# The $\boldsymbol{K}$-Degrees, Low for $K$ Degrees, and Weakly Low for $K$ Sets 

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#### Abstract

We call A weakly low for $K$ if there is a $c$ such that $K^{A}(\sigma) \geq$ $K(\sigma)-c$ for infinitely many $\sigma$; in other words, there are infinitely many strings that $A$ does not help compress. We prove that $A$ is weakly low for $K$ if and only if Chaitin's $\Omega$ is $A$-random. This has consequences in the $K$-degrees and the low for $K$ (i.e., low for random) degrees. Furthermore, we prove that the initial segment prefix-free complexity of 2 -random reals is infinitely often maximal. This had previously been proved for plain Kolmogorov complexity.


## 1 Introduction

If $A \in 2^{\omega}$ is 1 -random, then there is a connection between the degree of randomness of $A$, the prefix-free (Kolmogorov) complexity of initial segments of $A$, and the (lack of) power of $A$ as an oracle. We explore some aspects of this connection. See Section 2 for a brief introduction to effective randomness.

We say that $A \in 2^{\omega}$ is weakly low for $K$ if $(\exists c)\left(\exists^{\infty} n\right) K(n) \leq K^{A}(n)+c$. Making use of $\leq^{+}$to indicate a suppressed additive constant, we can write this as $\left(\exists^{\infty} n\right) K(n) \leq^{+} K^{A}(n)$. Nies, Stephan, and Terwijn [22] call A low for $\Omega$ if Chaitin's $\Omega$ is $A$-random. In Section 3, we show that $A$ is weakly low for $K$ if and only if it is low for $\Omega$. This result is analogous to a celebrated result of Nies. Call $A \in 2^{\omega}$ low for $K$ if $K(\sigma) \leq^{+} K^{A}(\sigma)$ and low for 1-random if every 1-random is $A$-random. Nies [21] proved that these two notions-each stating that $A$ is useless as an oracle in a specific context-are equivalent.

The equivalence of weakly low for $K$ and low for $\Omega$ has a variety of consequences. In Section 4, we use it to prove that the initial segment prefix-free complexity of 2random reals is infinitely often maximal. This had previously been proved for plain Kolmogorov complexity [22; 16].

Section 5 looks at consequences in the $L R / L K$-degrees. Nies partially relativized the notions of low for $K$ and low for 1-random to introduce two ways of comparing the power of oracles in the context of effective randomness. He defined $X \leq_{L K} Y$ to mean that $K^{Y}(\sigma) \leq^{+} K^{X}(\sigma)$, and $X \leq_{L R} Y$ to mean that every $Y$-random is $X$ random. These partial orders induce the low for $K$ degrees and the low for random degrees, respectively. They turn out to be the same. It is clear that $X \leq_{L K} Y$ implies $X \leq_{L R} Y$; Kjos-Hanssen, Miller, and Solomon [12] proved the converse. Note that this extends the result of Nies, since $X$ is low for $K$ if and only if $X \leq_{L K} \varnothing$ and $X$ is low for 1-random if and only if $X \leq_{L R} \varnothing$.

We prove that if $X \leq_{L R} Y$ and $Y$ is low for $\Omega$, then $X \leq_{T} Y^{\prime}$. Thus, if $Y$ is low for $\Omega$, it has countably many predecessors in the $L R$-degrees; the converse is open. It also follows that if $X$ and $Y$ are 2-random relative to each other, then they form a minimal pair in the $L R$-degrees.

In Section 6, we consider the $K$-degrees. Downey, Hirschfeldt, and LaForte [7; 8] defined $X \leq_{K} Y$ to mean that $K(X \upharpoonright n) \leq^{+} K(Y \upharpoonright n)$. In other words, $Y$ has higher initial segment prefix-free complexity than $X$, up to a constant. The induced partial order is called the $K$-degrees. If higher complexity implies more randomness, then one can interpret $X \leq_{K} Y$ as saying that $Y$ is more random than $X$.

We prove that if $X$ is 1 -random, then prefix-free complexity relative to $X$ can be expressed in terms of the prefix-free complexity of initial segments of $X$. In particular, $K^{X}(\sigma)={ }^{+} \min _{s \in \omega} K(X \upharpoonright\langle\sigma, s\rangle)-\langle\sigma, s\rangle$. This implies that if $X$ is $1-$ random and $X \leq_{K} Y$, then $Y \leq_{L K} X$. Note that this result is not new; it follows from the corresponding result for the $L R$-degrees [19] and the equivalence between $\leq_{L R}$ and $\leq_{L K}$. As a corollary to the work of Section 5, the cones above 2-random reals in the $K$-degrees are countable. This is not true for all 1-random reals.

