# $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ Classes, Peano Arithmetic, Randomness, and Computable Domination 

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#### Abstract

We present an overview of the topics in the title and of some of the key results pertaining to them. These have historically been topics of interest in computability theory and continue to be a rich source of problems and ideas. In particular, we draw attention to the links and connections between these topics and explore their significance to modern research in the field.


## 1 Introduction and Notation

1.1 An overview of this paper The topics we cover- $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes, computable domination, degrees of models of arithmetic, and randomness-largely grew up over the last fifty years. Lately, they have received considerable attention, as have the many links between them and other topics. We present a different point of view of these timely areas.

The study of $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes (effectively closed classes in Cantor space or Baire space) emerged in the early 1970s with work by Jockusch and Soare, although Kreisel and Shoenfield had obtained some previous results on degrees of models. The use of $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes rapidly spread to many other areas, including model theory, computable combinatorics and Ramsey's theorem, complexity theory and randomness, and models of Peano arithmetic. In Section 3, we consider two of the original theorems in this study (the Low Basis Theorem and the Computably Dominated Basis Theorem), each showing that a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member of a certain type. The subsequent popularity of this area has led to many related results. In Section 3, we take a look at some of these, including an antibasis theorem, a proper $\mathrm{low}_{n}$ basis theorem, as well as cone avoidance constructions.

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A prominent method of constructing members of $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes is known as forcing with $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes. The name comes from the fact that in such constructions we begin with a certain tree and pass to a smaller subtree in order to force a given requirement. This technique is very flexible and can be used to obtain a number of finer results about the members of nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes, including ones which avoid cones or form minimal pairs with given noncomputable sets. In Section 4, we discuss this notion of forcing in a general setting, defining the appropriate notions of condition, extension, density, and genericity. We also discuss individual forcing modules and how they can be combined to achieve desired conclusions.

A function $f$ is computably dominated (hyperimmune-free) if every function $g \equiv_{\mathrm{T}} f$ (not only $f$ itself) is bounded by a computable function. The Computably Dominated Basis Theorem in Section 3 connects $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes to computable domination because it shows that every nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class contains a computably dominated (c.d.) member. In Section 5 we explore other properties of computably dominated functions and the degrees they can inhabit. In particular, we look at the following questions: Can degrees comparable with $\varnothing^{\prime}$ be c.d.? Can a $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ set be c.d.? Although sparsely distributed and difficult to construct, the c.d. functions have two surprising downward closure properties. The c.d. functions also play an important role in algorithmic randomness and complexity and are treated in recent books in these areas by Nies [1999] and Downey and Hirschfeldt [2010]. Cooper [2004] also covers computable domination and hyperimmune degrees.

One of the original motivations for looking at $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes was the study of degrees of complete extensions of Peano Arithmetic (PA), or equivalently, degrees of models of PA (PA degrees). Indeed, the complete extensions of PA form a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class, and if $f$ is any complete extension of PA and $\mathcal{C}$ is any nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class, then $f$ can compute a member $g \in \mathcal{C}$. In Section 6, we consider a number of alternative ways of defining the PA degrees, including those degrees which contain a $\{0,1\}$-valued diagonally noncomputable (d.n.c.) function.

Over the last decade a rapidly growing area has been Kolmogorov complexity and algorithmic randomness. There has been a close connection between $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes and 1-random (Martin-Löf random) reals. For example, there is a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class all of whose elements are 1-random, as we shall see in Corollary 7.3. In Section 7, we relate randomness to the computably dominated degrees that we study in Section 5, and we examine the relationship between the measure of a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class and the 1 -random reals it contains.
1.2 Notation Using ordinal notation, identify the ordinal 2 with the set of smaller ordinals $\{0,1\}$. We let $2^{<\omega}$ denote the set of all finite sequences of 0 s and 1 s . Identify a set $A \subseteq \omega$ with its characteristic function $f: \omega \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ and represent the class of these functions as $2^{\omega}$. Let $\omega^{\omega}$ denote the set of all functions $f$ from $\omega$ to $\omega$. We use these definitions and operations on strings.

```
\sigma,\tau,\rho strings }\in\mp@subsup{2}{}{<\omega
empty string
\sigma^\tau}\quad\mathrm{ concatenation of }\sigma\in\mp@subsup{2}{}{<\omega}\mathrm{ by }\tau\in\mp@subsup{2}{}{<\omega
\sigma`a}\quad\mathrm{ concatenation of }\sigma\in\mp@subsup{2}{}{<\omega}\mathrm{ by }a\in
\sigma\prec\tau,\quad\sigma\precA
strings \(\in 2^{<\omega}\)
empty string
concatenation of \(\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}\) by \(\tau \in 2^{<\omega}\)
concatenation of \(\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}\) by \(a \in \omega\)
\(\sigma\) is an initial segment of \(\tau, \quad A\)
```

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\sigma \mid \tau & \sigma, \tau \text { incomparable, } \neg[\sigma \preceq \tau] \& \neg[\tau \preceq \sigma] \\
|\sigma| & \text { length of } \sigma, \quad \text { also }|\sigma|=(\mu x)[\sigma(x) \uparrow] \\
A \upharpoonright z, & \sigma \upharpoonright x \\
A \Uparrow z, & \sigma \Uparrow x
\end{array}
$$

We state most definitions for $2^{\omega}$ but with obvious changes they extend to $\omega^{\omega}$. We now deal with classes $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$, that is, second-order objects, rather than just sets $A \subseteq \omega$ or functions $f \in 2^{\omega}$ which are first-order objects. It is customary to call an element $A \subseteq \omega$ or $f \in 2^{\omega}$ a real.

## 2 Open and Closed Classes in Cantor Space

### 2.1 Open classes

## Definition 2.1

(i) Cantor space is $2^{\omega}$ with the following topology. For every $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$ define the basic open class

$$
\llbracket \sigma \rrbracket=\left\{f: f \in 2^{\omega} \quad \& \quad \sigma \prec f\right\}
$$

The open classes of Cantor space are unions of basic open classes. A set $A \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ is an open representation of the open class

$$
\llbracket A \rrbracket=\bigcup_{\sigma \in A} \llbracket \sigma \rrbracket .
$$

(We may assume $A$ is closed upward; that is, $\sigma \in A$ and $\sigma \prec \tau$ implies $\tau \in A$.)
(ii) A class $\mathcal{A} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is effectively open (computably open) if $\mathcal{A}=\llbracket A \rrbracket$ for a computable set $A \subseteq \omega .{ }^{1}$
(iii) A class $\mathcal{A} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is (lightface) $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ if there is a computable $R$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{A}=\{f:(\exists x) R(f \upharpoonright x)\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(iv) A class $\mathcal{A}$ is (boldface) $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{1}}^{\mathbf{0}}$ if (1) holds with $R$ replaced by $R^{X}$ for $R^{X}$ computable in some set $X \subseteq \omega$, in which case we also say $\mathcal{A}$ is $\Sigma_{1}^{0, X}$.
Theorem 2.2 (Effectively Open Classes) Fix a class $\mathcal{A} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$.
(i) $\mathcal{A}$ is effectively open iff $\mathcal{A}$ is (lightface) $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$.
(ii) $\mathcal{A}$ is open iff $\mathcal{A}$ is (boldface) $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{1}}^{\mathbf{0}}$.

Proof (i) Let $\mathcal{A}$ be effectively open. Then $\mathcal{A}=\llbracket B \rrbracket$ for some $B$ computable. Define $R(\sigma)$ iff $\sigma \in B$. Now $f \in \mathcal{A}$ iff $(\exists x) R(f \upharpoonright x)$. Hence, $\mathcal{A}$ is $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$. Conversely, assume $\mathcal{A}$ is $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ via a computable $R$ satisfying (1). Define $A=\{\sigma: R(\sigma)\}$. Then $\mathcal{A}=\llbracket A \rrbracket$.
(ii) Relativize the proof of (1) to a set $X \subseteq \omega$.

### 2.2 Closed Classes

## Definition 2.3

(i) A tree $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ is a set closed under initial segments; that is, $\sigma \in T$ and $\tau \prec \sigma$ imply $\tau \in T$. The set of infinite paths through $T$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
[T]=\{f:(\forall n)[f \upharpoonright n \in T]\} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

(ii) A class $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is (lightface) $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ if there is a computable relation $R(x)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{C}=\{f:(\forall x) R(f \upharpoonright x)\} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

A class $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is boldface $\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{1}^{\mathbf{0}}$ if (3) holds for $R^{X}$ computable in some $X \subseteq \omega$. The latter is also written as $\mathcal{C}$ is $\Pi_{1}^{0, X}$.
(iii) A class $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is effectively closed (computably closed) if its complement is effectively open. A class $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is closed if its complement is open.

Theorem 2.4 (Effectively Closed Classes) For any class $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$, the following are equivalent:
(i) $\mathcal{C}=[T]$ for some computable tree $T$;
(ii) $\mathcal{C}$ is effectively closed;
(iii) $\mathcal{C}$ is a (lightface) $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class.

Proof This follows from Definition 2.3 and Theorem 2.2.
Corollary 2.5 (Closed Classes and Trees) For any class $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$, the following are equivalent:
(i) $\mathcal{C}=[T]$ for some tree $T$;
(ii) $\mathcal{C}$ is closed;
(iii) $\mathcal{C}$ is a (boldface) $\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\mathbf{1}}^{\mathbf{0}}$ class.

Proof Relativize the proof of Theorem 2.4 to $X \subseteq \omega$.
Remark 2.6 (Representing Closed Classes) The most convenient way of representing open and closed classes is with trees. If $\mathcal{C}$ is closed we choose a tree $T$ such that $\mathcal{C}=[T]$. Define $A=\omega-T$. Then $T$ is downward closed, $A$ is upward closed, and $A$ defines the open set $\llbracket A \rrbracket=2^{\omega}-[T]=\overline{\mathcal{C}}$. Note that the representations $A$ and $T$ are conveniently complementary in $\omega$ and the open class $\llbracket A \rrbracket$ and closed class [ $T$ ] are also complementary in $2^{\omega}$. The only difference between the effective case and general case is whether the tree $T$ is computable or only computable in some set $X \subseteq \omega$.

We may imagine a path $f \in 2^{\omega}$ trying to climb the tree $T$ without passing though a node $\sigma \in A$. If $f$ succeeds, then $f \in \mathcal{C}=[T]$. However, if $f \succ \sigma$ for even one node $\sigma \in A$, then $f$ falls off the tree forever and $f \notin \mathcal{C}$.
2.3 The Compactness Theorem One particularly useful feature of Cantor space is the well-known Compactness Theorem (whose proof we omit) and the Effective Compactness Theorem 2.9, both of which lead into the study of our main topic, $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes.

Theorem 2.7 (Compactness Theorem) The following easy and well-known properties hold for Cantor Space $2^{\omega}$. The term compactness refers to any of them but particularly to (iv).
(i) (Weak König's Lemma). If $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ is an infinite tree, then $[T] \neq \varnothing$.
(ii) If $T_{0} \supseteq T_{1} \ldots$ is a decreasing sequence of trees with $\left[T_{n}\right] \neq \varnothing$ for every $n$, and intersection $T_{\omega}=\cap_{n \in \omega} T_{n}$, then $\left[T_{\omega}\right] \neq \varnothing$.
(iii) If $\left\{\mathcal{C}_{i}\right\}_{i \in \omega}$ is a countable family of closed sets such that $\cap_{i \in F} \mathcal{C}_{i} \neq \varnothing$ for every finite set $F \subseteq \omega$, then $\cap_{i \in \omega} \mathfrak{C}_{i} \neq \varnothing$ also.
(iv) (Finite Subcover Property). Any open cover $\llbracket A \rrbracket=2^{\omega}$ has a finite open subcover $F \subseteq A$ such that $\llbracket F \rrbracket=2^{\omega}$.

Proof See Soare [CTA] Chapter 3.
2.4 Notation for trees Since our principal tool will be trees we introduce some notation.
Definition 2.8 Fix a tree $[T] \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$.
(i) For $\sigma \in T$ define the subtree $T_{\sigma}$ of nodes comparable with $\sigma$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{\sigma}=\{\tau \in T: \sigma \preceq \tau \quad \text { or } \quad \tau \prec \sigma\} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

(ii) Define the subtree of extendible nodes $\sigma \in T$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
T^{\mathrm{ext}}=\{\sigma \in T:(\exists f \succ \sigma)[f \in[T]]\} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

(iii) A point (path) $f \in[T]$ is isolated if

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\exists \sigma)\left[\quad\left[T_{\sigma}\right]=\{f\} \quad\right] \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

We say that $\sigma$ isolates $f$ because $\llbracket \sigma \rrbracket \cap[T]=\{f\}$ and we call $\sigma$ an atom because it cannot be extended to two incomparable nodes $\rho$ and $\tau$ on $T$. If $f$ is isolated we say it has Cantor-Bendixson rank 0 . If $f$ is not isolated, then $f$ is a limit point. Note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
T^{\mathrm{ext}}=\{\sigma \in T:(\forall n \geq|\sigma|)(\exists \tau \succeq \sigma)[|\tau|=n \quad \& \quad \tau \in T] . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

2.5 Effective Compactness Theorem For a computable tree $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ we can establish the following effective analogues of the Compactness Theorem 2.7.
Theorem 2.9 (Effective Compactness Theorem) Let $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ be a computable tree.
(i) $T^{\mathrm{ext}}$ is a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ set. Hence, $\overline{T^{\mathrm{ext}}}$ is $\Sigma_{1}^{0}, \quad \overline{T^{\mathrm{ext}}} \leq_{\mathrm{m}} \varnothing^{\prime}$, and $T^{\mathrm{ext}} \leq_{\mathrm{T}} \varnothing^{\prime}$.
(ii) (Kreisel Basis Theorem) If $[T] \neq \varnothing$, then $\left(\exists f \leq_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}\right)[f \in[T]]$. This part (ii) will be generalized in the Low Basis Theorem 3.8.
(iii) $\operatorname{If}[T] \neq \varnothing$, and $f$ is the lexicographically least member, then $f$ has c.e. degree.
(iv) If $f \in[T]$ is isolated, then $f$ is computable.
(v) Given an open cover $\llbracket A \rrbracket=2^{\omega}$ with $A$ c.e. there is finite subset $F \subseteq A$ such that $\llbracket F \rrbracket=2^{\omega}$ and a canonical index for $F$ can be found uniformly in a c.e. index for $A$.

