# Computing torsion subgroups of Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3 

J. Steffen Müller*© and Berno Reitsma

*Correspondence:
steffen.muller@rug.nl Bernoulli Institute, University of Groningen, Nijenborgh 9, 9747 AG Groningen, The Netherlands


#### Abstract

We introduce an algorithm to compute the structure of the rational torsion subgroup of the Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve of genus 3 over the rationals. We apply a Magma implementation of our algorithm to a database of curves with low discriminant due to Sutherland as well as a list of curves with small coefficients. In the process, we find several torsion structures not previously described in the literature. The algorithm is a generalisation of an algorithm for genus 2 due to Stoll, which we extend to abelian varieties satisfying certain conditions. The idea is to compute $p$-adic torsion lifts of points over finite fields using the Kummer variety and to check whether they are rational using heights. Both have been made explicit for Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3 by Stoll. This article is partially based on the second-named author's Master thesis.


Keywords: Torsion points, Hyperelliptic curves, Abelian varieties, Jacobians, Curves of genus three

## 1 Introduction

For an abelian variety $A / \mathbb{Q}$, the torsion subgroup $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ of the group $A(\mathbb{Q})$ of $\mathbb{Q}$-rational points on $A$ is finite. If $A=E$ is an elliptic curve, it is easy to compute $E(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$, and for Jacobians of genus 2 curves, there is a $p$-adic algorithm due to Stoll (see [27, Sect. 11]). In the present paper, we give a theoretical extension of Stoll's algorithm to arbitrary abelian varieties $A / \mathbb{Q}$. We then make this extension practical for Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3. The latter heavily uses explicit arithmetic on the Kummer variety of such a Jacobian, also due to Stoll [30].

Our main motivation comes from a database of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3 due to Andrew Sutherland [32]. Similar to databases of elliptic curves and curves of genus 2 in the LMFDB [34], it would be useful to compute the most important arithmetic invariants of these curves, including the structure of the subgroup of rational torsion points on its Jacobian. Sutherland asked for an algorithm to accomplish this in 2017. We have used our algorithm to compute the torsion subgroups of all curves in the database, see Sect. 5.2.
In this computation we found several torsion structures that were not previously known in the literature. Recall that for elliptic curves over $\mathbb{Q}$, Mazur's Theorem gives a complete list of all torsion subgroups up to isomorphism. For dimension $d>1$, it is not even known whether there is a uniform bound on the size of all rational torsion subgroups of abelian
varieties over $\mathbb{Q}$ of dimension $d$. A lot of work has gone into constructing Jacobians of genus 2 curves with large torsion orders (see for instance [13] and the references therein). Some constructions of rational torsion points of large order on Jacobians of hyperelliptic genus 3 curves can be found in $[12,17,23]$ and in $[8,18]$, where families of Jacobians with large rational torsion are constructed that contain hyperelliptic genus 3 examples. A list of orders of rational torsion points for such curves known in the literature can be found in [23, Table 3.2]. However, much less is known than for genus 2. Therefore it is interesting to investigate which abelian groups actually occur. Inspired by a search by Howe for $g=2$ [13], we ran through a list of certain hyperelliptic genus 3 curves with small coefficients, and we found many new torsion structures in this way, see Sect. 5.3.2. We obtain the following list of all torsion structures that are currently known to occur.

Theorem 1.1 Every abelian group of order $\leq 44$ is isomorphic to the group of rational torsion points on a geometrically simple Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve over $\mathbb{Q}$ of genus 3, with the possible exception of the groups with invariant factors [3, 3, 3], [3, 9], [2, 4, 4], [6, 6]. In addition, the abelian groups with the following invariant factors are isomorphic to the group of rational torsion points on a geometrically simple Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve over $\mathbb{Q}$ of genus 3:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[46],[2,2,2,6],[2,2,12],[2,24],[4,12],[48],[49],[50],[51],[2,26],[52],[3,18],[54],} \\
& {[2,2,14],[2,28],[56],[58],[2,30],[63],[2,2,2,2,2,2],[2,2,2,2,4],[2,2,2,8],[2,4,8],} \\
& {[2,32],[64],[65],[70],[6,12],[72],[2,2,2,10],[2,2,20],[2,42],[2,44],[91],[2,2,28],} \\
& {[2,52],[2,2,2,2,10],}
\end{aligned}
$$

All torsion structures in Theorem 1.1 came up in our search or in Sutherland's database, except for the groups $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{5}$, $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{6},(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{4} \times \mathbb{Z} / 4 \mathbb{Z}$ and $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{3} \times \mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z}$, which we constructed. We do not claim that the groups listed as exceptions in Theorem 1.1 do not occur; we simply did not find such examples in our computations or the literature. Using our computations we found examples for all torsion structures that appeared in the literature prior to our work; in particular, we found new examples for the largest known prime group order 43 and the largest known point order 91, both exhibited by Nicholls [23]. The group $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{4} \times \mathbb{Z} / 10 \mathbb{Z}$ is the largest group of rational torsion points on a geometrically simple Jacobian of a hyperelliptic genus 3 curve found so far; no such group of size > 91 was previously known.

Remark 1.2 We focused on geometrically simple examples. More generally, we have found, for every abelian group $A$ of order $<45$ except for the groups with invariant factors $[3,3,3]$ and $[3,9]$, a Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve over $\mathbb{Q}$ of genus 3 with group of rational torsion points isomorphic to $A$. We expect that many additional structures can be found by systematically gluing abelian varieties of lower dimension, for instance using the methods of [15].

There are other possible applications of our algorithm: The order of the rational torsion subgroup appears in the strong version of the conjecture of Birch and Swinnerton-Dyer, and we therefore need an algorithm to compute this quantity to gather empirical evidence for the conjecture. Finally, if $J$ is the Jacobian of a smooth projective curve $X / \mathbb{Q}$ with $\operatorname{rk} J(\mathbb{Q})=0$, and we have an Abel-Jacobi embedding $j: X \rightarrow J$ defined over $\mathbb{Q}$, then
we can compute the set $X(\mathbb{Q})$ by finding $J(\mathbb{Q})=J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ and checking which points $P \in J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ have a rational preimage under $j$.

### 1.1 Upper bounds using reduction

Let $A / \mathbb{Q}$ be an abelian variety. An upper bound on the order of $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ can be computed easily as follows: For a prime $p$ of good reduction for $A$ and an integer $m$ (which we require to be odd if $p=2$ ), the restriction of the reduction map

$$
\rho_{p}: A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)
$$

to $A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)[m]$ is injective, where $\tilde{A} / \mathbb{F}_{p}$ is the reduction of $A$ modulo $p$ (see [14, Theorem C.1.4]). We choose a set $S$ containing a few small odd primes of good reduction and compute $\# \tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for all $p \in S$; then

$$
\# A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \mid \underset{p \in S}{\operatorname{gcd}} \# \tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)
$$

We can obtain more information from the structure of $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ rather than only its order.

Example 1.3 Consider the Jacobian $J$ of

$$
X: y^{2}=x^{8}+2 x^{7}+3 x^{6}+4 x^{5}+9 x^{4}+8 x^{3}+7 x^{2}+2 x+1=: f(x)
$$

The primes of bad reduction for $X$ are 2,3 and 13177. We find $\# \tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{5}\right)=180, \# \tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{7}\right)=666$, so that $\# J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \mid 18$. A closer inspection shows

$$
\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{5}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} / 3 \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} / 60 \mathbb{Z} ; \quad \tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{7}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} / 666 \mathbb{Z}
$$

We conclude that $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z}$. We will see in Example 4.9 that $\# J(\mathbb{Q})[2]=2$. To find $\# J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$, it remains to check whether there is a rational point of order 3. Searching among small rational points on $X$, we find that $\left[(0,-1)-\infty_{1}\right]$ has this property, where $\infty_{1}$ is the point with coordinates $(0,1)$ on the model

$$
w^{2}=1+2 z+3 z^{2}+4 z^{3}+9 z^{4}+8 z^{5}+7 z^{6}+2 z^{7}+z^{8}
$$

Most of the time, the upper bound that we get from considering the structure of $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for a reasonable number of primes $p$ of good reduction is actually equal to the correct order. For instance, in the database [32], we found this to be the case for more than $97 \%$ of all Jacobians, where we used all good primes below 1000. For the remaining ones, the quotient is a small power of 2 in the vast majority of cases. See Sect. 5.2 for more details.
Example 1.3 has the convenient property that $X$ has a rational point, which allows us to add points in $J(\mathbb{Q})$. The computer algebra system Magma [1] contains an algorithm to compute the group law in $J(k)$ for the Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve of odd genus over a field $k$ if a $k$-rational point on the curve is known; alternatively, one may use Sutherland's (more efficient) balanced divisor approach [33].

Now consider the following example, brought to our attention by Andrew Sutherland.
Example 1.4 Let $X / \mathbb{Q}$ be the hyperelliptic curve defined by

$$
y^{2}=5 x^{8}-14 x^{7}+33 x^{6}-36 x^{5}+30 x^{4}+2 x^{3}-16 x^{2}+20 x-7
$$

with Jacobian $J / \mathbb{Q}$. There seems to be a point of order 13 in $\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for all good primes $p$. Is there a global point of order 13? The curve $X$ does not seem to have any rational points, so
arithmetic in $J(\mathbb{Q})$ is not implemented. In any case, there are no obvious nontrivial points in $J(\mathbb{Q})$. We will show in Example 5.2 that $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \cong \mathbb{Z} / 13 \mathbb{Z}$.

Our method for computing $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ follows an approach due to Stoll for dimension 2 [27, Sect. 11], and works as follows: We lift points of order $m$ coprime to $p$ to $A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)[m]$ and then check whether the lift is rational. To do so, one potential approach is to represent points in $A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)$ using a projective embedding of $A$. This, however, is much too complicated in practice, since in general one would have to work in $\mathbb{P}^{4 g}-1$ and no explicit projective embedding is known for $g>2$. Instead, we follow Stoll in using the Kummer variety of $A$. This is practical for Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3, since the required explicit theory of the Kummer variety and of heights was developed by Stoll in [30].

### 1.2 Outline

We gather preliminaries on Kummer varieties and heights on abelian varieties in Sect. 2. In Sect. 3 we generalise Stoll's algorithm for the computation of $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ when $J$ is the Jacobian of a genus 2 curve to abelian varieties $A / \mathbb{Q}$ that satisfy Assumption 3.1. Then we show that this assumption is satisfied for Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3 in Sect. 4. Finally, we discuss our computations in Sect. 5.

## 2 Kummer varieties and heights

If $A / k$ is an abelian variety of dimension $g>0$ over a field $k$, then the Kummer variety $K / k$ of $A$ is defined as $K:=A /\langle-1\rangle$. The quotient map is $2: 1$ except at points of order 2 in $A$, where it is injective. The images of these points are the singular points of $K$. By [2, Theorem 4.8.1], $K$ can be embedded into $\mathbb{P}^{2 g}-1$. We fix a rational map

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa: A \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{2^{g}-1} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that the image $\kappa(A)$ is a birational model for $K$.
Since $\kappa$ identifies inverses on $A$, the group structure is lost, but scalar multiplication [ $n$ ]: $A \rightarrow A$ descends, since it commutes with inversion. In fact, there is a rational map [ $[n]$ ]: $K \rightarrow K$ such that

commutes. Furthermore, there is a rational map $B: \operatorname{Sym}^{2}(K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Sym}^{2}(K)$ which, for $Q_{1}, Q_{2} \in A$, sends the unordered pair $\left\{\kappa\left(Q_{1}\right), \kappa\left(Q_{2}\right)\right\}$ to the unordered pair $\left\{\kappa\left(Q_{1}+\right.\right.$ $\left.\left.Q_{2}\right), \kappa\left(Q_{1}-Q_{2}\right)\right\}$. We suppose that algorithms for the following tasks are available:

- Double: Given $\kappa(Q)$ for $Q \in A(k)$, return [[2]] $(\kappa(Q))=\kappa(2 Q)$.
- PseudoAdd: Given $\kappa\left(Q_{1}\right), \kappa\left(Q_{2}\right), \kappa\left(Q_{1}-Q_{2}\right)$ for $Q_{1}, Q_{2} \in A(k)$, return $\kappa\left(Q_{1}+Q_{2}\right)$.

This leads to the following double-and-add algorithm to compute $[[n]](R)$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z} \backslash\{0\}$ and $R \in K$.

