

# The *abc* Conjecture: An Introduction

Robert L. Benedetto  
Amherst College

$$2400 + 1 = 2401$$

# Fermat's Last Theorem. (Wiles, 1995)

## Theorem

Given  $n \geq 3$  integer, there are **no integer solutions** to

$$x^n + y^n = z^n$$

*with none of  $x, y, z$  equal to zero.*

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## Proof:

A little too long to fit into this talk.

“QED”

## Using **Polynomials** instead of **Integers**

**Recall:** A polynomial  $f(t)$  with complex coefficients is a function of the form:

$$f(t) = a_d t^d + a_{d-1} t^{d-1} + \cdots + a_1 t + a_0,$$

where every  $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$ .

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e.g.:

$$\begin{aligned} &5 - \pi t + t^2 \\ &(14 + 2i) + 17t^{11} - (5 - 3i)t^{38} \\ &7 + \sqrt{2}i \\ &0 \end{aligned}$$

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**Notation:**

$$\mathbb{C}[t] = \{\text{polynomials with coefficients in } \mathbb{C}\}.$$

# Fermat for Polynomials

## Theorem

Let  $n \geq 3$  be an integer. There are **no** polynomials  $f, g, h \in \mathbb{C}[t]$  such that

$$(f(t))^n + (g(t))^n = (h(t))^n$$

**except** for the cases that:

- ▶ at least one of  $f, g, h$  is the zero polynomial,  
or
- ▶  $f, g, h$  are all constant,  
or
- ▶  $f$  is a constant times  $g$ .

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Note:  $n = 2$  has **many** solutions. E.g., for any polynomial  $f(t)$ ,

$$(f^2 - 1)^2 + (2f)^2 = (f^2 + 1)^2.$$

# Review of Polynomials and Degrees

To say  $f = g$  means: for **every**  $t_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $f(t_0) = g(t_0)$ .

Equivalently,  $f$  and  $g$  have exactly the same coefficients.

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Writing  $f(t) = a_d t^d + \cdots + a_0$  with  $a_d \neq 0$ , the integer

$$d = d_f = \deg(f)$$

is the **degree** of  $f$ .

## Note:

- ▶ If  $f = a_0$  is a nonzero constant, then  $\deg(f) = 0$ .
- ▶ If  $f = 0$  is the zero polynomial, we either don't talk about its degree or say that  $\deg(f) = -\infty$ .
- ▶  $\deg(f \cdot g) = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$ .
- ▶ If  $f$  is not a constant, then  $\deg(f') = \deg(f) - 1$ .

# Roots of Polynomials

Any nonzero polynomial

$$f = a_d t^d + \cdots + a_0$$

(with  $a_d \neq 0$ ) has exactly  $d$  **roots**

$$\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_d \in \mathbb{C},$$

and in particular,

$$f(t) = a_d \cdot (t - \alpha_1) \cdot (t - \alpha_2) \cdot \cdots \cdot (t - \alpha_d).$$

Furthermore, the above factorization of  $f$  is **unique**.

# Examples of Roots of Polynomials

## Examples.

$$f(t) = t^3 - 3t^2 + 2t = t(t - 1)(t - 2)$$

$$g(t) = t^2 + 4 = (t - 2i)(t + 2i)$$

$$\begin{aligned} h(t) &= 2t^3 - 3t^2 + 1 = 2\left(t + \frac{1}{2}\right)(t - 1)(t - 1) \\ &= 2\left(t + \frac{1}{2}\right)(t - 1)^2 \end{aligned}$$



## Counting Roots

**Example:** Are there numbers  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$  so that

$$(t + 1)^5(t + 2)^4(t^3 + at - 3) = (t - 2)^3(t - 1)^2(t^7 + bt + 6) ?$$

**Answer: NO!**

We could multiply it out, but here's an easier way:

If the above polynomials were equal, then they would be a single polynomial of degree 12.

This polynomial has as roots **at least** the following:

- ▶  $-1$ , appearing 5 times,
- ▶  $-2$ , appearing 4 times,
- ▶  $2$ , appearing 3 times
- ▶  $1$ , appearing 2 times

That's already  $5 + 4 + 3 + 2 = 14$  roots for a degree 12 polynomial, which is impossible.

