

# Combinatorial Proof of the Hot Spot Theorem

Ernie Croot

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## 1 Introduction

A problem which has perplexed mathematicians for a long time, is to decide whether the digits of  $\pi$  are random-looking, or whether they contain some hidden regularity. This question is usually formalized as

**Question.** Is  $\pi$  normal base 10 ?

Recall that a real number  $\alpha$  is said to be normal base  $b$  if for every  $k \geq 1$ , every string of digits

$$d_1 d_2 \dots d_k, \quad d_i \in \{0, \dots, b-1\},$$

appears among the digits of  $\alpha$  with the expected frequency; that is, if we write  $\alpha$  in base  $b$ , truncated at the  $M$ th digit, as

$$\alpha(M) = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_t \cdot \alpha_{t+1} \alpha_{t+2} \dots \alpha_M,$$

(here we have assumed  $\alpha > 0$ , though it need not be), and if we let  $C(\alpha(M))$  count the number of times that  $d_1 \dots d_k$  appears as a substring of these digits, which is

$$C(\alpha(M)) = |\{1 \leq j \leq M - k + 1 : \alpha_j = d_1, \alpha_{j+1} = d_2, \dots, \alpha_{j+k-1} = d_k\}|,$$

then

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \frac{C(\alpha(M))}{M} = d^{-k}.$$

It is not difficult to show that this is equivalent to the following, easier to work with definition:  $\alpha$  is normal to the base  $b$  if for every interval  $I \subseteq [0, 1]$  we have that

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|\{n \leq N : \{b^n \alpha\} \in I\}|}{N} = |I|,$$

where  $\{x\}$  denotes the fractional part of  $x$ , and  $|I|$  denotes the length of  $I$ .

Currently, we do not appear to be close to answering the **Question** above, and for that matter, it is not known whether  $\pi$  is normal to any integral base 2 or higher, or even whether the same is true of  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\ln(2)$ ,  $e$ , and many other constants. However, Bailey and Crandall [2] showed that the numbers

$$\alpha_{b,c}(r) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{c^k b^{c^k + r_k}}$$

are normal base  $b$  when  $b, c > 1$  are coprime, and  $r_k$  is the  $k$ th binary digit of an arbitrary real number  $r \in [0, 1)$ , which, among other things, provides a constructive proof of the uncountability of normal numbers to the base  $b$ .

Although it is not known whether  $\pi$  has an expansion of this form (of the  $\alpha$  constants), it does have some remarkable expansions somewhat similar to the one above, involving falling powers of  $c$ . One such expansion was found by Bailey, Borwein and Plouffe [4], and is given as follows

$$\pi = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{16^k} \left( \frac{4}{8k+1} - \frac{2}{8k+4} - \frac{1}{8k+5} - \frac{1}{8k+6} \right).$$

This expansion allowed BBP to determine the  $n$ th digit of  $\pi$  in base 16 using only  $(\log n)^{O(1)}$  bits of computer memory.

Following the original proof of Bailey and Crandall [2] that the  $\alpha_{b,c}(r)$  constants are normal base  $b$ , Bailey [1] developed an alternate proof of this fact using a theorem due to Kuipers and Niederreiter [5] (see Lemma 8.1 on page 71, and exercise 8.8 on page 77), which Bailey calls the ‘Weak Hot spot Theorem’. This theorem is given as follows:

**Theorem 1** *If there exists a constant  $D$  such that for every interval  $I \subseteq [0, 1]$*

$$\limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|\{n \leq N : \{b^n \alpha\} \in I\}|}{N} \leq D|I|,$$

*then  $\alpha$  is normal to the base  $b$ .*

The theorem is asserting that if  $\alpha$  fails to be normal to some base  $b$ , then there are intervals  $I \subseteq [0, 1]$  such that  $\{b^n \alpha\}$  visits  $I$  arbitrarily more often than expected. The fact that the theorem only requires an upper bound on this limsup to prove normality is what makes it highly useful, because upper bounds of this sort (especially if proved using methods such as exponential sums) are much easier to prove.

