

Turing's Normal Numbers: Towards Randomness

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A Note on Normal Numbers

A. N. Turing

Although it is known that all numbers are normal

example of a normal number has been given. It is
let K be the D.N. of π . What does π do in the K ?

It must test whether K is satisfactory giving

On the other hand the verdict cannot be 'N'

For if it were, then in the K th section of its motion

be bound to compute the first $R(K)$ figures of the
computed by the machine with K as its D.N. and to write

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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 $N(t, \gamma, n, R)$ 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 $l(\gamma) = r$ is the length of the sequence γ : it is also

A Note on Normal Numbers

Although it is known that almost all numbers are normal¹⁾ so 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{q} -figure integers in the scale of $\ell \in (\ell, 2\ell]$. If χ is any sequence of figures in that scale we denote by $N(\ell, \bar{q}, \chi)$ the number of those in which χ occurs exactly n times. This can be proved without difficulty that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\bar{q}} N(\ell, \bar{q}, \chi) \ell^n = \frac{\bar{q} - n + 1}{\bar{q}} \ell^n$$

where ℓ^n is the length of the sequence χ ; it is also possible to prove that

$$\sum_{\chi \in \bar{q}^{\ell}} N(\ell, \bar{q}, \chi) \ell^{2\ell} < 2\ell^2 e^{-\frac{N(\ell, \bar{q}, \chi)}{\bar{q}^{\ell}}} \quad (2)$$

Let λ be a real number and $S(\ell, \bar{q}, \lambda)$ the number of occurrences of λ in the first \bar{q} figures after the decimal point in the expansion of λ in the scale of ℓ . λ is said to be normal if

$$\bar{q}^{-2} S(\ell, \bar{q}, \lambda) \rightarrow \ell^{-1} \quad \text{as } \bar{q} \rightarrow \infty \text{ for each } \ell, \bar{q}$$

where $\bar{q} \in \mathbb{N}$.

Now consider some of a finite number of open intervals with rational end points. These can be enumerated constructively, to take a particular constructive connection: let λ_k be the n -th

set of intervals in the enumeration. Then we have

Theorem 1

We can find a constructively²⁾ function $c(N, n)$ of two integral variables, such that

$$\text{and } c(N, n+2) \leq c(N, n) \\ \text{and } c(N, n) > 1 - \frac{1}{N} \quad \text{for each } N, n$$

$$\text{and } c(N, n) \prod_{i=1}^n c(N, n_i) \text{ consists entirely of normal numbers for each } N.$$

$0 < \epsilon < 1$

$$\text{Let } \mathcal{B}(\Delta, \bar{q}, \ell, \bar{q}) \text{ be the set of numbers } \lambda, \ell \text{ for which} \\ |S(\lambda, \bar{q}, \ell) - \bar{q}\ell^{-1}| < \frac{\bar{q}^{\epsilon}}{\Delta^{\epsilon}} \quad (3)$$

then by (1)

$$\text{we } \mathcal{B}(\Delta, \bar{q}, \ell, \bar{q}) > 1 - 2\epsilon \bar{q}^{-\epsilon} \Delta^{\epsilon}$$

Let $\mathcal{H}(\Delta, \bar{q}, \ell, \bar{q})$ be the set of those λ for which (3) holds whenever $2 \leq \ell \leq \bar{q}$ and $\ell(\bar{q}) \in \mathcal{B}$. i.e.

$$\mathcal{H}(\Delta, \bar{q}, \ell, \bar{q}) = \bigcap_{\ell=2}^{\bar{q}} \bigcap_{\ell(\bar{q}) \in \mathcal{B}} \mathcal{B}(\Delta, \bar{q}, \ell, \bar{q})$$

The number of figures in the product is at most $\bar{q}^{2\epsilon}$ so that

$$\text{we } \mathcal{H}(\Delta, \bar{q}, \ell, \bar{q}) > 1 - \bar{q}^{-2\epsilon} \Delta^{\epsilon} \bar{q}^{2\epsilon} = 1 - \frac{\Delta^{\epsilon} \bar{q}^{2\epsilon}}{\bar{q}^{2\epsilon}}$$

let

$$\mathcal{H}_k = \mathcal{H} \left(\lfloor k^2 \rfloor, \lfloor c\sqrt{k^2} \rfloor, \lfloor \sqrt{k^2} - 1 \rfloor, k \right) \\ \mathcal{H}_k = \mathcal{H} \left(k, \lfloor c\sqrt{k} \rfloor, \lfloor \sqrt{k} - 2 \rfloor, k^2 \right)$$

then if k, \bar{q} are small we have $\bar{q} \ell^{-1} > 1 - k^{-1} > 1 - \frac{1}{k(k-2)}$. $C(N, n)$ ($N \geq 1$) is to be defined as follows $C(N, n) = C(N, 2)$

