# Computing relative power integral bases in a family of quartic extensions of imaginary quadratic fields 

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#### Abstract

Let $M=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ be an imaginary quadratic field with ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and let $\xi$ be a root of the polynomial $f(x)=x^{4}-2 c x^{3}+2 x^{2}+2 c x+1$, where $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M} \backslash\{0, \pm 2\}$ and $c \neq \pm 1$ if $D=1$ or 3 . We consider an infinite family of octic fields $K_{c}=M(\xi)$ with the ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}_{K_{c}}$. Our goal is to determine all generators of relative power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$. We show that our problem reduces to solving the system of relative Pellian equations $c V^{2}-(c+2) U^{2}=-2 \mu$, $c Z^{2}-(c-2) U^{2}=2 \mu$, where $\mu$ is an unit in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$. We solve the system completely and find that all non-equivalent generators of power integral bases of $\mathcal{O}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ are given by $\alpha=\xi, 2 \xi-2 c \xi^{2}+\xi^{3}$ for $|c| \geq 159108$ and $|c| \leq 1000, c \notin S_{c}$ (where $S_{c}$ is a set of exceptional cases, $\left|S_{c}\right|=28$ ). Also, we find that, in all above cases, $\mathcal{O}$ admits no absolute power integral basis if $-D \equiv 2,3(\bmod 4)$.


## 1. Introduction

Let $K$ be an algebraic number field of degree $n, \mathbb{Z}_{K}$ its ring of integers and $\left\{1, \omega_{2}, \ldots, \omega_{n}\right\}$ an integral basis of $K$. It is a classical problem in algebraic number theory to decide if there exists an element $\alpha=x_{1}+x_{2} \omega_{2}+\cdots+x_{n} \omega_{n} \in \mathbb{Z}_{K}$ such that powers of $\alpha$ constitute a power integral basis, ie. an integral basis of the form $\left\{1, \alpha, \alpha^{2}, \ldots, \alpha^{n-1}\right\}$. It has been shown that if such an $\alpha$ exists, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
I\left(x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)= \pm 1 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^0]where $I\left(X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ is a homogenous polynomial of degree $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ with rational integer coefficients called index form. Hence, solving (1) in rational integers yields all generators of the power integral basis and the diophantine equation (1) is called index form equation.

The index form equations are mostly very complicated diophantine equations. In some particular types of fields, by studying the structure of index form, it a correspondence between the index form equation and simpler types of equations has been found (for a survey see [4]). In [6, 7], I. Gaál, A. Pethő and M. Pohst showed that a resolution of index form equations in any quartic field can be reduced to the resolution of cubic and several corresponding Thue equations. In [5], I. Gaál, and M. Pohst extended some basic ideas and developed a method of determining generators of a power integral basis to relative quartic extension fields $K$ over base fields $M$.

Algorithms for solving index form equations have been applied to several infinite parametric families of certain fields. In particular, I. Gaál and T. Szabó in [8] applied the method described in [5] to three infinite parametric families of octic fields that are quartic extensions of imaginary quadratic fields. By using results on infinite parametric families of relative Thue equations given in [11] and [10], they found all non-equivalent generators of relative power integral basis for infinite values of parameter.

In this paper, we consider an infinite family of octic fields $K_{c}=M(\xi)$ with ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}_{K_{c}}$, where $M$ is an imaginary quadratic field with the ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and $\xi$ is a root of polynomial

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(t)=t^{4}-2 c t^{3}+2 t^{2}+2 c t+1 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M} \backslash\{0, \pm 2\}$ and $c \neq \pm 1$ if $D=1$ or 3 . Since integral basis of $K_{c}$ is not known in a parametric form, our goal is to determine all generators of relative power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ (instead of $\mathbb{Z}_{K_{c}}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ ). The elements of $\mathcal{O}$ that differ by an unit factor or translation by an element of $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ have the same relative indices, and are called equivalent. Therefore, it is enough to find all non-equivalent generators of relative power integral basis, and it has been shown that there are only finitely many such generators.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we briefly describe the method of I. Gaál, and M. Pohst given in [5]. In Section 3 we apply that method to the problem described above. We show that our problem reduces to solving a system of relative Pellian equations over $M$ and apply some results given in [10]. In Section 4, by combining the congruence method with an extension of Bennett's theorem given in [10], we solve the system completely and find all nonequivalent generators of power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ if the absolute value
of the parameter $c$ is large enough $(|c| \geq 159108)$. In Section 5 we assume that $|c|<159108$ and apply a theorem of Baker and Wüstholz and a version of the reduction procedure due to Baker and Davenport. Without proving that the corresponding linear form $\Lambda \neq 0$, we cannot apply Baker's theory. The proof of it given in 5.1 is long and rather complicated. We were not able to perform reduction procedure for all values of $|c|<159108$ because we estimated that it would last more than $10^{10}$ sec. (in Mathematica on a simple PC). So, we have performed reduction procedure for $|c| \leq 1000$. Section 6 is devoted to the exceptional cases $c \in S_{c}$. In the last section we examine whether the order $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ admits an absolute power integral basis. Our main result is the following theorem.

Theorem 1. Assume that $D$ is a square free positive integer, $M=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ is an imaginary quadratic field with ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and $\xi$ is a root of the polynomial (2), where $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M} \backslash\{0, \pm 2\}$ and $c \neq \pm 1$ if $D=1$ or 3 . Then $K_{c}=M(\xi)$ is an octic field and all non-equivalent generators of power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\xi, \quad 2 \xi-2 c \xi^{2}+\xi^{3} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

in each of the following cases:
i) for all $D$ and $|c| \geq 159108$,
ii) for all $D, c \notin S_{c}$ and $|c| \leq 1000$ or $\operatorname{Re}(c)=0$, where
$S_{c}=\left\{ \pm 1, \pm \sqrt{-1}, \pm 1 \pm \sqrt{-1}, \pm 2 \pm \sqrt{-1}, \pm 1 \pm \sqrt{-2}, \pm 1 \pm \sqrt{-3}, \frac{ \pm 1 \pm \sqrt{-3}}{2}, \frac{ \pm 3 \pm \sqrt{-3}}{2}\right\}$,
with mixed signs.
Proof of Theorem 1. Immediate from Corollary 5, propositions 15, 21 and Corollary 20.

The current work supports the following conjecture.
Conjecture 2. All non-equivalent generators of power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ are given by (3) for all $D$ and $c \notin S_{c} \cup\{0, \pm 2\}$.

Also, we prove the following theorem.
Theorem 3. If $D \equiv 2,3(\bmod 4)$, then $\mathcal{O}$ admits no absolute power integral basis. In particular, in the cases given in Theorem 1, $\mathcal{O}$ admits no absolute power integral basis.

## 2. Preliminaries

Since we are going to apply the method of I. Gaál and M. Pohst given in [5], we begin with a brief description of it. Let $M$ be a field of degree $m$ and $K=M(\xi)$ its quartic extension generated by an algebraic integer $\xi$ with relative minimal polynomial

$$
f(t)=t^{4}+a_{1} t^{3}+a_{2} t^{2}+a_{3} t+a_{4} \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}[t] .
$$

Let $\mathbb{Z}_{K}$ and $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ denote the ring of integers of $K$ and $M$, respectively. Also, assume that $d$ is the smallest natural number with the property $d \mathbb{Z}_{K} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ and $i_{0}=\left[\mathbb{Z}_{K}^{+}: \mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]^{+}\right]$. Then each $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{K}$ can be represented in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\frac{1}{d}\left(a+x \xi+y \xi^{2}+z \xi^{3}\right), a, x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}_{M} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The (absolute) index of $\alpha$ can be factorized in the form $I(\alpha)=\left[\mathbb{Z}_{K}^{+}: \mathbb{Z}_{M}[\alpha]^{+}\right]$. $\left[\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\alpha]^{+}: \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]^{+}\right]$. An element $\alpha$ generates a relative power integral basis of $K$ over $M$ if and only if the relative index $I_{K / M}(\alpha)=\left[\mathbb{Z}_{K}^{+}: \mathbb{Z}_{M}[\alpha]^{+}\right]$of $\alpha$ is equal to 1 . Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(u, v)=u^{3}-a_{2} u^{2} v+\left(a_{1} a_{3}-4 a_{4}\right) u v^{2}+\left(4 a_{2} a_{4}-a_{3}^{2}-a_{1}^{2} a_{4}\right) v^{3} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

be a binary cubic form over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$, and

$$
\begin{align*}
& Q_{1}(x, y, z)=x^{2}-x y a_{1}+y^{2} a_{2}+x z\left(a_{1}^{2}-2 a_{2}\right)+y z\left(a_{3}-a_{1} a_{2}\right)+z^{2}\left(a_{2}^{2}+a_{4}-a_{1} a_{3}\right),  \tag{7}\\
& Q_{2}(x, y, z)=y^{2}-x z-y z a_{1}+a_{2} z^{2} \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

be ternary quadratic forms over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$. If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{K}$ given by (5) generates a relative power integral basis of $\mathbb{Z}_{K}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$, then there is a solution $(u, v) \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{2}$ of

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(u, v)=\delta \varepsilon \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
u=Q_{1}(x, y, z), \quad v=Q_{2}(x, y, z) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\delta$ is an integer in $M$ of the norm $\pm d^{6 m} / i_{0}$ and $\varepsilon$ is an unit in $M$. Hence in (9), the full set of nonassociated elements $\delta$ of the norm $\pm d^{6 m} / i_{0}$ has to be considered.

