

# Spectral properties of pattern sequences of general degrees

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## Abstract

We study the spectral measures associated with pattern sequences of general degrees. They are either discrete, purely singular or absolutely continuous. We obtain a necessary and sufficient condition for the discreteness. We also obtain a sufficient condition to be absolutely continuous or to be the Lebesgue measure.

Keywords: spectral measure, pattern sequences, noncorrelated

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## 1. Introduction

Let  $k \geq 1$  be an integer. A subset  $P$  of  $\{0, 1\}^k$  is called a *pattern set* of degree  $k$  if  $\emptyset \neq P \subset \{0, 1\}^k \setminus \{0^k\}$ . Let  $\mathbb{N}$  be the set of nonnegative integers. We call  $\alpha \in \{-1, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  the *pattern sequence* related to  $P$  if  $\alpha(n) = (-1)^{\#(P,n)}$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , where

$$\#(P, n) = \#\{i \in \mathbb{N}; (n)_i(n)_{i+1} \dots (n)_{i+k-1} \in P\}, \quad (1.1)$$

and  $(n)_i \in \{0, 1\}$  ( $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ) are the digits in the dyadic expansion of  $n$ , that is,  $n = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (n)_i 2^i$ . Note that we read lower digits first. We let  $\alpha_P$  denote this  $\alpha$ . It is easy to see that  $\alpha_P$  is uniformly recurrent, that is, any finite block appearing in  $\alpha_P$  repeats within a bounded gap.

The *correlation function*  $\gamma_P : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow [-1, 1]$  is defined as

$$\gamma_P(-r) = \gamma_P(r) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (1/N) \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \alpha_P(n) \alpha_P(n+r) \quad (r = 0, 1, 2, \dots).$$

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For the given  $k$  and  $h = 0, 1, \dots, 2^{k-1} - 1$ , we also define

$$\gamma_P(-r|h) = \gamma_P(r|h) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (1/N) \sum_{\substack{n=0 \\ n \equiv h \pmod{2^{k-1}}}^{N-1}} \alpha_P(n)\alpha_P(n+r),$$

where for any  $r \geq 0$  and  $h$ , the above two limits exist since

$$\alpha_P(n)\alpha_P(n+r) = \alpha_P(n')\alpha_P(n'+r)$$

holds if  $n \equiv n' \equiv l \pmod{2^N}$  with  $0 \leq l < 2^N - r$  for  $N = 1, 2, \dots$

Note that  $\gamma_P(r) = \sum_{0 \leq h < 2^{k-1}} \gamma_P(r|h)$  and  $\gamma_P(0) = 1$ . We say that  $\alpha_P$  is *noncorrelated* if  $\gamma_P(r) = 0$  for  $r = 1, 2, \dots$ . For  $r_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , we also say that  $\alpha_P$  is  $r_0$ -*correlated* if  $\gamma_P(r) = 0$  for  $r = r_0 + 1, r_0 + 2, \dots$ . Clearly, 0-correlated is equivalent to noncorrelated.

Since the function  $\gamma_P$  is positive definite, by Herglotz theorem, there is a probability Borel measure  $\Lambda_P$  on  $[0, 1)$ , called the *spectral measure* of  $\alpha_P$ , such that

$$\int e^{2\pi irx} d\Lambda_P(x) = \gamma_P(r) \quad (r = 0, 1, 2, \dots).$$

Note that this equality for  $r < 0$  follows from that for  $r \geq 0$  since  $\gamma_P(r)$  is real.

If  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated, then  $\Lambda_P$  is the Lebesgue measure. If  $\alpha_P$  is  $r_0$ -correlated, then  $\Lambda_P$  has a density with respect to the Lebesgue measure which is a linear combination of 1 and

$$\cos x, \cos 2x, \dots, \cos(r_0x)$$

with coefficients in  $(-2, 2)$  (lemma 12).

The spectral measure  $\Lambda_P$  is said to be *continuous* if it has no atom, that is,  $\Lambda_P(\{x\}) = 0$  for any  $x \in [0, 1)$ . It is said to be *absolutely continuous* if it has a density with respect to the Lebesgue measure. A continuous measure  $\Lambda$  on  $[0, 1)$  is said to be *singular* if it has no absolutely continuous part, that is, it is supported by a Borel set with Lebesgue measure 0.

A necessary and sufficient condition for  $\alpha_P$  to be noncorrelated is known in the case  $k = 2, 3$  (Zheng *et al* [13], see section 5). The condition was just technical and no conceptual reason was given. Here, we rewrite this condition to be a conceptual one independent of  $k$  and apply for the general  $k$ . It is proved that this new condition is sufficient, but not necessary for  $k \geq 4$ . A more natural question is to ask when the spectral measure  $\Lambda_P$  is continuous, singular or absolutely continuous. We discuss this also.

In the case of degree 1 and  $P = \{1\}$ ,  $\alpha_P$  is well known as Thue–Morse sequence and is studied by many people, Allouche and Shallit [2], Mauduit and Sárközy [7], Müllner and Spiegelhofer [9], Mauduit and Rivat [8], Spiegelhofer [12], Zaks *et al* [14], Peng and Kamae [11], etc. In this case,  $\Lambda_P$  is known to be singular. In the case of degree 2 and  $P = \{11\}$ ,  $\alpha_P$  is also well known as Rudin–Shapiro sequence,  $\Lambda_P$  being the Lebesgue measure (Allouche and Liardet [1], etc). We point out that the Thue–Morse and Rudin–Shapiro sequences are standard examples of 2-automatic sequences, and so are pattern sequences.

General pattern sequences with patterns in  $G^+$ , where  $G$  is a finite abelian group instead of the multiplicative group  $\{-1, 1\}$ , and the  $d$ -adic representation instead of the binary are studied by Morton and Mourant [5, 6]. The pattern sequences are also discussed by Coquet *et al* [4], Boyd *et al* [3], etc. Pattern sequences with patterns of nonconstant length are discussed by Jakub Konieczny [15] (see remark 5). For a general reference to the ergodic theory and dynamical systems, we cite [10].

In the following, we always assume that  $k \geq 2$ .

**Definition 1.** The *language graph* of degree  $k$  is the directed graph  $G_k = (\{0, 1\}^{k-1}, E)$ , where the edge set  $E$  is defined as

$$E = \{(a\xi, \xi b) \in \{0, 1\}^{k-1} \times \{0, 1\}^{k-1}; a \in \{0, 1\}, b \in \{0, 1\}, \xi \in \{0, 1\}^{k-2}\}.$$

We identify the edge  $(a\xi, \xi b)$  with  $a\xi b \in \{0, 1\}^k$ .

**Theorem 1.** Let  $P$  be a pattern set of degree  $k$ . Then the following statements on the pattern sequence  $\alpha_P$  are equivalent:

- (a)  $\gamma_P(2^{k-1}) = 1$ .
- (b)  $\alpha_P$  is periodic with a period  $2^{k-1}$ .
- (c)  $\Lambda_P$  is supported by a finite set.
- (d)  $\Lambda_P$  is not continuous.
- (e) Any circuit in the language graph  $G_k$  contains an even number of edges belonging to  $P$ .

If any of these conditions is satisfied, then  $\alpha_P(n)$  is equal to  $-1$  to the number of edges belonging to  $P$  in a path from the vertex  $(n)_0(n)_1 \dots (n)_{k-2}$  to the vertex  $0^{k-1}$ , which does not depend on the choice of the path.

