

THE AKIYAMA-TANIGAWA ALGORITHM FOR CARLITZ'S q -BERNOULLI NUMBERS

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Abstract

We show that the Akiyama-Tanigawa algorithm and Chen's variant for computing Bernoulli numbers can be generalized to Carlitz's q -Bernoulli numbers. We also put these algorithms in the larger context of generalized Euler-Seidel matrices.

1. Introduction

Carlitz [?] introduced the q -Bernoulli numbers β_n ($n \geq 1$) by the recurrence:

$$q(q\beta + 1)^n - \beta_n = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 1; \\ 0, & \text{if } n > 1; \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where $\beta_0 = 1$ and $\beta_k = \beta^k$ after expansion. The first few values of β_n are

$$\beta_0 = 1, \quad \beta_1 = -\frac{1}{[2]}, \quad \beta_2 = \frac{q}{[2][3]}, \quad \beta_3 = -\frac{(q-1)q}{[3][4]},$$

where $[n] = (1 - q^n)/(1 - q)$ and $[n]! = [1][2] \dots [n]$ for $n \geq 0$. More generally we have the following explicit formula (see [?]):

$$(q-1)^n \beta_n = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^{n-i} \binom{n}{i} \frac{i+1}{[i+1]}.$$

Recently, Akiyama and Tanigawa's amazing algorithm for computing Bernoulli numbers [?] has attracted the attention of several authors [?, ?, ?]. One of our aims is to show that there is an analogue algorithm for Carlitz's q -Bernoulli numbers as follows: start with the 0-th row $1, \frac{1}{[2]}, \frac{1}{[3]}, \frac{1}{[4]}, \frac{1}{[5]}, \dots$ and define the first row by

$$1 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{[2]}\right), \quad [2] \cdot \left(\frac{1}{[2]} - \frac{1}{[3]}\right), \quad [3] \cdot \left(\frac{1}{[3]} - \frac{1}{[4]}\right), \dots$$

which produces the sequence $\frac{q}{[2]}, \frac{q^2}{[3]}, \frac{q^3}{[4]}, \dots$. Then define the next row by

$$1 \cdot \left(\frac{q}{[2]} - \frac{q^2}{[3]} \right), \quad [2] \cdot \left(\frac{q^2}{[3]} - \frac{q^3}{[4]} \right), \quad [3] \cdot \left(\frac{q^3}{[4]} - \frac{q^4}{[5]} \right), \dots$$

thus giving $\frac{q}{[2][3]}, \frac{[2]q^2}{[3][4]}, \frac{[3]q^3}{[4][5]}, \dots$ as the second row. In general, denoting the m -th ($m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$) coefficient in the n -th ($n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$) row by $a_{n,m}$, then the following recurrence relation holds:

$$a_{n,m} = [m + 1] \cdot (a_{n-1,m} - a_{n-1,m+1}) \quad (m \geq 0, n \geq 1). \tag{2}$$

We claim that the 0-th component $a_{n,0}$ of each row is just the n -th q -Bernoulli number β_n for $n \geq 2$.

Chen [?] gave a variant of the Akiyama and Tanigawa algorithm, which generates the Bernoulli numbers starting from $n = 1$. We have also a q -version of Chen’s algorithm for q -Bernoulli numbers as follows: if we replace (??) by the following equation

$$a_{n,m} = [m]a_{n-1,m} - [m + 1]a_{n-1,m+1} \quad (m \geq 0, n \geq 1), \tag{3}$$

then the 0-th component $a_{n,0}$ of each row is just the n -th q -Bernoulli number β_n for $n \geq 1$.

The validity of these algorithms is based on two facts: the first one (Theorem 1) relates the 0-th component $a_{n,0}$ of each row to the initial sequence $a_{0,m}$ by means of q -Stirling numbers of second kind, and the second one gives two explicit formulae (Theorem 2) of the q -Bernoulli numbers in terms of q -Stirling numbers of second kind.

Recall [?] that the q -Stirling numbers of second kind $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} n \\ k \end{smallmatrix} \right\}_q$ are defined by the recurrence:

$$\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} n \\ k \end{smallmatrix} \right\}_q = \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{smallmatrix} \right\}_q + [k] \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} n-1 \\ k \end{smallmatrix} \right\}_q \quad \text{for } n \geq k \geq 1, \tag{4}$$

where $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} n \\ 0 \end{smallmatrix} \right\}_q = \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} 0 \\ k \end{smallmatrix} \right\}_q = 0$ except $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{smallmatrix} \right\}_q = 1$.

