#### Some Pascal-like triangles

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#### Abstract

We collect some simple facts about analogues of Pascal's triangle where the entries count subsets of the integers with an even or odd sum of its elements. A widely known example is Losanitsch's triangle.

#### 1. Introduction

The entries  $\binom{n}{k}$  of Pascal's triangle count the subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  with k elements which

will be called k – sets for short.

A k – set S will be called *even*, if the sum of its elements is even and *odd* if this sum is odd. By convention the empty set is even.

Let  $E_{n,k}$  be the set of all even k – subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  and  $e(n,k) = |E_{n,k}|$  the number of its elements and let  $O_{n,k}$  be the set of all odd k – subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  and  $o(n,k) = |O_{n,k}|$  the number of its elements.

For example e(5,3) = 6 because  $E_{5,3} = \{\{1,2,3\},\{1,2,5\},\{1,3,4\},\{1,4,5\},\{2,3,5\},\{3,4,5\}\}$ . Let us note the trivial fact

$$e(n,k) + o(n,k) = \binom{n}{k}.$$
(1.1)

#### Lemma 1

If k is odd then o(2n,k) = e(2n,k) because  $\{s_1, \dots, s_k\} \leftrightarrow \{2n+1-s_1, \dots, 2n+1-s_k\}$  is a bijection.

#### Lemma 2

$$e(n,k) = e(n-2,k) + \binom{n-2}{k-1} + o(n-2,k-2),$$
  

$$o(n,k) = o(n-2,k) + \binom{n-2}{k-1} + e(n-2,k-2).$$
(1.2)

#### Proof

There are 3 possibilities.

a) A k-subset of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  is a k-subset of  $\{1, \dots, n-2\}$ ,

b) it contains precisely one of the numbers n-1 and n. The remaining (k-1) – set is then an arbitrary subset of  $\{1, \dots, n-2\}$ . There are  $\binom{n-2}{k-1}$  such subsets.

c) It contains both n-1 and n. Since n+(n-1) is odd the remaining (k-2)-subset must have the opposite parity of the k-subsets.

Let  $e_k$  be the column with entries e(n,k) and  $o_k$  the column with entries o(n,k) for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We consider some matrices whose columns are  $e_k$  or  $o_k$ .

## 2. Matrices where the columns $c_k$ and $c_{k+2}$ have the same parity

Ia) Let us first consider the matrix  $(e(n,k)) = (e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3, \cdots)$  whose entries are the number of even sets (Cf. OEIS [3], A282011). The first terms are

 $\left(\begin{array}{cccccccccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 6 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 6 & 10 & 9 & 3 & 0 \end{array}\right)$ 

## **Proposition 2.1**

The numbers e(n,k) satisfy

$$e(n,k) = e(n-1,k) + e(n-1,k-1)$$
(2.1)

if kn is even and

$$e(2n+1,2k+1) = e(2n,2k+1) + e(2n,2k) + (-1)^{k-1} \binom{n}{k}.$$
(2.2)

#### Proof

Consider the difference

$$d(n,k) = e(n,k) - o(n,k)$$
(2.3)

and let

$$d_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n d(n,k) x^k.$$
 (2.4)

Since the right-hand-side is  $\sum_{k} \sum_{j_1 < \dots < j_k} (-1)^{j_1 + \dots + j_k} x^k = \prod_{j=1}^n (1 + (-1)^j x)^{j_1 + \dots + j_k} x^{j_k}$ 

we see that

$$d_n(x) = \prod_{j=1}^n \left( 1 + (-1)^j x \right)$$

which gives by induction

$$d_{n}(x) = (1+x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor} (1-x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor}.$$
 (2.5)

Thus

$$d_{2n}(x) = (1 - x^{2})^{n},$$
  

$$d_{2n+1}(x) = (1 - x)(1 - x^{2})^{n}.$$
(2.6)

By (1.1) and (2.3) we get  $e(n,k) = \frac{\binom{n}{k} + d(n,k)}{2}$  and therefore

$$e_{2n}(x) = \frac{(1+x)^{2n} + (1-x^2)^n}{2},$$

$$e_{2n+1}(x) = \frac{(1+x)^{2n+1} + (1-x)(1-x^2)^n}{2}.$$
(2.7)

This implies

$$e_{2n}(x) = (1+x)e_{2n-1}(x),$$
  

$$e_{2n+1}(x) = (1+x)e_{2n}(x) - x(1-x^2)^n,$$
(2.8)

which is equivalent with Proposition 2.1.

