

# CONTINUED FRACTIONS: THE PAST AND THE MODERN

MING-LUN HSIEH

## 1. BASIC PROPERTIES OF CONTINUED FRACTIONS

For any sequence  $\{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\}$  of positive numbers and a non-negative integer  $n$ , we define the real number

$$[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n] := a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{\ddots + \frac{1}{a_n}}}}.$$

For example,

$$[1, 2, 2] = 1 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{7}{5}.$$

We introduce two sequences  $\{p_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{q_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$  to study the sequence

$$[a_0], \quad [a_0, a_1], \quad [a_0, a_1, a_2], \dots$$

**Definition 1.1.** For the sequence  $\{a_0, a_1, \dots\}$ , we define the sequences  $\{p_n\}$  and  $\{q_n\}$  by

$$\begin{aligned} p_0 &= a_0, & p_1 &= a_0 a_1 + 1, & p_2 &= a_2 p_1 + p_0, & p_3 &= a_3 p_2 + p_1, & \dots \\ q_0 &= 1, & q_1 &= a_1, & q_2 &= a_2 q_1 + q_0, & q_3 &= a_3 q_2 + q_1, & \dots \end{aligned}$$

For  $n \geq 2$ , we have

$$p_n = a_n p_{n-1} + p_{n-2}, \quad q_n = a_n q_{n-1} + q_{n-2}.$$

In terms of the equation between matrices, we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_n & p_{n-1} \\ q_n & q_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{n-1} & p_{n-2} \\ q_{n-1} & q_{n-2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_n & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

**Lemma 1.2.** For any sequence  $\{a_0, a_1, \dots\}$  and  $n \geq 0$ , we have

$$(1.1) \quad [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n] = \frac{p_n}{q_n}.$$

PROOF. We shall prove by induction. It is easy to see the above identity holds for  $n = 0$  and  $n = 1$ . Assume for *any* sequence  $\{a_0, a_1, \dots\}$ , the equation (1.1) holds for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . Applying the induction hypothesis to the new sequence

$$\left\{ a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}, a_n + \frac{1}{a_{n+1}}, \dots \right\},$$

we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n+1}] &= [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}, a_n + \frac{1}{a_{n+1}}] \\
&= \frac{(a_n + \frac{1}{a_{n+1}})p_{n-1} + p_{n-2}}{(a_n + \frac{1}{a_{n+1}})q_{n-1} + q_{n-2}} \\
&= \frac{a_{n+1}p_n + p_{n-1}}{a_{n+1}q_n + q_{n-1}} = \frac{p_{n+1}}{q_{n+1}}.
\end{aligned}$$

This proves the lemma by induction.  $\square$

**Lemma 1.3.** *For any positive integer  $n$ , we have*

$$p_n q_{n-1} - p_{n-1} q_n = (-1)^{n+1}.$$

PROOF. When  $n = 1$  it is obvious that  $p_1 q_0 - p_0 q_1 = 1$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
p_n q_{n-1} - p_{n-1} q_n &= (a_n p_{n-1} + p_{n-2}) q_{n-1} - p_{n-1} (a_n q_{n-1} + q_{n-2}) \\
&= (-1)(p_{n-1} q_{n-2} - p_{n-2} q_{n-1}).
\end{aligned}$$

The lemma easily follows from the induction.  $\square$

Indeed, if a real number  $x$  is not an integer, we can write uniquely

$$x = [x] + \frac{1}{x_1}, \quad x_1 > 1.$$

Repeating this process, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
x &= [x] + \frac{1}{x_1} = [[x], x_1] \\
&= [x] + \frac{1}{[x_1] + \frac{1}{x_2}} = [[x], [x_1], x_2] = \dots
\end{aligned}$$

This shows that any real number  $\alpha$  can be written as

$$\alpha = [a_0, \alpha_1] = [a_0, a_1, \alpha_2] = \dots = [a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \alpha_{n+1}] = \dots,$$

where  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots$  are positive integers and  $\alpha_n \geq 1$ . We call  $[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n, \dots]$  the **continued fraction expansion** of  $\alpha$ .