Proof (i) The formal definition of $T^{\text {ext }}$ in (5) has one function quantifier and is in $\Sigma_{1}^{1}$ form. Indeed, this the best we can do for Baire space $\omega^{\omega}$. However, for Cantor space $2^{\omega}$ we can use the Compactness Theorem 2.7(i) to reduce $T^{\text {ext }}$ to the $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ form of (7). Note that the quantifier $\tau$ is bounded by $n$ and therefore only the $(\forall n)$ quantifier counts in the prefix calculation. ${ }^{2}$
(ii) Now use a $\varnothing^{\prime}$ oracle to choose $f \in[T]$ such that $f=\cup_{n} \sigma_{n}$ is defined as follows. Given $\sigma_{n} \in T^{\text {ext }}$, let $\sigma_{n+1}=\sigma_{n} \widehat{ } 0$ if $\sigma_{n} \widehat{ } 0 \in T^{\text {ext }}$ and $\sigma_{n}{ }^{\widehat{ }} 1$ otherwise.
(iii) (This gives a stronger conclusion than (ii).) Let $f$ be the lexicographically least member of [ $T$ ], that is, in the dictionary ordering $<_{L}$ on the alphabet $\{0,1\}$. Define the following c.e. set of nodes $M \subseteq \overline{T^{\text {ext }}}$ such that $M \equiv_{\mathrm{T}} f$.

$$
M=\left\{\sigma:(\forall \tau)_{|\tau|=|\sigma|}\left[\quad\left[\tau \in T \& \leq_{L} \sigma\right] \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \tau \in \overline{T^{\mathrm{ext}}}\right]\right\} .
$$

(Wait until $\sigma$ and all its predecessors of length $|\sigma|$ have appeared nonextendible. Then put $\sigma$ into $M$. In this way we enumerate all nodes $\tau<_{L} f$.)
(iv) Choose $\sigma \in T$ with $\left[T_{\sigma}\right]=\{f\}$. To compute $f$ assume we have computed $\tau=f \upharpoonright n$. Exactly one of $\tau \wedge 0$ and $\tau^{\wedge} 1$ is extendible. Enumerate $\overline{T^{\text {ext }} \text { until one of }}$ these nodes appears and take the other one.
(v) Assume $\llbracket A \rrbracket=2^{\omega}$ with $A$ c.e. Enumerate $A$ until a finite set $F \subseteq A$ is found with $\llbracket F \rrbracket=2^{\omega}$ by the Compactness Theorem(iv). We can search until we find it.

Remark 2.10 Note that the conclusions in the Effective Compactness Theorem 2.9 have various levels of effectiveness even though the hypotheses are all effective. In (v), if $\llbracket A \rrbracket$ covers $2^{\omega}$, then the passage from $A$ to $F$ is computable because we simply enumerate $A$ until $F$ appears (as for any $\Sigma_{1}$ process). However, if $\llbracket A \rrbracket$ fails to cover $2^{\omega}$, then the complementary closed class [ $T$ ] $=2^{\omega}-\llbracket A \rrbracket$ is nonempty. Then (ii) gives a path $f \in[T]$ with $f \leq_{\mathrm{T}} \varnothing^{\prime}$ and (iii) even produces a path of c.e. degree, but neither produces a computable path $f$ because given an extendible string $\sigma$ the process for the proof of Weak König's Lemma in Theorem 2.7(i) does not computably determine whether to extend to $\sigma^{\wedge} 0$ or $\sigma^{\wedge} 1$. In Theorem 3.4 we shall construct a computable tree with paths but no computable paths.

## 3 Basis and Nonbasis Theorems for $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ Classes

The motivating question of this section is the following: given a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$, what can we say about the Turing degrees of members of $\mathcal{C}$ ? To address this question, we need to fix some terminology.
Definition 3.1 A $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ is special if it contains no computable member.
It follows that if $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ is a computable tree such that [ $T$ ] is special then $T^{\text {ext }}$ must be a perfect tree, meaning that every $\sigma \in T^{\text {ext }}$ admits incompatible extensions in $T^{\text {ext }}$ because any isolated path would be computable. Therefore, every special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has $2^{N_{0}}$ members.

Definition 3.2 Let $\mathbf{D}$ be a class of Turing degrees.
(i) We call $\mathbf{D}$ a basis for $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes if every nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member $f$ with $\operatorname{deg}(f) \leq \mathbf{d}$ for some $\mathbf{d} \in \mathbf{D}$. Otherwise, we call $\mathbf{D}$ a nonbasis.
(ii) We call $\mathbf{D}$ an antibasis ${ }^{3}$ for $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes if whenever a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class contains a member of every degree $\mathbf{d} \in \mathbf{D}$, it contains a member of every degree $\mathbf{d} \geq \mathbf{0}$.

We extend the above definitions from classes of degrees to classes $\delta$ of subsets of $\omega$ by calling $\&$ a basis, nonbasis, or antibasis if $\{\operatorname{deg}(S): S \in \delta\}$ is, respectively, a basis, nonbasis, or antibasis.

An alternative definition of bases is the following. First, for a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$, define its degree spectrum as $f(\mathcal{C})=\{\operatorname{deg}(f): f \in \mathcal{C}\}$. Then a class of degrees $\mathbf{D}$ is a basis for $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes if $\mathbf{D} \cap \&(\mathcal{C}) \neq \varnothing$ for all $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes $\mathcal{C} \neq \varnothing$. (We will not refer to degree spectra in the sequel; see Kent and Lewis [2009] for a thorough investigation of their algebraic properties.)
3.1 Nonbasis theorems for $\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\mathbf{1}}^{\mathbf{0}} \quad$ Next, in Theorem 3.4, we show that we cannot always find a computable member in a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class. Therefore, the class of computable sets is a nonbasis for $\Pi_{1}^{0}$.
Definition 3.3 If $A$ and $B$ are disjoint sets, then $S$ is a separating set if $A \subseteq S$ and $B \cap S=\varnothing$. The class of all such sets $S$ is denoted by $S(A, B)$.

## Theorem 3.4

(i) If $W_{e}$ and $W_{i}$ are disjoint c.e. sets, then the class of separating sets $S\left(W_{e}, W_{i}\right)$ is a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class.
(ii) There is a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class with no computable members.

Proof (i) Define a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ by putting $f$ in $\mathcal{C}$ if

$$
(\forall x)(\forall s)\left[\left[x \in W_{e} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad f(x)=1\right] \quad \& \quad\left[x \in W_{i} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad f(x)=0\right]\right] .
$$

(ii) Let $W_{e}$ and $W_{i}$ be disjoint, computably inseparable c.e. sets.

Corollary 3.5 The class of computable sets is not a basis for $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes (i.e., $\{\mathbf{0}\}$ is a nonbasis).
We can generalize the preceding corollary as follows.
Theorem 3.6 (Jockusch and Soare, 1972a, Theorem 4) The class of incomplete c.e. sets is not a basis for $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes (i.e., the class of c.e. degrees $\mathbf{d}<\mathbf{0}^{\prime}$ is a nonbasis).

Proof Let $A$ be the standard effectively immune set of Post. Recall that this set is constructed by enumerating into $\bar{A}$ at stage $s \geq 0$, for each $e<s$, the least $x>2 e$ such that $x \in W_{e, s} \subseteq A_{s}$. Then $A$ is co-c.e. and it is easy to see that for every $e \in \omega$, $\mid \bar{A}\left\lceil 2 e \mid \leq e\right.$, meaning $A \cap\left[2^{e+1}-2,2^{e+2}-3\right] \neq \varnothing$. Thus, if we define

$$
\mathcal{C}=\left\{f \in 2^{\omega}: f \subseteq A \&(\forall e)\left[f \cap\left[2^{e+1}-2,2^{e+2}-3\right] \neq \varnothing\right]\right\}
$$

then $\mathcal{C}$ is a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class consisting entirely of infinite subsets of $A$. In particular, since $A$ is effectively immune and so is every infinite subset of an effectively immune set, every member of $A$ is effectively immune. It is a well-known result of Martin that no incomplete c.e. set can compute an effectively immune set (see Soare, 1987, Chapter 5 ), so no incomplete c.e. set can compute any element of $\mathcal{C}$.
3.2 The Kreisel-Shoenfield Basis Theorem By the Kreisel Basis Theorem 2.9(ii) we can, in any nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class, always find a member $f \leq_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}$ and by (iii) even $f$ of c.e. degree, although by Theorem 3.6 not necessarily incomplete c.e. degree. Can we do better?
Theorem 3.7 (Kreisel-Shoenfield Basis Theorem) Every nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ has a member $f<_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}$.

Shoenfield [1960] improved the Kreisel Basis Theorem to $f$ strictly below $\varnothing^{\prime}$, namely, $f<_{T} \quad \varnothing^{\prime}$, by considering, for a given $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$, the $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathscr{D}$ of all $\langle f, g\rangle$ such that $f \in \mathcal{C}$ and

$$
(\forall e)\left[\Phi_{e}^{f}(e) \downarrow \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \Phi_{e}^{f}(e) \neq g(e)\right]
$$

He then applied Kreisel's result to $\mathscr{D}$. The following Low Basis Theorem substantially generalizes these results by Kreisel and Shoenfield.
3.3 The Low Basis Theorem The previous two subsections prove that given a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ we cannot always find a computable member $f \in \mathcal{C}$ but we can find a member $f<_{\mathrm{T}} \varnothing^{\prime}$. The next theorem says we can do much better and always produce $f$ which is low, that is, $f^{\prime} \equiv_{\mathrm{T}} \varnothing^{\prime}$, and therefore close to $\varnothing$ in information content and structure. Downey and Hirschfeldt's new book [ta, p. 73] states, "The following is the most famous and widely applicable basis theorem."

Theorem 3.8 (Low Basis Theorem (LBT), Jockusch and Soare, 1972b) If $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class, then it contains a low member $f$.

Proof Let $T$ be a computable tree such that $[T]=\mathcal{C}$. Use $\varnothing^{\prime}$ to define a sequence of infinite computable trees $T=T_{0} \supseteq T_{1} \supseteq \ldots$ as follows. Define

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{e}=\left\{\sigma: \Phi_{e,|\sigma|}^{\sigma}(e) \uparrow\right\} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is also a computable tree. Given $T_{e}$ : (1) define $T_{e+1}=T_{e} \cap U_{e}$ if $T_{e} \cap U_{e}$ is infinite, and (2) define $T_{e+1}=T_{e}$ otherwise. If (1) then $\Phi_{e}^{g}(e) \uparrow$ for all $g \in\left[T_{e+1}\right]$, and if (2) then $\Phi_{e}^{g}(e) \downarrow$ for all $g \in\left[T_{e+1}\right]$. Note that $\varnothing^{\prime}$ can decide whether a computable tree is finite by (7).

We say that $T_{e+1}$ forces the jump as described in Section 4 because no matter which clause holds in the definition of $T_{e+1}$ we know that either

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\forall g \in\left[T_{e+1}\right]\right)\left[\Phi_{e}^{g}(e) \downarrow\right] \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\forall g \in\left[T_{e+1}\right]\right)\left[\Phi_{e}^{g}(e) \uparrow\right] \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Choose $f \in \bigcap_{e \in \omega}\left[T_{e}\right]$. This is an intersection of a descending sequence of nonempty closed sets and hence nonempty, by the Compactness Theorem 2.7(ii). Now $\varnothing^{\prime}$ can decide using (7) which of (9) or (10) holds at stage $e+1$ in the definition of $T_{e+1}$.

Therefore, we have $\varnothing^{\prime}$-computably determined at stage $e+1$ the convergence or divergence of $\Phi_{e}^{f}(e)$ even though very little of $f$ has yet been defined by stage $e+1$. This is the nature of forcing, to decide $\Phi_{e}^{f}(e)$ even though $f$ is yet undetermined.

In Section 5.3 we use this method to prove a similar basis theorem that any nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class contains a member $f$ such that every $g \leq_{\mathrm{T}} f$ is dominated by a computable function.

We shall see in Section 6, Theorem 6.4, that there exists a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{P}$ such that for every other nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ and every $f \in \mathcal{P}, f$ computes a member of $\mathcal{C}$ (i.e., for every $f \in \mathscr{P}$, the singleton $\{f\}$ is a basis for $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes). Applying the Low Basis Theorem to $\mathcal{P}$ then yields the following.

Theorem 3.9 (Second Low Basis Theorem, Jockusch and Soare, 1972b) There is a low set $A$ such that every nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ has a member $f \leq{ }_{\mathrm{T}} A$.
3.4 Superlow Basis Theorem The proof of the Low Basis Theorem 3.8 gives even more information about the jump $f^{\prime}$ than was explicitly claimed.
3.4.1 Defining Superlow

Definition 3.10 Assume we are given a set $A \leq_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}$.
(i) The set $A$ is $\omega$-c.e. if there is a computable sequence $\left\{A_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ with $A_{0}=\varnothing$ and $A_{s}(x) \in\{0,1\}$ and a computable function $g(x)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\lim _{s} A_{s} \quad \& \quad\left|\left\{s: A_{s}(x) \neq A_{s+1}(x)\right\}\right| \leq g(x) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

(ii) If (11) holds for $g(x)$ then $A$ is $g(x)$-c.e. If $g(x)=n$ then $A$ is $n$-c.e.
(iii) $A$ is truth-table reducible to $B$, written $A \leq_{\mathrm{tt}} B$, if there is a total Turing reduction $\Phi_{e}$ with $A=\Phi_{e}^{B}$.
(iv) A set $A$ is superlow if $A^{\prime} \leq_{\mathrm{tt}} \varnothing^{\prime}$ or equivalently if $A^{\prime}$ is $\omega$-c.e.

Theorem 3.11 (Superlow Basis Theorem (SLBT)) $\quad$ Every nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ has a member $A$ which is superlow and indeed $A^{\prime}$ is $2^{e+1}$-c.e.
3.4.2 The first proof of the Superlow Basis Theorem We now give what was historically the first proof of the SLBT, from c. 1969, by making $A^{\prime} \omega$-c.e.