Since 
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} e(n, n-k)x^{k} = x^{n}e_{n}\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$$
 (2.7) implies

**Corollary 2.1** 

$$e(n, n-k) = e(n, k)$$
 for  $n \equiv 0, 3 \mod 4$ ,  
 $e(n, n-k) = o(n, k)$  for  $n \equiv 1, 2 \mod 4$ .
(2.9)

Let us also derive some explicit formulae. From

$$e_{n}(x) = (1+x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor} \frac{(1+x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor} + (1-x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor}}{2} = (1+x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor} \sum_{j} \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor \right) x^{2j}$$
(2.10)

we get

$$e(n,k) = \sum_{j} \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor \right) \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor \right).$$
(2.11)

As special case we get the well-known formula

$$e(2n,n) = \sum_{k} {\binom{n}{2k}}^2.$$
(2.12)

The numbers e(n,k) are given explicitly by

$$2e(2n, 2k) = {\binom{2n}{2k}} + (-1)^k {\binom{n}{k}},$$
  

$$2e(2n+1, 2k) = {\binom{2n+1}{2k}} + (-1)^k {\binom{n}{k}}$$
  

$$2e(2n, 2k+1) = {\binom{2n}{2k+1}}$$
  

$$2e(2n+1, 2k+1) = {\binom{2n+1}{2k+1}} + (-1)^{k+1} {\binom{n}{k}}$$
  
(2.13)

Therefore the generating functions are

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} e(n,2k)x^n = \frac{x^{2k}}{2} \left( \frac{1}{(1-x)^{2k+1}} + \frac{(-1)^k (1+x)}{\left(1-x^2\right)^{k+1}} \right)$$
(2.14)

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} e(n,2k+1)x^n = \frac{x^{2k+1}}{2} \left( \frac{1}{(1-x)^{2k+2}} + \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{\left(1-x^2\right)^{k+1}} \right)$$
(2.15)

These can also be written in the following way:  $r^{4k}a_{-}(r)$ 

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} e(n,4k)x^{n} = \frac{x^{n}e_{4k}(x)}{(1+x)^{4k}(1-x)^{4k+1}},$$

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} e(n,4k+1)x^{n} = \frac{x^{4k+1}o_{4k+1}(x)}{(1+x)^{4k+1}(1-x)^{4k+2}},$$

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} e(n,4k+2)x^{n} = \frac{x^{4k+2}o_{4k+2}(x)}{(1+x)^{4k+2}(1-x)^{4k+3}},$$

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} e(n,4k+3)x^{n} = \frac{x^{4k+3}e_{4k+3}(x)}{(1+x)^{4k+3}(1-x)^{4k+4}}.$$
(2.16)

Ib) The matrix  $(o(n,k)) = (o_0, o_1, o_2, o_3, \cdots)$ , cf. OEIS [3], A 159916.

/	a	0	a	a	a	0	0
(	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
l	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
l	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
l	0	2	2	0	0	0	0
l	0	2	4	2	0	0	0
l	0	3	6	4	2	1	0
l	0	3	9	10	6	3	1

In the same way as above we get

$$o_n(x) = \frac{(1+x)^n - (1+x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor} (1-x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor}}{2}.$$
(2.17)

$$o(n,k) = \sum_{j} \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor \right) \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor \right) \left( k-2j-1 \right).$$
(2.18)

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} o(n,2k) x^n = \frac{x^{2k}}{2} \left( \frac{1}{(1-x)^{2k+1}} - \frac{(-1)^k (1+x)}{\left(1-x^2\right)^{k+1}} \right)$$
(2.19)

