# PRIMITIVE DIVISORS OF SOME LEHMER-PIERCE SEQUENCES 

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#### Abstract

We study the primitive divisors of the terms of $\left(\Delta_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$, where $\Delta_{n}=N_{K / \mathbb{Q}}\left(u^{n}-1\right)$ for $K$ a real quadratic field, and $u>1$ a unit element of its ring of integers. The methods used allow us to find the terms of the sequence that do not have a primitive prime divisor.


## 1. Introduction

Let $A=\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$ be an integer sequence. A prime $p$ dividing a term $a_{n}$ is called a primitive prime divisor (PPD for short) of $a_{n}$ if $p$ does not divide $a_{m}$ for any $m<n$ with $a_{m} \neq 0$. Sequences whose terms all have primitive divisors beyond some point are of great interest in number theory.
Definition 1.1. Let $A=\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$ be an integer sequence. Define

$$
Z(A)=\max \left\{n: a_{n} \text { does not have a primitive prime divisor }\right\}
$$

if this set is finite, otherwise set $Z(A)=\infty$. The number $Z(A)$ is called the Zsigmondy Bound for the sequence $A$.

In [1], Bang considered the sequence $\left(a^{n}-1\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$, where $1<a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and showed that $Z\left(\left(a^{n}-1\right)_{n \geqslant 1}\right) \leqslant 6$. Zsigmondy in [16] proved the more general result that given any positive coprime integers $a, b$ with $a>b$, the sequence $\left(a^{n}-b^{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$ has a primitive prime divisor for all terms beyond the sixth. The sequence studied by Zsigmondy satisfies a binary linear recurrence relation, and much of the work in this area has concentrated on these types of sequences. In [3], Carmichael showed that for any real Lucas or Lehmer sequence $L, Z(L) \leqslant 12$. Carmichael's result was later completed by Bilu, Hanrot and Voutier, and in [2] they showed, using powerful methods from transcendence theory and computational number theory, that for any Lucas or Lehmer sequence $L^{\prime}, Z\left(L^{\prime}\right) \leqslant 30$. Moreover, they were able to explicitly describe all Lucas and Lehmer numbers without a primitive divisor and hence show that this bound is sharp.

Many arithmetic properties of linear recurrence sequences have analogues for elliptic recurrence sequences. In [14], it is shown that if $E$ is an elliptic curve in Weierstrass form defined over $\mathbb{Q}$, and $P \in E(\mathbb{Q})$ is a non-torsion point, then the associated elliptic divisibility sequence (the denominators of the $x$-coordinates of $n P$ ) has a finite Zsigmondy bound. For elliptic curves in global minimal form, it seems likely that this bound is uniform, and the papers [6], 8] exhibit infinite families of elliptic curves with a uniform Zsigmondy bound.

The result of Zsigmondy can be generalised to a number field setting, where $a, b$ are now algebraic integers of a number field $K$, so $a^{n}-b^{n}$ lies in the ring of integers $R$, of $K$. The principal ideal $\left(a^{n}-b^{n}\right)$ has a factorisation into a product of prime ideals of $R$, which is unique. Therefore, we can ask which terms of a sequence $S$ of algebraic integers have a primitive prime ideal divisor (or PPID for short), i.e. for which $n$ is there a prime ideal $\mathfrak{p}$ which divides the $n$th term, but not any preceding term. We therefore define the Zsigmondy bound $Z_{I}(S)$, to be the maximal value of $n$ for which the $n$th term of the sequence does not have a PPID.

In Schinzel's paper [13, he proved the following theorem;
Theorem 1.2 (Schinzel). Let $A, B$ be coprime integers of an algebraic number field such that $\frac{A}{B}$ is not a root of unity. Then the expression $A^{n}-B^{n}$ has a PPID for all $n>n_{0}(d)$, where $d$ is the degree of the extension $\mathbb{Q}\left(\frac{A}{B}\right) / \mathbb{Q}$.
So, for these sequences the Zsigmondy bound $Z_{I}$ is finite and an easy corollary of Schinzel's theorem is the following.

