

Natural numbers n for which $\lfloor n\alpha + s \rfloor \neq \lfloor n\beta + s \rfloor$

by

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1. Introduction. The sequence $\lfloor n\alpha \rfloor$, with $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, has been studied many times. A usual approach is to replace it with the simpler sequence $\lfloor na/b \rfloor$, where a/b is a rational approximation to α such as an approximant of the continued fraction of α . Here $\lfloor x \rfloor$ is the greatest integer less than or equal to x . Knowing how close a/b is to α , the natural question is how close the corresponding sequences $\lfloor n\alpha \rfloor$ and $\lfloor na/b \rfloor$ are to one another.

A typical example occurs when one studies the function $\sum_{n \geq 0} x^{\lfloor n\alpha \rfloor}$. This sum at first looks difficult to handle, but the key is to realize that it is exceptionally well approximated by the function $\sum_{n \geq 0} x^{\lfloor na/b \rfloor}$ when a/b is a good rational approximation to α . It is not difficult to show that this latter sum is in fact a rational function and one gets excellent information about the original function.

In [2] the question of exactly how well $\lfloor na/b \rfloor$ could approximate $\lfloor n\alpha \rfloor$ was thoroughly studied. This was motivated by the observation in [4] that

$$(1) \quad \left\lfloor n \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor n \frac{F_{i+1}}{F_i} \right\rfloor$$

for $0 \leq n < F_{i+2}$. (Here, as usual, F_i is the i th Fibonacci number with $F_0 = 0$.) On the other hand, for the purpose of studying discrepancy, it was proved in [9] that

$$(2) \quad \lfloor n\alpha \rfloor = \left\lfloor n \frac{p_i}{q_i} \right\rfloor$$

for $0 \leq n < q_{i+1}$. (Here p_i/q_i is the i th convergent of the regular continued of α .) It is not difficult to see that the interval of equality in (1) is optimal; at $n = F_{i+2}$ the two greatest integer functions are no longer equal. On the

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other hand, the interval of equality in (2) is not always maximal, (1) being an example of this.

This led one of the authors to consider in [2] the least natural number n for which the sequences $\lfloor n\alpha \rfloor$ and $\lfloor na/b \rfloor$ are not equal. In fact, in [2] the more general case of two *real numbers* α and β was considered, and this brought into consideration a whole new topological perspective. The least integer n for which $\lfloor n\alpha \rfloor \neq \lfloor n\beta \rfloor$ was denoted by $\Psi(\beta, \alpha)$. Furthermore, in [2], the more general problem was solved, of finding, for given real numbers α , β and s , the least natural number n for which $\lfloor n\alpha + s \rfloor \neq \lfloor n\beta + s \rfloor$. This number n was denoted by $\Psi(\beta, \alpha; s)$.

In this paper we move on to consider two basic problems which are motivated by the work in [2]. The first problem is to study the expected value and other statistical quantities related to $\Psi(\beta, \alpha; 0)$. We give asymptotic formulas for the probability that $\Psi(\beta, \alpha; 0)$ is greater than a positive integer Q and compute the expected value of $\Psi(\beta, \alpha; 0)$. This last constant is found to have the value 4. Typically after the first value of n for which $\lfloor n\alpha + s \rfloor \neq \lfloor n\beta + s \rfloor$ there will be an interval of equality again, followed by a second point of inequality and so on, until they are eventually unequal for all large n . Our second problem is to investigate the successive points of inequality. We define $\Psi_k(\beta, \alpha; s)$ to be the k th natural number n for which $\lfloor n\alpha + s \rfloor \neq \lfloor n\beta + s \rfloor$. We give a theoretical formula for Ψ_k . We also denote by $\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha; s)$ the set of positive integers n for which $\lfloor n\alpha + s \rfloor \neq \lfloor n\beta + s \rfloor$. It is easy to see that $\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha; 0)$ is a semigroup. We determine a set of generators (in a certain sense) for the semigroup and characterize it in various ways.

2. The probability $P(\Psi > Q)$. In this section we investigate how often $\Psi(\alpha, \beta)$ is large. More precisely, we want to establish an asymptotic formula for the probability, call it $P(\Psi > Q)$, that $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) > Q$, where Q is a large positive integer and α, β vary independently in $[0, 1]$. We first look at the probability, call it $P(\Psi = N)$, that $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) = N$, where N is a given large positive integer and α, β vary independently in $[0, 1]$. We could, of course, allow α, β to take also real values larger than 1, but by Proposition 3.1 of [2] we know that if $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) = N > 1$ then $\lfloor \alpha \rfloor = \lfloor \beta \rfloor$ and $\Psi(\{\alpha\}, \{\beta\}) = N$. In view of this periodicity, in the following we will only consider the case $\alpha, \beta \in [0, 1]$. Denote

$$(3) \quad \mathcal{M}_N = \{(\alpha, \beta) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1] : \Psi(\alpha, \beta) = N\}.$$

If we denote by μ the Lebesgue measure on $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, then

$$(4) \quad P(\Psi = N) = \mu(\mathcal{M}_N).$$

Since the set of points $(\alpha, \beta) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ for which at least one of α, β is rational has measure zero, we may restrict in what follows to the case when both α and β are irrational.

Fix now an integer $N > 1$ and irrational numbers $0 < \alpha < \beta < 1$ such that $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) = N$. Then choose a large positive integer Q and consider the Farey sequence \mathcal{F}_Q of order Q . The intersection of \mathcal{F}_Q with the interval (α, β) consists of, say, M points, which we arrange in increasing order: $\gamma_1 < \dots < \gamma_M$. By a repeated application of Proposition 3.1(d) of [2], we see that

$$(5) \quad N = \Psi(\alpha, \beta) = \min\{\Psi(\alpha, \gamma_1), \Psi(\gamma_1, \gamma_2), \dots, \Psi(\gamma_{M-1}, \gamma_M), \Psi(\gamma_M, \beta)\}.$$

