

Some complexity results in the theory of normal numbers

Bill Mance

Department of Mathematics
University of Adam Mickiewicz

Dylan Airey (Princeton University)
Steve Jackson (University of North Texas)

The Borel Hierarchy

The setting:

The Borel Hierarchy

The setting:

Let X be a **Polish space**: a separable completely metrizable topological space.

The Borel Hierarchy

The setting:

Let X be a **Polish space**: a separable completely metrizable topological space. That is, X is homeomorphic to a complete metric space that has a countable dense subset.

The Borel Hierarchy

The setting:

Let X be a **Polish space**: a separable completely metrizable topological space. That is, X is homeomorphic to a complete metric space that has a countable dense subset.

Examples:

$$\mathbb{R}, 2^{\mathbb{N}}, b^{\mathbb{N}}, 2^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}}$$

The Borel Hierarchy

In any topological space X , the collection of Borel sets $\mathcal{B}(X)$ is the smallest σ -algebra containing the open sets. They are stratified into levels, the Borel hierarchy, by defining Σ_1^0 = the open sets, $\Pi_1^0 = \neg\Sigma_1^0 = \{X - A : A \in \Sigma_1^0\}$ = the closed sets, and for $\alpha < \omega_1$ we let Σ_α^0 be the collection of countable unions $A = \bigcup_n A_n$ where each $A_n \in \Pi_{\alpha_n}^0$ for some $\alpha_n < \alpha$. We also let $\Pi_\alpha^0 = \neg\Sigma_\alpha^0$. Alternatively, $A \in \Pi_\alpha^0$ if $A = \bigcap_n A_n$ where $A_n \in \Sigma_{\alpha_n}^0$ where each $\alpha_n < \alpha$. We also set $\Delta_\alpha^0 = \Pi_\alpha^0 \cap \Sigma_\alpha^0$, in particular Δ_1^0 is the collection of clopen sets. For any topological space, $\mathcal{B}(X) = \bigcup_{\alpha < \omega_1} \Sigma_\alpha^0 = \bigcup_{\alpha < \omega_1} \Pi_\alpha^0$. All of the collections Δ_α^0 , Σ_α^0 , Π_α^0 are pointclasses, that is, they are closed under inverse images of continuous functions.

The Borel Hierarchy

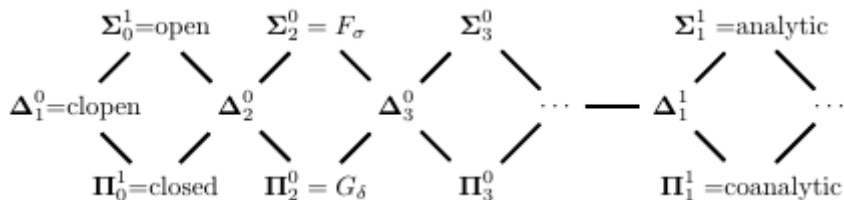
In any topological space X , the collection of Borel sets $\mathcal{B}(X)$ is the smallest σ -algebra containing the open sets. They are stratified into levels, the Borel hierarchy, by defining $\Sigma_1^0 =$ the open sets, $\Pi_1^0 = \neg\Sigma_1^0 = \{X - A : A \in \Sigma_1^0\} =$ the closed sets, and for $\alpha < \omega_1$ we let Σ_α^0 be the collection of countable unions $A = \bigcup_n A_n$ where each $A_n \in \Pi_{\alpha_n}^0$ for some $\alpha_n < \alpha$. We also let $\Pi_\alpha^0 = \neg\Sigma_\alpha^0$. Alternatively, $A \in \Pi_\alpha^0$ if $A = \bigcap_n A_n$ where $A_n \in \Sigma_{\alpha_n}^0$ where each $\alpha_n < \alpha$. We also set $\Delta_\alpha^0 = \Pi_\alpha^0 \cap \Sigma_\alpha^0$, in particular Δ_1^0 is the collection of clopen sets. For any topological space, $\mathcal{B}(X) = \bigcup_{\alpha < \omega_1} \Sigma_\alpha^0 = \bigcup_{\alpha < \omega_1} \Pi_\alpha^0$. All of the collections Δ_α^0 , Σ_α^0 , Π_α^0 are pointclasses, that is, they are closed under inverse images of continuous functions.

