

CONGRUENCES INVOLVING $g_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{k} x^k$

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ABSTRACT. Define $g_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{k} x^k$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Those numbers $g_n = g_n(1)$ are closely related to Apéry numbers and Franel numbers. In this paper we establish some fundamental congruences involving $g_n(x)$. For example, for any prime $p > 5$ we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_k(-1)}{k} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_k(-1)}{k^2} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

This is similar to Wolstenholme's classical congruences

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{1}{k} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{1}{k^2} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

for any prime $p > 3$.

1. INTRODUCTION

It is well known that

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 = \binom{2n}{n} \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

and central binomial coefficients play important roles in mathematics. A famous theorem of J. Wolstenholme [W] asserts that for any prime $p > 3$ we have

$$\frac{1}{2} \binom{2p}{p} = \binom{2p-1}{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^3},$$

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$$H_{p-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2} \quad \text{and} \quad H_{p-1}^{(2)} \equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

where

$$H_n := \sum_{0 < k \leq n} \frac{1}{k} \quad \text{and} \quad H_n^{(2)} := \sum_{0 < k \leq n} \frac{1}{k^2} \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\};$$

see also [Zh] for some extensions. The reader may consult [S11a], [S11b], [ST1] and [ST2] for recent work on congruences involving central binomial coefficients.

The Franel numbers given by

$$f_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^3 \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

(cf. [Sl, A000172]) were first introduced by J. Franel in 1895 who noted the recurrence relation:

$$(n+1)^2 f_{n+1} = (7n(n+1) + 2)f_n + 8n^2 f_{n-1} \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots).$$

In 1992 C. Strehl [St92] showed that the Apéry numbers given by

$$A_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{n+k}{k}^2 = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+k}{2k}^2 \binom{2k}{k}^2 \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

(arising from Apéry's proof of the irrationality of $\zeta(3) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n^3$ (cf. [vP])) can be expressed in terms of Franel numbers, namely,

$$A_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} f_k. \quad (1.1)$$

Define

$$g_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{k} \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (1.2)$$

Such numbers are interesting due to Barrucand's identity ([B])

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} f_k = g_n \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots). \quad (1.3)$$

For a combinatorial interpretation of such numbers, see D. Callan [C]. The sequences $(f_n)_{n \geq 0}$ and $(g_n)_{n \geq 0}$ are two of the five sporadic sequences (cf. D. Zagier [Z, Section 4]) which are integral solutions of certain Apéry-like recurrence equations and closely related to the theory of modular forms.

In [S12] and [S13b] the author introduced the Apéry polynomials

$$A_n(x) := \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{n+k}{k}^2 x^k \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

and the Franel polynomials

$$f_n(x) := \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{n} x^k = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{k}{n-k} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots),$$

and deduced various congruences involving such polynomials. (Note that $A_n(1) = A_n$, and $f_n(1) = f_n$ by [St94].) See also [S13a] for connections between primes $p = x^2 + 3y^2$ and the Franel numbers. Here we introduce the polynomials

$$g_n(x) := \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{k} x^k \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots).$$

Both $f_n(x)$ and $g_n(x)$ play important roles in some kinds of series for $1/\pi$ (cf. Conjecture 3 and the subsequent remark in [S11]).

In this paper we study various congruences involving $g_n(x)$. As usual, for an odd prime p and an integer a , $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ denotes the Legendre symbol, and $q_p(a)$ stands for the Fermat quotient $(a^{p-1} - 1)/p$ if $p \nmid a$. Also, B_0, B_1, B_2, \dots are the well-known Bernoulli numbers and E_0, E_1, E_2, \dots are the Euler numbers.

Now we state our main results.

Theorem 1.1. *Let $p > 3$ be a prime.*

(i) *We have*

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} g_k(x)(1 - p^2 H_k^{(2)}) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \frac{p}{2k+1} \left(1 - 2p^2 H_k^{(2)}\right) x^k \pmod{p^4}. \quad (1.4)$$

Consequently,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} g_k \equiv p^2 \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} g_k H_k^{(2)} + \frac{7}{6} p^3 B_{p-3} \pmod{p^4}, \quad (1.5)$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} g_k(-1) \equiv \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) + p^2 \left(\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} g_k(-1) H_k^{(2)} - E_{p-3}\right) \pmod{p^3}, \quad (1.6)$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} g_k(-3) \equiv \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) \pmod{p^2}. \quad (1.7)$$

(ii) *We also have*

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_k(x)}{k} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \quad (1.8)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_{k-1}}{k} \equiv -\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) 2q_p(3) \pmod{p}, \quad (1.9)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} k g_k \equiv -\frac{3}{4} \pmod{p^2}, \quad (1.10)$$

and moreover

$$\frac{1}{3n^2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (4k+3)g_k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k}^2 C_k \quad (1.11)$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, where C_k denotes the Catalan number $\binom{2k}{k}/(k+1) = \binom{2k}{k} - \binom{2k}{k+1}$.

