# Some polynomial formulas for Diophantine quadruples 

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The Greek mathematician Diophantus of Alexandria studied the following problem: Find four (positive rational) numbers such that the product of any two of them increased by 1 is a perfect square. He obtained the following solution: $\frac{1}{16}, \frac{33}{16}, \frac{17}{4}, \frac{105}{16}$ (see [4]).

Fermat obtained four positive integers satisfying the condition of the problem above: $1,3,8,120$. For example, $3 \cdot 120+1=19^{2}$. Later, Davenport and Baker [3] showed that if $d$ is a positive integer such that the set $\{1,3,8, d\}$ has the property of Diophantus, then $d$ has to be 120 .

There are two direct generalizations of the set $\{1,3,8,120\}$ : the sets

$$
\begin{gather*}
\{n, n+2,4 n+4,4(n+1)(2 n+1)(2 n+3)\},  \tag{1}\\
\left\{F_{2 n}, F_{2 n+2}, F_{2 n+4}, 4 F_{2 n+1} F_{2 n+2} F_{2 n+3}\right\} \tag{2}
\end{gather*}
$$

have the property of Diophantus for all positive integers $n$ (see [9], [8]). For $n=1$ we get the Fermat's solution. In [7] it was proved that these sets are two special cases of more general fact. Let the sequence $\left(g_{n}\right)$ be defined as:

$$
g_{0}=0, \quad g_{1}=1, \quad g_{n}=p g_{n-1}-g_{n-2}, \quad n \geq 2
$$

where $p \geq 2$ is an integer. Then the sets

$$
\left\{g_{n}, g_{n+2},(p \pm 2) g_{n+1}, 4 g_{n+1}\left[(p \pm 2) g_{n+1}^{2} \mp 1\right]\right\}
$$

have the property of Diophantus. For $p=2$ we get the set (1), and for $p=3$ we get the set (2).

Let us now consider the more general problem.
Definition 1 Let $n$ be an integer. A set of positive integers $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{m}\right\}$ is said to have the property of Diophantus of order $n$, symbolically $D(n)$, if the product of its any two distinct elements increased by $n$ is a perfect square. Such a set is called a Diophantine m-tuple.

In [5], the problem of the existence of the Diophantine quadruples with the property $D(n)$ was considered for an arbitrary integer $n$. The main results can be divided in the three groups.
$1^{\circ}$ If $n$ is a perfect square then there exists an infinite number of Diophantine quadruples with the property $D(n)$. Precisely, for any set $\{a, b\}$ with the property
$D(n)$, where $a b$ is not a perfect square, there exists an infinite number of Diophantine quadruples of the form $\{a, b, c, d\}$ with the property $D(n)$. There are also some explicit formulas for Diophantine quadruples with the property $D\left(l^{2}\right)$ (see [7]). For example: $\left\{1, l^{4}-3 l^{2}+1, l^{2}\left(l^{2}-1\right), 4 l^{2}\left(l^{2}-1\right)\left(l^{2}-2\right)\right\}$.
$\mathbf{2}^{\circ}$ If $n$ is an integer of the form $n=4 k+2, k \in \mathbf{Z}$, then there does not exist Diophantine quadruple with the property $D(n)$ (see also [2]).
$3^{\circ}$ If $n \not \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ and $n \notin S=\{-4,-3,-1,3,5,8,12,20\}$ then there exists at least one Diophantine quadruple with the property $D(n)$ and if $n \notin S \cup T$, where $T=$ $\{-15,-12,-7,7,13,15,21,24,28,32,48,60,84\}$, then there exist at least two different Diophantine quadruples with the property $D(n)$.

The results from the third group are proved by considering the following cases:

$$
n=4 k+3, \quad n=8 k+1, \quad n=8 k+5, \quad n=8 k, \quad n=16 k+4, \quad n=16 k+12 .
$$

In any of this cases, we can find two sets with the property $D(n)$ consisted of the four polynomials in $k$ with integral coefficients. For example, the sets

$$
\begin{gather*}
\left\{1, k^{2}-2 k+2, k^{2}+1,4 k^{2}-4 k-3\right\}  \tag{3}\\
\left\{1,9 k^{2}+8 k+1,9 k^{2}+14 k+6,36 k^{2}+44 k+13\right\} \tag{4}
\end{gather*}
$$

have the property $D(4 k+3)$. The elements from the sets $S$ and $T$ are exceptions because we can get the sets with nonpositive or equal elements for some values of $k$.

