# 7. The Diophantine Equation $a^{x}+b^{y}=c^{z}$ 

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§1. Introduction. In 1956, Sierpiński [7] showed that the equation $3^{x}+4^{y}=5^{z}$ has the only positive integral solution $(x, y, z)=(2,2,2)$. And it is conjectured that if $a, b, c$ are a Pythagorean triplet, i.e. positive integers satisfying $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}$, then the Diophantine equation $a^{x}+b^{y}=c^{z}$ has the only positive integral solution $(x, y, z)=(2,2,2)$. It has been verified that this conjecture holds for many other Pythagorean triplets (cf. Sierpiński[8], Jeśmanowicz [3], Lu[4], Takakuwa and Asaeda [9], [10], Takakuwa [11]. See also Terai [12]).

As an analogy of this conjecture, we consider the following:
Conjecture. If $a, b, c, p, q, r$ are fixed positive integers satisfying $a^{p}+$ $b^{q}=c^{r}$ with $p, q, r \geq 2$, then the Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{x}+b^{y}=c^{z} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

has the only positive integral solution $(x, y, z)=(p, q, r)$.
We note that $\operatorname{Scott}$ [6] proved that if $a$ and $b$ are relatively prime integers greater than one, and if $c$ is prime, then the equation $a^{x}+b^{y}=c^{z}$ has at most two solutions in positive integers $(x, y, z)$ when $c \neq 2$, and at most one solution ( $x, y, z$ ) when $c=2$, except for two cases (taking $a<b$ ): $(a, b, c)=(3,5,2)$, which has exactly three solutions $(x, y, z)=(1,1,3)$, $(3,1,5),(1,3,7)$ and $(a, b, c)=(3,13,2)$, which has exactly two solutions $(x, y, z)=(1,1,4),(5,1,8)$ (cf. Guy [2], section D9, p. 87).

In this paper, we consider the above Conjecture when $(p, q, r)=(2,2,3)$. We shall prove that the above Conjecture holds for certain $a, b, c$ satisfying $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{3}$ as specified in Theorem in $\S 2$. We shall also give some examples of $a, b, c$ satisfying the conditions of Theorem.
§2. Theorem. We first prepare some lemmas.
Lemma 1. The integral solutions of the equation $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{3}$ with $(a, b)=1$ are given by

$$
a= \pm u\left(u^{2}-3 v^{2}\right), b= \pm v\left(v^{2}-3 u^{2}\right), c=u^{2}+v^{2}
$$

where $u, v$ are integers such that $(u, v)=1$ and $u \not \equiv v(\bmod 2)$.
Proof. If $a \equiv b \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$, then $1+1 \equiv a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{3} \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, which is impossible. So $a \not \equiv b(\bmod 2)$ since $(a, b)=1$. It follows from $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{3}$ that

$$
a+i b=i^{r}(u+i v)^{3}
$$

for some integers $u, v$ such that $(u, v)=1$ and $u \not \equiv v(\bmod 2)$. Since $i=$ $(-i)^{3}$, the $i^{r}$ can be absorbed in $(u+i v)^{3}$. Therefore we have $a= \pm u\left(u^{2}\right.$ $\left.-3 v^{2}\right), b= \pm v\left(v^{2}-3 u^{2}\right)$ and $c=u^{2}+v^{2}$.

Conversely the above $a, b, c$ satisfy $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{3}$ and $(a, b)=1$.

In the following, we consider the case $u=m, v=1$; i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=m\left(m^{2}-3\right), b=3 m^{2}-1, c=m^{2}+1 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

## $m$ is even.

Lemma 2. Let $a, b, c$ be positive integers satisfying (2). If the Diophantine equation (1) has positive integral solutions $(x, y, z)$, then $x$ and $y$ are even.

Proof. We first show that $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)=-1$ and $\left(\frac{c}{b}\right)=1$, where $\left(\frac{*}{*}\right)$ denotes the Jacobi symbol.

Using the quadratic reciprocity law, we have $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)=\left(\frac{m\left(m^{2}-3\right)}{3 m^{2}-1}\right)=$ $\left(\frac{m}{3 m^{2}-1}\right) \cdot\left(\frac{m^{2}-3}{3 m^{2}-1}\right)=\left(\frac{m}{3 m^{2}-1}\right) \cdot\left(\frac{2}{m^{2}-3}\right)$. Note that if $m \equiv 0(\bmod$ $t)$ and $t$ is odd $(>1)$, then $\left(\frac{t}{3 m^{2}-1}\right)=1$. In fact, $3 m^{2}-1 \equiv-1(\bmod$ 4), and $\left(\frac{t}{3 m^{2}-1}\right)=\left(\frac{3 m^{2}-1}{t}\right)=\left(\frac{-1}{t}\right)=1 \quad$ if $t \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, and $\left(\frac{t}{3 m^{2}-1}\right)=-\left(\frac{3 m^{2}-1}{t}\right)=-\left(\frac{-1}{t}\right)=1$ if $t \equiv-1(\bmod 4)$.

