

A RELATIVE TRACE FORMULA FOR A COMPACT RIEMANN SURFACE

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ABSTRACT. We study a relative trace formula for a compact Riemann surface with respect to a closed geodesic C . This can be expressed as a relation between the period spectrum and the ortholength spectrum of C . This provides a new proof of asymptotic results for both the periods of Laplacian eigenforms along C as well estimates on the lengths of geodesic segments which start and end orthogonally on C . Variant trace formulas also lead to several simultaneous nonvanishing results for different periods.

1. INTRODUCTION

Let \mathfrak{H} be the upper half plane, Γ a discrete cofinite subgroup of $G = \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$ and $X = \Gamma \backslash \mathfrak{H}$ be the quotient space. Let Δ denote the hyperbolic Laplacian on X , and $\{\phi_n\}$ be an orthonormal basis of Δ -eigenfunctions for the discrete spectrum of $L^2(X)$.

In the case of $\Gamma = \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$, Kuznetsov [17] and Bruggeman [3] independently derived a formula, known as the Kuznetsov(-Bruggeman) (sum or trace) formula, which essentially relates the Fourier coefficients of the ϕ_i 's with Kloosterman sums $S(n, m, c)$. As in the case of the Selberg trace formula, both sides of the formula involve a test function. This implies estimates on sums of Fourier coefficients as well as estimates on sums of Kloosterman sums. The Kuznetsov formula has been generalized to other Γ , but we will not go into that here; see [12] for more details.

The Kuznetsov trace formula is similar to the Selberg trace formula and this is perhaps most clearly seen from the point of view of Jacquet's relative trace formula. For an appropriate test function $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, one forms an associated kernel $K(x, y) : \Gamma \backslash G \times \Gamma \backslash G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is

$$K(x, y) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} f(x^{-1}\gamma y) = \sum_n K_{\phi_n}(x, y) + K_{\mathrm{Eis}}(x, y),$$

where the terms on the right encode certain spectral information. The left hand expansion is known as the geometric expansion and the right hand side is the spectral expansion. The Selberg trace formula comes by integrating each expansion over the diagonal $\Gamma \backslash G \subset \Gamma \backslash G \times \Gamma \backslash G$. Let N be a unipotent subgroup of G . When $\Gamma_N = \Gamma \cap N$ is nontrivial, integrating the two expansions for the kernel over $\Gamma_N \backslash N \times \Gamma_N \backslash N$ essentially gives the Kuznetsov formula.

Now one can of course integrate $K(x, y)$ over other product subgroups, yielding what are now called relative trace formulas, and one particular case of interest is the following. Let H be a torus of G and suppose $\Gamma_H = \Gamma \cap H$ is nontrivial. Then

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integrating $K_{\phi_n}(x, y)$ over $\Gamma_H \backslash H \times \Gamma_H \backslash H$ yields the square of a period integral of ϕ_n . This was studied in detail in the adelic context in [13], [14] in connection with L -values.

The relative trace formula has proved to be a powerful tool in studying periods and L -functions. However, little has been done, except in the classical Kuznetsov case, to understand the role of the relative trace formula in spectral geometry, especially in light of the applications of the Selberg trace formula in this field. We propose to study here the classical analogue of the relative trace formula in [13], for simplicity, in the case where X is compact. This formula provides a new relation between what might be called the period spectrum and the ortholength spectrum relative to a fixed closed geodesic C on X . Consequently we give a new proof of some asymptotic results for these periods and ortholengths. We hope this will be of interest both from the point of view of the study of compact Riemann surfaces, and from the point of view of better understanding the relative trace formula. Now we describe our work in greater detail. To put it in context, we recall some facts about the Selberg trace formula.

Suppose $X = \Gamma \backslash \mathfrak{H}$ be a smooth compact (hyperbolic) Riemann surface. Let $\{\phi_n\}$ be an orthonormal basis of eigenforms of Δ in $L^2(X)$ with corresponding eigenvalues λ_n .

The Selberg trace formula is a powerful tool for studying the spectral geometry of X (e.g., [18], [10]). Instead of working with a kernel on $\Gamma \backslash G$ as mentioned above, we will work directly with a kernel on X , as in [10]. For a suitable test function Φ one associates a kernel $K : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and integrates K over the diagonal $X \subset X \times X$ to get the Selberg trace formula. This formula relates a sum over conjugacy classes of Γ of orbital integrals (the geometric side) with the eigenvalues λ_n (the spectral side). The nontrivial conjugacy classes of Γ are in one-to-one correspondence with classes of closed geodesics on X , and the geometric side may be expressed in terms of the volume of X and the lengths of shortest primitive closed geodesics on X . The collection of these lengths is called the length spectrum of X , so the Selberg trace formula relates the length spectrum with the eigenvalue spectrum $\{\lambda_n\}$ of X .

By varying appropriate test functions Φ , one is able to use the trace formula to get many beautiful results. We mention two. The first is Weyl's law:

$$\#\{\lambda_n \leq x\} \sim \frac{\text{vol}(X)}{4\pi} x \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

The second is the Prime Geodesic Theorem: if $\pi_0(x)$ denotes the number of closed oriented geodesics γ with norm $N(\gamma) = e^{\text{len}(\gamma)}$ less than x , then

$$\pi_0(x) \sim \frac{x}{\log x}.$$

The setup for our relative trace formula is as follows. Fix a closed geodesic C on X . We integrate the kernel K on the product subspace $C \times C$ of $X \times X$ against a "character" χ of C (cf. Section 5). This is the compact classical (non-adelic) version of the $\text{GL}(2)$ relative trace formula in [13]. The spectral side of this trace formula is

$$\sum h(r_n) |P_\chi(\phi_n)|^2$$

where h is the Selberg transform of Φ , $\lambda_n = \frac{1}{4} + r_n^2$ and $P_\chi(\phi)$ denotes the twisted period

$$P_\chi(\phi) = \int_C \phi(t)\chi(t)dt.$$

We may think of these twisted periods as Fourier coefficients of ϕ along C . In analogy with the Selberg trace formula, we will call the sequence $\{P_\chi(\phi_n)\}$ the (χ) -period spectrum for C .

The geometric side is a sum over double cosets $\Gamma_C \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_C$ of *(relative) orbital integrals*, where Γ_C is the stabilizer of C in Γ . The nontrivial double cosets correspond to the finitely many self-intersection points on C and the *orthogonal spectrum* of C , by which we mean the set of geodesic segments which start and end on C and meet C orthogonally at both ends. One can order these geodesic segments by length, and we call the sequence of these lengths the *(real) ortholength spectrum* of C . In Section 2, we express the geometric side in terms of the length of C , its angles of self-intersection, and its ortholength spectrum. (For simplicity, we only write this formula down for a general test function when χ is trivial, though the case of χ nontrivial is similar.)

Hence we discover that the relative trace formula provides a relation between the period spectrum and the ortholength spectrum of C . The analogue of the Selberg trace formula applications mentioned above would be asymptotics for the period and ortholength spectra. In the present paper, we use this relative trace formula to obtain average asymptotics and various nonvanishing results for the periods, as well as asymptotic bounds for the ortholength spectrum. This trace formula also suggests many questions beyond the present work. An obvious one is how precise can we make these asymptotics? But other kinds of questions naturally arise also: for instance, do the ortholength and period spectra determine each other, as is the case with the length and eigenvalue spectra? (It is known they do not determine the surface [28].)

Let us first discuss the period asymptotics. In the case where Γ is an arithmetic group, these periods are related to special values of L -functions and Fourier coefficients of modular forms (e.g., [26]). Less is known about them in the non-arithmetic case. For a general (cocompact) Γ , quantum ergodic results ([24], [4], [27]) state that the functions ϕ_n become equidistributed with respect to an area measure, except for a possible exceptional (density 0) subsequence. In the case of hyperbolic surfaces, a conjecture of Rudnick and Sarnak [23] asserts that this thin subsequence should be empty. (See [9] for remarkable recent work when $\Gamma = \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$.) In a similar vein, one expects the periods $P(\phi_n) = \int_C \phi_n \rightarrow 0$. In fact, one can show is the asymptotic

$$(1) \quad \sum_{\lambda_n \leq x} |P(\phi_n)|^2 \sim \frac{\mathrm{len}(C)}{\pi} \sqrt{x}.$$

Note that (1) says that, *on average*, $P(\phi_n)$ is about $\lambda_n^{-1/4}$. This of course implies that, apart from a possible exceptional subsequence, $P(\phi_n) \rightarrow 0$.

The equation (1) seems to have first been stated in [11] by analyzing Dirichlet series and using the automorphic Green's kernel, however no proofs are given. Subsequently, Good [6] extended Kuznetsov's formula to the case of Fourier coefficients along geodesics (as well as other cases), for both Γ compact and non-compact. A

consequence is an asymptotic of the above form. Unfortunately, [6] is rather difficult to penetrate, and it seems this work is not well understood. (See also [7].) Additionally, the Fourier coefficients in [6] are not exactly the periods appearing in (1)—the asymptotic in [6, Theorem 2] is of different order! Later Zelditch [28], then Ji and Zworski [15], obtained analogues of (1) in a general context using the wave kernel. Recently, [21] has proved a formula similar to the one in [6] for compact Riemann surfaces and again obtains (1), and [25] proves an analogue of (1) for some compact and non-compact arithmetic Γ using Green's functions.

Our first application of the relative trace formula is a new proof of (1). To do this, we observe that the *natural* choice for a test function in our relative trace formula is $\Phi(x) = e^{-tx}$, which appears to have not been considered previously. The reason for this choice of Φ , is that in general the geometric side involves some rather complicated elliptic integrals, but for $\Phi(x) = e^{-tx}$ they degenerate into K -Bessel functions. We work out the trace formula in this case in Section 3 (for simplicity still with χ trivial), and see it yields a rather striking limit formula:

$$(2) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^t \sum K_{ir_n}(t) |P(\phi_n)|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \text{length}(C).$$

Since each $K_{ir_n}(t) \sim \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2t}} e^{-t}$, this immediately implies that an infinite number of $P(\phi_n)$'s are nonvanishing. As this is related to nonvanishing of L -values in the arithmetic case, this seems to be a nontrivial statement, despite its apparent simplicity.

In order to get (1), we would like to use a Tauberian argument. While estimates for $K_{ir}(t)$ in either r or t , keeping the other fixed, are classical and well known, in our situation one needs uniform estimates for $K_{ir}(t)$ when *both* r and t are allowed to vary, which is a much more subtle problem. These estimates, which seem new, are carried out in Section 4. This allows us to conclude (1) (see Theorem 2 below).

In Section 5, we consider the relative trace formula for twisted periods $P_\chi(\phi_n)$, which are of interest in number theory. In particular we show (1) also holds for $P_\chi(\phi_n)$ (Theorem 3). In the arithmetic case, we remark one should be able to obtain similar estimates from subconvexity. It is also likely that the other approaches mentioned above can be modified to deal with the case of twisted periods. By allowing for two different characters χ_1 and χ_2 in our trace formula, we also obtain simultaneous nonvanishing results for two different twists $P_{\chi_1}(\phi_n)$ and $P_{\chi_2}(\phi_n)$. Such simultaneous nonvanishing statements are typically quite difficult to prove.

A natural question then would be an analysis of the error term in (1). Both [11] and [28] conclude the error term is $O(1)$, while [21] obtains a weaker error bound of $O(\log x)$. To obtain this, [28] uses a Tauberian theorem of Hormander which gives a sharp bound on the remainder. For our setup, we are required to use a different Tauberian theorem, for which a *very* crude error bound can be obtained by Tauberian remainder theory. Of course, with either further analysis (similar to that done for Weyl's estimate with remainder) or a sharp Tauberian remainder theorem, one should expect the same error bound to come out of our approach, but that is not one of our goals here. The very crude bound on the error coming out of existing Tauberian remainder theory is explained at the end of Section 4.

In most of the abovementioned works that study (1), a slightly more general setup is studied where one considers two closed geodesics C_1 and C_2 , and the

product of periods

$$\int_{C_1} \phi_n \overline{\int_{C_2} \phi_n}.$$

Of course this can be treated with a relative trace formula by integrating the kernel over $C_1 \times C_2$, however the nature of the asymptotics of the sum of these products of periods are different than (1) when $C_1 \neq C_2$. The trace formula in this case is essentially the same as the case of $C \times C$, except that here the “main” geometric term vanishes and the spectral terms are no longer positive, so it is not as easy to get asymptotics. In Section 6 we look briefly at this case and show there are infinitely many ϕ_n such that the periods $\int_{C_1} \phi_n$ and $\int_{C_2} \phi_n$ are simultaneously nonvanishing.

