# ENUMERATING SOLUTIONS TO $p(a)+q(b)=r(c)+s(d)$ 

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#### Abstract

Let $p, q, r, s$ be polynomials with integer coefficients. This paper presents a fast method, using very little temporary storage, to find all small integers $(a, b, c, d)$ satisfying $p(a)+q(b)=r(c)+s(d)$. Numerical results include all small solutions to $a^{4}+b^{4}+c^{4}=d^{4}$; all small solutions to $a^{4}+b^{4}=c^{4}+d^{4}$; and the smallest positive integer that can be written in 5 ways as a sum of two coprime cubes.


## 1. Introduction

Let $H$ be a positive integer. How can one find all positive integers $a, b, c, d \leq H$ satisfying $a^{3}+2 b^{3}+3 c^{3}=4 d^{3}$ ?

The following method is standard. Sort the set $\left\{\left(a^{3}+2 b^{3}, a, b\right): a, b \leq H\right\}$ into increasing order in the first component. Similarly sort $\left\{\left(4 d^{3}-3 c^{3}, c, d\right): c, d \leq H\right\}$. Now merge the sorted lists, looking for collisions. The sorting takes time $H^{2+o(1)}$ and space $H^{2+o(1)}$.

It does not seem to be widely known that one can save a factor of $H$ in space. Section 3 explains how to enumerate $\left\{\left(a^{3}+2 b^{3}, a, b\right)\right\}$ and $\left\{\left(4 d^{3}-3 c^{3}, c, d\right)\right\}$ in order, using $O\left(H^{2}\right)$ heap operations on two heaps of size $H$. Heaps are reviewed in section2. The remaining sections of this paper give several numerical examples. See http://pobox.com/~djb/sortedsums.html for a UNIX implementation of most of the algorithms discussed here.

A standard improvement is to split the range of $a^{3}+2 b^{3}$ and $4 d^{3}-3 c^{3}$ into several ( 0 -adic or $p$-adic) intervals. For example, one can separately consider each possibility for $4 d^{3}-3 c^{3} \bmod 7$, and skip pairs $(a, b)$ with $a^{3}+2 b^{3} \bmod 7 \in\{2,5\}$.

Notes. Lander and Parkin in [11] enumerated solutions to $a^{4}+b^{4}=c^{4}+d^{4}$ using time $H^{3+o(1)}$ and space $H^{1+o(1)}$.

Ekl in [2] pointed out that the time of the Lander-Parkin method could be reduced to $H^{2+o(1)}$. I made the same observation independently in April 1997, when Yuri Tschinkel asked me about the example described in section 4 below. David W. Wilson made the same observation independently in October 1997, for the example described in section 5 below. The difference between my method, Ekl's method, and the Lander-Parkin method is the difference between a heap, a balanced tree, and an unstructured array.

[^0]The use of heaps to enumerate sums in sorted order actually appeared much earlier in another context, namely William S. Brown's algorithm for multiplication of sparse power series. See [9, exercise 5.2.3-29]; compare [9, exercise 5-18].

## 2. Heaps

A heap is a sequence $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ satisfying $x_{\lfloor k / 2\rfloor} \leq x_{k}$ for $2 \leq k \leq n$ : i.e., $x_{1} \leq x_{2}, x_{1} \leq x_{3}, x_{2} \leq x_{4}, x_{2} \leq x_{5}, x_{3} \leq x_{6}, x_{3} \leq x_{7}$, etc.

The smallest element of a heap $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ is $x_{1}$. Given $y$, one can permute $y, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ into a new heap by the following algorithm. First set $j \leftarrow 1$. Then perform the following steps repeatedly: set $k \leftarrow 2 j$; stop if $k>n$; set $k \leftarrow k+1$ if $k<n$ and $x_{k+1}<x_{k}$; stop if $y \leq x_{k}$; exchange $y$, which is now in the $j$ th position, with $x_{k}$; set $j \leftarrow k$. The total number of operations here is $O(\log n)$.

In particular, using $O(\log n)$ operations, one can permute $x_{n}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ into a new heap. By a similar algorithm, also using $O(\log n)$ operations, one can permute $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}, y$ into a new heap.

Notes. Heaps were published by Williams in [22]. Floyd in 5] pointed out an algorithm using $O(n)$ operations to permute any sequence of length $n$ into a new heap.

For some practical improvements in heap performance see [9, exercise 5.2.3-18] and [9] exercise 5.2.3-28]. The bottom-up algorithm in [9, exercise 5.2.3-18] is due to Floyd; the "new" algorithms announced many years later in [1] and [21] are the same as Floyd's.

