# $D(-1)$-QUADRUPLES AND PRODUCTS OF TWO PRIMES 

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#### Abstract

A $D(-1)$-quadruple is a set of positive integers $\{a, b, c, d\}$, with $a<b<c<d$, such that the product of any two elements from this set is of the form $1+n^{2}$ for some integer $n$. Dujella and Fuchs showed that any such $D(-1)$-quadruple satisfies $a=1$. The $D(-1)$ conjecture states that there is no $D(-1)$-quadruple. If $b=1+r^{2}, c=1+s^{2}$ and $d=1+t^{2}$, then it is known that $r, s, t, b, c$ and $d$ are not of the form $p^{k}$ or $2 p^{k}$, where $p$ is an odd prime and $k$ is a positive integer. In the case of two primes, we prove that if $r=p q$ and $v$ and $w$ are integers such that $p^{2} v-q^{2} w=1$, then $4 v w-1>r$. A particular instance yields the result that if $r=p(p+2)$ is a product of twin primes, where $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, then the $D(-1)$-pair $\left\{1,1+r^{2}\right\}$ cannot be extended to a $D(-1)$-quadruple. Dujella's conjecture states that there is at most one solution $(x, y)$ in positive integers with $y<k-1$ to the diophantine equation $x^{2}-\left(1+k^{2}\right) y^{2}=k^{2}$. We show that the Dujella conjecture is true when $k$ is a product of two odd primes. As a consequence it follows that if $t$ is a product of two odd primes, then there is no $D(-1)$-quadruple $\{1, b, c, d\}$ with $d=1+t^{2}$.


## 1. Introduction

Let $n$ be a nonzero integer. A diophantine $m$-tuple with the property $D(n)$, is a set of $m$ positive integers, such that if $a, b$ are any two elements from this set, then $a b+n=k^{2}$ for some integer $k$. We will look at the case $n=-1$. The cases $n=1$ and $n=4$ have been studied in great detail and still continue to be areas of active research. For more details on this subject the reader may consult [1], where a comprehensive and up to date list of references is available.

[^0]In the case of $n=-1$, it has been conjectured that there is no $D(-1)$ quadruple. The first significant progress was made by Dujella and Fuchs ([2]), who showed that if $\{a, b, c, d\}$ is a $D(-1)$-quadruple with $a<b<c<d$, then $a=1$. Subsequently, Dujella et. al. ([3]) proved that there are only a finite number of such quadruples. Filipin and Fujita ([4]) showed that if $\{1, b, c\}$ is $D(-1)$-triple with $b<c$, then there exist at most two $d$ 's such that $\{1, b, c, d\}$ is a $D(-1)$-quadruple.

Filipin, Fujita and Mignotte ([5]) showed that if $b=r^{2}+1$, then in each of the cases $r=p^{k}, r=2 p^{k}, \quad b=p$ and $b=2 p^{k}$, where $p$ is an odd prime and $k$ is a positive integer, the $D(-1)$-pair $\{1, b\}$ cannot be extended to a $D(-1)$-quadruple $\{1, b, c, d\}$ with $b<c<d$. In [13] we showed that this also holds for $c=1+s^{2}$, that is, if $s=p^{k}, s=2 p^{k}, c=p$ or $c=2 p^{k}$, then the $D(-1)$-triple $\{1, b, c\}$ cannot be extended to a $D(-1)$-quadruple (one of the referees pointed out that this result was essentially proved in [5]). It is also known that the results mentioned above for $b$ and $c$ also hold for $d=1+t^{2}$ (see discussion following Conjecture 1.3). Note that $b, c$ and $d$ cannot be of the form $p^{k}$ with $k>1$ and $p$ prime (see [8]). In the case of a product of two primes, we showed in [13] that if $r=p q$ then $p^{4}, q^{4}>r$. The following result gives further conditions in this case.

Theorem 1.1. Let $\{1, b, c, d\}$ with $1<b<c<d$ be a $D(-1)$-quadruple with $b=1+r^{2}$ where $r>0$. Let $r=p q$, where $p$ and $q$ are distinct odd primes, and let $v$ and $w$ be integers such that $p^{2} v-q^{2} w=1$. Then $4 v w-1>r$.

Corollary 1.2. Let $b=1+r^{2}$ and $r=p(p+2)$ where $p$ and $p+2$ are both primes and $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$. Then the $D(-1)$-pair $\{1, b\}$ cannot be extended to a $D(-1)$-quadruple.