Note that, since α and β are irrational, the numbers $n\alpha$ and $n\beta$ with $1 \leq n \leq N$ are not integers. Thus there exists an $\epsilon > 0$, depending on α, β and N , such that for any γ with $\alpha < \gamma < \alpha + \epsilon$ one has $\Psi(\alpha, \gamma) > N$, and similarly for any γ with $\beta - \epsilon < \gamma < \beta$ one has $\Psi(\gamma, \beta) > N$. We choose our Q to be large enough so that $\gamma_1 \in (\alpha, \alpha + \epsilon)$ and $\gamma_M \in (\beta - \epsilon, \beta)$. Then

$$(6) \quad \min\{\Psi(\alpha, \gamma_1), \Psi(\gamma_M, \beta)\} > N.$$

On combining (5) with (6) we find that

$$(7) \quad \Psi(\alpha, \beta) = \min\{\Psi(\gamma_1, \gamma_2), \dots, \Psi(\gamma_{M-1}, \gamma_M)\}.$$

Next, if we denote for $j = 1, \dots, M$ by a_j and q_j the numerator and respectively the denominator of γ_j , written in its lowest terms, then by a fundamental property of Farey sequences we know that $a_{j+1}q_j - a_jq_{j+1} = 1$ for any $1 \leq j \leq M - 1$. Therefore we may apply Corollary 4.1 of [2], which, in our case, states that

$$(8) \quad \Psi\left(\frac{a_j}{q_j}, \frac{a_{j+1}}{q_{j+1}}\right) = q_{j+1}$$

for $1 \leq j \leq M - 1$. From (5), (7) and (8) it follows that

$$(9) \quad N = \min\{q_2, q_3, \dots, q_M\}.$$

As a consequence, no element of the Farey sequence \mathcal{F}_{N-1} of order $N - 1$ lies inside the interval (α, β) , otherwise one of the numbers q_j from the right side of (9) will have to be strictly less than N , contradicting (9). On the other hand, one of the numbers q_j from the right side of (9) equals N , thus the Farey sequence \mathcal{F}_N does have at least one element inside the interval (α, β) .

We may interpret the above results in the following way. Let $N > 1$ be an integer and consider the Farey sequences \mathcal{F}_{N-1} and \mathcal{F}_N . Then, if α and β are irrational numbers with $0 < \alpha < \beta < 1$ and such that $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) = N$, the interval (α, β) will contain an element a/N , with $1 \leq a < N$ and $(a, N) = 1$, from \mathcal{F}_N , but it will contain no element from \mathcal{F}_{N-1} . If $\gamma' = a'/q'$ and $\gamma'' = a''/q''$ are the left and respectively right neighbors of a/N in \mathcal{F}_N , and if we denote the open intervals $(\gamma', a/N)$ and $(a/N, \gamma'')$ by $I_{a/N}$ and respectively $J_{a/N}$, then $\gamma', \gamma'' \in \mathcal{F}_{N-1}$, and one must have $\alpha \in I_{a/N}$ and

$\beta \in J_{a/N}$. By the basic properties of Farey fractions we know that the length $|I_{a/N}|$ of the interval $I_{a/N}$ satisfies

$$(10) \quad |I_{a/N}| = \frac{1}{q'N},$$

and similarly,

$$(11) \quad |J_{a/N}| = \frac{1}{q''N}.$$

One also has the equality

$$(12) \quad q' + q'' = N.$$

Let us suppose, conversely, that the interval (α, β) contains an element of \mathcal{F}_N but does not contain any element of \mathcal{F}_{N-1} . Then (9) holds, and from (7) and (8) one further obtains $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) = N$. In conclusion, if α, β are irrational numbers with $0 < \alpha < \beta < 1$, then the pair (α, β) belongs to \mathcal{M}_N if and only if it belongs to the union

$$(13) \quad \mathcal{U}_N := \bigcup_{(a,N)=1} I_{a/N} \times J_{a/N}.$$

By (4) and (13) one finds that

$$(14) \quad P(\Psi = N) = 2\mu(\mathcal{U}_N) = 2 \sum_{\substack{1 \leq a \leq N \\ (a,N)=1}} |I_{a/N}| \cdot |J_{a/N}|.$$

On combining this with (10)–(12) we derive

$$(15) \quad P(\Psi = N) = \frac{2}{N^2} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq a \leq N \\ (a,N)=1}} \frac{1}{q'(N - q')}.$$

Now, for any $1 \leq q \leq N$ with $(q, N) = 1$, there exists a unique pair of consecutive elements of \mathcal{F}_N with denominators q and N (in this order). It follows that

$$(16) \quad P(\Psi = N) = \frac{2}{N^2} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq q \leq N \\ (q,N)=1}} \frac{1}{q(N - q)} = \frac{4}{N^3} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq q \leq N \\ (q,N)=1}} \frac{1}{q}.$$

This gives an exact expression for the probability $P(\Psi = N)$. An asymptotic formula for the probability $P(\Psi > Q)$ that $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) > Q$, for a large positive integer Q , where as before α and β vary independently in $[0, 1]$, can be derived as follows. If we repeat the arguments from this section with the condition $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) = N$ replaced by the condition $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) > Q$, where α, β are irrational numbers satisfying $0 < \alpha < \beta < 1$, we see that $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) > Q$ if and only if the interval (α, β) does not contain any element of \mathcal{F}_Q . In other words, if $0 = \gamma_0 < \gamma_1 < \dots < \gamma_{N(Q)} = 1$ denote the Farey fractions of order Q , then $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) > Q$ if and only if α and β belong to the same interval of

the form (γ_j, γ_{j+1}) . Therefore

$$(17) \quad P(\Psi > Q) = \sum_{j=1}^{N(Q)} (\gamma_{j+1} - \gamma_j)^2,$$

where we set $\gamma_{N(Q)+j} = \gamma_j + 1$ for $1 \leq j < N(Q)$. A sharp estimate for the sum on the right side of (17) has been provided by Kanemitsu, Sitaramachandra Rao and Siva Rama Sarma in [8], the result being

$$(18) \quad S_0(Q) := \sum_{j=1}^{N(Q)} (\gamma_{j+1} - \gamma_j)^2 = \frac{12}{\pi^2 Q^2} \left(\log Q + \gamma - \frac{\zeta'(2)}{\zeta(2)} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + O_\epsilon \left(\frac{\log^{5/3} Q (\log \log Q)^{1+\epsilon}}{Q^3} \right),$$

where γ is Euler's constant and ζ is the Riemann zeta function. We thus have the following result.

THEOREM 1.

