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Some Results Concerning Periodic Continued Fractions

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#### Abstract

This dissertation discusses the regular continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ where $D(X)$ is a quadratic polynomial whose coefficients satisfy a certain divisibility condition.

There are two main results in this dissertation. We show that certain families of non-square $D$ may be represented by some quadratic $D(X)$ satisfying the divisibility condition and give a surprising period length property of the product of some members of a family. The second result generalizes the work of van der Poorten and Williams [206] concerning the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for sufficiently large $X$, where $D(X)$ obeys the divisibility condition. Also, we establish an upper bound for the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ using the Lucas-Lehmer theory, and construct the fundamental unit of the real quadratic order $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$.


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## Dedication

To Mom, Dad and Lea, this thesis would not be done without your support.

## Table of Contents

Approval Page ..... ii
Abstract ..... iii
Acknowledgments ..... iv
Dedication ..... v
Table of Contents ..... vi
Glossary ..... xi
1 Introduction ..... 1
1.1 Basic Definitions ..... 4
1.2 Periodicity and Quadratic Irrationals ..... 8
1.3 Pell Equations ..... 13
1.4 A Brief Description of Real Quadratic Fields ..... 16
1.5 Ideals of an Order ..... 20
1.6 The Class Number Formula ..... 31
1.7 Lucas Functions ..... 40
2 Known Results on the Continued Fraction Expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ ..... 46
2.1 A Short History of Certain Parametric Families of $D$ ..... 46
2.2 Kraitchik's Work ..... 52
2.3 Schinzel Sleepers ..... 54
2.4 Work of van der Poorten and Williams ..... 60
3 Symmetric Sequence Perspective of Continued Fractions ..... 67
3.1 A Theorem of Perron ..... 67
3.2 Families $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ ..... 72
4 The Continued Fraction Expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ ..... 89
4.1 Embedding an Integer Sequence in a Continued Fraction ..... 90.
4.2 Preliminary Lemmas ..... 95
4.3 The Continued Fraction Expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ ..... 112
5 Results Pertaining to the Continued Fraction Expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ ..... 118
5.1 Number of Patterns ..... 119
5.2 Upper Bound for $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ ..... 122
5.3 Fundamental Unit of $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$ ..... 136
6 Final Comments ..... 141
6.1 Symmetries of the Continued Fraction Expansions of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ ..... 142
6.2 Estimates for $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ ..... 146
Bibliography ..... 149
A Supplementary Examples for Kraitchik's work ..... 177
B Letters from Kaplansky ..... 182
C Examples for the Continued Fraction Expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ ..... 183
C. 1 Eight Possible Cases ..... 183
C. 2 More Computations ..... 200
D Tables for the Average of $l(a / r)$ ..... 209
E Some Estimates for $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ ..... 211
F Constructing $D(X)$ ..... 212

## List of Tables

3.1 Possible values of $m$. ..... 72
$3.2 \psi=\{1,2,2,2,1\}$. ..... 74
$3.3 \quad \psi=\{1,2,2,1\}$ ..... 75
3.4 C. F. of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ when $\psi=1,2,2,2,1$ and $m=1$ or 2 ..... 82
3.5 C. F. of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ when $\psi=1,2,2,2,1, m=4$ and $D(X)$ is even. ..... 82
3.6 C. F. of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ when $\psi=1,2,2,2,1, m=4$ and $D(X)$ is odd. ..... 83
5.1 Values of $\kappa$ when $\Delta^{\prime} \mid 2$. ..... 125
5.2 Values of $\kappa$ and $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ of $\sqrt{119^{2} X^{2}+2(833) X+245}$. ..... 133
5.3 Values of $\kappa$ and $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ of $\sqrt{2002^{2} X^{2}+2(44044)+605}$. ..... 134
5.4 Values of $\kappa$ and $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ of $\sqrt{119^{2} X^{2}+2(2023) X+1445}$. ..... 134
5.5 Values of $\kappa$ for $\sqrt{119^{2} X^{2}+2(2205) X+343}$. ..... 136
C. $1 \quad D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(833) X+98$ ..... 185
C. $2 D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(833) X+98$ ..... 185
C. $3 \quad D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1176) X+98$ ..... 187
C. $4 D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1666) X+224$ ..... 188
C. $5 \quad D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2555) X+461$ ..... 189
C. $6 \quad D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1666) X+98$ ..... 191
C. $7 \quad D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2890) X+578$ ..... 197
C. $8 \quad D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1666) X+168$ ..... 198
C. $9 \quad D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1700) X+204$ ..... 199
C. $10 D(X)=3^{2} X^{2}+2(9) X$ ..... 200
C. $11 D(X)=180^{2} X^{2}+2(4950) X+750$ ..... 201
C. $12 D(X)=5^{2} X^{2}+2(25) X$ ..... 202
C. $13 D(X)=2^{2} X^{2}+2(8) X$ ..... 203
C. $14 D(X)=3^{2} X^{2}+2(18) X$ ..... 205
C. $15 D(X)=22^{2} X^{2}+2(484) X$ ..... 208
D. 1 Even Length ..... 209
D. 2 Odd Length ..... 210
E. 1 Some estimates for $\operatorname{lp}\left(\sqrt{4927230^{2} X^{2}+2(12138809742675) X+6069410874450}\right)$ ..... 211

## Glossary

A natural number whose square is the first coefficient of $D(X)$ ..... 2
$A^{*}$
$A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)$ ..... 98
$A^{\prime}$ $A^{*} / \Gamma$. In particular, $A^{\prime}=1$ when $A \mid B$ ..... 99
$A_{i}$ numerator of the $i$-th convergent of a continued fraction ..... 4
$a$ rational integer; also the real part of $s$ in Section 1.6 ..... 36
$a_{i}$ $i$-th partial quotient of a continued fraction ..... 4
$\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle$ formal continued fraction ..... 4
$\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ regular continued fraction; ..... 6
$\left(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \ldots, \theta_{k}\right) \quad$ Ideal generated by $\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \ldots, \theta_{k} \in \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ ..... 22
a ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ ..... 21
$\overline{\mathfrak{a}}$ conjugate ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ ..... 25
B rational integer; also, $2 B$ is the second coefficient of $D(X)$ ..... 2
B* $B /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)$ ..... 98
$B^{\prime}$ $B^{*} / \Gamma$ ..... 212
$B_{i}$ denominator of the $i$-th convergent of a continued fraction ..... 4
b rational integer; also the imaginary part of $s$ in Section 1.6 ..... 36
C rational integer; also, the constant coefficient of $D(X)$ ..... 2
$\mathbb{C}$ the set of complex numbers ..... 36
$\mathcal{C}_{\Delta}$ class group of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ ..... 26
D non-square natural number ..... 9
$D_{0}$ radicand of a real quadratic field, square-free ..... 16
$D(X)$ $A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ ..... 2
$\operatorname{gcd}(E, F)$93
$d_{1}=1$ and for $i \geq 2, d_{i}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i-1}, r_{i-1}\right)$ ..... 100, 108, 110
$d B_{m-1}$ formally and $M-A P_{0}$ in practice ..... 93
$d A_{m-1}$ formally and $A Q_{0}$ in practice ..... 93
$i$-th Fibonacci number ..... 123
family of $(\tau-1+\sqrt{D}) / \tau$ defined by a palindromic string $\psi$ ..... 72
conductor of a real quadratic order ..... 18
$P_{0} B_{i}-Q_{0} A_{i}$ ..... 13
$\operatorname{gcd}\left(f_{\Delta}, \sigma_{0}\right)$ ..... 17
when $r_{i}=0, g_{i}=0$ or $d_{i}$ according as $\sigma=-1$ or 1 ; when $r_{i}>0$, $0 \leq g_{i}<A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}$ and $g_{i} r_{i-1} /\left(d_{i-1} d_{i}\right) \equiv \sigma \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} /\left(d_{i-1} d_{i}\right)$ ..... 108,110
$H(E / d) \equiv(-1)^{m} \bmod (F / d)$ and $0 \leq H<F / d$ ..... 93
$\omega_{\Delta}-f_{\Delta} \omega_{\Delta_{0}}$ ..... 17
class number of $\mathcal{C}_{\Delta}$ ..... 26
subscript or index ..... 4
subscript or index ..... 4
$X \equiv K \bmod \Delta^{\prime}$ and $0 \leq K<\Delta^{\prime}$ ..... 104
subscript or non-negative rational integers ..... 9
part of $L^{2} D=M^{2}-N$ in Lemma 4.1.1 ..... 93
35
period length of a periodic continued fraction ..... 9
pre-period length of the $c$. f. expansion of a quadratic irrational $\theta$ ..... 55
logarithm with base $\varphi$ ..... 118
$\ln$ natural logarithm ..... 147
$\operatorname{lp}(\theta) \quad$ period length of the c. f. expansion of a quadratic irrational $\theta$ ..... 55
M part of $L^{2} D=M^{2}-N$ in Lemma 4.1.1 ..... 93
$m$ subscript or rational integer ..... 7,34
$N$ part of $L^{2} D=M^{2}-N$ in Lemma 4.1.1 ..... 93
$\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})$ norm of an ideal a ..... 25
$\mathcal{N}(\theta)$ norm of a quadratic irrational $\theta$ ..... 19
$n$subscript or rational integer2, 9
$\mathcal{O}_{0}$ maximal order of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ with discriminant $\triangle_{0}$ ..... 17order of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ with discriminant $\triangle$17
$O(g(x))$ $f(x)=O(g(x))$ means $f(x) / g(x) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ ..... 147
$o(g(x))$ $f(x)=o(g(x))$ means $f(x) / g(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ ..... 39rational integer; also coefficient of $x^{2}-P x+Q=0$.9, 40
rational part of the numerator of the $i$-th complete quotient of a c.f. ..... 11
$p$ rational prime ..... 42
$P^{*}$ $(-1)^{m}\left(B_{m-1} B_{m-2} Q^{\prime}-A_{m-1} A_{m-2} Q+\left(A_{m-1} B_{m-2}+A_{m-2} B_{m-1}\right) P\right)$
In particular, $P^{*}=M / L-H|N| /(d L)$ ..... 93, 93
$\mathrm{P}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ $A X+B / A-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(g_{i} / A^{\prime}\right)\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)$ ..... 104non-zero rational integer9denominator of the $i$-th complete quotient of a continued fraction11
Q* $(-1)^{m}\left(A_{m-1}^{2} Q-B_{m-1}^{2} Q^{\prime}-2 A_{m-1} B_{m-1} P\right)$ or $Q^{*}=|N| Q_{0} / d^{2}$ ..... 93
$\mathrm{Q}_{i}$ $\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}$ ..... 104
© the field of rational numbers ..... 16
$\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ real quadratic field ..... 16$\lfloor B / A\rfloor$ in Chapter 495
$q_{i}(X)$ $\left.\left\lfloor\mathrm{P}_{i}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathrm{Q}_{i}\right\rfloor$ ..... 91
R-D type $X^{2}+r$, where $r \mid 4 X$ and $-2 X+1<r \leq 2 X$ ..... 48
$R_{\Delta}$ regulator of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ ..... 33
$\mathrm{R}_{i}$ $\mathbf{P}_{i}+\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor-q_{i}(X) \mathrm{Q}_{i}$ ..... 105
$r$non-negative integer, also stands for $B-A q$ in Chapter 496
$r_{i}$$r_{0}=r /\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)$. For $i \geq 1,0 \leq r_{i}<A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}$ and$r_{i} \equiv d_{i}\left(2 A^{2} K+2 B\right) /\left(\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}\right)-g_{i} \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}$ for $i \geq 1$104
$\mathcal{S}(a, r) \quad$ ordered set determined by $a$ and $r$ ..... 99
$\mathcal{S}_{i}$ $\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)$ ..... 104
$\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|$ cardinality of $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ ..... 122
$s$ complex variable ..... 36
$s_{i}$
rational integer and partial quotient of $F / E=\left\langle s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}\right\rangle$ ..... 7,93
$T$ $\left(2 A^{2} K+2 B\right) /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}\right)$ ..... 124
$t_{i}$
$U_{n}$$\left\lfloor\left(d_{i}\left(2 A^{2} K+2 B\right) /\left(\Delta_{1}^{s_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}\right)-g_{i}\right) /\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)\right\rfloor$106
$\left(\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}\right) /(\alpha-\beta)$, a Lucas function ..... 40
$u_{\Delta}$unit index of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$39
$V_{n}$ $\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n}$, a Lucas function ..... 40
W $X=W \Delta^{\prime}+K$ ..... 107
$X$ rational integer variable of $D(X)$ ..... 2
$x^{2}-y^{2} D=1$ Pell equation ..... 13
$Z_{i}$$Z_{-1}=0, Z_{0}=1$ and $Z_{i+1}=\left(T / \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\right) Z_{i}-\sigma Z_{i-1}$ for $i \geq 0$130
$\mathbb{Z}$ the set of rational integers ..... 16
$\mathbb{Z}\left[\omega_{0}\right]$ $\mathbb{Z}$-module generated by $I$ and $\omega_{0}$ ..... 17
$\alpha, \beta$ roots of $x^{2}-P x+Q=0$ ..... 40
$\Gamma$ $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \tau \Delta_{4}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)$ ..... 99Euler constant39
$\triangle$ discriminant of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ ..... 18
$\triangle_{0}$ fundamental discriminant of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ and $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta_{0}}$ ..... 16
$\Delta$ $B^{2}-A^{2} C$, the discriminant of $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ ..... 2
also, $\Delta=\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}$, where $\Delta_{1}$ and $\Delta_{2}$ are square-free ..... 98
$\Delta_{1}, \Delta_{2}, \Delta_{4}$ see $\Delta$ ..... 98
$\Delta^{\prime}$ $\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma$ ..... 99$\epsilon, \epsilon(p)$
$\epsilon(2)=0$ if $2 \mid P$ and -1 if $2 \nmid P$; otherwise$\epsilon(p)$ is the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{P^{2}-4 Q}{p}\right)$, where $x^{2}-P x+Q=0$42
$\varepsilon_{i}$ 0 or 1 according as $i$ is even or odd in Chapter 4 ..... 104
$\varepsilon_{\Delta}$ fundamental unit of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ ..... 19
$\zeta(s)$ Riemann zeta function ..... 36
$\zeta_{K}(s)$ Dedekind zeta function ..... 37
$\eta$$\theta$1 if $r=0$ and $\sigma=1 ; 0$ otherwise99
quadratic irrational of the form $(P+\sqrt{D}) / Q$ ..... 10
$i$-th complete quotient of a continued fraction ..... 4
$\theta^{*}$ real number defined by $\theta=\left\langle a_{0}, s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}, \theta^{*}\right\rangle$ ..... 7principal ideal generated by $\theta$25minimal number of insertions in the c. f. expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$95
$\kappa_{0}$ Dirichlet structure constant ..... 36
$\Lambda(m)$ generalized Carmichael $\lambda$-function ..... 43
$\Lambda^{\prime}\left(p^{n}\right)$ $p^{n}$ if $p \mid P^{2}-4 Q$; and $p^{n-1}(p-\epsilon) / 2$ if $p \nmid P^{2}-4 Q$ ..... 135
$\Lambda^{\prime}(m)$ $\Lambda^{\prime}(m)=\operatorname{lcm}\left\{\Lambda^{\prime}\left(p_{i}^{n_{i}}\right): i=1,2, \ldots, k\right\}$, where $m=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{n_{i}}$ ..... 135
$\Lambda(d) \quad$ von Mangoldt's function ..... 147
$\rho \quad$ number of patterns of the c.f. expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ ..... 121
$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{n}}{n^{s}}$ Dirichlet series ..... 33
$\sigma_{0}$ 1 or 2 in Chapter 1 ..... 16
$\sigma$ 1 or 2 in Chapter 1 ..... 17
$\sigma$ $\operatorname{sign}$ of $\Delta$, i.e., $\operatorname{sgn}(\Delta)$, in Chapter 4 ..... 98
$\tau$ 1 or 2, depending on $D$ in Chapter 3 ..... 68$\tau$
$\Phi(m)$
1 or 2 , depending on the divisibility of $A$ by $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}$ in Chapter 4 ..... 98
generalized Euler $\phi$-function ..... 43
$\varphi$$(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2$, the golden ratio123Dirichlet character modulo $m$33
principal character modulo $m$ ..... 34
$\chi_{\Delta_{0}}$Kronecker symbol, $\left(\frac{\Delta_{0}}{*}\right)$35
$\psi_{\Delta_{0}}\left(f_{\Delta}\right)$ $f_{\triangle} \Pi\left(1-\left(\frac{\Delta_{0}}{p}\right)\right)$ ..... 39
$\omega(m)$ rank of apparition of $m$ in the the Lucas function $U_{n}$ ..... 43
$\omega_{0}$ $\left(\sigma_{0}-1+\sqrt{D_{0}}\right) / \sigma_{0}$ ..... 17
$\omega_{\Delta}$ $(\sigma-1+\sqrt{D}) / \sigma$ ..... 17binomial coeffient41
$\left(\frac{m}{p}\right)$ Legendre symbol ..... 33
$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)$ Jacobi symbol ..... 34
$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)$ Kronecker symbol ..... 34
$[a, \beta]$ $\mathbb{Z}$-module generated by $a$ and $\beta$ ..... 17
$a \mid b$ rational integer $a$ divides rational integer $b$, i.e., $b=a m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ ..... 2
$a \| b$
$a \mid b$ and if $p \mid a$, then $a p \nmid b$43
$\mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{b} \quad$ ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ divides ideal $\mathfrak{b}$, i.e., $\mathfrak{b}=\mathfrak{a c}$ for some ideal $\mathfrak{c} \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots . \ldots . .$.
greatest rational integer less than $x \in \mathbb{R}$, also known as the floor of $x \ldots . .93$
$\lceil x\rceil \quad$ least rational integer greater than $x \in \mathbb{R}$, also known as the ceiling of $x \ldots 72$
$f \sim \phi \quad f \sim \phi$ means that $f(x) / \phi(x) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots . .$.

