Hypergeometric L-functions in average polynomial time

Edgar Costa, Kiran S. Kedlaya, and David Roe

Costa, Roe: Department of Mathematics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology Kedlaya: Department of Mathematics, University of California, San Diego edgarc@mit.edu, kedlaya@ucsd.edu, roed@mit.edu

slides at https://kskedlaya.org/slides/; see also arXiv:2005.13640, prerecorded talk

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The MIT campus sits on the traditional unceded territory of the Wampanoag Nation; we acknowledge the painful history of genocide and forced removal from this territory. The UCSD campus sits on the ancestral homelands of the Kumeyaay Nation; the Kumeyaay people continue to have an important and thriving presence in the region.

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Computing an arithmetic *L*-function

An arithmetic L-function over $\mathbb Q$ of some degree r generally has the form

$$\prod_{p} \det(1 - p^{-s}F_p)^{-1}$$

where for all but finitely many p, F_p is some $r \times r$ matrix. Rewrite

$$\det(1-
ho^{-s}F_{
ho})^{-1}=\exp\left(\sum_{f=1}^{\infty}rac{1}{f}
ho^{-fs}\operatorname{Trace}(F_{
ho}^{f})
ight);$$

to compute the Dirichlet series up to X, we need $\operatorname{Trace}(F_p^f)$ for all prime powers $p^f \leq X$.

We are interesting in computing the hypergeometric *L*-function associated to a hypergeometric datum $(\alpha, \beta) \in (\mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1))^{r \times 2}$, for which $\text{Trace}(F_p^f)$ is computed by a finite hypergeometric sum. In this paper, we focus on f = 1 and compute this trace modulo p.

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Finite hypergeometric sums

Using Gross–Koblitz to compute Gauss sums in the Beukers–Cohen–Mellit formula using the Morita *p*-adic Gamma function Γ_p , we get for q = p

$$\operatorname{Trace}(F_p) = H_p\begin{pmatrix}\alpha\\\beta \mid z\end{pmatrix} := \frac{1}{1-p} \sum_{m=0}^{p-2} (-p)^{\eta_m(\alpha) - \eta_m(\beta)} p^{D+\xi_m(\beta)} \\ \left(\prod_{j=1}^r \frac{\Gamma_p(\alpha_j + \frac{m}{1-p})/\Gamma_p(\alpha_j)}{\Gamma_p(\beta_j + \frac{m}{1-p})/\Gamma_p(\beta_j)}\right) [z]^m$$

where η_m, ξ_m, D are some combinatorial invariants of α, β and $[z] \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{\times}$ is the unique (p-1)-st root of unity congruent to z modulo p. (We rig up D to ensure $\eta_m(\alpha) - \eta_m(\beta) + D + \xi_m(\beta) \ge 0$; since Γ_p takes values in \mathbb{Z}_p^{\times} , everything in sight is in \mathbb{Z}_p rather than \mathbb{Q}_p .)

Quadratic versus linear complexity

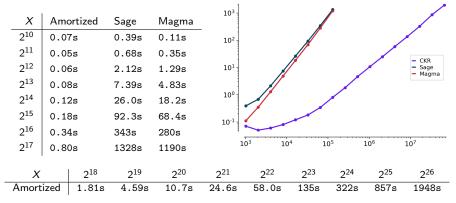
The implementations in Magma and Sage compute $H_p\begin{pmatrix}\alpha\\\beta\\z\end{pmatrix}$ one p at a time. Since the sum is over O(p) terms, computing all prime Dirichlet coefficients up to X requires $O(\frac{X^2}{\log X})$ arithmetic operations.

In our paper, we use the method of remainder forests (cf. Sutherland's paper) to amortize the computation over all $p \leq X$. This reduces the complexity to $O(X \log^3 X)$ (for fixed α, β).

