

Lecture, Friday May 11

Last time we proved the following result.

Theorem 1: For every rational number $\frac{a}{b}$ ($b > 0$) there are unique

integers $m_0, m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$ such that either $k=0$ or $m_k \geq 2$ and

$\frac{a}{b} = [m_0, m_1, \dots, m_k]$. The only other expansion of $\frac{a}{b}$ as continued fraction is $[m_0, m_1, \dots, m_k - 1, 1]$.

The numbers m_0, \dots, m_k are computed by the Euclid's algorithm for $\gcd(a, b)$. Alternatively, define $\alpha_0 = \frac{a}{b}$, $\alpha_{i+1} = \frac{1}{\alpha_i - \lfloor \alpha_i \rfloor}$ for $i < k$.

Then $m_0 = \lfloor \alpha_0 \rfloor$, $\alpha_i = [m_i, \dots, m_k]$.

Definition: Given real number r_0, r_1, \dots, r_n with $r_i > 0$ for $i \geq 1$

define $[r_0, r_1, \dots, r_n] = r_0 + \frac{1}{r_1 + \frac{1}{r_2 + \frac{1}{\dots + \frac{1}{r_n}}}}$. We call this expression

a finite continued fraction. It is called simple if all r_i 's are integers.

Given any sequence r_0, r_1, \dots (finite or infinite) define two sequences (p_n) and (q_n) as follows:

$$p_{-1} = 1, p_0 = r_0, p_k = r_k p_{k-1} + p_{k-2}, \text{ for } k \geq 1$$

$$q_{-1} = 0, q_0 = 1, q_k = r_k q_{k-1} + q_{k-2}, \text{ for } k \geq 1.$$

Then: ① $\begin{bmatrix} r_0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} r_1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \dots \cdot \begin{bmatrix} r_k & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} p_k & p_{k-1} \\ q_k & q_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}$ for every $k \geq 0$.

② $[r_0, r_1, \dots, r_k] = \frac{p_k}{q_k}$ for every k

③ $p_k q_{k-1} - p_{k-1} q_k = (-1)^{k+1}$ for every k .

(4) $q_0 = 1 < q_2 < q_4 < \dots$ and $q_1 < q_3 < q_5 < \dots$

If $r_i \geq 1$ for all $i \geq 1$ then $q_0 < q_1 < q_2 < \dots$ and $q_n > n$.

(5) From (3) we get
$$\boxed{\frac{p_{k+1}}{q_{k+1}} - \frac{p_k}{q_k} = \frac{(-1)^{k+2}}{q_{k+1} q_k}} \quad \text{A} \quad \text{and}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{p_{k+2}}{q_{k+2}} - \frac{p_k}{q_k} &= \left(\frac{p_{k+2}}{q_{k+2}} - \frac{p_{k+1}}{q_{k+1}} \right) + \left(\frac{p_{k+1}}{q_{k+1}} - \frac{p_k}{q_k} \right) = \frac{(-1)^{k+3}}{q_{k+2} q_{k+1}} + \frac{(-1)^{k+2}}{q_{k+1} q_k} = \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{k+2}}{q_{k+1}} \left(\frac{1}{q_k} - \frac{1}{q_{k+2}} \right) = \frac{(-1)^{k+2} (q_{k+2} - q_k)}{q_k q_{k+1} q_{k+2}} = \frac{(-1)^{k+2} r_{k+2} q_{k+1}}{q_k q_{k+1} q_{k+2}} \end{aligned}$$

Thus
$$\boxed{\frac{p_{k+2}}{q_{k+2}} - \frac{p_k}{q_k} = \frac{(-1)^{k+2} r_{k+2}}{q_k q_{k+2}}} \quad \text{B} \quad \text{(note: } (-1)^{k+2} = (-1)^k \text{)}$$

(6) From [B]:
$$\frac{p_0}{q_0} < \frac{p_2}{q_2} < \frac{p_4}{q_4} < \dots$$

$$\frac{p_1}{q_1} > \frac{p_3}{q_3} > \frac{p_5}{q_5} > \dots$$

Thus $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p_{2n}}{q_{2n}} = x$ exists and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p_{2n+1}}{q_{2n+1}} = y$ exists

and $y \geq x$. By [A] $y - x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{p_{2n+1}}{q_{2n+1}} - \frac{p_{2n}}{q_{2n}} \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{q_{2n+1} q_{2n}}$

Thus, if q_n tends to infinity then $y = x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p_n}{q_n}$

Exercise: Show that if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} r_n$ diverges then $y = x$.

