

## ON NORMAL NUMBERS MOD 2

BY

YOUNGHO AHN AND GEON H. CHOE (TAEJON)

It is proved that a real-valued function  $f(x) = \exp(\pi i \chi_I(x))$ , where  $I$  is an interval contained in  $[0, 1)$ , is not of the form  $f(x) = \frac{q(2x)}{q(x)}$  with  $|q(x)| = 1$  a.e. if  $I$  has dyadic endpoints. A relation of this result to the uniform distribution mod 2 is also shown.

**1. Introduction** Let  $(X, \mu)$  be a probability measure space. A measurable transformation  $T : X \rightarrow X$  is said to be *measure preserving* if  $\mu(T^{-1}E) = \mu(E)$  for every measurable subset  $E$ . A measure preserving transformation  $T$  on  $X$  is called *ergodic* if  $f(Tx) = f(x)$  holds only for constant functions  $f$  on  $X$ . Throughout the paper all set equalities, set inclusions and function equalities are understood modulo measure zero sets, and all subsets are measurable unless otherwise stated. For example, we say that  $I$  is an *interval* if the Lebesgue measure of  $I \Delta [a, b]$  equals zero for some  $a, b$ , where  $\Delta$  denotes symmetric difference.

Let  $\chi_E$  be the characteristic function of a set  $E$  and consider the behavior of the sequence  $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \chi_E(T^k x)$  which counts the number of times the points  $T^k x$  visit  $E$ . The Birkhoff Ergodic Theorem applied to the ergodic transformation  $T : x \mapsto \{2x\}$  on  $[0, 1)$ , where  $\{t\}$  is the fractional part of  $t$ , gives the classical Borel Theorem on normal numbers:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \chi_{[1/2, 1)}(T^k x) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

This implies that a.e.  $x$  is normal, i.e., the relative frequency of the digit 1 in the binary expansion of  $x$  is  $1/2$  (see [7]).

In this paper we are interested in the uniform distribution of the sequence  $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$  defined by

---

1991 *Mathematics Subject Classification*: 11K06, 11K16, 11K38.

*Key words and phrases*: coboundary, uniform distribution, normal number, metric density.

Research supported by GARC-SRC and CAM-KAIST.

$$y_n(x) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \chi_E(T^k x) \pmod{2},$$

where  $T : x \mapsto \{2x\}$ . When  $E = [1/2, 1)$  it is shown that  $\{y_n(x)\}$  is evenly distributed in  $L^2$ -sense [1]. If  $\{y_n(x)\}$  is evenly distributed for a fixed set  $E$ , that is, the limit of  $N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N y_n$  exists and equals  $1/2$ , then we call  $x$  a *normal number mod 2* with respect to  $E$ . Contrary to our intuition, the limit might not exist and even when it exists it may not be equal to  $1/2$ . This type of problem was first studied by Veech [6]. He considered the case when the transformations are given by irrational rotations on the unit circle, and obtained results which showed that the length of the interval  $E$  and the rotation angle  $\theta$  are closely related. For example, he proved that when the irrational number  $\theta$  has bounded partial quotients in its continued fraction expansion, then the sequence  $\{y_n\}$  is evenly distributed if the length of the interval is not an integral multiple of  $\theta$  modulo 1. For a related result, see [2].

We investigate the problem from the viewpoint of spectral theory. Let  $(X, \mu)$  be a probability space and  $T$  an ergodic transformation on  $X$  which is not necessarily invertible. Consider the behavior of the sequence  $2y_n(x) - 1 = \exp(\pi i y_n)$ , and check whether the limit is zero in a suitable sense. Define an isometry  $U$  on  $L^2(X)$  by

$$(Uf)(x) = \exp(\pi i \chi_E(x)) f(Tx).$$

Then for  $n \geq 1$  and the constant function 1,

$$(U^n 1)(x) = \exp\left(\pi i \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \chi_E(T^k x)\right) = \exp(\pi i y_n(x)),$$

and the problem is to study the existence of

$$(*) \quad \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (U^n 1)(x).$$

Thus we ask whether the limit of (\*) equals 0. By the von Neumann Mean Ergodic Theorem, the  $L^2$ -limit of  $N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N U^n f$  exists and equals  $Pf$ , where  $P$  is the orthogonal projection onto the  $U$ -invariant subspace.

