

# INFINITE CONVOLUTIONS ON LOCALLY COMPACT ABELIAN GROUPS AND ADDITIVE FUNCTIONS<sup>(1)</sup>

BY

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**ABSTRACT.** Let  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots$  be regular probability measures on a locally compact Abelian group  $G$  such that  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \dots = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_1 * \dots * \mu_n$  exists (and is a probability measure). For arbitrary  $G$ , we derive analogues of the Lévy theorem on the existence of an atom for  $\mu$  and of the "pure theorems" of Jessen, Wintner and van Kampen (dealing with discrete  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots$ ) in the case  $G = R^d$ . These results are applied to the asymptotic distribution  $\mu$  of an additive function  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$  after generalizing the Erdős-Wintner result ( $G = R^1$ ) which implies that  $\mu$  is an infinite convolution of discrete probability measures.

**1. Introduction.** Let  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots$  be regular probability measures on  $R^d$  such that

$$(1.1) \quad \mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_1 * \dots * \mu_n = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \dots$$

is convergent. A result of P. Lévy [11, Theorem XIII, p. 150] states that  $\mu$  is not continuous (i.e., has an atom) if and only if

$$(1.2) \quad \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} d_n \neq 0, \quad \text{where } d_n = \max_t \mu_n(\{t\})$$

is the largest "jump" of  $\mu_n$ . Also, a theorem of Jessen and Wintner [9, Theorem 35, p. 86] states that if  $\mu_n$  is purely discontinuous (= discrete), then  $\mu$  is purely discontinuous or absolutely continuous or (continuous) singular and, more generally (van Kampen [10, pp. 443–444]),  $\mu$  is pure; cf. §2 below. In §§2 and 3, we discuss generalizations of these results when  $R^d$  is replaced by a locally compact Abelian group  $G$ . Our methods follow van Kampen's treatment [10] of infinite convolutions on  $R$ ; cf. also Jessen and Wintner [9], and Wintner [16], [17].

For example, our results imply that in the case when  $G$  is the circle group

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$T = R/Z$ , where every closed subgroup  $H$  ( $\neq G$ ) is finite, the analogue of the Jessen-Wintner (and van Kampen) result is valid, but the analogue of the Lévy theorem has the following form:  $\mu$  is not continuous if and only if there exists an integer  $\kappa > 0$  such that

$$\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} d_{\kappa n} \neq 0, \quad \text{where } d_{\kappa n} = \max_{\theta} \sum_{j=0}^{\kappa-1} \mu_n(\{\theta + j/\kappa\}).$$

The motivation for dealing with (1.1) when  $\mu, \mu_1, \mu_2, \dots$  are probability measures on a group arises, for example, from the consideration of the asymptotic distribution functions of real-valued additive functions mod 1 or, more generally, of additive functions  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$ , where  $Z_+ = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ . A result of Erdős and Wintner [6, p. 720] states that if  $G = R$ , then  $f$  has an asymptotic distribution  $\mu$  if and only if (1.1) converges, where  $\mu_n = \sigma_p$  is purely discontinuous and has the Fourier-Stieltjes transform

$$(1.3) \quad \hat{\sigma}_p(u) = (1 - p^{-1}) \left[ 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{-j} \exp iuf(p^j) \right],$$

and  $p = p_n$  is the  $n$ th prime. This is generalized in §4 to the case of arbitrary locally compact Abelian groups  $G$ . In particular, it follows in the case  $G = T$  (as in the Erdős-Wintner case  $G = R$ ) that when  $\mu$  exists, it is pure (hence absolutely continuous or purely discontinuous or (continuous) singular). §4 depends heavily on results of Halasz [7], and their applications by Delange [3].

This article was suggested by the paper of Elliott [5] dealing with the question of the continuity of the asymptotic distribution of a real additive function mod 1 (using results of Halasz and Delange, but not involving convolutions).

**2. Cauchy-convergent convolutions on groups.** Let  $G$  be a (Hausdorff) locally compact Abelian group (written additively) and  $\Gamma$  the dual group of continuous characters. We write  $(g, \gamma)$  for the pairing of  $G$  and  $\Gamma$ ,  $g \in G$  and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ . Let  $P(G)$  be the set of regular probability measures  $\mu$  on  $G$ . The Fourier-Stieltjes transform of  $\mu$  is

$$\hat{\mu}(\gamma) = \int_G (g, \gamma) d\mu \quad \text{for } \gamma \in \Gamma.$$

For  $\mu, \nu \in P(G)$ , we have  $(\mu * \nu)^\wedge(\gamma) = \hat{\mu}(\gamma)\hat{\nu}(\gamma)$ ; cf. [15, pp. 13–15].

The standard topology on  $P(G)$  is equivalent to the following: for any net  $\{\mu_n\}$  in  $P(G)$  and  $\mu \in P(G)$ ,  $\mu_n \rightarrow \mu$  in  $P(G)$  is equivalent to

$$(2.1) \quad \int_G f(g) d\mu_n \rightarrow \int_G f(g) d\mu \quad \text{for all } f \in C_0^0(G),$$

where  $C_0^0(G)$  is the set of complex-valued continuous functions on  $G$  with compact support [1, p. 82]. Furthermore, (2.1) can be replaced by any of the fol-

lowing three equivalent conditions on Fourier-Stieltjes transforms, where  $\mu_n, \mu \in P(G)$ :

- (i)  $\hat{\mu}_n(\gamma) \rightarrow \hat{\mu}(\gamma)$  uniformly on compacts of  $\Gamma$ ;
- (ii)  $\hat{\mu}_n(\gamma) \rightarrow \hat{\mu}(\gamma)$  for all  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ ;
- (iii)  $\int_{\Gamma} f(\gamma) \hat{\mu}_n(\gamma) d\gamma \rightarrow \int_{\Gamma} f(\gamma) \hat{\mu}(\gamma) d\gamma$  for all  $f \in L^1(\Gamma)$ ,

and  $L^1(\Gamma)$  refers to a Haar measure on  $\Gamma$ ; cf. [1, p. 89] (where  $G = \hat{\Gamma}$  and  $\Gamma = \hat{G}$  are interchanged).

Also, if  $\{\mu_n\}$  is a net in  $P(G)$ , then  $\lim \mu_n$  exists in  $P(G)$  if and only if

$$(2.2) \quad \lim \hat{\mu}_n(\gamma) \text{ exists for all } \gamma \in \Gamma \text{ and is continuous at } \gamma = 0.$$

In fact, the limit function is then continuous on  $\Gamma$  by the analogue of the Increments Inequality (cf. Loève [12, p. 195]),

$$(2.3) \quad |\hat{\mu}(\gamma) - \hat{\mu}(\gamma + \delta)|^2 \leq 2[1 - \operatorname{Re} \hat{\mu}(\delta)] \quad \text{for } \gamma, \delta \in \Gamma, \mu \in P(G),$$

which holds for  $\hat{\mu} = \hat{\mu}_n$  and hence for  $\hat{\mu} = \lim \hat{\mu}_n$ . And  $\lim \hat{\mu}_n$ , being continuous and positive definite with the value 1 at  $\gamma = 0$ , is the Fourier-Stieltjes transform  $\hat{\mu}$  of some  $\mu \in P(G)$  (Bochner, cf. [15, p. 19]) and satisfies (ii) above.

