

# Length of Integer Solutions of Linear Diophantine Equations and Related Problems

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## Abstract

We shall introduce a length of the integer solutions of linear diophantine equations and investigate the fundamental properties of this length. We will also give an application of this length to a famous mathematical puzzle called *three jug problem*.

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## 1 Introduction

Probably the simplest diophantine equation may be the following linear diophantine equation of two valuables  $x, y$ ,

$$E_{(a,b;c)} : ax + by = c, \text{ where } a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

We shall denote the integer solutions of  $E_{(a,b;c)}$  as  $S_{(a,b;c)}$ . It is well known the above equation has the integer solutions  $(x, y)$  if and only if  $\text{GCD}(a, b) | c$  and all the solutions are explicitly obtained by using the Euclidean Algorithm.

Let us start an example  $E_{(5,3;38)} : 5x + 3y = 38$ . We shall explain the usual way of writing down the integer solutions of this equation. Firstly, from the Euclidean Algorithm, one can find the special integer solutions  $(x, y) = (-1, 2)$  of the equation  $E_{(5,3;1)}$ . Multiplying both sides of the equation  $E_{(5,3;1)}$  by 38, one obtains the solutions  $(x, y) = (-38, 78)$  of the equation  $E_{(5,3;38)}$ . Then all

the integer solutions  $S_{(5,3;38)}$  of the equation  $E_{(5,3;38)}$  are written as follows;

$$S_{(5,3;38)} = \{(x, y) \mid x = -38 + 3k, y = 78 - 5k, \text{ where } k \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

We note that this set of integer solutions  $S_{(5,3;38)}$  is a residue class of  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  modulo  $\{k(3, -5) \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ , where  $\{k(3, -5) \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \cong \mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore  $(-38, 76)$  is a representative of the residue class  $S_{(5,3;38)}$ . But, taking  $k = 15$ , we can choose another “small” representative  $(x, y) = (7, 1)$ . In the next section, we shall introduce the length of integer solutions and  $(7, 1)$  are really the smallest integer solutions and suitable for the representative of this residue class (see Theorem 2.6 and Remark 2.7).

## 2 The length of integer solutions

Let  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$  be two vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then the following  $d(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$  defines a different way of measuring the distance of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which is called the Manhattan distance,

$$d(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = |a_1 - b_1| + |a_2 - b_2| + \dots + |a_n - b_n|.$$

Let us denote  $(0, 0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  by  $\mathbf{0}$ . Now treat the linear diophantine equation

$$E_{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n; c)} : a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_n x_n = c, \text{ where } a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, c \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

We shall define the length  $L(\mathbf{x})$  of the integer solution  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  of the above linear diophantine equation  $E_{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n; c)}$  by putting

$$L(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{0}) = |x_1| + |x_2| + \dots + |x_n|.$$

**Remark 2.1** *The Manhattan distance for the case  $n = 2$  is named after the grid pattern of the streets and avenues in Manhattan.*

In the following, we shall restrict ourselves to the simplest case  $n = 2$ , i.e.,

$$E = E_{(a,b;c)} : ax + by = c.$$

Then there exist the solutions  $(x, y) \in S_{(a,b;c)}$  with the length  $L(x, y) = |x| + |y|$  of the minimal value. We denote this minimal value  $\min\{L(x, y) \mid (x, y) \in S_{(a,b;c)}\}$  by  $L_E$ , and call the value  $L_E$  the *minimal length* of the integer solutions of the linear diophantine equation  $E = E_{(a,b;c)}$ . We also call the solutions  $(x, y)$  with the minimal length  $L_E$  the *minimal integer solutions*.

Firstly, we shall begin the distribution of the length of integer solutions of an example of the equation  $E_{(5,3;38)}$ .

