# ON THE DIOPHANTINE EQUATION $2^{x}=x^{2}+y^{2}-2$ 

Alexandru Gica, Florian Luca


#### Abstract

In this paper, we show that the only positive integer solutions of the equation $2^{x}=$ $x^{2}+y^{2}-2$ are $(x, y)=(3,1),(5,3),(7,9)$. We propose also the following conjecture: the equation $2^{x}=y^{2}+z^{2}\left(x^{2}-2\right)$, where $y, z$ are odd positive integers and $x$ is a positive integer such that $x^{2}-2$ is a prime number, has the only solutions $(x, y, z)=(3,1,1),(5,3,1),(7,9,1),(13,3,7)$. The conjecture implies a recent result of Lee [4] which states that if $x^{2}-2$ is an odd prime number such that the class number $h\left(x^{2}-2\right)$ of the quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}\left[\sqrt{x^{2}-2}\right]$ is 1 , then $x=3,5,7,13$.


Keywords: diophantine equations, applications of Baker's method.

## 1. Introduction and Motivation

In this paper, we solve the Diophantine equation

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

in positive integers $x$ and $y$. The result is the following.
Theorem 1. The only positive integer solutions of equation (1) are $(x, y)=$ $(3,1),(5,3),(7,9)$.

Before getting to the proof, let us give some motivation for solving this particular Diophantine equation. In [4], Jungyun Lee proved the following conjecture of Mollin and Williams (see Conjecture 5.4.4. on page 176 of [5]).

Theorem 2. Let $d=n^{2} \pm 2$ be a squarefree integer. Then $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]$ has class number $h(d)>1$ if $n>20$.

[^0]The following is a consequence of the above theorem.
Theorem 3. Let $p$ be a prime number with the property that $p-a^{2}$ is a prime number for every even positive integer $a<\sqrt{p}$ and $p-a^{2}$ is twice times a prime number for every odd positive integer $a<\sqrt{p}$. Then $p=7,23,47,167$.

Proof. In [3], the first author analyzed this problem and proved that all prime numbers $p$ which fulfil the above conditions have to be of the form $p=x^{2}-2$ with some odd positive integer $x$ such that every odd prime $q<p$ has the property that $p$ is a quadratic non-residue modulo $q$. Let us consider now the quadratic field $\mathbb{K}:=\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{p}]$ and let $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ be its ring of integers. The Minkowski constant for $\mathbb{K}$ is

$$
\sqrt{p}=\sqrt{x^{2}-2}<x
$$

Since $p$ is a quadratic non-residue modulo $q$ for all odd primes $q<x$, it follows that $q \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is a prime ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$. Since $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, we have that $2 \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}=P^{2}$, where $P$ is a prime ideal with norm 2. But $N(x+\sqrt{p})=x^{2}-p=x^{2}-\left(x^{2}-2\right)=2$, so $P=(x+\sqrt{p}) \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is also a principal ideal. Here and in what follows, we use $N_{\mathbb{K} / \mathbb{Q}}$ for the norm map from $\mathbb{K}$ to $\mathbb{Q}$ either at the level of ideals or of elements. Since all prime ideals whose norms are below the Minkowski constant are principal, we deduce that $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is a principal ideal domain, so $h(p)=1$, and now Theorem 2 ensures that $p=7,23,47,167$.

In an attempt to give a proof of Theorem 3 without using Theorem 2, we were led to the following conjecture.

Conjecture 4. The only solutions of the Diophantine equation $2^{x}=y^{2}+z^{2}\left(x^{2}-2\right)$ in odd positive integers $x, y, z$ such that $x^{2}-2$ is prime number are $(x, y, z)=$ $(3,1,1),(5,3,1),(7,9,1),(13,3,7)$.

Next we show how the truth of Conjecture 4 implies the Theorem 2. Let us suppose that $p=x^{2}-2$ is an odd prime such that $h(p)=1$. A beautiful result of Hirzebruch and Zagier [7], says that if $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ is a prime number such that $h(p)=1$ and the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{p}$ is $\left[a_{0} ;\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{s}\right\}\right]$, then the class number of the field $\mathbb{L}=\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{-p}]$ equals

