## Continued Fractions and Linear Recurrences

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## Abstract

We prove that the numerators and denominators of the convergents to a real irrational number  $\theta$  satisfy a linear recurrence with constant coefficients if and only if  $\theta$  is a quadratic irrational. The proof uses the Hadamard Quotient Theorem of A. van der Poorten.

Let  $\theta$  be an irrational real number with simple continued fraction expansion  $[a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots]$ . Define the numerators and denominators of the convergents to  $\theta$  as follows:

$$p_{-2} = 0; \quad p_{-1} = 1; \quad p_n = a_n p_{n-1} + p_{n-2} \quad \text{for } n \ge 0;$$
 (1)

$$q_{-2} = 1; \quad q_{-1} = 0; \quad q_n = a_n q_{n-1} + q_{n-2} \quad \text{for } n \ge 0.$$
 (2)

By the classical theory of continued fractions (see, for example, [2, Chapter X]), we have

$$\frac{p_n}{q_n} = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n].$$

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In this note, we consider the question of when the sequences  $(p_n)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $(q_n)_{n\geq 0}$  can satisfy a linear recurrence with constant coefficients. If, for example,  $\theta = \sqrt{3}$ , then  $\theta =$ [1, 1, 2, 1, 2, 1, 2, ...], and it is easy to verify that  $q_{n+4} = 4q_{n+2} - q_n$  for all  $n \geq 0$ . Our main result shows that this exemplifies the situation in general.

**Theorem 1** Let  $\theta$  be an irrational real number. Let its simple continued fraction expansion be  $\theta = [a_0, a_1, \ldots]$ , and let  $(p_n)$  and  $(q_n)$  be the sequence of numerators and denominators of the convergents to  $\theta$ , as defined above. Then the following four conditions are equivalent:

- (a)  $(p_n)_{n>0}$  satisfies a linear recurrence with constant complex coefficients;
- (b)  $(q_n)_{n>0}$  satisfies a linear recurrence with constant complex coefficients;
- (c)  $(a_n)_{n>0}$  is an ultimately periodic sequence;
- (d)  $\theta$  is a quadratic irrational.

Our proof is simple, but uses a deep result of van der Poorten known as the Hadamard Quotient Theorem. We do not know how to give a short proof of the implication  $(b) \Rightarrow (c)$  from first principles.

**Proof.** The equivalence (c)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (d) is classical. We will prove the equivalence (b)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (c); the equivalence (a)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (c) will follow in a similar fashion.

(c)  $\Rightarrow$  (b): It is easy to see (cf. Frame [1]) that

$$\begin{bmatrix} p_n & p_{n-1} \\ q_n & q_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdots \begin{bmatrix} a_n & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (3)

Now if the sequence  $(a_n)_{n\geq 0}$  is ultimately periodic, then there exists an integer  $r\geq 0$ , and r integers  $b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_{r-1}$ , and an integer  $s\geq 1$  and s positive integers  $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_{s-1}$ such that

$$\theta = [b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{r-1}, c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{s-1}, c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{s-1}, \dots].$$

Now for each integer i modulo s, define

$$M_i = \prod_{0 \le j < s} \left[ \begin{array}{cc} c_{i+j} & 1\\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

Then for all  $n \ge r$ , we have, by Eq. (3)

$$\begin{bmatrix} p_{n+s} & p_{n+s-1} \\ q_{n+s} & q_{n+s-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} p_n & p_{n-1} \\ q_n & q_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} M_{n-r}.$$
 (4)

Since for all pairs (i, j) it is possible to find matrices A, B such that  $M_i = AB$  and  $M_j = BA$ , and since Tr(AB) = Tr(BA), it readily follows that  $t = \text{Tr}(M_i)$  does not depend on i. Hence the characteristic polynomial of each  $M_i$  is  $X^2 - tX + (-1)^s$ . Since every matrix satisfies its own characteristic polynomial, we see that  $M_{n-r}^2 - tM_{n-r} + (-1)^s I$  is the zero matrix. Combining this observation with Eq. (4), we get

$$\begin{bmatrix} p_{n+2s} & p_{n+2s-1} \\ q_{n+2s} & q_{n+2s-1} \end{bmatrix} - t \begin{bmatrix} p_{n+s} & p_{n+s-1} \\ q_{n+s} & q_{n+s-1} \end{bmatrix} + (-1)^s \begin{bmatrix} p_n & p_{n-1} \\ q_n & q_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Therefore,  $q_{n+2s} - tq_{n+s} + (-1)^s q_n = 0$  for all  $n \ge r$ , and hence the sequence  $(q_n)_{n\ge 0}$  satisfies a linear recurrence with constant integral coefficients.

(b)  $\Rightarrow$  (c): The proof proceeds in two stages. First we show, by means of a theorem of van der Poorten, that if  $(q_n)_{n\geq 0}$  satisfies a linear recurrence, then so does  $(a_n)_{n\geq 0}$ . Next we show that the  $a_n$  are bounded because otherwise the  $q_n$  would grow too rapidly. The periodicity of  $(a_n)_{n\geq 0}$  then follows immediately.

