# Some exponential Diophantine equations attached to Pythagorean triples <br> by <br> Yasutsugu Fujita ${ }^{(1)}$, Maohua Le ${ }^{(2)}$, Nobuhiro Terai ${ }^{(3)}$ 


#### Abstract

Let $p$ be an odd prime and $t$ a positive integer. We show that if $(u, v) \in\left\{\left(2 p^{t}, 1\right),\left(p^{t}, 2\right)\right\}$, then the equation $x^{2}+(2 u v)^{m}=\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{n}$ has only the positive integer solutions $(x, m, n)=(u-v, 1,1),\left(u^{2}-v^{2}, 2,2\right)$.


Key Words: Exponential Diophantine equations, Pellian equations.
2010 Mathematics Subject Classification: Primary 11D61; Secondary 11D09.

## 1 Introduction

A triple $(a, b, c)$ of positive integers is called a Pythagorean triple if it satisfies $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}$. If $a, b$ and $c$ are pairwise relatively prime, this triple is called primitive. It is well known that any primitive Pythagorean triple $(a, b, c)$ with $b$ even can be parameterized as

$$
a=u^{2}-v^{2}, \quad b=2 u v, \quad c=u^{2}+v^{2}
$$

where $u, v$ are positive integers with $u>v, \operatorname{gcd}(u, v)=1$ and $u \not \equiv v(\bmod 2)$. In 1956, Jeśmanovicz [9] conjectured that for any Pythagorean triple ( $a, b, c$ ), the equation $a^{x}+b^{y}=$ $c^{z}$ has only the positive integer solution $(x, y, z)=(2,2,2)$. Although there are a lot of results supporting it, this conjecture has not been settled yet, even in the case where $(a, b, c)$ is a primitive Pythagorean triple. For relevant results, see, e.g., the survey paper [13] by Le-Scott-Styer.

As an analogue of Jeśmanowicz' conjecture concerning primitive Pythagorean triples, the third author [14] proposed the following:

Conjecture 1.1. Let $u$ and $v$ be positive integers satisfying

$$
u>v, \quad \operatorname{gcd}(u, v)=1 \text { and } u \not \equiv v(\bmod 2)
$$

Then the equation

$$
x^{2}+\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right)^{m}=\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{n}
$$

has only the positive integer solution $(x, m, n)=(2 u v, 2,2)$.
The third author [14] proved that if $p$ and $q$ are primes such that (i) $q^{2}+1=2 p$ and (ii) $d=1$ or even when $q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, then the equation $x^{2}+q^{m}=p^{n}$ has only the positive integer solution $(x, m, n)=(p-1,2,2)$, where $d$ is the order of a prime divisor of $(p)$ in the ideal class group of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-q})$. Conjecture 1.1 has been verified to be true in many special cases. However, Conjecture 1.1 remains unsolved (cf. Le [11], Cao-Dong [5] and Yuan-Wang [18]).

Recently, the first and the third authors [15] also conjectured the following:

Conjecture 1.2. ([15, Conjecture 1.2]) Fix $u$ and $v$ as above.
(I) If $3 u^{2}-8 u v+3 v^{2} \neq-1$, then the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}+(2 u v)^{m}=\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{n} \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

has only the positive integer solutions $(x, m, n)=(u-v, 1,1),\left(u^{2}-v^{2}, 2,2\right)$, except for the case $(u, v)=(244,231)$, where the equation

$$
x^{2}+112728^{m}=112897^{n}
$$

has exactly the three positive integer solutions $(x, m, n)=(13,1,1),(6175,2,2)$, (2540161, 3, 3).
(II) If $3 u^{2}-8 u v+3 v^{2}=-1$, then equation (1.1) has exactly the three positive integer solutions $(x, m, n)=(u-v, 1,1),\left(u^{2}-v^{2}, 2,2\right),\left((u-v)\left(2 u^{2}+2 v^{2}+1\right), 1,3\right)$.