Finally, we come to the discussion of the ortholength spectrum. Ortholength spectra were introduced for general hyperbolic manifolds in [2] (called orthogonal spectra there) as well as with additional structure (*complex ortholength spectra*) in 3 dimensions by [19]. The paper [2] concerns a much more general setup than just two curves, but consider the following situation. Let C_1 and C_2 be closed geodesics on X . Let $\mathcal{O}(X; C_1, C_2)$ denote the full orthogonal spectrum of X relative to C_1 and C_2 , by which we mean the set of common orthogonals which start on C_1 and end on C_2 . One can write $\mathcal{O}(X; C_1, C_2) = \bigcup_k \mathcal{O}_k(X; C_1, C_2)$ where each $\mathcal{O}_k(X; C_1, C_2)$ is the subset of $\mathcal{O}(X; C_1, C_2)$ comprised of curves which cross C_2 exactly k times. In this context, the main theorem of [2] essentially states that if C_1 and C_2 are disjoint and *simple*,

$$(3) \quad \sum_{\gamma \in \mathcal{O}_k(X; C_1, C_2)} \log \coth \left(\frac{\text{len}(\gamma)}{2} \right) = 2 \text{len}(C_1).$$

This is rather striking and is a sort of relative analogue of McShane’s identity. Unfortunately, the author then claims an asymptotic on the growth of $\mathcal{O}_k(X; C_1, C_2)$, but this clearly cannot follow from just (3) as suggested in [2]. Indeed such asymptotics are rather slippery as we will see below.

In any case, we are interested in asymptotics for the full ortholength spectrum of C (not necessarily simple), which is a natural consideration in light of our relative trace formula. However this problem is not explicitly studied in the previously mentioned works studying (1), though related problems are considered in [6, Chapter 11]. Define $\delta(\gamma) = 2 \cosh(\text{len}(\gamma))$ (which is approximately $e^{\text{len}(\gamma)}$ for long γ) and set

$$\pi_\delta(x) = \# \{ \gamma \in \mathcal{O}(X; C, C) : \delta(\gamma) < x \} = \sum \pi_\delta^{(k)}(x).$$

Lattice point estimates used in Section 3 yield a very crude bound of $\pi_\delta(x) = O(x^2)$. To get better estimates we consider our relative trace formula from Section 3 with the test function $\Phi(x) = e^{-tx}$ sending $t \rightarrow 0$ in Section 7. This yields an asymptotic roughly of the form

$$\sum \log^2 \left(\frac{\delta t}{2} \right) \sim \frac{\text{len}(C)^2 \pi \sqrt{2}}{\text{vol}(X) t} \text{ as } t \rightarrow 0^+,$$

where the sum on the left is over $\delta = \delta(\gamma)$ for $\gamma \in \mathcal{O}(X; C, C)$. This gives an upper bound of

$$\pi_\delta(x) = O(x^{1+\epsilon}) \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

and a lower bound of

$$\pi_\delta(x) \gg x^{1-\epsilon} \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

for any $\epsilon > 0$.

We remark that this situation is analogous with that described in [10], where one can use the heat kernel with $t \rightarrow \infty$ to obtain Weyl's law. On the other hand, sending $t \rightarrow 0$ yields information on the geometric terms, but to get the full Prime Geodesic Theorem, one needs to choose another kernel. Similarly, one expects that a different choice of kernel here should lead to a precise asymptotic on $\pi_\delta(x)$. It would be interesting to see what other kernels give, but do not do this now. Instead, in Section 7.2 we will interpret Good's work [6] in this context to conclude

$$\pi_\delta(x) \sim \frac{\text{len}(C)^2}{\pi \text{vol}(X)} x,$$

as well as give asymptotic bounds for the growth of $\mathcal{O}(X; C_1, C_2)$. The manuscript [6] is a rather thorough generalization of Kuznetsov's formula for $G = \text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$, but it is not evident what results follow from these formulas. Hence this section may be useful for anyone trying to understand [6]. Finally, we note that the approach in [6] is more complicated than ours in several ways, even if one restricts to the case of smooth compact X . This, along with the problem of obtaining an exact asymptotic for $\mathcal{O}(X; C_1, C_2)$, suggests a more detailed study of the relative trace formula we consider here may be of interest.

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2. THE RELATIVE TRACE FORMULA

2.1. The setup. Recall the identification $X = \Gamma \backslash \mathfrak{H}$. It can be chosen so that the preimage of C in \mathfrak{H} is $i\mathbb{R}^+$. For simplicity, we assume C is primitive, i.e., it does not wrap around itself. Let Γ_0 be the diagonal subgroup of Γ , so that $C = \Gamma_0 \backslash i\mathbb{R}^+$. We may write

$$\Gamma_0 = \left\langle \begin{pmatrix} m & \\ & m^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle,$$

where $m > 1$.

Next recall the usual setup for the Selberg trace formula on X , e.g., as presented in [10]. Let

$$d(z, w) = \cosh^{-1}(1 + u(z, w)/2)$$

be the hyperbolic distance in the upper half plane, where

$$u(z, w) = \frac{|z - w|^2}{\Im(z)\Im(w)}.$$

Let Φ be a smooth function on $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ which decays rapidly at infinity, i.e., $\Phi(x) = O(x^{-N})$ for all $N \geq 0$. We form the kernel

$$(4) \quad K(z, w) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \Phi(u(\gamma z, w)).$$

Let

$$Q(x) = \int_x^\infty \frac{\Phi(t)}{\sqrt{t-x}} dt \quad (x \geq 0),$$

$$g(u) = Q(2 \cosh u - 2),$$

and

$$h(r) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty g(u) e^{iru} du.$$

Then one also has the spectral expansion for the kernel

$$(5) \quad K(z, w) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty h(r_n) \phi_n(z) \overline{\phi_n(w)},$$

where $\lambda_n = \frac{1}{4} + r_n^2$ is the eigenvalue for ϕ_n . Both of these expansions for $K(x, y)$ converge absolutely and uniformly.

The relative trace formula we consider here is the identity of the geometric and spectral expansions of

$$\int_C \int_C K(x, y) dx dy.$$

Here, dx and dy denote the Poincaré measure. The spectral side of the relative trace formula, i.e., the integral of (5), is evidently

$$(6) \quad \int_C \int_C K(x, y) dx dy = \sum h(r_n) |P(\phi_n)|^2.$$

The geometric side, i.e. the integral of (4), is then

$$\int_C \int_C K(x, y) dx dy = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \int_1^{m^2} \int_1^{m^2} \Phi(u(\gamma \cdot ix, iy)) d^\times x d^\times y.$$

Just as one breaks up the geometric side of the Selberg trace formula according to conjugacy classes, to get the geometric side of the relative trace formula in a suitable form, we will group the summands together by double cosets $\Gamma_0 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_0$. Fix a set of double coset representatives $\{\gamma\}$. Write

$$\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}.$$

Observe that

$$\begin{pmatrix} m & \\ & m^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n & \\ & n^{-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} mna & mn^{-1}b \\ m^{-1}nc & m^{-1}n^{-1}d \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence each element of the double coset $\Gamma_0 \gamma \Gamma_0$ can be written uniquely in the form $\gamma_0 \gamma \gamma'_0$ for $\gamma_0, \gamma'_0 \in \Gamma_0$ unless $bc = 0$ or $ad = 0$. In the first case, we may assume $\gamma = 1$. In the second, γ is elliptic. However, $X = \Gamma \backslash \mathfrak{H}$ is smooth and of genus ≥ 2 . Hence Γ is strictly hyperbolic and does not contain any elliptic elements. (This is done for simplicity. If Γ indeed contains an elliptic element, the contribution to the trace formula will be the same as that coming from the identity.) As in [13], we will call γ *regular* if $abcd \neq 0$.

Thus we may write the geometric side as

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{\gamma_0 \in \Gamma_0} \int_1^{m^2} \int_1^{m^2} \Phi(u(\gamma_0 \cdot ix, iy)) d^\times x d^\times y + \\ & \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_0 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_0 - \Gamma_0} \sum_{\gamma_0, \gamma'_0 \in \Gamma_0} \int_1^{m^2} \int_1^{m^2} \Phi(u(\gamma \gamma'_0 \cdot ix, \gamma_0 \cdot iy)) d^\times x d^\times y = \\ & \int_0^\infty \int_1^{m^2} \Phi(u(ix, iy)) d^\times x d^\times y + \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_0 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_0 - \Gamma_0} \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \Phi(u(\gamma \cdot ix, iy)) d^\times x d^\times y. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the geometric side of the relative trace formula is

$$\int_C \int_C K(x, y) dx dy = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_0 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_0} I_\gamma(\Phi)$$

where

$$I_{\text{Id}}(\Phi) = \int_0^\infty \int_1^{m^2} \Phi(u(ix, iy)) d^\times x d^\times y$$

and

$$I_\gamma(\Phi) = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \Phi(u(\gamma \cdot ix, iy)) d^\times x d^\times y$$

for γ regular. The expressions $I_\gamma(\Phi)$ are sometimes called (relative) orbital integrals in analogy with the Selberg trace formula case. We now proceed to analyze these orbital integrals.

2.2. The main term. For the kernel of principal interest to us here, the term $I_{\text{Id}}(\Phi)$ will asymptotically dominate the other geometric terms, and thus we will call $I_{\text{Id}}(\Phi)$ the main term. To compute it, observe that

$$I_{\text{Id}}(\Phi) = \int_0^\infty \int_1^{m^2} \Phi(u(ix, iy)) d^\times x d^\times y = \int_0^\infty \int_1^{m^2} \Phi\left(\frac{x}{y} - 2 + \frac{y}{x}\right) d^\times x d^\times y,$$

which, by the change of variables $u = \frac{x}{y}$ and $v = xy$, is

$$\int_0^\infty \int_1^{m^2} \Phi(u + u^{-1} - 2) d^\times u d^\times v = 2 \log m \int_0^\infty \Phi(u + u^{-1} - 2) d^\times u.$$

It will be helpful to rewrite this by symmetry as

$$4 \log m \int_1^\infty \Phi(u + u^{-1} - 2) d^\times u.$$

Making the change of variables $x = u + u^{-1}$ one finds that $dx = (u - u^{-1}) d^\times u = (2u - x) d^\times u$. Solving for u , we have $u = x + \sqrt{x^2 - 4}$ so $d^\times u = (x^2 - 4)^{-1/2} dx$. Hence we can rewrite the above as the integral

$$(7) \quad I_{\text{Id}}(\Phi) = 4 \log m \int_2^\infty \frac{\Phi(x - 2) dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - 4}}.$$

Observe that, whereas as the main term of the Selberg trace formula involves $\text{vol}(X)$, the main term of our relative trace formula involves $\text{len}(C) = 2 \log m$.

2.3. The regular terms. A regular term ($abcd \neq 0$) on the geometric side of the trace formula is then

$$I_\gamma(\Phi) = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \Phi(u(\gamma \cdot ix, iy)) d^\times x d^\times y.$$

This depends only on the double coset representative of γ .

Write

$$\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}.$$

First observe that

$$(8) \quad \gamma \cdot ix = \frac{acx^2 + bd + ix}{c^2x^2 + d^2}.$$

Thus

$$u(\gamma \cdot ix, iy) = \frac{(acx^2 + bd)^2 + (x - y(c^2x^2 + d^2))^2}{xy(c^2x^2 + d^2)}.$$

Then one may check that

$$\frac{(acx^2 + bd)^2 + x^2}{c^2x^2 + d^2} = a^2x^2 + b^2.$$

Plugging this in and expanding out terms gives

$$(9) \quad \begin{aligned} u(\gamma \cdot ix, iy) &= \frac{ax^2 + b^2}{xy} - 2 + \frac{y(c^2x^2 + d^2)}{x} \\ &= \frac{a^2x}{y} + \frac{b^2}{xy} + c^2xy + d^2\frac{y}{x} - 2. \end{aligned}$$

Making the substitution $z = x/y$ and $w = xy$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} I_\gamma(\Phi) &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \Phi[a^2z + d^2z^{-1} + b^2w^{-1} + c^2w - 2] d^\times z d^\times w \\ &= 2 \int_{|b/c|}^\infty \int_{|d/a|}^\infty \Phi[a^2z + d^2z^{-1} + b^2w^{-1} + c^2w - 2] d^\times z d^\times w, \end{aligned}$$

where the inner integral is over z here. This last step follows from the observations that the integrand and Haar measures are invariant under the substitutions $z \mapsto d^2/(a^2z)$ and $w \mapsto b^2/(c^2w)$, and that $z = d^2/(a^2z)$ and $w = b^2/(c^2w)$ when $z = |d/a|$ and $w = |b/c|$. The purpose of making the lower limit of integration non-zero is to do the following change of variables.

Observe that by making appropriate substitutions,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_r^s f(ax + bx^{-1} + c) d^\times x &= \int_{\log r}^{\log s} f(ae^t + be^{-t} + c) dt \\ &= \int_{ar+b/r}^{as+b/s} f(u + c) \frac{du}{\sqrt{u^2 - 4ab}}. \end{aligned}$$

Applying this observation to change the variables z and w to u and v , we have

$$(10) \quad I_\gamma(\Phi) = \int_{2|bc|}^\infty \int_{2|ad|}^\infty \Phi[u + v - 2] \frac{du}{\sqrt{u^2 - (2ad)^2}} \frac{dv}{\sqrt{v^2 - (2bc)^2}}.$$

(The inner integral is over u and the outer over v .) This integral is indeed independent of the choice of double coset representative γ as the quantities ad and bc are.

