# From number theory to automorphic forms, and then to automorphic distributions

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# Outline of the talk

## 1 Sums of squares

2 Representation-theoretic approach

- 3 Automorphic distributions
  - Distributions on  $\mathbb{R}$
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- 4 Zeros of *L*-functions on the critical line
  - Hardy-Littlewood method
  - A distributional framework

- $r_k(n)$ =the number of ways of writing *n* as a sum of *k* squares.
- $r_2(8) = 4$  because  $8 = (\pm 2)^2 + (\pm 2)^2$ .
- Many well known mathematicians of the nineteenth century including Gauss, Jacobi, Eisenstein, Liouville worked on finding formula for  $r_k(n)$  for small values of k. Gauss found one for k = 3

Jacobi proved that

$$r_2(n) = 4(d_1(n) - d_3(n))$$

where  $d_i(n)$  is the number of divisors of *n* congruent to *i* (mod 4), and

$$r_4(n) = \sum_{\substack{d \mid n \\ d \not\equiv 0 \pmod{4}}} d.$$

 To prove this, Jacobi used the generating function (now called Jacobi's theta function)

$$\theta(z)=\sum_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}q^{n^2}=1+2q+2q^4+2q^9+\cdots$$

•  $\theta$  can be defined as a holomorphic function on the upper half plane  $\mathbb{H}$  by setting  $q = e^{2\pi i z}$ .

Then

$$\theta^2(z) = \sum_{m,n} q^{m^2 + n^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r_2(n) q^n$$

and

$$\theta^4(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r_4(n) q^n$$

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- $\theta(z)$  is an example of a *modular form*.
- Definition: Modular forms of weight k for SL(2, Z) are holomorphic functions on the upper half plane such that

$$f\left(\frac{az+b}{cz+d}\right) = (cz+d)^k f(z)$$

for all  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in SL(2, \mathbb{Z})$  which is holomorphic at  $i\infty$ . If f vanishes at  $i\infty$  then we call f a *cusp form*.

• Since 
$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and  $S = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  generate SL(2,  $\mathbb{Z}$ ), you only need to check the modularity condition for just the

two matrices:

• 
$$f(z+1) = f(z), f(-1/z) = z^k f(z).$$

This observation allows us to construct a modular form:

$$G_k(z) = \sum_{(m,n)\in\mathbb{Z}^2-(0,0)} \frac{1}{(mz+n)^k}$$

defined for k > 2.

• This series is called the *Eisenstein series*.

• The Eisenstein series  $G_k(z)$  has Fourier expansion:

$$G_k(z) = 2\zeta(k) + \frac{2(-2\pi i)^k}{(k-1)!} \sum_{n\geq 1} \sigma_{k-1}(n)q^n.$$

• You see the divisor sum function comes up.

- How can we prove Jacobi's two-square and four-square theorem?
- The function  $\theta(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} q^{n^2}$ ,  $q = e^{2\pi i z}$  satisfies the two functional equations

$$\theta(z) = \theta(z+1), \quad \theta\left(\frac{-1}{4z}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{2z}{i}}\theta(z).$$

 θ(z) is a modular form of weight 1/2 for the congruence subgroup

$$\Gamma_0(4) = \left\{ \left(\begin{smallmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{smallmatrix}\right) \in \mathsf{SL}(2,\mathbb{Z}) : c \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \right\}$$

- $\theta^2(z)$  is a modular form of weight 1 and  $\theta^4(z)$  is a modular form of weight 2.
- The space of modular forms of weight k is finite-dimensional and they are generated by Eisenstein series. For example,

$$\theta^4(z) = 8(\mathbb{G}_2(z) - 2\mathbb{G}_2(2z)) + 16(\mathbb{G}_2(2z) - 2\mathbb{G}_2(4z))$$

where  $\mathbb{G}_2(z) = -G_2(z)/(4\pi^2)$ .

 By comparing the coefficient of q<sup>n</sup> we prove Jacobi's theorems.

