

# Triples and quadruples which are $D(n)$ -sets for several $n$ 's

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**Diophantus:** Find four (positive rational) numbers such that the product of any two of them, increased by 1, is a perfect square:

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{16}, \frac{33}{16}, \frac{17}{4}, \frac{105}{16} \right\}$$

**Fermat:**  $\{1, 3, 8, 120\}$

**Euler:**  $\{1, 3, 8, 120, \frac{777480}{8288641}\}$

$$ab + 1 = r^2 \mapsto \{a, b, a + b + 2r, 4r(a + r)(b + r)\}$$

**Definition:** A set  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$  of  $m$  non-zero integers (rationals) is called a (rational) *Diophantine  $m$ -tuple* if  $a_i \cdot a_j + 1$  is a perfect square for all  $1 \leq i < j \leq m$ .

**Question:** How large such sets can be?

**Baker & Davenport (1969):**  $\{1, 3, 8, d\} \Rightarrow d = 120$   
(problem raised by Gardner (1967), van Lint (1968))

**He, Togbé & Ziegler (2019):** There does not exist a Diophantine quintuple.

**Arkin, Hoggatt & Strauss (1978):** Let

$$ab + 1 = r^2, \quad ac + 1 = s^2, \quad bc + 1 = t^2$$

and define

$$d_{+,-} = a + b + c + 2abc \pm 2rst.$$

Then  $\{a, b, c, d_{+,-}\}$  is a Diophantine quadruple  
(if  $d_- \neq 0$ ).

**Conjecture:** If  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  is a Diophantine quadruple,  
then  $d = d_+$  or  $d = d_-$ , i.e. all Diophantine quadruples  
satisfy

$$(a - b - c + d)^2 = 4(ad + 1)(bc + 1).$$

Such quadruples are called *regular*.

**D. & Fuchs (2004):** All Diophantine quadruples in  $\mathbb{Z}[X]$  are regular.

**D. & Jurasić (2010):** In  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})[X]$ , the Diophantine quadruple

$$\left\{ \frac{\sqrt{-3}}{2}, -\frac{2\sqrt{-3}}{3}(X^2 - 1), \frac{-3 + \sqrt{-3}}{3}X^2 + \frac{2\sqrt{-3}}{3}, \frac{3 + \sqrt{-3}}{3}X^2 + \frac{2\sqrt{-3}}{3} \right\}$$

is not regular.

**D. & Pethő (1998):** All quadruples containing  $\{1, 3\}$  are regular.

**Fujita (2008), Bugeaud, D. & Mignotte (2007):** All quadruples containing  $\{k - 1, k + 1\}$  are regular.

**Cipu, Fujita & Miyazaki (2018):** Any fixed Diophantine triple can be extended to a Diophantine quadruple in at most 8 ways by joining a fourth element exceeding the maximal element in the triple.

There is no known upper bound for the size of rational Diophantine tuples.

**Euler:** There are infinitely many rational Diophantine quintuples. Any pair  $\{a, b\}$  such that  $ab + 1 = r^2$  can be extended to a quintuple.

**Arkin, Hoggatt & Strauss (1979):** Any rational Diophantine triple  $\{a, b, c\}$  can be extended to a quintuple.

**D. (1997):** Any rational Diophantine quadruple  $\{a, b, c, d\}$ , such that  $abcd \neq 1$ , can be extended to a quintuple (in two different ways, unless the quadruple is “regular” (such as in the Euler and AHS construction), in which case one of the extensions is trivial extension by 0).

**Gibbs (1999):**  $\{\frac{11}{192}, \frac{35}{192}, \frac{155}{27}, \frac{512}{27}, \frac{1235}{48}, \frac{180873}{16}\}$

**Question:** If  $\{a, b, c, d, e\}$  and  $\{a, b, c, d, f\}$  are two extensions from **D. (1997)** and  $ef \neq 0$ , is it possible that  $ef + 1$  is a perfect square?

**D., Kazalicki, Mikić & Szikszai (2017):** There are infinitely many rational Diophantine sextuples.

**D., Kazalicki, Petričević (2019):** There are infinitely many sextuples such that denominators of all the elements (in the lowest terms) in the sextuples are perfect squares.

