# AN IDENTITY FOR VERTICALLY ALIGNED ENTRIES IN PASCAL'S TRIANGLE 

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#### Abstract

The classic way to write down Pascal's triangle leads to entries in alternating rows being vertically aligned. In this paper, we prove a linear dependence on vertically aligned entries in Pascal's triangle. Furthermore, we give an application of this dependence to morphisms between hyperelliptic curves.


## 1. Introduction

We consider entries in the $n$th row of Pascal's triangle, where $n$ is any nonnegative integer. It is well known that the $i$ th entry in this row can be computed as $\binom{n}{i}$, where $0 \leq i \leq n$. For example, the 3rd entry in row 11 is $\binom{11}{3}=\frac{11 \cdot 10 \cdot 9}{3!}=165$. Figure $\square$ shows rows 0 through 12 of Pascal's triangle.


Figure 1. Pascal's triangle.

Notice that entries in alternating rows are vertically aligned. For example, in Figure 2 below we have circled the entries that are vertically aligned with the 3rd entry in the 11th row. In Figure 3 we have circled the entries that are vertically aligned with the 6 th entry in the 12 th row.


Figure 2. Entries vertically aligned with the 3rd entry in the 11th row.


Figure 3. Entries vertically aligned with the 6 th entry in the 12 th row.

We can describe these entries in the following way. Starting with the $i$ th entry in the $n$th row, i.e. $\binom{n}{i}$, the entries that are vertically aligned with this entry and above it are all of the form

$$
\binom{n-2 k}{i-k}
$$

where $1 \leq k \leq i$ and $k \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$.

For example, when $n=11$ and $i=3$, the entries that are above $\binom{11}{3}$ and vertically aligned with it are

$$
\binom{9}{2},\binom{7}{1},\binom{5}{0}
$$

Observe that

$$
\binom{11}{3}-11\binom{9}{2}+44\binom{7}{1}-77\binom{5}{0}=165-11 \cdot 36+44 \cdot 7-77 \cdot 1=0
$$

When $n=12$ and $i=6$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\binom{12}{6}-12\binom{10}{5}+54\binom{8}{4} & -112\binom{6}{3}+105\binom{4}{2}-36\binom{2}{1}+2\binom{0}{0} \\
& =924-12 \cdot 252+54 \cdot 70-112 \cdot 20+105 \cdot 6-36 \cdot 2+2 \cdot 1 \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

In the next section, we prove a general formula for the linear dependence on vertically aligned entries in Pascal's triangle.

## 2. General Formula

Theorem 2.1. Let $n$ be a nonnegative integer and $0<i<n$. Then

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{i}(-1)^{k} \frac{n}{n-k}\binom{n-k}{k}\binom{n-2 k}{i-k}=0
$$

Remark 1. Note that the $k=0$ term is simply $\binom{n}{i}$. If $i>n / 2$, there will be some values of $k$ for which $n-2 k<i-k$. For example, if $n=11$ and $i=8$, then $k=4$ has $n-2 k=3<4=i-k$. But recall that

$$
\binom{m}{r}=0
$$

whenever $0 \leq m<r$ (see, for example, [3, Section 1.9]). Thus, terms for which $0 \leq n-2 k<$ $i-k$ do not contribute to the sum in Theorem 2.1.

If $n-2 k<0$, then $\binom{n-2 k}{i-k}$ is no longer 0 . However in this case, we have $n<2 k$, which implies, $n-k<k$. Thus, $\binom{n-k}{k}=0$ instead.

Hence, all terms for which $i>n / 2$ do not contribute to the sum in Theorem 2.1.
Remark 2. The expressions $\frac{n}{n-k}\binom{n-k}{k}$ that appear in Theorem 2.1 are referred to as the Triangle of coefficients of Lucas (or Cardan) polynomials, denoted $T(n, k)$, in the On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences [1].
Proof of Theorem 2.1. The following proof starts with an identity attributed to E.H. Lockwood. For any $n \geq 1$,

$$
x^{n}+y^{n}=\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}(-1)^{k} \frac{n}{n-k}\binom{n-k}{k}(x y)^{k}(x+y)^{n-2 k}
$$

(see, for example, [3, Section 9.8]).

