Number theory and arithmetic geometry

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Part I Basic notions

Category theory

Sheaves

Affine schemes

3.1 Motivation

3.2 The spectrum of a ring

Definition 3.2.1. *Define the* spectrum *of a ring* R

 $\mathsf{Spec}\,R = \{I \subseteq R : I \text{ is a prime ideal}\}$

The element of $Spec\ R$ corresponding to the prime ideal P of R will be denoted [P] when it is not clear from context.

3.3 Some examples

Algebraic integers

Pellentesque condimentum, magna ut suscipit hendrerit, ipsum augue ornare nulla, non luctus diam neque sit amet urna.

The Dude

Fix a domain A integrally closed in K := K(A). Let L|K be a finite extension, and B the integral closure of A in L. This is the AKLB *diagram*:



4.1 Properties of integrality

Integrality is stable under the ring operations: one would like the following to hold, and they do: This is a corollary of the following:

Theorem 4.1.1 (Module-theoretic characterization of integrality). A finite number of b_i are integral over $A \iff$ the ring $A[b_1, \ldots, b_n]$ is finitely generated as an A-module.

Corollary 4.1.2. *If* α *and* b *are integral over* A, *so are* $\alpha + b$ *and* αb .

Theorem 4.1.3 (Integrality is transitive). *Consider ring extensions* $A \subseteq B \subseteq C$. $A \subseteq B$ *integral and* $B \subseteq C$ *integral* $\iff A \subseteq C$ *integral*.

Proof.
$$A \subseteq C$$
 integral implies $A \subseteq B$ integral. (Why?)

Theorem 4.1.4. Any element $l \in L$ is equal to b/a for $b \in B$ and $a \in A$.

Proof. Consider an element $l \in L$. The minimal polynomial m_l of l over K gives rise to a polynomial over A

$$a_n l^n + a_{n-1} l^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 = 0$$

by clearing denominators. Now observe that $\ell := \mathfrak{a}_n \mathfrak{l}$ is integral over A: multiplying by \mathfrak{a}_n^{n-1} gives an equation of the form

$$\ell^n+\alpha_{n-1}'\ell^{n-1}+\cdots+\alpha_0'=0.$$

This shows that taking $b/a = \ell/a_n$ works.

Remark 4.1.5. Notice that K(B) = L. Indeed, $B \subset L$ so $K(B) \subset L$, and the result above shows that $L \subset K(B)$ (set-theoretically, $L \subset B \times A \subset B \times B$).

Theorem 4.1.6. $l \in L$ is integral over A iff its minimal polynomial μ_l over K has coefficients in A.

Proof. If $\mu := \mu_l \in A[x]$ then we have integrality of l over A by definition. Consider now the case of an integral l with minimal polynomial $\mu \in K[x]$. From integrality over A we know that l is a root of some $g \in A[x]$. Then $\mu | g$ in K[x], so all zeros of μ are zeros of g and hence integral over A.

By Vietà, the coefficients a_i are given by elementary symmetric polynomials in the roots and are hence, by Corollary 4.1.2, integral over A themselves. The a_i are elements of K, so, in this case, integrality over A means that $a_i \in K$, and hence $\mu \in A[x]$.

4.2 The trace and the norm

Given $x \in L$, multiplication by x determines an endomorphism

$$T_x : \alpha \mapsto x\alpha$$

of the K-vector space L. We define the trace and norm maps

$$\operatorname{Tr}_{\mathsf{L}|\mathsf{K}}(z) = \operatorname{tr}\mathsf{T}_z$$

 $\operatorname{Nm}_{\mathsf{L}|\mathsf{K}}(z) = \det\mathsf{T}_z$

Let n = [L : K]. The characteristic polynomial

$$\chi_z(t) = \det(tI - T_z)$$

= $t^n - a_1t^{n-1} + \dots + (-1)^n a_n \in K[i]$

contains coefficients $a_1 = Tr_{L|K}(z)$ and $a_n = Nm_{L|K}(z)$.