Now one can try to separate variables. Writing $\alpha = 2|ad|$ and $\beta = 2|bc|$ and using the substitution $t = u + v$, we get

$$I_\gamma(\Phi) = \int_{\alpha+\beta}^{\infty} \Phi(t-2) dt \int_{\alpha}^{t-\beta} \frac{du}{\sqrt{(u^2 - \alpha^2)((t-u)^2 - \beta^2)}}.$$

Note that the inner integral over u is a elliptic integral—precisely, it is

$$(11) \quad \frac{2}{\sqrt{t^2 - (\alpha - \beta)^2}} K \left(\sqrt{\frac{t^2 - (\alpha + \beta)^2}{t^2 - (\alpha - \beta)^2}} \right),$$

where K denotes the complete elliptic integral of the first kind.¹ Let us consider (11) in two cases. Since $ad - bc = 1$, $ad > bc$. If $ad > bc > 0$, then $\alpha - \beta = 2(ad - bc) = 2$. If $0 > ad > bc$, then $\alpha - \beta = 2(-ad + bc) = -2$. Thus, in either case, i.e. if $abcd > 0$, then $(\alpha - \beta)^2 = 4$. On the other hand, if $ad > 0 > bc$, i.e. if $abcd < 0$, then $\alpha + \beta = 2(ad - bc) = 2$. We also see that if $|\alpha \pm \beta| = 2$, then $\alpha \mp \beta = 2|ad + bc|$.

Hence writing $\delta = \delta(\gamma) = 2|ad + bc|$ gives

$$I_\gamma(\Phi) = 2 \int_{\delta}^{\infty} \frac{\Phi(t-2)}{\sqrt{t^2 - 4}} K \left(\sqrt{\frac{t^2 - \delta^2}{t^2 - 4}} \right) dt$$

when $abcd > 0$ and

$$I_\gamma(\Phi) = 2 \int_2^{\infty} \frac{\Phi(t-2)}{\sqrt{t^2 - \delta^2}} K \left(\sqrt{\frac{t^2 - 4}{t^2 - \delta^2}} \right) dt$$

for $abcd < 0$. Observe that these integrals are indeed well defined as $\delta > 2$ when $abcd > 0$ and $\delta < 2$ when $abcd < 0$. It will be seen later that there are only finitely many representatives γ with $abcd < 0$, thus we will call these cosets and their representatives exceptional.

In summary, we have the following result.

Proposition 1. (*Relative trace formula*) For a function Φ as before,

$$(12) \quad 2 \text{len}(C) \int_2^{\infty} \frac{\Phi(t-2)}{\sqrt{t^2 - 4}} dt \\ + 2 \sum_{\delta(\gamma) < 2} \int_2^{\infty} \frac{\Phi(t-2)}{\sqrt{t^2 - \delta^2}} K \left(\sqrt{\frac{t^2 - 4}{t^2 - \delta^2}} \right) dt \\ + 2 \sum_{\delta(\gamma) > 2} \int_{\delta}^{\infty} \frac{\Phi(t-2)}{\sqrt{t^2 - 4}} K \left(\sqrt{\frac{t^2 - \delta^2}{t^2 - 4}} \right) dt \\ = \frac{\text{len}(C)^2}{g_X - 1} \int_0^{\infty} \Phi(x) dx + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} h(r_n) |P(\phi_n)|^2.$$

In the sums on the left, γ runs over representatives for the nontrivial double cosets $\Gamma_0 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_0 - \Gamma_0$.

¹All non-elementary integral formulas used in this text may be found in [8].

We have proven all of this except the explicit calculation of the first term on the spectral side. But this is easy, since $\lambda_0 = 0$ and ϕ_0 is constant. We also used the Gauss-Bonnet theorem to give the volume of X explicitly.

2.4. Geometry of geometric terms. In Proposition 1, the integrals $I_\gamma(\Phi)$ were written solely in terms of Φ and the quantity $\delta = 2|ad + bc|$, which we now proceed to interpret geometrically.

Lemma 1. *Let $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$, and assume $abcd \neq 0$. Then*

$$\inf \{u(\gamma \cdot ix, iy) : x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+\} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } abcd < 0, \\ \delta(\gamma) - 2 & \text{if } abcd > 0. \end{cases}$$

Thus, for any $\gamma \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$,

$$\max \{2, \delta(\gamma)\} = 2 \cosh(\mathrm{dist}(\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+, i\mathbb{R}^+)).$$

Proof. Let us define a function of two variables,

$$h(x, y) = u(\gamma \cdot ix, iy) = \frac{a^2x}{y} + \frac{b^2}{xy} + c^2xy + d^2\frac{y}{x} - 2,$$

by (9). We are interested in the minimum of h , so we need to compute the gradient. One obtains

$$(13) \quad h_x(x, y) = 0 \implies x^2 = \frac{a^2y^2 + b^2}{c^2y^2 + d^2}.$$

Plugging this expression for x into $h_y(x, y) = 0$ leads to the values

$$y^4 = \frac{(bd)^2}{(ac)^2}.$$

Now we consider different cases. If $abcd < 0$, then set $y_{\min} = \sqrt{-\frac{bd}{ac}}$. Then $(acy_{\min}^2 + bd) = 0$. Hence with $x_{\min} = y_{\min}/(c^2y_{\min}^2 + d^2)$, one gets $h(x_{\min}, y_{\min}) = 0$.

On the other hand, if $abcd > 0$, then set $y_{\min} = \sqrt{\frac{bd}{ac}}$ so that $acy_{\min}^2 + bd = 2bd$. Using (13) to define x_{\min} , one obtains that

$$h(x_{\min}, y_{\min}) = 2\sqrt{1 + 4abcd} - 2 = 2|ad + bc| - 2.$$

Moreover, (x_{\min}, y_{\min}) minimizes h because as either x or y approach either 0 from above or ∞ , $h(x, y)$ goes to ∞ . More precisely, there exist constants $C, M \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ such that for all $N \geq M$ and for all $(x, y) \notin [1/N, N]^2$, $h(x, y) \geq C \cdot N$. We omit the details. \square

There are two kinds of regular elements γ : the exceptional γ with $\delta < 2$ (i.e., $abcd < 0$), and non-exceptional γ with $\delta > 2$ (i.e., $abcd > 0$). Observe that $\mathrm{dist}(\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+, i\mathbb{R}^+)$ is the same as the distance between the image of $i\mathbb{R}^+$ and $\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+$ in the “tube domain” $\Gamma_0 \backslash \mathfrak{H}$ (so these curves in the tube domain intersect if and only if γ is exceptional).²

One may interpret this distance on the base manifold $X = M$ as follows. Consider the set of relative homotopy classes of curves on X whose endpoints lie on C . By this, we mean two such curves are equivalent if they are homotopic to each

²We use the term “tube domain” here as it is suggestive of the geometry of the intermediary quotient $\Gamma_0 \backslash \mathfrak{H}$, and not in the sense of a Siegel domain.

other by homotopies which vary the endpoints smoothly on C . In each relative homotopy class, there is a unique arc of minimal length, and this length will be the distance between $i\mathbb{R}^+$ and some $\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+$ in the tube domain. Moreover these minimal length arcs are precisely the geodesic segments which start and end on C , meeting C orthogonally at each endpoint. Hence the non-exceptional regular γ parametrize the curves α_γ in orthonormal spectrum of C , and the quantities $\delta(\gamma)$ measure their length. Precisely,

$$(14) \quad \delta(\gamma) = 2 \cosh(\text{len}(\alpha_\gamma)).$$

As for the exceptional terms, by considering the tube domain one sees that they correspond to points of self-intersection on the closed geodesic C . In other words, exceptional double cosets exist if and only if C is not simple. Note that any closed geodesic has at most a finite number of self-intersections, so that there are only finitely many exceptional terms. This follows from compactness of X , and is also a consequence of a lattice point counting argument in the next section.

For γ exceptional, $\delta(\gamma)$ determines the angle θ of self-intersection at the point corresponding to the double coset of γ . For example, the intersection is transverse if and only if $\delta(\gamma) = 0$. Specifically, from (8) we see that the line $\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+$ intersects $i\mathbb{R}^+$ when $acx^2 + bc = 0$, i.e., at the point

$$iy = i\sqrt{\frac{-ab}{cd}}.$$

Since $\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+$ is a Euclidean semicircle in \mathfrak{H} with center $(ad + bc)/(2cd)$ we compute that the radial line from this center to iy has slope

$$\frac{2\sqrt{-abcd}}{ad + bc} = \frac{\sqrt{4 - \delta^2}}{\pm\delta}.$$

Hence it follows that

$$(15) \quad \delta = |2 \cos \theta|.$$

In summary, we see that the relative trace formula encodes three pieces of geometric information, the length of C coming from the main term, the self-intersection angles of C coming from the exceptional terms, and the ortholength spectrum coming from the remaining regular terms. Thus we may think of this trace formula as a relation between the ortholength spectrum and the orthogonal spectrum.

3. THE EXPONENTIAL KERNEL

In light of the elliptic integrals in (12), in order to compute the integrals $I_\gamma(\Phi)$ in a specific case, one might want instead to separate the integrals in (10). This is possible if we choose our kernel function to be

$$\Phi(x) = e^{-tx}.$$

Here we take $t > 0$, which makes Φ of rapid decay, and thus it is a valid test function for our relative trace formula. Then we get from (10)

$$I_\gamma(\Phi) = e^{2t} \int_{2|ad|}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-tu} du}{\sqrt{u^2 - (2ad)^2}} \int_{2|bc|}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-tv} dv}{\sqrt{v^2 - (2bc)^2}}.$$

Note that, for $a > 0$,

$$\int_a^{\infty} \frac{e^{-tu}}{\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}} = K_0(at)$$

where K_ν denotes the K -Bessel function. Hence

$$I_{Id}(\Phi) = 2 \operatorname{len}(C) e^{2t} K_0(2t)$$

and

$$I_\gamma(\Phi) = e^{2t} K_0(2|ad|t) K_0(2|bc|t).$$

Note that $ad = \frac{2\pm\delta}{4}$ and $bc = \frac{-2\pm\delta}{4}$, hence $2|ad|$ and $2|bc|$ equal, in some order, $\frac{\delta+2}{2}$ and $\frac{|\delta-2|}{2}$.

Thus the geometric side of the relative trace formula is

$$2 \operatorname{len}(C) e^{2t} K_0(2t) + \sum_{\gamma} e^{2t} K_0\left(\frac{\delta+2}{2}t\right) K_0\left(\frac{|\delta-2|}{2}t\right),$$

where $\delta = \delta(\gamma)$ and γ runs over a set of representatives for the nontrivial double cosets of Γ by Γ_0 . The following asymptotic is standard, and may be found in [8] along with other facts about Bessel functions we use later:

$$(16) \quad K_0(t) \sim \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2t}} e^{-t} \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty.$$

Hence as $t \rightarrow \infty$, the main term looks like

$$(17) \quad I_{Id}(\Phi) \sim \operatorname{len}(C) \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}},$$

the exceptional terms grow like

$$(18) \quad I_\gamma(\Phi) \sim \frac{\pi}{t\sqrt{4-\delta^2}}.$$

and the regular terms grow like

$$(19) \quad I_\gamma(\Phi) \sim \frac{\pi e^{-t(\delta-2)}}{t\sqrt{\delta^2-4}}.$$

Now consider at the spectral side. We have

$$Q(v) = \int_v^\infty \frac{e^{-tx}}{\sqrt{x-v}} dx = e^{-tv} \int_0^\infty x^{-1/2} e^{-tx} dx = e^{-tv} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}}.$$

Then

$$h(r) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty Q(2 \cosh x - 2) e^{irx} dx = e^{2t} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}} \int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-2t \cosh x} e^{irx} dx = 2e^{2t} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}} K_{ir}(2t).$$

For $t > 1 + r^2$, we have

$$h(r) = \frac{\pi}{t} (1 + O((1+r^2)t^{-1})).$$

From (6) the spectral side of the relative trace formula is

$$\sum_{n=0}^\infty h(r_n) |P(\phi_n)|^2 = 2e^{2t} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}} \sum_{n=0}^\infty K_{ir_n}(2t) |P(\phi_n)|^2.$$

In summary, we have the following.

Proposition 2. (*Relative trace formula — exponential kernel*)

(20)

$$2 \operatorname{len}(C) e^{2t} K_0(2t) + \sum_{\gamma} e^{2t} K_0\left(\frac{\delta+2}{2}t\right) K_0\left(\frac{|\delta-2|}{2}t\right) = 2e^{2t} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}} \sum_{n=0}^\infty K_{ir_n}(2t) |P(\phi_n)|^2.$$

We remark that the arguments ir_n of the Bessel functions $K_{ir_n}(2t)$ appearing on the right are real for exceptional eigenvalues $\lambda_n < \frac{1}{4}$ and purely imaginary for $\lambda_n > \frac{1}{4}$.