Reminder: we are only computing $H_p\begin{pmatrix}\alpha\\\beta|z\end{pmatrix}\pmod{p}$ (mod p). However, we expect that one can work modulo p^e with similar complexity (times some power of e). It would still remain to compute $H_{p^f}\begin{pmatrix}\alpha\\\beta|z\end{pmatrix}$ for all $p^f \leq X$ with $f \geq 2$; this requires $O(\frac{X^{3/2}}{\log X})$ as written, but other techniques can reduce this to $O(X \log^2 X)$ even without amortization.

Timings

In this example $\alpha = (\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}), \beta = (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}), z = \frac{1}{5}$. This *L*-function has weight 1, so $H_{\rho}\begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ z \end{pmatrix}$ is uniquely determined by its reduction mod p. (See §5.4 of the paper for more implementation details, and §5.5 for a worked example.)



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Setup

Modulo p, the trace formula becomes

$$H_{\rho}\left({}^{\alpha}_{\beta}|z\right) \equiv \sum_{m=0}^{p-2} \pm p^{*}\left(\prod_{j=1}^{r} \frac{\Gamma_{\rho}(\alpha_{j}+m)/\Gamma_{\rho}(\alpha_{j})}{\Gamma_{\rho}(\beta_{j}+m)/\Gamma_{\rho}(\beta_{j})}\right) z^{m} \pmod{p}.$$

Call the *m*-th summand P_m . Suppose we had $f(m), g(m) \in \mathbb{Z}[m]$ so that

$$P_{m+1} \equiv rac{f(m)}{g(m)} P_m \pmod{p}.$$

We could then set

$$B(m) := \begin{pmatrix} g(m) & 0 \\ g(m) & f(m) \end{pmatrix} = g(m) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & f(m)/g(m) \end{pmatrix}$$

and then use remainder products to compute

$$B(0) \dots B(p-2) \equiv g(0) \cdots g(p-2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \sum_{m=0}^{p-2} P_m & P_{p-1} \end{pmatrix} \pmod{p}.$$

Two related issues

• The factor $\pm p^*$ is determined by the **zigzag function**^{*} at $\frac{m}{p-1}$:

$$Z_{lpha,eta}: [0,1]
ightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad Z_{lpha,eta}(x):=\#\{j: lpha_j \leq x\} - \#\{j: eta_j \leq x\}.$$

This creates a "discontinuity" when $\frac{m}{p-1}$ passes through α_j or β_j .

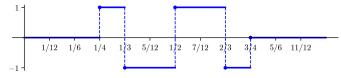


Figure:
$$Z_{\alpha,\beta}(x)$$
 for $\alpha = (\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}), \beta = (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$

• Similar "discontinuities" arise from the functional equation for Γ_p :

$$\Gamma_{\rho}(x+1) = \begin{cases} -x\Gamma_{\rho}(x) & x \notin p\mathbb{Z}_{\rho} \\ -\Gamma_{\rho}(x) & x \in p\mathbb{Z}_{\rho} \end{cases}$$

 $^*Z_{\alpha,\beta}$ also determines the weight and Hodge numbers of the *L*-function.

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Resolution of the issues

We resolve both issues by "ferrying".[†]

- We break the summation at $\lfloor \alpha_j(p-1) \rfloor$, $\lfloor \beta_j(p-1) \rfloor$, and separate primes into classes modulo $lcd(\alpha, \beta)$.
- Within each range and congruence class, we do a single amortized computation of matrix products.
- We then do non-amortized computations of transition matrices to "portage" or "ferry" across the breaks.

For each p, we put the ranges and transitions together to obtain a product

computing a scalar multiple of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \sum_{m=0}^{p-2} P_m & P_{p-1} \end{pmatrix} \pmod{p}$.



[†]At ANTS-XIII in Madison, "portage" would have been a better metaphor.

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Review of the prerecorded talk

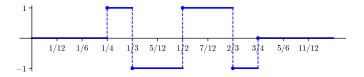
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Setup

Take $\alpha = (\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}), \beta = (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}), z = \frac{1}{5}$. We see that the *L*-function has weight 1 by plotting the zigzag function (again):



In particular, computing H_p modulo p is enough to determine it exactly. Denote the intervals we see by I_0, \ldots, I_5 .