It is to be noted that by the results in Bugeaud [4] and Yuan- Hu [17], the equation

$$
x^{2}+D^{m}=p^{n}
$$

has at most two positive integer solutions $(x, m, n)$, where $D>2$ is an integer and $p$ is an odd prime not dividing $D$ with $(D, p) \neq(4,5)$. This implies that if $u^{2}+v^{2}$ is a prime power, then Conjecture 1.2 holds. For more general equations of the form

$$
x^{2}+D^{m}=y^{n}
$$

in integer unknowns $x, y, m, n$ satisfying $x \geq 1, y>1, m \geq 1, n \geq 3$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1$, see, e.g., a couple of papers [2], [3] by Bérczes-Pink and the survey paper [12] by Le-Soydan.

In [15], the authors verified that Conjecture 1.2 holds in several cases. In particular, they showed the following:
Theorem 1.3. (cf. [15, Theorem 1.3 (i) and Corollary 1.4]) Let $p$ be an odd prime and $t$ a positive integer. If either $(u, v)=\left(2 p^{t}, 1\right)$ with $p \not \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$ or $(u, v)=\left(p^{t}, 2\right)$ with $t \in\{1,2\}$, then equation (1.1) has only the positive integer solutions $(x, m, n)=$ $(u-v, 1,1),\left(u^{2}-v^{2}, 2,2\right)$.

Since it is obvious that $3 u^{2}-8 u v+3 v^{2}=-1$ does not hold for $u v=2 p^{t}$, equation (1.1) has only the positive integer solutions $(x, m, n)=(u-v, 1,1),\left(u^{2}-v^{2}, 2,2\right)$ under the assumptions in Theorem 1.3.

In this paper, we generalize Theorem 1.3 to prove the following:
Theorem 1.4. Let $p$ be an odd prime and $t$ a positive integer. If $(u, v) \in\left\{\left(2 p^{t}, 1\right),\left(p^{t}, 2\right)\right\}$, then equation (1.1) has only the positive integer solutions $(x, m, n)=(u-v, 1,1),\left(u^{2}-\right.$ $\left.v^{2}, 2,2\right)$.

Theorem 1.4 implies that Conjecture 1.2 is true for $(u, v) \in\left\{\left(2 p^{t}, 1\right),\left(p^{t}, 2\right)\right\}$.

## 2 Key lemmas

Lemma 2.1. If $q=p^{t}$ for a prime $p$ with $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ and a positive integer $t$, then the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{2}+q^{m}=\left(4 q^{2}+1\right)^{N} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

has no positive integer solution $(X, m, N)$ with $m \equiv N \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$.

Proof. Since $N$ is odd, putting $Y=\left(4 q^{2}+1\right)^{(N-1) / 2}$ one can transform (2.1) into the Pellian equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{2}-\left(4 q^{2}+1\right) Y^{2}=-q^{m} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $m=1$, then, since $4 q^{2}+1>q^{2},(2.2)$ has no solution by, e.g., [7, Lemma 2.3]. Since $m$ is odd, we have $m \geq 3$. Hence,

$$
(X, Y, m)=\left(\frac{2 q^{2}-q+1}{2}, \frac{q-1}{2}, 3\right)
$$

is the least solution of a class of solutions to (2.2) (which is defined as the solution ( $x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}, m^{\prime}$ ) satisfying $x^{\prime}>0, y^{\prime}>0, m^{\prime}>0$ with $m^{\prime}$ minimal among the solutions in the class). Noting that $q=p^{t}$, we see from [10, Theorem 1] that (2.2) has only one class of solutions, and any primitive solution to (2.2) can be expressed as $m=3 m_{0}$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
X+Y \sqrt{4 q^{2}+1}=\left(\frac{2 q^{2}-q+1}{2} \pm \frac{q-1}{2} \sqrt{4 q^{2}+1}\right)^{m_{0}}\left(8 q^{2}+1+4 q \sqrt{4 q^{2}+1}\right)^{k} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for a positive integer $m_{0}$ and a non-negative integer $k$, where