In order to find all non-equivalent generators of relative power integral basis of $\mathbb{Z}_{K}$, the first step consists of determining all (nonassociated) solutions $(u, v) \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{2}$
of (9). In the next step, we have to find all $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{3}$ corresponding to a fixed solution $(u, v)$. To this purpose we solve the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{0}(x, y, z)=u Q_{2}(x, y, z)-v Q_{1}(x, y, z)=0 . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is possible to decide if (11) has nontrivial solutions and if so, all solutions of (11) can be given in a parametric form (with two parameters $p$ and $q$ ). By substituting these parametric representations of $u$ and $v$ into the original system (10), it can be shown that at least one of the equations in (10) is a quartic Thue equation over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$. By solving that Thue equation, we are able to determine all parameters $(p, q) \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{2}$ up to unit factors in $M$. Hence, we can calculate all $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{3}$ up to an unit factor of $M$, as well. Then all generators of power integral basis of $\mathbb{Z}_{K}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ are of the form $\alpha=\frac{1}{d}\left(a+\eta\left(x \xi+y \xi^{2}+z \xi^{3}\right)\right)$, where $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and the unit $\eta \in M$ are arbitrary. Consequently, all generators $\alpha$ of a power integral basis of $\mathbb{Z}_{K}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ are determined up to equivalence (i.e. up to multiplication by units in $M$ or translation by elements in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ ), so it is enough to look for those of the form $\alpha=\frac{1}{d}\left(x \xi+y \xi^{2}+z \xi^{3}\right)$. Also, there are finitely many non-equivalent generators of a power integral basis of $\mathbb{Z}_{K}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$.

Our purpose is to describe the relative power integral bases of either $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{K}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ (if the integer basis of $K$ is known) or of $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$. Note that in the case $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi], \xi$ itself is a generator of a relative power integral basis but we wonder if there exists any other non-equivalent generator of power integral bases. Also, we have $i_{0}=d=1$.

## 3. Simultaneous Pellian equations

Let $D$ be a square free positive integer and let $M=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ be an imaginary quadratic field with ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$. Let $\xi$ be a root of the polynomial (2), where $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$. The field $K_{c}=M(\xi)$ is an octic field if and only if the polynomial (2) is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$.

Lemma 4. The polynomial $f(t)$ given in (2) is reducible over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ if and only if $c=0, \pm 2$ or $c= \pm 1$ and $D=1$ or 3 .

Proof. Let $\xi$ be a root of polynomial $f(t)$ given in (2), where $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$. Since $f(t)$ is a monic polynomial with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}, \zeta$ is an algebraic integer over $M$. Hence, if $f$ is reducible over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$, then $f$ can be factorized as a product of at least two non-constant monic polynomials with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$. It is enough to observe the following cases: $f(t)=\left(t^{2}+a t+b\right)\left(t^{2}+d t+h\right)$ and
$f(t)=(t+b)\left(t^{3}+a t^{2}+d t+h\right)$, where $a, b, d, h \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$. The first case leads to the system

$$
\begin{equation*}
a+d=-2 c, b+h+a d=2, b d+a h=2 c, b h=1, \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the second to the system

$$
\begin{equation*}
a+b=-2 c, d+a b=2, h+b d=2 c, b h=1 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since in both cases we have $b h=1$, then $b, h$ are units in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and $(b, h)$, $(h, b) \in A \cap \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{2}$, where $A=\left\{(1,1),(-1,-1),(i,-i),\left(\omega, \omega^{2}\right),\left(-\omega,-\omega^{2}\right)\right\}$ and $\omega=\frac{-1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}$. By solving (12) and (13), we obtain that the polynomial $f$ is reducible only if one of the following holds:
(1) $c=0, f(t)=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}\left(t^{2}+1\right)^{2}, & \text { if } D \neq 1 \\ (t+i)^{2}(t-i)^{2}, & \text { if } D=1\end{array}\right.$,
(2) $c= \pm 2, f(t)=\left(t^{2} \mp 2 t-1\right)^{2}$,
(3) $c= \pm 1, D=1,3$,

$$
f(t)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\left(t^{2}-(\sqrt{-3} \pm 1) t-1\right)\left(t^{2}+(\sqrt{-3} \mp 1) t-1\right), & \text { if } D=3 \\
\left(t^{2}+(\mp 1 \pm i) t+i\right)\left(t^{2}+(\mp 1 \mp i) t-i\right), & \text { if } D=1
\end{array} .\right.
$$

Corollary 5. The field $K_{c}=M(\xi)$ is an octic field if and only if $c \in$ $\mathbb{Z}_{M} \backslash\{0, \pm 2\}$ and $c \neq \pm 1$ if $D=1$ or 3 .

Therefore, from now on we assume that $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M} \backslash\{0, \pm 2\}$ and $c \neq \pm 1$ if $D=1$ or 3 and we consider an infinite family of octic fields $K_{c}=M(\xi)$ with ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}_{K_{c}}$.

Since the integral basis of $K_{c}$ is not known in a parametric form, our goal is to determine all non-equivalent generators $\alpha$ of relative power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}\left(\right.$ instead of $\mathbb{Z}_{K_{c}}$ over $\left.\mathbb{Z}_{M}\right)$. So, (9) is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(u, v)=(u+2 v)(u-2(c+1) v)(u+2(c-1) v)=\varepsilon \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\varepsilon$ is an unit in $M$, ie. $\varepsilon \in\left\{ \pm 1, \pm i, \pm \omega, \pm \omega^{2}\right\} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and (7), (8) can be rewritten as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Q_{1}(x, y, z)=x^{2}+2 c x y+2 y^{2}+4\left(c^{2}-1\right) x z+6 c y z+z^{2}\left(4 c^{2}+5\right) \\
& Q_{2}(x, y, z)=y^{2}-x z+2 c y z+2 z^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

According to (14) we conclude that $u-2 v, u-2(c+1) v, u+2(c-1) v$ are units in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and that implies $v=0$. Therefore, all solutions of (14) are given by $(u, v)=(\eta, 0)$, where $\eta$ is an unit in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$. Since $v=0$, the equation (11) implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{2}(x, y, z)=y^{2}-x z+2 c y z+2 z^{2}=0 \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $(x, y, z)=(2,0,1)$ is one nontrivial solution of (15). Therefore, all solutions can be parameterized by

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=2 r+p, y=q, z=r, \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p, q, r \in M$ and $r \neq 0$. By substituting (16) into (15), we obtain $q^{2}=$ $r(p-2 c q)$. Further, if we multiply (16) by $k=p-2 c q$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
k x=2 q^{2}+p^{2}-2 c q p, k y=q p-2 c q^{2}, k z=q^{2} . \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can assume that $k, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and since the corresponding determinant equals 1 , the parameter $k$ must be an unit in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$. Now, by substituting $k x, k y, k z$ given by (17) into the equation $Q_{1}(x, y, z)=\eta\left(\eta\right.$ is an unit in $\left.\mathbb{Z}_{M}\right)$ we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
p^{4}-2 c p^{3} q+2 p^{2} q^{2}+2 c p q^{3}+q^{4}=\mu, \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mu=k^{2} \eta$ is an unit in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$. This is a relative Thue equation over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and it can be transformed into a system of Pellian equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
c V^{2}-(c+2) U^{2}=-2 \mu, \quad(c-2) U^{2}-c Z^{2}=-2 \mu \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

by putting

$$
\begin{equation*}
U=p^{2}+q^{2}, V=p^{2}+2 p q-q^{2}, Z=-p^{2}+2 p q+q^{2} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Both of equations in (19) are of the same form as the equation already studied in [10], ie. of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
(k-1) x^{2}-(k+1) y^{2}=-2 \mu \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition 6 ([10, Proposition 5.2]). Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and let $\mu \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ be an unit. Suppose $|k| \geq 2$ or $k$ is not an element of the set

$$
S=\left\{0, \pm 1, \pm \sqrt{-1}, \pm 1 \pm \sqrt{-1}, \pm \sqrt{-2}, \pm \sqrt{-3}, \pm \omega, \pm \omega^{2}\right\}
$$

with mixed signs, where $\omega=\frac{-1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}$. If the equation (21) is solvable, then $\mu \in\left\{1,-1, \omega, \omega^{2}\right\}$. All solutions are of the form $(x, y)=\left( \pm x_{m}, \pm y_{m}\right)$, with mixed signs, where the sequences $\left(x_{m}\right)$ and $\left(y_{m}\right)$ are given by the recurrence relations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{0}=\varepsilon, x_{1}=\varepsilon(2 k+1), x_{m+2}=2 k x_{m+1}-x_{m}, m \geq 0, \\
& y_{0}=\varepsilon, y_{1}=\varepsilon(2 k-1), y_{m+2}=2 k y_{m+1}-y_{m}, m \geq 0,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\varepsilon=1, \sqrt{-1}, \omega^{2}, \omega$ corresponds to $\mu=1,-1, \omega, \omega^{2}$, respectively.

