How often does a polynomial hit a square?

Mohammad Sadek

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April 11, 2019

Algebraic Geometry

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- Studying zeros of multivariate polynomials using abstract algebraic techniques mainly from commutative algebra.
- Algebraic Varieties (solutions of systems of polynomial equations).
- Algebraic varieties include *plane curves*.
- **Questions**: singular points, topology of the variety, how large the variety is.
- Complex points of the algebraic varieties; more generally, solutions with coordinates in an algebraically closed field.

Arithmetic Geometry

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- Intersection between Algebraic Geometry and Number Theory.

Square values taken by integer polynomials

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Let f(x) be a polynomial with integer coefficients
 f(x) = a_nxⁿ + a_{n-1}xⁿ⁻¹ + · · · + a₁x + a₀, a_n ≠ 0, n ≥ 2.

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 f(x) = a_nxⁿ + a_{n-1}xⁿ⁻¹ + · · · + a₁x + a₀, a_n ≠ 0, n ≥ 2.
- How often does f(x) take square values in \mathbb{Q} ?

Mohammad Sadek How often does a polynomial hit a square?

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- If you feel more comfortable with integers, then think of $Y^2 = X^2 + Z^2$. Pythagorean Triples!

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- Are they finite? Are they infinite? Why?
- Any solution to $X^2 + Z^2 = Y^2$ is given by

$$(X,Y,Z)=(s^2-t^2,2st,s^2+t^2), \qquad s,t\in\mathbb{Z}.$$

Let C be the conic described by $ax^2 + by^2 + c = 0$, where a, b, c are square free coprime integers. The set of rational points is the set

$$\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{Q})=\{(x,y): \mathsf{a} x^2+\mathsf{b} y^2+\mathsf{c}=\mathsf{0}, x,y\in\mathbb{Q}\},$$

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Then

1) Either $C(\mathbb{Q}) = \emptyset$, or

2) $C(\mathbb{Q}) \neq \emptyset$, hence infinite.

This means that once we have a rational point on C, there exists infinitely many! But how would I find a rational point in the first place?

Theorem (Legendre)

The curve $C : ax^2 + by^2 + c = 0$, where a, b, c are square free coprime integers, has a rational point if and only if

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Theorem (Legendre)

The curve $C : ax^2 + by^2 + c = 0$, where a, b, c are square free coprime integers, has a rational point if and only if

- 1) a, b, c do not all have the same sign, and
- 2) the congruences

$$as^{2} + b \equiv 0 \pmod{c}$$
$$bt^{2} + c \equiv 0 \pmod{a}$$
$$cu^{2} + a \equiv 0 \pmod{b}$$

have solutions $s, t, u \in \mathbb{Z}$.

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- The picture is complete here!

The problem.

• Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. When does f(x) take a square value?

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- If so, then how large C(ℚ) is? Finite (how finite?). Infinite (how infinite?)
- The answer is beautiful! It depends on the graph of C in \mathbb{C}^2 .

Topology and rational points

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- They form one subfamily out of the family of algebraic curves described by h(x, y) = 0.
- The topology of a curve C defined by h(x, y) = 0 but thought of as a surface in C² provides us with an answer to our previous question.

$$C(\mathbb{Q}) = \{(x,y) : h(x,y) = 0, \quad x,y \in \mathbb{Q}\}.$$

Theorem

Let C be an algebraic curve defined by h(x, y) = 0 where h(x, y) has integer coefficients.

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$$C(\mathbb{Q}) = \{(x,y) : h(x,y) = 0, \quad x,y \in \mathbb{Q}\}.$$

Theorem

Let C be an algebraic curve defined by h(x, y) = 0 where h(x, y) has integer coefficients. Let g be the genus of the surface given by h(x, y) = 0 in \mathbb{C}^2 .

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1) If g = 0, then $C(\mathbb{Q})$ is either **empty** or **infinite**.

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- 2) If g = 1, then $C(\mathbb{Q})$ is either finite or infinite.
- 3) If $g \ge 2$, then $C(\mathbb{Q})$ is finite. (Mordell's Conjecture, Faltings' Theorem 1983)

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Theorem

Let C be a curve defined by the equation $y^2 = f(x)$ where f(x) is a polynomial whose coefficients are integers and has no double roots.