(iii) *Provided $p > 5$, we have*

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_k(-1)}{k^2} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \quad (1.12)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_k(-1)}{k} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}, \quad (1.13)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k f_k(-1)}{k} H_k \equiv -2 \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) E_{p-3} \pmod{p}. \quad (1.14)$$

Remark 1.1. Let $p > 3$ be a prime. By [JV, Lemma 2.7], $g_k \equiv \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) 9^k g_{p-1-k} \pmod{p}$ for all $k = 0, \dots, p-1$. So (1.9) implies that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_k}{k 9^k} \equiv \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_{p-1-k}}{k} = \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_{k-1}}{p-k} \equiv 2q_p(3) \pmod{p}.$$

We conjecture further that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_{k-1}}{k} \equiv -\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) q_p(9) \pmod{p^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \frac{g_k}{9^k} \equiv \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) \pmod{p^2}.$$

In [S13b] the author showed the following congruences similar to (1.12) and (1.13):

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k f_k}{k^2} \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k f_k}{k} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}.$$

Such congruences are interesting in view of Wolstenholme's congruences $H_{p-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$ and $H_{p-1}^{(2)} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Applying the Zeilberger algorithm (cf. [PWZ, pp. 101-119]) via *Mathematica* 9 we find the recurrence for $s_n = g_n(-1)$ ($n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$):

$$(n+3)^2(4n+5)s_{n+3} + (20n^3 + 125n^2 + 254n + 165)s_{n+2} + (76n^3 + 399n^2 + 678n + 375)s_{n+1} - 25(n+1)^2(4n+9)s_n = 0.$$

In contrast with (1.11), we are also able to show the congruence

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (3k+1) \frac{f_k}{8^k} \equiv p^2 - 2p^3 q_p(2) + 4p^4 q_p(2)^2 \pmod{p^5} \quad (1.15)$$

via the combinatorial identity

$$\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (3k+1) f_k 8^{n-1-k} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k}^3 \left(1 - \frac{n}{k+1} + \frac{n^2}{(k+1)^2} \right) \quad (1.16)$$

which can be shown by the Zeilberger algorithm.

We are going to investigate in the next section connections among the polynomials $A_n(x)$, $f_n(x)$ and $g_n(x)$. Section 3 is devoted to our proof of Theorem 1.1. In Section 4 we shall propose some conjectures for further research.

2. RELATIONS AMONG $A_n(x)$, $f_n(x)$ AND $g_n(x)$

Obviously,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1) = n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1)(-1)^k = (-1)^{n-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

for all $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. This is a special case of our following general result.

Theorem 2.1. *Let*

$$X_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} x_k \quad \text{and} \quad y_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x_k \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (2.1)$$

Then

$$X_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^{n-k} y_k \quad \text{for every } n \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (2.2)$$

Also, for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ we have

$$\frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1) X_k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^k y_k \quad (2.3)$$

and

$$\frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1) (-1)^k X_k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} x_k. \quad (2.4)$$

Proof. If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{l=0}^n \binom{n}{l} \binom{n+l}{l} (-1)^l y_l \\ &= \sum_{l=0}^n \binom{n}{l} \binom{-n-1}{l} \sum_{k=0}^l \binom{l}{k} x_k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x_k \sum_{l=k}^n \binom{n-k}{n-l} \binom{-n-1}{l} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x_k \binom{-k-1}{n} \quad (\text{by the Chu-Vandermonde identity [G, (2.1)])} \\ &= (-1)^n \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} x_k \end{aligned}$$

and hence (2.2) holds.

For any given integer $k \geq 0$, by induction on n we have

$$\sum_{l=k}^{n-1} (-1)^l (2l+1) \binom{l+k}{2k} = (-1)^{n-1} (n-k) \binom{n+k}{2k} \quad (2.5)$$

for all $n = k+1, k+2, \dots$. Fix a positive integer n . In view of (2.2) and (2.5),

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} (2l+1) X_l &= \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} (2l+1) \sum_{k=0}^l \binom{l+k}{2k} \binom{2k}{k} (-1)^{l-k} y_k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} (-1)^k y_k \sum_{l=k}^{n-1} (-1)^l (2l+1) \binom{l+k}{2k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} (-1)^k y_k (-1)^{n-1} (n-k) \binom{n+k}{2k} \\ &= (-1)^{n-1} n \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^k y_k. \end{aligned}$$

This proves (2.3). Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} (2l+1)(-1)^l X_l &= \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} (2l+1)(-1)^l \sum_{k=0}^l \binom{l+k}{2k} \binom{2k}{k} x_k \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} x_k \sum_{l=k}^{n-1} (-1)^l (2l+1) \binom{l+k}{2k} \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} x_k (-1)^{n-1} (n-k) \binom{n+k}{2k} \\
 &= (-1)^{n-1} n \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} x_k.
 \end{aligned}$$

and hence (2.4) is also valid.

