# Solving parametrized systems of Pell equations 

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## To my long time friend Pierre Samuel, octogenarian in love with Diophantus

1. Introduction. Let $F>1$ be a square-free integer. In his papers [3]-[6] Ljunggren studied the quartic equation

$$
x^{4}-F y^{2}=1
$$

(and similar equations) and proved that the equation has at most two solutions $(x, y)$ in positive integers. He also gave an algorithm to find the solutions.

When $F=p$ is a prime number, Ljunggren showed that

$$
x^{4}-p y^{2}=1
$$

has no solution in positive integers when $p \neq 5,29$. Moreover if $p=5$ the only solution is $(3,4)$ and if $p=29$ the only solution is $(99,1820)$. In [12] Samuel gave another proof for $p=5$.

The proof of this result leads to the study of the systems

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{2}-2 y^{2}= \pm 1 \\
x^{2}-2 p y^{2}=\mp 1
\end{array}\right.
$$

In our paper we shall need binary recurring sequences. Let $P>0, Q \neq 0$ be integers such that $D=P^{2}-4 Q>0$. We shall consider the Lucas sequences $\left(U_{n}\right)_{n},\left(V_{n}\right)_{n}$ with parameters $(P, Q)$ :

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
U_{0}=0, \quad U_{1}=1, & V_{0}=2, \quad V_{1}=P \\
U_{n}=P U_{n-1}-Q U_{n-2} \text { for } n \geq 2, & V_{n}=P V_{n-1}-Q V_{n-2} \text { for } n \geq 2 \\
U_{n}=\left(-1 / Q^{n}\right) U_{-n} \text { for } n<0 ; & V_{n}=\left(1 / Q^{n}\right) V_{-n} \text { for } n<0
\end{array}
$$

[^0]As is easily seen, the above recurrences still hold for any integer $n$. When needed, we shall use the notation $U_{n}=U_{n}(P, Q), V_{n}=V_{n}(P, Q)$.

Given the square-free integer $F>1$, let $\varepsilon=c+d \sqrt{F}$ be the fundamental unit of the $\operatorname{ring} \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{F}]$, so $c>0, d>0$. As is well known, $c$ and $d$ are effectively bounded in terms of $F$. Let $P=2 c, Q=c^{2}-D d^{2}= \pm 1$, let $U_{n}=U_{n}(2 c, Q), V_{n}=V_{n}(2 c, Q)$. Then

$$
\varepsilon^{n}=\frac{V_{n}}{2}+d U_{n} \sqrt{F}
$$

As is easily seen, $V_{n}$ is even for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{-}$and $V_{2 n} \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $s \geq 1$ we define

$$
k_{s}=\frac{1}{4}\left(2+Q^{s} V_{2 s}\right), \quad h_{s}=\frac{1}{4}\left(2-Q^{s} V_{2 s}\right),
$$

so $h_{s}, k_{s} \neq 0,1$ and $k_{s}+h_{s}=1$.
(1.1) Theorem. Let $F>1, G \geq 1$ be square-free integers, let $s \geq 1$, $f \neq 0$ and $g=f k_{s}$ or $g=f h_{s}$. Then there exists an integer $N>0$, effectively computable in terms of $F, G, f$ and $s$, such that if $p=1$ or $p$ is a prime number, if $x \geq 0, y \geq 0, z>0$ are integers such that

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{2}-F y^{2}=f \\
x^{2}-p G z^{2}=g
\end{array}\right.
$$

then $x, y, z, p<N$.

## 2. Preliminaries

A. Binary recurring sequences. Let $P>0, Q \neq 0$ with $D=P^{2}-4 Q>0$. We gather some properties of $U_{n}=U_{n}(P, Q)$ and $V_{n}=V_{n}(P, Q)$ which will be needed in this paper.

