also have  $B_{\in} = 2^{\omega}$  if  $p_1, p_2 > 0$  and  $p_1 \in p_2$  or if  $p_1 \neq 0$ ,  $p_2 = 0$  and  $p_1 - 1 \in x$ . Otherwise we have  $B_{\in} = \emptyset$ . It is clear that the two possible Borel codes  $(2^{\omega} \text{ or } \emptyset)$  belongs to  $L_k$  for some  $k \in \omega$  and that the computable function which assign the right Borel code depending on the atomic formulas and parameters, also belongs to  $L_k$  for some  $k \in \omega$  (recall that we start with  $L_0 = \omega$ ).

Now we prove  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_0) \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_{\infty})$ . We proceed in 5 stages, first showing  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_0) \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_1)$ , for  $F_1$  the set of atomic formulas and their negations, then showing  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_1) \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_2)$ , for  $F_2$  the set of finite disjunctions of formulas of  $F_1$ , then showing  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_2) \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_3)$ , for  $F_3$  the set of finite conjunctions of formulas of  $F_2$ , then showing  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_3) \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_4)$  for  $F_4$  the set of all formulas of  $F_3$  closed by finitely many quantifications, and finally showing  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_4) \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_{\infty})$ .

The step  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_0)$  implies  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_1)$  simply follows from (2) of Proposition 3.2. The step  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_1)$  implies  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_2)$  then follows from (3) of Proposition 3.2, whereas the step  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_2)$  implies  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_3)$  follows from both (2) and (3) of Proposition 3.2. Let us now show the step  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_3)$  implies  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_4)$ . Let  $\overline{p} \in P_{\beta}$  and let  $\Phi(\overline{a}) = \exists a_1 \ \forall a_2 \ \dots \ \Psi(a_1, a_2, \dots, \overline{a})$  be any formula of  $F_4$  (that is in prenex normal form with its quantifier-free part in disjunctive normal form, in particular with  $\Psi$  in  $F_3$ ). We then have:

$$B^{\beta}_{\Phi}(\overline{p}) = \{ x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\beta}(x) \models \exists x_1 \forall x_2 \dots \Psi(x_1, x_2, \dots, \overline{p}[x]) \}$$
  
$$= \bigcup_{q_1 \in P_{\beta}} \bigcap_{q_2 \in P_{\beta}} \dots \{ x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\beta}(x) \models \Psi(q_1[x], q_2[x], \dots, \overline{p}[x]) \}$$

Using (3) and (4) of Definition 3.1, and assuming we have the function given by  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_3)$ , it is easy to build the Borel code for  $B^{\beta}_{\Phi}(\bar{p})$  whose rank does not increase with the number of quantification, and furthermore, to uniformly do so. In particular we obtain  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_4)$ . In order to obtain  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_{\infty})$ , one simply has to use the computable function which transforms any formula into a formula in prenex normal form with its quantifier-free part in disjunctive normal form.

We continue by assuming  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_{\infty})$  and proving  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta+1,0}$ . We let  $p_1, p_2 \in P_{\beta+1}$ with  $p_1 = \langle P_{\beta}, \lceil \Phi_1 \rceil, a_1, \ldots, a_n \rangle$  and  $p_2 = \langle P_{\beta}, \lceil \Phi_2 \rceil, b_1, \ldots, b_m \rangle$ . For  $q \in P_{\beta}$ , let:

$$B_{\Phi_1}(q) = \{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\beta}(x) \models \Phi_1(q[x], a_1[x], \dots, a_n[x])\} \\ B_{\Phi_2}(q) = \{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\beta}(x) \models \Phi_2(q[x], b_1[x], \dots, b_m[x])\}$$

Note that  $q[x] \in p_1[x]$  iff  $x \in B_{\Phi_1}(q)$  and  $q[x] \in p_2[x]$  iff  $x \in B_{\Phi_2}(q)$ . Also by induction hypothesis, the function which on  $q \in P_\beta$  and on any formula  $\Psi$ associates the code of  $B_{\Psi}(q)$  belongs to  $L_{\beta+k}$  for some  $k \in \omega$ . We have:

 $L_{\beta+1}(x) \models p_1[x] \in p_2[x] \quad \text{iff} \quad \exists q \in P_\beta, \, x \in B_{\Phi_2}(q) \land L_{\beta+1}(x) \models p_1[x] = q[x]$ 

$$L_{\beta+1}(x) \models p_1[x] = p_2[x] \quad \text{ iff } \quad \forall q \in P_\beta \text{ we have } x \in B_{\Phi_1}(q) \leftrightarrow x \in B_{\Phi_2}(q)$$

Thus we have:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} B^{\beta+1}_{=}(p_1,p_2) &=& \{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\beta+1}(x) \models p_1[x] = p_2[x]\} \\ &=& \bigcap_{q \in P_{\beta}} [B_{\Phi_1}(q) \cap B_{\Phi_2}(q)] \cup [(2^{\omega} - B_{\Phi_1}(q)) \cap (2^{\omega} - B_{\Phi_2}(q))] \end{array}$$

It is clear that a code for  $B_{=}^{\beta+1}(p_1, p_2)$  can be obtained uniformly and belongs to  $L_{\beta+1+k}$  for some k which is independent from  $p_1, p_2$ . It follows that we have  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta+1,0}$  for equality. Also the set

$$\begin{array}{lcl} B_{\in}^{\beta+1}(p_1, p_2) &=& \{ x \in 2^{\omega} \ : \ L_{\beta+1}(x) \models p_1[x] \in p_2[x] \} \\ &=& \bigcup_{q \in P_{\beta}} [B_{\Phi_2}(q) \cap \{ x \in 2^{\omega} \ : \ L_{\beta+1}(x) \models p_1[x] = q[x] \} ] \end{array}$$

Using Proposition 3.5 one can uniformly transform  $q \in P_{\beta}$  into a name that belongs to  $P_{\beta+1}$  and thus perform the induction given by the = case just above. We thus have  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta+1}(F_{\infty})$ .

We now deal with the limit case, together with (2) of the theorem. We shall show  $\bigwedge_{\gamma < \beta} \mathcal{H}_{\gamma}(F_{\infty}) \to \mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_{0})$ . We will actually show more in order to also show (2): We show  $\bigwedge_{\gamma < \beta} \mathcal{H}_{\gamma}(F_{\infty}) \to \mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_{\Delta_{0}})$  where  $F_{\Delta_{0}}$  is the set of  $\Delta_{0}$  formulas.

For a  $\Delta_0$  formula  $\Phi(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ , let  $\gamma$  be the smallest such that  $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in P_{\gamma}$ . Note that  $\gamma$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\beta}}$ -definable uniformly in  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ . We have that the Borel  $B_{\Phi}^{\beta}(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$  also equals the Borel  $B_{\Phi}^{\beta}(p_1, \ldots, p_n) = \{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\gamma}(x) \models \Phi(p_1[x], \ldots, p_n[x])\}$ . By induction hypothesis the function which on  $\Phi$  and  $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in P_{\gamma}$  gives the Borel code of  $B_{\Phi}^{\gamma}(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$  belongs to  $L_{\gamma+k}$  for some k. As this function can be recognized with a  $\Delta_0$  formula uniformly in  $\gamma$ , this gives us (2). Note that the union of all these functions belongs to  $L_{\beta+k}$  for some k, which gives us  $\mathcal{H}_{\beta}(F_0)$ . This concludes the proof.

Note that for the study of ITTMs, we can always assume that we work with Borel codes and not  $\infty$ -Borel codes. Indeed by Corollary 2.33, for every  $\alpha \leq \Sigma$ limit the sets  $L_{\alpha}$  is a model of "everything is countable". We can then uniformly transform any  $\infty$ -Borel codes into a Borel code, working in  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$  limit, by searching inductively for the smallest (in the sense of  $\langle L \rangle$ ) bijection between elements of a Borel code, and  $\omega$ .

§4. Randomness. The main idea of algorithmic randomness is to define as random the elements of  $2^{\omega}$  which are in no set that is both of measure 0 and simple to define. Martin-Löf defined its eponymous randomness notion [20] using computability. Higher randomness has then been studied by working in  $L_{\omega_1^{ck}}$  (see [13] [3] [7] [8] [16] [21] [1]). Recently Carl and Schlicht initiated the study of randomness with infinite-time Turing machines [6]. In this section, we pursue their work, solving some of their open questions.

We start with a lemma extending computable measure theory to levels of the constructible hierarchy. In what follows,  $\mu$  denotes the Lebesgue measure on  $2^{\omega}$ .

Lemma 4.1.

- 1. The function  $b \mapsto \mu(\iota(b))$ , defined on  $\infty$ -Borel codes b, is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  uniformly in any  $\alpha$  limit.
- 2. We have the following, where b range over Borel codes and q over rationnals:
  - The function  $b, q \mapsto u$  such that u is the Borel code of an open set with  $\iota(b) \subseteq \iota(u)$  and  $\mu(\iota(u) \iota(b)) \leq q$
  - The function  $b, q \mapsto c$  such that c is the Borel code of a closed set with  $\iota(c) \subseteq \iota(b)$  and  $\mu(\iota(b) \iota(c)) \leq q$
  - are  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  definable uniformly in any  $\alpha$  limit.

PROOF. Both (1) and (2) are proved by a  $\Delta_0$ -induction on ranks of Borel sets (their rank as elements of L). This uses the bounded rank replacement of Proposition 2.10.

Proof of (1). For a Borel code b of rank 0, the measure is easily computable, as the measure of a clopen set. Let now  $b = \bigvee_{n \in I} b_n$  and  $\gamma$  the smallest such that  $b \in L_{\gamma+1}$ . Note that each  $b_i$  belongs to  $L_{\gamma}$ . Let  $P_f(I)$  be the set of finite subsets of I. We have:

(1) 
$$\mu(\iota(b)) = \sup_{F \in P_f(I)} \left( \lambda \left( \bigcup_{b_i \in F} \iota(b_i) \right) \right)$$

Using (3) of Proposition 3.2 we can obtain an  $\infty$ -Borel code  $d_F$  such that  $\iota(d_F) = \bigcup_{b_i \in F} \iota(b_i)$  and such that  $d_F \in L_{\gamma}$ . It is also clear that the function which to I associates  $P_f(I)$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$ -definable uniformly in  $\alpha$  limit. The function can then be defined by the  $\Delta_0$ -induction with bounded rank replacement of Proposition 2.10.

To compute  $\mu(\bigwedge_{n\in\omega} b_n)$ , we can use (2) of Proposition 3.2 to take the complement to 1 of the measure of  $2^{\omega} - \iota(c)$ .

Proof of (2). The function is also defined by  $\Delta_0$ -induction over  $\gamma$ , using bounded rank replacement of Proposition 2.10. In this first point, we could use  $\infty$ -Borel codes (and not Borel codes) but still compute the measure by considering all finite unions of codes of smaller complexity. In the second point, we do need to use Borel codes in order to associate a quantity  $2^{-n}$  to each component of a Borel set.

For a Borel code b of rank 0, both the open and the clopen sets are given by b itself. Let now  $b = \bigvee_{n \in \omega} b_n$  with  $\gamma^+$  the smallest such that  $b \in L_{\gamma^+}$ . Note that each  $b_n$  belongs to  $L_{\gamma}$ . By induction, for each  $b_n$  we find codes  $u_n$  and  $c_n$  of respectively open and closed sets, such that  $\mu(\iota(u_n) - \iota(b_n)) < 2^{-n}q$  and  $\mu(\iota(b_n) - \iota(c_n)) \leq 2^{-n}q$ . The code for the desired open set is then  $\bigvee_{n \in \omega} u_n$ . For the closed set, note that we have  $\mu(\iota(\bigvee_n b_n) - \iota(\bigvee_n c_n)) \leq q$ . It follows that there must be some m such that  $\mu(\iota(\bigvee_n b_n) - \iota(\bigvee_{n < m} c_n)) \leq q$ . The code for the closed set is then given by a code d equivalent to  $\bigvee_{n < m} \iota(c_n)$ , where we propagate the finite union using Proposition 3.2.

**4.1. Main definitions.** We give the first definition, which in full generality extends algorithmic randomness to every level of the constructible hierarchy.

DEFINITION 4.2. Let  $\alpha$  be a countable ordinal. A set x is random over  $L_{\alpha}$  if x is in no null set with a Borel code in  $L_{\alpha}$ .