Proposition 3. *As $t \rightarrow \infty$, we have the asymptotic*

$$(21) \quad 2e^{2t} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} K_{ir_n}(2t) |P(\phi_n)|^2 = \text{len}(C) \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}} + \left(\sum_{\delta < 2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4 - \delta^2}} \right) \frac{\pi}{t} + O\left(\frac{1}{t\sqrt{t}}\right),$$

or, in a less refined form,

$$(22) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^t \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} K_{ir_n}(t) |P(\phi_n)|^2 = \frac{\text{len}(C)}{2}.$$

Proof. We first consider the non-exceptional regular geometric terms $I_\gamma(\Phi)$. For t large, we have the estimate

$$(23) \quad K_0(t) \leq \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2t}} e^{-t} \left(1 + \frac{1}{8t}\right).$$

Hence for t large, we may make the estimate

$$I_\gamma(\Phi) = e^{2t} K_0\left(\frac{\delta+2}{2}t\right) K_0\left(\frac{|\delta-2|}{2}t\right) \leq \frac{\pi e^{-t(\delta-2)}}{t\sqrt{\delta^2-4}} \left(1 + \frac{\delta}{2(\delta^2-4)t} + \frac{1}{16(\delta^2-4)t^2}\right).$$

To estimate $\sum_\gamma I_\gamma(\Phi)$ we will need to know some bound on the growth of δ . We can estimate a count

$$\pi_\delta(x) = \#\{\gamma \in \Gamma_0 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_0 - \Gamma_0 : \delta(\gamma) < x\}$$

from the lattice point problem. The principal result we will use is that

$$\#\left\{\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma : a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 < x\right\} = O(x)$$

(e.g., Theorem 12.1 of [12].) We can count our set as

$$\pi_\delta(x) = \#\left\{\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma - \Gamma_0 : 1 \leq |a| < m, 1 \leq |b| < m^2, 2|ad + bc| < x\right\}.$$

Elements in this set satisfy

$$c^2 + d^2 + 2abcd \leq (ad + bc)^2 \leq \frac{x^2}{4}.$$

If $abcd > 0$ we clearly have $c^2 + d^2 \leq \frac{x^2}{4}$. Suppose $abcd < 0$. Then $ad > 0 > bc$ but since $ad = 1 + bc$, $0 > bc > -1$ and so $abcd > -1$. Hence in either case we have

$$c^2 + d^2 \leq \frac{x^2}{4} + 1,$$

so

$$\pi_\delta(x) < \#\left\{\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma : a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 < 2m^4 + \frac{x^2}{4} + 1\right\} = O(x^2).$$

Let $\{\delta_n\}$ denote the sequence of $\delta(\gamma)$'s in increasing order. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$, $\pi_\delta(x) = O(x^2)$ implies

$$(24) \quad \delta_n \gg n^{\frac{1}{2+\epsilon}}.$$

We remark that this also implies there are only finitely many $\delta < 2$, i.e., only finitely many exceptional double cosets with $abcd < 0$, as noted in Section 2.4.

Now we may uniformly bound

$$I_\gamma(\Phi) \leq C \frac{\pi e^{-t(\delta-2)}}{t\sqrt{\delta^2-4}}$$

for some $C > 0$ and t large. Also, since the sum of any finite number of $I_\gamma(\Phi)$ goes to 0 exponentially fast as $t \rightarrow \infty$, it suffices to bound the growth of some tail

$$\sum_{\delta > N} I_\gamma(\Phi) \leq C \sum_{\delta > N} \frac{\pi e^{-t(\delta-2)}}{t\sqrt{\delta^2-4}} \leq C \sum_{n > N'} \frac{\pi e^{-tn^{1/3}}}{tn^{1/3}}.$$

Here we have used (24) with $\epsilon = 1$. We can easily estimate this sum on the right by

$$\sum_{n > N} \frac{\pi e^{-tn^{1/3}}}{tn^{1/3}} \leq \pi \int_1^\infty \frac{e^{-tx^{1/3}}}{x^{1/3}} dx = 3\pi \int_1^\infty ue^{-tu} du = 3\pi e^{-t} (t^{-1} + t^{-2}).$$

Hence the contribution from the non-exceptional regular terms is

$$\sum_{\delta > 2} I_\gamma(\Phi) = O\left(\frac{e^{-(\delta_0-2)t}}{t}\right),$$

where δ_0 is the minimum $\delta > 2$, which will be absorbed in the error terms below.

On the other hand, we may estimate any of the finitely many exceptional terms by (18), and observe that (23) gives $O(t^{-2})$ for the error term. Similarly there is an $O(t^{-3/2})$ error term coming from the main term estimate (17). Putting these estimates in the relative trace formula yields the first assertion of Proposition 3, and the second follows from identifying dominant terms. \square

Combining the asymptotics (16) and (22) yields the following

Corollary 1. $P(\phi_n) \neq 0$ for infinitely many n .

4. REFINED ESTIMATES

In this section, we will use z for a positive variable. We will need uniform asymptotics of the K -Bessel function as well as many other estimates to apply a Tauberian theorem to conclude the main result of this section, Theorem 2 below.

4.1. Uniform K -Bessel estimates. In what follows, we will be interested in asymptotics and estimates for

$$(25) \quad K_{ir}(z) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-z \cosh t} e^{irt} dt,$$

as both of the parameters r and z vary.

In the above, r and z are both real, with $z > 0$. Notice, under the transformation $t \leftrightarrow -t$, the integral above is automatically real.

We first will be interested in the case $4 \leq r \leq z$.

Let us make the change of variables

$$(26) \quad \cosh t - 1 = s^2 ; \quad s \cdot t \geq 0.$$

The above restriction forces $s < 0$ when $t < 0$, and similarly $s > 0$ when $t > 0$. One can see this change of variables is a diffeomorphism from $\mathbb{R} \leftrightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and we can write t as a function of s as $t(s) = \cosh^{-1}(s^2 + 1)$, for $s > 0$ by equation (26). With no

restriction on s , explicitly, $t(s) = \ln(1 + s^2 + s\sqrt{s^2 + 2})$. The differential can easily be computed:

$$(27) \quad \frac{dt}{ds} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{s^2 + 2}} \quad s \in \mathbb{R}.$$

It follows that

$$K_{ir}(z) = \frac{e^{-z}}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-zs^2} e^{irt(s)} \frac{2}{\sqrt{s^2 + 2}} ds.$$

Lemma 2. *For $r > 0$ and $z > 0$, we have*

$$K_{ir}(z) = \frac{e^{-z}}{2} \int_{-\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}} e^{-zs^2} e^{irt(s)} \frac{2}{\sqrt{s^2 + 2}} ds + \frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} O\left(\frac{\sqrt{r}}{\sqrt{z}} e^{-\frac{z}{r}}\right).$$

Notice that to really use this, r must be smaller than z by a power of z ; the region $4 \leq r \leq z^{14/25}$ will be of interest later. The error constant here is uniform.

Proof. In light of the expression following equation (27), we need only show

$$e^{-z} \int_{(-\infty, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}] \cup [\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}, \infty)} e^{-zs^2} e^{irt(s)} \frac{2}{\sqrt{s^2 + 2}} ds$$

can be absorbed into the error term. This is trivially bounded by

$$4e^{-z} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\infty} e^{-zs^2} ds = \frac{4e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} \int_{\frac{\sqrt{z}}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\infty} e^{-u^2} du < \frac{4e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} \int_{\frac{\sqrt{z}}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\infty} e^{-\sqrt{\frac{z}{r}}u} du.$$

The equality above is from a substitution, and the inequality uses the region of integration. We have $u^2 \geq \sqrt{\frac{z}{r}}u$ with $u \in [\frac{\sqrt{z}}{\sqrt{r}}, \infty)$ (we will use a similar estimate in Lemma 4). This last integral is trivially evaluated to be $\frac{\sqrt{r}}{\sqrt{z}} e^{-\frac{z}{r}}$ and the lemma follows. \square

We must now estimate $t(s)$ which appears inside the s -integral, in Lemma 2.

By (27), we can write the Maclaurin series for (respectively) $\frac{dt}{ds}$ and t as

$$(28) \quad \begin{cases} \frac{dt}{ds} = \sqrt{2}[1 - \frac{1}{4}s^2 + \frac{3}{32}s^4 + \dots] \\ t(s) = \sqrt{2}[s - \frac{1}{12}s^3 + \frac{3}{160}s^5 - \dots]. \end{cases}$$

Convergence is uniform for both series, for $|s| < \sqrt{2}$. In what follows, we will be taking $|s| \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}$, as well as assuming $r \geq 4$. With these assumptions, we easily have

$$(29) \quad \begin{cases} \frac{dt}{ds} = \sqrt{2}[1 - \frac{1}{4}s^2] + O(s^4) \\ t(s) - \sqrt{2}s = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{12}s^3 + O(s^5) = O(s^3), \end{cases}$$

with uniform constants in all error terms, since $s \in [-1/\sqrt{r}, 1/\sqrt{r}] \subset [-1/2, 1/2]$.

Now we can *replace* the $e^{irt(s)}$ term in equation (25) with $\cos(rt(s))$. From a simple calculus theorem, we have

$$\cos(rt(s)) = \cos(\sqrt{2}rs) - r(t(s) - \sqrt{2}s) \cdot \sin(rc(s))$$

where $c(s)$ is a point between $t(s)$ and s . With our assumptions on r and s , this gives

$$(30) \quad \cos(rt(s)) = \cos(\sqrt{2}rs) + O(rs^3)$$

using equation (29) along with the trivial estimate $|\sin(rc(s))| \leq 1$, again with uniform constant.

Thus, the integral term in Lemma 2 we can now write as

$$(31) \quad \frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{2}} \int_{-\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}} e^{-zs^2} \left(\cos(\sqrt{2}irs) + O(rs^3) \right) \left(\left[1 - \frac{1}{4}s^2\right] + O(s^4) \right) ds$$

$$= \frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{2}} \int_{-\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}} e^{-zs^2} \left(\cos(\sqrt{2}irs) \left[1 - \frac{1}{4}s^2\right] + O(rs^3 + s^4) \right) ds.$$

Here the constants in the error term on the right are uniform, but also depend on the constants in the O terms on the left coming from equations (29) and (30).

Essentially, after noticing the cosine term in the integral on the right hand side of equation (31) can be replaced with an exponential, these computations give

Lemma 3. *For $4 \leq r \leq z$ we have*

$$K_{ir}(z) = \frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{2}} \int_{-\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}} e^{-zs^2} e^{\sqrt{2}irs} \left[1 - \frac{1}{4}s^2\right] ds + \frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} O\left(\frac{r}{z^{3/2}} + \frac{\sqrt{r}}{\sqrt{z}} e^{-\frac{z}{r}}\right).$$

Proof. Following the Taylor estimates on $t(s)$ and $\frac{dt}{ds}$ after Lemma 2 (as well as using Lemma 2) all the way to equation (31), we see the main term above is the integral on the right side of (31). Thus, all we need to show is that the error terms from the right side of (31) account for the first term inside the error term above.

Easily, one error term from the right side of (31) is

$$e^{-z} \cdot O\left(\int_{-\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}} |e^{-zs^2} e^{\sqrt{2}irs} r s^3| ds\right).$$

This can trivially be bounded by

$$re^{-z} O\left(\int_{-\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}} e^{-zs^2} |s|^3 ds\right) = \frac{re^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} O\left(\int_0^{\sqrt{z/r}} e^{-u^2} \left(\frac{u}{\sqrt{z}}\right)^3 du\right)$$

$$= \frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} O\left(\frac{r}{z^{3/2}} \int_0^\infty e^{-u^2} u^3 du\right).$$

The first equality is a substitution. The second is extending the integral to half the real line (so the interval is independent of r or z). This last integral converges, but we will have to incorporate its value into the error term of this lemma.

The other error term produces $\frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} O\left(\frac{1}{z^2}\right)$, which we simply absorb into the $\frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} O\left(\frac{r}{z^{3/2}}\right)$ term by our assumption $4 \leq r \leq z$. \square

This leads us naturally to

Lemma 4. *For $4 \leq r \leq z$ we have*

$$K_{ir}(z) = \frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-zs^2} e^{\sqrt{2}irs} \left[1 - \frac{1}{4}s^2\right] ds + \frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} O\left(\frac{r}{z\sqrt{z}} + \frac{\sqrt{r}}{\sqrt{z}} e^{-\frac{z}{r}}\right).$$

Note; the constant here is uniform, but possibly different than previous lemmas.

Proof. By Lemma 3, we need to estimate

$$e^{-z} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\infty} |e^{-zs^2} e^{\sqrt{2}irs} [1 - \frac{1}{4}s^2]| ds < e^{-z} \int_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}}^{\infty} e^{-zs^2} [1 + \frac{1}{4}s^2] ds.$$

By a change of variable, the right side here is now equal to

$$\frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} \int_{\sqrt{\frac{z}{r}}}^{\infty} e^{-u^2} [1 + \frac{u^2}{4z}] du.$$

By estimates very similar to Lemma 2, as well as an integration by parts, this can be shown to be of the size $\frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} O(\frac{\sqrt{r}}{\sqrt{z}} e^{-z/r})$, where the uniform constant is actually different than that of Lemma 2. The only error term in this lemma unaccounted for comes from the error term from Lemma 3. \square

We will evaluate the integral in Lemma 4 by using Fourier transforms.