## Algorithm 2.1 Multiplication-by- $n$ on the Kummer

Input: $R \in K(k), n \in \mathbb{Z}$
Output: $[[n]](R)$
(1) Set $\boldsymbol{x}:=\kappa(0), \boldsymbol{y}:=R, \boldsymbol{z}:=R$ and $m:=|n|$.
(2) While $m \neq 0$, repeat the following steps.
(a) If $m$ is odd, then $\operatorname{set} \boldsymbol{x}:=\operatorname{PseudoAdd}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y})$. Else, set $\boldsymbol{y}:=\operatorname{PseudoAdd}(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})$.
(b) Set $\boldsymbol{z}:=$ Double $(\boldsymbol{z})$.
(c) Set $m:=\left\lfloor\frac{m}{2}\right\rfloor$.
(3) Return $\boldsymbol{x}:=[[m]](R)$.

Algorithm 2.1 is a generalisation of the Montgomery ladder for elliptic curves; the genus 2 case is discussed in [11].

Now suppose that $k=\mathbb{Q}$. Then we can use the map $\kappa$ to define heights on $A(\mathbb{Q})$ as follows. The naive height $h: A(\mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is the function $h:=\log (H \circ \kappa)$, where $H: \mathbb{P}^{2^{g}-1}(\mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is the usual height given by mapping $P=\left(x_{1}: \ldots: x_{2 g}\right)$ to $\max \left(\left|x_{1}\right|, \ldots,\left|x_{2} g\right|\right)$, where $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 g}$ are coprime integers. The map $h$ is quadratic up to a bounded function, hence the canonical height is well-defined:

$$
\hat{h}(Q):=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{h(n Q)}{n^{2}}
$$

Theorem 2.2 (Néron-Tate) [14, Theorem B.5.1] The following properties are satisfied.
(1) $\hat{h}(n Q)=n^{2} \hat{h}(Q)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q})$.
(2) For $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q})$, we have $\hat{h}(Q)=0$ if and only if $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors. }}$.
(3) The set $\{Q \in A(\mathbb{Q}): \hat{h}(Q) \leq B\}$ is finite for every constant $B \geq 0$.
(4) The height difference $|\hat{h}-h|$ is bounded.

By Theorem 2.2(2), torsion points have small naive height. More precisely, suppose that $\beta \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ satisfies

$$
|\hat{h}(Q)-h(Q)|<\beta
$$

for all $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q})$. We call $\beta$ a height difference bound.
Corollary 2.3 Let $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$. Then $H(Q)<e^{\beta}$.
To compute an explicit bound $\beta$, the standard approach is to decompose the difference between the naive height and the canonical height into local components, see for instance [11, Theorem 4]. As we shall see, $\beta$ will help us decide whether a $p$-adic torsion point is $\mathbb{Q}$-rational or not.

## 3 An algorithm for finding torsion subgroups of abelian varieties

Let $A / \mathbb{Q}$ denote an abelian variety with Kummer variety $K / \mathbb{Q}$ and a fixed map $\kappa$ as in (2.1). In this section we discuss an algorithm which computes the group $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ as an abstract abelian group, provided Assumption 3.1 below is satisfied. Our algorithm is based on an algorithm for Jacobians of genus 2 curves due to Stoll [27, Sect. 11].

Assumption 3.1 We have algorithms for the following:
(1) the тар $\kappa: A \rightarrow K \subset \mathbb{P}^{2^{g}-1}$ and equations for its image;
(2) deciding whether a given point $R \in K(\mathbb{Q})$ lifts to $A(\mathbb{Q})$ under $\kappa$;
(3) the maps [[2]] and B;
(4) a height difference bound $\beta$;
(5) arithmetic in the group $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for primes of good reduction $p$ and enumeration of its elements.

The algorithm in [27, Sect. 11] crucially relies on the fact that Assumption 3.1 is satisfied for Jacobians of curves of genus 2, see Sect. 3.4. We will show in Sect. 4 that it is also satisfied for Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3.

Remark 3.2 We can replace (5) by the assumption that we also have (1), (2) and (3) for the reduction $\tilde{K} / \mathbb{F}_{p}$ if $p$ is a prime of good reduction. This is the case, for instance, for Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus $\leq 3$ (for $g=3$, we need $p>2$ ). We can then enumerate $\tilde{K}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ and check which elements lift to $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ to compute the latter. Moreover, arithmetic in $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ can be reduced to arithmetic in $\tilde{K}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$, for which we can use (3). In practice, we prefer to compute (in) $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ directly.

The strategy can be summarised as follows. One first uses reduction modulo $p$ for a number of good primes $p$ to obtain an integer $d>0$ such that $\# A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \mid d$. For each prime $q \mid d$, we find the $q$-Sylow subgroup of $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$; to this end, we first choose a suitable $\operatorname{good}$ prime $p \neq q$. For each $\tilde{Q} \in \tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ of $q$-power order $m$, we can compute the unique lift ${ }^{1} \tilde{\kappa}(\tilde{Q})$ in $\kappa\left(A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)[m]\right)$ to any desired precision $p^{N}$. Using $\beta$, we choose $N$ and construct a lattice $L$ with the following property: If there is a point $R \in \kappa\left(A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)[m]\right) \cap K(\mathbb{Q})$ that reduces to our approximation of $\tilde{\kappa}(\tilde{Q})$ modulo $p^{N}$, then the shortest nontrivial vector in $L$ must be this point $R$. We can decide whether such a point exists by applying the LLL algorithm. If it does, then it remains to check whether it lifts to $A(\mathbb{Q})[m]$. See Algorithm 3.4 for odd $q$. This is then used in Algorithm 3.14, which computes the $q$-part of $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ for odd $q$. The case $q=2$ is discussed in Sect.3.2.1. Finally, Algorithm 3.15 computes $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$, provided Assumption 3.1 is satisfied.

Remark 3.3 We stress that we do not assume that we can explicitly compute in $A(\mathbb{Q})$; nor do we assume that we can explicitly write down points in $A(\mathbb{Q})$. If the latter is possible and if we can compute the preimages under $\kappa$ in (2), then we can also find $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ as a set, see Remark 3.16 below.

### 3.1 Checking whether reduced points lift

The most challenging part of the algorithm is to check whether a reduced torsion point lifts to a rational torsion point or not. More specifically, given a prime $p$ of good reduction and a point $\tilde{Q} \in \tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ of order $m$ coprime to $p$, there exists a unique lift $Q \in A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)[m]$ such that $Q$ reduces to $\tilde{Q}$. This algorithm decides whether $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q}) \subset A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)$. Below, we will apply the LLL-algorithm with standard parameter $\delta=\frac{3}{4}$ (see [19]).

## Algorithm 3.4 Lifting Torsion Points

Input: An abelian variety $A / \mathbb{Q}$ such that Assumption 3.1 is satisfied and a point $\tilde{Q} \in$ $A\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ of order $m>2$ coprime to $p$.
Output: TRUE if there is a point $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \subset A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)_{\text {tors }}$ that reduces to $\tilde{Q}$, else FALSE.
(1) Compute a height difference bound $\beta$ for $A$.

[^0](2) Choose $M=1+a m$ such that $p \nmid a$.
(3) Let $\tilde{R}_{0}$ be $\tilde{\kappa}(\tilde{Q})$, considered on an affine patch in $\mathbb{A}^{2 g}(\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z})$ and normalised such that the first nonzero coordinate is equal to 1 . Set $r:=1, n:=0$.
(4) Let $N>1$ such that $p^{N}>2^{\left(2^{g}+g\right)} e^{2 \beta}$. While $r<N$, repeat the following steps:
(a) Set $r:=\min \{2 r, N\}$.
(b) Let $\tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}$ be any lift of $\tilde{R}_{n}$ to $\mathbb{A}^{\mathbb{2}^{g}}\left(\mathbb{Z} / p^{r} \mathbb{Z}\right)$.
(c) Set $\tilde{R}_{n+1}:=\frac{1}{M-1}\left(M \tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}-[[M]]\left(\tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)$, where $M \tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}$ is obtained by multiplying the coordinates of $\tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}$ by $M$.
(d) Set $n:=n+1$.
(5) Now, consider $\tilde{R}_{n}=:\left(\tilde{r}_{1}: \ldots: \tilde{r}_{2^{g}}\right)$ in $K\left(\mathbb{Z} / p^{N} \mathbb{Z}\right)$. Let $\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{2^{g}}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}^{2^{g}}$ reduce to $\left(\tilde{r}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{r}_{2 g}\right)$ modulo $p^{N}$ such that $0 \leq r_{i}<p^{N}$ for all $i$. Let $L$ be the lattice generated by $\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{2 g}\right)$ and by ( $p^{N} e_{1}, \ldots, p^{N} e_{2 g}$ ), where $\left(e_{1}, \ldots, e_{2 g}\right)$ is the standard basis of $\mathbb{Z}^{2^{g}}$. Let $w$ be the first basis vector of an LLL-reduced basis of $L$ and let $R=\mathbb{P} w$ be the corresponding point in $\mathbb{P}^{2^{g}-1}(\mathbb{Q})$.
(6) If $R \notin K(\mathbb{Q})$ or $H(R)>e^{\beta}$, return FALSE.
(7) If $[[m]](R) \neq \kappa(0)$, return FALSE.
(8) If $\kappa^{-1}(R) \subset A(\mathbb{Q})$, return TRUE. Else return FALSE.

We prove the correctness of the algorithm in Sect. 3.1.3. For Jacobians of curves of genus 2, this is sketched in Stoll [27, Sect. 11].

Theorem 3.5 Algorithm 3.4 terminates and returns TRUE if and only if there is a point $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \subset A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)_{\text {tors }}$ that reduces to $\tilde{Q}$.

We first need some preliminary results.

### 3.1.1 The lifting procedure

We start by showing that Step (4) of Algorithm 3.4 lifts to the $m$-torsion point that we want to approximate. We say that a point on $K$ is $m$-torsion if the map [ $m]$ ] sends it to $\kappa(0) \in K$. Equivalently, a point on $K$ is $m$-torsion if and only if there is a point in $A[m]$ that maps to it under $\kappa$.

Proposition 3.6 After Step (4) of Algorithm 3.4, $\tilde{R}_{n}$ is the unique $m$-torsion point in $K\left(\mathbb{Z} / p^{N} \mathbb{Z}\right)$ that reduces to $\kappa(\tilde{Q})$.

In order to prove Proposition 3.6, we first show that Step (c) approximates $Q$ by an $m$-torsion lift to the required $p$-adic precision $p^{N}$. By [3, III, Sect. 8, Corollary 2] and [20], the group $A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)$ is a $p$-adic abelian Lie group whose topology is the local product topology: a neighborhood of a point $Q \in A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)$ is a neighborhood $U$ of $Q$ contained in an affine space, and for any $d \geq 1$, the $p$-adic topology on $\mathbb{A}^{d}\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)=\mathbb{Q}_{p}^{d}$ is induced by the maximum norm $\|\cdot\|_{p}$.

Lemma 3.7 Let $Q \in A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)$ be a torsion point of order m, not divisible by $p$. Let $n \geq 1$, let $\phi: A \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^{n}$ be a rational map defined over $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ that is differentiable as a map $A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right) \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{A}^{n}\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)$ and a $p$-adic immersion near $Q$, and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $U \subset A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)$ is a neighborhood of $Q$, then for any $Q^{\prime} \in U$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi\left([1+a m] Q^{\prime}\right)-\phi(Q)=(1+a m)\left(\phi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)-\phi(Q)\right)+O\left(\left\|\phi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)-\phi(Q)\right\|_{p}^{2}\right) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof For the proof, we set $M:=1+a m$, so that $[M](Q)=Q$. Near $Q$, the map $\phi$ is an immersion, so there is a well-defined map $[[M]]$ that makes the diagram

commute on a neighborhood of $Q$. Since $\phi$ is a rational map to $\mathbb{A}^{n}$, we have that $\phi\left(A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)\right)$ consists of the $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$-rational points on an affine variety over $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$. Hence the differential of $[[M]]: \phi(A)\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right) \rightarrow \phi(A)\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)$ at $\phi(Q)$ is the best linear approximation of [[M]] around $\phi(Q)$. In other words, it consists of the linear terms of the Taylor expansion of [[ $M]$ ] around $\phi(Q)$. By [3, Chap. III, Sect. 2.2] the differential of the multiplication-by-M-map [ $M$ ] is scalar multiplication on the tangent space, and a computation using (3.2) shows that the same holds for the differential of $[[M]]$.
Now let $Q^{\prime}$ be close to $Q$, so that $\phi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$ is close to $\phi(Q)$. By the above, we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[[1+a m]]\left(\phi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)\right)-[[1+a m]](\phi(Q))=} & (1+a m)\left(\phi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)-\phi(Q)\right) \\
& +O\left(\left\|\phi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)-\phi(Q)\right\|_{p}^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using (3.2), we have $[[1+a m]](\phi(Q))=\phi([1+a m](Q))=\phi(Q)$. Therefore (3.1) follows.

