

Stern's Diatomic Array and Beyond

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The arithmetic triangle or Pascal's triangle

				1								
			1		1							
		1		2		1						
	1		3		3		1					
1		1		4		6		4		1		
	1		5		10		10		5		1	
												⋮

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$$\sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{n}{k}^2 = \binom{2n}{n}$$

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} \binom{2n}{n} x^n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-4x}} \quad (\text{not rational})$$

Sums of cubes

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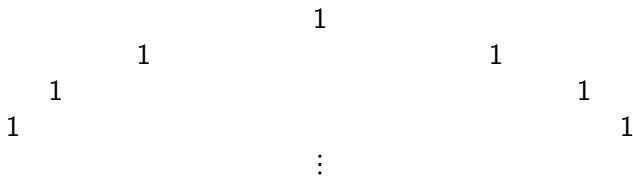
Etc.

A second triangle

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

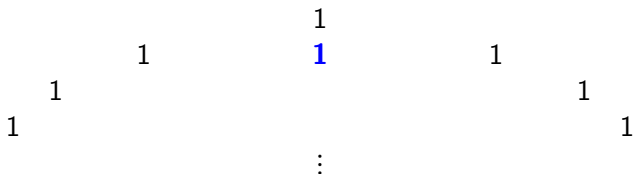
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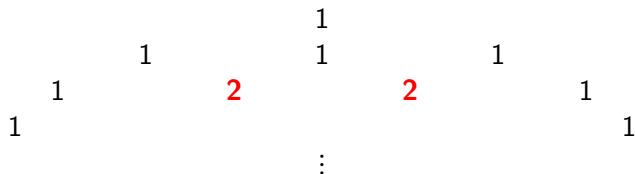
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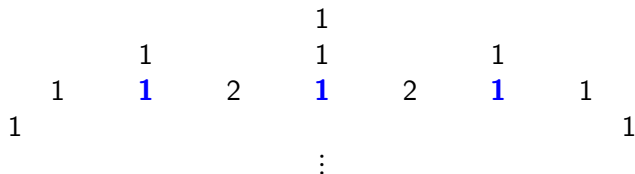
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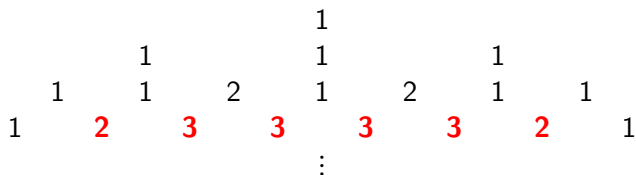
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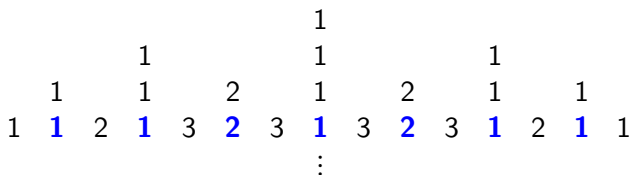
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							1							
			1				1			1				
	1		1		2		1		2		1		1	
1	1	2	1	3	2	3	1	3	2	3	1	2	1	1
							⋮							

Stern's triangle

Some properties

- Number of entries in row n (beginning with row 0): $2^{n+1} - 1$
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- Sum of entries in row n : 3^n
- Largest entry in row n : F_{n+1} (Fibonacci number)
- Let $\binom{n}{k}$ be the k th entry (beginning with $k = 0$) in row n . Write

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{n}{k} x^k.$$

Then $P_{n+1}(x) = (1 + x + x^2)P_n(x^2)$, since $x P_n(x^2)$ corresponds to bringing down the previous row, and $(1 + x^2)P_n(x^2)$ to summing two consecutive entries.

Stern's diatomic sequence

- **Corollary.** $P_n(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (1 + x^{2^i} + x^{2 \cdot 2^i})$

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$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= \prod_{i=0}^{\infty} (1 + x^{2^i} + x^{2 \cdot 2^i}) \\ &:= \sum_{n \geq 0} b_n x^n. \end{aligned}$$

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- The sequence b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots is **Stern's diatomic sequence**:

1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, 4, 3, 5, 2, 5, 3, 4, 1, ...

(often prefixed with 0)

Partition interpretation

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} b_n x^n = \prod_{i \geq 0} (1 + x^{2^i} + x^{2 \cdot 2^i})$$

$\Rightarrow b_n$ is the number of partitions of n into powers of 2, where each power of 2 can appear at most twice.

