

# Schmidt's game applied to the set of badly approximable numbers

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**Notation 1.** For any set  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  we denote with  $\rho(X)$  its diameter, i.e.  $\rho(X) = \max\{d(x, y) | x, y \in X\}$ .

Ayesha (A) and Bhupen (B) are playing a game together. The game has the following rules:

- They fix  $m \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ .
- A chooses a number  $0 < \alpha < \frac{1}{2}$  and B chooses a number  $0 < \beta < 1$ .
- B chooses a closed ball  $B_0 \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ .
- A chooses a closed ball  $A_0 \subset B_0$  such that  $\rho(A_0) = \alpha\rho(B_0)$
- B chooses a closed ball  $B_1 \subset A_0$  such that  $\rho(B_1) = \beta\rho(A_0)$
- Now A and B play alternatively: If it is A's turn, she chooses a closed ball  $A_n \subset B_n$  such that  $\rho(A_n) = \alpha\rho(B_n)$  If it is B's turn, he chooses a closed ball  $B_n \subset A_{n-1}$  such that  $\rho(B_n) = \beta\rho(A_{n-1})$

This game is called Schmidt's game after its inventor.

**Definition 2.** A set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  is called  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -winning if A can play in such a way that the unique intersection point  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n = \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} B_n \in S$  regardless of how B is playing. A set is called  $\alpha$ -winning if it is  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -winning for all  $\beta \in (0, 1)$  and it is called winning if it is  $\alpha$ -winning for some  $\alpha$ .

Informally B tries to stay away from the target  $S$  whilst A tries to land on it.

**Example 3.** Trivially  $S = \mathbb{R}^m$  is winning.

In the first theorem, we want to show a more interesting example of a winning set.

Before doing so, we want to state two properties of winning sets which we will not proof:

**Theorem 4.** The Hausdorff dimension of a winning set is maximal.

**Theorem 5.** The image by a  $C^1$ -diffeomorphism of a winning set is again a winning st.

**Theorem 6** (Schmidt, 1966). *The set  $S := \{x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } \exists c(x) > 0 : \|qx\| > \frac{c(x)}{q} \forall q \in \mathbb{N}\}$  (i.e. the set of badly approximable numbers) is winning.*

*Proof.* We can restrict ourselves to the unit interval  $[0, 1]$ . Indeed since  $\alpha, \beta < 1$ , there exists  $n, a, l \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $\rho(B_n) < 1$  and  $B_n \subset [a + \frac{1}{l}, a + 1 + \frac{1}{l}]$ . We saw that an irrational number is badly approximable if and only if the coefficients of its continued fraction are bounded. Thus we can construct a bijection between the badly approximable numbers in the unit interval and  $[a + \frac{1}{l}, a + 1 + \frac{1}{l}]$ .

Since  $0 < \alpha < \frac{1}{2}$  and  $0 < \beta < 1$ , we have that  $\alpha\beta < \frac{1}{2}$ . Thus

$$R := (\alpha\beta)^{-1} > 2$$

For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  we define

$$Q_n = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \text{ where } \gcd(p, q) = 1 : R^{\frac{n-3}{2}} \leq q < R^{\frac{n-2}{2}} \right\} \subset \mathbb{Q}$$

Note that if  $n \leq 2$  then  $\frac{n-2}{2} \leq 0$ , thus  $R^{\frac{n-2}{2}} \leq 1$  and therefore  $Q_0 = Q_1 = Q_2 = \emptyset$ . The sets  $Q_n$  are disjoint and  $\mathbb{Q} = \cup_{n=3}^{\infty} Q_n$ .

Let  $\frac{p}{q} \neq \frac{p'}{q'} \in Q_n$ . Note that  $|pq' - p'q|$  has to be a nonzero integer, thus  $|pq' - p'q| \geq 1$ . Hence

$$\left| \frac{p}{q} - \frac{p'}{q'} \right| = \left| \frac{pq' - p'q}{qq'} \right| \geq \frac{1}{|qq'|} > \frac{1}{(R^{\frac{n-2}{2}})^2} = R^{-n+2} \quad (1)$$

For  $\frac{p}{q} \in Q_n$  we define the dangerous interval as follows:

$$\Delta\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) := \left\{ x \in [0, 1] : \left| x - \frac{p}{q} \right| < \delta R^{-n} \right\}$$

where  $0 < \delta < 1$  depends on  $\alpha$  and on the first move of B and will be specified later.

