Spatial and temporal central limit theorems for flows on negatively curved hyperbolic surfaces

Emilio Corso

ETH Zürich

Probability and Mathematical Statistics Research Seminar Universität Potsdam

June 7, 2021

Free motion and randomness

What is the long-term evolution, in the sense of classical mechanics, of a free particle constrained to lie on a manifold?

Free motion and randomness

What is the long-term evolution, in the sense of classical mechanics, of a free particle constrained to lie on a manifold?

The incarnation of Newton's first law of motion in this model prescribes that the particle follows a distance-minimizing trajectory, in the direction of its initial velocity.



Free motion and randomness

What is the long-term evolution, in the sense of classical mechanics, of a free particle constrained to lie on a manifold?

The incarnation of Newton's first law of motion in this model prescribes that the particle follows a distance-minimizing trajectory, in the direction of its initial velocity.



To what extent is the qualitative behaviour of its trajectory predictable?

At times negativity is uplifting ...

The answer depends heavily on the curvature properties of the manifold.



Let (S,g) be a connected, complete Riemannian surface, that is:

Let (S,g) be a connected, complete Riemannian surface, that is:
S is a Hausdorff, connected, second countable topological space, locally homeomorphic to ℝ²;

- Let (S,g) be a connected, complete Riemannian surface, that is:
 - S is a Hausdorff, connected, second countable topological space, locally homeomorphic to R²;
 - S admits an atlas of topological charts whose transition maps are smooth diffeomorphisms;

- Let (S,g) be a connected, complete Riemannian surface, that is:
 - S is a Hausdorff, connected, second countable topological space, locally homeomorphic to R²;
 - S admits an atlas of topological charts whose transition maps are smooth diffeomorphisms;
 - ► there is a smoothly varying assignment p → g_p of an inner product g_p on the tangent space T_pS, for every p ∈ S;

- Let (S,g) be a connected, complete Riemannian surface, that is:
 - S is a Hausdorff, connected, second countable topological space, locally homeomorphic to R²;
 - S admits an atlas of topological charts whose transition maps are smooth diffeomorphisms;
 - there is a smoothly varying assignment p → g_p of an inner product g_p on the tangent space T_pS, for every p ∈ S;
 - define the length of a smooth curve *γ*: [*a*, *b*] → *S* as
 L(*γ*) := ∫_a^b √g_{γ(t)}(*γ*'(t), *γ*'(t))['] dt = ∫_a^b ||*γ*'(t)||_g dt, and the
 distance d_g(p, q) between two points p, q ∈ S as the infimum of all
 lengths of smooth curves joining p and q; we require that (S, d_g) is
 a complete metric space.

- Let (S,g) be a connected, complete Riemannian surface, that is:
 - S is a Hausdorff, connected, second countable topological space, locally homeomorphic to ℝ²;
 - S admits an atlas of topological charts whose transition maps are smooth diffeomorphisms;
 - ► there is a smoothly varying assignment p → g_p of an inner product g_p on the tangent space T_pS, for every p ∈ S;
 - ▶ define the length of a smooth curve $\gamma: [a, b] \to S$ as $L(\gamma) := \int_a^b \sqrt{g_{\gamma(t)}(\gamma'(t), \gamma'(t))} dt = \int_a^b ||\gamma'(t)||_g dt$, and the distance $d_g(p, q)$ between two points $p, q \in S$ as the infimum of all lengths of smooth curves joining p and q; we require that (S, d_g) is a complete metric space.

Example: any compact, connected smooth embedded surface $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$, g_p being the restriction to $T_p S \leq T_p \mathbb{R}^3 \simeq \mathbb{R}^3$ of the standard inner product.

A mathematical framework: the geodesic flow Define the tangent bundle

$$TS = \bigsqcup_{p \in S} T_p S = \{(p, v) : p \in S, v \in T_p S\}$$

and the unit tangent bundle $T^1S = \{(p, v) \in TS : ||v||_g = 1\}.$

A mathematical framework: the geodesic flow Define the tangent bundle

$$TS = \bigsqcup_{p \in S} T_p S = \{(p, v) : p \in S, v \in T_p S\}$$

and the unit tangent bundle $T^1S = \{(p, v) \in TS : ||v||_g = 1\}$. Hopf-Rinow's theorem: for any $(p, v) \in T^1S$ there is a (unique) smooth

curve $\gamma_{p,v} \colon \mathbb{R} \to S$ such that

► γ minimizes distances locally: for every $t_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ there is $\delta > 0$ such that $L(\gamma|_{[t_0-\delta,t_0+\delta]}) = d_g(\gamma(t_0-\delta),\gamma(t_0+\delta));$

► $\gamma(0) = p, \gamma'(0) = v;$

► $\gamma_{p,v}$ has constant unit speed: $\|\gamma'_{p,v}(t)\|_{g} = 1$ for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

