# On Integral Bases of Certain Real Monogenic Biquadratic Fields 

By<br>Yasuo Motoda*


#### Abstract

Let $K$ be a biquadratic field. M.-N. Gras and F. Tanoé gave a necessary and sufficient condition that $K$ is monogenic by using a diophantine equation of degree 4 (Lemma 3). In Theorem, we determine all the generators of power integral bases of certain real monogenic biquadratic fields by using the above equation.


Key Words: real biquadratic field, monogenic field, power basis, unit

1. Introduction. Let $\boldsymbol{Z}$ be the ring of the rational integers. Let $K, Z_{K}$ and $D_{K}$ be a real biquadratic field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d m}, \sqrt{d n})$ over the rationals $\boldsymbol{Q}$, the ring of integers of $K$ and the discriminant of $K$, respectively. Let $D(\xi)$ be the discriminant of an integer $\xi$ in $Z_{K}$. The index $I(\xi)$ of $\xi \in Z_{K}$ is defined by $D(\xi)=I(\xi)^{2} D_{K}$. $K$ is said to be monogenic if $Z_{K}$ has a generator of a power basis, i.e., there exists an integer $\theta$ of $K$ such that $Z_{K}=\boldsymbol{Z}[\theta]$, namely $I(\theta)=1$.
M.-N. Gras and F. Tanoé [GT] gave a necessary and sufficient condition that a biquadratic field $K$ has a generator of a power basis (Lemma 3 and Remark 5).

In this paper, we treat trivial real monogenic biquadratic fields, which are defined by M.-N. Gras and F. Tanoé [GT] (see Remark 1).

In section 2, we prepare some lemmas. In Lemma 2 we calculate an integral basis by using Hasse's conductor-discriminant formula (Lemma 1).

[^0]In the proof of Lemma 3 which is done in section 3, we induce three equations of degree 4 by calculating index $I(\xi)$ of $\xi \in Z_{K}$.

In the proof of the theorem, we determine all the genarators of power bases of the trivial real monogenic biquadratic fields by applying our key Lemma $5[\mathrm{NP}]$ to above equations. Lemma 5 gives squares in binary sequence which relates units of real quadratic fields.
2. Theorem and preliminaries. In this section, we show the theorem and prepare some lemmas for the proof of the theorem. Let $K$ be a real biquadratic field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d m}, \sqrt{d n})$. We may assume that $d, m, n$ are all positive square-free integers and relatively prime to each other, $d m \equiv d n(\bmod 4), \quad m \equiv n \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$ and $m>n$. Then $K$ is monogenic if and only if the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right)^{2}\left(2^{\delta} m\right)-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{2}\left(2^{\delta} n\right)= \pm 4 \tag{দ}
\end{equation*}
$$

has solutions, where $\delta$ is equal to 0 or 1 with $m n \equiv(-1)^{\delta}(\bmod 4)$ [Remark 5].

Theorem. Let $K$ be a real biquadratic field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d m}, \sqrt{d n})$ with $d m \equiv d n \equiv 2$ or 3 $(\bmod 4)$. Then $K$ is monogenic if and only if $\{u, v\}$ in the equation above with $u \geq v \geq 0$, $(u, v)=1$ satisfies one of the following three conditions:
(1) The case $d=1, m-n=4, m \equiv n \equiv-1(\bmod 4)$. Then we have
(i) $u=1, v=0$, or
(ii) $m=f^{2}+2, n=f^{2}-2, u=f, v=1$, where $f>1$ is odd,
(2) The case $d=2, m-n=2$. Then we have
(i) $u=1, v=0$, or
(ii) $m=2 f^{2}+1, n=2 f^{2}-1, u=2 f, v=1$,
(3) The case $n=1, m-1=4 d, d \not \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$. Then we have $u=v=1$.

Then all the generators $\theta$ of power bases of $Z_{K}$ are given by

$$
\theta=u v \frac{1-\delta+2^{\delta} \sqrt{m n}}{2}+v^{2} \sqrt{d n}+\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right) \frac{\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{2} .
$$

Remark 1 ([GT]). By the conditions of Theorem, we see that $d=2^{\delta}$ or $n=1$. M.-N. Gras and F. Tanoé called these conditions the trivial cases, where $\delta$ is 0 or 1 with $m n \equiv(-1)^{\delta}(\bmod 4)$. They gave solutions $\{u, v\}$ of Theorem, i.e., $\{u, v\}=\{1,0\}$ in the cases (1) and (2), and $\{u, v\}=\{1,1\}$ in the case (3). Then we shall call such a field with the above conditions a trivial real monogenic biquadratic field.

Remark 2 ( $\left[\mathrm{M}_{2}\right]$ ). As for the non-trivial real monogenic biquadratic field, the author proved that there exist infinitely many such fields for any pair $\{u, v\}$ with $(u, v)=1$ and, at the same time, gave the method of their constructions.

Remark 3 ([KP, P]). A. Pethő determined all CNS bases by using power bases obtained from Theorem (Remark 5). Let $K$ be an algebraic number field with the ring of integers $Z_{K}$. It is called CNS (canonical number system) ring if there exists $\alpha \in Z_{K}$ such that for any non-zero $\gamma \in Z_{K}$ there are integers $c_{0}, c_{1}, \cdots, c_{\ell} \in\left\{0,1, \cdots,\left|N_{K / Q}(\alpha)\right|-1\right\}$ such that $\gamma=\sum_{i=0}^{\ell} c_{i} \alpha^{i}$. It is well known that $Z_{K}$ is CNS if and only if the field $K$ is monogenic.

