Rotational and dihedral symmetries in Steinhaus and Pascal binary triangles ⋆

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Abstract. We give explicit formulae for obtaining the binary sequences which produce Steinhaus triangles and generalized Pascal triangles with rotational and dihedral symmetries.

Key words: Steinhaus triangles, Pascal triangle, Symmetric arrangements, Rotational symmetry, Dihedral symmetry

1 Introduction

Let $\mathbb{F}_2$ be the field of order 2 and $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}) \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ a binary sequence of length n. The *derivate* of $\mathbf{x}$ is the sequence $\partial\mathbf{x} = (x_0+x_1, x_1+x_2, \dots, x_{n-2}+x_{n-1})$. We define $\partial^0\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$, $\partial^1\mathbf{x} = \partial\mathbf{x}$ and, for $2 \le i \le n-1$, $\partial^i\mathbf{x} = \partial\partial^{i-1}\mathbf{x}$. The *Steinhaus triangle* of the sequence $\mathbf{x}$ is the sequence $S(\mathbf{x})$ formed by $\mathbf{x}$ and its derivatives: $S(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}, \partial\mathbf{x}, \dots, \partial^{n-1}\mathbf{x})$. Figure 1 shows a graphical representation of $S(\mathbf{x})$ for the sequence $\mathbf{x} = (0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0)$. The black and white circles represent ones and zeroes respectively; the first row corresponds to $\mathbf{x}$ and the following rows to the iterated derivatives. Each entry of the triangle is the binary sum of the two values immediately above it.

In 1958, H. Steinhaus [13] asked for which sequences $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \dots, x_{n-1})$ the triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$ is balanced, that is, $S(\mathbf{x})$ has as many zeroes as ones. He observed that no sequence of length $n \equiv 1, 2 \pmod 4$ produces a balanced triangle, so the problem was to decide if they exist for lengths $n \equiv 0, 3 \pmod 4$. H. Harborth [9] answered the question in the affirmative by constructing examples of such sequences. S. Eliahou et al. studied binary sequences generating balanced triangles with some additional condition: sequences of length n, all of whose initial segments of length $n - 4t$ for $0 \le t \le n/4$ generate balanced triangles [5], symmetric and antisymmetric sequences [6], and sequences with zero sum [7]. F.M. Malyshev and E.V. Kutyreva [11] estimated the number of

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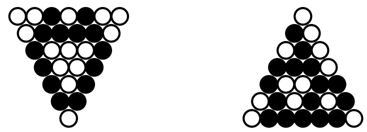
Fig. 1. On the left, Steinhaus triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$ for the sequence $\mathbf{x} = (0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0)$. On the right, the Pascal triangle $P(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ for the sequences $\mathbf{u} = (0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0)$.



Steinhaus triangles (which they call Boolean Pascal triangles) of sufficiently large size n containing a given number $\omega \leq kn$ $(k > 0)$ of ones. More recently, J. Chappelon [4] considered a generalization by J. C. Molluzo [12] to sequences with entries in $\mathbb{Z}_m$, with the condition that every element in $\mathbb{Z}_m$ has the same multiplicity in the triangle. Here, we focus on the symmetry of the graphical representation of Steinhaus triangles.

Let $\mathbf{u} = (u_0, \ldots, u_\ell)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_0, \ldots, v_\ell)$ be two binary sequences in $\mathbb{F}_2^{\ell+1}$ with $u_0 = v_0$. The *general binary Pascal triangle*, or *Pascal triangle* for short, $P(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$, is the double indexed sequence $\mathbf{z}(r, c)$ defined by the initial conditions

$$\mathbf{z}(r, 0) = u_r, \quad \mathbf{z}(r, r) = v_r, \quad (0 \leq r \leq \ell) \tag{1}$$

and the recurrence

$$\mathbf{z}(r, c) = \mathbf{z}(r-1, c-1) + \mathbf{z}(r-1, c) \qquad (1 \leq r \leq \ell,\ 1 \leq c \leq r-1) \tag{2}$$

The Pascal triangle $P(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ is similar to the ordinary Pascal triangle, but the left and right sides are not filled with ones, but with the given values $u_0, \ldots, u_\ell$ on the left side and $v_0, \ldots, v_\ell$ on the right side. Recurrence (2) is the usual recurrence of binomial numbers, but here the initial conditions are those in (1) and the sum is done in $\mathbb{F}_2$. Figure 1 shows a graphic representation of a Pascal triangle.

The particular case $u_0 = \cdots = u_\ell = v_0 = \cdots = v_\ell = 1$ is the ordinary Pascal triangle modulo 2, which is known to be related to the Sierpiński sieve [8,14]. H. Harborth and G. Hurlbert [10] showed that for every natural n there exists a natural ℓ and binary sequences of $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ of length $\ell+1$ such that the Pascal triangle $P(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ has exactly n ones. Moreover, they determine the minimum possible value of ℓ. As for Steinhaus triangles, here we are interested in the symmetry of Pascal triangles.

Both Steinhaus and Pascal triangles appear in the context of cellular automata, particularly in a bidimensional cellular automaton following the local rule represented in Figure 2, see [1,2,3].

In this context, A. Barbé [3] has studied symmetries in Steinhaus and Pascal triangles (which he called *binary difference pattern* and *Δ-binary difference pattern*, respectively) as patterns in such a bidimensional cellular automaton. A Steinhaus or Pascal triangle is said to have *rotational symmetry* if its graphical representation is invariant under rotations of 120 and 240 degrees, and it is said to have *dihedral symmetry* if it has rotational symmetry and the

Fig. 2. Local rule of a cellular automaton that generates Steinhaus and Pascal triangles

graphical representation is invariant by axial symmetry with respect to the height of the triangle. Besides enumeration results counting the number of Steinhaus and Pascal triangles with rotational and dihedral symmetries, for example, he characterizes by matrix properties the sequences which produce Steinhaus and Pascal triangles with rotational and dihedral symmetry. Our goal here is to give formulae for explicitly obtaining such sequences.

In Sections 2 and 3, we give formulae for obtaining the sequences $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ such that $S(\mathbf{x})$ has rotational and dihedral symmetry, respectively.

