

## Further examples of normal numbers

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### Introduction

*Definition 1. 1.* A number  $\alpha$  is simply normal to the base (or scale)  $r$  iff, in the expansion of the fractional part of  $\alpha$  to the base  $r$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n_c}{n} = \frac{1}{r},$$

for all  $c$ , where  $n_c$  is the number of occurrences of the digit  $c$  in the first  $n$  digits of  $\alpha$ .

*Definition 1. 2.* A number is normal to the base  $r$  iff  $\alpha, r\alpha, r^2\alpha, \dots$  are each simply normal to all the bases  $r, r^2, r^3, \dots$ .

*Definition 1. 3.* A real irrational number  $\alpha$  is said to be a Liouville number iff, for every positive integer  $n$ , there is a rational number  $p/q$ , with  $q > 1$ , depending on  $n$ , such that

$$|\alpha - p/q| < 1/q^n.$$

We shall call the class of such  $\alpha$ ,  $L$ .

It was first proved by E. BOREL [1], who introduced the concept of normal numbers, as above, that almost all real numbers are normal.

There are, however, only a very few numbers that have been proved normal. The first of these is known as Champernowne's number  $x = .1234567891011121314\dots$ , formed by writing the natural numbers in succession. CHAMPERNOWNE [2] showed this number normal to the base ten, while COPELAND and ERDŐS [3] extended the proof for normality to any base  $r$  of the analogous number constructed as above. TH. SCHEIDER [7] shows that Champernowne's number is transcendental but not in  $L$ .

We will introduce the class  $\mathcal{L}$ , which yields normality when its elements are added to normal numbers. This generates a set of normal numbers having the power of the continuum, and different from the known normal numbers. The remainder of the paper will partially characterize the class  $\mathcal{L}$ .

### The class $\mathcal{L}$

*Definition 2. 1.* Let  $c$  be a given digit (or finite sequence of length  $s$  of digits) to the scale  $r$ , and let  $\lambda$  be a number to the scale  $r$  such that the number of non- $c$  digits in the first  $N$  digits ( $sN$  digits) of  $\lambda$  is  $f(N) = o(N)$ .

*Definition 2.2.* We define  $\mathcal{L}$  to be the class of all elements of the type  $\lambda$ .

*Note:* The class  $\mathcal{L}$  is closed under addition and subtraction.

**Theorem 2.1** If  $\lambda$  is an element of  $\mathcal{L}$ , and if  $\alpha$  is normal to the scale  $r$ , then  $\alpha + (p/q)\lambda + p_1/q_1$  is normal to the scale  $r$ , where  $p, q, p_1, q_1$  are integers.

**PROOF.** It is necessary to consider only the case when  $\gamma = \alpha + \lambda$ , since  $\beta = (q/p)\alpha$  is normal. Thus, proving the theorem for  $\beta + \lambda$  gives us the fact that

$$(p/q)(\beta + \lambda) = (p,q)[(q/p)\alpha + \lambda] = \alpha + (p/q)\lambda$$

is normal. Further, we need only consider  $\lambda$  of the form when  $c$  is zero, since  $\lambda - .ccc\dots$  is in  $\mathcal{L}$ , with the dominant digit zero.

Let  $A_s$  be a given block of  $s$  digits to the scale  $r$ . We wish to classify the occurrences of  $A_s$  in  $\alpha$  according to how many digits equal to  $r-1$  follow  $A_s$  before a non- $r-1$  digit occurs. Hence, define  $A_{s+j}$  to be a block of  $s+j+1$  digits, equal to  $r-1$ , followed by a non- $r-1$  digit. Since, for each  $k$ , the fractional part of  $r^k$  is less than one, the part to be carried in adding  $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$  will never exceed one. Thus, a non-zero digit from  $\lambda$ , added into  $\alpha$  to the right of  $A_{s+j}$  does not change the  $A_s$  part. Further, any digit of  $\lambda$ , added into the block  $A_{s+j}$  can change no more than the one  $A_s$  block occurring in that  $A_{s+j}$ .

