

On some theorems in the theory of numbers.

By R. E. ALLARDICE, M.A.

The number of groups of  $n$  which may be selected from  $2n$  is  $2n(2n-1)\dots(n+1)/n!$  But make the  $2n$  into two groups of  $n$ , and select  $r$  out of the first and  $n-r$  out of the second. This gives  $[n(n-1)\dots(n-r+1)/r!] + [n(n-1)\dots(r+1)/(n-r)!]$  ways of thus making a group of  $n$ . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} * 2n(2n-1)\dots(n+1)/n! &= 1 + n^2 + [n(n-1)/2!]^2 + \dots \dots (1). \\ \therefore 2n(2n-1)\dots(n+1)/n! - 2 \\ &= n^2\{1^2 + [(n-1)/2!]^2 + [(n-1)(n-2)/3!]^2 + \dots\} \\ &= n^2\{P_1^2 + P_2^2 + \dots + P_{n-1}^2\} \text{ (say)}. \end{aligned}$$

We shall now show that  $P_1^2 + P_2^2 + \dots + P_{n-1}^2$  is divisible by  $n$ , if  $n$  be prime.

$P_r \equiv P_s \pmod{n}$ , if  $r+s=n$ , but not otherwise. For if  $P_r \equiv P_s \pmod{n}$ , ( $r > s$ ), then

$$\begin{aligned} (n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-r+1)/r! - (n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-s+1)/s! &\equiv 0; \\ \therefore \frac{(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-s+1)}{s!} \left\{ \frac{(n-s)(n-s-1)\dots(n-r+1)}{(s+1)(s+2)\dots r} - 1 \right\} &\equiv 0; \\ \therefore (n-s)(n-s+1)(n-s+2)\dots(n-r-1) - (s+1)(s+2)\dots r &\equiv 0; \\ \therefore \pm s(s+1)(s+2)\dots(r-1) - (s+1)(s+2)\dots r &\equiv 0; \\ \therefore -(s+1)(s+2)\dots(r-1)(\mp s+r) &\equiv 0; \end{aligned}$$

and this is true if  $r+s=n$  (otherwise obvious) and not in any other case. [If  $r+s=n$ , then  $r-s=n-2s$ , which is odd, and the lower sign is to be taken where the double sign is printed.]

It is obvious that  $P_r + P_s$  is not divisible by  $n$ ; and hence if we divide  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_{(n-1)/2}$  by  $n$ , we must get for remainders either 1 or  $n-1$  and either 2 or  $n-2$  and so on.

Now since  $(n-r)^2 = n^2 - 2nr + r^2 \equiv r^2 \pmod{n}$ , we must have

$$\begin{aligned} P_1^2 + P_2^2 + \dots + P_{(n-1)/2}^2 &\equiv 1^2 + 3^2 + 5^2 \dots + (n-2)^2 \\ &= n(n-1)(n-2)/6; \end{aligned}$$

which is divisible by  $n$  if  $n$  be any prime except 2 or 3.

From this, and the identity (1), it follows that

$$(2n-1)(2n-2)\dots(n+1) - (n-1)(n-2)\dots 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{n^2}.$$

\* The use of this identity was suggested to me by Professor Tait.

We shall next show that  $\left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n-1}\right)(n-1)!$  is divisible by  $n^2$ .\*

We have

$$\left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n-1}\right)(n-1)! = \left(\frac{n}{1 \cdot (n-1)} + \frac{n}{2 \cdot (n-2)} + \dots\right)(n-1)!$$

Hence we have to show that  $\left(\frac{1}{1 \cdot (n-1)} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot (n-2)} + \dots\right)(n-1)!$  is exactly divisible by  $n$ .