$$
\frac{1}{3}\left(a_{s}-a_{s-1}+a_{s-2}-\cdots \pm a_{1}\right)
$$

Since the expansion of $\sqrt{p}=\sqrt{x^{2}-2}$ as continued fraction is

$$
\sqrt{x^{2}-2}=[x-1 ;\{1, x-2,1,2(x-1)\}]
$$

we get that the class number of $\mathbb{L}$ is

$$
h(-p)=\frac{1}{3}[2(x-1)-1+(x-2)-1]=x-2 .
$$

Observe that $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{L}}=\mathbb{Z}[(1+\sqrt{-p}) / 2]$. Since $p=x^{2}-2 \equiv 7(\bmod 8)$, we have that $2 \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}=P_{1} P_{2}$, where $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are distinct prime ideals each of norm 2. Since $h(-p)=x-2$, we get that $P_{1}^{x-2}$ is a principal ideal. Thus,

$$
P_{1}^{x-2}=\left(\frac{y+z \sqrt{-p}}{2}\right) \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}
$$

for some integers $y$ and $z$ of the same parity. If $y$ and $z$ are even, then putting $y=2 y_{1}$ and $z=2 z_{1}$ we get

$$
P_{1}^{x-2}=\left(y_{1}+z_{1} \sqrt{-p}\right) \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{L}} .
$$

Taking norms in the last equality above we obtain $2^{x-2}=y_{1}^{2}+p z_{1}^{2}$. Since $x \geqslant 3$, we get that $y_{1} \equiv z_{1}(\bmod 2)$. Hence, $P_{1} P_{2}=2 \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ divides $\left(y_{1}+z_{1} \sqrt{-p}\right) \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{L}}=P_{1}^{x-2}$, which is a contradiction. Thus, both $y$ and $z$ are odd and taking norms in the equality

$$
P_{1}^{x-2}=\left(\frac{y+z \sqrt{-p}}{2}\right) \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{L}}
$$

we get $2^{x-2}=\left(y^{2}+p z^{2}\right) / 4$, which is the same as

$$
2^{x}=y^{2}+z^{2}\left(x^{2}-2\right)
$$

The truth of Conjecture 4 now would imply that $x=3,5,7,13$, so $p=7,23,47,167$, respectively, which is the conclusion of Theorem 3.

In this paper, we solve the equation

$$
2^{x}=y^{2}+x^{2}-2 .
$$

This is the same as the equation of Conjecture 4 for the particular case $z=1$. We do not use the fact that $x^{2}-2$ is a prime number. Our technique works whenever $z$ takes on a certain fixed value.

## 2. The proof of Theorem 1

We assume that $x>1000$ and we shall look at the small cases later. Rewrite equation (1) as

$$
2^{x}-y^{2}=x^{2}-2
$$

Observe that the right-hand side is positive. If $x$ is even, then the left-hand side factors as $\left(2^{x / 2}-y\right)\left(2^{x / 2}+y\right)$. Hence, we get

$$
2^{x / 2} \leqslant 2^{x / 2}+y \leqslant 2^{x}-y^{2}=x^{2}-2,
$$

which is false for $x>1000$. Thus, $x$ is odd. Equation (1) can be rewritten as

$$
\left(2^{(x-1) / 2} \sqrt{2}-y\right)\left(2^{(x-1) / 2} \sqrt{2}+y\right)=x^{2}-2
$$

so

$$
0<\sqrt{2}-\frac{y}{2^{(x-1) / 2}}<\frac{x^{2}}{2^{(x-1) / 2}\left(2^{(x-1) / 2} \sqrt{2}+y\right)}<\frac{x^{2}}{2^{x-1}}
$$

Since $x$ is odd, so is $y$, therefore the fraction $y / 2^{(x-1) / 2}$ is reduced. A result of Worley [6] (see also Theorem 1 in [2]), asserts that there exist two nonnegative integers $r$ and $s$ with $\max \{r, s\}<2 x^{2}$ such that

$$
\left(y, 2^{(x-1) / 2}\right)=\left(r p_{m} \pm s p_{m-1}, r q_{m} \pm s q_{m-1}\right)
$$

for some positive integer $m$, where $\left\{p_{m} / q_{m}\right\}_{m \geqslant 0}$ is the sequence of convergents of $\sqrt{2}$. Since $\sqrt{2}=[1,\{2\}]$, it follows that $q_{0}=1, q_{1}=2$ and $q_{m+2}=2 q_{m+1}+q_{m}$ for all $m \geqslant 0$. This is a binary recurrent sequence whose general term is

$$
q_{m}=\frac{\alpha^{m+1}-\beta^{m+1}}{\alpha-\beta}, \quad \text { for all } \quad m \geqslant 0, \quad \text { where } \quad(\alpha, \beta):=(1+\sqrt{2}, 1-\sqrt{2})
$$

