

On the Numerical Computation of Modular Forms

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List of Publications

This thesis is based on the following papers:

- D.B., Hartmut Monien and Danylo Radchenko,
On the computation of modular forms on noncongruence subgroups,
arXiv:2207.13365 [math.NT] (electronic preprint)
- D.B., Hartmut Monien and Danylo Radchenko,
A Database of Modular Forms on Noncongruence Subgroups,
arXiv:2301.02135 [math.NT] (electronic preprint)

Especially, parts of chapters 2, 3, 4, 5 and 7 have been used (up to minor improvements and corrections) in the above mentioned papers. The mentioned parts have been written by the author of this thesis.

Further papers co-authored by the author of the present thesis are:

- D.B., Bogdan Georgiev, Hartmut Monien and Danylo Radchenko,
On Dirichlet eigenvalues of regular polygons,
arXiv:2103.01057 [math.NT] (electronic preprint)
- D.B., Robert Stephen Jones, Hartmut Monien and Danylo Radchenko,
Computation of Laplacian eigenvalues of two-dimensional shapes with dihedral symmetry,
arXiv:2210.13229 [math.NA] (electronic preprint)

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Introduction

The deep connection between symmetries and the fundamental laws of our universe has been a subject of fascination for centuries. The topic of this thesis are modular symmetries, which arise in many areas of physics such as conformal field theories [1], string theory [2] and black hole theory [3]. Modular symmetries give rise to a special class of analytic functions called modular forms, which have been studied since the 19th century because of their connection and application in various branches of mathematics. Modular forms appear everywhere, even for the pendulum (see fig. 1.1), which is arguably one of the most classical examples of physics.

To elaborate on this surprising relationship, recall that the mathematical pendulum satisfies conservation of angular momentum

$$ml^2\ddot{\theta} + mlg \sin(\theta) = 0, \quad (1.1)$$

where $g \approx 9.81\text{m s}^{-2}$ is the gravitational constant. To model the motion of the pendulum, we must therefore solve the second-order differential equation

$$\ddot{\theta} + \Omega^2 \sin(\theta) = 0, \quad (1.2)$$

where $\Omega^2 = g/l$, with initial conditions $\theta(t_0) = \theta_0$ and $\dot{\theta}(t_0) = 0$. An exact solution for this has been derived by BPMBN [4], so we will briefly sketch its derivation. First, note that $d/dt \dot{\theta}^2 = 2\dot{\theta}\ddot{\theta}$ and

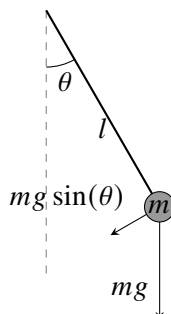


Figure 1.1: The mathematical pendulum of weight m and length l .

$d/dt \cos(\theta) = -\dot{\theta} \sin(\theta)$. By multiplying eq. (1.2) with $\dot{\theta}$, we thus obtain

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\dot{\theta}^2 - 2\Omega^2 \cos(\theta) \right) = 0. \quad (1.3)$$

This quantity is therefore a constant, which we can determine by substituting the initial conditions, from which we obtain

$$\dot{\theta}^2 = 2\Omega^2 (\cos(\theta) - \cos(\theta_0)). \quad (1.4)$$

Using the identity $\cos(\theta) = 1 - 2 \sin(\theta/2)^2$ we get

$$\dot{\theta}^2 = 4\Omega^2 \left(\sin\left(\frac{\theta_0}{2}\right)^2 - \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)^2 \right). \quad (1.5)$$

Defining $y := \sin(\theta/2)$ and $k := \sin(\theta_0/2)^2$ we compute

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dy}{d\theta} \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d\theta}{dt} \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right), \quad (1.6)$$

from which follows that

$$\dot{\theta}^2 = \frac{4}{1-y^2} \dot{y}^2. \quad (1.7)$$

Plugging in eq. (1.5), we get

$$\dot{y}^2 = \Omega^2 k (1-y^2) \left(1 - \frac{y^2}{k} \right). \quad (1.8)$$

Introducing $\tau := \Omega t$ and $z := y/\sqrt{k}$ we obtain

$$\left(\frac{dz}{d\tau} \right)^2 = (1-z^2)(1-kz^2), \quad (1.9)$$

where $0 < k < 1$, with initial conditions $z(\tau_0) = 1$ and $(dz/d\tau)(\tau_0) = 0$. So we get

$$d\tau = \pm \frac{dz}{\sqrt{(1-z^2)(1-kz^2)}}, \quad (1.10)$$

from which it is clear that the solution must contain elliptic integrals. Indeed, as shown by BPMBN [4], we get that

$$\theta(t) = 2 \arcsin \left\{ \sin\left(\frac{\theta_0}{2}\right) \operatorname{sn} \left[K \left(\sin\left(\frac{\theta_0}{2}\right)^2 \right) - \Omega t, \sin\left(\frac{\theta_0}{2}\right)^2 \right] \right\}, \quad (1.11)$$

where

$$K(m) = \int_0^1 \frac{dz}{\sqrt{(1-z^2)(1-mz^2)}}, \quad (1.12)$$

is the complete elliptic integral of the first kind. $\operatorname{sn}(u, m)$ is the elliptic sine, which can be written as a

quotient of Jacobi theta functions [5, 22.2.E4]

$$\operatorname{sn}(u, m) = \frac{\theta_3(0, q) \theta_1(\zeta, q)}{\theta_2(0, q) \theta_4(\zeta, q)}, \quad (1.13)$$

where $\zeta = \pi u / (2K(m))$ [5, 22.2.3] and $q = \exp(-\pi K'(m)/K(m))$ [5, 22.2.1]. Note that K' is Legendre's complementary complete elliptic integral [5, 19.2.8_1]. The Jacobi theta functions θ_i depend on the theta function [6, 2.3.2]

$$\theta(z, \tau) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(\pi i n^2 \tau + 2\pi i n z), \quad (1.14)$$

which satisfies $\theta(z, \tau + 2) = \theta(z, \tau)$ and $\theta(z, -1/\tau) = \exp(\pi i z^2 \tau) \sqrt{\tau/i} \theta(z\tau, \tau)$ and is therefore modular in τ [6, Prop. 2.3.2]. We have thus shown that modular forms appear in the expressions that model the pendulum. By a similar argument, many other examples in classical mechanics are related to modular forms, such as the top [7, 2.3]. We refer to Brizard [7] for an overview.

The main goal of this thesis is to improve existing algorithms for the numerical computation of modular forms. We focus mainly on noncongruence modular forms, for which, in general, no feasible alternatives to numerical computations are known. The study of noncongruence modular forms was initiated by the work of Atkin and Swinnerton-Dyer [8] and has recently received wide attention after the proof of the unbounded denominator conjecture by Calegari, Dimitrov, and Tang [9]. Noncongruence modular forms also appear in physics, as shown in the work of Magureanu [10].

This thesis is organized as follows: In chapter 2 we introduce the necessary background and notation. In chapter 3 we describe a numerical method due to Hejhal [11] that can be used to compute noncongruence modular forms for arbitrary genera. Building on this, we extend the improvements of [12] in chapter 4 and show how the performance of Hejhal's method can be significantly improved, allowing the computation of examples that were previously inaccessible. Our main idea is based on the observation that the linear system of equations involved in Hejhal's method can be solved using cheap low-precision arithmetic, which can then be used as a preconditioner, making iterative solving methods converge quickly. We also discuss how the action of the matrices involved can be optimized using fast Fourier transforms and optimized dot product algorithms. In chapter 5 we use well-known and highly efficient Newton methods to compute genus zero Belyi maps [12–15], which rely on numerical estimates provided by the method of chapter 4 as initial values. We also discuss how full bases of modular forms can be constructed from the Belyi map, providing a rigorous and efficient alternative to Hejhal's method for the case of genus zero subgroups. In chapter 6 we show how the results of chapters 4 & 5 can be used to compute noncongruence Eisenstein series. We use recently developed algorithms for computing Petersson inner products [16] to construct the orthogonal complement of cusp forms in the space of modular forms, and demonstrate that this provides a very efficient approach to computing Eisenstein spaces. We apply this method to compute the first example (to our knowledge) of a non-trivial noncongruence Eisenstein series. Interestingly however, the vast majority of noncongruence Eisenstein series that we have computed seem to be non-algebraic. In chapter 7 we apply the algorithms developed in this thesis to create a database of modular forms on noncongruence subgroups, which we plan to add to the LMFDB [17] soon. We hope that this large number of examples will help to gain a deeper understanding of noncongruence modular forms. Other numerical computations of modular forms are briefly discussed in chapter 8: In section 8.1

we first focus on the numerical computation of Maass cusp forms on Hecke triangle groups G_n . Our motivation comes from recent numerical evidence that the eigenvalues of Maass cusp forms on Hecke triangle groups can be expanded as a series in $1/n$ [18]. Expansions of this form have previously been studied for Laplace eigenvalues of regular polygons [19–23]. We investigate an application of a method due to Betcke and Trefethen [24] to locate eigenvalues of Maass cusp forms and discuss the potential advantages and challenges of this approach compared to previous methods. In section 8.2 we show that the iterative methods for computing modular forms that have been developed in this work can be used to compute approximations of traces of real singular moduli to very high precision. Our numerical data indicates that these are non-algebraic. We conclude this thesis by highlighting areas for further research in chapter 9.

Background on Modular Forms

This chapter gives an introduction to modular forms and recalls some results and notations that are needed for this work. Parts of this chapter were also used in the paper [25, Section 2].

Many excellent books have been written on the topic of modular forms (see for example [6, 26–28] to name a few). In this chapter, we will mostly follow the most recent one by Cohen and Strömberg [6]. Modular forms are complex analytic functions defined on the upper half plane

$$\mathcal{H} := \{\tau \in \mathbb{C} \mid \text{Im}(\tau) > 0\}. \quad (2.1)$$

Let $\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{Z})$ be the group of all integer 2×2 matrices with determinant 1. Let

$$\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{Z}). \quad (2.2)$$

Then γ acts on \mathcal{H} via Möbius transformations

$$\gamma(\tau) := \frac{a\tau + b}{c\tau + d}. \quad (2.3)$$

Note that

$$\text{Im}(\gamma(\tau)) = \frac{\text{Im}(\tau)}{|c\tau + d|^2} > 0, \quad (2.4)$$

which means that the elements $\gamma(\tau)$ are also on the upper half plane. It is also immediately obvious that γ and $-\gamma$ lead to the same action. It is therefore often more natural to work with the projective group

$$\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z}) \simeq \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{Z}) / \{\pm 1\}. \quad (2.5)$$

In the following we will denote $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z})$ by Γ and refer to it as the modular group.

Definition 2.0.1 (Modular Form). Let $f(\tau)$ be a holomorphic function from \mathcal{H} to \mathbb{C} . Let $G \leq \Gamma$ be a finite index subgroup of Γ . Then we say that $f(\tau)$ is a modular form on G if it satisfies the functional equation

$$f(\gamma(\tau)) = (c\tau + d)^k f(\tau), \quad (2.6)$$

for all $\gamma \in G$.

We refer to $k \in 2\mathbb{N}$ as the weight of $f(\tau)$ and to $(c\tau + d)^k$ as the automorphy factor. (More general definitions of modular forms including odd weights and multiplier systems exist but we will not consider them in this work.) Furthermore, we say that a modular form f is [6, p.5]:

1. *weakly holomorphic* if f is holomorphic in \mathcal{H} but may have poles on the boundary $\partial\mathcal{H} := \mathbb{Q} \cup \{i\infty\}$.
2. *holomorphic* if f is holomorphic in $\overline{\mathcal{H}} := \mathcal{H} \cup \partial\mathcal{H}$.
3. a *cusp form* if f vanishes at $\partial\mathcal{H}$.

In addition, weakly holomorphic modular forms of weight zero are often called *modular functions*. It is also useful to introduce the *slash operator* [6, Definition 5.1.2]

$$(f|_k\gamma)(\tau) := (c\tau + d)^{-k} f(\gamma(\tau)), \quad (2.7)$$

which defines a right action of Γ on the space of functions

$$f|_k\gamma_1|_k\gamma_2 = f|_k\gamma_1\gamma_2. \quad (2.8)$$

2.1 Fundamental Domains

We define a fundamental domain of a group $G \leq \Gamma$ as follows:

Definition 2.1.1 (Fundamental Domain [6, Definition 4.3.1]). A closed set $\mathcal{F}(G) \subset \overline{\mathcal{H}}$ is called a *fundamental domain* if

1. For every point $\tau \in \overline{\mathcal{H}}$ there is a $\gamma \in G$ such that $\gamma(\tau) \in \mathcal{F}(G)$.
2. If for any points τ and $\tau' := \gamma(\tau)$ we have $\tau \neq \tau'$ then $\tau, \tau' \in \partial\mathcal{F}(G)$.

Note that Γ can be generated by the elements

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.9)$$

The matrix S therefore corresponds to the action $\tau \rightarrow -1/\tau$, which can be seen as an inversion, while T corresponds to the action $\tau \rightarrow \tau + 1$, a translation. We also have the relations

$$S^2 = \mathbb{1} \quad \text{and} \quad (ST)^3 = \mathbb{1}. \quad (2.10)$$

A fundamental domain for the modular group is therefore given by the set

$$\mathcal{F}(\Gamma) = \{\tau \in \overline{\mathcal{H}}, |\tau| \geq 1 \text{ and } |\operatorname{Re}(\tau)| \leq 1/2\} \cup \{i\infty\}. \quad (2.11)$$

The fundamental domain $\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)$ has three points that play a special role:

1. $i\infty$: a *cusp*
2. i : an *elliptic point of order 2* which has a non-trivial stabilizer S with $S^2 = \mathbb{1}$;

3. $\rho = \exp(2\pi i/3)$: an *elliptic point of order 3* which has a non-trivial stabilizer ST with $(ST)^3 = \mathbb{1}$ (alternatively we could also choose the point $-\bar{\rho} = \exp(\pi i/3)$).

Furthermore, since $\gamma(i\infty) = a/c$, we can see that the cusps are located at $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{Q}) = \{i\infty\} \cup \mathbb{Q}$. For a finite index subgroup $G \leq \Gamma$ of index μ , a fundamental domain for $G \backslash \mathcal{H}$ is given by

$$\mathcal{F}(G) = \cup_{i=1}^{\mu} \gamma_i \mathcal{F}(\Gamma), \quad (2.12)$$

where γ_i are right coset representatives of $G \backslash \Gamma$. The suitably defined quotient $G \backslash \overline{\mathcal{H}}$ (see, e.g., [6, Theorem 4.4.3]) is a Riemann surface whose genus can be computed by using the formula [6, Proposition 5.6.17]

$$g = 1 + \frac{\mu}{12} - \frac{n(e_2)}{4} - \frac{n(e_3)}{3} - \frac{n(c)}{2}, \quad (2.13)$$

where $n(e_2), n(e_3)$ denote the number of inequivalent elliptic points of order two and three, respectively, and $n(c)$ denotes the number of cusp representatives.

Definition 2.1.2 (Signature). We define the *signature* of $G \leq \Gamma$ to be the tuple $(\mu, g, n(c), n(e_2), n(e_3))$. (Note that a signature does not uniquely specify G .)

We call the maps $A_j \in \text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z})$, which map $i\infty$ to the cusp p_j on the real line

$$A_j(i\infty) = p_j, \quad (2.14)$$

and satisfy

$$A_j^{-1} S_j = T^N, \quad (2.15)$$

the *cusp normalizers*, where S_j is the generator of the stabilizer of p_j (we use the notation of Strömberg [29], some authors use the reverse notation) and N denotes the cusp width at infinity.

Example 2.1.1 ($\Gamma_0(5)$). Consider the group $\Gamma_0(5)$ (defined as in eq. (2.21)) with signature $(6, 0, 2, 2, 0)$. A set of right coset representatives can be chosen to be

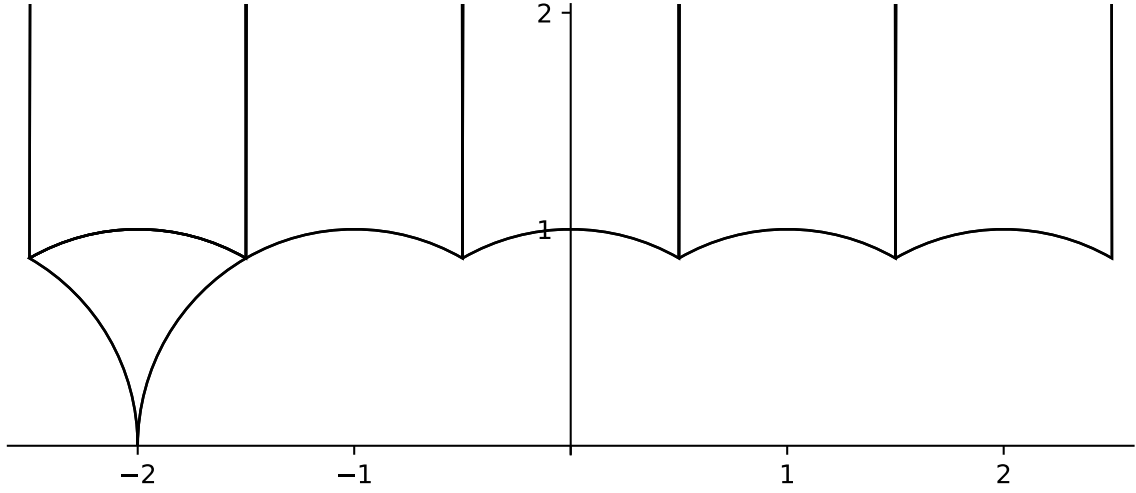
$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \quad (2.16)$$

which can be expressed as words in S and T by

$$\{ \mathbb{1}, T, T^2, T^{-1}, T^{-2}, T^{-2}S \}. \quad (2.17)$$

A fundamental domain can therefore be chosen as shown in fig. 2.1. We can see that this group has two cusps: One of width 5 at $i\infty$ and one of width 1 at -2 . The cusp normalizer for the cusp at -2 is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.18)$$


 Figure 2.1: A fundamental domain for $\Gamma_0(5)$.

2.2 Subgroups of the Modular Group

2.2.1 Congruence Subgroups

Let N be a positive integer. Then we call

$$\Gamma(N) := \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{N} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma \right\}, \quad (2.19)$$

the *principal congruence subgroup of level N* . The index of $\Gamma(N)$ is given by [6, Corollary 6.2.13]

$$[\Gamma : \Gamma(N)] = \frac{1}{2} N^3 \prod_{p|N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2} \right), \quad (2.20)$$

and is therefore finite.

Definition 2.2.1 (Congruence Subgroup). A subgroup $G \leq \Gamma$ is a *congruence subgroup* of level N if and only if it contains $\Gamma(N)$ for some $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ (i.e., if $\Gamma(N) \leq G$).

Important congruence subgroups are

$$\Gamma_0(N) := \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix} \pmod{N} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma \right\}, \quad (2.21)$$

and

$$\Gamma_1(N) := \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & * \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{N} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma \right\}, \quad (2.22)$$

that satisfy

$$\Gamma(N) \leq \Gamma_1(N) \leq \Gamma_0(N) \leq \Gamma. \quad (2.23)$$

Subgroups that are not congruence are called *noncongruence subgroups*. It has been proved by Stothers [30] that noncongruence subgroups are much more numerous than congruence subgroups (in the sense that the proportion of the latter among all subgroups of index n goes to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$). An algorithm to test whether a given group G is congruence or not has been given by Hsu [31].

2.2.2 Subgroups and Permutations

A useful tool for studying subgroups $G \leq \Gamma$ is the interpretation of the action of G on the cosets of $G \setminus \Gamma$ as an action of the permutation group S_μ . This theory was developed by Millington [32] and its usefulness in performing computations on subgroups of Γ was first demonstrated by Atkin-Swinnerton-Dyer [8].

Definition 2.2.2 (Legitimate Pair). A pair (σ_S, σ_R) with $\sigma_S, \sigma_R \in S_\mu$ is *legitimate* if $\sigma_S^2 = \sigma_R^3 = \mathbb{1}$ and if the group Σ that is generated by σ_S and σ_R is transitive [32].

Definition 2.2.3 (Equivalence Modulo 1). Two legitimate pairs (σ_S, σ_R) and (σ'_S, σ'_R) are said to be *equivalent (modulo 1)* if there exists a $\sigma \in S_\mu$ such that $(\sigma^{-1}\sigma'_S\sigma, \sigma^{-1}\sigma'_R\sigma) = (\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ and $\sigma(1) = 1$ (i.e., that σ fixes 1) [32].

Theorem 2.2.1 (Millington). There is a one-to-one correspondence between subgroups G of index μ in Γ and equivalence classes modulo 1 of legitimate pairs (σ_S, σ_R) . Furthermore, $n(e_2)$ and $n(e_3)$ are given by the number of fixed elements of σ_S and σ_R , respectively, and $n(c)$ corresponds to the number of elements that are fixed by $\sigma_T = \sigma_S\sigma_R$. In addition, the cycle structure of σ_T reflects the cusp widths of G .

Proof. See [32, Theorem 2]. □

Millington's theorem thus gives rise to a map

$$\phi : \Gamma \rightarrow S_\mu, \quad (2.24)$$

which satisfies

$$\phi(x \cdot y) = \phi(x) \cdot \phi(y), \quad (2.25)$$

and is therefore a homomorphism. Note that the set of coset representatives $\gamma_i, i = 1, \dots, \mu$ of G satisfies $\phi(\gamma_i)(1) = i$ (see [29] for more details).

Millington's theorem also provides a method for listing all subgroups of a given index by filtering legitimate pairs into equivalence classes modulo 1. This algorithm has been used by Strömberg [29] to compute representatives of all subgroups in Γ with $\mu \leq 17$ up to relabeling (or in other words, conjugation in Γ). Strömberg has released this data in [33].

Example 2.2.1 ($\Gamma_0(5)$ using Millington's theorem). Let us reconsider Example 2.1.1, this time by using Millington's theorem. As a legitimate pair for $\Gamma_0(5)$ we can choose $\sigma_S = (1)(2)(34)(56)$ and $\sigma_R = (123)(456)$ (this corresponds to the first subgroup of signature $(6, 0, 2, 2, 0)$ in Strömberg's database [29]). From this we get that $\sigma_T = \sigma_S\sigma_R = (12354)(6)$. We can therefore label each coset as highlighted in fig. 2.2. In addition, we can see from the signature and from σ_R that $\Gamma_0(5)$ has no elliptic points of order three. The two elliptic points of order two are located at $\gamma_1(i)$ and $\gamma_2(i)$ where γ_j is the coset representative of label j , since 1 and 2 are fixed by σ_S .

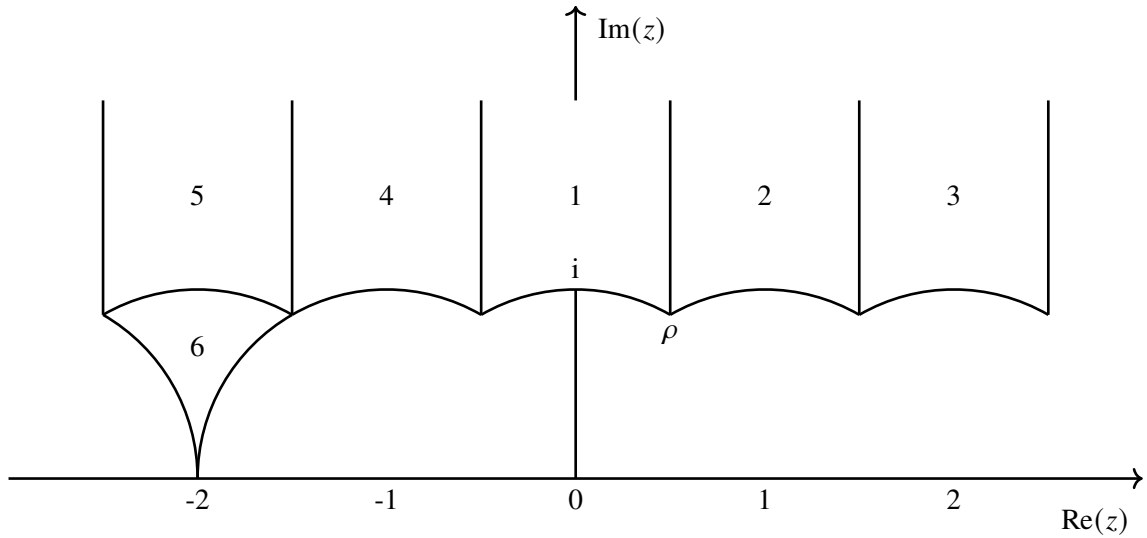


Figure 2.2: A fundamental domain for $\Gamma_0(5)$ corresponding to the legitimate pair $\sigma_S = (1)(2)(3\ 4)(5\ 6)$ and $\sigma_R = (1\ 2\ 3)(4\ 5\ 6)$. This figure has been taken from [25].

2.3 Fourier Expansions of Modular Forms

We have seen in the previous sections that modular forms are functions on the upper half plane that satisfy certain functional equations. We also saw that the cusp widths are always finite and that the modular forms are periodic with respect to these cusp widths. Modular forms can therefore be expanded as Fourier series in the variable

$$q_N := \exp(2\pi i \tau / N) = \exp(2\pi i (x + iy) / N) = \exp(2\pi i x / N) \exp(-2\pi y / N), \quad (2.26)$$

where N is the cusp width and $\tau = x + iy \in \mathcal{H}$ (we will also often use the convention $q := q_1$). It is important to note that q_N decays exponentially as $y \rightarrow \infty$. If f is a modular form and the cusp width at $i\infty$ is given by N , then we can write

$$f(\tau) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n q_N^n, \quad (2.27)$$

with $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$. For congruence subgroups, it is known that there exist bases of modular forms whose Fourier coefficients are defined over \mathbb{Q} or cyclotomic fields.

Example 2.3.1 (Discriminant Modular Form). An example of a Fourier expansion of a modular form on the modular group Γ (which is obviously congruence) is the cusp form of weight 12 that is also called the *discriminant modular form* $\Delta(\tau)$ or *Ramanujan tau function*. Its Fourier expansion is given by [6, Corollary 5.8.2]

$$\Delta(\tau) = q \prod_{n \geq 1} (1 - q^n)^{24} = q - 24q^2 + 252q^3 - 1472q^4 + 4830q^5 - 6048q^6 + \dots, \quad (2.28)$$

and its coefficients can thus be defined over \mathbb{Z} .

Modular forms on congruence subgroups are well known and have been studied extensively. Their Fourier coefficients can be computed using fast and explicit methods, see for example the book by Stein [34], and computer algebra systems such as SAGE [35] and PARI [36] offer implementations of these algorithms. We also note that LMDFB [17] hosts large amounts of Fourier coefficients of congruence modular forms.

For noncongruence subgroups the Fourier coefficients are defined over $\bar{\mathbb{Q}}$ and have the form (see for example Atkin-Swinnerton-Dyer [8])

$$a_n = u^m b_n, \tag{2.29}$$

where b_n and u^N are defined over a number field K which is generated over \mathbb{Q} by an algebraic number v (i.e., $K = \mathbb{Q}(v)$).

Definition 2.3.1 (Valuation of a modular form). We define the valuation of a modular form as the index of the first Fourier coefficient that is nonzero.

Remark 2.3.1. By using the valuation of a modular form, many properties immediately follow from its q_N expansion. For example, a modular form can only be holomorphic if its Fourier expansion starts at $n \geq 0$, because negative values of n would lead to poles at $i\infty$ due to the decay of q_N . By the same argument, cusp forms must have Fourier expansions starting at $n > 0$.

Theorem 2.3.2 (Coefficient Growth of Cusp forms). Let f be a cusp form of weight k . Then the Fourier coefficients of f grow like $\mathcal{O}(n^{k/2})$.

Proof. First proved by Hecke, but see for example Serre [37, Theorem 5]. □

Theorem 2.3.3 (Coefficient Growth of Holomorphic Modular Forms). Let f be a holomorphic modular form of weight k . Then the Fourier coefficients of f grow like $\mathcal{O}(n^{k-1})$.

Proof. See Serre [37, p. 94]. □

2.4 Eisenstein Series

Let A_j be the cusp normalizer of cusp p_j . For $k > 2$, we call the series

$$E_{k,p_j}(\tau) := \sum_{\gamma \in G_{p_j} \backslash G} j(A_{p_j}^{-1} \gamma, \tau)^{-k}, \tag{2.30}$$

where G_{p_j} is the stabilizer of the cusp p_j and $j(\gamma, \tau) = c\tau + d$, for all c, d that are elements of the bottom row of γ , the (holomorphic) Eisenstein series on G . Note that E_k is a modular form of weight k . Eisenstein series also admit a Fourier expansion. For example for the Eisenstein series on Γ we get the Fourier expansions [6, Proposition 5.2.7]

$$E_k(\tau) = 1 - \frac{2k}{B_k} \sum_{n \geq 1} \sigma_{k-1}(n) q^n, \tag{2.31}$$

where B_k denotes the Bernoulli numbers and $\sigma_k(n)$ is the divisor sum function.

2.5 Spaces of Modular Forms

We denote the space of holomorphic modular forms of (even) weight k on G by $M_k(G)$ and similarly define $S_k(G)$ as the space of cusp forms and $E_k(G)$ as the space of Eisenstein series. The dimensions of these spaces can be computed from their signatures [6, Theorem 5.6.18]

$$\dim(M_k(G)) = (k-1)(g-1) + \left\lfloor \frac{k}{4} \right\rfloor n(e_2) + \left\lfloor \frac{k}{3} \right\rfloor n(e_3) + \left\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \right\rfloor n(c), \quad (2.32)$$

$$\dim(S_k(G)) = \dim(M_k(G)) - n(c) + \delta_{k,2}, \quad (2.33)$$

$$\dim(E_k(G)) = \dim(M_k(G)) - \dim(S_k(G)). \quad (2.34)$$

Definition 2.5.1 (Victor Miller Normalization). Let $d = \dim(M_k(G))$ and let $f_i \in M_k(G)$ for $i = 0, 1, \dots, d-1$ form a basis of $M_k(G)$ at infinity. Then we say that f_i are in a *Victor Miller normalization* if $a_n(f_i) = \delta_{n,i}$ where $a_n(f_i)$ denotes the n -th Fourier coefficient of f_i and $n = 0, 1, \dots, d-1$. Analogously for cusp forms, if $d = \dim(S_k(G))$ and $f_i \in S_k(G)$ for $i = 0, 1, \dots, d-1$ form a basis, then f_i are in a Victor Miller normalization if $a_n(f_i) = \delta_{n,i+1}$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots, d$. For reference, see [34, Lemma 2.19] although we extend the definition from coefficients over \mathbb{Z} to general algebraic numbers.

Example 2.5.1. Consider the case $G = \Gamma_0(3)$ with signature $(4, 0, 2, 0, 1)$. Then $\dim(M_{10}(\Gamma_0(3))) = 4$ and

$$\begin{aligned} f_0 &= 1 + 3960q^4 + 28512q^5 + 11880q^6 + \dots \\ f_1 &= q - 269q^4 - 4374q^5 - 13122q^6 + \dots \\ f_2 &= q^2 - 63q^4 - 328q^5 - 1701q^6 + \dots \\ f_3 &= q^3 + 15q^4 + 108q^5 + 558q^6 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

denotes the basis for $M_{10}(\Gamma_0(3))$ in Victor Miller form. Similarly, for the case $S_{10}(\Gamma_0(3))$ which has $\dim(S_{10}(\Gamma_0(3))) = 2$,

$$\begin{aligned} f_0 &= q + 27q^3 + 136q^4 - 1458q^5 + 1944q^6 + \dots \\ f_1 &= q^2 + 3q^3 - 18q^4 - 4q^5 - 27q^6 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

is the basis for $S_{10}(\Gamma_0(3))$ in Victor Miller form.

2.6 The Petersson Product

The covolume of the fundamental domain of the modular group is given by [6, Proposition 4.5.2]

$$\text{covol}(\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)) = \int_{\Gamma \backslash \mathcal{H}} d\tau = \int \int_{\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)} \frac{dx dy}{y^2} = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} \int_{\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\infty} \frac{dy}{y^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{3}, \quad (2.35)$$

from which follows that for a subgroup G of index $[\Gamma : G]$ we have

$$\text{covol}(\mathcal{F}(G)) = [\Gamma : G] \cdot \frac{\pi}{3}. \quad (2.36)$$

For two modular forms $f, g \in M_k(G)$, we define the *Petersson scalar product* by [6, Definition 8.1.1]

$$\langle f, g \rangle_G := \frac{1}{[\Gamma : G]} \int_{G \backslash \mathcal{H}} f(\tau) \overline{g(\tau)} y^k d\tau. \quad (2.37)$$

It is immediately apparent that the Petersson product only converges if at least one of f and g is a cusp form. Note also that

$$\langle g, f \rangle_G = \overline{\langle f, g \rangle_G}. \quad (2.38)$$

Theorem 2.6.1 (Orthogonal Spaces of Petersson Products). $S_k(G)$ and $E_k(G)$ are orthogonal complements with respect to the Petersson scalar product. Furthermore, the space of holomorphic modular forms can be decomposed by an orthogonal direct sum into

$$M_k(G) = E_k(G) \oplus S_k(G). \quad (2.39)$$

It follows that a modular form $f \in M_k(G)$ is orthogonal to $S_k(G)$ if and only if $f \in E_k(G)$.