A mathematical framework: the geodesic flow Define the tangent bundle

$$TS = \bigsqcup_{p \in S} T_p S = \{(p, v) : p \in S, v \in T_p S\}$$

and the unit tangent bundle $T^1S = \{(p, v) \in TS : \|v\|_g = 1\}$. <u>Hopf-Rinow's theorem</u>: for any $(p, v) \in T^1S$ there is a (unique) smooth curve $\gamma_{p,v} : \mathbb{R} \to S$ such that

► γ minimizes distances locally: for every $t_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ there is $\delta > 0$ such that $L(\gamma|_{[t_0-\delta,t_0+\delta]}) = d_g(\gamma(t_0-\delta),\gamma(t_0+\delta));$

► $\gamma(0) = p, \gamma'(0) = v;$

► $\gamma_{\rho,\nu}$ has constant unit speed: $\|\gamma'_{\rho,\nu}(t)\|_g = 1$ for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

We may thus define, for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$g_t \colon T^1S \longrightarrow T^1S$$

 $(p, v) \mapsto (\gamma_{p, v}(t), \gamma'_{p, v}(t))$

A zoo of geodesic orbits

The collection $(g_t)_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$ defines a smooth flow, called the **geodesic flow**, on T^1S : the map $\mathbb{R} \times T^1S \to T^1S$, $(t, (p, v)) \mapsto g_t(p, v)$ is smooth and $g_t \circ g_s = g_{t+s}$ for any $t, s \in \mathbb{R}$. Geodesics on the surface S are projections of geodesic orbits $(g_t(p, v))_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$.

A zoo of geodesic orbits

The collection $(g_t)_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$ defines a smooth flow, called the **geodesic flow**, on T^1S : the map $\mathbb{R} \times T^1S \to T^1S$, $(t, (p, v)) \mapsto g_t(p, v)$ is smooth and $g_t \circ g_s = g_{t+s}$ for any $t, s \in \mathbb{R}$. Geodesics on the surface S are projections of geodesic orbits $(g_t(p, v))_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$.

What do geodesic orbits look like?

A zoo of geodesic orbits

The collection $(g_t)_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$ defines a smooth flow, called the **geodesic flow**, on T^1S : the map $\mathbb{R} \times T^1S \to T^1S$, $(t, (p, v)) \mapsto g_t(p, v)$ is smooth and $g_t \circ g_s = g_{t+s}$ for any $t, s \in \mathbb{R}$. Geodesics on the surface S are projections of geodesic orbits $(g_t(p, v))_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$.

What do geodesic orbits look like?



They might be compact, dense or simply wild.

A precise description of every geodesic orbit is out of reach.

A precise description of every geodesic orbit is out of reach.

Nevertheless, a statistical approach provides a clearer understanding.

A precise description of every geodesic orbit is out of reach.

Nevertheless, a statistical approach provides a clearer understanding.

The appropriate tools to pursue this strategy are given by the ergodic theory of flows, whose stochastic counterpart is the theory of stationary stochastic processes.

A precise description of every geodesic orbit is out of reach.

Nevertheless, a statistical approach provides a clearer understanding.

The appropriate tools to pursue this strategy are given by the ergodic theory of flows, whose stochastic counterpart is the theory of stationary stochastic processes.

In order to fruitfully apply its methods, it is essential to equip, T^1S with a natural probability measure which is <u>invariant</u> under the geodesic flow.

A precise description of every geodesic orbit is out of reach.

Nevertheless, a statistical approach provides a clearer understanding.

The appropriate tools to pursue this strategy are given by the ergodic theory of flows, whose stochastic counterpart is the theory of stationary stochastic processes.

In order to fruitfully apply its methods, it is essential to equip, T^1S with a natural probability measure which is <u>invariant</u> under the geodesic flow.

The Riemannian structure on S gives rise to a volume measure vol_S on S. In case S is embedded in \mathbb{R}^3 , vol_S can be defined as the restriction to S of the 2-dimensional Hausdorff measure on \mathbb{R}^3 .

A precise description of every geodesic orbit is out of reach.

Nevertheless, a statistical approach provides a clearer understanding.

The appropriate tools to pursue this strategy are given by the ergodic theory of flows, whose stochastic counterpart is the theory of stationary stochastic processes.

In order to fruitfully apply its methods, it is essential to equip, T^1S with a natural probability measure which is <u>invariant</u> under the geodesic flow.

The Riemannian structure on S gives rise to a volume measure vol_S on S. In case S is embedded in \mathbb{R}^3 , vol_S can be defined as the restriction to S of the 2-dimensional Hausdorff measure on \mathbb{R}^3 .

, Standing assumption: S is compact, and $vol_S(S) = 1$.

