# PERFECT POWERS IN PRODUCTS OF TERMS OF ELLIPTIC DIVISIBILITY SEQUENCES 

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(Received 27 February 2016; accepted 25 March 2016; first published online 21 July 2016)


#### Abstract

Diophantine problems involving recurrence sequences have a long history. We consider the equation $B_{m} B_{m+d} \cdots B_{m+(k-1) d}=y^{\ell}$ in positive integers $m, d, k, y$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(m, d)=1$ and $k \geq 2$, where $\ell \geq 2$ is a fixed integer and $B=\left(B_{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is an elliptic divisibility sequence, an important class of nonlinear recurrences. We prove that the equation admits only finitely many solutions. In fact, we present an algorithm to find all possible solutions, provided that the set of $\ell$ th powers in $B$ is given. We illustrate our method by an example.


2010 Mathematics subject classification: primary 11D99; secondary 11B37.
Keywords and phrases: perfect powers in products, elliptic divisibility sequence.

## 1. Introduction

Finding perfect powers among the terms or the products of terms of recurrence sequences is a classical Diophantine problem. The case of linear recurrences has a vast literature. We mention several important results, without going into details. Pethő [12] and, independently, Shorey and Stewart [18] showed that any nondegenerate binary recurrence can admit only finitely many perfect powers and their sizes are effectively bounded. Further, if a general linear recurrence of order $k$ has a so-called dominant root, Shorey and Stewart [18] proved that the sequence cannot contain a $q$ th power if $q$ is large enough. These results, together with other general theorems concerning the perfect powers among the terms (see, for example, the book of Shorey and Tijdeman [19] and the references therein) suggest that the effective determination of perfect power terms is possible, at least in principle. However, listing all of them for an individual sequence is a highly nontrivial problem. Only recently, Bugeaud et al. [4], applying modular techniques, found a result that gives all perfect powers in the sequences of Fibonacci and Lucas numbers, the most basic examples of binary recurrences. For perfect powers in products of terms, the situation is roughly the same. Results for certain infinite families of sequences promise effective determination of all solutions, but usually the bounds are so high that explicit computation cannot be

[^0]carried out. Luca and Shorey [11] gave an effective upper bound for the size of the solutions to the equation when a product of terms from a Lucas sequence or from its companion sequence equals a perfect power. Bravo et al. [3] considered the same problem for the Pell and Pell-Lucas sequences, listing all solutions. Their proofs also provide a method for Lucas and their companion sequences in general. For more details on these topics, we point the reader to the above mentioned papers and the references given therein.

It is natural to investigate analogous problems for nonlinear recurrences. One of the most studied of these is the family of elliptic divisibility sequences. The notion of the elliptic divisibility sequence was introduced by Ward [23] as a class of nonlinear recurrences satisfying certain arithmetic properties. Some special cases of his definition give back Lucas sequences. We follow the definition given by Silverman [20]. Take an elliptic curve $E$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ and a point $P \in E(\mathbb{Q})$ of infinite order. We can write the multiples of $P$ as

$$
n P=\left(\frac{A_{n}}{B_{n}^{2}}, \frac{C_{n}}{B_{n}^{3}}\right)
$$

with integers $A_{n}, B_{n}, C_{n}$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A_{n} C_{n}, B_{n}\right)=1$ and $B_{n}>0$. (Note that the assumption $B_{n}>0$ is made only for convenience.) The sequence $B=\left(B_{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is called an elliptic divisibility sequence. Such sequences have attracted considerable attention because of their relation with elliptic curves and various applications. For example, Shipsey [17] and Swart [22] established connections between elliptic divisibility sequences and the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem, while Stange [21] applied them and their generalisations, the so-called elliptic nets, in the computation of the Weil and Tate pairings. As an exotic application, Poonen [14] used them to prove the undecidability of Hilbert's tenth problem over certain rings of integers. In this paper, we are interested in a Diophantine problem concerning perfect powers represented as products of terms of elliptic divisibility sequences.

