

# One Symmetry Does Not Imply Integrability

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## Abstract

We show that Bakirov's counterexample (which had been checked by computer algebra methods up till order 53) to the conjecture that one nontrivial symmetry of an evolution equation implies infinitely many is indeed a counterexample. To prove this we use the *symbolic method* of Gel'fand-Dikii and *p-adic analysis*. We also formulate a conjecture to the effect that almost all equations in the family considered by Bakirov have at most finitely many symmetries. This conjecture depends on the solution of a diophantine problem, which we explicitly state.

## 1 Introduction

Based on a substantial amount of material it has been conjectured that evolution equations in one space variable (like the Korteweg-de Vries equation) were integrable, i.e. in the possession of infinitely many symmetries once one nontrivial symmetry existed. Only one example put this conjecture in doubt. It was found by Bakirov [Bak91] (see also [Olv93], p. 381, exercise 5.15 and [Bil94]) that the system

$$\begin{cases} u_t &= u_4 + v^2 \\ v_t &= \frac{1}{5}v_4 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

has one symmetry of order 6, but no others were found up till order 53. In this paper we intend to prove that indeed no other symmetries exist and therefore the conjecture is false. We have not found a counterexample to the conjecture in [Fok87] that the system of dimension  $n$  needs  $n$  symmetries to be integrable.

In this proposition some conditions play a role which have been inspired by the use of the symbolic method, introduced by Gel'fand-Dikii [GD75]. This method was used in [TQ81] to show (as an example) that the symmetries of the Sawada-Kotera equation have to be of order 1 or 5 (mod 6). In [SW97] this method has been extended to completely classify the symmetries of  $\lambda$ -homogeneous scalar equations with  $\lambda > 0$  and of the form

$$u_t = u_k + f(u, \dots, u_{k-1}).$$

The analysis depends on results from diophantine approximation theory [Beu97].

The basic idea (of the symbolic method) is very old, probably dating from the time when the position of index and power were not as fixed as they are today. In fact, the symbolic calculus of classical invariant theory relies on it. The idea is simply to replace  $u_i$ , where  $i$  is an index, in our case counting the number of derivatives, by  $\xi^i u$ , where  $\xi$  is now a symbol. We see that the basic operation of differentiation, i.e. replacing  $u_i$  by  $u_{i+1}$ , is now replaced by multiplication with  $\xi$ , as is the case in Fourier transformation theory. If one has multiple  $u$ 's, as in  $u_i u_j$ , one replaces this by  $\frac{1}{2} (\xi_1^i \xi_2^j + \xi_1^j \xi_2^i) u^2$ . We have averaged over the permutation group  $\Sigma_2$  to retain complete equality among the symbols, reflecting the fact that  $u_i u_j = u_j u_i$ . Differentiation now becomes multiplication with  $\xi_1 + \xi_2$ .

With this method one can readily translate solvability questions into divisibility questions, which in the case of the class of equations considered in [Bak91], take the following form.

We shall work with the polynomials  $f_{a,m}$  defined by  $f_{a,m}(X) = a(X+1)^m - X^m - 1$ , where  $a$  is non-zero complex number. The question we deal with is the following.

**Question 1.1** *Given  $a, m$ , for which  $b \in \mathbf{C}$  and  $n \in \mathbf{N}$  does  $f_{a,m}$  divide  $f_{b,n}$ ?*

In the next section we explain how this question arises from the original question about the existence of symmetries of an evolution equation.

## 2 The symbolic method

In the symbolic method one replaces derivatives  $u_k, v_k$  by powers  $x^k u, y^k v$  (Usually one replaces  $u_k$  by  $x^k$ , but this leads to confusion in nonhomogeneous problems and in the more-variable case, since distinction between  $u$  and  $v$  disappears). When there are more  $u_k$ -s or  $v_k$ -s involved we add more symbols, one for every  $u_k$  or  $v_k$ . These will be denoted by  $x_i, y_i$ . E.g.  $v_2^2$  becomes  $\frac{1}{2} (y_1^2 + y_2^2) v^2$ . For the one-variable case, all definitions and proofs can be found in [SW97]. The generalization to the more variable case is straightforward. Since the specific equation we will be working on is very simple, we just write out the method for this case without giving the general theory. Consider the system (1) and rewrite it as  $(u_4 + v^2) \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + \frac{1}{5} v_4 \frac{\partial}{\partial v}$ . Its symbolic form is

$$(x_1^4 u + v^2) \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + \frac{1}{5} y_1^4 v \frac{\partial}{\partial v}$$

