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## A relationship between volume, injectivity radius, and eigenvalues

BURTON RANDOL

Suppose  $M$  is a compact Riemannian manifold and  $C$  a measurable subset of  $M$  having measure  $A$ . Expand the indicator function  $\chi$  of  $C$  in a Fourier series in orthonormal eigenfunctions of the Laplace operator to get (in  $L^2$ )

$$\chi(y) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \varphi_k(y).$$

By the Parseval theorem,

$$A = \int_M |\chi(y)|^2 dy = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_k|^2,$$

and since  $a_0 = A/\sqrt{V}$ , where  $V = \text{vol}(M)$ , this implies that

$$1 = \frac{A}{V} + \frac{1}{A} \sum' |a_k|^2, \tag{1}$$

where the prime on a summation sign means that the term corresponding to index 0 is omitted. This last identity is the core of Siegel's quantitative version of the Minkowski theorem for a convex symmetric body  $B$  in  $R^n$ , in which the role of  $C$  is played by  $\frac{1}{2}B$  [7].

Equation (1) becomes more precise if we know something about the Fourier coefficients. We will illustrate this when  $M$  is hyperbolic and of dimension  $n$ , which we will henceforth assume to be the case. Take  $C$  to be a ball about a point  $x$  in  $M$  of radius equal to the injectivity radius  $R$  of  $M$ . It then follows from the Selberg pretrace formula (cf. [1], Chapter 11), that the Fourier coefficients are given by  $a_k = h(r_k)\varphi_k(x)$ , where  $r_k$  is either of the two roots of  $\delta^2 + r^2 = \lambda_k$ . Here  $\delta = \frac{1}{2}(n - 1)$ ,  $\lambda_k$  is the  $k$ th eigenvalue of the Laplace operator, and the even function  $h$  is the Selberg transform of the point-pair invariant which is 1 if its two arguments are within  $R$  of each other, and 0 otherwise (cf. [1], Chapter 11).

Equation (1) thus becomes

$$1 = \frac{A}{V} + \frac{1}{A} \sum' |h(r_k)|^2 |\varphi_k(x)|^2,$$

where the summation is over one of the two  $r_k$ 's corresponding to each  $\lambda_k$ . For definiteness, we will suppose that the sum is taken over the  $r_k$ 's which lie on the union of the non-negative reals with the imaginary segment from 0 to  $\delta i$ . Note that the so-called small eigenvalues of  $M$ , i.e., those in  $(0, \delta^2)$ , correspond to  $r_k$ 's on the open imaginary segment. If  $\lambda_k = \delta^2$  is an eigenvalue of multiplicity  $m$ , the corresponding  $r_k = 0$  is counted  $m$  times.

Integrate now over  $x$ , to get

$$V = A + \frac{1}{A} \sum' |h(r_k)|^2,$$

from which we derive

**THEOREM 1.**

$$1 = \frac{A}{V} + \frac{1}{AV} \sum' |h(r_k)|^2.$$

In order to apply Theorem 1, we will need to calculate  $h(r)$  for our particular point-pair invariant. Now by [1], equation (5), page 275,

$$h(r) = 2\omega_{n-2} \int_0^R \cos ru \, du \int_u^R (z(\rho) - z(u))^{\delta-1} \sinh \rho \, d\rho,$$

where

$$z(x) = \left(2 \sinh \frac{x}{2}\right)^2 = 2(\cosh x) - 2,$$

and  $\omega_{n-2}$  is the area of the  $(n-2)$ -sphere in  $R^{n-1}$  ( $\omega_0 = 2$ ).

I.e.,

$$h(r) = 2^\delta \omega_{n-2} \int_0^R \cos ru \, du \int_u^R (\cosh \rho - \cosh u)^{\delta-1} \sinh \rho \, d\rho,$$

or

$$h(r) = \delta^{-1} 2^\delta \omega_{n-2} \int_0^R (\cosh R - \cosh u)^\delta \cos ru \, du. \quad (2)$$

Note that  $h(r)$  is positive and decreasing along the segment from  $\delta i$  to 0, so that the values of  $h(r)$  along this segment dominate  $h(0)$ , which is given by

$$\begin{aligned} h(0) &= \delta^{-1} 2^\delta \omega_{n-2} \int_0^R (\cosh R - \cosh u)^\delta \, du \\ &= \delta^{-1} 2^\delta \omega_{n-2} R \cosh^\delta R \int_0^1 \left(1 - \frac{\cosh Ru}{\cosh R}\right)^\delta \, du. \end{aligned}$$

Now  $A$ , the volume of the ball of radius  $R$ , is given by

$$\omega_{n-1} \int_0^R \sinh^{n-1} u \, du,$$

which is asymptotic to

$$\frac{\omega_{n-1}}{(n-1)2^{n-1}} e^{(n-1)R}$$

for large  $R$ . On the other hand, it follows easily from our last expression for  $h(0)$ , that  $h(0)$  is positive for  $R > 0$ , and that  $|h(0)|^2$  is asymptotic to

$$\delta^{-2} \omega_{n-2}^2 R^2 e^{(n-1)R}$$

for large  $R$ . It follows that  $A^{-1}|h(0)|^2 \geq c_1(n, R)R^2$ , where  $c_1(n, R)$  is positive and asymptotic to

$$c_2(n) = \frac{2^{n+1} \omega_{n-2}^2}{(n-1) \omega_{n-1}}$$

for large  $R$ .

