# Some remarks on Stolt's Theorems for Pellian Equations 

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#### Abstract

One of the theorems of Bengt Stolt's article »On the Diophantine Equation $u^{2}-D v^{2}=4 N$ » is not quite correct in its entirety. A counter-example will be given to show this. A modification of the theorem which he was trying to prove will be given for certain special cases.


## 1. Introduction

Here is a summary of some of the definitions and theorems given in Stolt [1]. All integer solutions $(x, y)$ of

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}-D y^{2}=4 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $D>0$ and not a square are given by

$$
\frac{x+\sqrt{D} y}{2}= \pm\left(\frac{x_{1}+\sqrt{D} y_{1}}{2}\right)^{i}
$$

where $i$ is any integer and $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ is the smallest positive solution of (1).
Let $\left(u^{*}, v^{*}\right)$ be any integer solution of

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{2}-D v^{2}=4 N \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $D>0$ and not a square.
Then a class of solutions of (2) consists of all solutions (u,v) such that

$$
\frac{u+\sqrt{D} v}{2}= \pm\left(\frac{u^{*}+\sqrt{D} v^{*}}{2}\right)\left(\frac{x_{1}+\sqrt{D} y_{1}}{2}\right)^{i}
$$

All solutions of (2) can be divided into a finite number of classes of solutions. Two solutions which belong to the same class of solutions are called associated.

A simple criteria to see if two solutions $(u, v)$ and $\left(u^{\prime}, v^{\prime}\right)$ are associated is if $\left(u v^{\prime}-u^{\prime} v\right) / 2 N$ is an integer.

In every class of solutions of (2) it is well known that there is at least one solution $(u, v)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \leq v \leq \frac{y_{1} \sqrt{|N|}}{\sqrt{x_{1}+2 N /|N|}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\quad 0 \leq|u| \leq \sqrt{\left(x_{1}+2 N /|N|\right)|N|}$.
In [1] Stolt claims to prove that if $N$ is square-free then the number of classes of solutions is a power of two. However $u^{2}-79 v^{2}=4(3)(5)(7)(13)$ has six classes of solutions. The next section will give details of this.

## 2. Details of counter-example

Theorem 1. The equation $u^{2}-79 v^{2}=4(1365)=4(3)(5)(7)(13)$ has six classes of solutions.

Proof. In every class of solutions of $u^{2}-79 v^{2}=4(1365)$ there will be at least one solution ( $u, v$ ) such that

$$
0 \leq v \leq 18 \sqrt{1365} / \sqrt{160+2}=2 \sqrt{1365 / 2}=\sqrt{2730}<53
$$

Table

| $v$ | $u^{2}$ | $v$ | $u^{2}$ | $v$ | $u^{2}$ |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 5539 | 19 | 33979 | 37 | 113611 |
| 2 | $5776=(76)^{2}$ | 20 | 37060 | 38 | 119536 |
| 3 | 6171 | 21 | 40299 | 39 | 125619 |
| 4 | $6724=(82)^{2}$ | 22 | 43696 | 40 | 131860 |
| 5 | 7435 | 23 | 47251 | 41 | 138259 |
| 6 | 8304 | 24 | 50964 | 42 | 144816 |
| 7 | 9331 | 25 | 54835 | 43 | 151531 |
| 8 | 10516 | 26 | 58864 | 44 | $158404=(398)^{2}$ |
| 9 | 11859 | 27 | 63051 | 45 | 165435 |
| 10 | 13360 | 28 | 67396 | 46 | 172624 |
| 11 | 15019 | 29 | 71899 | 47 | 179971 |
| 12 | 16836 | 30 | 76560 | 48 | 187476 |
| 13 | 18811 | 31 | 81379 | 49 | 195139 |
| 14 | 20944 | 32 | 86356 | 50 | 202960 |
| 15 | 23235 | 33 | 91491 | 51 | 210939 |
| 16 | 25684 | 34 | 96784 | 52 | 219076 |
| 17 | 28291 | 35 | 102235 |  |  |
| 18 | 31056 | 36 | 107844 |  |  |

Inspection of the table of squares in Barlow's Tables and the above table show that the only solutions of $u^{2}-79 v^{2}=4(1365)$ such that $0 \leq v<53$ are $(u, v)=$ $(76,2),(-76,2),(82,4),(-82,4),(398,44)$, and $(-398,44)$. As none of these solutions are associated with each other, then the number of classes of solutions is six.

