Counting points on curves in average polynomial time

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The zeta function

Definition

Let X = smooth projective curve of genus g over \mathbf{F}_p . The *zeta function* of X is the power series

$$Z(T) = \exp\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{|X(\mathbf{F}_{p^k})|}{k} T^k\right) \in \mathbf{Q}[[T]].$$

It is actually a rational function of the form

$$Z(T) = \frac{L(T)}{(1-T)(1-pT)}$$

where $L(T) \in \mathbf{Z}[T]$ has degree 2g.

Knowledge of Z(T) is equivalent to knowledge of L(T).

It is effectively computable: enough to compute $|X(\mathbf{F}_p)|, \ldots, |X(\mathbf{F}_{p^g})|$.

Let X be the genus two hyperelliptic curve with affine equation

$$y^2 = x^5 + x + 1$$

over \mathbf{F}_p where p = 1000003.

Then

 $|X(\mathbf{F}_p)| = 1000329, \qquad |X(\mathbf{F}_{p^2})| = 1000007333965,$

which implies that

$$Z(T) = \frac{L(T)}{(1 - T)(1 - \rho T)}$$

where

$$L(T) = 1 + 325T + 719790T^{2} + 325pT^{3} + p^{2}T^{4}.$$

Global case

Now consider a smooth projective curve X of genus g over \mathbf{Q} .

Let X_p = reduction of X modulo p.

For all but finitely many primes, this reduction makes sense and yields a smooth projective curve of genus g over \mathbf{F}_p . For the rest of the talk, we ignore the "bad" primes.

Let $L_p(T) =$ corresponding *L*-polynomial for X_p .

Problem

Given curve X/\mathbf{Q} and a bound N, compute $L_p(T)$ for all good p < N.

Applications: study Sato-Tate distributions, BSD conjecture.

Typically N is around 2^{20} or 2^{30} .

Again take X defined over ${\bf Q}$ by

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$$y^2 = x^5 + x + 1.$$

The bad primes are 3, 7, 23, and for the good primes we have

$$L_{5}(T) = 1 + 10T^{2} + 25T^{4}$$

$$L_{11}(T) = 1 - 4T + 14T^{2} - 44T^{3} + 121T^{4}$$

$$L_{13}(T) = 1 + T + 4T^{2} + 13T^{3} + 169T^{4}$$

$$L_{17}(T) = 1 + 4T + 22T^{2} + 68T^{3} + 289T^{4}$$

$$L_{19}(T) = 1 - 4T + 14T^{2} - 76T^{3} + 361T^{4}$$

Counting points, one prime at a time

Some possible algorithms:

- Naive point enumeration up to F_{p^g}. Complexity p^{O(g)}.
- Shanks-Mestre baby-step/giant-step.
 Complexity p^{O(g)} (with better big-O constant).

These bounds are exponential in both g and $\log p$.

BSGS is quite effective in practice for small genus (especially $g \le 2$) for a wide range of p. Highly optimised implementation smalljac by Sutherland.

Counting points, one prime at a time

3 Schoof–Pila.

Complexity $(\log p)^{C_g}$ where C_g grows exponentially with g.

4 Kedlaya-type algorithms. Complexity $g^{O(1)}p^{1/2+\epsilon}$ (exponent of g depends on class of curve)

Polynomial in $\log p$ or g, but not both.

Major open problem: is it possible to obtain complexity polynomial in both g and log p?

Schoof–Pila not competitive in the range of p under consideration.

Counting points, all primes simultaneously

Theorem (H. 2015, Computing zeta functions of arithmetic schemes) Let X be a scheme of finite type over **Z**. One may compute $Z_p(T)$ for all p < N in time $O(N \log^{3+\epsilon} N)$.

Complexity is $O(\log^{4+\epsilon} N)$ on average per prime, where implied constant depends on X.

For curves, the dependence on g is polynomial.

Goal for today's talk

Today I will explain in detail how to compute $L_p(T)$ for all p < N in time $O(N \log^{3+\epsilon} N)$, for the simplest nontrivial case: an elliptic curve of the form

$$y^2 = x^3 + bx^2 + cx$$
, $b, c \in \mathbf{Z}, c(b^2 - 4c) \neq 0$.

