

## ON QUARTIC DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS WITH TRIVIAL SOLUTIONS IN THE GAUSSIAN INTEGERS

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**ABSTRACT.** We show that the quartic Diophantine equations  $ax^4 + by^4 = cz^2$  has only trivial solution in the Gaussian integers for some particular choices of  $a, b$  and  $c$ . Our strategy is by elliptic curves method. In fact, we exhibit two null-rank corresponding families of elliptic curves over Gaussian field. We also determine the torsion groups of both families.

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### 1. Introduction

The integer solutions of the Diophantine equation

$$ax^4 + by^4 = cz^2 \quad (1)$$

can be mostly found in classical book on Diophantine equations. Our interest is the solutions in the Gaussian integers  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ . By a trivial solution of (1) we mean  $x = y = z = 0$  or,  $a = b = c$  and, in addition, one of the  $x, y$  is zero and the square of the other equals  $z$ .

The Diophantine equation  $x^4 + y^4 = z^2$  was studied by Fermat who proved by infinite-descent method that there exist no nontrivial solution in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Hilbert [3] extended this result by showing that the equation  $x^4 + y^4 = z^2$  has only trivial solution in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ . From his proof, it follows that the equation  $x^4 - y^4 = z^2$  has also trivial solution in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

Other authors also examined similar problems. Najman [5] found all nontrivial solutions of the equations  $x^4 \pm y^4 = iz^2$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ . He also gave a new proof of Hilbert's results. Szabó [9] solved the eight equations  $x^4 + my^4 = z^2$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , where  $m = \pm 2^n$ , and  $0 \leq n \leq 3$ . He also considered the equations of the form (1) with only trivial solution in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  and proved that the equations  $x^4 - py^4 = z^2$  and  $x^4 - p^3y^4 = z^2$  have only trivial solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , where  $p$  is a prime  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ . However, the

equations  $x^4 + py^4 = z^2$  and  $x^4 + p^3y^4 = z^2$  have integer solutions  $(1, 1, 2)$  and  $(2, 1, 5)$ , respectively, when, say,  $p = 3$ .

Izadi et al. [4] studied two family of Diophantine equations of type (1) over the Gaussian integers. More precisely, they considered the families of equations  $y^4 \pm p^3x^4 = z^2$  with  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$  or  $\pmod{16}$  and  $y^4 \pm px^4 = z^2$  with  $p \equiv 7$  or  $11 \pmod{16}$  over the Gaussian integers and showed by elliptic curves method that in either cases there are only trivial solutions.

By a prime we shall mean a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$ ; we shall refer to primes in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  as Gaussian primes. Let  $p, q$  be primes  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ ,  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ , and the Legendre symbol  $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \neq 1$ . In this article, we find out another equation of type (1) with only trivial solution in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , where  $a = 1$ ,  $b = \pm qp^2$  with  $p, q$  as above, and  $c$  is a power of  $i, 1 + i$ , or  $2$ . The approach is also by elliptic curves method.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $p, q$  be primes  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ ,  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ , and  $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \neq 1$ . The Diophantine equations  $x^4 \pm qp^2y^4 = \pm z^2$  and  $x^4 \pm qp^2y^4 = \pm iz^2$  have only trivial solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .*

The element  $\omega = 1 + i$  is a Gaussian prime satisfying  $\omega^4 = -4$ . Each of the Diophantine equations

$$x^4 + 4qp^2y^4 = z^2, \quad x^4 - 4qp^2y^4 = z^2, \quad -4x^4 + 4qp^2y^4 = z^2 \tag{2}$$

may be transformed to one of the equations

$$x^4 - qp^2y^4 = z^2, \quad x^4 + qp^2y^4 = z^2.$$

It suffices to substitute  $y$  by  $\omega y$  in the first two, and an extra substitution  $\omega x$  for  $x$  in the third. Therefore, the equations (2) also have only trivial solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ . The following corollary gives even more equations of type (1) with trivial solutions.

**Corollary 1.2.** *Let  $p, q$  be primes with  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ ,  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ , and  $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \neq 1$ . The Diophantine equations  $x^4 \pm qp^2y^4 = \pm 2^n z^2$  and  $x^4 \pm qp^2y^4 = \pm i2^n z^2$  have only trivial solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .*

As seen, the coefficient of  $z^2$  in each of the equations in Theorem 1.1 or Corollary 1.2 is a power of  $i, 1 + i$ , or  $2$ .

