REMARKS ON ONE TYPE OF UNIFORM DISTRIBUTION

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ABSTRACT. A sequence \( \{x_n\} \) of numbers in \([0, 1]\) is called Buck’s uniformly distributed if for every interval \( I \subseteq [0, 1] \) the set \( \{n \in \mathbb{N}, x_n \in I\} \) is Buck’s measurable and its Buck’s measure density is equal to the length of \( I \). Some examples of sequences are given. An analogy of Weyl’s criterion is proved.

Communicated by Ladislav Mišík

Dedicated to Professor Robert F. Tichy on the occasion of his 50th birthday

Introduction

The notion of uniformly distributed sequence was introduced in 1916 by H. Weyl in his paper [Wey]. Let \( \{x_n\} \) be a sequence of real numbers from \([0, 1)\). This sequence is called uniformly distributed if and only if for every subinterval \( I \subseteq [0, 1] \) it holds

\[
\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \text{card}\{n \leq N; x_n \in I\} = |I|,
\]

(1)

where \( |I| \) is the length of \( I \). If \( \mathbb{N} \) is the set of positive integers and \( A \subseteq \mathbb{N} \) then the value (if it exists):

\[
d(A) := \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \text{card}(A \cap [0, N])
\]

is called the asymptotic density of the set \( A \). Thus a sequence \( \{x_n\}, x_n \in [0, 1) \), is uniformly distributed if and only if for every subinterval \( I \subseteq [0, 1] \) the set \( \{n \in \mathbb{N}; x_n \in I\} \) has the asymptotic density and

\[
d(\{n \in \mathbb{N}; x_n \in I\}) = |I|.
\]

(2)

2000 Mathematics Subject Classification: 11K06, 11B05.

Keywords: Uniform distribution, Buck’s measure density.

This research was supported by the VEGA Grant 2/7138/27.
The aim of this paper is to study another type of uniform distribution motivated by (2). In the monograph [S-P, p. 6] there is considered the uniform distribution with respect to a given submeasure on a system of some subsets of the set of positive integers.

In 1946 R. C. Buck introduced and studied the notion of measure density, motivated from one side by asymptotic density and by measurability in sense of Carathéodory from other side. Let \( m \in \mathbb{N}, a \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \). Denote by \( m\mathbb{N} + a \) the arithmetic progression with the difference \( m \) and prime element \( a \). Clearly \( m\mathbb{N} + a \) has the asymptotic density and \( d(m\mathbb{N} + a) = \frac{1}{m} \).

Let \( D_0 \) be the class of all sets of the form \( m_1\mathbb{N} + a_1 \cup \cdots \cup m_s\mathbb{N} + a_s \). Put for \( S \subseteq \mathbb{N} : \mu^*(S) = \inf \{d(A); S \subseteq A, A \in D_0\} \). Then the value \( \mu^*(S) \) is called the measure density of \( S \). Put

\[
D_\mu = \{ S \subseteq \mathbb{N}; \mu^*(S) + \mu^*(\mathbb{N} \setminus S) = 1 \}.
\]

Then \( D_\mu \) is an algebra of sets and the function \( \mu = \mu^*/D_\mu \) is a finitely–additive probability measure on \( D_\mu \). For all above statements on measure density we refer to the Buck’s paper [BUC].

The algebra \( D_\mu \) has the following properties:

(i) \( D_0 \subset D_\mu \).
(ii) \( E \in D_\mu \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists E_1, E_2 \in D_\mu \) such that \( E_1 \subset E \subset E_2 \) and \( \mu(E_2) - \mu(E_1) < \varepsilon \).
(iii) Every set \( E \in D_0 \) has the asymptotic density and \( d(E) = \mu(E) \).

