

# A unique pair of triangles

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## Abstract

This short note recounts a recent result of Hirakawa and Matsumura.

**Theorem** (Hirakawa–Matsumura<sup>1</sup>). *Up to similarity, there is a unique pair of a rational right triangle  $R_0 := (135, 352, 377)$  and a rational isosceles triangle  $I_0 := (132, 366, 366)$  with equal perimeter and area.*

Integral right triangles are parameterised by Pythagorean triples  $(2kmn, k(m^2 - n^2), k(m^2 + n^2))$  for some  $k, m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . By setting  $q := n/m$ , this also parameterises rational right triangles by

$$R = (2rq, r(1 - q^2), r(1 + q^2)), \quad q, r \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

This has perimeter  $2r(1 + q)$  and area  $r^2q(1 - q^2)$ . On the other hand, every rational isosceles triangle is the union of two identical right triangles, glued along a side adjacent to their right angles. If this adjacent side were parameterised by  $2wx$  for some  $w, x \in \mathbb{Q}$ , then the corresponding rational triangle is given by

$$I = (2w(1 - x^2), w(1 + x^2), w(1 + x^2)), \quad w, x \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

This has perimeter  $4w$  and area  $2w^2x(1 - x^2)$ . Otherwise, this adjacent side is necessarily parameterised by  $u(1 - v^2)$  for some  $u, v \in \mathbb{Q}$ , and the corresponding rational isosceles triangle is given by

$$(4uv, u(1 + v^2), u(1 + v^2)), \quad u, v \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

However, this can also be recovered from  $I$  by setting  $w := u(1 + v)^2/2$  and  $x := |(1 - v)/(1 + v)|$ , so it suffices to consider pairs of triangles  $(R, I)$ . By setting  $z := r/w$  and equating the perimeters and areas,

$$z(1 + q) = 2, \quad z^2q(1 - q^2) = 2x(1 - x^2).$$

The first equation says  $q = 2/z - 1$ , so substituting it into the second gives  $2z^2 - (x^3 - x + 6)z + 4 = 0$ . Since  $z \in \mathbb{Q}$ , the discriminant of  $2z^2 - (x^3 - x + 6)z + 4$  as a polynomial in  $z$  is a square, or in other words that

$$y^2 = (x^3 - x + 6)^2 - 32, \quad y \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

This equation cuts out an affine curve, and its non-singular compactification defines a hyperelliptic curve of genus two. In general, a *nice curve*  $C$  over a field  $F$  will be a smooth proper geometrically integral scheme of dimension one over  $F$ , and its *genus*  $g_C \in \mathbb{N}$  is the dimension of the first cohomology group of its structure sheaf as a vector space over  $F$ . A nice curve  $C$  over  $F$  is *hyperelliptic* if it admits a degree two morphism to the projective line, so it is the union of the affine curve  $y^2 = f(x)$  for some square-free polynomial  $f(x) \in F[x]$  of degree  $d \in \{2g_C + 1, 2g_C + 2\}$ , and the *curve at infinity*  $v^2 = u^{2g_C+2}f(1/u)$  glued along  $x = 1/u$  and  $y = v/u^{g_C+1}$ . By the Riemann–Roch theorem, every nice curve of genus two is hyperelliptic.

Now let  $C$  be a nice curve over  $\mathbb{Q}$  with  $g_C > 1$ . Via the Abel–Jacobi map,  $C$  embeds naturally into its *Jacobian variety*  $J_C$ , which is an abelian variety of dimension  $g_C$  defined as the moduli space of degree zero divisors on  $C$  up to linear equivalence. By the Mordell–Weil theorem, its group of rational points  $J_C(\mathbb{Q})$  is finitely generated, so it has a finite *torsion subgroup*  $T_C$  and a *rank*  $r_C \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $J_C(\mathbb{Q}) \cong T_C \oplus \mathbb{Z}^{r_C}$ , so in particular  $J_C(\mathbb{Q})/2 \cong T_C[2] \oplus \mathbb{F}_2^{r_C}$ . This in turn injects into the 2-Selmer group  $S_2(J_C(\mathbb{Q}))$ , which is a finite-dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_2$  that is computable in principle.

<sup>1</sup>Y Hirakawa and H Matsumura. A unique pair of triangles. *Journal of Number Theory* 194 (2019), 297–302

Let  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  be a prime. It turns out that the base change  $C_p$  of  $C$  to  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  has a unique *minimal model*  $\mathcal{C}_p$  over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . This is a flat proper regular scheme over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  whose base change to  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  is  $C_p$ , and it is minimal with respect to the partial ordering induced by morphisms of models over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . Then  $C$  is said to have *good reduction* at  $p$  if the base change  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_p$  of  $\mathcal{C}_p$  to  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is a nice curve over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . If  $C$  happens to be cut out by a polynomial over  $\mathbb{Z}$ , then  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_p$  can be obtained from  $C$  simply by reducing its coefficients modulo  $p$ . For instance, if  $C$  is hyperelliptic given by an equation  $y^2 = f(x)$  for some  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , then  $C$  has good reduction at  $p > 2$  precisely if it does not divide the discriminant of  $f(x)$ .

Mordell conjectured that its set of rational points  $C(\mathbb{Q})$  is finite, and this was subsequently proved by Faltings using deep results in algebraic geometry. However, his proof is *ineffective*, in the sense that it does not give a recipe to determine  $C(\mathbb{Q})$ . Coleman, building upon the work of Chabauty, proved an effective version of Mordell's conjecture under certain assumptions.