The Liouville measure m_{T^1S} on T^1S is defined weakly via

$$\int_{T^1S} f \, \mathsf{d} m_{T^1S} \coloneqq \int_S \int_{T^1_\rho S} f(p, v) \, \mathsf{d} \theta_\rho(v) \, \mathsf{d} \operatorname{vol}_S(p) \text{ for any } f \in \mathrm{C}(T^1S)$$

where θ_{ρ} denotes the unique rotationally invariant probability measure on $T_{\rho}^{1}S = \{v \in T_{\rho}S : ||v||_{g} = 1\}.$

The Liouville measure m_{T^1S} on T^1S is defined weakly via

$$\int_{\mathcal{T}^1S} f \, \mathsf{d}m_{\mathcal{T}^1S} \coloneqq \int_S \int_{\mathcal{T}^1_\rho S} f(\rho, \mathsf{v}) \, \mathsf{d}\theta_\rho(\mathsf{v}) \, \mathsf{d}\mathsf{vol}_S(\rho) \text{ for any } f \in \mathrm{C}(\mathcal{T}^1S)$$

where θ_{ρ} denotes the unique rotationally invariant probability measure on $T_{\rho}^{1}S = \{v \in T_{\rho}S : ||v||_{g} = 1\}.$

Liouville's theorem (1838): m_{T^1S} is invariant under $(g_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$, that is

 $m_{\mathcal{T}^1S}(g_t(B)) = m_{\mathcal{T}^1S}(B)$ for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and any measurable $B \subset T^1S$.

The Liouville measure m_{T^1S} on T^1S is defined weakly via

$$\int_{\mathcal{T}^1S} f \, \mathsf{d}m_{\mathcal{T}^1S} \coloneqq \int_S \int_{\mathcal{T}^1_p S} f(p, \mathbf{v}) \, \mathsf{d}\theta_p(\mathbf{v}) \, \mathsf{d}\mathsf{vol}_S(p) \text{ for any } f \in \mathrm{C}(\mathcal{T}^1S)$$

where θ_p denotes the unique rotationally invariant probability measure on $T_p^1 S = \{ v \in T_p S : ||v||_g = 1 \}.$

Liouville's theorem (1838): m_{T^1S} is invariant under $(g_t)_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$, that is

 $m_{T^1S}(g_t(B)) = m_{T^1S}(B)$ for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and any measurable $B \subset T^1S$.

Consequently, for any (measurable) observable $f: T^1S \to \mathbb{R}$, the stochastic process $(f \circ g_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$, defined on the probability space $(T^1S, \mathcal{B}_{T^1S}, m_{T^1S})$, is stationary.

The Liouville measure m_{T^1S} on T^1S is defined weakly via

$$\int_{\mathcal{T}^1S} f \, \mathsf{d}m_{\mathcal{T}^1S} \coloneqq \int_S \int_{\mathcal{T}^1_p S} f(p, \mathbf{v}) \, \mathsf{d}\theta_p(\mathbf{v}) \, \mathsf{d}\mathsf{vol}_S(p) \text{ for any } f \in \mathrm{C}(\mathcal{T}^1S)$$

where θ_{ρ} denotes the unique rotationally invariant probability measure on $T_{\rho}^{1}S = \{v \in T_{\rho}S : ||v||_{g} = 1\}.$

Liouville's theorem (1838): m_{T^1S} is invariant under $(g_t)_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$, that is

 $m_{T^1S}(g_t(B)) = m_{T^1S}(B)$ for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and any measurable $B \subset T^1S$.

Consequently, for any (measurable) observable $f : T^1S \to \mathbb{R}$, the stochastic process $(f \circ g_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$, defined on the probability space $(T^1S, \mathcal{B}_{T^1S}, m_{T^1S})$, is stationary.

Overarching paradigm: in negative curvature, the $f \circ g_t$ behave much like independent random variables.

The Gaussian curvature

Suppose $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$. Fix a point $p \in S$ and a unit vector \overrightarrow{n} attached to p and normal to S. For any plane $\Pi \ni \overrightarrow{n}$, the intersection $\Pi \cap S$ is a smooth curve inside Π , having a well-defined signed curvature κ with respect to its normal vector \overrightarrow{n} . The *principal curvatures* κ_1, κ_2 of S at p are the supremum and the infimum of all the curvatures obtained by varying Π . The *Gaussian curvature* of S at p is the product $K = \kappa_1 \kappa_2$.



A negatively curved surface: the pseudosphere

Ergodicity of the geodesic flow

Positive curvature makes nearby geodesics stay close throughout their evolution, while negative curvature forces them to spread out. This lies at the heart of the manifestation of randomness.

Ergodicity of the geodesic flow

Positive curvature makes nearby geodesics stay close throughout their evolution, while negative curvature forces them to spread out. This lies at the heart of the manifestation of randomness.

A first embodiment of randomness is ergodicity. If S has Gaussian curvature K < 0, the geodesic flow $(g_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is *ergodic* with respect to the Liouville measure m_{T^1S} :

for any $B \subset T^1S$, $g_t(B) = B \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R} \implies m_{T^1S}(B) \in \{0,1\}.$

Ergodicity of the geodesic flow

Positive curvature makes nearby geodesics stay close throughout their evolution, while negative curvature forces them to spread out. This lies at the heart of the manifestation of randomness.

