



## GENERIC COMBINATORIAL IDENTITIES

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### Abstract

Some well-known combinatorial identities appear to be special cases of more general identities in integral domains.

Let  $D$  be an integral domain (i.e., a commutative ring with 1 but without zero divisors) embedded in its quotient field, so that division makes sense. If  $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n$  are nonzero elements of  $D$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , and  $d_0 = 0$ , then the following relations hold:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^i \frac{(d_n - d_0) \cdots (d_n - d_{i-1})}{d_1 \cdots d_i} = -1. \quad (\text{A})$$

This is a generalization of the familiar combinatorial identity

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} = -1 \quad (\text{B})$$

to which (A) reduces when  $d_i = i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . The generalization was proved in [1], in the context of matrix inversion in integral domains.

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If  $d_n$  in (A) is replaced by  $-d_n$ , then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(d_n + d_0) \cdots (d_n + d_{i-1})}{d_1 \cdots d_i} = 2 \frac{(d_n + d_0) \cdots (d_n + d_{n-2})(d_n + d_{n-1})}{d_1 \cdots d_{n-1} d_n} - 1 \quad (C)$$

which is a generalization of the identity

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n+i-1}{i} = \binom{2n}{n} - 1 \quad (D)$$

to which (C) reduces when  $d_i = i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . This is so because

$$2 \frac{n(n+1) \cdots (2n-1)}{n!} = 2 \frac{(n-1)!n(n+1) \cdots (2n-1)}{(n-1)!n!} = 2 \frac{(2n-1)!}{(n-1)!n!}$$

and

$$\binom{2n}{n} = \frac{(2n)!}{n!n!} = \frac{2n(2n-1)!}{n!n!} = 2 \frac{(2n-1)!}{(n-1)!n!}.$$

See [2, p. 54]. More generally, when  $d_i = id$ ,  $d \in D$ ,  $d \neq 0$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , the same result is obtained.

When  $d_i = d$ ,  $d \in D$ ,  $d \neq 0$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , then (C) becomes a geometric series,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{d(2d)^{i-1}}{(d)^i} = \sum_{i=1}^n 2^{i-1} = 2^n - 1 = 2 \frac{d(2d)^{n-1}}{d^n} - 1 = \frac{2^n d^n}{d^n} - 1.$$

Of particular interest is the case when the  $d_i$  form a geometric progression. When  $d_i = r^i$ ,  $r \in D$ ,  $r \neq 0$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , then the terms in (C) become

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{r^n(r^n + r) \cdots (r^n + r^{i-1})}{r \cdots r^i} &= r^n r(r^{n-1} + 1) \cdots r^{i-1}(r^{n-i+1} + 1) / r^{\frac{i(i+1)}{2}} \\ &= r^{n-i}(r^{n-1} + 1) \cdots (r^{n-i+1} + 1), \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= \sum_{i=1}^n r^{n-i} (r^{n-1} + 1) \cdots (r^{n-i+1} + 1) = 2(r^{n-1} + 1) \cdots (r + 1) - 1 \\ &= 2 \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (r^i + 1) - 1. \end{aligned}$$

Although the initial assumption was  $r \neq 0$ , if  $r = x$ , a complex number satisfying  $|x| < 1$ , then the sequence of functions  $S_n = S_n(x)$  converges to some  $S(x)$ . Recall that if  $q(j)$  represents the number of partitions of the integer  $j$  into distinct parts,  $j \in \mathbb{N}$ , then the generating function for the  $q(j)$  is given by  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} q(j)x^j = \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} (1 + x^k)$  ([3]). Both the infinite product and the infinite series converge for  $|x| < 1$ , to some  $Q(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} q(j)x^j$ . Thus,

$$S(x) = 2Q(x) - 1.$$

Although  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(d_n - d_0) \cdots (d_n - d_{i-1})}{d_1 \cdots d_i}$  does reduce to  $\sum_{i=1}^n 2^n - 1$

when  $d_i = i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , in general,  $S_n$  does not appear to have a particularly compact expression. To compute  $S_n$ , note that

$$\begin{aligned} &\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(d_n - d_0) \cdots (d_n - d_{i-1})}{d_1 \cdots d_i} \\ &= \frac{d_n - d_0}{d_1} + \frac{(d_n - d_0)(d_n - d_1)}{d_1 d_2} \\ &\quad + \cdots + \frac{(d_n - d_0) \cdots (d_n - d_{n-2})}{d_1 \cdots d_{n-1}} + \frac{(d_n - d_0) \cdots (d_n - d_{n-1})}{d_1 \cdots d_n} \\ &= \frac{d_n}{d_1 \cdots d_{n-1} d_n} ([d_2 \cdots d_n] + [d_3 \cdots d_n (d_n - d_1)]) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& + \cdots + [d_i \cdots d_n(d_n - d_1) \cdots (d_n - d_{i-2})] \\
& + \cdots + [d_n(d_n - d_1) \cdots (d_n - d_{n-2})] + [(d_n - d_1) \cdots (d_n - d_{n-1})].
\end{aligned}$$

With the conventions that  $d_0 = d_n - 1$  (so that  $d_n - d_0 = 1$ ) and  $d_{n+1} = 1$ , then  $S_n = \frac{1}{d_1 \cdots d_{n-1}} \sum_{j=2}^{n+1} d_j \cdots d_n(d_n - d_1) \cdots (d_n - d_{j-2})$ ; i.e., when  $j = 2$ , the product  $d_j \cdots d_n(d_n - d_1) \cdots (d_n - d_{j-2}) = d_2 \cdots d_n$ , and when  $j = n + 1$ , that product equals  $(d_n - d_1) \cdots (d_n - d_{n-1})$ .  $S_n$  also can be

$$\text{expressed as } \frac{1}{d_1 \cdots d_{n-1}} \sum_{j=2}^{n+1} \prod_{j \leq k \leq n, 1 \leq l \leq j-2} d_k(d_n - d_l).$$

The principal hurdle in attempting analogize these generic formulas to classical combinatorics is the lack of symmetry analogous to  $\binom{n}{i} = \binom{n}{n-i}$ .

In general, it is not reasonable to expect that

$$\frac{(d_n - d_0) \cdots (d_n - d_{i-1})}{d_1 \cdots d_i} = \frac{(d_n - d_0) \cdots (d_n - d_{n-i-1})}{d_1 \cdots d_{n-i}}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1.$$

### References

- [1] E. F. Cornelius, Jr. and P. Schultz, Root bases of polynomials over integral domains, in *Models, Modules and Abelian Groups*, de Gruyter, 2008, pp. 238-248.
- [2] D. Knuth, *Fundamental Algorithms*, Vol. 1, *The Art of Computer Programming*, Addison-Wesley, 2nd ed., 1973.
- [3] [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Partition\\_\(number\\_theory\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Partition_(number_theory)).