

# **Relative Manin-Mumford for Abelian Varieties**

D. W. Masser

Institute of Mathematics  
University of Basel  
CH - 4051 Basel  
Switzerland

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# Relative Manin-Mumford for abelian varieties

D. Masser

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**Abstract:** *With an eye or two towards applications to Pell's equation and to Davenport's work on integration of algebraic functions, Umberto Zannier and I have recently characterised torsion points on a fixed algebraic curve in a fixed abelian scheme of dimension bigger than one (when all is defined over the algebraic numbers): there are at most finitely many points provided the natural obstacles are absent. I sketch the proof as well as the applications.*

A very simple problem of Manin-Mumford type is: find all roots of unity  $\lambda, \mu$  with  $\lambda + \mu = 1$ . Here the solution is easy: we have  $|\lambda| = |1 - \lambda| = 1$  and so in the complex plane  $\lambda$  lies on the intersection of two circles; in fact  $\lambda$  must be one of the two primitive sixth roots of unity (the picture doesn't work too well in positive characteristic, and indeed any non-zero element of any finite field is already a root of unity, so from now on we stick to zero characteristic). This result has something to do with the multiplicative group  $\mathbf{G}_m$ , which can be regarded as  $\mathbf{C}^*$ . Actually with  $\mathbf{G}_m^2$  and the "line" inside it parametrized by  $P = (\lambda, 1 - \lambda)$ : we ask just that  $P$  is torsion.

Now it is easy to generalize, at least the problem, to other algebraic varieties in other commutative algebraic groups.

For example let  $E$  be the elliptic curve defined by  $y^2 = x(x - 1)(x - 4)$ . Asking for all complex  $\lambda$  such that the points

$$(2\lambda, \sqrt{2\lambda(2\lambda - 1)(2\lambda - 4)}), \quad (3\lambda, \sqrt{3\lambda(3\lambda - 1)(3\lambda - 4)}) \quad (1)$$

are both torsion amounts to asking for torsion points on a certain curve in the surface  $E^2$ . But here the solution is much more difficult (and it is not clear to me that one can find all  $\lambda$  explicitly as above).

It was Hindry [H] who solved the general problem with any algebraic variety in any commutative algebraic group  $G$ . The outcome for a curve in  $G$  is that it contains at most finitely many torsion points unless one of its components is a connected one-dimensional “torsion coset”; that is, a translate  $P_0 + H$  of an algebraic subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  by a torsion point  $P_0$ . This  $H$  contains infinitely many torsion points and so  $P_0 + H$  also.

Thus for  $G = \mathbf{G}_m^2$  the analogue for  $\lambda\mu = 1$  of the problem above will not lead to finiteness, as the curve is such an  $H$ . Similarly  $\lambda\mu = -1$  is  $P_0 + H$  for  $P_0 = (1, -1)$  with  $2P_0 = 0$  (written additively).

More generally  $G$  can be  $\mathbf{G}_m^n$ ,  $E^n$  as in Habegger’s talks in this volume, or an abelian variety  $A$  as in Orr’s article, or products of these, or “twisted products” sitting inside an exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow T \rightarrow G \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0 \tag{2}$$

where  $T$  is a power of  $\mathbf{G}_m$  or even a product  $\mathbf{G}_a^r \times \mathbf{G}_m^s$  for the additive group  $\mathbf{G}_a = \mathbf{C}$ . Here the twisting can be quite complicated and  $G$  can end up very far from just  $T \times A$ . It is classical that every commutative algebraic group over  $\mathbf{C}$  has this form. We will see how several types turn up in applications.