A first embodiment of randomness is ergodicity. If S has Gaussian curvature K < 0, the geodesic flow $(g_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is *ergodic* with respect to the Liouville measure m_{T^1S} :

for any $B \subset T^1S$, $g_t(B) = B \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R} \implies m_{T^1S}(B) \in \{0,1\}.$

This yields at once remarkable chaoticity features of geodesics: $m_{T^1S^-}$ almost surely, (forward) geodesic orbits *equidistribute* in the ambient space: for any open $V \subset T^1S$,

$$\frac{1}{T}m_{\mathbb{R}}\{0\leq t\leq T:g_{t}x\in V\}\stackrel{T\to+\infty}{\longrightarrow}m_{T^{1}S}(V)$$

A strong law of large numbers

Theorem (Birkhoff's pointwise ergodic theorem)

If $(\phi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is a measure-preserving ergodic flow on a probability space (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) and $f \colon X \to \mathbb{R}$ is a μ -integrable function, then

$$\lim_{T \to +\infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(\phi_t x) \, dt = \int_X f \, d\mu$$

for μ -almost every $x \in X$.

A strong law of large numbers

Theorem (Birkhoff's pointwise ergodic theorem)

If $(\phi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is a measure-preserving ergodic flow on a probability space (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) and $f \colon X \to \mathbb{R}$ is a μ -integrable function, then

$$\lim_{T \to +\infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(\phi_t x) \ dt = \int_X f \ d\mu$$

for μ -almost every $x \in X$.

Equivalently: if $(X_t)_{t\geq 0}$ is a stationary ergodic *E*-valued process, then a SLLN holds for any statistic $f: E \to \mathbb{R}$ with finite expectation:

 $\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(X_t) dt \xrightarrow{T \to \infty} \mathbb{E}[f(X_0)] \quad \mathbb{P}\text{-almost surely.}$

A Central Limit Theorem?

Compared to the SLLN, the validity of a CLT is a more reliable detector of independence, or rather weak dependence, for the process $(f \circ g_t)_{t>0}$.

A Central Limit Theorem?

Compared to the SLLN, the validity of a CLT is a more reliable detector of independence, or rather weak dependence, for the process $(f \circ g_t)_{t \ge 0}$.

In general, the CLT fails for ergodic systems.
A Central Limit Theorem?

Compared to the SLLN, the validity of a CLT is a more reliable detector of independence, or rather weak dependence, for the process $(f \circ g_t)_{t \ge 0}$.

In general, the CLT fails for ergodic systems.

Consider $X = \{0,1\}$, $\phi: X \to X$ defined by $\phi(0) = 1$, $\phi(1) = 0$, and $\mu = \frac{1}{2}(\delta_0 + \delta_1)$; then ϕ is ergodic with respect to μ . However, for any $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ with zero mean, the random variables $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f \circ \phi^n$ do not converge in distribution towards a Gaussian random variable.

A Central Limit Theorem?

Compared to the SLLN, the validity of a CLT is a more reliable detector of independence, or rather weak dependence, for the process $(f \circ g_t)_{t \ge 0}$.

In general, the CLT fails for ergodic systems.

Consider $X = \{0,1\}$, $\phi: X \to X$ defined by $\phi(0) = 1$, $\phi(1) = 0$, and $\mu = \frac{1}{2}(\delta_0 + \delta_1)$; then ϕ is ergodic with respect to μ . However, for any $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ with zero mean, the random variables $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f \circ \phi^n$ do not converge in distribution towards a Gaussian random variable.

On the other hand, the abundance of possible correlation properties for processes of the form $(f \circ \phi_t)_t$ accounts for the emergence of various distributional behaviours in the limit.

A Central Limit Theorem?

Compared to the SLLN, the validity of a CLT is a more reliable detector of independence, or rather weak dependence, for the process $(f \circ g_t)_{t \ge 0}$.

In general, the CLT fails for ergodic systems.

Consider $X = \{0, 1\}$, $\phi: X \to X$ defined by $\phi(0) = 1$, $\phi(1) = 0$, and $\mu = \frac{1}{2}(\delta_0 + \delta_1)$; then ϕ is ergodic with respect to μ . However, for any $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ with zero mean, the random variables $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f \circ \phi^n$ do not converge in distribution towards a Gaussian random variable.

On the other hand, the abundance of possible correlation properties for processes of the form $(f \circ \phi_t)_t$ accounts for the emergence of various distributional behaviours in the limit.

Therefore, we need a general framework to study the limiting distributions of ergodic integrals $I_T(f, x) = \bigvee_0 \int_0^T f(\phi_t x) dt$.

Spatial distributional limit theorem

Definition (Spatial DLT)

Let $(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu, (\phi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}})$ be a measure-preserving flow. The ergodic integrals of $f \in \mathcal{L}^1(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ satisfy a *spatial distributional limit theorem* if there exist real functions $(A_T), (B_T)$, with $B_T \to +\infty$ as $T \to +\infty$, and a non-trivial real-valued random variable Y such that the random variables $Y_T = \frac{I_T(f) - A_T}{B_T}$ converge in distribution towards Y as $T \to +\infty$.

