### ${\sf R}$ a ${\sf N}$ ${\cal D}$ ${\sf o}$ m ${\cal N}$ $_{\rm E}$ s ${\sf s}$ !

#### Verónica Becher

Universidad de Buenos Aires & CONICET

28th European Summer School in Logic, Language and Information Bolzano-Bozen, 23 August, 2016

Everyone has an intuitive idea about what is randomness, often associated with "gambling" or "luck".

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

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- Randomness ♥ Logic, Language and Information

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

Think of 0s and 1s.

A sequence is random if it can not be distinguished from independent tosses of a fair coin.

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

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Heads and tails must occur with the same frequency. Likewise for any combination of heads and tails.

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Would you believe that these have bee obtained by independent toosses?

Heads and tails must occur with the same frequency. Likewise for any combination of heads and tails. ¡Otherwise we would be able to guess it infinitely many times!

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

By whom?

By a human being?

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By a universal Turing machine ?

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By finite automata? Yes, it allows formalization and it yields the most basic notion of randomness: normality.

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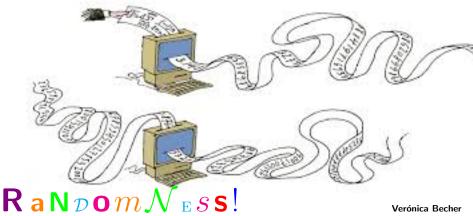
And there are intermediate notions.

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

### Towards a definition of randomness

A sequence is normal if, essentially, its initial segments can only be described explicitely by a finite automaton . (Borel's definition 1909; Schnorr and Stimm 1971; Dai Lathroup Lutz and Mayordomo 2005)

A sequence is random if, essentially, its initial segments can only be described explicitely by a Turing machine. (Chaitin's definition 1975)



A base is an integer greater than or equal to 2.

For a real number x in the unit interval, the expansion of x in base b is a sequence  $a_1a_2a_3\ldots$  of integers from  $\{0, 1, \ldots, b-1\}$  such that

$$x = 0.a_1a_2a_3\ldots$$

where 
$$x = \sum_{k \ge 1} \frac{a_k}{b^k}$$
, and  $x$  does not end with a tail of  $b - 1$ .

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

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A real number x is absolutely normal if x is normal to every base.

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

 $0.01\ 002\ 0003\ 00004\ 000005\ 0000006\ 00000007\ 00000008\ldots$  is not simply normal to base 10.

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

 $0.01\ 002\ 0003\ 00004\ 000005\ 0000006\ 00000007\ 00000008\ldots$  is not simply normal to base 10.

0.0123456789 0123456789 0123456789 0123456789 0123456789 0123456789... is simply normal to base 10, but not simply normal to base 100.

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

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The rational numbers are not normal to any base.

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The rational numbers are not normal to any base.

Liouville's constant  $\sum_{n\geq 1} 10^{-n!}$  is not normal to any base.

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

### Examples of normal numbers?

Theorem (Borel 1909)

Almost all real numbers are absolutely normal.

Problem (Borel 1909)

Give one example of an absolutely normal number.

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Give one example of an absolutely normal number. Are the usual mathematical constants, such as  $\pi$ , e, or  $\sqrt{2}$ , absolutely normal? Or at least simply normal to some base?

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Conjecture (Borel 1950)

Irrational algebraic numbers are absolutely normal.

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

### Normal to a given base

Theorem (Champernowne, 1933)

0.123456789101112131415161718192021 ... is normal to base 10. It is unknown if it is normal to bases that are not powers of 10.

Besicovitch 1935; Copeland and Erdös 1946; ... Ugalde 2000; Alvarez, Becher, Ferrari and Yuhjtman 2016.

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

### Absolutely normal

Sierpinski 1917, Lebesgue 1917; Turing 1937; Schmidt 1961; M. Levin 1970; ... Lutz and Mayordomo 2013; Figueira and Nies 2013.

Theorem (Becher, Heiber and Slaman, 2013)

There is an algorithm that computes an absolutely normal number with just above quadratic time-complexity.

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 $0.4031290542003809132371428380827059102765116777624189775110896366\ldots$ 

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

Theorem (Cassels 1959; Schmidt 1961)

Almost all numbers in the Cantor ternary set are normal to base 2.

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

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### Normal to some bases and not to others

Theorem (Cassels 1959; Schmidt 1961)

Almost all numbers in the Cantor ternary set are normal to base 2.

