# ON GENERALIZATIONS OF A PROBLEM OF DIOPHANTUS 

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#### Abstract

Let $k \geq 2$ be an integer and let $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ be two sets of integers. We give upper bounds for the number of perfect $k$-th powers of the form $a b+1$, with $a$ in $\mathcal{A}$ and $b$ in $\mathcal{B}$. We further investigate several related questions.


## 1. Introduction

The Greek mathematician Diophantus of Alexandria noted that the rational numbers $1 / 16,33 / 16,17 / 4$, and $105 / 16$ have the following property: the product of any two of them increased by 1 is a square of a rational number. Later, Fermat found that the set of four positive integers $\{1,3,8,120\}$ shares the same property. A finite set of $m$ positive integers $a_{1}<\cdots<a_{m}$ such that $a_{i} a_{j}+1$ is a perfect square whenever $1 \leq i<j \leq m$ is commonly called a Diophantine $m$-tuple. A famous conjecture asserts that there does not exist a Diophantine 5 -tuple. This question has been nearly solved in a remarkable paper by Dujella [3], who proved that there does not exist a Diophantine 6tuple and that the elements of any Diophantine 5 -tuple are less than $10^{10^{26}}$. We direct the reader to [3] for further references.

This problem was extended to higher powers by Bugeaud and Dujella [2]. They proved that if $k \geq 3$ is a given integer and $\mathcal{A}$ is a set of positive integers such that $a a^{\prime}+1$ is a perfect $k$-th power for all distinct $a$ and $a^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{A}$, then $\mathcal{A}$ has at most 7 elements. In the present paper, we investigate related questions and, among other results, we provide, for an arbitrary set $\mathcal{A}$ of positive integers, estimates for the number $n_{\mathcal{A}}$ of pairs $\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)$ with $a, a^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{A}$ such that $a a^{\prime}+1$ is a perfect $k$-th power. It is clear that, for all $m$, there exists a set $\mathcal{A}=$ $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{m}\right\}$ such that the $m-1$ integers $a_{1} a_{2}+1, a_{2} a_{3}+1, \ldots, a_{m-1} a_{m}+1$ are perfect $k$-th powers; for such sets $\mathcal{A}$, the number $n_{\mathcal{A}}$ is at least equal to the cardinality of $\mathcal{A}$ minus one. In the present paper, we combine results from

[^0][2] with graph theory (see Theorem 1) to give an upper estimate for $n_{\mathcal{A}}$ that is much sharper than the trivial bound (which is the square of the cardinality of $\mathcal{A}$ ).

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## 2. Results

Throughout this paper, the cardinality of a set $\mathcal{S}$ is denoted by $|\mathcal{S}|$. Given an integer $k \geq 3$ and two finite sets $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$, our first result provides us with an upper bound for the number of perfect $k$-th powers of the form $a b+1$, with $a$ in $\mathcal{A}$ and $b$ in $\mathcal{B}$.

Theorem 1. Let $k \geq 3$ be an integer. Let $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ be two sets of positive integers with $|\mathcal{A}| \geq|\mathcal{B}|$ and set

$$
\mathcal{S}=\{(a, b): a \in \mathcal{A}, b \in \mathcal{B}, a b+1 \text { is a } k \text {-th power }\} .
$$

We then have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |\mathcal{S}| \leq 2 \cdot 6^{1 / 3}|\mathcal{A}| \cdot|\mathcal{B}|^{2 / 3}+4|\mathcal{A}| \leq 7.64|\mathcal{A}| \cdot|\mathcal{B}|^{2 / 3} \quad \text { if } k=3, \\
& |\mathcal{S}| \leq 2 \sqrt{3}|\mathcal{A}| \cdot|\mathcal{B}|^{1 / 2}+2|\mathcal{A}| \leq 5.47|\mathcal{A}| \cdot|\mathcal{B}|^{1 / 2} \quad \text { if } k \geq 4 .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows from Theorem 1 that, if $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ have same cardinality (in particular, if $\mathcal{A}=\mathcal{B})$, then the number of pairs $(a, b)$ with $a$ in $\mathcal{A}$ and $b$ in $\mathcal{B}$ such that $a b+1$ is a $k$-th power for a fixed $k$ is less than $8|\mathcal{A}|^{5 / 3}$ if $k=3$ and is less than $6|\mathcal{A}|^{3 / 2}$ if $k \geq 4$. We further notice that there is no positive integer $a$ such that $a^{2}+1$ is a perfect power, a result due to V. A. Lebesgue [9].