Tabel 1

$k$	$(x = -38 + 3k, y = 76 - 5k)$	The length $L(x, y)$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$
0	$(-38, 76)$	114
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$
$k$	$(-38 + 3k, 76 - 5k)$	$114 - 8k$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$
11	$(-5, 21)$	26
12	$(-2, 16)$	18
13	$(1, 11)$	12
14	$(4, 6)$	10
15	$(7, 1)$	8
16	$(10, -4)$	14
17	$(13, -9)$	22
18	$(16, -14)$	30
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$
$k$	$(-38 + 3k, 76 - 5k)$	$8k - 114$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$

Then the above length  $L(x, y)$  is classified into the following three arithmetic progressions, which will be abbreviated to AP in the following;

$$\begin{aligned} \{18 + 8k | k \geq 0\} & \text{ AP with the initial term 18 and the common difference 8,} \\ \{8, 10, 12\}, & \text{ Finite AP with the common difference 2,} \\ \{14 + 8k | k \geq 0\} & \text{ AP with the initial term 14 and the common difference 8.} \end{aligned}$$

Now we will generalize the above results to the equation  $E_{(a,b;c)} : ax + by$ , where  $a > b > 0$  and  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$  and  $c > 0$ . Then the length  $L(x, y)$  of the integer solutions  $S_{(a,b;c)}$  is classified into the following three classes:

- Infinite AP with the common difference  $a + b$ , for  $(x, y) \in S_2 = \{(x, y) | x < 0\}$ ,
- Finite AP with the common difference  $a - b$ , for  $(x, y) \in S_0 = \{(x, y) | x, y \geq 0\}$ ,
- Infinite AP with the common difference  $a + b$ , for  $(x, y) \in S_1 = \{(x, y) | y < 0\}$ .

Let  $L_i$  be the minimal length of the minimal integer solutions in  $S_i$ , ( $0 \leq i \leq 2$ ). We note the case  $S_0 = \emptyset$  may happen. For example, any  $(x, y) \in S_{(a,b;1)}$  with  $a > b \geq 2$  satisfy  $xy < 0$  and hence  $S_0 = \emptyset$  for this case.

**Theorem 2.2** *Assume  $a > b > 0$ ,  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$  and  $c > 0$ . Then the minimal length  $L_E = \min(L_0, L_1, L_2)$ . In case  $S_0 = \emptyset$ ,  $L_E = \min(L_1, L_2)$ . In case  $S_0 \neq \emptyset$ ,  $L_E = \min(L_0, L_1)$ .*

## 2.1 Algorithm for finding the minimal solutions 1

We shall recall the Euclidean algorithm for  $a > b > 0$  with  $n$  steps;

$$\begin{aligned} a &= a_0b + r_1, & (0 < r_1 < b), \\ b &= a_1r_1 + r_2, & (0 < r_2 < r_1), \\ r_1 &= a_2r_2 + r_3, & (0 < r_3 < r_2), \\ &\vdots \\ r_{n-2} &= a_{n-1}r_{n-1} + r_n, & (0 < r_n < r_{n-1}), \\ r_{n-1} &= a_n r_n, \\ r_n &= d = \text{GCD}(a, b). \end{aligned}$$

Put  $r_{-1} = a$ , and  $r_0 = b$ . Then the binary recurrence sequences  $X_i, Y_i$  are defined by putting

$$X_i = a_{i-1}X_{i-1} + X_{i-2}, \quad Y_i = a_{i-1}Y_{i-1} + Y_{i-2},$$

with initial terms  $X_{-1} = 1, X_0 = 0$  and  $Y_{-1} = 0, Y_0 = 1$ . One obtains, by induction,

$$a(-1)^{i-1}X_i + b(-1)^iY_i = r_i, \quad (-1 \leq i \leq n).$$

Assume  $n \geq 2$ , i.e.,  $b \nmid a$ .  $d$  denotes  $\text{GCD}(a, b)$ . Then, from the extended Euclidean algorithm,  $E_{(a,b;d)}$  has the minimal integer solutions

$$(x, y) = ((-1)^{n-1}X_n, (-1)^nY_n).$$

Then  $(-1)^nX_{n+1} = (-1)^nb, (-1)^{n+1}Y_{n+1} = (-1)^{n+1}a$ , and hence  $X_i \leq \frac{b}{2d}$  and  $Y_i \leq \frac{a}{2d}$ . Therefore the minimal length  $L_E$  satisfies

$$L_E = X_n + Y_n < \frac{a+b}{2d}.$$

Since  $X_i + Y_i < X_n + Y_n$  for any  $-1 \leq i \leq n-1$ , one can generalize this result as follows.

