# Why do we need Gauss — Kuz'min statistics?

## Alexey Ustinov

#### Institute of Applied Mathematics (Khabarovsk) Russian Academy of Sciences (Far Eastern Branch)

July 7, 2011

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#### Let

$$\frac{a}{b} = [a_0; a_1, \dots, a_s] = a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \dots + \frac{1}{a_s}},$$

be standard continued fraction expansion with  $a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a_1, \ldots, a_s \in \mathbb{N}$ . Standard assumption  $a_s > 1$  (for s > 0) we replace by another one:  $a_s = 1$ .

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Length of continued fraction will be denoted by s(a/b).

For  $x \in [0, 1]$  and rational number  $a/b = [0; a_1, ..., a_s]$  we define **Gauss — Kuz'min statistics**  $s_x(a/b)$  as

$$s_x(a/b) = \left| \left\{ j : 1 \le j \le s, [0; a_j, \dots, a_s] \le x 
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In particular  $s_1(a/b) = s(a/b)$  is the length of continued fraction for a/b.

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In particular  $s_1(a/b) = s(a/b)$  is the length of continued fraction for a/b. Numbers

$$N_k(a/b) = \left| \left\{ j : 1 \le j \le s, a_j = k \right\} \right|$$

(also known as Gauss — Kuz'min statistics) can be expressed in terms of  $s_x(a/b)$ :

$$N_k(a/b) = s_{1/k}(a/b) - s_{1/(k+1)}(a/b).$$

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We prefer  $s_x$  instead of  $N_k$  because function  $\log_2(1 + x)$  is more comfortable than a set of probabilities

$$p_k = \log_2\left(1 + \frac{1}{k(k+2)}\right).$$

# Continued fractions and Kloosterman sums

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From geometrical point of view Gauss — Kuz'min statistics describe asymptotic behaviour of  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  points in a given direction. Nontrivial bounds for classical Kloosterman sums

$$K_q(1,m,n) = \sum_{\substack{x,y=1\\xy\equiv 1 \pmod{q}}}^{q} e^{2\pi i \frac{mx+ny}{q}}$$

explain isotropic properties of the lattice  $\mathbb{Z}^2$ .

These two observations give the possibility to study different problems living on  $\mathbb{Z}^2$ .

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More general Kloosterman sums

$$K_q(l,m,n) = \sum_{\substack{x,y=1\xy\equiv l \ ( ext{mod } q)}}^q e^{2\pi i rac{mx+ny}{q}}$$

explain isotropic properties of sublattices in  $\mathbb{Z}^2$ .

- (Trivial) Euclidean algorithm, calculation of  $a^{-1} \pmod{n}$ , lattice reduction, number recognition, parametrization of solution of the equation ad bc = N, calculation of convex hull of non-zero lattice points from first quadrant etc.
- Decomposition of prime p = 4n + 1 to the sum of two squares.
- Calculation of goodness (dicrepancy or something similar) of 2-dimesional lattice rules for numerical integration.
- Analysis of Lehmer pseudo-random number generator  $(x_{n+1} = ax_n + b \pmod{m}).$

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## • Classification of rational tangles in knot theory (Conway).

- A criterion for a rectangle to be tilable by rectangles of a similar shape. Construction of alternating-current circuits with given properties (Skopenkov).
- Asymptotic behavior of a curve in ℝ<sup>n</sup> with constant curvature k<sub>1</sub>, constant second curvature k<sub>2</sub>, ... (till constant curvature k<sub>n-1</sub>). (Arnold).
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- The way to attack RSA public key crypto system with small private exponents (Wiener).
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Let s(a/b) be the **length** of standard continued fraction expansion (or the length of Euclidean algorithm) for

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First result about average length of Euclidean algorithm belongs to Heilbronn (1968), who proved that

$$\frac{1}{\varphi(b)}\sum_{\substack{1\leq a\leq b\\ (a,b)=1}} s(a/b) = \frac{2\log 2}{\zeta(2)}\log b + O(\log^4\log b).$$

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Porter (1975) has shown that

$$\frac{1}{\varphi(b)} \sum_{\substack{1 \le a \le b \\ (a,b)=1}} s(a/b) = \frac{2\log 2}{\zeta(2)} \log b + C_P + O(b^{-1/6+\varepsilon}),$$
$$C_P = \frac{2\log 2}{\zeta(2)} \left(\frac{3\log 2}{2} + 2\gamma - 2\frac{\zeta'(2)}{\zeta(2)} - 1\right) - \frac{1}{2}.$$

We can get a better estimate of the error term for the average value of s(a/b) over *a*, *b* and by using elementary arguments.