Proof The first proof ${ }^{4}$ (unpublished) of the Low Basis Theorem 3.8 (LBT) was not the $\varnothing^{\prime}$ oracle proof above but a limit computable proof showing that $A^{\prime}$ is $2^{e+1}$-c.e. We construct a computable sequence of strings $\left\{\sigma_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ such that $A:=\lim _{s} \sigma_{s}$ is superlow. Fix a computable tree $T$ with $[T]=\mathcal{C}$. Define the computable tree,

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{e, s}=\left\{\sigma: \Phi_{e, s}^{\sigma}(e) \uparrow\right\} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $T_{0, s}=T$ for all $s$. For every $s$ given $T_{e, s}:$ (1) define $T_{e+1, s}=T_{e, s} \cap U_{e, s}$ if the latter contains a string $\sigma$ of length $s$ and (2) define $T_{e+1, s}=T_{e, s}$ otherwise. Let $\sigma_{s}$ be the lexicographically least string of length $s$ in $T_{s, s}$. Choose a stage $s$ after which the trees $T_{i, s}$ have stopped changing from (1) to (2) for all $i<e$. After $s$ the tree $T_{e, t}$ changes from (1) to (2) at most once at some $t>s$ when $\Phi_{e, t}^{\sigma}(e) \uparrow$ and $\Phi_{e, t}^{\sigma}(e) \downarrow$. For stages $v>t$ the tree $T_{e, v}$ never changes away from (2) and $\Phi_{e, v}^{\sigma}(e)$ remains defined forever. Therefore, $\Phi_{e, s}^{\sigma}(e)$ changes between defined and undefined at most $2^{e+1}$ times and converges to $A^{\prime}(e)$.
3.4.3 A second proof of the Superlow Basis For completeness, we include also the following alternative proof of the SLBT which is more straightforward in that it directly builds a total reduction.

Proof Let $I=\left\{i \in \omega: i\right.$ is an index for a finite $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\}$. Then $I$ is definable by a $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ formula, meaning, since $\varnothing^{\prime}$ is $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$-complete, that there is a computable function $h$ such that for all $i, i \in I$ if and only if $h(i) \in \varnothing^{\prime}$. Fix a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ and a computable tree $T_{0} \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ with $\mathcal{C}=\left[T_{0}\right]$. We define a total reduction $\Psi$ as follows. Fix $X$ and $e \in \omega$, and assume inductively that for all $x<e, \Psi^{X}(x)$ has been defined, along with (indices for) trees $T_{0} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq T_{e}$. From an index for $T_{e}$ we can effectively find an index $i$ for the tree $U_{e}=\left\{\sigma \in T_{e}: \Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(e) \uparrow\right\}$, and we define $\Phi^{X}(e)$ to be 0 or 1 depending as $h(i)$ is or is not in $X$. We then let $T_{e+1}$ be either $T_{e}$ or $U_{e}$, respectively. By comparison with the proof of the Low Basis Theorem, we see that $\Psi^{\varnothing^{\prime}}=f^{\prime}$ for some $f \in \mathcal{C}$.
3.5 The Computably Dominated Basis Theorem Jockusch and Soare showed that a variation on the proof of the Low Basis Theorem 3.8 yielded a member $f \in \mathcal{C}$ such that every $g \leq_{\mathrm{T}} f$ is bounded by a computable function. Such functions are called computably dominated and play an important role.

## Definition 3.12

(i) A function $h$ bounds (majorizes) a function $g$, written $g<h$, if $(\forall x)[g(x)<h(x)]$.
(ii) Function $h$ dominates $g$, written $g<^{*} h$, if $\left(\forall^{\infty} x\right)[g(x)<h(x)]$, where $\left(\forall^{\infty} x\right)$ denotes 'for almost all $x$ ', that is, for all but finitely many $x$.
(iii) If $A=\left\{a_{0}<a_{1}<\ldots\right\}$ is an infinite set, the principal function of $A$ is $p_{A}$ where $p_{A}(n)=a_{n}$. Extend the definitions of bounds and dominates to an infinite set $A$ by using the principal function $p_{A}$.
(iv) A function $g$ (or set $A$ ) is computably bounded if it is bounded by some computable function $h$.
(v) A (Turing) degree $\mathbf{d}$ is computably dominated (c.d.) if $f$ is computably bounded for every $f \in \mathbf{d}$.
(vi) A function $f$ or set $A$ is computably dominated (c.d.) if the degree of $f$ (respectively, $A$ ) is a computably dominated degree.

The key point is that for a function $f$ or set $A$ to be computably bounded simply requires a single bounding function, while being computably dominated imposes computable bounding on every function $g$ in the same degree, a very strong condition. For example, we shall prove in Theorem 5.8 that if $f$ is computably dominated then $g$ is computably bounded for all $g \leq_{\mathrm{T}} f$ not only $g \equiv_{\mathrm{T}} f$. In Section 5.3 we shall see that a computably dominated set is also hyperimmune-free (see Definition 5.7). ${ }^{5}$

The key idea in the next theorem is to use a $\varnothing^{\prime \prime}$ oracle to build a member $f$ of a given $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class with the property that we can decide whether $\Phi_{e}^{f}$ is total or not at a definite stage of the construction. This differs from the proof of the Low Basis Theorem, where we needed only a $\varnothing^{\prime}$ oracle to similarly decide whether $\Phi_{e}^{f}(e)$ converges or not. In both cases, however, we use the same technique (known as forcing with $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes) of continually pruning an infinite computable tree while preserving certain desired properties. We shall give a more systematic treatment of this technique in Section 4 below.

Theorem 3.13 (Computably Dominated Basis Theorem, Jockusch and Soare, 1972b) If $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class, then it contains a low $2_{2}$ member such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\forall g \leq_{\mathrm{T}} f\right)[g \text { is computably bounded }] . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof For any computable tree $T$ and any $e, x \in \omega$, we can $\varnothing^{\prime}$-uniformly effectively decide whether the following set is infinite:

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{e, x}=\left\{\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}: \sigma \in T \& \Phi_{e,|\sigma|}^{\sigma}(x) \uparrow\right\} . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Choose a computable tree $T_{0}$ such that $\mathcal{C}=\left[T_{0}\right]$, and assume by induction that $T_{e}$ is defined for some $e \geq 0$. Use a $\varnothing^{\prime \prime}$ oracle to determine whether there is an $x$ such that $U_{e, x}$ is infinite.

Case 1 If so, then choose the least such $x$, and define $T_{e+1}=U_{e, x}$.
Case 2 If not, then define $T_{e+1}=T_{e}$.
Note that in either case, $T_{e+1} \subseteq T_{e}$. As before, the intersection $\bigcap_{e} T_{e}$ is nonempty by the Compactness Theorem 2.7(ii), so we can choose some $f$ in it.

Lemma 3.14 If $g=\Phi_{e}^{f}$ is total then $g$ is computably bounded.

Proof Assume $g=\Phi_{e}^{f}$ is total. Then $T_{e+1}$ must have been defined by Case 2 since otherwise $\Phi_{e}^{f}$ could not be total. Then for every $x$, we can effectively find a level $n$ such that $\Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(x) \downarrow$ for all $\sigma \in T_{e+1}$ of length $n$. Then the function $h(x)=\max \left\{\Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(x): \sigma \in T_{e+1} \quad \& \quad|\sigma|=n\right\}$ bounds $g$.

Lemma $3.15 f$ is low $_{2}$.
Proof Fix $e$. If Case 1 holds for $T_{e+1}$ then $\Phi_{e}^{f}$ is not total. If Case 2 holds for $T_{e+1}$ then $\Phi_{e}^{f}$ is total. In either case, we are forcing at the finite stage $e+1$ to decide whether or not $e \in \operatorname{Tot}^{f}=\left\{i: \Phi_{i}^{f}\right.$ total $\}$. The construction is $\varnothing^{\prime \prime}$-computable. Hence, $\operatorname{Tot}^{f} \leq_{\mathrm{T}} \varnothing^{\prime \prime}$ so $f^{\prime \prime} \leq_{\mathrm{T}} \varnothing^{\prime \prime}$.

We cannot produce a low $f$ in the preceding theorem. We shall show in Theorem 5.13 that no noncomputable $f$ with the computable bounding property (13) can be computable in $\varnothing^{\prime}$.
Theorem 3.16 Every nonempty special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a perfect subclass of computably dominated members.

Proof Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a nonempty special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class, and let $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ be an infinite tree with $\mathcal{C}=[T]$. We define an infinite subtree $S$ of $T$ such that every $\sigma \in S$ is extendible and has a pair of incomparable extensions in $S$, and such that every $f \in[S]$ is computably dominated. We obtain $S$ as $\bigcup_{e} S_{e}$ where $S_{0} \subset S_{1} \subset \ldots$ are finite subtrees of $T$ constructed inductively as follows. Let $S_{0}=\{\lambda\}$, and suppose $S_{e}$ has been defined for some $e \geq 0$ and that the leaves of $S_{e}$ all have the same length and are extendible. Fix a leaf $\sigma$ of $S_{e}$, and define

$$
U_{\sigma, e, x}=\left\{\tau \in T: \tau \preceq \sigma \vee \tau \succ \sigma \quad \& \quad \Phi_{e,|\tau|}^{\tau}(x) \uparrow\right\}
$$

Note that this is a computable subtree of $T$, and hence, if it is infinite, it cannot have any infinite computable path. We define extensions $\sigma_{0}, \sigma_{1}$ of $\sigma$ as follows.

Case 1 If $U_{\sigma, e, x}$ is infinite for some $x$, fix the least such $x$, and let $\sigma_{0}$ and $\sigma_{1}$ be the first incompatible, extendible extensions of $\sigma$ in $U_{\sigma, e, x}$.

Case 2 If not, let $\sigma_{0}$ and $\sigma_{1}$ be the first incompatible, extendible extensions of $\sigma$ in $T$.

Note that in either case $\sigma_{0}$ and $\sigma_{1}$ must exist, since every extendible node in a computable tree with no infinite computable path must have two incompatible extendible extensions in that tree. We let $S_{e+1}$ be the set of all $\tau \in T$ such that either $\tau \preceq \sigma_{0}$ or $\tau \preceq \sigma_{1}$ for some leaf $\sigma$ of $S_{e}$.

It is readily seen that $S$ is a perfect subtree of $T$. Suppose $g=\Phi_{e}^{f}$ for some $f \in[S]$. Let $\sigma$ be the leaf of $D_{e}$ that is an initial segment of $f$. Then $\sigma_{0}$ and $\sigma_{1}$ must have been found according to Case 2 in the definition of $D_{e+1}$, meaning $U_{\sigma, e, x}$ is finite. Thus, given $x$, find $n$ such that $\Phi_{e}^{\tau}(x) \downarrow$ for all $\tau \succ \sigma$ in $T$ of length $n$. Let $h(x)=\max \left\{\Phi_{e}^{\tau}(x): \tau \in T \quad \& \quad \tau \succ \sigma \quad \& \quad|\tau|=n\right\}$. Then $h$ is computable function bounding $f$. We conclude that $[S]$ is a perfect subclass of $\mathcal{C}$ all members of which are computably dominated.
Theorem 3.17 (Kučera and Nies) Let $\mathcal{P}$ be a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class and $B>_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}$ a $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ set. Then there is a computably dominated $f \in \mathcal{P}$ with $f^{\prime} \leq_{\mathrm{T}} B$.

For a sketch of the proof see Nies [1995, p. 61]. The idea is to fix a c.e. enumeration $\left\{B_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ of $B$ relative to $\varnothing^{\prime}$, to build a $\Delta_{2}^{0, B}$ enumeration $\left\{f_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ and to allow $f_{s}(x) \neq f_{s+1}(x)$ only if $B_{s} \upharpoonright x \neq B_{s+1} \upharpoonright x$.
3.6 Low Antibasis Theorem. For the purposes of the following theorem, we will say that a set $S \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ is isomorphic to $2^{<\omega}$ provided there is a bijection $g: 2^{<\omega} \rightarrow S$ such that for all $\sigma, \tau \in 2^{<\omega}, \sigma \preceq \tau$ if and only if $g(\sigma) \preceq g(\tau)$. Notice that if a tree $T$ has a subset isomorphic to $2^{<\omega}$ via a computable such bijection, then $[T]$ has a member of every degree. Indeed, for every real $X$, we have $Y=\bigcup_{n} g(X \upharpoonright n) \in[T]$. Clearly, $Y \leq_{T} X$, while to compute $X(n)$ from $Y$ for a given $n$ we search for a $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$ until we find one of length greater than $n$ with $g(\sigma) \subset Y$, and then $\sigma(n)=X(n)$.

Theorem 3.18 (Kent and Lewis, 2009) Every $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class that has a member of every nonzero low degree has one of every degree.

Proof Fix a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ not containing a member of every degree and let $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ be a computable tree such that $\mathcal{C}=[T]$. We define a noncomputable low set $A$ such that for all $e \in \omega$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{e}^{A}=g \in 2^{\omega} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad\left[g \leq_{\mathrm{T}} \varnothing \quad \vee \quad g \notin[T]\right] . \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, $g \notin[T]$.
We obtain $A$ as $\bigcup_{s} \sigma_{s}$ where $\sigma_{0} \preceq \sigma_{1} \preceq \ldots$ are constructed as follows. Let $\sigma_{0}=\varnothing$ and suppose that for some $s \geq 0, \sigma_{s}$ is given. If $s=3 e$ for some $e$, ask whether $\varphi_{e}\left(\left|\sigma_{s}\right|\right)$ converges, and define $\sigma_{s+1}$ to be $\sigma_{s}\left(1-\varphi_{e}\left(\left|\sigma_{s}\right|\right)\right)$ if it does and $\sigma_{s}{ }^{`} 0$ otherwise. If $s=3 e+1$ for some $e$, ask whether there exists any $\sigma \succeq \sigma_{s}$ with $\Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(e) \downarrow$ and define $\sigma_{s+1}$ to be the least such $\sigma$ if there does and $\sigma_{s}$ otherwise. In this way, we ensure that $A$ is noncomputable and low.

Finally, suppose $s=3 e+2$ for some $e$. Search for a $\sigma \succeq \sigma_{s}$ such that one of the following cases occurs.

Case 1 For all $\tau \succeq \sigma, \Phi_{e}^{\tau}(x)$ diverges or is not $\{0,1\}$-valued for some $x<|\tau|$.
Case $2 \Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(x) \downarrow$ for all $x<|\sigma|$ and string $\Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(0)^{\wedge} \Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(1)^{\wedge} \ldots \wedge \Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(|\sigma|-1)$ is not in $T$.

