

On the Diophantine Equations $(p + a)^x - p^y = z^2$ and $p^x - (p + a)^y = z^2$

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(Received October 1, 2023, Accepted November 6, 2023,
Published November 10, 2023)

Abstract

In this article, we show that $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$ is the unique non-negative integer solution of the Diophantine equations $(p + a)^x - p^y = z^2$ and $p^x - (p + a)^y = z^2$, where a is a positive integer and p is prime with some conditions.

1 Introduction

In recent years, all non-negative integer solutions of the Diophantine equation $a^x - b^y = z^2$ has been extensively investigated, where a and b are fixed positive integers. Some of these can be seen in [4], [6], [12], [16], [17], [18], [19] and [20]. Moreover, many researchers extended solving the equation for a or b being prime. In 2019, Burshtein [3] found all positive integer solutions of the equations $(p + 1)^x - p^y = z^2$ and $p^x - (p + 1)^y = z^2$, where p is prime and $x + y = 2, 3, 4$. In the same year, Burshtein [5] also solved the equation $p^x - p^y = z^2$, when p is prime.

Additionally, in 2020, Elshahed and Kamarulhaili [7] studied the non-negative integer solutions of the equation $(4^n)^x - p^y = z^2$, where p is odd

Key words and phrases: Diophantine equation, order of an integer, primitive root, Legendre symbol

AMS (MOS) Subject Classifications: 11D61.

The corresponding author is Chantana Wannaphan.

ISSN 1814-0432, 2024, <http://ijmcs.future-in-tech.net>

prime and n is a positive integer. Buosi et al. ([1], [2]) found the non-negative integer solutions for the equation $p^x - 2^y = z^2$, where $p = k^2 + n$ is prime, k is a positive integer and $n \in \{2, 4\}$. In 2022, Orosram and Unchai [9] solved the equation $2^{2nx} - p^y = z^2$, where n is a positive integer and p is prime. Tadee [11] showed that $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$ is the unique non-negative integer solution of the equation $(p+6)^x - p^y = z^2$, where p is prime with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{28}$. In 2023, Tadee [13] also studied the equation $3^x - p^y = z^2$, where p is prime. Moreover, Tadee and Laomalaw [14] proved that $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$ is the unique non-negative integer solution of the equation $(p+2)^x - p^y = z^2$, where p is prime with $p \equiv 5 \pmod{24}$.

Motivated by the above papers, we give some conditions such that $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$ is the unique non-negative integer solution of two equations:

$$(p+a)^x - p^y = z^2 \tag{1.1}$$

and

$$p^x - (p+a)^y = z^2, \tag{1.2}$$

where a is a positive integer and p is prime.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we begin by introducing an important and useful theorem, which was proved by Mihăilescu [8] in 2004:

Theorem 2.1. [8] (*Mihăilescu's Theorem*) *The equation $a^x - b^y = 1$ has the unique solution $(a, b, x, y) = (3, 2, 2, 3)$, where a, b, x and y are positive integers with $\min\{a, b, x, y\} > 1$.*

Next, we recall the basic concepts of order of an integer, primitive root and Legendre symbol (See [10]).

Definition 2.2. *Let m be a positive integer. Then the Euler phi function, denoted by $\varphi(m)$, is the cardinality of the set $\{1 < n < m : \gcd(n, m) = 1\}$.*

Definition 2.3. *Let m be a positive integer and let a be any integer relatively prime to m . If h is the least positive integer such that $a^h \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$, then h is called the order of a modulo m and is denoted by $\text{ord}_m a = h$.*

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Definition 2.4. Let m be a positive integer and let a be any integer relatively prime to m . If $\text{ord}_m a = \varphi(m)$, then a is called a primitive root modulo m .

Theorem 2.5. Let j, k be positive integers and $\text{ord}_m a = h$. Then $a^j \equiv a^k \pmod{m}$ if and only if $j \equiv k \pmod{h}$.