# Theorem (A.U., 2008)

Let  $R \ge 2$ . Then

$$E(R) = \frac{2}{R(R+1)} \sum_{b \leq R} \sum_{a \leq b} s(a/b) = \frac{2\log 2}{\zeta(2)} \log R + \widetilde{C}_P + O(R^{-1+\varepsilon}),$$

where

$$\widetilde{C}_{P}=C_{P}+rac{2\log 2}{\zeta(2)}\left(rac{\zeta'(2)}{\zeta(2)}-rac{1}{2}
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# Conjecture (Arnold, 1993)

Let  $\Omega(R) = R \cdot \Omega \ (R \to \infty)$  be extending region. Then elements of finite continued fractions for rational numbers a/b,  $(a, b) \in \Omega(R)$  asymptotically satisfy the Gauss — Kuz'min statistic.

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## Theorem (Avdeeva — Bykovskii, 2002–2004)

If  $\Omega(R)$  is a sector:

$$\Omega(R) = \{(a, b) : a, b > 0, a^2 + b^2 \le R^2\}$$

then

$$\frac{1}{\operatorname{Vol}(\Omega(R))}\sum_{(a,b)\in\Omega(R)}s_x(a/b)=\frac{2\log(x+1)}{\zeta(2)}\log R+O(1).$$

# Gauss — Kuz'min statistics

# Theorem (A.U., 2005)

For any region  $\Omega$  with "good" boundary

$$\frac{1}{\operatorname{Vol}(\Omega(R))}\sum_{(a,b)\in\Omega(R)}s_x(a/b)=\frac{2\log(x+1)}{\zeta(2)}\log R+C_{\Omega}(x)+O(R^{-1/5+\varepsilon}).$$

But Arnold's conjecture satisfies general...

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## The Arnold Principle

If a notion bears a personal name, then this name is not the name of the discoverer.

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# The Berry Principle

The Arnold Principle is applicable to itself.

Particular case of Arnold's conjecture was proved by Lochs.

Theorem (Lochs, 1961 (32 years before Arnold's conjecture).)

For triangle region

$$\Omega(R) = \{(a,b) : 0 < b < a \le R\}$$

$$\frac{1}{\operatorname{Vol}(\Omega(R))} \sum_{(a,b)\in\Omega(R)} s_x(a/b) = \frac{2\log(x+1)}{\zeta(2)}\log R + C_{\Omega}(x) + O(R^{-1/2+\varepsilon}).$$

Results on the average length of continued fractions can be generalized on Gauss — Kuz'min statistics.

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### Theorem (A.U., 2008)

$$\frac{1}{\varphi(b)} \sum_{\substack{a=1\\(a,b)=1}}^{b} s_x(a/b) = \frac{2\log(1+x)}{\zeta(2)}\log b + C_P(x) + O(b^{-1/6+\varepsilon}),$$
$$\frac{2}{R(R+1)} \sum_{b \le R} \sum_{a=1}^{b} s_x(a/b) = \frac{2\log(1+x)}{\zeta(2)}\log R + \widetilde{C}_P(x) + O(R^{-1+\varepsilon}),$$

with complicate functions  $C_P(x)$  and  $\widetilde{C}_P(x)$ .

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Applications: fast Euclidean algorithms.

$$a = bq + r$$
,  $q = \lfloor a/b \rfloor$ ,  $0 \le r < b$ ;

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centered division:

$$a = bq + \varepsilon r, \quad \varepsilon = \pm 1, \quad q = \left\lceil \frac{a}{b} - \frac{1}{2} \right\rceil, \quad 0 \le r \le \frac{b}{2};$$

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and odd division:

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Let  $s_{centered}(a/b)$  and  $s_{odd}(a/b)$  be the lengths of centered and odd Euclidean algorithms. Elementary arguments allow to reduce both these algorithms to the classical one.

#### Gauss — Kuz'min statistics Fast Euclidean algorithms

## Theorem (A.U., 2009–2010)

Let  $b \ge 1$ ,  $1 \le a < b$ , (a, b) = 1,  $\varphi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$ . Then

$$s_{centered}(a/b) = s_{\varphi-1}(a/b).$$

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Moreover, if  $b/2 \le a$ ,  $aa^* \equiv 1 \pmod{b}$ ,  $1 \le a^* < b$  then

$$s_{odd}\left(rac{a^{\star}}{b}
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Here we used "reasonable" extension of Gauss — Kuz'min statistics for arbitrary x > 0:

$$s_x(a/b) = \left| \{(j,t) : 0 \le j \le s, 0 \le t < a_j, [t; a_{j+1}, \dots, a_s, 1] \le x\} \right|$$
  
 $a_0 = +\infty$ ).

Last theorem allows to improve some results of Baladi and Vallée (2005) on the average value of  $s_{centered}(a/b)$  and  $s_{odd}(a/b)$ .

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## Corollary

We have

$$\frac{1}{\varphi(b)} \sum_{\substack{a=1\\(a,b)=1}}^{b} s_{centered}(a/b) = \frac{2\log\varphi}{\zeta(2)}\log b + C_1 + O(b^{-1/6+\varepsilon}),$$
$$\frac{2}{R(R+1)} \sum_{b \le R} \sum_{a=1}^{b} s_{centered}(a/b) = \frac{2\log\varphi}{\zeta(2)}\log R + \widetilde{C}_1 + O(R^{-1+\varepsilon}),$$

where constants  $C_1$  and  $C_1$  can be written in terms of singular series.

