# CATALAN'S EQUATION $x^{p}-y^{q}=1$ AND RELATED CONGRUENCES 

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#### Abstract

We investigate solutions of Catalan's equation $x^{p}-y^{q}=1$ in nonzero integers $x, y, p, q$. By use of class numbers and congruences $p^{q} \equiv$ $p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$ we show the impossibility of the equation for a large number of prime exponents $p, q$. Both theoretical and computer results are included. We also study lower bounds on possible, hitherto unknown, solutions $x, y>2$; we especially wish to communicate the bound $x, y \geq 10^{500}$.


## 1. Introduction

Euler [4] proved in 1738 that in the sequence of squares and cubes of positive integers only $8=2^{3}$ and $9=3^{2}$ are consecutive. A century later, in 1844, Catalan conjectured more generally that there are no other consecutive nontrivial powers of positive integers, i.e., that the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{p}-y^{q}=1 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

has no other solutions in integers $x, y, p, q>1$ except $x=q=3, y=p=2$. Even today, the conjecture is still an open problem. It is obviously sufficient to prove the conjecture when $p$ and $q$ are primes.

For some exponents $p, q$, besides Euler's case $p=2, q=3$, the validity of the conjecture is known. The case $q=2, p \neq 3$ was solved by Lebesgue [13] in 1850, the cases $p=3$ and ( $q=3, p \neq 2$ ) by Nagell [14] in 1921 (or [18, pp. 198-199]), and the case $p=2$ by Chao Ko [3] in 1964. A new step in this direction is a recent paper of Inkeri [8] (see also [7]), where it is shown that (1) has no solutions in nonzero integers for the following prime exponents $p, q$ :
(i) $5 \leq p<73,5 \leq q<10^{4},(p, q) \neq(19,137),(53,97),(53,4889)$, $(59,2777),(61,1861)$;
(ii) $5 \leq p, q<89$;
(iii) $p \equiv q \equiv 3(\bmod 4), 5 \leq p, q<200$;
(iv) $p \equiv 3, q \equiv 1(\bmod 4), 5 \leq p, q<200,(p, q) \neq(19,137),(107,97)$.

Because of these results, we shall hereafter consider only prime exponents $p, q$ $\geq 5$.

[^0]In principle, the conjecture can be verified, or a counterexample found, by exhaustive computations, for Tijdeman [22] proved in 1976 that there are no integral solutions of (1) if at least one of $x, y, p, q$ exceeds a computable bound. In particular, as Langevin [12] has shown, $p, q<\exp 241<10^{105}$ and $x^{p}<\exp \operatorname{expexpexp} 730$ for any solution of (1) in integers $x, y, p, q>1$. For $x$ and $y$ we have the lower bounds

$$
\begin{align*}
& x \geq \max \left\{p^{q-1}(q-1)^{q}+1, q(2 p+1)\left(2 q^{p-1}+1\right)\right\}  \tag{2}\\
& y \geq \max \left\{q^{p-1}(p+1)^{p}-1, p(q-1)\left(p^{q-1}(q-1)^{q}+1\right)\right\}
\end{align*}
$$

due to Hyyrö [6], who also demonstrated that $x, y \geq 10^{11}$. As a corollary of (i)-(iv), Inkeri [8] improved this to $x, y>10^{179}$. However, the region to be investigated is still far too vast for a proof of the conjecture by straightforward computations exhausting all possibilities.

In this paper we present extensions to the cases (iii) and (iv), and improvements on the lower bounds (2). We also exhibit the lower bound $x, y \geq 10^{500}$ We will, however, begin by proving in the next section some theoretical results that follow from the basic Theorem 1.

## 2. Some theoretical results

Let $h(-m)$ be the class number of the quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-m}), \zeta_{m}$ a primitive $m$ th root of unity, and $h_{m}$ the class number of the cyclotomic field $\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{m}\right)$. The results (i)-(iv) are based on the following theorem (see [8]).

Theorem 1. If $p$ and $q$ are odd primes for which $p^{q} \not \equiv p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$ and either $q \nmid h_{p}$ or both $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ and $q \nmid h(-p)$, then (1) has no solutions in nonzero integers $x, y$.

