

# ON THE APPROXIMATION BY LÜROTH SERIES

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## Abstract

Let  $x \in (0, 1]$  and  $p_n/q_n$ ,  $n \geq 1$  be its sequence of Lüroth Series convergents. Define the approximation coefficients  $\theta_n = \theta_n(x)$  by  $\theta_n = q_n x - p_n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ . In [BBDK] the limiting distribution of the sequence  $(\theta_n)_{n \geq 1}$  was obtained for a.e.  $x$  using the natural extension of the ergodic system underlying the Lüroth Series expansion. Here we show that this can be done without the natural extension. We also will get a bound on the speed of convergence. Using the natural extension we will study the distribution for a.e.  $x$  of the sequence  $(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1})_{n \geq 1}$  and related sequences like  $(\theta_n + \theta_{n+1})_{n \geq 1}$ . It turns out that for a.e.  $x$  the sequence  $(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1})_{n \geq 1}$  is distributed according to a continuous singular distribution function  $G$ . Furthermore we will see that two consecutive  $\theta$ 's are positively correlated.

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## 1 Introduction

Let  $x \in (0, 1]$ , then

$$x = \frac{1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{a_1(a_1 \Leftrightarrow 1)a_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{a_1(a_1 \Leftrightarrow 1) \cdots a_{n-1}(a_{n-1} \Leftrightarrow 1)a_n} + \dots, \quad (1)$$

where  $a_n \geq 2$ ,  $n \geq 1$ . J. Lüroth, who introduced the series expansion (1) in 1883, showed (among other things) that every irrational number  $x$  has a unique infinite expansion (1) and that each rational either has a finite or an infinite periodic expansion, see also [L] and [Pe]. The series expansion (1) of  $x$  is called the *Lüroth Series* of  $x$ .

Dynamically the Lüroth series expansion (1) of  $x$  is generated by the operator  $T : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , defined by

$$Tx := \lfloor \frac{1}{x} \rfloor \left( \lfloor \frac{1}{x} \rfloor + 1 \right) x \Leftrightarrow \lfloor \frac{1}{x} \rfloor, \quad x \neq 0; \quad T0 := 0, \quad (2)$$

(see also figure 1), where  $\lfloor \xi \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer not exceeding  $\xi$ . For  $x \in [0, 1]$  we define  $a(x) := \lfloor \frac{1}{x} \rfloor + 1$ ,  $x \neq 0$ ;  $a(0) := \infty$  and  $a_n(x) = a(T^{n-1}x)$  for  $n \geq 1$ . From (2) it follows that  $Tx = a_1(a_1 \Leftrightarrow 1)x \Leftrightarrow (a_1 \Leftrightarrow 1)$ , and therefore

$$x = \frac{1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{a_1(a_1 \Leftrightarrow 1)}Tx = \frac{1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{a_1(a_1 \Leftrightarrow 1)a_2} + \dots + \frac{T^n x}{a_1(a_1 \Leftrightarrow 1) \cdots a_n(a_n \Leftrightarrow 1)}.$$

Putting

$$\frac{p_n}{q_n} = \frac{1}{a_1} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{a_1(a_1 \Leftrightarrow 1) \cdots a_k(a_k \Leftrightarrow 1)a_{k+1}}, \quad n \geq 1, \quad (3)$$

where  $q_1 := a_1$ ;  $q_n = a_1(a_1 \Leftrightarrow 1) \cdots a_{n-1}(a_{n-1} \Leftrightarrow 1)a_n$ ,  $n \geq 2$ , it follows from (3) that

$$x \Leftrightarrow \frac{p_n}{q_n} = \frac{T^n x}{q_n(a_n \Leftrightarrow 1)}, \quad n \geq 1. \quad (4)$$

From  $a_n \geq 2$  and  $0 \leq T^n x \leq 1$  it follows that the series from (1) converges to  $x$ . We will write

$$x = \langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{p_n}{q_n} = \langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle. \quad (5)$$

