How random is a uniformly distributed sequence?

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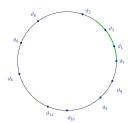


Uniform Distribution mod one

 $\vartheta = (\vartheta_n)_{n\geq 1}$ in [0,1)is called *uniformly distributed mod* 1 if

$$\frac{\#\left\{1 \leq n \leq N : \vartheta_n \in I\right\}}{N} \underset{N \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} \operatorname{meas}(I)$$

for each sub-interval $I \subseteq [0,1]$.



Sketch of a uniformly distributed sequence in $[0,1) \stackrel{\sim}{=} \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$.

Abbreviation: ϑ u.d.

Examples I

Lemma 1 (Weyl's Criterion [3]).

A sequence $s\vartheta$ is u.d. if and only if

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n\leq N}e^{2\pi ih\vartheta_n}\underset{N\to\infty}{\longrightarrow}0$$

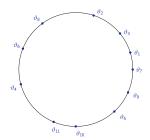
for each $h \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$.

Let $\alpha \in (0, \infty)$.

- The Kronecker sequence $(\langle \alpha n \rangle)_{n \geq 1}$ is u.d. iff $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}$; Bohl, Sierpinski, Weyl independently (1909–1910).
- **②** More generally, $(\langle \alpha n^d \rangle)_{n \geq 1}$, $d \in \mathbb{N}$, is u.d. iff $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}$; Weyl (1916).
- **1** The sequence $(\langle n^{\alpha} \rangle)_{n \geq 1}$ is u.d. iff $\alpha \notin \mathbb{N}$; Fejér and Csillag (≈ 1930).
- If $\vartheta_n:[0,1)\to [0,1)$ are [0,1]-uniformly distributed, independent random variables, then $(\vartheta_n(\alpha))_{n\geq 1}$ is almost surely u.d. .

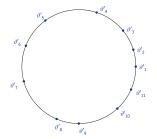
Gap Distributions I

(a) Let ϑ'_n denote the n^{th} (largest) element of $\{\vartheta_n : n \leq N\}$. Note that the average gap of ϑ'_n is 1/N.



Unordered points on the unit circle.

Gap Distributions II



Ordered points on the unit circle.

(b) Put
$$\delta_{n,N}=N(\vartheta_{n+1}'-\vartheta_n')$$
, where $n=1,\ldots,N$ (and $\vartheta_{n+1}':=\vartheta_n+1$).

Gap Distributions III

Definition 1.

If P exists such that

$$\frac{\#\left\{ n\leq N:\,\delta_{n,N}\in I\right\} }{N}\underset{N\rightarrow\infty}{\longrightarrow}\int_{I}P\left(s\right)\,\mathrm{d}s$$

for each interval $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, then P is called the *gap distribution* of ϑ . If $P(s) = e^{-s}$, then ϑ has *Poissonian gap distribution*.

Remark.

There are other interesting statistics. E.g. the size of the minimal gap $\min_{n < N} \delta_{n,N}$, as $N \to \infty$.

The Berry-Tabor conjecture

Conjecture 1 (Berry and Tabor [4]).

A "generic" quantum system whose underlying classical dynamics is completely integrable, the gaps between the energy levels have a Poissonian limiting distribution.

Remark.

The energy levels of a boxed 2-dimensional oscillator are decoded by $(\langle \alpha n^2 \rangle)_{n \geq 1}$. For further reading: Rudnick [7].

Examples II

- If $\vartheta_n:[0,1)\to [0,1)$ are [0,1]-uniformly distributed, independent random variables, then $(\vartheta_n(\alpha))_{n\geq 1}$ has a.s. Poissonian gap distribution.
- **Q** Quadratic residues mod q, as the number of prime factors $\omega(q) \to \infty$, have a Poissonian gap distribution; Rudnick and Kurlberg (1999).
- (Not-example) $(\langle \sqrt{n} \rangle)_{n \geq 1}$ has non-Poissonian gap distribution; Elkies and McMullen (2002).
- Almost surely $(\langle \alpha 2^n \rangle)_{n \geq 1}$ has Poissonian gap distribution; Rudnick and Zaharescu (1999); see [5], [10], [6].

k-point Correlation Function I

Definition 2.