## 2 Preliminaries

We assume that the reader is familiar with basic computability (recursion) theory, as would be found in Part I of Soare [25]. We give a quick introduction to effective randomness, touching on the definitions and results needed in this paper. For a more thorough introduction, see Li and Vitányi [14], Nies [20], or the upcoming monograph of Downey and Hirschfeldt [6].

By strings we refer to elements of $2^{<\omega}$. We identify strings with natural numbers using an effective bijection; for concreteness, identify $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$ with $n \in \omega$ if $1 \sigma$ is the binary expansion of $n+1$. We call elements of $2^{\omega}$ reals and abuse notation by conflating $X \in 2^{\omega}$ with the element of $[0,1]$ that has binary expansion $0 . X$. The nonuniqueness of binary expansion will not be an issue below.

For $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$, let $[\sigma]=\left\{X \in 2^{\omega}: \sigma \prec X\right\}$, that is, the set of reals extending $\sigma$. If $S \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is a c.e. set, then $\bigcup_{\sigma \in S}[\sigma]$ is called a $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ class. The complement of a $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ class is called a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class. A Martin-Löf test is a uniform sequence $\left\{V_{n}\right\}_{n \in \omega}$ of $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ classes such that $\mu\left(V_{n}\right) \leq 2^{-n}$, where $\mu$ is the standard Lebesgue measure on $2^{\omega}$. A real $X \in 2^{\omega}$ is said to pass a Martin-Löf test $\left\{V_{n}\right\}_{n \in \omega}$ if $X \notin \bigcap_{n \in \omega} V_{n}$. We say that $X \in 2^{\omega}$ is 1-random (or Martin-Löf random) if it passes all Martin-Löf tests. There is a universal Martin-Löf test, that is, a single test $\left\{U_{n}\right\}_{n \in \omega}$ that is passed only by the 1 -random reals.

Define $A$-randomness by relativizing Martin-Löf's definition to an oracle $A \in 2^{\omega}$. An essential tool in understanding relativized randomness is van Lambalgen's theorem [27]: $X \oplus Y$ is 1-random if and only if $X$ is 1-random and $Y$ is $X$-random. Note that by applying van Lambalgen's theorem twice, we can show that if $X$ and $Y$ are both 1-random, then $X$ is $Y$-random if and only if $Y$ is $X$-random. We call $X$ $n$-random if it is $\varnothing^{(n-1)}$-random.

There is an important connection between the randomness of real numbers and the complexity, or information content, of finite binary strings. A set $D \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ is prefix-free if no element of $D$ is a proper prefix of another element. A prefix-free machine is a partial computable function $M: 2^{<\omega} \rightarrow 2^{<\omega}$ with prefix-free domain. If $M$ is a prefix-free machine, then let

$$
K_{M}(\sigma)=\min \{|\tau|: M(\tau)=\sigma\}
$$

so $K_{M}(\sigma)$ is the length of the shortest $M$-description of $\sigma$. There is a universal prefix-free machine $U: 2^{<\omega} \rightarrow 2^{<\omega}$ that is optimal for prefix-free machines: if $M$ is any such machine, then $K_{U}(\sigma) \leq^{+} K_{M}(\sigma)$. We write $K(\sigma)$ for $K_{U}(\sigma)$ and call it the prefix-free (Kolmogorov) complexity of $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$. Plain Kolmogorov complexity $C$ is defined in the same way as prefix-free complexity except without restricting the domains of machines. It is well known that the 1-random reals can be characterized in terms of the prefix-free complexity of their initial segments. Schnorr proved that $X \in 2^{\omega}$ is 1 -random if and only if $K(X \upharpoonright n) \geq^{+} n$.

Since $U$ has prefix-free domain, $\sum_{\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}} 2^{-K(\sigma)} \leq \sum_{\tau \in \operatorname{dom} U} 2^{-|\tau|} \leq 1$; this is called Kraft's inequality. ${ }^{1}$ It has a useful effective converse. A Kraft-Chaitin set is a c.e. set $W \subseteq \omega \times 2^{<\omega}$ such that $\sum_{\langle d, \sigma\rangle \in W} 2^{-d} \leq 1$. Given such a set, the KraftChaitin theorem says that there is a prefix-free machine $M$ such that $\langle d, \sigma\rangle \in W$ implies that $K_{M}(\sigma) \leq d$. Thus, $K(\sigma) \leq^{+} d$ for all $\langle d, \sigma\rangle \in W$. Closely related to the Kraft-Chaitin theorem is the fact that $K$ is an optimal information content measure. A function $\widehat{K}: \omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup\{\infty\}$ is an information content measure if $\sum_{n \in \omega} 2^{-\widehat{K}(n)} \leq 1$ and $\{\langle k, n\rangle: \widehat{K}(n) \leq k\}$ is computably enumerable. Not only is $K$ an information content measure (when viewed as a function of $\omega$ ), but it is not hard to see that if $\widehat{K}$ is another information content measure, then $W=\{\langle k+1, n\rangle: \widehat{K}(n)<k\}$ is a Kraft-Chaitin set; hence $K(n) \leq^{+} \widehat{K}(n)$.