Theorem (Bailey and Borwein 2012)

Stoneham number  $\alpha_{2,3} = \sum_{k \ge 1} \frac{1}{3^k \ 2^{3^k}}$  is normal to base 2 but not simply normal to base 6.

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

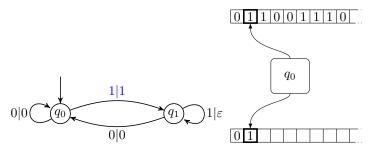
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A deterministic finite transducer T is defined by  $\langle Q, A, \delta, q_0 \rangle$  where A is the alphabet, Q is a finite set of states with  $q_0$  the starting state, and  $\delta : Q \times A \to A^* \times Q$  is a transition function. Every infinite run is accepting (Büchi acceptance condition).

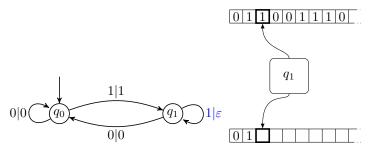
Running T with input  $a_1a_2a_3\ldots$  gives  $T(a_1a_2a_3\ldots)$ .



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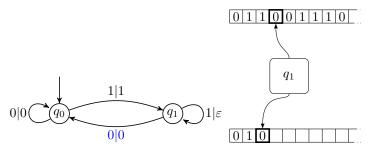


The transducer transforms rows of 1s into a single 1.

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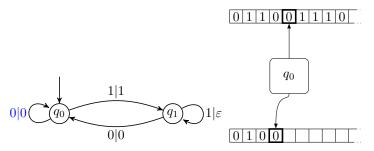


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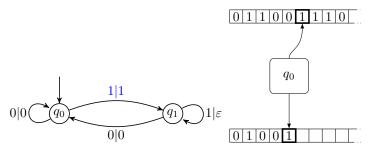


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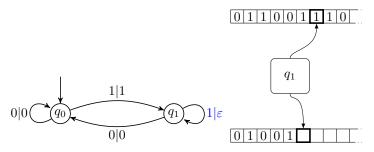


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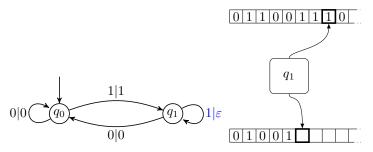


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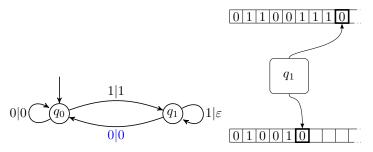


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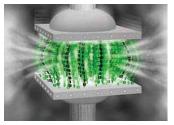
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### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

Consider transducer  $T = \langle Q, A, \delta, q_0 \rangle$ . If  $\delta(p, a) = \langle v, q \rangle$  write  $p \xrightarrow{a|v} q$ .

#### Definition

A sequence  $x = a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots$  is compressible by a finite transducer T if and only if the run in  $T q_0 \xrightarrow[a_1|v_1]{a_1|v_1} q_1 \xrightarrow[a_2|v_2]{a_3|v_3} q_3 \cdots$  satisfies  $\liminf_{n \to \infty} \frac{|v_1 v_2 \cdots v_n|}{n} < 1.$ 



Recall that the a's are symbols and the v's are words, possibly empty.

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

Theorem (Schnorr, Stimm 1971; Dai, Lathrop, Lutz, Mayordomo 2004)

### A sequence is normal if and only if it is incompressible by every one-to-one finite transducer .

Huffman 1959 calls them lossless compressors. A direct proof in Becher and Heiber, 2012.

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Theorem (Becher, Carton, Heiber 2013)

Non-deterministic one-to-one finite transducers, even if augmented with a counter, can not compress normal sequences.

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

Question

*Can deterministic pushdown transducers compress normal infinite sequences?* 

# $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

### Normality and pushdown automata

#### Question

*Can deterministic pushdown transducers compress normal infinite sequences?* 

Theorem (Boasson, personal communication 2012)

Non-deterministic puhdown transducers can compress normal sequences. 0123456789 9876543210 00 01 02 03 ...98 99 99 98 97...03 02 01 00 000 001 002...

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

#### Pure randomness

# $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

#### Pure randomness

A sequence is random if its initial segments can only be described explicitely by a Turing machine. That is, its initial segments cannot be compressed with a Turing machine.

