

## 85. On a Diophantine Equation

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The purpose of this note is to prove the following

**Theorem.** *The only integer solutions of the Diophantine equation*

$$(1) \quad 3y^2 = x^3 + 2x$$

are given by  $x=0, 1, 2$  and  $24$ .

By a classical theorem of A. Thue on the elliptic Diophantine equation we know that the equation (1) has only finitely many solutions in integers  $x$  and  $y$ .\*) In order to effectively determine all the solutions of (1), we shall make use of some results due to W. Ljunggren [1], [2], and [3].

We write the equation (1) in the form

$$y^2 = \frac{1}{3}x(x^2 + 2)$$

and distinguish three cases according as  $x \equiv 0, 1$  or  $2 \pmod{3}$ .

*Solutions with  $x \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ .* Write  $x=3x_1$ . We have then  $y^2 = x_1 \cdot (9x_1^2 + 2)$ , where  $d_1 = \text{g.c.d.}(x_1, 9x_1^2 + 2) = 1$  or  $2$ .

If  $x_1$  is an odd integer, then  $d_1=1$  and we have  $x_1=Y^2$ ,  $9x_1^2+2=X^2$  for some integers  $X, Y$  with  $\text{g.c.d.}(X, Y)=1$ . Eliminating  $x_1$  from these equations, we get  $X^2 - 9Y^4 = 2$ ; but this equation has no integer solutions  $X, Y$ , since the congruence  $X^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$  is insoluble.

If  $x_1$  is an even integer, then  $d_1=2$  and so  $x_1=2Y^2$ ,  $9x_1^2+2=2X^2$  for some integers  $X, Y$  with  $\text{g.c.d.}(X, Y)=1$ . Eliminating  $x_1$ , we get the equation

$$(2) \quad X^2 - 18Y^4 = 1.$$

which can be rewritten in the form  $X^2 - 2(3Y^2)^2 = 1$ .

Now, the solutions in non-negative integers  $u, v$  of the equation

$$u^2 - 2v^2 = 1$$

are given by  $u = u_{2m}, v = v_{2m}$  ( $m=0, 1, 2, \dots$ ), where

$$u_n + \sqrt{2}v_n = (1 + \sqrt{2})^n \quad (n=0, 1, 2, \dots).$$

The sequences  $u_n, v_n$  are determined by the relations

$$u_0 = 1, \quad u_1 = 1, \quad u_{n+1} = 2u_n + u_{n-1} \quad (n \geq 1),$$

$$v_0 = 0, \quad v_1 = 1, \quad v_{n+1} = 2v_n + v_{n-1} \quad (n \geq 1).$$

**Lemma 1.** *We have for all  $m \geq 0$*

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\*) In fact, the equation (1) arises from a problem concerning MacMahon's 'chromatic' triangles in graph theory and, according to M. Gardner, it is known that the only solutions of (1) with  $x \leq 5,000$  are as listed in the theorem.

$$\text{g.c.d.}(u_m, v_m) = \text{g.c.d.}(u_m, u_{2m}) = \text{g.c.d.}(u_{2m}, v_m) = 1.$$

Proof will be easily carried out by noticing the relations

$$(3) \quad u_n^2 - 2v_n^2 = (-1)^n \quad (n \geq 0)$$

and

$$(4) \quad u_{2n} = u_n^2 + 2v_n^2 \quad (n \geq 0)$$

which is a special case of

$$(5) \quad u_{m+n} = u_m u_n + 2v_m v_n \quad (m, n \geq 0).$$

**Lemma 2.** *We have*

$$u_n \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \quad \text{if and only if } n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$$

and

$$v_n \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \quad \text{if and only if } n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}.$$

**Proof.** Indeed, we observe that

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} n \equiv 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & \pmod{8} \\ u_n \equiv 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 2 & \pmod{3} \\ v_n \equiv 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 & \pmod{3}. \end{array}$$

This can be readily verified by making use of the defining relations for  $u_n$  and  $v_n$ , or of the relations (5) and

$$(6) \quad v_{m+n} = u_n v_m + u_m v_n \quad (m, n \geq 0).$$

Now suppose that we have  $v_{4m} = 3Y^2$  ( $m \geq 0$ ) for some integer  $Y$ . Here  $v_{4m} = 4u_m u_{2m} v_m$  since we have, by (6),  $v_{2n} = 2u_n v_n$  for all  $n$ .

