# Notes on the book: Apostol, Modular Functions and Dirichlet Series in Number Theory, 2nd edition

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# Chapter 1: Elliptic functions

#### Exercise 1.1.

Given two pairs of complex numbers  $(\omega_1, \omega_2)$  and  $(\omega_1', \omega_2')$  with nonreal ratios  $\omega_1/\omega_2$  and  $\omega_1'/\omega_2'$ . Prove that they generate the same set of periods if, and only if, there is a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$  with integer entries and determinant  $\pm 1$  such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} \omega_2' \\ \omega_1' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \omega_2 \\ \omega_1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proof.

(1)  $(\Longrightarrow)$  Suppose  $(\omega_1, \omega_2)$  and  $(\omega_1', \omega_2')$  generate the same set of periods. In particular, there is a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A := \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathsf{M}_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{Z})$  (resp.  $A' := \begin{pmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' \end{pmatrix} \in \mathsf{M}_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{Z})$ ) such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} \omega_2' \\ \omega_1' \end{pmatrix} = A \begin{pmatrix} \omega_2 \\ \omega_1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \begin{pmatrix} \omega_2 \\ \omega_1 \end{pmatrix} = A' \begin{pmatrix} \omega_2' \\ \omega_1' \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence it suffices to show  $det(A) = \pm 1$ .

(2) Note that

$$\begin{pmatrix} \omega_2' \\ \omega_1' \end{pmatrix} = AA' \begin{pmatrix} \omega_2' \\ \omega_1' \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$AA' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Take the determinant on the both sides to get

$$\det(A)\det(A')=1.$$

Since  $\det(\mathsf{M}_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{Z}))\subseteq \mathbb{Z}, \, \det(A)=\pm 1.$ 

(3)  $(\Leftarrow)$   $\Omega(\omega_1', \omega_2') \subseteq \Omega(\omega_1, \omega_2)$  is obvious. Note that

$$\begin{pmatrix} \omega_2 \\ \omega_1 \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}}_{\in \mathsf{M}_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{Z})} \begin{pmatrix} \omega_2' \\ \omega_1' \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus  $\Omega(\omega_1, \omega_2) \subseteq \Omega(\omega_1', \omega_2')$ . Therefore  $\Omega(\omega_1, \omega_2) = \Omega(\omega_1', \omega_2')$ .

## Supplement 1.1.1.

(Exercise I.1.1 in the textbook: Jörgen Neukirch, Algebraic Number Theory.)  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a unit if and only if  $N(\alpha) = 1$ .

Proof.

- (1) ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Since  $\alpha$  is a unit, there is  $\beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$  such that  $\alpha\beta = 1$ . So  $N(\alpha\beta) = N(1)$ , or  $N(\alpha)N(\beta) = 1$ . Since the image of N is nonnegative integers,  $N(\alpha) = 1$ .
- (2)  $(\Leftarrow)$   $N(\alpha) = \alpha \overline{\alpha}$ , or  $1 = \alpha \overline{\alpha}$  since  $N(\alpha) = 1$ . That is,  $\overline{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$  is the inverse of  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ . (Or we solve the equation  $N(\alpha) = a^2 + b^2 = 1$ , and show that all four solutions  $(\pm 1 \text{ and } \pm i)$  are units.)
- (3) Conclusion: a unit  $\alpha = a + bi$  of  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is satisfying the equation  $N(\alpha) = a^2 + b^2 = 1$  by (1)(2). That is, the only unit of  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  are  $\pm 1$  and  $\pm i$ .

#### Exercise 1.2.

Let S(0) denote the sum of the zeros of an elliptic function f in a period parallelogram, and let  $S(\infty)$  denote the sum of the poles in the same parallelogram. Prove that  $S(0) - S(\infty)$  is a period of f. (Hint: Integrate  $z\frac{f'(z)}{f(z)}$ .)

Proof.

(1) Similar to Theorem 1.8, the integral

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)}$$

taken around the boundary C of a cell (no zeros or poles on its boundary) counts the difference between the sum of the zeros and the sum of the poles inside the cell, that is,

$$S(0) - S(\infty) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)}.$$

(The proof is similar to the proof of the argument principle.)

(2) Let  $C_1$  be the path from 0 to  $\omega_1$ ,  $C_2$  be the path from  $\omega_1$  to  $\omega_1 + \omega_2$ ,  $C_3$ 

be the path from  $\omega_1 + \omega_2$  to  $\omega_2$ , and  $C_4$  be the path from  $\omega_2$  to 0. Hence

$$\begin{split} &\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_3} z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-C_1} (z + \omega_2) \frac{f'(z + \omega_2)}{f(z + \omega_2)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} (z + \omega_2) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \\ &= -\omega_2 \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \end{split}$$

and

$$\begin{split} &\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_2} z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_4} z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-C_4} (z + \omega_1) \frac{f'(z + \omega_1)}{f(z + \omega_1)} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_4} z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \\ &= -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_4} (z + \omega_1) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_4} z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \\ &= -\omega_1 \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_4} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \end{split}$$

Therefore

$$S(0) - S(\infty) = -\omega_1 \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_t} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} - \omega_2 \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_t} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)}.$$

So it suffices to show that  $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \in \mathbb{Z}$ . (Other cases are similar.)

(3) By choosing one branch of log, we have

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \log \frac{f(\omega_1)}{f(0)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \log(1) \qquad (f(\omega_1) = f(0))$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} (2\pi i m) \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$= m \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

#### Exercise 1.3.

(a) Prove that  $\wp(u) = \wp(v)$  if, and only if, u - v or u + v is a period of  $\wp$ .

(b) Let  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  and  $b_1, \ldots, b_m$  be complex numbers such that none of the numbers  $\wp(a_i) - \wp(b_j)$  is zero. Let

$$f(z) = \frac{\prod_{k=1}^{n} [\wp(z) - \wp(a_k)]}{\prod_{r=1}^{m} [\wp(z) - \wp(b_r)]}.$$

Prove that f is an even elliptic function with zeros at  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  and poles at  $b_1, \ldots, b_m$ .

Proof of (a).

- (1) Let  $\Omega$  be the lattice generated by periods of  $\wp$ .
- (2) ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) It is equivalent to show that the equation  $\wp(u) = \wp(v)$  in terms of u has exactly two roots in some period parallelogram.  $u \equiv v \pmod{\Omega}$  is a root clearly and  $u \equiv -v \pmod{\Omega}$  is also a root since  $\wp$  is even. Since  $\wp$  is an elliptic function of order 2 (Theorem 1.8),  $u \equiv \pm v \pmod{\Omega}$  is the only two roots of  $\wp(u) = \wp(v)$ .
- $(3) \iff$  Obvious.

Proof of (b).

- (1) Since  $\wp$  is an even elliptic function, f is an even elliptic function too.
- (2) f has zeros at  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  and poles at  $b_1, \ldots, b_m$  (by construction and (a)).

#### Exercise 1.4.

Prove that every even elliptic function f is a rational function of  $\wp$ , where periods of  $\wp$  are a subset of the periods of f.

Proof.