## Chapter 1

## Introduction

Continued fractions have been studied by mathematicians for over 2000 years. They have found application in a wide variety of areas in mathematics, particularly when accurate approximations of certain objects are required. One important place where continued fractions have found application is in number theory. For instance, we can use the properties of periodic continued fractions to determine the fundamental unit of a real quadratic order and subsequently to determine the class number and class group structure of that order. These invariants of the order are of enormous importance in understanding how to solve number theoretic and Diophantine problems within the order. Thus, any progress in understanding the structure of a continued fraction expansion of real quadratic irrational is of great value in any subsequent work to be done in the associated order. One of the objectives of this thesis is to produce the complete continued fraction period for irrationals in a particular class first studied by Schinzel in 1961.

Finding the fundamental unit of a real quadratic order, as we will show in Section 1.3, is essentially equivalent to finding the fundamental solution of the quadratic Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|x^{2}-D y^{2}\right|=1 \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $D$ is a non-square natural number. The well-known method for solving such an equation is the continued fraction method, in which we convert $\sqrt{D}$ into a continued fraction and subsequently obtain the fundamental solution.

Although the continued fraction method provides the fundamental solution of (1.1), getting the fundamental solution is by no means trivial in general. In many instances, the computation is extremely time-consuming when $D$ is large. However, it is sometimes possible to write $D$ as
an integer-valued polynomial evaluated at some $X$, i.e., $D=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$, and express the regular continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ in terms of the coefficients of that polynomial.

In his 1961 paper [213], Schinzel showed that if $D(X)$ is an integer-valued polynomial of odd degree, or of even degree with non-square leading coefficient, then the regular continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has unbounded period length as $X$ varies. However, when $D(X)$ is a quadratic polynomial,

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C, \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with integer coefficients, where we may take $A>0$, Schinzel showed that the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is bounded for all integers $X$ if and only if it satisfies what is called the Schinzel condition

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2} \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the discriminant, $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C$, is non-zero.
van der Poorten and Williams [206] gave the regular continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for sufficiently large $X$ when $D(X)$ is a quadratic polynomial satisfying the Schinzel condition together with the additional condition that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree. For example, they showed that $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has regular continued fraction expansion

$$
\left(A X+a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, 2\left(A X+a_{0}\right)}\right)
$$

where $B, C>0,|\Delta|=\left|B^{2}-A^{2} C\right|=1$ and $B / A=\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ for all non-negative integers $X$. It is clear that the above expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has fixed period length for all non-negative integers $X$. We will give a more detailed account of van der Poorten's and Williams's work.

There are two main results in this thesis. We show that certain families of non-square $D$ may be represented by some quadratic $D(X)$ satisfying the Schinzel condition. By this result, we find a surprising period length property associated with the product of some members of a family.

The second result concerns the Schinzel condition. Schinzel's result regarding the period length of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has two parts. Louboutin [113] studied the necessity part and essentially reproved this part by establishing a lower bound for the period length of $\sqrt{D(X)}$, where $D(X)$ does not satisfy the Schinzel condition. In Chapter 4, we reprove the sufficiency part of Schinzel's result, i.e, if $D(X)$ satisfies the Schinzel condition, then the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has a bounded period as $X$ varies. We use a constructive approach to investigate the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. Assuming the Schinzel condition, we show that as $X$ varies, the continued fraction expansions of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ can be separated into a finite number of classes of constant period length. More importantly, we obtain the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. By this result, we obtain an upper bound for the period length of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ and establish a formula for the fundamental unit of the real quadratic order $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$ for fixed $X$ in Chapter 5 . Our result generalizes the work of van der Poorten and Williams [206] by dropping the condition that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree.

This thesis comprises six chapters of material along with a bibliography and an appendix. The first chapter is an introduction to continued fractions and real quadratic orders. The second chapter is a discussion of known results on the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. The third chapter contains our first original result regarding some families of $D$. The fourth chapter contains the major result of the thesis, namely the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for sufficiently large $X$, where $D(X)$ satisfies the Schinzel condition. Based upon the work in Chapter 4, in Chapter 5 we present the upper bound for the period length of the expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ as well as the fundamental unit of the real quadratic order $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$. Chapter 6 contains the concluding remarks and future research topics. The bibliography is intended to be as complete as possible, with the referenced that are explicitly referred to in this thesis being marked with an asterisk. The appendix consists of examples and relevant information pertaining to our work here.

### 1.1 Basic Definitions

The material in this section is available in the literature, such as Perron [190] and Rosen [211].
Definition 1.1.1 By a formal continued fraction we mean an expression of the form:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
a_{0}+\frac{1}{a_{1}+} & & \\
& \ddots &  \tag{1.4}\\
& & \frac{1}{a_{n}+\frac{1}{\ddots}}
\end{array}
$$

where $a_{i}$ is a real number. We call $a_{i}$ the $i$-th partial quotient for $i=0,1,2, \ldots$.

Remark 1.1.1 The above partial quotients $a_{i}$ can be complex numbers or even polynomials.

We rewrite (1.4) in the typographically simpler form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots,\right\rangle \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{i}=\left\langle a_{i}, a_{i+1}, \ldots,\right\rangle \text { for } i=0,1,2, \ldots, \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

then it is apparent that for any fixed $i \geq 0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{i}=a_{i}+\frac{1}{\theta_{i+1}}, \quad \theta_{i-1}=a_{i-1}+\frac{1}{\theta_{i}}, \ldots, \quad \theta_{1}=a_{1}+\frac{1}{\theta_{2}}, \quad \theta_{0}=a_{0}+\frac{1}{\theta_{1}} \tag{1.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\theta_{0}$ is the continued fraction in (1.5). We refer to $\theta_{i}$ as the $i$-th complete quotient.
Put

$$
A_{-2}=0, \quad B_{-2}=1, \quad A_{-1}=1, \text { and } B_{-1}=0
$$

and for $i \geq 0$, define recurrence relations

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{i}=a_{i} A_{i-1}+A_{i-2} \quad \text { and } \quad B_{i}=a_{i} B_{i-1}+B_{i-2} \tag{1.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then a truncation, $\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{i}\right\rangle$ for some non-negative integer $i$, of the continued fraction in (1.5) may be written as ratio $A_{i} / B_{i}$. We call such a ratio the $i$-th convergent of the continued fraction. The equations in (1.8) were first introduced by John Wallis in his 1655 publication, Arithmetica Infinitorum.

It is well-known that the equations in (1.8) can be written as a matrix equation,

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A_{i} & A_{i-1}  \tag{1.9}\\
B_{i} & B_{i-1}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{i-1} & A_{i-2} \\
B_{i-1} & B_{i-2}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{i} & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)=\prod_{j=0}^{i}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{j} & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

This implies that

$$
A_{i} B_{i-1}-A_{i-1} B_{i}=\operatorname{det}\left(\prod_{j=0}^{i}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{j} & 1  \tag{1.10}\\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\right)=(-1)^{i+1}
$$

and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A_{i}, B_{i}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A_{i}, A_{i-1}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A_{i-1}, B_{i-1}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(B_{i}, B_{i-1}\right)=1$.
If we write

$$
\prod_{j=1}^{i}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{j} & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
u & z \\
v & w
\end{array}\right)
$$

then

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A_{i} & A_{i-1} \\
B_{i} & B_{i-1}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{0} & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
u & z \\
v & w
\end{array}\right) .
$$

This implies that $A_{i}=a_{0} u+v, B_{i}=u, A_{i-1}=a_{0} z+w$ and $B_{i-1}=z$. When the rightmost matrix of the above equation is symmetric, that is $v=z$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{i}=a_{0} u+v, \quad B_{i}=u, \quad A_{i-1}=a_{0} v+w, \quad \text { and } B_{i-1}=v \tag{1.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (1.6) and (1.7), we may write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{0}=\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{i-1}, \theta_{i}\right\rangle \tag{1.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $i=1$, then

$$
\theta_{0}=\left\langle a_{0}, \theta_{1}\right\rangle=\frac{a_{0} \theta_{1}+1}{\theta_{1}}=\frac{A_{0} \theta_{1}+A_{-1}}{B_{0} \theta_{1}+B_{-1}} .
$$

Similarly, if $i=2$, then

$$
\theta_{0}=\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}, \theta_{2}\right\rangle=\frac{A_{1} \theta_{2}+A_{0}}{B_{1} \theta_{2}+B_{0}}
$$

Repeating this process inductively on $i$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{0}=\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{i-1}, \theta_{i}\right\rangle=\frac{A_{i-1} \theta_{i}+A_{i-2}}{B_{i-1} \theta_{i}+B_{i-2}} \tag{1.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Rearranging terms to express $\theta_{i}$ in terms of $\theta_{0}$, we get a useful formula,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{i}=-\frac{B_{i-2} \theta_{0}-A_{i-2}}{B_{i-1} \theta_{0}-A_{i-1}} \tag{1.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows that $\theta_{i}$ is uniquely determined by $\theta_{0}$ and $\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{i-1}\right\rangle$.
When the initial partial quotient, $a_{0}$, is an integer and the other partial quotients, $a_{i}$, are natural numbers for $i \geq 1$, we call the continued fraction in (1.4) regular and write it as

$$
\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right)
$$

Here, the use of ( ) is to distinguish the regular continued fraction expansion from the formal continued fraction expansion denoted by $\rangle$.

We use the Euclidean algorithm to compute the regular continued fraction expansion of a real number $\theta$. Set $\theta_{0}=\theta$ and $a_{0}=\left\lfloor\theta_{0}\right\rfloor$. If $\theta_{0}$ is an integer, then the continued fraction expansion of $\theta$ is ( $a_{0}$ ). If $\theta_{0}$ is not an integer, then it can be written as $\left\lfloor\theta_{0}\right\rfloor+1 / \theta_{1}$ for some positive real number $\theta_{1}>1$. Let $a_{1}=\left\lfloor\theta_{1}\right\rfloor$. If $\theta_{1}$ is an integer, then we get $\theta=\left(a_{0}, a_{1}\right)$. Otherwise, $\theta_{1}$ is not an integer and it can be written as $a_{1}+1 / \theta_{2}$ for some positive real number $\theta_{2}>1$. Continuing with this process, it either terminates, or it doesn't, in which case we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{0}=\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{i+1}, \ldots\right\rangle, \tag{1.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{i+1}=\left\lfloor\theta_{i+1}\right\rfloor$ and $\theta_{i+1}=1 /\left(\theta_{i}-a_{i}\right)$ for $i \geq 0$. It is clear that $\theta_{i+1}>1$ for all $i \geq 0$. Thus, $a_{i+1}=\left\lfloor\theta_{i+1}\right\rfloor \geq 1$. Hence, we may write

$$
\theta_{0}=\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right)
$$

The expansion in (1.15) terminates exactly when $\theta_{i}=\left\lfloor\theta_{i}\right\rfloor$ for some $i$. By the Euclidean algorithm, this happens if and only if $\theta_{0}$ is rational. Hence, we have a finite regular continued fraction expansion if and only if $\theta_{0}$ is rational. In other words, as a contrapositive statement, we get an infinite regular continued fraction expansion if and only if $\theta_{0}$ is irrational. Moreover, when $\theta_{0}$ is irrational, the infinite regular continued fraction expansion of $\theta$ is unique by (1.15).

Lemma 1.1.1 Let $\theta$ be an irrational number, $s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1} \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\theta^{*}$ defined by

$$
\theta=\left\langle s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}, \theta^{*}\right\rangle
$$

If $s_{0} \neq\lfloor\theta\rfloor$, then $\theta^{*}<1$.
Proof: Let $\theta_{1}=1 /\left(\theta-s_{0}\right)$. Then $\theta_{1}=\left\langle s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{m-1}, \theta^{*}\right\rangle$. If $s_{0} \neq\lfloor\theta\rfloor$, then $0<\theta_{1}<1$ if $s_{0}<\lfloor\theta\rfloor$ and $\theta_{1}<0$ if $s_{0}>\lfloor\theta\rfloor$. Write $\theta_{2}=1 /\left(\theta_{1}-s_{1}\right)$. Since $s_{1} \in \mathbb{N}$, we get $\theta_{2}=1 /\left(\theta_{1}-s_{1}\right)<0$. Similarly, $\theta_{3}=1 /\left(\theta_{2}-s_{2}\right)<0$. Continuing with the process, we get $\theta^{*}=1 /\left(\theta_{m-1}-s_{m-1}\right)<0$. Hence, $\theta^{*}<1$.

