# REAL NUMBERS THAT HAVE GOOD DIOPHANTINE APPROXIMATIONS OF THE FORM $r_{n+1} / r_{n}$ 

## Andreas Dress \& Florian Luca (Bielefeld \& Morelia)


#### Abstract

In this note, we show that if $\alpha$ is a real number such that there exist a constant $c$ and a sequence of non-zero integers $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ with $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left|r_{n}\right|=\infty$ for which $\left|\alpha-\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}\right|<\frac{c}{\left|r_{n}\right|^{2}}$ holds for all $n \geq 0$, then either $\alpha \in \mathrm{Z} \backslash\{0, \pm 1\}$ or $\alpha$ is a quadratic unit. Our result complements results obtained by P. Kiss who established the converse in Period. Math. Hungar. 11 (1980), 281-187.


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## 1. Introduction

Let $\alpha$ be a real number. In this paper, we deal with the topic of approximating $\alpha$ by rationals. It is well known that there exist a constant $c$ and two sequences of integers $\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ and $\left(v_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ with $v_{n}>0$ for all $n \geq 0$ and $v_{n}$ diverging to infinity (with $n$ ) such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha-\frac{u_{n}}{v_{n}}\right| \leq \frac{c}{v_{n}^{2}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for all $n \geq 0$. By work of Hurwitz (see [5]), one can take $c:=1 / \sqrt{5}$ and the above constant is well known to be best-possible for $\alpha:=\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$.
Several papers in the literature deal with the question of approximating $\alpha$ by rationals $u_{n} / v_{n}$ requiring $u_{n}$ and $v_{n}$ to satisfy (1) as well as some additional conditions. For example, if $\alpha$ is irrational and $a, b$ and $k$ are integers with $k>1$, then there exist a constant $c$ and two sequences of integers $\left(u_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ and $\left(v_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ with $v_{n}>0$ and $v_{n}$ diverging to infinity such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha-\frac{u_{n}}{v_{n}}\right|<\frac{c}{v_{n 2}^{2}} \quad \text { and } \quad u_{r 2} \equiv a(\bmod k), \quad v_{n} \equiv b(\bmod k) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

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holds for all $n \geq 0$. The best-possible constant $c$ in (2) is $k^{2} / 4$ in case $a$ and $b$ are not both divisible by $k$ (see [3] and [4]).

If $\alpha$ is algebraic and $\mathcal{P}$ is a fixed finite set of prime numbers, then Ridout [10] inferred from Roth's work [11] that one cannot approximate $\alpha$ too well by rational numbers $u / v$ where either $u$ or $v$ is divisible only by primes from $\mathcal{P}$. More precisely, for every given $\epsilon>0$, the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha-\frac{u}{v}\right|<\frac{1}{v^{1+\epsilon}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

has only finitely many integer solutions $(u, v)$ with $v>0$ and either $u$ or $v$ divisible by primes from $\mathcal{P}$, only.

A different type of question was considered by P. Kiss in [6] aud [7] (see also [8] and [9]). In [6], it was shown that if $\alpha$ is a quadratic unit with $|\alpha|>1$, then there exist a constant $c$ and a sequence of integers $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ with $\left|r_{n}\right|$ diverging to infinity such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha-\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}\right|<\frac{c}{\left|r_{n}\right|^{2}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for all $n \geq 0$. In [7] it was shown that, in fact, a statement similar to (4) holds for both $\alpha$ and $\alpha^{s}$ where $s \geq 2$ is some positive integer: There exist a constant $c$ and a sequence of integers $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ with $\left|r_{n}\right|$ diverging to infinity such that both

