

NOTES ON UNIFORM DISTRIBUTION MODULO ONE

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Abstract

We exhibit a sequence (u_n) which is not uniformly distributed modulo one even though for each fixed integer $k \geq 2$ the sequence (ku_n) is u.d. (mod 1). Within the set of all such sequences, we characterize those with a well-behaved asymptotic distribution function. We exhibit a sequence (u_n) which is u.d. (mod 1) even though no subsequence of the form (u_{kn+j}) is u.d. (mod 1) for any $k \geq 2$. We prove that, if the subsequences (u_{kn}) are u.d. (mod 1) for all squarefree k which are products of primes in a fixed set \mathcal{P} , then (u_n) is u.d. (mod 1) if the sum of the reciprocals of the primes in \mathcal{P} diverges. We show that this result is the best possible of its type.

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1. Introduction

We recall the rudiments of the theory of sequences uniformly distributed modulo one (hereinafter abbreviated as u.d. (mod 1)). The standard reference for this material is [1].

By $\{x\}$ we mean the fractional part of x (we use the same notation for sets, but context should make the meaning clear). A sequence $(u_n) = (u_1, u_2, \dots)$ of real numbers is said to be u.d. (mod 1) if

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{n \leq N : \alpha \leq \{u_n\} < \beta\} = \beta - \alpha$$

for all α, β with $0 \leq \alpha < \beta \leq 1$. Writing $e(x)$ for $e^{2\pi i x}$ we can state the Weyl criterion as follows.

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THEOREM 1. *The sequence (u_n) is u.d. (mod 1) if and only if*

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e(hu_n) = 0$$

for all non-zero integers h .

We conclude our review with some immediate consequences of the Weyl criterion.

COROLLARY 1. *If (u_n) is u.d. (mod 1) then so is (ku_n) for any non-zero integer k .*

COROLLARY 2. *If for fixed $k \geq 1$ and for all j , $1 \leq j \leq k$, the sequence (u_{kn+j}) is u.d. (mod 1) then (u_n) is u.d. (mod 1).*

2. Multiples

In this section we first show by example that even a very weak converse of Corollary 1 is false.

THEOREM 2. *There exists a sequence (u_n) , not u.d. (mod 1), such that (ku_n) is u.d. (mod 1) for all integers $k \geq 2$.*

PROOF. Let $g(x) = x + \frac{1}{2\pi} \sin 2\pi x$. Note that g is a continuous, increasing function on $[0, 1]$, $g(0) = 0$, and $g(1) = 1$. Thus g has an inverse, h , with these same properties. Let (x_n) be any sequence u.d. (mod 1), and let $u_n = h(\{x_n\})$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$. We claim that (u_n) satisfies the conditions of the theorem.

For any sequence (v_n) , and for $0 \leq \alpha < \beta \leq 1$, let us write $\text{pr}(\alpha \leq v < \beta)$ for

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{n \leq N : \alpha \leq v_n < \beta\},$$

if the limit exists. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{pr}(\alpha \leq u < \beta) &= \text{pr}(\alpha \leq h(\{x\}) < \beta) \\ &= \text{pr}(g(\alpha) \leq \{x\} < g(\beta)) = g(\beta) - g(\alpha) \end{aligned}$$

since x_n is u.d. (mod 1). But $g(\beta) - g(\alpha) = \beta - \alpha + \frac{1}{2\pi}(\sin 2\pi\beta - \sin 2\pi\alpha)$ which is, in general, not equal to $\beta - \alpha$, so (u_n) is not u.d. (mod 1).

Now let k be any integer greater than 1. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{pr}(\alpha \leq \{ku\} < \beta) &= \text{pr}(\alpha \leq \{kh(x)\} < \beta) \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \text{pr}(\alpha + r \leq kh(x) < \beta + r) \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \text{pr}\left(\frac{\alpha + r}{k} \leq h(x) < \frac{\beta + r}{k}\right) \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \text{pr}\left(g\left(\frac{\alpha + r}{k}\right) \leq x < g\left(\frac{\beta + r}{k}\right)\right) \\ &= \sum_r \left(g\left(\frac{\beta + r}{k}\right) - g\left(\frac{\alpha + r}{k}\right)\right) \\ &= \beta - \alpha + \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_r \left(\sin 2\pi\left(\frac{\beta + r}{k}\right) - \sin 2\pi\left(\frac{\alpha + r}{k}\right)\right) \\ &= \beta - \alpha \end{aligned}$$

since $\sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \sin 2\pi(z + r/k) = 0$ for all real z and $k = 2, 3, \dots$.

