

WILF'S "SNAKE OIL" METHOD PROVES AN IDENTITY IN THE MOTZKIN TRIANGLE

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Dedicated to the memory of Herb Wilf

ABSTRACT. We give yet-another illustration of using Herb Wilf's *Snake Oil Method*, by proving a certain identity between the entries of the so-called *Motzkin Triangle*, that arose in a recent study of enumeration of certain classes of integer partitions. We also briefly illustrate how this method can be applied to general 'triangles'.

Our starting point was a certain conjecture, concerning the so-called *simultaneous core* partitions, found in a recent preprint [2, Conjecture 11.5]. It reads:

Conjecture. *Let s and d be two coprime positive integers. Then the number of $(s, s+d, s+2d)$ -core partitions is given by*

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor \frac{s}{2} \rfloor} \binom{s+d-1}{2k+d-1} \binom{2k+d}{k} \frac{1}{2k+d}.$$

We then paid particular interest to the special cases $d = 1$ (see [1]), resulting in the *Motzkin numbers* proven in [2] and by Yang-Zhong-Zhou [5], and $d = 2$ initiating yet another link [1, Problem 11.6] to the Motzkin triangle which we now state.

Problem. The *Motzkin triangle* $T(n, k)$ of numbers is defined according to the rules:

- (1) $T(n, 0) = 1$;
- (2) $T(n, k) = 0$ if $k < 0$ or $k > n$;
- (3) $T(n, k) = T(n-1, k-2) + T(n-1, k-1) + T(n-1, k)$.

Prove the identity (this is sequence A026940 in OEIS [3])

$$\sum_{k=0}^n T(n, k) T(n, k+1) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{2n}{2k+1} \binom{2k+1}{k} \frac{1}{k+2}.$$

Let us first observe that any such identity is nowadays *automatically provable*, thanks to the so-called *Wilf-Zeilberger algorithmic proof theory*, but it is still fun to prove it, whenever possible, the old-fashioned way, by purely *human* means. We will do this, by using what Herb Wilf called the Snake-Oil method [4, Section 4.3].

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Recall that the *Constant Term* of a Laurent polynomial, $P(x)$, is the coefficient of x^0 . For example, $CT[4/x + 3 + 5x] = 3$.

For motivation, let's look at a few known examples.

- (1) $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k = (1+x)^n$ and hence $CT \left[\frac{(1+x)^n}{x^k} \right] = \binom{n}{k}$, the famous binomial coefficients as entries in the familiar Pascal's triangle (see A007318 in OEIS [3]).
- (2) $\sum_{k=0}^{n+2} C(n, k) x^k = (1+x)^n(1-x)$, this is one variant among the Catalan triangles (see the sequences A008315 and A037012 in OEIS [3]).
- (3) $\sum_{k=0}^{2n} t(n, k) x^k = (1+x+x^2)^n$, the trinomial triangle (see A027907 in OEIS [3]).

Going back to the Motzkin triangle, we return to our Problem by first *extending* the definition of the Motzkin triangle from $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$ to $k = 0, 1, \dots, 2n+2$ as a skew-symmetric sequence:

$$T(n, k) = -T(n, 2n - k + 2).$$

Note. $T(n, n+1) = 0$ and the extended Motzkin triangle (we continue to denote by $T(n, k)$) obeys the *same* recurrence. As a result, it is easy to construct the generating function

$$\sum_{k=0}^{2n+2} T(n, k) x^k = (1+x+x^2)^n (1-x^2).$$

Or, equivalently, for $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2n+2\}$,

$$T(n, k) = CT \left(\frac{(1+x+x^2)^n (1-x^2)}{x^k} \right).$$

So, the stage is now set and The Snake Oil method can be brought to bear:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^n T(n, k) T(n, k+1) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{2n+2} T(n, k) T(n, k+1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{2n+1} T(n, k) \cdot CT \left(\frac{(1+x+x^2)^n (1-x^2)}{x^{k+1}} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} CT \left[\frac{(1+x+x^2)^n (1-x^2)}{x} \sum_{k=0}^{2n+1} T(n, k) x^{-k} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} CT \left[\frac{(1+x+x^2)^n (1-x^2)}{x} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2} \right)^n \left(1 - \frac{1}{x^2} \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} CT \left[\frac{(1+x+x^2)^{2n} (1-x^2)}{x^{2n+1}} \right] - \frac{1}{2} CT \left[\frac{(1+x+x^2)^{2n} (1-x^2)}{x^{2n+3}} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} T(2n, 2n+1) - \frac{1}{2} T(2n, 2n+3) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} T(2n, 2n-1); \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality is due to $T(2n, 2n+1) = 0$ and $T(2n, 2n+3) = -T(2n, 2n-1)$.

We pause for a moment to appreciate a striking similarity between the two identities,

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n}{k+1} = \binom{2n}{n+1} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=0}^n T(n, k) T(n, k+1) = \frac{1}{2} T(2n, 2n-1),$$

involving coefficients in the Pascal's triangle and the current Motzkin's triangle, respectively.