**Theorem** (Chabauty–Coleman<sup>2</sup>). *Let  $C$  be a nice curve over  $\mathbb{Q}$  with  $g_C > 1$  and  $r_C$  such that  $C$  has good reduction at some prime  $p > 2g_C$ . Then  $\#C(\mathbb{Q}) \leq \#\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_p(\mathbb{F}_p) + (2g_C - 2)$ .*

The key idea is that  $C(\mathbb{Q})$  can be embedded into the compact space  $J_{C_p}(\mathbb{Q}_p)$  in two ways. On one hand, it can be embedded into  $J_C(\mathbb{Q})$ , whose  $p$ -adic closure in  $J_{C_p}(\mathbb{Q}_p)$  defines a  $p$ -adic submanifold of dimension at most  $r_C$ . On the other hand, it can be embedded into  $C_p(\mathbb{Q}_p)$ , whose inclusion into  $J_{C_p}(\mathbb{Q}_p)$  via the Abel–Jacobi map defines a one-dimensional  $p$ -adic submanifold. In particular, their intersection in a  $p$ -adic manifold of dimension  $g_C > r_C$  should be discrete, which was what Chabauty proved, and hence finite.

Coleman refined this idea by introducing a theory of  $p$ -adic integration. Let  $\omega$  be a non-zero differential form on  $C$  that reduces to a non-zero differential form on  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_p$ . By the theory of Newton polygons, any point  $P \in \tilde{\mathcal{C}}_p(\mathbb{F}_p)$  in  $C(\mathbb{Q})$  has at most  $1 + \text{ord}_P \omega$  preimages in  $C(\mathbb{Q})$  whenever  $C$  has good reduction at some prime  $p > 2 + \text{ord}_P \omega$ , so that by the Riemann–Roch theorem,

$$\#C(\mathbb{Q}) \leq \sum_{P \in \tilde{\mathcal{C}}_p(\mathbb{F}_p)} (1 + \text{ord}_P \omega) \leq \#\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_p(\mathbb{F}_p) + (2g_C - 2).$$

The assumption  $p > 2 + \text{ord}_P \omega$  then holds precisely because  $p > 2g_C$ .

Now let  $C$  be the hyperelliptic curve over  $\mathbb{Q}$  with  $g_C = 2$  defined as the union of the affine curve  $C_0$  given by  $y^2 = f(x) := (x^3 - x + 6)^2 - 32$ , and the curve at infinity  $C_\infty$  given by  $v^2 = (1 - u + 6u^3)^2 - 32u^6$ . By setting  $u = 0$ , there are only two points  $\infty_+ := (0, 1)$  and  $\infty_- := (0, -1)$  in  $C_\infty \setminus C_0$ , and there are eight obvious points in  $C_0$  that can be computed by searching in a bounded box, which are tabulated as follows.

$(x, y)$	$R$	$I$	$(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$
$(0, 2)$	$(0, 2, 2)$	$(2, 1, 1)$	$(0, 2)$
$(0, -2)$	$(2, 0, 2)$	$(2, 1, 1)$	$(0, 3)$
$(1, 2)$	$(0, 2, 2)$	$(0, 2, 2)$	$(1, 2)$
$(1, -2)$	$(2, 0, 2)$	$(0, 2, 2)$	$(1, 3)$
$(-1, 2)$	$(0, 2, 2)$	$(4, 2, 2)$	$(4, 2)$
$(-1, -2)$	$(2, 0, 2)$	$(4, 2, 2)$	$(4, 3)$
$(\frac{5}{6}, \frac{217}{216})$	$(\frac{5}{8}, \frac{44}{27}, \frac{377}{216})$	$(\frac{11}{18}, \frac{61}{36}, \frac{61}{36})$	$(0, 2)$
$(\frac{5}{6}, -\frac{217}{216})$	$(\frac{44}{27}, \frac{5}{8}, \frac{377}{216})$	$(\frac{11}{18}, \frac{61}{36}, \frac{61}{36})$	$(0, 3)$

The first six points do not correspond to well-defined triangles, as in each case  $R$  has a side with zero length, while the final two points correspond to triangles similar to  $R_0 = (135, 352, 377)$  and  $I_0 = (132, 366, 366)$ .

Now the discriminant of  $f(x)$  computes to be  $2^{27} \cdot 47$ , so  $C$  has good reduction at  $5 > 2g_C$ . The obvious points in  $C_0$  reduce to six distinct points in the affine curve of  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_5$  tabulated above as  $(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ , while  $\infty_\pm$  reduce to two distinct points in the curve at infinity of  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_5$ , and these are all of  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_5(\mathbb{F}_5)$ . Furthermore,  $T_C[2]$  contains a point corresponding to the degree zero divisor

$$[(-1 + \sqrt{2}, 0)] + [(-1 - \sqrt{2}, 0)] - [\infty_1] - [\infty_2],$$

and  $S_2(J_C(\mathbb{Q}))$  can be computed to be  $\mathbb{F}_2 \oplus \mathbb{F}_2$ , so  $r_C \leq 2 - 1 < g_C$ . In particular, the assumptions of the Chabauty–Coleman theorem hold, so  $\#C(\mathbb{Q}) \leq (6 + 2) + (2(2) - 2) = 10$ . Thus the ten aforementioned points in  $C(\mathbb{Q})$  are complete, which proves the Hirakawa–Matsumura theorem.

<sup>2</sup>Robert Coleman. Effective Chabauty. *Duke Mathematical Journal* 52 (1985), no. 3, 765–770