We now apply Lemma 3.7 to a map $\phi: A \rightarrow \mathbb{A}^{2^{g}}$ that factors through $\kappa: A \rightarrow K$.
Proof of Proposition 3.6 Since $\kappa$ is differentiable outside $A$ [2], composing with a map that projects onto an affine patch results in a differentiable map that is a local immersion outside $A[2]$. Let $\phi$ denote the map $\kappa$ composed with the projection onto a suitable affine patch. Then $\phi$ satisfies the conditions of Lemma 3.7 and we obtain

$$
[[M]]\left(\tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}\right)-\tilde{R}_{n+1}=M\left(\tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}-\tilde{R}_{n+1}\right)+O\left(\left\|\tilde{R}_{n+1}-\tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}\right\|_{p}^{2}\right)
$$

By construction, we have $\left\|\tilde{R}_{n+1}-\tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}\right\|_{p}^{2}=p^{-r}$ in Step (4) of Algorithm 3.4, and therefore

$$
\tilde{R}_{n+1}=\frac{1}{M-1}\left(M \tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}-[[M]]\left(\tilde{R}_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)+O\left(p^{r}\right)
$$

is the $m$-torsion point in $K\left(\mathbb{Z} / p^{r} \mathbb{Z}\right)$ that reduces to $\kappa(\tilde{Q})$.
Remark 3.8 Intuitively, one can view $\phi$ as a map that gives local affine coordinates of $Q$ with the property that we can find a best linear approximation of the multiplication-by$(1+a m)$-map. For the approximation in Step (c), one may use a different projection onto $\mathbb{A}^{2 g}$ in every iteration of Step (4). This may be necessary if, for example, the first coordinate of $R$ is divisible by $p^{r}$, but is not divisible by $p^{2 r}$ for some $r \geq 1$.

Remark 3.9 In [27, Sect. 11], it is assumed that $p$ divides $M$. Here, we generalise this by allowing $M \not \equiv 1 \bmod p$. One way to use this additional flexibility in practice is to choose $M$ to be a power of 2 , because doubling on $K$ is often faster than applying the map $B$. See Sect. 3.3.

### 3.1.2 Determining a suitable $p$-adic precision

We now show that we can find a $p$-adic precision such that the corresponding rational approximation $\tilde{R}_{n} \in K\left(\mathbb{Z} / p^{N} \mathbb{Z}\right)$ either leads to a rational lift $R=\kappa(Q)$ such that $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q})$, or no such rational lift exists.

Proposition 3.10 Let $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ be such that $p^{N}>2^{\left(g+2^{g}\right)} e^{2 \beta}$. Let $\tilde{R}_{n},\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{2 g}\right)$, L, $w$ and $R$ be as computed in Step (5) of Algorithm 3.4. Then we have:
(a) If $H(R) \leq e^{\beta}$, then $R$ is the unique point in $\mathbb{P}^{2^{g}-1}(\mathbb{Q})$ that satisfies $H(R) \leq e^{\beta}$ and reduces to $\tilde{R}_{n}$.
(b) If $H(R)>e^{\beta}$, then no point on $\mathbb{P}^{2^{g}-1}(\mathbb{Q})$ of height $\leq e^{\beta}$ reduces to $\tilde{R}_{n}$.

To lift points, we use the following result, whose proof is immediate.
Lemma 3.11 Let $n, d \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ and let $\tilde{R} \in \mathbb{P}^{d}\left(\mathbb{Z} / p^{n} \mathbb{Z}\right)$. Let

$$
v:=\left(r_{0}, \ldots, r_{d}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}^{d+1} \backslash\{0\}
$$

be primitive, i.e. $\operatorname{gcd}\left(r_{0}, \ldots, r_{d}\right)=1$, such that $R:=\mathbb{P} v:=\left(r_{0}: \ldots: r_{d}\right) \in \mathbb{P}^{d}(\mathbb{Q})$ lifts $\tilde{R}$. Then the lattice L generated by $\{v\} \cup\left\{e_{i} p^{n}: 0 \leq i \leq d\right\}$ contains all vectors $w$ such that the corresponding point $\mathbb{P} w \in \mathbb{P}^{d}(\mathbb{Q})$ reduces modulo $p^{n}$ to $\tilde{R}$. Moreover, let

$$
u:=a_{0} v+p^{n} a_{1} e_{1}+\cdots p^{n} a_{d+1} e_{d+1} \in L
$$

where $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{d+1} \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $p \nmid a_{0}$, then $\mathbb{P} u \in \mathbb{P}^{d}(\mathbb{Q})$ reduces modulo $p^{n}$ to $\tilde{R} \in \mathbb{P}^{d}\left(\mathbb{Z} / p^{n} \mathbb{Z}\right)$.
Moreover, we need the following uniqueness result.
Lemma 3.12 Let $B \geq 1$ be a real number and let $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ be positive. Let $u, u^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}^{d+1} \backslash\{0\}$ such that
(a) $\|u\|_{\infty},\left\|u^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty} \leq B$
(b) there is an integer $D>2 B^{2}$ such that all $2 \times 2$ minors of the matrix $\binom{u}{u^{\prime}} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2 \times(d+1)}$ are divisible by $D$.

Then the points $\mathbb{P} u$ and $\mathbb{P} u^{\prime}$ in $\mathbb{P}^{d}(\mathbb{Q})$ represented by $u$ and $u^{\prime}$, respectively, are equal.
Proof By (a), the $2 \times 2$ minors have absolute value bounded by $2 B^{2}$. Hence they all vanish by (b). Therefore $u=\lambda u^{\prime}$ for some nonzero $\lambda \in \mathbb{Q}$.

We apply Lemma 3.12 to the lattice $L$ from Step (5) of Algorithm 3.4. We thank an anonymous referee for suggesting the structure of the following proof.

Proof of Proposition 3.10 By Lemma 3.11, the lattice $L$ in Step (5) contains all integer representatives of the points in $\mathbb{P}^{2^{g}-1}(\mathbb{Q})$ that reduce to $\tilde{R}_{n} \in \mathbb{P}^{2^{g}-1}\left(\mathbb{Z} / p^{N} \mathbb{Z}\right)$ as obtained after Step (4) of Algorithm 3.4. Moreover, any vector that corresponds to a lift of $\tilde{R}_{n}$ is of the form $u=a_{0} v+p^{N} a_{1} e_{1}+\cdots p^{N} a_{2 g} e_{2 g}$ with $p \nmid a_{0}$. For such a vector $u$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
H(\mathbb{P} u) \leq\|u\|_{\infty}, \quad \text { with equality if and only if } u \text { is primitive. } \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $w \in \mathbb{Z}^{2^{g}}$ be the first vector of an LLL-reduced basis of $L$ as in Step (5) of Algorithm 3.4. We distinguish cases as follows. First suppose that $\|w\|_{\infty}>2^{\left(2^{g}-1\right) / 2} \sqrt{2^{g}} e^{\beta}$. In this case, we claim that there is no nonzero vector $u \in L$ such that $\|u\|_{\infty} \leq e^{\beta}$. Indeed, our choice $\delta=3 / 4$ of parameter in the LLL-algorithm implies that the first basis vector of an LLL-reduced basis has euclidean length at most $2^{\left(2^{g}-1\right) / 2}$ times the euclidean length of the shortest nonzero vector (see [19]). In particular, there is no point in $\mathbb{P}^{2^{g}-1}(\mathbb{Q})$ of height $\leq e^{\beta}$ that reduces to $\tilde{R}_{n}$ by Lemma 3.11 and by (3.3).

Now suppose that $\|w\|_{\infty} \leq 2^{\left(2^{g}-1\right) / 2} \sqrt{2^{g}} e^{\beta}$. By construction, all pairs of nonzero vectors in $L$ satisfy condition (b) of Lemma 3.12 with $D=p^{N}>2 e^{2 \beta}$. Since $2 \cdot\left(2^{\left(2^{g}-1\right) / 2} \sqrt{2^{g}} e^{\beta}\right)^{2}=$ $2^{2^{g}}\left(2^{g}\right) e^{2 \beta}<p^{N}$, we can apply Lemma 3.12 with $d=2^{g}-1$ and $B=2^{\left(2^{g}-1\right) / 2} \sqrt{2^{g}} e^{\beta}$. This implies that for any vector $w^{\prime} \in L$ satisfying $\left\|w^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty} \leq B$, we have $\mathbb{P} w^{\prime}=\mathbb{P} w=R$. Hence, by Lemma 3.11 and by (3.3), if there is a point in $\mathbb{P}^{2^{g}-1}(\mathbb{Q})$ that reduces to $\tilde{R}_{n}$ and has height $\leq e^{\beta}$, then it must be $R$.

### 3.1.3 The conclusions of the lift-checking algorithm

Proof of Theorem 3.5 It is clear that the algorithm terminates. To prove Theorem 3.5, it suffices to prove the correctness of Steps (6)-(8) of Algorithm 3.4, which we do now. Since a torsion point $P \in A(\mathbb{Q})$ satisfies $H(P)=H(\kappa(P)) \leq e^{\beta}$, Proposition 3.6 and Proposition 3.10 imply that if there is a point $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q})[m]$ that reduces to $\tilde{Q}$, then the point $R \in K(\mathbb{Q})$ from Step (4) of Algorithm 3.4 satisfies $R=\kappa(Q)$. Clearly we then have $[[m]](R)=\kappa(0)$ and $\kappa^{-1}(R)=\{ \pm Q\} \subset A(\mathbb{Q})$, so that the algorithm returns TRUE.
Conversely, suppose that the algorithm returns TRUE. Then, using Propositions 3.6 and 3.10 again, $R$ is the unique $m$-torsion point in $K(\mathbb{Q})$ that reduces to $\tilde{\kappa}(\tilde{Q})$. Thus the points in $\kappa^{-1}(R)$ are $\mathbb{Q}$-rational points of order $m$, so one of these two points is a point in $A(\mathbb{Q})[m] \subset A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ that reduces to $\tilde{Q}$.

Remark 3.13 In practice, we can often terminate the algorithm long before the required precision in Step (4) is reached, as follows: Let $\tilde{R}_{r}$ be as in Step (4), for some $r<N$. From $\tilde{R}_{r}$, determine $R$ using Step (5) and check if the conditions of Step (6)-(8) are satisfied. If they are, then we have found a point $Q \in A(\mathbb{Q})[m]$ that reduces to $\tilde{Q}$. However, if no such point is found, then it is not guaranteed that no other candidate exists.

### 3.2 Computing the rational torsion subgroup

Now that we can conclusively decide for good primes $p$ whether a point in $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ lifts to $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ or not, we can find the rational torsion subgroup of $A(\mathbb{Q})$. Since we do not assume that we can represent or compute with general points in $A(\mathbb{Q})$, we compute $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ as an abstract abelian group by finding its invariant factors. This is again a generalisation of the idea proposed in [27, Sect. 11] for Jacobians of curves of genus 2. For a prime $q$ and a finite abelian group $G$, we let the $q$-part of $G$ be the $q$-Sylow subgroup of $G$, as an abstract abelian group. Then the reduction map $\rho_{p}: A\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right) \rightarrow A\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ is injective on $q$-parts of $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ for any prime number $q \neq p$.

