

The Diophantine equation $x(x+1)\cdots(x+(m-1))+r=y^n$

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1 Introduction

Erdős and Selfridge [7] proved that a product of consecutive integers can never be a perfect power. That is, the equation $x(x+1)\cdots(x+(m-1))=y^n$ has no solutions in positive integers x, y, m, n with $m, n > 1$. A natural problem is to study the equation

$$x(x+1)(x+2)\cdots(x+(m-1))+r=y^n \quad (1)$$

with a *nonzero* integral (or rational) parameter r . M.J. Cohen [6] proved that (1) has finitely many solutions with $m=n$, and Yuan Ping-zhi [13] used the classical theorems of Baker and Schinzel-Tijdeman to show that, with some obvious exceptions, there are at most finitely many solutions with a fixed m . (See Theorem 1.2 below). Some special cases were completely solved by Abe [1] and Alemu [2].

In this paper we use prove that (1) has finitely many solutions (x, y, m, n) when r is not a perfect power.

Theorem 1.1 *Let r be a non-zero rational number which is not a perfect power in \mathbb{Q} . Then (1) has at most finitely many solutions (x, y, m, n) satisfying*

$$x, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad y \in \mathbb{Q}, \quad m, n > 1. \quad (2)$$

Moreover, all the solutions can be explicitly determined.

We deduce Theorem 1.1 from three more particular results, one of which is the above-mentioned result of Yuan. First of all, let us display two infinite series of solutions which occur for two special values of r . For $r = 1/4$ we have the solutions

$$x \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad y = \pm(x+1/2), \quad m = n = 2. \quad (3)$$

For $r = 1$ we have infinitely many solutions

$$x \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad y = \pm(x^2+3x+1), \quad m = 4, \quad n = 2. \quad (4)$$

In the following theorem m is fixed, and we solve (1) in x, y, n .

Theorem 1.2 (Yuan) *Let r be a non-zero rational number and $m > 1$ an integer.*

1. *Assume that $(m, r) \notin \{(2, 1/4), (4, 1)\}$. Then (1) has at most finitely many solutions (x, y, n) satisfying*

$$x, n \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad y \in \mathbb{Q}, \quad n > 1, \quad (5)$$

and all the solutions can be explicitly determined.

2. *Assume that $(m, r) = (2, 1/4)$ or $(m, r) = (4, 1)$. Then, besides the solutions from (3), respectively (4), equation (1) has at most finitely many solutions (x, y, n) satisfying (5), and all these solutions can be explicitly determined.*

Yuan formulates his result in a slightly different (and non-equivalent) form, and his proof is about three pages long. For the convenience of the reader, we give in Section 2 a concise proof of Theorem 1.2, following Yuan's argument with some changes.

Theorem 1.2 implies that n is bounded in terms of m and r . It turns out that, when $r \neq \pm 1$, it is bounded in terms of r only.

Theorem 1.3 *Let r be a rational number distinct from 0 and ± 1 . Then there exists an effective constant $C(r)$ with the following property. If (x, y, m, n) is a solution of (1) satisfying (2) then $n \leq C(r)$.*

Now change the roles: n is fixed, m is variable.

Theorem 1.4 *Let r be a non-zero rational number and $n > 1$ an integer. Assume that r is not an n -th power in \mathbb{Q} . Then (1) has at most finitely many solutions (x, y, m) satisfying*

$$x, m \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad y \in \mathbb{Q}, \quad m > 1, \tag{6}$$

and all the solutions can be explicitly determined.

In [8] this theorem is extended (non-effectively) to the equation $x(x+1)\cdots(x+m-1) = g(y)$, where $g(y)$ is an arbitrary irreducible polynomial.

Theorem 1.1 is an immediate consequence of Theorems 1.3 and 1.4. Indeed, assume that r is not a perfect power. Theorem 1.3 implies that n is effectively bounded in terms of r . In particular, we have finitely many possible n . Theorem 1.4 implies that for each n there are at most finitely many possibilities of (x, y, m) . This proves Theorem 1.1.

Remark 1.5 It is interesting to compare (1) with the classical equation of Catalan $x^m - y^n = 1$. This equation has been effectively solved by Tijdeman [12], and recently Mihăilescu [9] (see also [5]) solved it completely. However, much less is known about the equation $x^m - y^n = r$ for $r \neq \pm 1$. Just to the contrary, for equation (1) the case $r = \pm 1$ seems to be the most difficult.