Theorem 1. *Let $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a sequence in a commutative ring. If we define the array $(a_{n,m})_{m,n \geq 0}$ by $a_{0,m} = a_m$ for $m \geq 0$ and the recurrence (??), then*

$$a_{n,0} = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k [k]! \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} n+1 \\ k+1 \end{smallmatrix} \right\}_q a_{0,k} \quad (n \geq 0), \tag{5}$$

and if we use the recurrence (??) instead of (??), then

$$a_{n,0} = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k [k]! \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} n \\ k \end{smallmatrix} \right\}_q a_{0,k} \quad (n \geq 0). \tag{6}$$

We shall give the first proof of Theorem 1 in Section 2 by using q -differential operator and generating functions, and the second one in Section 4 by applying Theorem 3 in Section 4.

Theorem 2. *We have*

$$\beta_n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}_q \frac{[k]!}{[k+1]} \quad (n \geq 1), \tag{7}$$

and

$$\beta_n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1 \\ k+1 \end{matrix} \right\}_q \frac{[k]!}{[k+1]} \quad (n \geq 2). \tag{8}$$

Note that Eq. (??) was already given by Carlitz [?]. For the sake of completeness we shall include a proof of Theorem 2 in Section 3, which is essentially due to Carlitz [?].

The definition of the Akiyama-Tanigawa algorithm is reminiscent of the so-called Euler-Seidel matrix, a term coined by Dumont [?]. Recall that the Euler-Seidel matrix associated to a sequence (a_n) is an infinite matrix $(a_{n,m})$ ($n \geq 0, m \geq 0$) given by the recurrence $a_{n,0} = a_n$ ($n \geq 0$) and

$$a_{n,m} = a_{n-1,m} + a_{n-1,m+1} \quad (m \geq 0, n \geq 1).$$

The sequence $(a_{0,m})$, first row of the matrix, is called initial sequence, while the sequence $(a_{n,0})$, first column of the matrix, is called the final sequence. Note that the Euler-Seidel matrix may be used as a simple device for computing its initial and final sequences quickly, see Arnold [?, ?] and Dumont [?].

In the following theorem we shall unify the Akiyama-Tanigawa type algorithms and the classical Euler-Seidel matrices and prove a general formula about the corresponding coefficients.

Theorem 3. *Let $(x_m), (y_m)$ and (z_m) ($m \geq 0$) be three sequences in a commutative ring. The generalized Euler-Seidel matrix $(a_{n,m})$ ($n, m \geq 0$) associated to (x_m) is defined by $a_{0,m} = x_m$ ($m \geq 0$) and*

$$a_{n,m} = y_m a_{n-1,m} + z_m a_{n-1,m+1} \quad (m \geq 0, n \geq 1). \tag{9}$$

Then

$$a_{n,m} = \sum_{k=0}^n x_{m+k} \left(\prod_{j=0}^{k-1} z_{m+j} \right) h_{n-k}(y_m, y_{m+1}, \dots, y_{m+k}), \tag{10}$$

where $h_n(z_1, \dots, z_r)$ is the n -th complete symmetric function of z_1, \dots, z_r defined by

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} h_n(z_1, \dots, z_r) t^n = \frac{1}{(1 - z_1 t)(1 - z_2 t) \cdots (1 - z_r t)}.$$

In particular, we have

$$a_{n,0} = \sum_{k=0}^n x_k \left(\prod_{j=0}^{k-1} z_j \right) h_{n-k}(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_k). \tag{11}$$

We will prove Theorem 3 and give some applications in Section 4. In particular, we shall derive an alternative proof of Theorem 1.

2. Proof of Theorem 1

For any formal power series $f(x)$ denote by D_q the q -derivative operator:

$$D_q f(x) = \frac{f(qx) - f(x)}{(q - 1)x}.$$

We will need the two associated operators:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_q &= 1 - (1 - xq)D_q, \\ \delta_q &= (x - 1)D_q. \end{aligned}$$

For $n \geq 0$ define $(x; q)_0 = 1$ and $(x; q)_n = (1 - x)(1 - xq) \dots (1 - xq^{n-1})$. The following formulas are easy to prove once discovered.

