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# A NOTE ON THE DIOPHANTINE EQUATION $x^{2}+b^{Y}=c^{z}$ 

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Abstract. Let $a, b, c, r$ be positive integers such that $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{r}, \min (a, b, c, r)>1$, $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1, a$ is even and $r$ is odd. In this paper we prove that if $b \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ and either $b$ or $c$ is an odd prime power, then the equation $x^{2}+b^{y}=c^{z}$ has only the positive integer solution $(x, y, z)=(a, 2, r)$ with $\min (y, z)>1$.

Keywords: exponential diophantine equation, Lucas number, positive divisor
MSC 2000: 11D61

## 1. Introduction

Let $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Q}$ be the sets of all integers, positive integers and rational numbers respectively. In 1933, Terai [10] proposed the following conjecture.

Conjecture 1. If $(a, b, c)$ is a primitive Pythagorean triple such that

$$
a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}, \quad a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}, \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1, a \equiv 0(\bmod 2),
$$

then the equation

$$
x^{2}+b^{y}=c^{z}, \quad x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}
$$

has only the solutions $(x, y, z)=(a, 2,2)$.
This problem is related to an early conjecture of Jeśmanowicz [5]. As an analogue of Conjecture 1, Cao and Dong [3] considered the following conjecture:

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Conjecture 2. If $a, b, c, r, s, t$ are fixed positive integers such that

$$
a^{x}+b^{t}=c^{r}, \quad \min (a, b, c, r, s, t)>1, \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1, a \equiv 0(\bmod 2)
$$

then the equation

$$
x^{s}+b^{y}=c^{z}, \quad x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}
$$

has only the solutions $(x, y, z)=(a, t, r)$.
However, the condition $\min (y, z)>1$ is necessary in Conjuecture 2 (see [4]). In general, this conjecture is far from solved. In this paper we consider the case that $a$, $b, c, r$ are fixed positive integers satisfying
(1) $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{r}, \quad \min (a, b, c, r)>1, \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1, a \equiv 0(\bmod 2), r \not \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$.

In this respect, Cao, Dong and Li [4] proved that if

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=\left|V_{r}\right|, \quad b=\left|U_{r}\right|, \quad c=m^{2}+1 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $b$ is an odd prime power with $b \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, where $m$ is an even integer with $m>1$ and the integers $U(r), V(r)$ satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{r}+U_{r} \sqrt{-1}=\left(m+\sqrt{-1}^{r},\right. \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

then the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}+b^{y}=c^{z}, \quad x, y, z \in \mathbb{N} \min (y, z)>1 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

has only the solution $(x, y, z)=(a, 2, r)$. In this paper, we show that the condition (2) can be eliminated from the above mentioned result. We shall prove two general results:

Theorem 1. If (1) holds and $b$ is an odd prime power with $b \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then (4) has only the solution $(x, y, z)=(a, 2, r)$.

Theorem 2. If (1) holds, $b \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ and $c$ is an odd prime power, then (4) has only the solution $(x, y, z)=(a, 2, r)$.

## 2. Proof of Theorem 1

Lemma 1 ([8, pp. 122-123]). Let $r$ be an odd integer with $r>1$. Then every solution $(X, Y, Z)$ of the equation

$$
X^{2}+Y^{2}=Z^{r}, \quad X, Y, Z \in \mathbb{N}, \operatorname{gcd}(X, Y)=1, Y \equiv 0(\bmod 2)
$$

can be expressed as

$$
\begin{gathered}
X+Y \sqrt{-1}=\lambda_{1}\left(m+\lambda_{2} l \sqrt{-1}\right)^{r}, \quad \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2} \in\{-1,1\} \\
Z=m^{2}+l^{2}, \quad m, l \in \mathbb{N}, \operatorname{gcd}(m, l)=1, m \equiv 0(\bmod 2)
\end{gathered}
$$

Lemma 2. Let $k$ be an odd integer with $k>1$, and let $\omega(k)$ denote the number of distinct prime divisors of $k$. If the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
m^{2}+l^{2}=k, \quad m, l \in \mathbb{N}, \operatorname{gcd}(m, l)=1, m \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

has solutions $(m, l)$, then (5) has exactly $2^{\omega(k)-1}$ solutions $(m, l)$.
Proof. This lemma follows directly from Lemma 1 of [7].