Assume  $(n-1)!/1 \cdot (n-1) = a_1, (n-1)!/2 \cdot (n-2) = a_2, \&c.$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} (r+1)^2 a_{r+1} - r^2 a_r &= (r+1)^2 \overline{(n-1)!} / (r+1)(n-r-1) - r^2 \overline{(n-1)!} / r(n-r) \\ &= \{(r+1)/(n-r-1) - r/(n-r)\} (n-1)! \\ &= (n!)/(n-r)(n-r-1) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}. \\ \therefore (r+1)^2 a_{r+1} &\equiv r^2 a_r \\ &\equiv (r-1)^2 a_{r-1} \\ &\dots \dots \dots \\ &\equiv 1^2 a_1 \\ &\equiv 1 \qquad \text{(by Wilson's theorem).} \end{aligned}$$

Hence we may write

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= n\mu_1 + 1 \\ 2^2 a_2 &= n\mu_2 + 1 \\ \dots \dots \dots \\ m^2 a_m &= n\mu_m + 1 \qquad \text{(where } m = (n-1)/2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore (m!)^2 \Sigma a_r = P \cdot n + (m!)^2 (1/1^2 + 1/2^2 + \dots + 1/m^2).$$

Now, if we assume  $(m!)/r \equiv a_r$ , we may easily show that  $a_r \pm a_s$  is not divisible by  $n$ , and hence that

$$a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_m^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{n},$$

which proves the theorem.

Consider again the result

$$A = (2n-1)(2n-2)\dots(n+1) - (n-1)(n-2)\dots 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{n^3}.$$

This gives

$$\begin{aligned} A &= (n + \overline{n-1})(n + \overline{n-2})\dots(n+1) - (n-1)(n-2)\dots 1 \\ &= n^{n-1} + p_1 n^{n-2} + \dots + p_{n+3} n^2 + p_{n-2} n, \end{aligned}$$

where 
$$\begin{aligned} p_{n-3} &= (n-1)! \Sigma (1/rs)(r+s) \\ p_{n-2} &= (n-1)! \Sigma (1/r). \end{aligned}$$

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\* Compare a paper by Mr Leudesdorf, in the *Proceedings of the Lond. Math. Soc.* for 1889, p. 199—a paper which I did not see till after the above was written.

Now  $p_{n-2}$  is divisible by  $n^2$ , and hence  $p_{n-3}$  is divisible by  $n$ .

This theorem may also be proved in the following manner:—

We have  $2(\overline{n-1})\Sigma(1/rs)$

$$= \{(\overline{n-1})/1.2 + (\overline{n-1})/1.3 + \dots + (\overline{n-1})/1.(n-1)\} (= P_1) \\ + \{(\overline{n-1})/2.1 + (\overline{n-1})/2.3 + \dots + (\overline{n-1})/2.(n-1)\} (= P_2) \\ + \dots \dots \dots$$

Now consider the terms of  $P_r$ , namely,

$$(\overline{n-1})/r.1, (\overline{n-1})/r.2, \dots, (\overline{n-1})/r.(r-1), (\overline{n-1})/r.(r+1), \text{ \&c.}$$

No two of these can be congruent; and

$$(\overline{n-1})/r.p + (\overline{n-1})/r.(n-p) = n!/r.p.(n-p) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}.$$

Hence if we divide each of the terms of  $P_r$  by  $n$ , we get as remainders all the numbers 1, 2, 3... $n-1$ , with the exception of that number which is complimentary to  $a_r$ , where  $a_r$

$$\equiv (\overline{n-1})/r.(n-r) \pmod{n}.$$

Hence the sum of all the remainders in  $2\Sigma(\overline{n-1})/rs$

$$= (n-1)(1 + 2 + \dots + \overline{n-1}) - 2(a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{(n-1)}) \\ = (n-1)^2n/2 - 2\{1/1.(n-1) + 1/2.(n-2) + \dots\}$$

which is divisible by  $n$ .

The theorem that the sum of the reciprocals of the numbers 1, 2, ... $\overline{n-1}$ , is divisible by  $n^2$ , when  $n$  is a prime, may be extended to the sum of the  $m^{\text{th}}$  powers of these numbers, where  $m$  is an integer, positive or negative.

