

Measure on P Revisited

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Abstract

We revisit the problem of generalising Lutz's resource bounded measure (\mathcal{RBM}) to small complexity classes. We propose a definition of a perfect \mathcal{RBM} on P, and give sufficient and necessary conditions for such a measure to exist. We also revisit μ_{τ} , an \mathcal{RBM} for P defined in [Str97], and correct an erroneous claim concerning the relations between μ_{τ} and random sets. The interest of generalising Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} to small complexity classes, such as P, is that the theory of \mathcal{RBM} has proven itself a useful tool in understanding the structure of big complexity classes such as E or EXP, and that small complexity classes are perhaps those of higher interest. Generalising \mathcal{RBM} to small complexity classes has been studied in [May94b] for PSPACE, and in [AS94], [AS95] and [Str97] for P. We merely revisit the measure on P defined in [Str97], and besides correcting an erroneous claim concerning the relations between this \mathcal{RBM} and random sets, construct a better \mathcal{RBM} , which we argue as being a perfect generalisation of Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} to P, but which we can only prove to exist under the hypothesis of the existence of random sets.

1 Introduction

Resource bounded measure (RBM) was introduced by Lutz in [Lut92]. Roughly speaking, RBM introduces a notion of big and small sets in complexity classes. It has since been used successfully to illuminate the structure of complexity classes, notably E and EXP. The theory of RBM is a parametrised tool, which permits to obtain an RBM for many complexity classes: one just adapts the parameters in order to obtain an RBM at the desired scale. One of the major limitations of RBM is that, for technical reasons, there seem to be no obvious ways of generalising it to so-called small complexity classes, such as P, or even PSPACE, which do not (or are not known to) contain E. Various attempts to remedy this flaw can be found in the literature, all of which make some compromise with what would be an intuitively perfect generalisation of Lutz's RBM to small complexity classes. In [May94b], an RBM is defined on PSPACE, using a concept of on line Turing machines. This definition yields a notion of RBM in PSPACE, which is interesting but sadly fails to extend to P. Further attempts to construct RBMs for P can be found in the series of papers [AS94], [AS95] and [Str97]. These constructions give rise to consistent notions of measure for P, and also extend upwards to PSPACE. They are interesting from the theoretical point of view, and also permit certain results concerning the structure of small complexity classes: in [AS94] it is shown that almost every set in SUBEXP is hard for BPP, and that this cannot be improved without showing that BPP is a proper subset of E. In [CSS97], it is shown that the Lutz hypothesis, stating that NP has a non-null measure in E, and under which many conditional results are obtained (c.f. [May94a], [AS94], [LM94], [JL95a], [LM96], [Lut96] or, for a survey of the previous results, [Lut97a]), does not hold when translated to P. Nevertheless, these constructions all make compromises with the ideal generalisation of Lutz's RBM to small complexity classes, which consists of extending Lutz's RBM to small complexity classes by modifying only the parameters (which for example, permit to obtain an RBM on E or EXP). It is interesting to note that such an ideal generalisation of Lutz's RBM to small complexity classes is not proven to be impossible: it just happens that when plugging into the theory the parameters that would give an RBM for P (or PSPACE), the proofs of the consistency of the mathematical object thus defined cannot be obtained through simple downwards translation of the proofs in "big" complexity classes. Therefore the compromises conceded in order to obtain RBMs in small complexity classes are unsatisfactory from a theoretical point of view, since it

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is unknown whether simply extending Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} to small complexity classes by adapting the parameters is impossible. Also, from a more practical point of view, these flaws are an obstacle to downward translation of results obtained in big complexity classes. For example, some results on almost and weak completeness, such as those from [Lut95], [ASMZ96], [ASTZ97], [AS00], [Jue95], [JL95b], [ASMRT00], could perhaps be adapted to small complexity classes if the ideal generalisation of Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} were indeed a consistent \mathcal{RBM} , but it seems much more difficult to adapt these results with only a weaker notion of measure for small complexity classes. Our contribution to the mending of these flaws in the theory of \mathcal{RBM} on small complexity classes is to define what a perfect generalisation on P of Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} is and, most importantly, to give two sufficient conditions for such a measure to exist, one of theme, namely the existence of random sets, being also a necessary condition.

2 Preliminaries

The goal of this section is to define the concepts of a measuring system (MS) and a resource bounded measure (RBM). These concepts are used to obtain the results of this article. Although not as general as RBMs, MSs have the advantage of allowing the definition of what a *perfect* generalisation of Lutz's RBM should be. Intuitively, RBMs and MSs are the following: an RBM on a fixed class of languages C separates the subsets of C into small sets: those of null measure, and large sets: those of measure one. An MS is a structure that induces an RBM, whereas the converse is not true. Thus there are "more" RBMs than MSs. Exact definitions follow.

Definition 2.1. Let $C \subseteq \{0,1\}^{\infty}$. An RBM on C is a partial function $\mu : \mathcal{P}(C) \dashrightarrow \{0,1\}$, where $\mathcal{P}(C)$ is the power set of C, and such that ¹

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M1 Points are of null measure: \forall L \in \mathcal{C} \ \mu(L) = 0
M2 The whole space is of measure one: \mu(\mathcal{C}) = 1
M3 A "suitable" union of null measure sets is a null measure set too.
M4 A \subseteq B and \mu(B) = 0 \Rightarrow \mu(A) = 0
M5 \mu(A) = 0 iff \mu(\overline{A}^{\mathcal{C}}) = 1, where \overline{A}^{\mathcal{C}} = \mathcal{C} \setminus A
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One could argue that any reasonable definition of an \mathcal{RBM} should imply that some intuitively small sets such as sparse languages, or "slices", ² are of null measure. However this is intentionally not included in the general definition of an \mathcal{RBM} . The intuition behind this choice is the following: it is noticeable that different attempts to define \mathcal{RBM} s in P or PSPACE have produced different notions of small sets. Typically, sentences of the following form can be found in the literature: "[...]our notion of \mathcal{RBM} captures such intuitively small sets, which could not be done with previous \mathcal{RBM} s, but fails to capture such other intuitively small sets, whereas some previous \mathcal{RBM} s could[...]". As an alternative solution to obtain "reasonable" \mathcal{RBM} s, we propose, in definition 2.5, the introduction of a partial ordering relation is better on \mathcal{RBM} s. A good \mathcal{RBM} will then be one that is better than many other \mathcal{RBM} s.