- (1) Nothing to do if f is constant. Let C be one period parallelogram of f and  $\wp$ . Let  $\Omega(\omega_1, \omega_2)$  be the lattice generated by periods of  $\wp$ . Suppose f has zeros at  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  and poles at  $b_1, \ldots, b_m$ .
- (2) Might assume that  $\wp(z) \wp(a_k)$  (resp.  $\wp(z) \wp(b_r)$ ) has a simple zero in  $a_k$  (resp.  $b_r$ ) for all k, r. So the function

$$g(z) := f(z) \cdot \frac{\prod_{r=1}^{m} [\wp(z) - \wp(b_r)]^{\beta_r}}{\prod_{k=1}^{n} [\wp(z) - \wp(a_k)]^{\alpha_k}}$$

is an elliptic function with no zeros or poles in C where  $\alpha_k$  (resp.  $\beta_r$ ) is the order of the zero  $a_k$  (resp. the pole  $b_r$ ). By Theorems 1.4 and 1.5, g(z) is a constant. Hence

$$f(z) = C \cdot \frac{\prod_{k=1}^{n} [\wp(z) - \wp(a_k)]^{\alpha_k}}{\prod_{r=1}^{m} [\wp(z) - \wp(b_r)]^{\beta_r}}$$

for some constant  $C \in \mathbb{C}$ .

(3) Now we consider the case  $a_k$  (resp.  $b_r$ ) is a zero of  $\wp'(z)$ . Since f is an even elliptic function, the order of  $a_k$  (resp.  $b_r$ ) of f is even. Note that the order of  $a_k$  (resp.  $b_r$ ) of  $\wp(z) - \wp(a_k)$  (resp.  $\wp(z) - \wp(b_r)$ ) is 2. Hence the function

$$g(z) := f(z) \cdot \frac{\prod_{\wp'(b_r) \neq 0} [\wp(z) - \wp(b_r)]^{\beta_r}}{\prod_{\wp'(a_k) \neq 0} [\wp(z) - \wp(a_k)]^{\alpha_k}} \cdot \frac{\prod_{\wp'(b_r) = 0} [\wp(z) - \wp(b_r)]^{\frac{\beta_r}{2}}}{\prod_{\wp'(a_k) = 0} [\wp(z) - \wp(a_k)]^{\frac{\alpha_k}{2}}}$$

is a constant too.

# Supplement 1.4.1. (Divisor class group)

(Problem 8.6 in the textbook: William Fulton, Algebraic Curves.) Let D(X) be the group of divisors on X,  $D_0(X)$  the subgroup consisting of divisors of degree zero, and P(X) the subgroup of  $D_0(X)$  consisting of divisors of rational functions. Let  $C_0(X) = D_0(X)/P(X)$  be the quotient group. It is the **divisor class group** on X.

- (a) If  $X = \mathbf{P}^1$ , then  $C_0(X) = 0$ .
- (b) Let X = C be a nonsingular cubic. Pick  $P_0 \in C$ , defining  $\oplus$  on C. Show that the map from C to  $C_0(X)$  that sends P to the residue class of the divisor  $P P_0$  is an isomorphism from  $(C, \oplus)$  onto  $C_0(X)$ .

Proof of (a).

(1) Given a divisor

$$D = \sum_{P \in X} n_P P \in D_0(X)$$

where  $n_P \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\sum_P n_P = 0$ .

(2) Note that  $\sum_{P} n_{P} = 0$ . We can define a rational function  $z \in k(X)$  by

$$z = \prod_{P=[a_P:b_P]\in X} (b_P x - a_P y)^{n_P}.$$

Hence  $\operatorname{div}(z) = D \in P(X)$ . Therefore  $C_0(X) = D_0(X)/P(X) = 0$ .

Proof of (b).

- (1) Define  $\alpha:(C,\oplus)\to C_0(X)$  by  $P\mapsto [P-P_0]$ .
- (2) Show that  $\alpha$  is a group homomorphism. If  $P \oplus Q = R$ , then

$$P \oplus Q = R$$
  
 $\iff [P+Q] = [R+P_0]$  (Problem 8.3(c))  
 $\iff [P-P_0] + [Q-P_0] = [R-P_0]$  (Proposition 2)  
 $\iff \alpha(P) + \alpha(Q) = \alpha(R) = \alpha(P \oplus Q).$ 

(3) Show that  $\alpha$  is injective.

$$\alpha(P) = 0 \iff [P - P_0] = 0$$
 $\iff [P] = [P_0]$  (Proposition 2)
 $\iff P = P_0.$  (Problem 8.3(a))

(4) Show that  $\alpha$  is surjective. Given  $[D] \in C_0(X)$  and we want to find a point  $P \in C$  such that  $\alpha(P) = [D]$ . Write

$$D = (P_1 + \cdots + P_r) - (Q_1 + \cdots + Q_r)$$

for some  $P_i, Q_i \in C$ . So

$$[D] = [P_1 - P_0] + \dots + [P_r - P_0] - [Q_1 - P_0] - \dots - [Q_r - P_0]$$

$$= \alpha(P_1) + \dots + \alpha(P_r) - \alpha(Q_1) - \dots - \alpha(Q_r)$$

$$= \alpha(P_1) + \dots + \alpha(P_r) + \alpha(Q'_1) + \dots + \alpha(Q'_r)$$

$$= \alpha(P_1 \oplus \dots \oplus P_r \oplus Q'_1 \oplus \dots \oplus Q'_r).$$

where  $Q_i'$  is the inverse of  $Q_i$  in  $(C, \oplus)$ . Hence there is a point  $P := P_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus P_r \oplus Q_1' \oplus \cdots \oplus Q_r' \in C$  such that  $\alpha(P) = [D]$ .

#### Exercise 1.5.

Prove that every elliptic function f can be expressed in the form

$$f(z) = R_1[\wp(z)] + \wp'(z)R_2[\wp(z)]$$

where  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are rational functions and  $\wp$  has the same set of periods as f.

Proof.

$$f(z) = \underbrace{\frac{f(z) + f(-z)}{2}}_{\text{even}} + \wp'(z) \underbrace{\frac{f(z) - f(-z)}{2\wp'(z)}}_{\text{even}}$$

 $=R_1[\wp(z)]+\wp'(z)R_2[\wp(z)]$  for some rational functions  $R_1,R_2$ 

(by Exercise 1.4).  $\square$ 

#### Exercise 1.6.

Let f and g be two elliptic functions with the same set of periods. Prove that there exists a polynomial P(x,y), not identically zero, such that

$$P[f(z), g(z)] = C$$

where C is a constant (depending on f and g but not on z).

Proof.

(1) By Exercise 1.5, we have

$$f(z) = R_1[\wp(z)] + \wp'(z)R_2[\wp(z)]$$

for some rational functions  $R_1, R_2$  and  $\wp$  has the same set of periods as f. By cleaning the denominators of  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ , we might assume

$$S[\wp(z)]f(z) = R_1[\wp(z)] + \wp'(z)R_2[\wp(z)]$$

for some polynomials  $R_1, R_2, S$ .

(2) So

$$\wp'(z)R_2[\wp(z)] = S[\wp(z)]f(z) - R_1[\wp(z)]$$

$$\Longrightarrow \wp'(z)^2 R_2[\wp(z)]^2 = (S[\wp(z)]f(z) - R_1[\wp(z)])^2$$

$$\Longrightarrow (4\wp(z)^3 - 60G_4\wp(z) - 140G_6)R_2[\wp(z)]^2$$

$$= (S[\wp(z)]f(z) - R_1[\wp(z)])^2.$$
 (Theorem 1.12)
$$\Longrightarrow F(\wp(z), f(z)) = 0$$

for some polynomials  $F(x,y) \in \mathbb{C}[x,y]$ . Note that F(x,y) is of degree 2 if we view  $F \in (\mathbb{C}[x])[y]$ .

(3) Similarly,

$$G(\wp(z), g(z)) = 0$$

for some polynomials  $G(x, y) \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ .

(4) Let  $P = \text{Res}_x(F, G)$  be the resultant of two polynomials F and G with respect t x to eliminate  $\wp(z)$ . Note that P is a nonzero polynomial (since F and G are nonzero) and P[f(z), g(z)] = 0. So P is our desired polynomial.