This can be seen as an extension, to any level of the constructible hierarchy, of  $\Delta_1^1$ -randomness, which corresponds to randomness over  $L_{\omega_1^{ck}}$  in the above definition.

The most famous and studied randomness notion is undoubtedly Martin-Löf randomness [20], whose counterpart for  $L_{\omega_1^{ck}}$  was defined in [16]. We also extend the definition of Martin-Löf randomness to any level of the constructible hierarchy:

DEFINITION 4.3 (Carl, Schlicht [6]). An  $\alpha$ -recursively enumerable open set  $\mathcal{U}_n$ is an open set with a code  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\alpha}$  (with parameters). A set x is  $\alpha$ -*ML-random* if x is in no intersection  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$  where each set  $\mathcal{U}_n$  is an  $\alpha$ -recursively enumerable open set, uniformly in n, such that  $\mu(\mathcal{U}_n) \leq 2^{-n}$ .

We now turn to randomness notions which are specific to ITTMs. In order to do so, we first need the following definition:

DEFINITION 4.4 (Hamkins, Lewis [14]). A set  $P \subseteq 2^{\omega}$  or  $P \subseteq \omega$  is *ITTM-semi-decidable* if there is an ITTM M such that  $x \in P \Leftrightarrow M(x) \downarrow$ . A set  $P \subseteq 2^{\omega}$  or  $P \subseteq \omega$  is *ITTM-decidable* if it is both semi-decidable and co-semi-decidable, equivalently, there is an ITTM M such that  $M(x) \downarrow = 1 \leftrightarrow x \in P$  and  $M(x) \downarrow = 0 \leftrightarrow x \in P$ .

If  $x \subseteq \omega$ , it is clear by admissibility of  $L_{\lambda}$  that x is ITTM-decidable iff  $x \in L_{\lambda}$ , and that x is ITTM-semi-decidable iff x is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable over  $L_{\lambda}$ .

DEFINITION 4.5 (Carl, Schlicht [6]). An ITTM-semi-decidable open set is an open set  $\mathcal{U}$  with an ITTM-semi-decidable description  $W \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$  such that we have  $\bigcup_{\sigma \in W} [\sigma] = \mathcal{U}$ . A set X is *ITTM-ML-random* if X is in no intersection  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$  where each set  $\mathcal{U}_n$  is an ITTM-semi-decidable open set, uniformly in n, such that  $\mu(\mathcal{U}_n) \leq 2^{-n}$ .

Before we continue, we would like to make a small digression about the definition of ITTM-semi-decidable open sets. In the case of Turing machines, given an open set  $\mathcal{U}$ , it is equivalent to have a recursively enumerable set  $W \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ such that  $\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{\sigma \in W} [\sigma]$  and to have a functional  $\Phi$  such that  $\Phi(X) \downarrow \leftrightarrow X \in \mathcal{U}$ .

In the case of computability over  $L_{\omega_1^{ck}}$ , the same holds: given an open set  $\mathcal{U}$ , it is equivalent to have a  $\Pi_1^1$  set  $W \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$  such that  $\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{\sigma \in W} [\sigma]$  and for the open set  $\mathcal{U}$  to be  $\Pi_1^1$  as a set of reals.

The corresponding fact with ITTMs does not hold:

PROPOSITION 4.6. Every ITTM semi-decidable open set  $\mathcal{U} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$  is also ITTM semi-decidable as a set of reals, but there is an open set that is ITTM-decidable as a set of reals and which is not ITTM-semi-decidable as a set of strings.

PROOF. Suppose  $\mathcal{U}$  has an ITTM semi-decidable code  $W \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ . We can design another ITTM which on input x looks for some n such that  $x_{\uparrow n} \in W$ .

Whenever it find such an n it halts. It is clear that this other ITTM semi-decide  $\mathcal{U}$  as a set of reals.

Let us now exhibit an open set  $\mathcal{U}$  that is ITTM-decidable as a set of reals, but does not have an ITTM-semi-decidable code. Let c be given by the "Lost melody lemma" [14], that is  $\{c\}$  is ITTM-decidable but c is not writable. Then,  $A = 2^{\omega} - \{c\}$  is ITTM-decidable. However, no ITTM-semi-decidable set  $W \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$  can be such that  $\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{\sigma \in W} [\sigma]$ , as otherwise c would be writable by the following algorithm: if we know that  $\sigma \prec c$ , we compute a longer prefix of cby waiting for W to cover either  $\sigma^{\wedge}i$  (for i = 0 or 1), which will happen by compactness, and then extend our prefix to  $\sigma^{\wedge}(1-i) \prec c$ .

We now turn to the most interesting randomness notions defined with ITTM.

DEFINITION 4.7 (Carl, Schlicht [6]). A real x is ITTM-random if it is in no semi-decidable null set of reals. A real x is ITTM-decidable random if it is in no decidable null set of reals.

ITTM-decidable randomness can be seen as a counterpart of  $\Delta_1^1$ -randomness, and indeed Carl and Schlicht showed that ITTM-decidable randomness coincides with randomness over  $L_{\Sigma}$ .

The notion of ITTM-randomness is more interesting and is in many regards an equivalent for the notion of  $\Pi^1_1$ -randomness. We try in this paper to provide a better understanding of this notion.

**4.2. ITTM-randomness.** It is not immediately clear that every ITTM semidecidable set is measurable. A semi-decidable set has the form  $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\Sigma^x}(x) \models \Phi\}$  for some  $\Sigma_1$ -formula  $\Phi$ . Such sets need not to be Borel, but we can separate them into a Borel part and a non-Borel part always included in a Borel set of measure 0. In particular any such set is included in the set  $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\Sigma}(x) \models \Phi\} \cup \{x \in 2^{\omega} : \Sigma^x > \Sigma\}$ . The fact that every ITTM semidecidable set is measurable follows from the fact that the set  $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : \Sigma^x > \Sigma\}$ is included in a Borel set of measure 0. This will be a consequence of Corollary 4.10 together with Theorem 2.23.

ITTM-randomness is by many aspects the ITTM counterpart of  $\Pi_1^1$ -randomness. For instance, there is a greatest  $\Pi_1^1$  null set, and Carl and Schlicht showed that there is a greatest ITTM-semi-decidable null set. We also have that x is  $\Pi_1^1$ -random iff x is  $\Delta_1^1$ -random and  $\omega_1^x = \omega_1^{ck}$ . Carl and Schlicht proved the analogous statement for ITTM-randomness:

THEOREM 4.8 (Carl, Schlicht [6]). A real x is ITTM-random if and only if it is random over  $L_{\Sigma}$  and  $\Sigma^x = \Sigma$ .

There are of course differences between ITTM-randomness and  $\Pi_1^1$ -randomness. It is for instance straightforward to build a sequence that is  $\Delta_1^1$ -random but not  $\Pi_1^1$ -random: to do so one can show that the set of  $\Pi_1^1$ -randoms is included in the set of  $\Pi_1^1$ -ML-randoms, which is included in the set of  $\Delta_1^1$ -randoms. One can then build a sequence which is  $\Delta_1^1$ -random but not  $\Pi_1^1$ -ML-random, with a construction similar to the one given in the proof of (1) implies (3) in Theorem 4.22. The same thing is not possible with ITTM-randomness. We will see in particular that the  $\Sigma$ -ML-randoms are strictly included in the ITTM-randoms. Also, it is not clear that there are reals x which are randoms over  $L_{\Sigma}$  and such

that  $\Sigma^x > \Sigma$ . We will for instance show later in Section 5 that the equivalent notions for genericity collapse: a real x is ITTM-generic iff x is generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$  iff x is generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$  and  $\Sigma^x = \Sigma$ . The question for ITTM-randomness remains open:

QUESTION 4.9. Does ITTM-randomness coincide with randomness over  $L_{\Sigma}$ ?

Although we are not able to answer the question here, we still can say meaningful things about ITTM-randomness. In [6] Carl and Schlicht proved the following:

THEOREM 4.10 (Carl, Schlicht [6]). Suppose that  $\alpha$  is countable and admissible or a limit of admissibles ordinals. Then:

- 1. If  $L_{\beta} \prec_1 L_{\alpha}$  and z is random over  $L_{\alpha}$ , then  $L_{\beta}(z) \prec_1 L_{\alpha}(z)$
- 2. If  $L_{\beta} \prec_n L_{\alpha}$  and z is random over  $L_{\gamma}$  where  $L_{\gamma} \models ``\alpha$  is countable", then  $L_{\beta}(z) \prec_n L_{\alpha}(z)$  for  $n \ge 2$ .

In order to understand better  $\Sigma$ -randomness, we introduce a stronger notion that will be enough to obtain (2) in the previous theorem.

DEFINITION 4.11. A weak  $\alpha$ -ML test is given by a set  $\bigcap_{q \in L_{\alpha}} \mathcal{B}_q$  such that the function which to q associates a Borel code of  $\mathcal{B}_q$  is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  and such that  $\mu(\bigcap_{q \in L_{\alpha}} \mathcal{B}_q) = 0.$ 

A real x is captured by a weak  $\alpha$ -ML test if  $x \in \bigcap_{q \in L_{\alpha}} \mathcal{B}_q$ . Otherwise we say that x passes the test. A real x which passes all the weak  $\alpha$ -ML tests is weakly  $\alpha$ -ML-random.

PROPOSITION 4.12. Let  $\alpha$  be admissible and  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "everything is countable". Then weak  $\alpha$ -ML-randomness coincides with randomness over  $L_{\alpha}$ .

PROOF. It is clear that weak  $\alpha$ -ML-randomness implies randomness over  $L_{\alpha}$ for any  $\alpha$ . Suppose now  $\alpha$  admissible and let  $\bigcap_{q \in L_{\alpha}} \mathcal{B}_q$  be a weak  $\alpha$ -ML test. Let  $f: \omega \to L_{\alpha}$  be defined with f(n) to be the smallest  $r \in L_{\alpha}$ , in the sense of  $<_L$ , such that  $\mu(\bigcap_{q <_L r} \mathcal{B}_q) < 2^{-n}$ . By admissibility of  $\alpha$  there exists  $\beta < \alpha$  such that  $\forall n \ f(n) \in L_{\beta}$ . We then have  $\mu(\bigcap_{q \in L_{\beta}} \mathcal{B}_q) = 0$  and  $\bigcap_{q \in L_{\alpha}} \mathcal{B}_q \subseteq \bigcap_{q \in L_{\beta}} \mathcal{B}_q$ . As  $\bigcap_{q \in L_{\beta}} \mathcal{B}_q$  has a Borel code in  $L_{\alpha}$  we have that every element in  $\bigcap_{q \in L_{\alpha}} \mathcal{B}_q$ belongs to a null set of  $L_{\alpha}$ .

PROPOSITION 4.13. Weak  $\Sigma$ -ML randomness is strictly stronger than randomness over  $L_{\Sigma}$ .

PROOF. It is clear that weak  $\Sigma$ -ML randomness is stronger than randomness over  $L_{\Sigma}$ . Let us build  $x \in 2^{\omega}$  that is random over  $L_{\Sigma}$  but not weakly  $\Sigma$ -ML random.

From Corollary 2.35, let  $b: \omega \to L_{\Sigma}$  be a bijection which is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\Sigma}$  with parameter  $\zeta$ . One can then simply diagonalize against every measure 1 set with a Borel code in  $L_{\Sigma}$ . We define  $\sigma_0$  to be the empty string and  $\mathcal{F}_0$  to be  $2^{\omega}$ . Suppose for some n and every  $i \leq n$  we have defined a string  $\sigma_i$  and a closed set  $\mathcal{F}_i$  uniformly in i such that  $\mu(\sigma_i \cap \mathcal{F}_i) > 0$ , such that  $\sigma_i \preceq \sigma_{i+1}$ , such that  $\mathcal{F}_{i+1} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_i$  and such that if b(i) is the Borel code of a co-null set, then  $\mathcal{F}_i \subseteq \mathcal{B}_i$ . Let us define  $\mathcal{F}_{n+1}$  and  $\sigma_{n+1}$ . If b(n+1) is the Borel code of a set

of measure less than 1, we define  $\sigma_{n+1} = \sigma_n$  and  $\mathcal{F}_{n+1} = \mathcal{F}_n$ . If b(n+1) is the Borel code of a set  $\mathcal{B}$  of measure 1, we uniformly find a closed set  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$  with a Borel code in  $L_{\Sigma}$  and with a measure sufficiently close to 1, so that we have  $\mu(\sigma_n \cap \mathcal{F}_n \cap \mathcal{F}) > 0$ , using Lemma 4.1. We define  $\mathcal{F}_{n+1} = \mathcal{F}_n \cap \mathcal{F}$ . We then define  $\sigma_{n+1} = \sigma_n i$  for  $i \in \{0, 1\}$  such that  $\mu(\sigma_{n+1} \cap \mathcal{F}_{n+1}) > 0$ .

