

Some q -Dixon-like summation formulas

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Abstract. We give a q -analogue of some Dixon-like summation formulas obtained by Gould and Quaintance [Fibonacci Quart. 48 (2010), 56–61] and Chu [Integral Transforms Spec. Funct. 23 (2012), 251–261], respectively. For example, we prove that

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{q^{m(x-m-r)} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ m \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+r \\ m \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+r \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

where $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ k \end{bmatrix}$ denotes the q -binomial coefficient.

1 Introduction

Gould and Quaintance [4] established the following identity:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} \binom{2m}{k} \binom{x+k}{2m+r} \binom{x+2m-k}{2m+r} = \binom{2m}{m} \binom{x+m}{2m+r} \frac{\binom{x+m}{m+r}}{\binom{x+m}{m}}, \quad (1.1)$$

which is a generalization of Vosmansky's identity [6]. Recently, by employing the finite difference method, Chu [3] further established some alternating binomial coefficient identities, such as (see [3, Theorem 2]):

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} \binom{2m}{k} \binom{x+k}{2m+r} \binom{x+2m-k-1}{2m+r} \\ &= \frac{\binom{2m}{m}}{\binom{2m+r}{m}} \binom{x-1}{m+r} \binom{x+m}{m+r}, \end{aligned} \quad (1.2)$$

where we replaced $\binom{k-x+r}{2m+r}$ in [3] by its equivalent form $(-1)^r \binom{x+2m-k-1}{2m+r}$.

It is well known that binomial coefficient identities usually have nice q -analogues. For example, the Dixon identity can be generalized to the q -Dixon identity (see [5]). In this paper, we shall give q -analogues of (1.1) and almost all of the identities including (1.2) obtained by Chu [3].

Recall that the q -binomial coefficients $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ k \end{bmatrix}$ are defined by

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q = \begin{cases} \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{1 - q^{x-i+1}}{1 - q^i}, & \text{if } k \geq 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } k < 0. \end{cases}$$

Let \mathbb{N} denote the set of nonnegative integers and \mathbb{Z} the set of integers. Three of our main results are as follows:

Theorem 1.1 For $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \\ &= q^{m(x-m-r)} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \frac{\begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+r \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m \end{bmatrix}}. \end{aligned} \tag{1.3}$$

Theorem 1.2 For $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k-1 \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{q^{m(x-m-r)} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ m \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+r \\ m \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+r \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \tag{1.4}$$

Theorem 1.3 For $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k-3 \\ 2m+1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= q^{mx-m^2-m} \begin{bmatrix} x-3 \\ m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+m-1 \\ m \end{bmatrix} \\ & \times \frac{(1 + q^{x-m-1} + q^{x-m-2} + q^{2x-3} - q^{x+m} - q^{x-1} - q^{x-2} - q^{x-3m-3})}{(1 - q^{m+1})(1 - q^{2m+1})}. \end{aligned} \tag{1.5}$$

It is easy to see that (1.3) and (1.4) are q -analogues of (1.1) and (1.2) respectively, and Theorem 1.3 is a q -analogue of [3, Theorem 4].

We should concede that it is sometimes quite a routine matter to write down q -analogues of binomial coefficient identities. However, this is not

always the case for the Dixon-like identities in Chu [3]. For example, the identity (1.5) is a little different from classical q -binomial coefficient identities, for the right-hand side of (1.5) has a strange big factor. Moreover, it is rather difficult to find q -analogues of the following identities in [3]:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^k \binom{2m}{k} \binom{k+x}{2m-1} \binom{k-x+1}{2m-1} \\ &= \frac{m^2(2m-x)(2m+x-1)}{12\binom{x+1}{4}} \binom{x-1}{m} \binom{-x}{m}, \\ & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^k \binom{2m}{k} \binom{1-x}{k-1} \binom{-x-2}{2m-k-1} \\ &= \frac{m^2(x-2m)(x+2m-1)}{12\binom{x+1}{4}} \binom{x-1}{m} \binom{-x}{m}. \end{aligned}$$

The paper is organized as follows. In the next section, we shall give a detailed proof of Theorem 1.1 by applying the fundamental theorem of algebra and the q -binomial theorem. In Section 3, we shall give proofs of the other five theorems including Theorems 1.2 and 1.3 in a similar way. In Section 4, another kind of alternating q -binomial coefficient identities will be proved. In the last section, we shall point out that eight couples of the identities in [3] are in fact equivalent to each other.