#### Exercise 1.7.

The discriminant of the polynomial  $f(x) = 4(x - x_1)(x - x_2)(x - x_3)$  is the product  $16\{(x_2 - x_1)(x_3 - x_2)(x_3 - x_1)\}^2$ . Prove that the discriminant of  $f(x) = 4x^3 - ax - b$  is  $a^3 - 27b^2$ .

Proof.

(1) Since

$$f'(x) = 4(x - x_2)(x - x_3) + 4(x - x_1)(x - x_3) + 4(x - x_1)(x - x_2),$$

we have

$$f'(x_1) = 4(x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3),$$
  

$$f'(x_2) = 4(x_2 - x_1)(x_2 - x_3),$$
  

$$f'(x_3) = 4(x_3 - x_1)(x_3 - x_2).$$

Hence

$$f'(x_1)f'(x_2)f'(x_3) = -4\operatorname{disc}(f)$$

where  $\operatorname{disc}(f)$  is the discriminant of f(x).

(2) As  $f(x) = 4x^3 - ax - b$ , we have  $f'(x) = 12x^2 - a$ . So

$$f'(x_1)f'(x_2)f'(x_3) = (12x_1^2 - a)(12x_2^2 - a)(12x_3^2 - a).$$

Note that

$$x_1 x_2 x_3 = \frac{b}{4},$$

$$x_1 x_2 + x_2 x_3 + x_3 x_1 = -\frac{a}{4},$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0,$$

we have

$$x_1^2 x_2^2 x_3^2 = \frac{b^2}{4^2},$$

$$x_1^2 x_2^2 + x_2^2 x_3^2 + x_3^2 x_1^2 = (x_1 x_2 + x_2 x_3 + x_3 x_1)^2 - 2x_1 x_2 x_3 (x_1 + x_2 + x_3)$$

$$= \frac{a^2}{4^2},$$

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 = (x_1 + x_2 + x_3)^2 - 2(x_1 x_2 + x_2 x_3 + x_3 x_1)$$

$$= \frac{a}{2}.$$

(3) Hence

$$f'(x_1)f'(x_2)f'(x_3) = (12x_1^2 - a)(12x_2^2 - a)(12x_3^2 - a)$$

$$= 12^3(x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2) - 12^2a(x_1^2x_2^2 + x_2^2x_3^2 + x_3^2x_1^2)$$

$$+ 12a^2(x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2) - a^3$$

$$= 12^3 \cdot \frac{b^2}{4^2} - 12^2a \cdot \frac{a^2}{4^2} + 12a^2 \cdot \frac{a}{2} - a^3$$

$$= -4(a^3 - 27b^2).$$

Therefore

$$disc(4x^3 - ax - b) = a^3 - 27b^2.$$

#### Exercise 1.8.

The differential equation for  $\wp$  shows that  $\wp'(z)=0$  if  $z=\frac{\omega_1}{2},\frac{\omega_2}{2}$  or  $\frac{\omega_1+\omega_2}{2}$ . Show that

 $\wp''\left(\frac{\omega_1}{2}\right) = 2(e_1 - e_2)(e_1 - e_3)$ 

and obtain corresponding formulas for  $\wp''\left(\frac{\omega_2}{2}\right)$  and  $\wp''\left(\frac{\omega_1+\omega_2}{2}\right)$ .

Proof.

(1) Differentiation of the equation

$$4\wp(z)^3 - g_2\wp(z) - g_3 = 4(\wp(z) - e_1)(\wp(z) - e_2)(\wp(z) - e_3)$$

in Theorem 1.14 to get

$$12\wp(z)^{2}\wp'(z) - g_{2}\wp'(z) = 4\wp'(z)(\wp(z) - e_{2})(\wp(z) - e_{3})$$

$$+ 4\wp'(z)(\wp(z) - e_{1})(\wp(z) - e_{3})$$

$$+ 4\wp'(z)(\wp(z) - e_{1})(\wp(z) - e_{2}).$$

Since  $\wp''(z) = 6\wp(z)^2 - \frac{g_2}{2}$ , we have

$$\wp''(z) = 2(\wp(z) - e_2)(\wp(z) - e_3) + 2(\wp(z) - e_1)(\wp(z) - e_3) + 2(\wp(z) - e_1)(\wp(z) - e_2).$$

(2) Hence

$$\wp''\left(\frac{\omega_1}{2}\right) = 2(e_1 - e_2)(e_1 - e_3),$$

$$\wp''\left(\frac{\omega_2}{2}\right) = 2(e_2 - e_1)(e_2 - e_3),$$

$$\wp''\left(\frac{\omega_1 + \omega_2}{2}\right) = 2(e_3 - e_1)(e_3 - e_2).$$

Exercise 1.9.

According to Exercise 1.4, the function  $\wp(2z)$  is a rational function of  $\wp(z)$ . Prove that, in fact,

$$\wp(2z) = \frac{\{\wp(z)^2 + \frac{1}{4}g_2\}^2 + 2g_3\wp(z)}{4\wp(z)^3 - g_2\wp(z) - g_3} = -2\wp(z) + \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\wp''(z)}{\wp'(z)}\right)^2.$$

Proof.

(1) By  $\wp'(z)^2 = 4\wp(z)^3 - g_2\wp(z) - g_3$  and  $\wp''(z) = 6\wp(z)^2 - \frac{1}{2}g_2$ , we have  $-2\wp(z) + \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\wp''(z)}{\wp'(z)}\right)^2$   $= -2\wp(z) + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{(6\wp(z)^2 - \frac{1}{2}g_2)^2}{4\wp(z)^3 - g_2\wp(z) - g_3}$   $= \frac{-2\wp(z)[4\wp(z)^3 - g_2\wp(z) - g_3] + \frac{1}{4}(6\wp(z)^2 - \frac{1}{2}g_2)^2}{4\wp(z)^3 - g_2\wp(z) - g_3}$   $= \frac{\wp(z)^4 + \frac{1}{2}g_2\wp(z)^2 + \frac{1}{16}g_2^2 + 2g_3\wp(z)}{4\wp(z)^3 - g_2\wp(z) - g_3}$   $= \frac{\{\wp(z)^2 + \frac{1}{4}g_2\}^2 + 2g_3\wp(z)}{4\wp(z)^3 - g_2\wp(z) - g_3}.$ 

So it suffices to show that  $\wp(2z) = -2\wp(z) + \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\wp''(z)}{\wp'(z)}\right)^2$ .

(2) Let  $\Omega$  be the lattice generated by periods of  $\wp$ . Suppose the addition theorem of  $\wp$  holds, that is,

$$\wp(u) + \wp(v) + \wp(u+v) = \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\wp'(u) - \wp'(v)}{\wp(u) - \wp(v)} \right)^2$$

with  $u, v, u + v \not\equiv 0 \pmod{\Omega}$ . Then letting v to u, we have

$$\begin{split} \wp(2u) &= \lim_{v \to u} \wp(u+v) \\ &= \lim_{v \to u} \left\{ -\wp(u) - \wp(v) + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\wp'(u) - \wp'(v)}{\wp(u) - \wp(v)} \right)^2 \right\} \\ &= -2\wp(u) + \frac{1}{4} \lim_{v \to u} \frac{\wp'(v) - \wp'(u)}{\wp(v) - \wp(u)} \\ &= -2\wp(u) + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\wp''(u)}{\wp'(u)} \right)^2. \end{split}$$

The last equality is followed by L'Hospital's rule. So it suffices to show the addition theorem of  $\wp$  is true.

