# Binary recurring sequences and powers, II 

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#### Abstract

We investigate when certain sums or differences of terms of Lucas sequences are powers (or multiples of powers). In the case of squares, we obtain explicit bounds, explicit solution in the case of odd parameters. For Fibonacci and Lucas numbers we obtain results involving squares, but also cubes.


## 1. Introduction

In this paper we investigate when certain sums or differences of terms of binary second-order recurrences may be equal to a power, or to a multiple of a power.

The starting impulse for this paper is the determination by STEINER [24], and more simply by Williams [25], of the Fibonacci numbers of the form $x^{2}+1$. Earlier, Cohn [1], as well as WYLER [26], had determined the squares among the Fibonacci numbers. The determination of squares among Lucas numbers and in Lucas sequences (with odd relatively prime parameters and non-zero discriminant) was obtained by various authors. Similar results concerning cubes were also obtained for specific sequences (like the Fibonacci, Lucas and Pell numbers).

We introduce a general method which allows to identify numbers in Lucas sequences of the form $x^{2} \pm 1$ (or similar form), provided the squares and double squares are known. But in fact we obtain much more as we shall now indicate in a more systematic way.

Section 2 consists of preliminaries where all the required facts are gathered for the convenience of the reader, including explicit references.

Section 3 is devoted to basic theorems which are proved using the theorem of РЕтно̋ [13] concerning multiples of powers in recurring sequences. Explicitly, we consider the relation

$$
W_{s+2 k} \pm Q^{k} W_{s}=a x^{t}
$$

where $W=U(P, Q)$ or $V(P, Q)$ (non-degenerate, $x \neq 0, t \geq 2, s \geq 1$, $k \geq 1$ ). $a$ has prime factors in a given finite set of prime numbers. The two theorems of the section establish that if $s$ (or $k$ ) is given, the other quantities remain effectively bounded (see the text for the precise statements).

In Section 4 we restrict our attention to the case where $t=2, H$ has at most one odd prime. We give explicit bounds which are directly linked to the occurrence of squares or double squares in the sequences $U$, $V$ and also in another associated Lucas sequence and in a second sequence of Lehmer numbers. Thus if the required squares are known, the bounds obtained are far lower than what is normally provided by the theorems on diophantine approximation.

In the situation where $P, Q$ are odd and relatively prime (and the discriminant is non-zero), the complete determination of squares and double squares is known. As a consequence, the complete and explicit solution of the original problem is possible. Namely, all pairs $(s, k)$ such that

$$
W_{s+2 k} \pm Q^{k} W_{s}=
$$

are completely determined (for arbitrary choice of the odd parameters). These results may be immediately applied to Fibonacci numbers and to Lucas numbers.

In Section 6 we show how the same method can be applied to determine Fibonacci numbers of the form $x^{3} \pm 1$ (and similar results also for Lucas numbers). For this purpose many results are required to be established about Fibonacci and Lucas numbers which are multiples of cubes. The precise statements of the results obtained are found in the text.

## 2. Preliminaries

Let $P, Q$ be non-zero integers, $\alpha, \beta$ the roots of the polynomial $X^{2}-$ $P X+Q$. The first and second Lucas sequences with parameters $(P, Q)$ are defined as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
U_{0}=0, & U_{1}=1, & U_{n}=P U_{n-1}-Q U_{n-2} \\
V_{0}=2, & V_{1}=P, & V_{n}=P V_{n-1}-Q V_{n-2} \tag{2.2}
\end{array}
$$

for all $n \geq 2$. We denote these sequences by $U=U(P, Q)$ and $V=$ $V(P, Q)$; if required we use also the notations $U_{n}(P, Q)=U_{n}, V_{n}(P, Q)=$ $V_{n}$.

If $P=1, Q=-1$, then the numbers $U_{n}(1,-1), V_{n}(1,-1)$ are the Fibonacci numbers, respectively the Lucas numbers. If $(P, Q)=(2,-1)$ the numbers $U_{n}(2,-1), V_{n}(2,-1)$ are the Pell numbers (of first and second kind).
$D=P^{2}-4 Q$ is the discriminant. We have $D \equiv 0 \operatorname{or} 1(\bmod 4)$. For Fibonacci and Lucas numbers, $D=5$, for Pell numbers $D=8$.

It is convenient to extend the Lucas sequences also for negative indices:

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{-n}=-\frac{U_{n}}{Q^{n}}, \quad V_{-n}=\frac{V_{n}}{Q^{n}} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $n \geq 1$. With this definition, the relations (2.1), (2.2) hold for all integers $n$.

We note also:

$$
\begin{align*}
& U_{n}(-P, Q)=(-1)^{n} U_{n}(P, Q)  \tag{2.4}\\
& V_{n}(-P, Q)=(-1)^{n} V_{n}(P, Q) \tag{2.5}
\end{align*}
$$

Binet's formulas express the numbers $U_{n}, V_{n}$ in terms of $\alpha, \beta$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
& U_{n}=\frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha-\beta}  \tag{2.6}\\
& V_{n}=\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n} \tag{2.7}
\end{align*}
$$

Among the numerous identities and divisibility properties satisfied by the terms of Lucas sequences we list below some which will be used in this paper (here $m, n$ are any integers):

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{n}^{2}-D U_{n}^{2}=4 Q^{n} \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
U_{m+n} & =U_{m} V_{n}-Q^{n} U_{m-n}  \tag{2.9}\\
V_{m+n} & =V_{m} V_{n}-Q^{n} V_{m-n}  \tag{2.10}\\
V_{m+n} & =D U_{m} U_{n}+Q^{n} V_{m-n}  \tag{2.11}\\
U_{2 n} & =U_{n} V_{n}  \tag{2.12}\\
V_{2 n} & =V_{n}^{2}-2 Q^{n}  \tag{2.13}\\
U_{3 n} & =U_{n}\left(V_{n}^{2}-Q^{n}\right)=U_{n}\left(D U_{n}^{2}+3 Q^{n}\right)  \tag{2.14}\\
V_{3 n} & =V_{n}\left(V_{n}^{2}-3 Q^{n}\right) . \tag{2.15}
\end{align*}
$$

More generally, the following essentially known two results are proven in [16]:
(2.16). Let $k \geq 3$ be odd. Then there exist uniquely defined polynomials $f_{k}^{+}, f_{k}^{-} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ such that $\operatorname{deg}\left(f_{k}^{ \pm}\right)=(k-1) / 2, f_{k}^{ \pm}(0)=( \pm 1)^{(k-1) / 2} k$ and

$$
U_{k m}= \begin{cases}U_{m} f_{k}^{+}\left(U_{m}^{2}\right) & \text { when } m \text { is even, } \\ U_{m} f_{k}^{-}\left(U_{m}^{2}\right) & \text { when } m \text { is odd. }\end{cases}
$$

(2.17). Let $k \geq 3$ be odd. Then there exist uniquely defined polynomials $g_{k}^{+}, g_{k}^{-} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ such that $\operatorname{deg}\left(g_{k}^{ \pm}\right)=(k-1) / 2, g_{k}^{ \pm}(0)= \pm(-1)^{(k-1) / 2} k$ and

$$
V_{k m}= \begin{cases}V_{m} g_{k}^{+}\left(V_{m}^{2}\right) & \text { when } m \text { is even } \\ V_{m} g_{k}^{-}\left(V_{m}^{2}\right) & \text { when } m \text { is odd. }\end{cases}
$$

(2.18). If $U_{m} \neq 1$ then $U_{m}$ divides $U_{n}$ if and only if $m \mid n$.
(2.19). If $V_{m} \neq 1, m \neq 0$, then $V_{m}$ divides $V_{n}$ if and only if $m \mid n$ and $n / m$ is odd.

For the next properties, we assume also that $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=1$. If $m, n \neq 0$ let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)$.

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{m}, U_{n}\right) & =U_{d}  \tag{2.20}\\
\operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{m}, V_{n}\right) & = \begin{cases}V_{d} & \text { if } m / d, n / d \text { are odd } \\
1 \text { or } 2 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \tag{2.21}
\end{align*}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{m}, V_{n}\right) & = \begin{cases}V_{d} & \text { if } m / d \text { is even }, \\
1 \text { or } 2 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}  \tag{2.22}\\
\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{n}, Q\right) & =1, \quad \operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{n}, Q\right)=1,  \tag{2.23}\\
\operatorname{gcd}\left(D, U_{n}\right) & = \begin{cases}\operatorname{gcd}(D, n) & \text { if } n \text { is odd } \\
\operatorname{gcd}\left(D, \frac{n}{2}\right) \text { or } 2 \operatorname{gcd}\left(D, \frac{n}{2}\right) & \text { if } n \text { is even. }\end{cases} \tag{2.24}
\end{align*}
$$

(2.25). If $P, Q$ are odd, then $U_{n}$ is even if and only if $3 \mid n, V_{n}$ is even if and only if $3 \mid n$.

