

Prime divisibility of binomial coefficients

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We write

$$\binom{n}{k} \text{ to mean } \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!}. \quad \text{Say as “}n \text{ choose }k\text{”}.$$

That is,

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{k \cdot (k-1) \cdot (k-2) \cdots 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot (n-k)!}.$$

Example:

$$\binom{5}{2} = \frac{5!}{2! \cdot 3!} = \frac{120}{2 \cdot 6} = 10.$$

The numbers $\binom{n}{k}$ are called *binomial coefficients*.

We'll explain why soon.

Why care about $\binom{n}{k}$? At least 3 reasons.

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Reason 1: $\binom{n}{k}$ is the number of ways to choose a set of k elements out of a set of n elements.

Example: Forming a team of 3 people from 6 people, you could:

Choose a 1st person (in 6 ways)

Choose a 2nd person (in 5 ways)

Choose a 3rd person (in 4 ways)

Then notice the order of choosing didn't matter.

Since there are $3! = 6$ ways of ordering 1st, 2nd, 3rd,

$$\text{total \# of possible teams} = \binom{6}{3} = \frac{6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4}{3!} = 20.$$

Why care about $\binom{n}{k}$? Choosing sets!

Example: Possible teams of 3 from 6 mathematicians
Alice, Bob, Cvetko, Daša, Erika, and Franci.

ABC

ABD

ABE

ABF

ACD

BCD

ACE

BCE

ACF

BCF

ADE

BDE

CDE

ADF

BDF

CDF

AEF

BEF

CEF

DEF

(You might notice that $\binom{6}{3} = \binom{5}{2} + \binom{4}{2} + \binom{3}{2} + \binom{2}{2}$.)

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Reason 2: $\binom{n}{k}$ is the coefficient of x^k in $(1+x)^n$.

Example: To find $(1+x)^6$, expand it out:

$$(1+x) \cdot (1+x) \cdot (1+x) \cdot (1+x) \cdot (1+x) \cdot (1+x)$$

To get an x^k choose a set of k of the factors A, B, C, D, E, F to provide an x in the multiplication algorithm.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{So } (1+x)^6 &= 1 + \binom{6}{1} \cdot x + \binom{6}{2} \cdot x^2 + \binom{6}{3} \cdot x^3 + \binom{6}{4} \cdot x^4 + \dots \\ &= 1 + 6x + 15x^2 + 20x^3 + 15x^4 + 6x^5 + x^6.\end{aligned}$$

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Why care about $\binom{n}{k}$? Powers of $(1+x)$ coefficients!

You might have seen the coefficients of $(1+x)^n$ before through *Pascal's triangle* (another approach to binomial coefficients).

Here's a picture of Pascal:



(scan of a c.1690 painting, from Wikipedia)

Why care about $\binom{n}{k}$? Symmetry!

Reason 3: Symmetry!

Weill Cornell Medical College, Doha Qatar.

The icosohedral lecture hall and lattice work are both highly symmetric.



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One kind of symmetry: rearranging (reordering) elements in a set.

Example: Rearrange ABCDEF to ACBDEF or to FEDCBA.

Question: How many rearrangements are there?

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So $\binom{n}{k}$ is the ratio of the above two! (**Group Theory.**)

Our problem:

For a number n , must there be primes p, r so that

$$\binom{n}{1}, \binom{n}{2}, \binom{n}{3}, \binom{n}{4}, \dots, \binom{n}{n-2}, \binom{n}{n-1}$$

are all divisible by at least one of the two primes?



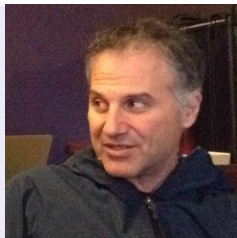
Motivation: Problems on symmetry.

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primes pairs 2, 3 or 2, 5 or 3, 5 “work”.