**Theorem 2.3** *For the case  $c = r_i$  ( $-1 \leq i \leq n$ ), the minimal integer solutions of the equation  $E = E_{(a,b;r_i)} : ax + by = r_i$  and the minimal length  $L_E$  are given by*

$$(x, y) = ((-1)^{i-1}X_i, (-1)^iY_i), \quad L_E = X_i + Y_i, \quad (-1 \leq i \leq n).$$

## 2.2 Continued fraction

Let  $\frac{a}{b}$  be a reduced fraction satisfying the following  $n$  steps.

$$\begin{aligned} a &= a_0b + r_1, & (0 < r_1 < b) \\ b &= a_1r_1 + r_2, & (0 < r_2 < r_1) \\ r_1 &= a_2r_2 + r_3, & (0 < r_3 < r_2) \\ &\vdots \\ r_{n-2} &= a_{n-1}r_{n-1} + r_n, & (0 < r_n < r_{n-1}) \\ r_{n-1} &= a_n r_n \\ r_n &= 1 = GCD(a, b) \end{aligned}$$

Then the continued fraction expansion of the rational number  $\frac{a}{b}$  is denoted by

$$\frac{a}{b} = [a_0; a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n].$$

The  $k$ -th intermediate continued fraction is defined by putting

$$\frac{P_k}{Q_k} = [a_0; a_1, \dots, a_k].$$

Put  $P_{-1} = 0, P_0 = 1, Q_{-1} = 1, Q_0 = 0$ . The recurrence sequences  $P_k, Q_k$  are defined by putting

$$P_{k+1} = a_k P_k + P_{k-1}, Q_{k+1} = a_k Q_k + Q_{k-1}, \text{ for } k \geq 0.$$

These recurrence sequences can be written by the use of matrices,

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} P_{k+1} & P_k \\ Q_{k+1} & Q_k \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} P_k & P_{k-1} \\ Q_k & Q_{k-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_k & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} a_0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} a_{k-1} & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_k & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $a = P_{n+1}, Q_{n+1} = b$ , one gets,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & P_n \\ b & Q_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} a_{n-1} & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_n & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We note that  $Q_k = X_k, P_k = Y_k$ , where  $X_k, Y_k$  are those of the extended Euclidean algorithm for  $a > b$ .

## 2.3 The Frobenius coin problem

To investigate the algorithm of finding the minimal integer solutions for larger  $c$ , we shall recall the Frobenius coin problem, which states the existence

of the non-negative integer solutions for given linear diophantine equations. Let  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$  be coprime positive integers. From Schur's theorem, there exists the largest positive integer  $c = g(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  for which the linear diophantine equation  $E_{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n; c)} : a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = c$  has no non-negative integer solutions  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ . The number  $g(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  is called the *Frobenius number*. From the definition of the Frobenius number, the equation  $E_{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n; c)}$  has non-negative integer solutions for any  $c > g(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ . Though the explicit closed form of the Frobenius number for  $n \geq 3$  is still an open problem, the following case  $n = 2$  is well known.

**Theorem 2.4 (Frobenius number for the case  $n = 2$ )** *Let  $a, b$  be coprime positive integers. Then the Frobenius number  $g(a, b)$  for the equation  $ax + by = c$  is*

$$g(a, b) = ab - a - b.$$

*When  $c$  varies  $0 \leq c \leq g(a, b) = (a - 1)(b - 1) - 1$ , there exist exactly  $\frac{(a - 1)(b - 1)}{2}$  equations  $E_{(a, b; c)}$  with non-negative integer solutions  $x, y$ .*

**Remark 2.5** *Last part of the above theorem is easily proved from the following property;*

$$\begin{aligned} & E_{(a, b; c)} \text{ has non-negative integer solutions} \\ \iff & E_{(a, b; g(a, b) - c)} \text{ has no non-negative integer solutions.} \end{aligned}$$

