# Hypergeometric Functions

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June 19 – 30, 2023

These are the notes I've taken for a series of lectures on hypergeometric functions, given by Brian Grove, at the 2023 Ross Mathematics Program at Otterbein College.

### **References**

- Poonen's notes on Arithmetic Geometry
- Silverman-Tate Rational Points on Elliptic Curves (UTM, for beginners)
- Silverman The Arithmetic of Elliptic Curves, Advanced topics in the Arithmetic of Elliptic Curves (GTM, quite hard)

## §1 Introduction

Here are some elementary expansions of commonly used functions, which would be helpful for later (as typical, we assume  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ):

Silverman-Tate - Rational Points on Elliptic Curves (UTM, for beginners)

\nSilverman - The Arithmetic of Elliptic Curves, Advanced topics in the Arit of Elliptic Curves (GTM, quite hard)

\n**ntroduction**

\nare some elementary expansions of commonly used functions, which would be

\nfor (as typical, we assume 
$$
x \in \mathbb{R}
$$
):

\n
$$
\sin(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}
$$

\n
$$
\cos(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k}}{(2k)!}
$$

\n
$$
\tan^{-1}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k+1}}{2k+1}
$$
 where  $x \in [-1, 1]$ 

\n
$$
-\ln(1-x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1}
$$

\n
$$
e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}
$$

Now, our goal is to find a "master power series" of some sort.

**Definition 1.1** (Pochhammer symbol). Let  $y \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then define the *rising* factorial as

$$
(y)_k := y(y+1)\dots(y+k-1)
$$

where  $(y)_0 := 1$ . (This is also called the *Pochhammer symbol.*)

**Definition 1.2.** Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}$  with  $c \notin \mathbb{Z}^{\leq 0}$ . Define the  ${}_2F_1$  hypergeometric function to be

$$
{}_2F_1\left[\begin{array}{c}a&b\\c&\end{array};z\right]:=\sum_{k=0}^\infty\frac{(a)_k(b)_k}{(1)_k(c)_k}z^k
$$

with  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $||z|| < 1$ . (By convention, there is always an implicit  $(1)_k$ .)

If  $1 + c > a + b$ , then the  ${}_2F_1$  hypergeometric function is defined when  $||z|| = 1$ .

**Remark.** The condition  $c \notin \mathbb{Z}^{\leq 0}$  is there because we don't want to divide by zero :P

Example 1.3 Let  $a = b = c = 1$ , then we get  ${}_2F_1\left[1\atop1; z\right] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}$  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^k$ , the geometric series.

**Claim** — 
$$
\tan^{-1}(x) = x \cdot {}_{2}F_{1}\left[\frac{1}{3}(\frac{1}{2}) + x^{2}\right].
$$

*Proof.* Note that  $\tan^{-1}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}$  $_{k=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{k}\frac{x^{2k+1}}{2k+1}$  $\frac{x^{2k+1}}{2k+1}$  where  $x \in [-1,1]$ . Moreover,

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\text{Note that } \tan^{-1}(x) &= x \cdot 2^{F_1} \left[ \frac{3}{2}, -x \right] \\
\text{Note that } \tan^{-1}(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k+1}}{2k+1} \text{ where } x \in [-1, 1]. \text{ Moreover,} \\
x \cdot 2^{F_1} \left[ \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{2}, -x^2 \right] \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1)_k \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)_k}{(1)_k \left( \frac{3}{2} \right)_k} (-1)^k x^{2k+1} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k+1}}{2k+1} \\
\text{we are done.} \\
\text{ample 1.4} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{I} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{I} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{I} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{I} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{II} \quad \frac{1}{2
$$

hence we are done.

## Example 1.4

Let 
$$
x = 1
$$
, then  $\frac{\pi}{4} = {}_2F_1\left[\frac{1}{\frac{3}{2}}; -1\right]$ .

Definition 1.5. In general, we define the generalized hypergeometric function (GHF) to be

$$
{}_{n}F_{n-1}\left[\begin{array}{cccc} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \\ b_2 & b_3 & \dots & b_n \end{array}; z\right] := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(a_1)_k (a_2)_k (a_3)_k, \dots, (a_n)_k}{(1)_k (b_2)_k (b_3)_k, \dots, (b_n)_k} z^k
$$

Remark. This is often called the *sum definition* of the hypergeometric function. (As you would've probably guessed, there is an integral definition as well.)

#### Example 1.6

Here's another example of a hypergeometric function:

$$
{}_3F_2\bigg[ {a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3 \atop b_2 \ b_3}; z \bigg] := \sum_{k=0}^\infty {(a_1)_k (a_2)_k (a_3)_k \over (1)_k (b_2)_k (b_3)_k} z^k
$$

Remark. Application of hypergeometric functions on elliptic curves.

## §2 Elliptic curves

**Definition 2.1.** An elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is an equation of the form  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ (whose discriminant is  $\Delta = -16(4a^3 + 27b^2) \neq 0$ ), also satisfying the following properties:

- nonsingular
- projective
- existence of a Q-rational point

projective<br>existence of a Q-rational point<br>ition 2.2. A *singularity* is either a *node* (there exists a point with an "<br>tive) or a *cusp* (the curve is not smooth).<br>**ample 2.3**<br> $=x^3 + x$  is nonsingular  $(\Delta = -64 \neq 0)$ .<br>what **Definition 2.2.** A *singularity* is either a *node* (there exists a point with an "X-like" derivative) or a *cusp* (the curve is not smooth).

Example 2.3  $y^2 = x^3 + x$  is nonsingular  $(\Delta = -64 \neq 0)$ .

For what comes below, let  $\Bbbk$  be a field.

**Definition 2.4.** Define the *affine n*-space as  $\mathbb{A}^n(\mathbb{k}) = \mathbb{k}^n$ .

Remark. Technically you need more than this, but this suffices for our purposes.