The following conjecture made by Andrej Dujella is closely related to the $D(-1)$ conjecture.

Conjecture 1.3. (Andrej Dujella) Let $k \geq 2$. Then there exists at most one solution $(x, y)$ in positive integers to the equation $x^{2}-\left(k^{2}+1\right) y^{2}=k^{2}$ with $y<k-1$.

In [9] the authors studied the equation $x^{2}-\left(k^{2}+1\right) y^{2}=k^{2}$, calling it the Dujella equation and the conjecture above, which they called the unicity conjecture. They used a continued fraction approach and gave some interesting equivalent conjectures.

It is known that Dujella's unicity conjecture implies the $D(-1)$ conjecture (see [9, Section 17]). Indeed the result [5] on the $D(-1)$ conjecture mentioned above, is based on [5, Lemma 6.1], which states that Conjecture 1.3 is true for the same cases, namely, when $k^{2}+1=p, 2 p^{n}$, or $k=p^{n}, 2 p^{n}$, where $p$ is an odd prime and $n$ is a positive integer. It follows, also from [5, Lemma 6.1], that the $D(-1)$ conjecture holds in the case when $t$ or $d=1+t^{2}$ is of the form $p^{n}$ or $2 p^{n}$, where $p$ is an odd prime and $k$ is a positive integer.
K. Matthews communicated to the author an unpublished short proof (along with J. Robertson) of Conjecture 1.3 in the case when $k^{2}+1$ is divisible by exactly two odd primes. We show that Conjecture 1.3 is true when $k$ is a product of two odd primes.

THEOREM 1.4. Let $k=p q$ where $p$ and $q$ are distinct odd primes. Then the equation $x^{2}-\left(1+k^{2}\right) y^{2}=k^{2}$ has at most one solution $(x, y)$ in positive integers with $y<k-1$.

An immediate corollary is the following.
Corollary 1.5. If $x$ is a product of two distinct odd primes and $d=$ $1+x^{2}$, then there is no $D(-1)$-quadruple $\{1, b, c, d\}$ with $1<b<c<d$.

## 2. Binary quadratic forms

In this section we present the basic theory of binary quadratic forms. An excellent reference is [11], where Sections 4 to 7 and Section 11 of Chapter 6 pertain to the matter at hand.

A primitive binary quadratic form $f=(a, b, c)$ of discriminant $d$ is a function $f(x, y)=a x^{2}+b x y+c y^{2}$, where $a, b, c$ are integers with $b^{2}-4 a c=d$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b, c)=1$. Note that the integers $b$ and $d$ have the same parity. All forms considered here are primitive binary quadratic forms and henceforth we shall refer to them simply as forms.

Two forms $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are said to be equivalent, written as $f \sim f^{\prime}$, if for some $A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}\alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta\end{array}\right) \in S L_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ (called a transformation matrix), we have $f^{\prime}(x, y)=f(\alpha x+\beta y, \gamma x+\delta y)=\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}\right)$, where $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{\prime}=f(\alpha, \gamma), \quad b^{\prime}=2(a \alpha \beta+c \gamma \delta)+b(\alpha \delta+\beta \gamma), \quad c^{\prime}=f(\beta, \delta) . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to see that $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on the set of forms of discriminant $d$. The equivalence classes form an abelian group called the class group with group law given by composition of forms. The identity form is defined as the form $\left(1,0, \frac{-d}{4}\right)$ or $\left(1,1, \frac{1-d}{4}\right)$, depending on whether $d$ is even or odd respectively. The inverse of $f=(a, b, c)$ denoted by $f^{-1}$, is given by ( $a,-b, c$ ).

A form $f$ is said to represent an integer $m$ if there exist integers $x$ and $y$ such that $f(x, y)=m$. If $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1$, we call the representation a primitive one. Observe that equivalent forms primitively represent the same set of integers, as do a form and its inverse. Hence, sometimes we will refer to a class of forms that represents an integer.