Let  $x = \sigma_0 \preceq \sigma_1 \preceq \sigma_2 \preceq \ldots$  It is clear that x is random over  $L_{\Sigma}$ . The weak  $\Sigma$ -ML test  $\bigcap_{q \in L_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{B}_q$  is as follow: for  $q \in L_{\Sigma}$ , let  $n = b^{-1}(q)$ . Then define  $\mathcal{B}_q = \sigma_n$ . It is clear that  $x \in \bigcap_{q \in L_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{B}_q$  and that  $\mu(\bigcap_{q \in L_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{B}_q) = 0$ .

We then need two lemmas. The first is the same as (1) in [6], but we believe that this paper's proof is a bit simpler.

LEMMA 4.14. Let  $\beta < \alpha$  with  $\alpha$  countable and limit and  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "everything is countable" and  $L_{\beta} \prec_1 L_{\alpha}$ . Let z be random over  $\alpha$ . Then we have  $L_{\beta}(z) \prec_1 L_{\alpha}(z)$ .

PROOF. Let  $\Phi(p,q)$  be a  $\Delta_0$  formula with  $p \in P_\beta$ . Suppose z is random over  $L_\alpha$  such that  $L_\alpha(z) \models \exists q \ \Phi(p[z],q)$ . Consider the set  $\mathcal{B}^{\alpha}_{\Phi} = \{x : L_\alpha(x) \models \exists q \ \Phi(p[x],q)\}$ . We have  $\mathcal{B}^{\alpha}_{\Phi} = \bigcup_{\dot{q} \in P_\alpha} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}}$  where:

$$\mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}} = \{x : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \Phi(p[x], \dot{q}[x])\}$$

Let  $\mu(\mathcal{B}^{\alpha}_{\Phi}) = m$ . Note that as z is random over  $L_{\alpha}$  we must have m > 0. For every  $\varepsilon$  with  $0 < \varepsilon < m$  we have  $L_{\alpha} \models \exists \dot{r} \ \mu(\bigcup_{\dot{q} < L\dot{r}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}}) > \varepsilon$ . As  $L_{\beta} \prec_{1} L_{\alpha}$  we then have  $L_{\beta} \models \exists \dot{r} \ \mu(\bigcup_{\dot{q} < L\dot{r}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}}) > \varepsilon$ . As this is true for every  $\varepsilon$  we then have  $\mu(\bigcup_{\dot{q} \in P_{\beta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}}) = m$ .

Suppose for a contradiction that  $z \notin \bigcup_{\dot{q}\in P_{\beta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}}$ . There exists  $\dot{r} \in P_{\alpha}$  such that  $z \in \mathcal{A}_{\dot{r}}$ . Note that we have  $\bigcup_{\dot{q}\in P_{\beta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}} \subseteq \bigcup_{\dot{q}\in P_{\alpha}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}}$  and  $\mu(\bigcup_{\dot{q}\in P_{\beta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}}) = \mu(\bigcup_{\dot{q}\in P_{\alpha}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}})$ . Therefore we have  $\mu(\mathcal{A}_{\dot{r}} - \bigcup_{\dot{q}\in P_{\beta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}}) = 0$ . It follows that z belongs to a set of measure 0 with a Borel code in  $L_{\alpha}$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore we have  $z \in \bigcup_{\dot{q}\in P_{\beta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}}$  which implies  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \exists q \ \Phi(p[z], q)$ .

For the following lemma, we write  $=^*, \subseteq^*$  for equality and inclusion, up to a set of measure 0.

LEMMA 4.15. Let  $\beta < \alpha$  with  $\alpha$  countable and limit, such that  $L_{\beta} \prec_2 L_{\alpha}$ . Let  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\alpha} = \bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_{\alpha}} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_{\alpha}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}$  be a  $\Sigma_2^{\alpha}$  set with parameters in  $L_{\beta}$ . Then we have  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\alpha} = * \mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\beta}$ .

PROOF. By Lemma 4.14 and Proposition 2.17 we have that if z if random over  $L_{\alpha}$ , then  $z \in \bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_{\beta}} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_{\beta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}$  implies that  $z \in \bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_{\alpha}} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_{\alpha}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}$ . It follows that

$$\bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_\beta} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_\beta} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2} \subseteq^* \bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_\alpha} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_\alpha} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}$$

In particular if  $\mu(\bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_\alpha} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_\alpha} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}) = 0$  then we are done. Suppose then that we have  $\mu(\bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_\alpha} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_\alpha} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}) = m > 0$ . For every  $\varepsilon$  with  $0 < \varepsilon < m$  we have:

$$L_{\alpha} \models \exists \langle \dot{q}_{1,0}, \dots, \dot{q}_{1,k} \rangle \; \forall \dot{r}_{2} \; \mu \left( \bigcup_{0 \leq i \leq k} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_{2} < L \dot{r}_{2}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_{1,i},\dot{q}_{2}} \right) > \varepsilon$$

Using  $L_{\beta} \prec_2 L_{\alpha}$  we deduce:

$$L_{\beta} \models \exists \langle \dot{q}_{1,0}, \dots, \dot{q}_{1,k} \rangle \; \forall \dot{r}_2 \; \mu \left( \bigcup_{0 \le i \le k} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < L \dot{r}_2} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2} \right) > \varepsilon$$

We deduce that:

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_{\beta}} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_{\beta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}\right) \ge \varepsilon$$

As this is true for every  $\varepsilon$  with  $0 < \varepsilon < m$ , we must have the inequality  $\mu(\bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_\beta} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_\beta} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}) \ge m$ .

Together with the fact that  $\bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_\beta} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_\beta} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2} \subseteq^* \bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 < P_\alpha} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < P_\alpha} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}$ , we have the proposition.

THEOREM 4.16. Let  $\beta < \alpha$  with  $\alpha$  limit, be such that  $L_{\beta} \prec_2 L_{\alpha}$ . Let z be weakly  $\alpha$ -ML random. Then  $L_{\beta}(x) \prec_2 L_{\alpha}(x)$ .

PROOF. Let  $p \in P_{\beta}$ . Let  $\Phi(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  be a  $\Delta_0$  formula.

Suppose  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, p[z])$ . In particular there exists  $\dot{a} \in P_{\beta}$  such that  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \forall b \ \Phi(\dot{a}[z], b, p[z])$ . From Lemma 4.14,  $L_{\alpha}(z) \models \forall b \ \Phi(\dot{a}[z], b, p[z])$ . Thus we have  $L_{\alpha}(z) \models \exists a \ \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, p[z])$ .

Suppose  $L_{\alpha}(z) \models \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, p)$ . Then, let  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\alpha} = \{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, p[x])\}$ . We have  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\alpha}$  is the  $\Sigma_{2}^{\alpha}$  set given by  $\bigcup_{\dot{q}_{1} < P_{\alpha}} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_{2} < P_{\alpha}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_{1}, \dot{q}_{2}}$ , where

 $\mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2} = \{ x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \Phi(\dot{q}_1[x], \dot{q}_2[x], p[x]) \}$ 

From Lemma 4.15 we have that  $\mathcal{B}^{\alpha}_{\Phi} =^{*} \mathcal{B}^{\beta}_{\Phi}$ . Let  $\dot{r}$  be such that  $z \in \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 \in P_{\alpha}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{r}, \dot{q}_2}$ . Then we have

$$\lambda \left( \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 \in P_\alpha} \left( \mathcal{A}_{\dot{r}, \dot{q}_2} - \mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\beta} \right) \right) = 0$$

It follows that  $\bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 \in P_\alpha} (\mathcal{A}_{\dot{r},\dot{q}_2} - \mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\beta})$  is a weak  $\alpha$ -ML test. As z is not weakly  $\alpha$ -ML random it does not belong to the test and then it must belong to  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\beta}$ . Thus  $z \in \bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 \in P_{\beta}} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 \in P_{\beta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1,\dot{q}_2}$ . It follows that  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a,b,p[z])$ .

COROLLARY 4.17. Let  $\beta < \alpha$  such that  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "everything is countable" and  $L_{\beta} \prec_2 L_{\alpha}$ . Suppose  $\alpha$  is admissible. Let z be random over  $L_{\alpha}$ . Then  $L_{\beta}(z) \prec_2 L_{\alpha}(z)$ .

PROOF. If  $\alpha$  is admissible we have that weak  $\alpha$ -ML-randomness coincides with randomness over  $L_{\alpha}$  by Proposition 4.12. Thus if z is random over  $L_{\alpha}$  we must have  $L_{\beta}(z) \prec_2 L_{\alpha}(z)$ .

COROLLARY 4.18. Let z be weakly  $\Sigma$ -ML random. Then z is ITTM-random.

PROOF. We have  $L_{\zeta} \prec_2 L_{\Sigma}$ . We also have that z is ITTM-random iff z is random over  $L_{\Sigma}$  and  $\Sigma^z = \Sigma$ . If z is weakly  $\Sigma$ -ML random we have  $L_{\zeta}(z) \prec_2$  $L_{\Sigma}(z)$ . In particular  $(\zeta^z, \Sigma^z)$  is the lexicographically smallest pair of ordinal such that  $L_{\zeta^z}(z) \prec_2 L_{\Sigma^z}(z)$ , which implies  $\Sigma^z = \Sigma$  and  $\zeta^z = \zeta$ . Also if z is weakly  $\Sigma$ -ML random, then it is random over  $L_{\Sigma}$ . It follows that z is ITTM-random.  $\dashv$  We now give a more combinatorial equivalent characterization the notion of ITTM-randomness: a characterization in terms of being captured by sets of measure 0 having a specific complexity. For the following proposition, by  $\Delta_3^{\Sigma}$  set, we mean a set which is also  $\Delta_3^{\zeta}$ , that is, a set  $\mathcal{B}_1^{\Sigma} = \mathcal{B}_2^{\Sigma}$  with  $\mathcal{B}_1^{\Sigma}$  which is  $\Sigma_3^{\Sigma}$  and  $\mathcal{B}_2^{\Sigma}$  which is  $\Pi_3^{\Sigma}$ , such that for the versions  $\mathcal{B}_1^{\zeta}$  and  $\mathcal{B}_2^{\zeta}$  we also have  $\mathcal{B}_1^{\zeta} = \mathcal{B}_2^{\Sigma}$ .

THEOREM 4.19. The following are equivalent:

- 1. z is ITTM-random.
- 2. z belongs to no  $\Delta_3^{\Sigma}$  set of measure 0, with parameters in  $L_{\zeta}$ .

PROOF. Let us show (2) implies (1). Suppose that z is not ITTM-random. If it is not random over  $L_{\Sigma}$  then clearly (2) is false with the  $\Sigma_1^{\Sigma}$  set of measure 0 which is the union of all the Borel sets of  $L_{\Sigma}$  of measure 0. Otherwise z is random over  $L_{\Sigma}$  and there is a parameter  $p \in L_{\zeta}(z)$  with a  $\Delta_0$  formula  $\Phi(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  such that  $L_{\Sigma}(z) \models \exists a \forall b \Phi(a, b, p)$  but  $L_{\zeta}(z) \models \forall a \exists b \neg \Phi(a, b, p)$ . Let  $\Psi(p) \equiv \exists a \forall b \Phi(a, b, p)$ .

We have  $z \in \mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\neg \Psi}^{\zeta}$ . Also from Lemma 4.15 we have  $\mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma} =^* \mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\zeta}$  and thus  $\mu(\mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\neg \Psi}^{\zeta}) = 0$ . We now have to transform the  $\Pi_2^{\zeta}$  set  $\mathcal{B}_{\neg \Psi}^{\zeta}$  into a  $\Pi_2^{\Sigma}$  set  $\mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{\Sigma}$  such that  $\mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{\Sigma} =^* \mathcal{B}_{\neg \Psi}^{\zeta}$  and  $\mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{\Sigma}$  still contains z. Let  $\beta < \zeta$  be such that  $p \in L_{\beta}(z)$ .