Corollary 1.3. Let $K$ be a real quadratic field, $R$ its ring of integers, and let $\alpha \in R \backslash\{ \pm 1\}$ be a unit. Let $f$ denote the minimum polynomial of $\alpha$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ and define the integer sequence, $\Delta=\left(\Delta_{n}(f)\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$, by setting

$$
\Delta_{n}(f)=N_{K / \mathbb{Q}}\left(\alpha^{n}-1\right)
$$

Then there exists a positive integer $C_{1}$, so that for all units $\alpha$ of norm $1, Z(\Delta) \leqslant C_{1}$. There exists a positive integer $C_{2}$ such that for all units $\alpha$ of norm $-1, \Delta_{n}(f)$ has a primitive prime divisor for any $n>C_{2}$ with $n \not \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$.

The sequence $\Delta$, for a general algebraic integer $\alpha$, was examined by Pierce in his paper [12], where he looked at what form the factors of $\Delta_{n}(f)$ take and what conditions are necessary for the congruence $f(x) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, where $p$ is a prime, to have a solution $x \in \mathbb{F}_{p}$. In [10], Lehmer developed a deeper insight into the factors of the terms $\Delta_{n}(f)$, and applied this information to show that certain $\Delta_{n}(f)$ were prime. Lehmer was interested in the growth rate of the sequence $\Delta$, and he remarked that if none of the roots of $f$ had absolute value 1 , then $\frac{\Delta_{n}(f)}{\Delta_{n-1}(f)}$ converges, and $M(f)$ was written for the limit. For his purposes, polynomials with small values of $M(f)$ were desirable; in [4] a heuristic argument is put forward that suggests the density of primes in $\Delta$ is proportional to $\frac{1}{M(f)}$. We therefore say that for $\alpha$ an algebraic integer, the sequence $\Delta$, defined in Corollary 1.3, is called the Lehmer-Pierce sequence associated to $\alpha$. The sequence $\Delta$ is also of interest in algebraic dynamics, since to $f$ there is an associated matrix called the companion matrix and multiplication by this matrix induces an endomorphism $E: \mathbb{T}^{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{T}^{N}$. When none of the roots of $f$ have absolute value $1, E$ is an ergodic transformation with respect to Lebesgue measure, $\left|\Delta_{n}(f)\right|$ counts the number of points of period $n$ under $E$, and the topological entropy of $E$ is equal to $\log M(f)$. A much more detailed account of the connection between $M(f)$ and dynamical systems can be found in [5].

The sequence $\Delta$ also has some combinatorial applications. For example, when $u=1+\sqrt{2},\left|\Delta_{n}\right|$ counts the number of $2 \times 2$ tiles in all tilings of a $3 \times(n+1)$ rectangle with $1 \times 1$ and $2 \times 2$ square tiles; more details about this sequence are provided on Sloane's website [11, A095977]. Similarly, when $u=\frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2}$, $\Delta_{n}$ appears in combinatorics - see [11, A004146]. In addition, certain quadratic Lehmer-Pierce sequences count the sizes of groups: the groups being $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p^{n}}\right)$, where $E$ is a given elliptic curve and $p$ is a fixed prime.

In this article our aim is to find the numbers $C_{1}, C_{2}$ from Corollary 1.3 associated to the sequence $\Delta=\left(\Delta_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}=\left(N_{K / \mathbb{Q}}\left(u^{n}-1\right)\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$, where $K$ is a real quadratic field and $u$ is a fixed unit in its ring of integers.

Theorem 1.4. Let $K$ be a quadratic field, $\alpha \neq \pm 1$ a positive quadratic unit, and let $\Delta$ be the LehmerPierce sequence associated to $\alpha$. Then for each $\alpha$ of norm $1, \Delta$ has a primitive prime divisor for all terms beyond the twelfth. For each $\alpha$ of norm -1 , then for $n>24, \Delta_{n}$ fails to have a primitive prime divisor if and only if $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$.