In our study, we shall assume without loss of generality that $P>0$. To exclude degenerate cases, we shall assume that $D=P^{2}-4 Q>0$. Accordingly, let $\mathcal{S}$ be the set of all pairs of non-zero integers $(P, Q)$, with $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=1, P>0, D>0$. Let $\mathcal{S}^{-}=\{(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S} \mid P$ and $Q$ are odd $\}$. The following theorems were proved in [11]; see also [3] for the special case where $|Q|=1$.

Theorem U1. Let $(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S}^{-}$. If $n \geq 1$ and $U_{n}=\square$ then $n \in$ $\{1,2,3,6,12\}$. Moreover

1) $U_{2}=\square$ if and only if $P=\square$.
2) $U_{3}=\square$ if and only if $P^{2}-Q=\square$.
3) $U_{6}=\square$ if and only if $P=3 \square, P^{2}-Q=2 \square, P^{2}-3 Q=6 \square$; this implies that $Q \equiv 1(\bmod 24)$.
4) $U_{12}=\square$ if and only if $P=\square, P^{2}-Q=2 \square, P^{2}-2 Q=3 \square$, $P^{2}-3 Q=\square$ and $\left(P^{2}-2 Q\right)^{2}-3 Q^{2}=6 \square$; this implies that $Q \equiv-1$ $(\bmod 120)$.

Theorem V1. Let $(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S}^{-}$. If $V_{n}=\square$ then $n \in\{1,3,5\}$. Moreover

1) $V_{1}=$if and only if $P=$
2) $V_{3}=\square$ if and only if $P=\square, P^{2}-3 Q=\square$, or $P=3 \square, P^{2}-3 Q=3 \square$; this implies that $Q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$.
3) $V_{5}=\square$ if and only if $P=5 \square$ and $P^{4}-5 P^{2} Q+5 Q^{2}=5 \square$; this implies that $P \equiv Q \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$.

Theorem U2. Let $(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S}^{-}$. If $n \geq 1$ and $U_{n}=2 \square$ then $n \in\{3,6\}$.

1) $U_{3}=2 \square$ if and only if $P^{2}-Q=2 \square$.
2) $U_{6}=2 \square$ if and only if $P=\square, P^{2}-Q=2 \square, P^{2}-3 Q=\square$; this implies that $Q \equiv-1(\bmod 8)$.
Theorem V2. Let $(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S}^{-}$. If $n \geq 1$ and $V_{n}=2 \square$ then $n \in$ $\{3,6\}$.
3) $V_{3}=2 \square$ if and only if $P=3 \square$, and $P^{2}-3 Q=6 \square$; this implies that $P \equiv 3(\bmod 24)$ and $Q \equiv 1,3(\bmod 8)$.
4) $V_{6}=2 \square$ if and only if $P^{2}-2 Q=3 \square$ and $\left(P^{2}-2 Q\right)^{2}-3 Q^{2}=6 \square$; this implies that $Q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$.
The special cases of Fibonacci and Lucas numbers were obtained earlier (see [1], [2], [26]).
(2.26). The only square Fibonacci numbers are $U_{1}=U_{2}=1, U_{12}=$ 144. The only square Lucas number is $V_{3}=4$. The only double square Fibonacci numbers are $U_{3}=2, U_{6}=8$. The only double square Lucas numbers are $V_{0}=2, V_{6}=18$.

We turn our attention to square classes. Let $T$ be a set of positive integers. The numbers $a, b \in T$ are said to be square-equivalent if there exist integers $h, k \neq 0$ such that $a h^{2}=b k^{2}$. It is equivalent to say that $a b=\square$.

The relation of square-equivalence is an equivalence relation. The equivalence classes are called the square-classes of $T$. The square-classes of Fibonacci numbers and of Lucas numbers were determined by CoHn [3]; an independent proof was given in [14].
(2.27). The square-classes with more than one term (non-trivial square-classes) of the sequences of Fibonacci numbers and of Lucas numbers are, respectively: $\left\{U_{1}=1, U_{2}=1, U_{12}=144\right\},\left\{U_{3}=2, U_{6}=8\right\}$ an $\left\{V_{1}=1, V_{3}=4\right\},\left\{V_{0}=2, V_{6}=18\right\}$.

In [17], Ribenboim and McDaniel proved:
(2.28). If $(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S}$ then for each $U_{n}$ (respectively $V_{n}$ ) there exists an effectively computable bound $B$, respectively a bound $C$ (depending on $P, Q, n$ ) such that if $U_{m}$ is in the square class of $U_{n}$ (respectively $V_{m}$ is in the square class of $V_{n}$ ) then $m<B$ (respectively $m<C$ ).

The following theorems were also proved by McDaniel and RibenBOIM in [11] (see Cohn [3] for the case when $|Q|=1$ ).

Theorem $S C U$. Let $(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S}^{-}$.
a) If $1 \leq m<n$ and $U_{m} U_{n}=\square$ then $(m, n) \in\{(1,2),(1,3),(1,6),(1,12)$, $(2,3),(2,12),(3,6),(5,10)\}$ or $n=3 m$ where $m>1, m$ is odd, $3 \nmid m$ and in this case $Q \equiv 1(\bmod 4),(-Q / P)=+1$, and $P \leq|Q+1|$.
b1) $U_{1} U_{n}=\square$ if and only if $U_{n}=\square$ and this implies (see theorem U1) that $n \in\{2,3,6,12\}$.
b2) $U_{2} U_{3}=\square$ if and only if $P=\square$ and $P^{2}-Q=\square$; this implies that $Q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$.
b3) $U_{3} U_{6}=\square$ if and only if $P=\square$ and $P^{2}-3 Q=\square$, or else if $P=3 \square$ and $P^{2}-3 Q=3 \square$; this implies that $Q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$.
b4) $U_{5} U_{10}=\square$ if and only if $P=5 \square$ and $P^{4}-5 P^{2} Q+5 Q^{2}=5 \square$; this implies that $P \equiv Q \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$.
b5) $U_{2} U_{12}=\square$ if and only if $P=\square, P^{2}-3 Q=\square, P^{2}-Q=2 \square$, $P^{2}-2 Q=3 \square$, and $\left(P^{2}-2 Q\right)^{2}-3 Q^{2}=6 \square$; this implies that $Q \equiv 4$ $(\bmod 4)$.

Theorem $S C V$. Let $(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S}^{-}$.
a) If $1 \leq m<n$ and $V_{m} V_{n}=\square$, then $(m, n)=(1,3)$ or $n=3 m$, with $m>1, m$ odd, $3 \nmid m$; this implies that $Q \equiv 3(\bmod 4), 3 \nmid P$, $(-3 Q / P)=+1$, and $P \leq\left|\frac{7}{6} Q+\frac{6}{7}\right|$.
b) $V_{1} V_{3}=\square$ if and only if $P^{2}-3 Q=\square$; this implies that $Q \equiv 3(\bmod 8)$ and $3 \nmid P$.

Concerning cubes we quote the following results (see LONDON and Finkelstein [8], Lagarias and Weissel [6], Pethő [12]):
(2.29).
a) $U_{1}=U_{2}=1, U_{6}=8$ are the only Fibonacci numbers which are cubes.
b) $V_{1}=1$ is the only Lucas number which is a cube.

We shall also require the Lehmer numbers (see [7]). Let $R>0, Q$ be integers with $D=R-4 Q \neq 0$. Let $\alpha, \beta$ be the roots of $X^{2}-\sqrt{R} X+Q$, so $\alpha+\beta=\sqrt{R}, \alpha \beta=Q$.