In 1916, Ramanujan found formulas for r<sub>20</sub>, r<sub>22</sub>, r<sub>24</sub>. For r<sub>24</sub>, the formula is

$$r_{24}(n) = \left(\frac{16}{691}\sigma_{11}(n) - \frac{32}{691}\sigma_{11}(n/2)\right) \\ + \left(\frac{33152}{691}(-1)^{n-1}\tau(n) - \frac{66536}{691}\tau(n/2)\right)$$

where

$$\Delta(z)=\sum_{n\geq 1}\tau(n)q^n=q\prod_{k\geq 1}(1-q^n)^{24}.$$

- Ramanujan studied the modular discriminant  $\Delta(z) = \sum_{n \ge 1} \tau(n)q^n$  and made the following observations/conjectures:
  - 1 If *m* and *n* are coprime then  $\tau(mn) = \tau(m)\tau(n)$ 2 If *p* is prime then  $\tau(p^{\alpha+2}) = \tau(p)\tau(p^{\alpha+1}) - p^{11}\tau(p^{\alpha})$ 3 If *p* is prime then  $|\tau(p)| \le 2p^{11/2}$

- (1) and (2) were proved by Mordell in 1917 and Deligne proved (3) in 1974.
- (1) and (2) are resolved by Hecke operators.
- (2) leads to the Euler product of the *L*-function

$$L(s,\Delta) = \sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{\tau(n)}{n^s} = \prod_{n \ge 1} \frac{1}{1 - \tau(p)p^{-s} + p^{11-2s}}$$

- Jacobi's θ is also used to derive a functional equation of Riemann's ζ-function.
- The modular discriminant  $\Delta(z)$  is related to elliptic curves.
- The theory of automorphic forms is an inevitable component of number theory.

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- The upper half plane is isomorphic to  $SL(2, \mathbb{R})/SO(2, \mathbb{R})$ .
- So the modular forms are functions on

 $SL(2,\mathbb{Z})\setminus SL(2,\mathbb{R})/SO(2,\mathbb{R}).$ 

• Gelfand-Graev lift: lifting from  $\mathbb{H}$  to  $G = SL(2, \mathbb{R})$ 

$$F\left(\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}\right) = (ci+d)^{-k}f\left(\frac{ai+b}{ci+d}\right).$$

•  $F(\gamma g) = F(g)$  for all  $\gamma \in \Gamma = SL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ .

- This gives a perspective change from H to a Lie group G = SL(2, R).
- The group  $G = SL(2, \mathbb{R})$  acts on the space of functions  $L^2(\Gamma \setminus G)$  via right regular representation:

$$\left[\varphi(g)f\right](x)=f(xg).$$

• This is an example of an *automorphic representation*.

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- G=some real Lie group,  $\Gamma \subset G$  a discrete subgroup.
- Automorphic forms are smooth functions on G that are Γ-invariant.
- Idea: Consider instead the space of *distributions*, which is the dual space of the space of smooth functions. Its Γ-invariant subspace is the space of *automorphic distributions* for Γ.

- There are two ways to think of distributions.
- Example: the Dirac  $\delta$ -function

$$\delta_0(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x = 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

with the property

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta_0(x) \, dx = 1.$$

• Of course, this is not really a function.

 One way to define distributions is that they are continuous linear functionals on a space of functions of compact support.

$$<\delta_0, \phi>=\phi(0).$$

 Another way is that they are sums of 'higher order derivatives' of continuous functions, even if the functions are not really differentiable.

$$\delta_0^{(-2)}(x) = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Distributions on $\ensuremath{\mathbb{R}}$

We can think of the derivative as the formal rule for integration by parts. For φ(x) ∈ C<sup>∞</sup><sub>c</sub>(ℝ), we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta_0(x)\phi(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta_0^{(-2)}\phi''(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} x\phi''(x) dx$$
$$= \left[x\phi'(x)\right]_0^{\infty} - \int_0^{\infty} \phi'(x) dx$$
$$= \phi(0)$$

 The two definitions are equivalent. I will mainly use the second definition- distributions act on smooth functions by integrating against them.