We end this section with two elementary observations about forms. Firstly, if a form $f$ represents primitively an integer $n$, then $f \sim(n, b, c)$ for some integers $b, c$. This follows simply by noting that if $f(\alpha, \gamma)=n$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(\alpha, \gamma)=1$, then there exists a transformation matrix $A$ as given above such
that (2.1) holds. Secondly, if $b \equiv b^{\prime}(\bmod 2 n)$, then the forms $(n, b, c)$ and $\left(n, b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}\right)$ are equivalent. This equivalence follows using the transformation $\operatorname{matrix} A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & \delta \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)$ where $b^{\prime}=b+2 n \delta$.
3. The diophantine equation $x^{2}-d y^{2}=n$

For any positive integer $d$ that is not a square, all representations $(x, y)$ of an integer $n$ by the form $(1,0,-d)$ may be put into equivalence classes using the following notion of equivalence.

DEFINITION 3.1. Two solutions $(x, y)$ and $\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$ of $X^{2}-d Y^{2}=n$ are said to be equivalent, written as $(x, y) \sim\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$ if the following congruences

$$
\begin{equation*}
x x^{\prime} \equiv d y y^{\prime} \quad(\bmod n), \quad x y^{\prime} \equiv y x^{\prime} \quad(\bmod n) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

are satisfied.
The result given below is used at several places, and hence we isolate it as a lemma.

Lemma 3.2. Let $k$ be an odd integer. If a solution $(x, y)$ of the equation $x^{2}-\left(1+k^{2}\right) y^{2}=k^{2}$ satisfies $(x, y) \sim(x,-y)$, then $k$ divides $x$ and $y$.

Proof. If $(x, y) \sim(x,-y)$, then (3.1) gives $x^{2} \equiv-y^{2}\left(\bmod k^{2}\right)$. Moreover, from the Dujella equation, $x^{2} \equiv y^{2}\left(\bmod k^{2}\right)$, hence $k$ divides $x$ and $y$.

The following lemma connects primitive representations of $x^{2}-d y^{2}=n$ and forms that represent $n$ and is crucial for our proofs.

Lemma 3.3. Let $n$ be a positive integer such that $\operatorname{gcd}(n, 2 \Delta)=1$ and suppose that $n$ is primitively represented by some form of discriminant $\Delta$. Then the following claims hold.

1. If $A=\{(n, b, c) ; 0<b<2 n\}$ and $w(n)$ is the number of distinct primes dividing $n$, then $|A|=2^{w(n)}$.
2. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of equivalence classes of primitive solutions $(x, y)$ of the equation $X^{2}-d Y^{2}=n$ and the set $A_{0}=\{(n, b, c) \sim(1,0,-d) ; 0<b<2 n\}$ of forms in $A$ equivalent to the identity form.

Proof. As $n$ is primitively represented by some form of discriminant $\Delta$, there is a solution to the congruence $\Delta \equiv x^{2}(\bmod 4 n)([11$, Solution of problem 1]). It follows from a classical result (see for instance [14, Chapter $\mathrm{V}, \S 4]$ or $\left[7\right.$, Theorem 122]) that there are $2^{w(n)+1}$ solutions modulo $4 n$. As $x$ and $-x$ are both solutions to $\Delta \equiv x^{2}(\bmod 4 n)$, there are $2^{w(n)}$ solutions to the congruence $\Delta \equiv x^{2}(\bmod 4 n)$ with $0<x<2 n$. The first part of the lemma now follows from [11, Solution of problem 2], where it is shown that
there is a one-to-one correspondence between the set $A$ and solutions to the congruence $\Delta \equiv x^{2}(\bmod 4 n)$ with $0<x<2 n$.

The second part of the lemma follows from the following facts that are given in [11, Solution of problem 3]. Each primitive representation $(x, y)$ of $X^{2}-d Y^{2}=n$ corresponds to a unique form $(n, b, c)$, where $0<b<2 n$. If two such representations correspond to the same form, then the representations are equivalent. Moreover, each form in set $A_{0}$ corresponds to a unique equivalence class of primitive representations $(x, y)$ of $X^{2}-d Y^{2}=n$, and hence the correspondence in part 2 of the lemma follows.

The next lemma has been used by several authors in the study of the current problem, such as [5, Lemma 6.2] and [13, Lemma 3.2].

Lemma 3.4 ([6, Lemma 2.3]). Let $n$ be an integer such that $1<|n| \leq k$. Then there are no primitive solutions $(x, y)$ such that $x^{2}-\left(k^{2}+1\right) y^{2}=\bar{n}$.

