

## On equal values of power sums

by

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**Introduction.** There are several classical diophantine problems related to the power values and arithmetical properties of the sum  $S_k(x) = 1^k + \dots + (x-1)^k$  (cf. [3], [7]–[9], [13], [15]–[17]).

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the equation

$$(1) \quad S_k(x) = S_l(y),$$

where  $k, l$  are given distinct positive integers. Unfortunately, there seems to be no way to treat it in its full generality. One would start with  $l = 1$ , therefore,

$$(2) \quad 8S_k(x) + 1 = (2y - 1)^2.$$

The known general results on the equation

$$sS_k(x) + r = y^z$$

(see [8], [9], [17]) do not cover it, the special cases  $k = 2, 3$  of (2) are resolved in [1], [5], [10], [14].

**THEOREM 1.** *If  $k > 1$  then all the solutions of the equation*

$$S_k(x) = S_1(y) \quad \text{in positive integers } x, y$$

*satisfy  $\max(x, y) < c_1$ , where  $c_1$  is an effectively computable constant depending only on  $k$ .*

A similar statement can be obtained if  $l = 3$ , that is,  $S_3(y)$  is a complete square (cf. [12]). The remaining cases are strongly related to the irreducibility of Bernoulli polynomials.

Let  $I$  denote the set of positive integers  $k$  such that the  $k$ th Bernoulli polynomial denoted by  $B_k(x)$  is irreducible (over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ). Most likely  $B_k(x)$  is irreducible for almost every even  $k$  (see the known cases for  $k \leq 200$  in

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[11]); for instance, if  $p$  is an odd prime and  $1 \leq m \leq p$  then  $B_{m(p-1)}(X)$  is irreducible (see [4]).

**THEOREM 2.** *If  $k, l \in I$  with  $k > 2, (k, l) = 2$ , then equation (1) in positive integers  $x, y$  has only finitely many solutions.*

**Auxiliary results.** Let  $f, g$  be polynomials having degrees  $n > 1$  and  $m > 1$ , respectively. For a  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  we write  $D(\lambda) = \text{discriminant}(f(x) + \lambda)$  and  $E(\lambda) = \text{discriminant}(g(x) + \lambda)$ .

**LEMMA 1.** *If there are at least  $\lceil n/2 \rceil$  distinct roots of  $D(\lambda) = 0$  for which  $E(\lambda) \neq 0$  and  $m > 3, n > 3$ , then the equation*

$$f(x) = g(y) \quad \text{in rational integers } x, y$$

*has at most a finite number of solutions.*

**Proof.** See Theorem 1 of [6].

In the next lemma we summarize some classical properties of Bernoulli polynomials. For the proofs of these results we refer to [12].

**LEMMA 2.** *Let  $B_n(X)$  denote the  $n$ th Bernoulli polynomial and  $B_n = B_n(0)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Further, let  $D_n$  be the denominator of  $B_n$ . Then we have*

- (A)  $B_n(X) = X^n + \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n}{i} B_i X^{n-i}$ ,
- (B)  $1^k + 2^k + \dots + (x-1)^k = \frac{1}{k+1} (B_{k+1}(x) - B_{k+1})$ ,
- (C)  $B_n(X) = (-1)^n B_n(1-X)$ ,
- (D)  $B_{2n+1} = 0, n = 1, 2, \dots$ ,
- (E) (von Staudt–Clausen)  $D_{2n} = \prod_{p-1|2n, p \text{ prime}} p$ ,
- (F)  $B'_{n+1}(X) = (n+1)B_n(X)$ ,
- (G)  $B_{2n}(\frac{1}{2}) = (2^{1-2n} - 1)B_{2n}, n = 1, 2, \dots$ ,
- (H)  $X(X-1)(X-\frac{1}{2}) \mid B_{2n-1}(X)$  (in  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ ),  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

**LEMMA 3.** *Let  $f(X) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$  be a polynomial having at least three zeros of odd multiplicities. Then the equation*

$$f(x) = y^2 \quad \text{in integers } x, y$$

*implies  $\max(|x|, |y|) < c$ , where  $c$  is an effectively computable constant depending only on the coefficients of  $f$ .*

**Proof.** Lemma 3 is a special case of the Theorem of [2].

**LEMMA 4.** *Let  $P(X) = a_n X^n + \dots + a_1 X + a_0$  be a polynomial with integral coefficients, for which  $a_0$  is odd,  $4 \mid a_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ , and the dyadic order of  $a_n$  is 3. Then every zero of  $P$  (in  $\mathbb{C}$ ) is simple. ( $P$  is not necessarily irreducible, e.g.  $8X^3 + 8X^2 + 8X + 3$  is divisible by  $2X + 1$ .)*

Proof. If the polynomial  $P(X)$  has a multiple zero, then it can be written as  $P_1^2 P_2$ , where  $P_1, P_2 \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ , and  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are not necessarily relatively prime polynomials. By taking the natural homomorphism  $\mathbb{Z}[X] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2[X]$  we have  $P_i = 2Q_i + 1$  with some  $Q_i \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ . The degree of  $Q_2$  is certainly at least one, otherwise the dyadic order of the leading coefficient of  $P_1^2 P_2$  would not be equal to 3. Every coefficient, apart from the constant term, of the polynomial

$$(2Q_1 + 1)^2(2Q_2 + 1) = 8Q_1^2 Q_2 + 8Q_1 Q_2 + 2Q_2 + 4Q_1^2 + 4Q_1 + 1$$

is divisible by 4, therefore, the leading coefficient of  $Q_2$  is even; however,  $a_n$  is not divisible by 16.