It is easy to see that when $u$ has norm $1, \Delta$ satisfies a ternary linear recurrence relation, and when $u$ has norm -1 , a quaternary linear recurrence - see [7. In addition, it is remarked that it seems likely that when $u=2+\sqrt{3}, Z(\Delta)=6$, and in our later discussion we verify that this is indeed the case. To date, not much is known about primitive prime divisors of the terms $\Delta_{n}$ for arbitrary algebraic integers $\alpha$, and it would be interesting to know which other Lehmer-Pierce sequences have the property that $Z(\Delta)$ is finite.

## 2. A Criterion for Primitive Divisor Failure

We begin with a proof of Corollary 1.3 as it will be instrumental in obtaining a condition that will need to be satisfied if $\Delta_{n}$ fails to have a PPD.

Proof of Corollary 1.3. Define $A_{n}=\alpha^{n}-1$ and $B_{n}=\beta^{n}-1$, where $\beta$ is the algebraic conjugate of $\alpha$. There are only two ways in which $\Delta_{n}$ could fail to have a primitive prime divisor, and they are the following:
(1) Both $A_{n}$ and $B_{n}$ fail to have PPIDs;
(2) Every PPID of $A_{n}$ has already appeared before as a divisor of $B_{m}$ for some $m<n$.

Suppose then that $\mathfrak{p}$ is a PPID of $A_{n}$ but that $\mathfrak{p} \mid B_{m}$ for some $m<n$. Then

$$
\left(\beta^{m}-1\right)=\mathfrak{p q}
$$

for some integral ideal $\mathfrak{q}$. Hence, multiplying through by $\left(\alpha^{m}\right)$,

$$
\left(\alpha^{m}\right)\left(\beta^{m}-1\right)=\mathfrak{p q} .
$$

If $\alpha$ has norm 1, this therefore implies that $\mathfrak{p}$ divides $A_{m}$, which cannot be the case as $\mathfrak{p}$ is a PPID of $A_{n}$. If $\alpha$ has norm -1 and $m$ is even, then by the same method as above we can deduce that possibility 2 will not occur. If $\alpha$ has norm -1 and $m$ is odd, a slightly different argument is needed. If possibility 2 occurs in this case, we have that $\mathfrak{p} \mid\left(\alpha^{m}+1\right)$. Therefore, $\alpha^{m} \equiv-1(\bmod \mathfrak{p})$ and so $\alpha^{2 m} \equiv 1(\bmod \mathfrak{p})$. Now as $\mathfrak{p}$ is a primitive divisor of $A_{n}, \alpha$ has order $n$ in the group $(R / \mathfrak{p})^{*}$. Therefore $n \mid 2 m$. Since $m<n$, this is enough to secure that $n=2 m$, and we conclude that possibility 2 can only hold in the case when $n$ is twice an odd integer. If $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, then $n=2 k$ for some odd integer $k$ and in this case $\Delta_{n}=-\Delta_{k}^{2}$, so $\Delta_{n}$ can never have any primitive prime divisors. We have deduced that if $\Delta_{n}$ fails to have a PPD, then both $A_{n}$ and $B_{n}$ fail to have PPIDs except in the case where $\alpha$ has norm -1 and then all terms which satisfy property 2 , are those with $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$. The fact that $\Delta_{n}$ fails to have a primitive divisor beyond some point if $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ was first pointed out by Györy.

Hence for units of norm $1, \Delta_{n}$ will only fail to have a PPD, when condition 1 holds. So by Theorem 1.2, this tells us that $Z_{I}\left(\left(A_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}\right)<c_{1}$, and $Z_{I}\left(\left(B_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}\right)<c_{2}$, where $c_{1}, c_{2}$ are uniform constants, and so for all units $\alpha$ of norm $1, Z(\Delta)$ is uniformly bounded. If $\alpha$ has norm -1 , then $\Delta_{n}$ will fail to have a PPD when $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ and when condition 1 holds. Applying Theorem 1.2 again gives the required result.

