

# A GENERALIZATION OF MORGAN-VOYCE POLYNOMIALS

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(Submitted September 1992)

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Recently Ferri, Faccio, & D'Amico ([1], [2]) introduced and studied two numerical triangles, named the DFF and the DFFz triangles. In this note, we shall see that the polynomials generated by the rows of these triangles (see [1] and [2]) are the Morgan-Voyce polynomials, which are well known in the study of electrical networks (see [3], [4], [5], and [6]). We begin this note by a generalization of these polynomials.

## 2. THE GENERALIZED MORGAN-VOYCE POLYNOMIALS

Let us define a sequence of polynomials  $\{P_n^{(r)}\}$  by the recurrence relation

$$P_n^{(r)}(x) = (x+2)P_{n-1}^{(r)}(x) - P_{n-2}^{(r)}(x), \quad n \geq 2, \quad (1)$$

with  $P_0^{(r)}(x) = 1$  and  $P_1^{(r)}(x) = x + r + 1$ .

Here and in the sequel,  $r$  is a fixed real number. It is clear that

$$P_n^{(0)} = b_n \quad (2)$$

and that

$$P_n^{(1)} = B_n, \quad (3)$$

where  $b_n$  and  $B_n$  are the classical Morgan-Voyce polynomials (see [3], [4], [5], and [6]). We see by induction that there exists a sequence  $\{a_{n,k}^{(r)}\}_{n \geq 0, k \geq 0}$  of numbers such that

$$P_n^{(r)}(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} a_{n,k}^{(r)} x^k,$$

with  $a_{n,k}^{(r)} = 0$  if  $k > n$  and  $a_{n,n}^{(r)} = 1$  if  $n \geq 0$ .

The sequence  $a_{n,0}^{(r)} = P_n^{(r)}(0)$  satisfies the recurrence relation

$$a_{n,0}^{(r)} = 2a_{n-1,0}^{(r)} - a_{n-2,0}^{(r)}, \quad n \geq 2,$$

with  $a_{0,0}^{(r)} = 1$  and  $a_{1,0}^{(r)} = 1 + r$ .

From this, we get that

$$a_{n,0}^{(r)} = 1 + nr, \quad n \geq 0. \quad (4)$$

In particular, we have

$$a_{n,0}^{(0)} = 1, \quad n \geq 0 \quad (5)$$

and

$$a_{n,0}^{(1)} = 1 + n, \quad n \geq 0. \quad (6)$$

Following [1] and [2], one can display the sequence  $\{a_{n,k}^{(r)}\}$  in a triangle:

$n \backslash k$	0	1	2	3	...
0	1				...
1	$1+r$	1			...
2	$1+2r$	$3+r$	1		...
3	$1+3r$	$6+4r$	$5+r$	1	...
...	...	...	...	...	...

Comparing the coefficient of  $x^k$  in the two members of (1), we see that, for  $n \geq 2$  and  $k \geq 1$ ,

$$a_{n,k}^{(r)} = 2a_{n-1,k}^{(r)} - a_{n-2,k}^{(r)} + a_{n-1,k-1}^{(r)}. \tag{7}$$

By this, we can easily obtain another recurring relation

$$a_{n,k}^{(r)} = a_{n-1,k}^{(r)} + \sum_{\alpha=0}^{n-1} a_{\alpha,k-1}^{(r)}, \quad n \geq 1, k \geq 1. \tag{8}$$

In fact, (8) is clear for  $n \leq 2$  by direct computation. Supposing that the relation is true for  $n \geq 2$ , we get, by (7), that

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n+1,k}^{(r)} &= a_{n,k}^{(r)} + (a_{n,k}^{(r)} - a_{n-1,k}^{(r)}) + a_{n,k-1}^{(r)} \\ &= a_{n,k}^{(r)} + \sum_{\alpha=0}^{n-1} a_{\alpha,k-1}^{(r)} + a_{n,k-1}^{(r)} = a_{n,k}^{(r)} + \sum_{\alpha=0}^n a_{\alpha,k-1}^{(r)}, \end{aligned}$$

and the proof is complete by induction.

We recognize in (8) the recursive definition of the DFF and DFFz triangles. Moreover, using (5) and (6), we see that the sequence  $\{a_{n,k}^{(0)}\}$  (resp.  $\{a_{n,k}^{(1)}\}$ ) is exactly the DFF (resp. the DFFz) triangle. Thus, by (2) and (3), the generating polynomial of the rows of the DFF (resp. the DFFz) triangle is the Morgan-Voyce polynomial  $b_n$  (resp.  $B_n$ ).

### 3. DETERMINATION OF THE $\{a_{n,k}^{(r)}\}$

In [1] and [2], the authors gave a very complicated formula for  $\{a_{n,k}^{(0)}\}$  and  $\{a_{n,k}^{(1)}\}$ . We shall prove here a simpler formula that generalizes a known result [5] on the coefficients of Morgan-Voyce polynomials.

**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 0$  and  $k \geq 0$ , we have

$$a_{n,k}^{(r)} = \binom{n+k}{2k} + r \binom{n+k}{2k+1}, \tag{9}$$

where  $\binom{a}{b} = 0$  if  $b > a$ .

