

## SOME APPLICATIONS OF DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS OF SEQUENCES

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*Dedicated to Prof. H. Niederreiter on the occasion of his 70th birthday*

**ABSTRACT.** This expository paper presents some old and some new results on distribution functions of sequences  $x_n \in [0, 1)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Firstly we describe old applications: Statistically independent sequences; statistically convergent sequences; statistical limit points; and uniform maldistributed sequences. Then we give some recent results: Benford's law; copulas; and ratio sequences. Secondly we present some methods for computing the set  $G(x_n)$  of all distribution functions of  $x_n$ : directly by definition of distribution functions; using connectivity of  $G(x_n)$ ; solving a moment problem  $X_1 = \int_0^1 g(x)dx$ ,  $X_2 = \int_0^1 xg(x)dx$  and  $X_3 = \int_0^1 g^2(x)dx$  for distribution functions  $g(x)$ ; and mapping  $x_n$  to  $f(x_n)$ , for some function  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ . Parts of this paper were presented at the UDT conferences in Marseilles 2008, Strobl 2010, Smolenice 2012, and Ostravice 2014 and also in MCQMC conference, Warszawa 2010.

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## 1. Introduction

Let  $\mathbf{x}_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$ , be an infinite sequence in the  $s$ -dimensional unit cube  $(0, 1)^s$ . Denote the step distribution function  $F_N(\mathbf{x})$  of  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N$  as

$$F_N(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\#\{n \leq N; \mathbf{x}_n \in [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}]\}}{N}, \tag{1}$$

where  $[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}] = [0, x_1] \times \dots \times [0, x_s]$ . By Riemann-Stieltjes integration we have

$$\frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^{N_k} f(\mathbf{x}_n) = \int_{[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}]} f(\mathbf{x}) dF_{N_k}(\mathbf{x}). \tag{2}$$

By Helly theorem, for continuous  $f(\mathbf{x})$  and for a weak limit

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F_{N_k}(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x}) \tag{3}$$

we have

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^{N_k} f(\mathbf{x}_n) \implies \int_{[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}]} f(\mathbf{x}) dg(\mathbf{x}). \tag{4}$$

## SOME APPLICATIONS OF DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS OF SEQUENCES

The function  $g(\mathbf{x})$  in (3) is called distribution function (abbreviating d.f.) of  $\mathbf{x}_n$ .<sup>1</sup> Denote by  $G(\mathbf{x}_n)$  the set of all possible limits in (3), for an arbitrary  $N_1 < N_2 < \dots$  and the given infinite sequence  $\mathbf{x}_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$

This expository paper is devoted specially, for employing and calculating  $G(\mathbf{x}_n)$  in the dimension  $s = 1$  and  $s = 2$ .

The study of the set of d.f.s of a sequence, still unsatisfactory today, was initiated by J. G. van der Corput [46]. The one-element set  $G(\mathbf{x}_n) = \{g(\mathbf{x})\}$  correspond to the notion of asymptotic distribution function (abbreviating a.d.f.)  $g(\mathbf{x})$ . In the case  $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$  the sequence is called uniformly distributed (abbreviating u.d.) In the monograph L. Kuipers and H. Niederreiter [22] to d.f.s is devoted Chapter 7, pp. 53–68, and in M. Drmota and R.F. Tichy [9] Part 1.5, pp. 138–153.<sup>2</sup> The a.d.f. of a sequence  $x_n$  was introduced by I.J. Schoenberg [34]. Main goal of this paper is a propagation of some partial results in the theory of d.f.s.

The outline of our paper is as follows.

In Section 2 we characterize some known classes of sequences  $x_n$ , originally defined by some properties of  $x_n$ , by using the set  $G(x_n)$  of all distribution functions of  $x_n$  :

- Statistically independent sequences.
- Statistically convergent sequences.
- Statistical limit points.
- Uniform maldistributed sequences.

Then we give some recent results:

- Benford's law.
- Copulas.
- Ratio sequences.

In Section 3 we present some methods for computing  $G(x_n)$ , namely:

- Directly by definition of d.f.s.
- Using connectivity of  $G(x_n)$ .
- Solving moment problem  $(X_1, X_2, X_3) = \left( \int_0^1 g(x) dx, \int_0^1 xg(x) dx, \int_0^1 g^2(x) dx \right)$ .

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<sup>1</sup> The limit (4) generalizes  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N f(x_n) = \int_0^1 f dx$  - the fundamental Weyl's limit relation holding for any continuous function  $f(x)$  defined on  $[0, 1]$  and any uniformly distributed sequence  $x_n$ .

<sup>2</sup> Some authors, see R. Winkler [50], instead distribution functions  $g(x)$  use measures  $\mu$  induced by the interval  $(x, y)$  measure  $\mu((x, y)) = g(y) - g(x)$ .

- Mapping  $x_n$  to  $f(x_n)$ .

To clarify methods we add, in some places, sketch of proofs and examples. <sup>3 4</sup>

## 2. Examples of applications of $G(x_n)$

We repeat definitions in the Introduction for dimension  $s = 1$  following monographs [22], [25], [9] and [44]:

- a sequence  $x_n, n = 1, 2, \dots, x_n \in [0, 1)$ .
- Define step d.f. of  $x_n$  as

$$F_N(x) = \frac{\#\{n \leq N; x_n \in [0, x)\}}{N}.$$

- A function  $g : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is d.f. of  $x_n$  if there exists a sequence of indices  $N_1 < N_2 < \dots$  such that  $F_{N_k}(x) \rightarrow g(x)$  for all continuity points  $x$  of  $g(x)$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .
- The set of all such  $g(x)$  we shall denote by  $G(x_n)$  and the notion of the distribution of  $x_n$  we shall identify with  $G(x_n)$ , i.e., the distribution of  $x_n$  is known if we know the set  $G(x_n)$ .

### 2.1. Basic properties of $G(x_n)$

For every sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$ :

- $G(x_n)$  is non-empty, and it is either a singleton or has infinitely many elements.
- $G(x_n)$  is closed and connected in the topology of the weak convergence defined by the metric

$$d(g_1, g_2) = \sqrt{\int_0^1 (g_1(x) - g_2(x))^2 dx}. \quad (5)$$

These properties are characteristic for a set of d.f.s:

- Given a non-empty set  $H$  of distribution functions, there exists a sequence  $x_n$  in  $[0, 1)$  such that  $G(x_n) = H$  if and only if  $H$  is closed and connected.
- First Helly theorem (or Helly selection principle): Any sequence  $g_n(x)$  of d.f. contains a subsequence  $g_{k_n}(x)$  such that the sequence  $g_{k_n}(x)$  converges for every  $x \in [0, 1]$  and its point limit  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_{k_n}(x) = g(x)$  is also a d.f.
- Second Helly theorem (or Helly-Bray theorem): If we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n(x) = g(x)$  a.e. on  $[0, 1]$ , then for a continuous function  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f(x) dg_n(x) = \int_0^1 f(x) dg(x)$ .

<sup>3</sup> In each paragraph we shall numbering figures starting from 1.

<sup>4</sup> We shall see in many cases that we need solve corresponding functional equations.

- The upper  $\underline{g}(x)$  and the lower  $\overline{g}(x)$  d.f.s are

$$\liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} F_N(x) = \underline{g}(x), \limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} F_N(x) = \overline{g}(x).$$

It is equivalent to

$$\underline{g}(x) = \inf_{g \in G(x_n)} g(x), \overline{g}(x) = \sup_{g \in G(x_n)} g(x).$$

A connectivity of  $G(x_n)$  can be proved by the following theorem of Barone [4]

**THEOREM 1** (H.G. Barone (1939)). *If  $t_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$  is a sequence in a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  and*

- *any subsequence of  $t_n$  contains a convergent subsequence;*

-  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho(t_{n+1}, t_n) = 0;$

*then the set of all limit points of  $t_n$  is connected in  $(X, \rho)$ .*

Now put  $X =$  the set of all d.f.s defined on

$$[0, 1], t_N = F_N(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(t_{N+1}, t_N) = d(F_{N+1}(x), F_N(x)).$$

The limit  $d(F_{N+1}(x), F_N(x)) \rightarrow 0$  follows directly from the definition  $F_N(x)$ , using the identity

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 (g_1(x) - g_2(x))^2 dx &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x - y| dg_1(x) dg_2(y) - \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x - y| dg_1(x) dg_1(y) - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x - y| dg_2(x) dg_2(y) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

which holds for every d.f.s  $g_1(x)$  and  $g_2(x)$ . Putting  $g_1(x) = F_{N+1}(x)$  and  $g_2(x) = F_N(x)$  we find exactly

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 (F_{N+1}(x) - F_N(x))^2 dx &= \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2(N+1)^2 N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| + \frac{1}{(N+1)^2 N} \sum_{n=1}^N |x_{N+1} - x_n|, \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

where the right-hand side of (7) tends to zero as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .

Putting  $g_1(x) = F_N(x)$  and  $g_2(x) = F_M(x)$  in (6) then we have

**THEOREM 2.** *The sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$  possesses an a.d.f. if and only if*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{M,N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| - \frac{1}{2M^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^M |x_m - x_n| \right. \\ \left. - \frac{1}{2N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| \right) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Now, we prove (6) for every two d.f.s  $g_1(x)$  and  $g_2(x)$ .

PROOF. For given  $g_1(x)$  and  $g_2(x)$ , let  $x_n \in [0, 1]$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , be a sequence such that there exist index sequences  $N_1 < N_2 < \dots$  and  $M_1 < M_2 < \dots$  such that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F_{N_k}(x) = g_1(x)$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F_{M_k}(x) = g_2(x)$ . Such sequence  $x_n$  exists. Put  $N_k = N$ ,  $M_k = M$  and express  $F_N(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N c_{(x_n, 1]}(x)$ ,  $F_M(x) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M c_{(x_m, 1]}(x)$ . Compute <sup>5</sup>

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^1 (F_N(x) - F_M(x))^2 dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N c_{(x_n, 1]}(x) - \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M c_{(x_m, 1]}(x) \right)^2 dx \\ &= \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m, n=1}^N \int_0^1 c_{(x_n, 1]}(x) c_{(x_m, 1]}(x) dx + \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{m, n=1}^M \int_0^1 c_{(x_n, 1]}(x) c_{(x_m, 1]}(x) dx \\ &\quad - 2 \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N \int_0^1 c_{(x_n, 1]}(x) c_{(x_m, 1]}(x) dx. \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

Since

$$\int_0^1 c_{(x_n, 1]}(x) c_{(x_m, 1]}(x) dx = 1 - \max(x_m, x_n)$$

(8) implies

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^1 (F_N(x) - F_M(x))^2 dx \tag{9} \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (1 - \max(x, y)) dF_N(x) dF_N(y) \\ &\quad + \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (1 - \max(x, y)) dF_M(x) dF_M(y) \\ &\quad - 2 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (1 - \max(x, y)) dF_M(x) dF_N(y) \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (1 - \max(x, y)) d(F_N(x) - F_M(x)) d(F_N(y) - F_M(y)). \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

The limit of (9) by Lebesgue theorem of dominant convergence and the limit of (10) by Second Helly theorem, where

$$M = M_k, \quad N = N_k, \quad k \rightarrow \infty,$$

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<sup>5</sup>  $c_A(x)$  is the characteristic function of the set  $A$ .

gives

$$\int_0^1 (g_1(x) - g_2(x))^2 dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (1 - \max(x, y)) d(g_1(x) - g_2(x)) d(g_1(y) - g_2(y)). \quad (11)$$

Since

$$\max(x, y) = \frac{x + y + |x - y|}{2},$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 1 \cdot d(g_1(x) - g_2(x)) d(g_1(y) - g_2(y)) &= 0, \\ \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) d(g_1(x) - g_2(x)) d(g_1(y) - g_2(y)) &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

we find (6) in the form

$$\int_0^1 (g_1(x) - g_2(x))^2 dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 -\frac{|x - y|}{2} d(g_1(x) - g_2(x)) d(g_1(y) - g_2(y)). \quad (12)$$

□

**THEOREM 3.** *Assume that for the sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$  there exists the first moment*

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n = \alpha.$$

*Then either  $G(x_n)$  is singleton or  $\underline{g} \notin G(x_n)$  or  $\bar{g} \notin G(x_n)$ .*

*Proof.* We have  $\int_0^1 x dF_N(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$  and by Helly Theorem, if the first moment is constant, then for every  $g(x) \in G(x_n)$ , we have  $\int_0^1 x dg(x) = \alpha$ . Thus if  $\underline{g}(x), \bar{g}(x) \in G(x_n)$ , then  $\int_0^1 x d\underline{g}(x) = \int_0^1 x d\bar{g}(x) = \alpha$  and from  $\underline{g}(x) \leq \bar{g}(x)$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$  follows  $\underline{g}(x) = \bar{g}(x)$  for common continuity points  $x \in [0, 1]$ . □

**THEOREM 4.** *Let  $x_n, y_n \in [0, 1)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Then*

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N |x_n - y_n| \rightarrow 0 \implies G(x_n) = G(y_n)$$

*Proof.* Put

$$F_N^{(1)}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N c_{[0,x)}(x_n)$$

and

$$F_N^{(2)}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N c_{[0,x)}(y_n)$$

and applying (6) we find

$$\int_0^1 \left( F_N^{(1)}(x) - F_N^{(2)}(x) \right)^2 dx = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - y_n| - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |y_m - y_n|. \quad (13)$$

From

$$x_m - y_n = x_m - x_n + x_n - y_n \quad \text{and} \quad x_m - y_n = y_m - y_n + x_m - y_n$$

follows

$$|x_m - y_n| \leq \frac{1}{2}|x_m - x_n| + \frac{1}{2}|y_m - y_n| + \frac{1}{2}|x_n - y_n| + \frac{1}{2}|x_m - y_m|. \quad (14)$$

Substitute (14) to (13) then we find

$$\int_0^1 \left( F_N^{(1)}(x) - F_N^{(2)}(x) \right)^2 dx \leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n - x_n|. \quad (15)$$

□

**EXAMPLE 1.** Let  $\{x\}$  be the fractional part of  $x$ . For  $x_n = \{\log n\}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , we have the set of d.f.s

$$G(x_n) = \left\{ g_u(x) = \frac{1}{e^u} \frac{e^x - 1}{e - 1} + \frac{e^{\min(x,u)} - 1}{e^u}; u \in [0, 1] \right\}, \quad (16)$$

and

$$\{\log N_k\} \rightarrow u \quad \text{implies} \quad F_{N_k}(x) \rightarrow g_u(x).$$

The lower and upper d.f. of  $\log n \bmod 1$  are

$$\underline{g}(x) = \frac{e^x - 1}{e - 1}, \quad \overline{g}(x) = \frac{1 - e^{-x}}{1 - e^{-1}},$$

and  $\underline{g} \in G(x_n)$  but  $\overline{g} \notin G(x_n)$ . This set  $G(x_n)$  was found by A. Wintner [47], also see Theorem 21.

## 2.2. Statistically independent sequences

G. Rauzy [33, p. 91, 4.1. Def.]:

**DEFINITION 1.** Let  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  be two infinite sequences from the unit interval  $[0, 1)$ . The pair of sequences  $(x_n, y_n)$  is called *statistically independent* if

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N f_1(x_n) f_2(y_n) - \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N f_1(x_n) \right) \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N f_2(y_n) \right) \right) = 0$$

for all continuous real functions  $f_1, f_2$  defined on  $[0, 1]$ .

**THEOREM 5** (G. Rauzy (1976) [33]). *Two sequences  $x_n \bmod 1$  and  $y_n \bmod 1$  are statistically independent if and only if*

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e^{2\pi i(hx_n + ky_n)} - \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e^{2\pi ihx_n} \right) \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e^{2\pi iky_n} \right) \right) = 0$$

for every integers  $(h, k) \neq (0, 0)$ .

**THEOREM 6** (G. Rauzy [33, p. 92, 4.2. par.]). *For an arbitrary  $(x_n, y_n) \in [0, 1]^2$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , the sequences  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  are statistically independent if and only if*

$$\forall_{g \in G(x_n, y_n)} g(x, y) = g(x, 1)g(1, y) \quad \text{a.e. on } [0, 1]^2.$$

**Proof.** For given two-dimensional sequence  $(x_n, y_n)$  put

$$F_N(x, y) = \frac{\#\{n \leq N; (x_n, y_n) \in [0, x] \times [0, y]\}}{N}.$$

By Riemann-Stieltjes integration and Helly theorem, there exist a sequence of indices  $N_1 < N_2 < \dots$  and d.f.  $g(x, y)$  such that

$$\frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^{N_k} f_1(x_n) f_2(y_n) = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 f_1(x) f_2(y) dF_{N_k}(x, y) \rightarrow \int_0^1 \int_0^1 f_1(x) f_2(x) dg(x, y),$$

$$\frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^{N_k} f_1(x_n) = \int_0^1 f_1(x) dF_{N_k}(x, 1) \rightarrow \int_0^1 f_1(x) dg(x, 1),$$

$$\frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^{N_k} f_2(y_n) = \int_0^1 f_2(y) dF_{N_k}(1, y) \rightarrow \int_0^1 f_2(y) dg(1, y)$$

as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . Assuming statistical independence  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  we have

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f_1(x) f_2(x) dg(x, y) = \left( \int_0^1 f_1(x) dg(x, 1) \right) \left( \int_0^1 f_2(y) dg(1, y) \right).$$

The integration by parts gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 f_1(x) f_2(x) dg(x, y) &= f_1(1) f_2(1) - f_2(1) \int_0^1 g(x, 1) df_1(x) \\ &\quad - f_1(1) \int_0^1 g(1, y) df_2(y) + \int_0^1 \int_0^1 g(x, y) df_1(x) df_2(y) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\int_0^1 f_1(x) dg(x, 1) = f_1(1) - \int_0^1 g(x, 1) df_1(x),$$

$$\int_0^1 f_1(x) dg(x, 1) = f_2(1) - \int_0^1 g(1, y) df_2(y).$$

From it follows

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 g(x, y) df_1(x) df_2(y) = \left( \int_0^1 g(x, 1) df_1(x) \right) \left( \int_0^1 g(1, y) df_2(y) \right)$$

for an arbitrary differentiable  $f_1(x)$  and  $f_2(y)$ . Now, for a continuity point  $(x_0, y_0)$  of  $g(x, y)$  we can select  $f_1(x)$  and  $f_2(y)$  such that the above implies  $g(x_0, y_0) = g(x_0, 1)g(1, y_0)$ .  $\square$

Note that Grabner and Tichy [16] proved that the extremal discrepancy  $\sup_{x, y \in [0, 1]} |F_N(x, y) - F_N(x, 1)F_N(1, y)|$  does not characterize statistical independence, but the  $L^2$ -discrepancy  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (F_N(x, y) - F_N(x, 1)F_N(1, y))^2 dx dy$  provides a characterization.  $L^2$ -discrepancy can be computed also by Wiener's measure  $df$  (see [38]):

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\mathbf{X}} \int_{\mathbf{X}} \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N f(x_n)g(y_n) - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N f(x_n) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N g(y_n) \right)^2 df dg \\ &= \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m, n=1}^N \frac{\min(x_m, x_n)}{2} \frac{\min(y_m, y_n)}{2} + \frac{1}{N^4} \sum_{m, n, k, l=1}^N \frac{\min(x_m, x_n)}{2} \frac{\min(y_k, y_l)}{2} \\ & - \frac{2}{N^3} \sum_{m, k, l=1}^N \frac{\min(x_m, x_k)}{2} \frac{\min(y_m, y_l)}{2}. \end{aligned} \tag{17}$$

**THEOREM 7.** *Let  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  be two sequences in  $(0, 1)^2$ . If*

- (i)  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  are statistically independent;
- (ii)  $x_n$  is u.d.;
- (iii) all  $g(x) \in G(y_n)$  are continuous;

*then the sequence  $x_n + y_n \bmod 1, n = 1, 2, \dots$  is u.d.*

**PROOF.** By (i) and (ii) every  $g(x, y) \in G(x_n, y_n)$  has the form  $g(x, y) = xg(y)$ . Divide unit square  $[0, 1]^2$  into three parts in Fig. 1

$$\begin{aligned} X_1(t) &= \{(x, y) \in [0, 1]; x + y < t\}, \\ X_2(t) &= \{(x, y) \in [0, 1]; 1 < x + y < t + 1, x \leq t\}, \\ X_3(t) &= \{(x, y) \in [0, 1]; 1 < x + y < t + 1, x > t\}, \end{aligned}$$

SOME APPLICATIONS OF DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS OF SEQUENCES

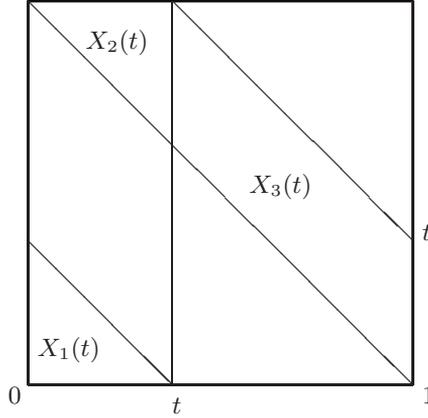


FIGURE 1. Regions  $X_i(t)$

By integration

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{X_1(t)} 1.dg(x, y) &= \int_0^t dx \int_0^{t-x} 1.dg(y) = \int_0^t g(t-x)dx \\ \int_{X_2(t)} 1.dg(x, y) &= \int_0^t dx \int_{1-x}^1 1.dg(y) = \int_0^t (1-g(1-x))dx \\ \int_{X_3(t)} 1.dg(x, y) &= \int_t^1 dx \int_{1-x}^{t+1-x} 1.dg(y) = \int_t^1 (g(t+1-x) - g(1-x))dx. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{x+y \bmod 1 \in [0,t)} 1.dg(x, y) &= \int_0^t 1.dx - \int_0^1 g(1-x)dx \\ &\quad + \int_0^t g(t-x)dx + \int_t^1 g(t+1-x)dx. \end{aligned}$$

Now, by integrating

- (j)  $-\int_0^1 g(1-x)dx = \int_0^1 g(x)dx,$
- (jj)  $\int_0^t g(t-x)dx = \int_0^t g(x)dx,$
- (jjj)  $\int_t^1 g(t+1-x)dx = \int_t^1 g(x)dx,$

then finally we have

$$\int_{x+y \bmod 1 \in [0,t)} 1.dg(x, y) = t. \quad \square$$

**EXAMPLE 2.** Let  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  be two sequences in  $[0, 1)$ . Assume that

- (i)  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  are u.d.
- (ii)  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  are statistically independent.