The applications involve most naturally the “relative case”, where  $G$  itself is allowed to vary in a family. Most of the current results allow only a single parameter here, and we already have parameters in the algebraic variety, so this had better stay a curve, essentially with a parameter  $\lambda$ , and  $G$  had better depend on no more than  $\lambda$ . An example like (1) involves the points

$$(2, \sqrt{4 - 2\lambda}), \quad (3, \sqrt{18 - 6\lambda}) \tag{3}$$

now on the elliptic curve  $E_\lambda$  defined by  $y^2 = x(x - 1)(x - \lambda)$ ; that is the famous Legendre family. Again we go to  $E_\lambda^2$ , where the square is the “fibre square” defined by the equations

$$y_1^2 = x_1(x_1 - 1)(x_1 - \lambda), \quad y_2^2 = x_2(x_2 - 1)(x_2 - \lambda)$$

with  $\lambda$  in common, and we get a curve defined by  $x_1 = 2, x_2 = 3$ . Then by [MZ1] there are at most finitely complex values of  $\lambda$  (now not 0, 1 so that we have a genuine elliptic curve) such that both points in (3) are torsion. Here their effective determination may be a difficult problem in practice and even in principle.

In various works Umberto Zannier and I have treated any curve in any parametrized abelian variety  $A_\lambda$  of “relative dimension” at least two, sometimes with the proviso that everything is defined over the field  $\overline{\mathbf{Q}}$  of all algebraic numbers. We get finiteness with

a similar condition about torsion cosets, now interpreted schemewise or more intuitively “identically in  $\lambda$ ”. For example in  $E_\lambda^2$  above these are defined essentially by the vanishing of non-trivial integral linear combinations  $n_1(x_1, y_1) + n_2(x_2, y_2)$ . It is not difficult to show that this is impossible for (3). On the other hand

$$2(0, 0) = 2(1, 0) = 2(\lambda, 0) = 4(\sqrt{\lambda}, i(\lambda - \sqrt{\lambda})) = 0$$

so it is not quite easy.

A start has been made on more general  $G_\lambda$ . First with Bertrand and Pillay we have considered

$$1 \rightarrow \mathbf{G}_m \rightarrow G_\lambda \rightarrow E_\lambda \rightarrow 0 \quad (4)$$

and

$$1 \rightarrow \mathbf{G}_m \rightarrow G_\lambda \rightarrow E \rightarrow 0. \quad (5)$$

with  $E$  not depending on  $\lambda$ . Bertrand [Be] had already given a surprising counterexample in (5): in rather special situations it is possible to construct what he calls a “Ribet curve” having infinitely many torsion points, even though it is not a torsion coset. We then checked in [BMPZ] that this happens only for Ribet curves.

And Harry Schmidt in Basle [Sc] has done

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbf{G}_a \rightarrow G_\lambda \rightarrow E_\lambda \rightarrow 0 \quad (6)$$

where it is reassuring to find that there are no counterexamples.

We give a short proof sketch of the result for (3). As in Habegger’s talks, it hinges on the analytic representation of an elliptic curve as a quotient of  $\mathbf{C}$  by a lattice, as in the general strategy of Zannier expounded in [PZ]. For  $E_\lambda$  this lattice  $\Omega_\lambda$  depends on  $\lambda$ , and in fact one can take a basis of periods

$$\Omega_\lambda = \mathbf{Z}f_\lambda + \mathbf{Z}g_\lambda$$

where  $f_\lambda$  is hypergeometric  $\pi F(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 1; \lambda)$  and  $g_\lambda = if_{1-\lambda}$ . The points (3) correspond in  $\mathbf{C}$  to “elliptic logarithms”  $u_\lambda, v_\lambda$ , say; and since  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{R}f_\lambda + \mathbf{R}g_\lambda$  there are real functions  $p_\lambda, q_\lambda, r_\lambda, s_\lambda$  with

$$u_\lambda = p_\lambda f_\lambda + q_\lambda g_\lambda, \quad v_\lambda = r_\lambda f_\lambda + s_\lambda g_\lambda.$$

As  $\lambda$  moves, the locus of  $z_\lambda = (p_\lambda, q_\lambda, r_\lambda, s_\lambda)$  has real dimension two in  $\mathbf{R}^4$  and is in fact a (sub-)analytic surface  $Z$ . The torsion in  $\mathbf{C}$  is  $\mathbf{Q}f_\lambda + \mathbf{Q}g_\lambda$ , and so our particular  $\lambda$  gives a

point of  $Z \cap \mathbf{Q}^4$ . It is even in  $Z \cap \frac{1}{N}\mathbf{Z}^4$  if the torsion order divides  $N$ . Such points cannot be very numerous: in Wilkie's talks we saw that the cardinality

$$|Z^{trans} \cap \frac{1}{N}\mathbf{Z}^4 \cap K| \leq c(\epsilon, Z, K)N^\epsilon$$

for a certain subset  $Z^{trans}$  of  $Z$  and any compact  $K$  (maybe this could be eliminated using  $\mathcal{o}$ -minimality) and any  $\epsilon > 0$ . See also Pila [Pil] and Pila-Wilkie [PW]. It may be very difficult to write down  $c(\epsilon, Z, K)$  in an effective way.

