# ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF A FAMILY OF ALMOST POWER FREE SEQUENCES 

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#### Abstract

We introduce the concept of an integer sequence to be almost power free and show that the primorial plus one sequence $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots p_{n}+1$ and its generalizations are almost power free. In addition a stronger result is also proven, namely that the primorial plus one sequence is free from perfect powers.


## 1. Introduction

A frequently occurring question in the theory of integer sequences is the existence or nonexistence of perfect powers, natural numbers of the form $m^{n}$ where $m, n \in \mathbb{N} \backslash\{1\}$, among the terms of a given integer sequence. Such questions have proved difficult to resolve, in connection with a number of well-known integer sequences, such as the Fibonacci and Lucas sequences. Indeed, using a novel approach that combines the theory of logarithmic forms with the modular method, M. Mignotte et al [1] has recently shown that the only Fibonacci numbers which are perfect powers are $F_{0}=0, F_{1}=F_{2}=1, F_{6}=8$ and $F_{12}=144$. The Fibonacci sequence is a particular example of a broader class of sequences we shall define here as being "almost power free", in that for each integer $s \in \mathbb{N} \backslash\{1\}$, there can only be at most finitely many perfect powers in the sequence having exponent $s$. With this definition in mind, it is natural to question whether there are other familiar, but non-trivial examples of sequences, such as the Fibonacci sequence, which satisfy the "almost power free" condition. In this paper, we shall construct such a family of sequences using a generalization of the primorial plus one sequence that is, $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots p+1$, found in Euclid's proof for the infinitude of primes. In addition, we shall also demonstrate that the sequence $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots p+1$, is in point of fact free from all perfect powers.

## 2. Main Results

Before establishing the main result, let us first make precise the idea of a sequence being almost power free with the following definition.
Definition 2.1. A sequence of positive integers $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ is said to be almost power free, if for each integer $s \in \mathbb{N} \backslash\{1\}$ there exists an $m_{s} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \geq m_{s}$, there does not exist an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a_{n}=N^{s}$.

In what follows the set of prime numbers is denoted by $P$.
Theorem 2.2. Suppose $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ is a sequence of positive integers defined in the following manner. Partition the set $P \backslash\{2,5\}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_{i}$, where each set $A_{i}$ is finite with $A_{i} \cap A_{j}=\emptyset$, for $i \neq j$, and let $a_{n}=\prod_{p \in A_{n}} p$. Then the associated sequence $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$, defined by $b_{n}=2 \cdot 5 \cdot a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}+1$, is an almost power free sequence.

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Proof. We argue via proof by contradiction. Assume for any exponent $s \in \mathbb{N} \backslash\{1\}$ there exists two infinite subsequences $\left\{n_{k}\right\},\left\{N_{k}\right\}$ of positive integers greater than unity, such that $b_{n_{k}}=N_{k}^{s}$. Furthermore, we may assume without loss of generality that $s$ is prime, since if $s=r p$, where $r, p \in \mathbb{N}$ and $p$ is prime, then $N_{k}^{s}=\left(N_{k}^{r}\right)^{p}$. Clearly as $b_{n_{k}}$ is odd so must $N_{k}$, hence $N_{k} \equiv \pm 1, \pm 3$ or $5(\bmod 10)$. First note that $N_{k} \not \equiv 5(\bmod 10)$, since the contrary would imply that $5 \mid b_{n_{k}}$, which is impossible. Now as $b_{n_{k}} \equiv 1(\bmod 10)$, if $N_{k} \equiv \pm 3$ $(\bmod 10)$ then the only positive integer powers of $N_{k}$ congruent to $1(\bmod 10)$ are $N_{k}^{4 n}$, for $n=1,2, \ldots$, thus as $p$ is prime the equality $b_{n_{k}}=N_{k}^{p}$ is impossible and so $N \not \equiv \pm 3(\bmod 10)$. Similarly, if $N \equiv-1(\bmod 10)$, then as the only positive integer powers of $N_{k}$ congruent to $1(\bmod 10)$ are $N_{k}^{2 n}$, for $n=1,2, \ldots$, we need only examine the equality $b_{n_{k}}=(10 m-1)^{2}$, where $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Upon expanding and rearranging terms, one finds that

$$
a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n_{k}}=10 m^{2}-2 m,
$$

which is impossible as the right-hand side is even, while the left-hand side is odd, thus $N_{k} \not \equiv-1(\bmod 10)$. Alternatively, if $N_{k} \equiv 1(\bmod 10)$ then, a similar argument establishes the impossibility of the equality $b_{n_{k}}=(10 m+1)^{2}$. Hence, as all other positive integer powers of $N_{k}$ are congruent to $1(\bmod 10)$, we are left to consider the remaining equality $b_{n_{k}}=(10 m+1)^{p}$, where $p$ is an odd prime. Upon expanding and rearranging terms one finds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n_{k}}=10^{p-1} m^{p}+\binom{p}{1} 10^{p-2} m^{p-1}+\binom{p}{2} 10^{p-3} m^{p-2}+\cdots+\binom{p}{p-1} m . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

As every prime $\left.p \left\lvert\, \begin{array}{l}p \\ i\end{array}\right.\right)$, for $i=1,2, \ldots, p-1$, we deduce from (2.1) that $p \neq 5$ since otherwise 5 would divide the right-hand side but not the left-hand side of (2.1). Thus assume $p$ is an odd prime other than 5 . Now by construction the product $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n_{k}}$ is square free and for $k$ sufficiently large $p \mid a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n_{k}}$. Consequently, $p \nmid m$ since otherwise $p^{2}$ would divide the left-hand side of (2.1), thus $p \nmid 10^{p-1} m^{p}$ and so cannot divide the right-hand side of (2.1), thus producing the final contradiction and so $N_{k} \not \equiv 1(\bmod 10)$. Hence, the original assumption is false and so for $n$ sufficiently large there cannot exist, for each fixed exponent $p \in \mathbb{N} \backslash\{1\}$, an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $b_{n}=N^{p}$. Thus the sequence $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$ must be almost power free.