The statement (a) implies (b) since (a) implies that  $\alpha_P(n) = \alpha_P(n + 2^{k-1})$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with density 1. Together with the fact that  $\alpha_P$  is uniformly recurrent, we have (b). Clearly, (b) implies (a). Hence, (a) and (b) are equivalent. It is clear that (b) implies (c), and (c) implies (d). Hence, to prove the equivalence of all the statements, it is sufficient to prove that (d) implies (e), and (e) implies (b).

**Theorem 2.** Let  $P$  be a pattern set of degree  $k$ . Let  $r \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{k-1}}$ . Then, we have  $\gamma_P(2r) = \gamma_P(r)$ .

**Theorem 3.** Let  $P$  be a pattern set of degree  $k$ . Assume that  $\Lambda_P$  is continuous. Then,  $\Lambda_P$  is either absolutely continuous or singular. Moreover, in the former case, the density function is bounded by  $2^{k-1}$ .

**Definition 2.** Let a pattern set  $P$  of degree  $k$  be given. A pair  $(i, j)$  of integers with  $1 \leq i < j \leq k$  is said to be an *odd position* (resp. an *even position*) of  $P$  if

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{for any } \xi \in \{0, 1\}^{k-j}, \quad \eta \in \{0, 1\}^{j-i-1}, \quad \zeta^0 \in \{0, 1\}^{i-1}, \quad \zeta^1 \in \{0, 1\}^{i-1}, \\ &\#\{a \in \{0, 1\}; \zeta^0 0 \eta a \xi \in P\} + \#\{a \in \{0, 1\}; \zeta^1 1 \eta a \xi \in P\} \\ &\text{is always odd (resp. always even, respectively).} \end{aligned}$$

Here, ‘odd’ implies either 1 or 3, and ‘even’ implies either 0, 2 or 4 (figure 1).

**Definition 3.** Let a pattern set  $P$  of degree  $k$  be given. A pair  $(i, j)$  of integers with  $1 \leq i < j \leq k$  is said to be a *good position* of  $P$  if the following three conditions are satisfied:

- (a)  $(i, j)$  is an odd position,
- (b) Any other pair  $(i', j')$  with  $1 \leq i' < j' \leq k$  such that  $j' - i' = j - i$  is either an odd position or an even position.
- (c) The total number of odd positions  $(i', j')$  with  $1 \leq i' < j' \leq k$  such that  $j' - i' = j - i$ , is odd and all of them satisfy that  $i' \leq i$ .

$$\# \left( \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cc} \begin{array}{c} i\text{-th digit} \\ \left. \begin{array}{c} \xi^0 \\ \xi^1 \end{array} \right\} \\ \begin{array}{c} j\text{-th digit} \\ \left. \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right\} \end{array} \\ \xi \end{array} \right) \cap P = \text{odd (even)}$$

Figure 1. Odd (even) position.

In particular,  $(1, k)$  is a good position if it is an odd position.

**Theorem 4.** Let  $P$  be a pattern set of degree  $k$ . Then the following statements hold:

- (a) If  $P$  has a good position  $(i, j)$ , then  $\alpha_P$  is  $(2^{i-1} - 1)$ -correlated. Hence, the spectral measure  $\Lambda_P$  has a density with respect to the Lebesgue measure which is a linear combination of

$$1, \cos x, \cos 2x, \dots, \cos(2^{i-1} - 1)x$$

whose coefficients are in  $(-2, 2)$ .

- (b) The pattern sequence  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated if  $P$  has a good position  $(i, j)$  with  $i = 1$ . In the cases  $k = 2, 3$ , the converse also holds.

**Remark 5.** Pattern sequences related to pattern sets consisting of patterns of nonconstant lengths are discussed in [15]. Here, the pattern sets  $Q \subset \cup_{k \geq 2} \{0, 1\}^k$  consisting of finitely many patterns  $\xi = \xi_1 \xi_2 \dots \xi_k \in \{0, 1\}^k$  with various  $k$  satisfying  $\xi_1 = \xi_k = 1$  are considered. It is proved that the pattern sequence  $\alpha_Q$  is noncorrelated if

$$Q \supset 1\{0, 1\}^{l-2}1,$$

where  $l$  is the maximum length of  $\xi \in Q$ . This also follows from our theorem 4. In this case, let

$$P = \{\xi \in \{0, 1\}^l; \sum_{i=1}^l 1_Q(\xi_1 \xi_2 \dots \xi_i) \text{ is odd}\}.$$

Then, we have  $\alpha_P = \alpha_Q$ . Moreover for any  $\eta \in \{0, 1\}^{l-2}$ , we have

$$\#(P \cap \{0\eta 0, 0\eta 1, 1\eta 0, 1\eta 1\}) \text{ is odd}$$

since  $0\eta 0 \notin P, 0\eta 1 \notin P$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^l 1_Q(\xi_1 \xi_2 \dots \xi_i)$  for  $\xi = 1\eta 0$  and  $\xi = 1\eta 1$  differ just by 1 as  $1\eta 0 \notin P$  and  $1\eta 1 \in P$ .

Therefore,  $(1, l)$  is an odd position of  $P$ , and hence, a good position. Thus, by theorem 4,  $\alpha_P$ , and hence,  $\alpha_Q$  is noncorrelated.

**Remark 6.** It can happen that a pattern sequence  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated even if  $P$  only has a good position  $(i, j)$  with  $i \geq 2$ . This gives an example that the converse in (b) of theorem 4 fails in general (see example 8). On the other hand, whether  $P$  needs to have a good position when  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated or not is still open.

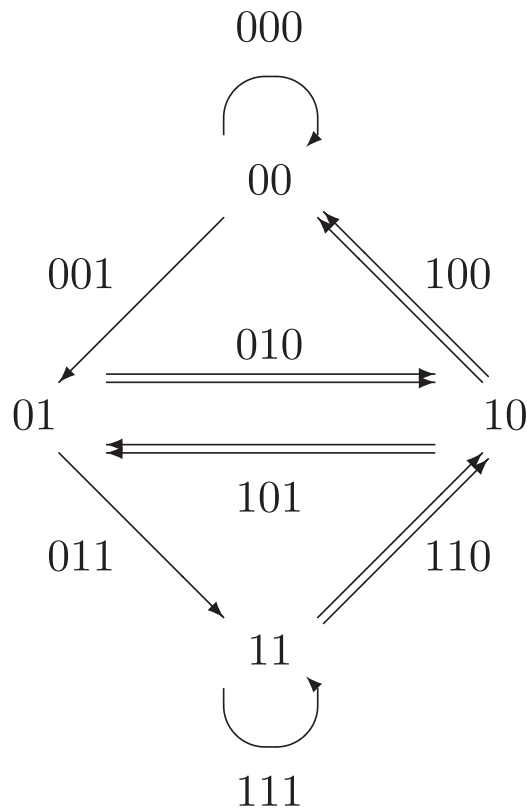


Figure 2.  $G_3$  with  $P$  marked by double vectors.

### 2. Examples

In this section, we give some examples of pattern sequences and show how to apply theorems 1, 3 and 4 to get properties of periodicity, singularity and absolutely continuity.

**Example 1.** Let  $P = \{100, 010, 110, 101\}$ . Figure 2 is the language graph  $G_3$  together with the marked edges belonging to  $P$ . It is easily seen that any circuit contains an even number of marked edges. Hence, by theorem 1,  $\alpha_P$  is periodic with a period 4. In fact,  $\alpha_P = (1(-1)11)^\infty$ .

