

# WILSON'S THEOREM VIA EULERIAN NUMBERS

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## INTRODUCTION

In 1770, Edward Waring, in a work entitled "Meditationes Algebraicae," announced without proof the following result, which he attributed to his student, John Wilson:

If  $p$  is prime, then  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ .

This statement, now known as Wilson's Theorem, was first proved by Lagrange in 1771, and may have been known earlier by Leibniz.

In this note, we present a new proof of Wilson's Theorem, based on properties of Eulerian numbers, which are defined below. Consider the following triangular array, which is somewhat reminiscent of Pascal's triangle.

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc}
 & & & & 1 & & & & \\
 & & & & 1 & & 1 & & \\
 & & & 1 & 4 & & 1 & & \\
 & & 1 & 11 & 11 & & 1 & & \\
 & 1 & 1 & 26 & 66 & & 26 & 1 & \\
 1 & & 57 & 302 & 302 & & 57 & & 1 \\
 & & & & \vdots & & & & 
 \end{array}$$

The numbers that appear in this array were first discovered by Euler [1] and are known as *Eulerian numbers*. Following Knuth [2], we denote the  $k^{\text{th}}$  entry in row  $n$  by  $\langle n \rangle_k$ , where  $1 \leq k \leq n$ .

Eulerian numbers may be defined recursively via:

$$\langle n \rangle_1 = \langle n \rangle_n = 1; \quad \langle n \rangle_k = k \langle n-1 \rangle_k + (n+1-k) \langle n-1 \rangle_{k-1} \quad \text{if } 2 \leq k \leq n-1. \quad (1)$$

(See [2], p. 35, eq. (2).)

They enjoy a symmetry property:

$$\langle n \rangle_k = \langle n \rangle_{n+1-k} \quad \text{for all } k \text{ such that } 1 \leq k \leq n. \quad (2)$$

Adding all the Eulerian numbers in a given row, we get

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \langle n \rangle_k = n! \quad (3)$$

Furthermore,

$$\langle n \rangle_k = \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^j (k-j)^n \binom{n+1}{j}. \quad (4)$$

**Remarks:** (2) follows easily from (1), (3) follows from (1), using induction on  $n$ , and (4) is equation (13) on page 37 in [2].

We will also need

**Definition 1:** If  $m$  and  $n$  are integers larger than 1 and  $k$  is a nonnegative integer, we say that  $O_n(m) = k$  if  $n^k | m$  but  $n^{k+1} \nmid m$ .

$$\text{If } p \text{ is prime, } p \nmid a, j \leq m, \text{ and } 0 < a < p^{m-j}, \text{ then } O_p\left(\binom{p^m}{ap^j}\right) = m - j. \quad (5)$$

**Remark:** (5) is Theorem 4 in [3].

### THE MAIN RESULTS

**Lemma 1:** If  $p$  is prime,  $m \geq 1$ , and  $1 \leq k \leq p^m - 1$ , then  $\binom{p^m}{k} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** This follows from the hypothesis and (5).

**Theorem 1:** If  $p$  is prime,  $m \geq 1$ , and  $1 \leq k \leq p^m - 1$ , then

$$\left\langle \binom{p^m - 1}{k} \right\rangle \equiv \begin{cases} 0 \pmod{p} & \text{if } k \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \\ 1 \pmod{p} & \text{if } k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}. \end{cases}$$

**Proof:** (4) implies

$$\left\langle \binom{p^m - 1}{k} \right\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^j (k - j)^{p^m - 1} \binom{p^m}{j}.$$

Now Lemma 1 implies

$$\left\langle \binom{p^m - 1}{k} \right\rangle \equiv k^{p^m - 1} \pmod{p}.$$

If  $k \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , then

$$\left\langle \binom{p^m - 1}{k} \right\rangle \equiv 0^{p^m - 1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

If  $k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , then, by Fermat's Little Theorem,

$$\left\langle \binom{p^m - 1}{k} \right\rangle \equiv (k^{p-1})^{\binom{p^m - 1}{p-1}} \equiv 1^{\binom{p^m - 1}{p-1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

**Theorem 2 (Wilson's Theorem):** If  $p$  is prime, then  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** (3) implies  $(p-1)! = \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\langle \binom{p-1}{k} \right\rangle$ . Theorem 1 implies  $\left\langle \binom{p-1}{k} \right\rangle \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  for  $1 \leq k \leq p-1$ . Therefore,  $(p-1)! \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} 1 \equiv p-1 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ .

### REFERENCES

1. L. Euler. *Opera Omnia* (1) **10** (1913):373-75.
2. D. E. Knuth. *The Art of Computer Programming*. Vol. 3. New York: Addison-Wesley, 1973.
3. N. Robbins. "On the Number of Binomial Coefficients Which Are Divisible by Their Row Number." *Canad. Math. Bull.* **25.30** (1982):363-65.

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