

# FOUR SQUARES FROM THREE NUMBERS

ANDREJ DUJELLA AND LÁSZLÓ SZALAY

ABSTRACT. We show that there are infinitely many triples of positive integers  $a, b, c$  (greater than 1) such that  $ab + 1$ ,  $ac + 1$ ,  $bc + 1$  and  $abc + 1$  are all perfect squares.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

A *Diophantine  $m$ -tuple* is a set of  $m$  distinct positive integers with the property that the product of any two of its distinct elements plus 1 is a perfect square. The first example of a Diophantine quadruple was found by Fermat, and it was the set  $\{1, 3, 8, 120\}$ . In 1969, Baker and Davenport [1] proved that Fermat's set cannot be extended to a Diophantine quintuple. There are infinitely many Diophantine quadruples. E.g.,  $\{k, k+2, 4k+4, 16k^3+48k^2+44k+12\}$  is a Diophantine quadruple for  $k \geq 1$ . In 2004, Dujella [3] proved that there is no Diophantine sextuple and that there are only finitely many Diophantine quintuples. Finally, in 2019, He, Togbé and Ziegler [6] proved that there is no Diophantine quintuple.

There are many known variants and generalizations of the notion of Diophantine  $m$ -tuples. For a survey of various generalizations and the corresponding references see Section 1.5 of the book [5].

Here we will consider a variant that was introduced in several internet forums<sup>1</sup>, and appeared also in Section 14.5 of the book [2], where it is attributed to John Gowland. We will consider triples of positive integers  $a, b, c$  with the property that  $ab + 1$ ,  $ac + 1$ ,  $bc + 1$  and  $abc + 1$  are perfect squares. Thus, we are interested in Diophantine triples  $\{a, b, c\}$  satisfying the additional property that  $abc + 1$  is also a perfect square. If we allow that  $a = 1$ , then the problem degenerates from four conditions to only three conditions that  $b + 1$ ,  $c + 1$  and  $bc + 1$  are perfect squares, or in other words that  $\{1, b, c\}$  is a Diophantine triple. It is easy to see that there are infinitely many such triples, e.g. we may take  $b = k^2 - 1$ ,  $c = (k + 1)^2 - 1$  for any  $k \geq 2$ . Hence, we will require that  $a, b, c$  are positive integers greater than 1.

Several examples of such triples were given in Section 14.5 of [2], e.g.,  $(5, 7, 24)$ ,  $(8, 45, 91)$ ,  $(8, 105, 171)$ ,  $(3, 133, 176)$ ,  $(11, 105, 184)$ ,  $(20, 84, 186)$ ,  $(44, 102, 280)$ ,  $(40, 119, 297)$ ,  $(24, 301, 495)$ ,  $(24, 477, 715)$ . However, it remained an open question whether there exist infinitely many such triples. The main result of this paper gives an affirmative answer to that question.

**Theorem 1.** *There are infinitely many triples of positive integers  $a, b, c$  greater than 1 such that  $ab + 1$ ,  $ac + 1$ ,  $bc + 1$  and  $abc + 1$  are all perfect squares.*

---

2020 *Mathematics Subject Classification.* 11D09.

<sup>1</sup><https://www.mathpages.com/home/kmath481.htm>,  
<https://benvitalenum3ers.wordpress.com/2015/01/07/abc-ab1ac1bc1abc1-are-all-squares/>

## 2. THE CONSTRUCTION OF INFINITELY MANY TRIPLES

We will search for the solutions within so-called *regular Diophantine triples*, i.e., triples  $\{a, b, c\}$ , such that  $c = a + b + 2r$ , where  $ab + 1 = r^2$ . Then  $ac + 1 = (a + r)^2$  and  $bc + 1 = (b + r)^2$ , so  $\{a, b, c\}$  is indeed a Diophantine triple. According to [4], most of Diophantine triples are of this form.

By studying and extending the list of known solutions, we can see that many of them have the property that  $a$  is of the form  $A^2 + 4$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (8 = 2^2 + 4, 45, 91), \\ (8 = 2^2 + 4, 105, 171), \\ (20 = 4^2 + 4, 84, 186), \\ (40 = 6^2 + 4, 119, 297), \\ (40 = 6^2 + 4, 2387, 3045), \\ (85 = 9^2 + 4, 672, 1235), \\ (85 = 9^2 + 4, 11859, 13952), \\ (533 = 23^2 + 4, 33475, 42456), \\ (533 = 23^2 + 4, 509736, 543235), \\ (1160 = 34^2 + 4, 165627, 194509), \\ (1160 = 34^2 + 4, 2449135, 2556897), \\ (7400 = 86^2 + 4, 7102165, 7568067), \\ (7400 = 86^2 + 4, 101263737, 103002439), \\ (16133 = 127^2 + 4, 34117191, 35617120), \\ (16133 = 127^2 + 4, 482768440, 488366151). \end{aligned}$$

Almost all of these examples follow the following pattern:  $a$  is of the form  $a = A_n^2 + 4$ , where  $A_n$  is a (two-sided) binary recursive sequence defined by

$$A_0 = 1, \quad A_1 = 6, \quad A_{n+1} = 4A_n - A_{n-1}.$$

For  $n \geq 1$ , the elements of the sequence  $A_n$  are: 6, 23, 86, 321,  $\dots$ , while for  $n \leq -1$ , the elements of the sequence  $-A_{-n}$  are: 2, 9, 34, 127, 474,  $\dots$