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Note. If each power of 2 can appear at most once, then we obtain the (unique) binary expansion of n :

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \prod_{i \geq 0} (1 + x^{2^i}).$$

Historical note

An essentially equivalent array is due to **Moritz Abraham Stern** around 1858 and is known as **Stern's diatomic array**:

1																1
1								2								1
1				3				2			3					1
1		4		3		5		2		5		3		4		1
1	5	4	7	3	8	5	7	2	7	5	8	3	7	4	5	1
								⋮								

Comparison

1
1 1 2 1 3 2 3 1 3 2 3 1 2 1 1
⋮

1
1 2 1
1 3 2 3 **1**
1 4 3 5 2 5 3 4 1
1 5 4 7 3 8 5 7 2 7 5 8 3 7 4 5 1
⋮

Precise statement

R_i : i th row of Stern's diatomic array, beginning with row 0

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Form the concatenation

$$R_0 R_1 \cdots R_{n-2} R_{n-1} R_{n-1} R_{n-2} \cdots R_1 R_0$$

and then merge together the last 1 in each row with the first 1 in the next row.

We obtain row n of Stern's triangle. From this observation almost any property of Stern's triangle can be carried over straightforwardly to Stern's diatomic array and *vice versa*.

Amazing property

Theorem (Stern, 1858). *Let b_0, b_1, \dots be Stern's diatomic sequence. Then every positive rational number occurs exactly once among the ratios b_i/b_{i+1} , and moreover this expression is in lowest terms.*

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Can be proved inductively from

$$b_{2n} = b_n, \quad b_{2n+1} = b_n + b_{n+1},$$

but better is to use **Calkin-Wilf tree**, though following Stigler's law of eponymy was earlier introduced by **Jean Berstel** and **Aldo de Luca** as the **Raney tree**. Closely related tree by Stern, called the **Stern-Brocot tree**, and a much earlier similar tree by **Kepler** (1619).

Stigler's law of eponymy

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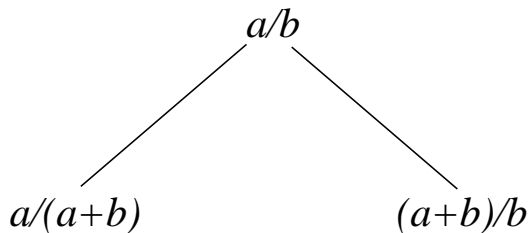
Note. Stigler's law of eponymy implies that Stigler's law of eponymy was not originally discovered by Stigler.

The Calkin-Wilf tree definition

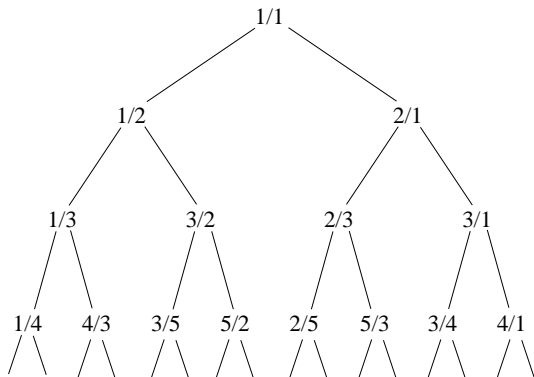
root: $1/1$

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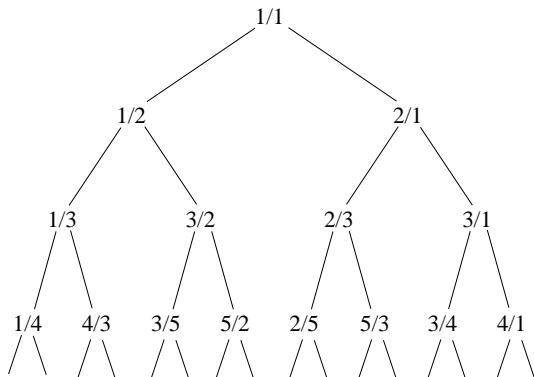
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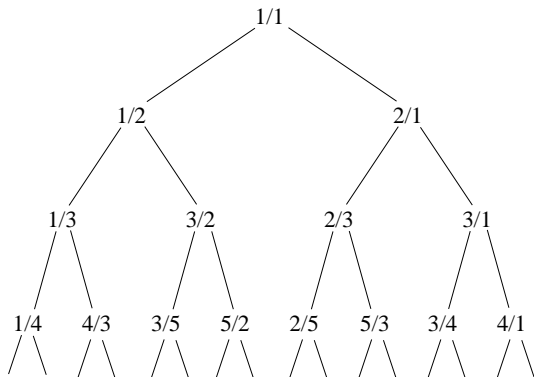


The Calkin-Wilf tree



Numerators (reading order): 1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, 4, 3, 5, ...