Following the success of using this theorem to prove normality of the  $\alpha$  constants, Bailey and Misiurewicz [3] generalized this result of Kuipers and Niederreiter, and proved a theorem which they term the ‘Strong Hot spot Theorem’. We will not state this result here.

The method of proof employed by Kuipers and Niederreiter involves measure theory and some elementary functional analysis, and the method of Bailey and Misiurewicz involves ergodic theory; and, from both of these approaches, one is not left with a clear, intuitive idea of why such a result should be true. In this note we give an elementary combinatorial proof of Theorem 1 above, which provides a more natural and satisfying explanation of the ‘hot spot’ phenomena than that provided by the measure theory and ergodic theory approaches (at least more satisfying to a combinatorialist).

## 2 Proof of Theorem 1

First, let us define some terms. Suppose we have an alphabet  $\Sigma$ , consisting of  $b$  symbols. A *finite string*  $s$  over this alphabet will be a finite sequence of symbols

$$s_1 s_2 \dots s_N, \text{ where } s_i \in \Sigma;$$

infinite strings are defined analogously. A *substring* of  $s$  will be a finite sequence of symbols

$$a_1 a_2 \dots a_j, \text{ such that } a_1 = s_n, a_2 = s_{n+1}, \dots, a_j = s_{n+j-1},$$

for some integer  $n \leq N - j + 1$ .

The following claim implies Theorem 1.

**Claim.** Suppose

$$s(N_1), s(N_2), s(N_3), \dots$$

is an infinite sequence of strings over an alphabet  $\Sigma$ , having lengths

$$N_1 < N_2 < N_3 < \dots,$$

respectively. <sup>1</sup> Further, suppose  $w_0$  is some string of length  $k$ , and let  $C(s)$  denote the number of times that  $w_0$  appears as a substring in a finite string  $s$ . Then, for every  $D > 0$ , and every  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , if

$$\frac{C(s(N_i))}{N_i} < (1 - \epsilon)b^{-k}, \text{ or } \frac{C(s(N_i))}{N_i} > (1 + \epsilon)b^{-k},$$

then there is a finite string  $w_1$ , say of length  $\ell = \ell(D, \epsilon)$ , and a subsequence

$$M_1 < M_2 < M_3 < \dots$$

of the integers  $N_i$ , such that  $w_1$  occurs more than  $Db^{-\ell}M_i$  times as a substring of  $s(M_i)$ .

Basically, to use this theorem to prove Theorem 1 we just take  $\Sigma = \{0, \dots, b-1\}$ , and  $s(N)$  will be a truncation of  $\alpha$  in base  $b$  at  $N$  digits. Now, if  $\alpha$  fails to be normal base  $b$ , then it means that there is some  $\epsilon > 0$  and some finite string  $w_0$  (of length  $k$ ) such that for infinitely many  $N$ ,  $w_0$  either appears more than  $(1 + \epsilon)b^{-k}N$  times, or at most  $(1 - \epsilon)b^{-k}N$  times, as a substring of  $s(N)$ . Let

$$N_1 < N_2 < N_3 < \dots$$

be a sequence of integers  $N$  where either of these possibilities occurs. The hypotheses of the claim above are now met, and therefore we have our string  $w_1$  and sequence of integers  $M_i$  with the claimed properties. Now suppose that  $d_1 \dots d_\ell$  is our string  $w_1$ , and let  $x \in [0, 1]$  be given as

$$x = 0 . d_1 d_2 \dots d_\ell.$$

Next, let  $I \subseteq [0, 1]$  be all numbers whose base- $b$  expansion begins like  $x$ ; that is,  $I = [x, x + b^{-\ell})$ . Then, from the conclusion of our claim above, we deduce that

$$\liminf_i \frac{|\{n \leq M_i : \{b^n \alpha\} \in I\}|}{M_i} \geq Db^{-\ell} = D|I|,$$

which clearly proves Theorem 1.

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<sup>1</sup>To understand what this claim is saying, it is perhaps helpful to think of  $s(N_i)$  as the truncation of some infinite string to  $N_i$  symbols.

## 2.1 The Idea of the Proof of the Claim

Basically, the proof will consist of combining a certain counting lemma with an averaging lemma.

