

# A summation formula related to $q$ -Eulerian polynomials

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## Abstract

Brenti (J. Combin. Theory Ser. A 91 (2000)) considered a  $q$ -analogue of the Eulerian polynomials by enumerating permutations in the symmetric group  $\mathcal{S}_n$  with respect to the numbers of excedances and cycles. Here we establish a connection between these  $q$ -Eulerian polynomials and some infinite generating functions.

*Keywords:*  $q$ -Eulerian polynomials; Summation formula

## 1 Introduction

Let  $\mathcal{S}_n$  denote the symmetric group of all permutations of the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . An *excedance* in a permutation  $\pi := \pi(1)\pi(2) \cdots \pi(n)$  is an index  $i$  such that  $\pi(i) > i$ . As usual, we will denote by  $\text{exc}(\pi)$  the number of excedances of  $\pi$ , and by  $\text{cyc}(\pi)$  the number of cycles of  $\pi$ . For example, the permutation  $\pi = 315426 \in \mathcal{S}_6$  has the cycle decomposition  $\pi = (1, 3, 5, 2)(4)(6)$ , so  $\text{exc}(\pi) = 2$  and  $\text{cyc}(\pi) = 3$ . It is evident that  $\text{exc}(\pi) \leq n - \text{cyc}(\pi)$  for  $\pi \in \mathcal{S}_n$ . The ordinary Eulerian polynomials  $A_n(x)$  are defined by

$$A_0(x) = 1, \quad A_n(x) = \sum_{\pi \in \mathcal{S}_n} x^{\text{exc}(\pi)+1} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

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Let  $A(n, k)$  be the coefficient of  $x^k$  in  $A_n(x)$ . The number  $A(n, k)$  is called an Eulerian number (see, e.g., [2, Chapter. VI]). They satisfy the symmetry relation

$$A(n, k) = A(n, n - k + 1) \quad \text{for } 1 \leq k \leq n.$$

The historical origin of the ordinary Eulerian polynomials is the following summation formula:

$$\sum_{i \geq 0} i^n x^i = \frac{A_n(x)}{(1-x)^{n+1}}. \quad (1)$$

Recently, Brenti [1] considered a  $q$ -analogue of the ordinary Eulerian polynomials defined by

$$A_0(x; q) = 1, \quad A_n(x; q) = \sum_{\pi \in \mathcal{S}_n} x^{\text{exc}(\pi)} q^{\text{cyc}(\pi)} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

Clearly,  $A_n(x) = x A_n(x; 1)$  for  $n \geq 1$ . Brenti obtained [1, Proposition 7.2] the recursion

$$A_{n+1}(x; q) = (nx + q)A_n(x; q) + x(1-x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} A_n(x; q) \quad (2)$$

and showed [1, Theorem 7.5] that  $A_n(x; q)$  has only simple real zeros when  $q$  is a positive rational number.

## 2 Results

The first few of the  $q$ -Eulerian polynomials  $A_n(x; q)$  are listed below:

$$\begin{aligned} A_0(x; q) &= 1, \\ A_1(x; q) &= q, \\ A_2(x; q) &= q(x + q), \\ A_3(x; q) &= q[x^2 + (1 + 3q)x + q^2], \\ A_4(x; q) &= q[x^3 + (4 + 7q)x^2 + (1 + 4q + 6q^2)x + q^3], \\ A_5(x; q) &= q[x^4 + (11 + 15q)x^3 + (11 + 30q + 25q^2)x^2 + \\ &\quad (1 + 5q + 10q^2 + 10q^3)x + q^4]. \end{aligned}$$

Looking at the above list carefully, we observe the connection between these polynomials and some infinite generating functions, which is a generalization of (1).

**Theorem 1.** For all nonnegative integers  $n$ , we have

$$\sum_{i \geq 0} i^n \binom{q+i-1}{i} x^i = \frac{x^n}{(1-x)^{n+q}} A_n \left( \frac{1}{x}; q \right) \quad (3)$$

in  $\mathbf{Z}(q)[[x]]$ .

*Proof.* Set  $B_n(x; q) = x^n A_n(x^{-1}; q)$ . From (2), it is not difficult to verify that

$$B_0(x; q) = 1, \quad B_{n+1}(x; q) = (n+q)x B_n(x; q) + x(1-x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} B_n(x; q) \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

Let

$$C_n(x; q) = (1-x)^{n+q} \sum_{i \geq 0} i^n \binom{q+i-1}{i} x^i \quad \text{for } n \geq 0. \quad (4)$$

We have

$$x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \frac{C_n(x; q)}{(1-x)^{n+q}} \right] = \frac{C_{n+1}(x; q)}{(1-x)^{n+q+1}},$$

which is equivalent to

$$(n+q)x C_n(x; q) + x(1-x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} C_n(x; q) = C_{n+1}(x; q).$$

It follows from (4) and the Binomial Theorem (see, e.g., [3, p. 16]) that  $C_0(x; q) = 1$ . Hence  $C_n(x; q)$  satisfies the same recursion and initial conditions as  $B_n(x; q)$ , so they agree. This completes the proof of the theorem.  $\square$

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## References

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