Questions about finiteness and effective determination of perfect powers among the terms of elliptic divisibility sequences have already been considered by several authors. For an elliptic divisibility sequence $B=\left(B_{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and an integer $\ell \geq 2$, set

$$
\mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)=\left\{i: B_{i} \text { is an } \ell \text { th power }\right\} .
$$

For later use, also set

$$
N_{\ell}=\left|\mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)\right| \quad \text { and } \quad M_{\ell}=\max _{i \in \mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)} i .
$$

Everest, Reynolds and Stevens [5] showed finiteness for the set $\mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$, but their proof is ineffective and hence does not give an upper bound for the size of the elements of the set. Further, they noted that, under the assumption of the $a b c$-conjecture, one can let the exponent $\ell$ vary and prove finiteness for the set of all perfect powers in the sequence. As in the case of linear recurrences, listing the elements of $\mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$ is a highly nontrivial problem. A paper of Reynolds [15] explains a procedure to find
every perfect power in the sequence when $B_{1}$ is divisible by 2 or 3 . There are more explicit results for square and cube terms by Bizim and Gezer [1, 2]. (Note that their definition of elliptic divisibility sequence differs from ours, since it involves a torsion point rather than a point of infinite order.)

Let $B=\left(B_{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be an elliptic divisibility sequence such that $B_{1}=1$ and fix $\ell \geq 2$. We will point out later in this section that $B_{1}=1$ is unnecessary but makes the presentation smoother. Consider the Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{m} B_{m+d} \cdots B_{m+(k-1) d}=y^{\ell} \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

in positive integers $m, d, k, y$ with $k \geq 2$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(m, d)=1$. We prove that (1.1) admits only finitely many solutions. Further, we bound $m, d, k, y$ in terms of $N_{\ell}$ and $M_{\ell}$. In fact, our method provides an algorithm to find all the solutions to (1.1) whenever $\mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$ is given explicitly.

Theorem 1.1. Let $\ell \geq 2$ be a fixed integer. Then, (1.1) has only finitely many solutions. Further, there exists an effectively computable constant $c_{1}\left(N_{\ell}, M_{\ell}\right)$ depending only on $N_{\ell}$ and $M_{\ell}$ such that $\max (m, d, k, y)<c_{1}\left(N_{\ell}, M_{\ell}\right)$. In particular, if $\mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$ is given then all solutions to (1.1) can be effectively determined.

To prove Theorem 1.1, we need to combine several tools, including arithmetic properties of elliptic divisibility sequences, arguments from [3,11] and new variants of bounds, developed in this paper, concerning the greatest prime divisor and the number of prime divisors of blocks of consecutive terms of arithmetic progressions.

Finally, we mention a possible generalisation of (1.1) which could be handled by our arguments. In their paper, Everest et al. [5] remark that it is possible to modify their proof on the finiteness of $\mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$ to deduce finiteness also for $S$-unit multiples of $\ell$ th powers, where $S$ is any given finite set of primes. Then, with slight changes (but more technicality involved), we could prove the analogue of Theorem 1.1 for the equation

$$
B_{m} B_{m+d} \cdots B_{m+(k-1) d}=b y^{\ell}
$$

where $b$ is an arbitrary $S$-unit, that is, $b$ is composed of fixed primes (coming from $S$ ) with unspecified nonnegative exponents. Observe that this also makes the assumption $B_{1}=1$ unnecessary. Indeed, dividing both sides by $B_{1}^{k}$, we get an equation of the form

$$
B_{m}^{\prime} B_{m+d}^{\prime} \cdots B_{m+(k-1) d}^{\prime}=b^{\prime} y^{\ell}
$$

Since the sequence $B^{\prime}=\left(B_{n}^{\prime}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}=\left(B_{n} / B_{1}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ preserves the arithmetic properties of $B$ we rely on (see Remark 2.6), one can solve the above more general equation as well (and hence omit the condition $B_{1}=1$ ).

## 2. Auxiliary tools

Recall that throughout the paper we use the assumption $B_{1}=1$. Thus, in particular, we have $\mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B) \neq \emptyset, N_{\ell} \geq 1$ and $M_{\ell} \geq 1$.