**Open question:** Is there any rational Diophantine septuple?



**Definition:** For a nonzero integer  $n$ , a set of  $m$  distinct nonzero integers  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$  such that  $a_i a_j + n$  is a perfect square for all  $1 \leq i < j \leq m$ , is called a *Diophantine  $m$ -tuple with the property  $D(n)$*  or a  *$D(n)$ - $m$ -tuple* or simply a  *$D(n)$ -set*. Note that a Diophantine  $m$ -tuple is a  $D(1)$ -set.

**A. Kihel & O. Kihel (2001):** Is there any Diophantine triple (i.e.  $D(1)$ -set) which is also a  $D(n)$ -set for some  $n \neq 1$ ?

$\{8, 21, 55\}$  is a  $D(1)$  and  $D(4321)$ -triple (D. (2002))

$\{1, 8, 120\}$  is a  $D(1)$  and  $D(721)$ -triple (Zhang & Grossman (2015))

**Question:** For how many different  $n$ 's with  $n \neq 1$  can a  $D(1)$ -set also be a  $D(n)$ -set.

**Adžaga, D., Kreso & Tadić (2017):** There exist infinitely many Diophantine triples (i.e.  $D(1)$ -sets) which are also  $D(n)$ -sets for two distinct  $n$ 's with  $n \neq 1$ .

There exist examples of Diophantine triples which are also  $D(n)$ -sets for three distinct  $n$ 's with  $n \neq 1$ .

Main tool: elliptic curves induced by Diophantine triples.

## Elliptic curves induced by Diophantine triples

Let  $\{a, b, c\}$  be a Diophantine triple and let  $ab + 1 = r^2$ ,  $ac + 1 = s^2$ ,  $bc + 1 = t^2$ . We are interested in integer solutions  $x$  of the system of equations

$$x + ab = \square, \quad x + ac = \square, \quad x + bc = \square. \quad (*)$$

Consider the corresponding elliptic curve

$$E : \quad y^2 = (x + ab)(x + ac)(x + bc).$$

Since  $E$  has only finitely many integer points, there are only finitely many  $n$ 's such that  $\{a, b, c\}$  is a  $D(n)$ -set.

$E$  has several obvious rational points:

$$A = (-ab, 0), B = (-ac, 0), C = (-bc, 0), P = (0, abc), S = (1, rst).$$

**Proposition:** For  $T \in E(\mathbb{Q})$  we have that  $x = x(T)$  is a rational solution of the system (\*) if and only if  $T \in 2E(\mathbb{Q})$ .

Hence, we are interested in points in  $2E(\mathbb{Q}) \cap \mathbb{Z}^2$ . One such point is the point  $S$ , which corresponds to  $x = 1$ . Indeed,  $S = 2R$ , where

$$R = (rs + rt + st + 1, (r + s)(r + t)(s + t)) \in E(\mathbb{Q}) \cap \mathbb{Z}^2.$$

$A, B, C$  are points of order 2. In general, we may expect that the points  $P$  and  $S$  are two independent points of infinite order. However, if  $c = a + b \pm 2r$ , where  $ab + 1 = r^2$  (such triples are called *regular*), then  $2P = \pm S$ .

We want to find triples  $\{a, b, c\}$  for which  $2kP + \ell S \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  for some  $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We have

$$x(2P) = \frac{1}{4}(a + b + c)^2 - ab - ac - bc.$$

**Lemma:** Let  $a, b, c$  be nonzero integers such that  $a + b + c$  is even. Then  $\{a, b, c\}$  is a  $D(n)$ -set for

$$n = \frac{1}{4}(a + b + c)^2 - ab - ac - bc,$$

provided  $n \neq 0$ . Furthermore,  $n = 0$  is equivalent to  $c = a + b \pm 2\sqrt{ab}$  (and thus impossible if  $\{a, b, c\}$  is a  $D(1)$ -triple), while  $n = 1$  is equivalent to  $c = a + b \pm 2\sqrt{ab + 1}$ .

