Arithmetic and dynamics around the outer automorphism of PGL(2,Z)

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Foreword

In a paper of his on binary quadratic forms, Poincaré states:



"it is not possible, for the indefinite quadratic forms to find invariants, in the sense that we gave to this word..."

Several attempts have been made since then...

Our study can be understood as another attempt to see what can be done by modifying the meaning of the word "invariant"....



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PART I

Definition of Jimm and functional equations

$$V: x \in \mathbf{R} \to -x \in \mathbf{R}$$

$$K: x \in \mathbf{R} \to 1 - x \in \mathbf{R}$$

$$U: x \in \mathbf{R} \to 1/x \in \mathbf{R}$$

$$V: x \in \mathbf{R} \to -x \in \mathbf{R}$$

$$K: x \in \mathbf{R} \to 1 - x \in \mathbf{R}$$

$$U: x \in \mathbf{R} \to 1/x \in \mathbf{R}$$

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$$U: x \in \mathbf{R} \to 1/x \in \mathbf{R}$$

$$V(x) = -x$$
, $K(x) = 1 - x$, $U(x) = 1/x$

... together they generate the group

$$\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z}) = \left\{ rac{px+q}{rx+s} \mid ps-qr=\pm 1, p, q, r, s \in \mathbf{Z}
ight\}$$

$$\simeq \langle U, V, K | U^2 = V^2 = K^2 = (UV)^2 = (KU)^3 = 1 \rangle$$

Our aim here is to introduce a fourth involution, which we call Jimm

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Notation

Every $x \in \mathbf{R}$ can be written as a continued fraction

$$[n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots] = n_0 + \frac{1}{n_1 + \frac{1}{n_2 + \frac{1}{\dots}}}$$

 $(n_0 \in \mathbf{Z}, n_i \in \mathbf{Z}_{>0} \text{ for } i > 0)$, uniquely if x is irrational.

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By 1_k we denote the sequence $1, 1, \ldots, 1$ of length k.

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Notation

By 1_k we denote the sequence $1, 1, \ldots, 1$ of length k.

We introduce a 'singular' function $\mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$:

Definition

$$\zeta([n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots]) = [1_{n_0-1}, 2, 1_{n_1-2}, 2, 1_{n_2-2}, \dots]$$

This is a kind of 'real' modular function, as we shall see.

But let us consider some examples first...

$$\zeta([n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots]) = [1_{n_0-1}, 2, 1_{n_1-2}, 2, 1_{n_2-2}, \dots]$$

Examples

$$\zeta([3,3,3,\dots] = [1_{3-1},2,1_{3-2},2,1_{3-2},2\dots] = [1,1,2,1,2,1,2,\dots]$$

$$\zeta([5,5,5,\dots] = [1,1,1,1,2,1,1,1,2,1,1,1,2,\dots]$$

$$\mathbb{C}([n_0,n_1,n_2,\dots])=[1_{n_0-1},2,1_{n_1-2},2,1_{n_2-2},\dots]$$

This definition works only if $n_k \ge 2$. To make it work for $n_k = 2$, use

RULE I

$$\ldots, n, 1_0, m, \cdots = \ldots, n, m, \ldots$$

Examples

$$\mathbb{C}([2,2,2,\dots]) = [1,2,1_0,2,1_0,2\dots] = [1,2,2,2,\dots]$$
$$\mathbb{C}([2,3,2,3\dots]) = [1,2,1,2,2,1,2,2,1,\dots]$$

$$\zeta([n_0,n_1,n_2,\dots])=[1_{n_0-1},2,1_{n_1-2},2,1_{n_2-2},\dots]$$

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Examples

$$\zeta([2,2,2,\dots]) = [1,2,1_0,2,1_0,2\dots] = [1,2,2,2,\dots]$$

$$\zeta([2,3,2,3\dots]) = [1,2,1,2,2,1,2,2,1,\dots]$$

$$\zeta([n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots]) = [1_{n_0-1}, 2, 1_{n_1-2}, 2, 1_{n_2-2}, \dots]$$

To make it work also when $n_k = 1$, use

RULE II

$$\ldots, n, 1_{-1}, m, \cdots = \ldots, n+m-1, \ldots$$

Examples

$$[1_0, \underbrace{2, 1_{-1}, 2}_{3}, 1_0, \underbrace{2, 1_{-1}, 2}_{3}, 1_0, \underbrace{2, 1_{-1}, 2}_{3}, 1_0, \underbrace{2, 1_{-1}, 2}_{3}, \dots] =$$

$$= [3, 3, 3, \dots]$$

remember?

$$\zeta([n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots]) = [1_{n_0-1}, 2, 1_{n_1-2}, 2, 1_{n_2-2}, \dots]$$

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$$\ldots, n, 1_{-1}, m, \cdots = \ldots, n+m-1, \ldots$$

Examples

$$[1_0, \underbrace{2, 1_{-1}, 2}_{3}, 1_0, \underbrace{2, 1_{-1}, 2}_{3}, 1_0, \underbrace{2, 1_{-1}, 2}_{3}, 1_0, \underbrace{2, 1_{-1}, 2}_{3}, \dots] =$$

$$= [3, 3, 3, \dots]$$

remember?

$$\zeta([n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots]) = [1_{n_0-1}, 2, 1_{n_1-2}, 2, 1_{n_2-2}, \dots]$$