Thus, we get the relation

$$
\begin{gather*}
2^{(x-1) / 2}=r q_{m} \pm s q_{m-1}=\gamma \alpha^{m}+\delta \beta^{m}  \tag{2}\\
\text { where } \quad(\gamma, \delta):=\left(\frac{r \alpha+\varepsilon s}{\alpha-\beta}, \frac{-r \beta-\varepsilon s}{\alpha-\beta}\right), \quad \text { and } \quad \varepsilon \in\{ \pm 1\} .
\end{gather*}
$$

Since $1 / \beta=-\alpha$, we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
2^{(x-1) / 2}=(-1)^{m} \gamma \beta^{m}\left(\alpha^{2 m}-\eta\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\eta:=(-1)^{m-1} \frac{\delta}{\gamma}= \pm\left(\frac{r \beta+\varepsilon s}{r \alpha+\varepsilon s}\right)
$$

Let $\mathbb{K}:=\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$, whose ring of integers $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$ is principal. We compute the exponent of the prime $\sqrt{2}$ appearing in the two sides of equation (3). For a number $\eta \in \mathbb{K}$ let $\nu_{\sqrt{2}}(\eta)$ be the exponent with which $\sqrt{2}$ appears in the factorization of $\eta$. We have

$$
x-1=\nu_{\sqrt{2}}\left(2^{(x-1) / 2}\right)=\nu_{\sqrt{2}}(\gamma)+m \nu_{\sqrt{2}}(\beta)+\nu_{\sqrt{2}}(\Lambda),
$$

where

$$
\Lambda:=\alpha^{2 m}-\eta
$$

Next, observe that since $r$ and $s$ are at most $2 x^{2}$, it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|N_{\mathbb{K} / \mathbb{Q}}(\gamma)\right| & =\left|\frac{(r \beta+\varepsilon s)(r \alpha+\varepsilon s)}{(\alpha-\beta)^{2}}\right|=\left|\frac{r^{2} \alpha \beta+r s \varepsilon(\alpha+\beta)+s^{2}}{(2 \sqrt{2})^{2}}\right| \\
& \leqslant \frac{r^{2}+2 r s+s^{2}}{8} \leqslant 2 x^{4} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since the prime $\sqrt{2}$ is associated to its conjugate, it follows that $\sqrt{2}$ appears with the same exponent in the factorization of $\delta$ and of its conjugate, so

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nu_{\sqrt{2}}(\gamma)<\frac{\log \left(2 x^{4}\right)}{2 \log \sqrt{2}}=\frac{4 \log x+\log 2}{\log 2}=\frac{4 \log x}{\log 2}+1 . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, $\nu_{\sqrt{2}}(\beta)=0$ because $\beta$ is a unit. Hence, we get that

$$
\begin{equation*}
x-2-\frac{4 \log x}{\log 2} \leqslant \nu_{\sqrt{2}}(\Lambda) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

It remains to find an upper bound for $\nu_{\sqrt{2}}(\Lambda)$. For this, we use Theorem 3 of [1]. In those notations, we take $\alpha_{1}:=\alpha, \alpha_{2}:=\eta, b_{1}:=2 m$ and $b_{2}:=1$. Next, for our situation we have $e=2, f=1$ and $D=2$. We compute the logarithmic heights of $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$. Clearly,

$$
h\left(\alpha_{1}\right)=\frac{1}{2} \log (1+\sqrt{2})=0.440687 \ldots
$$

Next, observe that the minimal polynomial of $\alpha_{2}$ over $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ is

$$
\left(X-\frac{r \alpha+\varepsilon s}{r \beta+\varepsilon s}\right)\left(X-\frac{r \beta+\varepsilon s}{r \alpha+\varepsilon s}\right)=X^{2}-\frac{6 r^{2}+4 \varepsilon r s+2 s^{2}}{-r^{2}+2 \varepsilon r s+s^{2}} X+1
$$

so the minimal polynomial of $\alpha_{2}$ over $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ is a divisor of

$$
\left(-r^{2}+2 r s+s^{2}\right)\left(X-\frac{r \alpha+\varepsilon s}{r \beta+\varepsilon s}\right)\left(X-\frac{r \beta+\varepsilon s}{r \alpha+\varepsilon s}\right)=: a_{0}\left(X-\alpha_{2}^{(1)}\right)\left(X-\alpha_{2}^{(2)}\right)
$$

Recall that

$$
h\left(\alpha_{2}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\log \left|a_{0}\right|+\sum_{i=1}^{2} \log \left(\max \left\{1,\left|\alpha_{2}^{(i)}\right|\right\}\right)\right)
$$