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#### Pure randomness

A sequence is random if its initial segments can only be described explicitely by a Turing machine. That is, its initial segments cannot be compressed with a Turing machine.

Formally, a sequence is random if its initial segments have almost maximal program-size complexity .

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

### Kolmogorov / program-size complexity

Some long strings can be described using fewer symbols than their length; this is used in data compression .



For example, string consisting of  $2^n$  many a's can be encoded as  $\log n$  many symbols plus a constant:

```
input n
i=0;
while (i<2<sup>n</sup>) {print a; i=i+1;}
```

### $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

### Kolmogorov / program-size complexity

Definition (Kolmogorov 1965)

Fix a universal Turing machine U. The Kolmogorov complexity of a string s is the length of the shortest input in U that outputs s.

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For every string s, its Kolmogorov complexity is less than |s| + constant.

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#### Definition (Chaitin 1975)

Fix a universal Turing machine U with prefix-free domain . The program-size complexity of a string s, K(s), is the length of the shortest input in U that outputs s.

For every string s,  $K(s) \leq |s| + 2\log|s| + constant$ .

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

#### Definition (Chaitin 1975)

A sequence  $a_1a_2a_3...$  is random if  $\exists c \ \forall n \ K(a_1a_2...a_n) > n-c$ .

The definition applies immediately to real numbers (one-to-one correspondence between reals and their expansions in any given base).

# $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

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### How do we know that the definition is right?

The definition of randomness was accepted when two different formulations were shown to be equivalent.

This is similar to what happenned with the notion of algorithm in 1930s with Church-Turing thesis.

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

### An equivalent definition of randomness

Definition (Martin-Löf 1965, tests of non-randomness)

A sequence is Martin-Löf random if it passes all computably definable tests of non-randomness. Since there is a universal tests, it suffices that to consider just this universal Martin-Löf test.

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Technically, a sequence is Martin-Löf random if it belongs to no computably definable null set. Since there is a universal computably definable null set, it suffices to consider this one.

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### An equivalent definition of randomness

Definition (Martin-Löf 1965, tests of non-randomness)

A sequence is Martin-Löf random if it passes all computably definable tests of non-randomness. Since there is a universal tests, it suffices that to consider just this universal Martin-Löf test.

Technically, a sequence is Martin-Löf random if it belongs to no computably definable null set. Since there is a universal computably definable null set, it suffices to consider this one.

Theorem (Schnorr 1975)

A sequence is random for Chaitin's definition if and only if it does not belong to the universal Martin-Löf null set.

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

### Examples of random sequences

## $\mathbf{R} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathbf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathbf{E} s \mathbf{s}!$

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### Examples of random sequences

Have you ever experienced that your computer locked up (froze)?

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#### Examples of random sequences

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# $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

#### $\Omega$ -numbers

#### Theorem (Chaitin 1975)

The probability that a universal Turing machine with prefix-free domain halts,  $\Omega = \sum_{\substack{U(p) \text{ halts}}} 2^{-|p|} \text{ is random.}$ 

Similarly, probabilities of other computer behaviours called  $\Omega$  numbers (Becher, Chaitin 2001, 2003; Becher, Grigorieff 2005, 2009, Becher, Figueira, Grigorieff, Miller 2006; Barmpalias 2016)

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

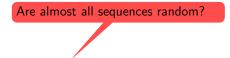
### Questions and answers about random sequences

Are almost all sequences random?

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

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Yes. By definition, the set of random sequences is the whole set minus the effectively defined universal null set. Then, with probability 1 an arbitrary sequence belongs to the set of random sequences.

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

Are random sequences normal?

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

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Are	random	sequences	normal?

Yes. Incompressibility by a Turing machine imples incompressibility by a finite automaton.

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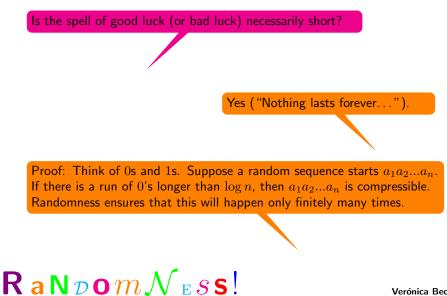
# Questions and answers about random sequences Are random sequences normal? Yes. Incompressibility by a Turing machine imples incompressibility by a finite automaton. Yes. Another proof: The set of non-normal sequences is properly included in a computably definable null set.