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## Corollary

We have

$$\frac{1}{\varphi(b)} \sum_{\substack{a=1\\(a,b)=1}}^{b} s_{odd}(a/b) = \frac{3\log\varphi}{\zeta(2)}\log b + C_2 + O(b^{-1/6+\varepsilon}),$$
$$\frac{2}{R(R+1)} \sum_{b \le R} \sum_{a=1}^{b} s_{odd}(a/b) = \frac{3\log\varphi}{\zeta(2)}\log R + \widetilde{C}_2 + O(R^{-1+\varepsilon}),$$

where constants  $C_2$  and  $C_2$  can be written in terms of singular series.

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Let  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  be positive integers with  $a_i \ge 2$  and  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 1$ . The following naive questions is known as "**Diophantine Frobenius problem**" (or "**Coin exchange problem**"):

Let  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  be positive integers with  $a_i \ge 2$  and  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 1$ . The following naive questions is known as "**Diophantine Frobenius problem**" (or "**Coin exchange problem**"): Determine the largest number which is not of the form

 $a_1x_1+\cdots+a_nx_n$ 

where the coefficients  $x_i$  are non-negative integers. This number is denoted by  $g(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  and is called the **Frobenius number**.

# Frobenius numbers

The Diophantine Frobenius problem

## Example

## Let a = 3, b = 5. Then g(a, b) = ?

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# Frobenius numbers

The Diophantine Frobenius problem

## Example

Let a = 3, b = 5. Then g(a, b) =? Answer: g(a, b) = 7:

$$7\neq 3x+5y \qquad (x,y\geq 0),$$

but for every m > 7 there are some  $x, y \ge 0$  such that

$$m = 3x + 5y$$
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# Frobenius numbers

The Diophantine Frobenius problem

## Example

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$$7\neq 3x+5y \qquad (x,y\geq 0),$$

but for every m > 7 there are some  $x, y \ge 0$  such that

$$m = 3x + 5y$$
.

It is known that

$$g(a,b)=ab-a-a.$$

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The challenge is to find *g* when  $n \ge 3$ .

- For n = 2 problem is easy: g(a, b) = ab a b.
- For *n* = 3 problem is rather complicated (see Rödseth's formula below).
- For *n* > 3 general formula is unknown). We have only different algorithms for claculation Frobenius numbers.
- Kannan (1992) gave a polynomial time algorithm for **FP** for any fixed *n*.
- But there is no hope for a fast (polynomial time) algorithm that solves general **FP**, unless  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$ .

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We shall consider

$$f(a,b,c) = g(a,b,c) + a + b + c,$$

the **positive Frobenius number** of *a*, *b*, *c*, defined to be the largest integer not representable as a **positive** linear combination of *a*, *b*, *c* 

$$ax + by + cz, \quad x, y, z \ge 1.$$

Positive Frobenius numbers are better because of Johnson's formula: for  $d \mid a, d \mid b$ 

$$f(a,b,c) = d \cdot f\left(rac{a}{d},rac{b}{d},c
ight).$$

## Example

## Let a = 3, b = 5, c = 7. Then g(a, b, c) = ?

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#### Example

Let a = 3, b = 5, c = 7. Then g(a, b, c) =? Answer: g(3, 5, 7) = 4:

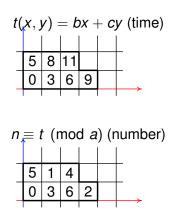
$$4 \neq 3x + 5y + 7z \qquad (x, y, z \ge 0),$$

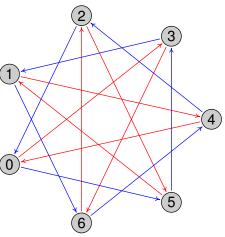
but for any m > 4 we can find  $x, y, z \ge 0$  such that

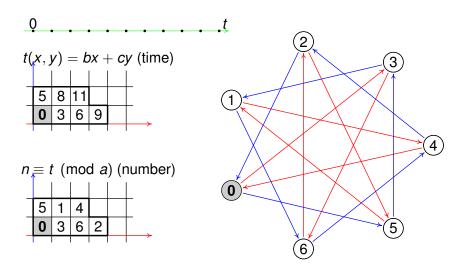
$$m \neq 3x + 5y + 7z$$
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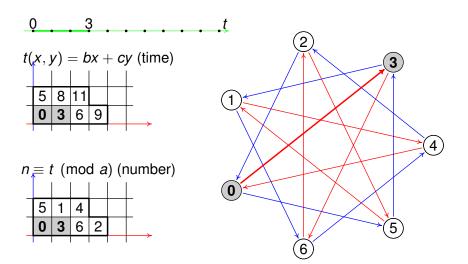
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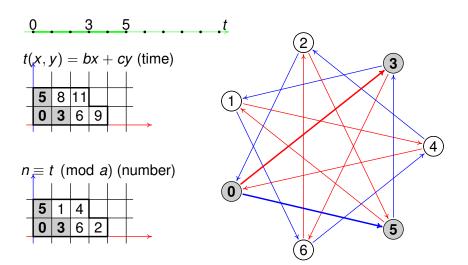
 $length(\uparrow) = 3$ ,  $length(\uparrow) = 5$ 

