CHARACTERISTIC APPROXIMATION PROPERTIES OF QUADRATIC IRRATIONALS

W. B. JURKAT AND A. PEYERIMHOFF

Universitat ULM (MNH)
Abt. f. Mathematic I
7900 Ulm (Donau)
Oberer Eselsberg, Germany

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<u>ABSTRACT</u>. Some characteristic approximation properties of quadratic irrationals are studied in this paper. It is shown that the limit points of the sequence δ_n form a subset C(x), and D(x) can be generated from C(x) in a relatively simple way. Another proof of Lekkerkerker's theorem is given using relations between δ_{n-1} , δ_n , δ_{n+1} which are independent of x and n.

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0. Throughout this paper x will denote a real irrational number. We introduce

$$| |x| | = \min_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} |x-k|$$
, $r(x) = x - \left[x + \frac{1}{2}\right]$

which implies
$$r(x) \in \left[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$$
, $|r(x)| = ||x||$.

Given x , the sequence n | |nx| |, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, contains bounded subsequences (e.g. $n | |nx| | <^1 / \sqrt{5}$ for infinitely many n by Hurwitz's theorem), and it seems natural to investigate the set D(x) of all its limit points which describes the various qualities of approximation of x by rationals which occur again and again $x \in \mathbb{N}$ 0. A number x is "well approximable" if $x \in \mathbb{N}$ 1 (e.g. if x = e = 2.71... or if $x \in \mathbb{N}$ 2 a Liouville number) and "badly approximable" if $x \in \mathbb{N}$ 3. If $x \in \mathbb{N}$ 4 then $x \in \mathbb{N}$ 5 becomes in this context are the badly approximable numbers.

Let x be represented by the continued fraction $[b_0,b_1,\ldots]$, let A_n/B_n denote its convergents and let

$$\delta_n = \delta_n(x) = B_n \begin{vmatrix} B_n x - A_n \end{vmatrix}$$
, $n \ge -2$ $(\delta_n = B_n | \begin{vmatrix} B_n x \end{vmatrix} | \text{ for } n \ge 1)$. (1)

The limit points of the sequence δ_n form a subset C(x) (which is in a sense constructive) and we shall show that D(x) can be generated from C(x) in a relatively simple way (Theorem 1), so the structure of C(x) is basic in our context.

A theorem of Lekkerkerker [5] shows that for a badly approximable number x the set C(x) is finite if and only if x is a quadratic irrational, and the connection between C(x) and D(x) shows that D(x) is discrete if and only if

¹⁾ For results on $\inf D(x)$, which is the inverse of Perron's modular function [5], see [1] and the bibliography of this paper.

²⁾ Let $\eta_i = n_i ||n_i x|| \to 0$, choose $0 < \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, and let $n_i^* = n_i \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\eta_i}}$ Then $\eta_i \left[\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\eta_i}} \right]^2 = n_i^* ||n_i^* x||$ for i large and $\eta_i \left[\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\eta_i}} \right]^2 \to \alpha$. Hence $\alpha \in D(x)$.

x is (badly approximable and) a quadratic irrational. We will also give another proof of Lekkerker's theorem using relations between δ_{n-1} , δ_n , δ_{n+1} which are independent of x and n and seem to tell the whole structure of the δ_n 's (Lemma 3, Theorem 3).

1. THE BASIC FORMULAS.

Writing $x=[b_0,b_1,\ldots]=[b_0,b_1,\ldots,b_{n-1}+\frac{1}{\xi_n}]$, $\xi_n=[b_n,b_{n+1},\ldots]$ and $\rho_n=\frac{B_n}{B_{n-1}}$, $n\geq 1$, $1/\rho_0=0$ we have for $n\geq 0$ the following well known formulas

$$\xi_{\rm n} = b_{\rm n} + \frac{1}{\xi_{\rm n+1}}$$
 (2)

$$B_{n}(B_{n}x - A_{n}) = \frac{(-1)^{n}}{\xi_{n+1} + \frac{1}{\rho_{n}}}$$
(3)

$$b_{n+1} = \rho_{n+1} - \frac{1}{\rho_n}$$
 (4)

(cf. [7], 13; (4) is a consequence of $B_{n+1} = b_{n+1} B_n + B_{n-1}$, $n \ge -1$).

LEMMA 1. For $n \ge 1$

$$\delta_n + \delta_{n-1} < 1 \quad \text{unless}^{3)} \quad n = 1 , \quad b_1 = 1 ,$$
 (5)

$$\rho_{n} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - 4\delta_{n} \delta_{n-1}}}{2 \delta_{n-1}} , \frac{1}{\rho_{n}} = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4 \delta_{n} \delta_{n-1}}}{2\delta_{n}} .$$
 (6)

PROOF. It follows from (2) and (4) that

$$\xi_n + \frac{1}{\rho_{n-1}} = b_n + \frac{1}{\xi_{n+1}} + \frac{1}{\rho_{n-1}} = \frac{1}{\xi_{n+1}} + \rho_n \quad (n \ge 1)$$
 . This and (1), (3)