If $\mathbf{u} = (u_0, \ldots, u_\ell)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_0, \ldots, v_\ell)$, and the Pascal triangle $P(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ has rotational symmetry, then obviously $v_i = u_{\ell-i}$ for $0 \leq i \leq \ell$, so the triangle is determined by $\mathbf{u}$. In Sections 4 and 5 we give formulae for obtaining the sequences $\mathbf{u}$ such that the corresponding Pascal triangle has rotational and dihedral symmetry, respectively.

Finally, Section 6 deals with the possibility of changing $\mathbb{F}_2$ to an arbitrary group throughout the discussion.

2 Rotational symmetry in Steinhaus triangles

Consider the Steinhaus triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$ of the sequence $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1})$. The coordinates of $\partial^r \mathbf{x}$ will be indexed from 0 to $n-1-r$ and denoted by $\mathbf{x}(r, c)$, that is, $\partial^r \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}(r, 0), \mathbf{x}(r, 1), \ldots, \mathbf{x}(r, n-1-r))$. In particular, $\mathbf{x}(0, i) = x_i$ for $0 \leq i \leq n-1$. It is known (and easily proved by induction) that the entry $\mathbf{x}(r, c)$ of the triangle is

$$\mathbf{x}(r, c) = \sum_{i=0}^{r} \binom{r}{i} x_{c+i}. \tag{3}$$

The set $S(n) = \{S(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n\}$ is a $\mathbb{F}_2$-vector space of dimension n. Let $SR(n)$ be the set of Steinhaus triangles of size n with rotational symmetry. In terms of coordinates, the condition of $S(\mathbf{x})$ being rotationally symmetric is

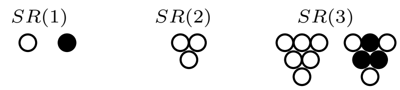
$$\mathbf{x}(r, c) = \mathbf{x}(c, n-r-c-1), \quad (0 \leq r \leq n-1, \quad 0 \leq c \leq n-r-1),$$

or, equivalently,

$$\mathbf{x}(r, c) = \mathbf{x}(n-r-c-1, r), \quad (0 \leq r \leq n-1, \quad 0 \leq c \leq n-r-1).$$

In a natural way $SR(n)$ is a vector subspace of $S(n)$. Define $\epsilon_3(n) = 1$ if $n \equiv 1 \pmod 3$ and 0 otherwise; A. Barbé ([3], Property 7) shows that the

Fig. 3. Rotationally symmetric Steinhaus triangles of size $n \leq 3$



dimension of $SR(n)$ is $d(n) = \dim SR(n) = \lfloor n/3 \rfloor + \epsilon_3(n)$. We shall show that the $d(n)$ central coordinates in $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1})$ can be given arbitrary values determining a Steinhaus triangle with rotational symmetry. Note that the d central coordinates are

$$\begin{array}{lll} x_q = \mathbf{x}(0,q), & \ldots, x_{2q} = \mathbf{x}(0,2q), & \text{if } n = 3q+1; \\ x_{q+1} = \mathbf{x}(0,q+1), & \ldots, x_{2q} = \mathbf{x}(0,2q), & \text{if } n = 3q+2; \\ x_q = \mathbf{x}(0,q), & \ldots, x_{2q-1} = \mathbf{x}(0,2q-1), & \text{if } n = 3q. \end{array} \tag{4}$$

Consider first the smallest values of n, see Figure 3. For $n = 1$, there exist two triangles in $SR(1)$, which are $S((0))$ and $S((1))$; both are rotationally symmetric, and the value of x_0 determines the triangle $S((x_0))$. For $n = 2$, there exists one rotationally symmetric triangle in $SR(2)$, which is $S((0,0))$, and no coordinate can be chosen. For $n \geq 3$, there exist two rotationally symmetric triangles in $SR(3)$, which are $S((0,0,0))$ and $S((0,1,0))$, and the central coordinate x_1 determines the triangle $S(0, x_1, 0)$.

Theorem 1. *Let $n \geq 4$ be an integer, and $d = \dim SR(n)$. For each vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$, let $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ be the vector formed by the d central coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$. Then, the mapping $f\colon SR(n) \to \mathbb{F}_2^d$ defined by $S(\mathbf{x}) \mapsto \hat{\mathbf{x}}$ is an isomorphism.*

Proof. The mapping f is clearly linear and both vector spaces have the same dimension. Then, it suffices to prove that f is exhaustive.

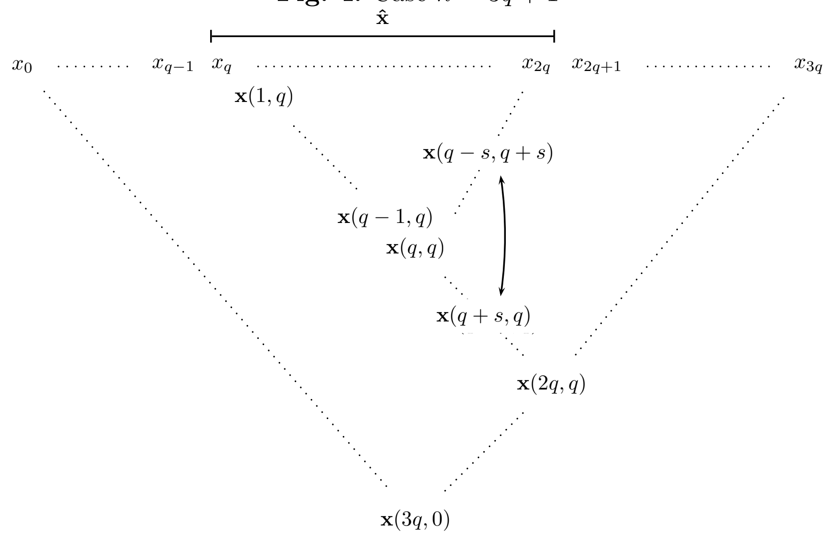
Consider first the case $n = 3q+1$, see Figure 4.

Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1}) \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ be such that $S(\mathbf{x}) \in SR(n)$. In this case $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (x_q, \ldots, x_{2q})$. Because of formula (3), in $S(\mathbf{x})$, all the entries in the triangle of vertices $x_q = \mathbf{x}(0,q)$, $x_{2q} = \mathbf{x}(0,2q)$ and $\mathbf{x}(q,q)$ are linearly determined by $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (x_q, \ldots, x_{2q})$, and, in particular, those in the lines from $x_q = \mathbf{x}(0,q)$ to $\mathbf{x}(q,q)$ and from $x_{2q} = \mathbf{x}(0,2q)$ to $\mathbf{x}(q,q)$. Because of the rotational symmetry, the values in the line from $x_{2q} = \mathbf{x}(0,2q)$ to $\mathbf{x}(q,q)$ are the same as those in the line from $\mathbf{x}(2q,q)$ to $\mathbf{x}(q,q)$, that is,

$$\mathbf{x}(q+s,q) = \mathbf{x}(q-s,q+s), \qquad (0 \leq s \leq q).$$

Thus, we have all the entries in column q, that is, $\mathbf{x}(0,q), \ldots, \mathbf{x}(2q,q)$, as a linear combination of $x_q, \ldots, x_{2q}$. Column q determines linearly all the values in the triangle of vertices $x_q = \mathbf{x}(0,q)$, $\mathbf{x}(2q,q)$ and $x_{3q} = \mathbf{x}(0,3q)$. Then, there exists a linear combination of $x_q, \ldots, x_{2q}$ for any $x_{2q+1}, \ldots, x_{3q}$. The values of $x_{3q} = \mathbf{x}(0,3q)$, $\mathbf{x}(1,3q-1), \ldots, \mathbf{x}(q-1,2q+1)$ are also determinated by the values in column q. Because of rotational symmetry, we have $x_0 = \mathbf{x}(0,0) =$

Fig. 4. Case $n = 3q + 1$



$\mathbf{x}(0, 3q)$, ..., $x_{q-1} = \mathbf{x}(0, q-1) = \mathbf{x}(q-1, 2q+1)$. Also, there is a linear combination of $x_q, \ldots, x_{2q}$ for any $x_0, \ldots, x_{q-1}$ Therefore, given $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{F}_2^d$, there is a triangle in $S(x) \in SR(n)$ such that $f(S(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{z}$.

Consider now the case $n = 3q + 2$. Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1})$ be such that $S(\mathbf{x}) \in SR(n)$. As in the previous case, the entries in column q can be written in terms of $x_{q+1}, \ldots, x_{2q}$, and, by using rotational symmetry, $x_0, \ldots, x_q$ and $x_{2q+1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ are a linear combination of $x_{q+1}, \ldots, x_{2q}$. However, the triangle formed by the three entries $\mathbf{x}(q, q)$, $\mathbf{x}(q, q+1)$ and $\mathbf{x}(q+1, q)$ is a triangle of size 2 rotationally symmetric because it is concentric to the triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$. Then, $\mathbf{x}(q, q) = \mathbf{x}(q, q+1) = \mathbf{x}(q+1, q) = 0$. We have the equalities

$$0 = \mathbf{x}(q, q) = \sum_{i=0}^{q} \binom{q}{i} x_{q+i} \quad \text{and} \quad 0 = \mathbf{x}(q, q+1) = \sum_{i=0}^{q} \binom{q}{i} x_{q+1+i},$$

which give the expression of x_q and x_{2q+1} as a linear combination of the coordinates of $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (x_{q+1}, \ldots, x_{2q})$. By using symmetry as in the previous case, the sequence $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (x_{q+1}, \ldots, x_{2q})$ determines the triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$.

Finally, let $n = 3q$. The argument begins now with $x_{q-1}, \ldots, x_{2q}$, and the column $q - 1$ is used instead of column q. As before, every entry can be written in terms of $x_{q-1}, \ldots, x_{2q}$. Now, the triangle with vertices $\mathbf{x}(q-1, q-1)$, $\mathbf{x}(q-1, q+1)$ and $\mathbf{x}(q+1, q-1)$ is a triangle of size 3 rotationally symmetric because it is concentric to the triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$. Then, we have

$$0 = \mathbf{x}(q-1, q-1) = \sum_{i=0}^{q-1} \binom{q-1}{i} x_{q-1+i},$$
$$0 = \mathbf{x}(q-1, q+1) = \sum_{i=0}^{q-1} \binom{q-1}{i} x_{q+1+i}.$$

Thus, x_{q-1} and x_{2q} are also a linear combination of $x_q, \ldots, x_{2q-1}$. Hence, $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (x_q, \ldots, x_{2q-1})$ determines the triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$. □

Following the method of the proof, we next obtain explicit formulae for $\mathbf{x}$ in terms of the central coordinates $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$.

Assume $n = 3q + 1$. For $0 \le r \le q$, we have

$$\mathbf{x}(r, q) = \sum_{i=0}^{r} \binom{r}{i} x_{q+i}, \qquad (0 \le r \le q),$$

and, for $q + 1 \le r \le 2q$, if $s = r - q$, we have

$$\mathbf{x}(r, q) = \mathbf{x}(q+s, q) = \mathbf{x}(q-s, q+s) = \sum_{j=0}^{q-s} \binom{q-s}{j} x_{q+s+j}.$$

Now, for $0 \le e \le q - 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_e &= \mathbf{x}(e, 3q-e) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{2q-e} \binom{2q-e}{j} \mathbf{x}(2q-j, q) = \sum_{r=e}^{2q} \binom{2q-e}{2q-r} \mathbf{x}(r, q) \\ &= \sum_{r=e}^{2q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \mathbf{x}(r, q) = \sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \mathbf{x}(r, q) + \sum_{r=q+1}^{2q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \mathbf{x}(r, q). \end{aligned}$$

The first summand is

$$\sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \mathbf{x}(r, q) = \sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \sum_{i=0}^{r} \binom{r}{i} x_{q+i} = \sum_{i=0}^{q} \left(\sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \binom{r}{i} \right) x_{q+i}.$$

The second is, with $s = r - q$,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{r=q+1}^{2q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \mathbf{x}(r, q) &= \sum_{s=1}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{q-s} \sum_{j=0}^{q-s} \binom{q-s}{j} x_{q+s+j} \\ &= \sum_{s=1}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{q-s} \sum_{i=s}^{q} \binom{q-s}{i-s} x_{q+i} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{q} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{q-s} \binom{q-s}{i-s} \right) x_{q+i}. \end{aligned}$$

Putting it all together, we have

$$x_e = \sum_{i=0}^{q} \left(\sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \binom{r}{i} + \sum_{r=1}^{i} \binom{2q-e}{q-r} \binom{q-r}{i-r} \right) x_{q+i}.$$

The expressions of x_{2q+e} for $1 \le e \le q$ are obtained in an analogous way. Simple but cumbersome calculations lead to the formulae for the cases $n = 3q+2$ and $n = 3q$. Next we resume such formulae. In each case we give the free coordinates $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ and the formulae for the remaining.