Suppose $f(x)$ is a Schwartz function on \mathbb{R} . We define the Fourier transform of f as

$$\hat{f}(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) e^{ixy} dx.$$

Since f is a Schwartz function, \hat{f} also is. Furthermore,

$$\frac{d\hat{f}}{dy}(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \cdot (ix) e^{ixy} dx \implies \frac{d^2\hat{f}}{d^2y}(y) = - \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \cdot x^2 e^{ixy} dx.$$

Note that with our normalization the Fourier transform of the Gaussian function $f(x) = e^{-x^2}$ is

$$(32) \quad \hat{f}(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} e^{ixy} dx = \sqrt{\pi} e^{-\frac{y^2}{4}}.$$

This brings us easily to

Proposition 4. *For $4 \leq r \leq z$, we have*

$$K_{ir}(z) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sqrt{2z}} e^{-(z+\frac{r^2}{2z})} \left[1 + \frac{r^2 - z}{8z^2} \right] + \frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} O\left(\frac{r}{z\sqrt{z}} + \frac{\sqrt{r}}{\sqrt{z}} e^{-\frac{z}{r}} \right).$$

Proof. We use Lemma 4 along with the above Fourier theory to compute the integral of Lemma 4 *exactly*. Consequently, the error term here is also exactly that of Lemma 4.

By the change of variable $x = \sqrt{z}s$, the integral in Lemma 4 becomes

$$\frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{2z}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} e^{ix(\frac{\sqrt{2}r}{\sqrt{z}})} \left(1 - \frac{1}{4z} x^2 \right) dx.$$

So, one term here is exactly the Fourier transform of e^{-x^2} , evaluated at $y = \frac{\sqrt{2}r}{\sqrt{z}}$. Applying equation (32) to this first term, as well as the term involving the x^2 (which brings a second y -derivative of $\sqrt{\pi} e^{-\frac{y^2}{4}}$) gives our result. \square

(Note: If we fix r and send z to ∞ we recover the asymptotic $\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2z}} e^{-z}$, which is valid for any fixed r by Laplace's method. This proposition gives us an asymptotic for z , but is also *uniform* for r of size even much larger than \sqrt{z} . For example, one will see that the r values in the region $\sqrt{z} \leq r \leq \sqrt{z \log(z)}$ will still contribute to the sum (22).)

Proposition 5. For z sufficiently large, and $z^{\frac{14}{25}} \leq r \leq z$, we have

$$K_{ir}(z) = e^{-z} \cdot O\left(\frac{z^{\frac{15}{2}}}{r^{16}}\right).$$

Proof. With our assumptions on r and z , integrate by-parts

$$2K_{ir}(z) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-z \cosh t} e^{irt} dt$$

15 times. Note that z must be very large here.

Specifically, as a smaller example we will show $K_{ir}(z) = e^{-z} O(\frac{z^{5/2}}{r^6})$ after 5 integrations by-parts. We have

$$(33) \quad 2K_{ir}(z) = \frac{-1}{ir^5} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\frac{d^5}{dt^5} e^{-z \cosh t} \right] e^{irt} dt,$$

where

$$(34) \quad \frac{d^5}{dt^5} e^{-z \cosh t} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} -z^5 \sinh^5(t) + 10z^4 \sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) - 25z^3 \sinh^3(t) \\ + 15z^2 \sinh(t) \cosh(t) - z(15z^2 + 1) \sinh(t) \end{array} \right\} \cdot e^{-z \cosh t}.$$

Our strategy for obtaining an estimate at 15 integrations is the same for 5, which we explain now.

Now, we replace (34), which has 5 terms, into the integral of (33), and then separate to make 5 integrals. We obtain an estimate for the size of each integral. For example, if we take the second term on the right side of (34), we become interested in the size of the integral

$$(35) \quad \frac{z^4}{r^5} \int_{\mathbb{R}} [\sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t}] e^{irt} dt.$$

Let us take a closer look at the function $\sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t}$ appearing in (35). For convenience, in this proposition, let us use $h_z(t) = \sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t}$. For each z , $h_z(t)$ is odd. Its derivative is

$$(36) \quad e^{-z \cosh t} \sinh^2(t) [-z \sinh^2(t) \cosh(t) + 4 \sinh^2(t) + 3],$$

which is clearly zero at $t = 0$. The term in brackets has only one zero for $t > 0$ (recall, z is very large). This happens when

$$z = \frac{4}{\cosh(t)} + \frac{3}{\sinh^2(t) \cosh(t)}.$$

Using the Maclaurin series for both $\sinh(t)$ and $\cosh(t)$, we find this zero happens at a value of t that is of order $1/\sqrt{z}$. In other words, for z sufficiently large, we have the other zero (for $t > 0$) of the derivative (36) occurs at some $t_0(z)$ with

$$(37) \quad t_0(z) \sim \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{z}}.$$

Consequently, $h_z(t) = \sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t}$ is strictly increasing (resp. decreasing) on $(0, t_0(z))$ (resp. $(t_0(z), \infty)$). Now, since this function is odd, we are integrating $h_z(t)$ against $\sin(rt)$ in (35), which has period $2\pi/r$. We will break up each interval where $h_z(t) = \sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t}$ is monotone into segments of

length π/r with endpoints $k\pi/r, k \in \mathbb{Z}$. More specifically, put $n_1(z) \in \mathbb{N}$ be the first (smallest) integer so that $n_1(z)\pi/r \geq t_0(z)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{t_0(z)}^{\infty} \sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t} \sin(rt) dt \\ &= \int_{t_0(z)}^{n_1(z)\pi/r} h_z(t) \sin(rt) dt + \sum_{k=n_1(z)}^{\infty} \int_{k\pi/r}^{(k+1)\pi/r} h_z(t) \sin(rt) dt \\ &= \int_{t_0(z)}^{n_1(z)\pi/r} h_z(t) \sin(rt) dt + \sum_{k=n_1(z)}^{\infty} a_k, \end{aligned}$$

with the obvious definition for a_k . Since $h_z(t) = \sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t}$ is strictly decreasing on $[t_0(z), \infty)$, we see that the series $\sum_{k=n_1(z)}^{\infty} a_k$ is an alternating series where $|a_{k+1}| \leq |a_k|$. Consequently, the sum of this series is in absolute value $\leq |a_{n_1(z)}|$.

How big can $|a_{n_1(z)}|$ be? We are integrating over an interval of length π/r . Further, the maximum of the integrand must be, using (37), at most

$$\sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t} \Big|_{t_0(z)} = O\left(\frac{e^{-z}}{z^{3/2}}\right).$$

This gives us a total of $O\left(\frac{e^{-z}}{rz^{3/2}}\right)$. The integral

$$\int_{t_0(z)}^{n_1(z)\pi/r} \sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t} \sin(rt) dt$$

is handled similarly (the interval is shorter than π/r).

This leaves us with

$$\int_0^{t_0(z)} \sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t} \sin(rt) dt.$$

By our assumption on r and z , namely that $z^{14/25} \leq r$, this implies that $2\pi/r$ (the period of the oscillating factor) is *much* less than $t_0(z)$. Consequently, we can do the same type of analysis for the interval $(0, t_0(z))$, and actually conclude the same result. Here, we will have a finite alternating sequence, whose absolute value terms are increasing. This means we use the last term for estimates; this brings us to an interval $[(n_1(z) - 1)\pi/r, t_0(z)]$, and once again we use that $h_z(t) = \sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t} \sin(rt)$ has a maximum at $t_0(z)$. For $t < 0$, we just use symmetry; $\sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t} \sin(rt)$ is an even function of t for any z . We conclude the same result, and leave the details to the reader.

This gives us the contribution of the $h_z(t) = \sinh^3(t) \cosh(t) e^{-z \cosh t}$ term from (34) into (33) is $e^{-z} O\left(\frac{z^{5/2}}{r^6}\right)$. This bound holds for *each* of the 5 pieces (34). Consequently by (33), we have $K_{ir}(z) = e^{-z} O\left(\frac{z^{5/2}}{r^6}\right)$, with our assumptions on r and z . We see from computation that *each* integration by parts gives us an extra factor of \sqrt{z}/r , keeping our assumptions on r and z . Integrating by parts 10 more times, this gives the proposition, since we have a factor of \sqrt{z}/r each time. \square

We remark that if one restricts to special regions, one has better estimates for the K -Bessel functions than those in Propositions 4 and 5, but the contributions from these regions are negligible for our asymptotics.

4.2. An eigenvalue moment estimate. In this subsection, we record estimates needed for our main theorem below.

Lemma 5. *Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\alpha \neq -2$. Let $m_1, m_2 > 0$ with $m_2 > m_1$. Then*

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{z^{m_1} \leq r_j \leq z^{m_2}} r_j^\alpha = O\left(z^{(\alpha+2)m_1} + z^{(\alpha+2)m_2}\right).$$

Further, if $\alpha > -2$,

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{4 \leq r_j \leq z^{m_1}} r_j^\alpha = O\left(z^{(\alpha+2)m_1}\right).$$

Proof. First, let us define the function $N(x)$ to be the total number of eigenvalues λ_j with $\lambda_j \leq x$. Clearly, we are taking $x \geq 0$, and we are counting eigenvalues with multiplicity. For our situation, it is well-known that Weyl's law holds ([10], [12]), i.e.,

$$(38) \quad N(x) \sim \frac{\text{vol}(\Gamma \backslash \mathbb{H})}{4\pi} \cdot x \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

Further, let us note that since $\lambda_j = \frac{1}{4} + r_j^2$, we have

$$(39) \quad r_j \sim \sqrt{\lambda_j}$$

with uniform constants, since we will always be considering only $r_j \geq 4$. By (38), we also have

$$(40) \quad N(x) \leq c_1 x = O(x) \quad x \geq 1,$$

for a universal constant c_1 . We will only need to consider $\lambda_j \geq \frac{65}{4}$ in the future for estimates.

Let us consider

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{z^{m_1} \leq r_j \leq z^{m_2}} r_j^\alpha.$$

Since $m_1 > 0$, and we are taking z to ∞ , we may assume $z^{m_1} > 4$, so that the statements in the above paragraph hold. For z large, by (39) notice that

$$\sum_{z^{m_1} \leq r_j \leq z^{m_2}} r_j^\alpha \sim \sum_{z^{m_1} \leq r_j \leq z^{m_2}} \lambda_j^{\frac{\alpha}{2}},$$

with universal constants depending on m_1, m_2 , and α , but not on z . Now

$$\sum_{z^{m_1} \leq r_j \leq z^{m_2}} \lambda_j^{\frac{\alpha}{2}} = \int_{z^{2m_1+1/4}}^{z^{2m_2+1/4}} x^{\alpha/2} dN(x).$$

By partial integration, this equals

$$x^{\alpha/2} N(x) \Big|_{z^{2m_1+1/4}}^{z^{2m_2+1/4}} - \frac{\alpha}{2} \int_{z^{2m_1+1/4}}^{z^{2m_2+1/4}} x^{\frac{\alpha}{2}-1} N(x) dx.$$

Using Equation (40) for *both* terms here, along with simple estimates, gives the first part of this lemma, where the O constant is allowed to depend on α . If $\alpha > -2$, the m_2 term will dominate, while if $\alpha < -2$, the m_1 term will dominate. The second part of this lemma is proved the same way. \square

4.3. **The main result.** Using the estimates we have developed, we can now prove

Theorem 1. *With notation as above,*

$$(41) \quad \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sqrt{2z}} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{r_j^2}{2z}} \cdot \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \text{len}(C).$$

Proof. Once again, consider the sum in Equation (22), i.e.,

$$(42) \quad e^z \sum_j K_{ir_j}(z) \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2$$

There are a finite number of terms in the sum here, with $r_j < 4$. For *each* of these terms, one has a limit of $\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2z}} e^{-z}$ as $z \rightarrow \infty$ from Laplace's method. A result of Reznikov [22] gives

$$\int_C |\phi_j|^2 = O(\lambda_j^{1/4}),$$

and so by Cauchy-Schwartz,

$$(43) \quad \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2 = O(\lambda_j^{1/4}).$$

This bound will be important for us. Note that the trivial L^∞ bound, $O(\lambda_j^{1/2})$, is not sufficient for our purposes. (In fact, Zelditch [28, Corollary 3.3] showed that the periods $|\int_C \phi_j|$ are bounded by a constant, but his argument essentially makes use of what we are trying to prove.)

In particular, the sum of the finite number of terms in (42) for which $r_j < 4$ can be bounded by

$$e^z \cdot O\left(\sum_{r_j < 4} \frac{e^{-z}}{\sqrt{z}} \sqrt[4]{\frac{65}{4}}\right) = O\left(\frac{N(65/4)}{\sqrt{z}}\right) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } z \rightarrow \infty.$$

Consequently, we will separate the sum in equation (42) into four separate regions. These regions will be: $4 \leq r \leq \sqrt{z}$, $\sqrt{z} \leq r \leq z^{14/25}$, $z^{14/25} \leq r \leq z$, and $r > z$. We will prove each bound, in a separate proposition, one for each region.

Proposition 6.