We write  $\{g\}$  for the subset of  $G$  consisting of the point  $g$ , so that  $g$  is an atom if  $\mu(\{g\}) > 0$ . We write  $\omega_1 = \omega_{1G} \in P(G)$  for the unit measure (i.e.,  $\omega_1(\{0\}) = 1$ ) and  $\omega_{0G}$  for [normalized] Haar measure on  $G$  [if  $G$  is compact], so that  $\omega_{0G} \in P(G)$  if  $G$  is compact. Also

$$(2.4) \quad \hat{\omega}_1(\gamma) = 1 \text{ and if } G \text{ is compact, } \hat{\omega}_{0G}(\gamma) = 0 \text{ for } \gamma \neq 0.$$

**PROPOSITION 2.1.** *Let  $\mu, \nu \in P(G)$ . The set of atoms [or support] of  $\mu * \nu$  may be obtained by adding arbitrary elements of the sets of atoms [or supports] of  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  [and forming the closure]. Also  $(\mu * \nu)(\{g\}) = \sum \mu(\{x\})\nu(\{y\})$  for  $x + y = g$ . If  $\mu_n \rightarrow \mu$  in  $P(G)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\Sigma(\mu)$  denotes the support of  $\mu$ , then  $\Sigma(\mu) \subset \lim \Sigma(\mu_n)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .*

By  $\lim \Sigma(\mu_n)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we mean the set of points  $g \in G$  with the property that, for every neighborhood  $U$  of  $g$ ,  $U \cap \Sigma(\mu_n) \neq \emptyset$  for large  $n$ . The next proposition follows by considering Fourier-Stieltjes transforms.

**PROPOSITION 2.2.** *If  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots \in P(G)$  satisfy*

$$(2.5) \quad \mu_n * \dots * \mu_N \rightarrow \omega_1 \quad \text{as } N \geq n \rightarrow \infty,$$

*then*

$$(2.6) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_1 * \dots * \mu_n = \mu \quad \text{exists in } P(G).$$

In contrast to the case of convolutions on  $R^d$ , (2.6) does not imply (2.5). This is clear if  $G$  is compact and  $\omega_{0G}$  is its normalized measure for, by (2.4),  $\omega_{0G} * \mu_1 * \dots * \mu_n = \omega_{0G} \rightarrow \omega_{0G}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for arbitrary  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots$ .

DEFINITION. When (2.6) holds, we say that the infinite convolution  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \cdots$  is *convergent*. If, in addition, (2.5) holds, we say that it is *Cauchy-convergent*.

PROPOSITION 2.3. *If  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \cdots$  is Cauchy-convergent, then  $\Sigma(\mu) = \lim \Sigma(\mu_1 * \cdots * \mu_n)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .*

The proof can be obtained by a modification of that of Wintner [16, pp. 60–61] for  $R$ . We consider analogues of Lévy's theorem for Cauchy-convergent convolutions.

THEOREM 2.1. (i) *If  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \cdots$  is convergent and*

$$(2.7) \quad \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} d_{0n} \neq 0, \quad \text{where } d_{0n} = \max_g \mu_n(\{g\}),$$

*then  $\mu$  is not continuous (i.e.,  $\mu$  has at least one atom). (ii) Conversely, if  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \cdots$  is Cauchy-convergent and  $\mu$  is not continuous, then (2.7) holds.*

The following is similar to the proof of P. Lévy [11, pp. 150–152] as simplified by Jessen; cf. van Kampen [10, pp. 445–446] or Wintner [16, pp. 16–18].

PROOF. On (i). Let  $g_n \in G$  satisfy  $\Pi \mu_n(\{g_n\}) = d > 0$ , e.g., let  $d_{0n} = \mu_n(\{g_n\})$ . Let  $\lambda_n = \mu_1 * \cdots * \mu_n$ , so that

$$\lambda_n(\{h_n\}) \geq \prod_{k=1}^n \mu_k(\{g_k\}) \geq d,$$

where  $h_n = g_1 + \cdots + g_n$ . There exists a compact  $K \subset G$  which contains all but a finite number of  $h_1, h_2, \dots$ . For otherwise, if  $K$  is any compact, then  $\lambda_n(K) \leq 1 - d$  for infinitely many  $n$ . Thus  $\mu(K) \leq 1 - d$  for any compact  $K$ ; so that, since  $K$  is arbitrary, we obtain the contradiction  $\mu(G) \leq 1 - d < 1$ . Thus  $h_1, h_2, \dots$  has a cluster point  $g$ . If  $U$  is any neighborhood of  $0 \in G$ , then  $\lambda_n(g + U) \geq d$  for infinitely many  $n$ , and so  $\mu(g + U + U) \geq d$ . Thus  $\mu(\{g\}) \geq d > 0$ .

On (ii). Let  $\mu(\{g_0\}) = d > 0$ . Following the arguments of [10, (18), p. 445] we can obtain:

(a) *Let  $0 < d \leq 1$ ,  $0 < 6\epsilon < d$  and  $U$  be a symmetric compact neighborhood of  $0 \in G$ . Let  $\lambda, \mu, \nu \in P(G)$  with the properties*

$$\mu = \lambda * \nu \quad \text{and} \quad \mu(\{g_0\}) = d \quad \text{for some } g_0 \in G,$$

$$\mu(g_0 + U + U) < d + \epsilon \quad \text{and} \quad \nu(U) > 1 - \epsilon.$$

*Then there exist  $g, h \in G$  such that  $g_0 = g + h$ ,  $h \in U$ ,*

$$d - \epsilon < \lambda(\{g\}) < (d + \epsilon)/(1 - \epsilon) \quad \text{and} \quad \nu(\{h\}) > 1 - 6\epsilon/d.$$

For  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , put  $\lambda_n = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \dots * \mu_n$ . Also  $\nu_n = \mu_{n+1} * \mu_{n+2} * \dots$  is defined and Cauchy-convergent, and  $\mu = \lambda_n * \nu_n$  and  $\nu_n \rightarrow \omega_1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We now verify the following assertion; cf. [10, (19), p. 446]. (*Curiously, no assumption of metrizability of  $G$  is required.*)

(b) *There exist  $g_1, g_2, \dots$  and  $h_1, h_2, \dots$  in  $G$  such that  $g_0 = g_n + h_n$  and  $g_n \rightarrow g_0, h_n \rightarrow 0$ ,*

$$(2.8) \quad \lambda_n(\{g\}) \rightarrow d \quad \text{and} \quad \nu_n(\{h_n\}) \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Let  $D \geq 2$  be an integer such that  $Dd > 6$ , and for  $m = D, D+1, \dots$ , choose symmetric compact neighborhoods  $U_D, U_{D+1}, \dots$  of  $0 \in G$  such that  $U_D \subset U_{D+1} \subset \dots$  and  $\mu(g_0 + U_m + U_m) < d + 1/m$ , and choose  $N_D < N_{D+1} < \dots$  so that  $\nu_n(U_m) > 1 - 1/m \geq 1/2$  for  $n \geq N_m, m \geq D$ . Then, by (a), there exist  $g_{nm}, h_{nm} \in G$  for  $n \geq N_m$  satisfying  $g_0 = g_{nm} + h_{nm}, h_{nm} \in U_m$ ,

$$d - 1/m < \lambda_n(\{g_{nm}\}) < (d + 1/m)/(1 - 1/m) \quad \text{and} \quad \nu_n(\{h_{nm}\}) > 1 - 6/dm.$$

Thus,  $\lambda_n(\{g_{nm}\}) \rightarrow d$  and  $\nu_n(\{h_{nm}\}) \rightarrow 1$  for  $n \geq N_m, m \rightarrow \infty$ . For  $n \geq N_D$ , let  $m = m(n)$  satisfy  $N_m \leq n < N_{m+1}$ . Put  $g_n = g_{n, m(n)}$  and  $h_n = h_{n, m(n)}$ , so that (2.8) holds. Suppose that the sequence  $h_D, h_{D+1}, \dots \in U_D$  has a cluster point  $g \neq 0$ . If  $U$  is a compact neighborhood of  $g$ , then  $\nu_n(U) \geq \nu_n(\{h_n\}) \geq 1 - 6/dm(n)$  for infinitely many  $n$ . But if  $0 \notin U$ , then  $\nu_n(U) \rightarrow \omega_1(U) = 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . This contradiction gives  $h_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and proves (b).