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha-\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}\right|<\frac{c}{\left|r_{n}\right|^{2}} \quad \text { and } \quad\left|\alpha^{s}-\frac{r_{n+s}}{r_{n}}\right|<\frac{c}{\left|r_{n}\right|^{2}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

hold for all $n \geq 0$.
An explicit description of a sequence $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ satisfying inequalities (5) above was also given in [7]: Let

$$
f=X^{2}+A X+B \quad(A, B \in \mathbf{Z})
$$

be the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$ over $\mathbf{Q}$. Let $\beta$ be the other root of $f$. Since $\alpha$ is a unit, $|B|=|\alpha \beta|=1$ must hold which implies that the sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{n}=\frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha-\beta}, \quad n \geq 1 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

fulfills the inequalities (5) for all $n$ with $c:=2 \sum_{i=0}^{s-1}|\alpha|^{i}|\beta|^{s-1-i}$.
One may ask if one can characterize all real numbers $\alpha$ for which there exist a constant $c$ and a sequence of integers $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ with $\left|r_{n}\right|$ diverging to infinity such that inequality (4) or, respectively, inequalities (5) hold for all $n \geq 0$. From the above remarks, we saw that quadratic units $\alpha$ with $|\alpha|>1$ have these properties. Moreover, the sequence $r_{n}:=\alpha^{n}(n \geq 1)$ shows that integers $\alpha$ with $|\alpha|>1$ also belong to this class. It seems natural therefore to inquire if there are any other candidates $\alpha$ satisfying the above conditions. The perhaps not too surprising, answer is no. Our exact result is the following.

Theorem 1. Let $\alpha$ be a real number.
(i) Assume that there exist $\epsilon>0$ and a sequence of integers $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ with $\left|r_{n}\right|$ diverging to infinity such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha-\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}\right|<\frac{1}{\left|r_{n}\right|^{\frac{3}{2}+\epsilon}} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for all $n \geq 0$. Then, $\alpha$ is a real algebraic integer of absolute value larger than 1 and of degree at most 2. Moreover, if $\alpha$ is irrational, then the absolute value of its norm is smaller than $\sqrt{|\alpha|}$.
(ii) Assume, moreover, that there exist a constant $c$ and a sequence of integers $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ with $\left|r_{n}\right|$ diverging to infinity such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha-\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}\right|<\frac{c}{\left|r_{n}\right|^{2}} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for all $n \geq 0$. Then $\alpha$ is a quadratic unit or a rational integer different from 0 or $\pm 1$.

The following result characterizes real numbers $\alpha$ for which - as in (5) - two different powers can be well approximated by rationals.

Theorem 2. Let $\alpha$ be a real number. Assume that there exist two coprime positive integers $s_{1}$ and $s_{2}$, two positive integers $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$, a real number $\epsilon>0$, and a sequence of integers $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ with $\left|r_{n}\right|$ diverging to infinity with $n$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha^{s_{i}}-\frac{r_{n+t_{i}}}{r_{n}}\right|<\frac{1}{\left|r_{n}\right|^{\frac{3}{2}+\epsilon}} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

hold for all $n \geq 0$ and for both $i=1$ and 2. Then, either $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z} \backslash\{0, \pm 1\}$ or $\alpha$ is quadratic irrational with norm smaller than $\sqrt{|\alpha|}$ in absolute value. If moreover $\alpha$ is irrational and there exists a constant $c$ with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\alpha^{s_{1}}-\frac{r_{n+t_{1}}}{r_{n}}\right|<\frac{c}{r_{n}^{2}}, \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $\alpha$ is a quadratic unit.
The proofs of both Theorems 1 and 2 are based on the following result which follows right away from our recent work [1] and [2].

Theorem DL. Let $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ be a sequence of integers with $\left|r_{n}\right|$ diverging to infinity.
(i) Assume that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varlimsup_{\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}} \frac{\left|r_{n}^{2}-r_{n+1} r_{n-1}\right|}{\sqrt{\left|r_{n}\right|}}<\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, the sequence $\left(\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is convergent to a limit $\alpha$ that is a non-zero algebraic integer of degree at most 2. If $\alpha$ is irrational, then its norm is smaller than $\sqrt{|\alpha|}$. Moreover, there exists $n_{0} \in \mathbf{N}$ such that $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq n_{0}}$ is binary recurrent.
(ii) If

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|r_{n}^{2}-r_{n+1} r_{n-1}\right|<c \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for some constant $c$ and all $n$, then $\alpha$ is a quadratic unit or a non-zero integer.
We point out that in our work [1] and [2], we gave more precise descriptions for both the sequences $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ satisfying (11) or (12), respectively, and the limit $\alpha=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}$, but the above Theorem DL suffices for our present purposes.
We now proceed to the proofs of Theorems 1 and 2 .

