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

Alexey Ustinov (IAM FEB RAS) [Why do we need Gauss — Kuz'min statistics?](#page-124-0) 1 / 1 / 66

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\frac{a}{b} = [a_0; a_1, \ldots, a_s] = a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{\ddots + \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*).

 $A \cap \overline{B} \rightarrow A \Rightarrow A \Rightarrow A \Rightarrow$

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

$$
s_x(a/b)=\left|\{j: 1\leq j\leq s, [0;a_j,\ldots,a_s]\leq x\}\right|.
$$

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

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$$
N_k(a/b)=\big|\{j:1\leq j\leq s,a_j=k\}\big|
$$

(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

From geometrical point of view Gauss — Kuz'min statistics describe asymptotic behaviour of \mathbb{Z}^2 points in a given direction.

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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}}
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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

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

explain isotropic properties of sublattices in \mathbb{Z}^2 [.](#page-8-0)

- (Trivial) Euclidean algorithm, calculation of a^{−1} (mod *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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- Analysis of *Frieze Patterns* from *The Book of Numbers* (Conway and Guy)
- Calculation of Dedekind sums and Jacobi symbols.
- Algorithm for converting a segment into a nice-looking sequence of pixels. Another algorithms of integer linear programming: finding a "closest points" in a given halfplane.
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- A criterion for a rectangle to be tilable by rectangles of a similar shape. Construction of alternating-current circuits with given properties (Skopenkov).
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- Singularities resolution in toric surfaces. Slam dunking of rational surgery diagrams for a three-manifolds.

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Let *s*(*a*/*b*) be the **length** of standard continued fraction expansion (or the length of Euclidean algorithm) for

$$
a/b = [0; a_1, \ldots, a_s] \in (0, 1]
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 with $a_s = 1$.

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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

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

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 ≥ 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

$$
\widetilde{C}_P = C_P + \frac{2 \log 2}{\zeta(2)} \left(\frac{\zeta'(2)}{\zeta(2)} - \frac{1}{2} \right)
$$

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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.

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.

Theorem (Avdeeva — Bykovskii, 2002–2004)

If Ω(*R*) *is a sector:*

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

then

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

Theorem (A.U., 2005)

For any region Ω *with "good" boundary*

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

But Arnold's conjecture satisfies general. . .

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Theorem (A.U., 2005)

For any region Ω *with "good" boundary*

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\frac{1}{\text{Vol}(\Omega(R))}\sum_{(a,b)\in \Omega(R)} s_{\textsf{x}}(a/b) = \frac{2\log(\textsf{x}+1)}{\zeta(2)}\log R + C_{\Omega}(\textsf{x}) + O(R^{-1/5+\varepsilon}).
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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* $\Omega(R) = \{(a, b) : 0 < b < a \leq R\}$ 1 Vol $(\Omega(R))$ \sum (*a*,*b*)∈Ω(*R*) $s_{x}(a/b) = \frac{2\log(x+1)}{\zeta(2)}\log R + C_{\Omega}(x) + O(R^{-1/2+\varepsilon}).$

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

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Theorem (A.U., 2008)

$$
\frac{1}{\varphi(b)} \sum_{\substack{a=1 \\ (a,b)=1}}^{b} s_x(a/b) = \frac{2 \log(1+x)}{\zeta(2)} \log b + C_P(x) + O(b^{-1/6+\epsilon}),
$$

$$
\frac{2}{P(R+1)} \sum_{b \leq 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+\epsilon}),
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with complicate functions $C_P(x)$ *and* $C_P(x)$ *.*

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$$

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Applications: fast Euclidean algorithms.