³⁾ If $b_1 = 1$ then $\delta_0 + \delta_1 = (x-[x]) - (x-[x]-1) = 1$,

show that

$$\delta_n + \delta_{n-1} = \frac{\xi_{n+1} + \rho_n}{1 + \rho_n \xi_{n+1}} \quad \text{for } n \ge 1 \quad ,$$
 (7)

which implies (5) (note that $\xi_{n+1} > 1$). In order to prove (6) we note that the foregoing calculations also show that

$$1 - 4 \delta_{\mathbf{n}} \delta_{\mathbf{n}-1} = 1 - 4 \frac{\rho_{\mathbf{n}} \xi_{\mathbf{n}+1}}{(1 + \rho_{\mathbf{n}} \xi_{\mathbf{n}+1})^2} = \left(\frac{\rho_{\mathbf{n}} \xi_{\mathbf{n}+1} - 1}{1 + \rho_{\mathbf{n}} \xi_{\mathbf{n}+1}}\right)^2$$

and this leads immediately to (6).

Formulas (4) and (6) suggest the introduction of the function

$$\phi(x,y;z) = \frac{\sqrt{1-4xz'} + \sqrt{1-4yz'}}{2z}$$
, $z > 0$, $4xz < 1$, $4yz < 1$.

using this notation, we have

$$b_{n+1} = \phi(\delta_{n-1}, \delta_{n+1}; \delta_n), \quad n \ge 0 \quad (\delta_{-1} = 0).$$
 (8)

The following properties of ϕ will be used in later sections of this paper :

$$\phi(x,y;z) = \phi(y,x;z) , \qquad (9)$$

$$\phi(x,y;z) + (strictly) \text{ if } x\uparrow, y\uparrow \text{ or } z\uparrow,$$
 (10)

$$\phi(x, 1-z; z) = \frac{|2z-1| + \sqrt{1-4xz'}}{2z}, \qquad (11)$$

$$\phi(x,0;z) - \phi(x,1-z;z) = \frac{1-|2z-1|}{2z} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z \leq 1/2 \\ \frac{1-z}{z} < 1 & \text{if } z > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

In conclusion we mention that (5) contains Vahlen's result (see e.g. [7], \$14)

that at least one of δ_n , δ_{n-1} is < 1/2, and Borel's result (see [7],§14) that at least one of δ_{n-1} , δ_n , δ_{n+1} is < 1/ $\sqrt{5}$ follows from (6), (8) and (10). Indeed, if this were not true then one of the δ 's would be > 1/ $\sqrt{5}$ ' (since $\delta_n = \delta_{n+1} = 1/\sqrt{5}$ ' and (6) would imply $\rho_{n+1} = \frac{\sqrt{5}+1}{2}$, but ρ_n is rational) and this and (8) and (10) imply

$$b_{n+1} = \phi(\delta_{n-1}, \delta_{n+1}; \delta_n) < \phi(1/\sqrt{5}, 1/\sqrt{5}; 1/\sqrt{5}) = 1 ,$$

but $b_{n+1} \ge 1$.

2. THE RELATION BETWEEN C(x) AND D(x).

In addition to d(x) and C(x) we introduce the sets

 $D_{g}(x)$: the limit points of the sequence n r(nx),

 $\textbf{C}_{_{\boldsymbol{S}}}(\textbf{x})$: the limit points of the sequence $\ \textbf{B}_{n}\textbf{r}(\textbf{B}_{n}\textbf{x})$.

These sets contain information on the sign of the approximations of x by rationals, and D(x) or C(x) is known if $D_S(x)$ or $C_S(x)$ is known. Let ||nx|| = |nx-m|, sign $(nx - m) = \varepsilon$. Then it follows from

$$n = \lambda B_k + \mu B_{k-1}$$

$$m = \lambda A_k + \mu A_{k-1}$$
 , $k \ge -1$ (13)

by Cramer's rule that λ , μ \in ${\mathbb Z}$ and that

$$\lambda = n |xB_{k-1} - A_{k-1}| + (-1)^{k} \epsilon B_{k-1} ||nx||,$$

$$\mu = n |xB_{k} - A_{k}| - (-1)^{k} \epsilon B_{k} ||nx||.$$
(14)

THEOREM 1. Let $0 \notin D(x)$. Then $\alpha \in D_{\mathbf{g}}(x)$ if and only if

$$\alpha = \lambda^2 \gamma - \lambda \mu \sqrt{1 + 4\beta \gamma} \quad \text{sign} \gamma + \mu^2 \beta \quad , \tag{15}$$

where λ , $\mu \in \mathbb{N}_0$, $(\lambda, \mu) \neq (0, 0)$ and $\beta = \lim_{k_i = 1}^k \mathbf{B}_{k_i} \mathbf{B}_{k_i}$

COROLLARY. Formula (15) and $\,\beta\gamma<0\,$ show that $\,D(x)\,$ and $\,C(x)\,$ are connected by

$$\alpha = \left| \lambda^{2} |\gamma| - \lambda \mu \sqrt{1 - 4 |\beta| \gamma|} - \mu^{2} |\beta| \right| . \tag{16}$$

PROOF of Theorem 1.

