

Stern's Diatomic Array and Diatomic Sequence

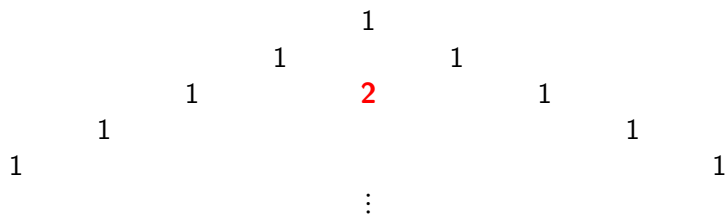
Richard P. Stanley
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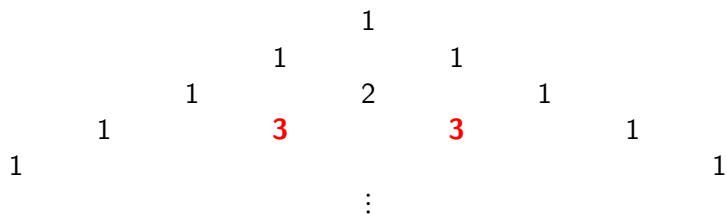
Pascal's triangle

1
1 1
1 2 1
1 3 3 1
1 4 6 4 1
1 5 10 10 5 1
1 6 15 20 15 6 1
1 7 21 35 35 21 7 1
1 8 28 36 28 8 1
1 9 36 56 36 9 1
1 10 45 70 56 36 10 1
1 11 55 105 70 36 11 1
1 12 66 132 84 45 12 1
1 13 78 165 105 66 13 1
1 14 91 210 140 91 14 1
1 15 105 252 182 120 105 15 1
1 16 120 300 210 165 120 16 1
1 17 136 360 270 210 136 17 1
1 18 153 420 330 252 153 18 1
1 19 171 495 378 280 171 19 1
1 20 190 570 435 330 190 20 1
1 21 210 660 504 378 210 21 1
1 22 231 756 561 420 231 22 1
1 24 252 858 630 462 252 24 1
1 25 270 960 700 504 270 25 1
1 26 290 1070 780 546 290 26 1
1 27 310 1180 870 594 310 27 1
1 28 330 1290 980 644 330 28 1
1 29 350 1400 1090 700 350 29 1
1 30 370 1510 1200 756 370 30 1
1 31 390 1620 1320 810 390 31 1
1 32 410 1740 1440 870 410 32 1
1 33 430 1860 1560 930 430 33 1
1 34 450 1980 1680 990 450 34 1
1 35 470 2100 1800 1050 470 35 1
1 36 490 2220 1920 1110 490 36 1
1 37 510 2340 2040 1170 510 37 1
1 38 530 2460 2160 1230 530 38 1
1 39 550 2580 2280 1290 550 39 1
1 40 570 2700 2400 1350 570 40 1
1 41 590 2820 2520 1410 590 41 1
1 42 610 2940 2640 1470 610 42 1
1 43 630 3060 2760 1530 630 43 1
1 44 650 3180 2880 1590 650 44 1
1 45 670 3300 3000 1650 670 45 1
1 46 690 3420 3120 1710 690 46 1
1 47 710 3540 3240 1770 710 47 1
1 48 730 3660 3360 1830 730 48 1
1 49 750 3780 3480 1890 750 49 1
1 50 770 3900 3600 1950 770 50 1
1 51 790 4020 3720 2010 790 51 1
1 52 810 4140 3840 2070 810 52 1
1 53 830 4260 3960 2130 830 53 1
1 54 850 4380 4080 2190 850 54 1
1 55 870 4500 4200 2250 870 55 1
1 56 890 4620 4320 2310 890 56 1
1 57 910 4740 4440 2370 910 57 1
1 58 930 4860 4560 2430 930 58 1
1 59 950 4980 4680 2490 950 59 1
1 60 970 5100 4800 2550 970 60 1
1 61 990 5220 4920 2610 990 61 1
1 62 1010 5340 5040 2670 1010 62 1
1 63 1030 5460 5160 2730 1030 63 1
1 64 1050 5580 5280 2790 1050 64 1
1 65 1070 5700 5400 2850 1070 65 1
1 66 1090 5820 5520 2910 1090 66 1
1 67 1110 5940 5640 2970 1110 67 1
1 68 1130 6060 5760 3030 1130 68 1
1 69 1150 6180 5880 3090 1150 69 1
1 70 1170 6300 6000 3150 1170 70 1
1 71 1190 6420 6120 3210 1190 71 1
1 72 1210 6540 6240 3270 1210 72 1
1 73 1230 6660 6360 3330 1230 73 1
1 74 1250 6780 6480 3390 1250 74 1
1 75 1270 6900 6600 3450 1270 75 1
1 76 1290 7020 6720 3510 1290 76 1
1 77 1310 7140 6840 3570 1310 77 1
1 78 1330 7260 6960 3630 1330 78 1
1 79 1350 7380 7080 3690 1350 79 1
1 80 1370 7500 7200 3750 1370 80 1
1 81 1390 7620 7320 3810 1390 81 1
1 82 1410 7740 7440 3870 1410 82 1
1 83 1430 7860 7560 3930 1430 83 1
1 84 1450 7980 7680 3990 1450 84 1
1 85 1470 8100 7800 4050 1470 85 1
1 86 1490 8220 7920 4110 1490 86 1
1 87 1510 8340 8040 4170 1510 87 1
1 88 1530 8460 8160 4230 1530 88 1
1 89 1550 8580 8280 4290 1550 89 1
1 90 1570 8700 8400 4350 1570 90 1
1 91 1590 8820 8520 4410 1590 91 1
1 92 1610 8940 8640 4470 1610 92 1
1 93 1630 9060 8760 4530 1630 93 1
1 94 1650 9180 8880 4590 1650 94 1
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1 96 1690 9420 9120 4710 1690 96 1
1 97 1710 9540 9240 4770 1710 97 1
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1 100 1770 9900 9600 4950 1770 100 1

