# Benford's Law, Elliptic Divisibility Sequences, and Canonical Heights 

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Sage Days for Women July, 2013

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- (1938) Frank Benford (unaware of Newcomb's work, presumably) publishes "The law of anomalous numbers."


## Statement of Benford's Law

Newcomb noticed that the early pages of the book of tables of logarithms were much dirtier than the later pages, so were presumably referenced more often.

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He stated the rule this way:

$$
\operatorname{Prob}(\text { first significant digit }=d)=\log _{10}\left(1+\frac{1}{d}\right) .
$$

## Benford's Law

## Base 10 Predictions

digit probability it occurs as a leading digit

| 1 | $30.1 \%$ |
| :--- | :---: |
| 2 | $17.6 \%$ |
| 3 | $12.5 \%$ |
| 4 | $9.7 \%$ |
| 5 | $7.9 \%$ |
| 6 | $6.7 \%$ |
| 7 | $5.8 \%$ |
| 8 | $5.1 \%$ |
| 9 | $4.6 \%$ |

## Benford's Data

TABLE I
Percentage of Times the Natural Numbers 1 to 9 are Used as First Digits in Numbers, as Determined by 20,229 Observations

|  | Title | First Digit |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Count |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |  |
| A | Rivers, Area | 31.0 | 16.4 | 10.7 | 11.3 | 7.2 | 8.6 | 5.5 | 4.2 | 5.1 | 33 |
| B | Population | 33.9 | 20.4 | 14.2 | 8.1 | 7.2 | 6.2 | 4.1 | 3.7 | 2.2 | 3259 |
| C | Constants | 41.3 | 14.4 | 4.8 | 8.6 | 10.6 | 5.8 | 1.0 | 2.9 | 10.6 | 104 |
| D | Newspapers | 30.0 | 18.0 | 12.0 | 10.0 | 8.0 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 100 |
| E | Spec. Heat | 24.0 | 18.4 | 16.2 | 14.6 | 10.6 | 4.1 | 3.2 | 4.8 | 4.1 | 1389 |
| F | Pressure | 29.6 | 18.3 | 12.8 | 9.8 | 8.3 | 6.4 | 5.7 | 4.4 | 4.7 | 703 |
| G | H.P. Lost | 30.0 | 18.4 | 11.9 | 10.8 | 8.1 | 7.0 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 3.6 | 690 |
| H | Mol. Wgt. | 26.7 | 25.2 | 15.4 | 10.8 | 6.7 | 5.1 | 4.1 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 1800 |
| , | Drainage | 27.1 | 23.9 | 13.8 | 12.6 | 8.2 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 2.5 | 1.9 | 159 |
| J | Atomic Wgt. | 47.2 | 18.7 | 5.5 | 4.4 | 6.6 | 4.4 | 3.3 | 4.4 | 5.5 | 91 |
| K | $n^{-1}, \sqrt{n}, \cdots$ | 25.7 | 20.3 | 9.7 | 6.8 | 6.6 | 6.8 | 7.2 | 8.0 | 8.9 | 5000 |
| L | Design | 26.8 | 14.8 | 14.3 | 7.5 | 8.3 | 8.4 | 7.0 | 7.3 | 5.6 | 560 |
| M | Digest | 33.4 | 18.5 | 12.4 | 7.5 | 7.1 | 6.5 | 5.5 | 4.9 | 4.2 | 308 |
| N | Cost Data | 32.4 | 18.8 | 10.1 | 10.1 | 9.8 | 5.5 | 4.7 | 5.5 | 3.1 | 741 |
| 0 | X-Ray Volts | 27.9 | 17.5 | 14.4 | 9.0 | 8.1 | 7.4 | 5.1 | 5.8 | 4.8 | 707 |
| P | Am. League | 32.7 | 17.6 | 12.6 | 9.8 | 7.4 | 6.4 | 4.9 | 5.6 | 3.0 | 1458 |
| Q | Black Body | 31.0 | 17.3 | 14.1 | 8.7 | 6.6 | 7.0 | 5.2 | 4.7 | 5.4 | 1165 |
| R | Addresses | 28.9 | 19.2 | 12.6 | 8.8 | 8.5 | 6.4 | 5.6 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 342 |
| S | $n^{1}, n^{2} \cdots n$ ! | 25.3 | 16.0 | 12.0 | 10.0 | 8.5 | 8.8 | 6.8 | 7.1 | 5.5 | 900 |
| T | Death Rate | 27.0 | 18.6 | 15.7 | 9.4 | 6.7 | 6.5 | 7.2 | 4.8 | 4.1 | 418 |
| Average $\qquad$ Probable Error |  | 30.6 | 18.5 | 12.4 | 9.4 | 8.0 | 6.4 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 1011 |
|  |  | $\pm 0.8$ | $\pm 0.4$ | $\pm 0.4$ | $\pm 0.3$ | $\pm 0.2$ | $\pm 0.2$ | $\pm 0.2$ | $\pm 0.2$ | $\pm 0.3$ |  |

