# Base Invariance of Feasible Dimension 

John M. Hitchcock* Elvira Mayordomo!

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#### Abstract

Effective fractal dimensions were introduced by Lutz (2003) in order to study the dimensions of individual sequences and quantitatively analyze the structure of complexity classes. Interesting connections of effective dimensions with information theory were also found, implying that constructive dimension as well as polynomial-space dimension are invariant under base-change while finite-state dimension is not.

We consider the intermediate case, polynomial-time dimension, and prove that it is indeed invariant under base-change by a nontrivial argument which is quite different from the Kolmogorov complexity ones used in the other cases.

Polynomial-time dimension can be characterized in terms of prediction-loss-rate, entropy, and compression algorithms. Our result implies that in an asymptotic way each of these concepts is invariant under base-change.

A corollary of the main theorem is any polynomial-time dimension 1 number (which may be established in any base) is an absolutely normal number, providing an interesting source of absolute normality.


## 1 Introduction

Effective fractal dimensions were introduced by Lutz in order to quantitatively analyze the structure of complexity classes [17] and study the dimensions of individual sequences [18]. Polynomial-time dimension, or feasible dimension, is the polynomial-time effectivization of Hausdorff dimension [17] in the space of infinite sequences over a finite alphabet. Important applications in computational complexity have been found including circuit-size complexity, polynomial-time degrees, the size of NP, zero-one laws, and oracle classes. See $[19,11,9]$ for a summary of the main results on effective dimensions. In this paper we prove that polynomial-time dimension is invariant under base change, that is, for different bases the polynomial-time dimension of sequences corresponding to the same set of real numbers coincides.

The concept of randomness of a real number can be naturally defined from the randomness of the binary infinite sequence that represents this number. The choice of base two representation here is an arbitrary one-base three, base four, or any other base would work just as well-they

[^0]all yield the same randomness notions [7,6]. Surprisingly, when looking at effective versions of randomness one choice of base may not be equivalent to other base representations. For instance, in finite-state randomness and dimension [8] it is known that both randomness and dimension 1 sequences coincide with the normal sequences (consequence of $[5,21]$ ), and therefore both finitestate randomness and dimension are not invariant under base change, since the existence of nonabsolutely normal sequences is known [20]. On the other hand, Martin-Löf randomness [9, 7] and constructive dimension [18] can be easily proven to be base-invariant by standard Kolmogorov complexity arguments, and for the same reason pspace-randomness [16] and pspace-dimension [17] are base invariant.

We study an intermediate case, polynomial-time resource-bounds, and prove that polynomialtime dimension (p-dimension) is invariant under base change. The proof is nontrivial since base change is not an honest function (defined in [2]), in fact for infinitely many cases it is arbitrarily length-decreasing. Consider for instance the process of changing the real number 0.5 (in decimal notation) from base 3 to base 2. When given successively longer finite prefixes of the infinite base 3 representation $0.1111 \ldots$, there are always two possible candidates for finite prefixes of a base 2 representation. This makes any (time-bounded) randomness argument more complicated, while the Kolmogorov complexity of both candidates is very close. Very recently p-randomness has been proven base-invariant [22], a result incomparable to ours.
p-dimension can be characterized in terms of prediction loss rate [10], entropy [13], and compression algorithms [15]. Our result implies that in an asymptotic way each of those concepts is invariant under base-change.

Another consequence of our main result is that p-dimension 1 numbers are absolutely normal, thus providing an interesting source of absolute normality.

Strong-p-dimension [1], a concept dual to p-dimension that is the effectivization of packing dimension from fractal geometry is also base-invariant, which can be proven with an argument similar to that used in the proof of our main theorem.

## 2 Preliminaries

## 2.1 p-dimension

For any natural number $k \geq 2$, we let $\Sigma_{k}=\{0, \ldots, k-1\}$ be a $k$-symbol alphabet. $\Sigma_{k}^{*}$ denotes the set of finite strings over alphabet $\Sigma_{k}, \Sigma_{k}^{\infty}$ denotes infinite sequences over alphabet $\Sigma_{k}$.