Let $n_i r(n_i x) = n_i (n_i x - m_i) \rightarrow \alpha \in D_s(x)$, and select $k_i \in \mathbb{N}$ (for all large i) such that

$$B_{k_{i}} | |n_{i}x| | \leq n_{i} | |B_{k_{i}}x| | , \qquad (17)$$

$$B_{k_{1}+1}||n_{1}x|| > n_{1}||B_{k_{1}+1}x|| \qquad (18)$$

Define numbers $\lambda_{\mathbf{i}}$, $\mu_{\mathbf{i}}$ by (13) (with $\mathbf{n_i}$, $\mathbf{m_i}$, $\mathbf{k_i}$ instead of \mathbf{n} , \mathbf{m} , \mathbf{k}). It follows from (17) and (14) that $\lambda_{\mathbf{i}}$, $\mu_{\mathbf{i}} \in \mathbb{N}_{\mathbf{0}}$. Condition (17) implies $\mathbf{B_{k_i}} \leq \mathbf{n_i}$ since otherwise $||\mathbf{n_i}\mathbf{x}|| > ||\mathbf{B_{k_i}}\mathbf{x}||$ by Lagrange's Theorem ([7], §15) which leads to a contradiction to (17). On the other hand, it follows from $||\mathbf{B_{k_i+1}}\mathbf{x}|| > (\mathbf{B_{k_i+1}} + \mathbf{B_{k_i+2}})^{-1}$ ([7], §13) and (18) that

$$\frac{n_{i}^{2}}{B_{k_{i}+1} + B_{k_{i}+2}} \leq n_{i}^{2} ||B_{k_{i}+1}x|| \leq B_{k_{i}+1}n_{i} ||n_{i}x|| = B_{k_{i}+1}(|\alpha| + o(1))$$

which implies $n_i \le 2|\alpha|^{1/2} B_{k_i+2}$ for all large i.

It follows from $0 \notin D(x)$ and $B_k | B_k | < \frac{1}{b_{k+1}}$ ([7], 13) that $b_{k+1} = 0(1)$. Hence, there is a constant $C = C(\alpha, x)$ such that

$$B_{k_i} \le n_i \le C(\alpha, x)B_{k_i-1}$$
 for all large i, (19)

From (19) and (14) we infer that

$$0 \le \lambda_{\mathbf{i}} \le K_{\mathbf{i}}(\alpha, \mathbf{x})$$
 , $0 \le \mu_{\mathbf{i}} \le K_{\mathbf{i}}(\alpha, \mathbf{x})$

for constants K_1 , K_2 and all large i.

By taking subsequences, the foregoing shows that sequences $n_i \to \infty$, $k_i \to \infty$ exist such that

(20)
$$\begin{cases} n_{i}^{r}(n_{i}^{x}) \rightarrow \alpha \\ n_{i}^{s} = \lambda B_{k_{i}}^{s} + \mu B_{k_{i}^{s}-1}, m_{i}^{s} = \lambda A_{k_{i}}^{s} + \mu A_{k_{i}^{s}-1}, \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{N}_{0}, (\lambda, \mu) \neq (0, 0) \\ B_{k_{i}^{s}-1}^{s} r(B_{k_{i}^{s}-1}^{s}) \rightarrow \beta , B_{k_{i}}^{s} r(B_{k_{i}^{s}}^{s}) \rightarrow \gamma . \end{cases}$$

Let n_i , k_i satisfy (20). Then (note that $r(B_n x) = B_n x - A_n$ for $n \ge 1$)

$$n_{\bf i}^{\bf r}(n_{\bf i}^{\bf x}) = \lambda^2 B_{\bf k_i}^{\bf r}(B_{\bf k_i}^{\bf x}) + \lambda \mu (\rho_{\bf k_i}^{\bf B}_{\bf k_i^{-1}}^{\bf r}(B_{\bf k_i^{-1}}^{\bf x}) + \frac{1}{\rho_{\bf k_i}} B_{\bf k_i}^{\bf r}(B_{\bf k_i}^{\bf x}) + \mu^2 B_{\bf k_i^{-1}}^{\bf r}(B_{\bf k_i^{-1}}^{\bf x}).$$

This and (6) show that every $\alpha \in D_S$ has a representation (15) and that every number (15) belongs to D_S .

REMARKS. 1. Let K>0. Then the proof of Theorem 1 shows that for every $\alpha\in D_{\bf S}({\bf x})$, $|\alpha|\le K$, a representation (15) holds for some λ and μ which are bounded by a constant which depends on K and ${\bf x}$ only. Hence, if $C({\bf x})$ is discrete (i.e. $C({\bf x})$ is finite since $B_{\bf n}||B_{\bf n}{\bf x}||\le 1$), then $D({\bf x})$ is discrete and vice versa.

