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POLYNOMIAL CONTINUED FRACTIONS

D. BOWMAN AND J. MC LAUGHLIN

ABSTRACT. Continued fractions whose elements are polynomial sequences have been carefully studied mostly in the cases where the degree of the numerator polynomial is less than or equal to two and the degree of the denominator polynomial is less than or equal to one. Here we study cases of higher degree for both numerator and denominator polynomials, with particular attention given to cases in which the degrees are equal. We extend work of Ramanujan on continued fractions with rational limits and also consider cases where the limits are irrational.

1. INTRODUCTION

A polynomial continued fraction is a continued fraction $K_{n=1}^{\infty}a_n/b_n$ where a_n and b_n are polynomials in n. Most well known continued fractions are of this type. For example the first continued fractions giving values for π (due to Lord Brouncker, first published in [10]) and e([3]) are of this type:

(1.1)
$$\frac{4}{\pi} = 1 + \mathop{K}\limits_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2n-1)^2}{2},$$

(1.2)
$$e = 2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\infty}{K} \frac{n}{n+1}}$$

Here we use the standard notations

$$\frac{{}_{n=1}^{N} \frac{a_{n}}{b_{n}} := \frac{a_{1}}{b_{1} + \frac{a_{2}}{b_{2} + \frac{a_{3}}{b_{3} + \ldots + \frac{a_{N}}{b_{N}}}} = \frac{a_{1}}{b_{1} + \frac{a_{2}}{b_{2} + \frac{a_{3}}{b_{3} + \ldots + \frac{a_{N}}{b_{N}}}}.$$

We write A_N/B_N for the above finite continued fraction written as a rational function of the variables $a_1, ..., a_N, b_1, ..., b_N$. By $K_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n/b_n$ we mean the limit of the sequence $\{A_n/B_n\}$ as n goes to infinity, if the limit exists.

The first systematic treatment of this type of continued fraction seems to be in Perron [7] where degrees through two for a_n and degree one for b_n are

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studied. Lorentzen and Waadeland [6] also study these cases in detail and they evaluate all such continued fractions in terms of hypergeometric series. There is presently no such systematic treatment for cases of higher degree in the and examples in the literature are accordingly scarcer. Of particular interest are cases where the degree of a_n is less than or equal to the degree of b_n . These cases are interesting from a number theoretic standpoint since the values of the continued fraction can then be approximated exceptionally well by rationals and irrationality measures may then be given. When the degrees are equal, the value may be rational or irrational and certainly the latter when the first differing coefficient is larger in b_n . (Here we count the first coefficient as the coefficient of the largest degree term.) Irrationality follows from the criterion given by Tietze, extending the famous Theorem of Legendre (see Perron [7], pp. 252-253) :

Tietze's Criterion:

Let $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of integers and $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of positive integers, with $a_n \neq 0$ for any n. If there exists a positive integer N_0 such that

(1.3)
$$\begin{cases} b_n \ge |a_n| \\ b_n \ge |a_n| + 1, \text{ for } a_{n+1} < 0, \end{cases}$$

for all $n \ge N_0$ then $K_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n/b_n$ converges and it's limit is irrational.

It would seem from the literature that finding cases of equal degrees or even close degrees is difficult. If one picks a typical continued fraction from published tables, the degree of the numerator tends to be twice that of the denominator. One easy way in which this can arise is when the continued fraction is equal to a series after using the Euler transformation:

(1.4)
$$\sum_{n\geq 0} a_n = a_0 + \frac{a_1}{1+} \frac{-a_2}{a_1+a_2+} \frac{-a_1a_3}{a_2+a_3+} \frac{-a_2a_4}{a_3+a_4+} \frac{-a_3a_5}{a_4+a_5+\dots}$$

If one side of this equality converges, then so does the other as the nth approximants are equal. The Euler transformation is easily proved by induction.

In this formula, if the terms of the series are rational functions of the index of fixed degree, then in the continued fraction after simplification, one will get the degrees of the numerators to be at least twice that of the denominators. The continued fraction for π given by (1.1) is an example of this phenomenon. Another example of this is the series definition of Catalan's constant:

$$C = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k+1)^2}$$

which, by (1.4), transforms into the continued fraction given by

$$C = \frac{1}{1+} \frac{1^4}{8+} \frac{3^4}{16+} \frac{5^4}{24+\dots}.$$

Here the degree of the numerator is four times that of the denominator. This continued fraction appears to be new.

