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Padé approximants to  $(1-z)^{1/m}$ 

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# The hypergeometric method

Michael Bennett

University of British Columbia

BIRS Summer School : June 2012

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## One way to show that a number is irrational

Suppose that we are given a real number  $\theta$  that we wish to prove to be irrational. One way to do this is to find a sequence of distinct rational approximations  $p_n/q_n$  to  $\theta$  (here,  $p_n$  and  $q_n$  are integers) with the property that there exist positive real numbers  $\alpha, \beta, a$  and b with  $\alpha, \beta > 1$ ,

$$|q_n| < a \cdot \alpha^n$$
, and  $|q_n \theta - p_n| < b \cdot \beta^{-n}$ ,

for all positive integers n.

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# What does this do?

If we can construct such a sequence, we in fact get rather more. Namely, we obtain the inequality

$$\left|\theta - \frac{p}{q}\right| > \left(2 \, a \, \alpha \, (2 \, b \, \beta)^{\lambda}\right)^{-1} |q|^{-1-\lambda} \quad \text{for} \quad \lambda = \frac{\log \alpha}{\log \beta}, \quad (*)$$

valid for *all* integers p and  $q \neq 0$  (at least provided |q| > 1/2b). To see this, note that

$$\left| \theta - \frac{p}{q} \right| \ge \left| \frac{p_n}{q_n} - \frac{p}{q} \right| - \left| \theta - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right|,$$

and hence if  $p/q \neq p_n/q_n,$  we have

$$\left|\theta - \frac{p}{q}\right| > \frac{1}{|q_n|} \left(\frac{1}{|q|} - \frac{b}{\beta^n}\right).$$

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## A lower bound

Now we choose n minimal such that  $\beta^n \ge 2 b |q|$  (since we assume |q| > 1/2b, n is a positive integer). Then

$$\beta^{n-1} < 2b|q| \le \beta^n$$

### and so

$$\left|\theta - \frac{p}{q}\right| > \frac{1}{2|q|a_n|} > \frac{1}{2|q|a\,\alpha^n} = \frac{1}{2|q|a\,\beta^{\lambda n}} > \frac{1}{2|q|a\,(2|q|b\,\beta)^{\lambda}}$$

If instead we have  $p/q = p_n/q_n$  for our desired choice of n, we argue similarly, only with n replaced by n+1 (whereby the fact that our approximations are distinct guarantees that  $p/q \neq p_{n+1}/q_{n+1}$ ). The slightly weaker constant in (\*) results from this case.

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### In summary

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$$|q_n| < a \cdot lpha^n, ext{ and } |q_n heta - p_n| < b \cdot eta^{-n},$$

for all positive integers n, then

$$\left|\theta - \frac{p}{q}\right| > \left(2 \, a \, \alpha \, (2 \, b \, \beta)^{\lambda}\right)^{-1} |q|^{-1-\lambda} \quad \text{for} \quad \lambda = \frac{\log \alpha}{\log \beta}, \quad (*)$$

for all integers p and  $q \neq 0$ , with |q| > 1/2b.

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## Irrationality measures

An inequality of the shape

$$\left|\theta - \frac{p}{q}\right| > |q|^{-\kappa},$$

valid for suitably large integers p and q is termed an *irrationality measure*. For real transcendental  $\theta$ , any such measure is in some sense nontrivial. For algebraic  $\theta$ , say of degree n, however, Liouville's theorem provides a "trivial" lower bound of n for  $\kappa$ .

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## The hypergeometric method

In this talk, we will provide an oversimplified account of one technique for generating, for certain irrational  $\theta$ , sequences  $p_n/q_n$  with the properties described above. This approach is sometimes called *hypergeometric method* and dates back to work of Thue.

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# Irrationality of $\pi$

The following argument is due to Beukers, inspired by Apery's proof of the irrationality of  $\zeta(3)$ . We will sketch a proof of the irrationality of  $\zeta(2) = \pi^2/6$ . This is by no means the original proof, but it is rather instructive. To begin, we note the identity

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{x^r y^s}{1 - xy} dx \, dy = \sum_{k=0}^\infty \frac{1}{(k + r + 1)(k + s + 1)}.$$

To see this, just expand 1/(1 - xy) as a geometric series, substitute and carry out the integrations.

