TWO APPLICATIONS OF UNIQUE FACTORIZATION

KEITH CONRAD

1. Introduction

We will use unique factorization to determine all the integral solutions to certain equations.

**Theorem 1.1.** The integral solutions to \( y^2 + y = x^3 \) are \((x,y) = (0,0)\) and \((0,-1)\).

Since \( y^2 + y = y(y+1) \), this says in words that the only integer which is a product of two consecutive integers and is a cube is 0.

**Theorem 1.2** (Fermat). The integral solutions to \( y^2 = x^3 - 2 \) are \((x,y) = (3,5)\) and \((3,-5)\).

The proof of Theorem 1.1, which is really a warm-up for Theorem 1.2, will use unique factorization in \( \mathbb{Z} \). Although Theorem 1.2 is only about integers, its proof will go beyond \( \mathbb{Z} \) and use unique factorization in the ring \( \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}] = \{a + b\sqrt{-2} : a,b \in \mathbb{Z}\} \).

2. Proofs

Before we prove Theorems 1.1 and 1.2 we need a result about relatively prime numbers whose product is a power. (We say elements in a UFD are relatively prime when they have no irreducible factor in common: their only common divisors are units.)

**Theorem 2.1.** Let \( R \) be a ring with unique factorization. If \( a,b,c \in R \) are nonzero, \( ab = c^n \), and \( a \) and \( b \) are relatively prime then there are units \( u \) and \( v \) in \( R \), as well as elements \( a' \) and \( b' \) in \( R \), such that \( a = ua^n \) and \( b = vb^n \).

**Proof.** Decompose \( a, b, \) and \( c \) into irreducibles and collect together any irreducible factors which are equal up to unit multiple. This lets us write

\[
a = up_1^{e_1}p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r}, \quad b = vp_1^{f_1}p_2^{f_2} \cdots p_s^{f_s}, \quad c = wp_1^{q_1}q_2^{q_2} \cdots q_t^{q_t},
\]

where \( p_i, p'_j, \) and \( q_k \) are all irreducibles and \( u, v, \) and \( w \) are units. Since \( a \) and \( b \) are relatively prime, no \( p_i \) and \( p'_j \) are unit multiples. We have

\[
ab = wu^{e_1}p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r}p'_1^{f_1}p'_2^{f_2} \cdots p'_s^{f_s},
\]

and

\[
c^n = w^{nq_1^{q_1}}q_2^{q_2} \cdots q_t^{q_t}.
\]

Comparing the irreducible factorizations of \( ab \) and \( c^n \) shows from unique factorization that each \( p_i \) in \( a \) and \( p'_j \) in \( b \) has multiplicity divisible by \( n \): each \( e_i \) and \( f_j \) is a multiple of \( n \). (Here is where we use relative primality of \( a \) and \( b \).) Since all the \( e_i \)'s are divisible by \( n \), \( a \) is \( u \) times an \( n \)th power. Similarly, \( b \) is \( v \) times an \( n \)th power. \( \square \)
Example 2.2. Taking $n = 2$, in $\mathbb{Z}$ we have $(-4)(-9) = 6^2$ and $-4$ and $-9$ are each squares up to unit multiple. Notice neither $-4$ nor $-9$ is a square, so the equality up to unit multiple in the conclusion of Theorem 2.1 can’t be weakened in general.

Now we are ready to prove the theorems from Section 1.
First we prove Theorem 1.1.

Proof. Suppose $x$ and $y$ are integers which satisfy $y^2 + y = x^3$. Write this as

\[ y(y + 1) = x^3. \]

Assuming neither $y$ nor $y + 1$ is 0, these integers are relatively prime (consecutive integers have no common factors except ±1) and we can apply Theorem 2.1: their product is a cube so each one is a cube up to sign:

\[ y = \pm a^3, \quad y + 1 = \pm b^3. \]

Since $-1$ is a cube, if there is a sign appearing then it can be absorbed into the cube and then rename $a$ and $b$. Thus we have

\[ y = a^3, \quad y + 1 = b^3. \]

The integers $y$ and $y + 1$ are consecutive, so $a^3$ and $b^3$ are consecutive cubes. The cubes spread apart pretty quickly:

\[ \ldots, -64, -27, -8, -1, 0, 1, 8, 27, 64, \ldots \]

We see immediately that the only consecutive cubes are $-1$ and 0 and also 0 and 1. Since $y = a^3$ is the smaller of the two cubes, $y = -1$ or $y = 0$. We get $x^3 = y^2 + y = 0$ in both cases. So $(x, y)$ is $(0, -1)$ or $(0, 0)$.