Since we are only working modulo p, the only intervals that contribute to the sum are $l_2 = (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{2})$ and $l_4 = (\frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4})$. **However**, we do still have to compute over the other integrals in order to update the product!

Amortized products

For simplicity, we focus on the case $p \equiv 7 \pmod{12}$. In the intervals that contribute to the sum, we take in the matrix product

$$\begin{split} f_{2,7}(k) &= 5184k^4 + 8640k^3 + 4428k^2 + 852k + 55, \\ g_{2,7}(k) &= 25920k^4 + 69120k^3 + 63360k^2 + 23040k + 2880, \\ f_{4,7}(k) &= 5184k^4 + 12096k^3 + 9612k^2 + 2820k + 175, \\ g_{4,7}(k) &= 25920k^4 + 86400k^3 + 106560k^2 + 57600k + 11520. \end{split}$$

Suppose we did the remainder forest and then took p = 67. We'd see

$$S_2(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 65 & 0 \\ 34 & 5 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad S_4(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 54 & 0 \\ 25 & 41 \end{pmatrix}.$$

More amortized products and the portage

In order to compute the correct sum, we also do similar computations over the other intervals. At p = 67, we get

$$S_0(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 38 & 0 \\ 0 & 62 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad S_1(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 50 & 0 \\ 0 & 47 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$S_3(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 16 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad S_5(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 38 \end{pmatrix}.$$

For the "ferries", we work directly with p = 67 to compute

$$\begin{split} T_0(67) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad T_1(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 31 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad T_2(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 12 \end{pmatrix}, \\ T_3(67) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 40 \end{pmatrix}, \quad T_4(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 40 \end{pmatrix}, \quad T_5(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 31 \end{pmatrix}. \end{split}$$

A worked example (part 4)

Putting the product together, we get

$$S(67) = T_0(67)S_0(67)\cdots T_5(67)S_5(67) = \begin{pmatrix} 21 & 0\\ 33 & 21 \end{pmatrix}$$

so $H_{67}\begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} \equiv \frac{33}{21} \equiv 59 \pmod{67}$. This checks with Magma and Sage:

H := HypergeometricData([[1/4,1/2,1/2,3/4],[1/3,1/3,2/3,2/3]]); HypergeometricTrace(H, 5, 67); -8

```
sage: from sage.modular.hypergeometric_motive \
....: import HypergeometricData as Hyp
sage: H = Hyp(alpha_beta=([1/4,1/2,1/2,3/4],[1/3,1/3,2/3,2/3]))
sage: H.trace(67, 1, 1/5)
-8
```

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Raising the modulus

There are two main issues with working modulo a higher power of p.

- The general formula has [z] (the (p-1)-st root of unity congruent to $z \mod p$) instead of z. One can compute $[z] \mod p^e$ (e.g., by a Newton-Raphson iteration) but this does not integrate well into the amortization.
- The general formula has Γ_p(α_j + m/(1-p)) rather than Γ_p(α_j + m). One can compute Γ_p using its Mahler expansion in a residue disc, but it takes O(p) complexity to compute the coefficients (e.g., modulo p² one needs (p 1)! (mod p²) as in a search for Wilson primes).

To deal with the first issue, one can use Harvey's "generic prime" strategy: replace $\mathbb{Z}[m]$ with $\mathbb{Z}[m, x]/(x^e)$ where x is a proxy for [z] - z.

To deal with the second issue, we replace p by a second nilpotent variable y, and integrate Mahler coefficients into the amortized computation.

We have not tried this! But it should work well in practice for small e.

Prime-power traces

We also need a plan for dealing with the p^{f} -Frobenius traces for f > 1.

For Dirichlet coefficients up to X, there are $O(\frac{X^{1/2}}{\log X})$ of these, and the primes involved are $O(X^{1/2})$. So we don't need to amortize if we can reduce the individual complexity from $O(p^f)$ to O(p).

This is achieved by algorithms that compute a suitable matrix F_p . For example, one can compute the Frobenius structure on the hypergeometric differential equation and specialize it suitably (as in Lauder's **deformation method** for zeta functions).