We write $U^{A}$ and $K^{A}$ for the relativizations of the universal prefix-free machine and prefix-free complexity, respectively, to an oracle $A \in 2^{\omega}$. The results mentioned above remain true in their relativized forms. In particular, $X \in 2^{\omega}$ is $A$-random if and only if $K^{A}(X \upharpoonright n) \geq^{+} n$. The following result relates $K^{A}$ to unrelativized prefix-free complexity when $A \in 2^{\omega}$ is 1 -random (see also Lemma 6.1).

Ample Excess Lemma (Miller and Yu [19]) Let $A \in 2^{\omega}$ be 1-random.

1. $\sum_{n \in \omega} 2^{n-K(A \upharpoonright n)}<\infty$.
2. $K^{A}(n) \leq^{+} K(A \upharpoonright n)-n$.

Note that (1) implies (2) by applying the Kraft-Chaitin theorem relativized to $A$.
Chaitin proved that $\Omega=\sum_{\tau \in \operatorname{dom} U} 2^{-|\tau|}$ is 1-random. It is easy to see that $\Omega$ is a c.e. real, meaning that there is a computable, nondecreasing sequence of rational numbers $\left\{\Omega_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ such that $\Omega=\lim \Omega_{s}$. It follows from Calude, Hertling, Khoussainov, and Wang [4] and Kučera and Slaman [13] that every 1-random c.e. real is $\Omega$ for the right choice of universal machine. Chaitin showed that $\Omega \equiv_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}$ (this also
follows from Arslanov's completeness criterion). It is easy to see, given what we know, that the 2 -random reals are exactly the 1 -random, low for $\Omega$ reals.

Proposition 2.1 (Nies, Stephan, and Terwijn [22]) Let $A \in 2^{\omega}$ be 1-random. Then $A$ is 2 -random if and only if it is low for $\Omega$.

Proof By definition, $A$ is 2-random if and only if $A$ is 1 -random relative to $\varnothing^{\prime}$. Since $\varnothing^{\prime} \equiv_{T} \Omega$, this is equivalent to $A$ being $\Omega$-random. By van Lambalgen's theorem, $A$ is $\Omega$-random if and only if $\Omega$ is $A$-random, in other words, exactly when $A$ is low for $\Omega$.

## 3 Weakly Low for $\boldsymbol{K}$ Is the Same As Low for $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$

We show that being weakly low for $K$ is equivalent to being low for $\Omega$. An interesting alternate proof of the harder direction, that low for $\Omega$ implies weakly low for $K$ (Theorem 3.3), has recently been found by Bienvenu. A Solovay function is a computable $f: \omega \rightarrow \omega$ such that $K(n) \leq^{+} f(n)$ (which is equivalent to $\sum_{n \in \omega} 2^{-f(n)}$ converging) and $\left(\exists^{\infty} n\right) f(n) \leq^{+} K(n)$. Bienvenu and Downey [3] proved that a computable function $f$ is a Solovay function if and only if $\sum_{n \in \omega} 2^{-f(n)}$ is finite and 1-random. To see how this implies Theorem 3.3, let $f$ be a computable function such that $\sum_{n \in \omega} 2^{-f(n)}=\Omega$. Then $f$ is a Solovay function, so $K(n) \leq^{+} f(n)$. If $A$ is not weakly low for $K$, then $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} K(n)-K^{A}(n)=\infty$; hence $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n)-K^{A}(n)=\infty$. Therefore, $f$ is not a Solovay function relative to $A$. Relativizing the result of Bienvenu and Downey, $\Omega$ is not $A$-random; that is, $A$ is not low for $\Omega$.

Theorem 3.1 If A is weakly low for $K$, then $A$ is low for $\Omega$.
Proof We show the contrapositive. First, we define two families of c.e. sets $\left\{W_{\sigma}\right\}_{\sigma \in 2<\omega}$ and $\left\{D_{\sigma}\right\}_{\sigma \in 2<\omega}$. Fix $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$. Search for the least stage $s \in \omega$ such that $\sigma \prec \Omega_{s}$, in other words, such that $\sigma$ appears to be a prefix of $\Omega$. If no such stage is found, then $W_{\sigma}$ and $D_{\sigma}$ will be empty. Now, for any $\tau \in 2^{<\omega}$ such that $U(\tau) \downarrow$ after stage $s$, enumerate $\langle | \tau|, U(\tau)\rangle$ into $D_{\sigma}$. Also enumerate $\langle | \tau|, U(\tau)\rangle$ into $W_{\sigma}$ as long as it preserves the condition that $\sum_{\langle d, n\rangle \in W_{\sigma}} 2^{-d} \leq 2^{-|\sigma|}$. Note that if $K_{S}(n) \neq K(n)$, then $\langle K(n), n\rangle \in D_{\sigma}$.

