

A note on the divisibility of class numbers of imaginary quadratic fields $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{a^2 - k^n})$

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Abstract: Let $n > 1$ be an integer, $k > 1$ be an odd integer and $a > 0$ be an even integer. Suppose $a^2 + b^2d = k^n$, where $d \neq 1, 3$ is a positive odd square-free integer and $\gcd(a, bd) = 1$. In this paper, we describe imaginary quadratic fields $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{a^2 - k^n})$ explicitly whose class numbers are divisible by n if $d \equiv 1, 5, 7 \pmod{8}$ or $d \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ with $(n, 3) = 1$ under certain conditions.

Key words: Class numbers; imaginary quadratic fields; primitive divisors of Lucas numbers.

1. Introduction. Let $n \geq 3$, and $D \geq 63$ be a square-free integer such that $t^2D = K^n - x^2$. Here t, K, x are positive integers with $(K, 2x) = 1$. By Mollin [Mo], Murty [Mu1], [Mu2] and Soundararajan [So], it is known that if $K^n < (D + 1)^2$, then $n \mid h(-D)$, where $h(-D)$ denotes the class number of imaginary quadratic fields $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. In this paper, we consider whether $n \mid h(-D)$ is satisfied or not without the condition $K^n < (D + 1)^2$. By using a result on the primitive divisors of Lucas numbers, we prove the following.

Theorem 1.1. *Let $n > 1$ be an integer, $k > 1$ be an odd integer and $a > 0$ be an even integer. Suppose $a^2 + b^2d = k^n$, where $d \neq 1, 3$ is a positive odd square-free integer, $b > 0$ and $\gcd(a, bd) = 1$. And assume $b \mid^* d$. The condition $b \mid^* d$ denotes all prime factors of b divide d .*

(1) *If $d \equiv 1, 5, 7 \pmod{8}$ and the following conditions (i), (ii), (iii) are not satisfied, then $n \mid h(-d)$.*

(i) $(a, b, d, k, n) = (2759646, 1, 341, 377, 5)$,

(ii) $(a, b^2d, k, n) =$

$$\left(\frac{m}{2} \cdot (2m^2 + \varepsilon \cdot 3), \frac{3m^2 + \varepsilon \cdot 4}{4}, m^2 + \varepsilon, 3 \right),$$

where $m > 0$ with $m \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ and $\varepsilon = \pm 1$,

(iii) $(a, b^2d, k^n) = \left(\frac{m}{2} \cdot \mid -2m^2 + \varepsilon \cdot 3^{l+1} \mid, \right.$
 $\left. 3^{2l} \cdot \frac{3m^2 - \varepsilon \cdot 4 \cdot 3^l}{4}, (m^2 - \varepsilon \cdot 3^l)^3 \right),$

where $m > 0$ with $m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ and $m \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$, $l > 0$ and $\varepsilon = \pm 1$. In the case (i), we have $5 \nmid h(-341) = 28$ and, in the two cases (ii) and (iii), we have $n/3 \mid h(-d)$.

(2.1) *If $d \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ and $(n, 3) = 1$, then $n \mid h(-d)$ except the case*

$$(a, b, d, k, n) = (22434, 1, 19, 55, 5).$$

In fact, we have $5 \nmid h(-19) = 1$.

(2.2) *If $d \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ and $(n, 3) \neq 1$, then $n/3 \mid h(-d)$.*

The method of the proof of this theorem is based on the result of Cao [Ca2].

Remark 1. If $b = 1$, the condition $b \mid^* d$ is always satisfied. Therefore, this theorem contains the case where $a^2 - k^n < 0$ is square-free.

The above theorem implies that we can describe imaginary quadratic fields $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{a^2 - k^n})$ explicitly whose class numbers may not be divisible by n under the conditions when $b \mid^* d$, $2 \mid a$, $2 \nmid k$ and $\gcd(a, bd) = 1$.

Example. (A.1) For the Case (ii) and (iii) of Theorem 1.1 (1), examples with $n/3 \mid h(-d)$ and $n \nmid h(-d)$ exist.