Lemma 3 ([6]). The equation

$$
x^{2}-1=Y^{n}, \quad X, Y, n \in \mathbb{N}, \min (X, Y, n)>1
$$

has only the solution $(X, Y, n)=(3,2,3)$.

Lemma 4 ([9]). Let $d$ is a positive square free integer with square free, and let $h(-d)$ denote the class number of the imaginary quadratic field $Q(\sqrt{-d})$. If $d>2$, then the equation

$$
\begin{gathered}
1+d X^{2}=Y^{n}, \quad X, Y, n \in \mathbb{N}, Y \not \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \\
n>1, n \not \equiv 0(\bmod 2), h(-d) \not \equiv 0(\bmod n)
\end{gathered}
$$

has no solutions $(X, Y, n)$.

Lemma 5. Let $p$ be an odd integer with $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. The equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
1+3 X^{2}=p^{2 n}, \quad X, n \in \mathbb{N}, n \not \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

has only the solution $(p, X, n)=(7,4,1)$.
Proof. Since $h(-3)=1$, by Lemma 4 we can suppose that $n=1$ in (6). Then $(u, v)=(p, X)$ is a solution of the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{2}-3 v^{2}=1, \quad u, v \in \mathbb{N} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $X$ is even and $2+\sqrt{3}$ is the fundamental solution of (7), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
p+X \sqrt{3}=(2+\sqrt{3})^{2 t}=(7+4 \sqrt{3})^{t}, \quad t \in \mathbb{N} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

whence we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
p=\sum_{j=0}^{[n / 2]}\binom{t}{2 j} 7^{t-2 j} 48^{i} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, we see from (9) that $t$ is odd. Hence, by (9), we get $t=1$ and $p=7$. Thus, (6) has only the solution $(p, X, n)=(7,4,1)$. The lemma is proved.

Lemma 6 ([3, Lemma 1]). Let $b$ be an odd prime power, and let $c$ be a positive integer with $\operatorname{gcd}(b, c)=1$. If (4) has a solution $(x, y, z)$ such that both $y$ and $z$ are even, then we have
(i) $b=239, c=13,(x, y, z)=(28560,2,8)$.
(ii) $b^{2}+1=2 c^{2},(x, y, z)=\left(\frac{1}{2}\left(b^{2}-1\right), 2,4\right)$.
(iii) $b^{2 t}+1=2 c,(x, y, z)=\left(\frac{1}{2}\left(b^{2 t}-1\right), 2 t, 4\right)$, where $t$ is a positive integer.

Let $\alpha, \beta$ be algebraic integers. If $\alpha+\beta$ and $\alpha \beta$ are nonzero coprime integers and $\alpha / \beta$ is not a root of unity, then $(\alpha, \beta)$ is called a Lucas pair. Further, let $A=\alpha+\beta$ and $C=\alpha \beta$. Then we have

$$
\alpha=\frac{1}{2}(A+\lambda \sqrt{B}), \quad \beta=\frac{1}{2}(A-\lambda \sqrt{B}), \quad \lambda \in\{-1,1\},
$$

where $B=A^{2}-4 C$. The numbers of the pair $(A, B)$ are called the parameters of the Lucas pair $(\alpha, \beta)$. Two Lucas pairs $\left(\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1}\right)$ and $\left(\alpha_{2}, \beta_{2}\right)$ are equivalent if $\alpha_{1} / \alpha_{2}=\beta_{1} / \beta_{2}= \pm 1$. Given a Lucas pair $(\alpha, \beta)$, one defines the corresponding sequence of Lucas numbers by

$$
L_{n}=L_{n}(\alpha, \beta)=\frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha-\beta}, \quad n=0,1,2 \ldots
$$

For equivalent Lucas pairs $\left(\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1}\right)$ and $\left(\alpha_{2}, \beta_{2}\right)$, we have $L_{n}\left(\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1}\right)= \pm L_{n}\left(\alpha_{2}, \beta_{2}\right)$ for any $n \geqslant 0$. A Prime $p$ is called a primitive divisor of $L_{t}(\alpha, \beta)$ if $p \mid L_{n}$ and $B L_{1} \ldots L_{n-1} \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. A Lucas pair $(\alpha, \beta)$ such that $L_{n}(\alpha, \beta)$ has no primitive divisors will be called an $n$-defective Lucas pair. Further, a positive integer $n$ is called totally non-defective if no Lucas pair is $n$-defective.

