

# Linear Forms in Logarithms

Krish Agrawal

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# Outline

- 1 Foundational Concepts
- 2 What Are Linear Forms in Logarithms?
- 3 The Gelfond-Schneider Breakthrough
- 4 Baker's Revolutionary Theorem
- 5 The Baker-Davenport Reduction Method
- 6 Applications in Practice
- 7 Modern Developments

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# Algebraic Numbers

## Definition

A complex number  $\alpha$  is **algebraic** if it satisfies some non-zero polynomial equation  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0$  where  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $a_n \neq 0$ .

- The *degree* of  $\alpha$  is the smallest degree of such a polynomial.
- Examples:  $\sqrt{2}$  has degree 2,  $\sqrt[3]{2}$  has degree 3,  $\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$  has degree 2.
- Every rational number is algebraic of degree 1.

# Transcendental Numbers

## Definition

A complex number is **transcendental** if it is not algebraic—that is, it satisfies no polynomial equation with integer coefficients.

- Classical examples:  $e$  (Hermite, 1873) and  $\pi$  (Lindemann, 1882).
- The Gelfond-Schneider theorem (1934) established transcendence of numbers like  $2^{\sqrt{2}}$  and  $e^{\pi}$ .
- Transcendental numbers are abundant: they form an uncountable set, while algebraic numbers are countable.

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# Basic Definition

## Definition

A **linear form in logarithms** is an expression of the form

$$\Lambda = b_1 \log \alpha_1 + b_2 \log \alpha_2 + \cdots + b_n \log \alpha_n$$

where

- $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  are non-zero algebraic numbers;
- $b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with at least one  $b_i \neq 0$ ;
- $\log$  denotes a fixed branch of the complex logarithm.

## Central Questions

- 1 When does  $\Lambda = 0$ ?
- 2 If  $\Lambda \neq 0$ , how close to zero can  $|\Lambda|$  be?

# Motivation from Diophantine Equations

Linear forms in logarithms arise naturally when studying exponential Diophantine equations:

- Consider the equation  $\alpha_1^{x_1} \alpha_2^{x_2} \cdots \alpha_n^{x_n} = 1$  where  $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- Taking logarithms:  $x_1 \log \alpha_1 + x_2 \log \alpha_2 + \cdots + x_n \log \alpha_n = 2\pi i k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- Lower bounds on  $|\Lambda|$  translate to upper bounds on  $|x_i|$ .

## Concrete Example

To solve  $2^x - 3^y = 1$  in positive integers:

- Rearrange to  $2^x = 3^y + 1$ .
- This leads to studying  $|x \log 2 - y \log 3|$ .
- Bounds on this linear form constrain possible values of  $(x, y)$ .



# Historical Timeline

- **1844:** Liouville proves the first approximation theorem for algebraic numbers.
- **1873:** Hermite proves  $e$  is transcendental.
- **1882:** Lindemann proves  $\pi$  is transcendental.
- **1934:** Gelfond and Schneider independently resolve Hilbert's 7th problem.
- **1966:** Baker proves lower bounds for linear forms in logarithms.

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# The Gelfond-Schneider Theorem

## Theorem (Gelfond-Schneider, 1934)

*If  $\alpha$  is algebraic with  $\alpha \neq 0, 1$  and  $\beta$  is algebraic and irrational, then  $\alpha^\beta$  is transcendental.*

- This resolved Hilbert's 7th problem about the transcendence of  $a^b$  for algebraic  $a, b$ .
- One of the key examples of the same is:  $2^{\sqrt{2}}$
- More about the proof in the full paper..