Then by Theorem 7 the sequence  $x_n + y_n \bmod 1$  is again u.d. It can be proved directly by Weyl's criterion if we prove

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (\{x_n + y_n\})^k \rightarrow \frac{1}{k+1}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

From (ii) follows that the sequence  $(x_n, y_n)$  has a.d.f.  $g(x, y) = xy$  and by Helly theorem

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (\{x_n + y_n\})^k \rightarrow \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (\{x + y\})^k dx dy, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Now

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (\{x + y\})^k dx dy = \iint_{0 \leq x+y \leq 1} (x+y)^k dx dy + \iint_{1 \leq x+y \leq 2} (x+y-1)^k dx dy$$

which is  $\frac{1}{k+1}$  and the proof is finished.

**THEOREM 8** (G. Rauzy [33]). *Let  $x_n \in [0, 1)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , be u.d. sequence. Then  $x_n$  and  $\log n \bmod 1$  are statistically independent, i.e., every  $g(x, y) \in G(x_n, \{\log n\})$  has the form  $g(x, y) = x.g(1, y)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $N \in [e^K, e^{K+1})$  i.e.,  $N = e^{K+\theta_N}$ , and divide  $n \leq N$  to the subsets  $n \in [e^k, e^{k+1})$ ,  $k \leq K$ . For such  $n$  we have  $\{\log n\} \in [0, y) \iff n \in [e^k, e^{k+y})$ . For  $n \in [e^k, e^{k+y})$  we ask the number of  $x_n \in [0, x)$  which is  $x(e^{k+y} - e^k) + O(e^k D_{e^k} + e^{k+y} D_{e^{k+y}})$ . Omitting integer parts here we use discrepancy  $D_M$  of the initial string  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M$  (for definition of discrepancy, see [44, 1-40]) and the formula  $A([0, x]; M; x_n) = xM + O(MD_M)$ .<sup>6</sup> Thus

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{A([0, x) \times [0, y); N; (x_n, \{\log n\}))}{N} \\ &= \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} x(e^{k+y} - e^k) + x(e^{K+\min(y, \theta_N)} - e^K) + O(\sum_{k=0}^K e^k D_{e^k} + e^{k+y} D_{e^{k+y}})}{N}. \end{aligned}$$

---

<sup>6</sup> $O$ -constant can be put = 1 and in the interval  $[e^K, e^{K+\min(y, \theta_N)}]$ , for simplification, an error term we put  $O(e^k D_{e^k} + e^{k+y} D_{e^{k+y}})$ .

As  $N \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\theta_N \rightarrow u$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} x(e^{k+y} - e^k)}{N} &= \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} x(e^{k+y} - e^k)}{\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} (e^{k+y} - e^k)} \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} (e^{k+y} - e^k)}{N} \rightarrow x \frac{e^y - 1}{e - 1} \frac{1}{e^u}, \\ &\frac{x(e^{K+\min(y, \theta_N)} - e^K)}{N} \rightarrow x \frac{e^{\min(y, u)} - 1}{e^u}, \\ \frac{O(\sum_{k=0}^K e^k D_{e^k} + e^{k+y} D_{e^{k+y}})}{N} &= O\left(\frac{\sum_{k=0}^K e^k D_{e^k} + e^{k+y} D_{e^{k+y}}}{\sum_{k=0}^K (e^{k+y} - e^k)}\right) \rightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

In the final parenthesis we have used  $\frac{e^k D_{e^k} + e^{k+y} D_{e^{k+y}}}{e^{k+y} - e^k} \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . Collected all above results we have

$$\frac{A([0, x] \times [0, y]; N; (x_n, \{\log n\}))}{N} \rightarrow x \left( \frac{e^y - 1}{e - 1} \frac{1}{e^u} + \frac{e^{\min(y, u)} - 1}{e^u} \right) = x g_u(y),$$

where  $g_u(y)$  is the same as in (16). □

In 2011 Y. Ohkubo [27] proved that the function  $\log n$  can be replaced by  $\log(n \log n)$  in Theorem 8.

**THEOREM 9.** *An arbitrary u.d. sequence  $x_n \bmod 1$  and  $\log(n \log n) \bmod 1$  are statistically independent.*

*Proof.* By G. Rauzy Theorem 5 two sequences  $x_n \bmod 1$  and  $y_n \bmod 1$  are statistically independent if and only if

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e^{2\pi i(hx_n + ky_n)} - \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e^{2\pi i h x_n} \right) \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e^{2\pi i k y_n} \right) \right) = 0$$

for every integers  $h$  and  $k$ . Now, by Abel partial summation we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} &\sum_{n=1}^N e^{2\pi i(hx_n + k \log(n \log n))} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \left( e^{2\pi i k \log(n \log n)} - e^{2\pi i k \log((n+1) \log(n+1))} \right) \sum_{j=1}^n e^{2\pi i h x_n} \\ &\quad + e^{2\pi i k \log(N \log N)} \sum_{j=1}^N e^{2\pi i h x_n} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\left| e^{2\pi i k \log(n \log n)} - e^{2\pi i k \log((n+1) \log(n+1))} \right| \leq 2\pi |k| \frac{(\log n) + 1}{n \log n}.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e^{2\pi i(hx_n + k \log(n \log n))} \right| \\ & \leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} 2\pi |k| \frac{(\log n) + 1}{n \log n} n \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n e^{2\pi i h x_j} \right| + \left| \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N e^{2\pi i h x_j} \right| \end{aligned}$$

which tends to 0. □

Using Theorem 9 Ohkubo [27] proved that in Theorem 8 the  $\log n$  can be instead by  $\log p_n$ , where  $p_n$  are sequence of all primes.

**THEOREM 10.** *Let  $x_n \in [0, 1)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , be u.d. sequence. Then  $x_n$  and  $\log p_n \bmod 1$  are statistically independent.*

*Proof.* Firstly he proved that

$$\log p_n = \log(n \log n) + o\left(\frac{\log \log n}{\log n}\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{\log p_n}\right). \quad (18)$$

Then Ohkubo used

Let  $(x_n, y_n)$  and  $(x'_n, y'_n)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  be two-dimensional sequences. Assume:

- (i)  $|x_n - x'_n| \rightarrow 0$  and  $|y_n - y'_n| \rightarrow 0$ .
- (ii) Every d.f.  $g(x, y) \in G((x_n, y_n))$  is continuous in  $(0, 0), (0, 1), (1, 0)$  and  $(1, 1)$ .

Then  $G((x_n, y_n)) = G((x'_n, y'_n))$ .

Then the limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\log p_n - \log(n \log n)) = 0,$$

given by (18), implies

$$G((x_n, \{\log p_n\})) = G((x_n, \{\log(n \log n)\})) = G((x_n, \{\log n\})). \quad (19)$$

Proof of (18). He starts with the prime number theorem of the form

$$\pi(x) = \frac{x}{\log x - 1} + O\left(\frac{x}{(\log x)^3}\right). \quad (20)$$

This implies

$$\frac{p_n}{n} = \log p_n - 1 + O\left(\frac{1}{\log p_n}\right).$$

Then he used (see [43])

$$\frac{p_n}{n} = \log n + (\log \log n - 1) + o\left(\frac{\log \log n}{\log n}\right)$$

which implies (18). □

Some generalization:

**EXAMPLE 3.** J. Coquet and P. Liardet [7]: Given an integer  $q \geq 2$ , a real number  $\theta$  and a real polynomial  $p(x)$ , let

- (i)  $x_n = \theta q^n \bmod 1$ ,
- (ii)  $y_n = p(n) \bmod 1$ ,
- (iii)  $\mathbf{x}_n = (x_{n+1}, \dots, x_{n+s})$  and  $\mathbf{y}_n = (y_{n+1}, \dots, y_{n+s})$ .

If  $x_n$  is u.d. (i.e.,  $\theta$  is normal in the base  $q$ ), then for every  $s = 1, 2, \dots$ , the sequence

$$(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{y}_n), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots,$$

has d.f.s  $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in G((\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{y}_n))$  of the form  $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = g_1(\mathbf{x})g_2(\mathbf{y})$  for some  $g_1(\mathbf{x}) \in G(\mathbf{x}_n)$  and  $g_2(\mathbf{y}) \in G(\mathbf{y}_n)$ , i.e., the sequences  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  are *completely statistically independent*.

### 2.3. Statistical limit

H. Fast [10] and I.J. Schoenberg [34] defined, independently:

**DEFINITION 2.** The sequence  $x_n$  is said to be *statistically convergent* to the number  $\alpha$  provided that for each  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{n \leq N; |x_n - \alpha| \geq \varepsilon\} = 0.$$

- Fast [10] mentioned: A sequence  $x_n$  is statistically convergent to  $\alpha$  if and only if there exists a sequence of indices  $k_n$  of the asymptotic density  $d(k_n) = 1$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{k_n} = \alpha$  in the standard sense.
- Let us consider *one-jump function*  $c_\alpha(x)$  which has a jump of size 1 for  $\alpha$ .

**THEOREM 11** (I.J. Schoenberg [34]). *The sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$  is statistically convergent to the number  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$  if and only if the sequence  $x_n$  admits the asymptotic distribution function  $c_\alpha(x)$ .*

**EXAMPLE 4.** [44, p. 2–192, 2.20.18]: Let  $\text{ord}_p(n) = \alpha$  for  $p^\alpha \parallel n$ . If  $p$  stands for a prime, then the sequence

$$\log p \frac{\text{ord}_p(n)}{\log n}, \quad n = 2, 3, \dots,$$

is dense in  $[0, 1]$  and has the a.d.f.  $c_0(x)$ , and thus statistically converge to zero.

**THEOREM 12** ([36]). *The sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$  possesses a statistical limit if and only if*

$$\lim_{M, N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| = 0.$$

**Proof.** Let  $F_{M_{i_k}}(x) \rightarrow g_1(x)$  and  $F_{N_{j_k}}(x) \rightarrow g_2(x)$ . Applying the Helly-Bray theorem we find

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x - y| dF_{M_{i_k}}(x) dF_{N_{j_k}}(y) = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x - y| dg_1(x) dg_2(y).$$

By Riemann-Stieltjes integration we obtain

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x - y| dF_{M_{i_k}}(x) dF_{N_{j_k}}(y) = \frac{1}{M_{i_k} N_{j_k}} \sum_{m=1}^{M_{i_k}} \sum_{n=1}^{N_{j_k}} |x_m - x_n|.$$

Thus

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x - y| dg_1(x) dg_2(y) = 0$$

which gives  $g_1(x) = g_2(x) = c_\alpha(x)$  a.e. for some  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ . □

## 2.4. Statistical limit points

Following the concept of statistical convergence J. A. Fridy [14] introduced:

**DEFINITION 3.** A real number  $x$  is said to be a *statistical limit point* of the sequence  $x_n$  if there exists a subsequence  $x_{k_n}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{k_n} = x$  and the set of indices  $k_n$  has a positive upper asymptotic density.

Fridy studied the set  $\Lambda(x_n)$  of all such points. Inspired by I.J. Schoenberg [34], P. Kostyrko, M. Mačaj, T. Šalát and O. Strauch [21] was found:

**THEOREM 13.** *The set  $\Lambda(x_n)$ , for  $x_n \in [0, 1)$   $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , coincides with the set of all discontinuity points of d.f.s  $g(x) \in G(x_n)$ .*

From it follows:

- (i) Let  $x_n$  be a sequence of real numbers. If for every  $k = 1, 2, \dots$  the difference sequence  $x_{n+k} - x_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  has  $\Lambda(x_{n+k} - x_n) = \emptyset$ , then  $\Lambda(x_n) = \emptyset$ .
- (ii) For u.d. sequence  $x_n$  we have  $\Lambda(x_n \bmod 1) = \emptyset$ .
- (iii)  $\omega_h = \limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e^{2\pi i h x_n} \right|^2$  for  $h = 1, 2, \dots$  and assume that  $\lim_{H \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H \omega_h = 0$ . The every  $g(x) \in G(x_n)$  is a continuous, thus  $\Lambda(x_n) = \emptyset$ .

**EXAMPLE 5.** By Example 1 every d.f.  $g(x) \in G(\log n \bmod 1)$  is continuous, thus we have  $\Lambda(\log n \bmod 1) = \emptyset$ . More generally, for  $x_n = c \log n \bmod 1$ ,  $c \neq 0$ , we have

$$\omega_h = \frac{1}{4\pi^2 h^2 c^2 + 1}$$

which implies  $\lim_{H \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H \omega_h = 0$  and thus by (iii)  $\Lambda(c \log n \bmod 1) = \emptyset$ , again.

**EXAMPLE 6.** By [36] starting with  $\log \log n \bmod 1$  all the sequences of iterate logarithm  $\log \log \dots \log n \bmod 1$  have

$$G(\log \log \dots \log n \bmod 1) = \{c_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\} \cup \{h_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\}.$$

Here  $c_\alpha(x)$  is one-step d.f. for which

$c_\alpha(x) = 0$  for  $x \in [0, \alpha]$ ,  $c_\alpha(x) = 1$  for  $x \in (\alpha, 1]$  and  $h_\alpha : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is a constant distribution function, where  $h_\alpha(0) = 0$ ,  $h_\alpha(1) = 1$ , and  $h_\alpha(x) = \alpha$  if  $x \in (0, 1)$ . Thus we have  $\Lambda(\log \log \dots \log n \bmod 1) = [0, 1]$ .

**EXAMPLE 7.** Let  $\alpha = \frac{p}{q}\pi$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are positive integers and g.c.d.  $(p, q) = 1$ . By D. Berend, M. D. Boshernitzan, and G. Kolesnik [6] the sequence

$$x_n = n \cos(n \cos n\alpha) \bmod 1, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

has  $G(x_n) = \{g(x)\}$ , where

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } q \text{ is odd,} \\ \left(1 - \frac{1}{q}\right)x + \frac{1}{q}c_0(x) & \text{if } q \text{ is even,} \end{cases}$$

and  $c_0(x)$  is the one-jump d.f. which the jump in 0. This implies

$$\Lambda(x_n) = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } q \text{ is odd,} \\ \{0\} & \text{if } q \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

## 2.5. Uniformly maldistributed sequences

G. Myerson [24]:

**DEFINITION 4.** The sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$   $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , is said to be *uniformly maldistributed* (u.m.) if for every nonempty proper subinterval  $I \subset [0, 1]$  we have both

$$\liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{n \leq N; x_n \in I\} = 0 \text{ and } \limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{n \leq N; x_n \in I\} = 1.$$

He mentioned that the first condition is superfluous, and showed that

**EXAMPLE 8.** The sequence  $x_n = \{\log \log n\}$  of fractional parts of the iterated logarithm is u.m.

In [36] is proved: Let  $c_\alpha(x)$  is one-step d.f. for which  $c_\alpha(x) = 0$  for  $x \in [0, \alpha]$  and  $c_\alpha(x) = 1$  for  $x \in (\alpha, 1]$ .

**THEOREM 14.** *The sequence  $x_n$  is u.m. if and only if*

$$\{c_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\} \subset G(x_n).$$

**EXAMPLE 9.** By Example 6, starting with  $x_n = \{\log \log n\}$ , all the sequences  $x_n = \{\log \log \dots \log n\}$ ,  $n = n_0, n_0 + 1, \dots$  are u.m.

Thus, in the theory of uniform maldistribution we need not consider d.f.s other than one-jump d.f.  $c_\alpha(x)$  which has a jump of size 1 at  $\alpha$ . This suggests the definition (see [36]):

**DEFINITION 5.** The sequence  $x_n$  is said to be *uniformly maldistributed in the strict sense* (u.m.s.) if  $G(x_n) = \{c_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\}$ .

**THEOREM 15.** *For every sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$  we have*

$$G(x_n) \subset \{c_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\} \iff \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| = 0.$$

Moreover, if  $G(x_n) \subset \{c_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\}$ , then  $G(x_n) = \{c_\alpha(x); \alpha \in I\}$ , where  $I$  is a closed subinterval of  $[0, 1]$  which can be found as

$$I = \left[ \liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n, \limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right],$$

and the length  $|I|$  of  $I$  can also be found as

$$|I| = \limsup_{M,N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N |x_m - x_n|.$$

The following theorem is immediately evident from the preceding,

**THEOREM 16.** *The sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$  is u.m.s. if and only if*

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| = 0 \text{ and } \limsup_{M,N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| = 1,$$

or alternatively  $\limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n - \liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n = 1$ .

**EXAMPLE 10.** Let  $x_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$  be defined as

$$x_n = \left\{ 1 + (-1)^{[\sqrt{[\sqrt{\log_2 n}]}]} \left\{ \sqrt{[\sqrt{\log_2 n}]} \right\} \right\},$$

where  $[x]$  denotes the integral part and  $\{x\}$  the fractional part of  $x$ . Then

$$G(x_n) = \{c_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\}.$$

## 2.6. Benford's law

The first digit problem:

### 2.6.1. Historical notes

An infinite sequence  $x_n \geq 1, n = 1, 2, \dots$ , of real numbers satisfies *Benford's law*, if the frequency (the asymptotic density) of occurrences of a given first digit  $a$ , when  $x_n$  is expressed in the decimal form is given by  $\log_{10} \left(1 + \frac{1}{a}\right)$  for every  $a = 1, 2, \dots, 9$  (0 as a possible first digit is not admitted).

