### PASCAL'S TRIANGLE MODULO 4

#### Kenneth S. Davis

Albion College, Albion, MI 49224

William A. Webb

Washington State University, Pullman, WA 99164-2930
(Submitted March 1989)

# Introduction

Pascal's triangle has a seemingly endless list of fascinating properties. One such property which has been extensively studied is the fact that the number of odd entries in the  $n^{\text{th}}$  row is equal to  $2^t$  where t is the number of ones in the base two representation of n (see [1], [2], and [3]).

Generalizations of this property seem surprisingly difficult. For a prime modulus, Hexel & Sachs [4] obtain a rather involved expression for the number of occurrences of each residue. Explicit formulas are obtained for p=3 and 5. In particular, for a prime modulus p, the number of occurrences for a given residue in row n depends only on the number of times each digit appears in the base p representation of n. However, it is easily seen that composite moduli do not satisfy this property. In this article we consider Pascal's triangle modulo 4 and obtain explicit formulas for the number of occurrences of each residue modulo 4.

### Notation and Conventions

The letters n, j, k,  $\ell$  will denote nonnegative integers. The letter n will typically refer to an arbitrary row of Pascal's triangle. We will need detailed information on the base two representation of n. The following definitions will be useful.

Let

$$n = \sum_{i=0}^{k} a_i 2^i$$
, where  $a_i = 0$  or 1, and  $B(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} a_i$ .

We also define

$$c_i$$
 = 1 if and only if  $a_{i+1}$  = 1 and  $a_i$  = 0, where  $a_{k+1}$  = 0.

We then define

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} c_i.$$

Similarly, we define

$$d_i = (a_{i+1})(a_i)$$
 and  $D(n) = \sum_{i=0}^k d_i$ .

Clearly, B(n) is the number of "1"; C(n) is the number of "10"; and D(n) is the number of "11" blocks, not necessarily disjoint, in the base two representation of n.

For our purposes,

$$\binom{n}{j} = \frac{n!}{j!(n-j)!}$$

is defined for integer values of n and j; further,

$$\binom{n}{j} = 0 \text{ if } j < 0 \text{ or } j > n.$$

We define  $\binom{n}{j} = r$  if and only if  $\binom{n}{j} \equiv r \pmod{4}$ .

Let  $N(n) = (\alpha, b, c)$ , where  $N_1(n) = \alpha$  is the number of ones,  $N_2(n) = b$  is the number of twos, and  $N_3(n) = c$  is the number of threes in the  $n^{\rm th}$  row of Pascal's triangle.

We will make use of several well-known results found in Singmaster [5].

Lemma 1:  $p^{e} \left| \binom{n}{j} \right|$  if and only if the p-ary subtraction n-j has e borrows.

Lemma 2: The number of odd binomial coefficients in the  $n^{\rm th}$  level of Pascal's triangle is  $2^{B(n)}$ .

We begin our work with an easy result which we prove for completeness.

Lemma 3:  $N(2^k) = (2, 1, 0)$  when  $k \ge 1$ .

Proof: Clearly

$$\left\langle {2^k \atop 0} \right\rangle = \left\langle {2^k \atop 2^k} \right\rangle = 1$$

so  $N_1(2^k) \ge 2$ . By Lemma 2,

$$N_1(2^k) + N_3(2^k) = 2.$$

So  $N_1(2^k)=2$  and  $N_3(2^k)=0$ . Further, for  $0< j< 2^{k-1}$ ,  $2^k-j$  will have at least two borrows when performed in base two. Thus,

$$4\left|\binom{2^k}{j}\right|$$
; hence,  $\binom{2^k}{j} = 0$ .

Similarly, for  $2^{k-1} < j < 2^k$ . Noticing

$$\left\langle \begin{array}{c} 2^k \\ 2^{k-1} \end{array} \right\rangle = 2,$$

we conclude  $N_2(2^k) = 1$ .  $\square$ 

Lemma 4: Let  $n = 2^k + \ell$ , where  $0 < \ell < 2^k$ .

- (i) If  $\ell < j < 2^{k-1}$ , then  $\binom{n}{j} = 0$ .
- (ii) If  $\ell < j < 2^k$ , then  $\binom{n}{j} = 0$  or 2.

*Proof:* In case (i), we must borrow at least twice in subtracting n-j, and in case (ii), at least one borrow must take place.

By Lemmas 3 and 4, it is clear that Pascal's triangle modulo 4 has the following form:  $\hfill \hfill \hfi$ 

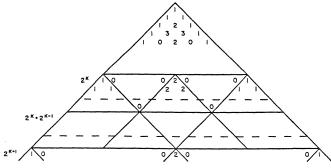


Figure 1

The standard identity

$$\left\langle {n \atop j-1} \right\rangle + \left\langle {n \atop j} \right\rangle = \left\langle {n+1 \atop j} \right\rangle$$

shows that any row in Figure 1 completely determines all subsequent rows. This identity and Lemma 3 yield the following recursive relations.

