# Cubes in products of terms in arithmetic progression 

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#### Abstract

Euler proved that the product of four positive integers in arithmetic progression is not a square. Győry, using a result of Darmon and Merel, showed that the product of three coprime positive integers in arithmetic progression cannot be an $l$-th power for $l \geq 3$. There is an extensive literature on longer arithmetic progressions such that the product of the terms is an (almost) power. In this paper we extend the range of $k$ 's such that the product of $k$ coprime integers in arithmetic progression cannot be a cube when $2<k<39$. We prove a similar result for almost cubes.


## 1. Introduction

In this paper we consider the problem of almost cubes in arithmetic progressions. This problem is closely related to the Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
n(n+d) \ldots(n+(k-1) d)=b y^{l} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

in positive integers $n, d, k, b, y, l$ with $l \geq 2, k \geq 3, \operatorname{gcd}(n, d)=1, P(b) \leq k$, where for $u \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $|u|>1, P(u)$ denotes the greatest prime factor of $u$, and $P( \pm 1)=1$.

This equation has a long history, with an extensive literature. We refer to the research and survey papers [3], [10], [11], [14], [16], [18], [19], [20], [23], [25], [26], [28], [29], [31], [32], [33], [34], [35], [36], [37], [38], [40], [41], the references given there, and the other papers mentioned in the introduction.

[^0]In this paper we concentrate on results where all solutions of (1) have been determined, under some assumptions for the unknowns. We start with results concerning squares, so in this paragraph we assume that $l=2$. Already Euler proved that in this case equation (1) has no solutions with $k=4$ and $b=1$ (see [7] pp. 440 and 635). Obláth [21] extended this result to the case $k=5$. Erdős [8] and Rigge [22] independently proved that equation (1) has no solutions with $b=d=1$. Saradha and Shorey [27] proved that (1) has no solutions with $b=1, k \geq 4$, provided that $d$ is a power of a prime number. Later, LAISHRAM and Shorey [19] extended this result to the case where either $d \leq 10^{10}$, or $d$ has at most six prime divisors. Finally, most importantly from the viewpoint of the present paper, Hirata-Kohno, Laishram, Shorey and Tijdeman [17] completely solved (1) with $3 \leq k<110$ for $b=1$. Combining their result with those of Tengely [39] all solutions of (1) with $3 \leq k \leq 100, P(b)<k$ are determined.

Now assume for this paragraph that $l \geq 3$. Erdős and SELFridge [9] proved the celebrated result that equation (1) has no solutions if $b=d=1$. In the general case $P(b) \leq k$ but still with $d=1$, SARADHA [24] for $k \geq 4$ and GYŐRY [12], using a result of Darmon and Merel [6], for $k=2,3$ proved that (1) has no solutions with $P(y)>k$. For general $d$, GYőRy [13] showed that equation (1) has no solutions with $k=3$, provided that $P(b) \leq 2$. Later, this result has been extended to the case $k<12$ under certain assumptions on $P(b)$, see GYŐRY, Hajdu, Saradha [15] for $k<6$ and Bennett, Bruin, Győry, Hajdu [1] for $k<12$.

In this paper we consider the problem for cubes, that is equation (1) with $l=3$. We solve equation (1) nearly up to $k=40$. In the proofs of our results we combine the approach of [17] with results of SELMER [30] and some new ideas.

## 2. Notation and results

As we are interested in cubes in arithmetic progressions, we take $l=3$ in (1). That is, we consider the Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
n(n+d) \ldots(n+(k-1) d)=b y^{3} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

in integers $n, d, k, b, y$ where $k \geq 3, d>0, \operatorname{gcd}(n, d)=1, P(b) \leq k, n \neq 0, y \neq 0$. (Note that similarly as e.g. in [1] we allow $n<0$, as well.)

In the standard way, by our assumptions we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
n+i d=a_{i} x_{i}^{3} \quad(i=0,1, \ldots, k-1) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $P\left(a_{i}\right) \leq k, a_{i}$ is cube-free. Note that (3) also means that in fact $n+i d$ $(i=0,1, \ldots, k-1)$ is an arithmetic progression of almost cubes.

In case of $b=1$ we prove the following result.
Theorem 2.1. Suppose that $(n, d, k, y)$ is a solution to equation (2) with $b=1$ and $k<39$. Then we have

$$
(n, d, k, y)=(-4,3,3,2),(-2,3,3,-2),(-9,5,4,6) \text { or }(-6,5,4,6)
$$

We shall deduce Theorem 2.1 from the following theorem.
Theorem 2.2. Suppose that $(n, d, k, b, y)$ is a solution to equation (2) with $k<32$ and that $P(b)<k$ if $k=3$ or $k \geq 13$. Then $(n, d, k)$ belongs to the following list:

$$
\begin{gathered}
(-10,3,7),(-8,3,7),(-8,3,5),(-4,3,5),(-4,3,3),(-2,3,3) \\
(-9,5,4),(-6,5,4),(-16,7,5),(-12,7,5) \\
(n, 1, k) \text { with }-30 \leq n \leq-4 \text { or } 1 \leq n \leq 5 \\
(n, 2, k) \text { with }-29 \leq n \leq-3
\end{gathered}
$$

Note that the above statement follows from Theorem 1.1 of Bennett, Bruin, Győry, Hajdu [1] in case $k<12$ and $P(b) \leq P_{k}$ with $P_{3}=2, P_{4}=$ $P_{5}=3, P_{6}=P_{7}=P_{8}=P_{9}=P_{10}=P_{11}=5$.

## 3. Lemmas and auxiliary results

We need some results of SELmer [30] on cubic equations.
Lemma 3.1. The equations

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
x^{3}+y^{3}=c z^{3}, & c \in\{1,2,4,5,10,25,45,60,100,150,225,300\}, \\
a x^{3}+b y^{3}=z^{3}, & (a, b) \in\{(2,9),(4,9),(4,25),(4,45),(12,25)\}
\end{array}
$$

have no solution in non-zero integers $x, y, z$.
As a lot of work will be done modulo 13 , the following lemma will be very useful. Before stating it, we need to introduce a new notation. For $u, v, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, $m>1$ by $u \stackrel{c}{\equiv} v(\bmod m)$ we mean that $u w^{3} \equiv v(\bmod m)$ holds for some integer $w$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(m, w)=1$. We shall use this notation throughout the paper, without any further reference.