(i) For any positive integer N ,

$$P(\Psi = N) = \frac{4}{N^3} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq q \leq N \\ (q, N)=1}} \frac{1}{q}.$$

(ii) For any $\epsilon > 0$ and any positive integer Q ,

$$P(\Psi > Q) = \frac{12}{\pi^2 Q^2} \left(\log Q + \gamma - \frac{\zeta'(2)}{\zeta(2)} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + O_\epsilon \left(\frac{\log^{5/3} Q (\log \log Q)^{1+\epsilon}}{Q^3} \right).$$

An estimate for a subsum of (18) of the form

$$S_0(Q, I) = \sum_{\gamma_j \in I} (\gamma_{j+1} - \gamma_j)^2,$$

where the summation is over Farey fractions from a fixed subinterval I of $[0, 1]$ with rational endpoints, has been obtained in Theorem 2 of [1]. The result is

$$(19) \quad S_0(Q, I) = |I|S_0(Q) + 2c_I Q^{-2} + O_\epsilon(Q^{-21/10+\epsilon}),$$

where the constant c_I is given by

$$(20) \quad c_I = \sum_{q \geq 1} \frac{\#\{a \in qI : \gcd(a, q) = 1\} - |I|\varphi(q)}{q^2}.$$

This provides us in turn with an asymptotic result for the probability, call it $P_I(\Psi > Q)$, that $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) > Q$, for a large positive integer Q , where α and β vary independently in a fixed subinterval I of $[0, 1]$. We state the result in the following theorem.

THEOREM 2. *For any subinterval I of $[0, 1]$ with rational endpoints, any $\epsilon > 0$ and any positive integer Q ,*

$$P_I(\Psi > Q) = \frac{12}{\pi^2 Q^2 |I|} \left(\log Q + \gamma - \frac{\zeta'(2)}{\zeta(2)} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{2c_I}{|I|^2 Q^2} + O_\epsilon \left(\frac{1}{|I|^2 Q^{21/10-\epsilon}} \right).$$

3. The expected value of Ψ . In this section we determine the expected value, call it $E(\Psi)$, of $\Psi(\alpha, \beta)$ as α, β vary independently in the interval $[0, 1]$. We have

$$(21) \quad E(\Psi) = \sum_{N=1}^{\infty} NP(\Psi = N).$$

Note that $\Psi(\alpha, \beta) \geq 2$ for any $\alpha, \beta \in [0, 1)$, so $P(\Psi = 1) = 0$. For $N > 1$ we may use (16), and (21) becomes

$$(22) \quad E(\Psi) = 4 \sum_{N=2}^{\infty} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq q \leq N \\ (q, N)=1}} \frac{1}{qN^2} = -4 + 4 \sum_{N=1}^{\infty} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq q \leq N \\ (q, N)=1}} \frac{1}{qN^2}.$$

On the right side of (22) we use Möbius summation to derive

$$(23) \quad E(\Psi) = -4 + 4 \sum_{N=1}^{\infty} \sum_{1 \leq q \leq N} \sum_{\substack{d|N \\ d|q}} \frac{\mu(d)}{qN^2}.$$

Here we write $N = dm$, $q = dn$, then interchange the order of summation to obtain

$$(24) \quad E(\Psi) = -4 + 4 \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^3} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \sum_{1 \leq n \leq m} \frac{1}{m^2 n} = -4 + 4\zeta(3)^{-1}S,$$

where

$$(25) \quad S = \sum_{m \geq n \geq 1} \frac{1}{m^2 n} = \sum_{m > n \geq 1} \frac{1}{m^2 n} + \sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{1}{m^3} = \zeta(2, 1) + \zeta(3) = 2\zeta(3).$$

Here $\zeta(2, 1)$ is a multiple zeta value. The relation $\zeta(2, 1) = \zeta(3)$ is an instance of the duality formula for multiple zeta values first conjectured by Hoffman [7] and proved by Zagier [10] (see also Section 3.1 of [3]). Hence we have the following theorem.

THEOREM 3. *The expected value of $\Psi(\alpha, \beta)$ as α, β vary independently in $[0, 1]$ is $E(\Psi) = 4$.*

4. Determination of $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha)$. Recall that $\Psi_k(\beta, \alpha)$ is the k th positive integer n such that $[n\alpha] \neq [n\beta]$.

In this section we are concerned with $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha)$.

PROPOSITION 1. Assume $\beta \leq \gamma \leq \alpha$.

(i) If $\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma) = \Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)$, then

$$(26) \quad \Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) = \min\{\Psi_2(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)\}.$$

(ii) If $\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma) \neq \Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)$, then

$$(27) \quad \Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) = \min\{\max\{\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)\}, \Psi_2(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)\}.$$

Proof. Since $\beta \leq \gamma \leq \alpha$, it follows that $\lfloor n\beta \rfloor \leq \lfloor n\gamma \rfloor \leq \lfloor n\alpha \rfloor$. Thus if either $\lfloor n\beta \rfloor < \lfloor n\gamma \rfloor$ or $\lfloor n\gamma \rfloor < \lfloor n\alpha \rfloor$, then $\lfloor n\beta \rfloor < \lfloor n\alpha \rfloor$. We now proceed to prove (i). Because $\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma) = \Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)$, the next n for which either $\lfloor n\beta \rfloor < \lfloor n\gamma \rfloor$ or $\lfloor n\gamma \rfloor < \lfloor n\alpha \rfloor$ will be $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha)$. But this will occur at $\min\{\Psi_2(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)\}$, which proves (i).

In the following we will refer to the equality $\lfloor n\beta \rfloor = \lfloor n\gamma \rfloor$ as the “left equality”, to $\lfloor n\gamma \rfloor = \lfloor n\alpha \rfloor$ as the “right equality”, and to $\lfloor n\beta \rfloor = \lfloor n\alpha \rfloor$ as the “outer equality”.

Next, we turn to the proof of (ii). If both $\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma)$ and $\Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)$ are less than both of $\Psi_2(\beta, \gamma)$ and $\Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)$, then $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha)$ will equal the larger of $\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma)$ and $\Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)$ since $\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma) \neq \Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)$ and thus there will be two failures of equality at both left and right equalities before either $\Psi_2(\beta, \gamma)$ or $\Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)$ are reached. The other possibility is that one of $\Psi_2(\beta, \gamma)$ or $\Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)$ is less than one of $\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma)$ or $\Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)$. In this case $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha)$ will be the smaller of $\Psi_2(\beta, \gamma)$ or $\Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)$, and this completes the proof of the proposition.

