

ASYMPTOTICALLY UNIFORM PERIOD DISTRIBUTION FOR BINARY EXPANSIONS OF RATIONAL NUMBERS

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What is to be presented here is a joint work with Guy Kapon under the supervision of Ofir David and Uri Shapira. The work up to section 3 was carried out in a research project in the Technion Institute of Technology, while section 4 was done later by the author.

1 Introduction

Let n be an odd number. It is well known that the binary expansion of $\frac{1}{n}$ is periodic and that the length of this period is $\text{ord}_n(2)$, the order of 2 in $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

For each k , we see that $\frac{1}{n}$ induces a probability measure on the set of binary strings of length k . Denote this probability measure by $\lambda_{n,k}$. For example, the period of $\frac{1}{7} = (0.001001001\dots)_2$ is 001. For $k = 2$, each of the strings 00, 01, 10 occur with probability $1/3$ and the string 11 occurs with probability 0.

We are interested in finding sets of natural numbers $S = \{n_i\}_{i=1}^\infty = \{n_1 < n_2 < \dots\}$ of large density such that the digits of the periods in this set tend to be uniformly distributed. In other words, if λ_k denotes the uniform measure on binary strings of length k , we want to have $\lambda_{n_i,k} \rightarrow \lambda_k$ for each k as $i \rightarrow \infty$.

Definition 1. Let $S = \{n_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ an infinite sequence of natural numbers. We say that S has asymptotically uniform period distribution (or AUPD for short) if $\lambda_{n_i,k} \rightarrow \lambda_k$ for every $k \geq 1$.

Equivalently, we may consider for each n the subset of $S^1 = \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$ defined by

$$A = \left\{ \frac{2^i}{n} \pmod{\mathbb{Z}} \mid 0 \leq i < \text{ord}_n(2) \right\}$$

The number of 0's appearing in the period of $\frac{1}{n}$ is just the number of points of A on the first half of S^1 ; the number of 00's appearing in the period of $\frac{1}{n}$ is the number of points of A on the first quarter of S^1 ; and so on. We wish to find interesting sets S of large density such that these points tend to be uniformly distributed on S^1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for $n \in S$.

In section 2 we prove a criterion for asymptotically uniform period distribution. In section 3 we use this criterion in order to prove our main theorem which gives the three main examples of interesting sequences which have AUPD. In section 4 we prove a generalization of one example of the main theorem.

2 A criterion for asymptotically uniform period distribution

Definition 2. For n an odd integer, we define a measure on S^1 ,

$$\mu_{\frac{1}{n}} := \frac{1}{\text{ord}_n(2)} \sum_{i=0}^{\text{ord}_n(2)-1} \delta_{\frac{2^i}{n}}$$

where the δ 's are dirac measures. In other words, $\mu_{\frac{1}{n}}$ is the orbit measure with respect to the action $x \mapsto 2x$ and $\frac{1}{n} \in S^1$.

If $\mu_{\frac{1}{n_i}} \rightarrow \lambda_{\text{Haar}}$ then for each k we have $\mu_{\frac{1}{n_i}}([0, \frac{1}{2^k}]) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2^k}$, so this just means that the proportion of 00...0 segments tends to $\frac{1}{2^k}$. The same will hold for any other segment. In the other direction one also sees that if $\mu_{\frac{1}{n_i}}([0, \frac{1}{2^k}]) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2^k}$ for each k then the distribution must tend to the uniform distribution. We conclude this with the following proposition:

Proposition 1. An infinite sequence $S = \{n_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ has AUPD if and only if $\mu_{\frac{1}{n_i}} \rightarrow \lambda_{\text{Haar}}$ as measures on S^1 .

Since S^1 is compact, this is equivalent to having the convergence for every nontrivial character, i.e. for each $k \neq 0$ we want:

$$\int e^{2\pi kti} d\mu_{\frac{1}{n_i}}(t) \rightarrow \int e^{2\pi kti} d\lambda(t) = 0$$

Let ζ be an n 'th root of unity. Since $\int e^{2\pi kti} d\mu_{\frac{1}{n_i}}(t) = \frac{1}{\text{ord}_{n_i}(2)} \sum_{j=0}^{\text{ord}_{n_i}(2)-1} \zeta^{k2^j}$, we can therefore refine the proposition above to

Proposition 2. S has AUPD if and only if $\frac{1}{\text{ord}_{n_i}(2)} \sum_{j=0}^{\text{ord}_{n_i}(2)-1} \zeta^{k2^j} \rightarrow 0$ for each $k \neq 0$.