Definition 2.5. Define the *projective n-space* as

$$
\mathbb{P}^n(\Bbbk) = \Bbbk^{n+1} - \{ \mathbf{0} \}_\text{in}
$$

where  $\sim$  is some equivalence relation and  $(x_0, \ldots, x_n) = \lambda(y_0, \ldots, y_n)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{k} - \{0\}$  is the determinant of  $\sim$ .

We want to make the equation for the elliptic curve to be nice, that is, to make the equation respect the projective n-space.

Remark. Goal: write a homogeneous equation for the elliptic curve.

**Definition 2.6** (Homogenization). We send  $x \mapsto \frac{x}{z}$  and  $y \mapsto \frac{y}{z}$ , where  $z \neq 0$ . This homogenizes the equation.

#### Example 2.7

For  $y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$ , it becomes  $y^2z = x^3 + Axz^2 + Bz^3$ , so it's homogenized.

#### Example 2.8

Why  $z \neq 0$ ? In projective space  $\mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{k})$ , we don't have  $(0,0,0)$ . Let  $z = 0$ , in our previous example, then  $x^3 = 0 \implies x = 0$ , so we get  $\mathcal{O} = (0, 1, 0)$ , the point at infinity.

**Definition 2.9.** Let  $E: y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$ . Then, define

 $E(\mathbb{Q}) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{Q}^2 \text{ satisfies } E\} \cup \{\mathcal{O}\}\$ 

Theorem 2.10 (Bézout's theorem)

For a line L, we have that  $L \cap E$  has exactly 3 intersection points (provided that we count multiple points and point at infinity).

#### Theorem 2.11

 $E(\mathbb{Q})$  is an abelian group.

more 2.11<br>
(a) is an abelian group.<br>
By Bézout's theorem, we call  $P \star Q$  the third point on the line with  $P$ ,  $Q$ <br>
(b) is an abelian group.<br>
By Bézout's theorem, we call  $P \star Q$  the third point on the line with  $P$ ,  $Q$ <br> *Proof.* By Bézout's theorem, we call  $P \star Q$  the third point on the line with P, Q. Then, we take the second intersection point of the tangent of  $P \star Q$  as  $P + Q$ , that is,

$$
P + Q = \mathcal{O} \star (P \star Q)
$$

Then, since the line-point labeling is not order-dependent, it is obviously abelian.  $\Box$ 

#### Lemma 2.12

The identity of  $E$  is the point at infinity  $\mathcal{O}$ .

*Proof.* Obviously  $P + \mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O} \star (P \star \mathcal{O}) = P$ .

Now, obviously we want  $P + (-P) = \mathcal{O}$ .

#### Lemma 2.13

The inverse of  $P$ , denoted as  $(-P)$ , is constructed as follows: We take the tangent line from  $\mathcal{O}$ , whose intersection is  $P \star (-P)$ .

Proof. Note that we have

$$
P + (-P) = \mathcal{O} \star (P \star (-P)) = \mathcal{O}
$$

Thus, by construction, inverses are unique.

 $\Box$ 

**Definition 2.14.** The Legendre form of  $E$  is the following:

$$
y^2 = x(1-x)(1-\lambda x)
$$

where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0, 1\}.$ 

**Definition 2.15.** An alternative form is to take  $x \mapsto \frac{1}{\lambda}$  $\frac{1}{\lambda}x$  and  $y \mapsto \frac{1}{\lambda}$  $\frac{1}{\lambda}y$ , thus

$$
y^2 = x(x-1)(x - \lambda)
$$

Definition 2.16. Let  $s \in \mathbb{C}$ . Define

$$
\Gamma(s) = \int_0^\infty t^{s-1} e^{-t} dt
$$

for  $\Re(s) > 0$ . An alternative definition is

$$
\Gamma(s) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{k^{s-1}k!}{(s)_k}
$$

for  $s \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{ \mathbb{Z}_{\leq 0} \}.$  (Exercise: Prove that these two definitions are indeed equivalent.)

 $s > 0$ . An alternative definition is<br>  $\Gamma(s) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{k^{s-1}k!}{(s)_k}$ <br>  $\equiv \mathbb{C} \setminus \{\mathbb{Z}_{\leq 0}\}.$  (Exercise: Prove that these two definitions are indeed equival<br> **ample 2.17** (Facts about  $\Gamma(s)$ )<br>
have the following fa Example 2.17 (Facts about  $\Gamma(s)$ ) We have the following facts about  $\Gamma(s)$ : •  $\Gamma(1) = 1$ •  $\Gamma(s+1) = s\Gamma(s)$  for  $s \in \mathbb{C} \setminus {\mathbb{Z}_{\leq 0}}$  (functional equation) •  $\Gamma(k+1) = k!$ •  $\Gamma(a+k) = (a)_k \Gamma(a)$ •  ${}_2F_1\left[\begin{array}{c} a & b \\ c & z \end{array}\right] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty}$  $k=0$  $\Gamma(a+k)\Gamma(b+k)\Gamma(c)$  $\frac{(a+k)\Gamma(b+k)\Gamma(c)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)\Gamma(c+k)} \cdot \frac{2^k}{k!}$  $k!$ •  $\Gamma(s)\Gamma(1-s) = \frac{\pi}{\Gamma(s)}$  $\frac{\pi}{\sin(\pi s)}$ , where  $s \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{Z}$ •  $(1-z)^{-a} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}$  $k=0$  $(a)_k$  $\frac{\omega_{jk}}{k!}$  for  $|z| < 1$ •  $(a)_k = \frac{\Gamma(a+k)}{\Gamma(a)}$  $\Gamma(a)$ •  $\pi = \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2$  $= B\left(\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}\right)$ 

Exercise 2.18. Prove the above facts.