**Example 2.** Let  $P = \{010, 111\}$ . Then we have

$$\gamma_P(1|0) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad \gamma_P(1|1) = \gamma_P(1|2) = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$\gamma_P(1|3) = -\frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{4}\gamma_P(1|3),$$

and hence,  $\gamma_P(1|3) = -\frac{1}{12}$  and  $\gamma_P(1) = -\frac{1}{3}$ . We also have

$$\gamma_P(4|0) = \gamma_P(4|1) = \frac{1}{4}\gamma_P(1) = -\frac{1}{12}$$

$$\gamma_P(4|2) = \gamma_P(4|3)$$

$$= \frac{1}{4}(-\gamma_P(1|0) - \gamma_P(1|1) + \gamma_P(1|2) + \gamma_P(1|3)) = -\frac{1}{12},$$

and hence,  $\gamma_P(4) = -\frac{1}{3}$ . Therefore, by theorem 2, we have

$$\gamma_P(2^k) = -\frac{1}{3} \quad (k = 2, 3, \dots)$$

Since  $\limsup_{r \rightarrow \infty} |\gamma_P(r)| > 0$ ,  $\Lambda_P$  is not absolutely continuous, and hence is singular by theorem 3.

**Example 3.** Let  $P = \{100, 010, 110, 011\}$ . Then, (1, 3) is an odd position since in  $P$ , there are 1 element with the second digit 0 and 3 elements with the second digit 1. Hence, it is a good position, and hence  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated.

**Example 4.** Let  $P = \{010, 011\}$ . Then, (1, 2) is an odd position since in  $P$ , there are 1 element with the 3rd digit 0 and 1 element with the 3rd digit 1. Moreover, (2, 3) is an even position since the numbers of elements in  $P$  with the first 2 digits 00 or 01, 00 or 11, 10 or 01, 10 or 11 are 2, 0, 2, 0. Hence, it is a good position, and hence  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated.

**Example 5.** Let  $P = \{100, 010, 110, 001\}$ . Then, (1, 2) is an odd position since in  $P$ , there are 3 elements with the 3rd digit 0 and 1 element with the 3rd digit 1. Moreover, (2, 3) is an even position since the numbers of elements in  $P$  with the first 2 digits 00 or 01, 00 or 11, 10 or 01, 10 or 11 are 2, 2, 2, 2. Hence, it is a good position, and hence  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated.

**Example 6.** Let  $P = \{100, 110, 001, 111\}$ . Then, (2, 3) is an odd position since the numbers of elements in  $P$  with the first 2 digits 00 or 01, 00 or 11, 10 or 01, 10 or 11 are 1, 3, 1, 3. Moreover, (1, 2) is an even position since there are 2 elements with the 3rd digit 0 and 2 elements with the 3rd digit 1. Hence, (2, 3) is a good position and  $\alpha_P$  is 1-correlated. In fact, we have

$$d\Lambda_P(x) = (1 - \cos 2\pi x)dx.$$

**Example 7.** Let  $P = \{010, 110, 001, 101, 011, 111\}$ . Then, (2, 3) is an odd position since the numbers of elements in  $P$  with the first 2 digits 00 or 01, 00 or 11, 10 or 01, 10 or 11 are 3, 3, 3, 3. Moreover, (1, 2) is an even position since there are 2 elements with the 3rd digit 0 and 4 elements with the 3rd digit 1. Hence, (2, 3) is a good position and  $\alpha_P$  is 1-correlated. In fact, we have

$$d\Lambda_P(x) = (1 + \cos 2\pi x)dx.$$

**Example 8.** Let  $P = \{0100, 0110, 1101, 1111\}$ . Then, (2, 4) is an odd position since the numbers of elements in  $P$  with the triple of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd digits 000 or 010, 000 or 110, 100 or 010, 100 or 110, 001 or 011, 001 or 111, 101 or 011, 101 or 111 are 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1. Moreover, (1, 3) is an even position since the numbers of elements in  $P$  with the pair of the 2nd and 4th digits 00, 10, 01, 11 are 0, 2, 0, 2. Hence, (2, 4) is a good position and  $\alpha_P$  is 1-correlated. We can also prove that (2, 4) is the only good position of  $P$ . Nevertheless, we can prove directly that  $\gamma_P(1) = 0$ , and hence,  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated.

**Example 9.** Let  $P = \{0011, 1011, 0111, 1111\}$ . Then, (3, 4) is an odd position since the numbers of elements in  $P$  with the triple of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd digits  $ab0$  or  $cd1$  is 1 for any  $ab \in \{0, 1\}^2$  and  $cd \in \{0, 1\}^2$ . Moreover, (2, 3) is an even position since the numbers of

elements in  $P$  with the triple of the 1st, 2nd and 4th digits  $a0c$  or  $b1c$  is 0 for any  $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $c = 0$ , and 2 for any  $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $c = 1$ . Furthermore, (1, 2) is an even position since the numbers of elements in  $P$  with the pair of the 3rd and 4th digits 00, 10, 01, 11 are 0, 0, 0, 4. Hence, (3, 4) is a good position, and hence  $\alpha_P$  is 3-correlated. Since  $\alpha_P(n)$  does not depend on the first 2 digits, we have

$$\gamma_P(1) = 3/4, \quad \gamma_P(2) = 1/2 \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_P(3) = 1/4,$$

and hence,

$$d\Lambda_P(x) = \left( 1 + \frac{3}{2} \cos 2\pi x + \cos 4\pi x + \frac{1}{2} \cos 6\pi x \right) dx.$$

**Example 10.** Let  $k \geq 3$ . Let  $f, g$  be functions from  $\{0, 1\}^{k-2}$  to  $\{0, 1\}$  satisfying that  $f(0^{k-2}) + g(0^{k-2}) \geq 1$ . Let  $P$  be a pattern set of degree  $k$  such that  $P = \{f(\xi)\xi g(\xi); \xi \in \{0, 1\}^{k-2}\}$ . Then, (1,  $k$ ) is an odd position, and hence, a good position. Thus,  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated.

**Example 11.** Let

$$P = \{100\,000, 001\,000, 101\,000, 111\,000, 000\,100, 100\,100, 010\,100, 001\,100, \\ 000\,010, 001\,010, 101\,010, 011\,010, 000\,110, 100\,110, 110\,110, 101\,110, \\ 100\,001, 011\,001, 000\,101, 100\,101, 010\,101, 101\,101, 011\,101, 111\,101, \\ 000\,011, 111\,011, 000\,111, 100\,111, 110\,111, 001\,111, 011\,111, 111\,111\}.$$

Then, (3, 6) is a good position, since any of (1, 4), (2, 5) and (3, 6) is an odd position. Hence,  $\alpha_P$  is 3-correlated by theorem 4. It can be proved directly that  $\gamma_P(r) = 0$  for  $r = 1, 2, 3$ . Hence,  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated.