We briefly summarize the related results of [1]. Recall that a function  $f(x)$  is called a *coboundary* if  $f(x) = \overline{q(x)}q(Tx)$  with  $|q(x)| = 1$  a.e. on  $X$ . Let  $\mathcal{M} = \{h \in L^2(X) : Uh = h\}$ . Then the dimension of  $\mathcal{M}$  is 0 or 1. If  $\dim \mathcal{M} = 0$ , then  $N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N U^n 1 \rightarrow 0$  in  $L^2$ . If  $\dim \mathcal{M} = 1$ , then (i)  $\exp(\pi i \chi_E)$  is a coboundary, (ii) there exists  $q$  such that  $q(x) = \exp(\pi i \chi_F(x))$  for some  $F$ ,  $\exp(\pi i \chi_E(x)) = q(x)q(Tx)$ ,  $E = F \Delta T^{-1}F = F^c \Delta T^{-1}F^c$ , and (iii)  $N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N U^n 1 \rightarrow Cq$  in  $L^2$ , where  $C = \int_X q(x) d\mu$ . In fact, the convergence is better than  $L^2$  since the Birkhoff Ergodic Theorem implies

that at a.e.  $x \in X$ ,

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N U^n 1 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N q(x)q(T^n x) = q(x) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N q(T^n x) \rightarrow q(x) \int_X q(y) d\mu(y).$$

Hence the convergence is pointwise, which was not indicated in [1].

Suppose  $\lambda q(2x)q(x) = \pm 1$  for some  $|q| = 1$ . Then  $1 = \lambda^2 q^2(2x)q^2(x)$  and  $\lambda^2 q^2(x) = q^2(2x)$ . Since 1 is the only eigenvalue of  $x \mapsto \{2x\}$ , we see that  $\lambda^2 = 1$  and  $q^2$  is constant. Thus  $\lambda = \pm 1$ .

Let  $F$  be a Lebesgue measurable subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $m$  be the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ . For a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  the *metric density* of  $F$  at  $x$  is defined to be

$$d_F(x) \equiv \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{m(F \cap (x - r, x + r))}{2r}$$

provided that this limit exists. The metric density of  $F$  equals 1 and 0 at a.e. point of  $F$  and  $F^c$ , respectively. If  $(x - r, x + r)$  and  $2r$  are replaced by  $[x, x+r)$  and  $r$  respectively in the above limit, then we call the corresponding limit  $d_F^+(x)$  the *right metric density* of  $F$  at  $x$ . Recall that for  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ , a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is called a *Lebesgue point* of  $f$  if

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{2r} \int_{(x-r, x+r)} |f(y) - f(x)| dm(y) = 0.$$

We know that for  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  almost every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is a Lebesgue point of  $f$ . If  $x$  is a Lebesgue point of  $\chi_F$ , then  $d_F(x) = d_F^+(x)$ . Similarly the left metric density  $d_F^-(x)$  is defined.

The metric density of  $F$  at a specific point may not be well defined. Then the point is not a Lebesgue point of  $\chi_F$  [3]: Given  $\kappa$  and  $\eta$ ,  $0 \leq \kappa \leq \eta \leq 1$ , there exists  $F \subset \mathbb{R}$  so that the upper and lower limits of  $m(F \cap (-\delta, \delta))/(2\delta)$  are  $\eta$  and  $\kappa$ , respectively, as  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ . Recall that for a point  $x$  a sequence  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  of measurable sets is said to *shrink to  $x$  nicely* if there is a constant  $c > 0$  for which there is a sequence of positive numbers  $r_1, r_2, \dots$  with  $\lim r_n = 0$  such that  $A_n \subset (x - r_n, x + r_n)$  and  $m(A_n) \geq cr_n$ . If a sequence  $\{A_n\}_n$  shrinks to  $x$  nicely and  $x$  is a Lebesgue point of  $\chi_F$ , then

$$d_F(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{m(F \cap A_n)}{m(A_n)}$$

(see p. 140 of [5]).

Throughout the paper a rational number of the form  $\sum_{i=1}^k a_i 2^{-i}$ ,  $a_i \in \{0, 1\}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$  with  $a_k = 1$ , is called a *dyadic number* and denoted by  $[a_1, \dots, a_k]$ . By convention, 0 and 1 are also regarded as dyadic numbers.

Note that for the set  $E = [1/6, 5/6]$ ,  $\exp(\pi i \chi_E)$  is a coboundary since  $E = F \Delta T^{-1}F$  for  $F = [1/3, 2/3]$ . The numbers  $1/6, 5/6$  are not dyadic and the sequence  $N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N y_n(x)$  converges to  $f(x)$ , where  $f(x) = 1/3$  if  $x \in F$  and  $f(x) = 2/3$  if  $x \notin F$  almost everywhere. In this paper, we will show that  $\exp(\pi i \chi_{[a,b]})$  with  $a, b$  dyadic is a coboundary if and only if  $a = 1/4$  and  $b = 3/4$ . The interval  $E = [1/4, 3/4]$  satisfies the condition since  $E = F \Delta T^{-1}F$  for  $F = [0, 1/2]$ . But  $\int \exp(\pi i \chi_F) d\mu = 0$ , so the sequence converges to 0, hence we see that Borel's theorem mod 2 holds for every interval with dyadic endpoints.