We now show that all the “nice” examples of sequences with the property given in Theorem 2 are essentially those produced in the proof of that theorem.

THEOREM 3. *Suppose (ku_n) is u.d. (mod 1) for $k = 2, 3, \dots$, and $g(x) = \text{pr}(0 \leq \{u\} < x)$ exists and is continuous. Then*

$$g(x) = x + c_1(1 - \cos 2\pi x) + c_2 \sin 2\pi x$$

for some constants c_1, c_2 , and, if $x_n = g(u_n)$, then (x_n) is u.d. (mod 1).

REMARK. In an earlier version of this paper the conclusion of this theorem rested on the stronger hypothesis that g be differentiable. We thank Boping Jin for showing us how to weaken the hypothesis.

PROOF. By hypothesis we have, for $k = 2, 3, \dots$, and $0 \leq \alpha < \beta \leq 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \beta - \alpha &= \text{pr}(\alpha \leq \{ku\} < \beta) \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \text{pr}(\alpha + r \leq k\{u\} < \beta + r) \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \text{pr}\left(\frac{\alpha + r}{k} \leq \{u\} < \frac{\beta + r}{k}\right) \\ &= \sum_r \left(g\left(\frac{\beta + r}{k}\right) - g\left(\frac{\alpha + r}{k}\right)\right). \end{aligned}$$

Let $\alpha = 0, \beta = x$; then $\sum_r g((x+r)/k) - x = \sum_r g(r/k)$, a constant. Thus for $m \geq 1$ we have

$$\int_0^1 e(-mx) \sum_r g\left(\frac{x+r}{k}\right) dx = \int_0^1 x e(-mx) dx.$$

The right side of this equation is simply $-i/2\pi m$. Call the left side a_m ; we get

$$\begin{aligned} a_m &= \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \int_0^1 e(-mx) g\left(\frac{x+r}{k}\right) dx \\ &= \sum_r k \int_{r/k}^{(r+1)/k} e(-m(ky-r)) g(y) dy \\ &= k \int_0^1 e(-mky) g(y) dy. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\int_0^1 e(-ny) g(y) dy = -\frac{i}{2\pi n} \quad \text{for } n = k, 2k, \dots$$

But $k = 2, 3, \dots$, so

$$\int_0^1 e(-ny) g(y) dy = -\frac{i}{2\pi n} \quad \text{for } n = 2, 3, \dots$$

Thus, the Fourier coefficients of $g(x)$ and of x are identical for $n \geq 2$, so

$$g(x) = x + c_1 + c_2 \sin 2\pi x + c_3 \cos 2\pi x$$

for some constants c_1, c_2, c_3 . Since $g(0) = 0$ we have $c_1 + c_3 = 0$, and we have established the form of g .

Now let $x_n = g(u_n)$. Note that g is increasing, so $h = g^{-1}$ is defined. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{pr}(\alpha \leq x < \beta) &= \text{pr}(\alpha \leq g(u) < \beta) \\ &= \text{pr}(h(\alpha) \leq u < h(\beta)) \\ &= g(h(\beta)) - g(h(\alpha)) = \beta - \alpha, \end{aligned}$$

so (x_n) is u.d. (mod 1).

3. Subsequences

In this section we first show by example that even a very weak converse of Corollary 2 is false. We use p only for primes, we write $n \pmod p$ for the least non-negative residue of n modulo p , and we write $P(M)$ for $\prod_{p \leq M} p$.

THEOREM 4. *The sequence (u_n) given by*

$$u_n = \sum_p \frac{n \pmod p}{P(p)},$$

is u.d. (mod 1), but for fixed $k, j, k \geq 2$, no subsequence of the form u_{kn+j} is u.d. (mod 1).

Our proof uses some simple facts about the Cantor expansion of a real number. We collect these facts in a lemma.

LEMMA. *Every α in $[0, 1)$ has an expansion of the form*

$$\alpha = \sum_p \frac{\alpha_p}{P(p)}, \quad \text{where } \alpha_p \text{ are integers, } 0 \leq \alpha_p \leq p - 1.$$

If we exclude expansions in which $\alpha_p = p - 1$ for all p sufficiently large, the expansion is unique. The expansion of α terminates (that is, $\alpha_p = 0$ for all p sufficiently large) if and only if $\alpha = c/P(M)$ for some M and some integer $c, 0 \leq c < P(M)$. Let

$$\frac{c}{P(M)} = \sum_{p \leq M} \frac{\beta_p}{P(p)}, \quad 0 \leq \beta_p \leq p - 1.$$

If p is the largest prime not exceeding M , then $c \equiv \beta_p \pmod p$; if

$$\frac{c}{P(M)} \leq \alpha < \frac{c+1}{P(M)},$$

then $\alpha_p = \beta_p$ for $p \leq M$.