For example, Σ_2^0 consists of F_σ sets and Π_2^0 consists of G_δ sets. Π_3^0 contains the sets which are intersections of F_σ sets.

The Borel Hierarchy

A fundamental result of Suslin says that in any Polish space $\mathcal{B}(X) = \mathbf{\Delta}_1^1 = \mathbf{\Sigma}_1^1 \cap \mathbf{\Pi}_1^1$, where $\mathbf{\Pi}_1^1 = \neg \mathbf{\Sigma}_1^1$, and $\mathbf{\Sigma}_1^1$ is the pointclass of continuous images of Borel sets. Equivalently, $A \in \mathbf{\Sigma}_1^1$ iff A can be written as $x \in A \leftrightarrow \exists y (x, y) \in B$ where $B \subseteq X \times Y$ is Borel (for some Polish space Y). Similarly, $A \in \mathbf{\Pi}_1^1$ iff it is of the form $x \in A \leftrightarrow \forall y (x, y) \in B$ for a Borel B . The $\mathbf{\Sigma}_1^1$ sets are also called the *analytic sets*, and $\mathbf{\Pi}_1^1$ the *co-analytic sets*. We also have $\mathbf{\Sigma}_1^1 \neq \mathbf{\Pi}_1^1$ for any uncountable Polish space.

The Borel Hierarchy



The Borel Hierarchy

A basic fact is that for any uncountable Polish space X , there is no collapse in the levels of the Borel hierarchy, that is, all the various pointclasses Δ_α^0 , Σ_α^0 , Π_α^0 , for $\alpha < \omega_1$, are all distinct. Thus, these levels of the Borel hierarchy can be used to calibrate the descriptive complexity of a set. We say a set $A \subseteq X$ is Σ_α^0 (resp. Π_α^0) *hard* if $A \notin \Pi_\alpha^0$ (resp. $A \notin \Sigma_\alpha^0$). This says A is “no simpler” than a Σ_α^0 set. We say A is Σ_α^0 -*complete* if $A \in \Sigma_\alpha^0 - \Pi_\alpha^0$, that is, $A \in \Sigma_\alpha^0$ and A is Σ_α^0 hard. This says A is exactly at the complexity level Σ_α^0 . Likewise, A is Π_α^0 -*complete* if $A \in \Pi_\alpha^0 - \Sigma_\alpha^0$.

Examples of Borel sets

In \mathbb{R} , $(a, b) \in \Sigma_0^1$, $[a, b] \in \Pi_0^1$, and $\mathbb{R} \in \Delta_0^1$.

Examples of Borel sets

In \mathbb{R} , $(a, b) \in \Sigma_0^1$, $[a, b] \in \Pi_0^1$, and $\mathbb{R} \in \Delta_0^1$.

$\mathbb{Q} \in \Sigma_2^0$, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Pi_2^0$, and $\emptyset = \mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Delta_2^0$.

Examples of Borel sets

In \mathbb{R} , $(a, b) \in \Sigma_0^1$, $[a, b] \in \Pi_0^1$, and $\mathbb{R} \in \Delta_0^1$.

$\mathbb{Q} \in \Sigma_2^0$, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Pi_2^0$, and $\emptyset = \mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Delta_2^0$.

Note that \mathbb{Q} is Σ_2^0 -complete, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is Π_2^0 -complete, but $\emptyset \in \Delta_0^1$.

Examples of Borel sets

In \mathbb{R} , $(a, b) \in \Sigma_0^1$, $[a, b] \in \Pi_0^1$, and $\mathbb{R} \in \Delta_0^1$.

$\mathbb{Q} \in \Sigma_2^0$, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Pi_2^0$, and $\emptyset = \mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Delta_2^0$.

Note that \mathbb{Q} is Σ_2^0 -complete, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is Π_2^0 -complete, but $\emptyset \in \Delta_0^1$.