It was S. Newcomb (1881), who firstly noted "*That the ten digits do not occur with equal frequency must be evident to anyone making use of logarithm tables*". F. Benford (1938) compared the empirical frequency of occurrences of  $a$  with  $\log_{10}((a + 1)/a)$  in twenty different tables. Since  $x_n$  has the first digit  $a$  if and only if

$$\log_{10} x_n \bmod 1 \in [\log_{10} a, \log_{10}(a + 1)),$$

Benford's law for  $x_n$  follows from the uniform distribution of  $\log_{10} x_n \bmod 1$ . For the asymptotic density of the second-place digit  $b$  he found

$$\sum_{a=1}^9 \log_{10} \left(1 + \frac{1}{10a + b}\right).$$

F. Benford rediscovered Newcomb's observation from (1881). P. Diaconis [8] suggested the following generalization:

### 2.6.2. Generalization of Benford's law

Let  $b \geq 2$  be an integer considered as a base for the development of a real number  $x > 0$  and  $M_b(x)$  be the mantissa of  $x$  defined by  $x = M_b(x) \times b^{n(x)}$  such that  $1 \leq M_b(x) < b$  holds, where  $n(x)$  is a uniquely determined integer. Let  $K = k_1 k_2 \dots k_r$  be a positive integer expressed in the base  $b$ , that is

$$K = k_1 \times b^{r-1} + k_2 \times b^{r-2} + \dots + k_{r-1} \times b + k_r,$$

where  $k_1 \neq 0$  and at the same time  $K = k_1 k_2 \dots k_r$  is considered as an  $r$ -consecutive block of digits in the base  $b$ . Note that for  $x$  of the type  $x = 0.00 \dots$

$\cdots 0k_1k_2 \cdots k_r \cdots$ ,  $k_1 > 0$ , we have  $M_b(x) = k_1.k_2 \cdots k_r \cdots$  and the first zero digits are omitted. Thus arbitrary  $x > 0$  has the first  $r$ -digits, starting a non-zero digit, equal to  $k_1k_2 \cdots k_r$  if and only if <sup>7</sup>

$$k_1.k_2 \cdots k_r \leq M_b(x) < k_1.k_2 \cdots (k_r + 1). \tag{21}$$

Since  $\log_b M_b(x) = \log_b x \bmod 1$  the inequality (21) is equivalent to

$$\log_b \left( \frac{K}{b^{r-1}} \right) \leq \log_b x \bmod 1 < \log_b \left( \frac{K+1}{b^{r-1}} \right). \tag{22}$$

Here we use the shorthand notation  $\frac{K}{b^{r-1}} = k_1.k_2 \cdots k_r$ .

**DEFINITION 6.** A sequence  $x_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , of positive real numbers satisfies *Benford's law* (abbreviated to B.L.) <sup>8</sup> in base  $b$ , if for every  $r = 1, 2, \dots$  and every  $r$ -digits integer  $K = k_1k_2 \cdots k_r$  we have the density

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{n \leq N; \text{leading block of } r \text{ digits (beginning with } \neq 0) \text{ of } x_n = K\}}{N} \\ &= \log_b \left( \frac{K+1}{b^{r-1}} \right) - \log_b \left( \frac{K}{b^{r-1}} \right). \end{aligned} \tag{23}$$

From (22) and from definition (23) it follows immediately:

**THEOREM 17.** *A sequence  $x_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , of positive real numbers satisfies B.L. in base  $b$  if and only if the sequence  $\log_b x_n \bmod 1$  is u.d. in  $[0, 1)$ .*

**EXAMPLE 11.** The sequence of Fibonacci numbers  $F_n$ , factorials  $n!$ , and  $n^n$ , and  $n^{n^2}$  satisfy Benford's law, but the sequence  $n$ , and all primes  $p_n$  does not, see [44, 2.12.26], [3].

P. Diaconis [8] and A. I. Pavlov [29] have been the first, who applied uniform distribution theory to B.L. For instance:

- (i) By the criterion of P.B Kennedy [44, p. 2–13, 2.2.9], P. Diaconis proved: *If a sequence  $x_n > 0$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , satisfies B.L. in the base  $b$ , then*

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \left| \log \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} \right| = \infty. \tag{24}$$

- (ii) Applying van der Corput difference theorem [22, p. 26, Th.3.1] A.I. Pavlov proved: *Assume  $x_n > 0$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . If for every  $k = 1, 2, \dots$  the ratio sequence  $\frac{x_{n+k}}{x_n}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , satisfies B.L. in the base  $b$ , then the original sequence  $x_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  also satisfies B.L. in the base  $b$ .*

<sup>7</sup> If  $k_1 = k_2 = \dots = k_r = b - 1$  then we have  $k_1.k_2 \cdots (k_r + 1) = b$ .

<sup>8</sup>precisely known as generalized or strong

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- (iii) In [3] we have: *The positive sequences  $x_n$  and  $\frac{1}{x_n}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  satisfy B.L. in the base  $b$  simultaneously.* Proof: Both two sequences  $u_n$  and  $-u_n$  are u.d. mod 1 simultaneously, since their Weyl's sums are complex conjugate each other.
- (iv) *The positive sequences  $x_n$  and  $nx_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  satisfy B.L. in the base  $b$  simultaneously.* Proof: Both two sequences  $u_n$  and  $u_n + \log n$  are u.d. mod 1 simultaneously, see [44, p. 2–27, 2.3.6].
- (v) *Assume that a sequence  $0 < x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots$  satisfies B.L. in the integer base  $b > 1$ . Then*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log x_n}{\log n} = \infty. \tag{25}$$

Proof: It follows from the theorem of H. Niederreiter [44, p. 2–12, 2.2.8] that every monotone u.d. sequence  $u_n \pmod 1$  must satisfy  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|u_n|}{\log n} = \infty$ . Here, it suffices to put  $u_n = \log x_n$ , instead of  $u_n = \log_b x_n$ .

- (vi) *For a sequence  $x_n > 0$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , assume that*

- (i)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \infty$  *monotonically,*
- (ii)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \log \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} = 0$  *monotonically.*

*Then the sequence  $x_n$  satisfies B.L. in every base  $b$  if and only if*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \log \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} = \infty. \tag{26}$$

Proof: It follows from Fejér's difference theorem in the form in [44, p. 2–13, 2.2.11].

- (vii) [44, p. 2–14, 2.2.12] implies: *Let  $x_n > 0$  be a sequence, which satisfies  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \log_b \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} = \theta$  with  $\theta$  is irrational. Then  $x_n$  satisfies B.L. in the base  $b$ .*

V. Baláž, K. Nagasaka and O. Strauch [3] study d.f.s of a sequence  $x_n \in (0, 1)$  which satisfy B.L. Using the Fig. 1

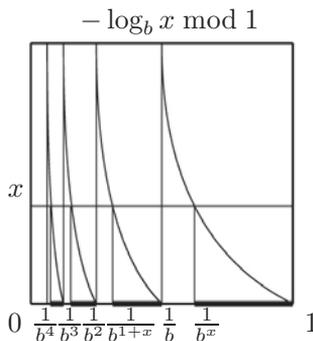


Figure 1: Intervals  $f_i^{-1}([0, x])$ ,  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

and that  $f_i^{-1}([0, x]) = (\frac{1}{b^{i+x}}, \frac{1}{b^i}]$  they proved:

**THEOREM 18.** *Let  $x_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$ , be a sequence in  $(0, 1)$  and  $G(x_n)$  be the set of all d.f.s of  $x_n$ . Assume that every d.f.  $g(x) \in G(x_n)$  is continuous at  $x = 0$ . Then the sequence  $x_n$  satisfies B.L. in the base  $b$  if and only if for every  $g(x) \in G(x_n)$  we have*

$$x = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left( g\left(\frac{1}{b^i}\right) - g\left(\frac{1}{b^{i+x}}\right) \right) \text{ for } x \in [0, 1]. \tag{27}$$

**EXAMPLE 12.** We present the following solutions of (27):

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \in [0, \frac{1}{b}], \\ 1 + \frac{\log x}{\log b} + (1-x)\frac{1}{b-1} & \text{if } x \in [\frac{1}{b}, 1]. \end{cases}$$

$$g^*(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in [0, \frac{1}{b^2}], \\ 2 + \frac{\log x}{\log b} & \text{if } x \in [\frac{1}{b^2}, \frac{1}{b}], \\ 1 & \text{if } x \in [\frac{1}{b}, 1] \end{cases}$$

$$g^{**}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in [0, \frac{1}{b^3}], \\ 3 + \frac{\log x}{\log b} & \text{if } x \in [\frac{1}{b^3}, \frac{1}{b^2}], \\ 1 & \text{if } x \in [\frac{1}{b^2}, 1] \end{cases}$$

If  $H$  is the set of all  $t_1g(x) + t_2g^*(x) + t_3g^{**}(x)$ ,  $t_1 + t_2 + t_3 = 1$ ,  $t_1, t_2, t_3 \geq 0$ , then there exists a sequence  $x_n$  such that  $G(x_n) = H$  (see 2.1), and this  $x_n$  satisfies B.L.

By the following Example 13, there exist an integer sequences  $x_n \in \mathbb{N}$  which satisfies B.L. for an arbitrary base  $b$ . By the following Theorem 19 no such real sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$  exists.

**EXAMPLE 13.** By [44, p. 2–117, 2.12.14], the sequence

$$\alpha n \log^\tau n \pmod{1}, \quad \alpha \neq 0, \quad 0 < \tau \leq 1,$$

is u.d. From this follows that  $x_n = n^n$  satisfies B.L. for an arbitrary integer base  $b$ , because  $\log_b n^n = n \log n \frac{1}{\log b}$ .

In [3] there is proved:

**THEOREM 19.** *For a sequence  $x_n \in (0, 1)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , assume that every d.f.  $g(x) \in G(x_n)$  is continuous at  $x = 0$ . Then there exist only finitely many different integer bases  $b$  for which the sequence  $x_n$  satisfies B.L. simultaneously. Moreover, if the sequence  $x_n$  satisfies B.L. in base  $b$ , and for some  $k = 1, 2, \dots$  there exists  $k$ th integer root  $\sqrt[k]{b}$ , then  $x_n$  satisfies B.L. also in base  $\sqrt[k]{b}$ .*

As it is well known that the increasing sequence of all positive integers  $1, 2, 3, \dots$  does not satisfy B.L. in every base  $b \geq 2$ . It follows from the fact that  $\log_b n \bmod 1$  is not u.d. For a density of  $n$  for which  $r$  initial digits are  $K = k_1 k_2 \dots k_r$ , A.I. Pavlov [29] proved that

$$\liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{n \leq N; n \text{ has the first } r \text{ digits} = K\}}{N} = \frac{1}{K(b-1)}, \quad (28)$$

$$\limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{n \leq N; n \text{ has the first } r \text{ digits} = K\}}{N} = \frac{b}{(K+1)(b-1)}. \quad (29)$$

Using the theory of d.f.s boundaries (28) and (29) are extended in [3] to the following (30): By G. Pólya and G. Szegő [32] the d.f.s of  $\log_b n \bmod 1$  is of the form (see also Theorem 21)

$$g_u(x) = \frac{b^{\min(x,u)} - 1}{b^u} + \frac{1}{b^u} \frac{b^x - 1}{b - 1},$$

where the parameter  $u$  runs  $[0, 1]$  and by [15], for increasing sequence  $N_i, i = 1, 2, \dots$ , we have

$$\log_b N_i \bmod 1 \rightarrow u \implies F_{N_i}(x) \rightarrow g_u(x).$$

Thus

$$\frac{\#\{n \leq N_i; n \text{ has the first } r \text{ digits} = K\}}{N_i} \rightarrow (g_u(x_2) - g_u(x_1)) \quad (30)$$

as  $i \rightarrow \infty, x_1 = \log_b(k_1.k_2k_3 \dots k_r), x_2 = \log_b(k_1.k_2k_3 \dots (k_r + 1))$ , and the minimum is appeared in  $u = x_1$  and the maximum in  $u = x_2$ .

### 2.6.3. General scheme of solution of the First Digit Problem

Many authors think that if the sequence  $x_n$  does not satisfy B.L., then the relative density of indices  $n$  for which the  $b$ -expansion of  $x_n$  start with leading digits  $K = k_1 k_2 \dots k_r$

$$\frac{1}{N} \#\left\{n \leq N; \log_b \left(\frac{K}{b^{r-1}}\right) \leq \{\log_b x_n\} < \log_b \left(\frac{K+1}{b^{r-1}}\right)\right\}.$$

do not follow any distribution in the sense of natural density, see S. Eliahou, B. Massé and D. Schneider (2013). These authors as an alternate result shown that the sequence  $\log_{10} n^r \bmod 1, n = 1, 2, \dots$ , and the sequence  $\log_{10} p_n^r \bmod 1, n = 1, 2, \dots, p_n$  are all prime numbers, have the discrepancy  $O(r^{-1})$ . Thus, for  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , these sequences tends to uniform distribution and thus  $n^r$  and  $p_n^r$  tends to B.L. Using theory of d.f.'s we can give the following general solution of the first digit problem (see [28]):

**THEOREM 20.** Let  $g(x) \in G(\log_b x_n \bmod 1)$  and  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} F_{N_i}(x) = g(x)$ . Then

$$\lim_{N_i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{n \leq N_i; \text{first } r \text{ digits (starting a non-zero digit) of } x_n = K\}}{N_i} \\ = g\left(\log_b\left(\frac{K+1}{b^{r-1}}\right)\right) - g\left(\log_b\left(\frac{K}{b^{r-1}}\right)\right).$$

**2.6.4. Distribution functions of sequences involving logarithm**

Distribution functions of  $\log_b x_n \bmod 1$  we need in generalized B.L., Theorem 20. It can be computed by following theorem: <sup>9</sup>

**ASSUMPTIONS.** Let the real-valued function  $f(x)$  be strictly increasing for  $x \geq 1$  and let

$$f^{-1}(x) \text{ be its inverse function and} \\ F_N(x) = \frac{\#\{n \leq N; f(n) \bmod 1 \in [0, x]\}}{N} \text{ for } x \in [0, 1].$$

Assume that

- (i)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f'(x) = 0$ ,
- (ii)  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^{-1}(k+1) - f^{-1}(k) = \infty$ ,
- (iii)  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f^{-1}(k+w(k))}{f^{-1}(k)} = \psi(w)$  for every sequence  $w(k) \in [0, 1]$  for which  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} w(k) = w$ , where this limit defines the function  $\psi : [0, 1] \rightarrow [1, \psi(1)]$ ,
- (iv)  $\psi(1) > 1$ .

**THEOREM 21** ([43]). Then (i)–(iv) imply

$$G(f(n) \bmod 1) = \left\{ g_w(x) = \frac{1}{\psi(w)} \frac{\psi(x) - 1}{\psi(1) - 1} + \frac{\min(\psi(x), \psi(w)) - 1}{\psi(w)}; w \in [0, 1] \right\}.$$

Now, if  $w(i) = \{f(N_i)\} \rightarrow w$ , then  $F_{N_i}(x) \rightarrow g_w(x)$  for every  $x \in [0, 1]$ .

**THEOREM 22** (Y. Ohkubo [27]). Then (i)–(iv) imply

$$G(f(p_n) \bmod 1) = \left\{ g_w(x) = \frac{1}{\psi(w)} \frac{\psi(x) - 1}{\psi(1) - 1} + \frac{\min(\psi(x), \psi(w)) - 1}{\psi(w)}; w \in [0, 1] \right\}.$$

Now, if  $w(i) = \{f(p_{N_i})\} \rightarrow w$ , then  $F_{N_i}(x) \rightarrow g_w(x)$  for every  $x \in [0, 1]$ .

**EXAMPLE 14** (Example of natural numbers). For the sequence

$$f(n) = \log_b n^s, n = 1, 2, \dots, f^{-1}(x) = b^{\frac{x}{s}}, \\ \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f^{-1}(k+w)}{f^{-1}(k)} = \frac{b^{\frac{k+w}{s}}}{b^{\frac{k}{s}}} = b^{\frac{w}{s}} = \psi(w), \text{ and by Theorem 21}$$

---

<sup>9</sup>Theorem 21 is a simple version of Theorems 34, 35 and 36.

$$G(\log_b n^s \bmod 1) = \left\{ g_w(x) = \frac{1}{b^{\frac{w}{s}}} \frac{b^{\frac{x}{s}} - 1}{b^{\frac{1}{s}} - 1} + \frac{\min(b^{\frac{x}{s}}, b^{\frac{w}{s}}) - 1}{b^{\frac{w}{s}}}; w \in [0, 1] \right\}.$$

If  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \{f(N_i)\} = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \{\log_b(N_i^s)\} = w$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{n \leq N_i; \text{ first } r \text{ digits of } n^s \text{ are } k_1 k_2 \dots k_r\}}{N_i} \\ &= g_w(\log_b k_1.k_2 k_3 \dots (k_r + 1)) - g_w(\log_b k_1.k_2 k_3 \dots k_r) \\ &= \frac{b^{(\log_b k_1.k_2 \dots (k_r + 1))/s} - 1}{b^{1/s} - 1} - \frac{b^{(\log_b k_1.k_2 \dots k_r)/s} - 1}{b^{1/s} - 1} \\ &= \frac{(k_1.k_2 k_3 \dots (k_r + 1))^{(1/s)} - (k_1.k_2 k_3 \dots k_r)^{(1/s)}}{b^{1/s} - 1}, \end{aligned}$$

where we assume  $N_i = b^i$  which gives  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \{\log_b(b^{is})\} = 0 = w$ .

**EXAMPLE 15** (Example of primes).  $f(p_n) = \log_b p_n^s$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ,  $p_n$  is the  $n$ th prime.

$$f(x) = \log_b x^s,$$

$$G(\log_b p_n^s \bmod 1) = \left\{ g_w(x) = \frac{1}{b^{\frac{w}{s}}} \frac{b^{\frac{x}{s}} - 1}{b^{\frac{1}{s}} - 1} + \frac{\min(b^{\frac{x}{s}}, b^{\frac{w}{s}}) - 1}{b^{\frac{w}{s}}}; w \in [0, 1] \right\}.$$

If  $N_i = \pi(b^{\frac{i}{s}}) + 1$ , then  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \{f(p_{N_i})\} = 0$  (cf. [28]) and  $g_0(x) = \frac{b^{x/s} - 1}{b^{1/s} - 1}$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{n \leq N_i; \text{ first } r \text{ digits of } p_n^s = k_1 k_2 \dots k_r\}}{N_i} \\ &= g_0(\log_b(k_1.k_2 k_3 \dots (k_r + 1))) - g_0(\log_b(k_1.k_2 k_3 \dots k_r)) \\ &= \frac{b^{(\log_b(k_1.k_2 \dots (k_r + 1)))/s} - 1}{b^{1/s} - 1} - \frac{b^{(\log_b(k_1.k_2 \dots k_r))/s} - 1}{b^{1/s} - 1} \\ &= \frac{(k_1.k_2 k_3 \dots (k_r + 1))^{(1/s)} - (k_1.k_2 k_3 \dots k_r)^{(1/s)}}{b^{1/s} - 1}. \end{aligned}$$

### 2.6.5. Two-dimensional Benford's law

Unsolved Problems [42, 1.38, p. 186]:

F. Luca and P. Stanica [23] proved

**THEOREM 23.** *There exists infinite many  $n$  such that Fibonacci number  $F_n$  starts with digits  $K_1$  and  $\varphi(F_n)$  starts with digits  $K_2$  in the base  $b$  representation. Here  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are arbitrary and  $\varphi(x)$  is the Euler function.*

In the following we see that this claim is equivalent that the sequence

$$(\log_b F_n, \log_b \varphi(F_n)) \bmod 1, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots,$$

is everywhere dense in  $[0, 1]^2$ , but the authors use the following method:

- (i) By the first author  $\varphi(F_n)/F_n$  is dense in  $[0, 1]$ . Thus, for an interval  $I$  with arbitrary small length and containing  $K_2/K_1$ , there exists  $\varphi(F_a)/F_a \in I$ .
- (ii) Then  $\varphi(F_{ap})/F_{ap} \in I$  for all sufficiently large prime  $p$ .
- (iii) There exists infinitely many primes  $p$  such that  $F_{ap}$  starts with  $K_1$ .
- (iv) Finally, multiplying  $I$  by  $F_{ap}$  they find  $\varphi(F_{ap})$  which starts with  $K_2$ .

