# LINEAR INDEPENDENCE OF POWERS OF SINGULAR MODULI OF DEGREE THREE 

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#### Abstract

We show that two distinct singular moduli $j(\tau), j\left(\tau^{\prime}\right)$, such that for some positive integers $m$ and $n$ the numbers $1, j(\tau)^{m}$ and $j\left(\tau^{\prime}\right)^{n}$ are linearly dependent over $\mathbb{Q}$, generate the same number field of degree at most two. This completes a result of Riffaut ['Equations with powers of singular moduli', Int. J. Number Theory, to appear], who proved the above theorem except for two explicit pairs of exceptions consisting of numbers of degree three. The purpose of this article is to treat these two remaining cases.


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## 1. Introduction

Let $j$ be the classical $j$-function on the Poincaré plane $\mathbb{H}=\{z \in \mathbb{C}: \operatorname{Im} z>0\}$. A singular modulus is a number of the form $j(\tau)$, where $\tau \in \mathbb{H}$ is a complex algebraic number of degree two. It is known that $j(\tau)$ is an algebraic integer and, by class field theory,

$$
[\mathbb{Q}(j(\tau)): \mathbb{Q}]=[\mathbb{Q}(\tau, j(\tau)): \mathbb{Q}(\tau)]=h_{\Delta}
$$

is the class number of the order $O_{\Delta}=\mathbb{Z}[(\Delta+\sqrt{\Delta}) / 2]$, where $\Delta$ is the discriminant of the minimal polynomial of $\tau$ over $\mathbb{Z}$. Moreover, $\mathbb{Q}(\tau, j(\tau)) / \mathbb{Q}(\tau)$ is an abelian Galois extension with Galois group (canonically) isomorphic to the class group of the order $O_{\Delta}$. One can also interpret $O_{\Delta}$ as the automorphism ring of the lattice $\langle 1, \tau\rangle$ or of the corresponding elliptic curve. For details, see, for instance, [7, Sections 7 and 11].

Starting from the ground-breaking article of André [2], equations involving singular moduli were studied by many authors (see $[1,4,10]$ for a historical account and further references). In particular, Kühne [8] proved that the equation $x+y=1$ has no solutions in singular moduli $x, y$ and Bilu et al. [5] proved that the same conclusion holds for the equation $x y=1$. These results were generalised in [1] and [4]. In [1], solutions of all linear equations $A x+B y=C$, with $A, B, C \in \mathbb{Q}$, were determined. The main result of [1] is the following theorem.

[^0]Theorem 1.1 (Allombert et al. [1]). Let $x, y$ be two singular moduli and A, B, C rational numbers with $A B \neq 0$. Assume that $A x+B y=C$. Then we have one of the following options:
(trivial case) $A+B=C=0$ and $x=y$;
(rational case) $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$;
(quadratic case) $x \neq y$ and $x, y$ generate the same number field over $\mathbb{Q}$ of degree two.
This result is best possible, since in both the rational case and the quadratic case of Theorem 1.1 one easily finds $A, B, C \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $A B \neq 0$ and $A x+B y=C$. Moreover, the lists of singular moduli of degrees one and two over $\mathbb{Q}$ are widely available or can be easily generated using a suitable computer package, such as PARI [11]. In particular, there are 13 rational singular moduli and 29 pairs of $\mathbb{Q}$ conjugate singular moduli of degree two (see [4, Section 1] for more details). This means that Theorem 1.1 gives a completely explicit characterisation of all solutions.

In [10], Riffaut generalised Theorem 1.1 by introducing exponents; that is, instead of $A x+B y=C$, he considered the more general equation $A x^{m}+B y^{n}=C$, where the positive integer exponents $m, n$ are unknown as well. He proved that, if $x \neq y$, then $x, y$ generate the same number field of degree $h \leq 3$ and $h=3$ is possible only if either $\left\{\Delta, \Delta^{\prime}\right\}=\{-4 \times 23,-23\}$ or $\left\{\Delta, \Delta^{\prime}\right\}=\{-4 \times 31,-31\}$, where $\Delta, \Delta^{\prime}$ denote the respective discriminants of $x$ and $y$. In this article, we eliminate these two remaining cases. Here is the statement of our result.