We will try now to describe how we can systematically find sets like (3) and (4).
For a polynomial $P$, the set of polynomials is said to have the property $D(P)$ if the product of any two its distinct elements increased by $P$ is a square of a certain polynomial with a integral coefficients. In application of this formulas it is necessary (see [5]) to additionally discuss the problem for which parameters Diophantine quadruples, i. e. four different positive integers, are obtained.

The idea is similar to the original solution of Diophantus: $\left\{\frac{1}{16}, \frac{33}{16}, \frac{17}{4}, \frac{105}{16}\right\}$. Namely, his set is of the form

$$
\{x, x+2,4 x+4,9 x+6\} .
$$

Product of any two distinct elements of this set, except second and fourth, increased by 1 is a square of a linear polynomial. So, it is sufficient to find a rational number $x$ satisfying the equation $(x+2)(9 x+6)+1=y^{2}$. Diophantus found one solution: $x=\frac{1}{16} \quad$ (see [4]).

We will deal with the similar idea. Let $\{a, b\}$ be an arbitrary pair with the property $D(n)$, for an integer $n$. It means that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a b+n=x^{2} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to check that the set $\{a, b, a+b+2 x\}$ also has the property $D(n)$. Indeed,

$$
\begin{aligned}
a(a+b+2 x)+n & =(a+x)^{2}, \\
b(a+b+2 x)+n & =(b+x)^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Applying this construction to the Diophantine pair $\{b, a+b+2 x\}$ we get the set $\{b, a+b+2 x, a+4 b+4 x\}$. Therefore, the set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\{a, b, a+b+2 x, a+4 b+4 x\} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

has the property $D(n)$ iff the product of its first and fourth element increased by $n$ is a perfect square, i. e. iff it holds:

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(a+4 b+4 x)+n=y^{2} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will try to solve this equation using as less as possible restrictions on number $n$. We have: $a^{2}+\left(4 x^{2}-4 n\right)+4 a x+n=y^{2}$, and

$$
3 n=(a+2 x-y)(a+2 x+y)
$$

Let us consider two following cases:
1)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a+2 x-y=3 \\
& a+2 x+y=n
\end{aligned}
$$

From this, $n=2 a+4 x-3$ and from (5) it follows: $a(b+2)=(x-1)(x-3)$.
Putting $x=a k+1$ we get $b=a k^{2}-2 k-2, n=2 a(2 k+1)+1$. Hence, we get the set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{a, a k^{2}-2 k-2, a(k+1)^{2}-2 k, a(2 k+1)^{2}-8 k-4\right\} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the property $D(2 a(2 k+1)+1)$. Putting $a=1$ in (8) we get the set (3) with the property $D(4 k+1)$. For $a=2$ we get the set with the property $D(8 k+5)$ and for $a=4$, by substitution $k^{\prime}=2 k+1$, we get the set with the property $D\left(8 k^{\prime}+1\right)$. Multiplying all elements of the set (8) by 2 , putting $m=\frac{1}{2}$ and by substitution $k^{\prime}=k+1$, we get the set with the property $D\left(8 k^{\prime}\right)$. Also, putting $m=2$ and substituting $k^{\prime}=2 k+1$ we get the set with the property $D\left(16 k^{\prime}+4\right)$. Finally, we get the set with the property $D(16 k+12)$ by multiplying all elements of the set (3) by 2.