From now on, $K$ denotes a real quadratic field we will write $N$ for the field norm $N_{K / \mathbb{Q}}$.
Lemma 2.1. Let $u \in R \backslash\{ \pm 1\}$ be a quadratic unit of norm 1 . Then for any $n>6$, if $\Delta_{n}$ fails to have a primitive prime divisor we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
N\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right) \mid n^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\phi_{n}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ denotes the $n$th cyclotomic polynomial. Moreover, if $u$ has norm -1 then for any $n>6$ with $n \not \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, if $\Delta_{n}$ fails to have a PPD then (11) holds.

Proof. Apply Lemma 4 of [13] to deduce that if $\mathfrak{p}$ is not a PPID of $A_{n}$ or $B_{n}$, then for $n>6$,

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right) \leqslant \operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}(n)
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(\phi_{n}(v)\right) \leqslant \operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}(n)
$$

Adding these two inequalities together tells us that

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(N\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right)\right) \leqslant \operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}\left(n^{2}\right),
$$

and so we have proved the statement of the Lemma.
Using (11), we can express this result in a way that will allow us to obtain an upper bound on $n$ such that $\Delta_{n}$ has no PPD.

Theorem 2.2. Let $1<u \in R$ be a unit, and $6<n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $u$ has norm 1 and $\Delta_{n}$ has no primitive prime divisor, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log n-2 \log \log n-\frac{4}{\log n}<2.02819-\log \log u \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $u$ has norm $-1, n \not \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, and $\Delta_{n}$ has no primitive prime divisor, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log n-2 \log \log n-\frac{4}{\log n}<2.71072-\log \log u \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Recall the factorisation of $x^{n}-1$ into a product of cyclotomic polynomials as follows

$$
x^{n}-1=\prod_{d \mid n} \phi_{d}(x)
$$

Hence we have the following factorisation of $\Delta_{n}$

$$
\left|\Delta_{n}\right|=\prod_{d \mid n}\left|N\left(\phi_{d}(u)\right)\right|
$$

Taking logarithms now gives

$$
\log \left(\left|N\left(u^{n}-1\right)\right|\right)=\sum_{d \mid n} \log \left(\left|N\left(\phi_{d}(u)\right)\right|\right)
$$

Applying the Möbius Inversion Formula for arithmetical functions now yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log \left(\left|N\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right)\right|\right)=\sum_{d \mid n} \log \left(\left|N\left(u^{d}-1\right)\right|\right) \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now using (4), we are going to estimate the size of $\left|N\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right)\right|$. If $u$ is a unit of norm 1 , then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \left|N\left(u^{d}-1\right)\right| & =\log \left|u^{d}-1\right|+\log \left|v^{d}-1\right| \\
& =\log \left|u^{d}-1\right|+\log \left|\frac{1}{u^{d}}-1\right| \\
& =\log \left|u^{d}\right|+2 \log \left|1-\frac{1}{u^{d}}\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, by (4) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \left(\left|N\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right)\right|\right) & =\sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|u^{d}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)+2 \sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|1-\frac{1}{u^{d}}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \\
& =\phi(n) \log u+2 \sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|1-\frac{1}{u^{d}}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Define $S:=2 \sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|1-\frac{1}{u^{d}}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$. Using the Taylor expansion for $\log (1-x)$, we obtain that

$$
|S|=2\left|\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{d \mid n} \frac{1}{u^{m d}} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)\right|
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
|S| & <2 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{u^{m d}} \\
& =2 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m}\left(\frac{u^{-m}}{1-u^{-m}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $u$ has norm $1, u \geqslant \frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2}$. In addition, $m \geqslant 1$ so

$$
\begin{equation*}
|S|<3.23607 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m\left(\frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{m}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The sum in (5) is equal to $-\log \left(1-\frac{2}{3+\sqrt{5}}\right)$, and so

$$
|S|<1.55724
$$

which therefore yields that

$$
\log \left(\left|N\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right)\right|\right)>\phi(n) \log u-1.55724
$$

Now we use the fact that if $\Delta_{n}$ has no PPDs, then $\left|N\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right)\right| \leqslant n^{2}$. Therefore, we have the following relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\phi(n)}<e^{1.55724} n^{2} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Taking logarithms twice of both sides we obtain

$$
\log (\phi(n))+\log \log u<\log (1.55724+2 \log n)
$$

Since $n>6, \log n>1$, hence we have that

$$
\log n+\sum_{p \mid n} \log \left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)<\log (3.55724)-\log \log u+\log \log n
$$

and therefore

$$
\log n<1.26899-\log \log u+\log \log n-\sum_{p \mid n} \log \left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)
$$