We were unable to treat the case $k=2$ in Theorem 1. However, if the sets $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ are equal, it is possible to slightly improve the trivial estimate.

Theorem 2. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a set of positive integers with $|\mathcal{A}| \geq 6$. Then the set

$$
\left\{\left(a, a^{\prime}\right): a, a^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}, a>a^{\prime}, a a^{\prime}+1 \text { is a square }\right\}
$$

has at most $0.4|\mathcal{A}|^{2}$ elements.
The results from [2] also enable us to improve upon Theorems 1 and 2 of Gyarmati, Sárközy and Stewart [6]. For any integer $k \geq 2$, set

$$
V_{k}=\left\{x^{\ell}: x \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \text {and } 2 \leq \ell \leq k\right\}
$$

Theorem 3. Let $k \geq 2$ be an integer. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a set of positive integers with the property that $a a^{\prime}+1$ is in $V_{k}$ whenever $a$ and $a^{\prime}$ are distinct integers from $\mathcal{A}$. We then have

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\mathcal{A}|<85000\left(\frac{k}{\log k}\right)^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 3 considerably improves Theorem 2 of [6], where the authors obtained the upper bound

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\mathcal{A}|<160\left(\frac{k}{\log k}\right)^{2} \log \log \left(\max _{a \in \mathcal{A}} a\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

instead of (1). We point out that the right-hand side of (2) depends on the maximum of the elements of $\mathcal{A}$, unlike the right-hand side of (1).

The next result follows from Theorem 3 by noticing that if $x^{k}$ is a positive integer in $\{2, \ldots, N\}$, then $k$ is at most equal to $(\log N) /(\log 2)$.

Corollary 1. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a set of positive integers at most equal to $N$. If $a a^{\prime}+1$ is a perfect power for all distinct integers $a$ and $a^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{A}$, then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\mathcal{A}|<177000\left(\frac{\log N}{\log \log N}\right)^{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Corollary 1 slightly refines Theorem 1 of [6], where the upper bound

$$
|\mathcal{A}|<340 \frac{(\log N)^{2}}{\log \log N}
$$

is proved, instead of (3).
In Theorem 3, we make the strong assumption that $a a^{\prime}+1$ is always a power. Our method also provides new results under the weaker assumption that $a a^{\prime}+1$ is a power for many pairs $\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)$ in $\mathcal{A}^{2}$. For any integer $k \geq 3$, set

$$
W_{k}=\left\{x^{\ell}: x \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \text {and } 3 \leq \ell \leq k\right\}
$$

and, if $k \geq 4$, define

$$
X_{k}=\left\{x^{\ell}: x \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \text {and } 4 \leq \ell \leq k\right\}
$$

Theorem 4. Let $k \geq 3$ be an integer. Let $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ be two sets of positive integers. If $a b+1$ is in $W_{k}$ for at least $15(\max \{|\mathcal{A}|,|\mathcal{B}|\})^{5 / 3}$ pairs $(a, b)$ with $a$ in $\mathcal{A}$ and $b$ in $\mathcal{B}$, then

$$
\max \{|\mathcal{A}|,|\mathcal{B}|\}<\left(\frac{k}{\log k}\right)^{6}
$$

If $k \geq 4$ and if there exists $\alpha>3 / 2$ such that $a b+1$ is in $X_{k}$ for at least $(\max \{|\mathcal{A}|,|\mathcal{B}|\})^{\alpha}$ pairs $(a, b)$ with $a$ in $\mathcal{A}$ and $b$ in $\mathcal{B}$, then

$$
\max \{|\mathcal{A}|,|\mathcal{B}|\}<c(\alpha)\left(\frac{k}{\log k}\right)^{2 /(2 \alpha-3)}
$$