For $f \in C_c^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^{k-1})$ or f being an indicator function of a parallelepiped, put

$$F_{M}(\mathbf{t}) := \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{Z}^{k-1}} f(M(\mathbf{t} + \mathbf{u})).$$

If, for any such f, the k-point correlation function

$$R_{k}\left(\vartheta,N,f\right) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\substack{n_{1},\ldots,n_{k} \leq N \\ n_{i} \text{ distinct}}} F_{N}\left(\vartheta_{n_{1}} - \vartheta_{n_{2}},\vartheta_{n_{2}} - \vartheta_{n_{3}},\ldots\vartheta_{n_{k-1}} - \vartheta_{n_{k}}\right)$$

converges to $\int_{\mathbb{R}^{k-1}} f(\mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{t}$, as $N \to \infty$, then ϑ has Poissonian k-point correlations.

Uniform Distribution modulo one
Gap Distributions
The Berry-Tabor conjecture
Metric Theory for the Pair Correlation Function

k-point Correlation Function II

Remark.

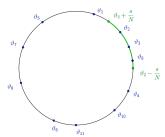
- (a) If k=2 (resp. k=3) we speak of the pair (resp. triple) correlation function.
- (b) If $\vartheta(\alpha)$ is a function, we simply set $R_k(\alpha, N, f) = R_k(\vartheta(\alpha), N, f)$.
- (c) Poissonian pair correlation imply uniform distribution. The converse fails: $(\langle \alpha n \rangle)_{n \geq 1}$ has for $no \ \alpha \in (0,1)$ the Poissonian pair correlation.

Pair Correlation Function

Let k=2, $f=1_{[0,s]}.$ Then $F_N\left(t\right)=1_{[0,s]}\left(N\,\|t\|\right)$ which equals $1_{[0,s/N]}\left(\|t\|\right).$ So,

$$R_2(\vartheta, N, f) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n \neq m \leq N} 1_{[0, s/N]}(\|\vartheta_n - \vartheta_m\|).$$

What does it mean that this function is $\stackrel{!}{lpha} \int_{\mathbb{R}} 1_{[0,s]} \left(\|t\| \right) \, \mathrm{d}t = 2s$?



Heuristic for the pair correlation function. Each green neighborhood contains $\approx 2s$ points on average.

Metric Theory of the Pair Correlation Function I

Theorem 1 (Marklof, Vinogradov, El-Baz [2]).

The sequence $\left(\left\langle\sqrt{n}\right\rangle\right)_{n\geq 1}$ has Poissonian pair correlation.

Problem 1.

Has $(\langle \sqrt{2}n^2 \rangle)_{n \ge 1}$ Poissonian pair correlation?

Definition 3.

A strictly increasing sequence $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}\subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ is said to have the metric Poissonian pair correlation property if for (Lebesgue) almost every $\alpha\in(0,1)$ the sequence $(\langle\alpha a_n\rangle)_{n\geq 1}$ has Poissonian pair correlations.

For $I \subset \mathbb{Z}$, define

$$E\left(I\right) \coloneqq \sum_{\substack{a+b=c+d\\ a,b\in d\in I}} 1$$
, and observe $(\#I)^2 \le E\left(I\right) \le (\#I)^3$.

Metric Theory of the Pair Correlation Function II

Theorem 2 (T. F. Bloom, A. Walker [8]).

There is a universal constant C > 0 such that if the cut-offs $A_N := \{a_n : n \le N\}$ satisfy

$$E(A_N) \ll \frac{N^3}{(\log N)^C},\tag{1}$$

then $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$ has the metric Poissonian pair correlations.

Remark.

(1) is satisfied, e.g., for lacunary sequences, or $\left(n^d\right)_{n\geq 1}$ with $d\in\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}.$

Metric Theory of the Pair Correlation Function III

Theorem 3 (A. Walker [9]).