Proposition 6 implies that if $c \notin S_{c}$, where $S_{c}$ is given in (4), and if the system (19) is solvable, then $\mu \in\left\{1,-1, \omega, \omega^{2}\right\}$. Furthermore, if $(U, V, Z)$ is a solution of (19), then

$$
U= \pm u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}
$$

for some $n, m \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$, with mixed signs, where $u_{m}, u_{n}^{\prime}$ are given by

$$
\begin{align*}
& u_{0}=\varepsilon, u_{1}=\varepsilon(2 c+1), u_{m+2}=(2 c+2) u_{m+1}-u_{m},  \tag{22}\\
& u_{0}^{\prime}=\varepsilon, u_{1}^{\prime}=\varepsilon(2 c-1), u_{n+2}^{\prime}=(2 c-2) u_{n+1}^{\prime}-u_{n}^{\prime} \tag{23}
\end{align*}
$$

and $\varepsilon=1, \sqrt{-1}, \omega^{2}, \omega$ corresponds to $\mu=1,-1, \omega, \omega^{2}$. Evidently, $U= \pm u_{0}=$ $\pm u_{0}^{\prime}= \pm \varepsilon$. So, the next step consists of determining eventual intersections of sequences $\left( \pm u_{m}\right)$ and $\left( \pm u_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ for $m, n \geq 1$.

## 4. Proof of the main Theorem for $|c| \geq 159108$

In this section we apply the congruence method introduced in [2] to obtain lower bound for $|U|$. Combining that result with a generalization of Bennett's theorem, we are able to solve the system (19) for large values of $|c|$.

Lemma 7. Let $|c| \geq 2$. Sequences $\left(u_{m}\right)$ and $\left(u_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ given by (22) and (23) satisfy the following inequalities

$$
\begin{equation*}
(2|c|-3)^{m} \leq\left|u_{m}\right| \leq(2|c|+3)^{m},(2|c|-3)^{n} \leq\left|u_{n}^{\prime}\right| \leq(2|c|+3)^{n}, \text { for } m, n \geq 0 \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. The inequality for $\left|u_{n}^{\prime}\right|$ is given in [10, Lemma 5.5.]. Similarly, we prove the other one.

Lemma 8. Sequences $\left( \pm u_{m}\right)$ and ( $\left.\pm u_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ given by (22) and (23) satisfy the following congruences

$$
\begin{align*}
u_{m} & \equiv \varepsilon(1+m(m+1) c) \quad\left(\bmod 4 c^{2}\right)  \tag{25}\\
u_{n}^{\prime} & \equiv(-1)^{n} \varepsilon(1-n(n+1) c) \quad\left(\bmod 4 c^{2}\right), \tag{26}
\end{align*}
$$

for $m, n \geq 0$.
Proof. The congruence relation for $u_{n}^{\prime}$ has already been proved in [10, Lemma 6.2.]. The other relation can be easily shown by induction.

Proposition 9. Let $c \notin S_{c}$. If $u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
m \geq \sqrt{2|c|+0.25}-0.5 \text { or } n \geq \sqrt{2|c|+0.25}-0.5 \text { or } m=n=0 . \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. If $u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$, then Lemma 8 implies that

$$
\varepsilon(1+m(m+1) c) \equiv \pm(-1)^{n} \varepsilon(1-n(n+1) c) \quad\left(\bmod 4 c^{2}\right)
$$

Therefore we have the congruence relation $\varepsilon\left(1 \mp(-1)^{n}\right) \equiv 0(\bmod 2 c)$. If $\varepsilon(1 \mp$ $\left.(-1)^{n}\right) \neq 0$, then $\left|\varepsilon\left(1 \mp(-1)^{n}\right)\right|=2$ and $|c|=1$, which is not possible. So, we conclude that $\mp(-1)^{n}=-1$ and $\varepsilon(1+m(m+1) c) \equiv \varepsilon(1-n(n+1) c)\left(\bmod 4 c^{2}\right)$. Furthermore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon\left(\frac{m(m+1)}{2}+\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right) \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod 2 c) \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consider the algebraic integer $A=\frac{\varepsilon}{2}(m(m+1)+n(n+1))$. It is clear that $A \neq 0$ for $m>0$ or $n>0$. So, (28) implies that $|A| \geq 2|c|$. Hence, $m(m+1) \geq 2|c|$ or $n(n+1) \geq 2|c|$ imply the inequalities in (27).

Finally, the previous proposition yields a lower bound for a nontrivial solution of equations in (19). Directly from Lemma 7 and Proposition 9 we get:

Corollary 10. Let $c \notin S_{c}$. If $U \in \mathbb{Z}_{M} \backslash\{ \pm \varepsilon\}$ is a solution of the system (19), then

$$
|U| \geq(2|c|-3)^{\sqrt{2|c|+0.25}-0.5}
$$

Now, we will find an upper bound for $|U|$ by using a generalization of Bennett's theorem for imaginary quadratic fields stated and proved in [10]:

Theorem 11 ([10, Theorem 7.1]). Let $\theta_{i}=\sqrt{1+\frac{a_{i}}{T}}$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$, with $a_{i}$ pairwise distinct imaginary quadratic integers in $K:=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ with $0<D \in \mathbb{Z}$ for $i=0, \ldots, m$ and let $T$ be an algebraic integer of $K$. Furthermore, let $A:=$ $\max \left|a_{i}\right|,|T|>A$ and $a_{0}=0$ and

$$
\begin{gathered}
l=c_{m} \frac{(m+1)^{m+1}}{m^{m}} \cdot \frac{|T|}{|T|-A}, L=|T|^{m} \frac{(m+1)^{m+1}}{4 m^{m} \prod_{0 \leq i<j \leq m}\left|a_{j}-a_{i}\right|^{2}} \cdot\left(\frac{|T|-A}{|T|}\right)^{m}, \\
p=\sqrt{\frac{2|T|+3 A}{2|T|-2 A}}, P=|T| \cdot 2^{m+3} \frac{\prod_{0 \leq i<j \leq m}\left|a_{i}-a_{j}\right|^{2}}{\min _{i \neq j}\left|a_{i}-a_{j}\right|^{m+1}} \cdot \frac{2|T|+3 A}{2|T|}
\end{gathered}
$$

where $c_{m}=\frac{3 \Gamma\left(m-\frac{1}{2}\right)}{4 \sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(m+1)}$, such that $L>1$, then

$$
\max \left(\left|\theta_{1}-\frac{p_{1}}{q}\right|, \ldots,\left|\theta_{m}-\frac{p_{m}}{q}\right|\right)>c q^{-\lambda}
$$

for all algebraic integers $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}, q \in K$, where

$$
\lambda=1+\frac{\log P}{\log L} \quad \text { and } \quad C^{-1}=2 m p P(\max \{1,2 l\})^{\lambda-1}
$$

The first step in the application of Theorem 11 consists of choosing suitable values for $\theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}$. Let $(U, V, Z) \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{3}$ be a solution of the system of Pellian equations in (19). The candidates for $\theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}$ are

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{1}^{(1)}= \pm \sqrt{\frac{c+2}{c}}, \theta_{2}^{(1)}= \pm \sqrt{\frac{c-2}{c}}, \theta_{1}^{(2)}=-\theta_{1}^{(1)}, \theta_{2}^{(2)}=-\theta_{2}^{(1)} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the signs are chosen such that $\left|V-\theta_{1}^{(1)} U\right|<\left|V-\theta_{1}^{(2)} U\right|$ and $\left|Z-\theta_{2}^{(1)} U\right|<$ $\left|V-\theta_{2}^{(2)} U\right|$. The next lemma shows that $\frac{V}{U}$ and $\frac{Z}{U}$ are good approximations to the algebraic numbers $\theta_{1}^{(1)}$ and $\theta_{2}^{(1)}$.

Lemma 12. Let $|c|>2$. If $(U, V, Z) \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{3}$ is a solution of (19), then

$$
\max \left\{\left|\theta_{1}^{(1)}-\frac{V}{U}\right|,\left|\theta_{2}^{(1)}-\frac{Z}{U}\right|\right\} \leq \frac{2}{\sqrt{|c|(|c|-2)}}|U|^{-2}
$$

Proof. The inequality for $\theta_{2}^{(1)}$ is proved in [10, Lemma 8.1]. Similarly, we prove the other inequality for $\theta_{2}^{(1)}$.