Assertion (ii) can be proved by the use of (b) in the same way that Lévy's case of  $G = R$  is proved in [10] with the use of the equivalent [10, (19), p. 446]. We omit details.

Let  $\mu \in P(G)$ . If  $(X, \Omega, \sigma)$  is a probability measure space, a map  $\phi: X \rightarrow G$  is called measurable if  $\phi^{-1}(A) \subset X$  is measurable for every Borel set  $A \subset G$ . If, also  $\phi: (X, \sigma) \rightarrow (G, \mu)$  is a measure preserving map (i.e.,  $\sigma(\phi^{-1}(A)) = \mu(A)$  for all Borel sets  $A \subset G$ ), then  $\mu$  is called the distribution of  $\phi$ . It is clear that if  $\mu$  is purely discontinuous, then there exist probability spaces  $(X, \Omega, \sigma)$  and maps  $\phi: X \rightarrow G$  such that  $\phi$  has  $\mu$  as its distribution. (More generally, this is the case if  $(G, \mu)$  is a Lebesgue measure space; cf. [14].)

Let  $(X, \Omega, \sigma)$  be a probability space and  $s_1(x), s_2(x), \dots$  a sequence of measurable maps  $s_n: X \rightarrow G$ . We say that  $s_1(x), s_2(x), \dots$  is *Cauchy in measure* if, for every neighborhood  $U$  of  $0 \in G$ ,

$$(2.9) \quad \sigma\{x \in X: s_N(x) - s_n(x) \notin U\} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{for } N > n \rightarrow \infty.$$

If this is the case and, in addition,  $G$  is metrizable, then standard proofs for  $G = R$  show that there exists a measurable map  $s: X \rightarrow G$  such that  $s_n(x) \rightarrow s(x)$  in measure as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , i.e.,

$$(2.10) \quad \sigma \{x \in X: s_n(x) - s(x) \notin U\} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Also there exists a subsequence  $s_{n(1)}(x), s_{n(2)}(x), \dots$  satisfying

$$(2.11) \quad s_{n(j)}(x) \rightarrow s(x) \quad \text{a.e. on } (X, \Omega, \sigma) \text{ as } j \rightarrow \infty.$$

We adopt the conventions of [10], omitting details here. Let  $X = X_1 \times X_2 \times \dots$  be an infinite product measure space carrying a product measure  $\sigma = \Pi \sigma_n$ , each  $X_n$  is a probability measure space with measure  $\sigma_n$ . A point  $x \in X$  is a sequence  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$  with  $x_n \in X_n$  and, for example, a function  $\phi_n(x_n)$  on  $X_n$  is also considered a function of  $x \in X$  independent of  $x_k$ ,  $k \neq n$ . Let  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots \in P(G)$  and let  $\phi_n: X_n \rightarrow G$  be a function having  $\mu_n$  as its distribution. Then

$$(2.12) \quad s_n(x) = \phi_1(x_1) + \dots + \phi_n(x_n),$$

considered as a function on  $X$ , has  $\mu_1 * \dots * \mu_n$  as its distribution.

**PROPOSITION 2.4.** *Let  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots \in P(G)$  and  $X = X_1 \times X_2 \times \dots$ ,  $\phi_1(x_1), \phi_2(x_2), \dots$  as above. (i) Then  $s_1(x), s_2(x), \dots$  is Cauchy in measure on  $X$  if and only if  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \dots$  is Cauchy-convergent. (ii) If this holds and, in addition,  $G$  is metrizable, then  $s_1(x), s_2(x), \dots$  has a limit  $s(x)$  in measure on  $X$  and  $\mu$  is the distribution of  $s(x)$ .*

Part (i) is clear, for the distribution of  $s_N(x) - s_{n-1}(x) = \phi_n(x_n) + \dots + \phi_N(x_N)$  is  $\mu_n * \dots * \mu_N$  for  $N \geq n$ . Part (ii) follows from the remarks concerning (2.10).

Following van Kampen [10], we define a *pure* probability measure  $\mu \in P(G)$ . Let  $\mathfrak{A}$  be a class of Borel sets on  $G$  which is closed under countable unions and with the property that if  $A \in \mathfrak{A}$ , then every translate  $A + g \in \mathfrak{A}$ . (Such classes are, for instance, the class of enumerable sets or the class of null sets with respect to Haar measure  $\omega_{0G}$ .)  $\mu \in P(G)$  is said to be *pure* if it has the following property with reference to *every* class  $\mathfrak{A}$ : If  $\mu(A) > 0$  for some  $A \in \mathfrak{A}$ , then there exists an  $A_0 \in \mathfrak{A}$  such that  $\mu(A_0) = 1$ .

A probability measure  $\mu \in P(G)$  is called *continuous* if it has no atoms (i.e.,  $\mu(\{g\}) = 0$  for all  $g \in G$ ), *purely discontinuous* if  $\mu(A) = 1$  for some enumerable set  $A$ , *absolutely continuous* (with respect to Haar measure  $\omega_{0G}$ ) if  $\mu(A) = 0$  whenever  $\omega_{0G}(A) = 0$  and, finally, (*continuous*) *singular* if it is continuous and if  $\mu(A_0) = 1$  for some set  $A_0$  with  $\omega_{0G}(A_0) = 0$ . [Note that  $\mu \neq 0$  is absolutely continuous and purely discontinuous if  $G$  is countable.]

**THEOREM 2.2 (PURE THEOREM).** *Let  $\mu_n \in P(G)$  be purely discontinuous and  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \dots$  Cauchy-convergent. Then  $\mu$  is pure (hence absolutely continuous or purely discontinuous or (continuous) singular).*

If  $G$  is metrizable, this result follows from Proposition 2.4(ii) and the 0-or-1 principle; cf. the proof of [9, Theorem 35, p. 86] or [10, Theorem VIII, p. 444]. We shall modify these arguments, using Proposition 2.4(i), avoiding a "limit a.e." or "limit in measure". (Roughly speaking, we consider an arbitrary, but fixed, symmetric neighborhood  $V$  of  $0 \in G$ , a sequence  $V_0, V_1, \dots$  of such neighborhoods with  $V = V_0$  and  $V_{k+1} + V_{k+1} \subset V_k$  and the pseudo-metric induced on  $G$  by the neighborhood "base"  $V_0, V_1, \dots$  of  $0 \in G$ .)