Noting now that for all primes $p,-\log \left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right) \leqslant \frac{1}{p}+\frac{1}{p^{2}}$ yields that

$$
\log n<1.26899-\log \log u+\log \log n+\sum_{p \mid n} \frac{1}{p}+\sum_{p \mid n} \frac{1}{p^{2}}
$$

By Proposition 2.3.3, page 72 in [9], the last term in our previous inequality is at most $\log (\zeta(2))$, where $\zeta(s)$ denotes the Riemann-Zeta function. Therefore,

$$
\log n<1.76669-\log \log u+\log \log n+\sum_{p \leqslant n} \frac{1}{p}
$$

In [15], the following estimate is derived

$$
\sum_{p \leqslant n} \frac{1}{p}<\log \log n+B+\frac{4}{\log n}
$$

where $B$ is a numerical constant whose value is approximately equal to 0.2614972128 . Inserting all this information into our inequality yields

$$
\log n-2 \log \log n-\frac{4}{\log n}<2.02819-\log \log u
$$

If $u$ is a unit of norm -1 , then

$$
\log \left|N\left(u^{d}-1\right)\right|=\log \left|u^{d}\right|+\log \left|1-\frac{1}{u^{d}}\right|+\log \left|1-\frac{(-1)^{d}}{u^{d}}\right|
$$

Plugging this in to equation (4), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \left(\left|N\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right)\right|\right) & =\sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|u^{d}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)+\sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|1-\frac{1}{u^{d}}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)+\sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|1-\frac{(-1)^{d}}{u^{d}}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \\
& =\phi(n) \log u+\sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|1-\frac{1}{u^{d}}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)+\sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|1-\frac{(-1)^{d}}{u^{d}}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Define $S_{1}=\sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|1-\frac{1}{u^{d}}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$ and $S_{2}=\sum_{d \mid n} \log \left|1-\frac{(-1)^{d}}{u^{d}}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$. Again, using the Taylor expansion for $\log (1-x)$, and estimating these sums in the same way we did for $S$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|S_{i}\right| & \leqslant \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{d \mid n} \frac{1}{u^{m d}} \\
& <\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m}\left(\frac{u^{-m}}{1-u^{-m}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Noting that since $u$ is a unit of norm $-1, u \geqslant \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$, we see that

$$
\left|S_{i}\right|<2.61804 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{m}}
$$

Once again, this sum is equal to $-\log \left(1-\frac{2}{1+\sqrt{5}}\right)$, thus

$$
\left|S_{i}\right|<2.51966
$$

and so

$$
\log \left(\left|N\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right)\right|\right)>\phi(n) \log u-5.03933
$$

Exponentiating this relation, we arrive at

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|N\left(\phi_{n}(u)\right)\right|>\frac{u^{\phi(n)}}{e^{5.03933}} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Running through the same calculation as before gives us the desired inequality.

## 3. Main Results

3.1. Units of Norm 1. If $u>1$ is a unit of norm 1 , then $u \geqslant\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{2}$. Inserting this into (2), we have that if $\Delta_{n}$ has no PPD, then

$$
\log n-2 \log \log n-\frac{4}{\log n}<2.06650
$$

It is now clear that $n$ is bounded, since $g(x):=\log x-2 \log \log x-\frac{4}{\log x}$ is an increasing function on $(e, \infty)$. Then, since $g(n)$ is bounded above, $n$ is also and so using Maple 9.5 to solve $g(x)=2.06650$ we conclude that

$$
n \leqslant 604
$$

We can now improve this further because we know that inequality (6) must be satisfied in order that $\Delta_{n}$ has no PPD. We also know that $u \geqslant\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{2}$. So we do a case by case check of the values of $n$ between 7 and 604 for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{2 \phi(n)}-e^{1.55724} n^{2}<0 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Instructing Maple 9.5 to compute the left hand side of the above inequality for each $n$ in our range and observing when the quantity is negative yields that

$$
n \leqslant 30
$$

More precisely, inequality (8) only holds when $n=8,9,10,12,14,18,24$ or 30 . Now a bare hands approach is required to see if we can lower the bound.

