

PALINDROMIC SEQUENCES FROM IRRATIONAL NUMBERS

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In this paper, a *palindrome* is a finite sequence $(x(1), x(2), \dots, x(n))$ of numbers satisfying $(x(1), x(2), \dots, x(n)) = (x(n), x(n-1), \dots, x(1))$. Of course, an infinite sequence cannot be a palindrome—however, we shall call an infinite sequence $x = (x(1), x(2), \dots)$ a *palindromic sequence* if for every N there exists $n > N$ such that the finite sequence $(x(1), x(2), \dots, x(n))$ is a palindrome. If α is an irrational number, then the sequence Δ defined by $\Delta(n) = \lfloor n\alpha \rfloor - \lfloor n\alpha - \alpha \rfloor$ is, we shall show, palindromic.

Lemma: Suppose $\sigma = (\sigma(0), \sigma(1), \sigma(2), \dots)$ is a sequence of numbers, and $\sigma(0) = 0$. Let Δ be the sequence defined by $\Delta(n) = \sigma(n) - \sigma(n-1)$ for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Then Δ is a palindromic sequence if and only if there are infinitely many n for which the equations

$$F_{n,k}: \sigma(k) + \sigma(n-k) = \sigma(n) \tag{1}$$

hold for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Proof: Equations $F_{n,k}$ and $F_{n,k-1}$ yield $\sigma(k) + \sigma(n-k) = \sigma(n) = \sigma(k-1) + \sigma(n-k+1)$, so that the equations

$$E_{n,k}: \sigma(k) - \sigma(k-1) = \sigma(n-k+1) - \sigma(n-k) \tag{2}$$

or

$$\Delta(k) = \Delta(n-k+1)$$

follow, for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Thus, if the n equations (1) hold for infinitely many n , then Δ is a palindromic sequence.

For the converse, suppose n is a positive integer for which the equations $E_{n,k}$ in (2) hold. The equations $E_{n,1}, E_{n,1} + E_{n,2}, E_{n,1} + E_{n,2} + E_{n,3}, \dots, E_{n,1} + E_{n,2} + \dots + E_{n,n}$ readily reduce to the equations $F_{n,k}$. Thus, if Δ is palindromic, then the equations $F_{n,k}$, for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$, hold for infinitely many n . \square

To see how a positive irrational number α can be used to generate palindromic sequences, we recall certain customary notations from the theory of continued fractions. Suppose α has continued fraction $[[a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots]]$, and let $p_{-2} = 0, p_{-1} = 1, p_i = a_i p_{i-1} + p_{i-2}$ and $q_{-2} = 1, q_{-1} = 0, q_i = a_i q_{i-1} + q_{i-2}$ for $i \geq 0$. The *principal convergents* of α are the rational numbers p_i / q_i for $i \geq 0$. Now, for all nonnegative integers i and j , define $p_{i,j} = j p_{i+1} + p_i$ and $q_{i,j} = j q_{i+1} + q_i$. The fractions

$$\frac{p_{i,j}}{q_{i,j}} = \frac{j p_{i+1} + p_i}{j q_{i+1} + q_i}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq a_{i+2} - 1, \tag{3}$$

are the i^{th} *intermediate convergents* of α . As proved in [2, p. 16],

$$\dots < \frac{p_i}{q_i} < \dots < \frac{p_{i,j}}{q_{i,j}} < \frac{p_{i,j+1}}{q_{i,j+1}} < \dots < \frac{p_{i+2}}{q_{i+2}} < \dots \quad \text{if } i \text{ is even,} \tag{4}$$

$$\dots > \frac{p_i}{q_i} > \dots > \frac{p_{i,j}}{q_{i,j}} > \frac{p_{i,j+1}}{q_{i,j+1}} > \dots > \frac{p_{i+2}}{q_{i+2}} > \dots \text{ if } i \text{ is odd,} \tag{5}$$

and $p_{i,j-1}q_{ij} - p_{ij}q_{i,j-1} = (-1)^j$ for $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, a_{i+2} - 1$. If the range of j in (3) is extended to $0 \leq j \leq a_{i+2} - 1$, then the principal convergents are included among the intermediate convergents. We shall refer to both kinds simply as *convergents*—those in (4) as *even-indexed convergents* and those in (5) as *odd-indexed convergents*.

We shall use the notation $(())$ for the fractional-part function, defined by $((x)) = x - \lfloor x \rfloor$.

Theorem 1: Suppose p/q is a convergent to a positive irrational number α . Then for $k = 1, 2, \dots, q - 1$, the sum $((k\alpha)) + ((q - k)\alpha)$ is invariant of k ; in fact,

$$((k\alpha)) + ((q - k)\alpha) = \begin{cases} ((q\alpha)) + 1 & \text{if } p/q \text{ is an even-indexed convergent,} \\ ((q\alpha)) & \text{if } p/q \text{ is an odd-indexed convergent.} \end{cases}$$

Proof: Suppose p/q is an even-indexed convergent and $1 \leq k \leq q - 1$. Then $p/q < \alpha$, so that

$$kp/q < k\alpha. \tag{6}$$

Suppose there is an integer h such that $kp/q \leq h < k\alpha$. Then

$$p/q < h/k < \alpha. \tag{7}$$

However, as an even-indexed convergent to α , the rational number p/q is the best lower approximate (as defined in [1]), which means that $k \geq q$ in (7). This contradiction to the hypothesis, together with (6), shows that

$$((kp/q)) < ((k\alpha)). \tag{8}$$

Since $1 \leq q - k \leq q - 1$, we also have $1 = ((kp/q)) + ((q - k)p/q) < ((k\alpha)) + ((q - k)\alpha)$. Since $((k\alpha)) + ((q - k)\alpha)$ has the same fractional part as $q\alpha$, we conclude that

$$((k\alpha)) + ((q - k)\alpha) = ((q\alpha)) + 1.$$

The proof for odd-indexed convergents p/q is similar and omitted. \square

Theorem 2: Suppose $\Delta(n) = \lfloor n\alpha \rfloor - \lfloor (n - 1)\alpha \rfloor$ for some positive irrational number, for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Then Δ is a palindromic sequence.

Proof: By Theorem 1, if p/q is an odd-indexed convergent to α , then

$$((k\alpha)) + ((q - k)\alpha) = ((q\alpha)) \text{ for } k = 1, 2, \dots, q - 1,$$

and clearly this holds for $k = q$, also. Consequently,

$$\lfloor k\alpha \rfloor + \lfloor (q - k)\alpha \rfloor = \lfloor q\alpha \rfloor,$$

$$\sigma(k) + \sigma(q - k) = \sigma(q),$$

for $k = 1, 2, \dots, q$. By the lemma, Δ is a palindromic sequence. \square

Example 1: There is only one positive irrational number for which all the convergents are principal convergents, shown here along with its continued fraction:

