

Proof of a conjecture involving Sun polynomials

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Abstract. The Sun polynomials $g_n(x)$ are defined by

$$g_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{k} x^k.$$

We prove that, for any positive integer n , there hold

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (4k+3)g_k(x) &\in \mathbb{Z}[x], \quad \text{and} \\ \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (8k^2+12k+5)g_k(-1) &\equiv 0 \pmod{n}. \end{aligned}$$

The first one confirms a recent conjecture of Z.-W. Sun, while the second one partially answers another conjecture of Z.-W. Sun. We give three different proofs of the former. One of them depends on the following congruence:

$$\binom{m+n-2}{m-1} \binom{n}{m} \binom{2n}{n} \equiv 0 \pmod{m+n} \quad \text{for } m, n \geq 1.$$

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1 Introduction

Recently, Z.-W. Sun [20] introduced the polynomials

$$g_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{k} x^k,$$

which we call *Sun polynomials* here, and proved many interesting identities and congruences involving $g_n(x)$, such as

$$\frac{1}{3n^2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (4k+3)g_k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{k+1} \binom{2k}{k} \binom{n-1}{k}^2,$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} kg_k \equiv -\frac{3}{4} \pmod{p^2},$$

where p is an odd prime and $g_k = g_k(1)$. Z.-W. Sun [19] also conjectured that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{16k+5}{324^k} \binom{2k}{k} g_k(-20) = \frac{189}{25\pi}.$$

Some other congruences involving g_n can be found in [10, 18, 19].

The Sun polynomials also satisfy the following identities [20, (2.7), (2.11)]:

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} f_k(x) = g_n(x),$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^{n-k} g_k(x) = A_n(x),$$

where $f_n(x)$ and $A_n(x)$ are respectively the Franel polynomials and Apéry polynomials [17] defined as

$$f_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{n} x^k,$$

$$A_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{n+k}{k}^2 x^k.$$

The objective of this paper is to prove the following result, which was originally conjectured by Z.-W. Sun (see [20, Conjecture 4.1(ii)]).

Theorem 1.1 *Let n be a positive integer. Then*

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (4k+3)g_k(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x], \tag{1.1}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (8k^2 + 12k + 5)g_k(-1) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}, \tag{1.2}$$

Remark. For the congruence (1.2), Z.-W. Sun [20] made the following stronger conjecture:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (8k^2 + 12k + 5)g_k(-1) \equiv n^2 \pmod{2n^2}, \quad (1.3)$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (8k^2 + 12k + 5)g_k(-1) \equiv 3p^2 \pmod{p^3}, \quad (1.4)$$

where p is a prime.

In order to prove Theorem 1.1, we need to establish some preliminary results in Section 3. However, since the following result is interesting in its own right, we label it as a theorem here.

Theorem 1.2 *Let m and n be positive integers. Then*

$$\binom{m+n-2}{m-1} \binom{n}{m} \binom{2n}{n} \equiv 0 \pmod{m+n}. \quad (1.5)$$

It is worth mentioning that Gessel [5, Section 7] proved a similar result as follows:

$$\frac{m}{2} \binom{2m}{m} \binom{2n}{n} \equiv 0 \pmod{m+n},$$

of which a generalization was given by the author [6, Theorem 1.4].

The paper is organized as follows. Applying the same techniques in [6, 7], we shall prove a q -analogue of Theorem 1.2 in the next section. In Section 3, we give three lemmas, one of which is closely related to Theorem 1.2. Two proofs of (1.1) and a proof of (1.2) will be given in Section 4. The second proof of (1.1) is motivated by Sun [20, Lemma 3.4] and its proof. We shall also give a q -analogue (the third proof) of (1.1) in Section 5. We end the paper in Section 6 with a related conjecture.

2 A q -analogue of Theorem 1.2

Recall that the q -binomial coefficients are defined by

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

We now state the announced strengthening of Theorem 1.2.

Theorem 2.1 *Let m and n be positive integers. Then*

$$\frac{1 - q}{1 - q^{m+n}} \begin{bmatrix} m+n-2 \\ m-1 \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n \\ m \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} 2n \\ n \end{bmatrix}_q \quad (2.1)$$

is a polynomial in q with non-negative integer coefficients.