Pascal's triangle



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Pascal's triangle

				1					
			1		1				
		1		2		1			
	1		3		3		1		
1		4		6		4		1	
				⋮					

Binomial coefficients

				1				
			1		1			
		1		2		1		
	1		3		3		1	
1		4		6		4		1
				⋮				

$\binom{n}{k}$: “ n choose k ,” the k th element in row n in Pascal’s triangle, beginning with row 0 and with the 0th element in each row. For instance, $\binom{4}{2} = 6$.

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				⋮				

$\binom{n}{k}$: “ n choose k ,” the k th element in row n in Pascal’s triangle, beginning with row 0 and with the 0th element in each row. For instance, $\binom{4}{2} = 6$.

Note. There is a simple formula for $\binom{n}{k}$, namely, $\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$, but this is irrelevant here.

Properties of Pascal's triangle

- number of elements in row n : $n + 1$

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Each element in row $n - 1$ contributes **twice** to row n .

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- generating function for entries in row n :

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k = (1 + x)^n \quad (\text{binomial theorem})$$

Further properties of Pascal's triangle

- sum of squares of entries in row n :

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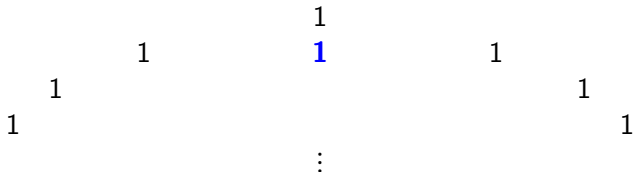
- sum of cubes of entries in row n : no simple formula or recurrence relation (similar to Fibonacci recurrence)

Stern's triangle

Similar to Pascal's triangle, but we also “bring down” (copy) each number from one row to the next.

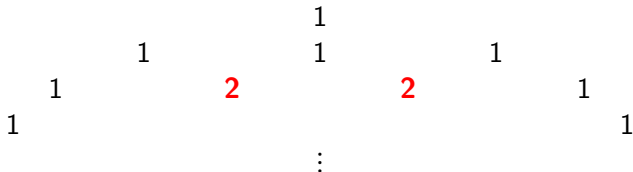
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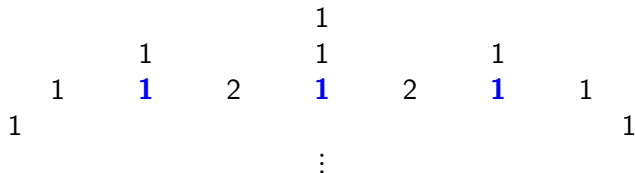
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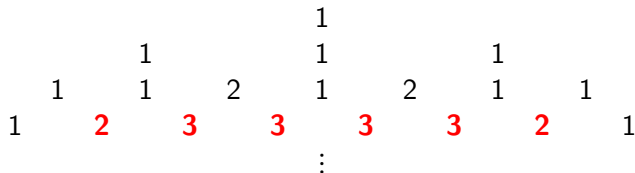
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			1				1				1			
		1	1		2		1		2		1		1	
1	1	2	1	3	2	3	1	3	2	3	1	2	1	1
							⋮							