for a suitable constant $c(\alpha)$, depending only on $\alpha$.
Erdős [4] and Moser [12] posed the following additive analogue of the problem of Diophantus: Is it true that, for all $m$, there are integers $a_{1}<a_{2}<$ $\cdots<a_{m}$ such that $a_{i}+a_{j}$ is a perfect square for all $i \neq j$ ? Rivat, Sárközy and Stewart [10] proved that, if $\mathcal{A}$ is contained in $\{1,2, \ldots, N\}$ and $a+a^{\prime}$ is a perfect square for all $a, a^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}$ with $a \neq a^{\prime}$, then $|\mathcal{A}| \ll \log N$. We can also investigate what happens if the sums $a+a^{\prime}$ are replaced by other polynomials in $a$ and $a^{\prime}$, and perfect squares by higher powers (see, e.g., Gyarmati, Sárközy and Stewart [7]). First we study the case of $a-a^{\prime}$. For a given integer $k \geq 3$ and an arbitrary set $\mathcal{A}$ of distinct positive integers, the set

$$
\left\{\left(a, a^{\prime}\right): a, a^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}, a>a^{\prime}, a-a^{\prime} \text { is a } k \text {-th power }\right\}
$$

has at most $0.25|\mathcal{A}|^{2}$ elements, since the related graph (the graph whose vertices are the elements of $\mathcal{A}$ and two vertices are joined if, and only if, their difference is a $k$-th power) does not contain a triangle (apply Lemma 3 below). Indeed, otherwise we would have three elements $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}$ in $\mathcal{A}$ such that $a_{1}-a_{2}=x^{k}, a_{2}-a_{3}=y^{k}, a_{3}-a_{1}=z^{k}$ for some integers $x, y, z$, and so $x^{k}+y^{k}+z^{k}=0$. By Fermat's Last Theorem [13] this is not possible.

So far, we have studied problems for which shifted products $a a^{\prime}+1$ are perfect powers for many pairs $\left(a, a^{\prime}\right)$ in $\mathcal{A}^{2}$. Theorem 5 below deals with the polynomial $a^{2}+a^{\prime 2}$.

Theorem 5. There exists a positive integer $N_{0}$ with the following property: For any integer $N \geq N_{0}$ and any set $\mathcal{A}$ contained in $\{1,2, \ldots, N\}$ such that $a^{2}+{a^{\prime}}^{2}$ is a perfect square for all $a, a^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}$, $a \neq a^{\prime}$, we have $|\mathcal{A}| \leq 4(\log N)^{1 / 2}$.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 3 is devoted to auxiliary results taken from [2] and to classical results from graph theory. Proofs of Theorems $1-4$ are given in Section 4, whereas Theorem 5 is established in Section 5.

## 3. Auxiliary results

We shall need the following lemmas, extracted from [2]. Their proofs rest heavily on Baker's theory of linear forms in logarithms.

Lemma 1. Assume that the integers $0<a<b<c<d_{1}<\cdots<d_{m}$ are such that $a d_{i}+1, b d_{i}+1$ and $c d_{i}+1$ are perfect cubes for any $1 \leq i \leq m$. Then we have $m \leq 6$.

Proof. This is [2, Theorem 3].
Lemma 2. Let $k \geq 4$ be an integer. Assume that the integers $0<a<b<$ $c_{1}<\cdots<c_{m}$ are such that ac $c_{i} 1$ and $b c_{i}+1$ are perfect $k$-th powers for any $1 \leq i \leq m$. Then there exists an effectively computable constant $C_{1}(k)$ depending only on $k$, such that $m \leq C_{1}(k)$. More precisely, we may take $C_{1}(4)=3, C_{1}(k)=2$ for $5 \leq k \leq 176, C_{1}(k)=1$ for $177 \leq k$.

Proof. This is [2, Theorems 1 and 2].
We further need two results from graph theory. Throughout this paper, for a graph $G$, we denote by $v(G)$ the number of its vertices and by $e(G)$ the number of its edges.

Lemma 3. Let $G$ be a graph on $n$ vertices having at least

$$
\frac{r-2}{2(r-1)} n^{2}
$$

edges for some positive integer $r \geq 3$. Then $G$ contains a complete subgraph on $r$ edges.