Although the property we are investigating is *multiplicative* in nature, the key to our understanding of these sums lies in our interpretation of them as certain *additive* discrete Fourier transforms.

Proposition 3. Let $1_{\langle 2 \rangle} : \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be the indicator function for the subgroup $\langle 2 \rangle$, and let $\widehat{1_{\langle 2 \rangle}} : \widehat{\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be its discrete Fourier transform with respect to the additive group $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Recall there is an isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \simeq \widehat{\widehat{\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}}}$ defined by

$$k \mapsto (\chi_k : 1 \mapsto \zeta^k)$$

where ζ is a fixed n 'th root of unity. We then have

- (1) $\widehat{1_{\langle 2 \rangle}}(\chi_{-k}) = \sum_{j=0}^{\text{ord}_n(2)-1} \zeta^{k2^j}$
- (2) $\sum_k |\widehat{1_{\langle 2 \rangle}}(\chi_k)|^2 = \text{ord}_n(2)$

Proof. (1) is immediate from the definition of the Fourier transform, and (2) is Parseval's equality. \square

For the corollary to be proven next one first needs to obtain a technical lemma.

Lemma 1. *Let $t, n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $t|n$. Then $ord_{\frac{n}{t}}(2) \geq \frac{ord_n(2)}{t}$.*

Proof. We can immediately reduce to the case where $t = p$ is a prime and n is odd. We split the proof into two cases.

Case 1: suppose $p^2|n$. We have $\frac{n}{p}|2^{ord_{\frac{n}{p}}(2)} - 1$, and in particular $p|2^{ord_{\frac{n}{p}}(2)} - 1$. It is well known that for p and odd prime and for coprime x, y with $x \equiv y \pmod{p}$, one has

$$v_p(x^n - y^n) = v_p(x - y) + v_p(n)$$

Where v_p is the p -adic valuation. Applying this to $x = 2^{p \cdot ord_{\frac{n}{p}}(2)}$ and $y = 1$ we get that $n|2^{p \cdot ord_{\frac{n}{p}}(2)} - 1$. Hence $ord_n(2) \leq p \cdot ord_{\frac{n}{p}}(2)$ which is equivalent to the statement.

Case 2: suppose $p^2 \nmid n$, so that p and $\frac{n}{p}$ are coprime. Again $\frac{n}{p}|2^{ord_{\frac{n}{p}}(2)} - 1$, so by Fermat's little theorem $n|2^{ord_{\frac{n}{p}}(2)(p-1)} - 1$. Thus, $ord_n(2) \leq (p-1)ord_{\frac{n}{p}}(2) \leq p \cdot ord_{\frac{n}{p}}(2)$. \square

We now obtain the following key estimate.

Corollary 1. *For $k \neq 0$, $|\widehat{1_{\langle 2 \rangle}}(\chi_k)| \leq \sqrt{n} \sqrt{gcd(k, n)}$*

Proof. Clearly $|\langle 2 \rangle| = ord_{\frac{n}{gcd(k, n)}}(2)$. Now consider part (2) of Proposition 3. The summand $|\widehat{1_{\langle 2 \rangle}}(\chi_k)|$ appears $|\langle 2 \rangle|$ times on the left hand side of the equation, so $ord_{\frac{n}{gcd(k, n)}}(2) |\widehat{1_{\langle 2 \rangle}}(\chi_k)|^2 \leq ord_n(2)(n - ord_n(2))$. Using the previous Lemma we deduce that $|\widehat{1_{\langle 2 \rangle}}(\chi_k)|^2 \leq ngcd(k, n)$, hence $|\widehat{1_{\langle 2 \rangle}}(\chi_k)| \leq \sqrt{n} \sqrt{gcd(k, n)}$. \square

This enables us to prove a very useful theorem for proving that sequences have AUPD.