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							⋮							

(slight and unimportant variant of the original **Stern's diatomic array**)

Moritz Abraham Stern, 1807–1894

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A recurrence

Let $F(x) = 1 + bx + cx^2 + dx^3 + \dots$ be any polynomial. A simple computation shows

$$(1+x+x^2)F(x) = 1+x+(1+b)x^2+bx^3+(b+c)x^4+cx^5+(c+d)x^6+dx^7+\dots$$

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If $1, b, c, \dots$ is a row of Stern's triangle, then the next row by definition is

$$1, 1, 1 + b, b, b + c, c, c + d, d, \dots,$$

the coefficients of $(1 + x + x^2)F(x^2)$.

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Let $F_n(x) = \sum_k \binom{n}{k} x^k$. Above argument shows

$$F_{n+1}(x) = (1 + x + x^2)F_n(x^2).$$

“Stern analogue” of binomial theorem

previous slide: $F_{n+1}(x) = (1 + x + x^2)F_n(x^2)$.

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Begin with $F_0(x) = 1$ and iterate:

$$\begin{aligned}F_1(x) &= (1 + x + x^2) \cdot 1 = 1 + x + x^2 \\F_2(x) &= (1 + x + x^2)F_1(x^2) = (1 + x + x^2)(1 + x^2 + x^4) \\F_3(x) &= (1 + x + x^2)F_2(x^2) = (1 + x + x^2)(1 + x^2 + x^4)(1 + x^4 + x^8),\end{aligned}$$

Theorem. $F_n(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (1 + x^{2^i} + x^{2^{i+1}})$.

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Put $x = 1$ to get $\sum_k \binom{n}{k} = 3^n$ (done earlier).

Put $x = -1$ to get $\sum_k (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} = 3^{n-1}$, $n \geq 1$ (0 for Pascal's triangle).

Sum of squares

							1							
							1							
			1				1					1		
		1	1		2		1		2		1		1	
1	1	2	1	3	2	3	1	3	2	3	1	2	1	1
							⋮							

$$u_r(n) = \sum_k \binom{n}{k}^r,$$

the sum of the r th powers of the entries in row n .

$$u_2(2) = 1^2 + 1^2 + 2^2 + 1^2 + 2^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 = 13$$

$$(u_2(0), u_2(1), \dots, u_2(6)) = (1, 3, 13, 59, 269, 1227, 5597, \dots)$$

1, 3, 13, 59, 269, 1227, 5597, 25531, 116461, ...

To guess the sequence:

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In the distant past, note $u_2(n+1) \approx 5u_2(n)$, etc.

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Conjecture. $u_2(n+1) = 5u_2(n) - 2u_2(n-1)$, $n \geq 1$

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$$13 = 5 \cdot 3 - 2 \cdot 1$$

$$59 = 5 \cdot 13 - 2 \cdot 3$$

$$269 = 5 \cdot 59 - 2 \cdot 13$$

$$1227 = 5 \cdot 269 - 2 \cdot 59$$

\vdots

Aside

If $g(n+1) = 5g(n) - 2g(n-1)$, then there are constants a, b such that

$$g(n) = a \cdot \alpha^n + b \cdot \beta^n,$$

where $x^2 - 5x + 2 = (x - \alpha)(x - \beta)$, and a, b depend on the initial conditions $g(0), g(1)$. Here we get

$$u_2(n) = \frac{17 + \sqrt{17}}{34} \left(\frac{5 + \sqrt{17}}{2} \right)^n + \frac{17 - \sqrt{17}}{34} \left(\frac{5 - \sqrt{17}}{2} \right)^n.$$

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Since $-1 < \frac{5 - \sqrt{17}}{2} < 1$, a very good approximation to $u_2(n)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} u_2(n) &\approx \frac{17 + \sqrt{17}}{34} \left(\frac{5 + \sqrt{17}}{2} \right)^n \\ &= 0.62126 \cdots (4.56155 \cdots)^n. \end{aligned}$$

Proof that $u_2(n+1) = 5u_2(n) - 2u_2(n-1)$

								1							
								1					1		
								1		2		1		1	
		1		1		2		1		3		2		3	
	1	1	2	1	3	2	3	1	3	2	3	1	2	1	1
								⋮							

Every two consecutive terms $\binom{n}{k}$ and $\binom{n}{k+1}$ in row n contribute $(\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1})^2$ to $u_2(n+1)$.