Lemma 7 ([11]). Let $n$ satisfy $4<n \leqslant 30$ and $n \neq 6$. Then, up to equivalence, all parameters of $n$-defective Lucas pairs are given as follows:
(i) $n=5,(A, B)=(1,5),(1,-7),(2,-40),(1,-11),(1,-15),(12,-76),(12,-1364)$.
(ii) $n=7,(A, B)=(1,-7),(1,-19)$.
(iii) $n=8,(A, B)=(2,-24),(1,-7)$.
(iv) $n=10,(A, B)=(2,-8),(5,-3),(5,-47)$.
(v) $n=12,(A, B)=(1,5),(1,-7),(1,-11),(2,-56),(1,-15),(1,-19)$.
(vi) $n \in\{13,18,30\},(A, B)=(1,-7)$.

Lemma 8 ([1, Theorem 1.4]). If $n>30$, then $n$ is totally non-defective.
Lemma 9. If $a, b, c, r$ satisfy (1) and $b$ is an odd prime with $b \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then either $(a, b, c, r)=(524,7,65,3)$ or $a, b, c$ and $r$ satisfy (2).

Proof. By Lemma 1, we get from (1) that

$$
\begin{gather*}
a+b \sqrt{-1}=\lambda_{1}\left(m+\lambda_{2} l \sqrt{-1}\right)^{r}, \quad \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2} \in\{-1,1\},  \tag{10}\\
c=m^{2}+l^{2}, m, l \in \mathbb{N}, \operatorname{gcd}(m, l)=1, m \equiv 0(\bmod 2) . \tag{11}
\end{gather*}
$$

From (10), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
b=\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2} l \sum_{i=0}^{(r-1) / 2}\binom{r}{2 i+1} m^{m-2 i-1}\left(-l^{2}\right)^{i} . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $b$ is an odd prime power with $b \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
b=p^{k} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p$ is an odd prime and $k$ is an odd integer. By (12) and (13), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
l=p^{s}, \quad\left|\sum_{i=0}^{(r-1) / 2}\binom{r}{2 i+1} m^{r-2 i-1}\left(-l^{2}\right)^{i}\right|=p^{k-s}, \quad s \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \leqslant s \leqslant k \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (3), (10), (11) and (14), if $s=0$, then $a, b, c, r$ satisfy (2). If $s>0$, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=m+l \sqrt{-1}, \quad \beta=m-l \sqrt{-1} . \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $(\alpha, \beta)$ is a Lucas pair with parameters $\left(2 m,-4 l^{2}\right)$. Further, let $L_{n}(\alpha, \beta)(n \geqslant 0)$ denote the corresponding Lucas numbers. Then, by (14), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
l=p^{s}, \quad\left|L_{r}(\alpha, \beta)\right|=p^{k-s}, \quad 0<s \leqslant k \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

It implies that the Lucas number $L_{r}(\alpha, \beta)$ has no primtitive divisors. Since $r$ is an odd integer with $r>1$, by Lemmas 7 and 8 we obtain $r=3$.

When $r=3$ and $s=k$, we get from (14) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
p^{2 s}-3 m^{2}=1 \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $b \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, we see from $(13)$ that $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. Hence, by Lemma 5 , we get from (17) that $p=7, s=1$ and $m=4$. Therefore, by (10) and (11), we abtain $(a, b, c, r)=(524,7,65,3)$.

When $r=3$ and $s<k$, since $s>0$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(m, l)=1$, we get from (14) that $p=3, k-s=1$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
m^{2}-3^{2 s-1}=1 \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

By Lemma 3, we find from (18) that $m=2$ and $s=1$. Hence, by (13), we get $b=3^{2}=9$. But, since $b \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, this is impossible. Thus the lemma is proved.

