

A THEOREM ON POWER SUMS

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Allison [1, p. 272] showed that the identity

$$(1) \quad \left\{ \sum_{x=1}^n x^r \right\}^p = \left\{ \sum_{x=1}^n x^s \right\}^q \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots)$$

holds if and only if $r = 1$, $p = 2$, $s = 3$, and $q = 1$. In this paper we consider the more general problem of finding polynomials

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^r a_i x^i \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^s b_i x^i$$

over the real field which satisfy

$$(2) \quad \{f(1) + \dots + f(n)\}^p = \{g(1) + \dots + g(n)\}^q \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots),$$

where r , p , s and q are positive integers.

First we note that

$$\sum_{x=1}^n f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^r a_i S_i,$$

where

$$S_k = \sum_{x=1}^n x^k, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Thus the left member of (2) becomes

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$$\left\{ a_r \frac{n^{r+1}}{r+1} + \dots \right\}^p,$$

since S_r is a polynomial in n having degree $r+1$ and leading coefficient

$$\frac{1}{r+1}.$$

Similarly the right member of (2) becomes

$$\left\{ b_s \frac{n^{s+1}}{s+1} + \dots \right\}^q,$$

so (2) can be written

$$(3) \quad \left\{ a_r \frac{n^{r+1}}{r+1} + \dots \right\}^p = \left\{ b_s \frac{n^{s+1}}{s+1} + \dots \right\}^q.$$

For (3) to hold we must have

$$(4) \quad (r+1)p = (s+1)q$$

and

$$(5) \quad \left(\frac{a_r}{r+1} \right)^p = \left(\frac{b_s}{s+1} \right)^q.$$

Case 1. Suppose $p = q$. From (2) we find $f(n) = g(n)$, $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, so $f(x) = g(x)$.

Case 2. Suppose $p \neq q$. We may assume without loss of generality that $p > q$ and $(p, q) = 1$. We will also assume that $a_r = b_s = 1$. Following Allison [op. cit.] we see that for (3) to hold we must have $r = 1$, $p = 2$, $s = 3$, and $q = 1$. Specifically,

$$(6) \quad (S_1 + a_0 S_0)^2 = S_3 + b_2 S_2 + b_1 S_1 + b_0 S_0 .$$

Using well-known formulas for S_k , $k = 0, 1, 2, 3$, we write (6) as

$$(7) \quad \left\{ \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + a_0 n \right\}^2 = \left\{ \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \right\}^2 + b_2 \left\{ \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \right\} + b_1 \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + b_0 n .$$

Rewriting (7) in powers of n , we find

$$(8) \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{n^4}{4} + \left(\frac{1}{2} + a_0 \right) n^3 + \left(\frac{1}{2} + a_1 \right)^2 n^2 &= \frac{n^4}{4} + \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{b_2}{3} \right) n^3 \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{b_2}{2} + \frac{b_1}{2} \right) n^2 + \left(\frac{b_2}{6} + \frac{b_1}{6} + b_0 \right) n . \end{aligned}$$

Equating coefficients in (8) yields

$$(9) \quad \begin{aligned} a_0 &= \frac{b_2}{3} \\ \left(\frac{1}{2} + a_0 \right)^2 &= \frac{1}{4} + \frac{b_2}{2} + \frac{b_1}{2} \\ 0 &= \frac{b_2}{6} + \frac{b_1}{2} + b_0 . \end{aligned}$$

Let a_0 be arbitrary and regard (9) as the linear system

$$(10) \quad \sum_{j=0}^2 a_{ij} b_j = c_i \quad (i = 0, 1, 2).$$

Since the determinant $|a_{ij}| \neq 0$, we can solve for b_0, b_1, b_2 in terms of a_0 . Easy calculations show

$$(11) \quad b_0 = -a^2, \quad b_1 = 2a^2 - a, \quad b_2 = 3a ,$$

where a_0 is replaced by a for simplicity. Thus

$$(12) \quad f(x) = x + a, \quad g(x) = x^3 + 3ax^2 + (2a^2 - a)x - a^2$$

When $a = 0$, (12) yields the result of Allison.

If we do not require $a_r = b_s = 1$, it is interesting to note that for arbitrary p, q one can always find non-monic polynomials $f(x)$, $g(x)$ to satisfy (2). Specifically $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are chosen to satisfy

$$(13) \quad \sum_{x=1}^n g(x) = n^q, \quad \sum_{x=1}^n f(x) = n^p.$$

If (13) holds, obviously (2) does.

In general the construction of a function $f_t(x)$ satisfying

$$(14) \quad \sum f_t(x) = n^t \quad (t = 1, 2, 3, \dots)$$

is recursive. First note that $f_1(x) = 1$. We find $f_{t+1}(x)$ as follows. Recall that

$$\sum_{x=1}^n x^t = \frac{n^{t+1}}{t+1} + s_t n^t + \dots + s_1 n.$$

Thus

$$(15) \quad (t+1) \sum_{x=1}^n \left\{ x^t - s_t f_t(x) - \dots - s_1 f_1(x) \right\} = n^{t+1},$$

so

$$(16) \quad f_{t+1}(x) = (t+1) \left\{ x^t - \sum_{k=1}^t s_k f_k(x) \right\}.$$

We summarize these results in the following.

Theorem. The solutions of (2) are as follows. If $p = q$, $f(x)$ is arbitrary and $g(x) = f(x)$. If $p \neq q$, the only monic solutions occur when $p = 2$ and $q = 1$, in which case $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are defined by (12), where a is an arbitrary real constant. Non-monic solutions for that case can be found using (13).

As an example of these results suppose that $p = 3$ and $q = 4$. By (14) and (17) we have

$$\left\{ \sum_{x=1}^n (4x^3 - 6x^2 + 4x - 1) \right\}^3 = \left\{ \sum_{x=1}^n (3x^2 - 3x + 1) \right\}^4, \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots).$$

REFERENCE

1. Allison, "A Note on Sums of Powers of Integers," American Mathematical Monthly, Vol. 68, 1961, p. 272.

A NUMBER PROBLEM

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There are infinite many numbers with the property: if units digit of a positive integer, M , is 6 and this is taken from its place and put on the left of the remaining digits of M , then a new integer, N , will be formed, such that $N = 6M$. The smallest M for which this is possible is a number with 58 digits (1016949... 677966).

Solution: Using formula

$$\frac{6x}{1 - 4x - x^2} = 3 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F_{3n} x^n,$$

with $x = 0, 1$ we have 1,01016949... 677966, where the period number (behind the first zero) is M .*

*1016949152542372881355932203389830508474576271186440677966.

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