Spatial distributional limit theorem

Definition (Spatial DLT)

Let $(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu, (\phi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}})$ be a measure-preserving flow. The ergodic integrals of $f \in \mathcal{L}^1(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ satisfy a *spatial distributional limit theorem* if there exist real functions $(A_T), (B_T)$, with $B_T \to +\infty$ as $T \to +\infty$, and a non-trivial real-valued random variable Y such that the random variables $Y_T = \frac{I_T(f) - A_T}{B_T}$ converge in distribution towards Y as $T \to +\infty$.

As it happens, the geodesic flow in negative curvature satisfies a rather strong mixing property, resulting in a full analogue of the CLT:

Spatial distributional limit theorem

Definition (Spatial DLT)

Let $(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu, (\phi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}})$ be a measure-preserving flow. The ergodic integrals of $f \in \mathcal{L}^1(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ satisfy a *spatial distributional limit theorem* if there exist real functions $(A_T), (B_T)$, with $B_T \to +\infty$ as $T \to +\infty$, and a non-trivial real-valued random variable Y such that the random variables $Y_T = \frac{I_T(f) - A_T}{B_T}$ converge in distribution towards Y as $T \to +\infty$.

As it happens, the geodesic flow in negative curvature satisfies a rather strong mixing property, resulting in a full analogue of the CLT: Theorem (Sinai, Ratner)

Suppose S has negative Gaussian curvature. The ergodic integrals, along the geodesic flow, of any smooth function $f: T^1S \to \mathbb{R}$ not cohomologous to a constant satisfy a spatial DLT. Specifically

 $\frac{I_{T}(f) - T \int_{T^{1}M} f \ dm_{T^{1}S}}{\sigma \sqrt{T}} \xrightarrow{T \to \infty} \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \text{ in distribution, for some } \sigma > 0.$

We shall deduce the result from an almost sure invariance principle.

We shall deduce the result from an almost sure invariance principle.

Recall Donsker's invariance principle: if $(X_i)_{i \ge 1}$ is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with zero mean and unit variance, then the processes $(S_t^{(n)})_{t \ge 0}$ given by $S_t^{(n)} := \sum_{i \le nt} X_i$ satisfy

 $\left(rac{1}{\sqrt{n}}S_t^{(n)}
ight)_{0\leq t\leq 1}\stackrel{n
ightarrow\infty}{\longrightarrow}(B_t)_{0\leq t\leq 1}$ in distribution,

where $(B_t)_{t\geq 0}$ is a standard Brownian motion.

We shall deduce the result from an almost sure invariance principle.

Recall Donsker's invariance principle: if $(X_i)_{i \ge 1}$ is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with zero mean and unit variance, then the processes $(S_t^{(n)})_{t \ge 0}$ given by $S_t^{(n)} := \sum_{i \le nt} X_i$ satisfy

 $\left(rac{1}{\sqrt{n}}S_t^{(n)}
ight)_{0\leq t\leq 1}\stackrel{n
ightarrow\infty}{\longrightarrow}(B_t)_{0\leq t\leq 1}$ in distribution,

where $(B_t)_{t>0}$ is a standard Brownian motion.

Attempts to extend this functional version of the CLT have permeated much of the research in probability theory during the sixties.

We shall deduce the result from an almost sure invariance principle.

Recall Donsker's invariance principle: if $(X_i)_{i \ge 1}$ is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with zero mean and unit variance, then the processes $(S_t^{(n)})_{t \ge 0}$ given by $S_t^{(n)} := \sum_{i \le nt} X_i$ satisfy

 $\left(rac{1}{\sqrt{n}}S_t^{(n)}
ight)_{0\leq t\leq 1}\stackrel{n
ightarrow\infty}{\longrightarrow}(B_t)_{0\leq t\leq 1}$ in distribution,

where $(B_t)_{t>0}$ is a standard Brownian motion.

Attempts to extend this functional version of the CLT have permeated much of the research in probability theory during the sixties.

In this regard, the notion of Almost Sure Invariance Principle (ASIP) has been introduced by Strassen in the context of martingales, and later extended by Philipps and Stout to more general weakly dependent processes. It formalizes the intuition that trajectories of certain random processes are well approximable by Brownian trajectories.

The Almost Sure Invariance Principle

In the setting of ergodic integrals, it may be phrased as follows: Definition (Almost Sure Invariance Principle)

Let $(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu, (\phi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}})$ be a measure-preserving flow. The ergodic integrals $I_t(f)$ of $f \in \mathcal{L}^1(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ satisfy the **Almost Sure Invariance Principle** if there is a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, two processes $(I'_t)_{t \geq 0}, (B_t)_{t \geq 0}$ defined on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $\sigma > 0$ such that:

- 1. $(I'_t)_{t\geq 0}$ has the same law as $(I_t(f))_{t\geq 0}$;
- 2. $(B_t)_{t\geq 0}$ is a standard Brownian motion;
- 3. for \mathbb{P} -almost every $\omega \in \Omega$,

 $|I'_t(\omega) - B_{\sigma^2 t}(\omega)| = o(t^{1/2}).$

The Almost Sure Invariance Principle

In the setting of ergodic integrals, it may be phrased as follows: Definition (Almost Sure Invariance Principle)