## 2.4 Algorithm for finding minimal solutions 2

Assume the positive integers  $a, b$  satisfy  $a > b > 0$  and  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$ . Then the condition for the equation  $E_{(a, b; c)} : ax + by = c$  has non-negative integer solutions  $(x, y)$  is the following. Consider the following linear congruence  $by \equiv c \pmod{a}$ . Then there exists  $y = y_0$  with  $0 \leq y_0 < a$ . If  $c - by_0 \geq 0$ , the integer  $x_0 = (c - by_0)/a$  satisfies  $ax_0 + by_0 = c$  with  $x_0, y_0 \geq 0$ , i.e., the equation has the non-negative integer solutions  $(x_0, y_0)$ . Moreover  $(x_0, y_0)$  are the minimal integer solutions of  $S_0$  and hence the length  $L(x_0, y_0) = x_0 + y_0$  is  $L_0$ . Then the solutions  $(x_0 + b, y_0 - a)$  are the minimal solutions of  $S_1$  and the length  $L(x_0 + b, y_0 - a) = x_0 - y_0 + a + b$  is the minimal length  $L_1$ . Thus

$$L_0 \leq L_1 \iff y_0 \leq \frac{a + b}{2}.$$

On the contrary, if  $c - by_0 < 0$ , the integer  $x_0 = (c - by_0)/a$  satisfy  $ax_0 + by_0 = c$  with  $x_0 < 0, y_0 \geq 0$ , and the equation does not have non-negative integer solutions. The length  $L(x_0, y_0) = -x_0 + y_0$  is  $L_2$  for this case. Hence the solutions  $(x_0 + b, y_0 - a)$  are the minimal solutions of  $S_1$  and the length  $L(x_0 + b, y_0 - a) = x_0 - y_0 + a + b$  is the minimal length  $L_1$ . Thus we have

$$L_2 \leq L_1 \iff -x_0 + y_0 \leq \frac{a + b}{2}.$$

**Theorem 2.6** *Under the above notations, the minimal integer solutions and the minimal length  $L_E$  are the following:*

*If  $c \geq by_0$  and  $y_0 \leq \frac{a+b}{2}$ , then the minimal integer solutions are  $(x_0, y_0)$  and the minimal length is  $L_E = x_0 + y_0$ .*

*If  $c \geq by_0$  and  $y_0 > \frac{a+b}{2}$ , then the minimal integer solutions are  $(x_0+b, y_0-a)$  and the minimal length is  $L_E = x_0 - y_0 + a - b$ .*

*If  $c < by_0$  and  $-x_0 + y_0 \leq \frac{a+b}{2}$ , then the minimal integer solutions are  $(x_0, y_0)$  and the minimal length is  $L_E = -x_0 + y_0$ .*

*If  $c < by_0$  and  $-x_0 + y_0 > \frac{a+b}{2}$ , then the minimal integer solutions are  $(x_0+b, y_0-a)$  and the minimal length is  $L_E = x_0 - y_0 + a + b$ .*

**Remark 2.7** *Given a equation  $E_{(a,b;c)} : ax+by = c$ , with  $a > b > 0$ ,  $c > 0$  and  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$ . From this theorem, one can find the minimal integer solutions  $(X, Y)$  and any integer solutions are written in the form  $(X+kb, Y-ka)$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . When  $a = 5, b = 3$  and  $c = 37$ , one can verifies that  $(7, 1)$  are the minimal integer solutions as mentioned in the first section.*

### 3 Related problems

#### 3.1 Equivalence classes of the linear diophantine equation

Let  $V$  be the set of integer vectors  $(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{Z}^3$  which satisfy the condition  $\text{GCD}(a, b) | c$ . Then  $(a, b, c) \in V$  is nothing but the integer solutions  $S_{(a,b;c)} \neq \emptyset$  of the corresponding diophantine equation  $E_{(a,b;c)}$ . We denote  $(a_1, b_1, c_1) \cong (a_2, b_2, c_2)$  if there exists integers  $p, q, pq \neq 0$  which satisfy

$$p(a_1, b_1, c_1) = q(a_2, b_2, c_2).$$

Then one can see

$$(a_1, b_1, c_1) \cong (a_2, b_2, c_2) \iff S_{(a_1,b_1;c_1)} = S_{(a_2,b_2;c_2)}.$$

Therefore, for any  $(a, b, c) \in V$ , there exists  $(a_0, b_0, c_0) \cong (a, b, c)$  with  $\text{GCD}(a_0, b_0) = 1$ .

