

## Ergodic properties of generalized Lüroth series

by

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### 1. Introduction

**1.1. Lüroth series.** In 1883 J. Lüroth [Lu] introduced and studied the following series expansion, which can be viewed as a generalization of the decimal expansion. Let  $x \in (0, 1]$ . Then

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

where  $a_n \geq 2$ ,  $n \geq 1$ . Lüroth showed, among other things, that each irrational number has a unique infinite expansion (1), and that each rational number has either a finite or a periodic expansion.

Underlying the series expansion (1) is the operator  $T_L : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , defined by

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \frac{1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{a_1(a_1-1)} T_L x \\ &= \frac{1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{a_1(a_1-1)a_2} + \dots + \frac{T_L^n x}{a_1(a_1-1)\dots a_n(a_n-1)}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $a_n \geq 2$  and  $0 \leq T_L^n x \leq 1$  one easily sees that the infinite series from (1) converges to  $x$ .

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measure preserving with respect to Lebesgue measure <sup>(1)</sup> and ergodic <sup>(2)</sup>. Using similar techniques analogous results were obtained in [K<sup>3</sup>1,2] for the operator  $S_A$  from (3). In fact, much stronger results can be obtained easily, not only in the case of the (alternating) Lüroth series, but also in a more general setting.

**1.2. Generalized Lüroth series.** Let  $I_n = (l_n, r_n]$ ,  $n \in \mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ , be a finite or infinite collection of disjoint intervals of length  $L_n := r_n - l_n$ , such that

$$(4) \quad \sum_{n \in \mathcal{D}} L_n = 1$$

and

$$(5) \quad 0 < L_i \leq L_j < 1 \quad \text{for all } i, j \in \mathcal{D}, i > j.$$

The set  $\mathcal{D}$  is called the *digit set*. Usually such a digit set is either a finite or infinite set of consecutive positive integers, see also the examples at the end of this section.

Furthermore, let  $I_\infty := [0, 1] \setminus \bigcup_{n \in \mathcal{D}} I_n$ ,  $L_\infty := 0$  and define the maps  $T, S : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  by

$$Tx := \begin{cases} \frac{x - l_n}{r_n - l_n}, & x \in I_n, n \in \mathcal{D}, \\ 0, & x \in I_\infty, \end{cases}$$

$$Sx := \begin{cases} \frac{r_n - x}{r_n - l_n}, & x \in I_n, n \in \mathcal{D}, \\ 0, & x \in I_\infty. \end{cases}$$

Define for  $x \in \Omega := [0, 1] \setminus I_\infty = \bigcup_{n \in \mathcal{D}} I_n$ ,

$$s(x) := \frac{1}{r_n - l_n} \quad \text{and} \quad h(x) := \frac{l_n}{r_n - l_n}, \quad \text{in case } x \in I_n, n \in \mathcal{D},$$

$$s_n = s_n(x) := \begin{cases} s(T^{n-1}x), & T^{n-1}x \notin I_\infty, \\ \infty, & T^{n-1}x \in I_\infty, \end{cases}$$

and

$$h_n = h_n(x) := \begin{cases} h(T^{n-1}x), & T^{n-1}x \notin I_\infty, \\ 1, & T^{n-1}x \in I_\infty. \end{cases}$$

For  $x \in (0, 1)$  such that  $T^{n-1}x \notin I_\infty$ , one has

$$Tx = s(x)x - h(x) = s_1x - h_1.$$

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<sup>(1)</sup> That is,  $\lambda(T_L^{-1}(A)) = \lambda(A)$  for every Lebesgue measurable set  $A$ .

<sup>(2)</sup> That is,  $\lambda(A \Delta T_L^{-1}A) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda(A) \in \{0, 1\}$ .

Inductively we find

$$\begin{aligned}
 (6) \quad x &= \frac{h_1}{s_1} + \frac{1}{s_1}Tx = \frac{h_1}{s_1} + \frac{1}{s_1} \left( \frac{h_2}{s_2} + \frac{1}{s_2}T^2x \right) = \dots \\
 &= \frac{h_1}{s_1} + \frac{h_2}{s_1s_2} + \dots + \frac{h_n}{s_1 \dots s_n} + \frac{1}{s_1 \dots s_n}T^n x.
 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $Sx = 1 - Tx = -s_1x + 1 + h_1$ , for  $x \in \Omega$ , one finds

$$(7) \quad x = \frac{h_1 + 1}{s_1} - \frac{Sx}{s_1}.$$

Continuing in this way we obtain an alternating series expansion (see also [K<sup>3</sup>1,2]). Figure 1 illustrates the case  $\mathcal{D} = \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ ,  $I_n := (1/n, 1/(n - 1)]$ .

Now let  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon(n))_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  be an arbitrary, fixed sequence of zeroes and ones. We define the map  $T_\varepsilon : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  by

$$(8) \quad T_\varepsilon x := \varepsilon(x)Sx + (1 - \varepsilon(x))Tx, \quad x \in [0, 1],$$

where

$$\varepsilon(x) := \begin{cases} \varepsilon(n), & x \in I_n, n \in \mathcal{D}, \\ 0, & x \in I_\infty. \end{cases}$$