Definition 2.2. Let $C \subseteq \{0,1\}^{\infty}$. A measuring system (MS) R for C is $\{R_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$, a family of subsets of C such that

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}\hline A1 & R_i \supseteq R_j & for & j \ge i \\ A2 & \cap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} R_i = \emptyset \\ A3 & \forall i \in \mathbb{N} & R_i \ne \emptyset \\ \end{array}$$

The RBM associated to R is the following a partial function $\mu_R: \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{C}) \dashrightarrow \{0,1\}$ such that $\mu_R(A) = 0$ if $\exists k$ such that $A \subseteq \overline{R_k}^{\mathcal{C}}$, and $\mu_R(A) = 1$ if $\exists k$ such that $R_k \subseteq A$.

¹ The meaning of *suitable* in point 3 is informal, but it should definitely include finite unions.

² The term "slice" is used informally. For example, the k-th slice of P could be defined as DTIME (n^k) .

Definition 2.3. If a family R satisfies A1 only, it is called a pre-measuring system (pre-MS).

In the definition above, the terminology suggests a first relation between MSs and $\mathcal{RBM}s$, since an \mathcal{RBM} μ_R is defined from any given MS R, although at this point it remains to be shown that the function associated to an MS is an \mathcal{RBM} in the sense of definition 2.1. The latter fact is the object of lemma 2.4, but before proving this it needs to be shown that the function associated to an MS is a well defined partial function.

Claim. The above partial function μ_R is well defined.

The above claim is easy, and can be shown to hold in this way. Suppose on the contrary, that for some fixed class \mathcal{C} and for some fixed \mathfrak{MS} R on \mathcal{C} there exists a set $A \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ such that " $\mu_R(A) = 1$ and $\mu_R(A) = 0$ ", i.e. μ_R is not well defined. Therefore there exist two integers k and k' such that $R_k \subseteq A$ and $A \subseteq \overline{R_{k'}}^{\mathcal{C}}$. Suppose that $k \leq k'$. Thus using A1, it holds that $R_{k'} \subseteq R_k$ and $\overline{R_k^{\mathcal{C}}} \subseteq \overline{R_{k'}}^{\mathcal{C}}$. The combination of the two previous formulae yields the following: $R_{k'} \subseteq R_k \subseteq A \subseteq \overline{R_{k'}}^{\mathcal{C}} \Rightarrow R_{k'} \subseteq A \subseteq \overline{R_{k'}}^{\mathcal{C}} \Rightarrow R_{k'} = \emptyset$, which is a contradiction to A3. A contradiction is obtained similarly if one supposes that $k' \leq k$, and thus the claim is substantiated. In the next lemma, we show that the function associated to an \mathfrak{MS} is indeed an \mathfrak{RBM} in the sense of definition 2.1.

Lemma 2.4. If R is an MS on C, then μ_R is an RBM.

Proof. We prove the five points separately. To show that M1 holds, let $\{L\}$ be a point in \mathcal{C} . By A2, it holds that $\cap_{i\in\mathbb{N}}R_i=\emptyset$, and thus $\exists i\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $L\not\in R_i$. To conclude: $L\not\in R_i\Rightarrow L\in\overline{R_i}^c\to\{L\}\subseteq\overline{R_i}^c\to\{L\}\subseteq\overline{R_i}^c\to\{L\}=0$. To show that M2 holds, recall that by A1 we have that $R_0\subseteq\mathcal{C}$. Thus by definition of μ_R we have $\mu_R(\mathcal{C})=1$. For M3, let $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a collection of null sets for μ_R . This is equivalent to stating that $\forall i\in I\exists k\in\mathbb{N}$ $A_i\subseteq\overline{R_k}^c$. Now we want the informal claim "if $\{A_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ is a suitable family of null sets, then $\mu_R(\cup_{i\in\mathbb{N}}A_i)=0$ " to hold, where "suitable" definitely includes the case where I is finite. Suppose that $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ is a family of null sets such that the previous formula still holds when we invert the two quantifiers and thus obtain the following equation: $\exists k\in\mathbb{N}\ \forall i\in I\in\mathbb{N}$ $A_i\subseteq\overline{R_k}^c$, then it is easy to show that $\mu(\cup_{i\in I}A_i)=0$. So we shall adopt the convention that a family $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ of null sets, which thus satisfies the universal-existential formula above is a "suitable" union if it also satisfies the existential-universal formula obtained by inverting the universal and existential quantifiers from the previous formula. It is trivial that with this convention, finite unions of null sets are "suitable" unions. M4 is shown by noticing: if $\mu_R(B)=0$, then $\exists k\in\mathbb{N}\ B\subseteq\overline{R_k}^c$. Now if $A\subseteq B$, then also $\exists k\in\mathbb{N}\ A\subseteq\overline{R_k}^c$. But by definition of μ_R , this latter fact implies that $\mu_R(A)=0$. Finally, to prove that M5 holds, let $A\subseteq\mathcal{C}$, then the following holds: $\mu_R(A)=0 \Leftrightarrow \exists k\in\mathbb{N}\ A\subseteq\overline{R_k}^c \Leftrightarrow \exists k\in\mathbb{N}\ R_k\subseteq\overline{A}^c \Leftrightarrow \mu_R(\overline{A}^c)=1$.

The first use of the concept of MS is to permit to define the partial ordering relation is better on RBMs discussed earlier in this section.