Let  $\varepsilon_a, \varepsilon_b, \varepsilon_c \in \{-1, 1\}$  and put  $a' = \varepsilon_a a, b' = \varepsilon_b b, c' = \varepsilon_c c$ . The map  $\phi$  from  $E_{(a,b;c)}$  to  $E_{(a',b';c')}$  is defined by putting

$$\phi : (x, y) \in S_{(a,b;c)} \rightarrow (x', y') \in S_{(a',b';c')},$$

where  $x' = \phi(x) = \varepsilon_c \varepsilon_a x, y' = \phi(y) = \varepsilon_c \varepsilon_b y$ . Then  $\phi$  defines a bijection from  $S_{(a,b;c)}$  to  $S_{(a',b';c')}$  which preserves the length of integer solutions

$$L(x, y) = |x| + |y| = |x'| + |y'| = L(x', y') = L(\phi(x), \phi(y)),$$

where

$$ax + by = c \iff (a\varepsilon_a)(\varepsilon_c\varepsilon_ax) + (b\varepsilon_b)(\varepsilon_c\varepsilon_by) = (c\varepsilon_c) \iff a'x' + b'y' = c''.$$

Thus, to investigate the distributions of the integer solutions of the given equation  $E_{(a,b;c)}$ , we may restrict ourselves to the case  $a > b > 0, c > 0$  and  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$ , without loss of generality.

**Remark 3.1** We denote  $(a, b, c) \sim (a', b', c')$  if there exists the above map  $\phi : E_{(a,b;c)} \rightarrow E_{(a',b',c')}$ . There are examples  $(a, b, c) \not\sim (a', b', c')$  and  $(a, b, c) \not\cong (a', b', c')$ , but have the same set of the length of integer solutions. For example, consider the equations  $E_{(11,3;7)}$  and  $E_{(9,5;7)}$ . Then  $(11, 3, 7) \not\sim (9, 5, 7)$  and  $(11, 3, 7) \not\cong (9, 5, 7)$ , but both equations have the same set of the length of integer solutions  $\{7, 21, 28, \dots\}$ , i.e., AP with the initial term 7 and the common difference 14.

### 3.2 Three Jug Problem

Originally, *three jug problem* is the following mathematical puzzle. Let  $a, b$  are positive integers with  $a > b$ . Given three jugs, the first jug  $A$  with  $a$  pints, the second jug  $B$  with  $b$  pints, and the third jug  $C$  with  $a + b$  pints. Make two jugs  $A$  and  $C$  with the same amount  $(a + b)/2$ , by only completely filling up and/or emptying vessels into others. It is known that this problem can be solved by using the solution of the linear diophantine equation  $E_{(a,b;(a+b)/2)}$ .

This problem is slightly modified and generalized as follows. Given two empty buckets  $A$  and  $B$  of positive integer capacities  $a$  and  $b$ , respectively and a well containing an inexhaustible supply of water. Moreover  $a > b$  and  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$ . One is asked to obtain a fixed quantity of liquid  $c$  using only two initially empty buckets  $A$  and  $B$  by only completely filling up and/or emptying buckets into others and also utilizing the well. In the film “Die Hard: With a Vengeance” (1995), this problem of the case  $a = 5, b = 3$  and  $c = 4$  has been treated.

We shall explain this example using the symbol  $[p, q]$ , where  $p$  represents the amount of water in the first bucket  $A$  with the capacity 5 and  $q$  represents the amount of water in the second bucket  $B$  with the capacity 3.

(1)

$$[0, 0] \rightarrow [5, 0] \rightarrow [2, 3] \rightarrow [2, 0] \rightarrow [0, 2] \rightarrow [5, 2] \rightarrow [4, 3]$$

(2)

$$[0, 0] \rightarrow [0, 3] \rightarrow [3, 0] \rightarrow [3, 3] \rightarrow [5, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1] \rightarrow [1, 0] \rightarrow [1, 3] \rightarrow [4, 0]$$

Here (1) is the procedure corresponding the integer solutions  $(2, -2)$  of  $E_{(5,3;4)} : 5x + 3y = 4$ , and (2) is the procedure corresponding the integer solutions  $(-1, 3)$  of  $E_{(5,3;4)}$ .