Here it is possible to show that  $Z^{trans} = Z$ ; this is a concealed algebraic independence result as in Pila's talks, for which the hard (Hodge-theoretical) work was done by André [An].

We deal with  $K$  using bounded height: more later. We get at most  $c(\epsilon)N^\epsilon$  points  $z_\lambda$ . An easy argument with a faint flavour of zero-estimates of the type used in transcendence theory leads to at most  $c(\epsilon)N^\epsilon$  values  $\lambda$ . But right now we don't know any upper bound for  $N$ .

In fact it is easy to see that these values  $\lambda$  all lie in  $\overline{\mathbf{Q}}$ ; further any given  $\lambda$  yields  $D = [\mathbf{Q}(\lambda) : \mathbf{Q}]$  in all by conjugation  $\lambda^\sigma$  (compare also Habegger's talks). We deduce

$$D \leq c(\epsilon)N^\epsilon. \tag{7}$$

But there are also lower bounds for  $D$ . If we go back to the original problem of  $\lambda, 1 - \lambda$ , now with say  $\lambda$  of exact order  $N_1$  then of course  $D = \phi(N_1)$  for the Euler function, and this is classically known to be at least  $c_1(\epsilon)N_1^{1-\epsilon}$  (now all constants are assumed positive). For our problem the analogue is that if  $(2, \sqrt{4 - 2\lambda})$  in (3) has exact order  $N_1$  then a famous Theorem of Serre [Se1] implies even

$$D \geq C_1 N_1^2 \tag{8}$$

(which is classical in the case of complex multiplication); but here the elliptic curve depends on  $\lambda$  and therefore so does  $C_1$ . Furthermore it is not so easy to calculate this dependence. The work [MW2] (based on transcendence among other things) applies only if  $N_1$  is prime, an assumption we cannot afford. It was extended to arbitrary  $N_1$  by Zywina [Zy], but only for an elliptic curve defined over  $\mathbf{Q}$ , which we also cannot assume here. Very recently Lombardo [L] has extended the field of definition to  $\overline{\mathbf{Q}}$ ; in a first version the dependence on  $D$  was not quite good enough for application here, but he has since fixed this. There is also a dependence on the absolute height  $h(\lambda)$  of  $\lambda$ . Fortunately a Theorem of Silverman [Si]

implies that this height is bounded above by an absolute constant. Combining everything leads to  $D \geq cN_1^\delta$  now with  $c$  absolute. Here  $\delta$  is less than  $10^{-10}$ .

For effectivity purposes it will probably be very convenient to have a bigger  $\delta$ . This arises from a more direct application of the transcendence methods, starting with an exponent smaller than 2 in (8). Then the very precise version [Davi2] due to David yields  $D \geq cN_1^{1/2}$ .

Similarly  $D \geq cN_2^{1/2}$  for the exact order  $N_2$  of  $(3, \sqrt{18 - 6\lambda})$  in (3). Taking  $N$  now as the exact order, we have  $N = \text{lcm}(N_1, N_2) \leq N_1 N_2$ , and it follows that  $D \geq cN^{1/4}$ . Comparing this with (7), we see that it suffices to choose  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{5}$  to get an absolute bound for  $D = [\mathbf{Q}(\lambda) : \mathbf{Q}]$ . Combined with the absolute bound on  $h(\lambda)$ , this gives by a well-known result of Northcott (see below) the required finiteness.