Definition 2.5. Let R and μ be respectively an MS and an RBM on a single fixed class C, then R is said to be an MS for μ if $\mu=\mu_R$. An RBM μ_1 is better than an RBM μ_2 , which is denoted $\mu_1 \prec \mu_2$, if they both admit an MS and if μ_1 extends μ_2 .

The idea behind the choice of comparing \mathcal{RBM} s that admit an \mathcal{MS} only, is that it is considered nice for an \mathcal{RBM} to admit an \mathcal{MS} , and therefore an \mathcal{RBM} which does not admit an \mathcal{MS} should not be considered better than one that does. In order to get interesting results on \mathcal{RBM} s on P, we need to increase the technical tools at our disposal by continuing our investigations of the relations between \mathcal{MS} s and \mathcal{RBM} s. Lemma 2.4 shows that the concept of \mathcal{MS} is stronger than that of \mathcal{RBM} , since it proves that each \mathcal{MS} has an \mathcal{RBM} associated with it. The reverse implication, stating that every \mathcal{RBM} admits an \mathcal{MS} , can be shown to hold under certain conditions, as stated in the next lemma. Intuitively, it says that an \mathcal{RBM} admits an \mathcal{MS} if it is "consistent" with a pre- \mathcal{MS} . It can also be seen as a sufficient condition for a pre- \mathcal{MS} to be an \mathcal{MS} .

³ A partial function f extends a partial function g if $\mathcal{D}(g) \subseteq \mathcal{D}(f)$ and $f_{|\mathcal{D}(g)} = g$.

Lemma 2.6. Let $C \subseteq \{0,1\}^{\infty}$. Let $R = \{R_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ and μ be respectively a pre-MS and an RBM on C. If $[\mu(A) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{N} \ A \subseteq \overline{R_k}^C]$ then $[R \text{ is an MS on } C \text{ and } \mu = \mu_R]$.

Proof. We have to show that R is an \mathfrak{MS} , and that $\mu = \mu_R$. Let us start by showing that under the assumptions R is an \mathfrak{MS} . Since R is by hypothesis a pre- \mathfrak{MS} , it only remains to be shown that R satisfies A2 and A3. To prove that A2 holds, suppose on the contrary that it does not. Then the following implications lead to a contradiction to M1: $\exists L \in \bigcap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} R_i \Rightarrow \exists L \in \mathcal{C} \ \forall i \in \mathbb{N} \ \{L\} \not\subseteq \overline{R_i}^{\mathcal{C}} \Rightarrow \exists L \in \mathcal{C} \ \mu(\{L\}) \neq 0$. To show that A3 holds, suppose on the contrary that it does not hold. Then there exists $i \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $R_i = \emptyset$. The following implications then lead to a contradiction to M2: $R_i = \emptyset \Rightarrow \mathcal{C} \subseteq \overline{R_i}^{\mathcal{C}} \Rightarrow \mu(\mathcal{C}) = 0$. Since at this point R is shown to be an M3, one can consider μ_R its associated $\mathcal{R}3\mathcal{M}$, and conclude using the following implication, which holds since μ satisfies M5 and by definition of μ_R : $[\mu(A) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \exists k \ A \subseteq \overline{R_k}^{\mathcal{C}}] \Rightarrow \mu = \mu_R$.

Before using the mainframe described in this section to define and discuss, in section 4, the existence of *perfect measures*, we devote the next section to a reminder to the reader of the main result of [Str97], which is the construction of an \mathcal{RBM} for P. This \mathcal{RBM} will be analysed and compared to the definition of *perfect* \mathcal{RBM} proposed.

3 A Previous Resource Bounded Measure on P

In this section, we summarise the construction of μ_{τ} , an \mathcal{RBM} for P that emerged from the series of papers [AS94], [AS95] and [Str97]. The main mathematical concept used is that of a betting strategy ⁴, which is a function satisfying certain properties (see below), and being computable within certain resource bounds. We slightly change the way the original definition of μ_{τ} was given in [Str97] by introducing a topology, whereas this was done in [Str97] by means of a hierarchy of sub-basic null sets, basic null sets and null sets. We find that the definition gains in clarity by doing it this way, especially it is easier to then compare this \mathcal{RBM} to its potential related \mathcal{MSs} . Nevertheless, this definition is equivalent to that of [Str97].

Definition 3.1. A betting strategy is $\beta: \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{R}$ such that the three following points hold: first $\beta(\lambda) = 1$, where λ is the empty word. Second, $\forall \omega \in \{0,1\}^*$ $\beta(\omega 0) = -\beta(\omega 1)$, where $\omega 0$ is the word ω concatenated with the symbol 0. Finally, $\forall \omega \in \{0,1\}^*$ $\sum_{x \sqsubseteq \omega} \beta(x) \geq 0$, where $x \sqsubseteq \omega$ means that x is a prefix of ω .

As its name suggests it, a betting strategy can be used to bet money when playing a particular game, called the *casino game* (c.f. for example [ASMRT00] for a description of this game). The next definition formalises the concept of a "win" for a betting strategy.

Definition 3.2. Let $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$, let $\chi_L[i]$ be the unique prefix of length i of the characteristic sequence of L under the canonical ordering of $\{0,1\}^*$. Let β be a betting strategy. The success set of β , denoted $S^{\infty}[\beta]$, is defined to be: $S^{\infty}[\beta] := \{L \in \{0,1\}^{\infty} | \limsup_{N \to \infty} \sum_{i=0}^{N} \beta(\chi_L[i]) = \infty\}$.

It is now time to turn our attention to the algorithmic resources needed to compute betting strategies. The two following definitions permit to suitably bound resources used by algorithms computing betting strategies, enabling the definition of an RBM for P.