1) If deg f(x) = 1 or 2, then either $C(\mathbb{Q})$ is empty or infinite.

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- 1) If deg f(x) = 1 or 2, then either $C(\mathbb{Q})$ is empty or infinite. Effective!
- 2) If deg f(x) = 3 or 4, then either $C(\mathbb{Q})$ is finite or infinite.

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- 3) If deg $f(x) \ge 5$, then $C(\mathbb{Q})$ is finite.

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Genus 1 curves

$$y^2 = f(x)$$

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- We do not know how to decide whether $C(\mathbb{Q})$ is finite or infinite.
- In fact the situation is even worse. We do not know how to decide whether a nontrivial rational point exists on C or not. Let alone finding an algorithm which lists all the rational points in C(Q).

• Number Theory

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- **Geometry.** Let *E* be the curve described by the equation $y^2 = f(x)$. What is the structure of the set of rational points

$$E(\mathbb{Q}) = \{(x,y) : y^2 = f(x), \quad x,y \in \mathbb{Q}\}.$$

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 f(x) = x³ + ax + b, a, b ∈ Q.

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 f(x) = x³ + ax + b, a, b ∈ Q.
- Algebra. A group structure!



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Suppose $P_1 = (x_1, y_1)$ and $P_2 = (x_2, y_2)$ are points on the elliptic curve $E : y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$.

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One has

$$P_1 + P_2 = (\lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2, -\lambda^3 + 2\lambda x_1 + \lambda x_2 - y_1).$$

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$$E: y^2 = x^3 + 2x + 3$$

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• The point $P = (3, 6) \in E$

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Subgroups of E

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Let K be a field. Let E be an elliptic curve defined by

$$y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$$
 with $A, B \in K$.

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Let K be a field. Let E be an elliptic curve defined by

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Let

$$E(K) = \{(x, y) \in E : x, y \in K\} \cup \{O_E\}.$$

Then E(K) is a subgroup of E.

Mohammad Sadek How often does a polynomial hit a square?

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• Recall that the arc length of the upper half of $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ is given by

$$\int_{-a}^{a} \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} \, dx.$$

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The arc length of the upper half of x²/a² + y²/b² = 1, b < a, is given by

$$\int_{-a}^{a} \sqrt{\frac{a^2 - (1 - b^2/a^2)x^2}{a^2 - x^2}} \, dx$$

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• Set $k^2 = 1 - b^2/a^2$ and take the substitution $x \mapsto ax$. Then the arc length becomes

$$a\int_{-1}^{1}\sqrt{\frac{1-k^2x^2}{1-x^2}}\,dx$$

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• Recall that $y^2 = (1 - x^2)(1 - k^2x^2)$ is an elliptic curve.

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- Recall that $y^2 = (1 x^2)(1 k^2x^2)$ is an elliptic curve.
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• An *elliptic integral* is an integral of the form $\int R(x, y) dx$, where R(x, y) is a rational function of the coordinates (x, y)on an elliptic curve $E : y^2 = f(x)$, f(x) is a cubic or a quartic polynomial.



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Let *E* be an elliptic curve over \mathbb{Q} defined by $y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$. Set $E(\mathbb{Q}) = \{(x, y) : y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B, x, y \in \mathbb{Q}\}.$

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$$E(\mathbb{Q}) = \{(x,y): y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B, x, y \in \mathbb{Q}\}.$$

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Theorem (Mordell, 1922)

 $E(\mathbb{Q})$ is a finitely generated abelian group.

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Theorem (Mordell, 1922)

 $E(\mathbb{Q})$ is a finitely generated abelian group.

Corollary

There exists a nonnegative integer r such that

$$E(\mathbb{Q})\simeq \mathbb{Z}^r \times \mathbb{T}, \qquad |\mathbb{T}|<\infty.$$

r is the **rank** of $E(\mathbb{Q})$.