We define  $\mathcal{B}^{\Sigma}_{\phi}$  to be  $\bigcap_{\beta \leq \alpha \prec_1 \Sigma} \mathcal{B}^{\alpha}_{\neg \Psi}$ . Formally, the corresponding formula  $\phi$  is given by  $\phi(\beta, p) \equiv \forall \alpha \geq \beta [L_{\alpha} \text{ is not } \Sigma_1 \text{ stable or } L_{\alpha}(x) \models \neg \Psi(p)]$ . Using Proposition 2.18 it is clear that  $\mathcal{B}^{\Sigma}_{\phi}$  is  $\Pi^{\Sigma}_{\Sigma}$ . We shall now show that as

Using Proposition 2.18 it is clear that  $\mathcal{B}^{\Sigma}_{\phi}$  is  $\Pi^{\Sigma}_{2}$ . We shall now show that as long as z is random over  $L_{\zeta}$  we have  $z \in \mathcal{B}^{\Sigma}_{\phi}$  iff  $z \in \mathcal{B}^{\zeta}_{\neg \Psi}$ . As  $L_{\zeta} \prec_{1} L_{\Sigma}$  we have  $\mathcal{B}^{\Sigma}_{\phi} \subseteq \mathcal{B}^{\zeta}_{\neg \Psi}$ . Let us show that if z is random over  $L_{\zeta}$  and  $z \in \mathcal{B}^{\zeta}_{\neg \Psi}$ , then  $z \in \mathcal{B}^{\Sigma}_{\phi}$ .

To do so let us first show that for every  $\alpha$  with  $\zeta < \alpha < \Sigma$  we have that  $\neg L_{\alpha} \prec_1 L_{\Sigma}$ . Fix such an ordinal  $\alpha$ . By Theorem 2.29, every accidentally writable ordinal becomes writable with parameter  $\zeta$ . In particular  $\{\alpha\}$  is  $\Sigma_1$ -definable in  $L_{\Sigma}$  with some  $\Sigma_1$  formula  $\Phi(\zeta, \alpha)$  (intuitively the program that writes  $\alpha$  and halts). It follows that  $L_{\Sigma} \models \exists \alpha \Phi(\zeta, \alpha)$  but  $\neg L_{\alpha} \models \exists \alpha \Phi(\zeta, \alpha)$ . Thus we do not have  $L_{\alpha} \prec_1 L_{\Sigma}$ .

Suppose now z is random over  $L_{\zeta}$  and  $z \in \mathcal{B}_{\neg\Psi}^{\zeta}$ . Let  $\alpha \geq \beta$  be such that  $L_{\alpha} \prec_1 L_{\Sigma}$ . Then we must have  $\alpha \leq \zeta$ . Also if  $L_{\Sigma} \models \Phi(p)$  for some  $\Sigma_1$  formula  $\Phi$  with parameter  $p \in L_{\alpha}$ , we must have  $L_{\alpha} \models \Phi(p)$  and then  $L_{\zeta} \models \Phi(p)$ . Therefore  $L_{\alpha} \prec_1 L_{\zeta}$ . Now as z is random over  $L_{\zeta}$  and  $z \in \mathcal{B}_{\neg\Psi}^{\zeta}$ , we must have by Lemma 4.14 and Proposition 2.17 that  $z \in \mathcal{B}_{\neg\Psi}^{\alpha}$ . It follows that  $z \in \bigcap_{\beta \leq \alpha \prec_1 \Sigma} \mathcal{B}_{\neg\Psi}^{\alpha}$ .

We then have that  $z \in \mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{\Sigma}$ , with  $\mu(\mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{\Sigma}) = 0$ , and with  $\mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{\Sigma}$  a  $\Delta_{3}^{\Sigma}$  set with parameters in  $L_{\zeta}$ . Note that  $\mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\zeta} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{\zeta}$  is also a  $\Delta_{3}^{\zeta}$  set.

Let us show (1) implies (2). Suppose now that there is a  $\Pi_3^{\Sigma}$  set  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\Sigma}$  and a  $\Sigma_3^{\Sigma}$  set  $\mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma}$ , with parameters in  $L_{\zeta}$ , such that  $z \in \mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\Sigma} = \mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma}$  and  $\mu(\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\Sigma}) = \mu(\mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma}) = 0$ , with also  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\zeta} = \mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\zeta}$ .

If  $z \notin \mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\zeta}$  then  $L_{\Sigma}(z) \models \Phi$  and  $\neg L_{\zeta}(z) \models \Phi$  for the  $\Pi_3$ -formula  $\Phi$ . By Proposition 2.17 we then have  $\neg L_{\zeta}(x) \prec_2 L_{\Sigma}(x)$  and thus z is not ITTM-random.

Otherwise  $z \in \mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\zeta}$  and thus  $z \in \mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\zeta}$ . We also have that  $\mu(\mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma}) = 0$ . Also  $\mathcal{B}_{\Psi}^{\Sigma} = \bigcup_{q_1 \in P_{\Sigma}} \bigcap_{q_2 \in P_{\Sigma}} \bigcup_{q_3 \in P_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{A}_{q_1, q_2, q_3}$ . For any name  $\dot{q}_1 \in P_{\zeta}$  we have that

 $\mu(\bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 \in P_{\Sigma}} \bigcup_{\dot{q}_3 \in P_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2, \dot{q}_3}) = 0$  and from Lemma 4.15 we then must have that  $\mu(\bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 \in P_{\zeta}} \bigcup_{\dot{q}_3 \in P_{\zeta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2, \dot{q}_3}) = 0.$  In particular there is  $\dot{q}_1 \in P_{\zeta}$  such that  $z \in P_{\zeta}$  $\bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 \in P_{\mathcal{L}}} \bigcup_{\dot{q}_3 \in P_{\mathcal{L}}} \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2, \dot{q}_3}$ . It follows that z is not random over  $L_{\Sigma}$  and thus not ITTM-random.  $\neg$ 

So ITTM-randomness is equivalent to  $\Delta_3^{\Sigma}$ -randomness for sets with parameters which are at most eventually writable, but not accidentally writable. We shall now see that it is actually very close to randomness over  $L_{\Sigma}$ , which can be shown to be equivalent to a similar test notion:

THEOREM 4.20. The following are equivalent:

- 1. z is random over  $L_{\Sigma}$ .
- 2. z is in no  $\Sigma_2^{\Sigma}$  set of measure 0, with parameters in  $L_{\zeta}$ . 3. z is in no  $\Pi_2^{\Sigma}$  set of measure 0, with parameters in  $L_{\zeta}$ .

**PROOF.** It is clear that both (2) and (3) imply (1), using the  $\Sigma_1^{\Sigma}$  set of measure 0 which is the union of all the Borel sets of  $L_{\Sigma}$  of measure 0.

Let us show (1) implies (2). Let  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\Sigma}$  be a  $\Sigma_2^{\Sigma}$  set equal to  $\bigcup_{\dot{q}_1 \in P_{\alpha}} \bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 \in P_{\alpha}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}$ with  $\mu(\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\Sigma}) = 0$ . The following argument is a combination of the  $\Sigma_2$ -stability of  $L_{\zeta}$  in  $L_{\Sigma}$ , together with the admissibility of  $L_{\zeta}$ .

By Lemma 4.15 we have  $\mu(\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\zeta}) = 0$ . Then,  $\forall \dot{q}_1 \in P_{\zeta} \ \mu(\bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 \in P_{\zeta}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}) =$ 0. Fix  $\dot{q}_1 \in P_{\zeta}$ . By admissibility of  $\zeta$ , there must exists  $\dot{r} \in P_{\zeta}$  such that  $\mu(\bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < L\dot{r}} A_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}) = 0$ . It follows that  $L_{\zeta} \models \forall \dot{q}_1 \exists \dot{r} \ \mu(\bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < L\dot{r}} A_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}) = 0$ . As  $L_{\zeta} \prec_2 L_{\Sigma}$  we also have  $L_{\Sigma} \models \forall \dot{q}_1 \exists \dot{r} \ \mu(\bigcap_{\dot{q}_2 < L\dot{r}} A_{\dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2}) = 0$ . In particular every real in  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\Sigma}$  is in a set of measure 0 with a Borel code in  $L_{\Sigma}$ .

Let us show (1) implies (3). Let  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\Sigma}$  be the  $\Pi_2^{\Sigma}$  set of measure 0. By Lemma 4.15 we must have  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\zeta} = {}^*\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\Sigma}$ . Let  $z \in \mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\Sigma}$ . Suppose  $z \notin \mathcal{B}_{\Phi}^{\zeta}$ . Then we have  $L_{\Sigma}(z) \models \Phi$ and  $\neg L_{\zeta}(z) \models \Phi$  for a  $\Pi_2$  formula  $\Phi$  with parameters in  $L_{\zeta}$ . By Lemma 4.14 together with Proposition 2.17 we then have that z is not random over  $L_{\Sigma}$ . Suppose now  $z \in \mathcal{B}^{\zeta}_{\Phi}$ . Then z is in a set of measure 0 with a Borel code in  $L_{\Sigma}$ which implies that z is not random over  $L_{\Sigma}$ . -

4.3. Martin-Löf randomness in the constructibles. It was shown in [6] that randomness over  $L_{\lambda}$  is the counterpart of  $\Delta_1^1$ -randomness for ITTMs, and  $\lambda$ -ML-randomness the counterpart of  $\Pi_1^1$ -ML-randomness. Carl and Schlicht asked if as in the hyperarithmetic case these two notions really differ. We give a general answer to this question by characterizing the ordinals  $\alpha$  for which the two notions are different.

**4.3.1.** Separation of randomness over  $L_{\alpha}$  and  $\alpha$ -ML-randomness. We first give the easy relation between randomness over  $L_{\alpha}$  and  $\alpha$ -ML-randomness:

**PROPOSITION 4.21.** Let  $\alpha$  be limit. Then  $\alpha$ -ML-randomness is stronger than randomness over  $L_{\alpha}$ 

**PROOF.** Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a Borel set with code in  $L_{\alpha}$ . By Lemma 4.1, we define an  $\alpha$ -ML-test  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$  such that for all n, we have  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{U}_n$ , and  $\mu(\mathcal{U}_n) \leq \mu(\mathcal{B}) + 2^{-n} =$  $2^{-n}$ . Then  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$ , this proves the property.  $\neg$ 

The following theorem characterizes exactly when randomness over  $L_{\alpha}$  and  $\alpha$ -ML-randomness coincide, for  $\alpha$  admissible or  $\alpha$  limit and  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "everything is countable".

THEOREM 4.22. Let  $\alpha$  be admissible or  $\alpha$  limit such that  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "everything is countable". The following are equivalent:

- 1.  $\alpha$  is projectible into  $\omega$ .
- 2. There is a universal  $\alpha$ -ML-test.
- 3.  $\alpha$ -ML-randomness is strictly stronger than randomness over  $L_{\alpha}$ .

PROOF. Note first that if  $\alpha$  is limit, non-admissible and  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "everything is countable", then by Theorem 2.34  $\alpha$  is projectible into  $\omega$ . Therefore for (3) implies (1) and (2) implies (1), we can suppose  $\alpha$  admissible.

The proof that (3) implies (1) is done by contraposition and Theorem 2.21: if  $\alpha$  is not projectible into  $\omega$ , then  $L_{\alpha}$  satisfies  $\Sigma_1$ -comprehension for subsets of  $\omega$  and then every  $\alpha$ -ML-test is in  $L_{\alpha}$ , which implies that randomness over  $L_{\alpha}$  is stronger than  $\alpha$ -ML-randomness. Together with Proposition 4.21 we have that the two notions of randomness coincide.

To prove (2) implies (1), suppose we have (2) and  $\alpha$  is not projectible into  $\omega$ , in order to get a contradiction. Then by Theorem 2.21, the universal  $\alpha$ -ML-test  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$  would be in some  $L_\beta$  with  $\beta < \alpha$ . We have that  $2^{\omega} - \mathcal{U}_0$  is a closed set whose leftmost path is definable in  $L_\beta$  and then belongs to  $L_{\beta+1}$ . As this leftmost path is definable in  $L_\alpha$ , it is not random over  $L_\alpha$ , which contradicts the universality of the test.

Let us now prove (1) implies (2). Assuming that  $\alpha$  is projectible into  $\omega$ , it is then possible to  $\alpha$ -recursively assign an integer to all the parameters in  $L_{\alpha}$ , we will use this to assign an integer to every  $\alpha$ -ML-test. We have an enumeration  $\{\Phi_m(x,k,p,\sigma)\}_{m\in\omega}$  of every  $\Delta_0$  formula with four free variables and without parameters. We see any such formula as defining a uniform intersection of  $\alpha$ recursively enumerable open sets when given a parameter p: for some m the formula  $\Phi_m$  together with a parameter p defines an intersection of open sets  $\bigcap_k \mathcal{U}_k$ , each  $\mathcal{U}_k$  being the union of all the cylinders  $[\sigma]$  such that  $L_{\alpha} \models \exists x \ \Phi_m(x,k,p,\sigma)$ .