### 3. Proof of theorem 1

**Definition 4.** Let  $\Omega = \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  be the set of infinite binary sequences which is also considered as the group of 2-adic integers. An element  $\omega \in \Omega$  is denoted as  $(\omega)_0(\omega)_1(\omega)_2 \dots$ . Let  $\lambda = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})^{\mathbb{N}}$  be the product of the probability measure  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  giving probability  $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}$  to 0 and 1, which is the Haar measure on the group of 2-adic integers. Let  $T : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  be the adding machine, that is  $T\omega = \omega + 1$ . Thus,  $(\Omega, \lambda, T)$  is a measure preserving dynamical system. Let  $P$  be a pattern set of degree  $k$ . Define a cocycle  $C_P : \Omega \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$  by

$$C_P(\omega, r) = (-1)^{\#(P, \omega+r) - \#(P, \omega)} \quad (\text{see (1.1)}),$$

where for almost all  $\omega \in \Omega$ , there exists  $i_0$  such that  $(\omega + r)_i = (\omega)_i$  for any  $i \geq i_0$  so that

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \#\{0 \leq i < N; (\omega + r)_i \cdots (\omega + r)_{i+k-1} \in P\} \right. \\ \left. - \#\{0 \leq i < N; (\omega)_i \cdots (\omega)_{i+k-1} \in P\} \right)$$

is well defined and is finite which we denote  $\#(P, \omega + r) - \#(P, \omega)$ , though each of  $\#(P, \omega + r)$  or  $\#(P, \omega)$  is not necessarily finite. Hence, the skew product of the adding machine by  $C_P$  is

defined as the measure preserving dynamical system

$$\Omega_P := \left( \Omega \times \{-1, 1\}, \lambda \times \left( \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right), T_P \right), \tag{3.1}$$

where  $T_P : \Omega \times \{-1, 1\} \rightarrow \Omega \times \{-1, 1\}$  is defined as  $T_P(\omega, \tau) = (T\omega, \tau C_P(\omega, 1))$  and  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  is the probability measure on  $\{-1, 1\}$  giving probability  $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}$  to  $-1$  and  $1$ . We denote the projection from  $\Omega \times \{-1, 1\}$  to  $\{-1, 1\}$  by  $\psi$ .

Since the arithmetic mean corresponds to the expectation by the probability measure  $\lambda$ , we have the following lemma.

**Lemma 7.** For any pattern set  $P$ , we have

$$\gamma_P(r) = \int C_P(\omega, r) d\lambda(\omega) = \int \psi(\omega, \tau) \psi(T_P^r(\omega, \tau)) d\left( \lambda \times \left( \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right) \right) (\omega, \tau)$$

for any  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Proof.** Replacing the arithmetic mean by the expectation with respect to the probability measure  $\lambda$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_P(r) &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (1/N) \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (-1)^{\#(P, \omega^{n+r}) - \#(P, \omega^n)} \\ &= \mathbb{E}((-1)^{\#(P, \omega^{n+r}) - \#(P, \omega^n)}) = \int C_P(\omega, r) d\lambda(\omega) \end{aligned}$$

if  $r \geq 0$ . If  $r < 0$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_P(r) &= \gamma_P(-r) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (1/N) \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (-1)^{\#(P, \omega^{n-r}) - \#(P, \omega^n)} \\ &= \mathbb{E}((-1)^{\#(P, \omega^{n-r}) - \#(P, \omega^n)}) = \mathbb{E}((-1)^{\#(P, \omega') - \#(P, \omega'+r)}) \\ &= \int C_P(\omega, r) d\lambda(\omega), \end{aligned}$$

where we put  $\omega' = \omega - r$  and use the invariance of the Haar measure  $\lambda$  under the addition. Thus, our lemma follows since

$$\psi(\omega, \tau) \psi(T_P^r(\omega, \tau)) = \tau C_P(\omega, r) \tau = C_P(\omega, r).$$

□

As stated before, to prove theorem 1, it is sufficient to prove that (d) implies (e), and (e) implies (b).

(d) implies (e): assume that there exists a circuit in  $G_k$  containing an odd number of edges belonging to  $P$ . Since  $G_k$  is strongly connected, there exists a circuit in  $G_k$  from  $0^{k-1}$  to  $0^{k-1}$  containing an odd number of edges belonging to  $P$ . Let  $0^{k-1} \xi 0^{k-1}$  with  $\xi = \xi_1 \xi_2 \dots \xi_n$  be one such circuit, that is, an odd number of edges among

$$0^{k-1} \xi_1, 0^{k-2} \xi_1 \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n 0^{k-1},$$

belong to  $P$ . Let  $Q = 2^{k-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i 2^{i-1}$ .



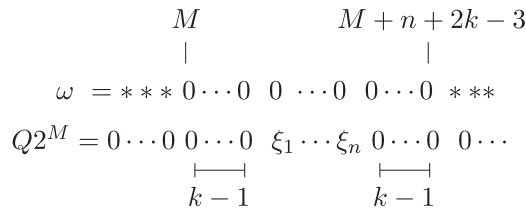


Figure 3.  $C_P(\omega, Q2^M) = -1$ .

We prove that  $\Lambda_P$  is continuous. To the contrary, suppose that  $\Lambda_P$  is not continuous and has an atom at  $\nu$  (say). Then, there exists an eigenfunction, say  $f$  with eigenvalue  $\nu$  ( $|\nu| = 1$ ), belonging to the  $L^2$ -space spanned by  $\psi \circ T_P^r$  ( $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ) in  $L^2(\Omega \times \{-1, 1\}, \lambda \times (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}))$ . We may assume that  $|f(\omega, \tau)| = \text{constant} > 0$  almost surely, since otherwise, we may take an ergodic measure with this property in the ergodic decomposition of  $\lambda \times (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  in place of  $\lambda \times (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  if it is not ergodic. In any case, we let  $\mathbb{P}$  denote this measure. Note that the marginal distribution of  $\mathbb{P}$  to  $\Omega$  is  $\lambda$  since  $(\Omega, \lambda, T)$  is ergodic. We may also assume that the above constant is 1. Since  $f$  is Borel measurable, we have  $f(\omega + Q2^M, \tau) \rightarrow f(\omega, \tau)$  in probability as  $M \rightarrow \infty$  (w.r.t.  $\mathbb{P}$ ). It is easy to see that there exists a subsequence  $\{N_1 < N_2 < \dots\} \subset \{1, 2, \dots\}$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu^{Q2^{N_n}} = \beta$ , where  $\beta = e^{i\theta}$  with  $-2\pi/3 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi/3$ . Since  $\psi(T_P^r(\omega, -\tau)) = -\psi(T_P^r(\omega, \tau))$  holds for any  $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , we have  $f(\omega, -\tau) = -f(\omega, \tau)$ .

Let

$$E_M = \{\omega \in \Omega; (\omega)_M = (\omega)_{M+1} = \dots = (\omega)_{M+n+2k-3} = 0\}.$$

Then,  $\mathbb{P}(E_M) = \lambda(E_M) = 2^{-n-2k+2}$ . If  $\omega \in E_M$ , then we have  $C_P(\omega, Q2^M) = -1$  (see figure 3) since  $0^{k-1}\xi 0^{k-1}$  contains an odd number of elements belonging to  $P$ .

Since

$$\psi(T_P^{Q2^M}(\omega, -\tau)) = -\psi(T_P^{Q2^M}(\omega, \tau))$$

and  $f$  belongs to the  $L^2$ -space spanned by  $\psi \circ T_P^r$  ( $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ),

$$f(T_P^{Q2^M}(\omega, \tau)) = f(\omega + Q2^M, -\tau) = -f(\omega + Q2^M, \tau)$$

holds if  $\omega \in E_M$ , hence with probability at least  $2^{-n-2k+2}$  for any  $M$ .

