# ON EQUAL VALUES OF POWER SUMS OF ARITHMETIC PROGRESSIONS 

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Abstract. In this paper, we consider the Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b^{k}+(a+b)^{k}+\cdots+(a(x-1)+b)^{k}= \\
& =d^{l}+(c+d)^{l}+\cdots+(c(y-1)+d)^{l},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $a, b, c, d, k, l$ are given integers with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=\operatorname{gcd}(c, d)=1, k \neq l$.
We prove that, under some reasonable assumptions, the above equation has only finitely many solutions.

## 1. Introduction and results

For a positive integer $n \geq 2$, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{a, b}^{k}(n)=b^{k}+(a+b)^{k}+\cdots+(a(n-1)+b)^{k} \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to see that the above power sum is related to the Bernoulli polynomials $B_{k}(x)$ in the following way:

$$
\begin{align*}
S_{a, b}^{k}(n)= & \frac{a^{k}}{k+1}\left(\left[B_{k+1}\left(n+\frac{b}{a}\right)-B_{k+1}\right]\right.  \tag{1.2}\\
& \left.-\left[B_{k+1}\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)-B_{k+1}\right]\right),
\end{align*}
$$

where the polynomials $B_{k}(x)$ is defined by the generating series

$$
\frac{t \exp (t x)}{\exp (t)-1}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} B_{k}(x) \frac{t^{k}}{k!}
$$

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and $B_{k+1}=B_{k+1}(0)$. For the properties of Bernoulli polynomials which will be often used in this paper, sometimes without special reference, we refer to [7, Chapters 1 and 2]. We can extend $S_{a, b}^{k}$ for every real value $x$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{a, b}^{k}(x)=\frac{a^{k}}{k+1}\left(B_{k+1}\left(x+\frac{b}{a}\right)-B_{k+1}\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)\right) . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We denote by $\mathbb{C}[x]$ the ring of polynomials in the variable $x$ with complex coefficients. A decomposition of a polynomial $F(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ is an equality of the following form

$$
F(x)=G_{1}\left(G_{2}(x)\right) \quad\left(G_{1}(x), G_{2}(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]\right),
$$

which is nontrivial if

$$
\operatorname{deg} G_{1}(x)>1 \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{deg} G_{2}(x)>1
$$

Two decompositions $F(x)=G_{1}\left(G_{2}(x)\right)$ and $F(x)=H_{1}\left(H_{2}(x)\right)$ are said to be equivalent if there exists a linear polynomial $\ell(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ such that $G_{1}(x)=H_{1}(\ell(x))$ and $H_{2}(x)=\ell\left(G_{2}(x)\right)$. The polynomial $F(x)$ is called decomposable if it has at least one nontrivial decomposition; otherwise it is said to be indecomposable.

In a recent paper, Bazsó, Pintér and Srivastava ([1]) proved the following theorem about the decomposition of the polynomial $S_{a, b}^{k}(x)$ defined above.

THEOREM 1.1. The polynomial $S_{a, b}^{k}(x)$ is indecomposable for even $k$. If $k=2 v-1$ is odd, then any nontrivial decomposition of $S_{a, b}^{k}(x)$ is equivalent to the following decomposition:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{a, b}^{k}(x)=\widehat{S}_{v}\left(\left(x+\frac{b}{a}-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}\right) \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. This is [1, Theorem 2].
Using Theorem 1.1 and the general finiteness criterion of Bilu and Tichy ([2]) for Diophantine equations of the form $f(x)=g(y)$, we prove the following result.

Theorem 1.2. For $2 \leq k<l$, the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{a, b}^{k}(x)=S_{c, d}^{l}(y) \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

has only finitely many solutions in integers $x$ and $y$.
Since the finiteness criterion from [2] is based on the ineffective theorem of Siegel, our Theorem 1.2 is ineffective. We note that for $a=c=1, b=d=0$ our theorem gives the result of Bilu, Brindza, Kirschenhofer, Pintér and Tichy ([3]).

Combining a result of Brindza [5] with recent theorems by Rakaczki ([8]) and Pintér and Rakaczki ([6]), for $k=1$ and 3 we obtain effective statements.

Theorem 1.3. For $k=1$ and $l \notin\{1,3,5\}$, the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{a, b}^{1}(x)=S_{c, d}^{l}(y) \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

implies $\max (|x|,|y|)<C_{1}$, where $C_{1}$ is an effectively computable constant depending only on $a, b, c, d$ and $l$.