Proof. See [6, Corollary 8.2.6] □

2.7 Products of Modular Forms

Theorem 2.7.1. Let f be a modular form of weight k_f on G and g be a modular form of weight k_g on G . Then the following statements hold:

1. The product $f \cdot g$ is a modular form of weight $k_f + k_g$ on G .
2. The quotient f/g (where $g \neq 0$) is a modular form of weight $k_f - k_g$ on G .
3. If f and g are cusp forms then $f \cdot g$ is a cusp form on G .
4. If f and g are non-cuspidal holomorphic modular forms, then $f \cdot g$ is a non-cuspidal holomorphic modular form on G .
5. If f is a cusp form and g is a non-cuspidal holomorphic modular form, then $f \cdot g$ is a cusp form on G .

Proof. Immediate, see for example Miyake [28, Section 2.1]. □

It follows from this result that modular forms of lower weight can be used to construct modular forms of higher weight.

2.8 Hauptmoduls

Subgroups $G \leq \Gamma$ of genus zero have a special type of modular function called the *Hauptmodul* (which we denote by j_G).

Definition 2.8.1 (Hauptmodul). Let G be a subgroup of genus zero. Then a Hauptmodul is any isomorphism

$$j_G : G \backslash \overline{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow P^1(\mathbb{C}). \quad (2.40)$$

Since the modular group Γ is of genus zero, it has a Hauptmodul which is called *Klein invariant* or *modular j -invariant*. Its Fourier expansion is given by

$$j(\tau) = \frac{E_4^3}{\Delta(\tau)} = q^{-1} + 744 + 196884q + 21493760q^2 + 864299970q^3 + \dots \quad (2.41)$$

and its values at the elliptic points are

$$j(i) = 1728 \quad \text{and} \quad j(\rho) = 0. \quad (2.42)$$

Since j has a negative valuation, we can also see that it has a pole of order 1 at infinity. Note that the Hauptmodul can be chosen uniquely up to a constant term. The choice of 744 for the constant term has historical reasons. For groups $G \neq \Gamma$ we will instead set the constant term to zero and use the normalization

$$j_G(\tau) = q_N^{-1} + 0 + \sum_{n=1} a_n q_N^n, \quad (2.43)$$

which uniquely specifies j_G [8].

Theorem 2.8.1. Let f be a meromorphic function on \mathcal{H} . The following statements are equivalent:

1. f is a modular function on Γ of weight 0.
2. f is a quotient of two modular forms of equal weight.
3. f is a rational function in j .

Proof. See [6, Theorem 5.7.3] □

Theorem 2.8.2. Every modular function on G that is holomorphic outside $i\infty$ can be written as a polynomial $P(j_G(\tau))$.

Proof. See Cox [38, Lemma 11.10 (ii)] for the case of $G = \Gamma$ (the proof for general G is equivalent). □

2.9 Derivatives of Modular Forms

The derivative of a modular form is not a modular form for $k > 0$ (instead it is a so-called *quasi-modular form* of weight $k+2$ and depth less than or equal to 1) [6, p. 152] because

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} (f|_k \gamma)(\tau) = (c\tau + d)^{-k-2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} (f)(\gamma(\tau)) - kc(c\tau + d)^{-k-1} f(\gamma(\tau)). \quad (2.44)$$

However, if f is a modular function (i.e., a weakly modular form of weight zero), then $f'(\tau)$ is a weakly modular form of weight 2, where we define

$$f'(\tau) := \frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} f(\tau). \quad (2.45)$$

(The constant factor $1/(2\pi i)$ is useful because the Fourier coefficients of the derivative remain in the same number field.) This means that, for example for genus zero subgroups, the derivative of the Hauptmodul $j'_G(\tau)$ is a non-holomorphic modular form on G of weight 2.

2.10 Elliptic Curves

Let $\Lambda = \mathbb{Z}w_1 + \mathbb{Z}w_2$, where $w_1, w_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ are \mathbb{R} linearly independent, be a complex lattice. We define the Weierstrass \wp -function by [6, Definition 2.1.3]

$$\wp(\tau, \Lambda) := \frac{1}{\tau^2} + \sum_{w \in \Lambda \setminus \{0\}} \left(\frac{1}{(\tau - w)^2} - \frac{1}{w^2} \right), \quad (2.46)$$

which satisfies $\wp(\tau, \Lambda + w) = \wp(\tau, \Lambda)$ and is therefore an elliptic function. Moreover, \wp satisfies the differential equation [6, Theorem 2.1.7]

$$(\wp')^2 = 4\wp^3 - g_2(\Lambda)\wp - g_3(\Lambda), \quad (2.47)$$

with $g_2(\Lambda) := 60G_4(\Lambda)$ and $g_3(\Lambda) := 140G_6(\Lambda)$, where

$$G_k(\Lambda) := \sum_{w \in \Lambda \setminus \{0\}} w^{-k}, \quad (2.48)$$

is the Eisenstein series. Eq. (2.47) thus gives rise to an isomorphism from $\mathbb{C} \setminus \Lambda$ to projective algebraic curves (see [6, Proposition 2.2.1] for a formal proof). We can normalize each lattice to be of the form

$$\Lambda(\tau) = \mathbb{Z} \cdot 1 + \mathbb{Z} \cdot \tau. \quad (2.49)$$

Then $\Lambda(\tau) = \Lambda(\tau')$ if and only if $\tau' = \gamma(\tau)$ for some $\gamma \in \Gamma$. We can thus define an isomorphism class between elliptic curves by the j -invariant

$$j(\Lambda \cong E) = 1728 \frac{g_2(\Lambda)^3}{g_2(\Lambda)^3 - 27g_3(\Lambda)^2}. \quad (2.50)$$

Thus two elliptic curves E and E' are isomorphic if and only if $j(E) = j(E')$ (see for example [39]). However, the connection between modular forms and elliptic curves goes much deeper: By the modularity theorem, every elliptic curve defined over \mathbb{Q} is related to a modular curve (i.e., a curve associated with a congruence subgroup $\Gamma_0(N)$) (see [26] for a detailed introduction). The smallest parameter N for which such a parameterization arises is called the *conductor* of E .

Hejhal's Method

Parts of this chapter were also used in the paper [25, Section 3].

This chapter explains a method for the numerical computation of modular forms that is due to Hejhal [11] (based on an idea of Stark) and lists various applications and extensions by other authors. Hejhal developed this method for computing Maass cusp forms on Hecke triangle groups. Due to the generality of this method (in principle, the only requirements for this method are a converging expansion basis for the modular form and an automorphy condition), it has since then been adapted by many authors. For example, Selander and Strömbergsson [40] generalized the method for fundamental domains with multiple cusps to compute some examples of genus 2 coverings, and Strömberg used this method to compute Maass cusp forms for $\Gamma_0(N)$ and non-trivial multiplier systems [41] as well as Maass cusp forms for noncongruence subgroups [29]. Applications of Hejhal's method using arbitrary precision arithmetic were made by Booker, Strömbergsson, and Venkatesh [42], who computed the first ten Maass cusp forms of Γ to 1000 digits precision, Bruinier and Strömberg [43], who computed harmonic weak Maass cusp forms, and Voight and Willis [44] (see also the improved method in KMSV [12]) who computed Taylor expansions of modular forms.

3.1 The Basic Idea (Hejhal's Original Method)

Before discussing Hejhal's method in more detail, it is useful to start with its predecessor that has also been developed by Hejhal in [45] (we might want to call this method *Hejhal's original method*). Hejhal's original method usually has inferior conditioning but its concepts are easier to follow, making it a useful introduction. For simplicity, we will first illustrate this method for the modular group Γ , whose fundamental domain is given by eq. (2.11). The point inside $\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)$ with the smallest height (i.e., the smallest imaginary value) is given by ρ , whose height is $Y_0 = \sqrt{3}/2$. Now we choose a set of $2Q$ points τ_m that are equally spaced between $-1/2$ and $1/2$ along a horizontal line with height $Y < Y_0$

$$\tau_m = x_m + iY = \frac{1}{2Q} \left(m - Q + \frac{1}{2} \right) + iY, \quad 0 \leq m \leq 2Q - 1, \quad Y < Y_0. \quad (3.1)$$

Remark 3.1.1. Throughout this work we have always chosen $Y = 0.8 \cdot Y_0$.

We will refer to this horizontal line as a *horocycle*. Note that since these points are located *below*

$\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)$, they are all *outside* $\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)$. Now for each point τ_m there exists a map $\gamma_m \in \Gamma$ such that

$$\tau_m^* = \gamma_m(\tau_m) \in \mathcal{F}(\Gamma). \quad (3.2)$$

We call the maps γ_m the *pullback* to the fundamental domain. For the case $G = \Gamma$, finding such a pullback map is easy, we just have to form words of the generators $S \rightarrow -1/\tau$ and $T \rightarrow \tau + 1$ depending on whether $|\tau| < 1$, $\operatorname{Re}(\tau) < -1/2$ or $\operatorname{Re}(\tau) > 1/2$ and form the matrix products. Then we expand the modular form in its basis functions (which in our case are given by powers of q) up to a finite order $M_0 := M(Y_0)$, so that our expansion converges inside $\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)$ up to the machine epsilon $\epsilon_{\text{machine}}$. M_0 can be guessed in advance by using the asymptotic growth conditions of the coefficients (see theorems 2.3.2 and 2.3.3). Although such a choice of M_0 works well in practice, it is non-rigorous and therefore there is no guarantee at this point that the result will be correct. This is one of the reasons why it is difficult to make Hejhal's method rigorous. To be a modular form, the expansion must now satisfy (at least numerically) the automorphism condition

$$f(\tau_m) \approx \sum_{n=0}^{M_0} a_n q(\tau_m)^n \stackrel{!}{=} (c_m \cdot \tau_m + d_m)^{-k} f(\tau_m^*) \approx (c_m \cdot \tau_m + d_m)^{-k} \sum_{n=0}^{M_0} a_n q(\tau_m^*)^n, \quad (3.3)$$

where $q(\tau) = \exp(2\pi i\tau)$ and c_m, d_m denote the lower entries of γ_m (we illustrate this method here for the example of holomorphic modular forms, but it can of course be applied analogously to cusp forms or Hauptmoduls). It is preferable to work with

$$F(\tau) = y^{k/2} f(\tau), \quad (3.4)$$

where $y = \operatorname{Im}(\tau)$, because the function F transforms like

$$F(\tau_m) = \frac{|c_m \cdot \tau_m + d_m|^k}{(c_m \cdot \tau_m + d_m)^k} F(\tau_m^*), \quad (3.5)$$

and its automorphy factor hence does not change the order of magnitude, which improves the numerical stability. This results in a linear system of equations

$$\begin{pmatrix} \Delta_{0,0} & \cdots & \Delta_{0,M_0} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Delta_{2Q-1,0} & \cdots & \Delta_{2Q-1,M_0} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ \vdots \\ a_{M_0} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3.6)$$

where

$$\Delta_{m,n} = q(\tau_m)^n - \frac{|c_m \cdot \tau_m + d_m|^k}{(c_m \cdot \tau_m + d_m)^k} q(\tau_m^*)^n. \quad (3.7)$$

Although it is in principle possible to solve this linear system of equations by computing the eigenspace or the singular value decomposition, it usually seems preferable to impose a Victor Miller normalization (see definition 2.5.1) and to subtract the column that is normalized to have a coefficient of value 1 and to place it on the right-hand side. The resulting linear system of equations can then be solved (for example with a least-squares fit) to obtain numerical approximations of the coefficients c_n . While Hejhal's original method is easy to implement, it has a major disadvantage in that it is usually ill-conditioned.

The matrix entries $\Delta_{m,n}$ are dominated by the left-hand side because $|q(\tau_m)| > |q(\tau_m^*)|$ and decay for larger n , while the rows are usually quite uniformly distributed. This makes it difficult to apply this method to larger examples or to compute higher order coefficients.

3.2 The Improved Automorphy Method

To overcome the ill-conditioning of his original method, Hejhal presented in [11] a new method based on an idea of Stark. This method is now usually referred to as *Hejhal's method*. The improved method uses the Fourier integral formula to obtain

$$a_n Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi n Y) = \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} F(\tau) \exp(-2\pi i n x) dx, \quad (3.8)$$

where Y is the height of the horocycle. Discretizing this integral to approximate it numerically gives

$$a_n Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi n Y) \approx \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{m=0}^{2Q-1} F(\tau_m) \exp(-2\pi i n x_m), \quad (3.9)$$

where $Q > M(Y)$ and τ_m are again given by eq. (3.1). Hejhal then incorporates the automorphy condition by replacing $F(\tau_m)$ with the corresponding pullback

$$a_n Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi n Y) \approx \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{m=0}^{2Q-1} \left(\frac{|c_m \tau_m + d_m|}{(c_m \tau_m + d_m)} \right)^k F(\tau_m^*) \exp(-2\pi i n x_m), \quad (3.10)$$

$$= \sum_{l=0}^{M_0} a_l \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{m=0}^{2Q-1} \left(\frac{|c_m \tau_m + d_m|}{(c_m \tau_m + d_m)} \right)^k (y_m^*)^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(2\pi i (l \tau_m^* - n x_m)), \quad (3.11)$$

$$:= \sum_{l=0}^{M_0} a_l V_{n,l}, \quad (3.12)$$

where

$$V_{n,l} := \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{m=0}^{2Q-1} \left(\frac{|c_m \tau_m + d_m|}{(c_m \tau_m + d_m)} \right)^k (y_m^*)^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(2\pi i (l \tau_m^* - n x_m)). \quad (3.13)$$

Therefore

$$0 = \sum_{l=0}^{M_0} a_l \tilde{V}_{n,l}, \quad (3.14)$$

with

$$\tilde{V}_{n,l} := V_{n,l} - \delta_{n,l} Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi n Y), \quad (3.15)$$

which we can again solve by imposing a Victor Miller normalization. For example, for a one-dimensional space, this would amount to setting $a_0 = 1$ and solving for

$$\begin{pmatrix} \tilde{V}_{1,1} & \cdots & \tilde{V}_{1,M_0} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tilde{V}_{M_0,1} & \cdots & \tilde{V}_{M_0,M_0} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{M_0} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\tilde{V}_{1,0} \\ \vdots \\ -\tilde{V}_{M_0,0} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3.16)$$

(Note that we have also removed the first row of \tilde{V} in order to keep the linear system of equations square.) The advantage of this approach over the previous section is that the largest entries of each column are now located on the diagonal. This can be seen in eq. (3.15): $V_{n,l}$ depends on the pullbacked points, which have a larger imaginary value (and hence smaller q -values) than the horocycle points located at height Y . For this reason

$$|Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi nY)| > |V_{n,l}|, \quad (3.17)$$

and the largest entries of each column are therefore located on the diagonal. This means that the linear system of equations resulting from this improved method is much better conditioned. The precision of the coefficients depends on the diagonal term in eq. (3.15). We can therefore expect the l -th coefficient (where $1 \leq l \leq M_0$) to be correct to approximately

$$\text{prec}(a_n) = D - \log_{10}^+ \left| \frac{1}{Y^{k/2} \exp(-2\pi lY)} \right|, \quad (3.18)$$

digits precision (this is analogous to Maass cusp forms, see [42]). The *precision loss* of higher order coefficients can thus be controlled by choosing a smaller value of Y (and consequently a larger value of Q). Once the coefficients a_l , $l = 0, \dots, M_0$ have been computed with reasonable accuracy, approximations of higher order coefficients with $l' > M_0$ can be obtained from them without additional linear solving by using [11]

$$a_{l'} = \frac{\sum_{l=0}^{M_0} a_l V_{n,l}}{Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi l'Y)}, \quad (3.19)$$

where Y is reduced for larger l' (we however mention this only for completeness and had no need to compute these higher order coefficients in this project).

Remark 3.2.1. To heuristically check the accuracy of the coefficients computed by Hejhal's method, one can repeat the computation with an independent choice of Y . This is especially important for Maass cusp forms, since if it is not clear a priori whether the computed solution corresponds to a *true* eigenvalue.

3.3 Hejhal's Method for Multiple Cusps

So far we have only considered the case $G = \Gamma$. The general case, including groups with multiple cusps, has been worked out by Selander and Strömbergsson [40] (see also Strömberg [29, 41]) and follows the same ideas but the resulting expressions are more tedious and the pullback maps more difficult to obtain. If G has multiple cusps then we must include the Fourier expansions at all cusps in

order to obtain convergence in $\mathcal{F}(G)$. Let $j = 1, \dots, n(c)$ denote the cusps of $G \leq \Gamma$.

Definition 3.3.1. (Width-absorbing cusp normalizer) Let A_j be the cusp normalizer of cusp j as defined in eq. (2.14). Let w_j be the width of cusp j . We define the *width absorbing cusp normalizer* of cusp j to be the map $\mathcal{N}_j \in \text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ such that

$$\mathcal{N}_j(\tau) = A_j(w_j \cdot \tau), \quad (3.20)$$

and therefore

$$\mathcal{N}_j = A_j \cdot \rho_j = A_j \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{w_j} & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\sqrt{w_j} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3.21)$$

because

$$\rho_j(\tau) = \frac{\sqrt{w_j} \cdot \tau}{1/\sqrt{w_j}} = w_j \cdot \tau. \quad (3.22)$$

Using width-absorbing cusp normalizers, the expansion at the j -th cusp is given by

$$(f|_k \mathcal{N}_j)(\tau) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a^{(j)} q^n, \quad (3.23)$$

and can therefore always be expanded in $q = q_1$, which is useful and simplifies the expressions.

Definition 3.3.2 (Minimal height of $\mathcal{F}(G)$). We define the *minimal height* of $\mathcal{F}(G)$ to be the quantity

$$Y_0 := \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2N_{\max}}, \quad (3.24)$$

where N_{\max} is the largest cusp width of G .

To compute the pullback of $\tau \notin \mathcal{F}(G)$ into $\mathcal{F}(G)$ we make use of Millington's theorem (see section 2.2.2). The procedure can be described as follows:

1. Compute the pullback of τ into $\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)$, which creates a word in S, T, T^{-1} .
2. Insert the corresponding word in S, T, T^{-1} into the $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z})$ and S_μ representations to obtain a map $\gamma_\tau \in \Gamma$ and its permutation $\sigma_\tau := \phi(\gamma_\tau) \in S_\mu$.
3. Let $\sigma_i := \phi(\gamma_i) \in S_\mu$ denote the permutation representations of the coset representatives. Then the pullback goes into the (unique) coset of label j for which $\sigma_\tau(\sigma_j(1)) = 1$.
4. The pullback into $\mathcal{F}(G)$ is thus given by $\gamma_w = \gamma_j \cdot \gamma_\tau \in \Gamma$.

Once the pullback $w = \gamma_w(\tau)$ into $\mathcal{F}(G)$ has been found, we need to identify the cusp that is *closest* to the pullbacked point (in the sense that its Fourier expansion converges the fastest). This leads to a function (following [29, 40, 41])

$$I : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n(c)\}, \quad (3.25)$$

which returns the cusp label k for which the Fourier expansion converges fastest at point w . The complete pullback is thus given by

$$\tau^* = \left(\mathcal{N}_{I(w)}^{-1} \cdot \gamma_w \right) (\tau). \quad (3.26)$$

These pullback routines were contributed by Strömberg to `PSAGE` [46] and have been used in this project as well.

Hejhal's method for multiple cusps can be summarized as follows: For each cusp j , we select a fixed number of equally spaced points along a horocycle and compute their pullbacks into $\mathcal{F}(G)$. Then we *match* the expansion with the cusp whose Fourier expansion converges fastest on the pullbacked point. This gives us

$$\tau_{m,j}^* = \left(\mathcal{N}_{I(m,j)}^{-1} \cdot \gamma_w \cdot \mathcal{N}_j \right) (\tau_m) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{m,j} & b_{m,j} \\ c_{m,j} & d_{m,j} \end{pmatrix} (\tau_m), \quad (3.27)$$

where $I(m, j) := I(w)$. In analogy to section 3.2 we thus get (see [40])

$$a_n^{(j)} Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi nY) \approx \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{m=0}^{2Q-1} (F|_k \mathcal{N}_j)(\tau_m) \exp(-2\pi i n x_m), \quad (3.28)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{m=0}^{2Q-1} \left(\frac{|c_{m,j}\tau_m + d_{m,j}|}{(c_{m,j}\tau_m + d_{m,j})} \right)^k (F|_k \mathcal{N}_{I(m,j)})(\tau_{m,j}^*) \exp(-2\pi i n x_m), \quad (3.29)$$

$$= \sum_{l=0}^{M_0} a_l^{(I(m,j))} \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{m=0}^{2Q-1} \left(\frac{|c_{m,j}\tau_m + d_{m,j}|}{(c_{m,j}\tau_m + d_{m,j})} \right)^k (y_{m,j}^*)^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(2\pi i (l\tau_{m,j}^* - n x_m)). \quad (3.30)$$

For the analog of eq. (3.13) we hence get

$$a_n^{(j)} Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi nY) = \sum_{j'=1}^{\kappa} \sum_{l=0}^{M_0} a_l^{(j')} V_{n,l}^{(j,j')}, \quad (3.31)$$

with

$$V_{n,l}^{(j,j')} = \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{I(m,j)=j'} \left(\frac{|c_{m,j}z_m + d_{m,j}|}{(c_{m,j}z_m + d_{m,j})} \right)^k (y_{m,j}^*)^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(2\pi i (l z_{m,j}^* - n x_m)), \quad (3.32)$$

where $\sum_{I(m,j)=j'}$ denotes the sum over all $0 \leq m \leq 2Q - 1$ for which $I(m, j) = j'$. So we get

$$\sum_{j'=1}^{n(c)} \sum_{l=0}^{M_0} a^{(j')} \tilde{V}_{n,l}^{(j,j')} = 0, \quad (3.33)$$

where

$$\tilde{V}_{n,l}^{(j,j')} = V_{n,l}^{(j,j')} - \delta_{j,j'} \delta_{n,l} Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi nY), \quad (3.34)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{I(m,j)=j'} \left(\frac{|c_{m,j}z_m + d_{m,j}|}{(c_{m,j}z_m + d_{m,j})} \right)^k (y_{m,j}^*)^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(2\pi i (l z_{m,j}^* - n x_m)) - \delta_{j,j'} \delta_{n,l} Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi nY). \quad (3.35)$$

This gives us a linear system of equations, which we can solve again by imposing a Victor Miller normalization on the Fourier expansion for the cusp at infinity.

3.4 A Block-Factored Formulation of Hejhal's Method

The matrix V , whose entries are given by eq. (3.13), can be written as the matrix product of two matrices (see Voight and Willis [44], who used an analogous factorization for a similar problem)

$$V = J \cdot W, \quad (3.36)$$

with

$$J_{n,m} = \frac{1}{2Q} \left(\frac{|c_m z_m + d_m|}{(c_m z_m + d_m)} \right)^k \exp(-2\pi i n x_m), \quad (3.37)$$

and

$$W_{m,l} = (y_m^*)^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(2\pi i l z_m^*). \quad (3.38)$$

Similarly, we can write $\tilde{V}_{n,l}$ whose entries are given by eq. (3.15) as

$$\tilde{V} = J \cdot W - D, \quad (3.39)$$

where D is a diagonal matrix whose entries are $Y^{\frac{k}{2}} \exp(-2\pi n Y)$. For subgroups with more than one cusp, V can be factored into a *block-factored* form. For example, for two cusps, we would get a matrix of the form

$$\tilde{V} = \begin{pmatrix} J^{(1,1)} \cdot W^{(1,1)} & J^{(1,2)} \cdot W^{(1,2)} \\ J^{(2,1)} \cdot W^{(2,1)} & J^{(2,2)} \cdot W^{(2,2)} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} D^{(1)} & 0 \\ 0 & D^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3.40)$$

Obviously, the same approach works analogously for more than two cusps. Factorizing the matrices involved not only simplifies the expressions, but can also significantly improve performance, as we will discuss in the next chapter.

Numerical Computation of Fourier Coefficients of Modular Forms on Noncongruence Subgroups

Parts of this chapter were used in the paper [25, Section 4].

In this chapter we present a new iterative mixed-precision algorithm that is based on Hejhal’s method (see chapter 3) and show that this algorithm runs significantly faster than previous algorithms. We apply it to the numerical computation of Fourier coefficients of noncongruence modular forms. Due to the lack of non-trivial Hecke operators, this has so far been the only feasible tool to compute modular forms on general noncongruence subgroups [47, 48]. For this reason, the theory of noncongruence modular forms is still poorly understood, despite the important work of Atkin and Swinnerton-Dyer [8], Scholl [49], Chen [50], and Calegari, Dimitrov and Tang [9]. Our method makes it possible to compute modular forms on noncongruence subgroups to *high* precision (typically to more than 1000 digits). These results can then be used to identify the coefficients as algebraic numbers using the LLL algorithm (see section 4.4.1).

4.1 Preliminary Remarks on Software and Implementation

4.1.1 Arbitrary Precision Arithmetic

The majority of programs use single (32-bit) or double (64-bit) precision to perform floating point arithmetic. By the IEEE 754 standard, doubles use 53 bits for the mantissa, 11 bits for the exponent, and 1 bit for the sign [52, Section 3.1]. Since $2^{-53} \approx 1 \cdot 10^{-16}$, this is about 16 digits of decimal precision. The smallest representable double has a size of $2^{-1022} \approx 2 \cdot 10^{-308}$ [52, Section 3.1.2] which means that the exponent range of doubles (in decimal) is given by about ± 308 . These ranges and accuracies are sufficient for most applications (especially when dealing with real-world data) which is why the modern hardware *natively* supports them. By *native*, we mean that the arithmetic units are specifically designed to handle (for example) 64-bit floating point operations, and can thus perform them in one cycle. (In fact, advanced CPU instructions such as vectorization typically even allow multiple double operations to be performed in a cycle.) When 64-bit precision is not sufficient, the expressions must be broken into smaller chunks that the CPU can handle. To do this in an optimized way, arbitrary precision libraries such as MPFR [53] and ARB [54] have been developed. Performing

arithmetic on a floating point number with p bits precision can be done with $O(p \log(p) \log(\log(p)))$ complexity [52, Section 2.3]. However, when switching from *hardware supported* types such as doubles to arbitrary precision types, one gets a huge performance penalty, which (loosely speaking) comes from the fact that arbitrary precision types are not natively supported by the hardware. To illustrate this, consider the following example: Given a real matrix A of dimension 300×300 and a vector b of length 300, both consisting of random entries between 0 and 1, we want to solve $Ax = b$ by LU decomposition. This operation takes about 1.74 ms using doubles. Performing the same computation with the same precision using arbitrary precision arithmetic instead takes 4.58s, or 3 orders of magnitude longer. Despite this huge performance penalty, there are some applications where arbitrary precision arithmetic is unavoidable, for example, when the problem is very ill-conditioned or when the solution must be known with high accuracy.

4.1.2 Software used in this Project

Most of the code was implemented in CYPHON [55], which is a compiled and typed extension of PYTHON [56]. The advantage of CYPHON is that one can write *easy* PYTHON code and optimize the performance of critical parts to get close to the performance of C [57]. The C compilation of CYPHON also makes it easy to wrap functions from ARB [54], which is a highly optimized C library for arbitrary precision (and additionally interval) arithmetic. ARB is currently the fastest arbitrary-precision library [58, 59], and we used it mainly for its performance and optimized routines (such as linear algebra, fast Fourier transforms, power series reversion, polynomial arithmetic, elementary functions, etc.). For the computations in section 5.2.4, we also used its interval arithmetic to control rounding errors. We also made extensive use of SAGE's [35] various implementations and wrappers. In addition, we used the pullback routines of PSAGE [46]. PARI [36] was used for number field arithmetic and its implementation of the LLL algorithm.

4.1.3 Source Code

The source code used for chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7 is available at [60].

4.2 Krylov Subspace Solvers

Classical direct solving of linear systems of equations typically runs in $O(N^3)$ complexity. For example, the Gaussian elimination process used to compute an LU decomposition uses $\sim \frac{2}{3}N^3$ [61, Eq. 20.8] floating operations. The goal of iterative solvers is to use a small number of *cheap* $O(N^2)$ operations to compute a solution to a linear system of equations by improving the accuracy of the solution during each iteration. The iteration count (i.e., the number of iterations until the solution is computed with sufficient accuracy) of iterative solvers is often difficult to predict and can be very high for some problems (so high, in fact, that using direct solving techniques may be faster). A rule of thumb when solving a linear system of equations iteratively is that the matrix should be "not too far from normal and its eigenvalues clustered" [61, p. 314] in order to achieve fast convergence rates. Iterative solvers also typically excel for problems where the input matrix has special properties (such as sparseness, symmetry, or Hermitianness).

Definition 4.2.1 (Krylov Subspace). Given a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$ and a vector $b \in \mathbb{C}^N$, we define the *Krylov subspace* of index m to be the space [61, Eq. 33.5]

$$\mathcal{K}_m = \langle b, Ab, \dots, A^{m-1}b \rangle, \quad (4.1)$$

i.e., to be the space that is spanned by powers of A times b .

Since the Krylov subspace \mathcal{K}_m has linearly independent basis vectors for $m < N$, it can be transformed into an orthonormal basis, which we denote by Q_m . Such an orthonormal basis is typically formed by so-called *Arnoldi iterations*. Most iterative solvers belong to the *Krylov subspace solvers*. These solvers form a Krylov subspace of smaller dimension than the original space and try to approximate a solution vector from this subspace.

4.2.1 GMRES

In this project we have implemented a Krylov solver that is based on GMRES (short for *Generalized Minimal Residual Method*) due to Saad and Schultz [62] (see also [61, Sec. 35] for more details). The basic idea of GMRES is that, given a linear system of equations $A \cdot x = b$, x is approximated by a vector $x_m \in \mathcal{K}_m$ that minimizes

$$\|Ax_m - b\| = \|A\mathcal{K}_m c - b\|, \quad (4.2)$$

for some $c \in \mathbb{C}^m$. Since this procedure is numerically unstable, it is preferable to work with an orthonormal Krylov basis Q_m instead (this also speeds up the linear solving as we will see later). This amounts to minimizing

$$\|AQ_m y - b\|, \quad (4.3)$$

for some $y \in \mathbb{C}^m$. We can transform this equation to [61, Eq. 35.4]

$$\|Q_{m+1} \tilde{H}_m y - b\|, \quad (4.4)$$

where \tilde{H}_m is a $(m+1) \times m$ matrix consisting of a Hessenberg matrix with an appended row containing only the last entry. Multiplying by $Q_{m+1}^{-1} = Q_{m+1}^\top$ does not change this norm and yields

$$\|\tilde{H}_m y - Q_{m+1}^\top b\|, \quad (4.5)$$

which we can write as [61, Eq. 35.6]

$$\|\tilde{H}_m y - \|b\|e_1\| =: r_m, \quad (4.6)$$

where $e_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots)^\top$. y can be obtained from this by linear solving (note that one can exploit the fact that \tilde{H}_m is a Hessenberg matrix to perform this operation with $O(N^2)$ complexity). Finally, an approximation of our solution vector is given by

$$x_m = Q_m y. \quad (4.7)$$

For this project, we implemented a variant of GMRES that uses the modified Gram-Schmidt method to orthogonalize the Krylov subspace and solve eq. (4.6) in $O(N^2)$ complexity.

4.3 Iterative Computation of Fourier Coefficients

We have seen in section 3.4 that the matrices produced by Hejhal's method can be block-factored into products of matrices. Since (classical) matrix multiplication is of $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ complexity, this means that the construction of V also requires $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ operations and is thus quite expensive. This construction can be avoided by using iterative solving techniques. Such an approach was used by Klug, Musty, Schiavone, and Voight [12] to compute Taylor expansions of modular forms. More specifically, KMSV used a Krylov subspace method called *power method* to iteratively compute eigenvectors from which a basis of modular forms can be obtained.

As discussed in section 4.2, the limitation of such iterative methods is that the number of iterations can become very large (especially for *larger* problems where the resulting matrices are larger). For example, using eq. (3.40) to compute $f_0 \in S_8(\Gamma_0(2))$ to 50 digits using GMRES takes 93 iterations, which means that solving the linear system directly would have been faster. However, we can easily improve the convergence rate by noticing that the largest entries are located on the diagonal (this is the effect of Hejhal's method, see section 3). Following from this, we scale each column by the diagonal term. This gives (recall that right-multiplying a matrix by a diagonal matrix corresponds to scaling its columns by the diagonal entries)

$$\tilde{V}_{sc} := \tilde{V} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} D^{(1)} & 0 \\ 0 & D^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}^{-1}, \quad (4.8)$$

$$= \left(\begin{pmatrix} J^{(1,1)} \cdot W^{(1,1)} & J^{(1,2)} \cdot W^{(1,2)} \\ J^{(2,1)} \cdot W^{(2,1)} & J^{(2,2)} \cdot W^{(2,2)} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} D^{(1)} & 0 \\ 0 & D^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} \right) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} D^{(1)} & 0 \\ 0 & D^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}^{-1}, \quad (4.9)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} J^{(1,1)} \cdot W^{(1,1)} & J^{(1,2)} \cdot W^{(1,2)} \\ J^{(2,1)} \cdot W^{(2,1)} & J^{(2,2)} \cdot W^{(2,2)} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} D^{(1)} & 0 \\ 0 & D^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} - \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{1} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbb{1} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4.10)$$

The linear system therefore becomes

$$\tilde{V} \cdot c = b, \quad (4.11)$$

$$\underbrace{\tilde{V} \cdot D^{-1}}_{=\tilde{V}_{sc}} \cdot \underbrace{D \cdot c}_{:=c'} = b, \quad (4.12)$$

which we can solve for c' to compute $c = D^{-1}c'$. The eigenvalues of \tilde{V}_{sc} are clustered closer together, so we can expect faster convergence rates. In fact, by working with \tilde{V}_{sc} , the number of iterations of GMRES for the previous example can be reduced to 13. A comparison of the residues after each iteration for both approaches can be found in fig. 4.1.

