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On the equation $f(1)1^{k}+f(2)2^{k}+...+f(x)x^{k}+R(x)=by^{x}$

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To
Dr Zbigniew Religa
and his collaborators
as a token of gratitude

1. Introduction. Let $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be a polynomial, and let $b \neq 0$ and $k \geqslant 1$ be integral numbers. Let $N_0 = N \cup \{0\}$.

In this paper we deal with the equation

(1.1)
$$\sum_{i=0}^{x} f(i)i^{k} + R(x) = by^{x}$$

for periodic functions $f: N_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$.

We find some natural subclass of the class of all periodic functions $f \colon N_0 \to \mathbb{Z}$ such that: the number of solutions of the equation (1.1) in integers $x \ge 1$, y, z > 1 for f from this subclass and for any $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is finite. Here we exclude the cases $k \le 3$ and k = 5. For example, all periodic functions $f \colon N_0 \to \{\pm 1\}$ with the period not divisible by 4 belong to the above considered subclass.

We give also examples of periodic functions $F: N_0 \to \{\pm 1\}$ such that for some $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b \neq 0$, and for large k in comparison with above excluded $k \leq 3$, k = 5, the equation (1.1) has infinitely many solutions in integers $x \geq 1$, y, z > 1. For example, it suffices to take a periodic function f with the period of length 4 satisfying f(0) = f(3) = 1, f(1) = f(2) = -1 and $k = 2^1$, 2^2 , 2^4 , 2^8 or 2^{16} . In general, we may take in the last example $k = 2^r$, where $r \geq 1$ and $2^r + 1$ is a prime number.

We conjecture that there exist a periodic function $f: \mathbb{N}_0 \to \{\pm 1\}$ and infinitely many k such that the equation (1.1) (for this f and each k) has infinitely many solutions in integers $x \ge 1$, y, z > 1 for some $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b \ne 0$ (dependent on f and k).

The results in the present paper are generalizations of results of [10]. We follow ideas of this paper. Similar problems were dealt in papers [8], [5] (here

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as in [10] f = 1), and [3], [4] (here f was a quadratic character). All results in the paper are consequences of papers of Schinzel and Tijdeman [9], of LeVeque [7], and of Brindza [1], [2].

I wish to express my thanks to J. Browkin and A. Schinzel for their advice and encouragement.

2. Generalized Bernoulli polynomials. We use the notation from Chapter 13 in [6].

Let $x \ge 1$ be a natural number and let f be a function defined on a set containing $\{0, 1, ..., x-1\}$.

The polynomials $B_{k,\ell}^{(x)}(T)$ defined by

$$\sum_{a=0}^{x-1} f(a) \frac{t e^{(a+T)t}}{e^{xt} - 1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} B_{k,f}^{(x)}(T) \frac{t^k}{k!}$$

are called generalized Bernoulli polynomials belonging to f and x. The generalized Bernoulli numbers are defined by

$$B_{k,f}^{(x)} = B_{k,f}^{(x)}(0).$$

Of course $B_{k,f}^{(x)}$ belong to a field generated by f(a), $a \in \{0, 1, ..., x-1\}$ over Q and

(2.1)
$$B_{k,f}^{(x)}(T) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} {k \choose i} B_{i,f}^{(x)} T^{k-i}.$$

If f = 1 then $B_{k,f}^{(x)}(T) = B_k(T)$ and $B_{k,f}^{(x)} = B_k$, where $B_k(T)$ and B_k are ordinary Bernoulli polynomials and numbers respectively.

It is known that the following formulas hold for $k \ge 0$ (see [6]):

(2.2)
$$B_{k,f}^{(x)}(T) = x^{k-1} \sum_{a=0}^{x-1} f(a) B_k \left(\frac{T+a}{x} \right),$$

(2.3)
$$\sum_{i=0}^{x-1} f(i)i^k = \frac{1}{k+1} \left[B_{k+1,f}^{(x)}(x) - B_{k+1,f}^{(x)} \right].$$

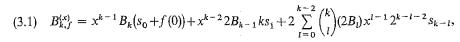
Let $A \subset N_0$ and let f be defined on A. We say that f is periodic and x_0 is its period, if x_0 is a minimal natural number satisfying

$$f(i+x_0) = f(i)$$
 for every $i, i+x_0 \in A$.

LEMMA 2.1 (see [6]). Let x_0 and x be natural numbers and let x be divisible by x_0 . If f is a periodic function on a set containing $\{0, 1, ..., x-1\}$ with the period x_0 then for $k \ge 0$:

$$B_{k,f}^{(x)}(T) = B_{k,f}^{(x_0)}(T)$$
 (and consequently $B_{k,f}^{(x)} = B_{k,f}^{(x_0)}$)

3. Formulas for $B_{k,f}^{(x)}$. Let x be a natural number and let f be a function on a set containing $\{0, 1, ..., x-1\}$. We use following formulas for generalized Bernoulli numbers:



where

$$s_r = \sum_{i=1}^{(x-1)/2} [f(2i) + (-1)^k f(x-2i)]i^r,$$

for $2 \nmid x$ and $k \geqslant 2$; and

(3.2)
$$B_{k,f}^{(x)} = \frac{1}{x} t_k - \frac{k}{2} t_{k-1} + \sum_{l=2}^k {k \choose l} B_l x^{l-1} t_{k-l},$$

where

$$t_r = \sum_{i=0}^{x-1} f(i)i^r,$$

for any x and $k \ge 2$.

We prove that (3.1) ((3.2) is an obvious corollary from (2.2) with T=0 and from (2.1)). From (2.2) and from

$$B_k(1-T) = (-1)^k B_k(T)$$

we get for $2 \nmid x$

$$B_{k,f}^{(x)} = x^{k-1} \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le x-1 \\ 2 \ne i}} f(i)B_k(i/x) + x^{k-1} \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le x-1 \\ 2 \mid i}} f(i)B_k(i/x)$$

$$= (-1)^k x^{k-1} \sum_{\substack{1 \le i \le x-1 \\ 2 \mid i}} f(x-i)B_k(i/x) + x^{k-1} \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le x-1 \\ 2 \mid i}} f(i)B_k(i/x).$$

Hence and from (2.1), (3.1) follows.

4. $B_{k,f}^{(x)}$ modulo powers of 2. Let $x \ge 1$ be a natural number and let f be a function of a set containing $\{0, 1, ..., x-1\}$ into \mathbb{Z} .

