## **Uncomputably Noisy Ergodic Limits**

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**Abstract** V'yugin has shown that there are a computable shift-invariant measure on  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$  and a simple function f such that there is no computable bound on the rate of convergence of the ergodic averages  $A_n f$ . Here it is shown that in fact one can construct an example with the property that there is no computable bound on the complexity of the limit; that is, there is no computable bound on how complex a simple function needs to be to approximate the limit to within a given  $\varepsilon$ .

Let  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$  denote Cantor space, the space of functions from  $\mathbb{N}$  to the discrete space  $\{0, 1\}$  under the product topology. Viewing elements of this space as infinite sequences, for any finite sequence  $\sigma$  of 0's and 1's let  $[\sigma]$  denote the set of elements of  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$  that extend  $\sigma$ . The collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of Borel sets in the standard topology are generated by the set of such  $[\sigma]$ . For each k, let  $\mathcal{B}_k$  denote the finite  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the partition  $\{[\sigma] \mid \text{length}(\sigma) = k\}$ . If a function f from  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$  to  $\mathbb{Q}$  is measurable with respect to  $\mathcal{B}_k$ , I will call it a *simple function* with *complexity at most* k.

Let  $\mu$  be any probability measure on  $(2^{\mathbb{N}}, \mathcal{B})$ , and let f be any element of  $L^{1}(\mu)$ . Say that a function k from  $\mathbb{Q}^{+}$  to  $\mathbb{N}$  is a *bound on the complexity of* f if, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a simple function g of complexity at most  $k(\varepsilon)$  such that  $||f - g|| < \varepsilon$ . If  $(f_n)$  is any convergent sequence of elements of  $L^{1}(\mu)$  with limit f, say that  $r(\varepsilon)$  is a *bound on the rate of convergence of*  $(f_n)$  if, for every  $n \ge r(\varepsilon)$ ,  $||f_n - f|| < \varepsilon$ . (One can also consider rates of convergence in any of the  $L^p$ -norms for 1 , or in measure. Since all the sequences considered below are uniformly bounded, this does not affect the results.)

Now suppose that  $\mu$  is a computable measure on  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$  in the sense of computable measure theory (see Hoyrup [1], Weihrauch [4]). Then if f is any computable element of  $L^1(\mu)$ , there is a computable sequence  $(f_n)$  of simple functions that approaches f with a computable rate of convergence  $r(\varepsilon)$ ; this is essentially what it *means* to be a computable element of  $L^1(\mu)$ . In particular, setting  $k(\varepsilon)$  equal to the

Received May 3, 2011; accepted October 17, 2011 2010 Mathematics Subject Classification: Primary 03F60; Secondary 37A25 Keywords: ergodic theorems, computable analysis © 2012 by University of Notre Dame 10.1215/00294527-1716757 complexity of  $f_{r(\varepsilon)}$  provides a computable bound on the complexity of f. But the converse need not hold: if r is any noncomputable real number and f is the constant function with value r, then f is not computable, even though there is a trivial bound on its complexity.

It is not hard to compute a sequence of simple functions  $(f_n)$  that converges to a function f even in the  $L^{\infty}$ -norm, with the property that there is no computable bound on the complexity of the limit, with respect to the standard coin-flipping measure on  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ . Notice that this is stronger than saying that there is no computable bound on the rate of convergence of  $(f_n)$  to f; it says that there is no way of computing bounds on the complexity of *any* sequence of good approximations to f.

To describe such a sequence, for each k, let  $h_k$  be the  $\mathcal{B}_k$ -measurable Rademacher function defined by

$$h_k = \sum_{\{\sigma \mid \text{length}(\sigma) = k\}} (-1)^{\sigma_{k-1}} \mathbf{1}_{[\sigma]},$$