Proof. This is a consequence of Turán's graph theorem (see, for example, [1, p. 294, Theorem 1.1]) combined with the upper bound

$$
\sum_{0 \leq i<j<r-1}\left[\frac{n+i}{r-1}\right]\left[\frac{n+j}{r-1}\right] \leq \frac{r-2}{2(r-1)} n^{2}
$$

which follows from the method of Lagrange multipliers.
Lemma 4. Assume that $G\left(V_{1}, V_{2}\right)$ is a bipartite graph with $\left|V_{1}\right|=n \leq$ $\left|V_{2}\right|=m$, and the vertices are labelled by positive real numbers. Suppose that $G\left(V_{1}, V_{2}\right)$ does not contain a $K_{r, t}$ subgraph $G_{0}$ of the form

with $a_{i}<b_{j}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq r, 1 \leq j \leq t$ (where the $a$ 's belong to $V_{1}$ and the $b$ 's belong to $V_{2}$ or vice versa). Then $G$ has at most

$$
e(G) \leq 2(t-1)^{1 / r} m n^{1-1 / r}+2(r-1) m
$$

edges.
Proof. The proof is very similar to that of the Kőváry-Sós-Turán theorem [8]. For any vertex $x$, set

$$
d_{x}=\mid\{y \in v(G): y<x,(x, y) \text { is an edge in } G\} \mid,
$$

$e_{1}=\sum_{x \in V_{1}} d_{x}$ and $e_{2}=\sum_{x \in V_{2}} d_{x}$. Then we have $e(G)=e_{1}+e_{2}$. First we get an upper bound for $e_{1}$.

Denote by $H$ the number of subgraphs $G_{1}$ of $G$ of the form

with $b \in V_{1}, a_{i} \in V_{2}$ and $b>a_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq r$. Since the graph $G$ does not contain $G_{0}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
H \leq(t-1)\binom{m}{r} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

by Dirichlet's Schubfachprinzip. We further have

$$
H=\sum_{x \in V_{1}}\binom{d_{x}}{r}
$$

and, by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
H \geq n\binom{e_{1} / n}{r} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (4) and (5) yields

$$
e_{1} \leq(t-1)^{1 / r} m n^{1-1 / r}+(r-1) n,
$$

and, similarly, exchanging the roles of $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ in the definition of $G_{1}(b \in$ $V_{2}, a_{i} \in V_{1}$ and $b>a_{i}$ for $\left.1 \leq i \leq r\right)$, we obtain

$$
e_{2} \leq(t-1)^{1 / r} n m^{1-1 / r}+(r-1) m
$$

It then follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
e(G) & =e_{1}+e_{2} \leq 2 \max \left\{(t-1)^{1 / r} m n^{1-1 / r},(t-1)^{1 / r} n m^{1-1 / r}\right\}+2(r-1) m \\
& \leq 2(t-1)^{1 / r} m n^{1-1 / r}+2(r-1) m
\end{aligned}
$$

which completes the proof of the lemma.

## 4. Proofs of Theorems 1-4

Proof of Theorem 1. Let $k \geq 2$ be an integer. Let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ and $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}$ denote the elements of $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$, respectively. We define a graph $G$ on the $n+m$ vertices $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n+m}$ in the following way. For any integers $i$ and $j$ with $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq m$, an edge joins the vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{n+j}$ if, and only if, $a_{i} b_{j}+1$ is a perfect $k$-th power. No edge joins two vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$ if either $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ or $n+1 \leq i, j \leq n+m$.

For $k=3$, Lemma 1 implies that $G$ does not contain a subgraph $G_{0}$ defined by

with $a<b<c<d_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq 7$.
When $k \geq 4$, Lemma 2 implies that the graph $G$ does not contain a subgraph $G_{0}$ defined by

with $a<b<c_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq 4$.
These two remarks combined with Lemma 4 give Theorem 1.
Proof of Theorem 2. Let $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ denote the elements of $\mathcal{A}$. We define a graph $G$ on $n$ vertices $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ as in the proof of Theorem 1. For any integers $i$ and $j$ with $1 \leq i<j \leq n$, an edge joins the vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$ if, and only if, $a_{i} a_{j}+1$ is a square. By Dujella's result [3] recalled in the Introduction, the graph $G$ does not contain $K_{6}$ as a subgraph. Lemma 3 then implies that $G$ has at most $0.4 n^{2}=0.4|\mathcal{A}|^{2}$ edges. This proves Theorem 2.

