A METHOD OF SOLVING A DIOPHANTINE EQUATION OF SECOND DEGREE WITH N VARIABLES

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ABSTRACT. First, we consider the equation

(1) $ax^2 - by^2 + c = 0$, with $a, b \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and $c \in \mathbb{Z}^*$.

It is a generalization of Pell's equation: $x^2 - Dy^2 = 1$. Here, we show that: if the equation has an integer solution and $a \cdot b$ is not a perfect square, then (1) has infinitely many integer solutions; in this case we find a closed expression for (x_n, y_n) , the general positive integer solution, by an original method. More, we generalize it for a Diophantine equation of second degree and with n variables of the form:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}x_{i}^{2} = b, \text{ with all } a_{i}, b \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 2.$$

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INTRODUCTION.

If $a \cdot b = k^2$ is a perfect square (k \in N) the equation (1) has at most a finite number of integer solutions, because (1) becomes:

(2) (ax - ky) (ax + ky) = -ac.

If (a, b) does not divide c, the Diophantine equation has no solution.

METHOD OF SOLVING.

Suppose (1) has many integer solutions. Let (x_0, y_0) , (x_1, y_1) be the smallest positive integer solutions for (1), with $0 \le x_0 < x_1$. We construct the recurrent sequences:

 $(3) \begin{cases} \mathbf{x}_{n+1} = \alpha \mathbf{x}_n + \beta \mathbf{y}_n \\ \mathbf{y}_{n+1} = \gamma \mathbf{x}_n + \delta \mathbf{y}_n \end{cases}$

setting the condition that (3) verifies (1). It results in:

$$a\alpha\beta = b\gamma\delta \qquad (4)$$
$$a\alpha^{2} - b\gamma^{2} = a \qquad (5)$$
$$a\beta^{2} - b\delta^{2} = -b \qquad (6)$$

having the unknowns α , β , γ , δ . We pull out $a\alpha^2$ and $a\beta^2$ from (5), respectively (6), and replace them in (4) at the square; we obtain:

(7) $a\delta^2 - b\gamma^2 = a$.

We subtract (7) from (5) and find

(8) $\alpha = \pm \delta$.

Replacing (8) in (4) we obtain

(9)
$$\beta = \pm - \gamma$$
.

Afterwards, replacing (8) in (5), and (9) in (6), we find the same equation:

(10) $a\alpha^2 - b\gamma^2 = a$.

Because we work with positive solutions only, we take:

$$\begin{cases} x_{n+1} = \alpha_{0}x_{n} + (b/a)\gamma_{0}y_{n} \\ y_{n+1} = \gamma_{0}x_{n} + \alpha_{0}y_{n} , \end{cases}$$

where (α_0, γ_0) is the smallest positive integer solution of (10) such that $\alpha_0\gamma_0\neq 0$. Let the 2x2 matrix be:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{0}(b/a)\gamma_{0} \\ \gamma_{0}\alpha_{0} \end{pmatrix} \in M_{2}(Z) .$$

Of course, if (x', y') is an integer solution for (1), then $A \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix}, A^{-1} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix}$ is another one, where A^{-1} is the inverse matrix of A, i.e., $A^{-1} \cdot A = A \cdot A^{-1} = I$ (unit matrix). Hence, if (1) has an integer solution, it has infinitely many (clearly $A^{-1} \in M_2(Z)$).

The <u>general positive integer solution</u> of the equation (1) is

$$(x_n, y_n) = (|x_n|, |y_n|), \text{ with }$$

$$(\mathrm{GS}_{1}) \quad \begin{pmatrix} x_{n} \\ y_{n} \end{pmatrix} = \mathrm{A}^{n} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_{0} \\ y_{0} \end{pmatrix}, \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z},$$

where by convention $A^{\circ} = I$ and $A^{-k} = A^{-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot A^{-1}$ of k times. In the problems it is better to write (GS) as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_n'\\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \mathbb{A}^n \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_0\\ y_0 \end{pmatrix},$$