Theorem 2.6. Let a be a positive integer and let p be prime with $\gcd(a, p) = 1$. If $\text{ord}_p a = p - 1$, then $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

Definition 2.7. Let a be a positive integer and let p be odd prime. The Legendre symbol, $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$, is defined by

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p} \text{ is solvable} \\ 0 & \text{if } p \mid a \\ -1 & \text{if } x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p} \text{ is not solvable} \end{cases}.$$

Theorem 2.8. [15] Let p and q be distinct odd prime with $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Then

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv q + r^{S_1}q + r^{S_1} \pmod{2q} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv q + r^{S_2}q + r^{S_2} \pmod{2q} \end{cases},$$

where $S_1 \in \{2, 4, 6, \dots, q-1\}$, $S_2 \in \{1, 3, 5, \dots, q-2\}$ and r is a primitive root modulo q .

3 Main Results

Theorem 3.1. Let a be a positive integer with $a \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ and let p be prime with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. If $a \equiv -1, 1 \pmod{p}$, then the Diophantine equation (1.1) has the unique non-negative integer solution; i.e., $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$.

Proof. Let x, y and z be non-negative integers such that the equation (1.1) is true. We consider the following four cases:

Case 1. $x = 0$ and $y = 0$. From (1.1), we get $z = 0$. Then $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$.

Case 2. $x = 0$ and $y \geq 1$. From (1.1), it follows that $1 - p^y = z^2$ and so $z^2 < 0$, a contradiction.

Case 3. $x \geq 1$ and $y = 0$. From (1.1), we have $(p+a)^x - z^2 = 1$. Assume that $x = 1$. Then $p+a-1 = z^2$. Since $a \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, we get $z^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$, which is impossible since $z^2 \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$. Thus $x > 1$. If $z = 0$, then $(p+a)^x = 1$ and so $x = 0$, a contradiction. If $z = 1$,

then $(p+a)^x = 2$. Therefore, $x = 1$ and $p+a = 2$, a contradiction. Thus $z > 1$, which contradicts Theorem 2.1.

Case 4. $x \geq 1$ and $y \geq 1$. From (1.1) and $z^2 \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$, we get $(-1)^x - 1 \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$. Thus $x = 2k$ for some positive integer k . From (1.1), we have $[(p+a)^k - z][(p+a)^k + z] = p^y$. Since p is prime, there exists a non-negative integer u such that $(p+a)^k - z = p^u$ and $(p+a)^k + z = p^{y-u}$. Thus $2(p+a)^k = p^u[p^{y-2u} + 1]$. Assume that $u > 0$. Since p is prime, we have $p \mid a$, which is impossible since $a \equiv -1, 1 \pmod{p}$. Then $u = 0$. It follows that $2(p+a)^k = p^y + 1$ and so $2a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, which is impossible since $a \equiv -1, 1 \pmod{p}$ and $p \neq 3$. \square

By Theorem 3.1, if $a = p + 1$, then we have the following corollary:

Corollary 3.2. *If p is prime with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then the Diophantine equation $(2p+1)^x - p^y = z^2$ has the unique solution $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$, where x, y and z are non-negative integers.*

Theorem 3.3. *Let a and p be distinct odd prime with $a \equiv 1 \pmod{4p}$ and $p \equiv a + r^{S_2}a + r^{S_2} \pmod{2a}$, where $S_2 \in \{1, 3, 5, \dots, a-2\}$ and r is a primitive root modulo a . If $x \neq 1$, then the Diophantine equation (1.1) has the unique non-negative integer solution; i.e., $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$.*

Proof. Let x, y and z be non-negative integers with $x \neq 1$ such that (1.1) is true. We consider the following four cases:

Case 1. $x = 0$ and $y = 0$. From (1.1), we get $z = 0$. Then $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$.

Case 2. $x = 0$ and $y \geq 1$. From (1.1), we obtain $1 - p^y = z^2$ and so $z^2 < 0$, a contradiction.