Naturally, the theorem holds also with $p$ and $q$ interchanged, since $x^{p}-y^{q}=$ $(-y)^{q}-(-x)^{p}$.

We now deduce from Theorem 1 some results giving simple sequences of pairs ( $p, q$ ) for which (1) has only trivial solutions.

Corollary 1. Suppose $q \nmid h_{p}$ or both $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ and $q \nmid h(-p)$. If $p=$ $2 k q+e$ with $q+k$ and $e^{q} \equiv e\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)(e . g ., e= \pm 1)$, then equation $(1)$ has only trivial solutions.
Proof. By the assumptions,

$$
p^{q}=(2 k q+e)^{q}=(2 k q)^{q}+\cdots+2 k q^{2} e^{q-1}+e^{q} \equiv e \quad\left(\bmod q^{2}\right) .
$$

We now easily see that

$$
p^{q} \equiv p \quad\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)
$$

is absurd, since otherwise it would follow, by combining this and the former congruence, that $p=2 k q+e \equiv e\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$ and so $q \mid k$, contrary to the assumption $q \nmid k$. Thus the assumptions of Theorem 1 are valid and our result follows.

Let $d$ be the discriminant of the imaginary quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$. It is well known (see [15, p. 389]) that for the class number $h(d)$ of this field the following estimates hold:

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(d) \leq \frac{2}{\pi}|d|^{1 / 2}\left(1+\log \left(\frac{2}{\pi}|d|^{1 / 2}\right)\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and, if $|d|>\exp 24$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(d) \leq \frac{1}{3}|d|^{1 / 2} \log |d| \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then in the field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}), d=-p$, and we shall later replace (4) also by the estimate

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(-p) \leq \frac{1}{2} p^{1 / 2} \log p \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is weaker than (4), but is valid for all primes in question (namely for $p \geq 7$ ), as one may infer from (3) by a simple calculation.

Lemma 1. The class number $h(-p)$ of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p})$ satisfies the condition $h(-p)<$ $q$ in the following four cases:
(i) $p=2 q+1$,
(ii) $p=4 q-1$,
(iii) $p=6 q+1$,
(iv) $p<q^{1.462}, \quad p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$.

Proof. Clearly, $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ in every case. Since $h(-p)<p / 4$ (see, e.g., [5]), $(2 q+1) / 4<q$, and $(4 q-1) / 4<q$, (i) and (ii) are obvious.
(iv) Let $2 t=1.462$. Now by (5) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
h(-p) / q & \leq \frac{1}{2} p^{1 / 2} \log p / q \\
& <(t /(1-t)) \log q^{1-t} / q^{1-t} \leq 731 /(269 e)<1
\end{aligned}
$$

and the result follows.
(iii) By a simple calculation it may easily be verified that

$$
\begin{equation*}
p / q=6+1 / q \leq 6.2<q^{0.462} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

when $q \geq 53$. If $5 \leq q<53$, then $p=6 q+1$ is a prime only for $q=$ $5,7,11,13,17,23,37,47$. Correspondingly, $p=31,43,67,79,103$, $139,223,283$ and $h(-p)=3,1,1,5,5,3,7,3$ (see [1, Table 4]). Thus, it is immediately seen that $h(-p)<q$ for $q<53$, and for $q \geq 53$ the same follows by (6) from case (iv). This finishes the proof.

The following theorem brings to mind the well-known criterion of Sophie Germain (and its many analogies) concerning the first case of Fermat's Last Theorem.

Theorem 2. Equation (1) has no solutions in nonzero integers $x, y$ in the cases (i), (ii), (iii) mentioned in Lemma 1, and also in the last case (iv) provided that $p$ can be presented in the form $2 k q+e$, so that $k$ and $e$ satisfy the assumptions of Corollary 1.
Proof. Above we have established that in every case, $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. From Lemma 1 it always follows that also $q \nmid h(-p)$. Finally, we see that $p$ has the
representation $p=2 k q+e$ required in Corollary 1. This corollary then gives the result for all four cases.
Corollary 2. Let $q=k p+r$, where $k$ and $r$ are some integers with $k>0$, $2 \nmid r,|r|<p, r^{q} \equiv r\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$. If $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ and $(1)$ has a solution in nonzero integers, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
p Q_{q}(k) \equiv-1 \quad(\bmod q) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Q_{q}(k)=\left(k^{q}-k\right) / q . \quad\left(Q_{q}(k)\right.$, or more commonly $Q_{q}(k) / k$, is called Fermat's quotient.)
Proof. Clearly, $2 \mid k$ and $r>-p$, so that $q>(k-1) p \geq p$. Hence, $q \nmid r k h(-p)$. From Theorem 1 we have $p^{q} \equiv p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$ and thus