where  $\sigma_{k-1}$  denotes the last bit of  $\sigma$  and  $1_{[\sigma]}$  denotes the characteristic function of the cylinder set  $[\sigma]$ . Intuitively,  $h_k$  is a "noisy" function of complexity k. Finally, let  $f_n = \sum_{i \le n} 4^{-\varphi(i)} h_i$ , where  $\varphi$  is an injective enumeration of any computably enumerable set, like the halting problem, that is not computable. Given any m, if nis large enough so that  $\varphi(j) > m$  whenever j > n, then for every i > n and every x we have  $|f_i(x) - f_n(x)| \le \sum_{j \ge m} 4^{-j} < 1/(3 \cdot 4^m)$ . Thus the sequence  $(f_n)$ converges in the  $L^{\infty}$ -norm. At the same time, it is not hard to verify that if f is the  $L^1$ -limit of this sequence and g is a simple function of complexity at most n such that  $\mu(\{x \mid |g(x) - f(x)| > 4^{-(m+1)}\}) < 1/2$ , then m is in the range of  $\varphi$  from any bound on the complexity of f.

The sequence  $(f_n)$  just constructed is contrived, and one can ask whether similar sequences arise "in nature." Letting  $A_n f$  denote the ergodic average  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i < n} f \circ T_n$ , the mean ergodic theorem implies that for every measure  $\mu$  on  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$  and f in  $L^1(\mu)$ , the sequence  $(A_n f)$  converges in the  $L^1$ -norm. However, V'yugin [2], [3] has shown that there is a computable shift-invariant measure  $\mu$  on Cantor space such that there is no computable bound on the rate of convergence of  $(A_n 1_{[1]})$ . In V'yugin's construction, the limit does not have the property described in the last paragraph; in fact, it is very easy to bound the complexity of the limit in question, which places a noncomputable mass on the string of 0's and the string of 1's, and is otherwise homogeneous. The next theorem shows, however, that there are computable measures  $\mu$  such that the limit does have this stronger property.

**Theorem** There is a computable shift-invariant measure  $\mu$  on  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$  such that if  $f = \lim_{n \to \infty} A_n \mathbf{1}_{[1]}$ , the halting problem can be computed from any bound on the complexity of f.

**Proof** If  $\sigma$  is any finite binary sequence, let  $\sigma^*$  denote the element  $\sigma\sigma\sigma...$  of Cantor space. For each *e*, define a measure  $\mu_e$  as follows. If Turing machine *e* halts in *s* steps, let  $\mu_e$  put mass uniformly on these 8*s* elements:

- all 4*s* shifts of  $(1^{s}0^{3s})^{*}$ ,
- all 4*s* shifts of  $(1^{3s}0^s)^*$ .

Otherwise, let  $\mu_e$  divide mass uniformly between 0<sup>\*</sup> and 1<sup>\*</sup>. Each measure  $\mu_e$  is shift invariant, by construction. I will show, first, that  $\mu_e$  is computable uniformly

in *e*, which is to say, there is a single algorithm that, given *e*,  $\sigma$ , and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , computes  $\mu_e([\sigma])$  to within  $\varepsilon$ . I will then show that information as to the complexity needed to approximate *f* in  $(2^{\omega}, \mathcal{B}, \mu_e)$  allows one to determine whether or not Turing machine *e* halts. The desired conclusion is then obtained by defining  $\mu = \sum_e 2^{-(e+1)} \mu_e$ .

If Turing machine *e* does not halt,  $\mu_e([\sigma]) = 1/2$  if  $\sigma$  is a string of 0's or a string of 1's, and  $\mu_e([\sigma]) = 0$  otherwise. Suppose, on the other hand, that Turing machine *e* halts in *s* steps, and suppose that k < s. Then there are 2(k - 1) additional strings  $\sigma$  with length *k* such that  $\mu_e([\sigma]) > 0$ , each consisting of a string of 1's followed by a string of 0's or vice versa. For each of these  $\sigma$ ,  $\mu_e([\sigma]) = 1/4s$ , and if  $\sigma$  is a string of 0's or a string of 1's of length k,  $\mu_e([\sigma]) = 1/2 - (k-1)/4s$ . Thus when *s* is large compared to *k*, the nonhalting case provides a good approximation to  $\mu_e([\sigma])$  when length( $\sigma$ )  $\leq k$ , even though *e* eventually halts. Thus, to compute  $\mu_e([\sigma])$  to within  $\varepsilon$ , it suffices to simulate the *e*th Turing machine  $O(k/\varepsilon)$  steps. If it halts before then, that determines  $\mu_e$  exactly; otherwise, the nonhalting approximation is close enough.