## Algorithm 3.14 Computing the $q$-part of the torsion subgroup

Input: an abelian variety $A / \mathbb{Q}$ for which Assumption 3.1 is satisfied and a prime $q>2$.
Output: The $q$-part of $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ as an abstract abelian group.
(1) Let $G_{0}$ be the $q$-part of $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$, where $p$ is a good prime not equal to $q$. Set $T_{0}:=\{0\} \subset$ $G_{0}, S_{0}:=G_{0} \backslash\{0\}, S_{0}^{\prime}:=\{0\}$. (Throughout, $G_{i}$ is a quotient of $G_{0}, T_{i}$ is a subgroup of $G_{0}$, and $S_{i}$ and $S_{i}^{\prime}$ are subsets of $G_{i}$.)
(2) Set $n:=0$, repeat the following steps until $S_{n}=\emptyset$.
(a) Let $g \in S_{n} \subset G_{n}$ and choose a representative $\tilde{g} \in G_{0}$ of $g$.
(b) Using Algorithm 3.4, compute the smallest $\ell>0$ such that $q^{\ell} \tilde{g}$ lifts to $A(\mathbb{Q})$.
(c) Set

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{n+1} & :=\left\langle T_{n}, q^{\ell} \cdot \tilde{g}\right\rangle \\
G_{n+1} & :=G_{n} /\left\langle q^{\ell} \cdot g\right\rangle \\
S_{n+1}^{\prime} & :=\text { image of } S_{n}^{\prime} \cup\langle g\rangle \text { in } G_{n+1}, \\
S_{n+1} & :=G_{n+1} \backslash S_{n+1}^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(d) Set $n:=n+1$.
(3) Return $T_{n}$ as an abstract abelian group.

It is preferable to take a primitive element in Step (a), but this is not required. In Step (1), we typically pick a prime $p$ such that the $q$-part of $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ is small. If it is trivial, then there is nothing to do. In practice, we have already computed $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for all good primes below some bound, see Algorithm 3.15 below.

### 3.2.1 Two-power torsion

Algorithm 3.4 excludes the case $m=2$ because the lifting procedure does not work on points of order 2 , since $\kappa(A[2])$ consists of singular points. It is still possible to compute $A(\mathbb{Q})$ [2], for instance by finding the solutions $R \in K(\mathbb{Q})$ of the projective system of equations $[[2]](R)=\kappa(0)$ and checking which of these lift. Hence we can skip this case in Algorithm 3.14. We can, alternatively, determine $A(\mathbb{Q})\left[2^{\infty}\right]$ iteratively as follows: For $s \geq 2$, we find $A(\mathbb{Q})\left[2^{s}\right]$ from $A(\mathbb{Q})\left[2^{s-1}\right]$ for $s \geq 2$ by solving the system $[[2]](R)=S$ for each $S \in \kappa\left(A(\mathbb{Q})\left[2^{s-1}\right]\right)$ and checking which solutions lift. We implemented this strategy for Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3, but we found that this is quite expensive. Fortunately, in this case there is a simpler method, discussed in Sect. 4.5.

### 3.2.2 The algorithm

Algorithm 3.15 Computing the Torsion Subgroup
Input: an abelian variety $A / \mathbb{Q}$ satisfying Assumption 3.1.
Output: the invariant factors of $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$.
(1) Compute a height difference bound $\beta$.
(2) Compute a multiplicative upper bound $t$ for the size of the torsion subgroup by computing the structure of $\tilde{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for a reasonable number of good odd primes $p$.
(3) For each prime factor $q$ of $t$, compute the $q$-part of $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ using Algorithm 3.14 and Sect. 3.2.1.
(4) Deduce the invariant factors of $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ from the invariant factors of its $q$-parts.

Remark 3.16 If we can describe points in $A(\mathbb{Q})$ explicitly and if we have an algorithm to compute $\kappa^{-1}(R)$ for given $R \in K(\mathbb{Q})$, then we can also return $\kappa^{-1}(R)$ in Step (8) of Algorithm 3.4. In this case, we can also compute (generators for) the $q$-part in Algorithm 3.14, rather than only its structure as an abstract abelian group. Hence we can amend Algorithm 3.15 to find generators for $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$.

### 3.3 Avoiding the use of sum-and-difference-laws

In practice, one of the most expensive tasks in Algorithm 3.15 is the computation of $[[n]](R)$ for points $R \in K$ and potentially large $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Namely, in Algorithm 3.4, we apply [ $[M]]$ in Step (c) and we apply [[ $m$ ]] in Step (7). Recall from Algorithm 2.1 that the multiplication-by-n-map [[n]]:K $\rightarrow K$ requires formulas for the doubling map [[2]]: $K \rightarrow K$ and for the map $B: \operatorname{Sym}^{2}(K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Sym}^{2}(K)$ such that

$$
B\left(\left\{\kappa\left(Q_{1}\right), \kappa\left(Q_{2}\right)\right\}\right)=\left\{\kappa\left(Q_{1}+Q_{2}\right), \kappa\left(Q_{1}-Q_{2}\right)\right\}
$$

for $Q_{1}, Q_{2} \in A$. For Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus $\leq 3$, the formulas for the map $B$ are much more complicated than those for the map [[2]]. Hence, we prefer to apply the map [[n]] only for small $n$ of the form $n= \pm 2^{s}$ since then the doubling formulas suffice. In addition, we might be in a situation where the doubling map [[2]] is available explicitly, but the map $B$ is not. Then it turns out that it is often still possible to compute $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$, as we now explain.
Recall that by construction, $m$ is a power of a prime $q \geq 2$. In most cases, $m$ will be small. We require $M$ to satisfy $M \equiv 1 \bmod m$ and $M \not \equiv 1 \bmod p$, so we can use $M=1-m$ if we want to keep $M$ small. If $m$ is odd, it is clear that we can instead find a suitable $M$ of the form $M= \pm 2^{s}$, and Step (c) of Algorithm 3.4 can be performed using only the map [[2]]. This does not work when $m$ is even. However, recall that we can use the strategy discussed in Sect. 3.2.1 to compute the 2-part of $A(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ without Step (c) of Algorithm 3.4.

Besides Step (c), arithmetic on $K$ is also used in Step (7) of Algorithm 3.4. Here, we check whether a point $R \in K(\mathbb{Q})$ satisfies $[[m]](R)=\kappa(0)$. If arithmetic in $A(\mathbb{Q})$ is implemented, for instance when $A$ is the Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve of even genus or odd degree, then we can avoid Step (7) by first computing $\kappa^{-1}(R) \cap A(\mathbb{Q})$. If this set is non-empty, say containing a point $Q$, then we can check directly whether $m Q=0 \in A(\mathbb{Q})$. If no algorithm for arithmetic in $A(\mathbb{Q})$ is available, then we can only avoid the use of the map $B$ in Step (7) for specific values of $m$. For instance, suppose that all prime powers $m$ dividing $t$ in Algorithm 3.15 are at most 60 . Then we can avoid the use of $B$ if and only if all these $m$ satisfy $m \in\left\{2^{u}: u \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}\right\} \cup\{3,9,5,7,17,31\}$, and if $t$ is not divisible by both 7 and 9 . See [25, Sect. 4.7] for details.

### 3.4 Computing torsion subgroups for Jacobians of genus 2 curves

Suppose that $A=J$ is the Jacobian of a curve $X / \mathbb{Q}$ of genus 2 and let $K$ denote its Kummer surface. We may assume that $X$ is given by an equation $y^{2}=f(x)$, where $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is squarefree and has degree 5 or 6 . If $\operatorname{deg}(f)=5$, then we can represent points on $J$ using the (affine) Mumford representation. More generally, points in $J(\mathbb{Q})$ correspond bijectively to triples $(A, B, C)$ of binary forms over $\mathbb{Q}$ of homogeneous degrees 2,3 and 4 , respectively, such that the degree 6 homogenisation $F$ of $f$ satisfies $F=B^{2}-A C$ (see [4]). One can use this representation to compute in the group $J(\mathbb{Q})$ via a generalisation of Cantor's algorithm [6]. In fact, Cantor's algorithm has been extended to any curve of genus 2 over any field.

Assumption 3.1 is satisfied for $J$ :

- A morphism $\kappa: J \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{3}$ such that $\kappa(J)$ is a model for $K$ was given by Flynn [9], see also [7, Chap. 3]. In this case the Kummer surface is a quartic hypersurface.
- A point in $K(\mathbb{Q})$ lifts to $J(\mathbb{Q})$ if and only if the expressions in Equations $(5.1,5.2)$ of [29] are squares in $\mathbb{Q}$.
- The map [[2]] is given by quartic polynomials and $B: \operatorname{Sym}^{2}(K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Sym}^{2}(K)$ is given by biquadratic forms; explicit formulas can be found in [7, Sect. 3].
- There is an explicit theory of heights which allows us to compute a height difference bound $\beta$; see [10, 11,21,27].

Hence Algorithm 3.15 can be used to compute $\# J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$. In fact, one can compute (in) $\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for primes $p$ of good reduction using the (generalised) Mumford representation, which is faster than the approach in Remark 3.2. Moreover, we can compute $J(\mathbb{Q})[2]$ easily using the prime factorisation of $f$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, see [28, Lemma 4.3, Lemma 5.6].
Using the generalised Mumford representation, we can actually compute generators of $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$. As mentioned above, this is essentially already discussed in [27, Sect. 11] and an implementation is available in Magma.

## 4 Computing torsion subgroups of Jacobians of genus 3 hyperelliptic curves

Section 3 gives a complete algorithm to compute the torsion subgroup for an abelian variety that satisfies Assumption 3.1. In this section, we show that Assumption 3.1 is satisfied when $A=J$ is the Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve of genus 3 . Hence we obtain an algorithm to compute $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$, which we have implemented in Magma and which is available at https://github.com/bernoreitsma/g3hyptorsion. This answers a question raised by Andrew Sutherland at the 2017 Banff Workshop "Arithmetic Aspects of Explicit Moduli Problems".
Throughout this section, we fix a field $k$ such that $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 2$ and a hyperelliptic curve $X / k$ of genus 3 given by an equation

$$
X: y^{2}=f(x),
$$

where $f \in k[x]$ is squarefree of degree 7 or 8 . Let $\iota: X \rightarrow X$ be the hyperelliptic involution and let $J / k$ be the Jacobian of $X$. We will represent (most) points on $J$ using the following notion:

Definition 4.1 A divisor $D$ on $X$ is in general position if it is effective and if there is no point $P \in X$ such that $D \geq(P)+\iota(P)$.

In the literature, the explicit theory of hyperelliptic curves is usually first developed for the case where the polynomial $f$ has odd degree. More generally, if $X(k)$ contains a Weierstrass point, then we may apply a transformation to get an odd degree equation over $k$. In this case, every point on the Jacobian can be represented uniquely by a divisor of the form $D-d(\infty)$, where $d \leq 3$ and $D$ is in in general position. This leads to the unique Mumford representation $(a, b)$ of a point $Q \in J(k)$, where $a \in k[x]$ is monic of degree $d$ and vanishes precisely in the $x$-coordinates of the points in $\operatorname{supp}(D)$, and $b \in k[x]$ determines the $y$-coordinates. The Mumford representation can be used to perform arithmetic in $J(k)$ using Cantor's algorithm [6]. Based on this, an explicit theory of the Kummer variety was found for the degree 7 case in [22,31].
For our application, we do not assume that $X$ contains a $k$-rational Weierstrass point (or, in fact, any $k$-rational point). Instead, we rely on an explicit theory of the Kummer variety in the general case developed and implemented by Stoll (see [26,30]). We summarise his results here and describe a few modest additions of ours.

### 4.1 Representing points on the Jacobian

In order to find an explicit map $\kappa: J \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{7}$ such that $\kappa(J)$ is a model of $K$, we need an explicit description of points on $J$ without the assumption $\operatorname{deg}(f)=7$. We will now show that we can represent points $Q$ on $J$ using divisors of degree 4 , but we cannot expect uniqueness anymore.
We follow the discussion in [30]. The idea is to use the canonical isomorphism between $\operatorname{Pic}^{0}(X)$ and $\operatorname{Pic}^{4}(X)$ given by adding the canonical class. Let the divisor $D_{\infty}$ on $X$ be equal to $2(\infty)$ if $\operatorname{deg}(f)=7$ and to $\left(\infty_{1}\right)+\left(\infty_{2}\right)$ otherwise, where $\infty_{1}$ and $\infty_{2}$ are the two points at infinity on $X$. Then $2 D_{\infty}$ is a canonical divisor of $X$.

Proposition 4.2 For every $Q \in J \backslash\{0\}$, exactly one of the following holds
(a) $Q=\left[D_{Q}-2 D_{\infty}\right]$ for a divisor $D_{Q}$ of degree 4 in general position;
(b) $Q=\left[D_{Q}-D_{\infty}\right]$ for a divisor $D_{Q}$ of degree 2 in general position.