Let $B=\left(B_{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be an elliptic divisibility sequence, let $p$ be a prime and denote by $r_{p}$ the smallest number such that $p \mid B_{r_{p}}$. Then $r_{p}$ is called the rank of apparition of $p$ in $B$. Further, let $v_{p}(z)$ stand for the exponent of $p$ in $z$.

Lemma 2.1. Let $B=\left(B_{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be an elliptic divisibility sequence.
(i) If $p$ is a prime and $p \mid B_{m}$, then

$$
v_{p}\left(B_{m}\right)=v_{p}\left(\frac{m}{r_{p}}\right)+v_{p}\left(B_{r_{p}}\right) .
$$

(ii) $B$ is a strong divisibility sequence, that is, for every $m, n \geq 1$,

$$
\operatorname{gcd}\left(B_{m}, B_{n}\right)=B_{\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)}
$$

(iii) For every prime p,

$$
r_{p} \leq p+1+2 \sqrt{p}
$$

(iv) For $m \mid n$,

$$
\left.\operatorname{gcd}\left(B_{m}, \frac{B_{n}}{B_{m}}\right) \right\rvert\, \frac{n}{m}
$$

Proof. For (i) see [20, (13)]. Part (ii) is exactly [23, Theorem 6.4] and also follows from (i), while (iii) is an immediate consequence of the famous Hasse-Weil theorem (see [17, Section 4.7.2]). Applying (ii) for $m \mid n$ yields

$$
v_{p}\left(\frac{B_{n}}{B_{m}}\right)=v_{p}\left(\frac{n}{r_{p}}\right)+v_{p}\left(B_{r_{p}}\right)-v_{p}\left(\frac{m}{r_{p}}\right)-v_{p}\left(B_{r_{p}}\right)=v_{p}\left(\frac{n}{m}\right)
$$

and hence

$$
\min \left(v_{p}\left(B_{m}\right), v_{p}\left(\frac{B_{n}}{B_{m}}\right)\right) \leq v_{p}\left(\frac{n}{m}\right),
$$

which proves part (iv).
We write $P(z)$ for the greatest prime divisor of the positive integer $z$, with the convention $P(1)=1$. Further, for $0 \leq i<k$ we put

$$
m+i d=a_{i} x_{i}
$$

with $P\left(a_{i}\right) \leq k$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(x_{i}, \prod_{p \leq k} p\right)=1$.
Our next lemma plays a crucial role later on. As we are not aware of such a result appearing in the literature, we give its simple proof as well.
Lemma 2.2. Let $0 \leq i<k$. Then

$$
\operatorname{gcd}\left(B_{x_{i}}, \prod_{j \neq i} B_{m+j d}\right)=1 \quad \text { and } \left.\quad \operatorname{gcd}\left(B_{x_{i}}, \frac{B_{m+i d}}{B_{x_{i}}}\right) \right\rvert\, a_{i} .
$$

Proof. If $x_{i}=1$, then the assertion of the lemma follows from $B_{1}=1$. Thus, assume that $x_{i} \neq 1$. Then for every $p \mid x_{i}$ we have $p>k$. Since a prime greater than $k$ can divide at most one of $m, m+d, \ldots, m+(k-1) d$, for every $j \neq i$ we get $\operatorname{gcd}\left(x_{i}, m+j d\right)=1$ and from part (i) of Lemma 2.1 the first formula follows. The second part of the statement is an immediate consequence of part (iv) of Lemma 2.1.

Using the above lemmas, we can already prove Theorem 1.1 for small values of $k$.
Lemma 2.3. Let $(m, d, k, y)$ be a solution to (1.1) with $k \leq 48$. Then we have $\max (m, d) \leq$ $c_{2} M_{\ell}$, where $c_{2}=1$ for $k \leq 16, c_{2}=2$ for $17 \leq k \leq 24$ and $c_{2}=3$ for $25 \leq k \leq 48$.