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							1							
							1						1	
							1		2		1		1	
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1	1	2	1	3	2	3	1	3	2	3	1	2	1	1
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Every term $\binom{n}{k}$ in row n contributes $\binom{n}{k}^2$ to $u_2(n+1)$.

A recurrence

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}u_2(n+1) &= \sum_k \binom{n+1}{k}^2 \\&= \sum_k \left[\left(\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1} \right)^2 + \binom{n}{k}^2 \right] \\&= \sum_k \left(\binom{n}{k}^2 + 2 \binom{n}{k} \binom{n}{k+1} + \binom{n}{k+1}^2 + \binom{n}{k}^2 \right) \\&= 3u_2(n) + 2 \sum_k \binom{n}{k} \binom{n}{k+1}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence define $u_{1,1}(n) = \sum_k \binom{n}{k} \binom{n}{k+1}$, so

$$u_2(n+1) = 3u_2(n) + 2u_{1,1}(n).$$

Play the same game with $u_{1,1}(n)$

Previous slide:

$$u_2(n+1) = 3u_2(n) + 2 \sum_k \binom{n}{k} \binom{n}{k+1} = 3u_2(n) + 2u_{1,1}(n).$$

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Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} u_{1,1}(n+1) &= \dots + \left(\binom{n}{k-1} + \binom{n}{k} \right) \binom{n}{k} \\ &\quad + \binom{n}{k} \left(\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1} \right) \\ &\quad + \left(\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1} \right) \binom{n}{k+1} + \dots \\ &= 2u_2(n) + 2u_{1,1}(n) \end{aligned}$$

Linear algebra to the rescue!

We have shown that

$$\begin{aligned}u_2(n+1) &= 3u_2(n) + 2u_{1,1}(n) \\u_{1,1}(n) &= 2u_2(n) + 2u_{1,1}(n).\end{aligned}$$

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Can rewrite in matrix terms:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_2(n) \\ u_{1,1}(n) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_2(n+1) \\ u_{1,1}(n+1) \end{bmatrix}$$

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Therefore

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}^{n+1} \begin{bmatrix} u_2(0) \\ u_{1,1}(0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_2(n+1) \\ u_{1,1}(n+1) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Cayley-Hamilton theorem

Recall: the **characteristic polynomial** $\text{cp}_A(x)$ of an $n \times n$ matrix A is defined by

$$\text{cp}_A(x) = \det(xI - A),$$

where I is the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

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Cayley-Hamilton theorem. $\text{cp}_A(A) = 0$.

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Then

$$\text{cp}_A(x) = \det \begin{bmatrix} x-3 & -2 \\ -2 & x-2 \end{bmatrix} = x^2 - 5x + 2.$$

Proof concluded

Therefore $A^2 - 5A + 2I = 0$. Multiply by A^{n-1} and apply to $\begin{bmatrix} u_2(0) \\ u_{1,1}(0) \end{bmatrix}$:

$$(A^{n+1} - 5A^n + 2A^{n-1}) \begin{bmatrix} u_2(0) \\ u_{1,1}(0) \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

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$$(A^{n+1} - 5A^n + 2A^{n-1}) \begin{bmatrix} u_2(0) \\ u_{1,1}(0) \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

Since

$$A^m \begin{bmatrix} u_2(0) \\ u_{1,1}(0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_2(m) \\ u_{1,1}(m) \end{bmatrix},$$

we get $u_2(n+1) - 5u_2(n) + 2u_2(n-1) = 0$, as well as the bonus $u_{1,1}(n+1) - 5u_{1,1}(n) + 2u_{1,1}(n-1) = 0$. \square

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For $r = 3$ we get a 2×2 matrix with characteristic polynomial $x(x - 7)$. Hence $u_3(n) = c7^n$, $n \geq 1$, for some constant c . Initial conditions yield $u_3(n) = 3 \cdot 7^{n-1}$, $n \geq 1$.

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For $r = 3$ we get a 2×2 matrix with characteristic polynomial $x(x - 7)$. Hence $u_3(n) = c7^n$, $n \geq 1$, for some constant c . Initial conditions yield $u_3(n) = 3 \cdot 7^{n-1}$, $n \geq 1$.

In other words:

Theorem. Fix n . Define

$$\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (1 + x^{2^i} + x^{2^{i+1}}) = \sum_m a_m x^m.$$

Then $\sum_m a_m^3 = 3 \cdot 7^{n-1}$.