In case $(\mathrm{b})$, the divisor $D_{Q}$ is uniquely determined by $Q$.
Proof The proof is sketched in [30, Sect. 2]. Suppose that $Q \in J \backslash\{0\}$ is represented by $E_{Q} \in \operatorname{Div}^{0}(X)$. By Riemann-Roch, the Riemann-Roch space $L\left(E_{Q}+2 D_{\infty}\right)$ has dimension at least 2 ; let $\varphi$ be a nontrivial element. Then $D_{Q}^{\prime}:=E_{Q}+2 D_{\infty}+\operatorname{div}(\varphi)$ is effective of degree 4 and we have $Q=\left[D_{Q}^{\prime}-2 D_{\infty}\right]$. If $D_{Q}^{\prime}$ is in general position, then we set $D_{Q}:=D_{Q}^{\prime}$; otherwise $D_{Q}^{\prime}=D_{Q}+(P)+(\iota(P))$ for some $P \in X$ and $D_{Q}$ is effective of degree 2 and in general position, since $Q \neq 0$.

For $D_{Q}$ of degree 2 in general position, the Riemann-Roch space $L\left(D_{Q}+D_{\infty}\right)$ has dimension 2 , generated by 1 and $x$. Hence all elements of the corresponding linear system, containing all divisors linearly equivalent to $D_{Q}+D_{\infty}$, are of the form $D_{Q}+(P)+(\iota(P))$ for some $P \in X$. This shows that the two cases (a) and (b) are mutually exclusive and also proves the uniqueness of $D_{Q}$ in case (b).

From now on, we say that $Q$ is of degree 4 in case (a) and of degree 2 in case (b). The point $0 \in J$ is defined to have degree 0 .

We first consider the case where $Q \in J$ has degree 4 . Then the divisor $D_{Q}$ in Proposition 4.2(a) is not unique by [30, Lemma 2.1]. As in Sect. 3.4, $D_{Q}$ yields a generalised Mumford representation as follows. Let $F$ be the degree 8 homogenisation of $f$. There is a model $y^{2}=F(x, z)$ of $X$ in the weighted projective plane over $k$ with weight 1 associated to $x$ and $z$ and weight $4=g+1$ associated to $y$. By [30, p.4], divisors $D \in \operatorname{Div}^{4}(X)$ in general position correspond bijectively to triples of binary forms $A, B, C \in k[x, z]$ of degree 4 such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
B^{2}-F=A C . \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The image of a point $P=\left(x_{0}: y_{0}: z_{0}\right)$ in the support of $D$ under the hyperelliptic covering $\pi: X \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1}$ corresponds to a root of $A$ with the correct multiplicity, and we have $y_{0}=B(\pi(P))$. Note that this Mumford representation of $D_{Q}$ is unique up to adding multiples of $A$ to $B$.

Remark 4.3 If $X(k)$ is non-empty, then we can find an equation $y^{2}=f(x)$ for $X$ such that we either have $\operatorname{deg}(f)=7$ or we have $\operatorname{deg}(f)=8$ and the leading coefficient of $f$ is a square. We have already discussed the former case. In the latter case, we can arbitrarily fix one of the two points $\infty_{1}, \infty_{2} \in X(k)$ at infinity, say $\infty_{1}$. If $Q \in J(k)$ has degree 4 ,
then requiring that $\infty_{1} \in \operatorname{supp}\left(D_{Q}\right)$ fixes $D_{Q}$ uniquely. By the above, we can represent $Q$ using a triple $(A, B, C)$ representing $D_{Q}$. Moreover, we can use this representation for arithmetic in $J(k)$ using a generalisation of Cantor's Algorithm. This is implemented in Magma. In practice, it is better to use Sutherland's balanced divisor approach [33], which is more efficient. It also requires the existence of a $k$-rational point.

If the leading coefficient of $f$ is not a square in $k$, then it is not clear how to represent degree 4 points consistently (and hence uniquely). In this case, Magma does not represent such points and arithmetic in $J(k)$ has not been implemented.

### 4.2 The Kummer variety

In [30, Lemma 2.1], Stoll shows that there is a subgroup $\Gamma$ of $\mathrm{SO}(Q)$, where $Q$ is the ternary quadratic form $y^{2}-x z$, with the following property: Two triples $(A, B, C)$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}, C^{\prime}\right)$ represent divisors in general position of degree 4 with the same image on $J$ if and only if they are equivalent under the action of $\Gamma$. Moreover, they represent inverse points if and only if they are equivalent under the action of $-\Gamma$. Stoll then uses this observation to construct the Kummer variety $K$ of $J$ explicitly as follows. There is a canonical theta divisor $\Theta$ on $J$ such that the support of $\Theta$ consists of 0 and the points on $J$ of degree 2 in the sense of Proposition 4.2. A basis for the Riemann-Roch space $\mathcal{L}(2 \Theta)$ defines a rational map $\kappa: J \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{7}$ such that $\kappa(J)$ is a model for the Kummer variety $K$ of $J$. By the above, the complement of the image of $\Theta$ in $\mathrm{Pic}^{4}$ under the canonical isomorphism can be described by the affine variety $V$ defined by (4.1), quotiented out by the action of $\Gamma$. Stoll finds a basis $\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{8}$ of $\mathcal{L}(2 \Theta)$ from $\pm \Gamma$-invariants in $k[V]$. Let $\kappa: J \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^{7}$ be the map defined by $\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{8}$. Then $\kappa$ is invariant under multiplication by -1 on $J$. Hence its image $K:=\kappa(J)$ describes a birational model of the Kummer variety by [30, Theorem 2.5].
According to [22, Proposition 3.1], $K$ can be defined by quartic relations. To find such relations, Stoll notes that $\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{7}$ are of degree 2 in the coefficients of $A, B$ and $C$, whereas $\xi_{8}$ is quadratic in $\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{7}$, leading to a quadratic relation, and hence 36 quartic ones, satisfied by the $\xi_{i}$. By [30, Theorem 2.5], one needs an additional 34 quartic relations; such relations are constructed before [30, Lemma 2.2].

To describe the map $\kappa$ on points $Q \in J(k)$ of degree 2 (which lie on $\Theta$ ), Stoll approximates the divisor $D_{Q}+D_{\infty}$, where $D_{Q}$ is as in Proposition 4.2(b) (see the discussion following [30, Theorem 2.5]). Write $D_{Q}=\left(P_{1}\right)+\left(P_{2}\right)$, where $P_{i}=\left(x_{i}: y_{i}: z_{i}\right) \in X$, and

$$
A(x, z)=\left(z_{1} x-x_{1} z\right)\left(z_{2} x-x_{2} z\right)=: a_{0} x^{2}+a_{1} x z+a_{2} z^{2} \in k[x, z]
$$

Then we have

$$
\kappa(Q)=\left(0: a_{0}^{2}: a_{0} a_{1}: a_{0} a_{2}: a_{1}^{2}-a_{0} a_{2}: a_{1} a_{2}: a_{2}^{2}: \xi_{8}\right)
$$

If $z_{1}=z_{2}=1$ and $x_{1} \neq x_{2}$, then $a_{0}=1$ and $\xi_{8}=\frac{2 y_{1} y_{2}-G\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)}{\left(x_{1}-x_{2}\right)^{2}}$, where

$$
G\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=2 \sum_{j=0}^{4} f_{2 j}\left(x_{1} x_{2}\right)^{j}+\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right) \sum_{j=0}^{3} f_{2 j+1}\left(x_{1} x_{2}\right)^{j}
$$

and $F(x, z)=f_{0} z^{8}+f_{1} x z^{7}+\ldots+f_{8} x^{8}$. In this case, $\xi_{8}$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\left(x_{1}-x_{2}\right)^{2} \xi_{8}+G\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right)^{2}-4 f\left(x_{1}\right) f\left(x_{2}\right)=0 \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now give $\kappa(Q)$ explicitly for the remaining special cases. More details can be found in [25, Sect. 5.4]. If $z_{1}=z_{2}=1$ and $x_{1}=x_{2}$, then we can find $\xi_{8}$ by writing (4.2) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
s_{2} \xi_{8}^{2}+s_{1} \xi_{8}+s_{0}=0 \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $s_{2}=0$ and $s_{1}=-2 G\left(x_{1}, x_{1}\right)=-4 f\left(x_{1}\right)$. If $s_{1} \neq 0$, then $Q \neq 0$, and it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa(Q)=\left(0: 1:-2 x_{1}: x_{1}^{2}: 3 x_{1}^{2}:-2 x_{1}^{3}: x_{1}^{4}: \frac{-s_{0}}{s_{1}}\right) . \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $z_{1}=1$ and $P_{2}=(1: w: 0)$ for some $w \in \bar{k}$ such that $w^{2}=f_{8}$, then we can use an approximation to find

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa(Q)=\left(0: 0: 0: 0: 1:-x_{1}: x_{1}^{2}: 2 y_{1} w-2 f_{8} x_{1}^{4}-f_{7} x_{1}^{3}\right) \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $P_{1}=P_{2}=(1: w: 0)$, then we can use (4.3) to find

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa(Q)=\left(0: 0: 0: 0: 0: 0: 4 f_{8}: 4 f_{6} f_{8}-f_{7}^{2}\right) \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, we have

$$
\kappa(0)=(0: 0: 0: 0: 0: 0: 0: 1)
$$

Remark 4.4 If $s_{2}=0$, then we can also express $\xi_{8}$ in terms of the coefficients of the polynomials $A, B, C$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\xi_{8}= & -a_{0}^{3} c_{6}-a_{0}^{2} a_{2} c_{4}+2 a_{0}^{2} b_{2} b_{4}-2 a_{0} a_{1} b_{1} b_{4}-a_{0} a_{2}^{2} c_{2}+2 a_{0} a_{2} b_{1} b_{3} \\
& +2 a_{1}^{2} b_{0} b_{4}-2 a_{1} a_{2} b_{0} b_{3}-a_{2}^{3} c_{0}+2 a_{2}^{2} b_{0} b_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $B(x, z)=b_{0} z^{4}+b_{1} x z^{3}+b_{2} x^{2} z^{2}+b_{3} x^{3} z+b_{4} x^{4}$ and $C(x, z)=c_{0} z^{6}+\ldots+c_{6} x^{6}$.

### 4.2.1 Traces of the group law

Recall that Assumption 3.1 requires, in particular, algorithms for

- the map [[2]]: $K \rightarrow K$ such that $\kappa(2 Q)=[[2]](\kappa(Q))$ for all $Q \in J$;
- the map $B: \operatorname{Sym}^{2}(K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Sym}^{2}(K)$ such that for all $Q_{1}, Q_{2} \in J$ we have

$$
B\left(\left\{\kappa\left(Q_{1}\right), \kappa\left(Q_{2}\right)\right\}\right)=\left\{\kappa\left(Q_{1}+Q_{2}\right), \kappa\left(Q_{1}-Q_{2}\right)\right\} .
$$

Similar to the genus 2 case [7, Sect. 3], there are homogeneous quartic polynomials

$$
\delta_{1}, \ldots, \delta_{8} \in \mathbb{Z}\left[f_{0}, \ldots, f_{8}\right]\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{8}\right]
$$

such that $[[2]](R)=\left(\delta_{1}(R): \ldots: \delta_{8}(R)\right)$ for all $R \in K$, normalised to map $(0, \ldots, 0,1)$ to itself. The polynomials can be constructed using representation theory; see [30, Theorem 7.3]. The map $B$ is constructed using representation theory in [30, Lemma 8.1].

### 4.3 Checking whether rational points lift to rational points

This section gives a procedure that decides whether the preimage under $\kappa$ of a point

$$
R=\left(\xi_{1}: \ldots: \xi_{8}\right) \in K(k)
$$

is in $J(k)$ or not. Let $Q \in J$ such that $\kappa(Q)=R$. Then $Q$ is of degree 4 if and only if $\xi_{1} \neq 0$. Also, we have $Q=0$ if and only if $R=(0: 0: 0: 0: 0: 0: 0: 1)$.
The case where $Q \in J$ has degree 4 is treated in [30, Sect. 4]. Briefly, the idea is that when $h$ is a nonzero odd function on $J / k$, then $h^{2}$ induces a function $j$ on $K / k$, and $R \in K(k)$ can only have rational preimages if $j(R)$ is a square in $k$. Conversely, if $j(R)$ is a nonzero square in $k$, then $R$ has rational preimages. Stoll constructs suitable functions $j$ as $3 \times 3$-minors of a $4 \times 4$ matrix $M=M\left(\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{7}\right)$ (see [30, (2.7)]). The preimage of $R$ consists of rational points if and only if all values $j(R)$ are squares in $k$.