For (i), (ii), (iii) we refer to [BUC] and [PAS]. Remark that in 1973 M. Parnes proved that the algebra \( D_\mu \) is very small from the measure theoretical point of view, (see [PA]). Let \( \{y_n\} \) be a sequence of numbers from the interval \([0, 1)\). Put for a set \( L \subseteq [0, 1) \)

\[
A(\{y_n\}, L) = \{ n \in \mathbb{N}; y_n \in L \}.
\]  

(3) (Shortly we can write \( A(L) = A(\{y_n\}, L) \), if \( \{y_n\} \) is given.)

The sequence \( \{y_n\} \) is called Buck’s uniformly distributed if and only if for every subinterval \( I \subseteq [0, 1) \) the set \( A(\{y_n\}, I) \) belongs to \( D_\mu \) and

\[
\mu(A(\{y_n\}, I)) = |I|,
\]  

(4) where \( |I| \) is the length of \( I \). Instead of Buck’s uniformly distributed we shall write only B.u.d.

Remark that (iii) yields that every B.u.d. sequence is uniformly distributed in the sense (2).
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1. Some elementary statements

**Proposition 1.** Let \( \{y_n\} \) be a sequence of numbers from \([0, 1]\). Then \( \{y_n\} \) is B.u.d. if and only if

a) \( \forall x \in (0, 1); \ A([0, x]) \in D_\mu \land \mu(A([0, x])) = x. \)

b) \( \forall x \in (0, 1); \ A([0, x]) \in D_\mu \land \mu(A([0, x])) = x. \)

**Proof.** Suppose that a) holds. For \( x \in [0, 1) \) and \( \varepsilon \geq 0 \) we have \( A([0, x]) \subset A([0, x + \varepsilon]) \). Thus (ii) yields \( A([0, x]) \in D_\mu \) and \( x \leq \mu(A([0, x])) \leq x + \varepsilon \) and so for \( \varepsilon \to 0^+ \) we have \( \mu(A([0, x])) = x \). Now for an arbitrary interval \( I \) (suppose for instance that \( I = [a, b] \)) we have

\[ A(I) = A([0, b]) \setminus A([0, a]) \in D_\mu \]

and \( \mu(A(I)) = b - a \). Analogously we can prove b). If we consider that for \( x \in [0, 1) \) we have \( A(\{x\}) = A([0, x]) - A([0, x)) \) we obtain it immediately. \( \square \)

**Corollary 1.** If \( y_n \) is B.u.d. then, \( \forall x \in [0, 1) \), we have \( \mu(A(\{x\})) = 0 \) (and \( A(\{x\}) \in D_\mu \)).

**Proposition 2.** Let \( \{y_n\} \) be a sequence of numbers from \([0, 1]\). Then \( \{y_n\} \) is B.u.d. if and only if \( \mu^*(A(I)) = |I| \) for every subinterval \( I \subset [0, 1] \).

**Proof.** One implication is trivial. Implication \( \Leftarrow \) . Consider \( I = [0, x), \ J = [x, 1) \). Then \( \mu^*(A([0, x])) = x, \mu^*(A([x, 1])) = 1 - x \) and so \( A([0, x]) \in D_\mu \) and the assertion follows now from Proposition 1 a). \( \square \)

**Proposition 3.** Let \( E \subset [0, 1] \) be a dense set and \( \{y_n\} \) a sequence of numbers from \([0, 1]\). The sequence \( \{y_n\} \) is B.u.d. if and only if

a) \( \forall x \in E; \ A([0, x]) \in D_\mu \land \mu(A([0, x])) = x. \)

b) \( \forall x \in E; \ A([0, x]) \in D_\mu \land \mu(A([0, x])) = x. \)

c) For every interval \( I \subset [0, 1] \), whose endpoints belong to \( E \), we have \( A(I) \in D_\mu \) and \( \mu(A(I)) = |I| \).