2 Proof of Theorem 1.1

Note that, by the q -binomial theorem

$$\sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k q^{\binom{k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} z^k = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (1 - zq^i)$$

(see, for example, [1, p. 36]), we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{n-k} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} q^{\binom{n-k}{2}+ik} = 0 \quad \text{for } 0 \leq i \leq n-1. \quad (2.1)$$

Define the polynomial by the q -binomial sum

$$\begin{aligned} F_q(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{2m-k}{2} - \frac{3m^2-m}{2} + mk} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to see that the coefficient of q^{ax} in $\begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix}$ is a Laurent polynomial in q^k consisting of terms of degree between $-a$ and a if $a \leq 2m+r$, and between $a-4m-2r$ and $4m+2r-a$ if $a > 2m+r$. This means that the coefficient of q^{ax} in $q^{mk} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix}$ is a polynomial in q^k of degree less than $2m$ if $a < m$ or $a > 3m+2r$. By (2.1), one sees that $F_q(x)$ is a polynomial in q^x consisting of terms of degree between m and $3m+2r$.

When $r \leq 0$, we have $F_q(x) = 0$ for $x = -m, \dots, r-1, 0, \dots, m+r-1$ by the following facts:

- If $-m \leq x \leq r-1$, then $\begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} = 0$ for $m \leq k \leq 2m$ and $\begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} = 0$ for $0 \leq k \leq m-1$.
- If $0 \leq x \leq m+r-1$, then $\begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} = 0$ for $0 \leq k \leq m-1$ and $\begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} = 0$ for $m \leq k \leq 2m$.

This implies that $F_q(x)$ have the same $2m+2r$ zeros as

$$G_q(x) := q^{m(x-m-r)} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \frac{\begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+r \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m \end{bmatrix}}.$$

When $r > 0$, we have the following facts for $F_q(x)$:

- If $-m \leq x \leq -1$, then $\begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} = 0$ for $m \leq k \leq 2m$ and $\begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} = 0$ for $0 \leq k \leq m-1$.
- If $0 \leq x \leq r-1$, then $\begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} = 0$ for $0 \leq k \leq 2m$. That is to say, as a polynomial in q^x , $\begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix}$ is divisible by $(1-q^x)^2(1-q^{x-1})^2 \dots (1-q^{x-r+1})^2$, which implies that $0, 1, \dots, r-1$ are double roots of $F_q(x)$.
- If $r \leq x \leq m+r-1$, then $\begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} = 0$ for $0 \leq k \leq m-1$ and $\begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} = 0$ for $m \leq k \leq 2m$.

This again implies that $F_q(x)$ have the same $2m+2r$ zeros as $G_q(x)$.

Moreover, $F_q(m+r)$ has only one nonzero term $\begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ m \end{bmatrix}$, which is equal to $G_q(m+r)$. Since both $q^{-mx}F_q(x)$ and $q^{-mx}G_q(x)$ are polynomials in q^x of degree at most $2m+2r$, they must be identical. This completes the proof.

3 Proof of four Theorems

Proof of Theorem 1.2. Let

$$A_q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k-1 \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix}.$$

When $r \leq 0$, we can prove this theorem by verifying the following statements:

- $A_q(x)$ is a polynomial in q^x consisting of terms of degree between m and $3m + 2r$.
- All the zeros of $q^{-mx}A_q(x)$ are $\{i, r - i : 1 \leq i \leq m + r\}$.
- For $x = m + r + 1$, both sides of (1.4) are equal to $q^m \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ m \end{bmatrix} \frac{1-q^{2m+r+1}}{1-q^{m+1}}$.