We claim that if $\sigma \prec \Omega$, then $W_{\sigma}=D_{\sigma}$. It follows from our definition that $\sum_{\langle d, n\rangle \in D_{\sigma}} 2^{-d} \leq \Omega-\Omega_{s}$. Observe that if $\sigma \prec \Omega$, then $\Omega-\Omega_{s} \leq 2^{-|\sigma|}$. In this case, $\sum_{\langle d, n\rangle \in D_{\sigma}} 2^{-d} \leq 2^{-|\sigma|}$, so $W_{\sigma}=D_{\sigma}$. The idea is that we have used an approximation of $\Omega$ to efficiently approximate all but finitely many values of $K(n)$.

Consider the $A$-c.e. set $W=\left\{\langle d+| \tau|-|\sigma|, n\rangle: U^{A}(\tau)=\sigma\right.$ and $\left.\langle d, n\rangle \in W_{\sigma}\right\}$. By the construction of $\left\{W_{\sigma}\right\}_{\sigma \in 2<\omega}$ and Kraft's inequality,

$$
\sum_{\langle e, n\rangle \in W} 2^{-e}=\sum_{U^{A}(\tau) \downarrow=\sigma} \sum_{\langle d, n\rangle \in W_{\sigma}} 2^{-d-|\tau|+|\sigma|} \leq \sum_{U^{A}(\tau) \downarrow} 2^{-|\tau|} \leq 1 .
$$

This proves that $W$ is a Kraft-Chaitin set relative to $A$. Therefore, there is a constant $k \in \omega$ such that if $\langle e, n\rangle \in W$, then $K^{A}(n) \leq e+k$.

Now, assume that $\Omega$ is not $A$-random. For any $c \in \omega$, there are $\tau, \sigma \in 2^{\omega}$ such that $U^{A}(\tau)=\sigma,|\sigma|-|\tau| \geq c$, and $\sigma \prec \Omega$. Let $s \in \omega$ be the least stage such that $\sigma \prec \Omega_{s}$ (which must exist because $\Omega$ is not a dyadic rational). There is an $N \in \omega$ such that if $n \geq N$, then $K_{s}(n) \neq K(n)$ (by the usual conventions on stages, $N=s+1$ is sufficient). For all $n \geq N$, we have $\langle K(n), n\rangle \in W_{\sigma}$; hence $\langle K(n)+| \tau|-|\sigma|, n\rangle \in W$.

But this means that $K^{A}(n) \leq K(n)+|\tau|-|\sigma|+k \leq K(n)+k-c$, for all but finitely many $n$. But $c$ was arbitrary, so $A$ is not weakly low for $K$.

For the other direction we use the fact that $\Omega$ is essentially interchangeable with any other 1-random c.e. real. This follows from work on Solovay reducibility. Write $X \leq s Y$ to mean that there is a $c \in \omega$ and a partial computable function $f: \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ such that if $q<Y$ is rational, then $0 \leq X-f(q) \leq c(Y-q)$ [26]. In other words, good approximations of $Y$ from the left give us good approximations of $X$ from the left. Kučera and Slaman [13] showed that if $X$ is a 1 -random c.e. real, then $X \equiv_{S} \Omega$.

When he introduced the reducibility, Solovay [26] proved that $X \leq_{S} Y$ implies $X \leq_{K} Y$. Relativizing the proof to an oracle $A$, we see that $X \leq_{S} Y$ implies that $K^{A}(X \upharpoonright n) \leq^{+} K^{A}(Y \upharpoonright n)$, from which it follows that $A$-randomness is closed upward in the Solovay degrees. Together with the result of Kučera and Slaman, if $X$ is a 1 -random c.e. real, then $X$ is random relative to $A$ if and only if $A$ is low for $\Omega$.

We also need a simple lemma.
Lemma 3.2 Let $A$ be an oracle. If $V$ is any $\Sigma_{1}^{0}[A]$ class, then there is a $\Sigma_{1}^{0}[A]$ class $\widehat{V}$ such that

1. $\mu(\widehat{V}) \leq 3 \mu(V)$,
2. if $X$ is an endpoint of an open interval in $V$, then $X \in \widehat{V}$.

Furthermore, an index for $\widehat{V}$ can be found uniformly from an index from $V$ and is independent of $A$.

Proof Let $\widehat{V}=\bigcup\{(a-\varepsilon, a+2 \varepsilon):[a, a+\varepsilon] \subseteq V\}$. It is easy to check that $\widehat{V}$ has the required properties.