Proof of Theorem 1. Since $b \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, by Theorem of [4] and our Lemma 9 it suffices to prove the theorem for $(a, b, c, r)=(524,7,65,3)$. Then (4) can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}+7^{y}=65^{z}, \quad x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}, \min (y, z)>1 \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $(x, y, z)$ be a solution of (19) with $(x, y, z) \neq(524,2,3)$. By Lemma 6 , we have $y \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$ and $z \not \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$. Hence, by Lemma 1 , we get

$$
\begin{align*}
& x+7^{y / 2} \sqrt{-1}=\lambda_{1}\left(m+\lambda_{2} l \sqrt{-1}\right)^{z}, \quad \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2} \in\{-1,1\}  \tag{20}\\
& 65=m^{2}+l^{2}, \quad m, l \in \mathbb{N}, \operatorname{gcd}(m, l)=1, m \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \tag{21}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $\omega(65)=2$, by Lemma (2), (21) has exactly two solutions $(m, l)=(4,7)$ and $(8,1)$.

When $(m, l)=(4,7)$, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=4+7 \sqrt{-1}, \quad \beta=4-7 \sqrt{-1} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $(\alpha, \beta)$ is a Lucas pair with parameters $(8,196)$. Further, let $L_{n}(\alpha, \beta)(n \geqslant 0)$ denote the corresponding Lucas numbers. Then, from (20) and (22) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
7^{y / 2-1}=\left|L_{z}(\alpha, \beta)\right| . \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

This implies that the Lucas number $L_{z}(\alpha, \beta)$ has no primtitive divisors. On the other hand, since $z>1$ and $(x, y, z) \neq(524,2,3)$, we see from (20) that $z>3$. But, by Lemmas 7 and 8, (23) is impossible.

When $(m, l)=(8,1)$, we get from (20) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
7^{y / 2}=\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2} \sum_{i=0}^{(z-1) / 2}(-1)^{i}\binom{z}{2 i+1} 8^{z-2 i-1} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $8 \equiv 1(\bmod 7)$ and

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{i=0}^{(z-1) / 2}(-1)^{i}\binom{z}{2 i+1} & =\sum_{j=0}^{z}\binom{z}{j} \sin \frac{j \pi}{2}  \tag{25}\\
& =2^{z} \sin \frac{z \pi}{4}\left(\cos \frac{\pi}{4}\right)^{z}=(-1)^{(z-1)(z+5) / 8} 2^{(z-1) / 2}
\end{align*}
$$

by (24), we obtain $0 \equiv \pm 2^{(z-1) / 2}(\bmod 7)$, a contradiction. Thus, (4) has only the solution $(x, y, z)=(524,2,3)$ for $(a, b, c, r)=(524,7,65,3)$. The theorem is proved.

## 3. Proof of Theorem 2

Lemma 10 ([2, Theorem 4]). Let $D$ be a positive integer with $D>2$, and let $p$ be an odd prime with $D \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. If $(D, p)=\left(3 s^{2}+1,4 s^{2}+1\right)$, where $s$ is a positive integer, then the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{2}+D^{Y}=p^{z}, \quad X, Y, Z \in \mathbb{N} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

has at most three solutions $(X, Y, Z)=(s, 1,1),\left(8 s^{2}+3 s, 1,3\right)$ and $\left(X_{3}, Y_{3}, Z_{3}\right)$, where $Y_{3}$ is even. Otherwise, (26) has at most two solutions $(X, Y, Z)$. Further, if these are $\left(X_{1}, Y_{1}, Z_{1}\right)$ and $\left(X_{2}, Y_{2}, Z_{2}\right)$, then $Y_{1} \equiv Y_{2}(\bmod 2)$.

Proof of Theorem 2. Since $c$ is an odd prime power, we have $c=p^{t}$, where $p$ is an odd prime and $t$ is a positive integer. Hence, if $(x, y, z)$ is a solution of (4), then $(X, Y, Z)=(x, y, t z)$, is a solution of the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{2}+b^{Y}=p^{Z}, \quad X, Y, Z \in \mathbb{N} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $b \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, hence if (4) has a solution $(x, y, z) \neq(a, 2, r)$, then (27) has at least two solutions $(X, Y, Z)$ with $Y \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$. But, by Lemma 10 , this is impossible. Thus, the theorem is proved.

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