

Analytic Number Theory

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Part I

Background Material

Chapter 1

Preliminaries

There is quite a bit of knowledge that most authors assume one is fluent in when writing any text on analytic number theory that is not necessarily standard material every reader knows. A good selection is the following:

- Asymptotic Notation,
- Dirichlet Characters,
- Special Sums,
- Integral Methods & Transforms,
- The Gamma Function.

This is not an extensive list (depending on whom is writing), but it is a decent one for sure. In the interest of keeping this text mostly self-contained, this chapter is dedicated to the basics of these topics as they are the gadgets that will take center stage in our later investigations. A well-versed reader is encouraged to skim these sections for completeness. On the other hand, readers who are not completely comfortable these topics are encouraged to read this chapter in full and accept the material mentioned without proof as black box. The mathematics presented in this chapter belongs to an analytic number theorist's tool box rather than being pure analytic number theory. In order to improve the readability of the remainder of the text we will use the results presented here without reference unless it is a matter of clarity. As for standard knowledge, we assume familiarity with basic number theory, complex analysis, real analysis, functional analysis, topology, and algebra. We have also outsourced specific subtopics to the appendix and we will reference them when necessary.

1.1 Notational Conventions

Here we make some notational conventions throughout the rest of the text unless specified otherwise:

- For the complex variables z , s , and u , we write

$$z = x + iy, \quad s = \sigma + it, \quad \text{and} \quad u = \tau + ir,$$

for the real and imaginary parts of these variables respectively. In some cases we make exceptions and this will always be clear from context. Moreover, in certain expressions we often write $\text{Im}(z)$ for clarity.

- The symbol ε denotes a small positive constant ($\varepsilon > 0$) that is not necessarily the same from line to line.
- If $a \in (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$, we will always let \bar{a} denote the multiplicative inverse. That is, $a\bar{a} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.
- For a sum \sum over integers satisfying a congruence condition, \sum' will denote the sum restricted to relatively prime integers satisfying the same congruence.
- We will write $\int_{(a)}$ for the complex integral over the line whose real part is a and with positive orientation.
- $\delta_{a,b}$ will denote the indicator function for $a = b$. That is, $\delta_{a,b} = 1, 0$ according to if $a = b$ or not.

1.2 Asymptotic Notation

Much of the language of analytic number theory is given in asymptotic notation as it allows us to discuss approximate growth and dispense with superfluous constants. For this reason, asymptotic notation is the first material that we will present. The asymptotic notations that we will cover are listed in the following table:

Estimate	Notation
Big O	$f(z) = O(g(z))$
Vinogradov's symbol	$f(z) \ll g(z)$
Order of magnitude symbol	$f(z) \asymp g(z)$
Little o	$f(z) = o(g(z))$
Asymptotic equivalence	$f(z) \sim g(z)$
Omega symbol	$f(z) = \Omega(g(z))$

Implicit in all of these estimates is some limiting process $z \rightarrow z_0$ where z_0 is some complex number or ∞ (and $\pm\infty$ for the real case respectively). If z_0 is finite, then it is understood that the estimate is assumed to hold for all z such that $|z - z_0| < \delta$ for some real $\delta > 0$. If z_0 is infinite, then the estimate is assumed to hold for all sufficiently large values of z . That is, $|z| > z_0$ for some z_0 (and $z > z_0$ or $z < z_0$ in the real case for $\pm\infty$ respectively). If the limiting process is not explicitly mentioned, it is assumed to be as $z \rightarrow \infty$ (or as $+\infty$ or $-\infty$ for the real case depending upon the context and even then we may exclude the sign for brevity).

Remark 1.2.1. Suppose $f, g : \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Extending $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ by making them piecewise linear so that $f, g : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is piecewise continuous, we can consider estimates with n in place of z . All of the following theory still holds. Moreover, if we further take $f(x)$ or $g(x)$ to be a constant function, the following theory will still hold.

O-estimates & Symbols

We say $f(z)$ is of order $g(z)$ or $f(z)$ is $O(g(z))$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ and write $f(z) = O(g(z))$ if there is some positive constant c such that

$$|f(z)| \leq c|g(z)|,$$

holds as $z \rightarrow z_0$. We call this a ***O*-estimate**.

Remark 1.2.2. *Many authors assume that $g(z)$ is a nonnegative function so that the absolute values on $g(z)$ can be dropped. As we require other forms of asymptotic notation that will be used more generally, we do not make this assumption since one could very well replace $O(g(z))$ with $O(|g(z)|)$. In practice this deviation causes no issue.*

As a symbol, let $O(g(z))$ stand for a function $f(z)$ that is $O(g(z))$. Then we may use the *O*-estimates in algebraic equations. Note that this extends the definition of the symbol because $f(z) = O(g(z))$ means $f(z)$ is $O(g(z))$. The *O*-estimate says that for z close to z_0 , the size of $f(z)$ grows like $g(z)$. The constant c is not unique as any $c' > c$ also works. Any such constant is called the **implicit constant** of the *O*-estimate. The implicit constant may depend on one or more parameters, ε , σ , etc. If we wish to make these dependences known, we use subscripts O_ε , O_σ , $O_{\varepsilon,\sigma}$, etc. If it is possible to choose the implicit constant independent of a certain parameter then we say that the estimate is **uniform** with respect to that parameter. Moreover, we say that an implicit constant is **effective** if the constant is numerically computable and **ineffective** otherwise. Moreover, if we are interested in the dependence of the estimate on a certain parameter, say p , we will refer to the ***p*-aspect** to mean the part of the estimate that is dependent upon p .

The symbol \ll is known as **Vinogradov's symbol** is an alternative way to express *O*-estimates. We write $f(z) \ll g(z)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ if $f(z) = O(g(z))$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$. We also write $f(z) \gg g(z)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ to mean $g(z) \ll f(z)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$. If there is a dependence of the implicit constant on parameters, we use subscripts to denote dependence on these parameters. If both $f(z) \ll g(z)$ and $g(z) \ll f(z)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$, then we say $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ have the **same order of magnitude** and write $f(z) \asymp g(z)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$. This is different from the *O*-estimate in the respect that for z close to z_0 , $f(z)$ grows like $g(z)$ and conversely $g(z)$ grows like $f(z)$. In other words, $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ grow the same. If there is a dependence of the implicit constant on parameters, we use subscripts to denote dependence on these parameters. From the definition of the *O*-estimate, this is equivalent to the existence of positive constants c_1 and c_2 such that

$$c_1|g(z)| \leq |f(z)| \leq c_2|g(z)|.$$

Equivalently, we can interchange $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ in the above equation.

***o*-estimates & Symbols**

We say $f(z)$ is **of smaller order than** $g(z)$ or $f(z)$ is $o(g(z))$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ and write $f(z) = o(g(z))$ if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \left| \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} \right| = 0,$$

provided $g(z) \neq 0$ for all z sufficiently close to z_0 . We call this a ***o*-estimate**. The *o*-estimate says that for z close to z_0 , $g(z)$ dominates $f(z)$. If $f(z) = o(g(z))$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$, then $f(z) = O(g(z))$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ where the implicit constant can be taken arbitrarily small by definition of the *o*-estimate. Therefore, *o*-estimates are stronger than *O*-estimates. As a symbol, let $o(g(z))$ stand for a function $f(z)$ that is $o(g(z))$. Then we may use the *o*-estimates in algebraic equations. Note that this extends the definition of the symbol because $f(z) = o(g(z))$ means $f(z)$ is $o(g(z))$.

We say $f(z)$ is **asymptotic to** $g(z)$ or $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ are **asymptotically equivalent** as $z \rightarrow z_0$ and write $f(z) \sim g(z)$ if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \left| \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} \right| = 1,$$

provided $g(z) \neq 0$ for all z sufficiently close to z_0 . It is useful to think of asymptotic equivalence as $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ being the same size in the limit as $z \rightarrow z_0$. Immediately from the definition, we see that this is an equivalence relation on functions. In particular, if $f(z) \sim g(z)$ and $g(z) \sim h(z)$ then $f(z) \sim h(z)$. Also, if $f(z) \sim g(z)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$, then $f(z) \asymp g(z)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ with $c_1 \leq 1 \leq c_2$. So asymptotic equivalence is stronger than being of the same order of magnitude. Also note that $f(x) \sim g(x)$ is equivalent to $f(x) = g(x)(1 + o(1))$ and hence implies $f(x) = g(x)(1 + O(1))$. We write $f(z) = \Omega(g(z))$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ if

$$\limsup_{z \rightarrow z_0} \left| \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} \right| > 0.$$

This is precisely the negation of $f(z) = o(g(z))$, so that $f(z) = \Omega(g(z))$ means $f(z) = o(g(z))$ is false. In other words, for z near z_0 the growth of $g(z)$ does not dominate the growth of $f(z)$. This is weaker than $f(z) \gg g(z)$ because $f(z) = \Omega(g(z))$ means $|f(z)| \geq c|g(z)|$ for values of z arbitrarily close to z_0 whereas $f(z) \gg g(z)$ means $|f(z)| \geq c|g(z)|$ for all values of z sufficiently close to z_0 .

Algebraic Manipulation for O -estimates and o -estimates

Asymptotic estimates become increasingly more useful when we can use them in equations to represent approximations. We catalogue some of the most useful algebraic manipulations for O -estimates and o -estimates. Most importantly, if an algebraic equation involves a O -estimate or o -estimate then it is understood that the equation is not symmetric and is interpreted to be read from left to right. That is, any function of the form satisfying the estimate on the left-hand side also satisfies the estimate on the right-hand side too. We begin with O -estimates. The trivial algebraic manipulations are collected in the proposition below:

Proposition 1.2.1. *The following O -estimates hold as $z \rightarrow z_0$:*

- (i) *If $f(z) = O(g(z))$ and $g(z) = O(h(z))$, then $f(z) = O(h(z))$. Equivalently, $O(O(h(z))) = O(h(z))$.*
- (ii) *If $f_i(z) = O(g_i(z))$ for $i = 1, 2$, then $f_1(z)f_2(z) = O(g_1(z)g_2(z))$.*
- (iii) *If $f(z) = O(g(z)h(z))$, then $f(z) = g(z)O(h(z))$.*
- (iv) *If $f_i(z) = O(g_i(z))$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, then $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} f_i(z) = O\left(\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} |g_i(z)|\right)$.*
- (v) *If $f_n(z) = O(g_n(z))$ for $n \geq 1$, then $\sum_{n \geq 1} f_n(z) = O\left(\sum_{n \geq 1} |g_n(z)|\right)$ provided both $\sum_{n \geq 1} f_n(z)$ and $\sum_{n \geq 1} |g_n(z)|$ converge.*
- (vi) *If $f(z) = O(g(z))$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ and $h(z)$ is such that $h(z) \rightarrow z_0$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$, then $(f \circ h)(z) = O((g \circ h)(z))$.*
- (vii) *If $f(z) = O(g(z))$, then $\operatorname{Re}(f(z)) = O(g(z))$ and $\operatorname{Im}(f(z)) = O(g(z))$.*

Proof. Statements (i)-(iii) and (vi) follow immediately from the definition of the O -estimate. Statement (iv) follows from the definition and the triangle inequality. Statement (v) follows in the same way as (iv) given that both sums converge. Statement (vii) follows from the definition and the bounds $|x| \leq |z|$ and $|\operatorname{Im}(z)| \leq |z|$. \square

We will also often use Proposition 1.2.1 (vi) in the case of the input for a function. The most common instances will be when $z \asymp w$ or $z \sim w$ (the latter case implying the former) where w is a function of z (usually one that is more simple than z itself). Taking $h(z) = w$, Proposition 1.2.1 (vi) says that if $f(z) = O(g(z))$ then $f(w) = O(g(w))$. In terms of Vinogradov's symbol, $f(z) \ll g(z)$ implies $f(w) \ll g(w)$. O -estimates also behave well with respect to integrals provided the functions involved are of a real variable:

Proposition 1.2.2. Suppose $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ are functions of a real variable, $f(z) = O(g(z))$ as $z \rightarrow \infty$, $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ are integrable on the region where this estimate holds, and let $[z_1, z_2]$ belong to this region. Then

$$\int_{z_1}^{z_2} f(z) dz = O\left(\int_{z_1}^{z_2} |g(z)| dz\right).$$

Proof. This follows immediately from the definition of the O -estimate. □

The next proposition is a collection of some useful expressions for simplifying equations involving O -estimates:

Proposition 1.2.3. Let $f(z)$ be a function such that $f(z) \rightarrow 0$ as $z \rightarrow 0$. The following O -estimates hold as $z \rightarrow 0$:

- (i) $\frac{1}{1+O(f(z))} = 1 + O(f(z))$.
- (ii) $(1 + O(f(z)))^p = 1 + O(f(z))$ for any complex number p .
- (iii) $\log(1 + O(f(z))) = O(f(z))$.
- (iv) $e^{1+O(f(z))} = 1 + O(f(z))$.

Proof. Taking the Taylor series truncated after the first term and applying Taylor's theorem, we have the O -estimates

- (i) $\frac{1}{1+z} = 1 + O(z)$.
- (ii) $(1+z)^p = 1 + O(z)$.
- (iii) $\log(1+z) = O(z)$.
- (iv) $e^z = 1 + O(z)$.

Now apply Proposition 1.2.1 (v) with $h(z) = O(f(z))$ to each of these estimates, and use Proposition 1.2.1 (i). □

For o -estimates, the following properties are useful:

Proposition 1.2.4. The following o -estimates hold as $z \rightarrow z_0$:

- (i) If $f(z) = o(g(z))$ and $g(z) = o(h(z))$, then $f(z) = o(h(z))$. Equivalently, $o(o(h(z))) = o(h(z))$.
- (ii) If $f_i(z) = o(g_i(z))$ for $i = 1, 2$, then $f_1(z)f_2(z) = o(g_1(z)g_2(z))$.
- (iii) If $f(z) = o(g(z)h(z))$, then $f(z) = g(z)o(h(z))$.
- (iv) If $f_i(z) = o(g_i(z))$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, then $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} f_i(z) = o\left(\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} |g_i(z)|\right)$.
- (v) If $f(z) = o(g(z))$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ and $h(z)$ is such that $h(z) \rightarrow z_0$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$, then $(f \circ h)(z) = o((g \circ h)(z))$.

Proof. Statements (i)-(iii) and (v) follow immediately from the definition of the o -estimate and basic properties of limits. Statement (iv) follows from the definition and that $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} |g_i(z)| \geq |g_i(z)|$ for any $1 \leq i \leq n$. □

Growth of Functions

We will also be interested in the growth rate of functions. We can compactly express these types of growth using asymptotic notation. There are many types of growth rates, but we will only recall the ones that will be of use to us. Let $f(z)$ be a complex function and let $z \rightarrow z_0$. If $f(z) = O(\log(z))$ we say that $f(z)$ is of **logarithmic growth**. If $f(z) = O(z^c)$, for some $c \in \mathbb{R}$, we say that $f(z)$ is of **polynomial growth**. If $f(z) = o(e^z)$, we say that $f(z)$ is of **moderate growth**. If $f(z) = O(e^z)$, we say that $f(z)$ is of **exponential growth**. Now suppose $z \rightarrow \infty$. If $f(z) = o(\log^{-1}(z))$ we say that $f(z)$ is of **logarithmic decay**. If $f(z) = o(x^{-c})$ for some $c \geq 1$, we say that $f(z)$ has **polynomial decay**. If $f(z) = o(x^{-c})$ for all $c \geq 1$, we say that $f(z)$ has **moderate decay**. If $f(z) = o(e^{-z})$, we say that $f(z)$ has **exponential decay**.

1.3 Dirichlet Characters

The most important multiplicative periodic functions for an analytic number theorist are the Dirichlet characters. A **Dirichlet character** χ modulo $m \geq 1$ (or of modulus $m \geq 1$) is an m -periodic completely multiplicative function $\chi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $\chi(a) = 0$ if and only if $(a, m) > 1$. Sometimes we will also write χ_m to denote a Dirichlet character modulo m if we need to express the dependence upon the modulus. For any m , there is always the **principal Dirichlet character** modulo m which we denote by $\chi_{m,0}$ (sometimes also seen as $\chi_{0,m}$ or the ever more confusing χ_0) and is defined by

$$\chi_{m,0}(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & (a, m) = 1, \\ 0 & (a, m) > 1. \end{cases}$$

When $m = 1$, the principal Dirichlet character is identically 1 and we call this the **trivial Dirichlet character**. This is also the only Dirichlet character modulo 1, so $\chi_1 = \chi_{1,0}$. In general, we say a Dirichlet character χ is **principal** if it only takes values 0 or 1. We now discuss some basic facts of Dirichlet characters. Since $a^{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ by Euler's little theorem, where φ is Euler's totient function, the multiplicativity of χ implies $\chi(a)^{\varphi(m)} = 1$. Therefore the nonzero values of χ_m are $\varphi(m)$ -th roots of unity. In particular, there are only finitely many Dirichlet characters of any fixed modulus m . Given two Dirichlet character χ and ψ modulo m , we define $\chi\psi$ by $\chi\psi(a) = \chi(a)\psi(a)$. This is also a Dirichlet character modulo m , so the Dirichlet characters modulo m form an abelian group denoted by X_m . If we have a Dirichlet character χ modulo m , then $\bar{\chi}$ defined by $\bar{\chi}(a) = \overline{\chi(a)}$ is also a Dirichlet character modulo m and is called the **conjugate Dirichlet character** of χ . Since the nonzero values of χ are roots of unity, if $(a, m) = 1$ then $\bar{\chi}(a) = \chi(a)^{-1}$. So $\bar{\chi}$ is the inverse of χ . This is all strikingly similar to characters on $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$ (see Appendix C.1), and there is a connection. To see it, by the periodicity of χ , it's nonzero values are uniquely determined by $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$. Then since χ is multiplicative, it descends to a character χ of $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$ (we abuse notation here). Conversely, if we are given a character χ of $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$ we can extend it to a Dirichlet character by defining it to be m -periodic and declaring $\chi(a) = 0$ if $(a, m) > 1$. We call this extension the **zero extension**. So in other words, Dirichlet characters modulo m are the zero extensions of group characters on $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$. Clearly zero-extension respects multiplication of characters. As groups are isomorphic to their character groups (see Proposition C.1.1), we deduce that the group of Dirichlet characters modulo m is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$. That is, $X_m \cong (\widehat{\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}})^* \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$. In particular, there are $\varphi(m)$ Dirichlet characters modulo m . From now on we identify Dirichlet characters modulo m with their corresponding group characters of $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$. We now state two very useful relations called **orthogonality relations** for Dirichlet characters (this follows from the more general orthogonality relations in Appendix C.1 but we wish to give a direct proof):

Proposition 1.3.1.

(i) For any two Dirichlet characters χ and ψ modulo m ,

$$\frac{1}{\varphi(m)} \sum'_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) \overline{\psi}(a) = \delta_{\chi, \psi}.$$

(ii) For any $a, b \in (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$,

$$\frac{1}{\varphi(m)} \sum_{\chi \pmod{m}} \chi(a) \overline{\chi}(b) = \delta_{a, b}.$$

Proof. We will prove the statements separately.

(i) Denote the left-hand side by S and let b be such that $(b, m) = 1$. Then $a \rightarrow ab^{-1}$ is a bijection on $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$ so that

$$\frac{\chi(b) \overline{\psi}(b)}{\varphi(m)} \sum'_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) \overline{\psi}(a) = \frac{1}{\varphi(m)} \sum'_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(ab) \overline{\psi}(ab) = \frac{1}{\varphi(m)} \sum'_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) \overline{\psi}(a).$$

Consequently $\chi(b) \overline{\psi}(b) S = S$ so that $S = 0$ unless $\chi(b) \overline{\psi}(b) = 1$ for all b such that $(b, m) = 1$. This happens if and only if $\psi = \chi$ in which case $S = 1$. This proves (i).

(ii) Denote the left-hand side by S . Let ψ be any Dirichlet character modulo m . As $\chi \rightarrow \chi \overline{\psi}$ is a bijection on X_m , we have

$$\frac{\psi(a) \overline{\psi}(b)}{\varphi(m)} \sum_{\chi \pmod{m}} \chi(a) \overline{\chi}(b) = \frac{1}{\varphi(m)} \sum_{\chi \pmod{m}} \psi \chi(a) \overline{\psi \chi}(b) = \frac{1}{\varphi(m)} \sum_{\chi \pmod{m}} \chi(a) \overline{\chi}(b).$$

Therefore $\psi(a) \overline{\psi}(b) S = S$ so that $S = 0$ unless $\psi(a) \overline{\psi}(b) = \psi(a \overline{b}) = 1$ for all Dirichlet characters ψ modulo m . If this happens, then $a \overline{b} = 1 \pmod{m}$, or equivalently, $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$. Indeed, let $m = p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k}$ be the prime factorization of m . By the classification theorem for finite abelian groups,

$$(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^* \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p_1^{r_1}\mathbb{Z})^* \times (\mathbb{Z}/p_2^{r_2}\mathbb{Z})^* \times \cdots \times (\mathbb{Z}/p_k^{r_k}\mathbb{Z})^*.$$

Now let n_i be a generator for the cyclic group $(\mathbb{Z}/p_i^{r_i}\mathbb{Z})^*$ and let ω_i be a primitive $p_i^{r_i}$ -th root of unity for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Writing $a \overline{b} = n_1^{f_1} n_2^{f_2} \cdots n_k^{f_k}$, consider the Dirichlet character ψ modulo m defined by

$$\psi(n_1^{e_1} n_2^{e_2} \cdots n_k^{e_k}) = \omega_1^{e_1 f_1} \omega_2^{e_2 f_2} \cdots \omega_r^{e_r f_r}.$$

We have

$$\psi(1) = \omega_1^{f_1} \omega_2^{f_2} \cdots \omega_r^{f_r}.$$

As w_i has order $p_i^{r_i}$ and $0 \leq f_i < p_i^{r_i} - 1$ for all i , the only way $\psi(1) = 1$ is if $f_i = 0$ for all i . Therefore $a \overline{b} = 1 \pmod{m}$. In this case $S = 1$. This proves (ii). \square

In many practical settings, the orthogonality relations are often used in the following form:

Corollary 1.3.1.

(i) For any Dirichlet character χ modulo m ,

$$\frac{1}{\varphi(m)} \sum'_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) = \delta_{\chi, \chi_{m,0}}.$$

(ii) For any $a \in (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$,

$$\frac{1}{\varphi(m)} \sum_{\chi \pmod{m}} \chi(a) = \delta_{a,1}.$$

Proof. For (i), take $\psi = \chi_{m,0}$ in Proposition 1.3.1 (i). For (ii), take $b \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ in Proposition 1.3.1 (ii). \square

Now that we understand the basics of Dirichlet characters, we might be interested in computing them. This is not hard to do by hand for small m . For example, the table below gives the Dirichlet characters modulo 5 where i in $\chi_{5,i}$ is an indexing variable:

	0	1	2	3	4
$\chi_{5,0}$	0	1	1	1	1
$\chi_{5,1}$	0	1	i	$-i$	-1
$\chi_{5,2}$	0	1	$-i$	i	-1
$\chi_{5,3}$	0	1	-1	-1	1

If the modulus is large this is of course more difficult. However, there is a way to build Dirichlet characters modulo m_2 from those modulo m_1 . Let χ_{m_1} be a Dirichlet character modulo m_1 . If $m_1 \mid m_2$ then $(a, m_2) = 1$ implies $(a, m_1) = 1$. Therefore we can define a Dirichlet character χ_{m_2} by

$$\chi_{m_2}(a) = \begin{cases} \chi_{m_1}(a) & \text{if } (a, m_2) = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } (a, m_2) > 1. \end{cases}$$

In this case, we say χ_{m_2} is **induced** from χ_{m_1} or that χ_{m_1} **lifts** to χ_{m_2} . All that is happening is χ_{m_2} is a Dirichlet character modulo m_2 whose values are given by those that χ_{m_1} takes. Clearly every Dirichlet character is induced from itself. On the other hand, provided there is a prime p dividing m_2 and not m_1 (so m_2 is a larger modulus), χ_{m_2} will be different from χ_{m_1} . For instance, $\chi_{m_2}(p) = 0$ but $\chi_{m_1}(p) \neq 0$. In general, we say a Dirichlet character is **primitive** if it is not induced by any character other than itself. Notice that the principal Dirichlet characters are precisely those Dirichlet characters induced from the trivial Dirichlet character, and the only primitive one is the trivial Dirichlet character. In any case, we can determine when Dirichlet characters are induced:

Proposition 1.3.2. *A Dirichlet character χ_{m_2} is induced from a Dirichlet character χ_{m_1} if and only if χ_{m_2} is constant on the residue classes in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})^*$ that are congruent modulo m_1 . When this happens, χ_{m_1} is uniquely determined.*

Proof. For the forward implication, if χ_{m_2} is induced from χ_{m_1} , then χ_{m_2} is constant on the residue classes in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})^*$ that are congruent modulo m_1 because χ_{m_1} is. For the reverse implication, we first show that the reduction modulo m_1 map $\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}$ induces a surjective homomorphism

$\Phi : (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})^* \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z})^*$. For $u_1 \in (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z})^*$, let a be the product of all primes dividing $\frac{m_2}{m_1}$ but not u_1 . Then $u_2 = u_1 + m_1a$ is not divisible by any prime p dividing m_1 or $\frac{m_2}{m_1}$. Hence $(u_2, m_2) = 1$ so that $u_2 \in (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})^*$. Note that a is uniquely determined by u_1 so that u_2 is uniquely determined and hence Φ is unique. It's also a homomorphism because reduction modulo m_1 is. Now suppose χ_{m_2} is constant on the residue classes in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})^*$ that are congruent modulo m_1 . Surjectivity of Φ implies χ_{m_2} induces a unique group character on $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z})^*$ and hence a unique Dirichlet character modulo m_1 . By construction χ_{m_2} is induced from χ_{m_1} . \square

Why might we be interested in primitive Dirichlet characters? The reason is that the primitive Dirichlet character are the building blocks for all Dirichlet characters:

Theorem 1.3.1. *Every Dirichlet character χ is induced from a primitive Dirichlet character $\tilde{\chi}$ that is uniquely determined by χ .*

Proof. Let the modulus of χ be m . Define a partial ordering on the set of Dirichlet characters where $\psi \leq \chi$ if χ is induced from ψ . This ordering is clearly reflexive, and it is transitive by Proposition 1.3.2. Set $X = \{\psi : \psi \leq \chi\}$. This set is nonempty, and is finite by Proposition 1.3.2. Now suppose $\chi_{m_1}, \chi_{m_2} \in X$. Setting $m_3 = (m_1, m_2)$, and we have a commuting square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^* & \xrightarrow{\Phi} & (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z})^* \\ \Phi \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})^* & \longrightarrow & (\mathbb{Z}/m_3\mathbb{Z})^* \end{array}$$

where Φ is as in Proposition 1.3.2. Also from Proposition 1.3.2, χ is constant on the residue classes of $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$ that are congruent modulo m_1 or m_2 and hence also m_3 . Therefore Proposition 1.3.2 implies there is a unique Dirichlet character χ_{m_3} modulo m_3 that lifts to χ_{m_1} and χ_{m_2} . We have now shown that every pair $\chi_{m_1}, \chi_{m_2} \in X$ has a lower bound χ_{m_3} . Hence X contains a primitive Dirichlet character $\tilde{\chi}$ that is minimal with respect to this partial ordering. There is only one such element. Indeed, since $m_3 \leq m_1, m_2$ the partial ordering is compatible with the total ordering by period. Thus $\tilde{\chi}$ is unique. \square

In light of Theorem 1.3.1, we define **conductor** q of a Dirichlet character χ modulo m to be the period of the unique primitive character $\tilde{\chi}$ that induces χ . This is the most important data of a Dirichlet character since it tells us how χ is built. Note that χ is primitive if and only if its conductor and modulus are equal. Also observe that if χ has conductor q , then χ is q -periodic (necessarily $q \mid m$), and the nonzero values of χ are all q -th roots of unity because those are the nonzero values of $\tilde{\chi}$. Moreover, $\chi = \tilde{\chi}\chi_{\frac{m}{q},0}$ by the definition of induced Dirichlet characters. We would also like to distinguish Dirichlet characters whose nonzero values are real or imaginary. We say χ is **real** if it is real-valued. Hence the nonzero values of χ are 1 or -1 since they must be roots of unity. We say χ is an **complex** if it is not real. More commonly, we distinguish Dirichlet characters modulo m by their order as an element of $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$. If χ is of order 2, 3, etc in $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$ then we say it is **quadratic**, **cubic**, etc. In particular, a Dirichlet character is quadratic if and only if it is real. For example, if m is odd then the Jacobi symbol $(\frac{\cdot}{m})$ is a quadratic Dirichlet character. We will often let χ_m denote this quadratic Dirichlet character but we will always mention this explicitly when we do so. For any Dirichlet character χ , $\chi(-1) = \pm 1$ because $\chi(-1)^2 = 1$. We would like to distinguish this parity. Accordingly, we say χ is **even** if $\chi(-1) = 1$ and **odd** if $\chi(-1) = -1$. Clearly even Dirichlet characters are even functions and odd Dirichlet characters are odd functions. Moreover, χ and $\bar{\chi}$ have the same parity and any lift of χ has the same parity as χ .

1.4 Special Sums

Analytic number theory does not come without its class of special sums that appear naturally. They play the role of discrete counterparts to continuous objects (there is a rich underpinning here). Without a sufficient understanding of these sums, they would cause a discrete obstruction to an analytic problem that we wish to solve.

Ramanujan Sums

Let's begin with the Ramanujan sum. For a positive integer m and any integer b , the **Ramanujan sum** $r(b; m)$ is defined by

$$r(b; m) = \sum'_{a \pmod{m}} e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}}.$$

Note that the Ramanujan sum is a finite sum of m -th roots of unity on the unit circle. Clearly $r(0; m) = \varphi(m)$. Ramanujan sums can be computed explicitly by means of the Möbius function (see Appendix A.1):

Proposition 1.4.1. *For any positive integer m and any nonzero $b \in \mathbb{Z}$,*

$$r(b; m) = \sum_{\ell | (b, m)} \ell \mu\left(\frac{m}{\ell}\right).$$

Proof. This is a computation:

$$\begin{aligned} r(b; m) &= \sum'_{a \pmod{m}} e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} \\ &= \sum_{a \pmod{m}} e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} \sum_{d | (a, m)} \mu(d) && \text{Proposition A.2.1} \\ &= \sum_{d | m} \mu(d) \sum_{\substack{a \pmod{m} \\ d | a}} e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} \\ &= \sum_{d | m} \mu(d) \sum_{kd \pmod{m}} e^{\frac{2\pi i kdb}{m}} && a \rightarrow kd. \\ &= \sum_{d | m} \mu(d) \sum_{k \pmod{\frac{m}{d}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i kb}{\frac{m}{d}}}. \end{aligned}$$

Now if $\frac{m}{d} \mid b$ the inner sum is $\frac{m}{d}$, and otherwise it is zero because $k \rightarrow k\bar{b}$ is a bijection on $\mathbb{Z}/\frac{m}{d}\mathbb{Z}$ and thus we are summing over all $(\frac{m}{d})$ -th roots of unity. So the double sum above reduces to

$$\sum_{\substack{\frac{m}{d} \mid b \\ d | m}} \frac{m}{d} \mu(d) = \sum_{\ell | (b, m)} \ell \mu\left(\frac{m}{\ell}\right),$$

upon performing the change of variables $\frac{m}{d} \rightarrow \ell$. □

Gauss Sums

When we take a Ramanujan sum and introduce a Dirichlet character we get a Gauss sums. Let χ be a Dirichlet character modulo m . For any $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, the **Gauss sum** $\tau(b, \chi)$ attached to χ is given by

$$\tau(b, \chi) = \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} = \sum'_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}},$$

where the last equality follows because $\chi(a) = 0$ unless $(a, m) = 1$. If $b = 1$ we will write $\tau(\chi)$ instead. That is, $\tau(\chi) = \tau(1, \chi)$. Gauss sums are interesting because the Dirichlet character is a multiplicative character while the exponential is an additive one. So the Gauss sums is a convolution between a multiplicative and additive character. This is the fundamental reason that makes them difficult to study as one needs to separate the additive and multiplicative structures. Observe that if $m = 1$ then χ is the trivial character and $\tau(b, \chi) = 1$. So the interesting cases are when $m \geq 2$. There are some basic properties of Gauss sums that are very useful:

Proposition 1.4.2. *Let χ and ψ be nontrivial Dirichlet characters modulo m and n respectively and let $b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then the following hold:*

- (i) $\overline{\tau(b, \chi)} = \chi(-1)\tau(b, \bar{\chi})$.
- (ii) If $(b, m) = 1$, then $\tau(b, \chi) = \bar{\chi}(b)\tau(\chi)$.
- (iii) If $(b, m) > 1$ and χ is primitive, then $\tau(b, \chi) = 0$.
- (iv) If $(m, n) = 1$, then $\tau(b, \chi\psi) = \chi(n)\psi(m)\tau(b, \chi)\tau(b, \psi)$.
- (v) Let q be the conductor of χ and let $\tilde{\chi}$ be the primitive Dirichlet character that lifts to χ . Then

$$\tau(\chi) = \mu\left(\frac{m}{q}\right) \tilde{\chi}\left(\frac{m}{q}\right) \tau(\tilde{\chi}).$$

Proof. We will prove the statements separately.

- (i) Observe that $a \rightarrow -a$ is an isomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\tau(b, \chi)} &= \overline{\sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}}} \\ &= \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \bar{\chi}(a) e^{-\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} \\ &= \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(-a) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} \\ &= \chi(-1) \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} \\ &= \chi(-1) \tau(b, \chi), \end{aligned}$$

and (i) follows.

(ii) The map $a \rightarrow a\bar{b}$ is an isomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ since $(b, m) = 1$. Therefore

$$\tau(b, \chi) = \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} = \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a\bar{b}) e^{\frac{2\pi i a}{m}} = \bar{\chi}(b) \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i a}{m}} = \bar{\chi}(b) \tau(\chi),$$

and (ii) is proven.

(iii) Now fix a divisor $d < m$ of m and choose an integer c such that $c \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. Then necessarily $(c, m) = 1$. As $d \mid m$, $c \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$ and $(c, d) = 1$. Moreover, there is such a c with the additional property that $\chi(c) \neq 1$. For if not, χ is induced from $\chi_{d,0}$ which contradicts χ being primitive. Now set $d = \frac{m}{(b,m)} < m$ and choose c as above. Since $(c, m) = 1$, $a \rightarrow a\bar{c}$ is a bijection on $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$, so that

$$\chi(c) \tau(b, \chi) = \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(ac) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} = \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab\bar{c}}{m}}.$$

As $e^{\frac{2\pi i b}{m}}$ is a d -th root of unity, and $\bar{c} \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$ (because c is and $d \mid m$) we have $e^{\frac{2\pi i ab\bar{c}}{m}} = e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}}$. Thus the last sum above is $\tau(b, \chi)$. So altogether $\chi(c) \tau(b, \chi) = \tau(b, \chi)$. Since $\chi(c) \neq 1$, we conclude $\tau(b, \chi) = 0$ proving (iii).

There exists some integer c with $(c, m) = 1$ such that $\chi(c) \neq 1$, for if not χ would be principal modulo $m \geq 2$ and therefore not primitive.

(iv) Since $(m, n) = 1$, the Chinese remainder theorem implies that $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z})$ via the isomorphism $(a, b) \rightarrow an + a'm$ with a taken modulo m and a' taken modulo n . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \tau(b, \chi\psi) &= \sum_{an+a'm \pmod{mn}} \chi\psi(an+a'm) e^{\frac{2\pi i (an+a'm)b}{mn}} \\ &= \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \sum_{a' \pmod{n}} \chi\psi(an+a'm) e^{\frac{2\pi i (an+a'm)b}{mn}} \\ &= \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \sum_{a' \pmod{n}} \chi(an+a'm) \psi(an+a'm) e^{\frac{2\pi i (an+a'm)b}{mn}} \\ &= \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \sum_{a' \pmod{n}} \chi(an) \psi(a'm) e^{\frac{2\pi i (an+a'm)b}{mn}} \\ &= \chi(n) \psi(m) \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \sum_{a' \pmod{n}} \chi(a) \psi(a') e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a'b}{n}} \\ &= \chi(n) \psi(m) \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} \sum_{a' \pmod{n}} \psi(a') e^{\frac{2\pi i a'b}{n}} \\ &= \chi(n) \psi(m) \tau(b, \chi) \tau(b, \psi). \end{aligned}$$

This proves (iv).

(v) If $\left(\frac{m}{q}, q\right) > 1$, then $\tilde{\chi}\left(\frac{m}{q}\right) = 0$ so we need to show $\tau(\chi) = 0$. As $\left(\frac{m}{q}, q\right) > 1$, there exists a prime p such that $p \mid \frac{m}{q}$ and $p \mid q$. By Euclidean division we may write any a modulo m in the form $a = a'\frac{m}{p} + a''$ with a' taken modulo p and a'' taken modulo $\frac{m}{p}$. Then

$$\tau(\chi) = \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i a}{m}} = \sum_{\substack{a' \pmod{p} \\ a'' \pmod{\frac{m}{p}}}} \chi\left(a'\frac{m}{p} + a''\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i (a'\frac{m}{p} + a'')}{m}}. \quad (1.1)$$

Since $p \mid \left(\frac{m}{q}, q\right)$, we have $p^2 \mid m$. Therefore $\left(a'\frac{m}{p} + a'', m\right) = 1$ if and only if $\left(a'\frac{m}{p} + a'', \frac{m}{p}\right) = 1$ and this latter condition is equivalent to $\left(a'', \frac{m}{p}\right) = 1$. Thus the last sum in Equation (1.1) is

$$\sum_{\substack{a' \pmod{p} \\ a'' \pmod{\frac{m}{p}} \\ (a'', \frac{m}{p})=1}} \chi\left(a'\frac{m}{p} + a''\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i(a'\frac{m}{p} + a'')}{m}}.$$

As $p \mid \frac{m}{q}$, we know $q \mid \frac{m}{p}$ so that $a'\frac{m}{p} + a'' \equiv a'' \pmod{q}$. Then Proposition 1.3.2 implies $\chi\left(a'\frac{m}{p} + a''\right) = \tilde{\chi}(a'')$ and this sum is further reduced to

$$\sum'_{a'' \pmod{\frac{m}{p}}} \tilde{\chi}(a'') e^{\frac{2\pi i a''}{m}} \sum_{a' \pmod{p}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a'}{p}}. \quad (1.2)$$

The inner sum in Equation (1.2) vanishes since it is the sum over all p -th roots of unity and thus $\tau(\chi) = 0$. Now suppose $\left(\frac{m}{q}, q\right) = 1$. Then (iv) implies

$$\tau(\chi) = \tau(\tilde{\chi}\chi_{\frac{m}{q},0}) = \tilde{\chi}\left(\frac{m}{q}\right) \chi_{\frac{m}{q},0}(q) \tau(\tilde{\chi}) \tau(\chi_{\frac{m}{q},0}) = \tau(\chi_{\frac{m}{q},0}) \tilde{\chi}\left(\frac{m}{q}\right) \tau(\tilde{\chi}).$$

Now observe that $\tau(\chi_{\frac{m}{q},0}) = r\left(1; \frac{m}{q}\right)$. By Proposition 1.4.1 we see that $r\left(1; \frac{m}{q}\right) = \mu\left(\frac{m}{q}\right)$ and (v) follows. \square

Notice that Proposition 1.4.2 reduces the evaluation of the Gauss sum $\tau(b, \chi)$ to that of $\tau(\chi)$ at least when χ is primitive. When χ is not primitive and $(b, m) > 1$ we need to appeal to evaluating $\tau(b, \chi)$ by more direct means. Evaluating $\tau(\chi)$ for general characters χ turns out to be a very difficult problem and is still open. However, it is not difficult to determine the modulus of $\tau(\chi)$ when χ is primitive:

Theorem 1.4.1. *Let χ be a primitive Dirichlet character of conductor q . Then*

$$|\tau(\chi)| = \sqrt{q}.$$

Proof. If χ is the trivial character this is obvious since $\tau(\chi) = 1$. So we may assume χ is nontrivial. Now this is just a computation:

$$\begin{aligned} |\tau(\chi)|^2 &= \tau(\chi) \overline{\tau(\chi)} \\ &= \sum_{a \pmod{q}} \tau(\chi) \overline{\chi}(a) e^{-\frac{2\pi i a}{q}} \\ &= \sum_{a \pmod{q}} \tau(a, \chi) e^{-\frac{2\pi i a}{q}} && \text{Proposition 1.4.2 (i) and (ii)} \\ &= \sum_{a \pmod{q}} \left(\sum_{a' \pmod{q}} \chi(a') e^{\frac{2\pi i a a'}{q}} \right) e^{-\frac{2\pi i a}{q}} \\ &= \sum_{a, a' \pmod{q}} \chi(a') e^{\frac{2\pi i a(a'-1)}{q}} \\ &= \sum_{a' \pmod{q}} \chi(a') \left(\sum_{a \pmod{q}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a(a'-1)}{q}} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Let $S(a')$ denote the inner sum. For the a' such that $a' - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, $S(a') = q$. Otherwise $a \rightarrow \overline{a(a' - 1)}$ is a bijection on $\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$ ($q \neq 1$ because χ is nontrivial) so that $S(a') = 0$ because it is the sum of all q -th roots of unity. It follows that the double sum is $\chi(1)q = q$. So altogether $|\tau(\chi)|^2 = q$ and hence $|\tau(\chi)| = \sqrt{q}$. \square

As an almost immediate corollary to Theorem 1.4.1, we deduce a useful expression for primitive Dirichlet characters of conductor q in terms of additive characters on $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})$:

Corollary 1.4.1. *Let χ be a primitive Dirichlet character of conductor q . Then*

$$\tau(n, \chi) = \overline{\chi}(n)\tau(\chi),$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. In particular,

$$\chi(n) = \frac{1}{\tau(\overline{\chi})} \sum_{a \pmod{q}} \overline{\chi}(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i a n}{q}},$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. If χ is the trivial character this is obvious since $\tau(n, \chi) = 1$. So assume χ is nontrivial. If $(n, q) = 1$, then the first identity is Proposition 1.4.2 (ii). If $(n, q) > 1$, then the first identity follows from Proposition 1.4.2 (iii) and that $\overline{\chi}(n) = 0$. This proves the first identity in full. For the second identity, first note that $\tau(\chi) \neq 0$ by Theorem 1.4.1. Replacing χ with $\overline{\chi}$, dividing the first identity by $\tau(\chi)$, and expanding the Gauss sum, gives the second identity. \square

In light of Theorem 1.4.1 we define the **epsilon factor** ε_χ for a Dirichlet character χ modulo m by

$$\varepsilon_\chi = \frac{\tau(\chi)}{\sqrt{m}}.$$

Theorem 1.4.1 says that this value lies on the unit circle when χ is primitive and not the trivial character. In any case, the question of the evaluation of Gauss sums further boils down to determining what value the epsilon factor is. This is the real difficulty as the epsilon factor is very hard to calculate and its value is not known for general Dirichlet characters. When χ is primitive, there is a simple relationship between ε_χ and $\varepsilon_{\overline{\chi}}$:

Proposition 1.4.3. *Let χ be a primitive Dirichlet character of conductor q . Then*

$$\varepsilon_\chi \varepsilon_{\overline{\chi}} = \chi(-1).$$

Proof. If χ is trivial this is obvious since $\varepsilon_\chi = \varepsilon_{\overline{\chi}} = 1$. So assume χ is nontrivial. By Proposition 1.4.2 (iii) and that ε_χ lies on the unit circle,

$$\varepsilon_\chi = \frac{\tau(\chi)}{\sqrt{q}} = \chi(-1) \frac{\overline{\tau(\chi)}}{\sqrt{q}} = \chi(-1) \varepsilon_{\overline{\chi}}^{-1},$$

from whence the statement follows. \square

Quadratic Gauss Sums

Another class of sums is a generalization of the Gauss sum in the case where the Dirichlet character is quadratic and given by the Jacobi symbol. For a positive integer m and any $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, the **quadratic Gauss sum** $g(b, m)$ is defined by

$$g(b, m) = \sum_{a \pmod{m}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a^2 b}{m}}.$$

If $b = 1$ we write $g(m)$ instead. That is, $g(m) = g(1, m)$. Our language is somewhat abusive since if χ_m is the quadratic Dirichlet character given by the Jacobi symbol, then we have the two quadratic Gauss sums $\tau(b, \chi_m)$ and $g(b, m)$. It turns out that $\tau(b, \chi_m) = g(b, m)$ if m is square-free. This will take a little work to prove. We first reduce to the case when $(b, m) = 1$:

Proposition 1.4.4. *Let m be a positive odd integer and let $b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then*

$$g(b, m) = (b, m) g\left(\frac{b}{(b, m)}, \frac{m}{(b, m)}\right).$$

Proof. By Euclidean division write any a modulo m in the form $a = a' \frac{m}{(b, m)} + a''$ with a' take modulo (b, m) and a'' take modulo $\frac{m}{(b, m)}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} g(b, m) &= \sum_{a \pmod{m}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a^2 b}{m}} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{a' \pmod{(b, m)} \\ a'' \pmod{\frac{m}{(b, m)}}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i \left(a' \frac{m}{(b, m)} + a''\right)^2 b}{m}} \\ &= \sum_{a'' \pmod{\frac{m}{(b, m)}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i (a'')^2 b}{m}} \sum_{a' \pmod{(b, m)}} e^{\frac{2\pi i \left(2a'' a' \frac{m}{(b, m)} + \left(a' \frac{m}{(b, m)}\right)^2\right) b}{m}} \\ &= \sum_{a'' \pmod{\frac{m}{(b, m)}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i (a'')^2 \frac{b}{(b, m)}}{\frac{m}{(b, m)}}} \sum_{a' \pmod{(b, m)}} e^{\frac{2\pi i \left(2a'' a' \frac{m}{(b, m)} + \left(a' \frac{m}{(b, m)}\right)^2\right) \frac{b}{(b, m)}}{\frac{m}{(b, m)}}} \\ &= (b, m) \sum_{a'' \pmod{\frac{m}{(b, m)}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i (a'')^2 \frac{b}{(b, m)}}{\frac{m}{(b, m)}}}, \end{aligned}$$

where the last line follows because $\left(2a'' a' \frac{m}{(b, m)} + \left(a' \frac{m}{(b, m)}\right)^2\right) \equiv 0 \pmod{\frac{m}{(b, m)}}$ and thus the second sum is (b, m) . The remaining sum is $g\left(\frac{b}{(b, m)}, \frac{m}{(b, m)}\right)$ which finishes the proof. \square

As a consequence of Proposition 1.4.4, we may always assume $(b, m) = 1$. Now we give an equivalent formulation of the Gauss sum attached to quadratic characters given by Jacobi symbols and show that in the case $m = p$ an odd prime, our two notions of quadratic Gauss sums agree:

Proposition 1.4.5. *Let m be a positive odd integer and let $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $(b, m) = 1$. Also let χ_m be the quadratic Dirichlet character given by the Jacobi symbol. Then*

$$\tau(b, \chi_m) = \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \left(1 + \left(\frac{a}{m}\right)\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i a b}{m}}.$$

Moreover, when $m = p$ is prime,

$$\tau(b, \chi_p) = g(b, p).$$

Proof. If $m = 1$ the claim is obvious since $\tau(b, \chi_1) = 1$ so assume $m > 1$. To prove the first statement, observe

$$\sum_{a \pmod{m}} \left(1 + \left(\frac{a}{m}\right)\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} = \sum_{a \pmod{m}} e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}} + \sum_{a \pmod{m}} \left(\frac{a}{m}\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{m}}.$$

The first sum on the right-hand side is zero as it is the sum over all m -th roots of unity since $(b, m) = 1$. This proves the first claim. Now let $m = p$ be an odd prime. From the definition of the Jacobi symbol we see that $1 + \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 2, 0$ depending on if a is a quadratic residue modulo p or not provided $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. If $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then $1 + \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$. Moreover, if a is a quadratic residue modulo p , then $a \equiv (a')^2 \pmod{p}$ for some a' . So on the one hand,

$$\tau(b, \chi_p) = \sum_{a \pmod{p}} \left(1 + \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i ab}{p}} = 1 + 2 \sum_{\substack{a \pmod{p} \\ a \equiv (a')^2 \pmod{p} \\ a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i (a')^2 b}{p}}.$$

On the other hand,

$$g(b, p) = 1 + \sum_{\substack{a \pmod{p} \\ a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a^2 b}{p}},$$

but this last sum counts every quadratic residue twice because $(-a)^2 = a^2$. Hence the two previous sums are equal. \square

Proposition 1.4.5 gives an equivalence between our two notions of quadratic Gauss sums, but we would like a similar result when m is square-free. In this direction, a series of reduction properties will be helpful:

Proposition 1.4.6. *Let m and n be positive integers, p be an odd prime, and let $b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then the following hold:*

- (i) *If $(b, p) = 1$, then $g(b, p^r) = pg(b, p^{r-2})$ for all $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $r \geq 2$.*
- (ii) *If $(m, n) = 1$ and $(b, mn) = 1$, then $g(b, mn) = g(bn, m)g(bm, n)$.*
- (iii) *If m is odd and $(b, m) = 1$, then $g(b, m) = \left(\frac{b}{m}\right)g(m)$ where $\left(\frac{b}{m}\right)$ is the Jacobi symbol.*

Proof. We will prove the statements separately.

- (i) First notice that

$$g(b, p^r) = \sum_{a \pmod{p^r}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a^2 b}{p^r}} = \sum'_{a \pmod{p^r}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a^2 b}{p^r}} + \sum_{a \pmod{p^{r-1}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a^2 b}{p^{r-2}}},$$

since every a modulo p satisfies $(a, p) = 1$ or not. By Euclidean division every element a modulo p^{r-1} is of the form $a = a'p^{r-2} + a''$ with a' taken modulo p and a'' taken modulo p^{r-2} . Since

$(a'p^{r-2} + a'') \equiv a'' \pmod{p^{r-2}}$, every a'' is counted p times modulo p^{r-2} . Along with the fact that $(a'p^{r-2} + a'')^2 \equiv (a'')^2 \pmod{p^{r-2}}$, these facts give the middle equality in the following chain:

$$\sum_{a \pmod{p^{r-1}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a^2 b}{p^{r-2}}} = \sum_{\substack{a' \pmod{p} \\ a'' \pmod{p^{r-2}}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i (a'p^{r-2} + a'')^2 b}{p^{r-2}}} = p \sum_{a'' \pmod{p}} e^{\frac{2\pi i (a'')^2 b}{p^{r-2}}} = pg(b, p^{r-2}).$$

It remains to show

$$\sum'_{a \pmod{p^r}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a^2 b}{p^r}},$$

is zero. This sum is exactly $r(b; p^r)$ so by Proposition 1.4.1, and that $(b, p) = 1$, we conclude

$$\sum'_{a \pmod{p^r}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a^2 b}{p^r}} = \mu(p^r) = 0,$$

because $r \geq 2$. This proves (i).

(ii) Observe

$$g(bn, m)g(bm, n) = \left(\sum_{a \pmod{m}} e^{\frac{2\pi i a^2 bn}{m}} \right) \left(\sum_{a' \pmod{n}} e^{\frac{2\pi i (a')^2 bm}{n}} \right) = \sum_{\substack{a \pmod{m} \\ a' \pmod{n}}} e^{\frac{2\pi i ((an)^2 + (a'm)^2)b}{mn}}.$$

Note that $e^{\frac{2\pi i ((an)^2 + (a'm)^2)b}{mn}}$ only depends upon $(an)^2 + (a'm)^2$ modulo mn . Clearly $(an + a'm)^2 \equiv (an)^2 + (a'm)^2 \pmod{mn}$, so set $a'' = an + a'm$ taken modulo mn . Since $(m, n) = 1$, the Chinese remainder theorem implies that $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z})$ via the isomorphism $(a, a') \rightarrow an + a'm$. Thus the last sum above is equal to

$$\sum_{a'' \pmod{mn}} e^{\frac{2\pi i (a'')^2 b}{mn}},$$

which is precisely $g(b, mn)$. So (ii) is proven.

(iii) The claim is obvious if $m = 1$ because $g(b, 1) = 1$ so assume $m > 1$. If $m = p$, then Proposition 1.4.5, Proposition 1.4.2 (ii), and that quadratic characters are their own conjugate altogether imply the claim. Now let $r \geq 1$ and assume by strong induction that the claim holds when $m = p^{r'}$ for all positive integers r' such that $r' < r$. Then by (i), we have

$$g(b, p^r) = pg(b, p^{r-2}) = \left(\frac{b}{p^{r-2}} \right) pg(p^{r-2}) = \left(\frac{b}{p^{r-2}} \right) g(p^r) = \left(\frac{b}{p^r} \right) g(p^r). \quad (1.3)$$

It now suffices to prove the claim when $m = p^r q^s$ where q is another odd prime and $s \geq 1$. Then by

(ii) and Equation (1.3), we compute

$$\begin{aligned}
g(b, p^r q^s) &= g(bq^s, p^r)g(bp^r, q^s) \\
&= \left(\frac{bq^s}{p^r}\right) \left(\frac{bp^r}{q^s}\right) g(p^r)g(q^s) \\
&= \left(\frac{b}{p^r}\right) \left(\frac{q^s}{p^r}\right) \left(\frac{b}{q^s}\right) \left(\frac{p^r}{q^s}\right) g(p^r)g(q^s) \\
&= \left(\frac{b}{p^r q^s}\right) \left(\frac{q^s}{p^r}\right) \left(\frac{p^r}{q^s}\right) g(p^r)g(q^s) \\
&= \left(\frac{b}{p^r q^s}\right) g(q^s, p^r)g(p^r, q^s) \\
&= \left(\frac{b}{p^r q^s}\right) g(p^r q^s).
\end{aligned}$$

This proves (iii). □

At last we can prove when our two notions of quadratic Gauss sums agree:

Theorem 1.4.2. *Suppose m is a positive square-free odd integer and let χ_m be the quadratic Dirichlet character given by the Jacobi symbol. Let $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $(b, m) = 1$. Then*

$$\tau(b, \chi_m) = g(b, m).$$

Proof. The claim is obvious if $m = 1$ because $\tau(b, \chi_1) = 1$ and $g(b, 1) = 1$ so assume $m > 1$. Since χ_m is quadratic, it suffices to prove the claim when $b = 1$ by Proposition 1.4.2 (ii) and Proposition 1.4.6 (iii). Now let $m = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k$ be the prime decomposition of m . Repeated application of Proposition 1.4.2 (iv) gives the first equality in the chain

$$\begin{aligned}
\tau(\chi) &= \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq k} \chi_{p_i}(p_j) \chi_{p_j}(p_i) \tau(\chi_{p_i}) \tau(\chi_{p_j}) \\
&= \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq k} \chi_{p_i}(p_j) \chi_{p_j}(p_i) g(p_i) g(p_j) \\
&= \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq k} g(p_j, p_i) g(p_i, p_j) \\
&= g(q).
\end{aligned}$$

This proves the claim. □

Now let's turn to Proposition 1.4.6 and the evaluation of the quadratic Gauss sum. Proposition 1.4.6 (ii) and (iii) reduce the evaluation of $g(b, m)$ for odd m and $(b, m) = 1$ to computing $g(p)$ for p an odd prime. As with the Gauss sum, it is not difficult to compute the modulus of the quadratic Gauss sum:

Theorem 1.4.3. *Let m be a positive odd integer. Then*

$$|g(m)| = \sqrt{m}.$$

Proof. By Proposition 1.4.6 (ii), it suffices to prove this when $m = p^r$ is a power of an odd prime. By Euclidean division write $r = 2n + r'$ for some positive integer n and with $r' = 0, 1$ depending on if r is even or odd respectively. Then Proposition 1.4.6 (i) implies

$$|g(p^r)|^2 = p^{2n} |g(p^{r'})|^2.$$

If $r' = 0$, then $2n = r$ so that $p^{2n} = p^r$. Thus $|g(p^r)| = \sqrt{p^r}$. If $r' = 1$, then Theorem 1.4.1 and Proposition 1.4.5 together imply $|g(p^{r'})|^2 = p$ so that the right-hand side above is $p^{2n+1} = p^r$ and again we have $|g(p^r)| = \sqrt{p^r}$. \square

Accordingly, we define the **epsilon factor** ε_m for a positive integer m by

$$\varepsilon_m = \frac{g(m)}{\sqrt{m}}.$$

Theorem 1.4.3 says that this value lies on the unit circle when m is odd. Thus the question of the evaluation of quadratic Gauss sums reduces to determining what the epsilon factor is. This was completely resolved and the original proof is due to Gauss in 1808 (see [Gau08]). He actually treated the case m is even as well. We have avoided discussing this because we will not need it in the following and many of the previous proofs need to be augmented when m is even (see [Lan94] for a treatment of the even case). As for the evaluation, one of the cleanest proofs uses analytic techniques (see [Lan94]) and the precise statement is the following:

Theorem 1.4.4. *Let m be a positive integer. Then*

$$\varepsilon_m = \begin{cases} (1+i) & \text{if } m \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \\ 1 & \text{if } m \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ 0 & \text{if } m \equiv 2 \pmod{4}, \\ i & \text{if } m \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

As an immediate corollary, this implies the evaluation of the epsilon factor ε_{χ_p} where χ_p is the quadratic Dirichlet character given by the Jacobi symbol for an odd prime p :

Corollary 1.4.2. *Let p be an odd prime and χ_p be the quadratic Dirichlet character given by the Jacobi symbol. Then*

$$\varepsilon_{\chi_p} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ i & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

Proof. The statement follows immediately from Theorem 1.4.4 and Proposition 1.4.5. \square

Kloosterman & Salié Sums

Our last class of sums generalize Ramanujan and Gauss sums. For a positive integer c and any integers n and m , the **Kloosterman sum** $K(n, m; c)$ is defined by

$$K(n, m; c) = \sum_{\substack{a \pmod{c} \\ (a, c)=1}} e^{\frac{2\pi i(an+\bar{a}m)}{c}} = \sum'_{a \pmod{c}} e^{\frac{2\pi i(an+\bar{a}m)}{c}}.$$

Notice that if either $n = 0$ or $m = 0$ then the Kloosterman sum reduces to a Ramanujan sum. Kloosterman sums have similar properties to those of Ramanujan and Gauss sums, but we will not need them. The only result we will need is a famous bound, often called the **Weil bound** for Kloosterman sums, proved by Weil (see [Wei48] for a proof):

Theorem 1.4.5 (Weil bound). *Let c be a positive integer and n and m be integers. Then*

$$|K(n, m; c)| \leq \sigma_0(c) \sqrt{(n, m, c)} \sqrt{c},$$

where $\sigma_0(c)$ is the divisor function.

Lastly, Salié sums are Kloosterman sums with Dirichlet characters. To be precise, for a positive integer c , any integers n and m , and a Dirichlet character χ with conductor $q \mid c$, the **Salié sum** $S_\chi(n, m; c)$ is defined by

$$S_\chi(n, m; c) = \sum_{\substack{a \pmod{c} \\ (a, c) = 1}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i(an + \bar{a}m)}{c}} = \sum'_{a \pmod{c}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i(an + \bar{a}m)}{c}}.$$

If either $n = 0$ or $m = 0$ then the Salié sum reduces to a Gauss sum.

1.5 Integral Methods & Transforms

Integral Methods

Complex integrals are a core backbone of analytic number theory and all too often the domain we are integrating over is unbounded. Accordingly, the functions we would like to work with should be integrable over these domains. One way to accomplish this would be to require that our functions are bounded:

Method 1.5.1. Suppose $f(z, x)$ is analytic on $\Omega \times D$ for some region Ω and we are given an integral

$$\int_D f(z, x) d\mu,$$

where D is an unbounded domain, $d\mu$ is a measure on D , and such that the following hold:

- (i) For any $z \in \Omega$, $f(z, x)$ is bounded on D .
- (ii) D has finite volume with respect to $d\mu$.

Then the integral is holomorphic in z . By Theorem B.1.2, it suffices to show that the integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded. Let K be a compact subset of Ω . As $f(z, x)$ is bounded on D for any z , $f(z, x)$ is locally absolutely uniformly bounded on $K \times D$. Then

$$\int_D f(z, x) d\mu \ll \int_D d\mu \ll 1,$$

because D has finite volume with respect to $d\mu$. Therefore the integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded.

In particular, Method 1.5.1 holds if $f(z, x)$ admits any type of decay on D for any $z \in \Omega$. There is also another useful analytic technique called **shifting the line of integration**:

Method 1.5.2 (Shifting the line of integration). Suppose we are given an integral

$$\int_{\operatorname{Re}(z)=a} f(z) dz \quad \text{or} \quad \int_{\operatorname{Im}(z)=a} f(z) dz,$$

and some real b with $b < a$ in the first case and $b > a$ in the second case. Also suppose the following conditions hold corresponding to each case:

- (i) $f(z)$ is meromorphic on a strip containing the lines $\operatorname{Re}(z) = a, b$ or $\operatorname{Im}(z) = a, b$ respectively.
- (ii) $f(z)$ is holomorphic about the lines $\operatorname{Re}(z) = a, b$ or $\operatorname{Im}(z) = a, b$ respectively.
- (iii) $f(z) \rightarrow 0$ as $y \rightarrow \infty$ or $x \rightarrow \infty$ respectively.

To collect these cases, let (a) stand for the line $\operatorname{Re}(z) = a$ or $\operatorname{Im}(z) = a$ respectively with positive orientation. Then the line of integration (a) can be shifted to the line of integration (b) with the possible addition of residues. Take a rectangle R_T given positive orientation and with its edges on (a) and (b) respectively and consider

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{R_T} f(z) dz.$$

On the one hand, the residue theorem implies the integral is a sum of a $2\pi i$ multiple of the residues r_i in the rectangle R_T and hence the limit is a sum of a $2\pi i$ multiple of the residues in the strip bounded by (a) and (b) . Denote the corresponding set of poles inside this strip by P . On the other hand, the integral can be decomposed into a sum of four integrals along the edges of R_T and by taking the limit the edges other than (a) and (b) will tend to zero because of the assumptions on $f(z)$. The remaining two pieces is the difference between the integral along (a) and (b) . So in total,

$$\int_{(a)} f(z) dz = \int_{(b)} f(z) dz + 2\pi i \sum_{\rho \in P} \operatorname{Res}_{z=\rho} f(z).$$

A particular application of interest is when the integral in question is real and over the entire real line, the integrand is entire as a complex function, and one is trying to shift the line of integration of the complexified integral to $\operatorname{Im}(z) = a$. In this case, shifting the line of integration amounts to making the change of variables $x \rightarrow x - ia$ without affecting the initial line of integration.