The first and second sequences of Lehmer numbers, with parameters $\sqrt{R}, Q$ are defined as follows (see [7]):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& K_{n}(\sqrt{R}, Q)= \begin{cases}\frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha-\beta}, & \text { if } n \text { is odd, } \\
\frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha^{2}-\beta^{2}}, & \text { if } n \text { is even. }\end{cases} \\
& L_{n}(\sqrt{R}, Q)= \begin{cases}\frac{\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n}}{\alpha+\beta}, & \text { if } n \text { is odd, } \\
\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n}, & \text { if } n \text { is even. }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

If $R=P^{2}$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
K_{2 n+1}\left(\sqrt{P^{2}}, Q\right) & =U_{2 n+1}(P, Q) \\
K_{2 n}\left(\sqrt{P^{2}}, Q\right) & =U_{n}\left(V_{2}(P, Q), Q^{2}\right)=\frac{U_{2 n}(P, Q)}{U_{2}(P, Q)} \\
L_{2 n+1}\left(\sqrt{P^{2}}, Q\right) & =K_{2 n+1}(\sqrt{D},-Q) \\
L_{2 n}\left(\sqrt{P^{2}}, Q\right) & =V_{n}(P, Q) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The square terms in certain sequences of Lehmer numbers were determined by McDaniel [10].

Theorem K1. Let $Q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, or let $Q \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$ and $R \equiv 5$ $(\bmod 8)$.
a) If $n \geq 1$ and $K_{n}=\square$ then $n \in\{1,2,3,4,6,12\}$.
b1) $K_{3}=\square$ if and only if $R-Q=\square$.
b2) $K_{4}=\square$ if and only if $R-2 Q=$
b3) $K_{6}=\square$ if and only if $R-Q=2 \square$ $\square$ and $R-3 Q=2 \square$.
b4) $K_{12}=\square$ if and only if $R-Q=\square, R-3 Q=2 \square, R-2 Q=3 \square$, and $R^{2}-4 R Q+Q^{2}=6 \square$.

Theorem L1. Let $Q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ and $R \equiv 1,5$, or $7(\bmod 8)$, or else let $Q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ and $R \equiv 1(\bmod 8)$. Then: $L_{n}=$if and only if $n=1$ or else $n=3$ and $R-3 Q=\square$.

To conclude the preliminaries we quote the following result of PeтнŐ [13] which will be used in Section 3. The special case when $a$ is
fixed was proved earlier by Shorey and Stewart [23]. We shall use the following notation. If $H$ is a finite set of prime numbers, then $H^{\times}$denote the set of all numbers whose prime factors are in $H$.

Theorem P. Let $(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S}$, let $W=U(P, Q)$ or $V(P, Q)$ and let $H$ be a finite set of primes. Then there exists and effectively computable number (depending on $P, Q, H$ ) such that if $a \in H^{\times}, k \geq 2,|x| \geq 1$, $n \geq 1$ and $W_{n}=a x^{k}$ then
i) if $|x|=1$ then $n,|a|<C$;
ii) if $|x|>1$ then $n,|a|,|x|, k<C$.

## 3. Basic results

Let $\mathcal{S}$ be the set of non-degenerate pairs $(P, Q)$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=1$. Let $W=U(P, Q)$ or $V(P, Q)$, let $H$ be a finite set of prime numbers. We shall discuss the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{s+2 k} \pm Q^{k} W_{s}=a x^{t} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $s \geq 1, k \geq 1, a \in H^{\times}, x$ is a non-zero integer, $t \geq 2$. We shall prove the following theorems:

Theorem s. Given $s \geq 1$, there exists $C>0$, effectively computable, depending on $P, Q, H$, s such that if (3.1) holds then:
i) if $|x|=1$ then $k,|a|<C$,
ii) if $|x|>1$ then $k,|a|,|x|, t<C$.

The next theorem is analogous, for given $k$ (instead of given $s$ ):
Theorem k. Given $k \geq 1$, there exists $C>0$, effectively computable, depending on $P, Q, H, k$ such that if (3.1) holds then:
i) if $|x|=1$ then $s,|a|<C$,
ii) if $|x|>1$ then $s,|a|,|x|, t<C$.

Special noteworthy cases occur for $Q= \pm 1, t=2$ or 3 leading to the relations:

$$
U_{s+2 k} \pm U_{s}=x^{t}, \quad V_{s+2 k} \pm V_{s}=x^{t}
$$

In particular, the results apply to Fibonacci numbers, Lucas numbers, and Pell numbers.

Proof of Theorem s. Case (+): $W_{s+k} V_{k}=W_{s+2 k}+Q^{k} W_{s}=a x^{t}$ (where $a, x, t$ depend on $k$ ). Let $d_{k}=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k)$. Then $d_{k} \mid s$, and $e_{k}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(W_{s+k}, V_{k}\right)$ is equal to 1,2 or $V_{d_{k}}$. Let $H_{1}=H \cup\{2\} \cup$ \{prime factors of $V_{d}$ for all $\left.d \mid s\right\}$. So $H_{1}$ is a finite set of primes which depends on $H, s$, but not on $k$.

We have $e_{k}^{2} \mid W_{s+k} V_{k}=a x^{t}$. Let $x=y z$, with $\operatorname{gcd}(y, z)=1, y \in H_{1}^{\times}$. Then $b=a y^{t} / e^{2}$ is an integer belonging to $H_{1}^{\times}$; note that $y, z$, and $b$ depend on $k$. Then

$$
\frac{W_{s+k}}{e_{k}}=b_{1} z_{1}^{t} \quad \frac{V_{k}}{e_{k}}=b_{2} z_{2}^{t}
$$

with $b_{1} b_{2}=b, z_{1} z_{2}=z$. Then $V_{k}=\left(e_{k} b_{2}\right) z_{2}^{t}$ with $e_{k} b_{1} \in H_{1}^{\times}$. By Pethő's theorem [13] $k$ is effectively bounded and from (3.1) we deduce that if $|x|=1$ then $|a|<C$, while if $|x|>1$ then also $|x|, t<C$.

Case ( - ): We first consider the case $W=U$ :

$$
U_{k} V_{s+k}=U_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} U_{s}=a x^{t}
$$

The proof continues like in Case $(+)$. If $W=V$, then

$$
D U_{s+k} U_{k}=V_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} V_{s}=a x^{t}
$$

Let $d_{k}=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k)$ so $d_{k} \mid s$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{s+k}, U_{k}\right)=U_{d_{k}}$. Hence $e_{k}=$ $\operatorname{gcd}\left(D U_{s+k}, U_{k}\right)$ divides $D U_{d_{k}}$. Let $H_{1}=H \cup\left\{\right.$ prime factors of $\left.D U_{s}\right\}$, so $H_{1}$ is finite. Then, as in the proof of Case $(+), U_{k}=\left(e_{k}, b_{2}\right) z_{2}^{t}$ where $e_{k} b \in H_{1}^{\times}$and by Ретнő's theorem [3], $k<C$ and the proof is concluded as before.

Proof of Theorem k. Case (+): $W_{s+k} V_{k}=W_{s+2 k}+Q^{k} W_{s}=a x^{t}$. Let $d_{s}=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k)$. Then $e_{s}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(W_{s+k}, V_{k}\right)=1,2$ or $V_{d_{s}}$. Let $H_{1}=$ $H \cup\{2\} \cup$ prime factors of $V_{d}$, for all $\left.d \mid k\right\}$. As in the proof of Theorem (s), $W_{s+k}=\left(e_{s} b_{1}\right) z^{t}$ with $e_{s} b_{1} \in H_{1}^{\times}$. The proof is concluded using Pethő's theorem.

Case (-): We have

$$
U_{k} V_{s+k}=U_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} U_{s}=a x^{t}
$$

and

$$
D U_{s+k} U_{k}=V_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} V_{s}=a x^{t}
$$

The proof continues as in Case (-) of Theorem (s).

