Van Lambalgen’s theorem fails for some computable measure

Bruno Bauwens∗†

December 22, 2015

Abstract

Van Lambalgen’s theorem states that a pair (α, β) of bit sequences is Martin-Löf random if and only if α is Martin-Löf random and β is Martin-Löf random relative to α. In [Information and Computation 209.2 (2011): 183-197, Theorem 3.3], Hayato Takahashi generalized van Lambalgen’s theorem for computable measures P on a product of two Cantor spaces; he showed that the equivalence holds for each β for which the conditional probability P(·|β) is computable. He asked whether this computability condition is necessary. We give a positive answer by providing a computable measure for which van Lambalgen’s theorem fails. We also present a simple construction of a computable measure for which conditional measure is not computable. Such measures were first constructed by N. Ackerman, C. Freer and D. Roy in [Proceedings of the 26th Annual IEEE Symposium on Logic in Computer Science (LICS), pp. 107-116. IEEE (2011)].

Michiel van Lambalgen characterized Martin-Löf randomness of a pair of bit sequences:

Theorem 1 (van Lambalgen [6]). The following are equivalent for a pair (α, β) of sequences:

• (α, β) is Martin-Löf random,
• α is Martin-Löf random and β is Martin-Löf random relative to α.

One can replace uniform (Lebesgue) measure in the definition of Martin-Löf randomness by any other computable measure P. We call sequences that are random in this sense P-random. There exist two definitions of Martin-Löf randomness for a pair of sequences. The first states that (α, β) is random if the join α₁β₁α₂β₂... is random. The second definition uses the two dimensional variant of a Martin-Löf test, which is given by a family of uniformly effectively open sets Uₙ ⊆ 2² × 2² such that the uniform measure of Uₙ is at most 2⁻ₙ. Both approaches are equivalent.

To generalize van Lambalgen’s theorem for computable measures P, the first approach seems not suitable. Why join two sequences in this specific way? What does it mean? Also, the most direct approach of replacing Martin-Löf randomness with P-randomness will make the theorem wrong for trivial reasons: There exist a computable P and a pair of sequences (α, β) such that α₁β₁α₂β₂... is P-random, while α is not P-random. Indeed, let P be the measure that concentrates all its mass on the single point 010101..., i.e., P(010101...) = 1 and P(S) = 0 if 0101... ∉ S. The sequence 0101... is P-random, but 00... is not random.

To use the two-dimensional approach, we need to decompose the bivariate measure P into two univariate measures. It is natural to use the marginal and the conditional measure for P. In fact, such decompositions are omnipresent in probability theory, and it

∗National Research University Higher School of Economics (HSE), Faculty of Computer Science, Kochnovskiy Proezd 3, Moscow, 125319 Russia.
†This research was supported both by Ghent University and Higher School of Economics. Also, the author benefited from participating in the program on Algorithmic Randomness at the Institute for Mathematical Sciences of National University of Singapore, June 2014. Part of the work reported here was carried out during the visit supported by the Institute.
nicely fits the statement of van Lambalgen’s theorem, which uses in the second criterion a conditionally and an unconditionally random sequence.

We now define conditional measure. Let $2^N$ denote Cantor space. For any string $x$, let $[x]$ be the (basic open) set containing all extensions of $x$. We say that a measure $P$ on $2^N$ is computable if the function that maps each string $x$ to $P([x])$ is computable. Similar for measures $P$ on $2^N \times 2^N$. Following Takahashi [10], we define for each measure $P$ on $2^N \times 2^N$ and each measurable set $S \subseteq 2^N$:

$$P_C(S|\beta) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{P(S \times [\beta_1 \ldots \beta_n])}{P(2^N \times [\beta_1 \ldots \beta_n])}.$$  

Let the marginal distribution be $P_M(S) = P(2^N \times S)$.

Remark: The definition of a conditional measure is usually given using the Radon-Nikodym theorem. In fact, this theorem defines a set of conditional measures, and each pair of such measures coincides on a set $\beta$ of $P_M$-measure one. Using the Lebesgue differentiation theorem it can be shown that these conditional measures also coincide with $P_C(\cdot|\beta)$ for $P_M$-almost all $\beta$. We refer to the appendix for more details.