PROPOSITION 2. If $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{1}{bd} = \frac{c}{d}$, then

$$(28) \quad \Psi_2\left(\frac{a}{b}, \frac{c}{d}\right) = \begin{cases} b + d & \text{if } b < d, \\ 2d & \text{if } b \geq d. \end{cases}$$

Proof. Note that if $b = d$ then $b = d = 1$ and $\Psi_2\left(\frac{a}{b}, \frac{c}{d}\right) = 2 = 2d$. Now $\lfloor n\frac{a}{b} \rfloor = \lfloor n\frac{c}{d} \rfloor$ is equivalent to $\lfloor n\frac{c}{d} - \lfloor n\frac{a}{b} \rfloor \rfloor = 0$. This is the same as $\lfloor n\frac{c}{d} - n\frac{a}{b} + \{\frac{na}{b}\} \rfloor = 0$, which is equivalent to $0 \leq \frac{n}{bd} + \{\frac{na}{b}\} < 1$. Hence we seek the second value of n such that

$$(29) \quad \frac{n}{bd} + \left\{ \frac{na}{b} \right\} \geq 1.$$

It is easy to see that the first n for which (29) holds is $n = d$. Indeed, for $n < d$, $\frac{n}{bd} < \frac{1}{b}$. Also, $\{\frac{da}{b}\} = \{\frac{bc-1}{b}\} = \frac{b-1}{b}$. We now distinguish two cases.

CASE I: $d > b$. If $n = d + b$, then $\frac{1}{b} < \frac{n}{bd} < \frac{2}{b}$ and $\{\frac{na}{b}\} = \frac{b-1}{b}$. Thus $\Psi_2\left(\frac{a}{b}, \frac{c}{d}\right) = b + d$. Note that $n = d + b$ is the least $n > d$ for which $\{\frac{na}{b}\} = \frac{b-1}{b}$.

CASE II: $d < b$. If $d < n < 2d$, then $\frac{1}{b} < \frac{n}{bd} < \frac{2}{b}$ and accordingly, the only chance for (29) to hold for n in this range is for $\{\frac{na}{b}\} = \frac{b-1}{b}$. But after $n = d$, the next case of $\{\frac{na}{b}\} = \frac{b-1}{b}$ is $n = d + b > 2d$. The least n for which

$\frac{n}{bd} \geq \frac{2}{b}$ is $n = 2d$. At $n = 2d$, $\{\frac{na}{b}\} = \{\frac{2ad}{b}\} = \{\frac{2bc-2}{b}\} = \frac{b-2}{b}$. Accordingly $\Psi_2(\frac{a}{b}, \frac{c}{d}) = 2d$ in this case, which completes the proof of the proposition.

Recall from [2] the definition of the coconvergent and the semiconvergents of two real numbers β and α . (See also Section 6 below.) Choosing the semiconvergents between β and α and using Propositions 1 and 2 and simplifying the resulting minimums and maximums, we obtain the following result.

PROPOSITION 3. *Assume $\beta < \alpha$. Then*

$$(30) \quad \Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) = \min\{b_{-1}, 2b_0, b_1\},$$

where a_0/b_0 is the coconvergent of β and α , a_{-1}/b_{-1} is the intermediate convergent of β just less than a_0/b_0 , and a_1/b_1 is the intermediate convergent of α greater than a_0/b_0 .

5. The probability $P(\Psi_2 > Q)$. Let Q be a large positive integer. Since $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha)$ is larger than $\Psi_1(\beta, \alpha)$ for any α, β , we may write

$$(31) \quad P(\Psi_2 > Q) = P(\Psi_1 > Q) + P(\Psi_1 \leq Q, \Psi_2 > Q),$$

where $P(\Psi_1 \leq Q, \Psi_2 > Q)$ stands for the probability that one has simultaneously $\Psi_1(\beta, \alpha) \leq Q$ and $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) > Q$ as β and α vary independently in $[0, 1]$. For the probability $P(\Psi_1 > Q)$ we have the asymptotic result provided by Theorem 1. It remains to estimate $P(\Psi_1 \leq Q, \Psi_2 > Q)$. Let

$$(32) \quad \mathcal{V}_Q = \{(\alpha, \beta) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1] : \Psi_1(\beta, \alpha) \leq Q, \Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) > Q\}.$$

Then

$$(33) \quad P(\Psi_1 \leq Q, \Psi_2 > Q) = \mu(\mathcal{V}_Q).$$

Let $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathcal{V}_Q$ with $0 < \beta < \alpha < 1$. As before, we may assume that α and β are irrational. Denote $\Psi_1(\beta, \alpha) = N$. By the reasoning from Section 2 above we know that the interval (β, α) contains exactly one element of \mathcal{F}_N , and this element has the form a/N , with $1 \leq a < N$ and $(a, N) = 1$. Let a_1/q_1 be a rational number from the interval (β, α) , with $a_1/q_1 \neq a/N$ and q_1 as small as possible. Thus $q_1 > N$.

We claim that $q_1 > Q$. Indeed, let us choose an irrational number γ between the numbers a_1/q_1 and a/N . Then one of the numbers a_1/q_1 or a/N lies inside the interval (β, γ) , and the other lies inside the interval (γ, α) . Again by the reasoning from Section 2 it follows that one of the numbers $\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma)$ or $\Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)$ equals N , and the other equals q_1 . Since $N < q_1$, one has $\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma) \neq \Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)$. Thus Proposition 1(ii) is applicable, and we derive

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) &= \min\{\max\{\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)\}, \Psi_2(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)\} \\ &\leq \max\{\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)\} = \max\{N, q_1\} = q_1. \end{aligned}$$

But $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) > Q$, and so $q_1 > Q$, which proves the claim.

Our second claim is that $2N > Q$. Indeed, let $c/d \in (\beta, a/N)$ be such that

$$(34) \quad \frac{c}{d} + \frac{1}{dN} = \frac{a}{N}.$$

To find such a fraction c/d , one may simply choose a large M so that \mathcal{F}_M has elements in the open interval $(\beta, a/N)$, and let c/d be the largest element of \mathcal{F}_M in the interval $(\beta, a/N)$. Then c/d is the left neighbor of a/N in \mathcal{F}_M , and (34) follows from the basic properties of Farey fractions. Next, from (34) and Proposition 2 we find that

$$(35) \quad \Psi_2\left(\frac{c}{d}, \frac{a}{N}\right) = N + \min\{d, N\} = 2N.$$

By Proposition 1, applied to the numbers $\beta < c/d < a/N$, we see that

$$(36) \quad \Psi_2\left(\beta, \frac{a}{N}\right) \leq \min\left(\Psi_2\left(\beta, \frac{c}{d}\right), \Psi_2\left(\frac{c}{d}, \frac{a}{N}\right)\right).$$

Applying Proposition 1 to the numbers $\beta < a/N < \alpha$ we derive

$$(37) \quad \Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) \leq \min\left(\Psi_2\left(\beta, \frac{a}{N}\right), \Psi_2\left(\frac{a}{N}, \alpha\right)\right).$$

By (35)–(37) it follows that $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) \leq 2N$. On combining this with the inequality $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) > Q$, the claim follows.

