

Modular forms and their applications I

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The notion of modular forms

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A modular form (of weight k) on $\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ is an analytic function $f : \mathbb{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ satisfying

$$f\left(\frac{a\tau + b}{c\tau + d}\right) = (c\tau + d)^k f(\tau), \quad \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \text{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}) \quad (\text{i})$$

that has a convergent Fourier expansion of the form

$$f(\tau) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n q^n, \quad q := e^{2\pi i \tau} \quad (\text{ii})$$

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$$f(\tau) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n q^n, \quad q := e^{2\pi i \tau} \quad (\text{ii})$$

If $a_0 = 0$, f is called a cusp form. We denote by $M_k(\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}))$ and $S_k(\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}))$ the spaces of modular forms and cusp forms of weight k respectively.

Moduli space of genus 1 curves

If $f\left(\frac{a\tau+b}{c\tau+d}\right) = f(\tau)$ and $f(\tau) = \sum_{n > -c} a_n q^n$, f is called a modular function.

Moduli space of genus 1 curves

If $f\left(\frac{a\tau+b}{c\tau+d}\right) = f(\tau)$ and $f(\tau) = \sum_{n>-c} a_n q^n$, f is called a modular function.

The name “modular” comes from the fact that one can define a function on lattices

$$\Lambda = \mathbb{Z}\omega_1 + \mathbb{Z}\omega_2 \quad \mapsto \quad F(\Lambda) := f(\omega_1/\omega_2),$$

and since $F(\lambda\Lambda) = F(\Lambda)$, $F(\Lambda)$ is an invariant of the complex curve \mathbb{C}/Λ .

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By analogy, if f is a modular form of weight k , then

$$\Lambda = \mathbb{Z}\omega_1 + \mathbb{Z}\omega_2 \quad \mapsto \quad F(\Lambda) := \omega_2^{-k} f(\omega_1/\omega_2),$$

satisfies $F(\lambda\Lambda) = \lambda^{-k} F(\Lambda)$.

Other groups

One may also consider functions that satisfy $f\left(\frac{a\tau+b}{c\tau+d}\right) = (c\tau+d)^k f(\tau)$ only for $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma$, where Γ is a subgroup of finite index in $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$.

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$$\Gamma_0(N) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in SL_2(\mathbb{Z}) \mid \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix} \pmod{N} \right\},$$

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The condition (ii) and the definition of cusp forms need to be changed appropriately.

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Fact 2

The spaces of modular forms are finite-dimensional.

Because of this one can often prove identities $a_n = b_n$ between sequences of numbers by observing that their generating series land in the same space of modular forms and then checking finitely many of them.

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- Fermat's Last Theorem (Wiles)
- sphere packing problem in 8 dimensions (Viazovska)

Examples: Eisenstein series

For all even $k > 2$ the function

$$G_k(\tau) := -\frac{B_k}{2k} + \sum_{n \geq 1} \sigma_{k-1}(n)q^n$$

is a modular form of weight k for $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$.

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The function $G_2(\tau)$ is not a modular form, but transforms according to

$$G_2\left(\frac{a\tau + b}{c\tau + d}\right) = (c\tau + d)^2 G_2(\tau) - \frac{c(c\tau + d)}{4\pi i}$$

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It is sometimes more convenient to use a normalization

$$E_k(\tau) := 1 - \frac{2k}{B_k} \sum_{n \geq 1} \sigma_{k-1}(n)q^n$$

Examples: Eisenstein series

As we will see, the space $M_8(\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}))$ is 1-dimensional, and since E_4^2 and E_8 both belong to it and have the expansion $1 + O(q)$, we must have $E_4^2 = E_8$.

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This leads to a nontrivial identity

$$\frac{\sigma_7(n) - \sigma_3(n)}{120} = \sum_{m=1}^{n-1} \sigma_3(m)\sigma_3(n-m)$$

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Similarly, $E_4E_6 = E_{10}$, and thus

$$\frac{11\sigma_9(n) - 21\sigma_5(n) + 10\sigma_3(n)}{5040} = \sum_{m=1}^{n-1} \sigma_5(m)\sigma_3(n-m)$$

Examples: eta-quotients

The Dedekind eta-function

$$\eta(\tau) = q^{\frac{1}{24}} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 - q^n)$$

satisfies

$$\eta(\tau + 1) = e^{\pi i/12} \eta(\tau), \quad \eta(-1/\tau) = \sqrt{\tau/i} \eta(\tau)$$

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As a corollary,

$$\Delta(\tau) := \eta(\tau)^{24} = q - 24q^2 + 252q^3 + \cdots - 6048q^6 + \cdots$$

is a cusp form of weight 12 for $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$.