## Theorem 3.3 If $A$ is low for $\Omega$, then $A$ is weakly low for $K$.

Proof Assume that $A$ is not weakly low for $K$. Let $S \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ be a $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ class such that $\mu(S) \leq 1 / 2$ and $2^{\omega} \backslash S$ contains only 1-random reals. For example, we could take $S=U_{1}$, where $\left\{U_{n}\right\}_{n \in \omega}$ is a universal Martin-Löf test. Let $X=\inf \left(2^{\omega} \backslash S\right)$. Note that $X$ is a 1-random c.e. real; from the discussion above, if we prove that $X$ is not $A$-random, then $A$ is not low for $\Omega$.

For each $n$, we define a $\Sigma_{1}^{0}[A]$ class $V_{n}$ such that $\mu\left(V_{n}\right) \leq 2^{-n-2}$. It will not be the case that $X \in V_{n}$; in fact, we will have $V_{n} \subseteq S$. On the other hand, it will always be true that $X$ is an endpoint of an open interval in $V_{n}$. We claim that this is sufficient. By the previous lemma, we can form a computable sequence $\left\{\widehat{V}_{n}\right\}_{n \in \omega}$ of $\Sigma_{1}^{0}[A]$ classes such that $X \in \bigcap_{n \in \omega} \widehat{V_{n}}$ and $\mu\left(\widehat{V_{n}}\right) \leq 3 \mu\left(V_{n}\right) \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n-2}<2^{-n}$. Therefore, $X$ is covered by a Martin-Löf test relative to $A$, so $X$ is not $A$-random.

We turn to the definition of $\left\{V_{n}\right\}_{n \in \omega}$. Assume that $S=\bigcup_{s \in \omega}\left[\sigma_{s}\right]$, where $\left\{\sigma_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ is a prefix-free computable sequence of strings. Fix $n \in \omega$. If $m=\left|\sigma_{s}\right|$, put $\left[\sigma_{s}\right]$ into $V_{n}$ as long as $\sigma_{s}$ is among the first $2^{m-K^{A}(m)-n-2}$ strings of length $m$ in $\left\{\sigma_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$. In other words, $V_{n}$ is built from the same sequence that defines $S$ but with the restriction that strings of length $m$ can contribute at most $2^{-K^{A}(m)-n-2}$ to its measure. Note that the stage-wise approximations to $2^{m-K^{A}(m)-n-2}$ approach it from below, so $V_{n}$ is $\Sigma_{1}^{0}[A]$. Also note that

$$
\mu\left(V_{n}\right) \leq \sum_{m \in \omega} 2^{-K^{A}(m)-n-2}=2^{-n-2} \sum_{m \in \omega} 2^{-K^{A}(m)} \leq 2^{-n-2},
$$

where the last step uses Kraft's inequality.

Next we prove that there is a $v \in \omega$ such that if $\left|\sigma_{s}\right| \geq v$, then $\left[\sigma_{s}\right] \subseteq V_{n}$. Let $J(m)=\left|\left\{s \in \omega:\left|\sigma_{s}\right|=m\right\}\right|$. We claim that $I(m)=m-\log (J(m))$ is an information content measure. Clearly, $I$ is computable from above. Note that $2^{-I(m)}=J(m) 2^{-m}$ is exactly the contribution to the measure of $S$ made by the strings in $\left\{\sigma_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ of length $m$. Since $\left\{\sigma_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ is prefix-free, $\sum_{m \in \omega} 2^{-I(m)}=$ $\mu(S) \leq 1 / 2$. This shows that $I$ is an information content measure, so there is $c$ such that $(\forall m) K(m) \leq I(m)+c$. Because $A$ is not weakly low for $K$, there is a $v$ large enough that $K^{A}(m) \leq K(m)-c-n-2$, for all $m \geq v$. For such $m$,

$$
2^{m-K^{A}(m)-n-2} \geq 2^{m-K(m)+c} \geq 2^{m-I(m)}=2^{\log (J(m))}=J(m) .
$$

Therefore, $\left[\sigma_{s}\right]$ is put into $V_{n}$ as long as $\left|\sigma_{s}\right| \geq v$.
We can now show that $X$ is an endpoint of an open interval in $V_{n}$. This is because $X$ is not a binary rational and thus not an endpoint of $\left[\sigma_{s}\right]$, for any $s$. Since there are only finitely many strings in $\left\{\sigma_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ of length less than $v$, there is an $\varepsilon$ small enough such that $(X-\varepsilon, X)$ is disjoint from all corresponding intervals. But $(X-\varepsilon, X) \subseteq S$, so ( $X-\varepsilon, X) \subseteq V_{n}$. This completes the proof.

It has been shown that every nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a low for $\Omega$ member [ $9 ; 23$ ], giving us a weakly low for $K$ basis theorem.