The Fourier Transform

The first type of integral transform we will need is the Fourier transform. Suppose $f(x)$ is absolutely integrable. The **Fourier transform** $\hat{f}(t)$ of $f(x)$ is defined by

$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-2\pi i t x} dx.$$

This integral is absolutely convergent precisely because $f(x)$ is absolutely integrable. As a first application of Method 1.5.1, if $f(x)$ is analytic and has exponential decay then its Fourier transform exists. In practical settings however, we usually restrict $f(x)$ to be a **Schwarz function** which means that $f(x)$ is smooth

and $f^{(n)}(x) = o(x^c)$ for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$. In other words, $f(x)$ is a smooth function such that it and all of its derivatives have exponential decay. In this case, we say that $f(x)$ is of **rapid decay**. For example, e^{-x^2} is a Schwarz function. Schwarz functions are very important because they are functions for which the **Poisson summation formula** applies:

Theorem 1.5.1 (Poisson summation formula). *Suppose $f(x)$ is a Schwarz function. Then*

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} f(n) = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(t).$$

Proof. Set

$$F(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} f(x + n).$$

Since $f(x)$ has exponential decay, $F(x)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent by the Weierstrass M -test. Actually since $f(x)$ is Schwarz, $F(x)$ and all of its derivatives are locally absolutely uniformly convergent. By the uniform limit theorem $F(x)$ is smooth. Since $F(x)$ is also 1-periodic it admits a Fourier series (see Appendix B.4). The t -th Fourier coefficient of $F(x)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{F}(t) &= \int_0^1 F(x) e^{-2\pi i t x} dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} f(x + n) e^{-2\pi i t x} dx \\ &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \int_0^1 f(x + n) e^{-2\pi i t x} dx && \text{DCT} \\ &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \int_n^{n+1} f(x) e^{-2\pi i t x} dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-2\pi i t x} dx && \text{DCT} \\ &= \hat{f}(t). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the Fourier series of $F(x)$ is

$$F(x) = \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(t) e^{2\pi i t x}.$$

Setting $x = 0$ gives the desired identity. □

The Poisson summation formula is immensely useful (this cannot be overstated). It's sort of like a train in that it takes one where one wants to go to and back when one is done. Our primary application is that the Poisson summation formula will allow us to derive very striking transformation laws which are the key ingredient for analytically continuing many important objects.

The Mellin Transform

Like the Fourier transform, the Mellin transform is another type of integral transform. If $f(x)$ is a continuous function, then the **Mellin transform** $F(s)$ of $f(x)$ is given by

$$F(s) = \int_0^{\infty} f(x) x^s \frac{dx}{x}.$$

If $f(x)$ is a sufficiently nice function then the integral will be bounded in some half-plane in s . For example, this happens if $f(x)$ has exponential decay and remains bounded as $x \rightarrow 0$. In this case, the integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded for $\sigma > 0$. If the Mellin transform $F(s)$ is sufficiently nice, then the initial function can be recovered via means of the **inverse Mellin transform** $(\mathcal{M}^{-1}F)(x)$:

$$(\mathcal{M}^{-1}F)(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(c)} F(s)x^{-s} ds.$$

It is not immediately clear that this integral converges or is independent of c . The following theorem makes precise what properties $F(s)$ needs to satisfy and for which c the inverse Mellin transform recovers the original function $f(x)$ (see [DB15] for a proof):

Theorem 1.5.2 (Mellin inversion formula). *Let a and b be reals such that $a < b$. Suppose $F(s)$ is analytic in the strip vertical $a < \sigma < b$, tends to zero uniformly as $t \rightarrow \infty$ along any line $\sigma = c$ for $a < c < b$, and that the integral of $F(s)$ along this line is locally absolutely uniformly bounded. Then if*

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(c)} F(s)x^{-s} ds,$$

this integral is independent of c and moreover $F(s) = (\mathcal{M}f)(s)$. Conversely, suppose $f(x)$ is piecewise continuous such that its value is halfway between the limit values at any jump discontinuity and

$$F(s) = \int_0^\infty f(x)x^s \frac{dx}{x},$$

is locally absolutely uniformly bounded in the vertical strip $a < \sigma < b$. Then $f(x) = (\mathcal{M}^{-1}F)(x)$.

1.6 The Gamma Function

The gamma function is ubiquitous in analytic number theory and the better one understands it the better one will be at seeing the forest for the trees in any problem involving analytic number theory. The **gamma function** $\Gamma(z)$ is defined to be the Mellin transform of e^{-x} :

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x}x^{z-1} dx,$$

for $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 0$. The integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded in this region. Indeed, if K is a compact subset in the region $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 0$, then upon splitting the integral we have

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^1 e^{-x}x^{z-1} dx + \int_1^\infty e^{-x}x^{z-1} dx. \quad (1.4)$$

By Method 1.5.1, the second integral in Equation (1.4) is locally absolutely uniformly bounded in this region. As for the first integral, let K be a compact set in the region $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 0$. Set $\beta = \min_{z \in K} \{\operatorname{Re}(z)\}$. Then

$$\int_0^1 |e^{-x}x^{z-1}| dx \leq \int_0^1 x^{\operatorname{Re}(z)-1} dx = \frac{x^{\operatorname{Re}(z)}}{\operatorname{Re}(z)} \Big|_0^1 \leq \frac{1}{\beta}. \quad (1.5)$$

Equation (1.5) implies that the first integral in Equation (1.4) is locally absolutely uniformly bounded too. Altogether, this means $\Gamma(z)$ is as well. Also note that for real $z > 0$, $\Gamma(z)$ is real. The most basic properties of $\Gamma(z)$ are the following:

Proposition 1.6.1. $\Gamma(z)$ satisfies the following properties:

(i) $\Gamma(1) = 1$.

(ii) $\Gamma(z + 1) = z\Gamma(z)$.

Proof. We obtain (i) by direct computation:

$$\Gamma(1) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx = (-e^{-x}) \Big|_0^\infty = 1.$$

An application of integration by parts gives (ii):

$$\Gamma(z + 1) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} x^z dx = (-e^{-x} x^z) \Big|_0^\infty + z \int_0^\infty e^{-x} x^{z-1} dx = z \int_0^\infty e^{-x} x^{z-1} dx = z\Gamma(z). \quad \square$$

From Proposition 1.6.1 we see that for $z = n$ a positive integer, $\Gamma(n) = (n - 1)!$. So $\Gamma(z)$ can be thought of as a holomorphic extension of the factorial function. We can use property (ii) of Proposition 1.6.1 to extend $\Gamma(z)$ to a meromorphic function on all of \mathbb{C} :

Theorem 1.6.1. $\Gamma(z)$ admits analytic continuation to a meromorphic function on \mathbb{C} with poles at $z = -n$ for $n \geq 0$. All of these poles are simple and with residue $\frac{(-1)^n}{n!}$ at $z = -n$.

Proof. Using Proposition 1.6.1, (ii) repeatedly, for any integer $n \geq 0$ we have

$$\Gamma(z) = \frac{\Gamma(z + 1 + n)}{z(z + 1) \cdots (z + n)}.$$

The right-hand side defines an meromorphic function in the region $\operatorname{Re}(z) > -n$ and away from the points $0, -1, \dots, -n$. Letting n be arbitrary, we see that $\Gamma(z)$ has meromorphic continuation to \mathbb{C} with poles at $0, -1, -2, \dots$. We now compute the residue at $z = -n$. Around this point $\Gamma(z)$ admits analytic continuation with representation

$$\frac{\Gamma(z + 1 + n)}{z(z + 1) \cdots (z + n)},$$

where all of the factors except for $z + n$ are holomorphic at $z = -n$. Thus the pole is simple, and

$$\operatorname{Res}_{z=-n} \Gamma(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow -n} \frac{\Gamma(z + 1 + n)(z + n)}{z(z + 1) \cdots (z + n)} = \frac{\Gamma(1)}{(-n)(1 - n) \cdots (-1)} = \frac{(-1)^n}{n!}. \quad \square$$

In particular, Theorem 1.6.1 implies $\operatorname{Res}_{z=0} \Gamma(z) = 1$ and $\operatorname{Res}_{z=-1} \Gamma(z) = -1$. Also, since $\Gamma(z)$ is real for real $z > 0$ we have $\overline{\Gamma(z)} = \Gamma(\bar{z})$ and then the identity theorem implies that this holds everywhere $\Gamma(z)$ is analytic. There are a few other properties of the gamma function that are famous and which we will use frequently. The first of which is the **Legendre duplication formula** (see [Rem98] for a proof):

Theorem 1.6.2 (Legendre duplication formula). For any $z \in \mathbb{C} - \{0, -1, -2, \dots\}$,

$$\Gamma(z)\Gamma\left(z + \frac{1}{2}\right) = 2^{1-2z}\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma(2z).$$

As a first application, we can use this formula to compute $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})$. Letting $z = \frac{1}{2}$ in the Legendre duplication formula and recalling $\Gamma(1) = 1$, we see that $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{\pi}$. There is also the important Hadamard factorization of the reciprocal of $\Gamma(z)$ (see [SSS03] for a proof):

Proposition 1.6.2. *For all $z \in \mathbb{C}$,*

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma(z)} = ze^{\gamma z} \prod_{n \geq 1} \left(1 + \frac{z}{n}\right) e^{-\frac{z}{n}},$$

where γ is the Euler-Mascheroni constant.

In particular, $\frac{1}{\Gamma(z)}$ is entire so that $\Gamma(z)$ is nowhere vanishing on \mathbb{C} . Also, $\frac{1}{\Gamma(z)}$ is of order 1 (see Appendix B.5). In particular, this means that $\Gamma(z)$ is also order 1 for $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 0$. We call $\frac{\Gamma'}{\Gamma}(z)$ the **digamma function**. Equivalently, the digamma function is the logarithmic derivative of the gamma function. If we take the logarithmic derivative of the Hadamard factorization for $\frac{1}{z\Gamma(z)}$, we obtain a useful expression for the digamma function:

Corollary 1.6.1. *For all $z \in \mathbb{C}$,*

$$\frac{\Gamma'}{\Gamma}(z+1) = -\gamma + \sum_{n \geq 1} \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{z+n} \right),$$

where γ is the Euler-Mascheroni constant. In particular, the digamma function has simple poles of residue -1 at the poles of the gamma function.

Proof. By Proposition 1.6.1 (ii), $\frac{1}{\Gamma(z+1)} = \frac{1}{z\Gamma(z)}$. Taking the logarithmic derivative using Proposition 1.6.2 we obtain

$$-\frac{\Gamma'}{\Gamma}(z+1) = \gamma + \sum_{n \geq 1} \left(\frac{1}{z+n} - \frac{1}{n} \right),$$

provided z is away from the poles of $\Gamma(z)$. This is the desired formula and the statement regarding the poles follows immediately. \square

We will also require a well-known approximation for the gamma function known as **Stirling's formula** (see [Rem98] for a proof):

Theorem 1.6.3 (Stirling's formula).

$$\Gamma(z) \sim_{\varepsilon, \delta} \sqrt{2\pi} z^{z-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-z},$$

provided $|\arg(z)| < \pi - \varepsilon$ and $|z| > \delta$ for some $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$.

If the real part of z lies inside some compact set then Stirling's formula gives a useful estimate showing that $\Gamma(z)$ exhibits exponential decay as $z \rightarrow \infty$:

Corollary 1.6.2. *Let $|\arg(z)| < \pi - \varepsilon$ and $|z| > \delta$ for some $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$. Then if x is bounded, we have*

$$\Gamma(z) \sim_{\varepsilon, \delta} \sqrt{2\pi} y^{x-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}|y|}.$$

Proof. Stirling's formula can be equivalently expressed as

$$\Gamma(z) \sim_{\varepsilon, \delta} \sqrt{2\pi} (x+iy)^{x-\frac{1}{2}+iy} e^{-x-iy}.$$

Since x is bounded, $e^{-x-iy} \ll 1$ and we obtain the simplified asymptotic

$$\Gamma(z) \sim_{\varepsilon, \delta} \sqrt{2\pi} (iy)^{x-\frac{1}{2}+iy}.$$

Similarly, x being bounded implies $i^{x-\frac{1}{2}} \ll 1$ and we compute

$$(iy)^{iy} = e^{i|y|\log(i|y|)} = e^{i|y|(\log(i) + \log(|y|))} = e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}|y| + i|y|\log(|y|)} \sim e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}|y|},$$

where we have used the fact that $\log(i) = i\frac{\pi}{2}$. Together, we obtain the further simplified asymptotic

$$\Gamma(z) \sim_{\varepsilon, \delta} \sqrt{2\pi} y^{x-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}|y|},$$

which is the desired result □

Strictly weaker than the asymptotic equivalence in Stirling's formula is the estimate

$$\Gamma(z) = \sqrt{2\pi} z^{z-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-z} (1 + O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(1)). \quad (1.6)$$

Taking the logarithm (since $|\arg(z)| < \pi - \varepsilon$ the logarithm is defined) of this estimate gives

$$\log \Gamma(z) = \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi) + \left(z - \frac{1}{2}\right) \log(z) - z + O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(1), \quad (1.7)$$

which will be useful. Using Equation (1.7) we can obtain a useful asymptotic formula for the digamma function:

Proposition 1.6.3.

$$\frac{\Gamma'}{\Gamma}(z) = \log(z) + O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(1),$$

provided $|\arg(z)| < \pi - \varepsilon$ and $|z| > \delta$ for some $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$.

Proof. Equation (1.7) give the simplified asymptotic

$$\log \Gamma(z) = \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi) + z \log(z) - z + O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(1).$$

Set $g(z) = \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi) + z \log(z) - z$ so that $\log \Gamma(z) = g(z) + O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(1)$. Then $\log \Gamma(z) - g(z) = O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(1)$, and by Cauchy's integral formula, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Gamma'}{\Gamma}(z) &= \frac{d}{dz} (g(z) + O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(1)) \\ &= g'(z) + \frac{d}{dz} (\log \Gamma(z) - g(z)) \\ &= \log(z) + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w-z|=r} \frac{\log \Gamma(w) - g(w)}{(w-z)^2} dw, \end{aligned}$$

for some sufficiently small radius $r > 0$ depending upon ε and δ . Therefore

$$\left| \frac{\Gamma'}{\Gamma}(z) - \log(z) \right| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{|w-z|=r} \frac{|\log \Gamma(w) - g(w)|}{r^2} |dw| \ll_{\varepsilon, \delta} 1,$$

where the last estimate follows because $\log \Gamma(z) - g(z) = O_{\varepsilon, \delta}(1)$. □

The last result we will need is an explicit representation for $\log \Gamma(z)$ known as **Binet's log gamma formula**:

Proposition 1.6.4 (Binet's log gamma formula).

$$\log \Gamma(z) = \left(z - \frac{1}{2}\right) \log(z) - z + \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi) + 2 \int_0^\infty \frac{\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{z}\right)}{e^{2\pi x} - 1} dx.$$

Part II

An Introduction to Holomorphic & Maass Forms

Chapter 2

Congruence Subgroups & Modular Curves

Every holomorphic or Maass form is a special type of function depending on certain subgroups of $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$. These are the congruence subgroups. The associated modular curve is the quotient of the upper half-space \mathbb{H} by an action of this subgroup. We introduce these topics first as they are the foundation for discussing holomorphic and Maass forms in complete generality.

2.1 Congruence Subgroups

The **modular group** is $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) = \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})/\{\pm I\}$. That is, the modular group is the set of matrices with integer entries and of determinant 1 determined up to sign. The reason we are only interested in these matrices up to sign is because the modular group has a natural action on the upper half-space \mathbb{H} and this action will be invariant under a change in sign. The first result usually proved about the modular group is that it is generated by two matrices:

Proposition 2.1.1.

$$\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) = \left\langle \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle.$$

Proof. Set S and T to be the first and second generators respectively. Clearly they belong to $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$. Also, S and T^n for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ acts on $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ by

$$S\gamma = S \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -c & -d \\ a & b \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad T^n\gamma = T^n \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a + nc & b + nd \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}.$$

In particular, S interchanges the upper left and lower left entries of γ up to sign and T^n adds an n multiple of the lower left entry to the upper left entry. We have to show $\gamma \in \langle S, T \rangle$ and we will accomplish this by showing that the inverse is in $\langle S, T \rangle$. If $|c| = 0$ then γ is the identity since $\det(\gamma) = 1$ so suppose $|c| \neq 0$. By Euclidean division we can write $a = qc + r$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $|r| < |c|$. Then

$$T^{-q}\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a - qc & b - qd \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r & b - qd \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}.$$

Multiplying by S yields

$$ST^{-q}\gamma = S \begin{pmatrix} r & b - qd \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -c & -d \\ r & b - qd \end{pmatrix},$$

and this matrix has the upper left entry at least as large as the lower left entry in norm. Actually the upper left entry is strictly larger since $|c| > |r|$ by Euclidean division. Therefore if we repeatedly apply this

procedure, it must terminate with the lower left entry vanishing. But then we have reached the identity matrix. Therefore we have shown γ has an inverse in $\langle S, T \rangle$. \square

We will also be interested in special subgroups of the modular group defined by congruence conditions on their entries. For $N \geq 1$, set

$$\Gamma(N) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{N} \right\}.$$

Then $\Gamma(N)$ is the kernel of the natural homomorphism $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})$ so it is a normal subgroup with finite index. We call $\Gamma(N)$ the **principal congruence subgroup** of level N . For $\Gamma \leq \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$, we say Γ is a **congruence subgroup** if $\Gamma(N) \leq \Gamma$ for some N and the minimal such N is called the **level** of Γ . Note that if $M \mid N$, then $\Gamma(N) \leq \Gamma(M)$. Thus if Γ is a congruence subgroup of level N , then $\Gamma(kN) \leq \Gamma$ for all $k \geq 1$. This implies that congruence subgroups are closed under intersection. Also, it turns out that the natural homomorphism $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})$ is surjective:

Proposition 2.1.2. *The natural homomorphism $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})$ is surjective.*

Proof. Suppose $\begin{pmatrix} \bar{a} & \bar{b} \\ \bar{c} & \bar{d} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})$. Then $\bar{a}\bar{d} - \bar{b}\bar{c} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ so by Bézout's identity (generalized to three integers) $(\bar{c}, \bar{d}, N) = 1$. We claim that there exists s and t such that $c = \bar{c} + sN$, $d = \bar{d} + tN$ with $(c, d) = 1$. Set $g = (\bar{c}, \bar{d})$. Then $(g, N) = 1$ because $(\bar{c}, \bar{d}, N) = 1$. If $\bar{c} = 0$ then set $s = 0$ so $c = 0$ and choose t such that $t \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for any prime $p \mid g$ and $t \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ for any prime $p \nmid g$ and $p \mid \bar{d}$. Such a t exists by the Chinese remainder theorem. Now if $p \mid (c, d)$, then either $p \mid g$ or $p \nmid g$. If $p \mid g$, then $p \mid d - \bar{d} = tN$ which is absurd since $t \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $(t, N) = 1$. If $p \nmid g$, then $p \nmid d - \bar{d} = tN$ but this is also absurd since $t \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Therefore $(c, d) = 1$ as claimed. If $\bar{c} = 0$ then $\bar{d} \neq 0$, and we can proceed similarly. Since $(c, d) = 1$ there exists a and b such that $ad - bc = 1$. Then $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ and maps onto $\begin{pmatrix} \bar{a} & \bar{b} \\ \bar{c} & \bar{d} \end{pmatrix}$. This proves surjectivity. \square

By Proposition 2.1.2, $[\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \Gamma(N)] = |\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})|$. Since $\Gamma(N) \leq \Gamma$ and $\Gamma(N)$ has finite index in $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ so does Γ . The subgroups

$$\Gamma_1(N) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & * \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{N} \right\},$$

and

$$\Gamma_0(N) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix} \pmod{N} \right\},$$

are particularly important and are congruence subgroups of level N . The latter subgroup is called the **Hecke congruence subgroup** of level N . Note that $\Gamma(N) \leq \Gamma_1(N) \leq \Gamma_0(N)$. If Γ is a general congruence subgroup, it is useful to find a generating set for Γ in order to reduce results about Γ to that of the generators. This is usually achieved by performing some sort of Euclidean division argument on the entries of a matrix $\gamma \in \Gamma$ using the supposed generating set to construct the inverse for γ . For example, this was the proof strategy employed in Proposition 2.1.1.

2.2 Modular Curves

Recall that $\mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$ naturally acts on the Riemann sphere $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$ by Möbius transformations. Explicitly, any $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$ acts on $z \in \hat{\mathbb{C}}$ by

$$\gamma z = \frac{az + b}{cz + d},$$

where $\gamma\infty = \frac{a}{c}$ and $\gamma(-\frac{d}{c}) = \infty$. Moreover, recall that this action is a group action, is invariant under scalar multiplication, and acts as automorphisms of $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$. Now observe

$$\operatorname{Im}(\gamma z) = \operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{az+b}{cz+d}\right) = \operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{az+b}{cz+d} \frac{c\bar{z}+d}{c\bar{z}+d}\right) = \operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{ac|z|^2 + adz + bc\bar{z} + bd}{|cz+d|^2}\right) = \det(\gamma) \frac{\operatorname{Im}(z)}{|cz+d|^2},$$

where the last equality follows because $\operatorname{Im}(\bar{z}) = -\operatorname{Im}(z)$ and $\det(\gamma) = ad - bc$. Since $\deg(\gamma) > 0$ and $|cz+d|^2 > 0$, γ preserves the sign of the imaginary part of z . So γ preserves the upper half-space \mathbb{H} , the lower half-space $\overline{\mathbb{H}}$, and the extended real line $\hat{\mathbb{R}}$ respectively. Moreover, γ restricts to an automorphism on these subspaces since Möbius transformations are automorphisms. In particular, $\operatorname{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ naturally acts on $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$ by Möbius transformations and preserves the upper half-space. Certain actions of subgroups of $\operatorname{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ also play important roles. A **Fuchsian group** is any subgroup of $\operatorname{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$ that acts properly discontinuously on \mathbb{H} . It turns out that the modular group is a Fuchsian group (see [DS05] for a proof):

Proposition 2.2.1. *The modular group is a Fuchsian group.*

Note that Proposition 2.2.1 immediately implies that any subgroup of the modular group is also Fuchsian. In particular, all congruence subgroups are Fuchsian. This lets us say a little more about the action of a congruence subgroup Γ on \mathbb{H} . Indeed, points in \mathbb{H} are closed since \mathbb{H} is Hausdorff. Now Γ is a Fuchsian group so it acts properly discontinuously on \mathbb{H} . These two facts together imply that the Γ -orbit of any point in \mathbb{H} is a discrete set. We will make use of this property later on, but for now we are ready to introduce modular curves. A **modular curve** is a quotient $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ of the upper half-space \mathbb{H} by a congruence subgroup Γ . We give $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ the quotient topology induced from \mathbb{H} as a subset of the Riemann sphere $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$. This gives $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ some nice topological properties (see [DS05] for a proof):

Proposition 2.2.2. *For any congruence subgroup Γ , the modular curve $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ is connected and Hausdorff.*

A **fundamental domain** for $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ is a closed set $\mathcal{F}_\Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{H}$ satisfying the following conditions:

- (i) Any point in \mathbb{H} is Γ -equivalent to a point in \mathcal{F}_Γ .
- (ii) If two points in \mathcal{F}_Γ are Γ -equivalent via a non-identity element, then they lie on the boundary of \mathcal{F}_Γ .
- (iii) The interior of \mathcal{F}_Γ is a domain.

In other words, \mathcal{F}_Γ is a complete set of representatives (possibly with overlap on the boundary) for $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ that has a nice topological structure with respect to \mathbb{H} . Note that if \mathcal{F}_Γ is a fundamental domain then so is $\gamma\mathcal{F}_\Gamma$ for any $\gamma \in \Gamma$ and moreover $\mathbb{H} = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \gamma\mathcal{F}_\Gamma$. So the choice of \mathcal{F}_Γ is not unique. Intuitively, a fundamental domain is a geometric realization of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ which is often more fruitful than thinking of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ as an abstract set of equivalence classes. Moreover, it's suggestive that we can give $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ a geometric structure and indeed we can (see [DS05] for more). Property (iii) is usually not included in the definition of a fundamental domain for many authors. The reason that we impose this additional property is because we will integrate over \mathcal{F}_Γ and so we want \mathcal{F}_Γ to genuinely represent a domain as a subset of \mathbb{H} .

Proposition 2.2.3.

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ z \in \mathbb{H} : |\operatorname{Re}(z)| \leq \frac{1}{2}, |z| \geq 1 \right\},$$

is a fundamental domain for $\operatorname{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$.

Proof. Set $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) = \langle S, T \rangle$ where S and T are as in Proposition 2.1.1. We first show any point in \mathbb{H} is $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ -equivalent to a point in \mathcal{F} . Then for any $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$, we have

$$\mathrm{Im}(\gamma z) = \frac{\mathrm{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} = \frac{y}{(cx + d)^2 + (cy)^2}.$$

Since $\det(\gamma) = 1$ we cannot have $c = d = 0$. Then as $y \neq 0$, $|cz + d|^2$ is bounded away from zero and moreover there are finitely many pairs (c, d) such that $|cz + d|^2$ is less than any given upper bound. Therefore there exists $\gamma_0 \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ that minimizes $|cz + d|^2$ and hence maximizes $\mathrm{Im}(\gamma_0 z)$. In particular,

$$\mathrm{Im}(S\gamma_0 z) = \frac{\mathrm{Im}(\gamma_0 z)}{|\gamma_0 z|^2} \leq \mathrm{Im}(\gamma_0 z).$$

The inequality above implies $|\gamma_0 z| \geq 1$. Since $\mathrm{Im}(T^n \gamma_0 z) = \mathrm{Im}(\gamma_0 z)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, repeating the argument above with $T^n \gamma_0$ in place of γ_0 , we see that $|T^n \gamma_0 z| \geq 1$. But T shifts the real part by 1 so we can choose n such that $|\mathrm{Re}(T^n \gamma_0 z)| \leq \frac{1}{2}$. Therefore $T^n \gamma_0 \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ sends z into \mathcal{F} as desired. We will now show that if two points in \mathcal{F} are $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ -equivalent via a non-identity element, then they lie on the boundary of \mathcal{F} . Since $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ acts on \mathbb{H} by automorphisms, by Proposition 2.1.1 it suffices to show that S and T map \mathcal{F} outside of \mathcal{F} except for possibly the boundary. This is clear for T since it maps the left boundary line $\{z : \mathrm{Re}(z) = -\frac{1}{2}, |z| \geq 1\}$ to the right boundary line $\{z : \mathrm{Re}(z) = \frac{1}{2}, |z| \geq 1\}$ and every other point of \mathcal{F} is mapped to the right of this line. For S , note that it maps the semicircle $\{z : |z| = 1\}$ to itself (although not identically) and maps ∞ to zero. Since Möbius transformations send circles to circles and lines to lines it follows that every other point of \mathcal{F} is taken to a point enclosed by the semicircle $\{z : |z| = 1\}$. Lastly, the interior of \mathcal{F} is a domain since it is open and path-connected. This finishes the proof. \square



Figure 2.1: The standard fundamental domain for $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) \backslash \mathbb{H}$.

The shaded region in Figure 2.1 is the fundamental domain in Proposition 2.2.3 and we call it the **standard fundamental domain**. Figure 2.1 also displays how this fundamental domain changes under the actions of the generators of $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ as in Proposition 2.1.1. A fundamental domain for any other modular curve can be built from the standard fundamental domain as the following proposition shows (see [Kil15] for a proof):

Proposition 2.2.4. *Let Γ be any congruence subgroup. Then*

$$\mathcal{F}_\Gamma = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma \backslash \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})} \gamma \mathcal{F},$$

is a fundamental domain for $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$.

We might notice that \mathcal{F} in Figure 2.1 is unbounded as it doesn't contain the point ∞ . However, if we consider $\mathcal{F} \cup \{\infty\}$ then it would appear that this space is compact. The point ∞ is an example of a cusp and we now make this idea precise. Since any $\gamma \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ preserves \mathbb{R} and γ has integer entries, γ also preserves $\mathbb{Q} \cup \{\infty\}$. A **cusp** of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ is an element of $\Gamma \backslash (\mathbb{Q} \cup \{\infty\})$. As Γ has finite index in the modular group, there can only be finitely many cusps and the number of cusps is at most the index of Γ . In particular, the Γ -orbit of ∞ is a cusp of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. We denote cusps by gothic characters $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b}, \mathfrak{c}, \dots$ or by representatives of their equivalence classes. For example, we let ∞ denote the cusp $\Gamma\infty$.

Remark 2.2.1. *It turns out that the cusps can be represented as the points needed to make a fundamental domain \mathcal{F}_Γ compact as a subset of $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$. To see this, suppose \mathfrak{a} is a limit point of \mathcal{F}_Γ that does not belong to \mathcal{F}_Γ . Then $\mathfrak{a} \in \mathbb{R}$. In the case of the standard fundamental domain \mathcal{F} , $\mathfrak{a} = \infty$ which is a cusp. Otherwise, \mathcal{F}_Γ is a union of images of \mathcal{F} by Proposition 2.2.4 and since $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})\infty = \mathbb{Q} \cup \{\infty\}$, we find that $\mathfrak{a} \in \mathbb{Q} \cup \{\infty\}$.*

Let $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \leq \Gamma$ denote the stabilizer subgroup of the cusp \mathfrak{a} . For the ∞ cusp, we can describe Γ_∞ explicitly. If $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma$ stabilizes ∞ , then necessarily $c = 0$ and since $\det(\gamma) = 1$ we must have $a = d = 1$. Therefore $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ for some $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and γ acts on \mathbb{H} by translation by b . Of course, not every translation is guaranteed to belong to Γ . Letting t be the smallest positive integer such that $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma$, we have $\Gamma_\infty = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle$. In particular, Γ_∞ is an infinite cyclic group. We say that Γ is **reduced at infinity** if $t = 1$ so that $\Gamma_\infty = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle$. In particular, $\Gamma_1(N)$ and $\Gamma_0(N)$ are reduced at infinity.

Remark 2.2.2. *If Γ is of level N , then N is the smallest positive integer such that $\Gamma(N) \leq \Gamma$ so that $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & N \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is the minimal translation guaranteed to belong to Γ . However, there may be smaller translations so in general $t \leq N$.*

Actually, for any cusp \mathfrak{a} , $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ is also an infinite cyclic group. To see this, if $\mathfrak{a} = \frac{a}{c}$ with $(a, c) = 1$ is a cusp of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ not equivalent to ∞ , then there exists an $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ such that $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}\infty = \mathfrak{a}$. Indeed, there exists integers d and b such that $ad - bc = 1$ by Bézout's identity and then $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ is such a matrix. It follows that $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} = \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}\Gamma_\infty\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}$ and since Γ_∞ is infinite cyclic so is $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}$. We call any matrix $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ such that $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}\infty = \mathfrak{a}$ a **scaling matrix** for the cusp \mathfrak{a} . Note that $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ is determined up to composition on the right by an element of Γ_∞ or composition on the left by an element of $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}$. Scaling matrices are useful because they allow us to transfer information at the cusp \mathfrak{a} to the cusp at ∞ . Let \mathfrak{a} and \mathfrak{b} be cusps of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ with scaling matrices $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ and $\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}}$ respectively. When investigating holomorphic forms, it will be useful to have a double coset decomposition for sets of the form $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\Gamma\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}}$. This is referred to as the **Bruhat decomposition** for Γ :

Theorem 2.2.1 (Bruhat decomposition). *Let Γ be any congruence subgroup and let \mathfrak{a} and \mathfrak{b} be cusps of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ with scaling matrices $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ and $\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}}$ respectively. Then we have the disjoint decomposition*

$$\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\Gamma\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} = \delta_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}\Omega_\infty \cup \bigcup_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ d \pmod{c}}} \Omega_{d/c},$$

where

$$\Omega_\infty = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} * & b \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix} : \begin{pmatrix} * & b \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix} \in \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\Gamma\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} \right\},$$

and

$$\Omega_{d/c} = \Gamma_\infty \omega_{d/c} \Gamma_\infty,$$

for some $\omega_{d/c} = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \sigma_a^{-1} \Gamma \sigma_b$ with $c \geq 1$.

Proof. We first show that Ω_∞ is nonempty if and only if $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{b}$. Indeed, if $\omega_\infty \in \Omega_\infty$ then $\omega_\infty = \sigma_a^{-1} \gamma \sigma_b$ for some $\gamma \in \Gamma$. Then

$$\gamma \mathfrak{b} = \sigma_a \omega_\infty \sigma_b^{-1} \mathfrak{b} = \sigma_a \omega_\infty \infty = \sigma_a \infty = \mathfrak{a}.$$

This shows that $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{b}$. Conversely, suppose $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{b}$. Then $\sigma_a^{-1} \Gamma \sigma_b$ contains $\sigma_a^{-1} \Gamma_a \sigma_a = \Gamma_\infty$ so that Ω_∞ is nonempty. So Ω_∞ is nonempty if and only if $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{b}$. In this case, for any two elements $\omega_\infty = \sigma_a^{-1} \gamma \sigma_a$ and $\omega'_\infty = \sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \sigma_a$ of Ω_∞ , we have

$$\gamma' \gamma^{-1} \mathfrak{a} = \sigma_a \omega'_\infty \omega_\infty^{-1} \sigma_a^{-1} \mathfrak{a} = \sigma_a \omega'_\infty \omega_\infty^{-1} \infty = \sigma_a \mathfrak{a}.$$

Hence $\gamma' \gamma^{-1} \in \Gamma_a$ which implies $\omega'_\infty \omega_\infty^{-1} = \sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \gamma^{-1} \sigma_a \in \sigma_a^{-1} \Gamma_a \sigma_a = \Gamma_\infty$. Therefore

$$\Omega_\infty = \Gamma_\infty \omega_\infty = \omega_\infty \Gamma_\infty = \Gamma_\infty \omega_\infty \Gamma_\infty,$$

where the latter two equalities hold because ω_∞ is a translation and translations commute. Every other element of $\sigma_a^{-1} \Gamma \sigma_b$ belongs to one of the double cosets $\Omega_{d/c}$ with $c \geq 1$ (since we are working in $\text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$). The relation

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & m \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ c & cm + d \end{pmatrix},$$

shows that $\Omega_{d/c}$ is determined uniquely by c and $d \pmod{c}$. This completes the proof of the theorem. \square

As a first application, take $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{b} = \infty$ and $\sigma_a = \sigma_b = I$. Then the Bruhat decomposition implies

$$\Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma \cong I \cup \bigcup_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ d \pmod{c}}} \omega_{d/c} \Gamma_\infty,$$

since $\Gamma_\infty \backslash \Omega_\infty = \Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma_\infty \cong I$. This shows that every element of $\Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma$ corresponds to a unique $(c, d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{0\}$ with $c \geq 0$ and d determined only modulo c except when $c = 0$ in which case $d = 1$ (the pair $(1, 0)$ corresponds to I). Of course, this correspondence might not be surjective since the double coset $\Omega_{d/c}$ may be empty if there is no $\omega_{d/c} \in \sigma_a^{-1} \Gamma \sigma_b$. For example, if Γ is of level N then every $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma$ satisfies $c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$ so that

$$\Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma = I \cup \bigcup_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \\ d \pmod{c}}} \omega_{d/c} \Gamma_\infty.$$

However, we still may have other cosets which are empty since Γ being of level N only guarantees that $c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$. To figure out for what subset of pairs (c, d) the correspondence is a bijection it suffices to determine the admissible d not just the admissible $d \pmod{c}$.

Remark 2.2.3. An exceptionally important case is for the Hecke congruence subgroups $\Gamma_0(N)$ with $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{b} = \infty$. Suppose $c \geq 1$ with $c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$ and $d \pmod{c}$. By Bézout's identity there exists integers a and b with $ad - bc = 1$ so that $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$ if and only if $(c, d) = 1$. So we must have $d \equiv 1 \pmod{c}$. Then the following correspondence implied by the Bruhat decomposition is a bijection:

$$\Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma = I \cup \bigcup_{\substack{c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z} \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \\ (c, d) = 1}} \omega_{d/c} \Gamma_\infty.$$

2.3 The Hyperbolic Measure

We will also need to integrate over $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. In order to do this, we require a measure on \mathbb{H} . Our choice of measure will be the **hyperbolic measure** $d\mu$ given by

$$d\mu = d\mu(z) = \frac{dx dy}{y^2}.$$

The most important property about the hyperbolic measure is that it is $\mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{R})$ -invariant (see [DS05] for a proof):

Proposition 2.3.1. *The hyperbolic measure $d\mu$ is $\mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{R})$ -invariant.*

As this fact will be used so frequently any time we integrate, we will not mention it explicitly. The particular use is that if Γ is a congruence subgroup, $d\mu$ is Γ -invariant. Now let \mathcal{F}_Γ be a fundamental domain for $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ and set

$$V_\Gamma = \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} d\mu.$$

We call V_Γ the **volume** of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. Also, if $\mathcal{F}_\Gamma = \mathcal{F}$ we write $V_\Gamma = V$. In other words, V is the volume of $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) \backslash \mathbb{H}$. Since the integrand is Γ -invariant, V_Γ is independent of the choice of fundamental domain. There is also a simple relation between V_Γ and the index of Γ in $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$:

$$V_\Gamma = [\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \Gamma]V, \tag{2.1}$$

which follows immediately from Proposition 2.2.4. Using Proposition 2.2.3,

$$V = \int_{\mathcal{F}} d\mu = \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \int_{\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\infty} \frac{1}{y^2} dy dx = \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \arcsin(x) \Big|_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\pi}{3}.$$

Therefore V is finite. Furthermore so is V_Γ for every congruence subgroup Γ by Equation (2.1) and that congruence subgroups have finite index in the modular group.

Chapter 3

The Theory of Holomorphic Forms

Holomorphic forms are special classes of functions on the upper half-space \mathbb{H} of the complex plane. They are holomorphic, have a transformation law with respect to a congruence subgroup, and satisfy a growth condition. We will introduce these forms in a general context.

3.1 Holomorphic Forms

Define $j(\gamma, z)$ by

$$j(\gamma, z) = (cz + d),$$

for all $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$ and $z \in \mathbb{H}$. There is a very useful property that $j(\gamma, z)$ satisfies. To state it, let $\gamma' = \begin{pmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$. Then

$$\gamma\gamma' = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a'a + b'c & a'b + b'd \\ c'a + d'c & c'b + d'd \end{pmatrix},$$

and we have

$$\begin{aligned} j(\gamma', \gamma z)j(\gamma, z) &= \left(c' \frac{az + b}{cz + d} + d' \right) (cz + d) \\ &= (c'(az + b) + d'(cz + d)) \\ &= (c'a + d'c)z + c'b + d'd \\ &= j(\gamma'\gamma, z). \end{aligned}$$

In short,

$$j(\gamma'\gamma, z) = j(\gamma', \gamma z)j(\gamma, z),$$

and this is called the **cocycle condition** for $j(\gamma, z)$. For any integer $k \geq 1$ and any $\gamma \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$ we define the **slash operator** $|_{j,k}\gamma : C(\mathbb{H}) \rightarrow C(\mathbb{H})$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(f|_{j,k}\gamma)(z) = j(\gamma, z)^{-k} f(\gamma z).$$

If an operator commutes with the slash operators $|_{j,k}\gamma$ for every $\gamma \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$, we say that it is **invariant**. Now let Γ be a congruence subgroup of level N that is reduced at infinity and let χ be a Dirichlet character of conductor $q \mid N$. Set $\chi(\gamma) = \chi(d)$ for all $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma$. We say that a function $f : \mathbb{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is **holomorphic form** (or **modular form**) on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ of **weight** k , **level** N , and **character** χ , if the following properties are satisfied:

- (i) f is holomorphic on \mathbb{H} .
- (ii) $(f|_{j,k}\gamma)(z) = \chi(\gamma)f(z)$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.
- (iii) $f(\alpha z) = O(1)$ for all $\alpha \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$.

We say f is a **(holomorphic) cusp form** if the additional property is satisfied:

- (iv) For all cusps \mathfrak{a} ,

$$\int_0^1 f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}(x + iy)) dx = 0.$$

Property (ii) is called the **modularity condition** and we say f is **modular**. In particular, f is a function on \mathcal{F}_{Γ} . The modularity condition can equivalently be expressed as

$$f(\gamma z) = \chi(\gamma)j(\gamma, z)^k f(z).$$

Property (iii) is called the **growth condition** and we say f is **holomorphic at the cusps**. Clearly we only need to verify the growth condition on a set of scaling matrices for the cups. Holomorphic forms also admit Fourier series. Indeed, modularity implies

$$f(z+1) = f\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} z\right) = f(z),$$

so that f is 1-periodic. Let $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ be a scaling matrix for the \mathfrak{a} cusp. As $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} = \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}\Gamma_{\infty}\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}$, or equivalently $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} = \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}\Gamma_{\infty}$, the function $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z)$ is independent of the scaling matrix $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$. Moreover, by the same reasoning

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}(z+1)) = f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z).$$

Thus $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z)$ is 1-periodic. Note that this means we only need to verify the growth condition as $y \rightarrow \infty$. As f is holomorphic, $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z)$ has a Fourier series

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, y) e^{2\pi i n x},$$

where the sum is only over $n \geq 0$ because holomorphy at the cusps implies that $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z)$ is bounded. This Fourier series is independent of the scaling matrix because $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z)$ is. We can simplify the Fourier coefficients $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, y)$. To see this, since f is holomorphic it satisfies the first order Cauchy-Riemann equations so that

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = 0.$$

Substituting in the Fourier series and equating coefficients we obtain the ODE

$$2\pi n a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, y) + a_{\mathfrak{a},y}(n, y) = 0,$$

Solving this ODE by separation of variables, we see that there exists an $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n)$ such that

$$a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, y) = a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n) e^{-2\pi n y}.$$

The coefficients $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n)$ are the only part of the Fourier series depending on the implicit congruence subgroup Γ . Using these coefficients instead, f admits a **Fourier series at the \mathfrak{a} cusp**:

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n) e^{2\pi i n z}.$$

For ease of notation, if it is clear what cusp we are working at we will mention the Fourier series and its coefficients without mentioning the cusp. Moreover, property (iv) implies that f is a cusp form if and only if $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n) = 0$ for every cusp \mathfrak{a} . In particular, $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z)$ exhibits exponential decay for every cusp \mathfrak{a} . Accordingly, we say that f exhibits **exponential decay at the cusps** and note that $f(z)$ is bounded on \mathbb{H} .

3.2 Eisenstein & Poincaré Series

Let Γ be a congruence subgroup of level N . We will introduce two important classes of holomorphic forms on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ namely the Eisenstein series and the Poincaré series. For any weight $k \geq 4$ and Dirichlet character χ with conductor $q \mid N$, we define the **(holomorphic) Eisenstein series** $E_{k,\chi}(z)$ of weight k and character χ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ by

$$E_{k,\chi}(z) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma) j(\gamma, z)^{-k},$$

Remark 3.2.1. *The reason why we restrict to $k \geq 4$ is because for $k = 0, 2$ the Eisenstein series do not converge (see Proposition B.9.1).*

We first verify that $E_{k,\chi}(z)$ is well-defined. It suffices to show that $\bar{\chi}(\gamma) j(\gamma, z)$ is independent of the representative of γ . Indeed, if γ' represents the same element as γ in $\Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma$, then they differ on the left by an element of $\eta_\infty \in \Gamma_\infty$. So suppose $\gamma' = \eta_\infty \gamma$ with $\eta_\infty = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_\infty$. Then

$$\bar{\chi}(\gamma') = \bar{\chi}(\eta_\infty \gamma) = \bar{\chi}(\eta_\infty) \bar{\chi}(\gamma) = \bar{\chi}(\gamma).$$

This verifies that $\bar{\chi}(\gamma)$ is independent of the representative γ . Similarly, the cocycle relation implies

$$j(\gamma', z) = j(\eta_\infty \gamma, z) = j(\eta_\infty, \gamma z) j(\gamma, z) = j(\gamma, z),$$

where the last equality follows because $j(\eta_\infty, \gamma z) = 1$. This verifies that $j(\gamma, z)$ is also independent of the representative γ . Therefore $E_{k,\chi}(z)$ is well-defined. The Bruhat decomposition applied to $\Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma$ implies

$$E_{k,\chi}(z) \ll \sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \frac{1}{|cz + d|^k},$$

and as $k \geq 4$, this latter series is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $z \in \mathbb{H}$ by Proposition B.9.1. Hence $E_{k,\chi}(z)$ does too and so it is holomorphic on \mathbb{H} .

Remark 3.2.2. *In the case of the modular group, the Bruhat decomposition implies that a set of representatives for the quotient $\Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma$ is*

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \cup \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} : c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z}, (c, d) = 1 \right\}.$$

Then $E_{k,\chi}(z)$ is given by

$$E_{k,\chi}(z) = 1 + \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z} \\ (c,d)=1}} \frac{\bar{\chi}(d)}{(cz + d)^k}.$$

We now show that $E_{k,\chi}(z)$ is modular. This is just a computation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_{k,\chi}(\gamma z) &= \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma') j(\gamma', \gamma z)^{-k} \\
 &= \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma') \left(\frac{j(\gamma' \gamma, z)}{j(\gamma, z)} \right)^{-k} && \text{cocycle condition} \\
 &= j(\gamma, z)^k \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma') j(\gamma' \gamma, z)^{-k} \\
 &= \chi(\gamma) j(\gamma, z)^k \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma') \bar{\chi}(\gamma) j(\gamma' \gamma, z)^{-k} \\
 &= \chi(\gamma) j(\gamma, z)^k \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma' \gamma) j(\gamma' \gamma, z)^{-k} \\
 &= \chi(\gamma) j(\gamma, z)^k \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma') j(\gamma', z)^{-k} && \gamma' \rightarrow \gamma' \gamma^{-1} \text{ bijection on } \Gamma \\
 &= \chi(\gamma) j(\gamma, z)^k E_{k,\chi}(z).
 \end{aligned}$$

To verify holomorphy at the cusps, we will need a technical lemma:

Lemma 3.2.1. *Let $a, b > 0$ be reals and consider the half-strip*

$$S_{a,b} = \{z \in \mathbb{H} : |x| \leq a, y \geq b\}.$$

Then there is a $\delta \in (0, 1)$ such that

$$|nz + m| \geq \delta |ni + m|,$$

for all $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and all $z \in S_{a,b}$.

Proof. If $n = 0$ then any δ is sufficient and this δ is independent of z . If $n \neq 0$, then the desired inequality is equivalent to

$$\left| \frac{z + \frac{m}{n}}{i + \frac{n}{m}} \right| \geq \delta.$$

So consider the function

$$f(z, r) = \left| \frac{z + r}{i + r} \right|,$$

for $z \in S_{a,b}$ and $r \in \mathbb{R}$. It suffices to show $f(z, r) \geq \delta$. As $z \in \mathbb{H}$, $z - r \neq 0$ so that $f(z, r)$ is continuous and positive for all z and u . Now let $Y > b$ and consider the region

$$S_{a,b}^Y = \{z \in \mathbb{H} : |x| \leq a, b \leq y \leq Y\}.$$

We claim that there exists a Y such that if $y > Y$ and $|x| > Y$ then $f(z, r)^2 > \frac{1}{4}$. Indeed, we compute

$$f(z, r)^2 = \frac{(z + r)(\bar{z} + r)}{(i + r)(-i + r)} = \frac{|z|^2 + 2xr + r^2}{1 + r^2} \geq \frac{y + r^2}{1 + r^2},$$

where in the inequality we have used that $|z|^2 \geq y$ and x is bounded. Now $\frac{r^2}{1+r^2} \rightarrow 1$ as $r \rightarrow \pm\infty$ so choosing Y such that $|r| > Y$ implies $\frac{r^2}{1+r^2} \geq \frac{1}{4}$ yields

$$\frac{y + r^2}{1 + r^2} \geq \frac{y}{1 + r^2} + \frac{r^2}{1 + r^2} \geq \frac{y}{1 + r^2} + \frac{1}{4} > \frac{1}{4}.$$

It follows that $f(z, r) > \frac{1}{2}$ outside of $S_{a,b}^Y \times [-Y, Y]$. But this latter region is compact and so $f(z, r)$ obtains a minimum δ' on it. Then set $\delta = \min\{\frac{1}{2}, \delta'\}$ and we are done. \square

We can now show that $E_{k,\chi}(z)$ is holomorphic at the cusps. Let σ_a be a scaling matrix for the cusp \mathfrak{a} . Then

$$E_{k,\chi}(\sigma_a z) \ll \sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_a z + d|^k}.$$

Now decompose this last sum as

$$\sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_a z + d|^k} = \sum_{d \neq 0} \frac{1}{d^k} + \sum_{c \neq 0} \sum_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_a z + d|^k} = 2 \sum_{d \geq 1} \frac{1}{d^k} + 2 \sum_{c \geq 1} \sum_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_a z + d|^k}.$$

Since the first sum is bounded, it suffices to show that the double sum is bounded. To see this, let $y \geq 1$ and δ be as in Lemma 3.2.1. Then for any integer $N \geq 1$ we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{c \geq 1} \sum_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_a z + d|^k} &= \sum_{c+|d| \leq N} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_a z + d|^k} + \sum_{c+|d| > N} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_a z + d|^k} \\ &\leq \sum_{c+|d| \leq N} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_a z + d|^k} + \sum_{c+|d| > N} \frac{1}{(\delta|ci + d|)^k} \\ &\leq \sum_{c+|d| \leq N} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_a z + d|^k} + \frac{1}{\delta^k} \sum_{c+|d| > N} \frac{1}{|ci + d|^k}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\sum_{c \geq 1} \sum_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|ci + d|^k}$ converges by Proposition B.9.1, the second sum tends to zero as $N \rightarrow \infty$. As for the first sum, it is finite and each term is bounded. Holomorphy at \mathfrak{a} follows. We collect all of this work as a theorem:

Theorem 3.2.1. *Let $k \geq 4$ and χ be Dirichlet character with conductor $q \mid N$. The Eisenstein series*

$$E_{k,\chi}(z) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma) j(\gamma, z)^{-k},$$

is a weight k holomorphic form with character χ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$.

Now we will discuss our second class of holomorphic forms. For every $m \geq 1$, weight $k \geq 4$ and Dirichlet character χ with conductor $q \mid N$, we define the m -th **(holomorphic) Poincaré series** $P_{m,k,\chi}(z)$ of weight k with character χ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ by

$$P_{m,k,\chi}(z) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma) j(\gamma, z)^{-k} e^{2\pi i m \gamma z}.$$

We first need to verify that $P_{m,k,\chi}(z)$ is actually well-defined. This amounts to checking $e^{2\pi i m \gamma z}$ is independent of the representative γ since we have already verified $\bar{\chi}(\gamma) j(\gamma, z)^{-k}$ is when discussing $E_{k,\chi}(z)$. As before, suppose $\gamma' = \eta_\infty \gamma$ with $\eta_\infty = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_\infty$. Then

$$e^{2\pi i m \gamma' z} = e^{2\pi i m \eta_\infty \gamma z} = e^{2\pi i m (\gamma z + n)} = e^{2\pi i m \gamma z} e^{2\pi i m n z} = e^{2\pi i m \gamma z},$$

and hence $e^{2\pi im\gamma'z}$ is independent of the representative γ used. It follows that $P_{m,k,\chi}(z)$ is well-defined. To see that $P_{m,k,\chi}(z)$ is holomorphic on \mathbb{H} , first note that $|e^{2\pi im\gamma z}| = e^{-2\pi m\text{Im}(\gamma z)} < 1$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$. Applying the Bruhat decomposition to $\Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma$, we see that

$$P_{m,k,\chi}(z) \ll \sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \frac{1}{|cz + d|^k}.$$

As $k \geq 4$, this latter series is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $z \in \mathbb{H}$ by Proposition B.9.1. Hence $P_{m,k,\chi}(z)$ does too and so it is holomorphic on \mathbb{H} .

Remark 3.2.3. *In the case of the modular group, the Bruhat decomposition implies that a set of representatives for the quotient $\Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma$ is*

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \cup \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} : c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z}, (c, d) = 1 \right\}.$$

as in Remark 3.2.2. Then $P_{m,k,\chi}(z)$ is given by

$$P_{m,k,\chi}(z) = e^{2\pi imz} + \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z} \\ (c,d)=1}} \bar{\chi}(d) \frac{e^{2\pi im(\frac{az+b}{cz+d})}}{(cz+d)^k},$$

where a and b are chosen such that $\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = 1$.

Modularity for $P_{m,k,\chi}(z)$ is verified in exactly the same way as for $E_{k,\chi}(z)$. To verify holomorphy at the cusps, let $\sigma_{\mathbf{a}}$ be a scaling matrix for the cusp \mathbf{a} . First note that $|e^{2\pi im\gamma\sigma_{\mathbf{a}}z}| = e^{-2\pi m\text{Im}(\gamma\sigma_{\mathbf{a}}z)} < 1$. Then

$$P_{m,k,\chi}(\sigma_{\mathbf{a}}z) \ll \sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_{\mathbf{a}}z + d|^k},$$

and now we can proceed in exactly the same way used to show that $E_{k,\chi}(z)$ was holomorphic at the cusps. We collect all of this work as a theorem:

Theorem 3.2.2. *Let $k \geq 4$ and χ be a Dirichlet character with conductor $q \mid N$. The Poincaré series*

$$P_{m,k,\chi}(z) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma} j(\gamma, z)^{-k} e^{2\pi im\gamma z},$$

is a weight k holomorphic form with character χ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$.

3.3 Spaces of Holomorphic Forms

Let Γ be a congruence subgroup of level N . Let $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ denote the space of all weight k holomorphic forms on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ with character χ . Let $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ denote the associated subspace of cusp forms. Moreover, if the character χ is the trivial character, we will suppress the dependence upon χ . If Γ_1 and Γ_2 are two congruence subgroups such that $\Gamma_1 \leq \Gamma_2$, then we have the inclusion

$$\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_2) \subseteq \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1).$$

So in general, the smaller the congruence subgroup the more holomorphic forms there are. We will need a dimensionality result regarding the space of holomorphic forms of a fixed weight. However, it will suffice to only require the result for forms with trivial character. The result is that $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma)$ is never too large (see [DS05] for a proof):

Theorem 3.3.1. *Then $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma)$ is finite dimensional.*

Since $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ is a subspace of $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma)$, Theorem 3.3.1 implies that $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ is also finite dimensional. It turns out that $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ is naturally an inner product space. For $f, g \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$, define their **Petersson inner product** by

$$\langle f, g \rangle_\Gamma = \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu.$$

If the congruence subgroup is clear from context we will suppress the dependence upon Γ . Since f is a cusp form, the integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded by Method 1.5.1. The integrand is also Γ -invariant so that the integral independent of the choice of fundamental domain. These two facts together imply that the Petersson inner product is well-defined. We will continue to use this notion even if f and g do not belong to $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ provided the integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded. Moreover, we have the following proposition:

Proposition 3.3.1. *$\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ is a Hilbert space with respect to Petersson inner product.*

Proof. Let $f, g \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$. Linearity of the integral immediately implies that the Petersson inner product is linear on $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$. It is also positive definite since

$$\langle f, f \rangle = \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} f(z) \overline{f(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu = \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} |f(z)|^2 \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu \geq 0,$$

with equality if and only if f is identically zero because $|f(z)|^2 \operatorname{Im}(z)^k \geq 0$. To see that it is conjugate symmetric, observe

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\langle g, f \rangle} &= \overline{\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} g(z) \overline{f(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu} \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \overline{g(z) \overline{f(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k} d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \overline{g(z)} f(z) \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \overline{g(z)} f(z) \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu \\ &= \langle f, g \rangle. \end{aligned} \quad d\mu = \frac{dx dy}{y^2}$$

So the Petersson inner product is a Hermitian inner product on $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$. Since $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ is finite dimensional by Theorem 3.3.1, it follows immediately that $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ is a Hilbert space. \square

Remark 3.3.1. *As a consequence of Proposition 3.3.1, the Petersson inner product is also non-degenerate on $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$. Actually, for the exact same reasoning this holds on $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma) \times \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma)$ wherever the Petersson inner product is defined.*

Now suppose $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ with Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$. Define linear functionals $\phi_{m,k} : \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, for every $m \geq 1$, by

$$\phi_{m,k}(f) = a_m(f).$$

Since $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ is a finite dimensional Hilbert space, the Riesz representation theorem implies that there exists a unique $v_{m,k} \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ such that

$$\langle f, v_{m,k} \rangle = \phi_{m,k}(f) = a_m(f).$$

We would like to know what these cusp forms are. It turns out that $v_{m,k}(z)$ will be the Poincaré series $P_{m,k,\chi}(z)$ up to a normalization factor. To see this, we compute the inner product:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, P_{m,k,\chi} \rangle &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} f(z) \overline{P_{m,k,\chi}(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \chi(\gamma) \overline{j(\gamma, z)^{-k}} f(z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{\gamma} z} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \frac{\chi(\gamma) j(\gamma, z)^k}{|j(\gamma, z)|^{2k}} f(z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{\gamma} z} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \frac{1}{|j(\gamma, z)^k|^{2k}} f(\gamma z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{\gamma} z} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu && \text{modularity} \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} f(\gamma z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{\gamma} z} \operatorname{Im}(\gamma z)^k d\mu && \operatorname{Im}(\gamma z)^k = \frac{\operatorname{Im}(z)^k}{|j(\gamma, z)|^{2k}}. \end{aligned}$$

We put this last integral into a different form. The idea is to rewrite the integral over the fundamental domain \mathcal{F}_Γ as an integral over the strip $\Gamma_\infty \setminus \mathbb{H}$. First, observe

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} f(\gamma z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{\gamma} z} \operatorname{Im}(\gamma z)^k d\mu &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} f(\gamma z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{\gamma} z} \operatorname{Im}(\gamma z)^k d\mu && \text{DCT} \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \int_{\gamma \mathcal{F}_\Gamma} f(z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{z}} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu && z \rightarrow \gamma^{-1} z. \end{aligned}$$

Now $\mathbb{H} = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \gamma \mathcal{F}_\Gamma$ so that $\Gamma_\infty \setminus \mathbb{H} = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \gamma \mathcal{F}_\Gamma$. Therefore we can write

$$\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \int_{\gamma \mathcal{F}_\Gamma} f(z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{z}} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu = \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\Gamma_\infty \setminus \mathbb{H}} f(z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{z}} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu.$$

The rest is a computation:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \setminus \Gamma} \int_{\gamma \mathcal{F}_\Gamma} f(z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{z}} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\Gamma_\infty \setminus \mathbb{H}} f(z) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{z}} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_0^\infty \int_0^1 f(x + iy) e^{-2\pi i m \overline{(x+iy)}} y^k \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_0^\infty \int_0^1 \sum_{n \geq 1} a_n(f) e^{2\pi i (n-m)x} e^{-2\pi (n+m)y} y^k \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_0^\infty \sum_{n \geq 1} \int_0^1 a_n(f) e^{2\pi i (n-m)x} e^{-2\pi (n+m)y} y^k \frac{dx dy}{y^2} && \text{DCT} \\ &= \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_0^\infty a_m(f) e^{-4\pi m y} y^k \frac{dy}{y^2}, \end{aligned}$$

where the last line follows because

$$\int_0^1 e^{2\pi i(n-m)x} dx = \delta_{n-m,0}, \quad (3.1)$$

so that the inner integral cuts off all the terms except for the $n = m$ term. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_0^\infty a_m(f) e^{-4\pi m y} y^k \frac{dy}{y^2} &= \frac{a_m(f)}{V_\Gamma} \int_0^\infty e^{-4\pi m y} y^{k-1} \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= \frac{a_m(f)}{V_\Gamma} \int_0^\infty e^{-4\pi m y} y^{k-1} \frac{dy}{y} & y \rightarrow \frac{y}{4\pi m} \\ &= \frac{a_m(f)}{V_\Gamma (4\pi m)^{k-1}} \int_0^\infty e^{-y} y^{k-1} \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_\Gamma (4\pi m)^{k-1}} a_m(f) & \text{definition of } \Gamma(k-1). \end{aligned}$$

In conclusion,

$$\langle f, P_{m,k,\chi} \rangle = \frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_\Gamma (4\pi m)^{k-1}} a_m(f). \quad (3.2)$$

Now set

$$\tilde{P}_{m,k,\chi}(z) = \frac{V_\Gamma (4\pi m)^{k-1}}{\Gamma(k-1)} P_{m,k,\chi}(z).$$

For all cusp forms f (actually any holomorphic form where the Petersson inner product is defined),

$$\langle f, \tilde{P}_{m,k,\chi} - v_{m,k} \rangle = 0.$$

By Remark 3.3.1 the Petersson inner product is non-degenerate so we conclude $v_{m,k}(z) = \tilde{P}_{m,k,\chi}(z)$. In particular, this shows that the Poincaré series $P_{m,k,\chi}(z)$ are cusp forms. We usually work with the Poincaré series $P_{m,k,\chi}(z)$ instead of their normalized counterparts $\tilde{P}_{m,k,\chi}(z)$. In any case, with Equation (3.2) in hand we can prove the following result:

Theorem 3.3.2. *The Poincaré series span $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$.*

Proof. Let $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ with Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$. Since $\Gamma(k-1) \neq 0$, Equation (3.2) implies $\langle f, P_{m,k,\chi} \rangle = 0$ if and only if $a_m(f) = 0$. So f is orthogonal to all the Poincaré series if and only if every Fourier coefficient $a_m(f)$ is zero. But this happens if and only if f is identically zero. \square

Let's return to the previous computation for a brief moment. The procedure of changing an integral over a fundamental domain \mathcal{F}_Γ into an integral over the strip $\Gamma_\infty \backslash \mathbb{H}$, or vice versa, works in a more general setting and is called **unfolding the integral** or **folding the integral** respectively:

Method 3.3.1 (Unfolding/folding the integral). Suppose Γ is any congruence subgroup with fundamental domain \mathcal{F}_Γ , and we are given an absolutely convergent integral of the form

$$\int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma' \backslash \Gamma} f(\gamma z) d\mu,$$

where $\Gamma' \leq \Gamma$ is a subgroup. Then the above integral can be written in the form

$$\int_{\Gamma' \backslash \mathbb{H}} f(z) d\mu.$$

To do this use DCT to interchange the sum and integral and then make the change of variables $z \rightarrow \gamma^{-1}z$ to put the integral in the form

$$\sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma' \backslash \Gamma} \int_{\gamma \mathcal{F}_\Gamma} f(z) d\mu.$$

Then observe $\mathbb{H} = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \gamma \mathcal{F}_\Gamma$ so that $\Gamma' \backslash \mathbb{H} = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma' \backslash \Gamma} \gamma \mathcal{F}_\Gamma$. The desired result follows. Of course, there is equality everywhere so we can also run the procedure in reverse.