Proof. Suppose first that $k \leq 16$. Then by a classical result of Pillai [13] there is a term $m+i d$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(m+i d, m+j d)=1$ for every $j \neq i$. Observe that here we may assume $i>0$. Indeed, if $i=0$ then by $\operatorname{gcd}(m, m+j d)=1$ for all $j=1, \ldots, k-1$, using Pillai's result again for the terms $m+d, \ldots, m+(k-1) d$, we can find an index $i>0$ with the desired property. Then, by $B_{1}=1$ and part (i) of Lemma 2.1, we have $\operatorname{gcd}\left(B_{m+i d}, B_{m+j d}\right)=1$. Hence, $m+i d \in \mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$ and $\max (m, d) \leq m+d \leq m+i d \leq M_{\ell}$, and the lemma follows in this case.

Assume next that $17 \leq k \leq 24$. Then by Hajdu and Saradha [6, Theorem 2.2] there is a term $m+i d$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(m+i d, m+j d) \leq 2$ for every $j \neq i$. Similarly to the case $k \leq 16$, we may assume that $i>0$. If, in fact, $\operatorname{gcd}(m+i d, m+j d)=1$ for all $j \neq i$, then, just as before, we get $m+i d \in \mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$ and $\max (m, d) \leq M_{\ell}$. So we may assume that $\operatorname{gcd}(m+i d, m+j d)=2$ for some $j \neq i$; in particular, $a_{i}$ is even. Write $a_{i}=2 t$, and observe that $\operatorname{gcd}(t, m+j d)=1$ for all $j \neq i$. Rewrite (1.1) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{t x_{i}} \frac{B_{m+i d}}{B_{t x_{i}}} \prod_{j \neq i} B_{m+j d}=y^{\ell} . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observe that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(t x_{i}, m+j d\right)=1$ and hence $\operatorname{gcd}\left(B_{t x_{i}}, B_{m+j d}\right)=1$ for every $j \neq i$. On the other hand, by part (iv) of Lemma 2.1,

$$
\left.\operatorname{gcd}\left(B_{t x_{i}}, \frac{B_{m+i d}}{B_{t x_{i}}}\right) \right\rvert\, 2
$$

Now, if $2 \mid B_{t x_{i}}$, then we have $r_{2} \mid t x_{i}$. Since $r_{2} \leq 5$ from part (ii) of Lemma 2.1, this implies that $r_{2} \mid t$. However, this would clearly contradict the choice of $m+i d$. So $B_{t x_{i}}$ is odd and hence coprime to $B_{m+i d} / B_{t x_{i}}$. Thus, (2.1) yields $t x_{i} \in \mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$ and we get $\max (m, d) \leq m+i d=2 t x_{i} \leq 2 M_{\ell}$, proving our claim also in this case.

Finally, assume that $25 \leq k \leq 48$. Then, using again [6, Theorem 2.2], by a similar argument we obtain $i>0$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(m+i d, m+j d) \leq 3$ for every $j \neq i$. Now, if this gcd is in fact $\leq 2$ for all $j \neq i$, then the same argument as for $17 \leq k \leq 25$ gives $\max (m, d) \leq 2 M_{\ell}$. Hence we may assume that there is a $j \neq i$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(m+i d, m+j d)=3$. In particular, $3 \mid a_{i}$, and we can write $a_{i}=3 t$. Now we can just follow the argument for $17 \leq k \leq 24$ to conclude that $t x_{i} \in \mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$ and get $\max (m, d) \leq 3 M_{\ell}$. This finishes the proof.

Remark 2.4. In certain cases, Lemma 2.3 can be extended for larger values of $k$. This is based on quantities concerning a problem of Pillai [13] and its generalisations, obtained by Hajdu and Saradha [6] and Hajdu and Szikszai [7, 8]. To do so, one needs to know which terms $B_{n}$ satisfy $B_{n}=1$ and compare the set of the corresponding indices with the tables in [7, 8]. For example, if we take the sequence generated by the point $P=(0,0)$ on the curve $y^{2}+y=x^{3}-x$, then we have $B_{1}=B_{2}=B_{3}=B_{4}=B_{6}=1$. Using [8, Table 2] we could extend Lemma 2.3 for $k \leq 78$.

