

# Application of Ergodic Theory to Number Theory

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# Introduction: the idea of Ergodic Theory

The general scenario:

- A space  $X$ ;
- $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  in  $X$ ;
- An **invariant measure**  $\mu$  and
- A transformation  $T : X \rightarrow X$ , (the **dynamical system.**)

A measure  $\mu$  is said to be  $T$ -invariant if  $\mu(T^{-1}(A)) = \mu(A)$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ .

Given any point  $x \in X$  we have its orbit:

$$x, T(x), T^2(x), \dots, T^n(x) \dots$$

# Some Interesting Questions

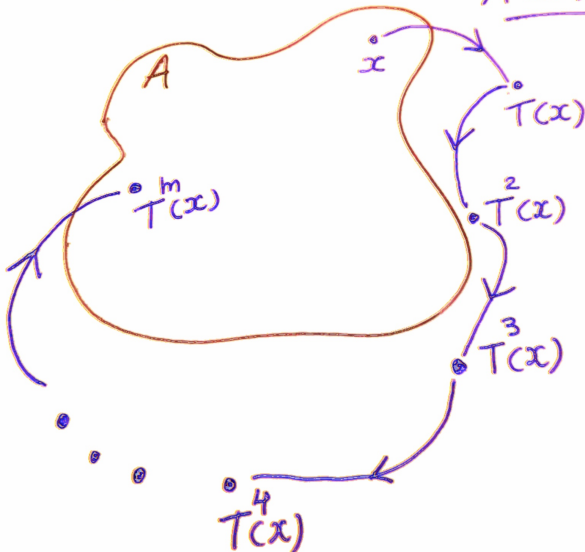
- 1 Let  $A \subset X$ ,  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $\mu(A) > 0$ . Is there any point  $x \in A$  such that  $T^n(x) \in A$  for some  $n \geq 1$ ?
- 2 If they exist, how many "returning" points are there? and more...
- 3 How many times they are coming back?

RECURRENCE

$$T: X \rightarrow X$$

$$A \subset X$$

$$\mu(A) > 0$$



Answering the questions, we have the classical **Poincaré's Recurrence Theorem**:

## Theorem 1.

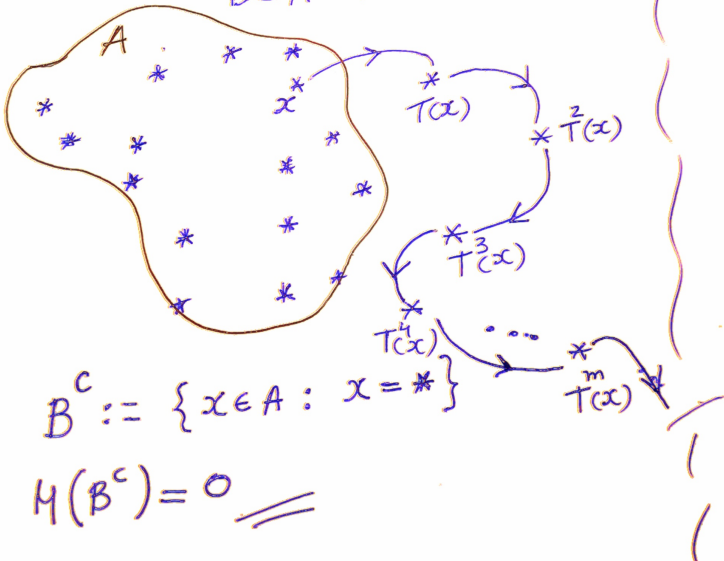
Let  $T : X \rightarrow X$  a measurable transformation and let  $\mu$  be a finite  $T$ -invariant measure in  $X$ . If  $A \subset X$  is measurable, then the set

$$B = \{x \in A : T^n x \in A \text{ for infinitely many } n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

has measure  $\mu(B) = \mu(A)$ .