The set of normal numbers is Π_3^0 -complete (Ki and Linton 1994) and the set of absolutely normal numbers is also Π_3^0 -complete (Becher, Heiber, and Slaman 1994).

Examples of Borel sets

In \mathbb{R} , $(a, b) \in \Sigma_0^1$, $[a, b] \in \Pi_0^1$, and $\mathbb{R} \in \Delta_0^1$.

$\mathbb{Q} \in \Sigma_2^0$, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Pi_2^0$, and $\emptyset = \mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Delta_2^0$.

Note that \mathbb{Q} is Σ_2^0 -complete, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is Π_2^0 -complete, but $\emptyset \in \Delta_0^1$.

The set of normal numbers is Π_3^0 -complete (Ki and Linton 1994) and the set of absolutely normal numbers is also Π_3^0 -complete (Becher, Heiber, and Slaman 1994).

The set of essentially nonnormal numbers is Σ_3^0 -complete (Airey, Kwietniak, Jackson, and M. in preparation).

Examples of Borel sets

In \mathbb{R} , $(a, b) \in \Sigma_0^1$, $[a, b] \in \Pi_0^1$, and $\mathbb{R} \in \Delta_0^1$.

$\mathbb{Q} \in \Sigma_2^0$, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Pi_2^0$, and $\emptyset = \mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Delta_2^0$.

Note that \mathbb{Q} is Σ_2^0 -complete, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is Π_2^0 -complete, but $\emptyset \in \Delta_0^1$.

The set of normal numbers is Π_3^0 -complete (Ki and Linton 1994) and the set of absolutely normal numbers is also Π_3^0 -complete (Becher, Heiber, and Slaman 1994).

The set of essentially nonnormal numbers is Σ_3^0 -complete (Airey, Kwietniak, Jackson, and M. in preparation).

Roman Nikiforov will explain essentially nonnormal numbers in the next talk.

Examples of Borel sets

In \mathbb{R} , $(a, b) \in \Sigma_0^1$, $[a, b] \in \Pi_0^1$, and $\mathbb{R} \in \Delta_0^1$.

$\mathbb{Q} \in \Sigma_2^0$, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Pi_2^0$, and $\emptyset = \mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \in \Delta_2^0$.

Note that \mathbb{Q} is Σ_2^0 -complete, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is Π_2^0 -complete, but $\emptyset \in \Delta_0^1$.

The set of normal numbers is Π_3^0 -complete (Ki and Linton 1994) and the set of absolutely normal numbers is also Π_3^0 -complete (Becher, Heiber, and Slaman 1994).

The set of essentially nonnormal numbers is Σ_3^0 -complete (Airey, Kwietniak, Jackson, and M. in preparation).

Roman Nikiforov will explain essentially nonnormal numbers in the next talk.

Let $X = C([0, 1])$ with the sup norm. If

$S = \{f \in X : f \text{ is nowhere differentiable}\}$, then $S \in \Pi_1^1 \setminus \Sigma_1^1$ (R. D. Mauldin 1979).

Preserving normality under addition

Let $\mathcal{N}(b)$ be the set of numbers normal in base b and let

$$\mathcal{N}^\perp(b) = \{y : \forall x \in \mathcal{N}(b) (x + y) \in \mathcal{N}(b)\}.$$

be the set of numbers that preserve normality in base b under addition.

Preserving normality under addition

Let $\mathcal{N}(b)$ be the set of numbers normal in base b and let

$$\mathcal{N}^\perp(b) = \{y : \forall x \in \mathcal{N}(b) (x + y) \in \mathcal{N}(b)\}.$$

be the set of numbers that preserve normality in base b under addition.

It can easily be shown that $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathcal{N}^\perp(b)$. But it is not clear if $\mathcal{N}^\perp(b)$ is even a Borel set.

Preserving normality under addition

Let $\mathcal{N}(b)$ be the set of numbers normal in base b and let

$$\mathcal{N}^\perp(b) = \{y : \forall x \in \mathcal{N}(b) (x + y) \in \mathcal{N}(b)\}.$$

be the set of numbers that preserve normality in base b under addition.