PROOF. We give the proof in several steps. We write  $A(2) = A + A$ ,  $A(3) = A + A + A$ , etc. If  $Y \subset X$ , we write  $Y^c$  for the complement of  $Y$  in  $X$ .

Let  $X = X_1 \times X_2 \times \dots$  and  $\phi_1(x_1), \phi_2(x_2), \dots$  be as in Proposition 2.4(i). Since  $\phi_n$  is purely discontinuous, there is no difficulty about the existence of  $X_n$  and  $\phi_n$ . It can also be supposed that the range of  $\phi_n(x_n)$  in  $G$  is countable. Let  $M$  be a countable subset of  $G$  containing the ranges of  $s_n$  and  $s_n - s_m$  for  $n, m = 1, 2, \dots$ .

(a) Let  $V$  be a symmetric neighborhood of  $0 \in G$ . Then there exists a sequence of integers  $0 < n(1) < n(2) < \dots$ , depending on  $V$ , with the following property: if  $\epsilon > 0$ , then there exist an integer  $N_\epsilon = N_{\epsilon V}$  and a measurable set  $X_\epsilon = X_{\epsilon V} \subset X$  such that  $\sigma(X_\epsilon) > 1 - \epsilon$  and

$$s_{n(j)}(x) - s_{n(k)}(x) \in V \quad \text{for } x \in X_\epsilon \text{ and } n(j), n(k) \geq N_\epsilon.$$

In order to see this, let  $V_0, V_1, \dots$  be a sequence of symmetric neighborhoods of  $0 \in G$  such that  $V = V_0$  and  $V_{k+1}(2) \subset V_k$  for  $k = 0, 1, \dots$ , so that  $(V_1 + \dots + V_k) + V_k \subset V$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ . Choose  $0 < n(1) < n(2) < \dots$ , so that

$$\sigma(\{x \in X: s_n(x) - s_m(x) \notin V_k\}) < 1/2^k \quad \text{for } n, m \geq n(k).$$

If  $K$  is so large that  $2/2^K < \epsilon$  and if

$$X_\epsilon = \left[ \bigcap_{k=K}^{\infty} \{x \in X: s_{n(k+1)}(x) - s_{n(k)}(x) \notin V_k\} \right]^c,$$

then  $\sigma(X_\epsilon^c) < 1/2^K + 1/2^{K+1} + \dots = 2/2^K < \epsilon$ . Also, if  $N_\epsilon = n(K)$ , then  $x \in X_\epsilon$  and  $n(j) > n(k) \geq N_\epsilon$  imply that

$$\pm(s_{n(j)}(x) - s_{n(k)}(x)) \in V_k + V_{k+1} + \dots + V_{j-1} \subset V.$$

This gives (a).

(b) In the remainder of the proof, except for the last two sentences,  $V$  is fixed. We can therefore suppose that  $n(1), n(2), \dots$  is the full sequence  $1, 2, \dots$ , for otherwise we replace  $\mu_1 * \mu_2 * \dots$  by  $[\mu_1 * \dots * \mu_{n(1)}] * [\mu_{n(1)+1} * \dots * \mu_{n(2)}] * \dots$ ,  $X_1 \times X_2 \times \dots$  by  $[X_1 \times \dots \times X_{n(1)}] \times [X_{n(1)+1} \times \dots \times X_{n(2)}] \times \dots$ , and  $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots$  by  $s_{n(1)}, s_{n(2)} - s_{n(1)}, \dots$ .

For a subset  $A$  of  $G$ , introduce the following subsets of  $X$ :

$$D_n(A, V) = \{x \in X: s_n(x) \in A + V\} = s_n^{-1}(A + V),$$

$$D(A, V) = \{x \in X: s_n(x) \in A + V \text{ for large } n\} = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{n=k}^{\infty} D_n(A, V).$$

(c) For  $j > 0$ ,  $D(A, V(j)) \cap X_\epsilon \subset D_n(A, V(j+1))$ , hence  $D(A, V(j)) \subset D_n(A, V(j+1)) \cup X_\epsilon^c$ , for  $n \geq N_\epsilon$ . For if  $x \in D(A, V(j))$ , then  $s_m(x) \in A + V(j)$  for large  $m$ , and if  $x \in X_\epsilon$ , then  $s_n(x) - s_m(x) \in V$  for  $n, m \geq N_\epsilon$ . Thus,  $x \in D(A, V(j)) \cap X_\epsilon$  implies that  $s_n(x) \in s_m(x) + V \subset A + V(j) + V = A + V(j+1)$  for  $n \geq N_\epsilon$  and large  $m$ ; i.e.,  $x \in D_n(A, V(j+1))$ .

(d) For  $j > 0$ ,  $D_n(A, V(j)) \cap X_\epsilon \subset D(A, V(j+1))$ , hence  $D(A, V(j)) \subset D(A, V(j+1)) \cap X_\epsilon^c$ , for  $n \geq N_\epsilon$ . For if  $x \in D_n(A, V(j))$ , then  $s_n(x) \in A + V(j)$ . Thus,  $x \in D_n(A, V(j)) \cap X_\epsilon$  implies that  $s_m(x) \in s_n(x) + V \subset A + V(j+1)$  for  $m \geq n \geq N_\epsilon$ ; i.e.,  $x \in D(A, V(j+1))$ . This gives (d) which together with (a), (b), and (c) have the following consequences.

(e) Let  $A \subset G$  be a Borel set and  $\lambda_n = \mu_1 * \cdots * \mu_n$ . Then  $\sigma(D(A, V(2))) \leq \sigma(D_n(A, V(3))) + \epsilon = \lambda_n(A + V(3)) + \epsilon$  and  $\lambda_n(A + V) = \sigma(D_n(A, V)) \leq \sigma(D(A, V(2))) + \epsilon$  for  $n \geq N_\epsilon$ .

(f) COMPLETION OF THE PROOF. Let  $\mathfrak{A}$  be an admissible class of Borel subsets of  $G$  and suppose that  $\mu(A) > 0$  for some  $A \in \mathfrak{A}$ . Then  $\lambda_n(A + V) \geq \mu(A)/2 > 0$  for large  $n$ . Let  $A_0 = A + M = \bigcup(A + g)$  for  $g \in M$ , so that  $A_0 \in \mathfrak{A}$  since  $M$  is countable. If  $0 < \epsilon < \mu(A)/2$ , then  $\sigma(D(A, V(2))) \geq \sigma(D_n(A, V)) - \epsilon = \lambda_n(A + V) - \epsilon > 0$ . Thus  $A_0 \supset A$  implies that  $\sigma(D(A_0, V(2))) > 0$ . The definitions of  $A_0$  and  $D(A_0, V)$  make it clear that  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \in D(A_0, V(2))$  if and only if the same is true when any finite number of coordinates of  $x$  is changed. Thus, by the 0-or-1 principle,  $\sigma(D(A_0, V(2))) = 1$  and, by (e),  $\lambda_n(A_0 + V(3)) \geq 1 - \epsilon$  for  $n \geq N_\epsilon$ . Consequently,  $\mu(A_0 + V(4)) \geq 1 - \epsilon$  for every  $\epsilon > 0$  and every symmetric neighborhood  $V$  of  $0 \in G$ . This implies that  $\mu(A_0) = 1$ , and completes the proof.