A transformation that reduces the number of iterations of an iterative solver is called *preconditioning transformation*, and working with \tilde{V}_{sc} instead of \tilde{V} could be considered a preconditioning step. However, the highlighted example of $\Gamma_0(2)$ is very simple. We will see later in this section that working with \tilde{V}_{sc} is not sufficient to compute larger examples in reasonable time. To further reduce the number of iterations, a *preconditioner* matrix M is needed, which allows to solve the better conditioned system of equations

$$M \cdot \tilde{V}_{sc} \cdot c' = M \cdot b, \quad (4.13)$$

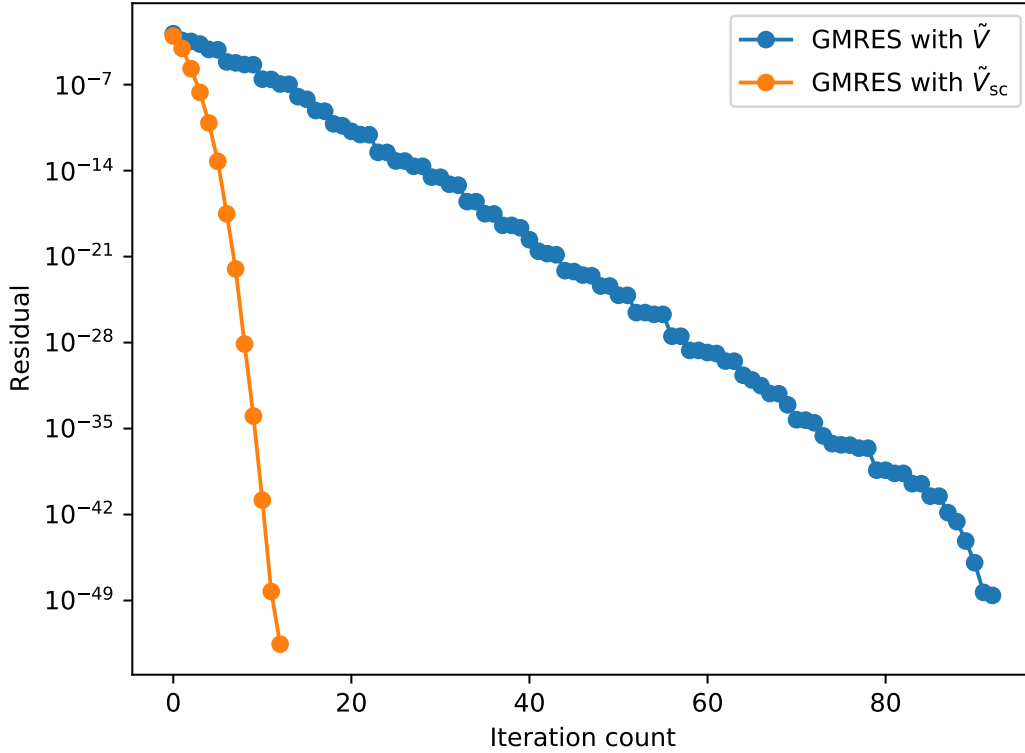


Figure 4.1: Illustration of the iterative computation of $f_0 \in \mathcal{S}_8(\Gamma_0(2))$ to 50 digits precision using GMRES (taking $M_0 = 47$). Working with \tilde{V}_{sc} reduced the number of iterations from 93 to 13.

(where we obviously evaluate $M \cdot \tilde{V}_{sc} \cdot c$ as $M \cdot (\tilde{V}_{sc} \cdot c)$ instead of $(M \cdot \tilde{V}_{sc}) \cdot c$ to avoid $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ matrix multiplication). However, obtaining such a preconditioner seems non-trivial for our application because \tilde{V}_{sc} is non-hermitian, non-symmetric, and dense. In fact, we do not even know \tilde{V} explicitly, and, as discussed earlier, constructing it is a $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ operation, so we would be in the same order of magnitude as just using a direct method to compute the solution. The key observation in resolving this dilemma is that \tilde{V}_{sc} can be safely inverted at low precision. This can be seen from eq. (4.10): The entries of the block matrices W decay and become effectively zero at low precision. Since J does not change the order of magnitude, $J \cdot W$ also has decaying columns. However, by subtracting the unit diagonal matrix, we ensure that each column has at least one non-zero entry. This means that if the Fourier expansion order M_0 is very large, we asymptotically approach the unit matrix, which is (and remains) well-conditioned for inversion. Our approach is therefore to set the preconditioner M to a low-precision inverse (or something similar) of \tilde{V}_{sc} . Such an approach uses *mixed-precision* arithmetic, which is a relatively new concept that originated in high-performance computing.

Algorithm 1 Algorithm for computing Fourier expansion coefficients using GMRES

- 1: Compute block-factored form of \tilde{V}_{sc} at full precision
 - 2: Construct $\tilde{V}_{sc,double}$ at double-precision
 - 3: Compute $\bar{L} \cdot \bar{U} = \tilde{V}_{sc,double}$ at double-precision
 - 4: Cast \bar{L}, \bar{U} to full precision
 - 5: Solve $(\bar{L} \cdot \bar{U})^{-1} \tilde{V}_{sc} \cdot a' = (\bar{L} \cdot \bar{U})^{-1} b$ at full precision using GMRES
 - 6: Return $a = D^{-1} \cdot a'$ at full precision
-

4.3.1 Mixed-Precision Arithmetic

For an overview of various methods and applications that use mixed-precision arithmetic, see [63]. The basic concept of mixed-precision arithmetic is to perform computationally expensive parts of an algorithm in faster, low-precision arithmetic without sacrificing the precision of the end result. So far, applications of mixed-precision arithmetic have typically replaced double (64-bit) arithmetic with 32-/16-bit arithmetic, which has faster memory bandwidth and vectorization potential and is supported by specialized hardware such as GPUs and tensor cores. In this project, we switch between arbitrary-precision arithmetic and double arithmetic, and according to the results in section 4.1.1, the speedup when switching between them is even greater because arbitrary-precision arithmetic is not natively supported by hardware and is therefore very slow. In the context of iterative solvers, it has been shown and analyzed that low-precision inverses (of possibly even highly ill-conditioned matrices) can serve as good preconditioners for iterative methods [64–66]. (In general, inverses are good preconditioners because one approximates the unit matrix which has the maximally clustered eigenvalue spectrum. Of course, if one knows the inverse to full precision, the problem can be solved in one iteration, but obtaining such an inverse is more expensive and numerically unstable than solving the problem directly.) Our approach is therefore to explicitly construct \tilde{V} in 64-bit double arithmetic and compute an approximate inverse using a direct method. Since these operations are performed in double arithmetic, their contribution to CPU time can be neglected in our examples.

4.3.2 Preconditioned GMRES

To precondition the GMRES solver with a low-precision inverse, we first construct \tilde{V}_{sc} in double precision (which we will denote as $\tilde{V}_{sc,double}$) and compute its LU decomposition

$$\bar{L} \cdot \bar{U} = \tilde{V}_{sc,double} , \quad (4.14)$$

where \bar{L} and \bar{U} denote the L and U factors up to double precision. To compute the action of the inverse of $\tilde{V}_{sc,double}$, it is advantageous not to explicitly form $\tilde{V}_{sc,double}^{-1}$, which is computationally expensive, ill-conditioned, and destroys potential sparseness. A better approach is to use [66]

$$\tilde{V}_{sc,double}^{-1} x = \bar{U}^{-1} \bar{L}^{-1} x . \quad (4.15)$$

The actions of \bar{L}^{-1} and \bar{U}^{-1} on a vector can be computed using $O(N^2)$ triangular solves. Although the inverse is never explicitly formed, we will refer to this approach as *computing the inverse* for simplicity. The algorithm for preconditioned GMRES is illustrated in Algorithm 1. The advantage of this algorithm is that GMRES gains *at least* 16 digits during each iteration (assuming $\tilde{V}_{sc,double}$ is

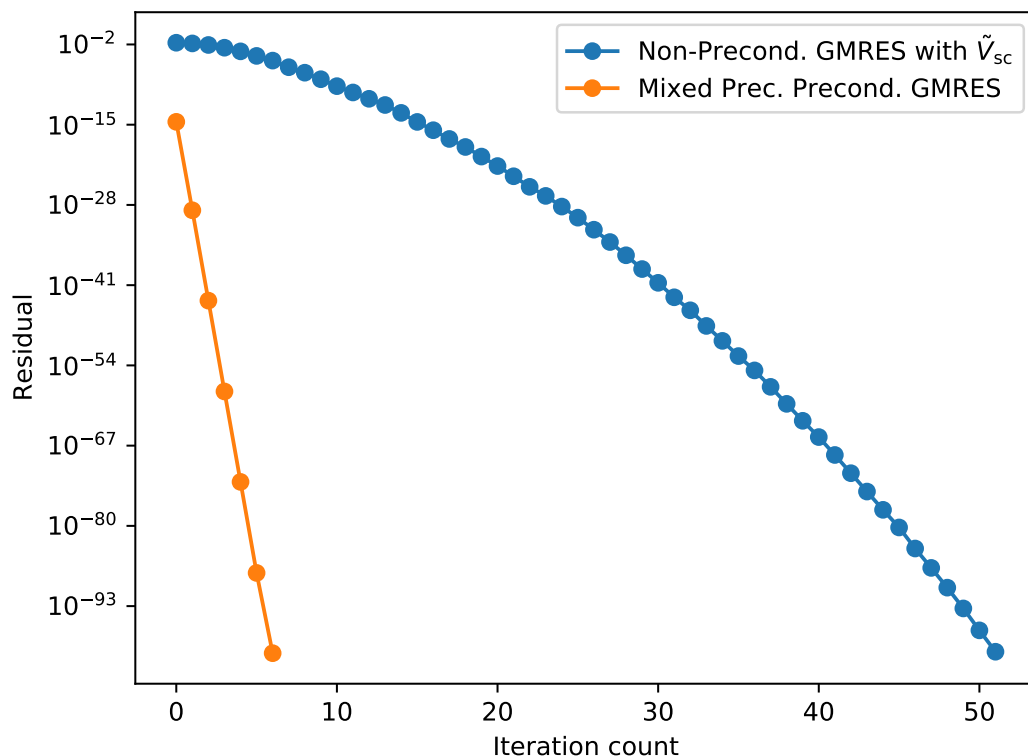


Figure 4.2: Comparison of preconditioned and non-preconditioned GMRES for the application of computing $f_0 \in S_2(\Gamma_0(20))$ to 100 digits precision (taking $M_0 = 868$). The preconditioned version reduces the iteration count from 52 to 7 iterations.

well-conditioned). The reason for this upper bound on the number of iterations (at least heuristically) comes from the fact that the inverse is known to 16 digits precision, which means that the solution can be refined to 16 digits precision during each iteration. This convergence rate is not only very fast, but it is also remarkable that the upper bound on the number of iterations is (in principle) independent of the problem and the size of the matrices involved. (We say "in principle" only because we assume here that the inverse of the matrix can be computed with 16-digit precision). For our previous example of $f_0 \in S_8(\Gamma_0(2))$ with 50 digits precision, this means that the number of iterations can be reduced from 13 iterations to only 3 iterations. The advantage of the preconditioned GMRES algorithm becomes even more apparent for larger examples. For example, computing $f_0 \in S_2(\Gamma_0(20))$ to 100 digits of precision takes 52 iterations with non-preconditioned GMRES and only 7 with preconditioned GMRES, as shown in fig. 4.2.

4.3.3 Iterative Refinement

Because GMRES must form a Krylov subspace, the action of \tilde{V}_{sc} on a vector must be evaluated with full precision during each iteration, which is (comparatively) expensive. An alternative iterative

Algorithm 2 Algorithm for computing Fourier expansion coefficients using mixed-precision iterative refinement

- 1: Compute block-factored form of \tilde{V}_{sc} at full precision
 - 2: Construct $\tilde{V}_{sc, double}$ at double-precision
 - 3: Compute $\tilde{L} \cdot \tilde{U} = \tilde{V}_{sc, double}$ at double-precision
 - 4: Use $\tilde{L} \cdot \tilde{U}$ to solve $\tilde{V}_{sc} \cdot a' = b$ at 64-bit
 - 5: **for** $i=0:\max_iter-1$ **do**
 - 6: Compute $r = b - \tilde{V}_{sc} \cdot a'$ at $(i + 2) \cdot 16$ digits precision
 - 7: Use $\tilde{L} \cdot \tilde{U}$ to solve $\tilde{V}_{sc} \cdot d = r$ at 64-bit
 - 8: Compute $a' = a' + d$
 - 9: **if** converged **then**
 - 10: break
 - 11: **end if**
 - 12: **end for**
 - 13: Return $a = D^{-1} \cdot a'$ at full precision
-

algorithm that does not create a Krylov subspace is given by *iterative refinement*. Iterative refinement (IR) is a relatively old technique, first applied by Wilkinson [67] in 1948, and can be viewed as Newton's method on the function $r(x) = A \cdot x - b$ [68]. In our application, the low-precision inverse can be used to iteratively refine the solution vector during each iteration. Since we do not form a Krylov subspace, we can gradually increase the precision during each iteration and do not need to perform all iterations at full precision. Thus, not only do we switch between double precision and arbitrary precision arithmetic, but we also choose different bit precisions when using arbitrary precision arithmetic. This approach makes even more use of *mixed precision* and is described in alg. 2. Using the (little) Gauss summation formula $\sum_{i=0}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$, and assuming for simplicity that the complexity of arbitrary precision arithmetic grows linearly wrt. the precision, we can estimate that gradually increasing the precision in line 6 of alg. 2 should give a speedup of about a factor of two. However, this estimate only holds if the ring operations of arbitrary precision are considered independently. In practice, the matrices involved will typically have decaying columns, which means that working at a lower precision will not only reduce the complexity of the ring operations themselves, but also (and more importantly) reduce the number of ring operations to be performed, since many columns can be neglected from a lower precision perspective (more details on this can be found in section 4.3.5). This means that IR can in principle be more than twice as fast as GMRES.

If the approximate inverse is computed to 16 digits precision then iterative refinement gains 16 digits precision during each iteration. Unlike GMRES, the convergence rate can only be linear, which means that the number of iterations of IR is greater than or equal to that of GMRES.

4.3.4 GMRES vs. Iterative Refinement

As discussed in the previous section, GMRES can have a lower iteration count than IR, while the iterations of IR are on average *cheaper* because they do not have to be performed at the target precision. It is therefore interesting to examine which of these tradeoffs is advantageous in practice. As an example, we compute $\Delta \in S_{12}(\Gamma)$ to 1000 digits precision. This takes 39 iterations with GMRES, which achieves superlinear convergence and gains an impressive 48 digits in the last iteration. IR

converges linearly and takes 64 iterations for the same example. However, despite the larger number of iterations, IR takes only $\sim 16s$ to compute while GMRES takes $\sim 39s$. For higher index examples, GMRES typically converges superlinearly only for the last iterations, bringing its iteration count closer to that of IR. This makes the speedup of mixed-precision IR over GMRES even larger. For this reason, we have used mixed-precision IR as the numerical solver throughout this work.

4.3.5 Optimizing the Action of W

The action of W (given by eq. (6.4)) can be interpreted as the evaluation of a polynomial at different points q_m^* times factors $(y_m^*)^{\frac{k}{2}}$. It is a well-known result that the evaluation of a polynomial at different points can be achieved in $\mathcal{O}(N \cdot \ln(N)^2)$ asymptotic complexity (see for example [69]). However, this asymptotic growth comes with a large constant, which makes this algorithm in practice slower than the classical $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ algorithms for the problems considered in this work (in addition, these asymptotically fast algorithms are usually quite ill-conditioned).

For the classical $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ algorithms, the most common choice would be Horner's method, which evaluates a polynomial at a single point using N multiplications and $N + 1$ additions as well as $\mathcal{O}(1)$ memory. However, since the powers of q_m^* decay relatively quickly, it is in practice much faster to use ARB's optimized dot-product routines [59], which, among other technical optimizations, evaluate each term with the lowest possible precision (note that smaller terms can be evaluated with less precision than larger terms without affecting the precision of the result). In addition, the dot product routines neglect all terms that do not affect the result. This is particularly useful because the iterative refinement algorithm (see algorithm 2) starts with much lower precisions (from 32 digits) than the target precision, which means that the polynomials can be truncated on average to lower orders, with many terms being neglected. Recall also that M_0 is chosen based on the lowest point inside the fundamental domain, so quite pessimistically, which means that the polynomials converge faster for many τ_m^* . We note, however, that the naive approach of using the dot product, which assembles the entries of the matrix W and computes its action by using the dot product row by row, is not ideal for two reasons: First, the construction of W is comparatively expensive because it requires N^2 multiplications at full precision, which cannot be accelerated any further. Second, and more importantly, storing W as a matrix requires N^2 of memory space, which becomes inconvenient for larger problems. For this reason, we use modular splitting (see for example [52, Section 4.4.3]), for which only some of the powers of q_m^* need to be precomputed and stored. Modular splitting evaluates a polynomial $P(x)$ by using the relations

$$P(x) = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n x^n = \sum_{l=0}^{j-1} x^l P_l(x) = \sum_{l=0}^{j-1} x^l \left(\sum_{m=0}^{k-1} a_{jm+l} y^m \right), \quad (4.16)$$

where $y = x^j$. Thus, by choosing j and k of size $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{N})$, we only need to store $\mathcal{O}(N^{3/2})$ values and can evaluate $P_l(x)$ using dot products. Note that we do not use classical rectangular splitting here, because we do not want the terms of $P_l(x)$ to be uniformly distributed in order to make best use of the dot-product optimizations. We find that using ARB's dot product often leads to a speedup that is close to an order of magnitude compared to a naive Horner scheme.

4.3.6 Optimizing the Action of J

It is immediately apparent that the entries of J (given by eq. (3.37)) are uniform and cannot be truncated when working at a lower precision which makes matrix-vector multiplication of J very slow compared to W . Note, however, that J can be factorized further:

$$J = D_L \cdot F \cdot D_R, \quad (4.17)$$

where

$$(D_L)_{n',m} = \exp\left(\frac{\pi i(2Q-1)}{2Q} \cdot n'\right), \quad (4.18)$$

$$F_{n',m} = \exp\left(\frac{-2\pi i}{2Q} \cdot n' \cdot m\right), \quad (4.19)$$

$$(D_R)_{n',m} = \frac{1}{2Q} \left(\frac{|c_m z_m + d_m|}{c_m z_m + d_m}\right)^k \exp\left(\frac{\pi i M_s (2Q-1)}{2Q}\right) \exp\left(\frac{-2\pi i M_s}{2Q} \cdot m\right). \quad (4.20)$$

M_s denotes the index of the first non-zero coefficient (in general, M_s depends on the cusp, so we should write $M_s(j)$ instead, but for the sake of simpler notation, we assume M_s is equal for all cusps here) and $n' := n - M_s$ with the property $0 \leq n' \leq M - M_s$. D_L and D_R are diagonal matrices whose action can be computed in $O(N)$ operations. F is similar to the matrix of the classical discrete Fourier transform (DFT), but (in general) with some rows and columns missing. Nevertheless, we can compute the action of F by a DFT. To illustrate, suppose $M = 3$, $2Q = 4$ (of course, in practice we need $Q > M$), and we have a missing column at $m = 2$. Then the action of F on a vector can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & (\zeta_4)^{-1} & (\zeta_4)^{-3} \\ 1 & (\zeta_4)^{-2} & (\zeta_4)^{-6} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.21)$$

where $\zeta_4 = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{4}\right)$ is the 4-th root of unity. This is equivalent to calculating:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & (\zeta_4)^{-1} & (\zeta_4)^{-2} & (\zeta_4)^{-3} \\ 1 & (\zeta_4)^{-2} & (\zeta_4)^{-4} & (\zeta_4)^{-6} \\ 1 & (\zeta_4)^{-3} & (\zeta_4)^{-6} & (\zeta_4)^{-9} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ 0 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.22)$$

and selecting the first 3 entries of the output vector. Thus, our strategy for computing the action of F on a vector is to zero-pad all entries of the input vector for which $I(m, j) \neq i$, perform a DFT, and then select the first M entries of the output vector. The advantage of using a DFT to compute the action of F is that fast Fourier transform (FFT) algorithms are available that have asymptotic complexity $O(N \ln(N))$ [70]. Unlike the polynomial multipoint evaluation algorithms mentioned in section 4.3.5, the FFT algorithms typically have only a small asymptotic constant. In practice, we found the running time to be approximately $c \cdot Q \ln(Q)$, where $c < 10$, if the largest prime factor of Q is reasonably small (we used the `ARB` implementation to compute the FFT, contributed by Pascal Molin). Since we have a free choice of $Q > M$, we choose Q *slightly* larger than M and with small prime factors to

speed up the FFT. Compared to the direct approach of computing the action of J by matrix-vector multiplications, which has complexity $O(Q \cdot M_0)$ (the exact number of operations also depends on the number of cusps), it is usually much faster to use FFTs, and the bottleneck of the algorithm becomes the action of W . Additional advantages of factoring J in the form of eq. (4.17) are that the memory consumption becomes much lower because we only need to store diagonals and $2Q$ roots of unity, and we avoid the N^2 operation to compute the entries of J .

4.3.7 Construction of $\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$

To construct $\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$, we truncate the columns of W so that terms that are effectively zero in double precision are ignored. Then we compute the action of J on the remaining columns of W by FFTs (using NUMPY [71]), similar to section 4.3.6. The construction of $\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$ therefore requires $O(N^2 \ln(N))$ double precision operations.

4.3.8 Computing the LU Decomposition of $\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$

$\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$ is a sparse matrix because all entries below the double machine epsilon are neglected. To compute its LU decomposition, we therefore use the sparse linear algebra routines of SCIPY [72]. We are unaware of the computational complexity of these routines (which should depend on the sparseness and structure of $\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$ and its LU factors), but in practice they take only negligible CPU time (see section 4.3.10 for more details).

4.3.9 Performing the LU Solves

As discussed in the previous section, we use SCIPY's sparse linear algebra routines to compute an LU decomposition of $\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$ in double arithmetic. When using this precomputed LU decomposition to perform the solves within the iterative refinement algorithm, one must be careful not to over-/underflow the double exponent range, which is finite (see section 4.1.1) and can easily be exceeded for elements within the residue vectors. One way to avoid underflow is to convert the LU decomposition to 53-bit arbs, which have an unlimited exponent range. However, storing the LU decomposed matrix as an ARB matrix is quite memory consuming because ARB does not currently provide sparse matrices and because the memory footprint of an ARB object is larger than that of a double. A preferable approach is based on the observation that the input vectors to the LU solvers have relatively uniformly distributed entries. For this reason, we scale all entries by a constant factor 2^e to bring them into double range, convert them to doubles, perform the LU solve in double arithmetic using SCIPY, convert the result back to ARB, and scale the result back again. This approach uses much less memory and is faster.

4.3.10 Runtime Profile of the Algorithm

To understand the bottlenecks and limitations of the mixed-precision IR algorithm, it is useful to measure the time that is spent on each stage of the algorithm. As a first example, we consider the computation of $\Delta \in S_{12}(\Gamma)$ to 1000 digits precision (taking $M_0 = 429$). Then, the runtime profile can be summarized as follows (we decided not to create a plot of this profile because the double computation parts would not be visible):

1. Initialization of \tilde{V}_{sc} in block-factored form: $\approx 0.75\text{s}$

2. Construction of $\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$: $\approx 0.011\text{s}$
3. Sparse LU factorization of $\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$: $\approx 0.0026\text{s}$
4. IR iterations: $\approx 14.84\text{s}$

During the first IR iteration, the action of W took $\approx 0.019\text{s}$ and the action of J took $\approx 0.011\text{s}$. During the last IR iteration, the action of W took $\approx 0.46\text{s}$ and the action of J took $\approx 0.070\text{s}$. As a more complicated example, we compute $f_0 \in S_4(\Gamma_0(6))$ to 1000 digits precision (taking $M_0 = 2553$). The runtime profile can then be summarized as follows:

1. Initialization of \tilde{V}_{sc} in block-factored form: $\approx 17.98\text{s}$
2. Construction of $\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$: $\approx 0.44\text{s}$
3. Sparse LU factorization of $\tilde{V}_{\text{sc,double}}$: $\approx 1.69\text{s}$
4. IR iterations: $\approx 963\text{s}$

During the first IR iteration, the actions of W took a total of $\approx 0.83\text{s}$ and the actions of J took $\approx 0.73\text{s}$. During the last IR iteration, the actions of W took about 30.99s and the actions of J took about 4.18s .

There are two important observations from these two runtime profiles. First, the bottleneck of the algorithm is given by the actions of W during the last iterations (i.e., at high precision). Second, the double-precision parts take a negligible amount of CPU time.

4.3.11 Restarting the Algorithm

Since the iterative refinement algorithm does not need to form a Krylov subspace, it can be restarted without losing convergence. One approach we have experimented with is to gradually increase the values of Q and M_0 . For example, if a target precision of 500 digits is desired, one can first choose Q and M_0 so that convergence is achieved up to 100 digits of precision. One can then use these approximations of the lower coefficients to 100 digits precision to restart the algorithm with a larger choice of Q and M_0 to refine the residue from 10^{-100} to 10^{-250} , and then again to go from 10^{-250} to 10^{-500} . However, the performance gain from this approach seems to be quite limited, since the bottlenecks are given by the last iterations anyway. In addition, each restart creates some extra computations to set up J , W , and the preconditioner. Although there are some restart configurations that are faster than simply starting with the target values of Q and M_0 , the performance impact is very small and finding these configurations can be inconvenient, so we did not use this approach for our computations.

4.3.12 Performance Comparison to Previous Methods

To examine how the different approaches perform in practice, we ran several benchmarks that compute modular forms on congruence subgroups numerically. Obviously, it makes little sense to compute modular forms on congruence subgroups numerically, since they can be computed efficiently explicitly. However, congruence groups serve as useful benchmarks, because their results can be easily verified, and because it does not make a difference for the algorithm whether the group is congruence or not. The first benchmark computes $\Delta \in S_{12}(\Gamma)$ with different precisions. These results can be found in [tab. 4.1](#).

Digits / $n(c) \cdot M_0$	Classical	Non-Precond. GMRES	Mixed Precision IR
250 / 1 · 110	1.92s (0.3GB)	1.25s (0.24GB), 18 iter.	0.37s (0.22GB), 16 iter.
500 / 1 · 216	30.7s (0.68GB)	20.3s (0.34GB), 26 iter.	3.21s (0.22GB), 32 iter.
1000 / 1 · 429	6min55s (3.58GB)	4min22s (1.62GB), 36 iter.	33.3s (0.27GB), 64 iter.

Table 4.1: Benchmarks for the numerical computation of $\Delta \in S_{12}(\Gamma)$. The first column lists the precision with which the coefficients were computed (up to a loss of precision for higher coefficients), as well as the number of cusps and the expansion order M_0 . The remaining columns list the elapsed CPU time, the peak memory usage, and the number of iterations for the iterative methods. For details on how the benchmarks were run, see remark 4.3.1.

Digits / $n(c) \cdot M_0$	Classical	Non-Precond. GMRES	Mixed Precision IR
100 / 3 · 533	7min15s (1.91GB)	1min38s (1.5GB), 45 iter.	7s (0.32GB), 8 iter.
200 / 3 · 1043	1h9min31s (9.48GB)	15min3s (5.84Gb), 63 iter.	43s (0.47GB), 15 iter.
400 / 3 · 2061	-	4h24min56s (29.19GB), 90 iter.	6min19s (0.94GB), 30 iter.

Table 4.2: Benchmarks for the numerical computation of $f_0 \in S_4(G)$ where G is a subgroup of signature $(17, 0, 3, 1, 2)$ that is generated by $\sigma_S = (1)(24)(37)(510)(611)(814)(915)(1213)(1617)$ and $\sigma_R = (174)(21110)(31514)(5)(61213)(8179)(16)$. For details on how the benchmarks were performed, see remark 4.3.1.

Remark 4.3.1. Some more context about how the benchmarks were run: All implementations are highly optimized from a technical point of view. The *classical* version constructs the matrices J and W (using recursive multiplications to compute the powers of q) and multiplies them (using ARB’s matrix multiplication) to construct \tilde{V} . It then uses ARB’s implementation of the LU decomposition to solve the linear system of equations. The *non-precond. GMRES* version constructs the matrices J and W and stores \tilde{V}_{sc} in a block-factored form. The actions of J and W are computed using ARB’s matrix-vector multiplications. Then GMRES is used to iteratively solve the linear system of equations. The *mixed precision IR* version uses the mixed precision iterative refinement approach with optimized actions of W and J , which are presented in sections 4.3.5 and 4.3.6. The benchmarks were run on a Intel Xeon E5-2680 v4 @ 2.40GHz CPU and run in a single thread. Note that CPU times may vary depending on the load on the machine. The reported memory consumption is the peak memory consumption of the program, which can also vary slightly due to different garbage collector behavior.

As we can see, the mixed-precision algorithm outperforms the other algorithms in all categories. This outperformance becomes even more obvious in a second benchmark where we computed a cusp form of an index 17 non-congruence subgroup with signature $(17, 0, 3, 1, 2)$. The benchmarks for this group are listed in tab. 4.2. As one can see, the mixed-precision IR algorithm runs more than 40 times faster than non-precond. GMRES at 400 digits precision while using significantly less memory. For larger examples this ratio becomes even larger because the IR approach has a lower asymptotic complexity. Computing the examples of chapter 7 to 1500 digits precision would therefore be infeasible with the previous algorithms.

4.3.13 Numerical Stability for Large Examples

Increasing the target precision (and hence the values of M_0 and Q) does not affect the condition number of $\tilde{V}_{sc, double}$ (up to some noise), as shown in fig. 4.3. This seems to be due to the fact that that

the additional columns are similar to those of a unit matrix.

The index and the number of cusps of the considered subgroup influence the conditioning more noticeably. Although large-index examples were not the focus of this work, it is interesting to investigate whether they are well-conditioned enough to apply mixed precision iterative precision iterative refinement on them as well. To do this, we consider the subgroup $\Gamma_0(120)$ of signature $(288, 17, 16, 0, 0)$. It is immediately apparent that with an index of 288 and 16 cusps, the largest of which has a width of 120, $\Gamma_0(120)$ is significantly larger than the other examples considered. As a test of our algorithm we performed the numerical computation of $f_0 \in S_2(\Gamma_0(120))$ to 50 digits precision. To achieve convergence, we choose $M_0 = 2725$, which means that the resulting linear system of equations is of dimension 43600×43600 , which is enormous in the context of in the context of arbitrary precision arithmetic. Nevertheless, we have found that iterative refinement converges quickly, as can be seen in fig. 4.4. Unlike the other examples, the size of \tilde{V} reduces the precision gain per iteration to about to about 9 digits per iteration instead of 16. We also noticed that the resulting coefficients have *only* been computed to about 44 digits precision instead of 50, but of course this can be easily overcome by using a buffer for large index examples. The computation used 60 GB of memory and took 2 hours and 30 minutes of CPU time. We note that, in contrast to the other computations, we had to use dense linear algebra to perform the LU decomposition because the sparse routines returned a memory error. We conclude that mixed-precision iterative refinement can be efficiently applied to large index examples too.

4.3.14 Complexity of the Algorithm

Studying the complexity of the mixed-precision IR algorithm is relatively difficult. First of all, it makes sense to ignore all computations that can be done in double precision, because due to their technical optimization, their contribution can be neglected compared to the parts that use arbitrary precision arithmetic (at least for the size of problems considered in this work, and taking the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$ would lead to conditioning problems at some point anyway), see section 4.3.10. When analyzing the performance with respect to N (we use N synonymously for Q and M_0 because they are usually proportional to each other), the asymptotic bottleneck is given both in theory and in practice by the action of W . The complexity of this computation is $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ (at least in practice, as discussed in section 4.3.5, the theoretical asymptotic complexity is $\mathcal{O}(N \cdot \ln(N)^2)$), but with a very small constant due to the decaying columns of W . We also note that, unlike most iterative methods, the iteration count of our method depends only on the precision and is thus truly independent of N .

A more meaningful measure would be the bit complexity of the algorithm. However, this seems impossible to calculate due to the constantly changing working precision, floating point types, and decay rates of the dot product terms.