Let us recall a familiar definition: if the sequence of complex numbers  $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$  satisfies a linear recurrence with constant complex coefficients

$$u_n = \sum_{1 \le i \le d} e_i u_{n-i}$$

for all *n* sufficiently large, and *d* is chosen to be as small as possible, then  $X^d - \sum_{1 \leq i \leq d} e_i X^{d-i}$ is said to be the minimal polynomial for the linear recurrence. Also recall that a sequence of complex numbers  $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$  satisfies a linear recurrence with constant coefficients if and only if the formal series  $\sum_{n\geq 0} u_n X^n$  represents a rational function of X.

Define the two formal series  $F = \sum_{n\geq 0} (q_{n+2} - q_n) X^n$  and  $G = \sum_{n\geq 0} q_{n+1} X^n$ . Clearly F and G represent rational functions. We now use the following theorem of van der Poorten [4, 5, 6]:

**Theorem 2 (Hadamard Quotient Theorem)** Let  $F = \sum_{i\geq 0} f_i X^i$  and  $G = \sum_{i\geq 0} g_i X^i$ be formal series representing rational functions in  $\mathbf{C}(X)$ . Suppose that the  $f_i$  and  $g_i$  are complex numbers such that  $g_i \neq 0$  and  $f_i/g_i$  is an integer for all  $i \geq 0$ . Then  $\sum_{i\geq 0} (f_i/g_i) X^i$ also represents a rational function.

Since  $q_{n+2} = a_{n+2}q_{n+1} + q_n$  for all  $n \ge 0$ , it follows from this theorem that  $\sum_{n\ge 0} a_{n+2}X^n$  represents a rational function, and hence the sequence of partial quotients  $(a_n)_{n\ge 0}$  also satisfies a linear recurrence with constant coefficients.

We now require the following lemma:

**Lemma 3** Suppose that  $(y_n)_{n\geq 0}$  and  $(z_n)_{n\geq 0}$  are sequences of complex numbers, each satisfying a linear recurrence, with the property that the minimal polynomial of  $(z_n)_{n\geq 0}$  divides the minimal polynomial of  $(y_n)_{n\geq 0}$ . Let d denote the degree of the minimal polynomial of  $(y_n)_{n\geq 0}$ . Then there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0$  such that for all  $n \geq n_0$  we have

$$\max(|y_{n-d+1}|, |y_{n-d+2}|, \dots, |y_n|) > c|z_n|.$$

**Proof.** Put  $Y = \sum_{n\geq 0} y_n X^n = f/g$  with gcd(f,g) = 1 and  $\deg g = d$ , and  $Z = \sum_{n\geq 0} z_n X^n = h/g$ ; here  $f, g, h \in \mathbb{C}[X]$ . Since gcd(f,g) = 1, we can find a polynomial  $k = \sum_{0\leq i\leq d} k_i X^i$  of degree < d such that  $kf \equiv h \pmod{g}$ . Then Z = kY + m, for a polynomial m, and  $z_n = \sum_{0\leq i\leq d} k_i y_{n-i}$  for  $n > n_0 = \deg m$ . It follows that

$$|z_n| \le \left(\sum_{0 \le i < d} |k_i|\right) \max(|y_{n-d+1}|, |y_{n-d+2}|, \dots, |y_n|),$$

and the lemma follows, with  $c = (1 + \sum_{0 \le i < d} |k_i|)^{-1}$ .

Since  $(a_n)_{n>0}$  satisfies a linear recurrence, we may express  $a_n$  as a generalized power sum

$$a_n = \sum_{1 \le i \le d} A_i(n) \alpha_i^n,$$

for all n sufficiently large. Here the  $\alpha_i$  are distinct non-zero complex numbers (the "characteristic roots") and the  $A_i(n)$  are polynomials in n.

Now take  $y_n = a_n$  and  $z_n = n^{\ell} \alpha^n$ , where  $\alpha = \alpha_i$  and  $\ell = \deg A_i$  for some *i*. Then the hypothesis of Lemma 3 holds, and we conclude that at least one of  $a_{n-d+1}, a_{n-d+2}, \ldots, a_n$  is greater than  $cn^{\ell} |\alpha|^n$ , for all *n* sufficiently large. Then, using Eq. (2), we have

$$q_{dm} \ge \prod_{1 \le j \le dm} a_j > c' \cdot c^m \cdot d^{\ell m} \cdot (m!)^\ell \cdot (|\alpha|^d)^{m(m+1)/2}$$

for some positive constant c' and all  $m \ge 1$ . But  $(q_n)_{n\ge 0}$  satisfies a linear recurrence, and therefore  $\log q_{dm} = O(dm)$ . It follows that  $|\alpha_i| \le 1$  for all i, and further that  $\deg A_i = 0$ for those i with  $|\alpha_i| = 1$ . Hence the sequence  $(a_n)_{n\ge 0}$  is bounded. But a simple argument using the pigeonhole principle (see, for example, [3, Part VIII, Problem 158]) shows that any bounded integer sequence satisfying a linear recurrence is ultimately periodic. This completes the proof.

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