It can easily be shown that $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathcal{N}^\perp(b)$. But it is not clear if $\mathcal{N}^\perp(b)$ is even a Borel set.

G. Rauzy gave a complete characterization of $\mathcal{N}^\perp(b)$ in 1976. As a consequence of this characterization, it can be shown that $\mathcal{N}^\perp(b)$ is Borel and that $\mathcal{N}^\perp(b) \in \mathbf{\Pi}_3^0$.

Preserving normality under addition

For any positive integer length ℓ , let \mathcal{E}_ℓ denote the set of functions from b^ℓ to b . We call an $E \in \mathcal{E}_\ell$ a *block function* of width ℓ .

Preserving normality under addition

For any positive integer length ℓ , let \mathcal{E}_ℓ denote the set of functions from b^ℓ to b . We call an $E \in \mathcal{E}_\ell$ a *block function* of width ℓ .

We set, for $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\beta_\ell(x, N) = \inf_{E \in \mathcal{E}_\ell} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n < N} \inf\{1, |c_n - E(c_{n+1}, \dots, c_{n+\ell})|\},$$

where $x = 0.c_0c_1c_2\dots$ in base b .

Preserving normality under addition

We then define the lower and upper noises $\beta^-(x)$, $\beta^+(x)$ of x by:

$$\beta^-(x) = \lim_{\ell \rightarrow \infty} \beta_\ell^-(x),$$

where

$$\beta_\ell^-(x) = \liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \beta_\ell(x, N).$$

Preserving normality under addition

We then define the lower and upper noises $\beta^-(x)$, $\beta^+(x)$ of x by:

$$\beta^-(x) = \lim_{\ell \rightarrow \infty} \beta_\ell^-(x),$$

where

$$\beta_\ell^-(x) = \liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \beta_\ell(x, N).$$

The upper noise $\beta^+(x)$ is defined similarly using

$$\beta^+(x) = \lim_{\ell \rightarrow \infty} \beta_\ell^+(x)$$

where

$$\beta_\ell^+(x) = \limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \beta_\ell(x, N).$$

Preserving normality under addition

Let $s \in [0, \frac{b-1}{b}]$. Let

$$A_1(s) = \{x: \beta^-(x) \leq s\}, \quad A_2(s) = \{x: \beta^-(x) \geq s\}$$

$$A_3(s) = \{x: \beta^+(x) \leq s\}, \quad A_4(s) = \{x: \beta^+(x) \geq s\}$$

Preserving normality under addition

Let $s \in [0, \frac{b-1}{b}]$. Let

$$A_1(s) = \{x: \beta^-(x) \leq s\}, \quad A_2(s) = \{x: \beta^-(x) \geq s\}$$

$$A_3(s) = \{x: \beta^+(x) \leq s\}, \quad A_4(s) = \{x: \beta^+(x) \geq s\}$$

Theorem(G. Rauzy 1976) $\mathcal{N}^\perp(b) = A_3(0)$ and $\mathcal{N}(b) = A_2(\frac{b-1}{b})$.

Preserving normality under addition

Let $s \in [0, \frac{b-1}{b}]$. Let

$$A_1(s) = \{x: \beta^-(x) \leq s\}, \quad A_2(s) = \{x: \beta^-(x) \geq s\}$$

$$A_3(s) = \{x: \beta^+(x) \leq s\}, \quad A_4(s) = \{x: \beta^+(x) \geq s\}$$

Theorem(G. Rauzy 1976) $\mathcal{N}^\perp(b) = A_3(0)$ and $\mathcal{N}(b) = A_2(\frac{b-1}{b})$.

Note that $\beta^+(x) = 0$ is equivalent to

$\forall \epsilon \in \mathbb{Q}^+ \exists M, L \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall N > M, \ell > L$ we have $\beta_\ell^-(x, N) < \epsilon$

Preserving normality under addition

Let $s \in [0, \frac{b-1}{b}]$. Let

$$A_1(s) = \{x: \beta^-(x) \leq s\}, \quad A_2(s) = \{x: \beta^-(x) \geq s\}$$

$$A_3(s) = \{x: \beta^+(x) \leq s\}, \quad A_4(s) = \{x: \beta^+(x) \geq s\}$$

Theorem(G. Rauzy 1976) $\mathcal{N}^\perp(b) = A_3(0)$ and $\mathcal{N}(b) = A_2(\frac{b-1}{b})$.

