Math 4527 (Number Theory 2) Lecture #10 of 38  $\sim$  February 10, 2021

Miscellaneous Diophantine Equations

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This material represents §6.4 from the course notes.

Our goal now is to give a roundup of a bunch of miscellaneous Diophantine equations and discuss some methods for solving them.

- As I said in the first lecture, there is no general procedure for solving an arbitrary Diophantine equation.
- As such, the methods we use tend to feel a bit *ad hoc*, since there are very many different things one may try to solve these equations.
- The goal is to mention most of the more standard sorts of techniques (using modular arithmetic, descent arguments, √ factorization in  $\Z$  or in  $\Z[\sqrt{D}]$ , exploiting inequalities, etc.) and illustrate their applications via example.

<u>Example</u>: Solve the Diophantine equation  $\displaystyle{\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{y}}$  $\frac{1}{y} = \frac{1}{202}$  $\frac{1}{2021}$  in positive integers  $(x, y)$ .

<u>Example</u>: Solve the Diophantine equation  $\displaystyle{\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{y}}$  $\frac{1}{y} = \frac{1}{202}$  $\frac{1}{2021}$  in positive integers  $(x, y)$ .

- The idea here is to rearrange the equation and factor.
- Note that  $x, y \ge 2022$ .
- Clearing denominators yields  $2021y + 2021x = xy$ , so that  $xv - 2021x - 2021v = 0$ .
- Adding 2021 $^2$  to both sides then allows us to factor this equation as  $(x - 2021)(y - 2021) = 2021^2$ .
- Since  $x, y > 2022$  we can then simply find the possible factorizations of  $2021^2$  as a product of two positive integers.

# Miscellaneous Diophantine Equations, III

<u>Example</u>: Solve the Diophantine equation  $\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y}$  $\frac{1}{y} = \frac{1}{202}$  $\frac{1}{2021}$  in positive integers  $(x, y)$ .

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<u>Example</u>: Solve the Diophantine equation  $\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y}$  $\frac{1}{y} = \frac{1}{202}$  $\frac{1}{2021}$  in positive integers  $(x, y)$ .

- With  $(x-2021)(y-2021)=2021^2$ , we can see that 2021 $^2 = 43^2 \cdot 47^2$  has 9 possible factorizations as the product of two positive integers, 5 of which correspond to having  $x\geq y$ : 1 · 2021<sup>2</sup>, 43 · (43 · 47<sup>2</sup>), 47 · (43<sup>2</sup> · 47), 2021 · 2021.
- These factorizations yield five possible pairs  $(x - 2021, y - 2021) = (1,4084441), (43,94987),$ (47, 86903), (1849, 2209), (2021, 2021).
- Thus we get the solutions  $(x, y) = (2022, 4086462)$ , (2064, 97008), (2068, 88924), (3870, 4230), and (4042, 4042).

- The idea of this proof is to use modular arithmetic and induction on a. Clearly,  $a \geq 0$ .
- For the base case  $a = 0$ , consider the equation modulo 8.
- Each of the squares  $x^2$ ,  $y^2$ , and  $z^2$  is either 0, 1, or 4 mod 8, so it is not possible to obtain a sum of 7 mod 8 by adding three of them.
- Therefore, there are no solutions to  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 8b + 7$ .

- For the inductive step, now suppose there are no solutions for  $a \leq k$ , and take  $a = k + 1$ .
- Consider the equation  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4^{k+1}(8b + 7)$  modulo 4.
- Each of the squares is 0 or 1, while the term  $4^{k+1}(8b+7)$  is 0 mod 4, so all of the squares must be 0 mod 4.
- Then  $(x/2)^2 + (y/2)^2 + (z/2)^2 = 4^k(8b + 7)$ , but by the inductive hypothesis, this equation has no solutions.
- Therefore there are no solutions for  $a = k + 1$  either, so by induction, there are no solutions for any a.