It is clear that Theorem 1.2 can be deduced from Theorem 2.1 by letting $q \rightarrow 1$.

A polynomial $A(q) = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i q^i$ in q of degree d is called *reciprocal* if $a_i = a_{d-i}$ for all i , and that it is called *unimodal* if there is an index r such that $0 \leq a_0 \leq \dots \leq a_r \geq \dots \geq a_d \geq 0$. The following is an elementary but crucial property of reciprocal and unimodal polynomials (see, for example, [1] or [15, Proposition 1]).

Lemma 2.2 *If $A(q)$ and $B(q)$ are reciprocal and unimodal polynomials, then so is their product $A(q)B(q)$.*

Similarly to the proof of [7, Theorem 3.1], we also need the following result. We refer the reader to [13, Proposition 10.1.(iii)] and [3, Proof of Theorem 2] for similar mathematical ideas.

Lemma 2.3 [7, Lemma 5.1] *Let $P(q)$ be a reciprocal and unimodal polynomial and m and n positive integers with $m \leq n$. Furthermore, assume that $\frac{1-q^m}{1-q^n}P(q)$ is a polynomial in q . Then $\frac{1-q^m}{1-q^n}P(q)$ has non-negative coefficients.*

Proof of Theorem 2.1. It is well known that the q -binomial coefficients are reciprocal and unimodal polynomials in q (see, for example, [16, Ex. 7.75.d]). By Lemma 2.2, so is the product of three q -binomial coefficients. In view of Lemma 2.3, to prove Theorem 2.1, it suffices to show that the expression (2.1) is a polynomial in q . We shall accomplish this by considering a count of cyclotomic polynomials.

Recall that

$$q^n - 1 = \prod_{d|n} \Phi_d(q),$$

where $\Phi_d(q)$ denotes the d -th cyclotomic polynomial in q . Therefore,

$$\frac{1-q}{1-q^{m+n}} \begin{bmatrix} m+n-2 \\ m-1 \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n \\ m \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} 2n \\ n \end{bmatrix}_q = \prod_{d=2}^{2n} \Phi_d(q)^{e_d},$$

with

$$e_d = -\chi(d \mid m+n) + \left\lfloor \frac{m+n-2}{d} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{2n}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{m-1}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{m}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{n}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{n-m}{d} \right\rfloor,$$

where $\chi(\mathcal{S}) = 1$ if \mathcal{S} is true and $\chi(\mathcal{S}) = 0$ otherwise. The number e_d is obviously non-negative, unless $d \mid m+n$.

So, let us assume that $d \mid m+n$ and $d \geq 2$. We consider two cases: If $d \mid m$, then $d \mid n$, and so

$$\left\lfloor \frac{m+n-2}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{m-1}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{d} \right\rfloor = \frac{m+n-d}{d} - \frac{m-d}{d} - \frac{n-d}{d} = 1.$$

Namely, $e_d = 0$ is non-negative; If $d \nmid m$, then

$$\left\lfloor \frac{2n}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{m}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{n}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{n-m}{d} \right\rfloor = \frac{m+n}{d} - \left\lfloor \frac{m}{d} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{n}{d} \right\rfloor = 1.$$

That is, $e_d = 0$ is still non-negative. This completes the proof of polynomiality of (2.1). \square

3 Some preliminary results

Lemma 3.1 *Let n be a non-negative integer. Then*

$$\binom{x}{n}^2 = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{x}{n+k} \binom{n+k}{k} \binom{n}{k}. \quad (3.1)$$

Proof. Applying Chu-Vandermonde's identity (see, for example, [9, p. 32])

$$\binom{x}{n} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{x-n}{k} \binom{n}{k},$$

and noticing that $\binom{x}{n} \binom{x-n}{k} = \binom{x}{n+k} \binom{n+k}{k}$, we obtain (3.1). In fact, Eq. (3.1) is a special case of [14, p. 15, Eq. (9)]. \square