**Proof.** Let \( x_0 \) be an arbitrary number from \([0, 1]\). Then there exist \( x_1, x_2 \in E \) such that \( x_1 < x_0 < x_2 \) and \( x_2 - x_1 < \varepsilon \) (for \( \varepsilon > 0 \)). And so \( A([0, x_1]) \subseteq A([0, x_0]) \subseteq A([0, x_2]) \) and \( A([0, x_1]) \subseteq A([0, x_0]) \subseteq A([0, x_2]) \). Thus from (ii) we have \( A([0, x_0]) \in D_\mu \) and the assertion follows in the cases a) and b). c) is trivial. \( \square \)
2. The sequence of van der Corput

Let \(q_0, q_1, q_2, \ldots\) be a sequence of positive integers such that \(q_j > 1\) for \(j > 1\). Put
\[
Q_n = q_0 \cdots q_n, n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots.
\] (5)
It is well known that every positive integer \(a\) can be uniquely expressed in the form
\[
a = c_0 Q_0 + c_1 Q_1 + \cdots + c_n Q_n,
\] (6)
where \(0 \leq c_j < q_{j+1}\), \(j = 0, \ldots, n-1\). Similarly every \(\alpha \in [0, 1)\) can be uniquely expressed in the form
\[
\alpha = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_n}{Q_{n+1}}, \quad 0 \leq c_n < q_{n+1}
\] (7)
and \(c_n < q_{n+1} - 1\) for infinitely many \(n\). If \(a \in \mathbb{N}\) has the form (6), put
\[
\gamma(a) = c_0 \frac{Q_1}{Q_{n+1}} + \cdots + c_n \frac{Q_n}{Q_{n+1}}.
\] (8)
If \(q_1 = q_2 = \ldots = b\) for some \(b \in \mathbb{N}\), \(b > 1\), we obtain the classical van der Corput sequence with the base \(b\) (see [D-T, pp. 41, 368]; [S-P, p. 2–102]). Remark that this sequence plays an important role in the theory of discrepancy.

**Theorem 1.** If \(\{\gamma(k)\}\) is given by (8), then \(\{\gamma(k)\}\) is B.u.d. sequence.

**Proof.** For the proof we shall use some elementary properties of Cantor’s expansions. Consider the intervals
\[
I_{k+1}^j = \left[ j \frac{Q_k}{Q_{k+1}}, \frac{j+1}{Q_{k+1}} \right), \quad j = 0, \ldots, Q_{k+1} - 1, \quad k = 0, \ldots.
\]
Clearly the endpoints of these intervals form a dense set in \([0, 1)\). Thus Proposition 3 c) guaranties that it suffices to prove
\[
\mu^*(A(I_{k+1}^j)) = \frac{1}{Q_{k+1}}.
\] (9)
To interval \(I_{k+1}^j\) we can uniquely associate a finite sequence \(\tau_0, \ldots, \tau_k\), \(0 \leq \tau_s < q_{s+1}\), \(s = 0, \ldots, k\) such that \(\alpha \in I_{k+1}^j\) if and only if \(\alpha = \sum_{s=0}^{k} \frac{c_s}{Q_{s+1}}\), where \(c_0 = \tau_0, \ldots, c_k = \tau_k\). Similarly there exists an arithmetic progression \(r + Q_{k+1} \mathbb{N}\) such that \(a \in r + Q_{k+1} \mathbb{N}\) if and only if \(a = c_0 Q_0 + \cdots + c_k Q_k + \ldots\), where \(c_0 = r_0, \ldots, c_k = r_k\). Thus it follows
\[
\gamma(a) \in I_{k+1}^j \iff a \in r + Q_{k+1} \mathbb{N}
\]
and so \(A(I_{k+1}^j) = r + Q_{k+1} \mathbb{N}\) which implies (9). \(\square\)
Let $\alpha$ be an irrational number. It is a well known statement that the sequence of fractional parts $\{n\alpha\}$ is uniformly distributed. We prove that this sequence is not B.u.d.

