ON TERAI'S CONJECTURE

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Abstract

Let p be an odd prime such that $b^r + 1 = 2p^t$, where r, t are positive integers and $b \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{8}$. We show that the Diophantine equation $x^2 + b^m = p^n$ has only the positive integer solution $(x, m, n) = (p^t - 1, r, 2t)$. We also prove that if b is a prime and r = t = 2, then the above equation has only one solution for the case $b \equiv 3, 5, 7 \pmod{8}$ and the case d is not an odd integer greater than 1 if $b \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, where d is the order of prime divisor of ideal (p) in the ideal class group of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-q})$.

1. Introduction and main results

In 1956, Jeśmanowicz [5] conjectured that if positive integers satisfying a, b, c are Pythagorean numbers, i.e. $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$, then the Diophantine equation

$$a^x + b^y = c^z$$

has only the positive integer solution (x, y, z) = (2, 2, 2). As an analogue of Jeśmanowicz's conjecture, Terai proposed the following conjecture.

Conjecture 1.1 (Terai's conjecture [10]). If (a,b,c) is primitive Pythagorean triple such that

$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$
, $a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$, $gcd(a, b) = 1$, $a \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$,

then the Diophantine equation

$$x^2 + b^m = c^n$$

has only the positive integer solution (x, m, n) = (a, 2, 2).

In [10], Terai proved that if p and q are primes such that (i) $q^2 + 1 = 2p$ and (ii) d is not an odd integer greater than 1 if $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then the Diophantine equation $x^2 + q^m = p^n$ has only the positive integer solution

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(x, m, n) = (p - 1, 2, 2), where d is the order of a prime divisor of (p) in the ideal class group of $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-q})$.

Terai's conjecture has been verified to be true in many special cases:

- $b > 8 \cdot 10^6$, $b \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$, c is a prime power (Le [6]); $b^2 + 1 = 2c$, $b \not\equiv 1 \pmod{16}$, both b and c are odd primes (Chen and Le
- $b \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$, either b is a prime or c is a prime (Le [7]);
- $c \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$, b or c is a prime power (Cao and Dong [2]);
- $b \equiv \pm 5 \pmod{8}$, c is a prime (Yuan and Wang [12]).

In 2014, Terai [11] proved that if $q \equiv 3,5 \pmod{8}$ is a prime such that $q^t + 1 = 2c$, then the Diophantine equation $x^2 + q^m = c^n$ has only the positive integer solution (x, m, n) = (c - 1, t, 2). In 2015, Deng [4] proved that if q is a prime such that $q^t + 1 = 2c^2$, then the Diophantine equation $x^2 + q^m = c^{2n}$ has only the positive integer solution $(x, m, n) = (c^2 - 1, t, 2)$.

In this note, using elementary methods, we mainly prove the following theorems.

Theorem 1.2. Let b be a positive integer with $b \equiv 3,5 \pmod{8}$. Let p be a prime such that $b^r + 1 = 2p^t$, where r, t are positive integers. Then the Diophantine equation

$$(1.1) x^2 + b^m = p^n$$

has only the positive integer solution $(x, m, n) = (p^t - 1, r, 2t)$.

Example 1.3. The only positive integral solution of each of the equations

- (1) $x^2 + (5 \times 137)^m = 7^n$, (2) $x^2 + (319 \times 43)^m = 19^n$,
- (3) $x^2 + (15 \times 2083)^m = 5^n$, (4) $x^2 + 21^m = 97241^n$,
- (5) $x^2 + 35^m = 750313^n$, (6) $x^2 + (23 \times 353)^m = 5741^n$

(x, m, n) = (342, 1, 6), (6858, 1, 6), (3124, 1, 10), (97240, 4, 2),by (750312, 4, 2), (32959080, 2, 4), respectively.

Remark 1.4. All of these cases can be obtained by Theorem 1.2 directly.

THEOREM 1.5. Let p and q be primes such that

- (i) $q^2 + 1 = 2p^2$,
- (ii) d is not an odd integer greater than 1 if $q \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, where d is the order of a prime divisor of (p) in the ideal class group of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-q})$.

