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On powers that are sums of consecutive like powers

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Abstract

Let $k \geq 2$ be even, and let r be a non-zero integer. We show that for almost all $d \geq 2$ (in the sense of natural density), the equation

$$x^k + (x+r)^k + \cdots + (x+(d-1)r)^k = y^n, \quad x, y, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 2,$$

has no solutions.

Keywords: Exponential equation, Bernoulli polynomial, Newton polygon

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1 Background

The problem of cubes that are sums of consecutive cubes goes back to Euler ([10] art. 249) who noted the remarkable relation $3^3 + 4^3 + 5^3 = 6^3$. Similar problems were considered by several mathematicians during the nineteenth and early twentieth century as surveyed in Dickson's *History of the Theory of Numbers* ([7] p. 582–588). These questions are still of interest today. For example, both Cassels [5] and Uchiyama [17] determined the squares that can be written as sums of three consecutive cubes. Stroeker [16] determined all squares that are expressible as the sum of $2 \leq d \leq 50$ consecutive cubes, using a method based on linear forms in elliptic logarithms. More recently, Bennett, Patel and Siksek [2] determined all perfect powers that are expressible as sums of $2 \leq d \leq 50$ consecutive cubes, using linear forms in logarithms, sieving and Frey curves. There has been some interest in powers that are sums of k -th powers for other exponents k . For example, the solutions to the equation

$$x^k + (x+1)^k + (x+2)^k = y^n, \quad x, y, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 2,$$

have been determined by Zhongfeng Zhang [18] for $k = 2, 3, 4$ and by Bennett, Patel and Siksek [1] for $k = 5, 6$, and similar problems are considered by Soydan [15].

In view of the above, it is natural to consider the equation

$$x^k + (x+1)^k + \cdots + (x+d-1)^k = y^n, \quad x, y, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 2 \tag{1}$$

with $k, d \geq 2$. This was studied by Zhang and Bai [19] for $k = 2$. They show that if q is a prime $\equiv \pm 5 \pmod{12}$ and $v_q(d) = 1$ then Eq. (1) has no solutions for $k = 2$; here $v_q(d)$ denotes the q -adic valuation of d . It follows from a standard result in analytic number

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theory (as we shall see later) that the set of d for which there is a solution with $k = 2$ has natural density 0. We prove the following generalization to all even exponents k .

Theorem 1 *Let $k \geq 2$ be even and let r be a non-zero integer. Write $\mathcal{A}_{k,r}$ for the set of integers $d \geq 2$ such that the equation*

$$x^k + (x+r)^k + \dots + (x+(d-1)r)^k = y^n, \quad x, y, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 2, \tag{2}$$

has a solution (x, y, n) . Then $\mathcal{A}_{k,r}$ has natural density 0; by this we mean

$$\lim_{X \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{d \in \mathcal{A}_{k,r} : d \leq X\}}{X} = 0.$$

If k is odd, then $\mathcal{A}_{k,r}$ contains all of the odd d : we can take $(x, y, n) = (r(1-d)/2, 0, n)$. Thus the conclusion of the theorem does not hold for odd k .

2 Some properties of Bernoulli numbers and polynomials

In this section we summarise some classical properties of Bernoulli numbers and polynomials. These are found in many references, including [8]. The Bernoulli numbers B_k are defined via the expansion

$$\frac{x}{e^x - 1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} B_k \frac{x^k}{k!}.$$

The first few Bernoulli numbers are

$$B_0 = 1, \quad B_1 = -1/2, \quad B_2 = 1/6, \quad B_3 = 0, \quad B_4 = -1/30, \quad B_5 = 0, \quad B_6 = 1/42.$$

It is easy to show that $B_{2k+1} = 0$ for all $k \geq 1$. The B_k are rational numbers, and the von Staudt–Clausen theorem asserts that for $k \geq 2$ even

$$B_k + \sum_{(p-1)|k} \frac{1}{p} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

where the sum ranges over primes p such that $(p-1) \mid k$.

The k -th Bernoulli polynomial can be defined by

$$B_k(x) = \sum_{m=0}^k \binom{k}{m} B_m x^{k-m}. \tag{3}$$

Thus it is a monic polynomial with rational coefficients, and all primes appearing in the denominators are bounded by $k + 1$. It satisfies the symmetry

$$B_k(1-x) = (-1)^k B_k(x), \tag{4}$$

the identity

$$B_k(x+1) - B_k(x) = kx^{k-1}, \tag{5}$$

and the recurrence

$$B'_k(x) = kB_{k-1}(x). \tag{6}$$

Whilst all the above results have been known since at least the nineteenth century, we also make use of the following far more recent and difficult theorem due to Brillhart [3] and Dilcher [9].

