

Using the “Freshman’s Dream” to Prove Combinatorial Congruences

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Abstract. In a recent beautiful but technical article, William Y.C. Chen, Qing-Hu Hou, and Doron Zeilberger developed an algorithm for finding and proving congruence identities (modulo primes) of indefinite sums of many combinatorial sequences, namely those (like the Catalan and Motzkin sequences) that are expressible in terms of constant terms of powers of Laurent polynomials. We first give a leisurely exposition of their elementary but brilliant approach, and then extend it in two directions. The Laurent polynomials may be of several variables, and instead of single sums we have multiple sums. In fact we even combine these two generalizations! We conclude with some **super-challenges**.

[Added June 26, 2016: Roberto Tauraso [T], has pointed out that most of our conjectured super-congruences are already known, except for super-congruence 6, for which he supplied a beautiful proof].

Introduction

In a recent elegant article ([CHZ]) the following type of quantities were considered

$$\left(\sum_{k=0}^{rp-1} a(k) \right) \bmod p ,$$

where

- $a(k)$ is a combinatorial sequence, expressible as the constant term of a power of a Laurent polynomial of a **single** variable (for example, the central binomial coefficient $\binom{2k}{k}$ is the coefficient of x^0 in $(x + \frac{1}{x})^{2k}$).
- r is a specific positive integer .
- p is an arbitrary prime .

Let $x \equiv_p y$ mean $x \equiv y \pmod{p}$, in other words, that $x - y$ is divisible by p .

The [CHZ] method, while ingenious, is very elementary! The main “trick” is:

The Freshman’s Dream Identity ([Wi]): $(a + b)^p \equiv_p a^p + b^p$.

Recall that the easy proof follows from the Binomial Theorem, and noting that $\binom{p}{k}$ is divisible by p except when $k = 0$ and $k = p$. This also leads to one of the many proofs of the **grandmother** of all congruences, **Fermat’s Little Theorem**, $a^p \equiv_p a$, by starting with $0^p \equiv_p 0$, and applying induction to $(a + 1)^p \equiv_p a^p + 1^p$.

The second ingredient in the [CHZ] method is even more elementary! It is:

Sum of a Geometric Series:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} z^i = \frac{z^n - 1}{z - 1} \quad .$$

The focus in the Chen-Hou-Zeilberger ([CHZ]) paper was both computer-algebra implementation, and proving a general theorem about a wide class of sums. Their paper is rather technical, so its beauty is lost to a wider audience. Hence the first purpose of the present article is to give a leisurely introduction to their method, and illustrate it with numerous illuminating examples. The second, main, purpose, however, is to extend the method in **two** directions. The summand $a(k)$, may be the constant term of a Laurent polynomial of **several** variables, and instead of a **single** summation sign, we can have *multi-sums*. In fact we can combine these two!

Notation

The constant term of a Laurent polynomial $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, alias the coefficient of $x_1^0 x_2^0 \dots x_n^0$, is denoted by $CT[P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)]$. The general coefficient of $x_1^{m_1} x_2^{m_2} \dots x_n^{m_n}$ in $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is denoted by $COEFF_{[x_1^{m_1} x_2^{m_2} \dots x_n^{m_n}]} P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$. For example,

$$CT \left[\frac{1}{xy} + 3 + 5xy - x^3 + 6y^2 \right] = 3 \quad , \quad COEFF_{[xy]} \left[\frac{1}{xy} + 3 + 5xy + x^3 + 6y^2 \right] = 5.$$

We use the symmetric representation of integers in $(-p/2, p/2]$ when reducing modulo a prime p . For example, $6 \bmod 5 = 1$ and $4 \bmod 5 = -1$.

Review of the Chen-Hou-Zeilberger Single Variable Case

In order to motivate our generalization, we will first review, in more detail than given in [CHZ], some of their elegant results. Let's start with the **Central Binomial Coefficients**, sequence A000984 in the great OEIS ([SI], <https://oeis.org/A000984>).