## 3. Number of classes of solutions in special cases

Details on the theory of ideals and algebraic integers in the quadratic case are given in Stolt [1] and Hancock [2].

Theorem 2. Let
or

$$
\begin{align*}
& u^{2}-D v^{2}=+4 \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}  \tag{4}\\
& u^{2}-D v^{2}=-4 \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

where $D$ is square-free and the $p_{i}$ 's are distinct primes. At least one of (4) or (5) is solvable in integers.

Let $C_{1}, C_{2}$ be the number of classes of solutions of (4) and (5) respectively.
In the field $K(\sqrt{D})$ the ideal $\left(p_{i}\right)$ equals $q_{i} q_{i}^{\prime}$ where $q_{i}$ and $q_{i}^{\prime}$ are prime conjugate ideals for all $i$. Let $q_{i} \neq q_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=1, \ldots, l$ and $q_{i}=q_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=l+1, \ldots, n$. Choose $r_{i}=q_{i}$ or $q_{i}^{\prime}$.

Let $S$ be the number of ways the set $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{l}\right)$ can be chosen so that $\prod_{i=1}^{l} r_{i}$ is a principal ideal.

Then $S=C_{1}=C_{2}$ if $x^{2}-D y^{2}=-4$ is solvable, $S=C_{1}+C_{2}$ otherwise.

Proof. Suppose $(\alpha)$ is a principal ideal such that $(N)=(\alpha)\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)$ where $\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)$ is the conjugate of $(\alpha)$. Then it is easy to see that any class of solutions of (4) will correspond to one and only one principal ideal ( $\alpha$ ). Also two different classes of solutions of (4) will correspond to two different principal ideals ( $\alpha$ ). The same is true for (5).

As $(N)=(\alpha)\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)=\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right)$ then $\alpha \alpha^{\prime}=N$ or $\alpha \alpha^{\prime}=-N$ where $\alpha$ and $\alpha^{\prime}$ are algebraic integers which are generators of $(\alpha)$ and ( $\alpha^{\prime}$ ) respectively. This shows that every $(\alpha)$ corresponds to a class of solutions of (4) or of (5) or of both. But it is easily shown that ( $\alpha$ ) corresponds to a class of solutions of both (4) and (5) if and only if $x^{2}-D y^{2}=-4$ is solvable.

Therefore the theorem is true since $(\alpha)$ equals $\prod_{i=1}^{n} r_{i}$ uniquely for exactly one set $\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$ and hence for exactly one set $\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{l}\right)$.

Comment. The above theorem shows how the evaluation of the number of classes of solutions becomes a combinatorial problem.

A case where both equations (4) and (5) are solvable while $x^{2}-D y^{2}=-4$ is not, is given by $u^{2}-34 v^{2}=+4(3)(5)$ and $u^{2}-34 v^{2}=-4(3)(5)$. Now the only values of ( $u, v$ ) satisfying (3) for $u^{2}-34 v^{2}=+4(3)(5)$ and $u^{2}-34 v^{2}=$ $-4(3)(5)$ are $(14,2),(-14,2)$ and $(22,4),(-22,4)$ respectively. As neither pair of solutions is associated in this case, $C_{1}=2$ and $C_{2}=2$. This is somewhat different from that indicated in Stolt [1], page 119-120.

## 4. Evaluation of $S$ for the class-number of $K(\sqrt{D}) \leq 6$

It is well known that all ideals in $K(\sqrt{D})$ can be divided into a finite number of equivalence classes. The set of these equivalence classes is an abelian group under multiplication. If two ideals $q_{1}$ and $q_{2}$ are in the same equivalence class then $q_{1} \sim q_{2}$.

Theorem 3. Suppose $S$ is defined as in Theorem 2 and the class-number $h$ of $K(\sqrt{D}) \leq 6$ where either (4) or (5) is solvable. Then the formulae given in sections $A$ to $E$ below are true.

Comment. Proofs will be given only for the cases $h \leq 3$.
A. All ideals $q_{i} \sim q_{i}^{\prime}$. (This includes $h=1,2$ and $h=4$ (Non-cyclic group).) Then $S=2^{l}$.
Proof. All combinations $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{l}\right)$ make $\prod_{i=1}^{l} r_{i}$ a principal ideal.
B. $h=3$.