$$
k^{q} p \equiv(k p)^{q}=(q-r)^{q} \equiv q^{q}-\cdots-r^{q} \equiv-r \quad\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)
$$

Therefore,

$$
0 \equiv k^{q} p+r=\left(k^{q}-k\right) p+q \quad\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)
$$

from which the result follows, dividing by $q$.
Notice that (7), since $q=k p+r$, may also be written in the form

$$
r\left(k^{q-1}-1\right) / q \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod q)
$$

Corollary 2 gives rise to the problem of determining the solutions of the congruence

$$
\left(x^{p}-x\right) / p \equiv m(\bmod p) \quad(m \text { an integer, } p \text { an odd prime }) .
$$

Obviously, it is sufficient to treat only the cases $m=0, \ldots, p-1$. As is well known, the congruence $x^{p}-x \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ has exactly $p-1$ roots incongruent $\bmod p^{2}$ and prime to $p$. From this result we can easily see that the same is valid also for every congruence $x^{p}-x \equiv m p\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)(m=1,2, \ldots, p-1)$. Indeed, since for an integer $x$

$$
(x-m p)^{p}=x^{p}-p^{2} m x^{p-1}+\cdots-(m p)^{p} \equiv x^{p} \quad\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)
$$

the congruence $(x-m p)^{p}-(x-m p) \equiv m p\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ holds for every root $x$ of $x^{p} \equiv x\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$. These roots prime to $p$ for the congruences with $m=0,1, \ldots, p-1$ total $p(p-1)\left(=\varphi\left(p^{2}\right), \varphi\right.$ Euler's function). But this is exactly the number of the integers prime to $p$ and pairwise incongruent $\bmod p^{2}$. Naturally, the set of these integers contain all the roots in question.

We still treat the corresponding question about the congruences $x^{p-1}-1 \equiv$ $m p\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)(m=0,1, \ldots, p-1)$ in a different way. In the interval $0<$ $x<p^{2}$, only the integers prime to $p\left(\varphi\left(p^{2}\right)\right.$ in number ) can now also be roots. If $g$ is a primitive root $\bmod p^{2}$, then $\left(g^{r(p-1)}-1\right) / p$ runs through a full residue system $\bmod p$ when $r$ runs through the sequence $0,1, \ldots, p-1$. It is immediately seen that for $m \equiv\left(g^{r(p-1)}-1\right) / p(\bmod p)$ at least the integers $g^{t p+r}(t=0,1, \ldots, p-2)(p-1$ in number $)$ are roots of the above congruence.

All the $p$ congruences thus have at least $p(p-1)$ roots. According to what was said above about the roots, we infer that every congruence has exactly $p-1$ roots (also in the case $m=0$ ).

We now treat briefly the connection of the difference $d=p-q$ with Theorem 1 and begin with the twin pairs $p, q$. Obviously, one of the members of a twin pair is congruent to $3(\bmod 4)$.

Corollary 3. Let $p=q+2$. If (1) has a solution in nonzero integers, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
p^{q} \equiv p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right) \quad \text { or } \quad q^{p} \equiv q\left(\bmod p^{2}\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

according as $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ or $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$.
Proof. For $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ we have $q+h(-p)$, since $h(-p)<(q+2) / 4<q$. Likewise, for $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4), p \nmid h(-q)$, since $h(-q)<q<p$. The result follows immediately from Theorem 1 .

According to the table computed by the first author, $(5,7)$ is the only twin pair $(p, q)$ in the interval $0<p, q<10^{4}$ (cf. also Riesel's table and the table in this paper), for which $(8)$ is valid (namely, $\left.7^{5} \equiv 7\left(\bmod 5^{2}\right)\right)$. Recall that for the pair $(5,7)$, equation (1) has only trivial solutions (see [8]).