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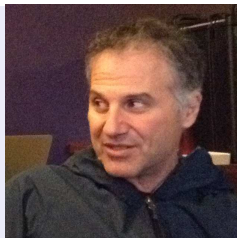
$$n = 15 : \quad \binom{15}{1} = 15, \binom{15}{2} = 105, \binom{15}{3} = 455, \binom{15}{4} = 1365,$$

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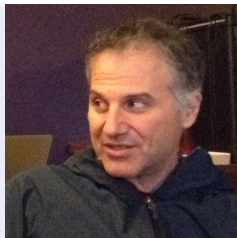
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primes pairs 3, 5 or 3, 13 or 5, 13 “work”.

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Notation: Let p divide $n = \frac{n!}{(n-1)!} = \binom{n}{1}$.

Let r be the other prime. (Usually “pretty big”.)

Bob Guralnick, Shareshian, and I showed:

The answer is “yes” for all $n \leq 10^{15} = 1,000,000,000,000,000$.

Arithmetic modulo p

To organize our algebra, we use *arithmetic modulo* p . Write \equiv_p .

In this arithmetic we work as if the number p is 0.

Thus, also $2p \equiv_p 3p \equiv_p \cdots \equiv_p 0$, while

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The coefficients of $(1 + x)^n$ can simplify nicely modulo p :

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If p is a prime, then

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More generally, for any power p^a , it holds that

$$(1 + x)^{p^a} \equiv_p 1 + x^{p^a}.$$

Main lemma

Applying the same idea as for 15 with $r = 13$ and $p = 3$ or 5, Shareshian and I proved:

Lemma: If n is a positive integer and p, r are primes so that p^a divides n , and also

$$r < n < r + p^a,$$

then at least one of p, r divide each binomial coefficient of n .

Example: $n = 15, r = 13,$ or $n = 300, r = 293$.

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Out to 10^{15} , the condition of the lemma is met for all about about 26 million numbers. *(Checked in 10 days with 15 parallel threads.)*

The same lemma is also useful for non-computational work.

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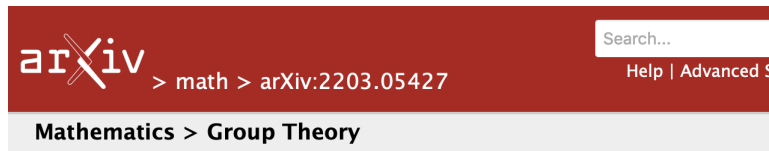
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Asymptotic density 1 means that large numbers where the condition is not met become vanishingly rare. The Riemann hypothesis is a famous conjecture about the distribution of primes.

This helps to predict why there are only a few failures out to 10^{15} . (Well, 26 million.)

Joni Teräväinen improved on these ideas to show (without RH) that the binomial divisibility question has a “yes” answer with asymptotic density 1.



The image shows a screenshot of the arXiv preprint website header. On the left is the arXiv logo. To its right are navigation links: > math > arXiv:2203.05427. On the far right is a search bar with the text "Search..." and a link for "Help | Advanced Search". Below the navigation links is a breadcrumb trail: "Mathematics > Group Theory".

[Submitted on 10 Mar 2022]

Almost all alternating groups are invariably generated by two elements of prime order

Joni Teräväinen

We show that for all $n \leq X$ apart from $O(X \exp(-c(\log X)^{1/2}(\log \log X)^{1/2}))$ exceptions, the alternating group A_n is invariably generated by two elements of prime order. This answers (in a quantitative form) a question of Guralnick, Shareshian and Woodroffe.

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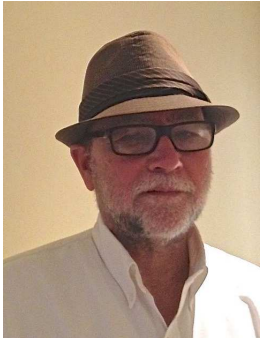
...

Challenge problem:

Find p, r for $n = 31416$ so that every binomial coefficient of n is divisible by p or r .

Hint: Try $r = 7853 \approx n/4$.

Coauthors



Thank you!



Related book:

Concrete Mathematics, by R. Graham, D. Knuth, and O. Patashnik.

A readable introduction to mathematics around binomial coefficients and other nice topics. (Advanced high school level.)

Papers are linked from my webpage.

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