In [JdV], H. Jager and C. de Vroedt showed that the stochastic variables  $a_1(x), \dots, a_n(x), \dots$  are independent<sup>1</sup> with  $\lambda_1(a_n = k) = \frac{1}{k(k-1)}$  for  $k \geq 2$ , and that  $T$  is measure preserving and ergodic with respect to Lebesgue measure. From the ergodicity of  $T$  and Birkhoff's Individual Ergodic Theorem a number of results were obtained, analogous to classical results on continued fractions, e.g.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n)^{1/n} = e^c, \quad \text{a.e. where } c \approx 1.25,$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \log(x \Leftrightarrow \frac{p_n}{q_n}) = \Leftrightarrow d, \quad \text{a.e., where } d \approx 2.03.$$

Here and in the following a.e. will be with respect to Lebesgue measure.

### Figure 1

In view of (4) it is natural to define and study the so-called *approximation coefficients*  $\theta_n = \theta_n(x)$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , defined by

$$\theta_n = \theta_n(x) := q_n \left| x \Leftrightarrow \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right|, \quad n \geq 1.$$

As in the case of the regular continued fraction these  $\theta$ 's give an indication of "the quality of approximation of  $x$  by its  $n$ -th convergent<sup>2</sup>  $p_n/q_n$ ", see also [JK]. Note that the absolute value signs are in fact superfluous here. In view of (4) one has

$$\theta_n = \frac{T^n x}{a_n \Leftrightarrow 1}, \quad n \geq 1. \quad (6)$$

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<sup>1</sup>Here and in the following  $\lambda_n$  will denote Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbf{R}^n$ .

<sup>2</sup>In case of the regular continued fraction one defines  $\Theta_n := q_n |q_n x - p_n|$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , where  $p_n/q_n$  is the  $n$ -th regular convergent of  $x$ .

Putting  $T_n := T^n x$  it follows from (2) and (5) that

$$T_n = \langle a_{n+1}, a_{n+2}, \dots \rangle .$$

We say that  $T_n$  is *the future of  $x$  at time  $n$* . Similarly is

$$V_n = \langle a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1 \rangle = \frac{1}{a_n} + \frac{1}{a_n(a_n \Leftrightarrow 1)a_{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{1}{a_n(a_n \Leftrightarrow 1) \cdots a_2(a_2 \Leftrightarrow 1)a_1}$$

*the past of  $x$  at time  $n$* . Putting  $V_0 := 0$ , from (6) one sees that  $\theta_n$  is expressed in terms of both the past (viz.  $a_n$ ) and the future. Therefore, in order to obtain the distribution of the sequence  $(\theta_n)_{n \geq 1}$  for a.e.  $x$  the natural extension of the ergodic system  $((0,1], \mathcal{B}_1, \lambda_1, T)$  (here  $\mathcal{B}_1$  is the collection of Borel sets of  $(0,1]$ ) was constructed in [BBDK].

**Theorem 1** ([BBDK]) *Let  $\Omega := [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  and  $\mathcal{B}_2$  be the collection of Borel sets of  $\Omega$ . Let  $T : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  be defined by*

$$T(x, y) := \left( Tx, \frac{1}{a(x)} + \frac{y}{a(x)(a(x) \Leftrightarrow 1)} \right), \quad (x, y) \in \Omega,$$

*then the system*

$$([0, 1] \times [0, 1], \mathcal{B}_2, \lambda_2, T_\varepsilon)$$

*is the natural extension of  $([0, 1], \mathcal{B}_1, \lambda_1, T_\varepsilon)$ . Moreover,  $([0, 1] \times [0, 1], \mathcal{B}_2, \lambda_2, T_\varepsilon)$  is Bernoulli.*

From this theorem we have the following lemma.

**Lemma 1** ([BBDK]) *For almost all  $x$  the two-dimensional sequence*

$$\mathcal{T}^n(x, 0) = (T_n, V_n), \quad n \geq 1,$$

*is uniformly distributed over  $\Omega = [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ .*

The distribution of the sequence  $(\theta_n)_{n \geq 1}$  now follows from lemma 1.