Remark 4.2.7. If this isn't immediately clear, think Vietà. (This will be one of the recurring themes throughout this chapter.)

4.3 Galois-theoretic interpretations

Fix an algebraic closure $\bar{K} = K^{\alpha lg}$ of K.

Proposition 4.3.8. If L|K is separable, letting $\sigma: L \to \bar{K}$ vary over the K-embeddings of L into \bar{K} , we have

- 1. $\chi_z(t) = \prod_{\sigma} (t \sigma z)$
- 2. $\operatorname{Tr}_{L|K}(z) = \sum_{\sigma} \sigma z$
- 3. $\operatorname{Nm}_{L|K}(z) = \prod_{\sigma} \sigma z$

Proof. Let d = [L : K(x)]. The characteristic polynomial is a power

$$\chi_z = \mu_z^d$$

where d = [L : K(z)]. Part 1 easily implies the others, by Vietà's formulas.

Theorem 4.3.9. *For a tower of finite extensions* $K \subseteq L \subseteq M$ *, we have*

$$\begin{split} & \text{Tr}_{L|K} \circ \text{Tr}_{M|L} & = \text{Tr}_{M|K} \\ & \text{Nm}_{L|K} \circ \text{Nm}_{M|L} = \text{Nm}_{M|K} \end{split}$$

4.4 Integral bases

Definition 4.4.10. The **discriminant** of a basis α_i of a separable extension L|K is defined by

$$d(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) = det((\sigma_i \alpha_i))^2$$

where the σ_i are the K-embeddings $L \hookrightarrow \bar{K}$.

Proposition 4.4.11. For L|K a separable extension with basis α_i , the function

$$(x,y) = Tr_{L|K}(xy)$$

yields a nondegenerate bilinear form on the K-vector space L.

Corollary 4.4.12. For L|K and α_i as above,

$$d(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n)\neq 0.$$

Proof. The form has matrix

$$M = Tr_{L|K}((\alpha_i\alpha_j))$$

with respect to the given basis. The nondegeneracy of the form, which we have from Proposition 4.4.11, is equivalent to the statement that $\det M \neq 0$, whence the claim follows.

Lemma 4.4.13. Let (α_i) be a basis of L|K contained in B, with $d = d(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)$. Then

$$dB \subseteq A\alpha_1 + \cdots + A\alpha_n$$
.

Proposition 4.4.14. If L|K is separable and A is a PID, every finitely generated B-submodule $M \neq 0$ of L s a free A-module of rank [L:K].

Corollary 4.4.15. B admits an integral basis over A.

Proposition 4.4.16. Let M|K and N|K be two Galois extensions with $M \cap N = K$, with $\mathfrak{m} = [M:K]$ and $\mathfrak{n} = [N:K]$. Fix integral bases $(\alpha_i)_{1 \leqslant i \leqslant \mathfrak{m}}$ of M|K and $(\beta_j)_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant \mathfrak{n}}$ of N|K respectively, with discriminants μ and ν respectively. If μ and ν are relatively prime, with $x\mu + y\nu = 1$ for some $x, y \in A$, then $(\alpha_i\beta_j)$ is an integral basis of MN, with discriminant $\mathfrak{m}^{\nu}\mathfrak{n}^{\mu}$.

Proposition 4.4.17. *If* $i \subseteq j$ *are two nonzero finite* \mathcal{O}_K -submodules of K, then (j:i) is finite. Moreover,

$$d(\mathfrak{i}) = (\mathfrak{j} : \mathfrak{i})^2 d(\mathfrak{j})$$

holds.

Appendix A

Commutative algebra

- A.1 Tensor products of modules
- A.2 Operations on modules
- A.3 Localization

Appendix B

Complex analysis

B.1 Holomorphy and complex differentiability

There are, broadly speaking, two criteria that we would like nice complex-valued functions to satisfy. The first is a notion of differentiability similar to the one from calculus, where every function can be linearly approximated by a *derivative*, while the second asks that every function be locally representable by a *power series* expansion.