For $0 \leq i \leq j$, we write $x[i \ldots j]$ for the string consisting of the $i$-th through the $j$-th symbols of $x$. We use $\lambda$ for the empty string.
Definition. Let $s \in[0, \infty)$. An $s$-gale on $\Sigma_{k}$ is a function $d: \Sigma_{k}^{*} \rightarrow[0, \infty)$ satisfying

$$
d(w)=k^{-s} \sum_{a \in \Sigma_{k}} d(w a)
$$

for all $w \in \Sigma_{k}^{*}$.
Definition. Let $s \in[0, \infty)$ and $d$ be an $s$-gale. We say that $d$ succeeds on a sequence $S \in \Sigma_{k}^{\infty}$ if

$$
\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} d(S[0 \ldots n])=\infty
$$

The success set of $d$ is

$$
S^{\infty}[d]=\left\{S \in \Sigma_{k}^{\infty} \mid d \text { succeeds on } S\right\}
$$

Definition. We say that a function $d: \Sigma_{k}^{*} \rightarrow[0, \infty)$ is $p$-computable if there is a function $\hat{d}$ : $\Sigma_{k}^{*} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ such that $\hat{d}(w, r)$ is computable in time polynomial in $|w|+r$ and $|\hat{d}(w, r)-d(w)| \leq 2^{-r}$ holds for all $w$ and $r$.

We say that a function $d: \Sigma_{k}^{*} \rightarrow[0, \infty) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ is exactly $p$-computable if $d(w)$ is computable in time polynomial in $|w|$.
Definition. Let $X \subseteq \Sigma_{k}^{\infty}$, The $p$-dimension of $X$ is

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(k)}(X)=\inf \left\{\begin{array}{l|l}
s \in[0, \infty) & \begin{array}{l}
\text { there is a p-computable } s \text {-gale } d \text { s.t. } \\
X \subseteq S^{\infty}[d]
\end{array}
\end{array}\right\}
$$

By the exact computation lemma in [17] p-computable and exactly p-computable gales are interchangeable in the definition above.

Theorem 2.1 Let $X \subseteq \Sigma_{k}^{\infty}$,

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(k)}(X)=\inf \left\{\begin{array}{l|l}
s \in[0, \infty) & \begin{array}{l}
\text { there is an exactly } p \text {-computable s-gale d s.t. } \\
X \subseteq S^{\infty}[d]
\end{array}
\end{array}\right\} .
$$

For a complete introduction and motivation of effective dimension see [19].

### 2.2 Representations of Reals

We will use infinite sequences over $\Sigma_{k}$ to represent real numbers in $[0,1)$. For this, we associate each string $w \in \Sigma_{k}^{*}$ with the half-open interval $[w]_{k}$ defined by $[w]_{k}=\left[x, x+k^{-|w|}\right.$ ), for $x=\sum_{i=1}^{|w|} w[i-1] k^{-i}$. Each real number $\alpha \in[0,1)$ is then represented by the unique sequence $S_{k}(\alpha) \in \Sigma_{k}^{\infty}$ satisfying

$$
w \sqsubseteq S_{k}(\alpha) \Longleftrightarrow \alpha \in[w]_{k}
$$

for all $w \in \Sigma_{k}^{*}$. We have

$$
\alpha=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} S_{k}(\alpha)[i-1] k^{-i}
$$

and the mapping $\alpha \mapsto S_{k}(\alpha)$ is a bijection from $[0,1)$ to $\Sigma_{k}^{\infty}$ (notice that $[w]_{k}$ being half-open prevents double representations). If $x \in \Sigma_{k}^{\infty}$ then $\operatorname{real}_{k}(x)=\alpha$ such that $x=S_{k}(\alpha)$. Therefore we always have that $\operatorname{real}_{k}\left(S_{k}(\alpha)\right)=\alpha$ and $S_{k}\left(\operatorname{real}_{k}(x)\right)=x$. A set of real numbers $A \subseteq[0,1)$ is represented by the set

$$
X_{k}(A)=\left\{S_{k}(\alpha) \mid \alpha \in A\right\}
$$

of sequences. If $X \subseteq \Sigma_{k}^{\infty}$ then

$$
\operatorname{real}_{k}(X)=\left\{\operatorname{real}_{k}(x) \mid x \in X\right\}
$$

The question addressed in this paper is the following. Is the feasible dimension of a set $A \subseteq$ $[0,1)$ invariant with respect to the base used for representation? That is, if we define $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}(A)=$ $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(k)}\left(X_{k}(A)\right)$, is this definition robust when $k$ changes?