4.3.15 Summary

We have shown in this section how mixed-precision iterative refinement can be used to make the numerical computation of modular forms for general subgroups significantly faster which makes it feasible to compute examples of non-congruence modular forms. Because of its generality, we expect that the idea of computing a low precision inverse to iteratively solve the linear system of equations can also be beneficial for the arbitrary precision computation of other types of modular forms, such as Maass cusp forms and Taylor expansions of modular forms. We have also shown that the use of

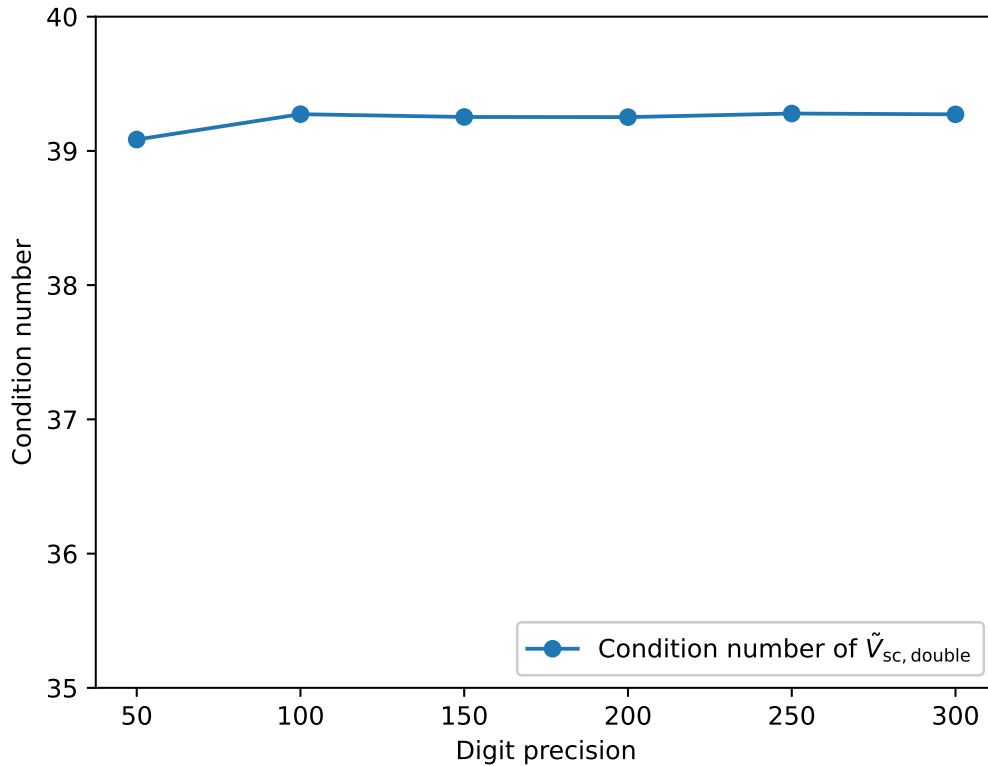


Figure 4.3: Illustration of the condition number of $\tilde{V}_{sc, double}$ for varying target precisions. For the example we used the cusp form that was considered in tab. 4.2.

mixed-precision arithmetic can lead to enormous performance gains, which may make it even more attractive, especially in the field of arbitrary precision arithmetic.

4.4 Recognizing Fourier Coefficients as Algebraic Numbers

We can use the algorithm of section 4.3 to compute numerical estimates of the Fourier coefficients of modular forms (and cusp forms) with high precision. These expressions can then be recognized as algebraic numbers using the LLL algorithm.

4.4.1 The LLL Algorithm

The LLL algorithm (named after its authors Lenstra-Lenstra-Lovász [51]) is a lattice reduction algorithm that tries to find the *shortest* lattice in polynomial time. This algorithm has many applications, but in our context we use it to detect linear and algebraic dependencies between floating-point numbers. Given a set of N complex numbers $\{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_N\}$, the LLL algorithm returns integers $c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_N$

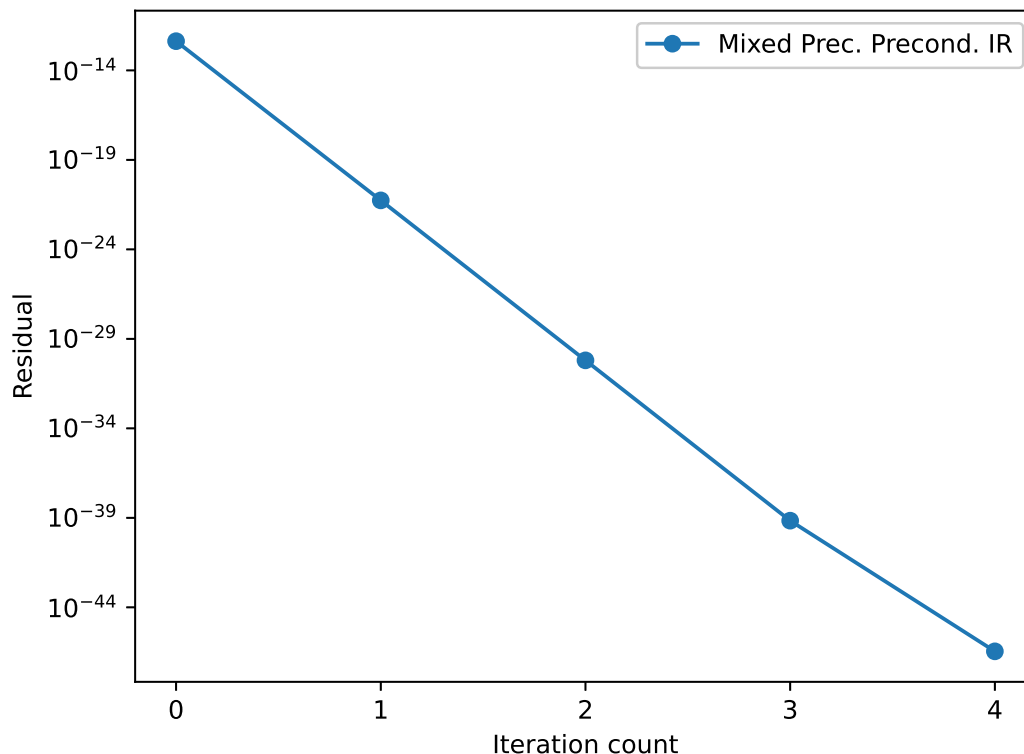


Figure 4.4: Illustration of the iterative computation of $f_0 \in S_2(\Gamma_0(120))$ to 50 digits precision using mixed precision IR (taking $M_0 = 2725$).

such that

$$\sum_{n=1}^N c_n z_n \approx 0. \quad (4.23)$$

More details about this algorithm can be found in Cohen’s book [73, Section 2.7.2] and we use its implementation within the `linddep` routine in PARI [36]. Obviously, up to finite precision, c_i can always be found for arbitrary complex numbers. It is therefore important to check whether the result of the LLL algorithm corresponds to a *true* solution. This can be done rigorously if bounds on the coefficients c_i are known in advance. For our examples this is not the case (and in fact the input numbers will not be rigorous in general). To discard invalid solutions, we append to the input vector a number known to be non-algebraic and of similar size. If the LLL algorithm then detects that the coefficient of this number is equal to zero (and thus that this number is not part of the solution), this provides high heuristic evidence that the result is indeed correct. The LLL algorithm can also be used to reduce the size of the coefficients of a polynomial defining a number field, thus finding a simpler representation of that number field. More details about this algorithm can be found in [73, Section 4.4.2], and we have used the PARI [36] routine `polredabs` to try to reduce all occurring number fields to their simplest form.

4.4.2 Determining K

We have seen in section 2.3 that modular forms on noncongruence subgroups are defined over a field K times a N -th root (where N denotes the cusp width at infinity) of an expression in K . To determine K , we first choose a cusp form that has the lowest weight and is not an old form. Then we choose an expansion coefficient that is linear in u (and nonzero). Raising this expression to the N th power yields an expression in K . We then use the LLL algorithm to determine an algebraic dependence of this expression (an upper bound on the degree of the algebraic number is given by the size of the passport). Then we use `polredabs` (see section 4.4.1) to reduce this number field to a simpler form.

Example 4.4.1 (Determining K). It may be useful to illustrate the above procedure with an example. Let G be a noncongruence subgroup with signature $(16, 1, 2, 0, 1)$, which is generated by $\sigma_S = (1\ 4)(2\ 5)(3\ 8)(6\ 11)(7\ 10)(9\ 14)(12\ 15)(13\ 16)$ and $\sigma_R = (1\ 2\ 10\ 11)(3\ 7\ 14)(4\ 8\ 5)(6\ 16\ 15)(9\ 13\ 12)$. From this we get that $\sigma_T = (1\ 8\ 7\ 11\ 16\ 12\ 6\ 2\ 4)(3\ 5\ 10\ 14\ 13\ 15\ 9)$, which means that the cusp at infinity has width 9. We have $\dim(S_2(G)) = 1$, so we choose the second coefficient of this cusp form, which is given by $c_2 = -2.057184\dots - 0.677479\dots i$. Let $t = c_2^9$. Using the LLL algorithm, we can guess that t is a root of the polynomial

$$3279685536902118703451470213672861696x^3 - 6614603219929707324596027693073986224128x^2 + 3607523620681479138330555369588007533376401x - 1306532554202510156945043188839272559104,$$

(it takes about 150 digits of precision to detect this algebraic dependency). Using `polredabs` on this polynomial yields in the more convenient number field $K = \mathbb{Q}(v)$, where

$$v^3 - 6v - 16 = 0,$$

with embedding $v = -1.647426\dots + 1.463572\dots i$.

We note that it would also be possible to determine K without using the LLL algorithm by computing the modular forms for all Galois conjugates in the passport, from which one can guess the polynomial from its roots, for example by using continued fractions to recognize its coefficients. Such an approach was taken by Richards [74]. This approach could reduce the precision needed to determine K while increasing the number of modular forms to compute. We have not yet used this approach, but it would be interesting to investigate its efficiency.

4.4.3 Determining u

u is an N -th root of an expression in K (see section 2.3). Note that u is not unique, and a good choice of u makes the expressions of the factors in K small which is not only nicer to read, but also makes it easier to recognize these factors with the LLL algorithm. To determine u , we use an expression that is linear in u and write it as $c \cdot u$, where $c \in \mathbb{Q}$. We then try to find a good choice of c that *absorbs* common factors and denominators.

Example 4.4.2 (Determining u). Continuing with example 4.4.1, we use the LLL algorithm to compute

$$t(v) = \frac{-1}{2^{42} \cdot 7^7} (-2^6 \cdot 3^{12} \cdot 49667 \cdot 1452815993$$

$$+ 2^4 \cdot 3^{13} \cdot 5 \cdot 14543 \cdot 393024407v + 3^{13} \cdot 167 \cdot 9697 \cdot 1862489v^2).$$

The only common prime factor with power greater than 9 is given by 3. So we factor the expression linearly in u into $c_2 = 3 \cdot u$ where

$$u = \left(\frac{-1}{2^{42} \cdot 7^7} (-2^6 \cdot 3^3 \cdot 49667 \cdot 1452815993 + 2^4 \cdot 3^4 \cdot 5 \cdot 14543 \cdot 393024407v + 3^4 \cdot 167 \cdot 9697 \cdot 1862489v^2) \right)^{1/9}.$$

Next, we try to improve on this initial choice of u . We do this by looking at the next coefficient that is quadratic in u . We then recognize the expression

$$t_2(v) = \frac{c_3}{u^2} = -\frac{3^3 \cdot 11 \cdot 19 \cdot 79}{2^2 \cdot 137^2} - \frac{2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 23^2}{137^2}v - \frac{3 \cdot 5669}{137^2}v^2,$$

for which a new denominator of 2 and 137 appears. We therefore improve u in an additional iteration where we update u so that $t_2(v)$ has only trivial denominators. This is done by *absorbing* the additional factor of $2 \cdot 137$ into u , which results in our final choice:

$$u = \left(\frac{3^3 \cdot 49667 \cdot 1452815993}{2^{45} \cdot 7^7 \cdot 137^9} - \frac{3^4 \cdot 5 \cdot 14543 \cdot 393024407}{2^{47} \cdot 7^7 \cdot 137^9}v - \frac{3^4 \cdot 167 \cdot 9697 \cdot 1862489}{2^{51} \cdot 7^7 \cdot 137^9}v^2 \right)^{1/9}.$$

This approach is rather tedious, but can be automated. However, the choice of u can be considered experimental, and there is no guarantee that the best choice of u has been found.

4.4.4 Determining the Expansion Coefficients

Once u and K have been determined, the expansion coefficients can be found by dividing the numerical expressions by the appropriate powers of u . The resulting expressions can then be identified as elements in K that are (hopefully) relatively small.

Example 4.4.3 (Recognizing expansion coefficients). Using the same subgroup as in the previous examples, we get the following expansion for $f_0 \in S_2(G)$

$$f(q_9) = q_9 + (822u)q_9^2 + ((-68028v^2 - 253920v - 445797)u^2)q_9^3 + \dots \quad (4.24)$$

Numerical Computation of Belyi Maps and Modular Forms for Genus Zero Subgroups

Parts of this chapter were used in the paper [25, Section 5].

In this chapter, we use well-known and highly efficient algorithms to compute Belyi maps for genus zero noncongruence subgroups. From these we obtain the Hauptmodul (see section 2.8) and show how bases of cusp forms and modular forms can be obtained from it. This provides an alternative method to the approach taken in chapter 4, which is restricted to subgroups of genus zero, but provides rigorous results and is usually faster.

5.1 Computation of Genus Zero Belyi Maps

Theorem 5.1.1 (Atkin-Swinnerton-Dyer). A necessary and sufficient condition for $f(\tau)$ to be a modular function on a subgroup of finite index in Γ is that $f(\tau)$ is an algebraic function of j and that its only branch points should be branch points of order 2, where $j = 1728$, and branching points of order 3, where $j = 0$, and branching points at which j is infinite.

Proof. See Atkin-Swinnerton-Dyer [8, Theorem 1]. □

In particular, note that j , when viewed as a function on the modular curve $X(G)$ of some finite index subgroup $G \leq \Gamma$, gives an example of a *Belyi map*.

Definition 5.1.1 (Belyi map). Let X be a compact Riemann surface. Then a holomorphic function

$$f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C}), \tag{5.1}$$

is said to be a *Belyi map* if it is unramified away from three points.

Belyi maps derive their name from a famous theorem of Belyi [75]

Theorem 5.1.2 (Belyi). A compact Riemann surface X (equivalently, an algebraic curve) over \mathbb{C} can be defined over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ if and only if there exists a Belyi map on X .

Proof. See Belyi [76, Theorem 1]. □

Belyi maps and their computation are an interesting topic in their own right, with numerous applications in number theory and algebraic geometry. For an overview see the survey by Sijsling and Voight [13], we will only recall some of the computational details here.

Let G be a finite index subgroup of Γ . Then the covering map

$$R : X(G) \rightarrow X(\Gamma) \cong \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{C}), \quad (5.2)$$

is a Belyi map, where $X(G) = G \backslash \overline{\mathcal{H}}$ is the modular curve. If G is a subgroup of genus zero then the covering map $R(j_G)$ is a rational function in j_G , and branches over the images of the elliptic points and cusps. This means that R can be written as

$$R(j_G) = \frac{p_3(j_G)}{p_c(j_G)} = 1728 + \frac{p_2(j_G)}{p_c(j_G)}. \quad (5.3)$$

The ramification structure (i.e., the roots of p_2 , p_3 and p_c) can be determined from the cycle type of σ_S , σ_R and σ_T . Let us illustrate this with an example.

Example 5.1.1 (Determining the ramification structure from the permutation triple). Let G be a noncongruence subgroup with signature $(7, 0, 2, 1, 1)$ corresponding to the permutations $\sigma_S = (1)(2\ 4)(3\ 5)(6\ 7)$, $\sigma_R = (1\ 5\ 4)(2\ 7\ 3)(6)$ and $\sigma_T = (1\ 5\ 2)(3\ 4\ 7\ 6)$. By definition, p_2 must be of the form

$$p_2(j_G(\tau)) = \prod_{i=1}^7 (j_G(\tau) - j_G(e_{2,i})), \quad (5.4)$$

where we denote $e_{2,i}$ to be the elliptic point of order two, located at the coset of index i . Since some of the evaluations at the elliptic points are equal, we can write this as

$$p_2(j_G(\tau)) = (j_G(\tau) - j_G(e_{2,1}))(j_G(\tau) - j_G(e_{2,2}))^2(j_G(\tau) - j_G(e_{2,3}))^2(j_G(\tau) - j_G(e_{2,6}))^2. \quad (5.5)$$

This means that p_2 can be written in the form

$$p_2(j_G) = \left(j_G^3 + A_2 j_G^2 + B_2 j_G + C_2 \right)^2 (j_G + D_2), \quad (5.6)$$

where (by Belyi's theorem) $A_2, B_2, C_2, D_2 \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$. Similarly, p_3 and p_c can be factored into

$$p_3(j_G) = \left(j_G^2 + A_3 j_G + B_3 \right)^3 (j_G + C_3), \quad (5.7)$$

and

$$p_c(j_G) = (j_G + A_c)^4, \quad (5.8)$$

where the roots are given by $j_G(e_{3,i})$, resp. $j_G(c_i)$.

Once the structure of p_2 , p_3 and p_c has been determined, we can transform eq. (5.3) into

$$P(j_G) := p_3(j_G) - p_2(j_G) - 1728p_c(j_G) = 0, \quad (5.9)$$

where $P(j_G)$ is a polynomial whose coefficients are defined over symbolic expressions. The coefficients of $P(j_G)$ must vanish, which gives $\deg(P) = \deg(p_3) = \deg(p_2)$ polynomial equations

in the unknowns A_2, A_3, \dots . An additional equation is obtained by expanding $R(j_G)$ in $j_G(q_N)$ and by asserting that the constant term is equal to 744 if the cusp width at infinity is equal to one and vanishes otherwise.

Example 5.1.2 (Obtaining a system of nonlinear equations). Continuing our example and substituting the appropriate expressions for p_2, p_3 , and p_c into the coefficients of $P(j_G)$ in eq. (5.9) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= -1728A_c^4 + B_3^3C_3 - C_2^2D_2, \\ 0 &= 3A_3B_3^2C_3 - 6912A_c^3 + B_3^3 - 2B_2C_2D_2 - C_2^2, \\ 0 &= 3A_3B_3^2 - 10368A_c^2 - 2B_2C_2 + (2A_3^2B_3 + (A_3^2 + 2B_3)B_3 + B_3^2)C_3 - (B_2^2 + 2A_2C_2)D_2, \\ 0 &= 2A_3^2B_3 - B_2^2 + (A_3^2 + 2B_3)B_3 + B_3^2 - 2A_2C_2 + ((A_3^2 + 2B_3)A_3 + 4A_3B_3)C_3 - 2(A_2B_2 + C_2)D_2 - 6912A_c, \\ 0 &= (A_3^2 + 2B_3)A_3 - 2A_2B_2 + 4A_3B_3 + 3(A_3^2 + B_3)C_3 - (A_2^2 + 2B_2)D_2 - 2C_2 - 1728, \\ 0 &= -A_2^2 + 3A_3^2 + 3A_3C_3 - 2A_2D_2 - 2B_2 + 3B_3, \\ 0 &= -2A_2 + 3A_3 + C_3 - D_2, \end{aligned}$$

and get the additional linear equation

$$3A_3 + C_3 - 4A_c = 0.$$

One can try to solve these systems of equations directly, for example using Gröbner bases [13, Section 2]. However, this quickly becomes infeasible for all but the simplest examples. A much more efficient approach is to use a numerical method to compute approximations to the evaluation of the Hauptmodul at the elliptic points and cusps. These approximations can then be used as initial values for Newton iterations to determine the unknown coefficients with high accuracy. The LLL algorithm can then be used to identify the expressions as algebraic numbers (analogous to section 4.4.4). This approach was proposed by Atkin-Swinnerton-Dyer [8], and its effectiveness was demonstrated by Monien [14, 15], who used it to compute Belyi maps for genus-zero noncongruence subgroups of large index and degree of the number field. Similar approaches using approximations of modular forms as initial values for Newton iterations have been used in [12, 40, 77, 78].

5.1.1 Finding Initial Values for Newton's Method

Throughout this work, we have computed the initial values for Newton's method using the algorithm that is described in chapter 4. The Fourier expansion of the Hauptmodul at infinity can be normalized to be of the form $q_N^{-1} + 0 + a_1q_N + a_2q_N^2 + \dots$. The values of the Hauptmodul at the other cusps are finite which means that their expansions are of the form $a_0 + a_1q_{N_c} + \dots$

Remark 5.1.3. It is important to note that the q_N^{-1} terms form the right-hand side of the linear system of equations and therefore do not enter \tilde{V} . This means that the largest entries for each column of \tilde{V} are still on the diagonal and therefore the mixed-precision iterative solving techniques of chapter 4 can also be used to compute j_G .

For the examples considered in this work, it is sufficient to numerically compute the Fourier expansion of the Hauptmodul to 50 digits of precision (although computations at lower precision would probably have worked as well). The evaluations of the Hauptmodul at the elliptic points can then be

computed by evaluating the Hauptmodul at $\gamma_i(i)$ and $\gamma_i(\rho)$ where γ_i denotes the coset representative of the corresponding coset (it is preferable to choose the cusp expansion with the fastest convergence for the evaluation at these points in order to maximize the precision). The values at the cusps outside infinity are simply given by the leading coefficients in the cusp expansions.

5.1.2 Applying Newton's Method

Once the initial values have been obtained the multivariate Newton method can be used to improve the accuracy of these values. For simplicity, we will use $x = j_G$ in this section. We also use $[x^n]P$ to denote the coefficient of x^n in P . Then the Jacobian of the system of polynomial equations is given by a $(\mu + 1) \times (\mu + 1)$ matrix (where μ is the index of G), which has the form

$$J(P) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial A_2} [x^0]P & \frac{\partial}{\partial B_2} [x^0]P & \cdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial A_2} [x^1]P & \frac{\partial}{\partial B_2} [x^1]P & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial A_2} [x^\mu]P & \frac{\partial}{\partial B_2} [x^\mu]P & \cdots \end{pmatrix}. \quad (5.10)$$

Let $X^{[m]} \in \mathbb{C}^\mu$ be the vector containing the numerical approximations of the unknowns A_2, B_2, \dots at the m -th iteration. Then we can use the update steps

$$X^{[m+1]} = X^{[m]} - [J(P(X^{[m]}))]^{-1} P(X^{[m]}), \quad (5.11)$$

to iteratively increase the precision of the approximations of X . As is standard with Newton's method, this procedure achieves quadratic convergence.

We note that, from a numerical point of view, it is preferable to perform the update steps by solving the linear system of equations

$$J(P(X^{[m]})) \cdot d^{[m]} = P(X^{[m]}), \quad (5.12)$$

instead of computing the matrix inverse of the Jacobian (see the discussion in section 4.3.2). Analogous to iterative refinement, the update steps are then given by

$$X^{[m+1]} = X^{[m]} + d^{[m]}. \quad (5.13)$$

We used ARB's LU decomposition to solve eq. (5.12) (i.e., a direct solving technique). For large index examples it may be preferable to perform this solving iteratively, for example by using preconditioned GMRES (see section 4.3.2).

As an additional implementation detail, we note that instead of computing the entries of the Jacobian matrix by symbolic computation of the partial derivatives and evaluating them by plugging in the corresponding approximations of the variables, it is instead preferable to compute the columns of the Jacobian by univariate polynomial multiplication, which was used by Monien in [14, 15]. To illustrate, suppose that P is of the form

$$P = (a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots)^{k_a} \cdot (b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + \dots)^{k_b} \cdot \dots + \dots, \quad (5.14)$$

then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial a_i} P = k_a x^i (a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots)^{k_a - 1} \cdot (b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + \dots)^{k_b}. \quad (5.15)$$

Constructing this polynomial by using multiplications of univariate polynomials over \mathbb{C} (for which we used ARB's polynomial implementation) then yields in a polynomial whose coefficients correspond to a column of J , since

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial a_i} [x^j] P = [x^j] \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial a_i} P \right). \quad (5.16)$$

By applying this procedure to all unknowns (and possibly reusing terms for optimization), all entries of J can be efficiently assembled.

5.1.3 Identifying the Belyi Map

Once the coefficients of the Belyi map have been computed with sufficient precision, the LLL algorithm can be used to identify K and u .

Example 5.1.3. Continuing the example of this section, we find that the Belyi map is given by

$$\begin{aligned} R(x) &= \frac{(x^2 + 444ux - 148284u^2)^3 (x + 516u)}{(x + 462u)^4}, \\ &= 1728 + \frac{(x - 996u)(x^3 + 1422ux^2 + 822204u^2x + 185029704u^3)^2}{(x + 462u)^4}, \end{aligned} \quad (5.17)$$

where $u = (2/823543)^{1/3}$ which means that $K = \mathbb{Q}$.

We can verify that the result of the Belyi map is correct by checking that eq. (5.9) holds for the recognized polynomials.

5.1.4 The Number Field L

To perform closed-form arithmetic over the number field of the Belyi map (or general modular forms of noncongruence subgroups), we introduce a new number field $L = \mathbb{Q}(w)$. If the cusp width at infinity is one, then $L = K$. Otherwise we choose L as the number field of u (note that we do not reduce this number field with `polredabs` here). The advantage of this choice of L is that one can efficiently convert elements of L into u - v -factored expressions (and vice versa). To do this, we compute $v(w)$ (i.e., the generator of K written in terms of the generator of L) using the LLL algorithm. Once this is found, converting elements from K to L is simply a substitution of $v(w)$. Similarly, converting elements from L to K can be done by substituting

$$w^N = u_{\text{interior}}(v), \quad (5.18)$$

where $u_{\text{interior}}(v)$ denotes the term whose N -th root is being computed (i.e., $u = (u_{\text{interior}}(v))^{1/N}$).

Example 5.1.4 (Conversions between K and L). Let G be the subgroup generated by $\sigma_S = (1)(2\ 4)(3\ 7)(5)(6\ 8)$, $\sigma_R = (1\ 7\ 4)(2\ 8\ 5)(3)(6)$ and $\sigma_T = (1\ 7\ 3\ 4\ 8\ 6\ 5\ 2)$. Then $K = \mathbb{Q}(v)$ with

$$v^2 - 2 = 0, \quad (5.19)$$

with embedding $v = -1.4142\dots$ and

$$u = (-99376/823543v - 140492/823543)^{1/8}. \quad (5.20)$$

We find $L = \mathbb{Q}(w)$ with

$$-823543w^{16} - 280984w^8 + 16 = 0, \quad (5.21)$$

with embedding $w = -0.2084\dots - 0.2084\dots i$, which leads to

$$v(w) = -823543/99376w^8 - 35123/24844. \quad (5.22)$$

Then the following expressions are equivalent

$$(-28v + 56)u^2 \iff 5764801/24844w^{10} + 593677/6211w^2. \quad (5.23)$$

5.2 Computing Fourier Expansions of the Hauptmodul from the Belyi Map

The result of the Belyi map can be used to explicitly compute Fourier expansions of the Hauptmodul.

5.2.1 Computing Fourier Expansions at Infinity

We have seen that

$$j = R(x) = \frac{p_3(x)}{p_c(x)}, \quad (5.24)$$

which we have to solve for $x = j_G$. To do this, we work with the reciprocal

$$\frac{1}{j} = \frac{1}{R(x)} = \frac{p_c(x)}{p_3(x)} =: \frac{1}{R(1/\tilde{x})} = \frac{p_c(1/\tilde{x})}{p_3(1/\tilde{x})}, \quad (5.25)$$

where we set $\tilde{x} := 1/x$. Expanding $1/R(1/\tilde{x})$ as a power series in \tilde{x} results in

$$\sqrt[N]{\frac{1}{j}} = \sqrt[N]{\frac{1}{R(1/\tilde{x})}} =: s(\tilde{x}), \quad (5.26)$$

where N is the width of the cusp at infinity and the roots are the roots of the power series. The power series $s(\tilde{x})$ has valuation one, so we can compute the reversion

$$\tilde{x} = s^{-1}(\sqrt[N]{1/j}), \quad (5.27)$$

to get

$$x = 1/s^{-1}(\sqrt[N]{1/j}). \quad (5.28)$$

Substituting the q -expansion of $\sqrt[N]{1/j}$ (which is a power series in q_N) then gives the q -expansion of j_G at infinity.

5.2.2 Computing Fourier Expansions at other Cusps

To compute the Fourier expansion at a cusp $\neq i\infty$, we perform the transformation

$$x \mapsto x + j_G(c_i) := \tilde{x}, \quad (5.29)$$

where $j_G(c_i)$ denotes the evaluation at the cusp. Then

$$\sqrt[N]{\frac{1}{j}} = \sqrt[N]{\frac{1}{R(\tilde{x})}} =: s(\tilde{x}), \quad (5.30)$$

where N is the width of the considered cusp (not at infinity) and

$$x = j_G(c_i) + s^{-1}(\sqrt[N]{1/j}). \quad (5.31)$$

5.2.3 Computing Fourier Expansions over L

Once the Belyi map is explicitly recognized over L , the expansions at infinity can be computed by performing the arithmetic of section 5.2.1 over L . For this, we use the generic routines provided by SAGE [35]. The advantage of this approach is that the Fourier coefficients of the Hauptmodul are rigorous. Note that expansions of cusps outside infinity cannot be computed in general over L , since they are defined over number fields $\mathbb{Q}(v^{1/N_c})\mathbb{Q}(w)$, where N_c denotes the cusp width of the considered cusp outside infinity. The disadvantage of this approach is that it can be slow, because arithmetic over L can be slow, and because SAGE's generic series reversion routines do not seem to use asymptotically fast algorithms.

5.2.4 Computing Fourier Expansions over \mathbb{C}

To compute Fourier coefficients of the Hauptmodul over \mathbb{C} (more precisely, using arbitrary precision arithmetic), we use ARB [54] to perform the computations of sections 5.2.1 and 5.2.2. The bottleneck of these calculations is the reversion of the power series. We found that series reversion is significantly faster in ARB than in SAGE [35] or PARI [36]. ARB has implemented the algorithm of [79], which reduces the asymptotic complexity from $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ to $\mathcal{O}(N^{1/2}M(N) + N^2)$, where $M(N)$ is the complexity of the polynomial multiplication. ARB also provides implementations of the fast power series composition algorithms from [80], which we use for the substitutions.

We note, however, that the approach of sections 5.2.1 and 5.2.2 can be very ill-conditioned which means that one may have to use a higher working precision than the target precision. This seems to be caused by the fact that the reversed series s^{-1} can have very large coefficients, making the substitution ill-conditioned. We are unaware of any transformation that improves the conditioning, so the best we could come up with is an approach where we choose the working precision *sufficiently large* in order to overcome the ill-conditioning. We first compute s^{-1} to low precision (typically to 64 bits, but not in double precision because the exponents might over/underflow). The size of the resulting coefficients gives an estimate of the required precision. If the computation fails at the estimated precision, we try again with higher precision. The interval arithmetic of ARB is very useful for this, since it shows whether the working precision was high enough. While this strategy obviously always leads to correct

Digit Precision	Series Reversion	Mixed Precision IR
200	4.63s	4.28s
400	22.3s	38.1s
600	59s	150s

Table 5.1: Benchmarks for the numerical computation of j_G at all cusps for the noncongruence subgroup with signature $(7, 0, 2, 1, 1)$ generated by $\sigma_S = (1\ 6)(2)(3\ 4)(5\ 7)$ and $\sigma_R = (1\ 7\ 6)(2\ 3\ 5)(4)$. The expansion order is chosen to achieve convergence up to the specified digit precision. For the series reversion approach the expansion orders depend on the cusp width of the considered cusp. The benchmarks were run on a Intel i7 4770k @ 3.50GHz CPU and run on a single thread.

Digit Precision	Series Reversion	Mixed Precision IR
100	2.74s	1.97s
200	9.24s	11.0s
400	56s	109s

Table 5.2: Benchmarks for the numerical computation of j_G for the noncongruence subgroup with signature $(17, 0, 3, 1, 2)$ generated by $\sigma_S = (1\ 8)(2\ 17)(3\ 9)(4\ 5)(6)(7\ 12)(10\ 16)(11\ 13)(14\ 15)$ and $\sigma_R = (1\ 9\ 4)(2\ 12\ 8)(3\ 10\ 17)(5)(6\ 7\ 13)(11\ 14\ 16)(15)$. For further remarks on the benchmarks, see Table 5.1.

results, it is not very elegant, and it would be useful to find a way to rewrite the problem so that all computations can be done at the target precision.

5.2.5 Power Series Reversion vs. Hejhal's Method

It is interesting to examine how the performance of the approach of section 5.2.4 compares to that of the mixed precision IR algorithm from chapter 4. Benchmarks for this can be found in tables 5.1 and 5.2. From these benchmarks, it can be seen that computing the Hauptmodul from the Belyi map is typically faster than using mixed precision IR. An additional benefit is that the results have rigorous error bounds.

5.3 Constructing Modular Forms and Cusp Forms from the Hauptmodul

In the previous section, we saw how the Fourier expansion of the Hauptmodul can be computed from the Belyi map. In this section we will discuss how to construct complete bases of S_k and M_k from this result.