Case $3 \quad \sigma$ has no extensions which $e$-split.
We claim the search must succeed. If not, we can define computable functions $f: 2^{<\omega} \rightarrow\left\{\rho \in 2^{<\omega}: \rho \succeq \tau\right\}$ and $g: 2^{<\omega} \rightarrow T$ as follows. By the failure of Case 1, there exists $\sigma \succeq \sigma_{s}$ with $\Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(x) \downarrow \in\{0,1\}$ for all $x<|\sigma|$, and we let $f(\varnothing)=\sigma$ for the least such $\sigma$. By the failure of Case 2, we know that the string $\Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(0) \wedge \Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(1)^{\wedge} \cdots{ }^{\wedge} \Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(|\sigma|-1)$ belongs to $T$, and we let $g(\varnothing)$ be this string. We can thus assume by induction that $f(\sigma)$ has been defined for some $\sigma$, and that

$$
g(\sigma)=\Phi_{e}^{f(\sigma)}(0) \wedge \Phi_{e}^{f(\sigma)}(1) \wedge \ldots{ }^{\wedge} \Phi_{e}^{f(\sigma)}(|f(\sigma)|-1)
$$

belongs to $T$. By the failure of Case 3 , there exist proper extensions $\tau_{0}$ and $\tau_{1}$ of $f(\sigma)$ such that $\Phi_{e}^{\tau_{0}}(x) \downarrow \neq \Phi_{e}^{\tau_{1}}(x)$ for some $x<\min \left\{\left|\tau_{0}\right|,\left|\tau_{1}\right|\right\}$, and using the failure of Case 1 we can assume that $\Phi_{e}^{\tau_{i}}(x) \downarrow$ for all $x<\left|\tau_{i}\right|$ and all $i<2$. For $i<2$, we let $f\left(\sigma^{\wedge} i\right)=\tau_{i}$ and $g\left(\sigma^{\wedge} i\right)=\Phi_{e}^{\tau_{i}}(0) \Phi_{e}^{\tau_{i}}(1) \cdots \Phi_{e}^{\tau_{i}}\left(\left|\tau_{i}\right|-1\right)$. Then $g$ is a computable bijection from $2^{<\omega}$ to a subset of $T$ isomorphic to $2^{<\omega}$. Therefore, [ $T$ ] has a member of every degree by our opening remarks. This proves our claim.

Now take the least $\sigma$ satisfying one of Cases $1-3$ above and let $\sigma_{s+1}=\sigma$. Under Case 1, this ensures that $\Phi_{e}^{A}$ is not total or $\{0,1\}$-valued, under Case 2 that $\Phi_{e}^{A}$ is not a member of $[T]$, and under Case 3 that $\Phi_{e}^{A}$, if total, is computable. This completes the proof.
3.7 Proper Low ${ }_{\boldsymbol{n}}$ Basis Theorem The following generalization of the Low Basis Theorem says that, up to degree, the restriction of the jump operator to any special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class is surjective. The trick used for pushing the jump of the member up to the desired set is not unlike that used in the standard proof of the Friedberg Completeness Criterion.

Theorem 3.19 (Cenzer, 1999) For every set $A \geq_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}$, every special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member $f$ satisfying $f \oplus \varnothing^{\prime} \equiv_{T} f^{\prime} \equiv_{T} A$.

Proof Fix a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ and a computable tree $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ such that $\mathcal{C}=[T]$. We build a sequence of infinite computable trees $T=T_{0} \supseteq T_{1} \supseteq \ldots$ as follows. Let $T_{e}$ be given. If $e$ is even, define $T_{e+1}$ from $T_{e}$ as in the proof of the Low Basis Theorem. If $e$ is odd, say $e=2 i+1$, note that $T_{e}^{\text {ext }}$ must be perfect since $\mathcal{C}$ is special, so $\varnothing^{\prime}$ can find the smallest extendible nodes $\sigma, \tau \in T_{e}$ such that $\sigma(x)=0$ and $\tau(x)=1$ for some $x$. Let $T_{e+1}$ consist of all the nodes in $T_{e}$ comparable with $\sigma$ or $\tau$, depending as $A(i)=0$ or $A(i)=1$, respectively.

Take $f \in \bigcap_{e \in \omega}\left[T_{e}\right]$. If $e$ is even, $T_{e+1}$ can be obtained from $T_{e} \varnothing^{\prime}$-effectively, and hence both $f \oplus \varnothing^{\prime}$-effectively and $A$-effectively because $A \geq_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}$. If $e$ is odd, say $e=2 i+1$, then to obtain $T_{e+1}$ from $T_{e}$ we need an oracle for $\varnothing^{\prime}$ to find the extendible nodes $\sigma$ and $\tau$ and the position $x$ on which they disagree, and then an oracle for $A$ since we need to know $A(i)$. But in this case, $i \in A$ if and only if $f(x)=1$, so an oracle for $f$ suffices to determine whether to let $T_{e+1}$ consist of the nodes comparable with $\sigma$ or the nodes comparable with $\tau$. Since $f^{\prime}$ is decided during the construction, we consequently have that $f \oplus \varnothing^{\prime} \leq_{T} f^{\prime} \leq_{T} A \leq_{T} f \oplus \varnothing^{\prime}$, as desired.

The above theorem fails to fully generalize the Friedberg Completeness Criterion because the latter actually produces, for every $A \geq_{T} \quad \varnothing^{\prime}$, a 1-generic set $G$ with $G \oplus \varnothing^{\prime} \equiv_{T} G^{\prime} \equiv_{T} A$ (i.e., a set $G$ such that for every $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ subset of $2^{<\omega}$, either some initial segment of $G$ lies in the set, or no extension of some initial segment of $G$ does). We cannot reproduce this extra property in the preceding theorem because there exist special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes with no members of 1-generic degree (e.g., the $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class all of whose members have degree $\gg \mathbf{0}$, since, by a result of Kučera [1987] and others, no such degree can bound a 1-generic one).

Theorem 3.20 For every $n \geq 0$, every special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member that is low $_{n+1}$ but not low ${ }_{n}$.

Proof We proceed by induction. If $n=0$, the result follows simply by the Low Basis Theorem and the fact that we are dealing with special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes. Since the Low Basis Theorem easily relativizes, we thus assume that the desired result holds, along with all of its relativizations, for some $n \geq 0$. Fix an arbitrary set $A$ and a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0, A}$ class $\mathcal{C}$. Let $\mathscr{D}$ be a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0, A^{\prime}}$ class all of whose members have degree strictly above $\operatorname{deg}(A)^{\prime}$. By the inductive hypothesis relative to $A^{\prime}, \mathcal{D}$ has an element $B$ such that $B^{(n)} \not \leq_{T}\left(A^{\prime}\right)^{(n)}=A^{(n+1)}$
but $B^{(n+1)} \leq_{T}\left(A^{\prime}\right)^{(n+1)}=A^{(n+2)}$. Since $B>_{T} \quad A^{\prime}$, it follows by Theorem 3.19, relativized to $A$, that $\mathcal{C}$ has an element $f$ satisfying $f^{\prime} \equiv_{T} B$. Then $f^{(n+1)} \equiv_{T} B^{(n)} \not \leq_{T} A^{(n+1)}$ but $f^{(n+2)} \equiv_{T} B^{(n+1)} \leq_{T} A^{(n+2)}$, so $f$ is $\operatorname{low}_{n+2}$ relative to $A$ and not low $_{n+1}$ relative to $A$, as desired. This completes the induction and the proof.

Of course the condition "special" in the preceding two theorems is unavoidable since there exist nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes all of whose members are computable.

One interesting topic which we do not cover here is the relation between the Cantor-Bendixson rank of a point $f$ in a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class and its Turing degree. For example, any rank 0 (isolated) point must be computable. Cenzer, Clote, Smith, Soare, and Wainer [1986] extend this to finite and even computable ordinals. Other results on rank are discussed in Cenzer [1999].

## 4 Forcing with $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ Classes

The method of constructing the path in the proof of the Low Basis Theorem is known as forcing with $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes, or sometimes also as Jockusch-Soare forcing. It is highly modular and can be used to obtain a wide array of results, and we will encounter it repeatedly in subsequent results about $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes. The purpose of this section is to outline this method and to give several examples of how it is used.
4.1 Conditions, dense sets, and generics Forcing in mathematical logic is a technique which traces its roots back to Cohen's celebrated proof of the independence of the Continuum Hypothesis from Zermelo-Fraenkel Set Theory, and, in slightly different form, even further back to the proof by Kleene and Post of the existence of incomparable degrees below $\mathbf{0}$ '. The basic idea is to decide, or "force," certain properties or requirements of an object we are building at a definite stage of our building it. Intuitively, we build the object using approximations called conditions, which we extend one by one in such a way as to preserve any information we have already decided or committed to. In the case of forcing with $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes, this takes the following form; it should be familiar to the reader who has seen forcing in other contexts.

## Definition 4.1

(i) A condition is an infinite computable subtree of $2^{<\omega}$. A condition $\widetilde{T} e x$ tends a condition $T$ if $\widetilde{T} \subseteq T$.
(ii) A collection $D$ of conditions is dense if every infinite computable tree $T$ has an extension $\widetilde{T} \in D$.
(iii) For a degree $\mathbf{d}$, a collection $D$ of conditions is $\mathbf{d}$-effectively dense if every infinite computable tree $T$ has an extension $\widetilde{T} \in D$, and if an index for $\widetilde{T}$ can be found d-effectively from an index for $T$.
(iv) Given a family of dense sets $\mathscr{D}=\left\{D_{e}: e \in \omega\right\}$, we call a real $f \in 2^{\omega}$ $\mathcal{D}$-generic if for all $e, f \in[T]$ for some $T \in D_{e}$.

The usefulness of forcing comes from the following theorem which says that generics always exist. In practice, this means we can obtain a generic possessing some property or properties simply by adjusting the family $\mathscr{D}$ we are working with.

## Theorem 4.2 (Existence of generics for forcing with $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes)

(i) For any computable tree $T$ and any countable family $\mathscr{D}=\left\{D_{e}: e \in \omega\right\}$ of dense sets, there exists a $\mathscr{D}$-generic real $f \in[T]$.
(ii) If the $D_{e}$ are $\mathbf{d}$-effectively dense for some $\mathbf{d}$, then there is a function $p$ with $\operatorname{deg}(p) \leq \mathbf{d}$ such that for each $e, p(e)$ is an index for some $\widetilde{T} \in D_{e}$ with $f \in[\widetilde{T}]$.

Proof To prove (i), let $T_{0}=T$. By density of the $D_{e}$, we can obtain a chain

$$
T_{0} \supseteq T_{1} \supseteq \ldots
$$

of infinite computable trees such that $T_{e+1} \in D_{e}$ for all $e$. Since Cantor space is compact and [ $\left.T_{0}\right],\left[T_{1}\right], \ldots$ is a nested sequence of nonempty closed sets, $\bigcap_{e \in \omega}\left[T_{e}\right]$ must be nonempty. Clearly, any member of this intersection is $\mathfrak{D}$-generic. To prove (ii), note that if the $D_{e}$ is $\mathbf{d}$-effectively dense then an index for each $T_{e}$ can be found d-effectively from an index for $T_{e-1}$.

Let us translate the proof of the Low Basis Theorem into the language of families of dense sets and generic reals. Let $\left\{T_{t_{0}}, T_{t_{1}}, \ldots\right\}$ be an effective enumeration of all computable subtrees (finite and infinite) of a given tree $T$ and such that $t_{i}$ is an index for $T_{t_{i}}$ for all $i$. For all $e, i \in \omega$ let $U_{e, t_{i}}=\left\{\sigma \in T_{t_{i}}: \Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(e) \uparrow\right\}$. Then, for each $e$ define

$$
D_{e}=\left\{U_{e, t_{i}}: i \in \omega \quad \&\left|U_{e, t_{i}}\right|=\infty\right\} \cup\left\{T_{t_{i}}: i \in \omega \&\left|U_{e, t_{i}}\right|<\infty\right\}
$$

and let $\mathscr{D}=\left\{D_{e}: e \in \omega\right\}$. It is not difficult to see that each $D_{e}$ is $\mathbf{0}^{\prime}$-effectively dense (notice that we can find an index for $U_{e, t_{i}}$ computably from an index for $T_{t_{i}}$ ). The Low Basis Theorem is obtained by taking a $\mathscr{D}$-generic $f$ and a function $p \leq_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}$ according to Theorem 4.2(ii) and pointing out that $e \in f^{\prime}$ if and only if $\left|U_{e, p(e)}\right| \neq \infty$ (which $\varnothing^{\prime}$ can decide).
4.2 Forcing Modules In the literature, authors customarily refer to dense sets only implicitly, preferring instead, as we did in our original proof of the Low Basis Theorem, to describe the strategy for obtaining $T_{e+1}$ from $T_{e}$ in the proof of Theorem 4.2 directly. We follow this convention below, but of course we could always translate any argument employing forcing with $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes into the (more formal) language of the previous subsection.

We can obtain a wide array of basis results by modifying the strategy for obtaining $T_{e+1}$ from $T_{e}$ in Theorem 4.2, or, in more complicated constructions, by varying it depending on $e$. We think of each such strategy as a module for forcing with $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes. As we will see, these modules can then be variously combined to produce different basis results. So as to have as much flexibility as possible in doing this, we describe each of these modules separately. We keep track of the effectiveness in each module, that is, of how much oracle strength was needed in its proof, so as to gauge how effective any basis result employing this module will be.

Let us illustrate the module concept by looking at a module we have already seen implemented, namely, that used in the proof of the Low Basis Theorem. A quick examination of that proof reveals that it consists just of iterations of this module for all $e \in \omega$.

Lemma 4.3 (Lowness Module) Let $T$ be an infinite computable tree and let $i \in \omega$. There exists an infinite computable subtree $\widetilde{T} \subseteq T$ such that either $\Phi_{i}^{f}(i) \downarrow$ for all
$f \in[\widetilde{T}]$, and hence $i \in f^{\prime}$; or else $\Phi_{i}^{f}(i) \uparrow$ for all $f \in[\widetilde{T}]$, and hence $i \notin f^{\prime}$. Moreover, an index for $\widetilde{T}$ can be obtained $\varnothing^{\prime}$-uniformly from $i$ and an index for $T$.

The utility of having the lowness module by itself is that we can intersperse it with others and obtain paths that, in addition to satisfying other properties, are low. However, we must be careful that those other modules are also uniform in $\varnothing^{\prime}$ : mixing the lowness module together with, for example, one requiring a $\varnothing^{\prime \prime}$ oracle will produce a path $f$ satisfying only $f^{\prime} \leq_{T} \varnothing^{\prime \prime}$.
4.3 Examples of modules What follows are several examples of forcing modules and details about how they can be combined to generate ever more sophisticated basis theorems for $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes.
4.3.1 Cone Avoidance Modules Cone avoidance and Turing incomparability, like lowness, are measures of the complexity of a set. The modules we present next, and the basis theorems they yield, show that no nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class exists whose every member must compute or be computable from a given noncomputable set. We begin with the following module for obtaining upper cone avoidance. The subsequent theorem is obtained by a straightforward iteration.