We separate the $k=0$ term from the summation to get

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{n}+y^{n}=(x+y)^{n}+\sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}(-1)^{k} \frac{n}{n-k}\binom{n-k}{k}(x y)^{k}(x+y)^{n-2 k} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Binomial Theorem tells us that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(x+y)^{n}=\sum_{i=0}^{n}\binom{n}{i} x^{n-i} y^{i}=x^{n}+y^{n}+\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}\binom{n}{i} x^{n-i} y^{i} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting Equation 2 into Equation 1 yields

$$
x^{n}+y^{n}=x^{n}+y^{n}+\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}\binom{n}{i} x^{n-i} y^{i}+\sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}(-1)^{k} \frac{n}{n-k}\binom{n-k}{k}(x y)^{k}(x+y)^{n-2 k} .
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}\binom{n}{i} x^{n-i} y^{i}+\sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}(-1)^{k} \frac{n}{n-k}\binom{n-k}{k}(x y)^{k}(x+y)^{n-2 k}=0 . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, when combining the two sums, the coefficient of each $x^{n-i} y^{i}$ term must equal 0 . We expand the second summand in order to identify all terms of the form $x^{n-i} y^{i}$. The Binomial Theorem tells us that, for each $k$,

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

Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
(x y)^{k}(x+y)^{n-2 k}=\sum_{j=0}^{n-2 k}\binom{n-2 k}{j} x^{n-k-j} y^{j+k} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The values of $j$ that yield $x^{n-i} y^{i}$ terms are $j=i-k$. Note that we must have $k \leq i$, since otherwise $j \leq 0$. Thus, the coefficient of $x^{n-i} y^{i}$ in Equation 4 is

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{i}\binom{n-2 k}{i-k}
$$

Hence, the sum of the coefficients of the $x^{n-i} y^{i}$ terms in Equation 3 is

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{i}(-1)^{k} \frac{n}{n-k}\binom{n-k}{k}\binom{n-2 k}{i-k}=0
$$

where the $k=0$ term is $\binom{n}{i}$, which comes from the first summation in Equation 3.

## 3. Application to Hyperelliptic Curves

In this section we give an application of the identity in Theorem 2.1. Work on this application in [2, Section 5.1] is what led the author to discover the identity in Theorem 2.1.

Let $C$ be the genus $g$ hyperelliptic curve $y^{2}=x^{2 g+1}+x$. The map

$$
\phi(x, y)=\left(\frac{x^{2}+1}{x}, \frac{y}{x^{a}}\right),
$$

where $a=\frac{g+1}{2}$, is a nonconstant morphism from $C$ to some curve, denoted $C^{\prime}$. Note that the curve $C^{\prime}$ will also be hyperelliptic. We initially define $C^{\prime}$ to be of the form

$$
y^{2}=c_{d} x^{d}+\ldots+c_{d-i} x^{d-i}+\ldots+c_{0}
$$

and we will apply the transformation of variables given by $\phi$ to determine the coefficients $c_{j}$. Applying the transformation yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{y}{x^{a}}\right)^{2} & =c_{d}\left(\frac{x^{2}+1}{x}\right)^{d}+\ldots+c_{d-i}\left(\frac{x^{2}+1}{x}\right)^{d-i}+\ldots+c_{0} \\
\frac{y^{2}}{x^{g+1}} & =c_{d} x^{-d}\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{d}+\ldots+c_{d-i} x^{i-d}\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{d-i}+\ldots+c_{0} \\
y^{2} & =c_{d} x^{g+1-d}\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{d}+\ldots+c_{d-i} x^{g+1+i-d}\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{d-i}+\ldots+c_{0} x^{g+1}
\end{aligned}
$$

In order for $\phi$ to be a morphism from $C$ to $C^{\prime}$, this last equation should, in fact, be the equation for the curve $C$. Note that the degree of the expression in $x$ will be $g+1-d+2 d=$ $g+1+d$. Hence, we need $c_{d}=1$ and $g+1+d=2 g+1$, so that $d=g$. We use this to simplify the above equation to

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{2}=x\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{g}+\ldots+c_{g-i} x^{1+i}\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{g-i}+\ldots+c_{0} x^{g+1} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

In order to determine the coefficients $c_{i}$, we need to expand the right-hand side of the equation and match coefficients with those of $C$. We now work through two examples to better understand what the coefficients of $C^{\prime}$ will be.

Example 3.1. Let $g=5$, so that $C$ is the hyperelliptic curve $y^{2}=x^{11}+x$. From our above work, we know that the degree of $C^{\prime}$ will be 5. Consider the following terms from Equation 55: $A_{1}=x\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{5}, A_{2}=x^{3}\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{3}$, and $A_{3}=x^{5}\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{1}$. We expand each of these to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{1} & =x\left(x^{10}+5 x^{8}+10 x^{6}+10 x^{4}+5 x^{2}+1\right) \\
& =x^{11}+5 x^{9}+10 x^{7}+10 x^{5}+5 x^{3}+x \\
A_{2} & =x^{3}\left(x^{6}+3 x^{4}+3 x^{2}+1\right) \\
& =x^{9}+3 x^{7}+3 x^{5}+x^{3}, \\
A_{3} & =x^{5}\left(x^{2}+1\right) \\
& =x^{7}+x^{5} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $A_{1}-5 A_{2}+5 A_{3}=x^{11}+x$. Hence, $\phi$ is a morphism from $C$ to $y^{2}=x^{5}-5 x^{3}+5 x$.
Example 3.2. Now let $g=6$, so that $C$ is the hyperelliptic curve $y^{2}=x^{13}+x$. From our above work, we know that the degree of $C^{\prime}$ will be 6 . Consider the following terms from Equation 55: $B_{1}=x\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{6}, B_{2}=x^{3}\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{4}, B_{3}=x^{5}\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{2}$, and $B_{4}=x^{7}\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{0}$.

