

A NEW PROOF OF THE q -DIXON IDENTITY

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Abstract. We give a new and elementary proof of Jackson's terminating q -analogue of Dixon's identity by using recurrences and induction.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Jackson's terminating q -analogue of Dixon's identity [2], [8]:

$$(1.1) \quad \sum_{k=-a}^a (-1)^k q^{(3k^2+k)/2} \begin{bmatrix} a+b \\ a+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b+c \\ b+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c+a \\ c+k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a+b+c \\ a+b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a+b \\ a \end{bmatrix},$$

where the q -binomial coefficients are defined by

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{cases} \frac{(1-q)(1-q^2)\dots(1-q^n)}{(1-q)(1-q^2)\dots(1-q^k)(1-q)(1-q^2)\dots(1-q^{n-k})} & \text{if } 0 \leq k \leq n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

is an important identity in combinatorics and number theory. Note that Dixon's identity (see [8], [12], page 43, equation (IV), or [9], page 11, equation (2.6)) is the $q = 1$ case of (1.1). Several short proofs of the Dixon or q -Dixon identity can be found in [4], [5], [6], [7]. The q -Dixon identity can also be deduced from the q -Pfaff-Saalschütz identity (see [7], [13]).

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Recently, Mikić [10], [11] gave an elementary proof of Dixon's identity and some other binomial coefficient identities by using recurrences and induction. The aim of this note is to give a new proof of (1.1) by generalizing the argument of [10], [11].

2. PROOF OF (1.1)

For any integer n let $[n] = (1 - q^n)/(1 - q)$. Denote the left-hand side of (1.1) by $S(a, b, c)$. We introduce two auxiliary sums as follows:

$$(2.1) \quad P(a, b, c) := \sum_{k=-a}^a (-1)^k q^{(3k^2+k)/2} [a-k][a+k] \begin{bmatrix} a+b \\ a+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b+c \\ b+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c+a \\ c+k \end{bmatrix},$$

$$(2.2) \quad Q(a, b, c) := \sum_{k=-a}^a (-1)^k q^{3(k^2+k)/2} [b-k][b+k] \begin{bmatrix} a+b \\ a+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b+c \\ b+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c+a \\ c+k \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is easy to see that $[k] \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} = [n] \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix}$, and so for $a, b, c \geq 1$,

$$(2.3) \quad \begin{aligned} P(a, b, c) &= [a+b][a+c] \sum_{k=-a+1}^{a-1} (-1)^k q^{(3k^2+k)/2} \begin{bmatrix} a-1+b \\ a-1+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b+c \\ b+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c+a-1 \\ c+k \end{bmatrix} \\ &= [a+b][a+c]S(a-1, b, c). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we have

$$(2.4) \quad Q(a, b, c) = [a+b][b+c]S(a, b-1, c).$$

It follows from (2.1) and (2.2) that

$$(2.5) \quad P(a, b, c) - Q(a, b, c)q^{a-b} = [a+b][a-b]S(a, b, c).$$

If $a \neq b$, then from (2.3)–(2.5) we deduce that

$$(2.6) \quad S(a, b, c) = \frac{1}{[a-b]} ([a+c]S(a-1, b, c) - [b+c]S(a, b-1, c)q^{a-b}).$$

We need to consider the case when $a = b = c$, separately. Noticing the well known relations (see, for example [1], equations (3.3.3) and (3.3.4))

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} q^k + \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix} q^{n-k},$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 (2.7) \quad S(a, a, a) &= \sum_{k=-a}^a (-1)^k q^{(3k^2+k)/2} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k \end{bmatrix} q^{a+k} + \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k-1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \\
 &\quad \times \left(\begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k-1 \end{bmatrix} q^{a-k} \right)^2 \\
 &= \sum_{k=-a}^a (-1)^k q^{(3k^2+k)/2} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k \end{bmatrix}^3 q^{a+k} + \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k-1 \end{bmatrix}^3 q^{2a-2k} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \begin{bmatrix} 2a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k-1 \end{bmatrix} (1 + q^{a-k} + q^{2a}) \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

By the symmetry of q -binomial coefficients, it is clear that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{k=-a}^a (-1)^k q^{(3k^2+k)/2} \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k \end{bmatrix}^3 q^k &= \sum_{k=-a}^{a-1} (-1)^k q^{(3k^2+3k)/2} \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k \end{bmatrix}^3 = 0, \\
 \sum_{k=-a}^a (-1)^k q^{(3k^2+k)/2} \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k-1 \end{bmatrix}^3 q^{-2k} &= \sum_{k=-a+1}^a (-1)^k q^{(3k^2-3k)/2} \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k-1 \end{bmatrix}^3 = 0,
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{k=-a}^a (-1)^k q^{(3k^2+k)/2} \begin{bmatrix} 2a \\ a+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k-1 \end{bmatrix} q^{a-k} \\
 = \sum_{k=1-a}^{a-1} (-1)^k q^{3k^2-k/2} \begin{bmatrix} 2a \\ a+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2a-1 \\ a+k-1 \end{bmatrix} q^a = q^a S(a, a, a-1).
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the identity (2.7) implies that

$$(2.8) \quad S(a, a, a) = (1 + q^a + q^{2a}) S(a, a, a-1).$$

We now give a proof of (1.1) by induction on $a+b+c$. It is clear that (1.1) is true for $a=b=c=1$. Assume that (1.1) holds for all non-negative integers a, b and c with $a+b+c=n$. Let a, b and c be non-negative integers satisfying $a+b+c=n+1$. We consider three cases:

- ▷ If at least one of the numbers a, b and c is equal to 0, then (1.1) is obviously true.
- ▷ If $a=b=c$, then by the induction hypothesis we have

$$S(a, a, a-1) = \begin{bmatrix} 3a-1 \\ 2a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2a \\ a \end{bmatrix}.$$

Therefore by (2.8) we obtain

$$S(a, a, a) = (1 + q^a + q^{2a}) \begin{bmatrix} 3a - 1 \\ 2a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2a \\ a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3a \\ 2a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2a \\ a \end{bmatrix}.$$

▷ If $a \neq b$, then by (2.6) and the induction hypothesis we get

$$\begin{aligned} S(a, b, c) &= \frac{[a+c]}{[a-b]} \begin{bmatrix} a+b+c-1 \\ a+b-1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a+b-1 \\ a-1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\quad - \frac{[b+c]}{[a-b]} \begin{bmatrix} a+b+c-1 \\ a+b-1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a+b-1 \\ a \end{bmatrix} q^{a-b} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a+b+c \\ a+b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a+b \\ a \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

as desired. If $a = b$, then $a \neq c$, and we can proceed similarly as before by noticing the symmetry of a , b and c in $S(a, b, c)$.

Hence, (1.1) holds for $a+b+c = n+1$, and by induction, it holds for all non-negative integers a , b and c .

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