When $r > 0$, let $\widehat{A}_q(x) = A_q(x) \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ r-1 \end{bmatrix}^{-2}$. Then we can confirm this theorem by checking the following statements:

- $\widehat{A}_q(x)$ is a polynomial q^x consisting of terms of degree between m and $3m + 2$.
- All the zeros of $q^{-mx}\widehat{A}_q(x)$ are $\{i, r - i : r \leq i \leq m + r\}$.
- For $x = m + r + 1$, the two sides of (1.4) are equal. □

Proof of Theorem 1.3. Let

$$B_q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k-3 \\ 2m+1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then we can prove this theorem by verifying the following statements:

- $B_q(x)$ is a polynomial in q^x consisting of terms of degree between m and $3m + 2$.
- All the zeros of $q^{-mx}B_q(x)$ are $\{i, 3 - i : 3 \leq i \leq m + 2\}$.
- The identity (1.5) holds for $x = 1, 2, m + 3$ by noticing that the left-hand side of (1.5) has only one or two non-zero terms for such x 's. When $x = 1$, since $\begin{bmatrix} 1+k \\ 2m+1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$ for $0 \leq k \leq 2m - 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} B_q(1) &= (-1)^m q^{\binom{-m}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2m+1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (-1)^{m-1} q^{\frac{-3m^2-9m-3}{2}} \frac{(1-q^{2m+2})}{(1-q)}, \end{aligned}$$

which is equal to the right-hand side of (1.5) with $x = 1$. Similarly, we have

$$\begin{aligned} B_q(2) &= (-1)^m q^{\binom{-m}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+2 \\ 2m+1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2m+1 \end{bmatrix}, \\ B_q(m+3) &= q \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ m-2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+2 \\ 2m+1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ m-1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+2 \\ 2m+1 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

The following theorem is a q -analogue of [3, Theorem 7].

Theorem 3.1 For $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k+1}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k-1 \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \\ &= q^{(m+1)(x-m-r-1)} \frac{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+2 \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+r \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} x-2 \\ m+r-1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+r-1 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.1)$$

Proof. Let

$$C_q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k+1}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k-1 \\ 2m+r \end{bmatrix}.$$

When $r \leq 0$, we can prove this theorem by checking the following statements:

- $C_q(x)$ is a polynomial in q^x consisting of terms of degree between $m+1$ and $3m+2r-1$.
- All the zeros of $q^{-(m+1)x}C_q(x)$ are $\{i, r-i: 2 \leq i \leq m+r\}$.
- For $x = m+r+1$, both sides of (3.1) are equal to $\frac{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+2 \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1-q^{2m+r+1}}{1-q^{m+2}}}{1-q^{m+2}}$.

When $r > 0$, we can prove this theorem by defining

$$\widehat{C}_q(x) = C_q(x) \begin{bmatrix} x-2 \\ r-1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ r-1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

and then verifying the following statements:

- $\widehat{C}_q(x)$ is a polynomial in q^x consisting of terms of degree between $m+1$ and $3m+1$.
- All the zeros of $q^{-(m+1)x}\widehat{C}_q(x)$ are $\{i, r-i: r+1 \leq i \leq m+r\}$.
- For $x = m+r+1$, both sides of (3.1) are equal. □

The following theorem is a q -analogue of [3, Theorem 8].

Theorem 3.2 For $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k+1}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r+1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r+1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= q^{(m+1)(x-m-r-1)} \frac{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+r+1 \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+r \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

Proof. Let

$$D_q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\binom{m-k+1}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r+1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k \\ 2m+r+1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

When $r \leq 0$, we can prove this theorem by showing that

- $D_q(x)$ is a polynomial in q^x consisting of terms of degree between $m+1$ and $3m+2r+1$.
- All the zeros of $q^{-(m+1)x} D_q(x)$ are $\{i, r-i : 1 \leq i \leq m+r\}$.
- For $x = m+r+1$, both sides of (3.2) are equal to $\begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix}$.

