## Markov's Theorem on quadratic forms([1],[2])

First we look at a chain of theorems for indefinite quadratic forms, these are exspressions of the form

$$
f(x, y)=\alpha x^{2}+\beta x y+\gamma y^{2}
$$

with positive discriminant $\delta(f)=\delta=\beta^{2}-4 \alpha \gamma$ and $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ real or integer numbers.

Definition 0.1. Two quadratic forms $f(x, y), f^{\prime}(x, y)$ are equivalent if there are integers $a, b, c, d$, st.

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime}(a x+b y, c x+d y)=f(x, y), \text { where } a d-b c= \pm 1 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

identically in $x, y$.
This forms an equivalence realtion in the usual sense. It is also easily verified that two equivalent forms have the same discriminant. We write

$$
\mu(f)=\inf _{x, y \in \mathbb{N}}|f(x, y)| \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y} \text { not both } 0
$$

The chain of theorems is now as follows:

$$
\mu(f) \leq 5^{-\frac{1}{2}} \delta^{\frac{1}{2}}(f)
$$

equality is only for the forms equivalent to a multiple of $x^{2}+x y-y^{2}$, else

$$
\mu(f) \leq 2^{-\frac{3}{2}} \delta^{\frac{1}{2}}(f)
$$

with equality only for the forms equivalent to a multiple of $x^{2}+2 x y-y^{2}$, and so on. The sequence of numbers $5^{-\frac{1}{2}}, 2^{-\frac{3}{2}}, \ldots$ converges to $\frac{1}{3}$.

This brings us to the theorem we want to prove
Theorem 0.1. Suppose that

$$
f(x, y)=\alpha x^{2}+\beta x y+\gamma y^{2}, \delta(f)=\beta^{2}-4 \alpha \gamma
$$

and put

$$
\mu=\inf _{x, y \in \mathbb{N}}|f(x, y)| x, y \text { not both } 0 .
$$

- If

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu>\frac{1}{3} \delta^{\frac{1}{2}}, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $f$ is equivalent to a Markov form (definition later).

- Conversely (2) holds for all forms equivalent to multiple of Markov forms.
- There are non-enumerably many forms, none of which is equivalent to a multiple of any other, st. $\mu=\frac{1}{3} \delta^{\frac{1}{2}}$

The poof is the goal of this notes.
Definition 0.2. Consider the diophantine equation defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
m^{2}+m_{1}^{2}+m_{2}^{2}=3 m m_{1} m_{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We call the positive integer solutions ( $m, m_{1}, m_{2}$ ) which may occur a Markov triple.

Lemma 0.2. The triples $(1,1,1)$ and $(2,1,1)$ are the only Markov triples with repeated numbers.

Proof. Suppose, without loss of generality, $m_{1}=m_{2}$. Then $m_{1}^{2} \mid m^{2}$, say $m=d m_{1}$. Plugging this into (3) gives $d^{2}+2=3 d m_{1}$, which implies $d \mid 2$, hence $d=1$ or $d=2$. In either case $m_{1}=m_{2}=1$ with $m=1$ or 2 .

The triples $(1,1,1),(2,1,1)$ are called singular, and all other Markov triples with three different entries non-singular. The smallest non-singular Markov triple is $(1,5,2)$. The following clever idea permits a recursive construction of all Markov triples. Suppose $\left(m, m_{1}, m_{2}\right)$ is a non-singular triple. Then $m$ is a root of the polynomial

$$
\phi(x)=x^{2}-3 x m_{1} m_{2}+m_{1}^{2}+m_{2}^{2}=(x-m)\left(x-m^{\prime}\right) .
$$

The other root $m^{\prime}$ satisfies $m+m^{\prime}=3 m_{1} m_{2}$, $m m^{\prime}=m_{1}^{2}+m_{2}^{2}$. So $m^{\prime}=$ $3 m_{1} m_{2}-m=\frac{m_{1}^{2}+m_{2}^{2}}{m}$ implies $m^{\prime}$ is an integer and $m^{\prime}$ is positive. Therefore ( $m^{\prime}, m_{1}, m_{2}$ ) is a different Markov triple. Similarly we get that

$$
\left(m, m_{1}^{\prime}, m_{2}\right),\left(m, m_{1}, m_{2}^{\prime}\right),
$$

where $m_{1}^{\prime}=3 m m_{2}-m_{1}, m_{2}^{\prime}=3 m m_{1}-m_{2}$ are Markov triple. Now we need to check that they are distinct. Assume $m>m_{1}>m_{2}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
m_{1}^{\prime}>m>m_{2}, m_{2}^{\prime}>m>m_{1} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\left(m_{1}-m\right)\left(m_{1}-m^{\prime}\right)=\phi\left(m_{1}\right)=2 m_{1}^{2}-3 m_{1}^{2} m_{2}+m_{2}^{2}<0
$$