Let $\alpha, \beta$ be the roots of $X^{2}-P X+Q$, so

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha & =\frac{P+\sqrt{D}}{2}, \quad \beta=\frac{P-\sqrt{D}}{2} \\
\alpha+\beta & =P, \quad \alpha \beta=Q, \quad \alpha-\beta=\sqrt{D} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ :

$$
U_{n}=\frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha-\beta}, \quad V_{n}=\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n}
$$

If $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
2 U_{m+n}=U_{m} V_{n}+U_{n} V_{m} \\
U_{m+n}=U_{m} V_{n}-Q^{n} U_{m-n}, \quad V_{m+n}=V_{m} V_{n}-Q^{n} V_{m-n} \\
U_{2 m}=U_{m} V_{m}, \quad V_{2 m}=V_{m}^{2}-2 Q^{m} \\
V_{m}^{2}-D U_{m}^{2}=4 Q^{m}
\end{gathered}
$$

The following lemma will be required:
(2.1) Lemma. For every $s \geq 1$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have
(a) $V_{n}^{2}-V_{n-s} V_{n+s}=Q^{n-s}\left(2 Q^{s}-V_{2 s}\right)$,
(b) $V_{n}^{2}-D U_{n-s} U_{n+s}=Q^{n-s}\left(2 Q^{s}+V_{2 s}\right)$,
(c) $D\left(U_{n}^{2}-U_{n-s} U_{n+s}\right)=Q^{n-s}\left(-2 Q^{s}+V_{2 s}\right)$,
(d) $D U_{n}^{2}-V_{n-s} V_{n+s}=-Q^{n-s}\left(2 Q^{s}+V_{2 s}\right)$.

Proof. We just prove (a):

$$
\begin{aligned}
V_{n}^{2}-V_{n-s} V_{n+s}= & \left(\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n}\right)^{2}-\left(\alpha^{n-s}+\beta^{n-s}\right)\left(\alpha^{n+s}+\beta^{n+s}\right) \\
= & \alpha^{2 n}+\beta^{2 n}+2(\alpha \beta)^{n} \\
& -\left[\alpha^{2 n}+\beta^{2 n}-(\alpha \beta)^{n-s}\left(\alpha^{2 s}+\beta^{2 s}\right)\right] \\
= & Q^{n-s}\left(2 Q^{s}-V_{2 s}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we assume $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=1$. If $m, n \geq 1$ and $d=\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{m}, U_{n}\right)=U_{d}, \\
& \operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{m}, V_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}V_{d} & \text { if } m / d \text { and } n / d \text { are odd, } \\
1 \text { or } 2 & \text { otherwise },\end{cases} \\
& \operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{m}, V_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}V_{d} & \text { if } m / d \text { is even }, \\
1 \text { or } 2 & \text { otherwise },\end{cases} \\
& \operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{n}, Q\right)=1, \\
& \operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{n}, Q\right)=1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both equal to 0 , let

$$
W_{n}=a U_{n}+b V_{n} \quad \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

Then

$$
W_{n}=P W_{n-1}-Q W_{n-2} \quad \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

We also have

$$
W_{m+n}=W_{m} V_{n}-Q^{n} W_{m-n} \quad \text { for all } m, n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

If $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=1$ then

$$
\operatorname{gcd}\left(W_{n}, Q\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(W_{1}, Q\right) \quad \text { for all } n \geq 1
$$

The following lemma will also be required:
(2.2) Lemma. Assume that $W_{n} \neq 0$ for all $n \geq 1$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(W_{1}, Q\right)=1$. If $t \geq 1$ then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(W_{n}, W_{n+t}\right)$ divides $W_{1} W_{2} \cdots W_{t}$ for all $n \geq 1$.

Proof. The lemma is trivial for $n=1, \ldots, t$. Let $t \leq n$ and assume the lemma true for $1,2, \ldots, n$. Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}\left(W_{n+1}, W_{n+1+t}\right)$. We have $W_{n+1+t}=$ $W_{n+1} V_{t}-Q^{t} W_{n+1-t}$. Since $1 \leq n+1-t \leq n$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(W_{n+1}, Q\right)=$ $\operatorname{gcd}\left(W_{1}, Q\right)=1$, it follows that $d$ divides $\operatorname{gcd}\left(W_{n+1-t}, W_{n+1}\right)$, which, by induction, divides $W_{1} W_{2} \cdots W_{t}$, thus concluding the proof.