**Definition 2.19.** Define  $B(x, y) = \int_0^1$  $\mathbf{0}$  $t^{x-1}(1-t)^{y-1}dt$ , for  $\Re(x), \Re(y) > 0$ . **Exercise 2.20.** Prove that  $B(x, y) = \frac{\Gamma(x)\Gamma(y)}{\Gamma(x+1)}$  $\frac{\Gamma(x) \Gamma(y)}{\Gamma(x+y)}$  for  $x, y > 0$ .

**Theorem 2.21** (Differential forms of elliptic curves)  

$$
\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x(1-x)(1-\lambda x)}} = \pi \cdot {}_2F_1\left[\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1}^{\frac{1}{2}};\lambda\right] \text{ for } \lambda \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0,1\}.
$$

Proof. The proof is as follows:

$$
\int_{0}^{1} (x(1-x))^{-\frac{1}{2}} (1 - \lambda x)^{-\frac{1}{2}} dx
$$
\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{1} (x(1-x))^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2})_{k}}{k!} (\lambda x)^{k} \right] dx
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2})_{k}}{k!} \lambda^{k} \int_{0}^{1} x^{k-\frac{1}{2}} (1 - x)^{-\frac{1}{2}} dx
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2})_{k}}{k!} \lambda^{k} \int_{0}^{1} x^{k+\frac{1}{2}-1} (1 - x)^{\frac{1}{2}-1} dx
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2})_{k}}{k!} \lambda^{k} B \left( k + \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right)
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2})_{k}}{k!} \frac{\Gamma(k+\frac{1}{2}) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2})}{\Gamma(k+1)} \lambda^{k}
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2})_{k}}{k!k!} \lambda^{k} \Gamma(k+\frac{1}{2}) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2})
$$
\n
$$
= \Gamma(\frac{1}{2})^{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2})_{k}}{k!k!} (\lambda^{k})
$$
\n
$$
= \pi \cdot {}_{2}F_{1} \left[ \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \lambda \right]
$$

and we are done.

**Example 2.22**  
We denote 
$$
{}_2P_1\left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; -1\right] = B(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) \cdot {}_2F_1\left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \lambda\right].
$$

**Definition 2.23.** Define  ${}_2F_1\left[ \begin{smallmatrix} a & b \ c & c \end{smallmatrix} ; z \right]:= B(b,c-b)\cdot {}_2P_1\left[ \begin{smallmatrix} a & b \ c & c \end{smallmatrix} ; z \right].$ 

 $\Box$ 

Assume  $c > b$ , then

$$
{}_{2}P_{1}\left[\begin{array}{l}a,b\\c\end{array};z\right] = \frac{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(c-b)}{\Gamma(c)} \cdot {}_{2}F_{1}\left[\begin{array}{l}a,b\\c\end{array};z\right]
$$
  
\n
$$
\implies {}_{2}P_{1}\left[\begin{array}{l}a,b\\c\end{array};z\right] = \int_{0}^{1} t^{b-1}(1-t)^{c-b-1}(1-2t)^{-a}dt \text{ when } z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus [1,\infty)
$$
  
\n
$$
\implies {}_{2}F_{1}\left[\begin{array}{l}a,b\\c\end{array};z\right] = \frac{\Gamma(c)}{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(c-b)} \int_{0}^{1} t^{b-1}(1-t)^{c-b-1}(1-2t)^{-a}dt
$$

Theorem 2.24 (Gauss) If  $c > b$  and  $c - a - b > 0$ , then

> ${}_2F_1 \left[ \begin{array}{c} a \;\; b \ c \end{array} ;1 \right] = \frac{\Gamma(c) \Gamma(c-a-b)}{\Gamma(c-a) \Gamma(c-b)}$  $\Gamma(c-a)\Gamma(c-b)$

*Proof.* By Abel continuity theorem, letting  $z \to 1^-$ ,

By Abel continuity theorem, letting 
$$
z \to 1^-
$$
,  
\n
$$
{}_2F_1\left[\begin{array}{c} a, b \\ c \end{array}; 1\right] = \frac{\Gamma c}{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(c - b)} \int_0^1 t^{b-1} (1 - t)^{(c-a-b)-1}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{\Gamma(c)}{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(c - b)} B(b, c - a - b)
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{\Gamma(c)}{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(c - b)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(c - a - b)}{\Gamma(c - a)}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{\Gamma(c)\Gamma(c - a + b)}{\Gamma(c - a)\Gamma(c - b)}
$$
\nwe are done.  
\n
$$
\text{ample 2.25}
$$
\n
$$
a = \frac{1}{2}, b = \frac{1}{2}, c = \frac{3}{2}. \text{ Then, since } \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{\pi} \text{ and } \Gamma(s + 1) = s\Gamma(s), \text{ we have}
$$

hence we are done.

**Example 2.25**  
\nLet 
$$
a = \frac{1}{2}
$$
,  $b = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $c = \frac{3}{2}$ . Then, since  $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{\pi}$  and  $\Gamma(s + 1) = s\Gamma(s)$ , we have  
\n
$$
{}_2F_1\left[\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{\frac{3}{2}};\frac{1}{2}\right] = \Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{2}
$$
\nhence  $\Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$ .

Theorem 2.26 (Pfaff transformation)  ${}_2F_1\left[ \begin{array}{c} a \;\; b \[1mm] c \end{array} ; x \right] = (1-x)^{-a} {}_2F_1\left[ \begin{array}{c} a \;\; c - b \[1mm] c \end{array} \right]$  $\frac{c-b}{c}; \frac{x}{x-c}$  $x-1$ 

*Proof.* We have 
$$
{}_2F_1\left[ \begin{array}{c} a & b \\ c & \end{array} ; x \right] = \frac{\Gamma(c)}{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(c-b)} \int_0^1 t^{b-1} (1-t)^{c-b-1} (1-2t)^{-a} dt.
$$

.