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} o(n, 2k+1)x^n = \frac{x^{2k+1}}{2} \left( \frac{1}{(1-x)^{2k+2}} + \frac{(-1)^k}{\left(1-x^2\right)^{k+1}} \right).$$
(2.20)

The generating functions can also be written as

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} o(n,4k) x^{n} = \frac{x^{4k} o_{4k}(x)}{(1+x)^{4k} (1-x)^{4k+1}},$$

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} o(n,4k+1) x^{n} = \frac{x^{4k+1} e_{4k+1}(x)}{(1+x)^{4k+1} (1-x)^{4k+2}},$$

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} o(n,4k+2) x^{n} = \frac{x^{4k+2} e_{4k+2}(x)}{(1+x)^{4k+2} (1-x)^{4k+3}},$$

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} o(n,4k+3) x^{n} = \frac{x^{4k+3} o_{4k+3}(x)}{(1+x)^{4k+3} (1-x)^{4k+4}}.$$
(2.21)

Ic) The matrix  $(f(n,k)) = (e_0, o_1, e_2, o_3, \cdots)$ .

(	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
l	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
l	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
l	1	2	1	0	0	0	0
l	1	2	2	2	1	0	0
l	1	3	4	4	3	1	0
l	1	3	6	10	9	3	0

#### **Proposition 2.2**

$$f(2n,k) = e(2n,k),$$
  

$$f(2n+1,k) = f(2n,k) + f(2n,k-1)$$
(2.22)

### Proof

f(2n,k) = e(2n,k) for all k. By definition this holds for even k. For odd k it follows from Lemma 1.

To show that f(2n+1,k) = e(2n,k) + e(2n,k-1) consider first an even k. The k - sets which do not contain 2n+1 are counted by e(2n,k) and the rest by o(2n,k-1) = e(2n,k-1). If k is odd then f(2n+1,k) = o(2n+1,k), o(2n,k) = e(2n,k) and the remaining (k-1) = e(2n,k-1).

If k is odd, then f(2n+1,k) = o(2n+1,k), o(2n,k) = e(2n,k) and the remaining (k-1) – set is even.

Id) The opposite matrix  $(\overline{f}(n,k)) = (o_0, e_1, o_2, e_3, \cdots)$ .

0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	2	1	0	0	0
0	2	4	2	0	0	0
0	2	6	6	2	0	0
0	3	9	10	6	3	1)

Consider the polynomials  $f_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f(n,k)x^k$  and  $\overline{f}_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \overline{f}(n,k)x^k$ . Since  $f(n,k) - \overline{f}(n,k) = (-1)^k (e(n,k) - o(n,k))$  we get  $f_n(x) - \overline{f}_n(x) = d(n,-x)$ .

This gives

$$f_{n}(x) = \frac{(1+x)^{n} + (1-x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor} (1+x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor}}{2} = (1+x)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor} \sum_{j} \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor \right) x^{2j},$$

$$\overline{f}_{n}(x) = \frac{(1+x)^{n} - \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} \left( 1 + (-1)^{j} x \right)}{2}.$$
(2.23)

Thus

$$f(n,k) = \sum_{j} \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor \right) \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor \right) \left( k-2j \right)$$
(2.24)

and

$$\overline{f}(n,k) = \sum_{j} \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor \\ 2j+1 \right) \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor \\ k-2j-1 \right).$$
(2.25)

(2.23) also implies

$$f(n, n-k) = f(n,k) \text{ for } n \equiv 0,1 \mod 4,$$
  

$$f(n, n-k) = \overline{f}(n,k) \text{ for } n \equiv 2,3 \mod 4.$$
(2.26)

Proposition 2.2 is equivalent with

$$f_{2n}(x) = e_{2n}(x),$$
  

$$f_{2n+1}(x) = (1+x)f_{2n}(x) = (1+x)e_{2n}(x).$$
(2.27)

Let us also sketch another approach. Since the columns  $c_k$  and  $c_{k+2}$  have the same parity by Lemma 2 the entries of these matrices satisfy

$$a(n,k) = a(n-2,k) + \binom{n-2}{k-1} + \binom{n-2}{k-2} - a(n-2,k-2) \text{ and thus}$$
$$a(n,k) = a(n-2,k) + \binom{n-1}{k-1} - a(n-2,k-2). \tag{2.28}$$

Therefore the polynomials  $a_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a(n,k)x^k$  satisfy the recursion

$$a_n(x) = (1 - x^2)a_{n-2}(x) + x(1 + x)^{n-1}.$$
(2.29)

By applying this to n and n-1 we get the homogeneous recursion

$$a_{n}(x) = (1+x)a_{n-1}(x) + (1-x^{2})a_{n-2}(x) - (1+x)(1-x^{2})a_{n-3}(x).$$
(2.30)

Observe that

$$z^{3} - (1+x)z^{2} - (1-x^{2})z + (1+x)(1-x^{2}) = (z-1-x)(z^{2}-1+x^{2}).$$
(2.31)

Therefore

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} e_n(x)z^n = \frac{1 - xz - (1 - x^2)z^2}{(1 - (1 + x)z)(1 - (1 - x^2)z^2)} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{1 - (1 + x)z} + \frac{1 + (1 - x)z}{1 - (1 - x^2)z^2}\right)$$
(2.32)

which again gives (2.7). Analogously we get

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} f_n(x)z^n = \frac{1-(1+x)z^2}{(1-(1+x)z)(1-(1-x^2)z^2)} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{1-(1+x)z} + \frac{1+(1+x)z}{1-(1-x^2)z^2} \right)$$
(2.33)

which gives (2.23).

# 3. Matrices whose columns $c_{\boldsymbol{k}}$ and $c_{\boldsymbol{k}+2}$ have opposite parity

Let us now consider another class of triangles where the columns  $c_k$  and  $c_{k+2}$  have opposite parity.

By Lemma 2 the entries of these matrices satisfy

$$b(n,k) = b(n-2,k) + \binom{n-1}{k-1} + b(n-2,k-2).$$
(3.1)

Therefore the polynomials  $b_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n b(n,k)x^k$  satisfy the recursion

$$b_n(x) = (1+x^2)b_{n-2}(x) + x(1+x)^{n-1}.$$
(3.2)

By applying this to n and n-1 we get

$$b_n(x) = (1+x)b_{n-1}(x) + (1+x^2)b_{n-2}(x) - (1+x)(1+x^2)b_{n-3}(x).$$
(3.3)

IIa) The best known special case is *Losanitsch's triangle*  $(L(n,k)) = (e_0, o_1, o_2, e_3, e_4, o_5, \cdots)$ The first terms are

1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	2	2	1	0	0	0
1	2	4	2	1	0	0
1	3	6	6	3	1	0
1	3	9	10	9	3	1

By (3.1) we have

$$L(n,k) = L(n-2,k) + \binom{n-1}{k-1} + L(n-2,k-2)$$
(3.4)

which is often used to define this triangle.

This matrix has been obtained by the chemist S.M. Losanitsch [2] in his investigation of paraffin. Therefore we call the numbers L(n,k) Losanitsch numbers. The same triangle has also been considered in [1] in the study of some sort of necklaces where these numbers have been called necklace numbers. Further information can be found in OEIS [3], A034851.

#### Remark

By (2.13) we have e(n,n) = 1 if  $n \equiv 0,3 \mod 4$  and o(n,n) = 1 else. Therefore Losanitsch's triangle is also characterized by the fact that all columns are  $e_k$  or  $o_k$  and all elements of the main diagonal are 1.

IIb) The opposite matrix  $(\overline{L}(n,k)) = (o_0, e_1, e_2, o_3, o_4, e_5, \cdots)$ .

(0	0	0	0	0	0	0	۱
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
0	1	1	0	0	0	0	
0	2	2	2	0	0	0	
0	2	4	4	2	0	0	
0	3	6	10	6	3	0	J

This is OEIS [3], A034852 and essentially also A034877.