Putting together the above two claims, we find that if $0 < \beta < \alpha < 1$, α, β irrational, $\Psi_1(\beta, \alpha) \leq Q \leq \Psi_2(\beta, \alpha)$, then the interval (β, α) contains exactly one element of \mathcal{F}_Q , and moreover the denominator N of this element is $> Q/2$.

Conversely, let $0 < \beta < \alpha < 1$, α, β irrational, such that the interval (β, α) contains exactly one element of \mathcal{F}_Q , call it a/N , where $1 \leq a \leq N$, $(a, N) = 1$, which furthermore satisfies the inequality $2N > Q$. We then claim that $\Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) > Q$. In order to prove the claim, let us first observe that since $2N > Q$, there is only one number $n \in \{1, \dots, Q\}$ such that an/N is an integer, namely $n = N$. Hence there exists an $\epsilon > 0$ such that for any $\gamma \in (a/N - \epsilon, a/N)$ and any $\delta \in (a/N, a/N + \epsilon)$ one has $\lfloor n\gamma \rfloor = \lfloor n\delta \rfloor$ for all $n \in \{1, \dots, Q\}$ with the exception of $n = N$. It then follows directly from the definition that $\Psi_2(\gamma, \delta) > Q$. Fix now some such irrational numbers γ and δ . We know from Section 2 that $\Psi_1(\delta, \alpha) > Q$ since \mathcal{F}_Q does not have any elements in the interval (δ, α) . Also, $\Psi_1(\gamma, \delta) = N$, since a/N is the only element of \mathcal{F}_N inside the interval (γ, δ) . Then Proposition 1(ii), applied to the numbers $\gamma < \delta < \alpha$, gives

$$(38) \quad \begin{aligned} \Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha) &= \min\{\max\{\Psi_1(\gamma, \delta), \Psi_1(\delta, \alpha)\}, \Psi_2(\gamma, \delta), \Psi_2(\delta, \alpha)\} \\ &= \min\{\Psi_1(\delta, \alpha), \Psi_2(\gamma, \delta), \Psi_2(\delta, \alpha)\} = \min\{\Psi_1(\delta, \alpha), \Psi_2(\gamma, \delta)\} > Q. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, one has $\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma) > Q$ since \mathcal{F}_Q does not have any element in the interval (β, γ) , and $\Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha) = N$ since a/N is the only element of \mathcal{F}_N inside the interval (γ, α) . Using (38) in combination with Proposition 1(ii) applied to $\beta < \gamma < \alpha$, we deduce that

$$\begin{aligned} (39) \quad \Psi_2(\beta, \alpha) &= \min\{\max\{\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha)\}, \Psi_2(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)\} \\ &= \min\{\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_2(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)\} \\ &= \min\{\Psi_1(\beta, \gamma), \Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha)\} > Q. \end{aligned}$$

This proves the claim. In conclusion, the set \mathcal{V}_Q has the following shape. For any N with $\lfloor Q/2 \rfloor + 1 \leq N \leq Q$ and any $1 \leq a \leq N$ with $(a, N) = 1$, if γ' and γ'' denote the left and respectively the right neighbors of a/N in \mathcal{F}_Q , then β and α are allowed to vary independently inside the intervals $I'_{a/N} = (\gamma', a/N)$ and respectively $I''_{a/N} = (a/N, \gamma'')$. Putting together the contribution of all such fractions a/N , we see that

$$(40) \quad P(\Psi_1 \leq Q, \Psi_2 > Q) = 2 \sum_{\lfloor Q/2 \rfloor + 1 \leq N \leq Q} \sum_{(a, N)=1} |I'_{a/N}| \cdot |I''_{a/N}|.$$

If we denote the elements of \mathcal{F}_Q , in increasing order, by $\gamma_j = a_j/q_j$, $1 \leq j \leq N(Q)$, then (40) becomes

$$(41) \quad P(\Psi_1 \leq Q, \Psi_2 > Q) = 2 \sum_{\substack{1 \leq j \leq N(Q) \\ \lfloor Q/2 \rfloor + 1 \leq q_j}} (\gamma_{j+1} - \gamma_j)(\gamma_j - \gamma_{j-1}).$$

The sum on the right side of (41) is a subsum of

$$(42) \quad S_1(Q) := \sum_{j=1}^{N(Q)} (\gamma_{j+1} - \gamma_j)(\gamma_{j+2} - \gamma_{j+1}).$$

In [5], Hall provides the asymptotic formula

$$(43) \quad S_1(Q) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 Q^2} \left(\log Q + \gamma - \frac{\zeta'(2)}{\zeta(2)} + B \right) + O\left(\frac{\log Q}{Q^{5/2}}\right),$$

where γ is Euler's constant and

$$B = \frac{1}{2} + \log 2 + 2 \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{\zeta(2k) - 1}{2k - 1} = 2.546277 \dots$$

To evaluate the subsum on the right side of (41), we use the equalities $\gamma_{j+1} - \gamma_j = \frac{1}{q_j q_{j+1}}$ and $\gamma_j - \gamma_{j-1} = \frac{1}{q_{j-1} q_j}$ to obtain

$$P(\Psi_1 \leq Q, \Psi_2 > Q) = 2 \sum_{\substack{1 \leq j \leq N(Q) \\ \lfloor Q/2 \rfloor + 1 \leq q_j}} 1/q_{j-1} q_j^2 q_{j+1}.$$