Taking contractions of continued fractions (see, for example, Jones and Thron [5], pp. 38-43) also leads to a relative increase in the degree of the numerator over that of the denominator. For example, forming the even part of the continued fraction will cause a continued fraction with equal degrees to be transformed into one with twice the degree in the numerator as the denominator.

The even part of the continued fraction $K_{n=1}^{\infty}a_n/b_n$ is equal to

$$\frac{a_1b_2}{a_2+b_1b_2+} \frac{-a_2a_3b_4}{a_3b_4+b_2(a_4+b_3b_4)+} \\ \frac{-a_4a_5b_2b_6}{a_5b_6+b_4(a_6+b_5a_6)+} \frac{-a_6a_7b_4b_8}{a_7b_8+b_6(a_8+b_7a_8)+\dots}.$$

Other work on polynomial continued fractions was done by Ramanujan [1], chapter 12. He gave several cases of equal degree in which the sum is rational. For example, Ramanujan gave the following: If x is not a negative integer then

(1.5)
$$K_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x+n}{x+n-1} = 1$$

Despite the simplicity of this formula, Ramanujan did not give a proof: the first proof seems to be have been given by Berndt [1], Page 112.

In this paper we examine a large number of infinite classes of polynomial continued fractions in which the degrees are equal, or close. Our results follow from a theorem of Pincherle and a variant of the Euler transformation discussed above. We obtain generalizations of Ramanujan's results in which the degrees are equal and the values rational as well as cases of equal degree with irrational limits. Many of our theorems give infinite families of continued fractions. While we concentrate on polynomial continued fractions, many of the results hold in more general cases. Here are some special cases of our general results (proofs are given throughout the paper) :

(1.6)
$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{n^{\alpha}+1}{n^{\alpha}} = 1, \text{ for } \alpha > 0.$$

(1.7)
$$1 - \frac{1}{1 + \underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{n^2}{n^2 + 2n}} = J_0(2),$$

where $J_0(x)$ is the Bessel function of the first kind of order 0.

(1.8)
$$2 + \frac{\kappa}{K} \frac{2n^2 + n}{2n^2 + 5n + 2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} \csc(\sqrt{2}) - 1}.$$

(Notice that the irrationality criterion mentioned above means that the last two quantities on the right are irrational)

(1.9)
$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{n^{12} + 2n^{11} + n^{10} + 4n + 5}{n^{12} + 4n - 4} = 4.$$

(1.10)
$$\underset{n=2}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{6n^7 + 6n^6 + 2n^5 + 3n + 2}{6n^7 - 6n^6 + 2n^5 + 3n - 5} = \frac{19}{7}.$$

(1.11)
$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{3n^6 - 3n^4 + n^3 + 6n^2 + 6n - 1}{3n^6 - 9n^5 + 6n^4 + n^3 + 6n^2 - 12n - 2} = 1.$$

2. Infinite Polynomial Continued Fractions with Rational Limits

In this section we derive some general results about the convergence of polynomial continued fractions in some infinite families and give some examples of how these results can be used to find the limit of such continued fractions. Many of the results in this paper are consequences of the following theorem of Pincherle [9]:

Theorem 1. (Pincherle) Let $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{G_n\}_{n=-1}^{\infty}$ be sequences of real or complex numbers satisfying $a_n \neq 0$ for $n \geq 1$ and for all $n \geq 1$,

(2.1)
$$G_n = a_n G_{n-2} + b_n G_{n-1}.$$

Let $\{B_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ denote the denominator convergents of the continued fraction $\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{a_n}{b_n}$.

If
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$$
 then $\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{a_n}{b_n}$ converges and its limit is $-G_0/G_{-1}$.

Proof. See, for example, Lorentzen and Waadeland [6], page 202.

For many sequences it may be difficult to decide whether the condition $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$ is satisfied. Below are some easily proven properties governing the growth of the B_n 's which will be useful later.

(i) Let a_n and b_n be non-constant polynomials in n such that $a_n \ge 1$, $b_n \ge 1$, for $n \ge 1$ and suppose b_n is a polynomial of degree k. If the leading coefficient of b_n is D, then given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a positive constant $C_1 = C_1(\epsilon)$ such that $B_n \ge C_1(|D|/(1+\epsilon))^n (n!)^k$.