Lemma 1. *For $n \geq 1$ we have*

$$\Delta_q^n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1 \\ k+1 \end{matrix} \right\}_q (xq; q)_k D_q^k, \tag{12}$$

$$\delta_q^n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}_q (x; q)_k D_q^k. \tag{13}$$

Proof. We proceed by induction on $n \geq 1$. It is easy to check (??) and (??) for $n = 1$. For example we have

$$\Delta_q = 1 - (1 - xq)D_q = \left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right\}_q - \left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\}_q (1 - xq)D_q = 1 - (1 - xq)D_q.$$

Note that $D_q(x^n) = [n]x^{n-1}$ and

$$\begin{aligned} D_q((xq; q)_n) &= -q[n]_q(xq^2; q)_{n-1}, \\ D_q((x; q)_n) &= -[n]_q(xq; q)_{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Suppose the formulas are true for n . Then, using the rule

$$D_q(f(x)g(x)) = f(x)D_q(g(x)) + g(qx)D_q(f(x)),$$

and the induction hypothesis we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_q^{n+1} &= (1 - (1 - xq)D_q) \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \begin{Bmatrix} n+1 \\ k+1 \end{Bmatrix}_q (xq; q)_k D_q^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \begin{Bmatrix} n+1 \\ k+1 \end{Bmatrix}_q [k+1]_q (xq; q)_k D_q^k \\ &\quad - \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \begin{Bmatrix} n+1 \\ k+1 \end{Bmatrix}_q (xq; q)_{k+1} D_q^{k+1} \\ &= \begin{Bmatrix} n+1 \\ 1 \end{Bmatrix}_q + \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^k \left([k+1] \begin{Bmatrix} n+1 \\ k+1 \end{Bmatrix}_q + \begin{Bmatrix} n+1 \\ k \end{Bmatrix}_q \right) (xq; q)_k D_q^k \\ &\quad + (-1)^{n+1} \begin{Bmatrix} n+1 \\ n+1 \end{Bmatrix}_q (xq; q)_{n+1} D_q^{n+1} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} (-1)^k \begin{Bmatrix} n+2 \\ k+1 \end{Bmatrix}_q (xq; q)_k D_q^k, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_q^{n+1} &= (x-1)D_q \sum_{k=0}^n \begin{Bmatrix} n \\ k \end{Bmatrix}_q (x-1)(xq-1)\dots(xq^{k-1}-1)D_q^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \begin{Bmatrix} n \\ k \end{Bmatrix}_q [k](x-1)(xq-1)\dots(xq^{k-1}-1)D_q^k \\ &\quad + (x-1) \sum_{k=1}^n \begin{Bmatrix} n \\ k \end{Bmatrix}_q (xq-1)(xq^2-1)\dots(xq^k-1)D_q^{k+1} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \begin{Bmatrix} n+1 \\ k \end{Bmatrix}_q (x-1)(xq-1)\dots(xq^{k-1}-1)D_q^k. \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. □

Remark: A q -analogue of $(x \frac{d}{dx})^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \begin{Bmatrix} n \\ k \end{Bmatrix} x^k (\frac{d}{dx})^k$ is the following formula:

$$(xD_q)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n q^{\binom{k}{2}} \begin{Bmatrix} n \\ k \end{Bmatrix}_q x^k D_q^k,$$

which can be verified easily by induction on n .

We are now ready to prove Theorem 1. For fixed $n \geq 0$, consider the generating function of $a_{n,k}$ ($k \geq 0$) defined by (??):

$$\begin{aligned} g_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{n,k}x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} [k+1](a_{n-1,k} - a_{n-1,k+1})x^k \\ &= D_q \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{n-1,k}x^{k+1} \right) - D_q \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{n-1,k+1}x^{k+1} \right) \\ &= D_q(xg_{n-1}(x)) - D_q(g_{n-1}(x) - a_{n-1,0}) \\ &= g_{n-1}(x) + (xq - 1)D_q(g_{n-1}(x)) \\ &= \Delta_q(g_{n-1}(x)). \end{aligned}$$

By iteration $g_n(x) = \Delta_q^n(g_0(x))$ and Lemma 1 implies that

$$g_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1 \\ k+1 \end{matrix} \right\}_q (1-xq)(1-xq^2) \dots (1-xq^k) D_q^k(g_0(x)).$$

Putting $x = 0$ in the above equation yields (??).

Similarly, we consider the generating function of $a_{n,k}$ ($k \geq 0$) defined by (??):

$$\begin{aligned} h_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{n,k}x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} ([k]a_{n-1,k} - [k+1]a_{n-1,k+1})x^k \\ &= xD_q \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{n-1,k}x^k \right) - D_q \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{n-1,k+1}x^{k+1} \right) \\ &= xD_q(h_{n-1}(x)) - D_q(h_{n-1}(x) - a_{n-1,0}) \\ &= \delta_q(h_{n-1}(x)). \end{aligned}$$

Thus $h_n(x) = \delta_q^n(h_0(x))$ and Lemma 1 implies that

$$h_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}_q (x-1)(xq-1) \dots (xq^{k-1}-1) D_q^k(h_0(x)).$$

Putting $x = 0$ in the last equation yields (??).