- In fact, these are the only integers that cannot be written as a sum of three squares, as first proven by Legendre.
- Gauss gave a formula for the number of such representations, similar to Fermat's formula for the number of ways of writing an integer as a sum of two squares.
- We will prove this characterization of sums of three squares (along with sums of two squares and sums of four squares) later in the semester.

- The idea of this result is to attempt to complete the square of the x-terms, and then use some simple inequalities to bound how big  $x$  and  $y$  can be.
- We complete the square of the x-terms and obtain  $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 + 2x + 1 = (x^2 + 2x - 3/2)^2 + (8x - 5/4).$
- If  $\times$  is large then this tells us that  $\overline{x^4+4x^3+x^2+2x+1}\approx x^2+2x-3/2,$  which is between the two integers  $x^2 + 2x - 2$  and  $x^2 + 2x - 1$ .
- Thus, we can bound  $|x|$  by comparing  $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 + 2x + 1$ to the squares  $(x^2 + 2x - 2)^2$  and  $(x^2 + 2x - 1)^2$ .

# Miscellaneous Diophantine Equations, VIII

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- First, we have  $y^2 (x^2 + x 2)^2 = x^2 + 10x 3$ . This quadratic is positive outside the interval  $[-10.3, 0.3]$ .
- Likewise, we also see that  $(x^2 + x 1)^2 y^2 = x^2 6x$  is positive outside [0, 6].
- Hence, if  $x \notin [-10, 6]$ , then we have the strict inequalities  $(x^2 + x - 2) < y^2 < (x^2 + x - 1)^2$ , which is impossible if x and y are both integers.
- Now we just have to check the 17 possible integers  $x$ , namely,  $x = -10, -9, \ldots, 6$  to see which ones yield an integral value of  $y$ .
- This is not hard to do by hand but it's even easier via computer. This will show the solutions are  $(x, y) = (-4, \pm 3)$ ,  $(0, \pm 1)$ ,  $(1, \pm 3)$ , and  $(6, \pm 47)$ .

#### Miscellaneous Diophantine Equations, IX

A few remarks about the more general Diophantine equation  $y^2=q(x)$  where  $q(x)$  is a polynomial with integer coefficients:

- In degree 1, there are infinitely many solutions unless there is some modular-arithmetic constraint (e.g.,  $y^2 = 4x + 3$ ).
- In even degrees, one can adapt the proof method we just used to show that there are only finitely many solutions for any monic polynomial  $q(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  that is not a perfect square.
- Of course, if  $q(x)$  is a perfect square, then  $y^2 = q(x)$  will clearly have infinitely many solutions (any  $x$  will work!).
- If  $q(x)$  is not monic, the question is more subtle, since for example,  $y^2 = 3x^2 + 1$  has infinitely many solutions, while  $y^2 = 3x^2 - 1$  has none. In general, in degree 2, any such equation can be converted into a conic and analyzed using the tools we have developed for Pell's equation.

One can also study the more general Diophantine equation  $y^2=q(x)$  where  $q(x)$  is a polynomial with integer coefficients.

- In degree  $>$  3 there are only finitely many integral solutions: this is a result known as Siegel's theorem.
- $\bullet$  Even in the situation where q is monic of degree 3, the situation is quite complicated: such equations  $y^2 = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$  yield elliptic curves, which is the topic of our next chapter.
- A much stronger result was proven by Faltings. A special case of this result implies that if deg  $q \geq 5$  and q is a squarefree polynomial, then in fact there are only finitely many rational solutions to  $y^2 = q(x)$ .