Recurrences for $4 \leq r \leq 7$

$$u_4(n+1) = 10u_4(n) + 9u_4(n-1) - 2u_4(n-2)$$

$$u_5(n+1) = 14u_5(n) + 47u_5(n-1)$$

$$u_6(n+1) = 20u_6(n) + 161u_6(n-1) + 40u_6(n-2) - 4u_6(n-3)$$

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Note. The (least) order of the recurrence is known—it is about $r/3$.

Stern's diatomic sequence

Recall

$$F_n(x) = \sum_k \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\rangle x^k = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (1 + x^{2^i} + x^{2^{i+1}}).$$

Let $n \rightarrow \infty$. We get

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{i=0}^{\infty} (1 + x^{2^i} + x^{2^{i+1}}) &:= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{b(k)} x^k \\ &= 1 + x + 2x^2 + x^3 + 3x^4 + 2x^5 + 3x^6 + x^7 + 4x^8 + 3x^9 + 5x^{10} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Stern's diatomic sequence

Recall

$$F_n(x) = \sum_k \binom{n}{k} x^k = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (1 + x^{2^i} + x^{2^{i+1}}).$$

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The sequence $(1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, 4, 3, 5, \dots)$ of coefficients is **Stern's diatomic sequence**. Thus $b(0) = 1$, $b(1) = 1$, $b(2) = 2$, etc.

Fundamental recurrence for $b(k)$

							1								
							1								
			1				1					1			
		1	1				1		2			1		1	
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A startling property of Stern's diatomic sequence

Theorem. *The sequence*

$$\left(\frac{b(1)}{b(2)}, \frac{b(2)}{b(3)}, \frac{b(3)}{b(4)}, \dots \right) = \left(\frac{1}{1}, \frac{2}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{1}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{4}{1}, \dots \right)$$

contains every positive rational number exactly once, and they are in lowest terms.

A surprise actor

Calkin-Wilf tree: an infinite binary tree with vertices labelled by positive rational numbers a/b

A surprise actor

Calkin-Wilf tree: an infinite binary tree with vertices labelled by positive rational numbers a/b

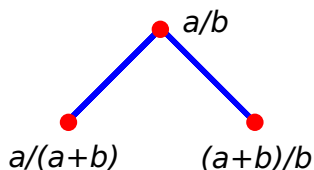
The root is labelled $1/1$.

A surprise actor

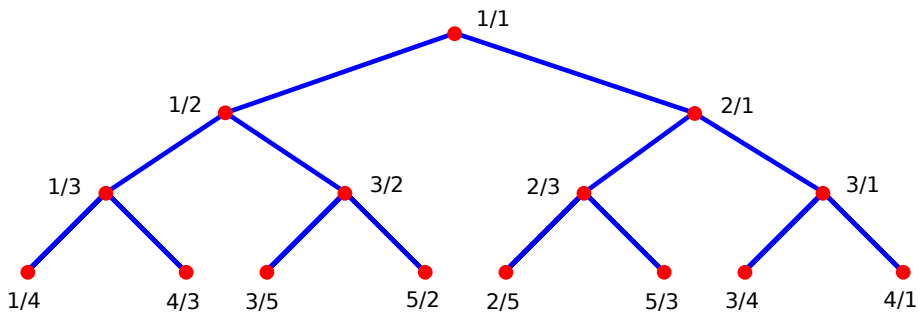
Calkin-Wilf tree: an infinite binary tree with vertices labelled by positive rational numbers a/b

The root is labelled $1/1$.

Other vertices labelled recursively by the rule:



The Calkin-Wilf tree



History lesson

- defined by **Neil Calkin** and **Herb Wilf**, 2000

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- a similar tree defined by **Johannes Kepler**, 1619

Vertex labels

Theorem. *In the Calkin-Wilf tree, every positive rational number occurs exactly once as a vertex label, and it is in lowest terms.*

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Proof by example. From any rational $a/b > 0$, where $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, we can uniquely work our way up to $1/1$. For instance,

$$\frac{11}{7} \rightarrow \frac{4}{7} \rightarrow \frac{4}{3} \rightarrow \frac{1}{3} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{1}.$$

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$$\frac{a}{b} \rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{a-b}{b}, & a > b \\ \frac{a}{b-a}, & b > a. \end{cases}$$

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More specifically

$$\frac{a}{b} \rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{a-b}{b}, & a > b \\ \frac{a}{b-a}, & b > a. \end{cases}$$

Finally, each fraction is in lowest terms since if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, then $\gcd(a + b, b) = 1$ and $\gcd(a, a + b) = 1$. \square

Aside: Euclidean algorithm

The process

$$\frac{11}{7} \rightarrow \frac{4}{7} \rightarrow \frac{4}{3} \rightarrow \frac{1}{3} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{1}$$

is just the Euclidean algorithm with division replaced by repeated subtraction.