(ii) If a_n and b_n are positive numbers ≥ 1 , then there exists a positive constant C_3 such that $B_n \geq C_3 \phi^n$ for $n \geq 1$, where ϕ is the golden ratio $(1 + \sqrt{5})/2$.

Corollary 1. If m is a positive integer and b_n is any polynomial of degree ≥ 1 such that $b_n \geq 1$ for $n \geq 1$, then

$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}}\frac{mb_n+m^2}{b_n}=m$$

Proof. With $a_n = mb_n + m^2$, for $n \ge 1$, and $G_n = (-1)^{n+1}m^{n+1}$, for $n \ge -1$, $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{G_n\}_{n=-1}^{\infty}$ satisfy equation (2.1). By (i) above

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} G_n / B_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} (-1)^{n+1} m^{n+1} / B_n = 0 \Longrightarrow \underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = -G_0 / G_{-1} = m.$$

A special case is where m = 1, in which case $|G_n| = 1$, for all n and all that is necessary is that $\lim_{n\to\infty} B_n = \infty$. The following generalization of the result (1.5) of Ramanujan, for positive numbers greater than 1 follows easily:

If $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is any sequence of positive numbers with $b_n \ge 1$ for $n \ge 1$ then

$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}}\frac{b_n+1}{b_n} = 1.$$

Letting $b_n = n^{\alpha}$, $\alpha > 0$, gives (1.6) in the introduction.¹

Entry 12 from the chapter on continued fractions in Ramanujan's second notebook [1], page 118, follows as a consequence of the above theorem:

Corollary 2. If x and a are complex numbers, where $a \neq 0$ and $x \neq -ka$, where k is a positive integer, then

$$\frac{x+a}{a+\underset{n=1}{\infty}{\frac{(x+na)^2-a^2}{a}}} = 1.$$

 \boldsymbol{r}

Proof. Note that

$$\frac{x+a}{a+\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}}\frac{(x+na)^2-a^2}{a}} = \frac{\frac{x}{a}+1}{1+\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}}\frac{\left(\frac{x}{a}+n\right)^2-1}{1}}.$$

Replace x/a by m to simplify notation; the result will follow if it can be shown that

$$m = \frac{K}{K} \frac{(m+n)^2 - 1}{1} = \frac{K}{K} \frac{(m+n-1)(m+n+1)}{1}$$

With $G_{-1} = 1$, $G_n = (-1)^{n+1} \prod_{i=0}^n (m+i)$, for $n \ge 0$ and $b_n = 1$, $a_n = (m+n-1)(m+n+1)$ for $n \ge 1$, $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{G_n\}_{n=-1}^{\infty}$ satisfy

¹Lorentzen and Waadeland give an exercise [6, page 234], question 15(d) which effectively involves a similar result in the case where b_n belongs to a certain family of quadratic polynomials in n over the complex numbers.

equation (2.1) so that the result will follow from Theorem 1 if it can be shown that $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$, in which case the continued fraction will converge to $-G_0/G_{-1} = m$. However, an easy induction shows that for $k \geq 1$,

$$B_{2k+1} = (k+1) \prod_{i=2}^{2k+1} (m+i), \text{ and } B_{2k} = (m+k+1) \prod_{i=2}^{2k} (m+i).$$

is $\lim_{n \to \infty} G_n / B_n = 0$, and the result follows.

Thus $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$, and the result follows.

Corollary 3. Let m be a positive integer and let b_n be any polynomial of degree ≥ 1 such that $b_n \geq 1$, for $n \geq 1$ and either degree $b_n > 1$ or if degree $b_n = 1$ then its leading coefficient is D > m. Then

$$\mathop{K}\limits_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{mnb_n + m^2n(n+1)}{b_n} = m.$$

Proof. Letting $G_n = (-1)^{n+1}m^{n+1}(n+1)!$ for $n \ge -1$ and $a_n = mnb_n + m^2n(n+1)$, for $n \ge 1$, one has that $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}, \{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{G_n\}_{n=-1}^{\infty}$ satisfy equation (2.1). By (i), $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0 \implies \underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = -G_0/G_{-1} =$ m.