We apply Theorem 11 with $m=2, \theta_{1}=\theta_{1}^{(1)}, \theta_{2}=\theta_{2}^{(1)}, a_{1}=2, a_{2}=-2$, $A=2, T=c$, with $|T|=|c|>2$,
$l=\frac{27}{64} \frac{|c|}{|c|-2}, L=\frac{27}{4096}(|c|-2)^{2}>1$ if $|c| \geq 15, p=\sqrt{\frac{|c|+3}{|c|-2}}, P=1024(|c|+3)$,
$\lambda=1+\frac{\log 1024+\log (|c|+3)}{\log 27-\log 4096+2 \log (|c|-2)}, C^{-1}=4096(|c|+3) \sqrt{\frac{|c|+3}{|c|-2}}$ if $|c| \geq 13$.
Finally, Lemma 12 and Theorem 11 for $p_{1}=V, p_{2}=Z$ and $q=U$ give us the inequality

$$
\frac{2}{\sqrt{|c|(|c|-2)}} \geq \max \left\{\left|\theta_{1}-\frac{V}{U}\right|,\left|\theta_{2}-\frac{Z}{U}\right|\right\} \cdot|U|^{2}>C|U|^{2-\lambda}
$$

So, if $2-\lambda>0$, then the upper bound obtained for $|U|$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log |U|<\frac{1}{2-\lambda} \cdot \log \left(\frac{2 C^{-1}}{\sqrt{|c|(|c|-2)}}\right) . \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

It can be shown that $2-\lambda>0$ for $|c| \geq 155352$. Now, we use the lower bound for $|U|$ given in Corollary 10 and obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log |U| \geq(\sqrt{2|c|+0.25}-0.5) \log (2|c|-3),|c|>2 \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Comparing (30) and (31) we get an inequality which does not hold for $|c| \geq$ 159 108. Therefore, we have proved the following assertion.

Proposition 13. For $|c| \geq 159108$, the only solutions of the system (19) are $(U, V, Z)=( \pm \varepsilon, \pm \varepsilon, \pm \varepsilon)$ with mix signs and $\varepsilon=1, i, \omega, \omega^{2}$ corresponding to $\mu=1,-1, \omega, \omega^{2}$, respectively.

Let $(p, q) \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{2}$ be a solution of (18) and let $|c| \geq 159$ 108. From Proposition 13 and equations in (20), we have

$$
U=p^{2}+q^{2}= \pm \varepsilon, V=p^{2}+2 p q-q^{2}= \pm \varepsilon, Z=-p^{2}+2 p q+q^{2}= \pm \varepsilon,
$$

where $\varepsilon=1, i, \omega, \omega^{2}$. Adding $V$ and $Z$ yields $2 p q=0, \pm \varepsilon$. Since $|2 p q| \geq 2$ or $|2 p q|=0$, we have $2 p q=0$. Hence, either $p$ or $q$ is equal to 0 which implies $p^{4}=\mu$ and $q=0$ or $q^{4}=\mu$ and $p=0$, where $\mu \in\left\{1,-1, \omega, \omega^{2}\right\}$. So the following theorem is obtained immediately.

Theorem 14. Let $c \notin S_{c}$. If the equation (18) is solvable in $(p, q) \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{2}$, then $\mu \in\left\{1,-1, \omega, \omega^{2}\right\}$ where $\omega=\frac{1}{2}(-1+\sqrt{-3})$. Furthermore, if $|c| \geq 159108$, then all solutions of (18) are given by

1. $(p, q) \in\{(0, \pm 1),( \pm 1,0),(0, \pm i),( \pm i, 0)\} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{2}$ if $\mu=1$;
2. $(p, q) \in\{(0, \pm \omega),( \pm \omega, 0)\} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{2}$ if $\mu=\omega$;
3. $(p, q) \in\left\{\left(0, \pm \omega^{2}\right),\left( \pm \omega^{2}, 0\right)\right\} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{2}$ if $\mu=\omega^{2}$.

Note that if $\mu=-1$ and $|c| \geq 159108$, then there is no solution of (18). The equations in (5), (17) and Theorem 14 imply the following proposition directly.

Proposition 15. If $|c| \geq 159108$, then all non-equivalent generators of relative power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ are $\alpha=\xi, 2 \xi-2 c \xi^{2}+\xi^{3}$.

Remark 4.1. Note that $(U, V, Z)=( \pm \varepsilon, \pm \varepsilon, \pm \varepsilon)$ with mixed signs and $\varepsilon=1$, $i, \omega, \omega^{2}$ corresponding to $\mu=1,-1, \omega, \omega^{2}$, respectively, are solutions of the system (19) for all $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$. This implies that $\alpha=\xi, 2 \xi-2 c \xi^{2}+\xi^{3}$ are non-equivalent generators of power integral basis for all $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M} \backslash\{0, \pm 2\}$ and $c \neq \pm 1$ if $D=1$ or 3.

## 5. Applying Baker's theory for $|c|<159108$

In this section we apply Baker's theory on linear forms in the logarithms of algebraic numbers. So, first let us show that $u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$ leads to such a linear form.

Assume that $|c|<159108, c \notin S_{c}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(c) \geq 0$. Indeed, if $\operatorname{Re}(c)<0$, then by replacing $c$ in the system (19) by $-c$, we obtain the system $(c-2) U^{2}-c V^{2}=$ $-2 \mu, c Z^{2}-(c+2) U^{2}=-2 \mu$, which corresponds to the initial system (19) by switching places of $Z$ and $V$. Therefore, it is enough to observe only $c$ 's with $\operatorname{Re}(c) \geq 0$. Let us agree that the square root of a complex number $z=r e^{i \varphi}$, $-\pi<\varphi \leq \pi$ is given by $\sqrt{z}=\sqrt{r} e^{i \frac{\varphi}{2}}$, i.e. the one with a positive real part (or the principal square root).

Let $(U, V, Z)$ be a solution of the system (19). In Section 3 we showed that there exists $m \geq 0$ such that $U= \pm u_{m}$, where the sequence ( $u_{m}$ ) is given by (22). Solving the recursion in (22) yields an explicit expression for $u_{m}$ :
$u_{m}=\varepsilon \frac{(c+\sqrt{c(c+2)})(c+1+\sqrt{c(c+2)})^{m}-(c-\sqrt{c(c+2)})(c+1-\sqrt{c(c+2)})^{m}}{2 \sqrt{c(c+2)}}$.
Since $\operatorname{Re}(c) \geq 0,|c+1+\sqrt{c(c+2)}| \cdot|c+1-\sqrt{c(c+2)}|=1$ and $|c+1+\sqrt{c(c+2)}| \neq$ $|c+1-\sqrt{c(c+2)}|$ for $c \neq 0,-1,-2$, we have $|c+1+\sqrt{c(c+2)}|>1$ (and $|c+1-\sqrt{c(c+2)}|<1)$. So, we put

$$
\begin{equation*}
P=\frac{1}{\sqrt{c+2}}(c+\sqrt{c(c+2)})(c+1+\sqrt{c(c+2)})^{m} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{m}=\frac{\varepsilon}{2 \sqrt{c}}\left(P+\frac{2 c}{c+1} P^{-1}\right) \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $\sqrt{c(c+2)}=\sqrt{c} \sqrt{(c+2)}$ if $\operatorname{Re}(c) \geq 0$ (because $\sqrt{z_{1} z_{2}}=\sqrt{z_{1}} \sqrt{z_{2}}$ is not true in general) and

$$
P^{-1}=\frac{\sqrt{c+2}}{2 c}(\sqrt{c(c+2)}-c)(c+1-\sqrt{c(c+2)})^{m} .
$$

Analogously, there exists $n \geq 0$ such that $U= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$, where the sequence $\left(u_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ is given by (23) and its explicit expression is

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{n}^{\prime}=\varepsilon \frac{(c+\sqrt{c(c-2)})(c-1+\sqrt{c(c-2)})^{n}-(c-\sqrt{c(c-2)})(c-1-\sqrt{c(c-2)})^{n}}{2 \sqrt{c(c-2)}} \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also, since $|c-1+\sqrt{c(c-2)}| \neq|c-1-\sqrt{c(c-2)}|$ for $c \neq 0,1,2$ and $\mid c-1+$ $\sqrt{c(c-2)}|\cdot| c-1-\sqrt{c(c-2)} \mid=1$, we put

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q=\frac{1}{\sqrt{c-2}}(c+\sqrt{c(c-2)})(c-1+\sqrt{c(c-2)})^{n} \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

if $|c-1+\sqrt{c(c-2)}|>1$. Alternatively, if $|c-1+\sqrt{c(c-2)}|<1$, ie. $\mid c-1-$ $\sqrt{c(c-2)} \mid>1$, we put