## More Data

predicted frequencies

| 30.1 | 17.6 | 12.5 | 9.7 | 7.9 | 6.7 | 5.8 | 5.1 | 4.6 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |



Benford's Law compared with: numbers from the front pages of newspapers, U.S. county populations, and the Dow Jones Industrial Average.

## Example

Suppose the Dow Jones average is about $\$ 1 \mathrm{~K}$. If the average goes up at a rate of about $20 \%$ a year, it would take five years to get from 1 to 2 as a first digit.

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If we start with a first digit 5, it only requires a $20 \%$ increase to get from $\$ 5 \mathrm{~K}$ to $\$ 6 \mathrm{~K}$, and that is achieved in one year.

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When the Dow reaches $\$ 9 \mathrm{~K}$, it takes only an $11 \%$ increase and just seven months to reach the \$10K mark. This again has first digit 1 , so it will take another doubling (and five more years) to get back to first digit 2.

## Benford's Law and Tax Fraud (Nigrini, 1992)

## Benford's law

| 30.1 | 17.6 | 12.5 | 9.7 | 7.9 | 6.7 | 5.8 | 5.1 | 4.6 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

true tax data

| 30.5 | 17.8 | 12.6 | 9.6 | 7.8 | 6.6 | 5.6 | 5.0 | 4.5 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

fraudulent data

| 0 | 1.9 | 0 | 9.7 | 61.2 | 23.3 | 1.0 | 2.9 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |



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Most people can't fake data convincingly.

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Many states (including California) and the IRS now use fraud-detection software based on Benford's Law.

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- Most amounts were below \$100K (critical threshold for checks that would require more scrutiny).
- Over $90 \%$ of the checks had a first digit 7, 8, or 9 . (Trying to get close to the threshold without going over - artificially changes the data and so breaks fit with Benford's law.)


## True Life Tale

## Exhibit 3: Check Fraud in Arizona

The table lists the checks that a manager in the office of the Arizona State Treasurer wrote to divert funds for his own use. The vendors to whom the checks were issued were fictitious.

| Date of Check | Amount |
| :---: | :---: |
| October 9, 1992 | $\begin{array}{r} \$ 1,927.48 \\ 27,902.31 \\ \hline \end{array}$ |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & 86,241.90 \\ & 72,117.46 \\ & 81,321.75 \\ & 97,473.96 \end{aligned}$ |
| October 19, 1992 | $\begin{aligned} & 93,249.11 \\ & 89,658.17 \\ & 87,776.89 \\ & 92,105.83 \\ & 79,949.16 \\ & 87,602.93 \\ & 96,879.27 \\ & 91,806.47 \\ & 84,991.67 \\ & 90,831.83 \\ & 93,766.67 \\ & 88,338.72 \\ & 94,639.49 \\ & 83,709.28 \\ & 96,412.21 \\ & 88,432.86 \\ & 71,552.16 \end{aligned}$ |
| TOTAL | \$ 1,878,687.58 |

## Benford Base b

## Definition

A sequence of positive numbers $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ is Benford (base b) if

$$
\operatorname{Prob}(\text { first significant digit }=d)=\log _{b}\left(1+\frac{1}{d}\right)
$$

## Problems with "Proofs" of Benford's Law

- Discrete density and summability methods.