In the exceptional cases $l=3,5$ one can give some values for $a, b, c, d$ such that the corresponding equations possess infinitely many solutions. For example, if $k=1, a=2, b=1, l=3$ or $l=5, c=1, d=0$ we have

$$
x^{2}=1+3+\cdots+2 x-1=1^{3}+2^{3}+\cdots+(y-1)^{3}
$$

or

$$
x^{2}=1+3+\cdots+2 x-1=1^{5}+2^{5}+\cdots+(y-1)^{5},
$$

respectively. These equations have infinitely many integer solutions, see [9].
Theorem 1.4. For $k=3$ and $l \notin\{1,3,5\}$, the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{a, b}^{3}(x)=S_{c, d}^{l}(y) \tag{1.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

implies $\max (|x|,|y|)<C_{2}$, where $C_{2}$ is an effectively computable constant depending only on $a, b, c, d$ and $l$.

## 2. Auxiliary results

In this section, we collect some results needed to prove Theorem 1.2. First, we recall the finiteness criterion of Bilu and Tichy ([2]). To do this, we need to define five kinds of so-called standard pairs of polynomials.

Let $\alpha, \beta$ be nonzero rational numbers, $\mu, \nu, q>0$ and $\rho \geq 0$ be integers, and let $\nu(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be a nonzero polynomial (which may be constant).

A standard pair of the first kind is $\left(x^{q}, \alpha x^{\rho} \nu(x)^{q}\right)$ or switched, $\left(\alpha x^{\rho} \nu(x)^{q}\right.$, $x^{q}$ ), where $0 \leq \rho<q, \operatorname{gcd}(\rho, q)=1$ and $\rho+\operatorname{deg} \nu(x)>0$.

A standard pair of the second kind is $\left(x^{2},\left(\alpha x^{2}+\beta\right) \nu(x)^{2}\right)$ or switched.
Denote by $D_{\mu}(x, \delta)$ the $\mu$-th Dickson polynomial, defined by the functional equation

$$
D_{\mu}(z+\delta / z, \delta)=z^{\mu}+(\delta / z)^{\mu}
$$

or by the explicit formula

$$
D_{\mu}(x, \delta)=\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor\mu / 2\rfloor} d_{\mu, i} x^{\mu-2 i} \quad \text { with } \quad d_{\mu, i}=\frac{\mu}{\mu-i}\binom{\mu-i}{i}(-\delta)^{i} .
$$

A standard pair of the third kind is $\left(D_{\mu}\left(x, \alpha^{\nu}\right), D_{\nu}\left(x, \alpha^{\mu}\right)\right)$, where $\operatorname{gcd}(\mu, \nu)=1$.

A standard pair of the fourth kind is

$$
\left(\alpha^{-\mu / 2} D_{\mu}(x, \alpha),-\beta^{-\nu / 2} D_{\nu}(x, \beta)\right),
$$

where $\operatorname{gcd}(\mu, \nu)=2$.
A standard pair of the fifth kind is $\left(\left(\alpha x^{2}-1\right)^{3}, 3 x^{4}-4 x^{3}\right)$ or switched.

The following theorem is the main result of [2].
Theorem 2.1. Let $R(x), S(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be nonconstant polynomials such that the equation $R(x)=S(y)$ has infinitely many solutions in rational integers $x, y$. Then $R=\varphi \circ f \circ \kappa$ and $S=\varphi \circ g \circ \lambda$, where $\kappa(x), \lambda(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ are linear polynomials, $\varphi(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, and $(f(x), g(x))$ is a standard pair.

The following lemmas are the main ingredients for the proofs of Theorems 1.3 and 1.4.

Lemma 2.2. For every $b \in \mathbb{Q}$ and rational integer $k \geq 3$ with $k \notin\{4,6\}$ the polynomial $B_{k}(x)+b$ has at least three zeros of odd muliplicities.

Proof. For $b=0$ and odd values of $k \geq 3$ this result is a consequence of a theorem by Brillhart ([4, Corollary of Theorem 6]). For non-zero rational $b$ and odd $k$ with $k \geq 3$ and for even values of $k \geq 8$ our lemma follows from [ 6 , Theorem] and [8, Theorem 2. 3], respectively.

Our next auxiliary result is an easy consequence of an effective theorem concerning the $S$-integer solutions of so-called hyperelliptic equations.