**2. Lemmas on metric density.** Note that  $T^{-1}F \cap [0, r] = \frac{1}{2}F \cap [0, r]$  for  $0 < r \leq 1/2$ , and  $T^{-1}F \cap [r, 1] = (\frac{1}{2}F + \frac{1}{2}) \cap [r, 1]$  for  $1/2 \leq r < 1$ .

For a fixed set  $F$  and real  $0 \leq t < 1$  define a continuous function  $h_{F,t}(r)$  on  $(0, 1 - t)$  by

$$h_{F,t}(r) \equiv h_t(r) = \frac{m(F \cap [t, t+r])}{r}.$$

Similarly for real  $0 < t \leq 1$  define a function  $g_{F,t}(r)$  on  $(0, t)$  by

$$g_{F,t}(r) \equiv g_t(r) = \frac{m(F \cap [t-r, t])}{r}.$$

Note that  $d_F^+(t) = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0+} h_{F,t}(r)$  and  $d_F^-(t) = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0+} g_{F,t}(r)$ .

LEMMA 1. *If two dyadic numbers  $0 < a < b < 1$  satisfy  $[a, b] = F \Delta T^{-1}F$  for some set  $F$ , then:*

- (i)  $h_0(r/2^n) = h_0(r)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and all  $0 < r \leq \min\{2a, 1\}$ .
- (ii) If  $d_F^+(0)$  exists, then  $d_F^+(0) = h_0(r) = 0$  or  $1$ .
- (iii) If  $d_F^+(0) = 1$ , then  $F$  contains an interval of the form  $[0, r]$ ,  $r > 0$ , and if  $d_F^+(0) = 0$ , then  $F^c$  contains such an interval.

Proof. (i) Take  $r$  with  $0 < r \leq \min\{2a, 1\}$ . Since  $(F \Delta T^{-1}F) \cap [0, r/2] = \emptyset$ , we have  $F \cap [0, r/2] = T^{-1}F \cap [0, r/2]$ . Thus  $m(F \cap [0, r/2]) = m(T^{-1}F \cap [0, r/2]) = m(\frac{1}{2}F \cap [0, r/2]) = \frac{1}{2}m(F \cap [0, r])$  and  $h_0(r/2) = h_0(r)$ . Hence  $h_0(r/2^n) = h_0(r/2^{n-1}) = \dots = h_0(r)$ .

(ii) Put  $c = \min\{2a, 1\}$ . Since  $h_0(r/2^n) = h_0(r)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 \leq r < c$  by (i), we have

$$d_F^+(0) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0+} \frac{m(F \cap [0, s])}{s} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h_0\left(\frac{r}{2^n}\right) = h_0(r).$$

Assume that  $d_F^+(0) = \alpha$ ,  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . Since for every  $0 \leq r < c$ , there exists a sufficiently small  $\delta(r) > 0$  such that  $0 \leq r + \varepsilon < c$  for all  $0 < \varepsilon < \delta(r)$ , i.e.,

$$\frac{m(F \cap [0, r + \varepsilon])}{r + \varepsilon} = \alpha,$$

we have  $m(F \cap [r, r + \varepsilon]) = m(F \cap [0, r + \varepsilon]) - m(F \cap [0, r]) = \alpha(r + \varepsilon) - \alpha r = \alpha \varepsilon$ . Hence  $m(F \cap [r, r + \varepsilon])/\varepsilon = \alpha$  so  $F$  has right metric density  $\alpha$  at  $r$ , for all  $0 \leq r < c$ . Since  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , this contradicts the fact that almost everywhere the metric density is 0 or 1.

(iii) Assume that  $d_F^+(0) = 1$  and  $F$  does not contain any interval. Then for every  $0 < r \leq \min\{2a, 1\}$ ,

$$h_0(r) = \frac{m(F \cap [0, r])}{r} < 1.$$

But  $h_0(r) = d_F^+(0) = 1$ . This is a contradiction. Thus  $F$  contains an interval of the form  $[0, r]$ ,  $r > 0$ . The other case is similarly proved. ■

REMARK. If  $a, b$  and  $F$  satisfy the conditions of Lemma 1, then similar results also hold for  $d_F^-(1)$  and  $g_1(r)$ :

- (i)  $g_1(r/2^n) = g_1(r)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and all  $0 < r \leq 1 - b/2$ .
- (ii) If  $d_F^-(1)$  exists, then  $d_F^-(1) = g_1(r) = 0$  or 1.
- (iii) If  $d_F^-(1) = 1$ , then  $F$  contains an interval of the form  $[s, 1]$ ,  $s < 1$ , and if  $d_F^-(1) = 1$ , then  $F^c$  contains such an interval.