Proposition 1. For any prime $p \geq 5$, we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \binom{2n}{n} \equiv_p \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} . \end{cases}$$

Proof: Using the fact that

$$\binom{2n}{n} = CT \left[\frac{(1+x)^{2n}}{x^n} \right] \quad ,$$

and the Freshman's Dream identity, $(a+b)^p \equiv_p a^p + b^p$, we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \binom{2n}{n} = \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} CT \left[\left(\frac{(1+x)^{2n}}{x^n} \right) \right] = \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} CT \left[\left(2 + x + \frac{1}{x} \right)^n \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= CT \left[\frac{(2+x+\frac{1}{x})^p - 1}{2+x+\frac{1}{x}-1} \right] \equiv_p CT \left[\frac{2^p + x^p + \frac{1}{x^p} - 1}{1+x+\frac{1}{x}} \right] \quad (\text{By Freshman's Dream}) \\
&\equiv_p CT \left[\frac{2+x^p+\frac{1}{x^p}-1}{1+x+\frac{1}{x}} \right] \quad (\text{By Fermat's Little theorem}) \\
&= CT \left[\frac{1+x^p+\frac{1}{x^p}}{1+x+\frac{1}{x}} \right] = CT \left[\frac{1+x^p+x^{2p}}{(1+x+x^2)x^{p-1}} \right] = COEFF_{[x^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{1}{1+x+x^2} \right] \\
&= COEFF_{[x^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{1-x}{1-x^3} \right] = COEFF_{[x^p]} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x^{3i+1} \right) + COEFF_{[x^p]} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1) \cdot x^{3i+2} \right) .
\end{aligned}$$

The result follows from extracting the coefficient of x^p in the above geometrical series.

Proposition 1'.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{2p-1} \binom{2n}{n} \equiv_p \begin{cases} 3, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -3, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} . \end{cases}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n=0}^{2p-1} \binom{2n}{n} &= \sum_{n=0}^{2p-1} CT \left[\left(2+x+\frac{1}{x} \right)^n \right] = CT \left[\frac{(2+x+\frac{1}{x})^{2p} - 1}{2+x+\frac{1}{x}-1} \right] \\
&= CT \left[\frac{(6+4x+\frac{4}{x}+x^2+\frac{1}{x^2})^p - 1}{2+x+\frac{1}{x}-1} \right] \equiv_p CT \left[\frac{(6+4x^p+\frac{4}{x^p}+x^{2p}+\frac{1}{x^{2p}}) - 1}{2+x+\frac{1}{x}-1} \right] \\
&= COEFF_{[x^{2p-1}]} \left[\frac{1+4x^p}{1+x+x^2} \right] = COEFF_{[x^{2p-1}]} \left[\frac{1}{1+x+x^2} \right] + 4 \cdot COEFF_{[x^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{1}{1+x+x^2} \right] \\
&= COEFF_{[x^{2p-1}]} \left[\frac{1-x}{1-x^3} \right] + 4 \cdot COEFF_{[x^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{1-x}{1-x^3} \right] \\
&= COEFF_{[x^{2p-1}]} \left[\frac{1}{1-x^3} \right] + COEFF_{[x^{2p-1}]} \left[\frac{-x}{1-x^3} \right] + 4 \cdot COEFF_{[x^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{1}{1-x^3} \right] + 4 \cdot COEFF_{[x^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{-x}{1-x^3} \right] \\
&= COEFF_{[x^{2p}]} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x^{3i+1} \right] + COEFF_{[x^{2p}]} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1) \cdot x^{3i+2} \right] \\
&\quad + 4 \cdot COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x^{3i+1} \right] + 4 \cdot COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1) \cdot x^{3i+2} \right] .
\end{aligned}$$

The result follows from extracting the coefficients of x^{2p} in the first two geometrical series above, and the coefficient of x^p in the last two.

The same method (of [CHZ]) can be used to find the ‘mod p ’ of $\sum_{n=0}^{rp-1} \binom{2n}{n}$ for **any** positive integer r . This leads to the following proposition, whose somewhat tedious proof we omit.

Proposition 1'. For any prime $p \geq 5$, and any positive integer, r ,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{rp-1} \binom{2n}{n} \equiv_p \begin{cases} \alpha_r, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -\alpha_r, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} , \end{cases}$$

where

$$\alpha_r = \sum_{n=0}^{r-1} \binom{2n}{n} .$$

For the record, here are the first ten terms of the integer sequence α_r :

$$[1, 3, 9, 29, 99, 351, 1275, 4707, 17577, 66187] .$$

The sequence α_r is Sequence A6134 ([Sl], <https://oeis.org/A006134>). Note that α_r is the number of ways of tossing a coin $< 2r$ times and getting as many Heads as Tails.