Since $q_n \geq n$ when all $r_n \geq 1$ we get

Theorem 2 For any sequence m_0, m_1, m_2, \dots of integers with $m_i \geq 1$ for $i > 0$ the limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [m_0, m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n] \text{ exists.}$$

Definition: $[m_0, m_1, m_2, \dots]$ is called an infinite simple continued fraction, or just simple continued fraction.

For every $k \geq 0$ the rational number $\frac{p_k}{q_k} = [m_0, \dots, m_k]$ is called the k -th reduct or k -th convergent of the continued fraction.

Last time we proved

Theorem 3: For any infinite continued fraction $x = [m_0, m_1, \dots]$ the number x is irrational. If (α_k) is defined by $\alpha_0 = x$, $\alpha_{k+1} = \frac{1}{\alpha_k - \lfloor \alpha_k \rfloor}$ then $\alpha_k = [m_k, m_{k+1}, \dots]$ and $m_k = \lfloor \alpha_k \rfloor$.

Theorem 4: Let x be any irrational real number. Define

$$\alpha_0 = x, \alpha_{k+1} = \frac{1}{\alpha_k - \lfloor \alpha_k \rfloor}, m_k = \lfloor \alpha_k \rfloor. \text{ Then } x = [m_0, m_1, \dots]$$

Proof: Since x is irrational, all α_k are irrational so $\alpha_k \neq \lfloor \alpha_k \rfloor$, i.e. the sequence α_k is well defined. Note that for any k :

$$[m_0, m_1, \dots, m_k, \alpha_{k+1}] = [m_0, m_1, \dots, m_k, [m_k, \alpha_{k+1}]] = [m_0, m_1, \dots, m_k, \alpha_k]$$

$$\text{since } [m_k, \alpha_{k+1}] = m_k + \frac{1}{\alpha_{k+1}} = m_k + \frac{1}{\alpha_k - \lfloor \alpha_k \rfloor} = m_k + \alpha_k - \lfloor \alpha_k \rfloor = \alpha_k$$

(recall that $m_k = \lfloor \alpha_k \rfloor$)

Thus:

$$x = [\alpha_0] = [m_0, \alpha_1] = [m_0, m_1, \alpha_2] = [m_0, m_1, m_2, \alpha_3] = \dots$$

From [A] we know that for k even we have

$$x = [m_0, m_1, \dots, m_k, \alpha_{k+1}] > [m_0, m_1, \dots, m_k]$$

and for k odd we have

$$x = [m_0, m_1, \dots, m_k, \alpha_{k+1}] < [m_0, m_1, \dots, m_k]$$

In other words

$$[m_0, m_1, \dots, m_{2n}] > x > [m_0, m_1, \dots, m_{2n-1}]$$

for every x . Since $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} [m_1, \dots, m_k]$ exists, it must be

equal to x : $x = [m_0, m_1, \dots] = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} [m_0, m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k]$.

Summarizing our results:

Every irrational number x has unique expansion as infinite continued fraction $x = [m_0, m_1, m_2, \dots]$ where $\alpha_0 = x$, $\alpha_{k+1} = \frac{1}{\alpha_k - [m_k]}$ and $m_k = [m_k]$.

Examples: We have seen that $\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} = [1, 1, 1, \dots]$

$$\sqrt{2} = [1, 2, 2, 2, \dots]$$

Euler proved that $e = [2, 1, 2, 1, 1, 4, 1, 1, 6, 1, 1, 8, 1, 1, \dots]$

Open problem: When $x = \sqrt[3]{2}$, or $x = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$

let $x = [m_0, m_1, m_2, \dots]$. Is the sequence (m_i) bounded?

What is $[1, 1, 2, 1, 2, 1, 2, \dots]$?