3. **Convergent convolutions.** In this section, we consider the analogues of Theorems 2.1 and 2.2, when  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \cdots$  is convergent (i.e., (2.6) holds), but not necessarily Cauchy-convergent (i.e., (2.5) need not hold).

For any closed subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  and  $\mu \in P(G)$ , define  $\mu^{G/H} \in P(G/H)$  by

$$(3.1) \quad \mu^{G/H}(A) = \mu(T_H^{-1}A) \quad \text{for any Borel set } A \subset G/H,$$

where  $T_H: G \rightarrow G/H$  is the canonical map  $g \mapsto H + g$ . Then

$$(3.2) \quad (\mu_1 * \cdots * \mu_n)^{G/H} = \mu_1^{G/H} * \cdots * \mu_n^{G/H}$$

and



$$(3.3) \quad \nu_n \rightarrow \nu \text{ in } P(G) \Rightarrow \nu_n^{G/H} \rightarrow \nu^{G/H} \text{ in } P(G/H).$$

The relation (3.3) is clear from the equivalence of (2.1) and (2.2), where  $f$  is constant on cosets of  $H$  (i.e.,  $f \in C_0^0(G/H)$ ).

**PROPOSITION 3.1.** *Let  $\mu \in P(G)$  and  $H \subset G$  a closed subgroup. (i) If  $\mu$  is pure, then  $\mu^{G/H}$  is pure and, conversely, if  $\mu^{G/H}$  is pure and  $H$  is countable, then  $\mu$  is pure. (ii) If  $\mu$  is purely discontinuous [or absolutely continuous], then  $\mu^{G/H}$  is purely discontinuous [or absolutely continuous], and the converse is valid if  $H$  is countable. (iii) If  $\mu^{G/H}$  is continuous, then  $\mu$  is continuous and, conversely, if  $\mu$  is continuous and  $H$  is countable, then  $\mu^{G/H}$  is continuous.*

**PROOF.** On (i). If  $\mathfrak{A}$  is an admissible class of Borel sets on  $G$  [or on  $G/H$ ], then  $T_H \mathfrak{A}$  [or  $T_H^{-1} \mathfrak{A}$ ] is an admissible class of sets on  $G/H$  [or on  $G$ ].

Let  $\mu$  be pure and let  $\mathfrak{A}$  be an admissible class of sets of  $G/H$  such that  $\mu^{G/H}(A) > 0$  for some  $A \in \mathfrak{A}$ . Then  $\mu(T_H^{-1}A) = \mu^{G/H}(A) > 0$ , so that there is an  $A_0 \in \mathfrak{A}$  such that  $\mu^{G/H}(A_0) = \mu(T_H^{-1}A_0) = 1$ . Thus,  $\mu^{G/H}$  is pure.

Conversely, let  $\mu^{G/H}$  be pure and  $\mathfrak{A}$  an admissible class of Borel sets of  $G$  such that  $\mu(A) > 0$  for some  $A \in \mathfrak{A}$ . Then  $\mu^{G/H}(T_H A) \geq \mu(A) > 0$  since  $T_H^{-1}(T_H A) \supset A$ . Hence, there is an  $A_0 \in \mathfrak{A}$  such that  $1 = \mu^{G/H}(T_H A_0) = \mu(T_H^{-1}(T_H A_0))$ . But if  $H$  is countable, then  $T_H^{-1}(T_H A_0)$  is the countable union of the sets  $A_0 + h$ ,  $h \in H$ , so that  $T_H^{-1}(T_H A_0) \in \mathfrak{A}$ . Thus  $\mu$  is pure.

On (ii). The statement concerning "purely discontinuous" is clear. If  $\mu^{G/H}$  is absolutely continuous and  $H$  is countable, then the absolute continuity of  $\mu$  follows as in (i).

Let  $\mu$  be absolutely continuous and let  $\mu'(g)$  be its Radon-Nikodým derivative. (The Radon-Nikodým theorem is valid on  $G$  even though  $\omega_{0G}$  need not be  $\sigma$ -finite; cf. [8, (7), p. 256].) Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be the collection of Borel sets on  $G/H$  and  $T_H^{-1}\mathcal{C}$  the corresponding collection of sets on  $G$ . Then  $\mu^{G/H}$  is absolutely continuous and its Radon-Nikodým derivative is the conditional expectation  $E(\mu'/T_H^{-1}\mathcal{C})$ ; cf. [4, pp. 17–18].

On (iii). This is clear in view of the proof of (i).

Recall that an infinite product  $\Pi a_n$  of complex numbers is said to be convergent if there is an integer  $K$  such that  $a_K a_{K+1} \cdots a_n$  has a nonzero limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ; i.e., if and only if  $a_n a_{n+1} \cdots a_N \rightarrow 1$  as  $N \geq n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**PROPOSITION 3.2.** *If  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots \in P(G)$  and  $\Lambda$  is the set of  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  for which  $\Pi \hat{\mu}_n(\gamma)$  converges, then  $\Lambda$  is a subgroup of  $\Gamma$ . If  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \dots$  is convergent in  $P(G)$ , then  $\Lambda$  is an open-closed subgroup.*

This result is given in Loynes [13, p. 451], who points out that  $\Lambda$  is a group in view of the Increments Inequality (2.3) and that  $\Lambda$  contains a neighborhood of  $0 \in \Gamma$  when (1.1) is convergent since  $\hat{\mu}(0) = 1 \neq 0$  and  $\Pi \hat{\mu}_n(\gamma)$  converges

uniformly on a neighborhood of  $\gamma = 0$ . In the latter case,  $\Lambda$  is open-closed; cf., e.g., [8, pp. 250–251].

When  $\Lambda$  is open-closed, it is the annihilator of its annihilator

$$(3.4) \quad H = \{g \in G: (g, \gamma) = 1 \text{ for all } \gamma \in \Lambda\}$$

[15, p. 36]. Also  $H$  is a compact subgroup of  $G$  since its dual group  $\Gamma/\Lambda$  is discrete; furthermore, the dual group of  $G/H$  is  $\Lambda$  [15, pp. 59, 35].

**THEOREM 3.1.** *Let  $\mu_n \in P(G)$  and  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \cdots$  be convergent. Then there exists a (unique smallest) compact subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  such that*

$$(3.5) \quad \mu^{G/H} = \mu_1^{G/H} * \mu_2^{G/H} * \cdots$$

*is Cauchy-convergent in  $P(G/H)$ , i.e.,*

$$(3.6) \quad \mu_n^{G/H} * \cdots * \mu_N^{G/H} \rightarrow \omega_1 \quad \text{as } N \geq n \rightarrow \infty.$$

*Furthermore, if  $\omega_{0H}$  is the normalized Haar measure on  $H$ , considered as a measure in  $P(G)$ , then*

$$(3.7) \quad \mu = \mu * \omega_{0H}.$$

**PROOF.** Let  $\Lambda$  be as in Proposition 3.2 and  $H$  as in (3.4). The convergence of (3.5) follows from (3.3). Relation (3.6) follows from the definition of  $\Lambda$  in Proposition 3.2, from  $\hat{\omega} \equiv 1$ , and the fact that  $\Lambda$  is the dual group of  $G/H$ . Also,  $\gamma \notin \Lambda$  implies that  $\hat{\mu}(\gamma) = 0$ , while  $\hat{\omega}_{0H}(\gamma)$  is 1 or 0 according as  $\gamma \in \Lambda$  or  $\gamma \notin \Lambda$  [15, p. 59]. Thus (3.7) is a consequence of the uniqueness of the Fourier-Stieltjes transform.