For example, we let  $\alpha = \sqrt{2}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{2} &= 1 + \sqrt{2} - 1 = 1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} + 1} = [1, \sqrt{2} + 1] \\
&= 1 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} + 1}} = [1, 2, \sqrt{2} + 1] \\
&= [1, 2, 2, 2, \dots] = [1, \overline{2}].
\end{aligned}$$

Let  $\alpha = \sqrt{7}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sqrt{7} &= 2 + \sqrt{7} - 2 = [2, \frac{2 + \sqrt{7}}{3}] \\
 &= 2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{-1 + \sqrt{7}}{3}} = [2, 1, \frac{1 + \sqrt{7}}{2}] \\
 &= 2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{-1 + \sqrt{7}}{2}}} = [2, 1, 1, \frac{1 + \sqrt{7}}{3}] \\
 &= [2, 1, 1, 1, 2 + \sqrt{7}] = [2, 1, 1, 1, 4, \frac{2 + \sqrt{7}}{3}] = [2, \overline{1, 1, 1, 4}].
 \end{aligned}$$

In the above examples,  $\alpha$  is irrational number, so the length of the continued fraction expansion of  $\alpha$  is finite. If  $\alpha$  is a rational number, then the length of the continued fraction expansion of  $\alpha$  is finite. For example,

$$\frac{13}{11} = [1, 5, 2] = [1, 5, 1, 1]; \quad \frac{30}{13} = [2, 3, 4] = [2, 3, 3, 1].$$

We find that there are two different continued fraction expansions of a rational number, but the continued fraction expansion of an irrational number is unique.

## 2. RATIONAL APPROXIMATION OF IRRATIONAL NUMBERS

Let  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}_+$  with the continued fraction expansion  $[a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots]$ . Since  $a_i$  are positive integers, the sequences  $\{p_n\}$  and  $\{q_n\}$  consist of positive integers with

$$p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_n; \quad q_1 < q_2 < \dots < q_n.$$

On the other hand, by Lemma 1.3, we see that for any  $k$ , the positive integers  $p_k$  and  $q_k$  are **coprime**. The theorem below shows that any positive number  $\alpha$  can be approximated by  $p_n/q_n$ .

**Theorem 2.1.** *Let  $\alpha = [a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots]$  be the continued fraction expansion of  $\alpha$ . For any positive integer  $n$ , we have*

$$\left| \alpha - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right| < \frac{1}{q_n^2}.$$

*If  $\alpha$  is irrational, then we have infinitely many  $n$  such that*

$$\left| \alpha - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right| < \frac{1}{2q_n^2}.$$

PROOF. We can write

$$\alpha = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n, b], \quad b \geq 1.$$

Then

$$\alpha = \frac{bp_n + p_{n-1}}{bq_n + q_{n-1}}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 \alpha - \frac{p_n}{q_n} &= \frac{(bp_n + p_{n-1})q_n - p_n(bq_n + q_{n-1})}{q_n(bq_n + q_{n-1})} \\
 &= \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{q_n(bq_n + q_{n-1})} \quad (\text{Lemma 1.3}).
 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\alpha_n \geq 1$  and  $q_n \geq q_{n-1} > 0$ , we find that

$$\left| \alpha - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right| < \frac{1}{q_n^2}.$$

Now assume  $\alpha$  is an irrational number, so the continued fraction expansion  $[a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots]$  of  $\alpha$  has infinite length. Write

$$\alpha = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n, b] = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}, c] \text{ for some } b, c > 1.$$

Then the above computation shows that

$$\left| \alpha - \frac{p_{n+1}}{q_{n+1}} \right| + \left| \alpha - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right| = \frac{1}{q_n(bq_n + q_{n-1})} + \frac{1}{q_{n+1}(cq_{n+1} + q_n)}.$$

By definition, we have  $b = a_{n+1} + \frac{1}{c}$ , so

$$\frac{1}{q_n(bq_n + q_{n-1})} + \frac{1}{q_{n+1}(cq_{n+1} + q_n)} = \frac{1}{cq_{n+1} + q_n} \left( \frac{c}{q_n} + \frac{1}{q_{n+1}} \right) = \frac{1}{q_n q_{n+1}}$$

and hence

$$\left| \alpha - \frac{p_{n+1}}{q_{n+1}} \right| + \left| \alpha - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right| = \frac{1}{q_n q_{n+1}}.$$

This implies that we must have

$$\left| \alpha - \frac{p}{q} \right| < \frac{1}{2q^2}$$

for  $(p, q) = \text{either } (p_n, q_n) \text{ or } (p_{n+1}, q_{n+1})$ . □

It follows from Theorem 2.1 that

$$\alpha = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p_m}{q_m}.$$

**Remark 2.2.** The famous [Roth's theorem](#) asserts that if  $\alpha$  is an irrational algebraic number, then for any  $\rho > 2$ , there are only finitely many rational numbers  $p/q$  such that

$$\left| \alpha - \frac{p}{q} \right| < \frac{1}{q^\rho}.$$

Therefore  $1/q^2$  in the right hand side of the inequality in Theorem 2.1 is optimal. Roth was awarded Fields Medal in 1958 for this achievement.