(A.1.1) For $m = 4$ in Case (ii) of Theorem 1.1 (1), we have

$$(a, b, d, k, n) = \begin{cases} (70, 1, 13, 17, 3) & \text{if } \varepsilon = 1 \\ (58, 1, 11, 15, 3) & \text{if } \varepsilon = -1. \end{cases}$$

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In these cases, we have $1 = 3/3 \mid h(-13) = 2$ and $3 \nmid h(-13)$, $1 = 3/3 \mid h(-11) = 1$ and $3 \nmid h(-11)$ respectively.

(A.1.2) For $m = 16$, $l = 2$, $\varepsilon = 1$ in Case (iii) of Theorem 1.1 (1), we have

$$(a, b, d, k, n) = (3880, 9, 183, 247, 3).$$

In this case, we have $1 = 3/3 \mid h(-183) = 8$ and $3 \nmid h(-183)$. For $m = 4$, $l = 2$, $\varepsilon = -1$, $k = 5$ in Case (iii) of Theorem 1.1 (1), we have

$$(a, b, d, k, n) = (118, 9, 21, 5, 6).$$

In this case, we have $2 = 6/3 \mid h(-21) = 4$ and $6 \nmid h(-21)$.

(A.2) For the Case (ii) and (iii) of Theorem 1.1 (1), examples with $n \mid h(-d)$ exist.

(A.2.1) For $m = 12$ in Case (ii) of Theorem 1.1 (1), we have

$$(a, b, d, k, n) = \begin{cases} (1746, 1, 109, 145, 3) & \text{if } \varepsilon = 1 \\ (1710, 1, 107, 143, 3) & \text{if } \varepsilon = -1. \end{cases}$$

In these cases, we have $3 \mid h(-109) = 6$ and $3 \mid h(-107) = 3$ respectively.

(A.2.2) For $m = 32$, $l = 2$, $\varepsilon = 1$ in Case (iii) of Theorem 1.1 (1), we have

$$(a, b, d, k, n) = (32336, 9, 759, 1015, 3).$$

In this case, we have $3 \mid h(-759) = 24$. For $m = 16$, $l = 2$, $\varepsilon = -1$ in Case (iii) of Theorem 1.1 (1), we have

$$(a, b, d, k, n) = (4312, 9, 201, 265, 3).$$

In this case, we have $3 \mid h(-201) = 12$.

(B.1) For Theorem 1.1 (2.2), an example with $n/3 \mid h(-d)$ and $n \nmid h(-d)$ exists. For the case when $(a, b, d, k, n) = (4, 1, 11, 3, 3)$, we have $3/3 \mid h(-11) = 1$ and $3 \nmid h(-11)$.

(B.2) For Theorem 1.1 (2.2), an example with $n \mid h(-d)$ exists. For the case when $(a, b, d, k, n) = (2, 1, 339, 7, 3)$, we have $3 \mid h(-339) = 6$.

2. Preliminaries.

Lemma 2.1. *Let $k > 1$, y be odd integers and $x > 0$ be an even integer. Suppose $x^2 + y^2D = k^z$, where $D \neq 1, 3$ is a positive square-free integer, $\gcd(D, k) = \gcd(x, y) = 1$ and $z > 1$.*

(1) *If $-D \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then we have*

$$\begin{aligned} x + y\sqrt{-D} &= \pm(X_1 + Y_1\sqrt{-D})^t, \\ z &= z_1t \quad (z_1 > 0), \end{aligned}$$

where X_1, Y_1, z_1 are integers such that $X_1^2 + DY_1^2 = k^{z_1}$, $\gcd(X_1, Y_1) = 1$ and $h(-D) \equiv 0 \pmod{z_1}$.

(2) *If $-D \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then we have*

$$\begin{aligned} x + y\sqrt{-D} &= \pm \left(\frac{X_1 + Y_1\sqrt{-D}}{2} \right)^t, \\ z &= z_1t \quad (z_1 > 0), \end{aligned}$$

where X_1, Y_1, z_1 are integers such that $X_1^2 + DY_1^2 = 4k^{z_1}$, $X_1 \equiv Y_1 \pmod{2}$ and $h(-D) \equiv 0 \pmod{z_1}$.