## 4 All 2-Random Reals Maximize $K$ Infinitely Often

While it is impossible for every initial segment of a real to have maximal complexity (with respect to either $C$ or $K$ ), almost every real infinitely often achieves maximal initial segment complexity up to a constant. Call $A \in 2^{\omega}$ infinitely often (i.o.) $K$ maximizing if $\left(\exists^{\infty} n\right) K(A \upharpoonright n) \geq^{+} n+K(n)$. Similarly, $A$ is i.o. $C$ maximizing if $\left(\exists^{\infty} n\right) C(A \upharpoonright n) \geq^{+} n .^{2}$ The right side of each inequality represents the maximal possible complexity for a string of length $n$.

Solovay [26] proved that i.o. $K$ maximizing implies i.o. $C$ maximizing. In fact, he proved that strings with (essentially) maximal $K$ complexity must have (essentially) maximal $C$ complexity. Solovay also proved that almost all reals are i.o. $K$ maximizing. Yu, Ding, and Downey [28] analyzed his argument to prove that 3-randomness is sufficient to imply that a real is i.o. $K$ maximizing. In the other direction, MartinLöf [15] showed that every i.o. C maximizing real is 1-random, while Schnorr [24] refuted the converse. Nies, Stephan, and Terwijn [22] showed that i.o. $C$ maximizing implies 2-randomness. They also showed the converse, as did Miller [16], classifying the i.o. $C$ maximizing reals. Putting these facts together,

3-random $\Longrightarrow$ i.o. $K$ maximizing $\Longrightarrow$ i.o. $C$ maximizing $\Longleftrightarrow$ 2-random.
We resolve the status of i.o. $K$ maximizing, answering a question in [17].
Theorem 4.1 A is 2-random if and only if it is infinitely often $K$ maximizing.
Proof Assume that $A$ is 2-random. Then $A$ is low for $\Omega$ by Proposition 2.1, hence weakly low for $K$ by Theorem 3.3. By the ample excess lemma, $K^{A}(n) \leq^{+}$ $K(A \upharpoonright n)-n$. Rearranging, we have $K(A \upharpoonright n) \geq^{+} n+K^{A}(n)$. Because $A$ is weakly low for $K$, there are infinitely many $n$ such that $K^{A}(n) \geq^{+} K(n)$. Note that $K(A \upharpoonright n) \geq^{+} n+K(n)$ for these $n$, so $A$ is infinitely often $K$ maximizing.

It is interesting to note that Solovay [26] proved that strings with maximal $C$ complexity need not have maximal $K$-complexity, so the equivalence of i.o. $C$ and $K$ maximizing is not true on the level of strings.

## 5 Applications to the $L R / L K$-Degrees

The work of Section 3 has consequences in the $L R / L K$-degrees.
Theorem 5.1 If $X \leq_{L R} Y$ and $Y$ is low for $\Omega$, then $X \leq_{T} Y^{\prime}$.
Proof We have $X \leq_{L K} Y$, so

$$
\begin{equation*}
K^{Y}(X \upharpoonright n) \leq^{+} K^{X}(X \upharpoonright n) \leq^{+} K^{X}(n) \leq^{+} K(n), \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $n \in \omega$. Because $Y$ is low for $\Omega$, it is weakly low for $K$, so there is a $c \in \omega$ such that $S=\left\{n \in \omega: K(n) \leq K^{Y}(n)+c\right\}$ is infinite. Together with (1), there is a $d \in \omega$ such that if $n \in S$, then $K^{Y}(X \upharpoonright n) \leq K^{Y}(n)+d$. By relativizing Chaitin's counting theorem [5, Lemma 13], there is an $e \in \omega$ such that

$$
\left|\left\{\sigma \in 2^{n}: K^{Y}(\sigma) \leq K^{Y}(n)+d\right\}\right| \leq e,
$$

for all $n \in \omega$. Let $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ be the tree defined by

$$
\sigma \in T \text { iff }(\forall n<|\sigma|)\left[n \in S \rightarrow K^{Y}(\sigma \upharpoonright n) \leq K^{Y}(n)+d\right] .
$$

Note that $|[T]| \leq e$ and $X \in[T]$, where $[T]$ denotes the set of infinite paths through $T$. Also note that $S \leq_{T} Y^{\prime}$ and so $T \leq_{T} Y^{\prime}$. But every isolated infinite path through a tree is computable from the tree; hence $X \leq_{T} Y^{\prime}$.

Corollary 5.2 If $Y$ is low for $\Omega$, then it has countably many predecessors in the $L R$-degrees.

It is possible that the converse holds.
Open Question If $Y$ is not low for $\Omega$, must it have continuum many predecessors in the $L R$-degrees?