Next, recall (see [5], [6], [1]) the equality $q_{j+1} = \lfloor \frac{Q+q_j-1}{q_j} \rfloor q_j - q_{j-1}$, and

the fact that the pairs (q_{j-1}, q_j) of consecutive denominators of \mathcal{F}_Q are in one-to-one correspondence with the pairs of integers a, b with $1 \leq a, b \leq Q$, $(a, b) = 1$ and $a + b > Q$. It follows that

$$P(\Psi_1 \leq Q, \Psi_2 > Q) = 2 \sum_{\substack{1 \leq a, b \leq Q, a+b > Q \\ \lfloor Q/2 \rfloor + 1 \leq b, (a,b)=1}} f(a, b),$$

where the function f is defined by

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{xy^2(\lfloor \frac{Q+x}{y} \rfloor y - x)}.$$

We may now apply Lemma 2 of [1], which shows that

$$(44) \quad P(\Psi_1 \leq Q, \Psi_2 > Q) \sim \frac{12}{\pi^2} \iint_{Q\Omega} f(x, y) dx dy,$$

where Ω is the polygon with vertices $(1/2, 1/2)$, $(1, 1/2)$, $(1, 1)$ and $(0, 1)$. As a side remark, note that $\lfloor \frac{Q+x}{y} \rfloor \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ for $(x, y) \in \Omega$, and these values 1, 2 and 3 are attained exactly when the point (x, y) lies in the corresponding regions T_1, T_2 and $T_3 \cap \Omega$ from Figure 1 of [1]. After making a linear change of variables in the integral from the right side of (44), one finds that

$$(45) \quad P(\Psi_1 \leq Q, \Psi_2 > Q) \sim \frac{12C}{\pi^2 Q^2},$$

where the constant C is given by

$$(46) \quad C = \iint_{\Omega} \frac{1}{xy^2(\lfloor \frac{1+x}{y} \rfloor y - x)} dx dy.$$

On combining (45), (31) and Theorem 1, and estimating the error terms as in Section 10 of [1], one obtains the following asymptotic result for $P(\Psi_2 > Q)$.

THEOREM 4. *For any positive integer Q ,*

$$P(\Psi_2 > Q) = \frac{12}{\pi^2 Q^2} \left(\log Q + \gamma - \frac{\zeta'(2)}{\zeta(2)} + \frac{1}{2} + C \right) + O(Q^{-5/2} \log Q).$$

We remark that, as in Section 2, the entire discussion may be adapted to the case when α and β vary in some fixed subinterval of $[0, 1]$, and an analogue of Theorem 4 can be established in that case, following the method from Section 10 of [1].

6. Properties of $\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha)$. The goal of this section is to study the set $\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha)$. Obviously

$$\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha) = \{\Psi_k(\beta, \alpha) : k \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}.$$

It is clear from the definition of $\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha)$ that it contains all but finitely many natural numbers. We will in general deal with the inhomogeneous

case $s \neq 0$ as it presents no greater difficulty, although some particular results will require $s = 0$. If we need to specify the value of s , we write $\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha; s)$.

PROPOSITION 4. $\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha; 0)$ is a semigroup under addition of natural numbers.

Proof. Without loss of generality, assume $\beta < \alpha$ and take $m, n \in \mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha)$. Then there exist integers $P, Q \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ for which $m\beta < P \leq m\alpha$ and $n\beta < Q \leq n\alpha$. Adding these inequalities gives $(m + n)\beta < P + Q \leq (m + n)\alpha$. This implies that $m + n \in \mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha)$ finishing the proof.

We will later determine the exact structure of this semigroup. In the inhomogeneous case, the above proposition clearly generalizes to the fact that $m \in \mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha; s)$ and $n \in \mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha; t)$ implies that $m + n \in \mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha; s + t)$.

PROPOSITION 5. For any $\beta \leq \gamma \leq \alpha$ and $s \geq 0$,

$$(47) \quad \mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha) = \mathcal{N}(\beta, \gamma) \cup \mathcal{N}(\gamma, \alpha).$$

Also, for any $\alpha_1 \leq \dots \leq \alpha_m$ and $s \geq 0$,

$$(48) \quad \mathcal{N}(\alpha_1, \alpha_m) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{m-1} \mathcal{N}(\alpha_i, \alpha_{i+1}).$$

Proof. Since $\beta \leq \gamma \leq \alpha$, it follows that $\lfloor n\beta + s \rfloor \leq \lfloor n\gamma + s \rfloor \leq \lfloor n\alpha + s \rfloor$. If $\lfloor n\beta + s \rfloor \neq \lfloor n\alpha + s \rfloor$, then one of the above inequalities must be strict, hence we have the inclusion \subseteq . Conversely, if one of the above inequalities fails, then $\lfloor n\beta + s \rfloor \neq \lfloor n\alpha + s \rfloor$. The second statement immediately follows from the first. This proves the proposition.

PROPOSITION 6. When $\beta \leq \alpha$,

$$(49) \quad \begin{aligned} \mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha) &= \left\{ n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ : \beta < \alpha - \frac{\{n\alpha + s\}}{n} \right\} \\ &= \left\{ n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ : \beta + \frac{1 - \{n\beta + s\}}{n} \leq \alpha \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. It is routine to show that $\lfloor n\beta + s \rfloor \neq \lfloor n\alpha + s \rfloor$ if and only if $0 \leq n(\beta - \alpha) + \{n\alpha + s\} < 1$. Since $\beta \leq \alpha$, this can fail if and only if n is in the first set above. The second part is similar.

PROPOSITION 7. Assume $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{1}{bd} = \frac{c}{d}$. Then for $s \geq 0$,

$$(50) \quad \mathcal{N}(a/b, c/d) = \{mb + nd : m \geq -\lfloor ds \rfloor, n > \lfloor bs \rfloor\}.$$

In particular, when $s = 0$, we have

$$(51) \quad \mathcal{N}(a/b, c/d) = \{mb + nd : m \geq 0, n \geq 1\}.$$

Proof. This follows directly from the proof of Lemma 4.2 of [2]. In particular, in [2] it was shown that, for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$,

$$\lfloor nc/d + s \rfloor \neq \lfloor na/b + s \rfloor$$

if and only if

$$\frac{n + d\{bs\}}{db} + \left\{ \frac{na + \lfloor bs \rfloor}{b} \right\} \geq 1.$$

This last relation easily translates into the three relations $an \equiv -(M + \lfloor bs \rfloor) \pmod{b}$, $Kd - d\{bs\} \leq n$, and $0 < M \leq \min(b, K)$. It is easy to see that all solutions to $an \equiv r \pmod{b}$ with n satisfying $n \geq L$ are given by $n = \lceil (L + rd)/b \rceil + bN$ for all $N \geq 0$. (In [2], the least such n was sought, so the inequality $Kd - d\{bs\} \leq n < Kd - d\{bs\} + b$ was used and no N occurred in the formula.) Hence we have

$$\begin{aligned} (52) \quad \mathcal{N}(a/b, c/d) &= \{dM + d\lfloor bs \rfloor + b\lceil (K - M)d/b - ds \rceil + bN : \\ &\quad N \geq 0, K \geq M, 0 < M \leq b\} \\ &= \{d(M + \lfloor bs \rfloor) + b(N + \lceil -ds \rceil) : N \geq 0, M \geq 1\} \\ &= \{mb + nd : m \geq -\lfloor ds \rfloor, n > \lfloor bs \rfloor\}. \end{aligned}$$

The proof is complete.

