

## Lecture 5

Theorem (P. de Fermat, 17<sup>th</sup> century) (1)

$$\exists x, y, z \in \mathbb{N} : x^4 + y^4 = z^2 \quad \bullet \text{P. de Fermat} \quad (1607-1665)$$

Proof. Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}$  be a sol.  $\rightsquigarrow (x, y) = (z, t) = 1$   $\rightsquigarrow x$  and  $y$  have different parity. Let  $x \equiv 1(2), y \equiv 0(2)$ .  $\rightsquigarrow y^4 \equiv (z-x^2)(z+x^2)$ .

$$z, x \equiv 1(2), (z, x) = 1 \rightsquigarrow (z-x^2, z+x^2) = 2$$

$$\stackrel{\text{FA}}{\rightsquigarrow} \underbrace{z-x^2}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{or}}} = 2a^4 \quad \& \quad \underbrace{z+x^2}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{or}}} = 8b^4 \quad \text{for some } a, b \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\text{s.t. } (a, b) = 1 \text{ and } a \equiv 1(2).$$

$$\rightsquigarrow (\text{subtracting}) \quad x^2 = 4b^4 - a^4 - \text{not possible} \pmod{4},$$

$$\rightsquigarrow z-x^2 = 8b^4 \quad \& \quad z+x^2 = 2a^4.$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \underbrace{x^2 = a^4 - 4b^4}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \downarrow}} \quad \& \quad z = a^2 + 4b^2.$$

$$4b^4 = (a^2 - x)(a^2 + x), \rightsquigarrow (a^2 - x, a^2 + x) = 2$$

$$\stackrel{\text{FA}}{\rightsquigarrow} a^2 - x = 2c^4 \quad \& \quad a^2 + x = 2d^4 \quad \text{for some}$$

$$\rightsquigarrow (\text{adding}) \quad \boxed{c^4 + d^4 = a^2}, \quad c, d \in \mathbb{N}.$$

But  $a < 2$  — infinite descend, i.e.  $\downarrow$  (contradiction) (2)

## the Pell equation

- John Pell (1611-1695): "an English mathematician and political agent abroad." P

- Euler's error (in attribution of the eq. to)

P. eq. is  $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$  where  $d \neq 1$ ,  $d \neq 2$ . Why?

~~Not~~ Example:  $x^2 - 3y^2 = 1$

$x = \pm 1, y = 0$  ... trivi sol.; for all P.  $x^2 - 3y^2 = 1$

$x = 2, y = 1$  ... kontriv. sol.; also  $x = \pm 2, y = \pm 1$

(important)  $(2+1\sqrt{3})^2 = (2+\sqrt{3})^2 = 7 + 4\sqrt{3}$

gives another solution  $x = 7, y = 4$ . Indeed

$$7^2 - 3 \cdot 4^2 = (7 + 4\sqrt{3})(7 - 4\sqrt{3}) =$$

$$= (2 + \sqrt{3})^2 (2 - \sqrt{3})^2 = (2^2 - 3 \cdot 1^2)^2 = 95 \text{ and } 1^2$$

Similarly,  $(7 + 4\sqrt{3})(2 + \sqrt{3}) = 26 + 15\sqrt{3}$  gives  $x = 26, y = 15$ .

$$\text{Sol. } x = 26, y = 15; 26^2 - 3 \cdot 15^2 = 676 - 3 \cdot 225 = 1.$$

For a given P. equation  $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$  we define (3)  
 $A := \{a+b\sqrt{d} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}, a^2 - db^2 = 1\}$

$A_d^\times$  and  $\subset \mathbb{R}$

$B_d = B := \{a+b\sqrt{d} \in A \mid a+b\sqrt{d} > 0\}$   $\subset \mathbb{A}$

**Theorem** We have the isomorphisms of infinite Abelian groups

~~(This)~~  $(A, 1, \cdot) \cong (\mathbb{Z}, 0, +) \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$

and  $(B, 1, \cdot) \cong (\mathbb{Z}, 0, +)$

where  $\cdot$  is multiplication of real numbers  
 and  $+$  is usual addition of integers.

**Theorem (J. L. Lagrange, 1770)**

Every Pell eq.

has a nontrivial solution, i.e.

$$\forall d \in \mathbb{N}, d \neq 1 \exists a, b \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \dots\} : a^2 - db^2 = 1.$$

**Proof:** An application of Dirichlet's thm.  
 We apply it on  $\sqrt{d} \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ .

$\Rightarrow \exists \infty$  many  $\frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q}$  s.t.

D-fractions.

(4)

$$0 < \frac{p}{q} < \sqrt{d} + 1 \Leftrightarrow \left| \sqrt{d} - \frac{p}{q} \right| < \frac{1}{q^2}.$$

$$|p^2 - dq^2| = q^2 \left| \sqrt{d} - \frac{p}{q} \right| \cdot \left| \sqrt{d} + \frac{p}{q} \right| <$$

$$< q^2 \cdot \frac{1}{q^2} (\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{d} + 1) = 2\sqrt{d} + 1 - \text{constant}$$

independent of  $p$  and  $q$ . // Pigeon-hole principle, Saus-fach Prinzip, Divisivitätprinzip:

$\exists c \in \mathbb{Z}, c \neq 0$  (and  $|c| < 2\sqrt{d} + 1$ )

$\exists p_i, q_i \in \mathbb{N}, i=1, 2$  s.t.

$$p_1^2 - dq_1^2 = p_2^2 - dq_2^2 = c$$

and  $p_1 \equiv p_2 \pmod{c}$  and  $\frac{p_1}{q_1} \neq \frac{p_2}{q_2}$ .