Let  $\pi$  be a  $\Sigma_1$ -definable injection of  $L_{\alpha}$  into  $\omega$ . Note that if  $\alpha$  is admissible we use the projection together with the bijection between  $\alpha$  and  $L_{\alpha}$ . Otherwise we use the bijection given by Theorem 2.34. Let p be a parameter and n an integer such that  $\pi(p) = n$ . If  $\bigcap_k \mathcal{U}_k$  is defined in  $L_{\alpha}$  by the  $\Sigma_1$  formula  $\Phi_m(x, k, p, \sigma)$ with parameter p, then  $\bigcap_k \mathcal{U}_k$  is also defined by the following parameter-free  $\Sigma_1$  formula  $\Psi_{n,m}(k,\sigma) \equiv \exists p \exists x \ \pi(p) = n \land \Phi_m(x,k,p,\sigma)$ . Consequently, every uniform intersection of  $\alpha$ -recursively enumerable open set  $\bigcap_k \mathcal{U}_k$  is defined by a formula in the enumeration  $\{\Psi_{m,n}(k,\sigma)\}_{(m,n)\in\omega}$ .

Now for integers m, n, the formula  $\Psi_{m,n}(k, \sigma)$  might not define an  $\alpha$ -ML-test, due to the measure requirement. For any n, m let  $\tilde{\psi}_{m,n}(z,k,\sigma)$  be a  $\Delta_0$  formula such that  $L_{\alpha} \models \exists z \ \tilde{\psi}_{m,n}(z,k,\sigma)$  iff  $L_{\alpha} \models \Psi_{n,m}(k,\sigma)$ . We define the computable function g which to n, m associates the code g(n, m) of the  $\Delta_0$  formula  $\phi(z,k,\sigma)$ 

$$\phi(z,k,\sigma) \equiv \widetilde{\psi}_{m,n}(z,k,\sigma) \wedge \lambda \left( \bigcup \{ [\tau] : \exists z' \leq_L z \ \widetilde{\psi}_{n,m}(z',k,\tau) \} \right) \leq 2^{-k}$$

The formula  $\exists z \ \phi(z,k,\sigma)$  always defines a Martin-Löf test. Furthermore, if  $\Psi_{n,m}(k,\sigma)$  defines an  $\alpha$ -ML-test, then the formula  $\exists z \ \phi(z,k,\sigma)$  defines the same test. It follows that  $\{g(n,m)\}_{n,m\in\omega}$  is an enumeration of codes for  $\alpha$ -ML-tests that contains all the  $\alpha$ -ML-tests. This can then be used to define a universal  $\alpha$ -ML test as in the lower settings: given an enumeration  $\{\bigcap_k \mathcal{U}_k^n\}_{n\in\omega}$  of all the Martin-Löf tests, we define  $\mathcal{V}_m = \bigcup_i \mathcal{U}_{i+m+1}^i$ . We clearly have  $\bigcup_n \bigcap_k \mathcal{U}_k^n \subseteq \bigcap_m \mathcal{V}_m$ , and as  $\mu(\mathcal{U}_{i+m+1}^i) \leq 2^{-m-i-1}$  we have  $\mu(\mathcal{V}_m) \leq 2^{-m}$  which implies that  $\bigcap_m \mathcal{V}_m$  is a Martin-Löf test. Thus (1) implies (2).

To prove (1) implies (3), we will build an  $\alpha$ -ML test  $\mathcal{U}$  capturing a real x which is random over  $L_{\alpha}$ . Let  $\pi$  be a  $\Sigma_1$ -definable injection of  $L_{\alpha}$  into  $\omega$ . We proceed by stages where the stages are ordinals  $s < \alpha$ . The stages will approximate a set x random over  $L_{\alpha}$  in a  $\Delta_2^0$  way, together with an  $\alpha$ -ML test that capture x. To do so, for every integer n and every stage s, we will define a closed set  $\mathcal{F}_s^n$  and a string  $\sigma_s^n$  with  $|\sigma_s^n| = 2n$  and  $\sigma_s^n \prec \sigma_s^{n+1}$ , such that:

$$(R_n^s) \qquad \qquad \lambda\left(\bigcap_{i\leq n}\mathcal{F}_s^i\cap[\sigma_s^n]\right)>0$$

$$(S_n^s) \qquad \qquad \text{If } \pi(a) = n \text{ for } a \in L_s \text{ such that } a \text{ is the code} \\ \text{of a Borel set } \mathcal{B}_a \text{ of measure 1, then } \mathcal{F}_s^n \subseteq \mathcal{B}_a \end{cases}$$

Also the definition of  $\sigma_s^n$  and  $\mathcal{F}_s^n$  will be independent from the definition of  $\sigma_t^n$  and  $\mathcal{F}_t^n$  for  $t <_L s$ . At stage s, we define  $\mathcal{F}_s^0$  to be  $2^{\omega}$  and  $\sigma_s^0$  be the empty string. It is clear that  $R_0^s$  and  $S_0^s$  are satisfied. Suppose  $\mathcal{F}_s^i$  and  $\sigma_s^i$  have been defined for every  $i \leq n$  such that  $R_i^s$  and  $S_i^s$  are satisfied. Let us define  $\mathcal{F}_s^{n+1}$  and  $\sigma_s^{n+1}$ . If  $\pi(a) = n + 1$  for some  $a \in L_s$  such that a is the Borel code of a set  $\mathcal{B}_a$  of measure 1, then let  $\bigcup_m \mathcal{S}_m \subseteq \mathcal{B}_a$  be a conull union of closed sets with a Borel code in  $L_{\alpha}$ . Note that by Lemma 4.1 we can obtain such a union uniformly. Let then k be the smallest such that:

$$\lambda\left(\bigcup_{i\leq k}\mathcal{S}_i\cap\bigcap_{i\leq n}\mathcal{F}_s^i\cap[\sigma_s^n]\right)>0$$

Let  $F_s^{n+1} = \bigcup_{i \leq k} S_i$ . Let  $\sigma_{n+1}^s$  be the first extension of  $\sigma_n^s$  by two bits such that  $R_{n+1}^s$  is satisfied.

Let  $x_s$  be the sequence  $\sigma_1^s \prec \sigma_2^s \prec \sigma_3^s \prec \ldots$ . Note that for each n, the sequences  $\{\sigma_s^n\}_{s<\alpha}$  and  $\{\mathcal{F}_s^n\}_{s<\alpha}$  change at most once per integer  $i \leq n$  such that  $\pi(a) = i$  for some Borel set  $\mathcal{B}_a$  of measure 1 with  $a \in L_s$ . Thus these sequences change at most n times. In particular the whole process converges and the sequence  $x_s$  converges to some sequence x.

This can also be used to define the  $\alpha$ -ML-test that contains x. We define  $\mathcal{U}_n = \bigcup_{s < \alpha} [\sigma_s^n]$ . This is an  $\alpha$ -ML-test as there are at most n distinct versions of  $\sigma_s^n$  and for each of them we have  $|\sigma_s^n| = 2n$ . The measure of  $\mathcal{U}_n$  is then bounded by  $n \times 2^{-2n} \leq 2^{-n}$ . This shows that x is not  $\alpha$ -ML-random. Also by  $S_n^s$  we have that x is in every Borel set  $\mathcal{B}_s$ , so it is random over  $L_{\alpha}$ . We then have (1) implies (3).

COROLLARY 4.23. We have:

- $\lambda$ -ML-randomness is strictly stronger than randomness over  $L_{\lambda}$ .
- $\zeta$ -ML-randomness is equal to randomness over  $L_{\zeta}$ .
- $\Sigma$ -ML-randomness is strictly stronger than randomness over  $L_{\Sigma}$ .

PROOF. By Corollary 2.31, we have that  $\lambda$  is projectible over  $\omega$  with no parameter, and  $\zeta$  is not projectible into  $\omega$ . By Corollary 2.35, we have that  $\Sigma$  is projectible into  $\omega$  with parameter  $\zeta$ .

We shall now improve Corollary 4.23 for  $\Sigma$ -ML-randomness, by showing that it is strictly stronger than weak  $\Sigma$ -ML randomness and thus than ITTM-randomness.

THEOREM 4.24.  $\Sigma$ -ML-randomness is strictly stronger than weak  $\Sigma$ -ML randomness and than ITTM-randomness.

PROOF. We shall construct a real z such that for any  $\Sigma_1^{\Sigma}$  set  $\bigcup_{p \in L_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{B}_p$  of measure 1, we have  $z \in \bigcup_{p \in L_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{B}_p$ , together with a  $\Sigma$ -ML test  $\bigcap_{n \in \omega} \mathcal{U}_n$  containing z, and with  $\mu(\mathcal{U}_n) \leq 2^{-n}$ . The proof is very similar to (1) implies (3) in Theorem 4.22.

Let b be  $\Sigma_1$ -definable bijection of Corollary 2.35 from  $\omega$  to  $L_{\Sigma}$ . Using this bijection, let  $\{\bigcup_{p \in L_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{B}_{n,p}\}_{n \in \omega}$  be an enumeration of all the union of Borel sets of  $L_{\Sigma}$ .

We will define a computation, stage by stage, of a set z, that will be approximated in a  $\Delta_2^0$  way, together with a  $\Sigma$ -ML test that will capture z. To do so, for every integer n and every stage s, we will define a closed set  $\mathcal{F}_s^n$  and a string  $\sigma_s^n$  with  $|\sigma_s^n| = 2n$  and  $\sigma_s^n \prec \sigma_s^{n+1}$ , such that for every n, s we have

$$\lambda\left(\bigcap_{i\leq n}\mathcal{F}^i_s\cap[\sigma^n_s]\right)>0$$

and for every *n*, if  $\mu(\bigcup_{p \in L_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{B}_{n,p}) = 1$  there exists *t* such that for all  $s \geq t$  we have  $\mathcal{F}_{s}^{n} \subseteq \bigcup_{p \in L_{\Sigma}} \mathcal{B}_{n,p}$ . Note also that the definition of  $\mathcal{F}_{s}^{n}$  and  $\sigma_{s}^{n}$  will not depend on  $\mathcal{F}_{t}^{m}$  or  $\sigma_{t}^{m}$  for  $m \in \omega$  and t < s.

At stage s, we define  $\mathcal{F}_s^0$  to be  $2^{\omega}$  and  $\sigma_s^0$  to be the empty string. Suppose  $\mathcal{F}_s^i$  and  $\sigma_s^i$  have been defined for every  $i \leq n$ . Let us define  $\mathcal{F}_s^{n+1}$  and  $\sigma_s^{n+1}$ :

Suppose  $\mu(\bigcup_{p \in L_s} \mathcal{B}_{n+1,p} \cap \bigcap_{i \leq n} \mathcal{F}_s^{-} \cap (\sigma_s^n)) > 0$ . Then let us find some closed set  $\mathcal{F}_s^{n+1} \subseteq \bigcup_{p \in L_s} \mathcal{B}_{n+1,p}$  such that  $\mu(\bigcap_{i \leq n+1} \mathcal{F}_s^i \cap [\sigma_s^n]) > 0$ . Let then  $\sigma_{n+1}^s$  be the first extension of  $\sigma_n^s$  by two bits such that  $\mu(\bigcap_{i < n+1} \mathcal{F}_s^i \cap [\sigma_s^{n+1}]) > 0$ .

Let  $z_s$  be the sequence  $\sigma_1^s \prec \sigma_2^s \prec \sigma_3^s \prec \ldots$ . Note that for each n, the sequences  $\{\sigma_s^n\}_{s < \Sigma}$  and  $\{\mathcal{F}_s^n\}_{s < \Sigma}$  change at most once per integer i smaller than n. Thus these sequences change at most n times. In particular the whole process converges and the sequence  $z_s$  converges to some sequence z.