### 2.3 Normality and finite-state dimension

We next include Borel's definition of normal and absolutely normal number [4].
Definition. A real number $\alpha$ is normal in a base $k \geq 2$ if, for every $m \geq 1$ and every $w \in \Sigma_{k}^{m}$, the following holds

$$
\lim _{n} \frac{\left|\left\{i<n \mid S_{k}(\alpha)[i-m+1 . . i]=w\right\}\right|}{n}=k^{-m} .
$$

That is, the asymptotic, empirical frequency of $w$ in the base- $k$ expansion of $\alpha$ is $k^{-m}$.
Definition. A real number $\alpha$ is absolutely normal if it is normal in every base $k \geq 2$.
Finite-state dimension is defined in [8].
Definition. A finite-state gambler is a 5 -tuple $G=\left(Q, \delta, \beta, q_{0}, c_{0}\right)$, where

- $Q$ is a nonempty, finite set of states,
- $\delta: Q \times \Sigma_{k} \rightarrow Q$ is the transition function,
- $\beta: Q \times \Sigma_{k} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} \cap[0,1]$, with the property $\sum_{i \in \Sigma_{k}} \beta(q, i)=1$ for every $q \in Q$ is the betting function,
- $q_{0} \in Q$ is the initial state, and
- $c_{0}$, the initial capital, is a nonnegative rational number.

Definition. Let $s \in[0, \infty) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ and $d$ be an $s$-gale. $d$ is finite-state computable if there is a finite-state gambler $G$ such that $d$ is the $s$-gale computed by $G$, that is, if $G=\left(Q, \delta, \beta, q_{0}, c_{0}\right)$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d(\lambda)=c_{0} \\
& d(w i)=d(w) \cdot k^{s} \cdot \beta\left(\delta^{*}\left(q_{0}, w\right), i\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $w \in \Sigma_{k}^{*}$ and $i \in \Sigma_{k}$.
Definition. Let $X \subseteq \Sigma_{k}^{\infty}$, The $F S$-dimension of $X$ is

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{FS}}^{(k)}(X)=\inf \left\{\begin{array}{l|l}
s \in[0, \infty) & \begin{array}{l}
\text { there is a finite-state-computable } s \text {-gale } d \text { s.t. } \\
X \subseteq S^{\infty}[d]
\end{array}
\end{array}\right\}
$$

We also consider the finite-state dimension of a single sequence. $x \in \Sigma_{k}^{\infty}, \operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{FS}}^{(k)}(\{x\})$.
Schnorr and Stimm [21] proved that normality is exactly the finite-state case of randomness. Then [5] proves that finite-state randomness and dimension one coincide. A real number $\alpha$ then turns out to be normal in base $k$ if and only if $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{FS}}^{(k)}\left(\left\{S_{k}(\alpha)\right\}\right)=1[5]$.

## 3 Main Theorem

In this section we prove our main result, p-dimension is base invariant. We need the following lemma with the conversion of p-gales on $\Sigma_{l}$ to p-gales on $\Sigma_{k}$.

Lemma 3.1 Let $k, l \geq 2$. For any exactly p-computable $s$-gale $d$ on $\Sigma_{l}$ and rational $s^{\prime}>s$, there is a $p$-computable $s^{\prime}$-gale $d^{\prime}$ on $\Sigma_{k}$ such that $\left.\operatorname{real}_{l}\left(S^{\infty}[d]\right)\right) \subseteq \operatorname{real}_{k}\left(S^{\infty}\left[d^{\prime}\right]\right)$.