When $r > 0$, we can prove this theorem by defining

$$\widehat{D}_q(x) = C_q(x) \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ r \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ r \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

and then verifying the following statements:

- $\widehat{D}_q(x)$ is a polynomial in q^x consisting of terms of degree between $m+1$ and $3m+1$.
- All the zeros of $q^{-(m+1)x} \widehat{D}_q(x)$ are $\{i, r-i : r+1 \leq i \leq m+r\}$.
- For $x = m+r+1$, both sides of (3.2) are equal. □

We end this section with the following q -analogue of [3, Theorem 9].

Theorem 3.3 For $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, there holds

$$\sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^k q^{\binom{m-k+1}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r+2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k+1 \\ 2m+r+2 \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

Proof. Let

$$E_q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^k q^{\binom{m-k+1}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+k \\ 2m+r+2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x+2m-k+1 \\ 2m+r+2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

When $r < 0$, we can confirm this theorem by checking the following statements:

- $E_q(x)$ is a polynomial in q^x consisting of terms of degree between $m+1$ and $3m+2r+3$.

- $q^{-(m+1)x} E_q(x)$ has zeros $\{i, r-i: 0 \leq i \leq m+r+1\}$, whose cardinality is $2m+2r+4$, greater than $2m+2r+2$, which means that $E_q(x) \equiv 0$.

When $r \geq 0$, we can confirm this theorem by defining $\widehat{E}_q(x) = E_q(x) \left[\begin{smallmatrix} x \\ r+1 \end{smallmatrix} \right]^{-2}$ and then checking the following statements:

- $\widehat{E}_q(x)$ is a polynomial in q^x consisting of terms of degree between $m+1$ and $3m+1$.
- $q^{-(m+1)x} \widehat{E}_q(x)$ has zeros $\{i, r-i: r+1 \leq i \leq m+r+1\}$, whose cardinality is $2m+2$, greater than $2m$, which leads to $\widehat{E}_q(x) \equiv 0$. \square

4 Another kind of q -series identities

Applying the Leibniz rule for the product of two functions, Chu [3, Corollary 13] establishes the following transformation on alternating binomial sums:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} \binom{k+x}{n+\varepsilon} \binom{k-x+r}{n+\varepsilon} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{k+\varepsilon} \binom{n}{k} \binom{r-x}{k+\varepsilon} \binom{\varepsilon-x-1}{n+\varepsilon-k}, \end{aligned} \quad (4.1)$$

which enables him to deduce some other closed formulas including Dixon's identity.

Although we cannot find a q -analogue of (4.1), we may give a q -analogue of most of the binomial coefficient identities in [3, Section 4]. The following theorem is a q -analogue of [3, $V_{2m}(r, r|x)$]. Its proof is a little different from those in the previous section, but much similar to that in [5].

Theorem 4.1 For $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\frac{3(m-k)^2+m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ k+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ 2m+r-k \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{\begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ m \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+r \\ m \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ m+r \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.2)$$

Proof. Let

$$H_q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\frac{3(m-k)^2+m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ k+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ 2m+r-k \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then $H_q(x)$ is a polynomial q^x of degree less than or equal to $2m + 2r$. We first consider the $r \leq 0$ case. It suffices to verify (4.2) for $2m + 2r + 1$ distinct values of x . For $x = 1, \dots, m + r$, we have $H_q(x) = 0$ since $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ k+r \end{bmatrix} = 0$ or $\begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ 2m+r-k \end{bmatrix} = 0$. For $x = m + r + 1$, both sides of (4.2) are equal to $\begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ m \end{bmatrix} \frac{1-q^{2m+r+1}}{1-q^{m+1}}$. For $x = -p$ ($1 - r \leq p \leq m$), noticing that