This specific conditional measure is especially suitable to generalize van Lambalgen’s theorem: if $\beta$ is $P_M$-random, then $P_C(\cdot|\beta)$ is defined and is a measure [10, Theorem 4.1] (see also [8, Lemma 10]). In [1, Theorem 29, p14] it is shown that for computable $P$, the measure $P_C$ might not be computable. The measure that satisfies the conditions of our main result satisfies a similar property:

**Corollary 2** (of the proof of Theorem 4). There exists a computable measure $P$ on $2^N \times 2^N$ such that the set of $\beta$ for which $P_C(\cdot|\beta)$ is not computable relative to $\beta$, has nonzero $P_M$-measure.

The corollary is proven after Theorem 4. Similar examples of such measures were invented by Jason Rute [7]. In the example from [1], definitions of computability of functions and measures from computable analysis are used. They can be used on general spaces but are rather difficult to formulate. Functions that are not computable in this sense include all functions with a discontinuity. Therefore, the example in [1] is made in such a way that $P_C(S|\beta)$ is continuous in $\beta$ for all measurable sets $S$. We present a simple variant of the construction of such a measure in Theorem 6 below. The proof of this theorem does not rely on other parts of this note.

Hayato Takahashi generalized van Lambalgen’s theorem as follows:

**Theorem 3** (Takahashi [11, 12]). For any computable bivariate measure $P$ and any $\beta$ such that $P_C(\cdot|\beta)$ is computable relatively to $\beta$, the following are equivalent:

- $(\alpha, \beta)$ is $P$-Martin-Löf random,
- $\beta$ is $P_M$-random and $\alpha$ is $P_C(\cdot|\beta)$-random relative to $\beta$.

For an alternative exposition of the proof and for related results, I refer to the upcoming article [9]. One might ask whether the theorem only holds for $\beta$ for which $P_C(\cdot|\beta)$ is computable relative to $\beta$? In this note we show that we can not drop this assumption, hence, van Lambalgen’s theorem fails for some computable measure. To formulate the result, we need a definition of randomness relative to a non-computable measure. There exist two types of Martin-Löf tests [5]:

- A uniform $P$-Martin-Löf test is a $P$-Martin-Löf test that is effectively open relative to each oracle that computes $P$.

- A Hippocratic or blind $P$-Martin-Löf test is a Martin-Löf test that is effectively open without any oracle.

If $P$ is computable, then both types of tests define the same set of random sequences. Otherwise, the second type of tests defines a weaker notion of randomness, which we will use below. We call a sequence blind $P$-random if no blind Martin-Löf test succeeds on it. Our main result is:
Theorem 4. There exists a bivariate computable measure \( P \) on \( 2^\mathbb{N} \times 2^\mathbb{N} \) for which \( P_{C(\cdot \mid \beta)} \) exists for all \( \beta \); moreover, there exists a pair of sequences \((\alpha, \beta)\) such that the pair is \( P\text{-Martin-L"of random and } \alpha \) is not blind \( P_{C(\cdot \mid \beta)}\text{-Martin-L"of random (even without oracle } \beta) \).

Definitions Let \( \mu \) be the uniform measure, thus, \( \mu([x]) = 2^{-|x|} \) for any string \( x \). We also use \( \mu \) for the product of two uniform measures over \( 2^\mathbb{N} \times 2^\mathbb{N} \). Real numbers in \([0, 1]\) that are not binary rational, are interpreted as elements of \( 2^\mathbb{N} \). For binary rational numbers \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \), we associate \([\alpha, \beta]\) with the corresponding basic open set in Cantor space (thus only containing the binary representation of \( \alpha \) with a tail of zeros, and a tail of ones for \( \beta \)).

Proof. Let \( \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \) be an increasing computable sequence of binary rational numbers that converges to a Martin-Löf random real \( \alpha \). Such a real exists (and can be Turing complete, see e.g. [3, Theorem 4.3]). To construct the bivariate measure \( P \), modify the uniform measure on \( 2^\mathbb{N} \times 2^\mathbb{N} \) as illustrated in figure 1 left: concentrate all measure in the intervals \([0, \alpha_1] \times \{0\}\) and \([\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times \{0\}\) uniformly in its left-most horizontal position, i.e., in \([0, \alpha_1] \times 000 \ldots \); concentrate the measure in the intervals \([\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times \{0\}\) and \([\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times \{1\}\) uniformly in their leftmost positions, i.e., in \([\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times 000 \ldots \) and \([\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times 1000 \ldots \); and so on.4

Before presenting the formal definition, let us illustrate the construction of \( P \). Consider an interval \( I \subseteq [0, \alpha_1] \). We have \( P(I \times [x]) = 0 \) if \( x \) contains at least one 1, and \( P(I \times [x]) = \mu(I) \) otherwise, see figure 1 right. For \( I \subseteq [\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \) we have \( P(I \times [0x]) = P(I \times [1x]) = 0 \) if \( x \) contains at least one 1 and \( \mu(I)/2 \) otherwise.