If $p_{n}$ denotes the $n$-th prime, then a simple inductive argument reveals that the set partition $P \backslash\{2,5\}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_{i}$ given by $A_{1}=\{3\}$ and $A_{i}=\left\{p_{i+2}\right\}$, for $i>1$, gives rise to the sequence $b_{n}=2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots p_{n+2}+1$. Thus from Theorem 2.2 we conclude that the primorial plus one sequence $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots p_{n}+1$ must be almost power free. To conclude we prove using a modification of the proof of Theorem 2.2 the following stronger result.

Theorem 2.3. The primorial plus one sequence given by $b_{n}=2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots p_{n}+1$ is power free.
Proof. As $b_{1}=3$ and $b_{2}=7$ are not perfect powers, we consider the sequence $b_{n}$ where $n>2$. Fix $n$ and again assume without loss of generality that for a prime exponent $p$, there exists an $N \in \mathbb{N} \backslash\{1\}$, such that $b_{n}=N^{p}$. Clearly as $b_{n}$ is odd so must $N$, hence $N \equiv \pm 1, \pm 3$ or $5(\bmod 10)$. First note that $N \not \equiv 5(\bmod 10)$, since the contrary would imply that $5 \mid b_{n}$, which is impossible. Now as $b_{n} \equiv 1(\bmod 10)$, if $N \equiv \pm 3(\bmod 10)$ then the only positive integer powers of $N$ congruent to $1(\bmod 10)$ are $N^{4 s}$, for $s=1,2, \ldots$. Thus, as $p$ is prime the equality $b_{n}=N^{p}$ is impossible and so $N \not \equiv \pm 3(\bmod 10)$. Similarly,

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if $N \equiv-1(\bmod 10)$, then as the only positive integer powers of $N$ congruent to $1(\bmod 10)$ are $N^{2 s}$, for $s=1,2, \ldots$, we need only examine the equality $b_{n}=(10 m-1)^{2}$, where $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Upon expanding and rearranging terms, one finds that

$$
3 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 \cdots p_{n}=10 m^{2}-2 m
$$

which is impossible as the right-hand side is even, while the left-hand side is odd, thus $N \not \equiv-1(\bmod 10)$. Alternatively, if $N \equiv 1(\bmod 10)$ then a similar argument establishes the impossibility of the equality $b_{n}=(10 m+1)^{2}$. Hence, as all other positive integer powers of $N$ are congruent to $1(\bmod 10)$, we are left to consider the remaining equality $b_{n}=(10 m+1)^{p}$, where $p$ is an odd prime. Upon expanding and rearranging terms one finds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
3 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 \cdots p_{n}=10^{p-1} m^{p}+\binom{p}{1} 10^{p-2} m^{p-1}+\binom{p}{2} 10^{p-3} m^{p-2}+\cdots+\binom{p}{p-1} m . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

As every prime $\left.p \left\lvert\, \begin{array}{l}p \\ i\end{array}\right.\right)$, for $i=1,2, \ldots, p-1$, we deduce from (2.2) that $p \neq 5$ since otherwise 5 would divide the right-hand side but not the left-hand side of (2.2). Thus assume $p$ is an odd prime other than 5 . We now show that $p$ divides the left-hand side but not the right-hand side of (2.2). First note from the equality $b_{n}=(10 m+1)^{p}=N^{p}$ that $\left(N, p_{i}\right)=1$, for all $i=1,2, \ldots, n$, and so $N>p_{n}$, for if $N \leq p_{n}$ then at least one of the $p_{i}$ must divide $N$. Consequently $b_{n}=p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{n}+1=N^{p}>p_{n}^{p}$ and so $p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{n} \geq p_{n}^{p}$, but this can only be true if $n>p$. However, as $p_{n}>n$ we deduce that $p_{n}>p$ and as $p \neq 2,5$ one must have $p \mid 3 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 \cdots p_{n}$. Furthermore, as the left-hand side of (2.2) is square free, we note $p \nmid m$ since otherwise $p^{2}$ would divide the right-hand side of (2.2). Thus, $p \nmid 10^{p-1} \mathrm{~m}^{p}$ but $p \left\lvert\,\binom{ p}{i}\right.$, for $i=1,2, \ldots, p-1$, and so $p$ cannot divide the right-hand side of (2.2), a clear and final contradiction and so $N \not \equiv 1(\bmod 10)$. Hence the original assumption is false and thus the sequence $b_{n}=2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots p_{n}+1$ must be power free.

## References

[1] Y. Bugeaud, M. Mignotte and S. Siksek, Classical and Modular Approaches to Exponential Diophantine Equations. I. Fibonacci and Lucas Perfect Powers, Ann. of Math, 163 (2006), 969-1018.

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