5.3.1 Constructing Modular Functions that are Holomorphic at all Cusps Except Infinity

By theorem 2.8.2, every modular function on G that is holomorphic outside infinity can be written as a polynomial in the Hauptmodul j_G . Since j_G is a modular function (i.e., weight zero form), its derivative $j'_G(\tau) := \frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} j_G(\tau)$ is a (weakly holomorphic) modular form of weight two. Higher weight forms can be constructed by computing powers of $j'_G(\tau)$, and the monomial $(j'_G(\tau))^{k/2}$ is

therefore of weight k . If f is a holomorphic modular form of weight k , then $f(\tau)/(j'_G(\tau))^{k/2}$ is a (meromorphic) modular function with poles at the zeros of $j'_G(\tau)^{k/2}$, which are located at the elliptic points and cusps other than infinity. To make this modular function holomorphic outside infinity we cancel its poles by multiplying it with the polynomial

$$B(j_G(\tau)) = B_e(j_G(\tau)) \cdot B_c(j_G(\tau)), \quad (5.32)$$

which is designed to cancel out all the poles up to the correct order. Since j_G is a modular function on G , multiplying a modular form by a polynomial in j_G does not destroy the modularity.

Note that $j'_G(\tau)$ has zeros of order one at the cusps that are not infinity. Therefore, we can use

$$B_c(j_G(\tau)) = \prod_{c \neq i\infty} (j_G(\tau) - j_G(c))^{\alpha_c}, \quad (5.33)$$

with

$$\alpha_c = k/2. \quad (5.34)$$

At the elliptic points, $j'_G(\tau)$ has zeros of order $n_{e_i} - 1$, where n_{e_i} denotes the order of the elliptic point which is either 2 or 3. From this, we construct

$$B_e(j_G(\tau)) = \prod_e (j_G(\tau) - j_G(e))^{\beta_e}, \quad (5.35)$$

with

$$\beta_e = \left\lfloor \frac{k(n_e - 1)}{2n_e} \right\rfloor. \quad (5.36)$$

(Note that we have to divide by the order of the elliptic point since $(j_G(\tau) - j_G(e))$ has a zero of order n_e , see for example [38, pp. 227–228].) By construction, $f(\tau)/(j'_G(\tau))^{k/2} \cdot B(j_G(\tau))$ is a modular function, which is holomorphic outside infinity, and thus by theorem 2.8.2

$$f(\tau)/(j'_G(\tau))^{k/2} \cdot B(j_G(\tau)) = P(j_G(\tau)). \quad (5.37)$$

5.3.2 Prescribing Cusp Valuations to Construct Bases of Modular Forms

In the previous section we saw how to construct modular functions that are holomorphic outside infinity. We now use eq. (5.37) to construct modular forms with prescribed valuations at the cusps that can be used to construct bases of S_k and M_k . These constructed forms have valuations at the cusps that are equivalent to those of a Victor Miller basis and are therefore linearly independent. From eq. (5.37) we get that

$$f(\tau) = (j'_G(\tau))^{k/2} \cdot \frac{P(j_G(\tau))}{B(j_G(\tau))}. \quad (5.38)$$

To get a basis of forms of M_k , the i -th form f_i should have valuation i at infinity, where $i = 0, 1, \dots$. Note that $j_G(\tau)$ and $j'_G(\tau)$ both have a pole of order 1 at infinity (i.e., valuation -1 with respect to q_N). So we get the desired behavior at infinity by choosing $P_i(j_G(\tau))$ as a monomial

$$P_i(j_G(\tau)) = j_G(\tau)^{\deg(B) - k/2 - i}. \quad (5.39)$$

The construction of cusp forms $f_i \in S_k$ works similarly. In this case, f_i should have valuation 1 at all cusps outside infinity and valuation $i + 1$ at infinity. We hence get

$$\deg(P_i) = \deg(B) - k/2 - i - 1. \quad (5.40)$$

To force vanishing at the cusps outside infinity, we simply need to multiply by the factors $(j_G(\tau) - j_G(c))$. Let $n(c)$ be the number of cusps of G . So we get

$$P_i(j_G(\tau)) = \prod_{c \neq i\infty} (j_G(\tau) - j_G(c)) \cdot j_G(\tau)^{\deg(B) - k/2 - i - 1 - (n(c) - 1)}. \quad (5.41)$$

Example 5.3.1 (Constructing cusp form from Hauptmodul). Continuing with the example from this section, let us assume that we want to construct $f_0 \in S_4(G)$. By using the result of section 5.2, we compute the q -expansion of the Hauptmodul

$$j_G(\tau) = q_3^{-1} + 148932u^2q_3 + 35666932u^3q_3^2 + 7392301056u^4q_3^3 + \dots \quad (5.42)$$

The space $S_4(G)$ is one-dimensional and we get

$$f(\tau) = (j'_G(\tau))^2 \cdot \frac{P(j_G(\tau))}{B(j_G(\tau))} \quad (5.43)$$

$$= (j'_G(\tau))^2 \cdot \frac{(j_G(\tau) + 462u)}{(j_G(\tau) + 462u)^2(j_G(\tau) - 996u)(j_G(\tau) + 516u)}, \quad (5.44)$$

which results in the expansion

$$f(\tau) = q_3 + 18uq_3^2 - 8640u^2q_3^3 - 1823860u^3q_3^4 + \dots \quad (5.45)$$

The approach presented in this section can be used to explicitly compute modular and cusp forms over L , which means that the results are rigorous. An additional advantage from a performance point of view is that once the Fourier expansion of the Hauptmodul has been computed, the remaining forms can be obtained without additional expensive solving or series reversion. We note, however, that the division of power series may be ill-conditioned when working over \mathbb{C} for the problems involved. For this reason, it is useful to use ARB's interval arithmetic to ensure that the coefficients have been computed with sufficient accuracy. Once a basis of forms has been constructed, linear algebra can be used to transform the basis into reduced row echelon form.

Remark 5.3.1. It would be interesting to investigate the practicality and effectiveness of an approach where higher genus Newton methods (see for example [40, 78]) are used to compute the curve from which the modular forms can then be constructed.

Numerical Computation of Noncongruence Eisenstein Series

In this chapter we present a new approach to obtain high precision numerical approximations of the Fourier expansions of Eisenstein series on noncongruence subgroups. We exploit the fact that we have developed efficient methods for computing modular forms and cusp forms in chapters 4 and 5. By theorem 2.6.1, the Eisenstein series E_k can then be computed by computing the orthogonal complement of S_k in M_k with respect to the Petersson scalar product. This provides a very efficient way to compute Eisenstein series on noncongruence subgroups. These are particularly interesting to study because very few results are known about them. For this reason they were declared as one of the main goals for further investigation at the AIM workshop on noncongruence modular forms and modularity [81]. The only major result was obtained by Scholl [49, 82], who showed that Eisenstein series of weight two on noncongruence subgroups can be non-algebraic (unlike their congruence counterparts). However, Scholl's result could not yet be extended to Eisenstein series of higher weight. The computational perspective is arguably even worse: the only example of a computation of a non-trivial noncongruence Eisenstein series was recently given by Fiori and Franc [83], who computed the first coefficients of an Eisenstein series on a index 7 noncongruence subgroups to a few digits precision, despite spending over a month of CPU time. Their method is based on the evaluation of Dirichlet series, which converge however very slowly and is therefore not suitable for more involved computations.

6.1 Numerical Evaluation of Petersson Scalar Products

A key component of the approach described above is an efficient algorithm for computing Petersson scalar products, so in the following we will compare three different approaches.

6.1.1 Direct Numerical Integration

Recall from section 2.6 that the Petersson product on a subgroup $G \leq \Gamma$ with index μ is defined by the integral

$$\langle f, g \rangle_G := \frac{1}{\mu} \int_{G \setminus \mathcal{H}} f(\tau) \overline{g(\tau)} y^k d\tau. \tag{6.1}$$

One can therefore try to compute the double integral

$$\int_{-1/2}^{1/2} \left(\int_{\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{i\infty} f(\tau) \overline{g(\tau)} y^{k-2} dy \right) dx, \quad (6.2)$$

for each coset. However, even when using efficient doubly exponential integration methods, this approach requires $O(N^2 \log(N)^2)$ evaluations of modular forms and is quite slow in practice, see Cohen [16] for more details and benchmarks.

6.1.2 Nelson-Collins Formula

Recently, faster and more sophisticated approaches to the numerical computation of Petersson products have been developed. One of these alternative approaches is the use of a formula by Nelson [84] (see also Collins [85] for the case of multiple cusps). Using the cusp-normalizers as in the previous sections, Nelson's formula can be written as

$$\langle f, g \rangle_G = \frac{4(8\pi)^{-(k-1)}}{\mu} \sum_c \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{a_n^{(c)} \overline{b_n^{(c)}}}{n^{k-1}} W_k \left(4\pi \sqrt{n/N_c} \right), \quad (6.3)$$

where N_c is the cusp-width of cusp representative c and

$$W_k(x) = \sum_{m \geq 1} (mx)^{k-1} (mx K_{k-2}(mx) - K_{k-1}(mx)), \quad (6.4)$$

where $K_\nu(x)$ denotes the K-Bessel function. The Bessel functions can be evaluated using the implementation of ARB [54], although if performance is a concern, it is preferable to evaluate $W_k(x)$ as described in [86].

The elegance of this approach is that it can be used for very general types of modular forms, such as Maass cusp forms, and is straightforward to implement. A sufficient condition for the application of eq. (6.3) (assuming integer $k \geq 1$) is that $f \cdot g$ vanishes at all cusps. This means that at least one of f and g must be a cusp form. The $n = 0$ term can be omitted in any case for the examples considered in this work, since $a_0^{(c)} \overline{b_0^{(c)}} = 0$ (see the discussion in [86]).

The disadvantage of this approach is the convergence rate. Note that

$$K_\nu(z) \rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2z}} \exp(-z), \quad (6.5)$$

for large z , which means that $W_k(x)$ decays exponentially. The arguments of eq. (6.3) are only proportional to $\sqrt{n/N_c}$, which means that the series converges like $\exp(-\sqrt{n/N_c})$ and like

$$M_{\text{trunc}} = \left(\frac{\ln(10)D}{4\pi} \right)^2 \cdot N_c, \quad (6.6)$$

coefficients are needed to achieve convergence up to D digits of precision. This expansion order is higher than the expansion order M_0 needed to achieve convergence within the fundamental domain, since q -expansions of modular forms converge like $\exp(-n/N_C)$. The set of coefficients obtained by

the method of chapter 4 is therefore a priori insufficient to compute the Petersson product with D digits of precision. One could try to compute higher order coefficients as well, e.g. by using eq. (3.19), but this would be computationally expensive because the number of coefficients required is considerable.

6.1.3 Cohen-Haberland Formula

An alternative method has recently been presented by Cohen [6, 16, 86] and is based on the Haberland formula [87], which transforms the double integral of eq. (6.2) into *simpler* integrals that can be evaluated more efficiently (a generalization of Haberland's formula to finite index subgroups can be found in [6, Chapter 12.5]). This approach is restricted to holomorphic modular forms of weight $k \geq 2$ and is therefore less general than the method of Nelson and Collins (see [86] for a comparison between the use cases of both methods), but sufficient for the examples considered in this work.

Remark 6.1.1. Before giving the formulas, we should note that Cohen does not use width-absorbing cusp normalizers (see definition 3.3.1). Therefore, to follow Cohen's notation, we multiply the Fourier expansions obtained using the numerical methods of chapters 4 and 5 by factors $N_c^{-k/2}$ to obtain forms $\tilde{f}(\tau)$.

We follow Cohen [86] to define

$$I_n(A, B, \tilde{f}) := \int_A^B \tau^n \tilde{f}(\tau) d\tau, \quad (6.7)$$

and

$$G_j(A, B; C, D) := \int_A^B \int_C^D \tilde{f}_j(\tau) \overline{\tilde{g}_j(\tau_2)} (\tau - \overline{\tau_2})^{k-2} d\tau d\overline{\tau_2}, \quad (6.8)$$

where $A, B, C, D \in \overline{\mathcal{H}}$ and \tilde{f}_j, \tilde{g}_j denote expansions at the j -th coset representative. Let j denote a coset in the cycle of cusp c . Let $\gamma_j \in \Gamma$ denote the coset representative and $A_c \in \Gamma$ denote the (non width absorbing) cusp normalizer. Then there exists an integer $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$\gamma_j = A_c T^m, \quad (6.9)$$

where T is defined as in eq. (2.9). Then

$$\tilde{f}_j := \left(\tilde{f} |_{k} \gamma_j \right) (\tau) = \left(\tilde{f} |_{k} A_c T^m \right) (\tau) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n^{(c)} \zeta_{N_c}^{nm} q_{N_c}^n, \quad (6.10)$$

where $\zeta_{N_c} := \exp(2\pi i/N_c)$. Thus, coset expansions can be efficiently obtained by multiplying the cusp expansions by roots of unity.

We now assume, without loss of generality, that f is a cusp form (this does not lose generality, since f and g can be exchanged by eq. (2.38)). Applying the formulas of [86, Section 3.3] we get

$$\mu(2i)^{k-1} \langle \tilde{f}, \tilde{g} \rangle_G = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq \mu} G_j(\rho+1, i\infty; i, i+1), \quad (6.11)$$

$$= \sum_{1 \leq j \leq \mu} \sum_{0 \leq n \leq k-2} (-1)^n \binom{k-2}{n} \int_{\rho+1}^{i\infty} \tau^{k-2-n} \tilde{f}_j(\tau) d\tau \int_i^{i+1} \overline{\tau^n \tilde{g}_j(\tau)} d\tau, \quad (6.12)$$

$$= \sum_{1 \leq j \leq \mu} \sum_{0 \leq n \leq k-2} (-1)^n \binom{k-2}{n} I_{k-2-n}(\rho+1, i\infty, \tilde{f}_j) \overline{I_n(i, i+1, \tilde{g}_j)}. \quad (6.13)$$

To compute the resulting partial periods we follow Cohen [86, Section 3.4]:

1. $\int_{\rho+1}^{i\infty} \tau^{k-2-n} \tilde{f}_j(\tau) d\tau = \sum_{l=1} a_l^{(j)} \int_{\rho+1}^{i\infty} \tau^{k-2-n} \exp(2\pi i l \tau / N_c) d\tau$:
We evaluate these integrals using

$$\int_a^{i\infty} \exp(2\pi i m \tau) \tau^n d\tau = \exp(2\pi i m a) \sum_{s=0}^n \left(\frac{(-1)^s a^{n-s}}{(2\pi i m)^{s+1}} \prod_{j=n+1-s}^n j \right), \quad (6.14)$$

where $a \in \mathcal{H}$, see Stein [34, Lemma 10.4].

2. $\int_i^{i+1} \tau^n \tilde{g}_j(\tau) d\tau = \sum_{l=0} a_l^{(j)} \int_i^{i+1} \tau^n \exp(2\pi i l \tau / N_c) d\tau$:
For the case $l > 0$ we can evaluate these integrals by using

$$\int_i^{i+1} \tau^n \exp(2\pi i l \tau / N_c) d\tau = \int_i^{i\infty} \tau^n \exp(2\pi i l \tau / N_c) d\tau - \int_{i+1}^{i\infty} \tau^n \exp(2\pi i l \tau / N_c) d\tau, \quad (6.15)$$

and use eq. (6.14) for the remaining integrals. For the case $l = 0$ we use classical polynomial integration instead.

From a technical perspective we remark that the evaluation of the period integrals has a large overhead which means that many terms can be cached and reused. Despite this we have not implemented any technical optimizations because the evaluation of Petersson products typically takes negligible amount of CPU time compared to the computation of Fourier expansions.

6.1.4 Concluding Remarks

We have seen that the numerical evaluation of the Petersson product requires numerical approximations of the Fourier expansions at all cusps. These are in general non-trivial to obtain, even for congruence subgroups (see for example Cohen [86] and Collins [85]). In our case however, the algorithms of chapters 4 and 5 provide them as a *byproduct*.

For the examples considered in this work, the Cohen-Haberland formula is the preferred approach due to its superior convergence rate and performance. This is particularly useful when Hejhal's method is used to compute the Fourier expansions, since this result can then be used to compute the Petersson product (usually) without loss of precision. However, we also use the Nelson-Collins formula (at low precision) as an additional independent check that the computed products are correct.

6.2 Numerical Computation of Fourier Expansions of Noncongruence Eisenstein Series

We can now make use of the numerical evaluation of Petersson products to compute the orthogonal complement of S_k in M_k which gives a numerical approximation of Eisenstein series. Since $E_k \subset M_k$

we can make the ansatz

$$e_i = \sum_{j=0}^{\dim(M_k)-1} c_{i,j} m_j, \quad (6.16)$$

where $e_i \in E_k$ denotes a basis of E_k , $m_j \in M_k$ denotes a basis of M_k and $c_{i,j} \in \mathbb{C}$. We call $c_{i,j}$ *Eisenstein basis factors*. Let s_i denote the basis forms of S_k . To obtain the Eisenstein basis factors, we compute the kernel elements of the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \langle s_0, m_0 \rangle & \langle s_0, m_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle s_0, m_{\dim(M_k)-1} \rangle \\ \langle s_1, m_0 \rangle & \langle s_1, m_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle s_1, m_{\dim(M_k)-1} \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \langle s_{\dim(S_k)-1}, m_0 \rangle & \langle s_{\dim(S_k)-1}, m_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle s_{\dim(S_k)-1}, m_{\dim(M_k)-1} \rangle \end{pmatrix}, \quad (6.17)$$

using linear algebra.

Example 6.2.1 (Computation of Eisenstein series). Let us illustrate the above procedure for the example $E_4(\Gamma_0(11))$ (working with a congruence subgroup leads to simpler expressions, but it should be obvious that the described approach also works for noncongruence subgroups). We get $\dim(M_4(\Gamma_0(11))) = 4$ and $\dim(S_4(\Gamma_0(11))) = 2$. So we get

$$e_i = c_{i,0} \cdot m_0 + c_{i,1} \cdot m_1 + c_{i,2} \cdot m_2 + c_{i,3} \cdot m_3, \quad (6.18)$$

and

$$\langle s_0, e_i \rangle = c_{i,0} \langle s_0, m_0 \rangle + c_{i,1} \langle s_0, m_1 \rangle + c_{i,2} \langle s_0, m_2 \rangle + c_{i,3} \langle s_0, m_3 \rangle \stackrel{!}{=} 0, \quad (6.19)$$

$$\langle s_1, e_i \rangle = c_{i,0} \langle s_1, m_0 \rangle + c_{i,1} \langle s_1, m_1 \rangle + c_{i,2} \langle s_1, m_2 \rangle + c_{i,3} \langle s_1, m_3 \rangle \stackrel{!}{=} 0, \quad (6.20)$$

which gives 2 equations in 4 unknowns for $i = 0, 1$. We now impose the (linearly independent) normalizations ($c_{0,0} = 1, c_{0,1} = 0$) and ($c_{1,0} = 0, c_{1,1} = 1$). (Note that by this normalization, the constructed Eisenstein series are in reduced row echelon form.) The case $i = 0$ now therefore corresponds to

$$c_{0,2} \langle s_0, m_2 \rangle + c_{0,3} \langle s_0, m_3 \rangle \stackrel{!}{=} -\langle s_0, m_0 \rangle, \quad (6.21)$$

$$c_{0,2} \langle s_1, m_2 \rangle + c_{0,3} \langle s_1, m_3 \rangle \stackrel{!}{=} -\langle s_1, m_0 \rangle. \quad (6.22)$$

An analogous linear system of equations can be obtained for the case $i = 1$. Evaluating the Petersson products and solving the linear system of equations results in

$$c_{0,0} = 1, c_{0,1} = 0, c_{0,2} = 0, c_{0,3} = 0, \quad (6.23)$$

and

$$c_{0,0} = 0, c_{0,1} = 1, c_{0,2} = 9, c_{0,3} = 28. \quad (6.24)$$

Substituting these results and the computed expansions for m_i into eq. (6.16) we get

$$e_0 = 1 + 240q^{11} + 2160q^{22} + 6720q^{33} + \dots, \quad (6.25)$$

$$e_1 = q + 9q^2 + 28q^3 + 73q^4 + \dots \quad (6.26)$$

6.2.1 Canonical Normalization

The above procedure produces a basis for E_k in reduced row echelon form. A more natural normalization may be given by the *canonical normalization*, for which each basis element has a leading order coefficient that is 1 at one of the cusps and 0 at the others (except in the weight two case, where we must break the symmetry and leave the normalization at one of the cusps undefined). We can transform to this basis by using linear algebra.

6.2.2 Results

We have found this to be a very efficient approach to computing Eisenstein series. For example, reproducing the computation of [83] takes less than 0.2s of CPU time, and extending the computation from 19 digits precision to 1500 digits takes 13min and 20s, from which only about 9s were used to compute the Petersson products. We therefore used this algorithm to compute the Eisenstein series of weight $k \leq 6$ for 221 noncongruence subgroups with index $\mu \leq 17$, of which 200 were of genus zero and 21 were of genus one, to 1500 digits precision (see chapter 7). To our surprise, we did not find any non-trivial algebraic Eisenstein series in this data. It seems that the Petersson products introduce a non-algebraicity, that might be overcome by choosing a different normalization. We leave this for future work.

Remark 6.2.1. We say that an Eisenstein series on a noncongruence subgroup G is non-trivial if it is not an oldform and if $M_k(G) \neq E_k(G)$ (which happens when $\dim(S_k(G)) \neq 0$).

6.3 Example of a Non-Trivial Algebraic Eisenstein Series

One noncongruence subgroup for which it is known by Scholl's theorem [82, Theorem 3] that the weight two Eisenstein series are algebraic is given by the subgroup H_5 [81]

$$H_5 := \left\{ \gamma \in \Gamma \mid \left(\frac{\eta^{12}(11\tau)}{\eta^{12}(\tau)} \right)^{1/5} \Big|_{\gamma} = \left(\frac{\eta^{12}(11\tau)}{\eta^{12}(\tau)} \right)^{1/5} \right\}, \quad (6.27)$$

where $\eta(\tau) = q_{24} \prod_{n \geq 1} (1 - q^n)$ denotes the *Dedekind eta function*. (Note that $\eta^{12}(11\tau)/\eta^{12}(\tau)$ is a modular function on $\Gamma_0(11)$ which means that H_5 is a character group of $\Gamma_0(11)$.) The subgroup H_5 can be generated by $\sigma_S = (1\ 2)(3\ 4)(5\ 8)(6\ 9)(7\ 12)(10\ 14)(11\ 15)(13\ 17)(16\ 19)(18\ 21)(20\ 24)(22\ 28)(23\ 30)(25\ 32)(26\ 33)(27\ 36)(29\ 37)(31\ 38)(34\ 40)(35\ 41)(39\ 43)(42\ 45)(44\ 49)(46\ 51)(47\ 53)(48\ 55)(50\ 57)(52\ 58)(54\ 60)(56\ 59)$ and $\sigma_R = (1\ 3\ 2)(4\ 5\ 9)(6\ 13\ 14)(7\ 15\ 8)(10\ 18\ 17)(11\ 19\ 12)(16\ 23\ 24)(20\ 31\ 32)(21\ 22\ 33)(25\ 39\ 38)(26\ 34\ 40)(27\ 41\ 28)(29\ 37\ 30)(35\ 45\ 36)(42\ 50\ 51)(43\ 44\ 53)(46\ 52\ 58)(47\ 59\ 60)(48\ 55\ 49)(54\ 57\ 56)$. This means that H_5 has signature $(60, 1, 10, 0, 0)$, five cusps of width 1 and five cusps of width 11. We get that $\dim(S_2(H_5)) = 1$ and the unique cusp form is given by the $\Gamma_0(11)$ oldform

$$s_0 = q_1 - 2q_1^2 - q_1^3 + 2q_1^4 + q_1^5 + 2q_1^6 - 2q_1^7 + \dots \quad (6.28)$$

We have computed a basis for $M_2(H_5)$ to about 500 digits precision and found that

$$\begin{aligned}
 m_0 &= 1 + \frac{1536887748}{390625}q^9 + \frac{-6115630700124}{48828125}q^{11} + \frac{94006270544076}{244140625}q^{12} + \frac{657558573754632}{1220703125}q^{13} + \dots, \\
 m_1 &= q + \frac{607665972}{390625}q^9 + \frac{-2302295704656}{48828125}q^{11} + \frac{34833599928379}{244140625}q^{12} + \frac{239116450435908}{1220703125}q^{13} + \dots, \\
 m_2 &= q^2 + \frac{198762176}{390625}q^9 + \frac{-764199359708}{48828125}q^{11} + \frac{11638490025852}{244140625}q^{12} + \frac{80950723119894}{1220703125}q^{13} + \dots, \\
 m_3 &= q^3 + \frac{-15815546}{78125}q^9 + \frac{72859283252}{9765625}q^{11} + \frac{-46278038828}{1953125}q^{12} + \frac{-8234433934296}{244140625}q^{13} + \dots, \\
 m_4 &= q^4 + \frac{-3679062}{15625}q^9 + \frac{2940544281}{390625}q^{11} + \frac{-225430190916}{9765625}q^{12} + \frac{-1525694815502}{48828125}q^{13} + \dots, \\
 m_5 &= q^5 + \frac{-110956}{15625}q^9 + \frac{85686617}{15625}q^{11} + \frac{-1297214623}{78125}q^{12} + \frac{-45883527858}{1953125}q^{13} + \dots, \\
 m_6 &= q^6 + \frac{-9232}{125}q^9 + \frac{31877317}{15625}q^{11} + \frac{-469169468}{78125}q^{12} + \frac{-3234820494}{390625}q^{13} + \dots, \\
 m_7 &= q^7 + \frac{-672}{625}q^9 + \frac{2068478}{3125}q^{11} + \frac{-5906684}{3125}q^{12} + \frac{-221436797}{78125}q^{13} + \dots, \\
 m_8 &= q^8 + \frac{-28}{5}q^9 + \frac{10079}{125}q^{11} + \frac{-664248}{3125}q^{12} + \frac{-3672708}{15625}q^{13} + \dots, \\
 m_9 &= q^{10} + \frac{-38}{5}q^{11} + \frac{367}{25}q^{12} + \frac{6278}{125}q^{13} + \dots,
 \end{aligned}$$

up to about 300 terms.

Remark 6.3.1. For $M_2(H_5)$ we could not impose the Victor-Miller normalization. Instead, m_9 has valuation 10 and the remaining forms have a zero at the 10th coefficient.

Remark 6.3.2. We noticed that the linear system used to compute $M_2(H_5)$ is significantly less well conditioned than the other examples considered in this work. We expect this to be due to the relatively high dimensionality of the space, combined with the moderate size of μ . For this reason, we used the preconditioned GMRES solver (see section 4.3.2) instead of the iterative refinement approach (see section 4.3.3).

Computing the Petersson products between the forms, we determine from this that a basis for $E_2(H_5)$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 e_0 &= m_0 + \frac{-37283794635953844}{2166748046875}m_9, \\
 e_1 &= m_1 + \frac{-2583966146013468}{433349609375}m_9, \\
 e_2 &= m_2 + \frac{-178810564897398}{86669921875}m_9, \\
 e_3 &= m_3 + \frac{40215838981851}{34667968750}m_9, \\
 e_4 &= m_4 + \frac{6786803544201}{6933593750}m_9, \\
 e_5 &= m_5 + \frac{99702868152}{138671875}m_9, \\
 e_6 &= m_6 + \frac{13112388597}{55468750}m_9, \\
 e_7 &= m_7 + \frac{859023267}{11093750}m_9, \\
 e_8 &= m_8 + \frac{11512941}{2218750}m_9,
 \end{aligned}$$

which results in the Fourier expansions

$$e_0 = 1 + \frac{1536887748}{390625}q^9 + \frac{-37283794635953844}{2166748046875}q^{10} + \frac{59878634576233572}{10833740234375}q^{11} + \frac{7174488645571801752}{54168701171875}q^{12} + \dots,$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 e_1 &= q + \frac{607665972}{390625}q^9 + \frac{-2583966146013468}{433349609375}q^{10} + \frac{-3973658345598216}{2166748046875}q^{11} + \frac{597425421234875369}{10833740234375}q^{12} + \dots, \\
 e_2 &= q^2 + \frac{198762176}{390625}q^9 + \frac{-178810564897398}{86669921875}q^{10} + \frac{12532148692624}{433349609375}q^{11} + \frac{37668121662091434}{2166748046875}q^{12} + \dots, \\
 e_3 &= q^3 + \frac{-15815546}{78125}q^9 + \frac{40215838981851}{34667968750}q^{10} + \frac{-117474801793669}{86669921875}q^{11} + \frac{-5776666823585683}{866699218750}q^{12} + \dots, \\
 e_4 &= q^4 + \frac{-3679062}{15625}q^9 + \frac{6786803544201}{6933593750}q^{10} + \frac{1537385129556}{17333984375}q^{11} + \frac{-1510628988037233}{173339843750}q^{12} + \dots, \\
 e_5 &= q^5 + \frac{-110956}{625}q^9 + \frac{99702868152}{138671875}q^{10} + \frac{13634639599}{693359375}q^{11} + \frac{-20972946283841}{3466796875}q^{12} + \dots, \\
 e_6 &= q^6 + \frac{-9232}{125}q^9 + \frac{13112388597}{55468750}q^{10} + \frac{33775805032}{138671875}q^{11} + \frac{-3515511441901}{1386718750}q^{12} + \dots, \\
 e_7 &= q^7 + \frac{-672}{25}q^9 + \frac{859023267}{11093750}q^{10} + \frac{2036300177}{27734375}q^{11} + \frac{-208956666011}{277343750}q^{12} + \dots, \\
 e_8 &= q^8 + \frac{-28}{5}q^9 + \frac{11512941}{2218750}q^{10} + \frac{228509746}{5546875}q^{11} + \frac{-7565152653}{55468750}q^{12} + \dots.
 \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, we could also transform $E_2(H_5)$ into the canonical normalization. This basis can be found in appendix A.

We have also computed $M_4(H_5)$ and from this numerical expressions for $E_4(H_5)$ to about 500 digits precision. Interestingly, the non-trivial Eisenstein series of weight 4 seem to be non-algebraic. This indicates that no non-trivial noncongruence algebraic Eisenstein spaces of weight $k > 2$ are known so far. The data corresponding to forms on the H_5 subgroup can be found at [88].

A Database of Modular Forms on Noncongruence Subgroups

Parts of this chapter were used in the paper [89].

In this chapter we apply the algorithms of chapters 4, 5 and 6 to build a database of modular forms of weight $k \leq 6$ on noncongruence subgroups of index < 18 .

7.1 Introduction

The theory of modular forms on noncongruence subgroups is still not well understood. We therefore provide a large number of examples in the hope that these will lead to new conjectures and observations. A database of modular forms on noncongruence subgroups was formulated as one of the goals for future research in the AIM Workshop *Noncongruence modular forms and modularity* [81]. The usefulness of computer-generated data for studying modular forms on noncongruence subgroups has been demonstrated by Atkin and Swinnerton-Dyer [8], who formulated key conjectures based on only a handful of computed examples. Additional computations have recently been made by Fiori and Franc [83], who computed the Hauptmodul and some modular forms for the three noncongruence subgroups of index 7. Somewhat related databases are the database of classical modular forms on congruence subgroups [90], the database of Hilbert modular forms [91] and the database of Belyi maps [78].

7.2 Signatures, Passports and Conjugation

We have defined the signature in definition 2.1.2 to distinguish between different *types* of subgroups. Another distinction can be made by defining the *passport*:

Definition 7.2.1 (Passport). Given a set of subgroups with equal cycle types of $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R, \sigma_T)$, we say that two subgroups belong to the same passport if their *monodromy group* (i.e., the permutation group generated by σ_S and σ_R) is equivalent [13].

Remark 7.2.1. We identify the monodromy group by locating it in the database of transitive groups [92] using GAP [93].

Passports are useful for sorting subgroups because the size of the passport (i.e., the number of elements in a passport) provides an upper bound on the degree of $K(v)$. Furthermore, expressions for subgroups that are in the same Galois orbit are equivalent up to the embedding of $K(v)$ in \mathbb{C} .

Example 7.2.1. To illustrate this, consider the first passport of length greater than one which contains the representatives $\sigma_S = (2\ 6)(1)(3\ 4)(5\ 7)$, $\sigma_R = (2\ 7\ 6)(1\ 3\ 5)(4)$ and $\sigma_S = (2\ 4)(1)(3\ 5)(6\ 7)$, $\sigma_R = (2\ 5\ 4)(1\ 3\ 6)(7)$ for both representatives we also have $\sigma_T = (1\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7)(2)$. The Belyi map for the first representative is given by

$$R = \frac{(x^2 + ((2v - 10)u)x + (184/3v - 164/3)u^2)^3(x + 14u)}{(x + (6v - 16)u)}, \quad (7.1)$$

where $u = (125248356/96889010407v - 199546416/96889010407)^{1/6}$ and $v = 1/2 - \sqrt{3}/2i$ is an embedding of $K(v) = v^2 - v + 1$. Then the Galois conjugate second passport element has the same expression for the Belyi map as in eq. (7.1), but with the *other* embedding of $K(v)$ into \mathbb{C} which is given by $1/2 + \sqrt{3}/2i$ (the same obviously holds true for the Fourier expansions of modular forms). Note that conjugation in Γ amounts to choosing different roots of u .

7.3 Database Structure

7.3.1 Database Labels

For compatibility, we use the same labeling structure as the BelyiDB [78] in the LMFDB. This means that we start with the index of the subgroup, followed by the label of the monodromy group in the transitive group database [92]. Afterwards we display the cycle type of the permutations σ_T , σ_R and σ_S . The last letter is a letter indicating the Galois orbit.