**Remark 1.3.** Since any solution in  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$  gives a solution in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , through this work we shall consider all solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

Elliptic curves are used to sketch the proof of Theorem 1.1. Elliptic curves over the Gaussian field  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$  are not so known. We are interested the elliptic curves of

type  $Y^2 = X^3 + dX$  over  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$ . For the same family over  $\mathbb{Q}$  we cite the comprehensive reference [7].

The so-called Selmer-Mordell conjecture says that the rank of elliptic curves  $Y^2 = X^3 + pX$ , with  $p$  prime, over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is exactly 1. Working over  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$ , Bremner and Cassels [1] showed that this conjecture is true for the primes  $p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$  less than 1000. Other authors enlarged the upper bound but worked entirely over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

Consider the two families of elliptic curves

$$E : Y^2 = X^3 \pm qp^2X, \quad (3)$$

where  $p, q$  are as in Theorem 1.1. We show that the Mordell-Weil rank of both families (3) over the Gaussian field  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$  is zero.

**Theorem 1.4.** *For the primes  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$  and  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$  with  $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \neq 1$ , the ranks of the two families of elliptic curves*

$$Y^2 = X^3 \pm qp^2X$$

over  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$  are zero.

We also determine the torsion groups of the families (3).

**Theorem 1.5.** *For the primes  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$  and  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$  with  $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \neq 1$ , the torsion groups of the two families of elliptic curves*

$$Y^2 = X^3 \pm qp^2X$$

over  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$  are isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ .

## 2. Preliminaries

Let  $E$  be an elliptic curve over the field  $\mathbb{K}$  of characteristic not equals 2 or 3, and let  $E(\mathbb{K})$  denote the  $\mathbb{K}$ -rational points of  $E$  over  $\mathbb{K}$ . The so-called Mordell-Weil theorem asserts that  $E(\mathbb{K})$  is a finitely generated abelian group and hence can be represented as

$$E(\mathbb{K}) = E(\mathbb{K})_{\text{tors}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}^r, \quad r \geq 0,$$

where  $E(\mathbb{K})_{\text{tors}}$  denotes the torsion group of  $E(\mathbb{K})$  and  $r$  is called the (algebraic) rank of  $E$  over  $\mathbb{K}$ . If  $\mathbb{K}$  is quadratic field, there are 26 possible torsion groups, while in the case of the Gaussian quadratic field  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Q}(i)$ , there are exactly 16 possible torsion groups, namely, the 15 groups from Mazur's theorem and the group  $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$  (see also [6]). To determine the torsion subgroup of  $E(\mathbb{K})$  of our families (3) over  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Q}(i)$ , we need the extended Lutz-Nagell theorem [7].

**Theorem 2.1** (Extended Lutz-Nagell theorem). *Consider the elliptic curve  $Y^2 = X^3 + aX + b$  with  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$  and let  $(X, Y) \in E(\mathbb{Q}(i))$  be a torsion point. Then,*

- (1)  $X, Y \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ ;
- (2) either  $Y = 0$  or  $Y^2 \mid 4a^3 + 27b^2$ .

The plan of proving Theorems 1.4 and 1.5 is hanging on the 2-descent method for determining the rank of  $E(\mathbb{Q})$ . We describe briefly this method. For more details see [2,8]. Suppose that  $E : Y^2 = X^3 + AX^2 + BX$  is an elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\widehat{E} : Y^2 = X^3 - 2AX^2 + (A^2 - 4B)X$  is the curve isogenous to  $E$ . Let  $\mathbb{Q}^*$  be the multiplicative group of nonzero rational numbers, and  $\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$  denote the subgroup of squares of elements of  $\mathbb{Q}^*$ . Then,  $\mathbb{Q}^*/\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$  is the multiplicative group of rational numbers modulo squares. The process of determining the rank of  $E$  requires that we look at both curves  $E$  and  $\widehat{E}$ . Define the 2-descent homomorphism  $\alpha : E(\mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^*/\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$  by

$$\alpha(P) = \begin{cases} 1 \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}, & \text{if } P = \mathcal{O}, \text{ the point at infinity,} \\ B \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}, & \text{if } P = (0, 0), \\ X \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}, & \text{if } P = (X, Y) \text{ with } X \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

The 2-descent homomorphism  $\widehat{\alpha} : \widehat{E}(\mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^*/\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$  is similarly defined.

$$\widehat{\alpha}(\widehat{P}) = \begin{cases} 1 \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}, & \text{if } \widehat{P} = \mathcal{O}, \text{ the point at infinity,} \\ \widehat{B} \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}, & \text{if } \widehat{P} = (0, 0), \\ X \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}, & \text{if } \widehat{P} = (X, Y) \text{ with } X \neq 0, \end{cases}$$

where  $\widehat{B} = A^2 - 4B$ .