Theorem 1 does not say directly how to find the value of all polynomial continued fractions $K_{n=1}^{\infty}a_n/b_n$ as it does not say how the sequence G_n can be found or even if such a sequence can be found. However, Algorithm Hyper (see [8]) can be used to determine if a hypergeometric solution G_n exists to equation (2.1) and, if such a solution exists, the algorithm will out-put G_n , enabling the limit of the continued fraction to be found, if G_n satisfies $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$.

Even if for the particular polynomial sequences a_n and b_n it turns out that the sequence G_n found does not satisfy $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$, then these three sequences a_n , b_n and G_n may be used to find the value of infinitely many other continued fractions when G_n is a polynomial or rational function in n.

The following proposition shows how, given any one solution of (2.1), one can find the value of infinitely many other polynomial continued fractions in an easy way.

Proposition 1. Suppose that there exists complex sequences $\{G_n\}_{n=-1}^{\infty}$, $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ satisfying

 $a_n G_{n-2} + b_n G_{n-1} - G_n = 0$ (2.2)

Let f_n be any sequence, let $s_n = f_n G_{n-1} + a_n$ be such that $s_n \neq 0$, for $n \ge 1$, and let $t_n = f_n G_{n-2} - b_n$. Let A_n/B_n denote the convergents to $\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{s_n}{t_n}$. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$ then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{s_n}{t_n}$ converges and its limit is G_0/G_{-1} .

Proof. Let $G'_n = (-1)^{n+1}G_n$. Then

$$s_n G'_{n-2} + t_n G'_{n-1} - G'_n = (-1)^{n-1} (a_n G_{n-2} + b_n G_{n-1} - G_n) = 0.$$

Thus $\{G'_n\}_{n=-1}^{\infty}$, $\{s_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{t_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ satisfy the conditions of theorem 1 so $K_{n=1}^{\infty}s_n/t_n$ converges and its limit is $-G'_0/G'_{-1} = G_0/G_{-1}$.

Entry 9 from the chapter on continued fractions in Ramanujan's second notebook [1], pages 114-115, follows in the case a is real and positive and x is real as a consequence of the above proposition:

Corollary 4. Let a be a real positive number and let x be a real number such that $x \neq -ka$ where k is a positive integer. Then

$$\frac{x+a+1}{x+1} = \frac{\infty}{K} \frac{x+na}{x+(n-1)a-1}.$$

Proof. It is enough to prove this for x - 1 > 0 since for n sufficiently large x + (n-1)a - 1 > 0 and then the result will hold for a tail of the continued fraction and then resulting finite continued fraction will collapse from the bottom up to give the result. Let $G_n = (x + (n+1)a + 1)/(x+1)$. Put $f_n = x + 1$, $a_n = -1$ and $b_n = 2$ so that $a_n G_{n-2} + b_n G_{n-1} - G_n = 0$, $x + na = f_n G_{n-1} + a_n$ and $x + (n-1)a - 1 = f_n G_{n-2} - b_n$. Since G_n is a degree 1 polynomial in n, x + na, x + (n-1)a - 1 > 0 for $n \ge 1$, it can easily be shown that $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$ and so by Proposition 1 the continued fraction converges to $G_0/G_{-1} = (x + a + 1)/(x + 1)$.

Remarks: (1) In Proposition 1 any polynomial G_n satisfying (2.2) can always be assumed to have positive leading coefficient (if necessary multiply (2.2) by -1.) If f_n is then taken to be a polynomial of sufficiently high degree with leading positive coefficient then both s_n and t_n will be polynomials with positive leading coefficients so that there exists a positive integer N_0 so that for all $n \ge N_0$, s_n , $t_n > 0$. If it happens that for some $m \ge N_0$ that both B_m and B_{m+1} are of the same sign then B_n will go to $+\infty$ or $-\infty$ exponentially fast. In these circumstances $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$, since G_n is only of polynomial growth.

In many of the following corollaries f_n will be restricted so as to have N_0 small (typically in the range $1 \leq N_0 \leq 3$), but of course there are f_n for which this is not the case but for which the results claimed in the corollaries hold.