For integral r denote

$$a_r = \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le x - 1 \\ i \equiv r \pmod{2}}} f(i) \quad \text{(so } a_0 + a_1 = t_0), \quad b_r = \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le x - 1 \\ i \equiv r \pmod{4}}} f(i),$$

$$c_r = \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le x - 1 \\ i \equiv r \pmod{4}}} f(i).$$

The symbol $a \parallel b$ for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a \neq 0$ means that $a \mid b$ and a, b/a are co-prime.

LEMMA 4.1. Let x and f be as above. We have:

I. If $2 \nmid x$ then $2B_{k,f}^{(x)}$ for $k \ge 1$ and $B_{0,f}^{(x)}$ are 2-integral and

$$2B_{k,f}^{(x)} \equiv t_0 2B_k \pmod{2} \quad \text{for } k \ge 1,$$

$$B_0^{(x)} \equiv t_0 \pmod{2}.$$

II. If 2||x| then $2B_{k,f}^{(x)}$ for $k \ge 0$ are 2-integral and

$$2B_{k,f}^{(x)} \equiv 2B_k a_1 \pmod{2} \quad \text{for } k \geqslant 2,$$

$$2B_{1,f}^{(x)} \equiv a_0 \pmod{2},$$

$$2B_{0,f}^{(x)} \equiv t_0 \pmod{2}.$$

III. If $2^{\alpha}||x|$ and $\alpha \ge 2$ then $2^{\alpha}B_{k,f}^{(x)}$ for $k \ge 0$ are 2-integral and

$$2^{\alpha}B_{k,f}^{(x)} \equiv a_1 \pmod{2} \quad \text{for } k \geqslant 1,$$

$$2^{\alpha}B_{0,f}^{(x)} \equiv t_0 \pmod{2}$$
.

Let a_1 be even and let ε , δ , $\varrho = 0$ or 1. If

$$b_{1} \equiv b_{3} \equiv \varrho \pmod{2}$$

$$b_{1} \equiv b_{3} + 2\varepsilon \pmod{4}$$

$$\beta = \alpha - 1$$

$$c_{-1} \equiv c_{-3} + \delta + \varrho + 1 \pmod{2}$$

$$b_{1} \equiv b_{3} \equiv 2\delta + 2 \pmod{4}$$

$$b_{1} \equiv b_{3} + 4(\varepsilon + \delta + \varrho + 1) \pmod{8}$$

$$\beta = \alpha - 2$$

then for $k \ge 2$: $2^{\beta} B_{k,f}^{(x)}$ are 2-integral and

$$(4.1) 2^{\beta} B_{k,f}^{(x)} \equiv 2B_{\varrho k+\varepsilon} \pmod{2}$$

unless k=2 and b_2 is odd in the second case; then (4.1) changes into the congruence

$$2^{\beta} B_{k,f}^{(x)} \equiv 2B_{\varrho k + \varepsilon + 3} \pmod{2}.$$

Remark. The congruence (4.1) states that for $k \ge 2$

$$2^{\beta}B_{k,f}^{(x)} \equiv 2B_k, \ 2B_{k+1}, \ 1 \quad \text{or} \quad 0 \pmod{2}$$

according as the 2-tuple $\{\varepsilon, \varrho\}$ equals

$$\{0, 1\}, \{1, 1\}, \{1, 0\} \text{ or } \{0, 0\}.$$

Proof. We consider the case I. From (3.1) we have in this case for $k \ge 2$

$$B_{k,f}^{(x)} = x^{k-1}B_k(s_0 + f(0)) + 2$$
-integral.

Therefore for $2|k, k \neq 0$ it suffices to use the von Staudt-Clausen theorem for 2, i.e., to use the congruence

$$2B_k \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$$
 for $2|k, k \neq 0$

and to observe that for 2|k|

$$s_0 + f(0) = t_0$$

For $2 \nmid k, k \neq 1$ the case I follows from $B_k = 0$. For $k \leq 1$ it is an immediate corollary from (2.2).



From (3.2) we have in the case 2|x| for $k \ge 2$

(4.2)
$$B_{k,f}^{(x)} = \frac{1}{x} t_k - \frac{k}{2} t_{k-1} + 2 - \text{integral}.$$

Hence we have for $2|k, k \neq 0$

$$B_{k,f}^{(x)} = \frac{1}{x}t_k + 2\text{-integral}$$

so in the case II, i.e., if 2||x|

$$2B_{k,f}^{(x)} \equiv t_k \equiv a_1 \pmod{2}.$$

But in the same case for $2 \nmid k$, $k \neq 1$

$$2B_{k,f}^{(x)} \equiv t_k - t_{k-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{x-1} f(i)i^{k-1}(i-1) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}.$$

Therefore to prove II it is sufficient to use the von Staudt-Clausen theorem for 2, again. For $k \le 1$ the case II is an immediate corollary from (2.2).

We consider the case III. The first congruence of it is an immediate consequence of (4.2) because $\alpha > 1$. The second one is an obvious corollary from (2.2). Let a_1 be even. To prove (4.1) it suffices to observe that if $i \equiv r \pmod{4}$ then for $2|k, k \ge 2$ and $2 \nmid r$ we have $i^k \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, but for $2 \nmid k$, $k \ge 3$ and for $2 \nmid r$ we have $i^k \equiv i \pmod{8}$. Hence

$$(4.4) t_k = \sum_{r=0}^{3} \sum_{\substack{0 \le i \le x-1 \\ i \equiv r \pmod{4}}} f(i)i^k$$

$$\equiv \begin{cases} b_1 + b_3 \pmod{8} & \text{if } 2 | k, k \geqslant 4 \text{ or } k = 2 \text{ and } 2 | b_2, \\ b_1 + b_3 + 4 \pmod{8} & \text{if } k = 2 \text{ and } 2 \not > b_2, \\ b_1 + 3b_3 + 4(c_{-1} + c_{-3}) \pmod{8} & \text{if } 2 \not > k \text{ and } k \geqslant 3 \end{cases}$$

because for $2 \nmid k$, $k \ge 3$ we have

$$\sum_{\substack{0 \leqslant i \leqslant x-1\\ i \equiv r \pmod{4}}} f(i)i^k \equiv \sum_{\substack{0 \leqslant i \leqslant x-1\\ i \equiv r \pmod{4}}} f(i)i \equiv r \sum_{\substack{0 \leqslant i \leqslant x-1\\ i \equiv r \pmod{4}}} f(i) + (r+4) \sum_{\substack{0 \leqslant i \leqslant x-1\\ i \equiv r + 4 \pmod{8}}} f(i)$$

$$= r \sum_{\substack{0 \leqslant i \leqslant x-1\\ i \equiv r \pmod{4}}} f(i) + 4 \sum_{\substack{0 \leqslant i \leqslant x-1\\ i \equiv r + 4 \pmod{8}}} f(i) = rb_r + 4c_{r+4} \pmod{8}.$$