Suppose that $Q \in J$ has degree 2 . In this case [30, Sect. 4] suggests to simply consider the map $\kappa$ explicitly. The uniqueness of the divisor $D_{Q}=\left(P_{1}\right)+\left(P_{2}\right)$ such that $Q=\left[D_{Q}-D_{\infty}\right]$ implies that $Q \in J(k)$ if and only if $D_{Q}$ is defined over $k$. By Sect. 4.2, we have $\xi_{1}=0$. We now distinguish cases, using the explicit expression for $R$ given in Sect. 4.2.

First suppose that $\xi_{2}=0$. Since $Q \neq O$, we are either in case (4.5) or in case (4.6). If $\xi_{5}=0$, then it is the latter. Note that $\xi_{7} \neq 0$, since otherwise we would have $R=(0: 0$ : $0: 0: 0: 0: 0: 1)$. Therefore $P_{1}=P_{2}=\infty_{1 / 2}$, and the preimage of $R$ is rational if and only if $X$ has rational points at infinity.

If $\xi_{2}=0$, but $\xi_{5} \neq 0$, then $R$ is as in Eq. (4.5). Hence without loss of generality $P_{1}=$ $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ and $P_{2}=\infty_{1 / 2}$. We have $\kappa^{-1}(R) \subset J(k)$ if and only if $\infty_{1 / 2}$ and $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ are rational. The latter holds if and only if $f\left(-\xi_{6}\right)=y_{1}^{2}$ is a square in $k$.
It remains to discuss the case $\xi_{2} \neq 0$, i.e. $\operatorname{deg} A(x, 1)=2$. Then $D_{Q}=\left(P_{1}\right)+\left(P_{2}\right)$, where $P_{i}=\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ are affine and

$$
\begin{equation*}
R=\left(0: 1:-\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right): x_{1} x_{2}: x_{1}^{2}+x_{1} x_{2}+x_{2}^{2}:-\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right) x_{1} x_{2}:\left(x_{1} x_{2}\right)^{2}: \frac{2 y_{1} y_{2}-G\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)}{\left(x_{1}-x_{2}\right)^{2}}\right) . \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 4.5 The preimage $\kappa^{-1}(R)$ consists of rational points if and only if $y_{1}+y_{2} \in k$ and if one of the following conditions is satisfied:
(1) $x_{1}=x_{2}$,
(2) $x_{1} \neq x_{2}$ and $\frac{y_{1}-y_{2}}{x_{1}-x_{2}} \in k$.

Proof The divisor $D_{Q}$ is $k$-rational if and only if $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are $k$-rational or if $P_{1}, P_{2} \in$ $X\left(k^{\prime}\right)$ for a quadratic extension $k^{\prime} / k$ and $\sigma\left(P_{1}\right)=P_{2}$, where $\sigma$ is the nontrivial element of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(k^{\prime} / k\right)$. Hence a necessary condition for rationality of $D_{Q}$ is that the polynomial $\left(y-y_{1}\right)\left(y-y_{2}\right)$ is defined over $k$. It follows from (4.7) that $y_{1} y_{2} \in k$. Suppose from now on that $y_{1}+y_{2} \in k$.
If $x_{1}=x_{2}$, then $x_{1}=-\frac{1}{2} \xi_{3} \in k$ and $y_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(y_{1}+y_{2}\right) \in k$, since $Q \neq 0$ by assumption; hence $D_{Q}$ is $k$-rational. Now assume that $x_{1} \neq x_{2}$. Then there is a Mumford representation $(A, B, C)$ of $Q$ such that the polynomial $b(x)=B(x, 1)$ is linear and satisfies $b\left(x_{1}\right)=y_{1}$ and $b\left(x_{2}\right)=y_{2}$, and $D_{Q}$ is $k$-rational if and only if $b \in k[x]$. Write $b(x)=b_{0}+b_{1} x$, then $b_{1}=\frac{y_{1}-y_{2}}{x_{1}-x_{2}}$ and $b_{0}=\frac{y_{2} x_{1}-y_{1} x_{2}}{x_{1}-x_{2}}$. Since

$$
y_{1}+y_{2}=2 b_{0}+b_{1}\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right)
$$

and since both $y_{1}+y_{2}$ and $x_{1}+x_{2}=-\xi_{3}$ are in $k$, we conclude that $b \in k[x]$ if and only if $b_{1} \in k$.

From (4.7), we can compute $y_{1} y_{2}$ and

$$
y_{1}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}=f\left(x_{1}\right)+f\left(x_{2}\right)=\sum_{j=0}^{8} f_{j}\left(x_{1}^{j}+x_{2}^{j}\right)
$$

hence also $\left(y_{1} \pm y_{2}\right)^{2}$. Since $\left(x_{1}-x_{2}\right)^{2}$ is also computed easily from (4.7), we can use Lemma 4.5 in practice to check whether $R$ lifts to rational points.

Remark 4.6 Stoll shows in [30, Sect. 4] how to compute a lift of $R$ when $X(k)$ is nonempty and the lifts of $R$ have degree 4 . Using the above, we can compute the unique Mumford representation of the points lifting $R$ in the degree 2 case.

### 4.4 Using arithmetic on reduced Jacobians

Recall that Step (3) of Algorithm 3.15 requires the structure of $\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for primes of good reduction $p$, where $\tilde{J}$ is the reduction of $J$ modulo $p$. Moreover, in Step (b) of Algorithm 3.14, we need to enumerate all elements of the $q$-parts of $\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$, where $q$ is prime and $p \neq q$ is a prime of good reduction, and we need to compute scalar multiples.

In Remark 3.2 we discussed how to compute $\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for a prime $p$ of good reduction using arithmetic of the Kummer variety $\tilde{K}$ and checking whether points in $\tilde{K}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ lift to $\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. In practice, it turns out to be more efficient to compute $\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ using arithmetic in $\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$, if that is implemented.

Recall from Sect. 4.1 that there are algorithms (and implementations) for arithmetic in $\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ if we know a point in $\tilde{X}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$, but no algorithm is known if we do not. If $\tilde{X}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ is nonempty, then we fix a point $\tilde{P} \in \tilde{X}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ and use a change of coordinates $\phi: \tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}^{\prime}$ such that $\phi(\tilde{P})$ is a point at infinity. Let $\tilde{J}^{\prime}$ be the Jacobian of $\tilde{X}^{\prime}$. Then we can compute in $\tilde{J}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$, for instance in Magma. Moreover, we can enumerate $\tilde{J}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ and find its structure as an abelian group. We adjust Steps (3) and (4) of Algorithm 3.15 in the following way. Here, we denote the Kummer variety of $\tilde{J}^{\prime}$ by $\tilde{K}^{\prime}$.

- In Step (3) and (4) of Algorithm 3.15, find suitable primes $p$ with the extra condition that $\tilde{X}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ is not empty.
- In Algorithm 3.14, let $G_{0}$ be the $q$-part of $\tilde{J}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. In Step (2), find the smallest $m$ such that $\tilde{\kappa}\left(\phi_{*}^{-1}\left(q^{m} \cdot g\right)\right)$ lifts to $J(\mathbb{Q})$, where $\phi: \tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}^{\prime}$ is as above.

This modification still allows us to choose from infinitely many primes $p$, since the HasseWeil bound implies $\# \tilde{X}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right) \geq 1$ for all $\operatorname{good} p \geq 41$.

Remark 4.7 In practice, we replace $\tilde{\kappa} \circ \phi_{*}^{-1}$ by $\phi_{\tilde{K}}^{-1} \circ \tilde{\kappa}^{\prime}$, where $\phi_{\tilde{K}}: \tilde{K} \rightarrow \tilde{K}^{\prime}$ is the isomorphism induced by $\phi$. Explicit formulas for $\phi_{\tilde{K}}$ are given in [25, Appendix B].

### 4.5 Computing the rational two-torsion points.

It is possible to compute $J(\mathbb{Q})[2]$ via the approach sketched in Sect. 3.2.1, but this takes quite long in practice. We now discuss a more efficient method, suggested to us by Michael Stoll.
First suppose that $\operatorname{deg}(f)=7$. Let $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{r} \in k[x]$ be the monic irreducible factors of $f$. Then, by $[28$, Lemma 4.3$] J(\mathbb{Q})[2]$ is generated by the points with Mumford representation

$$
\left(g_{1}, 0\right), \ldots,\left(g_{r-1}, 0\right)
$$

Now suppose that $\operatorname{deg}(f)=8$. Let $\Omega \subset \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ be the set of zeros of $f(x)$. We call an unordered partition $\left\{\Omega_{1}, \Omega_{2}\right\}$ of $\Omega$ even if $\# \Omega_{1}$ (and hence \# $\Omega_{2}$ ) is even. An even partition $\left\{\Omega_{1}, \Omega_{2}\right\}$ of $\Omega$ gives rise to a two-torsion point $P_{\Omega_{1}}\left(=P_{\Omega_{2}}\right)$ represented by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\omega \in \Omega_{1}}(\omega, 0)-\frac{\# \Omega_{1}}{2} D_{\infty} \sim \sum_{\omega \in \Omega_{2}}(\omega, 0)-\frac{\# \Omega_{2}}{2} D_{\infty} \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and every point in $J(\overline{\mathbb{Q}})[2]$ arises in this way from a unique unordered partition. See [30, Sect. 5] and [24]. More precisely, (4.8) induces a bijection between $J$ [2] and the Galoismodule of unordered even partitions of roots of $f$ (see [24, Sect. 6]). Hence $J(\mathbb{Q})[2]$ is in bijection with the set of all unordered even partitions $\left\{\Omega_{1}, \Omega_{2}\right\}$ that are fixed by the absolute Galois group $G_{\mathbb{Q}}$ of $\mathbb{Q}$. For instance, if $f$ is monic and $\Omega_{1}$ (equivalently, $\Omega_{2}$ ) is
fixed by $G_{\mathbb{Q}}$, then $P_{\Omega_{1}} \in J(\mathbb{Q})[2]$, and $P_{\Omega_{1}}$ has Mumford representation $(A(x, z), 0, C(x, z))$, where $A(x, z)=\prod_{\omega \in \Omega_{1}}(x-\omega z)$ and $C(x, z)=\prod_{\omega \in \Omega_{2}}(x-\omega z)$.
However, in general not every point in $J(\mathbb{Q})[2]$ arises in this way. It is also possible that $\left\{\Omega_{1}, \Omega_{2}\right\}$ is fixed by $G_{\mathbb{Q}}$, but $\Omega_{1}$ and $\Omega_{2}$ are not fixed individually. Then both $\Omega_{1}$ and $\Omega_{2}$ have size 4 and we have $\Omega_{2}=\Omega_{1}^{\sigma}$, where $\sigma$ is the non-trivial element of $\operatorname{Gal}(k / \mathbb{Q})$ for a quadratic number field $k$. This corresponds to a factorisation $f=\operatorname{lc}(f) \cdot h \cdot h^{\sigma}$, where $h=\prod_{\omega \in \Omega_{1}}(x-\omega) \in k[x]-\mathbb{Q}[x]$ and $h^{\sigma}=\prod_{\omega \in \Omega_{2}}(x-\omega)$ are coprime and $\mathrm{lc}(f)$ is the leading coefficient of $f$. In this case, $P_{\Omega_{1}}$ has no Mumford representation of the form $(A, 0, C)$ defined over $\mathbb{Q}$ (the degree-4 homogenisations of $h$ and $h^{\sigma}$ give such a representative over $k)$. The factorisation $f=\operatorname{lc}(f) \cdot h \cdot h^{\sigma}$ implies that $k$ is a subfield of the étale algebra $\mathbb{Q}[x] /(f)$.

We may use this to compute $J(\mathbb{Q})[2]$ as follows. Let $2 t_{\mathbb{Q}}$ denote the number of monic even degree divisors of $f$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. For a quadratic extension $k / \mathbb{Q}$ with $\operatorname{Galois} \operatorname{group} \operatorname{Gal}(k / \mathbb{Q})=$ $\{1, \sigma\}$, we define

$$
t_{k}:=\frac{1}{2} \#\left\{h \in k[x]: h \text { is monic, } f=\operatorname{lc}(f) \cdot h \cdot h^{\sigma}, \operatorname{gcd}\left(h, h^{\sigma}\right)=1\right\}
$$

By the discussion above, we obtain the following formula.
Lemma 4.8 We have \#J( $\mathbb{Q})[2]=t_{\mathbb{Q}}+\sum_{k} t_{k}$, where $k$ runs through the quadratic subfields of $\mathbb{Q}[x] /(f)$.