2. A slight modification of the proof of Theorem 1 also shows that $||nx|| = n |nx-m| < 1/2 \quad (n \in \mathbb{N}) \quad \text{implies} \quad n/m = A_{\mathcal{V}}/B_{\mathcal{V}} \quad \text{for some }_{\mathcal{V}} \quad (\text{[7], §13;[2]}$

Theorem 184; for a more general result compare [4], Proposition 4). In fact, choose $k\geq 1$ such that $B_{k-1}< n\leq B_k$ (n=1 is a trivial case). If $\varepsilon=\left(-1\right)^k$ and $n< B_k$, then (14) leads to the contradiction $0<\lambda<2n\big|\big|nx\big|\big|<1$, hence $n=B_k$. If $\varepsilon=\left(-1\right)^{k-1}$, then (14) implies $\mu>0$, $\lambda>-n\big|\big|nx\big|\big|>-1/2$, hence $\lambda\geq 0$. But $\lambda<1$ since $n\leq B_k$, hence $n=\mu B_{k-1}$, $m=\mu A_{k-1}$.

3. THE STRUCTURE OF C(x) WHEN x IS A QUADRATIC IRRATIONALITY.

We show first that C(x) is finite when x is a quadratic irrationality.

LEMMA 2. If x belongs to a quadratic number field, then 0 $\mbox{$\not\in$} C(x)$ and $C_{\alpha}(x)$ and C(x) are finite.

This Lemma is essentially due to Lekkerkerker [5], see also Perron [6], p.6. The following proof contains an explicit representation of the elements of $C_{\mathbf{g}}(\mathbf{x})$.

PROOF. $\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{b}_0, \ \mathbf{b}_1, \dots]$ is represented in this case by a periodic continued fraction, i.e. $\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{b}_0, \dots, \mathbf{b}_{r-1}, \mathbf{p}_0, \overline{\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{k-1}}]$, $\mathbf{r} \geq 1$, $\mathbf{k} \geq 1$. It follows that $\mathbf{b}_{r+nk+\nu} = \mathbf{p}_{\nu}$ for $\nu = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$, $\mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{N}_0$, and if $\mathbf{x}_{\nu} = [\overline{\mathbf{p}_{\nu}}, \ \mathbf{p}_{\nu+1}, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{k-1}, \mathbf{p}_0, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{\nu-1}]$, then $\xi_{r+nk+\nu} = \mathbf{x}_{\nu}$.

It follows from (4) that $\rho_n = [b_n, b_{n-1}, \dots, b_1]$, hence $\rho_{r+nk+\nu-1} \longrightarrow [\overline{p_{\nu-1}, p_{\nu-2}, \dots, p_o, p_{k-1}, \dots, p_{\nu}}] = c_{\nu} \quad (n \to \infty) \text{ , and the statement of Lemma 2 follows from (3).}$

REMARK. It follows from a theorem of Galois ([7], §23) that $c_v = -\frac{1}{\overline{x}_v}$, where x_v is the conjugate of x_v . Hence, the elements of c_s are

$$\frac{(-1)^{r+\nu-1}}{x_{\nu}-\bar{x}_{\nu}} \quad \text{if } k \text{ is even} \quad , \quad \frac{\pm 1}{x_{\nu}-\bar{x}_{\nu}} \quad \text{if } k \text{ is odd.} \quad (21)$$

This formula leads to an even more explicit representation of the elements of $C_s^{(x)}$.

This representation uses the notation $A_{n,j}/B_{n,j}$ for the convergents of $\begin{bmatrix} b_j,b_{j+1},\dots \end{bmatrix}$ ([7], §5). Let A_n/B_n denote the convergents of $[\overline{p_0,\dots,p_{k-1}}]$. Then the elements of $C_s(x)$ are

$$\begin{cases} (-1)^{r+\nu-1} & \frac{B_{k-1,\nu}}{\sqrt{D}} & \text{if k is even , } \pm \frac{B_{k-1,\nu}}{\sqrt{D}} & \text{if k is odd ,} \\ v = 0, 1, \dots, k-1 & , D = (A_{k-1} + B_{k-2})^2 + 4(-1)^{k-1} & . \end{cases}$$
(22)

In fact, we have $x_{\nu} = \frac{A_{k-1,\nu}^{-B}_{k-2,\nu}^{+} \sqrt{D_{\nu}'}}{2B_{k-1,\nu}}$, $D_{\nu} = (A_{k-1,\nu}^{-1} + B_{k-2,\nu}^{-1})^2 + 4(-1)^{k-1}$ ([7], § 19). But $B_{i,j} = A_{i-1,j+1}$, $A_{i,j} = b_{j}A_{i-1,j+1}^{-1} + B_{i-1,j+1}^{-1}$ ([7], § 5), and it follows that

$$A_{k-1,\nu-1} + B_{k-2,\nu-1} = b_{\nu-1}A_{k-2,\nu} + B_{k-2,\nu} + A_{k-3,\nu} = b_{k-1+\nu}A_{k-2,\nu} + A_{k-3,\nu} + B_{k-2,\nu}$$

$$= A_{k-1,\nu} + B_{k-2,\nu} . \text{ Hence } D_{\nu} = D_{\nu}, \text{ and (22) follows.}$$

4. THE RELATION BETWEEN THREE CONSECUTIVE δ 's.

Formula (8) shows that b_{n+1} is a function of δ_{n-1} , δ_n , δ_{n+1} . The following Lemma shows that b_{n+1} is also a function of δ_{n-1} , δ_n alone. This fact is the key to the following considerations, which will show that the converse of Lemma 2 is also true.