**Theorem 2** ([BBDK]) *For almost all  $x$  and for every  $z \in (0, 1]$  the limit*

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{1 \leq j \leq N : \theta_j(x) < z\}$$

*exists and equals  $F(z)$ , where*

$$F(x) = \sum_{k=2}^{\lfloor \frac{1}{z} \rfloor + 1} \frac{z}{k} + \frac{1}{\lfloor \frac{1}{z} \rfloor + 1}, \quad 0 < z \leq 1. \quad (7)$$

Taking the first moment, theorem 2 yields that for a.e.  $x$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \theta_n = \frac{\zeta(2) \Leftrightarrow 1}{2} = 0.322467 \dots, \quad (8)$$

where  $\zeta(s)$  is the zeta-function.

In fact one needs not use the natural extension to study the distribution of the sequence  $(\theta_n)_{n \geq 1}$ . Since

$$T_n = \frac{1}{a_{n+1}} + \frac{T_{n+1}}{a_{n+1}(a_{n+1} \Leftrightarrow 1)},$$

see also (2), it follows that

$$a_{n+1}T_n = 1 + \frac{T_{n+1}}{a_{n+1} \Leftrightarrow 1}$$

and therefore (6) yields that

$$\theta_{n+1} = a_{n+1}T_n \Leftrightarrow 1, \quad n \geq 1, \quad (9)$$

i.e. the distribution of the sequence  $(\theta_n)_{n \geq 1}$  can be obtained from  $([0, 1], \mathcal{B}, \lambda, T_\varepsilon)$ .

In general the ergodic theorem does not yield any information on the speed of convergence, see also [P], section 3.2, where examples are given to show that convergence can be arbitrarily slow. Here we are however in the situation that we can apply theorem 5.8 from [JdV], which yields the following much stronger result.

**Theorem 3** *For almost all  $x$  and for every  $z \in (0, 1]$  one has for every  $\varepsilon > 0$*

$$\frac{1}{N} \#\{1 \leq j \leq N : \theta_j(x) < z\} \Leftrightarrow F(z) = o(N^{-\frac{1}{2}} \log^{\frac{3+\varepsilon}{2}} N), \quad n \rightarrow \infty.$$

In this paper we will study the distribution for a.e.  $x$  of the sequence  $(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1})_{n \geq 1}$  and related sequences like  $(\theta_n + \theta_{n+1})_{n \geq 1}$ . We will show that two consecutive  $\theta$ 's are positively correlated.

## 2 On the relation between $\theta_n$ and $\theta_{n+1}$

From (7) and (9) it is natural to define the map  $\Psi : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$ , given by

$$\Psi(x, y) := \left( \frac{x}{a(y) \Leftrightarrow 1}, a(x)x \Leftrightarrow 1 \right), \quad (x, y) \in \Omega.$$

Obviously one has

$$\Psi(T_n, V_n) = (\theta_n, \theta_{n+1}), \quad n \geq 1. \quad (10)$$

Putting

$$V_{A,B} := \{(x, y) \in \Omega : a(x) = A, a(y) = B\}, \quad A, B \geq 2,$$

one finds

$$V_{A,B} = \left( \frac{1}{A}, \frac{1}{A \Leftrightarrow 1} \right] \times \left( \frac{1}{B}, \frac{1}{B \Leftrightarrow 1} \right].$$

For  $(x, y) \in V_{A,B}$  one has  $\Psi(x, y) = (\frac{x}{B-1}, Ax \Leftrightarrow 1)$  (where  $1/A < x \leq 1/(A \Leftrightarrow 1)$ ). Hence putting

$$\begin{cases} \alpha := \frac{x}{B-1} \Leftrightarrow x = (B \Leftrightarrow 1)\alpha \\ \beta := Ax \Leftrightarrow 1 \end{cases}$$

yields

$$\beta = A(B \Leftrightarrow 1)\alpha \Leftrightarrow 1, \quad \alpha \in \left( \frac{1}{A(B \Leftrightarrow 1)}, \frac{1}{(A \Leftrightarrow 1)(B \Leftrightarrow 1)} \right]. \quad (11)$$

Thus we see that  $\Psi$  maps the rectangle  $V_{A,B}$  onto the line segment  $L_{A,B}$ , which has endpoints  $(\frac{1}{A(B-1)}, 0)$  and  $(\frac{1}{(A-1)(B-1)}, \frac{1}{A-1})$ . Notice that from (10) and (11) one has

$$\theta_{n+1} = a_{n+1}(a_n \Leftrightarrow 1)\theta_n \Leftrightarrow 1, \quad n \geq 1, \quad (12)$$

and  $(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1}) \in \Xi$ , where

$$\Xi := \bigcup_{A,B \geq 2} L_{A,B},$$

see also figure 2.