 $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and

$$(GS_2) \qquad \begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = A^n \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}^*.$$

We prove by reductio ad absurdum that (GS₂) is a general positive integer solution for (1). Let (u, v) be a positive integer particular solution

for (1). If
$$\exists k_0 \in \mathbb{N}$$
: (u, v) = $\mathbb{A} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix}$, or

$$\exists k_1 \in \mathbb{N}: (u, v) = \mathbb{A} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ then } (u, v) \in (GS_2).$$

Contrarily to this, we calculate $(u_{i+1}, v_{i+1}) = A^{-1} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} u_i \\ v_i \end{pmatrix}$ for

i = 0, 1, 2, ..., where $u_{_0}$ = u, $v_{_0}$ = v. Clearly $u_{_{i+1}}$ < $u_{_i}$ for all i. After a certain rank, i_0 , it is found that

 $x_{_{0}} < u_{_{i}} < x_{_{1}}$ or 0 < $u_{_{i}} < x_{_{0}}$, but that is absurd.

It is clear we can put

$$(\mathrm{GS}_{3}) \quad \begin{pmatrix} x_{n} \\ y_{n} \end{pmatrix} = \mathrm{A}^{n} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_{0} \\ \varepsilon y_{0} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathrm{n \in N}, \text{ where } \varepsilon = \pm 1.$$

We have now to transform the general solution (GS_3) into

<u>a closed expression</u>. Let λ be a real number.

 ${\rm Det}\,({\rm A}$ - $\lambda {\cdot} {\rm I})$ = 0 involves the solutions $\lambda_{\scriptscriptstyle 1,2}$ and the proper vectors

$$\mathbf{v}_{1,2}$$
 (i.e., $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}_{i} = \lambda_{i}\mathbf{v}_{i}$, $i \in \{1,2\}$). Note $\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} v_{1} \\ v_{2} \end{pmatrix}^{t} \in \mathbf{M}_{2}(\mathbf{R})$.

Then
$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$$
, whence $A^n = P \cdot \begin{pmatrix} (\lambda_1)^{\wedge n} 0 \\ 0 & (\lambda_2)^{\wedge n} \end{pmatrix}$. P^{-1} , and,

replacing it in (GS_3) and doing the calculation, we find a closed expression for (GS_3) .

EXAMPLES.

1. For the Diophantine equation $2x^2 - 3y^2 = 5$ we obtain:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ \epsilon \end{pmatrix}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

n

and $\lambda_{1,2} = 5 \pm 2\sqrt{6}$, $v_{1,2} = (\sqrt{6}, \pm 2)$, whence a closed expression for x_n and y_n :

$$x_{n} = \frac{4 + \varepsilon \sqrt{6}}{4} (5 + 2\sqrt{6})^{n} + \frac{4 - \varepsilon \sqrt{6}}{4} (5 - 2\sqrt{6})^{n}$$

$$y_{n} = \frac{3\varepsilon + 2\sqrt{6}}{6} (5 + 2\sqrt{6})^{n} + \frac{3\varepsilon - 2\sqrt{6}}{6} (5 - 2\sqrt{6})^{n},$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

2. For the equation $x^2 - 3y^2 - 4 = 0$ the general solution in positive integers is:

$$x_{n} = (2+\sqrt{3})^{n} + (2-\sqrt{3})^{n}$$
$$y_{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} [(2+\sqrt{3})^{n} - (2-\sqrt{3})^{n}]$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, that is (2, 0), 4, 2), (14, 8), (52, 30), ...

EXERCISES FOR READERS.

Solve the Diophantine equations:

3. $x^2 - 12y^2 + 3 = 0$. Remark: $\begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 724 \\ 27 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ \epsilon \end{pmatrix} = ?, n \in \mathbb{N}$.

4. $x^2 - 6y^2 - 10 = 0$.

Remark:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 12 \\ 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ \epsilon \end{pmatrix} = ?, n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

5. $x^2 - 12y^2 + 9 = 0$.