In order to compute the symmetries of our equation (1) we need the commutator of the linear part of the equation with an arbitrary homogeneous vectorfield (where  $x[m]$  stands for  $x_1, \dots, x_m$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} & [x_1^4 u \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + \frac{1}{5} y_1^4 v \frac{\partial}{\partial v}, A(x[m], y[l]) u^m v^l \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + B(x[n], y[k]) u^n v^k \frac{\partial}{\partial v}] = \\ & = \left( \left( \sum_{i=1}^m x_i + \sum_{i=1}^l y_i \right)^4 - \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^4 - \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^l y_i^4 \right) A(x[m], y[l]) u^m v^l \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \\ & + \left( \frac{1}{5} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \sum_{i=1}^k y_i \right)^4 - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^4 - \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^k y_i^4 \right) B(x[n], y[k]) u^n v^k \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \end{aligned}$$

**Remark 2.1** *At first sight we are losing some candidates (for being a symmetry) here, since we implicitly assume the vectorfield to be polynomial. As is shown in [Bak91], however, this is not a restriction.*

Putting this expression equal to zero, to find the lowest order term of our symmetry, we find that either  $A = 0$  or  $m = 1$  and  $l = 0$ ; also  $B = 0$  or  $n = 0$  and  $k = 1$ . So the zero<sup>th</sup> order term (i.e. the linear term) will be of the form

$$ax_1^p u \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + by_1^q v \frac{\partial}{\partial v}$$

Or, if we go back to our old notation,

$$\begin{cases} u_t &= au_p \\ v_t &= bv_q \end{cases}$$

We look for symmetries of a given order, so we may as well take  $q = p$  without loss of generality. Now computing the commutator of this zero<sup>th</sup> order part of the (potential) symmetry with the first order (quadratic) part of our equations, we obtain

$$[ax_1^p u \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + by_1^p v \frac{\partial}{\partial v}, \frac{1}{2}(y_1^0 + y_2^0)v^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial u}] = (a(y_1 + y_2)^p - b(y_1^p + y_2^p))v^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial u}$$

Defining  $f_{\lambda,p}(\xi, \eta) = \lambda(\xi + \eta)^p - (\xi^p + \eta^p)$ , we can now construct the quadratic terms of the symmetry as follows. Provided  $b \neq 0$ , we compute

$$[(x_1^4 u + v^2) \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + \frac{1}{5} y_1^4 v \frac{\partial}{\partial v}, (ax_1^p u + Av^2) \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + by_1^p v \frac{\partial}{\partial v}] = (\frac{1}{5} A f_{5,4} - b f_{\frac{a}{b},p})v^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial u}.$$

Let

$$\hat{A} = 5b f_{\frac{a}{b},q} / f_{5,4}$$

If  $\hat{A}$  is polynomial in  $y_1, y_2$ , then  $(ax_1^p u + \hat{A}v^2) \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + by_1^p v \frac{\partial}{\partial v}$  is a symmetry of system (1). Whether  $\hat{A}$  is indeed polynomial is answered by the following results.

**Theorem 2.2** *Let  $a \in \mathbf{C}$  be non-zero and  $m \in \mathbf{N}$ . We consider  $f_{a,m}$ . Suppose that at least one of the following conditions hold,*

1.  $m \geq 6$ ,
2.  $m = 4, 5$  and  $f_{a,m}$  has two zeros  $\alpha, \beta \neq 0, -1$  such that  $\alpha/\beta, (1 + \alpha)/(1 + \beta)$  or  $\alpha\beta, (1 + \alpha)/(1 + 1/\beta)$  are not simultaneously roots of unity.

*Then there exist at most finitely many pairs  $b \in \mathbf{C}, n \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $f_{a,m}$  divides  $f_{b,n}$ .*

This theorem will be proved in section 3.