We expand each of these to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{1} & =x\left(x^{12}+6 x^{10}+15 x^{8}+2-x^{6}+15 x^{4}+6 x^{2}+1\right) \\
& =x^{13}+6 x^{11}+15 x^{9}+2-x^{7}+15 x^{5}+6 x^{3}+x, \\
B_{2} & =x^{3}\left(x^{8}+4 x^{6}+6 x^{4}+4 x^{2}+1\right) \\
& =x^{11}+4 x^{9}+6 x^{7}+4 x^{5}+x^{3}, \\
B_{3} & =x^{5}\left(x^{4}+2 x^{2}+1\right) \\
& =x^{9}+2 x^{7}+x^{5} \\
B_{4} & =x^{7} .
\end{aligned}
$$

One can easily show that $B_{1}-6 B_{2}+9 B_{3}-2 B_{4}=x^{13}+x$, which tells us that $\phi$ is a morphism from $C$ to $y^{2}=x^{6}-6 x^{4}+9 x^{2}-2$.

While working on [2, Section 5.1], the author determined (by hand) the curve $C^{\prime}$ for $g=11$. The coefficients she found were $1,11,44,77,55$, and 11 , with alternating signs (see Table 1 below). The author entered this sequence of numbers into the On-line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences [1] and found that these numbers are the Triangle of coefficients of Lucas (or Cardan) polynomials, $T(n, k)$. The coefficients that appear in Examples 3.1 and 3.2 are also of the form $T(n, k)$. As noted in Remark 2,

$$
T(n, k)=\frac{n}{n-k}\binom{n-k}{k} .
$$

This leads us to the following theorems.
Theorem 3.3. Let $C$ be the hyperelliptic curve $y^{2}=x^{2 g+1}+x$ and let $C^{\prime}$ be the hyperelliptic curve

$$
y^{2}=\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor g / 2\rfloor}(-1)^{k} \frac{g}{g-k}\binom{g-k}{k} x^{g-2 k} .
$$

Then the map

$$
\phi(x, y)=\left(\frac{x^{2}+1}{x}, \frac{y}{x^{a}}\right),
$$

where $a=\frac{g+1}{2}$, is a nonconstant morphism from $C$ to $C^{\prime}$.
We can generalize Theorem 3.3, Let $c \in \mathbb{Q}^{*}$ be constant and $\zeta$ be a primitive $g$-th root of unity. In the following theorem we work over the field $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta, c^{1 / g}\right)$.
Theorem 3.4. Let $C$ be the hyperelliptic curve $y^{2}=x^{2 g+1}+c x$ and let $C_{i}$ be the hyperelliptic curve

$$
y^{2}=\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor g / 2\rfloor}(-1)^{k} \frac{g}{g-k}\binom{g-k}{k} \zeta^{i k} c^{k / g} x^{g-2 k}
$$

for $i=0,1$. Then the map

$$
\phi_{i}(x, y)=\left(\frac{x^{2}+\zeta^{i} c^{1 / g}}{x}, \frac{y}{x^{a}}\right),
$$

where $a=\frac{g+1}{2}$, is a nonconstant morphism from $C$ to $C_{i}$.

Since

$$
\frac{g}{g-k}\binom{g-k}{k}=\left[\binom{g-k}{k}+\binom{g-k-1}{k-1}\right]
$$

(see, for example, [3, Section 9.9]), Theorem 3.4 also generalizes Lemma 5.1 in [2] because we are no longer restricting $g$ to be odd. The proofs of Theorems 3.3 and 3.4 are nearly identical to the proof of Lemma 5.1 in [2], and so we omit them.