Figure 2

Notice, that from (7) it follows that always

$$0 \leq \theta_n < 1, \quad n \geq 1.$$

Note that figure 2 shows that a Vahlen-type theorem as one has for the continued fraction (see [JK]) is not possible for Lüroth Series. That is, there does not exist a constant  $c < 1$ , such that for every  $x$  one has

$$\min(\theta_n(x), \theta_{n+1}(x)) < c$$

(recall that for continued fractions always  $0 \leq \Theta_n(x) < 1$  and  $\min(\Theta_n(x), \Theta_{n+1}(x)) < 1/2$ ). However, it is also clear from figure 2, that

$$(T_n, V_n) \notin V_{2,2} \Leftrightarrow \theta_n < \frac{1}{2}$$

and

$$(T_n, V_n) \in (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}) \times (\frac{1}{2}, 1] \Rightarrow \theta_{n+1} < \frac{1}{2}.$$

We have the following proposition, which follows directly from lemma 1 (see also theorem 2 with  $z = 1/2$ ).

**Proposition 1** *For almost all  $x$  one has with probability  $3/4$  that  $\theta_n < \frac{1}{2}$  and with probability  $7/8$  that*

$$\min(\theta_n(x), \theta_{n+1}(x)) < \frac{1}{2}.$$

*Furthermore, given that  $\theta_n < 1/2$  one has with probability  $5/6$  that  $\theta_{n+1} < 1/2$ . The same holds when  $\theta_n$  and  $\theta_{n+1}$  are interchanged.*

**Remarks** In view of (12) it is obvious that for a.e.  $x$  two consecutive  $\theta$ 's are NOT independent. In fact proposition 1 suggests that two consecutive  $\theta$ 's are positively correlated. That this is the case almost surely is shown in section 3.2. The situation here is similar to that for the regular continued fraction; there Vahlen's theorem suggests that two consecutive  $\Theta$ 's are negatively correlated. This is indeed the case as was shown by Vincent Nolte in an unpublished document, see also [N].

### 3 On the distribution of $(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1})_{n \geq 1}$

In this section we will show in 3.1 that for almost all  $x$  the sequence  $(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1})_{n \geq 1}$  is distributed according to a continuous singular distribution function  $G$ . Before stating the result we first recall the definition of a continuous distribution function, see also [T], p. 20. In 3.2 we will study for a.e.  $x$  the distribution of the sequence  $(\theta_n + \theta_{n+1})_{n \geq 1}$ , which will then be used to show that two consecutive  $\theta$ 's are positively correlated.

#### 3.1 A continuous singular distribution function

**Definition 1** A distribution function  $G$  is said to be continuous singular if it is continuous and if there exists a Borel set  $S$  with Lebesgue measure zero such that  $\mu_G(S) = 1$ . Here  $\mu_G$  denotes the Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure determined by  $G$ .

We have the following theorem.

**Theorem 4** For almost all  $x$  and for all  $(z_1, z_2) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  the limit

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{1 \leq j \leq N : \theta_j(x) < z_1, \theta_{j+1} < z_2\}$$

exists and equals  $G(z_1, z_2)$ , where  $G$  is given by

$$G(\xi, \eta) := \sum_{A, B \geq 2} \lambda_2(V_{A, B}^*(\xi, \eta)), \quad (\xi, \eta) \in \Omega, \quad (13)$$

where

$$V_{A, B}^*(\xi, \eta) := \{(\alpha, \beta) \in V_{A, B} : \alpha < \min((B \Leftrightarrow 1)\xi, \frac{1 + \eta}{A})\}. \quad (14)$$

Finally,  $G$  is a continuous singular distribution function with support  $\Xi$ .