Aside: Euclidean algorithm

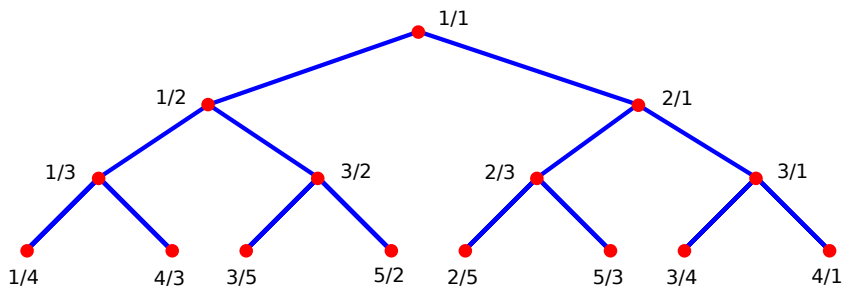
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Alas, no time to pursue here.

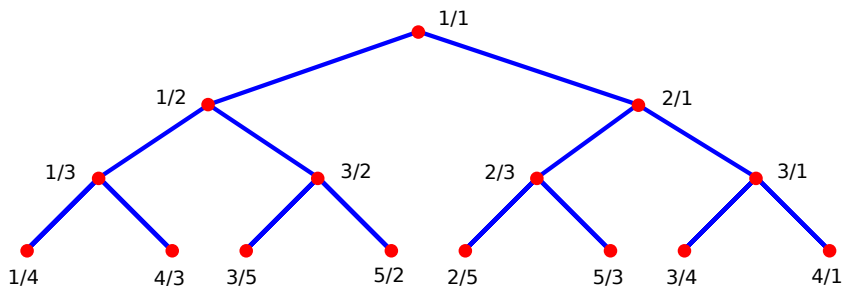
Connection with Stern's diatomic sequence



Read the labels in breadth-first order (usual reading order):

$$\frac{1}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{1}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{1}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots$$

Connection with Stern's diatomic sequence



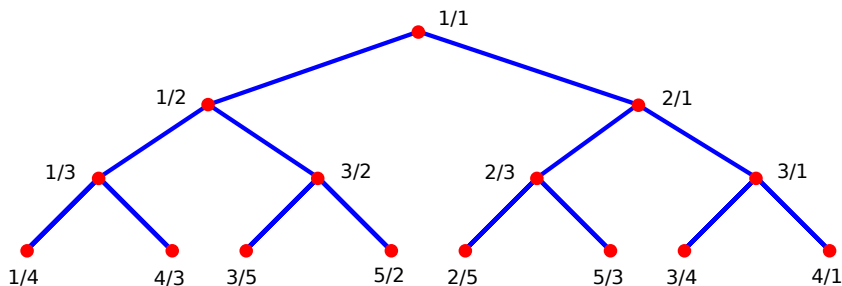
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numerators: 1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, ...

denominators: 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, 4, ...

Connection with Stern's diatomic sequence



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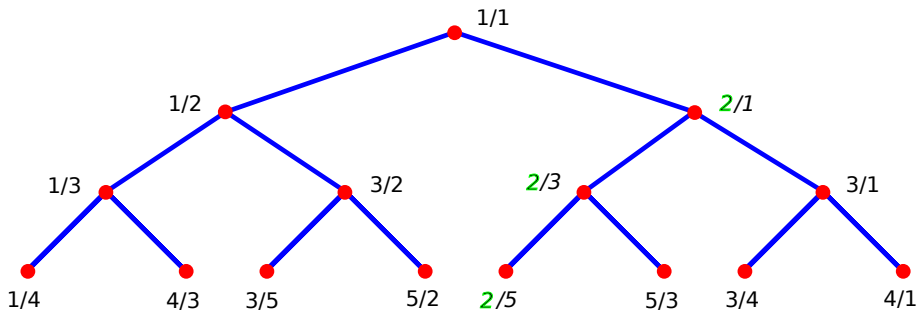
numerators: 1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, ...

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familiar?

Why?