Combining the above, we have completed the proof of Theorem 2.1. \square

Lemma 2.1. *For any nonnegative integers m and n we have the combinatorial identity*

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{m-x+y}{k} \binom{n+x-y}{n-k} \binom{x+k}{m+n} = \binom{x}{m} \binom{y}{n}. \quad (2.6)$$

Remark 2.1. (2.6) is due to Nanjundiah, see, e.g., (4.17) of [G, p. 53].

The author [S12] proved that $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1) A_k(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, and conjectured that $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1)(-1)^k A_k(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, which was confirmed by Guo and Zeng [GZ].

Theorem 2.2. *Let n be any nonnegative integer. Then*

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} f_k(x) = g_n(x), \quad f_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{n-k} g_k(x), \quad (2.7)$$

and

$$A_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} f_k(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^{n-k} g_k(x). \quad (2.8)$$

Also, for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ we have

$$\frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1) A_k(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^k g_k(x) \quad (2.9)$$

and

$$\frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1)(-1)^k A_k(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} f_k(x). \quad (2.10)$$

Proof. By the binomial inversion formula (cf. (5.48) of [GKP, p. 192]), the two identities in (2.7) are equivalent. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=0}^n \binom{n}{l} f_l(x) &= \sum_{l=0}^n \binom{n}{l} \sum_{k=0}^l \binom{l}{k} \binom{k}{l-k} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \sum_{l=k}^n \binom{n-k}{n-l} \binom{k}{l-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \binom{n}{n-k} = g_n(x) \end{aligned}$$

with the help of the Chu-Vandermonde identity. Thus (2.7) holds.

Next we show (2.8). Clearly

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=0}^n \binom{n}{l} \binom{n+l}{l} f_l(x) &= \sum_{l=0}^n \binom{n}{l} \binom{n+l}{l} \sum_{k=0}^l \binom{l}{k} \binom{k}{l-k} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \sum_{l=k}^n \binom{n-k}{l-k} \binom{k}{l-k} \binom{n+l}{n} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{n-k}{j} \binom{k}{k-j} \binom{n+k+j}{n} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \binom{n+k}{n-k} \binom{n+k}{k} \quad (\text{by Lemma 2.1}). \end{aligned}$$

This proves the first identity in (2.8). Applying Theorem 2.1 with $x_n = f_n(x)$ and $X_n = A_n(x)$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we get the identity

$$A_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^{n-k} g_k(x) \quad (2.11)$$

as well as (2.9) and (2.10), with the help of (2.7).

The proof of Theorem 2.2 is now complete. \square

Remark 2.2. (2.7) and (2.8) in the case $x = 1$ are well known.

Corollary 2.1. *Let p be an odd prime. Then*

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} A_k(x) \equiv p \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k f_k(x)}{2k+1} \pmod{p^2} \quad (2.12)$$

and

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (-1)^k A_k(x) \equiv p \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \frac{g_k(x)}{2k+1} \pmod{p^2}. \quad (2.13)$$

Proof. In view of (2.8),

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} A_l(x) &= \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \sum_{k=0}^l \binom{k+l}{2k} \binom{2k}{k} f_k(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \binom{2k}{k} f_k(x) \sum_{l=k}^{p-1} \binom{k+l}{2k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \binom{2k}{k} f_k(x) \binom{p+k}{2k+1} = \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \binom{2k}{k} f_k(x) \frac{p}{(2k+1)!} \prod_{0 < j \leq k} (p^2 - j^2) \\ &\equiv \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} f_k(x) \frac{p}{2k+1} (-1)^k \pmod{p^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} (-1)^l A_l(x) &= \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \sum_{k=0}^l \binom{k+l}{2k} \binom{2k}{k} (-1)^k g_k(x) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \binom{2k}{k} (-1)^k g_k(x) \binom{p+k}{2k+1} \\ &\equiv \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} g_k(x) \frac{p}{2k+1} \pmod{p^2}. \end{aligned}$$

This concludes the proof of Corollary 2.1. \square

Remark 2.3. In [S12] the author investigated $\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (\pm 1)^k A_k(x) \pmod{p^2}$ (where p is an odd prime) and made some conjectures.