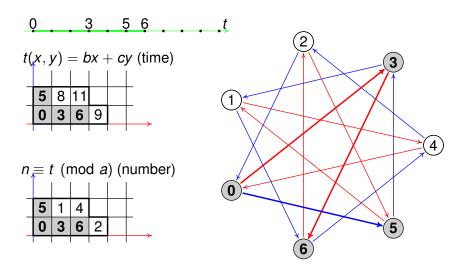


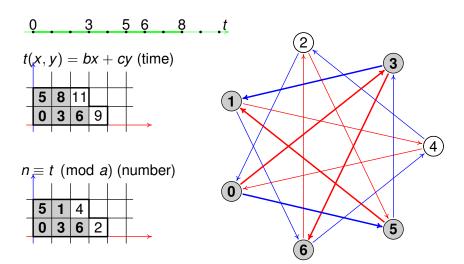


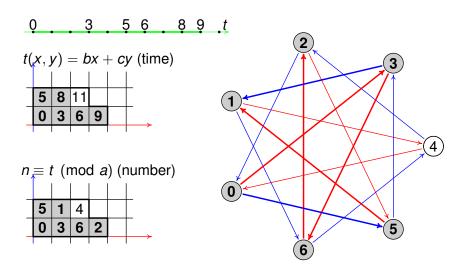


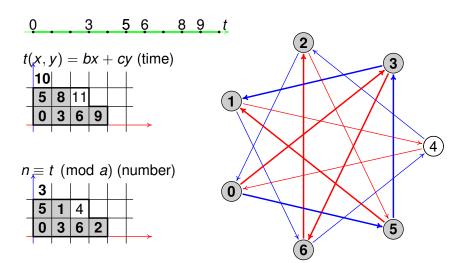


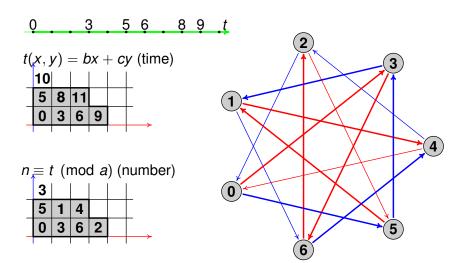




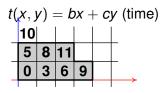


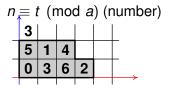


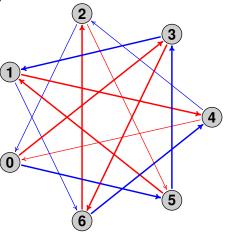




diam = 
$$g(a, b, c) + a$$
 (= 11)







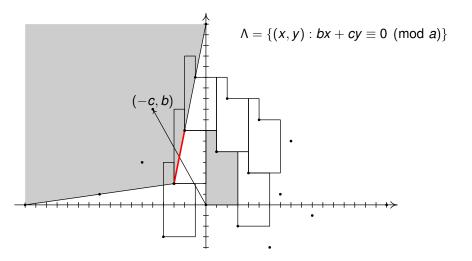
- Minimum distance diagram is always L-shaped (Wong, Coppersmith, 1974).
- L-shape always tessellates the plane.
- Form of L-shape depends on the properties of the lattice  $\Lambda = \{(x, y) : bx + cy \equiv 0 \pmod{a}\}.$

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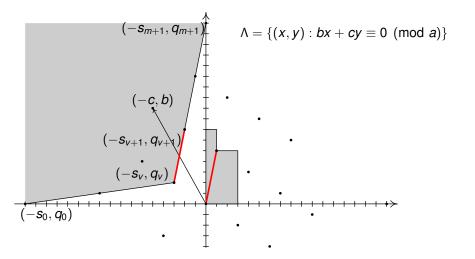
- Minimum distance diagram is always L-shaped (Wong, Coppersmith, 1974).
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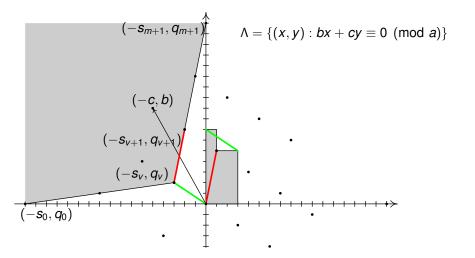
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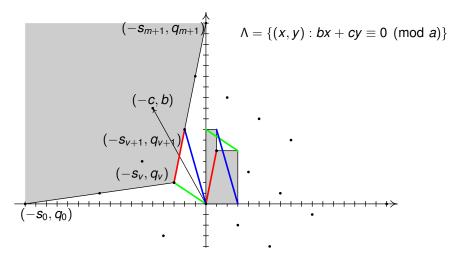
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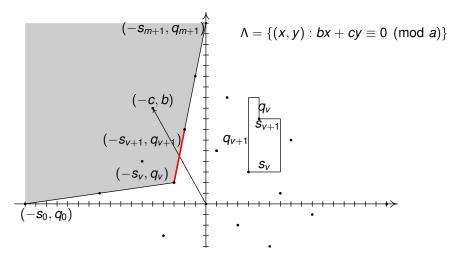