On the other hand, if we expand $(1 + x + x^2)^{2n} = ((1 + x) + x^2)^{2n} = \sum_{k=0}^{2n} \binom{2n}{k} x^{2k} (1 + x)^{2n-k}$ then by reverse-engineering the expression for $\frac{1}{2} T(2n, 2n - 1)$ from above, we are led to

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{2} T(2n, 2n - 1) &= \frac{1}{2} \text{CT} \left[\frac{(1 + x + x^2)^{2n} (1 - x^2)}{x^{2n-1}} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \text{CT} \left[\frac{(1 + x + x^2)^{2n}}{x^{2n-1}} \right] - \frac{1}{2} \text{CT} \left[\frac{(1 + x + x^2)^{2n}}{x^{2n-3}} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2n}{k} \binom{2n-k}{2n-2k-1} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} \binom{2n}{k} \binom{2n-k}{2n-2k-3} \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2n}{2k+1} \binom{2k+1}{k} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} \binom{2n}{2k+3} \binom{2k+3}{k} \\
&= n + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{2n}{2k+1} \binom{2k+1}{k} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{2n}{2k+1} \binom{2k+1}{k-1} \\
&= n + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{2n}{2k+1} \binom{2k+1}{k} \frac{1}{k+2} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2n}{2k+1} \binom{2k+1}{k} \frac{1}{k+2},
\end{aligned}$$

which is exactly the right-hand side of our problem. This completes the proof. In fact, we have improved the assertion of Problem 11.6 because of our success in evaluating the two sums into the *simpler* form $\frac{1}{2} T(2n, 2n - 1)$. Therefore, we may formulate our conclusion as the next result.

Theorem 1. *The following identities hold true:*

$$\sum_{k=0}^n T(n, k) T(n, k+1) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{2n}{2k+1} \binom{2k+1}{k} \frac{1}{k+2} = \frac{1}{2} T(2n, 2n - 1).$$

A litmus test (or a cannon measure, if you prefer) to the quality of a good technique is perhaps its enlightenment, simplicity and implications. Indeed, in our case, the linear operator CT offers both a clue to and a proof for an *effortless* generalization of Theorem 1. The Motzkin triangle persists!

Theorem 2. *The following identity holds true:*

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor \frac{s}{2} \rfloor} \binom{s+d-1}{2k+d-1} \binom{2k+d-1}{k} \frac{1}{k+d} = \frac{1}{d} T(s+d-1, s).$$

Proof. This is completely analogous to what has been demonstrated earlier. To wit,

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{d} T(s+d-1, s) &= \frac{1}{d} \text{CT} \left[\frac{(1 + x + x^2)^{s+d-1}}{x^s} \right] - \frac{1}{d} \text{CT} \left[\frac{(1 + x + x^2)^{s+d-1}}{x^{s-2}} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{d} \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{s+d-1}{k} \binom{s+d-k-1}{s-2k} - \frac{1}{d} \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{s+d-1}{k} \binom{s+d-k-1}{s-2k-2} \\
&= \frac{1}{d} \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{s+d-1}{2k+d-1} \binom{2k+d-1}{k} - \frac{1}{d} \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{s+d-1}{2k+d+1} \binom{2k+d+1}{k} \\
&= \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{s+d-1}{2k+d-1} \binom{2k+d-1}{k} \frac{1}{k+d}.
\end{aligned}$$

The proof is complete. \square

Is there more? Yes, here is a *bonus*! As a nice implication of the preceding results, the above Conjecture may be stated much more succinctly.

Conjecture. *If $s, d \geq 1$ are coprime integers, then the number of $(s, s + d, s + 2d)$ -core partitions equals*

$$\frac{1}{d} T(s + d - 1, s).$$

General Triangles. The above method of proof extends to a much wider class of triangle of numbers generated by the family

$$\{P(x)^n Q(x) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

where the polynomial $P(x)$ is palindromic. For the sake of simplicity we will take $Q(x) = 1 - x^2$.

Consider for instance the sequence $A(n, k)$ defined by the recurrence

$$A(n, k) = a_0 A(n - 1, k) + a_1 A(n - 1, k - 1) + \cdots + a_d A(n - 1, k - d)$$

satisfying some initial conditions and where $a_j = a_{d-j}$ for $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, d\}$ (palindromic coefficients).

As before, extend the definition of $A(n, k)$ as skew-symmetric. If we take $P(x) = \sum_{j=0}^d a_j x^j$ and $Q(x) = 1 - x^2$ then

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} A(n, k) x^k = P(x)^n Q(x).$$

Once more, The Snake Oil method delivers the argument almost verbatim:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{dn/2} A(n, k) A(n, k + 1) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{dn+2} A(n, k) A(n, k + 1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{dn+2} A(n, k) \cdot \text{CT} \left(\frac{P(x)^n (1 - x^2)}{x^{k+1}} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \text{CT} \left[\frac{P(x)^n (1 - x^2)}{x} \sum_{k=0}^{dn+2} A(n, k) x^{-k} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \text{CT} \left[\frac{P(x)^n (1 - x^2)}{x} P(1/x)^n \left(1 - \frac{1}{x^2} \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \text{CT} \left[\frac{P(x)^{2n} (1 - x^2)}{x^{dn+1}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{x^2} \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \text{CT} \left[\frac{P(x)^{2n} (1 - x^2)}{x^{dn+1}} \right] - \frac{1}{2} \text{CT} \left[\frac{P(x)^{2n} (1 - x^2)}{x^{dn+3}} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} A(2n, dn + 1) - \frac{1}{2} A(2n, dn + 3) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} A(2n, dn - 1); \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality is due to $A(2n, dn + 1) = 0$ and $A(2n, dn + 3) = -A(2n, dn - 1)$.

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