Proof. We can prove this in a way similar to the proof of [Ca1, Lemma 1]. (1) Since $x^2 + y^2D = k^z$, we have

$$(x + y\sqrt{-D})(x - y\sqrt{-D}) = k^z.$$

From $\gcd(D, k) = \gcd(x, y) = 1$, $x + y\sqrt{-D}$ and $x - y\sqrt{-D}$ are coprime integers of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-D})}$. Then, we can write

$$(x + y\sqrt{-D}) = A^z$$

for some ideal A of the field $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. Let $z_1 := \gcd(h(-D), z)$. We can write $z_1 = ih(-D) + jz$ for some $i, j \in \mathbf{Z}$ and we have

$$A^{z_1} = (A^{h(-D)})^i \cdot (A^z)^j \sim (1)^i \cdot (1)^j \sim (1).$$

This implies that A^{z_1} is a principal ideal and we obtain

$$A^{z_1} = (X_1 + Y_1\sqrt{-D})$$

for some $X_1, Y_1 \in \mathbf{Z}$. Since $\gcd(h(-D), z) = z_1$, we have $z = z_1t$ for some $t \in \mathbf{Z}$. Then, we obtain

$$(x + y\sqrt{-D}) = (A^{z_1})^t = (X_1 + Y_1\sqrt{-D})^t.$$

The assumption $D \neq 1, 3$ implies $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-D})}^\times = \{\pm 1\}$. Therefore, we have

$$x + y\sqrt{-D} = \pm(X_1 + Y_1\sqrt{-D})^t.$$

(2) We can obtain a proof in a way similar to the above case. Since $-D \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, we have $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-D})} = \mathbf{Z}[\frac{1+\sqrt{-D}}{2}]$. Then, we obtain

$$A^{z_1} = \left(\frac{X_1 + Y_1\sqrt{-D}}{2} \right)$$

for some $X_1, Y_1 \in \mathbf{Z}$ with $X_1 \equiv Y_1 \pmod{2}$. From this and $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-D})}^\times = \{\pm 1\}$, we have

$$x + y\sqrt{-D} = \pm \left(\frac{X_1 + Y_1\sqrt{-D}}{2} \right)^t.$$

□

Lemma 2.2 (C. Ko [Ko] and V. A. Lebesgue (cf. [Ca2, Lemma 3.7])). *The equation $x^2 - \lambda = y^n$, $n > 1$, $\lambda = \pm 1$ has the only positive integer solution $(x, y, n, \lambda) = (3, 2, 3, 1)$.*

Lemma 2.3 (R. Stanley [St, Theorem 8a, Theorem 14a]).

(1) *The equation $y^2 - 3^m = x^3$, $(x, 3) = 1$, $m, y \geq 0$ has just five integer solutions $(m, x, y) = (0, -1, 0)$, $(0, 2, 3)$, $(1, 1, 2)$, $(2, -2, 1)$ and $(2, 40, 253)$.*

(2) *The equation $y^2 + 3^m = x^3$, $(x, 3) = 1$, $m, y \geq 0$ has just three integer solutions $(m, x, y) = (0, 1, 0)$, $(4, 13, 46)$ and $(5, 7, 10)$.*

A *Lucas pair* is a pair (A, B) of algebraic integers such that $A + B$ and AB are non-zero coprime rational integers and A/B is not a root of unity. Given a Lucas pair (A, B) , the corresponding sequence of Lucas numbers is defined by

$$u_n = u_n(A, B) = \frac{A^n - B^n}{A - B},$$

where $n \in \mathbf{N} \cup \{0\}$. Let (A, B) be a Lucas pair. A prime number p is a *primitive divisor of the Lucas number* $u_n(A, B)$ if p divides u_n but does not divide $(A - B)^2 u_1 \cdots u_{n-1}$. We say that a Lucas number is an *n -defective Lucas number* if $u_n(A, B)$ has no primitive divisor.