Lemma 2.3. Let $f(x)$ be a polynomial with rational coefficients and with at least three zeros of odd multiplicities. Further, let $u$ be a fixed positive integer. If $x$ and $y$ are integer solutions of the equation

$$
f\left(\frac{x}{u}\right)=y^{2},
$$

then we have $\max (|x|,|y|)<C_{3}$, where $C_{3}$ is an effectively computable constant depending only on $u$ and the parameters of $f$.

Proof. This is a special case of the main result of [5].
Let $c_{1}, e_{1} \in \mathbb{Q}^{*}$ and $c_{0}, e_{0} \in \mathbb{Q}$.
Lemma 2.4. The polynomial $S_{a, b}^{k}\left(c_{1} x+c_{0}\right)$ is not of the form $e_{1} x^{q}+e_{0}$ with $q \geq 3$.

Lemma 2.5. The polynomial $S_{a, b}^{k}\left(c_{1} x+c_{0}\right)$ is not of the form

$$
e_{1} D_{\nu}(x, \delta)+e_{0}
$$

where $D_{\nu}(x, \delta)$ is the $\nu$-th Dickson polynomial with $\nu>4, \delta \in \mathbb{Q}^{*}$.
Before proving the above lemmas, we introduce the following notation. Put

$$
S_{a, b}^{k}\left(c_{1} x+c_{0}\right)=s_{k+1} x^{k+1}+s_{k} x^{k}+\cdots+s_{0}
$$

and

$$
c_{0}^{\prime}=\frac{b}{a}+c_{0}
$$

We have

$$
\begin{align*}
s_{k+1} & =\frac{a^{k} c_{1}^{k+1}}{k+1}  \tag{2.8}\\
s_{k} & =\frac{a^{k} c_{1}^{k}}{2}\left(2 c_{0}^{\prime}-1\right),  \tag{2.9}\\
s_{k-1} & =\frac{a^{k} c_{1}^{k-1}}{12} k\left(6 c_{0}^{\prime 2}-6 c_{0}^{\prime}+1\right), k \geq 2, \tag{2.10}
\end{align*}
$$

and for $k \geq 4$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
s_{k-3}=\frac{a^{k} c_{1}^{k-3}}{720} k(k-1)(k-2)\left(30 c_{0}^{\prime 4}-60 c_{0}^{\prime 3}+30 c_{0}^{\prime 2}-1\right) . \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof of Lemma 2.4. Suppose that $S_{a, b}^{k}\left(c_{1} x+c_{0}\right)=e_{1} x^{q}+e_{0}$, where we have $q=k+1 \geq 3$. It follows that $s_{k-1}=0$, so $6 c_{0}^{\prime 2}-6 c_{0}^{\prime}+1=0$. Hence, $c_{0}^{\prime} \notin \mathbb{Q}$, which is a contradiction.

Proof of Lemma 2.5. Suppose that $S_{a, b}^{k}\left(c_{1} x+c_{0}\right)=e_{1} D_{\nu}(x, \delta)+e_{0}$ with $\nu>4$. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
s_{k+1} & =e_{1},  \tag{2.12}\\
s_{k} & =0  \tag{2.13}\\
s_{k-1} & =-e_{1} \nu \delta,  \tag{2.14}\\
s_{k-3} & =\frac{e_{1}(\nu-3) \nu \delta^{2}}{2} . \tag{2.15}
\end{align*}
$$

From (2.8), (2.12) and (2.9), (2.13), respectively, it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{1}=\frac{a^{\nu-1} c_{1}^{\nu}}{\nu} \text { and } c_{0}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2} . \tag{2.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

In view of (2.10), substituting (2.16) together with $k=\nu-1$ into (2.14), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\frac{a^{\nu-1} c_{1}^{\nu-2}(\nu-1)}{24}=-\frac{a^{\nu-1} c_{1}^{\nu} \nu \delta}{\nu}, \tag{2.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

which implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{1}^{2}=\frac{\nu-1}{24 \delta} . \tag{2.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, comparing the forms (2.11) and (2.15) of $s_{k-3}$ with the substitutions $k=\nu-1$ and (2.16), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{7 a^{\nu-1} c_{1}^{\nu-4}(\nu-1)(\nu-2)(\nu-3)}{5760}=\frac{a^{\nu-1} c_{1}^{\nu}(\nu-3) \nu \delta^{2}}{2 \nu} \tag{2.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

which implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{1}^{4}=\frac{7(\nu-1)(\nu-2)}{2880 \delta^{2}} . \tag{2.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

After substituting (2.18) into (2.20), we obtain $7(\nu-2)=5(\nu-1)$, which implies $\nu=9 / 2$, a contradiction.