This can then be used to define the  $\alpha$ -ML-test that contains z. We define  $\mathcal{U}_n = \bigcup_{s < \Sigma} [\sigma_s^n]$ . This is a  $\Sigma$ -ML-test as there are at most n distinct versions of  $\sigma_s^n$  and for each of them we have  $|\sigma_s^n| = 2n$ . The measure of  $\mathcal{U}_n$  is then bounded by  $n \times 2^{-2n} \leq 2^{-n}$ . This shows that z is not  $\Sigma$ -ML-random. It is also clear that z is in every set  $\bigcup_{p \in L_\Sigma} \mathcal{B}_p$  such that  $\mu(\bigcup_{p \in L_\Sigma} \mathcal{B}_p) = 1$ .

**4.3.2.** Summary. The following picture summarizes the relations between all the randomness notions we have seen:



FIGURE 1. Higher randomness

We recall here the two remaining open questions:

QUESTION 4.25. Is ITTM-randomness strictly stronger than randomness over  $L_{\Sigma}$  ?

QUESTION 4.26. Is weak  $\Sigma$ -ML randomness strictly stronger than ITTM-randomness ?

Note that by Proposition 4.13 a negative answer to one of the two questions would provide a positive answer to the other one.

**4.3.3.** Mutual  $\lambda$ -ML randoms computing common reals. When two sets are mutually random, we expect them to compute no common non-computable sets. However, depending on the randomness level we ask for, this is sometimes not

the case. Carl and Schlicht asked in Question 5.5 from [6] if two mutually  $\lambda$ -MLrandoms could compute a common non-writable set. It is the case with Martin-Löf randomness, and sets which can be computed by two mutually Martin-Löf random must be K-trivials. We show that the same happens with ITTMs: some non-writable sets can be ITTM-computed by two mutually  $\lambda$ -ML-randoms. We do not study here however the notion of K-triviality for ITTMs, even though we conjecture that most of the work done about K-trivials and about higher K-trivials (K-trivials defined over  $L_{\omega_1^{ck}}$ ) lifts to the world of computability inside  $L_{\lambda}$ , using the fact that  $\lambda$  is projectible into  $\omega$ .

First, we need to expand, in a straightforward way, some definitions from MLrandomness to the ITTM settings. In the following, we focus on ITTMs but the proofs also work for  $\alpha$  such that there exists a universal  $\alpha$ -ML-test, in other word by Theorem 4.22 when  $\alpha$  is projectible in  $\omega$  and such that either  $\alpha$  is admissible or both  $\alpha$  is limit and  $L_{\alpha} \models$  "everything is countable".

DEFINITION 4.27. An ITTM-Solovay test is a sequence of uniformly ITTMsemi-decidable open sets  $(S_s)_{s<\lambda}$  such that  $\Sigma_{s<\lambda}\mu(S_s) < \infty$ . We say that  $Z \in 2^{\omega}$ passes the test if Z belongs to only finitely many  $S_s$ .

- **PROPOSITION 4.28.** Let  $z \in 2^{\omega}$ . The following are equivalent:
- 1. z passes every ITTM-Solovay tests.
- 2. z is  $\lambda$ -ML-random.

The proof of this characterization of  $\lambda$ -ML test via ITTM-Solovay tests is exactly the same as the one from the lower case, that can be found in [11]. Our witness for answering the question will be the even and odd parts of a specific  $\lambda$ -ML-random, an approximable one.

DEFINITION 4.29 (Chaitin's  $\Omega$  for ITTMs). Let  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$  be a universal  $\lambda$ -ML-test. We define  $\Omega$  as being the leftmost path of  $2^{\omega} - \mathcal{U}_0$ . In particular  $\Omega$  is  $\lambda$ -ML-random and has a left-c.e. approximation in  $L_{\lambda}$ .

In [6] Carl and Schlicht discuss the van Lambalgen theorem for  $\lambda$ -ML randomness. It holds using the fact that  $\lambda$  is projectible into  $\omega$ . The proof is the same as the one for  $\omega_1^{ck}$ -ML randomness (called  $\Pi_1^1$ -ML randomness in the literature) and works for any  $\alpha$  limit such that  $\alpha$  is projectible into  $\omega$ . In particular for  $\Omega = \Omega_1 \oplus \Omega_2$  we have that  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  are mutually  $\lambda$ -ML random.

THEOREM 4.30. There exists a non ITTM-writable set A which is ITTMwritable from both  $\Omega_0$  and  $\Omega_1$ , the two halves of Chaitin's  $\Omega$  for ITTMs.

PROOF. Let us first show the following version of the Hirschfeldt and Miller theorem for ITTMs (see for example [22, Theorem 5.3.15]): let  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$  be a uniform intersection of  $\lambda$ -recursively enumerable open sets, with  $\mu(\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n) = 0$ . Then there exists a non-writable set A such that A is x-writable in every  $\lambda$ -ML random  $x \in \bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$ . The set A will be a  $\lambda$ -recursively enumerable simple set, that is, it will be co-infinite and intersect any infinite  $\lambda$ -recursively enumerable set of integers. Let  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$  be a uniform intersection of  $\lambda$ -recursively enumerable open sets of measure 0. Note that we can suppose without loss of generality that  $\mathcal{U}_{n+1} \subseteq \mathcal{U}_n$ . Let  $\{W_e\}_{e \in \omega}$  be an enumeration of the  $\lambda$ -recursively enumerable sets. The enumeration of A is defined by stages. At ordinal stage  $s = \omega \times \alpha + \langle n, e \rangle$ , if we have:

- 1. n > 2e,
- 2.  $A[< s] \cap W_e[s] = \emptyset$ ,
- 3.  $n \in W_e[\alpha]$
- 4.  $\mu(\mathcal{U}_n[\alpha]) \leq 2^{-e}$

Then we add n to A at stage s.

First, let's show that A is simple. It is obviously co-infinite, as  $|A \cap [0, 2n]| \leq n$ by requirements (1) and (2). Let e be such that  $W_e$  is infinite, and towards a contradiction, suppose that  $W_e \cap A = \emptyset$ . Then, let m > 2e such that  $\mu(\mathcal{U}_m) < 2^{-e}$ , together with  $n \geq m$  and  $\alpha$  such that  $n \in W_e[\alpha]$ . Note that we have  $\mu(\mathcal{U}_n) \leq \mu(\mathcal{U}_m) < 2^{-e}$ . At stage  $s = \omega \times \alpha + \langle n, e \rangle$  if  $A[s] \cap W_e[s] = \emptyset$  then (1) (2) (3) and (4) will be met and  $n \in W_e$  will be added to A at stage s.

Now, let's show that A is x-writable from every  $\lambda$ -ML-random element of  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$ . We build the following ITTM-Solovay test: each time we add n into A at stage  $s = \omega \times \alpha + \langle n, e \rangle$ , we put  $\mathcal{U}_n[\alpha]$  in the Solovay test. Note that by (4) we have  $\mu(\mathcal{U}_n[\alpha]) < 2^{-e}$ , in particular the measure requirement of the Solovay test is satisfied. Now if  $x \in \bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$  is  $\lambda$ -ML-random it belongs to only finitely many such sets  $\mathcal{U}_n[\alpha]$ . In particular, there exists k such that for every  $m \geq k$ , if  $m \in A$ , then  $m \in A[s]$  for  $s = \omega \times (\alpha + 1)$  where  $\alpha$  is the smallest such that  $x \in \mathcal{U}_m[\alpha]$ . We can then use x to write A.

Finally, it remains only to prove that  $\Omega_0$  and  $\Omega_1$  are both in a common uniform intersection  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$  of  $\lambda$ -open sets, with  $\mu(\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n) = 0$ . Each set  $\mathcal{U}_n$  is given by

$$\mathcal{U}_n = \bigcup_{\alpha < \lambda} [\Omega_0[\alpha] \upharpoonright n] \cup \bigcup_{\alpha < \lambda} [\Omega_1[\alpha] \upharpoonright n]$$

It is clear that each set  $\mathcal{U}_n$  is a  $\lambda$ -recursively enumerable open set which contains both  $\Omega_0$  and  $\Omega_1$ . Let  $S_0 = \{\Omega_0[\alpha] : \alpha < \lambda\} \cup \{\Omega_0\}$  and  $S_1 = \{\Omega_1[\alpha] : \alpha < \lambda\} \cup \{\Omega_1\}$ . To show that  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$  has measure 0, we use the following argument from [3, Proposition 5.1]: if  $x \in \bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n$ , then x is at a distance of 0 from the set  $S_0 \cup S_1$ . Also it is clear that both  $S_0$  and  $S_1$  are closed sets, and thus that  $S_0 \cup S_1$ is a closed set (in particular because for every i the sequences  $\{\Omega_0(i)[\alpha]\}_{\alpha < \lambda}$  and  $\{\Omega_1(i)[\alpha]\}_{\alpha < \lambda}$  change only finitely often). As x is at a distance 0 from a closed set, it is a member of the closed set. As the closed set is countable it has measure 0. It follows that  $\mu(\bigcap_n \mathcal{U}_n) = 0$ .

**§5.** Genericity. Just like we define as random the sequences which are in every measure 1 set, among countably many sets, we define as *generic* the sequences which are in every co-meager set, among countably many sets. Both notions are obtained by considering a notion of largeness (measure 1 sets for randomness and co-meager sets for genericity), together with a countable class of large sets. For this reason both notions present many similar properties, and of course also many differences, as they are somehow opposite notions: whereas the random sets have no atypical property, the generic sets have them all.

The notion of genericity was designed by Cohen, as a canonical forcing notion. He considered as generic, the sets that belongs to no meager set, with a Borel code, in a countable model of ZFC. Various weakenings of this notion

have then been considered in the literature. This has been done in computability by Jockush and Kurtz [18] [19], in higher computability by Greenberg and Monin [13], and for ITTMs by Carl and Schlicht [5]. In the later paper, the authors mostly focus on sets that are computable from every oracle in a large set, for various notions of largeness, including co-meagerness. We focus here on various genericity notions, defined from ITTM. We define in particular the categorical analogue of ITTM-randomness, and we show that it is equivalent to ITTM-genericity over  $L_{\Sigma}$ , whereas the equivalent question remains open for the randomness case.

**5.1. Genericity over the constructibles.** Again, we do not work with the forcing relation, traditionally defined to deal with generic sets, but we instead directly deal with Borel sets. The following proposition is the constructible version of the fact that every Borel set has the Baire property, and is the core tool behind Cohen forcing:

THEOREM 5.1 (Effective Baire property theorem). There is a function  $b \mapsto (o,m)$ , which to any  $\infty$ -Borel code b, associates the  $\infty$ -Borel code o of an open set, and the  $\infty$ -Borel code m of a union of closed meager sets, such that for any  $x \notin \iota(m)$  we have  $x \in \iota(b)$  iff  $x \in \iota(o)$ . Moreover this function is uniformly  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  for  $\alpha$  limit.

PROOF. The function is defined by  $\Delta_0$  induction on the rank of sets of  $L_{\alpha}$  with the bounded rank replacement of Proposition 2.10. If b is the  $\infty$ -code of an open set then o = b and m is the  $\infty$ -code of the empty set. If b is the  $\infty$ -code of a closed set then o is the interior of b and m is the boundary of b. We leave to the reader the proof that the function which to an  $\infty$ -Borel code of a closed set associates the  $\infty$ -Borel code of its interior and boundary, is uniformly  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  for  $\alpha$  limit.

Consider now an  $\infty$ -Borel code  $b = \bigvee_{i \in I} c_i$ . Note that the rank of each  $c_i$  in  $L_{\alpha}$  is smaller than the rank of b. By induction we uniformly find  $\infty$ -Borel codes  $o_i$  and  $m_i$  such that for any i and any  $x \notin \iota(m_i)$  we have  $x \in \iota(b_i)$  iff  $x \in \iota(o_i)$ . We have that o is given by a code of  $\bigcup_{i \in I} \iota(o_i)$  and m is given by a code of  $\bigcup_{i \in I} \iota(m_i)$ . It is clear that for any  $x \notin \iota(m)$  we have  $x \in \iota(b)$  iff  $x \in \iota(o)$ .