Since  $f(\omega + Q2^M, \tau) \rightarrow f(\omega, \tau)$  in probability as  $M \rightarrow \infty$ , for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \liminf_{M \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(|f(T_P^{Q2^M}(\omega, \tau)) + f(\omega, \tau)| < \varepsilon) \\
 & \geq \liminf_{M \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P} \left( f(T_P^{Q2^M}(\omega, \tau)) = -f(\omega + Q2^M, \tau) \right. \\
 & \quad \left. \text{and } |f(\omega + Q2^M, \tau) - f(\omega, \tau)| < \varepsilon \right) \\
 & \geq \liminf_{M \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(f(T_P^{Q2^M}(\omega, \tau)) = -f(\omega + Q2^M, \tau)) \\
 & \quad - \limsup_{M \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(|f(\omega + Q2^M, \tau) - f(\omega, \tau)| \geq \varepsilon) \\
 & \geq 2^{-n-2k+2}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\varepsilon$  be such that  $0 < \varepsilon < 1/2$ . Since  $|f(\omega, \tau)| = 1$  and  $\beta = e^{i\theta}$  with  $-2\pi/3 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi/3$ ,  $|f(T_P^{Q^{2M}}(\omega, \tau)) + f(\omega, \tau)| < \varepsilon$  implies that  $|f(T_P^{Q^{2M}}(\omega, \tau)) - \beta f(\omega, \tau)| > 1 - \varepsilon > \varepsilon$ . Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \liminf_{M \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(|f(T_P^{Q^{2M}}(\omega, \tau)) - \beta f(\omega, \tau)| > \varepsilon) \\ & \geq \liminf_{M \rightarrow \infty} \left( \mathbb{P}(|f(T_P^{Q^{2M}}(\omega, \tau)) + f(\omega, \tau)| < \varepsilon) \right) \geq 2^{-n-2k+2}. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, since  $f$  is an eigenfunction with the eigenvalue  $\nu$ , with probability 1, we have

$$f(T_P^{Q^{2M}}(\omega, \tau)) = \nu^{Q^{2M}} f(\omega, \tau).$$

Therefore,  $f(T_P^{Q^{2N_n}}(\omega, \tau))$  converges to  $\beta f(\omega, \tau)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  with probability 1 (w.r.t.  $\mathbb{P}$ ). This contradicts the above inequality.

Thus,  $\Lambda_P$  is continuous and (d) implies (e).

(e) implies (b), and the last statement: since  $G_k$  is strongly connected and any circuit contains an even number of edges belonging to  $P$ , any pair of vertices determines the parity of the number of elements belonging to  $P$  contained in the paths connecting them. Take any vertex  $\xi \in \{0, 1\}^{k-1}$  of  $G_k$ . Then, the parity from  $\xi$  to  $0^{k-1}$  is determined. Since  $\alpha_P(n)$  is  $-1$  to the number of elements belonging to  $P$  contained in the sequence  $(n)_0(n)_1(n)_2 \dots$ , which ends with  $0^\infty$ , it coincides with  $-1$  to the number from  $(n)_0(n)_1 \dots (n)_{k-2}$  to  $0^{k-1}$ . Thus, it is determined by  $(n)_0(n)_1 \dots (n)_{k-2}$ , and hence,  $\alpha_P$  is periodic with a period  $2^{k-1}$ .  $\square$

#### 4. Proofs of theorems 2 and 3

**Definition 5.** Let  $P$  be a pattern set of degree  $k$ . For any pair

$$\alpha = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_{k-1} \in \{0, 1\}^{k-1} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \beta_1 \beta_2 \dots \beta_{k-1} \in \{0, 1\}^{k-1},$$

define

$$\sigma(\alpha, \beta) = \#\{i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k-1\}; \epsilon_i \in P\},$$

where  $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_{k-1} \in \{0, 1\}^k$  are as follows

$$\epsilon_i = \alpha_i \dots \alpha_{k-1} \beta_1 \dots \beta_i \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, k-1).$$

For  $n = 0, 1, \dots, 2^{k-1} - 1$ , let  $\varphi(n) = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_{k-1} \in \{0, 1\}^{k-1}$  be such that  $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \alpha_i 2^{i-1} = n$ , and define a matrix

$$\Sigma^P = ((-1)^{\sigma(\varphi(n), \varphi(m))})_{n, m=0, 1, \dots, 2^{k-1}-1}.$$

Finally we define

$$\Gamma^P = {}^t \Sigma^P \Sigma^P,$$

where  ${}^t \Sigma^P$  is the transpose of  $\Sigma^P$ .

**Lemma 8.** *Let  $P$  be a pattern set of degree  $k$ . Let  $r$  be a nonnegative integer and  $d$  be an integer with  $d \geq k - 1$ . Then, we have*

$$\gamma_P(r2^d) = \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \sum_{h=0}^{2^{k-1}-1} \gamma_P(r|h)\Gamma_{h,h+r}^P, \tag{4.1}$$

where  $h + r$  is considered modulo  $2^{k-1}$ , that is,  $\Gamma_{h,h+r}^P := \Gamma_{h,h'}$  with  $h' \equiv h + r \pmod{2^{k-1}}$  and  $h' \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{k-1} - 1\}$  (the convention also applies to  $\Sigma_{h,h+r}^P$  and  $\varphi(h + r)$ ).

**Proof.** Let  $n \equiv h \pmod{2^{k-1}}$  and  $[i2^{k-1-d}] \equiv l \pmod{2^{k-1}}$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^d - 1\}$ , where  $h, l \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{k-1} - 1\}$ . Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \#(P, i + n2^d) &= \#(P, i|_d) + \sigma(\varphi(l), \varphi(h)) + \#(P, n) \\ \#(P, i + n2^d + r2^d) &= \#(P, i|_d) + \sigma(\varphi(l), \varphi(h + r)) + \#(P, n + r), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\#(P, i|_d) = \#\{j \in \mathbb{N}; 0 \leq j \leq d - k, (i)_j(i)_{j+1} \dots (i)_{j+k-1} \in P\}.$$

Hence, for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $n \equiv h \pmod{2^{k-1}}$ , we have

$$\alpha_P(i + n2^d)\alpha_P(i + n2^d + r2^d) = (\Sigma^P)_{l,h}(\Sigma^P)_{l,h+r}\alpha_P(n)\alpha_P(n + r).$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{2^d-1} \alpha_P(i + n2^d)\alpha_P(i + n2^d + r2^d) = 2^{d-k+1}\Gamma_{h,h+r}^P\alpha_P(n)\alpha_P(n + r).$$

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_P(r2^d) &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N2^d} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sum_{i=0}^{2^d-1} \alpha_P(i + n2^d)\alpha_P(i + n2^d + r2^d) \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N2^d} \sum_{h=0}^{2^{k-1}-1} \sum_{\substack{n=0 \\ n \equiv h \pmod{2^{k-1}}}}^{N-1} \sum_{i=0}^{2^d-1} \alpha_P(i + n2^d)\alpha_P(i + n2^d + r2^d) \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N2^d} \sum_{h=0}^{2^{k-1}-1} \sum_{\substack{n=0 \\ n \equiv h \pmod{2^{k-1}}}}^{N-1} 2^{d-k+1}\Gamma_{h,h+r}^P\alpha_P(n)\alpha_P(n + r) \\ &= \frac{2^{d-k+1}}{2^d} \sum_{h=0}^{2^{k-1}-1} \Gamma_{h,h+r}^P \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\substack{n=0 \\ n \equiv h \pmod{2^{k-1}}}}^{N-1} \alpha_P(n)\alpha_P(n + r) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \sum_{h=0}^{2^{k-1}-1} \gamma_P(r|h)\Gamma_{h,h+r}^P. \end{aligned}$$