Proof of Theorem 3. The proof of Theorem 3 is very similar to that of Theorem 2 from [6]. However, instead of introducing the sets $\mathcal{A}_{m}$ as in [6], we use Theorem 1 and we work directly with the complete graph $G$ labelled
by the elements of $\mathcal{A}$. We colour the edge joining the vertices $a$ and $a^{\prime}$ by the smallest integer $\ell$ larger than one for which $a a^{\prime}+1$ is a perfect $\ell$-th power. Thus, each edge is coloured by a prime number. For $i=2,3, \ldots, k$, let $b_{i}$ denote the number of edges of $G$ which are coloured with the integer $i$. Set $n=|\mathcal{A}|$ and assume that $n \geq 85000(k / \log k)^{2}$. By Theorem 2, we have $b_{2} \leq 0.4 n^{2}$. Thus $k \geq 3$ and

$$
b_{3}+\cdots+b_{k} \geq \frac{n(n-1)}{2}-\frac{2 n^{2}}{5}=\frac{n^{2}}{10}-\frac{n}{2}
$$

Furthermore, we infer from Theorem 1 that $b_{3} \leq 7.64 n^{5 / 3}$. Consequently, we have $k \geq 5$. By Corollary 2 of Rosser and Schoenfeld [11], the number of prime numbers up to $k$ is at most $(5 k) /(4 \log k)$. Thus, there exists a prime number $p$ with $5 \leq p \leq k$ such that

$$
b_{p} \geq \frac{4 \log k}{5 k}\left(\frac{n^{2}}{10}-\frac{n}{2}-7.64 n^{5 / 3}\right) \geq 5.5 n^{3 / 2}
$$

since $n>85000(k / \log k)^{2}$. Let $G_{p}$ be the subgraph of $G$ whose vertices are those of $G$ and whose edges are the edges of $G$ coloured by the prime $p$. Theorem 1 implies that $b_{p} \leq 5.47 n^{3 / 2}$, which is the desired contradiction.

Proof of Theorem 4. Let $k \geq 3$ be an integer. Let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ and $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}$ denote the elements of $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$, respectively. For simplicity, we assume that $m \geq n$. We define a graph $G$ on the $n+m$ vertices $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n+m}$ in the following way. No edge joins two vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$ if either $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ or $n+1 \leq i, j \leq n+m$. For any integers $i$ and $j$ with $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq m$, an edge joins the vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{n+j}$ if, and only if, $a_{i} b_{j}+1$ is a perfect cube or a higher power. We colour it with the smallest integer $\ell$ at least equal to 3 such that $a b+1$ is a perfect $\ell$-th power. Observe that each edge is coloured by 4 or by an odd prime number. For any integer $i=3, \ldots, k$, denote by $b_{i}$ the number of edges of $G$ which are coloured by the integer $i$. Denoting by $N$ the number of edges of $G$, we have

$$
b_{3}+\cdots+b_{k}=N
$$

By Theorem 1, we have $b_{3} \leq 7.64 \mathrm{~m}^{5 / 3}$. Since, by assumption, $N$ is greater than $15 \mathrm{~m}^{5 / 3}$, we get

$$
b_{4}+\cdots+b_{k}=N-b_{3} \geq 7.36 m^{5 / 3}
$$

Arguing now as in [6] and in the proof of Theorem 3, we infer that there exists an integer $p$ with $4 \leq p \leq k$ such that

$$
b_{p} \geq\left(\frac{4 \log k}{5 k}\right) 7.36 m^{5 / 3}>5.88 m^{5 / 3} \frac{\log k}{k}
$$

By Theorem 1, we have $b_{p} \leq 5.47 \mathrm{~m}^{3 / 2}$. Hence the desired result follows.