2 Proof of Theorem 1.2

In this section $m > 1$ is an integer and $f_m(x) = x(x+1)\cdots(x+m-1)$.

Proposition 2.1 *Let λ be a complex number. Then the polynomial $f_m(x) - \lambda$ has at least 2 simple roots if $(m, \lambda) \notin \left\{ (2, -1/4), \left(3, \frac{\pm 2}{3\sqrt{3}} \right), (4, -1) \right\}$. It has at least three simple roots if $m > 2$ and $(m, \lambda) \notin \left\{ (3, \pm 4/3\sqrt{3}), (4, -1), (4, 9/16), (6, 16(10 \pm 7\sqrt{7})/27) \right\}$.*

Proof By the Theorem of Rolle, $f'_m(x)$ has $m-1$ distinct real roots. Hence $f_m(x) - \lambda$ may have roots of order at most 2. Beukers, Shorey and Tijdeman [4, Proposition 3.4] proved that for even m at most 2 double roots are possible, and for odd m only one double root may occur. It follows that for $m \notin \{2, 3, 4, 6\}$ the polynomial $f(x) - \lambda$ has at least 3 simple roots.

We are left with $m \in \{2, 3, 4, 6\}$. Since the polynomial $f(x) - \lambda$ has multiple roots if and only if λ is a stationary value of the polynomial $f(x)$ (that is, $\lambda = f(\alpha)$ where α is a root of $f'(x)$), it remains to determine the stationary values of each of the polynomials f_2, f_3, f_4, f_6 and count the simple roots of corresponding translates. The details are routine and we omit them. ■

Corollary 2.2 *Let r be a non-zero rational number. The polynomial $f_m(x) + r$ has at least 2 simple roots if $(m, r) \notin \{(2, 1/4), (4, 1)\}$. It has at least three simple roots if $m > 2$ and $(m, r) \notin \{(4, 1), (4, -9/16)\}$. ■*

We shall use the classical results of Baker [3] and of Schinzel-Tijdeman [10] on the superelliptic equation

$$f(x) = y^n. \quad (7)$$

In Baker's theorem $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ is fixed.

Theorem 2.3 (A. Baker) *Assume that $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ has at least 3 simple roots and $n > 1$, or $f(x)$ has at least 2 simple roots and $n > 2$. Then (7) has only finitely many solutions in $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $y \in \mathbb{Q}$, and the solutions can be effectively computed.*

(A non-effective version of this theorem goes back to Siegel [11].)

In the theorem of Schinzel and Tijdeman n becomes a variable.

Theorem 2.4 (Schinzel and Tijdeman) *Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be a polynomial having at least 2 distinct roots. Then there exists an effective constant $N(f)$ such that any solution of (7) in $x, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $y \in \mathbb{Q}$ satisfies $n \leq N(f)$.*

Corollary 2.5 *Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be a polynomial having at least 3 simple roots. Then (7) has at most finitely many solutions in $x, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $y \in \mathbb{Q}$ satisfying $n > 1$. If $f(x)$ has 2 simple roots then (7) has only finitely many solutions with $n > 2$. In both cases the solutions can be explicitly determined.*

Proof of Theorem 1.2 Corollaries 2.2 and 2.5 imply that the theorem is true if $m > 2$ and $(m, r) \notin \{(4, 1), (4, -9/16)\}$. It remains to consider the cases $m = 2$ and $(m, r) \in \{(4, 1), (4, -9/16)\}$.

Case 1: $m = 2, r \neq 1/4$ In this case $f_2(x) + r$ has two simple roots, and Corollary 2.5 implies that $f_2(x) + r = y^n$ has at most finitely many solutions with $n > 2$ (and these solutions can be explicitly determined). We are left with the equation $x(x+1) + r = y^2$, which is equivalent to the equation $(x + 1/2 + y)(x + 1/2 - y) = 1/4 - r$, having finitely many solutions.

Case 2: $m = 2, r = 1/4$ In this case we have the equation $(x + 1/2)^2 = y^n$. It has infinitely many solutions given by (3) and no other solutions. Indeed, if (x, y, n) is a solution with $n > 2$ then $x + 1/2$ is a perfect power, which is impossible because its denominator is 2.