(2) One approach is to take the polynomial G_n as given and search for polynomials a_n and b_n satisfying equation (2.2). It can be assumed that degree (a_n) , degree $(b_n) <$ degree (G_n) . This follows since if a solution exists with degree $(a_n) \ge$ degree (G_n) then the Euclidean algorithm can be used to write $a_n = p_n G_{n-1} + a'_n$, $b_n = q_n G_{n-2} + b'_n$, where p_n , q_n , a'_n and b'_n are polynomials in n. Substituting into (2.2) and comparing degrees gives that (2.2) holds with a_n replaced with a'_n and b_n replaced with b'_n . (3) In theory it is possible to find polynomials G_n of arbitrarily high degree and polynomials a_n and b_n of lesser degree (with *rational* coefficients) satisfying (2.2), by using (2.2) to define equations expressing the coefficients of a_n and b_n in terms of those of G_n . If G_n has degree k and a_n and b_n both have degree k - 1, then (2.2) is a polynomial identity of degree 2k - 1, giving 2k equations for the 2k coefficients of a_n and b_n .²

In practice these equations and the requirement that the coefficients of G_n be integers introduces conditions on the coefficients of G_n . For example, if there exists $G_n = an^2 + bn + c$, $a_n = dn + e$, and $b_n = fn + g$, polynomials with integral coefficients, satisfying (2.2), then

$$d = -f = \frac{4a^2}{a^2 - b^2 + 4ac},$$

$$e = \frac{-3a^2 + b^2 + 2ab - 4ac}{a^2 - b^2 + 4ac},$$

$$g = \frac{12a^2 - 2ab - 2b^2 + 8ac}{a^2 - b^2 + 4ac}.$$

giving restrictions on the allowable values of a, b and c.

(Parts (ii) –(ix) of the following corollary correspond, respectively, to the solutions $\{a = b = m, c = 1\}$, $\{a = 1, b = 4, c = 4\}$, $\{a = m^2, b = 3m^2 - 2m, c = 2m^2 - 2m + 1\}$, $\{a = m^2, b = m^2 + 2m, c = 2m + 1\}$, $\{a = m, b = 3m, c = 2m + 1\}$, $\{a = m, b = m - 2, c = -1\}$, $\{a = m, b = 3m + 2, c = 2m + 3\}$ and $\{a = 4m, b = 16m^2 + 8m + 1, c = 16m^3 + 16m^2 + 5m + 1\}$)

Proposition 1 is too general to easily calculate the limit of particular polynomial continued fractions. The following corollary enables these limits to be calculated explicitly in many particular cases.

Corollary 5. Let m be a positive integer, k a positive integer greater than m and $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ a non-constant polynomial sequence such that $f_n \ge 1$, for $n \ge 1$. For each of continued fractions below assume that f_n is such that no numerator partial quotient is equal to zero. (This holds automatically in cases (i) - (vi)).

(i)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(mn+k-m)f_n - 1}{(mn+k-2m)f_n - 2} = \frac{k}{k-m}.$$

(*ii*)
$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{((n^2-n)m+1)f_n + nm - 1}{((n^2-3n+2)m+1)f_n + mn - (2m+2)} = 1.$$

(iii)
$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{\underset{n=1}{K}}} \frac{(n+1)^2 f_n + 4n + 5}{n^2 f_n + 4n - 4} = 4.$$

²Starting with a_n and b_n , arbitrary polynomials of a certain degree, it is possible to look for solutions G_n satisfying (2.2) with coefficients defined in terms of those of a_n and b_n using the the Hyper Algorithm (see [8]). However there is no certainty that the solutions (if they exist) will be polynomials or that they will have any particular desired degree.

$$(iv) \underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{f_n(m^2n^2 + n(m^2 - 2m) + 1) + mn + m - 2}{f_n(m^2n^2 - n(m^2 + 2m) + 2m + 1) + mn - m - 3} = 2m^2 - 2m + 1.$$

$$(v) \underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{f_n(m^2n^2 + n(2m - m^2) + 1) + mn}{f_n(m^2n^2 - n(3m^2 - 2m) + 2m^2 + 2m + 1) + mn - 2m - 1} = 2m + 1.$$

(vi)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{f_n(n(n+1)m+1) + mn + m - 1}{f_n(n(n-1)m+1) + mn - m - 2} = 2m + 1.$$

(vii) Let A_n/B_n denote the convergents to the continued fraction below and suppose $\lim_{n\to\infty} n^2/B_n = 0$. Then

