Transcendental Numbers (Rough Outline 10/13/23)

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Fall 2023

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### Abstract

Research into transcendental numbers started with rational approximations. This paper covers preliminaries on the neccesary parts of field theory before going into the Lindemann-Weierstrass theorem, Gelfond-Schneider theorem, and Baker's theorem and concludes with a discussion of Schanuel's conjecture. This sequence of theorems are related to determining whether complex numbers are transcendental or not and is based off of the work by Baker.

### **Preliminaries**

### 1.1 Algebraic and Transcendental Numbers

<u>Def</u> An <u>algebraic number</u> is a complex number that is the root of a finite nonzero polynomial in one variable with rational coefficients. A <u>transcendental number</u> is a complex number that is not algebraic.

<u>Note</u> We will use  $\mathbb{A}$  to denote the set of algebraic numbers and we will use  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{A}$  to denote the set transcendental numbers. We will use  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{A}$  to denote the set of real transcendental numbers.

To find some algebraic numbers, we can take a nonzero polynomial with rational coefficients and find its roots. By definition, these roots are algebraic numbers. For example,  $\sqrt{2}$  is algebraic because it is a root of  $x^2-2$ . Also, i is algebraic because it is the root of  $x^2+1$ . All rational numbers are algebraic as well. Let  $\frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q}$  be rational, where  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$  and q is nonzero. Then, it is the root of  $x-\frac{p}{q}$ .

What about transcendental numbers? Do they exist?

**Theorem 1.1.1** Yes, transcendental numbers exist.

<u>Proof</u> Consider the set of algebraic numbers, which we will denote by  $\mathbb{A}$ . This set is countable. We will show this by forming a surjection

$$\phi: \left(\mathbb{N} \times \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Q}^n\right) \to \mathbb{A}.$$

Note that  $\mathbb{N} \times \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Q}^n$  is countable because it is the Cartesian product of a countable set with a countable union of countable sets. By the fundamental theorem of algebra, we know that a polynomial of degree k has k (not necessarily distinct) roots. Therefore,

we can number the k roots from 1 to k for each polynomial. Thus, if we specify the nonzero rational coefficients  $(a_0, \ldots, a_k)$  and an index i for  $i \in [k]$  to be the i-th root of the polynomial  $a_k x^k + \cdots + a_0$ , we get an algebraic number. We define the map  $\phi(i, (a_0, \ldots, a_k))$  to be the i-th root of  $a_k x^k + \cdots + a_0$  if it exists. Otherwise, we map the input to zero. From the definition, we know that every algebraic number can be encoded this way since it is one of the roots of a nonzero rational polynomial. Thus, for all  $a \in \mathbb{A}$ , there must be an input x such that  $\phi(x) = a$ , making this a surjective map from a countable set to  $\mathbb{A}$ . This makes  $\mathbb{A}$  countable. However, since  $\mathbb{C}$  is uncountable, it cannot be the case that all complex numbers are algebraic. Thus, if a complex number is not algebraic, it must be transcendental. Furthermore,  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable so there must be real transcendental numbers as well.



If transcendental numbers exist, then can we find an example? To show that a number is algebraic, we just have to find a nonzero rational polynomial that it is a root of, evaluate that polynomial at that number, and verify that we get zero. However, checking if a number is transcendental is a very hard problem. The rest of this paper will discuss the transcendence of a large class of numbers and methods for determining the transcendence.

#### 1.2 Fields

Before that, we will generalize the concept of transcendence to other fields. In order to do this, we will list several definitions. Let k, l be fields and let l/k be a field extension.

- $a \in l$  is <u>algebraic</u> over k if there is a nonzero polynomial  $f \in k[x]$  such that f(a) = 0. Otherwise, a is <u>transcendental</u> over k. In other words, an algebraic number is a complex number that is algebraic over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and a transcendental number is a complex number that is not algebraic over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .
- $X \subseteq L$  is algebraically independent over k if for all  $a_1, \ldots, a_t$  distinct and all  $f \in k[x_1, \ldots, x_t], f(a_1, \ldots, a_t) = 0$  implies f = 0.
- If  $a \in l$  is algebraic over k, the <u>minimal polynomial</u> of a over k, denoted  $m_a$ , is the unique monic irreducible polynomial which generates the kernel of the evaluation map  $\phi(f) = f(a)$  for  $f \in k[x]$ . The <u>degree</u> of  $\alpha \in k$  is the degree of the minimial polynomial  $m_a$ .
- l/k is an algebraic extension if every element in l is algebraic over k.
- l is <u>algebraically closed</u> if every nonconstant single variable polynomial in l has a root in l.
- An algebraic closure of k is an algebraic extension of k that is algebraically closed.