## Roots and Derivatives

Suppose  $f \in \mathbb{C}[t]$  and  $\alpha$  is a root of  $f$ , appearing with multiplicity  $r \geq 1$ ; that is,

$$f(t) = (t - \alpha)^r g(t)$$

for some polynomial  $g(t)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} f'(t) &= r(t - \alpha)^{r-1}g(t) + (t - \alpha)^r g'(t) \\ &= (t - \alpha)^{r-1} \underbrace{[rg(t) + (t - \alpha)g'(t)]}_{\text{some polynomial}}. \end{aligned}$$

That means the polynomial  $f'$  has  $\alpha$  as a root with multiplicity (at least)  $r - 1$ .

# The Radical of a Polynomial

## Definition

Given a polynomial

$$f(t) = A(t - \alpha_1)^{r_1}(t - \alpha_2)^{r_2} \cdots (t - \alpha_k)^{r_k},$$

with  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k$  distinct, the **radical** of  $f$  is the polynomial

$$\text{rad}(f) = (t - \alpha_1)(t - \alpha_2) \cdots (t - \alpha_k).$$

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## Note:

1. If  $f$  is not constant, then  $1 \leq \deg(\text{rad}(f)) \leq \deg(f)$ .
2. The number of **distinct** roots of  $f$  is  $k = \deg(\text{rad}(f))$ .
3.  $r_1 + r_2 + \cdots + r_k = \deg(f)$ .

## *abc* for Polynomials

Theorem (Stothers, Mason, early 1980s)

Let  $a(t), b(t), c(t)$  be nonzero polynomials, not all constant, such that

1.  $a + b = c$ , and
2.  $a$  and  $b$  have no common roots.

Then

$$\max\{\deg(a), \deg(b), \deg(c)\} \leq -1 + \deg(\text{rad}(abc)).$$

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That is:

The largest degree of  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  is **strictly less than** the **total** number of **distinct** roots of  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ .

## Example 1

$$\underbrace{t^3(5t+2)}_{a(t)} + \underbrace{(3t+1)^3(t+1)}_{b(t)} = \underbrace{(2t+1)^3(4t+1)}_{c(t)}$$

$$\max\{\deg a, \deg b, \deg c\} = 4$$

$$\text{rad}(abc) = t(t+1)(2t+1)(3t+1)(4t+1)(5t+2),$$

$$\text{so } \deg(\text{rad}(abc)) = 6, \text{ and } 4 \leq (-1) + 6.$$

## Example 2

$$\underbrace{t^{17}}_{a(t)} + \underbrace{1}_{b(t)} = \underbrace{t^{17} + 1}_{c(t)}$$

$$\max\{\deg a, \deg b, \deg c\} = \deg a = \deg c = 17$$

$$\text{rad}(abc) = t(t^{17} + 1),$$

$$\text{so } \deg(\text{rad}(abc)) = 18, \text{ and } 17 \leq (-1) + 18.$$

## Example 3

$$\underbrace{(t^8 + 1)}_{a(t)} + \underbrace{(-t^8 + 1)}_{b(t)} = \underbrace{2}_{c(t)}$$

$$\max\{\deg a, \deg b, \deg c\} = \deg a = \deg b = 8$$

$$\text{rad}(abc) = t^{16} - 1,$$

$$\text{so } \deg(\text{rad}(abc)) = 16, \text{ and } 8 \leq (-1) + 16.$$

## Proving $abc$ for Polynomials: Setup

**Without loss:** The largest degree is  $\deg(a) = \deg(b) = d \geq 1$ .

Let  $d_c = \deg(c)$ . Then  $0 \leq d_c \leq d$ .

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Factor the polynomials as:

$$a(t) = A(t - \alpha_1)^{q_1}(t - \alpha_2)^{q_2} \cdots (t - \alpha_k)^{q_k}$$

$$b(t) = B(t - \beta_1)^{r_1}(t - \beta_2)^{r_2} \cdots (t - \beta_\ell)^{r_\ell}$$

$$c(t) = C(t - \gamma_1)^{s_1}(t - \gamma_2)^{s_2} \cdots (t - \gamma_m)^{s_m}$$

By hypothesis, note that:

- ▶  $q_1 + \cdots + q_k = r_1 + \cdots + r_\ell = d$ ,
- ▶  $s_1 + \cdots + s_m = d_c$ ,
- ▶  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_\ell, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m$  are all distinct.