If we choose $u$ so that $u \geqslant C>\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{2}$, the nature of the inequality in (6) will allow us to reduce the bound for $n$. Some experimenting shows that if we choose $C=6$, we can deduce that $n \leqslant 6$ using the same case checking procedure as before.

Therefore, our strategy will be to find all the units of norm 1 which are between 1 and 6 (of which there are finitely many) and using (11) to look at the terms of the sequence up to the 30th and deduce the Zsigmondy bound. For $u>6$, we know from our above comments that the Zsigmondy bound is at most 6 , and there is little more we can say on this point.

To find norm 1 units $1<u \leqslant 6$, we note that when $d \not \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, $u$ is of the shape $u=a+b \sqrt{d}$, where $a, b$ are integers. Hence, the following inequality holds

$$
2.618<a+b \sqrt{d} \leqslant 6
$$

Taking reciprocals we have

$$
0.166<a-b \sqrt{d}<0.382
$$

and it is clear that

$$
2 \leqslant a \leqslant 3
$$

If $a=2$ and $N(u)=1$ then we have $b^{2} d=3$. The only solutions of this are when $b^{2}=1$ and $d=3$ thus giving us $u=2 \pm \sqrt{3}$. Hence, $u=2+\sqrt{3}$ is the only valid solution. Similarly if $a=3$ the only valid unit is $u=3+2 \sqrt{2}$.
We now come to the case where $d \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$. A similar analysis for $u=\frac{a+b \sqrt{d}}{2}$ yields

$$
3 \leqslant a \leqslant 6
$$

The only solutions to $N(u)=1$ with $a$ in this range are $u=\frac{3 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$ and $u=\frac{5 \pm \sqrt{21}}{2}$, but again since $u>2.618$, we take the positive sign. Hence there are four units of norm 1 which are greater than 1 but less than 6 , namely $2+\sqrt{3}, 3+2 \sqrt{2}, \frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2}, \frac{5+\sqrt{21}}{2}$.

We start with the case when $u=2+\sqrt{3}$, and we observe that for $7 \leqslant n \leqslant 30$ inequality (6) holds when $n=8,10,12$. We also note that condition (11) fails when $n=8,10,12$ so $\Delta_{8}, \Delta_{10}$ and $\Delta_{12}$ all have PPDs, so we can restrict our attention to when $n \leqslant 6$. Here is a table illustrating the prime factors of $\Delta_{n}$ for $n$ from 1 to 6 .

| $n$ | $\Delta_{n}$ | Prime factors of $\Delta_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | -2 | 2 |
| 2 | -12 | 2,3 |
| 3 | -50 | 2,5 |
| 4 | -192 | 2,3 |
| 5 | -722 | 2,19 |
| 6 | -2700 | $2,3,5$ |

Therefore, the 4 th and 6 th terms of this sequence are the only ones which do not have a PPD.
We now turn our attention to $u=3+2 \sqrt{2}$, where inequality (6) does not hold for any $n \geqslant 7$. So we can say immediately that $Z(\Delta) \leqslant 6$. We illustrate the prime factors of $\Delta_{n}$ in a table as previously.

| $n$ | $\Delta_{n}$ | Prime factors of $\Delta_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | -4 | 2 |
| 2 | -32 | 2 |
| 3 | -196 | 2,7 |
| 4 | -1152 | 2,3 |
| 5 | -6724 | 2,41 |
| 6 | -39200 | $2,5,7$ |

It is therefore clear that when $u=3+2 \sqrt{2}$ that all terms beyond the second have a $\operatorname{PPD}$, so $Z(\Delta)=2$.
When $u=\frac{5+\sqrt{21}}{2}$, we have that the inequality (6) holds when $n=12$ and that (1) is false when $n=12$. So we only need check terms from the sixth downwards to see which ones, if any, have no PPDs. We again list these terms and their prime factors in the table below.

| $n$ | $\Delta_{n}$ | Prime factors of $\Delta_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | -3 | 3 |
| 2 | -21 | 3,7 |
| 3 | -108 | 2,3 |
| 4 | -525 | $3,5,7$ |
| 5 | -2523 | 3,29 |
| 6 | -12096 | $2,3,7$ |

Hence, we deduce again that $\Delta_{n}$ has a PPD for all terms beyond the sixth, and $\Delta_{6}$ is the only term which fails to have a PPD.