Example

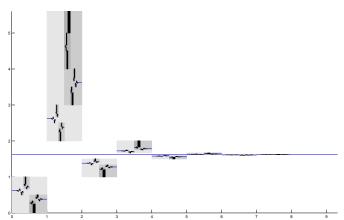
$$\mathcal{E}([\dots,7,1,\frac{1}{1},1,\frac{1}{1},13,\dots]) = \\
[\dots 1_{5},\underbrace{2,1_{-1},2},\underbrace{1_{-1},2,1_{-1},2,1_{-1},2,1_{11},\dots}] \\
[\dots 1_{5},\underbrace{3,1_{-1},2},\underbrace{1_{-1},2,1_{-1},2,1_{11},\dots}] \\
[\dots 1_{5},\underbrace{4,1_{-1},2},\underbrace{1_{-1},2,1_{11},\dots}] \\
[\dots 1_{5},\underbrace{6,1_{11},\dots}]$$

$$\zeta([n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots]) = [1_{n_0-1}, 2, 1_{n_1-2}, 2, 1_{n_2-2}, \dots]$$

With these two rules, \mathcal{L} becomes well-defined on $\mathbf{R}\setminus\mathbf{Q}$ and it is involutive:

$$\zeta(\zeta(x)) = x$$

Here is the plot of \mathcal{C} (the graph lies inside the darker boxes)



- \mathcal{C} is continuous on $\mathbf{R} \setminus \mathbf{Q}$
- have jump discontinuities on Q
- \overline{c} is differentiable almost everywhere
- its derivative vanish almost everywhere
- admits a natural extension to Q\0.

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- \mathcal{E} is differentiable almost everywhere
- its derivative vanish almost everywhere
- admits a natural extension to $\mathbf{Q}\setminus 0$.

Now consider....

Example

$$\begin{split} \zeta(1+[3,3,3\dots]) &= \zeta([4,3,3\dots]) = [1,1,1,2,1,2,1,\dots] \\ &= 1 + \underbrace{\frac{1}{[1,1,2,1,2,1,\dots]}}_{=\zeta([3,3,3,\dots])} \end{split}$$

We have, in general

FUNCTIONAL EQUATION

$$\zeta(1+x)=1+\frac{1}{\zeta(x)}$$

This functional equation can be derived from the following fundamental set of functional equations

$$\zeta(\zeta(x)) = x \qquad \text{(involutivity)}$$

$$\zeta(\frac{1}{x}) = \frac{1}{\zeta(x)} \qquad \text{equivariance}$$

$$\zeta(-x) = -\frac{1}{\zeta(x)} \qquad \text{"twisted" equivariance}$$

$$\zeta(1-x) = 1 - \zeta(x) \qquad \text{equivariance}$$

Now notice

$$xy = 1 \iff y = 1/x \iff$$

$$\zeta(y) = \zeta(\frac{1}{x}) = \frac{1}{\zeta(x)}$$

Hence

$$xy = 1 \iff \zeta(y)\zeta(x) = 1$$

We may do the same for the other equations, which gives

Two-variable form of functional equations

$$\zeta(x) = y \iff \zeta(y) = x$$

$$xy = 1 \iff \zeta(x)\zeta(y) = 1$$

$$x + y = 0 \iff \zeta(x)\zeta(y) = -1$$

$$x + y = 1 \iff \zeta(x) + \zeta(y) = 1$$

$$\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y} = 1 \iff \frac{1}{\zeta(x)} + \frac{1}{\zeta(y)} = 1$$

 \implies \mathbb{C} preserves harmonic pairs of numbers.

Recall that

$$Ux := \frac{1}{x}, \quad Vx := -x, \quad Kx := 1 - x$$

The functional equations say

$$\zeta U = U\zeta$$
, $\zeta K = K\zeta$, $\zeta V = UV\zeta$

 \implies ζ is Dyer's outer automorphism of $PGL_2(\mathbf{Z})$.

This is the only non-trivial outer automorphism: $Out(\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z})) \simeq \mathbf{Z}/2\mathbf{Z}$.

(In fact we worked out the continued fraction-definition of \mathcal{C} from the above functional equations)

The most general functional equation has the form

$$\zeta(Mx) = \zeta(M)\zeta(x), \quad M \in PGL_2(\mathbf{Z})$$

(where C(M) is the image of M under Dyer's automorphism).

Hence ← is a "twisted" **equivariant** function.

f is said to be $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ -equivariant if $f(Mx) = Mf(x), \, \forall M \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$.

If G is weight-k modular (i.e. $G(Mz) = j_M(z)^k G(z)$) then

$$H(z) = z + k \frac{G(z)}{G'(z)}$$

is $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{Z}})$ -equivariant, i.e. it satisfies the functional equations

$$H(Tz) = TH(z), \quad H(Sz) = SH(z),$$

where Tz = KUVz = z + 1 and Sz = UVz = -1/z generate $PSL_2(\mathbf{Z})$.

Question. Are there analytic analogues of \mathbb{C} ? i.e. are there analytic functions with $H(Mx) = \mathbb{C}(M)H(x), \ \forall M \in \mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$? (needs to be properly formulated)

Action on quadratic irrationals

Fact I

© sends ultimately periodic continued fractions to ultimately periodic continued fractions.



(it does not preserve nor respect the trace, norm, signature, etc)

$$\mathbb{C}(\sqrt{2}) = \mathbb{C}([1, 2, 2, \dots]) = 1 + \sqrt{2}$$

Not so simple in general:

$$\xi(\sqrt{11}) = \frac{15 + \sqrt{901}}{26}, \quad \xi(-\sqrt{11}) = \frac{15 - \sqrt{9011}}{26}$$

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Fact II

 \mathcal{C} respects ends of continued fractions (i.e. if x, y has continued fractions that eventually coincide, then so does $\mathcal{C}(x)$ and $\mathcal{C}(y)$).

$$\iff$$

 $\mathbb C$ **respects the** $\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf Z)$ -action (i.e. if x and y are in the same $\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf Z)$ -orbit, then so are $\mathbb C(x)$ and $\mathbb C(y)$.)