**Proof** The first assertion follows from (7), (9) and lemma 1. In order to show that  $G$  is a continuous distribution function we have to show, see also [T], section 2.2 :

- (i)  $G(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow 1$  as  $\min(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow \infty$ .
- (ii) For each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ ,  $G(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow 0$  as  $x_i \rightarrow \Leftrightarrow \infty$ .
- (iii)  $G(x_1, x_2)$  is continuous.
- (iv) Let  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2)$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2)$ , where  $a_i < b_i$ ,  $i \in \{1, 2\}$  and put

$$\mathbf{[a, b]} := \{\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbf{R}^2 : a_i < x_i \leq b_i, i \in \{1, 2\}\}.$$

Then for each cel  $\mathbf{[a, b]} \subset \mathbf{R}^2$  we must have

$$\Delta_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} G \geq 0,$$

where

$$\Delta_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} G = G(b_1, b_2) \Leftrightarrow G(a_1, b_2) \Leftrightarrow G(b_1, a_2) + G(a_1, a_2).$$

Notice that (i) and (ii) follow from the definition of  $G$ ; clearly  $G$  is monotone in each of its coordinates, and in case  $x_i < 0$  (for  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ ) one has that  $G(x_1, x_2) = 0$ . In case  $\min(x_1, x_2) \geq 1$  it follows that  $G(x_1, x_2) = 1$ . That  $G$  is continuous clearly follows from (13). In order to prove (iv) we introduce for  $A, B \geq 2$  a function  $G_{A,B} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ , given by

$$G_{A,B}(\xi, \eta) := \lambda_2(V_{A,B}^*(\xi, \eta)), \quad (\xi, \eta) \in \Omega,$$

where  $V_{A,B}^*(\xi, \eta)$  is as in (14). Notice that

$$G(\xi, \eta) := \sum_{A,B \geq 2} G_{A,B}(\xi, \eta), \quad (\xi, \eta) \in \Omega.$$

It is now sufficient to show that for all  $A, B \geq 2$  and each  $\text{cel}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}] \subset \Omega$  one has

$$\Delta_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} G_{A,B} \geq 0.$$

Fix  $A, B \geq 2$  and let

$$m(\xi, \eta) = m_{A,B}(\xi, \eta) := \min\left((B \Leftrightarrow 1)\xi, \frac{1+\eta}{A}\right)$$

and  $\pi_1(\xi, \eta) = \pi_{(A,B),1} := (B \Leftrightarrow 1)\xi$ ,  $\pi_2(\xi, \eta) = \pi_{(A,B),2} := \frac{1+\eta}{A}$ , one has the following, possibly overlapping, cases.

**(I)**  $m(a_1, b_2) < m(b_1, b_2)$  and

(Ia)  $m(a_1, a_2) < m(b_1, a_2)$ .

Notice that the monotonicity of  $\pi_2$  as a function of its first coordinate yields that

$$\pi_1(a_1, a_2) < \pi_2(a_1, a_2)$$

and therefore  $m(a_1, b_2) = m(a_1, a_2)$ , from which it follows, by definition of  $G_{A,B}$  :

$$\Delta_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} G_{A,B} = G_{A,B}(b_1, b_2) \Leftrightarrow G_{A,B}(b_1, a_2) \geq 0.$$

(Ib)  $m(a_1, a_2) = m(b_1, a_2)$ .

In this case one has

$$\Delta_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} G_{A,B} = G_{A,B}(b_1, b_2) \Leftrightarrow G_{A,B}(a_1, b_2) > 0.$$

**(II)**  $m(a_1, b_2) = m(b_1, b_2)$ , which implies that  $\pi_2(a_1, b_2) \leq \pi_1(a_1, b_2)$ , which in turn yields that

$$\pi_2(a_1, a_2) \leq \pi_1(a_1, a_2).$$

But then we only can have that

$$m(a_1, a_2) = m(b_1, a_2),$$

from which it at once follows that

$$\Delta_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} G_{A,B} = 0.$$

**(III)**  $m(b_1, a_2) < m(b_1, b_2)$  : see case **(I)**.

(IV)  $m(b_1, a_2) = m(b_1, b_2)$  : see case (II).