We shall need the following theorem (see Shorey \& Tijdeman [14], Shorey \& Stewart [13], Pethő [9]), which we quote in the special case needed in this paper.

With the preceding notations:
(2.3) Theorem. Assume that $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=1$ and $D \neq 0$. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both equal to 0 , let $W_{n}=a U_{n}+b V_{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let $A>0$ be a square-free integer. Then there exists $N>0$, effectively computable in terms of $P, Q, a, b, A$ such that if $n \geq 0$ and $W_{n}=A \square$ (where $\square$ denotes a non-zero integer which is a square) then $n<N$.

The proof of this theorem involves inequalities of Baker for linear forms in logarithms and the constant $N$ provided by the proof is usually very large.

For special sequences, the explicit determination of squares and doublesquares has been achieved. We quote a few results for sequences with parameters $P$ even and $Q= \pm 1$.

For $P=2, Q=1, U_{n}$ and $V_{n}$ are the Pell numbers and we have:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{llrl}
\left\{n \mid U_{n}=\square\right\} & =\{1,7,-1,-7\}, & & \left\{n \mid U_{n}=2 \square\right\} \\
\left\{n \mid V_{n}=\square\right\} & =\emptyset, & & \left\{n \mid V_{n}=2 \square\right\}
\end{array}\right)=\{0,1\} .
$$

The above results are due to Ljunggren [5]; the determination of the square Pell numbers required deep arguments.

Ljunggren [5] and Cohn [1] studied the sequences of numbers $U_{n}(4,-1)$ and $V_{n}(4,-1)$ :

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left\{n \mid U_{n}(4,-1)=\square\right\}=\{1,2,-1\}, & \left\{n \mid U_{n}(4,-1)=2 \square\right\}=\{4\} \\
\left\{n \mid V_{n}(4,-1)=\square\right\}=\{1\}, & \left\{n \mid V_{n}(4,-1)=2 \square\right\}=\{0,2,-2\}
\end{array}
$$

In [1] Cohn obtained more results about squares and double squares in the sequences $U_{n}(2 c, \pm 1)$ and $V_{n}(2 c, \pm 1)$, for special values of $2 c$.

The reader may obtain more information about recurring sequences in Ribenboim [11] (see Chapter 1 entitled "The Fibonacci Numbers and the Arctic Ocean"). More specifically about Pell numbers, see Ribenboim [10].
B. Pell equations. We keep the same notations: $F>1, f \neq 0, \varepsilon=$ $c+d \sqrt{F}$ is the fundamental unit of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{F}]$, so $c \geq 1, d \geq 1 ; P=2 c$, $Q=c^{2}-F d^{2}= \pm 1, U_{n}=U_{n}(2 c, Q), V_{n}=V_{n}(2 c, Q)$. We consider solutions of $x^{2}-F y^{2}=f$.

Two solutions $(x, y)$ and $\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$ of the Pell equation are said to be equivalent if there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$
Q^{n}=1 \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{x+y \sqrt{F}}{x^{\prime}+y^{\prime} \sqrt{F}}=\varepsilon^{n}
$$

If $Q=1$ let $c^{\prime}+d^{\prime} \sqrt{F}=c+d \sqrt{F}=\varepsilon$. If $Q=-1$ let

$$
c^{\prime}+d^{\prime} \sqrt{F}=\left(c^{2}+d^{2} F\right)+2 c d \sqrt{F}=\varepsilon^{2}
$$