Lemma 3.2. Let $n$, $d$ be integers. Suppose that for five values $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, 12\}$ we have $n+i d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$. Then $13 \mid d$, and $n+i d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1$ $(\bmod 13)$ for all $i=0,1, \ldots, 12$.

Proof. Suppose that $13 \nmid d$. Then there is an integer $r$ such that $n \equiv r d$ $(\bmod 13)$. Consequently, $n+i d \equiv(r+i) d(\bmod 13)$. A simple calculation yields that the cubic residues of the numbers $(r+i) d(i=0,1, \ldots, 12)$ modulo 13 are given by a cyclic permutation of one of the sequences

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0,1,2,2,4,1,4,4,1,4,2,2,1 \\
& 0,2,4,4,1,2,1,1,2,1,4,4,2 \\
& 0,4,1,1,2,4,2,2,4,2,1,1,4
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the statement follows.
Lemma 3.3. Let $\alpha=\sqrt[3]{2}$ and $\beta=\sqrt[3]{3}$. Put $K=\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ and $L=\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$. Then the only solution of the equation

$$
\mathcal{C}_{1}: \quad X^{3}-(\alpha+1) X^{2}+(\alpha+1) X-\alpha=(-3 \alpha+6) Y^{3}
$$

in $X \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $Y \in K$ is $(X, Y)=(2,1)$. Further, the equation

$$
\mathcal{C}_{2}: \quad 4 X^{3}-(4 \beta+2) X^{2}+(2 \beta+1) X-\beta=(-3 \beta+3) Y^{3}
$$

has the single solution $(X, Y)=(1,1)$ in $X \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $Y \in L$.
Proof. Using the point $(2,1)$ we can transform the genus 1 curve $\mathcal{C}_{1}$ to Weierstrass form

$$
E_{1}: \quad y^{2}+\left(\alpha^{2}+\alpha\right) y=x^{3}+\left(26 \alpha^{2}-5 \alpha-37\right)
$$

We have $E_{1}(K) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$ as an Abelian group and $(x, y)=\left(-\alpha^{2}-\alpha+3,-\alpha^{2}-3 \alpha+4\right)$ is a non-torsion point on this curve. Applying elliptic Chabauty (cf. [4], [5]), in particular the procedure "Chabauty" of MAGMA (see [2]) with $p=5$, we obtain that the only point on $\mathcal{C}_{1}$ with $X \in \mathbb{Q}$ is $(2,1)$.

Now we turn to the second equation $\mathcal{C}_{2}$. We can transform this equation to an elliptic one using its point $(1,1)$. We get

$$
E_{2}: \quad y^{2}=x^{3}+\beta^{2} x^{2}+\beta x+\left(41 \beta^{2}-58 \beta-4\right)
$$

We find that $E_{2}(L) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$ and $(x, y)=\left(4 \beta-2,-2 \beta^{2}+\beta+12\right)$ is a non-torsion point on $E_{2}$. Applying elliptic Chabauty (as above) with $p=11$, we get that the only point on $\mathcal{C}_{2}$ with $X \in \mathbb{Q}$ is $(1,1)$.

## 4. Proofs

In this section we provide the proofs of our results. As Theorem 2.1 follows from Theorem 2.2 by a simple inductive argument, first we give the proof of the latter result.

Proof of Theorem 2.2. As we mentioned, for $k=3,4$ the statement follows from Theorem 1.1 of [1]. Observe that the statement for every

$$
k \in\{6,8,9,10,12,13,15,16,17,19,21,22,23,25,26,27,28,29,31\}
$$

is a simple consequence of the result obtained for some smaller value of $k$. Indeed, for any such $k$ let $p_{k}$ denote the largest prime with $p_{k}<k$. Observe that in case of $k \leq 13 P\left(a_{0} a_{1} \ldots a_{p_{k}-1}\right) \leq p_{k}$ holds, and for $k>13$ we have $P\left(a_{0} a_{1} \ldots a_{p_{k}}\right)<$ $p_{k}+1$. Hence, noting that we assume $P(b) \leq k$ for $3<k \leq 11$ and $P(b)<k$ otherwise, the theorem follows inductively from the case of $p_{k}$-term products and $p_{k}+1$-term products, respectively. Hence in the sequel we deal only with the remaining values of $k$.

The cases $k=5,7$ are different from the others. In most cases a "brute force" method suffices. In the remaining cases we apply the elliptic Chabauty method (see [4], [5]).

The case $k=5$. In this case a very simple algorithm works already. Note that in view of Theorem 1.1 of [1], by symmetry it is sufficient to assume that $5 \mid a_{2} a_{3}$. We look at all the possible distributions of the prime factors $2,3,5$ of the coefficients $a_{i}(i=0, \ldots, 4)$ one-by-one. Using that if $x$ is an integer, then $x^{3}$ is congruent to $\pm 1$ or 0 both $(\bmod 7)$ and $(\bmod 9)$, almost all possibilities can be excluded. For example,

$$
\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right)=(1,1,1,10,1)
$$

is impossible modulo 7 , while

$$
\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right)=(1,1,15,1,1)
$$

is impossible modulo 9. (Note that the first choice of the $a_{i}$ cannot be excluded modulo 9 , and the second one cannot be excluded modulo 7.)

In case of the remaining possibilities, taking the linear combinations of three appropriately chosen terms of the arithmetic progression on the left hand side of (2) we get all solutions by Lemma 3.1. For example,

$$
\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right)=(2,3,4,5,6)
$$

obviously survives the above tests modulo 7 and modulo 9 . However, in this case using the identity $4(n+d)-3 n=n+4 d$, Lemma 3.1 implies that the only corresponding solution is given by $n=2$ and $d=1$.