Theorem 2 (Brillhart and Dilcher) *The Bernoulli polynomials are squarefree.*

Relation to sums of consecutive like powers

Lemma 2.1 *Let r be a non-zero integer and $k, d \geq 1$. Then*

$$x^k + (x+r)^k + \dots + (x+r(d-1))^k = \frac{r^k}{k+1} \left(B_{k+1} \left(\frac{x}{r} + d \right) - B_{k+1} \left(\frac{x}{r} \right) \right).$$

This formula can be found in ([8] Section 24.4), but is easily deduced from the identity (5).

Lemma 2.2 *Let $q \geq k+3$ be a prime. Let a, r, d be integers with $d \geq 2$, and $r \neq 0$. Suppose $q \mid d$ and $q \nmid r$. Then*

$$a^k + (a+r)^k + \dots + (a+r(d-1))^k \equiv r^k \cdot d \cdot B_k(a/r) \pmod{q^2}.$$

Proof By Taylor’s Theorem

$$B_{k+1}(x+d) = B_{k+1}(x) + d \cdot B'_{k+1}(x) + \frac{d^2}{2} B^{(2)}_{k+1}(x) + \dots + \frac{d^{k+2}}{(k+2)!} \cdot B^{(k+2)}_{k+1}(x).$$

It follows from the assumption $q \geq k+3$ that the coefficients of $B_{k+1}(x)$ are q -adic integers. Thus the coefficients of the polynomials $B^{(i)}_{k+1}(x)/i!$ are also q -adic integers. As $q \mid d$ and $q \nmid r$ we have

$$B_{k+1} \left(\frac{a}{r} + d \right) - B_{k+1} \left(\frac{a}{r} \right) \equiv d \cdot B'_{k+1}(a/r) \pmod{q^2}.$$

The lemma follows from (6) and Lemma 2.1. □

Lemma 2.3 *Let k, r be integers with $k \geq 2$ and $r \neq 0$. Let $q \geq k+3$ be a prime not dividing r such that the congruence $B_k(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$ has no solutions. Let d be a positive integer such that $v_q(d) = 1$. Then Eq. (2) has no solutions (i.e. $d \notin \mathcal{A}_{k,r}$).*

Proof Suppose $(x, y, n) = (a, b, n)$ is a solution to (2). By Lemma 2.2,

$$r^k \cdot d \cdot B_k(a/r) \equiv b^n \pmod{q^2}.$$

However, the hypotheses of the lemma ensure that the left-hand side has q -adic valuation 1. Thus $v_q(b^n) = 1$ giving a contradiction. □

Remarks • For $k \geq 3$ odd, the k -th Bernoulli polynomial has known rational roots 0, 1/2, 1. Thus the criterion in the lemma fails to hold for all primes q . For even $k \geq 2$ we shall show that there is a positive density of primes q such that $B_k(x)$ has no roots modulo q .

- The second Bernoulli polynomial is $B_2(x) = x^2 - x + 1/6$. By quadratic reciprocity, this has a root modulo $q \nmid 6$ if and only if $q \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}$. We thus recover the result of Bai and Zhang mentioned in the introduction: if $q \equiv \pm 5 \pmod{12}$ and $v_q(d) = 1$ then (1) has no solutions with $k = 2$.

3 A Galois property of even Bernoulli polynomials

Proposition 3.1 *Let $k \geq 2$ be even, and let G_k be the Galois group of the Bernoulli polynomial $B_k(x)$. Then there is an element $\mu \in G_k$ that acts freely on the roots of $B_k(x)$.*

There is a long-standing conjecture that the even Bernoulli polynomials are irreducible; see for example [3,4,14]. One can easily deduce Proposition 3.1 from this conjecture. We

give an unconditional proof of Proposition 3.1 in Sect. 5. As noted previously, if k is odd, then $B_k(x)$ has rational roots $0, 1/2, 1$, so the conclusion of the proposition certainly fails for odd k .

A density result

Let \mathcal{A} be a set of positive integers. For X positive, define

$$\mathcal{A}(X) = \#\{d \in \mathcal{A} : d \leq X\}.$$

The *natural density* of \mathcal{A} is defined as the limit (if it exists)

$$\delta(\mathcal{A}) = \lim_{X \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathcal{A}(X)}{X}.$$

For a given prime q , define

$$\mathcal{A}^{(q)} = \{d \in \mathcal{A} : v_q(d) = 1\}.$$

We shall need the following result of Niven ([13] Corollary 1).