**Conjecture 2.3** *Condition (2) of theorem 2.2 is violated in a finite number of cases, if any.*

We did not see how to show this. It looks to us like a challenging diophantine problem.

**Remark 2.4** *The case  $m = 2, 3$  is simple and treated in Appendix A.*

For particular given  $a, m$  it is often possible to compute the complete set of  $b, n$  explicitly. This will be done for the example  $a = 5, m = 4$  in section 4. Note that this is precisely Bakirov's example.

**Theorem 2.5** *Suppose  $f_{5,4}$  divides  $f_{b,n}$ . then  $(b, n)$  equals  $(5, 4)$  or  $(11, 6)$ .*

In the case  $(11, 6)$  we find  $\hat{A} = \frac{25}{22}y_2^2 + \frac{20}{11}y_1y_2 + \frac{25}{22}y_1^2$ .

We now translate these results back to results on symmetries of evolution equations.

**Corollary 2.6** *The system*

$$\begin{cases} u_t &= u_4 + v^2 \\ v_t &= \frac{1}{5}v_4 \end{cases}$$

*has one and only one nontrivial symmetry:*

$$\left( u_6 + \frac{5}{11}(5vv_2 + 4v_1^2) \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + \frac{1}{11}v_6 \frac{\partial}{\partial v}$$

**Conjecture 2.7** *The system*

$$\begin{cases} u_t &= u_m + v^2 \\ v_t &= \frac{1}{a}v_m \end{cases}$$

*has a finite number of symmetries for all but a finite number of values  $(a, m)$ .*

### 3 The Lech-Mahler theorem

In this section we prove Theorem 2.2.

In our considerations it is important to realise that  $f_{a,m}$  has double zeros for some values of  $a$ .

**Lemma 3.1** *Suppose that  $f_{a,m}$  has a multiple zero. Then this is given by an  $m-1$ st root of unity  $\zeta$  and  $a = 1/(\zeta+1)^{m-1}$ . Together with  $1/\zeta$  these are the only multiple zeros and they have multiplicity two.*

**Proof.** We solve the simultaneous equations  $f_{a,m}(x) = f'_{a,m}(x) = 0$  in  $x$ . Explicitly,  $a(x+1)^m = x^m + 1$  and  $a(x+1)^{m-1} = x^{m-1}$ . Multiply the second by  $x+1$  and subtract the equations. We obtain  $0 = 1 - x^{m-1}$ . Hence  $x$  is an  $m-1$ st root of unity and from the second equation we get  $a = 1/(1+x)^{m-1}$ . Since  $f''_{a,m}(X) = m(m-1)(a(X+1)^{m-2} - X^{m-2})$  we see that  $f''_{a,m}(x) = m(m+1)(1/(x+1) - 1/x) \neq 0$ . Hence  $x$  is a double zero. Suppose we have a second  $m-1$ st root of unity  $y$  such that  $a(1+y)^{m-1} = 1$ . In particular we find that  $|1+y| = |1+x|$  and  $|x| = |y|$ . This implies that either  $x = y$  or  $x = \bar{y} = 1/y$ . This proves our Lemma.  $\diamond$

For the proof of Theorem 2.2 shall use the following theorem from number theory [Lec53].

**Theorem 3.2 (Lech, Mahler)** *Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in \mathbf{C}$  be non-zero complex numbers and similarly for  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ . Suppose that none of the ratios  $A_i/A_j$  with  $i \neq j$  is a root of unity. Then the equation*

$$a_1 A_1^k + a_2 A_2^k + \dots + a_n A_n^k = 0$$

*in the unknown integer  $k$  has finitely many solutions.*

For us the following corollary is important

**Corollary 3.3** *Let  $A, B, C, D \in \mathbf{C}$  be non-zero complex numbers. Suppose that the equation*

$$A^k + B^k = C^k + D^k$$

*has infinitely many integers  $k$  with  $A^k + B^k \neq 0$  as solution. Then at least one of the pairs  $A/C, B/D$  or  $A/D, B/C$  consists of roots of unity.*

**Proof.** According to Theorem 3.2 at least one of the ratios  $A/B, A/C, A/D, B/C, B/D, C/D$  must be a root of unity. Without loss of generality we can assume  $A/B$  a root of unity or  $A/C$  a root of unity.