Hence, $\max \left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)$ lies strictly between $m$ and $m^{\prime}$ except for the singular solutions; hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
m_{1}>m^{\prime}, m_{2} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We see that

$$
m_{2}^{\prime}>m_{1}^{\prime}>m>m_{1}
$$

Hence this are four different triples. Thus every non-singular solution gives rise to three distinct solutions, called the neighbouring triples

$$
\left(m^{\prime}, m_{1}, m_{2}\right),\left(m, m_{1}^{\prime}, m_{2}\right),\left(m, m_{1}, m_{2}^{\prime}\right)
$$

where $m^{\prime}=3 m_{1} m_{2}-m, m_{1}^{\prime}=3 m m_{2}-m_{1}, m_{2}^{\prime}=3 m m_{1}-m_{2}$.
Definition 0.3. The solutions are arranged as in Figure 1. The branches "going down" from a solution $(a, b, c)$ correspond to taking the neighbours with higher maximum, and the branch "going up" corresponds to taking the neighbour with lower maximum. This constructed tree is the Markov tree.


Figure 1: Markov tree

Theorem 0.3. All Markov triples appear exactly once in the Markov tree.
Proof. Suppose $(a, m, b)$ is a non-singular triple with maximum $m$. By (4) and (5), there is exactly one neighbour with smaller maximum $a$ or $b$, namely $(a, b, 3 a b-m)$ if $b>a$ respectively $(3 a b-m, a, b)$ if $a>b$. Going back in this way, we decrease the maximum each time and end up eventually at $(1,5,2)$ or $(2,5,1)$, since this is the only triple with maximum 5 . Retracing our steps in the tree from $(1,5,2)$, we find that $(a, m, b)$ or $(b, m, a)$ is in the tree.Uniqueness is clear, since the neighbor with smaller maximum is uniquely determined, and we can argue by induction on the maximum.

Remark. A direct proof gives

$$
g . c . d\left(m, m_{1}\right)=g . c . d\left(m, m_{2}\right)=g . c . d\left(m_{2}, m_{1}\right)=1 .
$$

From the Markov equation

$$
m^{2}+m_{1}^{2}+m_{2}^{2}=3 m m_{1} m_{2}
$$

it follows that $m$ divides $m_{1}^{2}+m_{2}^{2}$, whence

$$
m_{1}^{2}=-m_{2}^{2}(\bmod m)
$$

Since $m, m_{1}$, and $m_{2}$ are coprime, the two congruences

$$
m_{1} x= \pm m_{2}(\bmod m)
$$

have unique solutions $u, u^{\prime}$ with $0<u, u^{\prime}<m$. Therefore we find integer numbers $k, k_{1}, k_{2}$, st.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k=\frac{m_{2}}{m_{1}}=\frac{-m_{1}}{m_{2}}(\bmod m) \text { with } 0 \leq k<m \\
& k_{1}=\frac{m}{m_{2}}=\frac{-m_{2}}{m}\left(\bmod m_{1}\right) \text { with } 0 \leq k_{1}<m_{1} \\
& k_{2}=\frac{m_{1}}{m}=\frac{-m}{m_{1}}\left(\bmod m_{2}\right) \text { with } 0<k_{2} \leq m_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 0.4. We call

$$
\left(m, k ; m_{1}, k_{1} ; m_{2}, k_{2}\right)
$$

an ordered Markov set.
Remark. It holds

$$
k^{2}=\frac{m_{2}}{m_{1}} \frac{-m_{1}}{m_{2}}=-1(\bmod m) \text { ect. }
$$

and therefore $\exists l, l_{1}, l_{2}$, st.

$$
k^{2}+1=l m, k_{1}^{2}+1=l_{1} m_{1}, k_{2}^{2}+1=l_{2} m_{2}
$$

Lemma 0.4 (see [2] p. 30 Lemma 7). For non-singular ( $m, m_{1}, m_{2}$ ) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
m k_{2}-m_{2} k & =m_{1} \\
m k_{1}-m_{1} k & =m_{2} \\
m_{1} k_{2}-m_{2} k_{1} & =m^{\prime}=3 m_{1} m_{2}-m
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 0.5. The Form $F_{m}$, defined by

$$
m F_{m}(x, y)=m x^{2}+(3 m-2 k) x y+(l-3 k) y^{2}
$$

is called a Markov form.