Theorem 1. (Criterion for AUPD) *Let $\{n_i\} = S$ be an infinite set such that*

$$\frac{\sqrt{n_i}}{ord_{n_i}(2)} \rightarrow 0$$

Then S has AUPD.

Proof. Indeed, for any fixed $k \neq 0$ we have $\frac{1}{ord_{n_i}(2)} \left| \sum_{j=0}^{ord_{n_i}(2)-1} \zeta^{k2^j} \right| = \frac{|\widehat{1_{\langle 2 \rangle}}(\chi_{-k})|}{ord_{n_i}(2)} \leq \frac{\sqrt{n_i} \sqrt{gcd(k, ord_{n_i}(2))}}{ord_{n_i}(2)} \rightarrow 0$, which guarantees that S has AUPD by Proposition 2. \square

3 The main theorem

For the next theorem, we quote the following results. We denote by \mathbb{P} the set of prime numbers.

[1], Theorem 4.1. *There exists a subset $\mathbb{P}' \subset \mathbb{P}$ of density 1 and some $\delta > 0$ such that $\text{ord}_p(2) > \sqrt{p} \exp((\log p)^\delta)$ for all $p \in \mathbb{P}'$.*

[2], Theorem 1. *If the Generalized Riemann Hypothesis holds, there is a subset $\mathbb{N}' \subset \mathbb{N}$ of density 1 and some $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $\text{ord}_n(2) > n^{1-\varepsilon}$ (where $\text{ord}_n(2)$ of an even number is defined in the natural way as the length of the period of 2 in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$).*

We now arrive at our main theorem.

Theorem 2. (1) *Let p_1, \dots, p_t be a finite set of primes, and let $S \subset \mathbb{N}$ be the set of numbers divisible only by p_1, \dots, p_t . Then S has AUPD.*

(2) *Let \mathbb{P} be the set of primes. There is a density 1 subset $\mathbb{P}' \subset \mathbb{P}$ such that \mathbb{P}' has AUPD.*

(3) *Assuming GRH, there is a subset $\mathbb{N}' \subset \mathbb{N}$ that has AUPD.*

Proof. (1) It is easy to see that in such a case $\frac{n}{\text{ord}_n(2)}$ is bounded; now use the previous theorem.

(2) Use the result of [1] and the previous theorem.

(3) Use the result of [2] and the previous theorem.

4 A generalization of part (2) of the main theorem

From now on, we will focus on a generalization of part (2) of the main theorem. The result is the following.

Theorem 3. *For any fixed r , there is a set of density 1 in $T \subset \mathbb{P}^r$ such that the sequence (ordered by size)*

$$S = \{p_1 \dots p_r : (p_1, \dots, p_r) \in T\}$$

has AUPD.

Part (2) of the main theorem is the case $r = 1$. For reasons of simplicity, we will only present the case $r = 2$.

Remark. Note that the proof of part (2) of the main theorem does not immediately generalize to $r \geq 2$, the essential reason being that in order to invoke Theorem 1 one has to understand quantities of the form

$$\frac{\sqrt{p_1 \dots p_r}}{\text{ord}_{p_1 \dots p_r}(2)}$$

If it were true that $ord_{p_1 \dots p_r}(2) = ord_{p_1}(2) \dots ord_{p_r}(2)$ up to a bounded constant the situation would have been very simple. However, in generally one only has the equality

$$ord_{p_1 \dots p_r}(2) = lcm(ord_{p_1}(2), \dots, ord_{p_r}(2)) = \frac{ord_{p_1}(2) \dots ord_{p_r}(2)}{gcd(\prod_{i \neq 1} ord_{p_i}(2), \dots, \prod_{i \neq r} ord_{p_i}(2))}$$

In particular, for $r = 2$ we have

$$ord_{pq}(2) = \frac{ord_p(2)ord_q(2)}{gcd(ord_p(2), ord_q(2))} \geq \frac{ord_p(2)ord_q(2)}{gcd(p-1, q-1)}$$

So that $\frac{\sqrt{p_i q_i}}{ord_{p_i q_i}(2)} = \frac{\sqrt{p_i q_i} gcd(p_i - 1, q_i - 1)}{ord_{p_i}(2) ord_{q_i}(2)}$, and this is not guaranteed to tend to zero even if $\frac{\sqrt{p_i}}{ord_{p_i}(2)}, \frac{\sqrt{q_i}}{ord_{q_i}(2)}$ tend to zero individually.