## 4. Bounds in the case of squares

In this section we consider the special case of squares and investigate the relations

$$
W_{s+2 k} \pm Q^{k} W_{s}=
$$

where $W=U(P, Q)$ or $W=V(P, Q),(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S}$.
The purpose is to give effective explicit upper bounds. For this purpose we introduce the following notations. If $l \geq 1$ let

$$
T_{l}=\{h \square, 2 h \square|h| l\} .
$$

In particular, $T_{1}=T_{2} \subseteq T_{l}$ for $l \geq 1$.
For each $r \geq 1$ and $l \geq 1$ let

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{l}^{r} & =\left\{U_{d} h \square, 2 U_{d} h \square|d| r, h \mid l\right\}, \\
S_{l}^{r} & =\left\{V_{d} h \square, 2 V_{d} h \square|d| r, h \mid l\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In particular, $T_{l}=R_{l}^{1} \subseteq R_{l}^{r}$ for all $r \geq 1, l \geq 1$. For $r \geq 1, l \geq 1$ let

$$
B_{l}^{(r)}=\max \left\{n \mid U_{n} \text { or } V_{n} \text { belongs to } T_{l} \cup S_{l}^{r}\right\}
$$

and

$$
C_{l}^{(r)}=\max \left\{n \mid U_{n} \text { or } V_{n} \text { belongs to } S_{l}^{r} \cup R_{l}^{r}\right\} .
$$

Then $B_{l}^{(2)}, C_{l}^{(r)}$ are finite and effectively computable. We note also that $T_{1} \subseteq T_{l} \subseteq R_{l}^{r}$ (since $U_{1}=1$ ) so $B_{1}^{(r)} \leq C_{1}^{(r)}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S_{1}^{1}=\left\{V_{1} \square, 2 V_{1} \square\right\}, \\
& S_{1}^{2}=\left\{V_{1} \square, 2 V_{1} \square, V_{2} \square, 2 V_{2} \square\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(4.1). For every $s \geq 1$, if $k \geq 1$ is such that

$$
U_{s+2 k} \pm Q^{k} U_{s} \in \bigcup_{p \text { prime }} T_{p}
$$

then $k \leq B_{1}^{(s)}$.
Proof. Case ( + ): We have

$$
U_{s+k} V_{k}=U_{s+2 k}+Q^{k} U_{s} \in \bigcup_{p} T_{p}
$$

so there exists a prime $p \geq 2$ such that $U_{s+k} V_{k} \in T_{p}$. Let $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{s+k}, V_{k}\right)$, so $e=1,2$ or $V_{d}$, where $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k)=\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)$ with $(s+k) / d$ even, $k / d$ odd, hence $s / d$ odd. If $e=1$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ U _ { s + k } = \square } \\
{ V _ { k } = \square }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ = 2 \square } \\
{ = \square }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=\square \\
=2 \square
\end{array}\right.\right.\right. \\
& \text { or }\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ = p \square } \\
{ = \square }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ = \square } \\
{ = p \square }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=2 p \square \\
=\square
\end{array}\right.\right.\right. \\
& \text { or }\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ = p \square } \\
{ = 2 \square }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ = 2 \square } \\
{ = p \square }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=\square \\
=2 p \square
\end{array}\right.\right.\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus either $U_{s+k} \in T_{1}$ or $V_{k} \in T_{1}$. Hence $k \leq B_{1}^{(s)}$. Let $e=2$. Proceeding similarly from $\frac{U_{s+k}}{2} \frac{V_{k}}{2} \in T_{p}$ we deduce that either $U_{s+k}$ or $V_{k}$ belong to $T_{1}$, hence $k \leq B_{1}^{(s)}$.

If $e=V_{d}$ then $\frac{U_{s+k}}{V_{d}} \frac{V_{k}}{V_{d}} \in T_{p}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{U_{s+k}}{V_{d}}, V_{k} / V_{d}\right)=1$ As before, $\frac{U_{s+k}}{V_{d}} \in T_{1}$ or $\frac{V_{k}}{V_{d}} \in T_{1}$, hence $U_{s+k} \in \mathcal{S}_{1}^{s}$ or $V_{k} \in \mathcal{S}_{1}^{s}$ and therefore $k \leq B_{1}^{(s)}$.

Case (-): The proof is very similar. We have $U_{k} V_{s+k}=U_{s+2 k}-$ $Q^{k} U_{s} \in T_{p}$ for some prime $p$. Again, $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{k}, V_{s+k}\right)=1$, or 2 , or $V_{d}$ where $d=\operatorname{gcd}(k, s+k)=\operatorname{gcd}(s, k), k / d$ even, $(s+k) / d$ odd, so $s / d$ odd. The proof continues as in Case ( + ), by interchanging $s+k$ and $k$.
(4.2). For every $s \geq 1$, if $k \geq 1$ is such that

$$
V_{s+2 k} \pm Q^{k} V_{s} \in \bigcup_{p \text { prime }} T_{p}
$$

then $k \leq C_{w}^{(s)}$, where $D=P^{2}-4 Q=w z^{2}$, with $w \geq 1$, $w$ square-free.
Proof. Case (+): We have

$$
V_{s+k} V_{k}=V_{s+2 k}+Q^{k} V_{s} \in T_{p}
$$

for some prime $p \geq 2$. Let $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{s+k}, V_{k}\right)$, so $e=1,2$ or $V_{d}$ where $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k)=\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)$, with $\frac{s+k}{d}, \frac{k}{d}$ both odd. If $e=1$ we see as in the proof of (4.1) that either $V_{s+k} \in T_{1}$ or $V_{k} \in T_{1}$ hence $k \leq C_{w}^{(s)}$. If $e=2$ the same argument shows that $V_{s+k} \in T_{1}$ or $V_{k} \in T_{1}$ so $k \leq C_{w}^{(s)}$. If
$e=V_{d}$ we proceed similarly getting again $V_{s+k} \in V_{d} T_{1}$ or $V_{k} \in V_{d} T_{1}$, that is $V_{s+k}$ or $V_{k} \in S_{1}^{s}$ hence $k \leq C_{w}^{(s)}$.

Case (-): We have

$$
D U_{s+k} U_{k}=V_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} V_{s} \in T_{p}
$$

for some prime $p \geq 2$. Since $D=w z^{2}$ with $w$ square free, then

$$
U_{s+k} U_{k} \in\{w \square, 2 w \square, w p \square, 2 w p \square\} .
$$

Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k)=\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)$ so $U_{d}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{s+k}, U_{k}\right)$. Then

$$
\frac{U_{s+k}}{U_{d}} \frac{U_{k}}{U_{d}} \in\{w \square, 2 w \square, w p \square, 2 w p \square\}
$$

hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ U _ { s + k } = U _ { d } a \square } \\
{ U _ { k } = U _ { d } b \square }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ = U _ { d } \times 2 a \square } \\
{ = U _ { d } b \square }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=U_{d} a \square \\
=U_{d} \times 2 b \square
\end{array}\right.\right.\right. \\
& \text { or }\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ = U _ { d } a p \square } \\
{ = U _ { d } b \square }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ = U _ { d } a \square } \\
{ = U _ { d } b p \square }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=U_{d} \times 2 a p \square \\
=U_{d} b \square
\end{array}\right.\right.\right. \\
& \text { or }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
=U_{d} a p \square \\
=U_{d} \times 2 b \square
\end{array}\right. \\
& \text { or }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
=U_{d} \times 2 a \square \\
=U_{d} b p \square
\end{array}\right. \\
& \text { or }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
=U_{d} a \square \\
=U_{d} \times 2 b p \square
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

where $a b=w, \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. In all cases $U_{s+k}$ or $U_{k}$ belongs to $R_{w}^{s}$, hence $k \leq C_{w}^{(s)}$.

We indicate now corresponding results where $k$ and $l$ are given.
(4.3). Let $k \geq 1, l \geq 1$ be given. If $s \geq 1$ is such that

$$
U_{l+2 k} \pm Q^{k} U_{s} \in T_{l}
$$

then $s \leq B_{l}^{(k)}$.
Proof. Case (+): We have $U_{s+2 k}+Q^{k} U_{s}=U_{s+k} V_{k} \in T_{l}$. Let $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{s+k}, V_{k}\right)$ so $e=1,2$, or $V_{d}$ where $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k),(s+k) / d$ is even and $k / d$ is odd.

Proceeding as in the proof of (4.1), if $e=1$ or 2 then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{cases}U_{s+k}=\square \\
V_{k}=\square\end{cases} \text { or }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
=2 \square \\
=\square
\end{array}\right. \\
& \text { or }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { or }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
=\square \\
=a \square \\
=b \square
\end{array}\right. \\
\text { or }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
=2 a \square \\
=b \square
\end{array}\right. \\
\text { or }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
=a \square \\
=2 b \square
\end{array}\right.
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

where $a b=l, \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Then $U_{s+k} \in T_{l}$ so $s \leq B_{l}^{(k)}$. If $e=V_{d}$ then $U_{s+k} \in S_{l}^{k}$ hence $s \leq B_{l}^{(k)}$.