**Corollary:** Any Diophantine triple  $\{a, b, c\}$  such that  $a + b + c$  is even and  $c \neq a + b \pm 2\sqrt{ab + 1}$  is also a  $D(n)$ -set for some  $n \neq 1$ .

A computer search,  $\{a, b, c\}$  is a  $D(1)$ -set,  $a, b \leq 1000$ ,  $c \leq 1000000$ : the points  $S - 2P$  and  $4P$  never have integer coordinates, while the point  $S + 2P = 2(R + P)$  has integer coordinates for the following  $(a, b, c)$ ;

$(4, 12, 420), (4, 420, 14280), (12, 24, 2380), (12, 420, 41184),$   
 $(24, 40, 7812), (40, 60, 19404), (60, 84, 40612), (84, 112, 75660),$   
 $(112, 144, 129540), (144, 180, 208012), (180, 220, 317604),$   
 $(220, 264, 465612), (264, 312, 660100), (312, 364, 909900).$

We will show that there are infinitely many such examples.

We first note that all the examples above satisfy an additional condition that  $x(S + 2P) = a + b + c$ . A straightforward calculation shows that the condition  $x(S + 2P) = a + b + c$  is equivalent to  $q_1 q_2 q_3 = 0$ , where

$$\begin{aligned} q_1 &= -4 + a^2 - 2ab + b^2 - 2ac - 2bc + c^2, \\ q_2 &= a^2 - 4a - 2ac - 4c + c^2 - 2ab - 4b - 8abc - 2bc + b^2, \\ q_3 &= -4a - 4b - 4c - 2ab - 2ac - 2bc - 4abc + a^2 + b^2 + c^2 \\ &\quad - 2a^2b - 2a^2c - 2ab^2 - 2ac^2 - 2b^2c - 2bc^2 - 2a^2b^2 \\ &\quad + 2a^3 + 2b^3 + 2c^3 + a^4 + b^4 + c^4 - 2a^2c^2 - 2b^2c^2. \end{aligned}$$

The condition  $q_1 = 0$  is equivalent to  $c = a + b \pm 2\sqrt{ab + 1}$ , but in that case  $x(2P) = 1$ , so in this way we do not get a Diophantine triple which is also a  $D(n)$ -set for two distinct  $n$ 's with  $n \neq 1$ . The equation  $q_3 = 0$  has no solutions in Diophantine triples  $\{a, b, c\}$ .

Thus, the only interesting condition for us is  $q_2 = 0$ . It is equivalent to

$$c = 2 + a + b + 4ab \pm 2\sqrt{(2a + 1)(2b + 1)(ab + 1)},$$

and this is exactly the condition that  $\{2, a, b, c\}$  is a regular Diophantine quadruple.

It can be verified that for such triples  $n_2 = x(S + 2P)$  and  $n_3 = x(2P)$  satisfy  $n_2 \neq n_3$ ,  $n_1 \neq 1$ ,  $n_3 \neq 1$ .

**Theorem:** Let  $\{2, a, b, c\}$  be a regular Diophantine quadruple. Then the Diophantine triple  $\{a, b, c\}$  is also a  $D(n)$ -set for two distinct  $n$ 's with  $n \neq 1$ .



**Explicit infinite families of Diophantine triples  $\{a, b, c\}$  satisfying the conditions of the theorem**

**Corollary:** Let  $i$  be a positive integer and let

$$a = 2(i+1)i, \quad b = 2(i+2)(i+1), \quad c = 4(2i^2+4i+1)(2i+3)(2i+1).$$

Then  $\{a, b, c\}$  is a  $D(n)$ -set for  $n = n_1, n_2, n_3$ , where

$$n_1 = 1,$$

$$n_2 = 32i^4 + 128i^3 + 172i^2 + 88i + 16,$$

$$n_3 = 256i^8 + 2048i^7 + 6720i^6 + 11648i^5 + 11456i^4 + 6400i^3 \\ + 1932i^2 + 280i + 16.$$