3.4 Double Coset Operators

We are ready to introduce a class of general operators, depending upon double cosets, on a congruence subgroup Γ of level N . We will use these operators to define the diamond and Hecke operators. For $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$, consider the double coset

$$\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2 = \{\gamma_1 \alpha \gamma_2 : \gamma_1 \in \Gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \Gamma_2\}.$$

Then Γ_1 acts on the set $\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2$ by left multiplication so that it decomposes into a disjoint union of orbit spaces. Thus

$$\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2 = \bigcup_{\beta \in \Gamma_1 \backslash \Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2} \Gamma_1 \beta,$$

where the sum is over the orbit representatives β . However, in order for these operators to be well-defined it is necessary that the orbit decomposition above is a finite union. This is indeed the case and we will require two lemmas. The first is that congruence subgroups are preserved under conjugation by elements of $\mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$ provided we restrict to those elements in $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$:

Lemma 3.4.1. *Let Γ be a congruence subgroup and let $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$. Then $\alpha^{-1} \Gamma \alpha \cap \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ is a congruence subgroup.*

Proof. Recall that if Γ is of level M , then $\Gamma(kM) \leq \Gamma$ for every $k \geq 1$. Thus there is an integer \tilde{N} such that $\Gamma(\tilde{N}) \leq \Gamma$, $\tilde{N}\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Z})$, and $\tilde{N}\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Z})$. Now let $N = \tilde{N}^3$ and notice that any $\gamma \in \Gamma(N)$ is of the form

$$\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + N \begin{pmatrix} k_1 & k_2 \\ k_3 & k_4 \end{pmatrix},$$

for $k_1, \dots, k_4 \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore $\Gamma(N) \subseteq I + N\mathrm{Mat}_2(\mathbb{Z})$. Thus

$$\alpha \Gamma(N) \alpha^{-1} \leq \alpha(I + N\mathrm{Mat}_2(\mathbb{Z})) \alpha^{-1} = I + \tilde{N}\mathrm{Mat}_2(\mathbb{Z}).$$

As every matrix in $\alpha \Gamma(N) \alpha^{-1}$ has determinant 1 and $\Gamma(\tilde{N}) \subseteq I + \tilde{N}\mathrm{Mat}_2(\mathbb{Z})$, it follows that $\alpha \Gamma(N) \alpha^{-1} \leq \Gamma(\tilde{N})$. As $\Gamma(\tilde{N}) \leq \Gamma$, we conclude

$$\Gamma(N) \leq \alpha^{-1} \Gamma \alpha,$$

and intersecting with $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ completes the proof. \square

Note that by Lemma 3.4.1, if $\alpha^{-1} \Gamma \alpha \subset \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ then $\alpha^{-1} \Gamma \alpha$ is a congruence subgroup of Γ is. Moreover, since congruence subgroups are closed under intersection, Lemma 3.4.1 further implies that $\alpha^{-1} \Gamma_1 \alpha \cap \Gamma_2$ is a congruence subgroup for any two congruence subgroups Γ_1 and Γ_2 and any $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$. Our second lemma gives a way to describe the orbit representatives for $\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2$ in terms of coset representatives:

Lemma 3.4.2. *Let Γ_1 and Γ_2 be congruence subgroups and let $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$. Set $\Gamma_3 = \alpha^{-1}\Gamma_1\alpha \cap \Gamma_2$. Then left multiplication map*

$$\Gamma_2 \rightarrow \Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_2 \quad \gamma_2 \mapsto \alpha\gamma_2,$$

induces a bijection from the coset space $\Gamma_3 \backslash \Gamma_2$ to the orbit space $\Gamma_1 \backslash \Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_2$.

Proof. We will show that the induced map is both surjective and injective. For surjectivity, the orbit representatives β of $\Gamma_1 \backslash \Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_2$ are of the form $\beta = \gamma_1\alpha\gamma_2$ for some $\gamma_1 \in \Gamma_1$ and $\gamma_2 \in \Gamma_2$. Since Γ_1 is acting on $\Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_2$ by left multiplication, β can be written as $\beta = \alpha\gamma'_2$ for some $\gamma'_2 \in \Gamma_2$. This shows that the induced map is a surjection. To prove injectivity, let $\gamma_2, \gamma'_2 \in \Gamma_2$ be such that the orbit space representatives $\alpha\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma'_2$ are equivalent. That is,

$$\Gamma_1\alpha\gamma_2 = \Gamma_1\alpha\gamma'_2.$$

This implies $\alpha\gamma_2(\gamma'_2)^{-1} \in \Gamma_1\alpha$ and so $\gamma_2(\gamma'_2)^{-1} \in \alpha^{-1}\Gamma_1\alpha$. But we also have $\gamma_2(\gamma'_2)^{-1} \in \Gamma_2$ and these two facts together imply $\gamma_2(\gamma'_2)^{-1} \in \Gamma_3$. Hence

$$\Gamma_3\gamma_2 = \Gamma_3\gamma'_2,$$

which shows that the induced map is also an injection. □

With these lemmas in hand, we can prove that the orbit decomposition of $\Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_2$ is finite:

Proposition 3.4.1. *Let $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$. Then the orbit decomposition*

$$\Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_2 = \bigcup_j \Gamma_1\beta_j,$$

with respect to the action of Γ_1 by left multiplication, is a finite union.

Proof. Let $\Gamma_3 = \alpha\Gamma_1\alpha^{-1} \cap \Gamma_2$. Then Γ_3 acts on Γ_2 by left multiplication. By Lemma 3.4.2, the number of orbits of $\Gamma_1 \backslash \Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_2$ is the same as the number of cosets of $\Gamma_3 \backslash \Gamma_2$ which is $[\Gamma_2 : \Gamma_3]$. By Lemma 3.4.1, $\alpha^{-1}\Gamma_1\alpha \cap \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ is a congruence subgroup and hence $[\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \alpha^{-1}\Gamma_1\alpha \cap \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})]$ is finite. As $\Gamma_2 = \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) \cap \Gamma_2$ and $\Gamma_3 = \alpha^{-1}\Gamma_1\alpha \cap \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) \cap \Gamma_2$, it follows that $[\Gamma_2 : \Gamma_3] \leq [\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \alpha^{-1}\Gamma_1\alpha \cap \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})]$ completing the proof. □

In light of Proposition 3.4.1, we will denote the orbit representatives by β_j to make it clear that there are finitely many. We can now introduce our operators. Fix some congruence subgroup Γ and consider $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma)$. Then for $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$, we define the operator $[\alpha]_k$ on $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma)$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(f[\alpha]_k)(z) = \det(\alpha)^{k-1} j(\alpha, z)^{-k} f(\alpha z),$$

Moreover, $[\alpha]_k$ is multiplicative. Indeed, if $\alpha, \alpha' \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$, then

$$\begin{aligned} ((f[\alpha']_k)[\alpha]_k)(z) &= \det(\alpha)^{k-1} j(\alpha, z)^{-k} (f[\alpha']_k)(\alpha z) \\ &= \det(\alpha')^{k-1} \det(\alpha)^{k-1} j(\alpha', \alpha z)^{-k} j(\alpha, z)^{-k} f(\alpha' \alpha z) \\ &= \det(\alpha' \alpha)^{k-1} j(\alpha' \alpha, z)^{-k} f(\alpha' \alpha z) && \text{cocycle condition} \\ &= (f[\alpha' \alpha]_k)(z). \end{aligned}$$

Also, if $\gamma \in \Gamma$ and we choose the representative with $\det(\gamma) = 1$, then the chain of equalities

$$(f[\gamma]_k)(z) = j(\gamma, z)^{-k} f(\gamma z) = f(z),$$

is equivalent to the modularity of f on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ with trivial character. Thus f is holomorphic form on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ with trivial character if and only if $f[\gamma]_k = f$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$ where γ is chosen to be the representative with positive determinant. Now let Γ_1 and Γ_2 be two congruence subgroups and let $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$. We define the **double coset operator** $[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k$ on $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1)$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k)(z) = \sum_j (f[\beta_j]_k)(z) = \sum_j \det(\beta_j)^{k-1} j(\beta_j, z)^{-k} f(\beta_j z),$$

By Proposition 3.4.1 this sum is finite. It remains to check that $f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k$ is well-defined. Indeed, if β_j and β'_j belong to the same orbit, then $\beta'_j \beta_j^{-1} \in \Gamma_1$. But then as $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1)$, is it invariant under the $[\beta'_j \beta_j^{-1}]_k$ operator so that

$$(f[\beta_j]_k)(z) = ((f[\beta'_j \beta_j^{-1}]_k)[\beta_j]_k)(z) = (f[\beta'_j]_k)(z),$$

and therefore the $[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k$ operator is well-defined. Actually, the map $[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k$ preserves holomorphic forms:

Proposition 3.4.2. *For any two congruence subgroups Γ_1 and Γ_2 , $[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k$ maps $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1)$ into $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_2)$. Moreover, $[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k$ preserves the subspace of cusp forms.*

Proof. Holomorphy is immediate since the sum in the definition of $f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k$ is finite by Proposition 3.4.1. For modularity, let $\gamma \in \Gamma_2$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k)(\gamma z) &= \sum_j \det(\beta_j)^{k-1} j(\beta_j, \gamma z)^{-k} f(\beta_j \gamma z) \\ &= \sum_j \det(\beta_j \gamma)^{k-1} j(\beta_j, \gamma z)^{-k} f(\beta_j \gamma z) && \det(\gamma) = 1 \\ &= \sum_j \det(\beta_j \gamma)^{k-1} \left(\frac{j(\gamma, z)}{j(\beta_j \gamma, z)} \right)^k f(\beta_j \gamma z) && \text{cocycle condition} \\ &= j(\gamma, z)^k \sum_j \det(\beta_j \gamma)^{k-1} j(\beta_j \gamma, z)^{-k} f(\beta_j \gamma z) \\ &= j(\gamma, z)^k \sum_j \det(\beta_j)^{k-1} j(\beta_j, z)^{-k} f(\beta_j z) && \beta_j \rightarrow \beta_j \gamma^{-1} \text{ bijection on } \Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2 \\ &= j(\gamma, z)^k \sum_j (f[\beta_j]_k)(z) \\ &= j(\gamma, z)^k (f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k)(z). \end{aligned}$$

This proves $f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k$ is modular. For the growth condition, let $\sigma_{\mathbf{a}}$ be a scaling matrix for the cusp \mathbf{a} of $\Gamma_2 \backslash \mathbb{H}$. For any orbit representative β_j , $\beta_j \sigma_{\mathbf{a}}$ takes ∞ to an element of $\mathbb{Q} \cup \{\infty\}$ since $\beta_j \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$. In other words, $\beta_j \sigma_{\mathbf{a}} \infty = \mathbf{b}$ for some cusp \mathbf{b} of $\Gamma_1 \backslash \mathbb{H}$. Now choose an integer $r \geq 1$ such that $r\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Z})$. As a consequence, there exist integers $n, m \geq 1$ such that $rj(\beta_j, \sigma_{\mathbf{a}} z) = |n\sigma_{\mathbf{a}} z + m|$. Then letting $y \geq 1$ and δ be as in Lemma 3.2.1, we have

$$j(\beta_j, \sigma_{\mathbf{a}} z) = \frac{|n\sigma_{\mathbf{a}} z + m|}{r} \geq \frac{\delta |ni + m|}{r}.$$

From this bound, we see that

$$(f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k)(\sigma_{\mathbf{a}} z) \ll \left(\frac{\delta |ni + m|}{r} \right)^{-k} \sum_j \det(\beta_j)^{k-1} |f(\beta_j \sigma_{\mathbf{a}} z)|,$$

and the growth condition is satisfied. Therefore $f[\Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_2]_k \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_2)$. To see that $[\Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_2]_k$ preserves the subspace of cusp forms, just note that if f is a cusp form it has exponential decay at the cusps so that the sum on the right-hand side does too. Then $f[\Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_2]_k$ is a cusp form too. \square

The double coset operators are the most basic types of operators on holomorphic forms. They are the building blocks needed to define the more important diamond and Hecke operators.

3.5 Diamond & Hecke Operators

The diamond and Hecke operators are special linear operators that are used to construct a linear theory of holomorphic forms. They will also help us understand the Fourier coefficients. Throughout this discussion, we will obtain corresponding results for holomorphic forms with nontrivial characters. We will discuss the diamond operator first. To define them, we need to consider both the congruence subgroups $\Gamma_1(N)$ and $\Gamma_0(N)$. Recall that $\Gamma_1(N) \leq \Gamma_0(N)$ and consider the map

$$\Gamma_0(N) \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^* \quad \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow d \pmod{N},$$

(d is invertible modulo N since $c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$ and $ad - bc = 1$). This is a surjective homomorphism and its kernel is exactly $\Gamma_1(N)$ so that $\Gamma_1(N)$ is a normal subgroup of $\Gamma_0(N)$ and $\Gamma_0(N)/\Gamma_1(N) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$. Letting $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ * & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$ and $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1)$, consider $(f[\Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N)]_k)(z)$. This is only dependent upon the lower-right entry d of α taken modulo N . To see this, since $\Gamma_1(N)$ is normal in $\Gamma_0(N)$, $\Gamma_1(N)\alpha = \alpha\Gamma_1(N)$ so that $\Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N) = \alpha\Gamma_1(N)$ and hence there is only one representative for the orbit decomposition. Therefore

$$(f[\Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N)]_k)(z) = \sum_j (f[\beta]_k)(z) = (f[\alpha]_k)(z).$$

This induces an action of $\Gamma_0(N)$ on $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1)$ and since $\Gamma_1(N)$ acts trivially, this is really an action of $\Gamma_0(N)/\Gamma_1(N) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$. In other words, we have an induced action that depends only upon the lower-right entry d of α taken modulo N . So for any d modulo N , we define the **diamond operator** $\langle d \rangle : \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(\langle d \rangle f)(z) = (f[\alpha]_k)(z),$$

for any $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ * & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$. Our discussion above has already shown that the diamond operators $\langle d \rangle$ are well-defined. Moreover, the diamond operators are also invertible with $\langle \bar{d} \rangle$ serving as an inverse and α^{-1} as a representative for the definition. Also, since the operator $[\alpha]_k$ is multiplicative and

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ 0 & e \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ 0 & de \end{pmatrix} \pmod{N},$$

the diamond operators are multiplicative. One reason the diamond operators are useful is that they decompose $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ into eigenspaces. For any Dirichlet character χ modulo N , we let

$$\mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi) = \{f \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) : \langle d \rangle f = \chi(d)f \text{ for all } d \in (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*\},$$

be the χ -eigenspace. Also let $\mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$ be the corresponding subspace of cusp forms. Then $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ admits a decomposition into these eigenspaces:

Proposition 3.5.1. *We have a direct sum decomposition*

$$\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) = \bigoplus_{\chi \pmod{N}} \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi).$$

Moreover, this decomposition respects the subspace of cusp forms.

Proof. The diamond operators give a representation of $\Gamma_0(N)/\Gamma_1(N) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$ over $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$. Explicitly,

$$\Phi : (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^* \times \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) \quad (d, f) \rightarrow \langle d \rangle f.$$

But any representation of a finite abelian group over \mathbb{C} is completely reducible with respect to the characters of the group and every irreducible subrepresentation is 1-dimensional (see Theorem C.2.1). Since the characters of $(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$ are given by Dirichlet characters, the decomposition as a direct sum follows. The decomposition respects the subspace of cusp forms because the double coset operators do. \square

If $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ * & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$ and we choose the representative with positive determinant, then $\chi(\gamma) = \chi(d)$ and the chain of equalities

$$(\langle d \rangle f)(z) = (f[\gamma]_k)(z) = j(\gamma, z)^{-k} f(\gamma z) = \chi(d) f(z),$$

is equivalent to the modularity of f with character χ on $\Gamma_0(N) \backslash \mathbb{H}$. Thus f is a holomorphic form with character χ on $\Gamma_0(N) \backslash \mathbb{H}$ if and only if $f[\gamma]_k = \chi(\gamma) f$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma_0(N)$ where γ is chosen to be the representative with positive determinant. It follows that the diamond operators sieve holomorphic forms on $\Gamma_1(N) \backslash \mathbb{H}$ with trivial character in terms of holomorphic forms on $\Gamma_0(N) \backslash \mathbb{H}$ with nontrivial characters. In particular, $\mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi) = \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_0(N), \chi)$ and $\mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi) = \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_0(N), \chi)$. So by Proposition 3.5.1, we have

$$\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) = \bigoplus_{\chi \pmod{N}} \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_0(N), \chi),$$

and this decomposition respects the subspace of cusp forms. This fact clarifies why it is necessary to consider holomorphic forms with nontrivial characters. Now it is time to define the Hecke operators. For a prime p , we define the p -th **Hecke operator** $T_p : \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(T_p f)(z) = \left(\left[\Gamma_1(N) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \Gamma_1(N) \right]_k f \right)(z).$$

By Proposition 3.4.2, T_p preserves the subspace of cusp forms. We will start discussing properties of the diamond and Hecke operators, but we first state an important lemma that will be used throughout (see [DS05] for a proof):

Lemma 3.5.1. *Let p be a prime. As sets,*

$$\Gamma_1(N) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \Gamma_1(N) = \left\{ \gamma \in \text{Mat}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \gamma \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & * \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \pmod{N}, \det(\gamma) = p \right\}.$$

With Lemma 3.5.1, it is not too hard to see that the diamond and Hecke operators commute:

Proposition 3.5.2. *For every $d \in (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$ and prime p , the diamond operator $\langle d \rangle$ and the Hecke operator T_p on $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ commute:*

$$\langle d \rangle T_p = T_p \langle d \rangle$$

Proof. Let $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix}$. For $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$, we have

$$\gamma\alpha\gamma^{-1} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & (p-1)ab \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \pmod{N},$$

because $c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$, $ad - bc = 1$, and $ad \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$. By Lemma 3.5.1, $\gamma\alpha\gamma^{-1} \in \Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N)$ and so we can use this representative in place of α . On the one hand,

$$\Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N) = \bigcup_j \Gamma_1(N)\beta_j.$$

On the other hand, using $\gamma\alpha\gamma^{-1}$ in place of α and the normality of $\Gamma_1(N)$ in $\Gamma_0(N)$, we have

$$\Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N) = \Gamma_1(N)\gamma\alpha\gamma^{-1}\Gamma_1(N) = \gamma\Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N)\gamma^{-1} = \gamma \bigcup_j \Gamma_1(N)\beta_j\gamma^{-1} = \bigcup_j \Gamma_1(N)\gamma\beta_j\gamma^{-1}.$$

Upon comparing these two decompositions of $\Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N)$ gives

$$\bigcup_j \Gamma_1(N)\beta_j = \bigcup_j \Gamma_1(N)\gamma\beta_j\gamma^{-1}.$$

Now let $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$. Then this equivalence of unions implies

$$\langle d \rangle T_p f = \sum_j f[\beta_j\gamma]_k = \sum_j f[\gamma\beta_j]_k = T_p \langle d \rangle f.$$

□

Using Lemma 3.5.1 we can obtain an explicit description of the Hecke operator T_p :

Proposition 3.5.3. *Let $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$. Then the Hecke operator T_p acts on f as follows:*

$$(T_p f)(z) = \begin{cases} \sum_{j \pmod{p}} \left(f \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \right]_k \right) (z) + \left(f \left[\begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ N & p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right]_k \right) (z) & \text{if } p \nmid N, \\ \sum_{j \pmod{p}} \left(f \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \right]_k \right) (z) & \text{if } p \mid N, \end{cases}$$

where m and n are chosen such that $\det \left(\begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ N & p \end{pmatrix} \right) = 1$.

Proof. Set $\Gamma_3 = \alpha^1 \Gamma_1(N) \alpha \cap \Gamma_1(N)$ where $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix}$. Define

$$\beta_j = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_\infty = \begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ N & p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} pm & n \\ Np & p \end{pmatrix},$$

for j taken modulo p and where m and n are chosen such that $\det \left(\begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ N & p \end{pmatrix} \right) = 1$. It suffices to show $\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{p-1}\}$ and $\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{p-1}, \beta_\infty\}$ are complete sets of orbit representatives for $\Gamma_1(N) \backslash \Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N)$ depending on if $p \nmid N$ or not. To accomplish this, we will find a complete set of coset representatives for $\Gamma_3 \backslash \Gamma_1(N)$ and then use Lemma 3.4.2. First we require an explicit description of Γ_3 . Let

$$\Gamma^0(p) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} * & 0 \\ * & * \end{pmatrix} \pmod{p} \right\},$$

and define

$$\Gamma_1^0(N, p) = \Gamma_1(N) \cap \Gamma^0(p).$$

We claim $\Gamma_3 = \Gamma_1^0(N, p)$. For the forward inclusion, let $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_1(N)$ and observe that

$$\alpha^{-1}\gamma\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & pd \\ p^{-1}c & d \end{pmatrix}.$$

If $\alpha^{-1}\gamma\alpha \in \Gamma_3$, then $\alpha^{-1}\gamma\alpha \in \Gamma_1(N)$ and thus $p \mid c$ so that $\alpha^{-1}\gamma\alpha \in \text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$. Moreover, the previous computation implies $\alpha^{-1}\gamma\alpha \in \Gamma_1^0(N, p)$ and so $\Gamma_3 \subseteq \Gamma_1^0(N, p)$. For the reverse inclusion, suppose $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_1^0(N, p)$. Then $b = pk$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now observe

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & k \\ pc & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} = \alpha^{-1}\gamma\alpha,$$

where $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & k \\ pc & d \end{pmatrix}$. As $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_1(N)$ we conclude $\gamma \in \Gamma_1(N)$ as well. Now let

$$\gamma_j = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_\infty = \begin{pmatrix} pm & n \\ N & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

for j taken modulo p and where m and n are as before. Clearly $\gamma_j \in \Gamma_1(N)$ for all j . As $pm - Nn = 1$, we have $pm \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ so that $\gamma_\infty \in \Gamma_1(N)$ as well. We claim that $\{\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{p-1}\}$ and $\{\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{p-1}, \gamma_\infty\}$ are sets of coset representatives for $\Gamma_3 \backslash \Gamma_1(N)$ depending on if $p \nmid N$ or not. Let $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_1(N)$ and consider

$$\gamma\gamma_j^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -j \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b - aj \\ c & d - cj \end{pmatrix}.$$

As $\gamma\gamma_j^{-1} \in \Gamma_1(N)$ because both γ and γ_j are, $\gamma\gamma_j^{-1} \in \Gamma_3 = \Gamma_1^0(N, p)$ for some i if and only if

$$b \equiv aj \pmod{p}.$$

First suppose $p \nmid a$. Then a is invertible modulo p so we may take $j = \bar{a}b \pmod{p}$. Now suppose $p \mid a$. If there is some i satisfying $b \equiv ai \pmod{p}$, then we also have $p \mid b$. But as $ad - bc = 1$, this is impossible and so no such i exists. As $a \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$, $p \mid a$ if and only if $p \nmid N$. In this case consider instead

$$\gamma\gamma_\infty^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -n \\ -N & pm \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a - Nb & pmb - na \\ c - Nd & pmd - nc \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since $p \mid a$, we have $pmb - na \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ so that $\gamma\gamma_\infty^{-1} \in \Gamma_3 = \Gamma_1^0(N, p)$. Altogether, we have shown that $\{\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{p-1}\}$ and $\{\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{p-1}, \gamma_\infty\}$ are sets of coset representatives for $\Gamma_3 \backslash \Gamma_1(N)$ depending on if $p \nmid N$ or not. To show they are complete sets, we need to show that no two representatives belong to the same coset. To this end, suppose j and j' are distinct, taken modulo p , and consider

$$\gamma_j\gamma_{j'}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & j' \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & j - j' \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $\gamma_j\gamma_{j'}^{-1} \in \Gamma_3 = \Gamma_1^0(N, p)$ if and only if $j - j' \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. This is impossible since j and j' are distinct. Hence γ_j and $\gamma_{j'}$ represent distinct cosets. Now consider

$$\gamma_j\gamma_\infty^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -n \\ -N & pm \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - Nj & pmj - n \\ -N & pm \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now $\gamma_j \gamma_\infty^{-1} \in \Gamma_3 = \Gamma_1^0(N, p)$ if and only if $pmj - n \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. This is impossible since $pm - Nn = 1$ implies $p \nmid n$. Therefore γ_j and γ_∞ represent distinct cosets. It follows that $\{\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{p-1}\}$ and $\{\gamma_1, \dots, \beta_{p-1}, \gamma_\infty\}$ are complete sets of coset representatives completing the proof. As

$$\alpha\gamma_j = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} = \beta_j \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha\gamma_\infty = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} pm & n \\ N & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} pm & n \\ Np & p \end{pmatrix} = \beta_\infty,$$

Lemma 3.4.2 finishes the proof. \square

This explicit definition of T_p can be used to compute how the Hecke operators act on the Fourier coefficients of a holomorphic form:

Proposition 3.5.4. *Let $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ with Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$. Then for primes p with $(p, N) = 1$,*

$$(T_p f)(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \left(a_{np}(f) + \chi_{N,0}(p) p^{k-1} a_{\frac{n}{p}}(\langle p \rangle f) \right) e^{2\pi i n z},$$

is the Fourier series of $T_p f$ where it is understood that $a_{\frac{n}{p}}(f) = 0$ if $p \nmid n$. Moreover, if $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$, then $T_p f \in \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$ and

$$(T_p f)(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \left(a_{np}(f) + \chi(p) p^{k-1} a_{\frac{n}{p}}(f) \right) e^{2\pi i n z},$$

where it is understood that $a_{\frac{n}{p}}(f) = 0$ if $p \nmid n$.

Proof. In view of Proposition 3.5.1 and the linearity of the Hecke operators, it suffices to assume $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$ and thus only the second formula needs to be verified. Observe that

$$\left(f \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \right]_k \right) (z) = \frac{1}{p} f \left(\frac{z+j}{p} \right) = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(f) e^{\frac{2\pi i n(z+j)}{p}}.$$

Summing over all j modulo p gives

$$\sum_{j \pmod{p}} \left(f \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \right]_k \right) (z) = \sum_{j \pmod{p}} \frac{1}{p} \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(f) e^{\frac{2\pi i n(z+j)}{p}} = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(f) e^{\frac{2\pi i n z}{p}} \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j \pmod{p}} e^{\frac{2\pi i n j}{p}}.$$

If $p \nmid N$ then the inner sum vanishes because it is the sum over all p -th roots of unity. If $p \mid N$ then the sum is p . Therefore

$$\sum_{j \pmod{p}} \left(f \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \right]_k \right) (z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_{np}(f) e^{2\pi i n z}.$$

If $p \mid N$, then Proposition 3.5.3 implies

$$(T_p f)(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_{np}(f) e^{2\pi i n z}, \tag{3.3}$$

which is the claimed Fourier series of $T_p f$. $p \nmid N$, then we have the additional term

$$\begin{aligned} \left(f \left[\begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ N & p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right]_k \right) (z) &= \left(\langle p \rangle f \left[\begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right]_k \right) (z) \\ &= p^{k-1} (\langle p \rangle f)(pz) \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 0} p^{k-1} a_n(\langle p \rangle f) e^{2\pi i n p z} \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 0} \chi(p) p^{k-1} a_n(f) e^{2\pi i n p z}, \end{aligned}$$

where the first equality holds because $\begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ N & p \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$ and the last equality holds because $\langle p \rangle f = \chi(p)f$. In this case, Proposition 3.5.3 gives

$$(T_p f)(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_{np}(f) + \chi(p)p^{k-1}a_{\frac{n}{p}}(f)e^{2\pi inz}.$$

Since $\chi(p) = 0$ if $p \mid N$, these two cases can be expressed together as

$$(T_p f)(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \left(a_{np}(f) + \chi(p)p^{k-1}a_{\frac{n}{p}}(f) \right) e^{2\pi inz}.$$

□

We now mention the crucial result about Hecke operators which is that they form a simultaneously commuting family with the diamond operators:

Proposition 3.5.5. *Let p and q be primes and $d, e \in (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$. The Hecke operators T_p and T_q and diamond operators $\langle d \rangle$ and $\langle e \rangle$ on $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ form a simultaneously commuting family:*

$$T_p T_q = T_q T_p, \quad \langle d \rangle T_p = T_p \langle d \rangle, \quad \text{and} \quad \langle d \rangle \langle e \rangle = \langle e \rangle \langle d \rangle.$$

Proof. Showing the diamond and Hecke operators commute was Proposition 3.5.2. To show commutativity of the diamond operators, let $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ * & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$ and $\eta = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ * & e \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$. Then

$$\gamma\eta \equiv \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ 0 & de \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ 0 & ed \end{pmatrix} \equiv \eta\gamma \pmod{N}.$$

Therefore $[\gamma\eta]_k = [\eta\gamma]_k$ and so for any $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$, we have

$$\langle d \rangle \langle e \rangle f = f[\gamma\eta]_k = f[\eta\gamma]_k = \langle e \rangle \langle d \rangle f.$$

We now show that the Hecke operators commute. In view of Proposition 3.5.1 and linearity of the Hecke operators, it suffices to prove this for $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$. Applying Proposition 3.5.4 twice, for any $n \geq 1$ we compute

$$\begin{aligned} a_n(T_p T_q f) &= a_{np}(T_q f) + \chi(p)p^{k-1}a_{\frac{n}{p}}(T_q f) \\ &= a_{npq}(f) + \chi(q)q^{k-1}a_{\frac{np}{q}}(f) + \chi(p)p^{k-1}(a_{\frac{nq}{p}}(f) + \chi(q)q^{k-1}a_{\frac{n}{pq}}(f)) \\ &= a_{npq}(f) + \chi(q)q^{k-1}a_{\frac{np}{q}}(f) + \chi(p)p^{k-1}a_{\frac{nq}{p}}(f) + \chi(pq)(pq)^{k-1}a_{\frac{n}{pq}}(f). \end{aligned}$$

The last expression is symmetric in p and q so that $a_n(T_p T_q f) = a_n(T_q T_p f)$ for all $n \geq 1$. Since all of the Fourier coefficients are equal, we get

$$T_p T_q f = T_q T_p f.$$

□

We can use Proposition 3.5.5 to construct diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$ and Hecke operators T_m for all $m \geq 1$. The **diamond operator** $\langle m \rangle : \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ is defined to be the linear operator given by

$$\langle m \rangle = \begin{cases} \langle m \rangle \text{ with } m \text{ taken modulo } N & \text{if } (m, N) = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } (m, N) > 1. \end{cases}$$

Now for the Hecke operators. If $m = p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k}$ is the prime decomposition of m , then we define the m -th **Hecke operator** $T_m : \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ to be the linear operator given by

$$T_m = \prod_{1 \leq i \leq k} T_{p_i^{r_i}},$$

where T_{p^r} is defined inductively by

$$T_{p^r} = \begin{cases} T_p T_{p^{r-1}} - p^{k-1} \langle p \rangle T_{p^{r-2}} & \text{if } p \nmid N, \\ T_p^r & \text{if } p \mid N, \end{cases}$$

for all $r \geq 2$. Then by Proposition 3.5.5, the Hecke operators T_m are multiplicative but not completely multiplicative in m . Moreover, they commute with the diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$. Using these definitions, Propositions 3.5.4 and 3.5.5, a more general formula for how the Hecke operators T_m act on Fourier coefficients can be derived:

Proposition 3.5.6. *Let $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ with Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$. Then for $m \geq 1$ with $(m, N) = 1$,*

$$(T_m f)(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \left(\sum_{d \mid (n, m)} d^{k-1} a_{\frac{nm}{d^2}}(\langle d \rangle f) \right) e^{2\pi i n z},$$

is the Fourier series of $T_m f$. Moreover, if $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$, then

$$(T_m f)(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \left(\sum_{d \mid (n, m)} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{nm}{d^2}}(f) \right) e^{2\pi i n z}.$$

Proof. In view of Proposition 3.5.1 and linearity of the Hecke operators, we may assume $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$. Therefore we only need to verify the second formula. When $m = 1$ the result is obvious and when $m = p$, we have

$$\sum_{d \mid (n, p)} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{np}{d^2}}(f) = a_{np}(f) + \chi(p) p^{k-1} a_{\frac{n}{p}}(f),$$

which is the result obtained from Proposition 3.5.4. By induction assume that the desired formula holds for $m = 1, p, \dots, p^{r-1}$. Using the definition of T_{p^r} and Proposition 3.5.4, for any $n \geq 1$ we compute

$$\begin{aligned} a_n(T_{p^r} f) &= a_n(T_p T_{p^{r-1}} f) - \chi(p) p^{k-1} a_n(T_{p^{r-2}} f) \\ &= a_{np}(T_{p^{r-1}} f) + \chi(p) p^{k-1} a_{\frac{n}{p}}(T_{p^{r-1}} f) - \chi(p) p^{k-1} a_n(T_{p^{r-2}} f). \end{aligned}$$

By our induction hypothesis, this last expression is

$$\sum_{d \mid (np, p^{r-1})} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{np}{d^2}}(f) + \chi(p) p^{k-1} \sum_{d \mid (\frac{n}{p}, p^{r-1})} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^{r-2}}{d^2}}(f) - \chi(p) p^{k-1} \sum_{d \mid (n, p^{r-2})} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^{r-2}}{d^2}}(f).$$

Write the first sum as

$$\sum_{d \mid (np, p^{r-1})} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{np}{d^2}}(f) = a_{np^r}(f) + \sum_{d \mid (n, p^{r-2})} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^{r-2}}{d^2}}(f),$$

and observe that the sum on the right-hand side cancels the entire third term above. Therefore our expression reduces to

$$\begin{aligned} a_{np^r}(f) + \chi(p) p^{k-1} \sum_{d \mid (\frac{n}{p}, p^{r-1})} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^{r-2}}{d^2}}(f) &= a_{np^r}(f) + \sum_{d \mid (\frac{n}{p}, p^{r-1})} \chi(dp) (dp)^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^{r-2}}{d^2}}(f) \\ &= a_{np^r}(f) + \sum_{\substack{d \mid (n, p^r) \\ d \neq 1}} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^r}{d^2}}(f) \\ &= \sum_{d \mid (n, p^r)} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^r}{d^2}}(f), \end{aligned}$$

where in the second line we have performed the change of variables $dp \rightarrow d$ in the sum. This proves the claim when $m = p^r$ for all $r \geq 0$. By multiplicativity of the Hecke operators, it suffices to prove the claim when $m = p^r q^s$ for another prime q and some $s \geq 0$. We compute

$$\begin{aligned}
 a_n(T_{p^r q^s} f) &= a_n(T_{p^r} T_{q^s} f) \\
 &= \sum_{d_1 | (n, p^r)} \chi(d_1) d_1^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^r}{d_1^2}}(T_{q^s} f) \\
 &= \sum_{d_1 | (n, p^r)} \chi(d_1) d_1^{k-1} \sum_{d_2 | \left(\frac{np^r}{d_1^2}, q^s\right)} \chi(d_2) d_2^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^r q^s}{(d_1 d_2)^2}}(f) \\
 &= \sum_{d_1 | (n, p^r)} \sum_{d_2 | \left(\frac{np^r}{d_1^2}, q^s\right)} \chi(d_1 d_2) (d_1 d_2)^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^r q^s}{(d_1 d_2)^2}}(f).
 \end{aligned}$$

Summing over pairs (d_1, d_2) of divisors of (n, p^r) and $\left(\frac{np^r}{d_1^2}, q^s\right)$ respectively is the same as summing over divisors d of $(n, p^r q^s)$. Indeed, because p and q are relative prime, any such d is of the form $d = d_1 d_2$ where $d_1 | (n, p^r)$ and $d_2 | \left(\frac{np^r}{d_1^2}, q^s\right)$. Therefore the double sum becomes

$$\sum_{d | (n, p^r q^s)} \chi(d) d^{k-1} a_{\frac{np^r q^s}{d^2}}(f).$$

This completes the proof. \square

The diamond and Hecke operators turn out to be normal with respect to the Petersson inner product on the subspace of cusp forms. To prove this fact, we will require a lemma:

Lemma 3.5.2. *Let Γ be a congruence subgroup and let $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$. Then the following are true:*

- (i) *If $\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha \subseteq \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$, then $V_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha} = V_\Gamma$ and $[\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha] = [\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \Gamma]$.*
- (ii) *There exist $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$, where $n = [\Gamma : \alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha \cap \Gamma] = [\Gamma : \alpha\Gamma\alpha^{-1} \cap \Gamma]$, and such that*

$$\Gamma\alpha\Gamma = \bigcup_j \Gamma\beta_j = \bigcup_j \beta_j\Gamma.$$

Proof. For (i), we claim

$$V_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha} = \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha}} d\mu = \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} d\mu = V_\Gamma,$$

where the second equality is justified by first making the change of variables $z \rightarrow \alpha z$ and then noting that α acts as an automorphism on \mathbb{H} so that $\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma\alpha} = \mathcal{F}_\Gamma$. The second statement now follows from Equation (2.1). For (ii), apply (i) with the congruence subgroup $\alpha\Gamma\alpha^{-1} \cap \Gamma$ in place of Γ to get

$$[\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha \cap \Gamma] = [\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \alpha\Gamma\alpha^{-1} \cap \Gamma].$$

Dividing both sides by $[\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) : \Gamma]$ gives

$$[\Gamma : \alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha \cap \Gamma] = [\Gamma : \alpha\Gamma\alpha^{-1} \cap \Gamma].$$

Therefore we can find coset representatives $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n \in \Gamma$ and $\tilde{\gamma}_1, \dots, \tilde{\gamma}_n \in \Gamma$ such that

$$\Gamma = \bigcup_j (\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha \cap \Gamma)\gamma_j = \bigcup_j (\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha \cap \Gamma)\tilde{\gamma}_j^{-1}.$$

Invoking Lemma 3.4.2 twice, we can express each of these coset decompositions as an orbit decomposition:

$$\bigcup_j (\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha \cap \Gamma)\gamma_j = \bigcup_j \Gamma\alpha\gamma_j \quad \text{and} \quad \bigcup_j (\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha \cap \Gamma)\tilde{\gamma}_j^{-1} = \bigcup_j \Gamma\alpha^{-1}\tilde{\gamma}_j^{-1}.$$

It follows that

$$\Gamma = \bigcup_j \Gamma\alpha\gamma_j = \bigcup_j \tilde{\gamma}_j\alpha\Gamma.$$

For each j the orbit spaces $\Gamma\alpha\gamma_j$ and $\tilde{\gamma}_j\alpha\Gamma$ have nonempty intersection. For if they did we would have $\Gamma\alpha\gamma_j \subseteq \bigcup_{i \neq j} \tilde{\gamma}_i\alpha\Gamma$ and thus $\Gamma\alpha\Gamma \subseteq \bigcup_{i \neq j} \tilde{\gamma}_i\alpha\Gamma$. This contradicts the previous decomposition of Γ . Therefore we can find representatives $\beta_j \in \Gamma\alpha\gamma_j \cap \tilde{\gamma}_j\alpha\Gamma$ for every j . Then β_j

$$\Gamma = \bigcup_j \Gamma\beta_j = \bigcup_j \beta_j\Gamma. \quad \square$$

We can use Lemma 3.5.2 to compute adjoints:

Proposition 3.5.7. *Let Γ be a congruence subgroup and let $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$. Set $\alpha' = \det(\alpha)\alpha^{-1}$. Then the following are true:*

(i) *If $\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha \subseteq \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$, then for all $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$ and $g \in \mathcal{S}_k(\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha)$, we have*

$$\langle f[\alpha]_k, g \rangle_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha} = \langle f, g[\alpha']_k \rangle_{\Gamma}.$$

(ii) *For all $f, g \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma)$, we have*

$$\langle f[\Gamma\alpha\Gamma]_k, g \rangle = \langle f, g[\Gamma\alpha'\Gamma]_k \rangle.$$

In particular, if $\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha = \Gamma$ then $[\alpha]_k^ = [\alpha']_k$ and $[\Gamma\alpha\Gamma]_k^* = [\Gamma\alpha'\Gamma]_k$.*

Proof. To prove (i) we first compute

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f[\alpha]_k, g \rangle_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha} &= \frac{1}{V_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha}} (f[\alpha]_k)(z) \overline{g(z)} \mathrm{Im}(z)^k d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha}} \det(\alpha)^{k-1} j(\alpha, z)^{-k} f(\alpha z) \overline{g(z)} \mathrm{Im}(z)^k d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_{\Gamma}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha}} \det(\alpha)^{k-1} j(\alpha, z)^{-k} f(\alpha z) \overline{g(z)} \mathrm{Im}(z)^k d\mu \quad \text{Lemma 3.5.2 (i).} \end{aligned}$$

Making the change of variables $z \rightarrow \alpha'z$, using the fact $\mathcal{F}_{\alpha'\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha} = \mathcal{F}_{\Gamma\alpha'} = \mathcal{F}_{\Gamma}$ (because $\alpha'\alpha^{-1}$ lies in the center of $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ and α' acts as an automorphism on \mathbb{H}), and that α' acts as α^{-1} on \mathbb{H} (because they differ by a scalar), together give

$$\frac{1}{V_{\Gamma}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma}} \det(\alpha)^{k-1} j(\alpha, \alpha'z)^{-k} f(z) \overline{g(\alpha'z)} \mathrm{Im}(\alpha'z)^k d\mu.$$

Moreover, applying the cocycle condition and the identities $\text{Im}(\alpha'z) = \det(\alpha') \frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|j(\alpha', z)|^2}$, $j(\alpha\alpha', z) = \det(\alpha)$, and $\det(\alpha') = \det(\alpha)$ together, we can further rewrite the integral as

$$\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \det(\alpha')^{k-1} \overline{j(\alpha', z)^{-k}} f(z) \overline{g(\alpha'z)} \text{Im}(z)^k d\mu.$$

Reversing the first computation in the start of the proof but applied to this integral shows that that

$$\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \det(\alpha')^{k-1} \overline{j(\alpha', z)^{-k}} f(z) \overline{g(\alpha'z)} \text{Im}(z)^k d\mu = \langle f, g[\alpha']_k \rangle_\Gamma,$$

which completes the proof of (i). To prove (ii), the coset decomposition $\Gamma\alpha\Gamma = \bigcup_j \Gamma\beta_j$ from Lemma 3.5.2 (ii) implies we can use the β_j as representatives in the definition of the $[\Gamma\alpha\Gamma]_k$ operator. As the β_j also satisfy $\Gamma\alpha\Gamma = \bigcup_j \beta_j\Gamma$, upon inverting β_j and noting that $\beta_j \in \Gamma\alpha$, we obtain $\Gamma\alpha^{-1}\Gamma = \bigcup_j \Gamma\beta_j^{-1}$. Since scalar multiplication commutes with matrices and the matrices in Γ have determinant 1, we conclude that $\Gamma\alpha'\Gamma = \bigcup_j \Gamma\beta'_j$ where $\beta'_j = \det(\beta_j)\beta_j^{-1}$ (also $\det(\beta_j) = \det(\alpha)$). So we can use the β'_j as representatives in the definition of the $[\Gamma\alpha'\Gamma]_k$ operator. The statement now follows from (i). The last statement is now obvious. \square

We can now prove that the diamond and Hecke operators are normal:

Proposition 3.5.8. *On $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$, the diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$ and Hecke operators T_m are normal with respect to the Petersson inner product for all $m \geq 1$ with $(m, N) = 1$. Moreover, their adjoints are given by*

$$\langle m \rangle^* = \langle \overline{m} \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad T_p^* = \langle \overline{p} \rangle T_p.$$

Proof. As taking the adjoint is a linear operator, the definition of the diamond and Hecke operators and Proposition 3.5.5 imply that it suffices to prove the two adjoint formulas for the when $m = p$ is prime. We will first prove the adjoint formula for $\langle p \rangle$. Let $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ * & p \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$. As $\Gamma_1(N)$ is normal in $\Gamma_0(N)$ and $\det(\alpha) = 1$, Proposition 3.5.7 gives

$$\langle p \rangle^* = [\alpha]_k^* = [\alpha']_k = [\alpha^{-1}]_k = \langle \overline{p} \rangle.$$

This proves the adjoint formula for the diamond operators and normality follows from multiplicativity. For the Hecke operator T_p , let $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix}$ and note that $\alpha' = \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Now Proposition 3.5.7 implies

$$T_p^* = [\Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N)]_k^* = [\Gamma_1(N)\alpha'\Gamma_1(N)]_k.$$

Let m and n be such that $pm - Nn = 1$. Then

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ N & pm \end{pmatrix} \alpha' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ N & pm \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p & n \\ Np & pm \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p & n \\ N & m \end{pmatrix} = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} p & n \\ N & m \end{pmatrix},$$

which implies that $\alpha' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ N & pm \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \alpha \begin{pmatrix} p & n \\ N & m \end{pmatrix}$. As $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ N & pm \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_1(N)$ (note that $pm \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ since $pm - Nn = 1$) and $\begin{pmatrix} p & n \\ N & m \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$, substituting the triple product expression for α' into $[\Gamma_1(N)\alpha'\Gamma_1(N)]_k$ and noting that $\Gamma_1(N)$ is normal in $\Gamma_0(N)$ yields

$$\Gamma_1(N)\alpha'\Gamma_1(N) = \Gamma_1(N)\alpha\Gamma_1(N) \begin{pmatrix} p & n \\ N & m \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now if the β_j are representatives for $[\Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_1(N)]_k$, then $\Gamma_1\alpha\Gamma_1(N) = \bigcup_j \Gamma_1(N)\beta_j$. Therefore the formula above implies $\Gamma_1\alpha'\Gamma_1(N) = \bigcup_j \Gamma_1(N)\beta_j \begin{pmatrix} p & n \\ N & m \end{pmatrix}$ and so the $\beta_j \begin{pmatrix} p & n \\ N & m \end{pmatrix}$ can be used as representatives for $[\Gamma_1\alpha'\Gamma_1(N)]_k$. As $pm - Nn = 1$, $m \equiv \overline{p} \pmod{N}$ and so Proposition 3.5.5 implies that $T_p^* = \langle \overline{p} \rangle T_p$. This proves the adjoint formula for the Hecke operators and normality follows from multiplicativity. \square

In the case of the modular group, Proposition 3.5.8 says that all of the diamond and Hecke operators are normal. Now suppose f is a non-constant holomorphic form with Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$. Let the eigenvalue of T_m for f be $\lambda_f(m)$. We say that the $\lambda_f(m)$ are the **Hecke eigenvalues** of f . If f is a simultaneous eigenfunction for all diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$ and Hecke operators T_m with $(m, N) = 1$, we call f an **eigenform**. If the condition $(m, N) = 1$ can be dropped, so that f is a simultaneous eigenfunction for all diamond and Hecke operators, then we say f is a **Hecke eigenform**. In particular, on $\Gamma_1(1) \backslash \mathbb{H}$ all eigenforms are Hecke eigenforms. If f is an eigenform, then Proposition 3.5.6 immediately implies that the first Fourier coefficient of $T_m f$ is $a_m(f)$ and so $a_m(f) = \lambda_f(m) a_1(f)$ for all $m \geq 1$ with $(m, N) = 1$. Therefore we cannot have $a_1(f) = 0$ for this would mean f is constant. We can normalize f by dividing by $a_1(f)$ so that the Fourier series has constant term 1. It follows that the m -th Fourier coefficient of f , when $(m, N) = 1$, is precisely the Hecke eigenvalue $\lambda_f(m)$. This normalization is called the **Hecke normalization** of f . The **Petersson normalization** of f is where we normalize so that $\langle f, f \rangle = 1$. From the spectral theorem we derive an important corollary:

Theorem 3.5.1. $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ admits an orthonormal basis of eigenforms.

Proof. This follows from the spectral theorem along with Propositions 3.5.5 and 3.5.8. □

As a near immediate consequence of Theorem 3.5.1, we can show that Hecke eigenvalues of eigenforms satisfy certain relations known as the **Hecke relations** for holomorphic forms:

Proposition 3.5.9 (Hecke relations, holomorphic version). *Let $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$ be a Hecke eigenform with Hecke eigenvalues $\lambda_f(n)$. Then the Hecke eigenvalues are multiplicative and satisfy*

$$\lambda_f(n)\lambda_f(m) = \sum_{d|(n,m)} \chi(d) d^{k-1} \lambda_f\left(\frac{nm}{d^2}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_f(nm) = \sum_{d|(n,m)} \mu(d) \chi(d) d^{k-1} \lambda_f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \lambda_f\left(\frac{m}{d}\right),$$

for all $n, m \geq 1$ with $(nm, N) = 1$.

Proof. By Theorem 3.5.1 it suffices to verify this when f is a Hecke eigenform. We may also assume f is Hecke normalized without any harm. The multiplicativity of the Hecke eigenvalues now follows from the multiplicity of the Hecke operators. Moreover, the first identity follows immediately from computing the n -th Fourier coefficient of $T_m f$ in two different ways. On the one hand, use that f is a Hecke eigenform. On the other hand, use Proposition 3.5.6. For the second identity, we have

$$\chi(p) p^{k-1} = \lambda_f(p)^2 - \lambda_f(p^2),$$

provided $(p, N) = 1$, by computing the p -th Fourier coefficient of $T_p f$ in two different ways as we just did above. The second identity now follows from the first because $\lambda_f(n)$ is a specially multiplicative function in n (see Theorem A.2.2). □

As an immediate consequence of the Hecke relations, the Hecke operators satisfy analogous relations:

Corollary 3.5.1. *For all $n, m \geq 1$ with $(nm, N) = 1$, we have*

$$T_n T_m = \sum_{d|(n,m)} \chi(d) d^{k-1} T_{\frac{nm}{d^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad T_{nm} = \sum_{d|(n,m)} \mu(d) \chi(d) d^{k-1} T_{\frac{n}{d}} T_{\frac{m}{d}}.$$

Proof. This is immediate from Theorem 3.5.1 and the Hecke relations. □

The identities in Corollary 3.5.1 can also be established directly. Moreover, the first identity is symmetric in n and m so it can be used to show that the Hecke operators commute.

3.6 Atkin–Lehner Theory

So far, our entire theory of holomorphic forms has started with a fixed congruence subgroup of some level. Atkin–Lehner theory, or the theory of oldforms & newforms, allows us to discuss holomorphic forms in the context of moving between levels. In this setting, we will only deal with congruence subgroups of the form $\Gamma_1(N)$ and cusp forms on $\Gamma_1(N) \backslash \mathbb{H}$. The easiest way lift a holomorphic form from a smaller level to a larger level is to observe that if $M \mid N$, then $\Gamma_1(N) \leq \Gamma_1(M)$ so there is a natural inclusion $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(M)) \subseteq \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$. There is a less trivial way of lifting from $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(M))$ to $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$. For any $d \mid \frac{N}{M}$, let $\alpha_d = \begin{pmatrix} d & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. If $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(M))$, then

$$(f[\alpha_d]_k)(z) = \det(\alpha_d)^{k-1} j(\alpha_d, z)^{-k} f(\alpha_d z) = d^{k-1} f(dz).$$

In fact, $[\alpha_d]_k$ maps $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(M))$ into $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ and preserves the subspace of cusp forms:

Proposition 3.6.1. *Let M and N be positive integers such that $M \mid N$. For any $d \mid \frac{N}{M}$, $[\alpha_d]_k$ maps $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(M))$ into $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$.*

Proof. It is clear that holomorphy and the growth condition are satisfied for $f[\alpha_d]_k$. It is also clear that $f[\alpha_d]_k$ is a cusp form if f is. So all that is left to verify is the modularity condition. To see this, for any $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d' \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_1(N)$, we have

$$\alpha_d \gamma \alpha_d^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} d & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d' \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & bd \\ d^{-1}c & d' \end{pmatrix} = \gamma',$$

where $\gamma' = \begin{pmatrix} a & bd \\ d^{-1}c & d' \end{pmatrix}$. Since $c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$ and $d \mid \frac{N}{M}$, we deduce that $d^{-1}c \equiv 0 \pmod{M}$. So $\gamma' \in \Gamma_1(M)$ and therefore $\alpha_d \Gamma_1(N) \alpha_d^{-1} \subseteq \Gamma_1(M)$, or equivalently, $\Gamma_1(N) \subseteq \alpha_d^{-1} \Gamma_1(M) \alpha_d$. Writing $\gamma = \alpha_d^{-1} \gamma' \alpha_d$, we see that $j(\gamma', \alpha_d z) = j(\gamma, z)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (f[\alpha_d]_k)(\gamma z) &= d^{k-1} f(d\gamma z) \\ &= d^{k-1} f(d\alpha_d^{-1} \gamma' \alpha_d z) \\ &= d^{k-1} f(\gamma' \alpha_d z) & d\alpha_d^{-1} z &= z \\ &= j(\gamma', \alpha_d z) d^{k-1} f(\alpha_d z) \\ &= j(\gamma, z) d^{k-1} f(dz) & j(\gamma', \alpha_d z) &= j(\gamma, z) \text{ and } \alpha_d z = dz \\ &= j(\gamma, z) (f[\alpha_d]_k)(z). \end{aligned}$$

This verifies $f[\alpha_d]_k$ is modular and so $f[\alpha_d]_k \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$. □

We can now define oldforms and newforms. For each divisor d of N , set

$$i_d : \mathcal{S}_k \left(\Gamma_1 \left(\frac{N}{d} \right) \right) \times \mathcal{S}_k \left(\Gamma_1 \left(\frac{N}{d} \right) \right) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) \quad (f, g) \mapsto f + g[\alpha_d]_k.$$

This map is well-defined by Proposition 3.6.1. The subspace of **oldforms of level N** is

$$\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}} = \bigoplus_{p \mid N} \text{Im}(i_p),$$

and the subspace of **newforms of level N** is

$$\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}} = \left(\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}} \right)^\perp,$$

where the orthogonal complement is taken with respect to the Petersson inner product. The elements of such subspaces are called **oldforms** and **newforms** respectively. Both subspaces are invariant under the diamond and Hecke operators (see [DS05] for a proof):

Proposition 3.6.2. *The spaces $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}}$ and $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ are invariant under the diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$ and Hecke operators T_m for all $m \geq 1$.*

As a corollary, we deduce that these subspaces admit orthogonal bases of eigenforms:

Corollary 3.6.1. *$\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}}$ and $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ admit orthonormal bases of eigenforms.*

Proof. This follows immediately from Theorem 3.5.1 and Proposition 3.6.2 □

Something quite amazing happens for the subspace in $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$; the condition $(m, N) = 1$ for eigenforms in a base can be removed. Therefore the eigenforms are actually eigenfunctions for all of the diamond and Hecke operators. We require a preliminary result whose proof is quite involved but it is not beyond the scope of this text (see [DS05] for a proof):

Lemma 3.6.1. *If $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ with Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$ and such that $a_n(f) = 0$ whenever $(n, N) = 1$, then*

$$f = \sum_{p|N} p^{k-1} f_p[\alpha_p],$$

for some $f_p \in \mathcal{S}_k\left(\Gamma_1\left(\frac{N}{p}\right)\right)$.

The important observation to make about Lemma 3.6.1 is that if $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ is such that its n -th Fourier coefficients vanish when n is relatively prime to the level, then f must be an oldform. With this lemma we can prove the main theorem about $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$. The introduction of some language will be useful for the statement and its proof. We say that f is a **primitive Hecke eigenform** if it is a nonzero Hecke normalized Hecke eigenform in $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$. We can now prove the main result about newforms:

Theorem 3.6.1. *Let $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ be an eigenform. Then the following hold:*

(i) *f is a Hecke eigenform.*

(ii) *If \tilde{f} satisfies the same conditions as f and has the same eigenvalues for the Hecke operators, then $\tilde{f} = cf$ for some nonzero constant c .*

Moreover, the primitive Hecke eigenforms in $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ form an orthogonal basis with respect to the Petersson inner product and each such primitive Hecke eigenform f lies in an eigenspace $\mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$.

Proof. First suppose $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ is an eigenform with Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$. For $m \geq 1$ with $(m, N) = 1$, there exists $\lambda_f(m), \mu_f(m) \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $T_m f = \lambda_f(m)f$ and $\langle m \rangle f = \mu_f(m)f$. Actually, $\langle m \rangle f = \mu_f(m)f$ holds for all $m \geq 1$ because $\langle m \rangle$ is the zero operator if $(m, N) > 1$ and in this case we can take $\mu_f(m) = 0$. If we set $\chi(n) = \mu_f(n)$, then χ is a Dirichlet character modulo N . This follows because multiplicativity of $\langle m \rangle$ implies the same for χ and χ is N -periodic since $\langle m \rangle$ is N -periodic ($\langle m \rangle$ is defined by m taken modulo N). But then $\langle m \rangle f = \chi(m)f$ so that $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$. As f is an eigenform, we also have $a_m(f) = \lambda_f(m)a_1(f)$ provided $(m, N) = 1$. So if $a_1(f) = 0$, Lemma 3.6.1 implies $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}}$. With this fact in hand, we can prove the statements.

(i) The claim is trivial if f is zero, so assume otherwise. If $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$, then $f \notin \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}}$ and so by what we have shown $a_1(f) \neq 0$. Therefore we may Hecke normalize f so that $a_1(f) = 1$ and $a_m(f) = \lambda_f(m)$. Now set $g_m = T_m f - \lambda_f(m)f$ for any $m \geq 1$. By Proposition 3.6.2, $g_m \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$. Moreover, g_m is an eigenform and its first Fourier coefficient is zero. But then $g_m \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}}$ too and so $g_m = 0$ because $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ and $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}}$ are orthogonal subspaces. This means $T_m f = \lambda_f(m)f$ for any $m \geq 1$. Therefore f is a primitive Hecke eigenform and so is a Hecke eigenform before Hecke normalization.

- (ii) Suppose \tilde{f} satisfies the same conditions as f with the same eigenvalues for the Hecke operators. By (i), f and \tilde{f} are Hecke eigenforms. After Hecke normalization, f and \tilde{f} have the same Fourier coefficients and so are identical. It follows that before Hecke normalization $f = c\tilde{f}$ for some nonzero constant c .

Note that our initial remarks together with (i) show that each primitive Hecke eigenform f belongs to some eigenspace $\mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$. By Corollary 3.6.1, $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ admits an orthogonal basis of eigenforms which by (i) are Hecke eigenforms. As $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ is finite dimensional (because $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ is), it follows that all of the primitive Hecke eigenforms form an orthogonal basis for $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ if we can show that they are linearly independent. So suppose, to the contrary, that we have a nontrivial linear relation

$$\sum_{1 \leq i \leq r} c_i f_i = 0,$$

for some primitive Hecke eigenforms f_i , nonzero constants c_i , and with r minimal. Note that $r \geq 2$ for else we do not have a nontrivial linear relation. Letting $m \geq 1$ applying the operator $T_m - \lambda_{f_1}(m)$ to our nontrivial linear relation gives

$$\sum_{2 \leq i \leq r} c_i (\lambda_{f_i}(m) - \lambda_{f_1}(m)) f_i = 0,$$

which has one less term. Since r was chosen to be minimal, this implies $\lambda_{f_i}(m) - \lambda_{f_1}(m) = 0$ for all i . But m was arbitrary, so $f_i = f_1$ for all i by (ii). Hence $r = 1$ which is a contradiction. \square

Statement (i) in Theorem 3.6.1 implies that primitive Hecke eigenforms satisfy the Hecke relations for all $n, m \geq 1$. Statement (ii) can be interpreted as saying that a basis of newforms for $\mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ contains one element per “eigenvalue” where we mean a set of eigenvalues one for each Hecke operator T_m . Actually, we can obtain a slightly better result called **multiplicity one** for holomorphic forms:

Theorem 3.6.2 (Multiplicity one, holomorphic version). *Let f and g be primitive Hecke eigenforms of the same eigenvalue and level. Denote the Hecke eigenvalues by $\lambda_f(n)$ and $\lambda_g(n)$ respectively. If $\lambda_f(p) = \lambda_g(p)$ for all primes p , then $f = g$.*

Proof. The Hecke relations imply that $\lambda_f(n) = \lambda_g(n)$ for all $n \geq 1$. By Theorem 3.6.1 (ii), $f = g$. \square

With a stronger version of multiplicity one, one can prove that the Fourier coefficients of primitive Hecke eigenforms are real. This result takes a lot of work to show (see [DS05] for a note and appropriate references) and while we will not need it in the following, we state it for convenience:

Theorem 3.6.3. *The Fourier coefficients of primitive Hecke eigenforms are real.*

We now require one last linear operator. Let

$$W_N = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ N & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

and note that $\det(W_N) = N$. We define the **Atkin–Lehner involution** $\omega_N : \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(\omega_N f)(z) = (\sqrt{N}z)^{-k} f(W_N z) = (\sqrt{N}z)^{-k} f\left(-\frac{1}{Nz}\right).$$

To see that ω_N is well-defined, first note that holomorphy and the growth condition are obvious. For modularity, note that for $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_1(N)$, we have

$$W_N \gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ N & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -c & -d \\ Na & Nb \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d & -N^{-1}c \\ -Nb & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ N & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \gamma' W_N,$$

where $\gamma' = \begin{pmatrix} d & -N^{-1}c \\ -Nb & a \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_1(N)$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} (\omega_N f)(\gamma z) &= (\sqrt{N} \gamma z)^{-k} f(W_N \gamma z) \\ &= (\sqrt{N} \gamma z)^{-k} f(\gamma' W_N z) \\ &= \left(\sqrt{N} \frac{az + b}{cz + d} \right)^{-k} \left(\frac{b}{z} + a \right)^k f\left(-\frac{1}{Nz}\right) \\ &= \left(\sqrt{N} \frac{az + b}{cz + d} \right)^{-k} \left(\frac{z}{az + b} \right)^{-k} f\left(-\frac{1}{Nz}\right) \\ &= (cz + d)^k (\sqrt{N} z)^{-k} f\left(-\frac{1}{Nz}\right) \\ &= j(\gamma, z)^k (\omega_N f)(z). \end{aligned}$$

This verifies modularity for $\omega_N f$. Lastly, it is clear that $\omega_N f$ is a cusp form because f is. Altogether, this shows that $\omega_N f$ is well-defined. It is also an involution because $\omega_N^2 f = f$. The important fact we need is how ω_N acts on $\mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$. To state the result, for $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$ define

$$\overline{f}(z) = \overline{f(-z)}.$$

Then we have the following (see [CS17] for a proof):

Proposition 3.6.3. *If $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$ is a primitive Hecke eigenform, then*

$$\omega_N f = \omega_N(f) \overline{f},$$

where $\overline{f} \in \mathcal{S}_k(N, \overline{\chi})$ is a primitive Hecke eigenform and $\omega_N(f) \in \mathbb{C}$ is nonzero with $|\omega_N(f)| = 1$.