There are many other data structures that support insertion of new elements and removal of the smallest element. Any such structure is called a priority queue. Examples include leftist trees, as discussed in [9] section 5.2.3]; loser selection trees, as discussed in [9] section 5.4.1]; balanced trees, as discussed in [9, section 6.2.3]; and $B$-trees, as discussed in [9, section 6.2.4]. See also [10, page 152]. The reader can replace the heap in section 3 with any priority queue. Beware, however, that some "fast" priority queues are several times bigger and slower than heaps; see, for example, section 10 below.

## 3. Enumerating sums

Fix $p, q \in \mathbf{Z}[x]$. This section explains how to print $\{(p(a)+q(b), a, b): a, b \leq H\}$ in increasing order in the first component, using space $H^{1+o(1)}$.

First build a table of $\{(p(a), a): a \leq H\}$. Sort the table into increasing order in the first component; say $p\left(a_{1}\right) \leq p\left(a_{2}\right) \leq \cdots$.

Next build a heap containing $\left\{\left(p\left(a_{1}\right)+q(b), 1, b\right): b \leq H\right\}$. Perform the following operations repeatedly until the heap is empty:

1. Find and remove the smallest element $(y, n, b)$ in the heap.
2. Print $\left(y, a_{n}, b\right)$; by induction $y=p\left(a_{n}\right)+q(b)$ at this point.
3. Insert $\left(p\left(a_{n+1}\right)-p\left(a_{n}\right)+y, n+1, b\right)$ into the heap if $a_{n+1}$ exists.

Step 1 and step 3 can be combined into a single heap operation.
This algorithm takes time $H^{1+o(1)}$ for initializations, plus $H^{o(1)}$ for each of the $H^{2}$ outputs, for a total of $H^{2+o(1)}$. There are at most $H$ elements in the heap at any moment.

Refinements. One can easily save half the heap operations if $p=q$ : start with $\left\{\left(p\left(a_{n}\right)+p\left(a_{n}\right), n, a_{n}\right)\right\} ; \operatorname{print}\left(y, b, a_{n}\right)$ along with $\left(y, a_{n}, b\right)$ if $a_{n} \neq b$.

One can speed up the manipulation of $y$, and in some cases save space, by storing $p\left(a_{2}\right)-p\left(a_{1}\right), p\left(a_{3}\right)-p\left(a_{2}\right), \ldots$ instead of $p\left(a_{2}\right), p\left(a_{3}\right), \ldots$

One need not bother building tables of $n \mapsto a_{n}$ and $n \mapsto p\left(a_{n}\right)$ if $p$ is a sufficiently dull function.

Generalizations. Given functions $p, q, r, s$ from finite sets $A, B, C, D$ to an ordered group, one can enumerate $\{(a, b, c, d) \in A \times B \times C \times D: p(a)+q(b)=r(c)+s(d)\}$ by the same algorithm. For example, one can enumerate small solutions ( $a, b, c, d$ ) to $a^{3}+2 b^{3}=3 c^{3}+4 d^{3}$ with $a, b, c, d \in \mathbf{Z}[w] /\left(w^{2}+w+1\right)$, using lexicographic order on $\mathbf{Z}[w] /\left(w^{2}+w+1\right)$. See section 10 for another example.

One can restrict attention to a subset of $A \times B$, simply by skipping to the next suitable $a$ for each $b$. See sections 9 and 10 for examples.

There are many functions that are not of the form $a, b \mapsto p(a)+q(b)$ but that are nevertheless amenable to sorted enumeration. For example, one can apply the method here to any function $f$ such that $a \mapsto f(a, b)$ is monotone for each $b$. See section 6 for an example.

## 4. Example: $a^{3}+b^{3}=c^{3}+d^{3}$

There are 12137664 solutions $(a, b, c, d)$ to $a^{3}+b^{3}=c^{3}+d^{3}>0$ with $a \neq c$, $a \neq d,-10^{5} \leq a, b, c, d \leq 10^{5}$, and $a \mathbf{Z}+b \mathbf{Z}+c \mathbf{Z}+d \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{Z}$. In other words, there are 12137664 rational points of height at most $10^{5}$ on the surface $x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}=1$ away from the lines on the surface.

This computation took $1.4 \cdot 10^{13}$ cycles on a Pentium II-350. It takes roughly twice as long to do a similar computation for $p a^{3}+q b^{3}=p c^{3}+q d^{3}$; roughly three times as long for $p a^{3}+p b^{3}=r c^{3}+s d^{3}$; and roughly four times as long for $p a^{3}+q b^{3}=r c^{3}+s d^{3}$.