Definition 3.3. Let M be an algorithm. Let $\omega = \omega_0 \cdots \omega_N \in \{0,1\}^{N+1}$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$. The oriented graph $G_{M,\omega}$ with vertexes $V(G_{M,\omega}) \subseteq \{v_0, \cdots, v_N\}$ and edges $E(G_{M,\omega})$ is called the graph of recursive queries of the algorithm M on input ω , and is inductively thus defined: first, $\forall 0 \leq i \leq N$, v_i is added to $V(G_{M,\omega})$ if the algorithm M queries the ith bit of its input, during its computation on input $\omega = \omega_0 \cdots \omega_N$. Then, $\forall v_i$ previously added to $V(G_{M,\omega})$ and for all j < i, v_j is added to $V(G_{M,\omega})$ and (v_j, v_i) is added to $E(G_{M,\omega})$ iff M queries the jth bit of its input during its computation on input $\omega_0 \cdots \omega_i$.

⁴ A betting strategy is a generalisation of a martingale, which is the type of function traditionally used in the context of Lutz's RBM. The two concepts are transparent at the level of Lutz's RBM in "big" complexity classes.

Intuitively, the aim of defining such a graph is the following. Suppose that one wants to simulate the execution of the algorithm M on input ω , and each time the simulation of the algorithm M needs to read a bit of its input, it is required to simulate M on the prefix of ω of length equal to the index of the bit queried, and so on, recursively. This is roughly what needs to be done when computing a language L that diagonalises against a betting strategy computed by an algorithm M. Thus imposing size or depth restriction on the size of the graph of recursive queries permits to limit respectively the time or space complexity of the language L, c.f. [Str97] for more details.

Definition 3.4. Let β be a betting strategy and t be a complexity function. β is a $\Gamma(t(n))$ betting strategy if there exists M, an algorithm such that $\forall \omega \in \{0,1\}^* : M(\omega) = \beta(\omega), M(\omega)$ computes in DTIME $(\mathcal{O}(t(|\omega|)))$ and $|V(G_{M,\omega})| = \mathcal{O}(t(|\omega|))$.

As explained above, the idea behind this definition is that if a betting strategy is both efficiently computable and has a small graph of recursive queries, it will be possible to construct an efficiently computable language L that diagonalises against the given betting strategy. Notice that the condition on the size of the graph becomes void when the time-bound becomes at least linear (because the graph may then contain every possible node, i.e. the algorithm has enough time to read all its input), and that the notion of efficiently computable betting strategy then comes back to the traditional definition of efficiently computable betting strategy in the context of Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} for complexity classes containing E; c.f. [ASMRT00] for more details. In order to be able to state the definition of μ_{τ} , the \mathcal{RBM} on P defined in [Str97], we also need to introduce a topology on the Cantor set. To define this topology, the notion of quotient of a language by a word is needed.

Definition 3.5. Let $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ be a language. Let $x \in \{0,1\}^*$ be a word. The language $L_{/x}$ of L quotiented by x is defined to be $L_{/x} := \{y \in \{0,1\}^* | yx \in L\}$.

The following operation on language, called a direct product of languages, is useful in constructing a single language with many properties. Roughly speaking, in certain conditions which we are interested in, if a family of languages $\{R_i\}$ is such that each R_i has a property, depending on i, then $\bigotimes L_i$ will be a single language combining the properties of all the R_i s. This fact is used in [Str97] and will also be used in the next section.

Definition 3.6. Let $\{L_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a family of languages. Their direct product is defined to be: $\bigotimes_{i\in\mathbb{N}} L_i := \{x10^i | x \in L_i\}.$

Notice that direct product and quotient are complementary operations, as suggested by the following example: $(\bigotimes_{i\in\mathbb{N}} L_i)_{/10^i} = L_i$. By using the definition of the quotient of a language, open balls and the associated topology τ are defined.

Definition 3.7. Let $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$. The open ball B_L centred on L is defined to be $B_L := \{L_{/x} | x \in \{0,1\}^*\}$. The topology τ is defined by: $\tau := \{O | L \in O \Rightarrow B_L \subseteq O\}$.

The proof of the fact that τ is a topology (which is closed even under intersection) is easy, and left to the reader. Intuitively, a set belongs to the topology if it is closed under the operation consisting of constructing a new language L' from another language L, by defining the characteristic sequence of L' to be a regular subsequence of the characteristic sequence of L. For what we are interested in, that is considering betting strategies on languages, winning on every language of an open covering of a given set A is much harder then winning on A only, since it means that not only the betting strategy needs to cover every language in A, but also every language whose characteristic sequence is a "regular" substring of any language in A. Next comes the definition of μ_{τ} , and the theorem from [Str97], stating that it is an $\Re \mathfrak{BM}$.

Definition 3.8. Let $\mu_{\tau}: \mathcal{P}(P) \dashrightarrow \{0,1\}$ be the following partial function: $\forall A \subseteq P, \ \mu_{\tau}(A) = 0$ iff there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\{\beta_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ a family of $\Gamma(\log(N)^k)$ betting strategies such that $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} S^{\infty}[\beta_i]$, $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{N}$ are δ

 $^{^5}$ The notation $\overset{\circ}{A}$ denotes the interior (with respect to the topology $\tau)$ of the set A.

Theorem 3.9 ([Str97]). μ_{τ} is well defined, and it satisfies M1 to M5, thus it is an RBM on P.

In [Str97], some properties of this measure are demonstrated, such as the fact that some intuitively small sets are of null measure. It is also shown that this measure admits an equivalent measure for PSPACE, and it is then compared to the measure on PSPACE of [May94b]. An alternative definition of μ_{τ} in terms of random sets was also proposed, but this definition is erroneous, as we prove in the next section

4 Perfect Measures on P and Random Sets

In this section we revisit the problem of generalising Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} to small complexity classes, and more precisely, to the class of time efficient solvable problems: P. We give a definition of perfection for an \mathcal{RBM} on P, which is based on the idea that a perfect measure for P is one that generalises Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} , together with a necessary and sufficient condition, in terms of random sets, for such a perfect measure to exists. The guideline followed in this section is the revisiting of μ_{τ} , the \mathcal{RBM} for P from [Str97] recalled in the last section, and more particularly, the discussion of a result from the same article, which is erroneous, and that we correct. It is while following this guideline, that we try our best to present the results of this section in a way that makes them look as intuitive as possible. We start by reminding the reader of the definition, central to this section, of random sets in the context of \mathcal{RBM} at the scale P, and define the associated pre- \mathcal{MS} at the same time.