Part 1: If  $n = 2^k + \ell$ , where  $0 \le \ell < 2^{k-1}$  (see upper dashed line in Fig. 1):

(i) 
$$\binom{n}{j} = \binom{\ell}{j}$$
 for  $0 \le j \le \ell$ ;

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{(i)} \; \left\langle {{_{j}^{n}}} \right\rangle = \left\langle {{_{j}^{k}}} \right\rangle & \text{for } 0 \, \leq \, j \, \leq \, k; \\ \\ \text{(ii)} \; \left\langle {{_{j}^{n}}} \right\rangle = \left\langle {{_{j}^{k}}} \right\rangle = \, 0 & \text{for } \, \ell \, + \, 1 \, \leq \, j \, < \, 2^{k-1}; \\ \end{array}$$

(iii) 
$$\binom{n}{j} = 2\binom{1}{j-2^{k-1}}$$
 for  $2^{k-1} \le j \le 2^{k-1} + 1$ ;

(iv) 
$$\binom{n}{j} = 0$$
 for  $2^{k-1} + \ell < j < 2^k$ ;

Part 2: If  $n = 2^k + \ell$ , where  $2^{k-1} \le \ell < 2^k$  (see lower dashed line in Fig. 1):

(vi) 
$$\langle n \rangle = \langle n \rangle$$
 for  $0 \le j < 2^{k-1}$ ;

(vii) 
$$\binom{n}{j} = \binom{k}{j} + 2\binom{k}{j-2^{k-1}}$$
 for  $2^{k-1} \le j \le k$ ;

(viii) 
$$\binom{n}{j} = 2 \binom{1}{j-2^{k-1}}$$
 for  $k < j < 2^k$ ;

(ix) 
$$\langle n \rangle = 2 \langle j - 2^{k-1} \rangle + \langle j - 2^k \rangle$$
 for  $2^k \le j \le k + 2^k$ 

(x) 
$$\binom{n}{j} = \binom{\ell}{j-2^k}$$
 for  $2^{k-1} + \ell < j \le n$ .

All of the expressions above are considered modulo 4.

We are now in a position to count the number of ones and threes modulo 4. Recall that D(n) > 0 if and only if the base two representation of n has a "ll"

Theorem 5: If D(n) = 0, then  $N_1(n) = 2^{B(n)}$  and  $N_3(n) = 0$ .

*Proof:* We use induction on n. The theorem is true for  $n \le 3$ . Since D(n) = 0, we know  $n = 2^k + \ell$ , where  $\ell < 2^{k-1}$  and  $D(\ell) = 0$ . Using (iii) of the recursion, we have

$$\left\langle {n \atop j} \right\rangle \equiv 2 \left\langle {j - 2^{k-1}} \right\rangle \pmod{4}$$

for  $2^{k-1} \leq j < 2^k$ . Thus, there are no threes in this section of the  $n^{\text{th}}$  row of Pascal's triangle. By (i) and (v), we see

$$\left\langle {n\atop j}\right\rangle = \left\langle {1\atop j}\right\rangle \text{ for } j < 2^{k-1} \quad \text{and} \quad \left\langle {n\atop j}\right\rangle = \left\langle {1\atop j-2^{k-1}}\right\rangle \text{ for } j > 2^k.$$

Thus,  $N_3(n) = 2N_3(\ell)$ . But by induction,  $N_3(\ell) = 0$ . The theorem now follows from Lemma 2.  $\square$ 

Theorem 6: If D(n) > 0, then  $N_1(n) = N_3(n) = 2^{B(n)-1}$ .

Proof: The result is clear for  $n \le 4$ .

#### PASCAL'S TRIANGLE MODULO 4

Case 1:  $n=2^k+\ell$ , where  $\ell<2^{k-1}$ . Clearly,  $D(\ell)>0$ . When considering  $\binom{n}{j}$ , by the recursion, we need only consider  $j\leq \ell$  or  $2^k\leq j$ . For  $0\leq j\leq \ell$ , there are as many ones and threes as in row  $\ell$ . By symmetry, there are as many for  $2^k\leq j$ . Thus,  $N_1(n)=2N_1(\ell)$  and  $N_3(n)=2N_3(\ell)$ , so the result holds by induction.

Case 2:  $n=2^k+\ell$ , where  $2^{k-1} \le \ell < 2^k$ . Let  $\ell=2^{k-1}+r$ . Consider the five sections of row n:

- A.  $0 \le j < 2^{k-1}$ ;
- B.  $2^{k-1} \leq j \leq k$ ;
- C.  $\ell < j < 2^k$ ;
- D.  $2^{k} \le j \le k + 2^{k-1}$ ;
- E.  $\ell + 2^{k-1} < j \le \ell + 2^k = n$ .