Lemma 3.2 *Let n be a positive integer and let $0 \leq k \leq n$. Then*

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{m=k}^{n-1} (4m+3) \binom{m}{k} &= (4n-1) \binom{n}{k+1} - 4 \binom{n}{k+2}, \\ \sum_{m=k}^{n-1} (8m^2+12m+5) \binom{m}{k} &= (8n^2-4n+1) \binom{n}{k+1} - (16n-12) \binom{n}{k+2} + 16 \binom{n}{k+3}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Proceed by induction on n . \square

Lemma 3.3 *Let m and n be non-negative integers. Then*

$$\binom{m+n}{m} \binom{n+1}{m} \binom{2n}{n} \frac{3m^2+n^2+m+n}{(m+n)(n+1)} \equiv 0 \pmod{m+n+1}.$$

Proof. Note that

$$\frac{3m^2+n^2+m+n}{(m+n)(n+1)} = \frac{3m(m+n+1)}{(m+n)(n+1)} + \frac{n(m+n+1)}{(m+n)(n+1)} - \frac{2m(2n+1)}{(m+n)(n+1)}.$$

Since $\frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} = \binom{2n}{n} - \binom{2n}{n-1}$ is an integer (the n -th Catalan number), we see that

$$\binom{m+n}{m} \binom{2n}{n} \frac{m}{(m+n)(n+1)} = \binom{m+n-1}{m-1} \binom{2n}{n} \frac{1}{n+1},$$

and

$$\binom{m+n}{m} \binom{2n}{n} \frac{n}{(m+n)(n+1)} = \binom{m+n-1}{m} \binom{2n}{n} \frac{1}{n+1},$$

are both integers. It remains to show that

$$\binom{m+n}{m} \binom{n+1}{m} \binom{2n}{n} \frac{2m(2n+1)}{(m+n)(n+1)} \equiv 0 \pmod{m+n+1},$$

i.e.,

$$\binom{m+n-1}{m-1} \binom{n+1}{m} \binom{2n+2}{n+1} \equiv 0 \pmod{m+n+1}.$$

But this is just the $n \rightarrow n+1$ case of the congruence (1.5). □

Lemma 3.4 *Let*

$$S_n = f_{n-3}(-1) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-3} (-1)^k \binom{2k}{k} \binom{n-3}{k} \binom{k}{n-k-3}.$$

Then there hold the following congruences:

$$S_{3n} \equiv S_{3n+1} \equiv -S_{3n+2} \pmod{3}, \quad (3.2)$$

$$S_{4n+2} \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \quad (3.3)$$

$$S_{n+2} + 12S_{n+1} + 16S_n \equiv 0 \pmod{n}. \quad (3.4)$$

Proof. Zeilberger's algorithm [9, 12] gives the following recurrence relation for S_n :

$$(5n^3 - 8n^2)S_{n+3} + (45n^3 - 117n^2 + 90n - 24)S_{n+2} + (200n^3 - 720n^2 + 824n - 288)S_{n+1} + (160n^3 - 736n^2 + 1024n - 384)S_n = 0. \quad (3.5)$$

Replacing n by $3n-1$ in (3.5), we obtain

$$-S_{3n+2} - S_{3n} \equiv 0 \pmod{3},$$

while replacing n by $3n+1$ in (3.5), we get

$$S_{3n+2} + S_{3n+1} \equiv 0 \pmod{3}.$$

This proves (3.2). Similarly, replacing n by $4n-1$ in (3.5), we are led to (3.3).

In order to prove (3.4), we need to consider four cases:

- If $\gcd(n, 24) = 1$, then (3.5) means that $-24(S_{n+2} + 12S_{n+1} + 16S_n) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$, i.e., the congruence (3.4) holds.
- If $\gcd(n, 24) = 2, 4, 8$, then (3.5) means that

$$\pm 2nS_{n+2} - 24(S_{n+2} + 12S_{n+1} + 16S_n) \equiv 0 \pmod{8n}.$$

By (3.3), we have $2nS_{n+2} \equiv 0 \pmod{8n}$ in this case, and so the congruence (3.4) holds.

- If $\gcd(n, 24) = 3$, then (3.5) means that

$$2nS_{n+1} + nS_n - 24(S_{n+2} + 12S_{n+1} + 16S_n) \equiv 0 \pmod{3n}.$$

By (3.2), we have $2nS_{n+1} + nS_n \equiv 0 \pmod{3n}$ in this case, and so the congruence (3.4) holds.