A useful consequence of the above lemma is the following result.
Lemma 3.5 ([13, Lemma 3.3]). Let $k=f f^{\prime}$ be a positive integer such that $1<f<k$. If $x^{2}-\left(k^{2}+1\right) y^{2}=f^{\prime 2}$ for some coprime integers $x$ and $y$, then $f^{\prime}$ is not an odd prime power.

## 4. Proofs

Throughout this section the following terminology will be used.
Let $\{1, b, c, d\}$ be a $D(-1)$-quadruple with $1<b<c<d$. Set

$$
b=1+r^{2}, \quad c=1+s^{2}, \quad d=1+x^{2}
$$

and

$$
b d=1+y^{2}, \quad c d=1+z^{2}, \quad b c=1+t^{2}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
t^{2}-\left(1+r^{2}\right) s^{2}=r^{2} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
t^{2}-\left(1+s^{2}\right) r^{2}=s^{2} \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to see (using (3.1)) that the equation $X^{2}-\left(r^{2}+1\right) Y^{2}=r^{2}$ has the inequivalent solutions $(r, 0)$ and $\left(r^{2}+1-r, \pm(r-1)\right)$. In [5], solutions equivalent to these three solutions were called regular solutions and it was shown that $(t, s)$ is not a regular solution.

Lemma 4.1 ([5, Corollary 1.2]). The solution $(t, s)$ of $X^{2}-b Y^{2}=r^{2}$ is not equivalent to any of the solutions $(b-r, \pm(r-1))$ and $(r, 0)$.

Lemma 4.2. Let $r=p q$ where $p$ and $q$ are distinct odd primes. Then there are exactly four inequivalent classes of primitive representations of $r^{2}$ by the form $\left(1,0,-\left(1+r^{2}\right)\right)$, namely, $(b-r, \pm(r-1))$ and $(t, \pm s)$. Moreover, $r^{2}$ is primitively represented only by the identity class.

Proof. Let $\operatorname{gcd}(t, s)=n$. As $r=p q$, from (4.1) we have $n=1, r, p$ or $q$. Observe that by Lemma 3.5 the cases $n=p$ and $n=q$ are not possible. If $n=r$, then $t$ and $s$ are divisible by $r$. It follows by equivalence of solutions (Definition 3.1) that $(t, s) \sim(r, 0)$, which is not possible by Lemma 4.1. Hence $\operatorname{gcd}(t, s)=1$, and it follows from Lemma 3.2 and Lemma 4.1 that $(b-r, \pm(r-$ $1)$ ) and $(t, \pm s)$ are inequivalent primitive representations. By Lemma 3.3, the set $A_{0}$ (given therein) has at least 4 elements. Moreover, by the same lemma, the set $A$ has exactly 4 elements and therefore $A=A_{0}$ as $A_{0} \subseteq A$ and hence there are exactly four inequivalent classes of primitive representations of $r^{2}$ by $(1,0,-b)$, namely the ones given above.
The second part of the following lemma follows on application of [12, Theorem 1] (a converse to Nagell's theorem). However, the article mentioned above only provides an outline of the proof and we are grateful to a referee for the details given below.

Lemma 4.3. Let $k=p q$, where $p$ and $q$ are distinct odd primes. Then the following hold.

1. Any solution $(\alpha, \beta)$ of $X^{2}-\left(1+k^{2}\right) Y^{2}=k^{2}$ with $0<\beta<k$ satisfies $\operatorname{gcd}(\alpha, \beta)=1$.
2. Let $(x, y)$ and $\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$ be two equivalent solutions in positive integers to $X^{2}-\left(1+k^{2}\right) Y^{2}=k^{2}$ that satisfy $y, y^{\prime}<k-1$. Then $x=x^{\prime}$ and $y=y^{\prime}$.
Proof. As seen in the beginning of the proof of Lemma 4.2, either $\operatorname{gcd}(\alpha, \beta)=1$ or $k$ divides both $\alpha$ and $\beta$, the latter of which is not possible as $0<\beta<k$ and hence $\operatorname{gcd}(\alpha, \beta)=1$.