- G = SL(2, ℝ), Γ = SL(2, ℤ), B<sub>−</sub> is the subgroup of invertible lower triangular matrices, N is the subgroup of unipotent upper triangular matrices.
- Let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $\delta \in \{\pm 1\}$  be two parameters.
- The principal series representation of  $G = SL(2, \mathbb{R})$  is the representation  $(\pi_{\lambda,\delta}, V_{\lambda,\delta})$ , where

$$V_{\lambda,\delta} = \{F : G \to \mathbb{C} \mid F\left(g\left(\begin{smallmatrix}a & 0\\ * & a^{-1}\end{smallmatrix}\right)\right) = |a|^{1-2\lambda}\operatorname{sgn}(a)^{\delta}F(g)\}$$

and  $\left[\pi_{\lambda,\delta}(h)f\right](g) = f(h^{-1}g).$ 

## Automorphic distributions on $\mathbb R$

- Most of the matrices in G = SL(2, ℝ) can be written as a product of upper triangular times lower triangular matrices.
   If f ⊂ V → then
- If  $f \in V_{\lambda,\delta}$ , then

$$f\left(\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}\right) = f\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & b/d \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/d & 0 \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}\right)$$
$$= |d|^{2\lambda - 1} \operatorname{sgn} (d)^{\delta} f\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & b/d \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

Thus if  $d \neq 0$ , f is completely determined by its restriction to  $N \equiv \mathbb{R}$ .

- Restricting functions  $f \in V_{\lambda,\delta}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  by  $h(x) = f\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , we get the *line model* of a principal series representation.
- For simplicity we fix  $\delta = 0$ . The *G*-action in the line model is

$$\pi\left(\left(\begin{smallmatrix}a&b\\c&d\end{smallmatrix}\right)^{-1}\right)h(x)=|cx+d|^{1-2\nu}h\left(\frac{ax+b}{cx+d}\right)$$

This looks like the modular transformation!

Consider the space of distributions V<sup>-∞</sup><sub>λ,δ</sub>. This is a space of distributions on ℝ, and G acts on a distribution τ ∈ V<sup>-∞</sup><sub>λ,δ</sub> by

$$\pi\left(\left(\begin{smallmatrix}a&b\\c&d\end{smallmatrix}\right)^{-1}\right)\tau(x)=|cx+d|^{1-2\nu}\tau\left(\frac{ax+b}{cx+d}\right)$$

An automorphic distribution is a distribution such that

$$au(x) = |cx+d|^{1-2
u} au\left(rac{ax+b}{cx+d}
ight) ext{ for all } \left(egin{array}{c} a & b \ c & d \end{array}
ight) \in \Gamma.$$

## Forming distributions from modular forms

Let F(z) be a cusp form of weight k for SL(2, ℤ).
F(z) has distribution boundary values:

$$\tau(x) = \tau_F(x) = \lim_{y \to 0+} F(x + iy).$$

Starting with a q-expansion

$$F(z) = \sum_{n \ge 1} a_n n^{\frac{k-1}{2}} e^{2\pi i n z}$$

we can write

$$\tau(x) = \sum_{n\geq 1} a_n n^{\frac{k-1}{2}} e^{2\pi i n x}.$$

## Forming distributions from modular forms

For sufficiently large j, τ(x) has a continuous j-th antiderivative:

$$\tau^{(-j)}(x) = \sum_{n \ge 1} (2\pi i n)^{-j} a_n n^{\frac{k-1}{2}} e(nx).$$

• As a consequence of the limit formula,  $\tau$  inherits automorphy from *F*:

$$au\left(\frac{ax+b}{cx+d}\right) = (cx+d)^k au(x).$$

For these reasons, we call  $\tau$  the *automorphic distribution* attached to *F*.

Riemann studied the function

$$\varphi(x) = \sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{\sin(2\pi n^2 x)}{n^2}$$

which is continuous but fails to be differentiable at "most" points.

• Hardy proved that the function is nondifferentiable at irrationals. In fact,  $\varphi(x)$  is non-differentiable except at points x = p/2q with p and q odd. At those, the derivative equals to  $-\pi$ .