(3) Let u + v + w = 0, with  $u, v, w \not\equiv 0 \pmod{\Omega}$ . Show that

$$\begin{vmatrix} \wp(u) & \wp'(u) & 1 \\ \wp(v) & \wp'(v) & 1 \\ \wp(w) & \wp'(w) & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

Consider the elliptic function

$$f(z) := \wp'(z) - \underbrace{\frac{\wp'(u) - \wp'(v)}{\wp(u) - \wp(v)}}_{:=A} \wp(z) - \underbrace{\frac{\wp(u)\wp'(v) - \wp(v)\wp'(u)}{\wp(u) - \wp(v)}}_{:=B}.$$

f has exactly 3 zeros in a period parallelogram as f has order 3. Note that f has a pole at 0 of order 3. By Exercise 1.2, the sum of the zeros is equal to the sum of poles in a period parallelogram. Since u and v are zeros of f (by verifying f(u) = f(v) = 0 directly), the third zero must be -u - v = w. Hence there is a line

$$y = Ax + B$$

passing through 3 points  $(\wp(u), \wp'(u)), (\wp(v), \wp'(v))$  and  $(\wp(w), \wp'(w))$ . So the determinant is zero.

(4) Now we are going to remove the term  $\wp'(w)$  to prove the addition theorem of  $\wp$ . By Theorem 1.12, we have the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} y = Ax + B, \\ y^2 = 4x^3 - g_2x - g_3, \end{cases}$$

where  $(x,y) = (\wp(z), \wp'(z))$ . Hence

$$(Ax + B)^{2} = 4x^{3} - g_{2}x - g_{3}$$

$$\iff 4x^{3} - A^{2}x^{2} - (2AB + g_{2})x - (B^{2} + g_{3}) = 0$$

$$\implies \text{sum of three roots of } x \text{ is } \frac{A^{2}}{4}$$

$$\implies \wp(u) + \wp(v) + \wp(w) = \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\wp'(u) - \wp'(v)}{\wp(u) - \wp(v)} \right)^{2}$$

$$\implies \wp(-u - v) = -\wp(u) - \wp(v) + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\wp'(u) - \wp'(v)}{\wp(u) - \wp(v)} \right)^{2}$$

$$\implies \wp(u + v) = -\wp(u) - \wp(v) + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\wp'(u) - \wp'(v)}{\wp(u) - \wp(v)} \right)^{2}. \quad (\wp: \text{ even})$$

So the addition theorem of  $\wp$  is established.

Note.

- (1) In the proof, part (4) is similar to defining an addition  $\oplus$  on a nonsingular cubic E in  $\mathbf{P}^2(k)$ . It is equivalent to defining the divisor class group on E. See Problem 8.6 in the textbook: William Fulton, Algebraic Curves.
- (2) If  $E \in \mathbf{P}^2(\mathbb{C})$  is the elliptic curve corresponding to the lattice  $\Omega$ , then there is an isomorphism

$$\alpha: \mathbb{C}/\Omega \longrightarrow E: y^2z = 4x^3 - g_2xz^2 - g_3z^3$$

defined by

$$\alpha(z) = \begin{cases} [\wp(z) : \wp'(z) : 1] & \text{if } z \neq 0 \in \Omega, \\ [0 : 1 : 0] & \text{if } z = 0 \in \Omega, \end{cases}$$

such that  $\alpha$  is both analytic (as a mapping of complex manifolds) and algebraic (as a homomorphism of groups).

#### Exercise 1.10.

Let  $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$  be complex numbers with nonreal ratio. Let f(z) be an entire function and assume there are constants a and b such that

$$f(z + \omega_1) = a f(z),$$
  $f(z + \omega_2) = b f(z),$ 

for all z. Prove that  $f(z) = Ae^{Bz}$ , where A and B are constant.

Proof.

- (1) Might assume that  $a \neq 0$  and  $b \neq 0$  (otherwise f = 0 on  $\mathbb{C}$ ).
- (2) Define

$$g(z) := \frac{f(z)}{e^{Bz}}.$$

It suffices to show g is a constant. Note that g(z) is entire (since f and  $e^{Bz} \neq 0$  are entire). By Theorem 1.4, it suffices to show g is doubly periodic, that is, to show

$$q(z + \omega_1) = q(z)$$
 and  $q(z + \omega_2) = q(z)$ 

for suitable B.

(3) Note that

$$\begin{split} g(z+\omega_1) &= g(z) \text{ and } g(z+\omega_2) = g(z) \\ \Longleftrightarrow \frac{a}{e^{B\omega_1}} \cdot g(z) &= g(z) \text{ and } \frac{b}{e^{B\omega_2}} \cdot g(z) = g(z) \\ \Longleftrightarrow e^{B\omega_1} &= a \text{ and } e^{B\omega_2} = b \\ \Longleftrightarrow \exists \, B \text{ such that } e^{B\omega_1} = a \text{ and } e^{B\omega_2} = b. \end{split}$$

Take B such that  $e^{B(\omega_1-\omega_2)}=\frac{a}{b}$  (since  $\frac{a}{b}$  is well-defined,  $\omega_1-\omega_2\neq 0$ , and  $z\mapsto \exp(z)$  is a onto map from  $\mathbb C$  to  $\mathbb C\smallsetminus\{0\}$ ). Hence g is doubly periodic.

## Exercise 1.11.

If  $k \geq 2$  and  $\tau \in H$  prove that the Eisenstein series

$$G_{2k}(\tau) = \sum_{(m,n)\neq(0,0)} (m+n\tau)^{-2k}$$

has the Fourier expansion

$$G_{2k}(\tau) = 2\zeta(2k) + \frac{2(2\pi i)^{2k}}{(2k-1)!} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma_{2k-1}(n)e^{2\pi i n \tau}.$$

Proof.

(1) Let  $q = e^{2\pi i \tau}$ . Similar to Lemma 1.3 on page 19, we have

$$(2k-1)! \sum_{m=-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{(\tau+m)^{2k}} = (2\pi i)^{2k} \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} r^{2k-1} q^r.$$

(2) Similar to Theorem 1.18, we have

$$G_{2k}(\tau) = \sum_{\substack{(m,n) \neq (0,0) \\ m \neq 0(n=0)}} (m+n\tau)^{-2k}$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{m=-\infty \\ m \neq 0(n=0)}}^{+\infty} m^{-2k} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{+\infty} ((m+n\tau)^{-2k} + (m-n\tau)^{-2k})$$

$$= 2\zeta(2k) + 2\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{+\infty} (m+n\tau)^{-2k}$$

$$= 2\zeta(2k) + 2\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2\pi i)^{2k}}{(2k-1)!} \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} r^{2k-1} q^{nr}$$

$$= 2\zeta(2k) + \frac{2(2\pi i)^{2k}}{(2k-1)!} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{\substack{d \mid n \\ =\sigma_{2k-1}(n)}} d^{2k-1} q^{n}.$$

In the last double sum we collect together those terms for which nr is constant.

# Exercise 1.12.

Refer to Exercise 1.11. If  $\tau \in H$  prove that

$$G_{2k}\left(-\frac{1}{\tau}\right) = \tau^{2k}G_{2k}(\tau)$$

and deduce that

$$G_{2k}\left(\frac{i}{2}\right) = (-4)^k G_{2k}(2i) \qquad \text{for all } k \ge 2,$$

$$G_{2k}(i) = 0 \qquad \text{if } k \text{ is odd},$$

$$G_{2k}\left(e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}}\right) = 0 \qquad \text{if } k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{3}.$$

Proof.