Hence we investigate the existence of  $d_F^+(0)$  in Lemmas 2 and 3. The existence of  $d_F^-(1)$  is similarly proved.

LEMMA 2. Let  $a = [a_1, \dots, a_p]$ ,  $b = [b_1, \dots, b_q]$  and  $F$  satisfy the conditions of Lemma 1. Put  $r_0 = 1/2^k$ , where  $k = \max\{p, q\}$ . Then for  $t = [c_1, \dots, c_l]$ ,  $h_t(r/2^n) = h_t(r)$  and either  $h_t = h_0$  or  $h_t = 1 - h_0$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0/2^l$ . Hence the right metric density of  $F$  exists at 0 if and only if it exists at every dyadic point  $t$ ; in that case either  $d_F^+(t) = d_F^+(0)$  or  $d_F^+(t) = 1 - d_F^+(0)$ .

PROOF. Step 1. We consider the case of  $l = 1$ . Put  $E = [a, b]$ . Then  $h_0(r) = h_0(r/2^n)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0$  by Lemma 1, and either  $E \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r_0/2] = \emptyset$  or  $E \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r_0/2] = [1/2, 1/2 + r_0/2]$ .

CASE 1. If  $E \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r_0/2] = \emptyset$ , then  $m(E \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r]) = 0$  for  $0 < r \leq r_0/2$ . Since  $E = F \Delta T^{-1}F$ , it follows that  $m(F \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r]) = m(T^{-1}F \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r]) = m(T^{-1}F \cap [0, r]) = \frac{1}{2}m(F \cap [0, 2r])$ . Thus

$$h_{1/2}(r) = h_0(2r) = h_0(r).$$

Furthermore,

$$h_{1/2}(r/2^n) = h_0(r/2^n) = h_0(r) = h_{1/2}(r)$$

for all  $n$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0/2$ .

CASE 2. If  $E \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r_0/2] = [1/2, 1/2 + r_0/2]$ , then  $m(E \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r]) = r$  for  $0 < r \leq r_0/2$ . So  $m(F \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r]) = r - m(T^{-1}F \cap [1/2,$

$1/2 + r]$ ) =  $r - m(T^{-1}F \cap [0, r]) = r - \frac{1}{2}m(F \cap [0, 2r])$ . Thus

$$h_{1/2}(r) = 1 - h_0(2r) = 1 - h_0(r)$$

and

$$h_{1/2}(r/2^n) = 1 - h_0(r/2^n) = 1 - h_0(r) = h_{1/2}(r)$$

for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0/2$ .

Hence

$$h_{1/2}(r/2^n) = h_{1/2}(r) = h_0(r) \quad \text{or} \quad 1 - h_0(r)$$

for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0/2$ .

*Step 2.* By induction assume that if  $s = [s_1, \dots, s_{l-1}]$  then  $h_s(r/2^n) = h_s(r)$  and  $h_s = h_0$  or  $1 - h_0$  for all  $0 < r \leq r_0/2^{l-1}$ .

Let  $t = [c_1, \dots, c_l]$  and  $s = [c_2, \dots, c_l]$ . Then either  $t = [0, c_2, \dots, c_l]$  or  $t = [1, c_2, \dots, c_l]$ . If  $t = [0, c_2, \dots, c_l]$  then  $t = \frac{1}{2}s$ , and if  $t = [1, c_2, \dots, c_l]$  then  $t = \frac{1}{2}s + \frac{1}{2}$ . Note that either  $E \cap [t, t + r_0/2^l] = \emptyset$  or  $E \cap [t, t + r_0/2^l] = [t, t + r_0/2^l]$ .

CASE 1. If  $E \cap [t, t + r_0/2^l] = \emptyset$ , then  $m(E \cap [t, t + r]) = 0$  for  $0 < r \leq r_0/2^l$ . Since  $E = F \Delta T^{-1}F$ , it follows that  $m(F \cap [t, t + r]) = m(T^{-1}F \cap [t, t + r]) = \frac{1}{2}m(F \cap [s, s + 2r])$ . Thus  $h_t(r) = h_s(2r) = h_s(r) = h_0(r)$  or  $1 - h_0(r)$  and  $h_t(r/2^n) = h_s(r/2^n) = h_s(r) = h_t(r)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0/2^l$ .