The polynomials  $L_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n L(n,k)x^k$  and  $\overline{L}_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \overline{L}(n,k)x^k$  satisfy the recursion (3.2). Therefore we get

$$L_{n}(x) - \overline{L}_{n}(x) = (1 + x^{2}) (L_{n-2}(x) - \overline{L}_{n-2}(x))$$
  
with initial values  $L_{0}(x) - \overline{L}_{0}(x) = 1$  and  $L_{1}(x) - \overline{L}_{1}(x) = 1 + x$ .

Let

$$D_n(x) = L_n(x) - \overline{L}_n(x). \tag{3.5}$$

Then

$$D_{2n}(x) = (1+x^2)^n,$$
  

$$D_{2n+1}(x) = (1+x)(1+x^2)^n.$$
(3.6)

Therefore we get

$$L_n(x) = \frac{(1+x)^n + D_n(x)}{2},$$
  

$$\overline{L}_n(x) = \frac{(1+x)^n - D_n(x)}{2}.$$
(3.7)

Thus we get (cf. [1], Theorem 2.8)

$$L(2n, 2k+1) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 2n \\ 2k+1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$L(n,k) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} n \\ k \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor \\ \left\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \right\rfloor \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{else.}$$
(3.8)

Note that

$$L_{2n+1}(x) = (1+x)L_{2n}(x).$$
(3.9)

Analogously as above we get

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} L_n(x) z^n = \frac{1 - (1 + x + x^2) z^2}{(1 - (1 + x)z)(1 - (1 + x^2) z^2)} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{1 - (1 + x)z} + \frac{1 + (1 + x)z}{1 - (1 + x^2) z^2} \right).$$
(3.10)

Further properties of the Losanitsch polynomials can be found in [1] and will not be repeated here. Let us only mention that by (3.6)  $L_n(x)$  is palindromic since

$$L(n,k) = L(n,n-k).$$
 (3.11)

Comparing with (2.16) and (2.21) we get

**Proposition 3.1** 

$$\sum_{n} L(n,k)x^{n} = \sum_{n} L(n,n-k)x^{n} = \frac{x^{k}e_{k}(x)}{(1-x)^{k+1}(1+x)^{k}}.$$
(3.12)

,

There exists also another interesting relation between the numbers e(n,k) and L(n,k).

## **Proposition 3.2**

$$\sum_{n} e(n, n-k) x^{n} = \frac{x^{k}}{(1-x)^{2\left\lfloor \frac{k+1}{2} \right\rfloor + 1} \left(1+x^{2}\right)^{\left\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \right\rfloor + 1}} L_{k+2}(-x).$$
(3.13)

## Proof

It suffices to show that

$$\sum_{n} e(n, n-2k)x^{n} = \frac{x^{2k}}{(1-x)^{2k+1} (1+x^{2})^{k+1}} L_{2k+2}(-x)$$
(3.14)

since by Proposition 1.1

$$(1-x)\sum_{n}e(n,n-2k-1)x^{n} = \sum_{n}e(n,n-2k)x^{n+1}$$

...

and by (3.9)

$$L_{2k+3}(-x) = (1-x)L_{2k+2}(-x).$$

By (2.13) we get

$$e(n, n-2k) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \binom{n}{2k} + (-1)^{\left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor - k} \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor \right) \right)$$

This implies

$$\sum_{n} e(n, n-2k)x^{n} = \frac{x^{2k}}{2} \left( \frac{1}{(1-x)^{2k+1}} + \frac{1-x}{(1+x^{2})^{k+1}} \right) = \frac{x^{2k}}{(1-x)^{2k+1}(1+x^{2})^{k+1}} \left( \left(1+x^{2}\right)^{k+1} + (1-x)(1-x)^{2k+1} \right) = \frac{x^{2k}}{(1-x)^{2k}(1+x)^{2k}} \left( \left(1+x^{2}\right)^{k+1} + (1-x)(1-x)^{2k+1} \right) = \frac{x^{2k}}{(1-x)^{2k+1}(1+x)^{2k}} \left( \left(1+x^{2}\right)^{k+1} + (1-x)(1-x)^{2k+1} \right) = \frac{x^{2k}}{(1-x)^{2k}(1+x)^{2k}(1+x)^{2k}} \left( \left(1+x^{2}\right)^{k+1} + (1-x)(1-x)^{2k+1} \right) = \frac{x^{2k}}{(1-x)^{2k}(1+x)^{2k}(1+x)^{2k}} \left( \left(1+x^{2}\right)^{k+1} + (1-x)(1-x)^{2k} \right) = \frac{x^{2k$$