We note that if $c=1$ then $Q=-1$ so $c^{\prime}>1$.
A solution ( $a, b$ ) with $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$ is called a fundamental solution if the following inequalities are satisfied:

$$
0 \leq a \leq \sqrt{\frac{\left(c^{\prime}+\delta\right)|f|}{2}}, \quad 0 \leq b \leq d^{\prime} \sqrt{\frac{|f|}{2\left(c^{\prime}+\delta\right)}}
$$

where $\delta=|f| / f$.
Nagell proved (see [7] and [8]):
(2.4) Theorem. Every solution $(x, y)$ with $x \geq 0, y \geq 0$ of $x^{2}-F y^{2}=f$ is equivalent to a fundamental solution.
3. Proof of Theorem (1.1). We divide the proof into three parts.
$1^{\circ}$ ) Let $S$ be the set of all $(x, y, z, p)$ such that $x \geq 0, y \geq 0, z>0, p=1$ or $p$ is a prime number and

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{2}-F y^{2}=f, \\
x^{2}-p G z^{2}=f k_{s} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

[The proof when $g=f h_{s}$ is similar and will not be given.]
Let $T$ be the set of all $(x, y)$ such that $x \geq 0, y \geq 0, x^{2}-F y^{2}=f$ and there exists $(z, p)$ such that $(x, y, z, p) \in S$. Clearly, it suffices to show that the set $T$ is effectively computable.

By the theorem of Nagell (2.4) if the equation $x^{2}-F y^{2}=f$ has solutions, then it has a non-empty effectively computable set of fundamental solutions and every solution $(x, y)$, with $x \geq 0, y \geq 0$ is given by a relation $x+y \sqrt{F}=$ $(a+b \sqrt{F}) \varepsilon^{n}$, where $a \geq 0, b \geq 0,(a, b)$ is a fundamental solution, $\varepsilon=c+d \sqrt{F}$ is the fundamental unit of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{F}], Q=c^{2}-d^{2} F, Q^{n}=1$.

We fix an arbitrary fundamental solution $(a, b)$ and write

$$
x_{n}+y_{n} \sqrt{F}=(a+b \sqrt{F}) \varepsilon^{n}=(a+b \sqrt{F})\left(\frac{V_{n}}{2}+d U_{n} \sqrt{F}\right),
$$

where $U_{n}=U_{n}(2 c, Q)$ and $V_{n}=V_{n}(2 c, Q)$. So

$$
x_{n}=a \frac{V_{n}}{2}+b d F U_{n}, \quad y_{n}=a d U_{n}+b \frac{V_{n}}{2} .
$$

It suffices to show that the set $R=\left\{n>s \mid\left(x_{n}, y_{n}\right) \in T\right\}$ is effectively bounded.
$2^{\circ}$ ) We show that if $Q^{n}=1$ and $s \geq 1$ then

$$
x_{n}^{2}-F y_{n-s} y_{n+s}=f k_{s} .
$$

Indeed:

$$
x_{n}^{2}=\left(a \frac{V_{n}}{2}+b d F U_{n}\right)^{2}=a^{2} \frac{V_{n}^{2}}{4}+\frac{b^{2} F}{4} D U_{n}^{2}+a b d F U_{2 n} .
$$

Next

$$
\begin{aligned}
F y_{n-s} y_{n+s} & =F\left(b \frac{V_{n-s}}{2}+a d U_{n-s}\right)\left(b \frac{V_{n+s}}{2}+a d U_{n+s}\right) \\
& =\frac{b^{2} F}{4} V_{n-s} V_{n+s}+a b d F U_{2 n}+a^{2} d^{2} F U_{n-s} U_{n+s} \\
& =\frac{b^{2} F}{4} V_{n-s} V_{n+s}+a b d F U_{2 n}+\frac{a^{2}}{4} D U_{n-s} U_{n+s}
\end{aligned}
$$

In the above calculation we used identities indicated in Section 2. It follows that

$$
x_{n}^{2}-F y_{n-s} y_{n+s}=\frac{a^{2}}{4}\left(V_{n}^{2}-D U_{n-s} U_{n+s}\right)+\frac{b^{2} F}{4}\left(D U_{n}^{2}-V_{n-s} V_{n+s}\right)
$$

