## 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]:

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

where the q-binomial coefficients are defined by

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

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

Recently, Mickic [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  $[n] = \frac{1-q^n}{1-q}$ . Denote the left-hand side of (1.1) by S(a, b, c). We introduce two auxiliary sums as follows:

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

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

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  $a, b, c \ge 1$ ,

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

Similarly, we have

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

It follows from (2.1) and (2.2) that

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

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

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

We need to consider the case when a = b = c separately. Noticing the well known relations (see, for example [1, (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

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

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

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

and

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

Therefore, (2.7) implies that

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

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

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

as desired. If a = b, then  $a \neq c$ , and we can do 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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