Put $m=2^{s} t\left(s \geq 1\right.$ and $t$ is odd). If $s=1$, then $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)=$ $\left(\frac{2 t}{3 m^{2}-1}\right) \cdot\left(\frac{2}{m^{2}-3}\right)=\left(\frac{2}{3 m^{2}-1}\right) \cdot\left(\frac{2}{m^{2}-3}\right)=(-1) \cdot 1=-1 \quad$ since $m^{2} \equiv 4(\bmod 8) . \quad$ If $\quad s \geq 2, \quad$ then $\quad\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)=\left(\frac{2^{s}}{3 m^{2}-1}\right) \cdot\left(\frac{2}{m^{2}-3}\right)=1 \quad$. $(-1)=-1$ since $m^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod 8)$. We also have $\left(\frac{c}{b}\right)=\left(\frac{m^{2}+1}{3 m^{2}-1}\right)=$ $\left(\frac{3 m^{2}-1}{m^{2}+1}\right)=\left(\frac{-4}{m^{2}+1}\right)=1$.

Hence $a^{x}+b^{y}=c^{z}$ implies that $(-1)^{x}=1$, so $x$ is even. Then we have $(-1)^{y} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ since $x \geq 2$. Thus $y$ is even.

Lemma 3. Let $a, b, c$ be positive integers satisfying (2). Suppose that there is a prime $l$ such that $m^{2}-3 \equiv 0(\bmod l)$ and $e \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$, where $e$ is the order of 2 modulo $l$. If the Diophantine equation (1) has positive integral solutions $(x, y, z)$, then $z \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$.

Proof. It follows from (1) and (2) that $8^{y} \equiv 4^{z}(\bmod l)$ since $m^{2} \equiv 3$ $(\bmod l)$.

Hence we have $2^{3 y-2 z} \equiv 1(\bmod l)$, so $3 y-2 z \equiv 0(\bmod e)$. Therefore $z$ $\equiv 0(\bmod 3)$.

Remark. If $m^{2}-3 \equiv 0(\bmod l)$, then $l \equiv 1,11(\bmod 12)$. If $e \equiv 0$ $(\bmod 3)$, then $l \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. Hence we must have $l \equiv 1(\bmod 12)$.

Lemma 4. (a) (Nagell) Let $n$ be an odd integer $\geq 3$, and let $A$ be a square-free integer $\geq 1$. If the class number in the field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{-A})$ is not divisi-
ble by $n$, then the Diophantine equation $A x^{2}+1=y^{n}$ has no solutions in integers $x$ and $y$ for $y$ odd $\geq 1$, apart from $x= \pm 11, y=3$ for $A=2$ and $n=5$ (cf. Nagell [5], Theorem 25).
(b) (Mahler) Let $D$ be a positive integer $>1$ which is not a perfect square, and let $C$ be a square-free divisior of $2 D$ and $|C| \neq 1, D$.

Let $U$ and $V$ be positive integers satisfying the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{2}-D V^{2}=C \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

If all prime factors of $V$ divide $D$, then we have (i) $U=U_{1}, V=V_{1}$ or (ii) $U=$ $\frac{U_{1}^{3}+3 U_{1} V_{1}^{2} D}{|C|}, V=\frac{3 U_{1}^{2} V_{1}+D V_{1}^{3}}{|C|}$, where $U_{1}$ and $V_{1}$ denote the least positive integral solution of (3). The numbers $U$ and $V$ in (ii) are determined by the formula $\frac{U+V \sqrt{D}}{|\sqrt{C}|}=\left[\frac{U_{1}+V_{1} \sqrt{D}}{|\sqrt{C}|}\right]^{3}$ (cf. Nagell [5], Theorem 16).