Let  $N = k + \ell + m = \deg(\text{rad}(abc))$ .

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**Our goal is to show:**  $d \leq N - 1$ .



# Proof of Fermat for Polynomials

Suppose  $n \geq 3$  and  $f^n + g^n = h^n$ , where

- ▶  $f, g, h$  are nonzero, and
- ▶  $f$  is not a constant multiple of  $g$ .

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If  $f$  and  $g$  have a common root  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ , then so does  $h$ ; so divide both sides by  $(x - a)^n$ .

Repeat until  $f$  and  $g$  have no common roots.

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Rearrange so that  $\deg f = d \geq \deg(g), \deg(h)$ . By *abc* Theorem,

$$\underbrace{\deg(f^n)}_{nd} \leq -1 + \underbrace{(\#\text{distinct roots of } f^n g^n h^n)}_{\leq \deg(fgh) \leq 3d}.$$

So  $nd \leq 3d - 1$ , i.e.,  $(n - 3)d \leq -1$ . Contradiction! QED

## Back to Integers

Given a positive integer  $n \geq 1$ , what's the analogue of the “degree” of  $n$ ?

**Idea:**

$$2548 = 2 \cdot 10^3 + 5 \cdot 10^2 + 4 \cdot 10 + 8$$

$$\text{vs. } 2 \cdot t^3 + 5 \cdot t^2 + 4 \cdot t + 8$$

So “degree” is roughly analogous to “number of digits”, which means (roughly)  $\log |n|$ .

Another parallel:

$$\deg(fg) = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$$

$$\log |mn| = \log |m| + \log |n|$$

# What about the **radical** of an integer?

Polynomials have factorizations

$$f(t) = A(t - \alpha_1)^{r_1}(t - \alpha_2)^{r_2} \cdots (t - \alpha_k)^{r_k},$$

and the radical of  $f$  is

$$\text{rad}(f) = (t - \alpha_1)(t - \alpha_2) \cdots (t - \alpha_k).$$

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Similarly, integers have **prime** factorizations

$$n = \pm p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k}, \quad \text{so}$$

## Definition

Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  be a nonzero integer  $n = \pm p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k}$ .

The **radical** of  $n$  is  $\text{rad}(n) = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k$ .

# An Analogous Conjecture for Integers

## Conjecture

There is a constant  $C \in \mathbb{R}$  with the following property: For all positive integers  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$  satisfying:

1.  $a + b = c$ , and
2.  $a$  and  $b$  have no common prime factors,

we have

$$\underbrace{\max\{\log a, \log b, \log c\}}_{\log c} \leq C + \log(\text{rad}(abc)).$$

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[**Recall:** If  $abc = p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k}$ , then  $\text{rad}(abc) = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k$ .]

But: this conjecture is **FALSE!!!!**

# Preparations for a Counterexample

## Lemma

For any integer  $j \geq 0$ ,  $3^{(2^j)} - 1$  is divisible by  $2^{j+1}$ .

**Proof of Lemma:** By induction on  $j$ :

For  $j = 0$ ,  $3^1 - 1 = 2$  is divisible by  $2^{0+1} = 2$ .

If the statement is true for some  $j \geq 0$ , then

$$3^{2^{j+1}} - 1 = \underbrace{(3^{2^j} - 1)}_{\text{divisible by } 2^{j+1}} \cdot \underbrace{(3^{2^j} + 1)}_{\text{divisible by } 2}.$$

Thus,  $3^{2^{j+1}}$  is divisible by  $2^{j+2}$ .

**QED Lemma**

## A Counterexample to the Conjecture

For each  $j \geq 0$ , write  $\underbrace{2^{j+1}n_j}_{a_j} + \underbrace{1}_{b_j} = \underbrace{3^{2^j}}_{c_j}$ , for some  $n_j \in \mathbb{N}$ .