Theorem 1.2. Let $x=j(\tau), y=j\left(\tau^{\prime}\right)$ be two singular moduli of respective discriminants $\Delta$ and $\Delta^{\prime}$ and $m, n$ two positive integers. If $\left\{\Delta, \Delta^{\prime}\right\}=\{-4 \times 23,-23\}$ or $\left\{\Delta, \Delta^{\prime}\right\}=$ $\{-4 \times 31,-31\}$, then the numbers $1, x^{m}, y^{n}$ are linearly independent over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Consequently, Theorem 1.2 together with [10, Theorem 1.5] completely solves the above equation for distinct singular moduli and we deduce the following theorem.

Theorem 1.3. Let $x=j(\tau), y=j\left(\tau^{\prime}\right)$ be two distinct singular moduli of respective discriminants $\Delta$ and $\Delta^{\prime}$ and $m, n$ two positive integers. Assume that $A x^{m}+B y^{n}=C$ for some $A, B, C \in \mathbb{Q}^{\times}$. Then $x$ and y generate the same number field over $\mathbb{Q}$ of degree at most two.

As previously, this result is now best possible for distinct singular moduli, since, if $h \leq 2$, then for all exponents $m, n$ one easily finds $A, B, C \in \mathbb{Q}^{\times}$with $A x^{m}+B y^{n}=C$. However, our current methods are still not able to handle the case $x=y$, which is equivalent to the following question: can a singular modulus of degree three or higher be a root of a trinomial with rational coefficients? Much about trinomials is known, but this knowledge is still insufficient to rule out such a possibility. Otherwise, the assumption $C \neq 0$ is seemingly restrictive, but, in fact, the case $C=0$ is contained in [10, Theorem 1.6].

Our calculations were performed using the PARI/GP package [11]. The sources are available from the second author.

## 2. Preliminaries

Below we briefly recall some basic facts about the conjugates of a singular modulus and the height of an algebraic number.
2.1. Fields generated by a power of a singular modulus. Let $j(\tau)$ be a singular modulus of discriminant $\Delta$. It is well known that the conjugates of $j(\tau)$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ can be described explicitly (see, for instance, [10, Subsection 2.2]). In particular, $j(\tau)$ admits one real conjugate which has the property that it is much larger in absolute value than all its other conjugates, called the dominant $j$-value of discriminant $\Delta$. As a useful consequence, a singular modulus and any of its powers generate the same field over $\mathbb{Q}$ (see [10, Lemma 2.6]). We reproduce this statement as Lemma 2.1.

Lemma 2.1. Let $x$ be a singular modulus of discriminant $\Delta$, with $|\Delta| \geq 11$, and $n$ a nonzero integer. Then $\mathbb{Q}(x)=\mathbb{Q}\left(x^{n}\right)$.
2.2. The height of a nonzero algebraic number. Let $\alpha$ be a nonzero algebraic number of degree $d$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ and $\alpha_{1}=\alpha, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{d}$ all its conjugates in $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$. The logarithmic height of $\alpha$, denoted by $\mathrm{h}(\alpha)$, is defined to be

$$
\mathrm{h}(\alpha)=\frac{1}{d}\left(\log |a|+\sum_{k=1}^{d} \log \max \left\{1,\left|\alpha_{k}\right|\right\}\right),
$$

where $a$ is the leading coefficient of the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$ in $\mathbb{Z}$. In particular, $\log |a|=0$ when $\alpha$ is an algebraic integer.

Here are some useful properties of the logarithmic height.

- For any nonzero algebraic number $\alpha$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{Q}^{*}$, we have $\mathrm{h}\left(\alpha^{\lambda}\right)=|\lambda| \mathrm{h}(\alpha)$. In particular, $\mathrm{h}(1 / \alpha)=\mathrm{h}(\alpha)$ (see [6, Lemma 1.5.18]).
- For any two nonzero algebraic numbers $\alpha$ and $\beta$, we have $\mathrm{h}(\alpha \beta) \leq \mathrm{h}(\alpha)+\mathrm{h}(\beta)$.


## 3. Linear forms in two logarithms

Let $\alpha$ be an algebraic number with $|\alpha|=1$, but not a root of unity, and $n$ a positive integer. We are interested in estimating the quantity $\lambda=1-\alpha^{n}$, which is closely related to a linear form in two logarithms.

Laurent et al. describe in [9] a lower bound on the absolute value of a general linear form in two logarithms (see [9, Théorème 3]). In our particular case, Mignotte et al. give in [3] a slight sharpening of this bound. The following theorem is a corollary of [3, Theorems A.1.2 and A.1.3].