Lemma 2. If $p-q=d$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{q}(p) \equiv Q_{q}(d)-1(\bmod q), \quad Q_{p}(q) \equiv-Q_{p}(d)-1(\bmod p) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. The first congruence in (9) follows directly from

$$
p^{q}-p=(d+q)^{q}-(d+q) \equiv d^{q}-d-q \quad\left(\bmod q^{2}\right),
$$

dividing by $q$. In addition, we obtain also the second congruence, observing that $q-p=-d$ and $Q_{p}(-d)=-Q_{p}(d)$.

The following includes Corollary 3.
Theorem 3. Let $p=q+d$ with $-3 p<d<3 q$. Suppose (1) has a solution in nonzero integers.
(i) If $p \equiv 3$ or $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then, respectively,

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{q}(p) \equiv 0(\bmod q) \quad \text { or } \quad Q_{p}(q) \equiv 0(\bmod p) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

(ii) If $4 \mid d$ and $p$ (and so also $q$ ) is congruent to $3 \bmod 4$, then $Q_{q}(d) \equiv 1$ $(\bmod q)$ and $Q_{p}(d) \equiv-1(\bmod p)$.
(iii) If $4 \nmid d($ i.e., $2 \| d)$, then $Q_{q}(d) \equiv 1(\bmod q)$ or $Q_{p}(d) \equiv-1(\bmod p)$ according as $p \equiv 3$ or $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$.
Proof. We have $h(-p)<p / 4<q$ and $h(-q)<q / 4<p$.
If now $p \equiv 3$ or $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then by Theorem 1 (observing that (1) also has the form $\left.(-y)^{q}-(-x)^{p}=1\right)(10)$ is valid.

From Lemma 2 we see that the congruences in (10) have as consequences respectively the conditions

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{q}(d) \equiv 1(\bmod q), \quad Q_{p}(d) \equiv-1(\bmod p) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observing that in (ii), $p \equiv q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, and in (iii) either $p \equiv 3$ or $q \equiv 3$ $(\bmod 4)$, the assertions follow.

Johnson in his two papers [9, 10] presented some results concerning Fermat's quotient and hence also the congruences of the form $q^{p} \equiv q\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$. Combining these results and Theorem 1 , new results may be obtained, in addition to the ones deduced above. As an illustration we offer only the following Theorem 4, which is closely related to Meissner's following well-known result, proved also by Johnson in both of his papers mentioned above: If $0<a<p$ and the order of $a(\bmod p)$ is $2,3,4$, or 6 , then $Q_{p}(a) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$.

Johnson defined the semiorder of an integer $a(\bmod p) \quad(p$ an odd prime) to be the smallest positive integer $d\left(\right.$ denoted $\left.\operatorname{sord}_{p} a\right)$ such that $a^{d} \equiv \pm 1$ $(\bmod p)$. The following simple lemma holds.

Lemma 3. If for an integer a

$$
a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \quad\left(\bmod p^{2}\right),
$$

then also $a^{d} \equiv \pm 1\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$, where $d=\operatorname{sord}_{p} a$.
Proof. We have $a^{d}= \pm 1+m p(m \in \mathbb{Z})$ and $d \mid p-1$, i.e., $p-1=k d(k \in \mathbb{Z})$. From this it follows that

$$
1 \equiv a^{p-1} \equiv( \pm 1)^{k}+k( \pm 1)^{k-1} m p \quad\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)
$$

and so $p \mid m$, since $p$ is odd.
If $d=\operatorname{sord}_{p} a$ and thus $a^{d} \equiv \pm 1(\bmod p)$, then $a$ belongs to the exponent $d(\bmod p)$ in the case of $+\operatorname{sign}$ and to $2 d$ otherwise.
Theorem 4. If $p$ and $q$ are primes $\geq 5$ and either $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ or $q+h_{p}$, then (1) has only trivial solutions in both of the cases (i) $q \mid p^{2}+1, p<1.4 q$, and (ii) $q \mid p^{6}-1, p \leq 1.65 q$.
Proof. Since $q>p / 4>h(-p)$ in both of the cases (i) and (ii), we have $q \nmid h(-p)$ for $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. Suppose now that the congruence $p^{q} \equiv p$ $\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$ holds.

