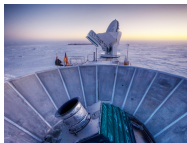


# Telescopes for mathematicians

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Simons Collaboration in Arithmetic Geometry, Number Theory, and Computation

## What is arithmetic geometry?

Arithmetic geometers study solutions to polynomial equations like

$$y = 2x + 3, \quad x^2 + y^2 = 1,$$

$$y^2 + y = x^3 - x^2,$$

$$y^2 + (x^3 + x + 1)y = x^5 + x^4, \quad xy^3 + y^3z + z^3x = 0,$$

and even “cursed” examples like

$$y^4 + 5x^4 - 6x^2y^2 + 6x^3z + 26x^2yz + 10xy^2z - 10y^3z \\ - 32x^2z^2 - 40xyz^2 + 24y^2z^2 + 32xz^3 - 16yz^3 = 0.$$



Balakrishnan et al.  
2017

## Which solutions?

There is a robust theory (algebraic geometry) that addresses this problem over the complex numbers.



Number theorists are particularly interested in **integer** (or rational) solutions to these equations. These can be very difficult to find.

Indeed, this problem is **unsolvable**, in general, but it can be solved in many cases. Even when it cannot, we can simplify the problem by looking at solutions modulo **primes**, in other words, we can **count points**.

These point counts can be used to define an **L-function** that encodes the fundamental structure of the equation (or system of equations) in a canonical way.

## Counting points modulo $p$

Let's count points  $(x, y)$  on the curve  $C: x^2 + y^2 = 1$  modulo primes  $p$ :

$p$	2	3	5	7	11	13	17	19	23	29	...
	2	4	4	8	12	12	16	20	24	28	$p \pm 1$

Better, count points  $(x, y, z) \sim (cx, cy, cz)$  on  $x^2 + y^2 = z^2 \pmod{p}$ :

$p$	2	3	5	7	11	13	17	19	23	29	...
	3	4	6	8	12	14	18	20	24	30	$p + 1$

We always get  $p + 1$ . The  $L$ -function of  $C$  is

$$L(C, s) = \prod (1 - p^{-s})^{-1} = \sum n^{-s} = \zeta(s).$$

We get the same  $L$ -function whenever  $C$  has **genus 0**.

# Elliptic curves

Let  $E$  be an elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , which we can write as

$$E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b.$$

Every curve of **genus 1** with rational points has this form.  
You (via your phone/computer) use elliptic curves every day!



The number of points on  $E$  modulo  $p$  can be written as

$$\#E_p(\mathbb{F}_p) = p + 1 - a_p,$$

where the **trace of Frobenius**  $a_p$  satisfies  $|a_p| \leq 2\sqrt{p}$ .



H. Hasse

Let us now consider the sequence of real numbers  $x_p := -t_p/\sqrt{p} \in [-2, 2]$ .

Example:  $y^2 = x^3 + x + 1$

$p$	$t_p$	$x_p$	$p$	$t_p$	$x_p$	$p$	$t_p$	$x_p$
3	0	<b>0.000000</b>	71	13	<b>-1.542816</b>	157	-13	<b>1.037513</b>
5	-3	<b>1.341641</b>	73	2	<b>-0.234082</b>	163	-25	<b>1.958151</b>
7	3	<b>-1.133893</b>	79	-6	<b>0.675053</b>	167	24	<b>-1.857176</b>
11	-2	<b>0.603023</b>	83	-6	<b>0.658586</b>	173	2	<b>-0.152057</b>
13	-4	<b>1.109400</b>	89	-10	<b>1.059998</b>	179	0	<b>0.000000</b>
17	0	<b>0.000000</b>	97	1	<b>-0.101535</b>	181	-8	<b>0.594635</b>
19	-1	<b>0.229416</b>	101	-3	<b>0.298511</b>	191	-25	<b>1.808937</b>
23	-4	<b>0.834058</b>	103	17	<b>-1.675060</b>	193	-7	<b>0.503871</b>
29	-6	<b>1.114172</b>	107	3	<b>-0.290021</b>	197	-24	<b>1.709929</b>
37	-10	<b>1.643990</b>	109	-13	<b>1.245174</b>	199	-18	<b>1.275986</b>
41	7	<b>-1.093216</b>	113	-11	<b>1.034793</b>	211	-11	<b>0.757271</b>
43	10	<b>-1.524986</b>	127	2	<b>-0.177471</b>	223	-20	<b>1.339299</b>
47	-12	<b>1.750380</b>	131	4	<b>-0.349482</b>	227	0	<b>0.000000</b>
53	-4	<b>0.549442</b>	137	12	<b>-1.025229</b>	229	-2	<b>0.132164</b>
59	-3	<b>0.390567</b>	139	14	<b>-1.187465</b>	233	-3	<b>0.196537</b>
61	12	<b>-1.536443</b>	149	14	<b>-1.146925</b>	239	-22	<b>1.423062</b>
67	12	<b>-1.466033</b>	151	-2	<b>0.162758</b>	241	22	<b>-1.417145</b>