The most *ubiquitous* sequence in combinatorics is sequence A000108 in the OEIS ([Sl], <https://oeis.org/A000108>, that according to Neil Sloane is the longest entry!), the super-famous *Catalan Numbers*, $C_n := \frac{(2n)!}{n!(n+1)!}$, that count *zillions* of combinatorial families (see [St] for some of the more interesting ones).

Proposition 2. Let C_n be the Catalan Numbers, then, for every prime $p \geq 5$,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} C_n \equiv_p \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -2, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} . \end{cases} .$$

Proof: Since $C_n = \binom{2n}{n} - \binom{2n}{n-1}$, it is readily seen that $C_n = CT[(1-x)(2+x+\frac{1}{x})^n]$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} C_n &= \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} CT \left[(1-x) \left(2+x+\frac{1}{x} \right)^n \right] = CT \left[\frac{(1-x) \left((2+x+\frac{1}{x})^p - 1 \right)}{2+x+\frac{1}{x}-1} \right] \\ &\equiv_p CT \left[\frac{(1-x) \left((2+x^p+\frac{1}{x^p}) - 1 \right)}{2+x+\frac{1}{x}-1} \right] = COEFF_{[x^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{1-x}{1+x+x^2} \right] = COEFF_{[x^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{(1-x)^2}{1-x^3} \right] \\ &= COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\frac{x}{1-x^3} \right] + COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\frac{-2x^2}{1-x^3} \right] + COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\frac{x^3}{1-x^3} \right] \\ &= COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} 1 \cdot x^{3i+1} \right] + COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-2) \cdot x^{3i+2} \right] + COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} 1 \cdot x^{3i+3} \right] , \end{aligned}$$

and the result follows from extracting the coefficient of x^p from the first or second geometric series above (note that we would never have to use the third geometrical series, since $p > 3$).

The same method (of [CHZ]) can be used to find the ‘mod p ’ of $\sum_{n=0}^{rp-1} C_n$ for **any** *specific* positive integer r . In fact, one can keep r general, but then the proof is rather tedious, and we will spare the readers (and ourselves, from typing it).

Proposition 2’. Let C_n be the Catalan Numbers, then, for any positive integer r , we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{rp-1} C_n \equiv_p \begin{cases} \beta_r, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -\gamma_r, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} , \end{cases}$$

where

$$\beta_r = \sum_{n=0}^{r-1} C_n \quad , \quad \gamma_r = \sum_{n=0}^{r-1} (3n+2)C_n \quad .$$

For the record, the first ten terms of the sequence of integer pairs $[\beta_r, -\gamma_r]$ are

$$[[1, -2], [2, -7], [4, -23], [9, -78], [23, -274], [65, -988], [197, -3628], [626, -13495], [2076, -50675], [6918, -191673]]$$

We note that the sequence β_r is sequence A014137 in the OEIS ([Sl], <https://oeis.org/A014137>) but at this time of writing (June 9, 2016), the sequence γ_r is not there (yet).

Not as famous as the Catalan numbers, but not exactly obscure, are the *Motzkin numbers*, M_n , sequence A001006 in the OEIS ([Sl], <https://oeis.org/A001006>), that may be defined by the constant term formula