Consider now an  $\infty$ -Borel code  $b = \bigwedge_{i \in I} c_i$ . Note that the rank of each  $c_i$  in  $L_{\alpha}$  is smaller than the rank of b. By induction we uniformly find  $\infty$ -Borel codes  $o_i$  and  $m_i$  such that for any n and any  $x \notin \iota(m_i)$  we have  $x \in \iota(b_i)$  iff  $x \in \iota(o_i)$ . We have that o is given by a code of the open set generated by all the strings  $\sigma$  such that each open set  $\iota(o_i)$  is dense in  $[\sigma]$ . For each such string  $\sigma$  we find  $m_{\sigma,i}$ , the  $\infty$ -Borel code of the closed set of empty interior  $[\sigma] - \iota(o_i)$ . Let  $m_s$  be a code of the meager set given by the union of each such  $\iota(m_{\sigma,i})$ . The meager set  $\iota(m_s) \cup \bigcup_{i \in I} \iota(m_i)$  ensures that if  $x \in \iota(o)$ , then  $x \in \iota(\bigwedge_{i \in I} c_i)$ . We now need to ensure that if  $x \in \iota(\bigwedge_{i \in I} c_i)$  then  $x \in \iota(o)$ . For that we add the following meager set: for each  $o_i$  we consider an  $\infty$ -Borel code m of our full meager set is then given by a code of  $\iota(m_t) \cup \iota(m_s) \cup \bigcup_{i \in \omega} \iota(m_i)$ . Suppose now that for  $x \notin \iota(m)$  we have  $x \in \bigwedge_{i \in I} c_i$ , and suppose that for no prefix  $\sigma \prec x$  we have  $[\sigma] \subseteq \iota(o)$ . In particular for every prefix  $\sigma \prec x$ , there is an extension  $\tau \succ \sigma$  and some i such that  $[\tau] \subseteq \iota(u_i)$ . Also because  $x \notin \bigcup_{i \in I} \iota(m_i)$  we must have  $x \in \iota(o_i)$  for every i

and then  $\tau \not\prec x$ . It follows that x is in the boundary of the closure of  $\bigcup_i \iota(u_i)$ , which contradicts that  $x \notin \iota(m)$ .

We now use the previous proposition to define the forcing relation in  $L_{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha$ limit, as follows:

DEFINITION 5.2. Let  $\alpha$  be limit. Let  $\Phi(p)$  be a formula and  $p \in L_{\alpha}$  a parameter. Let  $\mathcal{B}^{\alpha}(p) = \{x : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \Phi(p)\}$ . Let o and m be the Borel codes of Theorem 5.1, such that for  $x \notin \iota(m)$  we have  $x \in \iota(u_n)$  iff  $x \in \mathcal{B}^{\alpha}(p)$ . Then we define  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{p})$  if  $[\sigma] \subseteq \iota(o)$ .

It is clear that for  $z \succ \sigma$  generic enough, that is, which does not belong to sufficiently many meager sets, we have  $L_{\alpha}(z) \models \Phi(p)$  iff  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(p)$ .

**PROPOSITION 5.3.** Let  $\alpha$  be countable and limit. Let  $\Phi(p)$  be a formula with parameter  $p \in L_{\alpha}$ . For any  $\sigma$ , there exists  $\tau \succeq \sigma$  such that  $\tau \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{p})$  or  $\tau \Vdash_{\alpha} \neg \Phi(\dot{p}).$ 

**PROOF.** Let  $o_1$  be the open set which equals  $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \Phi(\dot{p})\}$  and  $o_2$ be the open set which equals  $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \neg \Phi(p)\}$ , both up to a union of closed meager sets of Borel code m. Suppose we have  $[\sigma] \cap (\iota(o_1) \cup \iota(o_2)) = \emptyset$  for some  $\sigma$ . In particular there is  $z \succ \sigma$  with  $z \notin \iota(m)$  (because a countable union of meager closed set is nowhere dense, here we use that  $\alpha$  is countable). Either  $L_{\alpha}(z) \models \Phi(p)$  or  $L_{\alpha}(z) \models \neg \Phi(p)$ . In the first case we must have  $z \in \iota(o_1)$  and in the second case we must have  $z \in \iota(o_2)$ , which contradicts  $[\sigma] \cap (\iota(o_1) \cup \iota(o_2)) =$  $\dashv$ Ø.

We now see that the predicate  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{p})$  for  $\Delta_0$  formulas with parameters  $\dot{p}$ is uniformly  $\Delta_1^{\alpha}$ . We in fact need a bit more, in order to show that the forcing relation for more complex formulas is still not too complex, even when  $\alpha$  is not admissible (see Corollary 5.6):

**PROPOSITION 5.4.** The function which to a string  $\sigma$  and a  $\Delta_0$  formula  $\Phi(\dot{p})$ returns 1 iff  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{p})$  (and 0 otherwise) is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  uniformly in  $\alpha$  limit, and more so, the function which on a  $\Delta_0$  formula  $\Phi(\dot{p})$  returns the function  $f: 2^{<\omega} \to$  $\{0,1\}$  such that  $f(\sigma) = 1$  iff  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{p})$ , is  $\Delta_1^{L_{\alpha}}$  uniformly in  $\alpha$  limit.

**PROOF.** By Theorem 3.6 one can uniformly find the Borel code of  $\mathcal{B}^{\alpha}(p) =$  $\{x : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \Phi(p)\}$ . Then by Theorem 5.1 one can uniformly find the Borel code o of the open set such that  $\mathcal{B}^{\alpha}(p)$  equals  $\iota(o)$  up to a meager set, and let  $f(\ulcorner \Phi(\dot{p})\urcorner) = o$ . The function f is simply given by  $f(\sigma) = 1$  iff  $[\sigma] \subseteq \iota(o)$ .  $\dashv$ 

In the previous proposition, note that the forcing relation is uniform in  $\alpha$ : for  $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2$  both limit, the same formula defines the forcing relation, interpreted as  $\Vdash_{\alpha_1}$  when working in  $L_{\alpha_1}$  and interpreted as  $\Vdash_{\alpha_2}$  when working in  $L_{\alpha_2}$ .

**PROPOSITION 5.5.** Let  $\alpha$  be limit. Let  $\Phi(a, p)$  be some formula with parameter  $p \in L_{\alpha}$ . We have:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \sigma & \Vdash_{\alpha} & \exists a \ \Phi(a,\dot{p}) \ iff \ \exists \dot{a} \ \sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{a},\dot{p}) \\ \sigma & \Vdash_{\alpha} & \forall a \ \Phi(a,\dot{p}) \ iff \ \forall \dot{a} \ \forall \tau \succ \sigma \ \exists \rho \succeq \tau \ \rho \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{a},\dot{p}) \end{array}$ 

**PROOF.** This follows from the construction of the Borel code o of Theorem 5.1 together with the definition of the forcing relation: for each  $a \in L_{\alpha}$ , let  $\mathcal{A}_{\dot{a}} =$ 

 $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\alpha} \models \Phi(\dot{a}, \dot{p})\}$  and let  $o_{\dot{a}}$  be Borel codes of open sets such that  $\iota(o_{\dot{a}})$  equals  $\mathcal{A}_{\dot{a}}$  up to a union of closed meager set.

Then we have that the Borel code of the open set o of Theorem 5.1 corresponding to  $\bigcup_{\dot{a}\in P_{\alpha}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{a}}$  is given by  $\bigcup_{\dot{a}\in P_{\alpha}} \iota(o_i)$ . This gives us exactly  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \exists a \ \Phi(a, \dot{p})$  iff  $\exists \dot{a} \ \sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{a}, \dot{p})$ .

Now the Borel code of the open set o of Theorem 5.1 corresponding to the set  $\bigcap_{\dot{a}\in P_{\alpha}} \mathcal{A}_{\dot{a}}$  is given by Borel code of the open set generated by all the strings  $\sigma$  such that each  $\iota(o_{\dot{a}})$  is dense in  $[\sigma]$ . This gives us exactly  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \forall a \ \Phi(a, \dot{p})$  iff  $\forall \dot{a} \ \forall \tau \succ \sigma \ \exists \rho \succeq \tau \ \rho \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{a}, \dot{p}).$ 

COROLLARY 5.6. Let  $\alpha$  be limit and  $n \geq 1$ . The function which to a string  $\sigma$  and a  $\Sigma_n$  formula  $\Phi(\dot{p})$  returns 1 iff  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{p})$  (and 0 otherwise) is  $\Sigma_n^{L_{\alpha}}$  uniformly in  $\alpha$ .

PROOF. By induction on the complexity of formula, starting with the function f of Proposition 5.4. For the induction, note the the quantifiers  $\forall \tau \succ \sigma$  and  $\exists \tau \succ \sigma$  are bounded, and that for the II case, we have to use each time the function  $f: 2^{<\omega} \to \{0, 1\}$  given by Proposition 5.4.

**5.2. Main definitions.** We now formally define the notions of genericity that will be used in this paper.

DEFINITION 5.7. If  $\alpha$  is an ordinal, a sequence z is generic over  $L_{\alpha}$  if z is in every dense open set  $\mathcal{U}$  with a Borel code in  $L_{\alpha}$ .

This previous definition applied to ITTM give that z is generic over  $\lambda$  (resp. generic over  $\zeta$ , resp. generic over  $\Sigma$ ) if z is in every dense open set with a writable Borel code (resp. an eventually writable Borel code, resp. an accidentally writable Borel code). These notions are somehow analogues of  $\Delta_1^1$ -genericity, in the sense that  $\Delta_1^1$ -genericity corresponds to genericity over  $L_{\omega_1^{ck}}$  as defined above.

PROPOSITION 5.8. Let  $\alpha$  be limit. Let  $\Phi(\dot{p})$  be a  $\Delta_0$  formula. Let z be generic over  $L_{\alpha}$ . Then  $L_{\alpha}(z) \models \Phi(\dot{p}[z])$  iff  $\exists \sigma \prec z \ \sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{p})$ .

PROOF. By Theorem 3.6 one can uniformly find the Borel code of  $\mathcal{B}^{\alpha}(p) = \{x : L_{\alpha}(x) \models \Phi(p)\}$ . Then by Theorem 5.1 one uniformly find the Borel code m of the union of meager closed sets such that for any  $x \notin \iota(m)$  we have  $x \in \mathcal{B}^{\alpha}(p)$  iff  $\exists \sigma \prec x \sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \Phi(\dot{p})$ . As z is generic over  $L_{\alpha}$  it does not belong to  $\iota(m)$  and the result follows.

We now define the categorical analogues of ITTM-randomness and ITTMdecidable randomness. A first idea would be to define as ITTM-generic reals those which are in every ITTM-semi-decidable open sets (open sets generated by semi-decidable set of strings). However it is clear that such open sets cannot be enumerated beyond stage  $\lambda$ , and the notion we get is not so interesting (it is in fact equivalent to genericity over  $L_{\lambda}$ ). Instead we need to use reals as oracle and the following definition seems to be the correct one:

DEFINITION 5.9. Let  $z \in 2^{\omega}$ . We say that z is:

- ITTM-generic if it is in no meager ITTM-semi-decidable set.
- coITTM-generic if it is no meager ITTM-co-semi-decidable set.

• ITTM-decidable generic if it is in no meager ITTM-decidable set.

The counterparts of these notions for Infinite Time Register Machines have already been studied in [4].

5.3. ITTM-genericity and ITTM-decidable genericity. In this section, we will fully characterize genericity over ITTM-decidable, semidecidable and cosemidecidable sets in terms of genericity over a level of the *L*-hierarchy. We will see in particular that ITTM-genericity coincides with genericity over  $L_{\Sigma}$ , whereas the analogue question remains open for randomness.

**5.3.1.** *ITTM-genericity.* We first see why ITTM-genericity is the categorical analogue of ITTM-randomness.

THEOREM 5.10. Let  $\alpha < \beta$  limit with  $L_{\alpha} \prec_1 L_{\beta}$ . Suppose  $z \in 2^{\omega}$  is generic over  $L_{\beta}$ . Then  $L_{\alpha}(z) \prec_1 L_{\beta}(z)$ .

PROOF. Suppose  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \exists q \ \Phi(q, p)$  for a  $\Delta_0$  formula  $\Phi$  and  $p \in L_{\alpha}$ . Let q be such that  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \Phi(q, p)$ . As z is generic over  $L_{\beta}$  and as  $\Phi$  is  $\Delta_0$ , there must exist by Proposition 5.8 a string  $\sigma \prec z$  such that  $\sigma \Vdash_{\beta} \Phi(\dot{q}, \dot{p})$ . In particular as  $\exists \dot{q} \ \sigma \Vdash_{\beta} \Phi(\dot{q}, \dot{p})$  we have  $\sigma \Vdash_{\beta} \exists q \ \Phi(q, \dot{p})$ . By  $\Sigma_1$ -stability of  $L_{\alpha}$  in  $L_{\beta}$  we have  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \exists q \ \Phi(q, \dot{p})$ .