Let  $\varepsilon_n := \varepsilon(T_\varepsilon^{n-1}x)$ ,

$$s_n = s_n(x) := \begin{cases} s(T_\varepsilon^{n-1}x), & T_\varepsilon^{n-1}x \notin I_\infty, \\ \infty, & T_\varepsilon^{n-1}x \in I_\infty, \end{cases}$$

and  $h_n$  defined similarly. By (6) and (7) one finds that

$$\begin{aligned}
 x &= \frac{h_1 + \varepsilon_1}{s_1} + \frac{(-1)^{\varepsilon_1}}{s_1}T_\varepsilon x \\
 &= \frac{h_1 + \varepsilon_1}{s_1} + \frac{(-1)^{\varepsilon_1}}{s_1} \left( \frac{h_2 + \varepsilon_2}{s_2} + \frac{(-1)^{\varepsilon_2}}{s_2}T_\varepsilon^2 x \right) = \dots \\
 &= \frac{h_1 + \varepsilon_1}{s_1} + (-1)^{\varepsilon_1} \frac{h_2 + \varepsilon_2}{s_1s_2} + (-1)^{\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2} \frac{h_3 + \varepsilon_3}{s_1s_2s_3} + \dots \\
 &\quad + (-1)^{\varepsilon_1 + \dots + \varepsilon_{n-1}} \frac{h_n + \varepsilon_n}{s_1 \dots s_n} + \frac{(-1)^{\varepsilon_1 + \dots + \varepsilon_n}}{s_1 \dots s_n}T_\varepsilon^n x.
 \end{aligned}$$

For each  $k \geq 1$  and  $1 \leq i \leq k$  one has  $s_i \geq 1/L > 1$ , where  $L = \max_{n \in \mathcal{D}} L_n$ , and  $|T_\varepsilon^k x| \leq 1$ . Thus,

$$(9) \quad \left| x - \frac{p_k}{q_k} \right| = \frac{T_\varepsilon^k x}{s_1 \dots s_k} \leq L^k \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty,$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 (10) \quad \frac{p_k}{q_k} &= \frac{h_1 + \varepsilon_1}{s_1} + (-1)^{\varepsilon_1} \frac{h_2 + \varepsilon_2}{s_1s_2} + (-1)^{\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2} \frac{h_3 + \varepsilon_3}{s_1s_2s_3} + \dots \\
 &\quad + (-1)^{\varepsilon_1 + \dots + \varepsilon_{k-1}} \frac{h_k + \varepsilon_k}{s_1 \dots s_k}
 \end{aligned}$$

and  $q_k = s_1 \dots s_k$ . In general  $p_k$  and  $q_k$  need not be relatively prime (see also Section 3.1). Let  $\varepsilon_0 := 0$ , then for each  $x \in [0, 1]$  one has

$$(*) \quad x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{\varepsilon_0 + \dots + \varepsilon_{n-1}} \frac{h_n + \varepsilon_n}{s_1 \dots s_n}.$$

For each  $x \in [0, 1]$  we define its sequence of *digits*  $a_n = a_n(x)$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , as follows:

$$a_n = k \Leftrightarrow T_\varepsilon^{n-1} x \in I_k,$$

for  $k \in \mathcal{D} \cup \{\infty\}$ . The expansion (\*) is called the  $(I, \varepsilon)$ -generalized Lüroth series (GLS) of  $x$ . Notice that for each  $x \in [0, 1] \setminus I_\infty$  one finds a unique expansion (\*), and therefore a unique sequence of digits  $a_n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ . Conversely, each sequence of digits  $a_n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , with  $a_n \in \mathcal{D} \cup \{\infty\}$  and  $a_1 \neq \infty$  defines a unique series expansion (\*). We denote (\*) by

$$(11) \quad x = \left[ \begin{array}{c} \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3, \dots, \varepsilon_n, \dots \\ a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots \end{array} \right].$$

Since  $\varepsilon_n = \varepsilon(a_n)$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , we might as well replace (11) by

$$(12) \quad x = [a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots]$$

No new information is obtained using (11) instead of (12). However, we will see in Section 3 that it is sometimes advantageous to use (11) instead of (12).

Finite truncations of the series in (\*) yield the sequence  $p_n/q_n$  of  $(I, \varepsilon)$ -GLS convergents of  $x$ . We denote  $p_n/q_n$  by

$$\frac{p_n}{q_n} = \left[ \begin{array}{c} \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3, \dots, \varepsilon_n \\ a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n \end{array} \right].$$

EXAMPLES. 1. Let  $I_n := (1/n, 1/(n-1)]$ ,  $n \geq 2$ . In case  $\varepsilon_n = 0$  for  $n \geq 2$ , one gets the classical Lüroth series, while  $\varepsilon_n = 1$  for  $n \geq 2$  yields the alternating Lüroth series.

2. For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n \geq 2$ , put  $I_i = (i/n, (i+1)/n]$ ,  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ . In case  $\varepsilon(i) = 0$  for all  $i$ ,  $T_\varepsilon$  yields the  $n$ -adic expansion. In case  $n = 2$  and  $\varepsilon(0) = 0$ ,  $\varepsilon(1) = 1$ ,  $T_\varepsilon$  is the tent map.

See also Sections 3.2 and 3.3 for more intricate examples.

**2. Ergodic properties of generalized Lüroth series.** Let  $\Omega$  be as in Section 1.2,  $\mathcal{B}$  be the collection of Borel subsets of  $\Omega$ , and  $\lambda$  be the Lebesgue measure on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{B})$ . Let  $(I, \varepsilon)$  be as in the previous section, viz.  $I = (I_n)_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  satisfies (4) and (5), while  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon(n))_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  is a sequence of zeroes and ones. We have the following lemma.

LEMMA 1. *The stochastic variables  $a_1(x), a_2(x), \dots$ , corresponding to the  $(I, \varepsilon)$ -GLS operator  $T_\varepsilon$  from (8) are i.i.d. with respect to the Lebesgue*

measure  $\lambda$ , and

$$\lambda(a_n = k) = L_k \quad \text{for } k \in \mathcal{D} \cup \{\infty\}.$$

Furthermore,  $(I_n)_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  is a generating partition.