Now consider  $f = \lim_{n} A_n \mathbf{1}_{[1]}$  in  $(2^{\omega}, \mathcal{B}, \mu_e)$ . Note that  $(A_n \mathbf{1}_{[1]})(\omega)$  counts the density of 1's among the first *n* bits of  $\omega$ . If Turing machine *e* does not halt,  $f(\omega) = 1$  if  $\omega$  is the sequence of 1's, and  $f(\omega) = 0$  if  $\omega$  is the sequence of 0's. Up to a.e. equivalence, these are all that matters, since the mass concentrates on these two elements of Cantor space. If Turing machine *e* halts in *s* steps, then  $f(\omega) = 1/4$ on the shifts of  $(1^s 0^{3s})^*$ , and  $f(\omega) = 3/4$  on the shifts of  $(1^{3s} 0^s)^*$ .

Suppose that g is  $\mathcal{B}_k$ -measurable. If Turing machine e halts in s steps and k is much less than s, then roughly 3/4 of the shifts of  $(1^{s}0^{3s})^*$  lie in  $[0^k]$  and roughly 1/4 lie in  $[1^k]$ ; and roughly 3/4 of the shifts of  $(1^{3s}0^s)^*$  lie in  $[1^k]$  and roughly 1/4 lie in  $0^k$ . But  $f(\omega)$  only takes on the values 1/4 and 3/4, and g is constant on  $[0^k]$  and  $[1^k]$ . So if k is much less than s,  $\mu_e(\{\omega \mid | f(\omega) - g(\omega)| > 1/8\}) > 1/4$ . Turning this around, given the information that  $\mu_e(\{\omega \mid | f(\omega) - g(\omega)| > 1/8\}) \le 1/4$  for some g of complexity at most k enables one to determine whether or not Turing machine e halts; namely, one simulates the Turing machine for O(k) steps, and if it has not halted by then, it never will.

Set  $\mu = \sum_{e} 2^{-(e+1)} \mu_{e}$ . Since, for any g,

$$\mu_e\big(\big\{\omega \mid |f(\omega) - g(\omega)| > 1/8\big\}\big) \le \mu\big(\big\{\omega \mid |f(\omega) - g(\omega)| > 1/(8 \cdot 2^{e+1})\big\}\big),$$

knowing a  $k_e$  for each e with the property that  $\mu(\{\omega \mid |f(\omega) - g(\omega)| > 1/(8 \cdot 2^{e+1})\} < 1/4$  for some g of complexity at most  $k_e$  enables one to solve the halting problem. But such a  $k_e$  can be obtained from a bound on the complexity of f. Thus  $\mu$  satisfies the statement of the theorem.

The proof above relativizes, so for any set *X* there is a measure  $\mu$  on  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ , computable from *X*, such that no bound on the rate of complexity of *f* can be computed from *X*. As the following corollary shows, this implies that  $\lim_{n \to \infty} A_n 1_{[1]}$  can have arbitrarily high complexity.

**Corollary** For any  $v : \mathbb{Q}^+ \to \mathbb{N}$  there is a measure  $\mu$  on  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$  such that if  $f = \lim_n A_n \mathbb{1}_{[1]}$  and  $k(\varepsilon)$  is a bound on the complexity of f, then  $\limsup_{\varepsilon \to 0} k(\varepsilon) / v(\varepsilon) = \infty$ .

**Proof** Let  $\mu$  be such that no bound on the complexity of f can be computed from v. If the conclusion failed for some k, then there would be a rational  $\varepsilon' > 0$  and N such that for every  $\varepsilon < \varepsilon', k(\varepsilon) < N \cdot v(\varepsilon)$ . But then  $k'(\varepsilon) = N \cdot v(\min(\varepsilon, \varepsilon'))$  would

be a bound on the complexity of f that is computable from v, contrary to our choice of  $\mu$ .

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