Definition 4.1. Let $L \in P$ be a language. L is n^k -random if there is no $\Gamma(\log(N)^k)$ betting strategy covering L. Let $R_k^P := \{L \in P \mid L \text{ is } n^k\text{-random}\}$. R^P is the following pre-MS on $P: R^P := \{R_k^P\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$.

The question of whether this pre-MS is also an MS will be raised, and shown to have interesting implications. But before we come to this, let us enter the heart of the subject by stating a result from [Str97], which is the mistake that we correct later in this section.

Claim (erroneous).
$$\mu_{\tau}(A) = 0$$
 iff $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A \cap R_k^P = \emptyset$

In the rest of this article, we refer to this claim as the "erroneous claim". This claim may seem very plausible at first sight, and in fact only a subtle detail in the (pseudo) proof of it, which is in [Str97] too, is inconsistent. What makes this claim not so likely, is when its consequences are analysed with the insight of the concept of \mathcal{M} Ss. To come to the point, let us start by using lemma 2.6 to obtain two easy consequences that would follow should the erroneous claim hold: the first consequence is named $\underline{C1}$ and is the following: R^P is an \mathcal{M} S for P. The second is $\underline{C2}$: $\mu_{R^P} = \mu_{\tau}$. The following result of [ASTZ97], restated in our notations, permits an interesting interpretation of the two previous statements.

Lemma 4.2 ([ASTZ97]). Let $R_k^E = \{L \in E | \text{ there exists a } \Gamma(N^k) \text{ betting strategy covering } L\}$. Let $R^E = \{R_k^E\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$. R^E is an MS for E and $\mu_{R^E} = \mu_{Lutz}$, where μ_{Lutz} is Lutz's RBM for E.

The main observation is that the pre-MS R^P is the P analogous of R^E in E. Pushing further the idea behind this observation, and supposing that C1 holds, lemma 2.4 implies that μ_{R^P} is an \mathcal{RBM} for P, which is thus the P analogous of μ_{R^E} , and thus of μ_{Lutz} . Adopting the terminology of calling perfect a measure that is analogous to (or better then) Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} , we define:

Definition 4.3. An RBM μ for P is said to be perfect if it admits $\tilde{R} = {\{\tilde{R}_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \text{ an MS such that }} \forall k \in \mathbb{N} \exists j \in \mathbb{N} \mid \tilde{R}_j \subseteq R_k^P$.

Notice that it is immediate that if there exists a perfect measure μ , then μ_{R^P} is a well defined measure such that μ is better than μ_{R^P} . With this definition of perfection for an \mathcal{RBM} , it is easy to see that the statements C1 and C2 imply that there exists a perfect \mathcal{RBM} for P and μ_{τ} is a perfect \mathcal{RBM} for P respectively. The following figure sums up the discussion pursued so far.

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Erroneous claim \stackrel{\text{lemma 2.6}}{\Rightarrow} \begin{cases} C1 \text{ holds } \Rightarrow \text{There exists a perfect measure for P} \\ C2 \text{ holds } \Rightarrow \mu_{\tau} \text{ is a perfect measure for P} \end{cases}
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This sets the general context in which the following results are obtained. The first result is the fact that μ_{τ} admits an MS, which is composed of a family of a special kind of random sets, a result that can be seen as an alternative to the erroneous claim. Second is the fact that the *existence of random sets* is a necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a perfect measure. Third is the exhibition of another sufficient condition, called the *unique betting strategy hypothesis*, to the existence of a perfect measure. Finally, it is shown that μ_{τ} is *not* a perfect measure, which implies that the erroneous claim is false. These results are now given in full detail in the following three subsections.

4.1 Alternative Random sets to Characterise μ_{τ}

Starting with the first point of the scheme given above, we show that μ_{τ} admits an MS, consisting of a parametrised family of an alternative definition of random sets for P, which also defines a pre-MS.

Definition 4.4. Let $L \in P$ be a language. L is n_{τ}^k -random if there is no $\Gamma(\log(N)^k)$ betting strategy covering B_L . Let $R_{k,\tau}^P := \{L \in P \mid L \text{ is } n_{\tau}^k\text{-random}\}$. R_{τ}^P is the following pre-MS on $P: R_{\tau}^P := \{R_{k,\tau}^P\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Lemma 4.5. Let $A \subseteq P$, then $\mu_{\tau}(A) = 0$ iff $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A \cap R_{k,\tau}^P = \emptyset$.

Proof. Let us start with the (easy) direct implication. If $A \subseteq P$ is such that $\mu_{\tau}(A) = 0$, then there exist $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\{\beta_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$, a family of $\Gamma(\log(N)^k)$ betting strategies, such that $A \subseteq \cup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} S^{\infty}[\beta_i]$. Therefore $\forall L \in A$, $\exists \beta$ a $\Gamma(\log(N)^k)$ betting strategy such that $L \in S^{\infty}[\beta]$. Now observe the following: if $L \in S^{\infty}[\beta]$ and $S^{\infty}[\beta] \in \tau$, then $B_L \subseteq S^{\infty}[\beta]$, and hence $L \in \overline{R_{k,\tau}^P}^C$. Since this is true for any language $L \in A$, it implies that $A \subseteq \overline{R_{k,\tau}^P}^C$, which proves the first implication. Now let us prove the reverse implication. Suppose that $A \subseteq P$ is such that for some fixed integer k, it holds that $A \subseteq \overline{R_{k,\tau}^P}^C$. First consider $\{\beta_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ an enumeration of all $\Gamma(\log(N)^k)$ betting strategies. Such an enumeration exists, since all $\Gamma(\log(N)^k)$ betting strategies admit an algorithm computing them, and since algorithms are enumerable. Since $A \subseteq \overline{R_{k,\tau}^P}^C$, it holds that $\forall L \in A \quad \exists i \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $B_L \subseteq S^{\infty}[\beta_i]$. The last formula implies that $B_L \subseteq S^{\infty}[\beta_i]$, and that $L \in S^{\infty}[\beta_i]$. Since for any $L \in A$ this is true for some $i \in \mathbb{N}$, then $A \subseteq \cup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} S^{\infty}[\beta_i]$. Now the following observation permits to conclude: If $A \subseteq \cup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} S^{\infty}[\beta_i]$ and $\{\beta_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a family of $\Gamma(\log(N)^k)$ betting strategies, then by definition of μ_{τ} , $\mu_{\tau}(A) = 0$.