As height bounds were not much mentioned in the other talks, we sketch here a proof that

$$h(\lambda) \leq 6$$

for the absolute height

$$h(\lambda) = \frac{1}{D} \log \left( |a_0| \prod_{\sigma} \max\{1, |\lambda^{\sigma}|\} \right), \quad (9)$$

where  $a_0 \lambda^D + \dots = 0$  is the minimal equation for  $\lambda$  over  $\mathbf{Z}$ . All we use is  $N_1 P_1 = 0$  for  $P_1 = (2, \sqrt{4 - 2\lambda})$ , where the value of  $N_1 \geq 1$  is now irrelevant.

For any algebraic  $\lambda$  and  $P = (x, y)$  on  $E_{\lambda}$  with algebraic  $x, y$  we can reasonably define  $h(P) = h(x)$  (but in Habegger's talks it was  $h(x)/2$ ), as  $y$  is determined by  $x$  and  $\lambda$ . For example  $h(P_1) = \log 2$ . The Néron-Tate height  $\hat{h}(P)$  is defined for example by

$$\hat{h}(P) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{h(2^k P)}{4^k},$$

and  $|\hat{h}(P) - h(P)|$  is bounded above independently of  $P$ . Explicit bounds for Weierstrass elliptic curves are practically classical, but I calculated for Legendre

$$|\hat{h}(P) - h(P)| \leq \frac{5}{3} h(\lambda) + c \quad (10)$$

with explicit  $c$  absolute.

Further  $\hat{h}(P) = 0$  if and only if  $P$  is torsion.

We look at  $4P_1$  on  $E_\lambda$ . With the help of classical duplication formulae we find

$$4P_1 = \left( \frac{A(\lambda)}{B(\lambda)}, * \right)$$

with  $A, B$  in  $\mathbf{Z}[t]$  of degrees 8 and 7 respectively. In fact

$$A = t^8 - 160t^7 + 7104t^6 - 57344t^5 + 206336t^4 - 401408t^3 + 442368t^2 - 262144t + 65536,$$

$$B_4 = -288t^7 + 3648t^6 - 17408t^5 + 38912t^4 - 40960t^3 + 16384t^2.$$

Now  $h(\lambda^8) = 8h(\lambda)$  (not transparent from (9) by the way) and similarly one can show, after a bit of effort with resultants, that

$$h(4P_1) \geq 8h(\lambda) - c'$$

with  $c'$  absolute.

On the other hand (10) gives

$$h(4P_1) \leq \hat{h}(4P_1) + \frac{5}{3}h(\lambda) + c = \frac{5}{3}h(\lambda) + c$$

so

$$h(\lambda) \leq \frac{c + c'}{19/3} < 6$$

with some extra computation.

Here the Northcott result just mentioned becomes clear: if  $h(\lambda)$  and  $D$  are both bounded above, then so are  $|a_0|$  and the  $|\lambda^\sigma|$  in (9), and then so are the absolute values of the coefficients in the minimal polynomial  $a_0 \prod_\sigma (t - \lambda^\sigma)$ .

This completes the sketch for (3) and  $E_\lambda^2$ . The general curve in  $E_\lambda^2$  was treated in [MZ2], and more general products like  $E_\lambda \times E_{-\lambda}$  in [MZ3]. For  $A_\lambda$  as in [MZ4] and [MZ5] there are several extra technicalities. The results of André and Silverman apply also to the abelian situation. But despite the enormous advances by Serre in [Se2], still the extensions of [Se1] seem to be less clear-cut, even for powers of a fixed prime, let alone effective. But once more a transcendence approach succeeds, and we use David's result in [Davi1] pre-dating [Davi2]. In fact this result seems to require that the value  $\lambda$  is such that  $A_\lambda$  is simple. At first sight this looks like a problem. At second sight one suspects that such  $\lambda$  are probably rare, possibly controlled by conjectures of André-Oort-Pink-Zilber type (see [Pin] and [Zi] for example). At third sight one realizes that such conjectures

are not yet proved. But finally by going back into the proof in [Davi1] to winkle out the “obstruction subgroup” in the zero-estimate, one sees that some easy tricks from the geometry of numbers (as in [MW1] for example) suffice. One ends up with  $D \geq cN^\delta$  with a ridiculously small exponent  $\delta$  (depending on the dimension of  $A_\lambda$ ). One could also use [MW3] to factorize the non-simple  $A_\lambda$ , but then the exponent would be even smaller. Probably recent work of Gaudron and Rémond [GR] would give more reasonable values.