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} e^z \sum_{4 \leq r_j \leq \sqrt{z}} K_{ir_j}(z) \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2 = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sqrt{2z}} \sum_{4 \leq r_j \leq \sqrt{z}} e^{-\frac{r_j^2}{2z}} \cdot \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2.$$

Proof. In light of the error terms from Proposition 4 as well as Reznikov's bound (43), it is sufficient to show

$$\sum_{4 \leq r_j \leq \sqrt{z}} \left(e^{-\frac{r_j^2}{2z}} \cdot \frac{|r_j^2 - z|}{z^{5/2}} + \frac{r_j}{z^2} \right) \cdot \lambda_j^{1/4} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } z \rightarrow \infty.$$

By our assumptions on r_j and z here, we have incorporated the error term $\frac{\sqrt{r}}{\sqrt{z}} e^{-z/r}$ into the $\frac{r}{z\sqrt{z}}$ error term (inside the O term of Proposition 4) using simple log estimates.

If we use the trivial bound of 1 for the exponential term, as well as $|r_j^2 - z| < z$, then the uniform asymptotic (39) gives the term above is

$$O\left(\int_{\frac{65}{4}}^{z+1/4} \frac{\lambda^{1/4}}{z^{3/2}} + \frac{\lambda^{3/4}}{z^2} dN(\lambda)\right).$$

This can be shown to be $O(1/\sqrt[4]{z})$ using Lemma 5. Specifically, this term can be split into two integrals, which both arise by estimating sums from Lemma 5; the first with $\alpha = 1/2$, the second with $\alpha = 3/2$, and both with $m_1 = 1/2$. \square

Proposition 7.

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} e^z \sum_{\sqrt{z} \leq r_j \leq z^{\frac{14}{25}}} K_{ir_j}(z) \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2 = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sqrt{2z}} \sum_{\sqrt{z} \leq r_j \leq z^{\frac{14}{25}}} e^{-\frac{r_j^2}{2z}} \cdot \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2.$$

Proof. As in the previous proposition, the assumptions on r_j and z in the sum of this proposition let us absorb the $\frac{\sqrt{r}}{\sqrt{z}} e^{-z/r}$ term into the $\frac{r}{z\sqrt{z}}$ error term (again, inside the O term of Proposition 4).

From the error terms in Proposition 4 and Reznikov's bound (43), it is sufficient to show

$$\sum_{\sqrt{z} \leq r_j \leq z^{\frac{14}{25}}} \left(e^{-\frac{r_j^2}{2z}} \cdot \frac{|r_j^2 - z|}{z^{5/2}} + \frac{r_j}{z^2} \right) \cdot \lambda_j^{1/4} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } z \rightarrow \infty.$$

In this region, $r_j^2 > z$ and so $|r_j^2 - z| \leq r_j^2$. Consequently, we need to estimate

$$\sum_{\sqrt{z} \leq r_j \leq z^{\frac{14}{25}}} \left(e^{-\frac{r_j^2}{2z}} \cdot \frac{r_j^2}{z^{5/2}} + \frac{r_j}{z^2} \right) \cdot \lambda_j^{1/4}$$

which is (uniformly) asymptotic to

$$\frac{1}{z^2} \int_{z+1/4}^{z^{28/25}+1/4} \lambda^{3/4} dN(\lambda) + \frac{e^{\frac{1}{8z}}}{z^{5/2}} \int_{z+1/4}^{z^{28/25}+1/4} e^{-\frac{\lambda}{2z}} \lambda^{5/4} dN(\lambda).$$

by (39). (Note there are no issues, such as uniform constants, with asymptotics here, since an asymptotic was not used in the exponential factor.) The first integral here can be shown to be $O(1/\sqrt[25]{z})$, using Lemma 5, with $\alpha = 3/2$, $m_1 = 1/2$ and $m_2 = 14/25$. Hence this term dies off.

The second integral is not quite as easy in this region, and we will need to use the exponential term. First, since we are sending $z \rightarrow \infty$, we can ignore the $e^{\frac{1}{8z}}$ term. An integration by parts of this integral gives

$$\frac{1}{z^{5/2}} \left[e^{-\frac{\lambda}{2z}} \lambda^{5/4} N(\lambda) \Big|_{z+1/4}^{z^{28/25}+1/4} + \int_{z+1/4}^{z^{28/25}+1/4} e^{-\frac{\lambda}{2z}} \lambda^{1/4} \left[\frac{\lambda}{2z} - 5/4 \right] N(\lambda) d\lambda \right]$$

Using (40), the first term here is $z^{-5/2} O(e^{-z^{3/25}} \cdot z^{(\frac{5}{4} \cdot \frac{28}{25} + \frac{28}{25})} + z^{(\frac{5}{4}+1)})$ which clearly dies as $z \rightarrow \infty$. Using the uniform bound $N(x) \leq c_1 x$ from (40) the second term can be seen to be trivially bounded by

$$\frac{c_1}{z^{5/2}} \int_{z+1/4}^{z^{28/25}+1/4} e^{-\frac{\lambda}{2z}} \lambda^{5/4} \left[\frac{\lambda}{2z} + 5/4 \right] d\lambda.$$

With the change of variables $x = \frac{\lambda}{z}$, this term becomes

$$\frac{c_1}{z^{5/2}} \cdot z^{9/4} \int_{1+\frac{1}{4z}}^{z^{3/25}+\frac{1}{4z}} e^{-\frac{x}{z}} x^{5/4} \left[\frac{x}{z} + 5/4 \right] dx.$$

Now, the same integral taken over $[1, \infty)$ converges, and this yields the bound of $O(1/\sqrt[4]{z})$. \square

Proposition 8. *With notation as above,*

$$(44) \quad 0 = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} e^z \sum_{z^{\frac{14}{25}} \leq r_j \leq z} K_{ir_j}(z) \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2 = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sqrt{2z}} \sum_{z^{\frac{14}{25}} \leq r_j \leq z} e^{-\frac{r_j^2}{2z}} \cdot \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2.$$

Even though we are dealing with zero here, we will need the form of the summand of the right side to apply a Tauberian theorem later.

Proof. By Proposition 5, for r_j and z as such, we have $K_{ir_j}(z) = e^{-z} \cdot O\left(\frac{z^{15/2}}{r_j^{16}}\right)$. Using (43), the left hand side of (44) can be bounded by (up to an error, or rather an O constant)

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \left(z^{15/2} \cdot \sum_{z^{\frac{14}{25}} \leq r_j \leq z} \frac{\lambda_j^{1/4}}{r_j^{16}} \right).$$

Since $\sqrt{\lambda_j} \sim r_j$, the sum here is exactly that of Lemma 5 with $\alpha = -31/2$, $m_1 = 14/25$, and $m_2 = 1$. Using the bounds of Lemma 5 the above can be seen to be $O(z^{-3/50})$.

Using Reznikov's bound (43), the right hand side of (44) can be seen to be bounded by

$$\sqrt{\pi/2} \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{1/8z}}{\sqrt{z}} \int_{z^{28/25}+1/4}^{z^2+1/4} e^{-\frac{\lambda}{2z}} \lambda^{1/4} dN(\lambda).$$

This integral is very similar to one occurring in Proposition 7, and we evaluate it the same way with the same substitution. We see the first term dies under integration by parts. Using $N(x) \leq c_1 x$, we are left with two terms inside the integral. Estimating trivially (again with the substitution $x = \frac{\lambda}{z}$) we need to bound

$$2c_1 z^{3/4} \int_{z^{3/25}+1/4z}^{z+1/4z} e^{-x/2} x^2 dx.$$

(Here we have used $2x^2 > x^{5/4} + x^{1/4}$ to simplify the integrand after an integration by parts; recall we are sending $z \rightarrow \infty$, so this estimate is trivial in the above region.) Extending the integration domain to $[z^{3/25}, \infty)$, two integrations by parts give us $O(c_1 z^{\frac{3}{4}+\frac{6}{25}} e^{-(z^{\frac{3}{25}}/2)})$. We clearly win due to the exponential term. \square

This leaves us with the simplest case:

Proposition 9. *With notation as above,*

$$(45) \quad 0 = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} e^z \sum_{r_j > z} K_{ir_j}(z) \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2 = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sqrt{2z}} \sum_{r_j > z} e^{-\frac{r_j^2}{2z}} \cdot \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2$$

Proof. We could indeed take care of this case, almost identically to Proposition 8 (with a similar comment as to the start of that proof), except for a rather technical piece that Lemma 5 only deals with finite sums. A simple modification can be made to handle the left side of (45). However, in the region $r > z$ it is *much* easier to see $K_{ir}(z)$ decays rapidly, than using integration by parts 15 times. If one integrates by parts *once* the integral representation for $K_{ir}(z)$ from 8.432, #5 of [8] on p. 917 with $x = 1$, one sees that $K_{ir}(z) = O(re^{-\frac{\pi}{2}r})$, for $r > z$. This is clear using known Γ function estimates. The rate of decay $e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}r}$ is clearly better than e^{-z} , for $r > z$. Further, we are summing over r_j ; but this estimate is easy.

The right side of (45) can be handled almost identically to the right side of (44), as in the proof of Proposition 8. We leave the details to the reader. \square

These estimates prove the theorem. \square

We now come to the main result of this section.

Theorem 2.

$$\sum_{\lambda_j \leq x} |P(\phi_n)|^2 \sim \frac{\text{len}(C)}{\pi} \sqrt{x} \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

Proof. This follows easily from a powerful Tauberian theorem.

Let us construct a measure H on $[0, \infty)$ by putting a point mass of $|\int_C \phi_j|^2$ at the point λ_j . (If there is more than one eigenfunction ϕ_j corresponding to λ_j we must sum over all, for our point mass.) Then we can define the Laplace transform with respect to this measure as (notation as in Feller, vol. II [5]):

$$\omega(y) = \int_0^\infty e^{-yx} H \{dx\} = \sum_{j=0}^\infty e^{-y\lambda_j} \cdot \left| \int_C \phi_j \right|^2.$$

By (41), we see this is finite for each $y > 0$.

Applying (41) with $y = 1/2x$, we see that

$$\omega(y) \sim \frac{e^{-y/4}}{\sqrt{y}} \cdot \frac{\text{len}(C)}{2\sqrt{\pi}} \text{ as } y \rightarrow 0^+.$$

The function $e^{-y/4}$ is essentially harmless, it is well behaved, and equal to 1 at $y = 0$. By Theorem 2 of Feller [5, p. 421], this gives us (with $\rho = 1/2$)

$$U(t) = \int_0^x H \{dx\} \sim \frac{\text{len}(C)}{2\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma(3/2)} \sqrt{x} \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

(This is the Tauberian theorem alluded to above.)

By the definition of our measure, this gives us the asymptotic of the theorem. \square

As mentioned in the introduction, a very weak bound on the error term immediately follows from a Tauberian remainder theorem, precisely [16, Theorem 3.1].

Notice that we can write the above Laplace transform asymptotic as

$$F(u) = \omega\left(\frac{1}{u}\right) \sim \frac{\text{len}(C)}{2\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{4u}} \sqrt{u}$$

for $u > 0$, where the asymptotic is as $u \rightarrow \infty$.

Since trivially $e^{-\frac{1}{4u}} = 1 + (e^{-\frac{1}{4u}} - 1)$, we see $\epsilon(u) = 1 - e^{-\frac{1}{4u}}$ using the notation in [16]. Then the theorem cited above says that there exists $C_1 \geq 0$, $C_2 > 1$ such that the error term is bounded by

$$\min_{k \geq k_0} \left\{ C_1 \frac{\text{len}(C)}{2k\sqrt{\pi}} + C_2^k \epsilon\left(\frac{u}{k}\right) \right\} \sqrt{u}$$

for some $k_0 \in \mathbb{N}$.

By taking u sufficiently large and using $k = \frac{1}{2} \log_{C_2}(u)$, we see the error term is bounded by

$$\frac{C_1 \text{len}(C)}{\log_{C_2}(u)} \sqrt{u} = O\left(\frac{\sqrt{u}}{\log u}\right).$$

With x sufficiently large and $x = u$, we see that our error term is at most this much.

5. TWISTED PERIODS

Twisted periods are important in the study of L -values as well as in various equidistribution problems. In this section, we show how to include twisting in the relative trace formula.

First observe that for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\chi(x) = x^{\frac{\pi i n}{\log m}}$$

for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ defines a *character* on $C = \Gamma_0 \backslash i\mathbb{R}^+$, by which we mean

$$\xi \begin{pmatrix} a & \\ & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix} = \chi(a^2).$$

is a character on the diagonal subgroup of $\text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$ invariant under Γ_0 . Now we consider two characters on C given by

$$\chi_1(x) = x^{\frac{\pi i j}{\log m}}, \chi_2(x) = x^{\frac{\pi i k}{\log m}}$$

for some $j, k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Now consider the relative trace formula obtained by integrating

$$\int_C \int_C K(x, y) \chi_1(x) \chi_2^{-1}(y) dx dy.$$

From the spectral expansion of the kernel, this clearly equals

$$\sum h(r_n) P_{\chi_1}(\phi_n) \overline{P_{\chi_2}(\phi_n)}$$

where

$$P_{\chi_i}(\phi_n) = \int_C \phi_n(t) \chi_i(t) dt.$$

On the other hand, the geometric expansion of the kernel gives as before

$$\sum_{\Gamma_0 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_0} I_\gamma(\Phi)$$

where

$$I_{\text{Id}}(\Phi) = \int_0^\infty \int_1^{m^2} \Phi(u(ix, iy)) \chi_1(x) \chi_2^{-1}(y) d^\times x d^\times y$$

and

$$I_\gamma(\Phi) = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \Phi(u(\gamma \cdot ix, iy)) \chi_1(x) \chi_2^{-1}(y) d^\times x d^\times y$$

for γ regular. One could compute the geometric terms similar to before for an arbitrary Φ , but we will content ourselves to the case $\Phi(x) = e^{-tx}$, $t > 0$.