**THEOREM 3.2.** *Let  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \cdots$  be convergent and  $H$  a closed subgroup of  $G$ . (i) If*

$$(3.8) \quad \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} d_{Hn} \neq 0, \quad \text{where } d_{Hn} = \max_{y \in G/H} \mu_n^{G/H}(\{y\}) = \max_{g \in G} \mu_n(g + H),$$

*then  $\mu^{G/H}$  is not continuous; in which case,  $\mu$  is not continuous if  $H$  is countable.*

*(ii) Conversely, if  $\mu^{G/H}$  is not continuous (e.g., if  $\mu$  is not continuous) and  $H$  is as in Theorem 3.1, then (3.8) holds. (iii) If  $H$  is as in Theorem 3.1 and  $\mu^{G/H}$  is not continuous (or, equivalently, (3.8) holds), then  $\mu$  is not continuous if and only if  $H$  is finite.*

**PROOF.** Except for the assertion (iii), this theorem follows from Theorem 2.1, by virtue of Theorem 3.1. The assertion (iii) is a consequence of the following: on the one hand,  $\mu$  has an atom if  $\mu^{G/H}$  does and  $H$  is countable; on the other hand,  $\mu = \mu * \omega_{0H}$  is continuous if  $\omega_{0H}$  is, while  $\omega_{0H}$  is continuous unless  $H$  is finite.

**THEOREM 3.3 (PURE THEOREM).** *Let  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \cdots$  be convergent in  $P(G)$ ,  $\mu_n$  purely discontinuous, and  $H \subset G$  the compact subgroup of Theorem 3.1. Then  $\mu^{G/H}$  is pure (hence absolutely continuous or purely discontinuous or (continuous) singular), and the same is true of  $\mu$  if  $H$  is finite. Also  $\mu = \omega_{0G}$  if  $G$  is compact and  $H = G$ .*

The first part of this theorem follows from Theorem 2.2 by virtue of Theorem 3.1, and the last part from (3.7).

In the important case where  $G$  is the circle group  $T = R/Z$  and every closed subgroup  $H$  is  $T$  or is finite, we have

**THEOREM 3.4.** *Let  $\mu_n \in P(T)$  and  $\mu = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \cdots$  be convergent. (i) Then  $\mu$  is not continuous if and only if, for some integer  $\kappa > 0$ ,*

$$(3.9) \quad \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} d_{\kappa n} \neq 0, \quad \text{where } d_{\kappa n} = \max_{\theta} \sum_{j=0}^{\kappa-1} \mu_n(\{\theta + j/\kappa\}).$$

(ii) *If, in addition,  $\mu_n$  is purely discontinuous, then  $\mu$  is pure (hence absolutely continuous or purely discontinuous or (continuous) singular); in particular,  $\mu$  is purely discontinuous if and only if (3.9) holds for some integer  $\kappa > 0$ .*

It is easy to see that (1.2) and (3.9) are not equivalent. For example, in the case that  $\omega_{1/\kappa} = \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \cdots$ , where  $\omega_{1/\kappa}$  is the probability measure on  $T$  with the atoms  $0, 1/\kappa, \dots, (\kappa-1)/\kappa \pmod{1}$  assigned the equal probability  $1/\kappa$ , then  $\omega_{1/\kappa} * \omega_{1/\kappa} = \mu_1 * \mu_2 * \cdots = \omega_{1/\kappa}$ . But  $d_n = 1/\kappa$  and  $d_{\kappa n} = 1$ .

**REMARK.** If  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots$  are regular probability measures on  $R$  and the result concerning (3.9) is applied to (3.5) with  $G = R$ ,  $H = eZ$  with  $e > 0$ , then it follows that  $\mu$  is not continuous if and only if

$$(3.10) \quad \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} d_{\epsilon n} \neq 0, \quad \text{where } d_{\epsilon n} = \max_t \sum_{j=-\infty}^{+\infty} \mu_n(\{t + j\epsilon\}),$$

and so (1.2) and (3.10) are equivalent by Lévy's theorem (when (1.1) is convergent).

**4. Additive functions  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$ .** Let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$  be a  $G$ -valued function on the positive integers  $Z_+ = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ . The mean value  $M(f)$  is said to exist if  $M(f) = \lim N^{-1} [f(1) + \cdots + f(N)]$  exists as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . Let  $\tau_N \in P(G)$  be the distribution of the finite sequence  $\{f(1), \dots, f(N)\}$ , i.e.,

$$\hat{\tau}_N(\gamma) = N^{-1} [f(1, \gamma) + \cdots + f(N, \gamma)] \quad \text{for } \gamma \in \Gamma.$$

The function  $f$  is said to possess an asymptotic distribution  $\mu$  if there exists a  $\mu \in P(G)$  and  $\tau_N \rightarrow \mu$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$  in  $P(G)$ .

In the remainder of this paper, we suppose that  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$  is additive, i.e.,  $f(m+n) = f(m) + f(n)$  if  $m, n$  are relatively prime.

For fixed primes  $p$  and  $P$ , let  $f_p(n)$  be the additive function determined by its values on powers of primes given by

$$f_p(p^j) = f(p^j) \quad \text{and} \quad f_p(q^j) = 0 \quad \text{if } q \neq p \text{ is a prime}$$

and let  $f^P(n)$  be the additive function

$$f^P(n) = \sum_{p \leq P} f_p(n), \quad \text{so that } f^P(n) \rightarrow f(n) = \sum_p f_p(n) \text{ as } P \rightarrow \infty$$

for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . The additive function  $f_p$  has an asymptotic distribution  $\sigma_p \in P(G)$ , where

$$(4.1) \quad \hat{\sigma}_p(\gamma) = (1 - p^{-1}) \left[ 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{-j} (f(p^j), \gamma) \right],$$

and  $f^P$  has the asymptotic distribution  $\sigma^P = \sigma_2 * \sigma_3 * \dots * \sigma_P$ ; cf. [6] for  $G = R$ .

For fixed  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , define the complex-valued multiplicative functions

$$F_\gamma(n) = (f(n), \gamma) \quad \text{and} \quad F_\gamma^P(n) = (f^P(n), \gamma) \quad \text{for } n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Thus,  $f$  has an asymptotic distribution  $\mu$  if and only if  $M(F_\gamma)$  exists for  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  and is continuous at  $\gamma = 0$  (in which case,  $\hat{\mu}(\gamma) = M(F_\gamma)$ ). Note that the convergence of

$$(4.2) \quad \sigma_2 * \sigma_3 * \dots * \sigma_P * \dots$$

to  $\mu$  in  $P(G)$  is equivalent to  $\mu \in P(G)$  and  $M(F_\gamma^P) \rightarrow \hat{\mu}(\gamma)$ , as  $P \rightarrow \infty$ , for all  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ .

Halasz's definitive paper [7] concerns the existence of the mean value  $M(F)$  of a complex-valued multiplicative function  $F$ ,  $|F(n)| \leq 1$ . On the one hand, his results and proof (cf. [7, p. 380]) imply that

$$(4.3) \quad \sum_p p^{-1} [1 - \operatorname{Re}(f(p), \gamma) p^{-iu}] < \infty$$

holds for at most one real  $\mu$ . In the case that (4.3) fails for all real  $\mu$ ,

$$(4.4) \quad \sum_p p^{-1} [1 - \operatorname{Re}(f(p), \gamma) p^{-iu}] = \infty \quad \text{for } -\infty < u < \infty,$$

then  $M(F_\gamma)$  exists and is 0, and also

$$(4.5) \quad M(F_\gamma^P) \rightarrow 0 = M(F_\gamma) \quad \text{as } P \rightarrow \infty.$$

On the other hand, a result of Delange (cf. [2], [3]) and/or of Halasz [7] shows that if

$$(4.6) \quad \sum_p p^{-1} [1 - (f(p), \gamma)] \quad \text{converges,}$$

then  $M(F_\gamma)$  exists and is the convergent product

$$(4.7) \quad M(F_\gamma) = \prod_p \left\{ (1 - p^{-1}) \left[ 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{-j} (f(p^j), \gamma) \right] \right\},$$

so that

$$(4.8) \quad M(F_\gamma^P) = \prod_{p \leq P} \{ \cdots \} \rightarrow M(F_\gamma) \quad \text{as } P \rightarrow \infty.$$

As observed by Delange, Halasz's results imply [3, Theorem C, p. 218], which, in turn, has the following consequence.

**PROPOSITION 4.1.** *Let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$  be additive and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  fixed. Then  $M(F_\gamma)$  exists and  $M(F_\gamma) = 0$  if and only if either (4.4) holds or both (4.3) and*

$$(4.9) \quad 2^{-ju} (f(2^j), \gamma) = -1 \quad \text{for } j = 1, 2, \dots$$

*hold for some real  $u$ .*

A particular case of Delange [2] (see [3, Theorem A, p. 217]) is the following.

**PROPOSITION 4.2.** *Let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$  be additive and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  fixed. Then  $M(F_\gamma)$  exists and  $M(F_\gamma) \neq 0$  if and only if (4.6) holds and (4.9) fails to hold for  $u = 0$ .*

Using arguments of Delange [3], we can obtain the next three propositions.

**PROPOSITION 4.3.** *Let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$  be additive. Let  $\Lambda_0$  be the set of  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  for which there is a (unique)  $u = u(\gamma)$  satisfying (4.3). Then  $\Lambda_0$  is a group and  $u(\gamma + \delta) = u(\gamma) + u(\delta)$  for  $\gamma, \delta \in \Lambda_0$ .*

**PROOF.** It is convenient to write (4.3) as

$$(4.10) \quad \sum_p p^{-1} \sin^2 [\arg(f(p), \gamma) - u \log p] / 2 < \infty.$$

Thus the assertion follows from  $\arg(f(p), \gamma + \delta) = \arg(f(p), \gamma) + \arg(f(p), \delta)$  and from the simple inequality  $\sin^2(x + y) \leq 2 \sin^2 x + 2 \sin^2 y$ ; cf. [3, p. 219].

**PROPOSITION 4.4.** *Let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$  be additive. Let  $\Lambda$  be the set of  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  satisfying (4.6). Then  $\Lambda$  is a subgroup of  $\Lambda_0$ .*

**PROOF.** This is contained in Proposition 3.2 since the finite product in (4.8) is  $\Pi \hat{\sigma}_p(\gamma)$  for  $p \leq P$ . (A direct proof follows by the arguments of Delange [3, pp. 228–229].)

**PROPOSITION 4.5.** *Let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$  be additive and let both  $M(F_\gamma)$  and  $M(F_{\gamma+\gamma})$  exist. Then either (4.4) or (4.6) holds.*

PROOF. Suppose that neither (4.4) nor (4.6) holds. Then, by Propositions 4.1 and 4.2,  $M(F_\gamma) = 0$  and (4.3), (4.9) hold for some  $u$ . By Proposition 4.3, (4.3) holds if  $(\gamma, u)$  is replaced by  $(\gamma + \gamma, 2u)$ . But (4.9) does not hold if  $(\gamma, u)$  is replaced by  $(\gamma + \gamma, 2u)$ . Thus  $M(F_{\gamma+\gamma}) \neq 0$ . Consequently, (4.6) is convergent if  $\gamma$  is replaced by  $\gamma + \gamma$ , by Proposition 4.2; so that  $\gamma + \gamma \in \Lambda_0$  with  $u(\gamma + \gamma) = 0$ , and

$$(4.11) \quad \sum_p p^{-1} \sin[\arg(f(p), \gamma)] \quad \text{converges}$$

if  $\gamma$  is replaced by  $\gamma + \gamma$ , i.e.,  $\arg(f(p), \gamma)$  by  $2 \arg(f(p), \gamma)$ . Since  $\gamma \in \Lambda_0$ , we have  $u(\gamma) = u(\gamma + \gamma)/2 = 0$ . Thus the real part of (4.6), i.e., (4.10) with  $u = 0$ , is convergent. The imaginary part (4.11) also converges since  $|\sin 2x - 2 \sin x| = 4|\sin x| \sin^2(x/2)$ . This is contrary to the assumption that (4.6) does not hold, and completes the proof.

For the case  $G = R$ , Erdős and Wintner [6, (iii), p. 720] show that an additive function  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow R$  has an asymptotic distribution  $\mu$  if and only if (4.2) converges. We have the following generalization.

THEOREM 4.1. *Let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$  be additive. (i) If  $f$  has an asymptotic distribution  $\mu$ , then (4.2) converges. (ii) Conversely, if (4.2) is Cauchy-convergent, then  $f$  has an asymptotic distribution  $\mu$ , and  $\mu$  is pure.*

REMARK 1. Theorem 4.3 below for  $G = T$  shows that, in general, the convergence of (4.2) is not sufficient for the existence of an asymptotic distribution.

REMARK 2. Since  $\sigma_p$  is purely discontinuous, the theorems of §§2–3 are applicable to (4.2).

PROOF. On (i). Since  $f$  has an asymptotic distribution  $\mu$ , it follows that  $M(F_\gamma)$  exists and  $\hat{\mu}(\gamma) = M(F_\gamma)$  for all  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ . By Proposition 4.5, we have, for every fixed  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , either (4.4), hence (4.5), or (4.6), hence (4.8). Consequently

$$(4.12) \quad \lim_{P \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{p \leq P} \hat{\sigma}_p(\gamma) = \hat{\mu}(\gamma) \quad \text{for } \gamma \in \Gamma.$$

This implies the convergence of (4.2).

On (ii). If (4.2) is Cauchy-convergent, then the product in (4.7) is convergent and is  $\hat{\mu}(\gamma)$  for all  $\gamma$ . Hence the series in (4.6) is convergent and (4.7) holds for all  $\gamma$ , so that  $f$  has the asymptotic distribution  $\mu$ . Also  $\mu$  is pure by Theorem 2.2.

THEOREM 4.2. *Let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow G$  be additive and let (4.2) converge. Then the subgroup  $\Lambda$  of  $\Gamma$  in Proposition 4.4 is the same as the subgroup  $\Lambda$  in Proposition 3.2 and Theorem 3.1, where  $\mu_n = \sigma_p$  and  $p = p_n$ ; so that if  $H$  is the annihilator of  $\Lambda$ , then  $\mu^{G/H} = \sigma_2^{G/H} * \sigma_3^{G/H} * \cdots$  is Cauchy-convergent. In*

particular,  $T_H f: Z_+ \rightarrow G/H$  has an asymptotic distribution  $\mu^{G/H}$ , and  $\mu^{G/H}$  is pure.

