## ON SOME PELL POLYNOMIALS

Serpil Halici

Abstract. In this study, Pell polynomials and its some properties are investigated. Furthermore, some explicit formulae for sums of these polynomials are derived using the matrices.

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## 1. Introduction

It is well known that Fibonacci polynomials, $f_{n}(x)$, by as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{n}(x)=x f_{n-1}(x)+f_{n-2}(x), n \geq 3, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $f_{1}(x)=1$ and $f_{2}(x)=x$. In [5], these polynomials are studied by Jacobsthal and defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{n}(x)=J_{n-1}(x)+x J_{n-2}(x), n \geq 3, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $J_{1}(x)=1$ and $J_{2}(x)=1$. Lucas polynomials are defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{n}(x)=x L_{n-1}(x)+L_{n-2}(x), n \geq 2 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $L_{0}(x)=2$ and $L_{1}(x)=x$. It follows from the recursion relation definition can be seen that $L_{n}(1)=L_{n}, n \geq 0$. That is, the sum of coefficients of $L_{n}(x)$ is $n$th Lucas number. Similarly, $f_{n}(1)=F_{n}$ and, $J_{n}(1)=F_{n}, n \geq 0$. The some well known identities related with them are as follows;

$$
\begin{gather*}
2 f_{n+m}(x)=f_{n}(x) L_{m}(x)+f_{m}(x) L_{n}(x),  \tag{4}\\
f_{n+m}(x)=f_{n}(x) f_{m-1}(x)+f_{n+1}(x) f_{m}(x),  \tag{5}\\
L_{n}(x)=f_{n+1}(x)+f_{n-1}(x),  \tag{6}\\
\left(x^{2}+4\right) f_{n}^{2}(x)=L_{n+1}(x)+L_{n-1}(x), \tag{7}
\end{gather*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{n+1}(x) f_{n-1}(x)-f_{n}^{2}(x)=(-1)^{n} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Pell polynomials, $P_{n}(x)$, are defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(x)=2 x P_{n-1}(x)+P_{n-2}(x), \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{0}(x)=0$ and $P_{1}(x)=1, n \geq 2$. Similarly, Pell-Lucas polynomials are defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{n}(x)=2 x Q_{n-1}(x)+Q_{n-2}(x), n \geq 2 \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Q_{0}(x)=2$ and $Q_{1}(x)=2 x$.
It is note that $P_{n}\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)=f_{n}(x)$, and $Q_{n}\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)=L_{n}(x)$. Several interesting properties of polynomials $P_{n}(x)$ can be also written; when $P_{n}(x)$ is the $n^{t h}$ Pell polynomial, then for $n \geq 2$, Pell polynomials have not the same degree. The leading coefficient of $P_{n}(x)$ is $2^{n-1}$. For $n$ odd number, the coefficients of $P_{n}(x)$ are even numbers, except for constant term. For $n \in N$ even number, we say that $2 x$ divides $P_{n}(x)$ which $x \neq 0$. For all $n$, $\operatorname{deg}\left[P_{n}(x)\right]=n-1$. Notice that for $n \in N$ even and $n \geq 2$, the last terms of $P_{n}(x)$ are $n x$.

| $n, j$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 |  |  |  |
| 1 | 1 |  |  |  |
| 2 | 2 |  |  |  |
| 3 | 4 | 1 |  |  |
| 4 | 8 | 4 |  |  |
| 5 | 16 | 12 | 1 |  |
| 6 | 32 | 32 | 6 |  |
| 7 | 64 | 80 | 24 | 1 |
| 8 | 128 | 192 | 80 | 8 |

Let $P(n, j)$ denotes the element in row $n$ and column $j$, where $j \geq 0, n \geq 1$. In according to this table, for $n \geq 3$ we can write the following equation;

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(n, 0)=2 P(n-2,0)+P(n-1,0) . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

