

Turing's Normal Numbers: Towards Randomness

Verónica Becher

Universidad de Buenos Aires

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A Note on Normal Numbers

A. N. Turing

Although it is known that all numbers are normal in the Wth section it is not known.

What does it do in the Kth section? It must test whether K is satisfactory giving

of a given Kth section. It is not known whether K is satisfactory giving

On the other hand the verdict cannot be 'W'.

For if it were, then in the Kth section of its motion
be bound to compute the first $R(K-1) + 1 - R(K)$ figures of the
computed by the machine with K as its D.N. and to write

[illegible][illegible]

1. α and β are $\mathcal{O}(n)$ and $\mathcal{O}(n)$ respectively, where α is $\mathcal{O}(n)$ and β is $\mathcal{O}(n)$.
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[illegible]

4. f is linear functional on V and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

(a) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$. αf is a linear functional on V .

(b) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

(c) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

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(q) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

(r) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

(s) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

(t) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

(u) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

(v) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

(w) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

(x) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

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(z) $(\alpha f)(v) = \alpha f(v)$ for all $v \in V$.

A Note on Normal Numbers

Although it is known that almost all numbers are normal ¹⁾ no example of a normal number has ever been given. I propose to shew how normal numbers may be constructed and to prove that almost all numbers are normal constructively

Consider the R -figure integers in the scale of t ($t \geq 2$). If γ is any sequence of figures in that scale we denote by $N(t, \gamma, n)$ the number of these in which γ occurs exactly n times. Then it can be proved without difficulty that

$$\frac{\sum_{n=1}^R n N(t, \gamma, n, R)}{\sum_{n=1}^R N(t, \gamma, n, R)} = \frac{R - r + 1}{R} t^{-r}$$

where $\ell(\gamma) = r$ is the length of the sequence γ : it is also

A Note on Normal Numbers

Although it is known that almost all numbers are normal^[1] no example of a normal number has ever been given. I propose to show how normal numbers may be constructed and to prove that almost all numbers are normal constructively.

Consider the \bar{N} -figure integers in the scale of $t \in (1, 2]$. If γ is any sequence of figures in that scale we denote by $N(\gamma, n, \bar{N})$ the number of those in which γ occurs exactly n times. Then it can be proved without difficulty that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\bar{N}} N(\gamma, n, \bar{N}) = \frac{\bar{N} - r + 1}{\bar{N}} t^{-r}$$

where $\frac{r-1}{\bar{N}} < r$ is the length of the sequence γ ; it is also possible to prove that

$$\lim_{\bar{N} \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N(\gamma, n, \bar{N})}{\bar{N}} = N(\gamma, n) \leq t^{-r} e^{-N(\gamma, n)} \quad (2)$$

Let α be a real number and $S(\alpha, \bar{N}, \bar{N})$ the number of occurrences of \bar{N} in the first \bar{N} figures after the decimal point in the expansion of α in the scale of t . α is said to be normal if

$$\bar{N}^{-1} S(\alpha, \bar{N}, \bar{N}) \rightarrow t^{-r}$$

where $r = L(\gamma)$. as $\bar{N} \rightarrow \infty$ for each γ .

Now consider sums of a finite number of open intervals with rational end points. These can be enumerated constructively. We take a particular constructive enumeration: let \bar{N}_k be the n -th

With each integer n we associate an interval of the form $(\frac{n-1}{2^n}, \frac{n+1}{2^n})$ whose intersection with \bar{N}_k is of positive measure.

and given \bar{N}_k we obtain $M_{\bar{N}_k}$ as follows. Put $M_{\bar{N}_k} = \{ \bar{N}_k \mid 1 \leq \bar{N}_k \leq \frac{n+1}{2^n} \}$ and $M_{\bar{N}_k} = \{ \bar{N}_k \mid 1 \leq \bar{N}_k \leq \frac{n-1}{2^n} \}$.

and let \bar{N}_k be the smallest n for which either $\bar{N}_k > \frac{n+1}{2^n} 2^{-n}$ or both $\bar{N}_k > \frac{n-1}{2^n} 2^{-n}$ and $\bar{N}_k > \frac{n+1}{2^n} 2^{-n}$. There exists such an \bar{N}_k for \bar{N}_k and \bar{N}_k decrease either to 0 or to some positive number. In the case where $\bar{N}_k \rightarrow 0$ we put $M_{\bar{N}_k} = \bar{N}_k + 1$. If $\bar{N}_k \rightarrow \bar{N}_k$ we put $M_{\bar{N}_k} = \bar{N}_k$. and in the third case we put $M_{\bar{N}_k} = \bar{N}_k$ or $M_{\bar{N}_k} = \bar{N}_k + 1$ according as $L(\bar{N}_k) = 0$ or 1. For each \bar{N}_k the interval $(\frac{n-1}{2^n}, \frac{n+1}{2^n})$ includes normal numbers in positive measure. The intersection of these intervals contains only one number which must be normal.