## 2. The Proofs

Proof of Theorem 1. We will prove (i) in detail and we will only sketch the proof of (ii).
(i) By replacing the sequence $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n}$ by the sequence $\left((-1)^{n} r_{n}\right)_{n}$ and $\alpha$ by $-\alpha$ if $\alpha<0$, we may assume $\alpha \geq 0$ and $r_{n}>0$ for all $n \geq 0$. By letting $n$ tend to infinity in (7), we get $\alpha=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}$. Since $r_{n}$ diverges to infinity, we must have $\alpha \geq 1$. We now show that $\alpha>1$. Indeed, if $\alpha=1$, then inequality (7) becomes

$$
\left|1-\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}\right|<\frac{1}{r_{n}^{\frac{3}{2}+\epsilon}}
$$

or

$$
\left|r_{n+1}-r_{n}\right|<\frac{1}{r_{n}^{\frac{1}{2}}+\epsilon} \leq 1
$$

therefore $r_{n+1}=r_{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$. This contradicts the fact that $r_{n}$ diverges to infinity. Hence, $\alpha>1$.

Now let $\delta$ be a real number with $1<\delta<\alpha$, note that $\gamma:=2 \alpha-\delta$ exceeds $\alpha$, and choose $n_{0}$ such that

$$
r_{n}^{\frac{3}{2}+\epsilon}>\frac{1}{\alpha-\delta}
$$

holds for all $n \geq n_{0}$. From inequality (7), we get that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta r_{n}<r_{n+1}<\gamma r_{n} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for all $n \geq n_{0}$. From inequalities (7) for $n$ and $n+1$ and the triangular inequality, we get

$$
\frac{\left|r_{n+1}^{2}-r_{n} r_{n+2}\right|}{r_{n} r_{n+1}}=\left|\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}-\frac{r_{n+2}}{r_{n+1}}\right|<\left|\alpha-\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}\right|+\left|\alpha-\frac{r_{n+2}}{r_{n+1}}\right|<\left(\frac{1}{r_{n}^{\frac{3}{2}+\epsilon}}+\frac{1}{r_{n+1}^{\frac{3}{2}+\epsilon}}\right),
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\left|r_{n+1}^{2}-r_{n+2} r_{n}\right|}{\sqrt{r_{n+1}}}<\frac{1}{r_{n}^{\epsilon}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}}+\frac{1}{r_{n+1}^{\epsilon}} \cdot\left(\frac{r_{n}}{r_{n+1}}\right) . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using inequality (13) in (14), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\left|r_{n+1}^{2}-r_{n+2} r_{n}\right|}{\sqrt{r_{n+1}}}<\frac{c_{1}}{r_{n}^{\epsilon}}+\frac{c_{2}}{r_{n+1}^{\epsilon}} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $n \geq n_{0}$, where $c_{1}=\sqrt{\gamma}$ and $c_{2}=1 / \delta$. We now let $n$ tend to infinity in (15) and get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left|r_{n}^{2}-r_{n+1} r_{n-1}\right|}{\sqrt{r_{n}}}=0<\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consequently, the conclusion of part (i) of Theorem 1 follows from part (i) of Theorem DL.

The remaining assertions of part (ii) now follow from putting $\epsilon:=1 / 2$ in (15) and invoking $r_{n+1} / r_{n}<\gamma$ as well as part (ii) of Theorem DL.