By symmetry, A = E and B = D. In section C, by (viii),

$$\langle n \rangle = 2 \langle n \rangle,$$

and there are no ones or threes in C.

In section A,

$$\binom{n}{j} = \binom{k}{j}$$
 for  $0 \le j < 2^{k-1}$ .

Since we are trying to count the number of times  $\langle j^{\hat{k}} \rangle = 1$  or 3, by Lemma 4, we need only consider  $j \leq r$ .

In section B,

$$\left\langle {\stackrel{n}{j}} \right\rangle = \left\langle {\stackrel{\ell}{j}} \right\rangle + 2 \left\langle {\stackrel{\ell}{j} - 2^{k-1}} \right\rangle.$$

Now, by Lemma 1,  $\langle j^k \rangle$  and  $\langle j^{-\frac{k}{2}k-1} \rangle$  are both odd or both even. We need only consider the case when they are both odd. Thus,

$$2\langle i - 2^{k-1} \rangle \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$$
.

Observing  $x + 2 \equiv 3x$  if  $x \equiv 1$  or 3 (modulo 4), we have

$$\left\langle {n\atop j}\right\rangle \equiv 3\left\langle {\ell\atop j}\right\rangle \equiv 3\left\langle {\ell\atop \ell-j}\right\rangle \pmod{4}$$
.

Since we are in section B,  $2^{k-1} \le j \le \ell$ , and recalling that  $\ell = 2^{k-1} + r$ , we see that  $0 \le \ell - j \le r$ , that is,  $\binom{\ell}{\ell-j}$  is in section A.

This implies the number of ones in section A equals the number of threes in section B and the number of threes in section A equals the number of ones in section B. Hence, there are an equal number of ones and threes in the combined sections of A and B; thus,  $N_1(n) = N_3(n)$ . The theorem now follows from Lemma 2.  $\square$ 

Theorem 7:  $N_2(n) = C(n)2^{B(n)-1}$ .

Proof: Recall that

$$\left\langle {n\atop j}\right\rangle$$
 = 2 if and only if  $2\left\| {n\choose j} \right\|$ ,

which occurs if and only if n-j has exactly one borrow in base two. Thus, we wish to count the number of j's such that n-j has exactly one borrow. Suppose the borrow occurs from position i+1 to position i. If

$$n = \sum_{i=0}^{k} a_i 2^i$$
 and  $j = \sum_{i=0}^{k} b_i 2^i$ ,

then  $a_{i+1}=1$  and  $a_i=0$ ,  $b_{i+1}=0$  and  $b_i=1$ . Thus, if C(n)=0, it follows that  $N_2(n)=0$ .

So we assume  $\mathcal{C}(n) \geq 1$ . To ensure no other borrow occurs, it must be the case that  $b_{\ell} = 0$  when  $a_{\ell} = 0$  for  $\ell \neq i$ . When  $a_{\ell} = 1$ ,  $\ell \neq i+1$ ,  $b_{\ell}$  may equal 0 or 1. So for each "10" in n's representation, there are  $2^{B(n)-1}$  j's for which  $\binom{n}{j} = 2$ . Thus,  $N_2(n) = C(n)2^{B(n)-1}$ .  $\square$ 

To summarize, we have

$$N(n) = \begin{cases} (2^{B(n)}, C(n)2^{B(n)-1}, 0) & \text{if } D(n) = 0, \\ (2^{B(n)-1}, C(n)2^{B(n)-1}, 2^{B(n)-1}) & \text{if } D(n) > 0. \end{cases}$$

Recurrences of the type used here are possible for other composite moduli, but they become increasingly complex. A complete characterization of the residues modulo 6 would be interesting, since 6 is not a prime power. Also, the question of general results for arbitrary composite moduli remains open.

## References

- 1. L. Carlitz. "The Number of Binomial Coefficients Divisible by a Fixed Power
- of a Prime." Rend. Circ. Mat. Palermo (II) 16 (1967):299-320.

  N. J. Fine. "Binomial Coefficients Modulo a Prime." Amer. Math. Monthly 54 (1947):589-92.
- 3. H. Harborth. "Number of Odd Binomial Coefficients." Proc. Amer. Math. Soc. 62 (1977):19-24.
- 4. E. Hexel & H. Sachs. "Counting Residues Modulo a Prime in Pascal's Triangle." Indian J. Math. 20 (1978):91-105.
- 5. D. Singmaster. "Divisibility of Binomial and Multinomial Coefficients by Primes and Prime Powers." A Collection of Manuscripts Related to the Fibonacci Sequence. Santa Clara, Calif: The Fibonacci Association, 1980, pp. 98-113.