**Proof:** If  $k = 0$ , the theorem is true by (4). Assume the theorem is true for  $k - 1$ . We shall proceed by induction on  $n$ . Equality (9) holds for  $n = 0$  and  $n = 1$  by definition of the sequence

$\{\alpha_{n,k}^{(r)}\}$ . Assume that  $n \geq 2$ , and that (9) holds for the indices  $n-2$  and  $n-1$ . By (7), we then have  $\alpha_{n,k}^{(r)} = 2\alpha_{n-1,k}^{(r)} - \alpha_{n-2,k}^{(r)} + \alpha_{n-1,k-1}^{(r)} = X_{n,k} + rY_{n,k}$ , where

$$X_{n,k} = 2\binom{n+k-1}{2k} - \binom{n+k-2}{2k} + \binom{n+k-2}{2k-2} \text{ and } Y_{n,k} = 2\binom{n+k-1}{2k+1} - \binom{n+k-2}{2k+1} + \binom{n+k-2}{2k-1}.$$

Recall that

$$\binom{a}{b} = \binom{a-1}{b} + \binom{a-1}{b-1} = \binom{a-2}{b} + 2\binom{a-2}{b-1} + \binom{a-2}{b-2}.$$

From this, we have

$$\begin{aligned} X_{n,k} &= 2\left(\binom{n+k-2}{2k} + \binom{n+k-2}{2k-1}\right) - \binom{n+k-2}{2k} + \binom{n+k-2}{2k-2} \\ &= \binom{n+k-2}{2k} + 2\binom{n+k-2}{2k-1} + \binom{n+k-2}{2k-2} = \binom{n+k}{2k}. \end{aligned}$$

In the same way, one can show that  $Y_{n,k} = \binom{n+k}{2k+1}$ ; this completes the proof.

The following particular cases have been known for a long time (see [5]). If  $r = 0$  (DFF triangle and Morgan-Voyce polynomial  $b_n$ ), then

$$\alpha_{n,k}^{(0)} = \binom{n+k}{2k}$$

and, if  $r = 1$  (DFFz triangle and Morgan-Voyce polynomial  $B_n$ ), then

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

**Remark:** The sequence  $w_n = P_n^{(r)}(1)$  satisfies the recurrence relation  $w_n = 3w_{n-1} - w_{n-2}$ . On the other hand, the sequence  $\{F_{2n}\}$ , where  $F_n$  denotes the usual Fibonacci number, satisfies the same relation. From this, it is easily verified that

$$P_n^{(r)}(1) = F_{2n+2} + (r-1)F_{2n} = F_{2n+1} + rF_{2n}.$$

For instance, we have two known results (see [1] and [2]),  $P_n^{(0)}(1) = F_{2n+1}$  and  $P_n^{(1)}(1) = F_{2n+2}$ . We also get a new result,

$$P_n^{(2)}(1) = F_{2n+2} + F_{2n} = L_{2n+1},$$

where  $L_n$  is the usual Lucas number.

#### 4. MORGAN-VOYCE AND CHEBYSHEV POLYNOMIALS

Let us recall that the Chebyshev polynomials of the *second* kind,  $\{U_n(\omega)\}$ , are defined by the recurrence relation

$$U_n(\omega) = 2\omega U_{n-1}(\omega) - U_{n-2}(\omega), \tag{10}$$

with initial conditions  $U_0(\omega) = 0$  and  $U_1(\omega) = 1$ . It is clear that the sequence  $\{P_n^{(r)}(2\omega-2)\}$  satisfies (10). Comparing the initial conditions, we obtain

$$P_n^{(r)}(2\omega - 2) = U_{n+1}(\omega) + (r - 1)U_n(\omega).$$

If  $\omega = \cos t$ ,  $0 < t < \pi$ , it is well known that

$$U_n(\omega) = \frac{\sin(nt)}{\sin t}.$$

Thus, we have

$$P_n^{(r)}(2\omega - 2) = \frac{\sin(n+1)t + (r - 1)\sin nt}{\sin t}.$$

From this, we get the following formulas, where  $\omega = \cos t = (x + 2)/2$ ,

$$b_n(x) = P_n^{(0)}(x) = \frac{\cos(2n+1)t/2}{\cos t/2}, \tag{11}$$

$$B_n(x) = P_n^{(1)}(x) = \frac{\sin(n+1)t}{\sin t}. \tag{12}$$

Formulas (11) and (12) were first given by Swamy [6]. We also have a similar formula for  $P_n^{(2)}(x)$ , namely,

$$P_n^{(2)}(x) = \frac{\sin(2n+1)t/2}{\sin t/2}. \tag{13}$$

From (11) and (12), we see that the zeros  $x_k$  (resp.  $y_k$ ) of the polynomial  $b_n$  (resp.  $B_n$ ) are given by (see [6])

$$x_k = -4 \sin^2\left(\frac{k\pi}{2n+2}\right), k = 1, 2, \dots, n, \text{ and } y_k = -4 \sin^2\left(\frac{(2k-1)\pi}{4n+2}\right), k = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

Similarly, the zeros  $z_k$  of the polynomial  $P_n^{(2)}(x)$  are given by

$$z_k = -4 \sin^2\left(\frac{k\pi}{2n+1}\right), k = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

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AMS Classification Number: 11B39