LEMMA 3. For $n \ge 0$

$$b_{n+1} = \phi (\delta_{n-1}, 0; \delta_n)$$
, and $\phi (\delta_{n-1}, 0; \delta_n) \notin \mathbb{N}$. (23)

PROOF. Formulas (3), (6) and (8) imply

$$\xi_{n+1} = \frac{1}{\delta_n} - \frac{1}{\rho_n} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - 4\delta_n \delta_{n-1}}}{2\delta_n} = \phi (\delta_{n-1}, 0; \delta_n) \quad (n \ge 0)$$

and (23) follows from $\xi_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{n+1}, b_{n+2}, \dots \end{bmatrix}$, $b_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \xi_{n+1} \end{bmatrix}$ (note that ξ_{n+1} is irrational).

REMARK. Formulas (6) and (4) show that

$$\phi(\delta_{n+1}, 0; \delta_n) = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - 4\delta_n \delta_{n+1}}}{2\delta_n} = \rho_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{n+1}, b_n, \dots, b_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (n \ge 0)$$

and it follows

$$b_{n+1} = \phi(\delta_{n+1}, 0; \delta_n) , \phi(\delta_{n+1}, 0; \delta_n) \in \mathbb{N} ,$$
 (24)

if $n \ge 2$ or if n = 1, $b_1 > 1$.

The first formula (24) remains true for n = 0.

Lemma 3 shows that a (universal) function Ψ exists such that

$$b_{n+1} = \Psi(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}), \quad n \ge 0,$$
 (25)

and the remark shows that also $b_{n+1} = \Psi(\delta_n, \delta_{n+1})$ unless n=1, $b_1=1$, i.e. unless n=1, $\delta_0 > 1/2$.

It follows from (8) that $\Psi(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}) = \phi(\delta_{n-1}, \delta_{n+1}, \delta_n)$, hence there exists by (10) a function χ such that

$$\delta_{n+1} = \chi(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}) , \quad n \ge 0 , \qquad (26)$$

and similarly $\delta_{n-1} = \chi(\delta_n, \delta_{n+1})$ unless $n = 1, b_1 = 1$.

Using the function $\,\Psi\,$, we find explicitely

$$\delta_{n+1} = \chi(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}) = \frac{1}{4\delta_n} \left[1 - \left(2\delta_n \ \Psi(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}) - \sqrt{1 - 4\delta_{n-1}} \delta_n \right)^2 \right]$$
 (27)

The following theorem gives $\,\,\Psi\,\,$ in a more convenient form than Lemma 3.

THEOREM 2. Let
$$n \ge 0$$
 , $k_n = \left[\frac{1}{\delta_n}\right]$. Then $\delta_{n-1} \ne k_n (1-k_n \delta_n)$ and

$$b_{n+1} = \Psi(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}) = \begin{cases} k_n & \text{if } \delta_{n-1} \in [0, k_n(1-k_n\delta_n)) \\ \\ k_n-1 & \text{if } \delta_{n-1} \in (k_n(1-k_n\delta_n), (1-\delta_n)) \end{cases}$$

PROOF. Assume that $\delta_{n-1} = k_n (1-k_n \delta_n)$. Then

$$\phi(\delta_{n-1}, 0; \delta_n) = \frac{1 + \sqrt{(2\delta_n k_n - 1)^2}}{2\delta_n} = k_n$$
 (28)

(note that $2\delta_{n}^{k} > 1$) which contradicts (23).

Let $\delta_{n-1} \in [0, k_n(1-k_n\delta_n))$. Then by (10) and (28)

$$k_n + 1 > \frac{1}{\delta_n} = \phi(0,0;\delta_n) \ge \phi(\delta_{n-1},0;\delta_n) > \phi(k_n(1-k_n\delta_n),0;\delta_n) = k_n \text{ and } k_n = b_{n+1} \text{ follows from Lemma 3.}$$

Let $\delta_{n-1} \in (k_n(1-k_n\delta_n), 1-\delta_n)$ which implies $n \ge 1$ since $\delta_{-1} = 0$. Then, by (28), (10), (5) and (12)

$$\begin{array}{l} k_{n} = _{\varphi}(k_{n}(1-k_{n}\delta_{n}), \ 0; \ \delta_{n}) > _{\varphi}(\delta_{n-1},0;\delta_{n}) \geq _{\varphi}(1-\delta_{n},0;\delta_{n}) \\ \\ \geq _{\varphi}(0,0;\delta_{n}) \ - \ 1 = \frac{1}{\delta_{n}} \ - \ 1 > k_{n} \ - \ 1 \end{array} ,$$

and $k_n-1 = b_{n+1}$ follows from Lemma 3.