The Calkin-Wilf tree



Numerators (reading order): 1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, 4, 3, 5, ...

Denominators: 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, 4, 3, 5, ...

Continued fraction property

Entries in row $n - 1$ are those rational numbers whose regular continued fraction terms sum to n .

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row 2:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{3} &= \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1}} \\ \frac{3}{2} &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} = 1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1}} \\ \frac{2}{3} &= \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1}}} \\ 3 &= 3 = 2 + \frac{1}{1}\end{aligned}$$

An enumerative property

b_{n+1} is the number of odd integers $\binom{n-k}{k}$, where $0 \leq k \leq \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$.

New stuff!

PART II

Sums of cubes

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$$u_3(n) = 3 \cdot 7^{n-1}, \quad n \geq 1$$

Equivalently, if $\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (1 + x^{2^i} + x^{2 \cdot 2^i}) = \sum a_j x^j$, then

$$\sum a_j^3 = 3 \cdot 7^{n-1}.$$

Proof for $u_2(n)$

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

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

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

What about $u_{1,1}(n)$?

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

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

Two recurrences in two unknowns

Let

$$\mathbf{A} := \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} u_2(n) \\ u_{1,1}(n) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_2(n+1) \\ u_{1,1}(n+1) \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Also $u_{1,1}(n+1) = 5u_{1,1}(n) - 2u_{1,1}(n-1)$.

What about $u_3(n)$?

Now we need

$$u_{2,1}(n) := \sum_k \binom{n}{k}^2 \binom{n}{k+1}$$

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We get

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_3(n) \\ u_{2,1}(n) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_3(n+1) \\ u_{2,1}(n+1) \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Thus $u_3(n + 1) = 7u_3(n)$ and $u_{2,1}(n + 1) = 7u_{2,1}(n)$ ($n \geq 1$).

In fact,

$$\begin{aligned}u_3(n) &= 3 \cdot 7^{n-1} \\ u_{2,1}(n) &= 2 \cdot 7^{n-1}.\end{aligned}$$

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Get a matrix of size $\lceil (r + 1)/2 \rceil$, so expect a recurrence of this order.

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Conjecture. The least order of a homogenous linear recurrence with constant coefficients satisfied by $u_r(n)$ is $\frac{1}{3}r + O(1)$.

A more accurate conjecture

Write $[a_0, \dots, a_{m-1}]_m$ for the periodic function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying $f(n) = a_i$ if $n \equiv i \pmod{m}$.

A_r : matrix arising from $u_r(n)$

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Conjecture. We have

$$e_0(2k-1) = \frac{1}{3}k + \left[0, -\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right]_3,$$

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T. Amdeberhan: $e_0(2k-1) > 0$

Even d

Conjecture. We have

$$\begin{aligned}e_1(2k) &= \frac{1}{6}k + \left[-1, -\frac{1}{6}, -\frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{6} \right]_6 \\e_{-1}(2k) &= e_1(2k + 6).\end{aligned}$$

The eigenvalues 1 and -1 are semisimple, and there are no other multiple eigenvalues.

Minimum order of recurrence

mo(r): minimum order of recurrence satisfied by $u_r(n)$

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Conjecture. We have $\text{mo}(2) = 2$, $\text{mo}(6) = 4$, and otherwise

$$\begin{aligned}\text{mo}(2s) &= 2 \left\lfloor \frac{s}{3} \right\rfloor + 3 \quad (s \neq 1, 3) \\ \text{mo}(6s + 1) &= 2s + 1, \quad s \geq 0 \\ \text{mo}(6s + 3) &= 2s + 1, \quad s \geq 0 \\ \text{mo}(6s + 5) &= 2s + 2, \quad s \geq 0.\end{aligned}$$

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True for $r \leq 125$.