3.7 The Ramanujan-Petersson Conjecture

We will now discuss a famous conjecture about the size of the Hecke eigenvalues of primitive Hecke eigenforms. Historically the conjecture was born from conjectures made about the **modular discriminant** Δ given by

$$\Delta = \frac{1}{1728} (E_4^3 - E_6^2),$$

which is a weight 12 primitive Hecke eigenform on $\Gamma_1(1) \backslash \mathbb{H}$ (see [DS05]). Therefore it is natural to begin our discussion here. It can be shown that the Fourier series of the modular discriminant is

$$\Delta(z) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \tau(n) e^{2\pi i n z},$$

where the $\tau(n)$ are integers with $\tau(1) = 1$ and $\tau(2) = -24$ (see [Apo76] for a proof). The function $\tau : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is called **Ramanujan's τ function**. Ramanujan himself studied this function in his 1916 paper (see [Ram16]), and computed $\tau(n)$ for $1 \leq n \leq 30$. From these computations he conjectured the following three properties τ should satisfy:

- (i) If $(n, m) = 1$, then $\tau(nm) = \tau(n)\tau(m)$.
- (ii) $\tau(p^n) = \tau(p^{n-1})\tau(p) - p^{11}\tau(p^{n-2})$ for all prime p .
- (iii) $|\tau(p)| \leq 2p^{\frac{11}{2}}$ for all prime p .

Note that (i) and (ii) are strikingly similar to the properties satisfied by the Hecke operators. In fact, (i) and (ii) are special cases of the properties of Hecke operators. This ends our commentary on properties (i) and (ii). Property (iii) turned out to be drastically more difficult to prove and is known as the classical **Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture**. To state the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture for holomorphic forms, suppose $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$ is a primitive Hecke eigenform with Hecke eigenvalues $\lambda_f(n)$. For each prime p , consider the polynomial

$$1 - \lambda_f(p)p^{-\frac{k-1}{2}}p^{-s} + \chi(p)p^{-2s}.$$

We call this the p -th **Hecke polynomial** of f . Let $\alpha_1(p)$ and $\alpha_2(p)$ denote the roots. From this quadratic, we have

$$\alpha_1(p) + \alpha_2(p) = \lambda_f(p)p^{-\frac{k-1}{2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_1(p)\alpha_2(p) = \chi(p).$$

The more general **Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture** for holomorphic forms is following statement:

Theorem 3.7.1 (Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture, holomorphic version). *Suppose $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$ is a primitive Hecke eigenform with Hecke eigenvalues $\lambda_f(n)$. Let $\alpha_1(p)$ and $\alpha_2(p)$ be the roots of the p -th Hecke polynomial. Then for all primes p ,*

$$|\lambda_f(p)| \leq 2p^{\frac{k-1}{2}}.$$

Moreover, if $p \nmid N$, then

$$|\alpha_1(p)| = |\alpha_2(p)| = 1.$$

In the 1970's Deligne proved the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture (see [Del71] and [Del74] for the full proof). The argument is significantly beyond the scope of this text, and in actuality follows from Deligne's work on the Weil conjectures (except in the case $k = 1$ which requires a modified argument). This requires understanding classical algebraic topology and ℓ -adic cohomology in addition to the basic analytic number theory. As such, the proof of the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture has been one of the biggest advances in analytic number theory in recent decades. Nevertheless, it is not difficult to get close to the Ramanujan conjecture without much effort. Indeed, suppose $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$ be a primitive Hecke eigenform. Then $\left|f(z)\text{Im}(z)^{\frac{k}{2}}\right|$ is $\Gamma_0(N)$ -invariant because $\text{Im}(\gamma z)^{\frac{k}{2}} = \frac{\text{Im}(z)^{\frac{k}{2}}}{|j(\gamma, z)|^k}$ and $|\chi(\gamma)| = 1$. Moreover, it is bounded on $\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma_0(N)}$ because f is a cusp form. Then $\Gamma_0(N)$ -invariance implies $\left|f(z)\text{Im}(z)^{\frac{k}{2}}\right|$ is bounded on \mathbb{H} . From the definition of the Fourier coefficients, it follows that

$$\lambda_f(n)y^{\frac{k}{2}} = \int_0^1 f(x+iy)y^{\frac{k}{2}}e^{-2\pi in(x+iy)}dx \leq e^{2\pi ny} \int_0^1 \left|f(x+iy)y^{\frac{k}{2}}\right|dx \ll e^{2\pi ny}.$$

Setting $y = \frac{1}{n}$ implies

$$\lambda_f(n) \ll n^{\frac{k}{2}}.$$

This bound is known as the **Hecke bound** for holomorphic forms. However, the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture gives the bound $\lambda_f(n) \ll \sigma_0(n)n^{\frac{k-1}{2}} \ll n^{\frac{k-1}{2}+\varepsilon}$.

3.8 Twists of Holomorphic Forms

We can also twist of holomorphic forms by Dirichlet characters. Let $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$ with Fourier series

$$f(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(f) e^{2\pi i n z},$$

and let ψ be a Dirichlet character modulo M . We define the **twisted holomorphic form** $f \otimes \psi$ of f twisted by ψ by the Fourier series

$$(f \otimes \psi)(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(f) \psi(n) e^{2\pi i n z}.$$

In order for $f \otimes \psi$ to be well-defined, we need to prove that it is a holomorphic form. The following proposition proves this and more when ψ is primitive:

Proposition 3.8.1. *Suppose $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$ and ψ is a primitive Dirichlet character of conductor q . Then $f \otimes \psi \in \mathcal{M}_k(Nq^2, \chi\psi^2)$. Moreover, if f is a cusp form then so is $f \otimes \psi$.*

Proof. By Corollary 1.4.1, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} (f \otimes \psi)(z) &= \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(f) \psi(n) e^{2\pi i n z} \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(f) \left(\frac{1}{\tau(\psi)} \sum_{r \pmod{q}} \bar{\psi}(r) e^{\frac{2\pi i r n}{q}} \right) e^{2\pi i n z} \\ &= \frac{1}{\tau(\psi)} \sum_{r \pmod{q}} \bar{\psi}(r) \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(f) e^{2\pi i n (z + \frac{r}{q})} \\ &= \frac{1}{\tau(\psi)} \sum_{r \pmod{q}} \bar{\psi}(r) f\left(z + \frac{r}{q}\right). \end{aligned}$$

From this last expression, holomorphy is immediate since the sum is finite. For modularity, let $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(Nq^2)$ and set $\gamma_r = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{r}{q} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ for every r modulo q . Then for r and r' modulo q , we compute

$$\gamma_r \gamma_{r'}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{r}{q} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\frac{r'}{q} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a + \frac{cr}{q} & b - \frac{ar' - dr}{q} - \frac{cr r'}{q^2} \\ c & d - \frac{cr'}{q} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since $c \equiv 0 \pmod{Nq^2}$, if we choose r' (for each r) such that $ar' \equiv dr \pmod{q}$, then $\gamma_r \gamma_{r'}^{-1} \in \Gamma_0(N)$. Such a choice exists and is unique by Bézout's identity because a and d are relatively prime to q as $ad \equiv 1 \pmod{Nq^2}$. Making this choice and setting $\eta_r = \gamma_r \gamma_{r'}^{-1}$, we compute

$$f\left(\gamma z + \frac{r}{q}\right) = f(\gamma_r \gamma z) = f(\eta_r \gamma_{r'} z) = \chi(\eta_r) j(\eta_r, \gamma_{r'} z)^k f(\gamma_{r'} z) = \chi(\eta_r) j(\eta_r, \gamma_{r'} z)^k f\left(z + \frac{r'}{q}\right).$$

Moreover,

$$\chi(\eta_r) j(\eta_r, \gamma_{r'} z) = \chi\left(d - \frac{cr'}{q}\right) \left(c\gamma_{r'} z + d - \frac{cr'}{q}\right) = \chi(d)(cz + d) = \chi(\gamma) j(\gamma, z).$$

Together these two computations imply

$$f\left(\gamma z + \frac{r}{q}\right) = \chi(\gamma)j(\gamma, z)^k f\left(z + \frac{r'}{q}\right).$$

Now, as $ar' \equiv dr \pmod{q}$ and $ad \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$, we have

$$\bar{\psi}(r) = \bar{\psi}(ad\bar{r}') = \psi^2(d)\bar{\psi}(r') = \psi^2(\gamma)\bar{\psi}(r').$$

Putting everything together,

$$\begin{aligned} (f \otimes \psi)(\gamma z) &= \frac{1}{\tau(\bar{\psi})} \sum_{r \pmod{q}} \bar{\psi}(r) f\left(\gamma z + \frac{r}{q}\right) \\ &= \chi(\gamma)j(\gamma, z)^k \frac{1}{\tau(\bar{\psi})} \sum_{r \pmod{q}} \bar{\psi}(r) f\left(z + \frac{r'}{q}\right) \\ &= \chi\psi^2(\gamma)j(\gamma, z)^k \frac{1}{\tau(\bar{\psi})} \sum_{r \pmod{q}} \bar{\psi}(r') f\left(z + \frac{r'}{q}\right) \\ &= \chi\psi^2(\gamma)j(\gamma, z)^k (f \otimes \psi)(z). \end{aligned}$$

from which the modularity of $f \otimes \psi$ follows. For the growth condition, let $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ be a scaling matrix for the cusp \mathfrak{a} of $\Gamma_0(Nq^2)$. As $\gamma_r \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$, $\gamma_r \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ takes ∞ to an element of $\mathbb{Q} \cup \{\infty\}$. Thus $\gamma_r \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} \infty = \mathfrak{b}$ for some cusp \mathfrak{b} of $\Gamma_0(N) \backslash \mathbb{H}$. Then from

$$(f \otimes \psi)(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z) = \frac{1}{\tau(\bar{\psi})} \sum_{r \pmod{q}} \bar{\psi}(r) f(\gamma_r \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z),$$

the growth condition for $f \otimes \psi$ is satisfied. It is also clear that $f \otimes \psi$ is a cusp form if f is. This proves the claim. \square

The generalization of Proposition 3.8.1 to all characters is slightly more involved. To this end, define operators U_p and V_p on $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ to be the linear operators given by

$$(U_p f)(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_{np}(f) e^{2\pi i n z},$$

and

$$(V_p f)(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(f) e^{2\pi i n p z},$$

if f has Fourier series

$$f(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(f) e^{2\pi i n z}.$$

We will show that both U_p and V_p map $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ into $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(Np))$ and more:

Lemma 3.8.1. *For any prime p , U_p and V_p map $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$ into $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(Np))$. In particular, U_p and V_p map $\mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$ into $\mathcal{M}_k(Np, \chi\chi_{p,0})$. Moreover, U_p and V_p preserve the subspace of cusp forms.*

Proof. In light of Proposition 3.5.1, the first statement follows from the second. As $N \mid Np$, $\Gamma_1(Np) \leq \Gamma_1(N)$ so that $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(Np))$ if $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$. Now suppose $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$. Similarly, $N \mid Np$ implies $\Gamma_0(Np) \leq \Gamma_0(N)$ so that $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(Np, \chi\chi_{p,0})$ for the modulus Np character $\chi\chi_{p,0}$. Therefore we may assume $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(Np, \chi\chi_{p,0})$. Now consider U_p . As $p \mid Np$, Equation (3.3) implies $U_p = T_p$ for the p -th Hecke operator on $\mathcal{M}_k(\Gamma_1(Np))$ and the claim follows from the definition of the Hecke operators and Proposition 3.5.4. Now consider V_p . We have

$$(V_p f)(z) = f(pz),$$

and the claim follows by regarding $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(Np, \chi\chi_{p,0})$ and that $\begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix}$ lies in the center of $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$. \square

We can now generalize Proposition 3.8.1 to all characters:

Proposition 3.8.2. *Suppose $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(N, \chi)$ and ψ is a Dirichlet character modulo M . Then $f \otimes \psi \in \mathcal{M}_k(NM^2, \chi\psi^2)$. Moreover, if f is a cusp form then so is $f \otimes \psi$.*

Proof. Let $\tilde{\psi}$ be the primitive character of conductor q inducing ψ . Then $\psi = \tilde{\psi}\psi_{\frac{M}{q},0}$. As $\psi_{\frac{M}{q},0} = \prod_{p \mid \frac{M}{q}} \psi_{p,0}$, it suffices to prove the claim when ψ is primitive and when $\psi = \psi_{p,0}$. The primitive case follows from Proposition 3.8.1. So suppose $\psi = \psi_{p,0}$. Then

$$f \otimes \psi_{p,0} = f - V_p U_p f.$$

Now by Lemma 3.8.1, $V_p U_p f \in \mathcal{M}_k(Np^2, \chi\psi_{p,0}^2)$ and is a cusp form if f is (where we have written $\psi_{p,0}^2$ in place of $\chi_{p,0}$). Since we also have $f \in \mathcal{M}_k(Np^2, \chi\psi_{p,0}^2)$ (because $N \mid Np^2$ so that $\Gamma_1(Np^2) \leq \Gamma_1(N)$ and $\Gamma_0(Np^2) \leq \Gamma_0(N)$ and again writing $\psi_{p,0}^2$ in place of $\chi_{p,0}$), it follows that $f \otimes \psi_{p,0} \in \mathcal{M}_k(Np^2, \chi\psi_{p,0}^2)$ and is a cusp form if f is. This proves the claim in the case $\psi = \psi_{p,0}$ and thus completes the proof. \square

Chapter 4

The Theory of Maass Forms

Maass forms are the non-holomorphic analog to holomorphic forms. They are real-analytic, eigenfunctions for a differential operator, invariant with respect to a subgroup of $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$, and satisfy a growth condition. We introduce both Maass forms and their general theory.

4.1 Maass Forms

Define $\varepsilon(\gamma, z)$ by

$$\varepsilon(\gamma, z) = \left(\frac{cz + d}{|cz + d|} \right),$$

for all $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$ and $z \in \mathbb{H}$. Note that $|\varepsilon(\gamma, z)| = 1$. Moreover, we have the relation

$$\varepsilon(\gamma, z) = \left(\frac{j(\gamma, z)}{|j(\gamma, z)|} \right).$$

As a consequence, the cocycle condition for $j(\gamma, z)$ implies

$$\varepsilon(\gamma'\gamma, z) = \varepsilon(\gamma', \gamma z)\varepsilon(\gamma, z),$$

and this is called the **cocycle condition** for $\varepsilon(\gamma, z)$. For any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and any $\gamma \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$ we define the **slash operator** $|_{\varepsilon, k} : C(\mathbb{H}) \rightarrow C(\mathbb{H})$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(f|_{\varepsilon, k}\gamma)(z) = \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^{-k} f(\gamma z).$$

Any operator that commutes with the slash operators $|_{\varepsilon, k}\gamma$ for every $\gamma \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ is said to be **invariant**. We define differential operators $R_k : C^\infty(\mathbb{H}) \rightarrow C^\infty(\mathbb{H})$ and $L_k : C^\infty(\mathbb{H}) \rightarrow C^\infty(\mathbb{H})$ to be the linear operators given by

$$R_k = \frac{k}{2} + y \left(i \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad L_k = \frac{k}{2} + y \left(i \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right).$$

We call these operators the **Maass differential operators**. In particular, R_k is the **Maass raising operator** and L_k is the **Mass lowering operator**. The **Laplace operator** $\Delta_k : C^\infty(\mathbb{H}) \rightarrow C^\infty(\mathbb{H})$ is the linear operator given by

$$\Delta_k = -y^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) + iky \frac{\partial}{\partial x}.$$

When $k = 0$, we will write $\Delta_0 = \Delta$ which is the usual Laplace operator on \mathbb{H} . Expanding the products $R_{k-2}L_k$ and $L_{k+2}R_k$ and invoking the Cauchy-Riemann equation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} = i \frac{\partial}{\partial x},$$

we arrive at the identities

$$\Delta_k = -R_{k-2}L_k + \frac{k}{2} \left(1 - \frac{k}{2}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta_k = -L_{k+2}R_k - \frac{k}{2} \left(1 - \frac{k}{2}\right).$$

The Mass differential operators and the Laplace operator satisfy important relations (see [Bum97] for a proof):

Proposition 4.1.1. *The Laplace operator Δ_k is invariant. That is,*

$$\Delta_k(f|_{\varepsilon,k}\gamma) = \Delta_k(f)|_{\varepsilon,k}\gamma,$$

for all $f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{H})$ and $\gamma \in \text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$. Moreover, the Maass differential operators R_k and L_k satisfy

$$(R_k f)|_{\varepsilon,k+2}\gamma = R_k(f|_{\varepsilon,k}\gamma) \quad \text{and} \quad (R_k f)|_{\varepsilon,k-2}\gamma = L_k(f|_{\varepsilon,k}\gamma).$$

Let Γ be a congruence subgroup of level N that is reduced at infinity and let χ be a Dirichlet character of conductor $q \mid N$. Set $\chi(\gamma) = \chi(d)$ for all $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma$. We say that a function $f : \mathbb{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a **Maass form** on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ of **weight** k , **eigenvalue** λ , **level** N , and **character** χ , if the following properties are satisfied:

- (i) f is smooth on \mathbb{H} .
- (ii) $(f|_{\varepsilon,k}\gamma)(z) = \chi(\gamma)f(z)$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.
- (iii) f is an eigenfunction for Δ_k with eigenvalue λ .
- (iv) $f(\alpha z) = o(e^{2\pi y})$ for all $\alpha \in \text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$.

We say f is a **(Maass) cusp form** if the additional property is satisfied:

- (v) For all cusps \mathfrak{a} ,

$$\int_0^1 f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}(x + iy)) dx = 0.$$

Property (ii) is called the **automorphy condition** and we say that f is **automorphic**. In particular, f is a function on \mathcal{F}_Γ . The automorphy condition can equivalently be expressed as

$$f(\gamma z) = \chi(\gamma)\varepsilon(\gamma, z)^k f(z).$$

In property (iii), we will often let $s \in \mathbb{C}$ be such that $\lambda = s(1 - s)$. Accordingly, we will write $\lambda = \lambda(s)$ when we want to make this distinction clear. Property (iv) is called the **growth condition** for f and we say f is of **moderate growth at the cusps**. Clearly we only need to verify the growth condition on a set of scaling matrices for the cups. It turns turns out that Property (i) is implied by (iii). This is because Δ_k is an elliptic operator and any eigenfunction of an elliptic operator is automatically real-analytic and hence smooth (see [Eva22] for a proof in the weight zero case and [CS17] for notes on the general case).

Remark 4.1.1. *Holomorphic forms embed into Maass forms. If $f(z)$ is a weight k holomorphic form on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$, then $F(z) = \text{Im}(z)^{\frac{k}{2}} f(z)$ is a weight k Maass form on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. This is because $\text{Im}(\gamma z) = \frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|\gamma(z)|^2}$ and $F(z)$ clearly has polynomial growth in $\text{Im}(z)$. Moreover, as $f(z)$ is holomorphic, it satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations so that*

$$L_k(F(z)) = \left(\frac{k}{2} + y \left(i \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \right) (F(z)) = \frac{k}{2} F(z) - \frac{k}{2} F(z) = 0.$$

Therefore

$$\Delta_k(F(z)) = \left(-R_{k-2} L_k + \frac{k}{2} \left(1 - \frac{k}{2} \right) \right) (F(z)) = \frac{k}{2} \left(1 - \frac{k}{2} \right) F(z).$$

This means $F(z)$ is an eigenfunction for Δ_k with eigenvalue $\lambda\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)$.

Maass forms also admit Fourier series. Indeed, automorphy implies

$$f(z+1) = f\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} z\right) = f(z),$$

so that f is 1-periodic. Let $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ be a scaling matrix for the \mathfrak{a} cusp. As $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} = \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} \Gamma_{\infty} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}$, or equivalently $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} = \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} \Gamma_{\infty}$, the function $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z)$ is independent of the scaling matrix $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$. Moreover, by the same reasoning

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}(z+1)) = f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z).$$

Thus $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z)$ is 1-periodic. Note that this means we only need to verify the growth condition as $y \rightarrow \infty$. As f is smooth, $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z)$ has a Fourier series

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, y) e^{2\pi i n x},$$

where the sum is over all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ since f may be unbounded. This Fourier series is independent of the scaling matrix because $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z)$ is. The Fourier coefficients $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, y)$ are mostly determined by Δ_k . To see this, since f is smooth we may differentiate the Fourier series of $f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z)$ termwise. The fact that f is an eigenfunction for Δ_k with eigenvalue λ gives the ODE

$$(4\pi^2 n^2 y^2 - 2\pi n k y) a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, y) - y^2 a_{\mathfrak{a}, yy}(n, y) = \lambda a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, y).$$

If $n \neq 0$, this is a Whittaker equation. To see this, first put the ODE in homogeneous form

$$y^2 a_{\mathfrak{a}, yy}(n, y) - (4\pi^2 n^2 y^2 - 2\pi n k y - \lambda) a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, y) = 0.$$

Now make the change of variables $y \rightarrow \frac{y}{4\pi|n|}$ to get

$$y^2 a_{\mathfrak{a}, yy}(n, 4\pi|n|y) - \left(\frac{y^2}{4} - \text{sgn}(n) \frac{k}{2} y - \lambda \right) a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, 4\pi|n|y) = 0,$$

where $\text{sgn}(n) = \pm 1$ if n is positive or negative respectively. Diving by y^2 results in

$$a_{\mathfrak{a}, yy}(n, 4\pi|n|y) + \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{\text{sgn}(n) \frac{k}{2}}{y} - \frac{\lambda}{y^2} \right) a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, 4\pi|n|y) = 0.$$

Upon writing $\lambda = s(1 - s)$, we see that $\lambda = \frac{1}{4} - (s - \frac{1}{2})^2$, and the above equation becomes

$$a_{\mathfrak{a},yy}(n, 4\pi|n|y) + \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{\operatorname{sgn}(n)\frac{k}{2}}{y} - \frac{\frac{1}{4} - (s - \frac{1}{2})^2}{y^2} \right) a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, 4\pi|n|y) = 0.$$

This is the Whittaker equation (see Appendix B.8). Since f has moderate growth at the cusps, the general solution is the Whittaker function $W_{\operatorname{sgn}(n)\frac{k}{2}, s-\frac{1}{2}}(4\pi|n|y)$. Therefore

$$a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n, y) = a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n) W_{\operatorname{sgn}(n)\frac{k}{2}, s-\frac{1}{2}}(4\pi|n|y),$$

for some coefficients $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n)$ and $b_{\mathfrak{a}}(n)$ possibly depending upon s . If $n = 0$, then the differential equation is a second order linear ODE which in is

$$-y^2 a_{\mathfrak{a},yy}(0, y) = \lambda a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0, y).$$

This is a Cauchy-Euler equation, and since s and $1 - s$ are the two roots of $z^2 - z + \lambda$, the general solution is

$$a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0, y) = a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)y^s + b_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)y^{1-s},$$

for some coefficients $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)$ and $b_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)$ possibly depending upon s . The coefficients $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n)$, $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)$, and $b_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)$ are the only part of the Fourier series that actually depend on the implicit congruence subgroup Γ . Using these coefficients, f admits a **Fourier series at the \mathfrak{a} cusp**:

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z) = a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)y^s + b_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)y^{1-s} + \sum_{n \neq 0} a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n) W_{\operatorname{sgn}(n)\frac{k}{2}, s-\frac{1}{2}}(4\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x}.$$

For ease of notation, if it is clear what cusp we are working at we will mention the Fourier series and its coefficients without mentioning the cusp. Moreover, property (v) implies that f is a cusp form if and only if $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0) = 0$ and $b_{\mathfrak{a}}(0) = 0$ for every cusp \mathfrak{a} . We can simplify this Fourier series in the weight zero case. Indeed, Theorem B.8.1 implies that the Fourier series at the \mathfrak{a} cusp takes the form

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z) = a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)y^s + b_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)y^{1-s} + \sum_{n \neq 0} a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n) \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x},$$

for some different Fourier coefficients $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n)$. We can simplify the Fourier series further. We say f is **even** if $f(-\bar{z}) = f(z)$ and is **odd** if $f(-\bar{z}) = -f(z)$. Since $-\bar{z} = -x + iy$, this means that f is even or odd with respect to x . Note that if f is odd it must be a cusp form. As $e^{2\pi i n x} = \cos(nx) + i \sin(nx)$, if f has eigenvalue $\lambda = s(1 - s)$, then the Fourier series of f at the \mathfrak{a} cusp takes the form

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z) = a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)y^s + b_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)y^{1-s} + \sum_{n \neq 0} a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n) \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n x}{t}\right),$$

if f is even, and

$$f(z) = \sum_{n \neq 0} a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n) i \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n x}{t}\right),$$

if f is odd. Therefore, in even case $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(-n) = a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n)$ and in the odd case $-a_{\mathfrak{a}}(-n) = a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n)$ for all $n \geq 1$. Either way, we can compactly write the Fourier series of f at the \mathfrak{a} cusp as

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z) = a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)y^s + b_{\mathfrak{a}}(0)y^{1-s} + \sum_{n \geq 1} a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n) \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi n y) \operatorname{SC}\left(\frac{2\pi n x}{t}\right),$$

for some different Fourier coefficients $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n)$ and where $\text{SC}(x) = \cos(x)$ if f is even and $\text{SC}(x) = \sin(x)$ if f is odd. As we have said, if f is odd, or more generally a cusp form, then necessarily $a_{\mathfrak{a}}(0) = 0$ and $b_{\mathfrak{a}}(0) = 0$. From now on, if we are discussing an even or odd Maass form we will always mean the corresponding Fourier series (and so the implicit weight is zero). For cusp forms, we can derive an important growth condition. Indeed, the Fourier series of f at the \mathfrak{a} cusp is given by

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z) = \sum_{n \neq 0} a_{\mathfrak{a}}(n) W_{\text{sgn}(n)\frac{k}{2}, s-\frac{1}{2}}(4\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x}.$$

Using Lemma B.8.1, we get the weaker asymptotic $W_{\text{sgn}(n)\frac{k}{2}, s-\frac{1}{2}}(4\pi|n|y) = O(y^{\frac{k}{2}} e^{-2\pi|n|y})$ which implies

$$f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}z) = O\left(y^{\frac{k}{2}} \sum_{n \neq 0} e^{-2\pi|n|y}\right) = O\left(y^{\frac{k}{2}} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-2\pi|n|y}\right) = O\left(\frac{2y^{\frac{k}{2}}}{1 - e^{-2\pi y}}\right) = O(y^{\frac{k}{2}} e^{-2\pi y}).$$

Accordingly, we say that f exhibits **moderate decay at the cusps**. In particular, f is bounded on \mathbb{H} .

4.2 Eisenstein & Poincaré Series

Throughout, let Γ be a congruence subgroup of level N and let χ be a Dirichlet character with conductor $q \mid N$. We will first introduce a class of Maass forms naturally defined on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. They are actually functions defined on a large space $\mathbb{H} \times \mathbb{C}$ and hence are functions of two variables namely z and s . These functions are Maass forms for fixed s . For every cusp \mathfrak{a} of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$, there is an associated Maass form. So let $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ be a scaling matrix for the cusp \mathfrak{a} . The **(Maass) Eisenstein series** $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ of weight k and character χ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ at the \mathfrak{a} cusp and is defined as

$$E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma) \varepsilon(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma, z)^{-k} \text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z)^s.$$

We first show that $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ is well-defined. To see that $\bar{\chi}(\gamma)$ is independent of γ , recall $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} = \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} \Gamma_{\infty} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}$ and let $\gamma' = \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} \eta_{\infty} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma$ with $\eta_{\infty} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_{\infty}$. Then

$$\chi(\gamma') = \chi(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} \eta_{\infty} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma) = \chi(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}) \chi(\eta_{\infty}) \chi(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}})^{-1} \chi(\gamma) = \chi(\gamma).$$

This verifies that $\bar{\chi}(\gamma)$ is independent of the representative γ . Moreover, we can write $\gamma' = \eta_{\mathfrak{a}} \gamma$ where $\eta_{\mathfrak{a}} = \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} \eta_{\infty} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}$ and so $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma' = (\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}')^{-1} \gamma$ for some other scaling matrix $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}' = \eta_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$. Therefore we are left to verify that $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ is independent of the scaling matrix $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$. Writing $(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}')^{-1} = \eta_{\infty} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}$ and noting that η_{∞} does not affect the imaginary part as it acts by translation, we conclude $\text{Im}((\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}')^{-1} \gamma z) = \text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z)$. Therefore $\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z)$ is independent of the scaling matrix used. Similarly, the cocycle relation implies

$$\varepsilon((\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}')^{-1} \gamma, z) = \varepsilon(\eta_{\infty} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma, z) = \varepsilon(\eta_{\infty}, \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z) \varepsilon(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma, z) = \varepsilon(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma, z),$$

where the last equality follows because $\varepsilon(\eta_{\infty}, \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z) = 1$ (as $j(\eta_{\infty}, \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z) = 1$). Thus $\varepsilon(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma, z)$ is also independent of the scaling matrix used. Altogether, this shows $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ is independent of the scaling matrix used and thus is well-defined. We now show that this series is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $z \in \mathbb{H}$ and $\text{Re}(s) > 1$. To see this, applying the Bruhat decomposition to $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \backslash \Gamma = \Gamma_{\infty} \backslash \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \Gamma$ yields

$$E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s) \ll \sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \frac{\text{Im}(z)^{\sigma}}{|cz + d|^{2\sigma}}.$$

The latter series is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1$ and $z \in \mathbb{H}$ by Proposition B.9.1. Therefore $E_{k,\chi,a}(z, s)$ does too. To see that it is automorphic on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$, let $\gamma \in \Gamma$. Then we make a short computation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_{k,\chi,a}(\gamma z, s) &= \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_a \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma') \varepsilon(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma', \gamma z)^{-k} \operatorname{Im}(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \gamma z)^s \\
 &= \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_a \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma') \left(\frac{\varepsilon(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \gamma, z)}{\varepsilon(\gamma, z)} \right)^{-k} \operatorname{Im}(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \gamma z)^s && \text{cocycle condition} \\
 &= \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^k \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_a \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma') \varepsilon(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \gamma, z)^{-k} \operatorname{Im}(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \gamma z)^s \\
 &= \chi(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^k \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_a \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma') \bar{\chi}(\gamma) \varepsilon(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \gamma, z)^{-k} \operatorname{Im}(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \gamma z)^s \\
 &= \chi(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^k \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_a \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma' \gamma) \varepsilon(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \gamma, z)^{-k} \operatorname{Im}(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' \gamma z)^s \\
 &= \chi(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^k \sum_{\gamma' \in \Gamma_a \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma') \varepsilon(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma', z)^{-k} \operatorname{Im}(\sigma_a^{-1} \gamma' z)^s && \gamma' \rightarrow \gamma' \gamma^{-1} \text{ bijection on } \Gamma \\
 &= \chi(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^k E_{k,\chi,a}(z, s).
 \end{aligned}$$

Now we show that it is an eigenfunction for Δ_k . Observe that

$$\Delta_k(y^s) = \left(-y^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) + iky \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) (y^s) = \lambda(s) y^s.$$

Therefore $\operatorname{Im}(z)^s$ is an eigenfunction for Δ_k with eigenvalue $\lambda(s)$. Since Δ_k is invariant,

$$\Delta_k((\operatorname{Im}(\cdot)^s|_{\varepsilon,k}\gamma)(z)) = ((\Delta_k \operatorname{Im}(\cdot)^s)|_{\varepsilon,k}\gamma)(z) = \lambda(s)(\operatorname{Im}(\cdot)^s|_{\varepsilon,k}\gamma)(z),$$

and so $(\operatorname{Im}(\cdot)^s|_{\varepsilon,k}\gamma)(z) = \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^{-k} \operatorname{Im}(\gamma z)^s$ is also an eigenfunction for Δ_k with eigenvalue $\lambda(s)$ for all $\gamma \in \operatorname{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$. We immediately conclude that

$$\Delta_k(E_{k,\chi,a}(z, s)) = \lambda(s) E_{k,\chi,a}(z, s),$$

which shows $E_{k,\chi,a}(z, s)$ is also an eigenfunction for Δ_k with eigenvalue $\lambda(s)$. We now verify the growth condition for $E_{k,\chi,a}(z, s)$. Let $\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}}$ be a scaling matrix for the cusp \mathfrak{b} and write $\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} = \begin{pmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' \end{pmatrix}$. Then

$$E_{k,\chi,a}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} z, s) \ll \sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{0\}} \frac{\operatorname{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} z)^\sigma}{|c\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} z + d|^{2\sigma}} = \frac{\operatorname{Im}(z)^\sigma}{|c'z + d'|^{2\sigma}} \sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{0\}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} z + d|^{2\sigma}}.$$

Now decompose this last sum as

$$\sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{0\}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} z + d|^{2\sigma}} = \sum_{d \neq 0} \frac{1}{d^{2\sigma}} + \sum_{c \neq 0} \sum_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} z + d|^{2\sigma}} = 2 \sum_{d \geq 1} \frac{1}{d^{2\sigma}} + 2 \sum_{c \geq 1} \sum_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} z + d|^{2\sigma}}.$$

Notice that $\sum_{c \geq 1} \sum_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{d^{2\sigma}}$ converges provided $\sigma > 1$. Moreover, the exact same argument as for holomorphic form Eisenstein series shows that $\sum_{c \geq 1} \sum_{d \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|c\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} z + d|^{2\sigma}}$ converges in this region as well. Now for all $\operatorname{Im}(z) \geq 1$ and $\sigma > 1$,

$$\frac{\operatorname{Im}(z)^\sigma}{|c'z + d'|^{2\sigma}} \ll \frac{\operatorname{Im}(z)^\sigma}{|c' \operatorname{Im}(z)|^{2\sigma}} \ll \operatorname{Im}(z)^\sigma.$$

So altogether,

$$E_{\mathfrak{a}}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}}z, s) \ll \text{Im}(z)^{\sigma} = o(e^{2\pi\text{Im}(z)}),$$

provided $\text{Im}(z) \geq 1$ and $\sigma > 1$. This verifies $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ is of moderate growth at the cusps. We collect all of this work as a theorem:

Theorem 4.2.1. *For $\text{Re}(s) > 1$, the Eisenstein series*

$$E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma) \varepsilon(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma, z)^{-k} \text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma z)^s,$$

is a weight k Maass form with eigenvalue $\lambda(s)$ and character χ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$.

It is now time to discuss the Poincaré series. Unlike in the holomorphic case, the Poincaré series are not genuine Maass forms. However, they are still automorphic functions. Let $\psi : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a smooth function such that $\psi(y) \ll_{\varepsilon} y^{1+\varepsilon}$ as $y \rightarrow 0$. Let $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ be a scaling matrix for the \mathfrak{a} cusp and let $m \geq 1$. Then the m -th **(automorphic) Poincaré series** $P_{m,k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi)$ of weight k and character χ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ at the \mathfrak{a} cusp and with respect to ψ is defined by

$$P_{m,k,\chi,\mathfrak{a},m}(z, \psi) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma) \varepsilon(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma, z)^{-k} \psi(\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma z)) e^{2\pi i m \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma z}.$$

We first show $P_{m,k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi)$ is well-defined. We have already showed that $\bar{\chi}(\gamma)$ is independent of the representative γ and $\varepsilon(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma, z)^{-k}$ and $\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma z)$ are independent of the scaling matrix used when discussing $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$. So it suffices to show that $e^{2\pi i m \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma z}$ is independent of the scaling matrix too. As before, suppose $\sigma'_{\mathfrak{a}} = \eta_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ with $\eta_{\mathfrak{a}} = \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} \eta_{\infty} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}$ and $\eta_{\infty} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_{\infty}$. Then $(\sigma'_{\mathfrak{a}})^{-1} = \eta_{\infty} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}$, and we have

$$e^{2\pi i m (\sigma'_{\mathfrak{a}})^{-1}\gamma z} = e^{2\pi i m \eta_{\infty} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma z} = e^{2\pi i m (\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma z + n)} = e^{2\pi i m \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma z} e^{2\pi i m n z} = e^{2\pi i m \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma z},$$

and hence $e^{2\pi i m \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1}\gamma z}$ is independent of the representative γ used. It follows that $P_{m,k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi)$ is well-defined. Moreover, $P_{m,k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $z \in \mathbb{H}$, but to see this we first require a technical lemma:

Lemma 4.2.1. *For any compact subset K of \mathbb{H} , there are finitely many pairs $(c, d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{0\}$, with $c \neq 0$, for which*

$$\frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} > 1,$$

for all $z \in K$.

Proof. Let $\beta = \sup_{z \in K} |z|$. As $|cz + d| \geq |cz| > 0$ and $\text{Im}(z) < |z|$, we have

$$\frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} \leq \frac{1}{|c|^2 |z|} \leq \frac{1}{|c|^2 \beta}.$$

So if $\frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} > 1$, then $\frac{1}{|c|^2 \beta} > 1$ which is to say $|c| < \frac{1}{\sqrt{\beta}}$ and therefore $|c|$ is bounded. On the other hand, $|cz + d| \geq |d| \geq 0$. Excluding the finitely many terms $(c, 0)$, we may assume $|d| > 0$. In this case, similarly

$$\frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} \leq \frac{|z|}{|d|^2} \leq \frac{\beta}{|d|^2}.$$

So if $\frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} > 1$, then $\frac{\beta}{|d|^2} > 1$ which is to say $|d| < \sqrt{\beta}$. So $|d|$ is also bounded. Since both $|c|$ and $|d|$ are bounded, the claim follows. \square

Now we are ready to show that $P_{m,k,\chi,a}(z, \psi)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent. Let K be a compact subset of \mathbb{H} . Then it suffices to show $P_{m,k,\chi,a}(z, \psi)$ is uniformly convergent on K . Applying the Bruhat decomposition to $\sigma_a^{-1}\Gamma_a \backslash \Gamma = \Gamma_\infty \backslash \sigma_a^{-1}\Gamma$ gives

$$P_{m,k,\chi,a}(z, \psi) \ll |\psi(\text{Im}(z))| + \sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \left| \psi \left(\frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} \right) \right|.$$

It now further suffices to show that the series above is uniformly convergent on K . By Lemma 4.2.1 there are all but finitely many terms in the sum with $\psi \left(\frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} \right) \ll \left(\frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} \right)^{1+\varepsilon}$. But the finitely many other terms are all uniformly bounded on K because ψ is continuous (as it is smooth). Therefore

$$\sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \left| \psi \left(\frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} \right) \right| \ll_\varepsilon \sum_{(c,d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \left(\frac{\text{Im}(z)}{|cz + d|^2} \right)^{1+\varepsilon},$$

and this last series is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $z \in \mathbb{H}$ by Proposition B.9.1. It follows that $P_{m,k,\chi,a}(z, \psi)$ is too. Automorphy for $P_{m,k,\chi,a}(z, \psi)$ is verified in exactly the same way as for $E_{k,\chi,a}(z, s)$. We collect this work as a theorem:

Theorem 4.2.2. *Let $\psi : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a smooth function such that $\psi(y) \ll_\varepsilon y^{1+\varepsilon}$ as $y \rightarrow 0$. The Poincaré series*

$$P_{m,k,\chi,a}(z, \psi) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_a \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma) \varepsilon(\sigma_a^{-1}\gamma, z)^{-k} \psi(\text{Im}(\sigma_a^{-1}\gamma z)) e^{2\pi i m \sigma_a^{-1}\gamma z},$$

is a holomorphic automorphic function on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$.

4.3 L^2 -integrable Automorphic Functions

We will describe the space of automorphic functions and appropriate subspaces of interest. Let Γ be a congruence subgroup of level N and let χ be a Dirichlet character of conductor $q \mid N$. We will let $\mathcal{A}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ denote the space of all automorphic functions of weight k and character χ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. Let $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ be the subspace of $\mathcal{A}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ consisting of those function with bounded norm where the norm is given by

$$\|f\| = \left(\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} |f(z)|^2 d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Moreover, if χ is the trivial character or if $k = 0$ we will suppress the dependences accordingly. Since f is automorphic, the integral Γ -invariant and hence is independent of the choice of fundamental domain. Since this is an L^2 -space, $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is an induced inner product space (because the parallelogram law is satisfied). In particular, for any $f, g \in \mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ we define their **Petersson inner product** to be

$$\langle f, g \rangle_\Gamma = \frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} f(z) \overline{g(z)} d\mu.$$

If the congruence subgroup is clear from context we will suppress the dependence upon Γ . The integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded by the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality and that $f, g \in \mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. As f and g are automorphic, the integral is independent of the choice of fundamental domain. These two facts imply that the Petersson inner product is well-defined. We will continue to use this notion even if f and g do not belong to $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ provided the integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded. Moreover, we have the following proposition:

Proposition 4.3.1. $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is a Hilbert space with respect to the Petersson inner product.

Proof. To show that the Petersson inner product is a Hermitian inner product on $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$, just mimic the corresponding part of proof of Proposition 3.3.1 with $k = 0$. We now show that $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is complete. Let $(f_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be a Cauchy sequence in $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. Then $\|f_n - f_m\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n, m \rightarrow \infty$. But

$$\|f_n - f_m\| = \left(\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} |f_n(z) - f_m(z)|^2 d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{2}},$$

and this integral tends to zero if and only if $|f_n(z) - f_m(z)| \rightarrow 0$ as $n, m \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z)$ exists and we define the limiting function f by $f(z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z)$. We claim that f is automorphic. Indeed, as the f_n are automorphic, we have

$$f(\gamma z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(\gamma z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \chi(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^k f_n(z) = \chi(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^k \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z) = \chi(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^k f(z),$$

for any $\gamma \in \Gamma$. Also, $\|f\| < \infty$. To see this, since $(f_n)_{n \geq 1}$ is Cauchy we know $(\|f_n\|)_{n \geq 1}$ converges. In particular, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n\| < \infty$. But

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n\| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} |f_n(z)|^2 d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left(\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \left| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z) \right|^2 d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left(\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} |f(z)|^2 d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \|f\|,$$

where the second equality holds by the dominated convergence theorem. Hence $\|f\| < \infty$ as desired and so $f \in \mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. We now show that $f_n \rightarrow f$ in the L^2 -norm. Indeed,

$$\|f(z) - f_n(z)\| = \left(\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} |f(z) - f_n(z)|^2 d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{2}},$$

and it follows that $\|f(z) - f_n(z)\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ so that the Cauchy sequence $(f_n)_{n \geq 1}$ converges. \square

We will need two more subspaces. Let $\mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ be the subspace of $\mathcal{A}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ such that f is smooth and bounded and let $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ be the subspace of $\mathcal{A}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ such that f and $\Delta_k f$ are smooth and bounded. Again, if χ is the trivial character or if $k = 0$ we will suppress the dependences accordingly. Since boundedness on \mathbb{H} implies square-integrability over \mathcal{F}_Γ , we have the following chain of inclusions:

$$\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \subseteq \mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \subseteq \mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \subseteq \mathcal{A}_k(\Gamma, \chi).$$

Moreover, $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is almost all of $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ as the following proposition shows:

Proposition 4.3.2. $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is dense in $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$.

Proof. Note that $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is an algebra of functions that vanish at infinity. We will show that $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is nowhere vanishing, separates points, and is self-adjoint. For nowhere vanishing fix a $z \in \mathbb{H}$. Let φ_z be a bump function defined on some sufficiently small neighborhood U_z of z . Then

$$\Phi(v) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma} \overline{\chi}(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma, v)^{-k} \varphi_z(\gamma v),$$

belongs to $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ and is nonzero at z (the automorphy follows exactly as in the case of Eisenstein series). We now show $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ also separates points. To see this consider two distinct points $z, w \in \mathbb{H}$. Let $U_{z,w}$ be a small neighborhood of z not containing w . Then $\Phi_z|_{U_{z,w}}$ belongs to $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ with $\Phi_z|_{U_{z,w}}(z) \neq 0$

and $\varphi_z|_{U_{z,w}}(w) = 0$. To see why $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is self-adjoint, recall that complex conjugation is smooth and commutes with partial derivatives so that if f belongs to $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ then so does \bar{f} . Therefore the Stone–Weierstrass theorem for complex functions defined on locally compact Hausdorff spaces (as \mathbb{H} is a locally compact Hausdorff space) implies that $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is dense in $C_0(\mathbb{H})$ with the supremum norm. Note that $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \subseteq C_0(\mathbb{H})$ on the level of sets. Now we show $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is dense in $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. Let $f \in \mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. By what we have just show, there exists a sequence $(f_n)_{n \geq 1}$ in $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ converging to f in the supremum norm. But

$$\|f - f_n\| = \left(\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} |f(z) - f_n(z)|^2 d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq \left(\frac{1}{V_\Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{F}_\Gamma} \sup_{z \in \mathcal{F}_\Gamma} |f(z) - f_n(z)|^2 d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{2}},$$

and the last expression tends to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$ because $f_n \rightarrow f$ in the supremum norm. \square

As $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \subseteq \mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$, Proposition 4.3.2 implies that $\mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is dense in $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ too. It can be shown that the Laplace operator Δ_k is positive and symmetric on $\mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ and hence admits a self-adjoint extension to $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ (see [Iwa02] for a proof in the weight zero case and [CS17] for notes on the general case):

Theorem 4.3.1. *On $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$, the Laplace operator Δ_k is positive semi-definite and self-adjoint.*

If we suppose $f \in \mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is an eigenfunction for Δ_k with eigenvalue $\lambda = \lambda(s)$, then Theorem 4.3.1 implies $\lambda(s)$ is real and positive. Moreover, s and $1 - s$ are roots of the polynomial $z^2 - z + \lambda$. As λ is real, these roots are either conjugate symmetric or real. In the former case, $s = 1 - \bar{s}$ and we find

$$\sigma = 1 - \sigma \quad \text{and} \quad t = t.$$

Therefore $s = \frac{1}{2} + it$. In the later case, s is real and since $\lambda(s)$ is positive we must have $s \in (0, 1)$. It follows that in either case, we may write $\lambda = \frac{1}{4} + t^2$ with either $t \in \mathbb{R}$ or $it \in [0, \frac{1}{2})$. We refer to t as the **spectral parameter** of f . Note that we can then write

$$\lambda = s(1 - s) = \frac{1}{4} + t^2.$$

Unfortunately the Eisenstein series $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ are not L^2 -integrable over \mathcal{F}_Γ and so do not belong to $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. To obtain integrable automorphic functions we will argument these Eisenstein series so that they have compact support. Let $\psi : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a smooth compactly supported function and let $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}$ be a scaling matrix for the \mathfrak{a} cusp. We define the **(incomplete) Eisenstein series** $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi)$ of weight k and character χ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ at the \mathfrak{a} cusp and with respect to ψ by

$$E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \backslash \Gamma} \bar{\chi}(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^{-k} \psi(\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z)).$$

This series is locally absolutely uniformly convergent since only finitely many of the terms are nonzero. Indeed, $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \Gamma$ is a Fuchsian group because it is a subset of the modular group. So using $\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \backslash \Gamma = \Gamma_{\infty} \backslash \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \Gamma$ we see that $\{\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z : \gamma \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \backslash \Gamma\}$ is discrete. Since $\text{Im}(z)$ is an open map it takes discrete sets to discrete sets so that $\{\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z) : \gamma \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \backslash \Gamma\}$ is also discrete. Now $\psi(\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z))$ is nonzero if and only if $\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z) \in \text{Supp}(\psi)$ and $\{\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z) : \gamma \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \backslash \Gamma\} \cap \text{Supp}(\psi)$ is finite as it is a discrete subset of a compact set (since ψ has compact support). Hence finitely many of the terms are nonzero. Also, $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi)$ is automorphic on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ and the automorphy is proved in exactly the same way as for the Eisenstein series $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$. Moreover, the compact support of ψ implies that $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi)$ is also compactly supported (since the function $\psi(\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z))$ is continuous and \mathbb{C} is Hausdorff) and hence bounded on \mathbb{H} . As a consequence, $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi)$ is L^2 -integrable and therefore belongs to $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. This is the advantage of these Eisenstein series. We collect this work as a theorem:

Theorem 4.3.2. *For any smooth compactly supported function $\psi : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, the Eisenstein series*

$$E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}} \backslash \Gamma} \overline{\chi}(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^{-k} \psi(\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z)),$$

is an automorphic function on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ and belongs to $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$.

Unfortunately, the Eisenstein series $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi)$ fail to be Maass forms because they are not eigenfunctions for the Laplace operator. This is because compactly supported functions cannot be real-analytic (which as we have already mentioned is implied for any eigenfunction of the Laplace operator). However, there is an important interaction between incomplete Eisenstein series and Maass cusp forms. Let $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ and $\mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ denote the spaces generated by such forms respectively. Moreover, let $\mathcal{A}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ be the space of all Maass forms. Note that $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ and $\mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ are subspaces of $\mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ but $\mathcal{A}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ need not be. Let $\mathcal{E}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi)$, $\mathcal{C}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi)$, $\mathcal{A}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi)$, and $\mathcal{B}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi)$ denote the corresponding subspaces of such forms whose eigenvalue is $\lambda = \frac{1}{4} + t^2$. For all of these spaces, if χ is the trivial character or if the weight k is zero, we will suppress these dependences. As we will now show, $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ and $\mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ constitute all of $\mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. Indeed, let $f \in \mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ with $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(\cdot, \psi) \in \mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. We compute their inner product:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(\cdot, \psi) \rangle &= \frac{1}{V_{\Gamma}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma}} f(z) \overline{E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \psi)} d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_{\Gamma}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma}} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\infty} \backslash \Gamma} \chi(\gamma) \overline{\varepsilon(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma, z)^{-k}} f(z) \overline{\psi(\text{Im}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma z))} d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_{\Gamma}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma}} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\infty} \backslash \Gamma} \chi(\gamma) \overline{\varepsilon(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}^{-1} \gamma, \gamma^{-1} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z)^{-k}} f(\gamma^{-1} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z) \overline{\psi(\text{Im}(z))} d\mu \quad z \rightarrow \gamma^{-1} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z \\ &= \frac{1}{V_{\Gamma}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma}} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\infty} \backslash \Gamma} \chi(\gamma) \left(\frac{\varepsilon(I, z)}{\varepsilon(\gamma^{-1}, \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z)} \right)^{-k} f(\gamma^{-1} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z) \overline{\psi(\text{Im}(z))} d\mu \quad \text{cocycle condition} \\ &= \frac{1}{V_{\Gamma}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma}} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\infty} \backslash \Gamma} \chi(\gamma) \varepsilon(\gamma^{-1}, \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z)^{-k} f(\gamma^{-1} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z) \overline{\psi(\text{Im}(z))} d\mu \quad \overline{\varepsilon(\gamma, z)} = \varepsilon(\gamma, z)^{-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{V_{\Gamma}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma}} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\infty} \backslash \Gamma} \chi(\gamma^{-1})^{-1} \varepsilon(\gamma^{-1}, \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z)^{-k} f(\gamma^{-1} \sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z) \overline{\psi(\text{Im}(z))} d\mu \quad \chi(\gamma) = \chi(\gamma^{-1})^{-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{V_{\Gamma}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma}} f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z) \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{\infty} \backslash \Gamma} \overline{\psi(\text{Im}(z))} d\mu \quad \text{automorphy} \\ &= \int_{\Gamma_{\infty} \backslash \mathbb{H}} f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}} z) \overline{\psi(\text{Im}(z))} d\mu \quad \text{unfolding} \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^1 f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}(x + iy)) \overline{\psi(y)} \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \left(\int_0^1 f(\sigma_{\mathfrak{a}}(x + iy)) dx \right) \overline{\psi(y)} \frac{dy}{y^2}. \end{aligned}$$

The inner integral is precisely the constant term in the Fourier series of f at the \mathfrak{a} cusp. It follows that f is orthogonal to $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ if and only if f is a cusp form. By what we have just shown,

$$\mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi) = \mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \oplus \mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{B}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi) = \mathcal{E}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi) \oplus \mathcal{C}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi),$$

and since $\mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is dense in $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ we have

$$\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi) = \overline{\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)} \oplus \overline{\mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)},$$

where the closure is with respect to the topology induced by the L^2 -norm.

4.4 Spectral Theory of the Laplace Operator

We are now ready to discuss the spectral theory of the Laplace operator Δ_k . What we want to do is to decompose $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ into subspaces invariant under Δ_k such that on each subspace Δ_k has either pure point spectrum, absolutely continuous spectrum, or residual spectrum. Although the proof is beyond the scope of this text, the spectral resolution of the Laplace operator on $\mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is as follows (see [Iwa02] for a proof in the weight zero case and [CS17] for notes on the general case):

Theorem 4.4.1. *The Laplace operator Δ_k has pure point spectrum on $\mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. The corresponding subspaces $\mathcal{C}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi)$ have finite dimension and are mutually orthogonal. Letting $\{u_j\}$ be any orthonormal basis of cusp forms for $\mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$, every $f \in \mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ admits a series of the form*

$$f(z) = \sum_j \langle f, u_j \rangle u_j(z),$$

which is locally absolutely uniformly convergent if $f \in \mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ and converges in the L^2 -norm otherwise.

We will now discuss the spectrum of the Laplace operator on $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. Essential is the meromorphic continuation of the Eisenstein series $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ (see [Iwa02] for a proof in the weight zero case and [CS17] for notes on the general case):

Theorem 4.4.2. *Let \mathfrak{a} and \mathfrak{b} be cusps of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. The Eisenstein series $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ admits meromorphic continuation to \mathbb{C} in the s -plane, via a Fourier series at the \mathfrak{b} cusp given by*

$$E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(\sigma_{\mathfrak{b}} z, s) = \delta_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}} y^s + \tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}(s) y^{1-s} + \sum_{n \neq 0} \tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}(n, s) W_{\text{sgn}(n)\frac{k}{2}, s - \frac{1}{2}}(4\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x},$$

where $\tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}(s)$ and $\tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}(n, s)$ are meromorphic functions.

The Eisenstein series $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ also satisfy a functional equation. To state it we need some notation. Fix an ordering of the cusps \mathfrak{a} of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ and define

$$\mathcal{E}(z, s) = (E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s))_{\mathfrak{a}}^t \quad \text{and} \quad \Phi(s) = (\tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}(s))_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}.$$

In other words, $\mathcal{E}(z, s)$ is the column vector of the Eisenstein series and $\Phi(s)$ is the square matrix of meromorphic functions $\tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}(s)$ described in Theorem 4.4.2. Then we have the following (see [Iwa02] for a proof in the weight zero case and [CS17] for notes on the general case):

Theorem 4.4.3. *The Eisenstein series $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ of weight k and character χ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ satisfy the functional equation*

$$\mathcal{E}(z, s) = \Phi(s) \mathcal{E}(z, 1 - s).$$

Moreover, the matrix $\Phi(s)$ satisfies the functional equation

$$\Phi(s) \Phi(1 - s) = I,$$

is unitary on the line $\text{Re}(s) = \frac{1}{2}$, and hermitian if s is real.

Understanding the poles of $\tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}$ are also important for understanding the poles of the Eisenstein series $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ (see [Iwa02] for a proof in the weight zero case and [CS17] for notes on the general case):

Theorem 4.4.4. *The functions $\tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}(s)$ are meromorphic for $\operatorname{Re}(s) \geq \frac{1}{2}$ with a finite number of simple poles in the segment $(\frac{1}{2}, 1]$. A pole of $\tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}}(s)$ is also a pole of $\tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{a}}(s)$. Moreover, the poles of $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ are among the poles of $\tau_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{a}}(s)$, $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ has no poles on the line $\operatorname{Re}(s) = \frac{1}{2}$, and the residues of $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ are Maass forms in $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$.*

To begin decomposing the space $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$, consider the subspace $C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}_{>0})$ of $\mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R}_{>0})$ with the normalized standard inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty f(r) \overline{g(r)} dr,$$

for any $f, g \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}_{>0})$. For each cusp \mathfrak{a} of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ we associate the **Eisenstein transform** $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}} : C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}_{>0}) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ defined by

$$(E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}f)(z) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^\infty f(r) E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}} \left(z, \frac{1}{2} + ir \right) dr.$$

Clearly $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}f$ is automorphic because $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$ is. It is not too hard to show the following (see [Iwa02] for a proof in the weight zero case and [CS17] for notes on the general case):

Proposition 4.4.1. *If $f \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}_{>0})$, then $E_{\mathfrak{a}}f$ is L^2 -integrable over \mathcal{F}_Γ . That is, $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}} : C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}_{>0}) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. Moreover,*

$$\langle E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}f, E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{b}}g \rangle = \delta_{\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}} \langle f, g \rangle,$$

for any $f, g \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}_{>0})$ and any two cusps \mathfrak{a} and \mathfrak{b} .

We let $\mathcal{E}_{k,\mathfrak{a}}(\Gamma, \chi)$ denote the image of the Eisenstein transform $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}$. We call $\mathcal{E}_{k,\mathfrak{a}}(\Gamma, \chi)$ the **Eisenstein space** of $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, s)$. An immediate consequence of Proposition 4.4.1 is that the Eisenstein spaces for distinct cusps are orthogonal. Moreover, since $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \frac{1}{2} + ir)$ is an eigenfunction for the Laplace operator with eigenvalue $\lambda = \frac{1}{4} + r^2$, and f and $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(z, \frac{1}{2} + ir)$ are smooth, the Leibniz integral rule implies

$$\Delta E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}} = E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}M,$$

where $M : C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}_{>0}) \rightarrow C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}_{>0})$ is the multiplication operator given by

$$(Mf)(r) = \left(\frac{1}{4} + r^2 \right) f(r),$$

for all $f \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}_{>0})$. Therefore if $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}f$ belongs to $\mathcal{E}_{k,\mathfrak{a}}(\Gamma, \chi)$ then so does $E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}}(Mf)$. But as $f, Mf \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}_{>0})$, this means $\mathcal{E}_{k,\mathfrak{a}}(\Gamma, \chi)$ is invariant under the Laplace operator. While the Eisenstein spaces are invariant, they do not make up all of $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. By Theorem 4.4.4, the residues of the Eisenstein series belong to $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. Let $\mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ denote the subspace spanned by the residues of these Eisenstein series. We call any element of $\mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ a **(residual) Maass form** (by Theorem 4.4.4 they are Maass forms). Also let $\mathcal{R}_{k,s_j}(\Gamma, \chi)$ denote the subspace spanned by those residues taken at $s = s_j$. Since there are finitely many cusps of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$, each $\mathcal{R}_{k,s_j}(\Gamma, \chi)$ is finite dimensional. As the number of residues in $(\frac{1}{2}, 1]$ is finite by Theorem 4.4.4, it follows that $\mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is finite dimensional too. So $\mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ decomposes as

$$\mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi) = \bigoplus_{\frac{1}{2} < s_j \leq 1} \mathcal{R}_{k,s_j}(\Gamma, \chi).$$

This decomposition is orthogonal because the Maass forms belonging to distinct subspaces $\mathcal{R}_{k,s_j}(\Gamma, \chi)$ have distinct eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of self-adjoint operators are orthogonal (recall that Δ_k is self-adjoint by Theorem 4.3.1). Also, each subspace $\mathcal{R}_{k,s_j}(\Gamma, \chi)$ is clearly invariant under the Laplace operator because its elements are Maass forms. We are now ready for the spectral resolution. Although the proof is beyond the scope of this text, the spectral resolution of the Laplace operator on $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is as follows (see [Iwa02] for a proof in the weight zero case and [CS17] for notes on the general case):

Theorem 4.4.5. $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ admits the orthogonal decomposition

$$\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi) = \mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \bigoplus_{\mathfrak{a}} \mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi),$$

where the direct sum is over the cusps of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. The Laplace operator Δ_k has discrete spectrum on $\mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ in the segment $[0, \frac{1}{4})$ and has pure continuous spectrum on each Eisenstein space $\mathcal{E}_{k,\mathfrak{a}}(\Gamma, \chi)$ covering the segment $[\frac{1}{4}, \infty)$ uniformly with multiplicity 1. Letting $\{u_j\}$ be any orthonormal basis residual Maass forms for $\mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$, every $f \in \mathcal{E}_{k,\mathfrak{a}}(\Gamma, \chi)$ admits a decomposition of the form

$$f(z) = \sum_j \langle f, u_j \rangle u_j(z) + \sum_{\mathfrak{a}} \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left\langle f, E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}} \left(\cdot, \frac{1}{2} + ir \right) \right\rangle E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}} \left(z, \frac{1}{2} + ir \right) dr.$$

The series is locally absolutely uniformly convergent and the integrals are locally absolutely uniformly bounded if $f \in \mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ and converges in the L^2 -norm otherwise.

Combining Theorems 4.4.1 and 4.4.5 gives the full spectral resolution of $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$:

Theorem 4.4.6. $\mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ admits the orthogonal decomposition

$$\mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi) = \mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \oplus \mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \bigoplus_{\mathfrak{a}} \mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi),$$

where the sum is over all cusps of $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. The Laplace operator has pure point spectrum on $\mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$, discrete spectrum on $\mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$, and absolutely continuous spectrum on $\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. Letting $\{u_j\}$ be any orthonormal basis of Maass forms for $\mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \oplus \mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$, any $f \in \mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ has a series of the form

$$f(z) = \sum_j \langle f, u_j \rangle u_j(z) + \sum_{\mathfrak{a}} \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left\langle f, E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}} \left(\cdot, \frac{1}{2} + ir \right) \right\rangle E_{k,\chi,\mathfrak{a}} \left(z, \frac{1}{2} + ir \right) dr,$$

which is locally absolutely uniformly convergent if $f \in \mathcal{D}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ and in the L^2 -norm otherwise. Moreover,

$$\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi) = \overline{\mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)} \oplus \overline{\mathcal{R}_k(\Gamma, \chi)} \bigoplus_{\mathfrak{a}} \overline{\mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi)},$$

where the closure is with respect to the topology induced by the L^2 -norm.

