# PRIMITIVE DIVISORS OF SOME LEHMER-PIERCE SEQUENCES

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ABSTRACT. We study the primitive divisors of the terms of  $(\Delta_n)_{n\geqslant 1}$ , where  $\Delta_n=N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(u^n-1)$  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  $A = (a_n)_{n \ge 1}$  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  $a_m \ne 0$ . Sequences whose terms all have primitive divisors beyond some point are of great interest in number theory.

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $A = (a_n)_{n \ge 1}$  be an integer sequence. Define

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

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  $(a^n-1)_{n\geqslant 1}$ , where  $1 < a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and showed that  $Z((a^n-1)_{n\geqslant 1}) \leqslant 6$ . Zsigmondy in [16] proved the more general result that given any positive coprime integers a, b with a > b, the sequence  $(a^n-b^n)_{n\geqslant 1}$  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  $L', Z(L') \leqslant 30$ . 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 nP) 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  $(a^n - b^n)$  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 p which divides the nth 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 nth 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.

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

$$\Delta_n(f) = N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha^n - 1).$$

Then there exists a positive integer  $C_1$ , so that for all units  $\alpha$  of norm 1,  $Z(\Delta) \leq C_1$ . 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  $n \not\equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ .

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  $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , 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,  $|\Delta_n(f)|$  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  $u=1+\sqrt{2}$ ,  $|\Delta_n|$  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  $E(\mathbb{F}_{p^n})$ , 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  $\Delta = (\Delta_n)_{n \geqslant 1} = (N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(u^n - 1))_{n \geqslant 1}$ , 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 Lehmer-Pierce 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  $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ .

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  $\mathfrak{p}|B_m$  for some m < n. Then

$$(\beta^m - 1) = \mathfrak{pq}$$

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

$$(\alpha^m)(\beta^m - 1) = \mathfrak{pq}.$$

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  $\mathfrak p|(\alpha^m+1)$ . Therefore,  $\alpha^m\equiv -1\pmod{\mathfrak p}$  and so  $\alpha^{2m}\equiv 1\pmod{\mathfrak p}$ . Now as  $\mathfrak p$  is a primitive divisor of  $A_n$ ,  $\alpha$  has order n in the group  $(R/\mathfrak p)^*$ . Therefore n|2m. Since m< n, this is enough to secure that n=2m, and we conclude that possibility 2 can only hold in the case when n is twice an odd integer. If  $n\equiv 2\pmod{4}$ , then n=2k 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  $n\equiv 2\pmod{4}$ . The fact that  $\Delta_n$  fails to have a primitive divisor beyond some point if  $n\equiv 2\pmod{4}$  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  $Z_I((A_n)_{n\geqslant 1}) < c_1$ , and  $Z_I((B_n)_{n\geqslant 1}) < c_2$ , 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  $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  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  $u \in R \setminus \{\pm 1\}$  be a quadratic unit of norm 1. Then for any n > 6, if  $\Delta_n$  fails to have a primitive prime divisor we have

(1) 
$$N(\phi_n(u))\Big|n^2,$$

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  $n \not\equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ , if  $\Delta_n$  fails to have a PPD then (1) 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,

$$\operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}(\phi_n(u)) \leqslant \operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}(n)$$

and

$$\operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}(\phi_n(v)) \leqslant \operatorname{ord}_{\mathfrak{p}}(n).$$

Adding these two inequalities together tells us that

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

and so we have proved the statement of the Lemma.

Using (1), 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

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

If u has norm -1,  $n \not\equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ , and  $\Delta_n$  has no primitive prime divisor, then

(3) 
$$\log n - 2\log\log n - \frac{4}{\log n} < 2.71072 - \log\log u.$$

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

$$x^n - 1 = \prod_{d|n} \phi_d(x).$$

Hence we have the following factorisation of  $\Delta_n$ 

$$|\Delta_n| = \prod_{d|n} |N(\phi_d(u))|.$$

Taking logarithms now gives

$$\log(|N(u^{n} - 1)|) = \sum_{d|n} \log(|N(\phi_d(u))|).$$

Applying the Möbius Inversion Formula for arithmetical functions now yields

(4) 
$$\log(|N(\phi_n(u))|) = \sum_{d|n} \log(|N(u^d - 1)|)\mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right).$$

Now using (4), we are going to estimate the size of  $|N(\phi_n(u))|$ . If u is a unit of norm 1, then

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

Therefore, by (4) we have

$$\log(|N(\phi_n(u))|) = \sum_{d|n} \log|u^d| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) + 2\sum_{d|n} \log\left|1 - \frac{1}{u^d}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$$
$$= \phi(n) \log u + 2\sum_{d|n} \log\left|1 - \frac{1}{u^d}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right).$$