One can see that the condition $\nu>4$ is necessary. Indeed,

$$
S_{2,1}^{2}(x)=\frac{4}{3} x^{3}-\frac{1}{3} x=\frac{4}{3} D_{3}\left(x, \frac{1}{12}\right)
$$

and

$$
S_{2,1}^{3}(x)=2 x^{4}-x^{2}=2 D_{4}\left(x, \frac{1}{8}\right)-\frac{1}{16} .
$$

## 3. Proofs of the Theorems

Proof of Theorem 1.3. Using (3), one can rewrite equation (6) as

$$
\frac{c^{l}}{l+1}\left(B_{l+1}\left(y+\frac{d}{c}\right)-B_{l+1}\left(\frac{d}{c}\right)\right)=\frac{1}{2} a x^{2}+\left(b-\frac{a}{2}\right) x
$$

or

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{8 a c^{l}}{l+1}\left(B_{l+1}\left(y+\frac{d}{c}\right)-B_{l+1}\left(\frac{d}{c}\right)\right) & =4 a^{2} x^{2}+8 a\left(b-\frac{a}{2}\right) x \\
& =(2 a x+2 b-a)^{2}-(2 b-a)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then our result is a simple consequence of Lemmas 2.2 and 2.3.
Proof of Theorem 1.3. Following Theorem 1.1, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{a, b}^{3}(x)= & \frac{a^{3}}{4}\left(x+\frac{b}{a}-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{4}-\frac{a^{3}}{8}\left(x+\frac{b}{a}-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2} \\
& +\frac{a^{4}-16 a^{2} b^{2}+32 a b^{3}-16 b^{4}}{64 a}
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the above representation, we rewrite equation (7) as
$64 a S_{c, d}^{l}(y)=(2 a x+2 b-a)^{4}-4 a^{2}(2 a x+2 b-a)^{2}+a^{4}-16 a^{2} b^{2}+32 a b^{3}-16 b^{4}$
or

$$
64 a S_{c, d}^{l}(y)+3 a^{4}+16 a^{2} b^{2}-32 a b^{3}-16 b^{4}=\left(X-2 a^{2}\right)^{2},
$$

where $X=(2 a x+2 b-a)^{2}$. As in the previous case, Lemmas 2.2 and 2.3 complete the proof.

Proof of Theorem 1.2. If the equation (5) has infinitely many integer solutions, then by Theorem 2.1 it follows that $S_{a, b}^{k}\left(a_{1} x+a_{0}\right)=\varphi(f(x))$ and $S_{c, d}^{l}\left(b_{1} x+b_{0}\right)=\varphi(g(x))$, where $(f, g)$ is a standard pair over $\mathbb{Q}, a_{0}, a_{1}, b_{0}, b_{1}$ are rationals with $a_{1} b_{1} \neq 0$ and $\varphi(x)$ is a polynomial with rational coefficients.

Assume that $h=\operatorname{deg} \varphi>1$. Then Theorem 1.1 implies

$$
0<\operatorname{deg} f, \operatorname{deg} g \leq 2
$$

and since $k<l$, we have $\operatorname{deg} f=1, \operatorname{deg} g=2$. In particular, $k+1=h$ and $l+1=2 h$, so $l=2 k+1$. Therefore, if $l \neq k+1$, we then must have $h=\operatorname{deg} \varphi=1$ and $l=2 k+1$.

Condition $k \neq 1$ implies $k \geq 2$ and since $l=2 k+1$, it follows that $l \geq 5$. Since $\operatorname{deg} f=1$, there exist $f_{1}, \overline{f_{0}} \in \mathbb{Q}, f_{1} \neq 0$, such that $S_{a, b}^{k}\left(f_{1} x+f_{0}\right)=\varphi(x)$, so

$$
S_{a, b}^{k}\left(f_{1} g(x)+f_{0}\right)=\varphi(g(x))=S_{c, d}^{l}\left(b_{1} x+b_{0}\right)
$$