Now, we fix  $j \geq 0$  and  $A_s$ , and from the normality of  $\alpha$  and a result of NIVEN-ZUCKERMAN [6], we find that

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N(A_{s+j})}{N} = \frac{1}{r^{s+j+1}},$$

for each  $A_{s+j}$ , where  $N(A_{s+j})$  stands for the number of occurrences of the blocks  $A_{s+j}$  in the first  $N$  digits of  $\alpha$ . But there are  $r-1$  possible assignments to the non-zero digit terminating  $A_{s+j}$ ; hence

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N(A_{s+j})}{N} = \frac{r-1}{r^{s+j+1}},$$

for all  $A_{s+j}$ .

Thus for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $t > 0$ , we may find an  $M$ , such that

$$\left| \frac{N(A_{s+j})}{N} - \frac{r-1}{r^{s+j+1}} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2t},$$

if  $N > M$ ; or, in particular, we have

$$-\frac{N\varepsilon}{2t} < N(A_{s+j}) - \frac{r-1}{r^{s+j+1}} N.$$

If  $N'(A_{s+j})$  represents the number of these  $A_s$  blocks within  $A_{s+j}$  blocks that are preserved in the first  $N$  digits of  $\gamma = \alpha + \lambda$ , we have

$$N'(A_{s+j}) + f(N) \geq N(A_{s+j}),$$

and

$$-\frac{N\varepsilon}{2t} - f(N) < N'(A_{s+j}) - \frac{r-1}{r^{s+j+1}} N.$$

Thus

$$\sum_{j=0}^t \left[ -\frac{N\varepsilon}{2t} - f(N) \right] < \sum_{j=0}^t \left[ N'(A_{s+j}) - \frac{N(r-1)}{r^{s+j+1}} \right],$$

or

$$-\frac{N\varepsilon}{2} - tf(N) < \sum_{j=0}^t N'(A_{s+j}) - \frac{N(r-1)}{r^{s+1}} \sum_{j=0}^t \frac{1}{r^j} \cong \sum_{j=0}^t N'(A_{s+j}) - \frac{N(r^{t+1}-1)}{r^{s+t+1}},$$

or finally,

$$\sum_{j=0}^t \frac{N'(A_{s+j})}{N} - \frac{r^{t+1}-1}{r^{s+t+1}} > -\frac{\varepsilon}{2} - \frac{tf(N)}{N}.$$

Since  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} f(N)/N = 0$ , we may choose  $N$  so large that  $f(N)/N < \varepsilon/2t$ , or  $-\varepsilon/2t < -f(N)/N$ . We now define  $N'(A_s)$  to be the number of occurrences of  $A_s$  blocks in the first  $N$  digits of  $\gamma$ . Then, since  $N'(A_s) \cong \sum_{j=0}^t N'(A_{s+j})$ , we have for some  $N$ ,

$$\sum_{s=0}^t r^s \frac{N'(A_{s+j})}{N} - \frac{1}{r^s} > -\frac{\varepsilon}{2} - t \left( \frac{\varepsilon}{2t} \right) - \frac{1}{r^{s+t+1}},$$

or

$$\frac{N'(A_s)}{N} - \frac{1}{r^s} > -\varepsilon - \frac{1}{r^{s+t+1}}.$$

Thus,

$$\liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{N'(A_s)}{N} - \frac{1}{r^s} \right) \cong -\frac{1}{r^{s+t+1}},$$

and the left member is independent of  $t$ , while the right is as small as one pleases, which implies that

$$\liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{N'(A_s)}{N} - \frac{1}{r^s} \right) \cong 0.$$

From lemma 8.2 of [5], it follows that

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{N'(A_s)}{N} - \frac{1}{r^s} \right) = 0,$$

and using the Niven-Zuckerman result once more, it follows that  $\gamma = \alpha + \lambda$  is normal.