Finally, when $u=\frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ we find inequality (6) holds when $n=8,9,10,12,14,18,24,30$. Our condition (11) does not hold when $n$ is equal to $14,18,24$, or 30 . So we now need to check cases $n \leqslant 12$, to see which terms of $\Delta_{n}$ have primitive prime factors. These have all been listed in the table below.

| $n$ | $\Delta_{n}$ | Prime factors of $\Delta_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | -1 | None |
| 2 | -5 | 5 |
| 3 | -16 | 2 |
| 4 | -45 | 3,5 |
| 5 | -121 | 11 |
| 6 | -320 | 2,5 |
| 7 | -841 | 29 |
| 8 | -2205 | $3,5,7$ |
| 9 | -5776 | 2,19 |
| 10 | -15125 | 5,11 |
| 11 | -39601 | 199 |
| 12 | -103680 | $2,3,5$ |

It is immediately clear that $\Delta_{n}$ has no PPDs precisely when $n=6,10,12$.
We have therefore proven the following theorem
Theorem 3.1. Let $R$ be the ring of integers of the field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$, where $d$ is a squarefree positive integer. Let $0<u \in R$ be a unit of norm 1. If $u<\frac{1}{6}$ or $u>6$, then $Z(\Delta) \leqslant 6$. For all other such units $u$, one of the following holds:

- $u=3+2 \sqrt{2}, 3-2 \sqrt{2}$, where $Z(\Delta)=2$.
- $u=2+\sqrt{3}, 2-\sqrt{3}$, where $Z(\Delta)=6$ and the only terms without a primitive prime divisor are $\Delta_{4}$ and $\Delta_{6}$.
- $u=\frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2}, \frac{3-\sqrt{5}}{2}$, where $Z(\Delta)=12$ and the only terms without a primitive prime divisor are $\Delta_{6}$, $\Delta_{10}$ and $\Delta_{12}$.
- $u=\frac{5+\sqrt{21}}{2}, \frac{5-\sqrt{21}}{2}$, where $Z(\Delta)=6$ and the only term without a primitive prime divisor is $\Delta_{6}$.
3.2. Units of Norm -1 . We now wish to establish a similar result when $u$ is a unit of norm -1 . If $u$ has norm -1 and $n=2 k$ where $k$ is an odd integer, then (11) will not hold, but when $n$ is of this form $\Delta_{n}$ does not have a PPD, so we just ignore these values of $n$. Define $\Delta^{\prime}$ to be the sequence obtained by removing from $\Delta$, the terms $\Delta_{n}$ for which $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$.

If $u$ is a quadratic unit of norm -1 , then $u>\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ and so by substituting into (3) we obtain that

$$
g(n)<3.44217
$$

where $g(x)$ is as before. Solving this inequality again using Maple 9.5 yields that

$$
n \leqslant 3375
$$

Observing that if $u$ is norm -1 , inequality (7) holds, so by Theorem 2.1 we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\phi(n)}<e^{5.03933} n^{2} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $u \geqslant \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$, we are led to solve the following inequality

$$
\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{\phi(n)}<e^{5.03933} n^{2}
$$

checking cases on Maple 9.5 for $n$ between 7 and 3375 finds that this inequality is only true when

$$
n \leqslant 90
$$

Using the same trick as for norm 1, we observe that for $u>13$, inequality (9) implies that $n \leqslant 6$. We will therefore look at the cases $u>13$ and $u \leqslant 13$ separately. Finding the positive units of norm -1 that are between 1 and 13 is a finite problem and using the method from earlier we find that they are $1+\sqrt{2}, \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}, 2+\sqrt{5}, \frac{11+5 \sqrt{5}}{2}, 3+\sqrt{10}, \frac{3+\sqrt{13}}{2}, 4+\sqrt{17}, 5+\sqrt{26}, \frac{5+\sqrt{29}}{2}, 6+\sqrt{37}, \frac{7+\sqrt{53}}{2}, \frac{9+\sqrt{85}}{2}$.