We define the measure more formally for every basic open set \( I \times [y] \subseteq 2^\omega \times 2^\omega \). We consider several cases:

- If \( I \subseteq [\alpha, 1] \), then \( P(I \times [y]) = \mu(I \times [y]) \).
- If \( I \subseteq [\alpha, n+1] \) and \( |y| \geq n \), then let \( y = wx \) where \( w \) represents the first \( n \) bits of \( y \). If:
  - \( x \) contains at least one 1, then \( P(I \times [wx]) = 0 \),
  - otherwise, i.e. if \( x \) is empty or contains only zeros, \( P(I \times [wx]) = \mu(I \times [w]) \).
- Otherwise, we partition the basic open set in (countably many) other basic open sets that satisfy one of the conditions above. The measure is the sum of the measures of all sets in the partition.

4The construction has some similarities with the measure constructed in the proof of Proposition 6.3 in [2]; the measure has also singularities that approach a left computable real. However, I believe there is no deeper correspondence between this measure and the measure constructed here.
In this case we have \( \beta \) such contains finitely many ones, \( P \) see figure 1 right. Note that for any string \( x \) in a set \( U \) effectively open. Hence, the first condition is satisfied. Finally, observe that \( \beta \) which each satisfies one of the cases in the definition of \( P \) measure and the measure in the part below can be partitioned into finitely many pieces which each satisfies one of the cases in the definition of \( P \).

We now determine the conditional measure at a horizontal coordinate \( \beta \). Unless \( \beta \) contains finitely many ones, \( P_C(\beta) \) is the uniform measure with support \( [\alpha,1] \). For such \( \beta \), the point \( \alpha \) is not blind \( P_C(\beta) \)-random: the open sets \( U_n = [0, \alpha + 2^{-n}] \) contain \( \alpha \) for all \( n \), uniformly effectively open and have \( P(\beta) \)-measure \( O(2^{-n}) \). If \( \beta \) contains finitely many 1’s, the conditional measure is piecewise constant and nonzero on infinitely many intervals below \( \alpha \). Hence, \( P_C(\beta) \) is defined for all \( \beta \).

We choose \( \beta \), such that \((\alpha, \beta)\) is Martin-Löf random relative to the uniform measure. By the original version of van Lambalgen’s theorem, it suffices to choose \( \beta \) to be random relative to \( \alpha \). Clearly, \( \beta \) contains infinitely many ones and as argued in the previous paragraph, \( \alpha \) is not \( P_C(\beta) \)-random.

It remains to show that the pair \((\alpha, \beta)\) is also \( P \)-random. Let \((U_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\) be a Martin-Löf test relative to \( P \). It suffices to convert this test to a Martin-Löf test \((V_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\) relative to the uniform measure such that \( U_n \) and \( V_n \) have the same intersection with the horizontal line at height \( \alpha \). More precisely, it suffices for each \( V_n \) to be uniformly effectively open such that:

- \( U_n \cap ([\alpha] \times 2^n) = V_n \cap ([\alpha] \times 2^n) \),
- \( \mu(V_n) \leq P(U_n) \).

(Indeed, this implies that if \((\alpha, \beta)\) was not \( P \)-random, then it is also not random relative to the uniform measure and this would contradict the construction.) Construction of \( V_n \):

Each time an interval \([r, s] \times [x]\) is enumerated in a set \( U_n \), enumerate its upper part starting from \( \alpha_{[x]} \) in \( V_n \), i.e., \([\max\{r, \alpha_{[x]}\}, s] \times [x]\) if \( s > \alpha_{[x]} \) and nothing otherwise, see figure 2. Note that \( U_n \) and \( V_n \) have the same intersection with the line at enumerated intervals are only modified below \( \alpha_{[x]} \). The sets \( V_n \) are uniformly effectively open. Hence, the first condition is satisfied. Finally, observe that \( \mu(V_n) \leq P(U_n) \); for each enumerated interval \([r, s] \times [x]\), nothing is changed unless \( r < \alpha_{[x]} \), and in this case we have \( \mu([\alpha_{[x]}], s] \times [x]) = P([\alpha_{[x]}], s] \times [x]) \leq P([r, s] \times [x]) \). Because \( V_n \) and \( U_n \) are the union of corresponding rectangles, the second condition is also satisfied.