(1)

$$G_{2k}\left(-\frac{1}{\tau}\right) = \sum_{(m,n)\neq(0,0)} \left(m - \frac{n}{\tau}\right)^{-2k}$$
$$= \tau^{2k} \sum_{(m,n)\neq(0,0)} (\tau m - n)^{-2k}$$
$$= \tau^{2k} G_{2k}(\tau).$$

- (2) Let  $\tau = 2i$ . We have  $G_{2k}\left(\frac{i}{2}\right) = (-4)^k G_{2k}(2i)$ .
- (3) Let  $\tau = i$ . We have  $G_{2k}(i) = (-1)^k G_{2k}(i)$ . Hence  $G_{2k}(i) = 0$  if k is odd.
- (4) Let  $\tau = e^{\frac{\pi i}{3}}$ . We have  $G_{2k}(e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}}) = e^{\frac{2k\pi i}{3}}G_{2k}(e^{\frac{\pi i}{3}})$ . Since

$$e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}} = -1 + e^{\frac{\pi i}{3}}$$

and each Eisenstein series is a periodic function of  $\tau$  of period 1, we have  $G_{2k}(e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}})=G_{2k}(e^{\frac{\pi i}{3}})$ . So  $G_{2k}(e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}})=e^{\frac{2k\pi i}{3}}G_{2k}(e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}})$ . Therefore  $G_{2k}(e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}})=0$  if  $k\not\equiv 0\pmod 3$ .

#### Exercise 1.13.

Ramanujan's tau function  $\tau(n)$  is defined by the Fourier expansion

$$\Delta(\tau) = (2\pi)^{12} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \tau(n) e^{2\pi i n \tau},$$

derived in Theorem 1.19. Prove that

$$\tau(n) = 8000\{(\sigma_3 \circ \sigma_3) \circ \sigma_3\}(n) - 147(\sigma_5 \circ \sigma_5)(n),$$

where  $f \circ g$  denotes the Cauchy product of two sequences,

$$(f \circ g)(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} f(k)g(n-k),$$

and  $\sigma_{\alpha}(n) = \sum_{d|n} d^{\alpha}$  for  $n \geq 1$ , with  $\sigma_3(0) = \frac{1}{240}$ ,  $\sigma_5(0) = -\frac{1}{504}$ . (Hint: Theorem 1.18.)

Proof.

(1) Let  $q = e^{2\pi i \tau}$ . Write

$$g_2(\tau) = \frac{4\pi^4}{3} \left\{ 1 + 240 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sigma_3(k) q^k \right\} = \frac{4\pi^4}{3} \left\{ 240 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sigma_3(k) q^k \right\},$$

$$g_3(\tau) = \frac{8\pi^6}{27} \left\{ 1 - 504 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sigma_5(k) q^k \right\} = \frac{8\pi^6}{27} \left\{ -504 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sigma_5(k) q^k \right\}$$

(Theorem 1.18).

(2) Similar to the proof of Theorem 1.19,

$$\begin{split} &\Delta(\tau) = g_2(\tau)^3 - 27g_3(\tau)^2 \\ &= \frac{64\pi^{12}}{27} \left\{ \left( 240 \sum_{k=0}^\infty \sigma_3(k) q^k \right)^3 - \left( -504 \sum_{k=0}^\infty \sigma_5(k) q^k \right)^2 \right\} \\ &= (2\pi)^{12} \left\{ 8000 \left( \sum_{k=0}^\infty \sigma_3(k) q^k \right)^3 - 147 \left( \sum_{k=0}^\infty \sigma_5(k) q^k \right)^2 \right\} \\ &= (2\pi)^{12} \sum_{n=0}^\infty \left\{ 8000 \{ (\sigma_3 \circ \sigma_3) \circ \sigma_3 \}(n) - 147(\sigma_5 \circ \sigma_5)(n) \} \, q^n \\ &= (2\pi)^{12} \sum_{n=1}^\infty \left\{ 8000 \{ (\sigma_3 \circ \sigma_3) \circ \sigma_3 \}(n) - 147(\sigma_5 \circ \sigma_5)(n) \} \, q^n . \end{split}$$

(Here  $8000\{(\sigma_3 \circ \sigma_3) \circ \sigma_3\}(0) - 147(\sigma_5 \circ \sigma_5)(0) = 0.$ )

(3) Therefore

$$\tau(n) = 8000\{(\sigma_3 \circ \sigma_3) \circ \sigma_3\}(n) - 147(\sigma_5 \circ \sigma_5)(n)$$

for n > 1.

# Exercise 1.14. (Lambert series)

A series of the form  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n) \frac{x^n}{1-x^n}$  is called a **Lambert series**. Assuming absolute convergence, prove that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n) \frac{x^n}{1 - x^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(n) x^n,$$

where

$$F(n) = \sum_{d \mid n} f(d).$$

Apply this result to obtain the following formulas, valid for |x| < 1.

(a) 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)x^n}{1-x^n} = x.$$

(b) 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varphi(n)x^n}{1-x^n} = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}.$$

(c) 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{\alpha} x^n}{1 - x^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma_{\alpha}(n) x^n.$$

(d) 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda(n)x^n}{1-x^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{n^2}.$$

(e) Use the result in (c) to express  $g_2(\tau)$  and  $g_3(\tau)$  in terms of Lambert series in  $x = e^{2\pi i \tau}$ .

Note. In (a),  $\mu(n)$  is the Möbius function; In (b),  $\varphi(n)$  is Euler's totient; and in (d),  $\lambda(n)$  is Liouville's function.

*Proof.* Similar to the proof of Exercise 1.11.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n) \frac{x^n}{1 - x^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n) \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} x^{rn}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} f(n) x^{rn}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{d|n} f(d) \right) x^n.$$

$$= F(n)$$

Proof of (a). Theorem 2.1 in the textbook: T. M. Apostol, Introduction to Analytic Number Theory shows that

$$F(n) := \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

Hence

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\mu(n)\frac{x^n}{1-x^n}=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}F(n)x^n=x.$$

Proof of (b). Theorem 2.2 in the textbook: T. M. Apostol, Introduction to Analytic Number Theory shows that  $F(n) := \sum_{d|n} \varphi(d) = n$ . Hence

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \varphi(n) \frac{x^n}{1 - x^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(n) x^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^n = \frac{x}{(1 - x)^2}.$$

Proof of (c). Since

$$F(n) := \sum_{d|n} d^{\alpha} = \sigma_{\alpha}(n),$$

we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{\alpha} \frac{x^n}{1-x^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(n) x^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma_{\alpha}(n) x^n.$$

Proof of (d). Theorem 2.19 in the textbook: T. M. Apostol, Introduction to Analytic Number Theory shows that

$$F(n) := \sum_{d|n} \lambda(d) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is a square,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Hence

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda(n) \frac{x^n}{1 - x^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(n) x^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{n^2}.$$

Proof of (e).

(1) Let  $q = x = e^{2\pi i \tau}$ 

$$g_2(\tau) = \frac{4\pi^4}{3} \left\{ 1 + 240 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sigma_3(k) q^k \right\}$$
 (Theorem 1.18)  
$$= \frac{4\pi^4}{3} \left\{ 1 + 240 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^3 q^k}{1 - q^k} \right\}$$
 ((c)).

(2) Similarly,

$$g_3(\tau) = \frac{8\pi^6}{27} \left\{ 1 - 504 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sigma_5(k) q^k \right\}$$
 (Theorem 1.18)  
$$= \frac{8\pi^6}{27} \left\{ 1 - 504 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^5 q^k}{1 - q^k} \right\}$$
 ((c)).

Note.

(1)

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda(n)x^n}{1 - x^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \log(n)x^n,$$

where  $\Lambda(n)$  is von Mangoldt function.