This is clear from the proof of Theorem 4.1. For the case of  $G = T$ , we have the following partial converse to Theorem 4.1(i).

**THEOREM 4.3.** *Let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow T$  be additive and let (4.2) converge, say, to  $\mu$ . (i) If  $\mu \neq \omega_{0T}$ , then  $f$  has the asymptotic distribution  $\mu \neq \omega_{0T}$ . (ii) But if  $\mu = \omega_{0T}$ , then  $f$  need not have an asymptotic distribution.*

**REMARK.** Assertion (i) depends on Delange [3, Theorem 2, p. 226], the proof of which implies that (for an arbitrary group  $G$ ) if  $\Lambda_0$  in Proposition 4.3 is  $\kappa Z$  and  $\Lambda \neq \{0\}$  in Proposition 4.4, then  $\Lambda = \Lambda_0$ . In general, (i) is false if  $T$  is replaced by another group  $G$ , even the torus  $G = T \times T$ . For let  $h: Z_+ \rightarrow T$  have an asymptotic distribution  $\sigma \neq \omega_{0T}$  and let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow T$  be as in (ii) above, so that  $(h, f): Z_+ \rightarrow T \times T$  has no asymptotic distribution, but the analogue of (4.2) converges and is  $\sigma \times \omega_{0T} \neq \omega_{0, T \times T}$ .

**PROOF.** On (i). The convergence of (4.2) implies that (4.12) holds. If  $\mu \neq \omega_{0T}$ , then  $\hat{\mu}(\gamma) \neq 0$  for some  $\gamma \neq 0$ . This implies the convergence of the product in (4.7), hence, of the series in (4.6) for some  $\gamma \neq 0$ . It follows from [3, Theorem 2, p. 226] that  $f$  has an asymptotic distribution. This distribution is (4.2) by Theorem 4.1.

On (ii). It will be shown that if  $h: Z_+ \rightarrow R$  is additive,

$$(4.13) \quad h(p) = \log p \quad \text{and} \quad h(p^j) = 0 \quad \text{for } j > 1,$$

and  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow T$ , where  $f(n) = h(n) \bmod 1$ , then (4.2) is convergent with  $\mu = \omega_{0T}$ , but  $f$  does not have an asymptotic distribution. In order to see this, note that if  $F_m(n) = \exp 2\pi i m f(n) = \exp 2\pi i m h(n)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} M(F_m^P) &= \prod_{p \leq P} (1 - p^{-1}) [1 + p^{-1} e^{2\pi i m \log p}] \\ &= \exp \left\{ - \sum_{p \leq P} p^{-1} (1 - e^{2\pi i m \log p}) + O(1) \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

as  $P \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence

$$|M(F_m^P)| = \exp \left\{ - 2 \sum_{p \leq P} p^{-1} \sin^2 \pi m \log p + O(1) \right\}.$$

As shown by Delange [3, p. 221],

$$\sum_p p^{-1} \sin^2 \pi m \log p = \infty \quad \text{for } m = 1, 2, \dots,$$

so that  $M(F_m^P) \rightarrow 0$  as  $P \rightarrow \infty$  for  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ . This gives (4.2) with  $\mu = \omega_{0T}$ .

Thus, by Theorem 4.1, it follows that if  $f$  has an asymptotic distribution, then this distribution is  $\omega_{0T}$ . But then Propositions 4.1 and 4.5 imply that (4.4) holds for all  $\gamma$ , i.e.,

$$(4.14) \quad \sum_p p^{-1} [1 - \operatorname{Re} F_m(p) p^{-iu}] = \infty$$

for  $-\infty < u < \infty$  and  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ ,

[3, Theorem 1, p. 220]. However, if  $u = 2\pi m$ , then  $F_m(p) p^{-iu} = 1$ , by (4.16), which contradicts (4.14). This completes the proof.

Theorem 3.4 will be seen to have the following consequences.

**THEOREM 4.4.** *Let  $f: Z_+ \rightarrow R$  be a real, additive function such that  $f \bmod 1: Z_+ \rightarrow T$  has an asymptotic distribution  $\mu$ . Then (i)  $\mu$  is pure (hence purely discontinuous or absolutely continuous or singular), and (ii)  $\mu$  is purely discontinuous if and only if there exists an integer  $\kappa > 0$  such that*

$$(4.15) \quad \sum_{\{p: \kappa f(p) \neq 0 \bmod 1\}} p^{-1} < \infty.$$

Part (ii) contains the corrected version of the theorem in [5] giving a necessary and sufficient condition for  $\mu$  to be continuous.

A prime  $p$  does not occur in the sum (4.15) if the number  $f(p)$  is of the form  $f(p) = (\text{integer}) + j/\kappa$  for  $j = 0, 1, \dots$ , or  $\kappa - 1$ . When  $\mu \neq \omega_{0T}$ , then  $\mu$  is purely discontinuous if and only if (4.15) holds, where  $\mu$  is chosen so that  $0, 1/\kappa, \dots, (\kappa - 1)/\kappa \pmod{1}$  is the subgroup  $H$  of Theorem 4.2; cf. [3, pp. 227–229], where  $\kappa = q$ .

The necessary condition (4.15) cannot be replaced by

$$(4.16) \quad \sum_{\{p: f(p) \neq 0 \bmod 1\}} p^{-1} < \infty.$$

In order to see this, it suffices to exhibit a real additive function  $f$  possessing an asymptotic distribution mod 1 satisfying (4.15) for some  $\kappa > 1$  (so that  $\mu$  is purely discontinuous), but not satisfying (4.16). To this end, let  $\kappa > 1$  be fixed and let  $f$  be a real additive function defined by  $f(p) = 1/\kappa$  and  $f(p^j) = 0$  for  $j > 1$  for every prime  $p$ . Then the analogue of (4.6),

$$\sum_p p^{-1} [1 - \exp 2\pi i m f(p)] \quad \text{converges}$$

for every  $m$  divisible by  $\kappa$ , so that  $f$  has an asymptotic distribution mod 1 [3, Theorem 2, p. 226]. Note that  $f(p) \neq 0 \bmod 1$  for every  $p$ , so that (4.16) fails. But (4.15) holds since the sum is over an empty set of primes.

**PROOF OF THEOREM 4.4.** On (i). Part (i) is a consequence of Theorem 3.3



for  $\sigma_p$  is purely discontinuous, since the  $m$ th Fourier-Stieltjes coefficient of  $\sigma_p$  is (1.3) with  $u = 2\pi m$ .

On (ii). By (1.3), the jump  $\sigma_p(\{0\})$  is at least  $1 - p^{-1} \geq 1/2$ . Thus the maximum jump  $d_{\kappa p}$  occurs at  $\theta = 0$  and is

$$(1 - p^{-1})[1 + \epsilon_{\kappa p} p^{-1} + O(p^{-2})] = 1 + (\epsilon_{\kappa p} - 1)p^{-1} + O(p^{-2}),$$

as  $p \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $\epsilon_{\kappa p}$  is 1 or 0 according as  $\kappa f(p)$  is or is not 0 mod 1. Hence (4.15) is equivalent to  $\Pi d_{\kappa p} \neq 0$ , and so part (ii) follows from Theorem 3.4.

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