Now we shall extend Theorem 20 to the two-dimensional case.

Let  $x_n > 0, y_n > 0, n = 1, 2, \dots$ ;

$$F_N(x, y) = \frac{\#\{n \leq N; \{\log_b x_n\} < x \text{ and } \{\log_b y_n\} < y\}}{N},$$

$$K_1 = k_1^{(1)} k_2^{(1)} \dots k_{r_1}^{(1)},$$

$$K_2 = k_1^{(2)} k_2^{(2)} \dots k_{r_2}^{(2)},$$

$$u_1 = \log_b \left( \frac{K_1}{b^{r_1-1}} \right),$$

$$u_2 = \log_b \left( \frac{K_1+1}{b^{r_1-1}} \right),$$

$$v_1 = \log_b \left( \frac{K_2}{b^{r_2-1}} \right),$$

$$v_2 = \log_b \left( \frac{K_2+1}{b^{r_2-1}} \right),$$

$$x_n \text{ has the first } r_1 \text{ digits} = K_1 \iff \{\log_b x_n\} \in [u_1, u_2];$$

$$y_n \text{ has the first } r_2 \text{ digits} = K_2 \iff \{\log_b y_n\} \in [v_1, v_2];$$

**THEOREM 24.** Let  $g(x, y) \in G(\{\log_b x_n\}, \{\log_b y_n\})$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F_{N_k}(x, y) = g(x, y)$  for  $(x, y) \in [0, 1]^2$ . Then

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{n \leq N_k; x_n \text{ has the first } r_1 \text{ digits} = K_1 \text{ and } y_n \text{ has the first } r_2 \text{ digits} = K_2\}}{N_k} = g(u_2, v_2) + g(u_1, v_1) - g(u_2, v_1) - g(u_1, v_2). \tag{31}$$

**EXAMPLE 16.**

$$\begin{aligned} & G(\{\log_b n\}, \{\log_b(n+1)\}) \\ &= \left\{ g_u(x, y) = \frac{b^{\min(x,y)} - 1}{b-1} \frac{1}{b^u} + \frac{b^{\min(x,y,u)} - 1}{b^u}; u \in [0, 1] \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

$g_u(x, y) = \min(g_u(x), g_u(y))$  by Sklar theorem, where  $g_u(x) = \frac{b^x-1}{b-1} \cdot \frac{1}{b^u} + \frac{b^{\min(x,u)}-1}{b^u}$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{n \leq N_k; n \text{ has the first } r_1 \text{ digits} = K_1 \text{ and } (n+1) \text{ has the first } r_2 \text{ digits} = K_2\}}{N_k} \\ &= g_u(u_2, v_2) + g_u(u_1, v_1) - g_u(u_2, v_1) - g_u(u_1, v_2) \end{aligned}$$

If  $K_1 = K_2$  then  $= g_u(u_2) - g_u(u_1)$ . It can be found directly.

**EXAMPLE 17.** Let  $x_n \in [0, 1)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , be a u.d. sequence. Then

$$(I) \quad x_n \quad \text{and} \quad \log_b n \bmod 1$$

are statistically independent (Theorem 8);

$$(II) \quad x_n \quad \text{and} \quad \log_b(n \log n) \bmod 1$$

are statistically independent (Y. Ohkubo (2011) [27]); see Theorem 9.

$$(III) \quad x_n \quad \text{and} \quad \log_b p_n \bmod 1$$

are statistically independent (Y. Ohkubo (2011) [27]); see Theorem 10.

$$G(x_n, \{\log_b p_n\}) = \{x.g_u(y); u \in [0, 1]\},$$

where  $g_u(x) = \frac{b^x - 1}{b - 1} \cdot \frac{1}{b^u} + \frac{b^{\min(x, u)} - 1}{b^u}$  and  $F_{N_k}(x, y) \rightarrow x.g_u(y)$  if  $\{\log_b N_k\} \rightarrow u$ .

**EXAMPLE 18.** Let  $x_n \in [0, 1)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , be u.d. sequence. Then  $x_n$  and  $\log_b n \bmod 1$  are statistically independent, i.e.,

$$G(x_n, \{\log_b n\}) = \{g_u(x, y) = x.g_u(y); u \in [0, 1]\},$$

where  $g_u(x) = \frac{b^x - 1}{b - 1} \cdot \frac{1}{b^u} + \frac{b^{\min(x, u)} - 1}{b^u}$ . This was proved by G. Rauzy (1973), see [44, p. 2-27, 2.3.6.]

**EXAMPLE 19.** By Theorem 10 we have

$$G(\{\log_b F_n\}, \{\log_b p_n\}) = \{x.g_u(y); u \in [0, 1]\}$$

and let

$$\{\log_b p_{N_k}\} \rightarrow u.$$

Then

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{n \leq N_k; F_n \text{ has the first } r_1 \text{ digits} = K_1 \text{ and } p_n \text{ has the first } r_2 \text{ digits} = K_2\}}{N_k} = u_2 g_u(v_2) + u_1 g_u(v_1) - u_2 g_u(v_1) - u_1 g_u(v_2), \quad (32)$$

where

$$u_1 = \log_b \left( \frac{K_1}{b^{r_1} - 1} \right), \quad u_2 = \log_b \left( \frac{K_1 + 1}{b^{r_1} - 1} \right),$$

$$v_1 = \log_b \left( \frac{K_2}{b^{r_2} - 1} \right), \quad v_2 = \log_b \left( \frac{K_2 + 1}{b^{r_2} - 1} \right),$$

and

$$g_u(x) = \frac{b^x - 1}{b - 1} \cdot \frac{1}{b^u} + \frac{b^{\min(x, u)} - 1}{b^u}.$$

**2.7. Two-dimensional copulas**

<sup>10</sup> If distribution function  $c(x, y)$  satisfies

$$c(x, 1) = x \quad \text{and} \quad c(1, y) = y,$$

then  $c(x, y)$  is called *copula*. These d.f.'s introduced by M. Sklar (1959) and all their basic properties can be found in R.B. Nelsen (1999).

Let  $G_{2,1}$  be the set of all two-dimensional copulas. There are some basic properties  $G_{2,1}$ :

- (I)  $G_{2,1}$  is closed under pointwise limit and convex linear combinations.
- (II) For every  $g(x, y) \in G_{2,1}$  and every  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in [0, 1]^2$  we have  $|g(x_2, y_2) - g(x_1, y_1)| \leq |x_2 - x_1| + |y_2 - y_1|$ , [26, p. 9]. Also [26, p. 9, Coroll. 2.2.6]: The horizontal, vertical and diagonal sections of copula are all nondecreasing and uniformly continuous on  $[0, 1]$ .
- (III) For every  $g(x, y) \in G_{2,1}$  we have  $g_3(x, y) = \max(x + y - 1, 0) \leq g(x, y) \leq \min(x, y) = g_2(x, y)$ , where  $g_3(x, y)$  and  $g_2(x, y)$  are copulas (Fréchet-Hoeffding bounds, see R.B. Nelsen (1999) [p. 9][26]).
- (IV) M. Sklar (1959) proved (cf. (cf. Nelsen[p. 15, Th. 2.3.3])):

**THEOREM 25.** *For every d.f.  $g(x, y)$  on  $[0, 1]^2$  there exists  $c(x, y) \in G_{2,1}$  such that*

$$g(x, y) = c(g(x, 1), g(1, y)) \quad \text{for every } (x, y) \in [0, 1]^2.$$

*If  $g(x, 1)$  and  $g(1, y)$  are continuous, then the copula  $c(x, y)$  is unique .*

• For d.f.  $g(x, y)$  denote the marginal  $g_1(x) = g(x, 1)$  and  $g_2(y) = g(1, y)$  and by Sklar  $g(x, y) = c(g_1(x), g_2(y))$ . Then for every continuous  $F(x, y)$  we have

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dg(x, y) = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(g_1^{(-1)}(x), g_2^{(-1)}(y)) dc(x, y), \quad (33)$$

see M. Hofer and M.R. Iacò [18].

(VI) Examples:

$g_\theta(x, y) = (\min(x, y))^\theta (xy)^{1-\theta}$ , where  $\theta \in [0, 1]$  (Cuadras-Augé family, cf. Nelsen [1999, p. 12, Ex. 2.5]),

$g_4(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x+y-xy}$  (see Nelsen [1999, p. 19, 2.3.4]),

$\tilde{g}(x, y) = x + y - 1 + g(1 - x, 1 - y)$  for every  $g(x, y) \in G_{2,1}$  (Survival copula, see Nelsen [1999, p. 28, 2.6.1]).

---

<sup>10</sup> We denote by  $G_{s,k}$  the set of all d.f.s  $g(\mathbf{x})$  on  $[0, 1]^s$  for which all  $k$ -dimensional marginal (i.e., face) d.f.s satisfy  $g(1, \dots, 1, x_{i_1}, 1, \dots, 1, x_{i_2}, 1, \dots, 1, x_{i_k}, 1, \dots, 1) = x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \dots x_{i_k}$ . For  $k = 1$ , these d.f.'s are called *copulas*

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Possible a new types of copulas can be produced by: If a sequences  $(x_n, y_n)$  have both  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  u.d. then all d.f.'s  $g(x, y)$  of the sequence  $(x_n, y_n)$  has marginals

$$g(x, 1) = x, \quad g(1, y) = y.$$

**THEOREM 26.** *Let  $X$  be a non-empty, closed and connected set of copulas. Then there exists a two-dimensional sequence  $(x_n, y_n), n = 1, 2, \dots,$  in  $[0, 1]^2$  such that  $G(x_n, y_n) = X$ .*

**EXAMPLE 20.** For the sequence  $(u + z_n, v + z_n) \bmod 1, z_n, n = 1, 2, \dots, z_n$  is u.d. we denote a.d.f. as  $g_{u,v}(x, y)$ . Then by Weyl's limit relation

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N K(\{u + z_n, v + z_n\}) &= \int_0^1 K(\{u + z\}, \{v + z\}) dz \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 K(x, y) d_x d_y g_{u,v}(x, y). \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

In the following, for  $g_{u,v}(x, y)$ , we prove (39).

Let  $0 \leq u \leq v \leq 1$  be fixed and  $x, y \in [0, 1]$  be variables and define

$$h_u(x) = x + u \bmod 1, \quad h_v(y) = y + v \bmod 1.$$

Then

$$g_{u,v}(x, y) = |h_u^{-1}([0, x]) \cap h_v^{-1}([0, y])|.$$

Using the following graphs of  $h_u(x)$

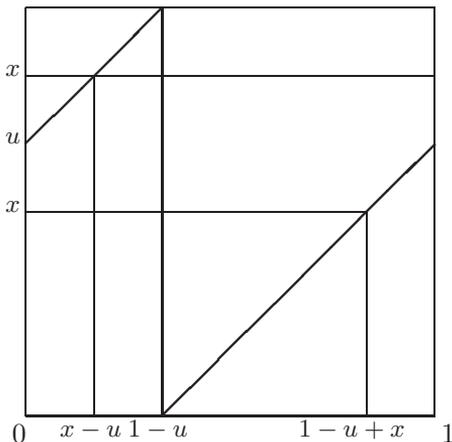


Figure 1: The graph of  $h_u(x)$ .

then we see

$$h_u^{-1}([0, x]) = \begin{cases} [1 - u, 1 - u + x] & \text{if } x \leq u, \\ [0, x - u] \cup [1 - u, 1] & \text{if } u \leq x. \end{cases} \quad (35)$$

Hence

$$g_{u,v}(x, y) = \begin{cases} |[1 - u, 1 - u + x] \cap [1 - v, 1 - v + y]| & \text{if } x \leq u, y \leq v, \\ |[1 - u, 1 - u + x] \cap ([0, y - v] \cup [1 - v, 1])| & \text{if } x \leq u, y > v, \\ |([0, x - u] \cup [1 - u, 1]) \cap [1 - v, 1 - v + y]| & \text{if } x > u, y \leq v, \\ |([0, x - u] \cup [1 - u, 1]) \cap ([0, y - v] \cup [1 - v, 1])| & \text{if } x > u, y > v. \end{cases} \quad (36)$$

Now we used minimum and maximum formula for the length of intersection of two intervals  $[\alpha, \beta]$  and  $[\gamma, \delta]$

$$|[\alpha, \beta] \cap [\gamma, \delta]| = \max(\min(\beta, \delta) - \max(\alpha, \gamma), 0). \quad (37)$$

Insert (37) into (36) we see

$$g_{u,v}(x, y) = \begin{cases} \max(\min(y, x - u + v), 0) & \text{if } x \leq u, y \leq v, \\ \max(\min(x, y - v - 1 + u), 0) + \max(v - u + x, 0) & \text{if } x \leq u, y > v, \\ y & \text{if } x > u, y \leq v, \\ \min(x - u + v, y) + \max(y - v - 1 + u, 0) & \text{if } x > u, y > v, \end{cases} \quad (38)$$

which implies

$$g_{u,v}(x, y) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } (x, y) \in A, \\ y - (1 - |u - v|) & \text{if } (x, y) \in B, \\ x + y - 1 & \text{if } (x, y) \in C, \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) \in D, \\ x - |u - v| & \text{if } (x, y) \in E, \\ y & \text{if } (x, y) \in F, \end{cases} \quad (39)$$

where

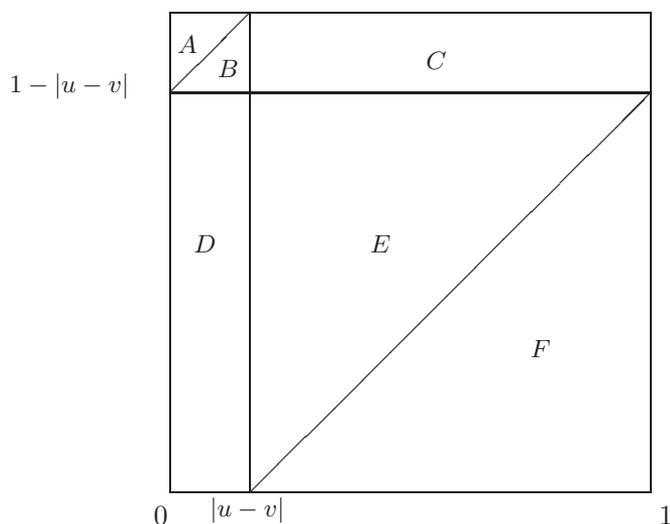


Figure 2: Division  $[0, 1]^2$  by (39).

### 2.7.1. Applications

Let  $F(x, y)$  be a Riemann integrable function defined on  $[0, 1]^2$  and  $x_n, y_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$ , be two u.d. sequences in  $[0, 1)$ . A problem is to find limit points of the sequence

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N F(x_n, y_n), \quad N = 1, 2, \dots \quad (40)$$

For  $F(x, y) = |x - y|$ , this problem was formulated by F. Pillichshammer and S. Steinerberger [30]. They proved:

**THEOREM 27.** *Let  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  be two uniformly distributed sequences in  $[0, 1)$ . Then*

$$\limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |x_n - y_n| \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

and in particular

$$\limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |x_{n+1} - x_n| \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

and this result is best possible.

They also found:

- $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |x_{n+1} - x_n| = \frac{2(b-1)}{b^2}$  for van der Corput sequence  $x_n$  in the base  $b$  and
- $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |x_{n+1} - x_n| = 2\{\alpha\}(1 - \{\alpha\})$  for  $x_n = n\alpha \bmod 1$ , where  $\alpha$  is irrational.

Applying Helly theorems we see that limit points of (40) form the set

$$\left\{ \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y g(x, y); g(x, y) \in G((x_n, y_n)) \right\}, \quad (41)$$

where  $G(x_n, y_n)$  is the set of all d.f.s of the two-dimensional sequence  $(x_n, y_n)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . In this case, two-dimensional sequence  $(x_n, y_n)$  does not need to be u.d. but every d.f.  $g(x, y) \in G((x_n, y_n))$  satisfies:

- (i)  $g(x, 1) = x$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$  and
- (ii)  $g(1, y) = y$  for  $y \in [0, 1]$ .

Thus d.f.  $g(x, y)$  is a copula.

### 2.8. Extremes of $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y g(x, y)$

The problem of to find extremes of (40) is equivalent to find extreme values of  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y g(x, y)$  over copulas  $g(x, y)$ . In [11] is proved:

**THEOREM 28.** *Let  $F(x, y)$  be a Riemann integrable function defined on  $[0, 1]^2$ . For differential of  $F(x, y)$  let us assume that  $d_x d_y F(x, y) > 0$  for every  $(x, y) \in (0, 1)^2$ . Then*

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{g(x,y)\text{-copula}} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y g(x, y) &= \int_0^1 F(x, x) dx, \\ \min_{g(x,y)\text{-copula}} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y g(x, y) &= \int_0^1 F(x, 1 - x) dx, \end{aligned} \quad (42)$$

where, precisely, max is attained in  $g(x, y) = \min(x, y)$  and min in  $g(x, y) = \max(x + y - 1, 0)$ , uniquely.

*Proof.* The integration by parts gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y g(x, y) &= F(1, 1) - \int_0^1 g(1, y) d_y F(1, y) - \int_0^1 g(x, 1) d_x F(x, 1) \\ &\quad + \int_0^1 \int_0^1 g(x, y) d_x d_y F(x, y) \end{aligned} \quad (43)$$

which holds for every Riemann integrable  $F(x, y)$  and d.f.  $g(x, y)$  which does not have any common discontinuity points. Then Fréchet-Hoeffding bounds (see Nelsen [26, p. 9])

$$\max(x + y - 1, 0) \leq g(x, y) \leq \min(x, y)$$

and the assumption  $d_x d_y F(x, y) > 0$  implies

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \max(x + y - 1, 0) d_x d_y F(x, y) &\leq \int_0^1 \int_0^1 g(x, y) d_x d_y F(x, y) \\ &\leq \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \min(x, y) d_x d_y F(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

Since every copula is continuous, then the left inequality is attained if and only if  $g(x, y) = \max(x + y - 1, 0)$  and the right if and only if  $g(x, y) = \min(x, y)$ .

Directly by definition of a.d.f., for every u.d. sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$ , it can be proved that

- a) the sequence  $(x_n, x_n)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , has the a.d.f.  $g(x, y) = \min(x, y)$  and
- b) the sequence  $(x_n, 1 - x_n)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , has the a.d.f.  $g(x, y) = \max(x + y - 1, 0)$ . From it

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N F(x_n, x_n) = \int_0^1 F(x, x) dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y \min(x, y), \tag{44}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N F(x_n, 1 - x_n) &= \int_0^1 F(x, 1 - x) dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y \max(x + y - 1, 0). \end{aligned} \tag{45}$$

If  $d_x d_y F(x, y) < 0$ , the right hand sides of (42) are exchanged.