□

**Proof of theorem 2.** Let  $r \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{k-1}}$ . Then, we have  $r = r'2^{k-1}$  and  $2r = r'2^k$  with  $r' \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let us apply (4.1) for  $r$  (and  $2r$ ) with  $r'$  in place of  $r$  and  $d = k - 1$  ( $d = k$ , respectively). Since the right-hand side of (4.1) does not depend on  $d$ , we have

$$\gamma_P(r) = \gamma_P(r'2^{k-1}) = \gamma_P(r'2^k) = \gamma_P(2r).$$

□

Let  $P$  be a pattern set of degree  $k$  such that  $\Lambda_P$  is continuous. Denote  $\tilde{\gamma}_P(r) = \gamma_P(r2^{k-1})$  and let  $\tilde{\Lambda}_P$  be the probability Borel measure on  $[0, 1)$  such that

$$\int e^{2\pi irx} d\tilde{\Lambda}_P(x) = \tilde{\gamma}_P(r) \quad (r = 0, 1, 2, \dots).$$

Then by theorem 2,  $\tilde{\Lambda}_P$  is  $S$ -invariant, where  $S$  is the transformation on  $[0, 1)$  such that  $Sx = \{2x\}$ .

The following lemmas 9 and 10 are proved by Peng and Kamae [11] in the case of Thue–Morse system. The following proofs for our general case are similar to this.

**Lemma 9.** For any  $r, l \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{\gamma}_P(r + l2^n) = \tilde{\gamma}_P(r)\tilde{\gamma}_P(l).$$

**Proof.** By lemma 7,

$$\tilde{\gamma}_P(r) = \gamma_P(r2^{k-1}) = \int C_P(\omega, r2^{k-1})d\lambda(\omega)$$

Since

$$C_P(\omega, ((r + l2^n)2^{k-1})) = C_P(\omega, r2^{k-1})C_P(\omega + r2^{k-1}, l2^{n+k-1}),$$

we have

$$\tilde{\gamma}_P(r + l2^n) = \int C_P(\omega, r2^{k-1})C_P(\omega + r2^{k-1}, l2^{n+k-1})d\lambda(\omega).$$

Let  $\Omega_n$  be the set of  $\omega \in \Omega$  such  $(\omega + r2^{k-1})_i = (\omega)_i$  for any  $i \geq n + k - 1$ . Since  $\lambda(\Omega_n) \geq 1 - r2^{k-1}/2^{n+k-1}$ ,  $\lambda(\Omega_n) \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . The random variables  $C_P(\omega, r2^{k-1})$  and  $C_P(\omega + r2^{k-1}, l2^{n+k-1})$  restricted to  $\Omega_n$  are independent since the former depends only on  $\{(\omega)_i; i = 0, 1, \dots, 2^{n+k-1} - 1\}$  while the latter depends only on  $\{(\omega)_i; i = 2^{n+k-1}, 2^{n+k-1} + 1, \dots\}$ . Therefore, using theorem 2, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int C_P(\omega, r2^{k-1})C_P(\omega + r2^{k-1}, l2^{n+k-1})d\lambda(\omega) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int C_P(\omega, r2^{k-1})d\lambda(\omega) \int C_P(\omega + r2^{k-1}, l2^{n+k-1})d\lambda(\omega) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int C_P(\omega, r2^{k-1})d\lambda(\omega) \int C_P(\omega, l2^{n+k-1})d\lambda(\omega) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_P(r2^{k-1})\gamma_P(l2^{n+k-1}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{\gamma}_P(r)\tilde{\gamma}_P(l2^n) = \tilde{\gamma}_P(r)\tilde{\gamma}_P(l) \end{aligned}$$

□

**Lemma 10.** *The measure preserving system  $([0, 1), \tilde{\Lambda}_P, S)$  is ergodic. Hence,  $\tilde{\Lambda}_P$  is the Lebesgue measure or is singular.*

**Proof.** It is sufficient to prove that for any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$I_N := \int \left| (1/N) \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i k S^n x} - \tilde{\gamma}_P(k) \right|^2 d\tilde{\Lambda}_P(x) \rightarrow 0$$

as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} I_N &= (1/N^2) \sum_{n,m=0}^{N-1} \int e^{2\pi i k(2^n - 2^m)x} d\tilde{\Lambda}_P(x) \\ &\quad - (1/N) \tilde{\gamma}_P(k) \left( \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \int e^{2\pi i k 2^n x} d\tilde{\Lambda}_P(x) + \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \int e^{-2\pi i k 2^m x} d\tilde{\Lambda}_P(x) \right) + \tilde{\gamma}_P(k)^2 \\ &= (1/N^2) \sum_{n,m=0}^{N-1} \tilde{\gamma}_P(k 2^n - k 2^m) - 2\tilde{\gamma}_P(k)^2 + \tilde{\gamma}_P(k)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since by theorem 2 and lemma 8,

$$\lim_{\substack{n,m \rightarrow \infty \\ |n-m| \rightarrow \infty}} \tilde{\gamma}_P(k 2^n - k 2^m) = \tilde{\gamma}_P(k)^2,$$

we have

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (1/N^2) \sum_{n,m=0}^{N-1} \tilde{\gamma}_P(k 2^n - k 2^m) = \tilde{\gamma}_P(k)^2,$$

and hence,  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} I_N = 0$ .

Since any two distinct ergodic measures for  $([0, 1), S)$  are mutually singular, and the Lebesgue measure is an ergodic measure for  $([0, 1), S)$ , it follows that either  $\tilde{\Lambda}_P$  is the Lebesgue measure or is singular.  $\square$

**Proof of theorem 3.** Let  $g : [0, 1) \rightarrow [0, 1)$  be given by  $g(x) = \{2^{k-1}x\}$ . Then,  $g$  is a  $2^{k-1}$ -to-1 measure preserving transformation from  $([0, 1), \Lambda_P)$  to  $([0, 1), \tilde{\Lambda}_P)$ . By our assumption that  $\tilde{\Lambda}_P$  is continuous,  $\tilde{\Lambda}_P$  is not discrete. Hence, either it is the Lebesgue measure or is singular. If  $\tilde{\Lambda}_P$  is the Lebesgue measure, then there exists a nonnegative measurable function  $f$  on  $[0, 1)$  such that

$$d\Lambda_P(x) = f(x)dx \quad \text{and} \quad (1/2^{k-1}) \sum_{i=0}^{2^{k-1}-1} f(\{x + i2^{k-1}\}) = 1$$

for any  $x \in [0, 1)$ . Therefore,  $\Lambda_P$  is absolutely continuous and the density function is bounded with the bound  $2^{k-1}$ . On the other hand, if  $\tilde{\Lambda}_P$  is singular, then it is supported by a Borel set, say  $B$  with  $\lambda(B) = 0$ . Since  $\Lambda_P$  is supported by  $g^{-1}B$  and  $\lambda(g^{-1}B) = \lambda(B) = 0$ ,  $\Lambda_P$  is singular.  $\square$

### 5. The cases $k = 2, 3$

It is known [13] that in the case of  $k = 2$ ,  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated if and only if  $P$  is one of

$$\{01\}, \{10\}, \{11\}, \{01, 10, 11\}.$$

Moreover, in the case of  $k = 3$ , the following necessary and sufficient condition is known.