By Lemma (2.1) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{n}^{2}-F y_{n-s} y_{n+s} & =\frac{a^{2}}{4} Q^{n s}\left(2 Q^{s}+V_{2 s}\right)-\frac{b^{2} F}{4} Q^{n s}\left(2 Q^{s}+V_{2 s}\right) \\
& =\frac{f}{4}\left(2+Q^{s} V_{2 s}\right)=f k_{s}
\end{aligned}
$$

because $Q^{n}=1$. [For the proof of the theorem when $g=f h_{s}$ we need the relation

$$
x_{n}^{2}-x_{n-s} x_{n+s}=f h_{s},
$$

which is established in a similar way.]
$3^{\circ}$ ) By Lemma (2.2) for every $n>s, \operatorname{gcd}\left(y_{n-s}, y_{n+s}\right)$ divides $y_{1} y_{2} \cdots y_{2 s}$; we note that the integer $y_{1} y_{2} \cdots y_{2 s}$ is effectively computable in terms of $F$, $s$ and the chosen fundamental solution $(a, b)$. For every positive integer $e$ dividing $y_{1} y_{2} \cdots y_{2 s}$, let

$$
R_{e}=\left\{n \in R \mid \operatorname{gcd}\left(y_{n-s}, y_{n+s}\right)=e\right\}
$$

Let $n \in R_{e}$, so from $F y_{n-s} y_{n+s}=p G z^{2}$ it follows that

$$
e^{2} F^{2} \frac{y_{n-s}}{e} \cdot \frac{y_{n+s}}{e}=p F G \square=p^{\delta} H \square
$$

where $\delta=0$ or $1, p \nmid H, H$ is square-free and $H \mid F G$. Hence

$$
\frac{y_{n-s}}{e} \cdot \frac{y_{n+s}}{e}=p^{\delta} H \square
$$

Let $\mathcal{H}=\left\{\left(H^{\prime}, H^{\prime \prime}\right) \mid H^{\prime} H^{\prime \prime}\right.$ is square-free, $H^{\prime} H^{\prime \prime} \mid F G$ and $\left.\operatorname{gcd}\left(H^{\prime}, H^{\prime \prime}\right)=1\right\}$, so $\mathcal{H}$ is effectively computable. For each $\left(H^{\prime}, H^{\prime \prime}\right)$ let $R_{e,\left(H^{\prime}, H^{\prime \prime}\right)}^{\prime}$ be the set of all $n \in R_{e}$ such that

$$
\frac{y_{n-s}}{e}=p^{\delta} H^{\prime} \square, \quad \frac{y_{n+s}}{e}=H^{\prime \prime} \square
$$

By Theorem (2.3) the set $\left\{n+s \mid n \in R_{e,\left(H^{\prime}, H^{\prime \prime}\right)}^{\prime}\right\}$, hence also $R_{e,\left(H^{\prime}, H^{\prime \prime}\right)}^{\prime}$ is effectively bounded. Similarly, let $R_{e,\left(H^{\prime}, H^{\prime \prime}\right)}^{\prime \prime}$ be the set of $n \in R_{e}$ such
that

$$
\frac{y_{n-s}}{e}=H^{\prime} \square, \quad \frac{y_{n+s}}{e}=p^{\delta} H^{\prime \prime} \square .
$$

Then again $R_{e,\left(H^{\prime}, H^{\prime \prime}\right)}^{\prime \prime}$ is effectively bounded. Since this holds for each $\left(H^{\prime}, H^{\prime \prime}\right) \in \mathcal{H}$ the set $R_{e}$ is effectively bounded for each $e \mid y_{1} y_{2} \cdots y_{2 s}$. Hence $R$ is effectively bounded and this concludes the proof of the theorem.
4. A numerical example. We give an example where our method is applied with success to determine explicitly all solutions. To begin we prove a lemma.
(4.1) Lemma. Let $U_{n}, V_{n}$ be the Pell numbers for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then
(a) $\left\{n \neq 0 \mid U_{n}=3 \square\right\}=\{4\},\left\{n \mid V_{n}=3 \square\right\}=\emptyset$,
(b) $\left\{n \neq 0 \mid U_{n}=6 \square\right\}=\emptyset$.