This section will develop these notions, demonstrate relations between the two, and discuss some simple consequences of these conditions.

Initial definitions

Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbf{C}$ be an open set.

Definition B.1.1. A function $f: \Omega \to \mathbf{C}$ is complex differentiable at z_0 if the limit

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)}{h}$$

exists. f is said to be complex differentiable on Ω if it is complex differentiable at all $z_0 \in \Omega$.

Definition B.1.2 (Narasimhan). $f: \Omega \to \mathbf{C}$ *is* holomorphic on Ω *if, for all* $z_0 \in \Omega$, *there exists a neighborhood* $U \subseteq \Omega$ *of* z_0 *and a sequence* $\{c_n\}_{n\geqslant 0}$ *of complex numbers such that, for all* $z \in U$, *the series*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z-z_0)^n$$

converges to f(z).

These two definitions are in fact equivalent: holomorphy on Ω is the same as C-differentiability on Ω . This is the content of the Cauchy-Goursat theorem, which we will prove later (TODO ref).

Properties

Holomorphy and complex differentiability imply relations between the "x-behavior" and "y-behavior" of a function, so that there are certain rigidity properties we can be assured of. We now show a few properties which are all roughly similar in nature, culminating in Definition B.1.6.

Proposition B.1.3. Let $f: \Omega \to \mathbf{C}$ be \mathbf{C} -differentiable at $\alpha \in \Omega$. Then $\partial_{\alpha} f(\alpha)$ and $\partial_{\mu} f(\alpha)$ exist, and

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\alpha) = -i\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(\alpha) = f'(\alpha)$$

holds.

Proof. In the Riemann tradition, write $a = \sigma + it$. We will calculate f'(a) in two ways, by approaching 0 along the real axis, then along the imaginary axis.

Taking $0 \neq \xi \in \mathbf{R}$,

$$\begin{split} f'(\alpha) &= \lim_{\xi \to 0} \frac{f(\alpha + \xi) - f(\alpha)}{\xi} \\ &= \lim_{\xi \to 0} \frac{f(\sigma + \xi, t) - f(\sigma, t)}{\xi} \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\alpha). \end{split}$$

Taking $0 \neq \eta \in \mathbf{R}$,

$$\begin{split} f'(\alpha) &= \lim_{\xi \to 0} \frac{f(\alpha + \eta) - f(\alpha)}{i\eta} \\ &= \lim_{\xi \to 0} \frac{f(\sigma, t + \eta) - f(\sigma, t)}{i\eta} \\ &= \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(\alpha). \end{split}$$

Equating these two expressions to f'(a) is then enough.

Note that x and y can be expressed in terms of z and \bar{z} :

$$x = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}$$
$$y = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}$$

This means one can (formally?) write, using the chain rule,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} + \frac{1}{2i} \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{2}(f_z - if_y)$$

Exercise B.1.A. What is the analogous expression for $\partial_{\bar{z}}$?

This motivates the following definition.

Definition B.1.4. The Wirtinger derivatives are differential operators defined as follows:

$$\vartheta_z = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2} (\vartheta_x - i\vartheta_y)$$
$$\vartheta_{\bar{z}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{1}{2} (\vartheta_x + i\vartheta_y)$$

Proposition B.1.5. *If* $f : \Omega \to \mathbf{C}$ *is* \mathbf{C} -differentiable at $\alpha \in \Omega$,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(\alpha) = f'(\alpha)$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}}(\alpha) = 0$$

Exercise B.1.B. *Prove this.* (*This is essentially a restatement of Proposition B.1.3 using the new notation.)*

Definition B.1.6. *Let* $f: \Omega \to \mathbf{C}$ *be written as* f = u + iv, *where* $u, v: \Omega \to \mathbf{R}$. *Then the equations*

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= i \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} &= 0 \end{split}$$

are each equivalent to the following pair of equations:

$$u_{x} = v_{y} \tag{B.1}$$

$$-\mathbf{u}_{\mathsf{u}} = \mathbf{v}_{\mathsf{x}} \tag{B.2}$$

These differential equations are called the Cauchy-Riemann equations.