The counting lemma shows that for  $k$  fixed and for  $\ell$  tending to infinity, there are very few – in fact,  $o(b^\ell)$  – strings of length  $\ell$ , where some string  $w_0$  of length  $k$  occurs an aberrant number of times.<sup>2</sup>

The averaging lemma will then show that if  $w_0$  occurs an aberrant number of times in  $s(N_i)$ , then there are “lots” of windows of consecutive  $\ell$  symbols (in fact, at least  $cN_i$ ,  $c = c(\epsilon)$ ) appearing in  $s(N_i)$  that themselves contain an aberrant number of copies of  $w_0$ . But by the counting lemma, this will mean that these windows of length  $\ell$  must lie in a set of only  $o(b^\ell)$  strings. Thus, there is some string of length  $\ell$  which appears at least  $cN_i/o(b^\ell)$  times as a substring of  $s(N_i)$ .

At this point we have that each string  $s(N_i)$  contains a highly aberrant substring of length  $\ell$ . By a pigeonhole argument, we will have a sequence of strings  $s(M_1), s(M_2), \dots$  having the *same* highly aberrant pattern of length  $\ell$ , which then would finish the proof of the claim.

## 2.2 Proof of the Claim

Suppose there is some string  $w_0$  of length  $k$  which appears at most  $(1-\epsilon)b^{-k}N_i$  times, or at least  $(1+\epsilon)b^{-k}N_i$  times, as a substring of  $s(N_i)$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots$

We will require the following two lemmas:

**Lemma 1 (Averaging Lemma)** *Let  $s_j(N_i)$  denote the substring of  $s(N_i)$  of length  $\ell$  starting at the  $j$ th symbol.*

*There exists  $c = c(\epsilon)$  such that the following holds for  $i$  sufficiently large: There is a set of at least  $cN_i$  of the substrings  $s_j(N_i)$  in which  $w_0$  appears at most  $(1 - \epsilon/2)b^{-k}\ell$  times, or more than  $(1 + \epsilon/2)b^{-k}\ell$  times.*

**Proof of the lemma.** Consider a copy of  $w_0$  occurring in  $s(N_i)$  starting at the  $t$ th symbol. If  $t \in [\ell, N_i - \ell]$ , then there are exactly  $\ell$  of the substrings  $s_1(N_i), s_2(N_i), \dots$  that also contain that particular copy of  $w_0$ ; on the other hand, if  $t < \ell$  or  $t > N_i - \ell$ , at most  $\ell$  of these substrings contain that copy of  $w_0$ . Thus, if we define  $C(S)$  to be the number of times that the string  $w_0$

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<sup>2</sup>By ‘aberrant’ we mean at most  $(1 - \delta)b^{-k}\ell$  or at least  $(1 + \delta)b^{-k}\ell$  times as a substring.

appears as a substring of a string  $S$ , then we deduce that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N_i-\ell+1} C(s_j(N_i)) = \ell C(s(N_i)) + O(\ell^2).$$

Now suppose  $C(s(N_i)) > (1 + \epsilon)b^{-k}N_i$ . Then, from this equation we deduce that the average value of  $C(s_j(N_i))$ , over  $j = 1, \dots, N_i - \ell + 1$ , is  $(1 + \epsilon - o(1))b^{-k}\ell$ . This clearly implies that there are at least  $cN_i$ ,  $c = c(\epsilon)$  values of  $j = 1, \dots, N_i - \ell + 1$  such that  $C(s_j(N_i)) > (1 - \epsilon/2)b^{-k}\ell$ , once  $N_i$  is sufficiently large. We get the analogous conclusion if  $C(s(N_i)) < (1 - \epsilon)b^{-k}N_i$ , and so the lemma is proved. ■

**Lemma 2 (Counting Lemma)** *Fix  $0 < \delta \leq 1$ , fix a string  $w_0$  of length  $k$ , and let  $f(\ell)$  denote the number of strings of length  $\ell$  that contain either at most  $(1 - \delta)b^{-k}\ell$ , or at least  $(1 + \delta)b^{-k}\ell$ , copies of  $w_0$  as a substring. Then,  $f(\ell) = o(b^\ell)$ .*