PROOF. Define for  $(k_1, \dots, k_n) \in \mathcal{D}^n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , the so-called *fundamental intervals of order  $n$*  by

$$(13) \quad \Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon := \{x \in \Omega : a_1(x) = k_1, \dots, a_n(x) = k_n\}.$$

Let  $p_n/q_n \in \mathbb{Q}$  be defined as in (10) (and recall that the  $s_i$ 's,  $h_i$ 's and  $\varepsilon_i$ 's are uniquely determined by  $k_1, \dots, k_n$ ), then obviously one has

$$x \in \Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \exists y \in [0, 1] \text{ such that } x = \frac{p_n}{q_n} + \frac{(-1)^{\varepsilon_1 + \dots + \varepsilon_n}}{s_1 \dots s_n} y.$$

Thus  $\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon$  is an interval with  $p_n/q_n$  as one endpoint, and having length  $1/(s_1 \dots s_n)$ . Therefore,

$$\lambda(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon) = \lambda(a_1 = k_1, \dots, a_n = k_n) = \frac{1}{s_1 \dots s_n}.$$

Since

$$s_i = \frac{1}{r_{k_i} - l_{k_i}} = \frac{1}{L_{k_i}}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

one finds

$$\lambda(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon) = \lambda(a_1 = k_1, \dots, a_n = k_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n L_{k_i}.$$

The independence of the  $a_n(x)$ 's and the equality  $\lambda(a_n = k) = L_k$  for  $k \in \mathcal{D} \cup \{\infty\}$  now easily follow from

$$\sum_{k_i \in \mathcal{D}} L_{k_i} = 1 \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1 \text{ and all } 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

That  $(I_n)_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  is a generating partition is immediate from (9). ■

THEOREM 1. *The  $(I, \varepsilon)$ -GLS operator  $T_\varepsilon$  from (8) is measure preserving with respect to Lebesgue measure and Bernoulli.*

PROOF. For any  $k_1, \dots, k_n \in \mathcal{D}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ ,

$$T_\varepsilon^{-1} \Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon = \bigcup_{k \in \mathcal{D}} \Delta_{kk_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon$$

is a disjoint union of fundamental intervals of order  $n + 1$ , so that

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(T_\varepsilon^{-1} \Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon) &= \sum_{k \in \mathcal{D}} \lambda(\Delta_{kk_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon) = L_{k_1} \dots L_{k_n} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{D}} L_k \\ &= L_{k_1} \dots L_{k_n} = \lambda(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Since the collection  $\{\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon : n \geq 1, k_i \in \mathcal{D}\}$  generates  $\mathcal{B}$ , it follows from [W, Theorem 1.1, p. 20] that  $\lambda$  is  $T_\varepsilon$ -invariant. From Lemma 1, viz.

$$\lambda(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda(\Delta_{k_i}^\varepsilon),$$

we conclude that  $([0, 1], \mathcal{B}, \lambda, T_\varepsilon)$  is a Bernoulli system. ■

*Remarks.* 1. The Bernoullicity of the Lüroth operator  $T_L$  was already noticed by P. Liardet in [Li].

2. From the fact that  $T_\varepsilon$  is Bernoulli, and therefore ergodic, one can draw a great number of easy consequences, using Birkhoff’s Ergodic Theorem. See also [JdV] and [K<sup>3</sup>2]. We mention here some results:

For almost every  $x$  the sequence  $(T_\varepsilon^n x)_{n=0}^\infty$  is uniformly distributed over  $[0, 1]$ . Furthermore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} T_\varepsilon^k x = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} T_\varepsilon^k x \right)^{1/n} = \frac{1}{e} \text{ a.e.}$$

and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_1 \dots a_n)^{1/n} = e^c \text{ a.e.,}$$

where  $c = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{D}} L_k \log k$  <sup>(3)</sup>.

Define the map  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  by

$$(14) \quad \mathcal{T}_\varepsilon(x, y) := \left( T_\varepsilon(x), \frac{h(x) + \varepsilon(x)}{s(x)} + \frac{(-1)^{\varepsilon(x)}}{s(x)} y \right).$$

Notice that for

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3, \dots, \varepsilon_n, \dots \\ a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

one has

$$\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon(x, 0) = \left( \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3, \dots, \varepsilon_n, \dots \\ a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ a_1 \end{bmatrix} \right),$$

where

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ a_1 \end{bmatrix} = (-1)^{\varepsilon_0} \frac{h_1 + s_1}{s_1} = \frac{h_1 + s_1}{s_1}.$$

Now

$$\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^2(x, 0) = \left( \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_3, \varepsilon_4, \dots, \varepsilon_n, \dots \\ a_3, a_4, \dots, a_n, \dots \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_1 \\ a_2, a_1 \end{bmatrix} \right),$$

where

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_1 \\ a_2, a_1 \end{bmatrix} = (-1)^{\varepsilon_0} \frac{h_2 + \varepsilon_2}{s_2} + (-1)^{\varepsilon_0 + \varepsilon_2} \frac{h_1 + \varepsilon_1}{s_1 s_2} = \frac{h_2 + \varepsilon_2}{s_2} + (-1)^{\varepsilon_2} \frac{h_1 + \varepsilon_1}{s_1 s_2}.$$

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<sup>(3)</sup> In case  $0 \in \mathcal{D}$  we put  $e^c := 0$ .