If $a_1 = b_1 + b_3 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ then for $k \ge 2$, $t_{k-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and from (4.2) we get (4.3). Now, it is sufficient to use the tables:

A. Let $b_i \equiv r_i \pmod{4}$ for i = 1 and 3, and $t_k \equiv s_k \pmod{4}$, where $0 \leq r_i, s_i < 4.$

For $k \ge 2$ we get from (4.4)

•		S_k		
r_1	r ₃	2 <i>k</i>	2.∤k	
1	1	2	0	
3	3	2	0 -	
1	3	0	2	
3	1	0	2	
0	0	0		
2	2			
0	2	3		
2	0	2		

B. The case $r_1 = r_3 = 0$ or 2 we consider in more details. Let $b_i \equiv \bar{r}_i \pmod{8}$ for i = 1 and 3, and $t_k \equiv \bar{s}_k \pmod{8}$, where $0 \leq \bar{r}_i$, $\bar{s}_k < 8$.

			$ec{s}_k$				
	\bar{r}_1	\bar{r}_1 \bar{r}_3	2 k	k = 2		2./k	
			k ≥ 4	2 b2	2∤b ₂	$2 c_{-1}+c_{-3}$	$2 \not\mid c_{-1} + c_{-3}$
	0	0	0		4	0	4
	4	4					
$r_1 = r_3 = 0$	0	4	4		0	4	0
	4	0					
$r_1 = r_3 = 2$	2	2					
	6	6	4		0	0	4
	2	6			4	0	
	6	2	0				4

We investigate the first subcase of III using the table A, the second one using the table B. The congruence (4.1) follows from the von Staudt-Clausen theorem for 2. Lemma 4.1 is proved.

COROLLARY 4.2. Let $x \ge 1$ be an integer, and let f be a function defined on a set containing $\{0, 1, ..., x-1\}$ with values in \mathbb{Z} . We take the notation from

Lemma 4.1. Put $\beta = 1$ for $4 \nmid x$. Let

- (a) $2 \nmid x$ and $2 \nmid t_0$, or
- (b) 2||x| and 2||x| $||a_0||$, $|a_1|$, or
- (c) $4|x, 2 \nmid b_i \text{ and } b_i \equiv b_{i+2} \pmod{4} \text{ for } i = 0, 1.$

Then for $k \ge 0$, $2^{\beta}B_{k,f}^{(x)}$ are 2-integral and the following congruences hold:

$$2^{\beta}B_{k,f}^{(x)} \equiv 2B_k \pmod{2}.$$

Proof. The corollary in the cases (a) and (b) follows immediately from the lemma. The case (c) for $k \ge 2$ follows from the first subcase of III for $\varepsilon = 0$ and $\rho = 1$, but for $k \le 1$ from (2.2) for T = 0.

Remark. The corollary is also true in the second subcase of III of Lemma 4.1 with $\varepsilon = 0$ and $\varrho = 1$, and with some additional conditions.

5. The facts from the theory of diophantine equations. We use the following theorems from the theory of diophantine equations:

LEMMA 5.1 (see [9]). Let b be a nonzero integer, and let P be a polynomial with rational coefficients with least two distinct zeros. Then the equality

$$P(x) = by^z, \quad |y| > 1$$

in integers implies that z < C, where C is an effectively computable constant depending only on P and b.

LEMMA 5.2 (see [7] and [1], [2]). Let $P \in Q[x]$,

$$P(x) = a_0 x^{N} + a_1 x^{N-1} + \dots + a_N = a_0 \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x - \alpha_i)^{r_i},$$

with $a_0 \neq 0$ and $\alpha_i \neq \alpha_j$ for $i \neq j$. Let $0 \neq b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and define $v_i = m/(m, r_i)$. Then the equation

$$P(x) = by^m$$

has only finitely many solutions $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ unless $\{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ is a permutation of one of the n-tuples $\{v, 1, ..., 1\}, v \ge 1$ or $\{2, 2, 1, ..., 1\}$. These solutions can be effectively determined.

6. The equation (1.1). We extend Lemma 4 in [10].

LEMMA 6.1. Let $x_0 \ge 1$ be an integer and let f be a function of a set containing $\{0, 1, ..., x_0 - 1\}$ into Z such that for some $\beta \ge 1$ and for any $k \ge 0$, $2^{\beta} B_{k,0}^{(x_0)}$ are 2-integral, and the following congruences hold:

(6.1)
$$2^{\beta} B_{k,f}^{(x_0)} \equiv 2B_k \pmod{2}.$$

Let $R^* \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be a polynomial. Set for $n \ge 3$

$$P(x) = B_{n,f}^{(x_0)}(x) - B_{n,f}^{(x_0)} + nR^*(x).$$

Then:

- (i) P(x) has at least three zeros of odd multiplicities unless n = 3, 4 and 6.
- (ii) For any odd prime p, at least two zeros of P(x) have multiplicities prime to p unless n = 4.

Proof. Since $B_{i,l}^{(x_0)} \in \mathbb{Q}$ by (2.1) we can choose $d \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$dP(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x].$$

Let $d \in N$ be minimal satisfying this condition. Using the same arguments as in the proof of Lemma 4 in [10] we get by the congruence (6.1): $2^{\beta} \| d$ unless $n = 2^r$ for some $r \ge 1$. In this case $2^{\beta-1} \| d$.