In (i) the semiorder of $p(\bmod q)$ is 2 . Since now $p^{q-1} \equiv 1\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$, it follows from Lemma 3 that $q^{2} \mid p^{2}+1$. This is, however, impossible, because it is easy to see that $p^{2}+1 \neq q^{2}$ and $p^{2}+1<1.96 q^{2}+0.04 q^{2} \leq 2 q^{2}$, by the assumptions $p<1.4 q$ and $q \geq 5$.

If in (ii) $q \mid p^{2}-1$, then $q \mid p \pm 1$. But this is impossible, since $q \neq p \pm 1<$ $1.65 q+0.2 q<2 q$. Thus $q \mid p^{2}+p+1$ or $q \mid p^{2}-p+1$ and $\operatorname{sord}_{q} p=3$ in both cases. Now by Lemma $3, q^{2} \mid p^{3} \mp 1$ (respectively) and further $q^{2} \mid p^{2} \pm p+1$, since $q \nmid p \mp 1$. Every prime factor $\neq 3$ of $p^{2} \pm p+1$ is of the form $6 n+1$. But these expressions are $<3 q^{2}$, by $p \leq 1.65 q$ and $q \geq 7$. Therefore $p^{2} \pm p+1=$ $q^{2}$, because the left-hand side is odd for both signs. Now $(2 q)^{2}-(2 p \pm 1)^{2}=3$, from which it easily follows that $q=1$, a contradiction.

We infer that $p^{q} \equiv p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$ is impossible in every case, and so our theorem follows from Theorem 1.

It seems probable that there exist infinitely many pairs $(p, q)$ for which the assumptions of Theorems 2 and 4 are valid, but this is not yet known. However, using Theorem 1, also the following theorem can be proved.
Theorem 5. There exists an infinite sequence of prime pairs $(p, q)$ with $\min \{p, q\} \rightarrow \infty$ such that Catalan's equation (1) has only the trivial solutions.

Naturally, this is included as a special case in Tijdeman's result mentioned above, but we do not know any other ways for verifying a result of this kind. It is not difficult to construct a proof for Theorem 5 from Theorem 1, on the basis of the following auxiliary facts:
(i) the estimate (4) of the class number $h(-p)$;
(ii) the number of the incongruent roots of the congruence $x^{q-1} \equiv 1(\bmod$ $q^{2}$ ) is $q-1$;
(iii) the number of primes $p \leq x$ in the arithmetic progression $4 m+3$ is asymptotically equal to $\frac{1}{2} x / \log x$ for $x \rightarrow \infty$.

## 3. Numerical results

Solutions of the congruence $p^{q} \equiv p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$ have been computed by many scientists. Riesel [20] has tabulated all solutions for natural $p$ and odd primes $q$ within the ranges $2 \leq p \leq 10, q<500000$ and $11 \leq p \leq 150, q<10^{4}$. For $p<100$ the upper bounds on $q$ have been enlarged by Brillhart, Tonascia, and Weinberger [2], and Keller (see [19, p. 276]). We wrote a computer program to find all odd prime solutions $p, q<10^{4}$. Our Table 1 contains the solutions found for $p<1000$. The full table up to $10^{4}$ can be requested from the first author.
Remark. Within the range $3 \leq p, q<10^{4}$ the pair $p=83, q=4871$ is the only one satisfying both congruences

$$
\begin{equation*}
p^{q} \equiv p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right), \quad q^{p} \equiv q\left(\bmod p^{2}\right) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

A better-known example is $p=2, q=1093$, related to Fermat's Last Theorem. A third one, namely $p=3, q=1006003$, can be found in the table of Brillhart, Tonascia, and Weinberger [2] (see also [19, p. 276]). We know of no more examples.