Putting  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^n(x, 0) =: (T_n, V_n)$ ,  $n \geq 0$ , where

$$T_n = T_\varepsilon^n x = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{n+1}, \varepsilon_{n+2}, \dots \\ a_{n+1}, a_{n+2}, \dots \end{bmatrix}, \quad n \geq 0,$$

and

$$V_n = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_{n-1}, \dots, \varepsilon_1 \\ a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad n \geq 1, \quad V_0 := 0,$$

we see inductively that

$$V_{n+1} = \frac{h_{n+1} + \varepsilon_{n+1}}{s_{n+1}} + \frac{(-1)^{\varepsilon_{n+1}}}{s_{n+1}} V_n.$$

As in the case of the continued fraction we will call  $T_n = T_\varepsilon^n x$  the *future* of  $x$  at time  $n$ , while  $V_n = V_n(x)$  is the *past* of  $x$  at time  $n$  (see also [K]). We have the following theorem.

**THEOREM 2.** *The system  $([0, 1] \times [0, 1], \mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{B}, \lambda \times \lambda, \mathcal{T}_\varepsilon)$  is the natural extension of  $([0, 1], \mathcal{B}, \lambda, T_\varepsilon)$ . Furthermore,  $([0, 1] \times [0, 1], \mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{B}, \lambda \times \lambda, \mathcal{T}_\varepsilon)$  is Bernoulli.*

**Proof.** For any two vectors  $(k_1, \dots, k_n) \in \mathcal{D}^n$ ,  $(l_1, \dots, l_m) \in \mathcal{D}^m$  one has

$$\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^\varepsilon = \mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^m(\Delta_{l_m \dots l_1 k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon \times [0, 1]).$$

Since  $\{\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^\varepsilon : k_i, l_j \in \mathcal{D}, 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m, n, m \geq 1\}$  generates  $\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{B}$ , it follows that

$$\bigvee_{m \geq 0} \mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^m(\mathcal{B} \times [0, 1]) = \mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{B}.$$

Now, for any  $\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^\varepsilon$  one has

$$\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^{-1}(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^\varepsilon) = \Delta_{l_1 k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon \times \Delta_{l_2 \dots l_m}^\varepsilon.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda \times \lambda(\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^{-1}(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^\varepsilon)) &= \lambda(\Delta_{l_1 k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon) \lambda(\Delta_{l_2 \dots l_m}^\varepsilon) \\ &= \lambda(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon) \lambda(\Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^\varepsilon) \\ &= \lambda \times \lambda(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^\varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Since cylinders of the form  $\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^\varepsilon \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^\varepsilon$  generate the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{B}$ , it follows that  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon$  is measure preserving with respect to Lebesgue measure. Thus,  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon$  is the natural extension of  $T_\varepsilon$  (see [R] for details). Since  $T_\varepsilon$  is Bernoulli it is an exercise to show that  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon$  is Bernoulli (see also [B]). ■

**COROLLARY 1.** *For almost all  $x$  the two-dimensional sequence*

$$(15) \quad \mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^n(x, 0) = (T_n, V_n), \quad n \geq 0,$$

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



Proof. Denote by  $\mathbf{A}$  that subset of  $[0, 1]$  for which the sequence  $(T_n, V_n)_{n=0}^\infty$  is *not* uniformly distributed over  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ . It follows from Lemma 1 and the definition of  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon$  that for all  $x, y, y^* \in [0, 1]$  one has

$$|\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^n(x, y) - \mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^n(x, y^*)| < L^n, \quad n \geq 0,$$

and we see that  $(\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^n(x, y) - \mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^n(x, y^*))_{n=0}^\infty$  is a null-sequence. Hence, if  $\mathcal{A} := \mathbf{A} \times [0, 1]$ , then for every pair  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{A}$  the sequence  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon^n(x, y)$ ,  $n \geq 0$ , is not uniformly distributed over  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ . Now, if  $\mathbf{A}$  had, as a subset of  $[0, 1]$ , positive Lebesgue measure, so would  $\mathcal{A}$  as a subset of  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ . However, this is impossible in view of Theorem 2. ■

The partition  $\xi = \{I_k \times [0, 1]\}_{k \in \mathcal{D}}$  is a generator for  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon$ , which implies that the entropy  $h(\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon)$  of  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon$  equals  $h(\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon, \xi)$  (see also [W], p. 96). Therefore,

$$h(\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon) = - \sum_{k \in \mathcal{D}} L_k \log L_k.$$

Now let  $(I_k)_{k \in \mathcal{D}}$  and  $(I_k^*)_{k \in \mathcal{D}}$  be two partitions of  $[0, 1]$  satisfying (4) and (5), and suppose that  $L_k = L_k^*$  for  $k \in \mathcal{D}$ . Furthermore, let  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon_k)_{k \in \mathcal{D}}$  and  $\varepsilon^* = (\varepsilon_k^*)_{k \in \mathcal{D}}$  be two arbitrary sequences of zeroes and ones. It follows at once from Ornstein’s Isomorphism Theorem (see [W], p. 105) and Theorem 2 that  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon$  and  $\mathcal{T}_{\varepsilon^*}$  are metrically isomorphic. We conclude this section with the following theorem, which gives a concrete isomorphism.