(2) Similar to Exercise 1.15, we have a similar formula for (a)

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)x^n}{1+x^n} = x - 2x^2$$

by noting that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{f(n)x^n}{1+x^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{f(n)x^n}{1-x^n} - 2\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{f(n)x^{2n}}{1-x^{2n}}.$$

#### Exercise 1.15.

Let

$$G(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^5 x^n}{1 - x^n},$$

and let

$$F(x) = \sum_{\substack{n=1\\(n \text{ odd})}}^{\infty} \frac{n^5 x^n}{1 + x^n}.$$

- (a) Prove that  $F(x) = G(x) 34G(x^2) + 64(x^4)$ .
- (b) Prove that

$$\sum_{\substack{n=1\\(n \ odd)}}^{\infty} \frac{n^5}{1 + e^{n\pi}} = \frac{31}{504}.$$

(c) Use Theorem 12.17 in the textbook: T. M. Apostol, Introduction to Analytic Number Theory to prove the more general result

$$\sum_{\substack{n=1\\ (n \text{ odd})}}^{\infty} \frac{n^{4k+1}}{1 + e^{n\pi}} = \frac{2^{4k+1} - 1}{8k+4} B_{4k+2}.$$

Proof of (a).

(1) Consider the general case. Let

$$G(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{4k+1}x^n}{1 - x^n},$$

and let

$$F(x) = \sum_{\substack{n=1\\ (n \ odd)}}^{\infty} \frac{n^{4k+1}x^n}{1+x^n}.$$

Show that  $F(x) = G(x) - (2^{4k+1} + 2)G(x^2) + 2^{4k+2}G(x^4)$ .

(2) The identity

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{1+x^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{1-x^n} - 2\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{1-x^{2n}}$$

is always true. Hence  $H(x):=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{n^{4k+1}x^n}{1+x^n}=G(x)-2G(x^2)$ .

(3) Note that

$$H(x) = \sum_{\substack{n=1\\(n \text{ odd})}}^{\infty} \frac{n^{4k+1}x^n}{1+x^n} + \sum_{\substack{n=1\\(n \text{ even})}}^{\infty} \frac{n^{4k+1}x^n}{1+x^n}$$
$$= F(x) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2n)^{4k+1}x^{2n}}{1+x^{2n}}$$
$$= F(x) + 2^{4k+1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{4k+1}x^{2n}}{1+x^{2n}}$$
$$= F(x) + 2^{4k+1}H(x^2).$$

Hence

$$F(x) = H(x) - 2^{4k+1}H(x^2)$$

$$= [G(x) - 2G(x^2)] - 2^{4k+1}[G(x^2) - 2G(x^4)]$$

$$= G(x) - (2^{4k+1} + 2)G(x^2) + 2^{4k+2}G(x^4).$$

*Proof of (b).* Take k = 1 in part (c), we have

$$\sum_{\substack{n=1\\ (n \text{ odd})}}^{\infty} \frac{n^5}{1 + e^{n\pi}} = \frac{31}{12} \cdot \frac{1}{42} = \frac{31}{504}.$$

Proof of (c).

(1) Let  $q = e^{2\pi i \tau}$ . So

$$G_{4k+2}(\tau) = 2\zeta(4k+2) + \frac{2(2\pi i)^{4k+2}}{(4k+1)!} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma_{4k+1}(n) q^n \qquad \text{(Exercise 1.11)}$$
$$= 2\zeta(4k+2) + \frac{2(2\pi i)^{4k+2}}{(4k+1)!} G(q) \qquad \text{(Exercise 1.14(c))}$$

Hence

$$\begin{split} G_{4k+2}(\tau) &- (2^{4k+1} + 2)G_{4k+2}(2\tau) + 2^{4k+2}G_{4k+2}(4\tau) \\ &= \left[ 2\zeta(4k+2) + \frac{2(2\pi i)^{4k+2}}{(4k+1)!}G(q) \right] \\ &- (2^{4k+1} + 2) \left[ 2\zeta(4k+2) + \frac{2(2\pi i)^{4k+2}}{(4k+1)!}G(q^2) \right] \\ &+ 2^{4k+2} \left[ 2\zeta(4k+2) + \frac{2(2\pi i)^{4k+2}}{(4k+1)!}G(q^4) \right] \\ &= (1 - (2^{4k+1} + 2) + 2^{4k+2}) \cdot 2\zeta(4k+2) \\ &+ \frac{2(2\pi i)^{4k+2}}{(4k+1)!}[G(q) - (2^{4k+1} + 2)G(q^2) + 2^{4k+2}G(q^4)] \\ &= (2^{4k+2} - 2)\zeta(4k+2) + \frac{2(2\pi i)^{4k+2}}{(4k+1)!}F(q). \end{split}$$

(2) By taking  $\tau = \frac{i}{2}$ , we have

$$F(q) = F(e^{-\pi}) = \sum_{\substack{n=1\\(n \text{ odd})}}^{\infty} \frac{n^{4k+1}}{1 + e^{n\pi}}$$

and

$$\begin{split} G_{4k+2}(\tau) &- (2^{4k+1}+2)G_{4k+2}(2\tau) + 2^{4k+2}G_{4k+2}(4\tau) \\ &= G_{4k+2}\left(\frac{i}{2}\right) - (2^{4k+1}+2)G_{4k+2}(i) + 2^{4k+2}G_{4k+2}(2i) \\ &= (-4)^{2k+1}G_{4k+2}(2i) - (2^{4k+1}+2)\cdot 0 + 2^{4k+2}G_{4k+2}(2i) \\ &= 0. \end{split}$$

(Exercise 1.12). Hence

$$0 = (2^{4k+2} - 2)\zeta(4k+2) + \frac{2(2\pi i)^{4k+2}}{(4k+1)!} \sum_{\substack{n=1\\(n \text{ odd})}}^{\infty} \frac{n^{4k+1}}{1 + e^{n\pi}}.$$

(3) Theorem 12.17 in the textbook: T. M. Apostol, Introduction to Analytic Number Theory shows that

$$\zeta(4k+2) = (-1)^{2k+1+1} \frac{(2\pi)^{4k+2} B_{4k+2}}{2(4k+2)!} = \frac{(2\pi)^{4k+2} B_{4k+2}}{2(4k+2)!}.$$

Hence

$$\sum_{\substack{n=1\\ (n \text{ odd})}}^{\infty} \frac{n^{4k+1}}{1 + e^{n\pi}} = \frac{2^{4k+1} - 1}{8k+4} B_{4k+2}.$$

# Chapter 2: The modular group and modular functions

In these exercise,  $\Gamma$  denotes the modular group, S and T denote its generators  $S(\tau) = -\frac{1}{\tau}$ ,  $T(\tau) = \tau + 1$ , and I denotes the identity element.

#### Exercise 2.2.

Find the smallest integer n > 0 such that  $(ST)^n = I$ .

Proof.

- (1) n = 3.
- (2) Write

$$ST = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

So

$$(ST)^2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$
$$(ST)^3 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = I \in \Gamma.$$

Here we identify each matrix with its negative, since both of them represent the same transformation.

#### Exercise 2.4.

Determine all elements A of  $\Gamma$  which leave i fixed.

Proof.

- (1) Show that  $A=I,S\in\Gamma$  fixes i. Say  $A=\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}\in\Gamma$  satisfying Ai=i. Then  $Ai=\frac{ai+b}{ci+d}=i$  implies that  $ai+b=ci^2+di=di-c$  or b=-c and a=d. Hence  $1=\det(A)=ad-bc=a^2+b^2$ . Therefore  $(a,b)=(\pm 1,0)$  or  $(0,\pm 1)$ .
- (2) The case  $a = \pm 1$  and b = 0.  $A = I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  (by identifying each matrix with its negative).

(3) The case  $b = \pm 1$  and a = 0.  $A = S = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  (by identifying each matrix with its negative).

#### Exercise 2.5.

Determine all elements A of  $\Gamma$  which leave  $\rho = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}}$  fixed.

Proof.