Then the Diophantine equation

$$x^2 + q^m = p^n$$

has only the positive integer solution $(x, m, n) = (p^2 - 1, 2, 4)$.

Example 1.6. There are exactly three pairs (p,q) in the range $q < 10^{12}$ satisfying conditions (i) and (ii) in Theorem 1.5:

$$(p,q) = (5,7), (29,41), (44560482149, 63018038201),$$

which were obtained by using Pari/GP.

Remark 1.7. Our proofs of Theorem 1.2 and Theorem 1.5 are mainly based on Bugeaud's result [1].

2. Some lemmas

We need the following lemmas to prove the main results.

LEMMA 2.1 (Störmer [9]). The Diophantine equation

$$x^2 + 1 = 2y^n$$

has no solutions in integers x > 1, y > 1 and n odd ≥ 3 .

LEMMA 2.2 (Ljunggren [8]). The Diophantine equation

$$x^2 + 1 = 2y^4$$

has the only positive solutions in integers (x, y) = (1, 1), (239, 13).

Lemma 2.3 (Bugeaud [1]). Let D > 2 be an integer and let p be an odd prime which does not divide D. If there exists a positive integer a with $D = 3a^2 + 1$ and $p = 4a^2 + 1$, then the Diophantine equation

$$x^2 + D^m = p^n.$$

in positive integer x, m and n has at most three solutions (x, m, n), namely

$$(a, 1, 1), (8a^2 + 3a, 1, 3), (x_3, m_3, n_3),$$

with m_3 (if the third solution exists) even. Otherwise, the Diophantine equation

$$x^2 + D^m = p^n,$$

in positive integer x, m and n has at most two solutions. If these are (x_1, m_1, n_1) and (x_2, m_2, n_2) , then $m_1 \not\equiv m_2 \pmod 2$.

Lemma 2.4. Let p be an odd prime and c a positive integer. If (m_0, n_0) is a positive integer solution of

$$2p^m = c^n + 1$$
,

then $n_0 = 2^s$ for some nonnegative integer s.

Proof. It's obvious that the equation has no solution satisfying $m_0, n_0 > 0$ when c = 1, 2. So we consider $c \ge 3$. Let (m_0, n_0) be a solution of $2p^m - c^n$

= 1. Supposing that there exists an odd prime l dividing n_0 , we have $n_0 = kl$ for some integer $k \ge 1$. Then

$$2p^{m_0} = c^{n_0} + 1 = c^{kl} + 1 = (c^k + 1)(c^{k(l-1)} - c^{k(l-2)} + \dots + 1).$$

Hence we have

(2.1)
$$\frac{c^{kl}+1}{c^k+1} = c^{k(l-1)} - c^{k(l-2)} + \dots + 1 > l,$$

and

$$c^k + 1 = 2p^{m_1},$$

for some $1 \le m_1 < m_0$. Therefore,

$$(2.2) p^{m_0-m_1} = \frac{c^{kl}+1}{c^k+1} = \frac{(2p^{m_1}-1)^l+1}{2p^{m_1}} = \sum_{i=1}^l \binom{l}{i} (2p^{m_1})^{i-1} (-1)^{l-i}.$$

Modulo p in both sides of the equation (2.2), we obtain

$$0 \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{l} {l \choose i} (2p^{m_1})^{i-1} (-1)^{l-i} \equiv l \pmod{p}.$$

Hence l = p. Then by equation (2.1) and equation (2.2) we have $p^{m_0 - m_1} > p$. On the other hand, modulo p^2 in both sides of the equation (2.2), we have

$$p^{m_0 - m_1} = \sum_{i=1}^{l} {l \choose i} (2p^{m_1})^{i-1} (-1)^{l-i} \equiv p \pmod{p^2}.$$

Hence $p^{m_0-m_1}=p$, a contradiction. So $n_0=2^s$ for some nonnegative integer s. Thus the proof of Lemma 2.4 is finished.