PROOF OF THEOREM. We first prove that (u_n) is u.d. (mod 1). Given α and β with $0 \leq \alpha < \beta \leq 1$, and given $\varepsilon > 0$, let M be such that $P(M) > \varepsilon^{-1}$, let $a = [\alpha P(M)]$, and let $b = [\beta P(M)]$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \#\{n \leq N : \alpha \leq u_n < \beta\} &= \#\left\{n \leq N : \frac{a}{P(M)} \leq u_n < \frac{b+1}{P(M)}\right\} \\ &= \sum_{c=a}^b \#\left\{n \leq N : \frac{c}{P(M)} \leq u_n < \frac{c+1}{P(M)}\right\} \\ &= \sum_{c=a}^b \#\{n \leq N : n \equiv \beta_p(c) \pmod p, p \leq M\} \\ &\leq \sum_{c=a}^b \left(\frac{N}{P(M)} + 1\right) \\ &= (b - a + 1) \frac{N}{P(M)} + b - a + 1, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\frac{c}{P(M)} = \sum_{p \leq M} \frac{\beta_p(c)}{P(p)}.$$

Thus

$$\frac{1}{N} \#\{n \leq N : \alpha \leq u_n < \beta\} \leq \beta - \alpha + 3\epsilon$$

for N sufficiently large. A similar argument shows that

$$\frac{1}{N} \#\{n \leq N : \alpha \leq u_n < \beta\} \geq \beta - \alpha - 3\epsilon$$

for N sufficiently large, whence (u_n) is u.d. (mod 1).

Now consider (u_{kn+j}) , k and j fixed, $k \geq 2$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Let p be any prime dividing k , so (u_{kn+j}) is a subsequence of (u_{pn+j}) . Let j' be any integer with $j' \not\equiv j \pmod{p}$, and $0 \leq j' < P(p)$. Then

$$\frac{j'}{P(p)} \leq u_{pn+j} < \frac{j'+1}{P(p)}$$

is impossible, so

$$\frac{j'}{P(p)} \leq u_{kn+j} < \frac{j'+1}{P(p)}$$

is impossible, and (u_{kn+j}) is not u.d. (mod 1).

Our final result can be seen as complementary to Corollary 2.

THEOREM 5. *Let \mathcal{P} be a set of primes such that $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p}$ diverges. Let \mathcal{K} denote the set of squarefree integers divisible only by primes in \mathcal{P} . If (u_{kn}) is u.d. (mod 1) for every $k > 1$ in \mathcal{K} then (u_n) is u.d. (mod 1).*

REMARK. If \mathcal{P} is a set of primes such that $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p}$ converges then given any irrational α the sequence (u_n) given by

$$u_n = \begin{cases} n\alpha, & \text{if } p|n \text{ for some } p \in \mathcal{P}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

has the property that (u_{kn}) is u.d. (mod 1) for any k divisible by some prime in \mathcal{P} , but (u_n) is not u.d. (mod 1) since $u_n = 0$ on a set of positive density.

PROOF. We put

$$P(\mathcal{P}, M) = \prod_{\substack{p \in \mathcal{P} \\ p \leq M}} p.$$

By the Weyl criterion, we have

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e(mu_{kn}) = 0$$

for all non-zero integers m and all $k \in \mathcal{K}$, $k > 1$. Thus given $M > 0$ there is an $N_0 = N_0(m, M)$ such that if $N > N_0$ then

$$(1) \quad \frac{k}{N} \left| \sum_{n=1}^{N/k} e(mu_{kn}) \right| < \frac{1}{M}$$

for all $k|P(\mathcal{P}, M)$, $k > 1$. Now

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{N} \left| \sum_{n=1}^N e(mu_n) \right| &\leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\substack{k|P(\mathcal{P}, M) \\ k > 1}} |\mu(k)| \left| \sum_{n=1}^{N/k} e(mu_{kn}) \right| + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\substack{n \leq N \\ (n, P(\mathcal{P}, M)) = 1}} 1 \\ &\leq \frac{1}{M} \prod_{p|P(\mathcal{P}, M)} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p}\right) + \prod_{p|P(\mathcal{P}, M)} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) \end{aligned}$$

by (1). The first term on the right goes to 0 as M goes to infinity:

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{p|P(\mathcal{P}, M)} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p}\right) &\leq \prod_{p \leq M} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p}\right) \\ &= \exp \sum_{p \leq M} \log \left(1 + \frac{1}{p}\right) \leq \exp \sum_{p \leq M} \frac{1}{p} = O(\log M). \end{aligned}$$

Since $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p}$ diverges, the second term on the right also goes to zero as M goes to infinity. Hence, (u_n) is u.d. (mod 1), by Weyl's criterion.