**Theorem 2.** Let $\alpha$ be an irrational number. Put $y_n = \{n\alpha\}$, $n = 1, 2, \ldots$. Then for every $x \in (0, 1)$ we have

$$\mu^* (A([0, x])) = 1 = \mu^* (A([x, 1])).$$

**Proof.** In 1984 O. Strauch [S] proved that for every proper subinterval $I$ the set $A(I)$ does not contain an infinite arithmetic progression. Therefore the complement $\mathbb{N} \setminus A(I)$ has a nonempty intersection with every arithmetic progression. Thus $\mu^*(\mathbb{N} \setminus A(I)) = 1$ (see [PAS]). For $I = [0, x)$, $I = [x, 1]$ we obtain the assertion. \[\square\]

### 3. Buck’s measurable sequences

Suppose that $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence of numbers from $[0, 1)$. This sequence is called *Buck’s measurable* if and only if for every subinterval $I \subseteq [0, 1)$ the set $A(\{x_n\}, I)$ belongs to the algebra $D_\mu$.

Remark that similar generalization of Weyl’s u.d. sequence was made by I. Schoenberg [Sch] in 1929. Thus $\{x_n\}$ is B.u.d. if it is Buck’s measurable and $\mu(A(\{x_n\}, I)) = |I|$.

In this part we derive some analogies of the well known Weyl’s criterium. We shall use one statement from [PAS]. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $B \in \mathbb{N}$. Denote

$$S \mod B = \{s \mod B; \ s \in S\}$$

and

$$R(S \mod B) = |S \mod B|.$$ 

Then it holds.

**Theorem A.** Let $\{B_n\}$ be a sequence of positive integers fulfilling the condition

$$\forall \ d \in \mathbb{N} \ \exists \ n_0 \ \forall \ n \geq n_0; \ d | B_n.$$  \hspace{1cm} (c)

Then for every subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ we have

$$\mu^*(S) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{R(S \mod B_n)}{B_n}$$

(see [PAS]).
Let \( \{x_n\} \) be a sequence of numbers from \([0, 1)\). Then \( \{x_n\} \) is Buck’s measurable if and only if for every interval \( I \subseteq [0, 1) \) there exists a value \( C(I) \) such that

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} \chi_I(x_k^{(n)}) = C(I)
\]

holds for arbitrary system of complete remainders systems \( R_n = \{k_1^{(n)}, \ldots, k_{B_n}^{(n)}\} \) modulo \( B_n, n = 1, 2, \ldots \). Here \( \{B_n\} \) is a sequence from Theorem A and \( \chi_I(\cdot) \) is the indicator function of \( I \). In addition in this case there holds \( C(I) = \mu(A(I)) \).

**Proof.** The value \( R(A(I) : B_n) \) is the maximal number of elements from \( A(I) \) incongruent modulo \( B_n \). Thus

\[
\frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} \chi_I(x_k^{(n)}) \leq \frac{R(A(I) : B_n)}{B_n}
\]

and so

\[
\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} \chi_I(x_k^{(n)}) \leq \mu^*(A(I)).
\]

Suppose now that \( A(I) \in D_\mu \) and

\[
\liminf_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} \chi_I(x_k^{(n)}) < \mu^*(A(I)).
\]

Then there exists \( \alpha < \mu^*(A(I)) \) such that

\[
\frac{1}{B_{n_i}} \sum_{j=1}^{B_{n_i}} \chi_I(x_k^{(n_i)}) \to \alpha, \quad i \to \infty
\]

for suitable subsequence \( \{n_i\} \). But

\[
1 = \frac{1}{B_{n_i}} \sum_{j=1}^{B_{n_i}} \chi_I(x_k^{(n_i)}) + \frac{1}{B_{n_i}} \sum_{j=1}^{B_{n_i}} \chi_{\neg I}(x_k^{(n_i)}),
\]

where \( \neg I \) denotes the complement of \( I \). For \( i \to \infty \) we obtain from (11)

\[
1 \leq \alpha + \mu^*(A(\neg I)) < \mu^*(A(I)) + \mu^*(A(\neg I)) = 1
\]

– a contradiction.
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Suppose now that (10) holds. Denote 

\[ q(n) = R(A(I) : B_n) \]