**THEOREM 3.** *Let  $(I_k)_{k \in \mathcal{D}}$  and  $(I_k^*)_{k \in \mathcal{D}}$  be two partitions of  $[0, 1]$ , satisfying (4) and (5). Suppose that  $L_k = L_k^*$  for  $k \in \mathcal{D}$ . Furthermore, let  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon_k)_{k \in \mathcal{D}}$  and  $\varepsilon^* = (\varepsilon_k^*)_{k \in \mathcal{D}}$  be two sequences of zeroes and ones. Let  $\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon$  and  $\mathcal{T}_{\varepsilon^*}$  be defined as in (8). Finally, define  $\Psi : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  by*

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi \left( \left[ \begin{array}{c} \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \dots \\ a_1, a_2, \dots \end{array} \right], \left[ \begin{array}{c} \varepsilon_0, \varepsilon_{-1}, \dots \\ a_0, a_{-1}, \dots \end{array} \right] \right) \\ := \left( \left[ \begin{array}{c} \varepsilon^*(a_1), \varepsilon^*(a_2), \dots \\ a_1, a_2, \dots \end{array} \right], \left[ \begin{array}{c} \varepsilon^*(a_0), \varepsilon^*(a_{-1}), \dots \\ a_0, a_{-1}, \dots \end{array} \right] \right). \end{aligned}$$

Then  $\Psi$  is a measure preserving isomorphism.

Proof. Since almost every  $x \in [0, 1]$  has unique  $(I, \varepsilon)$ -,  $(I^*, \varepsilon^*)$ -GLS expansions, it follows that  $\Psi$  is injective. Now, for any cylinder  $\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^{\varepsilon^*} \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^{\varepsilon}$ ,

$$\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^{\varepsilon} \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^{\varepsilon} = \Psi^{-1}(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^{\varepsilon^*} \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^{\varepsilon^*})$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\lambda \times \lambda)(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^{\varepsilon^*} \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^{\varepsilon^*}) &= L_{k_1}^* \dots L_{k_n}^* L_{l_1}^* \dots L_{l_m}^* \\
 &= L_{k_1} \dots L_{k_n} L_{l_1} \dots L_{l_m} \\
 &= (\lambda \times \lambda)(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^{\varepsilon} \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^{\varepsilon}) \\
 &= (\lambda \times \lambda)\Psi^{-1}(\Delta_{k_1 \dots k_n}^{\varepsilon^*} \times \Delta_{l_1 \dots l_m}^{\varepsilon^*}).
 \end{aligned}$$

This shows that  $\Psi$  is measurable and measure preserving.

Finally, let  $(x, y) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  with

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \dots \\ a_1, a_2, \dots \end{bmatrix}, \quad y = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_0, \varepsilon_{-1}, \dots \\ a_0, a_{-1}, \dots \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Psi \mathcal{T}_{\varepsilon}(x, y) &= \left( \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon^*(a_2), \varepsilon^*(a_3), \dots \\ a_2, a_3, \dots \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon^*(a_1), \varepsilon^*(a_0), \varepsilon^*(a_{-1}), \dots \\ a_1, a_0, a_{-1}, \dots \end{bmatrix} \right) \\
 &= \mathcal{T}_{\varepsilon^*} \Psi(x, y),
 \end{aligned}$$

therefore  $\Psi$  is a measure preserving isomorphism. ■

### 3. Applications and examples

**3.1. Approximation coefficients and their distribution.** As before let  $I = (I_n)_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  be a partition of  $[0,1]$  which satisfies (4) and (5), and let  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon(n))_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  be a sequence of zeroes and ones. Putting  $q_k = s_1 \dots s_k$ , it follows from (9) and Corollary 1 that for a.e.  $x$  the *approximation coefficients*  $\theta_n$ ,  $n \geq 0$ , defined by

$$\theta_{\varepsilon, n} = \theta_{\varepsilon, n}(x) := q_n \left| x - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right|, \quad n \geq 0,$$

have the same distribution as  $T_{\varepsilon}^n x$ ,  $n \geq 0$ . Viz., for a.e.  $x$  the sequence  $(\theta_{\varepsilon, n})_n$  is uniformly distributed on  $[0,1]$ .

In fact, for many partitions  $(I_n)_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  more information on the distribution of the  $\theta_n$ 's can be obtained by a more careful definition of  $q_n$ . As an example we will treat here the case of the classical Lüroth series, and all other GLS expansions with the same partition  $(I_n)_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  (see also the examples at the end of Section 1.2).

In this case

$$s_n = s(T_{\varepsilon}^{n-1} x) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{a_n - 1} - \frac{1}{a_n}} = a_n(a_n - 1), \quad h_n = a_n - 1,$$

and

$$\frac{h_n + \varepsilon_n}{s_1 \dots s_n} = \frac{a_n - 1 + \varepsilon_n}{a_1(a_1 - 1)a_2(a_2 - 1) \dots a_n(a_n - 1)} = \frac{1}{a_1(a_1 - 1) \dots (a_n - \varepsilon_n)}.$$

Therefore it is more appropriate to put

$$q_1 = a_1 - \varepsilon_1, \quad q_n = a_1(a_1 - 1)a_2(a_2 - 1) \dots a_{n-1}(a_{n-1} - 1)(a_n - \varepsilon_n), \quad n \geq 2,$$

and we see

$$(16) \quad \theta_n(x) = \frac{a_n - \varepsilon_n}{a_n(a_n - 1)} T_\varepsilon^n x, \quad n \geq 1.$$

We have the following theorem.

**THEOREM 4.** *Let  $(I_n)_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  be the Lüroth partition, that is,  $I_n := (1/n, 1/(n - 1)]$  for  $n \geq 2$ , and let  $\varepsilon(n) \in \{0, 1\}$  for  $n \geq 2$ . Then for a.e.  $x$  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  $F_\varepsilon(z)$ , where

$$F_\varepsilon(z) := \sum_{k=2}^{\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1 - \varepsilon(\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1)} \frac{z}{k - \varepsilon(k)} + \frac{1}{\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1 - \varepsilon(\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1)}, \quad 0 < z \leq 1.$$

**Proof.** Let  $z \in (0, 1]$ . From (15) and (16) it follows that

$$(17) \quad \theta_n < z \Leftrightarrow (T_n, V_n) \in \Xi(z) = \bigcup_{k=2}^{\infty} \Xi_k(z),$$

where

$$\Xi_k(z) := \left( \left[ 0, \frac{k(k-1)}{k - \varepsilon(k)} z \right] \cap [0, 1] \right) \times \Delta_k, \quad k \geq 2.$$

For  $k \geq 2$  we have the following two cases (of which the first one might be void).