If we still want to use the criterion, that is, to find a large subset of prime products with $\frac{\sqrt{pq}}{ord_{pq}(2)} \rightarrow 0$ when ordered by size, one way to this is to find a large subset of prime products while still keeping $gcd(p-1, q-1)$ from being too large. This is what we are going to do.

In order to initiate our control over $gcd(p-1, q-1)$, we prove the following.

Proposition 4. *The density of the set of prime pairs such that $gcd(p-1, q-1) = 2r$ is*

$$\sum_d \frac{\mu(d)}{\phi(2rd)^2}$$

Proof (a generalization of a proof conferred to the author by as an answer to a question in mathoverflow by user Lucia).

Recall the identity $\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 1 \\ 0, & n \neq 1 \end{cases}$. It follows that if $p \equiv q \equiv 1(2r)$, one has $1_{(p-1, q-1)=2r}(p, q) = \sum_{d | (\frac{p-1}{2r}, \frac{q-1}{2r})} \mu(d) = \sum_{d | \frac{p-1}{2r}, d | \frac{q-1}{2r}} \mu(d)$.

This enables us to write

$$\#\{p, q \leq N \mid (p-1, q-1) = 2r\} = \sum_{\substack{p, q \leq N \\ p \equiv q \equiv 1(2r)}} \sum_{d | \frac{p-1}{2r}, d | \frac{q-1}{2r}} \mu(d) = \sum_{d \leq N} \mu(d) \sum_{\substack{p, q \leq N \\ p \equiv q \equiv 1(2rd)}} 1$$

For $d > (\log N)^3$ there is a trivial bound $\sum_{d \leq N} \mu(d) \sum_{\substack{p, q \leq N \\ p \equiv q \equiv 1(2rd)}} 1 \ll \sum_{(\log N)^3 < d} \frac{N^2}{d^2} \ll \frac{N^2}{(\log N)^3}$ which contributes nothing to the density.

For $d \leq (\log N)^3$, we can use the Siegel-Walfisz theorem to get that

$$\#\{p, q \leq N \mid (p-1, q-1) = 2r\} \sim \sum_{d \leq (\log N)^3} \mu(d) \sum_{\substack{p, q \leq N \\ p \equiv q \equiv 1(2rd)}} 1 \sim \sum_{d \leq (\log N)^3} \frac{\mu(d)}{\phi(2rd)^2} \frac{N^2}{(\log N)^2}$$

Hence the density of such primes is precisely $\sum_d \frac{\mu(d)}{\phi(2rd)^2}$. \square

We rewrite the consequence of this calculation in a more convenient way.

Proposition 5. *Let A_r be the set of prime divisors of r . The density of prime pairs such that $\gcd(p-1, q-1) = r$ is*

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \prod_{p \notin A_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(p-1)^2}\right) \prod_{p \in A_r} \left(1 + \frac{2}{p-1}\right)$$

Proof. For odd r both the density and the expression are zero. Hence we can restrict to even r , and use the previous proposition. Let $T \subset A_r$ be a subset; for such T , let X_T be the set of squarefree integers that the primes of A_r that divide them are exactly T . Clearly one has

$$\sum_{d \in X_T} \frac{\mu(d)}{\phi(rd)^2} = \frac{(-1)^{|T|}}{\phi(\prod_{p \in T} p^{v_p(r)+1})^2 \phi(\prod_{p \in A_r \setminus T} p^{v_p(r)})^2} \sum_{d \in X_\emptyset} \frac{\mu(d)}{\phi(d)^2}$$