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# The Sato-Tate conjecture

The **Sato-Tate conjecture** states that, except for certain families of well understood exceptions, we will always get the same limiting distribution as  $p \rightarrow \infty$ .



Mikio Sato



John Tate

**Theorem (Taylor et al. 2008)**

Let  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  be an elliptic curve without **extra endomorphisms**.

The sequence  $x_p$  converges to the semi-circular distribution.



Richard Taylor

Richard Taylor received the 2014 Breakthrough Prize in Mathematics for this work.

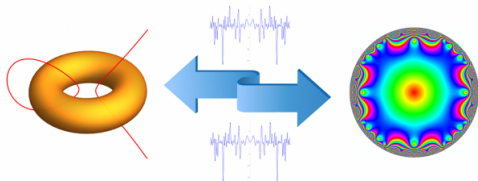
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# Modularity

The proof of the Sato-Tate conjecture is built on the [Modularity Theorem](#).

Theorem (Taylor-Wiles 1995, Breuil-Conrad-Diamond-Taylor 2001)

For every elliptic curve  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  there is a modular form  $f_E$  for which  $L(E, s) = L(f_E, s)$ .  
The *q-expansion*  $f_E(q) = \sum a_n q^n$  of  $f_E$  is determined by the Frobenius traces  $a_p$  of  $E$ .



Corollary (Wiles 1995)

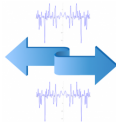
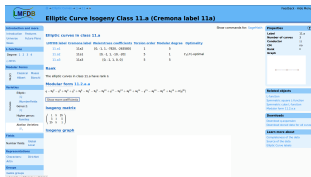
The equation  $x^n + y^n = z^n$  has no nontrivial integer solutions for  $n > 2$ .

# The $L$ -functions and Modular Forms Database (LMFDB)

The relationship between elliptic curves and modular forms established by the Modularity Theorem was conjectured fifty years earlier.

Compelling evidence for this conjecture was obtained over many decades by tabulating elliptic curves and modular forms and computing their  $L$ -functions.

Extensive tables of these (and many other mathematical objects) are now available in the  $L$ -functions and Modular Forms Database.



# Ranks of elliptic curves

The rational points on an elliptic curve  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  are generated by a finite set of points. The minimal number of infinite order generators is the **rank**  $r$ .

There are many things we do not know about  $r$ :

- ▶ Is there an algorithm that is guaranteed to compute  $r$ ?
- ▶ Which values of  $r$  can occur? Is there an upper limit?
- ▶ How often does each possible value of  $r$  occur, on average?

## Theorem (Elkies 1990)

*The value of  $r$  can be as large as 28.*



## Theorem (Bhargava-Shankar 2012)

*The average value of  $r$  lies between 0 and 1.*



# The Birch and Swinnerton-Dyer conjecture

Based on extensive computer experiments (in the early 1960s!), Bryan Birch and Sir Peter Swinnerton-Dyer made the following conjecture.

## Conjecture (Birch and Swinnerton-Dyer)

Let  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  be an elliptic curve of rank  $r$ . Then  $L(E, s) = (s - 1)^r g(s)$ , for some  $g(s)$  with  $g(1) \neq 0$ , in other words,  $r$  is the *order of vanishing* of  $L(E, s)$  at 1.