## Proof.

Let $d$ be an exactly p-computable $s$-gale on $\Sigma_{l}$, without loss of generality we assume that $d(\lambda)=1$. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we define a function $D_{n}: \Sigma_{k}^{*} \rightarrow[0, \infty)$ as follows. Let $m=\left\lfloor n \log _{k} l\right\rfloor$. For any $y \in \Sigma_{k}^{*}$, we define

$$
D_{n}(y)= \begin{cases}k^{s^{\prime}|y|}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\sum_{\begin{array}{c}
x \in \sum_{l}^{n} \\
{[x]_{l} \subseteq[y]_{k}}
\end{array}} d(x)+\sum_{\substack{x \in \sum_{l}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subset(y]_{k} \\
[x]_{l} \cap[y] k \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x) \\
k^{\left(s^{\prime}-1\right) \cdot(|y|-m)} D_{n}(y[0 \ldots m-1]) & \text { if }|y| \leq m \\
\end{array}\right) \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

The desired $s^{\prime}$-gale $d^{\prime}$ on $\Sigma_{k}$ is then defined by

$$
d^{\prime}(y)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} l^{-s^{\prime} n} D_{n}(y) .
$$

The intuition in the definition of $D_{n}$ and $d^{\prime}$ is that for $|y| \leq m, d^{\prime}(y)$ takes the full value of $d(x)$ for those $x$ for which $y$ is (the beginning of) the base $k$ representation of $x$, while it only takes $d(x) / 2$ for those $x$ for which we still don't know if (an extension of) $y$ will be the base $k$ representation of (an extension of) $x$. For $|y|>m$ the otherwise case makes $D_{n}$ an $s^{\prime}$-gale by fair splitting.

Claim $1 d^{\prime}$ is an $s^{\prime}$-gale on $\Sigma_{k}$.
Let $y \in \Sigma_{k}^{<m}$. For any $x \in \Sigma_{l}^{n}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[x]_{l} \subseteq[y]_{k} \Longleftrightarrow } & \left(\exists a \in \Sigma_{k}\right)[x]_{l} \subseteq[y a]_{k} \\
& \text { or }\left(\exists a \in \Sigma_{k}-\{(k-1)\}\right)[x]_{l} \subseteq[y a]_{k} \cup[y(a+1)]_{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

because $[x]_{l}$ can intersect at most two of the intervals $[y a]_{k}$ for $a \in \Sigma_{k}$. This is because $\left|[y a]_{k}\right|=$ $k^{-|y a|} \geq k^{-m} \geq k^{-n \log _{k} l}=l^{-n}=\left|[x]_{l}\right|$. For the same reason, we also have

$$
\begin{gathered}
{[x]_{l} \nsubseteq[y]_{k} \text { and }[x]_{l} \cap[y]_{k} \neq \emptyset \Longleftrightarrow} \\
{\left[\left([x]_{l} \nsubseteq[y 0]_{k} \text { and }[x]_{l} \cap[y 0]_{k} \neq \emptyset \text { and }[x]_{l} \cap[y 1]_{k}=\emptyset\right)\right. \text { or }} \\
\left.\left([x]_{l} \nsubseteq[y(k-1)]_{k} \text { and }[x]_{l} \cap[y(k-1)]_{k} \neq \emptyset \text { and }[x]_{l} \cap[y(k-2)]_{k}=\emptyset\right)\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

for any $x \in \Sigma_{l}^{n}$. By these relationships, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{\substack{\left.x \in \Sigma_{n}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subseteq \subseteq y\right]_{k}}} d(x)=\sum_{a \in \Sigma_{k}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \Sigma_{n}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subseteq[y]_{k}}} d(x)+\sum_{\substack{a \in \Sigma_{k}-\{(k-1)\}}} \sum_{\substack{\left.x \in \Sigma_{n}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subseteq[y]_{k} \cup y(y)\right]^{\prime} \\
[x]_{k} \subseteq[y]_{k} \\
[x]_{l} \in[y(a+1)]_{k}}} d(x) \\
& =\sum_{a \in \Sigma_{k}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \Sigma_{n}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subseteq[y a]_{k}}} d(x)+\sum_{\substack{\left.\left.x \in \Sigma_{n}^{n} \\
[x]^{\prime}\right][y]_{k} \neq \emptyset \\
[x]_{\imath} \cap y\right]_{k} \nmid \emptyset \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x) \\
& +\sum_{a \in \Sigma_{k}-\{0,(k-1)\}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \sum_{l}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \ell[y a]_{k} \\
[x]_{\ell} \cap(y a]_{k} \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x)+\sum_{\substack{x \in \Sigma_{n}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \cap\left[y(k-1]_{k} \neq \emptyset \\
[x]_{\imath} \cap y(y-k-2)\right]_{k} \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

this last equality follows by splitting $[x]_{l} \nsubseteq[y a]_{k}$ into the two cases $[x]_{l} \subseteq[y a]_{k} \cup[y(a+1)]_{k}$ and $[x]_{l} \subseteq[y(a-1)]_{k} \cup[y a]_{k}\left(\right.$ for $\left.a \in \Sigma_{k}-\{0,(k-1)\}\right)$.