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From obvious property

$$0 = \frac{s_{m+1}}{q_{m+1}} < \frac{s_{m-1}}{q_{m-1}} < \ldots < \frac{s_1}{q_1} < \frac{s_0}{q_0} = \infty$$

follows that for some n

$$rac{s_n}{q_n} \leq rac{c}{b} < rac{s_{n-1}}{q_{n-1}}.$$

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# Theorem (Ö. Rödseth, 1978)

$$f(a, b, c) = bs_{n-1} + cq_n - \min\{bs_n, cq_{n-1}\}.$$

Rödseth's formula can be written in terms of reduced regular continued fraction. We want to find f(a, b, c) for (a, b) = (a, c) = (b, c) = 1. Let *I* is such that

$$bl \equiv c \pmod{a}, \quad 1 \leq l \leq a.$$

Reduced regular continued fraction

$$\frac{a}{l} = \langle a_1, \ldots, a_m \rangle = a_1 - \frac{1}{a_2 - \ldots - \frac{1}{a_m}},$$

where  $a_1, \ldots, a_m \ge 2$ , defines sequences  $\{s_j\}, \{q_j\}$  by

$$\frac{q_{j+1}}{q_j} = \langle a_j, \ldots, a_1 \rangle, \qquad \frac{s_j}{s_{j+1}} = \langle a_{j+1}, \ldots, a_m \rangle \qquad (0 \le j \le m).$$

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## Frobenius numbers Rödseth formula

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we have one-to-one correspondence between the set of quadruples  $(q_n, s_n, q_{n-1}, s_{n-1})$  (taken for all lattices  $\Lambda_l$ ) and the solutions of the equation

 $\begin{aligned} x_1y_1 - x_2y_2 &= a \\ \text{with } 0 \leq x_2 < x_1, \, 0 \leq y_2 < y_1, \, (x_1, x_2) = (y_1, y_2) = 1: \\ (q_n, s_n, q_{n-1}, s_{n-1}) \longleftrightarrow (x_1, x_2, y_2, y_1). \end{aligned}$ 

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From the equation

$$x_1y_1 - x_2y_2 = a$$

it follows that

$$x_1y_1 \equiv a \pmod{x_2},$$

and Kloosterman sums

$$\mathcal{K}_q(l,m,n) = \sum_{\substack{x,y=1\xy\equiv l \pmod{q}}}^q e^{2\pi i rac{mx+ny}{q}}$$

come into play. Solutions of the congruence  $xy \equiv l \pmod{q}$  are uniformly distributed due to the bounds for Kloosterman sums.

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This fact allows to calculate sums of the form

$$\sum_{xy\equiv l \pmod{q}} F(x,y)$$

and

$$\sum_{x_1y_1-x_2y_2=a}F(x_1,y_1,x_2,y_2).$$

In particular it allows to study distribution of Frobenius numbers f(a, b, c).

Rödseth (1990) proved a lower bound for Frobenius numbers:

$$f(a_1,\ldots,a_n) \geq \sqrt[n-1]{(n-1)!a_1\ldots a_n}.$$

## Conjecture (Davison, 1994)

Average value of normalized Frobenius numbers  $\frac{f(a,b,c)}{\sqrt{abc}}$  over cube  $[1, N]^3$  tends to some constant as  $N \to \infty$ .

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## Conjecture (Arnold, 1999, 2005)

There is weak asymptotic for Frobenius numbers: for arbitrary *n* average value of  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  over small cube with a center in  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  approximately equal to  $c_n \sqrt[n-1]{a_1 \ldots a_n}$  for some constant  $c_n > 0$ .

Bourgain and Sinaĭ in 2007 proved (with a little gap: they used one natural assumption which was proved later) that normalized Frobenius numbers  $\frac{f(a,b,c)}{\sqrt{abc}}$  have limiting density function.