Corollary 4.6. The two following points hold. $\underline{C'1}$: R_{τ}^P is an MS for P. $\underline{C'2}$: $\mu_{R^P} = \mu_{\tau}$.

The last corollary is obtained using lemmas 2.6 and 4.5 in conjunction. The first point of this corollary, C'1, says that R_{τ}^P is an MS. The open problem discussed earlier in this section asking whether R^P is an MS, which implies ⁶ that there exists a perfect measure for P, seems very similar. Since we managed to prove that C'1 holds, i.e. that R_{τ}^P is an MS, it is natural to enthusiastically hope to prove, using the same techniques, that R^P is an MS, and the existence of a perfect RBM for P at the same time. This cannot be done, so if C1 has to be proven to hold, it will be in another way. The reason is the following: C'1 is a corollary of lemma 4.5. Thus proving that C1 holds, adapting the proof that C'1 does, would require an analogue of lemma 4.5, with the family R^P replaced by the family R^P : but this is precisely the erroneous claim, and as we are going to prove in subsection 4.2, the erroneous claim does *not* hold. Therefore the problem of proving or disproving C1, i.e. whether there exists a perfect measure for P, remains open. Now that we have a characterisation of μ_{τ} in terms of (an alternative kind of) random sets, let us turn to the relation between random sets and perfect measures.

⁶ In fact, as shown in lemma 4.7, not only does this condition imply, but it is even equivalent to the existence of a perfect measure.

4.2 Conditional Existence of Perfect Measures

This subsection is devoted to discussing sufficient (and necessary) conditions for the existence of perfect RBMs. The main result is to prove that there exist perfect RBMs iff there exist random sets. This will be obtained as a corollary of the next lemma, which shows that the existence of a perfect measure is equivalent to the fact that the pre-MS of random sets is also an MS.

Lemma 4.7. There exists a perfect RBM iff the pre-MS R^P is also an MS

Proof. We only prove the direct implication, since the reverse implication is easy, and therefore left to the reader. Since R^P is a pre-MS, we only need to show that the assumptions imply that R^P satisfies points A2 and A3 of definition 2.2 Let us start with A2, which can be proved to hold unconditionally. We need to prove that $\bigcap_{i\in\mathbb{N}}R_i^P=\emptyset$. It is easy to see from the definitions of R_τ^P and R^P that it holds that $R_k^P\subseteq R_{k,\tau}^P$ for any $k\in\mathbb{N}$. Now since corollary 4.6 insures that R_τ^P is an MS, it holds that $\bigcap_{i\in\mathbb{N}}R_{i,\tau}^P=\emptyset$, and thus A2 follows. We now prove A3, that is the fact that $R_i^P\neq\emptyset$ for any $i\in\mathbb{N}$, using the assumption that there exists a perfect \mathcal{RBM} . By definition of the existence of a perfect measure, there exists $\tilde{R}=\{\tilde{R}_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ an MS such that $\forall k\in\mathbb{N}\exists i\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $\tilde{R}_i\subseteq R_k^P$. Since \tilde{R} is an MS, $\forall i$ $\tilde{R}_i\neq\emptyset$, and thus $\forall k$ $R_k^P\neq\emptyset$.

Since A2 in the proof above is shown to hold unconditionally, the next corollary follows.

Corollary 4.8. There exists a perfect RBM iff there are random sets, i.e. if $R_i^P \neq \emptyset$ for all i.

Next comes the discussion of another condition, sufficient for the existence of a perfect \mathcal{RBM} . As explained in the literature, one of the main technical difficulties in defining an \mathcal{RBM} for small complexity classes comes from the fact that it cannot be proved that the following assertion (or a variation of it) holds:

Definition 4.9. We call the following assertion the unique betting strategy hypothesis: $\forall k \in \mathbb{N} \ \forall \{\beta_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}} \ family \ of \ \Gamma(n^k)$ betting strategies $\exists k' \in \mathbb{N} \ \exists \beta \ a \ \Gamma(n^{k'})$ betting strategy such that $\bigcup_{i\in\mathbb{N}} S^{\infty}[\beta_i] \subseteq S^{\infty}[\beta']$.

The fact that this hypothesis cannot be shown to hold (nor its negation) is the main difference with \mathcal{RBM} at the level of E, where the equivalent assertion is true indeed. It is easy to see that if this condition was to hold, the following function, which is the transposition of Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} on E, would define an \mathcal{RBM} on P: $\mu_L: \mathcal{P}(P) \dashrightarrow \{0,1\}$, where $\mu_L(A) = 0$ if $\exists k \exists \beta$ a $\Gamma(n^k)$ betting strategy such that $A \subseteq S^{\infty}[\beta]$, and $\mu_L(A) = 1$ if $\mu_L(P \setminus A) = 0$. Next comes a lemma comparing the unique betting strategy hypothesis and the existence of random sets. It shows two things:

- The unique betting strategy hypothesis is stronger then that of the existence of random sets.
- Although it is not obvious and is unknown to us whether the reverse is true, i.e. whether the existence of random sets implies that the unique betting strategy hypothesis holds, the hypothesis of the existence of random sets is as as strong as the unique betting strategy when it comes to defining measures.