4. Multiples in higher dimensions

We conclude with a discussion of uniform distribution in higher dimensions, where the statement analogous to Theorem 2 goes badly wrong. A sequence (\mathbf{u}_n) of real m -tuples is said to be u.d. (mod 1) if

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \# \{n \leq N : \boldsymbol{\alpha} \leq \mathbf{u}_n < \boldsymbol{\beta}\} = |\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\alpha}|$$

for all $\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}$ with $\mathbf{0} \leq \boldsymbol{\alpha} < \boldsymbol{\beta} \leq \mathbf{1}$; here, and below, (\mathbf{u}_n) means $(\{u_n^{(1)}\}, \dots, \{u_n^{(m)}\})$; $(x_1, \dots, x_m) < (y_1, \dots, y_m)$ means $x_j < y_j$ for $j = 1, \dots, m$; $|(x_1, \dots, x_m)|$ means $x_1 x_2 \dots x_m$; $\mathbf{0}$ means $(0, \dots, 0)$, and $\mathbf{1}$ means $(1, \dots, 1)$. The Weyl criterion is

THEOREM 1'. *The sequence (\mathbf{u}_n) is u.d. (mod 1) if and only if*

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e(\mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{u}_n) = 0$$

for all non-zero integer m -tuples \mathbf{h} .

An immediate consequence is

COROLLARY 1'. *If (\mathbf{u}_n) is u.d. (mod 1) then so is $(A\mathbf{u}_n)$ for any non-singular integer matrix A .*

Another simple consequence is

COROLLARY 3. *If A is an integer matrix with determinant ± 1 and $(A\mathbf{u}_n)$ is u.d. (mod 1) then (\mathbf{u}_n) is u.d. (mod 1).*

PROOF. Under the hypotheses, A^{-1} has integer entries, so, by the previous corollary, $(A^{-1}A\mathbf{u}_n)$ is u.d. (mod 1).

A statement analogous to Theorem 2 would be, “there exists a sequence (\mathbf{u}_n) , not u.d. (mod 1), such that $(A\mathbf{u}_n)$ is u.d. (mod 1) for all integer matrices A with $\det A \geq 2$.” However, this statement is far from being true. Instead we have

THEOREM 6. *Let S be a set of $m \times m$ integer matrices, and suppose that for every integer row m -vector \mathbf{h} there exists a matrix A in S and an integer row m -vector \mathbf{k} such that $\mathbf{k}A = \mathbf{h}$. Then if $(A\mathbf{u}_n)$ is u.d. (mod 1) for all A in S , then (\mathbf{u}_n) is u.d. (mod 1).*

PROOF. Given a non-zero integer m -tuple \mathbf{h} , considered as a row vector, let A in S and \mathbf{k} an integer row-vector be such that $\mathbf{k}A = \mathbf{h}$. Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^N e(\mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{u}_n) = \sum_n e(\mathbf{k}A \cdot \mathbf{u}_n) = \sum_n e(\mathbf{k} \cdot A\mathbf{u}_n) = o(N),$$

since $(A\mathbf{u}_n)$ is u.d. (mod 1). Thus, (\mathbf{u}_n) is u.d. (mod 1).

EXAMPLE. Let $m = 2$. One easily verifies that

$$S = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

has the property required. If c is even, then $(c \ d) = (c/2 \ d) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$; if d is even, then $(c \ d) = (c \ d/2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$; if c and d are both odd (or both even),

then $(c d) = ((c - d)/2 (c + d)/2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Thus if $(A\mathbf{u}_n)$ is u.d. (mod 1) for all A in S , then (\mathbf{u}_n) is u.d. (mod 1).

Note added in proof

Peter Sarnak has pointed out that Theorem 3 holds under the weaker hypothesis that $g(x)$ exists as a measure. Also, Michel Mendès France has pointed out to us that Theorem 2 is a special case of the main theorem of F. Dress and M. Mendès France, 'Caractérisation des ensembles normaux dans \mathbf{Z} ,' *Acta Arith.* **17** (1970), 115–120.

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