Let $x = [1, 2, 1, 2, \dots]$. Then $[1, 1, 2, 1, 2, \dots] = 1 + \frac{1}{x}$

Also $x = [1, 2, 1, 2, \dots] = [1, 2, [1, 2, 1, 2, \dots]] = [1, 2, x]$ so

$$x = 1 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{x}} = 1 + \frac{x}{2x+1} = \frac{3x+1}{2x+1}$$

so $2x^2 + x = 3x + 1$, i.e. $2x^2 - 2x - 1 = 0$. We have $\Delta = 4 + 8 = 12$

and $x = \frac{2 \pm 2\sqrt{3}}{4}$. Since $x > 0$, $x = \frac{1 + \sqrt{3}}{2}$. Thus

$$[1, 1, 2, 1, 2, \dots] = 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{1 + \sqrt{3}}{2}} = 1 + \frac{2}{1 + \sqrt{3}} = 1 + \frac{2(\sqrt{3} - 1)}{2} = \sqrt{3}.$$

Let us compute some reducts of $\sqrt{3}$:

	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
		1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1
P	1	1	2	5	7	19	26	71	97	265	362	989	1351
q	0	1	1	3	4	11	15	41	56	153	209	571	780

$$\text{so } \frac{p_{11}}{q_{11}} = \frac{1351}{780} > \sqrt{3} > \frac{p_{10}}{q_{10}} \Rightarrow \frac{p_8}{q_8} = \frac{265}{153}$$

These two approximations were known to Archimedes (200 BC).

Thm: If x has purely periodic continued fraction then
 $x = \frac{A + \sqrt{D}}{C}$ for some integers A, D, C s.t. D is not a square.

Pf: Suppose $x = [\overline{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k}] = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k, \dots]$

Then $x = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k, x]$. det

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdots \begin{bmatrix} a_k & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} p_k & p_{k-1} \\ q_k & q_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}, \text{ so}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdots \begin{bmatrix} a_k & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} p_k x + p_{k-1} & p_k \\ q_k x + q_{k-1} & q_k \end{bmatrix}.$$

This means that $[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k, x] = \frac{p_k x + p_{k-1}}{q_k x + q_{k-1}}$, so

$$x = \frac{p_k x + p_{k-1}}{q_k x + q_{k-1}} \Rightarrow q_k x^2 + (q_{k-1} - p_k)x - p_{k-1} = 0$$

$$\Delta = (q_{k-1} - p_k)^2 + 4q_k p_{k-1} = q_{k-1}^2 + p_k^2 - 2p_k q_{k-1} + 4q_k p_{k-1}.$$

Recall: $q_k p_{k-1} = p_k q_{k-1} - (-1)^{k+1} = p_k q_{k-1} + (-1)^k$. Thus

$$\Delta = q_{k-1}^2 + p_k^2 - 2p_k q_{k-1} + 4p_k q_{k-1} + 4(-1)^k = (q_{k-1} + p_k)^2 + 4(-1)^k$$

$$\text{Thus } x = \frac{(p_k - q_{k-1}) \pm \sqrt{(q_{k-1} + p_k)^2 + 4(-1)^k}}{2q_k}$$

Since $x > 0$, we must have $+$ in the above formula so
 $x = \frac{A + \sqrt{D}}{C}$. Since x is irrational, D is not a square



Thm: If $x = [m_0, m_1, \dots, m_s, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k, \dots]$ and

$$y = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k, \dots] = \frac{A + \sqrt{D}}{C} \text{ then } x = \frac{A_1 + B_1 \sqrt{D}}{C_1}$$

for some integers A_1, B_1, C_1 .

Proof: $x = [m_0, m_1, \dots, m_s, y] = \frac{p_s y + p_{s-1}}{q_s y + q_{s-1}}$ (same reasoning as in the last proof).

$$= \frac{p_s \frac{A + \sqrt{D}}{C} + p_{s-1}}{q_s \frac{A + \sqrt{D}}{C} + q_{s-1}} = \frac{A_1 + B_1 \sqrt{D}}{C_1} \quad (\text{Exercise: Justify the last equality}).$$