$$\begin{bmatrix} -n \\ k \end{bmatrix} = (-1)^k q^{-nk - \binom{k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} n+k-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix},$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} H_q(-p) &= \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\frac{3(m-k)^2+m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -p \\ k+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -p-1 \\ 2m+r-k \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{(2m-k) + U} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k+r+p-1 \\ p-1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+r+p-k \\ p \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k+p} q^{(2m-k) + V} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k+r+p-1 \\ p-1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k-2m-r-1 \\ p \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned} \tag{4.3}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} U &= mk + (m - 5m^2)/2 - 2p(m+r) - 2mr - r^2, \\ V &= U + p(2m+r+p-k) - \binom{p}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $q^V \begin{bmatrix} k+r+p-1 \\ p-1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k-2m-r-1 \\ p \end{bmatrix}$ is a polynomial in q^k of degree

$$m - p + 2p - 1 = m + p - 1 \leq 2m - 1,$$

and by (2.1) we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^k q^{\binom{2m-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} q^{ik} = 0, \quad \text{for } 0 \leq i \leq 2m - 1.$$

Namely, the right-hand side of (4.3) vanishes for $x = -p$ ($1 - r \leq p \leq m$). This proves the $r \leq 0$ case.

For the $r > 0$ case, let $\widehat{H}_q(x) = H_q(x) \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ r \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ r \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$. Then $\widehat{H}_q(x)$ is a polynomial in q^x of degree no more than $2m$. Similarly to the $r \leq 0$ case, we can show that all the zeros of $\widehat{H}_q(x)$ are $\{i, r - i : r + 1 \leq i \leq m + r\}$, and for $x = m + r + 1$, the identity (4.2) holds. \square

We now give a q -analogue of [3, $V_{2m}(3, 1|x)$].

Theorem 4.2 For $m \in \mathbb{N}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^{m-k} q^{\frac{3(m-k)^2+m-3k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ k+1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-3 \\ 2m-k+1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{(1-q^{x-2m-3})(1+q-q^{m+1}-q^x-q^{x-1}+q^{x-m-1})}{(1-q^{m+1})(1-q^{2m+1})} \\ & \quad \times \begin{bmatrix} x+m-1 \\ m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-3 \\ m \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.4)$$

Sketch of Proof. Both sides of (4.4) are polynomials in q^x of degree less than or equal to $2m+2$, and have zeros $\{i, 3-i: 3 \leq i \leq m+2\} \cup \{2m+3\}$. For $x=1$, both sides of (4.4) are equal to $(-1)^{m-1}q^{-(m^2+9m+4)/2}(1-q^{2m+2})/(1-q)$, and for $x=2$, both sides of (4.4) are equal to $(-1)^{m-1}q^{-(m^2+7m)/2}(1+q^{m-1})(1-q^{m+1})/(1-q)$.

Similarly, applying another special case of the binomial theorem

$$\sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^k q^{\binom{2m+1-k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} q^{ik} = 0, \quad \text{for } 0 \leq i \leq 2m,$$

we can prove the following result, which is a q -analogue of [3, $V_{2m+1}(r, r|x)$].

Theorem 4.3 For $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^{m-k-1} q^{\frac{3(m-k)^2+m-5k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ k+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ 2m+r-k+1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{q^{-2m-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ m \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+r+1 \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ m+r \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.5)$$

Sketch of Proof. When $r \leq 0$, both sides of (4.5) are polynomials in q^x of degree less than or equal to $2m+2r+1$ and have zeros $\{i, r-i: 1 \leq i \leq m+r\}$. For $x=m+r+1$, both sides of (4.5) are equal to $q^{-2m-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ m \end{bmatrix}$. For $x=m+r+2$, both sides of (4.5) are equal to $q^{-2m-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ m \end{bmatrix} \frac{(1-q^{m+r+1})(1-q^{2m+r+2})}{(1-q)(1-q^{m+2})}$.