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q=\frac{1}{\sqrt{c-2}}(c-\sqrt{c(c-2)})(c-1-\sqrt{c(c-2)})^{n} \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

To be more precise, if $\operatorname{Re}(c)>1$ or $\operatorname{Re}(c)=1$ and $\operatorname{Im}(c)>0$, then $Q$ is given by (36) and also $\sqrt{c(c-2)}=\sqrt{c} \sqrt{c-2}$. On the other hand, if $0 \leq \operatorname{Re}(c)<1$ or $\operatorname{Re}(c)=1$ and $\operatorname{Im}(c)<0$, then $\sqrt{c(c-2)}=-\sqrt{c} \sqrt{c-2}$ and $Q$ is defined by (37). Note that, in both cases, $Q$ can be given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q=\frac{1}{\sqrt{c-2}}(c+\sqrt{c} \sqrt{c-2})(c-1+\sqrt{c} \sqrt{c-2})^{n} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly to the previous case, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{n}^{\prime}= \pm \frac{\varepsilon}{2 \sqrt{c}}\left(Q-\frac{2 c}{c-2} Q^{-1}\right) \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Q^{-1}=\frac{\sqrt{c-2}}{2 c}(c-\sqrt{c} \sqrt{c-2})(c-1-\sqrt{c} \sqrt{c-2})^{n}$. Assuming that $u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$, relations (34) and (39) imply

$$
\begin{equation*}
P \pm Q= \pm \frac{2 c}{c-2} Q^{-1}+\frac{2 c}{c+2} P^{-1} \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will apply the theorem of Baker and Wüstholz from [1] to the form $\Lambda=\log \frac{|Q|}{|P|}$. So, we have to estimate the upper bound for $|\Lambda|$. If $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M} \backslash\left\{S_{c}\right\}$,

$$
|\Lambda|<3^{-m}, \quad|\Lambda|<(1.55)^{-n}, \quad \text { for } m, n \geq 2
$$

and that is enough for our purposes since there are no solutions of $u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$ if $m=1$ or $n=1$. Indeed, for $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M},|c| \geq \sqrt{2}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(c) \geq 0$, we have
$\left|u_{1}\right|,\left|u_{1}^{\prime}\right| \leq 2|c|+1,\left|u_{m}\right|>\left(2 \sqrt{1+|c|^{2}}-1\right)^{m},\left|u_{n}^{\prime}\right|>\left(2 \sqrt{1+|c|^{2}}-1\right)^{n-1}(2|c|-1)$,
for $m, n \geq 2$ (where the last two inequalities are obtained similarly to those in Lemma 7). Hence, $\left|u_{1}\right| \leq 2|c|+1<\left(2 \sqrt{1+|c|^{2}}-1\right)(2|c|-1) \leq\left|u_{n}^{\prime}\right|,\left|u_{1}^{\prime}\right| \leq$ $2|c|+1<\left(2 \sqrt{1+|c|^{2}}-1\right)^{2} \leq\left|u_{m}\right|$ for $m, n \geq 2$, and the equations $u_{1}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$ and $u_{1}^{\prime}= \pm u_{m}$ have no solution for $m, n \geq 2$, i.e. for $m, n \geq 1$ (because $u_{1} \neq \pm u_{1}^{\prime}$ ).
5.1. The condition $\Lambda \neq 0$. Without proving that $\Lambda \neq 0$, i.e. $|P| \neq|Q|$, we cannot use the theorem of Baker and Wüstholz. This proof is rather complicated and involves several cases.

First, we show that $P \neq \pm Q$. Let us assume that $P= \pm Q$. According to (40), the following cases occur:

$$
\frac{c}{c^{2}-4}=0 \quad \text { or } \quad P^{2}=\frac{2 c}{c^{2}-4}
$$

The first one is not possible since $c \neq 0, \pm 2$ nor is the other one because $|P|^{2} \geq 16^{2}$ and $\left|\frac{2 c}{c^{2}-4}\right|<5$ for $|c| \geq \sqrt{2}$ and $c \neq \pm 2$.

Before presenting other cases, let us take a closer look at $|P|$ and $|Q|$ from an algebraic point of view. According to (33), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{P}{\sqrt{c}}=\frac{c+\sqrt{c(c+2)}}{\sqrt{c(c+2)}}(c+1+\sqrt{c(c+2)})^{m}=a+b \alpha=a+\frac{b_{1}}{c+2} \alpha \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha=\sqrt{c(c+2)}$ and $a, b_{1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$. Similarly, (36) and (37) imply that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{Q}{\sqrt{c}}=d+e \beta=d+\frac{e_{1}}{c-2} \beta \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\beta=\sqrt{c(c-2)}$ and $d, e_{1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$. It follows straight away that

$$
u_{m}=\frac{\varepsilon}{2}(a+b \alpha+a-b \alpha)=\varepsilon a, \quad u_{n}^{\prime}=\frac{\varepsilon}{2}(d+e \beta+d-e \beta)=\varepsilon d
$$

where we have used the explicit expressions (32) and (35) for $u_{m}$ and $u_{n}^{\prime}$. Since $u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$, we get $a= \pm d$. Note that $a \neq 0, d \neq 0$, because $\left|u_{m}\right|,\left|u_{n}^{\prime}\right|>0$ for $m, n \geq 2$. Also,

$$
\left|\frac{P}{\sqrt{c}}\right|^{2}=|a|^{2}+(\bar{a} b) \alpha+(a \bar{b}) \bar{\alpha}+|b|^{2}|\alpha|^{2},\left|\frac{Q}{\sqrt{c}}\right|^{2}=|d|^{2}+(\bar{d} e) \beta+(d \bar{e}) \bar{\beta}+|e|^{2}|\beta|^{2} .
$$

can be understood as the elements of the vector subspaces $\operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$ and $\operatorname{span}\left(1, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right)$, respectively, since the algebraic extension $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})(\alpha, \bar{\alpha}, \beta, \bar{\beta})$ can be considered as a vector space over $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ generated by the set $\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha}$, $\left.|\alpha|^{2}, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right\}$. Before continuing with the proof, we establish the following useful claims:

Lemma 16. If $c \notin\{0, \pm 1, \pm 2\}$, then $\alpha, \beta \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$.

Proof. Indeed, we can show that $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ if and only if $c=0,-1,-2$. Note that $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ if and only if $c(c+2)=t^{2}$ for some $t \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ or equivalently if there exist $t, s \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ such that $t \pm s$ are units in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$, since $c=-1 \pm \sqrt{t^{2}+1}$. It is easy to check that the only possibilities are $c=0,-1,-2$. It can be proved similarly that $\beta \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ if and only if $c=0,1,2$.

Lemma 17. If $B_{1}$ is a basis of the subspace $\operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$, then $B_{1}=$ $\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right\}$ or $B_{1}=\{1, \alpha\}$. Set $\{1, \alpha\}$ is a basis of $\operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$ if and only if $\bar{\alpha}=A \alpha, A \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. The analogous statement is true for a basis of $\operatorname{span}\left(1, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right)$.

Proof. According to Lemma 16, it is obvious that $\{1, \alpha\}$ is a linearly independent set. Let $\bar{\alpha}=A \alpha+C$, for $A, C \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. By squaring it, we obtain $2 A C \alpha=\bar{\alpha}^{2}-C^{2}-\alpha^{2} A^{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. Since $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$, we have that $A C=0$. If $A=0$, then $\bar{\alpha}=C \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$, a contradiction. If $C=0$, then $\bar{\alpha}=A \alpha$ and $|\alpha|^{2}=A \alpha^{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ which imply $B_{1}=\{1, \alpha\}$.

The assumption that $\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha}\}$ is a linearly independent set leads to several contradictions (obtained similarly as in the previous cases but more complicated).

Lemma 18. Let $c \notin\{0, \pm 1, \pm 2\}$. If $\beta \in \operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$, then $B_{1}=$ $\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right\}$ is a basis of the subspace $\operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$ and $\beta=A \bar{\alpha}$ or $\beta=$ $A|\alpha|^{2}$, for some $A \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. The analogous statement is true if $\alpha \in \operatorname{span}(1, \beta$, $\left.\bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right)$.

Proof. Let $\beta \in \operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$. Obviously, this implies $\bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2} \in \operatorname{span}(1$, $\left.\alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$ too. If we assume that $\beta=A \alpha$ for some $A \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$, then $A=$ $\pm \frac{\sqrt{c^{2}-4}}{c-2}$. Therefore, $c^{2}-4=r^{2}$ for some $r \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$. Since $c, r \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and $|c \pm r| \leq 4$, by checking all possibilities, we find $c=0, \pm 1,-2$. (Similarly, if $\alpha=A \beta$ for $A \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$, then $c=0, \pm 1,2)$.