After having excluded all quintuples which do not pass the above tests we are left with the single possibility

$$
\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right)=(2,9,2,5,12)
$$

Here we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{0}^{3}+x_{2}^{3}=9 x_{1}^{3} \quad \text { and } \quad x_{0}^{3}-2 x_{2}^{3}=-6 x_{4}^{3} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Factorizing the first equation of (4), a simple consideration yields that $x_{0}^{2}-x_{0} x_{2}+$ $x_{2}^{2}=3 u^{3}$ holds for some integer $u$. Put $K=\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ with $\alpha=\sqrt[3]{2}$. Note that the ring $O_{K}$ of integers of $K$ is a unique factorization domain, $\alpha-1$ is a fundamental unit and $1, \alpha, \alpha^{2}$ is an integral basis of $K$, and $3=(\alpha-1)(\alpha+1)^{3}$, where $\alpha+1$ is a prime in $O_{K}$. A simple calculation shows that $x_{0}-\alpha x_{2}$ and $x_{0}^{2}+\alpha x_{0} x_{2}+\alpha^{2} x_{2}^{2}$ can have only the prime divisors $\alpha$ and $\alpha+1$ in common. Hence checking the field norm of $x_{0}-\alpha x_{2}$, by the second equation of (4) we get that

$$
x_{0}-\alpha x_{2}=(\alpha-1)^{\varepsilon}\left(\alpha^{2}+\alpha\right) y^{3}
$$

with $y \in O_{K}$ and $\varepsilon \in\{0,1,2\}$. Expanding the right hand side, we deduce that $\varepsilon=0,2$ yields $3 \mid x_{0}$, which is a contradiction. Thus we get that $\varepsilon=1$, and we obtain the equation

$$
\left(x_{0}-\alpha x_{2}\right)\left(x_{0}^{2}-x_{0} x_{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right)=(-3 \alpha+6) z^{3}
$$

for some $z \in O_{K}$. Hence after dividing both sides of this equation by $x_{2}^{3}$, the theorem follows from Lemma 3.3 in this case.

The case $k=7$. In this case by similar tests as for $k=5$, we get that the only remaining possibilities are given by

$$
\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}\right)=(4,5,6,7,1,9,10),(10,9,1,7,6,5,4)
$$

By symmetry it is sufficient to deal with the first case. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{1}^{3}+8 x_{6}^{3}=9 x_{5}^{3} \quad \text { and } \quad x_{6}^{3}-3 x_{1}^{3}=-2 x_{0}^{3} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Factorizing the first equation of (5), just as in case of $k=5$, a simple consideration gives that $4 x_{6}^{2}-2 x_{1} x_{6}+x_{1}^{2}=3 u^{3}$ holds for some integer $u$. Let $L=\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ with $\beta=\sqrt[3]{3}$. As is well-known, the ring $O_{L}$ of integers of $L$ is a unique factorization
domain, $2-\beta^{2}$ is a fundamental unit and $1, \beta, \beta^{2}$ is an integral basis of $L$. Further, $2=(\beta-1)\left(\beta^{2}+\beta+1\right)$, where $\beta-1$ and $\beta^{2}+\beta+1$ are primes in $O_{L}$, with field norms 2 and 4 , respectively. A simple calculation yields that $x_{6}-\beta x_{1}$ and $x_{6}^{2}+\beta x_{1} x_{6}+\beta^{2} x_{1}^{2}$ are relatively prime in $O_{L}$. Moreover, as $\operatorname{gcd}(n, d)=1$ and $x_{4}$ is even, $x_{0}$ should be odd. Hence as the field norm of $\beta^{2}+\beta+1$ is 4 , checking the field norm of $x_{6}-\beta x_{1}$, the second equation of (5) yields

$$
x_{6}-\beta x_{1}=\left(2-\beta^{2}\right)^{\varepsilon}(1-\beta) y^{3}
$$

for some $y \in O_{L}$ and $\varepsilon \in\{0,1,2\}$. Expanding the right hand side, a simple computation shows that $\varepsilon=1,2$ yields $3 \mid x_{6}$, which is a contradiction. Thus we get that $\varepsilon=0$, and we obtain the equation

$$
\left(x_{6}-\beta x_{1}\right)\left(4 x_{6}^{2}-2 x_{1} x_{6}+x_{1}^{2}\right)=(-3 \beta+3) z^{3}
$$

for some $z \in O_{L}$. We divide both sides of this equation by $x_{1}^{3}$ and apply Lemma 3.3 to complete the case $k=7$.

Description of the general method. So far we have considered all the possible distributions of the prime factors $\leq k$ among the coefficients $a_{i}$. For larger values of $k$ we use a more efficient procedure similar to that in [17]. We first outline the main ideas. We explain the important case that 3,7 , and 13 are coprime to $d$ first.

The case $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d)=1$. Suppose we have a solution to equation (2) with $k \geq 11$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7, d)=1$. Then there exist integers $r_{7}$ and $r_{9}$ such that $n \equiv r_{7} d$ $(\bmod 7)$ and $n \equiv r_{9} d(\bmod 9)$. Further, we can choose the integers $r_{7}$ and $r_{9}$ to be equal; put $r:=r_{7}=r_{9}$. Then $n+i d \equiv(r+i) d(\bmod q)$ holds for $q \in\{7,9\}$ and $i=0,1 \ldots, k-1$. In particular, we have $r+i \stackrel{c}{\equiv} a_{i} s_{q}(\bmod q)$, where $q \in\{7,9\}$ and $s_{q}$ is the inverse of $d$ modulo $q$. Obviously, we may assume that $r+i$ takes values only from the set $\{-31,-30, \ldots, 31\}$.