\( \square \)
In the proof of Corollary 2, we use the following observation:

**Lemma 5** (De Leeuw, Moore, Shannon and Shapiro [4]). Let $Q$ be a computable measure on $2^N$ and let $\alpha \in 2^N$. If there exists a set of positive $Q$-measure of sequences that compute $\alpha$, then $\alpha$ is computable.

**Proof.** Because there exists countably many machines, there exists a unique machine that computes $\alpha$ from a set of sequences with positive $Q$-measure. Let $c > 0$ be a lower bound for this $Q$-measure. We can enumerate a binary tree containing all strings $x$ that can be computed on this machine from a set of oracles that has $Q$-measure at least $c$. This tree contains at most $1/c$ infinite branches and each such branch is computable. □

of Corollary 2. Let $\alpha$ and $P$ be as constructed above. $P_M$ is computable. The binary rational sequences have $P_M$-measure $\alpha < 1$, because $P$ concentrates all measure below $\alpha$ on the binary rational sequences and above $\alpha$, these sequences have measure zero. For each $\beta$ that is not binary rational, the measure $P_C(\cdot|\beta)$ equals the uniform measure with support $[\alpha, 1]$. Let $R$ be this measure. The function $x \mapsto R([x])$ computes $\alpha$, hence $R$ is not computable. Lemma 5 implies that the set of $\beta$ that computes $R$ has $P_M$-measure zero. Hence, at most a $P_M$-measure zero of sequences $\beta$ that are not binary rational, compute $P_C(\cdot|\beta)$. The other non-rational sequences have measure $1 - \alpha > 0$ and satisfy the conditions of the corollary. □

Unfortunately, for any $[x]$ below $\alpha$, the function $P_C([x]|\cdot)$ is nowhere continuous. It is only continuous in the set of points that are not binary rational, and the set of binary rational points is not negligible (it has $P_M$-measure $\alpha$). Therefore, we present another example of such a measure for which the conditional measure is continuous, even for all $\beta$.

**Theorem 6.** There exists a computable measure $P$ on $\mathbb{N} \times 2^\mathbb{N}$ such that:

- for each $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, the function $P_C(S|\cdot)$ is defined and continuous on $2^\mathbb{N}$,
- the set of $\beta$ for which $P_C(\cdot|\beta)$ is not computable relative to $\beta$, has $P_M$-measure one.

**Proof.** Let $A$ be a computably enumerable set that is not computable (for example the Halting problem). Fix an algorithm that enumerates the elements of $A$, and for each $n \in A$ let $t_n$ be the time at which this algorithm enumerates $n$. The idea of the construction of $P$ is the same as in [1]: if $n \notin A$, then the measure $P([n] \times \cdot)$ is uniformly distributed over $2^\mathbb{N}$. Otherwise, the measure is non-uniform, but only at a very small scale, i.e., for $|x| \leq t_n$, the values of $P([n] \times \cdot)$ do not depend on whether $x \in A$ or not, and only for $|x| > t_n$ the values are different. In this way, we guarantee that $P$ is computable: if $|x| > t_n$, a program that computes $P([n] \times [x])$ on input $(n, x)$ can discover whether $n \in A$ and compute the different value. Because the conditional measure is defined in the limit, $P_C(\cdot|\beta)$ depends on this small scale structure, and therefore, the conditional measure can encode non-computable information.

To define $P$, we use the functions $f_0$ and $f_1$ which are defined graphically in the figure below. Note that the average of $f_i$ over $2^\mathbb{N}$ is 1 for $i = 0, 1$. For $\beta \in 2^\mathbb{N}$, let $\beta_t$ be the $t$th bit of $\beta$. Note that

$$\beta \mapsto f_t(\beta_{t+1}\beta_{t+2} \ldots)$$

is the function obtained by repeating $f_t$ with period $2^{-t}$. These functions are all continuous and have average 1.

Let us first define $P$ using the following density, see figure 3:

$$f(n, \beta) = \begin{cases} 2^{-n}f_0(\beta_{t_n+1}\beta_{t_n+2} \ldots) & \text{if } n \in A \\ 2^{-n} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Thus, $P([n] \times [x]) = \int_{[x]} f(n, \beta) d\beta$.