As $g(x)$ is quadratic, by making the substitution $x \mapsto\left(x-b_{0}\right) / b_{1}$, we obtain that there are $c_{2}, c_{1}, c_{0} \in \mathbb{Q}, c_{2} \neq 0$, such that

$$
S_{a, b}^{k}\left(c_{2} x^{2}+c_{1} x+c_{0}\right)=S_{c, d}^{l}(x)
$$

Since deg $S_{a, b}^{k}(x)=k+1 \geq 2$ and $c_{2} \neq 0$, we have a decomposition of $S_{c, d}^{l}(x)$ which is equivalent to $S\left((x+b / a-1 / 2)^{2}\right)$ for some $S \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with $\operatorname{deg} S=k+1$, according to Theorem 1.1. Therefore, there exists a linear polynomial $l(x)$ in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ such that

$$
c_{2} x^{2}+c_{1} x+c_{0}=l\left((x+b / a-1 / 2)^{2}\right)
$$

and $S(x)=S_{a, b}^{k}(l(x))$. Hence, there are $A, B \in \mathbb{C}, A \neq 0$, such that

$$
c_{2} x^{2}+c_{1} x+c_{0}=A(x+b / a-1 / 2)^{2}+B
$$

Clearly, this implies that $A, B \in \mathbb{Q}$ and

$$
S_{a, b}^{k}\left(A(x+b / a-1 / 2)^{2}+B\right)=S_{c, d}^{2 k+1}(x)
$$

By the linear substitution $x \mapsto x-b / a+1 / 2$, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{a, b}^{k}\left(A x^{2}+B\right)=S_{c, d}^{2 k+1}(x-b / a+1 / 2) \tag{3.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, we have an equality of polynomials of degree $2 k+2 \geq 6$. We calculate and compare coefficients of the first few highest monomials participating in the above polynomials. The coefficients of the polynomial in the right-hand side above are easily deduced by setting $c_{1}=1, c_{0}=-b / a+1 / 2$ in (2.8), (2.9), (2.10) and (2.11). Therefore, if we denote

$$
S_{c, d}^{2 k+1}(x-b / a+1 / 2)=r_{2 k+2} x^{2 k+2}+\cdots+r_{1} x+r_{0},
$$

and

$$
c_{0}^{\prime}=\frac{d}{c}-\frac{b}{a}+\frac{1}{2}
$$

then the coefficients are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
r_{2 k+2} & =\frac{c^{2 k+1}}{2 k+2} \\
r_{2 k+1} & =\frac{c^{2 k+1}}{2}\left(2 c_{0}^{\prime}-1\right), \\
r_{2 k} & =\frac{c^{2 k+1}(2 k+1)}{12}\left(6 c_{0}^{\prime 2}-6 c_{0}^{\prime}+1\right), \\
r_{2 k-2} & =\frac{c^{2 k+1}(2 k+1) 2 k(2 k-1)}{720}\left(30 c_{0}^{\prime 4}-60 c_{0}^{\prime 3}+30 c_{0}^{\prime 2}-1\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

On the other hand, the coefficients $s_{k+1}, s_{k}, \ldots s_{0}$ for the polynomial $S_{a, b}^{k}(x)$ can be found by setting $c_{1}=1, c_{0}=0$ in (2.8), (2.9), (2.10) and (2.11). Since

$$
S_{a, b}^{k}\left(A x^{2}+B\right)=\sum_{m=0}^{k+1} s_{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m}\binom{m}{i}\left(A x^{2}\right)^{i} B^{m-i}
$$

it follows that if we put

$$
S_{a, b}^{k}\left(A x^{2}+B\right)=t_{2 k+2} x^{2 k+2}+\cdots+t_{1} x+t_{0}
$$

then

$$
\begin{aligned}
t_{2 k+2}= & \frac{a^{k} A^{k+1}}{k+1} \\
t_{2 k+1}= & 0 \\
t_{2 k}= & a^{k} A^{k} B+\frac{a^{k} A^{k}}{2}\left(2\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)-1\right) \\
t_{2 k-1}= & 0 \\
t_{2 k-2}= & \frac{a^{k} k}{2} A^{k-1} B^{2}+\frac{a^{k} k}{2} A^{k-1} B\left(2\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)-1\right) \\
& +\frac{a^{k} k}{12} A^{k-1}\left(6\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{2}-6\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)+1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we compare the coefficients. Comparing the leading coefficients yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{a^{k} A^{k+1}}{k+1}=\frac{c^{2 k+1}}{2 k+2}, \quad \text { so } \quad 2 a^{k} A^{k+1}=c^{2 k+1} \tag{3.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\frac{2 c}{a}=\frac{c^{2 k+2}}{a^{k+1} A^{k+1}} .
$$