- If $\gcd(n, 24) = 6, 12, 24$, then (3.5) means that

$$30nS_{n+2} + 8nS_{n+1} + 16nS_n - 24(S_{n+2} + 12S_{n+1} + 16S_n) \equiv 0 \pmod{24n}, \quad \text{or}$$

$$18nS_{n+2} + 8nS_{n+1} + 16nS_n - 24(S_{n+2} + 12S_{n+1} + 16S_n) \equiv 0 \pmod{24n}.$$

By (3.3), we have $30nS_{n+2} \equiv 18nS_{n+2} \equiv 0 \pmod{24n}$ and $8nS_{n+1} + 16nS_n \equiv 0 \pmod{24n}$ in this case, and so the congruence (3.4) still holds.

□

4 Proof of Theorem 1.1

First Proof of (1.1). By Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} (4m+3)g_m(x) \\
&= \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} (4m+3) \sum_{k=0}^m \binom{m}{k}^2 \binom{2k}{k} x^k \\
&= \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} (4m+3) \sum_{k=0}^m \binom{2k}{k} x^k \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{m}{k+i} \binom{k+i}{i} \binom{k}{i} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k+i}{i} \binom{k}{i} \sum_{m=k+i}^{n-1} (4m+3) \binom{m}{k+i} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \sum_{i=0}^k \left((4n-1) \binom{n}{k+i+1} - 4 \binom{n}{k+i+2} \right) \binom{k+i}{i} \binom{k}{i}. \tag{4.1}
\end{aligned}$$

For any non-negative integer $k \leq n-1$, to prove that the coefficient of x^k in the right-hand side of (4.1) is a multiple of n , it suffices to show that

$$\binom{2k}{k} \sum_{i=0}^k \left(\binom{n}{k+i+1} + 4 \binom{n}{k+i+2} \right) \binom{k+i}{i} \binom{k}{i} \equiv 0 \pmod{n}. \quad (4.2)$$

We shall accomplish the proof of (4.2) by using a minor trick. Rewrite the left-hand side of (4.2) as

$$\begin{aligned} & \binom{2k}{k} \sum_{i=0}^{k+1} \binom{n}{k+i+1} \left(\binom{k+i}{i} \binom{k}{i} + 4 \binom{k+i-1}{i-1} \binom{k}{i-1} \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{k+1} \binom{n}{k+i+1} \binom{k+i}{i} \binom{k+1}{i} \binom{2k}{k} \frac{k^2 + 3i^2 + k + i}{(k+i)(k+1)}. \end{aligned}$$

Then, by Lemma 3.3, for each $i \leq k+1$, the expression

$$\binom{k+i}{i} \binom{k+1}{i} \binom{2k}{k} \frac{k^2 + 3i^2 + k + i}{(k+i)(k+1)}$$

is a multiple of $k+i+1$. Finally, noticing that

$$\binom{n}{k+i+1} (k+i+1) = n \binom{n-1}{k+i} \equiv 0 \pmod{n},$$

we complete the proof. \square

Second Proof of (1.1). This proof is motivated by [20, Lemma 3.4 and its proof]. It is clear that (1.1) is equivalent to the following congruence:

$$\binom{2j}{j} \sum_{k=j}^{n-1} (4k+3) \binom{k}{j}^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{n}. \quad (4.3)$$

Denote the left-hand side of (4.3) by u_j . Then by Zeilberger's algorithm [12], we have

$$\begin{aligned} u_{j+1} - u_j &= - \binom{2j}{j} \binom{n-1}{j}^2 \frac{(9j+6)(j+1)n^2 + (12j^2 - 8jn - 4n + 14j + 4)n^3}{(j+1)^3(j+2)} \\ &= - \binom{2j}{j} \binom{n-1}{j} \binom{n+1}{j+2} \frac{(9j+6)n}{(j+1)(n+1)} \\ &\quad - \binom{2j}{j} \binom{n}{j+1} \binom{n+1}{j+2} \frac{(12j^2 - 8jn - 4n + 14j + 4)n}{(j+1)(n+1)}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.4)$$

Noticing that $\frac{1}{j+1} \binom{2j}{j}$ is an integer and $n+1$ is relatively prime to n , from (4.4) we immediately get

$$u_{j+1} - u_j \equiv 0 \pmod{n}.$$

Since $u_0 = 2n^2 + n \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$, we conclude that $u_j \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ for all j . This proves (4.3).