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## A dichotomy

Assuming r = s, we have

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{(xy)^r}{1 - xy} = \zeta(2) - \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{r^2}\right).$$

If, instead, we consider a similar integral, with distinct powers of x and y in the numerator of the integrand, we find, via partial fractions and telescoping,

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{x^r y^s}{1 - xy} dx \, dy = \frac{1}{r - s} \left( \frac{1}{s + 1} + \dots + \frac{1}{r} \right).$$

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## From rationals to integers

# Defining

$$L(r) = \mathsf{lcm}(1, 2, \dots, r),$$

it follows that

$$L(r)^{2} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{x^{r} y^{s}}{1 - xy} dx \, dy$$

is thus, for each r > s, a positive integer.

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# Approximating $\zeta(2)$

Combining these facts, we find that, for any polynomial P(x, y) with integer coefficients,

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{P(x,y)}{1-xy} dx \, dy = A\zeta(2) - B,$$

for rational A and B. We will, through careful choice of a family of such P(x, y), construct our sequences of integers  $p_n$  and  $q_n$  such that  $p_n/q_n$  is a suitably good approximation to  $\zeta(2)$ .

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# A choice for P(x, y)

Let us take

$$P(x,y) = (1-y)^n P_n(x),$$

where

$$P_n(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^n \left(x^n(1-x)^n\right).$$

Then, as noted before, we have

$$L(n)^2 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{(1-y)^n P_n(x)}{1-xy} dx \, dy = q_n \zeta(2) - p_n, \quad (1)$$

with  $p_n, q_n$  rational integers.

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### Why make this choice?

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One of the main reasons for this choice is that the integrand of the left-hand-side of (1) is now extremely small, while the coefficients of the numerator of the integrand do not grow too quickly. In fact, an *n*-fold integration by parts shows us that

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{(1-y)^n P_n(x)}{1-xy} dx \, dy$$

is equal to

$$\pm \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{y^n (1-y)^n x^n (1-x)^n}{(1-xy)^{n+1}} dx \, dy.$$

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# Why make this choice?

## Since

$$\frac{y(1-y)x(1-x)}{1-xy} \le \left(\frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}\right)^5, \ \text{ for } 0 \le x, y \le 1,$$

### we thus have

$$0 < |q_n\zeta(2) - p_n| \le L(n)^2 \left(\frac{\sqrt{5} - 1}{2}\right)^{5n} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{dxdy}{1 - xy}.$$

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# The finale

Since,  $\log L(n) \sim n$  (via the Prime Number Theorem), and since

$$e^2\left(\frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}\right)^5 < 2/3,$$

it follows that  $\zeta(2)$  is irrational.

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# The general idea

If we work a little more carefully, we can estimate the growth of  $p_n$  and  $q_n$  and get an irrationality measure for  $\zeta(2)$  (and hence for  $\pi$ ) from this argument. The thing to take away from this "example" is the notion of constructing our approximating sequences  $p_n/q_n$  via specialization of rational functions.

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### Padé approximants

Given a formal power series f(z) and positive integers r and s, it is an exercise in linear algebra to deduce, for fixed integer n, the existence of nonzero polynomials  $P_{r,s}(z)$  and  $Q_{r,s}(z)$  with rational integer coefficients and degrees r and s, respectively, such that

$$P_{r,s}(z) - f(z) Q_{r,s}(z) = z^{r+s+1} E_{r,s}(z)$$

where  $E_{r,s}(z)$  is a power series in z (let's not worry too much about convergence!). In certain situations, these *Padé approximants* (which are unique up to scaling) can be written down in explicit fashion.

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### Diagonal Padé approximants

Given a formal power series f(z) and positive integers r and s, it is an exercise in linear algebra to deduce, for fixed integer n, the existence of nonzero polynomials  $P_n(z)$  and  $Q_n(z)$  with rational integer coefficients and degree n, such that

$$P_n(z) - f(z) Q_n(z) = z^{2n+1} E_n(z)$$

where  $E_n(z)$  is a power series in z (let's not worry too much about convergence!). In certain situations, these *Padé approximants* (which are unique up to scaling) can be written down in explicit fashion.

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# Padé approximants to the binomial function

Such is the case for  $f(z) = (1-z)^{1/m}$ . Indeed, if we define

$$P_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+1/m}{k} \binom{2n-k}{n} (-z)^k$$

and

$$Q_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n \left(\begin{array}{c} n-1/m \\ k \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} 2n-k \\ n \end{array}\right) (-z)^k,$$

then there exists a power series  $E_n(\boldsymbol{z})$  such that for all complex  $\boldsymbol{z}$  with  $|\boldsymbol{z}|<1,$ 

$$P_n(z) - (1-z)^{1/m} Q_n(z) = z^{2n+1} E_n(z).$$
 (2)

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### What's in a name?