Lemma 1 (Hasse's Conductor-Discriminant Formula[W]). Let $K$ be the number field associated to the group $X$ of Dirichelet characters. Then the discriminant of $K$ is given by

$$
D(K)=(-1)^{r_{2}} \prod_{\chi \in X} f_{\chi}
$$

Here $f_{\chi}$ and $2 r_{2}$ denote the conductor of $\chi$ and the number of the complex conjugations of $K / \boldsymbol{Q}$, respectively.

Lemma $2\left(\left[\mathrm{GT}, \mathrm{M}_{1}, \mathrm{M}_{2}\right]\right)$. Let $K$ be a biquadratic field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d m}, \sqrt{d n})$. Then an integral basis of $Z_{K}$ and the discriminant $D_{K}$ of $K$ are given by the followings;
(1) in the case $d m \equiv d n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$;

$$
\begin{gathered}
Z_{K}=\boldsymbol{Z}\left[1, \frac{1+\sqrt{m n}}{2}, \frac{1+\sqrt{d n}}{2}, \frac{1+e \sqrt{m n}+\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{4}\right] \\
D_{K}=d^{2} m^{2} n^{2}, \text { where } e= \pm 1 \text { such that } d \equiv m \equiv n \equiv e(\bmod 4),
\end{gathered}
$$

(2) in the case $d m \equiv d n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ or $(3.1) d m \equiv d n \equiv 2, m n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$;

$$
Z_{K}=\boldsymbol{Z}\left[1, \frac{1+\sqrt{m n}}{2}, \sqrt{d n}, \frac{\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{2}\right], \quad D_{K}=2^{4} d^{2} m^{2} n^{2}
$$

(3.2) in the case $d m \equiv d n \equiv 2, m n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$;

$$
Z_{K}=\boldsymbol{Z}\left[1, \sqrt{m n}, \sqrt{d n}, \frac{\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{2}\right], D_{K}=2^{6} d^{2} m^{2} n^{2}
$$

Proof. Since in the case of a quadratic field $k$, the field discriminant and the conductor of $k$ coinsides with to each other, by Lemma 1 we have $D_{K}=D_{k_{1}} D_{k_{2}} D_{k_{3}}$, where $k_{1}=$ $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{m n}), k_{2}=\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d n}), k_{3}=\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d m})$. First we consider the case (1). Since $D_{k_{1}}=$ $m n, D_{k_{2}}=d n, D_{k_{3}}=d m$, we have $D_{K}=m n \cdot d n \cdot d m=d^{2} m^{2} n^{2}$. Let $G$ be the Galois group of $K$, which is defined by $\left\langle\sigma, \tau ; \sqrt{d n}^{\sigma}=-\sqrt{d n}, \sqrt{d m}^{\tau}=-\sqrt{d m}\right\rangle$. For $\alpha_{i} \in Z_{K}, i=1,2,3,4$, we define $\Delta\left[\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}, \alpha_{4}\right]$ by the determinant

$$
\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
\alpha_{1} & \alpha_{2} & \alpha_{3} & \alpha_{4} \\
\alpha_{1}^{\sigma} & \alpha_{2}^{\sigma} & \alpha_{3}^{\sigma} & \alpha_{4}^{\sigma} \\
\alpha_{1}^{\tau} & \alpha_{2}^{\tau} & \alpha_{3}^{\tau} & \alpha_{4}^{\tau} \\
\alpha_{1}^{\sigma \tau} & \alpha_{2}^{\sigma \tau} & \alpha_{3}^{\sigma \tau} & \alpha_{4}^{\sigma \tau}
\end{array}\right| .
$$

If $\Delta^{2}\left[\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}, \alpha_{4}\right]= \pm D_{K}$, then we have $Z_{K}=\boldsymbol{Z}\left[\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}, \alpha_{4}\right]$.
Now since $\frac{1+\sqrt{d m}}{2} \times \frac{1+\sqrt{d n}}{2}=\frac{d-e}{4} \sqrt{m n}+\frac{1+e \sqrt{m n}+\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{4}$, we have $\frac{1+e \sqrt{m n}+\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{4} \in$ $Z_{K}$. Then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Delta^{2}\left[1, \frac{1+\sqrt{m n}}{2}, \frac{1+\sqrt{d n}}{2}, \frac{1+e \sqrt{m n}+\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{4}\right]=2^{-8} \Delta^{2}[1, \sqrt{m n}, \sqrt{d m}, \sqrt{d n}] \\
& =2^{-8}\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & \sqrt{m n}^{\sigma} & \sqrt{d m} & \sqrt{d n} \\
1 & \sqrt{m n}^{\sigma} & \sqrt{d m}^{\sigma} & \sqrt{d n}^{\sigma} \\
1 & \sqrt{m n}^{\tau} & \sqrt{d m}^{2} & \sqrt{d n}^{\tau} \\
1 & \sqrt{m n}^{\sigma \tau} & \sqrt{d m}^{\sigma \tau} & \sqrt{d n}^{\sigma \tau}
\end{array}\right|^{2}\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & \sqrt{m n} & \sqrt{d m} & \sqrt{d n} \\
1 & -\sqrt{m n} & \sqrt{d m} & -\sqrt{d n} \\
1 & -\sqrt{m n} & -\sqrt{d m} & \sqrt{d n} \\
1 & \sqrt{m n} & -\sqrt{d m} & -\sqrt{d n}
\end{array}\right|^{2} \\
& =2^{-8}(m n)(d n)(d n)\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\
1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & -1 & -1
\end{array}\right|^{2}=d^{2} m^{2} n^{2} . \\
& \text { Therfore we have }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
Z_{K}=\boldsymbol{Z}\left[1, \frac{1+\sqrt{m n}}{2}, \frac{1+\sqrt{d n}}{2}, \frac{1+e \sqrt{m n}+\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{4}\right] .
$$

Similarly, we can obtain the discriminants and integral bases in the cases (2), (3,1) and (3,2).