Example 7.3.1. Consider the passport of signature $(15, 1, 2, 1, 0)$ and monodromy group $T104$ containing three elements. This passport decomposes into two Galois orbits: The first one with label $15T104-11.4_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$ for which $K = \mathbb{Q}(v)$ where $v^2 - v - 1 = 0$ and the second one with label $15T104-11.4_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-b$ for which $K = \mathbb{Q}$.

7.3.2 Permutation Triple Normalization

Each database entry is unique up to a normalization of the permutation triple (i.e., conjugation in Γ). We usually normalize σ_T so that the cycle type is sorted in descending order and that the labels are sorted in ascending order. This means that the largest cusp is placed at infinity. While this causes the number field L to be of larger degree (and thus the arithmetic to be slower), the factored expressions in u and v typically involve smaller factors and are therefore easier to read.

Example 7.3.2. Consider the permutation $(1\ 2\ 3\ 4)(5\ 6\ 7)(8\ 9)$ which has a cycle type of $(4, 3, 2)$, sorted in descending order.

There are three exceptions to the above strategy. The first is given for the case when the subgroup G has multiple cusps of equal width. Placing one of these cusps at infinity may cause K to have a larger degree, due to the broken symmetry. In this case we therefore normalize σ_T so that the largest cusp with unique cusp width is placed at infinity. The second exception occurs when G has a cusp of

(unique) width 1. In this case, we place the cusp of width 1 at infinity because it is convenient that $K = L$. The third exception occurs for genus one subgroups, where we do not sort the labels of σ_T in ascending order, in case another normalization leads to better precision when computing the elliptic curve (see [89, Section 3]).

7.3.3 Data that has been Computed for each Database Element

For each database element we have computed the curve (either the Belyi map for genus zero subgroups or the elliptic curve for genus one subgroups), as well as Fourier expansions for the Hauptmoduls, cusp forms, and modular forms up to and including weight 6. For genus zero subgroups we achieved this by applying the algorithms of sections 5.2 and 5.3 over L . For higher genera subgroups we have computed numerical approximations of the corresponding Fourier expansions to an accuracy of 1500 digits using the method of section 4.3 and from these the closed-form solutions using the LLL algorithm. Note that for reasons of efficiency it is not necessary to compute all forms *from scratch*. Instead, by section 2.7, we can compute products between cusp forms and modular forms to generate (some of the) higher weight forms. In addition, we have computed numerical approximations of the basis factors that transform M_k into E_k to 1500 digits precision using the algorithm of chapter 6.

7.3.4 A Complete Example

For an explicit example, let us take a look at the database entry *15T61-10.5_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a*. For the (echelonized) basis forms we use lower case letters.

- G : The subgroup G corresponds to the permutation group generated by

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_S &= (1\ 15)(2\ 12)(3\ 7)(4\ 9)(5\ 13)(6\ 10)(8\ 14)(11), \\ \sigma_R &= (1\ 11\ 12)(2\ 13\ 6)(3\ 8\ 15)(4\ 10\ 7)(5\ 14\ 9), \\ \sigma_T &= (1\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9\ 10\ 2)(11\ 12\ 13\ 14\ 15).\end{aligned}$$

- Monodromy Group: $(C_3 \times C_3 \times C_3 \times C_3) : (C_2 \times A_5)$.
- K : $v = 1$ (i.e., $K = \mathbb{Q}$).
- Embeddings: Trivial embedding.
- u : $(-3125/14348907)^{1/10}$ with an embedding $-0.409269\dots - 0.132979\dots \cdot i$.
- L : $w^8 - 5/27w^6 + 25/729w^4 - 125/19683w^2 + 625/531441$ with $w = -0.409269\dots - 0.132979\dots \cdot i$.
- Curve: $y^2 + xy + y = x^3 - x^2 + 7x - 103$.
- Fourier expansions (up to ~ 700 terms):

– M_2 :

$$* m_0 = 1 + 48/5u^2q_{10}^2 - 528/5u^3q_{10}^3 - 2448/25u^4q_{10}^4 - 3096/25u^5q_{10}^5 + \dots$$

$$* m_1 = q_{10} + uq_{10}^2 - 21/5u^2q_{10}^3 + 101/5u^3q_{10}^4 + 816/25u^4q_{10}^5 + \dots$$

– S_2 :

- * $s_0 = q_{10} + uq_{10}^2 - 21/5u^2q_{10}^3 + 101/5u^3q_{10}^4 + 816/25u^4q_{10}^5 + \dots$ (this is the same as m_1 in this case).
- E_2 :
 - * e_0 : We give the Eisenstein basis matrix $[1, 0.356085\dots + 0.115699\dots \cdot i]$ (up to 1500 terms), meaning that $e_0 = m_0 + (0.356085\dots + 0.115699\dots \cdot i)m_1$. Note that this basis is already in canonical normalization.
- M_4 :
 - * $m_0 = 1 - 688747536/625u^{10}q_{10}^{10} + \dots$ (this is an oldform from Γ , namely the weight 4 Eisenstein series for $SL(2, \mathbb{Z})$).
 - * $m_1 = q_{10} - 70111/110u^4q_{10}^5 + \dots$
 - * $m_2 = q_{10}^2 - 621/22u^3q_{10}^5 + \dots$
 - * $m_3 = q_{10}^3 + 237/22u^2q_{10}^5 + \dots$
 - * $m_4 = q_{10}^4 - 115/22uq_{10}^5 + \dots$
- S_4 :
 - * $s_0 = q_{10} - 65u^3q_{10}^4 - 1488/5u^4q_{10}^5 + \dots$
 - * $s_1 = q_{10}^2 - 27/5u^2q_{10}^4 + \dots$
 - * $s_2 = q_{10}^3 - uq_{10}^4 + 16u^2q_{10}^5 + \dots$
- E_4 :
 - * $e_0 = m_0$.
 - * $e_1 = m_1 + (12.068314\dots + 3.921233\dots \cdot i)m_2 + (106.205344\dots + 77.162699\dots \cdot i)m_3 + (-61.318023\dots - 84.397019\dots \cdot i)m_4$.
 - * $e_{0,\text{can}}$: For the canonical normalizations we get $e_{0,\text{can}} = e_0 + (-0.014977\dots - 0.004866\dots \cdot i)e_1$.
 - * $e_{1,\text{can}} = (0.059909\dots + 0.019465\dots \cdot i)e_1$.

(The weight six spaces are also given in the database, but are not listed here.)

7.4 Some Interesting Examples

7.4.1 Largest Degree of $K(v)$

The largest degree of K occurs for the passport $16T1954-12.3.1_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a$ for which we get $K = \mathbb{Q}(v)$ where $v = 1.531805\dots + 0.185685\dots i$ is a root of

$$0 = v^{24} - 6v^{23} + 21v^{22} - 60v^{21} + 184v^{20} - 478v^{19} + 651v^{18} - 1220v^{17} + 2230v^{16} + 1226v^{15} - 947v^{14} + 804v^{13} - 7092v^{12} - 6862v^{11} + 3971v^{10} - 15340v^9 + 7975v^8 + 36044v^7 + 7134v^6 + 14896v^5 + 13928v^4 - 2372v^3 + 3970v^2 - 584v + 22,$$

with discriminant $2^{52}3^{15}5^{10}7^413^4$ and Galois group S_{24} . While it is certainly possible to use the method of [25, Section 5.1] to compute Belyi maps for higher number field degrees (see for example

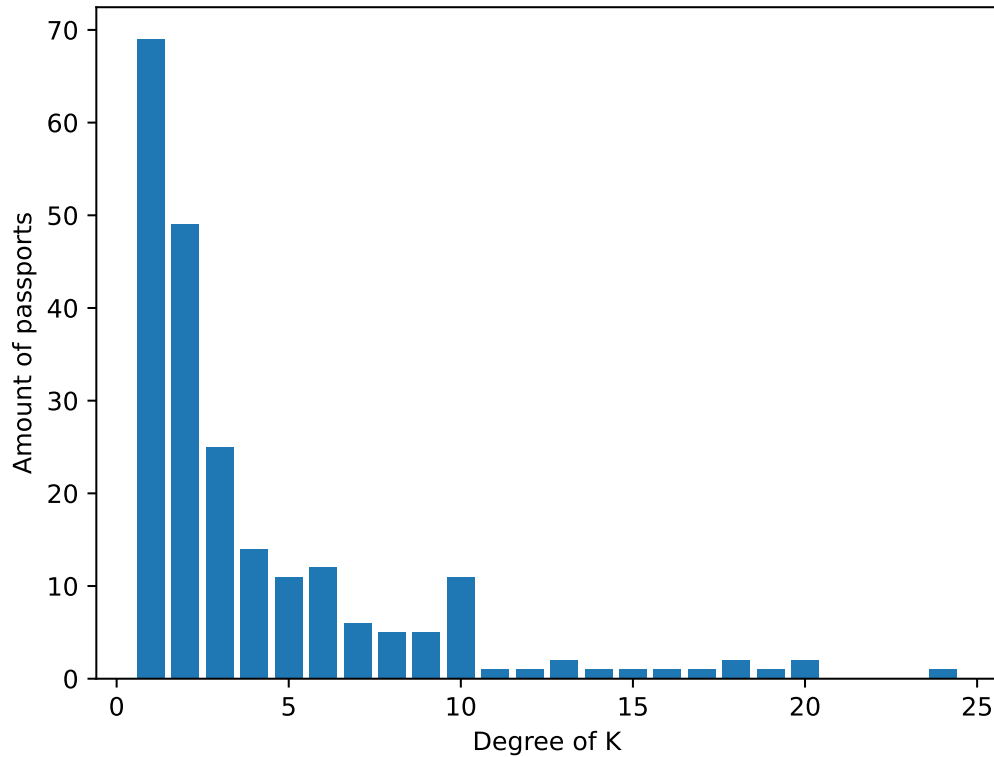


Figure 7.1: Distribution of the degrees of K in the database.

[15]), computing non-trivial amounts of Fourier coefficients becomes infeasible, which is the reason why these large passports have not been included in the database. To give an idea of the size of the coefficients involved, note that the first non-trivial coefficient of the Hauptmodul starts with

18035144800333385601165709955931694753948569033237338483618065475555557037...
 ...3958967421781810036632024163158272374698352311806451683704 v^{23} + ... ,

which has 132 decimal digits and factors into

$$2^3 \cdot 3^4 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 13^3 \cdot 179 \cdot 1178062360621513 \\
\cdot 1515687995725535658492175921 \cdot 15731038963473855359968899262003 \\
\cdot 514197500928774955284304452843050396002488377491 .$$

The distribution of degrees of K is given in figure 7.1. The defining polynomials of K can be found in appendix B.

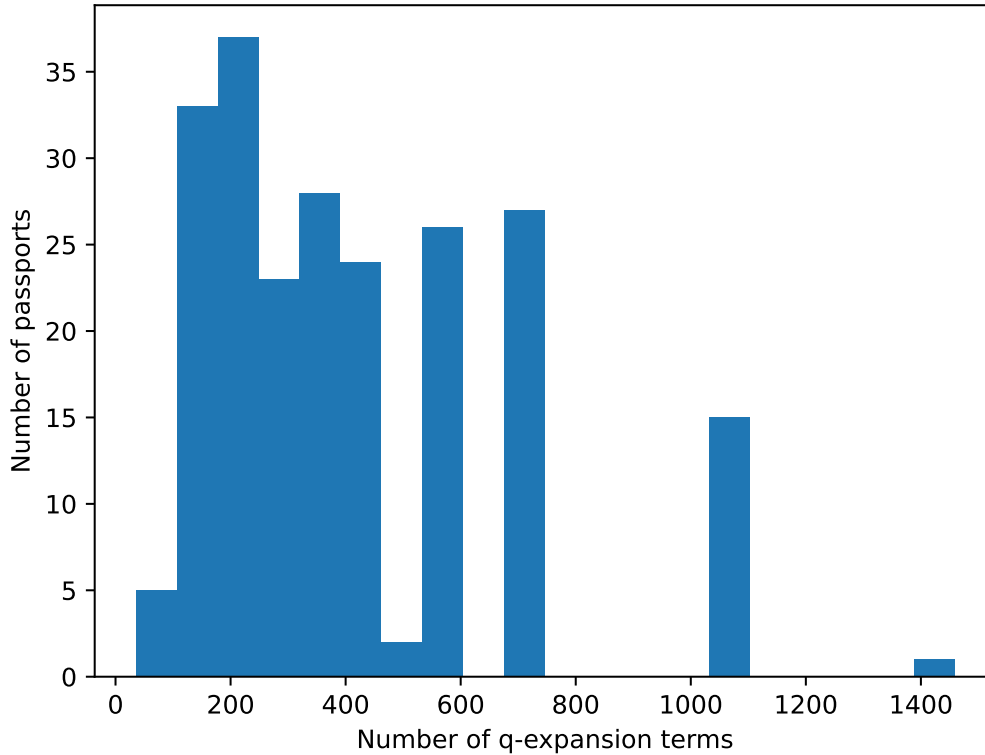


Figure 7.2: Distribution of the number of terms of the Fourier expansions in the database.

7.4.2 Most Fourier Expansion Terms

The largest number of Fourier expansion coefficients that have been computed for the database occurs for the passport $9T27-9_3.3.3_{2.2.2.2.1-a}$ for which we list 1459 coefficients. A distribution of the number of Fourier expansion terms is given in figure 7.2. For genus zero subgroups, we chose the number of terms based on some heuristic guesses that depend on the degree of L and ensure that the computation does not take longer than a few days. For higher genera subgroups, we included as many terms as the LLL could reliably determine from the numerical approximations. For certain passports, we also had to reduce the number of coefficients in order to satisfy the maximal GITHUB file size limit of 100MB.

7.4.3 Elliptic Curves Defined over \mathbb{Q}

In table 7.1 we give all of the examples of genus 1 noncongruence subgroups from the database that correspond to elliptic curves over \mathbb{Q} , together with their defining equations and their conductors.

Passport Label	Elliptic Curve	Conductor
<i>9T27-9_3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$y^2 + xy + y = x^3 - x^2 - 95x - 697$	162
<i>10T30-10_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$y^2 + xy + y = x^3 + x^2 - 110x - 880$	15
<i>15T104-11.4_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$y^2 + xy + y = x^3 - x^2 + 7x - 103$	270
<i>15T104-11.4_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-b</i>	$y^2 + xy = x^3 - x^2 - 41370x + 2022196$	2970

Table 7.1: Noncongruence subgroups corresponding to elliptic curves over \mathbb{Q} .

index \ genus	genus	
	0	1
7	3/3	0
8	1/1	0
9	9/9	1/1
10	9/9	1/1
11	6/6	0
12	23/27	2/3
13	22/23	1/1
14	21/29	1/2
15	54/62	7/9
16	36/65	7/9
17	16/35	1/2
total	200/269	21/28

Table 7.2: Number of computed noncongruence passports that are currently in the database (the second number is the total number of available noncongruence passports). The passports that have not been computed are typically defined over very large number fields and have therefore been left out. (Note that there are no noncongruence subgroups with $\mu \leq 17$ and $g > 1$.)

7.5 Reliability of the Results

For genus zero, all coefficients have been computed using rigorous arithmetic over number fields or rigorous interval arithmetic. The only exception are the Eisenstein series, for which we can only heuristically estimate the precision. For higher genera, the coefficients are non-rigorous (but supported by very convincing numerical evidence) because they have been guessed using the LLL algorithm. As an additional verification, we have also compared the numerical values of the rigorous expressions and the Eisenstein series with a computation using Hejhal's method with a different horocycle height to verify that the results match to at least 10 digits of precision.

7.6 Status of the Database

The number of computed passports in the current version can be found in table 7.2. For the sake of completeness, the database also contains congruence passports, which are not listed here. The current size of the database is ~ 6 GB in compressed form and ~ 16 GB in uncompressed form. In total, about 25 000 hours of CPU time on Intel Xeon E5-2680 v4 @ 2.40GHz have been used to compute

the data.

7.7 How to Access the Database

The database is currently available as a `GitHub` repository at [94] and is planned to be released to the LMFDB soon. The database entries can be loaded by running `SAGE` scripts that return a `PYTHON` dictionary with the results. This provides more portability between versions than storing the results as pickled objects. We also provide the results in printed form as strings inside JSON files. To save memory, we have not stored the numerical approximations of the Fourier coefficients. For the same reason, we have not explicitly stored the expressions over the number field L , but instead generate them when loading the `SAGE` scripts by substituting the values of v and w .

Further Applications

This chapter briefly lists additional examples of numerical computations of modular forms. These are not related to noncongruence subgroups but still benefit from the improvements to Hejhal's method that have been developed in chapter 4, therefore demonstrating the wide applicability of these ideas.

8.1 Computation of Eigenvalues of Maass Cusp Forms on Hecke Triangle Groups

Motivated by the results of the author's master's thesis [18], we improve and further analyze the *modified MPS* approach (see section 8.1.5) in this thesis and also establish a connection to the results of Judge [95, 96].

8.1.1 Motivation

In this section we consider eigenvalues of Maass cusp forms on Hecke triangle groups at arbitrary precision arithmetic. Our motivation for this comes from a result about eigenvalues of regular polygons (and other cycloidal shapes) in Euclidean space. Suppose Ψ is a dihedrally symmetric eigenfunction with eigenvalue λ inside a regular n -gon with Dirichlet (or Neumann) boundary condition. Since Ψ is dihedrally symmetric, it is sufficient to compute Ψ on a triangle with angles $(\pi/2, \pi/2n, \pi(1/2 - 1/2n))$ with Dirichlet and/or Neumann boundary conditions, see fig. 8.1.

Let $\lambda_i(n)$ denote the i -th eigenvalue corresponding to a dihedrally symmetric eigenfunction of a regular n -gon with Dirichlet boundary conditions. It has been shown in a number of papers [19–23] that these eigenvalues can be expanded as an asymptotic series in $1/n$

$$\lambda_i(n) \sim \lambda_i(\infty) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{C_k(\lambda_i(\infty))}{n^k}, \quad (8.1)$$

where $\lambda_i(\infty)$ is the eigenvalue of the circle, which can be computed explicitly as a root of the Bessel function. Interestingly, the coefficients $C_k(\lambda_i(\infty))$ are polynomials which involve values of the Riemann zeta function and single valued multiple zeta values [22, 23]. For example for the case of

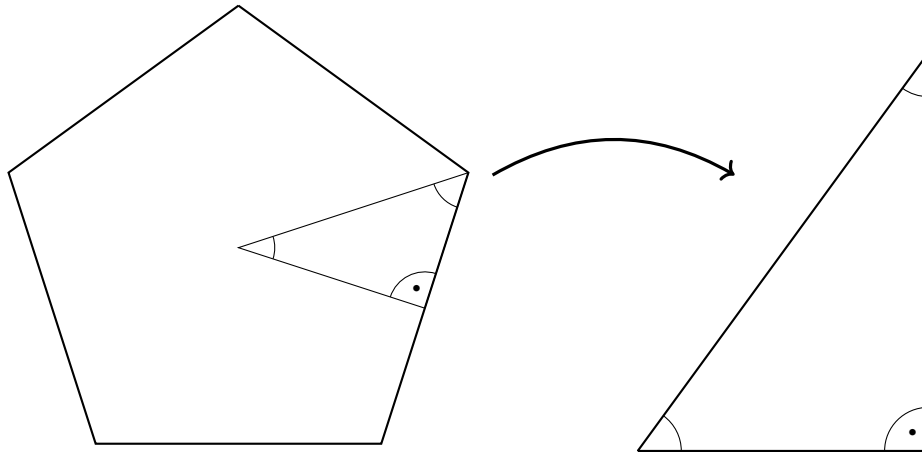


Figure 8.1: Fundamental region for dihedrally symmetric eigenfunctions of regular n -gons. This figure is based on a figure used in [18].

regular polygons with Dirichlet boundary conditions the eigenvalue expansion is of the form

$$\lambda_1(n) = \lambda_1(\infty) \left(1 + \frac{4\zeta(3)}{n^3} + \frac{\zeta(5)(-2\lambda_1(\infty) + 12)}{n^5} + \dots \right), \quad (8.2)$$

where $\lambda_1(\infty)$ denotes the first eigenvalue of the circle. Other examples (including regular n -gons with Neumann boundary condition, star shapes, and other cycloidal shapes) for which the expansion coefficients can be given explicitly are computed in [23].

The question that we want to investigate in this section is the following: Do the eigenvalues of Hecke triangle groups provide a similar expansion formula? If so, what are the expansion coefficients?

8.1.2 Hecke Triangle Groups

The Hecke triangle group $G_{n \geq 3}$ is generated by the $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ elements

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad T_n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & w \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (8.3)$$

where $w = 2 \cos(\pi/n)$, corresponding to the actions

$$\tau \rightarrow -1/\tau \quad \text{and} \quad \tau \rightarrow \tau + w. \quad (8.4)$$

Note that for $n = 3$ one gets $w_3 = 1$ which means that $G_3 = \Gamma$. As a fundamental domain for Hecke triangle groups we choose

$$\mathcal{F}(G_n) = \{\tau \in \overline{\mathcal{H}}, |\tau| \geq 1 \text{ and } |\text{Re}(\tau)| \leq w/2\} \cup \{i\infty\}, \quad (8.5)$$

which has a minimal height of $Y_0 = \sin(\pi/n)$ and corresponds to a hyperbolic triangle with angles $(0, \pi/2, \pi/n)$. Note that Hecke triangle groups only have a single cusp of width w and are of genus zero.

8.1.3 Maass Cusp Forms

Unlike their *classical* holomorphic counterparts, Maass cusp forms are modular forms that are eigenfunctions of the hyperbolic Laplacian

$$\Delta = -y^2 \left(\partial_x^2 + \partial_y^2 \right), \quad (8.6)$$

that satisfy

$$\Delta f(\tau) = \lambda f(\tau), \quad (8.7)$$

where λ is referred to as the *eigenvalue* of f . In addition, Maass cusp forms vanish at the cusps, transform like weight-zero modular functions ($f(\gamma(\tau)) = f(\tau)$) and have a polynomial growth condition on the expansion coefficients. As a Fourier expansion basis for Maass cusp forms we choose [45]

$$f(\tau) = \sum_{n>0} a_n \sqrt{y} \kappa_{iR} \left(\frac{2\pi n y}{w} \right) e \left(\frac{nx}{w} \right), \quad (8.8)$$

where

$$e \left(\frac{nx}{w} \right) = \begin{cases} \sin \left(\frac{2\pi n x}{w} \right) & | \text{ odd eigenfunctions} \\ \cos \left(\frac{2\pi n x}{w} \right) & | \text{ even eigenfunctions} \end{cases}, \quad (8.9)$$

and

$$\kappa_{iR}(u) = \exp(\pi R/2) K_{iR}(u). \quad (8.10)$$

(The exponential term is just a constant factor that is added for numerical convenience, since it prevents the decay for larger R). K denotes the K -Bessel function and R denotes the spectral parameter which is related to the eigenvalue λ by $\lambda = 1/4 + R^2$.

In the context of Hecke triangle groups, a famous conjecture of Phillips and Sarnak [97] states that no even Maass cusp forms should exist for non-arithmetic (that is $n \neq 3, 4, 6$) Hecke triangle groups. This conjecture is still open, but numerical searches for even eigenvalues of non-arithmetic triangle groups have not been successful, which makes it relatively likely that the conjecture is true. For this reason, we will restrict ourselves to odd Maass cusp forms throughout this project.

8.1.4 Localization of Eigenvalues

While Hejhal's method can be applied analogously to chapter 3 (but with a modified expansion basis), the computation of Maass cusp forms requires an additional step which is the localization of the eigenvalue (or spectral parameter). This means that we need to identify the values of R that correspond to a *true* Maass cusp form. A heuristic approach to this has been described by Hejhal [45]:

1. Given an interval $R_{\min} \leq R \leq R_{\max}$, choose a *sufficiently* small grid of values $R_{\min}, R_{\min} + \delta, R_{\min} + 2\delta, \dots, R_{\max}$.
2. Select two values Y, Y' with $Y' < Y < Y_0$.
3. Solve for the expansion coefficients $a(R, Y)$ and $a(R, Y')$ for each value within the grid of R values.

4. Compare the coefficients of $a(R, Y)$ and $a(R, Y')$ to look for sign changes and minima in the difference function.
5. Once an interval containing an eigenvalue has been found, use a root-finding technique (such as the secant method) to find the parameter R that minimizes the difference between $a(R, Y)$ and $a(R, Y')$ up to numerical precision.

This procedure has several inconveniences:

- It is not immediately clear what a sufficiently small grid size is (smaller grids lead to more computations, while larger grids may miss eigenvalues).
- Step 4 can lead to *false triggers* that need to be identified, for example, by considering additional pairs of Y values.
- The computation of the expansion coefficients requires a normalization, and it is not clear a priori whether the correct normalization has been chosen (one should therefore impose several normalizations for different multiplicities).

8.1.5 Applying the Modified Method of Particular Solutions

We have experimented with an alternative approach to locate eigenvalues that is based on the *modified method of particular solutions* that was developed by Betcke and Trefethen [24] to compute eigenvalues of shapes in two-dimensional Euclidean space. Our approach can be summarized as follows: We treat the automorphy condition by introducing a matrix $A_B(\lambda)$ containing entries of the form $f(\tau_m) - f(\tau_m^*)$, as described in section 3.1, which can be viewed as a boundary condition. The automorphy condition should only be satisfied near the eigenvalues however in practice sporadic solutions can appear for which $f(\tau)$ approximates the zero function. To avoid these cases, Betcke and Trefethen [24] introduce a second condition, namely that the function should be non-zero in the interior. For this we introduce a second matrix $A_I(\lambda)$ that contains entries of $f(\tau_m)$.

Remark 8.1.1. We have also tested a variant where $A_B(\lambda)$ is set to the matrix \tilde{V} resulting from Hejhal's method, see section 3.2. Both approaches seem to work equally well.

Remark 8.1.2. Instead of assembling A_I by evaluations at random points inside the fundamental domain, we choose the values at the horocycle points because this seems to work equally well and does not require additional evaluations of Bessel functions.

Following Betcke and Trefethen [24] we now introduce a matrix

$$A(\lambda) = \begin{bmatrix} A_B(\lambda) \\ A_I(\lambda) \end{bmatrix}, \quad (8.11)$$

and compute its column-pivoted QR factorization

$$Q(\lambda) = \begin{bmatrix} Q_B(\lambda) \\ Q_I(\lambda) \end{bmatrix}. \quad (8.12)$$

We then compute the singular values $\sigma_i(\lambda)$ of $Q_B^*(\lambda)$ in ascending order, where $Q_B^*(\lambda)$ corresponds to a reduced version of $Q_B(\lambda)$ for which columns corresponding to elements of the factorization

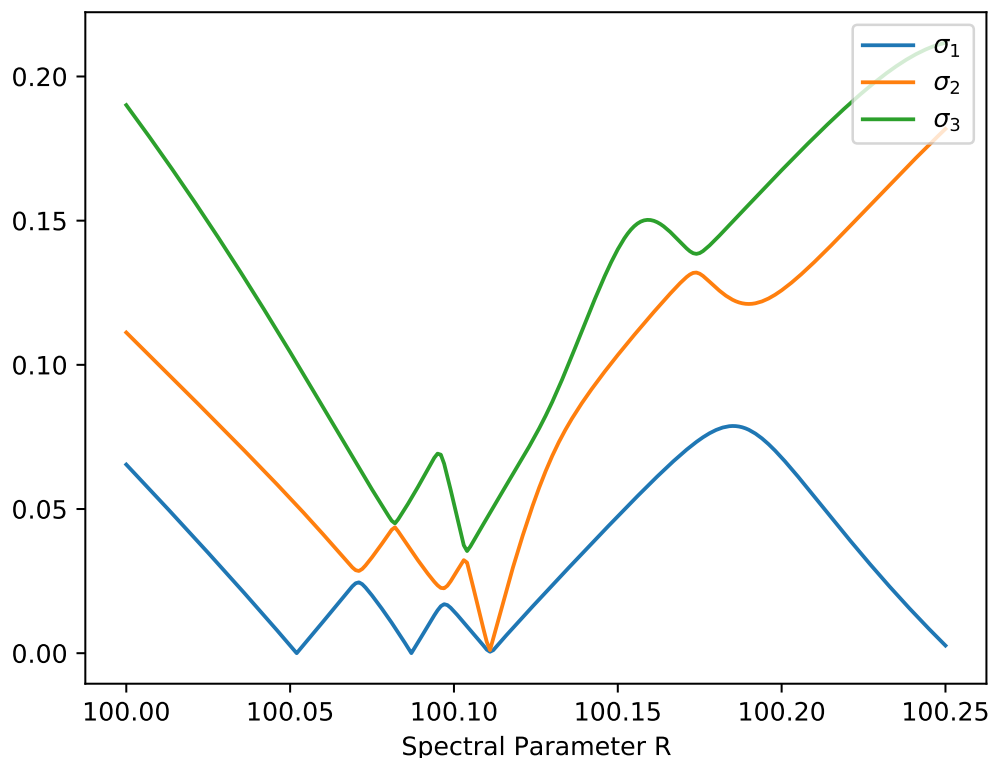


Figure 8.2: Locating the eigenvalues of Γ near $R = 100$ using the modified method of particular solutions. We have chosen $Y_0 = 0.75$ and $M_0 = 30$. By looking at the second singular value, we can also identify the eigenvalues $R = 100.1106656\dots$ and $R = 100.1112787\dots$, which have a very small gap.

matrix R below a certain threshold are removed to improve the numerical stability. The minima of the smallest singular value $\sigma_1(\lambda)$ now correspond to the eigenvalues λ .

Remark 8.1.3. Alternatively, one could also compute the generalized singular value decomposition of the matrices A_B and A_J , see [98]. This has been used in [18]. We however found the version that uses a reduced QR decomposition to be more numerically stable.

An example where this approach works very well can be found in figure 8.2, which shows the potential advantages of this method:

- We do not need to impose any normalizations and tests for different multiplicities.
- The method is very robust against *false triggers*.
- The *V-shaped* behavior of $\sigma_1(\lambda)$ can be used to efficiently *jump* close to eigenvalues by extrapolation.
- The higher singular values *point* to the corresponding next eigenvalues, which can also be used to optimize the localization and also helps to detect eigenvalues with very small gaps.

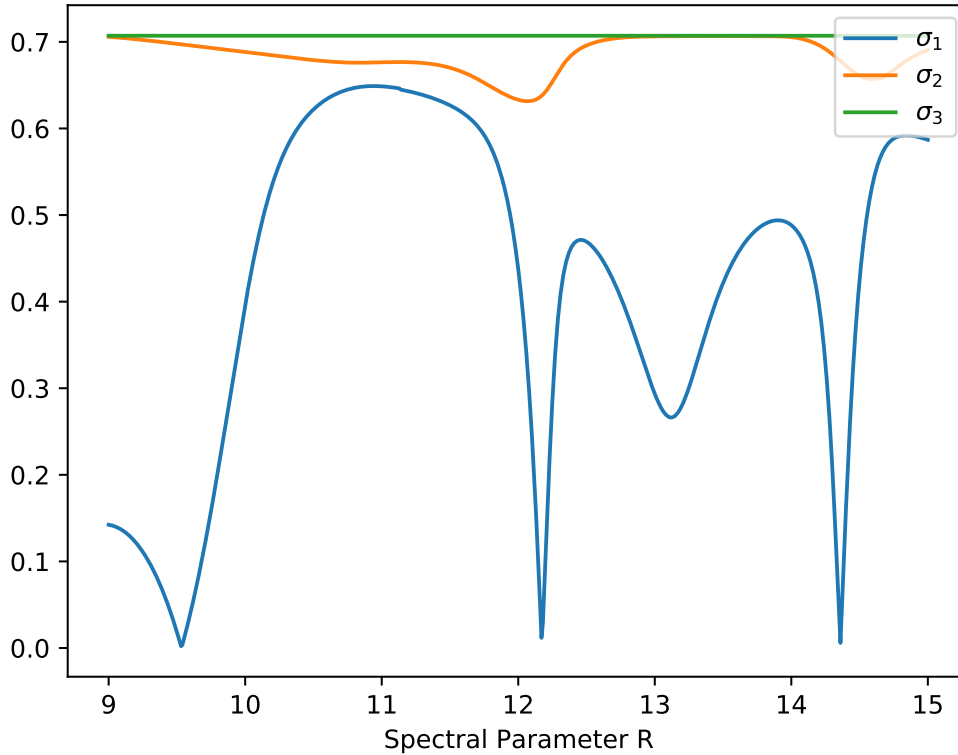


Figure 8.3: Locating the first eigenvalues of Γ using the modified method of particular solutions. We have chosen $Y_0 = 0.75$ and $M_0 = 15$. In this regime, the singular value plot is not as smooth and contains local minima outside the roots.

Unfortunately, not all cases work as well as in figure 8.2. Figure 8.3 shows an example where the plot looks less *V-shaped*, making it more difficult to localize the eigenvalues. It is interesting that the method seems to work better for higher eigenvalues than for lower ones, because the eigenfunctions become more oscillatory for larger spectral parameters. This may be due to the fact that the Bessel functions decay less quickly for larger spectral parameters, causing A_B and A_I to be of a more similar magnitude. Further research is needed to improve the stability of this approach before it can be used in production and for examples with multiple cusps.