CASE 2. If  $E \cap [t, t + r_0/2^l] = [t, t + r_0/2^l]$ , then  $m(E \cap [t, t + r]) = r$  for  $0 < r \leq r_0/2^l$ . Since  $m(F \cap [t, t + r]) = r - m(T^{-1}F \cap [t, t + r]) = r - \frac{1}{2}m(F \cap [s, s + 2r])$  we have  $h_t(r) = 1 - h_s(2r) = 1 - h_s(r) = h_0(r)$  or  $1 - h_0(r)$  and  $h_t(r/2^n) = 1 - h_s(r/2^n) = 1 - h_s(r) = h_t(r)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0/2^l$ .

Hence for  $t = [c_1, \dots, c_l]$  we have

$$h_t(r/2^n) = h_t(r) = h_0(r) \quad \text{or} \quad 1 - h_0(r)$$

for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0/2^l$ . From this the second assertion follows. ■

LEMMA 3. *If  $a, b$  and  $F$  satisfy the conditions of Lemma 1, then the right metric density of  $F$  exists at every dyadic point.*

PROOF. By Lemma 2 it is sufficient to show that the right metric density of  $F$  exists at 0. Assume that  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} h_0(r)$  does not exist. Let  $E = [a, b]$  with  $a = [a_1, \dots, a_p]$ ,  $b = [b_1, \dots, b_q]$  and  $r_0$  be as in Lemma 2. From Lemma 2 we see that for  $t = [c_1, \dots, c_l]$ ,  $h_t(r/2^n) = h_t(r) = h_0(r)$  or  $1 - h_0(r)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0/2^l$ .

Take a Lebesgue point  $\xi$  of  $\chi_F$  with  $d_F(\xi) = 1$ , and put  $r_n = r_0/2^n$ . For every  $n$  choose  $\xi_n \in \{[c_1, \dots, c_m] : m \leq n\}$  so that the sequence  $\xi_n$  converges to  $\xi$  and  $[\xi_n, \xi_n + r_n] \subset (\xi - 1/2^{n-1}, \xi + 1/2^{n-1})$ . Since  $m([\xi_n, \xi_n + r_n])/2^{n-2} = r_0/4$ , the subsets  $[\xi_n, \xi_n + r_n]$  shrink to  $\xi$  nicely. For fixed  $r_0$ , there exists

$\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $\varepsilon < h_0(r_0) < 1 - \varepsilon$ . If not, the metric density at 0 must exist. Hence

$$\frac{m(F \cap [\xi_n, \xi_n + r_n])}{r_n} = h_{\xi_n}(r_n) = h_0(r_n) \quad \text{or} \quad 1 - h_0(r_n) < 1 - \varepsilon$$

for all  $n$ . Since the metric density of  $F$  at  $\xi$  is 1, this is a contradiction. ■

LEMMA 4. *If  $[0, b] = F \Delta T^{-1}F$  with  $b = [b_1, \dots, b_q]$  a dyadic number, then*

(i)  $h_0(r/2^{2n}) = h_0(r)$  and  $h_0(r/2^{2n-1}) = 1 - h_0(r)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq \min\{2b, 1\}$ .

(ii) Put  $r_0 = 1/2^q$ . Then for  $t = [c_1, \dots, c_l]$ ,  $h_t(r/2^{2n}) = h_t(r)$ ,  $h_t(r/2^{2n-1}) = 1 - h_t(r)$  and  $h_t = h_0$  or  $1 - h_0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0/2^l$ .

(iii)  $[0, b] \neq F \Delta T^{-1}F$  for every measurable set  $F$ .

PROOF. (i) Take  $r$  with  $0 < r \leq \min\{2b, 1\}$ . Since  $(F \Delta T^{-1}F) \cap [0, r/2] = [0, r/2]$ , we have  $m(F \cap [0, r/2]) = r/2 - m(T^{-1}F \cap [0, r/2]) = r/2 - m(\frac{1}{2}F \cap [0, r/2]) = r/2 - \frac{1}{2}m(F \cap [0, r])$  and  $h_0(r/2) = 1 - h_0(r)$ . Hence  $h_0(r/2^{2n}) = 1 - h_0(r/2^{2n-1}) = \dots = h_0(r)$  and  $h_0(r/2^{2n-1}) = 1 - h_0(r/2^{2n-2}) = \dots = h_0(r)$ .