Fix now $m, d$ and $k$ and consider the indices $m+i d$ with $0 \leq i<k$. Write $k^{\prime}=k+1+2 \sqrt{k}$ and put

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
W_{1}=\{i: \exists p \mid(m+i d) \text { with } p>k\}, & w_{1}:=\left|W_{1}\right|, \\
W_{2}=\left\{i \in W_{1}: \exists p \mid(m+i d) \text { with } k<p \leq k^{\prime}\right\}, & w_{2}:=\left|W_{2}\right|, \\
W_{0}=W_{1} \backslash W_{2}, & w_{0}:=\left|W_{0}\right| .
\end{array}
$$

Here $p$ always denotes a prime number. Clearly, we have $w_{0}=w_{1}-w_{2}$. Further,

$$
w_{2} \leq \pi_{d}\left(k^{\prime}\right)-\pi_{d}(k) \leq \pi\left(k^{\prime}\right)-\pi(k)
$$

where $\pi_{d}(x)$ stands for the number of primes up to $x$ which do not divide $d$. An important connection between the sets $W_{0}$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$ is given by the following lemma.
Lemma 2.5. Let $(m, d, k, y)$ be a solution to (1.1). Then $x_{i} \in \mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$ for each $i \in W_{0}$. In particular, we have $w_{0} \leq N_{\ell}$ and also $k<M_{\ell}$ if $w_{0}>0$.
Proof. Observe that for $i \in W_{0}$ the numbers $x_{i}$ are distinct and also that $q>k^{\prime}$ for every prime divisor $q$ of $x_{i}$. Let $i \in W_{0}$ and let $p$ be a prime divisor of $a_{i}$. By part (ii) of Lemma 2.1, $r_{p} \leq p+1+2 \sqrt{p} \leq k^{\prime}$. Thus, $r_{p} \nmid x_{i}$, and hence $p \nmid B_{x_{i}}$ and, by Lemma 2.2, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(B_{x_{i}}, B_{m+i d} / B_{x_{i}}\right)=1$. This immediately gives $x_{i} \in \mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$. As the $x_{i}$ are distinct for $i \in W_{0}$, we obtain $w_{0} \leq N_{\ell}$. Finally, if $i \in W_{0}$ then we have $k<x_{i} \leq M_{\ell}$.
Remark 2.6. Concerning properties of elliptic divisibility sequences, Lemma 2.5 is the last we state. With little effort, one can prove that the sequence $B^{\prime}=\left(B_{n}^{\prime}\right)_{n=0}^{\infty}=$ $\left(B_{n} / B_{1}\right)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ preserves (i) of Lemma 2.1 even if $B_{1} \neq 1$. Hence (ii) and (iv) also remain valid. Since (iii) is true for arbitrary curves (Hasse's theorem holds), we find that the statements of Lemma 2.1 are independent of the condition $B_{1}=1$. This also implies the truth of Lemmas 2.2 and 2.5 for $B^{\prime}$. As mentioned already in the introduction, this allows one to omit $B_{1}=1$ and consider (1.1) without restrictions on $B$.

In what follows, we shall establish lower bounds for $w_{0}$. For this, we need results concerning the number of terms $W(\Delta)$ of $\Delta$ having a prime factor $>k$, where

$$
\Delta=m(m+d) \cdots(m+(k-1)) d .
$$

Lemma 2.7. Let $k \geq 31$. Then:
(i) $\quad W(\Delta) \geq \min \left(\left\lfloor\frac{3}{4} \pi(k)\right\rfloor-1, \pi(2 k)-\pi(k)-1\right)$ if $d=1$ and $m>k$;
(ii) $W(\Delta)>\pi(2 k)-\pi_{d}(k)-\rho$ if $d>1$, where $\rho=1$ for $d=2$ and $\rho=0$ otherwise.

Proof. Part (i) immediately follows from [10, Corollary 1]. Though the assertion was stated for the number of distinct prime factors of $\Delta$, it is in fact valid for $W(\Delta)$ as given by the proof. Part (ii) is a simple consequence of [9, Theorem 1].

We also use estimates for $\pi(x)$, due to Rosser and Schoenfeld [16].
Lemma 2.8. For any $x \geq 17$,

$$
\frac{x}{\log x}<\pi(x)<\frac{x}{\log x}\left(1+\frac{3}{2 \log x}\right) .
$$

Proof. The upper bound is part of [16, Theorem 1], while the lower bound is in Corollary 1 in the same paper.