Now for the applications of these results, denoted by (I) and (II) below.

(I) All know that Pell’s equation

$$x^2 - dy^2 = 1, \quad y \neq 0$$

is solvable over  $\mathbf{Z}$  provided  $d > 0$  in  $\mathbf{Z}$  is not a square. Moving to the polynomial ring  $\mathbf{C}[t]$ , by now a knee-jerk reaction, especially in view of “abcology”, we consider

$$X^2 - DY^2 = 1, \quad Y \neq 0 \tag{11}$$

with  $D$  in  $\mathbf{C}[t]$  not a square, surely easier. But in fact it is much more difficult to describe the set of  $D$  for which there is solvability over  $\mathbf{C}[t]$ . One can easily see that the degree  $m$  of  $D$  must be even. Now we proceed systematically.

$m = 2$ : there is always solvability. Thus for  $D = at^2 + bt + c$  we can take

$$X = \frac{2at + b}{\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}, \quad Y = \frac{2\sqrt{a}}{\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}.$$

$m = 4$ : there is not always solvability. For example not for  $D = t^4 + t + 1$ . And in the family  $D = t^4 + t + \lambda$  we have solvability exactly when  $\lambda$  lies in a certain countable subset of  $\mathbf{C}$ . In fact precisely when the point  $(0, 1)$  is torsion on  $y^2 = x^3 - 4\lambda x + 1$ . This is essentially classical (Abel [Ab], Chebychev [C1],[C2]). In fact the set is infinite (which is not classical - for several proofs see [Za] pages 92,93 for example), as one might guess from its element (with its six conjugates)

$$\lambda = \frac{\sqrt[3]{2\sqrt{2} - 2}}{2}$$

where

$$X = \frac{(4 - 32\lambda^3)t^5 - (4\lambda - 16\lambda^4)t^4 + 4\lambda^2t^3 + (3 - 28\lambda^3)t^2 - 8\lambda^4t + 8\lambda^5}{32\lambda^8},$$

$$Y = \frac{(4 - 32\lambda^3)t^3 - (4\lambda - 16\lambda^4)t^2 + 4\lambda^2t + (1 - 12\lambda^3)}{32\lambda^8}.$$

$m = 6$ : there is rarely solvability. For example there are only finitely many  $\lambda$  in  $\mathbf{C}$  for which solvability holds for  $D = t^6 + t + \lambda$ . This is proved in [MZ4] using the general result on  $A_\lambda$  described above. In fact here  $A_\lambda$  is the Jacobian of the hyperelliptic curve  $s^2 = t^6 + t + \lambda$  of genus 2, or better a complete non-singular model

$$s^2 = t_3^2 + t_0t_1 + \lambda t_0^2, \quad t_0t_2 = t_1^2, \quad t_0t_3 = t_1t_2.$$

The curve inside  $A_\lambda$  is the locus of the divisor  $\Delta_\lambda = \infty_\lambda^+ - \infty_\lambda^-$  as  $\lambda$  varies, where  $\infty_\lambda^\pm$  are the two places at infinity. When (11) holds we write it as  $f_\lambda^+ f_\lambda^- = 1$  with the functions  $f_\lambda^\pm = X \pm sY$  to see that their divisors are multiples of  $\Delta_\lambda$  thus giving a torsion point.

There are actually some  $\lambda$ ; for example  $\lambda = 0$  with

$$X = 2t^5 + 1, \quad Y = 2t^2.$$

$m \geq 8$ : even rarer. For example with the family  $D = d_0(\lambda)t^m + \dots + d_m(\lambda)$  in  $\overline{\mathbf{Q}}[\lambda][t]$ , say for safety identically squarefree, there is solvability for infinitely many  $\lambda$  in  $\overline{\mathbf{Q}}$  only if the analogous Jacobian, now an abelian variety of dimension  $\frac{m-2}{2} \geq 3$ , contains an elliptic curve. This also follows from the  $A_\lambda$  result in [MZ5].