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

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Is the spell of good luck (or bad luck) necessarily short?

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$



Can a computer output a random sequence?

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N}_{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

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Can a computer output a random sequence?

"Anyone who considers arithmetical methods of producing random digits is, of course, in a state of sin."

John Von Neumann (1951). Various techniques used in connection with random digits.

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Can a computer output a random sequence?

"Anyone who considers arithmetical methods of producing random digits is, of course, in a state of sin."

John Von Neumann (1951). Various techniques used in connection with random digits.

Proof: Every computable sequences is dramatically compressible by a Turing machine! An initial segment of length n can be compressed to  $2\log n$ +constant. Hence, computable sequences are not random.

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

### Randomness 🕏 Computers

Random number generators (pseudo randomness) USA National Institute of Standards and Technology http://csrc.nist.gov/groups/ST/toolkit/rng/

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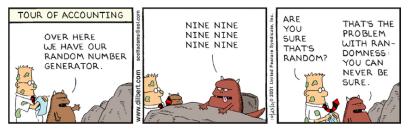
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The Berry's paradox

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

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#### The Berry's paradox

Give the smallest positive integer not definable in fewer than thirteen words.

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Give the smallest positive integer not definable in fewer than thirteen words. *The above sentence has twelve.* 

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#### The Berry's paradox

### Give the smallest positive integer not definable in fewer than thirteen words. *The above sentence has twelve.*

G.G.Berry 1867–1928, librarian at Oxford's Bodleian library.

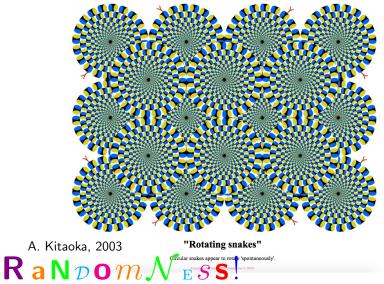
G.Boolos (1989) built on a formalized version of Berry's paradox to prove Gödel's Incompleteness Theorem formalizing the expression "m is the first number not definable in less than k symbols".

X.Caicedo (1993), La paradoja de Berry revisitada, o la indefinibilidad de la definibilidad y las limitaciones de los formalismos Lecturas Matemáticas 14: 37-48.

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{E}} s \mathsf{s}!$

#### Berry's paradox

Though the formal analogue does not lead to a logical contradiction, it yields a proof that Kolmogorov complexity K is not computable.



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#### Theorem

Let U be a universal Turing machine. The function  $K(s) = \min\{|t|: U(t) = s\}$  is not computable.

Proof. Assume K is computable. Consider the following program:

```
int main(){
    int K(String s){ ....}
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    String s=empty word;
    while (K(s) ≤ C) s= next(s);
    print s;
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However,
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According to the execution K(output) > C.
However, K(output) \leq |\text{int main}()\{...\}| \leq C.
Contradiction.
```

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

#### Randomness ♥ Information

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

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### Randomness ♥ Information

Program-size complexity is formally identical to Shannon's Information Theory



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#### Randomness ♥ Information

#### Definition (Shannon 1948)

Given a probability P of a discrete random variable X, the entropy  $H(X) = \sum_{x} P(x = X) (-\log P(x = X))).$ 

#### Definition (Chaitin 1975)

Fix a universal Turing U machine with prefix-free domain.  $K(s) = \min\{|t| : U(t) = s\}, \ P(s) = \sum_{t:U(t) = s} 2^{-|t|}.$ 

#### Theorem (Chaitin 1975)

For every string s,  $K(s) \simeq \left[-\log P(s)\right]$ .

Thus, entropy is essentially expected program-size complexity :

$$\sum_{s} P(s)(-\log P(s)) \simeq \sum_{s} P(s)K(s).$$
**R** a **N**  $\mathcal{D}$  **O**  $\mathcal{M}$   $\mathcal{N}$  <sub>E</sub> *S* **S**!

#### Randomness ♥ Language

## $\mathsf{R} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{N} \mathcal{D} \mathsf{o} m \mathcal{N} \mathsf{E} s \mathsf{s}!$

### Randomness ♥ Language

A sequence is random (relative to some computing power) if, essentially, the only way to describe it is explicitely.

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A sequence is random (relative to some computing power) if, essentially, the only way to describe it is explicitely.

Therefore, randomness of a given sequence is about how we can describe its initial segments in the language , according to the computing power.

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The End

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