$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{f_n((n-1)^2m + (m-2)(n-1) - 1) - m^2n + m - 1}{f_n((n-2)^2m + (m-2)(n-2) - 1) - m^2(n-2) + m - 2} = -1.$$

(viii)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{f_n(n(n+1)m+2n+1) - (m^2(n+1)+m+1)}{f_n(n(n-1)m+2n-1) - (m^2(n-1)+m+2)} = 2m+3.$$

$$\begin{array}{c} -1 - 8\,m - 32\,m^2 - 128\,m^3 - 64\,m^2\,n + \\ (ix) \begin{array}{c} K \\ K \end{array} \underbrace{-1 - 8\,m - 32\,m^2 - 128\,m^3 - 64\,m^2\,n + \\ (m + 16\,m^3 + (1 + 16\,m^2)\,n + 4\,m\,n^2)\,f_n \end{array} \\ \underbrace{-1 - 8\,m + 96\,m^2 - 128\,m^3 - 64\,m^2\,n + \\ (-1 + 5\,m - 16\,m^2 + 16\,m^3 + (1 - 8\,m + 16\,m^2)\,n + 4\,m\,n^2)\,f_n \end{array} \\ = \frac{1 + 5\,m + 16\,m^2 + 16\,m^3}{m + 16\,m^3} \end{array}$$

Proof. In each case below an easy check shows that with the given choices for $\{G_n\}_{n=-1}^{\infty}, \{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ that equation (2.2) holds, that the continued fraction in question corresponds to the continued fraction $\underset{n=1}{K} \frac{s_n}{t_n}$ of proposition (1), that if $\{A_n/B_n\}$ are the convergents to this continued fraction then $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$ and that (by fact or assumption) no $s_n =$ 0. Finally, the limit of the continued fraction is G_0/G_{-1} . The fact that some early partial quotients may be negative does affect any of the results - a tail of the continued fraction will have all terms positive so that $\lim_{n\to\infty} G_n/B_n = 0$ will hold for the tail which will then converge and the continued fraction will then collapse from the bottom up to give the result.

Remark: In some cases the result holds if f_n is a *constant* polynomial such that $f_n \ge 1$ for $n \ge 1$.

(i) Let $G_n = mn + k$, $a_n = -1$, and $b_n = 2$.

(ii) Let
$$G_n = n(n+1)m + 1$$
, $a_n = mn - 1$ and $b_n = -mn + (2m+2)$

(iii) Let $G_n = (n+2)^2$, $a_n = 4n+5$ and $b_n = -4n+4$.

(iv) Let $G_n = m^2 n^2 + n(3m^2 - 2m) + 2m^2 - 2m + 1$, $a_n = mn + m - 2$ and $b_n = -mn + m + 3$.

(v) Let
$$G_n = n(n+1)m^2 + 2m(n+1) + 1$$
, $a_n = mn$ and $b_n = -mn + 2m + 1$.
(vi) Let $G_n = (n+2)(n+1)m + 1$, $a_n = mn + m - 1$ and $b_n = -mn + m + 2$.
(vii) Let $G_n = mn^2 + (m-2)n - 1$, $a_n = -m^2n + m - 1$ and $b_n = m^2n - 2m^2 - m + 2$.
(viii) Let $G_n = (n+2)(n+1)m + 2n + 3$, $a_n = -(m^2n + m^2 + m + 1)$, and $b_n = m^2(n-1) + m + 2$.
(ix) Let $G_n = 1 + 5m + 16m^2 + 16m^3 + (1 + 8m + 16m^2)n + 4mn^2$,
 $a_n = -1 - 8m - 32m^2 - 128m^3 - 64m^2n$ and $b_n = 2 + 8m - 96m^2 + 128m^3 + 64m^2n$.

Examples:

1) Letting m = 5 and $f_n = 10n^8$ in (ii) above gives

$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{((n^2 - n)5 + 1)10n^8 + 5n - 1}{((n^2 - 3n + 2)5 + 1)10n^8 + 5n - 12} = 1.$$

2) Also in (ii), letting $f_n = n^8$ and m be an arbitrary positive integer,

$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{((n^2-n)m+1)n^8+nm-1}{((n^2-3n+2)m+1)n^8+mn-(2m+2)} = 1.$$

3) Letting $f_n = 2n^5$ and m = 3 in (vi) above gives (1.10) in the introduction. Similarly, letting $f_n = n^{10}$ gives (1.9) in the introduction.