We need an upper bound for $h\left(\alpha_{2}\right)$. Clearly,

$$
\left|a_{0}\right| \leqslant r^{2}+2 r s+s^{2}=(r+s)^{2}<\left(2 x^{2}+2 x^{2}\right)^{2}=16 x^{4}
$$

Furthermore, one of $\alpha_{2}^{(1)}$ and $\alpha_{2}^{(2)}$ is subunitary, and the absolute value of their sum is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha_{2}^{(1)}+\alpha_{2}^{(2)}\right|=\left|\frac{6 r^{2}+4 \varepsilon r s+2 s^{2}}{-r^{2}+2 \varepsilon r s+s^{2}}\right| \leqslant 6 r^{2}+4 r s+2 s^{2} \leqslant 48 x^{4} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

We thus get immediately that

$$
\begin{aligned}
h\left(\alpha_{2}\right) & \leqslant \frac{1}{2}\left(\log \left(16 x^{4}\right)+\log \left(48 x^{4}+1\right)\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2}\left(\log (16)+\log (48)+8 \log x+\log \left(1+\frac{1}{48 x^{4}}\right)\right) \\
& <3.5+4 \log x .
\end{aligned}
$$

We now choose parameters $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ such that

$$
\log A_{i} \geqslant \max \left\{h\left(\alpha_{i}\right), \frac{\log p}{D}\right\}=\max \left\{h\left(\alpha_{i}\right), \frac{\log 2}{2}\right\}, \quad \text { for } \quad i=1,2
$$

So, we can take $\log A_{1}:=0.45$ and $\log A_{2}:=3.5+4 \log x$. Next, we take

$$
\begin{equation*}
b:=\frac{b_{1}}{D \log A_{2}}+\frac{b_{2}}{D \log A_{1}}=\frac{2 m}{2(3.5+4 \log x)}+\frac{1}{0.9} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

We need a bound on $m$ versus $x$. We use equation (2). Since $\sqrt{2}=[1,\{2\}]$, it follows from the properties of the convergents to $\alpha$, that the inequality

$$
\left|\alpha-\frac{p}{q}\right|>\frac{1}{4 q^{2}} \quad \text { holds for all rational numbers } \quad \frac{p}{q} .
$$

Hence,

$$
|\gamma|=\left(\frac{r}{\alpha-\beta}\right)\left|\alpha-\left(\frac{-\varepsilon s}{r}\right)\right|>\frac{1}{8 \sqrt{2} r}>\frac{1}{16 \sqrt{2} x^{2}}>\frac{1}{23 x^{2}} .
$$

The above inequality together with (2) leads to

$$
2^{(x-1) / 2} \geqslant|\gamma| \alpha^{m}-|\delta||\beta|^{m} \geqslant \frac{\alpha^{m}}{23 x^{2}}-x^{2}
$$

where we used the fact that

$$
|\delta|=\left|\frac{r \beta+\varepsilon s}{\alpha-\beta}\right| \leqslant \frac{r|\beta|+s}{2 \sqrt{2}}<\frac{2 x^{2}(|\beta|+1)}{2 \sqrt{2}}=x^{2} .
$$

So,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{m}<23 x^{2}\left(2^{(x-1) / 2}+x^{2}\right) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The right-hand side in estimate (8) above is $\left\langle\alpha^{0.8 x}\right.$ for all $x>1000$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 m<1.6 x \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining this with (7), we get that

$$
\begin{equation*}
b<\frac{1.6 x}{7+8 \log x}+\frac{10}{9} \quad \text { for } \quad x>1000 \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now Theorem 3 in [1] tells us that if $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$ are multiplicatively independent, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nu_{\sqrt{2}}(\Lambda) \leqslant & \frac{24 p g D^{4}}{(p-1)(\log p)^{4}}\left(\max \left\{\log b+\log \log p+0.4, \frac{10 \log p}{D}, 10\right\}\right)^{2} \\
& \times \log A_{1} \log A_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Observe that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log b+\log \log p+0.4 & <\log \left(e^{0.4}(\log 2)\left(\frac{1.6 x}{7+8 \log x}+\frac{10}{9}\right)\right) \\
& <\log \left(x\left(\frac{1.7}{7+8 \log x}+\frac{1.15}{x}\right)\right)<\log \left(\frac{x}{4 \log x}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last inequality above holds because the inequality

$$
\frac{1.7}{7+8 \log x}+\frac{1.15}{x}<\frac{1}{4 \log x} \quad \text { holds for all } \quad x>1000 .
$$