For example, we have $P(7,0)=2 P(5,0)+P(6,0)=64$. It can be seen that every row sum in the array of coefficient in the table is a Pell number. Also, we can write the following property;

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=0}^{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor} P(n, j)=P_{n} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{n}$ is the $n^{\text {th }}$ Pell number. The relationships between $P_{n}(x)$ and $Q_{n}(x)$ can be derived by using Binet formulas. Some of them are

$$
\begin{gather*}
Q_{n}(x)=P_{n+1}(x)+P_{n-1}(x),  \tag{14}\\
P_{2 n}(x)=P_{n}(x) Q_{n}(x),  \tag{15}\\
P_{n+1}(x) P_{n-1}(x)-P_{n}^{2}(x)=(-1)^{n},  \tag{16}\\
Q_{n+1}(x) Q_{n-1}(x)-Q_{n}^{2}(x)=4(-1)^{n-1}\left(x^{2}+1\right) . \tag{17}
\end{gather*}
$$

## 2. Some Properties of Pell Polynomials

In this section we give some formulae for sums of the Pell Polynomials by using the matrices. If $P_{n} n^{\text {th }}$ is the Pell polynomial, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(x)=\frac{\left(x+\sqrt{x^{2}+1}\right)^{n}-\left(x-\sqrt{x^{2}+1}\right)^{n}}{2 \sqrt{x^{2}+1}} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

The generating functions for Pell and Pell-Lucas polynomials are

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(x, t)=\frac{1}{1-2 x t-t^{2}}, \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q(x, t)=\frac{2(x+t)}{1-2 x t-t^{2}}, \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

respectively. The $n^{\text {th }}$ Pell polynomial can be also computed using by the matrices. In order to this, we must firstly present a theorem describing the sequence of determinants for a general tridiagonal matrix. Let $A(n)$ be a family of tridiagonal matrices as follows

$$
A(n)=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & & &  \tag{21}\\
a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & & \\
& a_{3,2} & a_{3,3} & \ldots & \\
& & \ldots & \ldots & a_{n-1, n} \\
& & \ldots & a_{n, n-1} & a_{n, n}
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Theorem 1. ([2]) The determinants of $A(n)$ matrices are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{det}(A(1))=a_{1,1} \\
& \operatorname{det}(A(2))=a_{2,2} a_{1,1}-a_{2,1} a_{1,2} \\
& \operatorname{det}(A(n))=a_{n, n} \operatorname{det}(A(n-1))-a_{n, n-1} a_{n-1, n} \operatorname{det}(A(n-2)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

By considering this theorem, we can compute the $n^{\text {th }}$ Pell polynomial. So, we can give the next theorem.

Theorem 2. If $D_{n}(x)$ is a $n \times n$ tridiagonal matrix where $D_{0}(x)=0$ and

$$
D_{n}(x)=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
1 & i & & &  \tag{22}\\
0 & 2 x & i & & \\
& i & 2 x & \ldots & \\
& & \ldots & \ldots & i \\
& & & i & 2 x
\end{array}\right]
$$

then for $n \geq 0, \operatorname{det}\left(D_{n}(x)\right)=P_{n}(x)$.
Proof. We can easily seen that $D_{0}(x)=0, \operatorname{det}\left(D_{1}(x)\right)=1, \operatorname{det}\left(D_{2}(x)\right)=2 x$. We assume that $\left|D_{n-1}(x)\right|=P_{n-1}(x)$ and $\left|D_{n-2}(x)\right|=P_{n-2}(x)$. Then from by the Theorem 1 we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|D_{n}(x)\right|=2 x\left|D_{n-1}(x)\right|-i^{2}\left|D_{n-2}(x)\right|=2 x P_{n-1}(x)+P_{n-2}(x)=P_{n}(x) . \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, the proof is completed.
Now, let us define a matrix different from $D_{n}(x)$ as follows

$$
D_{n}^{*}(x)=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
2 & i & & &  \tag{24}\\
0 & 2 x & i & & \\
& i & 2 x & \ldots & \\
& & \ldots & \ldots & i \\
& & & i & 2 x
\end{array}\right]
$$

If $D_{n}^{*}(x)$ matrix is defined as above, then, for $n \geq 1$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|D_{n}^{*}(x)\right|=Q_{n-1}(x) . \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we consider the recurrence relation for Pell polynomials, then we have the following theorem.