Consider the primes $p, q$ with $73 \leq p, q<10^{4}$ and $p \equiv q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. Among these, there are only eight pairs $(p, q)$ with the property $p \mid h(-q)$ (see [16]): $p=79, q=4391,5399,7127 ; p=83, q=3911,5039,8423$; $p=107, q=8231 ; p=139, q=9239$. Fortunately, for each one, $q \nmid h(-p)$, since $h(-p)<p<q$, and $p^{q} \not \equiv p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$. Hence, Theorem 1 ensures that (1) has no nontrivial solutions $x, y$ for these eight pairs $(p, q)$. Accordingly, again by Theorem 1 , nontrivial solutions of (1) can exist only if $p$ and $q$ satisfy

## Table 1

Solutions of $p^{q} \equiv p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right), p, q$ primes, $p<1000, q<10^{4}$

| $p$ | $q$ | $p$ | $q$ | $p$ | $q$ |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 10933511 | 271 | 3 |  |  |
| 3 | 11 | 277 | 1993 | 617 | 10110876007 |
| 7 | 5 | 293 | 571983 | 619 | 773 |
| 11 | 71 | 307 | 3519487 | 631 | 317875741 |
| 13 | 863 | 313 | 74149181 | 641 | 43 |
| 17 | 3 | 317 | 107349 | 643 | 517307859 |
| 19 | 371343137 | 331 | 211359 | 647 | 323 |
| 23 | 13 | 337 | 13 | 653 | 1317191381 |
| 31 | 7796451 | 349 | 51974337499 | 659 | 2313122219161 |
| 37 | 3 | 353 | 8123 | 673 | 61 |
| 41 | 29 | 359 | 323307 | 677 | 13211 |
| 43 | 5103 | 367 | 432213 | 683 | 31279 |
| 53 | 3475997 | 373 | 7113 | 691 | 3750910919157 |
| 59 | 2777 | 379 | 3 | 701 | 35 |
| 67 | 747 | 389 | 19373 | 733 | 17 |
| 71 | 347331 | 397 | 3 | 739 | 39719 |
| 73 | 3 | 401 | 583347 | 743 | 5 |
| 79 | 72633037 | 419 | 1733499833257 | 751 | 5151409 |
| 83 | 4871 | 421 | 1011483 | 757 | 351771 |
| 89 | 313 | 431 | 32393 | 761 | 41907 |
| 97 | 7 | 433 | 3 | 773 | 3 |

both congruences of (12), which is the case only when $p=83, q=4871$ (or $q=83, p=4871$ ).

The case $p \equiv 3, q \equiv 1(\bmod 4), 73 \leq p, q<10^{4}$, can be handled in a similar way, but the number of exceptional pairs is much larger: 17 pairs with $q \mid h(-p)$ and some 160 solutions of $p^{q} \equiv p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$. We shall be content with the smaller range $p, q<500$ and present the following theorem.

Theorem 6. Equation (1) has no solutions in nonzero integers $x, y$ for the following prime exponents $p, q$ :
(a) $p \equiv q \equiv 3(\bmod 4), 5 \leq p, q<10^{4},(p, q) \neq(83,4871),(4871,83)$;
(b) $p \equiv 3, q \equiv 1(\bmod 4), 5 \leq p, q<500,(p, q) \neq(19,137),(107,97)$, $(223,349),(251,421),(419,173),(419,349),(499,109)$.

## 4. Improved lower bounds

According to Hyyrö [6], a solution $x, y>1$ of (1) satisfies the relations

$$
\begin{align*}
x-1=p^{q-1} a^{q}, & y+1=q^{p-1} b^{p},  \tag{13}\\
\left(x^{p}-1\right) /(x-1)=p u^{q}, & \left(y^{q}+1\right) /(y+1)=q v^{p},  \tag{14}\\
y=p a u, & x=q b v,  \tag{15}\\
a=q a_{0}-1, \quad a_{0} \geq 1, & b=p b_{0}+1, \quad b_{0} \geq 1,  \tag{16}\\
a \equiv\left(q^{p-1}-1\right) / p(\bmod p), & b \equiv-\left(p^{q-1}-1\right) / q(\bmod q),  \tag{17}\\
u=p^{q-1} a_{1}^{q} u_{1}+1, a_{1} \geq q-1, & u_{1} \geq 1,2\left|a_{1} u_{1}, \quad q\right| a_{1}+1,  \tag{18}\\
v=q^{p-1} b_{1}^{p} v_{1}+1, b_{1} \geq 1, & v_{1} \geq 1, \quad 2\left|b_{1} v_{1}, \quad p\right| b_{1}-1, \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

where $a, b, u, v$ are nonzero integers and $a_{1}\left(b_{1}\right)$ is the greatest factor of $a$ (b) which has no prime factor of the form $k q+1(k p+1)$. In addition, either $2\left|a_{0}, 2\right| b_{1}$ or $2\left|b_{0}, 2\right| a_{1}$.