When $s = 0$, it is convenient to write the conclusion of this proposition in the form $\mathcal{N}(a/b, c/d) = \{d + mb + nd : m, n \geq 0\}$. Since $(b, d) = 1$, we can rephrase the proposition by saying that the semigroup $(\mathcal{N}(a/b, c/d), +)$ is generated by the elements b and d , the multiplicity of d being at least one. It is a well-known theorem of Sylvester that when $(b, d) = 1$, the largest integer which is not a non-negative integer linear combination of b and d is exactly $bd - b - d$. Thus we have the following corollary.

COROLLARY 1. *If $a/b + 1/bd = c/d$, then the last integer n for which $\lfloor na/b \rfloor = \lfloor nc/d \rfloor$ is $n = b(d - 1)$.*

We are now ready to give for any positive integer k a theoretical formula for $\Psi_k(a/b, c/d)$.

COROLLARY 2. *Let $s = 0$ and assume $a/b + 1/bd = c/d$. Then, for each k , $\Psi_k(a/b, c/d)$ is equal to the k th element in the set $\{d + mb + nd : m, n \geq 0\}$ when its elements are arranged in increasing order. In particular,*

$$(53) \quad \Psi_1(a/b, c/d) = d;$$

$$(54) \quad \Psi_2(a/b, c/d) = d + \begin{cases} b, & b/d \in (0, 1], \\ d, & b/d \in [1, \infty); \end{cases}$$

$$(55) \quad \Psi_3(a/b, c/d) = d + \begin{cases} 2b, & b/d \in (0, 1/2], \\ d, & b/d \in [1/2, 1), \\ b, & b/d \in (1, 2], \\ 2d, & b/d \in [2, \infty); \end{cases}$$

$$(56) \quad \Psi_4(a/b, c/d) = d + \begin{cases} 3b, & b/d \in (0, 1/3], \\ d, & b/d \in [1/3, 1/2), \\ 2b, & b/d \in (1/2, 1), \\ 2d, & b/d \in (1, 2), \\ b, & b/d \in (2, 3], \\ 3d, & b/d \in [3, \infty); \end{cases}$$

$$(57) \quad \Psi_5(a/b, c/d) = d + \begin{cases} 4b, & b/d \in (0, 1/4], \\ d, & b/d \in [1/4, 1/3), \\ 3b, & b/d \in (1/3, 1/2), \\ b + d, & b/d \in (1/2, 1) \cup (1, 2), \\ 3d, & b/d \in (2, 3), \\ b, & b/d \in (3, 4], \\ 4d, & b/d \in [4, \infty); \end{cases}$$

$$(58) \quad \Psi_6(a/b, c/d) = d + \begin{cases} 5b, & b/d \in (0, 1/5], \\ d, & b/d \in [1/5, 1/4), \\ 4b, & b/d \in (1/4, 1/3), \\ b + d, & b/d \in (1/3, 1/2), \\ 3b, & b/d \in (1/2, 2/3], \\ 2d, & b/d \in [2/3, 1), \\ 2b, & b/d \in (1, 3/2], \\ 3d, & b/d \in [3/2, 2), \\ b + d, & b/d \in (2, 3), \\ 4d, & b/d \in (3, 4), \\ b, & b/d \in (4, 5], \\ 5d, & b/d \in [5, \infty). \end{cases}$$

In general, $\Psi_k(a/b, c/d)$ is only a function of the ratio b/d and the number k . The boundary cases in the above formulas are handled by the general evaluations

$$(59) \quad \Psi_k(a/b, c/d) = \begin{cases} k, & b/d \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \\ k + n - 1, & d/b = n \in \mathbb{Z}^+. \end{cases}$$

Proof. The characterization of $\Psi_k(a/b, c/d)$ follows immediately from the previous corollary. The remaining parts are just a calculation based upon this characterization of $\Psi_k(a/b, c/d)$. This calculation is best facilitated by forming a tree structure where each vertex is labeled by a Farey fraction and a linear combination of b and d . The vertices of height k are labeled with the possible values of $\Psi_k - d$ written as linear combinations of b and d along with a maximal interval with rational endpoints over which Ψ_k achieves the assigned value. One starts with the root labeled 0 for the value and labeled with the interval $(0, \infty)$. The next larger linear combinations after 0 are b and d . The smaller of these two values is clearly b when $b/d \leq 1$ and is d when $b/d \geq 1$. These two possibilities give rise to the vertices of height 2 and the evaluation of Ψ_2 above. The tree and the evaluations follow by continuing this construction. For example consider the vertex of height 5 labeled with $b + d$ and the interval $(1/2, 1)$. The values already achieved by $\Psi_k - d$ with $b/d \in (1/2, 1)$ for $1 \leq k \leq 5$ are in increasing order: $0, b, d, 2b, b + d$. The next possible larger values are $2d$ and $3b$. Now $2d \leq 3b$ and $3b \leq 2d$ if and only if $b/d \in [2/3, 1)$ and $b/d \in (1/2, 2/3]$ respectively. Hence the vertex of height 5 considered gives rise to the two vertices of height 6 with the values $2d$ and $3b$ and the corresponding intervals just given.

That $\Psi_k(a/b, c/d)$ depends only on k and the value of b/d follows from the above construction and the fact that an inequality of the form $hb + jd < mb + nd$ holds if and only if either $b/d > (j - n)/(m - h)$ or $b/d < (j - n)/(m - h)$, according as $m - h$ is positive or negative. Thus the ordering of the linear combinations is completely determined by the value of the ratio b/d . Finally, the formulas at the end for Ψ_k for all k are easy consequences. This completes the proof.