### 3. INTEGRAL SOLUTIONS TO THE PELL EQUATION $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$

We have seen the integral solutions to the linear equation  $ax + by = 1$  with  $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$  and  $(a, b) = 1$  can be found by Euclid's algorithm. Let  $d$  be a non-square positive integer. We next explain how to use continued fractions to obtain integral solutions to the quadratic equation  $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$  (the Pell equation). Obviously  $(x, y) = (\pm 1, 0)$  is an integral solution, so we seek for integral solutions other than  $(\pm 1, 0)$ , which are called [non-trivial integral solutions](#). Sometimes simple equation can have very complicated solutions.

**Example 3.1.** A smallest solution to the equation  $x^2 - 61y^2 = 1$  is given by  $(1766319049, 226153980)$ .

Let us prepare some notation. Let  $K$  be the set

$$K := \left\{ x + y\sqrt{d} \mid x, y \in \mathbf{Q} \right\} \subset \mathbf{R}.$$

One verifies that if  $x, y \in K$ , then

- $x \pm y$  and  $x \cdot y$  belong to  $K$ .
- if  $x \neq 0 \in K$ , then  $x^{-1} \in K$ .

In other words, we can do four arithmetic operations in the set  $K$ . In mathematics, any set like this is called a **field**. On the other hand, we define the subset

$$R := \left\{ x + y\sqrt{d} \in K \mid x, y \in \mathbf{Z} \right\} \subset K.$$

Note that we can do addition/subtraction/multiplication except for the division! This is because for non-zero  $x \in R$ ,  $x^{-1}$  may not belong to  $R$ .

Given  $a = x + y\sqrt{d} \in K$ , define the conjugate  $\bar{a}$  of  $a$  by

$$\bar{a} := x - y\sqrt{d},$$

and the norm  $N(a)$  of  $a$  is defined by

$$N(a) := a\bar{a} = x^2 - dy^2.$$

To find an integral solution to  $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$  is equivalent to finding  $a \in R$  such that  $N(a) = 1$ . By definition if  $b = x' + y'\sqrt{d}$ , then

$$\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = (x - y\sqrt{d})(x' - y'\sqrt{d}) = xx' + yy'd - (xy' + x'y)\sqrt{d} = \overline{a \cdot b}.$$

We obtain the multiplicative property of the norm map

$$(3.1) \quad N(a \cdot b) = N(a) \cdot N(b).$$

**Theorem 3.2.** *There exists a non-trivial integral solution to the Pell equation  $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$ .*

PROOF. By Theorem 2.1, we find that there are infinitely many  $p/q$  with  $(p, q) = 1$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| N(a + q\sqrt{d}) \right| &= |p^2 - dq^2| \\ &= \left| (p + q\sqrt{d})(p - q\sqrt{d}) \right| < \frac{p + q\sqrt{d}}{q} = \sqrt{d} + \frac{p}{q} < 2\sqrt{d} + 1. \end{aligned}$$

This implies that there exist infinitely many  $p/q$  such that

$$N(p + q\sqrt{d}) = p^2 - dq^2 = M$$

for some integer  $M$  with  $|M| < 2\sqrt{d} + 1$  by the pigeon hole principle. By the pigeonhole principle again, we can find distinct  $(p, q)$  and  $(p', q')$  such that

- $(p, q) \neq (\pm p', \pm q')$ ,
- $p \equiv p' \pmod{M}$ ,  $q \equiv q' \pmod{M}$ , and
- $N(p + q\sqrt{d}) = N(p' + q'\sqrt{d}) = M$ .