Therefore,

$$
\sqrt[k+1]{\frac{2 c}{a}} \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

If $a$ and $c$ do not fulfill the above condition, we are through, otherwise we proceed. Comparing the coefficients of index $2 k+1$, we get

$$
\frac{c^{2 k+1}}{2}\left(2 c_{0}^{\prime}-1\right)=0,
$$

so $c_{0}^{\prime}=1 / 2$, which implies

$$
\frac{d}{c}=\frac{b}{a} .
$$

If the coefficients $a, b, c$ and $d$ do not satisfy the last property above, then we eliminate the possibility $\operatorname{deg} \varphi>1$. Therefore, we proceed with the case where $a, b, c$ and $d$ do satisfy this property. Comparing the next coefficients and using (3.22), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{b}{a}-\frac{1}{2}=-\frac{1}{12} A(2 k+1)-B \tag{3.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Comparing the coefficients of index $2 k-2$ and using $c_{0}^{\prime}=1 / 2$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{a^{k} k}{2} A^{k-1} B^{2} & +\frac{a^{k} k}{2} A^{k-1} B\left(2\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)-1\right) \\
& +\frac{a^{k} k}{12} A^{k-1}\left(6\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{2}-6\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)+1\right) \\
& =\frac{7}{8} \cdot \frac{c^{2 k+1}(2 k+1) 2 k(2 k-1)}{720} .
\end{aligned}
$$

By using also (3.22) and simplifying, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{B^{2}}{2}+\frac{B}{2}\left(2\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)-1\right)+ & \frac{1}{12}\left(6\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{2}-6\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)+1\right) \\
& =\frac{7\left(4 k^{2}-1\right) A^{2}}{1440}
\end{aligned}
$$

By using also (3.23), the last relation above can be transformed into

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{B^{2}}{2}+B\left(-\frac{1}{12} A(2 k+1)-B\right) & +\frac{1}{2}\left(-\frac{1}{12} A(2 k+1)-B\right)^{2}-\frac{1}{24} \\
& =\frac{7 A^{2}\left(4 k^{2}-1\right)}{1440}
\end{aligned}
$$

After simplification, we obtain

$$
A^{2}(k-3)(-2 k-1)=15 .
$$

For $k \geq 3$, the expression in the left-hand side above is negative or zero, which is a contradiction. If $k=2$, then $A^{2}=3$, which contradicts the fact that $A \in \mathbb{Q}$. Therefore there are no rational coefficients $a, b, c, d, A$ and $B$ such that (3.21) is fulfilled, which implies that $\operatorname{deg} \varphi=1$.

Now, we have
$S_{a, b}^{k}\left(a_{1} x+a_{0}\right)=e_{1} f(x)+e_{0} \quad$ and $\quad S_{c, d}^{l}\left(b_{1} x+b_{0}\right)=e_{1} g(x)+e_{0}$,
where $0 \neq e_{1}, e_{0} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Further, we have $\operatorname{deg} f=k+1$ and $\operatorname{deg} g=l+1$.
In view of the assumptions on $k$ and $l$, it follows that the standard pair $(f, g)$ cannot be of the second kind, and with the exception of the case $(k, l)=$ $(3,5)$, of the fifth kind either.

If it is of the first kind, then one of the polynomials $S_{a, b}^{k}\left(a_{1} x+a_{0}\right)$ and $S_{c, d}^{l}\left(b_{1} x+b_{0}\right)$ is of the form $e_{1} x^{q}+e_{0}$ with $q \geq 3$. This is impossible by Lemma 2.4.

If $(f, g)$ is a standard pair of the third or fourth kind, we then have $S_{c, d}^{l}\left(b_{1} x+b_{0}\right)=e_{1} D_{\nu}(x, \delta)+e_{0}$ with $\nu=l+1 \geq 5$ and $\delta \in \mathbb{Q}^{*}$, which contradicts Lemma 2.5 or $k=2, l=3$. In this case Theorem 1.4 gives an effective finiteness result.

Now returning to the special case $(k, l)=(3,5)$, by using formula (2.10) for $k=3$ it is easy to see that $S_{a, b}^{3}\left(c_{1} c+c_{0}\right)=e_{1}\left(3 x^{4}-4 x^{3}\right)+e_{0}$ is impossible, see the proof of Lemma 2.4.

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