Note that the dangerous interval of a fraction is either "in the middle of" the unit interval or at its boarder. (See figure 1.)

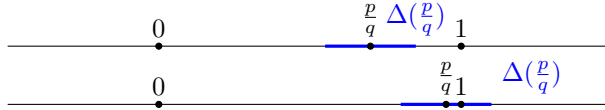


Figure 1: Two possibilities for the dangerous interval

Our goal is to show that there exists a strategy for A such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\forall \frac{p}{q} \in Q_n$ , we have

$$A_n \cap \Delta\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = \emptyset \quad (2)$$

This implies that  $x \in \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$  satisfies for all  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$  that  $|x - \frac{p}{q}| \geq \delta R^{-n}$ . Thus  $x$  is badly approximable, i.e.  $x \in \text{Bad}(1)$ .

Let  $B_0 \subset [0, 1]$  be any closed ball. Set  $\delta := \rho(B_0)(\frac{1}{2} - \alpha)$

We define  $A_n$  inductively. Thus assume that for all  $j < n$   $A_j$  is a closed interval such that equation (2) holds. If  $B_n \cap \Delta(\frac{p}{q}) = \emptyset$ , then  $A$  can choose any closed interval of  $B_n$  with diameter  $\alpha\rho(B_n)$ . Otherwise we claim that there exists a unique point  $\frac{p_n}{q_n} \in Q_n$  such that  $\Delta(\frac{p_n}{q_n})$  intersects  $B_n$ . Indeed assume there are  $\frac{p}{q} \neq \frac{p'}{q'} \in Q_n$  and  $x, x'$  such that  $x \in \Delta(\frac{p}{q}) \cap B_n$  and  $x' \in \Delta(\frac{p'}{q'}) \cap B_n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{p}{q} - \frac{p'}{q'} \right| &= \left| \frac{p}{q} - x + x - x' + x' - \frac{p'}{q'} \right| \\ &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \left| \frac{p}{q} - x \right| + |x - x'| + \left| x' - \frac{p'}{q'} \right| \stackrel{(b)}{\leq} 2\delta R^{-n} + 1 \\ &\stackrel{(c)}{=} 2\rho(B_0)\left(\frac{1}{2} - \alpha\right)R^{-n} + 1 \stackrel{(d)}{\leq} R^{-n} + 1 \stackrel{(e)}{\leq} R^{-n+2} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where (a) uses the triangle inequality, (b) follows since  $x, x' \in \Delta(\frac{p}{q})$  and  $x, x' \in B_n \subset [0, 1]$ , (c) uses the definition of  $\delta$ , (d) follows since  $\rho(B_0) \leq 1$  and  $0 < \alpha < \frac{1}{2}$  and (e) since  $R > 2$ . But  $|\frac{p}{q} - \frac{p'}{q'}| \leq R^{-n+2}$  contradicts equation (1) and thus proves the claim.

Therefore it suffices to consider two cases

1. The dangerous  $\Delta(\frac{p_n}{q_n})$  divides  $B_n$  in two intervals as in the first diagram of figure 1.

Note that the diameter of  $B_n$  is  $(\alpha\beta)^n \rho(B_0) = R^{-n} \rho(B_0)$ . The larger of both intervals has length bigger or equal than

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{1}{2}(\rho(B_n) - \rho(\Delta(\frac{p_n}{q_n}))) = \frac{1}{2}(\rho(B_n) - 2\delta R^{-n}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\rho(B_n) - 2R^{-n}\rho(B_0)(\frac{1}{2} - \alpha)) = \frac{1}{2}(\rho(B_n) - (1 - 2\alpha)\rho(B_n)) \\ &= \alpha\rho(B_n) \end{aligned}$$

2. The dangerous  $\Delta(\frac{p_n}{q_n})$  does not divide  $[0, 1]$  as in the second diagram of figure 1.

Then it is trivially possible to choose a closed interval  $A_n \subset B_n \setminus \Delta(\frac{p_n}{q_n})$  of length  $\alpha\rho(B_0)$ .