### A partial characterization of the class $\mathcal{L}$

We state two lemmas which are not difficult to prove.

**Lemma 3.1.** *If  $p/q$  is a rational number such that  $(p, q) = 1$ , and if there exists a rational number  $p_1/q_1$ ,  $(p_1, q_1) = 1$ , satisfying the relationship*

$$\frac{p}{q} < \frac{p_1}{q_1} < \frac{p}{q} + \frac{1}{mq},$$

where  $m$  is an integer  $\cong q - 1$ , then  $q_1 \cong q$ . Further, the condition  $m \cong q - 1$  is necessary.

**Lemma 3.2.** *If  $p/q$  is a rational number,  $(p, q) = 1$ , satisfying*

$$\frac{t10^{s+1} + 1}{10^{2s+1}} < \frac{p}{q} < \frac{t10^{s+1} + 1}{10^{2s+1}} + \frac{1}{q^n},$$

for integers  $n, s$ , and  $t$  such that  $(t, 10^{2s+1}) = 1$ , and  $q^n > 10^{2s-1}$ , then  $q \geq 10^{s-2}$ .

PROOF. There is some rational fraction  $p_1/q_1$  such that

$$\frac{p}{q} = \frac{t10^{s+1} + 1}{10^{2s+1}} + \frac{p_1}{q_1},$$

which gives us  $p_1/q_1 < 1/q^n < 1/10^{2s-1}$ , or  $p_1 10^{2s-1} < q_1$ . Further combining the right hand side of this equality, we get

$$\frac{p}{q} = \frac{q_1(t10^{s+1} + 1) + p_1 10^{2s+1}}{q_1 10^{2s+1}}.$$

Now if  $q_1$  contains a power of ten, not equal to  $2s+1$ , we are done; for if  $q_1 = 10^v q'$ , where  $10 \nmid q'$ , and  $v = 2s+1+r$  for  $r > 0$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{p}{q} &= \frac{10^{2s+1+r} q' (t10^{s+1} + 1) + p_1 10^{2s+1}}{10^{2s+1} 10^{2s+1+r} q'} \\ &= \frac{10^r q' (t10^{s+1} + 1) + p_1}{10^{2s+1+r} q'}. \end{aligned}$$

But at most, we can divide  $10^r$  out of both numerator and denominator of this last fraction, when  $p_1 = 10^{r+u} p_2$  for some positive integer  $p_2$ , and  $u \geq 0$ ; and at least, this fraction is in lowest terms when  $(p_1, 10) = 1$ , since  $(p_1, q_1) = 1$ , and hence  $(p_1, q') = 1$ . Then we have  $q \geq 10^{2s+1} q'$ , and our result follows immediately.

Similarly, if  $q_1 = 10^v q'$ , where  $10 \nmid q'$ , and  $v = 2s+1-r$  for some positive  $r \leq 2s+1$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{p}{q} &= \frac{q' 10^{2s+1-r} (t10^{s+1} + 1) + p_1 10^{2s+1}}{10^{2s+1} 10^{2s+1-r} q'} \\ &= \frac{q' (t10^{s+1} + 1) + p_1 10^r}{10^{s+1} q'}. \end{aligned}$$

And the most that can happen to this fraction is its reduction by some power of two or some power of five, when and only when  $q'$  is a multiple of this common divisor. In any case, our power of ten in the denominator remains intact, and  $q \geq 10^{2s+1}$ , yielding the desired result.

We suppose, finally, that  $v = 2s + 1$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{p}{q} &= \frac{10^{2s+1} q' (t10^{s+1} + 1) + p_1 10^{2s+1}}{10^{2s+1} 10^{2s+1} q'} = \\ &= \frac{q' (t10^{s+1} + 1) + p_1}{10^{2s+1} q'} = \\ &= \frac{tq' 10^{s+1} + (q' + p_1)}{10^{2s+1} q'}. \end{aligned}$$

Now assume  $q' < 10^{s-2}$ . We have  $p_1 10^{2s-1} < q_1$ , and  $q_1 = 10^{2s+1} q'$ , so  $p_1 < 10^2 q'$ . Then

$$q' + p_1 < q' + 10^2 q' = 101 q' < 10^3 q' < 10^3 10^{s-2} = 10^{s+1}.$$

Thus, with an argument analogous to those preceding, we find that not quite as much as  $10^{s+1}$  could possibly be factored out of both numerator and denominator of our fraction, and hence,

$$q > \frac{10^{2s+1} q'}{10^{s+1}} = 10^s q',$$

and our result follows.

