

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;

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

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 ϕ 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 ϕ 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

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

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.

$$(1) \quad [0, 0] \rightarrow [5, 0] \rightarrow [2, 3] \rightarrow [2, 0] \rightarrow [0, 2] \rightarrow [5, 2] \rightarrow [4, 3]$$

$$(2) \quad [0, 0] \rightarrow [0, 3] \rightarrow [3, 0] \rightarrow [3, 3] \rightarrow [5, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1] \rightarrow [1, 0] \rightarrow [1, 3] \rightarrow [4, 0]$$

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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