8.1.6 Eigenvalue Expansion

To test if the eigenvalues of Hecke triangle groups can be expanded as a $1/n$ series

$$\lambda_i(n) \approx \sum_{j=0}^N \frac{c_j}{n^j}, \tag{8.13}$$

we computed $\lambda_i(n)$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, 10$ and $3 \leq n \leq 100$ to 150 digits precision (this computation has been performed in [18]).

Remark 8.1.4. Because the iterative mixed precision solving techniques of section 4.3 had not been developed at the point of performing these computations we had to use direct solving techniques. For future computations the results of section 4.3 should improve the performance of this computation significantly.

Afterwards we performed linear regression to determine the expansion coefficients c_j (similar to [23]). As a heuristic test to check if the eigenvalues offer a $1/n$ expansion we removed different entries to verify that the expressions are converging to the same expansion coefficients. This procedure additionally indicates the accuracy of the results.

Our numerical results indicate that all of the first ten eigenvalues can be expanded as $1/n$ series. This seems to be consistent with the results of Judge [95, 96]. Moreover, we find that odd $1/n$ -expansion coefficients vanish up to the estimated accuracy. We also find that the first ten *limiting* eigenvalues (i.e., the values of c_0 which correspond to the eigenvalues of G_∞) are given by the first ten eigenvalues of $\Gamma_0(2)$ (which is conjugate to the theta group and thus has the same spectrum) as given in table 8.1 (note that according to Atkin-Lehner theory [99] the $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z})$ eigenvalues correspond to multiplicity two eigenvalues on $\Gamma_0(2)$). We also find that the Fourier coefficients a_n converge to the limiting expressions of G_∞ . Analogous to the eigenvalues, the odd $1/n$ -expansion coefficients for a_n also vanish. However, unlike the eigenvalues, the expressions do not converge absolutely to their limiting values.

Unfortunately, we could not find the expansion coefficients in closed form. The corresponding numerical data can be found in [100].

Eigenvalue order	Limiting Eigenvalue
1	$\lambda_1(\Gamma_0(2))$
2	$\lambda_2(\Gamma_0(2))$
3	$\lambda_3(\Gamma_0(2))$
4	$\lambda_1(\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z}))$
5	$\lambda_1(\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z}))$
6	$\lambda_4(\Gamma_0(2))$
7	$\lambda_5(\Gamma_0(2))$
8	$\lambda_2(\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z}))$
9	$\lambda_2(\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z}))$
10	$\lambda_6(\Gamma_0(2))$

Table 8.1: Limiting eigenvalues (i.e. c_0 of eq. (8.13))

8.2 Traces of Real Singular Moduli

In this section, we demonstrate that the method developed in chapter 4 can be applied in various contexts by using it to compute traces of real singular moduli with very high precision. These were first computed in the work of Duke, Imamoglu, and Toth [101].

8.2.1 Background and Notation

The mathematical motivation is beyond the scope of this thesis, so we will just define the quantities that appear and refer to [27, 101] for a proper introduction. Let $Q(x, y) := ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$ denote a binary quadratic form with coefficients $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ and discriminant $d = b^2 - 4ac$. Let \mathcal{Q}_d denote the set of binary quadratic forms with discriminant d . To each $Q \in \mathcal{Q}_d$, we associate the root τ_Q of $Q(\tau, 1)$ in \mathcal{H} . An element $\gamma \in \Gamma$ acts on Q by [101]

$$(\gamma Q)(x, y) = Q(\gamma_4 x - \gamma_2 y, -\gamma_3 x + \gamma_1 y), \quad \text{where } \gamma = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 \\ \gamma_3 & \gamma_4 \end{pmatrix} \in \Gamma. \quad (8.14)$$

Let $j_1(\tau) = j - 744 = q^{-1} + 196884q + \dots$ be the normalized Hauptmodul for Γ . DIT [101] studied the quantity [101, Eq. 1.8]

$$\text{Tr}_d(j_1) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{Q \in \Gamma/\mathcal{Q}_d} \int_{C_Q} j_1(\tau) \frac{d\tau}{Q(\tau, 1)}, \quad (8.15)$$

for $d > 0$ and $d \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$ for a suitably defined smooth curve C_Q . More generally, let j_m denote the unique basis elements for $\mathbb{C}[j]$ of the form $j_m(\tau) = q^{-m} + \mathcal{O}(q)$. Then $\text{Tr}_d(j_m)$ are the so-called *traces of real singular moduli*. DIT [101, Theorem 5] showed that the generating function

$$F_d(\tau) = - \sum_{m \geq 0} \text{Tr}_d(j_m) q^m, \quad (8.16)$$

satisfies the functional equation

$$F_d(\tau) - \tau^{-2} F_d(-\frac{1}{\tau}) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{c < 0 < a, b^2 - 4ac = d} (a\tau^2 + b\tau + c)^{-1}. \quad (8.17)$$

8.2.2 Numerical Computation

DIT have numerically computed $\text{Tr}_d(j_m)$ for $d = 5, 8, 12, 13, 17, 20$ and $m = 0, 1, 2, 3$ to six digits precision [101, Table 2]. An alternative approach is to use Hejhal's method. Using equations 8.16 and 8.17 we can compute the coefficients of F_d analogously to chapter 4. We define $r_d(\tau) := \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{c < 0 < a, b^2 - 4ac = d} (a\tau^2 + b\tau + c)^{-1}$ and similar to equation 3.4 work with $yF_d(\tau)$ to improve the numerical stability. Then we get

$$a_n Y \exp(-2\pi n Y) = \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} F_d(\tau) \exp(-2\pi i n x) dx, \quad (8.18)$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{m=0}^{2Q-1} F_d(\tau_m) \exp(-2\pi i n x_m), \quad (8.19)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2Q} \sum_{m=0}^{2Q-1} \left(\left(\frac{|\tau_m|}{\tau_m} \right)^2 y_m^* F_d(\tau_m^*) + Y r_d(z_m) \right) \exp(-2\pi i n x_m), \quad (8.20)$$

where $\tau_m^* = -1/\tau_m = x_m^* + i y_m^*$, which we solve efficiently using the iterative methods of section 4.3.

For $d = 5, 8, 12, 13, 17, 20, 21, 24, 28, 29, 32, 33, 37, 40, 41, 44, 45, 48$ we have computed $F_d(\tau)$ to 2500 digits precision, resulting in coefficients for $m = 0, \dots, 1063$ with between 500 and 2500 digits precision. This computation took just a few hours on a standard desktop computer. Some of the data can be found in appendix C, while the full data is available in [102].

Remark 8.2.1. We get a different result than DIT [101, Table 2] for $d = 20, m = 0$. Since our data agree for $m = 1, 2, 3$, we expect our result to be correct, since it would not make much sense for our algorithm to get only the leading order wrong.

We were not able to find closed-form expressions for the computed data and leave this for further research.

Conclusion and Outlook

The main focus of this thesis was the numerical computation of noncongruence modular forms. For this, we have significantly improved the performance of Hejhal's method in chapter 4 by using mixed-precision iterative solving techniques and by optimizing the linear algebra involved. An alternative approach for subgroups of genus zero was presented in chapter 5. This more restricted approach has the advantage of producing rigorous Fourier expansions and is usually faster. We then considered noncongruence Eisenstein series and provided an efficient method for computing them in chapter 6. Our approach is to use the computed bases of cusp forms and modular forms to project out the Eisenstein space using Petersson products. Our results indicate that non-trivial noncongruence Eisenstein series are algebraic only for a few special cases, and furthermore, no non-trivial algebraic noncongruence Eisenstein series of weight $k > 2$ have yet been found. We have computed a large number of modular forms, cusp forms and Eisenstein series of weight $k \leq 6$ on noncongruence subgroups of index $\mu \leq 17$ and presented a database for them in chapter 7. This data is planned to be added to the LMFDB database and will hopefully help to gain a deeper understanding of the still very mysterious modular forms on noncongruence subgroups. Finally, in chapter 8 we have highlighted that the methods developed in this thesis can be efficiently applied to applications from various fields. For this, we have briefly considered the computation of Maass cusp forms on Hecke triangle groups in section 8.1 which benefit from the improved mixed-precision iterative solving techniques and investigated an alternative approach for locating the spectral parameters. In addition, we have shown in section 8.2 that the generating function of traces of real singular moduli can be very efficiently computed using the methods developed in chapter 4.

This thesis has focused mainly on numerical work, so the most obvious area for further research is to analyze the computed data of chapter 7 and to further develop the underlying theory. Hejhal's method, which was discussed in chapters 3 and 4, probably cannot be improved significantly anymore, since the problem sizes are limited by the convergence rates in the evaluation of modular forms, and the iteration counts of the iterative methods with mixed-precision preconditioners are already very low. As discussed in remark 5.3.1, a potentially more efficient numerical approach could be to compute the forms from the curve also for subgroups of higher genus. It would also be interesting to apply the developed methods to other problems, such as other types of modular forms, analogous to what we have done in chapter 8.

Also, although we have already computed hundreds of examples of noncongruence modular forms in chapter 7, it might be useful to have more examples (especially of genus > 1 , which was not present

for the index < 18 subgroups). For this, we have created a database of noncongruence subgroups with index < 32 [103] and plan to compute modular forms for some of them in the future.

In addition, this thesis has produced many high-precision floating-point approximations for which we have been unable to find closed-form expressions. In particular, it would be very interesting to recognize the noncongruence Eisenstein series computed in chapters 6 and 7, possibly using non-algebraic constants. Furthermore, it would be interesting to find closed-form expressions for the $1/n$ expansion coefficients of the eigenvalues of Maass cusp forms on Hecke triangle groups (see section 8.1), as well as for the traces of real singular moduli (see section 8.2).

Algebraic Eisenstein Series for H_5 in Canonical Normalization

In the canonical normalization, the weight two Eisenstein series on H_5 can no longer be defined over \mathbb{Q} , but instead are defined over the numberfield $K = \mathbb{Q}(v)$, where $v^4 - v^3 + v^2 - v + 1 = 0$ with embedding (for our representation) $v = -0.3090\dots - 0.9510\dots i$ if the Eisenstein series correspond to cusps of width 1. For the remaining cusps (which have cusp width 11) we get that the Eisenstein series are expressions over $\zeta_5 = \exp(2\pi i/5)$ and $a = \sqrt[5]{11}$. In our representation the cusp representatives are given by

$$\{i\infty, 0, -1/3, 1/4, -4/13, 7/27, -4/11, 3/11, -27/88, 20/77\}, \quad (\text{A.1})$$

which means that the i -th Eisenstein series is associated to the cusp of the i -th entry of the set in Eq. (A.1). In the canonical normalization we then get

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{e}_0 &= e_0 + \left(\frac{-21}{25}v^3 + \frac{-13}{25}v^2 + \frac{-8}{25}v^1 + \frac{-21}{25}\right)e_1 + \left(\frac{209}{125}v^3 + \frac{131}{125}v^2 + \frac{16}{25}v^1 + \frac{-502}{125}\right)e_2 \\ &+ \left(\frac{523}{625}v^3 + \frac{306}{625}v^2 + \frac{187}{625}v^1 + \frac{3399}{625}\right)e_3 + \left(\frac{-193}{125}v^3 + \frac{-651}{625}v^2 + \frac{-348}{625}v^1 + \frac{-1073}{625}\right)e_4 \\ &+ \left(\frac{-83719}{78125}v^3 + \frac{-25967}{78125}v^2 + \frac{-27127}{78125}v^1 + \frac{-83624}{78125}\right)e_5 + \left(\frac{-760188}{390625}v^3 + \frac{-527357}{390625}v^2 + \frac{-77863}{78125}v^1 + \frac{-427501}{390625}\right)e_6 \\ &+ \left(\frac{5592851}{1953125}v^3 + \frac{1634437}{1953125}v^2 + \frac{2435354}{1953125}v^1 + \frac{5753183}{1953125}\right)e_7 + \left(\frac{-1632279}{1953125}v^3 + \frac{91947}{78125}v^2 + \frac{412568}{1953125}v^1 + \frac{29459218}{1953125}\right)e_8, \\ \tilde{e}_1 &= \left(-\frac{1}{5}a^4 - \frac{1}{5}a^3 - \frac{1}{5}a^2 + \frac{21}{25}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{13}{25}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{8}{25}\zeta_5 - \frac{13}{25}\right)e_1 \\ &+ \left(-\frac{3}{25}a^4 - \frac{11}{25}a^3 - \frac{24}{25}a^2 - \frac{11}{5}a - \frac{209}{125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{131}{125}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{16}{25}\zeta_5 - \frac{312}{125}\right)e_2 \\ &+ \left(-\frac{2}{125}a^4 - \frac{18}{125}a^3 - \frac{43}{125}a^2 - \frac{22}{25}a - \frac{523}{625}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{306}{625}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{187}{625}\zeta_5 - \frac{601}{625}\right)e_3 \\ &+ \left(-\frac{472}{625}a^4 - \frac{621}{625}a^3 - \frac{849}{625}a^2 - \frac{187}{125}a + \frac{193}{125}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{651}{625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{348}{625}\zeta_5 - \frac{10911}{3125}\right)e_4 \\ &+ \left(-\frac{1764}{3125}a^4 - \frac{2444}{3125}a^3 - \frac{3789}{3125}a^2 - \frac{1078}{625}a + \frac{83719}{78125}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{25967}{78125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{27127}{78125}\zeta_5 - \frac{224749}{78125}\right)e_5 \\ &+ \left(-\frac{83657}{78125}a^4 - \frac{109274}{78125}a^3 - \frac{147876}{78125}a^2 - \frac{7854}{3125}a + \frac{760188}{390625}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{527357}{390625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{77863}{78125}\zeta_5 - \frac{2211071}{390625}\right)e_6 \\ &+ \left(-\frac{107166}{390625}a^4 - \frac{326469}{390625}a^3 - \frac{593579}{390625}a^2 - \frac{206448}{78125}a - \frac{5592851}{1953125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{1634437}{1953125}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{2435354}{1953125}\zeta_5 - \frac{7628117}{1953125}\right)e_7 \\ &+ \left(-\frac{1274709}{1953125}a^4 - \frac{2152392}{1953125}a^3 - \frac{4373433}{1953125}a^2 - \frac{1542541}{390625}a + \frac{1632279}{1953125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{91947}{78125}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{412568}{1953125}\zeta_5 - \frac{37334896}{9765625}\right)e_8, \\ \tilde{e}_2 &= \left(-\frac{1}{5}\zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{1}{5}\zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{1}{5}\zeta_5^3 a^2 + \frac{21}{25}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{13}{25}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{8}{25}\zeta_5 - \frac{13}{25}\right)e_1 \\ &+ \left(-\frac{3}{25}\zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{11}{25}\zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{24}{25}\zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{11}{5}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{11}{5}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{11}{5}\zeta_5 + \frac{11}{5}\right)a - \frac{209}{125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{131}{125}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{16}{25}\zeta_5 - \frac{312}{125}\right)e_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & + \left(-\frac{2}{125}\zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{18}{125}\zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{43}{125}\zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{22}{25}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{22}{25}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{22}{25}\zeta_5 + \frac{22}{25} \right) a - \frac{523}{625}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{306}{625}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{187}{625}\zeta_5 - \frac{601}{625} \right) e_3 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{472}{625}\zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{621}{625}\zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{849}{625}\zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{187}{125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{187}{125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{187}{125}\zeta_5 + \frac{187}{125} \right) a + \frac{193}{125}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{651}{625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{348}{625}\zeta_5 - \frac{10911}{3125} \right) e_4 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{1764}{3125}\zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{2444}{3125}\zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{3789}{3125}\zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{1078}{625}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{1078}{625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{1078}{625}\zeta_5 + \frac{1078}{625} \right) a \right. \\
 & \left. + \frac{83719}{78125}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{25967}{78125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{27127}{78125}\zeta_5 - \frac{224749}{78125} \right) e_5 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{83657}{78125}\zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{109274}{78125}\zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{147876}{78125}\zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{7854}{3125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{7854}{3125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{7854}{3125}\zeta_5 + \frac{7854}{3125} \right) a + \frac{760188}{390625}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{527357}{390625}\zeta_5^2 \right. \\
 & \left. + \frac{77863}{78125}\zeta_5 - \frac{2211071}{390625} \right) e_6 + \left(-\frac{107166}{390625}\zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{326469}{390625}\zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{593579}{390625}\zeta_5^3 a^2 \right. \\
 & \left. + \left(\frac{206448}{78125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{206448}{78125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{206448}{78125}\zeta_5 + \frac{206448}{78125} \right) a \right. \\
 & \left. - \frac{5592851}{1953125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{1634437}{1953125}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{2435354}{1953125}\zeta_5 - \frac{7628117}{1953125} \right) e_7 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{1274709}{1953125}\zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{2152392}{1953125}\zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{4373433}{1953125}\zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{1542541}{390625}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{1542541}{390625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{1542541}{390625}\zeta_5 + \frac{1542541}{390625} \right) a \right. \\
 & \left. + \frac{1632279}{1953125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{91947}{78125}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{412568}{1953125}\zeta_5 - \frac{37334896}{9765625} \right) e_8, \\
 \tilde{e}_3 = & \left(\left(\frac{1}{5}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{1}{5}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{1}{5}\zeta_5 + \frac{1}{5} \right) a^4 - \frac{1}{5}\zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{1}{5}\zeta_5^2 a^2 + \frac{21}{25}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{13}{25}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{8}{25}\zeta_5 - \frac{13}{25} \right) e_1 \\
 & + \left(\left(\frac{3}{25}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{3}{25}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{3}{25}\zeta_5 + \frac{3}{25} \right) a^4 - \frac{11}{25}\zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{24}{25}\zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{11}{5}\zeta_5 a - \frac{209}{125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{131}{125}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{16}{25}\zeta_5 - \frac{312}{125} \right) e_2 \\
 & + \left(\left(\frac{2}{125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{2}{125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{2}{125}\zeta_5 + \frac{2}{125} \right) a^4 - \frac{18}{125}\zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{43}{125}\zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{22}{25}\zeta_5 a - \frac{523}{625}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{306}{625}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{187}{625}\zeta_5 - \frac{601}{625} \right) e_3 \\
 & + \left(\left(\frac{472}{625}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{472}{625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{472}{625}\zeta_5 + \frac{472}{625} \right) a^4 - \frac{621}{625}\zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{849}{625}\zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{187}{125}\zeta_5 a + \frac{193}{125}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{651}{625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{348}{625}\zeta_5 - \frac{10911}{3125} \right) e_4 \\
 & + \left(\left(\frac{1764}{3125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{1764}{3125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{1764}{3125}\zeta_5 + \frac{1764}{3125} \right) a^4 - \frac{2444}{3125}\zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{3789}{3125}\zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{1078}{625}\zeta_5 a \right. \\
 & \left. + \frac{83719}{78125}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{25967}{78125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{27127}{78125}\zeta_5 - \frac{224749}{78125} \right) e_5 \\
 & + \left(\left(\frac{83657}{78125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{83657}{78125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{83657}{78125}\zeta_5 + \frac{83657}{78125} \right) a^4 - \frac{109274}{78125}\zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{147876}{78125}\zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{7854}{3125}\zeta_5 a \right. \\
 & \left. + \frac{760188}{390625}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{527357}{390625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{77863}{78125}\zeta_5 - \frac{2211071}{390625} \right) e_6 \\
 & + \left(\left(\frac{107166}{390625}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{107166}{390625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{107166}{390625}\zeta_5 + \frac{107166}{390625} \right) a^4 - \frac{326469}{390625}\zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{593579}{390625}\zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{206448}{78125}\zeta_5 a \right. \\
 & \left. - \frac{5592851}{1953125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{1634437}{1953125}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{2435354}{1953125}\zeta_5 - \frac{7628117}{1953125} \right) e_7 \\
 & + \left(\left(\frac{1274709}{1953125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{1274709}{1953125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{1274709}{1953125}\zeta_5 + \frac{1274709}{1953125} \right) a^4 - \frac{2152392}{1953125}\zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{4373433}{1953125}\zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{1542541}{390625}\zeta_5 a \right. \\
 & \left. + \frac{1632279}{1953125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{91947}{78125}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{412568}{1953125}\zeta_5 - \frac{37334896}{9765625} \right) e_8, \\
 \tilde{e}_4 = & \left(-\frac{1}{5}\zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{1}{5}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{1}{5}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{1}{5}\zeta_5 + \frac{1}{5} \right) a^3 - \frac{1}{5}\zeta_5 a^2 + \frac{21}{25}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{13}{25}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{8}{25}\zeta_5 - \frac{13}{25} \right) e_1 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{3}{25}\zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{11}{25}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{11}{25}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{11}{25}\zeta_5 + \frac{11}{25} \right) a^3 - \frac{24}{25}\zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{11}{5}\zeta_5 a - \frac{209}{125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{131}{125}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{16}{25}\zeta_5 - \frac{312}{125} \right) e_2 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{2}{125}\zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{18}{125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{18}{125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{18}{125}\zeta_5 + \frac{18}{125} \right) a^3 - \frac{43}{125}\zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{22}{25}\zeta_5 a - \frac{523}{625}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{306}{625}\zeta_5^2 - \frac{187}{625}\zeta_5 - \frac{601}{625} \right) e_3 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{472}{625}\zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{621}{625}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{621}{625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{621}{625}\zeta_5 + \frac{621}{625} \right) a^3 - \frac{849}{625}\zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{187}{125}\zeta_5 a + \frac{193}{125}\zeta_5^3 - \frac{651}{625}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{348}{625}\zeta_5 - \frac{10911}{3125} \right) e_4 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{1764}{3125}\zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{2444}{3125}\zeta_5^3 + \frac{2444}{3125}\zeta_5^2 + \frac{2444}{3125}\zeta_5 + \frac{2444}{3125} \right) a^3 - \frac{3789}{3125}\zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{1078}{625}\zeta_5 a \right.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& + \frac{83719}{78125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{25967}{78125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{27127}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{224749}{78125} e_5 \\
& + \left(-\frac{83657}{78125} \zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{109274}{78125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{109274}{78125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{109274}{78125} \zeta_5 + \frac{109274}{78125} \right) a^3 - \frac{147876}{78125} \zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{7854}{3125} \zeta_5^3 a \right. \\
& + \frac{760188}{390625} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{527357}{390625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{77863}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{2211071}{390625} e_6 \\
& + \left(-\frac{107166}{390625} \zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{326469}{390625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{326469}{390625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{326469}{390625} \zeta_5 + \frac{326469}{390625} \right) a^3 - \frac{593579}{390625} \zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{206448}{78125} \zeta_5^3 a \right. \\
& - \frac{5592851}{1953125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{1634437}{1953125} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{2435354}{1953125} \zeta_5 - \frac{7628117}{1953125} e_7 \\
& + \left(-\frac{1274709}{1953125} \zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{2152392}{1953125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{2152392}{1953125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{2152392}{1953125} \zeta_5 + \frac{2152392}{1953125} \right) a^3 - \frac{4373433}{1953125} \zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{1542541}{390625} \zeta_5^3 a \right. \\
& + \frac{1632279}{1953125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{91947}{78125} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{412568}{1953125} \zeta_5 - \frac{37334896}{9765625} e_8, \\
\tilde{e}_5 = & \left(-\frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5 + \frac{1}{5} \right) a^2 + \frac{21}{25} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{13}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{8}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{13}{25} \right) e_1 \\
& + \left(-\frac{3}{25} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{11}{25} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{24}{25} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{24}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{24}{25} \zeta_5 + \frac{24}{25} \right) a^2 - \frac{11}{5} \zeta_5^2 a - \frac{209}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{131}{125} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{16}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{312}{125} \right) e_2 \\
& + \left(-\frac{2}{125} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{18}{125} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{43}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{43}{125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{43}{125} \zeta_5 + \frac{43}{125} \right) a^2 - \frac{22}{25} \zeta_5^2 a - \frac{523}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{306}{625} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{187}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{601}{625} \right) e_3 \\
& + \left(-\frac{472}{625} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{621}{625} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{849}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{849}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{849}{625} \zeta_5 + \frac{849}{625} \right) a^2 - \frac{187}{125} \zeta_5^2 a + \frac{193}{125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{651}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{348}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{10911}{3125} \right) e_4 \\
& + \left(-\frac{1764}{3125} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{2444}{3125} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{3789}{3125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{3789}{3125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{3789}{3125} \zeta_5 + \frac{3789}{3125} \right) a^2 - \frac{1078}{625} \zeta_5^2 a + \frac{83719}{78125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{25967}{78125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{27127}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{224749}{78125} \right) e_5 \\
& + \left(-\frac{83657}{78125} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{109274}{78125} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{147876}{78125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{147876}{78125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{147876}{78125} \zeta_5 + \frac{147876}{78125} \right) a^2 - \frac{7854}{3125} \zeta_5^2 a + \frac{760188}{390625} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{527357}{390625} \zeta_5^2 \right. \\
& + \frac{77863}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{2211071}{390625} e_6 \\
& + \left(-\frac{107166}{390625} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{326469}{390625} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{593579}{390625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{593579}{390625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{593579}{390625} \zeta_5 + \frac{593579}{390625} \right) a^2 - \frac{206448}{78125} \zeta_5^2 a - \frac{5592851}{1953125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{1634437}{1953125} \zeta_5^2 \right. \\
& - \frac{2435354}{1953125} \zeta_5 - \frac{7628117}{1953125} e_7 \\
& + \left(-\frac{1274709}{1953125} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{2152392}{1953125} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{4373433}{1953125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{4373433}{1953125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{4373433}{1953125} \zeta_5 + \frac{4373433}{1953125} \right) a^2 - \frac{1542541}{390625} \zeta_5^2 a + \frac{1632279}{1953125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{91947}{78125} \zeta_5^2 \right. \\
& - \frac{412568}{1953125} \zeta_5 - \frac{37334896}{9765625} e_8, \\
\tilde{e}_6 = & \left(-\frac{8}{25} v^3 + \frac{-34}{25} v^2 + \frac{26}{25} v^1 + \frac{-13}{25} \right) e_1 \\
& + \left(\frac{78}{125} v^3 + \frac{342}{125} v^2 + \frac{-52}{25} v^1 + \frac{131}{125} \right) e_2 \\
& + \left(\frac{217}{625} v^3 + \frac{799}{625} v^2 + \frac{-642}{625} v^1 + \frac{306}{625} \right) e_3 \\
& + \left(\frac{-314}{625} v^3 + \frac{-66}{25} v^2 + \frac{1268}{625} v^1 + \frac{-651}{625} \right) e_4 \\
& + \left(\frac{-57752}{78125} v^3 + \frac{-79061}{78125} v^2 + \frac{82559}{78125} v^1 + \frac{-25967}{78125} \right) e_5 \\
& + \left(\frac{-232831}{390625} v^3 + \frac{-1444029}{390625} v^2 + \frac{179646}{78125} v^1 + \frac{-527357}{390625} \right) e_6 \\
& + \left(\frac{3958414}{1953125} v^3 + \frac{5704228}{1953125} v^2 + \frac{-4791934}{1953125} v^1 + \frac{1634437}{1953125} \right) e_7 \\
& + \left(\frac{-3930954}{1953125} v^3 + \frac{5009918}{1953125} v^2 + \frac{-253828}{1953125} v^1 + \frac{91947}{78125} \right) e_8, \\
\tilde{e}_7 = & \left(-\frac{34}{25} v^3 + \frac{8}{25} v^2 + \frac{-42}{25} v^1 + \frac{21}{25} \right) e_1 \\
& + \left(\frac{338}{125} v^3 + \frac{-78}{125} v^2 + \frac{84}{25} v^1 + \frac{-209}{125} \right) e_2 \\
& + \left(\frac{859}{625} v^3 + \frac{-217}{625} v^2 + \frac{1016}{625} v^1 + \frac{-523}{625} \right) e_3 + \left(-\frac{1582}{625} v^3 + \frac{314}{625} v^2 + \frac{-1964}{625} v^1 + \frac{193}{125} \right) e_4 \\
& + \left(\frac{-140311}{78125} v^3 + \frac{57752}{78125} v^2 + \frac{-136813}{78125} v^1 + \frac{83719}{78125} \right) e_5
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & + \left(\frac{-1131061}{390625} v^3 + \frac{232831}{390625} v^2 + \frac{-335372}{78125} v^1 + \frac{760188}{390625} \right) e_6 \\
 & + \left(\frac{8750348}{1953125} v^3 + \frac{-3958414}{1953125} v^2 + \frac{9662642}{1953125} v^1 + \frac{-5592851}{1953125} \right) e_7 \\
 & + \left(\frac{-3677126}{1953125} v^3 + \frac{3930954}{1953125} v^2 + \frac{1078964}{1953125} v^1 + \frac{1632279}{1953125} \right) e_8, \\
 \tilde{e}_8 = & \left(\frac{-42}{25} v^3 + \frac{-26}{25} v^2 + \frac{-16}{25} v^1 + \frac{8}{25} \right) e_1 \\
 & + \left(\frac{84}{25} v^3 + \frac{52}{25} v^2 + \frac{32}{25} v^1 + \frac{-16}{25} \right) e_2 \\
 & + \left(\frac{1016}{625} v^3 + \frac{642}{625} v^2 + \frac{374}{625} v^1 + \frac{-187}{625} \right) e_3 \\
 & + \left(\frac{-1964}{625} v^3 + \frac{-1268}{625} v^2 + \frac{-696}{625} v^1 + \frac{348}{625} \right) e_4 \\
 & + \left(\frac{-136813}{78125} v^3 + \frac{-82559}{78125} v^2 + \frac{-54254}{78125} v^1 + \frac{27127}{78125} \right) e_5 \\
 & + \left(\frac{-335372}{78125} v^3 + \frac{-179646}{78125} v^2 + \frac{-155726}{78125} v^1 + \frac{77863}{78125} \right) e_6 \\
 & + \left(\frac{9662642}{1953125} v^3 + \frac{4791934}{1953125} v^2 + \frac{4870708}{1953125} v^1 + \frac{-2435354}{1953125} \right) e_7 \\
 & + \left(\frac{1078964}{1953125} v^3 + \frac{253828}{1953125} v^2 + \frac{825136}{1953125} v^1 + \frac{-412568}{1953125} \right) e_8.
 \end{aligned}$$