Theorem 3. If $t$ is a square matrix with $t^{2}=2 x t+I$, then for all $n \in Z$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
t^{n}=P_{n}(x) t+P_{n-1}(x) I, \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{n}(x)$ is a $n^{\text {th }}$ Pell polynomial and I is a unit matrix.
Proof. If $n=0$, then the proof is obvious. It can be shown that by induction that

$$
\begin{equation*}
t^{n}=P_{n}(x) t+P_{n-1}(x) I . \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

For every $n \in N$, we will show that $t^{-n}=P_{-n}(x) t+P_{-n-1}(x) I$. Let $y=2 x-t=$ $-t^{-1}$. Then $y^{2}=2 x y+I$ and $y^{3}=4 x^{2} y+2 x+y$. Thus, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{n}=P_{n}(x) y+P_{n-1}(x) I . \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{n}=(-1)^{n} t^{-n}=(-1)^{n} P_{n}(x) y+(-1)^{n} P_{n-1}(x) I, y=2 x-t . \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
t^{-n}=P_{-n}(x) t+P_{-n-1}(x) I . \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, for all $n \in Z$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
t^{n}=P_{n}(x) t+P_{n-1}(x) I . \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us consider the following matrix for using in the next theorems. If

$$
P=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
2 x & 1  \tag{32}\\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right],
$$

then, it is known that

$$
P^{n}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
P_{n+1}(x) & P_{n}(x)  \tag{33}\\
P_{n}(x) & P_{n-1}(x)
\end{array}\right],
$$

and $\operatorname{det}\left(P^{n}\right)=(-1)^{n}$. So, we can give the following theorem without proof.
Theorem 4. For all $n$, $m \in Z$ we have

$$
\begin{align*}
P_{n+m}(x) & =P_{n+1}(x) P_{m}(x)+P_{n}(x) P_{m-1}(x),  \tag{34}\\
Q_{n+m}(x) & =Q_{n+1}(x) P_{m}(x)+Q_{n}(x) P_{m-1}(x) . \tag{35}
\end{align*}
$$

Furthermore, from multiplication of $P^{n}(x)$ and $P^{m}(x)$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 P_{n+m}(x)=P_{m}(x) Q_{n}(x)+P_{n}(x) Q_{m}(x) . \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also, from $P_{m+n}(x)$ polynomials, we can get

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n+1}^{2}(x)+P_{n}^{2}(x)=P_{2 n+1}(x) . \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

Corollary 1. For all $n, m \in Z$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
(-1)^{n} P_{m-n}(x)=P_{m}(x) P_{n+1}(x)-P_{n}(x) P_{m+1}(x) . \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. By the matrix properties, we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
P^{m-n}(x)=P^{m}(x) P^{-n}(x) \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
P^{-n}(x)=\frac{1}{(-1)^{n}}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
P_{n-1}(x) & -P_{n}(x)  \tag{40}\\
-P_{n}(x) & P_{n+1}(x)
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Since,

$$
\begin{gather*}
(-1)^{n} P^{m-n}(x)= \\
=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
P_{m+1}(x) P_{n-1}(x)-P_{n}(x) P_{m}(x) & P_{n+1}(x) P_{m}(x)-P_{m+1}(x) P_{n}(x) \\
P_{m}(x) P_{n-1}(x)-P_{n}(x) P_{m-1}(x) & P_{n+1}(x) P_{m-1}(x)-P_{n}(x) P_{m}(x)
\end{array}\right] \tag{41}
\end{gather*}
$$