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In other words, there exist finitely many points $P_1, \ldots, P_s \in E(\mathbb{Q})$, $s \ge r$, such that any point $P \in E(\mathbb{Q})$ can be written as

$$P=n_1P_1+n_2P_2+\ldots+n_sP_s,\ n_i\in\mathbb{Z}.$$

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This means that there exist finitely many points in $E(\mathbb{Q})$ that I can start from using the chord & tangent process and produce every single point in $E(\mathbb{Q})$.



The following theorem is due to Mazur.

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The following theorem is due to Mazur.

Theorem (Mazur, 1978)

 ${\mathbb T}$ is one of the following fifteen groups:

 $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, \ 1 \le n \le 12, \ n \ne 11;$ $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2n\mathbb{Z}, \ 1 \le n \le 4.$ The following theorem is due to Mazur.

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This implies that $|\mathbb{T}| \leq 16$.

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- Numerical Evidence. r = 28 (Elkies, 2006)
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r can be arbitrarily large.

- Numerical Evidence. r = 28 (Elkies, 2006)
- Warning. A heuristic for boundedness of ranks of elliptic curves, JEMS, 2018, J. Park, B. Poonen, J. Voight, M. Wood.

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$E(\mathbb{Z})$ and Siegel

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Let E be defined by $y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$, $A, B \in \mathbb{Z}$. Recall that $E(\mathbb{Z}) = \{(x, y) \in E : x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

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$$E(\mathbb{Z}) = \{(x, y) \in E : x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

 $E(\mathbb{Z})$ is not a subgroup of E. The following finiteness theorem is due to Siegel, 1928.

Theorem

$E(\mathbb{Z})$ is finite.

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$E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ and Hasse

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Finding solutions for a polynomial equation over a finite field is easier than finding solutions in $\mathbb Q$ or $\mathbb Z.$

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Finding solutions for a polynomial equation over a finite field is easier than finding solutions in \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{Z} . Let *E* be an elliptic curve defined by $y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$, $A, B \in \mathbb{F}_p$.

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Finding solutions for a polynomial equation over a finite field is easier than finding solutions in \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{Z} . Let *E* be an elliptic curve defined by $y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$, $A, B \in \mathbb{F}_p$. One expects $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ to have approximately p + 1 points. Finding solutions for a polynomial equation over a finite field is easier than finding solutions in \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{Z} . Let E be an elliptic curve defined by $y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$, $A, B \in \mathbb{F}_p$. One expects $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ to have approximately p + 1 points. The following theorem quantifies this expectation. Finding solutions for a polynomial equation over a finite field is easier than finding solutions in \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{Z} . Let E be an elliptic curve defined by $y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$, $A, B \in \mathbb{F}_p$. One expects $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ to have approximately p + 1 points. The following theorem quantifies this expectation.

Theorem (Hasse, 1922)

 $||E(\mathbb{F}_p)|-(p+1)|<2\sqrt{p}.$

Cryptography

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"...virtually every theorem in elementary number theory arises in a natural, motivated way in connection with the problem of making computers do high-speed numerical calculations" Donald Knuth 1974

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Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman came up with RSA, a secure algorithm for public-key cryptography, 1977!

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RSA: Factorization of integers.
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Input: Let (G, *) be a group. Let $a, b \in G$ be such that $b \in \langle a \rangle$.

Input: Let (G, *) be a group. Let $a, b \in G$ be such that $b \in \langle a \rangle$. Output: Find $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $b = \underbrace{a * a * \dots * a}_{m-\text{times}} = a^m$

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Example. Let $G = \mathbb{F}_{p}^{\times}$. (Diffie-Hellman)

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Input: Let *E* be an elliptic curve defined over \mathbb{F}_p . Let $P, Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ be such that $Q \in \langle P \rangle$.

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The best algorithms for solving the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem (ECDLP) are much less efficient than the algorithms for solving DLP in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times} .