So, we get using also inequality (5), that

$$
\begin{aligned}
x-2-\frac{4 \log x}{\log 2} \leqslant \nu_{\sqrt{2}}(\Lambda) \leqslant & 24 \cdot 2 \cdot(\log 2)^{-4} \cdot 2^{4} \cdot 0.45 \cdot(3.5+4 \log x) \\
& \times\left(\max \left\{\log \left(\frac{x}{4 \log x}\right), 10\right\}\right)^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

When the maximum on the right above is 10 , we get that $x /(4 \log x)<e^{10}$, so $x<2 \times 10^{6}$, while when the maximum on the right above is $\log (x /(4 \log x))$, we get that $x<4 \times 10^{6}$. Hence, at any rate $x<4 \times 10^{6}$.

All this was when $\eta$ and $\alpha$ were multiplicatively independent. Otherwise, since $\alpha$ is the fundamental unit of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{K}}$, it follows that $\eta= \pm \alpha^{t}$ for some integer $t$. By inequality (6), we get that

$$
\begin{align*}
|t| & \leqslant \frac{\log \left(48 x^{4}+1\right)}{\log \alpha}=\frac{1}{\log \alpha}\left(\log 48+4 \log x+\log \left(1+\frac{1}{48 x^{4}}\right)\right) \\
& <1.2(3.9+4 \log x)<5+5 \log x . \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, $\eta^{-1} \Lambda= \pm \alpha^{2 m+t}-1$, which is a divisor of

$$
\alpha^{8 m+4 t}-1=\alpha^{4 m+2 t}\left(\alpha^{4 m+2 t}-\beta^{4 m+2 t}\right)=2 \sqrt{2} \alpha^{4 m+2 t} q_{4 m+2 t+1} .
$$

Comparing this with inequality (5), we get that the exponent of $\sqrt{2}$ in $q_{4 m+2 t+1}$ exceeds

$$
x-5-\frac{4 \log x}{\log 2}
$$

However, $q_{4 m+2 t+1}$ is an integer. Hence, the exponent of 2 in $q_{4 m+2 t+1}$ is

$$
\geqslant \frac{x-5}{2}-\frac{2 \log x}{\log 2}
$$

It is an elementary exercise to prove that the exponent of 2 in $q_{n}$ is the exponent of 2 in $n+1$ (Hint: Use induction over the exponent of 2 in the factorization of $n+1$ together with the fact that for odd $n$ one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
q_{n} & =\frac{\alpha^{n+1}-\beta^{n+1}}{\alpha-\beta}=\frac{\alpha^{(n+1) / 2}-\beta^{(n+1) / 2}}{\alpha-\beta}\left(\alpha^{(n+1) / 2}+\beta^{(n+1) / 2}\right) \\
& =q_{(n-1) / 2}\left(\alpha^{(n+1) / 2}+\beta^{(n+1) / 2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and $\alpha^{m}+\beta^{m}$ is an integer which is congruent to 2 modulo 4 for all nonnegative integers $m$.) Hence, we get that

$$
\frac{x-5}{2}-\frac{2 \log x}{\log 2} \leqslant 1+\frac{\log (2 m+t+1)}{\log 2}
$$

Using inequalities (9) and (11), we arrive at

$$
\frac{x-5}{2}-\frac{2 \log x}{\log 2} \leqslant 1+\frac{\log (1.6 x+6+5 \log x)}{\log 2}
$$

yielding $x<42$, which is much better than just $x<4 \times 10^{6}$.
Thus, we always have $x<4 \times 10^{6}$. For these remaining values of $x$, we checked with Mathematica that for all $x \leqslant 4 \times 10^{6}$ except $x \in\{3,5,7\}$, there exists an odd prime $p$ among the first 50 odd primes such that the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{2^{x}-x^{2}+2}{p}\right)$ evaluates to -1 . Hence, $2^{x}-x^{2}+2$ cannot be a perfect square for $x \leqslant 4 \times 10^{6}$ except for the three values $x=3,5,7$. This computation took a few minutes. This completes the proof of the theorem.

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Addresses: Alexandru Gica: Department of Mathematics, University of Bucharest, Str. Academiei nr.14, sector 1, C.P. 010014, Bucuresti, Romania;
Florian Luca: Centro de Ciencias Matemáticas, Universidad Nacional Autonoma de México, C.P. 58089, Morelia, Michoacán, México.
E-mail: alexgica@yahoo.com, fluca@matmor.unam.mx
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