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by Fubini's theorem. Replacing  $b_j$   $(1 \le j \le n)$  by 0 and letting  $c_j$   $(1 \le j \le n)$  to be  $\infty$  in (6), we can infer

$$\lim_{\begin{subarray}{c} \lambda_{j} \to \infty \\ (1 \leqslant j \leqslant n) \end{subarray}} \int\limits_{0}^{\infty} \dots \int\limits_{0}^{\infty} \left\{ f(t_1 + x_1, \, \dots, \, t_n + x_n) - f(x_1, \, \dots, \, x_n) \right\} \times \\ \times \chi_{\lambda_1}(t_1) \, \dots \, \chi_{\lambda_n}(t_n) \, dt_1 \, \dots \, dt_n \, = \, 0$$

for the function defined as (5). Thus we get

THEOREM 6. Let  $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$  be a function defined as (5) over the whole space T. Then the Fourier inversion formula

(15) 
$$\lim_{\substack{\lambda_{j}\to\infty\\(1\leqslant j\leqslant n)}} \int_{-\lambda_{1}}^{\lambda_{1}} \dots \int_{-\lambda_{n}}^{\lambda_{n}} \hat{f}(t_{1},\ldots,t_{n}) e^{2\pi i(x_{1}t_{1}+\cdots+x_{n}t_{n})} dt_{1} \dots dt_{n} = f(x_{1},\ldots,x_{n})$$

holds.

Noting the relation (9), we also have

THEOREM 7. Let  $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$  be a function such that

$$\frac{\partial^{p_1+\cdots+p_n}}{\partial t_1^{p_1}\cdots\partial t_n^{p_n}}f(t_1,\ldots,t_n) \quad (p_j=0 \text{ or } 1)$$

are continuous and integrable over T. Then the Fourier inversion formula (15) also holds.

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INSTITUTE OF MATHEMATICS, COLLEGE OF GENERAL EDUCATION UNIVERSITY OF TOKYO

## The Diophantine equation $y^2 = Dx^4 + 1$ , II

by

J. H. E. COHN (London)

Ljunggren [4] has shown by a deep and complicated method that the equation of the title, where D is a positive integer not a square, has at most two solutions in positive integers x, y. Elementary methods have been employed for special values of D which specify the solutions more closely ([1], [3]).

Conditions of a simple type have been found under which there are no such solutions ([2], [5], [6]). We prove

THEOREM. Let  $D \neq 2$  be an integer such that  $u^2 - Dv^2 = 2\varepsilon$  has solutions where  $\varepsilon = \pm 1$ . Then neither  $y^2 = Dx^4 + 1$  nor  $y^2 = 4Dx^4 + 1$  has a solution with x > 0 unless at least one of the equations  $X^4 - DY^4 = 2\varepsilon$  or  $4X^4 - DY^4 = 2\varepsilon$  has solutions.

We shall require the following result, which is due to Nagell ([7], Theorems 8, 11).

LEMMA. Let D > 2 be an integer, not a square. Then

- (i) if the equation  $u^2 Dv^2 = 2$  has solutions in integers u, v then there is exactly one class of solutions, which is therefore ambiguous; if  $\alpha = U + VD^{1/2}$  is the fundamental solution, then  $\frac{1}{2}\alpha^2$  is the fundamental solution of  $u^2 Dv^2 = 1$ ;
  - (ii) ditto for the equation  $u^2 Dv^2 = -2$ ;
- (iii) at most one of the equations  $u^2 Dv^2 = -1$ , 2 and -2 has solutions in integers.

Proof of the theorem. Let  $\alpha = U + VD^{1/2}$  be the fundamental solution of  $u^2 - Dv^2 = 2\varepsilon$  and let  $\beta = \frac{1}{2}\alpha^2$ . If either  $y^2 = Dx^4 + 1$  or  $y^2 = 4Dx^4 + 1$  has any solution with x > 0, let x = 0 be the smallest positive integer which provides a solution of either of them. Then

$$y + x^2 D^{1/2}$$
 or  $y + 2x^2 D^{1/2} = \beta^n$ ,  $n \ge 1$ ,

i.e.

$$x^2$$
 or  $2x^2 = \frac{\beta^n - \beta'^n}{2D^{1/2}}$ .

If n were even, say n = 2m, then

$$x^2 \text{ or } 2x^2 = 2 \frac{\beta^m + \beta'^m}{2} \cdot \frac{\beta^m - \beta'^m}{2D^{1/2}} = 2hk,$$

say.

Now clearly both h and k are integers and  $h^2 - Dk^2 = 1$ , whence (h, k) = 1. Thus we must have  $k = x_1^2$  or  $2x_1^2$ , whence  $h^2 = Dx_1^4 + 1$  or  $4Dx_1^4 + 1$ . But this contradicts the assumption that x > 0 was the least integer for which either of these equations had solutions, since it is easily seen that  $0 < x_1 < x$ . Thus this case does not arise.

Thus n = 2m+1, say, where  $m \ge 0$ . Then

$$x^2 ext{ or } 2x^2 = rac{eta^{2m+1} - eta'^{2m+1}}{2D^{1/2}} = rac{lpha^{4m+2} - lpha'^{4m+2}}{2^{2m+2}D^{1/2}} = rac{lpha^{2m+1} + lpha'^{2m+1}}{2^{m+1}} \cdot rac{lpha^{2m+1} - lpha'^{2m+1}}{2^{m+1}D^{1/2}} = HK,$$

say.

Again, since  $a^2=2\beta$ , it is easily seen that both H and K are integers, and

$$H^2 - DK^2 = 4 \cdot 2^{-2m-2} (aa')^{2m+1} = 2\varepsilon.$$

Thus K must be odd and (H, K) = 1. Thus  $K = Y^2$  and  $H = X^2$  or  $2X^2$ , and so  $X^4 - DY^4 = 2\varepsilon$  or  $4X^4 - DY^4 = 2\varepsilon$ , which concludes the proof.

COROLLARY. Neither of the equations  $y^2 = Dx^4 + 1$ ,  $y^2 = 4Dx^4 + 1$  has any solutions in positive integers if

- (i)  $u^2 Dv^2 = 2$  has solutions in integers u, v and either D has any prime factor of which 2 is a biquadratic non-residue, or  $D \not\equiv 2$ , 14, 18, 62, 63, 78 or  $79 \pmod{80}$ ; nor if
  - (ii)  $u^2 Dv^2 = -2$  has solutions in integers u, v and either D has any prime factor of which -2 is a biquadratic non-residue, or  $D \not\equiv 2, 3, 6, 18, 22, 66$  or  $67 \pmod{80}$ .

This follows immediately from the theorem on consideration of residues modulo 5 and 16.

As an illustration we observe that since  $13^2 - 19 \cdot 3^2 = -2$  it follows that neither  $y^2 = 19x^4 + 1$  nor  $y^2 = 76x^4 + 1$  possesses solutions in positive integers. Neither of these equations is covered by [2], [5] or [6].

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UNIVERSITY OF GUELPH Guelph, Ontario, Canada ROYAL HOLLOWAY COLLEGE Egham, Surrey TW20 OEX England

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