Theorem 1 is therefore established.
Remark 1. The occurence of $\epsilon>0$ in the exponent in inequality (7) is unnecessary. A closer investigation of the arguments used in the proof of Theorem 1 shows that the conclusion of part (i) of Theorem 1 remains valid if inequality (7) is replaced by the weaker inequality

$$
\left|\alpha-\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_{n}}\right|<\frac{1-\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}(\sqrt{|\alpha|}+1 /|\alpha|)} \cdot \frac{1}{r_{n}^{\frac{3}{2}}} .
$$

Remark 2. Assume that $\alpha$ is a real number such that the hypotheses of either part (i9 or part (ii) of Theorem 1 are fulfilled. Using the full strength of our results from [1] and [2], we can infer that if $\alpha$ is an integer, then $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is a geometrical progression of ratio $\alpha$ from some $n$ on. However, if $\alpha$ is quadratic and the hypotheses of part (ii) of Theorem 1 are fulfilled, we can only infer that $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is binary recurrent from some $n$ on, and that its charateristic equation is precisely the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$ over $\mathbf{Q}$. However, we cannot infer that $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ is the

Lucas sequence of the first kind for $\alpha$ given by formula (6), mostly because the constant $c$ appearing in inequality (8) is arbitrary. Of course, if one imposes that the constant $c$ appearing in inequality (8) is small enough (for example, $c=1 / 2$ ), then the rational numbers $r_{n+1} / r_{n}$ are exactly the convergents of $\alpha$, therefore $r_{n}$ is indeed given by formula (6) for all $n$ (up to some linear shift in the index $n$ ).

Proof of Theorem 2. If one replaces the sequence $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ by the sequence $\left(R_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}=\left(r_{n t_{1}}\right)_{n \geq 0}$, then the first inequality (9) together with part (i) of Theorem 1 show that $\alpha^{s_{1}}$ is an algebraic integer, different than 0 or $\pm 1$, of degree at most 2. Similarly, if one replaces the sequence $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ by the sequence $\left(R_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}=\left(r_{n t_{2}}\right)_{n \geq 0}$, then the second part of inequality (9) together with part (ii) of Theorem 1 show that $\alpha^{s_{2}}$ is an algebraic integer, different that 0 or $\pm 1$, of degree at most 2.

From here on, all we need to establish is that $\alpha$ is itself algebraic of degree at most 2. Assume that this is not so and let $K:=\mathbf{Q}[\alpha]$ and $K_{i}:=\mathbf{Q}\left[\alpha^{s_{i}}\right]$ for $i=1,2$. Since $s_{1}$ and $s_{2}$ are coprime, we get that $K=\mathbf{Q}\left[\alpha^{s_{1}}, \alpha^{s_{2}}\right]$. Moreover, we must have $\left[K_{i}: \mathrm{Q}\right]=2$ for both $i=1$ and 2 , i.e. $K$ is a biquadratic real extension of $\mathbf{Q}$ and $\operatorname{Gal}(K / \mathbf{Q}) \cong \mathbf{Z}_{2} \oplus \mathbf{Z}_{2}$. Hence, there exist two non-trivial elements $\sigma_{1}$ and $\sigma_{2}$ in $\operatorname{Gal}(K / \mathbf{Q})$ with $\sigma_{i}\left(\alpha^{s}\right)=\alpha^{s}$, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
1=\frac{\sigma_{i}\left(n^{s_{i}}\right)}{n^{s_{2}}}=\left(\frac{\sigma_{i}(a)}{n}\right)^{s_{i}} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i=1$, 2. Since $K$ is a real field and $\sigma_{i}$ is non-trivial, formula (17) implies that $\sigma_{i}(\alpha)=-\alpha$ for $i=1,2$. Hence, $\sigma_{1}(\alpha)=\sigma_{2}(\alpha)$, which implies $\sigma_{1}=\sigma_{2}$. But this is a contradiction. The remaining of the assertions of Theorem 2 follow from Theorem 1.

Theorem 2 is therefore established.

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## Andreas Dress

Mathematics Department
Bielefeld University
Postfach 100131
33501 Bielefeld, Germany
e-mail: dress@mathematik.uni-bielefeld.de

## Florian Luca

Instituto de Matemáticas de la UNAM
Campus Morelia
Apartado Postal 61-3 (Xangari), CP 58089
Morelia, Michoácan, Mexico
e-mail: fluca@matmor.unam.mx