By (3.7) we get 
$$(1+x^2)^{k+1} + (1-x)(1-x)^{2k+1} = L_{2k+2}(-x).$$

IIc) The matrix  $(M(n,k)) = (e_0, e_1, o_2, o_3, e_4, e_5, \cdots)$ 

/ 1	a	a	a	a	a	<b>a</b> \
· -	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	2	0	0	0	0
1	2	4	2	1	0	0
1	2	6	4	3	0	0
1	3	9	10	9	3	1)

We have

$$M(n,k) = L(n+1,k) - L(n,k-1).$$
(3.15)

For M(n,4k) = e(n,4k) = e(n+1,4k) - e(n,4k-1), M(n,4k+2) = o(n,4k+2) = o(n+1,4k+2) - o(n,4k), M(n,4k+1) = e(n,4k+1) = o(n+1,4k+1) - e(n,4k),M(n,4k+3) = o(n,4k+3) = e(n+1,4k+3) - o(n,4k+2), Observing (3.15) we get

**Corollary 3.1** 

$$\sum_{n} M(n, n-k) x^{n} = \frac{x^{k}}{(1-x^{2})^{k+1}} e_{k+1}(x).$$
(3.16)

Remark

$$M(n, n-k) = M(n, k) \quad \text{for } n \equiv 0, 2 \mod 4,$$
  

$$M(n, n-k) = \overline{M}(n, k) \quad \text{for } n \equiv 1, 3 \mod 4.$$
(3.17)

IId) The opposite matrix  $(\overline{M}(n,k)) = (o_0, o_1, e_2, e_3, o_4, o_5, \cdots)$ .

(	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	١
	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	
	0	2	2	2	0	0	0	
	0	3	4	6	2	1	0	
l	0	3	6	10	6	3	0	

Then  $\overline{M}(n,k) = \overline{L}(n+1,k) - \overline{L}(n,k-1).$ 

Let  $M_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n M(n,k) x^k$  and  $\overline{M}_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \overline{M}(n,k) x^k$ . Since  $M(n,k) - \overline{M}(n,k) = (-1)^k (L(n,k) - \overline{L}(n,k))$  we get  $M_n(x) - \overline{M}_n(x) = D_n(-x)$ . Thus

$$M_{n}(x) = \frac{(1+x)^{n} + D_{n}(-x)}{2},$$
  

$$\overline{M}_{n}(x) = \frac{(1+x)^{n} - D_{n}(-x)}{2}.$$
(3.18)

Finally let us compute the generating function of  $\sum_{n} f(n, n-k)x^{n}$ .

## **Proposition 3.3**

$$\sum_{n} f(n, n-2k+1)x^{n} = \frac{x^{2k-1}}{(1-x)^{2k} \left(1+x^{2}\right)^{k+1}} \sum_{j=0}^{2k} (-1)^{j} L(2k, j)x^{j}$$
(3.19)

and

$$\sum_{n} f(n, n-2k) x^{n} = \frac{x^{2k}}{(1-x)^{2k+1} (1+x^{2})^{k+1}} \frac{(1+x^{2})^{k+1} + (1-x)^{2k+1} (1+x)}{2}.$$
 (3.20)

## Proof

(3.19) follows from f(n, n-2k+1) = e(n, n-2k+1).

Since by (2.27) and (2.13)

$$f(n, n-2k) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \binom{n}{2k} + (-1)^{k+\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \left( \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor \atop k \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

we get

$$\sum_{n} f(n, n-2k) x^{n} = \frac{x^{2k}}{2} \left( \frac{1}{(1-x)^{2k+1}} + \frac{(1+x)}{(1+x^{2})^{k+1}} \right)$$

or (3.20).