We distinguish two cases:

- (a) Let $n \ge 3$ be odd. To prove the lemma in this case for n > 3 it suffices to repeat the part A of the proof of Lemma 4 in [10] with d as above. In this case the polynomial P(x) has at least three simple zeros so it satisfies (i) and (ii). Similarly, if n = 3 then P(x) has at least two simple zeros, so it satisfies (ii).
- (b) Let $n \ge 4$ be even. First, we prove (i). In the case 2|n we consider two subcases as in [10]. First, let $n = 2^r$ for some $r \ge 1$. Then $2^{\beta-1} \| d$ and to prove (i) it suffices to repeat the part B of the proof of Lemma 4 in [10]. Thus using the same arguments as in this proof we get for $r \ge 3$

(6.2)
$$dP(x) \equiv d'x^{4s} + 2x^{3s} \pm x^{2s} + 2x^{s} \pmod{4},$$

where s = n/4 and

$$dB_{0,J}^{(x_0)} \equiv d' \pmod{4}.$$

Let

$$(6.3) dP(x) = T2(x)Q(x),$$

where $T, Q \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and Q contains each factor of odd multiplicity of dP exactly once. Assume $\deg Q \leq 2$. From (6.2) we get

(6.4)
$$T^{2}(x)Q(x) \equiv x^{2s}(d'x^{2s}+1) \pmod{2}.$$

Therefore $T^2(x)$ must be divisible by x^{2s-2} modulo 2. The rest of the proof goes like the part B of the proof of Lemma 4 in [10]. So

$$T(x) = x^{s-1} T_1(x) + 2T_2(x),$$

$$T^{2}(x) = x^{2s-2} T_{1}^{2}(x) + 4T_{3}(x),$$

where T_1 , T_2 , $T_3 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and the last identity for n > 8 (i.e. s > 2) is incompatible with (6.2) because of the term $2x^s$. So we have proved (i) for $n = 2^r$, r > 3. If n = 8 then the congruence (6.2) holds with s = 2. We get

(6.5)
$$dP(x) \equiv d'x^8 + 2x^6 \pm x^4 + 2x^2 \pmod{4}$$

and

(6.6)
$$T^{2}(x) \equiv x^{2} T_{1}^{2}(x) \pmod{4}.$$

Since $T_1(x) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ the polynomial $T_1^2(x)$ modulo 4 is monic. Moreover we have

$$\deg(T_1^2(x) \mod 4) = 2\deg(T_1(x) \mod 2).$$

Hence and from (6.3) and (6.6) we obtain

$$\deg(dP(x) \bmod 4) = 2 + 2\deg(T_1(x) \bmod 2) + \deg(Q(x) \bmod 4),$$

so, from (6.5),

$$2\deg(T_1(x) \bmod 2) + \deg(Q(x) \bmod 4) = \begin{cases} 6 & \text{if } d' \not\equiv 0 \pmod 4, \\ 4 & \text{if } d' \equiv 0 \pmod 4. \end{cases}$$

Therefore the 2-tuple $\{\deg(T_1(x) \bmod 2), \deg(Q(x) \bmod 4)\}$ equals

1°
$$\{3, 0\}$$
 or 2° $\{2, 2\}$ if $d' \not\equiv 0 \pmod{4}$; and

$$3^{\circ} \{2, 0\} \text{ or } 4^{\circ} \{1, 2\} \text{ if } d' \equiv 0 \pmod{4}.$$

We prove that the case 1° is impossible. Let

$$T_1(x) \equiv x^3 + ... + c \pmod{2}$$
, where $c = 0$ or 1,

and let

$$Q(x) \equiv q \pmod{4}$$
, where $q = 1, 2 \text{ or } 3$.

Here $T_1^2(x) \equiv (x^3 + \ldots + c)^2 \pmod{4}$. Hence and from (6.3), (6.5) and (6.6) we get by comparing the coefficients of x^8

$$q \equiv d' \pmod{4}.$$

Therefore if $d' \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{4}$ then by comparing the coefficients of x^2 we find that

$$c^2q \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$$
 so $c^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$.

We obtain a contradiction. Let $d' \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$. Then we have $q \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ so $Q(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. It is incompatible by (6.3) with (6.4) for s = 2. We consider the case 2° . Let

$$T_1(x) \equiv x^2 + ax + b \pmod{2}$$
, where $a, b = 0$ or 1,

and let

$$Q(x) \equiv px^2 + qx + r \pmod{4}$$
, where p, q, r = 0, 1, 2 or 3 and $p \neq 0$.

Then $T_1^2(x) \equiv (x^2 + ax + b)^2 \pmod{4}$. Therefore we get from (6.3), (6.5) and (6.6) by comparing the coefficients of x^8

$$p \equiv d' \pmod{4}$$

and by comparing the coefficients of x^2

$$b^2r \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$$
 so $b = 1$ and $r \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$.

Hence by comparing the coefficients of x^3 we get

$$q+4a \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$
 so $q \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$.

Let $d' \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$. Then $p \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ and $Q(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. It is incompatible with (6.4) for s = 2. If $d \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{4}$ then by comparing the coefficients of x^6 in both sides of (6.5) by (6.3) and (6.6) we find that

$$2+d'(2+a^2) \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$$
.

Therefore

$$d'(2+a^2) \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \quad \text{and} \quad a^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}.$$

We get a contradiction, too.

Now, let $d' \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$. We consider the case 3°. Let

$$T_1(x) \equiv x^2 + \dots \pmod{2},$$

and let

$$Q(x) \equiv q \pmod{4}$$
, where $q = 1, 2$ or 3.

Here $T_1^2(x) \equiv (x^2 + \dots)^2 \pmod{4}$ and we get from (6.3) and (6.6) by comparing the coefficients of x^6 in both sides of (6.5)

$$a \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$$
, i.e., $Q(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$.

Therefore we obtain a contradiction with (6.4) for s=2, again. We prove that the case 4° is impossible. Let

$$T_1(x) \equiv x + a \pmod{2}$$
, where $a = 0$ or 1

and let

$$Q(x) \equiv px^2 + qx + r \pmod{4}$$
, where p, q, r = 0, 1, 2, or 3 and $p \neq 0$.

Here $T_1^2(x) \equiv (x+a)^2 \pmod{4}$. Therefore we get from (6.8), (6.6) and (6.5) by comparing the coefficients of x^6

$$p \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$$

and by comparing the coefficients of x^2

$$a^2r \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$$
 so $a^2 = 1$, i.e., $a = 1$ and $r \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$.

Therefore it is sufficient to compare the coefficients of x^3 and we obtain

$$2ar + a^2q \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$
, i.e., $q \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$.