RECURRENCE

$T: X \rightarrow X$   
 $BCACX$



*Proof:* We have

$$B = A \cap \left( \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \right) = A \setminus \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( A \setminus \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \right). \quad (1)$$

Moreover,

$$A \setminus \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \subset \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \setminus T^{-n} \left( \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \right). \quad (2)$$

On the other hand, since  $\mu$  is  $T$ -invariant we have

$$\mu \left( \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \right) = \mu \left( T^{-n} \left( \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \right) \right) \quad (3)$$

Moreover, since

$$\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \supset \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) = T^{-n} \left( \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \right)$$

and  $\mu$  is finite, it follows from (2) and (3) that

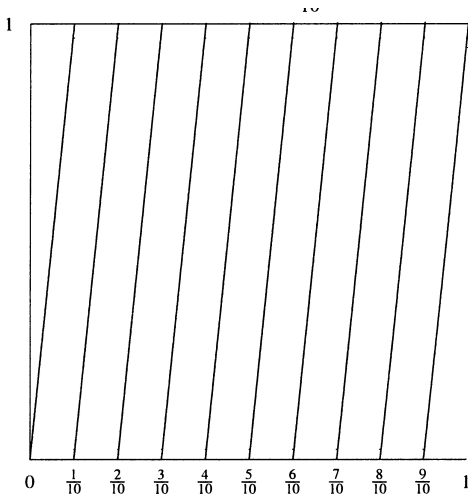
$$\mu \left( A \setminus \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \right) \leq \mu \left( \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \right) - \mu \left( T^{-n} \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} T^{-k}(A) \right) = 0$$

and from (1) we conclude that  $\mu(B) = \mu(A)$ . □



# Recurrence: The Decimal Expansion

$T : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ ,  $T(x) = 10x - [10x]$ , where  $[10x]$  represents the greatest integer less or equal to  $10x$ , that is,  $T(x)$  is the fractional part of  $10x$ .



# Decimal Expansion Transformation

This transformation is related to the decimal expansion algorithm:  
if  $x$  is given by

$$x = 0.a_0a_1a_2a_3\dots, \quad a_j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\},$$

then its image is given by

$$T(x) = 0.a_1a_2a_3a_4\dots$$

and for every  $n \geq 1$  we have that

$$T^n(x) = 0.a_n a_{n+1} a_{n+2} a_{n+3} \dots$$

We also have an important thing: Lebesgue measure  $m$  in  $[0, 1]$  is  $T$ -invariant.

# Recurrence: The Decimal Expansion

Now let  $E_7$  be the set of all  $x \in [0, 1]$  which decimal expansion starts with the digit 7, that is,  $a_0 = 7$ .

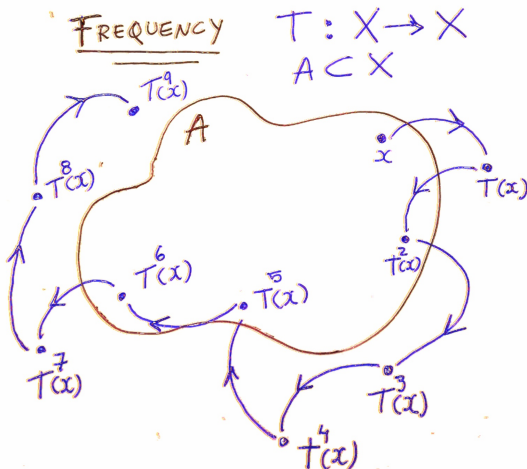
By the Poincaré's recurrence theorem, there are infinite numbers  $n \geq 1$  such that  $T^n(x) \in E_7$ , that is,  $a_n = 7$  for infinite numbers  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Almost every number  $x$  which decimal expansion starts with 7 has infinite digits equal to 7.**



# Another Interesting Question: The Idea of Frequency

What can we say about the frequency with which an orbit visits a given set?



Let  $T : X \rightarrow X$  and  $A \subset X$ . Given  $x \in X$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we define

$$\tau_n(A, x) := \text{card}\{k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\} : T^k(x) \in A\}.$$

This is the same as writing

$$\tau_n(A, x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \chi_A(T^k(x)),$$

where  $\chi_A$  is the characteristic function of the set  $A$ . When the limit

$$\tau(A, x) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\tau_n(A, x)}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \chi_A(T^k(x))$$

exists, it gives the **frequency** with which the orbit of  $x$  visits the set  $A$ .