Suppose that  $A/C$  is an  $n$ th root of unity. Then, if we replace  $k$  by  $a + kn$  for  $a = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$  our problem falls into a finite number of problems of the form

$$(A^a - C^a)(A^n)^k + B^a(B^n)^k = D^a(D^n)^k$$

At least one of them has infinitely many solutions. Hence, according to Theorem 3.2, at least one of  $A/B, A/D, B/D$  is a root of unity. In the latter case we are done. Suppose, without loss of generality that  $A/B$  is an  $m$ th root of unity. As before, our problem can now be split into a finite number of problems of the form  $\alpha(A^{mn})^k = \beta(D^{mn})^k$  with  $\beta \neq 0$ . At least one of them has infinitely many solutions. Hence  $A/D$  is a root of unity. Together with  $A/B$  being a root of unity this implies that  $B/D$  is a root of unity, as asserted.

Suppose now that  $A/B$  is an  $n$ th root of unity. Our problem can be split into a finite number of problems of the form

$$(A^a + B^a)(A^n)^k = C^a(C^n)^k + D^a(D^n)^k$$

with  $A^a + B^a \neq 0$ . At least one equation has infinitely many solutions, hence at least one of  $A/C, A/D, C/D$  is a root of unity. The first case is treated above. The second case, after interchanging  $C$  and  $D$  comes down to  $A/C$  being a root of unity. Let us now assume  $C/D$  is an  $m$ th root of unity. We get a finite number of equations of the form  $\alpha(A^{mn})^k = \beta(C^{mn})^k$  with  $\beta \neq 0$ . Again by Theorem 3.2  $A/C$  is a root of unity. Hence we are done.  $\diamond$

**Proof of Theorem 2.2.** Let  $\alpha, \beta$  be complex zeros of  $f_{a,m}$  not equal to 0,  $-1$  such that condition (2) of Theorem 2.2 is satisfied.

If  $m=4,5$  such zeros exist by assumption. If  $m \geq 6$  such zeros also exist. We can see this as follows. If  $\alpha/\beta$  and  $(1+\alpha)/(1+\beta)$  were roots of unity we have in particular that  $|\alpha| = |\beta|$  and  $|1+\beta| = |1+\alpha|$ . This implies in particular that  $\alpha = \beta$  or  $\alpha = \bar{\beta}$ . If  $\alpha\beta$  and  $(1+\alpha)/(1+1/\beta)$  were roots of unity we conclude similarly that either  $\alpha = 1/\beta$  or  $\alpha = 1/\bar{\beta}$ . If  $f_{a,m}$  has only simple zeros and we can certainly choose zeros  $\alpha, \beta$  such that  $\alpha \neq \beta, \bar{\beta}, 1/\beta, 1/\bar{\beta}$ . In the case of double zeros we can take for  $\alpha$  such a double zero and for  $\beta$  a simple zero.

Note that  $f_{a,m}(\alpha) = 0$  implies  $(\alpha^m + 1)/(\alpha + 1)^m = a$  and similarly  $(\beta^m + 1)/(\beta + 1)^m = a$ . Hence

$$\left(\frac{1}{1+1/\alpha}\right)^m + \left(\frac{1}{\alpha+1}\right)^m = \left(\frac{1}{1+1/\beta}\right)^m + \left(\frac{1}{\beta+1}\right)^m.$$

Suppose  $f_{a,m}(X)$  divides  $f_{b,n}(X)$  for some  $b \in \mathbf{C}, n \in \mathbf{N}$ . Then we also have

$$\left(\frac{1}{1+1/\alpha}\right)^n + \left(\frac{1}{\alpha+1}\right)^n = \left(\frac{1}{1+1/\beta}\right)^n + \left(\frac{1}{\beta+1}\right)^n.$$

Suppose there are infinitely many such  $n$ . Then, according to Corollary 3.3, the ratios  $(1+1/\alpha)/(1+1/\beta)$ ,  $(1+\alpha)/(1+\beta)$  or  $(1+1/\alpha)/(1+\beta)$ ,  $(1+\alpha)/(1+1/\beta)$  are roots of unity. Let us assume the first. Then we see that the ratios  $\alpha/\beta$  and  $(1+\alpha)/(1+\beta)$  are roots of unity. This was excluded by our assumptions. We deal similarly with the second case.  $\diamond$

## 4 Skolem's method

In this section we prove Theorem 2.5.