Lemma 2.4 (Y. Bilu, G. Hanrot and P. M. Voutier [BHV]). *For any integer $n > 30$, every Lucas number is no n -defective. Further, for any positive integer $n \leq 30$, all n -defective Lucas numbers are explicitly determined.*

All n -defective ($n > 1$) Lucas numbers are given in [BHV, Table 1, 3] and [Mou, Theorem 4.1]. By [BHV, Remark 1.1, Proposition 2.1(i) and Corollary 2.2], we also obtain the following (cf. [Ca2, Lemma 3.4]).

Lemma 2.5. *If p is a primitive divisor of the Lucas number $u_n(A, B)$, then $n \equiv \pm 1 \pmod p$.*

We use these results for the proof of Theorem 1.1 mainly.

3. Proof of Theorem 1.1.

Case 1 ($d \equiv 1 \pmod 4$). By Lemma 2.1 (1), we have

$$a + b\sqrt{-d} = \pm(x_1 + y_1\sqrt{-d})^r, \quad n = z_1 r,$$

where x_1, y_1, z_1 are integers such that $x_1^2 + y_1^2 d = k^{z_1}$, $\gcd(x_1, y_1 d) = 1$, $z_1 > 0$ and $h(-d) \equiv 0 \pmod{z_1}$. If r is even, we can write $r = 2r'$ ($r' \in \mathbf{Z}$). We have

$$a + b\sqrt{-d} = \pm(\alpha^2 - d\beta^2) \pm 2\alpha\beta\sqrt{-d},$$

where $(x_1 + y_1\sqrt{-d})^{r'} = \alpha + \beta\sqrt{-d}$ ($\alpha, \beta \in \mathbf{Z}$). This is a contradiction with $2 \nmid b$. Then, we obtain $2 \nmid r$. Let $\varepsilon := |x_1| + |y_1| \cdot \sqrt{-d}$ and $\bar{\varepsilon} := |x_1| - |y_1| \cdot \sqrt{-d}$. Then, we have

$$b = \left| \frac{\bar{\varepsilon}^r - \varepsilon^r}{\bar{\varepsilon} - \varepsilon} \right| \cdot |y_1|.$$

Let

$$b_1 := \left| \frac{\bar{\varepsilon}^r - \varepsilon^r}{\bar{\varepsilon} - \varepsilon} \right|.$$

By $b = b_1 \cdot |y_1|$ and $b \mid^* d$, we have $b_1 \mid^* d$. We obtain that $\frac{\bar{\varepsilon}^r - \varepsilon^r}{\bar{\varepsilon} - \varepsilon}$ satisfies the definition of the r -th Lucas number. We have

$$b_1 = \left| \binom{r}{1} |x_1|^{r-1} + \binom{r}{3} |x_1|^{r-3} \cdot (|y_1| \cdot \sqrt{-d})^2 + \cdots + \binom{r}{r} (|y_1| \cdot \sqrt{-d})^{r-1} \right|.$$

For any prime number q with $q \mid b_1$, we have $q \mid d$ by $b_1 \mid^* d$. Then, we obtain $b_1 \equiv rx_1^{r-1} \equiv 0 \pmod q$. Since $(x_1, y_1 d) = 1$, we have $q \nmid x_1$, that is, $q \mid r$. By Lemma 2.5, this implies that $\frac{\bar{\varepsilon}^r - \varepsilon^r}{\bar{\varepsilon} - \varepsilon}$ has no primitive divisors. By Lemma 2.4, [BHV, Table 1, 3] and [Mou, Theorem 4.1], we have $r = 1, 3, 5$. For $r = 5$, we obtain $(2|x_1|, -4y_1^2 d) = (12, -1364)$, that is, $(a, b, d, k, n) = (2759646, 1, 341, 377, 5)$. For $r = 3$, we obtain (I) $(2|x_1|, -4y_1^2 d) = (m, -4 - 3m^2)$, (II) $(2|x_1|, -4y_1^2 d) = (m, 4 - 3m^2)$ with $m > 1$, (III) $(2|x_1|, -4y_1^2 d) = (m, 4 \cdot 3^l \cdot \varepsilon - 3m^2)$ with $m > 0$, $m \not\equiv 0 \pmod 3$, $l > 0$, $\varepsilon = \pm 1$ and $(\varepsilon, k, m) \neq (1, 1, 2)$. For the case (I), we have $m^2 + 1 = k^{z_1}$. By Lemma 2.2, we get $z_1 = 1$, that is, $n = 3$. Since $a + b\sqrt{-d} = \pm(x_1 + y_1\sqrt{-d})^3$ and $y_1^2 d = 1 + \frac{3}{4}m^2$, we obtain $b_1 = 1$, that is, $b^2 d = y_1^2 d = 1 + \frac{3}{4}m^2$. By $a = \pm x_1(x_1^2 - 3y_1^2 d)$, $|x_1| = \frac{m}{2} > 0$, we obtain $a = \frac{m}{2}(2m^2 + 3)$. For the case (II), (III), we can obtain $a, b^2 d, k^{z_1}$ in a way similar to the case (I) by using Lemma 2.2. Since a is even and