Case (-): We have $U_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} U_{s}=U_{k} V_{s+k} \in T_{l}$. Proceeding as before we obtain $V_{s+k} \in T_{l} \cup S_{l}^{k}$ hence $s \leq B_{l}^{(k)}$.
(4.4). Let $k \geq 1, l \geq 1$ be given. If $s \geq 1$ is such that

$$
V_{s+2 k} \pm Q^{k} V_{s} \in T_{l}
$$

then $s \leq \max \left\{B_{l}^{(k)}, C_{l w}^{(k)}\right\}$.
Proof. Case $(+)$ : We have $V_{s+2 k}+Q^{k} V_{s}=V_{s+k} V_{k} \in T_{l}$. Let $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{s+k}, V_{k}\right)$, so $e=1,2$, or $V_{d}$ where $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k)$ and $(s+k) / d$, $k / d$ are odd. If $e=1$ or 2 , by the same argument we see that $V_{s+k} \in T_{l}$, hence $s \leq B_{l}^{(k)}$. If $e=V_{d}$, from $\frac{V_{s+k}}{V_{d}} \frac{V_{k}}{V_{d}} \in T_{l}$ with coprime factors, then $V_{s+k} \in S_{l}^{k}$, so $s \leq B_{l}^{(k)}$.

Case (-): We have $V_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} V_{s}=D U_{s+k} U_{k} \in T_{l}=\{h \square, 2 h \square|h| l\}$.
Since $D=w z^{2}$, with $w$ square-free then

$$
U_{s+k} U_{k} \in\{w h \square, 2 w h \square|h| l\} .
$$

Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k)$, so $U_{d}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{s+k}, U_{k}\right)$ hence

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
U_{s+k}=U_{d} a g \square \\
U_{k}=U_{d} b h \square
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $a b=w, g h$ divides $2 l$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1, \operatorname{gcd}(g, h)=1$. Thus $U_{s+k} \in R_{l w}^{k}$ so $s \leq C_{l w}^{(k)}$.

When $s=1$ we were led in some of the cases of the above proofs to determine when $\frac{U_{1 h}}{V_{1}}=\frac{U_{1 h}}{U_{2}}$ (for $h \geq 1$ ) or $\frac{V_{k}}{V_{1}}$ (for $k$ odd) is in $\{\square, 2 \square\}$, We note that $\frac{U_{2 h}}{U_{2}}=U_{h}\left(V_{2}(P, Q), Q^{2}\right)$ and $\frac{V_{k}}{V_{1}}=L_{k}\left(\sqrt{P^{2}}, Q\right)(k$ th term of the second Lehmer sequence). The problem becomes the determination of squares and double squares in the above sequences.

## 5. Applications to sequences

 with odd parameters and squaresLet $(P, Q) \in \mathcal{S}$ and assume that $P, Q$ are odd. We shall apply the results in [11], [18] to determine the pairs $(s, k)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{s+2 k} \pm Q^{k} V_{s}= \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{s+2 k} \pm Q^{k} V_{s}= \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

hold.
(5.3). Let $s \geq 1, k \geq 1$. If $U_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} U_{s}=\square$ then

$$
(s, k) \in\{(1,2),(2,1),(4,1),(2,3),(3,3)\}
$$

Proof. We have

$$
\square=U_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} U_{s}=U_{k} V_{s+k}
$$

Let $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{k}, V_{s+k}\right)$, so $e=1,2$, or $V_{d}$ where $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k), k / d$ is even.
a) If $e=1$ then $U_{k}=\square$ and $V_{s+k}=\square$. Then $k=1,2,3,6$, or 12 and $s+k=1,3,5$. Since $k<s+k$ then

$$
(s, k) \in\{(2,1),(4,1),(1,2),(2,3)\} .
$$

Note that $(3,2)$ is not possible, since $U_{2}=\square$ means that $P=\square$, while $V_{5}=$implies that $P=5 \square$.
b) If $e=2$ then $U_{k}=2 \square, V_{s+k}=2 \square$, hence $k=3$ or 6 and $s+k=3$ or 6 . Since $k<s+k$ then $(s, k)=(3,3)$.
c) If $e=V_{d}$ with $k / d$ even, $(s+k) / d$ odd, so $s / d$ odd. Then $U_{k} V_{d}=$ $\square, V_{s+k} V_{d}=\square$. Since $d \leq k<s+k$ then $s+k=3 d$, with $d$ odd, $3 \nmid d$, hence $k=2 d$. So $\left(U_{d} V_{d}\right) V_{d}=\square$ hence $U_{d}=\square$. Hence $d=1$ and $(s, k)=(1,2)$
(5.4). Let $s \geq 1, k \geq 1$. If $U_{s+2 k}+Q^{k} U_{s}=\square$ then $(s, k) \in\{(1,1),(2,1),(11,1),(9,3),(2,2),(3,3),(10,2),(6,6)\}$.

Proof. We have

$$
\square=U_{s+2 k}+Q^{k} U_{s}=U_{s+k} V_{k} .
$$

Let $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{s+k}, V_{k}\right)$, so $e=1,2$, or $V_{d}$ where $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s+k, k)$ and $(s+k) / d$ is even.
a) If $e=1$ then $U_{s+k}=\square, V_{k}=\square$, hence $s+k=1,2,3,6$, or 12 and $k=1,3,5$. Since $k<s+k$ then

$$
(s, k) \in\{(1,1),(2,1),(5,1),(11,1),(3,3),(9,3),(1,5),(7,5)\} .
$$

But $(3,3)$ is excluded, since $U_{6}=\square$ implies that $Q \equiv 1(\bmod 24)$ and $V_{3}=\square$ implies that $Q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. Also $(1,5)$ is impossible, since $U_{6}=\square$ implies that $P=3 \square$ while $V_{5}=\square$ implies that $P=5 \square$. Similarly $(7,5)$ is not possible, because $U_{12}=\square$ implies that $P=\square$. Also $U_{6} V_{1}=U_{6} U_{2}$ is not a square.

The pair $(5,1)$ is also excluded because $U_{6}=\square$ implies that $P=3 \square$, while $V_{1}=\square$ means that $P=\square$, a contradiction.

Thus

$$
(s, k) \in\{(1,1),(2,1),(11,1),(9,3)\} .
$$

b) If $e=2$ then $U_{s+k}=2 \square, V_{k}=2 \square$. Hence $s+k=3$ or 6 and $k=3$ or 6 . Since $k<s+k$ then $(s, k)=(3,3)$, but this is excluded, since $U_{6}=2 \square$ implies that $P=\square$, while $V_{3}=2 \square$ implies that $P=3 \square$.
c) If $e=V_{d}$ then $(s+k) / d$ is even, so $k / d, s / d$ are odd and $U_{s+k} V_{d}=$ $\square, V_{k} V_{d}=\square$.

Case c 1): $d<k$. Then $k=3 d$, and $d$ is odd.
Case $c$ 1.1) Let $d=1$ so $k=3$ and $s+3=2^{f} g$ with $g$ odd, $f \geq 1$. We have

$$
U_{g} V_{g} V_{2 g} \cdots V_{2^{f-1} g}=P \square
$$

But gcd $\left(U_{g}, V_{g} V_{2 g} \cdots V_{2^{f-1} g}\right)$ is 1 or a proper power of 2. From

$$
U_{g} V_{g} V_{2 g} \cdots V_{2^{f-1} g}=U_{2^{f} g}=P \square
$$

then $U_{g}=P \square$ or $2 P \square$. Since $U_{2}=P$ then $U_{2} U_{g}=\square$ or $2 \square$. In the first case $g=3$; in the second case $U_{g}$ is even so $3 \mid g$. In both cases $3 \mid d$, which is absurd.

Case c 1.2) Let $d>1$ then $d$ is odd. $3 \nmid d, 3 \nmid P$. Let $s+k=2^{f} g$ with $f \geq 1, g$ odd. Since $d$ is odd, then $d \mid g$. Also if $3 \mid g$ then $3 \mid s+k, k=3 d$ so $3 \mid d$, which is a contradiction. So $3 \nmid g$. We have $V_{d} U_{s+k}=\square$ so

$$
V_{d} U_{g} V_{g} V_{2 g} \cdots V_{2 f-1}=\square
$$

with $\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{g}, V_{2^{i} g}\right)=1$ (for $\left.0 \leq i\right), \operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{2^{i} g}, V_{2^{j} g}\right)=1($ for $i<j)$, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{d}, U_{g}\right)=1$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{d}, V_{2^{i} g}\right)=1$ (for $\left.i \leq i\right)$. Therefore

$$
\frac{V_{g}}{V_{d}} U_{g} V_{2 g} \cdots V_{2^{f-1} g}=
$$

hence $V_{d} V_{g}=\square$, therefore $g=3 d$, which is a contradiction.
Case c 2) $d=k$. Hence $U_{s+k} V_{k}=\square$ with $k \mid s$ and $s / k$ odd, so $(s+k) / k$ even. Let $s+k=2^{f} g$, with $f \geq 1, g$ odd. Then $k=2^{l} h$ with $0 \leq l<f, h$ odd, $h \mid g$. We have

$$
U_{g} V_{g} V_{2 g} \cdots V_{2^{f-1} g} V_{2^{l} h}=
$$

with $\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{g}, V_{g} V_{2 g} \cdots V_{2^{l} h}\right)=1$ or a power of 2 . So $U_{g}=\square$ or $2 \square$, hence $g=1$ or 3 or $g=3$.