The prime numbers $(p_n)_{n\geq 1}$ does not have metric Poissonian pair correlation.

Remark.

Does the metric Poissonian pair correlation property follows a zero–one law? Suppose, say,

$$\sum_{N>1} \frac{E\left(A_{N}\right)}{N^{3}} < \infty, \qquad \frac{E\left(A_{N}\right)}{N^{3}} \quad \mathrm{well-behaved},$$

if and only if $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$ has the metric Poissonian pair correlation property?

Metric Theory for the Pair Correlation Function IV

This fails on logarithmic scales:

Theorem 4 (Aistleitner, Lachmann, N.T. [1]).

There is a metric Poissonian sequence $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$ such that

$$E(A_N) \gg \frac{N^3}{(\log N)^{\frac{3}{4}+\varepsilon}}.$$

The Borel-Cantelli lemma

Lemma 2 (Borel-Cantelli).

Suppose Lebesgue measurable sets $\Omega_n \subseteq [0,1)$ satisfy

$$\sum_{n\geq 1}\lambda\left(\Omega_{n}\right)<\infty.$$

Then, $\{\alpha \in [0,1) : \alpha \in \Omega_n \text{ for } \infty \text{ many } n\}$ has measure zero.

A blue-print for dilated squares I

An L^2 -approach: Fix s, and let $R_2\left(\alpha,N,\mathbf{1}_{[-s,s]}\right)=\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n\neq m\leq N}\mathbf{1}_{[0,s/N]}\left(\left\|\alpha(n^2-m^2)\right\|\right)$ denote the pair correlation function of $\left(\left\langle\alpha n^2\right\rangle\right)_{n\geq 1}$.

- First show that $R_2\left(\alpha,N_m,1_{[-s,s]}\right)\underset{m\to\infty}{\longrightarrow}2s$ a.s. on a (polynomially-thin) sub-sequence $(N_m)_{m\geq 1}$.
- **③** Then deduce convergence on the full sequence, i.e. $R_2\left(\alpha, N, 1_{[-s,s]}\right) \underset{N \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 2s$ a.s., via a sandwiching argument.

A blue-print for dilated squares II: Sub-sequence step

• For any integer $d \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have $\int_{[0,1]} 1_{[0,\delta]} (\|d\alpha\|) d\alpha = 2\delta$. So,

$$\mathbb{E}(R) := \int_{[0,1]} R\left(\alpha, N_m, 1_{[0,s]}\right) d\alpha = \frac{1}{N} N(N-1) \frac{2s}{N} = 2s + O_s(N^{-1}),$$

By Chebycheff,

$$\operatorname{meas}\left(\left\{\alpha\in\left[0,1\right):\,\left|R\left(\alpha,N_{m},1_{\left[0,s\right]}\right)-\mathbb{E}\left(R\right)\right|>k\right\}\right)\leq\frac{\operatorname{Var}\left(R\right)}{k^{2}},$$

for each k > 0, where

$$\operatorname{Var}\left(R\right) \coloneqq \int_{\left[0,1\right]} \left(R\left(\alpha, \mathsf{N}_{\mathit{m}}, 1_{\left[0,\mathsf{s}\right]}\right) - \mathbb{E}\left(R\right)\right)^{2} \, \mathrm{d}\alpha.$$

- Show that ${\rm Var}(R) \ll N^{-1+\varepsilon}$. (More details soon.)
- Apply Lemma 2 with $k = N_m^{-1/4}$ and $N_m = m^2$.