Then 

\[ A(I) \]

contains the numbers \( k_1^{(n)}, \ldots, k_q(n) \) incongruent modulo \( B_n \). These numbers we can complete to a complete remainder system modulo \( B_n \).

\[ R_n = \{ k_1^{(n)}, \ldots, k_q(n), k_{q(n)+1}, \ldots, k_{B_n} \} \]

Nearly (10) yields

\[ q(n) B_n = 1 \]

and so \( C(I) = \mu^*(A(I)) \). If we consider that \( 1 = \chi_I + \chi_{\neg I} \), then we obtain

\[ 1 = C(I) + C(\neg I) = \mu^*(A(I)) + \mu^*(A(\neg I)) \]

and the assertion follows. □

As an immediate consequence we have

**Corollary 2.** The sequence \( \{x_n\} \), \( x_n \in [0,1) \) is B.u.d. if and only if for every subinterval \( I \subset [0,1) \) there holds

\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} \chi_I(x_{k_j^{(n)}}) = |I|, \]

using the same notation as in Proposition 4.

Corollary 2 implies that \( \{x_n\} \) is B.u.d. if and only if

\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} g(x_{k_j^{(n)}}) = \int_0^1 g(x) \, dx \]

holds for every step function \( g = \sum_i c_i \chi_{I_i} \).

For every Riemannian integrable function \( f : [0,1] \to (\infty, \infty) \) and \( \varepsilon > 0 \) there exist two steps functions \( g_1, g_2 \) that

\[ g_1 < f < g_2, \quad \int_0^1 (g_2(x) - g_1(x)) \, dx < \varepsilon. \] (12)

Thus we get

**Theorem 3.** Suppose the notation from Proposition 4. Then \( \{x_n\} \) is B.u.d. if and only if

\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} f(x_{k_j^{(n)}}) = \int_0^1 f(x) \, dx \] (13)

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for arbitrary Riemannian integrable function \( f : [0, 1] \to (-\infty, \infty) \).

Every Riemannian integrable function can be approximated in the sense (12) by two continuous functions \( g_1, g_2 \) and so we get

**Theorem 3’.** Suppose the notation from Proposition 4. Then \( \{x_n\} \) is B.u.d. if and only if

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} f(x_{k^{(n)}_j}) = \int_0^1 f(x) \, dx
\]

for every continuous function \( f : [0, 1] \to (-\infty, \infty) \).

Every continuous function can be uniformly approximated by trigonometric polynomials and so we have analogy to Weyl’s criterion:

**Theorem 4.** Suppose the notation from Proposition 4. Then \( \{x_n\} \) is B.u.d. if and only if

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=0}^{B_n} \exp 2\pi i h x_{k^{(n)}_j} = 0
\]

for every \( h \in \mathbb{Z}, h \neq 0 \).

This yields

**Corollary 3.** If \( \{x_n\} \) is B.u.d., then the sequence of fractional parts \( \{kx_n\} \) is B.u.d. for \( k \in \mathbb{Z}, k \neq 0 \).

A sequence \( \{x_n\} \) is called polyadically continuous if and only if \( \forall \varepsilon > 0 \) there exists \( B \in \mathbb{N} \) such that

\[
n \equiv m \pmod{B} \implies |x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon. \quad (14)
\]

**Theorem 5.** Every u.d. sequence which is polyadically continuous is B.u.d.

**Proof.** Let \( \{x_n\} \) be a u.d. sequence. Then for every continuous function \( f \) there holds

\[
\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} f(x_n) = \int_0^1 f(x) \, dx.
\]

Suppose that a sequence \( \{B_n\} \) fulfils the condition (c) of Theorem A. Clearly

\[
\int_0^1 f(x) \, dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} f(x_j).
\]