First let us compute the main term. Put $\mu = \frac{\pi ij}{\log m}$ and $\lambda = \frac{\pi ik}{\log m}$. Then the substitution $u = \frac{x}{y}$ and $v = xy$ yields

$$I_{\text{Id}}(\Phi) = \int_0^\infty \int_1^{m^2} \Phi(u + u^{-1} - 2) u^{\frac{\mu+\lambda}{2}} v^{\frac{\mu-\lambda}{2}} d^\times u d^\times v.$$

Note that the integral over $1 \leq v \leq m^2$ is $2 \log m$ if $\mu = \lambda$, i.e. $j = k$; otherwise it is

$$\frac{2}{\mu - \lambda} (m^{\mu-\lambda} - 1) = \begin{cases} \frac{2 \text{len}(C)}{\pi i(k-j)} & \text{if } k - j \text{ is odd} \\ 0 & \text{if } k - j \neq 0 \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

We finish the main term computation similar to the beginning of Section 3 to get

$$I_{\text{Id}}(\Phi) = \begin{cases} 2 \text{len}(C) e^{2t} K_{\frac{\mu+\lambda}{2}}(2t) & \text{if } j = k \\ \frac{4 \text{len}(C)}{\pi i(k-j)} e^{2t} K_{\frac{\mu+\lambda}{2}}(2t) & \text{if } k - j \text{ is odd} \\ 0 & \text{if } k - j \neq 0 \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

We will say χ_1 and χ_2 have the *same parity* if $k - j$ is even, and have *different parity* if $k - j$ is odd.

Note that since χ_1 and χ_2 are unitary, we may bound the regular geometric terms by

$$\left| \sum_{\gamma \neq \text{Id}} I_\gamma(\Phi) \right| \leq \left(\sum_{\delta < 2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4 - \delta^2}} \right) \frac{\pi}{t} + O\left(\frac{1}{t\sqrt{t}}\right)$$

as in Proposition 3. These estimates immediately give several results on twisted periods.

5.1. A single twist. Our first result on twisted periods, is in the case of a single twist, i.e., suppose $\chi_1 = \chi_2 = \chi$. Since $K_\nu(2t)$ and $K_0(2t)$ have the same asymptotics as $t \rightarrow \infty$ independent of ν , the asymptotics for $I_{\text{Id}}(\Phi)$ are the same as in Section 3. It follows as in just as in Proposition 3 that

$$(46) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^t \sum_{n=1}^\infty K_{ir_n}(t) |P_\chi(\phi_n)|^2 = \frac{\text{len}(C)}{2}.$$

Then we observe that all of the estimates in Section 4 apply as before to yield

Theorem 3. *For any character χ of C ,*

$$\sum_{\lambda_j \leq x} |P_\chi(\phi_n)|^2 \sim \frac{\text{len}(C)}{\pi} \sqrt{x} \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

5.2. Different parity. Now suppose $\chi_1 \neq \chi_2$ such that χ_1 and χ_2 have different parity. Then the main geometric term is on the asymptotic order of $t^{-1/2}$, where as any individual spectral term is on the order of t^{-1} . This implies we must have an infinitude of spectral terms. More precisely we have the following result.

Proposition 10. *If χ_1 and χ_2 have different parity, then for infinitely many ϕ_n the periods $P_{\chi_1}(\phi_n)$ and $P_{\chi_2}(\phi_n)$ are simultaneously nonvanishing.*

We remark that one cannot use the estimates in Section 4 to estimate the growth of the product of these periods because the spectral terms are in general complex.

5.3. Same parity. Finally suppose that χ_1 and χ_2 differ but have the same parity. Then the geometric side is dominated by the exceptional terms. However, in the case that there are no exceptional terms, i.e. C is simple, the geometric side is $O(t^{-3/2})$. Again, we can contrast this with the order of an individual spectral term to show that infinitely many spectral terms are nonvanishing.

Proposition 11. *If C is simple and $\chi_1 \neq \chi_2$ have the same parity, then for infinitely many ϕ_n the periods $P_{\chi_1}(\phi_n)$ and $P_{\chi_2}(\phi_n)$ are simultaneously nonvanishing.*

6. PAIRS OF GEODESICS

Let C_1 and C_2 be distinct closed geodesics on X , which we take to be primitive for simplicity. We may assume $C_1 = \Gamma_1 \backslash i\mathbb{R}^+$ and $C_2 = \Gamma_2 \backslash \tau \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+$ for some $\tau \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$, where, if A denotes the diagonal subgroup of $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$, $\Gamma_1 = \Gamma_0 = A \cap \Gamma$ and $\Gamma_2 = \tau^{-1}A\tau \cap \Gamma$. With the kernel function as before, we now proceed to consider the relative trace formula arising from the integration

$$\int_{C_1} \int_{C_2} K(x, y) dx dy.$$

In this case, for *any* $\gamma \in \Gamma$, the map onto the double coset $\Gamma_2 \times \Gamma_1 \rightarrow \Gamma_2 \gamma \Gamma_1$ given by $(\gamma_2, \gamma_1) \mapsto \gamma_2 \gamma \gamma_1$ is injective, i.e., all double cosets are regular. Hence the geometric side of the trace formula is

$$\sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \int_{C_1} \int_{C_2} \Phi(u(\gamma \cdot x, y)) dx dy = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_2 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_1} I_\gamma^\tau(\Phi),$$

where

$$I_\gamma^\tau(\Phi) = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \Phi(u(\gamma \cdot ix, \tau \cdot iy)) d^\times x d^\times y.$$

Note that

$$I_\gamma^\tau(\Phi) = I_{\tau^{-1}\gamma}(\Phi).$$

On the other hand, the spectral side is evidently

$$\sum h(r_n) P_1(\phi_n) \overline{P_2(\phi_n)},$$

where

$$P_i(\phi) = \int_{C_i} \phi(x) dx$$

for $i = 1, 2$. Then, in the same way we obtained Proposition 1, one obtains

Proposition 12. *(Relative trace formula for pairs of geodesics) For a function Φ of sufficiently rapid decay,*

$$\begin{aligned} (47) \quad & 2 \sum_{\delta=\delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma)<2} \int_2^\infty \frac{\Phi(t-2)}{\sqrt{t^2-\delta^2}} K\left(\sqrt{\frac{t^2-4}{t^2-\delta^2}}\right) dt \\ & + 2 \sum_{\delta=\delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma)>2} \int_\delta^\infty \frac{\Phi(t-2)}{\sqrt{t^2-4}} K\left(\sqrt{\frac{t^2-\delta^2}{t^2-4}}\right) dt \\ & = \sum_{n=0}^\infty h(r_n) P_1(\phi_n) \overline{P_2(\phi_n)}. \end{aligned}$$

It is clear from Section 2.4 that $\delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma) < 2$ if and only if C_1 intersects C_2 , in which case this quantity measures the angle of their intersection θ , specifically $\delta = |2 \cos \theta|$. Otherwise,

$$2 < \delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma) = 2 \cosh(\text{dist}(\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+, \tau \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+)).$$

The quantity $\text{dist}(\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+, \tau \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+)$ may be interpreted on X as the length of a shortest geodesic segment $\bar{\gamma}$ starting on C_1 and ending on C_2 orthogonal to both C_1 and C_2 . Furthermore, all such $\bar{\gamma}$ come from some γ with $\delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma) > 2$. Thus the trace formula (47) expresses the angles of intersection of C_1 and C_2 and the lengths of these orthogonal geodesic connectors $\bar{\gamma}$ in terms of periods of automorphic forms on C_1 and C_2 .

As in Section 3, specializing the above trace formula to the case where $\Phi(x) = e^{-tx}$ yields the following.

Proposition 13. (*Relative trace formula for pairs of geodesics — exponential kernel*)

(48)

$$\sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_2 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_1} e^{2t} K_0\left(\frac{\delta+2}{2}t\right) K_0\left(\frac{\delta-2}{2}t\right) = 2e^{2t} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} K_{ir_n}(2t) P_1(\phi_n) \overline{P_2(\phi_n)},$$

where $\delta = \delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma)$.

If we want an analogue of Proposition 3, we should estimate the number of double coset representatives

$$\pi'_\delta(x) = \{\gamma \in \Gamma_2 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_1 : \delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma) < x\}.$$

We are free to multiply γ on the left by an element in $\Gamma_2 = \tau A \tau^{-1} \cap \Gamma$ and on the right by an element of $\Gamma_1 = \Gamma_0$ in choose a set of representatives. Equivalently, we are allowed multiply $\tau^{-1}\gamma$ on the left and right by elements of Γ_0 . Hence our counting argument to estimate $\pi_\delta(x)$ also applies to $\pi'_\delta(x)$ and the rest of the proof of Proposition 3 goes through to give

Proposition 14. *As $t \rightarrow \infty$, we have the asymptotic*

$$(49) \quad 2e^{2t} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} K_{ir_n}(2t) P_1(\phi_n) \overline{P_2(\phi_n)} = \left(\sum_{\delta < 2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4 - \delta^2}} \right) \frac{\pi}{t} + O\left(\frac{1}{t\sqrt{t}}\right).$$

Note that any single term on the left hand side is on the order of $\frac{1}{t}$. Hence

Corollary 2. *Suppose $C_1 \cap C_2 = \emptyset$. Then $P_1(\phi_n) P_2(\phi_n) \neq 0$ for infinitely many n .*

7. ORTHOLENGTHS

7.1. Coarse bounds. In this section we will consider taking $t \rightarrow 0^+$ in (20). We note that the right hand side of (20) contains $K_{1/2}(2t)$ in the expansion. This term corresponds to the eigenvalue zero, where the associated eigenfunction is a constant. Our surface may also have exceptional eigenvalues $0 < \lambda < \frac{1}{4}$. If this is so, for such an eigenvalue $\lambda = \frac{1}{4} - \epsilon^2$ the right hand side above also contains the term $K_\epsilon(2t)$. Furthermore $\lambda = \frac{1}{4}$ may also be an eigenvalue, in which case $K_0(2t)$ also appears on the right. There is a big difference in asymptotics (for t small) in the K -Bessel functions on the right depending on whether the argument is real or

purely imaginary. (The case $\lambda = \frac{1}{4}$ corresponding to K_0 is in a grey area and has a logarithmic singularity.)

Proposition 15.

$$2e^{2t} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} K_{ir_n}(2t) |P(\phi_n)|^2 \sim \frac{\text{len}(C)^2 \pi \sqrt{2}}{\text{vol}(X)} \frac{1}{t} \text{ as } t \rightarrow 0^+.$$

Proof. We can take care of $\sum_{r_n > 0} K_{ir_n}(2t) |P(\phi_n)|^2$ as one piece. Let us thus consider $K_{ir}(z)$ with $r > 0$ and $z > 0$ and small. After integrating $2K_{ir}(z) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-z \cosh(t)} e^{itr} dt$ by parts once we arrive at

$$(50) \quad \frac{z}{ir} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-z \cosh(t)} \sinh(t) e^{itr} dt.$$

Let $t_0(z)$ be the solution in t of $\cosh(t) = z \sinh^2(t)$. Since z is very small, $1/z$ is very large, and $1/z = \frac{\sinh^2(t_0(z))}{\cosh(t_0(z))} \sim \sinh(t_0(z))$ since $t_0(z)$ must be relatively large. Now, the function $e^{-z \cosh(t)} \sinh(t)$ is strictly increasing from 0 to $t_0(z)$ and strictly decreasing from $t_0(z)$ to ∞ , with odd symmetry about the origin. This means we can kill a lot of area to the right of 0 by the oscillating factor e^{itr} in (50); further the area to the left of 0 dies also, as long as

$$(51) \quad \frac{\pi}{r} < t_0(z).$$

The area that does not cancel is around $\pm t_0(z)$. If we use $z \sinh(t) \sim 1$ for t near $t_0(z)$, we see (50) is bounded by $O(\frac{1}{r^2})$. This analysis depends on whether (51) is true.

For z sufficiently small, $t_0(z) \sim \log(2/z)$, and so (51) becomes approximately $r > \frac{\pi}{\log(2/z)}$. We can take $r < r_i$ where $1/4 + r_i^2$ is the first eigenvalue larger than $1/4$. Then the part of the sum of (20) over such r is bounded by (changing z back to t)

$$O(t^{-1/2}) \cdot \sum_{r_n > 0} r_n^{-2} |P(\phi_n)|^2.$$

We need to show convergence of the series, so we integrate by parts again,

$$2K_{ir}(z) = \frac{z^2}{r^2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-z \cosh(t)} \sinh^2(t) e^{itr} dt - \frac{z}{r^2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-z \cosh(t)} \cosh(t) e^{itr} dt.$$

The same type of oscillatory analysis applied to both terms here (separately) yields

$$O(t^{-1/2}) \cdot \sum_{r_n > 0} r_n^{-3} |P(\phi_n)|^2,$$

which converges by (43).