Hence $Q(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and we get a contradiction with (6.4) for s = 2, again. We have proved (i) for n = 8, too.

Now, let $n \neq 2^r$ for any r. Put $n = 2^r u$, where $r \geqslant 1$ and u > 1 is odd. Then $\binom{n}{2^r}$ is odd and $2^{\beta} \| d$. To prove (i) it is sufficient to repeat the part C of the proof of Lemma 4 in [10]. In the case $2^{\beta-1}B_{0,f}^{(x_0)} \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ and $n \geqslant 10$ the proof is the same as the part C of that proof.

 $2^{\beta-1}B_0^{(x_0)} \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, i.e., $dB_0^{(x_0)} \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$.

Here $4|2^{\beta}n$ and by (2.1) and (6.1) we get

(6.7)
$$dP(x) \equiv \pm nx^{n-1} \pm \binom{n}{2} x^{n-2} + \dots + \binom{n}{i} dB_{i,f}^{(x_0)} x^{n-i} + \dots \pm \binom{n}{2} x^2 \pmod{4}.$$

Put (6.3) and let

$$T(x) \equiv x^{l_1} + x^{l_2} + \dots x^{l_m} \pmod{2},$$

where $l_1 > l_2 > \ldots > l_m \geqslant 0$. Then

(6.8)
$$T^{2}(x) \equiv x^{2l_{1}} + x^{2l_{2}} + \dots + x^{2l_{m}} + 2\sum_{t} p_{t}x^{t} \pmod{4},$$

where p_t is the number of solutions of $l_i + l_j = t$, $l_i < l_j$, $1 \le i, j \le m$. Assume $\deg Q \le 2$ and let

$$Q(x) = ax^2 + bx + c,$$

where $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$.

We consider two cases: 2||n|(r=1) and 4|n|(r>1). In the first case, comparing

(6.9)
$$T^{2}(x)Q(x) \equiv ax^{2l_{1}+2} + bx^{2l_{1}+1} + \dots \pmod{4}$$

and (6.7), we get $a \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ and $b \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$. Therefore c must be odd. In this case $l_1 = (n-2)/2$.

In the second case we note that $4 {n \choose i}$ for $1 \le i \le 2^r$ unless $i = 2^{r-1}$ or 2^r .

In these cases $2 \| \binom{n}{2^{r-1}}$ and $2 \not \times \binom{n}{2^r}$. Therefore, comparing (6.7) and (6.9), we get by (6.1) $a \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ and $b \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$. Therefore c must be odd, again. In this case $l_1 = (n-2^{r-1}-2)/2$.

In both cases $Q(x) \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ and

(6.10)
$$dP(x) \equiv T^{2}(x) \equiv x^{2l_{1}} + x^{2l_{2}} + \dots + x^{2l_{m}} \pmod{2}.$$

Denote as in [10]

$$L = \{l_1, l_2, ..., l_m\}.$$

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By (6.7) we have from (6.10)

(6.11)
$$l \in L \Leftrightarrow 2 \le 2l \le n-2$$
 and $\binom{n}{2l}$ is odd.

On the other hand from (6.3) and (6.8) in the case 2||n|

$$dP(x) \equiv \sum_{l \in L} (2x^{2l+1} + cx^{2l}) + 2\sum_{t} p_{t}x^{t} \pmod{4}.$$

Therefore by (6.7)

$$\begin{cases} l \in L \\ l < l_1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow p_{2l+1} \text{ is odd.}$$

Now it is sufficient in this case to repeat the part C of the proof of Lemma 4 in [10]. Here it must be $n \ge 10$ (i.e., $n \ne 6$). Now, let 4|n. From (6.11) we conclude that $\binom{n}{2l_1}$ is odd so $\binom{n}{2^{r-1}+2}$ is odd. We get a contradiction for $r \ge 3$ because, for $1 \le i < 2^r$, $\binom{n}{i}$ is even.

Let r=2. Then 0, $1 \notin L$ and $2 \in L$. On the other hand, in the case 4|n we have from (6.3) and (6.8)

$$dP(x) \equiv \sum_{l \in I} (2x^{2l+2} + cx^{2l}) + 2\sum_{l} p_{t}x^{t} \pmod{4}.$$

In the case r = 2 we have

$$\sum_{l \in L} (2x^{2l+2} + cx^{2l}) \equiv \dots + cx^4 \pmod{4}.$$

Moreover, from the definition of p_t , if $2\sum p_t x^t \not\equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ then

$$\deg(2\sum_{t}p_{t}x^{t}(\text{mod }4))>2.$$

Thus we get a contradiction with (6.7) because of the term $\pm \binom{n}{2} x^2$.

The proof of (i) is complete.

Now, we prove (ii). If $n \neq 2^r$ for any r then to prove (ii) it is sufficient to repeat the beginning of the part C of the proof of Lemma 4 in [10].

Let $n = 2^r$ for some $r \ge 3$. From (6.6) if d' is odd then

$$dP(x) \equiv x^{\mu}(x+1)^{\mu} (\text{mod } 2),$$

where $\mu = n/2$. Since μ is prime to p for any odd prime p, the polynomial P(x) has at least two zeros of multiplicities prime to p and (ii) is proved in this case. Let d' be even and let p be an odd prime number. Assume that

$$(6.12) dP(x) = cT^p(x)(ax+b)^k,$$

where $T \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, c is odd and $0 \le k \le p-1$. If $a \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ or k = 0 then we get from the congruence (6.4)

$$2^{r-1} = 2s = p \deg(T(x) \mod 2).$$

It is impossible so $a \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ and $k \geqslant 1$. Moreover it follows from (6.4) that $b \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and

$$2^{r-1} = 2s = p \deg(T(x) \mod 2) + k.$$

Therefore $2s-k \ge 0$ must be divisible by p and

$$T(x) \equiv x^{(2s-k)/p} \pmod{2}.$$

Hence

$$T^{p-1}(x) \equiv x^{\frac{p-1}{p}(2s-k)} \pmod{4}$$

and

$$T^{p}(x) \equiv x^{\frac{p-1}{p}(2s-k)} T(x) \pmod{4}.$$

Therefore (6.12) is incompatible with (6.2) because of the term $2x^s$ unless r=3, k=1, p=3 and $b\equiv 2\pmod 4$. Precisely, we have $T(x)\not\equiv 0\pmod 4$, i.e., $\deg(T(x)\bmod 4)\geqslant 0$ and $\frac{p-1}{p}(2s-k)+k_1>s$, where $k_1=k$ if $b\equiv 0\pmod 4$ or $b\equiv 2\pmod 4$ and $k\equiv 0\pmod 2$, and $k_1=k-1$ if $b\equiv 2\pmod 4$ and $k\equiv 1\pmod 2$. In the case $b\equiv 2\pmod 4$ we have used the congruence