If \( R_n = \{k_1^{(n)}, \ldots, k_{B_n}^{(n)}\} \) is a complete remainder system modulo \( B_n \), we can suppose that \( j \equiv k_j^{(n)} \pmod{B_n}, j = 1, \ldots, B_n \). If \( \{x_n\} \) is polyadically continuous,
then \( \{f(x_n)\} \) is also polyadically continuous, because \( f \) is uniformly continuous. Let \( \varepsilon > 0 \) and \( B \) be from (14). Then from (c) we have \( B|B_n, n \geq n_0 \) for suitable \( n_0 \), hence \( |f(x_j) - f(x_{k_j^{(n)})}| < \varepsilon \). And so

\[
\left| \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} f(x_j) - \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} f(x_{k_j^{(n)}}) \right| < \varepsilon
\]

for \( n \geq n_0 \). For \( n \rightarrow \infty \) we have

\[
\left| \int_0^1 f(x) \, dx - \limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} f(x_{k_j^{(n)}}) \right| \leq \varepsilon
\]

and the assertion follows.

If we consider the sequence of van der Corput \( \{\gamma(a)\} \) given by (8), then for \( a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{Q_n} \) we have that \( a_1, a_2 \) have the same first \( n \) digits in (6) and so \( |\gamma(a_1) - \gamma(a_2)| \leq Q_n^{-1} \). Therefore \( \{\gamma(a)\} \) is an example of polyadically continuous sequence.

If \( \{x_n\} \) is a Buck’s measurable sequence, then the function

\[
g(x) = \mu(A(\{x_n\}, \ [0, x]))
\]

is called the Buck’s distribution function of \( \{x_n\} \). Remark that for the asymptotic density in 1929 Schoenberg introduced the notion of asymptotic distribution function as \( g(x) = d(A(\{x_n\}, \ [0, x])) \) (see [Sch], [K-N], [D-T], [S-P]).

Let \( g : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1], g(0) = 0, g(1) = 1 \) be an increasing and continuous function. Then \( g^{-1} : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1] \) is also increasing and continuous. Consider the van der Corput sequence \( \{\gamma(n)\} \). Put \( x_n = g^{-1}(\gamma(n)), n = 1, 2, \ldots \). Then \( \{x_n\} \) is polyadically continuous, because \( \{\gamma(n)\} \) is polyadically continuous. Moreover, for \( x \in [0, 1] \) we have

\[
x_n < x \iff \gamma(n) < g(x),
\]

thus \( g \) and \( \{x_n\} \) fulfil (15). We proved

**Proposition 5.** If \( g : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1], g(0) = 0, g(1) = 1 \) is an increasing and continuous function, then \( \{x_n\}, \) where \( x_n = g^{-1}(\gamma(n)) \), is a polyadically continuous sequence with Buck’s distribution function \( g \).

For the case of the asymptotic density there hold stronger results (see [K-N], [D-T]).
Proposition 4 yields that if \( \{x_n\} \) is Buck’s measurable, then
\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} h(x_{j(n)}) = \int_0^1 h(x) \, dg(x)
\]
for every step function \( h \), where \( g(x) = \mu(A[0, x)) \). As every continuous function \( f \) can be approximated in the sense (12) (instead of Riemann integral we consider Riemann-Stieltjes integral with respect to \( g(x) = \mu(A[0, x)) \)) we obtain

**Theorem 6.** Suppose the notation from Proposition 4. a) If \( \{x_n\} \) is Buck’s measurable then, for every continuous function \( f : [0,1] \to (-\infty, \infty) \) we have
\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} f(x_{j(n)}) = \int_0^1 f(x) \, dg(x),
\]
where \( g(x) \) is the Buck’s distribution function of \( \{x_n\} \).

b) Let \( g(x) \) be a continuous, non-decreasing function defined on \([0,1]\) and \( g(0) = 0, g(1) = 1 \). Then \( g(x) \) is the Buck’s distribution function of \( \{x_n\} \) if and only if (e) holds.

Part b) follows from the fact that in the case that \( g(x) \) is continuous, every step function can be approximated by two continuous functions in the sense (12) (See [K-N, p. 54], proof of the criterium for asymptotic distribution functions).