Let  $(x, y)$  be the integer solutions of  $E_{(a,b;c)} : ax + by = c$ .  $N$  denotes the number of times to need to amount  $c$  with the buckets  $a$  and  $b$  corresponding to these solutions  $(x, y)$ . Then  $N$  is formulated as follows.

**Theorem 3.2 (modified three jug problem)** *Assume  $a > b$  and  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = \text{GCD}(a, c) = \text{GCD}(b, c) = 1$ . Then, using the length of the integer solution  $L(x, y) = |x| + |y|$ , the number of times  $N$  is expressed by;*

*If  $1 \leq c < b$ , then  $N = 2L(x, y) - 2$ .*

*If  $b < c < a$  and  $x > 0$ , then  $N = 2L(x, y) - 2$ .*

*If  $b < c < a$  and  $x < 0$ , then  $N = 2L(x, y)$ .*

Assume  $a > b > 0$  with  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = \text{GCD}(a, c) = \text{GCD}(b, c) = 1$  as above. Then, very roughly speaking, to determine the minimal number of times  $N$  for the above modified three jug problem is nothing but to determine the minimal length  $L_E$  of the equation  $E_{(a,b;c)}$ . Assume the additional condition  $a > c > 0$ , then there exists only one couple  $(x, y)$  of minimal integer solutions for the cases  $c \neq \frac{a+b}{2}$  from Theorem 2.5. Moreover the case  $c = \frac{a+b}{2}$  has exactly 2 minimal integer solutions;

$$(x, y) = \left( \frac{-b+1}{2}, \frac{a+1}{2} \right), \text{ and } \left( \frac{b+1}{2}, \frac{-a+1}{2} \right).$$

**Theorem 3.3** *Let  $a$  be coprime positive integers with  $a > b$ . For any  $c$  ( $1 \leq c < a$ ), the equation  $E_{(a,b;c)} : ax + by = c$  has exactly one couple of minimal integer solutions except for the case  $c = \frac{a+b}{2}$ .  $E = E_{(a,b;(a+b)/2)} : ax + by = \frac{a+b}{2}$  has exactly two minimal integer solutions*

$$(x, y) = \left( \frac{-b+1}{2}, \frac{a+1}{2} \right), \text{ and } \left( \frac{b+1}{2}, \frac{-a+1}{2} \right),$$

where the both minimal length is  $L_E = \frac{a+b}{2}$ .

**Remark 3.4** *The exceptional case  $c = \frac{a+b}{2}$  occurs only when  $a \equiv b \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ .*

**Corollary 3.5** *Consider three jug problem for the case  $a, b$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are coprime odd positive integers with  $a > b$ . Then the number of times  $N$  corresponding to the solutions  $\left( \frac{b+1}{2}, \frac{-a+1}{2} \right)$  is  $a + b - 1$ .*

*The number of times  $N$  corresponding to the solutions  $\left( \frac{-b+1}{2}, \frac{a+1}{2} \right)$  is  $a + b$ .*

**Remark 3.6** *Three jug problem is sometimes called the decanter problem, where the liquid is wine. In Japan, Mitsuyoshi Yoshida published a book “Jinkouki” in 1627. In this book he treated three jug problem of the case  $[a, b] = [7, 3]$ , where the liquid is oil.*

### 3.3 Examples of minimal integer solutions

In this section, we shall treat the special class of equations  $E_{(a,b;c)}$ . Let  $F_n$  and  $L_n$  be  $n$ -th Fibonacci and Lucas numbers, respectively. Fibonacci numbers  $F_n$  and Lucas numbers  $L_n$  are defined by putting,

$$F_{n+1} = F_n + F_{n-1}, \text{ and } L_{n+1} = L_n + L_{n-1},$$

with initial terms  $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1$  and  $L_0 = 2, L_1 = 1$ . For the sake of readers, we shall list Fibonacci numbers and Lucas numbers for small indices  $n$ .