Remark:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 24 \\ 2 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = ?, n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

6.
$$14x^2 - 3y^2 - 18 = 0$$
.

GENERALIZATIONS.

If f(x, y) = 0 is a Diophantine equation of second degree with two unknowns, by linear transformations it becomes:

(12) $ax^2 + by^2 + c = 0$, with a, b, $c \in Z$.

If $a \cdot b \ge 0$ the equation has at most a finite number of integer solutions which can be found by attempts.

It is easier to present an example:

1. The Diophantine equation:

 $(13) 9x^{2} + 6xy - 13y^{2} - 6x - 16y + 20 = 0$

becomes:

 $(14) 2u^2 - 7v^2 + 45 = 0$, where

(15) u = 3x + y - 1 and v = 2y + 1.

We solve (14). Thus:

(16)
$$u_{n+1} = 15u_n + 28v_n$$
$$v_{n+1} = 8u_n + 15v_n, n \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ with } (u_0, v_0) = (3, 3\varepsilon).$$

First Solution.

By induction we prove that: for all $n \in N$ we have: v_n is odd, and u_n as well as v_n are multiples of 3. Clearly

 $v_0 = 3\varepsilon$, $u_0 = 3$. For n + 1 we have: $v_{n+1} = 8u_n + 15v_n =$ = even + odd = odd, and of course u_{n+1} , v_{n+1} are multiples of 3 because u_n , v_n are multiples of 3, too. Hence, there exists x_n , y_n in positive integers for all $n \in N$:

(17)
$$x_{n} = (2u_{n} - v_{n} + 3)/6$$
$$y_{n} = (v_{n}-1)/2$$

(from (15)). Now we find the (GS_3) for (14) as closed expression, and by means of (17) it results the general integer solution of the equation (13).

Second Solution.

Another expression of the (GS_3) for (13) we obtain if we transform (15) as: $u_n = 3x_n + y_n - 1$ and $v_n = 2y_n + 1$, for all n $\in \mathbb{N}$. Whence, using (16) and doing the calculation, we find:

(18)

$$x_{n+1} = 11x_{n} + \frac{52}{-3}y_{n} + \frac{11}{-3}y_{n} + \frac{11}{-3}y_{$$

Let A =
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1152/311/3 \\ 12 & 19 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
, then $\begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = A^n \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ or

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = A^n \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ always } n \in \mathbb{N}; (19).$$

From (18) we have always $y_{n+1} \equiv y_n \equiv \ldots \equiv y_0 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, hence always $x_n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Of course (19) and (17) are equivalent as general integer solution for (13). [The reader can calculate A^n (by the same method liable to the start of this note) and find a closed expression for (19).]

More General.

This method can be generalized for the Diophantine equations of the form:

(20) $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i^2 = b$, with all a_i , $b \in Z$, $n \ge 2$.

If $a_i \cdot a_j \ge 0$, $1 \le i < j \le n$, is for all pairs (i, j), equation (20) has at most a finite number of integer solutions.

Now, we suppose $\exists i_0, j_0 \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ for which $a_{i_0} \cdot a_{j_0} < 0$ (the equation presents at least a variation of sign). Analogously, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we define the recurrent sequences:

(21)
$$x_{h}^{(n+1)} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{ih} x_{i}^{(n)}$$
, $1 \le h \le n$,

considering $(x_1^{\circ}, \ldots, x_n^{\circ})$ the smallest positive integer solution of (20). One replaces (21) in (20), one identifies the coefficients and one looks for the n^2 unknowns α_{ih} , $1 \leq i$, $h \leq n$. (This calculation is very intricate, but it can be done by means of a computer.) The method goes on similarly, but the calculation becomes more and more intricate, for example to calculate A^n . [The reader will be able to try his/her forces for the Diophantine equation $ax^2 + by^2 - cz^2 + d = 0$, with a, b, $c \in N^*$ and $d \in \mathbb{Z}$.]

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