$$
8 q^{2}+1+4 q \sqrt{4 q^{2}+1}=\left(2 q+\sqrt{4 q^{2}+1}\right)^{2}
$$

is the fundamental solution to the Pell equation

$$
U^{2}-\left(4 q^{2}+1\right) V^{2}=1
$$

However, since $q=p^{t} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ by assumption, we have $(q-1) / 2 \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$. It follows from (2.3) that $Y$ must be even, which contradicts $Y=\left(4 q^{2}+1\right)^{(N-1) / 2}$.

Lemma 2.2. If $u=p^{t}$ for an odd prime $p$ and a positive integer $t$, then the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}+4 u=\left(u^{2}+4\right)^{n} \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

has only the positive integer solution $(x, n)=(u-2,1)$.
Proof. Considering (2.4) modulo 8, one easily sees that $n$ is odd. Putting $Y=\left(u^{2}+\right.$ 4) ${ }^{(n-1) / 2}$, we obtain the Pellian equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}-\left(u^{2}+4\right) Y^{2}=-4 u \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since any solution to (2.4) corresponds to a solution $(x, Y)$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(x, Y)=1$ (i.e., a primitive solution $(x, Y))$ to (2.5), we may apply the argument described in [8, Section 11.5] to solve (2.4).

More precisely, first find an integer $l$ with $0 \leq l \leq 2 u$ satisfying

$$
l^{2} \equiv u^{2}+4 \quad(\bmod 4 u)
$$

Since $u=p^{t}$, it is not difficult to see that $l \in\{u-2, u+2\}$. Then, put

$$
\eta=\frac{l^{2}-\left(u^{2}+4\right)}{-4 u}
$$

and consider the Pell equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{1}^{2}-\left(u^{2}+4\right) y_{1}^{2}=\eta \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\eta=1$ if $l=u-2$ and $\eta=-1$ if $l=u+2$. Since the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{u^{2}+4}$ is

$$
\sqrt{u^{2}+4}=[u, \overline{(u-1) / 2,1,1,(u-1) / 2,2 u}]
$$

and $u=p^{t}$ is odd, the fundamental solutions to (2.6) are

$$
\left(\frac{u+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}}{2}\right)^{6} \quad \text { if } \eta=1 \quad \text { and } \quad\left(\frac{u+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}}{2}\right)^{3} \quad \text { if } \eta=-1
$$

Therefore, any positive integer solution $(x, Y)$ to (2.5) can be expressed as either

$$
x+Y \sqrt{u^{2}+4}=\left\{ \pm(u-2)+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}\right\}\left(\frac{u+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}}{2}\right)^{6 k_{1}}
$$

for a non-negative integer $k_{1}$ or

$$
x+Y \sqrt{u^{2}+4}=\left\{(u+2) \pm \sqrt{u^{2}+4}\right\}\left(\frac{u+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}}{2}\right)^{3 k_{2}}
$$

for a positive odd integer $k_{2}$. Noting that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{(u+2)-\sqrt{u^{2}+4}\right\} \frac{u+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}}{2}
\end{aligned}=u-2+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}, ~ \begin{aligned}
\left\{(u+2)+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}\right\} \frac{u+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}}{2} & =u^{2}+u+2+(u+1) \sqrt{u^{2}+4} \\
& =\left\{-(u-2)+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}\right\}\left(\frac{u+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}}{2}\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

we may express any solution to (2.5) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
x+Y \sqrt{u^{2}+4}=\left\{ \pm(u-2)+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}\right\}\left(\frac{u+\sqrt{u^{2}+4}}{2}\right)^{2 k} \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for a non-negative integer $k$.
The rest of the proof will proceed along the same lines as the proof of $[15$, Proposition $3.2]$. Indeed, from (2.7) we easily see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
x \equiv \pm(u-2) \quad\left(\bmod \left(u^{2}+4\right)\right) \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, let $(x, n)=\left(x_{1}, n_{1}\right)$ be a solution to (2.4). Then, the Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}+4 u y^{2}=\left(u^{2}+4\right)^{n} \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