By multiplicity one has $\sum_{d \in X_\emptyset} \frac{\mu(d)}{\phi(d)} = \prod_{p \notin A_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(p-1)^2}\right)$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_d \frac{\mu(d)}{\phi(rd)^2} &= \sum_{T \subset A_r} \sum_{d \in X_T} \frac{\mu(d)}{\phi(rd)^2} = \prod_{p \notin A_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(p-1)^2}\right) \sum_{T \subset A_r} \frac{(-1)^{|T|}}{\phi(\prod_{p \in T} p^{v_p(r)+1})^2 \phi(\prod_{p \in A_r \setminus T} p^{v_p(r)})^2} \\ &= \prod_{p \notin A_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(p-1)^2}\right) \prod_{p \in A_r} \frac{p^2 - 1}{(p-1)^2 p^{2v_p(r)}} = \frac{1}{r^2} \prod_{p \notin A_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(p-1)^2}\right) \prod_{p \in A_r} \left(1 + \frac{2}{p-1}\right) \end{aligned}$$

So this finishes the proof. \square

Remark. One can also write this density as

$$\prod_{p \notin A_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(p-1)^2}\right) \prod_{p \in A_r} \frac{1}{(p-1)^2} \frac{1}{(p^{v_p(r)-1})^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2}\right)$$

Which is what is to be expected if everything behaved independently and randomly. Indeed, one expects that the probability for $p-1$ to be divisible by some prime l exactly $v_l(r)$ times is $\frac{1}{(l-1)^2} \frac{1}{(l^{v_l(r)-1})^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{l^2}\right)$.

Corollary 2. *For every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is some $C_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N}$ such that the density of primes pairs p, q such that $\gcd(p-1, q-1) \leq C_\varepsilon$ is at least $1 - \varepsilon$. In other words, the density of prime pairs such that $\gcd(p-1, q-1) \leq n$ tends to 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*

Proof. Let d_r be the density of prime pairs such that $\gcd(p-1, q-1) = r$ that was found in the previous proposition. It is enough to show that these d_r sum to 1. Now one calculates that if A is a set of primes, the density of prime pairs divisible precisely by the primes in A is $\prod_{p \notin A} (1 - \frac{1}{(p-1)^2}) \prod_{p \in A} \frac{1}{(p-1)^2}$. But the sum over all these A 's is exactly $\prod_p (1 - \frac{1}{(p-1)^2} + \frac{1}{(p-1)^2}) = 1$ so this proves the theorem. \square

Lemma 2. *Let \mathbb{P} be the set of primes and let $f : \mathbb{P} \times \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Let $A_n = \{(p, q) \in \mathbb{P} \times \mathbb{P} : n \leq f(p, q)\}$, $A_f = \{(p, q) \in \mathbb{P} \times \mathbb{P} : \gcd(p-1, q-1) \leq f(p, q)\}$. Suppose that for all n , $d(A_n) = 1$ where d denotes the density. Then $d(A_f) = 1$. In particular, this holds if $f(p, q) \rightarrow \infty$ as $p + q \rightarrow \infty$.*

Proof. For all n , one has the trivial inclusion $\{(p, q) : \gcd(p-1, q-1) \leq n\} \cap A_n \subset A_f$. Hence $d(A_f) \geq d(\{(p, q) : \gcd(p-1, q-1) \leq n\} \cap A_n) = d(\{(p, q) : \gcd(p-1, q-1) \leq n\})$, but this approaches 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$ by the corollary. Hence we must have $d(A_f) = 1$. \square

We are finally in a position to prove Theorem 3.

Proof of Theorem 3. We know there is a density 1 set of \mathbb{P} such that $\text{ord}_p(2) \geq \sqrt{p}\psi(p)$ where ψ is some function that tends to infinity as p tends to infinity. Now take the density 1 set as in the previous lemma, for example one may take $f(p, q) = \sqrt{\psi(p)\psi(q)}$. Then for the elements of this set one has $\frac{\sqrt{pq}}{\text{ord}_{pq}(2)} \leq \frac{\gcd(p-1, q-1)}{\psi(p)\psi(q)} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{\psi(p)\psi(q)}} \rightarrow \infty$. We can now conclude that the theorem holds by invoking Theorem 1.

References

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