Proof. Combine Theorems 4.4.1 and 4.4.5 and use the fact that $\mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi) = \mathcal{E}_k(\Gamma, \chi) \oplus \mathcal{C}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ for the first statement. The last statement holds because $\mathcal{B}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$ is dense in $\mathcal{L}_k(\Gamma, \chi)$. \square

4.5 Double Coset Operators

We can extend the theory of double coset operators to weight zero Maass form just as we did for holomorphic forms. Indeed, for any $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$, we define the operator $[\alpha]$ on $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma)$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(f[\alpha])(z) = \det(\alpha)^{-\frac{1}{2}} f(\alpha z),$$

Clearly $[\alpha]$ is multiplicative. Moreover, if $\gamma \in \Gamma$ and we choose the representative with positive determinant, then the chain of equalities

$$(f[\gamma])(z) = f(\gamma z) = f(z),$$

is equivalent to the automorphy of f on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. For any two congruence subgroups Γ_1 and Γ_2 (not necessarily of the same level) and any $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$, we define the **double coset operator** $[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]$ to be the linear operator on $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1)$ given by

$$(f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2])(z) = \sum_j (f[\beta_j])(z) = \sum_j \det(\beta_j)^{-\frac{1}{2}} f(\beta_j z).$$

As was the case for holomorphic forms, Proposition 3.4.1 implies that this sum is finite. Mimicking the same argument for $[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]_k$, we see that $[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]$ is also well-defined. There is also an analogous statement about the double coset operators for Maass forms:

Proposition 4.5.1. *For any two congruence subgroups Γ_1 and Γ_2 , $[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]$ maps $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1)$ into $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_2)$. Moreover, $[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]$ preserves the subspace of cusp forms.*

Proof. Mimicking the proof of Proposition 3.4.2 with $k = 0$ (except $k = \frac{1}{2}$ for the power of the determinant), smoothness replacing holomorphy, and the analogous growth condition for Maass forms, the only piece left to verify is that $f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]$ is an eigenfunction for Δ with eigenvalue λ if f is. This is easy, since

$$\Delta(f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2])(z) = \sum_j \Delta(f[\beta_j])(z) = \lambda \sum_j \det(\beta_j)^{-\frac{1}{2}} f(\beta_j z) = \lambda(f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2])(z).$$

Thus $f[\Gamma_1 \alpha \Gamma_2]$ is an eigenfunction for Δ with eigenvalue λ . This completes the proof. \square

4.6 Diamond & Hecke Operators

Extending the theory of diamond operators and Hecke operators to weight zero Maass form is fairly straightforward. To see this, we have already shown that $\Gamma_1(N)$ is normal in $\Gamma_0(N)$ so

$$(f[\Gamma_1(N) \alpha \Gamma_1(N)])(z) = \sum_j (f[\beta_j])(z) = (f[\alpha])(z),$$

for any $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ * & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$. Therefore, for any d taken modulo N , we define the **diamond operator** $\langle d \rangle : \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(\langle d \rangle f)(z) = (f[\alpha])(z),$$

for any $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ * & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$. As for holomorphic forms, the diamond operators are multiplicative and invertible. They also decompose $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ into eigenspaces. For any Dirichlet character modulo N , let

$$\mathcal{A}_t(N, \chi) = \{f \in \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N)) : \langle d \rangle f = \chi(d)f \text{ for all } d \in (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*\},$$

be the χ -eigenspace. Also let $\mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$ be the corresponding subspace of cusp forms. Then $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ admits a decomposition into these eigenspaces:

Proposition 4.6.1. *We have a direct sum decomposition*

$$\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N)) = \bigoplus_{\chi \pmod{N}} \mathcal{A}_t(N, \chi).$$

Moreover, this decomposition respects the subspace of cusp forms.

Proof. Mimic the proof of Proposition 3.5.1. □

If $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ * & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_0(N)$ and we choose the representative with positive determinant, then $\chi(\gamma) = \chi(d)$ and the chain of equalities

$$(\langle d \rangle f)(z) = (f[\gamma])(z) = f(\gamma z) = \chi(d)f(z),$$

is equivalent to the automorphy of f with character χ on $\Gamma_0(N) \backslash \mathbb{H}$. So f is a Maass form with character χ on $\Gamma_0(N) \backslash \mathbb{H}$ if and only if $f[\gamma] = \chi(\gamma)f$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma_0(N)$ where γ is chosen to be the representative with positive determinant. This means that if $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma, \chi)$ denotes the space of Maass forms on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$ with spectral parameter t and character χ , and $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma, \chi)$ denotes the corresponding subspace of cusp forms, then $\mathcal{A}_t(N, \chi) = \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_0(N), \chi)$ and $\mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi) = \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_0(N), \chi)$. So by Proposition 4.6.1, we have

$$\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N)) = \bigoplus_{\chi \pmod{N}} \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_0(N), \chi),$$

and this decomposition respects the subspace of cusp forms. As for holomorphic forms, this decomposition helps clarify why we consider Maass forms with nontrivial characters. We define the Hecke operators in the same way as for holomorphic forms. For a prime p , we define the p -th **Hecke operator** $T_p : \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(T_p f)(z) = \left(f \left[\Gamma_1(N) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \Gamma_1(N) \right] \right) (z).$$

By Proposition 4.5.1, T_p preserves the subspaces of Maass forms and cusp forms. The diamond and Hecke operators commute:

Proposition 4.6.2. *For every $d \in (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$ and prime p , the diamond operator $\langle d \rangle$ and the Hecke operator T_p on $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ commute:*

$$\langle d \rangle T_p = T_p \langle d \rangle$$

Proof. Mimic the proof of Proposition 4.6.2. □

Exactly as for holomorphic forms, Lemma 3.5.1 will give an explicit description of the Hecke operator T_p :

Proposition 4.6.3. *Let $f \in \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$. Then the Hecke operator T_p acts on f as follows:*

$$(T_p f)(z) = \begin{cases} \sum_{j \pmod{p}} \left(f \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \right] \right) (z) + \left(f \left[\begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ N & p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] \right) (z) & \text{if } p \nmid N, \\ \sum_{j \pmod{p}} \left(f \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & j \\ 0 & p \end{pmatrix} \right] \right) (z) & \text{if } p \mid N, \end{cases}$$

where m and n are chosen such that $\det \left(\begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ N & p \end{pmatrix} \right) = 1$.

Proof. Mimic the proof of Proposition 3.5.3. □

We use Proposition 4.6.3 to understand how the Hecke operators act on the Fourier coefficients of Maass forms:

Proposition 4.6.4. *Let $f \in \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$, $a_0(f)$, and $b_0(f)$. Then for primes p with $(p, N) = 1$,*

$$(T_p f)(z) = (a_0(f) + \chi_{N,0}(p)a_0(\langle p \rangle f))y^{\frac{1}{2}+it} + (b_0(f) + \chi_{N,0}(p)b_0(\langle p \rangle f))y^{\frac{1}{2}-it} \\ + \sum_{n \neq 0} \left(a_{np}(f) + \chi_{N,0}(p)a_{\frac{n}{p}}(\langle p \rangle f) \right) \sqrt{y} K_{it}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x},$$

is the Fourier series of $T_p f$ where it is understood that $a_{\frac{n}{p}}(f) = 0$ if $p \nmid n$. Moreover, if $f \in \mathcal{A}_t(N, \chi)$, then $T_p f \in \mathcal{A}_t(N, \chi)$ and

$$(T_p f)(z) = (a_0(f) + \chi(p)a_0(f))y^{\frac{1}{2}+it} + (b_0(f) + \chi(p)b_0(f))y^{\frac{1}{2}-it} \\ + \sum_{n \neq 0} \left(a_{np}(f) + \chi(p)a_{\frac{n}{p}}(f) \right) \sqrt{y} K_{it}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x},$$

where it is understood that $a_{\frac{n}{p}}(f) = 0$ if $p \nmid n$.

Proof. Mimic the proof of Proposition 3.5.4. □

As for holomorphic forms, the Hecke operators form a simultaneously commuting family with the diamond operators:

Proposition 4.6.5. *Let p and q be primes and $d, e \in (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$. Then the Hecke operators T_p and T_q and diamond operators $\langle d \rangle$ and $\langle e \rangle$ on $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ form a simultaneously commuting family:*

$$T_p T_q = T_q T_p, \quad \langle d \rangle T_p = T_p \langle d \rangle, \quad \text{and} \quad \langle d \rangle \langle e \rangle = \langle e \rangle \langle d \rangle.$$

Proof. Mimic the proof of Proposition 3.5.5. □

We use Proposition 4.6.5 to construct diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$ and Hecke operators T_m for all $m \geq 1$ exactly as for holomorphic forms. Explicitly, the **diamond operator** $\langle m \rangle : \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ is defined to be the linear operator given by

$$\langle m \rangle = \begin{cases} \langle m \rangle \text{ with } m \text{ taken modulo } N & \text{if } (m, N) = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } (m, N) > 1. \end{cases}$$

For the Hecke operators, if $m = p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k}$ is the prime decomposition of m , then the m -th **Hecke operator** $T_m : \mathcal{A}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi)$ is the linear operator given by

$$T_m = \prod_{1 \leq i \leq k} T_{p_i^{r_i}},$$

where T_{p^r} is defined inductively by

$$T_{p^r} = \begin{cases} T_p T_{p^{r-1}} - \langle p \rangle T_{p^{r-2}} & \text{if } p \nmid N, \\ T_p^r & \text{if } p \mid N, \end{cases}$$

for all $r \geq 2$. By Proposition 4.6.5, the Hecke operators T_m are multiplicative but not completely multiplicative in m and they commute with the diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$. Moreover, a more general formula for how the Hecke operators T_m act on the Fourier coefficients can be derived:

Proposition 4.6.6. *Let $f \in \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ with Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$, $a_0(f)$, and $b_0(f)$. Then for $m \geq 1$ with $(m, N) = 1$,*

$$(T_m f)(z) = \left(\sum_{d|m} a_0(\langle d \rangle f) \right) y^{\frac{1}{2}+it} + \left(\sum_{d|m} b_0(\langle d \rangle f) \right) y^{\frac{1}{2}-it} \\ + \sum_{n \neq 0} \left(\sum_{d|(n,m)} a_{\frac{nm}{d^2}}(\langle d \rangle f) \right) \sqrt{y} K_{it}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x},$$

is the Fourier series of $T_m f$. Moreover, if $f \in \mathcal{A}_t(N, \chi)$, then

$$(T_m f)(z) = \left(\sum_{d|m} \chi(d) a_0(f) \right) y^{\frac{1}{2}+it} + \left(\sum_{d|m} \chi(d) b_0(f) \right) y^{\frac{1}{2}-it} \\ + \sum_{n \neq 0} \left(\sum_{d|(n,m)} \chi(d) a_{\frac{nm}{d^2}}(f) \right) \sqrt{y} K_{it}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x}.$$

Proof. Mimic the proof of Proposition 3.5.6. □

The diamond and Hecke operators turn out to be normal with respect to the Petersson inner product on the subspace of cusp forms. We can use Lemma 3.5.2 to compute adjoints:

Proposition 4.6.7. *Let Γ be a congruence subgroup and let $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$. Then the following are true:*

(i) *If $\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha \subseteq \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$, then for all $f \in \mathcal{C}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi)$ and $g \in \mathcal{C}_t(\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha)$, we have*

$$\langle f[\alpha], g \rangle_{\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha} = \langle f, g[\alpha^{-1}] \rangle_{\Gamma}.$$

(ii) *For all $f, g \in \mathcal{C}_{k,t}(\Gamma, \chi)$, we have*

$$\langle f[\Gamma\alpha\Gamma], g \rangle = \langle f, g[\Gamma\alpha^{-1}\Gamma] \rangle.$$

In particular, if $\alpha^{-1}\Gamma\alpha = \Gamma$ then $[\alpha]^ = [\alpha^{-1}]$ and $[\Gamma\alpha\Gamma]^* = [\Gamma\alpha^{-1}\Gamma]$.*

Proof. Mimic the proof of Proposition 3.5.7. □

We can now prove that the diamond and Hecke operators are normal:

Proposition 4.6.8. *On $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$, the diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$ and Hecke operators T_m are normal with respect to the Petersson inner product for all $m \geq 1$ with $(m, N) = 1$. Moreover, their adjoints are given by*

$$\langle m \rangle^* = \langle \overline{m} \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad T_p^* = \langle \overline{p} \rangle T_p.$$

Proof. Mimic the proof of Proposition 3.5.8. □

When we are considering Maass forms on the full modular group, Proposition 4.6.8 says that all of the diamond and Hecke operators are normal. Before discussing the spectral theory, we need one last operator. Define $T_{-1} : \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(T_{-1}f)(z) = f(-\bar{z}).$$

Clearly T_{-1} preserves the subspace of cusp forms. Moreover, we also have the following proposition encompassing important properties of the T_{-1} operator:

Proposition 4.6.9.

1. On $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$, the operator T_{-1} commutes with the diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$ and Hecke operators T_n for all $m, n \geq 1$.
2. On $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ the operator T_{-1} is normal with respect to the Petersson inner product and the adjoint is given by

$$T_{-1}^* = -T_{-1}.$$

Proof. To prove (i), for any matrix $\alpha \in \mathrm{GL}_2^+(\mathbb{Q})$ observe that $-\alpha\bar{z} = \alpha(-\bar{z})$. Hence T_{-1} commutes with the $[\alpha]$ operator. Since T_{-1} is linear, it follows that it commutes with the double coset operators and hence the diamond operators and Hecke operators as well. For (ii), $z \rightarrow -\bar{z}$ is an automorphism of \mathbb{H} sending $d\mu \rightarrow -d\mu$. So for any $f, g \in \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle T_{-1}f, g \rangle &= \frac{1}{V_{\Gamma_1(N)}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma_1(N)}} (T_{-1}f)(z) \overline{g(z)} d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{V_{\Gamma_1(N)}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma_1(N)}} f(-\bar{z}) \overline{g(z)} d\mu \\ &= -\frac{1}{V_{\Gamma_1(N)}} \int_{\mathcal{F}_{\Gamma_1(N)}} f(z) \overline{g(-\bar{z})} d\mu \\ &= \langle f, -T_{-1}g \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

This proves the adjoint formula $T_{-1}^* = -T_{-1}$ and normality is now clear. \square

In the case of the modular group, Proposition 4.6.8 says that all of the diamond and Hecke operators are normal. Suppose f is a non-constant Maass form with Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$. Let the eigenvalue of T_m for f be $\lambda_f(m)$. We say that the $\lambda_f(m)$ are the **Hecke eigenvalues** of f . Similar to the case for holomorphic forms, if f is a Maass form on $\Gamma_1(N) \backslash \mathbb{H}$ that is a simultaneous eigenfunction for the operator T_{-1} and all diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$ and Hecke operators T_m with $(m, N) = 1$, we call f an **eigenform** (necessarily f is even or odd because $T_{-1}^2 f = f$ so that the only possible eigenvalues are ± 1). If the condition $(m, N) = 1$ can be dropped, so that f is a simultaneous eigenfunction for all diamond and Hecke operators, then we say f is a **Hecke-Maass eigenform**. In particular, on $\Gamma_1(1) \backslash \mathbb{H}$ all eigenforms are Hecke-Maass eigenforms. As for holomorphic forms, if f an eigenform Proposition 4.6.6 implies that the first Fourier coefficient of $T_m f$ is $a_m(f)$ and so $a_m(f) = \lambda_f(m) a_1(f)$ for all $m \geq 1$ with $(m, N) = 1$. Therefore we cannot have $a_1(f) = 0$ and so we can normalize f by dividing by $a_1(f)$ which guarantees that the Fourier series has constant term 1. Then the m -th Fourier coefficient of f , when $(m, N) = 1$, is precisely the Hecke eigenvalue $\lambda_f(m)$. This normalization is called the **Hecke normalization** of f . The **Petersson normalization** of f is where we normalize so that $\langle f, f \rangle = 1$. From the spectral theorem we have an analogous corollary as for holomorphic forms:

Theorem 4.6.1. $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ admits an orthonormal basis of eigenforms.

Proof. This follows from the spectral theorem along with Propositions 4.6.5, 4.6.8 and 4.6.9. \square

In particular, Theorem 4.6.1 implies that the orthonormal basis in Theorem 4.4.1 can be taken to be an orthonormal basis of eigenforms since it is clear that the T_{-1} operator, diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$, and Hecke operators T_m all commute with Δ . Also, just as in the holomorphic setting, we have **Hecke relations** for Maass forms:

Proposition 4.6.10 (Hecke relations, Maass version). *Let $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$ be a Hecke-Maass eigenform with Fourier coefficients $\lambda_f(n)$. Then the Fourier coefficients are multiplicative and satisfy*

$$\lambda_f(n)\lambda_f(m) = \sum_{d|(n,m)} \chi(d)\lambda_f\left(\frac{nm}{d^2}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_f(nm) = \sum_{d|(n,m)} \mu(d)\chi(d)\lambda_f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)\lambda_f\left(\frac{m}{d}\right),$$

for all $n, m \geq 1$ with $(nm, N) = 1$.

Proof. Mimic the proof of the Hecke relations for holomorphic forms. \square

As an immediate consequence of the Hecke relations, the Hecke operators satisfy analogous relations:

Corollary 4.6.1. *For all $n, m \geq 1$ with $(nm, N) = 1$, we have*

$$T_n T_m = \sum_{d|(n,m)} \chi(d) T_{\frac{nm}{d^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad T_{nm} = \sum_{d|(n,m)} \mu(d) \chi(d) T_{\frac{n}{d}} T_{\frac{m}{d}}.$$

Proof. Mimic the proof of Corollary 3.5.1. \square

Just as for holomorphic forms, the identities in Corollary 4.6.1 can also be established directly and the first identity can be used to show that the Hecke operators commute.

4.7 Atkin–Lehner Theory

There is also an Atkin–Lehner theory for weight zero Maass form. As with holomorphic forms, we will only deal with congruence subgroups of the form $\Gamma_1(N)$ and cusp forms on $\Gamma_1(N) \backslash \mathbb{H}$. The trivial way to lift Maass forms from a smaller level to a larger level is via the natural inclusion $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(M)) \subseteq \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ provided $M \mid N$ which follows from $\Gamma_1(N) \leq \Gamma_1(M)$. Alternatively, for any $d \mid \frac{N}{M}$, let $\alpha_d = \begin{pmatrix} d & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. If $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(M))$, then

$$(f[\alpha_d])(z) = f(\alpha_d z) = f(dz).$$

Similar to holomorphic forms, $[\alpha_d]$ maps $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(M))$ into $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$:

Proposition 4.7.1. *Let M and N be positive integers such that $M \mid N$. For any $d \mid \frac{N}{M}$, $[\alpha_d]$ maps $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(M))$ into $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$.*

Proof. Mimicking the proof of Proposition 3.6.1 with $k = 0$, smoothness replacing holomorphy, and the analogous growth condition for Maass forms, the only piece left to verify is that $f[\alpha_d]$ is an eigenfunction for Δ with eigenvalue λ if f is. This is easy, for

$$\Delta(f[\alpha_d])(z) = (\Delta f)(dz) = \lambda f(dz) = \lambda(f[\alpha_d])(z).$$

Therefore $f[\alpha_d]$ is an eigenfunction for Δ with eigenvalue λ . This completes the proof. \square

We can now define oldforms and newforms. For each divisor d of N , set

$$i_d : \mathcal{C}_t\left(\Gamma_1\left(\frac{N}{d}\right)\right) \times \mathcal{C}_t\left(\Gamma_1\left(\frac{N}{d}\right)\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N)) \quad (f, g) \mapsto f + g[\alpha_d].$$

This map is well-defined by Proposition 4.7.1. The subspace of **oldforms of level N** is

$$\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}} = \bigoplus_{p|N} \text{Im}(i_p),$$

and the subspace of **newforms of level N** is

$$\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}} = (\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}})^{\perp},$$

where the orthogonal complement is taken with respect to the Petersson inner product. The elements of such subspaces are called **oldforms** and **newforms** respectively. Both subspaces are invariant under the diamond and Hecke operators (mimic the proof of Proposition 3.6.2 given in [DS05]):

Proposition 4.7.2. *The spaces $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}}$ and $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ are invariant under the diamond operators $\langle m \rangle$ and Hecke operators T_m for all $m \geq 1$.*

As a corollary, these subspaces admit orthogonal bases of eigenforms:

Corollary 4.7.1. *$\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{old}}$ and $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ admit orthonormal bases of eigenforms.*

Proof. This follows immediately from Theorem 4.6.1 and Proposition 4.7.2 □

We can remove the condition $(m, N) = 1$ for eigenforms in a basis of $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ so that the eigenforms are eigenfunctions for all of the diamond and Hecke operators. As for holomorphic forms, we need a preliminary result (mimic the proof of Lemma 3.6.1 as given in [DS05]):

Lemma 4.7.1. *If $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ with Fourier coefficients $a_n(f)$ and such that $a_n(f) = 0$ whenever $(n, N) = 1$, then*

$$f = \sum_{p|N} f_p[\alpha_p],$$

for some $f_p \in \mathcal{C}_t\left(\Gamma_1\left(\frac{N}{p}\right)\right)$.

As was the case for holomorphic forms, we observe from Lemma 4.7.1 that if $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ is such that its n -th Fourier coefficients vanish when n is relatively prime to the level, then f must be an oldform. The main theorem about $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ can now be proved. We say that f is a **primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform** if it is a nonzero Hecke normalized Hecke-Maass eigenform in $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$. We can now prove the main result about newforms:

Theorem 4.7.1. *Let $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ be an eigenform. Then the following hold:*

(i) *f is a Hecke-Maass eigenform.*

(ii) *If \tilde{f} satisfies the same conditions as f and has the same eigenvalues for the Hecke operators, then $\tilde{f} = cf$ for some nonzero constant c .*

Moreover, the primitive Hecke-Maass eigenforms in $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ form an orthogonal basis with respect to the Petersson inner product and each such primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform f lies in an eigenspace $\mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$.

Proof. Mimic the proof of Theorem 3.6.1. □

Statement (i) in Theorem 4.7.1 implies that primitive Hecke-Maass eigenforms satisfy the Hecke relations for all $n, m \geq 1$. Statement (ii) in Theorem 4.7.1 is referred to as the **multiplicity one theorem** for Maass forms. So as is the case for holomorphic forms, $\mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))^{\text{new}}$ contains one element per “eigenvalue” where we mean a set of eigenvalues one for each Hecke operator T_m . Since the Fourier coefficients are multiplicative, the Hecke relations imply that f is actually determined by its Fourier coefficients at primes.

Theorem 4.7.2 (Multiplicity one, Maass version). *Let f and g be primitive Hecke-Maass eigenforms of the same eigenvalue and level. Denote the Hecke eigenvalues by $\lambda_f(n)$ and $\lambda_g(n)$ respectively. If $\lambda_f(p) = \lambda_g(p)$ for all primes p , then $f = g$.*

Proof. Mimic the proof of multiplicity one for holomorphic forms. □

Interestingly, unlike holomorphic forms it is unknown if the Fourier coefficients of Maass forms are real or even algebraic in general. We require one last piece of machinery. As for holomorphic forms, we have an involution on the space $\mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$. Recall the matrix

$$W_N = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ N & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

with $\det(W_N) = N$. We define the **Atkin–Lehner involution** $\omega_N : \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N)) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ to be the linear operator given by

$$(\omega_N f)(z) = f(W_N z) = f\left(-\frac{1}{Nz}\right).$$

To see that ω_N is well-defined, first note that smoothness and the growth condition are obvious. For automorphy, recall that for $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_1(N)$, we have

$$W_N \gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ N & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -c & -d \\ Na & Nb \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d & -N^{-1}c \\ -Nb & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ N & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \gamma' W_N,$$

with $\gamma' = \begin{pmatrix} d & -N^{-1}c \\ -Nb & a \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma_1(N)$. Then

$$(\omega_N f)(\gamma z) = f(W_N \gamma z) = f(\gamma' W_N z) = f\left(-\frac{1}{Nz}\right) = (\omega_N f)(z).$$

This verifies automorphy for $\omega_N f$. Also, it is clear that $\omega_N f$ is a cusp form because f is. Hence $\omega_N f$ is well-defined. Moreover, it is an involution because $\omega_N^2 f = f$ and so its only possible eigenvalues are ± 1 . The crucial fact we need is how ω_N acts on $\mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$. To state the result, for $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$ define

$$\bar{f}(z) = \overline{f(-z)}.$$

Then we have the following (mimic the proof for holomorphic forms given in [CS17]):

Proposition 4.7.3. *If $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$ is a primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform, then*

$$\omega_N f = \omega_N(f) \bar{f},$$

where $\bar{f} \in \mathcal{C}_t(N, \bar{\chi})$ is a primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform and $\omega_N(f) \in \mathbb{C}$ is nonzero with $|\omega_N(f)| = 1$.

4.8 The Ramanujan-Petersson Conjecture

As for the size of the Fourier coefficients of weight zero Maass form, much is currently unknown. But there is an analogous conjecture to the one for holomorphic forms. To state it, suppose $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$ is a primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform with Fourier coefficients $\lambda_f(n)$. For each prime p , consider the polynomial

$$1 - \lambda_f(p)p^{-s} + \chi(p)p^{-2s}.$$

We call this the p -th **Hecke polynomial** of f . Let $\alpha_1(p)$ and $\alpha_2(p)$ denote the roots. Then

$$\alpha_1(p) + \alpha_2(p) = \lambda_f(p) \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_1(p)\alpha_2(p) = \chi(p).$$

The **Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture** for Maass forms is following statement:

Conjecture 4.8.1 (Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture, Maass version). *Suppose $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$ is a primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform with Hecke eigenvalues $\lambda_f(n)$. Let $\alpha_1(p)$ and $\alpha_2(p)$ be the roots of the p -th Hecke polynomial. Then for all primes p ,*

$$|\lambda_f(p)| \leq 2.$$

Moreover, if $p \nmid N$, then

$$|\alpha_1(p)| = |\alpha_2(p)| = 1.$$

The Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture has not been proven, but there has been partial progress toward the conjecture. The current best bound is $|\lambda_f(p)| \leq 2p^{\frac{7}{64}}$ and is due to Kim and Sarnak (see [KRS03] for the proof). Nevertheless, we can get close to the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture without much work. Let $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$ be a primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform. Fix some $Y > 0$ and consider

$$\int_Y^\infty \int_0^1 |f(x + iy)|^2 \frac{dx dy}{y^2}.$$

Since f is a cusp form, this integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded by Method 1.5.1. Moreover, this integral can be expressed as

$$\int_Y^\infty \int_0^1 \sum_{n, m \neq 0} \lambda_f(n) \overline{\lambda_f(m)} K_{it}(2\pi|n|y) \overline{K_{it}(2\pi|m|y)} e^{2\pi i(n-m)x} e^{-2\pi(n+m)y} \frac{dx dy}{y}.$$

Appealing to the dominated convergence theorem, we can interchange the sum and the inner integral. Then Equation (3.1) implies that the inner integral cuts off all of the terms except the diagonal resulting in

$$\int_Y^\infty \sum_{n \neq 0} |\lambda_f(n)|^2 |K_{it}(2\pi|n|y)|^2 e^{-4\pi ny} \frac{dx dy}{y}.$$

As this expression is finite, we have

$$|\lambda_f(n)|^2 \int_Y^\infty |K_{it}(2\pi|n|y)|^2 e^{-4\pi ny} \frac{dx dy}{y} \ll \int_Y^\infty \int_0^1 |f(x + iy)|^2 \frac{dx dy}{y^2},$$

where we note that the integral on the left-hand side is finite. Now f is bounded on \mathbb{H} so that

$$\int_Y^\infty \int_0^1 |f(x + iy)|^2 \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \ll \int_Y^\infty \int_0^1 \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \ll \frac{1}{Y}.$$

Putting these two estimates together gives

$$|\lambda_f(n)|^2 \int_Y^\infty |K_{it}(2\pi|n|y)|^2 e^{-4\pi ny} \frac{dx dy}{y} \ll \frac{1}{Y}.$$

Taking $Y = \frac{1}{n}$ results in

$$\lambda_f(n) \ll n^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

This bound is known as the **Hecke bound** for Maass forms. However, the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture gives the bound $\lambda_f(n) \ll \sigma_0(n)n^{\frac{1}{2}} \ll n^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}$. It turns out that the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture is tightly connected to another conjecture of Selberg about the smallest possible eigenvalue of weight zero Maass form on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$. Note that the possible eigenvalues are discrete by Theorem 4.4.6 and so there exists a smallest eigenvalue. To state it, recall that if f is a Maass form with eigenvalue λ on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$, then $\lambda = \frac{1}{4} + t^2$ with either $t \in \mathbb{R}$ or $it \in [0, \frac{1}{2})$. **Selberg's eigenvalue conjecture** claims that the second case never occurs in weight zero:

Conjecture 4.8.2 (Selberg's eigenvalue conjecture). *If λ is the smallest eigenvalue for weight zero Maass forms on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$, then*

$$\lambda \geq \frac{1}{4}.$$

Selberg was able to achieve a remarkable lower bound using the analytic continuation of a certain Dirichlet series and the Weil bound for Kloosterman sums (see [Iwa02] for a proof):

Theorem 4.8.1. *If λ is the smallest eigenvalue for weight zero Maass forms on $\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H}$, then*

$$\lambda \geq \frac{3}{16}.$$

In the language of automorphic representations, these two conjectures are a consequence of a much larger conjecture (see [BB13] for details).

4.9 Twists of Maass Forms

We can also twist of Maass forms by Dirichlet characters. Let $f \in \mathcal{A}_t(N, \chi)$ with Fourier series

$$f(z) = a_0(f)y^{\frac{1}{2}+it} + b_0(f)y^{\frac{1}{2}-it} + \sum_{n \neq 0} a_n(f)\sqrt{y}K_{it}(2\pi|n|y)e^{2\pi inx}.$$

and let ψ be a primitive Dirichlet character modulo M . We define the **twisted Maass form** $f \otimes \psi$ of f twisted by ψ by the Fourier series

$$(f \otimes \psi)(z) = a_0(f)\psi(0)y^{\frac{1}{2}+it} + b_0(f)\psi(0)y^{\frac{1}{2}-it} + \sum_{n \neq 0} a_n(f)\psi(n)\sqrt{y}K_{it}(2\pi|n|y)e^{2\pi inx}.$$

In order for $f \otimes \psi$ to be well-defined, we need to prove that it is a Maass form. The following proposition proves this and more when ψ is primitive:

Proposition 4.9.1. *Suppose $f \in \mathcal{A}_t(N, \chi)$ and ψ is a primitive Dirichlet character of conductor q . Then $f \otimes \psi \in \mathcal{A}_t(Nq^2, \chi\psi^2)$. Moreover, if f is a cusp form then so is $f \otimes \psi$.*

Proof. Mimicking the proof of Proposition 3.8.2 with $k = 0$, smoothness replacing holomorphy, and the analogous growth condition for Maass forms, the only piece left to verify is that $f \otimes \psi$ is an eigenfunction for Δ with eigenvalue λ if f is in the case ψ is primitive. This is easy, since

$$\Delta(f \otimes \chi)(z) = \frac{1}{\tau(\psi)} \sum_{r \pmod{q}} \bar{\psi}(r) \Delta(f) \left(z + \frac{r}{q} \right) = \frac{\lambda}{\tau(\psi)} \sum_{r \pmod{q}} \bar{\psi}(r) f \left(z + \frac{r}{q} \right) = \lambda(f \otimes \chi)(z). \quad \square$$

The generalization of Proposition 4.9.1 to all characters is slightly more involved. Define operators U_p and V_p on $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ to be the linear operators given by

$$(U_p f)(z) = a_0(f) y^{\frac{1}{2}+it} + b_0(f) y^{\frac{1}{2}-it} + \sum_{n \neq 0} a_{np}(f) \sqrt{y} K_{it}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x},$$

and

$$(V_p f)(z) = a_0(f) (py)^{\frac{1}{2}+it} + b_0(f) (py)^{\frac{1}{2}-it} + \sum_{n \neq 0} a_n(f) \sqrt{py} K_{it}(2\pi|n|py) e^{2\pi i n p x},$$

if f has Fourier series

$$f(z) = a_0(f) y^{\frac{1}{2}+it} + b_0(f) y^{\frac{1}{2}-it} + \sum_{n \neq 0} a_n(f) \sqrt{y} K_{it}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x}.$$

We will show that both U_p and V_p map $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ into $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(Np))$ and more:

Lemma 4.9.1. *For any prime p , U_p and V_p map $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$ into $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(Np))$. In particular, U_p and V_p map $\mathcal{A}_t(N, \chi)$ into $\mathcal{A}_t(Np, \chi\chi_{p,0})$. Moreover, U_p and V_p preserve the subspace of cusp forms.*

Proof. Mimic the proof of Proposition 3.5.1. □

We can now generalize Proposition 4.9.1 to all characters:

Proposition 4.9.2. *Suppose $f \in \mathcal{A}_t(N, \chi)$ and ψ is a Dirichlet character modulo M . Then $f \otimes \psi \in \mathcal{A}_t(NM^2, \chi\psi^2)$. Moreover, if f is a cusp form then so is $f \otimes \psi$.*

Proof. Mimicking the proof of Proposition 3.8.2, it remains to show that $f \otimes \psi_{p,0}$ is an eigenfunction with eigenvalue λ if f is. As $U_p = T_p$ for the p -th Hecke operator on $\mathcal{A}_t(\Gamma_1(Np))$, U_p commutes with Δ . It is also clear that V_p commutes with Δ . These facts together with

$$f \otimes \psi_{p,0} = f - V_p U_p f,$$

show that $f \otimes \psi_{p,0}$ is an eigenfunction with eigenvalue λ if f is. □

Chapter 5

Trace Formulas

There are various types of formulas that relate the Fourier coefficients of holomorphic and Maass forms to various other types of functions. One of the most important such formulas is the Petersson trace formula.

5.1 The Petersson Trace Formula

From Theorem 3.6.1, $\mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$ admits an orthonormal basis of Hecke eigenforms (note that generally they are not Hecke normalized). Call this basis $\{u_j\}_{1 \leq j \leq r}$ where r is the dimension of $\mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$. Each of these cusp forms admits a Fourier series

$$u_j(z) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a_j(n) e^{2\pi i n z}.$$

The Petersson trace formula is an equation relating the Fourier coefficients $a_j(n)$ of the basis $\{u_j\}_{1 \leq j \leq r}$ to a sum of J -Bessel functions and Salié sums. To prove the Petersson trace formula we compute the inner product of two Poincaré series $P_{n,k,\chi}$ and $P_{m,k,\chi}$ in two different ways. One way is geometric in nature using the unfolding method and the other uses the spectral theory of $\mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$. Since Equation (3.2) says that $\langle P_{n,k,\chi}, P_{m,k,\chi} \rangle$ essentially extracts the m -th Fourier coefficient of $P_{n,k,\chi}$, the Petersson trace formula amounts to computing the m -th Fourier coefficient of $P_{n,k,\chi}$ in two different ways. We will begin with the geometric method first which utilizes Equation (3.2). In order to make use of this equation we need to compute the Fourier series of $P_{n,k,\chi}$ and this is achieved by the Poisson summation formula. From Remark 2.2.3, we have

$$P_{n,k,\chi}(z) = e^{2\pi i n z} + \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z} \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \\ (c,d)=1}} \bar{\chi}(d) \frac{e^{2\pi i n \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 z + cd} \right)}}{(cz + d)^k},$$

where a and b are chosen such that $\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = 1$ and we have used the fact that

$$\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 z + cd} = \frac{az + b}{cz + d}.$$

Now summing over all pairs (c, d) with $c \geq 1$, $d \in \mathbb{Z}$, $c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$, and $(c, d) = 1$ is the same as summing over all triples (c, ℓ, r) with $c \geq 1$, $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}$, $r \pmod{c}$, with $c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$ and $(r, c) = 1$. Indeed, this is seen by writing $d = c\ell + r$. Moreover, since $ad - bc = 1$ we have $a(c\ell + r) - bc = 1$ which further

implies that $ar \equiv 1 \pmod{c}$. So we may take a to be the inverse for r modulo c . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{\substack{c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z} \\ (c, d) = 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}}} \bar{\chi}(d) \frac{e^{2\pi i n \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 z + cd} \right)}}{(cz + d)^k} &= \sum_{(c, \ell, r)} \bar{\chi}(c\ell + r) \frac{e^{2\pi i n \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 z + c^2 \ell + cr} \right)}}{(cz + c\ell + r)^k} \\
&= \sum_{(c, \ell, r)} \bar{\chi}(r) \frac{e^{2\pi i n \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 z + c^2 \ell + cr} \right)}}{(cz + c\ell + r)^k} \\
&= \sum'_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \\ r \pmod{c}}} \sum_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}} \bar{\chi}(r) \frac{e^{2\pi i n \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 z + c^2 \ell + cr} \right)}}{(cz + c\ell + r)^k} \\
&= \sum'_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \\ r \pmod{c}}} \bar{\chi}(r) \sum_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{e^{2\pi i n \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 z + c^2 \ell + cr} \right)}}{(cz + c\ell + r)^k},
\end{aligned}$$

where the second line holds since χ has conductor $q \mid N$ and $c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$. We will now apply the Poisson summation formula to the innermost sum. Set

$$I_{c,r}(z) = \sum_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{e^{2\pi i n \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 z + c^2 \ell + cr} \right)}}{(cz + c\ell + r)^k}.$$

We will prove a transformation law for $I_{c,r}(z)$. Note that this function is holomorphic on \mathbb{H} because $P_{n,k,\chi}(z)$ is holomorphic on \mathbb{H} . So by the identity theorem we may verify a transformation law on a set containing a limit point. Accordingly, set $z = iy$ for $y > 1$ and define

$$f(x) = \frac{e^{2\pi i n \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 x + cr + ic^2 y} \right)}}{(cx + r + icy)^k}.$$

To see that $f(x)$ is Schwarz first observe

$$\operatorname{Im} \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 x + cr + ic^2 y} \right) = \operatorname{Im} \left(-\frac{1}{c^2 x + cr + ic^2 y} \right) = \operatorname{Im} \left(\frac{c^2 x + cr - ic^2 y}{|c^2 x + cr + ic^2 y|} \right) = \frac{c^2 y}{|c^2 x + cr + ic^2 y|}.$$

It follows that $\operatorname{Im} \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 x + cr + ic^2 y} \right)$ tends to zero as $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$. Moreover, $|cx + r + icy| \geq |icy| \geq c$ so that

$$f(x) \ll \frac{e^{-2\pi n \operatorname{Im} \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 x + cr + ic^2 y} \right)}}{c},$$

as $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$. Since the right-hand side of this estimate has exponential decay, $f(x)$ is Schwarz. We now compute the Fourier transform:

$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-2\pi i t x} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{2\pi i n \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 x + cr + ic^2 y} \right)}}{(cx + r + icy)^k} e^{-2\pi i t x} dx.$$

Complexify the integral to get

$$\int_{\text{Im}(z)=0} \frac{e^{2\pi i n \left(\frac{a}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2 z + cr + ic^2 y} \right)}}{(cz + r + icy)^k} e^{-2\pi i t z} dz.$$

Now make the change of variables $z \rightarrow z - \frac{r}{c} - iy$ to obtain

$$e^{2\pi i n \frac{a}{c} + 2\pi i t \left(iy + \frac{r}{c} \right)} \int_{\text{Im}(z)=y} \frac{e^{-\frac{2\pi i n}{c^2 z}}}{(cz)^k} e^{-2\pi i t z} dz.$$

The integrand is meromorphic with a pole only at $z = 0$. Therefore, by shifting the line of integration we may take the limit as $y \rightarrow \infty$ without picking up additional residues. However

$$\left| e^{-\frac{2\pi i n}{c^2 z}} \right| = e^{2\pi n \left(\frac{y}{|cz|^2} \right)} \quad \text{and} \quad |e^{-2\pi i t z}| = e^{2\pi t y}.$$

So the first expression has exponential decay and the second expression does too if and only if $t < 0$. Moreover, when $t = 0$ the second expression is bounded. Altogether, this means that the integral vanishes if $t \leq 0$. It remains to compute the integral for $t \geq 1$. To do this, make the change of variables $z \rightarrow -\frac{z}{2\pi i t}$ to the last integral to rewrite it as

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{1}{2\pi i t} \int_{(2\pi t y)} \frac{e^{-\frac{4\pi^2 n t}{c^2 z}}}{\left(-\frac{cz}{2\pi i t} \right)^k} e^z dz &= -\frac{1}{2\pi i t} \int_{(2\pi t y)} \left(-\frac{2\pi i t}{cz} \right)^k e^{z - \frac{4\pi^2 n t}{c^2 z}} dz \\ &= \frac{(-2\pi i t)^{k-1}}{c^k} \int_{(2\pi t y)} z^{-k} e^{z - \frac{4\pi^2 n t}{c^2 z}} dz \\ &= \frac{(-2\pi i t)^{k-1}}{c^k} \int_{-\infty}^{(0^+)} z^{-k} e^{z - \frac{4\pi^2 n t}{c^2 z}} dz \\ &= \frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} \left(\frac{\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^{k-1} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi \sqrt{nt}}{c} \right), \end{aligned}$$

where in the second to last line we have homotoped the line of integration to a Hankel contour about the negative real axis and in the last line we have used the Schlöfli integral representation for the J -Bessel function (see Appendix B.7). So in total we obtain

$$\left(\frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} \left(\frac{\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^{k-1} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi \sqrt{nt}}{c} \right) e^{2\pi i n \frac{a}{c} + 2\pi i t \frac{r}{c}} \right) e^{2\pi i t y},$$

when $t \geq 1$. By the Poisson summation formula and the identity theorem, we have

$$I_{c,r}(z) = \sum_{t \geq 1} \left(\frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} \left(\frac{\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^{k-1} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi \sqrt{nt}}{c} \right) e^{2\pi i n \frac{a}{c} + 2\pi i t \frac{r}{c}} \right) e^{2\pi i t z},$$

for all $z \in \mathbb{H}$. Plugging this back into the Poincaré series gives a form of the Fourier series

$$\begin{aligned}
P_{n,k,\chi}(z) &= e^{2\pi i n z} + \sum'_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \\ r \pmod{c}}} \bar{\chi}(r) \sum_{t \geq 1} \left(\frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} \left(\frac{\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^{k-1} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi \sqrt{nt}}{c} \right) e^{2\pi i n \frac{a}{c} + 2\pi i t \frac{r}{c}} \right) e^{2\pi i n z} \\
&= \sum_{t \geq 1} \left(\delta_{n,t} + \left(\frac{\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^{k-1} \sum'_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \\ r \pmod{c}}} \bar{\chi}(r) \frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi \sqrt{nt}}{c} \right) e^{2\pi i n \frac{a}{c} + 2\pi i t \frac{r}{c}} \right) e^{2\pi i t z} \\
&= \sum_{t \geq 1} \left(\delta_{n,t} + \left(\frac{\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^{k-1} \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}}} \frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi \sqrt{nt}}{c} \right) \sum'_{r \pmod{c}} \bar{\chi}(r) e^{2\pi i n \frac{a}{c} + 2\pi i t \frac{r}{c}} \right) e^{2\pi i t z}.
\end{aligned}$$

We will simplify the innermost sum. Since a is the inverse for r modulo c , the innermost sum above becomes

$$\sum'_{r \pmod{c}} \bar{\chi}(r) e^{2\pi i n \frac{a}{c} + 2\pi i t \frac{r}{c}} = \sum'_{r \pmod{c}} \bar{\chi}(\bar{a}) e^{2\pi i n \frac{a}{c} + 2\pi i t \frac{\bar{a}}{c}} = \sum'_{a \pmod{c}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi i (an + \bar{a}t)}{c}} = S_{\chi}(n, t; c).$$

So at last, we obtain our desired Fourier series

$$P_{n,k,\chi}(z) = \sum_{t \geq 1} \left(\delta_{n,t} + \left(\frac{\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^{k-1} \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}}} \frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi \sqrt{nt}}{c} \right) S_{\chi}(n, t; c) \right) e^{2\pi i t z}.$$

We can now derive the first half of the Petersson trace formula. Using Equation (3.2) we obtain

$$\langle P_{n,k,\chi}, P_{m,k,\chi} \rangle = \frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_{\Gamma_0(N)}(4\pi m)^{k-1}} \left(\delta_{n,m} + \left(\frac{\sqrt{m}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^{k-1} \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}}} \frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi \sqrt{nm}}{c} \right) S_{\chi}(n, m; c) \right).$$

To obtain the second half of the Petersson trace formula, we use the fact that $\{u_j\}_{1 \leq j \leq r}$ is an orthonormal basis and Equation (3.2) to write

$$\begin{aligned}
P_{n,k,\chi}(z) &= \sum_{1 \leq j \leq r} \langle P_{n,k,\chi}, u_j \rangle u_j(z) \\
&= \sum_{1 \leq j \leq r} \overline{\langle P_{n,k,\chi}, u_j \rangle} u_j(z) \\
&= \frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_{\Gamma_0(N)}(4\pi n)^{k-1}} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq r} a_j(n) u_j(z) \\
&= \frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_{\Gamma_0(N)}(4\pi n)^{k-1}} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq r} a_j(n) \sum_{t \geq 1} a_j(t) e^{2\pi i t z} \\
&= \sum_{t \geq 1} \left(\frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_{\Gamma_0(N)}(4\pi n)^{k-1}} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq r} \overline{a_j(n)} a_j(t) \right) e^{2\pi i t z}.
\end{aligned}$$

The last expression is an alternative representation of the Fourier series of $P_{n,k,\chi}$. Using Equation (3.2) again but applied to this representation, we obtain the second half of the Petersson trace formula

$$\langle P_{n,k,\chi}, P_{m,k,\chi} \rangle = \left(\frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_{\Gamma_0(N)}(4\pi\sqrt{nm})^{k-1}} \right)^2 \sum_{1 \leq j \leq r} \overline{a_j(n)} a_j(m).$$

Equating the first and second half and canceling the common $\frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_{\Gamma_0(N)}(4\pi m)^{k-1}}$ factor gives

$$\frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_{\Gamma_0(N)}(4\pi n)^{k-1}} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq r} \overline{a_j(n)} a_j(m) = \delta_{n,m} + \left(\frac{\sqrt{m}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^{k-1} \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}}} \frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi\sqrt{nm}}{c} \right) S_\chi(n, m; c).$$

Since $\left(\frac{\sqrt{m}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^{k-1} = 1$ when $n = m$, we can factor this term out of the entire right-hand side and cancel it resulting in the **Petersson trace formula**:

$$\frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_{\Gamma_0(N)}(4\pi\sqrt{nm})^{k-1}} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq r} \overline{a_j(n)} a_j(m) = \delta_{n,m} + \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}}} \frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi\sqrt{nm}}{c} \right) S_\chi(n, m; c).$$

We refer to the left-hand side as the **spectral side** and the right-hand side as the **geometric side**. We collect our work as a theorem:

Theorem 5.1.1 (Petersson trace formula). *Let $\{u_j\}_{1 \leq j \leq r}$ be an orthonormal basis of Hecke eigenforms for $\mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$ with Fourier coefficients $a_j(n)$. Then for any positive integers $n, m \geq 1$, we have*

$$\frac{\Gamma(k-1)}{V_{\Gamma_0(N)}(4\pi\sqrt{nm})^{k-1}} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq r} \overline{a_j(n)} a_j(m) = \delta_{n,m} + \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ c \equiv 0 \pmod{N}}} \frac{2\pi i^{-k}}{c} J_{k-1} \left(\frac{4\pi\sqrt{nm}}{c} \right) S_\chi(n, m; c).$$

Part III

An Introduction to L -functions

Chapter 6

The Theory of L -functions

We start our discussion of L -functions with Dirichlet series. Dirichlet series are essential tools in analytic number theory because they are a way of analytically encoding arithmetic information. If the Dirichlet series possesses sufficiently large analytic continuation we call it an L -function and from the analytic properties of L -functions we can extract number theoretic results. After discussing Dirichlet series we will define L -functions and their associated data. We will also define a special class of L -functions called the Selberg class. Selberg class L -functions are conjectured to satisfy two results known as the Riemann hypothesis and Lindelöf hypothesis which we also introduce in some generality.

6.1 Dirichlet Series

A **Dirichlet series** $D(s)$ is a sum of the form

$$D(s) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a(n)}{n^s},$$

with $a(n) \in \mathbb{C}$. We exclude the case $a(n) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$ so that $D(s)$ is not identically zero. We would first like to understand where this series converges. It does not take much for $D(s)$ to converge uniformly in a sector:

Theorem 6.1.1. *Suppose $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series that converges at $s_0 = \sigma_0 + it_0$. Then for any $H > 0$, $D(s)$ converges uniformly in the sector*

$$\{s \in \mathbb{C} : \sigma \geq \sigma_0, |t - t_0| \leq H(\sigma - \sigma_0)\}.$$

Proof. Set $R(u) = \sum_{n \geq u} \frac{a(n)}{n^{s_0}}$ so that $a(n) = (R(n) - R(n+1))n^{s_0}$. Then for any two positive integers N and M with $1 \leq M < N$, partial summation (see Appendix B.3) implies

$$\sum_{M \leq n \leq N} \frac{a(n)}{n^s} = R(M)M^{s_0-s} - R(N)N^{s_0-s} - \sum_{M+1 \leq n \leq N} R(n)((n-1)^{s_0-s} - n^{s_0-s}). \quad (6.1)$$

We will now express the sum on the right-hand side as an integral. To do this, observe that

$$(n-1)^{s_0-s} - n^{s_0-s} = -(s_0-s) \int_{n-1}^n u^{s_0-s-1} du.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{M+1 \leq n \leq N} R(n)((n-1)^{s_0-s} - n^{s_0-s}) &= -(s_0 - s) \sum_{M+1 \leq n \leq N} R(n) \int_{n-1}^n u^{s_0-s-1} du \\
&= -(s_0 - s) \sum_{M+1 \leq n \leq N} \int_{n-1}^n R(u) u^{s_0-s-1} du \\
&= -(s_0 - s) \int_M^N R(u) u^{s_0-s-1} du,
\end{aligned} \tag{6.2}$$

where the second to last line follows because $R(u)$ is constant on the interval $[u, u+1)$. Combining Equations (6.1) and (6.2) gives

$$\sum_{M \leq n \leq N} \frac{a(n)}{n^s} = R(M)M^{s_0-s} - R(N)N^{s_0-s} + (s_0 - s) \int_M^N R(u) u^{s_0-s-1} du. \tag{6.3}$$

Now there exists an M such that $|R(u)| < \varepsilon$ for all $u \geq M$ because $D(s)$ is convergent at s_0 . In particular, $|R(u)u^{s_0-s}| < \varepsilon$ for all $u \geq M$ because $\sigma \geq \sigma_0$. Moreover for s in the prescribed sector,

$$|s - s_0| \leq (\sigma - \sigma_0) + |t - t_0| \leq (H+1)(\sigma - \sigma_0).$$

These estimates and Equation (6.3) together imply

$$\left| \sum_{M \leq n \leq N} \frac{a(n)}{n^s} \right| \leq 2\varepsilon + \varepsilon|s - s_0| \int_M^N u^{\sigma_0-\sigma-1} du \leq 2\varepsilon + \varepsilon(H+1)(\sigma - \sigma_0) \int_M^N u^{\sigma_0-\sigma-1} du.$$

Since the integral is finite, $\sum_{M \leq n \leq N} \frac{a(n)}{n^s}$ can be made arbitrarily small uniformly for s in the desired sector. The claim now follows by the uniform version of Cauchy's criterion. \square

By taking $H \rightarrow \infty$ in Theorem 6.1.1 we see that $D(s)$ converges in the region $\sigma > \sigma_0$. Let σ_c be the infimum of all σ for which $D(s)$ converges. We call σ_c the **abscissa of convergence** of $D(s)$. Similarly, let σ_a be the infimum of all σ for which $D(s)$ converges absolutely. Since the terms of $D(s)$ are holomorphic, the convergence is locally absolutely uniform (actually uniform in sectors) for $\sigma > \sigma_a$. It follows that $D(s)$ is holomorphic in the region $\sigma > \sigma_a$. We call σ_a the **abscissa of absolute convergence** of $D(s)$. One should think of σ_c and σ_a as the boundaries of convergence and absolute convergence respectively. Of course, anything can happen at $\sigma = \sigma_c$ and $\sigma = \sigma_a$, but to the right of these lines we have convergence and absolute convergence of $D(s)$ respectively. It turns out that σ_a is never far from σ_c provided σ_c is finite:

Theorem 6.1.2. *If $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series with finite abscissa of convergence σ_c , then*

$$\sigma_c \leq \sigma_a \leq \sigma_c + 1.$$

Proof. The first inequality is trivial since absolute convergence implies convergence. For the second inequality, since $D(s)$ converges at $\sigma_c + \varepsilon$, the terms $a(n)n^{-(\sigma_c+\varepsilon)}$ tend to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore $a(n) \ll_\varepsilon n^{\sigma_c+\varepsilon}$ where the implicit constant is independent of n . But then $a(n)n^{-(\sigma_c+\varepsilon)} \ll_\varepsilon 1$ which implies $\sum_{n \geq 1} a(n)n^{-(\sigma_c+1+2\varepsilon)}$ is absolutely convergent by the comparison test with respect to $\sum_{n \geq 1} n^{-(1+\varepsilon)}$. In terms of $D(s)$, this means $\sigma_a \leq \sigma_c + 1 + 2\varepsilon$ and taking $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ gives the second inequality. \square

We will now introduce several convergence theorems for Dirichlet series. It will be useful to setup some notation first. If $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series with coefficients $a(n)$, then for $X > 0$, we set

$$A(X) = \sum_{n \leq X} a(n) \quad \text{and} \quad A^*(X) = \sum_{n \leq X} |a(n)|.$$

These are the partial sums of the coefficients $a(n)$ and $|a(n)|$ up to X respectively. Our first convergence theorem relates boundedness of $A(X)$ to the value of σ_c :

Proposition 6.1.1. *Suppose $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series and that $A(X) \ll 1$. Then $\sigma_c \leq 0$.*

Proof. Let s be such that $\sigma > 0$. Since $A(X) \ll 1$, $A(X)X^{-s} \rightarrow 0$ as $X \rightarrow \infty$. Abel's summation formula (see Appendix B.3) then implies

$$D(s) = s \int_1^\infty A(u) u^{-(s+1)} du.$$

But because $A(u) \ll 1$, we have

$$s \int_1^\infty A(u) u^{-(s+1)} du \ll s \int_1^\infty u^{-(\sigma+1)} du = -\frac{s}{\sigma} u^{-\sigma} \Big|_1^\infty = \frac{s}{\sigma}.$$

Therefore the integral converges for $\sigma > 0$ and hence $D(s)$ does too. It follows that $\sigma_c \leq 0$. \square

Our next theorem states that if the coefficients of $D(s)$ are of polynomial growth, we can obtain an upper bound for the abscissa of absolute convergence:

Proposition 6.1.2. *Suppose $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series whose coefficients satisfy $a(n) \ll_\alpha n^\alpha$ for some real α . Then the abscissa of absolute convergence satisfies $\sigma_a \leq 1 + \alpha$.*

Proof. It suffices to show that $D(s)$ is absolutely convergent in the region $\sigma > 1 + \alpha$. For s is in this region, the polynomial bound gives

$$D(s) \ll \sum_{n \geq 1} \left| \frac{a(n)}{n^s} \right| \ll_\alpha \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n^{\sigma-\alpha}}.$$

The latter series converges by the integral test because $\sigma - \alpha > 1$. Therefore $D(s)$ is absolutely convergent. \square

Obtaining polynomial bounds on coefficients of Dirichlet series are, in most cases, not hard to establish. So the assumption in Proposition 6.1.2 is mild. Actually, there is a partial converse to Proposition 6.1.2 which gives an approximate size to $A(X)$:

Proposition 6.1.3. *Suppose $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series with finite and nonnegative abscissa of absolute convergence σ_a . Then*

$$A(X) \ll_\varepsilon X^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon}.$$

Proof. By Abel's summation formula (see Appendix B.3),

$$\sum_{n \leq X} \frac{a(n)}{n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon}} = A(X) X^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon)} + (\sigma_a + \varepsilon) \int_0^X A(u) u^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon + 1)} du. \quad (6.4)$$

If we set $R(u) = \sum_{n \geq u} \frac{a(n)}{n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon}}$, then $a(n) = (R(n) - R(n+1))n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon}$ and it follows that

$$A(u) = \sum_{n \leq u} (R(n) - R(n+1))n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon}.$$

Substituting this into Equation (6.4), we obtain

$$\int_0^X \sum_{n \leq u} (R(n) - R(n+1)) n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon} u^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon + 1)} du.$$

As $R(n)$ is constant on the interval $[n, n+1)$, linearity of the integral implies

$$\int_0^X \sum_{n \leq u} (R(n) - R(n+1)) n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon} u^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon + 1)} du = \sum_{0 \leq n \leq X} (R(n) - R(n+1)) n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon} \int_n^{n+1} u^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon + 1)} du + O_\varepsilon(1),$$

where the O -estimate is present since X may not be an integer. Now $R(n) \ll_\varepsilon 1$ since it is the tail of $D(\sigma_a + \varepsilon)$ and moreover,

$$\int_n^{n+1} u^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon + 1)} du = -\frac{u^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon)}}{\sigma_a + \varepsilon} \Big|_n^{n+1} = \frac{n^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon)}}{\sigma_a + \varepsilon} - \frac{(n+1)^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon)}}{\sigma_a + \varepsilon} \ll_\varepsilon 1,$$

because $\sigma_a + \varepsilon > 0$. So

$$\int_0^X A(u) u^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon + 1)} du = \int_0^X \sum_{n \leq u} (R(n) - R(n+1)) n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon} u^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon + 1)} du \ll_\varepsilon 1.$$

Also, $\sum_{n \leq X} \frac{a(n)}{n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon}} \ll_\varepsilon 1$ because $D(\sigma_a + \varepsilon)$ converges. We conclude

$$A(X) X^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon)} = \sum_{n \leq X} \frac{a(n)}{n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon}} - (\sigma_a + \varepsilon) \int_0^X A(u) u^{-(\sigma_a + \varepsilon + 1)} du \ll_\varepsilon 1,$$

which is equivalent to the desired estimate. \square

A way to think about Proposition 6.1.3 is that if the abscissa of absolute convergence is $\sigma_a \geq 0$ then the size of the coefficients $a(n)$ is at most $n^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon}$ on average. Of course, if $a(n) \ll_\alpha n^\alpha$ then Proposition 6.1.2 implies that $\sigma_a \leq 1 + \alpha$ and so Proposition 6.1.3 gives the significantly weaker estimate $A(X) \ll_\varepsilon X^{1+\alpha+\varepsilon}$. However, if we have a bound of the form $A^*(X) \ll_\alpha X^\alpha$ we can still obtain an upper estimate for the abscissa of absolute convergence:

Proposition 6.1.4. *Suppose $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series such that $A^*(X) \ll_\alpha X^\alpha$ for some real $\alpha \geq 0$. Then the abscissa of absolute convergence satisfies $\sigma_a \leq \alpha$.*

Proof. It suffices to show that $D(s)$ is absolutely convergent in the region $\sigma > \alpha$. Let s be in this region. Then

$$D(s) \ll \sum_{n \geq 1} \left| \frac{a(n)}{n^s} \right| = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{|a(n)|}{n^\sigma}.$$

By Abel's summation formula (see Appendix B.3),

$$\sum_{n \leq N} \frac{|a(n)|}{n^\sigma} = |a(N)| N^{-\sigma} - |a(1)| + \sigma \int_1^N A^*(u) u^{-(\sigma+1)} du,$$

By assumption $A^*(u) \ll_\alpha u^\alpha$ so that there is some N' such that $A^*(N) \ll_\alpha N^\alpha$ for all $N \geq N'$. In particular $a(N) \ll_\alpha N^\alpha$. So for such N , we estimate as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \leq N} \frac{|a(n)|}{n^\sigma} &= |a(N)|N^{-\sigma} - |a(1)| + \sigma \int_1^N A^*(u)u^{-(\sigma+1)} du \\ &= |a(N)|N^{-\sigma} - |a(1)| + \sigma \int_1^{N'} A^*(u)u^{-(\sigma+1)} du + \sigma \int_{N'}^N A^*(u)u^{-(\sigma+1)} du \\ &\ll_\alpha |a(N)|N^{-\sigma} + |a(1)| + \sigma \int_1^{N'} |A^*(u)|u^{-(\sigma+1)} du + \sigma \int_{N'}^N u^{\alpha-(\sigma+1)} du. \end{aligned}$$

As $N \rightarrow \infty$, the left-hand side tends towards $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{|a(n)|}{n^\sigma}$. As for the right-hand side, the first term tends to zero since $\sigma > \alpha$. The second and third terms remain bounded as they are independent of N . For the last term, we compute

$$\int_{N'}^N u^{\alpha-(\sigma+1)} du = \frac{u^{\alpha-\sigma}}{\alpha-\sigma} \Big|_{N'}^N = \frac{N^{\alpha-\sigma}}{\alpha-\sigma} - \frac{(N')^{\alpha-\sigma}}{\alpha-\sigma}.$$

But $\sigma > \alpha$ so this term is also bounded as $N \rightarrow \infty$. This finishes the proof. \square

Do not be fooled; Proposition 6.1.4 is in general weaker than Proposition 6.1.2. For example, from our comments following Proposition 6.1.3, if $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series with coefficients $a(n)$ and we have the estimate $A^*(X) \ll_\beta X^\beta$ for some real β then Proposition 6.1.4 only says that $\sigma_a \leq \beta$. If α is very small compared to β , this is a significantly worse upper bound for the abscissa of absolute convergence than what Proposition 6.1.2 would imply if $a(n) \ll_\alpha n^\alpha$. Actually, the question of sharp polynomial bounds for Dirichlet coefficients can be very deep. However, if the coefficients $a(n)$ are always nonnegative, then **Landau's theorem** provides a way of obtaining a lower bound for their growth as well as describing a singularity of $D(s)$:

Theorem 6.1.3 (Landau's theorem). *Suppose $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series with nonnegative coefficients $a(n)$ and finite abscissa of absolute convergence σ_a . Then σ_a is a singularity of $D(s)$.*

Proof. If we replace $a(n)$ by $a(n)n^{-\sigma_a}$ then we may assume $\sigma_a = 0$. Now suppose to the contrary that $D(s)$ was holomorphic at $s = 0$. Therefore for some $\delta > 0$, $D(s)$ is holomorphic in the domain

$$\mathcal{D} = \{s : \sigma_a > 0\} \cup \{|s| < \delta\}.$$

Write $D(s)$ as a power series at $s = 1$:

$$P(s) = \sum_{k \geq 0} c_k (s-1)^k,$$

where

$$c_k = \frac{D^{(k)}(1)}{k!} = \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a(n)(-\log(n))^k}{n},$$

because $D(s)$ is holomorphic and so we can differentiate termwise. The radius of convergence of $P(s)$ is the distance from $s = 1$ to the nearest singularity of $P(s)$. Since $P(s)$ is holomorphic on \mathcal{D} , the closest points are $\pm i\delta$. Therefore, the radius of convergence is at least $|1 \pm i\delta| = \sqrt{1 + \delta^2}$. We can write $\sqrt{1 + \delta^2} = 1 + \delta'$ for some $\delta' > 0$. Then for $|s-1| < 1 + \delta'$, write $P(s)$ as

$$P(s) = \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{(s-1)^k}{k!} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a(n)(-\log(n))^k}{n} = \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{(1-s)^k}{k!} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a(n)(\log(n))^k}{n}.$$

If s is real with $s < 1$, then this last double sum is a sum of positive terms because $a(n) \geq 0$. Moreover, since $D(s)$ is convergent here the two sums can be interchanged by the dominated convergence theorem. Interchanging sums we see that

$$P(s) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a(n)}{n} \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{(1-s)^k (\log(n))^k}{k!} = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a(n)}{n} e^{(1-s) \log(n)} = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a(n)}{n^s} = D(s),$$

for $-\delta' < s < 1$. As $\delta' > 0$, this implies that $D(s)$ converges absolutely (since $a(n)$ is nonnegative) for some $s < 0$ (say $s = -\frac{\delta'}{2}$) which contradicts $\sigma_a = 0$. \square

Landau's theorem is very useful as it implies that if $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series with nonnegative coefficients then $a(n) \not\ll_{\varepsilon} n^{\sigma_a - (1+\varepsilon)}$ because otherwise Proposition 6.1.2 implies $\sigma_a \leq \sigma_a - \varepsilon$. Actually, Landau's theorem also implies $A^*(X) \not\ll_{\varepsilon} X^{\sigma_a - \varepsilon}$ for otherwise Proposition 6.1.4 would similarly imply $\sigma_a \leq \sigma_a - \varepsilon$. When we come across Dirichlet series whose coefficients are of polynomial growth or of polynomial growth on average, we will invoke these results without mention, except for Landau's theorem, as this is also common practice in the literature. Generally speaking, if the coefficients $a(n)$ are chosen at random, $D(s)$ will not possess any good properties outside of convergence in some region (it might not even possess that). However, the Dirichlet series we will encounter, and most of interest in the wild, will have multiplicative coefficients. In this case, the Dirichlet series admits an infinite product expression:

Proposition 6.1.5. *Suppose the coefficients $a(n)$ of a Dirichlet series $D(s)$ are multiplicative and satisfy $a(n) \ll_{\alpha} n^{\alpha}$ for some real $\alpha \geq 0$. Then*

$$D(s) = \prod_p \left(\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{a(p^k)}{p^{ks}} \right),$$

for $\sigma > 1 + \alpha$. Conversely, suppose that there are coefficients $a(n)$ such that

$$\prod_p \left(\sum_{k \geq 0} \left| \frac{a(p^k)}{p^{ks}} \right| \right),$$

converges for $\sigma > 1 + \alpha$. Then the equality above defines a Dirichlet series $D(s)$ that converges absolutely in this region too. Moreover, if the coefficients $a(n)$ are completely multiplicative, then

$$D(s) = \prod_p (1 - a(p)p^{-s})^{-1},$$

for $\sigma > 1 + \alpha$.