Theorem 1.1.1 Let $\theta$ be an irrational number, $a_{0}=\lfloor\theta\rfloor, s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1} \in \mathbb{N}, \theta_{1}=1 /\left(\theta-a_{0}\right)$, $\theta_{i+1}=1 /\left(\theta_{i}-s_{i-1}\right)$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$, and $\theta^{*}$ be a real number defined by the formal continued fraction

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta=\left\langle a_{0}, s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}, \theta^{*}\right\rangle \tag{1.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\theta^{*}>1$, then $s_{i-1}=\left\lfloor\theta_{i}\right\rfloor$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$.
Proof: Suppose on the contrary that there exists some $i$ such that $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $s_{i-1} \neq\left\lfloor\theta_{i}\right\rfloor$. Then by Lemma 1.1.1, we have $\theta^{*}<1$.

Remark 1.1.2 From Theorem 1.1.1, we see that $\theta^{*}$ is the $(m+1)$-th complete quotient $\theta_{m+1}$ of the regular continued fraction expansion of $\theta$. Thus, if $\left(s_{m}, s_{m+1}, \ldots\right)$ is the regular continued fraction expansion of $\theta^{*}$, then the regular continued fraction expansion of $\theta$ is given by

$$
\left(a_{0}, s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}, s_{m}, s_{m+1}, \ldots\right)
$$

Hence, when conditions of the theorem are met, it is justified to write the continued fraction in (1.16) as $\left(a_{0}, s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}, \theta^{*}\right)$ and refer to it as the regular continued fraction expansion of $\theta$.

Unlike the infinite expansions, it is possible to express a finite regular continued fraction expansion in two ways. Suppose that we have a regular continued fraction expansion ( $a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{i}$ ). If $a_{i} \geq 2$, then we may also write the expansion as $\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{i}-1,1\right)$. Similarly, if $a_{i}=1$, then we may write $\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{i}\right)$ as $\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{i-1}+1\right)$.

In the theorem below, we give a classical result on finite continued fractions and linear Diophantine equations.

Theorem 1.1.2 Let $a, b$, and $c$ be non-zero integers and $x$ and $y$ integer unknowns. If $d=$ $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$ and $d \mid c$, then the solutions to the linear Diophantine equation

$$
a x-b y=c
$$

are given by

$$
x=B_{n-1}(c / d)+m(b / d) \quad \text { and } \quad y=A_{n-1}(c / d)+m(a / d)
$$

where $A_{n-1} / B_{n-1}$ is $(n-1)$-th convergent of $a / b=\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right), n$ is odd and $m$ is any integer. Proof: See Rosen [211, Theorem 2.14, p. 113].

### 1.2 Periodicity and Quadratic Irrationals

Among the infinite regular continued fractions, the periodic ones are the most studied. Over the past few centuries, many interesting and important results have been established. References and proofs can be found in Davenport [31], Hurwitz [74] and [75], Perron [190] and Williams [251], for instance. We will distill this wealth of information into a few sections of results that are needed for the work in the sequel. Since we are primarily interested in regular continued fractions, we will omit the word regular from now on, unless ambiguity arises.

Definition 1.2.1 An infinite continued fraction, $\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, \ldots\right)$, is called periodic if there exists a natural number $\ell$ and an non-negative $k$ such that for all non-negative integers $n$,

$$
a_{k+i}=a_{k+n \ell+i}
$$

for $0 \leq i \leq \ell-1$.

We write such a periodic continued fraction as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k-1}, \overline{a_{k}, a_{k+2}, \ldots, a_{k+\ell-1}}\right) \tag{1.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

and if $\ell$ is minimal, it is called the period length. When $k$ is minimal, the integer sequence $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}$ is referred to as the pre-period and the integer sequence $a_{k}, a_{k+1}, \ldots, a_{k+\ell-1}$ under the overline notation as the period. Also, when the pre-period is empty, in this case $k=0$, we call such a continued fraction expansion purely periodic.

The study of periodic continued fraction expansions focuses on a mathematical object called a quadratic irrational.

Definition 1.2.2 A quadratic irrational is a real number of the form

$$
\frac{P+\sqrt{D}}{Q}
$$

where $D$ is a non-square natural number, $P$ is an integer, $Q$ is a natural number, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
P^{2} \equiv D \bmod Q \tag{1.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that since

$$
\frac{P+\sqrt{D}}{Q}=\frac{P Q+\sqrt{D Q^{2}}}{Q^{2}} \quad \text { and } \quad(P Q)^{2} \equiv D Q^{2} \bmod Q^{2}
$$

we may always assume (1.18). For instance, the golden ratio, $(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2$, satisfies (1.18), i.e.,

$$
1^{2} \equiv 5 \bmod 2
$$

and the other conditions required by Definition 1.2.2. Hence, it is a quadratic irrational.
In the eighteenth century, Euler and Lagrange proved that a real number $\theta$ has a periodic continued fraction expansion if and only if it is a quadratic irrational. Euler established the sufficiency condition and Lagrange proved the necessity condition. In light of this theorem, we understand the reason why the study of periodic continued fraction expansions is closely related to the topic of quadratic irrationals.

In the remark following Definition 1.2.1, we mentioned purely periodic continued fraction expansions. Certainly, any irrational number with a purely periodic continued fraction expansion must be a quadratic irrational by the theorem of Euler and Lagrange. But there is more: any quadratic irrational $\theta_{0}$ must have a complete quotient $\theta_{i}$ that exhibits pure periodicity by (1.17) of Definition 1.2.1.

Definition 1.2.3 A quadratic irrational $\theta=(P+\sqrt{D}) / Q$ is said to be reduced if $\theta>1$ and its conjugate $\bar{\theta}=(P-\sqrt{D}) / Q$ lies strictly between -1 and 0 .

For example, since $(1-\sqrt{5}) / 2$ lies strictly between -1 and 0 , the golden ratio, $(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2$ is reduced. From the above definition, we can deduce that $P$ and $Q$ must be positive.

In 1828, Galois showed that a real number has a purely periodic regular continued fraction expansion if and only if it is a reduced quadratic irrational. By Definition 1.2.1 and Galois' theorem, it is evident that a quadratic irrational $\theta$ will eventually have a reduced complete quotient. Moreover, once such a reduced complete quotient is determined, all ensuing complete quotients are reduced.

The results of Euler, Lagrange and Galois are central to the study of periodic continued fractions. Besides these three famous mathematicians, there are many more who contributed to the study of periodic continued fraction expansions. According to Dickson [36], Tenner [237] gave a convenient algorithm to calculate the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ for any non-square
natural number $D$. Set $a_{0}=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor, P_{0}=0, Q_{-1}=D, Q_{0}=1$ and $R_{0}=0$. For $i \geq 0$, compute

$$
\begin{gathered}
P_{i+1}=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor-R_{i}, \quad \\
Q_{i+1}=Q_{i-1}-a_{i}\left(P_{i+1}-P_{i}\right), \\
a_{i+1}=\left\lfloor\frac{P_{i+1}+\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor}{Q_{i+1}}\right\rfloor, \quad \\
R_{i+1}=\left(P_{i+1}+\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor\right)-a_{i+1} Q_{i+1} .
\end{gathered}
$$

This algorithm is called Tenner's algorithm. We note that the computation for $a_{i+1}$ and $R_{i+1}$ can be done in one operation in a modern computer.

Now, to convert an arbitrary quadratic irrational, $\theta=(P+\sqrt{D}) / Q$, into a continued fraction expansion, we set $P_{0}=P, Q_{0}=Q, a_{0}=\lfloor\theta\rfloor$, and for $i \geq 0$, define

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{i+1}=a_{i} Q_{i}-P_{i}, \quad Q_{i+1}=\frac{D-P_{i+1}^{2}}{Q_{i}} \text { and } a_{i+1}=\left\lfloor\frac{P_{i+1}+\sqrt{D}}{Q_{i+1}}\right\rfloor . \tag{1.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $\left(P_{i+1}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{i+1}$ is the $(i+1)$-th complete quotient of $\theta_{0}$. Moreover, if we put $Q_{-1}=$. $\left(D-P_{0}^{2}\right) / Q_{0}$, then $Q_{i+1}$ in (1.19) can be written as

$$
Q_{i+1}=\frac{D-P_{i+1}^{2}}{Q_{i}}=\frac{D-\left(a_{i} Q_{i}-P_{i}\right)^{2}}{Q_{i}}=\frac{D-P_{i}^{2}}{Q_{i}}-a_{i}^{2} Q_{i}+2 a_{i} P_{i} .
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{i+1}=Q_{i-1}-a_{i}\left(a_{i} Q_{i}-2 P_{i}\right)=Q_{i-1}-a_{i}\left(P_{i+1}-P_{i}\right) \tag{1.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

When $P_{0}=0$ and $Q_{0}=1$, we have $\theta=\sqrt{D}$ and when $P_{0}=1$ and $Q_{0}=2$, we get $\theta=$ $(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2$. These two cases play a significant role in the study of Pell equations and real quadratic fields, which are the topics of the next few sections.

Theorem 1.2.1 If $D$ is a non-square natural number, then $\sqrt{D}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{\ell-2} ; a_{\ell-1}, a_{\ell}}\right)$, where the period length is $\ell$, the first $\ell-1$ members of the period are palindromic, that is, read the same backwards as forwards, and $a_{\ell}=2 a_{0}$. In other words,

$$
\sqrt{D}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}}\right) .
$$

Moreover, if the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ is $\ell$, then the denominator $Q_{i}$ of the $i$-th complete quotient is 1 if and only if $i=n \ell$ for some non-negative integer $n$. Furthermore, if $\theta_{n \ell}$ is the $n \ell-$ th complete quotient of $\sqrt{D}$, then $\theta_{n \ell}=a_{0}+\sqrt{D}$.

Proof: See Perron [190, Satz 3.9, p. 79].
Theorem 1.2.2 If $D$ is a non-square natural number and $\theta_{i}=(P+\sqrt{D}) / Q$ is the $i$-th complete quotient of $\sqrt{D}$, where the period length of $\sqrt{D}$ is $\ell$, then

$$
0<P_{i}<\sqrt{D}, \quad 0<Q_{i}<2 \sqrt{D} \text { and } a_{i} Q_{i} \leq 2 \sqrt{D}
$$

for all positive integers $i \leq \ell$.
Proof: See Perron [190, p. 84].
Theorem 1.2.3 Let $D$ be a non-square natural number and $\ell$ the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$. If $\left(P_{i}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{i}$ is the $i$-th complete quotient of $\sqrt{D}$ for some nonnegative integer $i$, and $Q_{i} \mid 2 P_{i}$, then $\ell$ is even and $i \equiv \ell / 2 \bmod \ell$.

Proof: See Perron [190, Satz 3.13, p. 85].
Theorem 1.2.4 If $D$ is a non-square natural number that is congruent to 1 modulo 4, then

$$
\frac{1+\sqrt{D}}{2}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}-1}\right)
$$

In addition, if the period length of $(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2$ is $\ell$, then the denominator of the $i$-th complete quotient, $Q_{i}$, is 2 if and only if $i=n \ell$ for some non-negative integer $n$. Moreover, if $\theta_{n \ell}$ is the $n \ell$-th complete quotient of $(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2$ for some natural number $n$, then $\theta_{n \ell}=a_{0}-1+(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2$.

Proof: See Perron [190, Satz 3.31, p. 105].
Recall from (1.13) that

$$
\theta_{0}=\frac{A_{i-1} \theta_{i}+A_{i-2}}{B_{i-1} \theta_{i}+B_{i-2}} .
$$

Substituting $\left(P_{0}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{0}$ for $\theta_{0}$ and $\left(P_{i}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{i}$ for $\theta_{i}$, we get

$$
\frac{P_{0}+\sqrt{D}}{Q_{0}}=\frac{A_{i-1}\left(\left(P_{i}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{i}\right)+A_{i-2}}{B_{i-1}\left(\left(P_{i}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{i}\right)+B_{i-2}}
$$

On cross-multiplying the equation and comparing rational and irrational parts, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{i-1} Q_{0}-B_{i-1} P_{0}=B_{i-1} P_{i}+B_{i-2} Q_{i} \tag{1.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{i-1} D=\left(A_{i-1} P_{i}+A_{i-2} Q_{i}\right) Q_{0}-\left(B_{i-1} P_{i}+B_{i-2} Q_{i}\right) P_{0} \tag{1.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we multiply (1.21) by $A_{i-1} Q_{0}-B_{i-1} P_{0}$ and (1.22) by $B_{i-1}$ and take the difference of the two equations, then we get

$$
\left(A_{i-1} Q_{0}-B_{i-1} P_{0}\right)^{2}-D B_{i-1}^{2}=\left(A_{i-1} B_{i-2}-A_{i-2} B_{i-1}\right) Q_{0} Q_{i} .
$$

By (1.10), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(A_{i-1} Q_{0}-B_{i-1} P_{0}\right)^{2}-D B_{i-1}^{2}=(-1)^{i} Q_{0} Q_{i} . \tag{1.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

For any natural number $i$, if we put

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{i-1}=A_{i-1} Q_{0}-B_{i-1} P_{0}, \tag{1.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

then

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{i-1}^{2}-B_{i-1}^{2} D=(-1)^{i} Q_{0} Q_{i} \tag{1.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 1.3 Pell Equations

A quadratic Diophantine equation of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}-y^{2} D=1 \tag{1.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

with a non-square natural number $D$ and integer unknowns $x$ and $y$ is known as the Pell equation. This simple equation was misattributed to John Pell by Euler in [48] for a method of solving it. This particular technique of solving the Pell equation was most likely due to Lord Brouncker as credited by Wallis. Pell equations have been studied by mathematicians all over the world, such as the Greeks, the Indians and the Europeans, for over 2000 years.

Although there is no definite evidence that the ancient Greeks had a solution to (1.26), they knew of such equations according to Fowler [53]. A strong case for such knowledge can be made by considering the Cattle Problem of Archimedes. There are two parts in this problem and we present them in contemporary notation: the first asks for the determination of 8 unknowns, numbers of bulls and cows in each of four herds of cattle, with seven linear relations among these numbers. The second part essentially asks for positive integer solutions of

$$
x^{2}-41028642327842 y^{2}=1
$$

The original wording of the cattle problem is poetic in nature. There were disputes on the mathematical formulation from the exact wording of the second part of the problem. However, most of the experts today agree that the second part stands as the above Pell equation.

In the twelfth century A.D., the Indian mathematician Bhaskara II gave a technique, which came to be known as the cyclic method, that solves Pell equations in general. However, neither he nor his countrymen were able to prove the method rigorously. Nevertheless, they were content that the technique always seemed to work empirically and they used it to solve (1.26) for $D=61$, 67, 97 and 103.