Theorem 3.1. Let $\alpha$ be a complex algebraic number with $|\alpha|=1$, but not a root of unity, and $m>1$ an integer. There exists an effectively computable constant $c_{1}(\alpha)>0$, depending only on the degree $d$ of $\alpha$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ and its logarithmic height $\mathrm{h}(\alpha)$, such that

$$
\left|1-\alpha^{m}\right|>0.99 e^{-c_{1}(\alpha)(\log m)^{2}}
$$

Proof. We briefly detail the proof, especially to explain how to compute $c_{1}(\alpha)$ in terms of $d$ and $\mathrm{h}(\alpha)$.

We apply [3, Theorems A.1.2 and A.1.3] to the linear form

$$
\Lambda=2 i \pi-m \log \alpha,
$$

where we choose the principal complex logarithm (defined on $\mathbb{C} \backslash \mathbb{R}^{-}$) for $\log \alpha$. We have

$$
\log |\Lambda|>-\left(9.03 \mathcal{H}^{2}+0.23\right)(D \mathrm{~h}(\alpha)+25.84)-2 \mathcal{H}-2 \log \mathcal{H}-0.7 D+2.07
$$

where $D=d / 2$ and $\mathcal{H}=D(\log m-0.96)+4.49 \leq c_{1}^{\prime}(d) \log m$ for $m \geq 13$, with

$$
c_{1}^{\prime}(d)=D+\max \left\{0, \frac{4.49-0.96 D}{\log 13}\right\}>0 .
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \log |\Lambda|>-(\log m)^{2}\left(9.03 c_{1}^{\prime}(d)^{2}(D \mathrm{~h}(\alpha)+25.84)+\frac{2 c_{1}^{\prime}(d)}{\log m}+\frac{2 \log \log m}{(\log m)^{2}}\right. \\
&\left.+\frac{0.23(D h(\alpha)+25.84)+2 \log c_{1}^{\prime}(d)+0.7 D-2.07}{(\log m)^{2}}\right) \\
&>-c_{1}(\alpha)(\log m)^{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

with

$$
\begin{aligned}
& c_{1}(\alpha)=9.03 c_{1}^{\prime}(d)^{2}(\operatorname{Dh}(\alpha)+25.84)+\frac{2 c_{1}^{\prime}(d)}{\log 13}+\frac{2 \log \log 13}{(\log 13)^{2}} \\
&+ \frac{0.23(D \mathrm{hh}(\alpha)+25.84)+2 \log c_{1}^{\prime}(d)+0.7 D-2.07}{(\log 13)^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

By the mean value theorem,

$$
\left|1-\alpha^{m}\right|>\frac{e^{-c_{1}(\alpha)(\log m)^{2}}}{1+e^{-c_{1}(\alpha)(\log m)^{2}}}>0.99 e^{-c_{1}(\alpha)(\log m)^{2}}
$$

In practice, if $\alpha$ is explicitly known (as an algebraic number in a number field $L$ ), it is possible to compute $c_{1}(\alpha)$ for $m \geq 13$. For $m<13$, one just has to estimate directly $\left|1-\alpha^{m}\right|$.

Another way of estimating $1-\alpha^{m}$ is to reduce it modulo a prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ of $O_{L}$. More precisely, we want to evaluate its valuation $v_{p}\left(1-\alpha^{m}\right)$ at $\mathfrak{p}$; for simplicity, for an element $z \in L$, we write $v_{p}(z)$ instead of $v_{p}\left(z O_{L}\right)$. This can be obtained as follows.

Proposition 3.2. Let $\alpha$ be an algebraic integer that is not a root of unity in a number field $L$ of degree $d$ and $m$ a positive integer. Let $\mathfrak{p}$ be a prime ideal of $O_{L}$ over a prime number $p$. Assume that $\mathfrak{p} \nmid \alpha$. Denote by $m_{0}$ the order of $\alpha$ in $\mathcal{O}_{L} / \mathfrak{p}$, that is, the least positive integer such that $1-\alpha^{m_{0}}=0 \bmod \mathfrak{p}$, and $v_{0}=v_{p}\left(1-\alpha^{m_{0}}\right)$. Then, assuming that $p>d+1$,

$$
v_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(1-\alpha^{m}\right)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } m_{0} \nmid m, \\ s v_{\mathfrak{p}}(p)+v_{0} & \text { if } m=m_{0} p^{s} r, \operatorname{gcd}(p, r)=1 .\end{cases}
$$