First we make a table for the residues of $h$ modulo 7 and 9 up to cubes for $|h|<32$, but here we present only the part with $0 \leq h<11$.

| $h$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $h \bmod 7$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 4 |
| $h \bmod 9$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 |

In the first row of the table we give the values of $h$ and in the second and third rows the corresponding residues of $h$ modulo 7 and modulo 9 up to cubes, respectively, where the classes of the relation $\xlongequal{=}$ are represented by $0,1,2,4$ modulo 7 , and by $0,1,2,3,4$ modulo 9 .

Let $a_{i_{1}}, \ldots, a_{i_{t}}$ be the coefficients in (3) which do not have prime divisors greater than 2. Put

$$
E=\left\{\left(u_{i_{j}}, v_{i_{j}}\right): r+i_{j} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} u_{i_{j}} \quad(\bmod 7), r+i_{j} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} v_{i_{j}} \quad(\bmod 9), 1 \leq j \leq t\right\}
$$

and observe that $E$ is contained in one of the sets

$$
\begin{gathered}
E_{1}:=\{(1,1),(2,2),(4,4)\}, \quad E_{2}:=\{(1,2),(2,4),(4,1)\}, \\
E_{3}:=\{(2,1),(4,2),(1,4)\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

We use this observation in the following tests which we shall illustrate by some examples.

In what follows we assume $k$ and $r$ to be fixed. In our method we apply the following tests in the given order. By each test some cases are eliminated.
Class cover. Let $u_{i} \stackrel{c}{=} r+i(\bmod 7)$ and $v_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} r+i(\bmod 9)(i=0,1, \ldots, k-1)$. For $l=1,2,3$ put

$$
C_{l}=\left\{i:\left(u_{i}, v_{i}\right) \in E_{l}, i=0,1, \ldots, k-1\right\}
$$

Check whether the sets $C_{1} \cup C_{2}, C_{1} \cup C_{3}, C_{2} \cup C_{3}$ can be covered by the multiples of the primes $p$ with $p<k, p \neq 2,3,7$. If this is not possible for $C_{l_{1}} \cup C_{l_{2}}$, then we know that $E \subseteq E_{l_{3}}$ is impossible and $E_{l_{3}}$ is excluded. Here $\left\{l_{1}, l_{2}, l_{3}\right\}=\{1,2,3\}$.
The forthcoming procedures are applied separately for each case where $E \subseteq E_{l}$ remains possible for some $l$. From this point on we also assume that the odd prime factors of the $a_{i}$ are fixed.
Parity. Define the sets

$$
\begin{aligned}
& I_{e}=\left\{\left(u_{i}, v_{i}\right) \in E_{l}: r+i \text { is even, } P\left(a_{i}\right) \leq 2\right\} \\
& I_{o}=\left\{\left(u_{i}, v_{i}\right) \in E_{l}: r+i \text { is odd, } P\left(a_{i}\right) \leq 2\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

As the only odd power of 2 is $1, \min \left(\left|I_{e}\right|,\left|I_{o}\right|\right) \leq 1$ must be valid. If this does not hold, the corresponding case is excluded.

Test modulo 13. Suppose that after the previous tests we can decide whether $a_{i}$ is even for the even values of $i$. Assume that $E \subseteq E_{l}$ with fixed $l \in\{1,2,3\}$. Further, suppose that based upon the previous tests we can decide whether $a_{i}$ can be even for the even or the odd values of $i$. For $t=0,1,2$ put

$$
U_{t}=\left\{i: a_{i}= \pm 2^{t}, i \in\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\}\right\}
$$

and let

$$
U_{3}=\left\{i: a_{i}= \pm 5^{\gamma}, i \in\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\}, \gamma \in\{0,1,2\}\right\} .
$$

Assume that $13 \mid n+i_{0} d$ for some $i_{0}$. Recall that $13 \nmid d$ and $5 \stackrel{c}{=} 1(\bmod 13)$. If $i, j \in U_{t}$ for some $t \in\{0,1,2,3\}$, then $i-i_{0} \xlongequal{=} j-i_{0}(\bmod 13)$. If $i \in U_{t_{1}}, j \in U_{t_{2}}$ with $0 \leq t_{1}<t_{2} \leq 2$, then $i-i_{0} \not \equiv j-i_{0}(\bmod 13)$. We exclude all the cases which do not pass these tests.

Test modulo 7. Assume again that $E \subseteq E_{l}$ with fixed $l \in\{1,2,3\}$. Check whether the actual distribution of the prime divisors of the $a_{i}$ yields that for some $i$ with $7 \nmid n+i d$, both $a_{i}= \pm t$ and $|r+i|=t$ hold for some positive integer $t$ with $7 \nmid t$. Then

$$
t \stackrel{c}{\equiv} n+i d \stackrel{c}{\equiv}(r+i) d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} t d \quad(\bmod 7)
$$

implies that $d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 7)$. Now consider the actual distribution of the prime factors of the coefficients $a_{i}(i=0,1, \ldots, k-1)$. If in any $a_{i}$ we know the exponents of all primes with one exception, and this exceptional prime $p$ satisfies $p \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 2,3,4,5$ $(\bmod 7)$, then we can fix the exponent of $p$ using the above information on $n$. As an example, assume that $7 \mid n$, and $a_{1}= \pm 5^{\gamma}$ with $\gamma \in\{0,1,2\}$. Then $d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1$ $(\bmod 7)$ immediately implies $\gamma=0$. Further, if $7 \mid n$ and $a_{2}= \pm 13^{\gamma}$ with $\gamma \in\{0,1,2\}$, then $d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 7)$ gives a contradiction. We exclude all cases yielding a contradiction. Moreover, in the remaining cases we fix the exponents of the prime factors of the $a_{i}$-s whenever it is possible.

We remark that we used this procedure for $0 \geq r \geq-k+1$. In almost all cases it turned out that $a_{i}$ is even for $r+i$ even. Further, we could prove that with
 The test is typically effective in case when $r$ is "around" $-k / 2$. The reason for this is that then in the sequence $r, r+1, \ldots,-1,0,1, \ldots, k-r-2, k-r-1$ several powers of 2 occur.