 $\mathsf{C}(Mx) = \mathsf{C}(M)\mathsf{C}(x) \quad M \in \mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z}), x \in \mathbf{R}$

o that

 $x = My \implies \overline{c}(x) = \overline{c}(M)\overline{c}(y), \quad \overline{c}(M) \in \mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$

Fact II

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$$\iff$$

 ζ respects the $\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ -action (i.e. if x and y are in the same $\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ -orbit, then so are $\zeta(x)$ and $\zeta(y)$.)

More precisely

$$\zeta(Mx) = \zeta(M)\zeta(x) \quad M \in \mathrm{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z}), x \in \mathbf{R}$$

so that

$$x = My \implies \zeta(x) = \zeta(M)\zeta(y), \quad \zeta(M) \in PGL_2(\mathbf{Z})$$

Facts I&II together imply:

Fact III

 \mathcal{C} induces an involution of the "moduli space of degenerate rank-2 lattices" inside \mathbf{R} , preserving setwise the "real-multiplication" locus.

The facts imply...

 \overline{c} is really a modular function.

Furthermore, one has



Fact IV

C commutes with the Galois conjugation on quadratic irrationals, i.e.

$$\zeta(a + \sqrt{b}) = A + \sqrt{B}$$

$$\iff$$

$$\zeta(a - \sqrt{b}) = A - \sqrt{B}$$

Now go back to the two-variable functional equations....

$$xy = 1 \iff \overline{\zeta}(x)\overline{\zeta}(y) = 1$$

$$x + y = 0 \iff \overline{\zeta}(x)\overline{\zeta}(y) = -1$$

$$x + y = 1 \iff \overline{\zeta}(x) + \overline{\zeta}(y) = 1$$

$$\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y} = 1 \iff \frac{1}{\overline{\zeta}(x)} + \frac{1}{\overline{\zeta}(y)} = 1$$

...and set $y = \bar{x}$, where $x = a + \sqrt{b}$ is a quadratic irrational:

$$x\bar{x} = 1 \iff \bar{\zeta}(x)\bar{\zeta}(\bar{x}) = 1$$

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Recall from number theory

If
$$x = a + \sqrt{b}$$
 $(a, b \in \mathbf{Q}, b > 0)$, then

norm of x is
$$N(x) := x\bar{x} \iff N(a + \sqrt{b}) = a^2 - b$$

trace of x is
$$T(x) := x + \bar{x} \iff T(a + \sqrt{b}) = 2a$$

Example

$$N(1+\sqrt{2})=-1, \quad T(1+\sqrt{2})=2$$

$$N(x) = x\bar{x} = 1 \iff \zeta(x)\zeta(\bar{x}) = 1 = N(\zeta x)$$

$$Tr(x) = x + \bar{x} = 0 \iff \bar{c}(x)\bar{c}(\bar{x}) = -1 = N(\bar{c}x)$$

$$Tr(x) = x + \bar{x} = 1 \iff \zeta(x) + \zeta(\bar{x}) = 1 = Tr(\zeta x)$$

$$\frac{Tr(x)}{N(x)} = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{\bar{x}} = 1 \iff \frac{1}{\zeta(x)} + \frac{1}{\zeta(\bar{x})} = 1 = \frac{Tr(\zeta x)}{N(\zeta x)}$$

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$$\frac{\mathit{Tr}(x)}{\mathit{N}(x)} = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{\bar{x}} = 1 \iff \frac{1}{\mathit{C}(x)} + \frac{1}{\mathit{C}(\bar{x})} = 1 = \frac{\mathit{Tr}(\mathit{C}x)}{\mathit{N}(\mathit{C}x)}$$

We get...

Correspondence I

$$x\bar{x} = 1 \iff \zeta(x)\zeta(\bar{x}) = 1$$
; i.e. $N(x) = 1 \iff N(\zeta(x)) = 1$ \Longrightarrow

 \subset restricts to an involution of the set of **units of norm** +1 of the rings of integers in quadratic number fields.

$$\circlearrowleft \circlearrowleft \{a + \sqrt{a^2 - 1} \, | \, 1 < a \in \mathbf{Q} \}$$

We get...

Correspondence II

$$x + \bar{x} = 0 \iff \zeta(x)\zeta(\bar{x}) = -1$$
; i.e. $T(x) = 0 \iff N(\zeta(x)) = -1$.

⇒ € establishes a bijection between the set of square roots of positive rationals and the set of units of norm -1 of the rings of integers of quadratic number fields.

$$\mathsf{C}: \{\sqrt{q} \mid q \in \mathbf{Q}\} \to \{a + \sqrt{a^2 + 1} \mid a \in \mathbf{Q}\}\$$

.... and these correspondences are far from being trivial:

Correspondence II-Example

Correspondence II-More Examples

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \sqrt{N} & \to & \zeta(\sqrt{N}) \\ \sqrt{3} & \to & \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{13}+3) \\ \sqrt{5} & \to & \frac{1}{3}(\sqrt{10}+1) \\ \sqrt{6} & \to & \frac{1}{14}(\sqrt{221}+5) \\ \sqrt{7} & \to & \frac{1}{6}(\sqrt{37}+1) \\ \sqrt{8} & \to & \frac{1}{4}(\sqrt{17}+1) \\ \sqrt{10} & \to & \frac{1}{7}(\sqrt{65}+4) \\ \sqrt{11} & \to & \frac{1}{26}(\sqrt{901}+15) \\ \sqrt{12} & \to & 134(\sqrt{1517}+19) \\ \sqrt{13} & \to & \frac{1}{3}(\sqrt{13}+2) \\ \sqrt{14} & \to & \frac{1}{5}(\sqrt{34}+3) \\ \sqrt{15} & \to & \frac{1}{18}(\sqrt{445}+11) \\ \sqrt{17} & \to & \frac{1}{19}(\sqrt{442}+9) \end{array}$$

We get...