We will assume that the reader is familiar with the concept of  $p$ -adic numbers. The set of  $p$ -adic numbers is denoted by  $\mathbf{Q}_p$  and the set of  $p$ -adic integers by  $\mathbf{Z}_p$ .

**Lemma 4.1** *Suppose  $p$  is an odd prime. Let  $A, B, C, D \in \mathbf{Z}_p$  and suppose they are not zero modulo  $p$ . Write*

$$A^{p-1} = 1 + p\alpha, \quad B^{p-1} = 1 + p\beta, \quad C^{p-1} = 1 + p\gamma, \quad D^{p-1} = 1 + p\delta$$

where  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in \mathbf{Z}_p$ . Denote for every  $m \in \mathbf{Z}$ ,  $u_m = A^m + B^m - C^m - D^m$ .

Let  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$  and suppose that  $u_k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Then  $u_{k+r(p-1)} \not\equiv 0$  for all  $r \in \mathbf{Z}$ .

Suppose  $u_k = 0$  and  $\alpha A^k + \beta B^k - \gamma C^k - \delta D^k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Then  $u_{k+r(p-1)} = 0$ ,  $r \in \mathbf{Z}$  implies  $r = 0$ .

**Proof.** Note that by Fermat's little theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} u_{k+r(p-1)} &= A^{k+r(p-1)} + B^{k+r(p-1)} - C^{k+r(p-1)} - D^{k+r(p-1)} \\ &\equiv A^k + B^k - C^k - D^k \equiv u_k \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

Since  $u_k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  we conclude that  $u_{k+r(p-1)} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  for all  $r \in \mathbf{Z}$  and our first statement follows.

Suppose  $u_{k+r(p-1)} = 0$  and assume  $r \geq 0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= A^{k+r(p-1)} + B^{k+r(p-1)} - C^{k+r(p-1)} - D^{k+r(p-1)} \\ &= A^k(1+p\alpha)^r + B^k(1+p\beta)^r - C^k(1+p\gamma)^r - D^k(1+p\delta)^r \\ &= \sum_{t=1}^r \binom{r}{t} p^t (A^k \alpha^t + B^k \beta^t - C^k \gamma^t - D^k \delta^t) \end{aligned}$$

Suppose that  $r \neq 0$ . We divide by  $pr$  and use the fact that  $\frac{1}{r}\binom{r}{t} = \frac{1}{t}\binom{r-1}{t-1}$  to obtain,

$$0 = A^k \alpha + \cdots - D^k \delta + \sum_{t=2}^r \binom{r-1}{t-1} \frac{p^{t-1}}{t} (A^k \alpha^t + \cdots - D^k \delta^t)$$

The summation is of course empty when  $r = 1$ . Since  $p \geq 3$  the number  $\frac{p^{t-1}}{t}$  has  $p$ -adic valuation less than  $1/p$ . So after reduction modulo  $p$  we obtain

$$0 \equiv A^k \alpha + B^k \beta - C^k \gamma - D^k \delta \pmod{p}$$

which contradicts our assumption. Hence we conclude  $r = 0$ . When  $r < 0$  we can repeat the above proof with  $A^{-1}, \dots, D^{-1}$  instead of  $A, B, C, D$ .  $\diamond$