## **Final Remarks**

There are analogous results for odd primes p.

Let a(n,k,j) be the number of k-subsets of  $\{1,2,\dots,n\}$  whose sums are congruent to j modulo p and let  $\zeta$  be a primitive p-th root of unity.

Then

$$\prod_{j=1}^{n} \left( 1 + \zeta^{j} x \right) = \sum_{k} x^{k} \sum_{j_{1} < j_{2} < \dots < j_{k}} \zeta^{j_{1} + \dots + j_{k}} = \sum_{i} x^{k} \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} a(n,k,j) \zeta^{j}.$$

Observe that

$$\sum_{\ell=0}^{p-1} \prod_{j=1}^{n} \left( 1 + \zeta^{\ell j} x \right) = \sum_{k} x^{k} \sum_{\ell=0}^{p-1} \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} a(n,k,j) \zeta^{\ell j} = p \sum_{k} a(n,k,0) x^{k}.$$

On the other hand we have

$$\sum_{\ell=0}^{p-1} \prod_{j=1}^{n} \left( 1 + \zeta^{\ell j} x \right) = (1+x)^n + \sum_{\ell=1}^{p-1} \prod_{j=1}^{n} \left( 1 + \zeta^{\ell j} x \right).$$

Since each product of  $1 + \zeta^{\ell j}$  over p consecutive values of j equals  $1 + x^p$  we see that

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{p-1} \prod_{j=1}^{pn+i} \left( 1 + \zeta^{\ell j} x \right) = b_i(x) \left( 1 + x^p \right)^n$$

for some polynomial  $b_i(x)$  of degree *i*.

Therefore the polynomial  $a_n(x) = \sum_k a(n,k,0)x^k$  satisfies

$$a_{pn+i}(x) = \frac{(1+x)^{pn+i} + b_i(x)(1+x^p)^n}{p}.$$
(3.21)

Let us only consider the case p = 3 in more detail.

The first terms of the matrix (a(n,k,0)) are

ſ	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
	1	1	2	2	0	0	0
	1	1	4	4	1	1	0
l	1	2	5	8	5	2	1

Here we get

$$a_{3n+i}(x) = \frac{(1+x)^{3n+i} + b_i(x)(1+x^3)^n}{3}$$
(3.22)

with  $b_0(x) = 2$ ,  $b_1(x) = 2 - x$ ,  $b_2(x) = 2(1 - x + x^2)$ .

For example

$$a_{0}(x) = 1 = \frac{1+2}{3}, \quad a_{1}(x) = 1 = \frac{(1+x)+(2-x)}{3}, \quad a_{2}(x) = 1 + x^{2} = \frac{(1+x)^{2}+2(1-x+x^{2})}{3},$$
$$a_{3}(x) = 1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3} = \frac{(1+x)^{3}+2(1+x^{3})}{3}, \cdots.$$

For the generating function we get therefore

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} a_n(x)z^n = \frac{1-xz-(1-x)xz^2-(1+x^3)z^3}{(1-(1+x)z)(1-(1+x^3)z^3)} = \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1-(x+1)z} + \frac{2+(2-x)z+2(1-x+x^2)z^2}{1-(1+x^3)z^3} \right).$$

In this case we also get

$$a_n(x) = (1+x^3)a_{n-3}(x) + x(1+x)^{n-2}$$
(3.23)

or equivalently

$$a(n,k) = a(n-3,k) + \binom{n-2}{k-1} + a(n-3,k-3).$$
(3.24)

To prove this consider the elements n-2, n-1, n.

The number of k – sets which contain none of these numbers is a(n-3,k), the number of those which contain precisely one of these numbers is  $\binom{n-3}{k-1}$ , the number of those which

contain precisely two of these numbers is  $\binom{n-3}{k-2}$ , because n-2+n-1, n-2+n, n-1+n are

different modulo 3 and the number of those which contain all of them is a(n-3, k-3) because n-2+n-1+n=3n-3 is a multiple of 3.

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