This has an interesting consequence, since it follows from Theorem 1 that

$$1 > \frac{A}{V} + \frac{1}{AV} \sum'' |h(r_k)|^2, \quad (3)$$

where the sum is over the small eigenvalues. On the other hand, we have seen that for such an eigenvalue,  $|h(r_k)|^2 > |h(0)|^2$ , so if we denote by  $N(M)$  the number of small eigenvalues for  $M$ , we conclude that

$$1 > \frac{A}{V} + c_1(n, R) \frac{N(M)R^2}{V},$$

which implies the following theorem, which is of interest for large  $R$ :

**THEOREM 2.**

$$N(M) < \alpha(n, R) \frac{V - A}{R^2},$$

where  $\alpha(n, R)$  is positive and asymptotic to  $1/c_2(n)$  for large  $R$ .

We conclude with another application of Theorem 1. Recall that  $a_0$ , the zeroth Fourier coefficient of  $\chi$ , is equal to  $A/\sqrt{V}$ , and that  $\varphi_0(y) \equiv 1/\sqrt{V}$ . Since  $a_0 = h(r_0)\varphi_0(y)$ , it follows immediately that  $h(r_0) = h(\delta i) = A$ . Thus, if  $\lambda_k$  is close to 0, or equivalently, if  $r_k$  is close to  $\delta i$ , it will be the case that  $h(r_k) \sim A$ . In more detail, suppose  $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$ , and that  $r_k = \delta' i$ , where  $|\delta - \delta'| < \epsilon/R$ .

By (2),

$$A - h(\delta' i) = \delta^{-1} 2^\delta \omega_{n-2} \int_0^R (\cosh R - \cosh u)^\delta (\cosh \delta u - \cosh \delta' u) du,$$

and by the mean value theorem this last expression is equal to

$$\delta^{-1} 2^\delta \omega_{n-2} \int_0^R (\cosh R - \cosh u)^\delta (\sinh w(u)) (\delta - \delta') u du,$$

where  $w(u)$  is between  $\delta' u$  and  $\delta u$ .

This is dominated by

$$\epsilon \delta^{-1} 2^\delta \omega_{n-2} \int_0^R (\cosh R - \cosh u)^\delta (\cosh \delta u) du = \epsilon A.$$

I.e.,

$$|A - h(\delta' i)| < \epsilon A,$$

or

$$\left| 1 - \frac{h(\delta'i)}{A} \right| < \epsilon,$$

from which we easily deduce that

$$\frac{|h(\delta'i)|^2}{A} > A(1 - \epsilon)^2.$$

Suppose now that  $M$  has  $s_\epsilon(M)$  very small eigenvalues in the above sense, i.e., eigenvalues for which  $|r_k - \delta i| < \epsilon/R$ .

By Theorem 1,

$$1 > \frac{A}{V} + \frac{1}{AV} \sum''' |h(r_k)|^2,$$

where the sum is taken over the  $s_\epsilon(M)$  very small eigenvalues of  $M$ .

We conclude from this that

$$1 + (1 - \epsilon)^2 s_\epsilon(M) < \frac{V}{A},$$

which implies the following theorem which is of interest for large  $R$ :

**THEOREM 3.**

$$\frac{1}{(1 - \epsilon)^2} + s_\epsilon(M) < \frac{1}{(1 - \epsilon)^2} \frac{V}{A}.$$

**COROLLARY.**

$$1 + s_\epsilon(M) < \frac{1}{(1 - \epsilon)^2} \frac{V}{A}.$$

The corollary has an interesting consequence in two dimensions. Suppose  $M$  is of genus  $g$ , and  $s_\epsilon(M) = 2g - 3$ . (We remark that such examples can be produced, and that for a given genus, if  $\epsilon$  is small enough this value of  $s_\epsilon(M)$  is maximal, since it is known [2, 3, 6] that there exists  $\epsilon(g) > 0$  such that for  $\epsilon < \epsilon(g)$ ,  $s_\epsilon(m) \leq 2g - 3$ . Additionally, for a given genus,  $s_\epsilon(M) = 2g - 3$  for  $\epsilon$  sufficiently small implies that there are no other eigenvalues  $\lambda_k$  in  $(0, \delta^2)$  [5].)

By the corollary, bearing in mind that  $V = 4\pi(g - 1)$ ,

$$2g - 2 < \frac{1}{(1 - \epsilon)^2} \frac{4\pi(g - 1)}{A},$$

or

$$A < \frac{2\pi}{(1 - \epsilon)^2}.$$

Since  $A = 2\pi(\cosh R - 1)$ , we conclude that if  $2g - 3$  very small eigenvalues are present, the injectivity radius  $R$  of  $M$  must be less than a quantity which for small  $\epsilon$  is near  $\cosh^{-1} 2 \approx 1.317$ . Note that for fixed  $\epsilon$ , this estimate on the injectivity radius is uniform in the genus. In general, in view of the corollary, in any dimension an inequality of the form  $s_\epsilon(M) \geq cV$  imposes a computable upper bound on  $R$ . Similarly, in any dimension an inequality of the form  $V/A \leq c$  imposes a computable upper bound on  $s_\epsilon(M)$ . Finally, since it is known that for fixed genus in two dimensions,  $\lambda_{2g-3}$  cannot tend to zero unless  $R$  tends to zero [2, 3, 6], results like the last one derive interest for small  $\epsilon$  from the fact that they are uniform in the genus.

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