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# Baker's Theorem: The Statement

## Theorem (Baker, 1966)

*Let  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  be non-zero algebraic numbers, not all equal to 1, and let  $b_1, \dots, b_n$  be integers, not all zero. If*

$$\Lambda = b_1 \log \alpha_1 + \dots + b_n \log \alpha_n \neq 0,$$

*then*

$$|\Lambda| > \exp(-C(n) \cdot D^2 \cdot H \cdot \log B)$$

*where  $D = \prod_{i=1}^n d_i$ ,  $H = \prod_{i=1}^n h(\alpha_i)$ ,  $B = \max\{|b_1|, \dots, |b_n|\}$ , and  $C(n)$  depends only on  $n$ .*

# Baker's Theorem: The Details

- $d_i = [\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_i) : \mathbb{Q}]$  is the degree of  $\alpha_i$ .
- $h(\alpha_i)$  is the absolute logarithmic height of  $\alpha_i$ .
- For  $\alpha$  with minimal polynomial  $a_d x^d + \cdots + a_0$  (with  $\gcd(a_0, \dots, a_d) = 1$ ):

$$h(\alpha) = \frac{1}{d} \left( \log |a_d| + \sum_{\sigma} \log^+ |\sigma(\alpha)| \right)$$

where the sum is over all conjugates  $\sigma(\alpha)$  of  $\alpha$ .

## Significance

- Generalizes Gelfond-Schneider from single logarithms to arbitrary linear combinations.
- Completely effective: all constants are explicit and computable.
- Provides the foundation for solving exponential Diophantine equations.

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# The Computational Challenge

- Baker's bounds, while explicit, are often impractically large.
- Example: A bound like  $|\Lambda| > \exp(-10^{100})$  can translate to  $|x|, |y| < 10^{480}$ .
- Direct computer search becomes impossible.
- **Baker-Davenport (1969)**: Combine Baker bounds with continued fraction theory to dramatically reduce search spaces.

## Typical Improvement

Initial bound:  $|x| < 10^{480} \rightarrow$  Refined bound:  $|x| < 500$ .



# The Baker-Davenport Method

Consider a linear form  $\Lambda = x \log \alpha - y \log \beta + \gamma$ .

If we have  $|\Lambda| < C_1 e^{-C_2|x|}$  for large  $|x|$ , then:

$$\left| \frac{\log \alpha}{\log \beta} - \frac{y}{x} \right| < \frac{C_3}{|x|^2}$$

This means  $\frac{y}{x}$  must be a convergent in the continued fraction expansion of  $\frac{\log \alpha}{\log \beta}$ .

## Key Insight

Since continued fractions have good approximation properties, there are only finitely many "exceptional" values of  $x$  to check, typically reducing millions of cases to dozens.

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# The Simultaneous Pell Equation Problem

## Problem

Find all positive integers  $x$  such that both  $3x^2 - 2$  and  $8x^2 - 7$  are perfect squares.

- Parametrize solutions to  $3x^2 - 2 = y^2$  using the fundamental solution.
- Parametrize solutions to  $8x^2 - 7 = z^2$  similarly.
- Equating parametrizations leads to a linear form in logarithms.
- Baker's theorem gives an initial bound like  $m < 10^{480}$ .
- Baker-Davenport reduction brings this down to  $m < 500$ .
- Direct verification finds solutions:  $x = 1$  and  $x = 11$ .

# Other Notable Applications

- **Ramanujan-Nagell equation:**  $x^2 + 7 = 2^n$  (solved completely).
- **Fibonacci powers:** When is  $F_n$  a perfect power? (Luca, 2000s).
- **Catalan-Mersenne conjecture:**  $2^p - 1 = x^q$  for primes  $p, q$ .
- **Generalized Fermat equations:**  $x^p + y^q = z^r$  with constraints.
- **S-unit equations:**  $x + y = 1$  where  $x, y$  have prime factors from a finite set  $S$ .

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# Modern Developments

- **Sharper effective constants:** Work of Matveev, Waldschmidt, and others has made bounds more practical.
- **$p$ -adic linear forms:** Analogous theory for  $p$ -adic logarithms (Waldschmidt, Gel'fond).
- **Elliptic logarithms:** Linear forms involving logarithms on elliptic curves (David, Hirata-Kohno).

# Selected References

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