Examples: Period 1:

$$x = [a, a, a, \dots] = [a, x] \text{ so } x = a + \frac{1}{x}, \text{ i.e. } x^2 - ax - 1 = 0$$

$$\text{Thus } x = \frac{a \pm \sqrt{a^2 + 4}}{2} \text{ and since } x > 0, x = \frac{a + \sqrt{a^2 + 4}}{2}$$

$$\boxed{[a, a, a, \dots] = \frac{a + \sqrt{a^2 + 4}}{2}}$$

Taking $a = 2k$ we get $[2k, 2k, \dots] = k + \sqrt{k^2 + 1}$, so

$$\boxed{\sqrt{k^2 + 1} = [k, 2k, 2k, 2k, \dots]}$$

Period 2: $x = [a, b, a, b, \dots] = [a, b, x]$, so

$$x = a + \frac{1}{b + \frac{1}{x}} = a + \frac{x}{bx+1} = \frac{abx+a+x}{bx+1}$$

so $bx^2+x = abx+a+x$, i.e. $bx^2 - abx - a = 0$

$$\Delta = a^2b^2 + 4ab, \quad x = \frac{ab \pm \sqrt{a^2b^2 + 4ab}}{2b}$$

Since $x > 0$, we have +:

$$\boxed{[a, b, a, b, \dots] = \frac{ab + \sqrt{a^2b^2 + 4ab}}{2b}}$$

Take $a=2k, b=1$, so $[2k, 1, 2k, 1, \dots] = \frac{2k + \sqrt{4k^2 + 8k}}{2} = k + \sqrt{k^2 + 2k} = k + \sqrt{(k+1)^2 - 1}$

Thus $\boxed{[k, 1, 2k, 1, 2k, \dots] = \sqrt{(k+1)^2 - 1}}$

Now take $b=k, a=2k$, so $[2k, k, 2k, k, \dots] = \frac{2k^2 + \sqrt{4k^4 + 8k^2}}{2k} = k + \sqrt{k^2 + 2}$

so $\boxed{[k, k, 2k, k, 2k, \dots] = \sqrt{k^2 + 2}}$

Thm: If x satisfies $Ax^2 + Bx + C = 0$ for some integers A, B, C st. $B^2 - 4AC$ is not a square then x has periodic continued fraction.

Before proving the result look at an example.

Example: $\sqrt{7}$ satisfies $(\sqrt{7})^2 - 7 = 0$.

Let $\alpha_0 = \sqrt{7}$, $\alpha_{k+1} = \frac{1}{\alpha_k - \lfloor \alpha_k \rfloor}$. Then $\sqrt{7} = [m_0, m_1, \dots]$, $m_i = \lfloor \alpha_i \rfloor$.

Note: $\alpha_k = [m_k, m_{k+1}, \dots]$. So (m_k) is periodic if and only if $\alpha_k = \alpha_L$ for some $k < L$.

$$\alpha_0 = \sqrt{7}, m_0 = \lfloor \alpha_0 \rfloor = 2$$

$$\alpha_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{7} - 2} = \frac{\sqrt{7} + 2}{7 - 4} = \frac{\sqrt{7} + 2}{3}, m_1 = \lfloor \alpha_1 \rfloor = 1$$

$$\alpha_2 = \frac{1}{\frac{\sqrt{7} + 2}{3} - 1} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{7} - 1} = \frac{3(\sqrt{7} + 1)}{6} = \frac{\sqrt{7} + 1}{2}, m_2 = \lfloor \alpha_2 \rfloor = 1$$

$$\alpha_3 = \frac{1}{\frac{\sqrt{7} + 1}{2} - 1} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{7} - 1} = \frac{2(\sqrt{7} + 1)}{7 - 1} = \frac{\sqrt{7} + 1}{3}, \lfloor \alpha_3 \rfloor = 1$$

$$\alpha_4 = \frac{1}{\frac{\sqrt{7} + 1}{3} - 1} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{7} - 2} = \frac{3(\sqrt{7} + 2)}{7 - 4} = \sqrt{7} + 2, \lfloor \alpha_4 \rfloor = 4$$

$$\alpha_5 = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{7} + 2) - 4} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{7} - 2} = \frac{\sqrt{7} + 2}{7 - 4} = \frac{\sqrt{7} + 2}{3} = \alpha_1$$

We have $\alpha_5 = \alpha_1$ so the process repeats and

$$\sqrt{7} = [2, \overline{1, 1, 1, 4}]$$

Exercise: Do the same for $\sqrt{13}$ to get

$$\sqrt{13} = [3, \overline{1, 1, 1, 1, 6}]$$