Not all reals have countably many $L R$-predecessors. Barmpalias, Lewis, and Soskova [2] proved that if $Y \in 2^{\omega}$ is non-GL (i.e., $\left.Y^{\prime \prime} \not \mathbb{Z}_{T}\left(Y \oplus \varnothing^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}\right)$, then it has continuum many predecessors in the $L R$-degrees. Furthermore, Barmpalias [1] has answered the question positively for $\Delta_{2}^{0}$ reals. Note that the $L R$-predecessors of a real form a Borel set, so if $Y$ has uncountably many $L R$-predecessors, then it has continuum many. In fact, $Y$ has continuum many $L R$-degrees below it, because each $L R$-degree is countable (if $X \equiv_{L K} Y$, then $X^{\prime} \equiv_{T} Y^{\prime}$ [21]).

The next proof uses some basic facts about 2-randomness. By definition, $X \in 2^{\omega}$ is 2 -random if and only if $X$ is $\varnothing^{\prime}$-random. This is equivalent to $X$ being $\Omega$-random, since $\Omega \equiv_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}$. Hence by van Lambalgen's theorem, $X \oplus \Omega$ is 1 -random. Second, Kautz [11] proved that every 2-random $X$ is $\mathrm{GL}_{1}$; in other words, $X^{\prime} \leq_{T} X \oplus \varnothing^{\prime}$. Finally, we say that $Y$ is 2 -random relative to $X$ if it is $X^{\prime}$-random. Note that almost every pair of reals are two random relative to each other.

Corollary 5.3 If $X, Y \in 2^{\omega}$ are 2-random relative to each other, then they form a minimal pair in the $L R$-degrees.

Proof Since $X$ is 2-random relative to $Y$, it must be 2-random, so $X^{\prime} \equiv_{T} X \oplus \varnothing^{\prime} \equiv_{T}$ $X \oplus \Omega$ and $X \oplus \Omega$ is 1-random. We know that $Y$ is $X^{\prime}$-random, hence $X \oplus \Omega$-random. Applying van Lambalgen's theorem, $X \oplus \Omega$ is $Y$-random. So if we assume that $A \leq_{L R} Y$, then $X \oplus \Omega$ is $A$-random.

Now assume that $A \leq_{L R} X$. By Theorem 5.1 and the fact that $X$ is low for $\Omega$, we have $A \leq_{T} X^{\prime} \equiv_{T} X \oplus \Omega$. So we have proved that $A$ is computed by an $A-$ random real. This means that $A$ is a base for 1 -randomness, which Hirschfeldt, Nies, and Stephan proved to be equivalent to $A$ being low for 1-randomness [10]. In other words, $A \equiv_{L R} \varnothing$. This shows that $X$ and $Y$ are a minimal pair in the $L R$-degrees.

## 6 Remarks on the $\boldsymbol{K}$-Degrees

Recall that $X \leq_{K} Y$ means that $K(X \upharpoonright n) \leq^{+} K(Y \upharpoonright n)$. Miller and Yu [19] proved that if $X \in 2^{\omega}$ is 1-random and $X \leq_{K} Y$, then $Y \leq_{L R} X$, which is equivalent to $Y \leq_{L K} X$. Below we give a more direct proof that $X \leq_{K} Y$ implies $Y \leq_{L K} X$ on the 1 -randoms. We use the following lemma.

Bounding Lemma (Miller and Yu [18]) If $\sum_{n \in \omega} 2^{-g(n)}<\infty$ and $g \leq_{T} X$ with use $n$, then $K(X \upharpoonright n) \leq^{+} n+g(n)$.
It turns out that the initial segment complexity of $X$ codes the behavior of $K^{X}$ in a fairly simple way. Fix a pairing function, that is, an effective bijection $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle: \omega^{2} \rightarrow \omega$. We may assume that $\langle n, m\rangle$ is greater than or equal to both $n$ and $m$. We also apply the pairing function to strings, having identified them with natural numbers.

Lemma 6.1 If $X$ is 1 -random, then $K^{X}(\sigma)={ }^{+} \min _{s \in \omega} K(X \upharpoonright\langle\sigma, s\rangle)-\langle\sigma, s\rangle$.
Proof By the ample excess lemma, there is a $c \in \omega$ with $\sum_{n \in \omega} 2^{n-K(X \upharpoonright n)} \leq 2^{c}$. Let $W=\left\{\langle K(X \upharpoonright\langle\sigma, s\rangle)-\langle\sigma, s\rangle+c+k+1, \sigma\rangle: \sigma \in 2^{<\omega}\right.$ and $\left.s, k \in \omega\right\}$. Note that $W$ is $X$-c.e. (which is the purpose of $k$ ). Also,

$$
\sum_{\langle d, \sigma\rangle \in W} 2^{-d}=\sum_{n \in \omega} \sum_{k \in \omega} 2^{-K(X \mid n)+n-c-k-1}=\sum_{n \in \omega} 2^{n-K(X \upharpoonright n)-c} \leq 1,
$$

so $W$ is a Kraft-Chaitin set relative to $X$. This implies that

$$
K^{X}(\sigma) \leq^{+} \min _{s \in \omega} K(X \upharpoonright\langle\sigma, s\rangle)-\langle\sigma, s\rangle .
$$