(A)  $2 \leq k \leq \lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1 - \varepsilon(\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1)$ . In this case

$$\Xi_k(z) = \left[ 0, \frac{k(k-1)}{k - \varepsilon(k)} z \right] \times \Delta_k.$$

(B)  $k > \lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1 - \varepsilon(\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1)$ . In this case  $\Xi_k(z) = [0, 1] \times \Delta_k$ .

From (A) and (B) one finds, that

$$\begin{aligned} & (\lambda \times \lambda)(\Xi(z)) \\ &= \sum_{k=2}^{\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1 - \varepsilon(\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1)} (\lambda \times \lambda) \left( \left[ 0, \frac{k(k-1)}{k - \varepsilon(k)} z \right] \times \Delta_k \right) \\ & \quad + \frac{1}{\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1 - \varepsilon(\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1)} \\ &= \sum_{k=2}^{\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1 - \varepsilon(\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1)} \frac{z}{k - \varepsilon(k)} + \frac{1}{\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1 - \varepsilon(\lfloor 1/z \rfloor + 1)}. \end{aligned}$$

The theorem at once follows from Corollary 1. ■

Remarks. 1. Although the map  $x \rightarrow (1/x) \bmod 1$  generating the continued fraction is not piecewise linear, which leads to complications in estimations, a similar result as in Theorem 4 was obtained for continued fractions (see also [BJW]).

2. If  $\varepsilon(n) = 0$ ,  $n \geq 2$  (the classical Lüroth case) <sup>(4)</sup>, the distribution function  $F_\varepsilon$  reduces to

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

Furthermore

$$F_A(z) = \sum_{k=2}^{\lfloor 1/z \rfloor} \frac{z}{k-1} + \frac{1}{\lfloor 1/z \rfloor}, \quad 0 < z \leq 1;$$

see also Figure 2. Notice that  $F_A \leq F_\varepsilon \leq F_L$ .

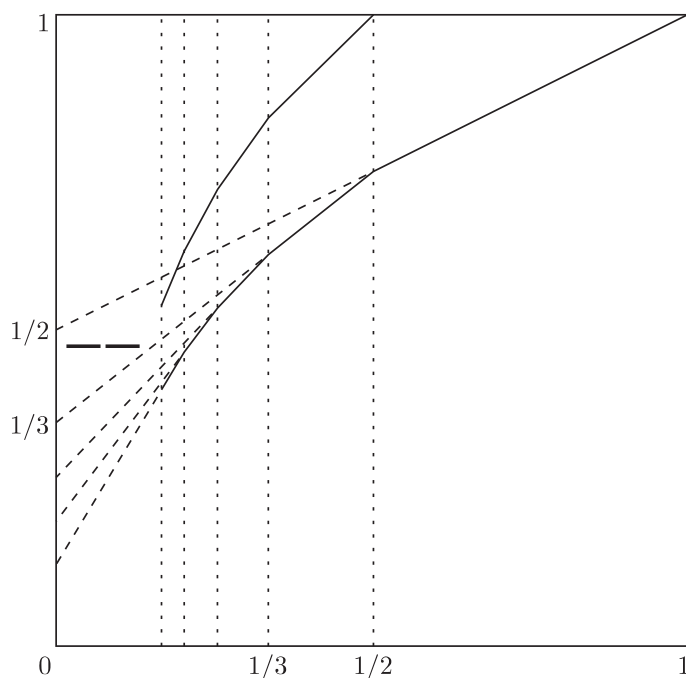


Fig. 2

We have the following corollary.

<sup>(4)</sup> From now on the classical (resp. the alternating) Lüroth case will be indicated by a subscript L (resp. A).

COROLLARY 2. Let  $(I_n)_{n \in \mathcal{D}}$  be the Lüroth partition and let  $\varepsilon(n) \in \{0, 1\}$  for  $n \geq 2$ . Then there exists a constant  $M_\varepsilon$  such that for a.e.  $x$ ,

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_{\varepsilon,i} = M_\varepsilon.$$

Moreover,  $M_\varepsilon$  can be calculated explicitly, and  $M_A \leq M_\varepsilon \leq M_L$ , where  $M_A = 1 - \frac{1}{2}\zeta(2) = 0.177533\dots$  and  $M_L = \frac{1}{2}(\zeta(2) - 1) = 0.322467\dots$

PROOF. By definition  $M_\varepsilon$  is the first moment of  $F_\varepsilon$  and thus  $M_\varepsilon = \int_0^1 (1 - F_\varepsilon(x)) dx$ . ■

REMARKS. 1. From Corollary 2 it follows that among all  $(I, \varepsilon)$ -GLS expansions with  $I$  the Lüroth partition the alternating Lüroth series has the best approximation properties.