According to Weil [245], Lagrange, completing earlier work of Euler, established in 1768 that a Pell equation always has a non-trivial solution, a solution with non-zero $y$. Moreover, there are infinitely many such solutions $(x, y)$ given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
x+y \sqrt{D}= \pm\left(x_{0}+y_{0} \sqrt{D}\right)^{n} \tag{1.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $n$ is any integer, $x_{0}+y_{0} \sqrt{D}>1,\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ is the minimal positive solution, of the Pell equation (1.26), and no other solutions exist except those given in (1.27). The minimal positive solution is referred to as the fundamental solution. Thus, it is evident that solving (1.26) amounts to determining the values of the integers $x_{0}$ and $y_{0}$. In modern mathematical language, the key to solving (1.26) is the use of the convergents of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ as we will see in the following theorem.

Theorem 1.3.1 Suppose that $D$ is a non-square natural number and $n$ is an integer with $|n|<$ $\sqrt{D}$. If $x$ and $y$ are co-prime positive integers and $(x, y)$ is a solution of $x^{2}-D y^{2}=n$, then $x / y$ is a convergent in the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$.

Proof: See Mollin [134, Theorem 5.2.5, p. 232].
Recall from (1.25) that

$$
G_{i-1}^{2}-B_{i-1}^{2} D=(-1)^{i} Q_{0} Q_{i} .
$$

Since we are looking at the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$, we have $P_{0}=0, Q_{0}=1$, $G_{i-1}=A_{i-1}$ and $A_{i-1}^{2}-B_{i-1}^{2} D=(-1)^{i} Q_{i}$ for natural numbers $i$. If $\ell$ is the period length of $\sqrt{D}$, then $\ell$ is the first positive index that $Q_{\ell}=1$ by Theorem 1.2.1 and

$$
A_{\ell-1}^{2}-B_{\ell-1}^{2} D=(-1)^{\ell}
$$

Now, if $\ell$ is even, then the fundamental solution to (1.26) is $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=\left(A_{\ell-1}, B_{\ell-1}\right)$. Yet, when $\ell$ is odd, the fundamental solution to (1.26) is $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=\left(A_{2 \ell-1}, B_{2 \ell-1}\right)$ since $A_{\ell-1}^{2}-B_{\ell-1}^{2} D=-1$ when $\ell$ is odd.

Theoretically, we have completely solved the Pell equation by means of finding the period length and the appropriate convergent of $\sqrt{D}$. However, in practice, we are far from a useful solution still. It is a relatively easy task to find the fundamental solution if $D$ in the Pell equation at hand is small. Yet, it is another story when $D$ is large; it could be a tremendous computational
effort to find the period length and the appropriate convergent of $\sqrt{D}$. For this reason, research on Pell equations is still very active today.

### 1.4 A Brief Description of Real Quadratic Fields

In this section, we review the basics of the theory of real quadratic fields. Notions such as orders, discriminants, units and conductors will be covered here. We will also establish the link between Pell equations and quadratic fields.

Definition 1.4.1 A real quadratic field is formed by joining $\sqrt{D_{0}}$ to the rational field $\mathbb{Q}$ for some squarefree natural number $D_{0}$, the radicand. By convention, we denote such a field by

$$
\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)=\left\{p+q \sqrt{D_{0}} \mid p, q \in \mathbb{Q}\right\} .
$$

In Definition 1.4.1, we assume that $D_{0}$ is squarefree. We justify such an assumption by the fact that if the radicand $D$ is $s^{2} D_{0}$ for some integer $s>0$, then
$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})=\{p+q \sqrt{D} \mid p, q \in \mathbb{Q}\}=\left\{p+q \sqrt{s^{2} D_{0}} \mid p, q \in \mathbb{Q}\right\}=\left\{p+s q \sqrt{D_{0}} \mid p, q \in \mathbb{Q}\right\}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$.
The basic invariant of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ is its fundamental discriminant $\Delta_{0}$, which is defined by

$$
\Delta_{0}=\left\{\begin{align*}
D_{0} & \text { if } D_{0} \equiv 1 \bmod 4  \tag{1.28}\\
4 D_{0} & \text { otherwise }
\end{align*}\right.
$$

So $\Delta_{0}$ is congruent to 0 or 1 modulo 4 , and $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ may also be written as $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{\triangle_{0}}\right)$. This implies that a quadratic field is determined by its fundamental discriminant.

Similar to the rational field $\mathbb{Q}$, which contains the ring of rational integers, $\mathbb{Z}$, the quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ contains a ring of algebraic integers that behaves in much the same manner as $\mathbb{Z}$ in $\mathbb{Q}$. Define

$$
\omega_{0}=\frac{\sigma_{0}-1+\sqrt{D_{0}}}{\sigma_{0}} \text { and } \sigma_{0}= \begin{cases}2 & \text { if } D_{0} \equiv 1 \bmod 4  \tag{1.29}\\ 1 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Thus, $\omega_{0}=\left(1+\sqrt{D_{0}}\right) / 2$ if $D_{0} \equiv 1 \bmod 4$ and $\omega_{0}=\sqrt{D_{0}}$ otherwise.
The ring of algebraic integers of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ consists of integer linear combinations of 1 and $\omega_{0}$ and is denoted by $\mathcal{O}_{0}$, namely,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{O}_{0}=\left\{a+b \omega_{0} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}, \tag{1.30}
\end{equation*}
$$

the $\mathbb{Z}$-module generated by $\left\{1, \omega_{0}\right\}$. We often use $[\alpha, \beta]$ to denote the $\mathbb{Z}$-module generated by $\{\alpha, \beta\}$, thus we can write $\mathcal{O}_{0}=\left[1, \omega_{0}\right]$. Moreover, it is clear that $\left\{1, \omega_{0}\right\}$ is a $\mathbb{Q}$-basis for $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$. Definition 1.4.2 An order of a quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$ is a ring, $\mathcal{O}$, in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$ that satisfies the following conditions.
(1) $\mathcal{O}$ is a subring of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$ containing 1 .
(2) $\mathcal{O}$ contains $a \mathbb{Q}$-basis of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$.
(3) The additive group of $\mathcal{O}$ is finitely generated.

Let $\Delta=f^{2} \triangle_{0}$ for some natural number $f$ and set

$$
\begin{equation*}
g=\operatorname{gcd}\left(f, \sigma_{0}\right), \quad \sigma=\frac{\sigma_{0}}{g}, \quad D=\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)^{2} D_{0}, \quad \Delta=\frac{4 D}{\sigma^{2}}, \text { and } \omega_{\Delta}=\frac{\sigma-1+\sqrt{D}}{\sigma} . \tag{1.31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $\omega_{\Delta}=f \omega_{0}+h$ for some integer $h$. It can be checked that the $\mathbb{Z}$-module generated by 1 and $\omega_{\Delta}$, denoted by

$$
\left[1, \omega_{\Delta}\right]=\left\{a+b \omega_{\Delta} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\right\},
$$

is an order of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$. In fact, every order of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ can be written as $\left[1, \omega_{\Delta}\right]=\left[1, f \omega_{0}\right]$, where $\omega_{\Delta}$ is given as above. So we write $\left[1, \omega_{\Delta}\right]=\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. It is not difficult to see that $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is a subring of $\mathcal{O}_{0}$. In fact, the index of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ in $\mathcal{O}_{0}$ is finite and is equal to

$$
\left|\mathcal{O}_{0}: \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}\right|=f
$$

We call $f$ the conductor of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. Moreover,

$$
\left(\omega_{\Delta}-\bar{\omega}_{\Delta}\right)^{2}=\left(\frac{2 \sqrt{D}}{\sigma}\right)^{2}=\frac{4 D}{\sigma^{2}}=\triangle
$$

and call $\Delta$ the discriminant of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. Similar to the fundamental discriminant of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right), \Delta$ is an invariant of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, i.e., it is independent of the $\mathbb{Z}$-basis used. If $f=1$, then $D=D_{0}$. It can be shown that any order of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ is a suborder of $\mathcal{O}_{0}$, thus, we refer to $\mathcal{O}_{0}$ as the maximal order of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$.

Example 1.4.1 Let $D_{0}=5$, then $\sigma_{0}=2, \Delta_{0}=5$,

$$
\omega_{0}=\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}, \quad \text { and } \quad \mathcal{O}_{0}=\left[1, \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right]
$$

Consider $\triangle=45$, then $\triangle=3^{2} \cdot 5$ with conductor $f=3$. Hence,

$$
\begin{gathered}
g=\operatorname{gcd}\left(f, \sigma_{0}\right)=1, \quad \sigma=\frac{\sigma_{0}}{g}=2, \quad D=\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)^{2} D_{0}=45, \\
\omega_{\Delta}=\frac{1+\sqrt{45}}{2}, \quad \text { and } \quad \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=\left[1, \frac{1+\sqrt{45}}{2}\right] .
\end{gathered}
$$

However, if we take $\triangle^{\prime}=180$, then $\Delta^{\prime}=6^{2} \cdot 5$ with conductor $f^{\prime}=6$. Hence,

$$
\begin{gathered}
g^{\prime}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(f^{\prime}, \sigma_{0}\right)=2, \quad \sigma^{\prime}=\frac{\sigma_{0}}{g^{\prime}}=1, \quad D^{\prime}=\left(\frac{f^{\prime}}{g^{\prime}}\right)^{2} D_{0}=45 \\
\omega_{\Delta^{\prime}}=\sqrt{45}, \quad \text { and } \quad \mathcal{O}_{\Delta^{\prime}}=[1, \sqrt{45}]
\end{gathered}
$$

Observe that

$$
[1, \sqrt{45}] \subset\left[1, \frac{1+\sqrt{45}}{2}\right] \subset\left[1, \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right]
$$

and

$$
\left|\mathcal{O}_{0}: \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}\right|=3, \quad\left|\mathcal{O}_{0}: \mathcal{O}_{\Delta^{\prime}}\right|=6, \text { and }\left|\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}: \mathcal{O}_{\Delta^{\prime}}\right|=2
$$

The norm of an element, $\theta=x+y \omega_{\Delta}$, in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is the product of $\theta$ and its algebraic conjugate, $\bar{\theta}=x+y \bar{\omega}_{\Delta}$, and is denoted by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{N}(\theta)=\left(x+y \omega_{\Delta}\right)\left(x+y \bar{\omega}_{\Delta}\right)=\frac{(\sigma x+(\sigma-1) y)^{2}-y^{2} D}{\sigma^{2}} . \tag{1.32}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\sigma$ is either 1 or 2 , it is easy to verify that $\mathcal{N}(\theta)$ is always a rational integer. Also, the norm operation is completely multiplicative, i.e., $\mathcal{N}(\theta \phi)=\mathcal{N}(\theta) \mathcal{N}(\phi)$.

An element, $\mu$, of an integral domain is called a unit if it has a multiplicative inverse in the integral domain. For instance, the identity of the ring is a unit since its multiplicative inverse is itself. Since $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is an integral domain, it has units. If $\mu$ is a unit in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, then there exists $\nu$ in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ such that $\mu \nu=1$. It follows that $\mu$ is a unit in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ if and only if $|\mathcal{N}(\mu)|=1$. Hence, to find all the units in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, we look at the equation,

$$
\mathcal{N}(\mu)=\left(x+y \omega_{\Delta}\right)\left(x+y \bar{\omega}_{\Delta}\right)= \pm 1 .
$$

By (1.32), we have

$$
\frac{(\sigma x+(\sigma-1) y)^{2}-y^{2} D}{\sigma^{2}}= \pm 1
$$

This is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\sigma x+(\sigma-1) y)^{2}-y^{2} D= \pm \sigma^{2} \tag{1.33}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\sigma$ is either 1 or 2 , we are solving a quadratic Diophantine equation. All the solutions to the above two equations are implicitly given by Theorem 1.3.1. For instance, when the right hand side of (1.33) is 1 , we get the Pell equation, $x^{2}-y^{2} D=1$, and we have presented its fundamental solution on page 15. Moreover, if $\left(\sigma x_{0}+(\sigma-1) y_{0}+y_{0} \sqrt{D}\right) / \sigma>1$ is the smallest positive unit of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, then all other units can be found by

$$
x+y \sqrt{D}= \pm\left(\frac{\sigma x_{0}+(\sigma-1) y_{0}+y_{0} \sqrt{D}}{\sigma}\right)^{n} \quad \text { for some integer } n
$$

and such a unit is called the fundamental unit of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ and denoted by $\varepsilon_{\Delta}$.

Theorem 1.4.1 If $D>0$ is a non-square integer and $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1,(\sigma-1+\sqrt{D}) / \sigma]$ is a real quadratic order, then the fundamental unit of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is

$$
\varepsilon_{\Delta}=\frac{G_{\ell-1}+B_{\ell-1} \sqrt{D}}{\sigma}
$$

where $\ell$ is the period length of the continued fraction of $(\sigma-1+\sqrt{D}) / \sigma, A_{\ell-1} / B_{\ell-1}$ is the $(\ell-1)$-th convergent of $(\sigma-1+\sqrt{D}) / \sigma$ and $G_{\ell-1}=\sigma A_{\ell-1}-(\sigma-1) B_{\ell-1}$.

Proof: This result follows from (1.25).
For example, the fundamental unit of the maximal order $[1,(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2]$ is $(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2$ since $((1+\sqrt{5}) / 2)=(1-5) / 4=-1$. It can be checked that the fundamental unit of the order $[1,(1+\sqrt{45}) / 2]$ is $(7+\sqrt{45}) / 2$ and the fundamental unit of $[1, \sqrt{45}]$ is $161+24 \sqrt{45}$.

Since $\varepsilon_{\Delta} \in \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, we can always write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon_{\Delta}=\frac{a+b \sqrt{\triangle}}{2} \tag{1.34}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some integers $a$ and $b$. For instance, if $\Delta=D$ and $\sigma=1$ in Theorem 1.4.1, then

$$
\varepsilon_{\Delta}=A_{\ell-1}+B_{\ell-1} \sqrt{D}=\frac{a+b \sqrt{\triangle}}{2}
$$

where $a=2 A_{\ell-1}$ and $b=2 B_{\ell-1}$. Similarly, we can establish (1.34) for other cases.

### 1.5 Ideals of an Order

We introduce in this section an ideal of a quadratic order. Terminology such as proper ideal, fractional ideal, principal ideal, reduced ideal, and class group and class number of a quadratic order will be defined and discussed. We will pay special attention to the relation between quadratic irrationals and ideals of an order in a real quadratic field using continued fractions. The proofs for the results in this section can be found in the literature, such as Cohn [28], Marcus [126] and Williams and Wunderlich [260].

Definition 1.5.1 An ideal of a commutative ring $\mathcal{R}$ is a non-empty subset a of $\mathcal{R}$ satisfying:
(1) If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathfrak{a}$, then $\alpha-\beta \in \mathfrak{a}$.
(2) If $r \in \mathcal{R}$ and $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a}$, then $\alpha r \in \mathfrak{a}$.

We only consider non-zero ideals, thus, the term ideal will always refer to a non-zero ideal in the sequel.

Since $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is an integral domain, it is a commutative ring and has ideals. Also, since $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-module, ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ are $\mathbb{Z}$-submodules of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. However, not all $\mathbb{Z}$-submodules of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ are ideals. To determine when a $\mathbb{Z}$-submodule of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is an ideal, we use the following theorem.