Let  $t \mapsto 1-s$ , then

$$
{}_2F_1\left[\begin{array}{c} a,b \\ c \end{array};x\right] = \frac{\Gamma(c)}{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(c-b)} \int_0^1 s^{c-k-1} (1-s)^{b-1} (1-x)^{-a} (1+s(\frac{x}{1-x}))^{-a}
$$

$$
= (1-x)^{-a} {}_2F_1\left[\begin{array}{c} a,c-b \\ c \end{array};\frac{x}{x-1}\right]
$$

and we are done.

**Theorem 2.27** (Euler)  
\n
$$
{}_2F_1\left[\begin{array}{c} a & b \\ c & \end{array};x\right] = (1-x)^{c-a-b} {}_2F_1\left[\begin{array}{c} c-a & c-b \\ c & \end{array};x\right].
$$

**Theorem 2.28** (Binet's formula)  

$$
F_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left( \left( \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \left( \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n \right)
$$

**Exercise 2.29.** Prove  $F_{-n} = (-1)^{n-1} F_n$ . (Use Binet's formula or induction)

Remark. Hypergeometric functions are recursive by nature.

Exercise 2.29. Prove 
$$
F_{-n} = (-1)^{n-1} F_n
$$
. (Use Binet's formula or induction)  
\n**Remark.** Hypergeometric functions are recursive by nature.  
\n**Theorem 2.30** (Dilcher)  
\nLet  $a = \frac{1-n}{2}$  and  $z = \sqrt{5}$ . Then,  
\n
$$
{}_2F_1\left[\frac{1-n}{2}, 1 - \frac{n}{2}; 5\right] = \frac{1}{2n\sqrt{5}} \left[(1 + \sqrt{5})^n - (1 - \sqrt{5})^n\right]
$$
\n
$$
\implies F_n = \frac{n}{2^{n-1}} \cdot {}_2F_1\left[\frac{1-n}{2}, 1 - \frac{n}{2}; 5\right]
$$

Here are some other folklore theorems, mainly for fun:

#### Theorem 2.31

$$
{}_2F_1\left[ \begin{array}{cc} a & a + \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{3}{2} & z^2 \end{array} \right] = \frac{1}{2z(1 - 2a)} \left[ (1 + z)^{1 - 2a} - (1 - z)^{1 - 2a} \right]
$$

Theorem 2.32

$$
{}_2F_1\left[ \begin{array}{cc} a & a + \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & z \end{array} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[ (1 + \sqrt{z})^{-2a} + (1 - \sqrt{z})^{-2a} \right]
$$

**Exercise 2.33.** For  $C_n = \frac{1}{n-1}$  $n + 1$  $\binom{2n}{n}$ , show that  $C_n = {}_2F_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1-n & -n \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -n \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Proof. Expand by definition, then represent the summation as

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{\binom{n}{k} \binom{n}{n-k-1}}{n}
$$

which is just  $\frac{\binom{2n}{n}}{n+1}$  by Vandermonde's identity.

## §3 Relation with the Riemann zeta function

Definition 3.1 (Riemann, 1859) . Define the Riemann zeta function as

$$
\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s} = \prod_p \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{p^s}}
$$

for  $\Re(s) > 1$ .

and the 3.2 (Basel problem)<br>
example,  $\zeta(2) = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$ .<br>
e that  $\pi = {}_2F_1\left[\frac{1}{\frac{3}{2}}; -1\right]$ , so<br>  $\zeta(2) = \frac{1}{6} \left( {}_2F_1\left[\frac{1}{\frac{3}{2}}; -1\right] \right)^2$ <br>
ition 3.3. Let  $B_0 = 1$  and  $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} {n \choose k} B_k = 0$ .<br>  $= -\frac{1}{2}, B$ Example 3.2 (Basel problem) For example,  $\zeta(2) = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$  $\frac{7^2}{6}$ . Note that  $\pi = {}_2F_1 \left[ \begin{array}{c} 1 \frac{1}{2} \\ 3 \end{array} \right]$  $\frac{1}{2}$  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; -1, so  $\zeta(2) = \frac{1}{6}$  $\frac{1}{2}F_1\left[\frac{1}{3}\right]$  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; -1] 2 **Definition 3.3.** Let  $B_0 = 1$  and  $\sum^{n-1}$  $k=0$  $\binom{n}{k} B_k = 0.$  $B_1 = -\frac{1}{2}, B_2 = \frac{1}{6}, \ldots$ **Exercise 3.4.** Prove that  $B_{2k+1} = 0$  for  $k \ge 1$ . We may write  $\zeta(2k) = \frac{(-1)^{k+1} B_{2k} (2\pi)^{2k}}{2(2k)!}$  $\frac{D_{2k}(2\pi)}{2(2k)!}$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Remark.** Special  $\zeta$  values  $\leftrightarrow$  Bernoulli numbers  $\overset{\text{Byrd}}{\leftrightarrow}$  Fibonacci numbers  $\overset{\text{Dilcher}}{\leftrightarrow}$  Truncated  ${}_{p}F_{q}$ 's.

Theorem 3.5 (Byrd) If  $N \geq 0$ , then  $F_{2N+2}=2$  $\sum_{k=0}^N$  $A_{2k,N}B_{2k}$ where  $A_{2k,N}=$  $\sum^{N-k}$  $n=0$  $(2N+1-n)$ n  $\binom{2N+1-2n}{2}$  $2k$  $\setminus$  1  $2N - 2n - 2k + 2$ 

We also have  $B_2 = \frac{F_4}{2} - \frac{4}{3}$  and

$$
F_4 = \frac{1}{2} {}_2F_1 \left[ \frac{-\frac{3}{2}, -1}{\frac{3}{2}}; 5 \right]
$$
  
\n
$$
\implies B_2 = \frac{1}{4} {}_2F_1 \left[ \frac{-\frac{3}{2}, -1}{\frac{3}{2}}; 5 \right] - \frac{4}{3} \implies \zeta(2)
$$
  