□

Using copulas we gives in the following, an alternative proof of F. Pillichshammer and S. Steinerberger [30] Theorem 27:

**EXAMPLE 21.** Putting  $F(x, y) = |x - y|$ , we have  $F(1, 1) = 0$ ,  $F(1, x) = 1 - x$ ,  $F(y, 1) = 1 - y$ , and computing, for  $y > x$ ,

$$d_x d_y |y - x| = (y + dy - (x + dx)) = (y - x) - (y - (x + dx)) - (y + dy - x) = 0,$$

and for  $y = x$ ,  $dy = dx$ ,

$$d_x d_y |y - x| = |x + dx - (x + dx)| + |x - x| - |(x + dx) - x| - |x - (x + dx)| = -2dx$$

then we have

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x-y|d_x d_y g(x,y) = \int_0^1 g(x,1)dx + \int_0^1 g(1,y)dy - 2 \int_0^1 g(x,x)dx. \quad (46)$$

Thus for a copula  $g(x,y)$ ,  $g(x,1) = x$ ,  $g(1,y) = y$  we have

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x-y|d_x d_y g(x,y) = 1 - 2 \int_0^1 g(x,x)dx. \quad (47)$$

We shall compute (47) for van der Corput sequence  $\gamma_q(n)$ ,  $n = 0, 1, \dots$ , in base  $q$ . We have that every point  $(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n+1))$ ,  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , lies on the diagonals of intervals

$$\left[0, 1 - \frac{1}{q}\right] \times \left[\frac{1}{q}, 1\right] \quad (48)$$

$$\left[1 - \frac{1}{q^i}, 1 - \frac{1}{q^{i+1}}\right] \times \left[\frac{1}{q^{i+1}}, \frac{1}{q^i}\right], \quad i = 1, 2, \dots \quad (49)$$

By Fig. 1 we find the so-called von Neumann-Kakutani transformation  $T : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , see Fig. 1. Because  $\gamma_q(n)$  is u.d., the sequence  $(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n+1))$  has a.d.f.  $g(x,y)$  which is copula of the form

$$\begin{aligned} g(x,y) &= |\text{Project}_X(( [0,x] \times [0,y] ) \cap \text{graph } T)| \\ &= \min (|[0,x] \cap I_X|, |[0,y] \cap I_Y|) \\ &\quad + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \min (|[0,x] \cap I_X^{(i)}|, |[0,y] \cap I_Y^{(i)}|), \end{aligned} \quad (50)$$

where  $\text{Project}_X$  is the projection of a two dimensional set to the  $X$ -axis. <sup>11</sup>

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<sup>11</sup> Copula  $g(x,y)$  of the type (50) is called *shuffle of  $M$*  (see [26, p. 69]). It is a copula whose support is a collection of line segments with slope +1 or -1.

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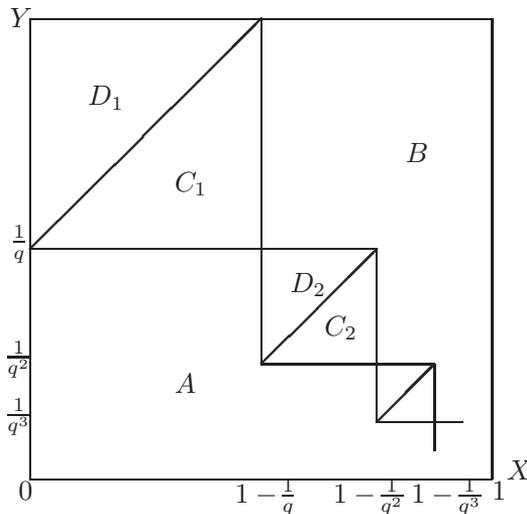


Figure 1: Line segments containing  $(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n+1))$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$   
 The graph of the von Neumann-Kakutani transformation  $T$ .

The sum (50) implies

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (x, y) \in A, \\ 1 - (1 - y) - (1 - x) = x + y - 1 & \text{if } (x, y) \in B, \\ y - \frac{1}{q^i} & \text{if } (x, y) \in C_i, \\ x - 1 + \frac{1}{q^{i-1}} & \text{if } (x, y) \in D_i, \end{cases} \quad (51)$$

$i = 1, 2, \dots$  From (51) it follows

$$g(x, x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \in [0, \frac{1}{q}], \\ x - \frac{1}{q}, & \text{if } x \in [\frac{1}{q}, 1 - \frac{1}{q}], \\ 2x - 1, & \text{if } x \in [1 - \frac{1}{q}, 1], \end{cases} \quad (52)$$

(for  $q = 2$ , the mean equality misses) and by (47)

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |\gamma_q(n) - \gamma_q(n+1)| = 1 - 2 \int_0^1 g(x, x) dx = \frac{2(q-1)}{q^2}.$$

As we see in part 2.7.1 in uniform distribution theory the problem of optimizing the integral

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y g(x, y) \quad (53)$$

over copulas  $g(x, y)$  is motivated by computing optimal limit points of the sequence  $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N F(x_n, y_n)$ ,  $N = 1, 2, \dots$  over uniform distribution sequences  $x_n$  and  $y_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . But problem of optimizing (53) belongs to the well-known mass transportation problems, or the Monge-Kantorovich transportation problem, see e.g., L. Ambrosio and N. Gigli (2013) [1]. In Theorem 28 we have seen that the solution of the problem in uniform distribution theory depends on the sign of partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial^2 F(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y}$ , see Fig. 2.

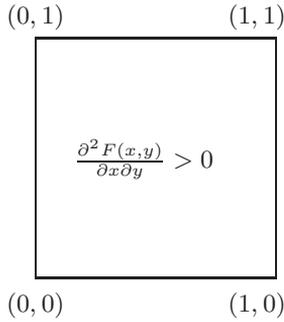


Figure 2.

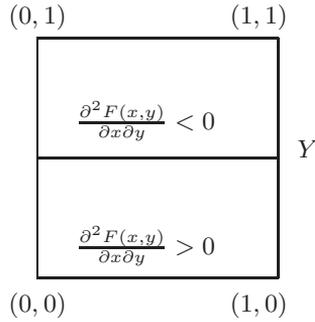


Figure 3.

A criterion for Fig. 3 follows from [11, Th. 7]:

**THEOREM 29.** *Let us assume that a copula  $g(x, y)$  maximizes the integral*

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y g(x, y).$$

*Let  $[X_1, X_2] \times [Y_1, Y_2]$  be an interval in  $[0, 1]^2$  such that the differential*

$$g(X_2, Y_2) + g(X_1, Y_1) - g(X_2, Y_1) - g(X_1, Y_2) > 0.$$

*Assume that for every interior point  $(x, y)$  of  $[X_1, X_2] \times [Y_1, Y_2]$  the differential  $d_x d_y F(x, y)$  has constant signum. Then we have:*

(i) *if  $d_x d_y F(x, y) > 0$ , then*

$$g(x, y) = \min(g(x, Y_2) + g(X_1, y) - g(X_1, Y_2), g(x, Y_1) + g(X_2, y) - g(X_2, Y_1)) \quad (54)$$

(ii) *if  $d_x d_y F(x, y) < 0$ , then*

$$g(x, y) = \max(g(x, Y_2) + g(X_2, y) - g(X_2, Y_2), g(x, Y_1) + g(X_1, y) - g(X_1, Y_1)) \quad (55)$$

*for every  $(x, y) \in [X_1, X_2] \times [Y_1, Y_2]$ .*

Theorem 29 can also be used for Fig. 4. Such a method is described in R.F. Tichy, S. Thonhauser, O. Strauch, M.R. Iacó and V. Baláz [49]:

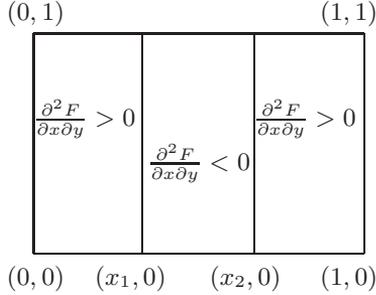


Figure 4.

Let  $g(x, y)$  be a copula which maximize  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y g(x, y)$  and  $F(x, y)$  satisfies Fig. 4. Then  $g(x, y)$  satisfies (54) if  $x \in (0, x_1) \cup (x_2, 1)$  and (55) if  $x \in (x_1, x_2)$ . Denote

$$g(x_1, y) = h_1(y), \quad \text{and} \quad g(x_2, y) = h_2(y).$$

Thus:

If  $x \in (0, x_1)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} g(x, y) &= \min(g(0, y) + g(x, 1) - g(0, 1), g(x, 0) + g(x_1, y) - g(x_1, 0)) \\ &= \min(0 + x - 0, 0 + h_1(y) - 0) \\ &= \min(x, h_1(y)). \end{aligned}$$

If  $x \in (x_1, x_2)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} g(x, y) &= \max(g(x, 1) + g(x_2, y) - g(x_2, 1), g(x_1, y) + g(x, 0) - g(x_1, 0)) \\ &= \max(x + h_2(y) - x_2, h_1(y) + 0 - 0) \\ &= \max(x + h_2(y) - x_2, h_1(y)). \end{aligned}$$

If  $x \in (x_2, 1)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} g(x, y) &= \min(g(x_2, y) + g(x, 1) - g(x_2, 1), g(x, 0) + g(1, y) - g(1, 0)) \\ &= \min(h_2(y) + x - x_2, 0 + y - 0) \\ &= \min(x - x_2 + h_2(y), y). \end{aligned}$$

Summary

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} \min(x, h_1(y)) & \text{if } x \in [0, x_1], \\ \max(x + h_2(y) - x_2, h_1(y)) & \text{if } x \in [x_1, x_2], \\ \min(x - x_2 + h_2(y), y) & \text{if } x \in [x_2, 1] \end{cases} \quad (56)$$

where  $y \in [0, 1]$  and  $h_1(y)$  and  $h_2(y)$  we must calculated.

The differential  $d_x d_y g(x, y)$  is nonzero only for points  $(x, y)$  on the curves

$$\begin{aligned} x &= h_1(y), y \in [0, 1], \\ x &= x_2 - h_2(y) + h_1(y), y \in [0, 1], \\ x &= x_2 - h_2(y) + y, y \in [0, 1], \end{aligned} \quad (57)$$

and we have

$$d_x d_y g(x, y) = \begin{cases} h'_1(y) dy & \text{if } x \in [0, x_1], x = h_1(y), \\ (h'_2(y) - h'_1(y)) dy & \text{if } x \in [x_1, x_2], x = x_2 - h_2(y) + h_1(y), \\ (1 - h'_2(y)) dy & \text{if } x \in [x_2, 1], x = x_2 - h_2(y) + y. \end{cases} \quad (58)$$

Let

$$F(x, y) = \begin{cases} F_1(x, y) & \text{if } x \in (0, x_1), \frac{\partial^2 F_1(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y} > 0 \\ F_2(x, y) & \text{if } x \in (x_1, x_2), \frac{\partial^2 F_2(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y} < 0 \\ F_3(x, y) & \text{if } x \in (x_2, 1), \frac{\partial^2 F_3(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y} > 0. \end{cases}$$

Then (56), (58) and (57) give

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d_x d_y g(x, y) &= \int_0^1 F_1(h_1(y), y) h'_1(y) dy \\ &+ \int_0^1 F_2(x_2 - h_2(y) + h_1(y), y) (h'_2(y) - h'_1(y)) dy \\ &+ \int_0^1 F_3(x_2 - h_2(y) + y, y) (1 - h'_2(y)) dy. \end{aligned} \quad (59)$$

Denote

$$\begin{aligned} G(y, h_1, h_2, h'_1, h'_2) &= F_1(h_1(y), y) h'_1(y) + F_2(x_2 - h_2(y) + h_1(y), y) (h'_2(y) - h'_1(y)) \\ &+ F_3(x_2 - h_2(y) + y, y) (1 - h'_2(y)). \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\max_{g(x,y)\text{-copula}} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x,y) d_x d_y g(x,y) = \max_{h_1, h_2} \int_0^1 G(y, h_1, h_2, h'_1, h'_2) dy, \quad (60)$$

where  $h_1, h_2$  give a copula in (56). To do this we use the following criterion:

**THEOREM 30.** *The function  $g(x, y)$  defined by (56) is a copula if and only if*

- (i)  $h_1(y)$  and  $h_2(y)$  are increasing;
- (ii)  $h_1(0) = 0, h_2(0) = 0$ ;
- (iii)  $h_1(1) = x_1, h_2(1) = x_2$ ;
- (iv)  $0 \leq h_1(y) \leq h_2(y) \leq y$ ;
- (v)  $0 \leq h'_1(y) \leq h'_2(y) \leq 1$ ;

If the  $(h_1, h_2)$  is maximum of  $\int_0^1 G(y, h_1, h_2, h'_1, h'_2) dy$  but not satisfy assumptions of Theorem 30, then we have only

$$\max_{g(x,y)\text{-copula}} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x,y) d_x d_y g(x,y) \leq \int_0^1 G(y, h_1, h_2, h'_1, h'_2) dy. \quad (61)$$

For solution of (60) we can using the calculus of variations: If  $(h_1, h_2)$  extremize the integral  $\int_0^1 G(y, h_1, h_2, h'_1, h'_2) dy$  then  $(h_1, h_2)$  must be satisfied the following system of Euler-Lagrange differential equations

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial G}{\partial h_1} - \frac{d}{dy} \frac{\partial G}{\partial h'_1} &= 0, \\ \frac{\partial G}{\partial h_2} - \frac{d}{dy} \frac{\partial G}{\partial h'_2} &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

The solution  $(h_1, h_2)$  maximize  $\int_0^1 G(y, h_1, h_2, h'_1, h'_2) dy$  if

$$\frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial h'_1 \partial h'_1} \leq 0, \quad \left| \begin{array}{cc} \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial h'_1 \partial h'_1} & \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial h'_1 \partial h'_2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial h'_2 \partial h'_1} & \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial h'_2 \partial h'_2} \end{array} \right| \leq 0.$$

To compare (60) we give L. Uckelmann's (1997) [48] the mass transportation problems: Let

$$F(x, y) = \Phi(x + y) \text{ for } (x, y) \in [0, 1]^2;$$

For  $0 < k_1 < k_2 < 2$  let  $\Phi(x)$  be a twice differentiable function such that  $\Phi(x)$  is strictly convex on  $[0, k_1] \cup [k_2, 2]$  and concave on  $[k_1, k_2]$ , i.e.,

$$\Phi''(x) > 0 \text{ for } x \in [0, k_1] \cup (k_2, 2],$$

$$\Phi''(x) > 0 \text{ for } x \in [0, k_1] \cup (k_2, 2].$$

If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the solutions of

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(2\alpha) - \Phi(\alpha + \beta) + (\beta - \alpha)\Phi'(\alpha + \beta) &= 0, \\ \Phi(2\beta) - \Phi(\alpha + \beta) + (\alpha - \beta)\Phi'(\alpha + \beta) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

such that  $0 < \alpha < \beta < 1$ , then the optimal copula  $C(x, y)$  is the shuffle of  $M$

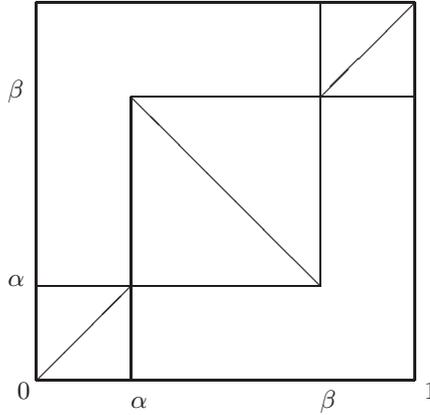


Figure 5.

with the support

$$\Gamma(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{for } x \in [0, \alpha] \cup [\beta, 1], \\ \alpha + \beta - x & \text{for } x \in (\alpha, \beta). \end{cases}$$

Then

$$\max \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dC(x, y) = \int_0^\alpha \Phi(2x) dx + (\beta - \alpha)\Phi(\alpha + \beta) + \int_\beta^1 \Phi(2x) dx.$$

### 2.9. Example of three-dimensional copula

See [12]: In this part we apply the Weyl's limit relation to calculate the limit

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} F(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n+1), \gamma_q(n+2)) \\ = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y, z) d_x d_y d_z g(x, y, z),\end{aligned}$$

where  $\gamma_q(n)$  is the van der Corput sequence in base  $q$ ,  $g(x, y, z)$  is the asymptotic distribution function of  $(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n+1), \gamma_q(n+2))$ , and  $F(x, y, z) = \max(x, y, z)$ .

SOME APPLICATIONS OF DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS OF SEQUENCES

Let  $q \geq 3$  be an integer.

We start with that every point  $(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n + 1))$ ,  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , lies on the diagonals of intervals (48) and (49). Then all terms of the sequence  $(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n + 2))$ ,  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , lie in the diagonals of the following intervals

$$\left[0, 1 - \frac{2}{q}\right] \times \left[\frac{2}{q}, 1\right], \quad (62)$$

$$\left[1 - \frac{1}{q^i}, 1 - \frac{1}{q^{i+1}}\right] \times \left[\frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{q^{i+1}}, \frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{q^i}\right], i = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (63)$$

$$\left[1 - \frac{1}{q} - \frac{1}{q^k}, 1 - \frac{1}{q} - \frac{1}{q^{k+1}}\right] \times \left[\frac{1}{q^{k+1}}, \frac{1}{q^k}\right], k = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (64)$$

Every maximal 3-dimensional interval  $I$  containing points

$$(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n + 1), \gamma_q(n + 2))$$

will be written as  $I = I_X \times I_Y \times I_Z$ , where  $I_X, I_Y, I_Z$  are projections of  $I$  to the  $X, Y, Z$ , axes, respectively. Moreover if

$$\gamma_q(n) \in I_X, \quad \text{then} \quad \gamma_q(n + 1) \in I_Y \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_q(n + 2) \in I_Z.$$

From u.d. of  $\gamma_q(n)$  follows that the lengths  $|I_X| = |I_Y| = |I_Z|$ . Combining intervals (48), (62), (63), (64), (49) of equal lengths by following Figure 3, then we find that every point  $(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n + 1), \gamma_q(n + 2))$  is contained in diagonals of the intervals

$$I = \left[0, 1 - \frac{2}{q}\right] \times \left[\frac{1}{q}, 1 - \frac{1}{q}\right] \times \left[\frac{2}{q}, 1\right], \quad (65)$$

$$I^{(i)} = \left[1 - \frac{1}{q^i}, 1 - \frac{1}{q^{i+1}}\right] \times \left[\frac{1}{q^{i+1}}, \frac{1}{q^i}\right] \times \left[\frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{q^{i+1}}, \frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{q^i}\right], i = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (66)$$

$$J^{(k)} = \left[1 - \frac{1}{q} - \frac{1}{q^k}, 1 - \frac{1}{q} - \frac{1}{q^{k+1}}\right] \times \left[1 - \frac{1}{q^k}, 1 - \frac{1}{q^{k+1}}\right] \times \left[\frac{1}{q^{k+1}}, \frac{1}{q^k}\right], \quad (67)$$

$$k = 1, 2, \dots,$$

where  $|I| = 0$  if  $q = 2$ . These intervals are maximal with respect to inclusion, see Fig. 1:

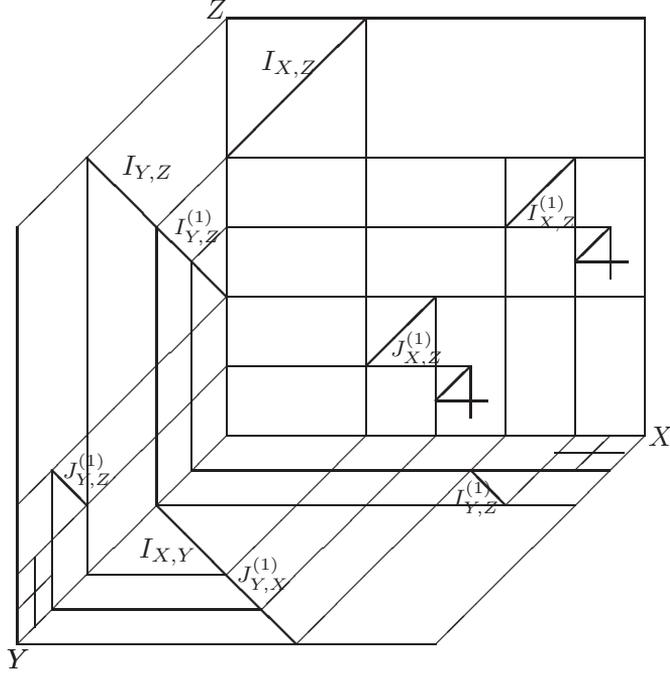


Figure 1: Mapping between intervals with equal lengths.