Case 3. $x > 1$ and $y = 0$. From (1.1), we have $(p+a)^x - z^2 = 1$. If $z = 0$, then we get $(p+a)^x = 1$ and so $x = 0$, a contradiction. If $z = 1$, then $(p+a)^x = 2$. Thus $x = 1$ and $p+a = 2$, a contradiction. Therefore, $z > 1$, which is impossible, by Theorem 2.1.

Case 4. $x > 1$ and $y \geq 1$. Assume that x is odd. From (1.1), it follows that $a^x \equiv z^2 \pmod{p}$, which is impossible since $\left(\frac{a^x}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)^x = (-1)^x = -1$, by Theorem 2.8. Thus $x = 2k$ for some positive integer k . From (1.1), we have $[(p+a)^k - z][(p+a)^k + z] = p^y$. Since p is prime, there exists a non-negative integer u such that $(p+a)^k - z = p^u$ and $(p+a)^k + z = p^{y-u}$. Thus $2(p+a)^k = p^u[p^{y-2u} + 1]$. Assume that $u > 0$. Since p is prime, we have $p \mid a$, which is impossible since $a \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Then $u = 0$. That is $2(p+a)^k = p^y + 1$ and so $2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, which also is impossible. \square

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Theorem 3.4. *Let a be a positive integer with $a \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ and p be prime with $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. If $p+a$ is prime, $\gcd(p, a+1) = 1$ and $\text{ord}_p a = p-1$, then the Diophantine equation (1.2) has the unique non-negative integer solution; i.e. $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$.*

Proof. Let x, y and z be non-negative integers such that the equation (1.2) is true. We consider the following four cases:

Case 1. $x = 0$ and $y = 0$. From (1.2), we get $z = 0$. Then $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$.

Case 2. $x = 0$ and $y \geq 1$. From (1.2), we get $1 - (p+a)^y = z^2$ and so $z^2 < 0$, a contradiction.

Case 3. $x \geq 1$ and $y = 0$. From (1.2), it follows that $p^x - z^2 = 1$. Assume that $x = 1$. Then $p = z^2 + 1$. Since $z^2 \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$, we get $z^2 + 1 \equiv 1, 2 \pmod{4}$ and so $p \equiv 1, 2 \pmod{4}$, a contradiction. Thus $x > 1$. It is easy to see that $z \notin \{0, 1\}$. Therefore $z > 1$, which is impossible, by Theorem 2.1.

Case 4. $x \geq 1$ and $y \geq 1$. From (1.2) and $z^2 \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$, we get $(-1)^x - 1 \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$. Thus $x = 2k$ for some positive integer k . From (1.2), we have $(p^k - z)(p^k + z) = (p+a)^y$. Since $p+a$ is prime, there exists a non-negative integer v such that $p^k - z = (p+a)^v$ and $p^k + z = (p+a)^{y-v}$. Thus $2p^k = (p+a)^v[(p+a)^{y-2v} + 1]$. Since p and $p+a$ are prime, we have $v = 0$. Then $2p^k = (p+a)^y + 1$ and so $a^y \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Assume that y is odd. Therefore, $2p^k = (p+a+1)[(p+a)^{y-1} - (p+a)^{y-2} + \dots + 1]$ and so $p \mid (a+1)$, which is impossible since $\gcd(p, a+1) = 1$. Thus $y = 2h$ for some positive integer h . Therefore, $a^{2h} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Since $\text{ord}_p a = p-1$ and Theorem 2.6, we have $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Then $a^{2h} \equiv a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}$. By Theorem 2.5, we get $2h \equiv \frac{p-1}{2} \pmod{p-1}$. There exists an integer t such that $2h = (p-1)t + \frac{p-1}{2}$. Since $2h$ and $(p-1)t$ are even, we get $\frac{p-1}{2}$ is even and so $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, which is impossible since $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. \square

Acknowledgment

The authors would like to thank the reviewers for their careful reading of this manuscript and their valuable suggestions and corrections. This work was supported by Research and Development Institute, Faculty of Science and Technology, Thepsatri Rajabhat University, Thailand.

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