#### Frobenius numbers Weak asymptotic

Let  $x_1, x_2 > 0$  and  $M_a(x_1, x_2) = \{(b, c) : 1 \le b \le x_1 a, 1 \le c \le x_2 a, (a, b, c) = 1\}.$ 

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#### Frobenius numbers Weak asymptotic

Let  $x_1, x_2 > 0$  and  $M_a(x_1, x_2) = \{(b, c) : 1 \le b \le x_1 a, 1 \le c \le x_2 a, (a, b, c) = 1\}.$ 

### Theorem (A.U., 2009)

Frobenius numbers f(a, b, c) have weak asymptotic  $\frac{8}{\pi}\sqrt{abc}$ :

$$\frac{1}{a^{3/2}|M_a(x_1,x_2)|}\sum_{(b,c)\in M_a(x_1,x_2)}\left(f(a,b,c)-\frac{8}{\pi}\sqrt{abc}\right)=O_{\varepsilon,x_1,x_2}(a^{-1/6+\varepsilon}).$$

Davison's conjecture holds in a stronger form:

$$\frac{1}{|M_a(x_1, x_2)|} \sum_{(b,c) \in M_a(x_1, x_2)} \frac{f(a, b, c)}{\sqrt{abc}} = \frac{8}{\pi} + O_{\varepsilon, x_1, x_2}(a^{-1/12 + \varepsilon}).$$

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# Theorem (A.U., 2010)

Normalized Frobenius numbers of three arguments have limiting density function:

$$\frac{1}{|M_a(x_1, x_2)|} \sum_{(b,c) \in M_a(x_1, x_2) \atop f(a,b,c) \le \tau \sqrt{abc}} 1 = \int_0^\tau p(t) \, dt + O_{\varepsilon, x_1, x_2, \tau}(a^{-1/6 + \varepsilon}),$$

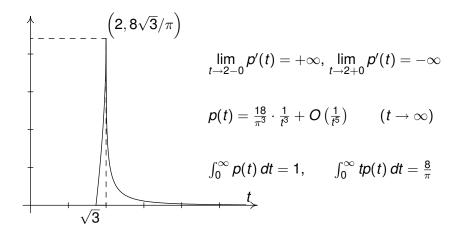
where

$$p(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } t \in [0, \sqrt{3}]; \\ \frac{12}{\pi} \left( \frac{t}{\sqrt{3}} - \sqrt{4 - t^2} \right), & \text{if } t \in [\sqrt{3}, 2]; \\ \frac{12}{\pi^2} \left( t \sqrt{3} \arccos \frac{t + 3\sqrt{t^2 - 4}}{4\sqrt{t^2 - 3}} + \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{t^2 - 4} \log \frac{t^2 - 4}{t^2 - 3} \right), & \text{if } t \in [2, +\infty). \end{cases}$$

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#### Frobenius numbers Density function



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Triples  $(\alpha, \beta, r)$ , where

$$\alpha = \frac{q_n}{\sqrt{a/\xi}}, \quad \beta = \frac{s_{n-1}}{\sqrt{a\xi}}, \quad r = \frac{s_n}{\sqrt{a\xi}} \qquad (\xi = c/b)$$

(normalized edges of L-shaped diagram) have joint limiting density function

$$p(\alpha, \beta, r) = egin{cases} rac{2}{\zeta(2)r}, & r \leq \min\{lpha, eta\}, 1 \leq lphaeta \leq 1 + r^2, \\ 0 & \textit{else.} \end{cases}$$

It allows to study shortest cycles, average distances and another characteristics of L-shaped diagrams (double loop networks).

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For usual Kloosterman sums

$$\mathcal{K}_q(1,m,n) = \sum_{\substack{x,y=1 \ xy \equiv 1 \pmod{q}}}^q e^{2\pi i rac{mx+ny}{q}}$$

Estermann bound is known

$$|K_q(1, m, n)| \le \sigma_0(q) \cdot (m, n, q)^{1/2} \cdot q^{1/2}.$$

This bound can be generalized for the case of sums  $K_q(I, m, n)$ .

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This bound can be generalized for the case of sums  $K_q(I, m, n)$ .

## Theorem (A.U., 2008)

$$|\mathcal{K}_q(I,m,n)| \leq \sigma_0(q) \cdot \sigma_0((I,m,n,q)) \cdot (Im,In,mn,q)^{1/2} \cdot q^{1/2}$$

This estimate allows to count solutions of the congruence  $xy \equiv l \pmod{a}$  in different regions.

Alexey Ustinov (IAM FEB RAS) Why do we need Gauss — Kuz'min statistics?

## Corollary

Let  $q \ge 1$ ,  $0 \le P_1, P_2 \le q$ . Then for any real  $Q_1$ ,  $Q_2$ 

$$\sum_{\substack{Q_1 < x \le Q_1 + P_1 \\ Q_2 < y \le Q_2 + P_2}} \delta_q(xy - 1) = \frac{\varphi(q)}{q^2} \cdot P_1 P_2 + O\left(\sigma_0(q) \log^2(q + 1)q^{1/2}\right)$$

and

C

$$\sum_{\substack{P_1 < x \leq Q_1 + P_1 \\ P_2 < y \leq Q_2 + P_2}} \delta_q(xy - l) = \frac{K_q(0, 0, l)}{q^2} \cdot P_1 P_2 + O\left(q^{1/2 + \varepsilon} + (q, l)q^{\varepsilon}\right).$$

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A combination with **van der Corput's method** of exponential sums allows to count solutions under a graph of smooth function.