Case 3: $m = 4, r = 1$ In this case we have the equation $(x^2 + 3x + 1)^2 = y^n$. It has infinitely many solutions given by (4) and only finitely many other solutions, all of which can be explicitly determined.

Indeed, let (x, y, n) be a solution with $n > 2$. If n is odd, then y is a perfect square: $y = z^2$ and $x^2 + 3x + 1 = \pm z^n$. Since $x^2 + 3x + 1$ has two simple roots, the latter equation has, by Corollary 2.5, only finitely many solutions with $n \geq 3$.

If $n = 2n_1$ is even then $x^2 + 3x + 1 = \pm y^{n_1}$, which has finitely many solutions with $n_1 \geq 3$. We are left with $n = 4$, in which case $x^2 + 3x + 1 = \pm y^2$. Equation $x^2 + 3x + 1 = y^2$ is equivalent to $(2x + 3 + 2y)(2x + 3 - 2y) = 5$, which has finitely many solutions. Equation $x^2 + 3x + 1 = -y^2$ is equivalent to $(2x + 3)^2 + 4y^2 = 5$, which has finitely many solutions as well.

Case 4: $m = 4, r = -9/16$ In this case we have the equation $(x + 3/2)^2(x^2 + 3x - 1/4) = y^n$. Since its left-hand side has 2 simple roots, this equation has, by Corollary 2.5, only finitely many solutions with $n > 2$. We are left with the equation $(x + 3/2)^2(x^2 + 3x - 1/4) = y^2$, which is equivalent to the equation $16(x^2 + 3x + 1 - y)(x^2 + 3x + 1 + y) = 25$, having only finitely many solutions.

Theorem 1.2 is proved. ■

3 Proof of Theorems 1.3 and 1.4

Let α be a non-zero rational number and p a prime number. Recall that $\text{ord}_p(\alpha)$ is the integer t such that $p^{-t}\alpha$ is a p -adic unit. The proofs of both theorems rely on the following simple observation.

Proposition 3.1 *Let p be a prime number and $t = \text{ord}_p(r)$. Then for any solution (x, y, m, n) of (1), satisfying (2), one has either $m < (t + 1)p$ or $n|t$.*

Proof Assume that $m \geq (t + 1)p$. Then $\text{ord}_p(x(x + 1)(x + 2)\dots(x + (m - 1))) \geq t + 1$. Hence

$$\text{ord}_p(x(x + 1)(x + 2)\dots(x + (m - 1)) + r) = t,$$

that is, $\text{ord}_p(y^n) = t$, which implies that $n|t$. ■

Proof of Theorem 1.3 Since $r \neq \pm 1$, there exists a prime number p such that $t = \text{ord}_p(r) \neq 0$. Theorem 1.2 implies that for every $m > 1$ there exists an effective constant $N(m)$ such that for any solution of (1) satisfying (2) we have $n \leq N(m)$. Put $C'(r) = \max\{N(m) : 2 \leq m < (t + 1)p\}$ if $t > 0$ and $C'(r) = 0$ if $t < 0$. Then $n \leq C'(r)$ when $m < (t + 1)p$, and $n \leq |t|$ by Proposition 3.1 when $m \geq (t + 1)p$. Thus, in any case $n \leq C(r) := \max\{C'(r), t\}$. ■

Proof of Theorem 1.4 The proof splits into two cases.

Case 1: there is a prime p such that n does not divide $t = \text{ord}_p(r)$ In this case Proposition 3.1 implies that $m \leq (t + 1)p$. Also, $(n, r) \notin \{(2, 1/4), (4, 1)\}$, because in both these cases r is an n -th power. Now Theorem 1.2 implies that we may have only finitely many solutions.

Case 2: n is even and $r = -r_1^n$, where $r_1 \in \mathbb{Q}$ Write $z = (y/r_1)^{n/2}$. Let p be prime number congruent to $3 \pmod 4$ and such that $\text{ord}_p(r) = 0$. If $m \geq p$ then

$$\text{ord}_p(1 + z^2) = \text{ord}_p(r^{-1}x(x + 1)\dots(x + m - 1)) > 0,$$

which implies that -1 is a quadratic residue mod p , a contradiction. Thus, $m < p$ and Theorem 1.2 again implies that we may have only finitely many solutions. ■

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