We also have that

Combining these two sums establishes that $D_{n}$ is an $s^{\prime}$-gale on $\Sigma_{k}$ as follows. Let $y \in \Sigma_{k}^{<m}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k^{-s^{\prime}(|y|+1)} \sum_{a \in \Sigma_{k}} D_{n}(y a)=\sum_{a \in \Sigma_{k}}\left(\sum_{\substack{x \in \Sigma_{l}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subseteq[y a]_{k}}} d(x)+\sum_{\substack{\left.x \in \Sigma_{l}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \in[y]_{k} \\
[x]_{\ell} \cap y\right]_{k} \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x)\right) \\
& =\sum_{a \in \Sigma_{k}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \Sigma_{n}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subseteq[y a]_{k}}} d(x)+\sum_{a \in \Sigma_{k}} \sum_{\substack{\left.x \in \Sigma_{n}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subseteq[y]_{k} \\
[x]_{\imath} \cap[y]\right]_{k} \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x) \\
& =\sum_{a \in \Sigma_{k}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \Sigma^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subseteq[y a]_{k}}} d(x)+\sum_{\substack{x \in \Sigma_{n}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subset[y]_{k} \\
[x] \iota \cap[y 0]_{k} \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x) \\
& +\sum_{a \in \Sigma_{k}-\{0,(k-1)\}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \Sigma^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \&[y]_{k} \\
[x]_{\imath} \cap[y a]_{k} \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x)+\sum_{\substack{x \in \Sigma^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \notin[y(k-1)]_{k} \\
[x]_{l} \cap[y(k-1)]_{k} \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x) \\
& =k^{-s^{\prime}|y|}\left(\sum_{\substack{x \in \sum_{n}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subseteq[y]_{k}}} d(x)+\sum_{\substack{x \in \Sigma_{l}^{n} \\
[x]_{l} \subset[y]_{k} \\
[x]_{l} \cap[y]_{k} \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x)\right) \\
& =k^{-s^{\prime}|y|} D_{n}(y) \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$d^{\prime}$ is an infinite sum of $s^{\prime}$-gales and is therefore an $s^{\prime}$-gale.
Claim $2 d^{\prime}$ is p-computable.
We first show how to efficiently compute $D_{n}(y)$. For this, we iteratively define a sequence of sets $B_{i}^{n}(y)$ for $i=0, \ldots, n$ by

$$
B_{i}^{n}(y)=\left\{x \in \Sigma_{l}^{i} \mid[x]_{l} \subseteq[y]_{k} \text { and } x \text { has no prefix in } \bigcup_{j=0}^{i-1} B_{j}^{n}(y)\right\} .
$$

That is, $B_{i}^{n}(y)$ is the set of strings $x$ of length $i$ that represent maximal intervals included in $[y]_{k}$. We can now represent $D_{n}(y)$ for $y \in \Sigma_{k}^{\leq m}$ in the following form.

$$
D_{n}(y)=k^{s^{\prime}|y|}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{x \in B_{i}^{n}(y)} l^{s(n-i)} d(x)+\sum_{\substack{\left.x \in \sum_{l}^{n} \\[x]_{\ell \subset( } \in[]_{k} \\[x]_{\imath} \cap y\right]_{k} \neq \emptyset}} \frac{1}{2} d(x)\right)
$$

This is equivalent to the original definition of $D_{n}$ because $d$ is an $s$-gale and therefore

$$
\sum_{|u|=n-i} d(x u)=l^{s(n-i)} d(x) .
$$

Each $B_{i}^{n}(y)$ will have at most $2(l-1)$ strings, and these are easily computable by prefix extension. There are two strings to consider for the second sum, the (length $|n|$ ) predecesor of the first and the successor of the last strings in $\bigcup_{i} B_{i}^{n}(y)$.