Let the terms of the numerator sequence be $c(0), c(1), \dots$

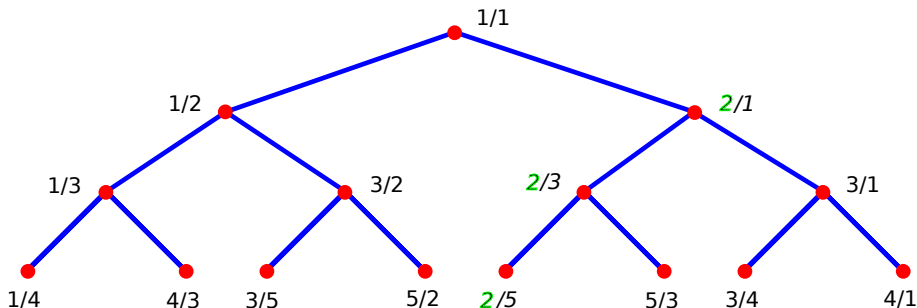


The left child of any vertex v has the same numerator as v . If we write this in terms of $c(k)$, it becomes

$$c(2k + 1) = c(k).$$

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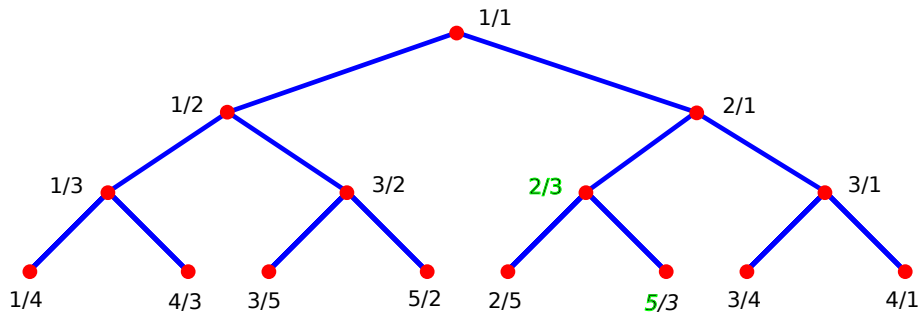


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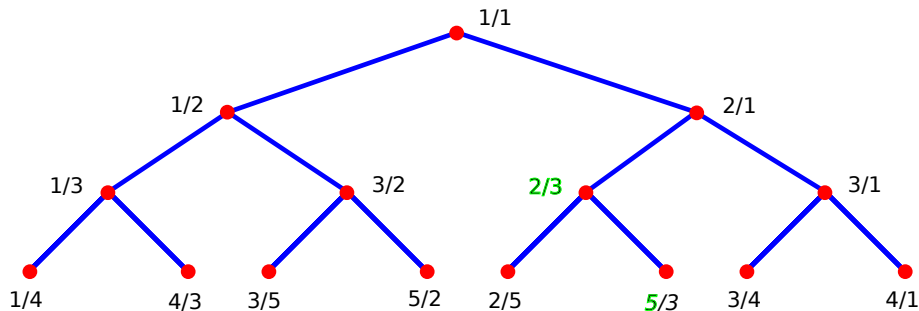
E.g., the green numbers above are $2 = c(2) = c(5) = c(11) = \dots$.

$c(2k+2)$



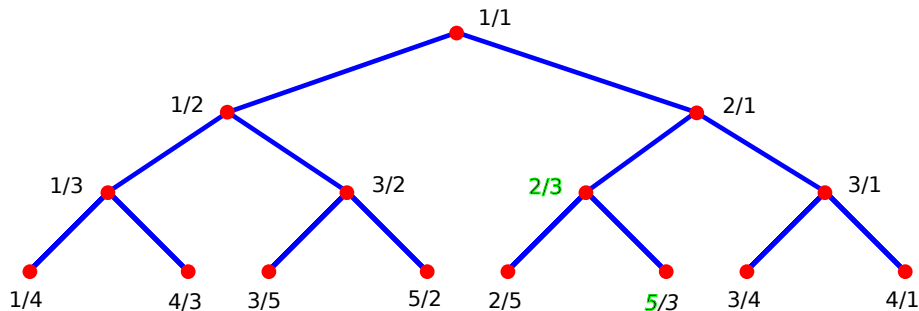
• $2 = c(5)$, $3 = c(6)$

$c(2k+2)$



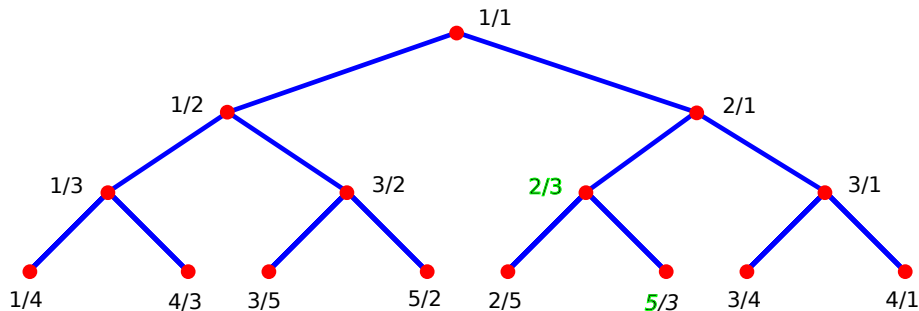
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- $5 = 2 + 3$ is numerator of $c(12)$.