Now, if we take $a_{0,m} = 1/[m+1]$ in Theorem 1 and apply algorithm (??), then it follows from (??) and (??) that $a_{n,0} = \beta_n$ for $n \geq 2$; while applying algorithm (??) will yield that $a_{n,0} = \beta_n$ for $n \geq 1$ by (??) and (??).

3. Proof of Theorem 2

Let $[x] = (q^x - 1)/(q - 1)$. For integer $s \geq 0$ define $[x]_s = [x][x-1] \dots [x-s+1]$ and the q -binomial coefficient $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ s \end{bmatrix} = [x]_s/[s]!$.

Let $\eta_0, \eta_1, \eta_2, \dots$ be a sequence such that by $\eta_0 = 1, \eta_1 = 0$ and

$$\sum_{i=0}^m \binom{m}{i} q^i \eta_i = \eta_m \quad (m > 1). \tag{14}$$

We define the polynomials $\eta_m(x)$ ($m \geq 0$) in q^x by

$$\eta_m(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m \binom{m}{i} \eta_i [x]^{m-i} q^{ix}. \tag{15}$$

Then $\eta_m(0) = \eta_m$ and

$$\eta_m(x+y) = \sum_{i=0}^m \binom{m}{i} \eta_i(y) [x]^{m-i} q^{ix}. \tag{16}$$

Indeed, substituting $\eta_i(y)$ by (??) and exchanging the order of summations in the right-hand side of (??) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=0}^m \sum_{i=j}^m \binom{m}{i} \binom{i}{j} [x]^{m-i} [y]^{i-j} q^{ix+jy} &= \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{m}{j} \eta_j q^{j(x+y)} \sum_{i=0}^{m-j} \binom{m-j}{i} [x]^{m-j-i} (q^x [y])^i \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{m}{j} \eta_j q^{j(x+y)} ([x] + q^x [y])^{m-j} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{m}{j} \eta_j [x+y]^{m-j} q^{j(x+y)}, \end{aligned}$$

which is equal to $\eta_m(x+y)$ by (??).

Setting $x = 1$ in (??) we see that $\eta_m(1) = \eta_m$ for $m > 1$. It follows from (??) with $y = 1$ that for $m \geq 0$,

$$\eta_m(x+1) - \eta_m(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m \binom{m}{i} (\eta_i(1) - \eta_i) [x]^{m-i} q^{ix} = m q^x [x]^{m-1}. \tag{17}$$

It follows that for $k \geq 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} q^i [i]^m &= \frac{1}{m+1} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (\eta_m(i+1) - \eta_m(i)) \\ &= \frac{1}{m+1} (\eta_{m+1}(k) - \eta_{m+1}) \\ &= \frac{1}{m+1} \sum_{i=1}^{m+1} \binom{m+1}{i} [k]^i q^{(m+1-i)k} \eta_{m+1-i} + (q^{(m+1)k} - 1) \frac{\eta_{m+1}}{m+1}. \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

On the other hand, it is readily seen by induction on $n \geq 1$ that

$$x^n = \sum_{k=1}^n \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}_q x(x - [1]) \dots (x - [k - 1]), \tag{19}$$

which, by substitution $x \rightarrow [x]$, yields

$$[x]^n = \sum_{k=1}^n q^{k(k-1)/2} \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}_q [x]_k.$$

Therefore

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} q^i [i]^m = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} q^i \sum_{s=1}^m q^{s(s-1)/2} \left\{ \begin{matrix} m \\ s \end{matrix} \right\}_q [i]_s = \sum_{s=0}^m q^{s(s+1)/2} \left\{ \begin{matrix} m \\ s \end{matrix} \right\}_q \frac{[k]_{s+1}}{[s+1]}, \tag{20}$$

where we used the identity for q -binomial coefficients:

$$\sum_{i=s}^{k-1} q^{i-s} \begin{bmatrix} i \\ s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} k \\ s+1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Combining (??) and (??) we obtain a polynomial identity on q^k . Dividing both sides by $[k]$ and setting $k = 0$ leads to

$$\eta_m + (q - 1)\eta_{m+1} = \sum_{s=0}^m q^{s(s+1)/2} \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ s \end{matrix} \right\}_q \frac{[-1]_s}{[s+1]}.$$

Now, it remains to prove $\beta_m = \eta_m + (q - 1)\eta_{m+1}$. Indeed, the sequence $\eta_m + (q - 1)\eta_{m+1}$ satisfies the recurrence (??) for $n > 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} q \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} q^i (\eta_i + (q - 1)\eta_{i+1}) &= q \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} q^i \eta_i + (q - 1) \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \binom{n}{i-1} q^i \eta_i \\ &= q\eta_n + (q - 1) \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \left(\binom{n+1}{i} - \binom{n}{i} \right) q^i \eta_i \\ &= q\eta_n + (q - 1) (\eta_{n+1} - \eta_n) \\ &= \eta_n + (q - 1)\eta_{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof of (??).