Case c 2.1) Let $g=1$, so $h=1, s+k=2^{f}, k=2^{l}$ and $U_{2^{f}} V_{2^{l}}=\square$. If $f=l+1$ then $U_{2^{l}}=\square$ so $2^{l}=1$ or $2,2^{f}=2$ or 4 . So $(s, k)=(1,1)$, $(2,2)$. Now, if $f>l+1$ then

$$
V_{2^{f-1}} V_{2^{f-2}} \cdots V_{2^{l+1}} U_{2^{l}}=\square
$$

Since $U_{2^{l}}, V_{2^{l+1}}, \ldots, V_{2^{f-1}}$ are pairwise relatively prime, then $V_{2^{l+1}}=$ which is impossible.

Case c 2.2) Let $g=3$ so $s+k=2^{f} \times 3, k=2^{l} h$ with $0 \leq l<f, h$ odd, $h \mid 3$ so $h=1$ or 3 . From

$$
V_{2^{f-1} \times 3} \cdots V_{2^{l+1} \times 3} V_{2^{l} \times 3} V_{2^{l} \times h} U_{2^{l} \times 3}=\square
$$

and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{2^{l} \times 3}, V_{2^{f-1} \times 3} \cdots V_{2^{l} \times h}\right)=1$ or a power of 2 , then $U_{2^{f} \times 3}=$or $2 \square$. Hence $2^{f} \times 3=6$ or 12 , respectively $2^{f} \times 3=6$, so $f=1$ or 2 , respectively $f=1$. Since $(s+k) / k$ is even, then $(s, k)=(5,1),(3,3),(11,1)$, $(10,2),(9,3),(6,6) ;(s, k)=(5,1)$ is not possible, since $U_{6} V_{1}=U_{6} U_{2}$ is not a square.

We apply (5.3) and (5.4) to the sequence of Fibonacci numbers (see Robbins [19] [21] [22] for (c), (d), (e), (f)):
(5.5). Let $U$ be the sequence of Fibonacci numbers.
a) The only sums of Fibonacci numbers with indices of the same parity which are equal to a square are: $U_{4}+U_{2}, U_{9}+U_{3}, U_{6}+U_{2}$.
b) The only differences of Fibonacci number with indices of the same parity, which are equal to a square are: $U_{3}-U_{1}, U_{5}-U_{1}, U_{13}-U_{11}$, $U_{15}-U_{9}$.
c) $U_{n}=\square+1$ if and only if $n=3,5$.
d) $U_{n}=\square-1$ if and only if $n=4,6$.
e) $U_{n} \neq \square+2$ for all odd $n$.
f) $U_{n}=\square-2$ with $n$ odd if and only if $n=9$.

Proof. This is just a particular case of (5.3) and (5.4), excluding the pairs $(s, k)$ which do not yield a square.

Before proving the next result, we observe that if $P, Q$ are odd then $D \neq \square$. Indeed, let $\alpha, \beta$ be the roots of $X^{2}-P X+Q$, so $\alpha+\beta=P$, $\alpha \beta=Q$. If $D=\square$ then $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}$ so $\alpha, \beta$ are odd, hence $P=\alpha+\beta$ would be even. Now we show:
(5.6). Let $s \geq 1, k \geq 1$ be such that $\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)=1$. If $V_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} V_{s}=$ $\square$ then $\operatorname{gcd}(D, s+k) \neq 1$.

Proof. We have $\square=V_{s+2 k}-Q^{k} V_{s}=D U_{s+k} U_{k}$. We recall that

$$
\operatorname{gcd}\left(D, U_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}\operatorname{gcd}(D, n) & \text { for all odd } n \\ \operatorname{gcd}\left(D, \frac{n}{2}\right) & \text { or } 2 \operatorname{gcd}\left(D, \frac{n}{2}\right) \\ \text { for all even } n\end{cases}
$$

We note that if $n$ is even, since $D$ is odd then the second alternative above cannot occur.

Let $d_{k}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(D, U_{k}\right), d_{s+k}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(D, U_{s+k}\right)$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{k}, U_{s+k}\right)=1$ then $\frac{U_{k}}{d_{k}}, \frac{U_{s+k}}{d_{s+k}}, \frac{D}{d_{k} d_{s+k}}$ are coprime integers whose product is a square. So $\frac{U_{k}}{d_{k}}=\square, \frac{U_{s+k}}{d_{s+k}}=\square, \frac{D}{d_{k} d_{s+k}}=\square$. But

$$
d_{s+k}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(D, U_{s+k}\right)= \begin{cases}\operatorname{gcd}(D, s+k) & \text { when } s+k \text { is odd } \\ \operatorname{gcd}\left(D, \frac{s+k}{2}\right) & \text { when } s+k \text { is even } .\end{cases}
$$

So if $\operatorname{gcd}(D, s+k)=1$ then $d_{s+k}=1$ hence $U_{s+k}=\square$. By Section 2, Theorem (U1) $s+k=1,2,3,6$, or 12 . Since $\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)=1$ then
$(s, k) \in\{(1,1),(2,1),(5,1),(11,1),(1,2),(1,5),(7,5),(5,7),(1,11)\}$.
Now we note that $k=1$ or 2 . If $k=p \in\{5,7,11\}$ then $d_{k}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(D, U_{k}\right)=$ $\operatorname{gcd}(D, k)=1$ or $p$. If $p \mid U_{p}$ then $p$ is the rank of appearance of $p$, thus $p \left\lvert\, p-\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)\right.$, which is absurd. Thus $d_{k}=1$ and therefore $D=\square$, which is again impossible. So $k=1$ or 2 , therefore $d_{k}=1$ hence $U_{k}=\square$. From $D U_{s+k} U_{k}=\square$, it follows that $D=\square$ which is absurd.

We obtain the following more precise result for the sequences of Fibonacci numbers and Lucas numbers $(P=1, Q=-1)$ :
(5.7). Let $s \geq 1, k \geq 1$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)=1$. If $P=1, Q=-1$ then $V_{s+2 k}-(-1)^{k} V_{s} \neq \square$ except when $(s, k)=(4,1)$ or $(3,2)$.

Proof. We have $D=5$. If

$$
=V_{s+2 k}-(-1)^{k} V_{s}=5 U_{s+k} U_{k},
$$

by (5.6) $5 \mid s+k$ hence $5 \nmid U_{k}$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(5 U_{s+k}, U_{k}\right)=1$, so $U_{k}=\square$ and $5 U_{s+k}=U_{5} U_{s+k}=\square$. The first equation implies $k \in\{1,2,12\}$ by Theorem $U 1$. If $s+k=5$, then we obtain the solutions. On the other hand, if $s+k>5$ then by Theorem $S C U s+k=10$, which is impossible, because in that case $P \equiv Q \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$.
(5.8). Let $s \geq 1, k \geq 1$. If $V_{s+2 k}+Q^{k} V_{s}=\square$ then $(s, k)=(2,1)$ or $1<k, s=2 k$. The first case happens if and only if $P^{2} 3 Q=\square$; this implies that $Q \equiv 3(\bmod 8), 3 \nmid P$. If the second case happens then $k$ is odd, $Q \equiv 3(\bmod 4), 3 \nmid P,\left(\frac{-3 Q}{P}\right)=+1$ and also $P<\left|\frac{7}{6} Q+\frac{6}{7}\right|$.

Proof. Let

$$
\square=V_{s+2 k}+Q^{k} V_{s}=V_{s+k} V_{k} .
$$

By Section 2, Theorem $(S \subset V)$, we must have $(k, s+k)=(1,3)$, so $(s, k)=(2,1)$, or $1<k, s=2 k$. Finally, the conditions indicated in the statement must be satisfied as it was proved in [18].