Assuming  $q' \cong 10^{s-2}$ , we find by an argument similar to that of the preceding lemma that the maximum divisor of both numerator and denominator is  $10^{2s+1}$ , giving us  $q \cong q' \cong 10^{s-2}$ .

We are now ready to look closely at the class  $\mathcal{L}$ . First we make the following definition of E. MAILLET [4]:

*Definition 3.1.* A real number

$$x = A + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\delta_n}{q^{\psi(n)}},$$

(where  $\delta_n$  is a positive integer  $\cong q - 1$ ,  $A$  and  $q$  are positive integers, and  $\psi(n)$  is a monotone increasing function of  $n$ , taking on integral values), is a quasi-rational number iff  $x$ , when represented to the base  $q$ , contains after the  $\psi(n)$ <sup>th</sup> digit,  $\delta_n$ , followed by an increasing number of zeros. We will show, in the remainder of this paper:

**Theorem 3.1.**  $\mathcal{L} \cap L \neq \emptyset$ .

**Theorem 3.2.**  $\mathcal{L} \not\subset L$ .

**Theorems 3.3. and 3.4.**  $L \not\subset \mathcal{L}$ .

Note that  $R \subset \mathcal{L}$ , where  $R$  represents the rationals, and  $R \supset$  quasirationals.

PROOF of *Theorem 3.1.* Take

$$\alpha = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{n!}} = .110001000000000000000010 \dots$$

It is clear that  $\alpha$  is in  $\mathcal{L}$ , since  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} f(N)/N = 0$ , where  $f(N)$  is the number of occurrences of the digit "1" in the first  $N$  digits of  $\alpha$ . It is also well known that  $\alpha$  is Liouville.

PROOF of *Theorem 3.2*. Consider  $\alpha = .10100010000000100\dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 10^{-\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 2^i}$

Again,  $\alpha$  is in class  $\mathcal{L}$ . The proof that  $\alpha$  is not in  $L$  is by contradiction. Thus, we assume  $\alpha$  is Liouville; hence that, for every positive integer  $n$ , there is a rational  $p/q$ , dependent upon  $n$ ,  $q > 1$ , such that  $|\alpha - p/q| < 1/q^n$ . This equality may be further written as  $p/q - 1/q^n < \alpha < p/q + 1/q^n$ , and we will consider two cases: first if  $p/q < \alpha < p/q + 1/q^n$  for some  $n \geq 3$ , and second, when  $p/q - 1/q^n < \alpha < p/q$ .

In both of these cases, we will use the following notation:

We wish to keep track of the digits in equalling "1". Thus

(i) the  $k^{\text{th}}$  occurrence of a one will be in the  $q_k^{\text{th}}$  digit =  $10^{e_k}$ , where  $e_k = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 2^i$ .

Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} e_k &= \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} 2^i + 2^{k-1} = \\ &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^{k-2} 2^{i-1} + 2^{k-1} + 1 = \\ &= 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-3} 2^i + 2 \cdot 2^{k-2} + 1 = \\ &= 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} 2^i + 1 = 2e_{k-1} + 1. \end{aligned}$$

(ii)  $\alpha_k$  is the partial representation of  $\alpha$  up to and including the  $k^{\text{th}}$  occurrence of a one, followed only by zeros.

(iii)  $\alpha_k = p_k/q_k$ .

Using this notation, we see that  $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \alpha$  for all  $k$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_k = \alpha$ .

