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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.

Keywords: *q*-binomial coefficient; *q*-Dixon identity; recurrence MSC 2010: 05A30

1. INTRODUCTION

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

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

where the q-binomial coefficients are defined by

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

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 $[k] {n \choose k} = [n] {n-1 \choose k-1}$, and so for $a, b, c \ge 1$,

k = -a

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

Similarly, we have

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

It follows from (2.1) and (2.2) that

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

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

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

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))

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

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we have

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

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

$$\sum_{k=-a}^{a} (-1)^{k} q^{(3k^{2}+k)/2} {\binom{2a-1}{a+k}}^{3} q^{k} = \sum_{k=-a}^{a-1} (-1)^{k} q^{(3k^{2}+3k)/2} {\binom{2a-1}{a+k}}^{3} = 0,$$

$$\sum_{k=-a}^{a} (-1)^{k} q^{(3k^{2}+k)/2} {\binom{2a-1}{a+k-1}}^{3} q^{-2k} = \sum_{k=-a+1}^{a} (-1)^{k} q^{(3k^{2}-3k)/2} {\binom{2a-1}{a+k-1}}^{3} = 0,$$

and

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

Therefore the identity (2.7) implies that

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

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 cwith 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

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

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Therefore by (2.8) we obtain

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

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

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

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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