Figure 1 shows the areas of constancy for the function Y.

5. THE INFLUENCE OF $0 \notin C(x)$.

Our next step is to introduce the assumption 0 ξ C(x) , i.e. $\delta_n \geq \lambda > 0$, $n \in {\rm I\! N}$, for some λ into our considerations.

LEMMA 4. Let $0 \le \lambda \le 1/\sqrt{2}$.

If $n \geq 1$ and if δ_{n-1} and δ_{n+2} are $> \lambda$, then

⁴⁾ This interval is empty if $k_n = 1$.

$$\delta_{n} + \delta_{n+1} < \sqrt{1 - \lambda^{2}} \qquad . \tag{29}$$

PROOF. Our proof depends on the inequality

$$\phi(\lambda, \sqrt{1-\lambda^2}-z;z) \le 1$$
 if $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{1-\lambda^2} \le z < 1$, $4 \lambda z < 1$, (30)

In order to prove (30) we observe that

$$\sqrt{1-4\lambda z} \le \sqrt{1-2\lambda\sqrt{1-\lambda^{2}}} = \sqrt{(\sqrt{1-\lambda^{2}}-\lambda)^{2}} = \sqrt{1-\lambda^{2}}-\lambda,$$

$$\sqrt{1-4z}(\sqrt{1-\lambda^{2}}-z)} = \sqrt{(2z-\sqrt{1-\lambda^{2}})^{2}+\lambda^{2}} \le (2z-\sqrt{1-\lambda^{2}})+\lambda,$$

and (30) follows from

$$\phi(\lambda, \sqrt{1-\lambda^2} - z; z) \leq \frac{1}{2z} \left(\sqrt{1-\lambda^2} - \lambda + 2z - \sqrt{1-\lambda^2} + \lambda \right) = 1.$$

Assume that the assumptions of Lemma 4 hold and that $\delta_n + \delta_{n+1} \ge \sqrt{1-\lambda^2}$.

If
$$\delta_n \ge \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{1-\lambda^2}$$
, then by (8), (10) and (30)

$$b_{n+1} = \phi(\delta_{n-1}, \delta_{n+1}; \delta_n) < \phi(\lambda, \delta_{n+1}; \delta_n) \le \phi(\lambda, \sqrt{1-\lambda^2} - \delta_n; \delta_n) \le 1 ,$$

but $b_{n+1} \ge 1$.

Similarily, if $\delta_{n+1} \geq \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{1-\lambda^2}$,

$$b_{n+2} = \phi(\delta_n, \delta_{n+2}; \delta_{n+1}) < \phi(\lambda, \delta_n; \delta_{n+1}) \le \phi(\lambda, \sqrt{1-\lambda^2} - \delta_{n+1}; \delta_{n+1}) \le 1,$$

but $b_{n+2} \ge 1$.

REMARK. Formula (5) is for $n\geq 2$ a special case of (29) . If $\delta_n>\lambda$ for all n , then it follows form (29) that $2\lambda<\sqrt{1-\lambda^2}$, hence $\lambda<1/\sqrt{5}$.

Lemma 4 will be used now to show that the points (δ_n, δ_{n-1}) keep a certain distance from the discontinuities of Ψ if $0 \notin C(x)$. We introduce the notation

$$\eta_n = k_n (1 - k_n \delta_n) ,$$

and we assume that $\delta_n>\lambda>0$ for some $\lambda>0$ and all $n\in \mathbb{N}$. Let $\delta_n=1/2$ for some fixed $n\geq 2$. Formula (8) and Theorem 2 imply

$$\sqrt{1-4\delta_{\mathbf{n}}\delta_{\mathbf{n}-1}} + \sqrt{1-4\delta_{\mathbf{n}}\delta_{\mathbf{n}+1}} = \begin{cases} 2 \delta_{\mathbf{n}}\mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{n}} & \text{if } \delta_{\mathbf{n}-1} < \eta_{\mathbf{n}} \\ 2 \delta_{\mathbf{n}}\mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{n}} - 2\delta_{\mathbf{n}} & \text{if } \delta_{\mathbf{n}-1} > \eta_{\mathbf{n}} \end{cases}$$
(31)

In what follows we need the inequality $2^{\frac{1}{6}} k_n > \frac{2k}{k_n + 1} \ge \frac{4}{3}$ (note that $k_n \ge 2$) and the formulas $1-4\delta_n \eta = \left(2 \delta_n k_n - 1\right)^2$, $1-4 \delta_n (1-\delta_n) = \left(1-2\delta_n\right)^2$.