From (14)-(16), (18), and (19) it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
p u \equiv p u^{q} \equiv 1(\bmod q), & q v \equiv q v^{p} \equiv 1(\bmod p) \\
u_{1} \equiv 1-u(\bmod q), & v_{1} \equiv v-1(\bmod p)
\end{aligned}
$$

and hence we also have the congruences

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
u \equiv p^{q-2}, & u_{1} \equiv 1-p^{q-2} & (\bmod q)  \tag{20}\\
v \equiv q^{p-2}, & v_{1} \equiv q^{p-2}-1 & (\bmod p)
\end{array}
$$

For given $p, q$, these can be used to improve the lower bounds (2). For instance, (20) implies in general that $u_{1} \geq 2$, whereas $u_{1} \geq 1$ was used to obtain (2).

To make further improvements on (2), we first combine (15), (13), and (1) to obtain the equalities

$$
\begin{aligned}
x & =q b v=q^{1 / p} y^{1 / p}(1+1 / y)^{1 / p} v \\
& =q^{1 / p} x^{1 / q}\left(1-1 / x^{p}\right)^{1 / p q}(1+1 / y)^{1 / p} v, \\
y & =p a u=p^{1 / q} x^{1 / q}(1-1 / x)^{1 / q} u \\
& =p^{1 / q} y^{1 / p}\left(1+1 / y^{q}\right)^{1 / p q}(1-1 / x)^{1 / q} u .
\end{aligned}
$$

Application of the estimates

$$
(1+1 / z)^{1 / k}>1+1 / 2 k z, \quad(1-1 / z)^{1 / k}>1-1 / k(z-1)
$$

$(k, z>1)$ then gives the inequalities

$$
\begin{gathered}
x>q^{1 / p} x^{1 / q}\left[1-1 / p q\left(x^{p}-1\right)\right][1+1 / 2 p y] v>q^{1 / p} x^{1 / q} v, \\
y>p^{1 / q} y^{1 / p}\left[1+1 / 2 p q y^{q}\right][1-1 / q(x-1)] u .
\end{gathered}
$$

Therefore, we obtain the following
Theorem 7. Let $p$ and $q$ be odd primes. If $x, y>1$ is a solution of (1), then

$$
\begin{gathered}
x>\left\{q^{1 / p} v\right\}^{q /(q-1)} \\
y>\left\{p^{1 / q}[1-1 / q(x-1)] u\right\}^{p /(p-1)}
\end{gathered}
$$

The dominant terms within the braces are $v$ and $u$, which can be bounded from below by the use of (18)-(20). The improvement, compared to (2), is therefore in the exponents, which are slightly larger than 1 . For example, for the exceptional pair $p=137, q=19$, (2) gives $\log x>177.9$ (base 10 logarithm); by using the properties (16), (17), and (19) for $b, b_{1}, v$, this can be improved to $\log x>179$ (see [8]). On the other hand, by $(20), v_{1} \equiv 100(\bmod 137)$, whence $v>100 \cdot 19^{136}$ by (19), and Theorem 7 yields

$$
\log x>19[(\log 19) / 137+\log 100+136 \log 19] / 18>185.6
$$

A different approach is provided by continued fractions. Let

$$
\alpha=q^{1-1 / p} p^{-1+1 / q} \quad \text { and } \quad r=\min \{p, q\}
$$

Let further $\left[C_{0}, C_{1}, C_{2}, \ldots\right]$ be the regular continued fraction of $\alpha$ and $A_{i} / B_{i}$ $(i=0,1,2, \ldots)$ its convergents. Hyyrö [6] proved that $a / b$ is actually one of these convergents and thereby obtained the following theorem from (13), (16), and (17).