Incidentally, if we want to go beyond squarefree, then we can use the result of [BMPZ] on multiplicative extensions (4). Thus for  $D = t^2(t^4 + t + \lambda)$  we get at most a finite set, despite the infinite set for  $t^4 + t + \lambda$ . And also for  $D = t^3(t^3 + t + \lambda)$  using the additive extensions (6).

(II) This concerns the old problem of “integrating in elementary terms” (see for example the article [R] by Risch). By the way, the integration may be elementary but it need not be easy (just as for some proofs), as a wonderful example

$$\int \frac{\sqrt{1+t^4}}{1-t^4} dt = -\frac{1}{4}\sqrt{2} \log\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}t - \sqrt{1+t^4}}{1-t^2}\right) - \frac{i}{4}\sqrt{2} \log\left(\frac{i\sqrt{2}t + \sqrt{1+t^4}}{1+t^2}\right) \quad (12)$$

due to Euler shows. Not only can my Maple (version 9) not do the integration on the left-hand side, but it cannot even check the result by differentiating the right-hand side. Actually Euler’s version was

$$\frac{1}{4}\sqrt{2} \log\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}t + \sqrt{1+t^4}}{1-t^2}\right) + \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{2} \arcsin\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}t}{1+t^2}\right)$$

thus staying over  $\mathbf{R}$ .

We give some more examples in the above hyperelliptic context.

$m = 2$ : now  $\int \frac{dt}{\sqrt{D}}$  is always integrable - see any engineer's handbook of indefinite integrals.

$m = 4$ : now  $\int \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t^4+t+\lambda}}$  is integrable if and only if  $256\lambda^3 = 27$ ; then we can reduce it to

$$\int \frac{dt}{(t + 4\lambda/3)\sqrt{t^2 + \mu t + \nu}}$$

and run to the handbook.

$m = 6$ : now the same methods show that  $\int \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t^6+t+\lambda}}$  is integrable only if  $46656\lambda^5 = 3125$ , and with a bit more effort never.

However up to now all that is in fact relatively easy, and not at the same level as Pell. But

$$\int \frac{dt}{t\sqrt{t^4+t+\lambda}}$$

is integrable if and only if  $\lambda$  lies in a certain finite set. Oddly enough the proof does not use multiplicative extensions as for  $t^2(t^4+t+\lambda)$  above but rather Schmidt's result [Sc] on additive extensions (6). Incidentally, he has made such results effective, using among other things a version [Ma] of the original result of Bombieri-Pila [BP] obtained as in Wilkie's talks with the Siegel Lemma). For example he shows that there are at most  $e^{e^{e^{e^5}}}$  complex values of  $\lambda$  for which

$$\int \frac{dt}{(t-2)\sqrt{t(t-1)(t-\lambda)}}$$

is integrable. This is related to (3): thus integrability implies that  $(2, \sqrt{4-2\lambda})$  is torsion on  $E_\lambda$ . But the converse fails, so we cannot deduce infinitely many  $\lambda$ . In fact we get a torsion point even on a suitable  $G_\lambda$  as in (6), so we may conclude finiteness.

And also by [MZ5]

$$\int \frac{dt}{t\sqrt{t^6+t+\lambda}}$$

is integrable at most on a finite set; but no-one knows how to make this effective. Here we use  $A_\lambda$  as above, but now with the locus of  $\Gamma_\lambda = P_\lambda^+ - P_\lambda^-$ , where  $P_\lambda^\pm = (0, \pm\sqrt{\lambda})$ ; this time the torsion property arises from a classical criterion of Liouville, which implies that the integral, if elementary, must involve a single  $\log g_\lambda$  (as opposed to (12) with a pair).

Now differentiation (without Maple) gives  $dt/(ts) = cdg_\lambda/g_\lambda$  for  $c$  in  $\mathbf{C}$ , from which we see that the divisor of  $g_\lambda$  is a multiple of  $\Gamma_\lambda$ .

These examples support an assertion of James Davenport [Dave] from 1981.

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**D. Masser:** Mathematisches Institut, Universität Basel, Rheinsprung 21, 4051 Basel, Switzerland (*David.Masser@unibas.ch*).

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