$$a = \frac{m}{2} \cdot (2m^2 + \varepsilon \cdot 3) \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{m}{2} \cdot |-2m^2 + \varepsilon \cdot 3^{l+1}|,$$

we have $m \equiv 0 \pmod 4$. Therefore, the condition $(\varepsilon, k, m) \neq (1, 1, 2)$ of the case (III) is not needed. For $r = 1$, we have $n = z_1$. From this and $h(-d) \equiv 0 \pmod{z_1}$, we obtain $n \mid h(-d)$.

Case 2 ($d \equiv 7 \pmod 8$). We use the following result.

Lemma 3.1 (Y. Kishi [Ki] and A. Ito [It]).

(1) *If $d \equiv 3 \pmod 8$, for any integer $s > 0$,*

$$\left(\frac{u + v\sqrt{-d}}{2} \right)^s \in \mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-d}] \Leftrightarrow 3 \mid s,$$

where $u \equiv v \equiv 1 \pmod 2$.

(2) *If $d \equiv 7 \pmod 8$, for any integer $s > 0$,*

$$\left(\frac{u + v\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^s \notin \mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-d}],$$

where $u \equiv v \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$.

Proof. The statement (1) is contained in [Ki, p.190]. The proof is easy. To show (2), it is enough to show that

$$\frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left(\frac{u + v\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^s + \left(\frac{u - v\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^s \right\} \notin \mathbf{Z}$$

for any integer $s > 0$. The following argument is contained in [It], but we reproduce it here for the convenience of readers. Since $-d \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, we can consider $\sqrt{-d} \in \mathbf{Z}_2^\times$, where \mathbf{Z}_2^\times denotes the unit group of the ring \mathbf{Z}_2 of 2-adic integers. Then, to show the above statement is equivalent to show that

$$\frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left(\frac{u + v\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^s + \left(\frac{u - v\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^s \right\} \notin \mathbf{Z}_2.$$

Since $\sqrt{-d} \equiv 1 \pmod{2\mathbf{Z}_2}$ and v is odd, we have $v\sqrt{-d} \equiv 1, 3 \pmod{4\mathbf{Z}_2}$. By checking four cases $(u, v\sqrt{-d}) = (\bar{1}, \bar{1}), (\bar{1}, \bar{3}), (\bar{3}, \bar{1}), (\bar{3}, \bar{3})$, where $u = \bar{j}$ denotes $u \equiv j \pmod{4\mathbf{Z}_2}$, we obtain $\frac{u+v\sqrt{-d}}{2} \not\equiv \frac{u-v\sqrt{-d}}{2} \pmod{2\mathbf{Z}_2}$. Then, we have

$$\left(\frac{u + v\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^s + \left(\frac{u - v\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^s \equiv 1 \pmod{2\mathbf{Z}_2},$$

that is,

$$\frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left(\frac{u + v\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^s + \left(\frac{u - v\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^s \right\} \notin \mathbf{Z}_2. \quad \square$$

Since $d \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$, we have $-d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. By Lemma 2.1 (2), we can write

$$a + b\sqrt{-d} = \pm \left(\frac{x_1 + y_1\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^r$$

for some $x_1, y_1 \in \mathbf{Z}$ with $x_1 \equiv y_1 \pmod{2}$. From this and Lemma 3.1 (2), we obtain $x_1 \equiv y_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. This case is reduced to considering the same power root of $a + b\sqrt{-d}$ in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-d}]$ as in Case 1 and we may check the case $r = 1, 3, 5$ in the same way to Case 1.