Define an R-isomorphism of fields

$$\mu: \mathbf{C} \to \mathbf{R}^2$$
$$x + iy \mapsto (x, y)$$

Let $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$ have first partial derivatives at w. We have the *Jacobian map*, represented in the standard basis by

$$J_{w}(u,v) = \begin{bmatrix} u_{x}(w) & u_{y}(w) \\ v_{x}(w) & v_{y}(w) \end{bmatrix}$$

This is a local isomorphism of ${\bf R}^2$ onto the tangent space $T_w {\bf R}^2 \simeq {\bf R}^2$. We "lift" this to ${\bf C}$:

Definition B.1.7. *The* tangent map *of* f = u + iv *at* w *is*

$$d_{\mathcal{W}}f := \mu^{-1} \triangleleft J_{\mathcal{W}}(u, \nu) \triangleleft \mu$$

Proposition B.1.8. We have $\partial_{\bar{z}} f(w) = 0$ iff $d_w f$ is C-linear, that is, if

$$d_{w} f(\lambda \cdot z) = \lambda \cdot d_{w} f(z)$$

in which case

$$d_{w}f(z) = z \cdot \partial_{z}f(w) = z \cdot f'(w)$$

Notice that this says exactly that f is locally linear.

Proof. TODO. Pretty weird in Narasimhan.

C-differentiable functions satisfy the expected properties:

1. Given differentiable f, $g:\Omega\to \mathbf{C}$ and $\lambda\in \mathbf{C}$,

$$f + g : z \mapsto f(z) + g(z)$$

$$f \cdot g : z \mapsto f(z) \cdot g(z)$$

$$\lambda \cdot f : z \mapsto \lambda \cdot f(z)$$

are all C-differentiable.

2. Consider open sets U, V in C. If $f: U \to C$ and $g: V \to C$ are complex differentiable, then $g \triangleleft f: U \to C$ is complex differentiable if it is defined — that is, if $f(U) \subseteq V$. Further, for $z_0 \in U$, we have a *chain rule*:

$$(q \triangleleft f)' = (q' \triangleleft f) \cdot f'$$

Recall that a function is C^k on some domain if all partial derivatives of orders $\leq k$ exist and are continuous.

Proposition B.1.9. Let $f: \Omega \to \mathbf{C}$ be C^1 and satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations on Ω . Then f is \mathbf{C} -differentiable on Ω .

In fact, the partial derivatives only need to exist: the Looman–Menchoff theorem (TODO ref) says that they need not be assumed to be continuous themselves.

Proof. Let $\zeta = \xi + i\eta$. Write $f = u + i\nu$, and let $w = \alpha + i\beta \in \Omega$. Using Taylor's theorem for C^1 functions,

$$\begin{split} u(w+\zeta) - u(w) &= \tilde{u}(\alpha+\zeta,\beta+\eta) - \tilde{u}(\alpha,\beta) \\ &= \frac{\partial \tilde{u}}{\partial x}(\alpha,\beta) \cdot \xi + \frac{\partial \tilde{u}}{\partial y}(\alpha,\beta) \cdot \eta + \epsilon_1(\xi,\eta) \\ &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(w) \cdot \xi + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(w) \cdot \eta + \epsilon_1(\xi,\eta) \end{split}$$

Similarly, we have

$$\nu(w+\zeta) - \nu(w) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(w) \cdot \xi + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(w) \cdot \eta + \varepsilon_2(\xi, \eta)$$

Crucially, as $\xi, \eta \to 0$, we have the bounds

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\epsilon_1(\xi,\eta)}{|\xi|+|\eta|} \to 0 \\ &\frac{\epsilon_2(\xi,\eta)}{|\xi|+|\eta|} \to 0 \\ &\frac{\epsilon(\xi,\eta)}{|\zeta|} \to 0 (how?) \end{split}$$

where $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_1 + i\varepsilon_2$.