$$M_n = CT \left[(1-x^2) \left(1+x+\frac{1}{x} \right)^n \right] \quad .$$

Proposition 3. Let M_n be the Motzkin numbers, then for any prime $p \geq 3$, we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} M_n \equiv_p \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} ; \\ -2, & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} . \end{cases}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} M_n &= \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} CT \left[(1-x^2) \left(1+x+\frac{1}{x} \right)^n \right] = CT \left[\frac{(1-x^2) \left(\left(1+x+\frac{1}{x} \right)^p - 1 \right)}{1+x+\frac{1}{x}-1} \right] \\ &\equiv_p CT \left[\frac{(1-x^2) \left(1+x^p+\frac{1}{x^p}-1 \right)}{1+x+\frac{1}{x}-1} \right] = CT \left[\frac{(1-x^2) \left(x^p+\frac{1}{x^p} \right)}{x+\frac{1}{x}} \right] = CT \left[\frac{x(1-x^2) \left(x^p+\frac{1}{x^p} \right)}{1+x^2} \right] \\ &= COEFF_{[x^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{1-x^2}{1+x^2} \right] = COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\frac{x}{1+x^2} \right] - COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\frac{x^3}{1+x^2} \right] \quad . \\ &= COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1)^i x^{2i+1} \right] + COEFF_{[x^p]} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{i+1} x^{2i+3} \right] \quad , \end{aligned}$$

and the result follows from extracting the coefficient of x^p from the first and second geometric series above, by noting that when $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, i is even in the first series, and odd in the second one, and vice-versa when $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

The same method, applied to a general r yields

Proposition 3'. Let M_n be the Motzkin numbers, and let $p \geq 3$ be prime, then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{rp-1} M_n \equiv_p \begin{cases} 2\delta_r, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} ; \\ -2\delta_r, & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} , \end{cases}$$

where δ_r is the sequence of partial sums of the central trinomial coefficients, sequence A097893 in the OEIS([Sl], <https://oeis.org/A097893>) whose generating function is

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \delta_r x^r = \frac{1}{(1-x) \sqrt{(1+x)(1-3x)}} \quad .$$

From the above proofs, it is easy to observe that partial sums with upper summation limit of the form $rp - 1$, for $r > 1$, can always be expressed in terms of the sum with upper summation limit $p - 1$. This observation leads us to the following simplification of Theorem 2.1 in [CHZ].

Theorem 4. Let $P(x)$ be a Laurent polynomial in x and let p be a prime. Let $R(x)$ be the denominator, after clearing, of the expression

$$\frac{P(x^p) - 1}{P(x) - 1} \quad .$$

Then, for any positive integer r and Laurent polynomial $Q(x)$,

$$\left(\sum_{n=0}^{rp-1} CT [P(x)^n Q(x)] \right) \bmod p \quad ,$$

is congruent to a finite linear combination of shifts of the sequence of coefficients of the rational function $\frac{1}{R(x)}$.

Multi-Sums and Multi-Variables

We now extend the Chen-Hou-Zeilberger method for discovery and proof of congruence theorems to multi-sums and multi-variables.

Proposition 5. Let $p \geq 5$ be prime, then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \sum_{m=0}^{p-1} \binom{n+m}{m}^2 \equiv_p \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} . \end{cases}$$

Proof: Let

$$P(x, y) = (1 + y) \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} \right) \quad ,$$

and

$$Q(x, y) = (1 + x) \left(1 + \frac{1}{y} \right) \quad ,$$

then

$$\binom{n+m}{m}^2 = \binom{n+m}{m} \binom{n+m}{n} = CT [P(x, y)^n Q(x, y)^m] \quad .$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{m=0}^{p-1} \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \binom{m+n}{m}^2 &= \sum_{m=0}^{p-1} \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} CT [P(x, y)^n Q(x, y)^m] = \sum_{m=0}^{p-1} CT \left[\frac{(P(x, y)^p - 1) Q(x, y)^m}{P(x, y) - 1} \right] \\ &= CT \left[\left(\frac{P(x, y)^p - 1}{P(x, y) - 1} \right) \left(\frac{Q(x, y)^p - 1}{Q(x, y) - 1} \right) \right] . \end{aligned}$$

Using the Freshman's Dream, $(a + b)^p \equiv_p a^p + b^p$, we can pass to mod p as above, and get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{m=0}^{p-1} \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \binom{m+n}{m}^2 &\equiv_p CT \left[\left(\frac{P(x^p, y^p) - 1}{P(x, y) - 1} \right) \left(\frac{Q(x^p, y^p) - 1}{Q(x, y) - 1} \right) \right] \equiv_p CT \left[\frac{(1 + y^p + x^p y^p)(1 + x^p + x^p y^p)}{(1 + y + xy)(1 + x + xy) x^{p-1} y^{p-1}} \right] \\ &\equiv_p COEFF_{[x^{p-1} y^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{(1 + y^p + x^p y^p)(1 + x^p + x^p y^p)}{(1 + y + xy)(1 + x + xy)} \right] \equiv_p COEFF_{[x^{p-1} y^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{1}{(1 + y + xy)(1 + x + xy)} \right] . \end{aligned}$$