In order to show that  $\mu_G(\Xi) = 1$ , or equivalently that  $\mu_G(\Xi^c) = 0$ , it is sufficient to show that for each cel  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}] \subset \Omega$ , for which

$$\text{card}((\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}] \cap \Xi) \leq 2,$$

one has that  $\mu_G((\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]) = 0$ , which is equivalent with

$$\Delta_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} G = 0.$$

Notice that we may assume that  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]$  is contained in  $\mathcal{S}_k$  for some  $k \geq 2$ , where

$$\mathcal{S}_k := \left(\frac{1}{k}, \frac{1}{k \Leftrightarrow 1}\right] \times [0, 1], \quad \text{for } k \geq 2.$$

Obviously there are only finitely many values of  $A$  and  $B$  such that  $L_{A,B} \cap \mathcal{S}_k \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $A$  and  $B$  two such values, then  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]$  either "lies above"  $L_{A,B}$  or "below"  $L_{A,B}$ . Let  $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{U}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$  be the collection of all pairs  $(A, B)$  for which  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]$  "lies above"  $L_{A,B}$ .

Clearly one has

$$\mu_G((\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]) = \mu_G((\mathbf{a}^*, \mathbf{b}]) \Leftrightarrow \mu_G((\mathbf{a}^*, \mathbf{b}^*]),$$

where  $\mathbf{a}^* := (a_1, 0)$  and  $\mathbf{b}^* := (b_1, a_2)$ . For  $(A, B) \in \mathcal{U}$  we now define  $L_{A,B}^*$  by

$$L_{A,B}^* := \{(x, y) \in L_{A,B} : a_1 \leq x \leq b_1\},$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_G((\mathbf{a}^*, \mathbf{b}]) &= G(b_1, b_2) \Leftrightarrow G(a_1, b_2) = \lambda_2\left(\bigcup_{(A,B) \in \mathcal{U}} \Psi^{-1} L_{A,B}^*\right) \\ &= G(b_1, a_2) \Leftrightarrow G(a_1, a_2) = \mu_G((\mathbf{a}^*, \mathbf{b}^*]), \end{aligned}$$

from which the theorem follows.  $\square$

### 3.2 On the correlation between $\theta_n$ and $\theta_{n+1}$

In section 2 we saw that it is likely that  $\theta_n$  and  $\theta_{n+1}$  are positively correlated. In order to show this, we first give some definitions.<sup>3</sup>

**Definition 2** *The correlation-coefficient  $\rho(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1})$  of  $\theta_n$  and  $\theta_{n+1}$  is defined by*

$$\rho(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1}) := \frac{E(\theta_n \theta_{n+1}) \Leftrightarrow E(\theta_n) E(\theta_{n+1})}{\sqrt{V(\theta_n)} \sqrt{V(\theta_{n+1})}},$$

where  $E(\theta_n)$  is the expectation of  $\theta_n$ , as given in (8) and  $V(\theta_n)$  is the variance of  $\theta_n$ , defined by

$$V(\theta_n) := E(\theta_n^2) \Leftrightarrow (E(\theta_n))^2.$$

The nominator of  $\rho(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1})$  equals the covariance  $C(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1})$  of  $\theta_n$  and  $\theta_{n+1}$ .

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<sup>3</sup>In section 3.1 we assume that the stochastic variables  $\theta_n$  for  $n \geq 1$  are all identically distributed with distribution function  $F$  as given in (7).



**Definition 3** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two stochastic variables. Then the covariance  $C(X, Y)$  of  $X$  and  $Y$  is given by

$$C(X, Y) := E((X \Leftrightarrow E(X))(Y \Leftrightarrow E(Y))).$$

Notice that  $C(X, Y) > 0$  indicates that whenever  $X$  (resp.  $Y$ ) is bigger/smaller than its mean  $E(X)$  (resp.  $E(Y)$ ), the same is likely to hold for  $Y$  (resp.  $X$ ), i.e.  $X$  and  $Y$  are positively correlated. Similarly  $C(X, Y) < 0$  tells us that  $X$  and  $Y$  are negatively correlated. In case  $C(X, Y) = 0$  we say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are uncorrelated. One has that

$$X \text{ and } Y \text{ are independent} \Rightarrow X \text{ and } Y \text{ are uncorrelated,}$$

but the converse does not hold in general.