We consider this latter fact as strong evidence that the definition chosen for a *perfect* measure does indeed capture the essence of an ideal generalisation of Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} .

Lemma 4.10. If the unique betting strategy hypothesis holds, then there exist random sets. Furthermore, in this configuration, $\mu_{RP} = \mu_L$.

Proof. Suppose that the unique betting strategy hypothesis holds. We want to prove that for any $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists an n^k -random set, i.e. there exists a language $L \in \mathbb{P}$ such that $L \notin \bigcup_{\beta \in \{\Gamma(n^k)\text{betting strategies}\}} S^{\infty}[\beta]$. By hypothesis, there exists k' and γ a $\Gamma(n^{k'})$ betting strategy such that $\bigcup_{\beta \in \{\Gamma(n^k)\text{betting strategies}\}} S^{\infty}[\beta] \subseteq S^{\infty}[\gamma]$. Since the definition of Γ betting strategies was given in order to enable the construction of a language $L \in \mathbb{P}$ that diagonalises against a single betting strategy, it is easy to construct a language of \mathbb{P} which is not in $S^{\infty}[\gamma]$, and thus not in $\bigcup_{\beta \in \{\Gamma(n^k)\text{betting strategies}\}} S^{\infty}[\beta]$ either. Such a language L is by definition an n^k -random set,

and thus the fact that the hypothesis implies the existence of random sets follows. To prove that under the assumption of the lemma, $\mu_L = \mu_{R^P}$, it only needs to be shown that for any $A \subseteq P$, $\mu_L(A) = 0$ iff $\mu_{R^P}(A) = 0$. Suppose that $\mu_L(A) = 0$, then there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and γ a $\Gamma(n^k)$ betting strategy, such that $A \subseteq S^{\infty}[\gamma]$. Thus $A \cap \{n^k\text{-random}\} = \emptyset$, and by definition $\mu_{R^P}(A) = 0$. On the other hand, suppose that $A \subseteq P$ is such that $\mu_{R^P}(A) = 0$. Therefore there exists k such that $A \cap \{n^k\text{-random}\} = \emptyset$. Thus $A \subseteq \bigcup_{\beta \in \{\Gamma(n^k)\text{betting strategies}\}} S^{\infty}[\beta]$. By hypothesis, there exists k' and γ a $\Gamma(n^k)$ betting strategy such that $A \subseteq S^{\infty}[\gamma]$, and thus $\mu_L(A) = 0$.

Remark 4.11. In [Str97], as well as in this article, it is ensured that no "good" betting strategy covers the whole space P, thanks to the third point of definition 3.4 which forces a condition on the graph of recursive queries. It ensures that for any $\Gamma(n^k)$ betting strategy, there exists a language $L \not\in S^{\infty}[\beta]$ which is computable in DTIME $(n^{(2k+1)})$, c.f. [Str97] for more details. This restriction imposed to the size of the graph of recursive queries of "good" betting strategies could be replaced by the following: for any $\Gamma(n^k)$ betting strategy β , there has to exist a language L in DTIME $(n^{f(k)})$ such that $L \notin S^{\infty}[\beta]$, where f is some arbitrary computable function. It would enable the definition of measures μ_{τ}' "à la Strauss", generalising μ_{τ} , but this is probably of little interest, at least from a theoretical point of view, since it would not add much to the concepts and the ideas of [Str97]. On the other hand, the choice of ensuring that no "good" betting strategy covers the whole space P by imposing a restriction on the graph of recursive queries, or any generalisation of this concept. as proposed above, is an arbitrary choice, and therefore unpleasant regarding our claim of having defined a "perfect measure". This can be solved by the following remark. If one replaces the third point of definition 3.4 by the following: a $\Gamma(n^k)$ betting strategy β must not cover the whole of P, then all the proofs of this subsection go unchanged. The definition of a perfect measure thus obtained has the advantage of being free of any arbitrary choice.

4.3 Previous Relations between μ_{τ} and Randomness

The main result of this subsection is the proof that μ_{τ} is not perfect. This latter fact implies that the erroneous claim does not hold. First of all, we state and prove a technical lemma.

Lemma 4.12.
$$\exists A \subseteq P \ \exists k \in \mathbb{N} \ such \ that \ A \subseteq \overline{R_k^P}^C \ but \ \mu_\tau(A) \neq 0$$