Induction. For fixed distribution of the prime divisors of the coefficients $a_{i}$, search for arithmetic sub-progressions of length $l$ with $l \in\{3,5,7\}$ such that for the product $\Pi$ of the terms of the sub-progression $P(\Pi) \leq L_{l}$ holds, with $L_{3}=2$, $L_{5}=5, L_{7}=7$. If there is such a sub-progression, then in view of Theorem 1.1 of [1], all such solutions can be determined.
An example. Now we illustrate how the above procedures work. For this purpose, take $k=24$ and $r=-8$. Then, using the previous notation, we work with the following stripe (with $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, 23\}$ ):

```
r+i -- -7 -6 -5 -4-3-2-1 0112 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 1011121213 14 15
```



```
mod 9 1 1 2 3 3 4 4 4 3 2 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 4 3 2 1 0 1 1 2 % 3
```

In the procedure Class cover we get the following classes:

$$
C_{1}=\{0,4,6,7,9,10,12,16\}, \quad C_{2}=\{3,13,18\}, \quad C_{3}=\{19,21\}
$$

For $p=5,11,13,17,19,23$ put

$$
m_{p}=\left|\left\{i: i \in C_{1} \cup C_{2}, p \mid n+\mathrm{id}\right\}\right| \text {, }
$$

respectively. Using the condition $\operatorname{gcd}(n, d)=1$, one can easily check that

$$
m_{5} \leq 3, \quad m_{11} \leq 2, \quad m_{13} \leq 2, \quad m_{17} \leq 1, m_{19} \leq 1, \quad m_{23} \leq 1 .
$$

Hence, as $\left|C_{1} \cup C_{2}\right|=11$, we get that $E \subseteq E_{3}$ cannot be valid in this case. By a similar (but more sophisticated) calculation one gets that $E \subseteq E_{2}$ is also impossible. So after the procedure Class cover only the case $E \subseteq E_{1}$ remains.

From this point on, the odd prime divisors of the coefficients $a_{i}$ are fixed, and we look at each case one-by-one. Observe that $p \mid n+i d$ does not imply $p \mid a_{i}$. Further, $p \mid n+i d$ implies $p \mid n+j d$ whenever $i \equiv j(\bmod p)$.

We consider two subcases. Suppose first that we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
3|n+2 d, 5| n+d, 7|n+d, 11| n+7 d, 13 \mid n+7 d, \\
17|n+3 d, 19| n, 23 \mid n+13 d .
\end{gathered}
$$

Then by a simple consideration we get that in Test modulo 13 either

$$
4 \in U_{1} \quad \text { and } \quad 10 \in U_{2},
$$

or

$$
10 \in U_{1} \quad \text { and } \quad 4 \in U_{2} .
$$

In the first case, using $13 \mid n+7 d$ we get

$$
-3 d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 2(\bmod 13) \quad \text { and } \quad 3 d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 4(\bmod 13),
$$

which by $-3 d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 3 d(\bmod 13)$ yields a contradiction. In the second case we get a contradiction in a similar manner.

Consider now the subcase where

$$
\begin{gathered}
3|n+2 d, 5| n+d, 7|n+d, 11| n+7 d, 13 \mid n+8 d, \\
17|n+3 d, 19| n, 23 \mid n+13 d .
\end{gathered}
$$

This case survives the Test modulo 13. However, using the strategy explained in Test modulo 7 , we can easily check that if $a_{i}$ is even then $i$ is even, which yields $a_{9}= \pm 1$. This immediately gives $d \stackrel{c}{=} 1(\bmod 7)$. Further, we have $a_{7}= \pm 11^{\varepsilon_{7}}$ with $\varepsilon_{7} \in\{0,1,2\}$. Hence we get that

$$
\pm 11^{\varepsilon_{7}} \xlongequal{=} n+7 d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} d \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1 \quad(\bmod 7) .
$$

This gives $\varepsilon_{7}=0$, thus $a_{7}= \pm 1$. Therefore $P\left(a_{4} a_{7} a_{10}\right) \leq 2$. Now we apply the test Induction.

The case $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d) \neq 1$. In this case we shall use the fact that almost half of the coefficients are odd. With a slight abuse of notation, when $k>11$ we shall assume that the coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{k-1}$ are odd, and the other coefficients are given either by $a_{0}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k-2}$ or by $a_{2}, a_{4}, \ldots, a_{k}$. Note that in view of $\operatorname{gcd}(n, d)=1$ this can be done without loss of generality. We shall use this notation in the corresponding parts of our arguments without any further reference.

Now we continue the proof, considering the remaining cases $k \geq 11$.
The case $k=11$. When $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7, d)=1$, the procedures Class cover, Test modulo 7 and Induction suffice. Hence we may suppose that $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7, d)>1$.

Assume that $7 \mid d$. Observe that $P\left(a_{0} a_{1} \ldots a_{4}\right) \leq 5$ or $P\left(a_{5} a_{6} \ldots a_{9}\right) \leq 5$. Hence the statement follows by induction.

