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## Discussion on Solutions of a Class of Cubic Diophantine Equations

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**Abstract** This paper uses the basic theory of Pell equation to discuss the following contents: hypothesizing  $p = 3r^2 - 2$  or  $3p = r^2 + 2$ , and  $p$  is odd prime in the  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ ,  $r$  is positive integer, the cubic Diophantine equation  $x^3 - 3py^2 = 1$  has no positive integer solution  $(x, y)$ ; when  $p < 100$ , the equation has positive integer solution  $(x, y)$  if  $p = 37$ .

**Keywords** Cubic Diophantine equation; Pell equation; Petrr group

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### Cubic Diophantine Equation

$$x^3 - 3py^2 = 1, x, y \in \mathbb{N}, p \text{ is an odd prime greater than } 3 \quad (1)$$

The solution of this equation has attracted public attention in number theory, since the literature [1] had proven: when  $p \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$ , equation (1) has no solution  $(x, y)$ , hence it comes to the discussion about  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ , which only some conclusions have been reached.

In this paper, the following results are discussed according to the basic properties of Pell equation:

**Theorem** If  $p = 3r^2 - 2$ ,  $r \in \mathbb{N}$  or  $3p = r^2 + 2$  (2)

then equation (1) has no solution  $(x, y)$ .

In order to prove the theorem, this paper first proves the following conclusions.

**Lemma 1** If  $(x, y)$  is a set of solutions to equation (1), thus,

$$x - 1 = 9q^2, x^2 + x + 1 = 3pb^2, y = 3ab, a, b \in \mathbb{N} \quad (3)$$

**Demonstration** Hypothesizing  $(x, y)$  is a set of solutions to equation (1), because  $x^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  according to (1), then  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ ,  $x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$  and  $\gcd(x^2 - 1, x^2 + x + 1) = 3$ . Since  $p$  is an odd prime greater than 3, thus  $x - 1 = 9pa^2$ ,  $x^2 + x + 1 = 3b^2$  according to (1),

$$y = 3ab, a, b \in \mathbb{N} \quad (4)$$

Or (2). According to the literature [1], (4) is not valid.

**Lemma 2** [2] Hypothesizing  $D$  is a given positive integer with no square factor, there exists a unique set of positive integer  $(D_1, D_2, \lambda)$  that satisfy

$$D_1 D_2 = D, \lambda \in \{1, 2\}, \gcd(D, \lambda) = 1, (D_1, D_2, \lambda) \neq (1, D, 1) \quad (5)$$

thus equation

$$D_1 u^2 - D_2 v^2 = \lambda, u, v \in \mathbb{N} \quad (6)$$

has a solution  $(u, v)$ .

For a given  $D$ , the group of positive integers defined by Lemma 2 is called the Petrr group of  $D$ , marked as  $p(D)$ .

**Lemma 3** Hypothesizing  $D_1, D_2$  are positive integer satisfy  $D_1 > 1$ , if equation

$$D_1 u^2 - D_2 v^2 = 1, u, v \in \mathbb{N} \quad (7)$$



has a solution  $(u, v)$ , then it must have a unique solution  $(u_1, v_1)$  that satisfy  $u_1\sqrt{D_1} + v_1\sqrt{D_2} \leq u\sqrt{D_1} + v\sqrt{D_2}$ ,  $(u, v)$  is all the solutions to this equation.

$(u_1, v_1)$  is called the smallest solution to the equation (7). Hence any set of solutions  $(u, v)$  to the equation can be expressed as

$$u\sqrt{D_1} + v\sqrt{D_2} = (u_1\sqrt{D_1} + v_1\sqrt{D_2})^k, k \in \mathbb{N} \quad (8)$$

**Demonstration** Refer to literature [3]

**Lemma 4** If the solution  $(u, v)$  of equation (7) satisfies

$$u\sqrt{D_1} + v\sqrt{D_2} < (\sqrt{D_1} + \sqrt{D_2})^3 \quad (9)$$

Then  $(u, v)$  must be the smallest solution to the equation.

**Demonstration** According to the lemma 3: there exists positive odd number  $k$  which makes  $(u, v)$  satisfies (8).

Hypothesizing  $(u, v)$  is not the smallest solution of equation (7), then  $k \geq 3$ , according to (8),

$$u\sqrt{D_1} + v\sqrt{D_2} \geq (u_1\sqrt{D_1} + v_1\sqrt{D_2})^3 \geq (\sqrt{D_1} + \sqrt{D_2})^3 \quad (10)$$

is in contradiction with (9). Therefore, if  $(u, v)$  satisfies (9), then it must be the smallest solution of equation (7).

**Lemma 5** Any set of solutions  $(u, v)$  to the equation (7) can satisfy  $u_1/u$  and  $v_1/v$ , and  $(u_1, v_1)$  is the smallest solution of the equation.

**Demonstration** According to the lemma 3: there exists positive odd number  $K$  which makes the equation (8) true, then,

$$u = u_1 \sum_{i=0}^{(k-1)/2} \binom{k}{2i} (D_1 u_1^2)^{\binom{k-1}{2}-i} (D_2 v_1^2)^i$$

$$v = v_1 \sum_{i=0}^{(k-1)/2} \binom{k}{2i+1} (D_1 u_1^2)^{\binom{k-1}{2}-i} (D_2 v_1^2)^i \quad (11)$$

$u_1/u$  and  $v_1/v$  can be proven from (11).

#### Demonstration of lemma

Hypothesizing  $(x, y)$  is a set solution of equation (1), according to the lemma 1, there exists positive integer  $a$  and  $b$  which make  $x$  and  $y$  satisfy (3), then

$$p(2b)^2 - 3(a^2 + 1)^2 = 1 \quad (12)$$

when  $x$  is eliminated in (3).

From (12), equation

$$pu^2 - 3v^2 = 1, u, v \in \mathbb{N} \quad (13)$$

has solutions

$$(u, v) = (2b, 6a^2 + 1) \quad (14)$$

Hypothesizing  $D = 3p$ , since  $p$  is an odd prime greater than 3, therefore,  $D$  is a positive integer with no square factor. Since equation (12) has solutions, according to lemma 2,  $p(D) = (p, 3, 1)$ , thus,

$$3u^2 - pv^2 = 2, u, v \in \mathbb{N} \quad (15)$$

and

$$3pu^2 - v^2 = 2, u, v \in \mathbb{N} \quad (16)$$

have no solutions  $(x, y)$ .

If  $p$  satisfies (2), then equation (15) has solutions  $(u, v) = (r, 1)$  Nevertheless, it can be told that from above: it is inapprehensible when equation (1) has solutions. Therefore, there must be no solution to equation (1) if  $p$  satisfies (2).

Similarly, if  $p$  satisfies  $3p = r^2 + 2, r \in \mathbb{N}$ , since equation (16) has solutions  $(u, v) = (1, r)$ , therefore, equation (1) has no solution.



**Reference**

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