Notes. Peyre and Tschinkel have checked some of my numerical results and some of their theoretical computations against the best available conjecture. See [16]. Heath-Brown in [8] had previously enumerated solutions to $a^{3}+b^{3}=c^{3}+2 d^{3}$ and $a^{3}+b^{3}=c^{3}+3 d^{3}$ with $-10^{3} \leq a, b, c \leq 10^{3}$ by a cubic-time method.

In some cases one can save time by using [8, Theorem 1].

## 5. Example: many equal sums of two positive cubes

The smallest integer that can be written in $k$ ways as a sum of two cubes of positive integers is 1729 for $k=2 ; 87539319$ for $k=3 ; 6963472309248$ for $k=4$; and 48988659276962496 for $k=5$. There are no 6 -way integers below $10^{18}$. (There are two other 5 -way integers below $10^{18}: 391909274215699968=8 \cdot 48988659276962496$ and 490593422681271000.)

This computation took $7.9 \cdot 10^{14}$ cycles on an UltraSPARC II-296.
Notes. The answer for $k=3$ was found by Leech in [14]. The answer for $k=4$ was found by Rosenstiel, Dardis, and Rosenstiel in [17]. The answer for $k=5$ was found by David W. Wilson in 1997 and independently by me in 1998. There is an answer for every $k$; see [19] for the best known bounds.

## 6. Example: many equal sums of two cubes

The smallest positive integer that can be written in $k$ ways as a sum of two cubes is 91 for $k=2 ; 728$ for $k=3 ; 2741256$ for $k=4 ; 6017193$ for $k=5 ; 1412774811$ for $k=6 ; 11302198488$ for $k=7$; and 137513849003496 for $k=8$. There are no 9 -way integers below $2.5 \cdot 10^{17}$. (There are 37 other 8 -way integers below $2.5 \cdot 10^{17}$.)

This computation took $9.2 \cdot 10^{14}$ cycles on an UltraSPARC II-296. To keep the heap small, I enumerated pairs $(a, b)$ with $a \geq b / 2$ and $1 \leq a^{3}+(b-a)^{3} \leq 2.5 \cdot 10^{17}$, in order of $a^{3}+(b-a)^{3}$; these conditions imply $1 \leq b \leq 10^{6}$.

Notes. The answers for $k \in\{5,6,7\}$ were found by Randall Rathbun, according to [7] page 141]. The answer for $k=8$ appears to be new.

## 7. Example: many equal sums of two coprime cubes

The smallest positive integer that can be written in $k$ ways as a sum of two cubes of coprime integers is 91 for $k=2 ; 3367$ for $k=3 ; 16776487$ for $k=4$; and 506433677359393 for $k=5$. Each of these integers is squarefree. There are no 6 -way integers below $2.5 \cdot 10^{17}$. (There is one other 5 -way integer, namely 137904678696613339 .)

I found these results during the computation described in section 6. A separate computation, skipping pairs $(a, b)$ with a common factor, would have been somewhat faster.

Notes. The answer for $k=4$ was found by Rathbun, according to [7] page 141]. The answer for $k=5$ appears to be new.

Silverman proved in [18] that the number of pairs of integers $(a, b)$ satisfying $a^{3}+b^{3}=n$ is bounded by a particular function of the $\operatorname{rank}$ over $\mathbf{Q}$ of the elliptic curve $x^{3}+y^{3}=n$, if $n$ is cubefree. It is not known how tight Silverman's bound is.

Paul Vojta found that 15170835645 can be written in 3 ways as a sum of two cubes of coprime positive integers.

$$
\text { 8. EXAMPLE: } a^{4}+b^{4}=c^{4}+d^{4}
$$

There are 516 solutions $(a, b, c, d)$ to $a^{4}+b^{4}=c^{4}+d^{4}$ with $0<b \leq a, 0<d \leq c$, $c<a \leq 10^{6}$, and $a \mathbf{Z}+b \mathbf{Z}+c \mathbf{Z}+d \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{Z}$. This computation took roughly $10^{15}$ cycles on an UltraSPARC II-296.

The fourth power of $10^{6}$ does not fit into a 64 -bit integer. I actually enumerated values of $\left(a^{4} \bmod m\right)+\left(b^{4} \bmod m\right)+(0$ or $m)$ greater than or equal to $m$, where $m=2^{60}-93$. Then I checked each collision $a^{4}+b^{4} \equiv c^{4}+d^{4}(\bmod m)$ to see whether $a^{4}+b^{4}=c^{4}+d^{4}$.