Next, we study the values of  $r$  (from  $ab + 1 = r^2$ ) in observed examples. For each  $a$ , we had two triples with given property. We will give details for the second (with larger  $b$ ) triples. We notice that  $r$ 's have the form  $r = A_n^2 R_n + A_{n+1} - 2$ , where

$$R_0 = 2, \quad R_1 = 8, \quad R_n = 4R_{n-1} - R_{n-2} + 1,$$

and again we may extend the recurrence to negative indices, so for  $n \leq -1$ , the elements of the sequence  $R_{-n}$  are: 1, 3, 12, 46,  $\dots$  (In the smaller triples, we have  $r = A_n^2 R_{n-1} - A_{n-1} - 2$ .)

To simplify manipulations with the above introduced recursive sequences, will we express them in the terms of the sequence

$$P_0 = 0, \quad P_1 = 1, \quad P_n = 4P_{n-1} - P_{n-2}.$$

The sequence  $(P_n)$  satisfies

$$(1) \quad P_n = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \left( (2 + \sqrt{3})^n - (2 - \sqrt{3})^n \right).$$

Let us denote  $x = P_{n+1}$ ,  $y = P_n$ . Then we have  $A_n = x+2y$  and  $R_n = \frac{1}{2}(5x-3y-1)$ .

From (1), it follows easily that

$$(2) \quad x^2 - 4xy + y^2 = 1.$$

We will use (2) to make further expressions as homogeneous as possible in order to simplify expressions and in particular to allow factorizations. In that way, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} a &= 5x^2 - 12xy + 8y^2, \\ r &= \frac{17}{2}x^3 - \frac{33}{2}x^2y - \frac{5}{2}x^2 + 14xy^2 + 6xy - 7y^3 - 4y^2, \\ b &= \frac{31}{2}x^4 - \frac{55}{2}x^3y + \frac{75}{2}x^2y^2 - 25xy^3 + 8y^4 - \frac{17}{2}x^3 + \frac{33}{2}x^2y - 14xy^2 + 7y^3, \\ c &= \frac{31}{2}x^4 - \frac{55}{2}x^3y + \frac{75}{2}x^2y^2 - 25xy^3 + 8y^4 + \frac{17}{2}x^3 - \frac{33}{2}x^2y + 14xy^2 - 7y^3. \end{aligned}$$

In order to prove Theorem 1, it remains to check that  $abc + 1$  is a perfect square. First we get

$$\begin{aligned} abc &= \frac{1}{4}(3y + 8x)(5x^2 - 12xy + 8y^2)(2y^3 - 2xy^2 - 2x^2y + 3x^3) \\ &\quad \times (10y^4 - 22xy^3 + 50x^2y^2 - 39x^3y + 28x^4), \end{aligned}$$

and then by writing  $1 = (x^2 - 4xy + y^2)^5$  in  $abc + 1$ , we finally obtain

$$abc + 1 = \frac{1}{4}(22y^5 - 24xy^4 - 8x^2y^3 + 84x^3y^2 - 119x^4y + 58x^5)^2,$$

which shows that  $abc + 1$  is indeed a perfect square.  $\square$

For example, by taking  $n = 4$ , we have  $x = 209$ ,  $y = 56$ , and we get  $a = 1435208$ ,  $r = 2347998213$ ,  $b = 3841321681771$ ,  $c = 38460191113405$ , and  $abc + 1 = 4604722693427179^2$ .

**Acknowledgements.** A.D. was supported by the Croatian Science Foundation under the project no. IP-2022-10-5008 and the QuantiXLie Center of Excellence, a project co-financed by the Croatian Government and European Union through the European Regional Development Fund (Grant PK.1.1.02.0004).

#### REFERENCES

- [1] A. Baker and H. Davenport, *The equations  $3x^2 - 2 = y^2$  and  $8x^2 - 7 = z^2$* , Quart. J. Math. Oxford Ser. (2) **20** (1969), 129–137.
- [2] K. Brown, *Numbers*, Author's edition, 2023.
- [3] A. Dujella, *There are only finitely many Diophantine quintuples*, J. Reine Angew. Math. **566** (2004), 183–214.
- [4] A. Dujella, *On the number of Diophantine  $m$ -tuples*, Ramanujan J. **15** (2008), 37–46.
- [5] A. Dujella, *Diophantine  $m$ -tuples and Elliptic Curves*, Springer, Cham, 2024.
- [6] B. He, A. Togbé and V. Ziegler, *There is no Diophantine quintuple*, Trans. Amer. Math. Soc. **371** (2019), 6665–6709.

(Andrej Dujella) DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, FACULTY OF SCIENCE, UNIVERSITY OF ZAGREB,  
BIJENIČKA CESTA 30, 10000 ZAGREB, CROATIA

(László Szalay) INSTITUTE OF MATHEMATICS, UNIVERSITY OF SOPRON, BAJCSY-ZSILINSZKY  
UTCA 4, SOPRON, 9400, HUNGARY  
*Email address:* [duje@math.hr](mailto:duje@math.hr)