3. Proofs of main results

Proof of Theorem 1.2. Let

$$b = b_1^2 \prod_{i=1}^{l} p_i \prod_{j=1}^{k} q_j,$$

where p_i , q_j are different primes such that $p_i \equiv 3,5 \pmod{8}$, $q_j \equiv 1,7 \pmod{8}$. We show that if $b \equiv 3$ or 5 (mod 8), then l is odd. Otherwise, we have

$$\prod_{i=1}^{l} p_i \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}, \quad \prod_{i=1}^{k} q_i \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}.$$

Thus $b \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}$, a contradiction. According to $b^r + 1 = 2p^t$ and Lemma 2.4, we obtain $r = 2^s$ for some nonnegative integer s.

If s=0, that is r=1, then $b+1=2p^t$. Thus $\left(\frac{2p^t}{p_i}\right)=1$ for $i=1,\ldots,l$. In view of $p_i\equiv 3,5\pmod 8$, we see that $\left(\frac{2}{p_i}\right)=-1$. Hence $\left(\frac{p}{p_i}\right)=-1$ for $i=1,\ldots,l$ and t odd. Similarly, we have $\left(\frac{p}{q_j}\right)=1$ for $j=1,\ldots,k$. It's easy to see $\gcd(b,p)=1$ and

$$\left(\frac{b}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right).$$

If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ then we have

$$1 = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} \left(\frac{p_i}{p}\right) \prod_{i=1}^{k} \left(\frac{q_i}{p}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} \left(\frac{p}{p_i}\right) \prod_{i=1}^{k} \left(\frac{p}{q_i}\right) = -1,$$

which is impossible. So

$$(3.2) p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}.$$

Hence there doesn't exist a positive integer a such that $p = 4a^2 + 1$. It is obvious that $(p^t - 1, 1, 2t)$ is a solution of (1.1). Assume that (x_0, m_0, n_0) is another solution of (1.1). Then $x_0^2 + b^{m_0} = p^{n_0}$. Hence

$$x_0^2 \equiv -b^{m_0} \pmod{p}.$$

Thus $\left(\frac{-b^{m_0}}{p}\right) = 1$. Then by (3.1) and (3.2) we have m_0 is odd. By Lemma 2.3, this is impossible. Hence the equation (1.1) has no other solution in this case. If $s \ge 1$, then $r = 2^s$ is even. By $b^r + 1 = 2p^t$, we have

$$p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

and

$$\left(\frac{2p^t}{p_i}\right) = 1$$
 for $i = 1, \dots, l$.

In view of $p_i \equiv 3,5 \pmod 8$, we see that $\left(\frac{2}{p_i}\right) = -1$. Hence $\left(\frac{p}{p_i}\right) = -1$ for $i = 1, \dots, l$ and t odd. Similarly, we have $\left(\frac{p}{q_i}\right) = 1$ for $j = 1, \dots, k$. Then we have

(3.3)
$$\left(\frac{b}{p}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} \left(\frac{p_i}{p}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{k} \left(\frac{q_j}{p}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} \left(\frac{p}{p_i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{k} \left(\frac{p}{q_j}\right) = -1.$$

It is obvious that $(p^t - 1, r, 2t)$ is a solution of equation (1.1). Let (x_0, m_0, n_0) be another solution of the equation (1.1). Then $x_0^2 + b^{m_0} = p^{n_0}$. Hence

$$x_0^2 \equiv -b^{m_0} \pmod{p}.$$

Thus $\left(\frac{-b^{m_0}}{p}\right) = 1$. Then by equation (3.3) and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ we obtain m_0 is even. So we have $m_0 \equiv r \pmod{2}$. By Lemma 2.3, this is impossible. Hence the equation (1.1) has no other solution in this case.

This completes the proof of Theorem 1.2.

Proof of Theorem 1.5. Assume that (x_0, m_0, n_0) is a solution of the equation

$$(3.4) x^2 + q^m = p^n.$$

Then we have

$$(3.5) x_0^2 + q^{m_0} = p^{n_0}.$$

The proof is divided into two cases depending on the parity of n_0 as follows.