Example 4.9 Recall from Example 1.3 that for the Jacobian $J$ of

$$
X: y^{2}=x^{8}+2 x^{7}+3 x^{6}+4 x^{5}+9 x^{4}+8 x^{3}+7 x^{2}+2 x+1=: f(x)
$$

the group $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z}$. The polynomial $f(x)$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$, but it has the factorisation

$$
\begin{aligned}
f= & \left(x^{4}+(1-2 i) x^{3}+(-1-2 i) x^{2}+(-1-2 i) x-1\right) \cdot\left(x^{4}+(1+2 i) x^{3}\right. \\
& \left.+(-1+2 i) x^{2}+(-1+2 i) x-1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

over $\mathbb{Q}(i)$, where $i^{2}=-1$. This shows that \#J( $\left.\mathbb{Q}\right)[2]=2$.
Remark 4.10 Lemma 4.8 holds more generally for hyperelliptic curves over $\mathbb{Q}$ of arbitrary genus and even degree. However, if $g$ is even, then $\operatorname{deg}(f)$ is not divisible by 4 , and hence $t_{k}=0$ for all quadratic fields $k$. In this case all rational 2-torsion points come from even degree factors of $f$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ and we recover [28, Lemma 5.6].

### 4.6 Halving a rational point on $K$

In practice, the formulas found by Stoll in [30, Lemma 8.1] for the map $B$ as in Section 2 need a lot more space to store than the $\delta_{i}$, and they also take longer to evaluate. Recall from Sect.3.3 that we can avoid the $B_{i j}$ altogether in many situations. If $J(\mathbb{Q})[2]$ is nontrivial (and we do not already know that $J(\mathbb{Q})\left[2^{\infty}\right]=J(\mathbb{Q})[2]$ ), then this requires computing preimages under [[2]], as discussed in Sect. 3.2.1. In other words, for $\kappa(Q)=\left(y_{1}: \ldots\right.$ : $\left.y_{8}\right) \in K(\mathbb{Q})$ we need to solve a projective system

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{i}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=c y_{i}, \quad c \in \mathbb{Q}^{\times}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq 8 . \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We have implemented this approach in Magma, using Gröbner bases to find all rational points on the zero-dimensional projective scheme defined by (4.9) and the defining
equations of $K$. This approach works in practice, but we found that most of the time, computing such preimages is significantly slower than simply using the map $B$.

An alternative approach for computing preimages under [[2]] is proposed by Stoll in [27, Sect. 5] for genus 2. We also generalised this to genus 3 and implemented this generalisation. However, this requires working over the splitting field of $f$. Even when $f$ splits completely over $\mathbb{Q}$, we still found the approach via $B$ to be more efficient.

### 4.7 Height difference bound

In [30], Stoll describes a method to compute $\beta>0$ such that the difference between the naive and the canonical height is bounded by $\beta$. His approach generalises results for genus 2 [11,21,27]. Stoll shows in [30, Corollary 10.3] that one can take

$$
\beta=\frac{1}{3}\left|2^{6} \operatorname{disc}(f)\right|+\frac{1}{3} \gamma_{\infty}
$$

where $\gamma_{\infty}$ is an upper bound for the local height contribution $\varepsilon_{\infty}$ introduced in [30, Sect. 10]. One can find a suitable $\gamma_{\infty}$ using the archimedean triangle inequality and representation theory of J[2], see [30, Lemma 10.4]. A refined bound can be obtained by iterating this procedure [30, Lemma 10.5].

## 5 Examples and databases

We have implemented the algorithm of Sect. 3 for hyperelliptic curves of genus 3 using the explicit theory discussed in Sect. 4 in Magma. The implementation is based on Stoll's Magma-implementation of explicit formulas for the Kummer variety and heights available from [26]. Our code, as well as the results of the computations discussed below, can be found at https://github.com/bernoreitsma/g3hyptorsion. We used Magma v2. 6 on a 64core 2.6 GHz AMD Opteron(TM) Processor 6276 with 256GB RAM, running Ubuntu 18.04.

This section provides some example computations, illustrating various aspects of the algorithm. We also used our implementation to compute all rational torsion subgroups in a database maintained by Andrew Sutherland [32]. Finally, we ran our algorithm on a large number of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3 with small coefficients. Together with a few additional constructions, these computations prove Theorem 1.1.

### 5.1 Example computations

Example 5.1 In Example 1.3, we showed that for the Jacobian $J$ of the curve

$$
X: y^{2}=x^{8}+2 x^{7}+3 x^{6}+4 x^{5}+9 x^{4}+8 x^{3}+7 x^{2}+2 x+1
$$

we have $\# J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}=3$. To find a generator using Algorithm 3.4, we pick $p=17$ because the 3-part of $\tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{17}\right)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z} / 3 \mathbb{Z}$. We choose a point $\tilde{Q} \in \tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{17}\right)$ of order 3 and consider $\kappa(\tilde{Q}) \in \tilde{K}\left(\mathbb{F}_{17}\right)$. If the lift $Q \in J\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)[3]$ of $\tilde{Q}$ is indeed in $J(\mathbb{Q})$, then $\kappa(Q) \in K(\mathbb{Q})$. After a few iterations of the Hensel lifting, we can check whether the coordinates define a point on $K(\mathbb{Q})$. Indeed, after computing the power series up to $p^{4}$, we arrive at a point $R \in K(\mathbb{Q})$ such that $[[3]](R)=\kappa(0)$, and we check that $\kappa^{-1}(R) \subset J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors. }}$. We find that $J(\mathbb{Q})[3]$ is generated by the point represented by the divisor $(0:-1: 1)-(1: 1: 0)$, where the points are viewed inside the projective plane with weights $1,4,1$.

Example 5.2 The following example was suggested by Andrew Sutherland. Let $X$ be the hyperelliptic curve over $\mathbb{Q}$ defined by

$$
y^{2}=5 x^{8}-14 x^{7}+33 x^{6}-36 x^{5}+30 x^{4}+2 x^{3}-16 x^{2}+20 x-7 .
$$

The curve $X$ has no small rational points, so this example illustrates how we can compute $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ without an implementation of the group law in $J(\mathbb{Q})$. Computing the order of $\# J\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for some small primes of good reduction, we obtain that $\# J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \mid 13$, but no rational point 13 -torsion point on $J$ is found easily.

For our algorithm, we pick the prime of good reduction $p=3$, resulting in the curve

$$
\tilde{X}: \tilde{y}^{2}=2 \tilde{x}^{8}+\tilde{x}^{7}+2 \tilde{x}^{3}+2 \tilde{x}^{2}+2 \tilde{x}+2
$$

over $\mathbb{F}_{3}$, which is isomorphic over $\mathbb{F}_{3}$ to

$$
\tilde{X}^{\prime}: \tilde{y}^{2}=\tilde{x}^{8}+\tilde{x}^{7}+\tilde{x}^{6}+2 \tilde{x}^{3}+\tilde{x}^{2}+2 .
$$

Since $\tilde{X}^{\prime}$ has rational points at infinity, arithmetic in $\tilde{J}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{3}\right)$ is implemented, see the discussion in Sect. 4.4. As in Remark 4.7 we use the induced change of coordinates on the Kummer varieties of $\tilde{J}$ and $\tilde{J}^{\prime}$ to check whether a candidate point $\kappa(\tilde{Q}) \in \tilde{J}\left(\mathbb{F}_{3}\right)[13]$ lifts to $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$. We indeed find the point

$$
R=(0: 1:-1: 1: 0:-1: 1: 20) \in \kappa(J[13]) \cap K(\mathbb{Q})
$$

and we can show that $\kappa^{-1}(R) \subset J(\mathbb{Q})$. Therefore we have $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \cong \mathbb{Z} / 13 \mathbb{Z}$.
Since the first coordinate of $R$ is 0 , the preimages $Q \in J(\mathbb{Q})$ of $R$ are of degree 2 and hence can be described uniquely using a divisor $D_{Q}-D_{\infty}$. A short calculation using the explicit formulas in Sect. 4.3 shows that one of the points $Q$ has

$$
D_{Q}=\left(1+\zeta_{3}, 1+\zeta_{3}\right)+\left(1+\zeta_{3}^{2}, 1+\zeta_{3}^{2}\right)
$$

where $\zeta_{3}$ is a primitive third root of unity.
Alternatively, one can search for points of bounded height on $J(\mathbb{Q})$ reducing to $\tilde{\kappa}(\tilde{Q})$ using a lattice-based approach as in [30, Sect. 11]. This also finds a rational point of order 13.

Example 5.3 According to [17, Example 3.9], the curve $X$ defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
y^{2}= & \frac{46656}{3125} x^{7}+\frac{407097961}{39062500} x^{6}+\frac{281238453}{3906250} x^{5}-\frac{22959453}{312500} x^{4}-\frac{2767361}{15625} x^{3} \\
& +\frac{381951}{2500} x^{2}+\frac{3093}{6250} x+\frac{1}{2500}
\end{aligned}
$$

has a torsion point of order 41 . It is easy to see that 41 is an upper bound for $\# J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$. We run our algorithm on the curve with equation $y^{2}=f(x)$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
f= & 583200000 x^{7}+40709761 x^{6}+2812384530 x^{5}-2869931625 x^{4} \\
& -6918402500 x^{3}+5967984375 x^{2}+19331250 x+15625
\end{aligned}
$$

The height difference bound $\beta$ computed using Stoll's code satisfies $\beta \approx 97$, hence we need $N \log (p) \geq 11 \log (2)+194$ in Step (4) of Algorithm 3.4. We pick $p=7$; this yields the required $p$-adic precision $O\left(p^{N}\right)$ where $N=128$, which is reached in just 7 steps in Step (4). It turns out that we need not go that far; $N=32$ suffices to find a lift $R \in K(\mathbb{Q}) \cap \kappa(J[41])$. After showing that $R=\kappa(Q)$ for some $Q \in J(\mathbb{Q})$, we see that

Table 1 Torsion structures found in the database [32]

| Inv factors | Ord | Count | Gs? | Inv factors | Ord | Count | Gs? | Inv | Ord | Count | Gs? |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 1 | 38370 | Yes | 17 | 17 | 5 | Yes | 36 | 36 | 3 | Yes |
| 2 | 2 | 17093 | Yes | 3,6 | 18 | 1 | Yes | 37 | 37 | 1 | Yes |
| 3 | 3 | 956 | Yes | 18 | 18 | 30 | Yes | 38 | 38 | 2 | Yes |
| 2,2 | 4 | 2483 | Yes | 19 | 19 | 3 | Yes | $2,2,10$ | 40 | 16 | Yes |
| 4 | 4 | 2673 | Yes | 2,10 | 20 | 88 | Yes | 2,20 | 40 | 7 | Yes |
| 5 | 5 | 616 | Yes | 20 | 20 | 33 | Yes | 40 | 40 | 1 | No |
| 6 | 6 | 1332 | Yes | 21 | 21 | 2 | Yes | 42 | 42 | 6 | Yes |
| 7 | 7 | 701 | Yes | 22 | 22 | 14 | Yes | 2,22 | 44 | 1 | Yes |
| $2,2,2$ | 8 | 163 | Yes | $2,2,6$ | 24 | 19 | Yes | 44 | 44 | 1 | Yes |
| 2,4 | 8 | 493 | Yes | 2,12 | 24 | 98 | Yes | 46 | 46 | 1 | Yes |
| 8 | 8 | 639 | Yes | 24 | 24 | 21 | Yes | $2,2,12$ | 48 | 2 | No |
| 9 | 9 | 175 | Yes | 25 | 25 | 4 | Yes | 2,24 | 48 | 7 | Yes |
| 10 | 10 | 493 | Yes | 26 | 26 | 9 | Yes | 4,12 | 48 | 2 | No |
| 11 | 11 | 34 | Yes | 27 | 27 | 3 | Yes | 49 | 49 | 2 | Yes |
| 2,6 | 12 | 161 | Yes 2,14 | 28 | 33 | Yes | 5,10 | 50 | 1 | No |  |
| 12 | 12 | 403 | Yes 28 | 28 | 17 | Yes | 52 | 52 | 2 | Yes |  |
| 13 | 13 | 22 | Yes 30 | 30 | 6 | Yes | $2,2,14$ | 56 | 1 | Yes |  |
| 14 | 14 | 307 | Yes $2,2,2,4$ | 32 | 1 | Yes | 2,28 | 56 | 4 | Yes |  |
| 15 | 15 | 5 | Yes $2,2,8$ | 32 | 21 | Yes | 2,30 | 60 | 1 | No |  |
| $2,2,2,2$ | 16 | 3 | Yes 2,16 | 32 | 10 | Yes | 60 | 60 | 3 | No |  |
| $2,2,4$ | 16 | 47 | Yes | 32 | 32 | 3 | Yes | $2,2,2,8$ | 64 | 1 | Yes |
| 2,8 | 16 | 156 | Yes 2,18 | 36 | 2 | Yes | $2,6,6$ | 72 | 1 | No |  |
| 4,4 | 16 | 3 | No | 3,12 | 36 | 1 | No | 2,52 | 104 | 1 | No |
| 16 | 16 | 57 | Yes | 6,6 | 36 | 2 | No |  |  |  |  |

$J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \cong \mathbb{Z} / 41 \mathbb{Z}$, confirming [17, Example 3.9]. An explicit generator is represented by $(0,125)-(\infty)$. We checked that the Jacobian is in fact geometrically simple using the results of [16, Sect. 3]; this was also done by Nicholls using [23, Proposition 2.4.2].