By Poincaré's recurrence theorem,  $\tau_n(A, x) \rightarrow \infty$  when  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , for  $\mu$ -almost every  $x \in A$ , but it gives no information about the frequency.

So,

**In what conditions the frequency exists?**

# Boltzmann Ergodic Hypothesis

This question started when the physicist **Ludwig Boltzmann** (1844-1906) was developing the **Kinetic Theory of Gases**.

Boltzmann needed of an important condition, which is known today as the **Ergodic Hypothesis**. Mathematically, the hypothesis is stated as follows:

*Ergodic Hypothesis: For systems describing the movement of particles, the frequency  $\tau(A, x)$  for any measurable set  $A$  exists and is proportional to the measure of  $A$ , for almost every point  $x$ .*

In modern **Ergodic Theory**, this is the subject considered by **Birkhoff's Ergodic Theorem**.

Before the statement of the theorem, some important definitions:

## Definition 2.

Given a transformation  $T : X \rightarrow X$ , we say that:

- 1 A set  $A \subset X$  is  $T$ -invariant if  $T^{-1}(A) = A$ .
- 2 A function  $\phi : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is  $T$ -invariant if  $\phi(T(x)) = \phi(x)$  for every  $x \in X$ .

And now, the formal statement of the Theorem:



## Theorem 3.

**(Birkhoff's Ergodic Theorem)** Let  $T : X \rightarrow X$  be a measurable transformation and let  $\mu$  be a finite  $T$ -invariant measure in  $X$ . If  $\phi \in L^1(X, \mu)$ , then the limit

$$\phi_T(x) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \phi(T^k(x))$$

exists for  $\mu$ -almost every  $x \in X$  and

- 1  $\phi_T$  is  $T$ -invariant almost everywhere.
- 2  $\phi_T \in L^1(X, \mu)$  and

$$\int_X \phi_T d\mu = \int_X \phi d\mu.$$

# Birkhoff's Ergodic Theorem

In particular, when  $\phi = \chi_A$ , we obtain the result for the frequency:

$$\tau(A, x) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\tau_n(A, x)}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \chi_A(T^k(x))$$

with  $\tau(A, x) \in L^1(X, \mu)$  and  $\int_X \tau(A, x) d\mu = \mu(A)$ .

Since,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \phi(T^{k+1}(x)) = \frac{n+1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n \phi(T^k(x)) - \frac{\phi(x)}{n},$$

$\phi_T(T(x))$  is well defined  $\iff \phi_T(x)$  is well defined and

$$\phi_T(T(x)) = \phi_T(x).$$

Here we introduce an important concept in ergodic theory: the notion of **ergodic measure**.

## Definition 4.

Let  $T : X \rightarrow X$  be a transformation and  $\mu$  a measure in  $X$ .  $\mu$  is called *ergodic* with respect to  $T$  if the measure of any  $T$ -invariant subset  $A \subset X$  satisfies  $\mu(A) = 0$  or  $\mu(X \setminus A) = 0$ . In this case we also say that  $T$  is ergodic with respect to  $\mu$  or that the system  $(T, \mu)$  is ergodic.

We note that an ergodic measure is not necessarily invariant.

# Birkhoff's Theorem for Invariant Ergodic Measures

Now we consider the particular case of ergodic invariant measures.

## Theorem 5.

Let  $T : X \rightarrow X$  be a measurable transformation and let  $\mu$  be  $T$ -invariant ergodic measure in  $X$  with  $\mu(X) < \infty$ . If  $\phi \in L^1(X, \mu)$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \phi(T^k(x)) = \frac{1}{\mu(X)} \int_X \phi d\mu$$

for  $\mu$ -almost every  $x \in X$ .

Taking in particular  $\phi = \chi_A$  for some subset  $A \subset X$  we obtain the result asked for Boltzmann in his *Ergodic Hypothesis*:

$$\tau(A, x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\tau_n(A, x)}{n} = \frac{\mu(A)}{\mu(X)} \quad \text{for } \mu\text{-almost every } x \in X.$$

**In most cases, to show that a measure is ergodic is not a simple task!**

In general, there is no algorithm to determine if a measure is ergodic.