It is possible to show that the coefficient of $x^n y^n$ in the Maclaurin expansion of the rational function $\frac{1}{(1+y+xy)(1+x+xy)}$ is 1 when $n \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, -1 when $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, and 0 when $n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. One way is to do a partial-fraction decomposition, and extract the coefficient of x^n , getting a certain expression in y and n , and then extract the coefficient of y^n . Another way is by using the Apagodu-Zeilberger algorithm ([AZ]), that outputs that the sequence of diagonal coefficients, let's call them $a(n)$, satisfy the recurrence equation $a(n+2) + a(n+1) + a(n) = 0$, with initial conditions $a(0) = 1, a(1) = -1$.

Based on computer calculations, we conjecture

Conjecture 5'. For any prime $p \geq 5$, and any pair of positive integers, r, s , we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{rp-1} \sum_{m=0}^{sp-1} \binom{n+m}{m}^2 \equiv_p \begin{cases} \epsilon_{rs}, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -\epsilon_{rs}, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} , \end{cases}$$

where

$$\epsilon_{rs} = \sum_{m=0}^{r-1} \sum_{n=0}^{s-1} \binom{n+m}{m}^2 .$$

We finally consider partial sums of *trinomial coefficients*.

Proposition 6. Let $p > 2$ be prime, then we have

$$\sum_{m_1=0}^{p-1} \sum_{m_2=0}^{p-1} \sum_{m_3=0}^{p-1} \binom{m_1 + m_2 + m_3}{m_1, m_2, m_3} \equiv_p 1 .$$

Proof: First observe that $\binom{m_1 + m_2 + m_3}{m_1, m_2, m_3} = CT \left[\frac{(x+y+z)^{m_1 + m_2 + m_3}}{x^{m_1} y^{m_2} z^{m_3}} \right]$.

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{0 \leq m_1, m_2, m_3 \leq p-1} \binom{m_1 + m_2 + m_3}{m_1, m_2, m_3} &= \sum_{0 \leq m_1, m_2, m_3 \leq p-1} CT \left[(x + y + z)^{m_1 + m_2 + m_3} / (x^{m_1} y^{m_2} z^{m_3}) \right] \\
&= CT \left[\sum_{0 \leq m_1, m_2, m_3 \leq p-1} \frac{(x + y + z)^{m_1 + m_2 + m_3}}{x^{m_1} y^{m_2} z^{m_3}} \right] \\
&= CT \left[\left(\sum_{m_1=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{x + y + z}{x} \right)^{m_1} \right) \left(\sum_{m_2=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{x + y + z}{x} \right)^{m_2} \right) \left(\sum_{m_3=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{x + y + z}{x} \right)^{m_3} \right) \right] \\
&= CT \left[\frac{\left(\frac{x+y+z}{x} \right)^p - 1}{\frac{x+y+z}{x} - 1} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{x+y+z}{y} \right)^p - 1}{\frac{x+y+z}{y} - 1} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{x+y+z}{z} \right)^p - 1}{\frac{x+y+z}{z} - 1} \right] \\
&= COEFF_{[x^{p-1} y^{p-1} z^{p-1}]} \left[\frac{(x + y + z)^p - x^p}{y + z} \cdot \frac{(x + y + z)^p - y^p}{x + z} \cdot \frac{(x + y + z)^p - z^p}{x + y} \right].
\end{aligned}$$

So far this is true for all p , not only p prime. Now take it mod p and get, using the Freshman's Dream in the form $(x + y + z)^p \equiv_p x^p + y^p + z^p$, that