We combine the previous two equations to get

$$f(w + \zeta) - f(w) = f_x(w) \cdot \xi + f_y(w) \cdot \eta + \epsilon(\zeta)$$

and, using the Cauchy-Riemann equations to write f_y as if_x , we see that the limit

$$\begin{split} \lim_{\zeta \to 0} \frac{f(w+\zeta) - f(w)}{\zeta} &= \frac{f_x(w) \cdot (\xi + i\eta)}{\zeta} + \lim_{\zeta \to 0} \frac{\varepsilon(\zeta)}{\zeta} \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(w) \end{split}$$

exists (and is differentiable?).

Erratum B.1. In his proof of Proposition B.1.9, where Narasimhan writes $\zeta = \zeta + i\eta$, he means $\zeta = \xi + i\eta$.

B.2 Power series

Lemma B.2.10 (Abel). Given a sequence $\{c_n\}_{n\geqslant 0}$ in \mathbf{C} , there exists $0\leqslant R\in\mathbf{R}_\infty=\mathbf{R}\cup\{\infty\}$ such that the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$$

converges for |z| < R and diverges for |z| > R. Further, the series converges uniformly on any compact subset of $D_R(0)$.

This means that, given any power series, there exists a disc inside which it converges and outside which it diverges. Abel's lemma does not say what will happen on the boundary circle |z| = R (funny things do sometimes).

Proof. Choose

$$R = \sup \{r \geqslant 0 : \exists M. \forall n \geqslant 0. |c_n| r^n \leqslant M \}$$

or, in words, R is the "biggest" disc inside which $|c_n||z|^n$ is bounded. By construction,

$$|z| > R \implies |c_n||z|^n$$
 is not bounded

so (why? TODO) $\sum c_n z^n$ cannot converge.

Let $K \subseteq D_R$ be compact. Choose $\rho < R$ such that $K \subseteq D_\rho$, and r such that $\rho < r < R$. There exists (?) M > 0 such that $|c_n|r^n \le M$. For $z \in K$,

$$|c_n z^n| \leqslant |c_n| \rho^n \leqslant M \left(\frac{\rho}{r}\right)^n$$

Since $\rho < r$, we have $M \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\rho}{r}\right)^n < \infty$, so that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ converges uniformly on K.

Definition B.2.11. The real number R is called the radius of convergence of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$.

Corollary B.2.12. Holomorphy on an open set $\Omega \subseteq \mathbf{C}$ implies continuity on Ω .

Lemma B.2.13. The radius of convergence of

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n z^{n-1}$$

is equal to that of

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n.$$

Proof.

Derivatives of power series

Lemma B.2.14. *Let* $a, b \in C$. *We have*

$$|(a+b)^n - a^n| \le n|b| (|a|+|b|)^{n-1}$$

for $n \ge 1$.

Proof. From high-school algebra, we have the factorization

$$(a+b)^{n} - a^{n} = (a+b-a) \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (a+b)^{n-1-k} - a^{k}$$
$$= b \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (a+b)^{n-1} \left(\frac{a}{a+b}\right)^{k}$$

We take absolute values of both sides and apply the triangle inequality:

$$\begin{split} |(a+b)^{n} - a^{n}| &= |b| \left| \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (a+b)^{n-1} \left(\frac{a}{a+b} \right)^{k} \right| \\ &\leq |b| \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} |a+b|^{n-1} \left| \frac{a}{a+b} \right|^{k} \\ &\leq |b| \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} |a+b|^{n-1} \\ &= n|b| (|a|+|b|)^{n-1} \end{split}$$