$$(ax + 2)^k \equiv (ax)^k + 2k(ax)^{k-1} \pmod{4}.$$

For r = 3 (i.e., n = 8), k = 1, p = 3 and $b \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ we have

$$T^3(x) \equiv x^2 T(x) \pmod{4}.$$

Hence and from (6.12) we get

$$dP(x) \equiv x^2 T(x)(\pm x + 2) \pmod{4}.$$

Let $T(x) \equiv \dots + qx + r \pmod{4}$, where q, r = 0, 1, 2 or 3. We obtain by (6.5) that r = 1 or 3 and

$$\pm r + 2q \equiv 0 \pmod{4}.$$

It is impossible. We have proved (ii) in the case $n = 2^r$ for some $r \ge 3$. The proof of Lemma 6.1 is complete.

Remarks.

1 (On the case n = 3). If n = 3 then by (2.1)

$$P(x) = B_{0,f}^{(x_0)} x^3 + 3B_{1,f}^{(x_0)} x^2 + 3B_{2,f}^{(x_0)} x + 3R^*(x).$$

Moreover, we get from (2.2) that

$$B_{0,f}^{(x_0)} = \frac{t_0}{x_0}$$
, $B_{1,f}^{(x_0)} = \frac{t_1}{x_0} - \frac{t_0}{2}$ and $B_{2,f}^{(x_0)} = \frac{t_2}{x_0} - t_1 + \frac{x_0 t_0}{6}$,

where

$$t_r = \sum_{i=0}^{x_0-1} f(i)i^r.$$

Therefore

$$2x_0 P(x) \equiv x(2x^2 + x_0^2)t_0 \pmod{3}.$$

Hence if $3 \nmid t_0 x_0$ then

$$P(x) \equiv \pm x(x+1)(x-1) \pmod{3}$$

so P(x) has at least three simple zeros in this case. If $3x_0|t_0$ then we can choose a polynomial $R^* \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that deg $P \le 2$. Therefore (i) for n = 3 need not be satisfied.

2 (On the functions f not satisfying (6.1)). In Lemma 6.1 we have proved that if f and x_0 satisfy (6.1) (i.e., (4.1) with $\varepsilon = 0$ and $\varrho = 1$) then the polynomial P(x), for any polynomial $R^* \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, satisfies (i) and (ii). For example, it holds in the cases (a), (b) and (c) of Corollary 4.2. In the remaining cases, i.e., if $\varepsilon \neq 0$ or $\varrho \neq 1$, the situation is more complicated. For example, consider the first subcase of III in Lemma 4.1 for $\varepsilon = 1$ and $\varrho = 1$. Let $f: \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ be a function such that:

(6.13)
$$t_0 = 0$$
, $2 \nmid b_i$ for $i = 0, 1, 2, 3$, and $b_1 \not\equiv b_3 \pmod{4}$.

Here $\beta=1$ in the notation of Lemma 4.1. We have in this case that $B_{1,j}^{(4)} \in \mathbb{Z}$. The condition $t_0=0$ implies that $B_{0,j}^{(4)}=0$, of course. Take a prime number $n=p=2^r+1, r\geqslant 1$. In general, for $n=2^r+1, r\geqslant 1$, we have for $0\leqslant i\leqslant n$, $2|\binom{n}{i}$ unless i=0,1,n-1 or n. Since by (4.1) in this case

$$2B_{p-1,f}^{(4)} \equiv 2B_p \equiv 0 \pmod{2},$$

we get for $0 \le i \le p-1$

$$p|\binom{p}{i}B_{i,f}^{(4)}\in \mathbf{Z}.$$

Therefore all the coefficients of the polynomial $B_{p,f}^{(4)}(x) - B_{p,f}^{(4)}$ are integral and divisible by p. Consequently we can find a polynomial $R^* \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that $P(x) = B_{p,f}^{(4)}(x) - B_{p,f}^{(4)} + pR^*(x)$ has zeros of any prescribed multiplicities.

EXAMPLES. 1. Let $f: \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ be a function satisfying f(0) = -1, f(1) = 1. Then

$$B_{n,f}^{(2)}(x) = B_n(x) - 2^n B_n(x/2).$$

It is an immediate consequence of (2.2) for above f and of

$$2^{n-1}B_n((x+1)/2) = B_n(x) - 2^{n-1}B_n(x/2).$$

The last equality is also a consequence of (2.2) for f = 1. In this case the polynomial P(x) from Lemma 6.1 satisfies (i) unless $n \le 4$. If n = 6 then

$$P(x) = 3x^5 + \frac{15}{2}x^4 + \frac{15}{2}x^2 + 6R^*(x).$$

Hence

(6.14)
$$2P(x) \equiv 2x^5 + x^4 + 3x^2 \pmod{4}.$$

Put (6.3) with d=2 and assume $\deg Q \le 2$. The polynomial $T^2(x)$ is monic mod 4 because by (6.14) $T(x) \ne 0 \pmod{2}$. Moreover we have

$$\deg(T^2(x) \bmod 4) = 2\deg(T(x) \bmod 2).$$

Hence and from (6.14) we find that

$$2\deg(T(x) \bmod 2) + \deg(Q(x) \bmod 4) = 5.$$

Therefore $deg(T(x) \mod 2) = 2$ and $deg(Q(x) \mod 4) = 1$. Let

$$T(x) \equiv x^2 + ax + b \pmod{2}$$
, where $a, b = 0$ or 1

and

$$Q(x) \equiv px + q \pmod{4}$$
, where $p, q = 0, 1$ or 3 and $p \neq 0$.