For the p-computation of $d^{\prime}$, let $b$ be such that for every $r$,

$$
\sum_{n=b r+1}^{\infty} l^{-n\left(s^{\prime}-s\right) / 2} \leq 2^{-r}
$$

Let $c$ be such that $k^{s^{\prime}} \leq l^{\left(s^{\prime}-s\right) c / 2}$. Let

$$
f(y, r)=\sum_{n=0}^{b r+c|y|} l^{-s^{\prime} n} D_{n}(y) .
$$

Then $f$ is clearly computable in polynomial time on $|y|$ and $r$ and we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|d^{\prime}(y)-f(y, r)\right| & =\sum_{n=b r+c|y|+1}^{\infty} l^{-s^{\prime} n} D_{n}(y) \\
& \leq \sum_{n=b r+c|y|+1}^{\infty} l^{-s^{\prime} n} k^{s^{\prime}|y|} D_{n}(\lambda) \\
& =\sum_{n=b r+c|y|+1}^{\infty} l^{-s^{\prime} n} l^{s n} d(\lambda) k^{s^{\prime}|y|} \\
& \leq \sum_{n=b r+c|y|+1}^{\infty} l^{-\left(s^{\prime}-s\right) n} l^{|y|\left(s^{\prime}-s\right) c / 2} \\
& \leq \sum_{n=b r+c|y|+1}^{\infty} l^{-\left(s^{\prime}-s\right) n} l^{n\left(s^{\prime}-s\right) / 2} \\
& =\sum_{n=b r+c|y|+1}^{\infty} l^{-\left(s^{\prime}-s\right) n / 2} \\
& \leq 2^{-r} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The second and third inequalities come from the fact that both $d$ and $D_{n}$ are gales, and $d(\lambda)=1$. Then the fourth one comes from the choice of $c$ and the last one from the choice of $b$.

Notice that the computation of $d^{\prime}$ on an input of length $n$ is $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ times the computation time of $d$ on inputs of length $O(n)$.

Claim $\left.3 \operatorname{real}_{l}\left(S^{\infty}[d]\right)\right) \subseteq \operatorname{real}_{k}\left(S^{\infty}\left[d^{\prime}\right]\right)$.
Let $\alpha \in[0,1)$. Letting $x_{n}=S_{l}(\alpha)[0 . . n-1]$ and $y_{n}=S_{k}(\alpha)[0 . . m-1]$, we have $\left[y_{n}\right]_{k} \cap\left[x_{n}\right]_{l} \neq \emptyset$


Therefore if $\left.\alpha \in \operatorname{real}_{l}\left(S^{\infty}[d]\right)\right)$ then $S_{l}(\alpha) \in S^{\infty}[d]$ and since for every $n$,

$$
d^{\prime}\left(y_{n}\right) \geq l^{-s^{\prime} n} D_{n}\left(y_{n}\right) \geq l^{-s^{\prime} n} k^{s^{\prime}\left|y_{n}\right|} \frac{1}{2} d\left(x_{n}\right) \geq \frac{1}{2} d\left(x_{n}\right)
$$

we have that $S_{k}(\alpha) \in S^{\infty}\left[d^{\prime}\right]$.
We now have our main theorem.
Theorem 3.2 For any $A \subseteq[0,1)$ and $k, l \geq 2, \operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(k)}\left(X_{k}(A)\right)=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(l)}\left(X_{l}(A)\right)$.
Proof. Let $s>\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(l)}\left(X_{l}(A)\right)$. By Theorem 2.1 there is an exactly p-computable $s$-gale $d$ on $\Sigma_{l}$ such that $X_{l}(A) \subseteq S^{\infty}[d]$ thus $A \subseteq \operatorname{real}_{l}\left(S^{\infty}[d]\right)$. For each $s^{\prime}>s$ the previous lemma gives a p-computable $s^{\prime}$-gale $d^{\prime}$ on $\Sigma_{k}$ such that $\left.\operatorname{real}_{l}\left(S^{\infty}[d]\right)\right) \subseteq \operatorname{real}_{k}\left(S^{\infty}\left[d^{\prime}\right]\right)$. Therefore $X_{k}(A) \subseteq$ $S^{\infty}\left[d^{\prime}\right]$, and $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(k)}\left(X_{k}(A)\right) \leq s^{\prime}$. As $s>\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(l)}\left(X_{l}(A)\right)$ and $s^{\prime}>s$ were arbitrary, this establishes $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(k)}\left(X_{k}(A)\right) \leq \operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(l)}\left(X_{l}(A)\right)$. The converse inequality follows by a symmetric argument.