Proposition B.2.15. *Let* R > 0, and consider a power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z-z_0)^n \to f(z) \text{ for } z \in D_R(z_0)$$

Then f is C-differentiable on $D_R(z_0)$ and

$$f'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nc_n (z - z_0)^{n-1}$$
 for $z \in D_R(z_0)$

Proof. Let $z \in D_R(z_0)$. Set

$$R_{\pm} = \frac{1}{2}(R \pm |z - z_0|)$$

and choose a complex number ζ satisfying $0 < |\zeta| < R_-$. Then

$$\frac{f(z+\zeta) - f(z)}{\zeta} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \frac{(z+\zeta-z_0)^n - (z-z_0)^n}{\zeta}$$

Let N > 0. By Lemma B.2.14,

$$\begin{split} \left| \sum_{n > N} c_n \frac{(z + \zeta - z_0)^n - (z - z_0)^n}{\zeta} \right| &\leq \sum_{n > N} n |c_n| (|\zeta| + |z - z_0|)^{n-1} \\ &\leq \sum_{n > N} n |c_n| R_+^{n-1} \end{split}$$

Since $R_{-} \le R \le R_{+}$, $|z - z_{0}| < R_{+}$.

$$\begin{aligned} &\left| \frac{f(z+\zeta) - f(z)}{\zeta} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nc_{n}(z-z_{0})^{n-1} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{f(z+\zeta) - f(z)}{\zeta} - \sum_{n=1}^{N} nc_{n}(z-z_{0})^{n-1} - \sum_{n>N} nc_{n}(z-z_{0})^{n-1} \right| \\ &= \left| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_{n} \frac{(z+\zeta-z_{0})^{n} - (z-z_{0})^{n}}{\zeta} - \sum_{n=1}^{N} nc_{n}(z-z_{0})^{n-1} - \sum_{n>N} nc_{n}(z-z_{0})^{n-1} \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{N} |c_{n}| \left| \frac{(z+\zeta-z_{0})^{n} - (z-z_{0})^{n}}{\zeta} - n(z-z_{0})^{n-1} \right| + 2 \sum_{n>N} n|c_{n}|R_{+}^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

B.3 Contour integration

Definition B.3.16. Let $\gamma:[a,b]\to\Omega\subseteq\mathbf{C}$ be piecewise differentiable. The length $L(\gamma)$ of γ is

$$L(\gamma) := \int_{a}^{b} |\gamma'(t)| dt$$

Proposition B.3.17. *Let* $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ *be open and* $f \in C^1(\Omega)$ *. Let* $R \subset \Omega$ *be a closed rectangle. Then*

$$\iint_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} dx dy = -\frac{i}{2} \int_{\partial \mathbb{R}} f dz$$

Proof. Let $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$, with vertices $v_{1,...,4}$ and sides $\gamma_{1,...,4}$.

B.4 Zeroes and poles

Definition B.4.18 (Zeros).

Definition B.4.19. *A function* $f : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ *is* elliptic *if, for all* λ *in some lattice* Λ , $f(z + \lambda) = f(z)$ *for all* $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

Theorem B.4.20 (Liouville). Any bounded entire function is constant.

Definition B.4.21. *If* f *is holomorphic on all of* C*, it is said to be* entire.

Appendix C

Fourier analysis

C.1 Fourier expansions

Let $g: \mathbf{C} \to \mathbf{\hat{C}}$ be a continuous function with period 1. The nth *Fourier coefficient* $\mathfrak{a}_n(y)$ is

$$a_n(y) = \hat{g}(n) = \int_0^1 g(z) exp(-2\pi i n z) dx$$

Then we have the Fourier expansion

$$g(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n(y) \exp(2\pi i n z)$$

C.2 Meromorphy

The *nome* is a common building block for interesting functions.

$$q = q(z) := \exp(2\pi i z)$$

Let g be meromorphic in the notation of the previous section. Then there exists a unique meromorphic $G: \mathbf{C}^{\times} \to \hat{\mathbf{C}}$ such that g(z) = G(q) (TODO why?): in other words, a period-1 meromorphic function of z is in fact a function of g(z).