Correspondence III

$$x + y = 1 \iff \zeta(x) + \zeta(\bar{x}) = 1$$
; i.e. $T(x) = 1 \iff T(\zeta(x)) = 1$

We get...

Correspondence IV

$$\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{\bar{x}}=1\iff \frac{1}{\overline{\zeta(x)}}+\frac{1}{\overline{\zeta(\bar{x})}}=1; \text{ i.e. } T(\frac{1}{x})=1\iff T(\frac{1}{\overline{\zeta(x)}})=1$$

$$T(x) = N(x) \iff T(\zeta x) = N(\zeta x)$$

Equivalently,

$$\subset \bigcirc \left\{ a + \sqrt{a^2 - 2a} \,\middle|\, 1 < a \in \mathbf{Q} \right\}$$

... and there are more correspondences of this type

What about algebraic numbers of higher degree?

Conjecture

If x is algebraic of degree > 2, then $\zeta(x)$ is transcendental^a

 a Testing the transcendence conjecture of Jimm and its continued fraction statistics (joint with H. Ayral, to appear)

Why? Because if x algebraic of degree > 2, then it is widely believed that x obeys the Gauss-Kuzmin statistics.

- \implies the frequency of 1's in the continued fraction of $\mathbb{C}(x)$ is 1.
- $\implies \zeta(x)$ does not obey the GK statistics
- $\implies \xi(x)$ is can not be algebraic

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- $\implies \zeta(x)$ does not obey the GK statistics
- $\implies \zeta(x)$ is can not be algebraic.

There is also a much bolder version of this transcendence conjecture:

Strong transcendence conjecture: In addition to the transcendence conjecture, any set of algebraically related numbers in the set

$$S:=\{\zeta(x)\,|\,x\in\overline{\mathbf{Q}},\,\deg(x)>2\}.$$

are in the same $\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ -orbit.

For example, $\zeta(x)$ and $\zeta(\frac{ax+b}{cx+d})$ are (provably) algebraically dependent for any $x \in \mathbf{R}$, whereas if $x \in S$, then $\zeta(x)$, $\zeta(x^2)$ and $\zeta(2x)$ are (conjecturally) not.

A few examples...

$$\mathcal{Z}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \mathcal{Z}([1;3,1,5,1,1,4,1,1,8,1,14,1,10,2,1,4,\dots])$$

= [2,1,3,1,1,1,4,1,1,4,1₆,3,1₁₂,3,1₈,2,3,1,1,2,\dots]
= 2.784731558662723\dots

$$\zeta(\pi) = \zeta([3,7,15,1,292,1,1,1,2,1,3,\dots]) = [1_2,2,1_5,2,1_{13},3,1_{290},5,3,\dots]$$

 $= 1.7237707925480276079699326494931025145558144289232\dots$

$$\zeta(e) = \zeta([2, 1, 2, 1, 1, 4, 1, 1, 6, 1, 1, 8, \dots]) = [1, 3, 4, 1, 1, 4, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots, 4, 1_{2n}]$$

 $= 1.3105752928466255215822495496939143349712038085627\dots$

(We tried to recognize these numbers by the PSLQ-algorithm with various sets of constants—we couldn't get any results)

PART II Dynamics



Fact

C conjugates the Gauss map to the "Fibonacci map"

$$\mathcal{T}_{\textit{Gauss}}: [0, \textit{n}_1, \textit{n}_2, \textit{n}_3, \dots] \in [0, 1] \longrightarrow [0, \textit{n}_2, \textit{n}_3, \textit{n}_4, \dots] \in [0, 1]$$

$$\Longrightarrow$$

$$\mathcal{T}_{\textit{Fibonacci}} = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{T}_{\textit{Gauss}}\mathcal{C} : [0, 1_k, n_{k+1}, n_{k+2}, \dots] \rightarrow [0, n_{k+1} - 1, n_{k+2}, \dots]$$

$$[1, 1, 1, 6, 13, 2, 2, 7, \dots]$$

$$[1, 1, 6, 13, 2, 2, 7, \ldots]$$

$$[1, 6, 13, 2, 2, 7, \dots]$$

$$[$$
,7 \dots]

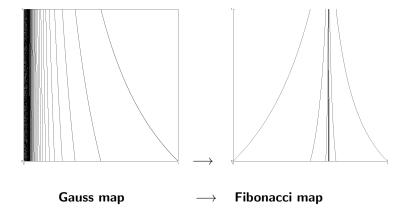
The Fibonacci map

$$[1, 1, 1, 6, 13, 2, 2, 7, \dots]$$

The Fibonacci map

$$[9, 2, 2, 7, \dots]$$

$$[8, 2, 2, 7, \dots]$$



Dynamics of these two maps are closely related (Isola et al).

The transfer operator of the Fibonacci map is

$$(\mathscr{L}_{s}^{Fib}\psi)(y) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(F_{k+1}y + F_{k})^{2s}} \psi\left(\frac{F_{k}y + F_{k-1}}{F_{k+1}y + F_{k}}\right)$$
(1)

The transfer operator of the Gauss map is

$$(\mathcal{L}_s^{Gauss}\psi)(y) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k+x)^{2s}} \psi\left(\frac{1}{k+x}\right)$$
 (2)

Dynamics of these two maps are closely related (Isola et al).