Let $(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu, (\phi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}})$ be a measure-preserving flow. The ergodic integrals $I_t(f)$ of $f \in \mathcal{L}^1(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ satisfy the **Almost Sure Invariance Principle** if there is a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, two processes $(I'_t)_{t \geq 0}, (B_t)_{t \geq 0}$ defined on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $\sigma > 0$ such that:

- 1. $(I'_t)_{t\geq 0}$ has the same law as $(I_t(f))_{t\geq 0}$;
- 2. $(B_t)_{t\geq 0}$ is a standard Brownian motion;
- 3. for \mathbb{P} -almost every $\omega \in \Omega$,

 $|I'_t(\omega) - B_{\sigma^2 t}(\omega)| = o(t^{1/2}).$

 $ASIP \Longrightarrow Donsker's IP$

Consequences of the ASIP

If the ergodic integrals of f fulfill the ASIP, then the processes $(I_t^{(n)}(f))_{t\geq 0}$ defined by $I_t^{(n)}(f) \coloneqq I_{nt}(f)$ satisfy

 $\left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}l_t^{(n)}(f)\right)_{0\leq t\leq 1} \stackrel{n\to\infty}{\longrightarrow} (B_t)_{0\leq t\leq 1} \quad \text{in distribution},$

Consequences of the ASIP

If the ergodic integrals of f fulfill the ASIP, then the processes $(I_t^{(n)}(f))_{t\geq 0}$ defined by $I_t^{(n)}(f) \coloneqq I_{nt}(f)$ satisfy

 $\left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}l_t^{(n)}(f)\right)_{0\leq t\leq 1} \stackrel{n\to\infty}{\longrightarrow} (\mathcal{B}_t)_{0\leq t\leq 1} \quad \text{in distribution},$

As mentioned earlier, we have:

Theorem (Denker, Philipp)

If S has negative Gaussian curvature and $f: T^1S \to \mathbb{R}$ is a smooth function, not cohomologous to a constant, with $\int_{T^1S} f \ dm_{T^1S} = 0$, then the ergodic integrals of f along $(g_t)_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$ satisfy the ASIP.

Consequences of the ASIP

If the ergodic integrals of f fulfill the ASIP, then the processes $(I_t^{(n)}(f))_{t\geq 0}$ defined by $I_t^{(n)}(f) \coloneqq I_{nt}(f)$ satisfy

 $\left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}l_t^{(n)}(f)\right)_{0\leq t\leq 1} \stackrel{n\to\infty}{\longrightarrow} (\mathcal{B}_t)_{0\leq t\leq 1} \quad \text{in distribution},$

As mentioned earlier, we have:

Theorem (Denker, Philipp)

If S has negative Gaussian curvature and $f: T^1S \to \mathbb{R}$ is a smooth function, not cohomologous to a constant, with $\int_{T^1S} f \ dm_{T^1S} = 0$, then the ergodic integrals of f along $(g_t)_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$ satisfy the ASIP.

As is well-known, the ASIP enables to transfer typical features of Brownian trajectories to the process under consideration; in particular, asymptotic fluctuation results, such as the Law of the Iterated Logarithm, carry over.

Proof of the ASIP: an outline

The salient trait of the proof is the *symbolic coding* of the geodesic flow, which allows to interpret it as a *suspension flow* over a Markov shift.



All the results hitherto presented are quintessential probabilistic statements: they capture properties of *almost every* trajectory.

All the results hitherto presented are quintessential probabilistic statements: they capture properties of *almost every* trajectory.

In dynamical systems, and chiefly in applications towards geometric and number-theoretical problems, it is often desirable to attain a qualitative understanding of *any* orbit. Even though this turns out to be frequently out of reach, a further shortfall of the spatial DLT is that it provides no information on the behaviour of the functions $t \mapsto I_t(f, x)$, not even for typical points x.

All the results hitherto presented are quintessential probabilistic statements: they capture properties of *almost every* trajectory.

In dynamical systems, and chiefly in applications towards geometric and number-theoretical problems, it is often desirable to attain a qualitative understanding of *any* orbit. Even though this turns out to be frequently out of reach, a further shortfall of the spatial DLT is that it provides no information on the behaviour of the functions $t \mapsto I_t(f, x)$, not even for typical points x.

Number theorists have devised ingenious tools to describe the statistical behaviour of highly oscillatory functions, as the $I_t(f, x), t \in \mathbb{R}$, often are.

All the results hitherto presented are quintessential probabilistic statements: they capture properties of *almost every* trajectory.

In dynamical systems, and chiefly in applications towards geometric and number-theoretical problems, it is often desirable to attain a qualitative understanding of *any* orbit. Even though this turns out to be frequently out of reach, a further shortfall of the spatial DLT is that it provides no information on the behaviour of the functions $t \mapsto I_t(f, x)$, not even for typical points x.

Number theorists have devised ingenious tools to describe the statistical behaviour of highly oscillatory functions, as the $l_t(f, x), t \in \mathbb{R}$, often are.