Proof. If $m_{0} \nmid m$, it is clear that $1-\alpha^{m} \not \equiv 0 \bmod \mathfrak{p}$; hence, $v_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(1-\alpha^{m}\right)=0$. Otherwise, write $m=m_{0} p^{s} r$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(p, r)=1$. We proceed by induction on $s \geq 0$. For $s=0$, factoring $1-\alpha^{m}$ gives

$$
1-\alpha^{m}=\left(1-\alpha^{m_{0}}\right)\left(\sum_{l=0}^{r-1} \alpha^{m_{0} l}\right) .
$$

Since $\alpha^{m_{0} l} \equiv 1 \bmod \mathfrak{p}$ for all $l \in\{0, \ldots, r-1\}$, we deduce that

$$
v_{p}\left(1-\alpha^{m}\right)=v_{p}\left(1-\alpha^{m_{0}}\right)+v_{p}(r)=v_{0} .
$$

We now let $\beta=\alpha^{r m_{0}}$ and treat the case $s=1$. Writing $\beta=1+\lambda$, where $\lambda \in \mathfrak{p}$,

$$
\frac{\beta^{p}-1}{\beta-1}=\frac{(1+\lambda)^{p}-1}{\lambda}=\sum_{k=1}^{p-1}\binom{p}{k} \lambda^{k-1}+\lambda^{p-1}
$$

On the right-hand side, $v_{\mathfrak{p}}(\lambda) \geq 1$ and $v_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(\lambda^{p-1}\right) \geq(p-1)>d \geq v_{\mathfrak{p}}(p)$, so

$$
v_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{p-1}\binom{p}{k} \lambda^{k-1}+\lambda^{p-1}\right)=v_{\mathfrak{p}}(p)
$$

Hence, for $s=1$,

$$
v_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(1-\alpha^{m}\right)=v_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(1-\alpha^{m_{0} r}\right)+v_{p}\left(\frac{\beta^{p}-1}{\beta-1}\right)=v_{0}+v_{p}(p)
$$

The statement now follows by induction on $s$, where the induction step from $s$ to $s+1$ is done as above (by replacing $\alpha$ by $\alpha^{p^{s}}$ ).

## 4. Proof of Theorem 1.2

Let $x=j(\tau), y=j\left(\tau^{\prime}\right)$ be two singular moduli of respective discriminants $\Delta$ and $\Delta^{\prime}$, with $\left\{\Delta, \Delta^{\prime}\right\}=\{-4 \times 23,-23\}$ or $\left\{\Delta, \Delta^{\prime}\right\}=\{-4 \times 31,-31\}$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A x^{m}+B y^{n}=C \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some $A, B, C \in \mathbb{Q}^{\times}$and $m, n$ positive integers.
Both $x$ and $y$ are of degree three over $\mathbb{Q}$ and admit one real conjugate corresponding to the dominant $j$-value and two complex conjugates. If $x$ is real, then $y$ is also real. Indeed, if not, then, together with (4.1),

$$
A x^{m}+B \bar{y}^{n}=C .
$$

This gives $y^{n}=\bar{y}^{n}$, which contradicts Lemma 2.1.
The equation (4.1) implies that $\mathbb{Q}\left(x^{m}\right)=\mathbb{Q}\left(y^{n}\right)$; hence, $\mathbb{Q}(x)=\mathbb{Q}(y)$ by Lemma 2.1. In particular, the Galois orbit of $(x, y)$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ has exactly three elements and each conjugate of $x$ occurs exactly once as the first coordinate of a point in the orbit, just as each conjugate of $y$ occurs exactly once as the second coordinate.