A blue-print for dilated squares III: Variance Estimate

Recall

$$R_{2}\left(\alpha, N, 1_{[-s,s]}\right) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n \neq m \leq N} 1_{[0,s/N]} \left(\left\| \alpha(n^{2} - m^{2}) \right\| \right)$$

$$\approx \sum_{n \neq m \leq N} \sum_{0 \leq |k| \leq N^{1+\varepsilon}} c_{k} e^{2\pi i k(n^{2} - m^{2})} + \text{Error.}$$

Indeed,

$$\operatorname{Var}(R) \ll \frac{1}{N^4} \# \left\{ k_1 (n_1^2 - m_1^2) + k_2 (n_2^2 - m_2^2) = 0 : n_i, m_i, k_i \text{ as above} \right\}$$
$$\ll \frac{1}{N^4} \sum_{d} \# \left\{ k_2 (n_2^2 - m_2^2) = d : n_2, m_2, k_2 \text{ as above} \right\}$$

where the summation runs over $\ll N^3$ many values of $d \ll N^3$. Using that $\#\{y \in \mathbb{Z} : y \mid d\} \ll d^{\varepsilon}$ produces

$$\operatorname{Var}(R) \ll N^{-1+\varepsilon}$$
.

Main result

Theorem 5 (N. T. & Nadav Yesha).

The k-point correlation function of $(\langle n^{\alpha} \rangle)_{n \geq 1}$ is Poissonian for almost every $\alpha \gg k^2$. In particular, $(\langle n^{\alpha} \rangle)_{n \geq 1}$ has Poissonian pair correlations for almost every $\alpha > 7$.

Conjecture 2.

The gap distribution of $(\langle n^{\alpha} \rangle)_{n \geq 1}$ is Poissonian if $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \setminus (\mathbb{N} \cup \{\frac{1}{2}\})$.

The Rudnick-Sarnak Conjecture

Conjecture (Z. Rudnick and P. Sarnak [11]).

If $\alpha \in (0,1)$ is Diophantine, i.e. $\|n\alpha\| \gg_{\varepsilon} n^{-(1+\varepsilon)}$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$, and $d \ge 2$ is an integer, then $\left(\left\langle \alpha n^d \right\rangle \right)_{n \ge 1}$

has Poissonian gap distribution.

Remark.

For d = 2, see also work of Heath-Brown.

The Rudnick-Sarnak Obstruction

Recall
$$F_M(\mathbf{t}) = \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{Z}^2} f\left(M(\mathbf{t} + \mathbf{u})\right)$$
 for $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2)$. Put

$$R_3(\alpha, N, L, f) := \frac{1}{N^3} \sum_{\substack{x_1, x_2, x_3 \le N \\ x_i \text{ distinct}}} F_{N/L}(\alpha(x_1^2 - x_2^2), \alpha(x_2^2 - x_3^2)).$$

Now we expect $R_3(\alpha, N, L, f) \sim L^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(\mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{t}$.

Proposition 1 (Z. Rudnick and P. Sarnak [11]).

If $\varepsilon>0$ and $1\leq L\leq N^{\frac{1}{3}-arepsilon}$, then there exists $f\in C_c^\infty\left(\mathbb{R}^2\right)$ such that

$$\frac{1}{L^2}\int_{[0,1]} (R_3(\alpha, N, L, f))^2 d\alpha \underset{N\to\infty}{\longrightarrow} \infty.$$

The Rudnick-Sarnak Obstruction

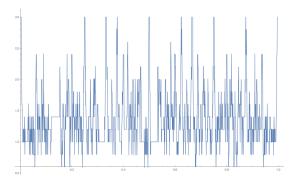


Figure: The pair correlation function plotted with Mathematica, for N=10 and $f=1_{[0,1]}$. Observe the large peaks at rationals with small denominator; in particular at $\frac{0}{1}$ and $\frac{1}{1}$!

Beyond the Obstruction

Theorem 6 (N.T., Aled Walker).

If $\varepsilon > 0$ and $N^{\frac{1}{4}+\varepsilon} < L < N^{1-\varepsilon}$, then

$$R_3(\alpha, N, L, f) = (1 + o_{\alpha, \varepsilon, f}(1))L^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(\mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{t}$$

for almost all $\alpha \in [0,1]$ for each $f \in C_c^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^2)$, uniformly in L.

Remark.

Note: $\frac{1}{4} < \frac{1}{3}$. In the regime $N^{\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon} \le L \le N$ one can use metric discrepancy theory.

The End

Thank you very much for your attention!

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