Let $P(n|\beta)$ be short for $P_C([n]|\beta)$. Is this function continuous in $\beta$? The marginal density $f_M = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{N}} f(i, \cdot)$ is continuous, because it is a uniformly convergent sum of
continuous functions. Also, \( f_M \) is bounded from below by a positive constant (if \( m \not\in A \), then \( f_M \geq 2^{-m} \)). Hence, the conditional measure is continuous on singleton sets:

\[
P(n|\beta) = \frac{f(n, \beta)}{\sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} f(i, \beta)}.
\]

For \( S \subseteq \mathbb{N} \), \( P(S|\beta) \) is a uniformly convergent sum of continuous functions, and hence also continuous.

By Lemma 5, it remains to show for each \( \beta \) that \( P(\cdot|\beta) \) computes \( A \), i.e., \( A \) is computed by a machine that has oracle access to approximations of \( P(n|\beta) \) of any precision). For each fixed \( \beta \), the values of \( P(n|\beta) \) for all \( n \not\in A \) are the same. Unfortunately, there can be many \( n \in A \) for which \( P(n|\beta) \) is close to this value. Hence, \( A \) might not be computable from \( P(\cdot|\beta) \).

We adapt the construction of \( P \) by encoding membership of \( n \) in \( A \) using two values of the conditional measure: \( P(2n|\beta) \) and \( P(2n+1|\beta) \). Note that for each \( \beta \in 2^\mathbb{N} \) at least one of the values \( f_0(\beta) \), \( f_1(\beta) \) is either 0 or 2. Hence, for \( b \in \{0, 1\} \), we define \( P \) using

\[
f(2n + b, \beta) = \begin{cases} 2^{-2n-b} f_0(\beta_{n+1} \beta_{n+2} \ldots) & \text{if } n \in A, \\ 2^{-2n-b} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
\]

For the same reasons as before, \( P(n|\cdot) \) is continuous. If \( n \in A \) and \( m \not\in A \), at least one of the values \( P(2n|\beta) \), \( P(2n + 1|\beta) \) is zero or \( 2P(2m|\beta) > 0 \). Hence, \( P(\cdot|\beta) \) computes \( A \).

\[\square\]

**Appendix: Two definitions of conditional measure coincide**

In probability theory, conditional measures are defined implicitly using the Radon-Nikodym theorem. Any measure that satisfies the conditions of this theorem can be used as a conditional measure. The following lemma states that such measures are almost everywhere equal to the conditional measure \( P_C \) defined above.

**Lemma 7** (Folklore). Let \( 2^* \) be the set of strings. For every measure \( P \) on \( 2^\mathbb{N} \times 2^\mathbb{N} \) and for every function \( f : 2^* \times 2^\mathbb{N} \) such that

\[
P([x], [y]) = \int_{[y]} f(x, \beta) P_M(d\beta).
\]

we have that \( f(\cdot, \beta) = P_C([\cdot]|\beta) \) for all \( \beta \) in a set of measure one.

In the proof we use the Lebesgue differentiation theorem for Cantor space. The proof of this version follows the original proof for Real numbers.
Theorem 8 (Lebesgue differentiation theorem for Cantor space). Let $Q$ be a measure on $2^\mathbb{N}$. For every $Q$-integrable function $g : 2^\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we have that
\[
\lim_{n} \frac{\int_{[\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n]} g(\gamma)Q(d\gamma)}{Q([\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n])} = g(\beta)
\]
for $Q$-almost all $\beta$.

of Lemma 7. For a fixed $x$, apply the Lebesgue differentiation theorem with $g(\cdot) = f(x, \cdot)$ and $Q = P_M$. By assumption on $f$, the nominator simplifies to $P([x], [\beta_1 \ldots \beta_n])$. It follows that $f(x, \beta)$ differs from $P_C([x], \beta)$ in at most a set of $\beta$ with $P_M$-measure zero. Because there are countably many strings $x$, it follows that $f(\cdot, \beta)$ and $P_C(\cdot, \beta)$ differ in at most a set of $P_M$-measure zero.

Acknowledgements

Hayato Takahashi and I visited Alexander (Sasha) Shen at Université de Montpellier 2 in France in November 2012 (both visits where supported by the project NAFIT ANR-08-EMER-008-01). I am very grateful for the intense discussion on the proof of Theorem 3 and for raising the question answered in this note. Understanding this proof was important to prove the main result here. Several simplifications of the proof here were given also by Alexander Shen.

Finally, I would like to thank the reviewer for quick feedback and useful comments.

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