Remark 4 ([GT]). Lemma 2 (2), (3.1) and (3,2) are presented by the following form;

$$
Z_{K}=\boldsymbol{Z}\left[1, \frac{1-\delta+2^{\delta} \sqrt{m n}}{2}, \sqrt{d n}, \frac{\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{2}\right], D_{K}=4^{2+\delta} d^{2} m^{2} n^{2}
$$

where $\delta$ is 0 or 1 with $m n \equiv(-1)^{\delta}(\bmod 4)$.

We will prove Lemma 3 after Proposition 1 in section 3.

Lemma 3 ([GT]). Let $K$ be a biquadratic field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d m}, \sqrt{d n})$, then $K$ is monogenic if and only if one of the following conditions is satisfied ;
(1) In the case (3.1) $d m \equiv d n \equiv 2, m n \equiv 1(\bmod 4) \quad$ or $d m \equiv d n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, and $m-n=4 d$, the equation $\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right)^{2} m-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{2} n= \pm 4$ has a solution $\{u, v\}$ in $\boldsymbol{Z}$, or
(2) in the case $(3.2) d m \equiv d n \equiv 2, m n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, and $m-n=d$, the equation $\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right)^{2} m-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{2} n= \pm 2$ has a solution $\{u, v\}$ in $\boldsymbol{Z}$.

Remark 5 ([GT]). Two equations of Lemma 3 are presented by the following form;

$$
\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right)^{2}\left(2^{\delta} m\right)-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{2}\left(2^{\delta} n\right)= \pm 4
$$

where $\delta$ is equal to 0 or 1 with $m n \equiv(-1)^{\delta}(\bmod 4)$.
If $K$ is monogenic, then we have $Z_{K}=\boldsymbol{Z}[\theta]$ with

$$
\theta=u v \frac{1-\delta+2^{\delta} \sqrt{m n}}{2}+v^{2} \sqrt{d n}+\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right) \frac{\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{2} .
$$

Remark 6. From the equation (2) of Lemma 2, $\theta$ is determined up to parallel transformations by a rational integer, the signature of $u, v, u^{2}-v^{2}, u^{2}+v^{2}$, and permutation $u$ and $v$. Especially, it is admissible to permute $u^{2}$ and $-u^{2}$, and $v^{2}$ and $-v^{2}$ simultaneously, because the following identity holds;

$$
\pm u^{2}=\frac{ \pm\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right) \pm\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right)}{2}, \quad \pm v^{2}=\frac{ \pm\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right) \mp\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right)}{2} .
$$

Let $G=<\sigma>\times<\tau>$ be the Galois group of $K / \boldsymbol{Q}$, where $\sqrt{d m}^{\sigma}=\sqrt{d m}, \sqrt{d n}^{\sigma}=$ $-\sqrt{d n}$ and $\sqrt{d m}^{\tau}=-\sqrt{d m}, \sqrt{d n}^{\tau}=\sqrt{d n}$. By Lemma $2, \theta$ is also determined up to automorphisms of $K$. Because the following identity holds;

$$
\begin{aligned}
\theta^{\sigma} & =u v \frac{1-\delta-2^{\delta} \sqrt{m n}}{2}-v^{2} \sqrt{d n}+\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right) \frac{\sqrt{d m}-\sqrt{d n}}{2} \\
& =u v(1-\delta)-u v \frac{1-\delta+2^{\delta} \sqrt{m n}}{2}-u^{2} \sqrt{d n}-\left(v^{2}-u^{2}\right) \frac{\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We can obtain the similar results for the cases $\theta^{\tau}$ and $\theta^{\sigma \tau}$.

Lemma $4\left(\left[\mathrm{NS}, \mathrm{M}_{2}\right]\right)$. Let $K=\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d m}, \sqrt{d n})$ and let $k$ be a quadratic subfield of $K$. Then $K$ does not have any power basis if one of the following conditions is satisfied; (1) 2 decomposes completely in $k$, say (2) $=\mathfrak{p}_{1} \mathfrak{p}_{2}$, and $\mathfrak{p}_{1}$ remains prime or decomposes completely in $K / k$,
(2) 3 decomposes completely in $K / \boldsymbol{Q}$.

Remark 7. If $K=\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{D M}, \sqrt{D N})$ satisfies the condition $D M \equiv D N \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, then by using Lemma 4 , we can show that $K$ is non-monogenic $\left[\mathrm{M}_{2}\right]$.
In the cases $D M \equiv D N \equiv 2$ or $3(\bmod 4), 2$ ramifies in $k=\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{D M})$, say $(2)=\mathfrak{p}^{2}$. In these cases, there exists infinitely many real monogenic biquadratic fields satisfying each of following condition in $K / k$;
(i) $\mathfrak{p}$ remains prime, (ii) $\mathfrak{p}$ decomposes completely or (iii) $\mathfrak{p}$ ramifies $\left[\mathrm{M}_{2}\right]$.
3. The proofs of Lemma 3 and Theorem. First we prepare one lemma and two propositins for the proof of Lemma 3 and Theorem.

Proposition 1. Let $a>1$ and $b>1$ be relatively prime and square-free rational integers. Assume that the equation $a x^{2}-b y^{2}=k$ has a solution $\left\{x_{0}, y_{0}\right\}$, with the positive minimal unit $\frac{1}{k}\left(x_{0} \sqrt{a k}+y_{0} \sqrt{b k}\right)$, where $k=1,2$ or 4 . Moreover we assume that the fundamental unit $\varepsilon$ of the quadratic field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{a b})$ is presented by the form $v+u \sqrt{a b}$ with rational integers $u, v$ if $k=1$ and asuume that $x_{0} \equiv y_{0} \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$ if $k=4$. Then $\varepsilon$ is equal to $\frac{1}{k}\left(a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}+2 x_{0} y_{0} \sqrt{a b}\right)$ with positive norm.