The L-polynomial for each p has the form

$$L_p(T) = 1 + a_p T + p T^2,$$

where $|a_p| < 2\sqrt{p}$ (the Hasse–Weil bound).

We want to compute $a_p \in \mathbf{Z}$ for all good p < N.

Why I would rather live in $P^2(R)$



Polynomial powers

Lemma

Let u_p be the coefficient of $x^{(p-1)/2}$ (the "central coefficient") in the polynomial

$$(x^2 + bx + c)^{(p-1)/2}$$

Then

$$a_p \equiv u_p \pmod{p}$$
.

For $p \ge 17$, the bound $|a_p| < 2\sqrt{p}$ implies that $u_p \pmod{p}$ determines $a_p \in \mathbb{Z}$ unambiguously.

So it is enough to compute $u_p \pmod{p}$ for all p < N.

Polynomial powers

Sketch of proof of lemma:

The definition of the zeta function implies that

$$a_p = p + 1 - |X(\mathbf{F}_p)|.$$

For each $t \in \mathbf{F}_p$, the number of points with x-coordinate equal to t depends on whether $t^3 + bt^2 + ct$ is a square in \mathbf{F}_p . We get

$$t^{3} + bt^{2} + ct = \begin{cases} \text{zero in } \mathbf{F}_{p} & \implies 1 \text{ point}, \\ \text{square in } \mathbf{F}_{p} & \implies 2 \text{ points}, \\ \text{nonsquare in } \mathbf{F}_{p} & \implies 0 \text{ points}. \end{cases}$$

There is also one point at infinity.

Polynomial powers

(sketch of proof, continued)

Thus

$$|X(\mathbf{F}_{p})| = 1 + \sum_{t=0}^{p-1} \left[\left(\frac{t^{3} + bt^{2} + ct}{p} \right) + 1 \right]$$
$$\equiv 1 + \sum_{t=0}^{p-1} (t^{3} + bt^{2} + ct)^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}.$$

Now expand out the right hand side, and use the fact that

$$\sum_{t=0}^{p-1} t^k \equiv egin{cases} -1 & ext{if } p-1 \mid k, \ 0 & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

For a running example, let's take $y^2 = xf(x)$ where

$$f(x)=x^2-3x-2.$$

We have

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$$p = 5: \quad f^{2} = \qquad x^{4} - 6x^{3} + 5x^{2} + 12x + 4,$$

$$p = 7: \quad f^{3} = \qquad x^{6} - 9x^{5} + 21x^{4} + 9x^{3} - 42x^{2} - 36x - 8$$

$$p = 11: \quad f^{5} = \dots - 150x^{7} - 95x^{6} + 477x^{5} + 190x^{4} - 600x^{3} + \dots,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$p = 103: \quad f^{51} = \dots + -2882250240953935920621757274295x^{51} + \dots$$

For p < N, the total amount of data in this picture is roughly N^3 .

For each n, the coefficients of f^n satisfy a linear recurrence.

Let

$$f^{n} = f_{0}^{n} x^{2n} + f_{1}^{n} x^{2n-1} + \dots + f_{2n}^{n}.$$

Exercise: using the relations

$$f^{n+1} = f \cdot f^n, \qquad (f^{n+1})' = (n+1)f' \cdot f^n,$$

prove that

$$f_k^n = \frac{1}{k} \left((n-k+1)bf_{k-1}^n + (2n-k+2)cf_{k-2}^n \right).$$

Problem: it's a different recurrence for each n!

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But we only need the coefficients modulo p, and only for n = (p - 1)/2:

$$f_k^{(p-1)/2} = \frac{1}{k} \left((-k + \frac{1}{2}) b f_{k-1}^{(p-1)/2} + (-k+1) c f_{k-2}^{(p-1)/2} \right) \pmod{p}.$$

So now we have the same recurrence for each *p*.