Proof. Suppose on the contrary that the lemma is false, then the following implication holds for any $A \in \mathbb{P}$: $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ $A \subseteq \overline{R_k^P}^{\mathcal{E}} \Rightarrow \mu_{\tau}(A) = 0$. If $\exists K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall k \geq K R_k^P = \emptyset$, then the previous equation implies that $\mu_{\tau}(\mathbb{P}) = 0$. This is a contradiction to theorem 3.9, which states that μ_{τ} satisfies M2, and thus $\mu_{\tau}(P) = 1$. Thus $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, R_k^P \neq \emptyset$, and there exists $\{L_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ a family of languages such that $\forall i \in \mathbb{N} \ L_i \in R_i^P$. Let L be the empty language, and consider the following class of languages: $\mathcal{A} := \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \{L \otimes L_i\} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \{\tilde{L}_i\}, \text{ where } \tilde{L}_i := \{x10 | x \in L\} \cup \{x100 | x \in L_i\} = (x100 | x \in L_i)\}$ $\{x100|x\in L_i\}$. Now we need the three following claims, for which we also give a short idea of the demonstration. Claim 1: $A \subseteq P$. Claim 2: $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A \cap R_k^P = \emptyset$. Claim 3: $\mu_\tau(A) \neq 0$. To show that the first claim holds, it is sufficient to show that $\forall i \in \mathbb{N} \ \tilde{L}_i \in P$. But this is an easy consequence of the fact that $\forall i \in \mathbb{N} \ L_i \in P$. To be convinced that the second claim holds, notice that it is easy to construct a $\Gamma(\log(N))$ betting strategy that wagers on words of the form 0*10 only, and that covers \mathcal{A} . For the third claim, suppose the contrary, i.e. $\mu_{\tau}(\mathcal{A}) = 0$. Therefore there would exist $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\{\beta_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ a family of $\Gamma(\log(N)^k)$ betting strategies such that $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} S^{\infty}[\beta_i]$. Together with the fact that $\forall j \ \tilde{L}_j \in \mathcal{A}$, it implies that $\forall j \in \mathbb{N} \ \exists i \in \mathbb{N} \ such that \ \tilde{L}_j \in S^{\infty}[\beta_i]$. Now since $S^{\infty}[\beta_i] \in \tau$, it must also be that $\forall j \in \mathbb{N} \ \exists i \in \mathbb{N} \ such that \ B_{\tilde{L}_j} \subseteq S^{\infty}[\beta_i]$. Finally, in conjunction with the fact that $\forall j \ L_j \in B_{\tilde{L}_j}$, it implies that $\forall j \in \mathbb{N} \ \exists i \in \mathbb{N} \ such \ that \ L_j \in S^{\circ}[\beta_i]$. Since for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, β_i is by assumption a $\Gamma(\log(N)^k)$ betting strategy, it thus also holds that for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$, $L_j \notin R_k^P$, which yields a contradiction when $j \geq k$, (since by construction $\{L_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a family of languages such that $L_j \in R_j^P \subseteq R_k^P$). The three claims above give rise to the following contradiction: the first two claims show that the set \mathcal{A} (constructed using the absurd hypothesis that the lemma does not hold) satisfies $\mathcal{A} \subseteq P \cap \overline{R_k^P}^{\mathcal{C}}$. Since by the absurd hypothesis, the lemma is false, then necessarily $\mu_{\tau}(\mathcal{A}) = 0$, which is a contradiction to the third claim.

This technical lemma enables one to compare μ_{τ} and μ_{R^p} in terms of the partial ordering relation is better defined in section 2.

Lemma 4.13. If R^P is an MS, then μ_{R^P} is strictly better than μ_{τ}

Proof. Suppose that R^P is an MS. Thus the function μ_{R^P} is defined, and is an \mathcal{RBM} . Now we need to prove the two following facts: $\mu_{R^P} \prec \mu_{\tau}$ and $\mu_{\tau} \not\prec \mu_{R^P}$. Let us prove the two things separately: for the first point, and by definition of the relation is better, we have to show that both \mathcal{RBM} s admit an MS and that μ_{R^P} extends μ_{τ} . The fact that μ_{R^P} admits an MS is trivial, and μ_{τ} admits an MS too, as follows from corollary 4.6. The assertion that μ_{R^P} extends μ_{τ} is substantiated by showing that for any $A \subseteq P$, if A is μ_{τ} measurable, then A is μ_{R^P} measurable, and $\mu_{\tau}(A) = \mu_{R^P}(A)$: first suppose that μ_{τ} is defined on A and that $\mu_{\tau}(A) = 0$. Together with lemma 4.5, it implies that $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A \cap R_{k,\tau}^P = \emptyset$. Now since by definition of R^P and R_{τ}^P , it holds that $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ $R_k^P \subseteq R_{k,\tau}^P$, we also have that $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A \subseteq \overline{R_k^P}^C$. Now using the hypothesis that R^P is an MS and definition 2.2, the last equation implies in turn that A is μ_{R^P} measurable and that $\mu_{R^P}(A) = 0$. A similar proof holds if one starts with the case where A is μ_{τ} measurable with $\mu_{\tau}(A) = 1$, and thus μ_{R^P} extends μ_{τ} . This also finishes the proof that $\mu_{R^P} \prec \mu_{\tau}$. We now turn to proving that $\mu_{\tau} \not\prec \mu_{R^P}$. Suppose on the contrary that $\mu_{\tau} \prec \mu_{R^P}$. If this were so, then we would have the following implications: $\mu_{\tau} \prec \mu_{R^P} \Rightarrow [\forall A \subseteq P \ \mu_{R^P}(A) = 0 \Rightarrow \mu_{\tau}(A) = 0] \Rightarrow \forall A \subseteq P$ such that $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ $A \subseteq \overline{R_k^P}^C$, $\mu_{\tau}(A) = 0$. But the last implication is a contradiction to lemma 4.12, thus the absurd hypothesis that $\mu_{\tau} \prec \mu_{R^P}$ is false.

The next corollary follows from the easy claim that if a measure μ is perfect, then necessarily $\mu \prec \mu_{RP}$. Together with corollary 4.5, it makes a correction to the erroneous claim.

Corollary 4.14. μ_{τ} is not a perfect measure, C2 does not hold and the erroneous claim does not hold.

5 Conclusion

We have proposed a definition of a perfect \mathcal{RBM} in small complexity classes, which is intuitively an \mathcal{RBM} that reproduces truly, at the level of P, Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} in E. The question of whether such a measure exists, which is central to this line of research, is not answered, but it is shown that the existence of such a perfect measure admits a sufficient and necessary condition: the existence of random sets (in the context of resource bounded measure, and with suitable parameters). It was shown in lemma 4.10 that the unique betting strategy hypothesis, which holds in the context of Lutz's \mathcal{RBM} , is stronger then the hypothesis of the existence of random sets, but that surprisingly, it yields the same notion of measure. This could be due to the fact that both hypotheses are equivalent: we have not proven that the unique betting strategy is strictly better than the hypothesis of the existence of random sets; so this is left as an open problem. We also revisited the measure for P that was developed in [Str97], and corrected a mistake concerning the relation of this measure to random sets.

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