Putting $x=a k+3$, we get $b=a k^{2}+2 k-2$ and $n=2 a(2 k+1)+9$. Hence, the set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{a, a k^{2}+2 k-2, a(k+1)^{2}+2 k+4, a(2 k+1)^{2}+8 k+4\right\} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

has the property $D(2 a(2 k+1)+9)$. Note that the formulas obtained by putting $a=1$ in (8) and (9) are equivalent.

$$
\begin{align*}
& a+2 x-y=1 \\
& a+2 x+y=3 n
\end{align*}
$$

From this, $3 n=2 a+4 x-1$ and it follows from (5) that $a(3 b+2)=(3 x-1)(x-1)$.
Let us put $x=a m+1$. Now, from $3 b+2=m(3 x-1)$ we conclude that $m$ is of the form $m=3 k+1$. Using that, we get $b=a(3 k+1)^{2}+2 k, n=2 a(2 k+1)+1$ and the set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{a, a(3 k+1)^{2}+2 k, a(3 k+2)^{2}+2 k+2,9 a(2 k+1)^{2}+8 k+4\right\} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

has the property $D(2 a(2 k+1)+1)$. For $a=1$, we get the set (4) with the property $D(4 k+3)$.

Putting $3 x=a l+1$, we have $b=\frac{1}{9}\left(a l^{2}-2 l-6\right)$ and we get the formula for the Diophantine quadruples with the property $D\left(\frac{1}{9}(2 a(2 l+3)+1)\right)$. For $a=1$ and $l=9 k+5$, the same quadruple is obtained as quadruple obtained by putting $a=1$ in (10).

Let us now discuss the conditions if $b$ and $n$ are required to be the integers. From $l(a l-2) \equiv 6(\bmod 9)$ and $4 a l+6 a \equiv-1(\bmod 9)$ we have that $a \equiv l \not \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. Putting $l=3 k-2$ and $a=3 d-1$ we get that $4 k-d \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. Finally, putting $d=4 k-1+3 m$ we obtain the set

$$
\begin{gather*}
\left\{9 m+4(3 k-1),(3 k-2)^{2} m+2(k-1)\left(6 k^{2}-4 k+1\right),(3 k+1)^{2} m+2 k\left(6 k^{2}+2 k-1\right)\right. \\
\left.(6 k-1)^{2} m+4 k(2 k-1)(6 k-1)\right\} \tag{11}
\end{gather*}
$$

with the property $D\left(2 m(6 k-1)+(4 k-1)^{2}\right)$.
Choosing $l=3 k-1$ instead $l=3 k-2$ is equivalent to the change of the sign of $k$ and $m$ in the formula (11).

Summarizing the results obtained by examining the set (6) we have:
Theorem 1 The sets

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left\{m, m k^{2}-2 k-2, m(k+1)^{2}-2 k, m(2 k+1)^{2}-8 k-4\right\}, \\
\left\{m, m(3 k+1)^{2}+2 k, m(3 k+2)^{2}+2 k+2,9 m(2 k+1)^{2}+8 k+4\right\}
\end{gathered}
$$

have the property $D(2 m(2 k+1)+1)$, the set

$$
\left\{m, m k^{2}+2 k-2, m(k+1)^{2}+2 k+4, m(2 k+1)^{2}+8 k+4\right\}
$$

has the property $D(2 m(2 k+1)+9)$ and the set

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left\{9 m+4(3 k-1),(3 k-2)^{2} m+2(k-1)\left(6 k^{2}-4 k+1\right),(3 k+1)^{2} m+2 k\left(6 k^{2}+2 k-1\right)\right. \\
\left.(6 k-1)^{2} m+4 k(2 k-1)(6 k-1)\right\}
\end{gathered}
$$

has the property $D\left(2 m(6 k-1)+(4 k-1)^{2}\right)$.

The similar idea can be applied to the set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\{a, b, a+b+2 x, a+b-2 x\} . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

This set has the property $D(n)$ if and only if the product of its third and fourth element increased by $n$ is a perfect square:

$$
(a+b+2 x)(a+b-2 x)+n=y^{2} .
$$

Hence, $3 n=(b-a-y)(b-a+y)$. Again, we are going to discuss two different cases:
1)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b-a-y=3 \\
& b-a+y=n
\end{aligned}
$$