Case 1. n_0 is even. Let $n_0 = 2k$. Then we obtain

$$q^{m_0} = (p^k + x_0)(p^k - x_0).$$

Because $q^2+1=2p^2$, we have $\gcd(2p,q)=1$. So $\gcd(p^k+x_0,p^k-x_0)=1$. Hence $p^k-x_0=1$ and $p^k+x_0=q^{m_0}$. Then

$$q^{m_0} + 1 = 2p^k.$$

By Lemma 2.4 we know that $m_0 = 2^s$ for some nonnegative integer s. Now we show that s > 0. Otherwise, we have $q + 1 = 2p^k$ and $q^2 + 1 = 2p^2$. This forces $q + 1|q^2 + 1$, which is impossible. Hence $s \ge 1$ and m_0 is even. By using Lemmas 2.1 and 2.2, we have k = 1 or 2. Then we obtain that the equation (3.4) has the only solution $(m_0, n_0) = (2, 4)$.

Case 2. n_0 is odd. Assume $(q, p) = (3s^2 + 1, 4s^2 + 1)$. Then we have $s^2 + q = p$.

Hence

$$q^2 + 1 = 2p^2 = 2(s^2 + q)^2 \ge 2(1+q)^2$$
.

This is impossible. Thus $(q, p) \neq (3s^2 + 1, 4s^2 + 1)$. It's easy to see $(p^2 - 1, 2, 4)$ is a solution of the equation (3.4). By using Lemma 2.3, m_0 is odd.

We note that $q^2 + 1 = 2p^2$ implies $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $q \equiv 1, 7 \pmod{8}$. If $q \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$, then by (3.5) we have $3 \equiv 3^{m_0} \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, which is impossible. This forces $q \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$.

Let $K = \mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-q})$ and \mathcal{O}_K its integer ring. Then $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-q}]$. By (3.5) we have $\left(\frac{-q}{p}\right) = 1$. So (p) is completely split in \mathcal{O}_K . Hence $p\mathcal{O}_K = p\bar{p}$, where p, \bar{p} are distinct prime ideals. Therefore we obtain the ideal decomposition:

$$(x_0 - q^{(m_0 - 1)/2}\sqrt{-q})(x_0 + q^{(m_0 - 1)/2}\sqrt{-q}) = \mathfrak{p}^{n_0}\overline{\mathfrak{p}}^{n_0}$$

in \mathcal{O}_K . Note that the ideals $(x_0-q^{(m_0-1)/2}\sqrt{-q})$ and $(x_0+q^{(m_0-1)/2}\sqrt{-q})$ are relatively prime and the fact that \mathcal{O}_K is a Dedekind domain. We have either $(x_0+q^{(m_0-1)/2}\sqrt{-q})=\mathfrak{p}^{n_0}$ or $\overline{\mathfrak{p}}^{n_0}$. We may assume that

$$(x_0 + q^{(m_0-1)/2}\sqrt{-q}) = \mathfrak{p}^{n_0}.$$

Then \mathfrak{p}^{n_0} is a principal ideal and so $n_0 = dt$ for some integer t. By the assumption that d is 1 or even and n_0 is odd, we have d = 1. So \mathfrak{p} is a principal ideal. Let

$$\mathfrak{p} = (a + b\sqrt{-q}),$$

with integers a, b. Then we obtain

$$x_0 + q^{(m_0-1)/2}\sqrt{-q} = \pm (a + b\sqrt{-q})^{n_0}.$$

Thus we have

$$q^{(m_0-1)/2} = \pm b \sum_{i=0}^{(n_0-1)/2} {n_0 \choose 2j+1} a^{n_0-2j-1} b^{2j} (-q)^j.$$

Therefore $b = \pm q^t$ for some integer $0 \le t \le \frac{m_0 - 1}{2}$. By (3.6), we have

$$N_{K/\mathbf{Q}}(\mathfrak{p}) = a^2 + b^2 q.$$

That is

$$p = a^2 + q^{2t+1}.$$

Hence

$$q^2 + 1 = 2p^2 = 2(a^2 + q^{2t+1})^2 \ge 2(1+q)^2$$
,

a contradiction. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.5.

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