Proof of (1.2). By Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2, similarly to (4.1), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} (8m^2 + 12m + 5)g_m(-1) \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} (-1)^k \sum_{i=0}^k \left((8n^2 - 4n + 1) \binom{n}{k+i+1} - (16n - 12) \binom{n}{k+i+2} \right. \\
&\quad \left. + 16 \binom{n}{k+i+3} \right) \binom{k+i}{i} \binom{k}{i}. \tag{4.5}
\end{aligned}$$

In view of (4.2), it follows from (4.5) that

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} (8m^2 + 12m + 5)g_m(-1) \\
&\equiv \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} (-1)^k \sum_{i=0}^k \left(\binom{n}{k+i+1} + 12 \binom{n}{k+i+2} + 16 \binom{n}{k+i+3} \right) \\
&\quad \times \binom{k+i}{i} \binom{k}{i} \\
&= \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \left(\binom{n}{m+1} + 12 \binom{n}{m+2} + 16 \binom{n}{m+3} \right) \\
&\quad \times \sum_{k=0}^m (-1)^k \binom{2k}{k} \binom{m}{k} \binom{k}{m-k} \pmod{2n^2}. \tag{4.6}
\end{aligned}$$

Note that the right-hand side of (4.6) may be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \left(\binom{n}{m+1} + 12 \binom{n}{m+2} + 16 \binom{n}{m+3} \right) S_{m+3} \\
&= \sum_{m=1}^n \binom{n}{m} (S_{m+2} + 12S_{m+1} + 16S_m), \tag{4.7}
\end{aligned}$$

which is clearly congruent to 0 modulo n by (3.4) and the fact that $m \binom{n}{m} = n \binom{n-1}{m-1}$. \square

5 A q -analogue of (1.1)

Define the q -analogue of Sun polynomials as follows:

$$g_n(x; q) = \sum_{k=0}^n \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q^2 \begin{bmatrix} 2k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q x^k.$$

We have the following congruences related to $g_n(x; q)$.

Theorem 5.1 *Let n be a positive integer. Then*

$$(1+q)^2 \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} q^{2k} [k+1]_{q^2} g_k(x; q^2) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} q^{2k} g_k(x; q^2) \pmod{\prod_{\substack{d|n \\ d>1 \text{ is odd}}} \Phi_d(q)}, \quad (5.1)$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} q^k g_k(x; q) \equiv 0 \pmod{\prod_{\substack{d|n \\ d \text{ is even}}} \Phi_d(q)}, \quad (5.2)$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} x^j [j+1]_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \sum_{k=j}^{n-1} q^k \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} k+1 \\ j+1 \end{bmatrix}_q \equiv 0 \pmod{\prod_{\substack{d|n \\ d>2 \text{ is even}}} \Phi_d(q)}, \quad (5.3)$$

where $[n]_q = \frac{1-q^n}{1-q}$ denotes a q -integer.

Proof. It is clear that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} q^{2k} [k+1]_{q^2} g_k(x; q^2) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} q^{2k} [k+1]_{q^2} \sum_{j=0}^k \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2}^2 \begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} x^j \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} [j+1]_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} x^j \sum_{k=j}^{n-1} q^{2k} \begin{bmatrix} k+1 \\ j+1 \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Suppose that $d \mid n$ and d is odd. It is easy to see that $\Phi_d(q)$ divides $\Phi_d(q^2)$. Write $j = \gamma d + \delta$, where $0 \leq \delta \leq d-1$. If $d \leq 2\delta$, then by the q -Lucas theorem (see Olive [11], Désarménien [4, Proposition 2.2] or Guo and Zeng [8, Proposition 2.1]),

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 2\gamma+1 \\ \gamma \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2\delta-d \\ \delta \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} = 0 \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}.$$