A hypergeometric function is a power series of the shape

$$+\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{\alpha(\alpha+1)\cdots(\alpha+n-1)\beta(\beta+1)\cdots(\beta+n-1)}{\gamma(\gamma+1)\cdots(\gamma+n-1)n!}z^{n}.$$

We'll call such function  $F(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, z)$ . Here z is a complex variable and  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are complex constants. If  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$  is a non-positive integer and m is the smallest integer such that

$$\alpha(\alpha+1)\cdots(\alpha+m)\beta(\beta+1)\cdots(\beta+m)=0,$$

then  $F(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, z)$  is a polynomial in z of degree m.

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# The hypergeometric differential equation

It is worth noting that the hypergeometric function  $F(\alpha,\beta,\gamma,z)$  satisfies the differential equation

$$z(1-z)\frac{d^2F}{dz^2} + (\gamma - (1+\alpha+\beta)z)\frac{dF}{dz} - \alpha\beta F = 0.$$
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# Padé approximants as hypergeometric functions

Note that, in terms of hypergeometric functions,

$$P_n(z) = \binom{2n}{n} F(-1/m - n, -n, -2n, z)$$

$$Q_n(z) = \binom{2n}{n} F(1/m - n, -n, -2n, z),$$

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# An application of differential equations

Another way to see (4), then, is to note that the functions

$$P_n(z), \ (1-z)^{1/m}Q_n(z)$$

and

$$z^{2n+1}F(n+1, n+(m-1)/m, 2n+2, z)$$

each satisfy (3) with  $\alpha = -1/m - n$ ,  $\beta = -n$ ,  $\gamma = -2n$ , and hence, it is not too difficult to show, are linearly dependent over the rationals. Finding the dependency is then a reasonably easy exercise.

Most of the functions for which we are able to explicitly determine families of Padé approximants are special cases of the hypergeometric function.

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# Padé approximants to the binomial function : m = 3

In the case of  $f(z) = (1-z)^{1/3}$ , setting

$$P_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n \left(\begin{array}{c} n+1/3\\k \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} 2n-k\\n \end{array}\right) (-z)^k$$

and

$$Q_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n \left(\begin{array}{c} n-1/3\\k\end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} 2n-k\\n\end{array}\right) (-z)^k,$$

there thus exists a power series  $E_n(z)$  such that for all complex z with |z| < 1,

$$P_n(z) - (1-z)^{1/3} Q_n(z) = z^{2n+1} E_n(z).$$
(4)

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### Some amazing facts

For later use, it is worth noting the following results.

LEMMA 1 : Let n be a positive integer and suppose that z is a complex number with  $|1-z|\leq 1.$  Then (i) We have

$$P_n(z)| < 4^n, |Q_n(z)| < 4^n$$

and

$$|E_n(z)| < 4^{-n}(1-|z|)^{-\frac{1}{2}(2n+1)}$$

(ii) For all complex numbers  $z \neq 0$ , we have

 $P_n(z)Q_{n+1}(z) \neq P_{n+1}(z)Q_n(z).$ 

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# Some amazing facts (continued)

(iii) If k is a nonnegative integer, then

$$3^{k+[k/2]} \left( \begin{array}{c} n+1/3\\k \end{array} 
ight)$$

is an integer.

(iv) If we define  $G_n$  to be the largest positive integer such that

$$rac{3^{n+[n/2]}P_n(z)}{G_n}$$
 and  $rac{3^{n+[n/2]}Q_n(z)}{G_n}$ 

are both polynomials with integer coefficients, then

$$G_n > \frac{1}{42} \, 2^n,$$

for all positive integers n.

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### An example

Let's substitute 
$$z = -1/5831$$
 into

$$P_n(z) - (1-z)^{1/3} Q_n(z) = z^{2n+1} E_n(z).$$

Then for

$$\theta = \left(1 + \frac{1}{5831}\right)^{1/3},$$

we have

$$P_n - \theta Q_n = I_n,$$

with  $P_n, Q_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Specifically ...