For any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ we set

$$[n]_q = \frac{1 - q^n}{1 - q} = \begin{cases} \sum_{0 \leq k < n} q^k & \text{if } n \geq 0, \\ -q^n \sum_{0 \leq k < -n} q^k & \text{if } n < 0; \end{cases}$$

this is the usual q -analogue of the integer n . Define

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_q = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q = \prod_{j=1}^k \frac{[n-j+1]_q}{[j]_q} \quad \text{for } k \in \mathbb{Z}^+.$$

Obviously, $\lim_{q \rightarrow 1} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q = \binom{n}{k}$.

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we define

$$A_n(x; q) := \sum_{k=0}^n q^{2n(n-k)} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q^2 \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q x^k$$

and

$$g_n(x; q) := \sum_{k=0}^n q^{2n(n-k)} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q^2 \begin{bmatrix} 2k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q x^k.$$

Clearly

$$\lim_{q \rightarrow 1} A_n(x; q) = A_n(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{q \rightarrow 1} g_n(x; q) = g_n(x).$$

Those identities in Theorem 2.2 have their q -analogues. For example, the following theorem gives a q -analogue of (2.11).

Theorem 2.3. *Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then we have*

$$A_n(x; q) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{n-k} q^{(n-k)(5n+3k+1)/2} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q g_k(x; q). \quad (2.14)$$

Proof. Let $j \in \{0, \dots, n\}$. By the q -Chu-Vandermonde identity (see, e.g., Ex. 4(b) of [AAR, p. 542]),

$$\sum_{k=j}^n q^{(k-j)^2} \begin{bmatrix} -n-1-j \\ k-j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n-j \\ n-k \end{bmatrix}_q = \begin{bmatrix} -2j-1 \\ n-j \end{bmatrix}_q.$$

This, together with

$$\begin{bmatrix} -n-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q = \begin{bmatrix} -n-1 \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} -n-1-j \\ k-j \end{bmatrix}_q,$$

yields that

$$\sum_{k=j}^n q^{(k-j)^2} \begin{bmatrix} -n-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n-j \\ k-j \end{bmatrix}_q = \begin{bmatrix} -n-1 \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} -2j-1 \\ n-j \end{bmatrix}_q.$$

It is easy to see that

$$\begin{bmatrix} -m-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q = (-1)^k q^{-km-k(k+1)/2} \begin{bmatrix} m+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q.$$

So we are led to the identity

$$\sum_{k=j}^n (-1)^{n-k} q^{\binom{n-k+1}{2} + 2j(n-k)} \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n-j \\ k-j \end{bmatrix}_q = \begin{bmatrix} n+j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n+j \\ 2j \end{bmatrix}_q. \quad (2.15)$$

Since

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q = \begin{bmatrix} n \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n-j \\ k-j \end{bmatrix}_q \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} n \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n+j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q = \begin{bmatrix} n+j \\ 2j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q,$$

multiplying both sides of (2.15) by $\begin{bmatrix} n \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q x^j$ we get

$$\sum_{k=j}^n (-1)^{n-k} q^{\binom{n-k+1}{2} + 2j(n-k)} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q^2 \begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q x^j = \begin{bmatrix} n \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q^2 \begin{bmatrix} n+j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q^2 x^j.$$

In view of the last identity we can easily deduce the desired (2.14). \square

By applying Theorem 2.2 we obtain the following new result.

Theorem 2.4. *Let n be any positive integer. Then*

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^k (6k^3 + 9k^2 + 5k + 1) A_k \equiv 0 \pmod{n^3}. \quad (2.16)$$

Proof. By induction on n , for each $k = 0, \dots, n-1$ we have

$$\sum_{l=k}^{n-1} (-1)^l (6l^3 + 9l^2 + 5l + 1) \binom{l+k}{2k} = (-1)^{n-1} (n-k) (3n^2 - 3k - 2) \binom{n+k}{2k}.$$

Thus, in view of (2.8),

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{n} \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-l} (6l^3 + 9l^2 + 5l + 1) A_l(x) \\ &= \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} (-1)^l (6l^3 + 9l^2 + 5l + 1) \sum_{k=0}^l \binom{l+k}{2k} \binom{2k}{k} f_k(x) \\ &= \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} f_k(x) \sum_{l=k}^{n-1} (-1)^l (6l^3 + 9l^2 + 5l + 1) \binom{l+k}{2l} \\ &= \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} f_k(x) (-1)^{n-1} (n-k) (3n^2 - 3k - 2) \binom{n+k}{2k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (3k + 2 - 3n^2) f_k(x). \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have reduced (2.16) to the congruence

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (3k+2) f_k \equiv 0 \pmod{n^2}. \quad (2.17)$$