Theorem 3 (Niven) *Let $\{q_i\}$ be a set of primes such that $\delta(\mathcal{A}^{(q_i)}) = 0$ and $\sum q_i^{-1} = \infty$. Then $\delta(\mathcal{A}) = 0$.*

Proposition 3.1 implies Theorem 1

We now suppose Proposition 3.1 and use it to deduce Theorem 1. Let $k \geq 2$ be an even integer. Write G_k for the Galois group of the Bernoulli polynomial $B_k(x)$. Let $\mu \in G_k$ be the element acting freely on the roots of $B_k(x)$ whose existence is asserted by Proposition 3.1. By the Chebotarev density theorem ([6] Chapter VIII) there is a set of primes $\{q_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ having positive Dirichlet density such that for each $q = q_i$, the Frobenius element $\text{Frob}_q \in G_k$ is conjugate to μ . We omit from $\{q_i\}$ (without affecting the density) the following:

- primes $q \leq k + 2$;
- primes q dividing r ;
- primes q dividing the numerator of the discriminant of $B_k(x)$ (which is non-zero by Theorem 2).

As μ acts freely on the roots of $B_k(x)$, it follows that the polynomial $B_k(x)$ has no roots modulo any of the q_i . Now let $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_{k,r}$ be as in the statement of Theorem 1. By Lemma 2.3, if $v_{q_i}(d) = 1$ then $d \notin \mathcal{A}$. It follows that $\mathcal{A}^{(q_i)} = \emptyset$. By Theorem 3, we have $\delta(\mathcal{A}) = 0$ as required.

4 The 2-adic Newton polygons of even Bernoulli polynomials

Lemma 4.1 *Let $k \geq 2$ be even and write $k = 2^s t$ where t is odd and $s \geq 1$. The 2-adic Newton polygon of $B_k(x)$ consists two segments:*

- (i) *a horizontal segment joining the points $(0, -1)$ and $(k - 2^s, -1)$;*
- (ii) *a segment joining the points $(k - 2^s, -1)$ and $(k, 0)$ of slope $1/2^s$.*

Proof Consider the definition of $B_k(x)$ in (3). We know that $B_0 = 1, B_1 = -1/2$ and $B_m = 0$ for all odd $m \geq 3$. From the von Staudt–Clausen theorem, we know that $v_2(B_m) = -1$ for even $m \geq 2$. It follows that the Newton polygon is bounded below by the Horizontal line $y = -1$.

We shall need to make use of the following result of Kummer (see [11]): if p is a prime, and u, v are positive integers then

$$\binom{u}{v} \equiv \binom{u_0}{v_0} \binom{u_1}{v_1} \pmod{p},$$

where u_0, u_1 are respectively the remainder and quotient on dividing u by p , and likewise v_0, v_1 are respectively the remainder and quotient on dividing v by p . Here we adopt the convention $\binom{r}{s} = 0$ if $r < s$. Applying this with $p = 2$ we see that

$$\binom{k}{2^s} = \binom{2^s t}{2^s} \equiv \binom{t}{1} \equiv t \equiv 1 \pmod{2}.$$

Thus the coefficient of x^{k-2^s} in $B_k(x)$ has 2-adic valuation -1 . Since the constant coefficient of $B_k(x)$ also has valuation -1 , we obtain the segment (i) as part of the Newton polygon. We also see that for $0 < v < 2^s$,

$$\binom{k}{v} \equiv 0 \pmod{2},$$

and so the valuation of the coefficient of x^{k-v} is ≥ 0 . Finally the coefficient of x^k is $B_0 = 1$ and so has valuation 0. This gives segment (ii) and completes the proof. \square

Remarks Inkeri [12] showed that $B_k(x)$ has no rational roots for k even. His proof required very precise (and difficult) estimates for the real roots of $B_k(x)$. Lemma 4.1 allows us to give a much simpler proof of the following stronger result.

Theorem 4 *Let k be even. Then $B_k(x)$ has no roots in \mathbb{Q}_2 .*

Proof Indeed, suppose $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}_2$ is a root of $B_k(x)$. From the slopes of the Newton polygon segments we see that $v_2(\alpha) = 0$ or $-1/2^s$. As v_2 takes only integer values on \mathbb{Q}_2 , we see that $v_2(\alpha) = 0$ and so $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_2$. Let $f(x) = 2B_k(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$. Thus $f(\alpha) = 0$ and so $f(\bar{\alpha}) = \bar{0} \in \mathbb{F}_2$. However, $\bar{\alpha} \in \mathbb{F}_2 = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}\}$. Now $f(\bar{0}) = \overline{2B_k} = \bar{1}$, and from (4) we know that $f(\bar{1}) = f(\bar{0}) = \bar{1}$. This gives a contradiction. \square

Although Theorem 4 is not needed by us, its proof helps motivate part of the proof of Proposition 3.1.