Now, let  $T$  be the union of diagonals of (66), (67) and (65). Again, as in (50), the a.d.f.  $g(x, y, z)$  has the form <sup>12</sup>

$$g(x, y, z) = |\text{Project}_X([0, x] \times [0, y] \times [0, z] \cap T)| \quad (68)$$

and it can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} g(x, y, z) &= \min(|[0, x] \cap I_X|, |[0, y] \cap I_Y|, |[0, z] \cap I_Z|) \\ &+ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \min(|[0, x] \cap I_X^{(i)}|, |[0, y] \cap I_Y^{(i)}|, |[0, z] \cap I_Z^{(i)}|) \\ &+ \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \min(|[0, x] \cap J_X^{(k)}|, |[0, y] \cap J_Y^{(k)}|, |[0, z] \cap J_Z^{(k)}|). \end{aligned} \quad (69)$$

To calculate minimums in (69) we can use the following Fig. 2 (here  $q = 3$ ):

<sup>12</sup> Since  $g(x, y, z)$  is continuous, we use in the calculation closed intervals.

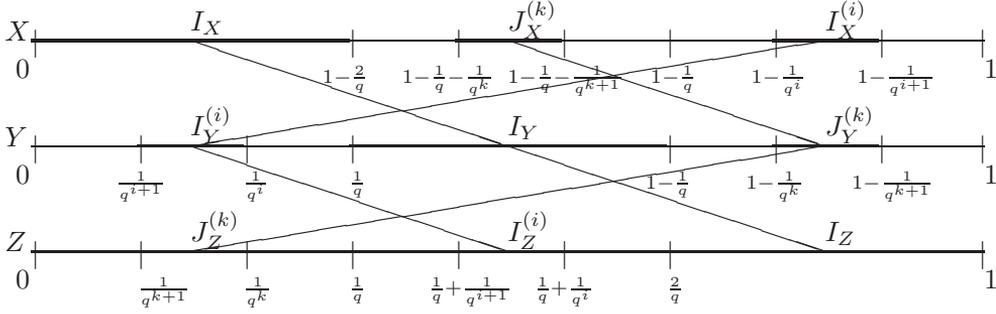


Figure 2: Projections of intervals  $I, I^{(i)}, J^{(k)}$  on axes  $X, Y, Z$ .

As an example of application of (69) and Fig. 2 we compute  $g(x, x, x)$  for  $q \geq 3$  without the knowledge of  $g(x, y, z)$ ,<sup>13</sup>

$$g(x, x, x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \left[0, \frac{2}{q}\right], \\ x - \frac{2}{q} & \text{if } x \in \left[\frac{2}{q}, 1 - \frac{1}{q}\right], \\ 3x - 2 & \text{if } x \in \left[1 - \frac{1}{q}, 1\right]. \end{cases} \quad (70)$$

**Proof.**

1. Let  $x \in \left[0, \frac{1}{q}\right]$ .

Then  $|[0, x] \cap I_Z| = 0$ ,  $|[0, x] \cap I_Z^{(i)}| = 0$ ,  $|[0, x] \cap J_Y^{(k)}| = 0$ , consequently  $g(x, x, x) = 0$ .

2. Let  $x \in \left[\frac{1}{q}, \frac{2}{q}\right]$ .

Then  $|[0, x] \cap I_Z| = 0$ ,  $|[0, x] \cap J_Y^{(k)}| = 0$ ,  $|[0, x] \cap I_X^{(i)}| = 0$ , consequently  $g(x, x, x) = 0$ .

3. Let  $x \in \left[\frac{2}{q}, 1 - \frac{1}{q}\right]$ .

Then  $|[0, x] \cap I_X^{(i)}| = 0$ ,  $|[0, x] \cap J_Y^{(k)}| = 0$ , consequently  $g(x, x, x) = \min\left(1 - \frac{2}{q}, x - \frac{1}{q}, x - \frac{2}{q}\right) = x - \frac{2}{q}$ .

4. Let  $x \in \left[1 - \frac{1}{q}, 1\right]$ .

Specify  $x \in I_X^{(k_1)}$ ,  $x \in J_Y^{(k_1)}$ . Then  $|[0, x] \cap I_X^{(k)}| = 0$ ,  $|[0, x] \cap J_Y^{(k)}| = 0$  for  $k > k_1$ . Thus (69) implies

<sup>13</sup>For  $q = 3$  the middle member in (70) is omitted.

$$\begin{aligned}
 g(x, x, x) &= \min \left( 1 - \frac{2}{q}, 1 - \frac{1}{q} - \frac{1}{q}, x - \frac{2}{q} \right) \\
 &\quad + \sum_{i=1}^{k_1} \min \left( |[0, x] \cap I_X^{(i)}|, |[0, y] \cap I_Y^{(i)}|, |[0, z] \cap I_Z^{(i)}| \right) \\
 &\quad + \sum_{k=1}^{k_1} \min \left( |[0, x] \cap J_X^{(k)}|, |[0, y] \cap J_Y^{(k)}|, |[0, z] \cap J_Z^{(k)}| \right) \\
 &= x - \frac{2}{q} + \sum_{i=1}^{k_1-1} \left( \frac{1}{q^i} - \frac{1}{q^{i+1}} \right) + x - 1 + \frac{1}{q^{k_1}} \\
 &\quad + \sum_{k=1}^{k_1-1} \left( \frac{1}{q^k} - \frac{1}{q^{k+1}} \right) + x - 1 + \frac{1}{q^{k_1}} = 3x - 2.
 \end{aligned}$$

□

For  $q = 2$  we have

$$g(x, x, x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in [0, \frac{1}{2}], \\ x - \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } x \in [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}], \\ 3x - 2 & \text{if } x \in [\frac{3}{4}, 1]. \end{cases} \quad (71)$$

The knowledge <sup>14</sup> of the a.d.f.  $g(x, y, z)$  of the sequence

$$(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n+1), \gamma_q(n+2)), n = 1, 2, \dots$$

allows us to compute the following limit by the Weyl limit relation (4) in dimension  $s = 3$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} F(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n+1), \gamma_q(n+2)) \\
 &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y, z) d_x d_y d_z g(x, y, z), \quad (72)
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $F(x, y, z)$  is an arbitrary continuous function defined in  $[0, 1]^3$ . To calculate the Riemann-Stieltjes integral (72) we will use the integration by parts.

**LEMMA 31.** *Assume that  $F(x, y, z)$  is a continuous in  $[0, 1]^3$  and  $g(x, y, z)$  is a d.f.*

---

<sup>14</sup>  $g(x, y, z)$  is explicitly given in [12] by using 27 possibilities.

Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y, z) d_x d_y d_z g(x, y, z) \\
 &= F(1, 1, 1) - \int_0^1 g(1, 1, z) d_z F(1, 1, z) - \int_0^1 g(1, y, 1) d_y F(1, y, 1) \\
 & \quad - \int_0^1 g(x, 1, 1) d_x F(x, 1, 1) + \int_0^1 \int_0^1 g(1, y, z) d_y d_z F(1, y, z) \\
 & \quad + \int_0^1 \int_0^1 g(x, 1, z) d_x d_z F(x, 1, z) + \int_0^1 \int_0^1 g(x, y, 1) d_x d_y F(x, y, 1) \\
 & \quad - \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 g(x, y, z) d_x d_y d_z F(x, y, z). \tag{73}
 \end{aligned}$$

Here

$$\begin{aligned}
 d_x d_y F(x, y) &= F(x + dx, y + dy) + F(x, y) - F(x + dx, y) - F(x, y + dy), \\
 d_x d_y d_z F(x, y, z) &= F(x + dx, y + dy, z + dz) - F(x, y, z) \\
 & \quad + F(x + dx, y, z) + F(x, y + dy, z) + F(x, y, z + dz) \\
 & \quad - F(x + dx, y + dy, z) - F(x, y + dy, z + dz) \\
 & \quad - F(x + dx, y, z + dz). \tag{74}
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 d_x d_y F(x, y) &= \frac{\partial^2 F(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y} d_x d_y, \\
 d_x d_y d_z F(x, y, z) &= \frac{\partial^3 F(x, y, z)}{\partial x \partial y \partial z} d_x d_y d_z,
 \end{aligned}$$

if the partial derivatives exist. Put

$$F(x, y, z) = \max(x, y, z).$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 d_x F(x, 1, 1) &= d_y F(1, y, 1) = d_z F(1, 1, z) = 0, \\
 d_x d_y F(x, y, 1) &= d_x d_z F(x, 1, z) = d_y d_z F(1, y, z) = 0,
 \end{aligned}$$

The differential  $d_x d_y d_z F(x, y, z)$  is non-zero if and only if  $x = y = z$  and in this case  $d_x d_y d_z F(x, y, z) = dx$ .

Proof. For every interval

$$J = [x_1^{(1)}, x_2^{(1)}] \times [x_1^{(2)}, x_2^{(2)}] \times \cdots \times [x_1^{(s)}, x_2^{(s)}] \subset [0, 1]^s$$

and every continuous  $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_s)$  the differential  $\Delta(F, J)$  is defined as

$$\Delta(F, J) = \sum_{\varepsilon_1=1}^2 \cdots \sum_{\varepsilon_s=1}^2 (-1)^{\varepsilon_1 + \cdots + \varepsilon_s} F(x_{\varepsilon_1}^{(1)}, \dots, x_{\varepsilon_s}^{(s)}). \quad (75)$$

Putting  $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_s) = \max(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_s)$ ,  $x_1^{(i)} = x$ ,  $x_2^{(i)} = x + dx$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta(F, J) &= (-1)^{1+1+\cdots+1} x + \sum_{\varepsilon_1=1}^2 \cdots \sum_{\varepsilon_s=1}^2 (-1)^{\varepsilon_1 + \cdots + \varepsilon_s} (x + dx) \\ &= \sum_{\varepsilon_1=1}^2 \cdots \sum_{\varepsilon_s=1}^2 (-1)^{\varepsilon_1 + \cdots + \varepsilon_s} (x + dx) - (-1)^{1+1+\cdots+1} dx \\ &= (-1)^{s+1} dx. \end{aligned}$$

□

Then by (73)

$$\begin{aligned} &\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y, z) dx dy dz g(x, y, z) \\ &= 1 - \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 g(x, y, z) dx dy dz F(x, y, z) \\ &= 1 - \int_0^1 g(x, x, x) dx. \end{aligned} \quad (76)$$

For  $q \geq 3$  and by (70) we have

$$\int_0^1 g(x, x, x) dx = \int_{\frac{2}{q}}^{1-\frac{1}{q}} \left(x - \frac{2}{q}\right) dx + \int_{1-\frac{1}{q}}^1 (3x - 2) dx = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{q} + \frac{3}{q^2}.$$

For  $q = 2$  and by (71) we have

$$\int_0^1 g(x, x, x) dx = \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{3}{4}} \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right) dx + \int_{\frac{3}{4}}^1 (3x - 2) dx = \frac{3}{16}.$$

Therefore for  $q \geq 3$ , by (72) and by (76) we have

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \max(\gamma_q(n), \gamma_q(n+1), \gamma_q(n+2)) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{q} - \frac{3}{q^2}. \quad (77)$$

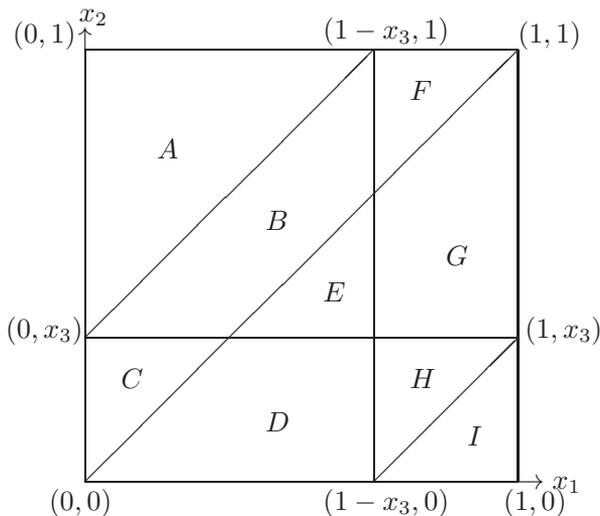
**EXAMPLE 22.** Example of a copula in  $G_{3,2}$  [44, 3-5,3.2.8].

Let  $u_n$  and  $v_n$  be two u.d. and statistically independent sequences in  $[0, 1)$ . Then the sequence

$$\mathbf{x}_n = (u_n, v_n, \{u_n - v_n\}), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots,$$

has the a.d.f.  $g(\mathbf{x})$  which can be described as follows:

Divide the unit square  $[0, 1]^2$  into regions  $A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I$  as shown on the following Figure 2



Then

$$g(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \begin{cases} x_1x_3, & \text{if } (x_1, x_2) \in A, \\ -\frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2) + x_1x_2 + x_2x_3, & \text{if } (x_1, x_2) \in B, \\ -\frac{1}{2}x_1^2 + x_1x_2, & \text{if } (x_1, x_2) \in C, \\ \frac{1}{2}x_2^2, & \text{if } (x_1, x_2) \in D, \\ -\frac{1}{2}x_3^2 + x_2x_3, & \text{if } (x_1, x_2) \in E, \\ -\frac{1}{2}x_2^2 + x_1x_2 + x_1x_3 + x_2x_3 - x_1 - x_3 + \frac{1}{2}, & \text{if } (x_1, x_2) \in F, \\ \frac{1}{2}x_1^2 + x_1x_3 + x_2x_3 - x_1 - x_3 + \frac{1}{2}, & \text{if } (x_1, x_2) \in G, \\ \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2) + x_1x_3 - x_1 - x_3 + \frac{1}{2}, & \text{if } (x_1, x_2) \in H, \\ x_1x_2 + x_2x_3 - x_2 & \text{if } (x_1, x_2) \in I. \end{cases}$$

The Weyl criterion implies that the two-dimensional sequence  $(u_n, \{u_n - v_n\})$  is u.d., thus the face d.f.s are

$$g(1, x_2, x_3) = x_2x_3, \quad g(x_1, 1, x_3) = x_1x_3, \quad g(x_1, x_2, 1) = x_1x_2.$$

Another d.f. having these three properties (distinct from the u.d.) is

$$g(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \min(x_1x_2, x_1x_3, x_2x_3).$$

### 2.10. Ratio sequences

Let  $x_1 < x_2 < \dots$  be an increasing sequence of positive integers and consider the sequence of blocks  $X_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$ , with blocks

$$X_n = \left( \frac{x_1}{x_n}, \frac{x_2}{x_n}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{x_n} \right)$$

and denote by  $F(X_n, x)$  the step d.f.

$$F(X_n, x) = \frac{\#\{i \leq n; \frac{x_i}{x_n} < x\}}{n},$$

for  $x \in [0, 1)$  and  $F(X_n, 1) = 1$ . A d.f.  $g$  is a d.f. of the sequence of single blocks  $X_n$ , if there exists an increasing sequence of positive integers  $n_1, n_2, \dots$  such that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F(X_{n_k}, x) = g(x)$  a.e. on  $[0, 1]$ . Denote by  $G(X_n)$  the set of all d.f.s of the sequence of single blocks  $X_n$ .  $G(X_n)$  has the following properties:

- (iii) Assume that all d.f.s in  $G(X_n)$  are continuous at 1. Then all d.f.s in  $G(X_n)$  are continuous on  $(0, 1]$ , i.e., only possible discontinuity is in 0.
- (iv) If  $\underline{d}(x_n) > 0$ , then for every  $g(x) \in G(X_n)$  we have [45, Th. 6.2(iii)]
 
$$\frac{\underline{d}(x_n)}{\underline{d}(x_n)}x \leq g(x) \leq \frac{\bar{d}(x_n)}{\underline{d}(x_n)}x$$
 for every  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Thus  $\underline{d}(x_n) = \bar{d}(x_n) > 0$  implies u.d. of the block sequence  $X_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$
- (v) If  $\underline{d}(x_n) > 0$ , then every  $g(x) \in G(X_n)$  is continuous on  $[0, 1]$ .
- (vi) If  $\underline{d}(x_n) > 0$ , then there exists  $g(x) \in G(X_n)$  such that  $g(x) \geq x$  for every  $x \in [0, 1]$ , [45, Th. 6.2(ii)]. By [2, Th. 6)] every  $G(X_n)$  contains  $g(x) \geq x$ .
- (vii) If  $\bar{d}(x_n) > 0$ , then there exists  $g(x) \in G(X_n)$  such that  $g(x) \leq x$  for every  $x \in [0, 1]$ .
- (viii) Assume that  $G(X_n)$  is singleton, i.e.,  $G(X_n) = \{g(x)\}$ . Then either  $g(x) = c_0(x)$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$ ; or  $g(x) = x^\lambda$  for some  $0 < \lambda \leq 1$  and  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Moreover, if  $\bar{d}(x_n) > 0$ , then  $g(x) = x$ .
- (ix)  $\max_{g \in G(X_n)} \int_0^1 g(x) dx \geq \frac{1}{2}$ .
- (x) Assume that every d.f.  $g(x) \in G(X_n)$  has a constant value on the fixed interval  $(u, v) \subset [0, 1]$  (maybe different). If  $\underline{d}(x_n) > 0$  then all d.f.'s in  $G(X_n)$  has infinitely many intervals with constant values.

SOME APPLICATIONS OF DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS OF SEQUENCES

- (xi) There exists an increasing sequence  $x_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$ , of positive integers such that  $G(X_n) = \{h_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\}$ , where  $h_\alpha(x) = \alpha, x \in (0, 1)$  is the constant d.f.
- (xii) There exists an increasing sequence  $x_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$ , of positive integers such that  $c_1(x) \in G(X_n)$  but  $c_0(x) \notin G(X_n)$ , where  $c_0(x)$  and  $c_1(x)$  are one-jump d.f.'s with the jump of height 1 at  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ , respectively.
- (xiii) There exists an increasing sequence  $x_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$ , of positive integers such that  $G(X_n)$  is non-connected.
- (xiv)  $G(X_n) = \{x^\lambda\}$  if and only if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_{k.n}/x_n) = k^{1/\lambda}$  for every  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ . Here as in (viii) we have  $0 < \lambda \leq 1$ .
- (xv) If  $\underline{d}(x_n) > 0$ , then all d.f.s  $g(x) \in G(X_n)$  are continuous, nonsingular and bounded by  $h_1(x) \leq g(x) \leq h_2(x)$ , where

$$h_1(x) = \begin{cases} x \frac{\underline{d}}{\bar{d}} & \text{if } x \in \left[0, \frac{1-\bar{d}}{1-\underline{d}}\right], \\ \frac{\underline{d}}{\frac{1}{x} - (1-\underline{d})} & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad h_2(x) = \min \left( x \frac{\bar{d}}{\underline{d}}, 1 \right).$$

Furthermore, there exists  $x_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$ , such that  $h_2(x) \in G(X_n)$  and for every  $x_n$  we have  $h_1(x) \notin G(X_n)$ , [2, Th. 7] and moreover

- (xvi) for a given fixed  $g(x) \in G(X_n)$  we have  $h_{1,g}(x) \leq g(x) \leq h_{2,g}(x)$ , where

$$h_{1,g}(x) = \begin{cases} x \frac{\underline{d}}{d_g} & \text{if } x < y_0 = \frac{1-d_g}{1-\underline{d}}, \\ x \frac{1}{d_g} + 1 - \frac{1}{d_g} & \text{if } y_0 \leq x \leq 1, \end{cases} \quad (78)$$

$$h_{2,g}(x) = \min \left( x \frac{\bar{d}}{d_g}, 1 \right), \quad (79)$$

where if  $\lim_k \rightarrow \infty F(X_{n_k}, x) = g(x)$ , then  $d_g = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n_k}{x_{n_k}}$  if exists.