Since  $d$  is not a perfect square,  $M$  is non-zero. We set

$$\beta := \frac{p + q\sqrt{d}}{p' + q'\sqrt{d}} \in K.$$

Then  $\beta \neq \pm 1$  and by (3.1),

$$N(\beta) = \frac{N(p + q\sqrt{d})}{N(p' + q'\sqrt{d})} = 1.$$

On the other hand, we note that

$$\beta = \frac{(pp' - dq'q') + (p'q - pq')\sqrt{d}}{M} \in R.$$

We thus proved that

$$\left( \frac{pp' - dq'q'}{M}, \frac{p'q - pq'}{M} \right) \neq (\pm 1, 0)$$

is an integral solution to  $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$ .  $\square$

Next we proceed to explain how to find a non-trivial integral solution to the Pell equation.

**Definition 3.3.** Let  $\alpha$  be a real number with the continued fraction expansion  $\alpha = [a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots]$ . The  $n$ -th convergent of  $\alpha$  is defined by

$$[a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n].$$

**Theorem 3.4.** Let  $\alpha$  be a positive real number. If  $p$  and  $q$  are co-prime positive integers such that

$$\left| \alpha - \frac{p}{q} \right| < \frac{1}{2q^2},$$

then the rational number  $\frac{p}{q}$  must be a convergent of  $\alpha$ .

PROOF. By the assumption, we can write

$$\alpha = \frac{p}{q} + \frac{\delta}{2q^2} \text{ with } |\delta| < 1.$$

Since  $p/q$  is a rational number, we can express the continued fraction expansion of  $p/q$  as

$$\frac{p}{q} = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n] \text{ such that } (-1)^n \delta > 0.$$

Now consider the following equation with variable  $x$ :

$$(3.2) \quad \alpha = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n, x].$$

If we can solve  $x$  with  $x > 1$ , then  $\frac{p}{q}$  would be the  $n$ -th convergent of  $x$ . According to (3.2), we obtain

$$\alpha = \frac{xp_n + p_{n-1}}{xq_n + q_{n-1}}, \quad p_n = p, \quad q_n = q.$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} x(q_n\alpha - p_n) &= p_{n-1} - \alpha q_{n-1} \\ \iff \frac{x\delta}{2q_n} &= p_{n-1} - \alpha q_{n-1} \\ \iff \frac{x\delta}{2} &= (-1)^n - \frac{q_{n-1}\delta}{2q_n}. \end{aligned}$$

We thus find that

$$x = \frac{2}{\delta(-1)^n} - \frac{q_{n-1}}{q_n} > 2 - 1 = 1.$$

□

**Corollary 3.5.** *If  $0 < m < \sqrt{d}$ , and  $(x, y)$  are co-prime positive integers with  $x^2 - dy^2 = m$ , then  $x/y$  is a convergent of  $\sqrt{d}$ .*

PROOF. Since  $(x + y\sqrt{d})(x - y\sqrt{d}) = m$  and  $x, y$  are coprime positive integers, we find that  $x > y\sqrt{d}$  and that

$$\left| \frac{x}{y} - \sqrt{d} \right| = \frac{m}{y^2(\frac{x}{y} + \sqrt{d})} < \frac{m}{2\sqrt{d}y^2} < \frac{1}{2y^2}.$$

Therefore by Theorem 3.4, we see that  $\frac{x}{y}$  is a convergent of  $\sqrt{d}$ , and

□

**Example 3.6.** Consider the Pell equation  $x^2 - 7y^2 = 1$ . We have  $\sqrt{7} = [2, \overline{1, 1, 1, 4}]$ .

$a_n$	2	1	1	1	4	1	...
$p_n$	2	3	5	8	37	45	...
$q_n$	1	1	2	3	14	17	...

We find that  $(x, y) = (8, 3)$  is a non-trivial integral solution.

#### 4. GENERALIZED PELL EQUATION $x^2 - dy^2 = m$

The generalized Pell equation  $x^2 - dy^2 = m$  for  $m \in \mathbf{Z}$  may not have integral solution in general. For example, there are no integral solutions to the equation  $x^2 - 3y^2 = 5$ , and if  $p$  is a prime with  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , then there is no integral solution to  $x^2 - py^2 = -1$ .

We give a general method to solve  $x^2 - dy^2 = m$  for the integral solutions. First we choose a non-trivial solution  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_{>0}^2$  with  $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$  and put

$$u := a + b\sqrt{d} \in R.$$

Then we have  $N(u) = u\bar{u} = a^2 - db^2 = 1$ . In particular,  $u > 1$  and  $0 < \bar{u} < 1$ .