Birch



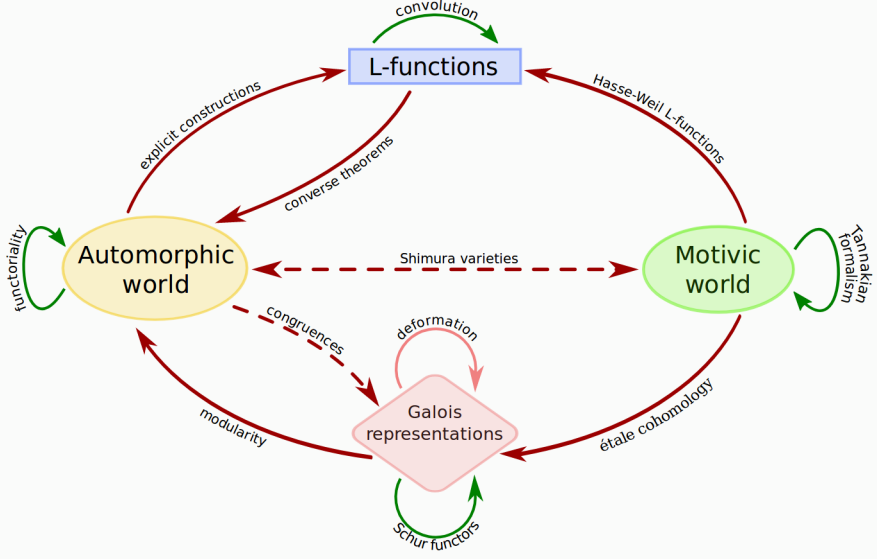
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Swinnerton-Dyer

They later made a more precise conjecture that gives the leading coefficient of  $g(s)$ .

# The Langlands Program



## The $L$ -function of a curve

The  $L$ -function of a (nice) curve  $X/\mathbb{Q}$  can be written as

$$L(X, s) := \prod_p L_p(p^{-s})^{-1}.$$

For good primes  $p$  the polynomial  $L_p \in \mathbb{Z}[T]$  is the numerator of the zeta function

$$Z(X_p; T) := \exp \left( \sum_{r \geq 1} \#X_p(\mathbb{F}_{p^r}) \frac{T^r}{r} \right) = \frac{L_p(T)}{(1-T)(1-pT)}.$$

Zeta functions can be computed by counting points.

Under the Langlands philosophy,  $L(X, s)$  is completely determined by point counts modulo “sufficiently many” good primes  $p$ .

How many we need depends on the conductor of  $L(X, s)$ .



## Algorithms to compute zeta functions

Given  $X/\mathbb{Q}$  of genus  $g$ , we want to compute  $L_p(T)$  for all good  $p \leq B$ .

algorithm	complexity per prime (ignoring factors of $O(\log \log p)$ )		
	$g = 1$	$g = 2$	$g = 3$
point enumeration	$p \log p$	$p^2 \log p$	$p^3 (\log p)^2$
group computation	$p^{1/4} \log p$	$p^{3/4} \log p$	$p (\log p)^2$
$p$ -adic cohomology	$p^{1/2} (\log p)^2$	$p^{1/2} (\log p)^2$	$p^{1/2} (\log p)^2$
CRT (Schoof-Pila)	$(\log p)^5$	$(\log p)^8$	$(\log p)^{12}$
average poly-time	$(\log p)^4$	$(\log p)^4$	$(\log p)^4$

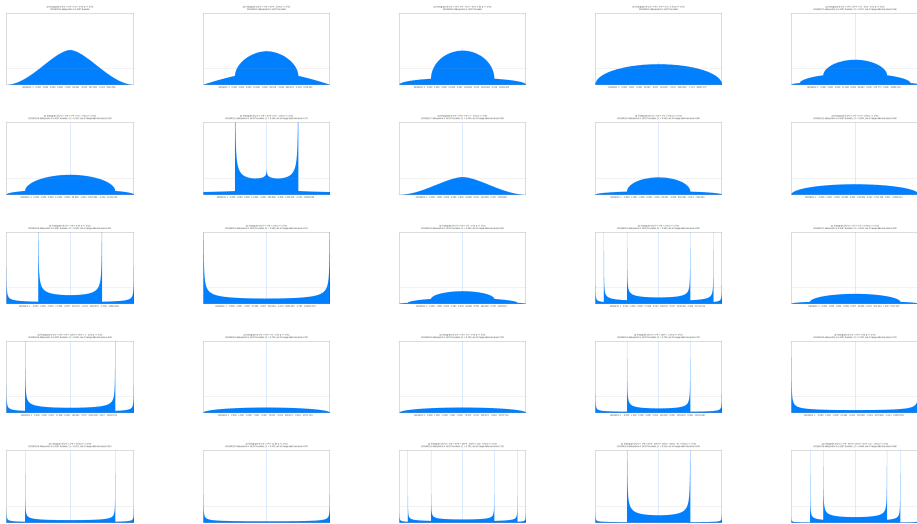
The bottom row is due to a 2014 breakthrough by David Harvey, followed by further refinements [Harvey-S 2016, 2018].