Now we need to look at the terms of the sequence for $1 \leqslant n \leqslant 90$ where $n \not \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ to see which have no PPDs. Doing the individual case checks as in the norm 1 case we find that when
$u=1+\sqrt{2}$, inequality (9) holds when $n=7,8,9,10,11,12,14,15,16,18,20,21,22,24,26,28,30,36,42$. We are however ignoring the terms $\Delta_{n}$ for which $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, so this leaves us to check the cases $n=7,8,9,11,12,15,16,20,21,24,28,36$. However (1) is violated, for all these values of $n$, therefore we conclude that $Z\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \leqslant 4$. Once again we check to see if $\Delta_{n}$ has a primitive divisor for the relevant values of $n$ between 1 and 5 . Again we illustrate the factors of $\Delta_{n}$ in tabular form

| $n$ | $\Delta_{n}$ | Prime factors of $\Delta_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | -2 | 2 |
| 3 | -14 | 2,7 |
| 4 | -32 | 2 |
| 5 | -82 | 2,41 |

It is at once clear that $\Delta_{4}=\Delta_{3}^{\prime}$ is the only term of $\Delta^{\prime}$ without a PPD.
For $u=\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$, relations (11) and (9) are enough to ensure that for $n>6, \Delta_{n}$ has a PPD unless $n=12,20,24$. So we now need to check all the terms up to the 24 th to see which ones have primitive prime divisors, and then we are done. Here is the table

| $n$ | $\Delta_{n}$ | Prime factors of $\Delta_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | -1 | None |
| 3 | -4 | 2 |
| 4 | -5 | 5 |
| 5 | -11 | 11 |
| 7 | -29 | 29 |
| 8 | -45 | 3,5 |
| 9 | -76 | 2,19 |
| 11 | -199 | 199 |
| 12 | -320 | 2,5 |
| 13 | -521 | 521 |
| 15 | -1364 | $2,11,31$ |
| 16 | -2205 | $3,5,7$ |
| 17 | -3571 | 3571 |
| 19 | -9349 | 9349 |
| 20 | -15125 | 5,11 |
| 21 | -24476 | $2,19,211$ |
| 23 | -64079 | 139,461 |
| 24 | -103680 | $2,3,5$ |

We see that $\Delta_{12}=\Delta_{9}^{\prime}, \Delta_{20}=\Delta_{15}^{\prime}$ and $\Delta_{24}=\Delta_{18}^{\prime}$ are the only terms of $\Delta^{\prime}$ that fail to have a PPD.
For all of the other units $u \leqslant 13$, conditions (9) and (1) are enough to secure that $n<6$, and hence that $Z\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \leqslant 4$. Checking for primitive divisors of the remaining terms in exactly the same way as above, yields that all terms have a primitive prime divisor and so $Z\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)=1$.

Our case checking is now complete and we have derived the following result.
Theorem 3.2. Let $R$ be as in Theorem 3.1 and $1<u \in R$ be a unit of norm -1 . Then for all $u>13$, $Z\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \leqslant 4$. If $u \leqslant 13$, then one of the following is true:

- $u=1+\sqrt{2}$, where $Z\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)=3$ and the only term without a primitive prime divisor is $\Delta_{3}^{\prime}$;
- $u=\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$, where $Z\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)=18$ and the only terms without a primitive prime divisor are $\Delta_{9}^{\prime}, \Delta_{15}^{\prime}$ and $\Delta_{18}^{\prime}$;
- $Z\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)=1$.

Combining the results of Theorems 3.1 and 3.2, gives us the statement of Theorem 1.4.

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