From the preceding results we deduce (see Robbins [19] for (c), (d)):
(5.9). Let $V$ be the sequence of Lucas numbers:
a) $V_{6}+V_{4}$ is the only sum of Lucas numbers with indices of the same parity which is a square.
b) $V_{4}-V_{2}, V_{7}-V_{3}$ are the only differences of Lucas numbers with indices of the same parity which are equal to a square.
c) $V_{n} \neq \square \pm 1$ for all odd $n$.
d) $V_{n}=\square+3$ with $n$ even if and only if $n=4 ; V_{n} \neq \square-3$ for all even $n$.

Proof. This is just a rephrasement of the preceding results for the sequence of Lucas numbers.

As a supplement we show:
(5.10). Let $a \geq 1$.
a) If $a+2$ is a prime then $V_{2 n}=\square+(-1)^{n} a$ if and only if $V_{n}=$ $\left(a+2+(-1)^{n}\right) / 2$.
b) If $a-2$ is a prime or equal to 1 then $V_{2 n}=\square-(-1)^{n} a$ if and only if $V_{n}=\left(a-2-(-1)^{n}\right) / 2$.

Proof. a) Let $x \geq 0$ and $x^{2}+(-1)^{n} a=V_{2 n}=V_{n}^{2}-2(-1)^{n}$ so $V_{n}^{2}-x^{2}=(-1)^{n}(2+a)$. Then

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ V _ { n } + x = a + 2 } \\
{ V _ { n } - x = 1 }
\end{array} \quad ( n \text { even } ) \quad \text { or } \quad \left\{\begin{array}{l}
x+V_{n}=a+2 \\
x-V_{n}=1
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

## 6. Applications to cubes and Fibonacci or Lucas numbers

In this section we determine some sums and differences of Fibonacci numbers or of Lucas numbers which are cubes. We recall that London and Finkelstein [8], as well as Pethő [12], Langarias and Weissel [6], showed that the only Fibonacci numbers which are cubes are $U_{1}=U_{2}=1$, $U_{6}=8$. On the other hand, $V_{1}=1$ is the only Lucas number which is a cube.

Our first result is the following:
(6.1). Let $S=\{2 C, 4 C, 3 C, 9 C, 6 C, 12 C, 18 C, 36 C\}$. Then $U_{n} \in S$ if and only if $n=3,4,12$. In particular $U_{n} \notin\{4 C, 9 C, 6 C, 12 C, 36 C\}$.

Proof. Clearly for $n \leq 12, U_{n} \in S$ if and only if $n=3,4,12: U_{3}=2$, $U_{4}=3, U_{12}=18 \times 8$. Assume that $n$ is the smallest index, $n>12$, such that $U_{n} \in S$. Then either $2 \mid U_{n}$ or $3 \mid U_{n}$.

First case. $2 \mid U_{n}$ then $3 \mid n$. Let $n=3 k$. So $U_{n}=U_{k}\left(5 U_{k}^{2}+3(-1)^{k}\right)$. Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{k}, 5 U_{k}^{2}+3(-1)^{k}\right)$ so $d=1$ or 3 . If $d=1$ then $U_{k} \in S \cup C$. If $U_{k}=C$ then $k=1$ or 6 so $n=3$ (excluded) or $n=18$. However, $U_{18} \notin S$, as verified by computation. If $U_{k} \in S$ then $k \leq 12$ (by the minimality of $n$ ), hence $k=3$, giving $n=9$ (excluded) or $k=4$, but then $d=3$, which is excluded; or $k=12, n=36$, but $U_{36} \notin S$. If $d=3$ then

$$
\frac{U_{k}}{3} \frac{5 U_{k}^{2}+3(-1)^{k}}{2} \in S \cup C .
$$

Then $U_{k} \in S \cup C$ and we conclude as in the previous case that $k=3,4$, or 12, giving again $n=9,12,36$ which are excluded.

Second case. $2 \nmid U_{n}$ then $3 \mid U_{n}$ thus $4 \mid n$. Let $n=2 k$, so $U_{k} V_{k}=U_{n} \in$ $S$. Let $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{k}, V_{k}\right)$. So $e=1$ or 2 . By hypothesis, $2 \nmid U_{n}$, so $e=1$ then $U_{k} \in S \cup C$. If $U_{k}=C$ then $k=1$ so $n=2$ (excluded), or $k=6$, $n=12$, which was already considered. If $U_{k} \in S$ then $k \leq 12$ so $k=3$, hence $n=6$, which is excluded; or $k=4$ and $n=8$, also excluded; or $k=12, n=24$, but $U_{24} \notin S$.

Similarly,
(6.2). Let $S=\{2 C, 4 C, 3 C, 9 C, 6 C, 12 C, 18 C, 36 C\}$. Then $V_{n} \in S$ if and only if $n=2,3,6$. In particular, $V_{n} \notin\{2 C, 6 C, 9 C, 12 C, 36 C\}$.

Proof. For $n \leq 6, V_{n} \in S$ if and only if $n=2,3,6$. Let $n>6$ be the smallest index such that $V_{n} \in S$. Either $2 \mid V_{n}$ or $3 \mid V_{n}$.

First case. $2 \mid V_{n}$ so $3 \mid n$. Let $n=3 k$, hence $V_{k}\left(V_{k}^{2}-3(-1)^{k}\right) \in S$. Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{k}, V_{k}^{2}-3(-1)^{k}\right)$, so $d=1$ or 3 . If $d=1$ then $V_{k} \in S \cup C$. If $V_{k}=C$ then $k=1$ and $n=3$, excluded. If $V_{k} \in S$ then by the minimality of $n, k=2,3,6$ hence $n=6$ (excluded), or $n=9,18$ but $V_{9}, V_{18} \notin S$. If $d=3$ then

$$
\frac{V_{k}}{3} \frac{V_{k}^{2}-3(-1)^{k}}{3} \in S \cup C,
$$

so $V_{k} \in S \cup C$. As before $k=1,2,3,6$ leading to no allowed value for $n=3 k$.

Second case. $2 \nmid V_{n}$, hence $3 \mid V_{n}$, thus $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ so $n=2 k$, with $k$ odd. Now $V_{k}^{2}-2=C$. As it is known (see [9] for example) the only solution in integers of $X^{2}-2=Y^{3}$ is $x= \pm 1, y=-1$ so $k=1, n=2$ (excluded).

We shall also require the following fact:
(6.3). Let $S=\{5 C, 25 C, 110 C, 20 C, 50 C, 100 C\}$. Then $U_{n} \in S$ if and only if $n=5$. In particular $U_{n} \neq 25 C, 10 C, 20 C, 50 C, 100 C$.

Proof. For $n \leq 5, U_{n} \in S$ exactly when $n=5$. Let $n>5$ be the smallest index such that $U_{n} \in S$. Since $5 \mid U_{n}$ then 5 (the rank of appearance of 5) divides $n$. Let $n=5 k$, so $U_{n}=U_{k} f_{5}\left(U_{k}^{2}\right)$, where $f_{5} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ with constant term $\pm 5$. Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{k}, f_{5}\left(U_{k}^{2}\right)\right)$, so $d=1$ or 5 . Whether $d=1$ or $d=5$, we deduce that $U_{k} \in\{C, 2 C, 4 C\} \cup S$. By the preceding results and the minimality of $n$, we have $k=1,2,3,5,6$ giving $n=5$ (excluded) or $n=10,15,25,30$. But, by calculation, we see that $U_{10}, U_{15}, U_{25}, U_{30} \notin S$.