Proof. Since $a(n) \ll_{\alpha} n^{\alpha}$, Proposition 6.1.2 implies that $D(s)$ converges absolutely for $\sigma > 1 + \alpha$. Let s be such that $\sigma > 1 + \alpha$. Since

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} \left| \frac{a(p^k)}{p^{ks}} \right| < \sum_{n \geq 1} \left| \frac{a(n)}{n^s} \right|,$$

the infinite series on the left converges because the right does by the absolute convergence of $D(s)$. Now let $N > 0$ be an integer. Then by the fundamental theorem of arithmetic

$$\prod_{p < N} \left(\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{a(p^k)}{p^{ks}} \right) = \sum_{n < N} \frac{a(n)}{n^s} + \sum_{n \geq N}^* \frac{a(n)}{n^s}, \quad (6.5)$$

where the $*$ denotes that we are summing over only those additional terms $\frac{a(n)}{n^s}$ that appear in the expanded product on the left-hand side with $n \geq N$. As $N \rightarrow \infty$, the first sum on the right-hand side tends to $D(s)$ and the second sum tends to zero because it is part of the tail of $D(s)$ (which tends to zero by convergence). This proves that the product converges, and is equal to $D(s)$. Equation (6.5) also holds absolutely in the sense that

$$\prod_{p < N} \left(\sum_{k \geq 0} \left| \frac{a(p^k)}{p^{ks}} \right| \right) = \sum_{n < N} \left| \frac{a(n)}{n^s} \right| + \sum_{n \geq N}^* \left| \frac{a(n)}{n^s} \right|, \quad (6.6)$$

since $D(s)$ converges absolutely. For the converse statement, since the product

$$\prod_p \left(\sum_{k \geq 0} \left| \frac{a(p^k)}{p^{ks}} \right| \right),$$

converges for $\sigma > 1 + \alpha$ each factor is necessarily finite. That is, for each prime p the series $\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{a(p^k)}{p^{ks}}$ converges absolutely in this region. Now fix an integer $N > 0$. Then Equation (6.6) holds. Taking $N \rightarrow \infty$ in Equation (6.6), the left-hand side converges by assumption. Therefore the right-hand side does too. But the first sum on the right-hand side tends to

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} \left| \frac{a(n)}{n^s} \right|,$$

and the second sum is part of its tail. So the first sum must converge hence defining an absolutely convergent Dirichlet series in $\sigma > 1 + \alpha$, and the second sum must tend to zero. Lastly, if the $a(n)$ are completely multiplicative the formula for a geometric series gives

$$\prod_p \left(\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{a(p^k)}{p^{ks}} \right) = \prod_p \left(\sum_{k \geq 0} \left(\frac{a(p)}{p^s} \right)^k \right) = \prod_p (1 - a(p)p^{-s})^{-1}. \quad \square$$

Note that in Proposition 6.1.5, the requirement for a product to define an absolutely convergent Dirichlet series is that the series defining the factors in the product must be absolutely convergent. Thankfully, this is always the case for geometric series. Now suppose $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series that has the product expression

$$D(s) = \prod_p (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})^{-1} (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s})^{-1} \cdots (1 - \alpha_d(p)p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

We call this product the **Euler product** of $D(s)$, and it is said to be of **degree** d . In Proposition 6.1.5, complete multiplicativity of the coefficients is enough to guarantee that $D(s)$ has an Euler product of degree 1, but in general $D(s)$ will admit an Euler product of degree $d > 1$ if the coefficients are only multiplicative but satisfy additional properties like a recurrence relation. When we come across Dirichlet series whose coefficients are multiplicative or we are given an Euler product we will use Proposition 6.1.5 without mention as this is common practice in the literature. Lastly, if $D(s)$ has an Euler product then for any $N \geq 1$ we let $D^{(N)}(s)$ denote the Dirichlet series with the factors $p \mid N$ in the Euler product removed. That is,

$$D^{(N)}(s) = D(s) \prod_{p \mid N} (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s}) (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s}) \cdots (1 - \alpha_d(p)p^{-s}).$$

6.2 Perron Formulas

With the Mellin inversion formula, it is not hard to prove a very useful integral expression for the sum of coefficients of a Dirichlet series. First, we setup some general notation. If $D(s)$ is a Dirichlet series with coefficients $a(n)$, then for $X > 0$, we set

$$A'(X) = \sum'_{n \leq X} a(n),$$

where the $'$ indicates that the last term is multiplied by $\frac{1}{2}$ if X is an integer. We would like to relate $A'(X)$ to an integral involving the entire Dirichlet series $D(s)$. In particular, this integral is a type of inverse Mellin transform. Any formula that relates a finite sum of coefficients of a Dirichlet series to an integral involving the entire Dirichlet series is called a **Perron-type formula**. We will see several of them, the first being **(classical) Perron's formula** which is a consequence of Abel's summation formula and the Mellin inversion formula applied to Dirichlet series:

Theorem 6.2.1 (Perron's formula, classical version). *Let $D(s)$ be a Dirichlet series with coefficient $a(n)$ and finite and nonnegative abscissa of absolute convergence σ_a . Then for any $c > \sigma_a$,*

$$A'(X) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(c)} D(s) X^s \frac{ds}{s}.$$

Proof. Let s be such that $\sigma > \sigma_a$. By Abel's summation formula (see Appendix B.3),

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a(n)}{n^s} = \lim_{Y \rightarrow \infty} A'(Y) Y^{-s} + s \int_1^\infty A'(u) u^{-(s+1)} du.$$

Now $A'(Y) \leq A(Y)$ and $A(Y) \ll_\varepsilon Y^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon}$ by Proposition 6.1.3 so that $A'(Y) Y^{-s} \ll_\varepsilon Y^{\sigma_a + \varepsilon - \sigma}$. Choosing $\varepsilon < \sigma - \sigma_a$, this latter term tends to zero as $Y \rightarrow \infty$, which implies that $A'(Y) Y^{-s} \rightarrow 0$ as $Y \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore we can write the equation above as

$$\frac{D(s)}{s} = \int_1^\infty A'(u) u^{-(s+1)} du = \int_0^\infty A'(u) u^{-(s+1)} du,$$

where the second equality follows because $A(u) = 0$ in the interval $[0, 1)$. The Mellin inversion formula immediately gives the result. \square

We would like to relate this sum to an integral involving the entire Dirichlet series $D(s)$. In particular, this integral is a type of inverse Mellin transform. Any formula that resembles Perron's formula is particularly useful because it allows one examine a sum of Dirichlet coefficients, a discrete object, by means of a complex integral where analytic techniques are at our disposal. There is also a truncated version of Perron's formula which is often more useful for estimates rather than abstract results. To state it, we need to setup some notation and will require a lemma. For any $c > 0$, consider the discontinuous integral (see [Dav80])

$$\delta(y) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(c)} y^s \frac{ds}{s} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 < y < 1, \\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } y = 1, \\ 1 & \text{if } y > 1. \end{cases}$$

Also, for any $T > 0$, let

$$I(y, T) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-iT}^{c+iT} y^s \frac{ds}{s},$$

be $\delta(y)$ truncated outside of height T . The lemma we require gives an approximation for how close $I(y, T)$ is to $\delta(y)$ (see [Dav80] for a proof):

Lemma 6.2.1. *For any $c > 0$, $y > 0$, and $T > 0$, we have*

$$I(y, T) - \delta(y) = \begin{cases} O\left(y^c \min\left(1, \frac{1}{T|\log(y)|}\right)\right) & \text{if } y \neq 1, \\ O\left(\frac{c}{T}\right) & \text{if } y = 1. \end{cases}$$

We can now state and prove **(truncated) Perron's formula**:

Theorem 6.2.2 (Perron's formula, truncated version). *Let $D(s)$ be a Dirichlet series with coefficient $a(n)$ and finite and nonnegative abscissa of absolute convergence σ_a . Then for any $c > \sigma_a$ and $T > 0$,*

$$A'(X) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-iT}^{c+iT} D(s) X^s \frac{ds}{s} + O\left(X^c \sum_{\substack{n \geq 1 \\ n \neq X}} \frac{a(n)}{n^c} \min\left(1, \frac{1}{T|\log(\frac{X}{n})|}\right) + \delta_X a(X) \frac{c}{T}\right),$$

where $\delta_X = 1, 0$ according to if X is an integer or not.

Proof. By Appendix D.1, we have

$$A'(X) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a(n) \delta\left(\frac{X}{n}\right).$$

Using Lemma 6.2.1, we may replace $\delta\left(\frac{X}{n}\right)$ and obtain

$$A'(X) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a(n) \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-iT}^{c+iT} \frac{X^s}{n^s} \frac{ds}{s} + \sum_{\substack{n \geq 1 \\ n \neq X}} a(n) O\left(\frac{X^c}{n^c} \min\left(1, \frac{1}{T|\log(\frac{X}{n})|}\right)\right) + \delta_X a(X) O\left(\frac{c}{T}\right).$$

Since $D(s)$ converges absolutely the sum may be moved inside of the first O -estimate. Then combine the two O -estimates. The dominated convergence theorem implies we may interchange the sum and the integral. The statement of the lemma follows. \square

There is a slightly weaker variant of truncated Perron's formula that follows as a corollary:

Corollary 6.2.1. *Let $D(s)$ be a Dirichlet series with coefficient $a(n)$ and finite and nonnegative abscissa of absolute convergence σ_a . Then for any $c > \sigma_a$ and $T > 0$,*

$$A'(X) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-iT}^{c+iT} D(s) X^s \frac{ds}{s} + O\left(\frac{X^c}{T}\right),$$

Proof. For sufficiently large X , we have

$$\min\left(1, \frac{1}{T|\log(\frac{X}{n})|}\right) \ll \frac{X^c}{T}.$$

The statement now follows from truncated Perron's formula. \square

There is also a version of Perron's formula where we add a smoothing function. For any $X > 0$, we set

$$A_\psi(X) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a(n) g\left(\frac{n}{X}\right),$$

where $\psi : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is smooth function such that $\psi(y) \rightarrow 0$ as $y \rightarrow \infty$. This is most useful in two cases. The first is when we choose $\psi(y)$ to be a bump function. In this setting, the bump function applies weight 1 or 0 to the Dirichlet coefficients $a(n)$ and we can estimate sums like

$$\sum_{\frac{X}{2} \leq n < X} a(n) \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_{X \leq n < X+Y} a(n),$$

for some X and Y with $Y < X$. Sums of this type are called **unweighted**. As an example of an unweighted sum, let $\psi : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be a bump function that is identically 1 on $[0, 1]$ and has compact support within the interval $[1, \frac{X+1}{X}]$. For example,

$$\psi(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq y \leq 1, \\ e^{-\frac{1-y}{\frac{X+1}{X}-y}} & \text{if } 1 \leq y < \frac{X+1}{X}, \\ 0 & \text{if } y \geq \frac{X+1}{X}. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$A_\psi(X) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a(n) \psi\left(\frac{n}{X}\right) = \sum_{n \leq X} a(n).$$

In the second case, we want ψ to dampen the $a(n)$ with a weight other than 1 or 0. Sums of this type are called **weighted**. In any case, suppose the support of $\psi(y)$ is contained in $[0, M]$. These conditions will force the Mellin transform $\Psi(s)$ of $\psi(y)$ to exist and have nice properties. To see that $\Psi(s)$ exists, let K be a compact set in the region $\sigma > 0$ and let $\beta = \min_{s \in K} \{\sigma\}$. Note that $\psi(y)$ is bounded because it is compactly supported. Then for $s \in K$,

$$\Psi(s) = \int_0^\infty \psi(y) y^s \frac{dy}{y} \ll \int_0^M y^{\sigma-1} dy = \frac{y^\sigma}{\sigma} \Big|_0^M \leq \frac{M^\sigma}{\beta}.$$

Therefore $\Psi(s)$ is locally absolutely uniformly bounded for $\sigma > 0$. In particular, the Mellin inversion formula implies that $\psi(y)$ is the Mellin inverse of $\Psi(s)$. As for nice properties, $\Psi(s)$ does not grow too fast in vertical strips:

Proposition 6.2.1. *Suppose $\psi : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is a bump function and let $\Psi(s) : \mathbb{C}_{\sigma > 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ denote its Mellin transform. Then for any $N \geq 1$,*

$$\Psi(s) \ll (|s| + 1)^{-N},$$

provided s is contained in the vertical strip $a < \sigma < b$ for any a and b with $0 < a < b$.

Proof. Fix a and b with $a < b$. Also, let the support of $\psi(y)$ be contained in $[0, M]$. Now consider

$$\Psi(s) = \int_0^\infty \psi(y) y^s \frac{dy}{y}.$$

Since $\psi(y)$ is compactly supported, integrating by parts yields

$$\Psi(s) = \frac{1}{s} \int_0^\infty \psi'(y) y^{s+1} \frac{dy}{y}.$$

Repeatedly integrating by parts $N \geq 1$ times, we arrive at

$$\Psi(s) = \frac{1}{s(s+1) \cdots (s+N-1)} \int_0^\infty \psi^{(N)}(y) y^{s+N} \frac{dy}{y}.$$

Therefore

$$\Psi(s) \ll (|s|+1)^{-N} \int_0^\infty \psi^{(N)}(y) y^{\sigma+N} \frac{dy}{y}.$$

The claim will follow if we can show that the integral is bounded. Since $\psi(y)$ is compactly supported in $[0, M]$ so is $\psi^{(N)}(y)$. In particular, $\psi^{(N)}(y)$ is bounded. Therefore

$$\int_0^\infty \psi^{(N)}(y) y^{\sigma+N} \frac{dy}{y} \ll \int_0^M y^{\sigma+N} \frac{dy}{y} = \frac{y^{\sigma+N}}{\sigma+N} \Big|_0^M = \frac{M^{\sigma+N}}{\sigma+N} \ll \frac{M^{b+N}}{N} \ll 1,$$

where the second to last estimate follows because $a < \sigma < b$ with $0 < a < b$. So the integral is bounded and the claim follows. \square

The following theorem is **(smoothed) Perron's formula**:

Theorem 6.2.3 (Perron's formula, smoothed version). *Let $D(s)$ be a Dirichlet series with coefficient $a(n)$ and finite and nonnegative abscissa of absolute convergence σ_a . Let $\psi : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be a bump function. Then for any $c > \sigma_a$,*

$$A_\psi(X) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(c)} D(s) \Psi(s) X^s ds,$$

where Ψ is the Mellin transform of ψ .

Proof. This is just a computation:

$$\begin{aligned} A_\psi(X) &= \sum_{n \geq 1} a(n) \psi\left(\frac{n}{X}\right) \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a(n)}{2\pi i} \int_{(c)} \Psi(s) \left(\frac{n}{X}\right)^{-s} ds && \text{Mellin inversion formula} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(c)} \sum_{n \geq 1} a(n) \Psi(s) \left(\frac{n}{X}\right)^{-s} ds && \text{DCT} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(c)} D(s) \Psi(s) X^s ds. \end{aligned}$$

\square

Smoothed Perron's formula is useful because it is often more versatile as the convergence of the integral is improved if ψ is chosen appropriately.

6.3 Analytic Data of L -functions

We are now ready to discuss L -functions in some generality. In the following, we will denote an L -function by $L(s, f)$, and for the moment, f will carry no formal meaning. It is only used to suggest that the L -function is attached to some interesting arithmetic object f . When we discuss specific L -functions, f will carry a formal meaning. An **L -series** $L(s, f)$ is a Dirichlet series

$$L(s, f) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^s},$$

where the $a_f(n) \in \mathbb{C}$ are coefficients usually attached to some arithmetic object f . We call $L(s, f)$ an **L -function** if it satisfies the following properties:

- (i) $L(s, f)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1$ and admits a degree d_f Euler product

$$L(s, f) = \prod_p (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})^{-1} (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s})^{-1} \cdots (1 - \alpha_{d_f}(p)p^{-s})^{-1},$$

with $a_f(n), \alpha_i(p) \in \mathbb{C}$, $a_f(1) = 1$, and $|\alpha_i(p)| \leq p$ for all primes p . We call

$$L_p(s, f) = (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})^{-1} (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s})^{-1} \cdots (1 - \alpha_{d_f}(p)p^{-s})^{-1},$$

the **local factor** at p , and the $\alpha_i(p)$ are called the **local roots** (or **local parameters**) at p .

- (ii) There exists a factor

$$\gamma(s, f) = \pi^{-\frac{d_f s}{2}} \prod_{1 \leq i \leq d_f} \Gamma\left(\frac{s + \kappa_i}{2}\right),$$

with $\kappa_i \in \mathbb{C}$ that are either real or appear in conjugate pairs. We also require $\operatorname{Re}(\kappa_i) \geq -1$. The κ_i are called the **local roots** (or **local parameters**) at infinity.

- (iii) There exists an integer $q(f) \geq 1$ called the **conductor** such that $\alpha_i(p) \neq 0$ for all prime p such that $p \nmid q(f)$. If $p \mid q(f)$, then we say p is **ramified** and is **unramified** otherwise. The **analytic conductor** $q(s, f)$ is defined to be

$$q(s, f) = q(f)q_\infty(s, f),$$

where we set

$$q_\infty(s, f) = \prod_{1 \leq i \leq d_f} (|s + \kappa_i| + 3).$$

- (iv) The **completed L -function**

$$\Lambda(s, f) = q(f)^{\frac{s}{2}} \gamma(s, f) L(s, f),$$

must admit meromorphic continuation to \mathbb{C} with at most poles at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$. Moreover, it must satisfy the functional equation

$$\Lambda(s, f) = \varepsilon(f) \Lambda(1 - s, \bar{f}),$$

where $\varepsilon(f)$ is a complex number with $|\varepsilon(f)| = 1$ called the **root number** of $L(s, f)$, and \bar{f} is an object associated to f called the **dual** of f such that $L(s, \bar{f})$ satisfies $a_{\bar{f}}(n) = \overline{a_f(n)}$, $\gamma(s, \bar{f}) = \gamma(s, f)$, $q(\bar{f}) = q(f)$, and $\varepsilon(\bar{f}) = \overline{\varepsilon(f)}$. We call $L(s, \bar{f})$ the **dual** of $L(s, f)$. If $\bar{f} = f$ in the functional equation, we say $L(s, f)$ is **self-dual**.

- (v) $L(s, f)$ admits meromorphic continuation to \mathbb{C} with at most a pole at $s = 1$ of order $r_f \in \mathbb{Z}$, and must be of order 1 (see Appendix B.5) after clearing the possible polar divisor.

We will also continue to refer to objects $L(s, f)$ as L -functions if they satisfy a subset of these conditions or perhaps all of them with some perturbations. However, if we are discussing L -functions generally we will always assume that they satisfy properties (i)-(v) unless stated otherwise. Property (ii) ensures that $\gamma(s, f)$ has at most poles at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$ for $\sigma \geq 0$. Note that as $\gamma(1, f) \neq 0$, $r(f)$ is also the order of possible poles of $L(s, f)$ at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$ which are equal by the functional equation. As $L(s, f)$ admits meromorphic continuation by property (v), we denote the continuation by $L(s, f)$ as well. Moreover, we say that an L -function $L(s, f)$ belongs to the **Selberg class** if the additional adjustments to (i), (ii), and (v) hold:

- (i) The local roots at p satisfy $|\alpha_i(p)| = 1$ if $p \nmid q(f)$ and $|\alpha_i(p)| \leq 1$ if $p \mid q(f)$.
- (ii) The local roots at infinity satisfy $\operatorname{Re}(\kappa_i) \geq 0$.
- (v) $L(s, f)$ has at most a simple pole at $s = 1$. That is, $r_f \leq 1$.

The adjustment for (i) forces $a_f(n) \ll n^\varepsilon$ while the adjustment for (ii) ensures that $\gamma(s, f)$ has at most a pole at $s = 0$ for $\sigma \geq 0$. The Selberg class constitutes a very special class of L -functions. Nevertheless, suppose we are given two L -functions $L(s, f)$ and $L(s, g)$ with local roots $\alpha_i(p)$ and $\beta_j(p)$ at p and local roots κ_i and ν_j at infinity respectively. We say that an L -function $L(s, f \otimes g)$ of degree $d_{f \otimes g} = d_f d_g$ is the **Rankin-Selberg convolution** of $L(s, f)$ and $L(s, g)$ (or **Rankin-Selberg square** if $f = g$) if it satisfies the following adjustments:

- (i) The Euler product of $L(s, f \otimes g)$ takes the form

$$L(s, f \otimes g) = \prod_{p \nmid q(f)q(g)} L_p(s, f \otimes g) \prod_{p \mid q(f)q(g)} H_p(p^{-s}),$$

with

$$L_p(s, f \otimes g) = \prod_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq d_f \\ 1 \leq j \leq d_g}} \left(1 - \alpha_i(p) \overline{\beta_j(p)} p^{-s}\right)^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad H_p(p^{-s}) = \prod_{1 \leq i \leq d_{f \otimes g}} (1 - \gamma_i(p) p^{-s}),$$

for some $\gamma_i(p) \in \mathbb{C}$ with $|\gamma_i(p)| \leq p$.

- (ii) The gamma factor $\gamma(s, f \otimes g)$ takes the form

$$\gamma(s, f \otimes g) = \pi^{-\frac{d_{f \otimes g} s}{2}} \prod_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq d_f \\ 1 \leq j \leq d_g}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s + \mu_{i,j}}{2}\right),$$

with the local roots at infinity satisfying the additional bounds $\operatorname{Re}(\mu_{i,j}) \leq \operatorname{Re}(\kappa_i) + \operatorname{Re}(\nu_j)$ and $|\mu_{i,j}| \leq |\kappa_i| + |\nu_j|$.

- (iii) The root number $q(f \otimes g)$ satisfies $q(f \otimes g) \mid q(f)^{d_f} q(g)^{d_g}$. If $q(f \otimes g)$ is a proper divisor of $q(f)^{d_f} q(g)^{d_g}$, we say that **conductor dropping** occurs.

- (v) $L(s, f \otimes g)$ has a pole of order $r_{f \otimes g} \geq 1$ at $s = 1$ if $g = f$.

A few additional comments are in order for L -functions in general. The **critical strip** is the strip

$$\left\{ s \in \mathbb{C} : \left| \sigma - \frac{1}{2} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2} \right\}.$$

This is precisely the region where we cannot determine the value of an L -function from its representation as a Dirichlet series using the functional equation. It turns out that much of the important information about L -functions are contained inside of the critical strip. The **critical line** is the line that bisects the critical strip vertically. So the critical line is $\sigma = \frac{1}{2}$ as displayed in Figure 6.1.

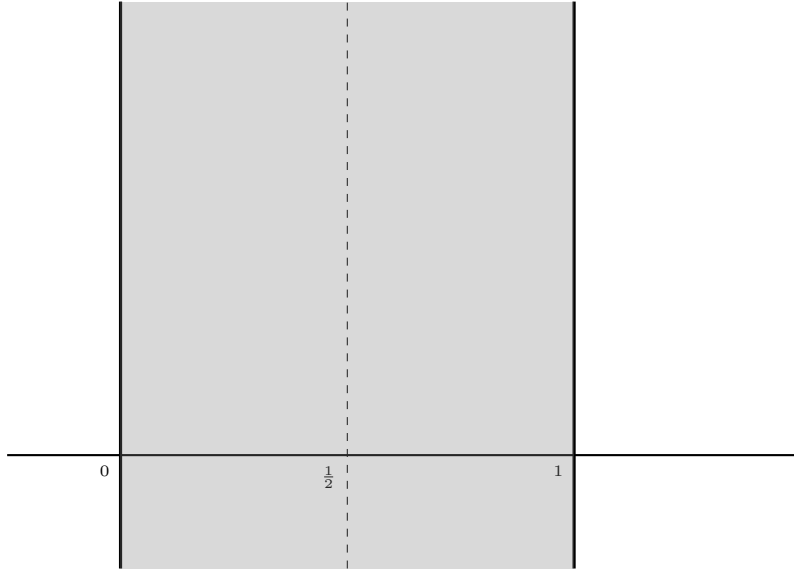


Figure 6.1: The critical strip and critical line.

6.4 The Approximate Functional Equation

If $L(s, f)$ is an L -function, then there is a formula which acts as a compromise between the functional equation for $L(s, f)$ and expressing $L(s, f)$ as a Dirichlet series. This formula is known as the approximate functional equation and it is important because it is valid inside of the critical strip and therefore can be used to obtain data about $L(s, f)$. First, we need to state an important asymptotic about the ratio of gamma factors that we will use later on. First suppose σ is bounded and $|t| > 1$. This guarantees that s is bounded away from zero so by Corollary 1.6.2, we have

$$\Gamma(s) \sim \sqrt{2\pi} t^{\sigma - \frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}|t|}.$$

This gives the weaker estimates

$$\Gamma(s) \ll t^{\sigma - \frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}|t|} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{\Gamma(s)} \ll t^{\frac{1}{2} - \sigma} e^{\frac{\pi}{2}|t|}.$$

It is not hard to obtain estimates that holds in vertical strips. Suppose s is in the vertical strip $a < \sigma < b$ and is distance ε away from the poles of $\Gamma(s)$. For $|t| > 1$, the estimates above are satisfied. As these estimates are zero when $t = 0$ and $\Gamma(s)$ is bounded on the compact region $a \leq \sigma \leq b$ with $|t| \leq 1$ provided s is distance ε away from the poles, the estimates

$$\Gamma(s) \ll_{\varepsilon} (|t| + 1)^{\sigma - \frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}|t|} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{\Gamma(s)} \ll_{\varepsilon} (|t| + 1)^{\frac{1}{2} - \sigma} e^{\frac{\pi}{2}|t|}, \quad (6.7)$$

are valid in the vertical strip $a < \sigma < b$ and distance ε away from the poles of $\Gamma(s)$ in the first estimate. We immediately have the useful estimate

$$\frac{\Gamma(1-s)}{\Gamma(s)} \ll_{\varepsilon} (|t| + 1)^{1-2\sigma},$$

valid in the is in the vertical strip $a < \sigma < b$ and distance ε away from the poles of $\Gamma(1-s)$. It easily follows from the definition of $\gamma(s, f)$ that

$$\frac{\gamma(1-s, f)}{\gamma(s, f)} \ll_{\varepsilon} q_{\infty}(s, f)^{\frac{1-2\sigma}{2}} \quad \text{and} \quad q(f)^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{\gamma(1-s, f)}{\gamma(s, f)} \ll_{\varepsilon} q(s, f)^{\frac{1-2\sigma}{2}}, \quad (6.8)$$

are valid in the is in the vertical strip $a < \sigma < b$ and is distance ε away from the poles of $\gamma(1-s, f)$. We can use this last estimate to show that $L(s, f)$ has polynomial growth in the t -aspect in vertical strips:

Proposition 6.4.1. *For any L -function $L(s, f)$ and $a < b$, $L(s, f)$ is of polynomial growth in the t -aspect in the vertical half-strip $a \leq \sigma \leq b$ with $|t| \geq 1$.*

Proof. On the one hand, for $\sigma > \max(1, b)$ we have $L(s, f) \ll 1$ on the line $\sigma = 1$ with $t \geq 1$. On the other hand, the functional equation and Equation (6.8) together imply

$$L(s, f) \ll q(s, f)^{\frac{1-2\sigma}{2}} L(1-s, f).$$

Clearly $q(s, f)^{\frac{1-2\sigma}{2}}$ is of polynomial growth in the t -aspect provided σ is bounded. Thus for bounded $\sigma < \min(0, a)$, we see that $L(s, f)$ is also of polynomial growth in the t -aspect for $|t| \geq 1$. Moreover, this estimate also implies $L(s, f)$ is bounded on the line $t = 1$ provided σ is bounded. As $L(s, f)$ is holomorphic for $|t| \geq 1$ and of order 1, we can apply the Phragmén-Lindelöf convexity principle in this region (see Appendix B.6) so that $L(s, f)$ is of polynomial growth in the t -aspect in the vertical half-strip $a \leq \sigma \leq b$ with $|t| \geq 1$. \square

Proposition 6.4.1 is a very important property that L -functions possess. It is usually used to estimate Perron type formulas. We can also use it to deduce the **approximate function equation**:

Theorem 6.4.1 (Approximate functional equation). *Let $L(s, f)$ be an L -function, $\Phi(u)$ be an even holomorphic function bounded in the vertical strip $|\tau| < a + 1$ for any $a > 1$ such that $\Phi(0) = 1$, and let $X > 0$. Then for s in the critical strip, we have*

$$L(s, f) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^s} V_s \left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}X} \right) + \varepsilon(s, f) \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{\overline{a_f(n)}}{n^{1-s}} V_{1-s} \left(\frac{nX}{\sqrt{q(f)}} \right) + \frac{R}{q(f)^{\frac{s}{2}} \gamma(s, f)},$$

where $V_s(y) : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is the inverse Mellin transform defined by

$$V_s(y) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} \frac{\gamma(s+u, f)}{\gamma(s, f)} \Phi(u) y^{-u} \frac{du}{u},$$

and

$$\varepsilon(s, f) = \varepsilon(f) q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \frac{\gamma(1-s, f)}{\gamma(s, f)}.$$

Moreover, R is zero if $\Lambda(s, f)$ is entire, and otherwise

$$R = \left(\operatorname{Res}_{u=1-s} + \operatorname{Res}_{u=-s} \right) \frac{\Lambda(s+u, f) \Phi(u) X^u}{u}.$$

Proof. Let

$$I(X, s, f) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} \Lambda(s+u, f) \Phi(u) X^u \frac{du}{u}.$$

$L(s, f)$ has polynomial growth in the t -aspect by Proposition 6.4.1. From Equation (6.7) we see that $\gamma(s+u, f)$ has exponential decay. Since $\Phi(u)$ is bounded, it follows that the integrand has exponential decay in a vertical strip containing $|\tau| \leq a$. Therefore the integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded

by Method 1.5.1. Moreover, we may shift the line of integration to $(-a)$. In doing so, we pass by a simple pole at $u = 0$ and possible poles at $u = 1 - s$ and $u = -s$, giving

$$I(X, s, f) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(-a)} \Lambda(s+u, f) \Phi(u) X^u \frac{du}{u} + \Lambda(s, f) + R.$$

Applying the functional equation to $\Lambda(s+u, f)$ and performing the change of variables $u \rightarrow -u$, we obtain

$$I(X, s, f) = -\varepsilon(f) I(X^{-1}, 1-s, \bar{f}) + \Lambda(s, f) - R,$$

since $\Phi(u)$ is even. This equation is equivalent to

$$\Lambda(s, f) = I(X, s, f) + \varepsilon(f) I(X^{-1}, 1-s, \bar{f}) + R.$$

Since $\operatorname{Re}(s+u) > 1$, we can expand the L -function $L(s, f)$ inside of $I(X, s, f)$ as a Dirichlet series:

$$\begin{aligned} I(X, s, f) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} \Lambda(s+u, f) \Phi(u) X^u \frac{du}{u} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} q(f)^{\frac{s+u}{2}} \gamma(s+u, f) L(s+u, f) \Phi(u) X^u \frac{du}{u} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^{s+u}} q(f)^{\frac{s+u}{2}} \gamma(s+u, f) \Phi(u) X^u \frac{du}{u} \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^{s+u}} q(f)^{\frac{s+u}{2}} \gamma(s+u, f) \Phi(u) X^u \frac{du}{u} && \text{DCT} \\ &= q(f)^{\frac{s}{2}} \gamma(s, f) \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^s} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} \frac{\gamma(s+u, f)}{\gamma(s, f)} \Phi(u) \left(\frac{\sqrt{q(f)} X}{n} \right)^u \frac{du}{u} \\ &= q(f)^{\frac{s}{2}} \gamma(s, f) \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^s} V_s \left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)} X} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Performing the same computation for $I(X^{-1}, 1-s, \bar{f})$ and substituting in the results, we arrive at

$$\Lambda(s, f) = q(f)^{\frac{s}{2}} \gamma(s, f) \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^s} V_s \left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)} X} \right) + \varepsilon(f) q(f)^{\frac{1-s}{2}} \gamma(1-s, f) \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^{1-s}} V_{1-s} \left(\frac{nX}{\sqrt{q(f)}} \right) + R.$$

Diving by $q(f)^{\frac{s}{2}} \gamma(s, f)$ completes the proof. \square

The approximate functional equation was first developed by Hardy and Littlewood in the series [HL21, HL23, HL29]. The function $V_s(y)$ has the effect of smoothing out the two sums on the right-hand side of the approximate functional equation. In most cases, we will take

$$\Phi(u) = \cos^{-4d_f M} \left(\frac{\pi u}{4M} \right),$$

for an integer $M \geq 1$. Clearly $\Phi(u)$ holomorphic in the vertical strip $|\tau| < (2M-2)+1$, even, and satisfies $\Phi(0) = 1$. To see that it is bounded in this vertical strip, we write

$$\cos^{-4d_f M} \left(\frac{\pi u}{4M} \right) = \left(\frac{e^{i\frac{\pi u}{4M}} + e^{-i\frac{\pi u}{4M}}}{2} \right)^{-4d_f M} \ll e^{-d_f \pi |r|}, \quad (6.9)$$

where in the estimate we have used the reverse triangle equality. It follows that $\Phi(u)$ has exponential decay. With this choice of $\Phi(u)$, we can prove a useful bound for $V_s(y)$:

Proposition 6.4.2. *Let $L(s, f)$ be an L -function, set $\Phi(u) = \cos^{-4d_f M} \left(\frac{\pi u}{4M} \right)$ for some integer $M \geq 1$, and let $V_s(y) : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the inverse Mellin transform defined by*

$$V_s(y) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(2M-2)} \frac{\gamma(s+u, f)}{\gamma(s, f)} \Phi(u) y^{-u} \frac{du}{u}.$$

Then for s in the critical strip, $V_s(y)$ satisfies the estimate

$$V_s(y) \ll \left(1 + \frac{y}{\sqrt{q_\infty(s, f)}} \right)^{-M}.$$

Proof. Suppose $0 \leq \sigma \leq \frac{1}{2}$ so that $\sigma - \frac{1}{2} \leq 0$. Then from Equation (6.7) and the reverse triangle inequality, we deduce that

$$\frac{\Gamma(s+u)}{\Gamma(s)} \ll \frac{(|t+r|+1)^{\sigma+\tau-\frac{1}{2}}}{(|t|+1)^{\sigma-\frac{1}{2}}} e^{\frac{\pi}{2}(|t|-|t+r|)} \ll (|t+r|+1)^\tau e^{\frac{\pi}{2}|r|}.$$

From the definition of the analytic conductor, the above estimate implies

$$\frac{\gamma(s+u, f)}{\gamma(s, f)} \ll q_\infty(s, f)^{\frac{\tau}{2}} e^{d_f \frac{\pi}{2}|r|},$$

for s in the critical strip. By Equation (6.9), the integral defining $V_s(y)$ is locally absolutely uniformly bounded and we may shift the line of integration to (M) . In doing so, we pass by no poles and obtain

$$V_s(y) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(M)} \frac{\gamma(s+u, f)}{\gamma(s, f)} \Phi(u) y^{-u} \frac{du}{u}$$

The fact that u is bounded away from zero, Equation (6.9), and the estimate for the ratio of gamma factors gives the first estimate in the following chain:

$$\begin{aligned} V_s(y) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(M)} \frac{\gamma(s+u, f)}{\gamma(s, f)} \Phi(u) y^{-u} \frac{du}{u} \\ &\ll \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} q_\infty(s, f)^{\frac{M}{2}} e^{-d_f \frac{\pi}{2}|r|} y^{-M} dr \\ &\ll \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} q_\infty(s, f)^{\frac{M}{2}} e^{-d_f \frac{\pi}{2}|r|} (1+y)^{-M} dr \\ &\ll \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}d_f|r|} \left(1 + \frac{y}{\sqrt{q_\infty(s, f)}} \right)^{-M} dr \\ &\ll \left(1 + \frac{y}{\sqrt{q_\infty(s, f)}} \right)^{-M} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}d_f|r|} dr \\ &\ll \left(1 + \frac{y}{\sqrt{q_\infty(s, f)}} \right)^{-M}, \end{aligned}$$

where in the third and fourth lines we have used that $cy \ll (1+cy)$ for all $y \geq 0$ and any c and the last line holds by Method 1.5.1 since $e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}d_f|r|}$ has exponential decay. This completes the proof. \square

From Proposition 6.4.2 we see that $V_s(f)$ is bounded for $y \ll_\varepsilon q_\infty(s, f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}$ and then starts to exhibit polynomial decay that can be taken arbitrarily large. In a similar spirit to the approximate functional equation, a useful summation formula can be derived from the functional equation of each L -function:

Theorem 6.4.2. *Let $\psi(s)$ be a bump function and let $\Psi(s) : \mathbb{C}_{\sigma>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ denote its Mellin transform. Then for any L -functions $L(s, f)$, we have*

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) \psi(n) = \frac{\varepsilon(f)}{\sqrt{q(f)}} \sum_{n \geq 1} a_{\bar{f}}(n) \phi(n) + R\Psi(1),$$

where $\phi(y) : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is the inverse Mellin transform defined by

$$\phi(y) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} \Psi(1-s) q(f)^s \frac{\gamma(s, f)}{\gamma(1-s, f)} y^{-s} ds,$$

for any $a > 1$. Moreover, R is zero if $L(s, f)$ is entire, and otherwise

$$R = \operatorname{Res}_{s=1} L(s, f).$$

Proof. Note that By the Mellin inversion formula,

$$\psi(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} \Psi(s) n^{-s} ds.$$

Summing over all $n \geq 1$, the dominated convergence theorem implies

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) \psi(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} \Psi(s) L(s, f) ds.$$

By Propositions 6.2.1 and 6.4.1 the integrand has polynomial decay and therefore is locally absolutely uniformly bounded by Method 1.5.1. Shifting the line of integration to $(1-a)$, we pass by a potential pole at $s = 1$ from $L(s, f)$ and obtain

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) \psi(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(1-a)} \Psi(s) L(s, f) ds + R\Psi(1).$$

Applying the functional equation, we further have

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) \psi(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(1-a)} \Psi(s) \varepsilon(f) q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \frac{\gamma(1-s, f)}{\gamma(s, f)} L(1-s, \bar{f}) ds + R\Psi(1).$$

Performing the change of variables $s \rightarrow 1-s$ in this latter integral gives

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) \psi(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(a)} \Psi(1-s) \varepsilon(f) q(f)^{s-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\gamma(s, f)}{\gamma(1-s, f)} L(s, \bar{f}) ds + R\Psi(1).$$

The proof is complete upon interchanging the sum over the Dirichlet series and the integral by the dominated convergence theorem and factoring out $\frac{\varepsilon(f)}{\sqrt{q(f)}}$. \square

6.5 The Riemann Hypothesis & Nontrivial Zeros

The zeros of L -functions $L(s, f)$ are closely tied to important arithmetic data of f . Recall that

$$L(s, f) = \prod_p (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})^{-1} (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s})^{-1} \cdots (1 - \alpha_{d_f}(p)p^{-s})^{-1},$$

for $\sigma > 1$. This product vanishes if and only if one of its factors are zero. As $\sigma > 1$, this is impossible so that $L(s, f)$ has no zeros in this region. The functional equation will allow us to understand more about the zeros of $L(s, f)$. Rewrite the functional equation for $L(s, f)$ as

$$L(s, f) = \varepsilon(f) q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \frac{\gamma(1-s, f)}{\gamma(s, f)} L(1-s, \bar{f}). \quad (6.10)$$

If $\sigma < 0$ then $L(1-s, \bar{f})$ is nonzero by our previous comments. Moreover, $\gamma(1-s, f)$ is holomorphic in this region because $\operatorname{Re}(\kappa_i) \geq -1$ for all i . We conclude that poles of $\gamma(s, f)$ are zeros of $L(s, f)$ for $\sigma < 0$. Such zeros are called **trivial zeros**. From the definition of $\gamma(s, f)$, they are all simple and are of the form $s = \kappa_i - 2n$ for some local root at infinity κ_i and some integer $n \geq 0$. Any other zero of $L(s, f)$ is called a **nontrivial zeros** and it lies inside of the critical strip.

Remark 6.5.1. Recall that for any L -function $L(s, f)$, the completed L -function $\Lambda(s, f)$ is required to be meromorphic on \mathbb{C} with at most poles at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$. We have shown that the trivial zeros of $L(s, f)$ are poles of $\gamma(s, f)$ for $\sigma < 0$ and they are all simple.

Now let ρ be a nontrivial zero of $L(s, f)$. Note that $\overline{L(s, f)} = L(\bar{s}, \bar{f})$ by the identity theorem and that this equality holds for $\sigma > 1$ where $L(s, f)$ is defined by a Dirichlet series. It follows that $\bar{\rho}$ is a nontrivial zero of $L(s, \bar{f})$. In the interior of critical strip, the gamma factor is nonzero and holomorphic (again we have used $\operatorname{Re}(\kappa_i) \geq 1$ for all i). From the functional equation, it follows that $1 - \bar{\rho}$ is also a nontrivial zero of $L(s, f)$. In short, the nontrivial zeros occur in pairs:

$$\rho \quad \text{and} \quad 1 - \bar{\rho}.$$

We can sometimes say more. If $L(s, f)$ takes real values for $s > 1$, the Schwarz reflection principle implies $L(\bar{s}, f) = \overline{L(s, f)}$ and that $L(s, f)$ takes real values on the entire real axis save for the possible poles at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$. We find that $\bar{\rho}$ and $1 - \bar{\rho}$ are nontrivial zeros too and therefore the nontrivial zeros of $L(s, f)$ come in sets of four:

$$\rho, \quad \bar{\rho}, \quad 1 - \rho, \quad \text{and} \quad 1 - \bar{\rho}.$$

The **(Selberg class) Riemann hypothesis** says that this symmetry should be as simple as possible:

Conjecture 6.5.1 (Riemann hypothesis, Selberg class version). *All of the nontrivial zeros of any L -function $L(s, f)$ belonging to the Selberg class lie on the line $\sigma = \frac{1}{2}$.*

6.6 The Lindelöf Hypothesis & Convexity Arguments

Instead of asking about the zeros of an L -function $L(s, f)$ on the critical line, we can ask about the growth of $L(s, f)$ on the critical line. A **convexity argument** is one where estimates about the growth of an L -function on the critical line are deduced. Usually this is achieved by methods of complex analysis and

Siriling's formula. The standard argument for any L -function is known **Lindelöf convexity argument**. It is essentially a refinement of the proof of Proposition 6.4.1. Let

$$p_{r_f}(s) = \left(\frac{s-1}{s+1} \right)^{r_f}.$$

Note that $p_{r_f}(s) \sim 1$. The first step is to guarantee the Phragmén-Lindelöf convexity principle for $p_{r_f}(s)L(s, f)$ in a region containing the critical strip. As $L(s, f)$ is of order 1, this is assured (see Appendix B.6). Therefore, we are reduced to estimating the growth of $p_{r_f}(s)L(s, f)$ for σ to the left of 0 and to the right of 1. That is, just outside the edges of the critical strip. The right edge is easily estimated by setting $\sigma = 1 + \varepsilon$ so that

$$p_{r_f}(1 + \varepsilon + it)L(1 + \varepsilon + it, f) \ll_{\varepsilon} 1.$$

The left edge is only slightly more difficult. The functional equation and Equation (6.8) together imply

$$p_{r_f}(s)L(s, f) \ll p_{r_f}(s)q(s, f)^{\frac{1-2\sigma}{2}}L(1-s, f),$$

for s in any vertical strip with distance ε away from the poles of $\gamma(1-s, f)$. Setting $\sigma = -\varepsilon$, we obtain

$$p_{r_f}(-\varepsilon + it)L(-\varepsilon + it, f) \ll_{\varepsilon} q(s, f)^{\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon}.$$

As $p_{r_f}(s)L(s, f)$ is holomorphic in a region containing the vertical strip $-\varepsilon \leq \sigma \leq 1 + \varepsilon$, the Phragmén-Lindelöf convexity principle gives

$$L(s, f) \ll_{\varepsilon} q(s, f)^{\frac{1-\sigma}{2} + \varepsilon},$$

in the vertical strip $-\varepsilon \leq \sigma \leq 1 + \varepsilon$. At the critical line, we have the **convexity bound**:

$$L\left(\frac{1}{2} + it, f\right) \ll_{\varepsilon} q\left(\frac{1}{2} + it, f\right)^{\frac{1}{4} + \varepsilon}. \quad (6.11)$$

The **(Selberg class) Lindelöf hypothesis** says that the exponent can be reduced to ε :

Conjecture 6.6.1 (Lindelöf hypothesis, Selberg class version). *For any L -function $L(s, f)$ belonging to the Selberg class, we have*

$$L\left(\frac{1}{2} + it, f\right) \ll_{\varepsilon} q\left(\frac{1}{2} + it, f\right)^{\varepsilon}.$$

Any improvement upon the exponent in the convexity bound in any aspect of the analytic conductor is called a **subconvexity estimate** (or a **convexity breaking bound**). Any argument used to do so is called a **subconvexity argument**.

6.7 The Explicit Formula for the Logarithmic Derivative

There is an incredibly useful formula for the logarithmic derivative of any L -function which is often the starting point for deeper analytic investigations. To deduce it, we will need a more complete understanding of $\Lambda(s, f)$. First observe that the zeros ρ of $\Lambda(s, f)$ are contained inside of the critical strip. Indeed, we have already remarked that $L(s, f)$ has no zeros for $\sigma > 0$ and clearly $\gamma(s, f)$ does not have zeros in this region as well. Therefore $\Lambda(s, f)$ is non-zero for $\sigma > 1$. By the functional equation, $\Lambda(s, f)$ is also nonzero

for $\sigma < 0$ too. In other words, the zeros of $\Lambda(s, f)$ are the nontrivial zeros of $L(s, f)$. Before we state our result, we setup some notation. For an L -function $L(s, f)$ we define

$$\xi(s, f) = (s(1-s))^{r_f} \Lambda(s, f).$$

Note that $\xi(s, f)$ is essentially just $\Lambda(s, f)$ with the potential poles at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$ removed. We now state our desired result:

Proposition 6.7.1. *For any L -function $L(s, f)$, there exist constants $A(f)$ and $B(f)$ such that*

$$\xi(s, f) = e^{A(f)+B(f)s} \prod_{\rho \neq 0,1} \left(1 - \frac{s}{\rho}\right) e^{\frac{s}{\rho}},$$

and hence the sum

$$\sum_{\rho \neq 0,1} \frac{1}{|\rho|^{1+\varepsilon}},$$

is convergent provided the product and sum are both ordered with respect to the size of the ordinate. Moreover,

$$-\frac{L'}{L}(s, f) = \frac{r_f}{s} + \frac{r_f}{s-1} + \frac{1}{2} \log(q(f)) + \frac{\gamma'}{\gamma}(s, f) - B(f) - \sum_{\rho \neq 0,1} \left(\frac{1}{s-\rho} + \frac{1}{\rho} \right).$$

Proof. For the first statement, observe that $\xi(s, f)$ is entire since the only possible poles of $\Lambda(s, f)$ are at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$ and are of order r_f . We also claim that $\xi(s, f)$ is of order 1. By the functional equation, it suffices to show this for $\sigma \geq \frac{1}{2}$. This follows from $L(s, f)$ being of order 1 and Equation (6.7) (within ε of the poles of $\gamma(s, f)$ we know $\xi(s, f)$ is bounded because it is entire). By the Hadamard factorization theorem (see Appendix B.5),

$$\xi(s, f) = e^{A(f)+B(f)s} \prod_{\rho \neq 0,1} \left(1 - \frac{s}{\rho}\right) e^{\frac{s}{\rho}},$$

for some constants $A(f)$ and $B(f)$ and the desired sum converges. This proves the first statement. For the second, taking the logarithmic derivative of the definition of $\xi(s, f)$ yields

$$\frac{\xi'}{\xi}(s, f) = \frac{r_f}{s} + \frac{r_f}{s-1} + \frac{1}{2} \log(q(f)) + \frac{\gamma'}{\gamma}(s, f) + \frac{L'}{L}(s, f).$$

On the other hand, taking the logarithmic derivative of the Hadamard factorization gives

$$\frac{\xi'}{\xi}(s, f) = B(f) + \sum_{\rho \neq 0,1} \left(\frac{1}{s-\rho} + \frac{1}{\rho} \right).$$

Equating these two expressions, we arrive at

$$B(f) + \sum_{\rho \neq 0,1} \left(\frac{1}{s-\rho} + \frac{1}{\rho} \right) = \frac{r_f}{s} + \frac{r_f}{s-1} + \frac{1}{2} \log(q(f)) + \frac{\gamma'}{\gamma}(s, f) + \frac{L'}{L}(s, f).$$

Isolating $-\frac{L'}{L}(s, f)$ completes the proof. \square

The formula for the logarithmic derivative in Proposition 6.7.1 is called the **explicit formula for the logarithmic derivative** of $L(s, f)$. In general, the estimation of the constants $A(f)$ and $B(f)$ can be challenging and heavily depends upon the arithmetic object f . We will often need to estimate them on a case-by-case basis.

6.8 Todo: [A Zero-free Region]

6.9 Todo: [Zero Counting]

6.10 Todo: [The Explicit Formula]

6.11 Estimating the Central Value

The Lindelöf hypothesis is concerned with the growth of the L -function $L(s, f)$ along the critical line. Sometimes we are only concerned with the size of $L(s, f)$ when $s = \frac{1}{2}$. The point $s = \frac{1}{2}$ is called the **central point** and the value of $L(s, f)$ at the central point is called the **central value** of $L(s, f)$. Many important properties about $L(s, f)$ can be connected to its central value. Any argument used to estimate the central value of an L -function is called a **central value estimate**. We will prove a result which gives a very useful upper bound for the central value in the $q(f)$ -aspect. To state it, let $\psi : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be a bump function with compact support in $[\frac{1}{2}, 2]$. For example,

$$\psi(y) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{9-(4y-5)^2}} & \text{if } |4y-5| < 3, \\ 0 & \text{if } |4y-5| \geq 3. \end{cases}$$

The theorem is the following:

Theorem 6.11.1. *Let $L(s, f)$ be an L -function and let $\psi : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be a bump function with compact support in $[\frac{1}{2}, 2]$. Then we have*

$$L\left(\frac{1}{2}, f\right) \ll_{\varepsilon} \max_{X \ll q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}} \frac{A_{\psi}(X)}{q(f)^{\frac{1}{4}}} + \frac{S}{q(f)^{\frac{1}{4}}},$$

where S is zero if $\Lambda(s, f)$ is entire, and otherwise

$$S = \left(\operatorname{Res}_{u=\frac{1}{2}} + \operatorname{Res}_{u=-\frac{1}{2}} \right) \Lambda\left(\frac{1}{2} + u, f\right).$$

Proof. Taking $s = \frac{1}{2}$, $X = 1$, and $\Phi(u) = \cos^{-4dM}\left(\frac{\pi u}{4M}\right)$ with $M \gg 1$ in the approximate functional equation gives

$$L\left(\frac{1}{2}, f\right) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} V_{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) + \varepsilon(f) \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{\overline{a_f(n)}}{\sqrt{n}} V_{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) + \frac{R}{q(f)^{\frac{1}{4}} \gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}, f\right)}.$$

This implies the bound

$$L\left(\frac{1}{2}, f\right) \ll \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} V_{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) + \frac{S}{q(f)^{\frac{1}{4}}}.$$

Now consider the set of functions $\{\psi\left(\frac{y}{2^k}\right)\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$. Since $\psi\left(\frac{y}{2^k}\right)$ has support in $[2^{k-1}, 2^{k+1}]$, the sum $\sigma(y) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \psi\left(\frac{y}{2^k}\right)$, defined for $y > 0$, is finite since at most finitely many terms are nonzero for every y . It is also bounded away from zero since for any $y > 0$ there is some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ for which $2^k \leq y \leq 3 \cdot 2^{k-1}$ so that $\frac{y}{2^k}$ is

at least distance $\frac{1}{2}$ from the endpoints of $[\frac{1}{2}, 2]$. Defining $\psi_k(y) = \psi\left(\frac{y}{2^k}\right) \sigma(y)^{-1}$, it follows that $\{\psi_k(y)\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ satisfies

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \psi_k(y) = 1,$$

for any $y > 0$. Then we can write

$$V_s(y) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \psi_k(y) V_s(y).$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} V_{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \psi_k\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) V_{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) \\ &= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} \psi_k\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) V_{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) \quad \text{DCT} \\ &\ll_{\varepsilon} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \left| \sum_{\substack{n \ll q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon} \\ 2^{k-1}\sqrt{q(f)} \leq n \leq 2^{k+1}\sqrt{q(f)}}} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} \psi_k\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) \right| \\ &\ll_{\varepsilon} \sum_{k \ll \log(q(f)^{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}})} \left| \sum_{\substack{n \ll q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon} \\ 2^{k-1}\sqrt{q(f)} \leq n \leq 2^{k+1}\sqrt{q(f)}}} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} \psi_k\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) \right|, \end{aligned}$$

where in the second to last line we have used that $V_{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right)$ is bounded for $n \ll_{\varepsilon} q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}$ and then exhibits polynomial decay thereafter by Proposition 6.4.2 and in the last line we have used that $\psi_k(y)$ has compact support in $[2^{k-1}, 2^{k+1}]$ (recall $k \in \mathbb{Z}$). Since $\sigma(y)$ is bounded away from zero and $\log(y) \ll y$, we obtain the crude bound

$$\sum_{k \ll \log(q(f)^{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}})} \left| \sum_{\substack{n \ll q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon} \\ 2^{k-1}\sqrt{q(f)} \leq n \leq 2^{k+1}\sqrt{q(f)}}} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} \psi_k\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) \right| \ll_{\varepsilon} q(f)^{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}} \max_{X \ll q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}} \left| \sum_{\frac{X}{2} \leq n \leq 2X} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} \psi\left(\frac{n}{X}\right) \right|$$

We will estimate this latter sum. Abel's summation formula (see Appendix B.3) gives

$$\sum_{\frac{X}{2} \leq n \leq 2X} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} \psi\left(\frac{n}{X}\right) = \frac{A_{\psi}(2X)}{\sqrt{2X}} - \frac{A_{\psi}\left(\frac{X}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{\frac{X}{2}}} + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\frac{X}{2}}^{2X} A_{\psi}(u) u^{-\frac{3}{2}} du.$$

But as

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\frac{X}{2}}^{2X} A_{\psi}(u) u^{-\frac{3}{2}} du \ll X \max_{\frac{X}{2} \leq u \leq 2X} A_{\psi}(u) u^{-\frac{3}{2}} \ll \max_{\frac{X}{2} \leq u \leq 2X} \frac{A_{\psi}(u)}{\sqrt{u}},$$

we obtain the bound

$$\max_{X \ll q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}} \sum_{\frac{X}{2} \leq n \leq 2X} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} \psi\left(\frac{n}{X}\right) \ll \max_{X \ll q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}} \frac{A_\psi(X)}{\sqrt{X}}.$$

Putting everything together gives

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{\sqrt{n}} V_{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{q(f)}}\right) \ll_\varepsilon q(f)^{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}} \max_{X \ll q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}} \frac{A_\psi(X)}{\sqrt{X}} \ll_\varepsilon \max_{X \ll q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}} \frac{A_\psi(X)}{q(f)^{\frac{1}{4}}},$$

where in the last estimate we may replace X with $q(f)^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}$ because $X \geq 1$ so that X is bounded away from zero. \square

Chapter 7

Types of L -functions

We discuss a variety of L -functions: the Riemann zeta function, L -functions attached to Dirichlet characters, and Hecke L -functions. In the case of Hecke L -functions, we also describe a method of Rankin and Selberg for constructing new L -functions from old ones.

7.1 The Riemann Zeta Function

The Definition & Euler Product of $\zeta(s)$

The **Riemann zeta function** or simply the **zeta function** $\zeta(s)$ is defined as an L -series:

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n^s}.$$

This is the prototypical example of a Dirichlet series as all the coefficients are 1. We will see that $\zeta(s)$ is a Selberg class L -function. As the coefficients are trivially polynomially bounded, $\zeta(s)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1$. Also note that $\zeta(s)$ is necessarily nonzero in this region. Determining the Euler product is also an easy matter. As the coefficients are obviously completely multiplicative, we have the degree 1 Euler product

$$\zeta(s) = \prod_p (1 - p^{-s})^{-1},$$

in this region as well. The local factor at p is $\zeta_p(s) = (1 - p^{-s})^{-1}$ with local root 1.

The Integral Representation of $\zeta(s)$: Part I

Riemann's ingenious insight was to analytically continue $\zeta(s)$. By this, he sought to find a representation of $\zeta(s)$ defined on a larger region than $\sigma > 1$. This is the approach we will take, and the argument follows the same line of reasoning as that of Riemann. We consider the gamma function $\Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right)$:

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} x^{\frac{s}{2}-1} \frac{dx}{x}.$$

Remark 7.1.1. *We have chosen to express the gamma function in terms of the measure $\frac{dx}{x}$ instead of dx . This is a tactical change for two reasons. The first is that $\frac{dx}{x}$ is invariant under the change of variables $x \rightarrow Cx$ for any constant C . The second is that under the change of variables $x \rightarrow \frac{1}{x}$ we have $\frac{dx}{x} \rightarrow -\frac{dx}{x}$ but the bounds of integration are also flipped. So we may leave the measure invariant provided we don't*

flip the bounds of integration. These types of change of variables are essential in the study of L -functions which motivates the use of this measure.

Performing the change of variables $x \rightarrow \pi n^2 x$ for fixed $n \geq 1$ yields

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) = \pi^{\frac{s}{2}} n^s \int_0^\infty e^{-\pi n^2 x} x^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x}. \quad (7.1)$$

Let $\sigma > 1$. Dividing by $\pi^{\frac{s}{2}} n^s$ and summing over $n \geq 1$, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \pi^{-\frac{s}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \zeta(s) &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \int_0^\infty e^{-\pi n^2 x} x^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= \int_0^\infty \sum_{n \geq 1} e^{-\pi n^2 x} x^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} && \text{DCT} \\ &= \int_0^\infty \omega(x) x^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x}, \end{aligned}$$

where we set

$$\omega(x) = \sum_{n \geq 1} e^{-\pi n^2 x}.$$

Therefore we have an integral representation

$$\zeta(s) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{s}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right)} \int_0^\infty \omega(x) x^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x}. \quad (7.2)$$

This was essentially Riemann's insight: rewrite the Riemann zeta function in terms of a Mellin transform. Unfortunately, we cannot proceed until we understand $\omega(x)$. So we will make a slight detour and come back to the integral representation after.