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# An example (continued)

Specifically,

$$P_n - \theta Q_n = I_n,$$

with

$$P_n = \frac{3^{n+[n/2]} \cdot 5831^n \cdot P_n(-1/5831)}{G_n},$$
$$Q_n = \frac{3^{n+[n/2]} \cdot 5831^n \cdot Q_n(-1/5831)}{G_n},$$

$$I_n = \frac{3^{n+[n/2]} \cdot 5831^{-n-1} \cdot E_n(-1/5831)}{G_n}.$$

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## An example (continued)

We thus have a sequence of integers  $P_n, Q_n$  with  $P_n/Q_n$  and  $P_{n+1}/Q_{n+1}$  distinct,

$$|Q_n| < \frac{3^{n+[n/2]} \cdot 5831^n \cdot Q_n(-1/5831)}{G_n} < 42 \times 60598^n$$

$$P_n - \theta Q_n | < \frac{3^{n+[n/2]} \cdot 5831^{-n-1} \cdot E_n(-1/5831)}{G_n} < 43 \times 8975^{-n}$$

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## An example (continued)

We thus have a sequence of integers  $P_n, Q_n$  with  $P_n/Q_n$  and  $P_{n+1}/Q_{n+1}$  distinct,

$$|Q_n| < \frac{3^{n+[n/2]} \cdot 5831^n \cdot Q_n(-1/5831)}{G_n} < 42 \times 60598^n$$

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## A reminder

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 $|Q_n| < a \cdot \alpha^n$ , and  $|P_n - Q_n \theta| < b \cdot \beta^{-n}$ ,

for all positive integers n, then

$$\left|\theta - \frac{p}{q}\right| > \left(2 \, a \, \alpha \, (2 \, b \, \beta)^{\lambda}\right)^{-1} |q|^{-1-\lambda} \quad \text{for} \quad \lambda = \frac{\log \alpha}{\log \beta}, \quad (*)$$

for all integers p and  $q \neq 0$ , with |q| > 1/2b.

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## A reminder

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 $|Q_n| < a \cdot \alpha^n$ , and  $|P_n - Q_n \theta| < b \cdot \beta^{-n}$ ,

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for all integers p and  $q \neq 0$ , with |q| > 1/2b.

We have

$$a=42,\;\alpha=60598,\;b=43,\;\beta=8975$$

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# An example (concluded)

We thus have

$$\left| \left( 1 + \frac{1}{5831} \right)^{1/3} - \frac{P}{Q} \right| > \left( 7 \cdot 10^{13} \right)^{-1} Q^{-2.21},$$

valid for all positive integers P and Q.

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# An example (concluded)

We thus have

$$\left| \left( 1 + \frac{1}{5831} \right)^{1/3} - \frac{P}{Q} \right| > \left( 7 \cdot 10^{13} \right)^{-1} Q^{-2.21},$$

valid for all positive integers P and Q.

But

$$1 + \frac{1}{5831} = \frac{5832}{5831} = \frac{18^3}{17 \cdot 7^3},$$

and hence writing P = 18q and Q = 7p, we conclude that

$$\left|\frac{18}{7\sqrt[3]{17}} - \frac{18q}{7p}\right| > \left(7 \cdot 10^{13}\right)^{-1} (7p)^{-2.21}$$

.

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# An example (concluded)

### From the inequality

$$\left|\frac{18}{7\sqrt[3]{17}} - \frac{18q}{7p}\right| > \left(7 \cdot 10^{13}\right)^{-1} (7p)^{-2.21},$$

valid for all positive integers  $\boldsymbol{p}$  and  $\boldsymbol{q},$  we conclude that

$$\left|\sqrt[3]{17} - \frac{p}{q}\right| > \left(2 \cdot 10^{16}\right)^{-1} q^{-2.21}$$

and, after a little work, that

$$\left| \sqrt[3]{17} - \frac{p}{q} \right| > \frac{1}{100} q^{-2.22}.$$

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### Solving Nils' problem N1

Suppose we have that

$$x^3 - 17y^3 = 1$$

in, say, positive integers x and y. Then

$$\left|\sqrt[3]{17} - \frac{x}{y}\right| = \frac{1}{x^2y + 17^{1/3}xy^2 + 17^{2/3}y^3} < \frac{1}{3 \cdot 17^{2/3}y^3}.$$

Since also

$$\left|\sqrt[3]{17} - \frac{x}{y}\right| > \frac{1}{100} y^{-2.22},$$

it follows that y < 8. A quick check yields (x, y) = (18, 7).

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## More generally

### One can prove

### Theorem

If a and b are distinct nonzero integers, then the equation

$$\left|ax^3 - by^3\right| = 1$$

has at most one solution in positive integers x and y.

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### A couple more applications

We can use similar arguments to show that

$$\left|x^2 - 2^n\right| > \sqrt{x}$$

for all positive integers x,

$$x \notin \{3, 181, 2^j, j \in \mathbb{Z}\},\$$

and to show that writing

$$x^2 + 7 = 2^n \cdot M$$
, for  $M \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

implies that either  $|x| \in \{1, 3, 5, 11, 181\}$  of  $M > \sqrt{|x|}$ .