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$  be given by

$$a+b\sqrt{d} = \frac{p_1+q_1\sqrt{d}}{p_2+q_2\sqrt{d}} = \frac{(p_1+q_1\sqrt{d})(p_2-q_2\sqrt{d})}{(p_2+q_2\sqrt{d})(p_2-q_2\sqrt{d})} = \\ = \frac{\frac{-11-}{c}}{=}$$

$$= \underbrace{\frac{P_1 P_2 - d q_1 q_2}{c}}_{\in \mathbb{Z}} + \underbrace{\frac{P_2 q_1 - P_1 q_2}{c} \sqrt{d}}_{\in \mathbb{Z}}, \quad (5)$$

$\in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\in \mathbb{Z}$ , by the above congruences. Now

$$a^2 - d b^2 = (a + b\sqrt{d})(a - b\sqrt{d})$$

$$= \frac{P_1 + q_1 \sqrt{d}}{P_2 + q_2 \sqrt{d}} \cdot \frac{P_1 - q_1 \sqrt{d}}{P_2 - q_2 \sqrt{d}} \quad \text{because...}$$

$$= \frac{P_1^2 - \cancel{q_1^2 d} q_1^2}{P_2^2 - d q_2^2} = \frac{C}{C} = 1. \text{ So } x=a, y=b$$

is a sol. of the P. equation, but is it working?

$$\text{trial 2. } b=0 \Leftrightarrow P_2 q_1 - P_1 q_2 = 0 \quad (\uparrow) \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{P_2}{q_2} = \frac{P_1}{q_1} \text{ which was forbidden. } \square$$

• Joseph-Louis Lagrange (1736-1813)

With the help of the previous Lagrange's theorem we prove the thm. on groups.

Proof To show that  $A = (\mathbb{A}, \cdot, \circ)$  is an Ab-group.  
It suffices to show that  $x, y \in A \Rightarrow xy \in A$  and  $x \in A \Rightarrow \frac{1}{x} \in A$ .

$$a+b\sqrt{d}, c+d\sqrt{d} \in A \rightsquigarrow \bar{x} = d\bar{B} = (a\bar{b} + b\bar{c}) + (a\bar{c} + b\bar{b})\sqrt{d}$$

$$\bar{d} = a-b\sqrt{d}, \bar{b} = c-d\sqrt{d} \quad \bar{x}\bar{y} = \bar{d}\bar{B}\bar{B} = \bar{d}\bar{B}\bar{B}\bar{B} = \bar{d}\bar{B}\bar{B}\bar{B}$$

$$\frac{1}{\bar{d}} = \frac{1}{a+b\sqrt{d}} = \frac{a-b\sqrt{d}}{a^2-b^2d} = \frac{a-b\sqrt{d}}{1} = 1$$

$\Rightarrow$  also  $B = (\mathbb{B}, \cdot, \circ)$  is an Ab-group.

$$\varepsilon := \min(\{\alpha \in \mathbb{A} \mid \alpha > 1\}) \text{ why } \varepsilon \text{ exists?}$$

$\neq 0$  by Lagrange's thm.

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= a+b\sqrt{d} > 1 \\ \alpha' &= a'+b'\sqrt{d} > 1 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} \exists a', b', b' \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } \alpha < \alpha' \Leftrightarrow \\ \Leftrightarrow a < a' \Leftrightarrow b < b'. \end{aligned}$$

We claim that  $B = \{\varepsilon^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ , in fact  $n \mapsto \varepsilon^n$  is a group isomorphism between  $(\mathbb{Z}, 0, +)$  and  $(B, \cdot, \circ)$ . Let  $\alpha \in B$ , wlog  $\alpha > 1$  (else take  $\frac{1}{\alpha}$ ), and let  $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$  be minimum with

$$\varepsilon^m \leq \alpha < \varepsilon^{m+1}. \text{ If}$$

$$\text{is } <, \text{ then } \varepsilon^m < \alpha < \varepsilon^{m+1},$$

so  $1 < \beta := \alpha \varepsilon^{-m} < \varepsilon$ , but  $\beta \in B$  contradicts the choice of  $\varepsilon$ . So  $(B, \cdot, \circ) \cong (\mathbb{Z}, 0, +)$ . As for  $A$ , the  $\oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$  is just the sign flipping  $\pm \alpha$ ,  $\alpha \in B$ .  $\square$

Generalized Pell eqn. is  $x^2 - dy^2 = m$  where (7)  
 $d \in \mathbb{N}, d \neq 1$  and  $m \in \mathbb{Q}, m \neq 0$  are parameters.  
(For  $m=0$  exactly 1 sol.  $x=y=0$ )

**Theorem** The gen. Pell equation has either no solution  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  or infinitely many.

Proof- Exercise for you (might be an exam question...) ◻

Importance of the Pell eqn.: 

- Can be explicitly solved
- Other DE reduced to it
- Relation to the 10<sup>th</sup> fib p

Exercise for you: how to determine the generators  $\epsilon$  by an algorithm.

Here is a table of  $\epsilon$ , [Wikipedia article on Pell eqn.](#)

Thanks yo!