Now consider the set $\bar{R}(N, n)$ consisting of all possible intervals $(\frac{n-1}{2^n}, \frac{n+1}{2^n})$. i.e. the sum of all these intervals as we allow the first n figures of \bar{N} to run through all possibilities. Then $M_{\bar{N}_k} = \bar{N}_k + 1$ and $M_{\bar{N}_k} = \bar{N}_k$.

set of intervals in the enumeration. Then we have

Theorem 1
We can find a constructive function $c(N, n)$ of two integral variables such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{c(N, n)}{N} = \frac{1}{t} \quad \text{for each } N, n$$

Let $\bar{B}(\bar{N}, t, \bar{N})$ be the set of numbers \bar{N}_k for which $|S(\bar{N}_k, t, \bar{N}) - \bar{N}_k t^{-r}| < \frac{\bar{N}_k}{\Delta}$

then by (1) $M_{\bar{N}_k}(\bar{N}_k, t, \bar{N}) > \bar{N}_k - \bar{N}_k t^{-r}$

Let $\bar{B}(\bar{N}, t, \bar{N})$ be the set of those \bar{N}_k for which (2) holds whenever $\bar{N}_k \leq \bar{N}$ and $L(\bar{N}_k) \leq L$.

$\bar{B}(\bar{N}, t, \bar{N}) = \bigcap_{L=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{\Delta=1}^{\infty} \bar{B}(\bar{N}, t, \bar{N})$

The number of figures in the product is at most t^{L+1} so that

$$M_{\bar{N}_k}(\bar{N}_k, t, \bar{N}) > \bar{N}_k - t^{L+1} \bar{N}_k t^{-r}$$

$$\bar{B}_k = \bar{B} \left(\left[\frac{1}{t^k} \right], \left[\frac{1}{t^k} \right], \left[\frac{1}{t^k} \right], k \right)$$

then if $k \geq 1$ we shall have $M_{\bar{N}_k} > \bar{N}_k - \bar{N}_k t^{-k} > \bar{N}_k (1 - t^{-k})$.

$L(N, n) = L(N, n)$ is to be defined as follows

$C(N, n) = (0, 1]$

$C(N, n+1)$ is the intersection of an interval $(\frac{n-1}{2^n}, \frac{n+1}{2^n})$ with \bar{B}_{n+1} .

with \bar{B}_{n+1} is $\frac{n-1}{2^n} - \frac{n+1}{2^n}$, this is possible since the measure of $C(N, n)$ is $\frac{n-1}{2^n}$ and that of \bar{B}_{n+1} is at least $\frac{n-1}{2^n}$.

consequently the measure of $C(N, n+1)$ is at least $\frac{n-1}{2^n}$.

If $N \rightarrow \infty$ we define $C(N, n)$ to be $C(N, n)$.

finite sum of intervals for each N_k . Then we remove the boundary points we obtain a set of form $\bar{C}(N_k, n)$ of measure $\frac{n-1}{2^n} - \frac{n+1}{2^n}$.

$N \rightarrow \infty$. The intervals of which $\bar{C}(N_k, n)$ is composed may be found by a mechanical process so the function $c(N, n)$ is constructive. The set $\bar{C}(N_k, n)$ consists of normal numbers, for if $\bar{N}_k \in \bar{C}(N_k, n)$ then $M_{\bar{N}_k} > \bar{N}_k (1 - t^{-k})$ if \bar{N}_k is a sequence of length n in the scale of t and if \bar{N}_k is such that

$$|S(\bar{N}_k, t, \bar{N}) - \bar{N}_k t^{-r}| < \frac{\bar{N}_k}{\Delta}$$

then \bar{N}_k is in \bar{B}_k by the definition of \bar{B}_k . Hence $L^2 S(\bar{N}_k, t, \bar{N}) \rightarrow t^{-r}$ as N_k tends to infinity, i.e. \bar{N} is normal.