Let $q_{i} \nvdash q_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=1, \ldots, l_{1}$ and $q_{i} \sim q_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=l_{1}+1, \ldots, l$.
Then $S=2^{l-l_{1}}\left(2^{l_{1}}+2(-1)^{l_{1}}\right) / 3$.
Proof. Let $S_{1}$ be the number of combinations ( $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{l_{1}}$ ) such that $\prod_{i=1}^{l_{1}} r_{i}$ is a principal ideal.

Now $\prod_{i=1}^{l_{k}} r_{i} \sim q_{1}^{k} q_{1}^{l_{1}-k} \sim q_{1}^{2 l_{1}-k}$ (where $k$ is the number of $r_{i}$ equivalent to $q_{\mathrm{I}}$ ).

Therefore $\prod_{i=1}^{l_{i}} r_{i}$ is a principal ideal if and only if $2 l_{1}-k \equiv 0 \bmod 3$.
Let $b$ be the smallest non-negative value of $k$.
Therefore

$$
\begin{align*}
S_{1} & =\binom{l_{1}}{b}+\binom{l_{1}}{b+3}+\binom{l_{1}}{b+6}+\ldots  \tag{6}\\
& =\frac{1}{3} \sum_{j=0}^{2}\left(2 \cos \frac{j \pi}{3}\right)^{l_{1}} \cos \left(\frac{\left(l_{1}-2 b\right) j \pi}{3}\right)
\end{align*}
$$

by Riordan [3].
Since $l_{1}-2 b \equiv 2\left(2 l_{1}-b\right) \equiv 0 \bmod 3$,

$$
l_{1} \equiv l_{1}-2 b \bmod 2, \cos \pi / 3=1 / 2, \text { and } \cos 2 \pi / 3=-1 / 2
$$

then it can be shown by substitution in (6) that $S_{1}=\left(2^{l_{1}}+2(-1)^{l_{1}}\right) / 3$.
To complete the proof of the theorem it only remains to be seen that the number of combinations $\left(r_{l_{1}+1}, \ldots, r_{l}\right)$ such that $\prod_{i=l_{1}+1}^{l} r_{i}$ is a principal ideal is $2^{l-l_{1}}$.
C. $h=4$ (Cyclic Group).

Suppose $q_{i} \nsim q_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=1, \ldots, l_{1}$ and $q_{i} \sim q_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=l_{1}+1, \ldots, l$.
Then $S=2^{l-1}$ if $l_{1}>0,=2^{l}$ if $l_{1}=0$.
D. $h=5$.

Suppose $q_{i} \uparrow q_{i}^{\prime}$ and $q_{i} \sim q_{1}$ or $q_{1}^{4}$ for $i=1, \ldots, l_{1}, q_{i} \sim q_{1}^{2}$ or $q_{1}^{3}$ for $i=l_{1}+1, \ldots, l_{1}+l_{2}, q_{i} \sim q_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=l_{1}+l_{2}+1, \ldots, l$.

Then

$$
S=25^{-1} 2^{l-l_{1}-l_{2}}\left[5 \cdot 2^{l_{+}+l_{2}}+2(-1)^{l_{1}+l_{2}}\left(2 L_{l_{\mathrm{x}}} L_{l_{2}}-L_{l_{1}+1} L_{l_{2}-1}-L_{l_{1}-1} L_{l_{2}+1}\right)\right],
$$

where $L_{-1}=-1, \quad L_{0}=2, \quad L_{k}=L_{k-1}+L_{k-2}, \quad k=1,2, \ldots$
E. $h=6$.
$q_{i} \nsim q_{i}^{\prime}$ and $q_{i}^{2} \nsim q_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=1, \ldots, l_{1}$,
$q_{i} \vdash q_{i}^{\prime}$ and $q_{i}^{2} \sim q_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=l_{1}+1, \ldots, l_{1}+l_{2}$,
$q_{i} \sim q_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=l_{1}+l_{2}+1, \ldots, l$.
Then $S=3^{-1} 2^{l-l_{1}-l_{2}}\left(2^{l_{1}+l_{2}}+2(-1)^{l_{1}+l_{2}}\right)$.
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## References

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2. Hancock, Foundations of the Theory of Algebraic Numbers, Vol. I, New York, 1931.
3. Riordan, An Introduction to Combinatorial Analysis, New York, New York, 1958, page 41.