The author [S13a, (1.12)] conjectured that

$$a_m := \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} (3k+2)(-1)^k f_k \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{for all } m = 1, 2, 3, \dots,$$

and this was confirmed by V.J.W. Guo [Gu]. Set $a_0 = 0$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (3k+2) f_k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{-n-1}{k} ((k+1)^2 a_{k+1} - k^2 a_k) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n-1}{k-1} \binom{-n-1}{k-1} k^2 a_k - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{-n-1}{k} k^2 a_k \\ &= \binom{-n-1}{n-1} n^2 a_n + \sum_{0 < k < n} k^2 a_k \left(\binom{n-1}{k-1} \binom{-n-1}{k-1} - \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{-n-1}{k} \right). \end{aligned}$$

As

$$\binom{n-1}{k-1} \binom{-n-1}{k-1} - \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{-n-1}{k} = \frac{n^2}{k^2} \binom{n-1}{k-1} \binom{-n-1}{k-1}$$

for all $k = 1, \dots, n-1$, we have (2.17) by the above, and hence (2.16) holds. \square

The author [S12] conjectured that for any prime $p > 3$ we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (2k+1)(-1)^k A_k \equiv p \binom{p}{3} \pmod{p^3}, \quad (2.18)$$

and this was confirmed by Guo and Zeng [GZ].

Corollary 2.2. *Let $p > 3$ be a prime. Then*

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (2k+1)^3 (-1)^k A_k \equiv -\frac{p}{3} \binom{p}{3} \pmod{p^3}. \quad (2.19)$$

Proof. Clearly

$$3(2k+1)^3 = 4(6k^3 + 9k^2 + 5k + 1) - (2k+1).$$

Thus (2.19) follows from (2.16) and (2.18). \square

Remark 2.4. Let $p > 3$ be a prime. We are also able to prove that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (2k+1)^5 (-1)^k A_k \equiv -\frac{13}{27} p \binom{p}{3} \pmod{p^3} \quad (2.20)$$

and

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (2k+1)^7 (-1)^k A_k \equiv \frac{5}{9} p \binom{p}{3} \pmod{p^3}. \quad (2.21)$$

It seems that for each $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ there is a p -adic integer c_r only depending on r such that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (2k+1)^{2r+1} (-1)^k A_k \equiv c_r p \binom{p}{3} \pmod{p^3}.$$

3. PROOF OF THEOREM 1.1

Lemma 3.1. *For any odd prime p , we have*

$$\frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (2k+1) A_k(x) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} g_k(x) - p^2 \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} g_k(x) H_k^{(2)} \pmod{p^4}. \quad (3.1)$$

Proof. Obviously,

$$(-1)^k \binom{p-1}{k} \binom{p+k}{k} = \prod_{0 < j \leq k} \left(1 - \frac{p^2}{j^2}\right) \equiv 1 - p^2 H_k^{(2)} \pmod{p^4} \quad (3.2)$$

for every $k = 0, \dots, p-1$. Thus (3.1) follows from (2.9) with $n = p$. \square

Lemma 3.2. *Let $p > 3$ be a prime. Then*

$$g_{p-1} \equiv \binom{p}{3} (1 + 2p q_p(3)) \pmod{p^2}. \quad (3.3)$$

Proof. For $k = 0, \dots, p-1$, clearly

$$\binom{p-1}{k}^2 = \prod_{0 < j \leq k} \left(1 - \frac{p}{j}\right)^2 \equiv \prod_{0 < j \leq k} \left(1 - \frac{2p}{j}\right) = (-1)^k \binom{2p-1}{k} \pmod{p^2}.$$

Thus, with the help of [S12b, Corollary 2.2] we obtain

$$g_{p-1} \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \binom{2p-1}{k} (-1)^k \binom{2k}{k} \equiv \binom{p}{3} (2 \times 3^{p-1} - 1) \pmod{p^2}.$$

and hence (3.3) holds. \square

Lemma 3.3. *For any odd prime p , we have*

$$p \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \frac{(-3)^k}{2k+1} \equiv \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) \pmod{p^2}. \quad (3.4)$$