Suppose next that $3 \mid d$. Observe that if $11 \nmid a_{4} a_{5} a_{6}$ then $P\left(a_{0} a_{1} \ldots a_{6}\right) \leq 7$ or $P\left(a_{4} a_{5} \ldots a_{10}\right) \leq 7$. Hence by induction and symmetry we may assume that $11 \mid a_{5} a_{6}$. Assume first that $11 \mid a_{6}$. If $7 \mid a_{0} a_{6}$ then we have $P\left(a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4} a_{5}\right) \leq 5$. Further, in case of $7 \mid a_{5}$ we have $P\left(a_{0} a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}\right) \leq 5$. Thus by induction we may suppose that $7 \mid a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}$. If $7 \mid a_{1} a_{2} a_{4}$ and $5 \nmid n$, we have $P\left(a_{0} a_{5} a_{10}\right) \leq 2$, whence by applying Lemma 3.1 to the identity $n+(n+10 d)=2(n+5 d)$ we get all the solutions of (2). Assume next that $7 \mid a_{1} a_{2} a_{4}$ and $5 \mid n$. Hence we deduce that one among $P\left(a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}\right) \leq 2, P\left(a_{1} a_{4} a_{7}\right) \leq 2, P\left(a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}\right) \leq 2$ is valid, and the statement follows in each case in a similar manner as above. If $7 \mid a_{3}$, then a simple calculation yields that one among $P\left(a_{0} a_{1} a_{2}\right) \leq 2, P\left(a_{0} a_{4} a_{8}\right) \leq 2, P\left(a_{1} a_{4} a_{7}\right) \leq 2$ is valid, and we are done. Finally, assume that $11 \mid a_{5}$. Then by symmetry we may suppose that $7 \mid a_{0} a_{1} a_{4} a_{5}$. If $7 \mid a_{4} a_{5}$ then $P\left(a_{6} a_{7} a_{8} a_{9} a_{10}\right) \leq 5$, and the statement follows by induction. If $7 \mid a_{0}$ then we have $P\left(a_{2} a_{4} a_{6} a_{8} a_{10}\right) \leq 5$, and we are done too. In case of $7 \mid a_{1}$ one among $P\left(a_{0} a_{2} a_{4}\right) \leq 2, P\left(a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}\right) \leq 2$, $P\left(a_{0} a_{3} a_{6}\right) \leq 2$ holds. This completes the case $k=11$.

The case $k=14$. Note that without loss of generality we may assume that $13 \mid a_{i}$ with $3 \leq i \leq 10$, otherwise the statement follows by induction from the case $k=11$. Then, in particular we have $13 \nmid d$.

The tests described in the previous section suffice to dispose of the case $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d)=1$. Assume now that $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d)>1$ (but recall that $13 \nmid d)$.

Suppose first that $7 \mid d$. Among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{13}$ there are at most three multiples of 3 , two multiples of 5 and one multiple of 11 . As $13 \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 7)$, this shows that at least for one of these $a_{i}$-S we have $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1$ $(\bmod 7)$. Hence $a_{i} \xlongequal{=} 1(\bmod 7)$ for every $i=1,3, \ldots, 13$. Further, as none of
$3,5,11$ is a cube modulo 7 , we deduce that if $i$ is odd, then either $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 5 \cdot$ $\left.11, a_{i}\right)=1$ or $a_{i}$ must be divisible by at least two out of $3,5,11$. Noting that $13 \nmid d$, by Lemma 3.2 at most four numbers among $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{13}$ can be equal to $\pm 1$. Moreover, $\operatorname{gcd}(n, d)=1$ implies that $15 \mid a_{i}$ can be valid for at most one $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\}$. Hence among the coefficients with odd indices there is exactly one multiple of 11 , exactly one multiple of 15 , and exactly one multiple of 13 . Moreover, the multiple of 11 in question is also divisible either by 3 or by 5 . In view of the proof of Lemma 3.2 a simple calculation yields that the cubic residues of $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{13}$ modulo 13 must be given by $1,1,4,0,4,1,1$, in this order. Looking at the spots where 4 occurs in this sequence, we get that either $3 \mid a_{5}, a_{9}$ or $5 \mid a_{5}, a_{9}$ is valid. However, this contradicts the assumption $\operatorname{gcd}(n, d)=1$.

Assume now that $3 \mid d$, but $7 \nmid d$. Then among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}$, $\ldots, a_{13}$ there are at most two multiples of 5 and one multiple of 7,11 and 13 each. Lemma 3.2 together with $5 \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$ yields that there must be exactly four odd $i$-s with $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$, and further, another odd $i$ such that $a_{i}$ is divisible by 13. Hence as above, the proof of Lemma 3.2 shows that the $a_{i}$-s with odd indices are $\stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1,1,4,0,4,1,1(\bmod 13)$, in this order. As the prime 11 should divide an $a_{i}$ with odd $i$ and $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 4(\bmod 13)$, this yields that $11 \mid a_{5} a_{9}$. However, as above, this immediately yields that $P\left(a_{0} a_{2} \ldots a_{12}\right) \leq 7\left(\right.$ or $\left.P\left(a_{2} a_{4} \ldots a_{14}\right) \leq 7\right)$, and the case $k=14$ follows by induction.

The case $k=18$. Using the procedures described in the previous section, the case $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d)=1$ can be excluded. So we may assume $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d)>1$.

Suppose first that $7 \mid d$. Among $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{17}$ there are at most three multiples of 3 , two multiples of 5 and one multiple of 11,13 and 17 each. Hence at least for one odd $i$ we have $a_{i}= \pm 1$. Thus all of $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{17}$ are $\xlongequal[\equiv]{\equiv} 1(\bmod 7)$. Among the primes $3,5,11,13,17$ only 13 is $\xlongequal[\equiv]{\equiv} 1(\bmod 7)$, so the other primes cannot occur alone. Hence we get that $a_{i}= \pm 1$ for at least five out of $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{17}$. However, by Lemma 3.2 this is possible only if $13 \mid d$. In that case $a_{i}= \pm 1$ holds for at least six coefficients with $i$ odd. Now a simple calculation shows that among them three are in arithmetic progression. This leads to an equation of the shape $X^{3}+Y^{3}=2 Z^{3}$, and Lemma 3.1 applies.

Assume next that $13 \mid d$, but $7 \nmid d$. Among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots a_{17}$ there are at most three multiples of 3 , two multiples of 5 and 7 each, and one multiple of 11 and 17 each. Hence, by $5 \xlongequal{=} 1(\bmod 13)$ there are at least two $a_{i} \xlongequal{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$, whence all $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$. As from this list only the prime 5 is a cube modulo 13 , we get that at least four out of the above nine odd $a_{i}$-s are
equal to $\pm 1$. Recall that $7 \nmid d$ and observe that the cubic residues modulo 7 of a seven-term arithmetic progression with common difference not divisible by 7 is a cyclic permutation of one of the sequences

$$
0,1,2,4,4,2,1, \quad 0,2,4,1,1,4,2, \quad 0,4,1,2,2,1,4 .
$$

Hence remembering that for four odd $i$ we have $a_{i}= \pm 1$, we get that the cubic residues of $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{17}$ modulo 7 are given by $1,1,4,2,0,2,4,1,1$, in this order. In particular, we have exactly one multiple of 7 among them. Further, looking at the spots where 0,2 and 4 occur, we deduce that at most two of the $a_{i}$-s with odd indices can be multiples of 3 . Switching back to modulo 13 , this yields that $a_{i}= \pm 1$ for at least five $a_{i}$-s. However, this contradicts Lemma 3.2.