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$$
a= bq+r, \quad q=\lfloor a/b\rfloor, \quad 0\leq r
$$

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$$
a= bq+r, \quad q=\lfloor a/b\rfloor, \quad 0\leq r
$$

centered division:

$$
a= bq+\varepsilon r, \quad \varepsilon=\pm 1, \quad q=\left[\frac{a}{b}-\frac{1}{2}\right], \quad 0\leq r\leq \frac{b}{2};
$$

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and odd division:

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a= bq+\varepsilon r, \quad \varepsilon=\pm 1, \quad q=2\left\lceil \frac{a}{2b} \right\rceil -1, \quad 0\leq r\leq b.
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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 \geq 1, 1 \leq *a* $<$ *b*, $(a, b) = 1, \, \varphi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$ 2 *. Then*

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

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

Moreover, if b/2 \leq *a, aa*^{*} \equiv 1 (mod *b*), 1 \leq *a*^{*} $<$ *b then*

$$
S_{\textit{odd}}\left(\frac{a^\star}{b}\right)+S_{\textit{odd}}\left(\frac{b-a^\star}{b}\right)=S_\varphi\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)+S_{\varphi-1}\left(\frac{a}{b}\right).
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Gauss — Kuz'min statistics Fast Euclidean algorithms

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$$

Here we used "reasonable" extension of Gauss — Kuz'min statistics for arbitrary $x > 0$:

$$
s_{x}(a/b) = |\{(j, t): 0 \leq j \leq s, 0 \leq t < a_{j}, [t; a_{j+1}, \ldots, a_{s}, 1] \leq x\}|
$$

(a₀ = +∞).

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

$$
\frac{1}{\varphi(b)}\sum_{\substack{a=1 \ (a,b)=1}}^b s_{centered}(a/b) = \frac{2\log\varphi}{\zeta(2)}\log b + C_1 + O(b^{-1/6+\epsilon}),
$$

$$
\frac{2}{B(B+1)}\sum_{b\leq R}\sum_{a=1}^b s_{centered}(a/b) = \frac{2\log\varphi}{\zeta(2)}\log R + \widetilde{C}_1 + O(R^{-1+\epsilon}),
$$

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

Corollary

We have

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

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

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

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Let a_1, \ldots, a_n be positive integers with $a_i > 2$ 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 *xⁱ* are non-negative integers. This number is denoted by $q(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ and is called the **Frobenius number**.

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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 $x, y > 0$ such that

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m=3x+5y.
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Frobenius numbers

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m=3x+5y.
$$

It is known that

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

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The challenge is to find q when $n > 3$.

- \bullet For *n* = 2 problem is easy: $g(a, b) = ab a b$.
- \bullet 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 $P = NP$.

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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*

$$
ax + by + cz, \qquad x, y, z \geq 1.
$$

Positive Frobenius numbers are better because of Johnson's formula: for *d* | *a*, *d* | *b* $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}$

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

Example

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

Alexey Ustinov (IAM FEB RAS) [Why do we need Gauss — Kuz'min statistics?](#page-0-0) 24 / 66

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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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length(\uparrow) = 3, length(\uparrow) = 5

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

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画
- 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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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*

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

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$$

follows that for some *n*

$$
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$$

Theorem (Ö. Rödseth, 1978)

f(*a*, *b*, *c*) = *bs*_{*n*-1} + *cq*_{*n*} − min {*bs*_{*n*}, *cq*_{*n*-1}}.

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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 *l* is such that

$$
bl \equiv c \pmod{a}, \qquad 1 \le l \le a.
$$

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

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

Frobenius numbers Rödseth formula

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where $a_1,\,\ldots,\,a_m\geq$ 2, defines the same sequences $\{s_j\},\,\{q_j\}$ by

$$
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$$

we have one-to-one correspondence between the set of quadruples (*qn*, *sn*, *qn*−1, *sn*−1) (taken for all lattices Λ*^l*) and the solutions of the equation

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

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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**

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

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 $c_n^{n-\sqrt{a_1} \ldots a_n}$ for some constant $c_n > 0$.

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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

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Theorem (A.U., 2009)

Frobenius numbers f(*a*, *b*, *c*) *have weak asymptotic* ⁸ π √ *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:

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

Theorem (A.U., 2010)

Normalized Frobenius numbers of three arguments have limiting density function:

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

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 (α, β, 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

$$
p(\alpha,\beta,r)=\begin{cases} \frac{2}{\zeta(2)r}, & r\leq \min\{\alpha,\beta\}, 1\leq \alpha\beta\leq 1+r^2, \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}
$$

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

For usual Kloosterman sums

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

Estermann bound is known

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

This bound can be generalized for the case of sums *Kq*(*l*, *m*, *n*).

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This bound can be generalized for the case of sums *Kq*(*l*, *m*, *n*).

