Normal Numbers

Introductory question:

Which numbers in [0, 1] are truly random?

Random in base 10 would mean:

$$x = 0.x_1x_2x_3x_4...$$
 $x_i \in \{0, 1, 2, ..., 9\}$

and the **frequency** of every digits is $\frac{1}{10}$:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \# \{ 1 \le i \le n : x_i = a \} = \frac{1}{10} \text{ of each } a \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\}.$$

In fact, the **frequency** of every block $d_1 \dots d_k$ of k digits is 10^{-k} :

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{n}\#\{1\leq i\leq n: x_ix_{i+1}\dots x_{i+k-1}=d_1d_2\dots d_k\}=10^{-k}.$$

Normal Numbers

In more generality, a number is called normal in base $b \ge 2$ if the **frequency** of every block $d_1 \dots d_k \in \{0, \dots, b-1\}^k$ is b^{-k} :

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{n}\#\{1\leq i\leq n: x_ix_{i+1}\dots x_{i+k-1}=d_1d_2\dots d_k\}=10^{-k}.$$

Emile Borel proved in 1909 that Lebesgue-a.e., is normal w.r.t. every base $b \ge 2$, based on an intricate use of the (now called) Borel-Cantelli Lemma.

But it is not trivial to find any normal number, even in base 10.

Exercise 1.1: Every rational number $x \in [0, 1] \cap \mathbb{Q}$ is not normal w.r.t. any base.

Question: Is $\pi - 3$ normal? Or e - 2? Or $\sqrt{2} - 1$?

Normal Numbers

The best known example of a normal number is Champernowne's Number:

x = 0.1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22...

but it doesn't look random at all! Similar normal numbers can be obtained by concatenating the primes 0.2 3 5 7 11 13... (Copeland & Erdös, 1946) or the squares 0.1 4 9 16 25 36... (Besicovich, 1953).

A general result (well outside the scope of this lecture):

Theorem: For every polynomial p with real coefficients so that $p(\mathbb{R}^+)\subset\mathbb{R}^+$,

 $0.[p(1)] [p(2)] [p(3)] [p(4)] [p(5)] [p(6)] [p(7)] [p(8)] \dots$

is a normal number in base 10. ([x] is the integer part of x.)

Dynamical Systems

Let (X, T) be dynamical system:

- X is the space, usually compact metric,
- ➤ T is the evulation rule, usually a continous (or at least piecewise continuous) map from X to itself, which we iterate. That is, we study the orbit of points x ∈ X:

$$\operatorname{orb}(x) = x, T(x), \underbrace{T \circ T(x)}_{T^2(x)}, \underbrace{T \circ T \circ T(x)}_{T^3(x)}, \dots$$

A point x is periodic if $T^{p}(x) = x$ for some $p \ge 1$ (the minimal such p is called the period. If p = 1, then x is a fixed point. If x is not periodic, but $T^{n}(x)$ is periodic, it is called eventually periodic.

Orbits can be very chaotic; even the slightest computation or round-off error can blow up rapidly. Therefore orbits are in general very difficult to computed with useful accuracy. In Ergodic Theory we study the average behaviour of orbits. **Dynamical Systems**

Example:



The fixed points are x = k/9, k = 0, ..., 8. The points y = k/10, k = 0, ..., 9 are prefixed.

Take $x = \sqrt{2} - 1$. Is $T^{1000}(x) > \frac{1}{2}$ or $< \frac{1}{2}$? For this you need to know digit x_{1001} of x!

Exercise 1.2: Prove that $T^{1000} \neq \frac{1}{2}$ for $x = \sqrt{2} - 1$.

Exercise 1.3: Prove: $x \in [0, 1] \cap \mathbb{Q}$ if and only if x is (eventually) periodic.

Exercise 1.4: Show that Chapernowne's number x has are current orbit: $x \in \overline{\operatorname{orb}(\mathcal{T}(x))}$.

Exercise 1.5: Show that a normal number in base 10 has a dense orbit under $T(x) = 10x \mod 1$.

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Invariant measures

Definition: A measure is *T*-invariant if $\mu(T^{-1}(A)) = \mu(A)$ for every set *A* in the algebra of μ -measurable sets.

In the example $T(x) = 10x \mod 1$, Lebesgue measure is *T*-invariant, because if $A = (a, b) \subset [0, 1]$,

$$b-a = \operatorname{Leb}(A) = 10 * \frac{b-a}{10} = \operatorname{Leb}(T^{-1}(A)).$$

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Since the Borel sets are generated by the open sets, $\operatorname{Leb}(B) = \operatorname{Leb}(T^{-1}(B))$ for every Borel set. Also $\operatorname{Leb}(N) = \operatorname{Leb}(T^{-1}(N))$ for every null-set N, so Leb is T-invariant.

Dynamical Systems

To simplify our lives a bit, we switch to the doubling map:

$$T: \mathbb{S}^1 \to \mathbb{S}^1, \qquad T(x) = 2x.$$

Invariant measures are:

- Lebesgue measure;
- The Dirac measure δ_0 at the fixed point 0;
- Equidistributions of periodic orbits, e.g. $\frac{1}{2}(\delta_{1/3} + \delta_{2/3})$;
- A measure μ is called atomic if there is $x \in X$ such that $\mu(\{x\}) > 0$.
- Bernoulli measures are T-invariant.
- Convex combinations $\alpha \mu + (1 \alpha)\nu$ of invariant measures are invariant.

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Many many more...

Birkhoff's Ergodic Theorem

Birkhoff's Ergodic Theorem formalizes a frequent observation in physics:

Space Average = Time Average (for typical points).

This is expressed in the Birkhoff's Ergodic Theorem:

Theorem: Let μ be a probability measure and $\psi \in L^1(\mu)$. Then the ergodic average

$$\psi^*(x) := \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \psi \circ T^i(x)$$

exists μ -a.e., and ψ^* is *T*-invariant, i.e., $\psi^* \circ T = \psi^* \mu$ -a.e. If in addition μ is ergodic then

$$\psi^* = \int_X \psi \ d\mu \qquad \mu$$
-a.e.

Recall that μ -a.e. means: all points $x \in X$, except for a null-set.

Birkhoff's Ergodic Theorem

For $T(x) = 10x \mod 1$ and $\mu = \text{Leb}$, we can apply Birkhoff's Theorem. We didn't define ergodic yet, but Lebesgue measure is indeed ergodic in this case.

Take $\psi = 1_{[0,\frac{1}{10})}$ (then $\psi \in L^1(\mu)$. Hence, for Lebesgue-a.e. x:

$$\frac{1}{10} = \int_0^1 \psi \, d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \psi \circ T^k(x)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \# \{ 1 \le k \le n : x_k = 0 \}.$$

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Birkhoff's Ergodic Theorem

By varying the map ψ , we can get the frequency of the other digits, and the frequency of blocks of digits.





Figure: Emile Borel (1871-1956) and George Birkhoff (1884–1944).

Exercise 1.6: Complete the proof of Borel's result, using Birkhoff's Ergodic Theorem.