Proof. Clearly (3.4) holds for $p = 3$. Below we assume $p > 3$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq (p-1)/2}}^{p-1} \frac{(-3)^k}{2k+1} &= \sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{(-3)^{(p-1)/2-k}}{2((p-1)/2-k)+1} + \frac{(-3)^{(p-1)/2+k}}{2((p-1)/2+k)+1} \right) \\ &\equiv \left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{(-3)^k}{k} - \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{(-3)^{p-k}}{p-k} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) \left(\frac{4}{3} \sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \frac{(-3)^k}{k} - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-3)^k}{k} \right) \\ &= -2 \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) \sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \frac{(-3)^{k-1}}{k} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-3)^{k-1}}{k} \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\frac{1}{p} \binom{p}{k} = \frac{1}{k} \binom{p-1}{k-1} \equiv \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k} \pmod{p} \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, p-1,$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-3)^{k-1}}{k} &\equiv \frac{1}{3p} \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{k} 3^k = \frac{4^p - 1 - 3^p}{3p} = 4(2^{p-1} + 1) \frac{2^{p-1} - 1}{3p} - \frac{3^{p-1} - 1}{p} \\ &\equiv \frac{8}{3} q_p(2) - q_p(3) \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

Note also that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \frac{(-3)^{k-1}}{k} &= \sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \int_0^1 (-3x)^{k-1} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{1 - (-3x)^{(p-1)/2}}{1+3x} dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \binom{(p-1)/2}{k} (-1-3x)^{k-1} dx \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \binom{(p-1)/2}{k} \frac{(-1-3x)^k}{-3k} \Big|_{x=0}^1 \\ &\equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \binom{-1/2}{k} \frac{(-1)^k - (-4)^k}{3k} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k4^k} - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k} \\ &\equiv \frac{2}{3} q_p(2) \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

since

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k4^k} \equiv 2q_p(2) \pmod{p} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$$

by [ST1, (1.12) and (1.20)]. Thus, in view of the above, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq (p-1)/2}}^{p-1} \frac{(-3)^k}{2k+1} &\equiv -2 \binom{p}{3} \frac{2}{3} q_p(2) + \frac{1}{2} \binom{p}{3} \left(\frac{8}{3} q_p(2) - q_p(3) \right) \\ &= - \binom{p}{3} \frac{q_p(3)}{2} \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} p \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \frac{(-3)^k}{2k+1} &\equiv (-3)^{(p-1)/2} - \binom{p}{3} \frac{3^{p-1} - 1}{2} \\ &= (-3)^{(p-1)/2} - \binom{p}{3} \frac{(-3)^{(p-1)/2} + \binom{-3}{p}}{2} \left((-3)^{(p-1)/2} - \binom{-3}{p} \right) \\ &\equiv (-3)^{(p-1)/2} - \left((-3)^{(p-1)/2} - \binom{-3}{p} \right) = \binom{p}{3} \pmod{p^2}. \end{aligned}$$

We are done. \square

Lemma 3.4. *For any prime p , we have*

$$k \binom{2k}{k} \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \binom{-k}{r} \binom{-k-1}{r} \equiv p \pmod{p^2} \quad \text{for all } k = 1, \dots, p-1. \quad (3.5)$$

Proof. Define

$$u_k = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \binom{-k}{r} \binom{-k-1}{r} \quad \text{for all } k \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Applying the Zeilberger algorithm via **Mathematica 9**, we find the recurrence

$$\begin{aligned} &k(k+1)^2(2(2k+1)u_{k+1} - ku_k) \\ &= (p+k)(p+k-1)(2kp+p+3k^2+3k+1) \binom{-1-k}{p-1} \binom{-k}{p-1} \\ &= p^2 \binom{p+k}{p} \binom{p+k-1}{p} (2kp+p+3k^2+3k+1). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, for each $k = 1, \dots, p-2$, we have

$$2(2k+1)u_{k+1} \equiv ku_k \pmod{p^2}$$

and hence

$$\begin{aligned} (k+1) \binom{2(k+1)}{k+1} u_{k+1} &= 2(k+1) \binom{2k+1}{k+1} u_{k+1} \\ &= 2(2k+1) \binom{2k}{k} u_{k+1} \equiv k \binom{2k}{k} u_k \pmod{p^2}. \end{aligned}$$

So it remains to prove $\binom{2}{1} u_1 \equiv p \pmod{p^2}$. With the help of the Chu-Vandermonde identity, we actually have

$$\begin{aligned} u_1 &= \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} (-1)^r \binom{-2}{r} = (-1)^{p-1} \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \binom{-1}{p-1-r} \binom{-2}{r} \\ &= (-1)^{p-1} \binom{-3}{p-1} = \binom{p+1}{p-1} = \frac{p^2+p}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

This concludes the proof. \square

Proof of Theorem 1.1. (i) By [S12, (2.13)],

$$\frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (2k+1) A_k(x) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \frac{p}{2k+1} \left(1 - 2p^2 H_k^{(2)}\right) x^k \pmod{p^4}.$$

Combining this with (3.1) we immediately get (1.4).