- (1) Show that  $A = I, S \in \Gamma$  fixes  $\rho$ . Say  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma$  satisfying  $A\rho = \rho$ . Then  $A\rho = \frac{a\rho + b}{c\rho + d} = \rho$  implies that  $a\rho + b = c\rho^2 + d\rho = c(-\rho 1) + d\rho = (-c + d)\rho c$  or a = -c + d and b = -c.
- (2) So  $1 = \det(A) = ad bc = (-c + d)d + c^2 = c^2 cd + d^2$ , or  $1 = (c \frac{d}{2})^2 + \frac{3}{4}d^2$ , or  $4 = (2c d)^2 + 3d^2$ . Hence  $(c, d) = (\pm 1, 0), (0, \pm 1)$ .
- (3) The case  $c = \pm 1$  and d = 0.  $A = S = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  (by identifying each matrix with its negative).
- (4) The case c=0 and  $d=\pm 1$ .  $A=I=\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  (by identifying each matrix with its negative).

# Quadratic forms and the modular group

The following exercises relate quadratic forms and the modular group  $\Gamma$ . We consider quadratic forms  $Q(x,y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$  in x and y with real coefficients a,b,c. The number  $d=4ac-b^2$  is called the **discriminant** of Q(x,y).

#### Exercise 2.6.

If x and y are subjected to unimodular transformation, say

$$x = \alpha x' + \beta y', \qquad y = \gamma x' + \delta y', \qquad \text{where } \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma,$$
 (\*)

prove that Q(x,y) gets transformed to a quadratic form  $Q_1(x',y')$  having the same discriminant. Two forms Q(x,y) and  $Q_1(x',y')$  so related are called **equivalent**. This equivalence relation separates all forms into equivalence classes. The forms in a given class has the same discriminant, and they represent the same integers. That is, if Q(x,y) = n for some pair of integers x and y, then  $Q_1(x',y') = n$  for the pair of integers x' and y' givin by (\*).

Proof.

(1) Write

$$Q(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} x & y \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{b}{2} & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus the discriminant of Q(x,y) is  $4 \det \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{b}{2} & c \end{pmatrix}$ .

(2) Hence

$$Q_{1}(x',y') = Q(\alpha x' + \beta y', \gamma x' + \delta y')$$

$$= (\alpha x' + \beta y' \quad \gamma x' + \delta y') \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{b}{2} & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha x' + \beta y' \\ \gamma x' + \delta y' \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (x' \quad y') \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \gamma \\ \beta & \delta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{b}{2} & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus the discriminant of  $Q_1(x', y')$  is

$$4 \det \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \gamma \\ \beta & \delta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{b}{2} & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= 4 \det \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \gamma \\ \beta & \delta \end{pmatrix} \det \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{b}{2} & c \end{pmatrix} \det \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= 4 \underbrace{(\alpha \delta - \beta \gamma)^2}_{=\pm 1} \det \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{b}{2} & c \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= 4 \det \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{b}{2} & c \end{pmatrix},$$

which is the same as the discriminant of Q(x, y).

#### Congruence subgroups

The modular group  $\Gamma$  has many subgroups of special interest in number theory. The following exercises deal with a class of subgroups call **congruence** subgroups.

Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix}$$

be two unimodular matrices. (In this discussion we do not identify a matrix with its negative.) If n is a positive integer write

$$A \equiv B \pmod{n}$$
 whenever  $a \equiv \alpha$ ,  $b \equiv \beta$ ,  $c \equiv \gamma$  and  $d \equiv \delta \pmod{n}$ .

This defines an equivalence relation with the property that

$$A_1 \equiv A_2 \pmod{n}$$
 and  $B_1 \equiv B_2 \pmod{n}$ 

implies

$$A_1B_1 \equiv A_2B_2 \pmod{n} \ and \ A_1^{-1} \equiv A_2^{-1} \pmod{n}.$$

Hence

$$A \equiv B \pmod{n}$$
 if, and only if,  $AB^{-1} \equiv I \pmod{n}$ ,

where I is the identity matrix. We denote by  $\Gamma^{(n)}$  the set of all matrices in  $\Gamma$  congruent modulo n to the identity. This is called the **congruence subgroup** of level n.

Prove each of the following statements:

#### Exercise 2.11.

 $\Gamma^{(n)}$  is a subgroup of  $\Gamma$ . Moreover, if  $B \in \Gamma^{(n)}$  then  $A^{-1}BA \in \Gamma^{(n)}$  for every A in  $\Gamma$ . That is,  $\Gamma^{(n)}$  is a normal subgroup of  $\Gamma$ .

Proof.

- (1) Show that  $\Gamma^{(n)}$  is a subgroup of  $\Gamma$ .  $\Gamma^{(n)} \neq \emptyset$  since  $I \in \Gamma^{(n)}$ . Suppose  $A, B \in \Gamma^{(n)}$ , that is,  $A \equiv I \pmod{n}$  and  $B \equiv I \pmod{n}$ . Hence  $AB^{-1} \equiv II^{-1} \equiv I \pmod{n}$  or  $AB^{-1} \in \Gamma^{(n)}$ .
- (2) Show that  $\Gamma^{(n)}$  is normal in  $\Gamma$ . Note that

$$A^{-1}BA \equiv A^{-1}IA \equiv A^{-1}A \equiv I \pmod{n}$$

for every  $B \in \Gamma^{(n)}$  and A in  $\Gamma$ . Hence  $A^{-1}BA \in \Gamma^{(n)}$ .

#### Exercise 2.12.

The quotient group  $\Gamma/\Gamma^{(n)}$  is finite. That is, there exist a finite number of elements of  $\Gamma$ , say  $A_1, \ldots, A_k$ , such that every B in  $\Gamma$  is representable in the form

$$B = A_i B^{(n)}$$
 where  $1 \le i \le k$  and  $B^{(n)} \in \Gamma^{(n)}$ .

The smallest such k is called the index of  $\Gamma^{(n)}$  in  $\Gamma$ .

Proof.

(1) Consider the exact sequence

$$1 \to \Gamma^{(n)} \to SL_2(\mathbb{Z}) \to SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) \to 1.$$

The surjectivity of the residue class map is proved in Exercise 2.14.

(2) Hence  $\Gamma/\Gamma^{(n)} \cong SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$  is a finite group.

#### Exercise 2.13.

The index of  $\Gamma^{(n)}$  in  $\Gamma$  is the number of equivalence classes of matrices modulo n.

*Proof.* The index is the number of all cosets of  $\Gamma/\Gamma^{(n)} = |SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})|$  (by Exercise 2.12).  $\square$ 

The following exercises determine an explicit formula for the index.

#### Exercise 2.14.

Given integers a, b, c, d with  $ad - bc \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , there exist integers  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$  such that  $\alpha \equiv a, \beta \equiv b, \gamma \equiv c$  and  $\delta \equiv d \pmod{n}$  with  $\alpha\delta - \beta\gamma = 1$ .

It is equivalent to show that the residue class map

$$SL_2(\mathbb{Z}) \to SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$$

is surjective.

Proof.

(1) Might assume  $a \neq 0$ . Suppose a = 0, we can lift

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b & -a \\ d & -c \end{pmatrix}$$

from  $SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$  to  $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$  (where  $b \neq 0$ ) by the following proof, say

$$\begin{pmatrix} \beta & -\alpha \\ \delta & -\gamma \end{pmatrix} \in SL_2(\mathbb{Z}).$$

Thus

$$\begin{pmatrix} \beta & -\alpha \\ \delta & -\gamma \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix}$$

is our desired.

(2) Since  $ad - bc \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , there is an integer  $s \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$ad - bc + sn = 1.$$

Note that  $a \neq 0$  and gcd(a, b, n) = 1. Take

$$t = \prod_{\substack{p \mid a \\ p \nmid b}} p$$

where p is a prime factor of a. (We take t = 1 if  $a = \pm 1$ .)