Now assume that $\delta \leq \frac{d-1}{2}$. Then applying the q -Lucas theorem, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=j}^{n-1} q^{2k} \begin{bmatrix} k+1 \\ j+1 \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} &= \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \sum_{\beta=0}^{d-1} q^{2(\alpha d + \beta)} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha d + \beta + 1 \\ \gamma d + \delta + 1 \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha d + \beta \\ \gamma d + \delta \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \\ &\equiv \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \binom{\alpha}{\gamma}^2 \sum_{\beta=0}^{d-1} q^{2\beta} \begin{bmatrix} \beta+1 \\ \delta+1 \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \delta \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}. \end{aligned} \quad (5.4)$$

It is easy to see that

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{\beta=0}^{d-1} q^{2\beta} \begin{bmatrix} \beta+1 \\ \delta+1 \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \delta \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} &= \sum_{r=0}^{d-1-\delta} q^{2r+2\delta} \begin{bmatrix} r+\delta+1 \\ \delta+1 \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} r+\delta \\ \delta \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \\
&= \sum_{r=0}^{d-1-\delta} q^{2\delta+6r+4r\delta+2r^2} \begin{bmatrix} -\delta-2 \\ r \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} -\delta-1 \\ r \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \\
&\equiv \sum_{r=0}^{d-1-\delta} q^{2(d-2-\delta-r)(d-1-\delta-r)-4\delta-2\delta^2-4} \begin{bmatrix} d-\delta-2 \\ r \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} d-\delta-1 \\ d-\delta-1-r \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \\
&= q^{-4\delta-2\delta^2-4} \begin{bmatrix} 2d-2\delta-3 \\ d-1-\delta \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}, \tag{5.5}
\end{aligned}$$

where we have used the q -Chu-Vandermonde identity (see [2, (3.3.10)]) in the last step. Furthermore, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2d-2\delta-3 \\ d-1-\delta \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \equiv 0 \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}$$

for $\delta \leq \frac{d-3}{2}$. This proves that

$$\begin{aligned}
&\sum_{k=j}^{n-1} q^{2k} \begin{bmatrix} k+1 \\ j+1 \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \\
&\equiv \begin{cases} \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \binom{\alpha}{\gamma}^2 q^{\frac{d-5}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} d-2 \\ \frac{d-1}{2} \end{bmatrix}_{q^2}, & \text{if } j \equiv \frac{d-1}{2} \pmod{d}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, writing $j = \gamma d + \frac{d-1}{2}$ and applying the q -Lucas theorem, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
&\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} [j+1]_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} x^j \sum_{k=j}^{n-1} q^{2k} \begin{bmatrix} k+1 \\ j+1 \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \\
&\equiv \sum_{\gamma=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \binom{2\gamma}{\gamma} \binom{\alpha}{\gamma}^2 x^{\gamma d + \frac{d-1}{2}} q^{\frac{d-5}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} d+1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} d-1 \\ \frac{d-1}{2} \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \begin{bmatrix} d-2 \\ \frac{d-1}{2} \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \\
&\equiv \sum_{\gamma=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \binom{\alpha}{\gamma}^2 \frac{x^{\gamma d + \frac{d-1}{2}}}{q(1+q)^2} \pmod{\Phi_d(q)},
\end{aligned}$$

where we have used the congruence

$$\begin{bmatrix} d-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} \equiv (-1)^k q^{-k(k+1)} \pmod{\Phi_d(q)} \quad \text{for } 0 \leq k \leq d-1.$$

On the other hand, we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} q^{2k} g_k(x; q^2) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2} x^j \sum_{k=j}^{n-1} q^{2k} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2}^2.$$

Similarly as before, if $j = \gamma d + \delta$ and $\delta \leq \frac{d-1}{2}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=j}^{n-1} q^{2k} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_{q^2}^2 &\equiv \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \binom{\alpha}{\gamma}^2 \sum_{\beta=0}^{d-1} q^{2\beta} \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \delta \end{bmatrix}_{q^2}^2 \\ &= \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \binom{\alpha}{\gamma}^2 \sum_{r=0}^{d-\delta-1} q^{2\delta+4r+4r\delta+2r^2} \begin{bmatrix} -\delta-1 \\ r \end{bmatrix}_{q^2}^2 \\ &\equiv \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \binom{\alpha}{\gamma}^2 q^{-2\delta-2\delta^2-2} \begin{bmatrix} 2d-2\delta-2 \\ d-1-\delta \end{bmatrix}_{q^2}^2 \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}. \end{aligned} \quad (5.6)$$