\n
$$
= \left( \frac{1}{4} {}_2F_1 \left[ \frac{-\frac{3}{2}, -1}{\frac{3}{2}}; 5 \right] - \frac{4}{3} \right) \cdot \left( {}_2F_1 \left[ \frac{-1}{\frac{3}{2}}; -1 \right] \right)^2
$$

thus

$$
\zeta(4) = \left(\frac{64}{3} {}_{2}F_{1}\left[-\frac{3}{2} - 1, 5\right] - \frac{11392}{45} \cdot \left( {}_{2}F_{1}\left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}; -1\right]\right)^{4}\right)
$$

and by using  $\zeta(s) = \zeta(1-s)$  and  $\zeta(-k) = \frac{(-1)^{k+1}B_{k+1}}{1-\zeta(s)}$  $\frac{b^2}{k+1}$ , we have

By Jiwu Jang, Internal Use ζ ( −1) = 23 − 18 · 2 F1 − 32 , − 1 32 ; 5 = − 1 12 ζ ( <sup>−</sup>3) = <sup>89</sup> 120 − 18 · 2 F1 − 32 , − 1 32 ; 5 = 1 120

Example 3.6 We have  $L_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and  $F_p \equiv \left(\frac{p}{s}\right) \pmod{p}$  (we can relate it to  $B_k$ , then to  $\zeta(s)$  as well.). The relation chain is basically  ${}_2F_1 \rightarrow F_n \rightarrow B_k \rightarrow \zeta$ .

**Example 3.7** ( $_pF_q$  in the *p*-adics)  ${}_2F_1\left[\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}\right]$  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; x  $p-1$  $=$  $\sum_{n=1}^{p-1}$  $k=0$  $(\frac{1}{2})_k(\frac{1}{2})_k$  $\frac{1}{k!k!}x^k$ .

#### Lemma 3.8

The multiplicative group of a field is cyclic.

**Definition 3.9.** Let  $\varphi: G \to H$  and  $\chi: \mathbb{F}_p^{\times} \to \mathbb{C}^{\times}$  be a character.

Example 3.10 Let  $p = 5$ , that is, in  $\mathbb{F}_5^{\times}$ . Then,  $\chi : \mathbb{F}_5^{\times} \to \mathbb{C}^{\times}$ .  $\chi(1) = 1$ ,  $\chi(2) = i$ ,  $\chi(3) = -i$ ,  $\chi(4) = \chi(2)\chi(2) = -1.$ 

Example 3.11 One example of a character is the trivial character  $\varepsilon : \mathbb{F}_p^{\times} \to \mathbb{C}^{\times}$ , where  $\varepsilon \equiv 1$ .

#### Example 3.12

The Legendre symbol  $\phi$  is a character.

#### Example 3.13

 $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$  is the group of characters on  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times.$ 

#### Lemma 3.14

There are two different types of character sums:

• Fix  $\chi$ . Then,

$$
\sum_{q \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} \chi(q) = \begin{cases} p - 1 & \chi = \varepsilon \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

• Fix  $q \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}$ . Then,

$$
\sum_{\chi \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} \chi(q) = \begin{cases} p - 1 & q = e \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

 $\sum_{\chi \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times} \chi(q) = \begin{cases} p-1 & q=e \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ <br>ample 3.15<br>a<sub>1</sub> =  $\frac{1}{2}$ , we have  $\chi = \omega^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \phi$ , which is the Legendre symbol.<br>ample 3.16<br>a<sub>1</sub> =  $\frac{3}{4}$ , we have  $\chi = \omega^{\frac{3(p-1)}{4}} = \eta$ . Example 3.15 For  $a_1 = \frac{1}{2}$ , we have  $\chi = \omega^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \phi$ , which is the Legendre symbol.

Example 3.16 For  $a_1 = \frac{3}{4}$ , we have  $\chi = \omega^{\frac{3(p-1)}{4}} = \eta$ .

## § 4 Finite fields

**Definition 4.1.** Let  $\omega$  be a generator of  $\mathbb{F}_p^{\times}$ , that is,

$$
\widehat{\mathbb{F}_p^\times}=\langle\omega\rangle
$$

Then, define  $A := \omega^{(p-1)a}$  and  $B := \omega^{(p-1)b}$ .

The following are the finite field analogs of classical hypergeometric functions:

Classical Finite fields

\n
$$
a \in \mathbb{Q} \quad \chi = \omega^{(p-1)a}
$$
\n
$$
-a \quad \overline{\chi}
$$
\n
$$
\Gamma(a) = \int_0^\infty t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt \quad g(A) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times} A(x) \zeta_p^\times \quad \text{where } A(a) = \omega^{(p-1)a}
$$
\n
$$
\Gamma(a) \Gamma(1-a) = \frac{\pi}{\sin(\pi a)} \quad g(A)g(\overline{A}) = A(-1)p \quad \text{if } A \neq \varepsilon
$$
\n
$$
B(a, b) = \int_0^1 t^{a-1} (1-t)^{b-1} dt \quad J(A, B) = \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times \\ x \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times}} A(x)B(1-x)
$$
\n
$$
B(a, b) = \frac{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)} \quad J(A, B) = \frac{g(A)g(B)}{g(AB)} \quad \text{if } AB \neq \varepsilon
$$
\n
$$
\frac{x^a}{a+b} \quad \frac{A(x)}{AB}
$$

Table 1: Finite field analogs of classical hypergeometric functions.