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{m_1=0}^{p-1} \sum_{m_2=0}^{p-1} \sum_{m_3=0}^{p-1} \binom{m_1 + m_2 + m_3}{m_1, m_2, m_3} &\equiv_p COEFF_{[x^{p-1} y^{p-1} z^{p-1}]} \left(\frac{y^p + z^p}{y + z} \cdot \frac{x^p + z^p}{x + z} \cdot \frac{x^p + y^p}{x + y} \right) \\
&= COEFF_{[x^{p-1} y^{p-1} z^{p-1}]} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{p-1} (-1)^i y^i z^{p-1-i} \right) \left(\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} (-1)^j z^j x^{p-1-j} \right) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (-1)^k x^k y^{p-1-k} \right) \\
&= COEFF_{[x^{p-1} y^{p-1} z^{p-1}]} \left[\sum_{0 \leq i, j, k < p} (-1)^{i+j+k} x^{p-1-j+k} y^{i+p-1-k} z^{p-1-i+j} \right].
\end{aligned}$$

The only contributions to the coefficient of $x^{p-1} y^{p-1} z^{p-1}$ in the above triple sum come when $i = j = k$, so the desired coefficient of $x^{p-1} y^{p-1} z^{p-1}$ is

$$\sum_{i=0}^{p-1} (-1)^{3i} = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} (-1)^i = (1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \dots + 1 - 1) + 1 = 1 \quad . \quad \square$$

With more effort, one can get the following generalization.

Proposition 6'. Let $p \geq 3$ be prime, and let r, s, t be any positive integers, then

$$\sum_{m_1=0}^{rp-1} \sum_{m_2=0}^{sp-1} \sum_{m_3=0}^{tp-1} \binom{m_1 + m_2 + m_3}{m_1, m_2, m_3} \equiv_p \kappa_{rst} \quad ,$$

where

$$\kappa_{rst} = \sum_{m_1=0}^{r-1} \sum_{m_2=0}^{s-1} \sum_{m_3=0}^{t-1} \binom{m_1 + m_2 + m_3}{m_1, m_2, m_3} \quad .$$

The same method of proof used in Proposition 6 yields (with a little more effort) a *multinomial* generalization.

Proposition 7. Let $p \geq 3$ be prime, then

$$\sum_{m_1=0}^{p-1} \cdots \sum_{m_n=0}^{p-1} \binom{m_1 + \cdots m_n}{m_1, \dots, m_n} \equiv_p 1 .$$

In fact, the following also holds.

Proposition 7'. Let $p \geq 3$ be prime, and let r_1, \dots, r_n be positive integers, then

$$\sum_{m_1=0}^{r_1 p-1} \cdots \sum_{m_n=0}^{r_n p-1} \binom{m_1 + \cdots m_n}{m_1, \dots, m_n} \equiv_p \kappa_{r_1 \dots r_n} ,$$

where

$$\kappa_{r_1 \dots r_n} = \sum_{m_1=0}^{r_1-1} \cdots \sum_{m_n=0}^{r_n-1} \binom{m_1 + \cdots m_n}{m_1, \dots, m_n} .$$

Super Congruences

If a congruence identity that is valid modulo a prime p , is also valid modulo p^2 (or better still, modulo p^3 and beyond) then we have a *super-congruence*. The grandmother of all supercongruences is **Wolstenholme's Theorem** ([Wo], see also [We]) that asserts that

$$\binom{2p-1}{p-1} \equiv_{p^3} 1 ,$$

that improves on the weaker version $\binom{2p-1}{p-1} \equiv_{p^2} 1$, first proved by Charles Babbage ([B]), better known for more impressive innovations.

To our surprise, most (but not all!) the above congruences have super-congruence extensions. The method of [CHZ], as it stands now, is not applicable, since the “Freshman's Dream” is *only* valid modulo p , hence we have no clue how to prove them. We leave them as challenges to our readers.

Super-Conjecture 1. For any prime $p \geq 5$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \binom{2n}{n} \equiv_{p^2} \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} . \end{cases}$$

More generally

Super-Conjecture 1'. For any prime $p \geq 5$, and any positive integer, r ,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{rp-1} \binom{2n}{n} \equiv_{p^2} \begin{cases} \alpha_r, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -\alpha_r, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} , \end{cases}$$

where

$$\alpha_r = \sum_{n=0}^{r-1} \binom{2n}{n} .$$

Update, June 16, 2016: Dennis Stanton proved Super-Conjectures 1 and 1'. See his nice write-up

<http://www.math.rutgers.edu/~zeilberg/mamarim/mamarimhtml/freshmanDennisStanton.pdf>. His method should also work for Super-Conjectures 2, and probably 2'.