Identically one can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
m^{2} F_{m}(x, y)=\phi_{m}(y, z) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $z=m x-k y$ and $\phi_{m}(y, z)=y^{2}+3 m y z+z^{2}$.
Trivially

$$
\begin{align*}
\phi_{m}(y, z)=\phi_{m}(z, y) & =\phi_{m}(-z, y+3 m z)  \tag{7}\\
& =\phi_{m}(z+3 m y,-y) \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

The discriminant of $m F_{m}(x, y)$ is $9 m^{2}-4$ and so

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{m}=\left(x+\frac{3 m-2 k}{2 m} y\right)^{2}-\left(\frac{9}{4}-\frac{1}{m^{2}}\right) y^{2} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can see that the definition of $F_{m}$ is asymetric in $m_{1}, m_{2}$. Suppose that $m_{2} k^{\prime}=m_{1}(\bmod m), 0 \leq k^{\prime}<m$ and $k^{2}+1=l^{\prime} m$. Let $F_{m}^{\prime}$ be the corresponding form. By (6) we have $k+k^{\prime}=0(\bmod m)$ and so either $m=1, k=k^{\prime}$ or $m>0$ and $k+k^{\prime}=m$ In the first case $F_{m}^{\prime}=F_{m}$ and in the second $F_{m}^{\prime}(x, y)=$ $F_{m}(x-2 y,-y)$ by (9). Since we deal only with equvalence of forms we need not consider $F_{m}$ and $F_{m}^{\prime}$ seperately. If we order $m_{1}, m_{2}$ so that $k \leq k^{\prime}$, the $0 \leq 2 k \leq m$.
Each Markov triple corresponds to a Markov form. If we look at the first triple $(1,1,1)$ we have $k=0$ and we get the form $x^{2}+3 x y+y^{2}(\operatorname{short}(1,3,1))$ which is equivalent to $x^{2}+x y-y^{2}$ like in the introduction. Therefore to the tree of solutions of $m^{2}+m_{1}^{2}+m_{2}^{2}=3 m m_{1} m_{2}$ corresponds a tree of Markov forms (see Figure 2)


Figure 2: Markov tree of forms

Lemma 0.5. For non-singular ( $m, m_{1}, m_{2}$ ),

$$
\begin{gathered}
F_{m}(k, m)=F_{m}(k-3 m, m)=1 \\
F_{m}\left(k_{1}, m_{1}\right) F_{m}\left(k_{2}-3 m_{2}, m_{2}\right)=-1
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof.

$$
m^{2}=F_{m}(k, m)=\phi_{m}(m, 0)=m^{2} \text { by }(6)
$$

Similarly (6), (8) give

$$
m^{2} F_{m}(k-3 m, m)=\phi_{m}\left(m,-3 m^{2}\right)=\phi_{m}(0,-m)=m^{2} .
$$

By Lemma $0.4,(x, y)=\left(k_{1}, m_{1}\right)$ gives $z=-m_{2}$, so

$$
\begin{aligned}
m^{2} F_{m}\left(k_{1}, m_{1}\right) & =\phi_{m}\left(m_{1},-m_{2}\right) \\
& =m_{1}^{2}-3 m m_{1} m_{2}+m_{2}^{2}=-m^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally

$$
\begin{aligned}
m^{2} F_{m}\left(k_{2}-3 m_{2}, m_{2}\right) & =\phi_{m}\left(m_{2}, m_{1}-3 m m_{2}\right) \\
& =\phi_{m}\left(m_{1},-m_{2}\right)=\left(-m^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Corollary 0.5.1. Let $f(x, y)=x^{2}+\beta x y+\gamma y^{2}$ for some $\beta$ and $\gamma$ and suppose that,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(k, m) \geq 1, f(k-3 m) \geq 1 \\
& f\left(k_{1}, m_{1}\right) \leq-1, f\left(k_{2}-3 m_{2}, m_{2}\right) \leq-1
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $f(x, y)=F_{m}(x, y)$.
Proof. Let $F_{m}(x, y)=x^{2}+\beta_{m} x y+\gamma_{m} y^{2}$. Use Lemma 0.5 to show $\gamma=\gamma_{m}$ and $\beta=\beta_{m}$.

## References

[1] M. Aigner, Markov's Theorem and 100 years of the uniqueness conjecture, Springer-Verlag, 2013.
[2] J. Cassels, An introduction to Diophantine approximation, Cambridge Tracts in Math., vol. 45, Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, 1957.