Proof. (a) Let $U_{n}=3 \square$. By considering the sequence $U_{n}$ modulo 3 we see that 4 divides $n$. Let $n=4 h$, so $U_{n}=U_{2 h} V_{2 h}$, with $\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{2 h}, V_{2 h}\right)=2$. Then either $V_{2 h}=2 \square$ or $U_{2 h}=2 \square$. So $h=1$ and $n=4$. If $V_{n}=3 \square$, since $2 \mid V_{n}$ but $4 \nmid V_{n}$ this is impossible.
(b) If $U_{n}=6 \square$ then $n=4 h$ and we have the following cases:

$$
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
U_{2 h}=3 \square & 6 \square & \square & 2 \square, \\
V_{2 h}=2 \square & \square & 6 \square & 3 \square .
\end{array}
$$

From (a) and the knowledge of $m$ such that $U_{m}=\square, 2 \square, V_{m}=\square, 2 \square$ we conclude that $n=0$.
(4.2) Example. If $p$ is a prime, or $p=1$, if $x, y, z$ are positive integers and

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{2}-2 y^{2}=1, \\
x^{2}-p z^{2}=9,
\end{array}\right.
$$

then $(x, y, z, p)=(99,70,24,17)$.
Proof. $\varepsilon=1+\sqrt{2}$ is the fundamental unit of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$, let $P=2, Q=-1$, $U_{n}, V_{n}$ are the Pell numbers, $k_{2}=9$, so the method is applicable. $\varepsilon^{2}=$ $3+2 \sqrt{2}$ is the fundamental solution of the first equation, $x_{n}+y_{n} \sqrt{2}=$ $\varepsilon^{n+2}=V_{n+2} / 2+U_{n+2} \sqrt{2}$ and we work with $n$ even since $Q=-1$. We have:

$$
2 y_{n-2} y_{n+2}=p z^{2} \neq 0,
$$

that is, $U_{n} U_{n+4}=2 p \square \neq 0$.
(a) $p=2$, so $U_{n} U_{n+4}=\square$. If $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{n}, U_{n+4}\right)=U_{2}$ $=2$, so $U_{n}=2 \square$ and $U_{n+4}=2 \square$, which is impossible. If $n \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{n}, U_{n+4}\right)=U_{4}=12$, hence $U_{n}=3 \square, U_{n+4}=3 \square$, which is impossible by (4.1).
(b) $p \neq 2$, so $U_{n} U_{n+4}=2 p \square$. If $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ then $U_{n} \equiv U_{n+4} \equiv 2$ $(\bmod 4)$ so the 2 -adic value of $U_{n} U_{n+4}$ is even, hence $U_{n} U_{n+4}=2 p \square$ is impossible.

Now let $n \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, so the following cases are possible:

$$
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
U_{n}=3 \square & 6 \square & 3 p \square & 6 p \square, \\
U_{n+4}=\underset{(1)}{6 p \square} & 3 p \square & 6 \square & 3 \square \\
(2) & 3 \square \\
(3)
\end{array}
$$

(1) It was seen that $n=4$, hence $U_{8}=408=6 \times 17 \square$ so $p=17$, $x_{4}=V_{6} / 2=99, y_{4}=U_{6}=70$ and this gives the solution $(x, y, z, p)=$ (99, 70, 24, 17).
(4) $n+4=4, n=0$ which is impossible, since then $z=0$.
(2) and (3) are impossible as it was shown in Lemma (4.1).

As an exercise the reader may wish to show that if $x, y, z$ are positive, if $p$ is a prime number and if

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{2}-3 y^{2}=-3 \\
x^{2}-3 p z^{2}=-12
\end{array}\right.
$$

then $(x, y, z, p)=(3,2,1,7)$.
The reader may employ the same method to prove the original result of Ljunggren mentioned in the Introduction: if $x, y$ are positive integers, if $p$ is a prime number and $x^{4}-p y^{2}=1$ then $(x, y, p)=(3,4,5)$ or $(99,1820,29)$.

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