The transfer operator of the Fibonacci map is

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 (2)

A.C. invariant measures

$$T_{Fibonacci} \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{x(x+1)}$$
 (infinite), $T_{Gauss} \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{x+1}$

Zeta functions (the transfer operator evaluated at Lebesgue's measure)

$$T_{Fibonacci} \leftrightarrow (\mathscr{L}_s^{Fib}\psi)(\mathbf{1}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{F_n^s}$$
 ("Fibonacci zeta")

$$T_{Gauss} \leftrightarrow (\mathscr{L}_s^{Gauss} \psi)(\mathbf{1}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}$$
 ("Riemann zeta")

Eigenfunctions of the Fibonacci transfer operator satisfies the three-term functional equation

$$\psi(y) = \frac{1}{y^{2s}}\psi\left(\frac{y+1}{y}\right) + \frac{1}{\lambda}\frac{1}{(y+1)^{2s}}\psi\left(\frac{y}{y+1}\right)$$
(3)

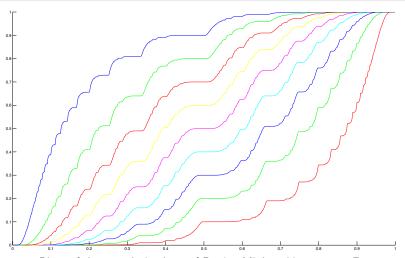
(Equivalent to three-term functional equation studied by Lewis and Zagier)

The Denjoy-Minkowski measure is the measure whose cumulative distribution function is

$$?([0, n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{k-1}, n_k]) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{1+k} 2^{-n_1 - n_2 \cdots - n_k}.$$
 (4)

? is a common invariant measure for the Gauss and the Fibonacci maps (however, it is not absolutely continuous w.r.t Lebesgue's measure).

Actually, ? is the common invariant measure of a much wider class of maps.



Plots of the cumulative laws of Denjoy-Minkowski measures \mathcal{F}_{p}

$$(p = 0.1, 0.2, \dots 0.9)$$

There is a common generalization of the Gauss and Fibonacci maps:

$$\mathbb{T}_{\alpha}(x) = \begin{cases} [0, m_{k+1}, m_{k+2}, m_{k+3}, \dots] & n_k > m_k \, (*) \\ [0, m_k - n_k, m_{k+1}, m_{k+2}, \dots] & n_k < m_k \, (**) \end{cases}$$
 (5)

where $\alpha = [0, n_1, n_2, \dots]$ and $x = [0, m_1, m_2, \dots]$.

One has

$$\mathbb{T}_0 = \mathbb{T}_{\textit{Gauss}}, \quad \mathbb{T}_{\Phi^*} = \mathbb{T}_{\textit{Fibonacci}}$$

The map
$$\mathbb{T}_{\sqrt{2}-1}$$
 with $\sqrt{2}-1=[0,2,2,2,\dots]$.

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$$\mathbb{T}_{\sqrt{2}-1}$$
 with $\sqrt{2}-1=[0,2,2,2,\dots]$.

$$[$$
 1, 1, 6, 13, 2, 2, 7, ... $]$

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 with $\sqrt{2}-1=[0,2,2,2,\dots]$.

$$[3, 2, 2, 7, \dots]$$

The map
$$\mathbb{T}_{\sqrt{2}-1}$$
 with $\sqrt{2}-1=[0,2,2,2,\dots]$.

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The map
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 with $\sqrt{2}-1=[0,2,2,2,\dots].$

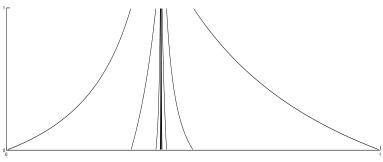


Figure: Plot of $\mathbb{T}_{\sqrt{2}-1}$

The following functional equation is satisfied:

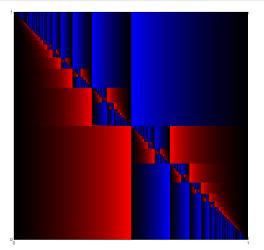
$$\mathbb{T}_{\mathcal{C}(\alpha)}(\mathcal{C}x) = \mathcal{C}\mathbb{T}_{\alpha}(x).$$

For $\alpha = \Phi^*$, this specialises to

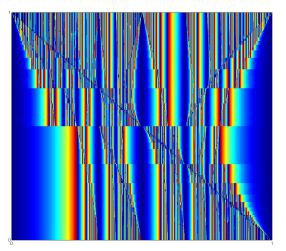
$$\mathbb{T}_0(\mathcal{Z}x) = \mathcal{Z}\mathbb{T}_{\Phi^*}(x) \iff \mathcal{Z}\mathbb{T}_0(\mathcal{Z}x) = \mathbb{T}_{\Phi^*}(x)$$

i.e. the fact that $\overline{\zeta}$ conjugates the Gauss and the Fibonacci maps.

(recall that
$$\mathbb{T}_0 = \mathbb{T}_{Gauss}$$
, $\mathbb{T}_{\Phi^*} = \mathbb{T}_{Fibonacci}$)



Plot of $\mathbb{T}_{\alpha}(x)$ as a function of α and x. The intensity is proportional to the value of $T_{\alpha}(x)$. The symetry is due to $T_{1-\alpha}(1-x) = T_{\alpha}(x)$.



Third iteration of $\mathbb{T}_{\alpha}(x)$. The intensity is proportional to the value of $T_{\alpha}^{3}(x)$.

The transfer operator is $(\mathscr{L}_{s,\alpha}\psi)(y)=$

$$-\frac{1}{y^{2s}}\psi\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{n_k-1} \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y}[0, n_1, \dots, n_{k-1}, i+y] \right|^s \psi[0, n_1, \dots, n_{k-1}, i+y]$$

eigenfunctions of which satisfy the functional equation

$$\psi(y) - \psi(1+y) + \frac{1}{y^{2s}} \left\{ \psi\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) - \psi\left(1+\frac{1}{y}\right) \right\} = \frac{1}{\lambda(1+y)^{2s}} \left\{ \psi\left(\frac{y}{1+y}\right) + \psi\left(\frac{1}{1+y}\right) \right\}$$

Observe that the LHS=0 is precisely Lewis' three-term functional equation, and the RHS is Isola's transfer operator of the Farey map.