By [S12, (1.6)-(1.7)],

$$\frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (2k+1) A_k \equiv 1 + \frac{7}{6} p^3 B_{p-3} \pmod{p^4}$$

and

$$\frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (2k+1) A_k(-1) \equiv \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) - p^2 E_{p-3} \pmod{p^3}.$$

Combining this with (3.1) we obtain (1.5) and (1.6). In view of (1.4) and (3.4), we get (1.7).

(ii) With the help of (2.7),

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_l(x)}{l} &= \sum_{l=1}^{p-1} \frac{1}{l} \sum_{k=0}^l \binom{l}{k} f_k(x) = H_{p-1} + \sum_{l=1}^{p-1} \sum_{k=1}^l \frac{f_k(x)}{l} \binom{l}{k} \\ &\equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{f_k(x)}{k} \sum_{l=k}^{p-1} \binom{l-1}{k-1} = \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{f_k(x)}{k} \binom{p-1}{k} \\ &\equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k} f_k(x) (1 - pH_k) \pmod{p^2}. \end{aligned}$$

In view of [S13b, (2.7)], this implies that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_k(x)}{k} \equiv p \sum_{k=(p+1)/2}^{p-1} \frac{x^k}{k^2} - p \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k H_k}{k} f_k(x) \pmod{p^2}. \quad (3.6)$$

So (1.8) follows.

By induction, for any integers $m > k \geq 0$, we have

$$\sum_{n=k}^{m-1} (2n+1) \binom{n+k}{2k} = \frac{m(m-k)}{k+1} \binom{m+k}{2k}.$$

This, together with (2.8) and (3.2), yields

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} (-1)^n (2n+1) A_n &= \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} (2n+1) \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+k}{2k} \binom{2k}{k} (-1)^k g_k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \binom{2k}{k} (-1)^k g_k \sum_{n=k}^{p-1} (2n+1) \binom{n+k}{2k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \binom{2k}{k} (-1)^k g_k \frac{p(p-k)}{k+1} \binom{p+k}{2k} \\ &= g_{p-1} \binom{2p-2}{p-1} (2p-1) + p^2 \sum_{k=0}^{p-2} \binom{p-1}{k} \binom{p+k}{k} (-1)^k \frac{g_k}{k+1} \\ &= p g_{p-1} \binom{2p-1}{p-1} + p^2 \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_{k-1}}{k} \\ &\equiv p g_{p-1} + p^2 \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_{k-1}}{k} \pmod{p^4} \end{aligned}$$

since $\binom{2p-1}{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^3}$ by Wolstenholme's theorem. Combining this with (2.18) and (3.3), we obtain

$$p \binom{p}{3} \equiv p \binom{p}{3} (1 + 2p q_p(3)) + p^2 \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_{k-1}}{k} \pmod{p^3}$$

and hence (1.9) follows.

(1.10) follows from a combination of (1.5) and (1.11) in the case $n = p$. If we let u_n denote the left-hand side or the right-hand side of (1.11), then by

applying the Zeilberger algorithm via `Mathematica 9` we get the recurrence relation

$$\begin{aligned} & (n+2)(n+3)^2(2n+3)u_{n+3} \\ &= (n+2)(22n^3 + 121n^2 + 211n + 120)u_{n+2} \\ & \quad - (n+1)(38n^3 + 171n^2 + 229n + 102)u_{n+1} + 9n^2(n+1)(2n+5)u_n \end{aligned}$$

for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Thus (1.11) can be proved by induction.

(iii) Now we show (1.12)-(1.14) provided $p > 5$.

Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=1}^{p-1} \frac{gl(x) - 1}{l^2} &= \sum_{l=1}^{p-1} \frac{1}{l^2} \sum_{k=1}^l \binom{l}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{k} x^k = \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k^2} x^k \sum_{l=k}^{p-1} \binom{l-1}{k-1}^2 \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k^2} x^k \sum_{j=0}^{p-1-k} \binom{k+j-1}{j}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k^2} x^k \sum_{j=0}^{p-1-k} \binom{-k}{j}^2 \\ &\equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k^2} x^k \sum_{j=0}^{p-1-k} \binom{p-k}{j}^2 \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

Recall that $H_{p-1}^{(2)} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Also, for any $k = 1, \dots, p-1$ we have

$$\sum_{j=0}^{p-1-k} \binom{p-k}{j}^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{p-k} \binom{p-k}{j} \binom{p-k}{p-k-j} - 1 = \binom{2(p-k)}{p-k} - 1$$

by the Chu-Vandermonde identity. Thus

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_k(x)}{k^2} \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k^2} x^k \left(\binom{2(p-k)}{p-k} - 1 \right) \equiv - \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k^2} x^k \pmod{p}$$

(Note that $\binom{2k}{k} \binom{2(p-k)}{p-k} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ for $k = 1, \dots, p-1$.) It is known that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k^2} \binom{2k}{k} \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \quad (3.7)$$

(cf. Tauraso [T]) and moreover

$$\sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \frac{(-1)^k}{k^2} \binom{2k}{k} \equiv \frac{56}{15} p B_{p-3} \pmod{p^2}$$

by Sun [S14]. So (1.12) is valid.