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- Discrete density and summability methods.
$F_{d}=\{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid$ first digit of $x$ is $d\}$. No natural density. That is,

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F_{d} \cap\{1,2, \ldots, n\}}{n}
$$

does not exist.

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- Discrete density and summability methods.
- Continuous density and summability methods. (Same problem.)
- Scale invariance.

If there is a reasonable first-digit law, it should be scale-invariant. That is, it shouldn't matter if the measurements are in feet or meters, pounds or kilograms, etc.

## Hill's Formulation (1988)

## Definition

For each integer $b>1$, define the mantissa function

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{b}: \mathbb{R}^{+} & \rightarrow[1, b) \\
x & \mapsto r
\end{aligned}
$$

where $r$ is the unique number in $[1, b)$ such that $x=r b^{n}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

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## Examples

- $M_{10}(9)=9=M_{100}(9)$.
- $M_{2}(9)=9 / 8=1.001$ (base 2).


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## Definition

$\mathcal{M}_{b}=\left\{\langle E\rangle_{b} \mid E \subset \mathbb{B}(1, b)\right\}$ is the $\sigma$-algebra on $\mathbb{R}^{+}$ generated by $M_{b}$.

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Let $P_{b}$ be the probability measure on $\left(\mathbb{R}^{+}, \mathcal{M}_{b}\right)$ defined by

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P_{b}\left(\langle[1, \gamma)\rangle_{b}\right)=\log _{b} \gamma .
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Proof comes down to uniqueness of Haar measure.

## What types of sequences are Benford?

Real-world data can be a good fit or not, depending on the type of data. Data that is a good fit is "suitably random" - comes in many different scales, and is a large and randomly distributed data set, with no artificial or external limitations on the range of the numbers.

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- $1,2,3,4,5,6,7, \ldots$ (uniform distribution)
- $1,10,100,1000, \ldots$ (first digit is always 1 )


## Some numerical sequences seem to be a good fit



Powers of Two

## Some numerical sequences seem to be a good fit



Fibonacci Numbers

## Logarithms and Benford's Law

## Fundamental Equivalence

Data set $\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ is Benford base $b$ iff $\left\{y_{i}\right\}$ is equidistributed $\bmod 1$, where $y_{i}=\log _{b} x_{i}$.

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- If the distribution is uniform $(\bmod 1)$, then the probability $y$ is in this range is

$$
\log _{b}(d+1)-\log _{b}(d)=\log _{b}\left(\frac{d+1}{d}\right)=\log _{b}\left(1+\frac{1}{d}\right)
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## Kronecker-Weyl Theorem

If $\beta \notin \mathbb{Q}$ then $n \beta \bmod 1\left(\operatorname{resp} . n^{2} \beta \bmod 1\right)$ is equidistributed.
Thus if $\log _{b} \alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}$, then $\alpha^{n}$ (resp. $\alpha^{n^{2}}$ ) is Benford.

## Powers of 2

## Theorem

The sequence $\left\{2^{n}\right\}$ for $n \geq 0$ is Benford base $b$ for any $b$ that is not a rational power of 2 .

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## Proof:

- Consider the sequence of logarithms $\left\{n\left(\log _{b} 2\right)\right\}$.
- By the Kronecker-Weyl Theorem, this is uniform $(\bmod 1)$ as long as $\log _{b} 2 \notin \mathbb{Q}$.
- If $b$ is not a rational power of 2 , then the sequence of logarithms is uniformly distributed (mod 1), so the original sequence is Benford base $b$.


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Heuristic Argument:

- Closed form for Fibonacci numbers:

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F_{n}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\left[\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n}-\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n}\right] .
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- $\left|\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)\right|<1$, so the leading digits are completely determined by $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n}$.


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- $\left|\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)\right|<1$, so the leading digits are completely determined by $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n}$.
- This sequence will be Benford base- $b$ for any $b$ where $\log _{b}\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) \notin \mathbb{Q}$.


## Linear Recurrence Sequences

Consider the sequence $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ given by some initial conditions $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k-1}$ and then a recurrence relation

$$
a_{n+k}=c_{1} a_{n+k-1}+c_{2} a_{n+k-2}+\cdots+c_{k} a_{n}
$$

with $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{k}$ fixed real numbers.