The archetypical result in this direction is a celebrated theorem of Erdös and Kac, concerning the distribution of the arithmetic function $\omega \colon \mathbb{N}_{>1} \to \mathbb{N}$,

 $\omega(n) :=$ number of distinct prime divisors of *n*.

The Erdös-Kac theorem and the temporal DLT

Theorem (Erdös-Kac, 1939)

The random variables $Y_N \colon \{1, \dots, N\} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined as

 $Y_N(n) \coloneqq rac{\omega(n) - \log \log N}{\sqrt{\log \log N}}, \ 1 \le n \le N, \quad n \text{ sampled uniformly},$

converge in distribution towards $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ as $N \to \infty$.

The Erdös-Kac theorem and the temporal DLT

Theorem (Erdös-Kac, 1939)

The random variables $Y_N \colon \{1, \dots, N\} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined as

 $Y_N(n) \coloneqq rac{\omega(n) - \log \log N}{\sqrt{\log \log N}}, \ 1 \le n \le N, \quad n \text{ sampled uniformly},$

converge in distribution towards $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ as $N \to \infty$.

Motivated by this statement, we introduce a temporal version of the CLT: Definition (Temporal DLT)

The ergodic integrals $I_t(f, x)$ of an integrable function f satisfy a **temporal DLT** along the orbit of $x \in X$ if there is a non-trivial r.v. Y and families of real numbers $(A_T(x)), (B_T(x))$ with $B_T(x) \xrightarrow{T \to \infty} \infty$ such that $X_T(t) := \frac{I_t(f, x) - A_T(x)}{B_T(x)}$ converge in law towards Y as $t \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0, T]}$.

The previous considerations readily allow to settle the question of existence of a temporal DLT for ergodic integrals along the geodesic flow.

The previous considerations readily allow to settle the question of existence of a temporal DLT for ergodic integrals along the geodesic flow.

Indeed, the ASIP is incompatible with a temporal DLT. If the ergodic integrals of f satisfy the ASIP, then the following holds μ -almost surely:

The previous considerations readily allow to settle the question of existence of a temporal DLT for ergodic integrals along the geodesic flow.

Indeed, the ASIP is incompatible with a temporal DLT. If the ergodic integrals of f satisfy the ASIP, then the following holds μ -almost surely:

for any r.v. Y there is an increasing sequence $(T_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ of times such that

 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{T_n}} l_t(f, x) \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} Y \quad \text{ in law, as } t \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0, T_n]}.$

The previous considerations readily allow to settle the question of existence of a temporal DLT for ergodic integrals along the geodesic flow.

Indeed, the ASIP is incompatible with a temporal DLT. If the ergodic integrals of f satisfy the ASIP, then the following holds μ -almost surely:

for any r.v. Y there is an increasing sequence $(T_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ of times such that

$$rac{1}{\sqrt{T_n}} l_t(f, x) \stackrel{n o \infty}{\longrightarrow} Y$$
 in law, as $t \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0, T_n]}$

This stems from the analogous property of *occupational* (random) *measures* of Brownian paths: almost surely, the set of accumulation points of the family $\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \delta_{B(t)} dt$ (for the weak topology on $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$) is $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$.

The previous considerations readily allow to settle the question of existence of a temporal DLT for ergodic integrals along the geodesic flow.

Indeed, the ASIP is incompatible with a temporal DLT. If the ergodic integrals of f satisfy the ASIP, then the following holds μ -almost surely:

for any r.v. Y there is an increasing sequence $(T_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ of times such that

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{T_n}} l_t(f, x) \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} Y \quad \text{ in law, as } t \sim \mathcal{U}_{[0, T_n]}$$

This stems from the analogous property of *occupational* (random) *measures* of Brownian paths: almost surely, the set of accumulation points of the family $\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \delta_{B(t)} dt$ (for the weak topology on $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$) is $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$. Therefore:

 $ASIP \implies$ almost surely, no temporal DLT.

The geodesic flow in negative curvature belongs to the broad and nowadays deeply understood class of *Anosov flows*, characterized by the property that the flow, the expanded and the contracted direction "fill up" the whole space. The ASIP (hence the spatial CLT) holds for any such flow.

The geodesic flow in negative curvature belongs to the broad and nowadays deeply understood class of *Anosov flows*, characterized by the property that the flow, the expanded and the contracted direction "fill up" the whole space. The ASIP (hence the spatial CLT) holds for any such flow.

Much less understood, as far as distributional limit theorems are concerned, is a second flow of geometric nature which is closely intertwined with the geodesic flow: it is known as the **horocycle flow**, and is defined precisely for surfaces *S* with curvature K < 0.

The geodesic flow in negative curvature belongs to the broad and nowadays deeply understood class of *Anosov flows*, characterized by the property that the flow, the expanded and the contracted direction "fill up" the whole space. The ASIP (hence the spatial CLT) holds for any such flow.