If $B_{1}=\{1, \alpha\}$ is a basis of $\operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$, then $\beta=A \alpha+C$ for some $A, C \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. Then, by squaring it, it is easy to see $\beta=C \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ or $\beta=A \alpha$, which is impossible.

If $B_{1}=\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right\}$ is a basis of $\operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$, then $\beta=C+A \alpha+$ $A^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}+A^{\prime \prime}|\alpha|^{2}$ for $C, A, A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. Similarly as before, we prove that one of the following possibilities occurs: 1) $\beta=C \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$, 2) $\beta=A \alpha, 3)$ $\beta=A^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}$, 4) $\beta=A^{\prime \prime}|\alpha|^{2}$. Therefore, we might have $\beta=A^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}$ or $\beta=A^{\prime \prime}|\alpha|^{2}$, since the first two cases are impossible.

Furthermore,

$$
\left|\frac{P}{\sqrt{c}}\right|^{2}-\left|\frac{Q}{\sqrt{c}}\right|^{2} \in V=\operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right)
$$

There are several possibilities for choosing a basis $B$ for $V$ from $\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}, \beta, \bar{\beta}\right.$, $\left.|\beta|^{2}\right\}$ :
(1) $B=\{1\}$. This happens if and only if $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. So, this is not possible according to Lemma 16 .
(2) $B=\{1, \alpha\}$ (or $B=\{1, \beta\}$ ). This is also not possible. Indeed, in this case $B_{1}=\{1, \alpha\}$ is basis of $\operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$ and $\beta \in \operatorname{span}\left(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right)$, which contradicts Lemma 18.
(3) $B=\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right\}$ (or $B=\left\{1, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right\}$ ). In this case $\beta \in \operatorname{span}(1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha}$, $|\alpha|^{2}$ ) or more precisely $\beta=A \bar{\alpha}$ or $\beta=A|\alpha|^{2}$ for $A \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ according to Lemma 18.
(4) $B=\{1, \alpha, \beta\}$. This implies that $\bar{\alpha}=A \alpha$ and $\bar{\beta}=C \beta$, for $A, C \in$ $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ according to Lemma 17.
(5) $B=\left\{1, \alpha, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right\}$ (or $B=\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}, \beta\right\}$ ). Here, we have $\bar{\alpha}=A \alpha$ for $A \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})($ or $\bar{\beta}=A \beta$ for $A \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ ).
(6) $B=\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right\}$.

In what follows, we show that $|P| \neq|Q|$ in each of the possible cases (3) to (6) unless $\operatorname{Re}(c)=0$. Assume that $|P|=|Q|$, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
0=\left|\frac{P}{\sqrt{c}}\right|^{2}-\left|\frac{Q}{\sqrt{c}}\right|^{2}=(\bar{a} b) \alpha+(a \bar{b}) \bar{\alpha}+|b|^{2}|\alpha|^{2}-(\bar{d} e) \beta-(d \bar{e}) \bar{\beta}-|e|^{2}|\beta|^{2} \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case (6): Let $B=\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right\}$ be a basis $B$ for $V$. Since the set $\left\{\alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right\}$ is linearly independent, all coefficients in (43) have to be zero: $\bar{a} b=a \bar{b}=|b|^{2}=\bar{d} e=d \bar{e}=|e|^{2}=0$. This implies $b=e=0$ and $P=a \sqrt{c}= \pm d \sqrt{c}= \pm Q$, which is not possible.

Case (5): The assumption is that the set $B=\left\{1, \alpha, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right\}$ forms a basis for $V$. In this case we know that $\bar{\alpha}=A \alpha$ and $|\alpha|^{2}=A \alpha^{2}$ for $A \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. Obviously, $A \neq 0$. So, (43) implies

$$
\left(|b|^{2} A \alpha^{2}\right) 1+(\bar{a} b+a \bar{b} A) \alpha-(\bar{d} e) \beta-(d \bar{e}) \bar{\beta}-|e|^{2}|\beta|^{2}=0
$$

The coefficients must be zero: $|b|^{2} A \alpha^{2}=\bar{a} b+a \bar{b} A=\bar{d} e=d \bar{e}=|e|^{2}=0$. Since $A \alpha^{2} \neq 0$, we have $b=e=0$ and $P=a \sqrt{c}= \pm d \sqrt{c}= \pm Q$, which is not possible. Similarly, we obtain a contradiction if we assume that $B=\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}, \beta\right\}$ is a basis for $V$.

Case (4): The set $B=\{1, \alpha, \beta\}$ forms a basis for $V$. This is a situation when $\bar{\alpha}=A \alpha,|\alpha|^{2}=A \alpha^{2}, \bar{\beta}=C \beta,|\beta|^{2}=C \beta^{2}$, for $A, C \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ and
$A, C \neq 0$. Substituting that into (43) we get $\left(|b|^{2} A \alpha^{2}-|e|^{2} C \beta^{2}\right) 1+(\bar{a} b+a \bar{b} A) \alpha-$ $(\bar{d} e+d \bar{e} C) \beta=0$ and $|b|^{2} A \alpha^{2}=|e|^{2} C \beta^{2}, \bar{a} b=-a \bar{b} A, \bar{d} e=-d \bar{e} C$. The assumption $b, e \neq 0$, after some calculations, leads to $(b \alpha-e \beta)(b \alpha+e \beta)=0$ and that implies that $\alpha, \beta$ are linearly dependent, which they are not according to Lemma 18. So, $b=e=0$ implies $P= \pm Q$ again, a contradiction!

Case (3): Recall that $\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right\}$ forms a basis of $V$ and $\beta=A \bar{\alpha}$ or $\beta=A|\alpha|^{2}$ for $A \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. If $\beta=A|\alpha|^{2}$, then $\bar{\beta}=\bar{A}|\alpha|^{2}$ and $|\beta|^{2}=|A|^{2}|\alpha|^{4} \in$ $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. So, (43) implies that

$$
\left(-|e|^{2}|A|^{2}|\alpha|^{4}\right) \cdot 1+(\bar{a} b) \alpha+(a \bar{b}) \bar{\alpha}+\left(|b|^{2}-\bar{d} e A-d \bar{e} \bar{A}\right)|\alpha|^{2}=0
$$

Therefore, $|e|^{2}|A|^{2}|\alpha|^{4}=0, \bar{a} b=0,|b|^{2}-\bar{d} e A-d \bar{e} \bar{A}=0$. Evidently, $e=b=0$ which imply $P= \pm Q$, a contradiction.

If $\beta=A \bar{\alpha}$, then $\bar{\beta}=\bar{A} \alpha$ and $|\beta|^{2}=|A|^{2}|\alpha|^{2}$. Notice that $\bar{\beta} \neq C \beta$ for all $C \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. (If $\bar{\beta}=C \beta$, then $\beta=C^{-1} A \alpha$, which is not possible by Lemma 18.) According to (43) we have $(\bar{a} b-d \bar{e} \bar{A}) \alpha+(a \bar{b}-\bar{d} e A) \bar{\alpha}+\left(|b|^{2}-|e|^{2}|A|^{2}\right)|\alpha|^{2}=0$, and $a \bar{b}-\bar{d} e A=0,|b|^{2}-|e|^{2}|A|^{2}=0$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\frac{a \bar{b}}{\bar{d} e}= \pm \frac{a \bar{b}}{\bar{a} e} \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (41) and (42) we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{2}-b^{2} c(c+2)=\frac{2}{c+2}, \quad a^{2}-e^{2} c(c-2)=-\frac{2}{c-2} \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $c b_{1}^{2}-(c+2) a^{2}=-2,(c-2) a^{2}-c e_{1}^{2}=-2$, which again implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
e^{2} c(c-2)-b^{2} c(c+2)=\frac{4 c}{c^{2}-4} \text { and }(c+2) e_{1}^{2}-(c-2) b_{1}^{2}=4 \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (44) gives us $|e \beta|=|b \alpha|$, which gives us $\left|e_{1}^{2}(c+2)\right|=\left|b_{1}^{2}(c-2)\right|$. Let $X=(c+2) e_{1}^{2}$ and $Y=(c-2) b_{1}^{2}$. Therefore, we have $X-Y=4$ and $|X|=|Y|$. Also, $\operatorname{Re} X=2$ and $\operatorname{Re} Y=-2$. On the other hand, from (44) and (46) we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{c^{2}-4}{c \cdot \bar{a}^{2}}\left(\bar{b}^{2} a^{2} \bar{\alpha}^{2}-\bar{a}^{2} b^{2} \alpha^{2}\right)=4 \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\bar{b}^{2} a^{2} \bar{\alpha}^{2}-\bar{a}^{2} b^{2} \alpha^{2}=2 \operatorname{Im}(a \bar{b} \bar{\alpha})^{2} i$, the equation (47) implies $\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{1}{c \bar{a}^{2}}\left(c^{2}-4\right)\right)=$ 0 or equivalently $\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{a^{2}}{c}\left(c^{2}-4\right)\right)=0$. By (45) and $\operatorname{Re}\left((c+2) e_{1}^{2}\right)=2$, it follows $\operatorname{Re} c=0$, i.e. $c=v i, v \in \mathbb{Z}(\sqrt{D}), v \neq 0, \pm 1$. In general, we have $\overline{\sqrt{z}}=\sqrt{\bar{z}}$, if
$z \in \mathbb{C} \backslash \mathbb{R}^{-}$and $\overline{\sqrt{z}}=-\sqrt{\bar{z}}$, if $z \in \mathbb{R}^{-}$, where $\mathbb{R}^{-}=\{x \in \mathbb{R}: x<0\}$. So, since $\beta=\sqrt{v i(v i-2)}, \alpha=\sqrt{v i(v i+2)}$ and $\overline{(v i-2) v i}=v i(v i+2) \notin \mathbb{R}^{-}$, we have $\beta=\bar{\alpha}$ i.e. $A=1$. Also, from $\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{1}{c \bar{a}^{2}}\left(c^{2}-4\right)\right)=0$ we get $\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{-i v}{v^{2}+4}(\bar{a})^{2}\right)=0$, which again implies $\bar{a}=-a$ or $\bar{a}=a$. Therefore, (44) gives $e= \pm \bar{b}$ and we can distinguish four cases:

1. If $\bar{a}=a=d$, then $e=\frac{a \bar{b}}{\bar{d}}=\bar{b}$ and $\frac{P}{\sqrt{c}}=a+b \alpha, \frac{Q}{\sqrt{c}}=a+\bar{b} \bar{\alpha}$;
2. If $\bar{a}=-a, a=d$, then $e=\frac{a \bar{b}}{\bar{d}}=-\bar{b}$ and $\frac{P}{\sqrt{c}}=a+b \alpha, \frac{Q}{\sqrt{c}}=a-\bar{b} \bar{\alpha}$;
3. If $\bar{a}=a, a=-d$, then $e=\frac{a \bar{b}}{\bar{d}}=-\bar{b}$ and $\frac{P}{\sqrt{c}}=a+b \alpha, \frac{Q}{\sqrt{c}}=-a-\bar{b} \bar{\alpha}$;
4. If $\bar{a}=-a, a=-d$, then $e=\frac{a \bar{b}}{\bar{d}}=\bar{b}$ and $\frac{P}{\sqrt{c}}=a+b \alpha, \frac{Q}{\sqrt{c}}=-a+\bar{b} \bar{\alpha}$.

Note that each of the above cases implies that $|P|=|Q|$ and hence $\Lambda=0$. In what follows we show that in these cases the equation $u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}, m, n>0$, has no solution. First we observe that $\bar{a}= \pm a$ implies $b \alpha \neq \pm \bar{b} \bar{\alpha}$. It is enough to show $\operatorname{Im}(b \alpha)^{2} \neq 0$. Suppose $\operatorname{Im}(b \alpha)^{2}=0$. Then, (45) gives us $(b \alpha)^{2}=b^{2} c(c+2)=$ $a^{2}-2 /(v i+2)$. Since $\operatorname{Im}(b \alpha)^{2}=\operatorname{Im} a^{2}=0$, then $\operatorname{Im} \frac{2}{v i+2}=0$ which again implies $v=0$, a contradiction. From (40) we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{P}{\sqrt{c}}-\frac{Q}{\sqrt{c}}=-\frac{2}{c-2} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{c}}{Q}+\frac{2}{c+2} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{c}}{P}, \quad \text { if } a=d  \tag{48}\\
& \frac{P}{\sqrt{c}}+\frac{Q}{\sqrt{c}}=\frac{2}{c-2} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{c}}{Q}+\frac{2}{c+2} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{c}}{P}, \quad \text { if } a=-d \tag{49}
\end{align*}
$$

If $\bar{a}=a=d$, then (48) implies

$$
b \alpha-\bar{b} \bar{\alpha}=\frac{2}{2-v i} \cdot \frac{1}{\bar{a}+\bar{b} \bar{\alpha}}+\frac{2}{2+v i} \cdot \frac{1}{a+b \alpha} .
$$

Since $\operatorname{Re}(b \alpha-\bar{b} \bar{\alpha})=0$ and $\operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{2}{2-v i} \cdot \frac{1}{\bar{a}+\bar{b} \bar{\alpha}}+\frac{2}{2+v i} \cdot \frac{1}{a+b \alpha}\right)=0$, we get $b \alpha=\bar{b} \bar{\alpha}$, a contradiction. Similarly, we have obtained a contradiction in the other three cases. If $B=\left\{1, \beta, \bar{\beta},|\beta|^{2}\right\}$ is a basis for $V$, analogous results are verified.

Note that if $c=v i, v \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}], v \neq 0, \pm 1$, then $\beta=\bar{\alpha}$ and, according to Lemma 18, $\left\{1, \alpha, \bar{\alpha},|\alpha|^{2}\right\}$ forms a basis of $V=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})(\alpha, \bar{\alpha}, \beta, \bar{\beta})$, that is Case (3). Hence, we have proved the following assertion.

Proposition 19. Let $c \notin S_{c}$ and $\Lambda=\log \frac{|P|}{|Q|}$. Then
i) $\Lambda \neq 0$ if and only if $\operatorname{Re}(c) \neq 0$;
ii) If $\operatorname{Re}(c)=0$, then the equation $u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$ has no solutions for $m, n>0$.

Corollary 20. If $c \neq \pm \sqrt{-1}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(c)=0$, then all non-equivalent generators of power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ are $\alpha=\xi, 2 \xi-2 c \xi^{2}+\xi^{3}$.
5.2. A reduction procedure. We are now ready to apply the theorem of Baker and Wüstholz to our linear form in logarithms of algebraic numbers

$$
\Lambda=\log |Q|-\log |P|=n \log \eta-m \log \vartheta+\log \xi
$$

where $\eta=|c-1+\sqrt{c} \sqrt{c-2}|, \vartheta=|c+1+\sqrt{c(c+2)}|, \xi=\left|\frac{\sqrt{c+2}(\sqrt{c}+\sqrt{c-2})}{\sqrt{c-2}(\sqrt{c}+\sqrt{c+2})}\right|$.
First, we have to calculate the standard logarithmic Weil height of $\eta, \vartheta$ and $\xi$. The standard logarithmic Weil height $h(\alpha)$ can be bounded by

$$
\frac{1}{k} \log \left(a_{0} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \max \left\{1,\left|\alpha^{(i)}\right|\right\}\right)
$$

where the algebraic number $\alpha$ is a root of $a_{0} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(x-\alpha^{(i)}\right)$. Since we are able to find explicit polynomials of which these algebraic integers are zeros, the following inequalities hold: $h(\eta), h(\vartheta)<28.12, h(\xi)<271.82$. Also $h^{\prime}(\eta), h^{\prime}(\vartheta)$ and $h^{\prime}(\xi)$ are less than the corresponding values given above. Since $d \leq 32 \cdot 8 \cdot 8$, we get
$-\log |\Lambda| \leq 18 \cdot 4!\cdot 3^{4}(32 \cdot 2048)^{5} 28.12^{2} \cdot 271.82 \cdot \log (2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2048) \log l<8.6 \cdot 10^{34} \log l$,
where $l=\max \{m, n\}$. If $l=m$, applying $|\Lambda|<3^{-m}$ to the previous inequality, we get $\frac{m}{\log m}<7.8 \cdot 10^{34}$ which does not hold for $m \geq 6.7 \cdot 10^{36}$. Therefore, we solve

$$
\begin{equation*}
|m \theta-n+\gamma|<\delta \cdot 3^{-m} \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $m<6.7 \cdot 10^{36}$, where $\theta=\frac{\log \vartheta}{\log \eta}, \gamma=-\frac{\log \xi}{\log \eta}$ and $\delta=\frac{1}{\log \eta}$.
Similarly, if $l=n$, we have to solve

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|n \theta^{\prime}-n+\gamma^{\prime}\right|<\delta^{\prime} \cdot 1.55^{-n} \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $n<1.715 \cdot 10^{37}$, where $\theta^{\prime}=\frac{\log \eta}{\log \vartheta}, \gamma^{\prime}=\frac{\log \xi}{\log \vartheta}$ and $\delta^{\prime}=\frac{1}{|\log \vartheta|}$.
Now we will apply the reduction method described in [2], Lemma 5. Since our bound for the absolute value of $c$ is huge (almost 160000 ), we carried out reductions only for $|c| \leq 1000, c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ and obtained that (50) and (51) have no integer solutions for $m \geq n>31$ and $n \geq m>67$, respectively. The reason for not achieving a better bound for $m$ and $n$ is that $\theta$ and $\theta^{\prime}$ are very close to 1 and hence their first convergent is too large, although for certain values of $c$ the reduction procedure is very efficient. To illustrate this, $c=1+984 \sqrt{-1}$ with related $\theta^{\prime} \approx 1.000000272$ and $q_{1}=3672014$ (the denominator of the first convergent) represents a non-efficient example of reduction ( $m \leq n \leq 67$ ), while
on $c=10+\sqrt{-61}$ with related $\theta \approx 1.039$ the reduction works much better ( $n \leq m \leq 2$ ). Finally, we showed that the equations $u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$ for $1 \leq m, n \leq 67$ have no solutions in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ except $c= \pm 1, \pm 2$. (Note that according to (22) and (23), $u_{k}$ and $u_{k}^{\prime}$ are $k$-th degree polynomials in the variable $c$. So, solving $u_{m}= \pm u_{n}^{\prime}$ reduces to finding roots of certain polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$.) Thus, we have proved:

Proposition 21. If $|c| \leq 1000$ and $c \notin S_{c}$, then all non-equivalent generators of power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ are $\alpha=\xi, 2 \xi-2 c \xi^{2}+\xi^{3}$.