Notes. 218 of the 516 solutions were already known: Lander and Parkin in [11] exhaustively found all solutions with $a^{4}+b^{4}<7.885 \cdot 10^{15}$; Lander, Parkin, and Selfridge in [13] exhaustively found all solutions with $a^{4}+b^{4} \leq 5.3 \cdot 10^{16}$; Zajta in [23] found many solutions with $a \leq 10^{6}$ by various ad-hoc techniques.

$$
\text { 9. EXAMPLE: } a^{4}+b^{4}+c^{4}=d^{4}
$$

The only positive solutions $(a, b, c, d)$ to $a^{4}+b^{4}+c^{4}=d^{4}$ with $d \leq 2.1 \cdot 10^{7}$ and $a \mathbf{Z}+b \mathbf{Z}+c \mathbf{Z}+d \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{Z}$ are permutations of the solutions

$$
(95800,414560,217519,422481)
$$ (1390400, 2767624, 673865, 2813001), (5507880, 8332208, 1705575, 8707481), (5870000, 11289040, 8282543, 12197457), (12552200, 14173720, 4479031, 16003017), (3642840, 7028600, 16281009, 16430513), (2682440, 18796760, 15365639, 20615673).

This computation took $4.5 \cdot 10^{15}$ cycles on a Pentium II-350.
I used several $p$-adic restrictions here. One can permute $a, b, c$ so that $a \in 2 \mathbf{Z}$ and $b \in 10 \mathbf{Z}$. Then $a \in 8 \mathbf{Z}, b \in 40 \mathbf{Z}, d-1 \in 8 \mathbf{Z}$, and $c \equiv \pm d(\bmod 1024)$ by [20, Theorem 1]; also $d \notin 5 \mathbf{Z}$. There are roughly $H^{2} / 320$ possibilities for $(a, b)$ and $H^{2} / 10240$ possibilities for $(c, d)$ if $d \leq H$. I enumerated sums modulo $2^{60}-93$ as in section 8

Notes. Euler conjectured that $a^{4}+b^{4}+c^{4}=d^{4}$ had no positive integer solutions. Ward in [20] proved that there are no solutions with $d \leq 10^{4}$. Lander, Parkin, and Selfridge in [13] proved that there are no solutions with $d \leq 2.2 \cdot 10^{5}$. Elkies in (4) proved that there are infinitely many solutions with $a \mathbf{Z}+b \mathbf{Z}+c \mathbf{Z}+d \mathbf{Z}=$ $\mathbf{Z}$, and exhibited two examples. Elkies commented that the smaller example, with $d=20615673$, "seems beyond the range of reasonable exhaustive computer search." Frye in [6] subsequently found the solutions with $d=422481$, and proved that there are no other solutions with $d \leq 2 \cdot 10^{6}$. Allan MacLeod subsequently found the solutions with $d=2813001$ by Elkies's method. The solutions with $d \in\{8707481,12197457,16003017,16430513\}$ appear to be new.

For each $(c, d)$ satisfying various $p$-adic restrictions, Ward factored $d^{4}-c^{4}$ into primes and then found all representations of $d^{4}-c^{4}$ as a sum of squares; the total time of Ward's algorithm is $H^{2+o(1)}$ with modern factoring methods, but the $o(1)$ is fairly large. Lander, Parkin, Selfridge, and Frye instead enumerated possibilities for $b$, and checked for each $b$ whether $d^{4}-c^{4}-b^{4}$ was a fourth power; Frye estimated that his program used about $H^{3} / 490000$ fourth-power tests to find all solutions with $d \leq H$.

$$
\text { 10. EXAMPLE: } a^{7}+b^{7}+c^{7}+d^{7}=e^{7}+f^{7}+g^{7}+h^{7}
$$

The five smallest integers that can be written in 2 ways as sums of four positive seventh powers are 2056364173794800 , 12191487610289536, 263214614245734400, 696885239160606459 , and 1560510414117060608 . There are no other examples below $420^{7}$.

I began this computation by generating a sorted table of $\left\{a^{7}+b^{7}: a \geq b\right\}$. Then I enumerated sums $\left(a^{7}+b^{7}\right)+\left(c^{7}+d^{7}\right)$ in order, skipping inputs $((a, b),(c, d))$ with $b<c$. Searching up to $155^{7}$, to verify the smallest example, took $1.4 \cdot 10^{10}$ cycles (and roughly 340 kilobytes of memory) on an UltraSPARC I-167. Searching up to $420^{7}$ took $1.4 \cdot 10^{12}$ cycles.

Notes. All the examples here were found by Ekl in [2] and 3. However, Ekl needed $1.6 \cdot 10^{11}$ cycles on an HP PRISM-50 (and roughly 8900 kilobytes of memory) to find the first example. Presumably the main reason is that the priority queue in [2] and [3] was a balanced tree, whereas the priority queue here is a heap.

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