2. The presentation of Corollary 2 suggests that by choosing  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon(n))_{n \geq 2}$  appropriately, each value in the interval  $[M_A, M_L] = [0.177533\dots, 0.322467\dots]$  might be attained. This is certainly incorrect, as the following example shows. Let  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon(n))_{n \geq 2}$  be given by  $\varepsilon(2) = 1$  and  $\varepsilon(n) = 0$  for  $n \geq 3$ , and let  $\varepsilon^* = (\varepsilon^*(n))_{n \geq 2}$  be given by  $\varepsilon^*(2) = 0$  and  $\varepsilon^*(n) = 1$  for  $n \geq 3$ . A simple calculation yields that  $M_\varepsilon = M_L - 1/8 = 0.197467\dots$  and  $M_{\varepsilon^*} = M_A + 1/8 = 0.302533\dots$ ; we thus see that  $M_\varepsilon < M_{\varepsilon^*}$  and from this one can easily deduce that there does not exist a sequence  $\varepsilon^b = (\varepsilon^b(n))_{n \geq 2}$  of zeroes and ones for which  $M_{\varepsilon^b} \in [M_\varepsilon, M_{\varepsilon^*}]$ . Some further investigations even suggest that the set

$$\Upsilon := \{M_\varepsilon : \varepsilon(n) \in \{0, 1\} \text{ for } n \geq 2\}$$

is a Cantor set.

3.2. *Jump transformations.* Let  $T_\varepsilon$  be a  $(I, \varepsilon)$ -GLS operator with digit set  $\mathcal{D}$ , and let  $a \in \mathcal{D}$ . For  $x \in \Omega$ , put

$$n_a = n_a(x) := \min_{n \geq 1} \{a_n(x) : a_n(x) = a\}$$

(and  $n_a = \infty$  in case  $a_n(x) \neq a$  for all  $n \geq 1$ ). Define the *jump transformation*  $J_a : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  by

$$(18) \quad J_a x := \begin{cases} T_\varepsilon^{n_a} x, & n_a \in \mathbb{N}, \\ 0, & n_a = \infty. \end{cases}$$

Jump transformations were first studied by H. Jager [J] for the particular case that  $T_\varepsilon x = 10x \pmod{1}$ . Jager showed that such jump transformations are strongly mixing. Here, in the more general setting, we have a stronger result.

THEOREM 5. Let  $T_\varepsilon$  be an  $(I, \varepsilon)$ -GLS operator with digit set  $\mathcal{D}$ . For each  $a \in \mathcal{D}$  the corresponding jump transformation  $J_a$ , as defined in (18), is an

$(I^*, \varepsilon^*)$ -GLS operator, with

$$I^* = \{\Delta_{a_1 \dots a_n} : n \geq 1, a_n = a \text{ and } a_i \neq a \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n - 1\}$$

and for each  $\Delta_{a_1 \dots a_n} \in I^*$  the corresponding value of  $\varepsilon$  is given by

$$\varepsilon^*(\Delta_{a_1 \dots a_n}) = \varepsilon(a_1) + \dots + \varepsilon(a_n) \pmod{2}.$$

**3.3.  $\beta$ -expansions and pseudo golden mean numbers.** For an irrational number  $\beta > 1$  the  $\beta$ -transformation  $T_\beta : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is defined by

$$T_\beta x = \beta x \pmod{1}$$

(see also [FS] for further references). Clearly,  $\beta$ -transformations do not belong to the class of GLS-transformations. However, in some cases there exists an intimate relation between both types of transformations, as the following example shows.

Let  $\beta > 1$  be the positive root of the polynomial  $X^m - X^{m-1} - \dots - X - 1$ , where <sup>(5)</sup>  $m \geq 2$ . Due to C. Frougny and B. Solomyak [FS] we know that such  $\beta$ 's are Pisot numbers and that the  $\beta$ -expansion  $d(1, \beta)$  is finite, and equals

$$1 = \frac{1}{\beta} + \frac{1}{\beta^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{\beta^m}.$$

Notice that  $T_\beta^i 1 = \beta^{-1} + \dots + \beta^{-(m-i)}$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq m - 1$ , and  $T_\beta^i 1 = 0$  for  $i \geq m$ . Furthermore, let

$$X := \bigcup_{k=0}^{m-1} (T_\beta^{m-k} 1, T_\beta^{m-k-1} 1] \times [0, T_\beta^k 1]$$

(see also Figure 3 for  $m = 4$ ), and define  $\mathcal{T}_\beta : X \rightarrow X$  by

$$\mathcal{T}_\beta(x, y) := \left( T_\beta x, \frac{1}{\beta} (\lfloor \beta x \rfloor + y) \right).$$

Let  $Y := [0, 1] \times [0, 1/\beta]$  and  $\mathcal{W} : Y \rightarrow Y$  the corresponding induced transformation under  $\mathcal{T}_\beta$ , that is

$$\mathcal{W}(x, y) = \mathcal{T}_\beta^{n(x,y)}(x, y),$$

where  $n(x, y) = \min\{s > 0 : \mathcal{T}_\beta^s(x, y) \in Y\}$ . Clearly one has

$$\mathcal{W}(x, y) = \mathcal{T}_\beta^{k+1}(x, y),$$

where  $k = k(x) \in \{0, 1, \dots, m - 1\}$  is such that  $x \in (T_\beta^{m-k} 1, T_\beta^{m-k-1} 1]$ . Notice that  $\mathcal{W}$  maps rectangles to rectangles; see also Figure 3.

Finally, let  $T_\varepsilon$  be the  $(I, \varepsilon)$ -GLS operator with partition  $I$  given by  $(T_\beta^{m-i} 1, T_\beta^{m-i-1} 1]$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq m - 1$  (see also Figure 3), and  $\varepsilon(n) = 0$  for

---

<sup>(5)</sup> For  $m = 2$  one has  $\beta = (\sqrt{5} + 1)/2$ , which is the golden mean. For  $m \geq 3$  we call these  $\beta$ 's *pseudo golden mean numbers*.