Thus we found a strategy such that condition (2) holds.  $\square$

Note that we proved a stronger statement than the theorem: We did not show that there is some choice of  $\alpha$  such that the set  $\text{Bad}(1)$  is winning, we showed that it is winning for any choice of  $\alpha$ .

Theorem 4 Together with theorem 6 imply Jarnik's theorem.

In the second theorem we want to observe how the intersection of winning sets behave.

**Theorem 7.** *The intersection of countably many  $\alpha$ -winning sets is  $\alpha$ -winning.*

Before we can to prove this theorem, we need to formalize the notation of a winning strategy.

Let  $S$  be an  $\alpha$ -winning set. Fix  $0 < \beta < 1$ . Then we can find functions  $f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots$  such that for  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f_i$  takes as arguments closed balls  $B_0, B_1, \dots, B_i$  where  $\rho(B_j) = (\alpha\beta)^j \rho(B_0)$  and  $B_0 \supset B_1 \supset \dots \supset B_i$ . The image of  $f_i(B_0, \dots, B_i)$  is a closed ball of diameter  $\alpha(\alpha\beta)^i$  contained in  $B_i$ . Moreover for  $A_i := f_i(B_0, \dots, B_i)$  we have  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in S$ . We call such a strategy a  $(\alpha, \beta; S)$ -winning strategy. Thus the  $n$ 'th move of A corresponds to the function  $f_{n-1}$ . (Note that for a given set, there might be several winning strategies and thus several sequences of functions  $\{f_i\}_i$ .)

*Proof.* Fix  $0 < \beta < 1$ . Note that independant of A's strategy, in his  $n$ 'th move B always chooses a ball  $B_{n-1}$  of diameter  $\beta\rho(A_{n-2})$ . Let  $S_0, S_1, S_2, \dots$  be countably many  $\alpha$ -winning sets. Define  $S := \bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} S_j$ . We want to show that  $S$  is  $\alpha$ -winning.

We first want to make sure that the intersection of sets chosen by A is contained in  $S_1$ . For this purpose we assume, that A can only choose her first, third, fifth, ... movement. Assume A made a choice for the set  $A_0$  such that  $\rho(A_0) = \alpha\rho(B_0)$ . What happens between the first and the third move of A? B chooses a closed ball  $B_1$  of diameter  $\beta\rho(A_0)$ , then we assume that a closed ball  $A_1$  of diameter  $\alpha\rho(B_1)$  is chosen (after some yet unknown rule) and then B chooses again a closed ball  $B_2$  of diameter  $\beta\rho(A_1) = \beta\alpha\beta\rho(A_0)$ . More generally, if for some odd  $n$  A choose a set  $A_{n-1}$  then  $B_{(n-1)+2}$  has diameter  $\beta\alpha\beta\rho(A_n)$ . Thus to ensure that  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \in S_1$ , A should chose a  $(\alpha, \beta\alpha\beta; S_1)$ -winning strategy.

Now we want to improve the strategy such that  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \in S_2$ . For the first, third, fifth,... move, A adopts the rule described above and we want to find a rule for the second, sixth, tenth,... move. Using a similar reasoning as above, we find that if A chose a ball  $A_{n-1}$  for  $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ , then the diameter of  $B_{(n-1)+4}$  is  $\beta(\alpha\beta)^3$ . Thus A should play according to a  $(\alpha, \beta(\alpha\beta)^3; S_2)$ -winning strategy.

More generally, if  $k \equiv 2^{l-1}[2^l]$  then A plays with a  $(\alpha, \beta(\alpha\beta)^{2^l-1}; S_l)$ -winning strategy to enforce that  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \in S_l$  and thus  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \in S$ .

Formally we have: For  $l = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , let  $f_0^l, f_1^l, f_2^l, \dots$  be an  $(\alpha, \beta(\alpha\beta)^{2^l-1}; S_2)$ -winning strategy.

We want to define a strategy  $f_0, f_1, f_2, \dots$  for  $S$ . Let  $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ . For  $k+1 \equiv 2^{l-1}[2^l]$  and  $k+1 = 2^{l-1} + (t-1)2^l$  Set

$$A_k := f_k(B_1, \dots, B_k) = f_t^l(B_{2^{t-1}}, B_{2^{t-1}+2^l}, \dots, B_{2^{t-1}+(t-1)2^l})$$

□

## References

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