For the other direction, let

$$
g(\langle\sigma, s\rangle)= \begin{cases}K_{s}^{X}(\sigma) & \text { if } s=0 \text { or } K_{s}^{X}(\sigma)<K_{s-1}^{X}(\sigma) \\ \langle\sigma, s\rangle & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Here, $K_{s}^{X}(\sigma)$ is the stage $s$ approximation of $K^{X}(\sigma)$, which by standard conventions on the use function can only depend on $X \upharpoonright s \preccurlyeq X \upharpoonright\langle\sigma, s\rangle .{ }^{3}$ Therefore, $g \leq_{T} X$ with use $n$. Next we want to bound $\sum_{n \in \omega} 2^{-g(n)}$. Note that $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$ contributes less than $\sum_{k \in \omega} 2^{-K^{X}(\sigma)-k}+\sum_{s \in \omega} 2^{-\langle\sigma, s\rangle}=2 \cdot 2^{-K^{X}(\sigma)}+\sum_{s \in \omega} 2^{-\langle\sigma, s\rangle}$ to the sum. Therefore,

$$
\sum_{n \in \omega} 2^{-g(n)} \leq 2 \sum_{\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}} 2^{-K^{X}(\sigma)}+\sum_{\langle\sigma, s\rangle \in \omega} 2^{-\langle\sigma, s\rangle} \leq 2+2<\infty,
$$

by Kraft's inequality. Applying the bounding lemma, $K(X \upharpoonright n) \leq^{+} n+g(n)$. For $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$, choose the least $s$ such that $K_{s}^{X}(\sigma)=K^{X}(\sigma)$. Then $K^{X}(\sigma)=g(\langle\sigma, s\rangle) \geq^{+}$ $K(X \upharpoonright\langle\sigma, s\rangle)-\langle\sigma, s\rangle$. Hence $K^{X}(\sigma) \geq^{+} \min _{s \in \omega} K(X \upharpoonright\langle\sigma, s\rangle)-\langle\sigma, s\rangle$.

Theorem $6.2([19]+[12]) \quad$ If $X$ is 1 -random and $X \leq_{K} Y$, then $Y \leq_{L K} X$.
Proof Immediate from the lemma.
The theorem allows us to apply results about the $L K$-degrees to the $K$-degrees. For example, Nies [21] proved that if $X \equiv_{L K} Y$, then $X^{\prime} \equiv_{T} Y^{\prime}$ (in fact, the jumps are truth-table equivalent). This means that if $X \equiv_{K} Y$ and $X$ is 1 -random (hence $Y$ is too), then $X^{\prime} \equiv_{T} Y^{\prime}$. So 1-random $K$-degrees are countable. It is not hard to produce continuum many reals $X \in 2^{\omega}$ such that $K(X \upharpoonright n)={ }^{+} n / 2$; thus not all $K$-degrees are countable.

Section 5 also tells us something about the $K$-degrees.

## Theorem 6.3 The cone above a 2 -random in the $K$-degrees is countable.

Proof Let $X \in 2^{\omega}$ be 2-random. By Proposition 2.1, $X$ is low for $\Omega$. Assume $X \leq_{K} Y$, then $Y \leq_{L K} X$, so $Y \leq_{T} X^{\prime}$ by Theorem 5.1.

It is known that some 1 -random reals have uncountable upper cones in the $K$ degrees [18]. On the other hand, it is open whether there are maximal $K$-degrees.

Open Question (See [17]) Is there a maximal $K$-degree? Is every 2-random $K$ degree maximal?

## Notes

1. Strictly speaking, Kraft considered finite prefix-free codes.
2. Starting with Yu, Ding, and Downey [28], these notions have been called strong Chaitin random and Kolmogorov random, respectively. Since they were neither introduced by Kolmogorov nor Chaitin, and since Chaitin has used "strong Chaitin randomness" to denote one of his characterizations of 1-randomness, it seems reasonable to look for alternative names. One may even question the need for names, since both notions are equivalent to 2 -randomness. For these reasons, we have adopted the descriptive-if artless-terms used in this paper.
3. This is the only place we use the fact that $\langle m, n\rangle \geq \max \{m, n\}$. We could do away with this restriction on our pairing function by simply stipulating that the use of $K_{S}^{X}(\sigma)$ is at $\operatorname{most}\langle\sigma, s\rangle$.

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## Acknowledgments

The author was supported by the National Science Foundation under grants DMS-0945187 and DMS-0946325, the latter being part of a Focused Research Group in Algorithmic Randomness. The author also thanks André Nies and Liang Yu, without whom this paper would be greatly diminished, or more likely, would not exist at all.

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