Theorem 2

There is a rule whereby given an integer N and a sequence of figures 0 and 1 (the \bar{N} figures in the sequence being $L(\bar{N})$) we can find a normal number $\bar{N}(N, \bar{N})$ in the interval $(0, 1)$ and in such a way that for fixed N these numbers form a set of measure at least $\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{N}$ and so that the first n figures of \bar{N} determine $\bar{N}(N, \bar{N})$ to within 2^{-n} .

so that $M_{\bar{N}_k}(\bar{N}_k, n+1) > \bar{N}_k (1 - t^{-n}) > \bar{N}_k (1 - t^{-n})$.

The set of all possible numbers $\bar{N}(N, \bar{N})$ is therefore of measure at least $\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{N}$.

By taking particular sequences \bar{N} (e.g. \bar{N}_k) shall we then obtain particular normal numbers.

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Reconstructed, corrected and completed in 2007

Becher, Figueira, Picchi, *Theoretical Computer Science* 377, 126-138.

Normality, a form of randomness

Defined by Émile Borel in 1909, 1922:

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A real number is *normal to a given integer base* if its expansion in that base is evenly balanced: every block of digits of the same length occurs with the same limit frequency.

For instance, if a number is normal to base 2, each of the digits '0' and '1' occur in the limit, half of the times; each of the blocks '00', '01', '10' and '11' occur one fourth of the times, and so on.

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A real number is *normal to a given integer base* if its expansion in that base is evenly balanced: every block of digits of the same length occurs with the same limit frequency.

A real number that is normal to every integer base is called *absolutely normal*, or just *normal*.

Counterexamples

0.1010010001000010000010000... not normal to base 2.

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0.1010101010101010101010101... not normal to base 2.

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Rationals are not normal (for each $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a base b such that the expansion of q ends with all zeros).

Existence

Theorem (Borel 1909)

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Borel asked for an explicit example.

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where $l(\gamma) = r$ is the length of the sequence γ : it is also possible ²⁾ to prove that

$$\sum N(t, \gamma, n, R) < 1 + R e^{-K^2 t^r / 4R} \quad (1)$$

Turing's Note on Normal Numbers

Turing's Theorem 1

Borel's theorem on the measure of normal numbers, constructively.

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Turing's Theorem 2

An algorithm to construct normal numbers.

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Turing's First Page of the Handwritten Manuscript

His own appraisal of his work.

Turing's Theorem 1

Theorem 1

We can find a constructive³⁾ function $c(K, n)$ of two integral variables, such that

$$\bar{K}_{c(K, n+1)} \leq \bar{K}_{c(K, n)}$$

and $n \bar{K}_{c(K, n)} > 1 - \frac{1}{K}$ for each K, n

and $\bar{K}_{(K)} = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \bar{K}_{c(K, n)}$ consists entirely of normal numbers for
each K .

Turing's Theorem 1

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For each k and n , let the set of real numbers $E_{c(k,n)}$ be the union of the open intervals whose endpoints are the pairs given by $c(k, n)$.

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For each k and n , let the set of real numbers $E_{c(k,n)}$ be the union of the open intervals whose endpoints are the pairs given by $c(k, n)$.

$c(k, n)$ is such that

- ▶ $E_{c(k,n)}$ is included in $E_{c(k,n-1)}$ and
- ▶ measure of $E_{c(k,n)}$ is greater than $1 - 1/k$.

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- ▶ $E_{c(k,n)}$ is included in $E_{c(k,n-1)}$ and
- ▶ measure of $E_{c(k,n)}$ is greater than $1 - 1/k$.

Finally, for each k , $E(k) = \bigcap_n E_{c(k,n)}$ has measure exactly $1 - 1/k$ and it consists entirely of normal numbers.

Main idea in Turing's Theorem 1: finite approximations

The construction is uniform in the parameter k .

Prune the unit interval, by stages.

Stage 0: $E_{c(k,0)}$ is the whole unit interval.

Stage n : $E_{c(k,n)}$ results from removing from $E_{c(k,n-1)}$ the points that are **not** candidates to be normal, according to the inspection of an initial segment of their expansions.