**Corollary:** Let the sequence  $(b_i)_{i \geq 0}$  be defined by

$$b_0 = 0, b_1 = 12, b_2 = 420, b_{i+3} = 35b_{i+2} - 35b_{i+1} + b_i, i \geq 3,$$

Then for all positive integers  $i$  the triple  $\{4, b_i, b_{i+1}\}$  is a  $D(n)$ -set for  $n = n_1, n_2, n_3$ , where

$$n_1 = 1,$$

$$n_2 = 4 + b_i + b_{i+1},$$

$$n_3 = \frac{1}{4}(4 + b_i + b_{i+1})^2 - 4b_i - 4b_{i+1} - b_i b_{i+1}.$$

**Triples  $\{a, b, c\}$  which are  $D(n)$ -sets for  $n_1 = 1 < n_2 < n_3 < n_4$ :**

$\{a, b, c\}$	$n_2, n_3, n_4$
$\{4, 12, 420\}$	436, 3796, 40756
$\{10, 44, 21252\}$	825841, 6921721, 112338361
$\{4, 420, 14280\}$	14704, 950896, 47995504
$\{40, 60, 19404\}$	19504, 3680161, 93158704
$\{78, 308, 7304220\}$	242805865, 4770226465, 13336497750865
$\{4, 485112, 16479540\}$	16964656, 2007609136, 63955397832496
$\{15, 528, 32760\}$	66609, 5369841, 15984081

**Question:** Are there infinitely many such triples?

## A modification of the problem

So far we were interested in the maximum size of a set  $N$  of nonzero integers containing 1 for which there exists a triple of nonzero integers  $\{a, b, c\}$  which is a  $D(n)$ -set for all  $n \in N$ . If we omit the condition  $1 \in N$ , then the size of a set  $N$  for which there exists a triple  $\{a, b, c\}$  of nonzero integers which is a  $D(n)$ -set for all  $n \in N$  can be arbitrarily large. Indeed, take any triple  $\{a, b, c\}$  such that the induced elliptic curve  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  has positive rank. Then there are infinitely many rational points on  $E$ . For an arbitrary large positive integer  $m$  we may choose  $m$  distinct rational points  $R_1, \dots, R_m \in 2E(\mathbb{Q})$ , so that we have

$$x(R_i) + ab = \square, \quad x(R_i) + ac = \square, \quad x(R_i) + bc = \square.$$

We do so by taking points of the form  $2m_1P_1 + 2m_2P_2 + \cdots + 2m_rP_r$ , where  $P_1, \dots, P_r$  are the generators of  $E(\mathbb{Q})$ . We then let  $z \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  be such that  $z^2x(R_i) \in \mathbb{Z}$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ . Then the triple  $\{az, bz, cz\}$  is a  $D(n)$ -set for  $n = x(R_i)z^2$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

**Question:** For a given positive integer  $k$ , what can be said about the smallest in absolute value nonzero integer  $n_1(k)$  for which there exists a triple  $\{a, b, c\}$  of nonzero integers and a set  $N$  of integers of size  $k$  containing  $n_1(k)$  such that  $\{a, b, c\}$  is a  $D(n)$ -set for all  $n \in N$ ?

Note that if  $k \leq 4$ , then  $n_1(k) = 1$  since we have found examples of Diophantine triples  $\{a, b, c\}$  which are also  $D(n)$ -sets for three distinct  $n$ 's greater than 1.

We can show that  $|n_1(5)| \leq 36$ . To that end we consider the Diophantine triple  $\{1, 8, 120\}$ , whose induced elliptic curve  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  has rank 3. Following the procedure described above we find points  $R_1, \dots, R_5 \in 2E(\mathbb{Q})$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} x(R_1) &= 1, & x(R_2) &= 721, & x(R_3) &= 12289/4, \\ x(R_4) &= 769/9, & x(R_5) &= 1921/36. \end{aligned}$$

We then let  $z = 6$ . It follows that the triple  $\{az, bz, cz\} = \{6, 48, 720\}$  is a  $D(n)$ -set for

$$n = 36, 1921, 3076, 25956, 110601.$$

(We choose  $R_2, \dots, R_5 \in 2E(\mathbb{Q})$  so that their  $x$ -coordinates have relatively small denominators. We obtained the  $n$ 's using  $n = x(R_i)z^2$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ ).

