# SUMS AND DIFFERENCES OF VALUES OF A QUADRATIC POLYNOMIAL 

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Let $P$ be a quadratic polynomial with integer coefficients. Motivated by a series of results on polygonal numbers (which we describe below) we consider the existence of integers $a, b, c, d$ and $n$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(n)=P(a)+P(b)=P(c)-P(d), \quad P(a) P(b) P(c) P(d) \neq 0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The simplest example of a polynomial $P$ for which (1) has infinitely many solutions is $P(x)=$ $x^{2}$, for $(3 m)^{2}+(4 m)^{2}=(5 m)^{2}=(13 m)^{2}-(12 m)^{2}$ for every $m$. Now $x^{2}=P_{4}(x)$ where, for each integer $N$ with $N \geq 3, P_{N}(n)$ is the polygonal number $(N-2) n^{2} / 2-(N-4) n / 2$. In 1968 Sierpinski [5] showed that there are infinitely many solutions to (1) when $P=P_{3}$, and this was subsequently extended to include the cases $P_{5}, P_{6}$ and $P_{7}$ (see [2], [4] and [3], respectively). In 1981 S . Ando [1] showed that there are infinitely many solutions to (1) when $P(x)=A x^{2}+B x$, where $A$ and $B$ are integers with $A-B$ even, and this implies that, for each $N,(1)$ has infinitely many solutions when $P=P_{N}$.

It is easy to find polynomials $P$ for which (1) has no solutions (for example, if $P(n)$ is odd for every $n$ ), and this leads to the problem of characterizing those $P$ for which (1) has infinitely many solutions. This problem has nothing to do with polygonal numbers, and here we prove the following result.
Theorem 1: Suppose that $P(x)=A x^{2}+B x+C$, where $A, B$ and $C$ are integers, and $A \neq 0$.
(i) If $8 A^{2}$ divides $P(k)$ for some integer $k$, then there are infinitely many $n$ such that (1) holds for some integers $a, b, c$ and $d$.
(ii) If $\operatorname{gcd}(A, B)$ does not divide $C$ then there are no integer solutions to (1).

Theorem 1(i) is applicable when $P(0)=0$, and this special case implies Ando's result. As illustrations of Theorem 1 we note that (1) has infinitely many solutions when $P(x)=x^{2}+2 x+5$ (because $P(1)=8$ ), but no solutions when $P(x)=6 x^{2}+3 x+5$. Not every quadratic polynomial is covered by Theorem 1 ; for example, $x^{2}+2 x+4$ is not (to check that 8 does not divide $P(k)$ for any $k$ it suffices to consider $k=0,1, \ldots, 7)$. In fact, if $P(x)=x^{2}+2 x+4$, then $P(u+1)-P(u)=2 u+3$, and it follows from this that for all $k$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\left(2 k^{2}\right)+P(2 k-1) & =P\left(2 k^{2}+1\right) \\
& =P\left(2 k^{4}+4 k^{2}+3\right)-P\left(2 k^{4}+4 k^{2}+2\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The existence of solutions of (1) may have something to do with Diophantine equations; for example, if $P(x)=x^{2}-4 x+3$, then $P(x+2)=P(y+1)+P(y+3)$ is equivalent to Pell's equation $x^{2}-2 y^{2}=1$. This link with Diophantine equations suggests perhaps that there may be no simple criterion for (1) to have infinitely many solutions.

## 2. THE PROOF

The proof of (i) is based on the following observation.
Lemma 2: Let $p$ be any polynomial with integer coefficients. Suppose that there are nonconstant polynomials $t, u, v$ and $w$ with integer coefficients such that $u(w(x))=v(t(x))+1$ and $P(v(x)+1)-P(v(x))=P(u(x))$. Then there exist infinitely many $n$ such that ( 1 ) holds for some integers $a, b, c$ and $d$.

Proof: It is easy to see that if, for any integer $x$, we put $n=u(w(x)), a=v(t(x)), b=$ $u(t(x)), c=v(w(x))+1$ and $d=v(w(x))$ then (1) holds.
The Proof of (i): First, we show that the conclusion of (i) holds if $8 A^{2}$ divides $P(0)(=C)$. Let $u(x)=1+4 A x$ and $v(x)=8 A^{2} x^{2}+(4 A+2 B) x+C / 2 A$. Then $u$ and $v$ have integer coefficients and as is easily checked, $P(v(x)+1)-P(v(x))=P(u(x))$. Next define $t(x)=4 A x$ and $w(x)=v(4 A x) / 4 A$. The assumption that $8 A^{2}$ divides $C$ implies that $w$ has integer coefficients, and by construction, $u(w(x))=1+4 A w(x)=v(t(x))+1$. The conclusion of (i) now follows from Lemma 2.

Now suppose that $8 A^{2}$ divides $P(k)$, and let $Q(x)=P(x+k)$. Then $Q$ has leading coefficient $A$, and $8 A^{2}$ divides $Q(0)$; thus there are infinitely many $n$ such that (1), with $P$ replaced by $Q$, holds for some $a, b, c$ and $d$. The conclusion of (i) follows immediately from this.
The Proof of (ii): If there are integers $n, a$ and $b$ such that $P(n)=P(b)-P(a)$, then there are integers $u$ and $v$ such that $A u+B v=C$, and this implies that $\operatorname{gcd}(A, B)$ divides $C$, contrary to our assumption.

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