Theorem 8. Let $p$ and $q$ be odd primes. Then the solutions of

$$
\left|x^{p}-y^{q}\right|=1, \quad x, y>0
$$

are exactly those $x, y$ which satisfy, for a positive integer $i$, the conditions

$$
\begin{align*}
x=p^{q-1} A_{i}^{q}+(-1)^{i}, & y=q^{p-1} B_{i}^{p}-(-1)^{i}  \tag{21}\\
A_{i}>1, & B_{i}>1  \tag{22}\\
A_{i} \equiv(-1)^{i+1}(\bmod q), & A_{i} \equiv(-1)^{i}\left(q^{p-1}-1\right) / p(\bmod p)  \tag{23}\\
B_{i} \equiv(-1)^{i}(\bmod p), & B_{i} \equiv(-1)^{i+1}\left(p^{q-1}-1\right) / q(\bmod q)  \tag{24}\\
C_{i+1} \geq(-1)^{i+1} A_{i}^{r-2}, & C_{i+1} \geq(-1)^{i} B_{i}^{r-2}  \tag{25}\\
& x^{p}-y^{q}=(-1)^{i} \tag{26}
\end{align*}
$$

We used the preceding results to compute the lower bound

$$
\begin{equation*}
x, y \geq 10^{500} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

on any possible solution $x, y>1$ of (1) for prime exponents $p, q \geq 5$. The bounds (2) are increasing both in $p$ and $q$ and yield the bound (27) when $\max \{p, q\}>710$ or $p, q \geq 73, \max \{p, q\}>266$. If $\max \{p, q\}<710$ and $p<73$ (or $q<73$ ), the only possibilities, according to (i) in $\S 1$, are $(p, q)=(19,137),(53,97)$. Also, by Theorem 6 , when $p, q<266$, there are no nonzero solutions if $p \equiv q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ or $p \equiv 3, q \equiv 1(\bmod 4),(p, q) \neq$ $(19,137),(107,97)$. Thus, there are 159 pairs $(p, q)$ left for further investigation. For each one of these we checked whether (2) implies (27) and, if not, we computed the continued fraction of $\alpha=q^{1-1 / p} p^{-1+1 / q}$ accurately enough so that (21) implied (27); at each step we checked (22)-(25) for a possible solution $x, y$. The computations revealed no potential solution, and we conclude that (27) holds.

## 5. Program developments

The verification of the congruence $p^{q} \equiv p\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$ is easily done by repeated squarings and multiplications (see [11, p. 441]). All prime solutions $p, q, 3 \leq p, q<10^{4}$, were found in approximately four minutes.

To compute the continued fraction of $\alpha=q^{1-1 / p} p^{-1+1 / q}$, we choose integers $c_{i}, d_{i}(i=1,2)$ so that

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
p^{1 / q}=\left(c_{1} / d_{1}\right)\left(1+z_{1}\right)^{1 / q}, & z_{1}=\left(p d_{1}^{q}-c_{1}^{q}\right) / c_{1}^{q},\left|z_{1}\right|<1 \\
q^{1 / p}=\left(c_{2} / d_{2}\right)\left(1+z_{2}\right)^{1 / p}, &  \tag{28}\\
z_{2}=\left(q d_{2}^{p}-c_{2}^{p}\right) / c_{2}^{p},\left|z_{2}\right|<1
\end{array}
$$

Using the binomial series

$$
\begin{equation*}
(1+z)^{1 / k}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\binom{1 / k}{n} z^{n} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

we then compute a rational lower bound $\beta$ and a rational upper bound $\gamma$ on $\alpha: \beta<\alpha<\gamma$. The continued fractions of $\beta$ and $\gamma$ are computed accurately by the Euclidean algorithm. As far as the partial denominators of $\beta$ coincide with
those of $\gamma$, they coincide with the partial denominators of any number between $\beta$ and $\gamma$ (cf. [23]). When the partial denominators of $\beta$ and $\gamma$ fail to coincide, we use (29) to compute sharper approximants $\beta^{\prime}$ and $\gamma^{\prime}: \beta<\beta^{\prime}<\alpha<\gamma^{\prime}<\gamma$, and continue computations with $\beta^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime}$.

Unfortunately, the use of (28) and (29) leads to computations with very large integers. About 40 minutes was needed to compute the lower bound $x, y \geq$ $10^{500}$.

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