We denote by $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right),\left(x_{3}, y_{3}\right)$ the conjugates of $(x, y)$, with $x_{1}, y_{1}$ real, and $x_{2}, x_{3}$ and $y_{2}, y_{3}$ complex conjugates. By (4.1) again, the points $\left(x_{i}^{m}, y_{i}^{n}\right), i \in\{1,2,3\}$, are collinear. We can write the relation of collinearity of these points in one of the following two ways:

$$
\begin{gather*}
\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & x_{1}^{m} & y_{1}^{n} \\
1 & x_{2}^{m} & y_{2}^{n} \\
1 & x_{3}^{m} & y_{3}^{n}
\end{array}\right|=0  \tag{4.2}\\
\left(\frac{x_{1}}{x_{2}}\right)^{-m}\left(\frac{y_{1}}{y_{2}}\right)^{n}=\frac{1-\left(\frac{y_{3}}{y_{2}}\right)^{n}-\left(\frac{x_{3}}{x_{1}}\right)^{m}}{1-\left(\frac{y_{3}}{y_{1}}\right)^{n}-\left(\frac{x_{3}}{x_{2}}\right)^{m}} . \tag{4.3}
\end{gather*}
$$

We focus first on the case $\left\{\Delta, \Delta^{\prime}\right\}=\{-4 \times 23,-23\}$ and we detail afterwards the slight differences in the treatment of the case $\left\{\Delta, \Delta^{\prime}\right\}=\{-4 \times 31,-31\}$. We denote by $L$ the Galois closure of $\mathbb{Q}(x)=\mathbb{Q}(y)$, which, by definition, contains all the $x_{i}$ and $y_{i}$.

As announced above, we consider the case $\Delta=4 \Delta^{\prime}=-4 \times 23$. Using PARI, one can find a prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ of $O_{L}$ over $p=23$ such that $\mathfrak{p}\left|x_{2} O_{L}, \mathfrak{p}\right| x_{3} O_{L}$, but $\mathfrak{p} \nmid x_{1} y_{2} y_{3} O_{L}$. Hence, modulo $\mathfrak{p}^{m}$, (4.2) becomes

$$
1-\alpha^{n}=0 \bmod \mathfrak{p}^{m},
$$

with $\alpha=y_{3} / y_{2}$. On the one hand, we deduce that $m \leq v_{p}\left(1-\alpha^{n}\right)$. On the other hand, we apply Proposition 3.2, checking first that $1-\alpha=0 \bmod \mathfrak{p}, v_{p}(1-\alpha)=1$, $v_{p}(p)=2<6<22=p-1$; writing $n=p^{s} r$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(p, r)=1$,

$$
v_{p}\left(1-\alpha^{n}\right)=s v_{p}(p)+1=2 s+1 .
$$

Consequently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
m \leq 2 \frac{\log n}{\log 23}+1 \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, we want to estimate the expression on the right-hand side of (4.3) in terms of $m$ and $n$ (in fact, only in terms of $n$ thanks to (4.4)), in order to obtain a bound on $n$. The principal difficulty is to find a lower bound of the absolute value of its denominator. Since $y_{3} / y_{1}$ is close to 0 , it depends essentially on the quantity $1-\beta^{m}$ with $\beta=x_{3} / x_{2}$. Since $|\beta|=1$ and $\beta$ is not a root of unity, then, according to Theorem 3.1, there exists a constant $c_{1}(\beta)>0$ such that

$$
\left|1-\beta^{m}\right|>0.99 e^{-c_{1}(\beta)(\log m)^{2}}
$$

Explicitly, for $m \geq 13$, we can choose $c_{1}(\beta)=4973.14$. It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|1-\left(\frac{y_{3}}{y_{1}}\right)^{n}-\left(\frac{x_{3}}{x_{2}}\right)^{m}\right| & >0.99 \exp \left(-4973.15(\log m)^{2}\right)-\left|\frac{y_{3}}{y_{1}}\right|^{n} \\
& >0.99 \exp \left(-4973.14\left(\log \left(2 \frac{\log n}{\log 23}+1\right)\right)^{2}\right)-\left|\frac{y_{3}}{y_{1}}\right|^{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

Table 1. Constants $c_{2}(m)$ and bounds on $n$ for each $m<13$, in the case $\Delta=4 \Delta^{\prime}=-4 \times 23$.

| $m$ | $c_{2}(m)$ | Upper bound of $n$ |
| ---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1.15 | 2 |
| 2 | 1.21 | 5 |
| 3 | 11.97 | 8 |
| 4 | 1.10 | 10 |
| 5 | 1.28 | 13 |
| 6 | 6.00 | 16 |
| 7 | 1.07 | 18 |
| 8 | 1.38 | 21 |
| 9 | 4.02 | 24 |
| 10 | 1.04 | 26 |
| 11 | 1.50 | 29 |
| 12 | 3.04 | 32 |

