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[√D], exploiting inequalities, etc.) and illustrate their applications via example.

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- The idea here is to rearrange the equation and factor.
- Note that *x*, *y* ≥ 2022.
- Clearing denominators yields 2021y + 2021x = xy, so that xy 2021x 2021y = 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<sup>2</sup> as a product of two positive integers.

# Miscellaneous Diophantine Equations, III

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

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- With (x 2021)(y 2021) = 2021<sup>2</sup>, we can see that 2021<sup>2</sup> = 43<sup>2</sup> ⋅ 47<sup>2</sup> has 9 possible factorizations as the product of two positive integers, 5 of which correspond to having x ≥ 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* ≥ 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 ≤ 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<sup>k+1</sup>(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 x is large then this tells us that  $\sqrt{x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 + 2x + 1} \approx x^2 + 2x 3/2$ , 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 ∉ [-10, 6], then we have the strict inequalities (x<sup>2</sup> + x - 2) < y<sup>2</sup> < (x<sup>2</sup> + x - 1)<sup>2</sup>, 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, ..., 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, ±3), (0, ±1), (1, ±3), and (6, ±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) ∈ Z[x] that is not a perfect square.
- Of course, if q(x) is a perfect square, then y<sup>2</sup> = 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<sup>2</sup> = 3x<sup>2</sup> + 1 has infinitely many solutions, while y<sup>2</sup> = 3x<sup>2</sup> 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.
- 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  $q \ge 5$  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<sup>3</sup> ≡ 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 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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- If x, y are not relatively prime, there are additional solutions.
- 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 Z[i], which occurs whenever p ≡ 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<sup>3</sup>|x, p<sup>3</sup>|y, and p<sup>2</sup>|z. We could then pull out the factors of p and solve the reduced equation (x/p<sup>3</sup>)<sup>2</sup> + (y/p<sup>3</sup>)<sup>2</sup> = (z/p<sup>2</sup>)<sup>3</sup>.

- However if p factors in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  as  $\pi\overline{\pi}$ , which occurs for p = 2 and for  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  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<sup>2</sup> − x<sup>3</sup> = −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 ∈ ±1, and then the only solution is easily seen to be (a, b) = (1, 0), yielding (x, y) = (1, 0).

# Miscellaneous Diophantine Equations, XVI

<u>Example</u>: Find all solutions to the Diophantine equation  $7^a - 4^b = 3$ .

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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<sup>a</sup> ≡ 3 (mod 8).
- 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).