**Theorem 4.1.** *Suppose that  $x^2 - dy^2 = m$  has an integral solution, Then there exists an integral solution  $(x_0, y_0)$  satisfying*

$$|x_0| \leq \frac{|m|}{2}(\sqrt{u} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}}), \quad |y_0| \leq \frac{|m|}{2\sqrt{d}}(\sqrt{u} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}}).$$

PROOF. Let  $(x_1, y_1)$  be an integral solution to  $x^2 - dy^2 = m$ . We may assume  $x_1$  and  $y_1$  are positive integers. Let  $\beta := x_1 + y_1\sqrt{d}$ . We write

$$\log |\beta| = \frac{|m|}{2} + c_1 \log u \text{ for some } c_1 \in \mathbf{R}.$$

Since  $N(\beta) = \beta\bar{\beta} = x_1^2 - dy_1^2 = m$  and  $u\bar{u} = 1$ , it follows that

$$\log |\bar{\beta}| = \frac{|m|}{2} - c_1 \log u.$$

We may write  $c_1 = k + \delta$ , where  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$  and  $|\delta| < 1/2$ . Put

$$\gamma := \beta u^{-k} = \beta \bar{u}^k \in R.$$

Then  $N(\gamma) = N(\beta) = m$  and

$$\log |\gamma| = \log \sqrt{|m|} + \delta \log u.$$

So we find that

$$|\gamma| = \sqrt{|m|} \cdot u^\delta \quad |\bar{\gamma}| = \sqrt{|m|} \cdot u^{-\delta}, \quad |\delta| < 1/2.$$

Write  $\gamma = x_0 + y_0\sqrt{d} \in R$ . Then  $x_0^2 - dy_0^2 = m$  and

$$|x_0| = \left| \frac{\gamma + \bar{\gamma}}{2} \right| \leq \frac{|\gamma| + |\bar{\gamma}|}{2} < \frac{\sqrt{|m|}}{2} (u^\delta + u^{-\delta}) < \frac{\sqrt{|m|}}{2} (\sqrt{u} + \sqrt{u}^{-1}).$$

Likewise

$$|y_0| = \left| \frac{\gamma - \bar{\gamma}}{2\sqrt{d}} \right| \leq \frac{|\gamma| + |\bar{\gamma}|}{2\sqrt{d}} < \frac{\sqrt{|m|}}{2\sqrt{d}} (\sqrt{u} + \sqrt{u}^{-1}).$$

□

**Example 4.2.** Consider the equation  $x^2 - 7y^2 = 11$ . Put

$$u := 8 + 3\sqrt{7}.$$

Note that

$$\frac{11}{2\sqrt{7}}(\sqrt{u} + \sqrt{u}^{-1}) < 8.84.$$

One verifies that  $|y_0| \leq 8$ ,  $7y_0^2 + 11$  is not a square, so there is no integral solution to  $x^2 - 7y^2 = 11$  by Theorem 3.4.



**Homework 1 (Due date: 09/12)**

**Exercise 1.** (5pts) Find the continued fraction expansion of  $\frac{157}{68}$ . Use this expansion to find a solution of  $157x - 68y = 3$ .  
(Use Lemma 1.3).

**Exercise 2.** (5pts) Use the continued fraction expansion of  $\sqrt{19}$  to find a non-trivial integral solution of  $x^2 - 19y^2 = 1$ .

**Exercise 3.** (10pts) Use the continued fraction expansion of  $\sqrt{61}$  to find the solution to  $x^2 - 61y^2 = 1$  in Example 3.1.  
(You may use a calculator).

**Exercise 4.** (10pts) Let  $p$  be a prime such that  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . Let  $(x_0, y_0) \in \mathbf{Z}_{>0}^2$  be a non-trivial integral solution to  $x^2 - py^2 = 1$  such that  $y_0$  is minimal.

- (1) Prove that  $x_0$  is odd and  $y_0$  is even.
- (2) Prove  $x_0 + 1$  is divisible by  $p$ .
- (3) Show that  $x^2 - py^2 = -1$  has an integral solution.

**Exercise 5.** (10pts) Let  $d$  be a positive integer that is not a square. Suppose that  $x^2 - dy^2 = -1$  has an integral solution. Let  $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathbf{Z}_{>0}^2$  be the minimal solution to  $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$ , i.e.  $\alpha + \beta\sqrt{d}$  is minimal. Prove that there exist  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_{>0}^2$  such that  $\alpha = 2a^2 + 1$  and  $\beta = 2ab$ .