From this, $n=2 b-2 a-3$ and from (5) it follows: $(a+2)(b-2)=(x-1)(x+1)$.
Putting $x=(a+2) k+1$ we get $b=a k^{2}+2\left(k^{2}+k+1\right)$ and $n=2 a\left(k^{2}-1\right)+(2 k+1)^{2}$. Therefore, we have the set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{a, a k^{2}+2\left(k^{2}+k+1\right), a(k-1)^{2}+2 k(k-1), a(k+1)^{2}+2(k+1)(k+2)\right\} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the property $D\left(2 a\left(k^{2}-1\right)+(2 k+1)^{2}\right)$.
For $x=(a+2) k-1$, we get the equivalent result. Namely, we can get the obtained Diophantine quadruple by substituting $k^{\prime}=-k$ in (13).
2)

$$
\begin{aligned}
b-a-y & =1 \\
b-a+y & =3 n
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, $3 n=2 b-2 a-1$ and, from (5), it follows: $\quad(3 a+2)(3 b-2)=(3 x-1)(3 x+1)$.
Let us put $3 x=(3 a+2) m+1$. As $3 b=m[(3 a+2) m+2]+2$, we conclude that $m$ has to be of the form $m=3 k+1$. Putting that in the formula, we get the set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{a, a(3 k+1)^{2}+2\left(3 k^{2}+3 k+1\right), a(3 k+2)^{2}+2(k+1)(3 k+2), 9 a k^{2}+2 k(3 k+1)\right\} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the property $D\left(2 a k(3 k+2)+(2 k+1)^{2}\right)$.
For $3 x=(3 a+2) k-1$, the Diophantine quadruple equivalent to the (14) is obtained.
We have thus proved

Theorem 2 The set

$$
\left\{m, m k^{2}+2\left(k^{2}+k+1\right), m(k-1)^{2}+2 k(k-1), m(k+1)^{2}+2(k+1)(k+2)\right\}
$$

has the property $D\left(2 m\left(k^{2}-1\right)+(2 k+1)^{2}\right)$ and the set

$$
\left\{m, m(3 k+1)^{2}+2\left(3 k^{2}+3 k+1\right), m(3 k+2)^{2}+2(k+1)(3 k+2), 9 m k^{2}+2 k(3 k+1)\right\}
$$

has the property $D\left(2 m k(3 k+2)+(2 k+1)^{2}\right)$.

Applying any formula from the Theorem 1 and 2 to the particular value of $k$ gives the formula for the Diophantine quadruples with the property $D(n)$, where $n$ is linear polynomial in $m$. Moreover, all elements of the quadruples are linear polynomials. For example, putting $k=1$ in (11) gives the set $\{m, 9 m+8,16 m+14,25 m+20\}$ with the property $D(10 m+9)$. The question is which linear polynomials $a m+b$ allow formulas of this type. Partial answer is given by the following theorem from [5].

Theorem 3 If the set of polynomials $\left\{a_{i} m+b_{i}: i=1,2,3,4\right\}$ has the property $D(a m+b)$, where $a, b, a_{i}, b_{i}$ are the integers such that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a\right)=\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, then $a$ is even and $b$ is a quadratic residue modulo $a$.

It was proved by Arkin and Bergum [1] that the set

$$
\left\{\frac{F_{12 p}-F_{12 r}}{4}, 9 F_{12 p}-F_{12 r}, \frac{25 F_{12 p}-9 F_{12 r}}{16}, \frac{49 F_{12 p}-F_{12 r}}{16}\right\}
$$

has the property $D\left(F_{12 p} F_{12 r}\right)$. This result is the direct consequence of the fact that the set $\{4 m, 144 m+8,25 m+1,49 m+3\}$ has the property $D(16 m+1)$.

It is shown in [6] how the similar result can be obtained when there is a set $\left\{a_{i} m+b_{i}\right.$ : $i=1,2,3,4\}$ with the property $D(a m+b)$, where $a, b, a_{i}, b_{i}$ are the integers. Namely, if we denote the index of the least Fibonacci number divisible by $a$ with $Z(a)$, then the set

$$
\left\{\frac{a_{i} F_{Z(a) p}+\left(a b_{i}-a_{i} b\right) F_{Z(a) r}}{a}: i=1,2,3,4\right\}
$$

as the property $D\left(F_{Z(a) p} F_{Z(a) r}\right)$.

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