Example

For the map $\mathbb{T}_{\sqrt{2}-1}$ with $\sqrt{2}-1=[0,2,2,2,\dots]$ we have

$$\mathcal{L}_{s,\alpha}\psi(y) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(P_{i+1}y + P_i)^s} \psi\left(\frac{P_iy + P_{i-1}}{P_{i+1}y + P_i}\right) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(P_{j+1}y + P_{j+1} + P_j)^s} \psi\left(\frac{P_jy + P_j + P_{j-1}}{P_{j+1}y + P_{j+1} + P_j}\right),$$

where 0, 1, 2, 5, 12, 29, 70, 169, 408, ... is the Pell sequence defined by $P_0 = 0$, $P_1 = 1$ and $P_k = 2P_{k-1} + P_{k-2}$.

Example

An a.c. invariant measure for $\mathbb{T}_{\sqrt{2}-1}$ with $\sqrt{2}-1=[0,2,2,2,\dots]$

$$\psi(y) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(1+2iy)(1+2y+2iy)} - \frac{1}{(y+2i+3)(y+2i+2)}.$$

Questions.

- What are the a.c. invariant measures for \mathbb{T}_{α} in general?
- How are the dynamics of ₹-conjugate maps related?
- Same questions for the continued fraction maps defined below

Fact: Denjoy-Minkowski measure is a common invariant measure of all \mathbb{T}_{α} 's.

In fact, this is true for an even wider class of maps (called continued fraction maps) $\mathcal{T}:[0,1]\mapsto [0,1]$, whose inverse branches are all $\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ on [0,1]. These are generalized Pacman maps (i.e. pacmen with powers equal to several \mathbb{T}_{α} -pacmen combined)

(There is a systematic way to define these maps as topological covering maps of the boundary of the Farey tree)

Indeed, suppose the inverse branches of T are $\{\varphi_{\beta}\}_{\beta=1,2,...}$. Then each φ_{β} can be written as

$$\varphi_{\beta}(y) = [0, n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{k-1}, i+y],$$

where $0 < k, n_1, n_2, \ldots$ and $0 \le i$ depends on β . Suppose X is a random variable on [0,1] with law ? and set Y := T(X). The law \mathbf{F}_Y of Y is

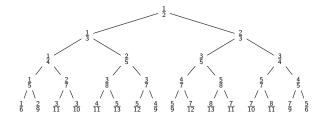
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{F}_{Y}(y) &= \operatorname{Prob}\{Y \leq y\} = \operatorname{Prob}\{T(X) \leq y\} = \sum_{\beta} \left| ? (\varphi_{\beta}(y)) - ? (\varphi_{\beta}(0)) \right| \\ &= \sum_{\beta} \left| ? [0, n_{1}, n_{2}, \dots, n_{k-1}, i + y] - ? [0, n_{1}, n_{2}, \dots, n_{k-1}, i] \right| \\ &= \sum_{\beta} ? (y) 2^{-(n_{1} + \dots + n_{k-1} + i)} \implies \mathbf{F}_{Y}(y) = ? (y) \sum_{\beta} 2^{-(n_{1} + \dots + n_{k-1} + i)}, \end{aligned}$$

and the series of the last line *must* sum up to 1, because \mathbf{F}_Y and $\mathbf{?}(y)$ are both probability laws.

PART III

Tree automorphisms and Lebesgue's measure

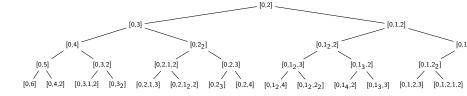
The Farey tree



Produced by the Farey sum rule:

$$\frac{p}{q} \oplus \frac{r}{s} = \frac{p+r}{q+s}$$

The Farey tree by continued fractions

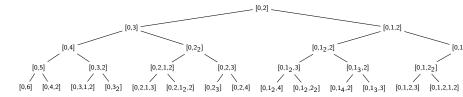


The boundary $\partial \mathcal{F}$ is the set of all infinite paths based at the root.

Fact

The map $\partial \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$ sending path to its continued fraction, parametrize irrationals in [0,1] (and is 2-to-1 over the rationals).

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Fact

The map $\partial \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$ sending path to its continued fraction, parametrize irrationals in [0,1] (and is 2-to-1 over the rationals).

The automorphism group $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathcal{F})$ naturally acts on $\partial \mathcal{F}$. $\Longrightarrow \operatorname{Aut}(\mathcal{F})$ acts on continued fractions via the above identification. (ignoring a countable set of numbers for each automorphism).

Shuffle description of $Aut(\mathcal{F})$.

⇒ € is the automorphism which shuffles every other vertex.

Shuffle description of $Aut(\mathcal{F})$.

 $\implies \zeta$ is the automorphism which shuffles every other vertex.

Twist description of $Aut(\mathcal{F})$

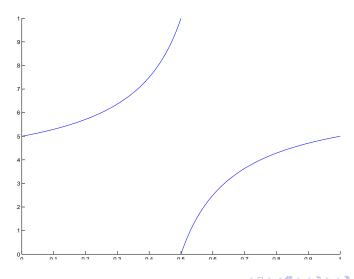
 \implies \bigcirc is the automorphism which twists every vertex.

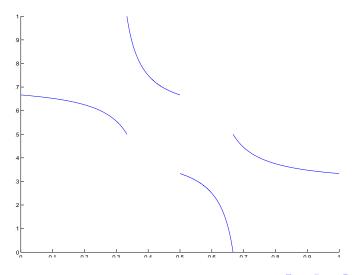
Twist description of $Aut(\mathcal{F})$

 $\implies \zeta$ is the automorphism which twists every vertex.