which yields in the expansions

$$\begin{aligned}
 \tilde{e}_0 = & 1 + \left(-\frac{21}{25} v^3 - \frac{13}{25} v^2 - \frac{8}{25} v - \frac{21}{25} \right) q^1 \\
 & + \left(\frac{209}{125} v^3 + \frac{131}{125} v^2 + \frac{16}{25} v - \frac{502}{125} \right) q^2 \\
 & + \left(\frac{523}{625} v^3 + \frac{306}{625} v^2 + \frac{187}{625} v + \frac{3399}{625} \right) q^3 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{193}{125} v^3 - \frac{651}{625} v^2 - \frac{348}{625} v - \frac{1073}{625} \right) q^4 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{83719}{78125} v^3 - \frac{25967}{78125} v^2 - \frac{27127}{78125} v - \frac{83624}{78125} \right) q^5 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{760188}{390625} v^3 - \frac{527357}{390625} v^2 - \frac{77863}{78125} v - \frac{427501}{390625} \right) q^6 + \dots, \\
 \tilde{e}_1 = & \left(-\frac{1}{5} a^4 - \frac{1}{5} a^3 - \frac{1}{5} a^2 + \frac{21}{25} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{13}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{8}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{13}{25} \right) q^1 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{3}{25} a^4 - \frac{11}{25} a^3 - \frac{24}{25} a^2 - \frac{11}{5} a - \frac{209}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{131}{125} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{16}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{312}{125} \right) q^2 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{2}{125} a^4 - \frac{18}{125} a^3 - \frac{43}{125} a^2 - \frac{22}{25} a - \frac{523}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{306}{625} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{187}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{601}{625} \right) q^3 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{472}{625} a^4 - \frac{621}{625} a^3 - \frac{849}{625} a^2 - \frac{187}{125} a + \frac{193}{125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{651}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{348}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{10911}{3125} \right) q^4 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{1764}{3125} a^4 - \frac{2444}{3125} a^3 - \frac{3789}{3125} a^2 - \frac{1078}{625} a + \frac{83719}{78125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{25967}{78125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{27127}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{224749}{78125} \right) q^5 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{83657}{78125} a^4 - \frac{109274}{78125} a^3 - \frac{147876}{78125} a^2 - \frac{7854}{3125} a + \frac{760188}{390625} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{527357}{390625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{77863}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{2211071}{390625} \right) q^6 + \dots, \\
 \tilde{e}_2 = & \left(-\frac{1}{5} \zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^3 a^2 + \frac{21}{25} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{13}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{8}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{13}{25} \right) q^1 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{3}{25} \zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{11}{25} \zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{24}{25} \zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{11}{5} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{11}{5} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{11}{5} \zeta_5 + \frac{11}{5} \right) a - \frac{209}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{131}{125} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{16}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{312}{125} \right) q^2 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{2}{125} \zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{18}{125} \zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{43}{125} \zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{22}{25} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{22}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{22}{25} \zeta_5 + \frac{22}{25} \right) a - \frac{523}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{306}{625} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{187}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{601}{625} \right) q^3 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{472}{625} \zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{621}{625} \zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{849}{625} \zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{187}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{187}{125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{187}{125} \zeta_5 + \frac{187}{125} \right) a + \frac{193}{125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{651}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{348}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{10911}{3125} \right) q^4 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{1764}{3125} \zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{2444}{3125} \zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{3789}{3125} \zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{1078}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{1078}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{1078}{625} \zeta_5 + \frac{1078}{625} \right) a \right. \\
 & \left. + \frac{83719}{78125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{25967}{78125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{27127}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{224749}{78125} \right) q^5
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& + \left(-\frac{83657}{78125} \zeta_5 a^4 - \frac{109274}{78125} \zeta_5^2 a^3 - \frac{147876}{78125} \zeta_5^3 a^2 + \left(\frac{7854}{3125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{7854}{3125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{7854}{3125} \zeta_5 + \frac{7854}{3125} \right) a \right. \\
& \left. + \frac{760188}{390625} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{527357}{390625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{77863}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{2211071}{390625} \right) q^6 + \dots, \\
\tilde{e}_3 = & \left(\left(\frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5 + \frac{1}{5} \right) a^4 - \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^2 a^2 + \frac{21}{25} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{13}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{8}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{13}{25} \right) q^1 \\
& + \left(\left(\frac{3}{25} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{3}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{3}{25} \zeta_5 + \frac{3}{25} \right) a^4 - \frac{11}{25} \zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{24}{25} \zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{11}{5} \zeta_5 a - \frac{209}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{131}{125} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{16}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{312}{125} \right) q^2 \\
& + \left(\left(\frac{2}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{2}{125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{2}{125} \zeta_5 + \frac{2}{125} \right) a^4 - \frac{18}{125} \zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{43}{125} \zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{22}{25} \zeta_5 a - \frac{523}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{306}{625} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{187}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{601}{625} \right) q^3 \\
& + \left(\left(\frac{472}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{472}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{472}{625} \zeta_5 + \frac{472}{625} \right) a^4 - \frac{621}{625} \zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{849}{625} \zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{187}{125} \zeta_5 a + \frac{193}{125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{651}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{348}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{10911}{3125} \right) q^4 \\
& + \left(\left(\frac{1764}{3125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{1764}{3125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{1764}{3125} \zeta_5 + \frac{1764}{3125} \right) a^4 - \frac{2444}{3125} \zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{3789}{3125} \zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{1078}{625} \zeta_5 a + \frac{83719}{78125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{25967}{78125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{27127}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{224749}{78125} \right) q^5 \\
& + \left(\left(\frac{83657}{78125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{83657}{78125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{83657}{78125} \zeta_5 + \frac{83657}{78125} \right) a^4 - \frac{109274}{78125} \zeta_5^3 a^3 - \frac{147876}{78125} \zeta_5^2 a^2 - \frac{7854}{3125} \zeta_5 a + \frac{760188}{390625} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{527357}{390625} \zeta_5^2 \right. \\
& \left. + \frac{77863}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{2211071}{390625} \right) q^6 + \dots, \\
\tilde{e}_4 = & \left(-\frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5 + \frac{1}{5} \right) a^3 - \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5 a^2 + \frac{21}{25} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{13}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{8}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{13}{25} \right) q^1 \\
& + \left(-\frac{3}{25} \zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{11}{25} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{11}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{11}{25} \zeta_5 + \frac{11}{25} \right) a^3 - \frac{24}{25} \zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{11}{5} \zeta_5 a - \frac{209}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{131}{125} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{16}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{312}{125} \right) q^2 \\
& + \left(-\frac{2}{125} \zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{18}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{18}{125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{18}{125} \zeta_5 + \frac{18}{125} \right) a^3 - \frac{43}{125} \zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{22}{25} \zeta_5 a - \frac{523}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{306}{625} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{187}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{601}{625} \right) q^3 \\
& + \left(-\frac{472}{625} \zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{621}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{621}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{621}{625} \zeta_5 + \frac{621}{625} \right) a^3 - \frac{849}{625} \zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{187}{125} \zeta_5 a + \frac{193}{125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{651}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{348}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{10911}{3125} \right) q^4 \\
& + \left(-\frac{1764}{3125} \zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{2444}{3125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{2444}{3125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{2444}{3125} \zeta_5 + \frac{2444}{3125} \right) a^3 - \frac{3789}{3125} \zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{1078}{625} \zeta_5 a + \frac{83719}{78125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{25967}{78125} \zeta_5^2 \right. \\
& \left. + \frac{27127}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{224749}{78125} \right) q^5 \\
& + \left(-\frac{83657}{78125} \zeta_5^2 a^4 + \left(\frac{109274}{78125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{109274}{78125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{109274}{78125} \zeta_5 + \frac{109274}{78125} \right) a^3 - \frac{147876}{78125} \zeta_5 a^2 - \frac{7854}{3125} \zeta_5 a + \frac{760188}{390625} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{527357}{390625} \zeta_5^2 \right. \\
& \left. + \frac{77863}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{2211071}{390625} \right) q^6 + \dots, \\
\tilde{e}_5 = & \left(-\frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{1}{5} \zeta_5 + \frac{1}{5} \right) a^2 + \frac{21}{25} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{13}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{8}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{13}{25} \right) q^1 \\
& + \left(-\frac{3}{25} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{11}{25} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{24}{25} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{24}{25} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{24}{25} \zeta_5 + \frac{24}{25} \right) a^2 - \frac{11}{5} \zeta_5 a - \frac{209}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{131}{125} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{16}{25} \zeta_5 - \frac{312}{125} \right) q^2 \\
& + \left(-\frac{2}{125} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{18}{125} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{43}{125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{43}{125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{43}{125} \zeta_5 + \frac{43}{125} \right) a^2 - \frac{22}{25} \zeta_5 a - \frac{523}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{306}{625} \zeta_5^2 - \frac{187}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{601}{625} \right) q^3 \\
& + \left(-\frac{472}{625} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{621}{625} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{849}{625} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{849}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{849}{625} \zeta_5 + \frac{849}{625} \right) a^2 - \frac{187}{125} \zeta_5 a + \frac{193}{125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{651}{625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{348}{625} \zeta_5 - \frac{10911}{3125} \right) q^4 \\
& + \left(-\frac{1764}{3125} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{2444}{3125} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{3789}{3125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{3789}{3125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{3789}{3125} \zeta_5 + \frac{3789}{3125} \right) a^2 - \frac{1078}{625} \zeta_5 a + \frac{83719}{78125} \zeta_5^3 - \frac{25967}{78125} \zeta_5^2 \right. \\
& \left. + \frac{27127}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{224749}{78125} \right) q^5 \\
& + \left(-\frac{83657}{78125} \zeta_5^3 a^4 - \frac{109274}{78125} \zeta_5 a^3 + \left(\frac{147876}{78125} \zeta_5^3 + \frac{147876}{78125} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{147876}{78125} \zeta_5 + \frac{147876}{78125} \right) a^2 - \frac{7854}{3125} \zeta_5 a + \frac{760188}{390625} \zeta_5^3 \right. \\
& \left. - \frac{527357}{390625} \zeta_5^2 + \frac{77863}{78125} \zeta_5 - \frac{2211071}{390625} \right) q^6 + \dots, \\
\tilde{e}_6 = & \left(-\frac{8}{25} v^3 - \frac{34}{25} v^2 + \frac{26}{25} v - \frac{13}{25} \right) q^1 \\
& + \left(\frac{78}{125} v^3 + \frac{342}{125} v^2 - \frac{52}{25} v + \frac{131}{125} \right) q^2
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & + \left(\frac{217}{625}v^3 + \frac{799}{625}v^2 - \frac{642}{625}v + \frac{306}{625} \right) q^3 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{314}{625}v^3 - \frac{66}{25}v^2 + \frac{1268}{625}v - \frac{651}{625} \right) q^4 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{57752}{78125}v^3 - \frac{79061}{78125}v^2 + \frac{82559}{78125}v - \frac{25967}{78125} \right) q^5 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{232831}{390625}v^3 - \frac{1444029}{390625}v^2 + \frac{179646}{78125}v - \frac{527357}{390625} \right) q^6 + \dots, \\
 \tilde{e}_7 = & \left(-\frac{34}{25}v^3 + \frac{8}{25}v^2 - \frac{42}{25}v + \frac{21}{25} \right) q^1 \\
 & + \left(\frac{338}{125}v^3 - \frac{78}{125}v^2 + \frac{84}{25}v - \frac{209}{125} \right) q^2 \\
 & + \left(\frac{859}{625}v^3 - \frac{217}{625}v^2 + \frac{1016}{625}v - \frac{523}{625} \right) q^3 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{1582}{625}v^3 + \frac{314}{625}v^2 - \frac{1964}{625}v + \frac{193}{125} \right) q^4 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{140311}{78125}v^3 + \frac{57752}{78125}v^2 - \frac{136813}{78125}v + \frac{83719}{78125} \right) q^5 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{1131061}{390625}v^3 + \frac{232831}{390625}v^2 - \frac{335372}{78125}v + \frac{760188}{390625} \right) q^6 + \dots, \\
 \tilde{e}_8 = & \left(-\frac{42}{25}v^3 - \frac{26}{25}v^2 - \frac{16}{25}v + \frac{8}{25} \right) q^1 \\
 & + \left(\frac{84}{25}v^3 + \frac{52}{25}v^2 + \frac{32}{25}v - \frac{16}{25} \right) q^2 \\
 & + \left(\frac{1016}{625}v^3 + \frac{642}{625}v^2 + \frac{374}{625}v - \frac{187}{625} \right) q^3 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{1964}{625}v^3 - \frac{1268}{625}v^2 - \frac{696}{625}v + \frac{348}{625} \right) q^4 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{136813}{78125}v^3 - \frac{82559}{78125}v^2 - \frac{54254}{78125}v + \frac{27127}{78125} \right) q^5 \\
 & + \left(-\frac{335372}{78125}v^3 - \frac{179646}{78125}v^2 - \frac{155726}{78125}v + \frac{77863}{78125} \right) q^6 + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

K for all Noncongruence Passports

This section lists all computed noncongruence passports together with the corresponding defining polynomials of the number fields K .

B.1 $\mu = 7$

<i>7T4-6.1_3.3.1_2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 1$
<i>7T7-4.3_3.3.1_2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>7T7-5.2_3.3.1_2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}

B.2 $\mu = 8$

<i>8T43-8_3.3.1.1_2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - 2$
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B.3 $\mu = 9$

<i>9T11-6.2.1_3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>9T13-6.3_3.3.3_2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>9T26-8.1_3.3.3_2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 + 2$
<i>9T27-7.1.1_3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>9T27-9_3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>9T30-4.3.2_3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>9T32-9_3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 1$
<i>9T33-5.3.1_3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>9T34-5.4_3.3.3_2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>9T34-7.2_3.3.3_2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}

B.4 $\mu = 10$

<i>10T30-10_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>10T30-8.1.1_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>10T44-6.4_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^3 - v^2 - 3v - 3$
<i>10T44-7.3_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^3 - v^2 + 2v - 3$
<i>10T44-8.2_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^3 - v^2 + 2v + 2$
<i>10T44-9.1_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^6 - 3v^5 + 6v^4 - 3v^3 + 3v^2 - 3v + 2$
<i>10T45-10_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^5 - 2$
<i>10T45-5.3.2_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>10T45-5.4.1_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>10T45-7.2.1_3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}

B.5 $\mu = 11$

<i>11T7-11_3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^8 + 2v^6 - 3v^5 + 10v^4 - 14v^3 + 14v^2 - 8v + 1$
<i>11T8-10.1_3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^6 - 3v^5 + 5v^4 - 5v^3 + v + 2$
<i>11T8-6.5_3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 3$
<i>11T8-7.4_3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^3 - v^2 + v + 1$
<i>11T8-8.3_3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^2 - 22$
<i>11T8-9.2_3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^3 + 6v - 1$

B.6 $\mu = 12$

<i>12T157-8.4_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 + 2$
<i>12T177-12_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - 3$
<i>12T178-12_3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>12T182-10.2_3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>12T182-8.4_3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>12T218-10.1.1_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v - 1$
<i>12T218-12_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - 3$
<i>12T251-6.4.2_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>12T253-12_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.1.1.1.1.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>12T284-9.3_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^3 - 3v - 4$
<i>12T291-8.3.1_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>12T295-10.2_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 + 5$
<i>12T295-11.1_3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 3$
<i>12T295-11.1_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 3$
<i>12T300-11.1_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^3 - v^2 + 4v + 2$
<i>12T300-7.5_3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}

<i>12T300-7.5_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - 7$
<i>12T301-12_3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^9 - 9v^7 - 12v^6 + 39v^5 + 48v^4 + 21v^3 - 36v^2 - 156v - 192$
<i>12T301-5.4.3_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>12T301-6.5.1_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - 3$
<i>12T301-7.3.2_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - 7$
<i>12T301-7.4.1_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 2$
<i>12T301-8.3.1_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 + 2$
<i>12T301-9.2.1_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^3 - 3v - 4$
<i>12T60-6.6_3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - 3$

B.7 $\mu = 13$

<i>13T5-6.6.1_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 1$
<i>13T7-13_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^4 - v^3 + 2v^2 + 4v + 3$
<i>13T8-10.2.1_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^6 - 2v^5 + 5v^2 + 5$
<i>13T8-11.1.1_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^6 - 3v^5 + 9v^4 - 11v^3 + 30v^2 - 18v + 46$
<i>13T8-13_3.3.3.3.1.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^5 - v^4 + v^3 - 5v^2 + 2v - 1$
<i>13T8-13_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^{10} - v^9 + 3v^8 - 3v^7 + 5v^6 - 4v^5 + 4v^4 - 18v^3 + 4v^2 + 12v + 9$
<i>13T8-13_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^{10} - 3v^9 + 5v^8 - 12v^7 + 24v^6 - 46v^5 + 68v^4 - 60v^3 + 96v^2 - 144v + 72$
<i>13T8-5.4.4_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>13T8-5.5.3_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>13T8-6.4.3_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v - 3$
<i>13T8-6.5.2_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 10$
<i>13T8-7.3.3_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>13T8-7.4.2_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^3 + 4v - 2$
<i>13T8-7.5.1_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^4 - v^3 + 9v^2 + 5v + 4$
<i>13T8-8.3.2_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^3 - v - 2$
<i>13T8-8.4.1_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^4 - 3v^2 - 2v + 6$
<i>13T8-9.2.2_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>13T8-9.3.1_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^4 - v^3 + 3v^2 + v + 2$
<i>13T9-10.3_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^{10} - 3v^9 - 4v^8 - 2v^7 + 29v^6 + 38v^5 + 3v^4 - v^3 + 22v^2 + 6v + 36$
<i>13T9-11.2_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^{10} - v^9 + 3v^8 + 4v^7 + 41v^6 + 224v^5 + 515v^4 + 828v^3 + 777v^2 + 348v + 164$
<i>13T9-12.1_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^{20} - 10v^{19} + 64v^{18} - 284v^{17} + 952v^{16} - 2510v^{15} + 5396v^{14} - 9710v^{13}$ $+ 14927v^{12} - 19828v^{11} + 22932v^{10} - 23186v^9 + 20570v^8$ $- 15896v^7 + 10384v^6 - 5396v^5 + 2200v^4 - 804v^3 + 288v^2 - 48v + 18$
<i>13T9-8.5_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^7 - 2v^6 - 2v^5 - 4v^4 + 3v^3 - 2v^2 - 6v - 4$
<i>13T9-9.4_3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^9 - 3v^8 - 6v^7 + 30v^6 - 90v^4 + 86v^3 + 30v^2 - 9v - 87$

B.8 $\mu = 14$

<i>14T16-8.4.2_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - 2$
<i>14T33-7.7_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^4 - v^3 + 3v^2 - 4v + 2$
<i>14T39-12.1.1_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - 3$
<i>14T39-14_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^3 - v^2 - 2v + 1$
<i>14T46-10.2.2_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T46-6.4.4_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T54-5.5.4_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T54-8.3.3_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T55-10.4_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T55-8.6_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T58-14_3.3.3.1.1.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T62-10.4_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{13} - v^{12} - 5v^{11} + 15v^{10} - 36v^8 + 51v^7 - 15v^6 - 20v^5$ $+ 80v^4 - 169v^3 + 189v^2 - 105v + 25$
<i>14T62-11.3_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{12} - v^{11} + 5v^{10} - 43v^9 + 20v^8 - 249v^7 - 63v^6 - 589v^5$ $- 43v^4 - 79v^3 - 139v^2 - 116v + 36$
<i>14T62-12.2_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{14} + 9v^{12} - 2v^{11} + 28v^{10} - 6v^9 + 40v^8 + 32v^7 + 40v^6 + 144v^5$ $+ 36v^4 + 132v^3 - 18v^2 - 36v - 18$
<i>14T62-9.5_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{10} - v^9 - 15v^8 + 78v^6 + 48v^5 - 150v^4 - 294v^3 - 267v^2$ $- 130v - 26$
<i>14T63-10.3.1_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T63-11.2.1_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^3 - v^2 + v + 1$
<i>14T63-6.5.3_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T63-7.6.1_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T63-8.5.1_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^3 - v^2 + 2v + 2$
<i>14T63-9.3.2_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>14T63-9.4.1_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 1$

B.9 $\mu = 15$

<i>15T100-6.4.3.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T100-6.4.4.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T100-8.3.2.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T101-12.3_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^8 + 4v^6 - 2v^5 + 5v^4 - 10v^3 - 10v - 5$
<i>15T101-9.6_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^6 - 3v^5 - 30v^3 + 45v^2 - 135v + 90$
<i>15T103-10.3.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^5 + 5v^3 - 5v^2 + 2$
<i>15T103-10.4.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^6 - 3v^5 + 10v^2 - 4v + 2$
<i>15T103-11.2.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - 55$
<i>15T103-11.3.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^{10} - 3v^9 + 25v^8 - 81v^7 + 244v^6 - 732v^5 + 1400v^4$ $- 2772v^3 + 4928v^2 - 3696v + 8624$
<i>15T103-12.2.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^{10} - 5v^9 + 9v^8 - 15v^6 - 9v^5 + 123v^4$ $- 270v^3 + 315v^2 - 205v + 65$

15T103-13.1.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^{10} - v^9 - 8v^8 + 16v^7 + 70v^6 + 2v^5 - 232v^4 + 144v^3 + 889v^2 + 1375v + 880$$

15T103-6.5.4_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^3 - v^2 - 3v - 3$$

15T103-7.4.4_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^2 - v - 1$$

15T103-7.5.3_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^4 - v^3 - 6v - 6$$

15T103-7.6.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^4 - 5v^2 - 20$$

15T103-7.7.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^3 - v^2 + 5v - 13$$

15T103-8.4.3_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^4 - 20v - 45$$

15T103-8.5.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^3 - v^2 + 2v + 2$$

15T103-8.6.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^7 - 3v^6 - 2v^5 + 8v^4 - 14v^3 + 20v^2 + 45v + 17$$

15T103-9.4.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^4 - v^3 + 6v^2 - 6v + 6$$

15T103-9.5.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a

$$v^7 - 9v^4 + 15v^3 + 30v^2 + 22v - 3$$

15T104-10.5_3.3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^5 - v^4 + 4v^3 - 5v^2 + 5v - 5$$

15T104-10.5_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a

$$v^5 + 5v^3 - 5v^2 + 2$$

15T104-11.2.1.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^3 - v^2 + v + 1$$

15T104-11.4_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a

$$v^6 - 3v^5 + 10v^4 + 10v^3 - 75v^2 + 233v - 224$$

15T104-11.4_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^2 - v - 1$$

15T104-11.4_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-b

\mathbb{Q}

15T104-12.1.1.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^2 - v + 1$$

15T104-12.3_3.3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^6 - 3v^5 + 15v^4 - 20v^3 + 30v^2 + 40$$

15T104-12.3_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^4 - 3v^2 - 9$$

15T104-13.2_3.3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^{10} - 3v^9 + 5v^8 - 11v^7 + 6v^6 + 53v^5 - 2v^4 + 30v^3 + 56v^2 - 126v + 126$$

15T104-13.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a

$$v^7 - v^6 - 20v^5 + 45v^4 + 170v^3 - 230v^2 - 280v + 600$$

15T104-13.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^5 - 2v^4 + 7v^3 - 14v^2 + 16v - 12$$

15T104-14.1_3.3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^{20} - 8v^{19} + 38v^{18} - 130v^{17} + 331v^{16} - 630v^{15} + 1113v^{14} - 2003v^{13} + 3977v^{12} - 7591v^{11} + 11365v^{10} - 12945v^9 + 13293v^8$$

$$-9674v^7 + 8192v^6 - 8038v^5 + 8392v^4$$

$$-5748v^3 + 6500v^2 - 168v + 1680$$

\mathbb{Q}

15T104-5.4.3.3_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^2 - v - 1$$

15T104-6.5.3.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

\mathbb{Q}

15T104-7.4.3.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^3 + 2v - 2$$

15T104-7.5.2.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^2 - v + 1$$

15T104-7.6.1.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

\mathbb{Q}

15T104-8.3.3.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^2 + 1$$

15T104-8.5.1.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^7 - v^6 - 14v^5 + 30v^4 + 60v^3 - 120v^2 - 180v + 420$$

15T104-8.7_3.3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^5 - 5v^3 - 70v^2 - 90v - 28$$

15T104-8.7_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a

$$v^2 + 5$$

15T104-8.7_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^3 - 2$$

15T104-9.3.2.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

\mathbb{Q}

15T104-9.4.1.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^5 - 5v^3 - 10v^2 + 15v + 20$$

15T104-9.6_3.3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^2 - v - 1$$

15T104-9.6_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a

$$v^2 - v - 1$$

<i>15T12-6.6.3_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v - 1$
<i>15T14-10.2.2.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T39-15_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.1.1.1.1.1.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T48-5.4.4.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T61-10.5_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T76-10.5_3.3.3.3.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 4$
<i>15T92-9.3.3_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^3 - 12v - 14$
<i>15T94-10.3.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T94-10.4.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T96-10.3.1.1_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T96-6.5.2.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T99-6.5.4_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>15T99-8.5.2_3.3.3.3.3_2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}

B.10 $\mu = 16$

<i>16T1502-12.4_3.3.3.3.1.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 1$
<i>16T1789-12.4_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 + 2$
<i>16T1789-12.4_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - 6$
<i>16T1790-12.2.1.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1790-6.4.3.3_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1799-14.2_3.3.3.3.1.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 2$
<i>16T1877-9.3.2.2_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1877-9.3.3.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1881-16_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^2 + 2$
<i>16T1881-8.4.4_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^6 - 2v^5 - v^4 + 2v^2 + 4v + 2$
<i>16T1900-12.4_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1.1.1-a</i>	$v^6 + 3v^4 - 4v^3 - 2$
<i>16T1949-10.6_3.3.3.3.1.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1953-10.3.2.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 + 1$
<i>16T1953-10.6_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - 6$
<i>16T1953-11.2.2.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1953-11.3.1.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1953-11.5_3.3.3.3.1.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 14$
<i>16T1953-11.5_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - 6$
<i>16T1953-12.2.1.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 1$
<i>16T1953-13.1.1.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 1$
<i>16T1953-13.3_3.3.3.3.1.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1953-13.3_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^3 - v - 2$
<i>16T1953-14.2_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^5 - v^4 + 4v^3 + 10v^2 - v + 31$
<i>16T1953-15.1_3.3.3.3.1.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^5 - 3$
<i>16T1953-15.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^{10} - 5v^7 + 5v^5 + 10v^4 - 20v^2 + 16$
<i>16T1953-5.5.4.2_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}

<i>16T1953-7.5.2.2_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1953-7.5.3.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1953-8.6.1.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^2 - v + 1$
<i>16T1953-9.4.2.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^3 + 3v - 2$
<i>16T1953-9.7_3.3.3.3.1.1.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>16T1953-9.7_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2-a</i>	$v^3 - 6v - 16$
<i>16T1954-10.4.2_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{13} - 3v^{12} - 14v^{11} + 50v^{10} + 65v^9 - 307v^8 - 144v^7$ $+688v^6 + 320v^5 + 320v^4 - 1000v^3 + 2200v^2 - 3500v + 2500$
<i>16T1954-11.3.2_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{15} - 4v^{14} + 72v^{13} - 223v^{12} + 1557v^{11} - 2892v^{10} + 11308v^9$ $-7535v^8 + 40931v^7 + 29964v^6 + 10824v^5 + 363803v^4$ $+103367v^3 + 125796v^2 + 933636v - 137005$
<i>16T1954-12.2.2_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^6 - 3v^5 + 9v^4 - 6v^2 - 6v - 6$
<i>16T1954-12.3.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{24} - 6v^{23} + 21v^{22} - 60v^{21} + 184v^{20} - 478v^{19} + 651v^{18} - 1220v^{17}$ $+2230v^{16} + 1226v^{15} - 947v^{14} + 804v^{13} - 7092v^{12} - 6862v^{11}$ $+3971v^{10} - 15340v^9 + 7975v^8 + 36044v^7 + 7134v^6$ $+14896v^5 + 13928v^4 - 2372v^3 + 3970v^2 - 584v + 22$
<i>16T1954-6.5.5_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^4 + 4v^2 - 2$
<i>16T1954-6.6.4_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^4 + 4v^2 - 2$
<i>16T1954-8.5.3_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^9 - 4v^8 + 8v^6 - 16v^3 + 18v - 8$
<i>16T1954-8.6.2_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{11} - 3v^{10} + 13v^9 - 27v^8 + 54v^7 - 98v^6 + 94v^5$ $-242v^4 + 77v^3 - 455v^2 - 7v - 463$
<i>16T1954-8.7.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{19} - 6v^{18} + 17v^{17} - 22v^{16} + 24v^{15} - 322v^{14} - 345v^{13} - 1002v^{12}$ $+1070v^{11} - 718v^{10} + 6969v^9 - 4934v^8 + 6808v^7$ $-27018v^6 + 211v^5 - 60738v^4 + 90045v^3$ $-122168v^2 + 333600v - 362592$
<i>16T1954-9.5.2_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{10} - 4v^9 - 12v^8 + 88v^7 + 8v^6 - 384v^5 - 944v^4$ $+4640v^3 + 8010v^2 + 5400v + 1800$
<i>16T1954-9.6.1_3.3.3.3.3.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1.1-a</i>	$v^{18} - 6v^{17} + 18v^{16} - 36v^{15} - 21v^{14} + 312v^{13} - 311v^{12}$ $-780v^{11} + 2469v^{10} - 5892v^9 + 3657v^8 + 12180v^7 - 6851v^6$ $-11400v^5 - 1137v^4 + 5820v^3 + 26802v^2 + 23418v - 40563$

B.11 $\mu = 17$

<i>17T6-15.1.1_3.3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	\mathbb{Q}
<i>17T6-17_3.3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^2 - v - 4$
<i>17T9-10.4.3_3.3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^8 - 2v^7 - 9v^6 + 33v^5 + 135v^4 - 579v^3 + 1018v^2 - 524v - 297$
<i>17T9-10.5.2_3.3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^9 - 2v^8 - 14v^7 + 32v^6 + 33v^5 - 246v^4$ $+387v^3 - 406v^2 + 308v - 168$
<i>17T9-10.6.1_3.3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a</i>	$v^{16} - 4v^{15} + 24v^{14} - 61v^{13} + 232v^{12} - 482v^{11} + 2121v^{10} - 2469v^9$ $+12216v^8 - 14432v^7 + 35132v^6 - 57576v^5 + 60704v^4$ $-96296v^3 + 87652v^2 - 45396v + 67152$

$17T9-11.3.3_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^4 - v^3 - 3v^2 - 63v - 189$
$17T9-13.2.2_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^6 - v^5 - 60v^4 - 20v^3 + 2290v^2 + 8844v - 48554$
$17T9-13.3.1_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^{18} - 5v^{17} + 9v^{16} - 29v^{15} + 253v^{14} - 1009v^{13} + 1995v^{12}$ $-2831v^{11} + 7366v^{10} - 19570v^9 + 30844v^8 - 34272v^7$ $+70708v^6 - 101660v^5$ $+109820v^4 - 125052v^3 + 186184v^2 - 28424v + 61744$
$17T9-6.6.5_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^3 - v^2 + 6v - 12$
$17T9-7.5.5_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^4 - v^3 + 5v^2 - 5v + 2$
$17T9-7.7.3_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^3 - v^2 + 6v + 5$
$17T9-8.5.4_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^8 - 10v^6 - 6v^5 + 30v^4 + 48v^3 - 9v^2 - 104v - 84$
$17T9-8.6.3_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^8 - 4v^7 - 4v^6 + 14v^5 + 29v^4 - 18v^3 - 12v^2 + 50v - 83$
$17T9-9.4.4_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^5 - v^4 - 2v^3 - 3v + 3$
$17T9-9.5.3_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^7 - 2v^6 + 10v^5 - 116v^4 - 347v^3$ $+ 1834v^2 + 7956v + 15984$
$17T9-9.6.2_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^9 - 3v^8 - 9v^7 - 4v^6 + 72v^5 + 192v^4$ $+399v^3 + 567v^2 + 477v + 144$
$17T9-9.7.1_3.3.3.3.1.1_2.2.2.2.2.2.2.1-a$	$v^{17} - 5v^{16} + 13v^{15} - 87v^{14} + 306v^{13} - 228v^{12} - 548v^{11}$ $+520v^{10} + 5086v^9 - 39042v^8 + 192006v^7$ $-665778v^6 + 1584964v^5$ $-2451512v^4 + 2221792v^3 - 986400v^2 + 98496v - 31104$

Traces of Real Singular Moduli: $\text{Tr}_d(j_m)$

We list numerical approximations of traces of real singular moduli for $m = 0, \dots, 9$ here to 500 digits precision. All data to full precision can be found in [102].

C.1 $d = 5$

```
#m Tr_d(j_m)
0 0.13700342101073800401806869981047721645341271206232290029311678094301915508145
  4319010543949763640260408730578891045552602802417097999808259536483182030037738
  1876000827583653521768530791364610408268138503040864770556575792420428723055900
  0985278209280903418219228835453677544565617587247981518304670619098084082527059
  3016730521472818521990371174891643984509732519640348361443020590368489358915686
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C.5 $d = 17$

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- 4 -59.982120474790686533796117043883423741365944677600155666300973383235493196957
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C.6 $d = 20$

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C.7 $d = 21$

#m $\text{Tr}_d(j_m)$

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C.8 $d = 24$

#m Tr_d(j_m)

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- 6670992420142368794863001465890569150369273895062739215290711479346525698595937
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- 1 -8.9888832754103319652568536151065598717401882096631572111044072353805334845219
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- 2 -26.290905039100051684235604998175787763700116714500174045750246429660262826996
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- 3 -31.606100647072854836425198690272023854138268842837781474843393322125401999120
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9 -96.405355373179337271239352327263695094363179592570619803177339887669193293184
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C.9 $d = 28$

#m Tr_d(j_m)

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- 4 -62.009215188552632524049494920819715061082894498943810372172428574337733717980
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C.10 $d = 29$

#m $\text{Tr}_d(j_m)$

- 0 0.19473125800165782681409604345957578754319786085518021414333350324933244336832
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- 1475056920242718097996213025432109135794474426451801321244421113769038081840523
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- 1 -5.0792628195461559508034151409697742277360585549326731917469946340740799550977
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- 3 -21.801781898801744961380839611035765094030790662330139949865155302419435091231
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- 4 -36.215738330892854764627362816479101372402088014115898181159185462449791139938
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- 5 -28.725045599004104034374339133741169914112126191218572806712683983662387065829
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C.11 $d = 32$

#m $\text{Tr}_d(j_m)$

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- 4 -55.526944897014870891733002920516033656594813756516702301157008041316622387747
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- 4 -48.797331024891363695561128045371739611535848723935719082899595975903573622034
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- 5343342540768040389472161151029968154745629566169834383058976548529556971914022
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C.15 $d = 41$

#m $\text{Tr}_d(j_m)$

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1 -12.638275379124474145951429659952906217019962598411454967471417961900176114836
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2 -35.699476261046594666304590777674243836524331026719500954004156853830168443131
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- 4 -77.329979678500170763719874387754687052270683499926956935375103235515959633182
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- 5 -60.851765928226299274358751591588284731190710956881948575011977449993870314129
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- 6 -129.13414099707953631934463599859300809469390992585425331827991323807303634163
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- 7 -77.456774810752149744456343954715547290327332524872913308589877399450697113292
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- 9 -133.32915384915472746512098567458355258868559202267952128199561433266438882860
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C.16 $d = 44$

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- 8869551548415910554536916289855459623072482991476171392767977614106048943461173
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- 1 -7.7394823553047604292771554414152681858944714896001257941860426510811296702106
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 - 2 -24.355145895933215805439163467187314024854185819690126140292417279986790066949
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C.17 $d = 45$

#m Tr_d(j_m)

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- 4 -42.395199445883110673835137892737577931379383204230681585249803753541879731410
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- 5 -34.498783144047351014657066983731318875190274482657197241629539733653749055775
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- 6 -70.047526369057555050411656956943155819508969762715400181104673370940323212793
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- 8 -87.102191662266480915802352963125358841886751104842099996233673523250620026527
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- 9 -73.043548835849113588830272133233060431567173393916358366690585428372099849649
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C.18 $d = 48$

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1 -10.748004699280588596716468798020658422081717462999839589695349045107309374032
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3 -38.506268373073259486591984134093807638184197137690901034947539980400063675196
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4 -68.352621326782311708960772299380086749929514953681499604180202322047806735614
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