Update, June 17, 2016: Roberto Tauraso([T]) pointed out that Super-Conjecture 1 is already known, see [T] for references.

Super-Conjecture 2. Let C_n be the Catalan Numbers, then, for every prime $p \geq 5$,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} C_n \equiv_{p^2} \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -2, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} . \end{cases} .$$

Update, June 17, 2016: Roberto Tauraso([T]) pointed out that Super-Conjecture 2 is already known, see [T] for references..

More generally,

Super-Conjecture 2'. Let C_n be the Catalan Numbers, then, for any positive integer r , we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{rp-1} C_n \equiv_{p^2} \begin{cases} \beta_r, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -\gamma_r, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} , \end{cases}$$

where

$$\beta_r = \sum_{n=0}^{r-1} C_n \quad , \quad \gamma_r = \sum_{n=0}^{r-1} (3n+2)C_n .$$

We note that poor Motzkin does not seem to have a super-extension, but Proposition 5 sure does!

Super-Conjecture 5. Let $p \geq 5$ be prime, then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \sum_{m=0}^{p-1} \binom{n+m}{m}^2 \equiv_{p^2} \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} ; \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3} . \end{cases}$$

Update, June 17, 2016: Roberto Tauraso([T]) pointed out that Super-Conjecture 5 follows easily from what we called Super-Conjecture 1, see [T] for details.

More generally

Super-Conjecture 5’. For any prime $p \geq 5$, and any pair of positive integers, r, s , we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{rp-1} \sum_{m=0}^{sp-1} \binom{n+m}{m}^2 \equiv_{p^2} \begin{cases} \epsilon_{rs}, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}; \\ -\epsilon_{rs}, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, \end{cases}$$

where

$$\epsilon_{rs} = \sum_{m=0}^{r-1} \sum_{n=0}^{s-1} \binom{n+m}{m}^2.$$

The most pleasant surprise is that Propositions 6 and 6’ can be “upgraded” to a cubic super-congruence, i.e. it is still true modulo p^3 .

Super-Conjecture 6. Let $p > 2$ be prime, then we have

$$\sum_{m_1=0}^{p-1} \sum_{m_2=0}^{p-1} \sum_{m_3=0}^{p-1} \binom{m_1+m_2+m_3}{m_1, m_2, m_3} \equiv_{p^3} 1.$$

Update, June 17, 2016: Roberto Tauraso([T]) has supplied a beautiful proof, highly recommended.

More generally

Super-Conjecture 6’. Let $p \geq 3$ be prime, and let r, s, t be any positive integers, then

$$\sum_{m_1=0}^{rp-1} \sum_{m_2=0}^{sp-1} \sum_{m_3=0}^{tp-1} \binom{m_1+m_2+m_3}{m_1, m_2, m_3} \equiv_{p^3} \kappa_{rst},$$

where

$$\kappa_{rst} = \sum_{m_1=0}^{r-1} \sum_{m_2=0}^{s-1} \sum_{m_3=0}^{t-1} \binom{m_1+m_2+m_3}{m_1, m_2, m_3}.$$

To our bitter disappointment, Propositions 7 and 7’, for $n \geq 4$ summation signs, do not have super-upgrades.

Lots and Lots of Combinatorial Challenges

Perhaps the nicest proof of Fermat’s Little Theorem, $a^p \equiv_p a$, is Golomb’s ([G]) combinatorial proof, that notes that a^p is the number of (straight) necklaces with p beads, using beads of a different colors, and hence $a^p - a$ is the number of such (straight) necklaces that are not all of the same color. For any such necklace, all its p circular rotations are distinct (since p is prime), hence the set of such necklaces can be divided into families, each of them with p members, and hence there are $(a^p - a)/p$ ‘circular’ necklaces (without clasp), and this must be an integer.

Each and every quantity in the above propositions and conjectures counts a natural combinatorial family. For example $\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \binom{2n}{n}$ counts the number of binary sequences with the same number of

0's and 1's whose length is less than $2p$. Can you find a member of this set that when you remove it, and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, you can partition that set into families each of them with exactly p (or better still, for the super-congruence, p^2) members?, and when $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, can you find two such members?

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