Lemma 2.7 combined with Lemma 2.8 easily implies the following assertion.
Lemma 2.9. Let $k \geq 2$. Further, assume that $m>k$ if $d=1$. Then there exists an absolute constant $c>0$ such that

$$
w_{0}>\frac{c k}{\log k}
$$

Proof. Recall $w_{0}=w_{1}-w_{2}$ and $w_{2} \leq \pi_{d}(k+1+2 \sqrt{k})-\pi_{d}(k) \leq \pi(k+1+2 \sqrt{k})-\pi(k)$. By observing that $w_{1} \geq W(\Delta)$, the assertion follows from Lemmas 2.7 and 2.8 by a simple calculation.

Under a certain assumption, we can establish a much better lower bound for $w_{0}$.
Lemma 2.10. Let $k \geq 48$, and assume that $m+d \geq(k-1)^{4}$. Then,

$$
w_{0} \geq \frac{3(k-1)}{4}-\pi_{d}(k+1+2 \sqrt{k}) .
$$

Proof. We follow standard arguments going back to Erdős. For similar results, see [9] and the references given therein.

For each prime $p \leq k$ and $p \nmid d$, choose an index $i_{p}$ with $0 \leq i_{p}<k$ such that

$$
v_{p}\left(m+i_{p} d\right) \geq v_{p}(m+i d) \quad(i=0,1, \ldots, k-1)
$$

Put

$$
I=\left\{i_{p}: p \leq k, p \nmid d\right\}
$$

and write $J$ for the complement of $I \cup W_{0} \cup\{0\}$ in $\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\}$. We clearly have $|J| \geq k-w_{1}-\pi_{d}(k)-1$. Let

$$
\Delta^{\prime}=\prod_{i \in J}(m+i d)
$$

and observe that all prime divisors of $\Delta^{\prime}$ are at most $k$ and also that $\left(\Delta^{\prime}, d\right)=1$. Let $p$ be any prime with $p \leq k$ and $p \nmid d$. Then for any $i=0,1, \ldots, k-1$,

$$
v_{p}(m+i d) \leq v_{p}\left(m+i d-\left(m+i_{p} d\right)\right) \leq v_{p}\left(i-i_{p}\right)
$$

This easily gives $v_{p}\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \leq v_{p}\left((k-1)\right.$ !), implying $\Delta^{\prime} \mid(k-1)$ !. Hence,

$$
(m+d)^{k-w_{1}-\pi_{d}(k)-1} \leq(k-1)!.
$$

Now our assumption $m+d \geq(k-1)^{4}$ yields

$$
w_{1} \geq \frac{3(k-1)}{4}-\pi_{d}(k) .
$$

Using $w_{0}=w_{1}-w_{2}$ and $w_{2} \leq \pi_{d}(k+1+2 \sqrt{k})-\pi_{d}(k)$, the assertion follows.

## 3. Proof of Theorem 1.1

Proof of Theorem 1.1. If $k \leq 48$, then the statement is given by Lemma 2.3. So we may assume that $k \geq 49$. We split the proof into two parts.

Suppose first that $d>1$, or $d=1$ and $m>k$. Then by Lemmas 2.5 and $2.9, k$ is bounded in terms of $N_{\ell}$ (and also in terms of $M_{\ell}$ ). If $m+d \leq(k-1)^{4}$, we are done. Otherwise, Lemma 2.10 gives

$$
w_{0} \geq \frac{3(k-1)}{4}-\pi_{d}(k+1+2 \sqrt{k})
$$

Now apart from at most $\pi_{d}(k)$ indices $i$, we have that $v_{p}\left(a_{i}\right) \leq v_{p}((k-1)$ !). (The exceptions are those indices $i_{p}$ for which $v_{p}\left(a_{i_{p}}\right)$ is maximal.) This shows that if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{3(k-1)}{4}-\pi_{d}(k+1+2 \sqrt{k})-\pi_{d}(k)>1 \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

then there are at least two indices $i, j, i \neq j$, such that all $a_{i}, a_{j}, x_{i}, x_{j}$ are bounded in terms of $N_{\ell}$ and $M_{\ell}$. As one of these indices, say $i$, is positive, by $m+d \leq m+i d=a_{i} x_{i}$ we see that $m$ and $d$ are also bounded in terms of $N_{\ell}$ and $M_{\ell}$. A simple calculation based on Lemma 2.8 shows that (3.1) holds whenever $k \geq 62$. Then, working with the concrete values of the $\pi(x)$ function, we find that (3.1) holds in fact for $k \geq 42$. Hence the theorem follows in this case.