#### 1.3 Liouville Numbers

Now we will start looking for our first transcendental number! First, we will start by proving a lemma.

**Lemma 1.3.1** For any nonzero polynomial p(x) with a root at  $x = \alpha$  of multiplicity m > 0, p'(x) has the root  $\alpha$  with multiplicity m - 1.

**Proof** From the fundamental theorem of algebra, we can write p(x) as  $(x - \alpha)^m q(x)$  where  $(x - \alpha) \nmid q(x)$ . Now, taking the derivatives of both sides and using the product rule, we get

$$p(x) = (x - \alpha)^m q(x)$$

$$p'(x) = ((x - \alpha)^m)' q(x) + (x - \alpha)^m q'(x)$$

$$= m(x - \alpha)^{m-1} q(x) + (x - \alpha)^m q'(x)$$

$$= (x - \alpha)^{m-1} (mq(x) + (x - \alpha)q'(x))$$

Therefore, we get that  $(x - \alpha)^{m-1} \mid p'(x)$  so p'(x) has the root  $\alpha$  of multiplicity at least m-1.

Now, we want to show that p'(x) has root  $\alpha$  with multiplicity at most m-1. In order to show this, we will shift the polynomial by  $\alpha$  (all of the roots will therefore be shifted by  $\alpha$  as well). Namely, we look at  $p(x+\alpha) = x^m q(x+\alpha)$ . Note that  $p(x+\alpha)$  now has the root 0 with multiplicity m (it has m factors of x) and since q(x) had no  $x-\alpha$  factors,  $q(x+\alpha)$  has no roots at zero. In other words,  $x \nmid q(x+\alpha)$ . Now, showing p'(x) has root  $\alpha$  with multiplicity m-1 is equivalent to showing  $p'(x+\alpha)$  as root 0 with multiplicity m-1 (it has exactly m-1 factors of x). Thus, substituting  $x+\alpha$  in p'(x):

$$p'(x+\alpha) = x^{m-1} \left( mq(x+\alpha) + xq'(x+\alpha) \right)$$

We have m-1 factors of x from the  $x^{m-1}$  term. Therefore, we need to show the rest of the expression has no factors of x. In other words,  $x \nmid (mq(x+\alpha) + xq'(x+\alpha))$ , we can take the expression  $(mq(x+\alpha) + xq'(x+\alpha))$  modulo x to get  $mq(x+\alpha)$ . Since m>0 and  $q(x+\alpha)$  has no factors of x, we know that x cannot divide the entire expression. Shifting back by  $\alpha$ , we get that  $x-\alpha$  cannot be a factor of  $mq(x) + (x-\alpha)q'(x)$ , so the multiplicity of  $x-\alpha$  in p(x) is at most m-1.

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<u>Def</u> A <u>Liouville number</u> is a real number x such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists integers p, q with q > 1 such that

$$0 < \left| x - \frac{p}{q} \right| < \frac{1}{q^n}.$$

Essentially, Liouville numbers are real numbers that can be approximately really, really closely by a sequence of rationals of the form  $\left\{\frac{p_i}{q_i}\right\}$ , where  $q_i > 1$ , and the distance between x and  $\frac{p_i}{q_i}$  is nonzero, but less than  $\frac{1}{(q_i)^i}$ .