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At the end, the construction discards

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Main idea in Turing's Theorem 1: finite approximations

At the end, the construction discards

- ▶ all rational numbers, because of their periodic structure
- ▶ all irrational numbers with an unbalanced expansion
- ▶ all normal numbers whose convergence to normality is too slow

$E(k) = \bigcap_n E_{c(k,n)}$ consists entirely of normal numbers.

Its measure is exactly $1 - 1/k$ (because $E_{c(k,n)}$ measures $1 - \frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{k+n}$).

Main idea in Turing's Theorem 1: finite approximations

Computable functions of the stage n ,

initial segment size	linear
base	sublinear
block length	sublogarithmic
frequency discrepancy ...	the technically largest converging to 0

$E_{c(k,n)}$, the set of reals not discarded up to stage n , is the union of finitely many intervals, tailored to measure $1 - \frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{k+n}$.

Constructive Strong Law of Large Numbers

In most initial segments:

each single digit occurs about the expected number of times

each block of two digits occurs about the expected number of times

...

each block short-enough occurs about the expected number of times.

Lemma (extends Hardy & Wright 1938)

Fix b, w of length ℓ and N . For any real ε such that $\frac{7}{N} \leq \varepsilon \leq \frac{1}{b^\ell}$,

$$\sum_{\left| \frac{i}{N} - \frac{1}{b^\ell} \right| \geq \varepsilon} \text{number of blocks of length } N \text{ with exactly } i \text{ occurrences of } w \leq b^N 2 b^{2\ell} e^{-\frac{b^\ell \varepsilon^2 N}{6\ell}}.$$

Turing's Theorem 2

Theorem 2

There is a rule whereby given an integer K and an infinite sequence of figures 0 and 1 (the p th figure in the sequence being $v(p)$) we can find a normal number $\alpha(K, v)$ in the interval $(0,1)$ and in such a way that for fixed K these numbers form a set of measure at least $1 - 2/K$, and so that the first n figures of v determine $\alpha(K, v)$ to within 2^{-n} .

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There is an algorithm that, given an integer k and an infinite sequence ν of zeros and ones, produces a normal number $\alpha(k, \nu)$ in the unit interval, expressed in base two.

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In order to write down the first n digits of $\alpha(k, \nu)$ the algorithm requires at most the first n digits of ν .

For a fixed k these numbers $\alpha(k, \nu)$ form a set of measure at least $1 - 2/k$.

The idea in Theorem 2: “follow the measure”

It works by steps.

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At each step, divide the current interval in two halves, and choose the half that includes normal numbers in large-enough measure.

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It works by steps.

Start with the unit interval.

At each step, divide the current interval in two halves, and choose the half that includes normal numbers in large-enough measure.

If both halves do, use the current bit of the oracle to decide
(this will happen infinitely often)

The output $\alpha(k, \nu)$ is the trace of the left/right selection at each step.

With each integer n we associate an interval of the form

$\left(\frac{m_n}{2^n}, \frac{m_n+1}{2^n}\right)$ whose intersection with $\tilde{E}_{(K)}$ is of positive measure .
and given m_n we obtain m_{n+1} as follows. Put

$$m \in E_c(K, n) \cap \left(\frac{m_n}{2^n}, \frac{2m_n+1}{2^{n+1}}\right) = a_{n, m}$$

$$m \in E_c(K, n) \cap \left(\frac{2m_n+1}{2^{n+1}}, \frac{m_n+1}{2^n}\right) = b_{n, m}$$

and let r_n be the smallest m for which either $a_{n, m} < K^{-1} 2^{-2n}$
or $b_{n, m} < K^{-1} 2^{-2n}$ or both $a_{n, m} > \frac{1}{K(K+n+1)}$ and $b_{n, m} > \frac{1}{K(K+n+1)}$
There exists such an r_n for $a_{n, m}$ and $b_{n, m}$ decrease either to 0
or to some positive number. In the case where $a_{n, r_n} < K^{-1} 2^{-2n}$ we
put $m_{n+1} = 2m_n + 1$: if $a_{n, r_n} > K^{-1} 2^{-2n}$ but $b_{n, r_n} < K^{-1} 2^{-2n}$
we put $m_{n+1} = 2m_n$, and in the third case we put $m_{n+1} = 2m_n$
or $m_{n+1} = 2m_n + 1$ according as $\vartheta(u) = 0$ or 1. For each n the
interval $\left(\frac{m_n}{2^n}, \frac{m_n+1}{2^n}\right)$ includes normal numbers in positive measure.
The intersection of these intervals contains only one number.
which must be normal.