$k$	$ n_1(k)  \leq$	rank	$\{a, b, c\}$
5	36	3	$\{6, 48, 720\}$
6	215	3	$\{28, 168, 1848\}$
7	900	4	$\{380, 1400, 3240\}$
8	7740	3	$\{168, 1008, 11088\}$
9	32400	4	$\{2280, 8400, 19440\}$
10	129600	4	$\{4560, 16800, 38880\}$
11	215991	5	$\{9120, 22770, 30960\}$
12	863964	5	$\{18240, 45540, 61920\}$
13	4932144	5	$\{37128, 118440, 182280\}$
14	7706475	5	$\{46410, 148050, 227850\}$
15	30825900	5	$\{92820, 296100, 455700\}$
16	123303600	5	$\{185640, 592200, 911400\}$
17	371289600	5	$\{59400, 108360, 223200\}$
18	4438929600	5	$\{1113840, 3553200, 5468400\}$
19	18193190400	5	$\{415800, 758520, 1562400\}$
20	18193190400	5	$\{415800, 758520, 1562400\}$

**Question:** Is there any set of four distinct nonzero integers which is a  $D(n_i)$ -quadruple for two distinct (nonzero) integers  $n_1$  and  $n_2$ .

If  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  is  $D(n_1)$  and  $D(n_2)$ -quadruple and  $u$  is a nonzero rational such that  $au, bu, cu, du, n_1u^2$  and  $n_2u^2$  are integers, then  $\{au, bu, cu, du\}$  is a  $D(n_1u^2)$  and  $D(n_2u^2)$ -quadruples. We will say that these two quadruples are equivalent.

**D. & Petričević (2019):** There are infinitely many nonequivalent sets of four distinct nonzero integers  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  with the property that there exist two distinct nonzero integers  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  such that  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  a  $D(n_1)$ -quadruple and a  $D(n_2)$ -quadruple.



Experimentally: many solutions in which  $a/b = -1/7$  and quadruples contain regular triples. If  $cd + n_1 = r^2$ ,  $cd + n_2 = s^2$ ,  $c + d - 2r = 7$  and  $c + d - 2s = -1$ , then  $\{7, c, d\}$  is a  $D(n_1)$ -triple and  $\{-1, c, d\}$  is a  $D(n_2)$ -triple. The remaining six conditions from the definition of  $D(n_i)$ -quadruples can be satisfied parametrically.

The set

$$\begin{aligned} &\{ -(-v^2 + 7w^2)^2, 7(-v^2 + 7w^2)^2, \\ &-(-2v^2 + vw + 7w^2)(2v^2 - 3vw + 7w^2), \\ &(v^2 - 3vw + 14w^2)(-v^2 - vw + 14w^2) \} \end{aligned}$$

is a  $D(n_1)$ -quadruple and a  $D(n_2)$ -quadruple for

$$\begin{aligned} n_1 &= 4(-v^2 + 7w^2)^2(2v^4 - v^3w - 20v^2w^2 - 7vw^3 + 98w^4), \\ n_2 &= 4(-v^2 + 7w^2)^2(2v^2 - 7vw + 14w^2)(v^2 + 7w^2). \end{aligned}$$

By taking  $v$  and  $w$  to be solutions of the Pellian equation

$$v^2 - 7w^2 = 2,$$

and dividing elements of the quadruple by the common factor 4, we obtain quadruples of the form  $\{-1, 7, c, d\}$  which are  $D(n)$ -quadruples for two distinct  $n$ 's. Here are few examples:

$\{a, b, c, d\}$	$\{n_1, n_2\}$
-1, 7, 119, 64	128, 848
-1, 7, 1191959, 1185664	1585088, 11095568
-1, 7, 5840864, 5826919	7778528, 54449648
-1, 7, 76695715424, 76694116519	102259887968, 715819215728
-1, 7, 376369378007, 376365836032	501823476032, 3512764332176