**Theorem 11.** [13] *The pattern sequence  $\alpha_P$  related to a pattern set  $P$  of degree 3 is noncorrelated if and only if one of the following three conditions is satisfied:*

- (a)  $a_1 = -a_4a_5$  and  $a_2a_3 = -a_6a_7$ ,
- (b)  $a_1 = a_4a_5 = -1$ ,  $a_2a_3 = a_6a_7 = 1$  and  $a_2 = a_5a_6$ ,
- (c)  $a_1 = a_4a_5 = 1$ ,  $a_2a_3 = a_6a_7 = -1$  and  $a_2 = -a_5a_6$ ,

Where we denote  $a_n = \alpha_P(n) \ (\forall n \in \mathbb{N})$ .

In this section, we prove the last statement of (b) of theorem 4 using the above characterizations.

If  $k = 2$ , then (1, 2) is an odd position of  $P$  if and only if  $\#P$  is odd. Hence,  $P$  has a good position (1, 2) if and only if  $\#P$  is odd, that is,  $P$  is one of

$$\{01\}, \{10\}, \{11\}, \{01, 10, 11\}.$$

Thus, theorem 4 follows in the case  $k = 2$ .

Let  $k = 3$ .

Assume the condition (a) in theorem 10. Since  $000 \notin P$  and  $a_0 = 1$ , we have

$$a_0a_1 = (-1)^{\#(P \cap \{100\})}.$$

Since 4 and 5 have common upper 2 digits 01, we have

$$a_4a_5 = (-1)^{\#(P \cap \{001, 101\})}.$$

Since  $a_1 = -a_4a_5$ , we have  $a_0a_1a_4a_5 = -1$ , hence,  $\#(P \cap \{000, 100, 001, 101\})$  is odd. In the same way, since  $a_2a_3 = -a_6a_7$ ,  $\#(P \cap \{010, 110, 011, 111\})$  is odd. These facts imply that (1, 3) is an odd position of  $P$ , and hence, (1, 3) is a good position.

Assume the condition (b) in theorem 10. Since  $a_1 = a_4a_5 = -1$ , both of  $\#(P \cap \{000, 100\})$  and  $\#(P \cap \{001, 101\})$  are odd. Since  $a_2a_3 = a_6a_7 = 1$ , both of  $\#(P \cap \{010, 110\})$  and  $\#(P \cap \{011, 111\})$  are even. Hence, both of  $\#(P \cap \{000, 100, 010, 110\})$  and  $\#(P \cap \{001, 101, 011, 111\})$  are odd. Therefore, (1, 2) is an odd position of  $P$ .

We prove that (2, 3) is an even position. Since  $a_1 = -1$ ,  $100 \in P$ . Since  $a_4a_5 = -1$ , exactly one of 001 or 101 is in  $P$ . Since  $a_2a_3 = a_6a_7 = 1$ , we have 4 cases:

$$010 \in P, 110 \in P, 011 \in P, 111 \in P \tag{5.1}$$

$$010 \in P, 110 \in P, 011 \notin P, 111 \notin P \tag{5.2}$$

$$010 \notin P, 110 \notin P, 011 \in P, 111 \in P \tag{5.3}$$

$$010 \notin P, 110 \notin P, 011 \notin P, 111 \notin P \tag{5.4}$$

Together with  $001 \in P$  or  $101 \in P$ , we have 8 cases. Among these cases, the condition that  $a_2 = a_5a_6$  is satisfied only in the following 4 cases:

- (a)  $001 \notin P, 101 \in P$  and (5.1)

- (b)  $001 \in P101 \notin P$  and (5.2)
- (c)  $001 \in P101 \notin P$  and (5.3)
- (d)  $001 \notin P101 \in P$  and (5.4)

The pattern set  $P$  for these 4 cases are

$$\{100, 010, 110, 101, 011, 111\}, \{100, 010, 110, 001\}, \{100, 001, 011, 111\}, \{100, 101\}$$

Any of these cases, (1, 2) is a good position.

Assume the condition (c) in theorem 10. Since  $a_1 = a_4a_5 = 1$ ,  $100 \notin P$  and  $\#(P \cap \{001, 101\})$  is even. Since  $a_2a_3 = a_6a_7 = -1$ , both of  $\#(P \cap \{010, 110\})$  and  $\#(P \cap \{011, 111\})$  are odd. Hence, both of  $\#(P \cap \{000, 100, 010, 110\})$  and  $\#(P \cap \{001, 101, 011, 111\})$  are odd. Therefore, (1, 2) is an odd position of  $P$ .

We prove that (2, 3) is an even position. Since  $a_1 = 1$ ,  $100 \notin P$ . Since  $a_4a_5 = 1$ , either  $\{001, 101\} \subset P$  or  $\{001, 101\} \cap P = \emptyset$ . Since  $a_2a_3 = a_6a_7 = -1$ , we have 4 cases:

$$010 \in P, 110 \notin P, 011 \in P, 111 \notin P \tag{5.5}$$

$$010 \in P, 110 \notin P, 011 \notin P, 111 \in P \tag{5.6}$$

$$010 \notin P, 110 \in P, 011 \in P, 111 \notin P \tag{5.7}$$

$$010 \notin P, 110 \in P, 011 \notin P, 111 \in P \tag{5.8}$$

Together with the condition for  $\{001, 101\}$ , we have 8 cases. Among these cases, the condition that  $a_2 = -a_5a_6$  is satisfied only in the following 4 cases:

- (a)  $\{001, 101\} \cap P = \emptyset$  and (5.5)
- (b)  $\{001, 101\} \subset P$  and (5.6)
- (c)  $\{001, 101\} \subset P$  and (5.7)
- (d)  $\{001, 101\} \cap P = \emptyset$  and (5.8)

The pattern set  $P$  for these 4 cases are

$$\{010, 011\}, \{010, 001, 101, 111\}, \{110, 001, 101, 011\}, \{110, 111\}$$

Any of these cases, (1, 2) is a good position.

Thus, we have proved that if  $\alpha_P$  is noncorrelated, then  $P$  has a good position  $(i, j)$  with  $i = 1$ .

### 6. Proof of theorem 4

**Lemma 12.** *If  $\alpha \in \{-1, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  is  $r_0$ -correlated, then,  $\Lambda_\alpha$  has a density with respect to the Lebesgue measure on  $[0, 1)$  which is a linear combination of 1 and  $\cos x, \cos 2x, \dots, \cos(r_0x)$  whose coefficients are in  $(-2, 2)$ .*

**Proof.** Note that  $\Lambda_\alpha$  is determined by the correlation function  $\gamma_\alpha$ . Let  $c_r = \gamma_\alpha(r)$  ( $r \in \mathbb{N}$ ). Clearly,  $c_0 = 1$  and  $|c_r| \leq 1$  ( $r \in \mathbb{N}$ ). Since  $\alpha$  is  $r_0$ -correlated,  $\Lambda_\alpha$  is absolutely continuous. Hence,  $|c_r| < 1$  holds for any  $r > 0$ . Moreover,  $c_r = 0$  holds for any  $r > r_0$ . Let

$$f(x) = 1 + \sum_{r=1}^{r_0} 2c_r \cos 2\pi r x \quad (x \in [0, 1)).$$

Then,  $\int e^{2\pi i r x} f(x) dx = c_r$  holds for any  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus,  $d\Lambda_\alpha(x) = f(x) dx$ . □

**Proof of theorem 4.** Since  $2^{i-1} - 1 = 0$  if  $i = 1$ , the ‘if’ part of (b) follows from (a) of theorem 4. The converse in the case  $k = 2, 3$  is already proved in section 5. Hence, to prove theorem 4, it is sufficient to prove (a) of theorem 4.

