

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

**Andrej Dujella**

Department of Mathematics, Faculty of Science  
University of Zagreb, Croatia

URL: <https://web.math.pmf.unizg.hr/~duje/>

*Joint work with* **Nikola Adžaga, Matija Kazalicki,  
Dijana Kreso, Vinko Petričević and Petra Tadić**

**Research Seminar Number Theory  
and Arithmetic Geometry  
June 11, 2021, Leibniz Universität Hannover**

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

(extension is unique – **Stoll (2019)**)

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

**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. & 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.

There does not exist a  $D(n)$ -quadruple for  $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  (Brown, Gupta & Singh, Mohanty & Ramasamy, 1985).

If  $n \not\equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  and  $n \notin \{-4, -3, -1, 3, 5, 8, 12, 20\}$ , then there exist at least one  $D(n)$ -quadruple (D., 1993).

There does not exist a  $D(-1)$ -quadruple (Bonciocat, Cipu & Mignotte, 2021).



For any rational number  $q$  there exist infinitely many rational  $D(q)$ -quadruples (D., 2000).

There are infinitely many rational  $D(-1)$ -quintuples (using the fact that the elliptic curve which corresponds to the quartic  $y^2 = -(x^2 - x - 3)(x^2 + 2x - 12)$  has positive rank, D., 2002).

For infinitely many square-free numbers  $q$  there are infinitely many rational  $D(q)$ -quintuples. Assuming the Parity Conjecture for twists of certain elliptic curves, the density of  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that there exist infinitely many rational  $D(q)$ -quintuples is at least  $1/2$  (D. & Fuchs, 2012); the density bound improved to at least  $49171/49335 \approx 99.5$  (Dražić, 2021).

**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

**Open question:** Are there infinitely many such triples?

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  $2m_1P_1 + 2m_2P_2 + \dots + 2m_rP_r$ , 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  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

**Example:** 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

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

**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 (2020):** 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 (2020):** 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 rational  $D(1)$  and  $D(x^2)$ -quadruple for  $x^2 \neq 1$ , such that  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  and  $\{\frac{a}{x}, \frac{b}{x}, \frac{c}{x}, \frac{d}{x}\}$  are both regular rational  $D(1)$ -quadruples (*doubly regular quadruples*).

This condition leads to  $abcd = x^2$ .

Then  $ab + x^2 = ab(1 + cd) = \square$  implies that  $ab$  is a square (and analogously,  $ac$ ,  $ad$ ,  $bc$ ,  $bd$  and  $cd$  are squares, so  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  is also a  $D(0)$ -quadruple).

We use a slight modification of a parametrization of rational  $D(1)$ -triples due to L. Lasić:

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \frac{2t_1(1 + t_1t_2(1 + t_2t_3))}{(-1 + t_1t_2t_3)(1 + t_1t_2t_3)}, \\ b &= \frac{2t_2(1 + t_2t_3(1 + t_3t_1))}{(-1 + t_1t_2t_3)(1 + t_1t_2t_3)}, \\ c &= \frac{2t_3(1 + t_3t_1(1 + t_1t_2))}{(-1 + t_1t_2t_3)(1 + t_1t_2t_3)}. \end{aligned}$$

After computing  $d$  from the regularity equation, the remaining condition that  $abcd$  is a perfect square can be expressed in terms of an elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{Q}(t)$  with positive rank. One of the points of infinite order on that curve gives the above-mentioned parametric family of quadruples with the required property.

**D., Kazalicki & Petričević (2021):** There are infinitely many (essentially different)  $D(n)$ -quintuples with square elements (so they are also  $D(0)$ -quintuples).

One such example is a  $D(480480^2)$ -quintuple

$$\{225^2, 286^2, 819^2, 1408^2, 2548^2\}.$$

We say that a rational Diophantine quintuple  $\{a, b, c, d, e\}$  is *exotic* if  $abcd = 1$ , the quadruples  $\{a, b, d, e\}$  and  $\{a, c, d, e\}$  are regular, and if the product of any two of its elements is a perfect square. We showed that there are infinitely many exotic quintuples.

**Proposition:** Let  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  be a rational Diophantine quadruple with  $abcd = 1$ . Then there exist rationals  $r, s, t$  such that

$$a = xyz, \quad b = \frac{x}{yz}, \quad c = \frac{y}{xz}, \quad d = \frac{z}{xy},$$

where  $x = \frac{t^2-1}{2t}$ ,  $y = \frac{s^2-1}{2s}$  and  $z = \frac{r^2-1}{2r}$ . In particular, the product of any two elements of the quadruple is a perfect square.

Now, the regularity conditions lead to

$$s = \frac{-1 + r^2 + t + r^2t}{-1 - r^2 - t + r^2t}.$$

It remains to satisfy the condition that  $ae$  is a square. This condition leads to considering several genus 0 curves, e.g.

$$r^2t^2 + 3r^2 - t^2 + 2t - 1 = 0,$$

with a parametric solution

$$(r, t) = \left( -\frac{2u + 1}{u^2 + u + 1}, \frac{u^2 + 4u + 1}{(u - 1)(u + 1)} \right).$$

Then the condition that  $ae$  is a square gives the quartic

$$v^2 = -48(u^2 - 3u - 1)(u^2 + 5u + 3),$$

which is birationally equivalent to an elliptic curve with rank 1. The point  $(u, v) = (3, 36)$  of this quartic corresponds to  $(r, t) = (-\frac{7}{13}, \frac{11}{4})$  and gives the  $D(1)$ -quintuple

$$\left\{ \frac{225^2}{480480}, \frac{2548^2}{480480}, \frac{286^2}{480480}, \frac{1408^2}{480480}, \frac{819^2}{480480} \right\}.$$



**Open question:** Is there any rational Diophantine quintuple with square elements?

There are infinitely many rational Diophantine quadruples with square elements, e.g.

$$a = \frac{3^2(s-1)^2(s+1)^2v^2}{2^2(2s^3-2s+v^2)^2}, \quad b = \frac{v^2(-4s^3+4s+v^2)^2}{2^2(s+1)^2(s-1)^2(-s^3+s+v^2)^2},$$
$$c = \frac{(2s^3-2s+v^2)^2}{3^2v^2s^2}, \quad d = \frac{4^2(-s^3+s+v^2)^2s^2}{v^2(-4s^3+4s+v^2)^2},$$

obtained by taking  $t = 1/(r-1)$  in the proposition.

There is also an example of a rational Diophantine quadruple with square elements for which the product  $abcd \neq 1$ :

$$\left\{ \left( \frac{18}{77} \right)^2, \left( \frac{55}{96} \right)^2, \left( \frac{56}{15} \right)^2, \left( \frac{340}{77} \right)^2 \right\}.$$

Thank you very much  
for your attention!