Finally, assume that $3 \mid d$. In view of what we have proved already, we may further suppose that $\operatorname{gcd}(7 \cdot 13, d)=1$. Among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{17}$ there are at most two multiples of 5 and 7 each, and one multiple of 11,13 and 17 each. Hence as $7 \nmid d$ and $13 \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 7)$, we get that the cubic residues modulo 7 of the coefficients $a_{i}$ with odd $i$ are given by one of the sequences

$$
1,0,1,2,4,4,2,1,0, \quad 0,1,2,4,4,2,1,0,1, \quad 1,1,2,4,0,4,2,1,1
$$

In view of the places of the values 2 and 4 , we see that it is not possible to distribute the prime divisors $5,7,11$ over the $a_{i}$-s with odd indices. This finishes the case $k=18$.

The case $k=20$. By the help of the procedures described in the previous section, in case of $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d)=1$ all solutions to equation (2) can be determined. Assume now that $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d)>1$.

We start with the case $7 \mid d$. Then among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{19}$ there are at most four multiples of 3 , two multiples of 5 , and one multiple of 11 , 13,17 and 19 each. As $13 \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 7)$, this yields that $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{=} 1(\bmod 7)$ for all $i$. Hence the primes $3,5,11,17,19$ must occur at least in pairs in the $a_{i}$-s with odd indices, which yields that at least five such coefficients are equal to $\pm 1$. Thus Lemma 3.2 gives $13 \mid d$, whence $a_{i} \xlongequal{=} 1(\bmod 13)$ for all $i$. Hence we deduce that the prime 5 may be only a third prime divisor of the $a_{i}$-s with odd indices, and so at least seven out of $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{19}$ equal $\pm 1$. However, then there are three such coefficients which belong to an arithmetic progression. Thus by Lemma 3.1 we get all solutions in this case.

Assume next that $13 \mid d$. Without loss of generality we may further suppose that $7 \nmid d$. Then among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{19}$ there are at most four multiples of 3 , two multiples of 5 and 7 each, and one multiple of 11,17 and

19 each. As $5 \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$ this implies $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$ for all $i$, whence the primes $3,7,11,17,19$ should occur at least in pairs in the $a_{i}$-s with odd $i$. Hence at least four of these coefficients are equal to $\pm 1$. By a similar argument as in case of $k=18$, we get that the cubic residues of $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{19}$ modulo 7 are given by one of the sequences

$$
1,0,1,2,4,4,2,1,0,1, \quad 1,1,4,2,0,2,4,1,1,4, \quad 4,1,1,4,2,0,2,4,1,1
$$

In view of the positions of the 0,2 and 4 values, we get that at most two corresponding terms can be divisible by 3 in the first case, which modulo 13 yields that the number of odd $i$-s with $a_{i}= \pm 1$ is at least five. This is a contradiction modulo 7. Further, in the last two cases at most three terms can be divisible by 3 , and exactly one term is a multiple of 7 . This yields modulo 13 that the number of odd $i$-s with $a_{i}= \pm 1$ is at least five, which is a contradiction modulo 7 again.

Finally, suppose that $3 \mid d$. We may assume that $\operatorname{gcd}(7 \cdot 13, d)=1$. Then among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{19}$ there are at most two multiples of 5 and 7 each, and one multiple of $11,13,17$ and 19 each. Hence Lemma 3.2 yields that exactly four of these coefficients should be $\stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$, and exactly one of them must be a multiple of 13 . Further, exactly two other $a_{i}$-s with odd indices are multiples of 7 , and these $a_{i}$-s are divisible by none of $11,13,17,19$. So in view of the proof of Lemma 3.2 a simple calculation gives that the cubic residues of $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{19}$ modulo 13 are given by one of the sequences

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
0,2,4,4,1,2,1,1,2,1, & 1,2,1,1,2,1,4,4,2,0 \\
2,4,2,1,1,4,0,4,1,1, & 1,1,4,0,4,1,1,2,4,2
\end{array}
$$

In the upper cases we get that 7 divides two terms with $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{=} 2(\bmod 13)$, whence the power of 7 should be 2 in both cases. However, this implies $7^{2} \mid 14 d$, hence $7 \mid d$, a contradiction. As the lower cases are symmetric, we may assume that the very last possibility occurs. In that case we have $7 \mid a_{5}$ and $7 \mid a_{19}$. We may assume that $11 \mid a_{17}$, otherwise $P\left(a_{6} a_{8} \ldots a_{18}\right) \leq 7$ and the statement follows by induction. Further, we also have $13 \mid a_{7}$, and $17 \mid a_{9}$ and $19 \mid a_{15}$ or vice versa. Hence either $P\left(a_{3} a_{8} a_{13}\right) \leq 2$ or $P\left(a_{4} a_{10} a_{16}\right) \leq 2$, and induction suffices to complete the case $k=20$.

The case $k=24$. The procedures described in the previous section suffice to completely treat the case $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d)=1$. So we may assume that $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7$. $13, d)>1$ is valid.