**D. & Petričević (2019):** There are infinitely many nonequivalent sets of four distinct nonzero integers  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  with the property that  $a, b, c, d$  are perfect squares (so that  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  is a  $D(0)$ -quadruple) and there exist  $n_2 \neq 0$  such that  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  a  $D(n_2)$ -quadruple.  $\{4r^4(r+2)^2, (r^3-4r+1)^2, (r^3+4r^2-1)^2, 4(2r-1)^2\}$  is a  $D(0)$ -quadruple and a  $D(16r^{10}+96r^9+112r^8-192r^7-256r^6+192r^5+112r^4-96r^3+16r^2)$ -quadruple.

Sketch of the proof: the set

$$\{a, ak^2 - 2k - 2, a(k+1)^2 - 2k, a(2k+1)^2 - 8k - 4\}$$

is a  $D(2a(2k+1)+1)$ -quadruple (D. (1996)). Find rationals  $a$  and  $k$  such that  $ab$ ,  $ac$  and  $ad$  are perfect squares. This leads to an elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{Q}(r)$  with rank equal to 2, where  $ab = (ak+r)^2$ .

**D. & Petričević (20??):** Let  $t$  be an integer such that  $t \neq 0, \pm 1, \pm 2$ , and let

$$a = (t-1)^2(t-2)^2(t+2)^2(3t^6 - 2t^5 - 13t^4 + 8t^3 + 16t^2 - 16)^2 \\ \times (5t^6 - 6t^5 - 27t^4 + 40t^3 + 32t^2 - 64t + 16)^2,$$

$$b = 64t^2(t-1)^2(t-2)^2(t+2)^2(t^3 - t^2 - 3t + 4)^2(t^2 - 2)^2 \\ \times (t^3 - t^2 - 2t + 4)^2(2t^4 - t^3 - 7t^2 + 4t + 4)^2,$$

$$c = t^2(t-1)^2(t^2 - 3)^2(t^6 - 6t^5 - 3t^4 + 28t^3 - 8t^2 - 32t + 16)^2 \\ \times (4t^7 - 5t^6 - 26t^5 + 39t^4 + 48t^3 - 88t^2 - 16t + 48)^2,$$

$$d = (t+1)^2(t^3 - t^2 - 3t + 4)^2(t^6 + 2t^5 - 7t^4 + 8t^2 - 16t + 16)^2 \\ \times (4t^7 - 7t^6 - 22t^5 + 49t^4 + 20t^3 - 88t^2 + 32t + 16)^2.$$

Then  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  is a  $D(n_1)$ ,  $D(n_2)$  and  $D(n_3)$ -quadruple, where

$$\begin{aligned} n_1 = & 16t^2(t+1)^2(t-2)^4(t+2)^4(t-1)^6(t^2-3)^2 \\ & \times (t^3-t^2-2t+4)^2(t^3-t^2-3t+4)^2(2t^4-t^3-7t^2+4t+4)^2 \\ & \times (3t^6-2t^5-13t^4+8t^3+16t^2-16)^2 \\ & \times (5t^6-6t^5-27t^4+40t^3+32t^2-64t+16)^2, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} n_2 = & 4t^2(t^2-2)^2(t^3-t^2-3t+4)^2(t^6+2t^5-7t^4+8t^2-16t+16)^2 \\ & \times (t^6-6t^5-3t^4+28t^3-8t^2-32t+16)^2 \\ & \times (4t^7-5t^6-26t^5+39t^4+48t^3-88t^2-16t+48)^2 \\ & \times (4t^7-7t^6-22t^5+49t^4+20t^3-88t^2+32t+16)^2, \end{aligned}$$

$$n_3 = 0.$$

Main idea: find  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  which is a  $D(u^2)$  and  $D(v^2)$ -quadruple, such that  $\{\frac{a}{u}, \frac{b}{u}, \frac{c}{u}, \frac{d}{u}\}$  and  $\{\frac{a}{v}, \frac{b}{v}, \frac{c}{v}, \frac{d}{v}\}$  and both regular rational  $D(1)$ -quadruples.

Thank you very much  
for your attention!