**Case 1.**  $m \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ . In this case  $v_m$  is a multiple of 3 by Lemma 2, and we have by Lemma 1

$$u_m = r^2, \quad u_{2m} = s^2, \quad v_m = 3t^2$$

for some non-negative integers  $r, s, t$  with  $2rst = Y$ . Putting these into the relations (3) and (4) (both with  $n = m$ ) gives

$$r^4 - 18t^4 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad s^2 = r^4 + 18t^4.$$

Eliminating  $t$  from these equations, we thus obtain the equation

$$(7) \quad s^2 = 2r^4 - 1.$$

W. Ljunggren [2, § 2] has proved that the only solutions in positive integers (or, equivalently, non-negative integers)  $r, s$  of the equation (7) are

$$(r, s) = (1, 1) \quad \text{and} \quad (13, 239);$$

the former of these will give  $t = 0$ , so that  $v_m = 0, m = 0, Y = 0$  and hence  $x = 0$ , and the latter does not satisfy our requirement and there are no corresponding solutions  $x$ .

**Case 2.**  $m \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ . By Lemma 2  $u_m$  is then divisible by 3 and we have, by Lemma 1 again,

$$u_m = 3r^2, \quad u_{2m} = s^2, \quad v_m = t^2$$

for some positive integers  $r, s, t$  with  $2rst = Y$ . We have, by (4) (with  $n = m$ ),  $s^2 = 9r^4 + 2t^4$ , which is obviously impossible, since  $\text{g.c.d.}(t, 3) = 1$  by Lemma 1, and 2 is a (unique) quadratic non-residue  $\pmod{3}$ .

**Case 3.**  $m \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ . In this case  $u_{2m}$  is a multiple of 3 by Lemma 2, and we have, by Lemma 1,

$$u_m = r^2, \quad u_{2m} = 3s^2, \quad v_m = t^2$$

for some positive integers  $r, s, t$  with  $2rst=Y$ . The relations (3) and (4) (with  $n=m$ ) will yield the equations

$$r^4 - 2t^4 = -1 \quad \text{and} \quad 3s^2 = r^4 + 2t^4,$$

whence

$$(8) \quad 3s^2 - 2r^4 = 1.$$

By a theorem of Ljunggren [1, Satz 3] the equation (8) has at most one solution in positive integers  $r, s$ ; hence,  $r=s=1$  is the unique positive solution of (8), giving  $t=1$ ,  $u_m=v_m=1$  and so  $m=1$ . Hence we have  $v_{4m}=v_4=12$ ,  $x=6Y^2=2v_4=24$ .

*Solutions with  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ .* Write  $x=3x_1+1$ . Then we have  $y^2=(3x_1+1)(3x_1^2+2x_1+1)$ , where  $d_2=\text{g.c.d.}(3x_1+1, 3x_1^2+2x_1+1)=1$  or  $2$ .

If  $3x_1+1$  is odd, then  $d_2=1$  and we have  $3x_1+1=Y^2$ ,  $3x_1^2+2x_1+1=X^2$  for some integers  $X, Y$  with  $\text{g.c.d.}(X, Y)=1$ , and elimination of  $x_1$  will yield the equation

$$(9) \quad 3X^2 - Y^4 = 2.$$

This equation has an obvious solution  $X=Y=1$ , and we find by applying a theorem of Ljunggren [3, Satz II] that  $X=Y=1$  is the unique positive solution of (9), and this gives the solution  $x=Y^2=1$  of the equation (1).

If  $3x_1+1$  is even, then  $d_2=2$  and we have  $3x_1+1=2Y^2$ ,  $3x_1^2+2x_1+1=2X^2$  for some integers  $X, Y$  with  $\text{g.c.d.}(X, Y)=1$ ; but this is impossible since the congruence  $2Y^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  has no solutions in  $Y$ .

*Solutions with  $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ .* Put  $x=3x_1-1$ . Then we have  $y^2=(3x_1-1)(3x_1^2-2x_1+1)$ , where  $\text{g.c.d.}(3x_1-1, 3x_1^2-2x_1+1)=1$  or  $2$ .

Since  $3x_1-1=Y^2$  is impossible in integers  $x_1, Y$ , we must have  $3x_1-1$  even, and so  $3x_1-1=2Y^2$ ,  $3x_1^2-2x_1+1=2X^2$  for some integers  $X, Y$  with  $\text{g.c.d.}(X, Y)=1$ , whence

$$(10) \quad 3X^2 - 2Y^4 = 1.$$

The equation (10), which is satisfied by  $X=Y=1$ , has at most one solution in positive integers  $X$  and  $Y$ , again by Ljunggren's [3, Satz II]. Hence,  $X=Y=1$  is the unique positive solution of (10), and so  $x=2Y^2=2$  is the only integer solution of the equation (1) with  $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ .

The proof of our theorem is now complete.

### References

- [1] W. Ljunggren: Über die unbestimmte Gleichung  $Ax^2 - By^4 = C$ . Archiv for Math. og Naturvid. (oslo), **41**, nr. 10 (1938).
- [2] —: Zur Theorie der Gleichung  $x^2 + 1 = Dy^4$ . Avh. det Norske Vid.-Akad. Oslo. I. Mat.-Naturvid. Klasse, nr. 5 (1942).
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