Jacobi's Theta Function $\vartheta(s)$

Jacobi's theta function $\vartheta(s)$ is defined for $\sigma > 0$ by

$$\vartheta(s) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-\pi n^2 s} = 1 + 2 \sum_{n \geq 1} e^{-\pi n^2 s}.$$

It is locally absolutely uniformly convergent in this region by the ratio test. It's relation to $\omega(s)$ is the identity

$$\omega(s) = \frac{\vartheta(s) - 1}{2}. \quad (7.3)$$

The essential fact about Jacobi's theta function we will need is the **functional equation for Jacobi's theta function** that was known to Riemann:

Theorem 7.1.1 (Functional equation for Jacobi's theta function). *For $\sigma > 0$,*

$$\vartheta(s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{s}} \vartheta\left(\frac{1}{s}\right).$$

Proof. By the identity theorem it suffices to prove this on a set containing a limit point. We will prove this on the right-half of the real line, so take s real with $s > 0$. Set $f(x) = e^{-\pi x^2 s}$. Then $f(x)$ is a Schwarz function. We compute its Fourier transform:

$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-2\pi i t x} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2 s} e^{-2\pi i t x} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi(x^2 s + 2itx)} dx.$$

Making the change of variables $x \rightarrow \frac{x}{\sqrt{s}}$, the last integral above becomes

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{s}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi\left(x^2 + \frac{2itx}{\sqrt{s}}\right)} dx.$$

Complete the square in the exponent by noticing

$$-\pi\left(x^2 + \frac{2itx}{\sqrt{s}}\right) = -\pi\left(\left(x + \frac{it}{\sqrt{s}}\right)^2 + \frac{t^2}{s}\right).$$

Taking exponentials, this implies that the previous integral is equal to

$$\frac{e^{-\frac{\pi t^2}{s}}}{\sqrt{s}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi\left(x + \frac{it}{\sqrt{s}}\right)^2} dx.$$

The change of variables $x \rightarrow \frac{x}{\sqrt{s}} - \frac{it}{\sqrt{s}}$ is permitted without affecting the line of integration by viewing the integral as a complex integral, noting that the integrand is entire as a complex function, and shifting the line of integration. This gives

$$\frac{e^{-\frac{\pi t^2}{s}}}{\sqrt{s}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi\left(x + \frac{it}{\sqrt{s}}\right)^2} dx = \frac{e^{-\frac{\pi t^2}{s}}}{\sqrt{s}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} dx = \frac{e^{-\frac{\pi t^2}{s}}}{\sqrt{s}},$$

where the last equality follows because the last integral above is 1 since it is the Gaussian integral (see Appendix D.1). The Poisson summation formula and the identity theorem together finish the proof. \square

This completes our interest in Jacobi's theta function.

The Integral Representation of $\zeta(s)$: Part II

Returning to the Riemann zeta function, we split the integral in Equation (7.2) into two pieces

$$\int_0^{\infty} \omega(x) x^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} = \int_0^1 \omega(x) x^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_1^{\infty} \omega(x) x^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x}. \quad (7.4)$$

Since $\omega(x)$ has exponential decay, the second piece is locally absolutely uniformly bounded for $\sigma > 1$ by Method 1.5.1. Hence it is analytic there. The idea now is to rewrite the first piece in the same form and symmetrize the result as much as possible. We begin by performing a change of variables $x \rightarrow \frac{1}{x}$ to the first piece to obtain

$$\int_1^{\infty} \omega\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) x^{-\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x}$$

Now the functional equation for Jacobi's theta function $\vartheta(x)$ and Equation (7.3) together imply

$$\omega\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = \frac{\vartheta\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) - 1}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{x}\vartheta(x) - 1}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{x}(2\omega(x) + 1) - 1}{2} = \sqrt{x}\omega(x) + \frac{\sqrt{x}}{2} - \frac{1}{2}. \quad (7.5)$$

Equation (7.5) gives the first equality in the following chain:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_1^\infty \omega\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) x^{-\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} &= \int_1^\infty \left(\sqrt{x} \omega(x) + \frac{\sqrt{x}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) x^{-\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} \\
 &= \int_1^\infty \omega(x) x^{\frac{1-s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_1^\infty \frac{x^{\frac{1-s}{2}}}{2} \frac{dx}{x} - \int_1^\infty \frac{x^{-\frac{s}{2}}}{2} \frac{dx}{x} \\
 &= \int_1^\infty \omega(x) x^{\frac{1-s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} + \frac{1}{1-s} - \frac{1}{s} \\
 &= \int_1^\infty \omega(x) x^{\frac{1-s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} - \frac{1}{s(1-s)}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Substituting this result back into Equation (7.4) with Equation (7.2) yields the integral representation

$$\zeta(s) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{s}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right)} \left[-\frac{1}{s(1-s)} + \int_1^\infty \omega(x) x^{\frac{1-s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_1^\infty \omega(x) x^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} \right].$$

This integral representation will give analytic continuation. To see this, first observe that everything outside the brackets is entire. Moreover, the two integrals are locally absolutely uniformly bounded on \mathbb{C} by Method 1.5.1. The fractional term is holomorphic except for simple poles at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$. The meromorphic continuation to \mathbb{C} follows with possible simple poles at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$. There is no pole at $s = 0$. Indeed, $\gamma(s, \zeta)$ has a simple pole coming from the gamma factor there and so its reciprocal has a simple zero. This cancels the corresponding simple pole of $\frac{1}{s(1-s)}$ so that $\zeta(s)$ has a removable singularity and thus is holomorphic at $s = 0$. At $s = 1$, $\gamma(s, \zeta)$ is nonzero, and so $\zeta(s)$ has a simple pole. Therefore $\zeta(s)$ has meromorphic continuation to all of \mathbb{C} with a simple pole at $s = 1$.

The Functional Equation, Critical Strip & Residue of $\zeta(s)$

An immediate consequence of applying the symmetry $s \rightarrow 1 - s$ to the integral representation is the following functional equation:

$$\frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right)}{\pi^{\frac{s}{2}}} \zeta(s) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{1-s}{2}\right)}{\pi^{\frac{1-s}{2}}} \zeta(1-s).$$

We identify the gamma factor as

$$\gamma(s, \zeta) = \pi^{-\frac{s}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right),$$

with $\kappa = 0$ the only local root at infinity. Clearly it satisfies the required bounds. The conductor is $q(\zeta) = 1$ so no primes ramify. The completed zeta function is

$$\Lambda(s, \zeta) = \pi^{-\frac{s}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \zeta(s),$$

with functional equation

$$\Lambda(s, \zeta) = \Lambda(1-s, \zeta).$$

This is the functional equation of $\zeta(s)$ and in this case is just a reformulation of the previous functional equation. From it we find that the root number is $\varepsilon(\zeta) = 1$ and that $\zeta(s)$ is self-dual. We can now show that the order of $\zeta(s)$ is 1. As there is only a simple pole at $s = 1$, multiply by $(s - 1)$ to clear the polar divisor. As the integrals in the integral representation are locally absolutely uniformly bounded, computing

the order amounts to estimating the gamma factor. Since the reciprocal of the gamma function is of order 1, we have

$$\frac{1}{\gamma(s, \zeta)} \ll_{\varepsilon} e^{|s|^{1+\varepsilon}}.$$

Thus the reciprocal of the gamma factor is also of order 1. It follows that

$$(s-1)\zeta(s) \ll_{\varepsilon} e^{|s|^{1+\varepsilon}}.$$

This shows $(s-1)\zeta(s)$ is of order 1, and thus $\zeta(s)$ is as well after removing the polar divisor. We now compute the residue of $\zeta(s)$ at $s=1$:

Proposition 7.1.1.

$$\operatorname{Res}_{s=1} \zeta(s) = 1.$$

Proof. The only term in the integral representation of $\zeta(s)$ contributing to the pole is $-\frac{\pi^{\frac{s}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{s}{2})} \frac{1}{s(1-s)}$. Observe

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 1} \frac{\pi^{\frac{s}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{s}{2})} = 1,$$

because $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{\pi}$. Therefore

$$\operatorname{Res}_{s=1} \zeta(s) = \operatorname{Res}_{s=1} -\frac{\pi^{\frac{s}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{s}{2})} \frac{1}{s(1-s)} = \operatorname{Res}_{s=1} -\frac{1}{s(1-s)} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 1} -\frac{(s-1)}{s(1-s)} = 1. \quad \square$$

We summarize all of our work into the following theorem:

Theorem 7.1.2. $\zeta(s)$ is a Selberg class L -function. For $\sigma > 1$, it has a locally absolutely uniformly convergent degree 1 Euler product given by

$$\zeta(s) = \prod_p (1 - p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

Moreover, it admits meromorphic continuation to \mathbb{C} via the integral representation

$$\zeta(s) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{s}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{s}{2})} \left[-\frac{1}{s(1-s)} + \int_1^{\infty} \omega(x) x^{\frac{1-s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_1^{\infty} \omega(x) x^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} \right],$$

with functional equation

$$\pi^{-\frac{s}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \zeta(s) = \Lambda(s, \zeta) = \Lambda(1-s, \zeta),$$

and there is a simple pole at $s=1$ of residue 1.

Lastly, we note that by virtue of the functional equation we can also compute $\zeta(0)$. Indeed, since $\operatorname{Res}_{s=1} \zeta(s) = 1$, we have

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 1} (s-1) \Lambda(s, \zeta) = \operatorname{Res}_{s=1} \zeta(s) \lim_{s \rightarrow 1} \pi^{-\frac{s}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) = 1.$$

In other words, $\Lambda(s, \zeta)$ has a simple pole at $s=1$ with residue 1 too. Since the completed zeta function is completely symmetric as $s \rightarrow 1-s$, it has a simple pole at $s=0$ with residue 1. Hence

$$1 = \lim_{s \rightarrow 1} (s-1) \Lambda(1-s, \zeta) = \operatorname{Res}_{s=1} \Gamma\left(\frac{1-s}{2}\right) \lim_{s \rightarrow 1} \pi^{-\frac{1-s}{2}} \zeta(1-s) = -2\zeta(0),$$

because $\operatorname{Res}_{s=0} \Gamma(s) = 1$. Therefore $\zeta(0) = -\frac{1}{2}$.

7.2 Dirichlet L -functions

The Definition & Euler Product of $L(s, \chi)$

To every Dirichlet character χ there is an associated L -function. Throughout we will let m denote the modulus and q the conductor of χ respectively. The **Dirichlet L -function** $L(s, \chi)$ attached to the Dirichlet character χ is defined as an L -series:

$$L(s, \chi) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{\chi(n)}{n^s}.$$

Since $\chi(n) = 0$ if $(n, m) > 1$, the above sum can be restricted to all positive integers relatively prime to m . We will see that $L(s, \chi)$ is a Selberg class L -function if χ is primitive and of conductor $q > 1$ (in the case $q = 1$, $L(s, \chi) = \zeta(s)$). From now we make this assumption about χ . As $|\chi(n)| \ll 1$, $L(s, \chi)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1$. Because χ is completely multiplicative we also have the degree 1 Euler product,

$$L(s, \chi) = \prod_p (1 - \chi(p)p^{-s})^{-1} = \prod_{p \nmid m} (1 - \chi(p)p^{-s})^{-1},$$

in this region as well. The last equality holds because if $p \mid m$ we have $\chi(p) = 0$. So for $p \mid m$, the local factor at p is $L_p(s, \chi) = 1$ with local root 0. For $p \nmid m$ the local factor at p is $L_p(s, \chi) = (1 - \chi(p)p^{-s})^{-1}$ with local root $\chi(p)$.

The Integral Representation of $L(s, \chi)$: Part I

The integral representation for $L(s, \chi)$ is deduced in a similar way as for $\zeta(s)$. However, it will depend on if χ is even or odd. To handle both cases simultaneously let $\mathfrak{a} = 0, 1$ according to whether χ is even or odd. In other words,

$$\mathfrak{a} = \frac{\chi(1) - \chi(-1)}{2}.$$

We also have $\chi(-1) = (-1)^\mathfrak{a}$. Note that \mathfrak{a} takes the same value for both χ and $\bar{\chi}$. Making the substitution $s \rightarrow s + \mathfrak{a}$ in Equation (7.1) and multiplying by $\chi(n)$ yields

$$\chi(n)\Gamma\left(\frac{s + \mathfrak{a}}{2}\right) = \pi^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} n^s \int_0^\infty \chi(n)n^\mathfrak{a} e^{-\pi n^2 x} x^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} \frac{dx}{x},$$

after moving the $n^\mathfrak{a}$ on the inside of the integral. Let $\sigma > 1$. Dividing by $\pi^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} n^s$ and summing over $n \geq 1$, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \pi^{-\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s + \mathfrak{a}}{2}\right) L(s, \chi) &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \int_0^\infty \chi(n)n^\mathfrak{a} e^{-\pi n^2 x} x^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= \int_0^\infty \sum_{n \geq 1} \chi(n)n^\mathfrak{a} e^{-\pi n^2 x} x^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} && \text{DCT} \\ &= \int_0^\infty \omega_\chi(x) x^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} \frac{dx}{x}, \end{aligned}$$

where we set

$$\omega_\chi(x) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \chi(n)n^\mathfrak{a} e^{-\pi n^2 x}.$$

Therefore we have an integral representation

$$L(s, \chi) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{s+a}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{s+a}{2}\right)} \int_0^\infty \omega_\chi(x) x^{\frac{s+a}{2}} \frac{dx}{x}, \quad (7.6)$$

and just like $\zeta(s)$ we need to find a functional equation for $\omega_\chi(x)$ before we can proceed.

Dirichlet's Theta Function $\vartheta_\chi(s)$

Dirichlet's theta function $\vartheta_\chi(s)$ attached to the character χ , is defined for $\sigma > 0$ by

$$\vartheta_\chi(s) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \chi(n) n^a e^{-\pi n^2 s} = 2 \sum_{n \geq 1} \chi(n) n^a e^{-\pi n^2 s}.$$

It is locally absolutely uniformly convergent in this region by the ratio test. Notice that the term corresponding to $n = 0$ vanishes because $\chi(0) = 0$, and $\chi(n)n^a = \chi(-n)(-n)^a$ so that the n and $-n$ terms agree. Therefore the relationship between the twisted theta function and $\omega_\chi(s)$ is

$$\omega_\chi(s) = \frac{\vartheta_\chi(s)}{2}. \quad (7.7)$$

Remark 7.2.1. Equation (7.7) is a slightly less complex relationship than Equation (7.3). This is because assuming $q > 1$ means $\chi(0) = 0$.

The essential fact we will need is the **functional equation for Dirichlet's theta function**:

Theorem 7.2.1 (Functional equation for Dirichlet's theta function). Let χ be a primitive Dirichlet character of conductor $q > 1$. For $\sigma > 0$,

$$\vartheta_\chi(s) = \frac{\varepsilon_\chi}{i^a (qs)^{\frac{1}{2}+a}} \vartheta_{\bar{\chi}}\left(\frac{1}{q^2 s}\right).$$

Proof. By the identity theorem it suffices to prove this on a set containing a limit point. We will prove this on the right-half of the real line, so take s real with $s > 0$. Since χ is q -periodic, we can write

$$\vartheta_\chi(s) = \sum_{a \pmod{q}} \chi(a) \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} (mq + a)^a e^{-\pi(mq+a)^2 s}.$$

Set $f(x) = (xq + a)^a e^{-\pi(xq+a)^2 s}$. Then $f(x)$ is a Schwarz function. We compute its Fourier transform:

$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-2\pi i t x} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (xq + a)^a e^{-\pi(xq+a)^2 s} e^{-2\pi i t x} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (xq + a)^a e^{-\pi((xq+a)^2 s + 2itx)} dx.$$

By performing the change of variables $x \rightarrow \frac{x}{q\sqrt{s}} - \frac{a}{q}$, the last integral above becomes

$$\frac{e^{\frac{2\pi i a t}{q}}}{qs^{\frac{1+a}{2}}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^a e^{-\pi\left(x^2 + \frac{2itx}{q\sqrt{s}}\right)} dx.$$

Complete the square in the exponent by observing

$$-\pi\left(x^2 + \frac{2itx}{q\sqrt{s}}\right) = -\pi\left(\left(x + \frac{it}{q\sqrt{s}}\right)^2 + \frac{t^2}{q^2 s}\right).$$

Taking exponentials, this implies that the previous integral is equal to

$$\frac{e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}}}{qs^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{\alpha} e^{-\pi \left(x + \frac{it}{q\sqrt{s}}\right)^2} dx.$$

The change of variables $x \rightarrow x - \frac{it}{q\sqrt{s}}$ is permitted without affecting the line of integration by viewing the integral as a complex integral, noting that the integrand is entire as a complex function, and shifting the line of integration. This gives

$$\frac{e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}}}{qs^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(x - \frac{it}{q\sqrt{s}}\right)^{\alpha} e^{-\pi x^2} dx = \frac{e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}}}{qs^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(x + \frac{t}{iq\sqrt{s}}\right)^{\alpha} e^{-\pi x^2} dx.$$

If $\alpha = 0$, we obtain

$$\frac{e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}}}{qs^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} dx = \frac{e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}}}{qs^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}}, \quad (7.8)$$

where the equality holds because the integral is 1 since it is the Gaussian integral (see Appendix D.1). If $\alpha = 1$, then by direct computation

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x e^{-\pi x^2} dx = -\frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\pi x^2} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} = 0,$$

and thus

$$\frac{e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}}}{qs^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{t}{iq\sqrt{s}}\right) e^{-\pi x^2} dx = \frac{e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}}}{qs^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}} \left(\frac{t}{iq\sqrt{s}}\right) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} dx = \frac{e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}}}{qs^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}} \left(\frac{t}{iq\sqrt{s}}\right), \quad (7.9)$$

where the last equality follows because the last integral is the Gaussian integral again. Since $\left(\frac{t}{iq\sqrt{s}}\right)^{\alpha} = 1$ if $\alpha = 0$, we can compactly express the right-hand sides of Equations (7.8) and (7.9) in the form

$$\frac{e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}}}{qs^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}} \left(\frac{t}{iq\sqrt{s}}\right)^{\alpha}.$$

The Poisson summation formula then implies

$$\begin{aligned} \vartheta_{\chi}(s) &= \sum_{a \pmod{q}} \chi(a) \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}}}{qs^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}} \left(\frac{t}{iq\sqrt{s}}\right)^{\alpha} \\ &= \frac{1}{i^{\alpha} q^{1+\alpha} s^{\frac{1}{2}+\alpha}} \sum_{a \pmod{q}} \chi(a) \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} t^{\alpha} e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q} - \frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}} \\ &= \frac{1}{i^{\alpha} q^{1+\alpha} s^{\frac{1}{2}+\alpha}} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} t^{\alpha} e^{-\frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}} \sum_{a \pmod{q}} \chi(a) e^{\frac{2\pi iat}{q}} \\ &= \frac{1}{i^{\alpha} q^{1+\alpha} s^{\frac{1}{2}+\alpha}} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} t^{\alpha} e^{-\frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}} \tau(t, \chi) \end{aligned} \quad \text{definition of } \tau(t, \chi),$$

and this holds for all $\sigma > 0$ by the identity theorem. Since χ is primitive, $\tau(t, \chi) = \bar{\chi}(t)\tau(\chi)$ for all $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ by Corollary 1.4.1. Therefore we have

$$\frac{1}{i^a q^{1+a} s^{\frac{1}{2}+a}} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} t^a e^{-\frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}} \tau(t, \chi) = \frac{\tau(\chi)}{i^a q^{1+a} s^{\frac{1}{2}+a}} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \bar{\chi}(t) t^a e^{-\frac{\pi t^2}{q^2 s}} = \frac{\tau(\chi)}{i^a q^{1+a} s^{\frac{1}{2}+a}} \vartheta_{\bar{\chi}} \left(\frac{1}{q^2 s} \right).$$

Recalling that $\varepsilon_\chi = \frac{\tau(\chi)}{\sqrt{q}}$, we conclude

$$\vartheta_\chi(s) = \frac{\varepsilon_\chi}{i^a (qs)^{\frac{1}{2}+a}} \vartheta_{\bar{\chi}} \left(\frac{1}{q^2 s} \right).$$

□

The most striking property about this functional equation is that it relates $\vartheta_\chi(s)$ and $\vartheta_{\bar{\chi}}(s)$. Regardless, we can now exploit it to analytically continue $L(s, \chi)$.

The Integral Representation of $L(s, \chi)$: Part II

Returning to $L(s, \chi)$, split the integral in Equation (7.6) into two pieces

$$\int_0^\infty \omega_\chi(x) x^{\frac{s+a}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} = \int_0^{\frac{1}{q}} \omega_\chi(x) x^{\frac{s+a}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_{\frac{1}{q}}^\infty \omega_\chi(x) x^{\frac{s+a}{2}} \frac{dx}{x}. \quad (7.10)$$

Since $\omega_\chi(x)$ has exponential decay, the second piece is locally absolutely uniformly bounded for $\sigma > 1$ by Method 1.5.1. Hence it is an analytic function. We now rewrite the first piece in the same form and symmetrize the result as much as possible. Start by performing a change of variables $x \rightarrow \frac{1}{q^2 x}$ to the first piece to obtain

$$q^{-(s+a)} \int_{\frac{1}{q}}^\infty \omega_\chi \left(\frac{1}{q^2 x} \right) x^{-\frac{s+a}{2}} \frac{dx}{x}.$$

Now the functional equation for Dirichlet's theta function $\vartheta_\chi(x)$ and Equation (7.7) together imply

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_\chi \left(\frac{1}{q^2 x} \right) &= \frac{\vartheta_\chi \left(\frac{1}{q^2 x} \right)}{2} \\ &= \frac{i^a (qx)^{\frac{1}{2}+a} \vartheta_{\bar{\chi}}(x)}{\varepsilon_{\bar{\chi}} 2} \\ &= \varepsilon_\chi (-i)^a (qx)^{\frac{1}{2}+a} \frac{\vartheta_{\bar{\chi}}(x)}{2} \quad \text{Proposition 1.4.3 and } \chi(-1) = (-1)^a \\ &= \frac{\varepsilon_\chi (qx)^{\frac{1}{2}+a} \vartheta_{\bar{\chi}}(x)}{i^a 2} \\ &= \frac{\varepsilon_\chi (qx)^{\frac{1}{2}+a}}{i^a} \omega_{\bar{\chi}}(x). \end{aligned} \quad (7.11)$$

Equation (7.11) gives the first equality in the following chain:

$$\begin{aligned} q^{-(s+a)} \int_{\frac{1}{q}}^\infty \omega_\chi \left(\frac{1}{q^2 x} \right) x^{-\frac{s+a}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} &= q^{-(s+a)} \int_{\frac{1}{q}}^\infty \left(\frac{\varepsilon_\chi (qx)^{\frac{1}{2}+a}}{i^a} \omega_{\bar{\chi}}(x) \right) x^{-\frac{s+a}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= \frac{\varepsilon_\chi}{i^a} q^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \int_{\frac{1}{q}}^\infty \omega_{\bar{\chi}}(x) x^{\frac{(1-s)+a}{2}} \frac{dx}{x}. \end{aligned}$$

Substituting this last expression back into Equation (7.10) with Equation (7.6) gives the integral representation

$$L(s, \chi) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}\right)} \left[\frac{\varepsilon_\chi}{i^\mathfrak{a}} q^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \int_{\frac{1}{q}}^{\infty} \omega_{\bar{\chi}}(x) x^{\frac{(1-s)+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_{\frac{1}{q}}^{\infty} \omega_\chi(x) x^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} \right].$$

This integral representation will give analytic continuation. Indeed, we know everything outside the brackets is entire. The two integrals are locally absolutely uniformly bounded on \mathbb{C} by Method 1.5.1. This gives analytic continuation to all of \mathbb{C} . In particular, $L(s, \chi)$ has no poles.

The Functional Equation & Critical Strip of $L(s, \chi)$

An immediate consequence of applying the symmetry $s \rightarrow 1-s$ to the integral representation is the following functional equation:

$$q^{\frac{s}{2}} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}\right)}{\pi^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}}} L(s, \chi) = \frac{\varepsilon_\chi}{i^\mathfrak{a}} q^{\frac{1-s}{2}} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{(1-s)+\mathfrak{a}}{2}\right)}{\pi^{\frac{(1-s)+\mathfrak{a}}{2}}} L(1-s, \bar{\chi}).$$

We identify the gamma factor as

$$\gamma(s, \chi) = \pi^{-\frac{s}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}\right),$$

with $\kappa = \mathfrak{a}$ the only local root at infinity. Clearly it satisfies the required bounds. The conductor is $q(\chi) = q$ and if p is an unramified prime then the local root is $\chi(p) \neq 0$. The completed L -function is

$$\Lambda(s, \chi) = q^{\frac{s}{2}} \pi^{-\frac{s}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}\right) L(s, \chi),$$

with functional equation

$$\Lambda(s, \chi) = \frac{\varepsilon_\chi}{i^\mathfrak{a}} \Lambda(1-s, \bar{\chi}).$$

From it we see that the root number is $\varepsilon(\chi) = \frac{\varepsilon_\chi}{i^\mathfrak{a}}$ and that $L(s, \chi)$ has dual $L(s, \bar{\chi})$. We now show that $L(s, \chi)$ is of order 1. Since $L(s, \chi)$ has no poles, we do not need to clear any polar divisors. As the integrals in the integral representation are locally absolutely uniformly bounded, computing the order amounts to estimating the gamma factor. Since the reciprocal of the gamma function is of order 1, we have

$$\frac{1}{\gamma(s, \chi)} \ll_\varepsilon e^{|s|^{1+\varepsilon}}.$$

So the reciprocal of the gamma factor is also of order 1. It follows that

$$L(s, \chi) \ll_\varepsilon e^{|s|^{1+\varepsilon}}.$$

So $L(s, \chi)$ is of order 1. We summarize all of our work into the following theorem:

Theorem 7.2.2. *For any primitive Dirichlet character χ of conductor $q > 1$, $L(s, \chi)$ is a Selberg class L -function. For $\sigma > 1$, it has a locally absolutely uniformly convergent degree 1 Euler product given by*

$$L(s, \chi) = \prod_p (1 - \chi(p)p^{-s})^{-1} = \prod_{p \nmid q} (1 - \chi(p)p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

Moreover, it admits analytic continuation to \mathbb{C} via the integral representation

$$L(s, \chi) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}\right)} \left[\frac{\varepsilon_\chi}{i^{\mathfrak{a}}} q^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \int_{\frac{1}{q}}^{\infty} \omega_{\bar{\chi}}(x) x^{\frac{(1-s)+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_{\frac{1}{q}}^{\infty} \omega_\chi(x) x^{\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}} \frac{dx}{x} \right],$$

and possesses the functional equation

$$q^{\frac{s}{2}} \pi^{-\frac{s}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}}{2}\right) L(s, \chi) = \Lambda(s, \chi) = \frac{\varepsilon_\chi}{i^{\mathfrak{a}}} \Lambda(1-s, \bar{\chi}).$$

Beyond Primitivity of $L(s, \chi)$

We can still obtain meromorphic continuation of $L(s, \chi)$ if χ is not primitive. Indeed, if χ is induced by $\tilde{\chi}$, then $\chi(p) = \tilde{\chi}(p)$ if $p \nmid q$ and $\chi(p) = 0$ if $p \mid m$ so that

$$L(s, \chi) = \prod_{p \nmid m} (1 - \tilde{\chi}(p)p^{-s})^{-1} = \prod_p (1 - \tilde{\chi}(p)p^{-s})^{-1} \prod_{p \mid m} (1 - \tilde{\chi}(p)p^{-s}) = L(s, \tilde{\chi}) \prod_{p \mid m} (1 - \tilde{\chi}(p)p^{-s}). \quad (7.12)$$

From this relation, we can prove the following:

Theorem 7.2.3. *For any Dirichlet character χ modulo m of conductor $q > 1$, $L(s, \chi)$ admits meromorphic continuation to \mathbb{C} and if χ is principal there is a simple pole at $s = 1$ of residue $\prod_{p \mid m} (1 - \tilde{\chi}(p)p^{-1})$ where $\tilde{\chi}$ is the primitive character inducing χ .*

Proof. This follows from Theorems 7.1.2 and 7.2.2 and Equation (7.12). □

7.3 Hecke L -functions

The Definition & Euler Product of $L(s, f)$

We will investigate the L -functions of holomorphic cusp forms. Let $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$ and denote its Fourier series by

$$f(z) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) n^{\frac{k-1}{2}} e^{2\pi i n z}.$$

The **Hecke L -function** $L(s, f)$ of f is defined as an L -series:

$$L(s, f) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^s}.$$

We will see that $L(s, f)$ is a Selberg class L -function if f is a primitive Hecke eigenform. From now on, we make this assumption about f . By the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture, $a_f(n) \ll_\varepsilon n^\varepsilon$. So $L(s, f)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1 + \varepsilon$ and hence locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1$. The L -function will also have an Euler product. Indeed, the Hecke relations imply that the coefficients $a_f(n)$ are multiplicative and satisfy

$$a_f(p^n) = \begin{cases} a_f(p^{n-1})a_f(p) - \chi(p)a_f(p^{n-2}) & \text{if } p \nmid N, \\ (a_f(p))^n & \text{if } p \mid N, \end{cases} \quad (7.13)$$

for all primes p and $n \geq 2$. Because $L(s, f)$ converges absolutely in the region $\sigma > 1$, multiplicativity of the Hecke eigenvalues implies

$$L(s, f) = \prod_p \left(\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_f(p^n)}{p^{ns}} \right),$$

in this region. We now simplify the factor inside the product using this Equation (7.13). On the one hand, if $p \nmid N$:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_f(p^n)}{p^{ns}} &= 1 + \frac{a_f(p)}{p^s} + \sum_{n \geq 2} \frac{a_f(p^n)}{p^{ns}} \\ &= 1 + \frac{a_f(p)}{p^s} + \sum_{n \geq 2} \frac{a_f(p^{n-1})a_f(p) - \chi(p)a_f(p^{n-2})}{p^{ns}} \\ &= 1 + \frac{a_f(p)}{p^s} + \frac{a_f(p)}{p^s} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(p^n)}{p^{ns}} - \frac{\chi(p)}{p^{2s}} \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_f(p^n)}{p^{ns}} \\ &= 1 + \left(\frac{a_f(p)}{p^s} - \frac{\chi(p)}{p^{2s}} \right) \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_f(p^n)}{p^{ns}}. \end{aligned}$$

By isolating the sum we find

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_f(p^n)}{p^{ns}} = \left(1 - \frac{a_f(p)}{p^s} + \frac{\chi(p)}{p^{2s}} \right)^{-1}.$$

On the other hand, if $p \mid N$ we have

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_f(p^n)}{p^{ns}} = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{(a_f(p))^n}{p^{ns}} = (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

Therefore

$$L(s, f) = \prod_{p \nmid N} (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s} + \chi(p)p^{-2s})^{-1} \prod_{p \mid N} (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

If $p \nmid N$, let $\alpha_1(p)$ and $\alpha_2(p)$ be the roots of $1 - a_f(p)p^{-s} + \chi(p)p^{-2s}$. That is,

$$(1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})(1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s}) = (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s} + \chi(p)p^{-2s}).$$

If $p \mid N$, let $\alpha_1(p) = a_f(p)$ and $\alpha_2(p) = 0$. We can then express $L(s, f)$ as a degree 2 Euler product:

$$L(s, f) = \prod_p (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})^{-1} (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

The local factor at p is $L_p(s, f) = (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})^{-1} (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s})^{-1}$ with local roots $\alpha_1(p)$ and $\alpha_2(p)$. Upon applying partial fraction decomposition to the local factor, we find

$$\frac{1}{1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s}} \frac{1}{1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s}} = \frac{\frac{\alpha_1(p)}{\alpha_1(p) - \alpha_2(p)}}{1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s}} + \frac{\frac{-\alpha_2(p)}{\alpha_1(p) - \alpha_2(p)}}{1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s}}.$$

Expanding both sides as series in p^{-s} , and comparing coefficients gives

$$a_f(p^n) = \frac{\alpha_1(p)^{n+1} - \alpha_2(p)^{n+1}}{\alpha_1(p) - \alpha_2(p)}. \quad (7.14)$$

The Integral Representation of $L(s, f)$

We now want to find an integral representation for $L(s, f)$. Consider the following Mellin transform:

$$\int_0^\infty f(iy)y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y}.$$

We don't yet know that this integral defines an analytic function for $\sigma > 1$. In any case, we compute

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty f(iy)y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} &= \int_0^\infty \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) n^{\frac{k-1}{2}} e^{-2\pi ny} y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) n^{\frac{k-1}{2}} \int_0^\infty e^{-2\pi ny} y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} && \text{DCT} \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{(2\pi)^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} n^s} \int_0^\infty e^{-y} y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} && y \rightarrow \frac{y}{2\pi n} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(s + \frac{k-1}{2})}{(2\pi)^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^s} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(s + \frac{k-1}{2})}{(2\pi)^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}} L(s, f). \end{aligned}$$

As this last expression is analytic function for $\sigma > 1$, the integral is too. Rewriting, we have an integral representation

$$L(s, f) = \frac{(2\pi)^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}}{\Gamma(s + \frac{k-1}{2})} \int_0^\infty f(iy)y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y}. \quad (7.15)$$

Now split the integral on the right-hand side into two pieces

$$\int_0^\infty f(iy)y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} = \int_0^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}} f(iy)y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} + \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^\infty f(iy)y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y}. \quad (7.16)$$

Since $f(iy)$ has exponential decay, the second piece is locally absolutely uniformly bounded for $\sigma > 1$ by Method 1.5.1. Hence it is an analytic there. Now we will rewrite the first piece in the same form and symmetrize the result as much as possible. Begin by performing the change of variables $y \rightarrow \frac{1}{Ny}$ to the first piece to obtain

$$\int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^\infty f\left(\frac{i}{Ny}\right) (Ny)^{-s-\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y}.$$

Rewriting in terms of the Atkin–Lehner involution and recalling that $\omega_N f = \omega_N(f) \bar{f}$ by Proposition 3.6.3, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^\infty f\left(\frac{i}{Ny}\right) (Ny)^{-s-\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} &= \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^\infty f\left(-\frac{1}{iNy}\right) (Ny)^{-s-\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^\infty \left(\sqrt{N}iy\right)^k (\omega_N f)(iy) (Ny)^{-s-\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^\infty \left(\sqrt{N}iy\right)^k \omega_N(f) \bar{f}(iy) (Ny)^{-s-\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= \omega_N(f) i^k N^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^\infty \bar{f}(iy) y^{(1-s)-\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y}. \end{aligned}$$

Substituting this result back into Equation (7.16) with Equation (7.15) yields the integral representation

$$L(s, f) = \frac{(2\pi)^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(s+\frac{k-1}{2}\right)} \left[\omega_N(f) i^k N^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} \bar{f}(iy) y^{(1-s)+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} + \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} f(iy) y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} \right].$$

This integral representation will give analytic continuation. To see this, we know everything outside the brackets is entire. The two integrals are locally absolutely uniformly bounded on \mathbb{C} by Method 1.5.1. Hence we have analytic continuation to all of \mathbb{C} . In particular, we have shown that $L(s, f)$ has no poles.

The Functional Equation & Critical Strip of $L(s, f)$

An immediate consequence of applying the symmetry $s \rightarrow 1-s$ to the integral representation is the following functional equation:

$$\frac{\Gamma\left(s+\frac{k-1}{2}\right)}{(2\pi)^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}} L(s, f) = \omega_N(f) i^k N^{-\frac{s}{2}} \frac{\Gamma\left((1-s)+\frac{k-1}{2}\right)}{(2\pi)^{(1-s)+\frac{k-1}{2}}} L(1-s, \bar{f}).$$

Using the Legendre duplication formula for the gamma function we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Gamma\left(s+\frac{k-1}{2}\right)}{(2\pi)^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}} &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} 2^{1-(s+\frac{k-1}{2})} \sqrt{\pi}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k+1}{2}}{2}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi^{s+\frac{1}{2}}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k+1}{2}}{2}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}} \pi^{-s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k+1}{2}}{2}\right). \end{aligned}$$

The constant factor in front is independent of s and so can be canceled in the functional equation. Therefore we identify the gamma factor as

$$\gamma(s, f) = \pi^{-s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k+1}{2}}{2}\right),$$

with $\kappa_1 = k-1$ and $\kappa_2 = k+1$ the local roots at infinity. The conductor is $q(f) = N$, so the primes dividing the level ramify, and by the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture, $\alpha_i(p) \neq 0$ for $i = 1, 2$ and all primes $p \nmid N$. The completed L -function is

$$\Lambda(s, f) = N^{-\frac{s}{2}} \pi^{-s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k+1}{2}}{2}\right) L(s, f),$$

with functional equation

$$\Lambda(s, f) = \omega_N(f) i^k \Lambda(1-s, \bar{f}).$$

This is the functional equation of $L(s, f)$. From it, the root number is $\varepsilon(f) = \omega_N(f) i^k$ and we see that $L(s, f)$ has dual $L(s, \bar{f})$. We will now show that $L(s, f)$ is of order 1. Since $L(s, f)$ has no poles, we do not need to clear any polar divisors. As the integrals in the representation is locally absolutely uniformly bounded, computing the order amounts to estimating the gamma factor. Since the reciprocal of the gamma function is of order 1, we have

$$\frac{1}{\gamma(s, f)} \ll_{\varepsilon} e^{|s|^{1+\varepsilon}}.$$

So the reciprocal of the gamma factor is also of order 1. Then

$$L(s, f) \ll_{\varepsilon} e^{|s|^{1+\varepsilon}}.$$

So $L(s, f)$ is of order 1. We summarize all of our work into the following theorem:

Theorem 7.3.1. *For any primitive Hecke eigenform $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(N, \chi)$, $L(s, f)$ is a Selberg class L -function. For $\sigma > 1$, it has a locally absolutely uniformly convergent degree 2 Euler product given by*

$$L(s, f) = \prod_{p \nmid N} (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s} + \chi(p)p^{-2s})^{-1} \prod_{p|N} (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s})^{-1} = \prod_p (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})^{-1} (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

Moreover, it admits analytic continuation to \mathbb{C} via the integral representation

$$L(s, f) = \frac{(2\pi)^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}}{\Gamma(s+\frac{k-1}{2})} \left[\omega_N(f) i^k N^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} \bar{f}(iy) y^{(1-s)+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} + \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} f(iy) y^{s+\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{dy}{y} \right],$$

and possesses the functional equation

$$N^{-\frac{s}{2}} \pi^{-s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k-1}{2}}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\frac{k+1}{2}}{2}\right) L(s, f) = \Lambda(s, f) = \omega_N(f) i^k \Lambda(1-s, \bar{f}).$$

Beyond Primitivity of $L(s, f)$

We can still obtain analytic continuation of $L(s, f)$ if f is not a primitive Hecke eigenform. Indeed, since the primitive Hecke eigenforms form a basis for the space of newforms, we can prove the following:

Theorem 7.3.2. *For any $f \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(N))$, $L(s, f)$ admits analytic continuation to \mathbb{C} .*

Proof. If f is a newform, this follows from Theorems 3.6.1 and 7.3.1. Now suppose f is an oldform. Then there is a divisor $d \mid N$ with $d > 1$ such that

$$f(z) = g(z) + d^{k-1} h(dz) = g(z) + \prod_{p^r \parallel d} (V_p^r h)(z),$$

for some $g, h \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(\frac{N}{d}))$. Note that $V_p h \in \mathcal{S}_k(\Gamma_1(\frac{Np}{d}))$ by Lemma 3.8.1. The claim now follows by induction on the level of f and that V_p clearly preserves primitive Hecke eigenforms. \square

7.4 Hecke-Maass L -functions

The Definition & Euler Product of $L(s, f)$

We will investigate the L -functions of Maass cusp forms. Let $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$ be even or odd and denote its Fourier series by

$$f(z) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) \sqrt{y} K_{it}(2\pi ny) \text{SC}(2\pi nx).$$

The **Hecke-Maass L -function** $L(s, f)$ of f is defined as an L -series:

$$L(s, f) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^s}.$$

We will see that $L(s, f)$ is a Selberg class L -function if f is a primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform. From now on, we make this assumption about f . In this case, the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture is not known so $L(s, f)$ has not been proven to be a Selberg class L -function. Although, it is conjectured to be, so throughout we will make this additional assumption. By the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture, $a_f(n) \ll_\varepsilon n^\varepsilon$. So $L(s, f)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1 + \varepsilon$ and hence locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1$. The L -function will have an Euler product. Indeed, the Hecke relations imply that the coefficients $a_f(n)$ are multiplicative and satisfy Equation (7.13). Mimicking the argument exactly as for Hecke L -functions,

$$L(s, f) = \prod_{p \nmid N} (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s} + \chi(p)p^{-2s})^{-1} \prod_{p \mid N} (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

If $p \nmid N$, let $\alpha_1(p)$ and $\alpha_2(p)$ be the roots of $1 - a_f(p)p^{-s} + \chi(p)p^{-2s}$. That is,

$$(1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})(1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s}) = (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s} + \chi(p)p^{-2s}).$$

If $p \mid N$, let $\alpha_1(p) = a_f(p)$ and $\alpha_2(p) = 0$. We can then express $L(s, f)$ as a degree 2 Euler product:

$$L(s, f) = \prod_p (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})^{-1} (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

The local factor at p is $L_p(s, f) = (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})^{-1} (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s})^{-1}$ with local roots $\alpha_1(p)$ and $\alpha_2(p)$. Moreover, just as in the case for Hecke L -functions, the formula Equation (7.14) also holds.

The Integral Representation of $L(s, f)$

We want to find an integral representation for $L(s, f)$. Recall that f is an eigenfunction for T_{-1} with eigenvalue ± 1 . Equivalently, f is even if the eigenvalue is 1 and odd if the eigenvalue is -1 . The integral representation will depend upon this parity. To handle both cases simultaneously, let $\mathfrak{a} = 0, 1$ according to whether f is even or odd. In other words,

$$\mathfrak{a} = \frac{1 - a_f(-1)}{2}.$$

Now consider the following Mellin transform:

$$\int_0^\infty \left(\frac{\partial^\mathfrak{a}}{\partial x} f \right) (iy) y^{s-\frac{1}{2}+\mathfrak{a}} \frac{dy}{y}.$$

The derivative operator is present because if f is odd, $\text{SC}(x) = \sin(x)$. In any case, the smoothness of f implies that we may differentiate its Fourier series termwise to obtain

$$\left(\frac{\partial^\mathfrak{a}}{\partial x} f \right) (z) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) (2\pi n)^\mathfrak{a} \sqrt{y} K_{it}(2\pi ny) \cos(2\pi nx).$$

Therefore regardless if f is even or odd, the Fourier series of $\left(\frac{\partial^\mathfrak{a}}{\partial x} f \right) (z)$ has $\text{SC}(x) = \cos(x)$ and the integral does not vanish identically. Similar to Hecke L -functions, we don't yet know that this integral defines an

analytic function for $\sigma > 1$. Nevertheless, we compute

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} f \right) (iy) y^{s-\frac{1}{2}+a} \frac{dy}{y} &= \int_0^\infty \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) (2\pi n)^a K_{it}(2\pi n y) y^{s+a} \frac{dy}{y} \\
 &= \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) (2\pi n)^a \int_0^\infty K_{it}(2\pi n y) y^{s+a} \frac{dy}{y} && \text{DCT} \\
 &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{(2\pi)^s n^s} \int_0^\infty K_{it}(y) y^{s+a} \frac{dy}{y} && y \rightarrow \frac{y}{2\pi n} \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{s+a+it}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+a-it}{2}\right)}{2^{2-a}\pi^s} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n)}{n^s} && \text{Appendix D.1} \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{s+a+it}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+a-it}{2}\right)}{2^{2-a}\pi^s} L(s, f).
 \end{aligned}$$

This last expression is analytic function for $\sigma > 1$ and so the integral is too. Rewriting, we have an integral representation

$$L(s, f) = \frac{2^{2-a}\pi^s}{\Gamma\left(\frac{s+a+it}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+a-it}{2}\right)} \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} f \right) (iy) y^{s-\frac{1}{2}+a} \frac{dy}{y}. \quad (7.17)$$

Now split the integral on the right-hand side into two pieces

$$\int_0^\infty \left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} f \right) (iy) y^{s-\frac{1}{2}+a} \frac{dy}{y} = \int_0^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}} \left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} f \right) (iy) y^{s-\frac{1}{2}+a} \frac{dy}{y} + \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^\infty \left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} f \right) (iy) y^{s-\frac{1}{2}+a} \frac{dy}{y}. \quad (7.18)$$

Since $\left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} f \right) (iy)$ has moderate decay as $y \rightarrow \infty$ because $f(iy)$ does, the second piece is locally absolutely uniformly bounded for $\sigma > 1$ by Method 1.5.1. Hence it is analytic there. Now we will rewrite the first piece in the same form and symmetrize the result as much as possible. Performing the change of variables $y \rightarrow \frac{1}{Ny}$ to the first piece to obtain

$$\int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^\infty \left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} f \right) \left(\frac{i}{Ny} \right) (Ny)^{-s+\frac{1}{2}-a} \frac{dy}{y}.$$

We will rewrite this in terms of the Atkin–Lehner involution. But first we require an identity that relates $\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x}$ with the Atkin–Lehner involution ω_N . By the identity theorem it suffices to verify this on a set containing a limit point. So let $z \in \mathbb{H}$ be such that $|z|$ is fixed. Observe that $-\frac{1}{Nz} = \frac{-x}{N|z|^2} + \frac{iy}{N|z|^2}$. Now differentiate termwise to see that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} \omega_N f \right) (z) &= \left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} \right) f \left(-\frac{1}{Nz} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} \right) \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) \sqrt{\frac{y}{N|z|^2}} K_{it}(2\pi n y) \text{SC} \left(-2\pi n \frac{x}{N|z|^2} \right) \\
 &= (-N|z|^2)^{-a} \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) (2\pi n)^a \sqrt{\frac{y}{N|z|^2}} K_{it} \left(2\pi n \frac{y}{N|z|^2} \right) \cos \left(-2\pi n \frac{x}{N|z|^2} \right) \\
 &= (-N|z|^2)^{-a} \left(\frac{\partial^a}{\partial x} f \right) \left(-\frac{1}{Nz} \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

So by the identity theorem,

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}^{\mathfrak{a}} f\right)\left(-\frac{1}{Nz}\right) = (-N|z|^2)^{\mathfrak{a}} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}^{\mathfrak{a}} \omega_N f\right)(z),$$

holds for all $z \in \mathbb{H}$. Rewriting in terms of the Atkin-Lehner involution and recalling that $\omega_N f = \omega_N(f)\bar{f}$ by Proposition 4.7.3, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}^{\mathfrak{a}} f\right)\left(\frac{i}{Ny}\right) (Ny)^{-s+\frac{1}{2}-\mathfrak{a}} \frac{dy}{y} &= \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}^{\mathfrak{a}} f\right)\left(-\frac{1}{iNy}\right) (Ny)^{-s+\frac{1}{2}-\mathfrak{a}} \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} (-Ny^2)^{\mathfrak{a}} \left(\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}^{\mathfrak{a}}\right) \omega_N f\right)(iy) (Ny)^{-s+\frac{1}{2}-\mathfrak{a}} \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} (-Ny^2)^{\mathfrak{a}} \omega_N(f) \left(\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}^{\mathfrak{a}}\right) \bar{f}\right)(iy) (Ny)^{-s+\frac{1}{2}-\mathfrak{a}} \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= w_N(f) (-1)^{\mathfrak{a}} N^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} \left(\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}^{\mathfrak{a}}\right) \bar{f}\right)(iy) y^{(1-s)-\frac{1}{2}+\mathfrak{a}} \frac{dy}{y}. \end{aligned}$$

Substituting this result back into Equation (7.18) with Equation (7.17) gives the integral representation

$$\begin{aligned} L(s, f) &= \frac{2^{2-\mathfrak{a}} \pi^s}{\Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}+it}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}-it}{2}\right)} \\ &\quad \cdot \left[w_N(f) (-1)^{\mathfrak{a}} N^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} \left(\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}^{\mathfrak{a}}\right) \bar{f}\right)(iy) y^{(1-s)-\frac{1}{2}+\mathfrak{a}} \frac{dy}{y} + \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}^{\mathfrak{a}} f\right)(iy) y^{s-\frac{1}{2}+\mathfrak{a}} \frac{dy}{y} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

This integral representation will give analytic continuation. Indeed, everything outside the brackets is entire and the two integrals are locally absolutely uniformly bounded on \mathbb{C} by Method 1.5.1. Hence we have analytic continuation to all of \mathbb{C} . In particular, $L(s, f)$ has no poles.

The Functional Equation & Critical Strip of $L(s, f)$

An immediate consequence of applying the symmetry $s \rightarrow 1-s$ to the integral representation is the following functional equation:

$$\frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}+it}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}-it}{2}\right)}{2^{2-\mathfrak{a}} \pi^s} L(s, f) = \omega_N(f) (-1)^{\mathfrak{a}} N^{-\frac{s}{2}} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{(1-s)+\mathfrak{a}+it}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{(1-s)+\mathfrak{a}-it}{2}\right)}{2^{2-\mathfrak{a}} \pi^{1-s}} L(1-s, \bar{f}).$$

The constant factor in the denominator is independent of s and so can be canceled in the functional equation. Therefore we identify the gamma factor as

$$\gamma(s, f) = \pi^{-s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}+it}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}-it}{2}\right),$$

with $\kappa_1 = \mathfrak{a} + it$ and $\kappa_2 = \mathfrak{a} - it$ the local roots at infinity. The conductor is $q(f) = N$, so the primes dividing the level ramify, and by the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture, $\alpha_i(p) \neq 0$ for $i = 1, 2$ and all primes $p \nmid N$. The completed L -function is

$$\Lambda(s, f) = N^{-\frac{s}{2}} \pi^{-s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}+it}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+\mathfrak{a}-it}{2}\right) L(s, f),$$

with functional equation

$$\Lambda(s, f) = \omega_N(f)(-1)^a \Lambda(1-s, \bar{f}).$$

This is the functional equation of $L(s, f)$. From it, the root number is $\varepsilon(f) = \omega_N(f)(-1)^a$ and we see that $L(s, f)$ has dual $L(s, \bar{f})$. We will now show that $L(s, f)$ is of order 1. Since $L(s, f)$ has no poles, we do not need to clear any polar divisors. As the integrals in the representation is locally absolutely uniformly bounded, computing the order amounts to estimating the gamma factor. Since the reciprocal of the gamma function is of order 1, we have

$$\frac{1}{\gamma(s, f)} \ll_{\varepsilon} e^{|s|^{1+\varepsilon}}.$$

So the reciprocal of the gamma factor is also of order 1. Then

$$L(s, f) \ll_{\varepsilon} e^{|s|^{1+\varepsilon}}.$$

So $L(s, f)$ is of order 1. We summarize all of our work into the following theorem:

Theorem 7.4.1. *For any even or odd primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(N, \chi)$, $L(s, f)$ is a Selberg class L -function provided the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture holds. For $\sigma > 1$, it has a locally absolutely uniformly convergent degree 2 Euler product given by*

$$L(s, f) = \prod_{p \nmid N} (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s} + \chi(p)p^{-2s})^{-1} \prod_{p|N} (1 - a_f(p)p^{-s})^{-1} = \prod_p (1 - \alpha_1(p)p^{-s})^{-1} (1 - \alpha_2(p)p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

Moreover, it admits analytic continuation to \mathbb{C} via the integral representation

$$L(s, f) = \frac{2^{2-a}\pi^s}{\Gamma\left(\frac{s+a+it}{2}\right)\Gamma\left(\frac{s+a-it}{2}\right)} \cdot \left[w_N(f)(-1)^a N^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} \left(\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)^a \bar{f} \right) (iy) y^{(1-s)-\frac{1}{2}+a} \frac{dy}{y} + \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)^a f (iy) y^{s-\frac{1}{2}+a} \frac{dy}{y} \right].$$

and possesses the functional equation

$$N^{-\frac{s}{2}} \pi^{-s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+a+it}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+a-it}{2}\right) L(s, f) = \Lambda(s, f) = \omega_N(f)(-1)^a \Lambda(1-s, \bar{f}).$$

Beyond Primitivity of $L(s, f)$

We can still obtain analytic continuation of $L(s, f)$ if f is not a primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform. Similarly to the Hecke L -function case, this holds because the primitive Hecke-Maass eigenforms form a basis for the space of newforms:

Theorem 7.4.2. *For any even or odd $f \in \mathcal{C}_t(\Gamma_1(N))$, $L(s, f)$ admits analytic continuation to \mathbb{C} .*

Proof. Mimic the proof of Theorem 7.3.2. □

7.5 The Rankin-Selberg Method

The Definition & Euler Product of $L(s, f \otimes g)$

The Rankin-Selberg method is a process by which we can construct new L -functions from old ones. Instead of giving the general definition outright, we first provide a full discussion of the method only in the simplest case. Many technical difficulties arise in the fully general setting. Let $f, g \in \mathcal{S}_k(1)$ be primitive Hecke eigenforms with Fourier series

$$f(z) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) n^{\frac{k-1}{2}} e^{2\pi i n z} \quad \text{and} \quad g(z) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a_g(n) n^{\frac{k-1}{2}} e^{2\pi i n z}.$$

The L -function $L(s, f \times g)$ of f and g is given by the L -series

$$L(s, f \times g) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_{f \times g}(n)}{n^s} = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n) \overline{a_g(n)}}{n^s} = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n) \overline{a_g(n)}}{n^s},$$

The **Rankin-Selberg convolution** $L(s, f \otimes g)$ of f and g is defined as an L -series:

$$L(s, f \otimes g) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_{f \otimes g}(n)}{n^s} = \zeta(2s) L(s, f \times g),$$

where $a_{f \otimes g}(n) = \sum_{n=ml^2} a_f(m) \overline{a_g(l)}$. Since $a_f(n) \ll_\varepsilon n^\varepsilon$ and $a_g(n) \ll_\varepsilon n^\varepsilon$ by the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture, $a_{f \times g}(n) \ll_\varepsilon n^\varepsilon$ as well. Hence $L(s, f \times g)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1 + \varepsilon$ and hence locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1$. Since $\zeta(2s)$ is also locally absolutely uniformly convergent in this region, the same follows for $L(s, f \otimes g)$ too. The L -function $L(s, f \otimes g)$ will also have an Euler product. To see this, let $\alpha_i(p)$ and $\beta_j(p)$ for $1 \leq i, j \leq 2$ be the local roots at p of $L(s, f)$ and $L(s, g)$ respectively. Since $L(s, f \otimes g)$ converges absolutely in the region $\sigma > 1$, multiplicativity of the Hecke eigenvalues implies

$$L(s, f \otimes g) = \zeta(2s) L(s, f \times g) = \prod_{p \nmid NM} (1 - p^{-2s})^{-1} \prod_p \left(\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_f(p^n) \overline{a_g(p^n)}}{p^{ns}} \right),$$

in this region. We now simplify the factor inside the latter product using Equation (7.14):

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_f(p^n) \overline{a_g(p^n)}}{p^{ns}} &= \sum_{n \geq 0} \left(\frac{\alpha_1(p)^{n+1} - \alpha_2(p)^{n+1}}{\alpha_1(p) - \alpha_2(p)} \right) \left(\frac{(\overline{\beta_1(p)})^{n+1} - (\overline{\beta_2(p)})^{n+1}}{\overline{\beta_1(p)} - \overline{\beta_2(p)}} \right) p^{-ns} \\ &= (\alpha_1(p) - \alpha_2(p))^{-1} \left(\overline{\beta_1(p)} - \overline{\beta_2(p)} \right)^{-1} \\ &\quad \cdot \left[\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{\alpha_1(p)^n (\overline{\beta_1(p)})^n}{p^{(n-1)s}} + \frac{\alpha_2(p)^n (\overline{\beta_2(p)})^n}{p^{(n-1)s}} - \frac{\alpha_1(p)^n (\overline{\beta_2(p)})^n}{p^{(n-1)s}} - \frac{\alpha_2(p)^n (\overline{\beta_1(p)})^n}{p^{(n-1)s}} \right] \\ &= (\alpha_1(p) - \alpha_2(p))^{-1} \left(\overline{\beta_1(p)} - \overline{\beta_2(p)} \right)^{-1} \left[\alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} \left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} \left(1 - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1} - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} \left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1} \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} \left(1 - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1} \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= (\alpha_1(p) - \alpha_2(p))^{-1} \left(\overline{\beta_1(p)} - \overline{\beta_2(p)} \right)^{-1} \left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1} \\
&\cdot \left(1 - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1} \left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1} \left(1 - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1} \\
&\cdot \left[\alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} \left(1 - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-s} \right) \left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-s} \right) \left(1 - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} p^{-s} \right) \right. \\
&+ \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} \left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} p^{-s} \right) \left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-s} \right) \left(1 - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} p^{-s} \right) \\
&- \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} \left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} p^{-s} \right) \left(1 - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-s} \right) \left(1 - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} p^{-s} \right) \\
&\left. - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} \left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} p^{-s} \right) \left(1 - \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-s} \right) \left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-s} \right) \right].
\end{aligned}$$

The term in the brackets simplifies to

$$\left(1 - \alpha_1(p) \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} \overline{\beta_2(p)} p^{-2s} \right) (\alpha_1(p) - \alpha_2(p)) \left(\overline{\beta_1(p)} - \overline{\beta_2(p)} \right),$$

because all of the other terms are killed by symmetry in $\alpha_1(p)$, $\alpha_2(p)$, $\overline{\beta_1(p)}$, and $\overline{\beta_2(p)}$. The Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture implies $\alpha_1(p) \alpha_2(p) \overline{\beta_1(p)} \overline{\beta_2(p)} = 1$. Therefore the corresponding factor above is $(1 - p^{-2s})$. This factor cancels the local factor at p in the Euler product of $\zeta(2s)$, so that

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_f(p^n) \overline{a_g(p^n)}}{p^{ns}} = \prod_{1 \leq i, j \leq 2} \left(1 - \alpha_i(p) \overline{\beta_j(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1}.$$

So in total we have a degree 4 Euler product,

$$L(s, f \otimes g) = \prod_p \prod_{1 \leq i, j \leq 2} \left(1 - \alpha_i(p) \overline{\beta_j(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1}.$$

The local factor at p is $L_p(s, f \otimes g) = \prod_{1 \leq i, j \leq 2} \left(1 - \alpha_i(p) \overline{\beta_j(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1}$.

The Integral Representation of $L(s, f \otimes g)$: Part I

We now look for an integral representation for $L(s, f \otimes g)$. Consider the following integral:

$$\int_{\Gamma_\infty \backslash \mathbb{H}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^{s+k} d\mu.$$

This will turn out to be a Mellin transform as we will soon see. The region of convergence of this integral is not immediately clear because we cannot appeal to Method 1.5.1 directly. Indeed,

$$\Gamma_\infty \backslash \mathbb{H} = \{z \in \mathbb{H} : 0 \leq x \leq 1\},$$

intersects infinitely many fundamental domains for Γ . In any case, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_{\Gamma_\infty \backslash \mathbb{H}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^{s+k} d\mu &= \int_0^\infty \int_0^1 f(x+iy) \overline{g(x+iy)} y^{s+k} \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \\
 &= \int_0^\infty \int_0^1 \sum_{n,m \geq 1} a_f(n) \overline{a_g(m)} (nm)^{\frac{k-1}{2}} e^{2\pi i(n-m)x} e^{-2\pi(n+m)y} y^{s+k} \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \\
 &= \int_0^\infty \sum_{n,m \geq 1} \int_0^1 a_f(n) \overline{a_g(m)} (nm)^{\frac{k-1}{2}} e^{2\pi i(n-m)x} e^{-2\pi(n+m)y} y^{s+k} \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \quad \text{DCT} \\
 &= \int_0^\infty \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) \overline{a_g(n)} n^{k-1} e^{-4\pi n y} y^{s+k} \frac{dy}{y^2},
 \end{aligned}$$

where the last line follows by Equation (3.1). Notice that the last integral is a Mellin transform. The rest is a computation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^\infty \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) \overline{a_g(n)} n^{k-1} e^{-4\pi n y} y^{s+k} \frac{dy}{y^2} &= \sum_{n \geq 1} a_f(n) \overline{a_g(n)} n^{k-1} \int_0^\infty e^{-4\pi n y} y^{s+k} \frac{dy}{y^2} \quad \text{DCT} \\
 &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n) \overline{a_g(n)}}{(4\pi)^{s+k-1} n^s} \int_0^\infty e^{-y} y^{s+k-1} \frac{dy}{y} \quad y \rightarrow \frac{y}{4\pi n} \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma(s+k-1)}{(4\pi)^{s+k-1}} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n) \overline{a_g(n)}}{n^s} \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma(s+k-1)}{(4\pi)^{s+k-1}} L(s, f \times g).
 \end{aligned}$$

This last expression is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1$ because the L -function is and the gamma factor is holomorphic in this region. Therefore the original integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded. At this point we have an integral representation

$$L(s, f \times g) = \frac{(4\pi)^{s+k-1}}{\Gamma(s+k-1)} \int_{\Gamma_\infty \backslash \mathbb{H}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^{s+k} d\mu.$$

We rewrite the integral as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_{\Gamma_\infty \backslash \mathbb{H}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^{s+k} d\mu &= \int_{\mathcal{F}} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma} f(\gamma z) \overline{g(\gamma z)} \operatorname{Im}(\gamma z)^{s+k} d\mu \quad \text{folding} \\
 &= \int_{\mathcal{F}} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma} j(\gamma, z)^k \overline{j(\gamma, z)^k} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(\gamma z)^{s+k} d\mu \quad \text{modularity} \\
 &= \int_{\mathcal{F}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma} |j(\gamma, z)|^{2k} \operatorname{Im}(\gamma z)^{s+k} d\mu \\
 &= \int_{\mathcal{F}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_\infty \backslash \Gamma} \operatorname{Im}(\gamma z)^s d\mu \\
 &= \int_{\mathcal{F}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k E_\infty(z, s) d\mu.
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that $E_\infty(z, s)$ is the Eisenstein series on $\Gamma_0(1) \backslash \mathbb{H}$ at the ∞ cusp. Altogether, this gives the integral representation

$$L(s, f \times g) = \frac{(4\pi)^{s+k-1}}{\Gamma(s+k-1)} \int_{\mathcal{F}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k E_\infty(z, s) d\mu, \quad (7.19)$$

which is valid for $\sigma > 1$. We cannot investigate the integral any further until we understand the Fourier series of $E_\infty(z, s)$ and have a functional equation as $s \rightarrow 1 - s$. Therefore we will take a necessary detour and return to the integral after.

The Fourier Series and Functional Equation of $E_\infty(z, s)$

Let

$$E_\infty(z, s) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a(n, y, s) e^{2\pi i n x}.$$

be the Fourier series of $E_\infty(z, s)$. Our first goal is to compute these coefficients. To do this we will need the following technical lemma:

Lemma 7.5.1. *Let $M \geq 1$ be square-free. Then for $\sigma > 1$ and $b \in \mathbb{Z}$,*

$$\sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{r(b; m)}{m^{2s}} = \begin{cases} \frac{\zeta(2s-1)}{\zeta(2s)} & \text{if } b = 0, \\ \frac{\sigma_{1-2s}(|b|)}{\zeta(2s)} & \text{if } b \neq 0, \end{cases}$$

where $\sigma_s(b)$ is the generalized sum of divisors function.