Proof. By the identities $(a x)^{2}-a b y^{2}=a k$, we obtan $\varepsilon_{0}=\frac{a x_{0}+y_{0} \sqrt{a b}}{a x_{0}-y_{0} \sqrt{a b}}=\frac{1}{k}\left(a x_{0}^{2}+\right.$ $\left.b y_{0}^{2}+2 x_{0} y_{0} \sqrt{a b}\right)$ and $\varepsilon_{0}^{-1}=\frac{a x_{0}-y_{0} \sqrt{a b}}{a x_{0}+y_{0} \sqrt{a b}}=\frac{1}{k}\left(a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}-2 x_{0} y_{0} \sqrt{a b}\right)$. So $\varepsilon_{0}$ is a unit with positive norm. Let $\varepsilon$ be the fundamental unit $>1$ of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{a b}) . \varepsilon$ is presented by the form $\frac{1}{e}(v+u \sqrt{a b})$, where $u, v$ are rational integers and $e=1$ if $k=1$ or $2, e=2$ if $k=4$. Now we show that $N(\varepsilon)=1$, where the symbol $N(\cdot)$ denotes the norm of an integer of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{a b})$. If $\varepsilon_{0}=\frac{1}{k}\left(x_{0} \sqrt{a}+y_{0} \sqrt{b}\right)^{2}$ is equal to an even power $\varepsilon^{2 r}$ of $\varepsilon$, with a positive rational integer $r$, then $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\left(x_{0} \sqrt{a}+y_{0} \sqrt{b}\right)=\varepsilon^{r}$. This does not occur, for the left hand side is an irrational integer of degree 4 , while the right hand side is one of degree 2 . So $\varepsilon_{0}$ is equal to an odd power of $\varepsilon$. Threfore we obtain $N(\varepsilon)=1$ because $N\left(\varepsilon_{0}\right)=1$. Hence we have $\varepsilon^{-1}=\frac{1}{e}(v-u \sqrt{a b})>0$. Then $\sqrt{\varepsilon_{0}} \varepsilon^{-1}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\left(x_{0} \sqrt{a}+y_{0} \sqrt{b}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{e}(v-u \sqrt{a b})$ is a unit $\frac{1}{e k}\left(\left(x_{0} v-y_{0} b u\right) \sqrt{a k}+\left(y_{0} v-x_{0} a u\right) \sqrt{b k}\right)$ of the biquadratic field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{a k}, \sqrt{b k})$. Then since $\sqrt{\varepsilon_{0}} \varepsilon^{-1}$ has degree 4 , we have $\frac{1}{e k}\left(x_{0} v-y_{0} b u\right) \neq 0, \frac{1}{e k}\left(y_{0} v-x_{0} a u\right) \neq 0$, which are coefficients of the $\sqrt{a k}$-part and $\sqrt{b k}$-part, respectively. By the minimality of $\sqrt{\varepsilon_{0}}$ and $\sqrt{\varepsilon_{0}} \varepsilon^{-1}<\sqrt{\varepsilon_{0}}$, we obtain (i) $x_{0} v-y_{0} b u>0$ and $y_{0} v-x_{0} a u<0$ or (ii) $x_{0} v-y_{0} b u<0$ and $y_{0} v-x_{0} a u>0$. Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon^{0} \leq \varepsilon_{0} \varepsilon^{-1} & =\frac{1}{k}\left(a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}+2 x_{0} y_{0} \sqrt{a b}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{e}(v-u \sqrt{a b}) \\
& =\frac{1}{e k}\left(\left(a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}\right) v-2 a b x_{0} y_{0} u-\left\{\left(a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}\right) u-2 x_{0} y_{0} v\right\} \sqrt{a b}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We evaluate the coefficient of the $\sqrt{a b}$-part. In the case (i), we have $0 \leq \frac{1}{e k}\left(\left(a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}\right) u-2 x_{0} y_{0} v\right)<\frac{1}{e k}\left(\left(a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}\right) u-2 y_{0} \cdot y_{0} b u\right)=\frac{1}{e k}\left(a x_{0}^{2}-b y_{0}^{2}\right) u=\frac{1}{e} u$. Thus we obtain $\varepsilon_{0} \varepsilon^{-1}=1$ namely $\varepsilon_{0}=\varepsilon$. In the case (ii), we have $0 \leq\left(a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}\right) u-$
$2 x_{0} y_{0} v<\left(a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}\right) u-2 x_{0} \cdot x_{0} a u=-\left(a x_{0}^{2}-b y_{0}^{2}\right) u=-k u$, which is a contradiction. Therefore $\varepsilon_{0}$ is the fundamental unit.

Remark 8. On the equation above in the case $k=1$, if the fundamental unit $\varepsilon$ of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{a b})$ does not belong to $\boldsymbol{Z}[\sqrt{a b}]$, then $\frac{1}{k}\left(a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}+2 x_{0} y_{0} \sqrt{a b}\right)$ is equal to $\varepsilon^{3}$ [Remark 9]. For each $k=1,2$ and 4, Proposition 1 relates to equations of Lemma 3 or Remark 5. We must use this proposition for the proof of Theorem.