Assume that a pattern set  $P$  of degree  $k \geq 2$  has a good position  $(i, j)$ . Let  $d = j - i \geq 1$ . Take any  $r \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $r \geq 2^{i-1}$ . For any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , define  $h_0 = h_0(n)$  by

$$h_0 = \max\{h \in \mathbb{N}; \quad (n)_h \neq (n+r)_h\}.$$

Then,  $h_0 \geq i - 1$  since  $r \geq 2^{i-1}$ . Define  $\bar{n}$  as

$$\bar{n} = \begin{cases} n + 2^{h_0+d} & \text{if } (n)_{h_0+d} = 0 \\ n - 2^{h_0+d} & \text{if } (n)_{h_0+d} = 1 \end{cases}.$$

Then, it is clear that  $\overline{(\bar{n})} = n$ . Moreover, it is easy to see that

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \#\{n \in \mathbb{N}; \quad n < N \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{n} < N\} = 1. \tag{6.1}$$

We are going to prove that

$$\alpha_P(n)\alpha_P(n+r) + \alpha_P(\bar{n})\alpha_P(\bar{n}+r) = 0 \tag{6.2}$$

for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then,  $\gamma_P(r) = 0$  follows since by (6.1),

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_P(r) &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{0 \leq n < N} \alpha_P(n)\alpha_P(n+r) \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{0 \leq n < N} (\alpha_P(n)\alpha_P(n+r) + \alpha_P(\bar{n})\alpha_P(\bar{n}+r)) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Note that (6.2) is equivalent to

$$\alpha_P(n)\alpha_P(n+r)\alpha_P(\bar{n})\alpha_P(\bar{n}+r) = -1. \tag{6.3}$$

Moreover, (6.3) is equivalent to that  $\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} K_l$  is odd, where

$$\begin{aligned} K_l &= 1_P((n)_l(n)_{l+1} \dots (n)_{l+k-1}) + 1_P((n+r)_l(n+r)_{l+1} \dots (n+r)_{l+k-1}) \\ &\quad + 1_P((\bar{n})_l(\bar{n})_{l+1} \dots (\bar{n})_{l+k-1}) + 1_P((\bar{n}+r)_l(\bar{n}+r)_{l+1} \dots (\bar{n}+r)_{l+k-1}). \end{aligned}$$

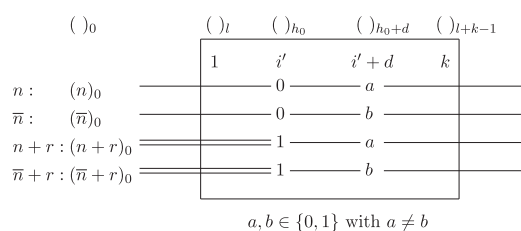
If  $l > h_0$ , then we have

$$\begin{aligned} (n)_l(n)_{l+1} \dots (n)_{l+k-1} &= (n+r)_l(n+r)_{l+1} \dots (n+r)_{l+k-1}, \\ (\bar{n})_l(\bar{n})_{l+1} \dots (\bar{n})_{l+k-1} &= (\bar{n}+r)_l(\bar{n}+r)_{l+1} \dots (\bar{n}+r)_{l+k-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $K_l$  is even. Also, if  $l < h_0 - k + d + 1$ , then since  $l + k - 1 < h_0 + d$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} (n)_l(n)_{l+1} \dots (n)_{l+k-1} &= (\bar{n})_l(\bar{n})_{l+1} \dots (\bar{n})_{l+k-1}, \\ (n+r)_l(n+r)_{l+1} \dots (n+r)_{l+k-1} &= (\bar{n}+r)_l(\bar{n}+r)_{l+1} \dots (\bar{n}+r)_{l+k-1}. \end{aligned}$$





**Figure 4.** The position  $(i', i' + d)$  is included in the sum  $\sum \#\mathbb{S}_l$ , if  $l \geq 0$ , that is,  $l = h_0 - i' + 1 \geq 0$  in the above.

Hence,  $K_l$  is even. Moreover if  $(h_0 - k + d + 1) \vee 0 \leq l \leq h_0$ , then the four terms in the above two equality are different each other, where we denote  $a \vee b := \max\{a, b\}$ . Therefore, we have

$$\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} K_l \equiv \sum_{(h_0-k+d+1) \vee 0 \leq l \leq h_0} \#\mathbb{S}_l \pmod{2}, \tag{6.4}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{S}_l = \{ & (n)_l(n)_{l+1} \dots (n)_{l+k-1}, \\ & (n+r)_l(n+r)_{l+1} \dots (n+r)_{l+k-1}, \\ & (\bar{n})_l(\bar{n})_{l+1} \dots (\bar{n})_{l+k-1}, \\ & (\bar{n}+r)_l(\bar{n}+r)_{l+1} \dots (\bar{n}+r)_{l+k-1} \} \cap P. \end{aligned}$$

This implies that with the following notations:

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta^0 &:= (n)_l \dots (n)_{h_0-1} = (\bar{n})_l \dots (\bar{n})_{h_0-1} \\ \zeta^1 &:= (n+r)_l \dots (n+r)_{h_0-1} = (\bar{n}+r)_l \dots (\bar{n}+r)_{h_0-1} \\ \eta &:= (n)_{h_0+1} \dots (n)_{h_0+d-1} = (n+r)_{h_0+1} \dots (n+r)_{h_0+d-1} \\ &= (\bar{n})_{h_0+1} \dots (\bar{n})_{h_0+d-1} = (\bar{n}+r)_{h_0+1} \dots (\bar{n}+r)_{h_0+d-1} \\ \xi &:= (n)_{h_0+d+1} \dots (n)_{h_0+k-1} = (n+r)_{h_0+d+1} \dots (n+r)_{h_0+k-1} \\ &= (\bar{n})_{h_0+d+1} \dots (\bar{n})_{h_0+k-1} = (\bar{n}+r)_{h_0+d+1} \dots (\bar{n}+r)_{h_0+k-1} \\ (n)_{h_0} &= (\bar{n})_{h_0} = 0, \quad (n+r)_{h_0} = (\bar{n}+r)_{h_0} = 1 \\ (n)_{h_0+d} &= (n+r)_{h_0+d} \neq (\bar{n})_{h_0+d} = (\bar{n}+r)_{h_0+d}, \end{aligned}$$

we have

$$\mathbb{S}_l = \{ \zeta^0 0 \eta 0 \xi, \zeta^0 0 \eta 1 \xi, \zeta^1 1 \eta 0 \xi, \zeta^1 1 \eta 1 \xi \} \cap P.$$

As is seen in the figure 4, the position  $(i', i' + d)$  with  $1 \leq i' < i' + d \leq k$  is included in the sum of the right-hand side of (6.4) if  $i' \leq h_0 + 1$ . Since  $i \leq h_0 + 1$  and  $(i, i + d)$  is the largest odd position, any other odd position  $(i', i' + d)$  is included in the sum (6.4). There are an odd number of odd positions and the others are even positions in the sum  $\sum \#\mathbb{S}_l$ ,  $\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} K_l$  is odd.

Thus, we have  $\gamma_P(r) = 0$  for any  $r \geq 2^{i-1}$ , and  $\alpha_P$  is  $(2^{i-1} - 1)$ -correlated.  $\square$

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