(ii) Put  $E = [0, b]$ . Then  $h_0(r/2^{2n}) = h_0(r)$  and  $h_0(r/2^{2n-1}) = 1 - h_0(r)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0$  by (i) and  $E \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r_0/2] = \emptyset$  or  $E \cap [1/2, 1/2 + r_0/2] = [1/2, 1/2 + r_0/2]$ . Now proceed as in Lemma 2.

(iii) Take  $\xi, r_0, r_n$  and  $\xi_n$  as in the proof of Lemma 3. Then

$$d_F(\xi) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h_{\xi_n}(r_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h_0(r_n) \quad \text{or} \quad 1 - h_0(r_n) = 1 - h_0(r_0) \quad \text{or} \quad h_0(r_0)$$

by (ii). If  $d_F(\xi) = 1 - h_0(r_0)$ , then  $h_0(r_0) = 0$  and  $[0, b] \neq F \Delta T^{-1}F$  for this  $F$ . The other cases are similarly proved. ■

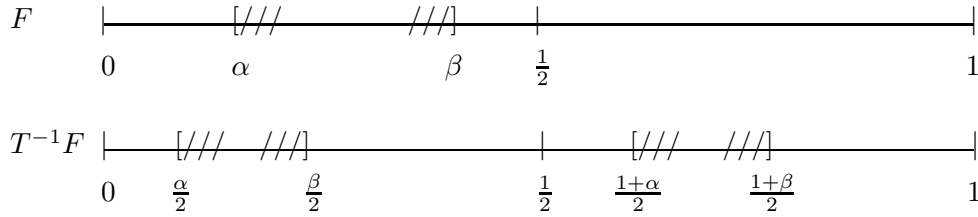
REMARK. For the case  $[a, 1] = F \Delta T^{-1}F$  with  $a = [a_1, \dots, a_p]$  a dyadic number, we consider the left metric density for  $F$  and  $g_t(r)$ . Then we have the same conclusion as in Lemma 4. For example, put  $r_0 = 1/2^p$ . Then for  $t = [c_1, \dots, c_l]$ ,  $g_t(r/2^{2n}) = g_t(r)$ ,  $g_t(r/2^{2n-1}) = 1 - g_t(r)$  and either  $g_t = g_1$  or  $1 - g_1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < r \leq r_0/2^l$ . Hence we may assume that if  $[a, b] = F \Delta T^{-1}F$  for some  $F$  with  $a, b$  dyadic, then either  $F$  or  $F^c$  contains an interval of the form  $[0, r]$  or  $[r, 1]$  for some  $0 < r < 1$ .

**3. Main result.** We say that  $[\alpha, \beta]$  is the *optimal bounding interval* for  $F$  if  $F \subset [\alpha, \beta]$  modulo measure zero sets and  $\alpha$  is the infimum of points at which  $F$  has a positive metric density, while  $\beta$  is the supremum of points at which  $F$  has a positive right metric density. From now on, if  $K$  is connected and  $m(S) = 0$ , then we regard  $K \setminus S$  as being connected, and if  $E$  is an interval, then we regard  $E \setminus S$  as an interval.

**THEOREM 1.** *Let  $T$  be the transformation defined by  $x \mapsto 2x \pmod{1}$  on  $[0, 1)$ . Let  $a$  and  $b$  be dyadic numbers. Then  $\exp(\pi i \chi_{[a,b]})$  is a coboundary if and only if  $a = 1/4$  and  $b = 3/4$ .*

**PROOF.** Recall that there exists a measurable set  $F$  such that neither  $F$  nor its complement contain any interval of positive length [5]. But if  $E$  is an interval with dyadic endpoints, then  $F$  or  $F^c$  contains an interval of the form  $[0, r]$  or  $[s, 1]$ ,  $r > 0$ ,  $s < 1$ , and  $E = F^c \Delta T^{-1}F^c$ . Hence we may assume that  $F^c$  contains an interval of the form  $[0, r]$  or  $[s, 1]$ ,  $r > 0$ ,  $s < 1$ . For this  $F$ , the optimal bounding interval  $[\alpha, \beta]$  has either  $\alpha > 0$  or  $\beta < 1$ .

**CASE 1.** Assume that  $F \subset [\alpha, \beta]$ ,  $0 \leq \alpha < \beta < 1/2$  and  $[\alpha, \beta]$  is the optimal bounding interval for  $F$ .