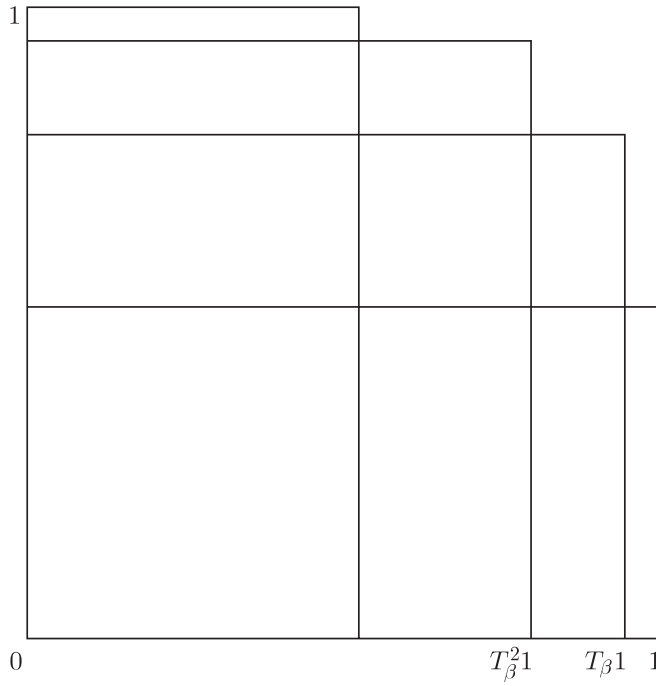


Fig. 3

each digit  $n$ . Notice that for  $x \in (T_\beta^{m-i}1, T_\beta^{m-(i+1)}1]$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq m - 1$ , one has

$$(19) \quad T_\varepsilon x = T_\beta^{i+1}x.$$

We have the following lemma.

LEMMA 2. Let  $\Psi : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow Y$  be defined by  $\Psi(x, y) := (x, y/\beta)$ . Then  $\Psi$  is a measurable bijection which satisfies  $\Psi \circ \mathcal{T}_\varepsilon = \mathcal{W} \circ \Psi$ .

Proof. For  $(x, y) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  let  $i = i(x) \in \{0, 1, \dots, m - 1\}$  be such that  $x \in (T_\beta^{m-i}1, T_\beta^{m-(i+1)}1]$ . From (14) it then follows that

$$\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon(x, y) = \left( T_\varepsilon x, T_\beta^{m-i}1 + \frac{y}{\beta^{i+1}} \right]$$

and therefore

$$(20) \quad \Psi(\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon(x, y)) = \left( T_\varepsilon x, \frac{1}{\beta} T_\beta^{m-i}1 + \frac{y}{\beta^{i+2}} \right].$$

From (19), (20) and the definitions of  $\mathcal{W}$  and  $\Psi$  it now follows that  $\mathcal{W}(\Psi(x, y)) = \Psi(\mathcal{T}_\varepsilon(x, y))$  for  $i = 0$  and in case  $i \neq 0$  one has

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{W}(\Psi(x, y)) &= \mathcal{W}\left(x, \frac{y}{\beta}\right) = \mathcal{T}_\beta^{i+1}\left(x, \frac{y}{\beta}\right) \\
&= \left(T_\beta^{i+1}x, \frac{1}{\beta}\left(0 + \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{\beta}\left(1 + \dots \frac{1}{\beta}\left(1 + \frac{1}{\beta}\left(1 + \frac{y}{\beta}\right)\right)\right)\right)}_{i \text{ times}}\right)\right)\right) \\
&= \left(T_\beta x, \frac{1}{\beta^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{\beta^{i+1}} + \frac{y}{\beta^{i+2}}\right) = \Psi(\mathcal{T}_\beta(x, y)). \blacksquare
\end{aligned}$$

Let  $\varrho$  be the measure on  $Y$  defined by

$$\varrho(A) := (\lambda \times \lambda)(\Psi^{-1}(A)) \quad \text{for each Borel set } A \subset Y.$$

It follows from Lemma 2 and the fact that  $\lambda \times \lambda$  is an invariant measure for  $\mathcal{T}_\beta$  that  $\varrho$  is invariant with respect to  $\mathcal{W}$ , and  $\varrho = \beta(\lambda \times \lambda)$ . Lemma 2 now at once yields the following proposition.

**PROPOSITION.** *The dynamical systems  $([0, 1] \times [0, 1], \lambda \times \lambda, \mathcal{T}_\beta)$  and  $(Y, \varrho, \mathcal{W})$  are isomorphic.*

Using standard techniques (see [CFS], p. 21) one obtains the measure  $\mu$  on  $X$  which is invariant with respect to  $\mathcal{T}_\beta$ , viz.

$$\mu(A) = \frac{\beta}{\frac{1}{\beta} + \frac{2}{\beta^2} + \dots + \frac{m}{\beta^m}} (\lambda \times \lambda)(A)$$

for each Borel set  $A \subset X$ . One also easily shows that  $(X, \mu, \mathcal{T}_\beta)$  forms the natural extension of  $([0, 1], \nu, T_\beta)$ , where  $\nu$  is the invariant measure with respect to  $T_\beta$  [So]. Projecting  $\mu$  on the first coordinate of  $X$  yields  $\nu$ ; one finds that  $\nu$  has density  $h(x)$ , where

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\beta} + \frac{2}{\beta} + \dots + \frac{m}{\beta^m}} \sum_{x < T_\beta^i 1} \frac{1}{\beta^i},$$

as given by W. Parry [Pa].

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