Analogously to Theorem 5, we can prove

**Corollary 4.** If \( \{x_n\} \) is a polyadically continuous sequence with continuous asymptotic distribution function, then \( \{x_n\} \) is Buck’s measurable.

Now we can construct Buck’s measurable sequences, using some results about multiplicative functions. Suppose that to a prime number \( p \) a positive value \( a_p \) is associated such that the series \( \sum a_p \) converges. Then the sequence \( x_n = \prod_{p \mid n} (1 - a_p) \) is a sequence with a continuous asymptotic distribution function (see [E, p. 185]), and it can be easily proved that \( \{x_n\} \) is polyadically continuous. Thus Corollary 4 yields that \( \{x_n\} \) is Buck’s measurable.

### 4. Some metric properties

Denote by \( B \) the set of all B.u.d. sequences and by \( U \) the set of all u.d. sequences. The property (iii) yields that \( B \subseteq U \).

**Theorem 7.** The set \( B \) is closed with respect to the supremum metric.
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Proof. Let \( \{x_n\} \in \overline{B} \) - closure of \( B \) in the supremum metric. Then for \( \varepsilon > 0 \) there exists \( \{y_n\} \in B \) such that \( |x_n - y_n| < \varepsilon, \ n = 1, 2, \ldots \) If \( R_n \) is the system from Proposition 4, we have

\[
\left| \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} \exp 2\pi i h x_{k_j}^{(n)} - \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} \exp 2\pi i h y_{k_j}^{(n)} \right| \\
\leq \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} | \ldots | \leq 2\pi h |x_{k_j}^{(n)} - y_{k_j}^{(n)}| \leq 2\pi h \varepsilon .
\]

For \( \varepsilon \to 0^+ \) we get, using Theorem 4, that

\[
\frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} \exp 2\pi i h x_{k_j}^{(n)} = 0, \ h \neq 0, \ h \in \mathbb{Z},
\]

and the assertion follows. \( \square \)

It is a well known fact that \( \lambda^\infty(U) = 1 \), where \( \lambda^\infty \) is a product measure on \([0,1)^\infty\) (see [K-N]).

Let \( A \subset \mathbb{N} \). If there exists \( \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \text{card}(A \cap [k, k + N]) \) uniformly with respect to \( k \in \mathbb{N} \) then its value is called the uniform density of \( A \) (= \( u(A) \)). (cf. [GLS, Theorem 1.1, Theorem 1.2]). A sequence \( \{y_n\}, y_n \in [0,1) \) is called well distributed if and only if \( u(A(\{y_n\}, I)) = |I| \) for every interval \( I \subset [0,1] \) (cf. [K-N, p. 51]). Every set \( A \in D_\mu \) has a uniform density \( u(A) \) and \( u(A) = \mu(A) \). Thus \( \lambda^\infty(B) = 0 \). Thus every B.u.d. sequence is well distributed. The product measure of the set of well distributed sequences is 0 (see [K-N, p. 201, Theorem 3.8]). Theorem 2 gives also the example of sequence which is well distributed but no B.u.d. (cf. [K-N, p. 42, Example 5.2]).

5. The theorem of John von Neumann:

John von Neumann proved that every dense sequence in \((0,1)\) can be rearranged to a u.d. sequence. We prove this result for B.u.d. sequence.

Directly from Theorem 4 we obtain:

**Proposition 6.** Let \( \{y_n\} \) be a B.u.d. sequence and \( |x_n - y_n| \to 0 \) as \( n \to \infty \). Then \( \{x_n\} \) is B.u.d.