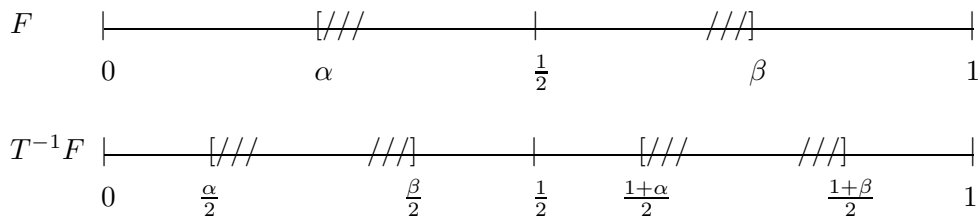
Then  $m(F \cap [\beta/2, \beta]) > 0$ ,  $m(T^{-1}F \cap [\beta/2, \beta]) = 0$  and

$$m\left(T^{-1}F \cap \left[\frac{1+\alpha}{2}, \frac{1+\beta}{2}\right]\right) > 0, \quad m\left(F \cap \left[\frac{1+\alpha}{2}, \frac{1+\beta}{2}\right]\right) = 0.$$

But in  $E = F \Delta T^{-1}F$ ,  $m(E \cap [\beta/2, \beta]) > 0$ ,  $m(E \cap [\beta, 1/2]) = 0$ , and  $m(E \cap [1/2, (1+\beta)/2]) > 0$ . So this reduces to the assumption that  $E$  is an interval. If  $F \Delta T^{-1}F$  is an interval, then  $\alpha = 0$ ,  $\beta = 1/2$  and  $F = [0, 1/2]$ . In this case  $E = [1/4, 3/4]$ .

**CASE 2.** If  $F \subset [\alpha, \beta]$  where  $1/2 < \alpha < \beta \leq 1$ , and  $[\alpha, \beta]$  is the optimal bounding interval for  $F$ , then as in Case 1, if  $F \Delta T^{-1}F$  is an interval, then  $\alpha = 1/2$ ,  $\beta = 1$  and  $F = [1/2, 1]$ . In this case  $E = [1/4, 3/4]$ .

**CASE 3.** If  $F \subset [\alpha, \beta]$  where  $0 < \alpha < 1/2 < \beta < 1$ , and  $[\alpha, \beta]$  is the optimal bounding interval for  $F$ , then there are three possibilities.



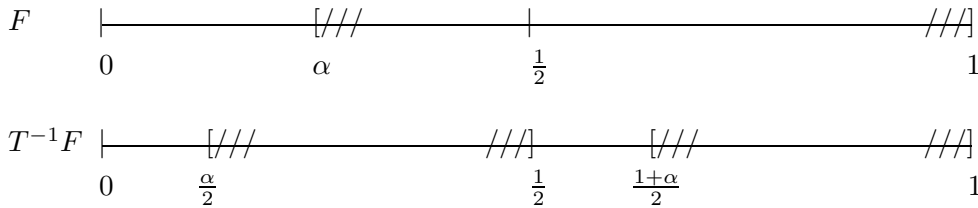


If  $\beta/2 < \alpha$ , then  $F \cap \frac{1}{2}F = \emptyset$ ,  $m(T^{-1}F \cap [\alpha/2, \beta/2]) > 0$ ,  $m(T^{-1}F \cap [\beta/2, \alpha]) = 0$ ,  $m(F \cap [\beta/2, \alpha]) = 0$ , and  $m(F \cap [\alpha, 1/2]) > 0$ . This contradicts the fact that  $E = F \Delta T^{-1}F$  is an interval.

If  $\beta/2 = \alpha$  then  $m(F \cap \frac{1}{2}F) = 0$ ,  $m(T^{-1}F \cap [\alpha/2, \beta/2]) > 0$ ,  $m(F \cap [\alpha, 1/2]) > 0$ ,  $m(F \cap [\beta, 1 + \beta/2]) = 0$  and  $m(T^{-1}F \cap [\beta, (1 + \beta)/2]) = 0$ . Thus for  $E$  to be an interval,  $F$  must contain the interval  $[\alpha, 2\alpha]$ . This is due to the fact that the measure of  $\frac{1}{2}F$  is half that of  $F$ . Since  $2\alpha = \beta$  and  $[\alpha, \beta]$  is the optimal bounding interval for  $F$  by assumption,  $F = [\alpha, \beta]$ . Furthermore,  $(1 + \alpha)/2 = \beta$ . If not, we have a contradiction to the fact that  $E$  is an interval. Thus  $F = [\alpha, \beta] = [1/3, 2/3]$ . In this case  $F \Delta T^{-1}F = E = [1/6, 5/6]$ . But this is not an interval with dyadic endpoints.