A combination with **van der Corput's method** of exponential sums allows to count solutions under a graph of smooth function. Let  $q \ge 1$ , f be positive function and T[f] be the number of solutions of the congruence  $xy \equiv l \pmod{q}$  in the region  $P_1 < x \le P_2$ ,  $0 < y \le f(x)$ :

$$T[f] = \sum_{P_1 < x \le P_2} \sum_{0 < y \le f(x)} \delta_q(xy - l).$$

A combination with **van der Corput's method** of exponential sums allows to count solutions under a graph of smooth function. Let  $q \ge 1$ , *f* be positive function and T[f] be the number of solutions of the congruence  $xy \equiv I \pmod{q}$  in the region  $P_1 < x \le P_2$ ,  $0 < y \le f(x)$ :

$$T[f] = \sum_{P_1 < x \le P_2} \sum_{0 < y \le f(x)} \delta_q(xy - l).$$

Let

$$S[f] = \sum_{P_1 < x \leq P_2} \frac{\mu_{q,l}(x)}{q} f(x),$$

where  $\mu_{q,l}(x)$  is the number of solutions of the congruence  $xy \equiv l \pmod{q}$  over *y* such that  $1 \leq y \leq q$ .

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## Theorem (A.U., 2008)

Let  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$  be reals,  $P = P_2 - P_1 \ge 2$  and for some A > 0,  $w \ge 1$  function f(x) satisfies conditions

$$\frac{1}{A}\leq |f''(x)|\leq \frac{w}{A}.$$

Then

$$T[f] = S[f] - \frac{P}{2} \cdot \delta_q(I) + R[f],$$

where

$$R[f] \ll_w (PA^{-1/3} + A^{1/2}(I,q)^{1/2} + q^{1/2})P^{\varepsilon}.$$

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- The existence of limiting distribution for normalized Frobenius numbers of arbitrary number of arguments was proved by J. Marklof (2010).
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# Sinai problem

Let  $0 < h < \frac{1}{8}$ , T > 0 and  $\Omega_h(T)$  is the set of angles  $\varphi \in [0, 2\pi)$  such that the ray

$$\{(t\cos\varphi,t\sin\varphi):t\geq 0\}$$

intersects *h*-neighborhood of some integer point  $(m, n) \neq (0, 0)$  from the circle

$$\left\{(x,y)\in\mathbb{R}^2:x^2+y^2\leq T^2\right\}.$$

Denote by  $G_h(T)$  normalized measure of  $\Omega_h(T)$ :

$$G_h(T) = rac{1}{2\pi} \operatorname{mes} \Omega_h(T) \in [0, 1].$$

In 1918 Polya proved that

$$G_h(T)=1$$

for all  $T \ge h^{-1}$ .

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Boca, Gologan and Zaharescu (2003) proved that for all  $\varepsilon > 0$  uniformly over  $T \in [0, h^{-1}]$ 

$$G_h(T) = \int_0^{h \cdot T} \sigma(t) \, dt + O_{\varepsilon}(h^{1/8-\varepsilon}),$$

where

$$\sigma(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{12}{\pi^2}, & \text{if } 0 \le t \le \frac{1}{2}; \\ \frac{12}{\pi^2} \left(\frac{1}{t} - 1\right) \left(1 - \log\left(\frac{1}{t} - 1\right)\right), & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} < t \le 1. \end{cases}$$

From physical point of view  $G_h(T)$  is the density function for free path lengths in 2-dimensional Lorentz gas.

We considered more general situation when trajectories start from *h*-neighborhood of the origin. Let  $v \in (-1, 1)$  be the fixed number and the particle moves along the ray

$$\left\{ (-hv\sin\varphi + t\cos\varphi, hv\cos\varphi + t\sin\varphi) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : t \ge 0 \right\}.$$
 (1)

Let  $(m(\varphi), n(\varphi))$  be the center of the first *h*-neighborhood intersected by the ray.

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In other words  $(m(\varphi), n(\varphi))$  is the nearest to the origin point such that

```
R(m,n) > 0 and |U(m,n)| < h
```

where

$$R(x, y) = x \cos \varphi + y \sin \varphi,$$
  
$$U(x, y) = x \sin \varphi - y \cos \varphi + hv.$$

We denote by

$$r(\varphi) = h \cdot R(m(\varphi), n(\varphi)), \quad u(\varphi) = h^{-1} \cdot U(m(\varphi), n(\varphi)).$$

normalized free path length and normalized sighting (aiming?) parameter.

# Sinai problem

#### Suppose

$$0 < r_0 < \frac{1}{1 - |v|}$$
 and  $-1 < u_- < u_+ < 1$ .