For example, in some cases we can use a little bit of **Fourier analysis** with some criterion.

# Some simple applications

Now we use some of these tools from **Ergodic Theory** to obtain some interesting results of **Number Theory**.

These are just simple cases and there are a lot of more sophisticated applications.

# Fractional Parts of Polynomials

Consider the polynomial  $P(t) = a_0 t^r + a_1 t^{r-1} + \cdots + a_r$ , where  $r \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_r \in \mathbb{R}$ .

## Definition 6.

The numbers  $P_n = P(n) \bmod 1 \in [0, 1)$ , for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , are called the fractional parts of the polynomial  $P$ .

Now we introduce the notion of **uniformly distributed** sequence.

## Definition 7.

We say that a sequence  $(y_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \subset [0, 1]$  is *uniformly distributed* if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^n \phi(y_k) = \int_0^1 \phi(x) dx$$

for every continuous function  $\phi : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

# Fractional Parts of Polynomials

**Degree 1:** Given  $r = 1$ ,  $a_0 = \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ , and  $a_1 = \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $P_n = T^n(\beta)$ , where  $T(x) = x + \alpha \pmod{1}$  (**Irrational Translation**).

- $T$  is Ergodic w.r.t.  $m$  (using the criterion and Fourier coefficients);
- The Lebesgue measure  $m$  is  $T$ -invariant.

By B.E.T for ergodic invariant measures, for any continuous function  $\phi : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^n \phi(P_k) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^n \phi(T^k(\beta)) = \int_0^1 \phi(x) dx$$

for Lebesgue-almost every  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then,  $(P_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $P(t) = \alpha t + \beta$  is uniformly distributed for Lebesgue-almost every  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $\square$



# Fractional Parts of Polynomials

Now we consider polynomials of **degree 2**.

## Proposition 8.

*Given  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ , the sequence  $(P_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  of fractional parts of the polynomial  $P(t) = \alpha t^2 + \beta t + \gamma$  is uniformly distributed for Lebesgue-almost every  $(\beta, \gamma) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .*

*Proof:* Let  $T : \mathbb{T}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^2$  be defined by

$$T(x, y) = (x + \alpha, y + 2x + \alpha) \pmod{1}$$

$$T^n(x, y) = (x + n\alpha, \alpha n^2 + 2nx + y) \pmod{1} = (x + n\alpha, P_n) \pmod{1}$$

for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , with  $\beta = 2x$  and  $\gamma = y$ .

# Fractional Parts of Polynomials

We have that

- $m$  is  $T$ -invariant;
- $m$  is ergodic with respect to  $T$ .

Given  $\psi : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , we can define a continuous function in  $\mathbb{T}^2$  by  $\phi(x, y) = \psi(y)$ . By the B. E. T. for ergodic invariant measures:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \phi(P_k) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \phi(T^k(x, y)) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{T}^2} \phi dm \\ &= \int_0^1 \psi(\tau) d\tau\end{aligned}$$

for  $m$ -almost every  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{T}^2$ , and thus for Lebesgue almost every  $(\beta, \gamma) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , as desired. □

# And one more application: Continued Fractions

## Definition 9.

We define the *Gauss transformation*  $T : [0, 1) \rightarrow [0, 1)$  by

$$T(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x} \bmod 1 & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0; \end{cases}$$

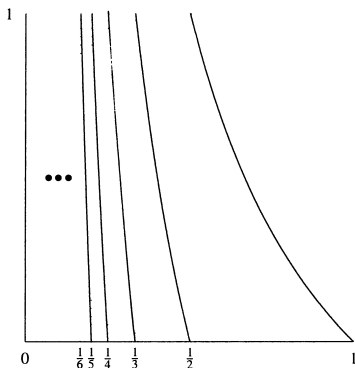


Figure 1.7 The Gauss transformation  $T$

Given an irrational number  $x \in (0, 1)$ , we can define positive integers

$$n_j(x) = \left\lfloor \frac{1}{T^{j-1}(x)} \right\rfloor \quad (4)$$

for each  $j \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Since

$$T^j(x) = T(T^{j-1}(x)) = \frac{1}{T^{j-1}(x)} - n_j(x),$$

we obtain

$$T^{j-1}(x) = \frac{1}{n_j(x) + T^j(x)}$$

for each  $j \in \mathbb{N}$ .