Remark 9. Let $\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2}(v+u \sqrt{D})$ be the fundamental unit of the quadratic field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{D})$, where $u \equiv v \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$ and $D$ is a square-free positive integer. Then we have $D \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$. Put $\varepsilon^{n}=\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{n}+u_{n} \sqrt{D}\right)$. Then $v_{n} \equiv u_{n} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$ i.e., $\varepsilon^{n}$ belongs to $\boldsymbol{Z}[\sqrt{D}]$ if and only if $n \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. These results are well known. If $a x_{0}^{2}-b y_{0}^{2}=1$ with $x_{0}, y_{0}$ are minimal positive integers, $a>1, b>1$ and the fundamental uint $\varepsilon$ does not belong to $\boldsymbol{Z}[\sqrt{D}]$ Then we have $a x_{0}^{2}+b y_{0}^{2}+2 x_{0} y_{0} \sqrt{a b}=\varepsilon^{3}$. For example, the fields $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{21})$ has the fundamental unit $\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2}(5+\sqrt{21})$ which does not belong to $\boldsymbol{Z}[\sqrt{21}]$ and $\varepsilon^{3}=55+12 \sqrt{21}=(3 \sqrt{3}+2 \sqrt{7})^{2}, 3^{2} \cdot 3-2^{2} \cdot 7=1$, i.e., $a=3, b=7, x_{0}=3, y_{0}=2$. Also, the field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{69})$ has the fundamental unit $\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2}(25+3 \sqrt{69})$ with positive norm. Therefore the equation $3 x^{2}-23 y^{2}=4$ has a solution $x_{0}=3, y_{0}=1$.

On the other hand, the field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{85})$ has the fundamental unit $\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2}(81+\sqrt{85})$ with negative norm. Therefore the equation $5 x^{2}-17 y^{2}= \pm 4$ does not have any solution.

Proof of Lemma 3. Assume $K$ is monogenic and let $\xi$ be a generator of a power basis of $Z_{K}$. We calculate the index of $\xi$. Put $\xi=a_{0}+a_{1} \frac{1-\delta+2^{\delta} \sqrt{m n}}{2}+a_{2} \sqrt{d n}+a_{3} \frac{\sqrt{d m}+\sqrt{d n}}{2}$, where $a_{i}, i=0,1,2,3$ are rational integers. Then we have
$D(\xi)=\left\{\left(\xi-\xi^{\tau}\right)\left(\xi-\xi^{\tau}\right)^{\sigma} \cdot\left(\xi-\xi^{\sigma}\right)\left(\xi-\xi^{\sigma}\right)^{\tau} \cdot\left(\xi-\xi^{\sigma \tau}\right)\left(\xi-\xi^{\sigma \tau}\right)^{\tau}\right\}^{2}$. Now put $x=a_{1}, y=$ $2 a_{2}+a_{3}, z=a_{3}$. Then we have $y \equiv z(\bmod 2)$ and $\left(\xi-\xi^{\tau}\right)\left(\xi-\xi^{\tau}\right)^{\sigma}=\left(2^{\delta} x \sqrt{m n}+\right.$ $z \sqrt{d m})\left(-2^{\delta} x \sqrt{m n}+z \sqrt{d m}\right)=z^{2} d m-4^{\delta} x^{2} m n=2^{\delta} m \frac{z^{2} d-4^{\delta} x^{2} n}{2^{\delta}},\left(\xi-\xi^{\sigma}\right)\left(\xi-\xi^{\sigma}\right)^{\tau}=$ $\left(2^{\delta} x \sqrt{m n}+y \sqrt{d n}\right)\left(-2^{\delta} x \sqrt{m n}+y \sqrt{d n}\right)=y^{2} d n-4^{\delta} x^{2} m n=2^{\delta} n \frac{y^{2} d-4^{\delta} x^{2} m}{2^{\delta}}$ and $\left(\xi-\xi^{\sigma \tau}\right)(\xi-$
$\left.\xi^{\sigma \tau}\right)^{\tau}=(y \sqrt{d n}+z \sqrt{d m})(y \sqrt{d n}-z \sqrt{d m})=y^{2} d n-z^{2} d m=2^{2-\delta} d \frac{y^{2} n-z^{2} m}{2^{2-\delta}}$, where $\frac{z^{2} d-4^{\delta} x^{2} n}{2^{\delta}}$, $\frac{y^{2} d-4^{\delta} x^{2} m}{2^{\delta}}$ and $\frac{y^{2} n-z^{2} m}{2^{2-\delta}}$ are rational integers. Therefore $D(\xi)$
$=2^{4+2 \delta} d^{2} m^{2} n^{2} \cdot\left(\frac{z^{2} d-4^{\delta} x^{2} n}{2^{\delta}}\right)^{2} \cdot\left(\frac{y^{2} d-4^{\delta} x^{2} m}{2^{\delta}}\right)^{2} \cdot\left(\frac{y^{2} n-z^{2} m}{2^{2-\delta}}\right)^{2}$. Since $D_{K}=2^{4+2 \delta} d^{2} m^{2} n^{2}$, we have $I(\xi)=\left|\frac{z^{2} d-4^{\delta} x^{2} n}{2^{\delta}} \cdot \frac{y^{2} d-4^{\delta} x^{2} m}{2^{\delta}} \cdot \frac{y^{2} n-z^{2} m}{2^{2-\delta}}\right|=1$ namely $z^{2} d-4^{\delta} x^{2} n= \pm 2^{\delta}, y^{2} d-4^{\delta} x^{2} m=$ $\pm 2^{\delta}, y^{2} n-z^{2} m= \pm 2^{2-\delta}$. Now we have the identity:

$$
\left(\xi-\xi^{\tau}\right)\left(\xi-\xi^{\tau}\right)^{\sigma}-\left(\xi-\xi^{\sigma}\right)\left(\xi-\xi^{\sigma}\right)^{\tau}+\left(\xi-\xi^{\tau \sigma}\right)\left(\xi-\xi^{\tau \sigma}\right)^{\tau}=0
$$