Assume next that $d=1$ and $m \leq k$. Then there exists an effectively computable constant $c_{3}=c_{3}\left(N_{\ell}\right)>0$ depending only on $N_{\ell}$ such that if $m+k-1>c_{3}\left(N_{\ell}\right)$, then the interval $((2 / 3)(m+k-1), m+k-1)$ contains more than $N_{\ell}$ primes. Since $m \leq k$, these primes are among $m, m+1, \ldots, m+k-1$, and, further, each of these primes divides exactly one of these numbers. Let $q$ be any of these primes, and write $q=m+i$. By part (i) of Lemma 2.1, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(B_{m+i}, B_{m+j}\right)=B_{1}=1$ for any $j \neq i$ with $0 \leq j<k$. Hence, $m+i \in \mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)$. However, since we have more than $N_{\ell}$ primes among $m, \ldots, m+k-1$, this yields a contradiction. Thus, $m+k-1 \leq c_{3}\left(N_{\ell}\right)$, giving the theorem in this case.

## 4. An example

Consider the elliptic curve $E: y^{2}+x y=x^{3}+x^{2}-7 x+5$ and the elliptic divisibility sequence $B_{n}=\left(B_{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ generated by the point $P=(2,-3)$. Reynolds [15] found the following perfect powers in $B_{n}$ :

$$
B_{1}=B_{2}=B_{3}=B_{4}=B_{7}=1, \quad B_{12}=2^{7} .
$$

Now we illustrate how our method works, assuming that there are no other perfect powers in $B_{n}$. (Note that once the set of all perfect powers is given, our method describes all solutions to (1.1).) Under the above assumption,

$$
\mathcal{P}_{\ell}(B)= \begin{cases}\{1,2,3,4,7,12\} & \text { if } \ell=7 \\ \{1,2,3,4,7\} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

and hence

$$
N_{\ell}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
6 & \text { if } \ell=7, \\
5 & \text { otherwise },
\end{array} \quad \text { and } \quad M_{\ell}= \begin{cases}12 & \text { if } \ell=7 \\
7 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}\right.
$$

Following the proof of Lemma 2.9, a simple calculation shows that $w_{0} \geq 1$ for $k \geq 49$. However, by Lemma 2.5 , we obtain $k<M_{\ell} \leq 12$, a contradiction.

Hence we conclude that $k \leq 48$. Then, following the proof of Lemma 2.3, we get $m+d \leq 3 M_{\ell} \leq 36$. As $m, d$ and $k$ are small, we can easily check all possibilities. (Note that for this we can work with the indices and not with the terms of $B_{n}$ themselves.) We find that (under our assumption) the only solutions ( $m, d, k, y$ ) of (1.1) for arbitrary $\ell$ are given by

$$
\begin{gathered}
(1,1,2,1),(1,1,3,1),(1,1,4,1),(1,2,2,1),(1,3,2,1),(1,3,3,1),(1,6,2,1), \\
(2,1,2,1),(2,1,3,1),(2,5,2,1),(3,1,2,1),(3,4,2,1),(4,3,2,1)
\end{gathered}
$$

and, further, for $\ell=7$, we also have the solutions

$$
(1,11,2,2),(2,5,3,2),(7,5,2,2)
$$

## Acknowledgement

The authors are grateful to the referee for useful comments on the paper.

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[^0]:    L. Hajdu was supported in part by the OTKA grant K115479. S. Laishram was supported in part by INSA, India, HAS, Hungary and FWF (Austrian Science Fund) grant no. P24574.
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