Note that G has a removable singularity at 0, so, by Theorem ???, G extends to a meromorphic function on C iff

$$\lim_{q\to 0} G(q)|q|^m = 0$$

for some m. What does it mean for q to go to 0?

$$q \to 0 \implies exp(2\pi i(x + iy)) \to 0$$

 $\implies exp(2\pi ix)e^{-2\pi y} \to 0$
 $\implies y \to \infty$

so we have $g(z)|q|^m \to 0$ as $g(z)\exp(-2\pi my) \to 0$, so we need

as
$$\Im(z) \to \infty$$
, $\exists m |g(z)| < \exp(2\pi my)$

The meromorphy of G(q) at 0 thus requires $\Im(z) \to \infty$, in which case we say g is *meromorphic at* $i\infty$. Then G, being meromorphic at 0, has a Laurent series expansion

$$g(z) = G(q) = \sum_{n=-m}^{\infty} c_n q^n = \sum_{n=-m}^{\infty} c_n e^{2\pi i n z}$$

Here m is the order of the pole of G at 0. However, we also have a Fourier expansion

$$g(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n(y) e^{2\pi i n z}$$

and, equating coefficients,

$$\begin{split} \alpha_n(y) &= c_n & \text{ for } n \geqslant -m \\ \alpha_n(y) &= 0 & \text{ for } n < -m \end{split}$$

Appendix D

Modular forms

D.1 The hyperbolic plane

Definition D.1.1. The upper half-plane in C is

$$\mathfrak{H} := \{ h \in \mathbf{C} : \mathrm{Im}(h) > 0 \}$$

D.2 Möbius transformations

$$\frac{az+b}{cz+d}$$

D.3 The modular group

Define Möbius transformations

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} & 1 \\ -1 & \end{bmatrix}$$
$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

As before, the actions of these two matrices are as follows:

$$Sz = \frac{0z+1}{-1z+0} = -\frac{1}{z}$$

$$Tz = \frac{1z+1}{0z+1} = z+1$$

S is an inversion about the unit circle $(z \mapsto 1/z)$ followed by reflection across the imaginary axis $(z \mapsto -z)$, while T is a simple translation.

These form a "basis", a generating set, for the modular group:

Proposition D.3.2. $PSL_2(\mathbf{Z}) = \langle S, T \rangle$.

D.4 A fundamental domain for $PSL_2(\mathbf{Z})$

Definition D.4.3. *Let* $F \subset \mathfrak{H}$ *be a closed set with connected interior, and let* Γ *be a subgroup of* $PSL_2(\mathbf{Z})$ *. We say* F *is a* fundamental domain *for* $\Gamma \setminus \mathfrak{H}$ *or for* Γ *if*

- 1. any $h \in \mathfrak{H}$ is Γ -equivalent to some point in F
- 2. no two interior points of F are equivalent under the Γ action
- 3. the boundary of F is piecewise smooth

Define $M = PSL_2(\mathbf{Z})$.

We now exhibit a fundamental domain for $PSL_2(\mathbf{Z})$. Let

$$F = \{h \in \mathfrak{H} : |\mathfrak{R}(h)| \leqslant \frac{1}{2}, |h| \geqslant 1\}$$

Proposition D.4.4. F is a fundamental domain for M.

D.5 Congruence subgroups

Definition D.5.5. *Let* $N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$. *The* modular group *of* level N *is*

$$\Gamma_0(N) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in M : c \equiv 0 \text{ (mod N)} \right\}$$

We also have

$$\Gamma_1(N) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in M : \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \ (\text{mod } N) \right\}$$

and the principal congruence subgroups

$$\Gamma(N) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{M} : \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \; (\text{mod } N) \right\}$$