Lemma 4.4 Let $C$ be a noncomputable set, $T$ an infinite computable tree, and $i \in \omega$. There exists an infinite computable subtree $\widetilde{T} \subseteq T$ such that $C \neq \Phi_{i}^{f}$ for any $f \in[\widetilde{T}]$. An index for $\widetilde{T}$ can be found $\left(\varnothing^{\prime} \oplus C\right)$-effectively from $i$ and an index for $T$.

Proof For each $n \in \omega$, define

$$
U_{n}=\left\{\sigma \in T: \Phi_{i}^{\sigma}(n) \uparrow \vee \Phi_{i}^{\sigma}(n) \downarrow \neq C(n)\right\}
$$

noting that each of these is a computable tree whose index as such can be found $C$ effectively from $i$ and an index for $T$. We claim that some $U_{n}$ must be infinite. If not, then for each $n$ we could find a level $m$ and value $k$ such that $\Phi_{i}^{\sigma}(n) \downarrow=k$ for all $\sigma$ of length $m$, whence it would have to be that $C(n)=k$, so $C$ would be computable. We $\varnothing^{\prime}$-computably search for the least $n$ such that $U_{n}$ is infinite, and let $\widetilde{T}=U_{n}$. Clearly, $\Phi_{i}^{f} C$ for all $f \in \widetilde{T}$, as desired.

Theorem 4.5 (Upper Cone Avoidance Basis Theorem) Let $C$ be a noncomputable set. Every nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member that does not compute $C$.

Since every set computes every computable set, to get an analogous result for lower cone avoidance we must obviously insist that the $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes we deal with be special. The next module and subsequent theorem show that this is the only restriction needed.

Lemma 4.6 Let $C$ be any set, $T$ an infinite computable tree with no computable paths, and $i \in \omega$. There exists an infinite computable subtree $\widetilde{T} \subseteq T$ such that $f \neq \Phi_{i}^{C}$ for any $f \in[\widetilde{T}]$. Moreover, an index for $\widetilde{T}$ can be found $C^{\prime}$-effectively from $i$ and an index for $T$.

Proof Since $T$ has no computable paths, it must contain at least two incompatible extendible nodes. Call the least such nodes $\sigma$ and $\tau$, and say $n<\min \{|\sigma|, \mid \tau\}$ is least such that $\sigma(n) \neq \tau(n)$. Ask $C^{\prime}$ whether $\Phi_{i}^{C}(n)$ converges. If so, then one of the two strings, say $\sigma$, must disagree with $\Phi_{i}^{C}$ on $n$, and we let $\widetilde{T}$ consist of all nodes in $T$
compatible with $\sigma$. In this case, $f(n)=\sigma(n)$ for all $f \in[\widetilde{T}]$, so clearly $\Phi_{i}^{C} \neq f$ for all such $f$. Otherwise, we let $\widetilde{T}=T$, and in this case the result follows trivially.

Theorem 4.7 (Lower Cone Avoidance Basis Theorem) Let C be any set. Every special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member that is not computable by $C$.

We now combine both the preceding modules, as well as the lowness module, into a single basis theorem. This is a standard "weaving argument," where we alternate (in this case, three) strategies depending on $e$ (in this case, depending as $e$ is congruent to 0,1 , or 2 modulo 3 ). For completeness, we include the details.

Theorem 4.8 (Incomparability Basis Theorem) Let $C_{0}, C_{1}, \ldots$ be a sequence of noncomputable sets, and let $D=\oplus_{j \in \omega} C_{j}^{\prime}$. Every special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member $f$ which is Turing incomparable with $C$ and satisfies $f^{\prime} \leq_{T} D$.
Proof Fix a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ and a computable tree $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ such that $\mathcal{C}=[T]$. We build a sequence of infinite computable trees $T=T_{0} \supseteq T_{1} \supseteq \ldots$ as follows. Let $T_{e}$ be given. If $e=3 i$ for some $i$, apply the lowness module, Lemma 4.3, with $T_{e}$ in place of $T$, and let $T_{e+1}$ be the tree $\widetilde{T}$ obtained there. If $e=3\langle i, j\rangle+1$ for some $i, j$, apply Lemma 4.4 with $T_{e}$ in place of $T$ and $C_{j}$ in place of $C$, and let $T_{e+1}$ be the tree $\widetilde{T}$ obtained there. And if $e=3\langle i, j\rangle+2$, apply Lemma 4.6 in a similar fashion. Since $\varnothing^{\prime} \leq_{T} D$ and $C_{j}^{\prime} \leq_{T} D$ for all $j$, in either case, $D$ suffices to find an index for $T_{e+1}$ from an index for $T_{e}$. The proof is concluded by taking $f \in \bigcap_{e \in \omega}\left[T_{e}\right]$. The stages congruent to 0 modulo 3 ensure that $f^{\prime} \leq_{T} D$, the stages congruent to 1 modulo 3 that $C \not Z_{T} f$, and those congruent to 2 modulo 3 that $f \not \not_{T} C$.

The following now easily follow.
Corollary 4.9 Let $L_{0}, L_{1}, \ldots$ be noncomputable low sets such that a lowness index for $L_{i}$ can be found $\varnothing^{\prime}$-effectively from $i$. Every special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member that is low and Turing incomparable with each $L_{i}$.

Corollary 4.10 (Jockusch and Soare, 1972b) Every special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has countably many low members that are mutually incomparable.
4.3.2 Minimal pair module Recall that a pair of degrees a and $\mathbf{b}$ is said to form a minimal pair if $\mathbf{a} \cap \mathbf{b}=0$. (We do not, as some authors do, insist that $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ must also be nonzero.) The following module prepares for proving the Minimal Pair Basis Theorem.

Lemma 4.11 Let $C$ be any set, $T$ an infinite computable tree, and $i, j \in \omega$. There exists an infinite computable subtree $\widetilde{T} \subseteq T$ such that if $\Phi_{i}^{f}=\Phi_{j}^{C}=A$ for some $f \in[\widetilde{T}]$ and some set $A$, then $A$ is computable. Moreover, an index for $\widetilde{T}$ can be found ( $\varnothing^{\prime \prime} \oplus C^{\prime}$ )-effectively from $i, j$, and an index for $T$.

Proof We begin by asking whether there exist extendible nodes $\sigma, \tau \in T$ and an $x \in \omega$ such that $\Phi_{i}^{\sigma}(x) \downarrow \neq \Phi_{i}^{\tau}(x) \downarrow$. This can be done using a $\varnothing^{\prime \prime}$ oracle, since the question of whether a given node of a computable tree is extendible is $\Pi_{1}^{0}$. If not, then whenever $\Phi_{i}^{f}$ is total for some $f \in[T]$ it must be computable, since to figure out the value of $\Phi_{i}^{f}(x)$ we have only to find some $\sigma \in T$, such as a sufficiently
long initial segment of $f$, with $\Phi_{i}^{\sigma}(x) \downarrow$. In this case, then, we can let $\widetilde{T}=T$. So suppose some such $\sigma$ and $\tau$ exist, and fix the least such. Next, use $C^{\prime}$ to determine whether $\Phi_{j}^{C}(x)$ converges and is $\{0,1\}$-valued. If not, then the conclusion of the lemma holds trivially, and so we can again just let $\widetilde{T}=T$. Otherwise, one of the two computations, say $\Phi_{i}^{\sigma}(x)$, must differ from $\Phi_{j}^{C}(x)$, and we let $\widetilde{T}$ consist of all nodes of $T$ compatible with $\sigma$. In this case, $\Phi_{i}^{f} \neq \Phi_{j}^{C}$ for any $f \in[\widetilde{T}]$.

Iterating in the standard way yields the following.
Theorem 4.12 (Minimal Pair Basis Theorem) Let C be any set. Every $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member $f$ such that $\operatorname{deg}(f)$ and $\operatorname{deg}(C)$ form a minimal pair.

Proof Fix a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ and a computable tree $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ such that $\mathcal{C}=[T]$. We build a sequence of infinite computable trees $T=T_{0} \supseteq T_{1} \supseteq \ldots$ as follows. Let $T_{e}$ be given, and suppose $e=\langle i, j\rangle$ for some $i, j \in \omega$. Apply the preceding lemma to the tree $T_{e}$, and let $T_{e+1}$ be the tree $\widetilde{T}$ obtained there. Then take $f \in \bigcap_{e \in \omega}\left[T_{e}\right]$. The definition of $T_{e+1}$ from $T_{e}$ ensures that $\Phi_{i}^{f}$ and $\Phi_{j}^{C}$ are only the characteristic function of a set if that set is computable. Hence, $\operatorname{deg}(f)$ and $\operatorname{deg}(C)$ form a minimal pair, as desired.

By interspersing an additional module into the preceding construction, namely, the low $_{2}$-ness module used to control the double jump of $f$ in the proof of the Computably Bounded Basis Theorem 3.13, we obtain the following stronger theorem. Note that that module can be carried out using a $\varnothing^{\prime \prime}$ oracle.

Theorem 4.13 Let $C$ be any set. Every $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member $f$ such that $f^{\prime \prime} \leq_{T} \varnothing^{\prime \prime} \oplus C^{\prime}$ and $\operatorname{deg}(f)$ and $\operatorname{deg}(C)$ form a minimal pair.

The following corollaries are then immediate. The first of these was used by Dzhafarov and Jockusch [2009] to show that every computable coloring of pairs has a pair of infinite homogeneous sets whose degrees form a minimal pair.

Corollary 4.14 Let $C$ be any set with $C^{\prime} \leq_{T} \quad \varnothing^{\prime \prime}$. Every $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a low ${ }_{2}$ member $f$ such that $\operatorname{deg}(f)$ and $\operatorname{deg}(C)$ form a minimal pair.

Corollary 4.15 Every $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a pair of low ${ }_{2}$ members whose degrees form a minimal pair.

Of course, we cannot expect the Minimal Pair Basis Theorem to hold in general with a low $f$, or even a low $n f$ for any $n$, since we could always choose the noncomputable set $C$ to be $\varnothing^{n}$ and thereby get $f \leq_{T} C$. But more is true: we cannot get a low $f$ even when $C$ is itself low. In Section 6 , we will see the existence of a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class all of whose members have diagonally noncomputable (DNC) degree. If we let $C$ be any low member of this $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class, then by a theorem of Kučera [1986], no $\Delta_{2}^{0}$ (let alone low) member of this class can have degree forming a minimal pair with $\operatorname{deg}(C)$. (Note that this also shows that Corollary 4.15 cannot be improved from a minimal pair of $\mathrm{low}_{2}$ members to a minimal pair of low ones.)

We should point out another well-known connection between minimal pairs and $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes. This is not a basis theorem, and is not proved by the methods discussed in this section, but it provides an interesting connection to Corollary 4.15.

Theorem 4.16 (Jockusch and Soare (1971)) There exist nonempty special $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$ and $\mathfrak{C}_{1}$ such that for all $f \in\left[\mathcal{C}_{0}\right]$ and $g \in\left[\mathcal{C}_{1}\right], \operatorname{deg}(f)$ and $\operatorname{deg}(g)$ form a minimal pair.

The proof, which we omit, is based on that of the classical result, due independently to Lachlan and Yates, that there exists a minimal pair of c.e. degrees.

## 5 Computably Dominated Sets and Degrees

5.1 Computably bounded functions and trees We can extend the notions of $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class and tree by replacing Cantor space $2^{\omega}$ by Baire space $\omega^{\omega}$ and the tree $2^{<\omega}$ by $\omega^{<\omega}$. Theorem 2.4 on effectively closed classes ( $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes) still holds but the effective compactness Theorem 2.9 fails. However, we can still obtain the former results if we restrict to functions and $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes which are computably bounded. (The definition of a function $g(x)$ being computably bounded was given in Definition 3.12 above.)

## Definition 5.1

(i) A tree $T \subseteq \omega^{<\omega}$ is computably bounded (c.b.) if there is a computable function $h$ such that $(\forall g \in[T])(\forall x)[g(x) \leq h(x)]$.
(ii) A $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$ is computably bounded (c.b.) if there is a computably bounded computable tree $T \subseteq \omega^{<\omega}$ such that $\mathcal{C}=[T]$.
Obviously, all $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ subclasses of $2^{\omega}$ are computably bounded, their members being bounded by the constant function $h(x)=1$. But in fact, these $h(x)=1$ bounded classes suffice for the purposes of studying the computable content of members of computably bounded $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes in general, as the following proposition shows. The next propositions are easy exercises.

Proposition 5.2 If $T \subseteq \omega^{<\omega}$ is a computably bounded, computable tree then there is a computable tree $S \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ and a computable map $h: T \rightarrow S$ such that $h$ induces a homeomorphism $\widehat{h}:[T] \rightarrow[S]$ which preserves Turing degree.
Proposition 5.3 If $T \subseteq \omega^{<\omega}$ is computable and finite branching (but not necessarily computably bounded) then it is bounded by a function $h \leq_{\mathrm{T}} 0^{\prime}$.

Therefore, all results about c.b. computable trees hold for finite branching computable trees if the assertions are relativized to $0^{\prime}$.
5.2 Post's hyperimmune sets Post's Problem [1944] was the famous problem of finding an incomplete but noncomputable c.e. set $W$. To accomplish this, he defined various notions of thinness on the complement $\bar{W}$. These are described in detail in Soare [CTA] and [1987]. We now describe them only very briefly.

Post called an infinite set $A$ hyperimmune ( $h$-immune) if there is no strong array $\left\{D_{f(x)}\right\}_{x \in \omega}$ of disjoint finite sets such that $D_{f(x)} \cap A \neq \varnothing$ for all $x$. (A strong array is an array $\left\{D_{f(x)}\right\}_{x \in \omega}$ where $f$ is a computable function and $D_{n}$ is the set of positions of ones in the binary representation of $n$.) This definition in terms of strong arrays was then related to computably bounding properties.

Theorem 5.4 (Kuznecov, Medvedev, Uspenskii) An infinite set $A$ is hyperimmune if and only if its principal function $p_{A}$ (of Definition 3.12) is not bounded by any computable function.

Proof See Soare [1987, Theorem V.2.3].
Many authors, and we too in the paper, will take Theorem 5.4 as a definition of hyperimmune (h-immune). A coinfinite c.e. set $W$ is hypersimple ( $h$-simple) if $\bar{W}$ is h-immune.