Case $n = 3q + 1$. $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (x_q, \ldots, x_{2q})$.

$$(0 \le e \le q-1) \quad x_e = \sum_{i=0}^{q} \left(\sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \binom{r}{i} + \sum_{r=1}^{i} \binom{2q-e}{q-r} \binom{q-r}{i-r} \right) x_{q+i}$$

$$(1 \le e \le q) \quad x_{2q+e} = \sum_{i=0}^{q} \left(\sum_{r=0}^{q} \binom{q+e}{r} \binom{r}{i} + \sum_{r=1}^{e} \binom{q+e}{q+r} \binom{q-r}{i-r} \right) x_{q+i}$$

Case $n = 3q + 2$. $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (x_{q+1}, \ldots, x_{2q})$.

$$\begin{aligned}(0 \le e \le q-1) \quad x_e = &\sum_{i=1}^{q} \left(\sum_{r=e}^{q-1} \binom{2q+1-e}{r-e} \left(\binom{q}{i} + \binom{r}{i} \right) \right. \\ &\left. + \sum_{r=2}^{q+1} \binom{2q+1-e}{q+1-r} \left(\binom{q+1-r}{i-r} + \binom{q}{i-1} \right) \right) x_{q+i}\end{aligned}$$

$$x_q = \sum_{i=1}^{q} \binom{q}{i} x_{q+i}$$

$$x_{2q+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{q} \binom{q}{i-1} x_{q+i}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(1 \le e \le q) \quad x_{2q+1+e} = &\sum_{i=1}^{q} \left(\sum_{r=0}^{q-1} \binom{q+1+e}{r} \left(\binom{q}{i} + \binom{r}{i} \right) \right. \\ &\left. + \sum_{r=0}^{e-1} \binom{q+1+e}{q+2+r} \left(\binom{q-1-r}{i-2-r} + \binom{q}{i-1} \right) \right) x_{q+i}\end{aligned}$$

Case $n = 3q$. $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (x_q, \ldots, x_{2q-1})$.

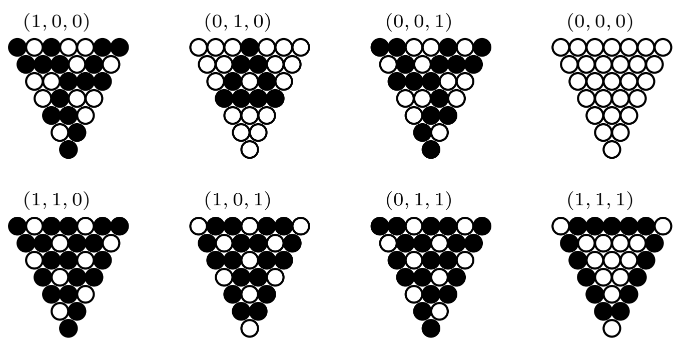
$$\begin{aligned}(0 \le e \le q-2) \quad x_e = &\sum_{i=1}^{q} \left(\sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \left(\binom{q-1}{i} + \binom{r}{i} \right) \right. \\ &\left. + \sum_{r=0}^{q-2} \binom{2q-e}{q-2-r} \left(\binom{q-2-r}{i-3-r} + \binom{q-1}{i-2} \right) \right) x_{q-1+i}\end{aligned}$$

$$x_{q-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{q-1} \binom{q-1}{i} x_{q-1+i} \qquad x_{2q} = \sum_{i=2}^{q} \binom{q-1}{i-2} x_{q-1+i}$$

$$(1 \le e \le q-1) \quad x_{2q+e} = \sum_{i=1}^{q} \left(\sum_{r=0}^{q} \binom{q+1+e}{r} \left(\binom{q-1}{i} + \binom{r}{i} \right) + \sum_{r=0}^{e-1} \binom{q+1+e}{q+2+r} \left(\binom{q-2-r}{i-3-r} + \binom{q-1}{i-2} \right) \right) x_{q-1+i}$$

For example, all triangles in $SR(7)$ are formed by giving values $x_2, x_3, x_4 \in \mathbb{F}_2$ to obtain the first row, and this is $(x_2 + x_4, x_4, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_2, x_2 + x_4)$. Figure 5 shows all triangles in $SR(7)$; each triangle is labeled by (x_2, x_3, x_4). The first three triangles form a basis of $SR(7)$.

Fig. 5. The eight Steinhaus triangles of size 7 with rotational symmetry.



3 Dihedral symmetry in Steinhaus triangles

Let $SD(n)$ be the vector space of the dihedrally symmetric Steinhaus triangles of size n. All rotationally symmetric Steinhaus triangles of size $n \le 3$ are also dihedrally symmetric, see Figure 3. Thus, we have $SD(n) = SR(n)$ for $1 \le n \le 3$. Let $\epsilon_6(n) = 1$ if $n \equiv 1 \pmod 6$ and $\epsilon_6(n) = 0$ otherwise. It is known ([3] Corollary 2) that the dimension of $SD(n)$ is

$$\tilde{d}(n) = \dim SD(n) = \left\lfloor \frac{n+3}{6} \right\rfloor + \epsilon_6(n) = \left\lceil \frac{d(n)}{2} \right\rceil,$$

where $d(n) = \dim SR(n)$. Also, if $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1})$ and $S(\mathbf{x})$ is rotationally symmetric, then $S(\mathbf{x})$ is dihedrally symmetric if, and only if, $x_i = x_{n-1-i}$ for all $i \in \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$.

Theorem 2. *Let $n \ge 4$ be an integer, $d = \dim SR(n)$ and $\tilde{d} = \dim SD(n)$. For $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$, let $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ be the vector formed by the d central coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ the vector formed by the first $\tilde{d}$ coordinates of $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$. Then, the mapping $f\colon SD(n) \to \mathbb{F}_2^{\tilde{d}}$ defined by $S(\mathbf{x}) \mapsto \tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ is an isomorphism.*

Proof. The mapping f is clearly linear, and both vector spaces have the same dimension. Then, it suffices to prove that f is exhaustive.

Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1})$ be such that $S(\mathbf{x})$ is dihedrally symmetric, and let $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (x_{q_1}, \ldots, x_{q_1+\tilde{d}-1})$. Since $S(\mathbf{x})$ is rotationally symmetric, the $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ determine $\mathbf{x}$. Since $S(\mathbf{x})$ is dihedrally symmetric, the first $\tilde{d}$ coordinates in $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ determine the remaining. Thus, every coordinate in $\mathbf{x}$ depends linearly on the coordinates in $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$. Therefore, given $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{\tilde{d}}$, there exists a triangle $S(x) \in SD(n)$ such that $f(S(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{z}$. $\square$

The argument in the proof leads to the following formulae. In each of the three cases $n = 3q+1$, $n = 3q+2$ and $n = 3q$ we must distinguish the cases q odd and q even. As before, we give the free coordinates $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ and the formulae for the remaining.

Case $n = 3q+1$. Define

$$A(i,q,e) = \sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e}\left(\binom{r}{i} + \binom{r}{q-i}\right) + \sum_{r=1}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{q-r}\left(\binom{q-r}{q-i} + \binom{q-r}{i}\right)$$

- $q = 2t+1$. $\quad \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (x_q, \ldots, x_{q+t})$

$$(0 \le e \le q-1) \quad x_e = \sum_{i=0}^{t} A(i,q,e) x_{q+i}$$

$$(1 \le e \le q+t+1) \quad x_{q+t+e} = x_{q+t+1-e}$$

- $q = 2t$. $\quad \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (x_q, \ldots, x_{q+t})$.

$$(0 \le e \le q-1) \quad x_e = \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} A(i,q,e) x_{q+i} + \left(\sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e}\binom{r}{t} + \sum_{r=1}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{q-r}\binom{q-r}{t-r}\right) x_{q+t}$$

$$(1 \le e \le q+t) \quad x_{q+t+e} = x_{q+t-e}$$

Case $n = 3q+2$. Define

$$\begin{aligned} A(i,q,e) = &\sum_{r=e}^{q-1} \binom{2q+1-e}{r-e}\left(\binom{q+1}{i} + \binom{r}{i} + \binom{r}{q+1-i}\right) \\ &+ \sum_{r=2}^{q+1} \binom{2q+1-e}{q+1-r}\left(\binom{q+1}{i} + \binom{q+1-r}{i-r} + \binom{q+1-r}{i}\right) \end{aligned}$$

• $q = 2t+1$. $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (x_{q+1}, \ldots, x_{q+t+1})$.

$$\begin{aligned}(0 \le e \le q-1) \quad x_e &= \sum_{i=1}^{t} A(i,q,e) x_{q+i} \\ &\quad + \left(\sum_{r=e}^{q-1} \binom{2q+1-e}{r-e} \left(\binom{q}{t+1} + \binom{r}{t+1} \right) \right. \\ &\qquad \left. + \sum_{r=2}^{q+1} \binom{2q+1-e}{q+1-r} \left(\binom{q+1-r}{t+1-r} + \binom{q}{t} \right) \right) x_{q+t+1} \\ x_q &= \sum_{i=1}^{t} \binom{q+1}{i} x_{q+i} + \binom{q}{t+1} x_{q+t+1}\end{aligned}$$

$$(0 \le e \le q+t) \quad x_{3q+1-e} = x_e$$

• $q = 2t$. $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (x_{q+1}, \ldots, x_{q+t})$.

$$(0 \le e \le q-1) \quad x_e = \sum_{i=1}^{t} A(i,q,e) x_{q+i}, \qquad x_q = \sum_{i=1}^{t} \binom{q+1}{i} x_{q+i}$$

$$(0 \le e \le q+t) \quad x_{3q+1-e} = x_e$$

Case $n = 3q$. Define

$$\begin{aligned}A(i,q,e) = &\sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \left(\binom{q+1}{i+1} + \binom{r}{i+1} + \binom{r}{q-i} \right) \\ &+ \sum_{r=0}^{q-2} \binom{2q-e}{q-2-r} \left(\binom{q-2-r}{i-2-r} + \binom{q-2-r}{i+1} + \binom{q-1}{i-1} + \binom{q-1}{i+1} \right)\end{aligned}$$

• $q = 2t+1$. $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (x_q, \ldots, x_{q+t})$.

$$\begin{aligned}(0 \le e \le q-2) \quad x_e &= \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} A(i,q,e) x_{q+i} \\ &\quad + \left(\sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \left(\binom{q}{t+1} + \binom{r}{t+1} \right) \right. \\ &\qquad \left. + \sum_{r=0}^{q-2} \binom{2q-e}{q-2-r} \left(\binom{q-2-r}{t-2-r} + \binom{q-1}{t-1} \right) \right) x_{q+t} \\ x_{q-1} &= \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \left(\binom{q-1}{i+1} + \binom{q-1}{i-1} \right) x_{q+i} + \binom{q-1}{t+1} x_{q+t}\end{aligned}$$

$$(0 \le e \le 3t+1) \quad x_{q+t+e} = x_{q+t-e}$$

• $q = 2t$. $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (x_q, \ldots, x_{q+t-1})$.

$$\begin{aligned} (0 \le e \le q-2) \quad x_e &= \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} A(i,q,e) x_{q+i} \\ x_{q-1} &= \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \left(\binom{q-1}{i+1} + \binom{q-1}{i-1} \right) x_{q+i} \\ (0 \le e \le 3t) \quad x_{q+t+e} &= x_{q+t-1-e} \end{aligned}$$

For instance, the sequences $\mathbf{x}$ such that $S(\mathbf{x})$ has dihedral symmetry for $n = 7$ are the sequences of the form $\mathbf{x} = (0, x_2, x_2, x_3, x_2, x_2, 0)$, with $x_2, x_3 \in \mathbb{F}_2$. Here, $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (x_2, x_3)$ and $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (x_2, x_3, x_2)$. Therefore, in Figure 5, the triangles labeled $(0, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (1, 0, 1)$ and $(1, 1, 1)$ form $SD(7)$.

4 Rotational symmetry in Pascal triangles

The results about rotational and dihedral symmetry in Pascal triangles will be deduced from the corresponding formulae in Steinhaus triangles following a technique introduced by A. Barbé [3], consisting in associating to each Pascal triangle of size k an Steinhaus triangle of size $2k$ preserving the properties of symmetry.