Applying (xv) it is proved [2]:

**THEOREM 32.** For every increasing sequence  $x_1 < x_2 < \dots$  of positive integers with the lower and upper asymptotic densities  $0 < \underline{d} \leq \bar{d}$  we have

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\underline{d}}{\bar{d}} \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{x_n}, \quad (80)$$

and

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{x_n} \leq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1 - \min(\sqrt{\underline{d}}, \bar{d})}{1 - \underline{d}} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{\underline{d}}{\min(\sqrt{\underline{d}}, \bar{d})} \right). \quad (81)$$

Here the equations in (80) and (81) can be attained.

**EXAMPLE 23.** O. Strauch and J.T. Tóth (2001): Put  $x_n = p_n$ , the  $n$ th prime and denote

$$X_n = \left( \frac{2}{p_n}, \frac{3}{p_n}, \dots, \frac{p_{n-1}}{p_n}, \frac{p_n}{p_n} \right).$$

The sequence of blocks  $X_n$  is u.d. and therefore the ratio sequence  $p_m/p_n$ ,  $m = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  is u.d. in  $[0, 1]$ . This generalizes a result of A. Schinzel (cf. W. Sierpiński (1964, p. 155)). Note that from u.d. of  $X_n$  applying the  $L^2$  discrepancy of  $X_n$  we get the following interesting limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2 p_n} \sum_{i,j=1}^n |p_i - p_j| = \frac{1}{3}.$$

The set  $G(X_n)$  can be complicated, see F. Filip, L. Mišík and J.T. Tóth [13]:

**EXAMPLE 24.** Let  $a_k, n_k, k = 1, 2, \dots$ , and  $x_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$  be three increasing integer sequences and  $h_1 < h_2$  be two positive integers. Assume that

- (i)  $\frac{n_k}{n_{k+1}} \rightarrow 0$  for  $k \rightarrow \infty$ ;
- (ii)  $\frac{a_k}{n_{k+1}} \rightarrow 0$  for  $k \rightarrow \infty$ ;
- (iii) for odd  $k$  we have
 
$$a_k^{h_2} \leq x_{n_k} = (a_{k-1} + n_k - n_{k-1})^{h_1} \leq (a_k + 1)^{h_2}$$
 and
 
$$x_i = (a_k + i - n_k)^{h_2} \text{ for } n_k < i \leq n_{k+1};$$
- (iv) for even  $k$  we have
 
$$a_k^{h_1} \leq x_{n_k} = (a_{k-1} + n_k - n_{k-1})^{h_2} \leq (a_k + 1)^{h_1}$$
 and
 
$$x_i = (a_k + i - n_k)^{h_1} \text{ for } n_k < i \leq n_{k+1}.$$

Then  $\frac{x_n}{x_{n+1}} \rightarrow 1$  and the set  $G(X_n)$  of all distribution functions of the sequence of blocks  $X_n$  is  $G(X_n) = G_1 \cup G_2 \cup G_3 \cup G_4$ , where

$$G_1 = \{x^{\frac{1}{h_2}} \cdot t; t \in [0, 1]\},$$

$$G_2 = \{x^{\frac{1}{h_2}}(1 - t) + t; t \in [0, 1]\},$$

$$G_3 = \{\max(0, x^{\frac{1}{h_1}} - (1 - x^{\frac{1}{h_1}})u); u \in [0, \infty)\} \text{ and}$$

$$G_4 = \{\min(1, x^{\frac{1}{h_1}} \cdot v); v \in [1, \infty)\}.$$

In Unsolved Problems [42, 1.9] there are given many open questions on  $G(X_n)$ , one from them: Characterize a nonempty set  $H$  of d.f.s for which there exists an increasing sequence of positive integers  $x_n$  such that  $G(X_n) = H$ . In [2] is given the following partial result:

**THEOREM 33.** *Let  $H$  be a nonempty set of d.f.s defined on  $[0, 1]$ . Then there exists a positive integer sequence  $x_1 < x_2 < \dots$  such that  $H \subset G(X_n)$ .*

### 3. Calculation methods of $G(x_n)$

#### 3.1. Calculation of d.f.s by definition

We give a proof of Example 6 via definition of d.f.s.

**EXAMPLE 25.** Starting with  $x_n = \{\log \log n\}$  all the sequences  $\{\log \log \dots \log n\}$  have

$$G(x_n) = \{c_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\} \cup \{h_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\}.$$

*Proof.* For the first iterated logarithm we chose an index-sequence  $N_k$  as

$$N_k = [\exp \exp(k + \alpha)]$$

Then we have  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F_{N_k}(x) = c_\alpha(x)$ . For  $N_k = [\exp \exp(k + \varepsilon_k)]$ , where  $\varepsilon_k \rightarrow 0$  such that  $(\exp \exp(k + \varepsilon_k)) / (\exp \exp k) \rightarrow \beta$ , we have  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F_{N_k}(x) = h_\alpha(x)$ , where  $\alpha = (\beta - 1) / \beta$ .

On the other hand, let  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{N_n}(x) = g(x)$ . Then  $N_n = \exp \exp(k_n + \varepsilon_n)$ , where  $k_n = [\log \log N_n]$ ,  $\varepsilon_n = \{\log \log N_n\}$ , and the sequence  $(\varepsilon_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  cannot have different limit points.  $\square$

Similarly, but complicated, it can be found:

**EXAMPLE 26.** The set of all d.f.s of the two-dimensional sequence

$$(\log n, \log \log n) \bmod 1$$

has the form, see [43]:

$$\begin{aligned} G((\log n, \log \log n) \bmod 1) &= \{g_{u,v}(x, y); u \in [0, 1], v \in [0, 1]\} \\ &\cup \{g_{u,0,j,\alpha}(x, y); u \in [0, 1], \alpha \in A, j = 1, 2, \dots\} \\ &\cup \{g_{u,0,0,\alpha}(x, y); u \in [\alpha, 1], \alpha \in A\}, \end{aligned} \tag{82}$$

where  $A$  is the set of all limit points of the sequence  $e^n \bmod 1$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , and,<sup>15</sup> for  $(x, y) \in [0, 1)^2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} g_{u,v}(x, y) &= g_u(x) \cdot c_v(y), \\ g_{u,0,j,\alpha}(x, y) &= g_{u,0,j,\alpha}(x) \cdot c_0(y), \\ g_{u,0,0,\alpha}(x, y) &= g_{u,0,0,\alpha}(x) \cdot c_0(y), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$g_u(x) = \frac{e^{\min(x,u)} - 1}{e^u} + \frac{1}{e^u} \frac{e^x - 1}{e - 1},$$

---

<sup>15</sup>The exact form of  $A$  is a well-known open problem.

$$\begin{aligned}
 c_v(y) &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \leq y \leq v, \\ 1 & \text{if } v < y \leq 1, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad c_v(0) = 0, c_v(1) = 1, \\
 g_{u,0,j,\alpha}(x) &= \frac{e^{\max(\alpha,x)} - e^\alpha}{e^{j+u}} + \frac{e^{\min(x,u)} - 1}{e^u} + \frac{1}{e^u} \frac{e^x - 1}{e - 1} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{e^{j-1}} \right), \\
 g_{u,0,0,\alpha}(x) &= \frac{e^{\max(\min(x,u),\alpha)} - e^\alpha}{e^u}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{83}$$

A proof via d.f.s. consider limits of

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_N(x, y) &= \frac{\#\{3 \leq n \leq N; (\{\log n\}, \{\log \log n\}) \in [0, x] \times [0, y]\}}{N} \\
 &= \frac{\sum_{j=0}^J \#\{[e^{e^j}, e^{e^{j+y}}] \cap (\cup_{k=1}^K [e^k, e^{k+x}]) \cap \mathbf{N}\}}{N},
 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$K = [\log N], \quad J = [\log \log N], \quad \mathbf{N} = \{1, 2, \dots, N\}.$$

O. Strauch and O. Blažeková in [43] and R. Giuliano Antonini and O. Strauch in [15] generalized Example 26 and Koksma [19], [20, Kap. 8] (cf. [22, p. 58, Th. 7.7]) to the following Theorems 34, 35 and 36. Assume:

- (I)  $f(x)$  be a real-valued function defined for  $x \geq 1$  such that  $f(x)$  is strictly increasing with inverse function  $f^{-1}(x)$ .
- (II)  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f^{-1}(k+x) - f^{-1}(k)}{f^{-1}(k+1) - f^{-1}(k)} = \tilde{g}(x)$  for each  $x \in [0, 1]$ , point of continuity of  $\tilde{g}(x)$ ;
- (III)  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f^{-1}(k+u)}{f^{-1}(k)} = \psi(u)$  for each  $u \in [0, 1]$ , point of continuity of  $\psi(u)$ , or  $\psi(u) = \infty$  for  $u > 0$ ;
- (IV)  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^{-1}(k+1) - f^{-1}(k) = \infty$ .

For computing  $G(f(n) \bmod 1)$  we have the following three theorems.

**THEOREM 34.** *If  $1 < \psi(1) < \infty$  and  $f'(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , then*

$$G(f(n) \bmod 1) = \left\{ g_u(x) = \frac{\min(\psi(x), \psi(u)) - 1}{\psi(u)} + \frac{1}{\psi(u)} \tilde{g}(x); u \in [0, 1] \right\}, \tag{84}$$

where

$$\tilde{g}(x) = \frac{\psi(x) - 1}{\psi(1) - 1} \quad \text{and} \quad F_{N_i}(x) \rightarrow g_u(x) \quad \text{as} \quad i \rightarrow \infty$$

if and only if  $f(N_i) \bmod 1 \rightarrow u$ .

The lower d.f.  $\underline{g}(x)$  and the upper d.f.  $\overline{g}(x)$  of  $f(n) \bmod 1$  are

$$\underline{g}(x) = \tilde{g}(x), \quad \overline{g}(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{\psi(x)}(1 - \tilde{g}(x)).$$

Furthermore  $\underline{g}(x) = g_0(x) = g_1(x)$  belongs to  $G(f(n) \bmod 1)$  but  $\overline{g}(x) = g_x(x)$  does not.

**THEOREM 35.** If  $\psi(1) = 1$ , then the sequence  $f(n) \bmod 1$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  has a.d.f.  $\tilde{g}(x)$ , i.e.,

$$G(f(n) \bmod 1) = \{\tilde{g}(x)\}. \tag{85}$$

**THEOREM 36.** Let  $\psi(u) = \infty$ , for every  $u > 0$  and for  $u = 0$  the limit  $\psi(u)$  is not defined in the way that for every  $t \in [0, \infty)$  there exists a sequence  $u(k) \rightarrow 0$  such that (i)  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f^{-1}(k+u(k))}{f^{-1}(k)} = t$ . Then we have

$$G(f(n) \bmod 1) = \{c_u(x); u \in [0, 1]\} \cup \{h_\beta(x); \beta \in [0, 1]\}, \tag{86}$$

where  $F_{N_i} \rightarrow c_u(x)$  if and only if  $f(N_i) \bmod 1 \rightarrow u > 0$  and  $F_{N_i} \rightarrow h_\beta(x)$  if and only if  $f(N_i) \bmod 1 \rightarrow 0$  and  $\frac{f^{-1}([f(N_i)])}{N_i} \rightarrow 1 - \beta$ .

In proofs of Theorems 34, 35 and 36 there are studied limits of step d.f.  $F_N(x)$  expressed as

$$F_N(x) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} A_N([k, k+x])}{N} + \frac{A_N([K, K+x] \cap [K, K+w])}{N} + \frac{O(A_N([1, f^{-1}(0)]))}{N},$$

where

$$K = [f(N)], \quad w = \{f(N)\}, \quad A_N([x, y]) = \#\{n \leq N; f(n) \in [x, y)\}.$$

**EXAMPLE 27.** Applying Theorem 34 to the function  $f(x) = \log(x \log^{(i)} x)$ , where  $\log^{(i)} x$  is the  $i$ th iterated logarithm  $\log \dots \log x$ , we find

$$G(\log(n \log^{(i)} n) \bmod 1) = G(\log n \bmod 1).$$

### 3.2. Connectivity of $G(x_n)$

The connectivity of  $G(x_n)$  implies the following simple theorem: Define

- For the d.f.  $g$  the Graph( $g$ ) be the continuous curve formed by all the points  $(x, g(x))$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$ , and the all line segments connecting the points of discontinuity  $(x, \liminf_{x' \rightarrow x} g(x'))$  and  $(x, \limsup_{x' \rightarrow x} g(x'))$ .
- Denote  $\underline{g}_H(x) = \inf_{g \in H} g(x)$  and  $\overline{g}_H(x) = \sup_{g \in H} g(x)$ .

**THEOREM 37** ([37]). *Let  $H$  be a non-empty, closed, and connected set of d.f.s. Assume that for every  $g \in H$  there exists a point  $(x, y) \in \text{Graph}(g)$  such that  $(x, y) \notin \text{Graph}(\tilde{g})$  for any  $\tilde{g} \in H$  with  $\tilde{g} \neq g$ . If*

(i)  $\underline{g} = \underline{g}_H$  and  $\overline{g} = \overline{g}_H$  for the lower d.f.  $\underline{g}$  and the upper d.f.  $\overline{g}$  of the sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$ , and

(ii)  $G(x_n) \subset H$ ,

then  $G(x_n) = H$ .

To prove  $G(x_n) \subset H$  it can be used:

**THEOREM 38.** *Let  $F(x, y)$  be a real continuous function defined on  $[0, 1]^2$  and  $G(F)$  is the set of all d.f.  $g(x)$  which satisfy  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dg(x) dg(y) = 0$ . Then for every sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$  we have*

$$G(x_n) \subset G(F) \iff \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N F(x_m, x_n) = 0. \quad (87)$$

*Proof.* Using the definition of the Riemann-Stieltjes integral, we have

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dF_N(x) dF_N(y) = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N F(x_m, x_n).$$

Suppose that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F_{N_k}(x) = g(x)$  for all continuity points  $x$  of  $g$ . Then, applying the Helly-Bray lemma, we find

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dF_{N_k}(x) dF_{N_k}(y) = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dg(x) dg(y),$$

and the implication  $\Leftarrow$  in (87) follows immediately.

In order to show the implication  $\Rightarrow$ , assume

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N_k^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^{N_k} F(x_m, x_n) = \beta > 0.$$

By the Helly selection principle there exists a subsequence  $N'_k$  of  $N_k$  such that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F_{N'_k}(x) = g(x) \in G(x_n).$$

Again, by the Helly-Bray theorem we find  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dg(x) dg(y) = \beta$ . We conclude  $g \notin G(F)$ .  $\square$

Theorem 37 implies:

- Let  $g_1 \neq g_2$  be two d.f.s. Denote

$$F_{g_2}(x, y) = \int_0^x g_2(t)dt + \int_0^y g_2(t)dt - \max(x, y) + \int_0^1 (1 - g_2(t))^2 dt,$$

$$F_{g_1, g_2}(x) = \frac{\int_0^x (g_2(t) - g_1(t))dt - \int_0^1 (1 - g_2(t))(g_2(t) - g_1(t))dt}{\int_0^1 (g_2(t) - g_1(t))^2 dt},$$

$$F_{g_1, g_2}(x, y) = F_{g_2}(x, y) - F_{g_1, g_2}(x)F_{g_1, g_2}(y) \cdot \int_0^1 (g_2(t) - g_1(t))^2 dt.$$

**THEOREM 39.** For given sequence  $x_n \in [0, 1)$  we have

$$G(x_n) = \{tg_1(x) + (1 - t)g_2(x); t \in [0, 1]\}$$

if and only if

- (i)  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m, n=1}^N F_{g_1, g_2}(x_m, x_n) = 0,$
- (ii)  $\liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N F_{g_1, g_2}(x_n) = 0,$
- (iii)  $\limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N F_{g_1, g_2}(x_n) = 1.$

**EXAMPLE 28.** Put

$$F_1(x, y) = 1 - \max(x, y) - \frac{3}{4}(1 - x^2)(1 - y^2),$$

$$F_2(x, y) = \frac{x + y}{2} - \max(x, y) + \frac{1}{4} - 3(x - x^2)(y - y^2),$$

$$F_3(x, y) = 1 - \max(x, y),$$

$$F_4(x, y) = \frac{x + y}{2} - \max(x, y) + \frac{1}{4},$$

and

$$H_1 = \{tx + (1 - t)c_1(x); t \in [0, 1]\}, \quad \text{and} \quad H_2 = \{tx + (1 - t)h_{1/2}(x); t \in [0, 1]\}.$$

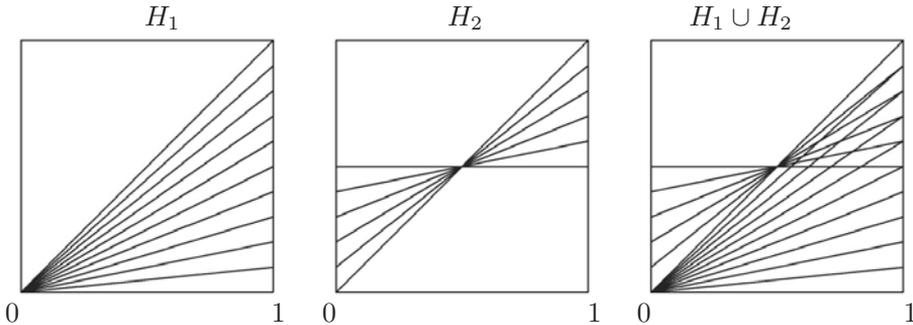


Figure 1: D.f.s  $H_1, H_2$  and  $H_1 \cup H_2$ .

Then  $G(x_n) = H_1 \cup H_2$  for a sequence  $x_n$  in  $[0, 1)$  if and only if

- (i)  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N^4} \sum_{m,n,k,l=1}^N F_1(x_m, x_n) F_2(x_k, x_l) = 0,$
- (ii)  $\liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N F_3(x_m, x_n) = 0.$
- (iii)  $\liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N F_4(x_m, x_n) = 0.$

Here  $c_1(x)$  is the one-jump d.f. with jump at  $x = 1$  and  $h_{1/2}(x)$  is the d.f. taking constant value  $1/2$ .

**3.2.1. The moment problem**  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dg(x) dg(y) = 0$

This investigation is motivated by Theorem 37. Again, for a given continuous  $F : [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , let  $G(F)$  denote the set of all distribution functions  $g$  which solve the following moment problem  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dg(x) dg(y) = 0$ .

**THEOREM 40** ([37]). *Let  $F : [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous and symmetric function. For every distribution functions  $g(x), \tilde{g}(x)$  we have*

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dg(x) dg(y) = 0 &\iff \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) d\tilde{g}(x) d\tilde{g}(y) \\ &= \int_0^1 (g(x) - \tilde{g}(x)) \left( 2d_x F(x, 1) - \int_0^1 (g(y) + \tilde{g}(y)) d_y d_x F(x, y) \right) \end{aligned} \quad (88)$$

**EXAMPLE 29.** Putting  $\tilde{g}(x) = c_0(x)$  in (88), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y) dg(x) dg(y) = 0 &\iff \\ F(0, 0) = \int_0^1 (g(x) - 1) \left( 2d_x F(x, 1) - \int_0^1 (g(y) + 1) d_y d_x F(x, y) \right). \end{aligned} \quad (89)$$

For  $F(x, y) = F_0(x, y)$  we have

$$g(x) = x \iff \frac{1}{3} = \int_0^1 g(x)(2x - g(x)) dx.$$

Here

$$\begin{aligned} F_0(x, y) &= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2} - \max(x, y) \\ &= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2} - \frac{x + y}{2} - \frac{|x - y|}{2} \end{aligned}$$

This function  $F_0(x, y)$  is inspired by the classical  $L^2$  discrepancy

$$\int_0^1 (F_N(x) - x)^2 dx$$

since

$$\int_0^1 (F_N(x) - x)^2 dx = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N F_0(x_m, x_n).$$

**3.3. Computation  $G(h(x_n, y_n))$  by  $g(x, y) \in G((x_n, y_n))$**

We describe a result for  $h(x, y) = x + y \pmod 1$ .