It follows from that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(-1)^{n} P_{m-n}(x)=P_{m}(x) P_{n+1}(x)-P_{n}(x) P_{m+1}(x) . \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, the proof is completed.
Furthermore, for all $n, m \in Z$ one can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n+m}(x)+(-1)^{n} P_{m-n}(x)=P_{m}(x) Q_{n}(x) . \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the properties and definition of the $P^{n}(x)$ matrix it can be seen that $\operatorname{det}\left(P^{m+n}(x)+(-1)^{n} P^{m-n}(x)\right)$ is equal to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(P_{m+1}(x) Q_{n}(x)-P_{m}(x) Q_{n}(x)\right)\left(P_{m+1}(x) Q_{n}(x)+P_{m}(x) Q_{n}(x)\right) . \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, we can get

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{n+r}(x)+Q_{n-r}(x)=Q_{n}(x) Q_{r}(x) . \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we will give a sum formula for the Pell polynomials.
Corollary 2. For $P_{m}(x)$ and $Q_{m}(x)$, we have

$$
\begin{gather*}
\sum_{m=1}^{n} P_{m}(x)=\frac{P_{n+1}(x)+P_{n}(x)-1}{2},  \tag{46}\\
\sum_{m=1}^{n} Q_{m}(x)=\frac{Q_{n+1}(x)+Q_{n}(x)-2-2 x}{2 x} . \tag{47}
\end{gather*}
$$

respectively.

Theorem 5. If $n \in N$ and $m, k \in Z$ with $m \neq 0$, then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=0}^{n} P_{m j+k}(x)=\frac{P_{m}(x)\left(1-\left(P^{m}(x)\right)^{n+1}\right) P^{k}(x)}{1+(-1)^{m}-Q_{m}(x)} \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. It is well known that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(I-\left(P^{m}(x)\right)^{n+1}\right)=\left(I-\left(P^{m}(x)\right)\right) \sum_{j=0}^{n} P^{m j}(x) \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\operatorname{det}\left(I-\left(P^{m}(x)\right) \neq 0\right.$, then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(( I - ( P ^ { m } ( x ) ) ) ^ { - 1 } \left(I-\left(P^{m}(x)\right)^{n+1}=\sum_{j=0}^{n} P^{m j}(x)\right.\right. \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(( I - ( P ^ { m } ( x ) ) ) ^ { - 1 } \left(I-\left(P^{m n+m+k}(x)\right)=\sum_{j=0}^{n} P^{m j+k}(x)\right.\right. \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also, we can get

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{n} P^{m j+k}(x)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\sum_{j=0}^{n} P_{m j+k+1}(x) & \sum_{j=0}^{n} P_{m j+k}(x)  \tag{52}\\
\sum_{j=0}^{n} P_{m j+k}(x) & \sum_{j=0}^{n} P_{m j+k-1}(x)
\end{array}\right]
$$

Since

$$
A=I-\left(P^{m}(x)\right), A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1-P_{m+1}(x) & -P_{m}(x)  \tag{53}\\
-P_{m}(x) & 1-P_{m-1}(x)
\end{array}\right]
$$

and $\operatorname{det}(A)=1+\left(-1^{m}\right)-Q_{m}(x)$. We have

$$
A^{-1}=\frac{1}{1+(-1)^{m}-Q_{m}(x)}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1-P_{m-1}(x) & P_{m}(x)  \tag{54}\\
P_{m}(x) & 1-P_{m+1}(x)
\end{array}\right]
$$

So, we can obtain that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=0}^{n} P_{m j+k}(x)=\frac{P_{m}(x)\left(1-\left(P^{m}(x)\right)^{n+1}\right) P^{k}(x)}{1+(-1)^{m}-Q_{m}(x)} \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, the proof is completed.
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Serpil Halici
Department of Mathematics
Faculty of Arts and Sciences
University of Sakarya
TURKEY.
email: shalici@sakarya.edu.tr