Corollary 5.5 A coinfinite c.e. set $B$ is $h$-simple if and only if $\bar{B}$ is not bounded by any computable function.

Dekker [1954] connected bounding functions to the computation time of c.e. sets. He proved that for every noncomputable c.e. set $B$ there is a hypersimple set $A$ such that $A \leq_{\mathrm{tt}} B \leq_{\mathrm{T}} A$. Let $f$ be any one-one computable function with range $B$. Dekker defined the deficiency set to be

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\{s:(\exists t>s)[f(t)<f(s)]\} . \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

The rest of the proof is given in Soare [1987, Theorem V.2.5]. The key point is that if a computable function $h$ bounds $\bar{A}$ then $A$ is computable.

Corollary 5.6 For every noncomputable c.e. set $B$ there is an $h$-simple set $A \equiv_{\mathrm{T}} B$. Hence, every nonzero c.e. degree contains an h-simple set.
5.3 Hyperimmune Degrees The previous work by Post, Dekker, and Martin and Miller [1968] extended these definitions from a single set to an entire degree by defining a degree to be hyperimmune if it contains a hyperimmune set.

Definition 5.7 (Miller and Martin, 1968)
(i) A degree $\mathbf{d}$ is hyperimmune (h-immune) if it contains a hyperimmune set.
(ii) If degree $\mathbf{d}$ contains no hyperimmune set it is called hyperimmune-free (hifree) (since it is free of hyperimmune sets). It is also called computably dominated according to Definition 3.12 because by Theorem 5.4 every set $B \in \mathbf{d}$ is dominated by a computable function. The second term conveys more intuition about the meaning.

Corollary 5.6 shows that every nonzero c.e. degree is h-immune. The next few results will demonstrate that every nonzero degree comparable with $\mathbf{0}^{\prime}$ is h -immune, showing that the computably dominated degrees are scarce. However, by Theorem 3.13 at least one nonzero computably dominated degree exists.
5.4 Two downward closure properties of domination Recall Definition 3.12(vi) on computably dominated functions and sets. The key point is that for a function $f$ or set $A$ to be computably bounded simply requires a single bounding function, while being computably dominated imposes computable bounding on every function $g$ in the same degree, a very strong condition. Remarkably, it turns out not to matter whether we insist on having this condition for all $g \leq_{\mathrm{T}} f$ or merely for all $g \equiv_{\mathrm{T}} f$.

Theorem 5.8 (Miller and Martin, 1968) Suppose $A$ is computably dominated.
(i) If $B \leq_{\mathrm{T}} A$, then $B$ is computably dominated.
(ii) If $g \leq_{\mathrm{T}} A$, then $g$ is computably dominated.

Proof (i) Let $B=\Phi_{e}^{A}$. Define $g(x)$ as follows. Let $g(0)=0$. For every $x \in \omega$ define $g(2 x+1)=g(2 x)+p_{B}(x)+1$ and $g(2 x+2)=g(2 x+1)+p_{A}(x)+1$. Now $g$ is strictly increasing and therefore is the principal function of some set $C \equiv_{\mathrm{T}} A$.

Therefore, some computable function $h$ dominates $g=p_{C}$. But then $h(2 x+1)$ dominates $p_{B}(x)$.
(ii) Let $f=\Phi_{e}^{A}$. Define $g(0)=0$. For every $x \in \omega$ define $g(x+1)=g(x)+f(x)+1$. Now $g$ is strictly increasing and therefore is the principal function of some set $C \equiv_{\mathrm{T}} f$. Therefore, some computable function $h$ dominates $g=p_{C}$. But then $h(x+1)$ dominates $f(x)$.

Corollary 5.9 The hyperimmune degrees are closed upward and the computably dominated degrees are closed downward.

Proof By Theorem 5.8.
Theorem 5.10 A set A is computably dominated if and only if for every total function $f$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f \leq_{\mathrm{T}} A \quad \Longrightarrow \quad f \leq_{\mathrm{tt}} A \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof $(\Longrightarrow)$ Suppose that $A$ is computably dominated and $f=\Phi_{e}^{A}$. Define $g(x)=(\mu s) \Phi_{e, s}^{A}(x)$ converges. Now $g \leq_{\mathrm{T}} A$. Therefore, by Theorem 5.8, there exists some computable function $h$ which bounds $g$. Define a Turing functional $\Psi^{X}(x)$ which, on any input $x$ and oracle $X$, runs $\Phi^{X}$ on input $x$ for $h(x)$ many steps, and outputs $\Phi_{e}^{X}(x)$ if the latter converges and 0 otherwise. Then $\Psi^{X}$ is total for every $X$ and $\Psi^{A}=\Phi_{e}^{A}$.
( $\Longleftarrow)\left(\right.$ Jockusch [1969]) Assume (17). Let $f \leq_{\mathrm{T}} A$. Then $f \leq_{\mathrm{tt}} A$. It suffices to prove that $f$ is computably dominated. Fix a total reduction $\Phi_{e}$ such that $f=\Phi_{e}^{A}$. Define a computable function $h$ as follows. Given $x$, we search for a level $n$ such that $\Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(x) \downarrow$ for all $\sigma$ of length $n$. Such a level must necessarily exist, as otherwise $\left\{\sigma: \Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(x) \uparrow\right\}$ would be an infinite tree and $\Phi_{e}^{g}(x)$ would not converge for any path $g$ through it. Let $h(x)=\max \left\{\Phi_{e}^{\sigma}(x):|\sigma|=n\right\}$. Clearly, $h$ dominates $f$.
$5.5 \Delta_{2}^{0}$ degrees are hyperimmune Every nonzero c.e. degree is hyperimmune because it contains a hypersimple set. We now prove that nonzero degrees $\mathbf{d}<\mathbf{0}^{\prime}$ are also hyperimmune. We also explore the $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ and other degrees with respect to computable domination.
Definition 5.11 Let $A$ be a $\Delta_{2}^{0}$ set and let $\left\{A_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ be a computable sequence such that $A=\lim _{s} A_{s}$. The computation function is

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{A}(x)=(\mu s>x)\left[A_{s} \Uparrow x=A \Uparrow x\right] \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A \Uparrow x$ denotes the restriction of $A$ to elements $y \leq x$.
Theorem 5.12 Let A be $\Delta_{2}^{0}$ and $\left\{A_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ a $\Delta_{2}^{0}$ approximation to $A$ with computation function $c_{A}(x)$.
(i) $c_{A} \equiv_{\mathrm{T}} A$.
(ii) If $g(x)$ dominates $c_{A}(x)$ then $A \leq_{\mathrm{T}} g$. Therefore, $A$ is computable if and only if a computable function $g$ dominates $c_{A}(x)$.

Proof (i) $A \leq \leq_{\mathrm{T}} c_{A}$ because $A(x)=A_{s}(x)$ for $s=c_{A}(x)$. Also $c_{A}(x) \leq_{\mathrm{T}} A$ because we generate $A_{s}(x)$ until the first $s$ with $A \Uparrow x=A_{s} \Uparrow x$.
(ii) If $A$ is computable then $c_{A}$ is computable by (i). Conversely, assume $c_{A}(x)<g(x)$ for all $x$. Define

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=(\mu z>x)(\forall t)_{z \leq t \leq g(z)}\left[A_{t} \Uparrow x=A_{z} \Uparrow x\right] . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the definition of $c_{A}(x)$ and the fact that $c_{A}(x)<g(x)$ we know that for all $z \geq x$ the interval $[z, g(z)]$ (called a $z$-frame) must contain at least one stage $t$ which is $z$ true in the sense that $A_{t} \Uparrow z=A \Uparrow z$. Since $z>x$, it must also be $x$-true. Therefore, $A(x)=A_{y}(x)$, because all values for $x$ in the $y$-frame agree by (19) and one must be $x$-true.

Corollary 5.13 (Miller and Martin, 1968) If $\varnothing<_{\mathrm{T}} A \leq_{\mathrm{T}} \varnothing^{\prime}$ then $\operatorname{deg}(A)$ is hyperimтиие.

Proof Let $\varnothing<_{\mathrm{T}} A \leq_{\mathrm{T}} \varnothing^{\prime}$. Hence, $A \in \Delta_{2}^{0}$. By Theorem 5.12, no computable function can dominate $c_{A} \equiv_{\mathrm{T}} A$. Therefore, by Theorem 5.8, $A$ cannot have computably dominated degree.

Corollary 5.14 If a degree $\mathbf{d}$ is comparable with $\mathbf{0}^{\prime}$ then $\mathbf{d}$ is hyperimmune (not computably dominated).

Proof By Corollary 5.13, all degrees $\mathbf{d} \leq \mathbf{0}^{\prime}$ are hyperimmune. By the upward closure of hyperimmune degrees in Theorem 5.8, all degrees $\mathbf{d}>\mathbf{0}^{\prime}$ are also hyperimmune.

The next result generalizes Corollary 5.13 and shows that most degrees obtained by iterating the jump are hyperimmune.

Corollary 5.15 (Miller and Martin, 1968) If $B<_{\mathrm{T}} A \leq_{\mathrm{T}} B^{\prime}$ then $\operatorname{deg}(A)$ is hyperimmune.

Proof The set $A$ is $\Delta_{2}^{0, B}$ and there is a $B$-computable sequence $\left\{A_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ such that $A=\lim _{s} A_{s}$ by Definition 5.11 relativized to $B$. Define the computation function $c_{A}$ as there. If any computable (or even $B$-computable) function $h$ dominates $c_{A}$ then $A \leq_{\mathrm{T}} B$, contrary to hypothesis.

Theorem 5.16 If $A$ is computably dominated, then $A^{\prime \prime} \leq_{T} A^{\prime} \oplus \varnothing^{\prime \prime}$. (In particular, since $A^{\prime} \oplus \varnothing^{\prime \prime} \leq_{T}\left(A \oplus \varnothing^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}, A$ is $\mathrm{GL}_{2}$.)

Note that it is easy to prove the weaker fact that $A$ is $\mathrm{GL}_{2}$. Indeed, by Martin's High Domination Theorem, there exists $f \leq_{T} \quad \varnothing^{\prime}$ which dominates every computable function. Since $A$ is computably dominated, every $A$-computable function is dominated by a computable function, and hence by $f$. Thus, by Martin's High Domination Theorem relative to $A, A \oplus \varnothing^{\prime}$ is high relative to $A$, meaning $A^{\prime \prime} \leq_{T}\left(A \oplus \varnothing^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$.

Proof We prove that $\operatorname{Tot}^{A} \leq_{T} A^{\prime} \oplus \varnothing^{\prime \prime}$. Given $e \in \omega$, we can computably find an index $e_{0}$ of the partial $A$-computable function

$$
g(x)=(\mu s)\left[\Phi_{e, s}^{A}(x) \downarrow\right]
$$

noting that this function has the same domain as $\Phi_{e}^{A}$ and so, in particular, is total if and only if $\Phi_{e}^{A}$ is. We then search for the least $\langle i, n\rangle$ such that $i \in$ Tot and either

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\exists x<n)(\forall s)\left[\Phi_{e_{0}, s}^{A}(x) \uparrow\right] \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\forall x \geq n)(\forall s)\left[\Phi_{e_{0}, s}^{A}(x) \downarrow \Longrightarrow \Phi_{e_{0}, s}^{A}(x) \leq \varphi_{i}(x)\right] \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

which we can do using an oracle for $A^{\prime} \oplus \varnothing^{\prime \prime}$. Furthermore, the search necessarily terminates. Indeed, if $\Phi_{e_{0}}^{A}$ is not total, then (20) holds for any $n$ such that $\Phi_{e_{0}}^{A}(x) \uparrow$ for some $x<n$. And if $\Phi_{e_{0}}^{A}$ is total then it is dominated by some computable function $\varphi_{i}$ by virtue of $A$ being computably dominated, and so (21) holds for all sufficiently large $n$. By choice of $e_{0}$ and $\langle i, n\rangle$, we have that $\Phi_{e}^{A}$ is total if and only if

$$
(\forall x<n)\left[\Phi_{e}^{A}(x) \downarrow\right] \quad \& \quad(\forall x \geq n)\left(\exists s \leq \varphi_{i}(x)\right)\left[\Phi_{e, s}^{A}(x) \downarrow\right],
$$

which can be determined using $A^{\prime}$. This completes the proof.
5.6 Degrees of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{2}}^{\mathbf{0}}$ sets $\quad$ There are other classes of sets below $\mathbf{0}^{\prime \prime}$ such as the $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ sets. We now show that these include additional sets of hyperimmune degree.

## Definition 5.17

(i) A computable sequence $\left\{A_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ is a $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ approximation to a $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ set $A$ if

$$
\begin{equation*}
x \in A \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad\left(\forall^{\infty} s\right)\left[x \in A_{s}\right] . \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

(ii) For such a $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ sequence define the $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ estimation function

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{A}(x)=(\mu s \geq x)(\forall z \leq x)\left[z \in \bar{A} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad(\exists t)_{x \leq t \leq s}\left[z \notin A_{t}\right]\right] . \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

(This estimation function plays the same role as the computation function played for $\Delta_{2}^{0}$ sets.)

Theorem 5.18 Let A be a $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ set and let $\left\{A_{s}\right\}_{s \in \omega}$ be a $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ approximation to $A$ with $E_{A}(x)$ the $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ estimation function. If a computable function dominates $E_{A}(x)$ then $A$ is computably enumerable.

Proof Let $A$ be $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$. Now assume that $(\forall x)\left[g(x) \geq E_{A}(x)\right]$. From (22) and (23) we know,

$$
\begin{align*}
&(\forall x)[x \in \bar{A} \Longrightarrow  \tag{24}\\
&\left.(\forall x)[x \in A>x)(\exists t)_{y \leq t \leq g(y)}\left[x \notin A_{t}\right]\right],  \tag{25}\\
&(\forall\left.\Longleftrightarrow(\exists y>x)(\forall t)_{y \leq t \leq g(y)}\left[x \in A_{t}\right]\right] .
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore, $A$ is $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ in $g$. If $g$ is computable, then $A$ is $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ and hence c.e.
Corollary 5.19 If $A$ is $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ and noncomputable then $\operatorname{deg}(A)$ is hyperimmune.
The results here that various degrees cannot be computably dominated are based on the fact that in the $\Delta_{2}^{0}$ and $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ cases, we have an approximation to $A$ and the fact that a computable function dominating the computation function shows that $A$ is computable or c.e. In contrast, the Computably Bounded Basis Theorem 3.13 produces a computably bounded set $A \leq \mathrm{T} \varnothing^{\prime \prime}$ (in fact, uncountably many). Hence, $A$ is $\Delta_{3}^{0}$ but it cannot be $\Sigma_{2}^{0}$ or comparable with $\varnothing^{\prime}$. Therefore, we can find computably dominated degrees but they are not abundant.