It is worth noting that since $5 \nmid V_{n}$ for all $n$, then $V_{n} \notin\{5 C, 25 C\}$ for all $n$. The same method may be used to determine the Fibonacci numbers and the Lucas numbers of the form $a C$, for some given integer $a>1$. It is worth noting, as an illustration that the above results amount to the determination of solutions in integers of certain diophantine equations. For example: Solutions in positive integers:

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
X^{2}-5 Y^{6}= \pm 1 & (x, y)=(2,1) \\
X^{2}-45 Y^{6}= \pm 4 & (x, y)=(7,1) \\
X^{2}-20 Y^{6}= \pm 1 & \text { no solution } \\
X^{2}-125 Y^{6}= \pm 4 & (x, y)=(11,1) \\
X^{2}-45 Y^{6}= \pm 1 & \text { no solution } \\
X^{2}-405 Y^{6}= \pm 4 & \text { no solution. }
\end{array}
$$

And similarly

$$
X^{6}-5 Y^{2}= \pm 1 \quad \text { no solution }
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
9 X^{6}-5 Y^{2}= \pm 4 & (x, y)=(1,1) \\
4 X^{6}-5 Y^{2}= \pm 1 & (x, y)=(1,1) \\
9 X^{6}-5 Y^{2}= \pm 1 & \text { no solution } \\
81 X^{6}-5 Y^{2}= \pm 4 & \text { no solution. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we shall consider sums or differences of Fibonacci numbers and of Lucas numbers. First, we show,
(6.4). Let $s \geq 1, k \geq 1$ be integers and assume that $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)=$ 1,2 , or 3 . Then

$$
U_{s+2 k}-(-1)^{k} U_{s} \neq C
$$

Proof. We have $C=U_{s+2 k}-(-1)^{k} U_{s}=U_{s} V_{s+k}$.
Let $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{s}, V_{s+k}\right)$. If $e=1$ then $U_{s}=C, V_{s+k}=C$, which is impossible. If $e=2$ then $\frac{U_{s}}{2} \frac{V_{s+k}}{2}=2 C$ and

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ U _ { s } = 4 C } \\
{ V _ { s + k } = 2 C }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=2 C \\
=4 C
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

Then $2\left|U_{s}, 2\right| V_{s+k}$ so $3 \mid s, 3(s+k)$ and $3 \operatorname{gcd}(s, k)$ which is contrary to the hypothesis.

If $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s, s+k)$ with $s / d$ even, $s+k / d$ odd, then
$V_{d}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{s}, V_{s+k}\right)$. If $d=1$ this leads to $e=1$, already seen. If $d=2$ then $V_{2}=3$, hence $\frac{U_{s}}{3} \frac{V_{s+k}}{3}=3 C$. Therefore,

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ U _ { s } = 3 C } \\
{ V _ { s + k } = 9 C }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=9 C \\
=3 C
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

The first case is not possible by (5.4) while the second is impossible by (5.3).

If $d=3$ then $V_{3}=4$ so $\frac{U_{s}}{4} \frac{V_{s+k}}{4}=4 C$ and therefore,

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ U _ { s } = 2 C } \\
{ V _ { s + k } = 4 C }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=4 C \\
=2 C
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

By (6.1), (6.2), in the first case $s=3, s+k=3$, which is impossible. The second case is also impossible by (6.2).
(6.5). Let $s \geq 1, k \geq 1$ be integers with $\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)=1,2$, or 3 . Then $U_{s+2 k}+(-1)^{k} U_{s}=C$ if and only if $(s, k)=(1,1)$ or $(5,1)$.

Proof. We have $C=U_{s+2 k}+(-1)^{k} U_{s}=U_{s+k} V_{k}$.
Let $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{s+k}, V_{k}\right)$. If $e=1$ then $U_{s+2 k}=C, V_{k}=C$, which implies that $k=1, s+k=2$ or 6 so $s=1$ or 5 . Let $e=2$, so $\frac{U_{s+k}}{2} \frac{V_{k}}{2}=2 C$, hence

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ U _ { s + k } = 4 C } \\
{ V _ { k } = 2 C }
\end{array} \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=2 C \\
=4 C .
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

However, by (6.1), $U_{s+k} \neq 4 C$ while by (6.2) if $V_{k}=4 C$ then $k=3$ and if $U_{s+k}=2 C$ then $s+k=3$, which is incompatible.

Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)$ and assume that $(s+k) / d$ is even while $k / d$ is odd. Then $e=V_{d}$. If $d=1$ then $e=1$, already considered. Let $d=2$ so $V_{2}=3$ and $\frac{U_{s+k}}{3} \frac{V_{k}}{3}=3 C$. Thus

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ U _ { s + k } = 9 C } \\
{ V _ { k } = 3 C }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=3 C \\
=9 C .
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

However, by (6.1) and (6.2), $U_{s+k} \neq 9 C$ and $V_{k} \neq 9 C$, so all cases are impossible.

If $d=3$ then $V_{3}=4$ and we have $\frac{U_{s+k}}{4} \frac{V_{k}}{4}=4 C$, leading to

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ U _ { s + k } = 2 C } \\
{ V _ { k } = 4 C }
\end{array} \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=4 C \\
=2 C .
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

In the first case, by (6.1) and (6.2) $s+k=3, k=3$, which is impossible. By (6.2) the second case is impossible.

Next we consider similar results for Lucas numbers:
(6.6). Let $s \geq 1, k \geq 1$ be integers such that $\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)=1,2$, or 3 . Then

$$
V_{s+2 k}-(-1)^{k} V_{s} \neq C .
$$

Proof. We have $C=V_{s+2 k}-(-1)^{k} V_{s}=5 U_{s+k} U_{k}$ hence $U_{s+k} U_{k}=$ $25 C$. Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)$. Then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(U_{s+k}, U_{k}\right)=U_{d}$. If $d=1$ or 2 then $U_{d}=1$ so $U_{s+k}=25 C$ or $U_{s}=25 C$, which is impossible by (6.3).

If $d=3$ then $U_{3}=2$ and $\frac{U_{s+k}}{2} \frac{U_{k}}{2}=50 \mathrm{C}$ so

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ U _ { s + k } = 1 0 0 C } \\
{ U _ { k } = 2 C }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ = 5 0 C } \\
{ = 4 C }
\end{array} \quad \left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ = 4 C } \\
{ = 5 0 C }
\end{array} \quad \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=2 C \\
=100 C .
\end{array}\right.\right.\right.\right.
$$

By (6.3) all cases are impossible.
(6.7). Let $s \geq 1, k \geq 1$ be integers with $\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)=1,2$, or 3 . Then

$$
V_{s+2 k}+(-1)^{k} V_{s} \neq C
$$

Proof. We have $C=V_{s+2 k}+(-1)^{k} V_{s}=V_{s+k} V_{k}$.
Let $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(V_{s+k}, V_{k}\right)$. If $e=1$ then $V_{s+k}=C, V_{k}=C$, so $s+k=k=1$, which is impossible. If $e=2$ then $\frac{V_{s+k}}{2} \frac{V_{k}}{2}=2 C$, hence

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ V _ { s + k } = 2 C } \\
{ V _ { k } = 4 C }
\end{array} \quad \text { or } \left\{\begin{array}{l}
=4 C \\
=2 C
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

By (6.2) both cases are impossible, since $V_{n} \neq 2 C$ for all $n$. Now let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)$, with $k / d,(s+k) / d$ odd. Then $e=V_{d}$. If $d=1$, this case has already been considered. If $d=2, V_{2}=3$. Then $\frac{V_{k}}{3} \frac{V_{s+k}}{3}=3 C$, hence $V_{k}=3 C$ or $9 C$ and respectively $V_{s+k}=9 C$ or $3 C$. However, this is impossible because $V_{n} \neq 9 C$ for all $n$.

If $d=3$ then $V_{3}=4$ so $\frac{V_{k}}{4} \frac{V_{s+k}}{4}=4 C$ and $V_{k}=2 C$ or $V_{s+k}=2 C$, which is impossible.

As particular cases of the preceding results, we deduce:
(6.8).
a) $U_{n} \neq C \pm 1$ for all $n$ except $n=3$.
b) $U_{n} \neq C \pm 2$ for all odd $n$.
c) $U_{n} \neq C \pm 4$ for all even $n$.
d) $V_{n} \neq C \pm 1$ for all odd $n$.
e) $V_{n} \neq C \pm 3$ for all even $n$.
f) $V_{n} \neq C \pm 4$ for all odd $n$.

Proof. This is just a special case of (6.4), (6.5), (6.6), and (6.7).

As a supplement, we show:
(6.9). $V_{2 n}=C \pm 1$ if and only if $n=2$ (giving $V_{4}=7$ ).

Proof. Let $C \pm 1=V_{2 n}=V_{n}^{2}-2(-1)^{n}$ so $V_{n}^{2}-2(-1)^{n} \mp 1=C$. According to the parity of $n$ and sign this leads to the Mordell equations

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
X^{2}-3=Y^{3} & \text { (only solution in positive integers } x=2, y=1) \\
X^{2}+3=Y^{3} & \text { (no solution) } \\
X^{2}-1=Y^{3} & \text { (only solution in positive integers } x=3, y=2) \quad \text { and } \\
X^{2}+1=Y^{3} & \text { (no solution). }
\end{array}
$$

It follows that $V_{n}=2$ (impossible) or $V_{n}=3$ so $n=2$ and $V_{4}=7=C-1$.

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