Let  $S_m = 1^m + 2^m + \dots + (n-1)^m$ ; it being understood that if  $m$  is negative ( $= -l$ ), the sum of the powers is to be multiplied by  $(\overline{n-1})^l$ , so that it may be made integral.

Since, when  $n$  is prime the equation

$$(x-1)(x-2)\dots(x-\overline{n-1}) - x^{n-1} + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

has  $(n-1)$  incongruent solutions, each co-efficient is divisible by  $n$ . Hence, if  $m$  is positive,  $S_m$  is divisible by  $n$ , unless  $m$  is a multiple of  $(n-1)$ .

Suppose now that  $m$  is an odd positive integer and  $n \neq 2$ ; then

$$2 S_m = 2\Sigma a^m = \Sigma(a^m + \overline{n-a}^m) \\ = \Sigma\{a^m + n^m - {}_m C_1 n^{m-1} a + \dots + {}_m C_1 n a^{m-1} - a^m\} \\ \equiv n \Sigma {}_m C_1 a^{m-1} \equiv nm S_{m-1};$$

and  $S_{m-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ , unless  $m-1$  is a multiple of  $n-1$ ;

∴  $S_m \equiv 0 \pmod{n^2}$ , unless  $m-1$  is a multiple of  $n-1$ ;

and the theorem is true even in this last case if  $m$  is a multiple of  $n$ .

Now consider

$$S_{-m} = \{1 + 1/2^m + 1/3^m + \dots + 1/(n-1)^m\}(\overline{n-1})^m.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} 2 S_{-m} &= (\overline{n-1})^m \Sigma \{1/r^m + 1/(n-r)^m\} \\ &= (\overline{n-1})^m \Sigma \frac{(n-r)^m + r^m}{r^m(n-r)^m} \\ &= (\overline{n-1})^m \Sigma \frac{n^m - {}_m C_1 n^{m-1} r \dots + {}_m C_m n r^{m-1}}{r^m(n-r)^m} \\ &= (\overline{n-1})^m \Sigma \frac{P n^2 + {}_m C_1 n}{r(n-r)^m}. \end{aligned}$$

We have thus to show that  ${}_m C_1 (\overline{n-1})^m \Sigma \{1/r(n-r)^m\}$  is divisible by  $n$ . We shall suppose, for the sake of clearness, that  $m$  is less than  $n$ ; but the following method will be applicable, even if  $m$  be greater than  $n$ .

Assume  $(\overline{n-1})^m / \{(n-r)r^m\} \equiv a_r \pmod{n}$   
 $\therefore (\overline{n-1})^m \equiv a_r (n-r)r^m$   
 $\therefore a_r (n-r)r^m \equiv -1$  (by Wilson's theorem).  
 Now since  $(n-r)^{n-1} \equiv r^{n-1} \equiv 1$ , we get  
 $a_r \equiv -r^{n-m-1}(n-r)^{n-2}$   
 $\therefore a_r \equiv r^{n-m-1} r^{n-2} \pmod{n}$   
 $\equiv r^{n-m-2}$

Hence  $\Sigma a_r \equiv \Sigma r^{n-m-2}$   
 $\equiv 0$ , if  $n-m-2 \neq 0$ .

It follows that  $S_{-m}$  is divisible by  $n$ ,  $m$  being subject to the restriction  $n-m-2$  be not zero. If we remove the condition that  $m$  is to be less than  $n$ , we shall easily find that the general restriction as to the value of  $m$ , is that  $m+1$  must not be a multiple of  $n-1$ .

In the paper referred to before in a footnote, Mr Leudesdorf considers the case where  $n$  is not prime and  $S_m$  denotes the sum of the  $m^{\text{th}}$  powers of the numbers less than  $n$  and prime to it. His method however cannot be considered rigorous, as it involves the use of divergent series.

**Note on normals to conics.**

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1. The following condition may be new; it does not appear in any of the books:—

The condition that the straight line