namely $2^{\delta} m \mp 2^{\delta} n \pm 2^{2-\delta} d=0$. Since $m>n$, we obtain (i) $2^{\delta} m-2^{\delta} n=2^{2-\delta} d$ or (ii) $2^{\delta} m+2^{\delta} n=2^{2-\delta} d$. For solutions of Pythagorian equation $X^{2}+Y^{2}=Z^{2}$ i.e., $(X, Y, Z)=1$, it has a property $Z \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$. Therefore from the case (i) we can obtain $\left(y^{2}-z^{2}\right) d=$ $4^{\delta} x^{2}(m-n)$, and $m-n=4^{1-\delta} d$, i.e., $y^{2}-z^{2}=4 x^{2}$, hence $y^{2}=z^{2}+4 x^{2}$. In the Gauss field $\boldsymbol{Q}(i)$, since $(z+2 x i, z-2 x i)=1$, we can put $(u+v i)^{2}=z+2 x i$ for a suitable Gauss integer $u+v i$. Then we have $u^{2}-v^{2}=z, u v=x$, hence $y=u^{2}+v^{2}$. Moreover we can deduce that the case (ii) does not occur. In fact, if $m+n=4^{1-\delta} d$, then $m n+n^{2} \equiv 4^{1-\delta} d n$ $(\bmod 4)$, namely $m n \equiv-1+4^{1-\delta} d n(\bmod 4)$. If $\delta=0$, then $m n \equiv-1 \equiv(-1)^{\delta}(\bmod 4)$, hence $\delta=1$, whichi is a contradiction. If $\delta=1$, then $m n \equiv-1+d n(\bmod 4)$, and $m n \equiv(-1)^{\delta} \equiv-1(\bmod 4)$ hence $d n \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, whichi is a contradiction, because $d n$ is square-free. Therefore we obtained Remark 5 and hence Lemma 3.

Proposition 2. Let $D$ be not a square integer and let $\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2}(v+\sqrt{D})$ be the fundamental unit of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{D})$ with a positive norm. Put $\varepsilon^{n}=\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{n}+u_{n} \sqrt{D}\right)$. Then the sequences $\left\{v_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{u_{n}\right\}$ have the same binary recurrent sequence $X_{n+2}=v X_{n+1}-X_{n}$ with initial conditions $v_{0}=2, v_{1}=v, u_{0}=0, u_{1}=1$. Further we have $u_{n+1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(v u_{n}+v_{n}\right)$.

Proof. $\varepsilon$ is a solution of the equation $x^{2}-v x+1=0$. Then we have $\varepsilon^{n+2}-v \varepsilon^{n+1}+\varepsilon^{n}=0$. So the sequences $\left\{v_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{u_{n}\right\}$ have the same binary recurrent sequence $X_{n+2}=v X_{n+1}-$ $X_{n}$. Since $\varepsilon^{n+1}=\varepsilon^{n} \cdot \varepsilon$, we have $\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{n+1}+u_{n+1} \sqrt{D}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{n}+u_{n} \sqrt{D}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{2}(v+\sqrt{D})$ and hence $u_{n+1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(v u_{n}+v_{n}\right)$.

Lemma 5 ([NP]). Let $a>2$ be a rational integer, $D=a^{2}-4 \geq 5$ with $D$ is not square and $S$ is the set of the square rational integers. Put $\alpha=\frac{1}{2}(a+\sqrt{D}), \alpha^{n}=\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{n}+u_{n} \sqrt{D}\right)$. Then $u_{n} \in c S$ for $n>3$ and $c \in\{1,2,3,6\}$ if and only if $(n, a, c)=(4,338,1)$ or $(6,3,1)$. Here $\alpha$ is a unit of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{D})$ and has the positive norm with respect to $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{D}) / \boldsymbol{Q}$.

Proof of Theorem. Let $K$ be trivial and monogenic. we note that $d=2^{\delta}$, where $\delta$ is 0 or 1 with $m n \equiv(-1)^{\delta}(\bmod 4)$ or $n=1$. Put $x=u v, y=u^{2}+v^{2}, z=u^{2}-v^{2}$ in Lemma 3. First, assume $d=2^{\delta}$ and put $u=1, v=0$, then we have $y=z=1$ and the equations of Lemma 3 are satisfied. Moreover if $d=1$, then $m \equiv n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ by Lemma 3 (1). Next, assume $n=1$ and put $u=v=1$, then we have $y=2, z=0$ and by Remark $5,-4 \cdot 2^{\delta} n=-4$. This holds when $\delta=0$. Then we have $m-1=4 d, d \not \equiv 1$ $(\bmod 4)$ by Lemma 3 . We have obtained (1)(i), (2)(i) and (3) of Theorem.
So we assume $u>v \geq 1$. We show that any other trivial and monogenic biquadratic field does not exist and at the same time, we search all the other power bases. First, we consider the case (1) $d=1, \delta=0$. Since $m=n+4$, we have $m n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$. The case $m=5, n=1$ does not occur because $K$ should be a biquadratic field. Since $m \cdot 1^{2}-n \cdot 1^{2}=4$, by Proposition 1 the fundamental unit $\varepsilon$ of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{m n})$ is equal to $\frac{1}{4}\left(m \cdot 1^{2}+n \cdot 1^{2}+2 \sqrt{m n}\right)$ namely $\frac{1}{2}(m-2+\sqrt{m n})$ with positive norm. Any prime factor of $n$ ramifies in $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{m n})$. If there exist integers $\alpha$ and $\beta$ of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{m n})$ such that $N(\alpha)=n$ and $N(\beta)=-n$, then $(\alpha)^{2}=(\beta)^{2}$ namely $(\alpha)=(\beta)$ as ideals. So $\frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ is a unit of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{m n})$ with the negative norm. This is a contradiction. Since $N\left(\frac{1}{2}(n+\sqrt{m n})\right)=-n$, we obtain $\frac{1}{4}\left\{(y n)^{2}-z^{2} m n\right\}=n \cdot( \pm 1)=-n$. Then there exists a unit $\varepsilon^{k}=\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{k}+u_{k} \sqrt{m n}\right)$ such that $\frac{1}{2}(y n+z \sqrt{m n})=\frac{1}{2}(n+\sqrt{m n}) \cdot \frac{1}{2}\left(v_{k}+u_{k} \sqrt{m n}\right)$ and hence