Computational aspects. All reductions and calculations were performed in Wolfram's Mathematica 9.0 with 150 -digit precision. Since the algorithm for $|c| \leq 200,|c| \leq 400$ and $|c| \leq 1000$ took $1718 s, 9757 s$ and $99710 s$, respectively, we estimated that the time required to do all computations for $|c|<159108$ would be more then $10^{10}$ seconds.

## 6. On the case $c \in S_{c}$

So far, we have observed the case when the parameter $c \notin S_{c}$, where $S_{c}$ is given in (4). Note that if $c \in S_{c}$, then for at least one of the equations in (19) we can not apply Lemma 6 . Indeed, if $c \in S_{c}$, there are additional classes of solutions of the equations in (19), or there exist only finitely many solutions of those equations. Also, according to the remark at the beginning of Section 5, it is enough to observe only $c$ 's from the set $S_{c}$ with $\operatorname{Re}(c) \geq 0$. Furthermore, each $c \in S_{c}$ belongs to exactly one imaginary quadratic field except for $c= \pm 1$ that belong to each field $M=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. Thus, for each $c \in S_{c}, c \neq \pm 1$, we have to find additional classes of solutions of (at least one of) the equations in (19) (see [3]) and repeat the entire procedure from the previous sections. On the one hand, this situation is much simpler because we handle a specific value of $c$ in the exact field, but on the other hand, we need to find intersections of at least four recursive series.

For $c=1$ Thue equation (18) has the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
p^{4}-2 p^{3} q+2 p^{2} q^{2}+2 p q^{3}+q^{4}=\mu \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the related system is

$$
\begin{equation*}
V^{2}-3 U^{2}=-2 \mu, \quad U^{2}+Z^{2}=2 \mu \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that Lemma 6 can be applied on the first equation in (53) to obtain $\mu \in$ $\left\{1, \omega, \omega^{2}\right\} \cap \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$, if $D \neq 1$ and $\mu \in\{1,-1\}$ if $D=1$.

It can be shown that the second equation in (53) has finitely many solutions if $D=1$, but the cases $c= \pm 1$ when $D=1$ or 3 are excluded. If $D \neq 1,3$ the equation $U^{2}+Z^{2}=2$ has infinitely many solutions in the ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}_{M}$ of the field $M=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ (and the form of these solutions depends on $D)$.

## 7. On elements with the absolute index 1

Let $\mathbb{Q} \subset M \subset K$ be number fields with $m=[M: \mathbb{Q}]$ and $k=[K: M]$. Let $\mathcal{O}$ be either the ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}_{K}$ of $K$ or an order of $\mathbb{Z}_{K}$. Denote by $D_{\mathcal{O}}$ and $D_{M}$ the discriminant of $\mathcal{O}$ and subfield $M$, respectively. Also, denote by $\gamma^{(i)}$ the conjugates of any $\gamma \in M(i=1, \ldots, m)$. Let $\delta^{(i, j)}$ be the images of $\delta \in K$ under the automorphisms of $K$ leaving the conjugate field $M^{(i)}$ fixed elementwise $(j=1, \ldots, k)$. According to [9] for any primitive $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{\mathcal{O}}(\alpha)=\left[\mathcal{O}^{+}: \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]^{+}\right]=\left[\mathcal{O}^{+}: \mathbb{Z}_{M}[\alpha]^{+}\right] \cdot\left[\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\alpha]^{+}: \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]^{+}\right] . \tag{54}
\end{equation*}
$$

The first factor $I_{\mathcal{O} / M}(\alpha)=\left[\mathcal{O}^{+}: \mathbb{Z}_{M}[\alpha]^{+}\right]$we call the relative index of $\alpha$ and for the second factor we have
$J(\alpha)=\left[\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\alpha]^{+}: \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]^{+}\right]=\frac{1}{\sqrt{\left|D_{M}\right|}}{ }^{[K: M]} \cdot \prod_{1 \leq i_{1}<i_{2} \leq m} \prod_{j_{1}=1}^{k} \prod_{j_{2}=1}^{k}\left|\alpha^{\left(i_{1}, j_{1}\right)}-\alpha^{\left(i_{2}, j_{2}\right)}\right|$.
Generators $\alpha_{0}$ of relative power integral bases of $\mathcal{O}$ over $M$ have relative index $I_{\mathcal{O} / M}\left(\alpha_{0}\right)=1$. The elements

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=A+\varepsilon \cdot \alpha_{0}, \tag{56}
\end{equation*}
$$

(where $\varepsilon$ is a unit in $M$ and $A \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ ) have the same relative index, and are called equivalent with $\alpha_{0}$ over $M$. Equivalently, all elements $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}$ generating a power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}$ (over $\mathbb{Q}$ ), that is having $I_{\mathcal{O}}(\alpha)=1$, must be of the form (56), where $\alpha_{0}$ has relative index $I_{\mathcal{O} / M}\left(\alpha_{0}\right)=1$. For $\alpha$ to generate a power integral basis of $\mathcal{O}$ we must also have $J(\alpha)=1$. Therefore for each $\alpha_{0} \in \mathcal{O}$ with relative index $I_{\mathcal{O} / M}\left(\alpha_{0}\right)=1$, we have to determine the unit $\varepsilon \in M$ and $A \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}$ such that $J(\alpha)=1$.

We consider the octic field $K_{c}=\mathbb{Q}(\xi)$, where $\xi$ is a root of the polynomial (2), where $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M} \backslash\{0, \pm 2\}$ and $c \neq \pm 1$ if $D=1$ or $3, M=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ and $D$ is a squarefree positive integer. Therefore, $m=[M: \mathbb{Q}]=2$ and $K_{c}$ is an extension of $M$ of degree $k=\left[K_{c}: M\right]=4$. We have proved that all generators of relative
power integral bases of $\mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}_{M}[\xi]$ over $M$ are given by $\alpha_{1}=\xi, \alpha_{2}=2 \xi-2 c \xi^{2}+\xi^{3}$, in the cases given in Theorem 1. Also, according to Remark 4.1, $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$ are the generators of relative power integral bases for all $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{M} \backslash\{0, \pm 2\}$ and $c \neq \pm 1$ if $D=1$ or 3 .

Proof of Theorem 3. Taking $\alpha_{0}=\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}$ we calculate $J(\alpha)$ with the $\alpha$ in (56). For $-D \equiv 2,3(\bmod 4)$ an integral basis of $M$ is given by $\{1, \vartheta\}$ with $\vartheta=\sqrt{-D}$. We have $\sqrt{\left|D_{M}\right|^{[K: M]}}=16 D^{2}$. We set $c=p+q \vartheta$ with integer parameters $p, q$. Let $A=a+b \vartheta$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Note that the product (55) in $J(\alpha)$ does not depend on $a$. We have $\varepsilon= \pm 1$ and for $-D=-1$ we also have $\varepsilon= \pm i$. The product

$$
\begin{equation*}
\prod_{j_{1}=1}^{4} \prod_{j_{2}=1}^{4}\left|\alpha^{\left(1, j_{1}\right)}-\alpha^{\left(2, j_{2}\right)}\right| \tag{57}
\end{equation*}
$$

is of degree 16 , depending on $D, p, q$ and $b$. We calculated this product by Maple using symmetric polynomials. The result is a very complicated polynomial with integer coefficients of the above variables. We found that in each case the product (57) was divisible by $4096 D^{2}$. Therefore dividing it by $16 D^{2}$ would give that the $J(\alpha)$ is divisible by 256 . This implies that we cannot have $J(\alpha)=1$, therefore we cannot have $I_{\mathcal{O}}(\alpha)=1$.

Computational aspects. It was very difficult to perform the calculation of the product (57). We had to do it in several steps making simplifications by using symmetric polynomials in each step. Even so, this calculation has reached the limits of the capacities of Maple. We were not able to perform this calculation for $-D \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$.

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Remark. The extended version of this paper with all technical details can be found on arXiv:1607.03064.

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