(recall the inequality (4.4)). By a quick calculation, we observe that the last term of the previous inequality is positive provided that $n>2074$. More specifically, if $n>2075$, then

$$
\left|1-\left(\frac{y_{3}}{y_{1}}\right)^{n}-\left(\frac{x_{3}}{x_{2}}\right)^{m}\right|>0.98 \exp \left(-4973.14\left(\log \left(2 \frac{\log n}{\log 23}+1\right)\right)^{2}\right)
$$

Finally, for $m \geq 13$ and $n>2075$,

$$
\left|\frac{x_{1}}{x_{2}}\right|^{-m}\left|\frac{y_{1}}{y_{2}}\right|^{n} \leq 2.05 \exp \left(4973.14\left(\log \left(2 \frac{\log n}{\log 23}+1\right)\right)^{2}\right)
$$

and

$$
-\left(2 \frac{\log n}{\log 23}+1\right) \log \left|\frac{x_{1}}{x_{2}}\right|+n \log \left|\frac{y_{1}}{y_{2}}\right| \leq \log 2.05+4973.14\left(\log \left(2 \frac{\log n}{\log 23}+1\right)\right)^{2}
$$

This last inequality yields $n \leq 2092$ and then (4.4) gives $m \leq 5$. This is in contradiction with the previous assumptions $m \geq 13$ and $n>2075$. Therefore, either $m<13$ or $n \leq 2075$. In both cases, $m<13$ and, for each possible $m$, we can explicitly compute a constant $c_{2}(m)$ such that

$$
\left|\frac{x_{1}}{x_{2}}\right|^{-m}\left|\frac{y_{1}}{y_{2}}\right|^{n} \leq c_{2}(m) .
$$

This allows us to bound $n$. Table 1 summarises all constants $c_{2}(m)$ and all bounds we obtain. Again, inequality (4.4) eliminates all entries of Table 1 with $m \geq 3$. Consequently, either $m=1$ and $n \leq 2$, or $m=2$ and $n \leq 5$. For each of these remaining pairs ( $m, n$ ), a direct calculation shows that the determinant in (4.2) does not vanish.

To finish, we repeat this process for the case $\Delta=4 \Delta^{\prime}=-4 \times 31$. In this case, one can find a prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ of $O_{L}$ over $p=11$ such that $\mathfrak{p}\left|x_{2} O_{L}, \mathfrak{p}\right| x_{3} O_{L}$, but $\mathfrak{p} \nmid x_{1} y_{2} y_{3} O_{L}$ as before and

$$
\begin{equation*}
m \leq \frac{\log n}{\log 11}+2 \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Table 2. Constants $c_{2}(m)$ and bounds on $n$ for each $m<13$, in the case $\Delta=4 \Delta^{\prime}=-4 \times 31$.

| $m$ | $c_{2}(m)$ | Upper bound of $n$ |
| ---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1.13 | 3 |
| 2 | 1.25 | 6 |
| 3 | 6.17 | 10 |
| 4 | 1.06 | 13 |
| 5 | 1.44 | 16 |
| 6 | 3.13 | 19 |
| 7 | 1.02 | 22 |
| 8 | 1.76 | 26 |
| 9 | 2.13 | 29 |
| 10 | 1.01 | 32 |
| 11 | 2.33 | 36 |
| 12 | 1.65 | 39 |

We obtain as well, for $m \geq 13$ and $n>1440$,

$$
\left|\frac{x_{1}}{x_{2}}\right|^{-m}\left|\frac{y_{1}}{y_{2}}\right|^{n} \leq 2.05 \exp \left(4820.16\left(\log \left(\frac{\log n}{\log 11}+2\right)\right)^{2}\right) ;
$$

then

$$
-\left(\frac{\log n}{\log 11}+2\right) \log \left|\frac{x_{1}}{x_{2}}\right|+n \log \left|\frac{y_{1}}{y_{2}}\right| \leq \log 2.05+4820.16\left(\log \left(\frac{\log n}{\log 11}+2\right)\right)^{2},
$$

which yields $n \leq 1720$ and $m \leq 5$; again a contradiction. For each possible $m<13$, we compute a constant $c_{2}(m)$ as defined above and we deduce a bound on $n$. This gives Table 2. Inequality (4.5) eliminates all entries of Table 2 with $m \geq 3$. Consequently, either $m=1$ and $n \leq 3$, or $m=2$ and $n \leq 6$. Each of these remaining possibilities can be excluded by a direct calculation showing that the respective determinant does not vanish.

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