**Proof of Theorem 2.5.** When  $f = f_{5,4}$  divides  $f_{b,n}$  this means in particular that the zeros of  $f$  are a subset of the zeros of  $f_{b,n}$ . This holds true in any field, also  $p$ -adic fields. Let  $r, s$  be two zeros of  $f$ . Then clearly,  $\frac{(r+1)^4}{r^4+1} = \frac{(s+1)^4}{s^4+1}$ . Suppose  $f$  divides  $f_{b,n}$  for some  $b, n$ . Then we also have  $\frac{(r+1)^n}{r^n+1} = \frac{(s+1)^n}{s^n+1}$  and hence  $((r+1)s)^n + (r+1)^n - ((s+1)r)^n - (s+1)^n = 0$ . Note that modulo 181 we have the factorisation

$$f \equiv 4(x-66)(x-139)(x-96)(x-56) \pmod{181}$$

Since 181 does not divide the discriminant of  $f$  this implies that  $f$  has four roots in  $\mathbf{Q}_{181}$ . Modulo  $181^2$  they read,

$$66 + 13 \cdot 181, 139 + 29 \cdot 181, 96 + 93 \cdot 181, 56 + 44 \cdot 181 \pmod{181^2}$$

We now apply Lemma 4.1 with  $p = 181$  and  $A = (r+1)s, B = r+1, C = r(s+1), D = s+1$ . We take  $r, s$  to be the first two roots. Then, modulo  $181^2$  we get

$$A \equiv 67 + 13 \cdot 181, B \equiv 82, C \equiv 140 + 29 \cdot 181, D \equiv 9 + 165 \cdot 181 \pmod{181^2}$$

We also compute modulo 181,

$$\alpha \equiv 33, \beta \equiv 46, \gamma \equiv 40, \delta \equiv 140 \pmod{181}$$

A straightforward computation shows that  $u_k \equiv 0 \pmod{181}$  and  $0 \leq k < 180$  yields  $k = 0, 1, 4, 6$ . Lemma 4.1 now implies that  $u_{k+180r} \not\equiv 0$  for all  $r$  when  $k \neq 0, 1, 4, 6$ . When  $k = 0, 1, 4$  or  $6$  we easily check that  $u_k = 0$  and  $\alpha A^k + \cdots - \delta D^k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{181}$ . Again, application of Lemma 4.1 shows that  $u_k = 0 \Rightarrow k = 0, 1, 4, 6$ . When  $k = 6$  we check that  $b = (r^6 + 1)/(r + 1)^6 = 11$  and  $f$  divides indeed  $11(x+1)^6 - x^6 - 1$ .  $\diamond$

We finally remark that the method sketched in this section works also for other cases. When  $(a, b, n, m) = (29, 3599, 4, 10)$  we can take  $p = 491$ . When  $(a, b, n, m) = (11, 14867171, 4, 28)$  or  $(a, b, n, m) = (17/3, 78719/81, 4, 16)$  we can take  $p = 101$ .

## A The cases $m = 2$ and $m = 3$

**Proposition A.1** *For  $m = 2, 3$  there exists for every  $a, b \neq 0$  and  $k > m$  a (nontrivial) symmetry of order  $k$  for the system*

$$\begin{cases} u_t &= au_m + v^2 \\ v_t &= bv_m \end{cases}$$

First we look at  $m = 2$ . We have to determine when

$$(a(y_1 + y_2)^2 - b(y_1^2 + y_2^2)) \mid (A(y_1 + y_2)^k - B(y_1^k + y_2^k)),$$

assuming that  $b \neq 0$  and  $k > 2$ . To this end, let  $X = y_1 + y_2$  and  $Y = y_1 y_2$ . We compute

$$A(y_1 + y_2)^k - B(y_1^k + y_2^k) \pmod{a(y_1 + y_2)^2 - b(y_1^2 + y_2^2)}.$$

Since  $a(y_1 + y_2)^2 - b(y_1^2 + y_2^2) = (a - b)X^2 + 2bY$  we can take  $Y = \frac{b-a}{2b}X^2$ . Let  $R_k = y_1^k + y_2^k$ . Then, for  $k > 2$ ,  $R_k = XR_{k-1} - YR_{k-2}$ . It follows that  $X^k \mid R_k$ . Since we want to solve  $0 = A(y_1 + y_2)^k - B(y_1^k + y_2^k) = AX^k - BR_k$ , we can simply take  $A = \frac{R_k}{X^k}B$ . This shows that the equation has a symmetry for all  $a, b \neq 0$  and all  $k > 2$ .

With minor modifications the same approach works for  $m = 3$ . Then  $0 = (a - b)X^2 + 3bY$  and everything works as before.  $\diamond$

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