Suppose first that $7 \mid d$. Among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{23}$ there are at most four multiples of 3 , three multiples of 5 , two multiples of 11 , and one multiple of $13,17,19$ and 23 each. We know that all $a_{i}$ belong to the same cubic
class modulo 7 . As $3 \xlongequal[=]{\equiv} 4(\bmod 7), 5 \xlongequal{=} 2(\bmod 7)$ and among the coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{23}$ there are at most two multiples of $3^{2}$ and at most one multiple of $5^{2}$, we get that these coefficients are all $\stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 7)$. This yields that the primes $3,5,11,17,19,23$ may occur only at least in pairs in the coefficients with odd indices. Thus we get that at least five out of $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{23}$ are $\xlongequal[=]{=} 1(\bmod 13)$. Hence, by Lemma 3.2 we get that $13 \mid d$ and consequently $a_{i} \xlongequal{=} 1(\bmod 13)$ for all $i$. This also shows that the 5 -s can be at most third prime divisors of the $a_{i}$-s with odd indices. So we deduce that at least eight out of the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{23}$ are equal to $\pm 1$. However, a simple calculation shows that from the eight corresponding terms we can always choose three forming an arithmetic progression. Hence this case follows from Lemma 3.1.

Assume next that $13 \mid d$, but $7 \nmid d$. Among the coefficients with odd indices there are at most four multiples of 3 , three multiples of 5 , two multiples of 7 and 11 each, and one multiple of 17,19 and 23 each. Hence, by $5 \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$ we deduce $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$ for all $i$. As before, a simple calculation yields that at least for four of these odd coefficients $a_{i}= \pm 1$ hold. Hence looking at the possible cases modulo 7 , one can easily see that we cannot have four multiples of 3 at the places where 0,2 and 4 occur as cubic residues modulo 7. Hence in view of Lemma 3.2 we need to use two 11-s, which yields that $11 \mid a_{1}$ and $11 \mid a_{23}$. Thus the only possibility for the cubic residues of $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{23}$ modulo 7 is given by the sequence

$$
2,1,0,1,2,4,4,2,1,0,1,2
$$

However, the positions of the 2 -s and 4 -s allow to have at most two $a_{i}$-s with odd indices which are divisible by 3 but not by 7 . Hence switching back to modulo 13 , we get that there are at least five $a_{i}$-s which are $\pm 1$, a contradiction by Lemma 3.2.

Finally, assume that $3 \mid d$, and $\operatorname{gcd}(7 \cdot 13, d)=1$. Then among $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{23}$ there are at most three multiples of 5 , two multiples of 7 and 11 each, and one multiple of $13,17,19$ and 23 each. Hence by Lemma 3.2 we get that exactly four of the coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{23}$ are $\stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$, and another is a multiple of 13 . Further, all the mentioned prime factors (except the 5 -s) divide distinct $a_{i}$-s with odd indices. Using that at most these coefficients can be divisible by $7^{2}$ and $11^{2}$, in view of the proof of Lemma 3.2 we get that the only possibilities for the cubic residues of these coefficients modulo 13 are given by one of the sequences

$$
2,2,4,2,1,1,4,0,4,1,1,2, \quad 2,1,1,4,0,4,1,1,2,4,2,2 .
$$

By symmetry we may assume the first possibility. Then we have $7\left|a_{3}, 11\right| a_{1}$, $13 \mid a_{15}$, and $17,19,23$ divide $a_{5}, a_{7}, a_{13}$ in some order. Hence $P\left(a_{4} a_{9} a_{14}\right) \leq 2$, or $5 \mid n+4 d$ whence $P\left(a_{16} a_{18} a_{20}\right) \leq 2$. In both cases we apply induction.

The case $k=30$. By the help of the procedures described in the previous section, the case $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d)=1$ can be excluded. Assume now that $\operatorname{gcd}(3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, d)>1$.

We start with the case $7 \mid d$. Then among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{29}$ there are at most five multiples of 3 , three multiples of 5 , two multiples of 11 and 13 each, and one multiple of $17,19,23$ and 29 each. As $13 \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 29 \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 7)$, this yields that $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 7)$ for all $i$. Hence the other primes must occur at least in pairs in the $a_{i}$-s with odd indices, which yields that at least six such coefficients are equal to $\pm 1$. Further, we get that the number of such coefficients $\xlongequal{=} 0,1$ $(\bmod 13)$ is at least eight. However, by Lemma 3.2 this is possible only if $13 \mid d$, whence $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$ for all $i$. Then 5 and 29 can be at most third prime divisors of the coefficients $a_{i}$-s with odd $i$-s. So a simple calculation gives that at least ten out of the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{29}$ are equal to $\pm 1$. Hence there are three such coefficients in arithmetic progression, and the statement follows from Lemma 3.1.

Assume next that $13 \mid d$, but $7 \nmid d$. Then among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{29}$ there are at most five multiples of 3 , three multiples of 5 and 7 each, two multiples of 11, and one multiple of $17,19,23$ and 29 each. From this we get that $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 1(\bmod 13)$ for all $i$. Hence the primes different from 5 should occur at least in pairs. We get that at least five out of the coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{29}$ are equal to $\pm 1$. Thus modulo 7 we get that it is impossible to have three terms divisible by 7 . Then it follows modulo 13 that at least six $a_{i}$-s with odd indices are equal to $\pm 1$. However, this is possible only if $7 \mid d$, which is a contradiction.

Finally, assume that $3 \mid d$, but $\operatorname{gcd}(7 \cdot 13, d)=1$. Then among the odd coefficients $a_{1}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{29}$ there are at most three multiples of 5 and 7 each, two multiples of 11 and 13 each, and one multiple of $17,19,23$ and 29 each. Further, modulo 7 we get that all primes $5,11,17,19,23$ divide distinct $a_{i}$-s with odd indices, and the number of odd $i$-s with $a_{i} \stackrel{c}{\equiv} 0,1(\bmod 7)$ is seven. However, checking all possibilities modulo 7 , we get a contradiction. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.2.

Proof of Theorem 2.1. Obviously, for $k<32$ the statement is an immediate consequence of Theorem 2.2. Further, observe that $b=1$ implies that for any $k$ with $31<k<39$, one can find $j$ with $0 \leq j \leq k-30$ such that $P\left(a_{j} a_{j+1} \ldots a_{j+29}\right) \leq 29$. Hence the statement follows from Theorem 2.2.

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