Note that $\beta^+(x) = 0$ is equivalent to

$\forall \epsilon \in \mathbb{Q}^+ \exists M, L \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall N > M, \ell > L$ we have $\beta_\ell^-(x, N) < \epsilon$

Thus, it follows by Rauzy's theorem that $\mathcal{N}^\perp(b)$ is a Borel set and is a Π_0^3 set.

Theorem(Airey, Jackson, M.) For any $s \in [0, \frac{b-1}{b})$, the set $A_1(s)$ is Π_4^0 -complete and the set $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -complete. For any $s \in (0, \frac{b-1}{b}]$, the set $A_2(s)$ is Π_3^0 -complete, and the set $A_4(s)$ is Π_2^0 -complete.

Theorem(Airey, Jackson, M.) For any $s \in [0, \frac{b-1}{b})$, the set $A_1(s)$ is Π_4^0 -complete and the set $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -complete. For any $s \in (0, \frac{b-1}{b}]$, the set $A_2(s)$ is Π_3^0 -complete, and the set $A_4(s)$ is Π_2^0 -complete.

Put $H(s) = -s \log s - (1-s) \log(1-s)$. For $s \in [0, \frac{b-1}{b}]$ we have

$$\dim_H(A_1(s)) = 1$$

$$\dim_H(A_2(s)) = 1$$

$$\frac{1}{\log b} H(s) + \frac{\log(b-1)}{\log b} s \leq \dim_H(A_3(s)) \leq \frac{1}{\log b} H(s) + s$$

$$\dim_H(A_4(s)) = 1.$$

Wadge reduction

Let X and Y be Polish spaces and let $A \subseteq X$ and $B \subseteq Y$ along with a continuous function $f : Y \rightarrow X$ where $f^{-1}(A) = B$. Then if B is Σ_α^0 -complete (resp. Π_α^0 -complete), then A is Σ_α^0 -hard (Π_α^0 -hard).

Wadge reduction

Let X and Y be Polish spaces and let $A \subseteq X$ and $B \subseteq Y$ along with a continuous function $f : Y \rightarrow X$ where $f^{-1}(A) = B$. Then if B is Σ_α^0 -complete (resp. Π_α^0 -complete), then A is Σ_α^0 -hard (Π_α^0 -hard).

The function f reduces the question of membership in A to membership in B .

Wadge reduction

Let X and Y be Polish spaces and let $A \subseteq X$ and $B \subseteq Y$ along with a continuous function $f : Y \rightarrow X$ where $f^{-1}(A) = B$. Then if B is Σ_α^0 -complete (resp. Π_α^0 -complete), then A is Σ_α^0 -hard (Π_α^0 -hard).

The function f reduces the question of membership in A to membership in B .

We will use Wadge reduction to prove that for all $s \in [0, \frac{b-1}{b})$, the set $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard and thus Π_3^0 -complete.

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

The set

$$P = \left\{ x = (x_{ij}) \in 2^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}} : \forall i \exists j_0 \forall j \geq j_0 x_{ij} = 0 \right\}$$

is Π_3^0 -complete. Thus, we will construct a mapping from $Y = 2^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}}$ to $X = \mathbb{R}$ where each member of P is mapped to a number with upper noise $\leq s$ and each member not in P is mapped to a number with upper noise $> s$.

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

Let

$$\mathbf{p}_n = (p_{n,0}, p_{n,1}, \dots, p_{n,b-1})$$

be a probability vector such that

$$1 - \max_{0 \leq d \leq b-1} p_{n,d} = 1 - p_{n,0} = s + \frac{1 - s - 1/b}{n},$$

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

Let

$$\mathbf{p}_n = (p_{n,0}, p_{n,1}, \dots, p_{n,b-1})$$

be a probability vector such that

$$1 - \max_{0 \leq d \leq b-1} p_{n,d} = 1 - p_{n,0} = s + \frac{1 - s - 1/b}{n},$$

so that 0 is the most common digit in the Besicovitch-Eggleston set corresponding to \mathbf{p}_n . Let u_n be any real number in this set with independent digits.