For $n \geq 2$, simplifying x in (??) and setting $x = 0$ we get

$$0 = \sum_{m=1}^n (-1)^m \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ m \end{matrix} \right\}_q [m - 1]!. \tag{21}$$

Now, using (??) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1 \\ k+1 \end{matrix} \right\}_q \frac{[k]!}{[k+1]} &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \left(\left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}_q + [k+1] \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k+1 \end{matrix} \right\}_q \right) \frac{[k]!}{[k+1]} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}_q \frac{[k]!}{[k+1]} + \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k+1 \end{matrix} \right\}_q [k]!. \end{aligned}$$

Formula (??) follows then from (??) and (??).

4. Proof of Theorem 3 and applications

By induction on $n \geq 0$. The formula is clear for $n = 0$ and $n = 1$. Suppose that the formula is true until $n \geq 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n+1,m} &= y_m a_{n,m} + z_m a_{n,m+1} \\ &= y_m \sum_{k=0}^n x_{m+k} z_m \cdots z_{m+k-1} h_{n-k}(y_m, \dots, y_{m+k}) \\ &\quad + z_m \sum_{k=0}^n x_{m+k+1} z_{m+1} \cdots z_{m+k} h_{n-k}(y_{m+1}, \dots, y_{m+k+1}) \\ &= x_m y_m^{n+1} + \sum_{k=1}^n x_{m+k} z_m \cdots z_{m+k-1} (y_m h_{n-k}(y_m, \dots, y_{m+k}) + h_{n-k+1}(y_{m+1}, \dots, y_{m+k})) \\ &\quad + x_{m+n+1} z_m \cdots z_{m+n}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $y_m h_{n-k}(y_m, \dots, y_{m+k}) + h_{n-k+1}(y_{m+1}, \dots, y_{m+k}) = h_{n+k-1}(y_m, \dots, y_{m+k})$, we are done.

The following examples are special cases of Theorem 3:

- if $y_m = z_m = 1$, we recover the so-called Euler-Seidel matrix (see [?]) associated to the initial sequence x_m ($m \geq 0$).
- if $z_m = xq^m$ and $y_m = 1$, then we recover the q -Seidel matrix introduced by Clarke, Han and Zeng [?].
- if $z_m = -y_m$, then Theorem 3 reduces to a result of Lascoux [?].
- if $y_m = -z_m = [m+1]$ and $x_m = 1/[m+1]$, then this is our q -analogue of the Akiyama-Tanigawa algorithm. Indeed, it is readily seen that

$$\sum_{n \geq k} \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}_q t^n = \frac{t^k}{(1 - [1]t)(1 - [2]t) \cdots (1 - [k]t)},$$

which yields the explicit formula: $\left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}_q = h_{n-k}([1], \dots, [k])$, so

$$\left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1 \\ k+1 \end{matrix} \right\}_q = h_{n-k}([1], \dots, [k+1]).$$

Eq. (??) follows then from (??) with the above specializations.

- if $y_m = [m]$ and $z_m = -[m+1]$ and $x_m = 1/[m+1]$, this is our q -analogue of Chen’s algorithm and (??) follows directly from (??).

It may be worth pointing out that it is possible to write explicitly the general coefficients $a_{n,m}$ in Theorem 1, because

$$h_{n-k}([m], \dots, [m+k]) = \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^{k-i} q^{-k(m+i) + \binom{i+1}{2}} \frac{[m+i]^n}{[i]![k-i]!}. \tag{22}$$

Indeed, there holds

$$\frac{1}{(1-z_0t)(1-z_1t)\dots(1-z_kt)} = \sum_{i=0}^k \frac{\prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^k (1-z_j/z_i)^{-1}}{1-z_it}.$$

Equating the coefficients of t^n ($n \geq 0$) in the two sides yields

$$h_n(z_0, \dots, z_k) = \sum_{i=0}^k \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^k (1-z_j/z_i)^{-1} z_i^n,$$

which gives (??) by taking $z_i = [m+i]$ for $i = 0, \dots, k$.

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