Here

$$T^{2}(x) \equiv (x^{2} + ax + b)^{2} \pmod{4}.$$

Therefore we get from (6.3) (with d = 2) and (6.14) by comparing the coefficients of x^5

$$p \equiv 2 \pmod{4}.$$

Moreover

$$b^2q\equiv 0\,(\mathrm{mod}\,4).$$

If b = 0 then by comparing the coefficients of x^2 we have

$$a^2q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$$
 so $a = 1$ and $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Here
$$T^2(x) \equiv x^4 + 2x^3 + x^2 \pmod{4}$$
 and $Q(x) \equiv 2x + 3 \pmod{4}$ so

$$T^2(x)Q(x) \equiv 2x^5 + 3x^4 + 3x^2 \pmod{4}$$
.

It is incompatible by (6.3) with (6.14). If b = 1 then $q \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ so $Q(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Hence by (6.3) $2P(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. It is incompatible with (6.14), again. Therefore P(x) for n = 6 satisfies (i).

2. Let $f: \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ be a function satisfying

$$f(0) = f(3) = 1$$
 and $f(1) = f(2) = -1$.

This function satisfies the conditions (6.13). Let n = 7. Of course 7 is not of the form $2^r + 1$. Here

$$B_{7,f}^{(4)}(x) - B_{7,f}^{(4)} = 21x^5 - \frac{105}{2}x^4 - 140x^3 + \frac{525}{2}x^2 + 336x$$

so there exists a polynomial $R^* \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that

$$P(x) = -\frac{105}{2}x^2(x^2 - 5).$$

This P(x) satisfies (ii) but it does not satisfy (i), of course.

Now, we generalize Theorem of [10].

THEOREM 6.2. Let $x_0 \ge 1$ be an integer and let

$$f: N_0 \to Z$$

be a periodic function with the period x_0 such that for some $\beta \ge 1$ and for any $k \ge 0$, $2^{\beta}B_{k,1}^{(x_0)}$ are 2-integral and the congruences

$$2^{\beta}B_{k,f}^{(x_0)} \equiv 2B_k \pmod{2}$$

hold.

If $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is a fixed polynomial and $b \neq 0$ and $k \geq 4$, $k \neq 5$ are fixed integers then the equation

$$\sum_{i=0}^{x} f(i)i^{k} + R(x) = by^{x}$$

has only finitely many solutions in integers $x \ge 1$, y, z > 1. These solutions can be effectively determined.

Proof. Note that for every $x_1 < x_0$ the equation

$$\sum_{i=0}^{x_1} f(i)i^k + R(x_1) = by^z$$

has finitely many solutions in integers y, z > 1.

Let $x \ge x_0$ and let $x \equiv r \pmod{x_0}$, where $0 \le r \le x_0 - 1$. We can rewrite the equation (1.1) in the form

$$\sum_{i=0}^{x_0x'-1} f(i)i^k + f(x_0x')(x_0x')^k + f(x_0x'+1)(x_0x'+1)^k + \dots + f(x)x^k + R(x) = by^x,$$

where $x = x_0 x' + r$.

Then we get from (2.3) and Lemma 2.1

$$\frac{1}{k+1} \big[B_{k+1,f}^{(x_0)}(x-r) - B_{k+1,f}^{(x_0)} \big] + \sum_{i=0}^r f(x_0 x'+i) (x_0 x'+i)^k + R(x) = b y^z.$$

Therefore we can rewrite the equation (1.1) in the form

(6.15)
$$\frac{1}{k+1} \left[B_{k+1,f}^{(x_0)}(x) - B_{k+1,f}^{(x_0)} \right] + R^*(x) = by^z,$$

where

$$R^*(x) = R(x+r) + \sum_{i=0}^r f(i)(x+i)^k \in Z[x].$$

Note that to prove the theorem it suffices to prove that the equation (6.15) has finitely many integer solutions $x \ge x_0$ and y, z > 1 for any polynomial $R^* \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ (not necessarily for R^* of the above form). Let $R^* \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be any polynomial. From Lemma 6.1 putting n = k+1 we conclude that

$$P(x) = \frac{1}{n} [B_{n,f}^{(x_0)}(x) - B_{n,f}^{(x_0)}] + R^*(x)$$

satisfies (i) and (ii). Thus it is sufficient to use Lemmas 5.1 and 5.2 and similarly as in [10] the theorem follows.

COROLLARY 6.3. Let $f\colon N_0\to Z$ be a periodic function with the period x_0 . Let $R\in Z[x]$ be any fixed polynomial and let $b\neq 0$ and $k\geqslant 4$, $k\neq 5$ be fixed integers. If f and x_0 satisfy the conditions (a), (b) or (c) of Corollary 4.2 then the equation (1.1) has finitely many solutions in integers $x\geqslant 1$, y,z>1. These solutions can be effectively determined.

Proof. This is an immediate corollary from Theorem 6.2 and Lemma 4.2. Hence we have

COROLLARY 6.4. Let $f: N_0 \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ be a periodic function with the period x_0 and let

$$4 x_0 \quad or \quad \begin{cases} 4 \| x_0, \\ b_i \equiv b_{i+2} \pmod{4} & \text{for } i = 0, 1. \end{cases}$$

If $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is any fixed polynomial, and $b \neq 0$ and $k \geqslant 4$, $k \neq 5$ are fixed integers then the equation (1.1) has finitely many solutions in integers $x \geqslant 1$, y, z > 1. These solutions can be effectively determined.

Remark. The last corollary is also true for $8|x_0$ with some additional conditions (see the remark after Corollary 4.2).

Examples. 1. Let $f: N_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ be a function defined by

$$f(i) = (-1)^{i+1}$$
 for $i \in N_0$.

It is a periodic function with the period of length 2. We get from Theorem 6.2 and Example 1 after Lemma 6.1 that the equation

(6.16)
$$1^{k}-2^{k}+\ldots+(-1)^{x+1}x^{k}+R(x)=by^{x}$$

for any $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b \neq 0$ and $k \geq 4$ has only finitely many solutions in integers $x \geq 1$, y, z > 1.

We consider the equation (6.16) for k=2 and 3 and fixed z=m>1. Put in Lemma 6.1 n=k+1. If n=3 then $2P(x)\equiv x(x-1)\pmod{2}$. Therefore by Lemma 5.2 the equation (6.16) for k=2 has finitely many integer solutions unless m=2. Let $S\in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be a polynomial. Put

$$R^*(x) = x(x-1)(2S^2(x) + 2S(x)).$$

The equation

(6.17)
$$\frac{3}{2}x(x-1)(2S(x)+1)^2 = by^2$$

reduces to Pell's equation so it has infinitely many integer solutions $x \ge 1$, y > 1 for infinitely many choices of b. Thus it has infinitely many solutions such that x is even or it has infinitely many solutions such that x is odd. Put in the equation (6.16)

(6.18)
$$R(x) = R^*(x) + x^k \quad \text{or} \quad R^*(x+1)$$

according as the equation (6.17) has infinitely many solutions with even or odd x. Then the equation (6.16) for this R(x) has infinitely many solutions with even or odd x because it reduces to (6.17). Therefore the equation (6.16) for k=2 has infinitely many solutions for suitably chosen b and c.