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Note (for later) that  $n_j < 3^{2^j}/2^{j+1}$ . **We compute:**

$$\log \max\{a_j, b_j, c_j\} = \log(3^{2^j}) = 2^j \log 3, \quad \text{and}$$

$$\log \text{rad}(a_j b_j c_j) \leq \log(2 \cdot 3 \cdot n_j) = \log 6 + \log(n_j)$$

$$\leq \log 6 + \log(3^{2^j}) - \log(2^{j+1})$$

$$= \log 6 + 2^j \log 3 - (j+1) \log 2.$$

So if the conjecture were true, we would have

$$2^j \log 3 \leq C + \log 6 + 2^j \log 3 - (j+1) \log 2,$$

i.e.,  $(j+1) \log 2 \leq C + \log 6$  for **all**  $j \geq 0$ , which is impossible.

# The *abc* Conjecture

Conjecture (David Masser and Joseph Oesterlé, 1985.)

*For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a constant  $C_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$  with the following property.*

*For all positive integers  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$  satisfying*

- 1.  $a + b = c$ ,           and*
- 2.  $a$  and  $b$  have no common prime factors,*

*we have*

$$\log c \leq C_\varepsilon + (1 + \varepsilon) \log(\text{rad}(abc)).$$

## *abc* ratios

Given  $a, b, c$  as in the conjecture, let

$$R(a, b, c) = \frac{\log c}{\log \text{rad}(abc)},$$

called the “*abc* ratio” or the “quality” of the triple  $(a, b, c)$ .

**Idea:** Intuitively, the *abc* conjecture says  $R(a, b, c)$  cannot be much bigger than 1.

More precisely, it says that for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there are only **finitely many** triples  $(a, b, c)$  for which  $R(a, b, c) > 1 + \varepsilon$ .



## Examples of $abc$ ratios

“Most” of the time,  $R(a, b, c)$  is a lot smaller than 1:

- $18384 + 73295 = 91679$  is  $2^4 \cdot 3 \cdot 383 + 5 \cdot 107 \cdot 137 = 7^2 \cdot 1871$ , so

$$R = \frac{\log(91679)}{\log(2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 107 \cdot 137 \cdot 383 \cdot 1871)} = 0.40201\dots$$

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- $5^{12} + 3^{16} = 287187346 = 2 \cdot 137 \cdot 1048129$  has

$$R = \frac{\log(287187346)}{\log(2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 137 \cdot 1048129)} = 0.877926\dots$$

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- But  $1 + 2400 = 2401$  is  $1 + 2^5 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^2 = 7^4$ , so

$$R = \frac{\log(2401)}{\log(2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7)} = 1.455673\dots,$$

which is number 36 on the all-time worst (best?) list of known  $(a, b, c)$ -triples.

## Top ten worst known $(a, b, c)$ -triples:

$a$	$b$	$c$	$R$
2	$3^{10} \cdot 109$	$23^5$	1.62991...
$11^2$	$3^2 \cdot 5^6 \cdot 7^3$	$2^{21} \cdot 23$	1.62599...
$19 \cdot 1307$	$7 \cdot 29^2 \cdot 31^8$	$2^8 \cdot 3^{22} \cdot 5^4$	1.62349...
283	$5^{11} \cdot 13^2$	$2^8 \cdot 3^8 \cdot 17^3$	1.58075...
1	$2 \cdot 3^7$	$5^4 \cdot 7$	1.56788...
$7^3$	$3^{10}$	$2^{11} \cdot 29$	1.54707...
$7^2 \cdot 41^2 \cdot 311^3$	$11^{16} \cdot 13^2 \cdot 79$	$2 \cdot 3^3 \cdot 5^{23} \cdot 953$	1.54443...
$5^3$	$2^9 \cdot 3^{17} \cdot 13^2$	$11^5 \cdot 17 \cdot 31^3 \cdot 137$	1.53671...
$13 \cdot 19^6$	$2^{30} \cdot 5$	$3^{13} \cdot 11^2 \cdot 31$	1.52699...
$3^{18} \cdot 23 \cdot 2269$	$17^3 \cdot 29 \cdot 31^8$	$2^{10} \cdot 5^2 \cdot 7^{15}$	1.52216...

## For more information

For a list of all 237 known  $(a, b, c)$  triples with  $R > 1.4$ , see Bart de Smit's list at

<http://www.math.leidenuniv.nl/~desmit/abc/index.php?set=2>

For more on the *abc* conjecture, see Abderrahmane Nitaj's page at:

<http://www.math.unicaen.fr/~nitaj/abc.html>