(3) Hence (a,b+tn)=1 by the construction of t and  $\gcd(a,b,n)=1$ . So 1 is a linear combination of a and b+tn. In particular, there exist  $u,v\in\mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$ua - v(b + tn) = s + tc.$$

Define

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b+tn \\ c+vn & d+un \end{pmatrix}.$$

(4) Therefore  $\alpha \equiv a, \, \beta \equiv b, \, \gamma \equiv c \text{ and } \delta \equiv d \pmod n$  and

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b+tn \\ c+vn & d+un \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= a(d+un) - (b+tn)(c+vn)$$

$$= \underbrace{(ad-bc+sn)}_{=1} + \underbrace{(au-(b+tn)v-s-ct)}_{=0} n$$

$$= 1.$$

# Exercise 2.15.

If gcd(m, n) = 1 and  $A \in \Gamma$  there exists  $\overline{A} \in \Gamma$  such that

$$\overline{A} \equiv A \pmod{n}, \qquad \overline{A} \equiv I \pmod{m}.$$

Proof.

(1) Suppose

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}, \qquad B = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(\mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z}).$$

(2) First we solve  $\alpha$  in the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} \alpha \equiv a \pmod{n} \\ \alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{m} \end{cases}$$

The chinese remainder theorem guarantees that  $\alpha$  exists. Similarly,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  exist.

(3) Note that  $det(B) \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  and  $det(B) \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ . Hence  $det(B) \equiv 1 \pmod{mn}$  by the chinese remainder theorem. That is,  $B \in \Gamma^{(mn)}$ . By Exercise 2.14, we can lift  $B \in \Gamma^{(mn)}$  to some  $\overline{A} \in \Gamma$ .

#### Supplement 2.15.1. (Chinese remainder theorem)

(Exercise I.3.5 in the textbook: Jörgen Neukirch, Algebraic Number Theory.) The quotient ring  $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{a}$  of a Dedekind domain by an ideal  $\mathfrak{a} \neq 0$  is a principal ideal domain. (Hint: For  $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}^n$  the only proper ideals of  $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{a}$  are given by  $\mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^n, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}^{n-1}/\mathfrak{p}^n$ . Choose  $\pi \in \mathfrak{p} \setminus \mathfrak{p}^2$  and show that  $\mathfrak{p}^{\nu} = \mathcal{O}\pi^{\nu} + \mathfrak{p}^n$ .)

Proof.

- (1) By the Chinese remainder theorem, it suffices to show the case  $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}^n$  where  $\mathfrak{p}$  is prime.
- (2) There is a natural correspondence between

$$\{\text{ideals of } \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}^n\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{ideals of } \mathcal{O} \text{ containing } \mathfrak{p}^n\}.$$

Hence the proper ideals of  $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}^n$  are given by  $\mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^n, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}^{n-1}/\mathfrak{p}^n$ .

(3) Similar to Exercise I.3.4, choose  $\pi \in \mathfrak{p} \setminus \mathfrak{p}^2$  and thus  $\mathfrak{p}^{\nu} = \mathcal{O}\pi^{\nu} + \mathfrak{p}^n$   $(\nu = 1, \dots, n-1)$  since they have the same prime factorization. Hence  $\mathfrak{p}^{\nu}/\mathfrak{p}^n = (\pi^{\nu} + \mathfrak{p}^n)$  is principal.

# Exercise 2.16.

Let f(n) denote the number of equivalence classes of matrices modulo n. The f is a multiplicative function.

Proof.

- (1) Exercise 2.20 shows everything.
- (2) Or use the same proof in Exercise 2.15. Suppose gcd(m,n) = 1 and it is equivalent to show f(mn) = f(m)f(n). Define a natural group homomorphism

$$\alpha: SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z}) \to SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}) \times SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}).$$

 $\alpha$  is well-defined. So it suffices to show that  $\alpha$  is an isomorphism.

(3) Both the injectivity and the surjectivity are guaranteed the chinese remainder theorem. Hence  $\alpha$  is isomorphic.

# Exercise 2.17.

If a, b, n are integers with  $n \ge 1$  and gcd(a, b, n) = 1 the congruence

$$ax - by \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

has exactly n solutions, distinct congruent modulo n. (A solution is an ordered pair (x, y) of integers.)

Proof.

(1) Write sa - tb + un = 1 for some  $s, t, u \in \mathbb{Z}$  since  $\gcd(a, b, n) = 1$ . Hence

$$ax - by \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \iff ax - by \equiv sa - tb + un \pmod{n}$$
  
 $\iff a(x - s) \equiv b(y - b) \pmod{n}.$ 

Hence it is equivalent to show that

$$ax \equiv by \pmod{n}$$

has exactly n solutions (upto modulo n).

- (2) Start with a fixed y. The linear congruence equation  $ax \equiv by \pmod{n}$  is solvable iff  $g := \gcd(a, n) \mid (by)$  iff  $g \mid y$  (since  $\gcd(a, b, n) = \gcd(g, b) = 1$ ). If so, then x has exactly g solutions (upto modulo n).
- (3) Note that there are  $\frac{n}{g}$  possible choices of y satisfying  $g \mid y$  (upto modulo n), that is,  $y = \nu g$  for  $1 \le \nu \le \frac{n}{g}$ . So there are exactly  $g \cdot \frac{n}{g} = n$  solutions.

#### Exercise 2.18.

For each prime p the number of solutions, distinct modulo  $p^r$ , of all possible congruences of the form

$$ax - by \equiv 1 \pmod{p^r}$$
, where  $gcd(a, b, p) = 1$ 

is equal to  $f(p^r)$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $gcd(a, b, p^r) = gcd(a, b, p) = 1$ . So the number of is exactly the same as  $|SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})| = f(p^r)$ .  $\square$ 

#### Exercise 2.19.

If p is the number of pairs of integers (a,b), incongruent modulo  $p^r$ , which satisfy the condition gcd(a,b,p)=1 is  $p^{2r-2}(p^2-1)$ .

Proof.

(1) The number is

$$\sum_{d|p^r} \mu(d) \left(\frac{p^r}{d}\right)^2 = p^{2r} \sum_{d|p^r} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2} = p^{2r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2}\right) = p^{2r-2}(p^2 - 1)$$

by the definition of the Möbius function  $\mu$ .

(2) In particular,  $f(p^r) = p^r \cdot p^{2r-2}(p^2 - 1) = p^{3r-2}(p^2 - 1)$ .

## Exercise 2.20.

 $f(n) = n^3 \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2}$ , where  $\mu$  is the Möbius function.

Proof.

(1)

$$f(n) = |SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})|$$

$$= n|\{(a,b) \pmod{n} : \gcd(a,b,n) = 1\}|$$
(Exercise 2.17)
$$= n \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^2$$
(Inclusion-exclusion principle)
$$= n^3 \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2}.$$

(2) Since  $n \mapsto \frac{1}{n^2}$  is multiplicative, Theorem 2.18 in the textbook: T. M. Apostol, Introduction to Analytic Number Theory shows that

$$\sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2} = \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2}\right).$$

Hence we can also write

$$f(n) = n^3 \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2} = n^3 \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2}\right).$$

- (3) In particular, f is a multiplicative function (Exercise 2.16).
- (4) Or we can use Exercises 2.16 and 2.19 to show

$$f(n) = n^3 \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2}\right) = n^3 \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2}.$$

 $\it Note.$  See "Project Euler 193: Squarefree Numbers" for the same trick. The answer should be

$$\sum_{d=1}^{\sqrt{n}} \mu(d) \left\lfloor \frac{n}{d^2} \right\rfloor.$$