**Proposition 7.** Let \( \{y_n\} \) be a B.u.d. sequence and \( \{x_n\} \) be such that \( x_n = y_n \), for \( n \in A \), where \( A \in D_\mu \) and \( \mu(A) = 1 \). Then \( \{x_n\} \) is B.u.d.
Proof. We have
\[ \left| \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} \exp 2\pi i h y_{k_j^{(n)}} - \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} \exp 2\pi i h x_{k_j^{(n)}} \right| \]
\[ \leq \frac{1}{B_n} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}, k_j^{(n)} \in A} \left| \exp 2\pi i h x_{k_j^{(n)}} - \exp 2\pi i h y_{k_j^{(n)}} \right| \]
\[ \leq \frac{2}{B_n} R(\neg A : B_n). \]
But \( \mu(\neg A) = 1 - \mu(A) = 0 \), so we have
\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2}{B_n} R(\neg A : B_n) = 0 \]
and the assertion follows from Theorem 4. \( \Box \)

Theorem 8. Every sequence \( \{x_n\} \) dense in \([0,1)\) can be rearranged to a B.u.d. sequence.

Proof. Consider the sequence \( \{\gamma(n)\} \) of van der Corput. This is a B.u.d. sequence (see Theorem 1). As \( \{x_n\} \) is dense, for \( n = 1,2,\ldots \) there exists \( k_n \) that \( |x_{k_n} - \gamma(n)| < \frac{1}{n} \). And so Proposition 5 yields that \( \{x_{k_n}\} \) is a B.u.d. Let \( \{x_{k_n'}\} \) be the sequence of elements of \( \{x_n\} \) which do not occur in \( \{x_{k_n}\} \). If \( \{x_{k_n'}\} \) is finite, the proof is finished. Let \( \{x_{k_n'}\} \) be infinite. Let \( A \subseteq \mathbb{N} \) be such infinite set that \( \mu(A) = 0 \). For instance \( A = \{n!; n = 1,2,\ldots\} \). Then \( B = \mathbb{N} \setminus A \in D_\mu \) and \( \mu(B) = 1 \). Define the sequence \( \{z_n\} \) as follows:
\[ z_n = x_{k_n}; \quad n \in B. \]
Let \( A = \{s_1 < s_2 < \ldots\} \), then
\[ z_{s_{2j}} = x_{k_{s_j}'}; \quad j = 1,2,\ldots \]
\[ z_{s_{2j+1}} = x_{k_{s_{j+1}}}; \quad j = 1,2,\ldots \]
Then \( \{z_n\} \) is a rearrangement of \( \{x_n\} \) and Proposition 6 implies that \( \{z_n\} \) is B.u.d. \( \Box \)

6. The B.u.d. preserving mapping

In the paper [PSSa] the mapping \( g : [0,1] \to [0,1], \) such that \( \{g(y_n)\} \) is u.d., if \( \{y_n\} \) u.d. is studied. Such mapping is called u.d. preserving. In this paper
it is proved, that if \( g \) is Riemannian integrable, then \( g \) is u.d. preserving if and only if
\[
\int_0^1 h(g(x)) \, dx = \int_0^1 h(x) \, dx
\]
holds for every continuous function \( h : [0, 1] \to (-\infty, \infty) \).

A mapping \( g : [0, 1] \to [0, 1] \) is called B.u.d. preserving if for every B.u.d. sequence \( \{y_n\} \) is \( \{g(y_n)\} \) B.u.d.

**Theorem 9.** A Riemannian integrable function \( g : [0, 1] \to [0, 1] \) is B.u.d. preserving if and only if (16) holds for every continuous function \( h : [0, 1] \to (-\infty, \infty) \).

**Proof.** In the third part we proved that \( \{y_n\} \) is B.u.d. if and only if
\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{j=1}^{B_n} h(y_{j(n)}) = \int_0^1 h(x) \, dx
\]
(see the notation of Proposition 4). If we consider that both sequences \( \{y_n\} \), \( \{g(y_n)\} \) are B.u.d., then using the standard procedure from [PSSa] we obtain the assertion.

**Corollary 5.** If \( g : [0, 1] \to [0, 1] \) is a continuous function, fulfilling (16) then the sequence \( \{g(\gamma(n))\} \) is a polyadically continuous B.u.d. sequence.

**REFERENCES**


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Received March 3, 2006
Revised May 21, 2007
Accepted

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