Let $\delta_{n-1} > \eta_n$, Then it follows from (31) that

$$\sqrt{1} - \sqrt{1-4\delta_n \delta_{n+1}} = \sqrt{1-4\delta_n \delta_{n-1}} - \sqrt{1-4\delta_n \eta_n}$$

hence (use $\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b} = (a-b) / (\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b})$)

$$\frac{\lambda}{2} \le \frac{\delta_{n+1}}{2} \le \frac{\delta_{n+1}}{1 + \sqrt{1 - 4\delta_n \delta_{n+1}}} = \frac{\eta_n - \delta_{n-1}}{\sqrt{1 - 4\delta_n \delta_{n-1}} + (2\delta_n k_n - 1)} \le \frac{\eta_n - \delta_{n-1}}{1/3}.$$

It follows that

$$\delta_{n-1} \leq \eta_n - \frac{\lambda}{6} \quad . \tag{32}$$

Let $~\delta_{~n-1}^{} > ~\eta_{~n}^{}$. Then it follows from (31) that

$$\sqrt{1-4\delta_n\eta_n} - \sqrt{1-4\delta_n\delta_{n-1}} = \sqrt{1-4\delta_n\delta_{n+1}} - \sqrt{1-4\delta_n(1-\delta_n)},$$

hence, by Lemma 4

$$\frac{\delta_{n-1}^{-\eta_n}}{1/3} \geq \frac{\delta_{n-1}^{-\eta_n}}{2\delta_n k_n^{-1+} \sqrt{1-4}\delta_n \delta_{n-1}} = \frac{1-(\delta_n^{-}+\delta_{n+1}^{-})}{1-4\delta_n \delta_{n+1}^{-}+(1-2\delta_n^{-})} \geq \frac{1-\sqrt{1-\lambda^2}}{2} \quad .$$

It follows that

$$\delta_{n-1} \ge \eta_n + \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - \lambda^2}}{6}$$
 (33)

Formula (4) implies that all points (δ_n, δ_{n-1}) , $n \ge 2$, are in a certain open triangle, and some straight lines inside of this triangle are excluded by Theorem 2 (cf. figure 1).

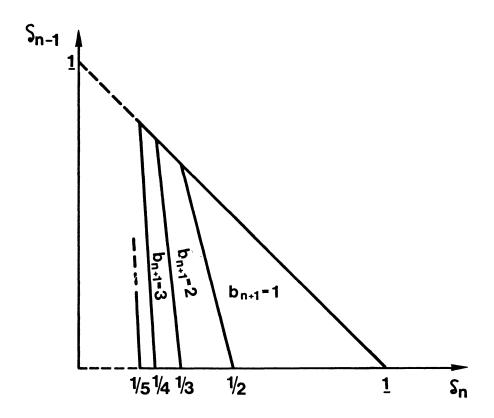


Fig. 1

Moreover, if $\delta_n > \lambda > 0$, then (29), (32) and (33) introduce some additional restriction for $(\delta_n, \ \delta_{n-1})$. To describe the remaining region we introduce the following set.

Let $M(\lambda)$, $0 \le \lambda < 1/\sqrt{5}$, denote the (open) set of points (x, y) with the properties

$$x > \lambda$$
, $y > \lambda$, $x + y < \sqrt{1 - \lambda^2}$

and for x < 1/2

$$y < \left[\frac{1}{x}\right] (1-x\left[\frac{1}{x}\right]) - \frac{\lambda}{6} \qquad \text{or} \qquad y > \left[\frac{1}{x}\right] \cdot (1-x\left[\frac{1}{x}\right]) + \frac{1-\sqrt{1-\lambda^2}}{6}$$

(Figure 2 illustrates $M(\lambda)$ for $\lambda = 1/5$.)

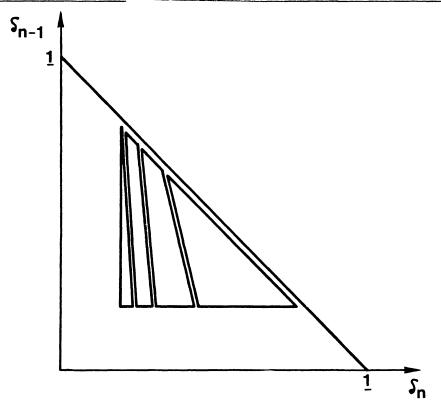


Fig. 2

If $\delta_n > \lambda \ge 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}) \in M(\lambda)$ for $n \ge 3$ by (29), (32) and (33). The combination of this result with the results of section 4 leads immediately to

THEOREM 3. There are (universal) functions Ψ and χ , defined on M(0) , such that $b_{n+1}=\Psi(\delta_n,\ \delta_{n-1})$, $\delta_{n+1}=\chi(\delta_n,\ \delta_{n-1})$, $n\geq 0$.

The functions Ψ and χ are continuous on every $M(\lambda)$. $\lambda > 0$. If $\delta_n > \lambda > 0 \quad (\lambda < 1/\sqrt{5}) \quad \text{for all} \quad n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ , then } (\delta_n, \ \delta_{n-1}) \in M(\lambda) \quad \text{for } n \geq 3.$

6. THE CONVERSE OF LEMMA 2.

We use Theorem 3 to prove the following result of Lekkerkerker [5].

THEOREM 4. If $C_s(x)$ is finite and $0 \notin C_s(x)$, then x belongs to a quadratic number field.