Let us rewrite the recurrence in vector form. Define

$$v_k^p := egin{bmatrix} f_k^{(p-1)/2} \ f_{k-1}^{(p-1)/2} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{Z}^2.$$

Then

$$v_k^p = \frac{1}{2k} A_k v_{k-1}^p \pmod{p}$$

where

$$A_k := \begin{bmatrix} (-2k+1)b & (-2k+2)c \\ 2k & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice that A_k is defined over **Z**, and no longer depends on p!!

The initial conditions are easy: we have $v_0^p = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for each p.

Therefore we have transformed the original problem into the problem of computing the matrix products

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
A_1 & (\mod 3), \\
A_2A_1 & (\mod 5), \\
A_3A_2A_1 & (\mod 7), \\
\vdots \\
A_{51}\cdots A_4A_3A_2A_1 & (\mod 103), \\
\vdots \\
\end{array}$$

simultaneously, for all primes p < N.

For $f(x) = x^2 - 3x - 2$, we need to compute

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \\ \end{bmatrix}$$
(mod 3),
$$\begin{bmatrix} 9 & 4 \\ 4 & 0 \\ 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \\ \end{bmatrix}$$
(mod 5),
$$\begin{bmatrix} 15 & 8 \\ 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 4 \\ 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \\ \end{bmatrix}$$
(mod 7),
$$\vdots$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 303 & 200 \\ 102 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdots \begin{bmatrix} 15 & 8 \\ 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 4 \\ 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \\ \end{bmatrix}$$
(mod 103),
$$\vdots$$

Notice there are O(N) rows, each row has O(N) matrices, and the matrix entries have $O(\log N)$ bits.

The accumulating remainder tree, in one slide Suppose we want to compute:

$$\begin{array}{rll} & & (\mbox{mod} & Q_1), \\ & & M_2 M_1 & (\mbox{mod} & Q_2), \\ & & M_3 M_2 M_1 & (\mbox{mod} & Q_3), \\ & & M_4 M_3 M_2 M_1 & (\mbox{mod} & Q_4), \\ & & M_5 M_4 M_3 M_2 M_1 & (\mbox{mod} & Q_5), \end{array}$$

. . .

 $M_n M_{n-1} \cdots M_5 M_4 M_3 M_2 M_1 \qquad (\text{mod } Q_n).$

Algorithm (assuming *n* odd):

(1) multiply pairs of adjacent M_i 's and Q_i 's,

(2) recursively compute

$$(M_2M_1) \pmod{Q_2Q_3}, (M_4M_3)(M_2M_1) \pmod{Q_4Q_5},$$

. . .

 $(M_{n-1}M_{n-2})\cdots(M_4M_3)(M_2M_1) \pmod{Q_{n-1}Q_n},$

(3) make the obvious corrections.

Initial problem for N = 128, with 63 rows:

First recursive step, 31 rows:

 $\begin{bmatrix} 35 & 0 \\ 12 & 0 \\ 15875). \end{bmatrix}$

Second recursive step, 15 rows:



Analysis

Number of recursion levels is $O(\log N)$.

At top level, have O(N) matrices with $O(\log N)$ -bit entries.

At each recursive level, half as many matrices, but entries have twice as many bits... so bit size at each level is still $O(N \log N)$.

Use FFT integer multiplication and division: cost is $O(N \log^{2+\epsilon} N)$ per level.

Total cost: $O(N \log^{3+\epsilon} N)$ bit operations (ignoring bit size of b and c).

Sample timings for hyperelliptic curves

Genus 2, time to compute $L_p(T)$ for all $p < 2^{30}$:

${\sf Baby-step/giant-step}\;({\tt smalljac})$	1.4 years
Average polynomial time	1.3 days

Genus 3, time to compute $L_p(T)$ for all $p < 2^{30}$:

Accelerated Kedlaya (hypellfrob)	3.8 years
Average polynomial time	4.0 days

(Timings from H. & Sutherland, 2016)

Summary

- The "accumulating remainder tree" algorithm can be used to evaluate certain types of matrix products modulo many primes simultaneously.
- It is very memory intensive, and spends most of its time computing Fourier transforms of large integers.
- In the application to point counting, one must first express the point-counting problem in terms of such matrix products.

Thank you!