**Theorem 5** For almost all  $x$  one has that

$$\rho(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1}) = \frac{(\zeta(2) \Leftrightarrow 1)((1 \Leftrightarrow 3\zeta(2) + 4\zeta(3))}{4\zeta(3) \Leftrightarrow (\zeta(2) \Leftrightarrow 1)(1 + 3\zeta(2))} = 0.5744202 \dots$$

and therefore  $\theta_n$  and  $\theta_{n+1}$  are positively correlated a.s.

Since  $E(\theta_n) = E(\theta_{n+1})$  and  $E(\theta_n^2) = E(\theta_{n+1}^2)$  one has

$$\rho(\theta_n, \theta_{n+1}) = \frac{E(\theta_n \theta_{n+1}) \Leftrightarrow E(\theta_n)^2}{V(\theta_n)}.$$

Notice, that from theorem 2 one has that  $F$  has density  $f$ , where

$$f(x) = \sum_{\ell=2}^k \frac{1}{\ell}, \quad \text{for } x \in \left(\frac{1}{k}, \frac{1}{k \Leftrightarrow 1}\right], \quad k \geq 2.$$

Taking second moments thus yields

$$E(\theta_n^2) = \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \int_{\frac{1}{k}}^{\frac{1}{k \Leftrightarrow 1}} z^2 f(z) dz = \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3k} \frac{1}{(k \Leftrightarrow 1)^3} = \frac{1 \Leftrightarrow \zeta(2) + \zeta(3)}{3} = 0.185708 \dots$$

But then it follows from (8) that

$$V(\theta_n) = \frac{4\zeta(3) \Leftrightarrow (\zeta(2) \Leftrightarrow 1)(1 + 3\zeta(2))}{12} = 0.0817226 \dots$$

In order to find  $E(\theta_n \theta_{n+1})$  we will determine  $E((\theta_n + \theta_{n+1})^2)$ , since

$$E((\theta_n + \theta_{n+1})^2) = 2E(\theta_n^2) + 2E(\theta_n \theta_{n+1}).$$

Hence we find for Lüroth series that

$$E(\theta_n \theta_{n+1}) = \frac{1}{2} E((\theta_n + \theta_{n+1})^2) \Leftrightarrow E(\theta_n^2).$$

From (7) and (9) one has

$$\theta_n + \theta_{n+1} = \left(a_{n+1} + \frac{1}{a_n \Leftrightarrow 1}\right) T_n \Leftrightarrow 1, \quad n \geq 1, \quad (15)$$

and from the definition of  $L_{A,B}$  it follows that

$$\frac{1}{a_{n+1}(a_n \Leftrightarrow 1)} < \theta_n + \theta_{n+1} \leq \frac{a_n}{(a_{n+1} \Leftrightarrow 1)(a_n \Leftrightarrow 1)}, \quad n \geq 1. \quad (16)$$

From lemma 1, (16) and (17) we have the following theorem.

**Theorem 6** For almost all  $x$  and for every  $z \in (0, 2]$  the limit

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{1 \leq j \leq N : \theta_j(x) + \theta_{j+1} < z\}$$

exists and equals  $S(z)$ , where  $S$  is a continuous distribution function with density  $s$ , given by

$$s(z) = \sum_{A, B \geq 2} \frac{B \Leftrightarrow 1}{A(B \Leftrightarrow 1) + 1} \mathbf{1}_{\left(\frac{1}{A(B-1)}, \frac{B}{(A-1)(B-1)}\right]}(z).$$

Here  $\mathbf{1}_{(\alpha, \beta]}(z)$  is the indicator function of the interval  $(\alpha, \beta]$ , i.e.