**Theorem 1.3.2** (Liouville's Approximation Theorem) Let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  be an algebraic number of degree n. Then, for any rational approximation  $\frac{p}{q}$  to  $\alpha$ , we have

$$\left|\alpha - \frac{p}{q}\right| \ge \frac{1}{q^n}$$

**Proof** Let f be the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Note that  $f'(\alpha) \neq 0$ . This is because  $\deg(f') < \deg(f)$  and f is the minimal polynomial. Furthermore, f is irreducible in  $\mathbb{R}[x]$ , so it cannot be the case that  $(x-r) \mid f$  for a rational r. In other words, f has no rational roots. Now let  $\frac{p}{q}$  be a rational number which we will use to approximate  $\alpha$  and plug it into  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$ .

$$f\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = a_n \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^n + a_{n-1} \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$$
$$= \frac{C}{q^n}$$

for some constant  $C \neq 0$  as  $\frac{p}{q}$  is not a root of f. Also, note that since we want a good approximation of  $\alpha$  that is close to  $\frac{1}{q^n}$  away, this rational must be at most distance 1 away from  $\alpha$ .

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#### 1.4 Transcendence of e and $\pi$

**Lemma 1.4.1** Let f(x) be a real polynomial with degree m. Let

$$I(t) = \int_0^t e^{t-x} f(x) dx.$$

Then,

$$I(t) = e^t \sum_{j=0}^m f^{(j)}(0) - \sum_{j=0}^m f^{(j)}(t).$$

where  $f^{(j)}(t)$  is the j-th derivative of f with respect to x evaluated at t.

**Proof** Probably induction and integration by parts. I will fill this in later.

## Lindemann-Weierstrass Theorem

**Theorem 2.0.1** (Lindemann-Weierstrass Theorem) Suppose

$$\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n$$

are algebraic numbers that are linearly independent over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Then,

$$e^{\alpha_1},\ldots,e^{\alpha_n}$$

are linearly independent over the algebraic numbers. In other words, the extension field  $\mathbb{Q}(e^{\alpha_1},\ldots,e^{\alpha_n})$  has transcendence degree n over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

### Proof

### Gelfond-Schneider Theorem

### 3.1 Useful Lemmas

In this chapter, we will prove the Gelfond-Schneider Theorem. We will introduce four lemmas to help prove this.

#### Lemma 3.1.1 Let the functions

$$a_1(t),\ldots,a_n(t)$$

be nonzero real polynomials  $(\in \mathbb{R}[t])$  of degree

$$d_1,\ldots,d_n$$

respectively. Furthermore, let

$$w_1,\ldots,w_n$$

be (pairwise) distinct real numbers. Then, counting multiplicities, the function

$$f(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j(t)e^{w_j t}$$

has at most  $n-1+\sum_{i=1}^{n}d_i$  real roots.

**<u>Proof</u>** Let  $k = n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i$ . We will prove this statement using strong induction on k.

**Lemma 3.1.2** Let f(z) be an analytic function in the disk  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ . Here, we define  $D = \{z : |z| < d\}$  for some positive real d. Suppose f is continuous on the closure of D,  $\overline{D} = \{z : |z| \le d\}$ . Furthermore, let  $|f|_d = \max_{z \in \overline{D}, |z| = d} f(z)$ . Then, for every  $z \in \overline{D}$ ,  $|f(z)| \le |f|_d$ .

**Proof** Seems very difficult. Involves Maximum Modulus Principle, proof is omitted in most texts.

Lemma 3.1.3 something from complex analysis

Lemma 3.1.4 something with matrices

### 3.2 Main Theorem

**Theorem 3.2.1** (Gelfond-Schneider Theorem) Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be algebraic numbers such that  $\alpha \notin \{0,1\}$  and  $\beta \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ . Then,  $\alpha^{\beta}$  is transcendental.

 $\underline{\mathbf{Proof}}$  We will incorporate four lemmas in this proof

## Baker's Theorem

**Theorem 4.0.1** (Baker's Theorem) Let  $\mathbb{L} = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : e^{\lambda} \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}\}$ . Then, if

$$\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_n\in\mathbb{L}$$

are linearly independent over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,

# Schanuel's Conjecture

Conjecture 5.0.1 (Schanuel's Conjecture) Suppose we have n complex numbers

$$z_1,\ldots,z_n$$

that are linearly independent over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Then,  $\mathbb{Q}(z_1,\ldots,z_n,e^{z_1},\ldots,e^{z_n})$  has transcendence degree at least n over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

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