#### Theorem (Bykovskii, A.U., 2007–2008)

Let |v| < c < 1. Then for all  $\varepsilon > 0$  for the distribution function

$$\Phi_{\nu}(h) = \Phi_{\nu}(h; \varphi_0, r_0, u_-, u_+) =$$
  
= 
$$\int_0^{\varphi_0} \chi_{[0, r_0]}(r(\varphi)) \chi_{[u_-, u_+]}(u(\varphi)) d\varphi$$

following asymptotic formula holds  $(h \rightarrow 0)$ 

$$\Phi_{\mathbf{v}}(h) = \int_{0}^{\varphi_{0}} \int_{0}^{r_{0}} \int_{u_{-}}^{u_{+}} \rho(\varphi, \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{v}, u) \, d\varphi \, d\mathbf{r} \, du + O_{\varepsilon, \mathbf{c}} \left(h^{\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon}\right)$$

Density function has following symmetries

$$\rho(\varphi, \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u}) = \rho(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u}) = \rho(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \rho(\mathbf{r}, -\mathbf{u}, -\mathbf{v}),$$

for  $u \ge |v|$  is equal to

$$\rho(r, u, v) = \begin{cases} \frac{6}{\pi^2}, & \text{if } 0 \le r \le \frac{1}{u+1}; \\ \frac{6}{\pi^2} \cdot \frac{1}{u-v} \left(\frac{1}{r} - 1 - v\right), & \text{if } \frac{1}{u+1} \le r \le \frac{1}{1+v}; \\ 0, & \text{if } \frac{1}{1+v} \le r. \end{cases}$$

From physical point of view  $\frac{1}{2\pi}\rho(\varphi, r, v, u)$  is the density of the particles moving along the ray (1), with unit speed after first reflection in *h*-neighborhood of the origin and passing distance  $R = h^{-1} \cdot r$  before next reflection with sighting parameter  $h \cdot u$ .

Reduced (2-dimensional) bases are important in different number theory algorithms:

- fast point multiplication on elliptic curves;
- prediction of pseudo random generators, numerical integration;
- combinatorial optimization...

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Work of these algorithms depends on properties of reduced basis (shorter vectors are better).

Let  $1 \le l \le a$ , (l, a) = 1 and  $e_1$  be the shortest vector of the lattice  $\Lambda_l = \{(x, y) : lx \equiv y \pmod{a}\}.$ 

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 $\|e_2\| \ge \|e_1\|$  and  $\|e_2 \pm e_1\| \ge \|e_2\|$ .

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Moreover vector  $e_2$  must lie on the line  $l(e_1)$  defined by equation  $det(e_1, e_2) = a$ .

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 and  $\|e_2 \pm e_1\| \ge \|e_2\|$ .

Moreover vector  $e_2$  must lie on the line  $I(e_1)$  defined by equation  $det(e_1, e_2) = a$ . By averaging over I we can get that vectors  $e_2$  distributed uniformly on  $\Omega(e_1) \cap I(e_1)$  with weight  $||e_2||_2^{-1}$ . Suppose  $e_1 = \sqrt{a}(\alpha, \beta), e_2 = \sqrt{a}(\gamma, \delta)$ .

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For example in the case of the most popular  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ -norm integration over  $e_2$  lead to the density function for  $e_1$ :

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$$p(\alpha,\beta) = \frac{4}{\zeta(2)} \min\left\{1, \frac{1-\alpha^2}{\alpha\beta}\right\} \qquad (0 \le \beta \le \alpha \le 1).$$

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$$\uparrow^{\beta}$$

$$p(\alpha,\beta) = \frac{4}{\zeta(2)}\beta = \frac{1}{\alpha} - \alpha$$

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By integrating over  $e_1$  we can get density function for  $t = ||e_2||/\sqrt{a}$ :

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By integrating over  $e_1$  we can get density function for  $t = ||e_2||/\sqrt{a}$ :

$$p(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } t \in \left[0, 1/\sqrt{2}\right]; \\ \frac{4}{\zeta(2)} \left(2t - \frac{1}{t} + \left(\frac{1}{t} - t\right)\right) \log\left(\frac{1}{t^2} - 1\right)\right), & \text{if } t \in \left[1/\sqrt{2}, 1\right]; \\ \frac{4}{\zeta(2)} \left(\frac{1}{t} + \left(t - \frac{1}{t}\right)\right) \log\left(1 - \frac{1}{t^2}\right)\right), & \text{if } t \in [1, \infty]. \end{cases}$$

(I) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1))

By integrating over  $e_1$  we can get density function for  $t = ||e_2||/\sqrt{a}$ :  $p(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } t \in \left[0, 1/\sqrt{2}\right]; \\ \frac{4}{\zeta(2)} \left(2t - \frac{1}{t} + \left(\frac{1}{t} - t\right)\right) \log\left(\frac{1}{t^2} - 1\right)\right), & \text{if } t \in \left[1/\sqrt{2}, 1\right]; \\ \frac{4}{\zeta(2)} \left(\frac{1}{t} + \left(t - \frac{1}{t}\right)\right) \log\left(1 - \frac{1}{t^2}\right)\right), & \text{if } t \in [1, \infty]. \end{cases}$  $\left[ - - - - (1, 4/\zeta(2)) \right]$