*Case 1.* Here,  $p/q < \alpha < p/q + 1/q^n$ . We may restrict our consideration to  $n \geq 3$ .

Since  $p/q$  is less than  $\alpha$ , and  $p/q$  is rational, we find that  $p/q$  and  $\alpha$  agree in representation, digit by digit, until the  $q_k^{\text{th}}$  digit, where  $\alpha$  contains a "1", but  $p/q$  contains a "0", and is followed by any sequence of digits. Thus, using the notation above, we have

(1) 
$$\alpha_{k-1} \leq p/q < \alpha_k, \text{ for some integer } k.$$

But, if  $\alpha_{k-1} = p_{k-1}/q_{k-1} = p/q$ , since both are reduced to their lowest terms, it follows that  $q_{k-1} = q = 10^{e_{k-1}}$ , and  $p_{k-1} = p$ , and recalling that  $e_k = 2e_{k-1} + 1$ , the only way for  $p/q + 1/q^n$  to exceed  $\alpha$  is for  $n \leq 2$ .

(This is true, since  $p_{k-1}/q_{k-1}$  agrees with  $\alpha$  for the first  $q_{k-1}$  digits, and one can multiply by at most  $10^{e_{k-1}}$  and add a one in order to exceed  $\alpha$ . That is, the least addition to  $p_{k-1}/q_{k-1}$  will be a string of zeros, then a one, the digital length of which equals that of  $p_{k-1}$ , which is equivalent to squaring the base.)

This equality is impossible under our assumption that  $n \geq 3$ , and (1) becomes

$$\alpha_{k-1} < p/q < \alpha_k$$

or

$$(2) \quad p_{k-1}/q_{k-1} < p/q < p_k/q_k.$$

Now  $q_k = 10^{e_k} = 10^{2e_{k-1}+1} = 10^{e_{k-1}} \cdot 10^{e_{k-1}+1}$ , and  $p_k = p_{k-1} \cdot 10^{e_{k-1}+1} + 1$ , which implies

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{p_k}{q_k} &= \frac{p_{k-1} \cdot 10^{e_{k-1}+1} + 1}{10^{e_{k-1}} \cdot 10^{e_{k-1}+1}} \\ &= \frac{p_{k-1}}{q_{k-1}} + \frac{1}{q_{k-1} \cdot 10^{e_{k-1}+1}}. \end{aligned}$$

Letting  $m = 10^{e_{k-1}+1}$  and using the above equality, we may write (2) as

$$\frac{p_{k-1}}{q_{k-1}} < \frac{p}{q} < \frac{p_{k-1}}{q_{k-1}} + \frac{1}{q_{k-1} \cdot m}.$$

It is evident that  $m > q$ , so we apply lemma 3.1 to the above inequality to obtain  $q \geq q_{k-1}$ . Then

$$(3) \quad 1/q^n \leq 1/q_{k-1}^n.$$

Further, we have  $n \geq 3$ , so (3) becomes, after expansion:

$$1/q^n \leq 1/q_{k-1}^n \leq 1/q_{k-1}^3 = 1/10^{3e_{k-1}}.$$

And this implies that  $-1/q^n$  affects at most, the  $10^{3e_{k-1}-1}$ st digit in the expansion of  $\alpha$ . That is, adding  $1/q^n$  to  $p/q$  cannot affect the digits before the one containing the  $k^{\text{th}}$  "1", since this occurs in the  $10^{2e_{k-1}-1}$ st digit. But, the only way  $p/q$  can be made to exceed  $\alpha$  is to change one of the zeros in the first  $q_k$  digits of  $p/q$  to a one.

Therefore,  $1/q^n + p/q < \alpha$ , which contradicts the assumption that  $\alpha$  is Liouville, and  $\alpha < p/q + 1/q^n$ . Thus  $\alpha$  is not Liouville in this case.