## 6 Peano Arithmetic and $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ Classes

6.1 Logical background One of the earliest purposes of computability theory was the study of logical systems and theories. We consider theories in a computable language: one which is countable, and the function, relation, and constant symbols and their arities are effectively given. We also assume that languages come equipped with an effective coding for formulas and sentences in the language, that is, a Gödel numbering, and identify sets of formulas with the corresponding set of Gödel numbers. We can then speak of the Turing degree of a theory in a computable language. Here we will examine the language $\mathcal{L}=\{+, \cdot,<, 0,1\}$ of arithmetic, and theories extending PA, the theory of Peano arithmetic.

Definition 6.1 Let $\mathscr{D}_{\text {PA }}$ be the set of (Turing) degrees of complete consistent extensions of Peano arithmetic; such degrees are called PA degrees.

The following is surely the best known theorem in mathematical logic.
Theorem 6.2 (Gödel, 1931; Rosser, 1936)
(i) The theory of Peano arithmetic is incomplete.
(ii) Furthermore, any consistent computably axiomatizable extension of PA is also incomplete. ${ }^{6}$

Corollary 6.3 $0 \notin \mathcal{D}_{P A}$.
Thus, there is no complete consistent extension of PA which is computable. However, there are many ways to extend PA to a complete theory, and there is a very nice way of describing them. We identify a completion of Peano Arithmetic with the set of Gödel numbers of its sentences.

## $6.2 \Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes and completions of theories

Theorem 6.4 There exists $a \Pi_{1}^{0}$ class whose members are precisely the completions of Peano Arithmetic. Thus $\mathscr{D}_{P A}$ is the degree spectrum of a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class.

Proof Fix a bijective Gödel numbering $G: \omega \rightarrow$ Sent $_{\mathcal{L}}$ for sentences of arithmetic. Given $\sigma \in 2^{<\omega}$, we identify $\sigma$ with the sentence

$$
\theta(\sigma)=\bigwedge_{\sigma(i)=1} G(i) \quad \& \bigwedge_{\sigma(j)=0} \neg G(j)
$$

We say that a sentence $\theta$ "appears to be consistent at stage $t$ " if there is no derivation of $\neg \theta$ from the first $t$ axioms of PA in fewer than $t$ lines. Since there are finitely many such derivations, the relation $R(\sigma, t)=" \theta(\sigma)$ appears to be consistent at stage $t "$ is computable. Thus the class

$$
\mathcal{C}=\left\{f \in 2^{\omega}:(\forall n)(\forall t<n) R(f \upharpoonright t, n)\right\}
$$

is a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class. Some $f$ is an element of this class if and only if the corresponding set of sentences $G(\{n: f(n)=1\})$ is a complete consistent extension of PA.

Remark 6.5 This theorem follows from an analysis of Lindenbaum's lemma. Note that no special properties of PA were used, beyond the fact that it is a computably axiomatizable theory in a computable language. Thus the same theorem applies to all such theories.

We defined a PA degree as a degree of a completion of Peano Arithmetic. From this definition, it may be surprising that the class of degrees is closed upward. This is true, however, and to demonstrate it we will need an important fact arising from Gödel's incompleteness theorem: the proof actually constructs a "Gödel sentence" which is independent of the axioms.

Theorem 6.6 (Gödel's Incompleteness Theorem, effective version) From a description of a consistent, computably axiomatizable theory $T$ extending PA, we can effectively find a sentence, called the Gödel sentence of $T$, which is independent from $T$.
6.3 Equivalent properties of PA degrees The PA degrees arise naturally in a variety of contexts, especially those relating to trees and Weak König's Lemma. This is because the PA degrees are exactly those degrees which can carry out Weak König's Lemma by finding paths through trees. For this reason, there are several equivalent properties which all serve to define the PA degrees; we will highlight a few of these properties.

Definition 6.7 A function $f: \omega \rightarrow \omega$ is diagonally noncomputable (d.n.c.) if, for all $e$, if $\varphi_{e}(e) \downarrow$, then $f(e) \neq \varphi_{e}(e)$.
Definition 6.8 A function is $n$-valued if $f(e)<n$ for each $e \in \omega$.
The name "diagonally noncomputable" derives from the particular way that d.n.c. functions are noncomputable. We see that if $f$ is d.n.c., $f$ cannot be computable, because then $f$ would be $\varphi_{e}$ for some $e$, but $f$ and $\varphi_{e}$ differ on argument $e$; thus d.n.c. functions diagonalize against all (partial) computable functions. We will be primarily interested in 2 -valued d.n.c. functions.

Theorem 6.9 (Scott, 1962; Jockusch and Soare, 1972b; Solovay, unpublished) For a Turing degree d, the following are equivalent:
(i) $\mathbf{d}$ is the degree of a complete consistent extension of Peano arithmetic;
(ii) $\mathbf{d}$ computes a complete consistent extension of Peano arithmetic;
(iii) d computes a 2 -valued d.n.c. function;
(iv) every partial computable 2-valued function has a total d-computable extension;
(v) every nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class has a member of degree at most $\mathbf{d}$;
(vi) every computably inseparable pair has a separating set of degree at most $\mathbf{d}$.

Proof (i) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii) This implication is trivial.
(ii) $\Longrightarrow$ (iii) Let $\mathbf{d}$ compute a complete consistent extension $T$ of PA , and let $f$ be the (partial computable) diagonal function $f(e)=\varphi_{e}(e)$. By results of Gödel and Kleene, there is a formula $\psi$ representing $f$, in the sense that

$$
f(x) \downarrow=y \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad P A \vdash \psi(x, y),
$$

and

$$
f(x) \downarrow \neq y \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad P A \vdash \neg \psi(x, y)
$$

Since PA $\vdash \psi(x, y)$ implies that $\psi(x, y) \in T$, and $T$ is complete and $\mathbf{d}$-computable, the function

$$
\widehat{f}(e)= \begin{cases}1 & \psi(e, 0) \in T \\ 0 & \neg \psi(e, 0) \in T\end{cases}
$$

is a $\mathbf{d}$-computable 2 -valued d.n.c. function.
(iii) $\Longrightarrow$ (iv) Suppose $g$ is a 2 -valued d.n.c. function, and let $f$ be a partial computable 2 -valued function. There is a computable function $\widehat{f}$ such that $f(x)=\varphi_{\widehat{f}(x)}(\widehat{f}(x))$ for all $x$. Then $1-(g \circ \widehat{f})$ is a total d-computable 2-valued function extending $f$.
(iv) $\Longrightarrow$ (v) Let $\mathcal{P}$ be a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class and $T$ a computable tree with $\mathcal{P}=[T]$. Fix a computable bijection $h: \omega \rightarrow 2^{<\omega}$. Let $f$ be the function

$$
f(e)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
0 & \begin{array}{l}
h(e) \in T \text { and there is a level } l \text { such that } h(e) \wedge 0 \\
\text { has an extension of length } l \text { in } T, \text { but } h(e) \wedge \\
1
\end{array} \text { does not }
\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned}
& h(e) \in T \text { and there is a level } l \text { such that } h(e) \wedge 1 \\
& \text { has an extension of length } l \text { in } T, \text { but } h(e) \wedge 0 \text { does not. }
\end{aligned}
$$

This function $f$ is partial computable, since to compute $f(e)$ one simply searches for a level $l$ such that one case or the other holds. If $h(e) \in T$ is extendible, then either both $h(e) \uparrow 0$ and $h(e) \wedge 1$ are extendible, in which case $f(e) \uparrow$, or only one is, so $f(e) \downarrow$, and $h(e)^{\wedge} f(e)$ is extendible. Let $\widehat{f}$ be a 2 -valued $\mathbf{d}$-computable extension of $f$. Then using $\widehat{f}$, we can find an element of [ $T$ ] as follows: starting with any string $\sigma \in T^{\text {ext }}$, apply $\widehat{f} \circ h^{-1}$ to get either 0 or 1 , which we can append to $\sigma$ to get a longer string still in $T^{\text {ext }}$. Starting with the empty string, we can iterate this process to get an infinite $\mathbf{d}$-computable path through [ $T$ ], that is, an element of $\mathcal{P}$.
(v) $\Longrightarrow$ (vi) If $A, B$ is a computably inseparable pair, the class of separating sets is a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class by Theorem 3.4.
(vi) $\Longrightarrow$ (i) Fix some order of $\mathcal{L}$-sentences and some order for generating proofs. Let $A$ be the set of pairs $(F, \psi)$, where $F$ is a finite set of $\mathcal{L}$-sentences and $\psi$ is an $\mathcal{L}$-sentence such that a proof of a contradiction is found from PA $\cup F \cup\{\psi\}$ before (if ever) finding a proof of a contradiction from PA $\cup F \cup\{\neg \psi\}$. Similarly, let $B$ be the set of pairs $(F, \psi)$ such that a proof of contradiction is found from PA $\cup F \cup\{\neg \psi\}$ before (if ever) finding one from PA $\cup F \cup\{\psi\}$. Clearly, $A$ and $B$ are disjoint c.e. sets. Suppose the pair $A, B$ has a d-computable separating set $C$. Let $D \in \mathbf{d}$. We will construct a completion $T$ of PA, of degree $\mathbf{d}$, in stages, along with a bijective function $g: \omega \rightarrow \operatorname{Sent}_{\mathcal{L}}$, also defined in stages. At stage $n$ we will determine $g(n)$, and decide whether $g(n) \in T$. Define the set of sentences,

$$
F_{n}=(T \cap g[0 \ldots n-1]) \cup\{\neg \psi: \psi \in g[0 \ldots n-1] \backslash T\} .
$$

In other words, $F_{n}$ keeps track of every sentence we decided by the beginning of stage $n$. It contains those sentences we have declared to be in $T$, together with the negations of those sentences we have declared not to be in $T$. At stage $n$, do the following:

1. If $n$ is even, let $g(n)$ be the Gödel sentence of PA $\cup F_{n}$. If $n$ is odd, let $g(n)$ be the first $\mathcal{L}$-sentence not yet in the range of $g$.
2. If $n=2 s$ is even, consider whether $s$ is an element of $D$. If $s \in D$, then $g(n) \in T$; otherwise, $g(n) \notin T$.
3. If $n$ is odd, consider the pair $\left(F_{n}, g(n)\right)$. If this pair is in $C$, then $g(n) \notin T$; otherwise, $g(n) \in T$.

We will show that $T$ is a complete consistent extension of PA, of degree d. Assume (for the sake of induction) that $F_{n}$ is consistent with PA. (Since $F_{0}=\varnothing$, it is consistent with PA.) Note that $F_{n+1}$ is either $F_{n} \cup\{g(n)\}$ or else $F_{n} \cup\{\neg g(n)\}$. Since $F_{n}$ is consistent with PA, at least one of $F_{n} \cup\{g(n)\}$ and $F_{n} \cup\{\neg g(n)\}$ must be consistent with PA. Furthermore, if $n$ is even, both are consistent since $g(n)$ is the Gödel sentence for PA $\cup F_{n}$. If both are consistent with PA, then clearly $F_{n+1}$ is as well. Suppose instead only one of the two is consistent (so we know $n$ is odd). If only $F_{n} \cup\{g(n)\}$ is consistent with PA, then a proof of contradiction will be found from $\mathrm{PA} \cup F_{n} \cup\{\neg g(n)\}$ before finding one from $\mathrm{PA} \cup F_{n} \cup\{g(n)\}$, so $\left(F_{n}, g(n)\right) \in B$. Thus $\left(F_{n}, g(n)\right) \notin C$; by the construction, $g(n) \in T$, and $F_{n+1}$ is consistent with PA. Similarly, if only $F_{n} \wedge \neg g(n)$ is consistent with PA, then the construction goes the opposite way and again $F_{n+1}$ is consistent with PA. By induction, $F_{n}$ is consistent with PA for all $n$, so $T=\bigcup_{n} F_{n}$ is consistent with PA. Since $F_{n}$ decides $g(0) \ldots g(n-1)$, $T$ is complete. Therefore, $T$ is a complete consistent extension of PA.

In order to show that $T$ has degree $\mathbf{d}$, we first show that $g \leq_{T} T$. To see this, note that $g(n)$ is either the first $\mathcal{L}$-sentence which is not one of $g(0) \ldots g(n-1)$, if $n$ is odd, or else $g(n)$ is the Gödel sentence of PA $\cup F_{n}$, where $F_{n}$ is determined entirely by $T$ and the values $g(0) \ldots g(n-1)$. Thus $g(n)$ can be computed from $n$, $g(0) \ldots g(n-1)$, and $T$, so $g \leq_{T} T$. From the construction, we see that $s \in D$ if and only if $g(2 s) \in T$, so we have $D \leq_{T} g \oplus T \leq_{T} T$. However, the entire construction was $\mathbf{d}$-computable, so $T \in \mathbf{d}$.

## 7 Applications to Randomness

In this section, we explore some of the interactions between, on the one hand, $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes and computably dominated degrees, and, on the other hand, the study of algorithmic randomness and complexity
7.1 Martin-Löf randomness Let $\mu$ be Lebesgue measure on Cantor space, which we assume the reader to be familiar with. For completeness, we define the measure of an open class $U \subseteq 2^{\omega}$. Let $V \subset 2^{<\omega}$ be any set with $U=\llbracket V \rrbracket$ which is prefixfree (i.e., if $\sigma \in V$ and $\tau \prec \sigma$ then $\tau \notin V$ ). Such a $V$ can be seen to exist, for example, as follows. Since $U$ is open, its complement is a $\Pi_{\mathbf{1}}^{\mathbf{0}}$ class and hence is equal to $[T]$ for some (not necessarily computable) tree $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$. Then $V$ can be taken to consist of all elements of $\bar{T}$ whose predecessors all belong to $T$. Now the measure of $U$ is defined as

$$
\mu(U)=\sum_{\sigma \in V} 2^{-|\sigma|}
$$

Lebesgue measure on Cantor space has all the same properties we are familiar with from Lebesgue measure on the real line. In fact, another definition of Lebesgue measure on Cantor space is that the measure of a class $U \subseteq 2^{\omega}$ is the same as that of the subset $\{r(f): f \in U\}$ of the closed unit interval $[0,1]$, where $r(f)$ for $f \in 2^{\omega}$ is the real number with binary expansion $0 . f(0) f(1) f(2) \ldots$. Recall that a
sequence of c.e. sets $V_{0}, V_{1}, \ldots$ is uniformly c.e. (abbreviated u.c.e.) if there exists a computable function $f$ such that $V_{n}=W_{f(n)}$ for all $n$.