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

It can be shown that $\beta(u_n) = s + \frac{1-s-1/b}{n}$ by using the constant zero function in the definition of noise.

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

It can be shown that $\beta(u_n) = s + \frac{1-s-1/b}{n}$ by using the constant zero function in the definition of noise.

Key properties

1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta(u_n) = s$
2. $\beta(u_n) > s \forall n$

Next, partition \mathbb{N} into consecutive blocks B_1, B_2, \dots whose length is growing VERY rapidly.

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

It can be shown that $\beta(u_n) = s + \frac{1-s-1/b}{n}$ by using the constant zero function in the definition of noise.

Key properties

1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta(u_n) = s$
2. $\beta(u_n) > s \forall n$

Next, partition \mathbb{N} into consecutive blocks B_1, B_2, \dots whose length is growing VERY rapidly.

Let $\sigma \in 2^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}}$ and $m(\sigma, n) = \min\{i : \sigma_{i,n} = 1\}$.

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

It can be shown that $\beta(u_n) = s + \frac{1-s-1/b}{n}$ by using the constant zero function in the definition of noise.

Key properties

1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta(u_n) = s$
2. $\beta(u_n) > s \forall n$

Next, partition \mathbb{N} into consecutive blocks B_1, B_2, \dots whose length is growing VERY rapidly.

Let $\sigma \in 2^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}}$ and $m(\sigma, n) = \min\{i : \sigma_{i,n} = 1\}$.

So $\sigma \in P$ if and only if $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(\sigma, n) = \infty$.

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

We now construct the continuous mapping $\pi : 2^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows

$$\pi(\sigma)(k) = u_{m(\sigma, n)} \left(k - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \#B_i \right).$$

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

We now construct the continuous mapping $\pi : 2^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows

$$\pi(\sigma)(k) = u_{m(\sigma, n)} \left(k - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \#B_i \right).$$

Thus, we are writing down digits from the $m(\sigma, n)$ 'th member of the sequence (u_i) in B_n .

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

We now construct the continuous mapping $\pi : 2^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows

$$\pi(\sigma)(k) = u_{m(\sigma,n)} \left(k - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \#B_i \right).$$

Thus, we are writing down digits from the $m(\sigma, n)$ 'th member of the sequence (u_i) in B_n .

So,

$$\beta^+(\pi(\sigma)) = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta^+(u_{m(\sigma,n)})$$

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

We now construct the continuous mapping $\pi : 2^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows

$$\pi(\sigma)(k) = u_{m(\sigma,n)} \left(k - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \#B_i \right).$$

Thus, we are writing down digits from the $m(\sigma, n)$ 'th member of the sequence (u_i) in B_n .

So,

$$\beta^+(\pi(\sigma)) = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta^+(u_{m(\sigma,n)})$$

If $\sigma \in P$, $m(\sigma, n) \rightarrow \infty$, so $\beta^+(\pi(\sigma)) = s$.

If $\sigma \notin P$, $m(\sigma, n) \not\rightarrow \infty$, so $\beta^+(\pi(\sigma)) > s$.

The proof that $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard

We now construct the continuous mapping $\pi : 2^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows

$$\pi(\sigma)(k) = u_{m(\sigma, n)} \left(k - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \#B_i \right).$$

Thus, we are writing down digits from the $m(\sigma, n)$ 'th member of the sequence (u_i) in B_n .

So,

$$\beta^+(\pi(\sigma)) = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta^+(u_{m(\sigma, n)})$$

If $\sigma \in P$, $m(\sigma, n) \rightarrow \infty$, so $\beta^+(\pi(\sigma)) = s$.

If $\sigma \notin P$, $m(\sigma, n) \not\rightarrow \infty$, so $\beta^+(\pi(\sigma)) > s$.

The function π depends on only finitely many digits so it is continuous. Thus, $A_3(s)$ is Π_3^0 -hard.