Theorem (A.U., 2008)

$$
|K_q(l,m,n)| \leq \sigma_0(q) \cdot \sigma_0((l,m,n,q)) \cdot (lm,lm,mn,q)^{1/2} \cdot q^{1/2}.
$$

This estimate allows to count solutions of the congruence $xy \equiv l$ (mod *a*) in different regions. $\left\{ \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} x_i : i \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$

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Corollary

Let q \geq 1, 0 \leq *P*₁, *P*₂ \leq *q. Then for any real Q*₁, *Q*₂

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

and

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

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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.

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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. Let $q \geq 1$, *f* be positive function and *T*[*f*] be the number of solutions of the congruence $xy \equiv l \pmod{q}$ in the region $P_1 < x < P_2$, 0 $< y \le f(x)$:

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

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$$
\mathcal{T}[f] = \sum_{P_1 < x \leq P_2} \sum_{0 < y \leq f(x)} \delta_q(xy - 1).
$$

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 $xy \equiv l$ (mod *q*) over *y* such that $1 < y < q$.

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Theorem (A.U., 2008)

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

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

Then

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

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).
- Distribution of diameters and distribution of shortest cycles in *circulant graphs* (often also called multi-loop networks) were studied by J. Marklof and A. Strömbergsson (2011). They proved existence of these distributions for arbitrary *n* and made some interesting numerical computations.
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Sinai problem

Let $0 < h < \frac{1}{8}$ $\frac{1}{8}$, $\mathcal{T} > 0$ and $\Omega_h(\mathcal{T})$ 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 $\Omega_h(T)$:

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

In 1918 Polya proved that

$$
G_h(T)=1
$$

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

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

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

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.

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

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

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

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.

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Sinai problem

Suppose

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

Theorem (Bykovskii, A.U., 2007–2008)

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

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

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

$$
\Phi_{\nu}(h)=\int_0^{\varphi_0}\int_0^{r_0}\int_{u_-}^{u_+}\rho(\varphi,r,\nu,u)\,d\varphi\,dr\,du+O_{\varepsilon,c}\left(h^{\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon}\right).
$$

Density function has following symmetries

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

for $u > |v|$ 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 $\frac{1}{2\pi}\rho(\varphi,r,\mathsf{v},\mathsf{u})$ is the density of the particles moving along the ray [\(1\)](#page-108-0), 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* · *u*.

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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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- fast point multiplication on elliptic curves;
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- combinatorial optimization...

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

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

Let $1 \leq l \leq a$, $(l, a) = 1$ and e_1 be the shortest vector of the lattice $\Lambda_l = \{(x, y) : l_x \equiv y \pmod{a}\}$. Basis (e_1, e_2) is reduced iff $e_2 \in \Omega(e_1)$ where $\Omega(e_1)$ is the plane region defined by inequalities

 $||e_2||$ \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 $I(e_1)$ defined by equation $det(e_1, e_2) = a.$

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Moreover vector e_2 must lie on the line $I(e_1)$ defined by equation $det(e_1, e_2) = a$. By averaging over *l* we can get that vectors e_2 distributed uniformly on $\Omega(\boldsymbol{e}_1) \cap \mathit{l}(\boldsymbol{e}_1)$ with weight $\|\boldsymbol{e}_2\|_2^{-1}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ outed 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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By integrating over \boldsymbol{e}_1 we can get density function for $t = \|\boldsymbol{e}_2\|/2$ √ *a*: $p(t) =$ $\sqrt{ }$ \int $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$ 0, if $t \in [0, 1/$ √ $\overline{\mathsf{2}}]$; 4 $\frac{4}{\zeta(2)}\left(2t - \frac{1}{t} + \left(\frac{1}{t} - t\right)\right)$ log $\left(\frac{1}{t^2}\right)$ $\frac{1}{t^2}$ − 1))), if *t* ∈ $\left[1/$ √ $\overline{\mathsf{2}},\mathsf{1}$; 4 $\frac{4}{\zeta(2)}\left(\frac{1}{t} + \left(t - \frac{1}{t}\right)\right)$ $\frac{1}{t})\big)$ log $\big(1-\frac{1}{t^2}\big)$ $\left(\frac{1}{t^2}\right)$), if $t \in [1,\infty]$.