**Proposition 2.2.** *With the above notations, let  $r$  denote the rank of  $E(\mathbb{Q})$ . Then,*

$$|\alpha(E(\mathbb{Q}))| |\widehat{\alpha}(\widehat{E}(\mathbb{Q}))| = 2^{r+2}.$$

A practical method to compute  $|\alpha(E(\mathbb{Q}))|$  is followed by looking at the factorization of  $B$ . We make this more precisely in the following theorem [2].

**Theorem 2.3.** *The group  $\alpha(E(\mathbb{Q}))$  is equal to the classes modulo squares of 1,  $B$ , and the positive and negative divisors  $B_1$  of  $B$  such that the quartic equation*

$$V^2 = B_1U^4 + AU^2W^2 + (B/B_1)W^4 \tag{4}$$

*has a solution  $(U, V, W)$  with  $U, V$  and  $W$  pairwise coprime such that  $UW \neq 0$  and*

$$\gcd(B/B_1, U) = \gcd(B_1, W) = 1,$$

*and the point  $P = (\frac{B_1U^2}{W^2}, \frac{B_1UV}{W^3})$  is in  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  such that  $\alpha(P) = B_1$ .*

In general, Theorem 2.3 gives us a method for determining the rank of  $E(\mathbb{Q})$ , provided that we are able to determine whether or not each of the curves generated by the divisors of  $B$  and  $\widehat{B}$  in the definitions of  $\alpha$  and  $\widehat{\alpha}$  have solutions. It is also important to note that calculating the rank of an elliptic curve using the 2-descent method can be rather time consuming, depending on how many square-free divisors of  $B$  and  $\widehat{B}$  there are.

The group of elliptic curves  $E(\mathbb{K})$  over the quadratic fields  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{m})$ , with square-free integer  $m$  has interesting properties. The next result [7] shows that the rank of  $E$  over  $\mathbb{K}$  is the sum of the ranks of  $E$  and its  $m$ -twist  $E_m$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Theorem 2.4.** *Let  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{m})$  be a quadratic field, where  $m$  is a square-free integer. Let  $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax^2 + bx$  be an elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $E_m : y^2 = x^3 + max^2 + m^2bx$  be the  $m$ -twist of  $E$ . Then*

$$\text{rank}(E(\mathbb{K})) = \text{rank}(E(\mathbb{Q})) + \text{rank}(E_m(\mathbb{Q})).$$

### 3. Proofs

**Proof of Theorem 1.4.** We prove the result for the family  $E : Y^2 = X^3 + qp^2X$ . The proof for the other family uses similar techniques. Appealing to Proposition 2.2 we need to prove

$$|\alpha(E(\mathbb{Q}))| |\widehat{\alpha}(\widehat{E}(\mathbb{Q}))| = 4.$$

In other words, by the definitions of the 2-descent homomorphisms  $\alpha$  and  $\widehat{\alpha}$ , we should prove

$$|\alpha(E(\mathbb{Q}))| = 2 = |\widehat{\alpha}(\widehat{E}(\mathbb{Q}))|.$$

We do this in two steps. Note that all calculations and equations are modulo squares.

**Step 1.** We show  $|\alpha(E(\mathbb{Q}))| = 2$ . In this part, the quartic equation (4) in Theorem 2.3 is

$$V^2 = B_1U^4 + \frac{qp^2}{B_1}W^4, \quad (5)$$

Therefore, modulo squares,

$$B_1 \in \{\pm 1, \pm p, \pm q, \pm qp\}.$$

By the definition of  $\alpha$ , 1 and  $q$  are in the image of  $\alpha$ . We show that none of the  $B_1$ , except to 1 and  $q$ , is in  $\text{Im}(\alpha)$ . If  $B_1 = -1$ , the equation (5) turns to  $V^2 = -U^4 - qp^2W^4$ , which is impossible. The case  $B_1 = -p$  has the same discussion.

For  $B_1 = p$ , we get  $(V/U^2)^2 \equiv p \pmod{q}$ . By the property of the Legendre symbol we get  $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = 1$ , contradicts the hypothesis.

Now, let  $B_1 = -q$ . If  $-q \in \text{Im}(\alpha)$  then,  $q \cdot (-q) = -1 \in \text{Im}(\alpha)$ , which is failed in the case  $B_1 = -1$ . The cases  $B_1 = \pm qp$  have similar reason with different failures.