Examples: eta-quotients

There are many other examples of modular forms that can be written as eta quotients:

$$\frac{\eta^{16}(2\tau)}{\eta^8(\tau)} = q + 8q^2 + 28q^3 + 64q^4 + \cdots \in M_4(\Gamma_0(2))$$

$$\eta^4(\tau)\eta^4(5\tau) = q - 4q^2 + 2q^3 + 8q^4 + \cdots \in S_4(\Gamma_0(5))$$

$$\eta^2(\tau)\eta^2(11\tau) = q - 2q^2 - q^3 + 2q^4 + q^5 + \cdots \in S_2(\Gamma_0(11))$$

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One can show that $M_4(\Gamma_0(2))$ is 2-dimensional, and thus

$$\frac{\eta^{16}(2\tau)}{\eta^8(\tau)} = G_4(\tau) - G_4(2\tau)$$

Examples: theta series

Let $\theta(\tau)$ be the Jacobi theta series

$$\theta(\tau) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} q^{n^2} = 1 + 2q + 2q^4 + \dots$$

One can show that $\theta^4(\tau)$ is a modular form of weight 2 for $\Gamma_0(4)$, and since $M_2(\Gamma_0(4))$ is spanned by $G_2(\tau) - 2G_2(2\tau)$ and $G_2(\tau) - 4G_2(4\tau)$, one gets

$$\theta^4(\tau) = 8(G_2(\tau) - 4G_2(4\tau))$$

From this one obtains Jacobi's identity

$$r_4(n) = 8 \sum_{4 \nmid d|n} d, \quad n \geq 1.$$

This also implies Lagrange's four-square theorem.

Examples: theta series

If $\Lambda \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is an even unimodular lattice, then one can show that

$$\Theta_{\Lambda}(\tau) = \sum_{v \in \Lambda} q^{|v|^2/2}$$

is a modular form of weight $d/2$ for $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$.

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In particular, since the E_8 -lattice

$$\Lambda_8 = \{(x_1, \dots, x_8) \in \mathbb{Z}^8 \cup (1/2 + \mathbb{Z})^8 \mid x_1 + \dots + x_8 = 0 \pmod{2}\}$$

is even and unimodular, we have $\Theta_{\Lambda_8}(\tau) \in M_4(SL_2(\mathbb{Z}))$, and thus one has

$$\Theta_{\Lambda_8}(\tau) = E_4(\tau)$$

Examples: Euler's pentagonal number theorem

The first example of a nontrivial identity between modular forms was observed by Euler:

$$\prod_{n \geq 1} (1 - q^n) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n q^{(3n^2 - n)/2}.$$

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To see why this is an identity between modular forms, one needs to “complete squares”

$$\frac{3n^2 - n}{2} = \frac{(6n - 1)^2}{24} - \frac{1}{24},$$

to get an equivalent formulation

$$q^{1/24} \prod_{n \geq 1} (1 - q^n) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \chi_{12}(n) q^{n^2/24},$$

where $\chi_{12}: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \{-1, 0, 1\}$ is a 12-periodic function defined by

$$\chi_{12}(\pm 1) = 1, \quad \chi_{12}(\pm 5) = -1.$$

Examples: arithmetic sources

A much deeper source of modular forms is arithmetic geometry. In these examples the coefficients a_{p^k} are obtained by counting the solutions of systems of polynomial equations in finite fields \mathbb{F}_{p^k} .

Here is an explicit example. If we denote by a_n the n -th Fourier coefficient of

$$f(\tau) = \eta^2(\tau)\eta^2(11\tau) = q - 2q^2 - q^3 + 2q^4 + q^5 + 2q^6 - 2q^7 + \dots,$$

then

$$a_p = p - \#\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{F}_p^2 : y^2 + y = x^3 - x^2\}.$$

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This is a special case of the modularity theorem for elliptic curves (in this case for a curve of conductor 11).

Examples: toric modular forms

There is a construction of modular forms associated to toric varieties due to Borisov and Gunnels. The simplest nontrivial example is

$$T_k(\tau) = \sum_{n_1 + \dots + n_{2k+1} = 0} \frac{1}{(1 + q^{n_1}) \dots (1 + q^{n_{2k+1}})} \in M_{2k}(\Gamma_0(2))$$

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In particular, since $M_2(\Gamma_0(2))$ is 1-dimensional,

$$\sum_{a+b+c=0} \frac{8}{(1 + q^a)(1 + q^b)(1 + q^c)} = E_2(\tau) - 2E_2(2\tau)$$

Gauss's discovery of modular forms

Gauss was led to consider theta functions when he was studying the arithmetic-geometric mean $M(a, b)$. Let $a \geq b$ be two positive numbers, and define recursively $a_0 = a$, $b_0 = b$, and

$$a_{n+1} = \frac{a_n + b_n}{2}, \quad b_{n+1} = \sqrt{a_n b_n}, \quad n \geq 0$$

The limit of a_n (or b_n) as $n \rightarrow \infty$ is the arithmetic-geometric mean $M(a, b)$. Sometime around 1794 he discovered the following remarkable fact. If we denote

$$P(q) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} q^{n^2}, \quad Q(q) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n q^{n^2},$$

then

$$M(P^2(q), Q^2(q)) = 1, \quad |q| < 1.$$

Gauss's discovery of modular forms

Gauss's proof is based on the following identities

$$P^2(q^2) = \frac{P^2(q) + Q^2(Q)}{2},$$
$$Q^2(q^2) = P(q)Q(q).$$

The first identity is not hard to prove directly, but for the second one essentially needs

$$P(q) = \prod_{n \geq 1} (1 - q^{2n})(1 + q^{2n-1})^2, \quad Q(q) = \prod_{n \geq 1} (1 - q^{2n})(1 - q^{2n-1})^2$$

which is equivalent to showing that

$$P(q) = \frac{\eta^5(2\tau)}{\eta^2(\tau)\eta^2(4\tau)}, \quad Q(q) = \frac{\eta^2(\tau)}{\eta(2\tau)}$$