Question:

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Question: What is special about the set

 $\{1,3,8,120\}?$

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Question: What is special about the set

 $\{1, 3, 8, 120\}?$

Fermat observed the following

$$\begin{split} 1\times 3+1 &= 2^2, \qquad 1\times 120+1 = 12^2, \qquad 1\times 8+1 = 3^2, \\ 3\times 120+1 &= 19^2, \qquad 3\times 8+1 = 5^2, \qquad 8\times 120+1 = 31^2. \end{split}$$

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Definition

A set of *m* positive integers (rationals) $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$ is called a *(rational) Diophantine m-tuple* if $a_i \times a_j + 1$ is a perfect square for all $1 \le i < j \le m$.

Diophantine *m*-tuples

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• Why is this problem related to our original problem?

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- Why is this problem related to our original problem?
- What is the geometry of the problem?
- How large these Diophantine sets can be? In other words, how large *m* can be?

Theorem (Dujella, 2004)

There does not exist a Diophantine sextuple.

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Does there exist a Diophantine quintiple?

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Theorem (He, Togbé, Ziegler, 2018)

There does not exist a Diophantine quintuple.

Example.

 $\{19/12, 33/4, 52/3, 60/2209, -495/24964, 595/12\},\$

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Example.

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Theorem (Dujella, Kazalicki, Mikic, Szikszai, 2017)

There exist infinitely many rational Diophantine sextuples.

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(1) There are infinitely many rational Diophantine triples.

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- (1) There are infinitely many rational Diophantine triples. Pick any of these triples (a, b, c).
- (2) Consider the elliptic curve

$$E: y^2 = (ax + 1)(bx + 1)(cx + 1)$$

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- (4) The trick is which rational point (x, y) ∈ E(Q) gives rise to such d!
- (5) Necessary and sufficient conditions were given so that (4) happens for three different rationals d, e, f, and such that (a, b, c, d, e, f) is a rational Diophantine sixtuple.

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Rational **Diophantine** *m*-tuples

Mohammad Sadek How often does a polynomial hit a square?

Conjecture

There are no rational Diophantine 9-tuples.

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• We still do not have a single example of a rational Diophantine 7-tuple.

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- Are they finite? infinite?

Conjecture

There are no rational Diophantine 9-tuples.

- We still do not have a single example of a rational Diophantine 7-tuple.
- Are they finite? infinite? Maybe there is no such 7-tuple!

$$S = \{1, 3, 8, 120\}$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1\times 3+1=2^2, & 1\times 120+1=12^2, & 1\times 8+1=3^2, \\ 3\times 120+1=19^2, & 3\times 8+1=5^2, & 8\times 120+1=31^2. \end{array}$$

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Algebraic variety ${\mathcal C}$ defined by the intersection of 6 quadratics in ${\mathbb P}^{10}_{\mathbb Q}$

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Then we investigate $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{Q})$.

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 $F(s_i, s_j) = \Box_{ij}$ for all $s_i, s_j \in S, \ s_i \neq s_j$.

Definition

Let $F \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$. A set $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ is called an F-Diophantine set if F(a, b) is a perfect square for any $a, b \in A$ with $a \neq b$.

Definition

Let $F \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$. A set $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ is called an *F*-**Diophantine set** if F(a, b) is a perfect square for any $a, b \in A$ with $a \neq b$.

So Diophantine tuples are *F*-Diophantine sets for F(x, y) = xy + 1.

Mohammad Sadek How often does a polynomial hit a square?

• when F = xy + 1, the largest Diophantine set is of size 4.

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- Bérczes, Dujella, Hajdu and Tengely, 2017, gave a complete classification of all such polynomials *F*.
- For certain families of polynomials *F*, they found upper bounds on the size of *F*-Diophantine sets.

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- are there polynomials $F \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ such that S is an F-Diophantine set?
- if such polynomials exist, how many are they?
- what is the smallest possible degree of such polynomial?

Theorem (2018)

Given $S = \{x_1, \dots, x_k\} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ where $x_i \neq x_j$ if $i \neq j$, there are **infinitely** many polynomials $F \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ with deg F = 2(k - 2) such that the set S is an F-Diophantine set.

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Proof.

Studying Determinantal varieties that we may associate to F-diophantine sets.

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Open questions

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• (F, m)-Diophantine sets, $m \ge 3$.

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Thank you!

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