For the second part, observe that $\left(2 k^{2}+1,2 k\right)$ is the fundamental solution of the Pell equation $X^{2}-\left(1+k^{2}\right) Y^{2}=1$. It is well known (see for example [12]) that if $(x, y)$ and $\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$ are equivalent, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{\prime}+y^{\prime} \sqrt{d}= \pm(x+y \sqrt{d})\left(2 k^{2}+1+2 k \sqrt{d}\right)^{n} \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some integer $n$. Since $x^{2}-d y^{2}=k^{2}$, we may rewrite (4.3) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x^{\prime}+y^{\prime} \sqrt{d}\right)(x-y \sqrt{d})= \pm k^{2}\left(2 k^{2}+1+2 k \sqrt{d}\right)^{n}=A+B \sqrt{d} \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to see that $2 k^{3}$ divides $B$ in the above equation and hence it also divides $x y^{\prime}-y x^{\prime}$. Observe that since $y$ and $y^{\prime}$ are positive integers less than $k-1$, it follows from the Dujella equation that $x$ and $x^{\prime}$ are less than $k^{2}-k+1$. Hence, as $x y^{\prime}-y x^{\prime}$ is divisible by $2 k^{3}$, we have $x y^{\prime}=y x^{\prime}$, which gives $x=x^{\prime}$ and $y=y^{\prime}$, since from part one of the lemma $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)=1$.

Proof of Theorem 1.1. Let $v$ and $w$ be integers such that $v p^{2}-w q^{2}=$ 1 and let $h$ be the form $\left(r^{2}, 4 q^{2} w+2,4 v w-1\right)$, where $r=p q$. It is straightforward to see that $h$ is a form of discriminant $4 b$ and that $4 v w-1>0$. Moreover, $h$ primitively represents $r^{2}$ and thus, by Lemma 4.2 , we have $h \sim(1,0,-b)$.

Furthermore, $h$ also primitively represents $4 v w-1$ and hence, by Lemma 3.4, we have $4 v w-1>r$.

Proof of Corollary 1.2. Note that if $v=\frac{p+3}{4}$ and $w=\frac{p-1}{4}$, then we have $v p^{2}-w(p+2)^{2}=1$. Moreover, $4 v w-1=(p+3) \frac{p-1}{4}-1<p(p+2)$ and the corollary follows from Theorem 1.1.

Proof of Theorem 1.4. Let $(x, y)$ be a solution of the Dujella equation $x^{2}-\left(1+k^{2}\right) y^{2}=k^{2}$, with $x, y>0$ and $y<k-1$. Then $x=|x|<k^{2}-k+1$ and $0<x+y<k^{2}$. Now suppose that $(x, y) \sim\left(1+k^{2}-k, \pm(k-1)\right)$. Then (3.1) gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
x \equiv \pm y \quad\left(\bmod k^{2}\right), \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is not possible, as we have shown above that $0<x+y<k^{2}$. Therefore $(x, y)$ is not equivalent to either of the solutions $\left(1+k^{2}-k, \pm(k-1)\right)$. Furthermore, using Lemma 3.2 and Lemma 4.3, part 1, it follows that the solutions $(x, \pm y)$ and $\left(1+k^{2}-k, \pm(k-1)\right)$ are inequivalent primitive solutions. Therefore $\left|A_{0}\right| \geq 4$, where $A_{0}$ is as given in Lemma 3.3. From the same lemma we have $|A|=4$ and as $A_{0} \subseteq A$ it follows that $A_{0}=A$. Thus there are exactly four inequivalent classes of primitive solutions, namely the classes represented by $(x, \pm y)$ and $\left(1+k^{2}-k, \pm(k-1)\right)$. Now, if $\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$ is another solution in positive integers to the Dujella equation satisfying $y^{\prime}<k-1$, then it must be equivalent to one of $(x, \pm y)$ (since we have shown above that any such solution is not equivalent to $\left.\left(1+k^{2}-k, \pm(k-1)\right)\right)$. From Lemma 4.3 part 2, we have $(x, y)=\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$, and hence there is at most one solution in positive integers $(x, y)$ with $y<k-1$ to the equation $X^{2}-\left(1+k^{2}\right) Y^{2}=k^{2}$, and the theorem is proved.

Proof of Corollary 1.5. By Theorem 1.4, if $x$ is a product of two distinct odd primes, then the equation $\alpha^{2}-\left(1+x^{2}\right) \beta^{2}=x^{2}$ has at most one positive solution $(\alpha, \beta)$ with $\beta<x-1$. In other words, the Dujella conjecture holds for this equation and as shown in [9, Section 17], this implies that the $D(-1)$ conjecture is true.

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