Similarly, if k = 3 (i.e., n = 4) then we have $P(x) = 2x^3 - 3x^2 + 4R^*(x)$. Let p be a prime number and let $S \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be a polynomial. Put

$$R^*(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sum_{i=2}^{p} {p \choose i} 2^{i-2} x^i (2S(x)+1)^i + x \left(pS(x) + \frac{p-1}{2} \right) + 1 & \text{if } p \ge 3, \\ x^2 (2x-3) (S^2(x) + S(x)) & \text{if } p = 2. \end{cases}$$

The equations

(6.19)
$$x^{2} \left[2x(2S(x)+1)+1 \right]^{p} = by^{p}.$$

(6.20)
$$\frac{3}{2}x(2x-3)(2S(x)+1)^2 = by^2$$

have infinitely many integer solutions $x \ge 1$, y > 1 for infinitely many choices of b. Thus each of them has infinitely many solutions such that x is even or each of them has infinitely many solutions such that x is odd. Put in the equation (6.16) z = p and R(x) as in (6.18). Then the equation (6.16) for this R(x) has infinitely many solutions with even or odd x because it reduces to (6.19) if $p \ge 3$ and to (6.20) if p = 2. Therefore the equation (6.16) for k = 3 and k = 2 can have infinitely many solutions for suitably chosen k = 3 and k = 2.

Before two next examples, we have the following remark. Take the notation of Theorem 6.2. Let $R^* \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be a polynomial. Put for $r \ge 0$

$$R(x) = R^*(x-r) - \sum_{i=0}^{r} f(i)(x-r+i)^k.$$

Note that if the equation

$$(6.21) P(x) = by^{z},$$

where

$$P(x) = \frac{1}{n} [B_{n,f}^{(x_0)}(x) - B_{n,f}^{(x_0)}] + R^*(x)$$

has infinitely many integer solutions $x \ge 1$, y, z > 1 then this equation has infinitely many integer solutions $x \ge 1$, y, z > 1 such that $x \equiv r \pmod{x_0}$ for some $0 \le r \le x_0 - 1$. Therefore the equation (1.1) for k = n - 1 with $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ defined above has infinitely many integer solutions $x \ge 1$, y, z > 1 such that $x \equiv r \pmod{x_0}$ so it has infinitely many solutions, in general.

- 2. Let $x_0 = 4$ and let $f: N_0 \to \{\pm 1\}$ be a periodic function with the period x_0 defined by means of f(0) = f(3) = 1 and f(1) = f(2) = -1. Then for these f and $x_0: b_0 = b_3 = 1$ and $b_1 = b_2 = -1$ and they satisfy the conditions (6.13). We use Remark 2 after Lemma 6.1 and Lemma 2.1. Take $k = 2^r$, $r \ge 1$ such that $2^r + 1$ is a prime number. Let n = k + 1. Then we can find a polynomial $R^* \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that the equation (6.12) has infinitely many integer solutions. Therefore the equation (1.1) with $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ defined above has infinitely many integer solutions, too.
- 3. Let $x_0 = 4$ and let f be as above. Consider the equation (1.1) for k = 6 and for fixed z = m > 1. We use Example 2 after Lemma 6.1 and Lemma 2.1. Here

$$2P(x) \equiv x^2(x-1)(x+1) \pmod{2}$$

so in view of Lemma 5.2 the equation (1.1) has only finitely many integer solutions x, y for any $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ unless m = 2.

Let $S \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be any polynomial. Put

$$R^*(x) = -15x^2(x^2 - 5)(2S^2(x) + 2S(x)) - 3x^5 + 20x^3 - 48x.$$

Then for m = 2 the equation (6.21) takes the form

$$-\frac{15}{2}x^2(x^2-5)(2S(x)+1)^2=by^2.$$

It amounts to Pell's equation having infinitely many integer solutions x, y for infinitely many choices of b. Therefore the equation (1.1) with above defined $R \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ has also infinitely many integer solutions.

Remark. The cases k = 1, 3, 5 for f = 1 are discussed in [10].

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On the average number of direct factors of a finite Abelian group

by

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1. Introduction. Let G be a finite Abelian group. Let $\tau(G)$ denote the number of direct factors of G and

$$T(x) = \sum \tau(G),$$

where the summation is extended over all Abelian groups of order not exceeding x. E. Cohen [1] proved the representation

$$T(x) = \gamma_{1,1} x (\log x + 2C - 1) + \gamma_{1,2} x + \Delta(x),$$

where $\Delta(x)$ is estimated by

$$\Delta(x) \leqslant \sqrt{x} \log^2 x.$$

In this paper we improve this result by

$$\Delta(x) = \gamma_{2,1} \sqrt{x} (\frac{1}{2} \log x + 2C - 1) + \gamma_{2,2} \sqrt{x} + O(x^{5/12} \log^4 x).$$

In these formulas C denotes Euler's constant, and $\gamma_{1,1}, \ldots, \gamma_{2,2}$ are given by (22)-(25).

A similar situation takes place when we consider the unitary factors of G, that is, the total number of direct decompositions of G into 2 relatively prime factors. Let t(G) denote the number of unitary factors of G and

$$T^*(x) = \sum t(G),$$

where again the summation is extended over all the Abelian groups of order not exceeding x. Here E. Cohen [1] proved that

$$T^*(x) = c_{1,1} x (\log x + 2C - 1) + c_{1,2} x + \Delta^*(x), \quad \Delta^*(x) \leqslant \sqrt{x \log x}.$$

In this paper we prove

$$\Delta^*(x) = c_2 \sqrt{x} + O(x^{11/29} \log^2 x),$$

where $c_{1,1}$, $c_{1,2}$, c_2 are defined by (13), (14).

It is not hard to prove this estimate for $\Delta^*(x)$. Therefore, the main point of