Let $\mathbf{u} = (u_0, \ldots, u_\ell)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_0, \ldots, v_\ell)$ vectors of $\mathbb{F}_2^\ell$ with $u_0 = v_0$, and consider the Pascal triangle $P(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$. If $P(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ has rotational symmetry, then $v_i = u_{\ell-i}$ for $0 \le i \le \ell$. It follows: (i) the triangle is determined by $\mathbf{u}$; (ii) the three vertices of the triangle are equal: $u_0 = v_0 = u_\ell = v_\ell$, and (iii) neither the values of the vertices have influence on the remaining entries of the triangle, nor are the vertices influenced by them. It follows that we can consider Pascal triangles with the vertices removed. For instance, the rotational symmetry of the picture on the left in Figure 6 is equivalent to the rotational symmetry of two the triangles obtained by adding to it the three vertices, all of them with the same value, as shown in the two illustrations on the right. So, in the following, we consider vertex-less Pascal triangles, though they will be still called Pascal triangles. A rotationally symmetric (vertex-less) Pascal triangle is determined by the left side, which will be indexed from

Fig. 6. The rotational symmetry of the illustration on the left is equivalent to the rotational symmetry of the two Pascal triangles on the right.

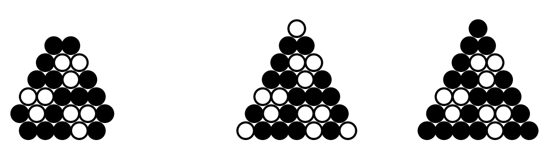
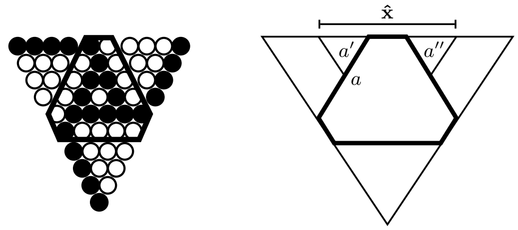


Fig. 7. Left: extension of a rotationally symmetric Pascal triangle of size 5 to a rotationally Steinhaus triangle of size 10. Right: sketch of the general case.



bottom to top. Thus, for example, if $\mathbf{a} = (1, 0, 1, 1, 1)$, the triangle $P(\mathbf{a})$ is that on the left in Figure 6. The length of $\mathbf{a}$ is the *size* of $P(\mathbf{a})$. Our goal is to determine explicitly which sequences $\mathbf{a}$ produce Pascal triangles with rotational and dihedral symmetry. We denote by $PR(k)$ the vector space of Pascal triangles of size k with rotational symmetry, and by $PD(k)$ the vector space of Pascal triangles of size k with dihedral symmetry.

Let $P(\mathbf{a})$ be a Pascal triangle of size k rotationally symmetric. Then, by using the local rule (Figure 2), $P(\mathbf{a})$ can be extended to a unique Steinhaus triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$ of size $2k$ which has $P(\mathbf{a})$ as its inscribed and central triangle of size k, see Figure 7.

The triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$ is the *extended Steinhaus triangle* of the Pascal triangle $P(\mathbf{a})$. Explicitly, if $\mathbf{a} = (a_0, \ldots, a_{k-1})$, then $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \ldots, x_{2k-1})$ is given by

$$x_{k-i} = \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} \binom{i-1}{j} a_{k-1-j}, \quad (1 \le i \le k), \tag{5}$$

$$x_{k+i} = \sum_{j=0}^{i} \binom{i}{j} a_j, \quad (0 \le i \le k-1). \tag{6}$$

As $P(\mathbf{a})$ is rotationally symmetric, it follows that $S(\mathbf{x})$ is rotationally symmetric. Then, we have

Lemma 1. *For each integer $k \ge 3$, the mapping f which sends each Pascal triangle $P(\mathbf{a}) \in PR(k)$ to its extended Steinhaus triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$ is an isomorphisms $f\colon PR(k) \to SR(2k)$.*

As a consequence, the dimension $\delta(k)$ of $PR(k)$ is

$$\delta(k) = \dim PR(k) = \dim SR(2k) = \left\lfloor \frac{2k}{3} \right\rfloor + \epsilon_3(2k) = 2\left\lfloor \frac{k-1}{3} \right\rfloor.$$

Theorem 3. *Let $k \ge 2$ an integer and $\delta = \dim PR(k)$. For each $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_2^k$, let $\mathbf{a}'$ be the vector formed by the first $\delta/2$ coordinates of $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{a}''$ the vector formed by the last $\delta/2$ coordinates of $\mathbf{a}$. Then, the mapping $f\colon PR(k) \to \mathbb{F}_2^\delta$ defined by $P(\mathbf{a}) \mapsto (\mathbf{a}', \mathbf{a}'')$ is an isomorphism.*

Proof. Clearly the mapping f is linear and both spaces have the same dimension δ. Thus, it suffices to show that f is exhaustive.

Let $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_2^k$ such that $P(\mathbf{a}) \in PR(k)$. As $P(\mathbf{a})$ is rotationally symmetric, the same property holds for its extended Steinhaus triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$, which, by Theorem 1, is completely determined by the vector $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ formed by the δ central coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$. By Formulae (5), the first half of the coordinates of $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ depend linearly on $\mathbf{a}''$, and the second half on $\mathbf{a}'$. We conclude that $\mathbf{x}$ depends linearly on $(\mathbf{a}', \mathbf{a}'')$. As the $k - \delta$ central coordinates of $\mathbf{a}$ depend linearly on $\mathbf{x}$, we conclude that, for some $c_{i,j} \in \mathbb{F}_2$,

$$a_{\delta/2+i} = \sum_{j=0}^{\delta/2-1} c_{i,j} a_j + \sum_{j=0}^{\delta/2-1} c_{i,j} a_{k-1-j}, \qquad (0 \leq i \leq k - \delta - 1). \tag{7}$$

The set $P(\mathbf{a})$ with $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbf{F}_2^k$ satisfying (7) is a vector space of dimension δ containing $PR(k)$. Hence, it is $PR(k)$. Therefore, given $(\mathbf{a}', \mathbf{a}'')$, formulae (7) allows us to find $\mathbf{a}$ such that $f(P(\mathbf{a})) = (\mathbf{a}', \mathbf{a}'')$. □

Next, we give the results obtained by following the method of the previous proof with explicit calculations. As before, the formulae depend on the remainder of the division of k by 3. In each case, we give $\mathbf{a}'$ and $\mathbf{a}''$ and the formula for obtaining the $k - \delta$ central coordinates of $\mathbf{a}$.