Theorem 1.5.1 Let $\mathfrak{a}=\left[a, b+c \omega_{\Delta}\right]$, where $a$ is a natural number, $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $c$ non-zero. Then $\mathfrak{a}$ is an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ if and only if $c|a, c| b$ and $a c \mid \mathcal{N}\left(b+c \omega_{\Delta}\right)$.

The set $\left\{a, b+c \omega_{\Delta}\right\}$ in the above theorem is referred to as a $\mathbb{Z}$-basis of $\mathfrak{a}$. Since the ideal $\left[a, b+c \omega_{\Delta}\right]$ is a $Z$-module, we can write it as $\left[a, a n+b+c \omega_{\Delta}\right]$ for any integer $n$. The quantity $a$ is the least positive rational integer in $\mathfrak{a}$ and hence it is unique in $\mathfrak{a}$. If $m$ is any rational integer in $\mathfrak{a}$, then $a \mid m$. The quantity $c$ is also unique in $a$. If $c=1$, then $\mathfrak{a}$ is called a primitive ideal; that is, $\mathfrak{a}$ does not have any non-trivial rational integer divisors. If $c \geq 2, a=c m$ and $b=c n$ for some integers $m$ and $n$, then we may write the ideal $\left[a, b+c \omega_{\Delta}\right]=c\left[m, n+\omega_{\Delta}\right]$, where $\left[m, n+\omega_{\Delta}\right]$ is a primitive ideal.

Example 1.5.1 From Example 1.4.1, we see that $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$ is an order in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5}) . \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ has discriminant $\Delta=180$ and conductor $f=6$. Consider the $\mathbb{Z}$-submodule, $[9,6+\sqrt{45}]$, of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. It is easy to see that the difference of any two elements in $[9,6+\sqrt{45}]$ resides in $[9,6+\sqrt{45}]$. For any $\alpha \in[9,6+\sqrt{45}]$, we may write $\alpha=9 m+n(6+\sqrt{45})$, where $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. For any $\gamma \in \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, we write $\gamma=m^{\prime}+n^{\prime} \sqrt{45}$, where $m^{\prime}, n^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $\gamma \alpha=\left(m^{\prime}+n^{\prime} \sqrt{45}\right)(9 m+n(6+\sqrt{45}))$. It can be checked
that

$$
\gamma \alpha=9\left(m m^{\prime}-6 m n^{\prime}-n n^{\prime}\right)+\left(9 m n^{\prime}+6 n n^{\prime}+m^{\prime} n\right)(6+\sqrt{45}) \in[9,6+\sqrt{45}] .
$$

Thus, $[9,6+\sqrt{45}]$ is an ideal in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ by Definition 1.5.1.
On the other hand, if we apply Theorem 1.5.1, we have $a=9, b=6$ and $c=1$. Clearly, $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$. Also, since $\mathcal{N}(6+\sqrt{45})=-9, a c \mid \mathcal{N}(6+\sqrt{45})$. Therefore, $[9,6+\sqrt{45}]$ is an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. In fact, $[9,6+\sqrt{45}]$ is primitive since $c=1$.

Consider the order $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta^{\prime}}=[1, \sqrt{5}]$ in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5}) . \mathcal{O}_{\Delta^{\prime}}$ has discriminant $\triangle^{\prime}=20$ and conductor $f=2$. We see that $[9,6+\sqrt{45}]=[9,6+3 \sqrt{5}]$ is an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta^{\prime}}$. However, $[9,6+3 \sqrt{5}]$ is not primitive in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta^{\prime}}$ since every element in $[9,6+3 \sqrt{5}]$ is a multiple of 3 in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta^{\prime}}$. Hence, when an ideal is primitive in a given order, it is not necessarily primitive in other orders in the same real quadratic field.

Let $\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \ldots, \theta_{k} \in \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ and define

$$
\left(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \ldots, \theta_{k}\right)=\left\{\gamma_{1} \theta_{1}+\gamma_{2} \theta_{2}+\cdots+\gamma_{k} \theta_{k} \mid \gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \ldots, \gamma_{k} \in \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}\right\} .
$$

It can be shown that $\left(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \ldots, \theta_{k}\right)$ is an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ and we call it the ideal generated by $\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \ldots, \theta_{k}$. Note that the notation $\left(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \ldots, \theta_{k}\right)$ should not be confused with that of the regular continued fraction expansion.

If we have two ideals, $\mathfrak{a}=\left(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \ldots, \theta_{k}\right)$ and $\mathfrak{b}=\left(\phi_{1}, \phi_{2}, \ldots, \phi_{l}\right)$, of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, then the ideal product, $\mathfrak{a b}$, is the ideal generated by the products $\theta_{i} \phi_{j}$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, k$ and $j=1,2, \ldots, l$; that is,

$$
\mathfrak{a} \mathfrak{b}=\left\{\sum_{1 \leq i \leq k, 1 \leq j \leq l} \gamma_{i, j} \theta_{i} \phi_{j} \mid \gamma_{i, j} \in \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}\right\} .
$$

If an ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ has a single generator, then we write $\mathfrak{a}=(\theta)$ for some $\theta \in \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ and call it a principal ideal. For instance, if we take $\theta=1+\sqrt{45}$, which is in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$, and let
$\gamma=a+b \sqrt{45} \in \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $\gamma \theta=(a+45 b)+(a+b) \sqrt{45}$. Hence, the principal ideal generated by $\theta$ is $\{(a+45 b)+(a+b) \sqrt{45} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

It can be shown that an ideal generated by two elements, $\theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}$, in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is the same as the $\mathbb{Z}$-module generated by the two elements, i.e., $\left(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}\right)=\left[\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}\right]$. Thus, any ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ need have at most two generators.

Theorem 1.5.2 Suppose that we have two primitive ideals, $\mathfrak{a}_{1}=\left[a_{1}, b_{1}+\omega_{\Delta}\right]$ and $\mathfrak{a}_{2}=\left[a_{2}, b_{2}+\omega_{\Delta}\right]$, of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=1$. If we put $a_{3}=a_{1} a_{2}$ and solve for the least positive integer $b_{3}$ in the congruences,

$$
b_{3} \equiv b_{1} \bmod a_{1} \quad \text { and } \quad b_{3} \equiv b_{2} \bmod a_{2}
$$

then the product, $\mathfrak{a}_{1} \mathfrak{a}_{2}$ is given by $\mathfrak{a}_{3}=\left[a_{3}, b_{3}+\omega_{\Delta}\right]$.
There is a more general result than Theorem 1.5.2 for the case where $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ are not relatively prime, for example see [106] and [218]. However, Theorem 1.5.2 is adequate for our work here.

When we have ideals $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b}$ and $\mathfrak{c}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ and $\mathfrak{a b}=\mathfrak{c}$, we say $\mathfrak{a}$ divides $\mathfrak{c}$ and write $\mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{c}$. This is equivalent to $\mathfrak{a} \supseteq \mathfrak{c}$. We call $\mathfrak{a} \neq \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ a prime ideal $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ whenever $\mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{b c}$ implies that $\mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{b}$ or $\mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{c}$. We may reformulate the definition of prime ideals as follows. A ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is a prime ideal if and only if whenever there is an ideal $\mathfrak{b}$ such that $\mathfrak{b} \mid \mathfrak{a}$, then $\mathfrak{b}=(1)=\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ or $\mathfrak{b}=\mathfrak{a}$.

Example 1.5.2 Consider the ideal $[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$. If there is an ideal $\mathfrak{a}=$ $[a, b+\sqrt{45}]$ that divides $[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$, then $a$ must divide 2. This means that $a=1$ or 2 . If $a=1$, we have $\mathfrak{a}=\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. If $a=2$, then $\mathfrak{a}=[2, b+\sqrt{45}]$ and $b$ must be odd. Hence, $\mathfrak{a}=[2,2 n+1+\sqrt{45}]=$ $[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$, by the comment following Theorem 1.5.1. Therefore, $[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$ is a prime ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$.

Note that a prime ideal is always a primitive ideal but the converse is not necessarily true by Theorem 1.5.2.

A fractional ideal $f$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is a generalization of an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. Instead of residing in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}, \mathfrak{f}$ resides in the number field $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$, but has the property that there is an element $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ such that $\mathfrak{a}=\alpha \mathfrak{f}$ is an ideal in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. It follows that a subset of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ is a fractional ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ if and only if it is of the form $\gamma \mathfrak{a}$ for some non-zero element $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ and an ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$.

For example, consider $\gamma=1 / \sqrt{45}$ and the ideal $\mathfrak{a}=[9,6+\sqrt{45}]$ of the order $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$. We compute

$$
\gamma \mathfrak{a}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{45}}[9,6+\sqrt{45}]=\left[\frac{9}{\sqrt{45}}, \frac{6+\sqrt{45}}{\sqrt{45}}\right]=\left[\frac{9}{\sqrt{45}}, 1+\frac{6}{\sqrt{45}}\right]=\left[\frac{9}{\sqrt{45}}, 1-\frac{3}{\sqrt{45}}\right] .
$$

Since $3=9 / \sqrt{45}+3(1-3 / \sqrt{45})$, we write the fractional ideal $\gamma a=[3,1-3 / \sqrt{45}]=[3,1-\sqrt{45} / 15]$.
A fractional ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is not necessarily an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. It is clear that the above fractional ideal is not an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ since $1-\sqrt{45} / 15 \notin \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$. However, in some cases, we may have a fractional ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ being an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. If we have an ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, then $\mathfrak{a}$ is a fractional ideal since $\mathfrak{a}=1 \cdot \mathfrak{a}$. Further, consider $(\sqrt{5} / 5)[45,15-\sqrt{45}]$. Clearly, $\sqrt{5} / 5 \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$ and it can be checked that $[45,15-\sqrt{45}]$ is an ideal in $[1, \sqrt{45}]$. We find

$$
\frac{\sqrt{5}}{5}[45,15-\sqrt{45}]=[9,6+\sqrt{45}]
$$

which is an ideal in $[1, \sqrt{45}]$ even though $(\sqrt{5} / 5)[45,15-\sqrt{45}]$ appears not to be an ideal.
If $a$ is an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, then it is not difficult to see that

$$
\mathcal{O}_{\Delta} \subseteq\left\{\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right) \mid \gamma \mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}\right\} ;
$$

and we call $\mathfrak{a}$ a proper ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ whenever equality holds, i.e.

$$
\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=\left\{\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right) \mid \gamma \mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}\right\} .
$$

For example, principal ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ and ideals of the maximal order $\mathcal{O}_{0}$ are proper.

A fractional ideal $f$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is invertible if there is another fractional ideal y of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ such that $f \mathrm{f}=\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. In fact, in a quadratic field, f is invertible if and only if f is proper. Since ideals of the maximal order are proper, they are invertible.

If $a$ is an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, it can be shown that the quotient ring $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta} / a$ is finite. We define the norm of $\mathfrak{a}$ to be

$$
\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})=\left|\mathcal{O}_{\Delta} / \mathfrak{a}\right|
$$

It is not difficult to see that an ideal $\mathfrak{a}=\left[a, b+c \omega_{\Delta}\right]$ with $\mathbb{Z}$-basis $\left\{a, b+c \omega_{\Delta}\right\}$ has norm $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})=a c$. In particular, if $\mathfrak{a}$ is primitive, then $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})=a$. For example, the norm of the ideal $[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$ in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$ is 2 . It is known that if $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})=p$, where $p$ is a rational prime, then $\mathfrak{a}$ is a prime ideal. Thus, the ideal $[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$ is a prime ideal. However, the converse is not necessarily true. If $\mathfrak{a}$ is a prime ideal, then $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})$ is a prime or the square of a prime.

One of the important properties of the norm of an ideal is its multiplicativity for proper ideals, i.e., when $\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{b}$ are proper ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$,

$$
\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a b})=\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a}) \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{b})
$$

If $\mathfrak{a}=(\theta)$ is principal, then $\mathfrak{a}$ is proper and $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})=|\mathcal{N}(\theta)|$.
Let $\mathfrak{a}=[a, \beta]$ be an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. The conjugate ideal of $\mathfrak{a}$ is defined as $\overline{\mathfrak{a}}=[a, \bar{\beta}]$. For example, the ideal $[2,1-\sqrt{45}]$ is the conjugate ideal of $[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$. The ideal product $\bar{a} \bar{a}$ is the principal ideal generated by $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})$, that is $\mathfrak{a} \overline{\mathfrak{a}}=(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a}))$.

If $\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{b}$ are ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ and there exist non-zero $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ such that

$$
(\alpha) \mathfrak{a}=(\beta) \mathfrak{b}
$$

then $\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{b}$ are said to be equivalent and this relation is denoted by $\mathfrak{a} \sim \mathfrak{b}$.
Example 1.5.3 Consider the ideals $[2,5+\sqrt{45}]$ and $[10,5+\sqrt{45}]$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$. Note that

$$
(10)[2,5+\sqrt{45}]=[20,50+10 \sqrt{45}]
$$

and

$$
(5+\sqrt{45})[10,5+\sqrt{45}]=[50+10 \sqrt{45}, 70+10 \sqrt{45}]=[20,50+10 \sqrt{45}] .
$$

Hence,

$$
(5+\sqrt{45})[10,5+\sqrt{45}]=(10)[2,5+\sqrt{45}]
$$

and $[2,5+\sqrt{45}] \sim[10,5+\sqrt{45}]$.

It can be shown that if $a_{1}=\left[a_{1}, b_{1}+c_{1} \omega_{\Delta}\right]$ and $\mathfrak{a}_{2}=\left[a_{2}, b_{2}+c_{2} \omega_{\Delta}\right]$ are equivalent ideals in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, then there exists some $\gamma \in \mathfrak{a}_{1}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\gamma) \mathfrak{a}_{2}=\left(a_{2}\right) \mathfrak{a}_{1} \tag{1.35}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $0<\gamma<a_{1}$. In fact, $\gamma$ can be found by the continued fraction algorithm, which is the main topic later in this section.

The relation $\sim$ is an equivalence relation and it therefore partitions all the proper ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ into disjoint equivalence classes. It can be shown that the number of these classes is finite, denoted by $h_{\Delta}$, and we call $h_{\Delta}$ the class number of the order $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. In case $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=\mathcal{O}_{0}$ is maximal, we call $h_{\Delta}$ the class number of the quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ and may sometimes write it as $h_{0}$. If we write [a] as the class of all ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ equivalent to $\mathfrak{a}$, then we can define a multiplicative operation of these classes by $[a][\mathfrak{b}]=[\mathfrak{a b}]$. It is easy to see that this operation is well-defined. Under this operation, the set of all ideal classes forms a finite abelian group, $\mathcal{C}_{\Delta}$, with identity $[(1)]=\left[\mathcal{O}_{0}\right]$ and order $h_{\Delta}$. We note that [(1)] is the class of all principal ideals. This group is referred to as the ideal class group of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. If all ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ are principal, then the group $\mathcal{C}_{\Delta}$ consists of only one element, the class of all principal ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$, and $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ has class number 1.

Example 1.5.4 Consider $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$. We find that $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ has class number 4, i.e, it has 4 equivalence classes. The first class contains all the principal ideals and is denoted by [(1)]. Put
$\mathfrak{a}=[6,3+\sqrt{45}], \mathfrak{b}=[3, \sqrt{45}]$ and $\mathfrak{c}=[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$. The ideal class group, $C_{\Delta}$, is $\{[(1)],[\mathfrak{a}],[\mathfrak{b}],[\mathrm{c}]\}$ and we expect to have the product of two any classes reside in $C_{\Delta}$.

