# A note on the exponential diophantine equation $\left(2^{n}-1\right)\left(b^{n}-1\right)=x^{2}$ 

By MAOHUA LE (Zhanjiang)


#### Abstract

Let $b$ be a fixed positive integer with $b>2$. In this paper, using some elementary methods, we prove that if $3 \mid b$, then the equation $\left(2^{n}-1\right)\left(b^{n}-1\right)=x^{2}$ has no positive integer solution $(n, x)$.


## 1. Introduction

Let $\mathbb{N}$ be the set of all positive integers. Let $a$ and $b$ be fixed positive integers with $1<a<b$. Recently, there were many works concerned the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(a^{n}-1\right)\left(b^{n}-1\right)=x^{2}, \quad n, x \in \mathbb{N} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(see [1], [2], [3], [4], [6]). In this paper we consider the case that $a=2$. Then, equation (1) can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(2^{n}-1\right)\left(b^{n}-1\right)=x^{2}, \quad n, x \in \mathbb{N} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this respect, L. Szalay [6] proved that if $b=3$, then (2) has no solution $(n, x)$. L. Hajdu and L. Szalay [3] proved that if $b=6$, then (2) has no solution $(n, x)$. In this paper we prove a general result as follows.

Theorem. If $3 \mid b$, then (2) has no solution $(n, x)$.

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In addition, we notice that (2) has solutions for infinitely many $b$. In fact, (1) has solutions if $b$ satisfies one of the following conditions.
(i) If $b=1+c^{2}$, where $c$ is a positive integer with $c>1$, then (2) has the solution $(n, x)=(1, c)$.
(ii) Let $\alpha=2+\sqrt{3}$ and $\beta=2-\sqrt{3}$. For any positive integer $k$, if $b=\left(\alpha^{k}+\beta^{k}\right) / 2$, then (2) has the solution $(n, x)=\left(2,3\left(\alpha^{k}-\beta^{k}\right) / 2 \sqrt{2}\right)$.
(iii) If $b=4$ or 22 , then (2) has the solutions $(n, x)=(3,21)$ and $(n, x)=(3,273)$, respectively.
By the above mentioned observations, we propose the following conjecture.
Conjecture. Excepting the above cases (i), (ii) and (iii), (2) has no solution $(n, x)$.

## 2. Proof of Theorem

Let $d$ be a positive integer which is not a square. It is a well known fact that the Pell equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{2}-d v^{2}=1, \quad u, v \in \mathbb{N} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

has solution $(u, v)$.
Lemma ([5, Lemma 3]). Let $(u, v)=\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ denote the least solution of (3). Then we have
(i) For any solution $(u, v)$ of (3), we have $v_{1} \mid v$.
(ii) If $(u, v)=\left(u^{\prime}, v^{\prime}\right)$ is a solution of (3) such that $u^{\prime}$ is a power of 2 , then $\left(u^{\prime}, v^{\prime}\right)$ is the least solution of (3).
Proof of Theorem. Let $b$ be a positive integer with $3 \mid b$. If (2) has a solution $(n, x)$, then we have

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

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
b^{n}-1=d z^{2} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d, y$ and $z$ are positive integers satisfying $d y z=x$, and $d$ is square free. Since $3 \mid b$, we see from (5) that $d z^{2} \equiv-1 \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. It implies that $3 \nmid d$, $3 \nmid z, z^{2} \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$ and $d \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$.

If $3 \nmid y$, then $y^{2} \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. Further, since $d \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, we get $d y^{2}+1 \equiv$ $d+1 \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. But, by $(4)$, it is impossible. Therefore, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
3 \mid y \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

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Then, by $(4)$, we get $2^{n} \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. It implies that $n$ must be even.
Since $2 \mid n$, we see from (4) that the Pell equation (3) has the solution $(u, v)=$ $\left(2^{n / 2}, y\right)$. Therefore, by (ii) of Lemma, $\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)=\left(2^{n / 2}, y\right)$ is the least solution of (3).

On the other hand, we find from (5) that (3) has an other solution $(u, v)=$ $\left(b^{n / 2}, z\right)$. By (i) of Lemma, we get $y \mid z$. Further, by (6), we obtain $3 \mid z$. But, since $3 \mid b$, it is impossible by (5). Thus, if $3 \mid b$, then (2) has no solution $(n, x)$. The theorem is proved.

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maOhua Le
DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS
ZHANJIANG NORMAL COLLEGE
ZHANJIANG, GUANGDONG 524048
P. R. CHINA

E-mail: lemaohua2008@163.com