Case $k = 3s + 1$. $\quad \mathbf{a}' = (a_0, \ldots, a_{s-1}), \quad \mathbf{a}'' = (a_{k-s-1}, \ldots, a_{k-1})$.
Define

$$\begin{aligned}
q &= 2s \\
A(i, q, e) &= \sum_{r=e}^{q-1} \binom{2q+1-e}{r-e} \left(\binom{q}{i} + \binom{r}{i} \right) \\
&\quad + \sum_{r=2}^{q+1} \binom{2q+1-e}{q+1-r} \left(\binom{q+1-r}{i-r} + \binom{q}{i-1} \right) \\
B(i, q, e, s) &= \binom{q-e}{s} \binom{q}{i} + \sum_{t=0}^{s-1-e} \binom{q-e}{t} A(i, q, s+e+t)
\end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
(0 \leq e \leq s) \quad a_{s+e} = \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} &\left(\sum_{i=s+1+j}^{q} \binom{i-1-s}{j} B(i, q, e, s) \right) a_j \\
+ \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} &\left(\sum_{i=1}^{s-j} \binom{s-i}{j} B(i, q, e, s) \right. \\
&\left. + \sum_{t=s-e+1}^{q-e-j} \binom{q-e}{t} \binom{q-e-t}{j} \right) a_{k-1-j}
\end{aligned}$$

Case $k = 3s + 2$**.** $\mathbf{a}' = (a_0, \ldots, a_s)$, $\mathbf{a}'' = (a_{k-s-1}, \ldots, a_{k-1})$.
Define

$$\begin{aligned} q &= 2s+1 \\ A(i,q,e) &= \sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e}\binom{r}{i} + \sum_{r=1}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{q-r}\binom{q-r}{i-r} \end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} (1 \le e \le s) \quad a_{s+e} = &\sum_{j=0}^{s} \left(\sum_{t=0}^{s-e} \binom{q-e}{t} \sum_{i=s+1}^{q} \binom{i-s-1}{j} A(i,q,s+e+t) \right) a_j \\ &+ \sum_{j=0}^{s} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{s} \binom{s-i}{j} \left(\binom{q-e}{s-i} + \sum_{t=0}^{s-e} \binom{q-e}{t} A(i,q,s+e+t) \right) \right) a_{k-1-j} \end{aligned}$$

Case $k = 3s$**.** $\mathbf{a}' = (a_0, \ldots, a_{s-1})$, $\mathbf{a}'' = (a_{k-s}, \ldots, a_{k-1})$.
Define

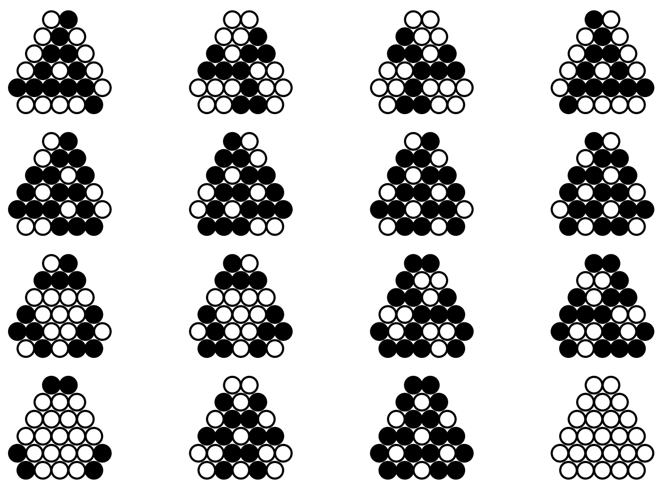
$$\begin{aligned} q &= 2s \\ A(i,q,e) &= \sum_{r=e}^{q} \binom{2q-e}{r-e} \left(\binom{q-1}{i} + \binom{r}{i} \right) \\ &\quad + \sum_{r=0}^{q-2} \binom{2q-e}{q-2-r} \left(\binom{q-2-r}{i-3-r} + \binom{q-1}{i-2} \right) \\ B(i,q,e,s) &= \sum_{t=0}^{s-2-e} \binom{q-e-1}{t} A(i,q,s+e+t) \end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} (0 \le e \le s-1) \quad a_{s+e} = &\sum_{j=0}^{s-2} \left(\sum_{i=s+1}^{q} \binom{i-1-s}{j} B(i,q,e,s) \right. \\ &\left. + \sum_{i=s+1}^{q-1} \binom{q-e-1}{s} \binom{q-1}{i} \binom{i-1-s}{j} \right) a_j \\ &+ \left(\sum_{i=s+1}^{q} \binom{i-1-s}{s-1} B(i,q,e,s) \right) a_{s-1} \\ &+ \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{s} \binom{s-i}{j} B(i,q,e,s) \right. \\ &\quad + \binom{q-e-1}{s} \sum_{i=1}^{s} \binom{q-1}{i} \binom{s-i}{j} \\ &\quad \left. + \sum_{t=s-e}^{q-e-1} \binom{q-e-1}{t} \binom{q-e-t-1}{j} \right) a_{k-1-j} \end{aligned}$$

Figure 8 shows all rotationally symmetric Pascal triangles of size 5. They are formed by giving values a_0, a_1, a_3, $a_4 \in \mathbb{F}_2$ to form the left sides of the Pascal triangles, these are $(a_0, a_1, a_1 + a_3, a_3, a_4)$. The four triangles in the first row form a base of $PR(5)$.

Fig. 8. Rotationally symmetric Pascal triangles of size 5.



5 Dihedral symmetry in Pascal triangles

The arguments in the previous section are easily extended to dihedral symmetry. In fact, it is easy to see that the mapping f sending each Pascal triangle to its extended Steinhaus triangle, when restricted to dihedrally symmetric Pascal triangles, also gives an isomorphism:

Lemma 2. *For each integer $k \geq 3$, the mapping f which sends each Pascal triangle $P(\mathbf{a}) \in PD(k)$ to its extended Steinhaus triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$ is an isomorphism $f\colon PD(k) \to SD(2k)$.*

As noticed by Barbé ([3], Property 15), if $\mathbf{a} = (a_0, \ldots, a_{k-1})$, the Pascal triangle $P(\mathbf{a})$ is symmetric respect to the height of the triangle if, and only if, $a_{k-1-i} = a_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k-1$. This property and Theorem 3 imply the following.