$C(N, n+2)$ is the intersection of an interval $(\lambda, \lambda + \frac{1}{N})$ with \mathcal{H}_{N+2} and $C(N, n)$. \mathcal{H} being so chosen that the measure of $C(N, n)$ is $1 - \frac{1}{N}$. This is possible since the measure of $C(N, n)$ is $1 - \frac{1}{N}$ and the sum of \mathcal{H}_{N+2} is at least $1 - \frac{1}{N}$ consequently the measure of $C(N, n+2)$ is at least $1 - \frac{1}{N}$. If N occurs we define $C(N, n)$ to be $C(N, n)$. $C(N, n)$ is a finite sum of intervals for each N, n . When we require the boundary points we obtain a set of form $\mathcal{E}_{C(N, n)}$ of measure $1 - \frac{1}{N} + \frac{1}{N^2}$. The intervals of which $\mathcal{E}_{C(N, n)}$ is composed may be found by a mechanical process on the function $C(N, n)$ is constructive. The set $\mathcal{E}_{C(N, n)}$ consists of normal numbers, for if $\lambda \in \mathcal{E}_{C(N, n)}$ then $\bar{q} \ell^{-1} > 1 - \frac{1}{N}$ if \bar{q} is a sequence of length \bar{q} in the scale of ℓ and if $\bar{q} \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $\lfloor c\sqrt{\bar{q}^2} \rfloor > \bar{q}$ and $\lfloor \sqrt{\bar{q}^2} - 1 \rfloor > \bar{q}$. Since β is in \mathcal{H}_k $|S(\lambda, \bar{q}, \ell) - k\ell^{-1}| < k \lfloor k^2 \rfloor^{-\epsilon}$ when β is in \mathcal{H}_k (by the definition of \mathcal{H}_k). Hence $\ell^{-2} S(\ell, \bar{q}, \lambda) \rightarrow \ell^{-1}$ as \bar{q} tends to infinity, i.e. λ is normal.

Theorem 2

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

With each integer n we associate an interval of the form $(\frac{2n-1}{2n}, \frac{2n+1}{2n})$ whose intersection with \mathbb{N} is of positive measure. And given n , we obtain M_n as follows. Put

$$M_n = \left\{ \frac{2n-1}{2n}, \frac{2n+1}{2n} \right\} = M_n \\ \text{we } \mathcal{E}_{M_n} = \left(\frac{2n-1}{2n}, \frac{2n+1}{2n} \right) = \mathcal{E}_n$$

and let k_n be the smallest n for which either $k_n < \sqrt{n^2 - 2n}$ or $k_n < \sqrt{n^2 - 2n}$ or both $k_n < \sqrt{(n-1)^2}$ and $k_n < \sqrt{(n+1)^2}$. There exists such an k_n for n and k_n decrease either to 0 or to some positive number. In the case where $k_n < \sqrt{n^2 - 2n}$ we put $m_{n+1} = 2m_n + 1$; if $k_n > \sqrt{n^2 - 2n}$ but $k_n < \sqrt{(n+1)^2}$ 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 k_n is 0 or 1. For each n the interval $(\frac{2m_n-1}{2m_n}, \frac{2m_n+1}{2m_n})$ includes normal numbers in positive measure. The intersection of these intervals contains only one number which must be normal.

Now consider the set $\mathcal{R}(N, n)$ consisting of all possible intervals $(\frac{2m_n-1}{2m_n}, \frac{2m_n+1}{2m_n})$. i.e. the sum of all these intervals as we allow the first n figures of λ to run through all possibilities. Then $\text{me } \mathcal{R}(N, n) = \sum_{m=1}^N \text{me } \mathcal{R}(N, n) = \sum_{m=1}^N \frac{1}{2m_n}$

so that $\text{me } \mathcal{R}(N, n) > \frac{1}{2N}$

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

By taking particular sequences λ (e.g. $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$) we 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

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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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$$\frac{\sum_{n=2}^R n N(t, \gamma, n, R)}{\sum_{n=1}^R N(t, \gamma, n, R)} = \frac{R-r+1}{R} t^{-r}$$

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

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

Turing's Note on Normal Numbers

Turing's Theorem 1

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

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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 $c(K, u)$ of two integral variables, such that

$$\tilde{K}_{c(K, u+1)} \subseteq \tilde{K}_{c(K, u)}$$

and $m \tilde{K}_{c(K, u)} > 1 - \frac{1}{K}$ for each K, u

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

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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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$c(k, n)$ 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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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} .

Turing's Theorem 2

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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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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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.

Algorithm

4

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 $\widehat{E}_c(K)$ is of positive measure .
and given m_n we obtain m_{n+1} as follows. Put

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

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

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 $b_{n, r_n} < K^{-1} 2^{-2n}$
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or $m_{n+1} = 2m_n + 1$ according as $\nu(u) = 0$ 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.

Turing's First Page of the Handwritten Manuscript

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

Turing cites Champernowne's $0.123456789101112131415\dots$ 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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Letter exchange between Turing and Hardy (AMT/D/5)

as from
his. Coll. Camb

June 1

Dear Turing

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

I have a vague recollection that Dood says in one of his books that (Cayley had shown him a construction. Try (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 arithmetical facts, by himself). Also I seem to remember vaguely that when Chamberland was doing his stuff, I had a hand, but could find nothing satisfactory anywhere.

Now, of course, when I do write, I do so from London, when I have no books to refer to. But if I put it off till I return, I may forget again. Sorry to be so unsatisfactory. But my 'feeling' is that L. will a day which never get finished.

Yours sincerely
G.H. Hardy

1? 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

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In particular, Turing pioneered the theory of algorithmic randomness.

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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.

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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.

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Corollary (Randomness Implies Normality)

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

Acknowledgements

To [Cristian Calude](#) for suggesting the problem of Sierpiński's normal numbers to me.

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