We use Lemma 4 to show the following:
Lemma 5. Let $a, b, c$ be positive integers satisfying (2) and let $b$ be prime. Then the Diophantine equation

$$
a^{2 X}+b^{2 Y}=c^{3 Z}
$$

has the only positive integral solution $(X, Y, Z)=(1,1,1)$.
Proof. It follows from Lemma 1 that we have

$$
a^{x}= \pm u\left(u^{2}-3 v^{2}\right), b^{Y}= \pm v\left(v^{2}-3 u^{2}\right), c^{z}=u^{2}+v^{2}
$$

where $(u, v)=1, u$ is even and $v$ is odd, since $b$ is odd.
Since $b$ is prime, we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
v= \pm b^{Y}, v^{2}-3 u^{2}= \pm 1 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
v= \pm 1, v^{2}-3 u^{2}= \pm b^{Y} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We first consider (4). Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
3 u^{2} \pm 1=b^{2 Y} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The - sign must be rejected since $-1 \overline{\bar{Y}}\left(b^{Y}\right)^{2}(\bmod 3)$ is impossible. If $Y$ is even, then $3 u^{2}+1=B^{4}$ (with $B=b^{\frac{Y}{2}}$ ) has no solutions. In fact, $3 u^{2}=$ $\left(B^{2}+1\right)\left(B^{2}-1\right)$ implies that $\frac{B^{2}+1}{2}=h^{2}$ and $\frac{B^{2}-1}{2}=3 k^{2}$, where $u=2 h k$. Hence $B^{2}=h^{2}+3 k^{2}$ and $1=h^{2}-3 k^{2}$, so $B^{2}=h^{4}-9 k^{4}$, which has no non-trivial solutions by the method of infinite descent (cf. Dickson [1], p. 634). Therefore $Y$ is odd. So it follows from Lemma 4.(a) that if (6) has positive integral solutions, then $Y=1$. If $Y=1$, then we have $3 u^{2}=$ $(b+1)(b-1)=3 m^{2}\left(3 m^{2}-2\right)$, so $u^{2}=8 m_{1}^{2}\left(6 m_{1}^{2}-1\right)\left(\right.$ with $\left.m=2 m_{1}\right)$, which is impossible.

We next consider (5). Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
3 u^{2}-1=b^{Y} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $Y$ is even, then $-1 \equiv\left(b^{\frac{Y}{2}}\right)^{2}(\bmod 3)$, which is impossible. Hence $Y$ is odd. If $Y=1$, then we have $b=3 u^{2}-1=3 m^{2}-1$, so $u= \pm m, Z=1$ and $X=1$. If $Y>1$, then put $Y=2 n+1(n \geq 1)$. Then from (7) we have

$$
(3 u)^{2}-3 b\left(b^{n}\right)^{2}=3
$$

Since $b=3 m^{2}-1$, the least integral solution of $U^{2}-3 b V^{2}=3$ is given
by $U_{1}=3 m, V_{1}=1$. Hence it follows from Lemma 4.(b) that we have (i) $3 u=3 m, b^{n}=1$ or (ii) $b^{n}=9 m^{2}+b=4 b+3$, which are impossible.

Combining Lemmas 2,3 with Lemma 5 , we obtain the following theorem:
Theorem. Let $a=m\left(m^{2}-3\right), b=3 m^{2}-1, c=m^{2}+1$ with $m$ even and let $b$ be prime. Suppose that there is a prime $l$ such that $m^{2}-3 \equiv 0(\bmod l)$ and $e \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$, where $e$ is the order of 2 modulo $l$. Then the Diophantine equation $a^{x}+b^{y}=c^{z}$ has the only positive integral solution $(x, y, z)=(2,2,3)$.

Finally we give some examples satisfying the conditions of Theorem.
Table. $m(<100), a, b, c, l, e$ satisfying the conditions of Theorem

| $m$ | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ | $l$ | $e$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4 | 52 | 47 | 17 | 13 | 12 |
| 8 | 488 | 191 | 65 | 61 | 60 |
| 14 | 2702 | 587 | 197 | 193 | 96 |
| 22 | 10582 | 1451 | 485 | 13 | 12 |
| 26 | 17498 | 2027 | 677 | 673 | 48 |
| 30 | 8970 | 2699 | 901 | 13 | 12 |
| 34 | 39202 | 3467 | 1157 | 1153 | 288 |
| 48 | 36816 | 6911 | 2305 | 13 | 12 |
| 52 | 140452 | 8111 | 2705 | 37 | 36 |
| 58 | 194938 | 10091 | 3365 | 3361 | 168 |
| 60 | 6540 | 10799 | 3601 | 109 | 36 |
| 74 | 405002 | 16427 | 5477 | 13 | 12 |
| 92 | 778412 | 25391 | 8465 | 8461 | 1692 |
| 96 | 294816 | 27647 | 9217 | 37 | 36 |

It seems that there are infinitely many $m$ satisfying the conditions of Theorem. But it is difficult to show this.

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