# Miscellaneous Diophantine Equations, XI

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- The idea of this proof is first to exploit the arithmetic of the Gaussian integers  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .
- So suppose  $x, y$  are relatively prime. If  $x, y$  were both odd, then we would have  $z^3\equiv 2$  (mod 4), but 2 is not a cube modulo 4.
- Since x, y are not both even since  $gcd(x, y) = 1$ , we conclude that one is even and the other is odd.
- Now, over  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , factor the equation as  $(x + iy)(x iy) = z^3$ .
- We claim that  $x + iy$  and  $x iy$  are relatively prime: any common divisor would divide both  $2x$  and  $2y$ , hence divide 2. But  $1 + i$  (the only Gaussian prime dividing 2) does not divide  $x + iy$ , since x, y are of opposite parity.

- Thus,  $x + iy$  and  $x iy$  are relatively prime, and their product is a perfect cube.
- By the uniqueness of prime factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , we conclude that  $x + iy$  must be a unit times a cube.
- But since each unit in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is actually a cube, we conclude that  $x + iy = (a + bi)^3$  for some  $a + bi \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ .
- Equating real and imaginary parts yields  $x = a^3 3ab^2$ ,  $y = 3a^2b - b^3$ , and then  $z = (a + bi)(a - bi) = a^2 + b^2$ .

# Miscellaneous Diophantine Equations, XIII

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- $\bullet$  If x, y are not relatively prime, there are additional solutions.
- $\bullet$  To see how these arise, suppose p is an integer prime dividing both x, y. Then  $p^2|z^3$  so  $p|z$ .
- Setting  $x = px'$ ,  $y = py'$ ,  $z = pz'$  then yields  $(x')^{2} + (y')^{2} = p(z')^{2}$ .
- If we again factor over  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  we see that  $p|(x'+iy')(x'-iy')$ .
- If p is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , which occurs whenever  $p \equiv 3$  (mod 4), then in fact  $p$  would have to divide one term (and thus by conjugating it would divide the other) which by repeating the argument would force  $p^3|x, p^3|y$ , and  $p^2|z$ . We could then pull out the factors of  $p$  and solve the reduced equation  $(x/p^3)^2 + (y/p^3)^2 = (z/p^2)^3$ .

- However if p factors in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  as  $\pi\bar{\pi}$ , which occurs for  $p = 2$  and for  $p \equiv 1$  (mod 4) we could then have  $x' + iy' = \pi \cdot w$  with  $x'-iy'=\overline{\pi}\cdot\overline{w}$ , where now  $w\overline{w}=z^3$ .
- These yield additional solutions upon expanding out the real and imaginary parts.
- For example, taking  $p = 5 = (2 + i)(2 i)$ , so that  $\pi = 2 + i$ , yields solutions  $x + iy = 5(2 + i)(a + bi)^3$  so that  $(x, y) =$  $(10a^3 - 15a^2b - 30ab^2 + 5b^3, 5a^3 + 30a^2b - 15ab^2 - 10b^3).$

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- Clearly,  $gcd(x, y) = 1$  since any common divisor would also divide  $y^2 - x^3 = -1$ .
- Now, rearranging the equation into the form  $1 + y^2 = x^3$  and applying the previous result shows that  $1 = a^3 - 3ab^2$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- Factoring gives  $1 = a(a^2 3b^2)$ .
- Clearly,  $a \in \pm 1$ , and then the only solution is easily seen to be  $(a, b) = (1, 0)$ , yielding  $(x, y) = (1, 0)$ .

# Miscellaneous Diophantine Equations, XVI

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- The idea of this result is to use congruence conditions.
- Clearly a and b must be nonnegative, since otherwise the denominators of the rational numbers involved could not be equal.
- Clearly  $b = 0$  does not work, while  $b = 1$  gives  $a = 1$ .
- Now suppose  $b > 2$  and consider the equation modulo 8: we obtain  $7^a \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ .
- $\bullet$  However, there are no solutions to this equation, because  $7<sup>a</sup>$ can only be 7 or 1 modulo 8.
- Therefore, the only solution is  $(a, b) = (1, 1)$ .



We discussed some miscellaneous Diophantine equations and some methods for solving them.

Next lecture: Miscellaneous Diophantine equations (part 2).