This leaves only $\lambda = 0$, and possibly exceptional $\lambda = 1/4 - \epsilon^2$, as well as possibly $\lambda = 1/4$. For $t > 0$ very small, $K_0(t) \sim -\log(t/2) - \gamma_0$, while for $\epsilon > 0$ we have $K_{\epsilon}(t) \sim \frac{\Gamma(\epsilon)}{2} (\frac{2}{t})^{\epsilon}$ (cf. [1]; here γ_0 is Euler's constant.) Consequently whatever eigenvalues we have left, the $\lambda = 0$ (i.e., the $K_{1/2}(2t)$) term dominates the asymptotics of the spectral side as $t \rightarrow 0$. \square

Proposition 16. $\pi_{\delta} \left(x e^{-\sqrt{\log x}} \right) = O \left(\frac{x}{\log x} \right)$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. In particular $\pi_{\delta}(x) = O(x^{1+\epsilon})$ for any $\epsilon > 0$.

Proof. It suffices to consider $\delta > 2$. We underestimate the regular geometric terms using

$$(52) \quad \left[K_0 \left(\frac{\delta+2}{2} t \right) \right]^2 \leq K_0 \left(\frac{\delta+2}{2} t \right) K_0 \left(\frac{\delta-2}{2} t \right).$$

Since we are taking $t \rightarrow 0$ the e^{2t} factor does not contribute. As above, we have $K_0 \left(\frac{\delta+2}{2} t \right) \sim -\log \left(\frac{\delta+2}{4} t \right) - \gamma_0$, as long as the product $\frac{\delta+2}{2} t$ is sufficiently small (cf. [1]). If we take $\frac{\delta+2}{2} t$ sufficiently small, by the size of γ_0 compared to $\log 2$ we see we can take

$$(53) \quad K_0 \left(\frac{\delta+2}{2} t \right) \geq -\log \left(\frac{\delta+2}{2} t \right).$$

Let us now sum over *only* those γ for which

$$(54) \quad \delta < \frac{2}{t} e^{-\sqrt{\log(1/t)}} - 2$$

in (20). For such δ , we have $\log \frac{1}{t} \leq [K_0 \left(\frac{\delta+2}{2} t \right)]^2$. Thus we see

$$\sum_{\frac{\delta+2}{2} < \frac{1}{t} e^{-\sqrt{\log(1/t)}}} \log \frac{1}{t} = O \left(\frac{1}{t} \right) \text{ for } t \rightarrow 0^+,$$

where the left hand side comes from an underestimate of the geometric side of (20) and the right hand side comes from Proposition 15.

Setting $x = 1/t$, we get the number of $\frac{\delta+2}{2} < x e^{-\sqrt{\log x}}$ is $O \left(\frac{x}{\log x} \right)$, which gives the above bound. \square

Proposition 17. *For $\epsilon > 0$, $\pi_\delta(x) \gg_\epsilon x^{1-\epsilon}$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.*

Proof. We throw away the finite number of δ in (20) for which $K_0^2 \left(\frac{\delta-2}{2} t \right) < K_0 \left(\frac{\delta+2}{2} t \right) K_0 \left(\frac{\delta-2}{2} t \right)$, as well as the single K_0 term on the far left of (20). By positivity, this gives

$$(55) \quad \sum_{\delta} K_0^2 \left(\frac{\delta-2}{2} t \right) \gg \frac{1}{t} \text{ as } t \rightarrow 0$$

by Proposition 15, where a finite number of δ have been tossed away.

Let $\epsilon, t > 0$ and $p > 1$ all be small. Separate the sum of (55) into a sum over $\frac{\delta-2}{2} > 1/t^p$ and a sum over $\frac{\delta-2}{2} \leq 1/t^p$. By Proposition 16, Consequently, there is a constant $c_\epsilon > 0$ so that $\frac{\delta-2}{2} \geq c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon}$. By the monotone property of K_0 , we have

$$\sum_{\frac{\delta-2}{2} > 1/t^p} K_0^2((\delta/2 - 1)t) \leq \sum_{c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon} > 1/t^p} K_0^2(c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon} t).$$

Now $c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon} > 1/t^{p-1}$, so for sufficiently small t , $1/t^{p-1}$ is large and $K_0^2(c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon} t)$ will be small due to the exponential decay of $K_0(t)$. From the asymptotic (16), one gets

$$\sum_{c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon} > 1/t^p} K_0^2(c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon} t) < O \left(\sum_{n^{1-\epsilon} > \frac{1}{c_\epsilon t^p}} \frac{1}{c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon} t} e^{-2c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon} t} \right).$$

Now $n^{1-\epsilon} > \frac{1}{c_\epsilon t^p}$ implies $t > c_\epsilon^{-1/p} n^{-(1-\epsilon)/p}$, and so the right hand side above is

$$O\left(\sum_{n^{1-\epsilon} > \frac{1}{c_\epsilon t^p}} \frac{1}{c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon} t} e^{-2c_\epsilon^{1-1/p} n^{(1-\epsilon)(1-1/p)}}\right) \leq O\left(\sum_{n^{1-\epsilon} > \frac{1}{c_\epsilon t^p}} \frac{1}{t^{p-1}} e^{-2c_\epsilon^{1-1/p} n^{(1-\epsilon)(1-1/p)}}\right).$$

The last term here uses $\frac{1}{t^{p-1}} \leq c_\epsilon n^{1-\epsilon} t$. The right side above is clearly seen to be $O_{\epsilon,p}(1/t^{p-1})$, as the sum converges but depends on ϵ and p .

We can estimate the remaining terms by

$$\sum_{\frac{\delta-2}{2} \leq 1/t^p} K_0^2(t) \sim (\log(t/2) - \gamma_0)^2 \pi_{\frac{\delta-2}{2}}(1/t^p)$$

using again the asymptotics of $K_0(t)$. Here $\pi_{\frac{\delta-2}{2}}(x)$ means the number of δ such that $\frac{\delta-2}{2} < x$.

Piecing everything together, we have

$$(\log(t/2) - \gamma_0)^2 \pi_{\frac{\delta-2}{2}}(1/t^p) + O_{\epsilon,p}(1/t^{p-1}) \gg \frac{1}{t}.$$

Recall, we have p is barely larger than 1, but the constant depending on ϵ and p could be large. We settle this by writing

$$\pi_{\frac{\delta-2}{2}}(1/t^p) \gg_{\epsilon,p} \frac{1}{t \log^2(t)} \implies \pi_{\frac{\delta-2}{2}}(1/t) \gg_{\epsilon,p} \frac{1}{t^{1/p} \log^2(t)}.$$

Setting $1/p = 1 - \epsilon$ and $x = 1/t$ proves that $\pi_{\frac{\delta-2}{2}}(x) \gg_\epsilon \frac{x^{1-\epsilon}}{\log^2(x)}$. It is easy to see that the same asymptotic lower bound also holds for $\pi_\delta(x)$, and we may absorb the $\log^2(x)$ into ϵ . \square

7.2. An asymptotic. Let C_1, C_2, τ, Γ_1 and Γ_2 be as in Section 6. We present a special case of a result of Good, which is also valid for Γ discrete, cofinite. One reason [6] is difficult to understand is that, apart from being dense, the notation is quite cumbersome, which is at least partially due to the fact that he is trying to treat many cases in a uniform way. (Though even restricted to the case of smooth compact Riemann surfaces, the formulas in [6] seem more complicated than ours; a simple example is the distinction between γ and γ^{-1} mentioned below.)

We will explain some of the quantities he considers there in our context, using a simplified version of his notation. For a hyperbolic $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, let $\Lambda^\ell(\gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left| \frac{ab}{cd} \right|$ and $\Lambda^r(\gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left| \frac{ac}{bd} \right|$ (these are denoted by $\xi \Lambda_X^\ell$ and $\xi \Lambda_X^r$ in [6]).

For $\gamma \in \Gamma_1 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_2$ which is regular and non-exceptional ($\delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma) > 2$), let us write

$$N = \begin{pmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\Lambda^\ell(\gamma)} & \\ & e^{\frac{1}{2}\Lambda^\ell(\gamma)} \end{pmatrix} \gamma \begin{pmatrix} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\Lambda^r(\gamma)} & \\ & e^{\frac{1}{2}\Lambda^r(\gamma)} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We define $\nu(\gamma) = |b'| + |d'|$ (cf. [6, Lemma1]). We see that $b' = b|c/b|^{1/2}$ and $d' = d|a/d|^{1/2}$ so $\nu(\gamma) = |ad|^{1/2} + |bc|^{1/2}$.

Define a generalized Kloosterman sum (denoted $\delta_\xi S_X^{\delta'}(m, n, \nu)$ in [6]) by

$$S_\Gamma(m, n, \nu) = \sum e \left(\frac{m}{\text{len}(C_1)} \log \left| \frac{ab}{cd} \right|^{1/2} + \frac{n}{\text{len}(C_2)} \log \left| \frac{ac}{bd} \right|^{1/2} \right)$$

where $e(x) = e^{2\pi ix}$ and the sum runs over $\gamma \in \Gamma_1 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_2$ such that $\nu(\gamma) = \nu$. For $\nu > 1$, this is (up to a bounded number of terms) $\sum_{\delta, \delta' \in \{0,1\}} \delta S_{\chi}^{\delta'}(m, n, \nu)$ in Good's notation.

Theorem 4. ([6, Theorem 4]) *As $x \rightarrow \infty$,*

$$\frac{1}{\text{len}(C_1)\text{len}(C_2)} \sum_{\nu \leq x} S_{\Gamma}(m, n, \nu) \sim \frac{\delta_{0,m}\delta_{0,n}}{\pi \text{vol}(X)} x^2 + O(x^s),$$

where $\delta_{0,m} = 1$ if $m = 0$ and 0 else, and s is the maximum of $\frac{4}{3}$ and $1 + 2ir_n$ for $0 < \lambda_n < \frac{1}{4}$.

If in fact there are exceptional eigenvalues ($0 < \lambda_n < \frac{1}{4}$), they each give rise to highest order terms than the $O(x^{4/3})$, and Good determines what these terms are.

We set $\pi_{\delta}(x) = \#\{\gamma \in \mathcal{O}(X; C_1, C_2) : \delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma) < x\}$, i.e., $\pi_{\delta}(x)$ is the number of curves α_{γ} in the orthogonal spectrum such that $\delta(\gamma) = 2 \cosh(\text{len}(\alpha_{\gamma})) < x$.

Corollary 3. *When $C_1 = C_2$, we have*

$$\pi_{\delta}(x) \sim \frac{\text{len}(C)^2}{\pi \text{vol}(X)} x.$$

If $C_1 \neq C_2$, we have the asymptotic bound

$$\frac{1}{\delta(\tau)} \frac{\text{len}(C_1)\text{len}(C_2)}{\pi \text{vol}(X)} x \ll \pi_{\delta}(x) \ll \delta(\tau) \frac{\text{len}(C_1)\text{len}(C_2)}{\pi \text{vol}(X)} x.$$

This corollary is actually contained in Good's Corollary to Theorem 4, where he asserts something stronger, though he does not interpret his result in terms of ortholengths.

Proof. Applying the theorem with $m = n = 0$ gives

$$\#\{\gamma \in \Gamma_1 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_2 : \nu(\gamma) < x\} \sim \frac{\text{len}(C_1)\text{len}(C_2)}{\pi \text{vol}(X)} x^2 + O(x^s),$$

for some $s < 2$. We note that $\nu(\gamma) = \frac{\sqrt{\delta(\gamma)+2} + \sqrt{\delta(\gamma)-2}}{2}$, so $\delta(\gamma) \sim \nu(\gamma)^2$. It easily follows that

$$\#\{\gamma \in \Gamma_1 \backslash \Gamma / \Gamma_2 : \delta(\gamma) < x\} \sim \frac{\text{len}(C_1)\text{len}(C_2)}{\pi \text{vol}(X)} x,$$

which is the first statement.

We would like to conclude the same result for $\delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma)$, but we only know how to bound $\delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma)$ in terms of $\delta(\tau)$ and $\delta(\gamma)$. Precisely, the triangle inequality

$$\text{dist}(\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+, \tau \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+) \leq \text{dist}(\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+, i\mathbb{R}^+) + \text{dist}(\tau \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+, i\mathbb{R}^+)$$

implies $e^{\text{dist}(\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+, \tau \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+)} \leq e^{\text{dist}(\gamma \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+, i\mathbb{R}^+)} e^{\text{dist}(\tau \cdot i\mathbb{R}^+, i\mathbb{R}^+)}$. Since $e^x \leq 2 \cosh(x) \leq e^x - 1$, this yields

$$\delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma) \leq \delta(\tau)\delta(\gamma) - 1.$$

Similarly

$$\delta(\gamma) = \delta(\tau(\tau^{-1}\gamma)) \leq \delta(\tau^{-1})\delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma) - 1 = \delta(\tau)\delta(\tau^{-1}\gamma) - 1.$$

The bounds in the second statement now follow. \square

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