THEOREM 5.11. Let  $z \in 2^{\omega}$ . Then the following are equivalent

- 1. z is ITTM-generic
- 2. z is generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$  and  $\Sigma^{z} = \Sigma$ .
- 3. z is generic over  $L_{\zeta}$  and  $\zeta^z = \zeta$ .

PROOF. We first prove (1) implies (2). Suppose z is ITTM-generic. Note first that the set  $\mathcal{A} = \{x \in 2^{\omega} : \Sigma^x > \Sigma\}$  is ITTM-semi-decidable: given z, one simply has to look for two z-accidentally writable ordinals  $\alpha < \beta$  such that  $L_{\alpha} \prec_2 L_{\beta}$  and then halt. Such a machine halts exactly on oracles x such that  $\Sigma^x > \Sigma$ . Carl and Schlicht showed [5] that if x is generic over  $L_{\Sigma+1}$ , then  $\Sigma^x = \Sigma$  (we will improve this result with Corollary 5.14). Thus the set  $\mathcal{A}$  is a meager semi-decidable set, which implies that  $\Sigma^z = \Sigma$ . We now have to show that z is generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$ . Suppose not for contradiction. We can then design the machine which given x on its input tape, look for all the accidentally writable Borel codes of unions of closed set of empty interior, and halt whenever it finds one such that x is in it. It is clear that such a machine semi-decides a meager set, and in particular halts on z, which contradicts that z is ITTM-generic.

Let us now show that (2) implies (1). Suppose z is generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$  and  $\Sigma^{z} = \Sigma$ . Let M be an ITTM that semi-decides a meager set M. Suppose for contradiction that  $M(z) \downarrow$ . As we have  $\Sigma^{z} = \Sigma$  we must also have  $\zeta^{z} = \zeta$ , by Theorem 2.29. By Theorem 5.10 we have  $L_{\lambda}(z) \prec_{1} L_{\zeta}(z) = L_{\zeta^{z}}(z)$ . As  $\lambda^{z}$  is the smallest ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $L_{\alpha}(z) \prec_{1} L_{\zeta^{z}}(z)$  and as  $\lambda \leq \lambda^{z}$  we then have  $\lambda = \lambda^{z}$ . It follows that  $M(z) \downarrow [\alpha]$  for some  $\alpha < \lambda$ . Thus the set  $\mathcal{B} = \{x \in 2^{\omega} : L_{\lambda}(x) \models M(x) \downarrow [\alpha]\}$  is a Borel set with a code in  $L_{\lambda}$ . As M halts on a meager set, the set  $\mathcal{B}$  must be meager. As  $z \in \mathcal{B}$  it is not generic over  $L_{\lambda}$ , which is a contradiction.

It is clear that (2) implies (3). Let us now show (3) implies (2). Suppose z is generic over  $L_{\zeta}$  and  $\zeta^z = \zeta$ . By Theorem 2.29 we have that  $\Sigma^z = \Sigma$ . Suppose for contradiction that z is not generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$ . Then we can design the machine M

that looks for the smallest accidentally writable ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $L_{\alpha}$  contains the Borel code of a meager set containing z, and when it finds it, writes  $\alpha$  and halts. As z is not generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$  the machine M with input z will write some accidentally writable ordinal  $\alpha$  and halt. As z is generic over  $L_{\zeta}$  it must be the case that  $\alpha > \zeta$ . It follows that  $\lambda^{z} > \zeta$  and thus  $\zeta^{z} > \zeta$ , a contradiction.  $\dashv$ 

COROLLARY 5.12. There is a largest ITTM semi-decidable meager set.

PROOF. Such a set is given in the proof of (1) implies (2), in the previous theorem: let M be the ITTM which halt on x such that  $\Sigma^x > \Sigma$ , or on x such that x belongs to a meager set with an accidentally writable Borel code. It is clear that M semi-decides a meager set. Also this meager set contains all the elements x which are not generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$ , or such that  $\Sigma^x > \Sigma$ .

We now show our main theorem for this section, that is, genericity over  $L_{\Sigma}$  coincides with ITTM-genericity.

THEOREM 5.13. Let  $\alpha < \beta$  with  $\beta$  limit, such that  $L_{\alpha} \prec_2 L_{\beta}$ . Let z be generic over  $L_{\beta}$ . Then  $L_{\alpha}(z) \prec_2 L_{\beta}(z)$ .

PROOF. Let  $\Phi(a, b, p)$  be a  $\Delta_0$  formula with parameter  $p \in L_{\alpha}$ . By Theorem 5.10 and Proposition 2.17 we have that if  $L_{\alpha}(z) \models \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, p)$ , then  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, p)$ . Suppose now that  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, p)$ . Let us show that  $L_{\alpha}(z) \models \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, p)$ . We shall prove that  $\exists \sigma \prec z \ \sigma \Vdash_{\beta}$  $\exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, \dot{p})$ . Note that this is not obvious because z is only generic over  $L_{\beta}$ and the equivalence of Proposition 5.8 works only for  $\Delta_0$  formulas.

For any  $\gamma$  limit such that  $p \in L_{\gamma}$ , let us define

$$\begin{array}{rcl} A_1^{\gamma} &=& \{\sigma \in 2^{<\omega} \ : \ \sigma \Vdash_{\gamma} \exists a \ \forall b \ \Phi(a,b,\dot{p})\} \\ A_2^{\gamma} &=& \{\sigma \in 2^{<\omega} \ : \ \sigma \Vdash_{\gamma} \forall a \ \exists b \ \neg \Phi(a,b,\dot{p})\} \end{array}$$

Suppose for a contradiction that for no prefix  $\sigma \prec z$  we have  $\sigma \in A_1^{\beta}$ . Suppose first that also for no prefix  $\sigma \prec z$  we have  $\sigma \in A_2^{\beta}$ . By Proposition 5.3 it must be the case that either  $A_1^{\beta}$  is dense along z, or that  $A_2^{\beta}$  is dense along z (without containing z). Also by the fact that  $L_{\alpha} \prec_2 L_{\beta}$  and by Corollary 5.6, we must have  $A_1^{\alpha} = A_1^{\beta}$  and  $A_2^{\alpha} = A_2^{\beta}$ . By considering the boundary of the closure of the open set generated by whichever set among  $A_1^{\alpha}$  of  $A_2^{\alpha}$  is dense along z, we obtain a meager closed set containing z, with a Borel code in  $L_{\alpha}$ , which contradicts that z is generic over  $L_{\beta}$ .

Thus if for no  $\sigma \prec z$  we have  $\sigma \notin A_1^{\beta}$ , it must be the case that  $\sigma \in A_2^{\beta}$ for some  $\sigma \prec z$ . Let us fix such a string  $\sigma$ . In particular we must have  $\sigma \Vdash_{\beta}$  $\forall a \exists b \neg \Phi(a, b, \dot{p})$ . By the fact that  $L_{\alpha} \prec_2 L_{\beta}$  and by Corollary 5.6 we must have  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \forall a \exists b \neg \Phi(a, b, \dot{p})$ . By Proposition 5.5 we have:

 $L_{\alpha} \models \forall \dot{a} \; \forall \tau \succ \sigma \; \exists \rho \succ \tau \; \exists \gamma \; \exists \dot{b} \in P_{\gamma} \; \rho \Vdash_{\alpha} \neg \Phi(\dot{a}, \dot{b}, \dot{p})$ 

By Theorem 2.19 we must have that  $L_{\alpha}$  is admissible. Using admissibility of  $L_{\alpha}$  we must have:

 $L_{\alpha} \models \forall \dot{a} \exists \gamma \; \forall \tau \succ \sigma \; \exists \rho \succ \tau \; \exists \dot{b} \in P_{\gamma} \; \rho \Vdash_{\alpha} \neg \Phi(\dot{a}, \dot{b}, \dot{p})$ 

Now coming back to the definition of forcing we easily see that we have:

$$L_{\alpha} \models \forall \dot{a} \exists \gamma \; \forall \tau \succ \sigma \; \exists \rho \succ \tau \; \rho \Vdash_{\alpha} \exists b \in L_{\gamma} \; \neg \Phi(\dot{a}, b, \dot{p})$$

Which by the fact that  $L_{\alpha} \prec_2 L_{\beta}$  gives us:

 $L_{\beta} \models \forall \dot{a} \exists \gamma \; \forall \tau \succ \sigma \; \exists \rho \succ \tau \; \rho \Vdash_{\beta} \exists b \in L_{\gamma} \; \neg \Phi(\dot{a}, b, \dot{p})$ 

It follows that for every  $\dot{a} \in P_{\beta}$ , there exists  $\gamma < \beta$  such that the open set generated by the strings  $\rho$  for which  $\rho \Vdash_{\beta} \exists b \in L_{\gamma} \neg \Phi(\dot{a}, b, \dot{p})$ , is dense in  $[\sigma]$ . Also this open set is clearly a set of  $L_{\beta}$ , and its complement in  $[\sigma]$  is a meager closet set of  $L_{\beta}$ . It follows that we must have a prefix  $\rho \prec z$  such that  $\rho \Vdash_{\beta} \exists b \in L_{\gamma} \neg \Phi(\dot{a}, b, \dot{p})$ , which implies  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \exists b \in L_{\gamma} \neg \Phi(a, b, p)$ . As this is true for every  $\dot{a} \in P_{\beta}$ , we must have that  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \forall a \exists b \neg \Phi(a, b, p)$ , which contradicts that  $L_{\beta}(z) \models \exists a \forall b \Phi(a, b, p)$ .

Thus it must be in the first place that  $\sigma \Vdash_{\beta} \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, \dot{p})$  for some prefix  $\sigma \prec z$ . Then we also must have  $\sigma \Vdash_{\alpha} \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, \dot{p})$  which implies  $L_{\alpha}(z) \models \exists a \forall b \ \Phi(a, b, \dot{p})$ . This concludes the proof.  $\dashv$ 

COROLLARY 5.14. If z is generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$  then  $\Sigma^{z} = \Sigma$ . In particular the set

$$\{z \in 2^{\omega} : \Sigma^z > \Sigma\}$$

is meager.

PROOF. This is because  $L_{\zeta} \prec_2 L_{\Sigma}$ , and because  $\Sigma^z$  is the smallest ordinal such that  $L_{\alpha}(z) \prec_2 L_{\Sigma^z}(z)$  for some  $\alpha$ . By the previous theorem we must have  $\Sigma^z = \Sigma$ .

COROLLARY 5.15. Let  $z \in 2^{\omega}$ . The following are equivalent:

1. z is generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$ .

2. z is ITTM-generic.

**PROOF.** The equivalence is given by the conjunction of Theorem 5.13 and 5.11.

**5.3.2.** *ITTM-decidable genericity.* 

THEOREM 5.16. Let  $z \in 2^{\omega}$ . The following are equivalent:

- 1. z is generic over  $L_{\lambda}$ ,
- 2. z is ITTM-decidable generic,
- 3. z is co-ITTM generic.

PROOF. The implications  $(3) \Rightarrow (2)$  and  $(2) \Rightarrow (1)$  are trivial. Thus, it remains only to prove  $(1) \Rightarrow (3)$ . Let z be a real generic over  $L_{\lambda}$ . Let M be a machine that halts on a co-meager set. By Corollary 5.14 we have that the set  $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : \Sigma^x > \Sigma\}$  is meager. Note also that if z is generic over  $L_{\Sigma}$  we have  $L_{\lambda}(x) \prec_1 L_{\zeta}(x)$ together with  $L_{\zeta}(x) \prec_2 L_{\Sigma}(x)$ . Thus the set  $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : \lambda^x > \lambda\}$  is actually also meager. It follows that the set  $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : \exists \alpha < \lambda \ M(x) \downarrow [\alpha]\}$  is already co-meager.

In particular the set  $\{\sigma : \sigma \Vdash_{\lambda} \exists \alpha \ M(x) \downarrow [\alpha]\}$  must be a dense set of strings. By admissibility of  $\lambda$ , there must exists  $\beta < \lambda$  such that the set  $\{\sigma : \sigma \Vdash_{\lambda} \exists \alpha < \beta \ M(x) \downarrow [\alpha]\}$  is already a dense set of strings.

It follows that  $\{x \in 2^{\omega} : M(x) \downarrow [\beta]\}$  is co-meager in a dense open set and thus comeager. Furthermore its complement is a union of nowhere dense closed sets with Borel code in  $L_{\lambda}$ . In particular as z is generic over  $L_{\lambda}$ , it must be that  $M(z) \downarrow [\beta]$ . Thus z also is co-ITTM generic.

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