4) In (vii) above a general class of examples may be obtained by choosing m > 1 and $f_n > nm^2$ for $n \ge 1$. With the notation of the proposition it can easily be seen that $s_n, t_n \ge 1$ for $n \ge 3$. If f_n is such that B_2 and B_3 are negative, then B_n will be negative for all $n \ge 2$ and by a similar argument to the reasoning behind condition (ii), it will follow that $\lim_{n\to\infty} n^2/B_n = 0$ and the conditions of the corollary will be satisfied. For example, letting $f_n = 16n$ and m = 3 gives that

$$\mathop{K}\limits_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{48n^3 - 80n^2 + 7n + 2}{48n^3 - 176n^2 + 135n + 19} = -1.$$

All the examples in the last corollary were derived from solutions to equation (2.2) where G_n had degree 2. Table 1 below gives several families of solutions to equation (2.2), where G_n is of degree 3 in n.

Considering the third and fourth row of entries in the Table 1, for example, there is the following corollary to Proposition 1:

Corollary 6. Let f_n be a polynomial in n such that $f_n \ge 1$ for $n \ge 1$ and let m be a positive integer.

G_n	a_n	b_n
$(n^2 - 1)mn + 1$	2mn(n-1) - 1	$\left -2m(n^2 - 4n + 3) + 2 \right $
$(2n^2+3n+1)mn+1$	$-2n^2m(m-2) + m^2n$	$-n^2(4m-2m^2)$
	+m - 1	$-n(7m^2 - 12m)$
		$+6m^2 - 7m + 2$
$(n^2 + 3n + 2)mn + 1$	2n(n+1)m - 1	-2n(n-2)m+2
$(n^3 + 6n^2 + 11n + 6)m$	$2mn^2 + 6mn$	$-2mn^2 + 2m + 2$
+1	+4m - 1	
$mn^3 + 3mn^2$	$-m^2n^2 - n(m^2 + m)$	$m^2n^2 - n(2m^2 - m)$
+n(2m-3)-2	+m - 1	-4m + 2

TABLE 1. Some infinite families of solutions to (2.2) for G_n of degree 3.

(i) If f(2) > 2 then

$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{f_n((n^2-1)nm+1) + 2mn(n+1) - 1}{f_n((n^2-3n+2)mn+1) + 2mn(n-2) - 2} = 1.$$

(ii)

$$\underset{n=1}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{f_n((n^2+3n+2)nm+1)+2mn^2+6mn+4m-1}{f_n((n^2-1)nm+1)+2(n^2-1)m-2} = 6m+1.$$

Proof. (i) In the light of the fact that G_n, a_n and b_n satisfy (2.2) simply note that the numerator of the continued fraction is $f_nG_{n-1} + a_n$ and that the denominator is $f_nG_{n-2} - b_n$. It is easily seen that $a_n \ge 1$, for all $n \ge 1$ and that $b_n \ge 1$, for all $n \ge 2$. It can also be shown that B_2 and B_3 are positive for all m and f_n satisfying the conditions of the corollary. In the light of what was said in an earlier remark this is sufficient to ensure the result.

(ii) The proof of this follows the same lines as that of (i) above. \Box

Taking f_n to be n^3 and m = 3 in part (i) gives (1.11) in the introduction. One could continue to prove similar results by finding other solutions to equation (2.2) for degrees 2 or 3 or by going to higher degrees, but these corollaries should be sufficient to illustrate the principle at work.

3. Infinite Polynomial Continued Fractions with Irrational Limits

In this section we use a continued fraction-to-series transformation equivalent to Euler's transformation to sum some polynomial continued fractions with irrational limits. **Theorem 2.** For $N \ge 1$

(3.1)
$$b_0 + \frac{N}{K} \frac{b_{n-1}x}{b_n - x} = \frac{1}{\sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{\prod_{i=0}^{n} b_i}}$$

Thus, when $N \to \infty$, the continued fraction converges if and only if the series converges.