*Case 2.* We now consider  $p/q - 1/q^n < \alpha < p/q$ . But case 1 implies that for all  $n \geq 3$ , if  $\alpha$  lies in the right half of the interval  $(p/q - 1/q^n, p/q + 1/q^n)$ , we do not have  $\alpha$  Liouville; so if  $\alpha$  is Liouville,  $\alpha$  must lie in the left half of the above interval for all  $n \geq 3$ . It is then necessary to find only one  $n$  implying a contradiction to deny our assumption that  $\alpha$  is Liouville.

Using the notation as before, we find there is some integer  $k$ , such that

$$\alpha_{k-1} \leq p/q - 1/q^n < \alpha_k.$$

Now, if  $\alpha_{k-1} = p/q - 1/q^n$ , then  $q_{k-1} = q^n = 10^{e_{k-1}}$ , since  $(pq^{n-1} - 1, q^n) = 1$ . But, adding  $1/q^n = 1/10^{e_{k-1}}$  to  $\alpha_{k-1}$  changes  $\alpha_{k-1}$  only in the last non-zero digit, which becomes a two, and so the sum, equal to  $p/q$ , is not in lowest terms, since  $(p, q) = 2$ . (One cannot reduce  $p$  and  $q$  further, for there is no way for  $(q/2)^n$  to equal  $10^{e_{k-1}}$ .)

Hence, we have the inequality

$$\alpha_{k-1} < p/q - 1/q^n < \alpha_k$$

or

$$(4) \quad \alpha_{k-1} < \alpha_{k-1} + 1/q^n < p/q < \alpha_k + 1/q^n.$$

By the construction of  $\alpha$ , the only way for  $p/q$  to exceed  $\alpha$  is for  $1/q^n$  to exceed  $1/10^{e_k}$ , or more appropriately, for the inequality

$$\frac{1}{q^n} > \frac{1}{10^{2e_k-1}}$$

to hold. Then we may apply lemma 3.2 to (4), and let

$$q \equiv 10^{e_k-2} = 10^{2e_k-1-1},$$

and the conclusion follows exactly as that of case 1.

Thus we have shown  $\alpha$  not Liouville.

To demonstrate a Liouville number that is not in class  $\mathcal{L}$ , we consider the number

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= .\overbrace{1100011}^{17} \dots \overbrace{110}^{120-24} \dots \overbrace{011}^{720-120} \dots 110\dots \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n/q_n, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} q_n &= 10^{n!}, \\ p_1 &= 1, \\ p_{2k} &= p_{2k-1} 10^{(2k)!-(2k-1)!} + \sum_{i=0}^{(2k)!-(2k-1)!-1} 10^i \\ p_{2k+1} &= p_{2k} 10^{(2k)!-(2k-1)!} + 1. \end{aligned}$$

We wish to show first that

*Theorem 3.3.*  $\alpha$  is Liouville.

PROOF. This is not difficult to show.

*Theorem 3.4.* The  $\alpha$  in theorem 3.3 is not in class  $\mathcal{L}$ .

PROOF. Since  $\alpha$  is the limit of a sequence of rationals, we may write  $\alpha$  independently as the limit of two subsequences,

$$\alpha = \alpha_1 = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p_{2k-1}}{q_{2k-1}},$$

and

$$\alpha = \alpha_2 = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p_{2k}}{q_{2k}}.$$

If we count the number of occurrences of the non-zero digit one in the first  $q_{2k}$  digits of  $\alpha_2$ , we find this frequency has a superior limit = 1. But, counting this frequency in the first  $q_{2k-1}$  digits of  $\alpha_1$  gives us an inferior limit = 0. Thus, in  $\alpha$ ,

$$\limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(N)}{N} \neq \liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(N)}{N},$$

where  $f(N)$  is the number of non-zero digits occurring in the first  $N$  digits of  $\alpha$ ; and hence,

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(N)}{N} \text{ does not exist.}$$



We have shown that  $\alpha$  is not in class  $\mathcal{L}$ .

In passing, we remark that the number  $\alpha$ , just defined, is also a quasi-rational number.

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