The proof of the second assertion of Theorem 4 follows along the same lines, but in this case we obtain

$$
b_{4}+\cdots+b_{k}=N \geq m^{\alpha}
$$

Thus, there exists an integer $p$ with $4 \leq p \leq k$ such that

$$
b_{p} \geq \frac{4 \log k}{5 k} m^{\alpha}
$$

By Theorem 1 we have $b_{p} \leq 5.47 \mathrm{~m}^{3 / 2}$. Hence the desired result follows.

## 5. Proof of Theorem 5

We begin by proving an auxiliary lemma.
Lemma 5. For any sufficiently large integer $N$ and any set $\mathcal{A}=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}\right.$, $\left.\ldots, a_{n}\right\}$ contained in $\{1,2, \ldots, N\}$, there exists a prime $p$ such that $p \equiv \pm 3$ $(\bmod 8), p$ divides at most $[n / 3]$ numbers from the set $\mathcal{A}$, and $p$ satisfies

$$
p \leq \frac{3}{\log 1.6} \log N
$$

Proof. We argue by contradiction. Suppose that all prime numbers $p \equiv \pm 3$ $(\bmod 8)$ with $p \leq \frac{3}{\log 1.6} \log N$ divide at least $[n / 3]$ numbers from the set $\mathcal{A}$. Each of these primes satisfies

$$
p^{[n / 3]} \mid a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{n}
$$

Hence we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\left(\prod_{\substack{p \leq \frac{3}{\log 1.6} \log N \\ p \equiv \pm 3(\bmod 8)}} p\right)^{[n / 3]} \right\rvert\, a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{n} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows from the prime number theorem for arithmetic progressions of small moduli that for all sufficiently large $x$ we have

$$
1.6^{x}<\prod_{p \leq x, p \equiv \pm 3} p
$$

Thus, by (6), we get

$$
N^{n} \leq\left(1.6^{\frac{3}{\log 1.6} \log N}\right)^{[n / 3]}<\left(\prod_{\substack{p \leq \frac{3}{\log 1.6} \log N \\ p \equiv \pm 3(\bmod 8)}} p\right)^{[n / 3]} \leq a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{n} \leq N^{n}
$$

which is a contradiction.

Let $N$ and $\mathcal{A}$ be as in the statement of Lemma 5 , and let $p$ be a prime which satisfies the conclusion of that lemma. Assume that $a^{2}+{a^{\prime}}^{2}$ is a square for any $a, a^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{A}$ with $a \neq a^{\prime}$. Let us consider the numbers from the set $\mathcal{A}$ which are not divisible by $p$. These are $b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{t}, t \geq\lceil 2 n / 3\rceil$. If $b_{i}^{2} \equiv b_{j}^{2}(\bmod p)$ for $i \neq j$, then $b_{i}^{2}+b_{j}^{2} \equiv 2 b_{i}^{2}$ is a quadratic residue modulo $p$. Therefore 2 is also a quadratic residue modulo $p$. But this contradicts the assumption $p \equiv \pm 3(\bmod 8)$. Thus $b_{1}^{2}, b_{2}^{2}, \ldots, b_{t}^{2}$ are incongruent modulo $p$.

We further need the following lemma.
Lemma 6. Let $p$ be a prime number. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be a set of positive integers coprime with $p$ and whose residues modulo $p$ are all distinct. Assume that for all $b, b^{\prime} \in \mathcal{B}$ with $b \neq b^{\prime}$ the number $b+b^{\prime}$ is a perfect square modulo $p$. Then we have $|\mathcal{B}| \leq p^{1 / 2}+3$.

Proof of Lemma 6. See [5].
We now have all the tools for the proof of Theorem 5. The sum of any two elements of the set $\left\{b_{1}^{2}, b_{2}^{2}, \ldots, b_{t}^{2}\right\}$ is a perfect square, so we get by Lemma 5 and Lemma 6 that

$$
2 n / 3 \leq t \leq p^{1 / 2}+3 \leq\left(\frac{3}{\log 1.6} \log N\right)^{1 / 2}+3
$$

From this we obtain

$$
|\mathcal{A}|=n \leq 4(\log N)^{1 / 2}
$$

for $N$ sufficiently large. This completes the proof of Theorem 5.

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