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with $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{k}$ fixed real numbers.
Find the eigenvalues of the recurrence relation and order them so that $\left|\lambda_{1}\right| \geq\left|\lambda_{2}\right| \geq \cdots \geq\left|\lambda_{k}\right|$.

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Find the eigenvalues of the recurrence relation and order them so that $\left|\lambda_{1}\right| \geq\left|\lambda_{2}\right| \geq \cdots \geq\left|\lambda_{k}\right|$.

There exist number $u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{k}$ (which depend on the initial conditions) so that $a_{n}=u_{1} \lambda_{1}^{n}+u_{2} \lambda_{2}^{n}+\cdots+u_{k} \lambda_{k}^{n}$.

## Linear Recurrence Sequences

## Theorem

With a linear recurrence sequence as described, if $\log _{b}\left|\lambda_{1}\right| \notin \mathbb{Q}$ and the initial conditions are such that $u_{1} \neq 0$, then the sequence $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ is Benford base $b$.

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## Sketch of Proof:

- Rewrite the closed form as $a_{n}=u_{1} \lambda_{1}^{n}\left(1+\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{k u \lambda_{2}^{n}}{\lambda_{1}^{n}}\right)\right)$ where $u=\max _{i}\left|u_{i}\right|+1$.


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- Then $y_{n}=\log _{b}\left(a_{n}\right)=n \log _{b} \lambda_{1}+\log _{b} u_{1}+\mathcal{O}\left(\beta^{n}\right)$.


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- Then $y_{n}=\log _{b}\left(a_{n}\right)=n \log _{b} \lambda_{1}+\log _{b} u_{1}+\mathcal{O}\left(\beta^{n}\right)$.
- Show in the limit the error term affects a vanishingly small portion of the distribution.


## Elliptic Divisibility Sequences

## Definition

An integral divisibility sequence is a sequence of integers $\left\{u_{n}\right\}$ satisfying

$$
u_{n} \mid u_{m} \quad \text { whenever } n \mid m .
$$

An elliptic divisibility sequence is an integral divisibility sequence which satisfies the following recurrence relation for all $m \geq n \geq 1$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
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- The sequence
$1,3,8,21,55,144,377,987,2584,6765, \ldots$ (this is every-other Fibonacci number).


## Not-So-Boring Elliptic Divisibility Sequences

- The sequences which begins $0,1,1,-1,1,2,-1,-3,-5,7,-4,-28,29,59$, 129, $-314,-65,1529,-3689,-8209,-16264$, 833313,113689, -620297, 2382785, 7869898, 7001471, - 126742987, -398035821, 168705471, ...
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- The sequence which begins $1,1,-3,11,38,249,-2357,8767,496036,-3769372$, -299154043, -12064147359,....


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## Example: $y^{2}+y=x^{3}+x^{2}-2 x$

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\begin{aligned}
& u_{1}=1 \\
& u_{2}=1 \\
& u_{3}=-3 \\
& u_{4}=11 \\
& u_{5}=38 \\
& u_{6}=249
\end{aligned}
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\begin{array}{ll}
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u_{3}=-3 & {[3] P=\left(-\frac{11}{9}, \frac{28}{27}\right)} \\
u_{4}=11 & {[4] P=\left(\frac{114}{121},-\frac{267}{1331}\right)} \\
u_{5}=38 & {[5] P=\left(-\frac{2739}{1444},-\frac{77033}{54872}\right)} \\
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## Division Polynomials

One defines elliptic functions $\psi_{n}$ on $E: y^{2}=x^{3}+A x+B$ with

## $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { zeroes at the } n \text {-torsion points of } E \\ \text { poles supported on } \mathbf{O}\end{array}\right.$

Then for

$$
P=(x, y) \in E, \quad[n] P=\left(\frac{\phi_{n}(P)}{\Psi_{n}(P)^{2}}, \frac{\omega_{n}(P)}{\Psi_{n}(P)^{3}}\right) .
$$