**Step 2.** We prove  $|\widehat{\alpha}(\widehat{E}(\mathbb{Q}))| = 2$ . Here, the quartic equation (4) in Theorem 2.3 is

$$\widehat{V}^2 = \widehat{B}_1 \widehat{U}^4 - \frac{4qp^2}{\widehat{B}_1} \widehat{W}^4,$$

Therefore, modulo squares,

$$\widehat{B}_1 \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm p, \pm 2p, \pm q, \pm 2q, \pm qp, \pm 2qp\}.$$

By the definition of  $\widehat{\alpha}$ , two elements 1 and  $-q$  are in the image of  $\alpha$ . We show that the other elements of  $\widehat{B}_1$  are not in  $\text{Im}(\widehat{\alpha})$ . We distinguish some cases and try to get contradiction in each case.

**3.0.1.**  $\widehat{B}_1 = -1$ ;  $\widehat{V}^2 = -\widehat{U}^4 + 4qp^2\widehat{W}^4$ . Then,  $(\widehat{V}/\widehat{U}^2)^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . By the property of the Legendre symbol, we get  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1$ , which implies  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , contradicts the hypothesis.

**3.0.2.**  $\widehat{B}_1 = 2$ ;  $\widehat{V}^2 = 2\widehat{U}^4 - 2qp^2\widehat{W}^4$ . Hence,  $(\widehat{V}/\widehat{U}^2)^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{p}$ . It follows that  $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = 1$ , showing that  $p \equiv 1$  or  $7 \pmod{8}$ , contradicts again the hypothesis.

**3.0.3.**  $\widehat{B}_1 = p$ ;  $\widehat{V}^2 = p\widehat{U}^4 - 4qp\widehat{W}^4$ . Here, we have  $(\widehat{V}/\widehat{U}^2)^2 \equiv p \pmod{q}$ , which gives  $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = 1$ , a contradiction.

**3.0.4.**  $\widehat{B}_1 = -p$ ;  $\widehat{V}^2 = -p\widehat{U}^4 + 4qp\widehat{W}^4$ . Now,  $(\widehat{V}/\widehat{U}^2)^2 \equiv -p \pmod{q}$  from which,  $\left(\frac{-p}{q}\right) = 1$ . This implies  $\left(\frac{-1}{q}\right) = -1$  from which we get  $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , which is impossible.

**3.0.5.**  $\widehat{B}_1 = 2p$ ;  $\widehat{V}^2 = 2p\widehat{U}^4 - 2qp\widehat{W}^4$ . We obtain  $(\widehat{V}/\widehat{U}^2)^2 \equiv 2p \pmod{q}$  and hence  $\left(\frac{2p}{q}\right) = 1$ . Thus,  $\left(\frac{2}{q}\right) = -1$  which shows  $q \equiv 3$  or  $5 \pmod{8}$ , again impossible. The cases  $\widehat{B}_1 = 2q, 2qp$  have similar reason.

**3.0.6.**  $\widehat{B}_1 = q$ . If  $q \in \text{Im}(\widehat{\alpha})$  then,  $q \cdot (-q) = -q^2 = -1 \in \text{Im}(\widehat{\alpha})$  which is failed in the case  $\widehat{B}_1 = -1$ . The cases  $\widehat{B}_1 = -2, -2q, -2p, \pm qp, -2qp$  are similarly failed with different failures.

We showed  $\text{rank}(E(\mathbb{Q})) = 0$ . An apply of Theorem 2.4 completes the proof of Theorem 1.4 since  $m = -1$  and the  $m$ -twist of  $E$  is itself.  $\square$

**Proof of Theorem 1.5.** Let  $(X, Y)$  be a torsion point. Then, by Theorem 2.1,  $X, Y \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$  and, in addition, either  $Y = 0$  or  $Y^2 \mid 4q^3p^6$ . The relation  $Y = 0$  gives

the 2-torsion point  $(0, 0)$ . We claim that there is no other torsion point, that is,  $Y^2$  never divides  $4q^3p^6$ . Let by the contrary that  $Y^2 \mid 4q^3p^6$ . Then,  $Y^2 = \ell q^s p^t$ , where

$$\ell \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2i, \pm 4\}, \quad s \in \{0, 2\}, \quad t \in \{0, 2, 4, 6\}. \quad (6)$$

Regardless the sign of  $\ell$ , we try to get contradiction in all 24 cases. The opposite sign of  $\ell$  has similar discussion. We take  $\omega = (1 + i)$ .