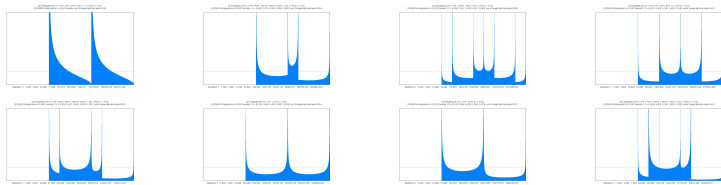
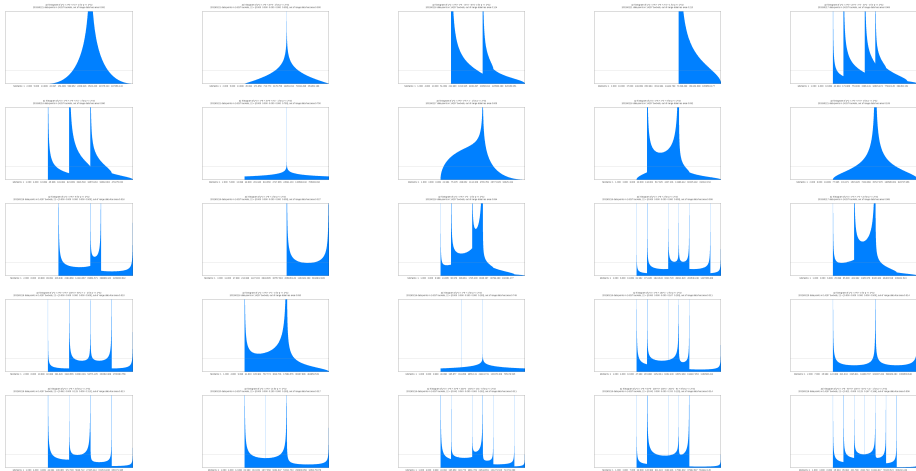


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# Exceptional Sato-Tate distributions for genus 2 curves over $\mathbb{Q}$ :





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## Timings for genus 3 curves

Time to compute  $L_p(T) \bmod p$  for all good  $p \leq B$ .

$B$	spq-Costa-AKR	hyp-Harvey	spq-HS	hyp-HS
$2^{12}$	18	1.3	1.4	0.1
$2^{13}$	49	2.6	2.4	0.2
$2^{14}$	142	5.4	4.6	0.5
$2^{15}$	475	12	9.4	1.0
$2^{16}$	1,670	29	21	2.1
$2^{17}$	5,880	74	47	5.3
$2^{18}$	22,300	192	112	14
$2^{19}$	78,100	532	241	37
$2^{20}$	297,000	1,480	551	97
$2^{21}$	1,130,000	4,170	1,240	244
$2^{22}$	4,280,000	12,200	2,980	617
$2^{23}$	16,800,000	36,800	6,330	1,500
$2^{24}$	66,800,000	113,000	14,200	3,520
$2^{25}$	244,000,000	395,000	31,900	8,220
$2^{26}$	972,000,000	1,060,000	83,300	19,700

(Intel Xeon E7-8867v3 3.3 GHz CPU seconds).

## Building a database of low genus curves

To make it feasible to compute  $L$ -functions, and to facilitate investigation of the Langlands correspondence, we want to tabulate curves by conductor.

No one knows how to do this for curves of genus  $g > 1$ , not even in principle!

We instead “sieve the sky”. We enumerate vast numbers of curves with small coefficients along with their discriminants (which bound the conductor).

In our genus 2 and genus 3 searches we enumerated a total of about  $10^{18}$  curves. In each case we kept roughly  $10^5$  curves of interest.

To make such a computation feasible requires:

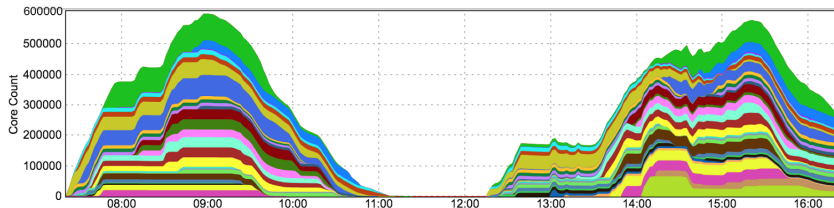
- extremely efficient enumeration algorithms;
- code optimization “down to the metal”;
- massive parallelism.



## Parallel computation

The genus 3 computation was parallelized and run on Google's Cloud Platform. We spread the load across 24 data centers in nine geographic zones.

For the smooth plane quartic search we used 19,000 **pre-emptible** 32-vCPU instances. At peak usage we had 580,000 vCPUs running at full load (a **new record**).



This 300 vCPU-year computation took about 10 hours.