It is obvious that the right-hand side of (5.6) is divisible by $\Phi_d(q)$ for $\delta \leq \frac{d-3}{2}$, which means that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} q^{2k} g_k(x; q^2) &\equiv \sum_{\gamma=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \binom{2\gamma}{\gamma} \binom{\alpha}{\gamma}^2 x^{\gamma d + \frac{d-1}{2}} q^{\frac{d-3}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} d-1 \\ \frac{d-1}{2} \end{bmatrix}_{q^2}^2 \\ &\equiv \sum_{\gamma=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \binom{2\gamma}{\gamma} \binom{\alpha}{\gamma}^2 \frac{x^{\gamma d + \frac{d-1}{2}}}{q} \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}. \end{aligned}$$

This proves (5.1).

Now assume that d is an even divisor of n . Similarly to (5.6), we have

$$\sum_{k=j}^{n-1} q^k \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{\Phi_d(q)} \quad \text{for } j = \gamma d + \delta \text{ and } 0 \leq \delta \leq \frac{d}{2} - 1.$$

On the other hand, if $j = \gamma d + \delta$ with $\frac{d}{2} \leq \delta \leq d-1$, then by the q -Lucas theorem, we obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q = \begin{bmatrix} 2\gamma d + 2\delta \\ \gamma d + \delta \end{bmatrix}_q \equiv 0 \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}.$$

This proves (5.2).

Suppose that $d > 2$ is even and $d \mid n$. Similarly to (5.4) and (5.5), we get

$$\sum_{k=j}^{n-1} q^k \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} k+1 \\ j+1 \end{bmatrix}_q \equiv \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\frac{n}{d}-1} \binom{\alpha}{\gamma}^2 q^{-2\delta-\delta^2-2} \begin{bmatrix} 2d-2\delta-3 \\ d-1-\delta \end{bmatrix}_q \equiv 0 \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}$$

for $j = \gamma d + \delta$ and $0 \leq \delta \leq \frac{d}{2} - 2$. On the other hand, if $j = \gamma d + \delta$ with $\frac{d}{2} \leq \delta \leq d - 1$, then

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2j \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q \equiv 0 \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}.$$

while if $j = \gamma d + \frac{d}{2} - 1$, then

$$[j + 1]_{q^2} \equiv \frac{1 - q^d}{1 - q^2} \equiv 0 \pmod{\Phi_d(q)}.$$

This proves (5.3). □

Recall that for $d > 1$, we have

$$\Phi_d(1) = \begin{cases} p, & \text{if } d = p^\alpha \text{ is a prime power,} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Write $n = 2^r n_1$, where n_1 is an odd integer. Then

$$\prod_{\substack{d|n \\ d>1 \text{ is odd}}} \Phi_d(1) = n_1, \quad \text{and} \quad \prod_{\substack{d|n \\ d \text{ is even}}} \Phi_d(1) = 2^r.$$

Letting $q = 1$ in (5.1)–(5.3), we immediately get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (4k + 3)g_k(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{n_1}, \tag{5.7}$$

and

$$2 \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k g_k(x) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} g_k(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{2^r}. \tag{5.8}$$

It is clear that (1.1) follows from (5.7) and (5.8). Therefore, Theorem 5.1 may be deemed a q -analogue of (1.1).

6 An open problem

Numerical calculation suggests the following conjecture on congruences involving S_n .

Conjecture 6.1 *Let n be a positive integer and p a prime. Then*

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^k \frac{S_{k+2} + 12S_{k+1} + 16S_k}{k} &\equiv 0 \pmod{n}, \\ \sum_{k=1}^p (-1)^k \frac{S_{k+2} + 12S_{k+1} + 16S_k}{k} &\equiv 2p(-1)^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \pmod{p^2}. \end{aligned} \tag{6.1}$$

By (4.6)–(4.7), it is easy to see that if the $n = p$ case of (6.1) is true, then we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (8k^2 + 12k + 5)g_k(-1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}.$$

which is a special case of (1.3) and (1.4) conjectured by Z.-W. Sun.

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