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

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

Hence,

$$|S| < 2 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{u^{md}}$$
$$= 2 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m} \left( \frac{u^{-m}}{1 - u^{-m}} \right).$$

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

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

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

$$\log(|N(\phi_n(u))|) > \phi(n) \log u - 1.55724.$$

Now we use the fact that if  $\Delta_n$  has no PPDs, then  $|N(\phi_n(u))| \leq n^2$ . Therefore, we have the following relation

$$(6) u^{\phi(n)} < e^{1.55724} n^2.$$

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

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

and therefore

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

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

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

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,

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

In [15], the following estimate is derived

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

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

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

Plugging this in to equation (4), we have

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

$$= \phi(n) \log u + \sum_{d|n} \log\left|1 - \frac{1}{u^d}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) + \sum_{d|n} \log\left|1 - \frac{(-1)^d}{u^d}\right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right).$$

Define  $S_1 = \sum_{d|n} \log \left| 1 - \frac{1}{u^d} \right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$  and  $S_2 = \sum_{d|n} \log \left| 1 - \frac{(-1)^d}{u^d} \right| \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$ . Again, using the Taylor expansion for  $\log(1-x)$ , and estimating these sums in the same way we did for S, we get

$$|S_i| \leqslant \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{d|n} \frac{1}{u^{md}}$$

$$< \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m} \left( \frac{u^{-m}}{1 - u^{-m}} \right).$$

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

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

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

$$|S_i| < 2.51966,$$

and so

$$\log(|N(\phi_n(u))|) > \phi(n)\log u - 5.03933.$$

Exponentiating this relation, we arrive at

(7) 
$$|N(\phi_n(u))| > \frac{u^{\phi(n)}}{e^{5.03933}}.$$

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  $u \ge (\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2})^2$ . 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

$$n \le 604$$
.

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

(8) 
$$\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{2\phi(n)} - e^{1.55724}n^2 < 0.$$

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

$$n \leq 30$$
.

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  $u \ge C > \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^2$ , 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  $n \le 6$  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 (1) 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  $1 < u \le 6$ , we note that when  $d \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , u is of the shape  $u = a + b\sqrt{d}$ , where a, b are integers. Hence, the following inequality holds

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

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  $b^2d=3$ . 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  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . A similar analysis for  $u = \frac{a+b\sqrt{d}}{2}$  yields

$$3 \le a \le 6$$
.

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 (1) 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 4th and 6th 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  $n \ge 7$ . So we can say immediately that  $Z(\Delta) \le 6$ . 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 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 (1) does not hold when n is equal to 14, 18, 24, or 30. So we now need to check cases  $n \leq 12$ , 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  $Z(\Delta) \leq 6$ . 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=2k where k is an odd integer, then (1) 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  $\Delta'$  to be the sequence obtained by removing from  $\Delta$ , the terms  $\Delta_n$  for which  $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ .

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 q(n) < 3.44217,

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

$$n \le 3375$$
.

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

$$(9) u^{\phi(n)} < e^{5.03933} n^2.$$

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

$$n \leq 90$$
.

Using the same trick as for norm 1, we observe that for u > 13, inequality (9) implies that  $n \leq 6$ . We will therefore look at the cases u > 13 and  $u \leq 13$  separately. Finding the positive units of norm -1that 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  $1 \le n \le 90$  where  $n \not\equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  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  $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ , 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  $Z(\Delta') \leq 4$ . 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  $\Delta_4 = \Delta_3'$  is the only term of  $\Delta'$  without a PPD.

For  $u=\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ , relations (1) 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 24th 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  $\Delta_{12} = \Delta_9', \Delta_{20} = \Delta_{15}'$  and  $\Delta_{24} = \Delta_{18}'$  are the only terms of  $\Delta'$  that fail to have a PPD.

For all of the other units  $u \leq 13$ , conditions (9) and (1) are enough to secure that n < 6, and hence that  $Z(\Delta') \leq 4$ . 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  $Z(\Delta') = 1$ .

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,  $Z(\Delta') \leq 4$ . If  $u \leq 13$ , then one of the following is true:

- $u=1+\sqrt{2}$ , where  $Z(\Delta')=3$  and the only term without a primitive prime divisor is  $\Delta'_3$ ;  $u=\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ , where  $Z(\Delta')=18$  and the only terms without a primitive prime divisor are  $\Delta'_9,\Delta'_{15}$  and  $\Delta'_{18}$ ;

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

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