Much less understood, as far as distributional limit theorems are concerned, is a second flow of geometric nature which is closely intertwined with the geodesic flow: it is known as the **horocycle flow**, and is defined precisely for surfaces *S* with curvature K < 0.

Consider, for each $x \in T^1S$, the set (called *stable manifold* through x)

 $W^{s}(x) \coloneqq \{y \in T^{1}S : d(g_{t}y, g_{t}x) \stackrel{t \to +\infty}{\longrightarrow} 0\},\$

where d is a (any) Riemannian metric on T^1S . We might choose an arclength parametrization $t \mapsto h_t(x)$ of the differentiable curve $W^s(x)$.

The geodesic flow in negative curvature belongs to the broad and nowadays deeply understood class of *Anosov flows*, characterized by the property that the flow, the expanded and the contracted direction "fill up" the whole space. The ASIP (hence the spatial CLT) holds for any such flow.

Much less understood, as far as distributional limit theorems are concerned, is a second flow of geometric nature which is closely intertwined with the geodesic flow: it is known as the **horocycle flow**, and is defined precisely for surfaces *S* with curvature K < 0.

Consider, for each $x \in T^1S$, the set (called *stable manifold* through x)

 $W^{s}(x) \coloneqq \{y \in T^{1}S : d(g_{t}y, g_{t}x) \stackrel{t \to +\infty}{\longrightarrow} 0\},\$

where d is a (any) Riemannian metric on T^1S . We might choose an arclength parametrization $t \mapsto h_t(x)$ of the differentiable curve $W^s(x)$. The one-parameter continuous group $(h_t)_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$ is the horocycle flow on T^1S . Geodesic and horocycle orbits on the hyperbolic plane For the sake of illustration, we consider the standard model of *hyperbolic* geometry $(K \equiv -1)$: the hyperbolic plane. As a smooth surface, it is the upper-half plane $\mathbb{H} := \{x + iy \in \mathbb{C} : y > 0\}$; the Riemannian metric is defined as $g_{x+iy}(v, w) = \frac{1}{y^2} \langle v, w \rangle$ for any $v, w \in T_{x+iy}\mathbb{H} \simeq \mathbb{R}^2$, so that $\int_{0}^{b} || q'(t) ||$

 $L(\gamma) = \overline{\int_a^b rac{\|\gamma'(t)\|}{\operatorname{Im}\gamma(t)}} \, \mathrm{d}t \quad ext{for any curve } \gamma \colon [a, b] o \mathbb{H} ext{ of class } \mathrm{C}^1.$



A fertile direction of research: horocycles and beyond Asymptotic estimates for ergodic integrals along horocycle orbits are known only in the case of constant negative curvature, where it is possible to resort to the well-established harmonic analysis of the Lie group $SL_2(\mathbb{R})$. A fertile direction of research: horocycles and beyond

Asymptotic estimates for ergodic integrals along horocycle orbits are known only in the case of constant negative curvature, where it is possible to resort to the well-established harmonic analysis of the Lie group $SL_2(\mathbb{R})$.

The spatial DLT is established only for a restricted class of smooth functions; remarkably, the limit distribution is <u>not</u> Gaussian.

A fertile direction of research: horocycles and beyond

Asymptotic estimates for ergodic integrals along horocycle orbits are known only in the case of constant negative curvature, where it is possible to resort to the well-established harmonic analysis of the Lie group $SL_2(\mathbb{R})$.

- The spatial DLT is established only for a restricted class of smooth functions; remarkably, the limit distribution is <u>not</u> Gaussian.
- For functions not in this distinguished class, there is strong evidence pointing to a failure of the spatial DLT, but no proof is available.

A fertile direction of research: horocycles and beyond

Asymptotic estimates for ergodic integrals along horocycle orbits are known only in the case of constant negative curvature, where it is possible to resort to the well-established harmonic analysis of the Lie group $SL_2(\mathbb{R})$.

- The spatial DLT is established only for a restricted class of smooth functions; remarkably, the limit distribution is <u>not</u> Gaussian.
- For functions not in this distinguished class, there is strong evidence pointing to a failure of the spatial DLT, but no proof is available.
 The temporal DLT holds almost surely for a vast class of functions, and everywhere for windings determined by harmonic 1-forms.
A fertile direction of research: horocycles and beyond

Asymptotic estimates for ergodic integrals along horocycle orbits are known only in the case of constant negative curvature, where it is possible to resort to the well-established harmonic analysis of the Lie group $SL_2(\mathbb{R})$.

- The spatial DLT is established only for a restricted class of smooth functions; remarkably, the limit distribution is <u>not</u> Gaussian.
- For functions not in this distinguished class, there is strong evidence pointing to a failure of the spatial DLT, but no proof is available.
 The temporal DLT holds almost surely for a vast class of functions,
 - and everywhere for windings determined by harmonic 1-forms.

Distributional limit theorems of various sorts are the subject of growing in_{τ} terest in dynamics; inherently motivated by the quest for universal limiting laws governing ergodic sums and integrals, they are part of a wholesale attempt to account for, and quantify, the manifestation of randomness in deterministic evolutions.