Case 3 ($d \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$). Since $d \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$, we obtain $-d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. By Lemma 2.1 (2), we have

$$a + b\sqrt{-d} = \pm \left(\frac{x_1 + y_1\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^r, \\ n = z_1 r \quad (z_1 > 0),$$

where x_1, y_1, z_1 are integers such that $x_1^2 + dy_1^2 = 4k^{z_1}$, $x_1 \equiv y_1 \pmod{2}$ and $h(-d) \equiv 0 \pmod{z_1}$. We consider two cases when $3 \nmid r$ or $3 \mid r$ respectively.

Case 3-1 ($d \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ and $3 \nmid r$). From $x_1 \equiv y_1 \pmod{2}$ and Lemma 3.1 (1), we obtain $x_1 \equiv y_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. This case is reduced to considering the same power root of $a + b\sqrt{-d}$ in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-d}]$ as in Case 1 and we may check the case $r = 1, 3, 5$ in the same way to Case 1.

Case 3-2 ($d \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ and $3 \mid r$). From Lemma 3.1 (1) and $x_1 \equiv y_1 \pmod{2}$, two cases when $x_1 \equiv y_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and $x_1 \equiv y_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ are possible. We consider these cases respectively. If $x_1 \equiv y_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, this case is reduced to considering the same power root of $a + b\sqrt{-d}$ in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-d}]$ as in Case 1. We may check the case $r = 1, 3, 5$ in the same way to Case 1. Next, we consider the case when $x_1 \equiv y_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$. By the assumption $3 \mid r$, we have $r = 3r'$ for some integer r' . Therefore, we obtain

$$a + b\sqrt{-d} = \pm \left(\frac{x_1 + y_1\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^{3r'}$$

By Lemma 3.1 (1), we can write

$$\left(\frac{x_1 + y_1\sqrt{-d}}{2}\right)^3 = \gamma + \delta\sqrt{-d}$$

for some integers γ and δ . This implies that

$$a + b\sqrt{-d} = \pm(\gamma + \delta\sqrt{-d})^{r'}, \\ n = 3r'z_1.$$

This case is reduced to considering the same power root of $a + b\sqrt{-d}$ in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-d}]$ as in Case 1 and we may check the case $r' = 1, 3, 5$. If $r' = 1$, $z_1 = n/3 \mid h(-d)$. If $r' = 5$, we have $k^{3z_1} = 55$. This is impossible. Next, we consider when $r' = 3$. In the cases (I), (II) of Case 1, we have $m^2 \pm 1 = k^{3z_1}$. By Lemma 2.2 and $2 \nmid k$, this is impossible. In the case (III) of Case 1, we have $m^2 \pm 3^l = k^{3z_1}$. By Lemma 2.3 (1), $l > 0$, $k > 1$ and $2 \nmid k$, $m^2 - 3^l = k^{3z_1}$ is impossible. By Lemma 2.3 (2) and $l > 0$, the equation $m^2 + 3^l = k^{3z_1}$ has two integer solutions $(l, k^{z_1}, m) = (4, 13, 46), (5, 7, 10)$. We obtain $b^2d = 3^{2l} \cdot \left(\frac{3m^2 + 4 \cdot 3^l}{4}\right)$ in a way similar to the case (I) of Case 1. If $(l, k^{z_1}, m) = (4, 13, 46), (5, 7, 10)$, b^2d is even. This is a contradiction with $2 \nmid b^2d$. Then, these cases are impossible. The proof of Theorem 1.1 is completed.

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