## Definition 7.1

(i) A sequence $S_{0}, S_{1}, \ldots$ of subclasses of $2^{\omega}$ is uniformly $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ if there exists a u.c.e. sequence $V_{0}, V_{1}, \ldots$ of subsets of $2^{<\omega}$ such that $S_{n}=\llbracket V_{n} \rrbracket$ for all $n$.
(ii) A Martin-Löf test is a uniformly $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ sequence $S_{0}, S_{1}, \ldots$ of subclasses of $2^{\omega}$ such that $\mu\left(S_{n}\right) \leq 2^{-n}$ for all $n$.
(iii) A set $X \in 2^{\omega}$ passes a Martin-Löf test $S_{0}, S_{1}, \ldots$ if $X \notin \bigcap_{n \in \omega} S_{n}$.
(iv) A set $X \in 2^{\omega}$ is Martin-Löf random or 1-random if it passes every MartinLöf test.
7.2 A $\Pi_{1}^{\mathbf{0}}$ class of $\mathbf{1}$-randoms A Martin-Löf test $U_{0}, U_{1}, \ldots$ is called universal if $\bigcap_{n \in \omega} U_{n} \supseteq \bigcap_{n \in \omega} S_{n}$ for every other Martin-Löf test $S_{0}, S_{1}, \ldots$. Thus, if $X$ passes a universal test, it must pass every test, and hence

$$
\bigcap_{n \in \omega} U_{n}=\left\{X \in 2^{\omega}: X \text { is not 1-random }\right\} .
$$

The following proposition, whose proof we omit, is thus useful when trying to show that a given set is not 1-random.

Proposition 7.2 There exists a universal Martin-Löf test.
Notice that this implies that the class of 1-randoms has measure 1. Indeed, each member of a universal Martin-Löf test $U_{0}, U_{1}, \ldots$ is an open set covering $\left\{X \in 2^{\omega}: X\right.$ is not 1-random $\}$, implying that

$$
\mu\left(\left\{X \in 2^{\omega}: X \text { is not 1-random }\right\}\right) \leq \mu\left(U_{n}\right) \leq 2^{-n}
$$

for all $n$. Essentially the same argument, in reverse, yields the following.
Corollary 7.3 There is a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class all of whose elements are 1-random.
Proof Let $U_{0}, U_{1}, \ldots$ be a universal Martin-Löf test. For every $n>0, U_{n}$ is a proper $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ subclass of $2^{\omega}$, implying that $\overline{U_{n}}$ is a nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class. By definition of a universal Martin-Löf test,

$$
\bar{U}_{n} \subseteq \bigcup_{n \in \omega} \overline{U_{n}}=\overline{\bigcap_{n \in \omega} U_{n}}=\left\{X \in 2^{\omega}: X \text { is 1-random }\right\}
$$

as desired.
Thus we can easily obtain the existence of low 1-random sets, of hyperimmune-free 1 -random sets, and so on.

We mention briefly that Corollary 7.3 does not hold if 1-randomness is replaced by $n$-randomness for $n>1$ (a set being $n$-random if it is 1 -random relative to $\varnothing^{(n-1)}$ ). That is, for $n>1$, there is no nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class all of whose members are $n$-random. ${ }^{8}$ One (easy to see) reason for this is that no $n$-random set for $n>1$ can be $\Delta_{2}^{0}$, or even contain an infinite $\Delta_{2}^{0}$ subset.
$7.3 \Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes and measure Given the measure-theoretic definition of 1 randomness, it is natural to ask about the measure of $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes containing 1randoms. The following theorem gives a full answer to this question.

Theorem 7.4 Let $\mathbb{C}$ be a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class.
(i) If $\mu(\mathbb{C})=0$, then $\mathcal{C}$ contains no 1 -random sets.
(ii) If $\mu(\mathcal{C})>0$, then every 1 -random set computes a member of $\mathcal{C}$.

Proof (i) Suppose $\mathcal{C}$ has measure 0 . Let $T \subseteq 2^{<\omega}$ be a tree such that $\mathcal{C}=[T]$, and for each $n \in \omega$, let $S_{n}=\llbracket\{\sigma \in T:|\sigma|=n\} \rrbracket$. Then $S_{0}, S_{1}, \ldots$ is a nested sequence of open classes whose intersection is the measure 0 class $\mathcal{C}$, so it must be that $\mu\left(S_{n}\right) \rightarrow 0$. As the sequence $\left(S_{n}\right)$ is given by a strong array of finite sets of strings, the map $n \mapsto \mu\left(S_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{Q}$ is computable, so we can find a computable function $p$ such that $\mu\left(S_{p(n)}\right) \leq 2^{-n}$ for all $n$. Now since $S_{0}, S_{1}, \ldots$ is uniformly $\Sigma_{1}^{0}, S_{p(0)}, S_{p(1)}, \ldots$ is a Martin-Löf test. But for all $f \in \mathcal{C}, f \in \bigcap_{n \in \omega} S_{p(n)}$, so $f$ is not 1-random.
(ii) Suppose $\mathcal{C}$ has positive measure and let $X$ be a 1 -random set. Let $V_{0}$ be a prefix-free c.e. subset of $2^{<\omega}$ such that $\overline{\mathcal{C}}=\llbracket V_{0} \rrbracket$. For each $n \in \omega$, let $V_{n+1}=\llbracket\left\{\sigma^{\wedge} \tau: \sigma \in V_{n} \quad \& \quad \tau \in V_{0}\right\}$, and let $S_{n}=\llbracket V_{n} \rrbracket$. Notice that for all $n, V_{n}$ is prefix-free since $V_{0}$ is, so we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mu\left(S_{n+1}\right) & =\sum_{\sigma \in V_{n+1}} 2^{-|\sigma|} \\
& =\sum_{\sigma \in V_{n}} \sum_{\tau \in V_{0}} 2^{-|\sigma \tau|} \\
& =\sum_{\sigma \in V_{n}} 2^{-|\sigma|} \sum_{\tau \in V_{0}} 2^{-|\tau|} \\
& =\mu\left(S_{n}\right) \mu\left(S_{0}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that $\mu\left(S_{n}\right)=\mu\left(S_{0}\right)^{n+1}=\mu(\overline{\mathcal{C}})^{n+1}$, and hence that $\mu\left(S_{n}\right) \rightarrow 0$ since $\mu(\overline{\mathcal{C}})=1-\mu(\mathbb{C})<1$. Since $S_{0}, S_{1}, \ldots$ is uniformly $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$, and the measures $\mu\left(S_{n}\right)$ converge to zero faster than the (computable) function $p(n)=q^{n}$, where $q>\mu\left(S_{0}\right)$ is rational, there is some subsequence of the sequence $\left(S_{n}\right)$ which is a Martin-Löf test. Since $X$ is 1-random, it is not in the intersection of this test, so $X \notin S_{n}$ for some least $n$. If $n=0$, then $X \notin \overline{\mathcal{C}}$ and hence $X \in \mathcal{C}$. If $n>0$, since $X \in S_{n-1}$, we can choose $\sigma \in V_{n-1}$ such that $\sigma \prec X$. Since no $\tau \in V_{0}$ can satisfy $\sigma^{\wedge} \tau \prec X$, it follows that $Y=\{x-|\sigma|: x \in X \quad \& \quad x \geq|\sigma|\} \notin S_{0}$ as $X=\sigma^{\wedge} Y$. Thus, $Y \in \mathcal{C}$, which, since $Y \equiv{ }_{T} X$, completes the proof.

We saw in Section 6 that the PA degrees are precisely those which, for every nonempty $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class, bound the degree of a member of that class. Part (ii) of the preceding theorem can be seen as saying that the degrees of 1-random sets are precisely the analogs of PA degrees with respect to $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes of positive measure. This is a surprising fact because, in most other settings, the PA degrees and degrees of 1-random sets behave very differently. The following result, whose proof is not difficult but would nonetheless take us too far astray, is an example of this phenomenon.

Theorem 7.5 If a set $X$ is both 1-random and of PA degree, then $X \geq_{T} \varnothing^{\prime}$.
7.4 Randomness and computable domination We conclude by looking at applications of some of the ideas from Section 5 to two other notions studied in the area of algorithmic randomness. We begin with the following.

Definition 7.6 A set $X$ is $c . e$. traceable if there is a computable function $p$ such that, for each $f \leq_{T} X$, there is a computable function $h$ with $\left|W_{h(n)}\right| \leq p(n)$ and $f(n) \in W_{h(n)}$ for all $n$. If this holds with $D_{h(n)}$ in place of $W_{h(n)}$, then $X$ is called computably traceable.

Clearly, every computably traceable set is c.e. traceable, and it can be shown, though we do not do so here, that this implication is strict (see Downey and Hirschfeldt [2010]). On the other hand, the following theorem shows that the implication reverse if we restrict to sets of computably dominated degree.

Theorem 7.7 (Kjos-Hanssen, Nies, and Stephan, 2005) If $X$ is a set of computably dominated degree, then $X$ is c.e. traceable if and only if it is computably traceable.

Proof Let $X$ be a c.e. traceable set of computably dominated degree, and let $p$ be as in Definition 7.8(ii). Given $f \leq_{T} X$, let $h_{0}$ be a computable function with $\left|W_{h_{0}(n)}\right| \leq p(n)$ and $f(n) \in W_{h_{0}(n)}$ for all $n$. Define a function $g$ by

$$
g(n)=(\mu s)\left[f(n) \in W_{h_{0}(n), s}\right]
$$

so that $g$ is total and $X$-computable. By Theorem 5.8(ii), there exists a computable function $h_{1}$ with $h_{1}(n) \geq g(n)$ for all $n$. Then if we define $h$ by letting $h(n)$ be the canonical index of the finite set $W_{h_{0}(n), h_{1}(n)}$, we have

$$
\left|D_{h(n)}\right|=\left|W_{h_{0}(n), h_{1}(n)}\right| \leq\left|W_{h_{0}(n)}\right| \leq p(n)
$$

and $f(n) \in W_{h_{0}(n), h_{1}(n)}=D_{h(n)}$. Hence, $X$ is computably traceable.
We obtain a similar result by looking at the following notion of randomness due to Kurtz. In view of Theorem 7.4(i), it is implied by 1 -randomness, and, as above, it can be shown that this implication is strict.

Definition 7.8 A set $X$ is Kurtz random or weakly 1-random if it is contained in every $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ class of measure 1 .

Theorem 7.9 (Nies, Stephan, and Terwijn, 2005) If $X$ is a set of computably dominated degree, then $X$ is 1 -random if and only if it is weakly 1 -random.

Proof Let $X$ be a set of computably dominated degree which is not 1-random. Let $S_{0}, S_{1}, \ldots$ be a Martin-Löf test which $X$ does not pass, and let $f$ be a computable function such that $S_{n}=\llbracket W_{f(n)} \rrbracket$ for all $n$. Define a function $g$ by

$$
g(n)=(\mu s)(\exists \sigma \prec X)\left[\sigma \in W_{f(e), s}\right],
$$

noting that since $X \in \llbracket W_{f(n)} \rrbracket$ for all $n, g$ is total and $X$-computable. By Theorem 5.8(ii), there exists a computable function $h$ with $h(n) \geq g(n)$ for all $n$. Then if we let

$$
\mathcal{C}=\bigcap_{n \in \omega} \llbracket W_{f(n), h(n)} \rrbracket,
$$

we have that $\mathcal{C}$ is a $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ class with $X \in \mathcal{C}$ and

$$
\mu(\mathbb{C}) \leq \mu\left(\llbracket W_{f(n), h(n)} \rrbracket\right) \leq \mu\left(S_{n}\right)=2^{-n}
$$

for all $n$. Hence, $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$ is a $\Sigma_{1}^{0}$ class of measure 1 not containing $X$, so $X$ is not weakly 1 -random.

In fact, it follows by a result of Kurtz (unpublished; see Downey and Hirschfeldt [2010]) that every hyperimmune degree contains a set which is weakly 1 random but not 1-random (or even Schnorr random, which is a much weaker notion of randomness). Thus, the degrees separating these randomness notions are precisely the hyperimmune degrees.

## Notes

1. It is easy to show that if $\mathcal{A}=\llbracket A \rrbracket$ with $A$ c.e., then $\mathcal{A}=\llbracket B \rrbracket$ for some computable set $B \subseteq \omega$. The notation $\llbracket \sigma \rrbracket$ for a basic open set is now becoming standard and has also been adopted in the book by Downey and Hirschfeldt [2010].
2. See Soare [CTA] Theorem 4.1.3(vi) on quantifier manipulation.
3. Some authors (e.g., Cenzer [1999]) use the term antibasis as a synonym for nonbasis. Our use here follows that of Kent and Lewis [2009].
4. Jockusch and Soare never stated the Superlow Basis Theorem because the notion of superlow did not exist in 1972. Several people later noticed that the original proof of the Low Basis Theorem can easily be converted to a proof of the Superlow Basis Theorem. The limit computable proof presented here does more since it gives the conclusion at once. The two proofs of the LBT and SLBT illustrate the tradeoff between the two approaches to proofs concerning $\Pi_{1}^{0}$ classes, an oracle proof, versus a computable approximation.
5. After the term "hyperimmune-free" degree was introduced by Miller and Martin [1968] it was often used in the literature, even though it conveys little intuition about the meaning. Recently, Soare introduced the term "computably dominated" which better suggests the meaning, and used it in his new book Soare [CTA]. He suggested this to Nies who adopted it in his book, Computability and Randomness [2009]. We use this term here.
6. There are weaker hypotheses which suffice for the incompleteness theorem, but this version of the theorem is all that is needed here.
7. Scott[1962] proved the equivalence of conditions (i) and (v). Jockusch and Soare[1972b] proved the equivalence of conditions (ii) and (vi); the equivalence with (iii) and (iv) is also implicit in their work. Jockusch and Soare left the equivalence of (i) and (ii) as an open question, which was answered by Solovay (unpublished).
8. This should not be confused with saying that Corollary 7.3 does not relativize, which it does: for each $n>1$, there is a $\Pi_{1}^{0,0^{n-1}}$ class all of whose members are $n$-random.

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