**Example 12 (Beukers, Coher, Mellit, 2015)**<br>
ypergeometric function over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  looks like:<br>  $H_p\left[a, b_{\cdot}, \lambda\right] := \sum_{k=0}^{p-2} \frac{g(A\omega^k)g(B\omega^k)g(\overline{C\omega^k})}{g(\varepsilon)g(A)g(B)g(\overline{C})}\chi(\lambda)$ <br>  $= \frac{1}{1-p} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} \frac{g(Ax)g(Bx)g$ Theorem 4.2 (Beukers, Coher, Mellit, 2015) A hypergeometric function over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  looks like:  $H_p\left[\begin{matrix}a,b\\c\end{matrix};\lambda\right]:=\sum_{k=0}^{p-2}$  $k=0$  $g(A\omega^k)g(B\omega^k)g(\overline{C\omega^k})$  $g(\varepsilon)g(A)g(B)g(C)$  $\chi(\lambda)$  $=\frac{1}{1}$  $1-p$  $\sum$  $x\in\mathbb{F}_p^\times$  $g(Ax)g(Bx)g(Cx)$  $g(\varepsilon)g(A)g(B)g(\overline{C})$  $\chi(\lambda)$  where  $x = \omega^k$  $=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$  $J(B, CB)$  $\sum$  $x {\in} \mathbb{F}_p^\times$  $B(x)CB(1-x)A(1-\lambda x)$ 

**Definition 4.3.** Over  $\mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ , we define  $\Phi(x) = \zeta_p^{\text{Tr}(x)}$ , where  $\text{Tr}(x) = x + x^p + \cdots + x^{p^{r-1}}$ .

## Theorem 4.4 We have  $g(A)g(A) = A(-1)p - (p-1)\delta(A)$ , where  $\delta(A) =$  $\int 1$  if  $A = \varepsilon$ 0 otherwise

 $\Box$ 

*Proof.* Let  $\Phi(x) = \zeta_p^{\times}$ . Then,

$$
g(A)g(\overline{A}) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} A(x)\Phi(x) \cdot \sum_{y \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} A\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) \Phi(y)
$$
  
\n
$$
= \sum_{x, y \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} A\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) \Phi(x+y)
$$
  
\n
$$
= \sum_{x, t \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} A(t) \Phi\left(x\left(1 + \frac{1}{t}\right)\right) \quad \text{where } t = \frac{x}{y}
$$
  
\n
$$
= \sum_{t \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}, t \neq -1} A(t) \sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} \Phi\left(x\left(1 + \frac{1}{t}\right)\right) + A(-1) \sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} \Phi(0)
$$
  
\n
$$
= A(-1) + A(-1)(p - 1)
$$
  
\n
$$
= A(-1) \cdot p
$$

since

$$
\sum_{t \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} A(t) = 0
$$
\n
$$
\sum_{t \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} A(t) = -A(-1)
$$
\n
$$
\sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p} \Phi\left(x\left(1 + \frac{1}{t}\right)\right) = 0
$$
\n
$$
\sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}} \Phi\left(x\left(1 + \frac{1}{t}\right)\right) = -1
$$
\nwe are done.\n\nfinite functions, we state a folklore theorem on hypergeometric function fields:

and

thus we are done.

To finish this section, we state a folklore theorem on hypergeometric functions over finite fields:

#### Theorem 4.5

$$
H_p\left[\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1}\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1};\lambda\right] = \frac{1}{1-p} \sum_{\chi \in \widetilde{\mathbb{F}_p^\times}} \frac{g(\phi \chi)g(\phi \chi)g(\overline{\chi})}{g(\varepsilon)g(\phi)g(\phi)g(\varepsilon)}\chi(\lambda)
$$

## § 5 Algebraic hypergeometric functions

**Definition 5.1.** Let  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n\}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \{b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n\}$ , where  $a_1 \le a_2 \le a_3$  $\cdots \le a_n$  and  $b_1 \le b_2 \le \cdots \le b_n$ . We say  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  interlace if one of the following two cases hold:

- $a_1 < b_1 < a_2 < b_2 < \cdots < a_n < b_n$
- $b_1 < a_1 < b_2 < a_2 < \cdots < b_n < a_n$

#### Theorem 5.2 (Beukers-Heckman, 1975)

The data  $\{\alpha, \beta\}$  is algebraic if and only if  $\alpha, \beta$  interlace.

Example 5.3  $H_p\left[\frac{\frac{1}{3}}{\frac{1}{2}}\right;\lambda\right]$  is algebraic, since  $\alpha = \{\frac{1}{3},\frac{2}{3}\}\$  and  $\beta = \{1,1\}$  interlace.

Theorem 5.4 (Multiplication formula) Let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\Pi$  $g(A\chi)$ 

 $\chi \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times$   $\chi^m = \varepsilon$  $\frac{g(\lambda)}{g(\chi)} = -g(A^m)A(m^{-m})$ 

Theorem 5.5 (Special case) If  $m = 2$ , then  $g(A)g(\phi A) = g(A)g(\phi)A(4)$ , where  $\phi$  is the quadratic character.

**Example 15.5** (Special case)<br>  $n = 2$ , then  $g(A)g(\phi A) = g(A)g(\phi)\overline{A}(4)$ , where  $\phi$  is the quadratic character<br> **Example 15.6**<br>  $H_p\left[\frac{\frac{1}{4}}{\frac{1}{2}};\lambda\right] = \left(\frac{1+\phi(\lambda)}{2}\right)\left[\phi(1+\sqrt{\lambda})+\phi(1-\sqrt{\lambda})\right]$ <br>
The  $\phi(x) = x^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$  is t Theorem 5.6  $H_p\left[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}\right]$  $\left[\frac{3}{4}\,;\lambda\right] = \left(\frac{1+\phi(\lambda)}{2}\right)$ 2  $\int$   $\int$   $\phi$ (1 + √  $(\lambda) + \phi(1 -$ √  $\overline{\lambda}$ ) where  $\phi(x) = x^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$  is the quadratic character, and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $H_p$  collapses to 0 if  $\lambda$  is not a square mod p, due to the  $\frac{1+\phi(\lambda)}{2}$  $\frac{\varphi(\lambda)}{2}$  term. Otherwise, let  $\lambda \neq 0$  be a quadratic residue mod p and  $\eta_4$  be a character of order 4. Then, we have  $\frac{1+\phi(\lambda)}{2}=1$ . Before proving the main result, we first need a lemma:

Lemma 5.7 (Double-angle formula)  $g(A)g(\phi A) = g(A^2)g(\phi)\overline{A}(4).$ 

Now, we have

$$
H_p\left[\frac{1}{4},\frac{3}{4};\lambda\right] = \frac{1}{p-1} \sum_{\chi} \frac{g(\eta_A \chi)g(\overline{\eta}_A)g(\overline{\chi})g(\phi \overline{\chi})}{g(\eta_A)g(\overline{\eta}_A)g(\phi)} \chi(\lambda)
$$
  
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{p-1} \sum_{\chi} \left(\frac{g(\chi^4)}{g(\chi)}\right) \left(\frac{g(\phi)}{g(\phi)}\right) \left(\frac{g(\overline{\chi}g(\phi \overline{\chi}))}{g(\phi)}\right) \chi\left(\frac{\lambda}{256}\right) \text{ iterating over } \chi \in \{\phi, \varepsilon, \eta_4, \overline{\eta}_4\}
$$
  
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{p-1} \sum_{\chi} \frac{g(\chi^4)}{g(\chi^2)g(\phi)} g(\overline{\chi})g(\phi \overline{\chi}) \chi\left(\frac{\lambda}{64}\right) \text{ by the double-angle formula with } A = \chi
$$
  
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{p-1} \sum_{\chi} \frac{g(\chi^4)}{g(\chi^2)g(\overline{\chi}^2)} \chi\left(\frac{\lambda}{16}\right) \text{ by the double-angle formula with } A = \overline{\chi}
$$
  
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{p-1} \sum_{\chi} \frac{g(\chi^4)g(\overline{\chi}^2)}{g(\phi)} \chi(\lambda) \text{ by the double-angle formula with } A = \chi^2
$$
  
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{p-1} \sum_{\chi} \frac{g(\phi \chi^2)g(\overline{\chi}^2)}{g(\phi)} \chi(\lambda) \text{ by the double-angle formula with } A = \chi^2
$$
  
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{p-1} \sum_{\chi} \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_p \setminus \{0,1\}} \phi(\alpha) \sum_{\chi} \chi\left(\frac{a^2 \lambda}{(1-a)^2}\right) \text{ swap the order of summation}
$$
  
\n
$$
= \phi\left((1+\sqrt{\lambda})^{-1} + (1-\sqrt{\lambda})^{-1}\right) \text{ by evaluating cases where } \frac{a^2 \lambda}{(1-a)^2} = 1
$$
  
\n
$$
= \phi(1+\sqrt{\lambda}) + \phi(1-\sqrt{\lambda})
$$
  
\n

which is what we wanted to show.

**Example 5.8** (Beukers, Coher, Mellit, Grove)  
\n
$$
H_p\left[\frac{\frac{1}{3}}{\frac{1}{2}};\lambda\right] = N_f(\lambda) - 1
$$
\nwhere  $N_f(\lambda)$  is the number of zeros of  $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 - 4\lambda$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ .

Example 5.9 (Grove)  $H_p\left[\frac{\frac{1}{6}}{\frac{1}{2}}\frac{\frac{5}{6}}{\frac{1}{2}};\lambda\right] = \phi(\frac{\lambda}{27})(N_f(\lambda) - 1)$  where  $\phi$  is the quadratic character. This is basically immediate from the previous example, since if we add  $\frac{1}{2}$  (which is the equivalent of sending  $\chi$  to  $\phi(\chi)$ , since  $\phi$  is basically " $\frac{1}{2}$ " in  $\mathbb{F}_p^{\times}$ ) and quotient  $\mathbb{Z}$ , we get this HG.

**Remark.** We implicitly define it in  $\setminus \mathbb{Q}$ , where  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$  is  $\setminus \mathbb{Q}$  if  $\prod_{i=1}^n (x - e^{2\pi i a_i}) \in$  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ .

## § 6 Hypergeometric moments

Example 6.1 The intuition comes from  $\int_0^1$ 0  $dx$  $\sqrt{x(1-x)(1-\lambda x)}$  $=\pi \cdot {}_2F_1\left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}\right]$  $\left[\frac{1}{2},\lambda\right].$ 

**Remark.** Certain  $H_p$  values have a relation with the points continuous on cubic curves over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . Goal: count  $\mathbb{F}_p$  solutions on  $\tilde{E} = \text{mod } p$  reduction of E, where p is a good prime (i.e., doesn't make E singular).

$$
|\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p) = 1 + \sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p} \left( 1 + \left( \frac{x(1-x)(1-\lambda x)}{p} \right) \right) \text{ including } \mathcal{O}, \text{ i.e., point at } \text{infty}
$$
\n
$$
= p + 1 + \sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p} \phi(x(1-x)(1-\lambda x))
$$

**Definition 6.2.** Define  $a_p = -\sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p} \phi(x(1-x)(1-\lambda x)).$ 

**Definition 6.3.** Denote  $H_p(\lambda) = H_p\left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \lambda\right]$ .

Definition 6.4. Good reduction refers to the reduced variety having the same properties as the original, for example, an algebraic curve having the same genus, or a smooth variety remaining smooth.

**Claim 6.5** — 
$$
a_p = H_p \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \cdot \lambda \right]
$$
 for primes of *good reduction*.

*Proof.* Let  $a = b = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $c = 1$ , so

ition 6.3. Denote 
$$
H_p(\lambda) = H_p\left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \lambda\right]
$$
.

\nition 6.4. Good reduction refers to the reduced variety having the same pro original, for example, an algebraic curve having the same genus, or a s   
y remaining smooth.

\nim 6.5 —  $a_p = H_p\left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \lambda\right]$  for primes of *good reduction*.

\nLet  $a = b = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $c = 1$ , so

\n
$$
H_p\left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \lambda\right] = \frac{1}{J(\phi, \phi)} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p} \phi(x(1-x)(1-\lambda x))
$$
\n
$$
= -\phi(-1) \sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_p} \phi(x(1-x)(1-\lambda x)) = -\phi(-1)a_p
$$

hence  $a_p = H_p \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}, \lambda \right]$ .