### 5.2 Sutherland's database

Using the techniques of [5], Andrew Sutherland has assembled a file with 67879 genus 3 hyperelliptic curves of small discriminant at [32]. We used our implementation to compute the rational torsion subgroups of their Jacobians. For the complete database containing the results for the 67879 curves, we refer to the file database. txt in https://github.com/ bernoreitsma/g3hyptorsion. All torsion structures and the frequency of their appearance can be found in Table 1. Column invfactors contains the invariant factors, ord the order of the group, count is the number of times we found this torsion structure and $g s$ ? indicates whether we found at least one curve whose Jacobian has this torsion structure and is geometrically simple.

Here we summarise some of our findings.

- 38370 Jacobians ( $\approx 56.5 \%$ ) have trivial rational torsion subgroup.
- 5663 Jacobians $(\approx 8.3 \%)$ have a rational torsion point of odd order.
- 25679 Jacobians $(\approx 37.8 \%)$ have a nontrivial cyclic rational torsion subgroup, hence $3830(\approx 5.6 \%)$ have 2 or more generators.
- Of the non-cyclic torsion subgroups found, 3555 have 2 generators, 370 have 3 generators, and 5 torsion subgroups have 4 generators. The 5 curves that have four generators all have at least 3 of these generators of order 2 .
- 11 Jacobians have a torsion subgroup such that there are two invariant factors that are not equal to 2 .
- For $65938(\approx 97.1 \%)$ of the Jacobians, the order of the rational torsion subgroup is equal to the upper bound $b$ obtained by reducing modulo all good primes below 1000 as in Example 1.3. For the others, we have the following, where count denotes the number of occurrences. Most of the Jacobians for which the quotient $b / \# J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ is not 1 are geometrically split, for instance, all Jacobians for which the quotient is $>7$ or equal to 6 , and 182 out of the 192 Jacobians with quotient equal to 4 . The three Jacobians for which the quotient is 7 are geometrically irreducible; they have upper bound 7 and $\# J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}=1$.

| $b / \# J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 10 | 16 | 32 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| count | 1644 | 56 | 192 | 2 | 8 | 3 | 25 | 1 | 9 | 1 |

### 5.3 Large orders

### 5.3.1 Previous work

In [23, Table 3.2], Nicholls lists all known orders of rational torsion points on Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3 . Most of these were constructed by him in suitable families; in particular, he constructs geometrically simple Jacobians $J / \mathbb{Q}$ with a point $P \in J(\mathbb{Q})$ of order $N$ for every $N \in\{25, \ldots, 44\}$. Moreover, he constructs such points for

$$
N \in\{15,22,48,49,50,52,54,56,64,65,72,91\}
$$

In particular, the Jacobians of the curves

$$
\begin{align*}
& y^{2}=-16 x^{7}+409 / 4 x^{6}-275 x^{5}+399 x^{4}-334 x^{3}+160 x^{2}-40 x+4  \tag{5.1}\\
& y^{2}=-16 x^{7}+393 / 4 x^{6}-237 x^{5}+309 x^{4}-242 x^{3}+116 x^{2}-32 x+4 \tag{5.2}
\end{align*}
$$

have a rational point of order 43. This is the largest known prime order for a rational point on the Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve of genus 3 (the previous record holder was the curve in Example 5.3). The largest known point order is 91, but Nicholls does not give the equation of the curve.

Remark 5.4 We focused on geometrically simple Jacobians. In [12, Sects. 4.3-4.6], Howe, Leprevost and Poonen construct split Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves of genus 3 with large torsion orders. They find the groups with the following invariant factors:

$$
[2,30],[10,10],[2,8,8],[2,2,2,24],[2,2,2,4,8],[2,2,6,12],[4,4,8],[2,2,2,4,8]
$$

$[2,2,2,2,4,8]$

### 5.3.2 Searching for large orders

Howe [13] searched among genus 2 curves of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{2}+h(x) y=g(x) \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\operatorname{deg}(h)=3$ and $\operatorname{deg}(g)=2$ and small coefficients to find large torsion orders. Such curves are promising, because every curve of genus 2 with a rational non-Weierstrass point has a model of the form (5.3).

Similarly, we naively searched among those genus 3 curves that have a model

$$
y^{2}+h(x) y=g(x)
$$

with $\operatorname{deg}(h)=4, \operatorname{deg}(g)=3$ and coefficients bounded in absolute value by 8 . See the file searchresults.m at https://github.com/bernoreitsma/g3hyptorsion.
We found the following 3 pairwise non-isomorphic curves having $\# J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}=43$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y^{2}=x^{8}+4 x^{6}+12 x^{5}-4 x^{4}+24 x^{3}+20 x^{2}-16 x+16 \\
& y^{2}=x^{8}-4 x^{7}+10 x^{5}+4 x^{4}-20 x^{3}+x^{2}+12 x+4 \\
& y^{2}=x^{8}-4 x^{7}+18 x^{5}-16 x^{4}-12 x^{3}+9 x^{2}+8
\end{aligned}
$$

The third curve is isomorphic to the curve (5.1) found by Nicholls. We did not recover the example (5.2) and we found no larger prime order. All three Jacobians are geometrically simple.

The largest order \#J( $\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }}$ that we found was 160 ; this occurred exactly once, for the following curve, whose Jacobian is geometrically simple:

$$
y^{2}=9 x^{8}-48 x^{7}+46 x^{6}+96 x^{5}-119 x^{4}-72 x^{3}+64 x^{2}+24 x .
$$

This is the largest torsion order on a geometrically simple Jacobian of dimension 3 found so far.
The largest (finite) order of an element of $J(\mathbb{Q})$ was on the Jacobian $J$ of the curve defined by

$$
y^{2}=9 x^{8}-36 x^{7}+36 x^{6}+18 x^{5}-48 x^{4}+24 x^{3}+x^{2}-4 x+4
$$

We have $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \cong \mathbb{Z} / 144 \mathbb{Z}$. Here $J$ is not geometrically simple. The largest (finite) order of a rational point on a geometrically simple Jacobian occurred for the curve

$$
y^{2}=x^{8}-2 x^{7}+7 x^{6}-6 x^{5}-x^{4}+10 x^{3}-6 x^{2}+1
$$

whose Jacobian has $J(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \cong \mathbb{Z} / 91 \mathbb{Z}$, generated by the point $\left[2(1,2)-D_{\infty}\right]$.
Table 2 contains all group structures found in the search which do not already appear for a geometrically simple Jacobian of a curve in Sutherland's database.

Remark 5.5 In our computations, we found all point orders in Nicholls' [23, Table 3.2]. Moreover, the following orders appeared for geometrically simple Jacobians, but were not previously described in the literature for such Jacobians:

$$
23,24,46,51,58,63,70
$$

In addition, we found every order up to 22 . We also found the following new orders for split Jacobians:

60, 80, 144
The corresponding curves all have automorphism group of order greater than 2, so their Jacobians are split over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Table 2 Torsion structures found in the search

| Inv factors | Ord | Gs? | Inv factors | Ord | Gs? | Inv | Ord | Gs? |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3,3 | 9 | Yes | 2,26 | 52 | Yes | $2,2,20$ | 80 | Yes |
| 4,4 | 16 | Yes | 3,18 | 54 | Yes | 2,40 | 80 | No |
| 23 | 23 | Yes | 54 | 54 | Yes | 4,20 | 80 | No |
| 5,5 | 25 | Yes | 56 | 56 | Yes | 80 | 80 | No |
| 29 | 29 | Yes | 58 | 58 | Yes | 2,42 | 84 | Yes |
| 31 | 31 | Yes | 2,30 | 60 | Yes | 2,44 | 88 | Yes |
| $2,4,4$ | 32 | No | 60 | 60 | No | 91 | 91 | Yes |
| 4,8 | 32 | Yes | 63 | 63 | Yes | $2,2,24$ | 96 | No |
| 35 | 35 | Yes | $2,2,16$ | 64 | No | $2,4,12$ | 96 | No |
| 3,12 | 36 | Yes | $2,4,8$ | 64 | Yes | 2,48 | 96 | No |
| 6,6 | 36 | No | 2,32 | 64 | Yes | 4,24 | 96 | No |
| 39 | 39 | Yes | 4,16 | 64 | No | $2,2,28$ | 104 | Yes |
| 40 | 40 | Yes | 64 | 64 | Yes | 2,52 | 104 | Yes |
| 41 | 41 | Yes | 65 | 65 | Yes | 2,60 | 120 | No |
| 43 | 43 | Yes | 70 | 70 | Yes | $2,2,2,2,8$ | 128 | No |
| $2,2,12$ | 48 | Yes | $2,2,18$ | 72 | No | $2,2,2,16$ | 128 | No |
| 4,12 | 48 | Yes | $2,6,6$ | 72 | No | $2,4,16$ | 128 | No |
| 48 | 48 | Yes | 2,36 | 72 | No | 12,12 | 144 | No |
| 5,10 | 50 | No | 6,12 | 72 | Yes | 144 | 144 | No |
| 50 | 50 | Yes | 72 | 72 | Yes | $2,2,2,2,10$ | 160 | Yes |
| 51 | 51 | Yes | $2,2,2,10$ | 80 | Yes |  |  |  |

### 5.4 Additional examples and proof of Theorem 1.1

All torsion structures in Theorem 1.1 occurred in the computations discussed in Sects. 5.2 and 5.3.2 (see Tables 1 and 2), except for $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{5},(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{6},(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{4} \times \mathbb{Z} / 4 \mathbb{Z}$ and $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{3} \times \mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z}$. It is easy to find geometrically simple Jacobians with rational torsion subgroup isomorphic to the first two using Sect. 4.5. For instance, the curves

$$
X_{1}: y^{2}=x(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)(x-4)\left(x^{2}+x+1\right)
$$

and

$$
X_{2}: y^{2}=x(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)(x+1)(x+2)(x+3)
$$

have geometrically simple Jacobian with rational torsion subgroup isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{5}$ and $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{6}$, respectively. In a systematic search, we also found the curves

$$
X_{3}: y^{2}=x^{7}-8 x^{6}-19 x^{5}+235 x^{4}-130 x^{3}-875 x^{2}-500 x
$$

and

$$
X_{4}: y^{2}=x^{7}-15 x^{6}+87 x^{5}-244 x^{4}+335 x^{3}-191 x^{2}+9 x+18
$$

whose Jacobians $J_{3}$ and $J_{4}$ are geometrically simple. We have $J_{3}(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{4} \times \mathbb{Z} / 4 \mathbb{Z}$ and $J_{4}(\mathbb{Q})_{\text {tors }} \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{3} \times \mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z}$. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.1.

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Data availability The code described in this paper and the data generated from it can be found at https://github.com/bernoreitsma/g3hyptorsion.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ We hope that no confusion arises from using the word "lift" both for Hensel lifts as well as lifts of points from $K$ to $A$.