This contrasts with the fact that finite-state dimension [8] is not invariant under base change (consequence of [5, 21]). For instance, sequences with finite-state dimension 1 coincide with normal sequences [5, 21], and normality is not invariant under base change. Thus we prove that any real number for which polynomial-time dimension is 1 in a any base is absolutely normal.

Corollary 3.3 For any $x \in[0,1)$ and $k \geq 2$, if $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(k)}\left(\left\{X_{k}(x)\right\}\right)=1$ then $x$ is absolutely normal.
Proof. It is simple to see that p-dimension 1 implies finite-state dimension 1, therefore if

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(k)}\left(\left\{X_{k}(x)\right\}\right)=1
$$

then $X_{k}(x)$ has finite-state dimension 1 and therefore $x$ is normal in base $k$. By our main theorem $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}^{(l)}\left(\left\{X_{l}(x)\right\}\right)=1$ holds for every $l \geq 2$ and $x$ is normal in every base $l$.

Bienvenu [3] observed that Corollary 3.3 can be used to prove the following corollary after reading an early version [12] of the present paper. Previously Ki and Linton [14] had shown that for each fixed base $k \geq 2$, the class of $\mathcal{N}_{k}$ of numbers normal to base $k$ is $\Pi_{3}^{0}$-complete.
Corollary 3.4 (Bienvenu) The class $\mathcal{N}$ of absolutely normal numbers is $\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{3}^{0}$-complete.
Proof. Let $\mathcal{D}_{0}$ be the class of density 0 numbers, i.e. $z \in \mathcal{D}_{0}$ iff

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left|\left\{i<n \mid S_{2}(z)[i]=1\right\}\right|}{n}=0
$$

Then $\mathcal{D}_{0}$ is $\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{3}^{0}$-complete [14] under Wadge reductions, that is, for any $\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{3}^{0}$ class $\mathcal{C}$, there is a continuous function $f$ such that

$$
z \in \mathcal{C} \Longleftrightarrow f(z) \in \mathcal{D}_{0}
$$

Now fix a computable real $\beta$ of p-dimension 1. By Corollary 3.3, $\beta$ is absolutely normal.
For any real $z$, we define a reduction $g(z)=\beta^{f(z)}$ as follows. Define

$$
S_{2}\left(\beta^{f(z)}\right)[i]= \begin{cases}\beta[i] & \text { if } S_{2}(f(z))[i]=0 \\ 0 & \text { if } S_{2}(f(z))[i]=1\end{cases}
$$

Then if $z \in \mathcal{C}, f(z) \in \mathcal{D}_{0}$ has density 0 , which means $\beta$ and $\beta^{f(z)}$ have the same p-dimension, so $\beta^{f(z)} \in \mathcal{N}$ is also absolutely normal. On the other hand if $z \notin \mathcal{C}$, then $f(z) \notin \mathcal{D}_{0}$ has positive density causing $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathrm{p}}\left(\beta^{f(z)}\right)<1$, so $\beta^{f(z)}$ is not normal base two and hence not absolutely normal. Therefore $g$ is a Wadge reduction of $\mathcal{C}$ to $\mathcal{N}$.

We note that the proof of Corollary 3.4 does not require our result on p-dimension and could have in principle been proven earlier using the base invariance of pspace-dimension or constructive dimension, for example.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{*}$ Department of Computer Science, University of Wyoming, jhitchco@cs.uwyo.edu. This research was supported in part by NSF grants 9988483 and 0917417.
    ${ }^{\dagger}$ Dept. de Informática e Ingeniería de Sistemas, Instituto de Investigación en Ingeniería de Aragón (I3A), Universidad de Zaragoza, Zaragoza, SPAIN. elvira@unizar.es. Part of this work was done during a visit to the Isaac Newton Institute for Mathematical Sciences at the University of Cambridge. This work was supported by the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation (Projects TIN2008-06582-C03-02, TIN2011-27479-C04-01)