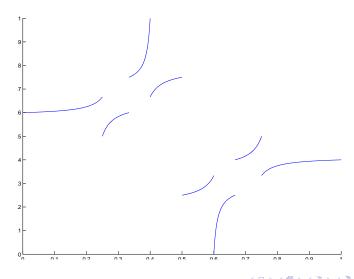
C sends zig-zag segments on a path to straight segments and vice versa

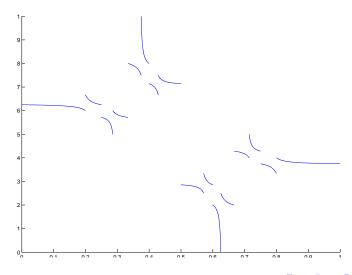
Looking at the boundary actions of shuffles (or twists), yields a presentation of \mathbb{C} as a limit of piecewise- $\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ maps....

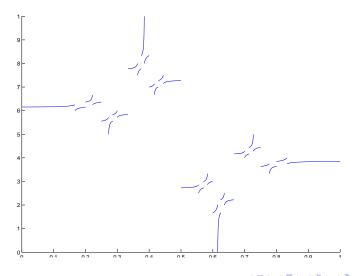


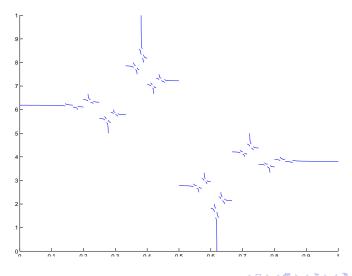


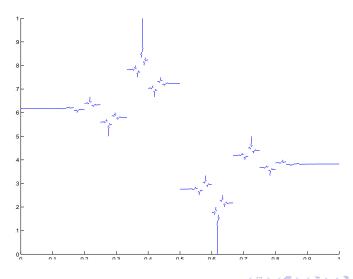
Jimm as a limit of piecewise- $\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ maps

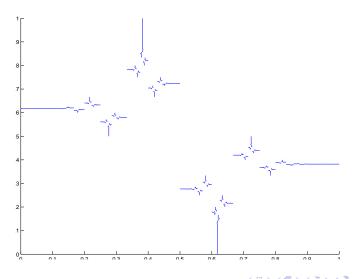






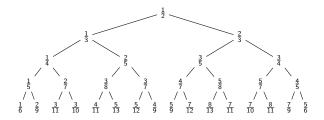






C as a symmetry of Lebesgue's measure

Let's turn back to the Farey tree...

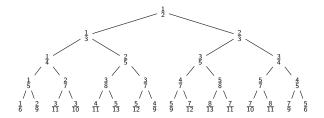


A random walker starts from the root vertex. For each vertex x, we are given the probability $\pi(x)$ of **arriving** to that vertex from its parent.

This induces a measure on the set of continued fractions, i.e. on [0, 1].

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This induces a measure on the set of continued fractions, i.e. on [0,1].

Cas a symmetry of Lebesgue's measure

If we set $\pi(x) \equiv 1/2$, then the c.d.f. of the induced measure on [0,1] is the Minkowski-Denjoy measure.

(which by the way is the unique $Aut(\mathcal{F})$ -invariant measure on $\partial \mathcal{F}$.)

Cas a symmetry of Lebesgue's measure

Question

Which 'arrival' probability function $\pi_{Leb}(x)$ induce the Lebesgue measure?

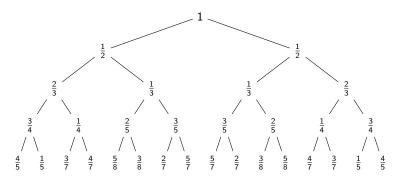


The "Lebesgue tree" ${\cal L}.$

C as a symmetry of Lebesgue's measure

Question

Which 'arrival' probability function $\pi_{Leb}(x)$ induce the Lebesgue measure?



The "Lebesgue tree" \mathcal{L} .

Answer

Assume $n_k > 1$. Then the arrival probabilities

$$\pi_{Leb}([0, n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{k-1}, n_k]) = 1 - [0, n_k - 1, n_{k-1}, \dots, n_2, n_1]$$

induces the Lebesgue measure on [0,1].

A subtle symmetry of Lebesgue's measure:

$$\pi_{Leb} \zeta(x) = \zeta \pi_{Leb}(x)$$

(On the left hand side ζ acts on the tree whereas on the right it acts on the rationals)

How does this symmetry manifests itself on the superficial level?

There are many questions pertaining to the measures induced by the transition functions

- $\pi(x) := K\pi_{\lambda}(x)$
- $\pi(x) := \zeta \pi_{\lambda}(x) = \pi_{\lambda} \zeta(x)$
- $\pi(x) := K \subset \pi_{\lambda}(x) = \subset K \pi_{\lambda}(x)$.

These are, in a sense, basic deformations of Lebesgue's measure.

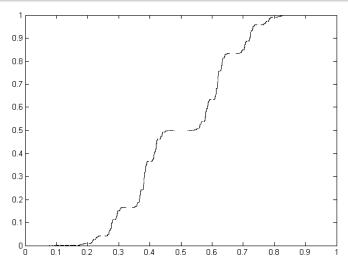


Figure: c.d.f. of $K\pi_{\lambda}$

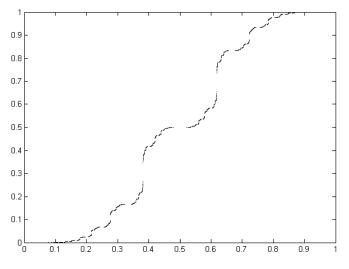


Figure: c.d.f. of $\zeta \pi_{\lambda} = \pi_{\lambda} \zeta$

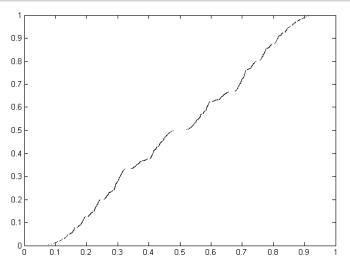


Figure: c.d.f. of $K \subset \pi_{\lambda} = \subset K \pi_{\lambda}$

Some Questions

- Are the measures $\pi(x) := K\pi_{\lambda}(x)$ and $\pi(x) := \xi\pi_{\lambda}(x) = \pi_{\lambda}\xi(x)$ singular with respect to Lebesgue's measure? Denjoy-Minkowski measure?
- How do these measure behave under the continued fraction maps?