$n$	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
$F_n$	1	0	1	1	2	3	5	8	13	21	34	55	89	144
$L_n$	-1	2	1	3	4	7	11	18	29	47	76	123	199	322

Here we will give the minimal solutions of the following equations for small  $c$ .

$$F_{n+1}x + F_ny = c, \text{ and } L_{n+1}x + L_ny = c, \text{ where } 1 \leq c \leq 5.$$

The following well known formula is called Cassini's identity, which played the key role in our old paper [3].

$$F_{n+1}F_{n-1} - F_n^2 = (-1)^n, \text{ i.e., } \begin{vmatrix} F_{n+1} & F_n \\ F_n & F_{n-1} \end{vmatrix} = (-1)^n.$$

Thus one obtains

$$\begin{vmatrix} F_{n+1} & F_n \\ F_n & F_{n-1} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} F_{n+1} & F_n - F_{n+1} \\ F_n & F_{n-1} - F_n \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} F_{n+1} & -F_{n-1} \\ F_n & -F_{n-2} \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} F_{n+1} & F_{n-1} \\ F_n & F_{n-2} \end{vmatrix}.$$

Hence we have shown the equation  $E_{(F_{n+1}, F_n; 1)} : F_{n+1}x + F_ny = 1$  have integer solutions  $(x, y) = ((-1)^{n-1}F_{n-2}, (-1)^nF_{n-1})$ . Actually these solutions are the minimal integer solutions and the minimal length is  $L_E = F_n (= F_{n-1} + F_{n-2})$ . Hence we have shown the following result.

(3.1) The equation  $E_{(F_{n+1}, F_n; 1)}$

Minimal integer solutions are  $(x, y) = ((-1)^{n-1}F_{n-2}, (-1)^nF_{n-1})$ . The minimal length is  $L_E = F_n$ .

Similarly, one can easily verify the following examples.

(3.2) The equation  $E_{(F_{n+1}, F_n; 2)}$

Minimal integer solutions are  $x = (-1)^nF_{n-3}, y = (-1)^{n-1}F_{n-2}$ . The minimal

length is  $L_E = F_{n-1}$ .

(3.3) The equation  $E_{(F_{n+1}, F_n; 3)}$

Minimal integer solutions are  $x = (-1)^{n-1}F_{n-4}, y = (-1)^n F_{n-3}$ . The minimal length is  $L_E = F_{n-2}$ .

(3.4) The equation  $E_{(F_{n+1}, F_n; 4)}$

Minimal integer solutions are  $x = (-1)^n 2F_{n-3}, y = (-1)^{n-1} 2F_{n-2}$ . The minimal length is  $L_E = 2F_{n-1}$ .

(3.5) The equation  $E_{(F_{n+1}, F_n; 5)}$

Minimal integer solutions are  $x = (-1)^n F_{n-5}, y = (-1)^{n-1} F_{n-4}$ . The minimal length is  $L_E = F_{n-3}$ .

(3.6) The equation  $E_{(L_{n+1}, L_n; 1)}$

Minimal integer solutions are  $x = (-1)^n F_{n-1}, y = (-1)^{n+1} F_n$ . The minimal length is  $L_E = F_{n+1}$ .

(3.7) The equation  $E_{(L_{n+1}, L_n; 2)}$

Minimal integer solutions are  $x = (-1)^{n+1} F_n, y = (-1)^n F_{n+1}$ . The minimal length is  $L_E = F_{n+2}$ .

(3.8) The equation  $E_{(L_{n+1}, L_n; 3)}$

Minimal integer solutions are  $x = (-1)^{n-1} F_{n-2}, y = (-1)^n F_{n-1}$ . The minimal length is  $L_E = F_n$ .

(3.9) The equation  $E_{(L_{n+1}, L_n; 4)}$

Minimal integer solutions are  $x = (-1)^n F_{n-3}, y = (-1)^{n-1} F_{n-2}$ . The minimal length is  $L_E = F_{n-1}$ .

(3.10) The equation  $E_{(L_{n+1}, L_n; 5)}$

Minimal integer solutions are  $x = (-1)^n L_{n-2}, y = (-1)^{n-1} L_{n-1}$ . The minimal length is  $L_E = L_n$ .

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