has the solution $(x, y, n)=\left(x_{1}, 1, n_{1}\right)$. By [10, Lemmas 2 and 6$]$, there exists a unique integer $l$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{1} \equiv \pm l \quad\left(\bmod \left(u^{2}+4\right)\right), \quad l^{2} \equiv-4 u \quad\left(\bmod \left(u^{2}+4\right)\right), \quad 0<l<\frac{u^{2}+4}{2} \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows from (2.8) and (2.10) that $l=u-2$. Note that $(u-2)^{2}+4 u=u^{2}+4$ and that the solution class $S$ of (2.9) to which $\left(x_{1}, 1, n_{1}\right)$ belongs has a solution $(x, y, n)=(u-2,1,1)$, which is clearly the least solution of $S$. Thus, [10, Theorem 2] implies that $(x, n)=\left(x_{1}, n_{1}\right)$ is a solution to the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x+2 \sqrt{-u}=\lambda_{1}\left(u-2+2 \lambda_{2} \sqrt{-u}\right)^{n} \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2} \in\{ \pm 1\}$. Let $\alpha=u-2+2 \sqrt{-u}$ and $\beta=u-2-2 \sqrt{-u}$. Then, it is obvious that $\alpha+\beta=2(u-2)$ and $\alpha \beta=u^{2}+4$ are coprime, and that

$$
\frac{\alpha}{\beta}=\frac{u^{2}-8 u+4+4(u-2) \sqrt{-u}}{u^{2}+4}
$$

is not a root of unity in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-u})$. Hence, $(\alpha, \beta)$ is a Lucas pair. Moreover, if we define $U_{n}(\alpha, \beta)=\left(\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}\right) /(\alpha-\beta)$, then we have $U_{n_{1}}(\alpha, \beta)= \pm 1$, which implies that $U_{n_{1}}(\alpha, \beta)$ has no primitive divisor. Since $n_{1}$ is odd (see the beginning of the proof), we conclude from [1, Theorem 1.4] and [16, Theorem 1] that $n_{1} \in\{1,3\}$. If $n_{1}=1$, then $x_{1}=u-2$, which corresponds to the solution given in the assertion. If $n_{1}=3$, then we see from (2.11) that $3 u^{2}-16 u+12= \pm 1$ and hence $u=1$, which contradicts $u=p^{t}$ with $t>0$. This completes the proof of Lemma 2.2.

Remark 2.3. In the proof of Lemma 2.2, since $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are complex (not real), we applied the results in [1] and [16]. In case $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are real, one can appeal to Carmichael's theorem [6, Theorem XXIII].

## 3 Proof of Theorem 1.4

Proof of Theorem 1.4. Consider first the case where $(u, v)=\left(2 p^{t}, 1\right)$. In view of Corollary 1.4, Propositions 3.1, 4.2 and the proof of Theorem 1.3 (i) in [15], it only remains to prove that the equation $2^{2 m-2}+q^{m}=\left(4 q^{2}+1\right)^{N}$ has no positive integer solution $(m, N)$ with $m \equiv N \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$ in the case where $p \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$, which is confirmed by Lemma 2.1.

Consider second the case where $(u, v)=\left(p^{t}, 2\right)$. By Proposition 4.1 and the proof of Theorem 1.3 (ii) in [15], it suffices to show that equation (2.4) has only the positive integer solution $(x, n)=(u-2,1)$ in case $u=p^{t}$, which is exactly what Lemma 2.2 asserts. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.4.

Acknowledgement The authors thank the referee for reading the draft carefully and reminding us of Carmichael's paper [6]. The third author is supported by JSPS Grant No. 22K03271.