If we put $a_{1}=3, b_{1}=0, a_{2}=2, b_{2}=1$, then by Theorem 1.5.2, we get $a_{3}=6$ and $b_{3}=3$ and the product $\mathfrak{b c}=\left[a_{3}, b_{3}+\sqrt{45}\right]=[6,3+\sqrt{45}]$, which is $a$. Since $C_{\Delta}$ is a group, we have $[b][c]=[a]$.

A primitive ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is reduced if there does not exist any non-zero $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a}$ such that

$$
|\alpha|<\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a}) \text { and }|\bar{\alpha}|<\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a}) .
$$

We may write $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=\left[1, \omega_{\Delta}\right]$ with normal $\mathbb{Z}$-basis $\left\{1, \omega_{\Delta}\right\}$ and treat it as an ideal of itself. Then its norm is 1 and certainly, there is no non-zero element $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ statisfying the above reduction conditions. Thus, $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is a reduced ideal.

Example 1.5.5 Consider the ideal $\mathfrak{a}=[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$. Let $\alpha=2 n+m+m \sqrt{45} \in \mathfrak{a}$ for integers $m$ and $n$. If $|\alpha|<\hat{\mathcal{N}}(\mathfrak{a})=2$ and $|\bar{\alpha}|<\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})=2$, then $-2<2 n+m+m \sqrt{45}<2$ and $-2<2 n+m-m \sqrt{45}<2$. On adding the two inequalities, we get $-4<4 n+2 m<4$. Thus, $2 n+m=-1,0$, or 1 . If $2 n+m=-1$, then $\alpha=-1+m \sqrt{45}$. Notice that $m$ cannot be 0 ; otherwise, $2 n=-1$, an absurdity. Since $|-1+m \sqrt{45}| \nless 2$ and $|-1-m \sqrt{45}| \nless 2$ for $m \neq 0$, we have $2 n+m \neq-1$. Similarly, it can be shown that $2 n+m \neq 0,1$. So, there does not exist any non-zero $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a}$ such that

$$
|\alpha|<\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a}) \text { and }|\bar{\alpha}|<\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a}) .
$$

Hence, $\mathfrak{a}$ is reduced.

Using the definition of reduction, it is possible to prove
Theorem 1.5.3 $\mathfrak{a}$ is a reduced ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ if and only if there exists some $\beta \in \mathfrak{a}$ such that $\mathfrak{a}=[\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a}), \beta]$ with $\beta>\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})$ and $-\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})<\bar{\beta}<0$.

The validity of Theorem 1.5 .3 may seem suspect if we consider $\mathfrak{a}=[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$ with $\beta=$ $1+\sqrt{45}$. When $\beta=1+\sqrt{45}$, we have $\bar{\beta}<-2=-\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})$, which violates the second condition in Theorem 1.5.3. However, by the remark following Theorem 1.5.1, we may rewrite the ideal $\mathfrak{a}=[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$. as $[2,5+\sqrt{45}]$. In this case, $\beta=5+\sqrt{45}>2$ and $-2<\bar{\beta}<0$. Hence, $a$ is reduced by Theorem 1.5.3.

As a consequence of Theorem 1.5.3, if $\mathfrak{a}$ is reduced, then $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})<\sqrt{\triangle}$. This implies that there can only be a finite number of reduced ideals in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$.

In what follows, we examine the relation between ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ and quadratic irrationals in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. Suppose that $\left\{a, b+\omega_{\Delta}\right\}$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-basis of a primitive ideal $a$. If we set $\theta=\left(b+\omega_{\Delta}\right) / a$ and put

$$
\begin{equation*}
P=\frac{b \sigma_{0}+f\left(\sigma_{0}-1\right)+h \sigma_{0}}{g} \in \mathbb{Z} \text { and } Q=\frac{a \sigma_{0}}{g} \in \mathbb{Z} \tag{1.36}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $\theta=(P+\sqrt{D}) / Q$, where $\sigma_{0}$ was defined in (1.29) while $f, g$ and $h$ were defined in (1.31).
If we have $P, Q \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $P \equiv 1 \bmod \sigma, \sigma \mid Q$ and $\sigma Q \mid D-P^{2}$, where $\sigma$ was defined in (1.31), then the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\left[Q / \sigma,(P+\sqrt{D} / \sigma]\right.$ is an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$. For, if we put

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=\frac{|Q|}{\sigma} \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text { and } \quad b=\frac{P-1}{\sigma}-f-h+\frac{f+g}{\sigma_{0}} \in \mathbb{Z} \tag{1.37}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $\mathfrak{a}=\left[a, b+\omega_{\Delta}\right]$ is an ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$.
We are now in a position to bring continued fractions to the discussion. Let $\left\{a, b+\omega_{\Delta}\right\}$ be a $\mathbb{Z}$-basis of a primitive ideal a. Put $P_{0}=P, Q_{0}=Q$ and $\theta_{0}=\left(P_{0}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{0}$, where $P$ and $Q$ were defined in (1.36). By the fact that $a \mid \mathcal{N}\left(b+\omega_{\Delta}\right)$, it can be shown that $\sigma Q_{0} \mid D-P_{0}^{2}$, where $\sigma$ was defined in (1.31). Hence, $\theta_{0}$ is a quadratic irrational. Moreover, we may write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{a}=\left[a, b+\omega_{\Delta}\right]=\left[\frac{Q_{0}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{0}+\sqrt{D}}{\sigma}\right] . \tag{1.38}
\end{equation*}
$$

We put $\mathfrak{a}_{1}=\mathfrak{a}$ and convert $\theta_{0}$ into a continued fraction and produce a sequence of sets, $\mathfrak{a}_{1}, \mathfrak{a}_{2}, \mathfrak{a}_{3}, \ldots$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{a}_{i}=\frac{Q_{i-1}}{\sigma} \mathbb{Z}+\frac{P_{i-1}+\sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \mathbb{Z} \tag{1.39}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{i-1}$ and $Q_{i-1}$ were defined in (1.19). It can be shown by induction that $P_{i-1} \equiv 1 \bmod \sigma$, $\sigma \mid Q_{i-1}$ and $\sigma Q_{i-1} \mid D-P_{i-1}^{2}$. Hence, if we put

$$
a_{i}=\frac{Q_{i-1}}{\sigma} \quad \text { and } \quad b_{i}=\frac{P_{i}-1}{\sigma}-f-h+\frac{f+g}{\sigma_{0}},
$$

then $\mathfrak{a}_{i}=\left[a_{i}, b_{i}+\omega_{\Delta}\right]$ are ideals for all $i \geq 0$. In addition, they are primitive. It can also be checked that

$$
\left(Q_{0} \varphi_{i}\right) \mathfrak{a}_{i}=\left(Q_{i-1}\right) \mathfrak{a}
$$

where $\varphi_{i}=(-1)^{i-1}\left(A_{i-2}-\theta_{0} B_{i-2}\right)$ and $A_{i-2} / B_{i-2}$ is the $(i-2)$-th convergent of $\theta_{0}$. Hence, for all natural numbers $i, \mathfrak{a}_{i} \sim \mathfrak{a}$.

By the remark following Galois's theorem on page 10 , since $\theta_{0}$ is a quadratic irrational, eventually some $k$-th complete quotient of $\theta_{0}$ must be a reduced quadratic irrational. In other words, the $k$-th complete quotient, $\left(P_{k}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{k}$, satisfies

$$
\frac{P_{k}+\sqrt{D}}{Q_{k}}>1 \text { and }-1<\frac{P_{k}-\sqrt{D}}{Q_{k}}<0
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
\frac{P_{k}+\sqrt{D}}{\sigma}>\frac{Q_{k}}{\sigma} \text { and }-\frac{Q_{k}}{\sigma}<\frac{P_{k}-\sqrt{D}}{\sigma}<0
$$

Thus, the ideal

$$
\mathfrak{a}_{k+1}=\left[\frac{Q_{k}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{k}+\sqrt{D}}{\sigma}\right]
$$

is reduced by Theorem 1.5.3. Therefore, the above continued fraction algorithm gives us a method of computing a reduced ideal $a_{k+1}$ equivalent to $a$. Moreover, we see that $a_{k+1}$ corresponds to the quadratic irrational $\left(P_{k}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{k}$ in such a way that $\left(P_{k}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{k}$ is a reduced quadratic irrational just in case $\mathfrak{a}_{k+1}$ is a reduced ideal. So, if $k$ is the first index such that $\mathfrak{a}_{k+1}$ is a reduced ideal, then $\mathfrak{a}_{k+i}$ is reduced because $\left(P_{k+i-1}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{k+i-1}$ is a reduced quadratic irrational for all natural numbers $i$.

If we apply the continued fraction algorithm to $\omega_{\Delta}$, then we expect to obtain a sequence of primitive ideals, $\mathfrak{a}_{1}, \mathfrak{a}_{2}, \mathfrak{a}_{3}, \ldots$. The quadratic irrational $\omega_{\Delta}=((\sigma-1)+\sqrt{D}) / \sigma$ corresponds to the ideal

$$
\left[\frac{\sigma}{\sigma}, \frac{\sigma-1+\sqrt{D}}{\sigma}\right]=\mathcal{O}_{\triangle}=(1)
$$

the principal ideal generated by 1 , which we call $a_{1}$. By Theorems 1.2.1 and 1.2.4, the $i$-th complete quotient $\left(P_{i}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{i}$ of the continued fraction expansion of $\omega_{\Delta}$ is reduced for all $i \geq 1$; thus, its corresponding ideal, $\mathfrak{a}_{i+1}$, is reduced. Moreover, since $\mathfrak{a}_{1}$ is principal, $\mathfrak{a}_{i}$ is principal for all $i \geq 1$. In fact, $a_{i}$ can be written as $a_{i}=\left(\varrho_{i}\right)$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varrho_{i}=\frac{G_{i-2}+B_{i-2} \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \tag{1.40}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $G_{i-2}$ was defined in (1.24). Furthermore, since the number of reduced ideals is finite, we have $\mathfrak{a}_{k+1}=\mathfrak{a}_{1}$ for some minimal $k$. If we put $\mathcal{P}=\left\{\mathfrak{a}_{1}, \mathfrak{a}_{2}, \ldots, \mathfrak{a}_{k}\right\}$, then $\mathcal{P}$ is the set of all reduced principal ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$.

Example 1.5.6 Recall from Example 1.5.4 that in the ideal class group $C_{\Delta}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}=[1, \sqrt{45}]$ consists of four equivalence classes with representatives: (1), $\mathfrak{a}=[6,3+\sqrt{45}], \mathfrak{b}=[3, \sqrt{45}]$ and $\mathfrak{c}=[2,1+\sqrt{45}]$.

In [(1)], we write $\theta=\sqrt{45}$ and apply the continued fraction algorithm to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
(1)=[1, \sqrt{45}] & \sim[9,6+\sqrt{45}] \sim[4,3+\sqrt{45}] \sim[5,5+\sqrt{45}] \sim[4,5+\sqrt{45}] \\
& \sim[9,3+\sqrt{45}] \sim[1,6+\sqrt{45}] \sim[9,6+\sqrt{45}] .
\end{aligned}
$$

By (1.40), we compute $[9,6+\sqrt{45}]=(6+\sqrt{45}),[4,3+\sqrt{45}]=(7+\sqrt{45}),[5,5+\sqrt{45}]=$ $(20+3 \sqrt{45}),[4,5+\sqrt{45}]=(47+7 \sqrt{45}),[9,3+\sqrt{45}]=(114+17 \sqrt{45})$ and $[1,6+\sqrt{45}]=$ $(161+24 \sqrt{45})$ are all distinct reduced principal ideals.

In $[a]$, we use the representative $[6,3+\sqrt{45}]$ and convert it to the quadratic irrational, $(3+$ $\sqrt{45}) / 6$. We compute the continued fraction expansion of $(3+\sqrt{45}) / 6$ and find that there is one reduced ideal, namely,

$$
[6,3+\sqrt{45}] \sim[6,3+\sqrt{45}] .
$$

Similarly, in [6], we have

$$
[3, \sqrt{45}] \sim[3,6+\sqrt{45}] \sim[3,6+\sqrt{45}]
$$

and $[3,6+\sqrt{45}]$ is the only reduced ideal in $[b]$.
In [c], we have

$$
[2,1+\sqrt{45}] \sim[10,5+\sqrt{45}] \sim[2,5+\sqrt{45}] \sim[10,5+\sqrt{45}] .
$$

So, there are two reduced ideals in [c].

### 1.6 The Class Number Formula

Recall from the previous section that the class number $h_{\Delta}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is the number of elements of the class group $\mathcal{C}_{\Delta}$. The class number formula provides us with a tool for computing the class number of a quadratic order. The results here can be found in the literature, such as Davenport [30] and Hecke [68] .

According to Davenport [30], the class number formula, in its simplest and most striking form, was originally conjectured by Jacobi [78] in 1832 and later proved in complete detail by Dirichlet [39] in 1840. Since we are only interested in real quadratic fields, we will present the real quadratic field version of Dirichlet's class number formula. Also, other results concerning class numbers will be discussed within the framework of real quadratic fields.

When the study of class numbers was initiated by Gauss, the term class number referred to the number of classes of equivalent binary quadratic forms of a given discriminant. All the results
on class numbers at that time were discussed in terms of quadratic forms. In the mid-nineteenth century when the theory of ideals was developed, it became clear that the theory of binary quadratic forms was essentially identical to the theory of class groups of quadratic fields, and the term class number was then used to stand for the number of elements of the class group.

According to Dickson [37], Gauss was interested in the relation between the number, $h_{\Delta}$, of properly primitive classes of quadratic forms of negative discriminant, $\Delta$, and the number of proper representations of $|\triangle|$ as the sum of three squares. One of the conjectures that Gauss [56] made regarding class numbers is the so-called class number one problem. In the language of real quadratic fields, it conjectures that there are infinitely many real quadratic fields with class number one. Advances concerning the class number one problem have been made, for example, in Byeon and Kim [15], Louboutin [112] and Lu [121]. In particular, Lu [121] gave a nice criterion to determine whether a real quadratic field has class number one. Lu's result can be written as follows. If $\triangle_{0}>0$ is a fundamental discriminant, then the class number $h_{0}$ is 1 if and only if

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} a_{i}=n_{1}\left(\triangle_{0}\right)+n_{2}\left(\triangle_{0}\right)-c
$$

where $\ell$ is the period length of $\omega_{0}$ with $\omega_{0}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{\ell}}\right)$, $n_{1}\left(\triangle_{0}\right)$ is the number of solutions of $x^{2}+4 y z=\triangle_{0}$ for non-negative $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n_{2}\left(\triangle_{0}\right)$ is the number of solutions of $x^{2}+4 y^{2}=\triangle_{0}$ for non-negative $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, and

$$
c= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } \ell \text { is even, } a_{\ell / 2} \text { odd if } \triangle_{0} \equiv 1 \bmod 4, \\ 1 & \text { otherwise if } \triangle_{0} \equiv 1 \bmod 4 \\ 1 & \text { if } \ell \text { is even, } a_{\ell / 2} \text { odd if } \triangle_{0} \equiv 0 \bmod 4, \\ 2 & \text { otherwise if } \triangle_{0} \equiv 0 \bmod 4\end{cases}
$$

Dirichlet's original result was in the language of quadratic forms. We will present it in the context of quadratic fields and quadratic orders. Moreover, we will first present the formula for
the class number $h_{0}$ of the maximal order $\mathcal{O}_{0}$ and then give another formula of Dirichlet to find the class number $h_{\Delta}$ of any order $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ using $h_{0}$. The class number formula relates the class number $h_{0}$ to the regulator $R_{0}=\ln \left(\varepsilon_{0}\right)$, to the fundamental discriminant $\Delta_{0}$, and to a particular value of a function called the Dirichlet $L$-function.