Proof. See, for example, Chrystal [2], page 516, equation (14). \Box

Remark: The irrationality criterion mentioned in the introduction means that if $\{b_n\}_{i=0}^{\infty}$ is a sequence of integers, then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n / b_0 b_1 \cdots b_n$ is not rational for x = 1/m, m being a non-zero integer, provided $|mb_n - 1| \geq |mb_{n-1}| + 1$, for all n sufficiently large.

Corollary 7. For all non-zero integers m (and indeed for all non-zero real numbers m)

(i)
$$6m^2 - 1 + \frac{\infty}{K} \frac{m^2(4n^2 + 2n)}{m^2(4n^2 + 10n + 6) - 1} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{m}\csc(\frac{1}{m}) - 1}.$$

Remarks: (1) Glaisher, [4] states continued fraction expansions essentially equivalent to this one and the one in the next corollary.

(2) The irrationality criterion gives that $\sin(\frac{1}{m})$ is irrational for *m* either a non-zero integers or the square-root of a positive integer.

Proof. (i) In Theorem 2 let $b_n = (2n+2)(2n+3)m^2$ and x = 1.

Corollary 8. For all non-zero integers m (and indeed for all non-zero real numbers m)

$$(i) 2m^2 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{m^2(4n^2 - 2n)}{m^2(4n^2 + 6n + 2) - 1} = \frac{1}{1 - \cos(\frac{1}{m})}.$$

Note that the irrationality criterion gives that $\cos(\frac{1}{m})$ is irrational for m either a non-zero integers or the square-root of a positive integer.

Proof. (i) In Theorem 2 let
$$b_n = (2n+1)(2n+2)m^2$$
 and $x = 1$.

Corollary 9. For all positive integers ν and all non-zero integers m (and indeed for all non-zero real numbers m)

$$(i) (\nu+1)4m^2 + \mathop{K}\limits_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{4m^2n(n+\nu)}{4m^2(n+1)(n+\nu+1)-1} = \frac{1}{1-(\nu)!(2m)^{\nu}J_{\nu}(\frac{1}{m})},$$

where $J_{\nu}(x)$ is the bessel function of the first kind of order ν .

The Tietze irrationality criterion shows that if ν is a non-negative integer and m is a non-zero integer or the squareroot of a positive integer then $J_{\nu}(\pm \frac{1}{m})$ is irrational. *Proof.* (1) In Theorem 2 letting $b_n = 4(n+1)(\nu+n+1)m^2$ and x = 1 gives

$$4(\nu+1)m^{2} + \mathop{K}\limits_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n(\nu+n)4m^{2}}{(n+1)(n+\nu+1)4m^{2}-1} \\ = \frac{1}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n}(1/m)^{2n+2}}{\prod_{i=0}^{n} 4(i+1)(\nu+i+1)}} = \frac{1}{1-(\nu)!(2m)^{\nu}J_{\nu}(1/m)},$$

from the power series expansion for $J_{\nu}(x)$.

Taking ν to be 0 and m = 2 gives (1.7) in the introduction. (1.8) in the introduction follows by letting $m = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ in Corollary 7.

Corollary 10. For all non-zero integers m (and indeed for all non-zero real numbers m)

$$1 + \frac{1}{6m^3 - 1 + \underset{n=2}{\overset{\infty}{K}} \frac{(3n-5)(3n-4)(3n-3)m^3}{(3n-2)(3n-1)(3n)m^3 - 1}}}{= \left(\frac{1}{3}\exp\left(-1/m\right) + \frac{2}{3}\exp\left(1/2m\right)\cos\left(\sqrt{3}/2m\right)\right)^{-1}}$$

Proof. In Theorem 2 let $b_0 = 1$, $b_n = (3n-2)(3n-1)(3n)$, for $n \ge 1$ and $x = 1/m^3$. Then

$$1 + \frac{1/m^3}{6 - 1/m^3 + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(3n - 5)(3n - 4)(3n - 3)1/m^3}{(3n - 2)(3n - 1)(3n) - 1/m^3}} = \frac{1}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n (1/m^{3n})}{(3n)!}}$$

Simplifying the continued fraction gives the left side and finally the right side equals $\left(\frac{1}{3}\exp\left(-1/m\right) + \frac{2}{3}\exp\left(1/2m\right)\cos\left(\sqrt{3}/2m\right)\right)^{-1}$.

By the Tietze criterion the irrationality of this last function follows when m is a non-zero integer or the real cube-root of a non-zero integer.

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