These are the solutions we expected, although strictly speaking our argument assumed $y$ and $y + 1$ are not 0 in order to apply Theorem 2.1. So what we have really shown in this case is that there is no solution with $y$ not 0 or $-1$. For those two $y$-values we have the two obvious solutions, so they are the only ones.

Now we prove Theorem 1.2.

Proof. Assume $x$ and $y$ are integers satisfying $y^2 = x^3 - 2$. First we determine the parity of $x$ and $y$. If $x$ is even then $8 \mid x^3$, so $y^2 \equiv -2 \equiv 6 \mod 8$. However, a direct check of all integers modulo 8 shows the only squares modulo 8 are 0, 1, and 4. Thus $x$ has to be odd, so $y$ is also odd. All we will need to know is that $x$ is odd.

We now rewrite the equation $y^2 = x^3 - 2$ as

\[ (2.1) \quad x^3 = y^2 + 2 = (y + \sqrt{-2})(y - \sqrt{-2}). \]

We have factored $y^2 + 2$ in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ and will copy the idea in the proof of Theorem 1.1. Our first task is to show $y \pm \sqrt{-2}$ are relatively prime in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$. The key idea is to pick an arbitrary common divisor of $y + \sqrt{-2}$ and $y - \sqrt{-2}$, write down some divisibility relations with it in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$, and then take norms down to $\mathbb{Z}$ to draw conclusions. The norm $N(a + b\sqrt{-2}) = a^2 + 2b^2$ on $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ is multiplicative and takes nonnegative values. In particular, if $\alpha \mid \beta$ in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ then $N(\alpha) \mid N(\beta)$ in $\mathbb{Z}$.

Let $d$ be a common divisor of $y + \sqrt{-2}$ and $y - \sqrt{-2}$. We want to show $d = \pm 1$. A divisor of two numbers divides their difference, so $d$ divides $(y + \sqrt{-2}) - (y - \sqrt{-2}) = 2\sqrt{-2}$, which doesn’t involve $y$. So $d \mid 2\sqrt{-2}$ in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$, and taking norms turns this into $N(d) \mid 8$ in $\mathbb{Z}$. At the same time, $N(d)$ divides $N(y + \sqrt{-2}) = y^2 + 2 = x^3$, which is odd, so $N(d)$ is odd.
The only odd positive divisor of 8 is 1, so \(N(d) = 1\). Therefore \(d = \pm 1\), so \(y + \sqrt{-2}\) and \(y - \sqrt{-2}\) are relatively prime.

So far we have not used unique factorization in \(\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]\). Now we do. Equation (2.1) expresses a cube in \(\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]\) as a product of relatively prime factors \(y + \sqrt{-2}\) and \(y - \sqrt{-2}\). Therefore \(y + \sqrt{-2}\) is a unit times a cube. The units in \(\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]\) are \(\pm 1\), which are both cubes. Therefore \(y + \sqrt{-2}\) is a pure cube: for some \(m\) and \(n\) in \(\mathbb{Z}\),

\[
y + \sqrt{-2} = (m + n\sqrt{-2})^3 = (m^3 - 6mn^2) + (3m^2n - 2n^3)\sqrt{-2}.
\]

Equating real and imaginary parts,

\[
y = m(m^2 - 6n^2), \quad 1 = n(3m^2 - 2n^2).
\]

From the second equation \(n = \pm 1\). If \(n = 1\) then \(1 = 3m^2 - 2\), so \(m^2 = 1\). Thus \(m = \pm 1\), which makes \(y = \pm(1 - 6) = \pm 5\) and \(x^3 = 25 + 2 = 27\) so \(x = 3\). We have recovered the solutions \((3, \pm 5)\). If \(n = -1\) then \(1 = -(3m^2 - 2)\), so \(3m^2 = 1\). This has no integral solutions, so we are done. The only integer solutions to \(y^2 = x^3 - 2\) are \((3, \pm 5)\). \(\square\)

While \(y^2 = x^3 - 2\) has finitely many integral solutions, it has infinitely many rational solutions. The next simplest rational solutions of \(y^2 = x^3 - 2\) after \((3, \pm 5)\) are

\[
\left(\frac{129}{100}, \frac{383}{1000}\right) \text{ and } \left(\frac{164323}{29241}, \pm \frac{66234835}{5000211}\right).
\]