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_l(x) - 1}{l} &= \sum_{l=1}^{p-1} \frac{1}{l} \sum_{k=1}^l \binom{l}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{k} x^k = \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \sum_{l=k}^{p-1} \frac{1}{k} \binom{l-1}{k-1} \binom{l}{k} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k} x^k \sum_{j=0}^{p-1-k} \binom{k+j-1}{j} \binom{k+j}{j}. \end{aligned}$$

For $1 \leq k \leq p-1$ and $p-k < j \leq p-1$, clearly

$$\binom{k+j-1}{j} \binom{k+j}{j} = \frac{(k+j-1)!(k+j)!}{(k-1)!k!(j!)^2} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}.$$

If $j = p-k$ with $1 \leq k \leq p-1$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{k+j-1}{j} \binom{k+j}{j} &= \binom{p-1}{j} \binom{p}{j} = \frac{p}{j} \binom{p-1}{j-1} \binom{p-1}{j} \\ &\equiv -\frac{p}{j} \equiv \frac{p}{k} \pmod{p^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Recall that $H_{p-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$. So we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_k(x)}{k} &\equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k} x^k \left(\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \binom{k+j-1}{j} \binom{k+j}{j} - \frac{p}{k} \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k} x^k \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \binom{-k}{j} \binom{-k-1}{j} - p \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k^2} x^k \\ &\equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{x^k}{k^2} p - p \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{k^2} x^k = p \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{1 - \binom{2k}{k}}{k^2} x^k \pmod{p^2} \end{aligned}$$

with the help of (3.5). Thus, in view of (3.7) we get

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{g_k(-1)}{k} \equiv p \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k^2} = p \sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{(-1)^k}{k^2} + \frac{(-1)^{p-k}}{(p-k)^2} \right) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}.$$

This proves (1.13). Combining this with (3.6) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k f_k(-1)}{k} H_k &\equiv \sum_{k=(p+1)/2}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k^2} \equiv - \sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} \frac{(-1)^j}{j^2} \\ &\equiv -2 \left(\frac{-1}{p} \right) E_{p-3} \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

with the help of [S11b, Lemma 2.4]. So (1.14) holds.

In view of the above, we have completed the proof of Theorem 1.1. \square

4. SOME OPEN CONJECTURAL CONGRUENCES

In this section we pose several related conjectural congruences.

Conjecture 4.1. (i) *For any integer $n > 1$, we have*

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (9k^2 + 5k)(-1)^k f_k \equiv 0 \pmod{(n-1)n^2}$$

Also, for each odd prime p we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (9k^2 + 5k)(-1)^k f_k \equiv 3p^2(p-1) - 16p^3 q_p(2) \pmod{p^4}.$$

(ii) *For every $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, we have*

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (4k+3)g_k(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$$

and the number

$$\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (8k^2 + 12k + 5)g_k(-1)$$

is always an odd integer. Also, for any prime p we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (8k^2 + 12k + 5)g_k(-1) \equiv 3p^2 \pmod{p^3}.$$

For any nonzero integer m , the 3-adic valuation $\nu_3(m)$ of m is the largest $a \in \mathbb{N}$ with $3^a \mid m$. For convenience, we also set $\nu_3(0) = +\infty$.

Conjecture 4.2. *Let n be any positive integer. Then*

$$\nu_3 \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1)(-1)^k A_k \right) = 3\nu_3(n) \leq \nu_3 \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1)^3 (-1)^k A_k \right).$$

If n is a positive multiple of 3, then

$$\nu_3 \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k+1)^3 (-1)^k A_k \right) = 3\nu_3(n) + 2.$$

Conjecture 4.3. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ define

$$F_n := \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^3 (-8)^k \quad \text{and} \quad G_n := \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 (6k+1)C_k.$$

For any $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, the number

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (6k+5)(-1)^k F_k$$

is always an odd integer. Also, for any prime $p > 3$ we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (-1)^k F_k \equiv \binom{p}{3} \pmod{p^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} G_k \equiv -\frac{4}{3}p^3 B_{p-3} \pmod{p^4}.$$

Remark 4.1. For any prime $p > 3$, the author [S13b, S12] proved that $\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (-1)^k f_k \equiv \binom{p}{3} \pmod{p^2}$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} h_k \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$ with $h_k = \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j}^2 C_j$.

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