### Proofs

Proof of Theorem 1. Let  $d$  be the smallest positive integer for which

$$8d(B_{k+1}(X) - B_{k+1}) \in \mathbb{Z}[X].$$

By Lemma 3 it suffices to prove that the polynomial

$$P(X) = 8d(B_{k+1}(X) - B_{k+1}) + d(k + 1)$$

has at least three zeros of odd multiplicities. We distinguish some cases. If  $k + 1$  is odd then the above statement is a simple consequence of Lemma 4. Since  $P$  is not a complete square (in  $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ ) we just have to exclude the remaining case

$$P(X) = (aX^2 + bX + c)R^2(X),$$

where  $aX^2 + bX + c, R(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$  and  $aX^2 + bX + c$  has two distinct zeros. If  $k + 1$  is even, but not divisible by 4, then  $\frac{1}{2}P(X)$  is a polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}[X]$  having odd constant term. Hence it can be factorized as

$$P(X)/2 = (2S_1(X) + 1)^2(2S_2(X) + 1);$$

however, the leading coefficient of  $\frac{1}{2}P(X)$  is not divisible by 8. In the amusing last case when  $4 \mid k + 1$ , the degree of  $R$  is odd and the relation  $P(X) = P(1 - X)$  implies  $R^2(X) = R^2(1 - X)$ , therefore,  $R(X) = -R(1 - X)$  and  $0 = R(\frac{1}{2}) = P(\frac{1}{2})$  yields

$$B_{k+1} = \frac{2^{k-3}(k + 1)}{2^{k+1} - 1} \quad (k + 1 \geq 4),$$

which is impossible, since the denominator of  $B_{k+1}$  should be divisible by 2.

Proof of Theorem 2. Put

$$B^{[j]} = \left\{ \frac{1}{j+1} B_{j+1}(\alpha) \mid B_j(\alpha) = 0 \right\}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots$$

Since  $D(\lambda) = C \cdot \prod_{f'(x)=0} (f(x) + \lambda)$ , where  $C$  is a non-zero numerical constant (cf. [4]) it is enough to show that the sets  $B^{[k]}$  and  $B^{[l]}$  are disjoint. Supposing the contrary we have

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{k+1} B_{k+1}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{l+1} B_{l+1}(\beta)$$

with some  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . The polynomials  $B_k(X)$  and  $B_l(X)$  are irreducible and  $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \cap \mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ , therefore, the degree of  $\gamma$  is at most  $(k, l) = 2$ . Every zero of  $B_{k+1}(X)$  is simple ( $k+1$  is odd and  $B'_{k+1}(X) = (k+1)B_k(X)$ ), hence  $\gamma \neq 0$ . If  $\gamma$  is rational then  $\alpha$  is a zero of the polynomial

$$B_{k+1}(X) - \gamma(k+1) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$$

and  $(X - \alpha_1)B_k(X) = B_{k+1}(X) - \gamma(k+1)$  with some rational  $\alpha_1$ . By differentiating both sides we obtain

$$(X - \alpha_1)B_{k-1}(X) = B_k(X),$$

which contradicts the irreducibility of  $B_k(X)$ . If the degree of  $\gamma$  is 2 over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\bar{\gamma}$  denotes the algebraic conjugate of  $\gamma$  then  $\alpha$  is a zero of the polynomial

$$\begin{aligned} (B_{k+1}(X) - \gamma(k+1))(B_{k+1}(X) - \bar{\gamma}(k+1)) \\ = B_{k+1}^2(X) + r_1 B_{k+1}(X) + r_2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X], \end{aligned}$$

therefore,

$$B_k(X) \mid B_{k+1}^2(X) + r_1 B_{k+1}(X) + r_2.$$

Substituting  $1 - X$  instead of  $X$  a simple subtraction implies

$$B_k(X) \mid 2r_1 B_{k+1}(X) \quad (\text{in } \mathbb{Q}[x]),$$

which is impossible in case of  $r_1 \neq 0$ , since  $X(X-1)(X-\frac{1}{2}) \mid B_{k+1}(X)$  and  $B_k(X)$  is irreducible. In the remaining case  $r_1 = 0$  we obtain

$$B_k(X)F(X) = B_{k+1}^2(X) + r_2$$

with an  $F(X) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ . Differentiation yields

$$B_k(X) \mid B_{k-1}(X) \cdot F(X),$$

that is,  $B_k(X) \mid F(X)$ . Then there is a quadratic polynomial  $M(X) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$  for which

$$M(X)B_k^2(X) = B_{k+1}^2(X) + r_2,$$

hence,

$$M'(X)B_k(X) = 2(k+1)B_{k+1}(X) - 2kM(X)B_{k-1}(X).$$

The right-hand side is divisible by  $X(X-1)(X-\frac{1}{2})$ ; however, the other one is not.

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