General α

$$\alpha = (\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_{m-1})$$

$$u_\alpha(n) := \sum_k \binom{n}{k}^{\alpha_0} \binom{n}{k+1}^{\alpha_1} \cdots \binom{n}{k+m-1}^{\alpha_{m-1}}$$

A closer look at $\alpha = (1, 1, 1, 1)$

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

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$$u_{1,1,1,1}(n+1) =$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_k (\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1}) \binom{n}{k+1} (\binom{n}{k+1} + \binom{n}{k+2}) \binom{n}{k+2} \\ & + \sum_k \binom{n}{k} (\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1}) \binom{n}{k+1} (\binom{n}{k+1} + \binom{n}{k+2}) \end{aligned}$$

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$$u_{1,1,1,1}(n+1) =$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_k (\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1}) \binom{n}{k+1} (\binom{n}{k+1} + \binom{n}{k+2}) \binom{n}{k+2} \\ & + \sum_k \binom{n}{k} (\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1}) \binom{n}{k+1} (\binom{n}{k+1} + \binom{n}{k+2}) \end{aligned}$$

$$A_{(1,1,1,1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 8 & 6 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 4 \\ 3,1 \\ 2,2 \\ 1,2,1 \\ 2,1,1 \\ 1,1,1,1 \end{matrix}$$

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Reduction to $\alpha = (r)$

min. polynomial for $\alpha = (4)$: $(x + 1)(2x^2 - 11x + 1)$

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mp(α): minimum polynomial of A_α

Theorem. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^m$ and $\sum \alpha_j = r$. Then $\text{mp}(\alpha)$ has the form $x^{w_\alpha}(x - 1)^{z_\alpha} \text{mp}(r)$ for some $w_\alpha, z_\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$.

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No conjecture for value of w_α, z_α .

Symmetric functions

Let

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we get $\sum_{n \geq 0} \varepsilon_2(n)x^n = P(x)/(1-5x+2x^2)(1-9x)$. In fact,
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Works for **any** symmetric function instead of e_2 .

A generalization

Let $p(x), q(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$, $\alpha = (\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_{m-1}) \in \mathbb{N}^r$, and $b \geq 2$. Set

$$q(x) \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} p(x^{b^i}) = \sum_k \langle n \rangle_{p,q,\alpha,b}^k x^k = \sum_k \langle n \rangle^k x^k$$

and

$$u_{p,q,\alpha,b}(n) = \sum_k \langle n \rangle^{\alpha_0} \langle n \rangle_{k+1}^{\alpha_1} \cdots \langle n \rangle_{k+m-1}^{\alpha_{m-1}}.$$

Main theorem

Theorem. For fixed p, q, α, b , the function $u_{p,q,\alpha,b}(n)$ satisfies a linear recurrence with constant coefficients ($n \gg 0$). Equivalently, $\sum_n u_{p,q,\alpha,b}(n)x^n$ is a rational function of x .

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Note. \exists multivariate generalization.

Some data

$$q(x) = 1, b = 2, \alpha = (r)$$

i.e.,

$$\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} p(x^{2^i}) = \sum_k \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\rangle x^k, \quad u(n) = \sum_k \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\rangle^r.$$

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Aside. $30618 = 2 \cdot 3^7 \cdot 7$, $458752 = 2^{16} \cdot 7$

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Example. Let $p(x) = (1 + x)^2$, $q(x) = 1$. Then

$$u_{p,(2),2}(n) = \frac{1}{3} (2 \cdot 2^{3n} + 2^n)$$

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$$\begin{aligned} p(x)p(x^2)p(x^4)\cdots p(x^{2^{n-1}}) &= \left((1+x)(1+x^2)(1+x^4)\cdots(1+x^{2^{n-1}}) \right)^2 \\ &= \left(1+x+x^2+x^3+\cdots+x^{2^n-1} \right)^2. \end{aligned}$$

The rest of the story

Example. Let

$$(1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots + x^{2^n-1})^3 = \sum_j a_j x^j.$$

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What is $\sum_j a_j^r$?

$$\begin{aligned}(1 + x + \dots + x^{m-1})^3 &= \left(\frac{1-x^m}{1-x}\right)^3 \\ &= \frac{1 - 3x^m + 3x^{2m} - x^{3m}}{(1-x)^3} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \binom{k+2}{2} x^k + \sum_{k=m}^{2m-1} \left[\binom{k+2}{2} - 3 \binom{k-m+2}{2} \right] x^k \\ &+ \sum_{k=2m}^{3m-1} \left[\binom{k+2}{2} - 3 \binom{k-m+2}{2} + 3 \binom{k-2m+2}{2} \right] x^k.\end{aligned}$$

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So $P(2^n)$ is a \mathbb{Q} -linear combination of terms 2^{jn} , as desired.

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Fact. $P(m)$ is either even ($P(m) = P(-m)$) or odd ($P(m) = -P(-m)$) (depending on degree).

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Generalizes to $u_{(1+x+x^2+\dots+x^{c-1})^d, \alpha, b}(n)$, $c|b$.

The final slide



The final slide