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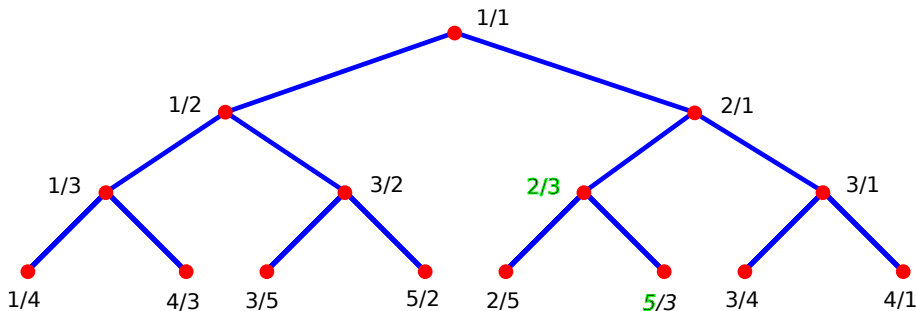
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- Hence $c(12) = c(5) + c(6)$.

$c(2k + 2)$



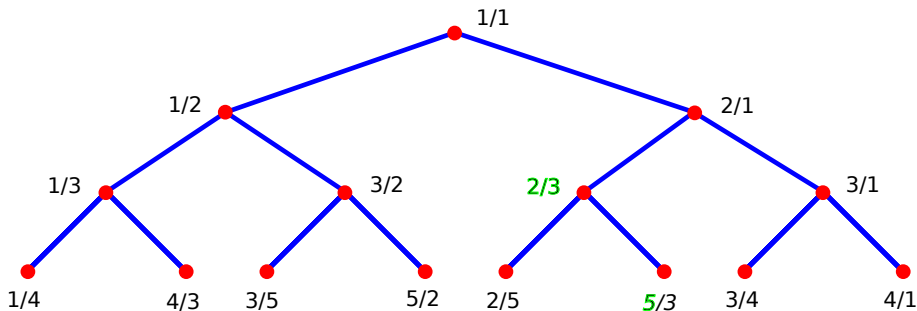
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- In general, $c(2k + 2) = c(k) + c(k + 1)$.

$c(2k + 2)$



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- Thus $c(k)$ satisfies the same recurrence as $b(k)$, as well as the initial conditions $c(0) = b(0) = 1$ and $c(1) = b(1) = 1$.

$c(2k + 2)$



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- Thus $c(k)$ satisfies the same recurrence as $b(k)$, as well as the initial conditions $c(0) = b(0) = 1$ and $c(1) = b(1) = 1$.
- $\Rightarrow c(k) = b(k)$ for all $k \geq 0$.

Conclusion

We have proved:

Theorem. *The sequence*

$$\left(\frac{b(1)}{b(2)}, \frac{b(2)}{b(3)}, \frac{b(3)}{b(4)}, \dots \right) = \left(\frac{1}{1}, \frac{2}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{1}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{4}{1}, \dots \right)$$

contains every positive rational number exactly once, and they are in lowest terms.

The final slide

The final slide



The final slide 🤔

THE END

Exercises

- 1 Number of (nonzero) entries in row n of Stern's triangle is $2^{n+1} - 1$.
- 2 The largest entry in row n of Stern's triangle is the Fibonacci number F_{n+1} .
- 3 What is $\sum_k (\binom{n}{3k} - \binom{n}{3k+1})$?
- 4 $b(k)$ is the number of ways to write k as a sum of powers of 2 (without regard to order), where each power of 2 can be used no more than twice. For instance $b(6) = 3$ since $4 + 2 = 4 + 1 + 1 = 2 + 2 + 1 + 1$. What if each power of 2 can be used no more than once?
- 5 $b(k)$ is the number of odd binomial coefficients of the form $\binom{k-r}{r}$, $0 \leq r \leq k$. When $k = 6$ we have three such binomial coefficients: $\binom{6}{0}, \binom{5}{1}, \binom{3}{3}$.

A startling property of “startling”

startling

starling or starting

staring

string

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