Correctness of the algorithm

- ▶ Invariant: $I_n \cap E(k)$ has positive measure.
- ▶ Threshold: $M(k, n)$ is a lower bound of $\mu(E_{c(k,n)} \cap I_n)$ verifying
$$M(k, n) = M(k, n-1)/2 - (\mu E_{c(k,n)} - \mu E_{c(k,n+1)})/2.$$
- ▶ Output: $\alpha(k, n) = \bigcap_n I_n$, with explicit convergence to normality.

Turing's normal numbers

By taking particular instances of the input sequence ν the set of numbers that can be output has measure at least $1 - 2/k$.

When ν is computable (Turing puts all zeros), the algorithm yields a computable normal number.

The algorithm can be adapted to intercalate the bits of ν at fixed positions of the output sequence.

Theorem (Figueira PhD Thesis 2006)

There is a normal number in each Turing degree.

Computational Complexity of Turing's algorithm

The number of operations to produce a next digit in the output

- ▶ *simple-exponentially* many (literal reading)
- ▶ *double-exponentially* many (our reconstruction)

Theorem (Strauss 1997)

There exist normal numbers computable in simple-exponential time

Turing's First Page of the Handwritten Manuscript

Not transcribed.

His own appraisal of his work.

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"No example of a normal number has ever been given."

Turing cites Champernowne's 0.123456789101112131415...
as an example of a normal number in base ten.

"It may also be natural that an example of a normal number be demonstrated as such and written down. This note cannot, therefore, be considered as providing convenient examples of normal numbers"

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"...but rather, to counter [...] that the existence proof of normal numbers provides no example of them. The arguments in the note, in fact, follow the existence proof fairly closely."

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"No example of a normal number has ever been given."

Turing cites Champernowne's 0.123456789101112131415... as an example of a normal number in base ten.

"It may also be natural that an example of a normal number be demonstrated as such and written down. This note cannot, therefore, be considered as providing convenient examples of normal numbers"

He was aware of the algorithm's computational complexity.

"...but rather, to counter [...] that the existence proof of normal numbers provides no example of them. The arguments in the note, in fact, follow the existence proof fairly closely."

Letter exchange between Turing and Hardy (AMT/D/5)

as from
him. Coll. Camb

June 1

Dear Turing

I have just come across your letter (March 28),
which I seem to have just come for
reply and forgotten.

I have a vague recollection that Dood says
in one of his books that (Cayenne had shown
him a construction. Tray (écrit sur la théorie
de la croissance (including the appendices), or
the preliminary book (written under his
direction by a lot of people, but including
one volume on arithmetic part, by
himself). Also I seem to remember
vaguely that when Chamberland was doing
his stuff, I had a look, but could
find nothing satisfactory anywhere.

Now, of course, when I do write, I
do so from London, when I have no book
to refer to. But if I put it off in
I return, I may forget again.
Sorry to be so unsatisfactory. But my 'feeling' is
that L. made a point which never got
promised.

Yours sincerely
G.H. Hardy

1/2 late 30's

G.H. Hardy was right

Henri Lebesgue in 1909

Waclaw Sierpiński in 1916

independently, each gave a non-finitary based construction:

Bulletin de la Société Mathématique de France 45:127–132 and 132–144, 1917

Turing's Note on Normal Numbers

A story of unrecognized scientific priority

Proved the existence of computable normal numbers.

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In particular, Turing pioneered the theory of algorithmic randomness.

Turing's Normal Numbers: Towards Randomness

A real is random if it exhibits the almost-everywhere behavior of all reals.
A random real must pass every test of these properties; for instance, its expansion must be evenly balanced.

Turing's Normal Numbers: Towards Randomness

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Definition (Martin-Löf 1966)

A test for randomness is a uniformly computably enumerable sequence of sets of intervals with rational endpoints whose measure is upper-bounded by a computable function and converges to zero.

A real number is random if it is covered by no such test.

Turing's Normal Numbers: Towards Randomness

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A real number is random if it is covered by no such test.

Corollary (Randomness Implies Normality)

The sequence $((0, 1) \setminus E(k))_{k \geq 0}$ is a ML-test.

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