Proof. If $\sigma > 1$ then the desired evaluation of the sum is locally absolutely uniformly convergent because the Riemann zeta function is in that region. Hence the sum will be too provided we prove the identity. Suppose $b = 0$. Then $r(0; m) = \varphi(m)$. Since $\varphi(m)$ is multiplicative we have

$$\sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{\varphi(m)}{m^{2s}} = \prod_p \left(\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{\varphi(p^k)}{p^{k(2s)}} \right). \quad (7.20)$$

Recalling that $\varphi(p^k) = p^k - p^{k-1}$ for $k \geq 1$, make the following computation:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{\varphi(p^k)}{p^{k(2s)}} &= 1 + \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{p^k - p^{k-1}}{p^{k(2s)}} \\ &= \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{p^{k(2s-1)}} - \frac{1}{p} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{p^{k(2s-1)}} \\ &= \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{p^{k(2s-1)}} - p^{-2s} \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{p^{k(2s-1)}} \\ &= (1 - p^{-2s}) \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{p^{k(2s-1)}} \\ &= \frac{1 - p^{-2s}}{1 - p^{-(2s-1)}}. \end{aligned} \quad (7.21)$$

Combining Equations (7.20) and (7.21) gives

$$\sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{\varphi(m)}{m^{2s}} = \frac{\zeta(2s-1)}{\zeta(2s)}.$$

Now suppose $b \neq 0$, Proposition 1.4.1 gives the first equality in the following chain:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{r(b; m)}{m^{2s}} &= \sum_{m \geq 1} m^{-2s} \sum_{\ell | (b, m)} \ell \mu\left(\frac{m}{\ell}\right) \\
 &= \sum_{\ell | b} \ell \sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{\mu(m)}{(m\ell)^{2s}} \\
 &= \left(\sum_{\ell | b} \ell^{1-2s} \right) \left(\sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{\mu(m)}{m^{2s}} \right) \\
 &= \sigma_{1-2s}(b) \sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{\mu(m)}{m^{2s}} \\
 &= \sigma_{1-2s}(|b|) \sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{\mu(m)}{m^{2s}} \\
 &= \frac{\sigma_{1-2s}(|b|)}{\zeta(2s)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Proposition A.2.2. \square

We can now compute the Fourier coefficients $a(n, y, s)$:

Proposition 7.5.1. *The Fourier coefficients $a(n, y, s)$ are given by*

$$a(n, y, s) = \begin{cases} y^s + y^{1-s} \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(s - \frac{1}{2}) \zeta(2s-1)}{\Gamma(s) \zeta(2s)} & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 2\pi^s \frac{|n|^{s-\frac{1}{2}} \sigma_{1-2s}(|n|)}{\Gamma(s) \zeta(2s)} \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) & \text{if } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Proof. By Remark 2.2.3, we have

$$E_{\infty}(z, s) = y^s + \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z} \\ (c, d) = 1}} \frac{y^s}{|cx + icy + d|^{2s}}.$$

The definition of the Fourier coefficients gives

$$a(n, y, s) = \int_0^1 E(x + iy, s) e^{-2\pi i n x} dx = y^s \delta_{n,0} + \int_0^1 \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z} \\ (c, d) = 1}} \frac{y^s}{|cx + icy + d|^{2s}} e^{-2\pi i n x} dx, \quad (7.22)$$

where we have used Equation (3.1). We are now reduced to computing

$$I(z, s) = \int_0^1 \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z} \\ (c, d) = 1}} \frac{y^s}{|cx + icy + d|^{2s}} e^{-2\pi i n x} dx.$$

Make the following observation: summing over all pairs (c, d) with $c \geq 1$, $d \in \mathbb{Z}$, $c \equiv 0 \pmod{NM}$, and $(c, d) = 1$ is the same as summing over all triples (c, ℓ, r) with $c \geq 1$, $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}$, $r \pmod{c}$, with

$c \equiv 0 \pmod{NM}$ and $(r, c) = 1$. This is seen by writing $d = c\ell + r$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 I(z, s) &= \int_0^1 \sum_{\substack{c \geq 1, d \in \mathbb{Z} \\ (c, d) = 1}} \frac{y^s}{|cx + icy + d|^{2s}} e^{-2\pi i n x} dx \\
 &= \int_0^1 \sum_{(c, \ell, r)} \frac{y^s}{|c(x + \ell) + r + icy|^{2s}} e^{-2\pi i n x} dx \\
 &= \sum_{(c, \ell, r)} \int_0^1 \frac{y^s}{|c(x + \ell) + r + icy|^{2s}} e^{-2\pi i n x} dx && \text{DCT} \\
 &= \sum_{(c, \ell, r)} \frac{1}{c^{2s}} \int_0^1 \frac{y^s}{|x + \ell + \frac{r}{c} + iy|^{2s}} e^{-2\pi i n x} dx \\
 &= \sum_{(c, \ell, r)} \frac{1}{c^{2s}} \int_{\ell}^{\ell+1} \frac{y^s}{|x + \frac{r}{c} + iy|^{2s}} e^{-2\pi i n x} dx && x \rightarrow x - \ell \\
 &= \sum'_{\substack{c \geq 1 \\ r \pmod{c}}} \frac{1}{c^{2s}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{y^s}{|x + \frac{r}{c} + iy|^{2s}} e^{-2\pi i n x} dx && \text{DCT} \\
 &= \sum_{c \geq 1} \frac{1}{c^{2s}} \sum'_{r \pmod{c}} e^{\frac{2\pi i n r}{c}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{y^s}{(x^2 + y^2)^s} e^{-2\pi i n x} dx && x \rightarrow x - \frac{r}{c} \\
 &= \sum_{c \geq 1} \frac{r(n; c)}{c^{2s}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{y^s}{(x^2 + y^2)^s} e^{-2\pi i n x} dx \\
 &= \sum_{c \geq 1} \frac{r(n; c)}{c^{2s}} y^{1-s} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(x^2 + 1)^s} e^{-2\pi i n x y} dx && x \rightarrow xy,
 \end{aligned}$$

where on the right-hand side it is understood we are summing over all triples (c, ℓ, r) with the prescribed properties. Using Lemma 7.5.1 yields

$$I(z, s) = \begin{cases} \frac{\zeta(2s-1)}{\zeta(2s)} y^{1-s} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(x^2+1)^s} dx & \text{if } n = 0, \\ \frac{\sigma_{1-2s}(|n|)}{\zeta(2s)} y^{1-s} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(x^2+1)^s} e^{-2\pi i n x y} dx & \text{if } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Appealing to Appendix D.1 for this last integral and substituting the result back into Equation (7.22) finishes the proof. \square

Having computed the Fourier coefficients, we would like to obtain a functional equation for $E_{\infty}(z, s)$ as $s \rightarrow 1 - s$ (this follows from Theorem 4.4.3 but we will demonstrate a full proof for the single Eisenstein series on $\Gamma_0(1) \backslash \mathbb{H}$). To this end, we define the **completed real-analytic Eisenstein series** $E^*(z, s)$ by

$$E^*(z, s) = \Lambda(2s, \zeta) E_{\infty}(z, s) = \pi^{-s} \Gamma(s) \zeta(2s) E_{\infty}(z, s).$$

From Proposition 7.5.1, the Fourier coefficients $a^*(n, y, s)$ of $E^*(z, s)$ are given by

$$a^*(n, y, s) = \begin{cases} y^s \pi^{-s} \Gamma(s) \zeta(2s) + y^{1-s} \pi^{-(s-\frac{1}{2})} \Gamma(s - \frac{1}{2}) \zeta(2s - 1) & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 2|n|^{s-\frac{1}{2}} \sigma_{1-2s}(|n|) \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) & \text{if } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

We can derive a functional equation for $E^*(z, s)$. Using the definition and functional equation for $\Lambda(2s - 1, \zeta)$, we can rewrite the second term in the constant coefficient to get

$$a^*(n, y, s) = \begin{cases} y^s \Lambda(2s, \zeta) + y^{1-s} \Lambda(2(1-s), \zeta) & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 2|n|^{s-\frac{1}{2}} \sigma_{1-2s}(|n|) \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) & \text{if } n \neq 0. \end{cases} \quad (7.23)$$

Now observe that the constant coefficient is invariant under $s \rightarrow 1-s$. Each $n \neq 0$ coefficient is also invariant under $s \rightarrow 1-s$. To see this we will use two facts. First, from Appendix B.7, $K_s(y)$ is invariant under $s \rightarrow -s$ and so $K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y)$ is invariant as $s \rightarrow 1-s$. Second, for $n \geq 1$ we have

$$n^{s-\frac{1}{2}} \sigma_{1-2s}(n) = n^{\frac{1}{2}-s} n^{2s-1} \sigma_{1-2s}(n) = n^{\frac{1}{2}-s} n^{2s-1} \sum_{d|n} d^{1-2s} = n^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \sum_{d|n} \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^{2s-1} = n^{\frac{1}{2}-s} \sigma_{2s-1}(n),$$

where the second to last equality follows by writing $n^{2s-1} = \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^{2s-1} d^{2s-1}$ for each $d | n$. These two facts together give the invariance of the $n \neq 0$ coefficients under $s \rightarrow 1-s$. Altogether, we have shown the following functional equation for $E^*(z, s)$:

$$E^*(z, s) = E^*(z, 1-s).$$

We already knew $E_\infty(z, s)$ possessed a functional equation as $s \rightarrow 1-s$ from Theorem 4.4.3 but we needed an explicit version in order to understand $L(s, f \otimes g)$. We can now obtain meromorphic continuation of $E^*(z, s)$ in s to all of \mathbb{C} . By the functional equation, $E^*(z, s)$ admits analytic continuation to \mathbb{C} outside of the critical strip. Therefore we may assume $|\sigma - \frac{1}{2}| \leq \frac{1}{2}$. We first write $E^*(z, s)$ as a Fourier series using Equation (7.23):

$$E^*(z, s) = y^s \Lambda(2s, \zeta) + y^{1-s} \Lambda(2(1-s), \zeta) + \sum_{n \neq 0} 2|n|^{s-\frac{1}{2}} \sigma_{1-2s}(|n|) \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x}.$$

Since $\Lambda(2s, \zeta)$ is meromorphic on the critical strip, the constant term of $E^*(z, s)$ is as well. To finish the meromorphic continuation of $E^*(z, s)$ it now suffices to show

$$\sum_{n \neq 0} 2|n|^{s-\frac{1}{2}} \sigma_{1-2s}(|n|) \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x},$$

is meromorphic on the critical strip. We will actually prove it is locally absolutely uniformly convergent on this region. To achieve this we need two bounds, one for $\sigma_{1-2s}(|n|)$ and one for $K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y)$. For the first bound, we use the estimate $\sigma_0(n) \ll_\epsilon n^\epsilon$. Therefore we have the crude bound

$$\sigma_{1-2s}(|n|) = \sum_{d|n} d^{1-2s} < \sigma_0(|n|) |n|^{1-2s} \ll_\epsilon |n|^{1-2s+\epsilon}.$$

For the second estimate, Lemma B.7.2 and the fact that σ is bounded together give

$$K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) \ll e^{-2\pi|n|y}.$$

Using these two estimates, we have

$$\sum_{n \neq 0} 2|n|^{s-\frac{1}{2}} \sigma_{1-2s}(|n|) \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x} \ll_\epsilon \sum_{n \geq 1} 4n^{\frac{1}{2}-s+\epsilon} \sqrt{y} e^{-2\pi n y}. \quad (7.24)$$

This latter series is locally absolutely uniformly convergent by the ratio test. The meromorphic continuation of $E^*(z, s)$ to \mathbb{C} in s follows. It remains to investigate the poles and residues. We will accomplish this from direct inspection of the Fourier coefficients:

Proposition 7.5.2. $E^*(z, s)$ has simple poles at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$, and

$$\operatorname{Res}_{s=0} E^*(z, s) = -\frac{1}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{Res}_{s=1} E^*(z, s) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Proof. Since the constant term in the Fourier series of $E^*(z, s)$ is the only non-holomorphic term, poles of $E^*(z, s)$ can only come from that term. So we are reduced to understanding the poles of

$$y^s \Lambda(2s, \zeta) + y^{1-s} \Lambda(2(1-s), \zeta). \quad (7.25)$$

Notice $\Lambda(2s, \zeta)$ has simple poles at $s = 0$, $s = \frac{1}{2}$ (one from the Riemann zeta function and one from the gamma factor) and no others. It follows that $E^*(z, s)$ has a simple pole at $s = 0$ coming from the y^s term in Equation (7.25), and by the functional equation there is also a pole at $s = 1$ coming from the y^{1-s} term. At $s = \frac{1}{2}$, both terms in Equation (7.25) have simple poles and we will show that the singularity there is removable. Recall $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{\pi}$. Also, by Proposition 7.1.1, $\operatorname{Res}_{s=\frac{1}{2}} \zeta(2s) = \frac{1}{2}$ and $\operatorname{Res}_{s=\frac{1}{2}} \zeta(2(1-s)) = -\frac{1}{2}$. So altogether

$$\operatorname{Res}_{s=\frac{1}{2}} E^*(z, s) = \operatorname{Res}_{s=\frac{1}{2}} [y^s \Lambda(2s, \zeta) + y^{1-s} \Lambda(2(1-s), \zeta)] = \frac{1}{2} y^{\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{1}{2} y^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0.$$

Hence the singularity at $s = \frac{1}{2}$ is removable. As for the residues at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$, the functional equation implies that they are negatives of each other. So it suffices to compute the residue at $s = 0$. Recall $\zeta(0) = -\frac{1}{2}$ and $\operatorname{Res}_{s=0} \Gamma(s) = 1$. Then together we find

$$\operatorname{Res}_{s=0} E^*(z, s) = \operatorname{Res}_{s=0} y^s \Lambda(2s, \zeta) = -\frac{1}{2}. \quad \square$$

This completes our study of the real-analytic Eisenstein series $E_\infty(z, s)$.

The Integral Representation of $L(s, f \otimes g)$: Part II

We can now continue with the Rankin-Selberg convolution $L(s, f \otimes g)$. Writing Equation (7.19) in terms of $E^*(z, s)$ and $L(s, f \otimes g)$ results in the integral representation

$$L(s, f \otimes g) = \frac{(4\pi)^{s+k-1} \pi^s}{\Gamma(s+k-1)\Gamma(s)} \int_{\mathcal{F}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k E^*(z, s) d\mu.$$

This integral representation will give analytic continuation. To see this, note that the gamma factors are analytic for $\sigma < 0$. By the functional equation for $E^*(z, s)$, the integral is invariant as $s \rightarrow 1-s$. These two facts together give analytic continuation to \mathbb{C} outside of the critical strip. The continuation inside of the critical strip will be meromorphic because of the poles of $E^*(z, s)$. To see this, taking the integral representation and substituting the Fourier series for $E^*(z, s)$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} L(s, f \otimes g) &= \frac{(4\pi)^{s+k-1} \pi^s}{\Gamma(s+k-1)\Gamma(s)} \left[\int_{\mathcal{F}} f(x+iy) \overline{g(x+iy)} y^k (y^s \Lambda(2s, \zeta) + y^{1-s} \Lambda(2(1-s), \zeta)) \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \int_{\mathcal{F}} f(x+iy) \overline{g(x+iy)} y^k \sum_{n \neq 0} 2|n|^{s-\frac{1}{2}} \sigma_{1-2s}(|n|) \sqrt{y} K_{s-\frac{1}{2}}(2\pi|n|y) e^{2\pi i n x} \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \right], \end{aligned} \quad (7.26)$$

and we are reduced to showing that both integrals are locally absolutely uniformly bounded in the critical strip and away from the poles of $E^*(z, s)$. Indeed, the first integral is locally absolutely uniformly bounded in this region by Method 1.5.1. As for the second integral, Equation (7.24) implies that it is

$$O_\varepsilon \left(\int_{\mathcal{F}} f(x+iy) \overline{g(x+iy)} y^k \sum_{n \geq 1} 4n^{\frac{1}{2}-s+\varepsilon} \sqrt{y} e^{-2\pi n y} \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \right).$$

As the sum in the integrand is holomorphic, we can now appeal to Method 1.5.1. The meromorphic continuation to the critical strip and hence to all of \mathbb{C} follows. In particular, $L(s, f \otimes g)$ has at most simple poles at $s = 0$ and $s = 1$. Actually, there is no pole at $s = 0$. Indeed, $\gamma(s, f \otimes g)$ has a simple pole at $s = 0$ coming from the gamma factors and therefore its reciprocal has a simple zero. This cancels the simple pole at $s = 0$ coming from $E^*(z, s)$ and therefore $L(s, f \otimes g)$ has a removable singularity at $s = 0$. So there is at worst a simple pole at $s = 1$.

The Functional Equation, Critical Strip & Residues of $L(s, f \otimes g)$

An immediate consequence of the symmetry of integral representation is the functional equation:

$$\frac{\Gamma(s+k-1)\Gamma(s)}{(4\pi)^{s+k-1}\pi^s} L(s, f \otimes g) = \frac{\Gamma((1-s)+k-1)\Gamma(1-s)}{(4\pi)^{(1-s)+k-1}\pi^{1-s}} L(1-s, f \otimes g).$$

Applying the Legendre duplication formula for the gamma function twice we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Gamma(s+k-1)\Gamma(s)}{(4\pi)^{s+k-1}\pi^s} &= \frac{2^{2s+k-3}}{(4\pi)^{s+k-1}\pi^{s+1}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+k-1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+k}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+1}{2}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{k+1}\pi^k} \pi^{-2s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+k-1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+k}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+1}{2}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (7.27)$$

The factor in front is independent of s and can therefore be canceled in the functional equation. We identify the gamma factor as:

$$\gamma(s, f \otimes g) = \pi^{-2s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+k-1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+k}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+1}{2}\right),$$

with $\mu_{1,1} = k-1$, $\mu_{2,2} = k$, $\mu_{1,2} = 0$, and $\mu_{2,1} = 1$ the local roots at infinity. The completed L -function is

$$\Lambda(s, f \otimes g) = \pi^{-2s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+k-1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+k}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+1}{2}\right) L(s, f \otimes g),$$

so the conductor is $q(f \otimes g) = 1$ and no primes ramify. Clearly $q(f \otimes g) \mid q(f)^2 q(g)^2$ and conductor dropping does not occur. Then

$$\Lambda(s, f \otimes g) = \Lambda(1-s, f \otimes g),$$

is the functional equation of $L(s, f \otimes g)$. In particular, the root number $\varepsilon(f \otimes g) = 1$, and $L(s, f \otimes g)$ is self-dual. We can now show that $L(s, f \otimes g)$ is of order 1. Since the possible pole at $s = 1$ is simple, multiplying by $(s-1)$ clears the possible polar divisor. As the integrals in the integral representation are locally absolutely uniformly bounded, computing the order amounts to estimating the gamma factor. Since the reciprocal of the gamma function is of order 1, we have

$$\frac{1}{\gamma(s, f \otimes g)} \ll_{\varepsilon} e^{|s|^{1+\varepsilon}}.$$

So the reciprocal of the gamma factor is also of order 1. Then we find that

$$(s-1)L(s, f \otimes g) \ll_{\varepsilon} e^{|s|^{1+\varepsilon}}.$$

Thus $(s-1)L(s, f \otimes g)$ is of order 1, and so $L(s, f \otimes g)$ is as well after removing the polar divisor. At last, we compute the residue of $L(s, f \otimes g)$ at $s = 1$:

Proposition 7.5.3. *Let $f, g \in \mathcal{S}_k(1)$ be primitive Hecke eigenforms. Then*

$$\operatorname{Res}_{s=1} L(s, f \otimes g) = \frac{4^k \pi^{k+1} V}{2\Gamma(k)} \langle f, g \rangle,$$

where $\langle f, g \rangle$ is the Petersson inner product.

Proof. As $V = \frac{\pi}{3}$, Proposition 7.5.2 implies

$$\operatorname{Res}_{s=1} L(s, f \otimes g) = \frac{4^k \pi^{k+1}}{\Gamma(k)} \operatorname{Res}_{s=1} \int_{\mathcal{F}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k E^*(z, s) d\mu = \frac{4^k \pi^{k+1} V}{2\Gamma(k)} \langle f, g \rangle. \quad \square$$

Notice that if $f = g$, then $\langle f, f \rangle \neq 0$ and therefore the residue at $s = 1$ is not zero and hence not a removable singularity. Actually, this is the only instance in which there is a pole since Theorem 3.6.1 implies that the primitive Hecke eigenforms are orthogonal so that $\langle f, g \rangle = 0$ unless $f = g$. We summarize all of our work into the following theorem:

Theorem 7.5.1. *For any two primitive Hecke eigenforms $f, g \in \mathcal{S}_k(1)$, $L(s, f \otimes g)$ is a Selberg class L -function. For $\sigma > 1$, it has locally absolutely uniformly convergent degree 4 Euler product given by*

$$L(s, f \otimes g) = \prod_p \prod_{1 \leq i, j \leq 2} \left(1 - \alpha_i(p) \overline{\beta_j(p)} p^{-s} \right)^{-1}.$$

Moreover, it admits meromorphic continuation to \mathbb{C} via the integral representation

$$L(s, f \otimes g) = \frac{(4\pi)^{s+k-1} \pi^s}{\Gamma(s+k-1)\Gamma(s)} \int_{\mathcal{F}} f(z) \overline{g(z)} \operatorname{Im}(z)^k E^*(z, s) d\mu,$$

possesses the functional equation

$$\pi^{-2s} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+k-1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+k}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+1}{2}\right) L(s, f \otimes g) = \Lambda(s, f \otimes g) = \Lambda(1-s, f \otimes g),$$

and if $f = g$ there is simple pole at $s = 1$ of residue $\frac{4^k \pi^{k+1} V}{2\Gamma(k)} \langle f, g \rangle$.

The Rankin-Selberg Method

The Rankin-Selberg method is much more complicated in general, but the argument is essentially the same. Let f and g both be primitive Hecke or Heck-Maass eigenforms with Fourier coefficients $a_f(n)$ and $a_g(n)$ respectively. We suppose f has weight k /eigenvalue λ , level N , and character χ , and g has weight ℓ /eigenvalue ν , level M , and character ψ . The L -function $L(s, f \times g)$ of f and g is given by the L -series

$$L(s, f \times g) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_{f \times g}(n)}{n^s} = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_f(n) \overline{a_g(n)}}{n^s}.$$

The **Rankin-Selberg convolution** $L(s, f \otimes g)$ of f and g is defined as an L -series:

$$L(s, f \otimes g) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a_{f \otimes g}(n)}{n^s} = L(2s, \chi \overline{\psi}) L(s, f \times g),$$

where $a_{f \otimes g}(n) = \sum_{m \mid n} (\chi \overline{\psi})(\ell^2) a_f(m) \overline{a_g(n/m)}$. The following argument is the **Rankin-Selberg method**:

Method 7.5.1 (Rankin-Selberg method). Let f and b both be primitive Hecke or Hecke-Maass eigenforms. Also suppose the following:

- (i) f has weight k /eigenvalue λ , level N , and character χ .
- (ii) g has weight ℓ /eigenvalue ν , level M , and character ψ .
- (iii) The Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture holds if f and g are Hecke-Maass eigenforms.

Then the Rankin-Selberg convolution $L(s, f \otimes g)$ is a Selberg class L -function.

We make a few remarks about the Rankin-Selberg method. Local absolute uniform convergence for $\sigma > 1$ (we must assume the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture in the Maass form case) are proved in the exactly the same way as we have described. The argument for the Euler product is also similar. However, if either $N > 1$ or $M > 1$, the computation becomes more difficult to compute since the local p factors for $p \mid NM$ change. Moreover, the situation is increasingly complicated if $(N, M) > 1$ since conductor dropping can occur. The integral representation has a similar argument, but if the weights/eigenvalues are distinct the resulting Eisenstein series becomes more complicated. In particular, it is on $\Gamma_0(NM) \backslash \mathbb{H}$ and if $NM > 1$, then there is more than just the cusp at ∞ . Therefore the functional equation of the Eisenstein series at the ∞ cusp then reflects into a linear combination of Eisenstein series at the other cusps. This results in the requirement to compute the Fourier coefficients of all of these Eisenstein series. Moreover, this procedure can be generalized to remove the primitive Hecke and/or primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform conditions by taking linear combinations, but we won't attempt discussing this further.

7.6 Applications of the Rankin-Selberg Method

The Ramanujan-Petersson Conjecture on Average

Let f be a Hecke or Hecke-Maass eigenform. Using Rankin-Selberg convolutions, it is possible to show the weaker result that $a_f(n) \ll_\varepsilon n^\varepsilon$ holds on average without assuming the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture:

Proposition 7.6.1. *Let f be a primitive Hecke or Hecke-Maass eigenform. Then for any $X > 0$, we have*

$$\sum_{n \leq X} |a_f(n)| \ll_\varepsilon X^{1+\varepsilon},$$

Proof. By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,

$$\left(\sum_{n \leq X} |a_f(n)| \right)^2 \leq X \sum_{n \leq X} |a_f(n)|^2, \quad (7.28)$$

The Rankin-Selberg square $L(s, f \otimes f)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > \frac{3}{2}$. Therefore it still admits meromorphic continuation to \mathbb{C} with a simple pole at $s = 1$. By Landau's theorem, the abscissa of absolute convergence of $L(s, f \otimes f)$, and hence $L(s, f \times f)$ too, is 1 so by Proposition 6.1.3 we have

$$\sum_{n \leq X} |a_f(n)|^2 \ll_\varepsilon X^{1+\varepsilon},$$

for any $\varepsilon > 0$. Substituting this bound into Equation (7.28), we obtain

$$\left(\sum_{n \leq X} |a_f(n)| \right)^2 \ll_{\varepsilon} X^{2+\varepsilon},$$

and taking the square root yields

$$\sum_{n \leq X} |a_f(n)| \ll_{\varepsilon} X^{1+\varepsilon}.$$

□

The bound in Proposition 7.6.1 should be compared with the implication $a_f(n) \ll_{\varepsilon} n^{\varepsilon}$ that follows from the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture. While Proposition 7.6.1 is not useful in the holomorphic form case, it is in the Maass form case. Indeed, recall that if f is a primitive Hecke-Maass eigenform we needed to assume the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture to ensure $a_f(n) \ll_{\varepsilon} n^{\varepsilon}$ so that $L(s, f)$ was locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1$. However, Propositions 6.1.4 and 7.6.1 together imply that $L(s, f)$ is locally absolutely uniformly convergent for $\sigma > 1 + \varepsilon$ and hence for $\sigma > 1$. This method avoids assuming the Ramanujan-Petersson conjecture. Therefore we may remove this assumption in Theorem 7.4.1.

Strong Multiplicity One

Let f be a primitive Hecke or Hecke-Maass eigenform. Then f is determined by Hecke eigenvalues at primes for fixed weight/eigenvalue and level. Using Rankin-Selberg convolutions, we can prove **strong multiplicity one** for holomorphic or Maass forms which says that f is determined by Hecke eigenvalues at all but finitely many primes for fixed weight/eigenvalue, level, and character:

Theorem 7.6.1 (Strong multiplicity one, holomorphic and Maass versions). *Let f and g both be primitive Hecke or Hecke-Maass eigenforms of the same weight/eigenvalue, level, and character. Denote the Hecke eigenvalues by $\lambda_f(n)$ and $\lambda_g(n)$ respectively. If $a_f(p) = a_g(p)$ for all but finitely many primes p , then $f = g$.*

Proof. Let S be the set the primes for which $\lambda_f(p) \neq \lambda_g(p)$ including the primes that ramify for $L(s, f)$ and $L(s, g)$. By assumption, S is finite. As the local factors of $L(s, f \otimes g)$ are holomorphic and nonzero at $s = 1$, the order of the pole of $L(s, f \otimes g)$ is the same as the order of the pole of

$$L(s, f \otimes g) \prod_{p \in S} L_p(s, f \otimes g)^{-1} = \prod_{p \notin S} L_p(s, f \otimes g).$$

But as f and g have the same the weight/eigenvalue, level, and character, and $\lambda_f(p) = \lambda_g(p)$ for all $p \notin S$, we have

$$\prod_{p \notin S} L_p(s, f \otimes g) = \prod_{p \notin S} L_p(s, f \otimes f).$$

Since $L(s, f \otimes f)$ has a simple pole at $s = 1$, it follows that $L(s, f \otimes g)$ does too. But then $f = g$. □

Part IV

Applications of L -functions

Chapter 8

Todo: [Classical Applications]

8.1 Todo: [Dirichlet's Theorem on Primes and Arithmetic Progressions]

8.2 Todo: [Prime Number Theorems]

Part V

Moments of L -functions

Chapter 9

Moments

9.1 **Todo:** [Probabilistic Interpretation of L -functions]

9.2 **Todo:** [Families of L -functions]

9.3 **Todo:** [Random Matrix Theory Conjectures]

9.4 **Todo:** [Moments Results]

Part VI

Appendices

Appendix A

Number Theory

A.1 Arithmetic Functions

An arithmetic function $f(n)$ is a function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. That is, it takes the positive integers into the complex numbers. We say that $f(n)$ is **additive** if $f(nm) = f(n) + f(m)$ for all positive integers n and m such that $(n, m) = 1$. If this condition simply holds for all n and m then we say $f(n)$ is **completely additive**. Similarly, we say that $f(n)$ is **multiplicative** if $f(nm) = f(n)f(m)$ for all positive integers n and m such that $(n, m) = 1$. If this condition simply holds for all n and m then we say $f(n)$ is **completely multiplicative**. Many important arithmetic functions are either additive, completely additive, multiplicative, or completely multiplicative. Note that if a $f(n)$ is additive or multiplicative then $f(n)$ is uniquely determined by its values on prime powers and if $f(n)$ is completely additive or completely multiplicative then it is uniquely determined by its values on primes. Moreover, if $f(n)$ is additive or completely additive then $f(1) = 0$ and if $f(n)$ is multiplicative or completely multiplicative then $f(1) = 1$.

Below is a list defining the most important arithmetic functions. Some of these functions are restrictions of common functions but we define them here as arithmetic functions because their domain being \mathbb{N} is important.

- (i) The **constant function**: The function $\mathbf{1}(n)$ defined by $\mathbf{1}(n) = 1$ for all $n \geq 1$. This function is neither additive or multiplicative.
- (ii) The **unit function**: The function $e(n)$ defined by

$$e(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } n \geq 2. \end{cases}$$

This function is completely multiplicative.

- (iii) The **identity function**: The identity function $\text{id}(n)$ restricted to all $n \geq 1$. This function is completely multiplicative.
- (iv) The **logarithm**: The function $\log(n)$ restricted to all $n \geq 1$. This function is completely additive.
- (v) The **Möbius function**: The function $\mu(n)$ defined by

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is square-free with an even number of prime factors,} \\ -1 & \text{if } n \text{ is square-free with an odd number of prime factors,} \\ 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is not square-free,} \end{cases}$$

for all $n \geq 1$. This function is multiplicative.

(vi) The **characteristic function of square-free integers**: The square of the Möbius function $\mu^2(n)$ or $|\mu(n)|$ for all $n \geq 1$. This function is multiplicative.

(vii) **Liouville's function**: The function $\lambda(n)$ defined by

$$\lambda(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ (-1)^k & \text{if } n \text{ is composed of } k \text{ not necessarily distinct prime factors,} \end{cases}$$

for all $n \geq 1$. This function is completely multiplicative.

(viii) **Euler's totient function**: The function $\varphi(n)$ defined by

$$\varphi(n) = \sum'_{m \pmod{n}} 1,$$

for all $n \geq 1$. This function is multiplicative.

(ix) The **divisor function**: The function $\sigma_0(n)$ defined by

$$\sigma_0(n) = \sum_{d|n} 1,$$

for all $n \geq 1$. This function is multiplicative.

(x) The **sum of divisors function**: The function $\sigma_1(n)$ defined by

$$\sigma_1(n) = \sum_{d|n} d,$$

for all $n \geq 1$. This function is multiplicative.

(xi) The **generalized sum of divisors function**: The function $\sigma_s(n)$ defined by

$$\sigma_s(n) = \sum_{d|n} d^s,$$

for all $n \geq 1$ and any complex number s . This function is multiplicative.

(xii) The **number of distinct prime factors function**: The function $\omega(n)$ defined by

$$\omega(n) = \sum_{p|n} 1,$$

for all $n \geq 1$. This function is additive.

(xiii) The **total number of prime divisors function**: The function $\Omega(n)$ defined by

$$\Omega(n) = \sum_{p^m|n} 1,$$

for all $n \geq 1$ and where $m \geq 1$. This function is completely additive.

(xiv) The **von Mangoldt function**: The function $\Lambda(n)$ defined by

$$\Lambda(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is not a prime power,} \\ \log(p) & \text{if } n = p^m \text{ for some prime } p \text{ and integer } m \geq 1, \end{cases}$$

for all $n \geq 1$. This function is neither additive or multiplicative.

A.2 The Möbius Function

Recall that the Möbius function is the arithmetic function μ defined by

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is square-free with an even number of prime factors,} \\ -1 & \text{if } n \text{ is square-free with an odd number of prime factors,} \\ 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is not square-free,} \end{cases}$$

and it is multiplicative. It also satisfies an important summation property:

Proposition A.2.1.

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) = \delta_{n,1}.$$

From this property, the important **Möbius inversion formula** can be derived:

Theorem A.2.1 (Möbius inversion formula). *Suppose $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ are arithmetic functions. Then*

$$g(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d),$$

for all $n \geq 1$, if and only if

$$f(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)g\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$$

for all $n \geq 1$.

Using Möbius inversion, the following useful formula can also be derived:

Proposition A.2.2. *For $\sigma > 1$,*

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^s} = \zeta(s)^{-1} = \prod_p (1 - p^{-s}).$$

There is also an important similar statement to the Möbius inversion formula that we will need:

Theorem A.2.2. *Let $f(n)$ be an arithmetic function and B be the completely multiplicative function defined on primes p by*

$$B(p) = f(p)^2 - f(p^2).$$

Then

$$f(n)f(m) = \sum_{d|(n,m)} B(d)f\left(\frac{nm}{d^2}\right),$$

for all $n, m \geq 1$, if and only if

$$f(nm) = \sum_{d|(n,m)} \mu(d)B(d)f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)f\left(\frac{m}{d}\right),$$

for all $n, m \geq 1$.

Any function $f(n)$ satisfying the conditions of Theorem A.2.2 is said to be **specialy multiplicative**.

A.3 The Generalized Sum of Divisors Function

Recall that the generalized sum of divisor function $\sigma_s(n)$ defined by

$$\sigma_s(n) = \sum_{d|n} d^s.$$

As we always take divisors to be positive, the sign of n is irrelevant. So

$$\sigma_s(n) = \sigma_s(-n) = \sigma_s(|n|).$$

More importantly, $\sigma_s(n)$ has a remarkable property: it can be written as a product. Recalling that $\text{ord}_p(n)$ is the positive integer satisfying $p^{\text{ord}_p(n)} \parallel n$, we have the following statement:

Proposition A.3.1. *For $s \neq 0$,*

$$\sigma_s(n) = \prod_{p|n} \frac{p^{(\text{ord}_p(n)+1)s} - 1}{p^s - 1}.$$

A.4 Quadratic Symbols

Let p be an odd prime. We are often interested in when the equation $x^2 = a \pmod{p}$ is solvable for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. The **Legendre symbol** $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ keeps track of this:

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p} \text{ is solvable,} \\ -1 & \text{if } x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p} \text{ is not solvable,} \\ 0 & \text{if } a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}. \end{cases}$$

Euler's criterion gives an alternative expression for Legendre symbol when a is coprime to p :

Proposition A.4.1 (Euler's criterion). *Let p be an odd prime and suppose $(a, p) = 1$. Then*

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$

From the definition and Euler's criterion it is not difficult to show that the Legendre symbol satisfies the following properties:

Proposition A.4.2. *Let p be an odd prime and let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then the following hold:*

$$(i) \text{ If } a \equiv b \pmod{p}, \text{ then } \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right).$$

$$(ii) \left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right).$$

From Proposition A.4.2, to compute the Legendre symbol in general it suffices to know how to compute $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)$, $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)$, and $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$ where q is another odd prime. The **supplemental laws of quadratic reciprocity** are formulas for the first two symbols:

Proposition A.4.3 (Supplemental laws of quadratic reciprocity). *Let p be an odd prime.*

(i)

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

(ii)

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p^2-1}{8}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1, 7 \pmod{8}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

The **law of quadratic reciprocity** handles the last symbol by relating $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$ to $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)$:

Theorem A.4.1 (Law of quadratic reciprocity). *Let p and q be distinct odd primes. Then*

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \frac{q-1}{2}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \text{ or } q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \text{ and } q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

We can generalize the Jacobi symbol further by making it multiplicative in the denominator. Let n be a positive odd integer with prime factorization $n = p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k}$ and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. The **Jacobi symbol** $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right)$ is defined by

$$\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \prod_{1 \leq i \leq k} \left(\frac{a}{p_i}\right)^{r_i}.$$

When $n = p$ is prime, the Jacobi symbol reduces to the Legendre symbol and the Jacobi symbol is precisely the unique multiplicative extension of the Legendre symbol to all positive odd integers. Accordingly, the Jacobi symbol has the following properties:

Proposition A.4.4. *Let m and n be positive odd integers and let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then the following hold:*

$$(i) \text{ If } a \equiv b \pmod{p}, \text{ then } \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{n}\right).$$

$$(ii) \left(\frac{a}{mn}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{m}\right) \left(\frac{a}{n}\right).$$

$$(iii) \left(\frac{ab}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) \left(\frac{b}{n}\right).$$

There is also an associated reciprocity law:

Proposition A.4.5. *Let m and n be distinct positive odd integers. Then*

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) \left(\frac{n}{m}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{m-1}{2} \frac{n-1}{2}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } m \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \text{ or } n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ -1 & \text{if } m \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \text{ and } n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

We can further generalize the Jacobi symbol so that it is valid for all integers. Let $a, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ where $n = up_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k}$ is the prime factorization of n with $u = \pm 1$. The **Kronecker symbol** $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right)$ is defined by

$$\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{u}\right) \prod_{1 \leq i \leq k} \left(\frac{a}{p_i}\right)^{r_i},$$

where we set

$$\left(\frac{a}{1}\right) = 1, \quad \left(\frac{a}{-1}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \geq 0, \\ -1 & \text{if } a < 0, \end{cases} \quad \left(\frac{a}{0}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a = \pm 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and

$$\left(\frac{a}{2}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \equiv 1, 7 \pmod{8}, \\ -1 & \text{if } a \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{8}, \\ 0 & \text{if } a \equiv 0 \pmod{2}. \end{cases}$$

When n is a positive odd integer, the Kronecker symbol reduces to the Jacobi symbol. The Kronecker symbol also satisfies a reciprocity law:

Proposition A.4.6. *Let $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then*

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) \left(\frac{n}{|m|}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{m^{(2)}-1}{2} \frac{n^{(2)}-1}{2}}.$$

where $m^{(2)}$ and $n^{(2)}$ are the parts of m and n relatively prime to 2 respectively.

Appendix B

Analysis

B.1 Local Absolute Uniform Convergence

Often, we are interested in some series

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} f_n(z),$$

where the $f_n(z)$ are analytic functions on some region Ω . We say that the series above is **locally absolutely uniformly convergent** if

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} |f_n(z)|,$$

converges uniformly on compact subsets of Ω . This mode of convergence is very useful because it is enough to guarantee the series is analytic on Ω :

Theorem B.1.1. *Suppose $(f_n(z))_{n \geq 1}$ is a sequence of analytic functions on a region Ω . Then if*

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} f_n(z),$$

is locally absolutely uniformly convergent, it is analytic on Ω .

We can also apply this idea in the case of integrals. Suppose we have an integral

$$\int_D f(z, x) dx,$$

where $f(z, x)$ is an analytic function on some region $\Omega \times D$. The integral is a function of z , and we say that the integral is **locally absolutely uniformly bounded** if

$$\int_D |f(z, x)| dx,$$

is uniformly bounded on compact subsets of Ω . Similar to the series case, this mode of convergence is very useful because it guarantees the integral is analytic on Ω :

Theorem B.1.2. *Suppose $f(z, x)$ is an analytic function on a region $\Omega \times D$. Then if*

$$\int_D f(z, x) dx,$$

is locally absolutely uniformly bounded, it is holomorphic on Ω .

B.2 Interchange of Integrals, Sums & Derivatives

Often, we would like to interchange a limit and an integral. This process is not always allowed, but in many instances it is. The **dominated convergence theorem** (DCT) covers the most well-known sufficient condition:

Theorem B.2.1 (Dominated convergence theorem). *Let $(f_n(z))_{n \geq 1}$ be a sequence of continuous real or complex integrable functions on some region Ω . Suppose that the sequence converges pointwise to a function $f(z)$, and that there is some integrable function g on Ω such that*

$$|f_n(z)| \leq g(z)$$

for all $n \geq 1$ and all $z \in \Omega$. Then $f(z)$ is integrable on Ω and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega} f_n(z) dz = \int_{\Omega} f(z) dz.$$

This theorem is often employed when the underlying sequence is a sequence of partial sums of an absolutely convergent series ($g(s)$ will be the absolute series). In this case we have the following result:

Corollary B.2.1. *Suppose $\sum_{n \geq 1} f_n(z)$ is an absolutely convergent series of real or complex continuous functions that are integrable on some region Ω and that either $\int_{\Omega} \sum_{n \geq 1} |f_n(z)| dz$ or $\sum_{n \geq 1} \int_{\Omega} |f_n(z)| dz$ is finite. Then*

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} \int_{\Omega} f_n(z) dz = \int_{\Omega} \sum_{n \geq 1} f_n(z) dz.$$

Of course, we can apply Corollary B.2.1 repeatedly to interchange a sum with multiple integrals provided that the partial sums are absolutely convergent in each variable.

Other times we would also like to interchange a derivative and an integral. The **Leibniz integral rule** tells us when this is allowed:

Theorem B.2.2 (Leibniz integral rule). *Suppose $f(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is a function such that both $f(\mathbf{x}, t)$ and its partial derivative $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(\mathbf{x}, t)$ are continuous in \mathbf{x} and t in some region including $\Omega \times [a(\mathbf{x}), b(\mathbf{x})]$ for some real-valued functions $a(\mathbf{x})$ and $b(\mathbf{x})$ and region Ω . Also suppose that $a(\mathbf{x})$ and $b(\mathbf{x})$ are continuous with continuous partial derivatives $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} a(\mathbf{x})$ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} b(\mathbf{x})$ for $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$. Then for $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$, we have*

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\int_{a(\mathbf{x})}^{b(\mathbf{x})} f(\mathbf{x}, t) dt \right) = f(\mathbf{x}, b(\mathbf{x})) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} b(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}, a(\mathbf{x})) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} a(\mathbf{x}) + \int_{a(\mathbf{x})}^{b(\mathbf{x})} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(\mathbf{x}, t) dt.$$

The Leibniz integral rule is sometimes applied in the case when $a(\mathbf{x}) = a$ and $b(\mathbf{x}) = b$ are constant. In this case, we get the following corollary:

Corollary B.2.2. *Suppose $f(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is a function such that both $f(\mathbf{x}, t)$ and its partial derivative $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(\mathbf{x}, t)$ are continuous in \mathbf{x} and t in some region including $\Omega \times [a, b]$ for some reals a and b and region Ω . Then for $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$, we have*

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\int_a^b f(\mathbf{x}, t) dt \right) = \int_a^b \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(\mathbf{x}, t) dt.$$

B.3 Summation Formulas

The most well-known summation formula is **partial summation**:

Theorem B.3.1 (Partial summation). *Let $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$ and $(b_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be two sequences of complex numbers. Then for any positive integers N and M with $1 \leq M < N$ we have*

$$\sum_{M \leq k \leq N} a_k(b_{k+1} - b_k) = (a_N b_{N+1} - a_M b_M) - \sum_{M+1 \leq k \leq N} b_k(a_k - a_{k-1}).$$

There is a more useful summation formula for analytic number theory as it lets one estimate discrete sums by integrals. For this we need some notation. If $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$ is a sequence of complex numbers, for every $X > 0$ set

$$A(X) = \sum_{n \leq X} a_n.$$

Then **Abel's summation formula** is the following:

Theorem B.3.2 (Abel's summation formula). *Let $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be a sequence of complex numbers. For every X and Y with $0 \leq X < Y$ and continuously differentiable function $\phi : [X, Y] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, we have*

$$\sum_{X \leq n \leq Y} a_n \phi(n) = A(Y)\phi(Y) - A(X)\phi(X) - \int_X^Y A(u)\phi'(u) du.$$

There are also some useful corollaries. For example, if we take the limit as $Y \rightarrow \infty$ we obtain:

Corollary B.3.1. *Let $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be a sequence of complex numbers. For every $X \geq 0$ and continuously differentiable function $\phi : \mathbb{R}_{\geq X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, we have*

$$\sum_{n \geq X} a_n \phi(n) = \lim_{Y \rightarrow \infty} A(Y)\phi(Y) - A(X)\phi(X) - \int_X^\infty A(u)\phi'(u) du.$$

We can take this corollary further by letting $X < 1$ so that $A(X) = 0$ to get the following:

Corollary B.3.2. *Let $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be a sequence of complex numbers. For every continuously differentiable function $\phi : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, we have*

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} a_n \phi(n) = \lim_{Y \rightarrow \infty} A(Y)\phi(Y) - \int_1^\infty A(u)\phi'(u) du.$$

B.4 Fourier Series

Let $N \geq 1$ be an integer. If $f(x)$ is N -periodic and integrable on $[0, N]$, then we define the n -th **Fourier coefficient** $\hat{f}(n)$ of $f(x)$ to be

$$\hat{f}(n) = \int_0^N f(x) e^{-\frac{2\pi i n x}{N}} dx.$$

The **Fourier series** of $f(x)$ is defined by the series

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e^{\frac{2\pi i n x}{N}}.$$

There is the question of whether the Fourier series of $f(x)$ converges at all and if so does it even converge to $f(x)$ itself. Under reasonable conditions the answer is yes as is seen in the following proposition:

Proposition B.4.1. *If $f(x)$ is smooth and N -periodic it converges uniformly to its Fourier series everywhere.*

In particular, all holomorphic N -periodic functions $f(z)$ converge uniformly to their Fourier series everywhere because for fixed y , $f(z)$ restricts to an N -periodic smooth function on \mathbb{R} that's integrable on $[0, N]$. Actually we can do a little better. If $f(z)$ is N -periodic and meromorphic on \mathbb{C} , then after clearing polar divisors we will have a holomorphic function on \mathbb{C} and hence it will have a Fourier series converging uniformly everywhere. Therefore $f(z)$ will have such a Fourier series with meromorphic Fourier coefficients. In either situation, the case $N = 1$ is the most commonly seen. So for meromorphic (or holomorphic) 1-periodic functions $f(z)$,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e^{2\pi i n z},$$

uniformly everywhere.

B.5 Factorizations, Order & Rank

The **elementary factors**, also referred to as **primary factors**, are the entire functions $E_n(z)$ defined by

$$E_n(z) = \begin{cases} 1 - z & \text{if } n = 0, \\ (1 - z)e^{z + \frac{z^2}{2} + \dots + \frac{z^n}{n}} & \text{if } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

If $f(z)$ is an entire function, then it admits a factorization in terms of its zeros and the elementary factors. This is called the **Weierstrass factorization** of $f(z)$:

Theorem B.5.1 (Weierstrass factorization). *Let $f(z)$ be an entire function with $\{a_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ the nonzero zeros of $f(z)$ counted with multiplicity. Also suppose that $f(z)$ has a zero of order m at $z = 0$ where it is understood that if $m = 0$ we mean $f(0) \neq 0$ and if $m < 0$ we mean $f(z)$ has a pole of order $|m|$ at $z = 0$. Then there exists an entire function $g(z)$ and sequence of nonnegative integers $(p_n)_{n \geq 1}$ such that*

$$f(z) = z^m e^{g(z)} \prod_{n \geq 1} E_{p_n} \left(\frac{z}{a_n} \right).$$

The Weierstrass factorization of $f(z)$ can be strengthened if $f(z)$ does not grow too fast. We say $f(z)$ is of **finite order** if there exists a $\rho_0 > 0$ such that

$$f(z) \ll e^{|z|^{\rho_0}},$$

for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$. The **order** ρ of $f(z)$ is the infimum of the ρ_0 . Let $q = \lfloor \rho \rfloor$. If there is no such ρ_0 , $f(z)$ is said to be of **infinite order** and we set $\rho = q = \infty$. Let $\{a_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ be the nonzero zeros of $f(z)$ that are not zero and ordered such that $a_n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ if there are infinitely many zeros. Then we define the **rank** of $f(z)$ to be the smallest positive integer p such that the series

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{|a_n|^{p+1}},$$

converges. If there is no such integer we set $p = \infty$ and if there are finitely many zeros we set $p = 0$. We set $g = \max\{p, q\}$ and call g the **genus** of $f(z)$. We can now state the **Hadamard factorization** of $f(z)$:

Theorem B.5.2 (Hadamard factorization). *Let $f(z)$ be an entire function of finite order ρ . If p is the rank and g is the genus, then $g \leq \rho$. Moreover, let $\{a_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ be the nonzero zeros of $f(z)$ counted with multiplicity and suppose that $f(z)$ has a zero of order m at $z = 0$ where it is understood that if $m = 0$ we mean $f(0) \neq 0$ and if $m < 0$ we mean $f(z)$ has a pole of order $|m|$ at $z = 0$. Then there exists a polynomial $Q(z)$ of degree at most q such that*

$$f(z) = z^m e^{Q(z)} \prod_{n \geq 1} E_p \left(\frac{z}{a_n} \right).$$

Moreover, the sum

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{|a_n|^{\rho+\varepsilon}},$$

converges.

B.6 The Phragmén-Lindelöf Convexity Principle for a Strip

The **Phragmén-Lindelöf convexity principle** is a generic name for extending the maximum modulus principle to unbounded regions. The **Phragmén-Lindelöf Convexity principle for a strip** is the case when the unbounded region is the vertical strip $a < \sigma < b$:

Theorem B.6.1 (Phragmén-Lindelöf Convexity principle for a strip). *Let $f(s)$ be a holomorphic function on an open neighborhood of the vertical strip $a < \sigma < b$ such that $f(s) \ll e^{|s|^A}$ for some $A \geq 0$. Then the following hold:*

- (i) *If $|f(s)| \leq M$ for $\sigma = a, b$, that is on the boundary edges of the strip, then $|f(s)| \leq M$ for all s in the strip.*
- (ii) *Assume that there is a continuous function $g(t) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that*

$$f(a + it) \ll g(t)^\alpha \quad \text{and} \quad f(b + it) \ll g(t)^\beta,$$

for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$f(s) \ll g(t)^{\alpha \ell(\sigma) + \beta(1 - \ell(\sigma))},$$

where ℓ is the linear function such that $\ell(a) = 1$ and $\ell(b) = 0$.

We will also need a variant. The **Phragmén-Lindelöf Convexity principle for a half-strip** is the case when the unbounded region is the vertical strip $a < \sigma < b$ with $t > c$:

Theorem B.6.2 (Phragmén-Lindelöf Convexity principle for a half-strip). *Let $f(s)$ be a holomorphic function on an open neighborhood of the vertical strip $a < \sigma < b$ with $t > c$ such that $f(s) \ll e^{|s|^A}$ for some $A \geq 0$. Then the following hold:*

- (i) *If $|f(s)| \leq M$ for $\sigma = a, b$ with $t \geq c$ and $t = c$ with $a \leq \sigma \leq b$, that is on the boundary edges of the half-strip, then $|f(s)| \leq M$ for all s in the strip.*
- (ii) *Assume that there is a continuous function $g(t) : \mathbb{R}_{\geq c} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that*

$$f(a + it) \ll g(t)^\alpha \quad \text{and} \quad f(b + it) \ll g(t)^\beta,$$

for all $t \geq c$. Then

$$f(s) \ll g(t)^{\alpha \ell(\sigma) + \beta(1 - \ell(\sigma))},$$

where ℓ is the linear function such that $\ell(a) = 1$ and $\ell(b) = 0$.

B.7 Bessel Functions

For any $\nu \in \mathbb{C}$, the **Bessel equation** is the ODE

$$x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + x \frac{dy}{dx} + (x^2 - \nu^2)y = 0.$$

There are two linearly independent solutions to this equation. One solution is the **Bessel function of the first kind** $J_\nu(x)$ defined by

$$J_\nu(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{(-1)^n}{n! \Gamma(n + \nu + 1)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2n + \nu}.$$

For integers n , $J_n(x)$ is entire and we have

$$J_n(x) = (-1)^n J_{-n}(x).$$

Otherwise, $J_\nu(x)$ has a pole at $x = 0$ and $J_\nu(x)$ and $J_{-\nu}(x)$ are linearly independent solutions to the Bessel equation. The other solution is the **Bessel function of the second kind** $Y_\nu(x)$ defined by

$$Y_\nu(x) = \frac{J_\nu(x) \cos(\nu\pi) - J_{-\nu}(x)}{\sin(\nu\pi)},$$

for non-integers ν , and for integers n is

$$Y_n(x) = \lim_{\nu \rightarrow n} Y_\nu(x).$$

For any integer n , we also have

$$Y_n(x) = (-1)^n Y_{-n}(x).$$

For the J -Bessel function there is also an important integral representation called the **Schl\"{a}flin integral representation**:

Proposition B.7.1 (Schl\"{a}flin integral representation for the J -Bessel function). *For any $\nu \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(x) > 0$,*

$$J_\nu(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^\nu \int_{-\infty}^{(0+)} t^{-(\nu+1)} e^{t - \frac{x^2}{4t}} dt.$$

The **modified Bessel equation** is the ODE

$$x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + x \frac{dy}{dx} - (x^2 + \nu^2)y = 0.$$

Like the Bessel equation, there are two linearly independent solutions. One solution is the **modified Bessel function of the first kind** $I_\nu(x)$ given by

$$I_\nu(x) = i^{-\nu} J_\nu(ix) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{n! \Gamma(n + \nu + 1)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2n + \nu}.$$

For integers n , this solution is symmetric in n . That is,

$$I_n(x) = I_{-n}(x).$$

We also have a useful integral representation in a half-plane:

Proposition B.7.2. *For any $\nu \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(x) > 0$,*

$$I_\nu(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi e^{x \cos(t)} \cos(\nu t) dt - \frac{\sin(\nu\pi)}{\pi} \int_0^\infty e^{-x \cosh(t) - \nu t} dt,$$

where the integrals are understood to be complex integrals.

From this integral representation we can show the following asymptotic:

Lemma B.7.1. *For any $\nu \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(x) > 0$,*

$$I_\nu(x) = O(e^x).$$

The other solution is the **modified Bessel function of the second kind** $K_\nu(x)$ defined by

$$K_\nu(x) = \frac{\pi}{2} \frac{I_{-\nu}(x) - I_\nu(x)}{\sin(\nu\pi)},$$

for non-integers ν , and for integers n is

$$K_n(x) = \lim_{\nu \rightarrow n} K_\nu(x).$$

This is one of the more important types of Bessel functions as they appear in the Fourier coefficients of certain Eisenstein series. This function is symmetric in ν even when ν is an integer. That is,

$$K_\nu(x) = K_{-\nu}(x),$$

for all ν . We also have a very useful integral representation in a half-plane:

Proposition B.7.3. *For any $\nu \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(x) > 0$,*

$$K_\nu(x) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x \cosh(t)} \cosh(\nu t) dt,$$

where the integral is understood to be a complex integral.

From this integral representation it does not take much to show the following asymptotic:

Lemma B.7.2. *For any $\nu \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(x) > 0$,*

$$K_\nu(x) = o(e^{-x}).$$

B.8 Whittaker Functions

For $\kappa, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$, the **Whittaker equation** is the ODE

$$\frac{dw}{dz} + \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{\kappa}{z} - \frac{\frac{1}{4} - \mu^2}{z^2} \right) w = 0.$$

There are two linearly independent solutions to this equation. If we additionally assume that $w(z) = o(e^{2\pi \operatorname{Im}(z)})$ as $\operatorname{Im}(z) \rightarrow \infty$, then there is only one linearly independent solution. This solution is the **Whittaker function** $W_{\kappa, \mu}(z)$. It can be expressed in the form

$$W_{\kappa, \mu}(z) = z^{\mu + \frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{z}{2}} U\left(\mu - \kappa + \frac{1}{2}, 1 + 2\mu, z\right),$$

where $U(\alpha, \beta, z)$ is the **confluent hypergeometric function** initially defined by

$$U(\alpha, \beta, z) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty e^{-zu} u^{\alpha-1} (1+u)^{\beta-\alpha-1} du,$$

for $\operatorname{Re}(\alpha) > 0$ and $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 0$ and then analytically continued to \mathbb{C}^3 . From this integral representation we can show the following asymptotic:

Lemma B.8.1. *For any $\kappa, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 0$,*

$$W_{\kappa, \mu}(z) \sim z^\kappa e^{-\frac{z}{2}}.$$

The Whittaker function has a simplified form in special cases:

Theorem B.8.1. *If $\nu, \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 0$,*

$$W_{0, \nu}(z) = \left(\frac{z}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} K_\nu\left(\frac{z}{2}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad W_{\alpha, \alpha - \frac{1}{2}}(z) = z^\alpha e^{-\frac{z}{2}}.$$

B.9 Sums Over Lattices

Let $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and let $\|\mathbf{a}\| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_d^2}$ be the usual norm. We are often interested in series that obtained by summing over the lattice $\mathbb{Z}^d \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. In particular, we have the following general result:

Theorem B.9.1. *Let $d \geq 1$ be an integer. Then*

$$\sum_{\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{Z}^d - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^s},$$

is locally absolutely uniformly convergent in the region $\sigma > d$.

In a practical setting, we usually restrict to the case $d = 2$. In this setting, with a little more work can show a more useful result:

Proposition B.9.1. *Let $z \in \mathbb{H}$. Then*

$$\sum_{(n, m) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 - \{\mathbf{0}\}} \frac{1}{|nz + m|^s},$$

is locally absolutely uniformly convergent in the region $\sigma > 2$. In addition, it is locally absolutely uniformly convergent as a function of z provided $\sigma > 2$.

Appendix C

Algebra

C.1 Character Groups

For any finite abelian group G , a **character** φ is a homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. They form a group, denoted \widehat{G} , under multiplication called the **character group** of G . If G is an additive group, we say that any $\varphi \in \Gamma$ is a **additive character**. Similarly, if G is a multiplicative group, we say that any $\varphi \in \Gamma$ is a **multiplicative character**. In any case, if $|G| = n$ then $\varphi(g)^n = \varphi(g^n) = 1$ so that φ takes values in the n -th roots of unity. Moreover, to every character φ there is its **conjugate character** $\overline{\varphi}$ defined by $\overline{\varphi}(g) = \overline{\varphi(g)}$. Clearly the conjugate character is also a character. Since φ takes its value in the roots of unity, $\overline{\varphi(a)} = \varphi(a)^{-1}$ so that $\overline{\varphi} = \varphi^{-1}$. One of the central theorems about characters is that the character group of G is isomorphic to G :

Proposition C.1.1. *Any finite abelian group G is isomorphic to its character group. That is,*

$$G \cong \widehat{G}.$$

The characters also satisfy certain **orthogonality relations**:

Proposition C.1.2 (Orthogonality relations). *Let G be a finite abelian group.*

(i) *For any two characters χ and ψ of G ,*

$$\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi(g) \overline{\psi}(g) = \delta_{\chi, \psi}.$$

(ii) *For any $g, h \in G$,*

$$\frac{1}{|\widehat{G}|} \sum_{\chi \in \widehat{G}} \chi(g) \overline{\chi}(h) = \delta_{g, h}.$$

C.2 Representation Theory

Let G be a group and V be a vector space over a field \mathbb{F} . A **representation** (ρ, V) , or just ρ if the underlying vector space V is clear, of G on V is a map

$$\rho : G \times V \rightarrow V \quad (g, v) \mapsto \rho(g, v) = g \cdot v,$$

such that the following properties are satisfied:

1. For any $g \in G$, the map

$$\rho(g) : V \rightarrow V \quad v \mapsto g \cdot v,$$

is linear.

2. For any $g, h \in G$ and $v \in V$,

$$1 \cdot v = v \quad \text{and} \quad g \cdot (h \cdot v) = (gh) \cdot v.$$

Therefore ρ defines an action of G on V . An equivalent definition of a representation of G on V is a homomorphism from G into $\text{Aut}(V)$. By abuse of notation, we also denote this homomorphism by ρ . If the dimension of V is n , then (ρ, V) is said to be an **n-dimensional**. We say that (ρ, W) is a **subrepresentation** of (V, ρ) if $W \subseteq V$ is a G -invariant subspace. In particular, (ρ, W) is a representation itself. Lastly, if (ρ_1, V_1) and (ρ_2, V_2) are two representations, we can form the **direct sum representation** $(\rho_1 \oplus \rho_2, V_1 \oplus V_2)$ where $\rho_1 \oplus \rho_2$ acts diagonally on $V_1 \oplus V_2$. A natural question to ask is how representation can be decomposed as a direct sum of other representations. We say (ρ, V) is **irreducible** if it contains no proper G -invariant subspaces and is **completely irreducible** if it decomposes as a direct sum of irreducible subrepresentations.

We will only need one very useful theorem about representations when G is a finite abelian group and V is a vector space over \mathbb{C} . In this case G has a group of characters \widehat{G} , and the underlying vector space V is completely reducible with respect to the characters of G :

Theorem C.2.1. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{C} and let Φ be a representation of a group G on V . If G is a finite abelian group, then*

$$V = \bigoplus_{\chi \in \widehat{G}} V_{\chi},$$

where

$$V_{\chi} = \{v \in V : g \cdot v = \chi(g)v \text{ for all } g \in G\}.$$

In particular, V is completely reducible and every irreducible subrepresentation is 1-dimensional.

Appendix D

Miscellaneous

D.1 Special Integrals

Below is a table of well-known integrals that are used throughout the text:

Reference	Assumptions	Integral
Gaussian		$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} dx = 1$
[Gol06]	$s, \nu \in \mathbb{C}, \operatorname{Re}(s + \nu) > -1$	$\int_0^{\infty} K_{\nu}(y) y^s \frac{dy}{y} = 2^{s-2} \Gamma\left(\frac{s + \nu}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s - \nu}{2}\right)$
[Gol06]	$n \in \mathbb{Z}, s \in \mathbb{C}, y > 0$	$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(x^2 + 1)^s} e^{-2\pi i n x y} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(s - \frac{1}{2})}{\Gamma(s)} & \text{if } n = 0, \\ \frac{2\pi^s n ^{s - \frac{1}{2}} y^{s - \frac{1}{2}}}{\Gamma(s)} K_{s - \frac{1}{2}}(2\pi n y) & \text{if } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$
[Dav80]	$c > 0$	$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{(c)} y^s \frac{ds}{s} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 < y < 1, \\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } y = 1, \\ 1 & \text{if } y > 1. \end{cases}$

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