# Continued Fractions

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}x &= \frac{1}{n_1(x) + T(x)} = \frac{1}{n_1(x) + \frac{1}{n_2(x) + T^2(x)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{n_1(x) + \frac{1}{n_2(x) + \frac{1}{n_3(x) + T^3(x)}}}\end{aligned}$$

and so on. Furthermore, we can prove that the sequence

$$\frac{1}{n_1(x)}, \quad \frac{1}{n_1(x) + \frac{1}{n_2(x)}}, \quad \frac{1}{n_1(x) + \frac{1}{n_2(x) + \frac{1}{n_3(x)}}}, \dots$$

converges to  $x$ . So we simply write

$$x = \frac{1}{n_1(x) + \frac{1}{n_2(x) + \dots}} \tag{5}$$

**What is the frequency with which an integer  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  occurs in the sequence  $n_1(x), n_2(x), \dots$ ?**

Translation to the language of Ergodic Theory: It follows that

$$n_j(x) = k \iff T^{j-1}(x) \in \left( \frac{1}{k+1}, \frac{1}{k} \right].$$

Therefore, given an irrational number  $x \in (0, 1)$ , the frequency with which  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  appears in the sequence  $n_1(x), n_2(x), \dots$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_k(x) &:= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \text{card}\{j \in \{1, \dots, n\} : n_j(x) = k\} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^n \chi_{\left(\frac{1}{k+1}, \frac{1}{k}\right]}(T^{j-1}(x)), \end{aligned}$$

whenever this limit exists.

We want to show that  $\eta_k(x)$  is well defined for Lebesgue almost every  $x \in (0, 1)$ . We start by defining an appropriate measure.

## Definition 10.

The *Gauss measure* is the probability measure  $\mu$  in  $[0, 1)$  defined by

$$\mu(A) = \frac{1}{\log 2} \int_A \frac{dx}{1+x}$$

for each measurable set  $A \subset [0, 1)$ .

We note that

$$\frac{m(A)}{2 \log 2} \leq \mu(A) \leq \frac{m(A)}{\log 2}, \quad \text{where } m \text{ is the Lebesgue measure.}$$

$\mu$  is absolutely continuous with respect to  $m$  and vice-versa. That is, the Gauss measure is equivalent to Lebesgue measure.

We have the following properties:

## Proposition 11.

- 1 *The Gauss transformation preserves the Gauss measure;*
- 2 *The Gauss measure is ergodic with respect to Gauss transformation.*

Now, one more time we can apply the B. E. T. for invariant ergodic measures.



# Continued Fractions

Then, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\eta_k(x) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^n \chi_{\left(\frac{1}{k+1}, \frac{1}{k}\right]}(T^{j-1}(x)) \\ &= \int_{[0,1)} \chi_{\left(\frac{1}{k+1}, \frac{1}{k}\right]} d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{\log 2} \int_{1 \setminus (k+1)}^{1 \setminus k} \frac{dx}{1+x} \\ &= \frac{1}{\log 2} \log \frac{(k+1)^2}{k(k+2)}\end{aligned}$$

for  $\mu$ -almost every  $x \in [0, 1)$ . So, we actually have a formula for the frequency!!!

For example, the frequency with which  $k = 1$  occurs is given by

$$\eta_1(x) = \frac{1}{\log 2} \log \frac{4}{3} \approx 0.415.$$

Since  $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \log \frac{(x+1)^2}{x(x+2)} \right) = -\frac{1}{x(x+1)(x+2)} < 0$  for  $x > 0$ , all frequencies  $\eta_k(x)$  are distinct and

$$\eta_1(x) > \eta_2(x) > \eta_3(x) > \dots$$

for  $\mu$ -almost every  $x \in [0, 1)$ .

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