PROOF. Let $\alpha_{\bf i}$ denote the elements of C(x), and let A be the set to all pairs $(\alpha_{\bf i}, \, \alpha_{\bf j})$ with $(\delta_{\bf n}, \, \delta_{{\bf n}-1}) \, \div \, (\alpha_{\bf i}, \, \alpha_{\bf j})$ on a subsequence. Since $0 \notin C(s)$, there is some $\lambda > 0$ such that $(\delta_{\bf n}, \, \delta_{{\bf n}-1}) \in M(\lambda)$ for all large ${\bf n}$, and ${\bf a} \in M(\lambda)$ for every ${\bf a} \in A$.

If $\mathbf{a} = (\alpha_{\mathbf{i}}, \alpha_{\mathbf{j}}) \in A$ then $\mathbf{a}' = (\chi(\alpha_{\mathbf{i}}, \alpha_{\mathbf{j}}), \alpha_{\mathbf{i}}) \in A$ since $\delta_{\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{k}}} \rightarrow \alpha_{\mathbf{i}}$, $\delta_{\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{k}}-1} \rightarrow \alpha_{\mathbf{j}}$ implies $\delta_{\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{k}}+1} = \chi(\delta_{\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{k}}}, \delta_{\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{k}}-1}) \rightarrow (\alpha_{\mathbf{i}}, \alpha_{\mathbf{j}})$ by Theorem 3.

We call a' the successor of a. The set A is finite, hence if a \in A then one of its later successors is again a .

Let $U(a,\varepsilon) = \{(x,y) \mid | (x,y) - a | < \varepsilon \}$, $a \in A$. Choose $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $u(a,\varepsilon) \subseteq M(\lambda)$ for every $a \in A$, $U(a,\varepsilon) \cap U(b,\varepsilon) = \emptyset$ if $a \neq b$.

It follows that Ψ is constant on every $U(a, \epsilon)$.

Choose $\varepsilon^* \in (0, \varepsilon)$ such that for every $a \in A$

$$\left\{ (\chi(x,y), x) \middle| (x,y) \in U(a,\epsilon^*) \right\} \subseteq U(a',\epsilon) . \tag{34}$$

Let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ be so large that $(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}) = U(\mathbf{a}, \epsilon^*)$ for exactly one $\mathbf{a} \in A$ depending on $n \ge N$. This establishes a mapping $\mathbf{a} = F(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1})$ for every $n \ge N$ which is "successor preserving", i.e. if $F(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}) = \mathbf{a}$ then $F(\delta_{n+1}, \delta_n) = \mathbf{a}'$. Indeed, if $F(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}) = \mathbf{a}$, i.e. $(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}) \in U(\mathbf{a}, \epsilon^*)$, then $(\delta_{n+1}, \delta_n) = (\chi(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}), \delta_n) \subseteq U(\mathbf{a}', \epsilon)$ by (34), hence $(\delta_{n+1}, \delta_n) \in U(\mathbf{a}', \epsilon^*)$ since $n \ge N$.

Take a fixed $n \ge N$, and let $a = F(\delta_n, \delta_{n-1})$. Consider a sequence of successors $a = a^{(0)}$, a', a'',..., $a^{(\ell)}$, $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$, with $a^{(\ell)} = a$. It follows that

$$F(\delta_{n+\nu+k\ell}, \delta_{n-1+\nu+k\ell}) = a^{(\nu)}$$
, $\nu = 0, 1, ..., \ell-1, k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ (35)

Since Ψ is constant on every $U(a, \varepsilon^*)$, it follows from (35) that $b_{n+\nu+k\ell+1} = \Psi(\delta_{n+\nu+k\ell}, \delta_{n+\nu+k\ell-1})$ is independent of k, i.e. the continued fraction for x is periodic. This proves Theorem 4.

REMARK. As conclusion we explain our results in the simplest case $x = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2 = [1,1,...]$. Here C(x) consists of the single point $1/\sqrt{5}$ by (22), and D(x) consists of the points $|\lambda^2 - \lambda\mu - \mu^2|/\sqrt{5}$ with integral $(\lambda,\mu) \neq (0,0)$ by (16). It is well-known (see [3], p. 554) that

$$\lambda^2 - \lambda \mu - \mu^2 = (\lambda - \mu \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}) (\lambda - \mu \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2})$$

represents exactly the integers for which the exponents in the prime factorization must be even for all primes \equiv 2 or 3 mod 5 . So

$$D(x) = \{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{4}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{5}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{9}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{11}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{16}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{19}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{20}{\sqrt{5}}, \dots \}$$

Since this set contains only one element ϵ (0,1) it determines C(x) uniquely. Furthermore, given $C(y) = \{ 1/\sqrt{5} \}$, all possible y which produce this set are given by integral transformations $y = \frac{ax+b}{cx+d}$, ad $-bc = \pm 1$. This follows because the proof of Theorem 4 works with $\ell = 1$, so the continued

fraction for y has period 1 (the terms before the period being of no influence with quotients 1 by (22).

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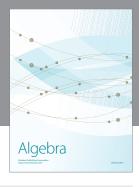
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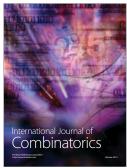














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