The Dirichlet $L$-function is an example of a Dirichlet series,

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{n}}{n^{s}},
$$

where $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots$ is a given sequence of complex numbers and $s$ is a complex variable.
A character of a group $G$ is a complex valued function $f$ defined on $G$ such that for all $m_{1}, m_{2} \in G, f\left(m_{1} m_{2}\right)=f\left(m_{1}\right) f\left(m_{2}\right)$ and $f(m) \neq 0$ for some non-identity element $m$ of $G$. It is well-known that if $f$ is a character of a finite group $G$ with identity element $e$, then $f(e)=1$ and $e$ is the only element of $G$ such that $f(e)=1$ for all characters of $G$. Moreover, each functional value $f(m)$ is a root of unity. Indeed, if $m^{n}=e$, then $f(m)^{n}=1$.

Example 1.6.1 Consider the multiplicative group modulo $7, \mathbb{Z}_{7}^{*}$, and the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{m}{p}\right) \equiv m^{(p-1) / 2} \bmod p$, where $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{7}^{*}$ and $p$ is an odd prime. Define $f: \mathbb{Z}_{7}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by $f(m)=\left(\frac{m}{7}\right)$. Then, if $m_{1}, m_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{7}^{*}$, then $\left(\frac{m_{1} m_{2}}{7}\right)=\left(\frac{m_{1}}{7}\right)\left(\frac{m_{1}}{7}\right)$, and hence, $f\left(m_{1} m_{2}\right)=f\left(m_{1}\right) f\left(m_{2}\right)$.

Let $m$ be a natural number and $\mathbb{Z}_{m}$ the group of reduced residue classes modulo $m$. For each character $f$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$, we define a corresponding arithmetic function $\chi=\chi_{f}$ by
(1) $\chi(n)=f([n])$ if $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$,
(2) $\chi(n)=0$ if $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)>1$.

This function $\chi$ is called a Dirichlet character modulo $m$. It can be checked that if $\chi$ is a Dirichlet character modulo $m$, then for $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\chi(r s)=\chi(r) \chi(s) \quad \text { and } \quad \chi(r+m)=\chi(r) \tag{1.41}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, if a character $\chi$ satisfies (1.41) and $\chi(n)=0$ for $\operatorname{gcd}(n, m)>1$, then $\chi$ is a Dirichlet character modulo $m$.

Example 1.6.2 Consider the character on $\mathbb{Z}_{7}^{*}$ defined in in Example 1.6.1, and define $\chi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by

$$
\chi(n)=\left(\frac{n}{7}\right) \quad \text { if } 7 \nmid n \text { and } \chi(n)=0 \text { if } 7 \mid n .
$$

Then $\chi$ is a Dirichlet Character modulo 7 .

The principal Dirichlet character modulo $m, \chi_{m}$, is the Dirichlet character modulo $m$ that satisfies
(1) $\chi_{m}(n)=1$ if $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$,
(2) $\chi_{m}(n)=0$ if $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)>1$.

Also, we call a Dirichlet character modulo $m$ that does not satisfy the above condition nonprincipal. An example of such a character is the $\operatorname{Kronecker} \operatorname{symbol}\left(\frac{m}{*}\right)$, where $m \equiv 0$ or $1 \bmod 4$, defined as follows.

Suppose that $m$ is congruent to 0 or 1 modulo 4. If $n$ is odd, then the Kronecker symbol is the Jacobi symbol, which extends the Legendre symbol to odd composite rational integers. That is, if $n$ be an odd integer with prime factorization $n=\prod_{i=1}^{a} p_{i}^{k_{i}}$, then

$$
\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)=\left(\frac{m}{p_{1}}\right)^{k_{1}}\left(\frac{m}{p_{2}}\right)^{k_{2}} \cdots\left(\frac{m}{p_{a}}\right)^{k_{a}}
$$

where $\left(\frac{m}{p_{i}}\right)$ is the Legendre symbol defined by $m^{\left(p_{i}-1\right) / 2} \bmod p_{i}$ for odd prime $p_{i}$.
If $n=2$, then

$$
\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } 2 \mid m \\ 1 & \text { if } m \equiv 1 \bmod 8 \\ -1 & \text { if } m \equiv 5 \bmod 8\end{cases}
$$

If $n=2^{a} n_{0}$ for some $a \geq 1$ and odd $n_{0}$, then

$$
\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)=\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)^{a}\left(\frac{m}{n_{0}}\right)
$$

It follows that for all $m, n, k \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$
\left(\frac{m}{n k}\right)=\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)\left(\frac{m}{k}\right) .
$$

The Kronecker symbol extends the Jacobi symbol to even $n$ but restricts $m$ to be congruent to 0 or 1 modulo 4.

Assuming that $\chi$ is a Dirichlet character modulo $m$ and $s$ is a complex variable, the Dirichlet $L$-function is

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(s, \chi)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\chi(n)}{n^{s}} . \tag{1.42}
\end{equation*}
$$

When the real part of $s$ is strictly greater than $1, L(s, \chi)$ is absolutely convergent and we may write it as a product,

$$
L(s, \chi)=\prod_{p}\left(1-\frac{\chi(p)}{p^{s}}\right)^{-1}
$$

where the product is taken over all rational prime numbers $p$. This product is known as the Euler product. In fact, if the character $\chi$ is non-principal, then $L(s, \chi)$ converges even for $\operatorname{Re}(s)>0$.

Let $\Delta_{0}$ be the fundamental discriminant of a real quadratic field. By (1.28), $\Delta_{0}$ is congruent to 0 or 1 modulo 4. So, if we write $\chi_{\Delta_{0}}(n)=\left(\frac{\Delta_{0}}{n}\right)$, the Kronecker symbol, then we get a special instance of (1.42),

$$
\begin{equation*}
L\left(s, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{\triangle_{0}}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n^{s}} . \tag{1.43}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\chi_{1}$ is the principal Dirichlet character modulo 1 , then $\chi_{1}(n)=1$ for all natural numbers $n$. The $L$-function with character $\chi_{1}$,

$$
L\left(s, \chi_{1}\right)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{s}},
$$

is the celebrated Riemann zeta function $\zeta(s)$. It converges absolutely and is analytic on the half-plane $\operatorname{Re}(s)>1$. It has a simple pole with residue 1 at $s=1$, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{s \rightarrow 1}(s-1) \zeta(s)=1 \tag{1.44}
\end{equation*}
$$

When $\operatorname{Re}(s)>1$, the Riemann zeta function can be written as an infinite product,

$$
\zeta(s)=\prod_{p \text { rational prime }}\left(1-p^{-s}\right)^{-1}
$$

The zeros of $\zeta(s)$ come in two different types. The so-called trivial zeros occur at $s=-2,-4,-6, \ldots$, and the non-trivial ones occur at certain $s \in \mathbb{C}$. The Riemann Hypothesis asserts that if $s$ is any non-trivial zero of $\zeta(s)$, then the real part of $s$ must be $1 / 2$.

It is well-known that there is an interesting relationship between the Riemann zeta function and the Prime Number theorem which speaks of the density of primes. Dirichlet discovered that the density of ideals in a fixed ideal class of a quadratic field $K=\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ with fundamental discriminant $\Delta_{0}$ is the same for all classes of ideals of $K$. More precisely, for the case of real quadratic fields $K=\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ with discriminant $\Delta_{0}$, if $A$ is any class of ideals of $K$ and we denote the number of ideals in the class $A$ whose norm is less than or equal to $t$ by $Z(t, A)$, then the limit

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{Z(t, A)}{t}=\kappa_{0}
$$

exists and is given by the formula

$$
\kappa_{0}=\frac{2 R_{0}}{\sqrt{\Delta_{0}}}
$$

where $R_{0}=\ln \left(\varepsilon_{0}\right)$ is the regulator of $\mathcal{O}_{0}$. The number $\kappa_{0}$ is called the Dirichlet structure constant. Note that $\kappa_{0}$ is independent of $A$ and is determined by the field only. On putting $Z(t)$ to be the number of ideals of the field whose norm is less than or equal to $t$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{Z(t)}{t}=\kappa_{0} h_{0} . \tag{1.45}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we let $F(n)$ be the number of ideals of the field $K$ whose norm is $n$, then

$$
Z(t)=\sum_{n=1}^{t} F(n) .
$$

Recall that a Dirichlet series is of the form

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{n}}{n^{s}},
$$

where $a_{n}$ are complex numbers for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $s$ is a complex variable. At this juncture, we restrict our attention to the case where the $a_{n}$ are rational integers. Let $S(n)=a_{1}+a_{2}+\cdots+a_{n}$. If the limit

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{S(n)}{n} \tag{1.46}
\end{equation*}
$$

exists and is equal to $c$, it can shown that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{s \rightarrow 1}(s-1) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{n}}{n^{s}}=c . \tag{1.47}
\end{equation*}
$$

The function

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta_{K}(s)=\sum \frac{1}{\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{a})^{s}} \tag{1.48}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the sum ranges over all non-zero ideals of the maximal order of $K=\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ was first introduced by Dirichlet for quadratic fields and extended to arbitrary number fields by R. Dedekind and is known as the Dedekind zeta function. If $\operatorname{Re}(s)>1$, then $\zeta_{K}(s)$ converges.

We may rewrite (1.48) in

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta_{K}(s)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{F(n)}{n^{s}} . \tag{1.49}
\end{equation*}
$$

In view of (1.45), (1.46), (1.47) and (1.49), it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{s \rightarrow 1}(s-1) \zeta_{K}(s)=\kappa_{0} h_{0} . \tag{1.50}
\end{equation*}
$$

When ${ }^{\prime} \operatorname{Re}(s)>1$, it is well-known that

$$
\frac{\zeta_{K}(s)}{\zeta(s)}=L\left(s, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{\triangle_{0}}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n^{s}},
$$

and at $s=1$,

$$
L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)=\lim _{s \rightarrow 1}(s-1) \zeta_{K}(s) .
$$

This means that

$$
\kappa_{0} h_{0}=L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)
$$

In other words,

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 R_{0} h_{0}=\sqrt{\triangle_{0}} L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right) \tag{1.51}
\end{equation*}
$$

and this is the Dirichlet class number formula for the real quadratic field with fundamental discriminant $\triangle_{0}$.

In 1935, Siegel [226] showed that in a real quadratic field with discriminant $\triangle_{0}$,

$$
R_{0} h_{0} \sim \sqrt{\triangle_{0}} \quad \text { as } \triangle_{0} \rightarrow \infty .
$$

This is a remarkable asymptotic result relating $h_{0}$ to $R_{0}$ and $\sqrt{\Delta_{0}}$, but it has little practical value if we want to compute $h_{0}$. By (1.51), it is clear that to find $h_{0}$, we need to know the values of $R_{0}$ and $L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)$. To find $R_{0}$, it suffices to find $\varepsilon_{0}$. Since $\varepsilon_{0}$ can be found by using the continued fraction expansion of $\omega_{0}$, we can determine $R_{0}$. In fact, for certain values of $\triangle_{0}$, finding $\varepsilon_{0}$ is easy; for example, if $D_{0}$ is of R-D type which will be introduced in Section 2.1. However, when $\triangle_{0}$ is large, finding $L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)$ could be difficult and remains a deep and open problem.

There are known lower and upper bounds for $L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)$. The best known lower bound on $L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)$ at present was given by Hoffstein [73], which is an improvement of Tatuzawa's lower bound in [238]. Let $\Delta_{0}>0$ be a fundamental discriminant and $0<\eta<1 /(6 \ln 10)$. If $\triangle_{0}>e^{1 / \eta}$, then with at most one exceptional value of $\triangle_{0}$,

$$
L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)>\min \left\{\frac{1}{7.735 \ln \triangle_{0}}, \frac{\eta}{0.349 \Delta_{0}^{\eta}}\right\}
$$

and

$$
L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)>\min \left\{\frac{1}{7.735 \ln \triangle_{0}}, \frac{\eta}{0.596\left(1+\eta \ln \triangle_{0}\right)^{2} \triangle_{0}^{0.138 \eta}}\right\} .
$$

The current best upper bound was given by S. Louboutin in [117], namely

$$
\left|L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right)\right| \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(\ln \Delta_{0}+k_{0}\right)
$$

where $k_{0}=2+\gamma-\ln (4 \pi)=0.046 \ldots$ and $\gamma=0.577 \ldots$ is Euler's constant.
The above lower and upper bounds can be greatly improved if we assume the truth of the extended Riemann Hypothesis. The extended Riemann Hypothesis (ERH) asserts that $L\left(s, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right) \neq 0$ for any value of $s$ such that the real part of $s$ is strictly greater than $1 / 2$.

Assuming the truth of ERH, Littlewood [111] proved that

$$
\frac{\pi^{2}(1+o(1))}{12 e^{\gamma} \ln \ln \triangle_{0}}<L\left(1, \chi_{\Delta_{0}}\right) \leq(1+o(1)) 2 e^{\gamma} \ln \ln \triangle_{0}
$$

where $\gamma$ is the Euler constant and the error term $o(1)$ tends to zero as $\triangle_{0}$ approaches infinity. Although the error term o(1) makes Littlewood's bounds impractical, explict practical bounds can be achieved by applying Bach's averaging method in [6], which also assumes the ERH.

We conclude this section by presenting Dirichlet's result [40] on the relation between the class number, $h_{\Delta}$, of an order $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ and the class number $h_{0}$ of the maximal order $\mathcal{O}_{0}$ (or of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ ).

Note that since $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is a subring of $\mathcal{O}_{0}$, any unit in $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ must be a unit in $\mathcal{O}_{0}$. In particular, the fundamental unit, $\varepsilon_{\Delta}$, of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ must be a unit in $\mathcal{O}_{0}$. Therefore, $\varepsilon_{\Delta}=\varepsilon_{0}^{m}$ for some natural number $m$. The minimal such $m$ is called the unit index of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ and denoted by $u_{\Delta}$. There will be a discussion in the next section on the determination of $u_{\Delta}$.

If $f>1$ is the conductor of an order $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ with unit index $u_{\Delta}$ and fundamental discriminant $\triangle_{0}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{\Delta}=\frac{h_{0} \psi(f)}{u_{\Delta}} \tag{1.52}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\psi(f)=f \Pi\left(1-\left(\frac{\Delta_{0}}{p}\right)\right)$ and the product ranges over all the distinct primes $p$ dividing $f$ and $\binom{*}{*}$ denotes the Kronecker symbol.