More measures

Recall Kx := 1 - x and define the flip operation on $\mathbf{Q} \cap (0,1)$ as

$$\varphi([0, n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_k]) = [0, n_k - 1, n_{k-1}, \ldots, n_2, n_1 + 1]$$

where it is assumed that $n_k > 1$.

Let T_F be the Farey map

$$T_F: (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{k-1}, n_k) \in X \to (n_1 - 1, n_2, \dots, n_{k-1}, n_k) \in X,$$
 (6)

Ther

$$\pi_{Leb}(r) = K\varphi T_F(r)$$

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Then

$$\pi_{Leb}(r) = K\varphi T_F(r)$$

More measures

Lemma

- (i) $(K\varphi)^4 = Id$.
- (ii) Both K and $\mathbb C$ preserves the relations x+y=1 and the relation of being sibling (this latter is preserved with any automorphism)
- (iii) If π is any measure, then so are $K\pi$, $\varphi K\varphi \pi$, $K\varphi K\varphi \pi$
- (iv) x, y are siblings if and only if $\varphi(x) + \varphi(y) = 1$.

This lemma permits us to construct a limited number of deformations of the Lebesgue measure.

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- A subtle symmetry of Lebesgue's measure. (with H. Ayral) arXiv:1605.07330
- Testing the transcendence conjecture of limm and its continued fraction statistics. (with H. Avral. to appear)
- An involution of reals, discontinuous on rationals and whose derivative vanish almost everywhere. (with H. Ayral, to appear)
- Some deformations of Lebesgue's measure on the boundary of the Farey tree (with H. Ayral, in progress)
- Dynamics of a family of continued fraction maps (with H. Avral, in progress)
- Conumerator and the conominator, in progress.



€ acts on..

- Binary quadratic forms (tears apart class groups)
- Beatty partitions of N.

$$r \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \mathbf{Q} \leadsto \mathcal{B}_r = \lfloor r \rfloor, \lfloor 2r \rfloor, \lfloor 3r \rfloor, \ldots = (\lfloor nr \rfloor)_{n \geq 1}$$

If r > 1 and $\frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{s} = 1$ then $\mathcal{B}_r \cup \mathcal{B}_s = \mathbf{N}$. ($\Longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ induce a duality of Beatty partitions of \mathbf{N}).

- Sturmian words $a_n := \lfloor r(n+1) \rfloor \lfloor rn \rfloor$.
- Trivalent ribbon graphs ≃ dessins ≃ decorated TM spaces.
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$$r \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \mathbf{Q} \leadsto \mathcal{B}_r = \lfloor r \rfloor, \lfloor 2r \rfloor, \lfloor 3r \rfloor, \ldots = (\lfloor nr \rfloor)_{n \geq 1}$$

If r > 1 and $\frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{s} = 1$ then $\mathcal{B}_r \cup \mathcal{B}_s = \mathbf{N}$. ($\Longrightarrow \mathcal{E}$ induce a duality of Beatty partitions of \mathbf{N}).

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Example.

$$\zeta([0;\overline{1_{n-1},a}]) = [0;n,\overline{1_{a-2},n+1}] \implies$$

$$\mathcal{E}\left(\frac{a}{2}\left[\sqrt{1+4\frac{aF_{n-1}+F_{n-2}}{a^2F_n}}-1\right]\right) = \frac{1}{n+\frac{n+1}{2}\left(\sqrt{1+4\frac{(n+1)F_{a-2}+F_{a-3}}{(n+1)^2F_{a-1}}}-1\right)}$$

(notice the exchange $(a, F_n) \leftrightarrow (F_a, n)$)

Functional equations on the upper half plane

One must consider the $\mathrm{PGL}_2(\boldsymbol{Z})$ -action on $\{\boldsymbol{Imz}>0\}$ given by

$$M \cdot z := egin{cases} Mz, & \det(M) = +1 \ Mar{z}, & \det(M) = -1 \end{cases}$$

The generators of $PGL_2(\mathbf{Z})$ in this representation are

$$ar{U}:z
ightarrowrac{1}{ar{z}},\quad ar{V}:z
ightarrow-ar{z},\quad ar{K}:z
ightarrow1-ar{z},$$

and the functional equations become

$$f(\bar{U}) = \bar{U}f, \quad f(\bar{V}) = \bar{U}\bar{V}f, \quad f(\bar{K}) = \bar{K}f,$$

in other words

$$f(\frac{1}{\overline{z}}) = \frac{1}{\overline{f(z)}}, \quad f(-\overline{z}) = -\frac{1}{f(z)}, \quad f(1-\overline{z}) = 1 - \overline{f(z)},$$

Functional equations on the upper half plane

If f satisfies the functional equations, i.e.

$$f(M \cdot z) = \xi(M) \cdot f(z) \implies$$

$$f \circ f(M \cdot z) = f(\zeta(M) \cdot f(z)) = M \cdot f(z),$$

in other words, $f \circ f$ is $\operatorname{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ -equivariant. Moreover, if g is a modular function, then

$$g \circ f(M \cdot z) = g(\mathfrak{C}(M) \cdot f(z)) = f(z),$$

i.e. $g \circ f$ is also modular.