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
y=\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{k}+u_{k} m\right) \\
z=\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{k}+u_{k} n\right) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Therefore by Proposition 2, we have

$$
(2 u v)^{2}=y^{2}-z^{2}=u_{k}\left\{2 v_{k}+2 u_{k}(m-2)\right\}=4 u_{k} u_{k+1} .
$$

We may assume $k \geq 0$ because $u_{-k}=-u_{k}$. Since $\left(u_{k}, u_{k+1}\right)=1$, $u_{k}$ and $u_{k+1}$ are square numbers. But by Lemma 5 , if $k>3$, then at most one of $u_{k}$ or $u_{k+1}$ is a square number. This is a contradiction. Two sequences $\left\{v_{k}\right\}$ and $\left\{u_{k}\right\}$ are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{v_{k}\right\}=\left\{2, m-2,(m-2)^{2}-2,(m-2)^{3}-3(m-2), \cdots\right\} \\
& \left\{u_{k}\right\}=\left\{0,1,(m-2),(m-2)^{2}-1, \cdots\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $u_{3}=(m-2)^{2}-1$ is not square. We can obtain $k=1$ or $k=0$ because $4 u_{k} u_{k+1}$ is square. If $k=1$, then $m-2=f^{2}$ i.e. $m=f^{2}+2$ and $n=f^{2}-2$, where $f>1$ is odd and $u^{2}+v^{2}=y=m-1, u^{2}-v^{2}=z=m-3, u=f, v=1$. This is the case (1) (ii). If $k=0$, then $y=1, z=1, u=1, v=0$. This case is excluded because we assume $v \geq 1$.

Next, we consider the case (2) $d=2, \delta=1$. Since $m-n=2$, by Proposition 1 the fundamental unit $\varepsilon$ of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{m n})$ is equal to $\frac{1}{2}(m+n+2 \sqrt{m n})$ namely $m-$ $1+\sqrt{m n}$ with positive norm. By the assumption, we obtain $N(n+\sqrt{m n})=-2 n$. So on the signature of the right hand side, by the same reason as in the case (1), we obtain $(y n)^{2}-z^{2} m n=-2 n$. Then there exists a unit $\varepsilon^{k}=\frac{v_{k}+u_{k} \sqrt{4 m n}}{2}$ such that $y n+z \sqrt{m n}=(n+\sqrt{m n}) \frac{v_{k}+u_{k} \sqrt{4 m n}}{2}$ and hence

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
y=\frac{v_{k}}{2}+u_{k} m \\
z=\frac{v_{k}}{2}+u_{k} n
\end{array}\right.
$$

Therfore by Proposition 2, we have

$$
(2 u v)^{2}=y^{2}-z^{2}=4 u_{k}\left(\frac{v_{k}}{2}+u_{k}(m-1)\right)=4 u_{k} u_{k+1} .
$$

By the same way as in the case (1), we may assume $k \geq 0$. Since $\left(u_{k}, u_{k+1}\right)=1$, $u_{k}$ and $u_{k+1}$ are square numbers. But by the same reason as in the case $(1), k>3$ is impossible.

Two sequences $\left\{v_{k}\right\}$ and $\left\{u_{k}\right\}$ are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{v_{k}\right\}=\left\{2,2(m-1), 4(m-1)^{2}-2,8(m-1)^{3}-5(m-1), \cdots\right\} \\
& \left\{u_{k}\right\}=\left\{0,1,2(m-1), 4(m-1)^{2}-1, \cdots\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $u_{3}=4(m-1)^{2}-1$ is not square, we obtain $k=1$ or $k=0$ because $4 u_{k} u_{k+1}$ is square. If $k=1$, then $2(m-1)=(2 f)^{2}$, i.e. $m=2 f^{2}+1, n=2 f^{2}-1$ and $u^{2}+v^{2}=y=2 m-1, u^{2}-v^{2}=z=2 m-3, u=2 f, v=1$. This is the case (2) (ii). If $k=0$, then $u=1, v=0$. This case is excluded because we assume $v \geq 1$.

Finally, we consider the case (3) $n=1$. We may show the following two cases;
$(*)_{1}$ if $n=1, \delta=0$, then $u=v=1$.
$(*)_{2}$ if $n=1, \delta=1$, then $m=3, d=2$. This case is contained in (2) (ii).
Now we consider the case $(*)_{1} \quad n=1, \delta=0$. Then $m-4 d=1$. By Proposition 1 the fundamental unit of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d m})$ is equal to $m+4 d+4 \sqrt{d m}$ namely $2 m-1+$ $\sqrt{16 d m}$ with positive norm. From $y^{2}-z^{2} m= \pm 4$ and $m-1=4 d$, we obtain $x^{2} m-y^{2} d= \pm 1$ and hence $(y d)^{2}-d m x^{2}=\mp d$. Since $N(2 d+\sqrt{d m})=-d$, we obtain $(y d)^{2}-d m x^{2}=-d$. Then there exists a unit $\varepsilon^{k}=\frac{v_{k}+u_{k} \sqrt{64 d m}}{2}$ such that $y d+x \sqrt{d m}=(2 d+\sqrt{d m}) \frac{v_{k} \pm u_{k} \sqrt{64 d m}}{2}$ and hence