5 Completing the proof of Theorem 1

A little group theory

Lemma 5.1 *Let H be a finite group acting transitively on a finite set $\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n\}$. Let $H_i \subseteq H$ be the stabilizer of β_i , and suppose $H_1 = H_2$. Let $\pi : H \rightarrow C$ be a surjective homomorphism from H onto a cyclic group C . Then there is some $\mu \in H$ acting freely on $\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n\}$ such that $\pi(\mu)$ is a generator of C .*

Proof Let $m = \#C$ and write $C = \langle \sigma \rangle$. Consider the subset

$$C' = \{\sigma^r : \gcd(r, m) = 1\};$$

this is the set of elements that are cyclic generators of C , and has cardinality $\varphi(m)$, where φ is the Euler totient function. As π is surjective we see that

$$\#\pi^{-1}(C') = \frac{\varphi(m)}{m} \cdot \#H. \tag{7}$$

As H acts transitively on the β_i , the stabilizers H_i are conjugate and so have the same image $\pi(H_i)$ in C . If this image is a proper subgroup of C , then take μ to be any preimage of σ . Thus $\pi(\mu) = \sigma$ is a generator of C , and moreover, μ does not belong to any of the stabilizers H_i and so acts freely on $\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n\}$, completing the proof in this case. Thus we suppose that $\pi(H_i) = C$ for all i . It follows that

$$\#\pi^{-1}(C') \cap H_i = \frac{\varphi(m)}{m} \cdot \#H_i = \frac{\varphi(m)}{m} \cdot \frac{\#H}{n}, \tag{8}$$

where the second equality follows from the Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem. The lemma states that there is some element μ belonging to $\pi^{-1}(C')$ but not to $\cup H_i$. Suppose otherwise. Then

$$\pi^{-1}(C') \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n H_i,$$

and therefore

$$\pi^{-1}(C') = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \pi^{-1}(C') \cap H_i. \tag{9}$$

Now (7), (8) and (9) together imply that the $\pi^{-1}(C') \cap H_i$ are pairwise disjoint. This contradicts the hypothesis that $H_1 = H_2$ completing the proof. \square

Proof of Proposition 3.1 We now complete the proof of Theorem 1 by proving Proposition 3.1. Fix an even $k \geq 2$, and let L be the splitting field of $B_k(x)$. Let $G_k = \text{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q}) = \text{Gal}(B_k(x))$ be the Galois group of $B_k(x)$. Let \mathfrak{P} be a prime of L above 2. The 2-adic valuation v_2 on \mathbb{Q}_2 has a unique extension to $L_{\mathfrak{P}}$ which we continue to denote by v_2 . We let $H = \text{Gal}(L_{\mathfrak{P}}/\mathbb{Q}_2) \subseteq G_k$ be the decomposition subgroup corresponding to \mathfrak{P} .

From Lemma 4.1 we see that $B_k(x)$ factors as $B_k(x) = g(x)h(x)$ over \mathbb{Q}_2 where the factors g, h correspond respectively to the segments (i), (ii) in the lemma. Thus g, h have degree $k - 2^s$ and 2^s respectively. We denote the roots of g by $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{k-2^s}\} \subset L_{\mathfrak{P}}$ and the roots of h by $\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{2^s}\} \subset L_{\mathfrak{P}}$. From the slopes of the segments we see that $v_2(\alpha_i) = 0$ and $v_2(\beta_j) = -1/2^s$. It clearly follows that h is irreducible and therefore that H acts transitively on the β_j . Moreover, from the symmetry (4) we see that $1 - \beta_1$ is a root of $B_k(x)$, and by appropriate relabelling we can suppose that $\beta_2 = 1 - \beta_1$. In the notation of Lemma 5.1, we have $H_1 = H_2$. Now let $C = \text{Gal}(\mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{P}}/\mathbb{F}_2)$, where $\mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{P}}$ is the residue field of \mathfrak{P} . This group is cyclic generated by the Frobenius map: $\bar{\gamma} \mapsto \bar{\gamma}^2$. We let $\pi : H \rightarrow C$ be the induced surjection. By Lemma 5.1 there is some $\mu \in H$ that acts freely on the β_i and such that $\pi(\mu)$ generates C . To complete the proof of Proposition 3.1 it is enough to show that μ also acts freely on the α_i . Suppose otherwise, and let α be one of the α_i that is fixed by μ . As $v_2(\alpha) = 0$, we can write $\bar{\alpha} \in \mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{P}}$ for the reduction of α modulo \mathfrak{P} . Now α is fixed by μ , and so $\bar{\alpha} \in \mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{P}}$ is fixed by $\langle \pi(\mu) \rangle = C$. Thus $\bar{\alpha} \in \mathbb{F}_2$ and so $\bar{\alpha} = \bar{0}$ or $\bar{1}$. Now let $f(x) = 2B_k(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$. Thus $f(\bar{\alpha}) = \bar{0}$. But $f(\bar{0}) = \overline{(2B_k)} = \bar{1}$, and from (4) we know that $f(\bar{1}) = f(\bar{0}) = \bar{1}$. This contradiction completes the proof.

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