If $P$ is an integral point,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Psi_{1}=1, \quad \Psi_{2}=2 y, \quad \Psi_{3}=3 x^{4}+6 A x^{2}+12 B x-A^{2}, \\
& \Psi_{4}=4 y\left(x^{6}+5 A x^{4}+20 B x^{3}-5 A^{2} x^{2}-4 A B x-8 B^{2}-A^{3}\right), \ldots
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## Division Polynomials

Note:

- $\left.\operatorname{gcd}\left(\phi_{n}(P), \Psi_{n}(P)\right)\right)=1$ in $\mathbb{Z}[A, B, x, y]$.
- $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\phi_{n}(P), \Psi_{n}(P)\right)$ is supported on $p \mid \Delta_{E}$ for $P \in E(\mathbb{Q})$.
- So $\Psi_{n}(P)$ is almost the denominator of $[n] P$.


## Fundamental Correspondence

## Theorem (Ward, 1948)

If $u_{n}: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ satisfies $(*)$, and if $u_{1}=1$, then for some

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E: y^{2}=x^{3}+A x+B, \quad A, B \in \mathbb{Q} \quad P \in E(\mathbb{Q}),
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Ward's Correspondence:

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\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\text { curve-point pairs }(E, P) \\
E: y^{2}=x^{3}+A x+B, \\
A, B \in \mathbb{Q}, \quad P \in E(\mathbb{Q}) \\
P \notin E[2] \cup E[3]
\end{array}\right\} \longleftrightarrow\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\text { elliptic divisibility } \\
\text { sequences } \\
u_{n}: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} \\
u_{1}=1, \quad u_{2} u_{3} \neq 0
\end{array}\right\}
$$

## Growth Rate

```
1,
1,
11,
38,
249,
2357,
8767,
496035,
3769372,
299154043,
12064147359,
632926474117,
65604679199921,
6662962874355342
720710377683595651,
285131375126739646739,
52061747034847247 19135,
36042157766246923788837209,
14146372186375322613610002376,
141463/2186375322613610002376,
1392607 142083325246643577 4939177, 
23563346097423565704093874703154629107,
52613843196106605131800510111110767937939,
19104247 4643841254375755272420136901439312318,
201143562868610416717760281868105570520101027137,
5095821991254990552236265353900129949461036582268645
16196160423545762519618471188475392072306453021094652577,
3907217597890172113888271668465908494275176208510662/8956107,
5986280055034962587902117411856626799800260564768380372311618644,
10890200516851787 12032908999801499050323386456092293/7887214046858803,
4010596455533972232983940617927541889290613203449641429607220125859983231,
1525062074656522I7762531462142393791012856442441235840714430103762819736595413,
5286491728223134626400431117234262142530209508718504849234889569684083125892420201,
835397059891704991632636814121353141297683871830623235928141040342038068512341019315446,
1086178912221811529213955150841762882093257 1356531654998704845795890033629344542872385904645,
13351876087649817486050732736119641016235802111163925747732171131926421411306436158323451057508131,
2042977307842020707295863142858393936350596442010700266977612272386600979584155605002856821221263113151,
666758599738582427580962194986025574476589178060749335314959464037321543378395210027048006648288905711378993,
333167086588478561672098259752122036440335441580932677237086129099851559108618156882215307126455838552908231344016,
\333167086588478561672098259752122036440335441580932677237086129099851559108618156882215307126455838552908231344016, 
1137600657772348828650068406546548957 188965200420250483064935150521493631662/ 141066696349481341383649543780341962198202/ 412929,
159253169967307321375677555136314568434529937177007635953107117202675658212866813320738037987472039386883798439657624623140677934307,
444163101673188802564614281909651939798541498443205797140Z/5002837542/3952989380044808517851663079825097686172334231751637837837673262107, . . .
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## Heuristic Argument

- It's well-known that elliptic divisibility sequences satisfy a growth condition like $u_{n} \approx c^{n^{2}}$ where the constant $c$ depends on the arithmetic height of the point $P$ and on the curve $E$.


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- So we should at least be able to conclude that a given EDS is Benford base $b$ for almost every $b$.
- But: The argument with the big-O error terms is delicate, and we need to work out some details.


## Elliptic Divisibility Sequences are Benford?



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