Theorem 4. *Let $k \geq 2$ an integer and $\delta = \dim PR(k)$. For each $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_2^k$, let $\mathbf{a}'$ be the vector formed by the first $\delta/2$ coordinates of $\mathbf{a}$. Then, the mapping $f\colon PR(k) \to \mathbb{F}_2^{\delta/2}$ defined by $P(\mathbf{a}) \mapsto \mathbf{a}'$ is an isomorphism.*

As before, we give the vector $\mathbf{a}'$ of the first $\delta/2$ coordinates and the formulae for the remaining coordinates. The functions $S(i,q,e)$ and $SS(i,q,e,s)$ are defined in each case as in the rotational symmetry.

Case $k = 3s+1$**.** $\mathbf{a}' = (a_0, \ldots, a_{s-1})$, $q = 2s$.

$$\begin{aligned}(0 \le e \le s) \quad a_{s+e} = \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} \Bigg(& \sum_{i=s+1+j}^{q} \binom{i-1-s}{j} B(i,q,e,s) \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^{s-j} \binom{s-i}{j} B(i,q,e,s) \\ & + \sum_{t=s-e+1}^{q-e-j} \binom{q-e}{t}\binom{q-e-t}{j} \Bigg) a_j\end{aligned}$$

$$(1 \le e \le s+1) \quad a_{q+e} = a_{s-e}$$

Case $k = 3s+2$. $\mathbf{a}' = (a_0, \ldots, a_s)$, $q = 2s+1$.

$$\begin{aligned}(1 \le e \le s) \quad a_{s+e} = & \sum_{j=0}^{s} \Bigg(\sum_{t=0}^{s-e} \binom{q-e}{t} \sum_{i=s+1}^{q} \binom{i-s-1}{j} A(i,q,s+e+t) \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^{s} \binom{s-i}{j} \left(\binom{q-e}{s-i} + \sum_{t=0}^{s-e} \binom{q-e}{t} A(i,q,s+e+t) \right) \Bigg) a_j\end{aligned}$$

$$(1 \le e \le s+1) \quad a_{q+e} = a_{s+1-e}$$

Case $k = 3s$. $\mathbf{a}' = (a_0, \ldots, a_{s-1})$, $q = 2s$.

$$\begin{aligned}(0 \le e \le s-1) \quad a_{s+e} = \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} \Bigg(& \sum_{i=s+1}^{q} \binom{i-1-s}{j} B(i,q,e,s) \\ & + \left\lfloor \frac{q-j}{s+2} \right\rfloor \binom{q-e-1}{s} \sum_{i=s+1}^{q-1} \binom{q-1}{i}\binom{i-1-s}{j} \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^{s} \binom{s-i}{j} \left(\binom{q-e-1}{s}\binom{q-1}{i} + B(i,q,e,s) \right) \\ & + \sum_{t=s-e}^{q-e-1} \binom{q-e-1}{t}\binom{q-e-t-1}{j} \Bigg) a_j\end{aligned}$$

$$(0 \le e \le s-1) \quad a_{q+e} = a_{s-1-e}$$

For instance, for size $k = 5$ there exist 4 Pascal triangles with dihedral symmetry, with the left row equals $(a_0, a_1, 0, a_1, a_0)$, $a_0, a_1 \in \mathbb{F}_2$. They are the triangles in the last row in Figure 8.

6 Generalization to arbitrary abelian groups

The construction of Steinhaus and Pascal triangles can be generalized by using an arbitrary abelian group instead of $\mathbb{F}_2$.

Let G be an abelian group and $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1}) \in G^n$. Define $\partial^0\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$, $\partial^1\mathbf{x} = \partial\mathbf{x} = (x_0 + x_1, \ldots, x_{n-2} + x_{n-1})$, and for $2 \le i \le n-1$, $\partial^i\mathbf{x} = \partial\partial^i\mathbf{x}$. The *Steinhaus triangle* of $\mathbf{x}$ is the sequence $S(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}, \partial\mathbf{x}, \ldots, \partial^{n-1}\mathbf{x})$. As before, we can represent $S(\mathbf{x})$ as a triangle, but now each position can take values in G. Next, we see that rotational symmetry is a strong condition on the orders of the entries of $S(\mathbf{x})$.

Proposition 1. *Let G be an abelian group, $n \ge 2$ an integer, and $\mathbf{x} \in G^n$ such that $S(\mathbf{x})$ is rotationally symmetric. Then each entry in $S(\mathbf{x})$ has order two.*

Proof. Consider three entries $u = \mathbf{x}(r-1, c-1)$, $v = \mathbf{x}(r-1, c)$ and $w = \mathbf{x}(r, c)$. We have $w = u + v$. If $S(\mathbf{x})$ has rotational symmetry, then the rotation of 120 degrees produces the relation $v = w + u$. Thus, we have $w = u + v = u + (w + u) = w + u + u$. Hence $u + u = 0$. Analogously, $v + v = w + w = 0$. We conclude that each entry in $S(\mathbf{x})$ has order two. $\square$

By Proposition 1, we can assume that G is a group such that each element has order two. Therefore, G can be given a structure of $\mathbb{F}_2$-vector space and, as an additive group, G is a direct sum of copies of $\mathbb{F}_2$. Thus, the condition of a Steinhaus triangle $S(\mathbf{x})$ with $\mathbf{x} \in G^n$ being rotationally symmetric is equivalent to the condition that each component is a rotationally symmetric Steinhaus triangle on $\mathbb{F}_2$.

The generalization to Steinhaus triangles to abelian groups can be done by using alternative definitions of $\partial\mathbf{x}$. For instance, we can define

$$\partial\mathbf{x} = (x_1 - x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}) \quad \text{or} \quad \partial\mathbf{x} = (x_0 - x_1, \ldots, x_{n-2} - x_{n-1}),$$

and then define $\partial^i\mathbf{x}$, Steinhaus triangles and rotationally symmetric Steinhaus triangles as before. Nevertheless, the above arguments can be applied in a similar way to obtain that all elements in a rotationally symmetric Steinhaus triangle have order two, and conclude that a rotationally symmetric Steinhaus triangle on an arbitrary abelian group consists in a direct sum of rotationally symmetric Steinhaus triangles on $\mathbb{F}_2$. The same is true about Steinhaus triangles with dihedral symmetry.

So far, in this section we have considered only Steinhaus triangles, but it is clear that the same considerations can be applied to Pascal triangles rotationally and dihedrally symmetric.

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