Theorem 6.6 (Hasse bound)

For all  $H_p$ , we have  $|H_p(\lambda)| \leq 2\sqrt{p}$ , or equivalently,  $\frac{H_p(\lambda)}{\sqrt{p}} \in [-2,2]$ , which is referred to as the Hasse bound .

What is End(E)? (For "nice" elliptic curves, since it forms an abelian group,  $End(E) \cong$  $\mathbb{Z}$ .)

Most of the time,  $End(E) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ .

But sometimes,  $\text{End}(E) \supsetneq \mathbb{Z}$ .

#### Example 6.7

 $y^2 = x^3 - x$ , then the map  $(x, y) \mapsto (-x, iy)$  gives us back the original curve.

**Remark.** E has complex multiplication (CM) if  $\text{End}(E) \supsetneq \mathbb{Z}$ .

Theorem 6.8 (Sato-Tate, 2011) Fix  $E_\lambda$  that is not CM. Then,  $\frac{H_p(\lambda)}{\sqrt{p}} \in [-2, 2]$  gives a semicircular distribution as  $p \to \infty$ .

**Conjecture 6.9** (Sato-Tate for families, 2021). Fix p. Let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p \setminus \{0,1\}$  vary in  $\{E_{\lambda}\}\$ . Then, what is the distribution of  $\frac{H_p(\lambda)}{\sqrt{p}} \in [-2,2]$  as  $\lambda$  varies, for sufficiently large p? (Answer: semicircular.)

Take an "average" of the normalized  $H_p$  values. Let m be a fixed positive integer greater than 1. Consider the hypergeometric moment

$$
\frac{1}{p} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p} \left( \frac{H_p(\lambda)}{\sqrt{p}} \right)^m = \frac{1}{p^{\frac{m}{2}+1}} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p} H_p(\lambda)^m
$$

or than 1. Consider the hypergeometric moment<br>  $\frac{1}{p} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p} \left( \frac{H_p(\lambda)}{\sqrt{p}} \right)^m = \frac{1}{p^{\frac{m}{2}+1}} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p} H_p(\lambda)^m$ <br>
xpression is interesting (i.e., nontrivial) if  $m > 1$ , since for  $m = 1$ , it's bargonality The expression is interesting (i.e., nontrivial) if  $m > 1$ , since for  $m = 1$ , it's basically orthogonality characters, so it sums to 0 or  $p-1$ .

Theorem 6.10 (Ono-Saad-Saikia, 2021) Let  $m$  be a fixed positive integer. Then,

$$
\lim_{p \to \infty} \frac{1}{p^{\frac{m}{2}+1}} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p} H_p(\lambda)^m = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \text{ is odd} \\ C(n) & \text{if } m = 2n \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N} \end{cases}
$$

where  $C(n) = \frac{1}{n+1}$  $\frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}.$ 

Theorem 6.11 (Grove)

*Proof.* We have  $H_p(\lambda) = -H_p(\frac{1}{\lambda})$  $\frac{1}{\lambda}$ ) where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}$ , so for  $2 \nmid m$ , everything cancels out nicely.  $\Box$ 

Let  $m$  be a fixed positive integer. Then,

$$
\lim_{p \to \infty} \frac{1}{p^{\frac{m}{2}+1}} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p} H_p(\lambda^2)^m = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \text{ is odd} \\ C(n) & \text{if } m = 2n \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N} \end{cases}
$$

where  $C(n) = \frac{1}{n+1}$  $\frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}.$ 

*Proof.* We have  $H_p(\lambda) = \phi(\lambda)H_p(1-\lambda)$  for  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}$ , so for  $2 \nmid m$ , everything cancels out nicely.  $\Box$ 

#### Theorem 6.12 (Grove)

Let  $m$  be a fixed positive integer. Then,

$$
\lim_{p \to \infty} \frac{1}{p^{\frac{m}{2}+1}} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p} H_p \left[ \frac{\frac{1}{3}}{1} \frac{\frac{2}{3}}{1}; \lambda \right]^m = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \text{ is odd} \\ C(n) & \text{if } m = 2n \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N} \end{cases}
$$

where  $C(n) = \frac{1}{n+1}$  $\frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}.$ 

Remark. The high level intuition for this theorem comes from

$$
\int_{SU(2)} (\text{Tr}(X))^{2n} = C(n)
$$

Theorem 6.13 (Ono-Saad-Saikia, 2021) Let  $m$  be a fixed positive integer. Then,

*m* be a fixed positive integer. Then,  
\n
$$
\lim_{p \to \infty} \frac{1}{p^{m+1}} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p} H_p \left[ \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}}{1 \cdot 1}; \lambda \right]^m = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \text{ is odd} \\ \sum_{i=0}^m (-1)^i {m \choose i} C(i) & \text{if } m \text{ is even} \end{cases}
$$
\n**mark.** Again, the high level intuition for this comes from  
\n
$$
\int_{O(3)} (\text{Tr}(X))^m = \sum_{i=0}^m (-1)^i {m \choose i} C(i)
$$
\n**Findle**  
\ny, here is an open problem to think about:  
\necture 7.1. Let *m* be a fixed positive integer. Then,

Remark. Again, the high level intuition for this comes from

$$
\int_{O(3)} (\text{Tr}(X))^m = \sum_{i=0}^m (-1)^i \binom{m}{i} C(i)
$$

## § 7 Finale

Finally, here is an open problem to think about:

**Conjecture 7.1.** Let  $m$  be a fixed positive integer. Then,

$$
\lim_{p \to \infty} \frac{1}{p^{\frac{m}{2}+1}} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p} H_p \left[ \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{5}{6} ; \lambda \right]^m = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \text{ is odd} \\ C(n) & \text{if } m = 2n \end{cases}
$$