**Proof.** We prove this using a probabilistic argument (equivalently, one can use the second moment method). First, let  $Z$  be a random string with  $\ell$  symbols, where each string is equally likely to be chosen. Then, let  $g(Z)$  denote the number of times that  $w_0$  appears as a substring of  $Z$ . We may express

$$g(Z) = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{\ell-k+1},$$

where  $X_i = 1$  if the string  $w_0$  appears as a substring of  $Z$  starting at the  $i$ th symbol, and is 0 if the substring of  $Z$  starting at the  $i$ th symbol does not equal  $w_0$ . These  $X_i$  are therefore Bernoulli random variables which take on the value 1 with probability  $b^{-k}$ , and take on the value 0 with probability  $1 - b^{-k}$ . They are not all independent of one another, but they almost are, as we will see.

Clearly,

$$\mathbb{E}(g(Z)) = b^{-k}(\ell - k + 1) \sim b^{-k}\ell.$$

To compute the variance of  $S(Z)$  we instead calculate

$$\mathbb{E}(g(Z)^2) = \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq \ell - k + 1} \mathbb{E}(X_i X_j). \quad (1)$$

Now, if  $|i - j| \geq k$ , then  $X_i$  and  $X_j$  are independent, in which case

$$\mathbb{E}(X_i X_j) = \mathbb{E}(X_i)\mathbb{E}(X_j);$$

otherwise, we have the simple upper bound

$$\mathbb{E}(X_i X_j) \leq \mathbb{E}(X_i) = b^{-k}.$$

Thus, from (1) we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(g(Z)^2) &\leq \left( \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq \ell - k + 1} \mathbb{E}(X_i)\mathbb{E}(X_j) \right) + b^{-k}k(\ell - k + 1) \\ &= \mathbb{E}(g(Z))^2 + b^{-k}k(\ell - k + 1). \end{aligned}$$

So, the variance satisfies

$$V(g(Z)) = \mathbb{E}(g(Z)^2) - \mathbb{E}(g(Z))^2 \leq b^{-k}k(\ell - k + 1).$$

Chebychev's inequality then gives

$$\mathbb{P}(|g(Z) - \mathbb{E}(g(Z))| > \delta b^{-k} \ell) \leq \frac{V(g(Z))}{\delta^2 b^{-2k} \ell^2} \leq \frac{kb^k}{\delta^2 \ell},$$

which, for a fixed  $k$ , clearly tends to 0 as  $\ell \rightarrow \infty$ . This is saying that with probability  $1 - o(1)$ ,  $g(Z) \in [(1 - \delta)b^{-k}\ell, (1 + \delta)b^{-k}\ell]$ , which clearly proves the lemma. ■

Now, if we apply Lemma 2 with  $\delta = \epsilon/2$  we find that the  $cN_i$  substrings  $s_j(N_i)$  given by Lemma 1, must lie in a set of only  $o(b^\ell)$  strings – thus, one of these few strings of length  $\ell$  appears as a substring  $s_j(N_i)$  at least  $cN_i/o(b^\ell)$  times. This proves that for any  $k, C \geq 1$ , and  $0 < \epsilon < 1$ , there exists  $\ell$  such that for  $N_i$  sufficiently large, there is a string  $w_1(N_i)$  of length  $\ell$  that appears at least  $Cb^{-\ell}N_i$  times as a substring of  $s(N_i)$ . By the pigeonhole principle, there is a string  $w_1$  of length  $\ell$ , and an infinite sequence  $M_1 < M_2 < \dots$ , such that  $w_1 = w_1(M_1) = w_1(M_2) = \dots$ , which proves our theorem.

## References

- [1] D. Bailey, *A Hot Spot Proof of Normality for the Alpha Constants*, available at

<http://crd.lbl.gov/~dhbailey/dhbpapers/alpha-normal.pdf>

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- [4] D. Bailey, P. Borwein, and S. Plouffe, *On the Rapid Computation of Various Polylogarithmic Constants*, *Math. Comp.* **66** (1997), 73-88.
- [5] L Kuipers and H. Niederreiter, *Uniform Distribution of Sequences*, Wiley-Interscience, New York, 1974.