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
y=v_{k}+4 m u_{k} \\
x=\frac{v_{k}}{2}+8 d u_{k}
\end{array}\right.
$$

So by proposition 2 we have

$$
z^{2}=y^{2}-4 x^{2}=16 u_{k}\left\{\frac{v_{k}}{2}+(m+4 d) u_{k}\right\}=16 u_{k} u_{k+1} .
$$

Since $\left(u_{k}, u_{k+1}\right)=1, \quad u_{k}$ and $u_{k+1}$ are square numbers. However by Lemma $5, k>3$ is imposible. Two sequences $\left\{v_{k}\right\}$ and $\left\{u_{k}\right\}$ are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{v_{k}\right\}=\left\{2,2(2 m-1), 4(2 m-1)^{2}-2,8(2 m-1)^{3}-6(2 m-1), \cdots\right\} \\
& \left\{u_{k}\right\}=\left\{0,1,2(2 m-1), 4(2 m-1)^{2}-1, \cdots\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

$u_{2}=2(2 m-1)$ and $u_{3}=4(2 m-1)^{2}-1$ are not square numbers. So we have $k=0$ and hence $z=0, u=v=1$. Therefore in the case $n=1, \delta=0$, we obtain $u=v=1$.

Now we consider the case $(*)_{2} n=1, \delta=1$. In this case, we have $m \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. By Remark 3 (2), $y^{2}-z^{2} m=\mp 2$ and hence $m(2 x)^{2}-d y^{2}=\mp 2$. Especially, we see that $2 \mid d$. Then $2 m x^{2}-\frac{d}{2} y^{2}=\mp 1$. We may assume $\frac{d}{2} \neq 1$, because in the case $\frac{d}{2}=1$, we have already considered in the case (2) and have obtained $u=2, v=1, m=3, d=2$.

Then since the above equation satisfies the conditoin of Proposition 1, we can obtain the fundamental unit $\varepsilon=2 m x_{0}^{2}+\frac{d}{2} y_{0}^{2}+2 x_{0} y_{0} \sqrt{d m}$ of the quadratic field $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d m})$ with the minimal solution $\left\{x_{0}, y_{0}\right\}$ of the equation $2 m x^{2}-\frac{d}{2} y^{2}=\mp 1$. On the other hand, since the fundamental unit of $\boldsymbol{Q}(\sqrt{d m})$ is given by $\varepsilon=2 m-1+2 \sqrt{d m}$, we have $2 m x_{0}^{2}+\frac{d}{2} y_{0}^{2}=2 m-1$. But this does not occur because $2 m x_{0}^{2}+\frac{d}{2} y_{0}^{2}>2 m-1$. Thus in the case $n=1, \delta=1$, we obtain $m=3, d=2$.

Therefore we have proved theorem completely.

Corollary. We solved completely the following equations with $u, v$ variables and $m$ parameter, and all the solutions are given the followings;
(1) $\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{2}-u^{2} v^{2} m=1, m \equiv-1(\bmod 4)$ and $m, m-4$ are squarefree, then $\{u, v\}=\{1,0\}$, and $\{f, 1\}$ with $f>1$ is odd if $m=f^{2}+2$.
(2) $\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{2}-2 u^{2} v^{2} m=1$, and $m, m-2$ are squarefree, then $\{u, v\}=\{1,0\}$, and $\{2 f, 1\}$ if $m=2 f^{2}+1$.
(3) $\left(u^{2}-v^{2}\right)^{2} m-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{2}=-4, \quad m \not \equiv 5(\bmod 16)$ and $m, \frac{m-1}{4}$ are square-free, then $\{u, v\}=\{1,1\}$.

Remark 10. We partially prove Corollary by solving above equations directly.
First we consider the case (1) and try to find solutions with $u>v \geq 1$. We have $u^{4}-$ $(m-2) v^{2} u^{2}+v^{4}-1=0$ and hence $u^{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left((m-2) v^{2} \pm \sqrt{m(m-4) v^{4}+1}\right)$. Then we can put $t^{2}=m(m-4) v^{4}+1$. So we have $t^{2}-m(m-4) v^{4}=1$. By duality of the equation (1) with respect to $u$ and $v$, we can obtain the equation $s^{2}-m(m-4) u^{4}=1$. Then we can apply Lemma 5 to these relations. By similar argument of the proof of Theorem (1), we can obtain $u^{2}=u_{2}=m-2=f^{2}$ and $v^{2}=u_{1}=1$ and hence $u=f, v=1$.

Next we consider the case (2) and try to find solutions with $u>v \geq 1$. We have $u^{4}-$ $2(m-1) v^{2} u^{2}+v^{4}-1=0$ and hence $u^{2}=(m-1) v^{2} \pm \sqrt{m(m-2) v^{4}+1}$. Then we can put $t^{2}=m(m-2) v^{4}+1$. So we have $t^{2}-m(m-2) v^{4}=1$. Similarly we can obtain $s^{2}-m(m-2) u^{4}=1$. By the same argument as above we can obtain $u^{2}=u_{2}=2(m-1)=$
$(2 f)^{2}$ and $v^{2}=u_{1}=1$ and hence $u=2 f, v=1$.

Remark 11. Three fundamental units in the proof of theorem and two of them in Remark 10 are of all Richaud-Degart type[D, H]. These units are obtained from the equations of Proposition 1.

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Yasou Motoda
Yatsushiro National College of Technology
2627 hirayama shinmachi
Kumamoto 866-8501
Japan

E-mail: motoda@as.yatsushiro-nct.ac.jp


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