## References

[1] Y. Bilu, G. Hanrot, P. M. Voutier, Existence of primitive divisors of Lucas and Lehmer numbers, with an appendix by M. Mignotte, J. Reine Angew. Math., 539, 75-122 (2001).
[2] A. Bérczes, I. Pink, On the Diophantine equation $x^{2}+p^{2 k}=y^{n}$, Arch. Math., 91, 505-517 (2008).
[3] A. Bérczes, I. Pink, On the Diophantine equation $x^{2}+d^{2 l+1}=y^{n}$, Glasg. Math. J., 54, 415-428 (2012).
[4] Y. Bugeaud, On some exponential diophantine equations, Monatsh. Math., 132, 93-97 (2001).
[5] Z.-F. CaO, X.-L. Dong, On Terai's conjecture, Proc. Japan Acad., 74A, 127-129 (1998).
[6] R. D. Carmichael, On the numerical factors of the arithmetic forms $\alpha^{n} \pm \beta^{n}$, Ann. of Math. (2), 15, 30-70 (1913).
[7] Y. Fujita, The non-extensibility of $D(4 k)$-triples $\left\{1,4 k(k-1), 4 k^{2}+1\right\}$ with $|k|$ prime, Glas. Mat. Ser. III, 41, 205-216 (2006).
[8] L.-K. HuA, Introduction to Number Theory, Berlin, Springer Verlag (1982).
[9] L. Jeśmanowicz, Several remarks on Pythagorean numbers, Wiadom. Math., 1, 196-202 (1955/1956) (in Polish).
[10] M.-H. Le, Some exponential Diophantine equations I: the equation $D_{1} x^{2}-D_{2} y^{2}=$ $\lambda k^{z}$, J. Number Theory, 55, 209-221 (1995).
[11] M.-H. Le, On Terai's conjecture concerning Pythagorean numbers, Acta Arith., 100, 41-45 (2001).
[12] M.-H. Le, G. Soydan, A brief survey on the generalized Lebesgue-RamanujanNagell equation, Survey in Mathematics and its Applications, 15, 473-523 (2020).
[13] M.-H. Le, R. Scott, R. Styer, A survey on the ternary purely exponential Diophantine equation $a^{x}+b^{y}=c^{z}$, Surv. Math. Appl., 14, 109-140 (2019).
[14] N. Terai, The Diophantine equation $x^{2}+q^{m}=p^{n}$, Acta Arith., 63, 351-358 (1993).
[15] N. Terai, Y. Fujita, On exponential Diophantine equations concerning Pythagorean triples, Publ. Math. Debrecen, 101, 147-168 (2022).
[16] P. M. Voutier, Primitive divisors of Lucas and Lehmer sequences, Math. Comp., 64, 869-888 (1995).
[17] P.-Z. Yuan, Y.-Z. Hu, On the Diophantine equation $x^{2}+D^{m}=p^{n}$, J. Number Theory, 111, 144-153 (2005).
[18] P.-Z. Yuan, J.-B. Wang, On the Diophantine equation $x^{2}+b^{y}=c^{z}$, Acta Arith., 84, 145-147 (1998).

Received: 01.11.2021
Revised: 12.01.2022
Accepted: 18.01.2022
${ }^{(1)}$ Department of Mathematics, College of Industrial Technology, Nihon University, 2-11-1 Shin-ei, Narashino, Chiba, Japan E-mail: fujita.yasutsugu@nihon-u.ac.jp
${ }^{(2)}$ Institute of Mathematics, Lingnan Normal College, Zhanjiang, Guangdong, 524048 China E-mail: lemaohua2008@163.com
${ }^{(3)}$ Division of Mathematical Sciences, Department of Integrated Science and Technology, Faculty of Science and Technology, Oita University, 700 Dannoharu, Oita 870-1192, Japan

E-mail: terai-nobuhiro@oita-u.ac.jp