We now expand Example 3.1 to show how our work in this section relates to our work in Theorem [2.1. Let $n=g=5$, and $k$ range from 0 to $\lfloor n / 2\rfloor=2$. We evaluate

$$
(-1)^{k} \frac{n}{n-k}\binom{n-k}{k}
$$

for each of these values of $k$ to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k=0:(-1)^{0} \frac{5}{5-0}\binom{5-0}{0}=1 \\
& k=1:(-1)^{1} \frac{5}{5-1}\binom{5-1}{1}=-5 \\
& k=2:(-1)^{2} \frac{5}{5-2}\binom{5-2}{2}=5
\end{aligned}
$$

which are the coefficients in the equation for $C^{\prime}$, i.e. those of $A_{1}, A_{2}$, and $A_{3}$, respectively. These coefficients help us cancel certain powers of $x$ in the expansion of Equation 55. For example, in the sum $A_{1}-5 A_{2}+5 A_{3}$, the coefficient of $x^{5}$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =10-5 \cdot 3+5 \cdot 1 \\
& =\binom{5}{2}-5\binom{3}{1}+5\binom{1}{0} \\
& =\frac{5}{5-0}\binom{5-0}{0}\binom{5}{2}-\frac{5}{5-1}\binom{5-1}{1}\binom{3}{1}+\frac{5}{5-2}\binom{5-2}{2}\binom{1}{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

which matches the statement of Theorem 2.1 for $n=5$ and $i=2$.
3.1. Higher Genus Examples. Table 1 below gives $C_{i}$ for values of $g$ up to 11 and for $c=1$. Note that this table expands on the table that appears in [2, Section 5.1].

| $g$ | curve $C_{i}$ |
| ---: | :--- |
| 5 | $y^{2}=x^{5}-5 \zeta^{i} x^{3}+5 \zeta^{2 i} x$ |
| 6 | $y^{2}=x^{6}-6 \zeta^{i} x^{4}+9 \zeta^{2 i} x^{2}-2 \zeta^{3 i}$ |
| 7 | $y^{2}=x^{7}-7 \zeta^{i} x^{5}+14 \zeta^{2 i} x^{3}-7 \zeta^{3 i} x$ |
| 8 | $y^{2}=x^{8}-8 \zeta^{i} x^{6}+20 \zeta^{2 i} x^{4}-16 \zeta^{3 i} x^{2}+2 \zeta^{4 i}$ |
| 9 | $y^{2}=x^{9}-9 \zeta^{i} x^{7}+27 \zeta^{2 i} x^{5}-30 \zeta^{3 i} x^{3}+9 \zeta^{4 i} x$ |
| 10 | $y^{2}=x^{10}-10 \zeta^{i} x^{8}+35 \zeta^{2 i} x^{6}-50 \zeta^{3 i} x^{4}+25 \zeta^{4 i} x^{2}-2 \zeta^{5 i}$ |
| 11 | $y^{2}=x^{11}-11 \zeta^{i} x^{9}+44 \zeta^{2 i} x^{7}-77 \zeta^{3 i} x^{5}+55 \zeta^{4 i} x^{3}-11 \zeta^{5 i} x$ |

Table 1.

Note that for all $g$, the coefficient of second term of the expression in $x$ will always be $-g$ (times a power of $\zeta$ ). The reason this is the case is that this coefficient corresponds to $k=1$,
and

$$
\begin{aligned}
(-1)^{k} \frac{g}{g-k}\binom{g-k}{k} & =-\frac{g}{g-1}\binom{g-1}{1} \\
& =-\frac{g}{g-1} \cdot(g-1) \\
& =-g .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that when $g$ is even, the final term corresponds to $k=g / 2$, which yields $x^{0}$. We compute the coefficient to be

$$
\begin{aligned}
(-1)^{k} \frac{g}{g-k}\binom{g-k}{k} & =(-1)^{g / 2} \frac{g}{g-g / 2}\binom{g-g / 2}{g / 2} \\
& =(-1)^{g / 2} \frac{g}{g / 2}\binom{g / 2}{g / 2} \\
& =(-1)^{g / 2} 2 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, when $g$ is even, the final term of the expression in $x$ will always be $(-1)^{g / 2} 2$ (times a power of $\zeta$ ).

On the other hand, when $g$ is odd, the final term corresponds to $k=(g-1) / 2$, which yields $x^{1}$. We compute the coefficient to be

$$
\begin{aligned}
(-1)^{k} \frac{g}{g-k}\binom{g-k}{k} & =(-1)^{(g-1) / 2} \frac{g}{g-(g-1) / 2}\binom{g-(g-1) / 2}{(g-1) / 2} \\
& =(-1)^{(g-1) / 2} \frac{g}{(g+1) / 2}\binom{(g+1) / 2}{(g-1) / 2} \\
& =(-1)^{(g-1) / 2} \frac{g}{(g+1) / 2}\binom{(g-1) / 2+1}{(g-1) / 2} \\
& =(-1)^{(g-1) / 2} \frac{g}{(g+1) / 2} \cdot((g-1) / 2+1) \\
& =(-1)^{(g-1) / 2} g .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, when $g$ is odd, the final term of the expression in $x$ will always be $(-1)^{(g-1) / 2} g x$ (times a power of $\zeta$ ).

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