The function is actually the automorphic distribution attached to the Jacobi theta function

$$\theta(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{2\pi i n^2 z}$$

 The automorphic distributions have a really interesting analytic behavior.

## The automorphic distribution attached to Jacobi $\theta$ -function



Figure:  $\varphi(x)$ , the antiderivative of the automorphic distribution attached to  $\theta(z)$ 

## The automorphic distribution attached to Jacobi $\theta$ -function



Figure:  $\varphi(x)$  near the origin

# The automorphic distribution attached to the modular discriminant



Figure: Imaginary part of  $\tau_{\Delta}^{(-7)}(x)$ 

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## The mechanism of the Hardy-Littlewood method

For an *L*-function  $L(s) = a_n n^{-s}$  of interest, construct a real-valued function Z(t) of the form

$$Z(t) = \chi_L(1/2 + it)^{-1/2}L(1/2 + it).$$

• If L(1/2 + it) does not vanish on  $t \in [T, 2T]$  then

$$\left|\int_{T}^{2T} Z(t) \, dt\right| = \int_{T}^{2T} \left|Z(t)\right| \, dt.$$

 If the RHS is ≫ T and the LHS is o(T) as T → ∞ then the L-function has infinitely many zeros on the critical line.

## The mechanism of the Hardy-Littlewood method

For L-functions of holomorphic modular forms, Z(t) is constructed from the Mellin transform of the corresponding modular forms:

$$Mf(s) = \int_0^{i\infty} f(y) y^{s-1} \, dy$$

which is a product of the *L*-function and some  $\Gamma$ -factors.

 The most difficult part is finding the bound of the LHS. Typically, the bound requires cancellation of the exponential sum

$$\sum_{m\leq T} a_m e(mx) = o(T), \quad ext{as} \quad T o \infty.$$

- We write Z(t) as Mellin transform of automorphic distributions instead of automorphic forms.
- In certain arithmetic instances, this gives a quick proof that the integral

$$\int_{T}^{2T} Z(t) \, dt$$

decays rapidly as  $T \to \infty$ .

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This uses the notion of a distribution vanishing to infinite order.

- A distribution can be written (locally) as a higher order derivative of a continuous function.
- Roughly speaking, if the continuous function vanishes to a high order at a point p, then we say that the distribution vanishes to a high order at p.
- The automorphic distribution attached to a cusp form vanishes to *infinite order* at every rational point.

■ The local presentation of distributions vanishing to order m ≥ 0 at 0 can be used to bound integrals against certain test functions.

#### Lemma

Suppose that  $\sigma$  is a distribution that vanishes to order  $m \ge 0$  at 0 and let  $\phi$  be a bump function near 0. Then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sigma(x) \left( T\phi(Tx) \right) \, dx = O(T^{-m}) \tag{1}$$

as  $T \to \infty$ .

 By constructing the real-valued function Z(t) using automorphic distributions and using the Lemma, we can give a quick prove that the integral

$$\int_{T}^{2T} Z(t) \, dt$$

decays rapidly as  $T \to \infty$ .

- This completely avoids the use of exponential sums.
- This makes the method particularly effective in taking care of complications due to half-integral weights or additive twists.

#### Theorem (K. 2020)

Let  $k \in \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $k \ge 1$  and let F(z) be a cusp form of weight k with respect to the congruence subgroup  $\Gamma_0(N)$ . Whose Fourier coefficients satisfy  $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $a_1 \ne 0$ .

- a. If N is a perfect square and F(z) is an eigenfunction of the involution  $W_N$ , then the L-function of F(z) has infinitely many zeros on the critical line.
- b. If  $\frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q}$  is a cusp  $\Gamma_0(N)$ -equivalent to  $i\infty$  such that  $p^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$  then the additively twisted L-function

$$L_{p/q}(s) = \sum_{n\geq 1} a_n e^{2\pi i n \frac{p}{q}} n^{-s}$$

has infinitely many zeros on the critical line.

Thank you!