When $r > 0$, divide both sides of (4.5) by $\begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ r \end{bmatrix}$ and then we can show that both sides are polynomials in q^x of degree no more than $2m$ and have zeros $\{i, r-i: r+1 \leq i \leq m+r\}$. For $x=m+r+1$, the identity holds. \square

Replacing q by q^{-1} in (4.4) and noticing that $\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_{q^{-1}} = q^{k(k-n)} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}$, we have

Corollary 4.4 For $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^{m-k-1} q^{\frac{3(m-k)^2+m-3k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ k+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ 2m+r-k+1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{q^{x-2m-r-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ m \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+r+1 \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ m+r \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we can prove the following q -analogue of [3, $V_{2m+1}(r, r-1|x)$].

Theorem 4.5 For $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^{m-k-1} q^{\frac{3(m-k)^2+m-5k}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ k+r-1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-2 \\ 2m+r-k \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{(q^{x-3m-r-1} + q^{-2m-1}) \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ m \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} 2m+r \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+r-1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-2 \\ m+r-1 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.6)$$

Letting $r = 2$ in (4.6), we obtain the following result.

Corollary 4.6 For $m \in \mathbb{N}$, there holds

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m+1} (-1)^{m-k-1} q^{\frac{(3m-3k+2)(m-k+1)}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2m+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ k+1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-2 \\ 2m-k+2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1+q^{x-m-2}}{1+q^{m+1}} \begin{bmatrix} x+m \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-2 \\ m+1 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.7)$$

5 Concluding Remarks

Let

$$U_n(r, \varepsilon|x) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} \binom{k+x}{n+\varepsilon} \binom{k-x+r}{n+\varepsilon},$$

$$V_n(r, \varepsilon|x) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} \binom{r-x}{k+\varepsilon} \binom{\varepsilon-x-1}{n+\varepsilon-k}.$$

Chu [3] gave more theorems on $U_n(r, \varepsilon|x)$ and $V_n(r, \varepsilon|x)$ than those q -analogues we give in the previous sections. Here we want to point out that the following four couples of the identities on $U_n(r, \varepsilon|x)$ in [3] are equivalent to each other:

Theorems 2 and 3; Theorems 4 and 5; Theorems 7 and 11;
Theorems 8 and 10.

For example, Theorems 4 and 5 in [3] can be respectively written as

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^k \binom{2m}{k} \binom{k+x}{2m+1} \binom{k-x+3}{2m+1} \\ &= \frac{(2m+x)(2m-x+3)}{(m+1)(2m+1)} \binom{x-3}{m} \binom{-x}{m}, \end{aligned} \tag{5.1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^k \binom{2m}{k} \binom{k+x}{2m+1} \binom{k-x-3}{2m+1} \\ &= \frac{(2m-x)(2m+x+3)}{(m+1)(2m+1)} \binom{x}{m} \binom{-x-3}{m}. \end{aligned} \tag{5.2}$$

Replacing k by $2m - k$ and x by $x + 3$ in (5.1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{2m} (-1)^k \binom{2m}{k} \binom{x+2m-k+3}{2m+1} \binom{2m-k-x}{2m+1} \\ &= \frac{(2m-x)(2m+x+3)}{(m+1)(2m+1)} \binom{x}{m} \binom{-x-3}{m}, \end{aligned}$$

which is equivalent to (5.2) since $\binom{x+2m-k+3}{2m+1} = -\binom{k-x-3}{2m+1}$ and $\binom{2m-k-x}{2m+1} = -\binom{k+x}{2m+1}$.

Similarly, substituting $\lambda \rightarrow \lambda + 2$, $y \rightarrow y + 1$, and $k \rightarrow 2m - k$ in [3, Theorem 2], we obtain [3, Theorem 3]; substituting $\lambda \rightarrow \lambda + 4$, $y \rightarrow y + 2$, and $k \rightarrow 2m + 1 - k$ in [3, Theorem 7], we get [3, Theorem 11]; substituting $\lambda \rightarrow \lambda + 2$, $y \rightarrow y + 1$, and $k \rightarrow 2m - k$ in [3, Theorem 8], we are led to [3, Theorem 10]. Finally, by (4.1), the corresponding four couples of the identities on $V_n(r, \varepsilon|x)$ are equivalent to one another.

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