$$\mathbf{1}_{(\alpha, \beta]}(z) := \begin{cases} 1 & , z \in (\alpha, \beta], \\ 0 & , z \notin (\alpha, \beta]. \end{cases}$$

Theorem 6 now at once yields that

$$\begin{aligned} E((\theta_n + \theta_{n+1})^2) &= \sum_{B=2}^{\infty} \sum_{A=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{B} \int_{\frac{1}{A(B-1)}}^{\frac{B}{(A-1)(B-1)}} \frac{1}{A(B \Leftrightarrow 1) + 1} z^2 dz \\ &= \sum_{A, B \geq 2} \frac{A^2 B^2 + AB(A \Leftrightarrow 1) + (A \Leftrightarrow 1)^2}{3BA^3(A \Leftrightarrow 1)^3(B \Leftrightarrow 1)^3} = \frac{3 \Leftrightarrow 3\zeta(2) + 2\zeta(2)\zeta(3)}{3} = 0.6737 \dots \end{aligned}$$

But then

$$E(\theta_n \theta_{n+1}) \Leftrightarrow E(\theta_n)E(\theta_{n+1}) = \frac{(\zeta(2) \Leftrightarrow 1)((1 \Leftrightarrow 3\zeta(2) + 4\zeta(3))}{12},$$

and therefore the first assertion of theorem 5 is immediate. It follows that  $\theta_n$  and  $\theta_{n+1}$  are indeed positively correlated.  $\square$

Notice that the proof of theorem 6 can easily be adapted to derive the distribution for a.e.  $x$  of the sequence  $(\theta_n \Leftrightarrow \theta_{n+1})_{n \geq 1}$ . We leave this to the reader, but mention one - surprising - case : one has that the probability  $\bar{P}(\theta_n < \theta_{n+1})$  that  $\theta_n$  is smaller than  $\theta_{n+1}$  is  $0.391 \dots$ , i.e.  $\theta_{n+1}$  has the tendency to be smaller than its predecessor. To be more precise, we have the following proposition.

**Proposition 2** For almost all  $x$  one has that

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{1 \leq j \leq N : \theta_j(x) < \theta_{j+1}\} = 0.391 \dots$$

**Proof** From (6) and (9) it follows that  $\theta_n < \theta_{n+1}$  is equivalent with

$$T_n > \frac{a_n \Leftrightarrow 1}{a_{n+1}(a_n \Leftrightarrow 1) \Leftrightarrow 1}.$$

But then lemma 1 yields that  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{1 \leq j \leq N : \theta_j(x) < \theta_{j+1}\}$  exists for a.e.  $x$ , and equals  $\lambda(\mathcal{D})$ , where  $\mathcal{D}$  is given by

$$\mathcal{D} = \bigcup_{A, B \geq 2} \left[ \frac{B}{AB \Leftrightarrow 1}, \frac{B}{A(B \Leftrightarrow 1) \Leftrightarrow 1} \right) \times \left[ 0, \frac{1}{B} \right],$$

see also figure 3. The proposition now follows from

$$\lambda(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_{A=2}^{\infty} \sum_{B=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(AB \Leftrightarrow A \Leftrightarrow 1)(AB \Leftrightarrow 1)B} = 0.391 \dots \square$$

Figure 3

**Final remarks** Recently Jose Barrionuevo, Bob Burton and the present authors generalized the whole concept of Lüroth Series, see also [BBDK]. A new class of series expansions, the so-called *Generalized Lüroth Series* (or GLS), was introduced and their ergodic properties were studied. Examples of these GLS are the recent *alternating Lüroth Series*, as introduced by S. Kalpazidou and A. and J. Knopfmacher, but also familiar expansions like  $r$ -adic expansions (for  $r \in \mathbf{Z}$ ,  $r \geq 2$ ). Although  $\beta$ -expansions are not in this class, it turned out that many important ergodic properties of these expansions can be obtained using the appropriate GLS-expansion, see also [DKS]. Here we only want to mention that the entire approach of this paper can be carried over to GLS-expansions. In order to keep the exposition clear and easy we only dealt with the "classical" Lüroth expansion. Details are left to the reader, see also section 3.1 of [BBDK].

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