**THEOREM 41.** *Let  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  be two sequences in  $[0, 1)$  and  $G((x_n, y_n))$  denote the set of all d.f.s of the two-dimensional sequence  $(x_n, y_n)$ . If*

$$z_n = x_n + y_n \pmod 1,$$

*then the set  $G(z_n)$  of all d.f.s of  $z_n$  has the form*

$$G(z_n) = \left\{ g(t) = \int_{0 \leq x+y < t} 1.dg(x, y) + \int_{1 \leq x+y < 1+t} 1.dg(x, y); g(x, y) \in G((x_n, y_n)) \right\}$$

*assuming that all the used Riemann-Stieltjes integrals exist.*

**EXAMPLE 30.** Applying Theorem 41 to the  $G((\log n, \log \log n) \pmod 1)$  in Example 26 it can be found, for

$$G(\log(n \log n) \pmod 1) = \{g_{u,v}(x); u \in [0, 1], v \in [0, 1]\},$$

that

$$g_{u,v}(x) = \begin{cases} g_u(1+x-v) - g_u(1-v) & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq v, \\ g_u(x-v) + 1 - g_u(1-v) & \text{if } v < x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

Directly by means of computation we see that

$$g_{u,v}(x) = g_w(x), \quad \text{for } w = u + v \pmod 1,$$

defined in Example 1 and thus  $G(\log(n \log n) \pmod 1) = G(\log n \pmod 1)$ . The same holds by Example 27.

**3.4. Solution of  $(X_1, X_2, X_3) = \left( \int_0^1 g(x)dx, \int_0^1 xg(x)dx, \int_0^1 g^2(x)dx \right)$**

See [39], [44, 2.2.21]:

It is motivated by  $L^2$  discrepancy criterion for  $g$ -distributed sequences: A sequence  $x_n$  in  $[0, 1]$  has a.d.f.  $g(x)$  if and only if

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \int_0^1 g^2(x) dx - 2 \int_0^1 g(x) dx + \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \int_0^{x_n} g(x) dx - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n - \frac{1}{2N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| \right) = 0,$$

or equivalently, if and only if

- (i)  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n = \int_0^1 x dg(x),$
- (ii)  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \int_0^{x_n} g(x) dx = \int_0^1 \left( \int_0^x g(t) dt \right) dg(x),$
- (iii)  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x - y| dg(x) dg(y).$

Since the left-hand side of (iii) contains  $g(x)$  we shall instead it by the second moment and we solve

$$(s_1, s_2, s_3) = \left( \int_0^1 x dg(x), \int_0^1 x^2 dg(x), \int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x - y| dg(x) dg(y) \right), \quad (90)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} s_1 &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n, \\ s_2 &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 \text{ and} \\ s_3 &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - x_n|. \end{aligned}$$

Using  $(s_1, s_2, s_3) = (1 - X_1, 1 - 2X_2, 2(X_1 - X_3))$  then (90) can be transform to

$$(X_1, X_2, X_3) = \left( \int_0^1 g(x) dx, \int_0^1 xg(x) dx, \int_0^1 g^2(x) dx \right).$$

Define, for every nondecreasing  $g : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , the operator

$$\mathbf{F}(g) = \left( \int_0^1 g(x) dx, \int_0^1 xg(x) dx, \int_0^1 g^2(x) dx \right).$$

For  $\mathbf{F}$ , we introduce the body

$$\Omega = \{ \mathbf{F}(g); g [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1], g \text{ is nondecreasing} \},$$

and  $\partial\Omega$  denote the *boundary* of  $\Omega$ .

Let  $g(u_1, v_1, u_2, v_2)$  denote the distribution function  $h(x)$  defined by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq v_1, \\ \frac{u_2 - u_1}{v_2 - v_1} x + u_1 - v_1 \frac{u_2 - u_1}{v_2 - v_1} & \text{for } v_1 < x \leq v_2, \\ 1 & \text{for } v_2 < x \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

and put  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, X_3)$ . O. Strauch [39] proved

**THEOREM 42.** For the moment problem  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{F}(g)$ , to have only a finite number of solutions in distribution functions  $g$  it is necessary and sufficient that  $\mathbf{X} \in \partial\Omega$ . We express the boundary  $\partial\Omega$  as

$$\partial\Omega = \bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq 7} \Pi_i.$$

In addition, for  $\mathbf{X} \in \Pi_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 6$ , the moment problem  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{F}(g)$  is uniquely solvable as  $g = g^{(i)}$ , and for  $\mathbf{X} \in \Pi_7$  has precisely two solutions of types  $g^{(7)}$  and  $g^{(7^*)}$ .

**THEOREM 43.** Let  $x_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  be a sequence in  $[0, 1]$  with the limits

$$X_1 = 1 - \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n,$$

$$X_2 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2,$$

$$X_3 = 1 - \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n - \frac{1}{2} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - x_n|.$$

If

$$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, X_3) \in \bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq 7} \Pi_i,$$

then the sequence  $x_n$  has an a.d.f. Precisely, if

$$\mathbf{X} \in \Pi_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, 6,$$

then  $x_n$  has a.d.f.  $g^{(i)}$ , and if

$$\mathbf{X} \in \Pi_7,$$

then  $x_n$  has a.d.f. either  $g^{(7)}$  or  $g^{(7^*)}$ , depending on whether

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \int_0^{x_n} g^{(7)}(t) dt = X_1 - X_3 \text{ or}$$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \int_0^{x_n} g^{(7^*)}(t) dt = X_1 - X_3.$$

Here

$$\Pi_1 = \left\{ (X_1, X_2, X_3); \quad X_2 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}(1 - X_1)^2 - \frac{3}{2}(X_1 - X_3)^2, \right. \\ \left. \max\left(\frac{4}{3}X_1 - \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}X_1\right) \leq X_3 \leq X_1, \quad 0 \leq X_1 \leq 1 \right\},$$

$$\Pi_2 = \left\{ (X_1, X_2, X_3); \quad X_2 = \frac{1}{2}X_1 + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}(X_3 - X_1^2)}, \right. \\ \left. X_1^2 \leq X_3 \leq \min\left(\frac{4}{3}X_1^2, \frac{4}{3}X_1^2 - \frac{2}{3}X_1 + \frac{1}{3}\right), \quad 0 \leq X_1 \leq 1 \right\},$$

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$$\Pi_3 = \left\{ (X_1, X_2, X_3); \quad X_2 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{4}{9} \frac{(1 - X_1)^3}{(1 + X_3 - 2X_1)}, \right. \\ \left. \frac{4}{3} X_1^2 - \frac{2}{3} X_1 + \frac{1}{3} \leq X_3 \leq \frac{4}{3} X_1 - \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{2} \leq X_1 \leq 1 \right\},$$

$$\Pi_4 = \left\{ (X_1, X_2, X_3); \quad X_2 = X_1 - \frac{4}{9} \frac{X_1^3}{X_3}, \frac{4}{3} X_1^2 \leq X_3 \leq \frac{2}{3} X_1, 0 \leq X_1 \leq \frac{1}{2} \right\},$$

$$\Pi_5 = \left\{ (X_1, X_2, X_3); \quad X_2 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(1 - X_1)^3}{(1 + X_3 - 2X_1)}, \right. \\ \left. X_1^2 \leq X_3 \leq X_1, 0 \leq X_1 < \frac{1}{2} \right\},$$

$$\Pi_6 = \left\{ (X_1, X_2, X_3); \quad X_2 = X_1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{X_1^3}{X_3}, X_1^2 \leq X_3 \leq X_1, \frac{1}{2} < X_1 \leq 1 \right\},$$

$$\Pi_7 = \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{16X_3}, X_3 \right); \quad \frac{1}{4} < X_3 < \frac{1}{2} \right\},$$

and

$$g^{(1)} = g(0, (1 - X_1) - 3(X_1 - X_3), 1, (1 - X_1) + 3(X_1 - X_3)),$$

$$g^{(2)} = g \left( X_1 - \sqrt{3(X_3 - X_1^2)}, 0, X_1 + \sqrt{3(X_3 - X_1^2)}, 1 \right),$$

$$g^{(3)} = g \left( 1 - \frac{3}{2} \frac{1 + X_3 - 2X_1}{1 - X_1}, 0, 1, \frac{4}{3} \frac{(1 - X_1)^2}{(1 + X_3 - 2X_1)} \right),$$

$$g^{(4)} = g \left( 0, 1 - \frac{4X_1^2}{3X_3}, \frac{3X_3}{2X_1}, 1 \right),$$

$$g^{(5)} = g \left( \frac{X_1 - X_3}{1 - X_1}, 0, \frac{X_1 - X_3}{1 - X_1}, \frac{(1 - X_1)^2}{1 + X_3 - 2X_1} \right),$$

$$g^{(6)} = g \left( \frac{X_3}{X_1}, 1 - \frac{X_1^2}{X_3}, \frac{X_3}{X_1}, 1 \right),$$

$$g^{(7)} = g \left( 1 - 2X_3, 0, 1 - 2X_3, \frac{1}{4X_3} \right),$$

$$g^{(7^*)} = g \left( 2X_3, 1 - \frac{1}{4X_3}, 2X_3, 1 \right).$$

**EXAMPLE 31.** Since the straight line  $X_2 - X_3 = \frac{1}{12}$  is touched to the projection of  $\Omega$  in  $X_2 \times X_3$ , then

$$\max_{g(x) \text{ - d.f.}} \int_0^1 (x - g(x))g(x)dx = \frac{1}{12}$$

and it is attained in  $g(x) = \frac{x}{2}$ .

**EXAMPLE 32.** The points<sup>16</sup>

$(X_1, X_2, X_3)$  for  $g(x) = c_\alpha(x)$  and  $(X_1, X_2, X_3)$  for  $g(x) = h_\alpha(x)$ ,  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ , lie on the contour of  $\Omega$  and for such  $(X_1, X_2, X_3)$  the d.f.  $g(x)$  is given uniquely. This implies

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 x^2 dg(x) &= \left( \int_0^1 x dg(x) \right)^2 \iff \exists \alpha \in [0,1] g(x) = c_\alpha(x), \\ \int_0^1 x^2 dg(x) &= \int_0^1 x dg(x) \iff \exists \alpha \in [0,1] g(x) = h_\alpha(x), \\ \left( 1 - \int_0^1 x dg(x) \right) \left( \int_0^1 x dg(x) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 |x - y| dg(x) dg(y) \iff \exists \alpha \in [0,1] g(x) = h_\alpha(x) \end{aligned}$$

and we also have

$$\begin{aligned} G(x_n) \subset \{c_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\} &\iff \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right)^2 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 \right) = 0, \\ G(x_n) \subset \{h_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\} &\iff \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n - x_n^2) = 0, \\ G(x_n) \subset \{h_\alpha(x); \alpha \in [0, 1]\} &\iff \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n - \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right)^2 \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{m,n=1}^N |x_m - x_n| \right) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

### 3.5. Mapping $x_n$ to $f(x_n)$

Let  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  be a function such that, for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ ,  $f^{-1}([0, x])$  can be expressed as a sum of finitely many pairwise disjoint subintervals  $I_i(x)$  of  $[0, 1]$  with endpoints  $\alpha_i(x) \leq \beta_i(x)$ . For any d.f.  $g(x)$  we put

$$g_f(x) = \sum_i g(\beta_i(x)) - g(\alpha_i(x)) = \int_{f^{-1}([0,x])} 1.dg(x).$$

<sup>16</sup> $h_\alpha(x) = \alpha$  for  $x \in (0, 1)$ .

The mapping  $g \rightarrow g_f$  can be used for the studying  $G(x_n)$  by the following statement:

**THEOREM 44.** *Let  $x_n \bmod 1$  be a sequence having  $g(x)$  as a d.f. associated with the sequence of indices  $N_1, N_2, \dots$ . Suppose that any term  $x_n \bmod 1$  is repeated only finitely many times. Then the sequence  $f(\{x_n\})$  has the d.f.s  $g_f(x)$  for the same  $N_1, N_2, \dots$ , and vice-versa any distribution function of  $f(\{x_n\})$  has this form.*

For example, Theorem 44 can be used to study the sequence  $\xi(3/2)^n \bmod 1$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Consider

$$f(x) = 2x \bmod 1, \text{ and } h(x) = 3x \bmod 1.$$

In this case, for every  $x \in [0, 1]$ , we have

$$g_f(x) = g(f_1^{-1}(x)) + g(f_2^{-1}(x)) - g(1/2),$$

$$g_h(x) = g(h_1^{-1}(x)) + g(h_2^{-1}(x)) + g(h_3^{-1}(x)) - g(1/3) - g(2/3),$$

with inverse functions

$$f_1^{-1}(x) = x/2, \quad f_2^{-1}(x) = (x + 1)/2,$$

and

$$h_1^{-1}(x) = x/3, \quad h_2^{-1}(x) = (x + 1)/3, \quad h_3^{-1}(x) = (x + 2)/3.$$

Pjateckii-Šapiro [31], by means of the ergodic theory, proved that a necessary and sufficient condition that the sequence  $\xi q^n \bmod 1$  with integer  $q > 1$  has a distribution function  $g(x)$  is that  $g_\varphi(x) = g(x)$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ , where  $\varphi(x) = qx \bmod 1$ . For  $\xi(3/2)^n \bmod 1$  we have the following similar necessity.

**THEOREM 45.** *Any distribution function  $g(x)$  of  $\xi(3/2)^n \bmod 1$  satisfies the functional equation  $g_f(x) = g_h(x)$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ .*

The above theorem yields to the following sets of uniqueness for distribution functions of  $\xi(3/2)^n \bmod 1$ .

**THEOREM 46.** *Let  $g_1, g_2$  be any two distribution functions satisfying  $g_{i_f}(x) = g_{i_h}(x)$  for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Denote*

$$I_1 = [0, 1/3], \quad I_2 = [1/3, 2/3], \quad I_3 = [2/3, 1].$$

*If  $g_1(x) = g_2(x)$  for  $x \in I_i \cup I_j$ ,  $1 \leq i \neq j \leq 3$ , then  $g_1(x) = g_2(x)$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ .*

Next we have an integral formula for testing  $g_f = g_h$ . Denote

$$F(x, y) = |\{2x\} - \{3y\}| + |\{2y\} - \{3x\}| - |\{2x\} - \{2y\}| - |\{3x\} - \{3y\}|.$$

**THEOREM 47.** *The continuous distribution function  $g$  satisfies  $g_f = g_h$  on  $[0, 1]$  if and only if  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 F(x, y)dg(x)dg(y) = 0$ .*

The following theorem (see O. Strauch [40]) can be used for generating solutions of  $g_f = g_h$ .

**THEOREM 48.** *Let  $g_1, g_2$  be two absolutely continuous distribution functions satisfying  $g_{1_h}(x) = g_{2_f}(x)$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Then the absolutely continuous distribution function  $g(x)$  satisfies  $g_f(x) = g_1(x)$  and  $g_h(x) = g_2(x)$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$  if and only if  $g(x)$  has the form*

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \Psi(x), & \text{for } x \in [0, 1/6], \\ \Psi(1/6) + \Phi(x - 1/6), & \text{for } x \in [1/6, 2/6], \\ \Psi(1/6) + \Phi(1/6) + g_1(1/3) - \Psi(x - 2/6) \\ + \Phi(x - 2/6) - g_1(2x - 1/3) + g_2(3x - 1), & \text{for } x \in [2/6, 3/6], \\ 2\Phi(1/6) + g_1(1/3) - g_1(2/3) + g_2(1/2) \\ - \Psi(x - 3/6) + g_1(2x - 1), & \text{for } x \in [3/6, 4/6], \\ -\Psi(1/6) + 2\Phi(1/6) + g_1(1/3) - g_1(2/3) + g_2(1/2) \\ - \Phi(x - 4/6) + g_1(2x - 1), & \text{for } x \in [4/6, 5/6], \\ -\Psi(1/6) + \Phi(1/6) + g_1(1/3) + \Psi(x - 5/6) \\ - \Phi(x - 5/6) - g_1(2x - 5/3) + g_2(3x - 2), & \text{for } x \in [5/6, 1], \end{cases}$$

where

$$\Psi(x) = \int_0^x \psi(t)dt, \quad \Phi(x) = \int_0^x \phi(t)dt, \quad \text{for } x \in [0, 1/6],$$

and  $\psi(t), \phi(t)$  are Lebesgue integrable functions on  $[0, 1/6]$  satisfying

- (i)  $0 \leq \psi(t) \leq 2g'_1(2t)$ ,
- (ii)  $0 \leq \phi(t) \leq 2g'_1(2t + 1/3)$ ,
- (iii)  $2g'_1(2t) - 3g'_2(3t + 1/2) \leq \psi(t) - \phi(t) \leq -2g'_1(2t + 1/3) + 3g'_2(3t)$ ,

for almost all  $t \in [0, 1/6]$ .

**EXAMPLE 33.** The functions  $c_0(x), c_1(x)$ , a  $x$  solve  $g_f(x) = g_h(x)$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Putting  $g_1(x) = g_2(x) = x$  in Theorem 48, the following solution

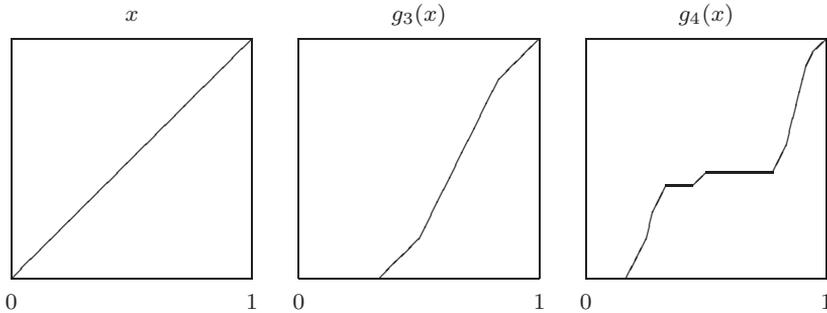
$g_3(x)$  of  $g_f = g_h$  can be found:

$$g_3(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x \in [0, 2/6], \\ x - 1/3 & \text{for } x \in [2/6, 3/6], \\ 2x - 5/6 & \text{for } x \in [3/6, 5/6], \\ x & \text{for } x \in [5/6, 1]. \end{cases}$$

Taking  $g_1(x) = g_2(x) = g_3(x)$ , this  $g_3(x)$  can be used as a starting point in Theorem 48 and we find

$$g_4(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x \in [0, 1/6], \\ 2x - 1/3 & \text{for } x \in [1/6, 3/12], \\ 4x - 5/6 & \text{for } x \in [3/12, 5/18], \\ 2x - 5/18 & \text{for } x \in [5/18, 2/6], \\ 7/18 & \text{for } x \in [2/6, 8/18], \\ x - 1/18 & \text{for } x \in [8/18, 3/6], \\ 8/18 & \text{for } x \in [3/6, 7/9], \\ 2x - 20/18 & \text{for } x \in [7/9, 5/6], \\ 4x - 50/18 & \text{for } x \in [5/6, 11/12], \\ 2x - 17/18 & \text{for } x \in [11/12, 17/18], \\ x & \text{for } x \in [17/18, 1], \end{cases}$$

see the following pictures



The study of d.f.s in  $G(\{\xi(3/2)^n\})$  is also motivated by K. Mahler's (1968) conjecture: There is no  $0 \neq \xi$  such that  $0 \leq \{\xi(3/2)^n\} < 1/2$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . Mahler's conjecture follows the conjecture: Let  $g(x) \in G(\{\xi(3/2)^n\})$  and  $I \subset [0, 1]$ . If  $g(x) = \text{constant}$  for all  $x \in I$ , then the length  $|I| < 1/2$ .

## SOME APPLICATIONS OF DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS OF SEQUENCES

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