We now consider the problem of finding $\mathcal{N}(\alpha, \beta)$ for general α and β . To this end we use the sequences of approximating fractions constructed in [2]. Specifically, assume $\beta < \alpha$ and $\lfloor \beta \rfloor = \lfloor \alpha \rfloor$. Put $\Psi = \Psi_1(\beta, \alpha; 0)$. Now arrange the union of the convergents and intermediate convergents of α less than α in increasing order. Do the same with β , except with the convergents and intermediate convergents *greater* than β . In the event that β is rational, choose the number of terms in the continued fraction for β to be odd. Then the last approximating fraction to β will be the least convergent or intermediate convergent greater than β . In this case, also adjoin the infinite sequence of mediants approaching β formed by taking the mediant of β and this last fraction and iterating the procedure. (The numerators and denominators of this sequence of special mediants will be in an arithmetic progression.) Together these sequences were termed *semiconvergents* in [2]. It was proved in [2] that these sequences of fractions approaching α and β have a common element. Moreover, this common convergent is exactly $\lfloor \Psi\alpha \rfloor / \Psi$. For this reason, $\lfloor \Psi\alpha \rfloor / \Psi$ is called the *coconvergent* of α and β .

Let $g_0 = a_0/b_0$ denote the coconvergent of β and α . For $i > 0$, let $g_i = a_i/b_i$ denote the i th convergent or intermediate convergent of α greater than g_0 . For $i < 0$, let $g_i = a_i/b_i$ denote the $-i$ th convergent or intermediate convergent (as constructed above) of β less than g_0 . Thus we have a doubly infinite sequence of rational numbers $g_i = a_i/b_i$ satisfying

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow -\infty} g_i = \beta, \quad \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} g_i = \alpha,$$

and

$$\frac{a_i}{b_i} + \frac{1}{b_i b_{i+1}} = \frac{a_{i+1}}{b_{i+1}}.$$

We will require the following lemma.

LEMMA 1. *Assume α is irrational. Suppose there exists a positive integer J such that $\{J\alpha + s\} = 0$. Then for any $N > 0$, there exists a $\beta < \alpha$ such that $\beta \leq \gamma < \alpha$ implies that $\Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha) > N$.*

Proof. Let $J_1 = 1$ and define J_i for $i > 1$ inductively by the rule that J_{i+1} is the least positive integer greater than J_i such that $\{J_{i+1}\alpha + s\}/J_{i+1} < \{J_i\alpha + s\}/J_i$. Then the sequence J_i will be finite; let J_e be its last term. By Lemma 4.1 of [2], we know that $\alpha - \{J_{e-1}\alpha + s\}/J_{e-1} \leq \gamma < \alpha$ implies that $\Psi_1(\gamma, \alpha) = J = J_e$. Now let K_1 be the least integer greater than J such that $\{K_1\alpha + s\}/K_1 < \{J_{e-1}\alpha + s\}/J_{e-1}$. Define the sequence K_i inductively by the rule that K_{i+1} is the least positive integer greater than K_i such that $\{K_{i+1}\alpha + s\}/K_{i+1} < \{K_i\alpha + s\}/K_i$. Then since α is irrational, the sequence K_i is infinite. Now by Proposition 6 it is clear that $\alpha - \{K_i\alpha + s\}/K_i \leq \gamma < \alpha - \{K_{i+1}\alpha + s\}/K_{i+1} < \alpha$ implies that $\Psi_2(\gamma, \alpha) = K_{i+1}$ and the lemma is proved.

The next theorem characterizes the set $\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha)$. We assume α is irrational and s is some non-negative fixed real number. From [2] we know that if there exists a natural number L such that $\{L\alpha + s\} = 0$ then it is a value of Ψ_1 . In [2] a formula for computing L was also provided.

THEOREM 5. *Assume α is irrational and $\beta < \alpha$. Then for $s \geq 0$,*

$$\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha) = \{mb_i + nb_{i+1} : i \in \mathbb{Z}, m > -[b_{i+1}s], n \geq [b_i s]\} \cup \{L\}.$$

When $s = 0$ we have

$$\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha) = \{mb_i + nb_{i+1} : i \in \mathbb{Z}, m > 0, n \geq 0\}.$$

In particular, when $s = 0$, $\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha)$ is generated by the set of numbers $\{b_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$.

Proof. By Proposition 5,

$$(60) \quad \mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha) = \mathcal{N}(\beta, g_{-j}) \cup \mathcal{N}(g_k, \alpha) \cup \bigcup_{-j \leq i < k} \mathcal{N}(g_i, g_{i+1}).$$

If $\{n\alpha + s\} \neq 0$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, then by Lemma 4.1 of [2], j and k can be chosen

large enough that both $\Psi_1(\beta, g_{-j})$ and $\Psi_1(g_k, \alpha)$ are larger than $b_0(b_1 - 1)$. In this case we clearly have $\mathcal{N}(\beta, g_{-j}) \cup \mathcal{N}(g_k, \alpha) \subset \mathcal{N}(g_0, g_1)$. (For by Corollary 1, $n > b_0(b_1 - 1)$ implies that $n \in \mathcal{N}(g_0, g_1)$.)

If $\{L\alpha + s\} = 0$, then by Lemma 4.1 of [2], when k is sufficiently large, $\Psi_1(g_k, \alpha) = L$, so L is in the set. By Lemma 1 we can now choose k sufficiently large so that $\Psi_2(g_k, \alpha) > b_0(b_1 - 1)$ and hence $\mathcal{N}(g_k, \alpha) \subset \{L\} \cup \mathcal{N}(g_0, g_1)$. Thus for large enough j and k ,

$$\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha) = \{L\} \cup \bigcup_{-j \leq i < k} \mathcal{N}(g_i, g_{i+1}) \subseteq \{L\} \cup \bigcup_{-\infty \leq i < \infty} \mathcal{N}(g_i, g_{i+1}).$$

But by Proposition 5 the last inclusion is actually an equality. Proposition 7 gives the first part of the theorem. The second part follows trivially from the first, and the third follows immediately from the second.

When $s = 0$ it is clear from the proof of this theorem how to choose a finite set of the b_i which will form a set of generators for the semigroup $(\mathcal{N}(\beta, \alpha), +)$.

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