If  $\beta/2 > \alpha$ , then  $m(F \cap [\alpha/2, \alpha]) = 0$ ,  $m(F \cap [\beta, (1 + \beta)/2]) = 0$  and  $m(\frac{1}{2}F \cap [\alpha/2, \alpha]) > 0$ ,  $m((\frac{1}{2}F + \frac{1}{2}) \cap [\beta, (1 + \beta)/2]) > 0$ . Hence for  $E$  to be an interval,  $F$  must contain the intervals  $[\alpha, 2\alpha]$  and  $[2\beta - 1, \beta]$ . Since  $m((F \Delta T^{-1}F) \cap [\alpha/2, \alpha]) > 0$  and  $m((F \Delta T^{-1}F) \cap [\beta, (1 + \beta)/2]) > 0$  since  $F$  contains the interval  $[\alpha, 2\alpha]$ , and since  $[\alpha, \beta]$  is the optimal bounding interval for  $F$ , for  $F \Delta T^{-1}F$  to be connected, we must have  $m(F \cap [2\alpha, 4\alpha]) = 0$ . By similar reasons,  $F$  must contain the interval  $[4\alpha, 8\alpha]$ . By induction we see that  $F$  contains the interval  $[2^{2(n-1)}\alpha, 2^{2n}\alpha]$  for  $n$  such that  $2^{2n}\alpha < 1$ , and does not contain the interval  $[2^{2n}\alpha, 2^{2(n+1)}\alpha]$  for  $n$  such that  $2^{2(n+1)}\alpha < 1$ . Furthermore,  $m(T^{-1}F \cap [\beta/2, (1 + \alpha)/2]) = 0$ . For  $F \Delta T^{-1}F$  to be connected,  $F$  must contain the interval  $[\beta/2, (1 + \alpha)/2]$  and  $T^{-1}F \cap [(1 + \alpha)/2, 1/2 + \alpha] = [(1 + \alpha)/2, 1/2 + \alpha]$ . Thus we obtain the following equalities:  $2^n\alpha = \beta - 1/2$ ,  $2^{n+1}\alpha = \beta/2$ ,  $2^{n+2}\alpha = (1 + \alpha)/2$ , and  $2^{n+3}\alpha = \alpha + 1/2$  for some  $n$ . Hence  $2^{n+3}\alpha = 1 + \alpha = \alpha + 1/2$ , which is a contradiction. So if  $F$  is bounded by the pair  $(\alpha, \beta)$  then  $E = F \Delta T^{-1}F$  cannot be connected.

CASE 4. If  $F \subset [\alpha, 1]$  where  $0 < \alpha < 1/2$ , and  $[\alpha, 1]$  is the optimal bounding interval for  $F$ , then we know that  $F$  is a disjoint union of  $[\alpha_i, \beta_i]$ , i.e.,  $F = \bigcup_{i=1}^n [\alpha_i, \beta_i]$  with  $\alpha_1 = \alpha$ , and  $\beta_n = 1$  as in Case 3. Let  $\alpha_n = \beta$ . If  $\beta \leq 1/2$  then  $F^c \subset [0, \beta]$ . This is the situation of Case 1. So we assume that  $\beta > 1/2$ . In other words,  $F = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} [\alpha_i, \beta_i] \cup [\beta, 1]$ . Then by a similar argument to Case 3, we see that there is no  $F$  such that  $F \Delta T^{-1}F$  is an interval.



CASE 5. If  $F \subset [0, \beta]$  with  $1/2 < \beta < 1$ , and  $[0, \beta]$  is the optimal bounding interval for  $F$ , then by a similar argument to Case 4, there is no  $F$  for which  $F \triangle T^{-1}F$  is an interval. ■

#### REFERENCES

- [1] G. H. Choe, *Spectral types of uniform distribution*, Proc. Amer. Math. Soc. 120 (1994), 715–722.
- [2] —, *Ergodicity and irrational rotations*, Proc. Roy. Irish Acad. 93A (1993), 193–202.
- [3] R. B. Kirk, *Sets which split families of measurable sets*, Amer. Math. Monthly 79 (1972), 884–886.
- [4] K. Petersen, *Ergodic Theory*, Cambridge Univ. Press, 1983.
- [5] W. Rudin, *Real and Complex Analysis*, McGraw-Hill, 1986.
- [6] W. A. Veech, *Strict ergodicity in zero dimensional dynamical systems and the Kronecker–Weyl theorem mod 2*, Trans. Amer. Math. Soc. 140 (1969), 1–33.
- [7] P. Walters, *An Introduction to Ergodic Theory*, Springer, New York, 1982.

Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology  
Taejon 305-701  
Korea  
E-mail: choe@euclid.kaist.ac.kr

*Received 28 September 1994;*  
*revised 11 July 1995 and 26 February 1998*