The case  $Y^2 = 1 = (-i)^2 = X^3 + qp^2X$  is clearly impossible. Let  $Y^2 = 2i = \omega^2 = X^3 + qp^2X$ . The only Gaussian prime factor of  $X$  is  $\omega$ . Then, we have  $\omega^2 = \omega^{3k} + qp^2\omega^k$  with  $k \geq 1$ , showing that  $\cos(\frac{k\pi}{2}) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{qp^2}{2^{k+1}}$ , which is false. The case  $Y^2 = 4 = \omega^4$  has similar discussion.

Now, let  $Y^2 = q^2 = X^3 + qp^2X$ . Then,  $q \mid X$ . Let  $k$  be the largest power of  $q$  in  $X$ . Then,  $q^2 = q^{3k}X_0^3 + q^{k+1}p^2X_0$ ,  $k \geq 1$ , where  $q \nmid X_0$ . By canceling  $q^2$  we get an impossible equation.

For  $Y^2 = 2q^2i = \omega^2q^2 = X^3 + qp^2X$  we have again  $q \mid X$ . Assume that  $\omega^2q^2 = q^{3k}X_0^3 + q^{k+1}p^2X_0$ ,  $k \geq 1$ , where  $q \nmid X_0$ . Here again  $k$  is taken the largest power of  $q$  in  $X$ . Then, by canceling the  $q^2$ , we get  $\omega^2 = q^{3k-2}X_0^3 + q^{k-1}p^2X_0$ . The only Gaussian prime factor of  $X_0$  is  $\omega$ . Now, we get an equation in which the powers of  $\omega$  in both sides do not match. The case  $Y^2 = 4q^2 = \omega^4q^2$  has similar discussion.

Finally, let  $Y^2 = \ell q^s p^t = X^3 + qp^2X$  where, as in (6),  $\ell \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2i, \pm 4\}$ ,  $s = 0, 2$ , and  $t = 2, 4, 6$ . Then,  $p \mid X$ . Assume  $\ell q^s p^t = p^{3k}X_0^3 + qp^{k+2}X_0$ , with  $k \geq 1$  the largest power of  $q$  in  $X$ , where  $p \nmid X_0$ . By canceling the  $p^{k'}$  with  $k' = \min\{k+2, t\}$ , we obtain an impossible equation for any  $\ell$  and any  $s$ .  $\square$

We are now ready to prove the main Theorem 1.1.

**Proof of Theorem 1.1.** We prove the result for the equations

$$x^4 \pm qp^2y^4 = z^2, \quad (7)$$

$$x^4 \pm qp^2y^4 = iz^2, \quad (8)$$

with positive signs in the right hand sides. The negative cases have similar proofs. Assume that  $(x, y, z)$  is a nontrivial solution of the equation (7). Dividing both sides by  $y^4$  and putting  $x/y = u$  and  $z/y^2 = v$  we get  $u^4 \pm qp^2 = v^2$ . Taking  $X = u^2$ , we have two equations

$$X = u^2, \quad X^2 \pm qp^2 = v^2.$$

Now, multiplying these two equations and putting  $Y = uv$  we obtain a torsion point  $\neq (0, 0)$  on the elliptic curves  $Y^2 = X^3 \pm qp^2X$  which is impossible by Theorem 1.5.

Now, we work on the equation (8). Here again divide both sides by  $y^4$  and put  $x/y = u$  and  $z/y^2 = v$  to get  $u^4 \pm qp^2 = iv^2$ . This time taking  $-iX = u^2$ , we obtain two equations

$$-iX = u^2, \quad -X^2 \pm qp^2 = iv^2.$$

By the similar manner as in the previous case, the existence of a torsion point  $\neq (0, 0)$  on the elliptic curves  $Y^2 = X^3 \pm qp^2X$  leads to a contradiction and this completes the proof.  $\square$

**Proof of Corollary 1.2.** In the equation  $x^4 \pm qp^2y^4 = \pm 2^n z^2$  taking  $n = 2k$  and  $n = 2k + 1$  we get, respectively, the equations

$$x^4 - qp^2y^4 = \pm(2^k z)^2, \quad x^4 - qp^2y^4 = \pm i(\omega 2^k z)^2,$$

which is in the form of equations of Theorem 1.1.

In a similar way, in the equation  $x^4 \pm qp^2y^4 = \pm i 2^n z^2$  taking  $n = 2k$  and  $n = 2k + 1$  we get, respectively, the equations

$$x^4 - qp^2y^4 = \pm i(2^k z)^2, \quad x^4 - qp^2y^4 = \pm(\omega 2^k z)^2,$$

which is again in the form of equations of Theorem 1.1.  $\square$

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