### 1.7 Lucas Functions

Consider a monic quadratic polynomial equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}-P x+Q=0 \tag{1.53}
\end{equation*}
$$

with integers $P$ and $Q$ and roots $\alpha$ and $\beta$. The Lucas functions are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{n}=\frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha-\beta} \text { and } V_{n}=\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n} \tag{1.54}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lucas functions play a significant role in the theory of continued fractions. In this section, we will present a number of identities and results concerning the Lucas functions and use the results to determine the unit index introduced in the previous section. Also, some of the results here are crucial to our work in Chapter 5.

Material presented here is available in the literature. For a thorough discussion on the Lucas functions, see Lehmer's articles [100], [101] and [102] as well as Lehmer's selected works [129, V. I, pp. 1-49] and the books of Ribenboim [208] and Williams [246].

Although the functions $U_{n}$ and $V_{n}$ are called the Lucas functions, Lucas was not the first person to study them. They were attributed to him because of the great variety of results he discovered pertaining to them. Another major contributor to the study of the Lucas functions is Lehmer. Some of Lucas's results were not proved rigorously; it was Lehmer who refined the details and put the study on a solid mathematical foundation. Also, in his Ph.D dissertation [101], Lehmer generalized (1.53) to the case in which $P$ is replaced by $\sqrt{R}$ where $R$ is any integer prime to $Q$. Because of Lehmer's work in the area, the study of the functions $U_{n}$ and $V_{n}$ is referred to as the Lucas-Lehmer theory.

Since $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are roots of (1.53), their sum $\alpha+\beta=P$ and their product $\alpha \beta=Q$. If $\alpha=\beta$, then $P^{2}-4 Q=0$ and the Lucas function $U_{n}$ is said to be degenerate. In this case, $U_{n}$ is defined
by

$$
U_{n}=\lim _{\beta \rightarrow \alpha} \frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha-\beta}=n \alpha^{n-1}
$$

Henceforth, we assume that $\alpha \neq \beta$. Note that

$$
\alpha^{n+1}-\beta^{n+1}=(\alpha+\beta)\left(\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}\right)-\alpha \beta\left(\alpha^{n-1}-\beta^{n-1}\right)
$$

and

$$
\alpha^{n+1}+\beta^{n+1}=(\alpha+\beta)\left(\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n}\right)-\alpha \beta\left(\alpha^{n-1}+\beta^{n-1}\right)
$$

Thus,

$$
U_{n+1}=P U_{n}-Q U_{n-1} \quad \text { and } \quad V_{n+1}=P V_{n}-Q V_{n-1}
$$

Since $U_{0}=0, U_{1}=1, V_{0}=2$ and $V_{1}=P, U_{n}$ and $V_{n}$ are integers for $n \geq 0$. Also,

$$
Q^{n} U_{-n}=(\alpha \beta)^{n}\left(\frac{\alpha^{-n}-\beta^{-n}}{\alpha-\beta}\right)=\frac{\beta^{n}-\alpha^{n}}{\alpha-\beta}=-U_{n}
$$

and

$$
Q^{n} V_{-n}=(\alpha \beta)^{n}\left(\alpha^{-n}+\beta^{-n}\right)=\beta^{n}+\alpha^{n}=V_{n} .
$$

If we set $\delta=\alpha-\beta$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 \alpha^{n}=V_{n}+\delta U_{n} \quad \text { and } \quad 2 \beta^{n}=V_{n}-\delta U_{n} . \tag{1.55}
\end{equation*}
$$

This implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{V_{m n} \pm \delta U_{m n}}{2}=\left(\frac{V_{n} \pm \delta U_{n}}{2}\right)^{m} \tag{1.56}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
2^{m-1} U_{m n}=\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor m / 2\rfloor}\binom{m}{2 i+1} \triangle^{i} U_{n}^{2 i+1} V_{n}^{m-2 i-1} \tag{1.57}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
2^{m-1} V_{m n}=\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor m / 2\rfloor}\binom{m}{2 i} \Delta^{i} U_{n}^{2 i} V_{n}^{m-2 i} \tag{1.58}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Delta=\delta^{2}=P^{2}-4 Q \neq 0$.
Note that $p$ divides the binomial coefficient $\binom{p}{j}$ if $j$ is positive and strictly less than $p$. Hence, by (1.57) with $n=1$ and $m=p$, we get

$$
2^{p-1} U_{p} \equiv \Delta^{(p-1) / 2} \bmod p
$$

If $p$ is an odd prime, then by Fermat's Little Theorem, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{p} \equiv \triangle^{(p-1) / 2} \bmod p \tag{1.59}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, if $p \mid \triangle$, then $p \mid U_{p}$.
If a prime $p$ divides $Q$, it can be shown by induction that $U_{n} \equiv P^{n-1} \bmod p$ for all $n \geq 0$. This implies that if $p \nmid P$, then $p \nmid U_{n}$ except for $U_{0}$. If $p \mid P$, then $p \mid U_{n}$ for $n=0$ and $n \geq 2$.

Henceforth, we assume that $p \nmid Q$. Define $\epsilon(p)=\left(\frac{\Delta}{p}\right)$ where $\left(\frac{*}{*}\right)$ is the Kronecker symbol. We will write $\epsilon=\epsilon(p)$ when the context is clear. Also, when $p$ is an odd prime, the notation $\epsilon(p)$ simply stands for the Legendre symbol. It can be shown by induction that if $2 \mid P$, then $2 \mid U_{n}$ if and only if $2 \mid n$; and if $2 \nmid P$, then $2 \mid U_{n}$ if and only if $3 \mid n$. Hence,

$$
\epsilon(2)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
0 & \text { if } 2 \mid P  \tag{1.60}\\
-1 & \text { if } 2 \nmid P
\end{array}\right.
$$

implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 \mid U_{2-\epsilon(2)} \tag{1.61}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also, it can be shown that for any odd prime $p$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
p \mid U_{p-\epsilon(p)} \tag{1.62}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 1.7.1 If $p$ is an odd prime, $\epsilon=\epsilon(p)$ and $p \nmid Q \Delta$, then $p \mid V_{(p-\epsilon) / 2}$ when the Legendre $\operatorname{symbol}\left(\frac{Q}{p}\right)=-1$ and $p \mid U_{(p-\epsilon) / 2}$ when $\left(\frac{Q}{p}\right)=1$.

Theorem 1.7.2 If $p \nmid Q$ and $p^{k} \| U_{n}$, then $p^{k+1} \| U_{p n}$ when $p^{k} \neq 2$. If $p^{k}=2$, i.e. $p=2$, then $4 \mid U_{2 n}$.

By (1.62), if $p$ is a prime and does not divide $Q$, then there exists a natural number $k$ such that $p \mid U_{k}$. By Theorem 1.7.2, we see that for any integer $a$, there exists some $n>0$ such that $p^{a} \mid U_{n}$. If $r \mid U_{n}$ and $r^{\prime} \mid U_{n^{\prime}}$ where $\operatorname{gcd}\left(r, r^{\prime}\right)=1$, then $U_{n} \mid U_{n n^{\prime}}$ and $U_{n^{\prime}} \mid U_{n n^{\prime}}$ implies that $r r^{\prime} \mid U_{n n^{\prime}}$. Thus, if $m$ is any integer such that $\operatorname{gcd}(m, Q)=1$, then there is a natural number $n$ such that $m \mid U_{n}$. The least such positive $n$, denoted by $\omega(m)$, is called the rank of apparition of $m$ in $U_{n}$.

Theorem 1.7.3 Let $\operatorname{gcd}(m, Q)=1$. If $m \mid U_{n}$ for some natural number $n$, then $\omega(m) \mid n$.

## Theorem 1.7.4 (Law of Repetition for a prime $p$ )

If $p$ is a prime and $a$ is a natural number such that $p^{a} \neq 2$ and $p^{a} \| U_{m}$ for some $m$, then $p^{a+b} \| U_{p^{b} m n}$ when $p \nmid n$ and $b>0$. If $p^{a}=2$, then $p^{a+b}=2^{b+1}$ and $2^{b+1} \mid U_{2^{b} m n}$ and $U_{m n / 2}$ is odd when $n$ is odd.

Definition 1.7.1 Suppose that $\operatorname{gcd}(m, Q)=1$ and the prime factorization of $m$ is $\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{a_{i}}$ where $p_{i}$ are distinct primes. We define the functions $\Phi(m)$ and $\Lambda(m)$ as follows:

$$
\Phi(m)=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{a_{i}-1}\left(p_{i}-\epsilon\left(p_{i}\right)\right)
$$

and

$$
\Lambda(m)=\text { the least common multiple of } p_{i}^{a_{i}-1}\left(p_{i}-\epsilon\left(p_{i}\right)\right) \text { for } i=1,2, \ldots, k .
$$

We note that $\Lambda(m) \mid \Phi(m)$. The function $\Lambda(m)$ is a generalization of the Carmichael $\lambda$-function [21] and the function $\Phi(m)$ is a generalization of the Euler $\phi$-function to $U_{n}$. To see the latter, let $m=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{a_{i}}$ be an odd natural number and $b \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(m, b(b-1))=1$. Take $P=b+1$
and $Q=b$. Then $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=1$ and $U_{n}=\left(b^{n}-1\right) /(b-1)$. Since $\Delta=(\alpha-\beta)^{2}=(b-1)^{2}$ is a square, we have $\epsilon(p)=\left(\frac{\Delta}{p}\right)=1$ for all prime divisor $p$ of $m$. Thus,

$$
\Phi(m)=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{a_{i}-1}\left(p_{i}-1\right)=\phi(m)
$$

Theorem 1.7.5 (Law of Apparition of $m$ )
If $\operatorname{gcd}(m, Q)=1$, then $\omega(m)$ exists and $\omega(m) \mid \Lambda(m)$.
We now confine our attention to the relation between the fundamental unit of a quadratic order and the fundamental unit of the maximal order. By Theorem 1.4.1, the fundamental unit of the maximal order $\mathcal{O}_{0}$ can always be found by using the continued fraction of $\omega_{0}$. We may write the fundamental unit as

$$
\varepsilon_{0}=\frac{a+b \sqrt{\Delta_{0}}}{2}
$$

for some integers $a$ and $b$.
Recall that all units in $\mathcal{O}_{0}$ are of the form $\pm \varepsilon_{0}^{n}$ or $\pm \bar{\varepsilon}_{0}^{n}$ for non-negative integers $n$. We may consider only the ones of the form $\varepsilon_{0}^{n}$ and write them as $\left(a_{n}+b_{n} \sqrt{\triangle_{0}}\right) / 2$ with $a_{1}=a$ and $b_{1}=b$. Suppose that $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is an order of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{\triangle_{0}}\right)$ with conductor $f$. Then the fundamental unit $\varepsilon_{\Delta}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$ is a unit in $\mathcal{O}_{0}$. Thus, $\varepsilon_{\Delta}=\left(a_{n}+b_{n} \sqrt{\triangle_{0}}\right) / 2$ for some $n$. Since $\varepsilon_{\Delta}$ can be written as

$$
\frac{a^{\prime}+b^{\prime} \sqrt{f^{2} \triangle_{0}}}{2}=\frac{a^{\prime}+b^{\prime} f \sqrt{\triangle_{0}}}{2}
$$

for some integers $a^{\prime}$ and $b^{\prime}$, it is clear that

$$
\frac{a^{\prime}+b^{\prime} f \sqrt{\Delta_{0}}}{2}=\frac{a_{n}+b_{n} \sqrt{\Delta_{0}}}{2}
$$

and hence,

$$
f \mid b_{n}
$$

The minimal such $n$ is the unit index $u_{\Delta}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{\Delta}$.

To facilitate the calculations of the sequences $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$ and $\left\{b_{i}\right\}$, we consider the monic polynomial equation $x^{2}-P x+Q=0$ with roots $\alpha=\left(a_{1}+b_{1} \sqrt{\triangle_{0}}\right) / 2=\varepsilon_{0}$ and $\beta=\left(a_{1}-b_{1} \sqrt{\Delta_{0}}\right) / 2=\bar{\varepsilon}_{0}$. Then $P=\alpha+\beta=a_{1}$ and $Q=\alpha \beta=\mathcal{N}(\alpha)$, which is either 1 or -1 . If we put

$$
U_{n}=\frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha-\beta} \text { and } V_{n}=\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n}
$$

then $U_{1}=1, V_{1}=P=a_{1}$, and since $\delta=b_{1} \sqrt{\triangle_{0}}$,

$$
\frac{V_{1}+\delta U_{1}}{2}=\frac{a_{1}+b_{1} \sqrt{\Delta_{0}}}{2}
$$

By (1.56), we see that

$$
\frac{a_{n}+b_{n} \sqrt{\Delta_{0}}}{2}=\left(\frac{a_{1}+b_{1} \sqrt{\Delta_{0}}}{2}\right)^{n}=\left(\frac{V_{1}+\delta U_{1}}{2}\right)^{n}=\frac{V_{n}+\delta U_{n}}{2}=\frac{V_{n}+U_{n} b_{1} \sqrt{\Delta_{0}}}{2}
$$

Therefore, $a_{n}=V_{n}$ and $b_{n}=b_{1} U_{n}$.
We want to find the least positive $n$ such that $f \mid b_{1} U_{n}$. It is easy to see that if $f \mid b_{1}$, then $n=1$ and $u_{\Delta}=1$. For the case where $f \nmid b_{1}, \operatorname{let} \operatorname{gcd}\left(f, b_{1}\right)=d$ for some natural number $d$. Then $f \mid b_{1} U_{n}$ is equivalent to $(f / d) \mid\left(b_{1} / d\right) U_{n}$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(f / d, b_{1} / d\right)=1$, we have $(f / d) \mid\left(b_{1} / d\right) U_{n}$ if and only if $(f / d) \mid U_{n}$. This means that the least positive such $n$ is the rank of apparition of $f / d$, i.e., $\omega(f / d)$. The existence of $\omega(f / d)$ is guaranteed by the law of apparition since $Q$ in this case is $\pm 1$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(f / d, Q)=1$. Therefore, $u_{\Delta}=\omega(f / d)$. Since $\omega(f / d) \mid \Lambda(f / d)$ by the law of apparition, we have $u_{\Delta} \leq \Lambda(f / d)$.

## Chapter 2

## Known Results on the Continued Fraction Expansion of

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}
$$

The purpose of this chapter is to motivate the new results in Chapters 3 and 4. As we indicated at the end of Section 1.3, finding solutions to a Pell equation could be a difficult computational problem when $D$ is large. We will solve this problem in cases where $D$ is given by an integervalued quadratic polynomial and express solutions of the corresponding Pell equation in terms of the coefficients of the polynomial.

The first section is a review of relevant results pertaining to the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ produced from the time of Stern (1834) to the present. The second section discusses Kraitchik's work in the area. The third section focuses on Schinzel's work on the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. The last section presents the joint work of van der Poorten and Williams on the subject.

### 2.1 A Short History of Certain Parametric Families of $D$

Let $D(X)=A X^{2}+B X+C$, where $A, B, C$ and $X$ are integers. We want to express solutions $(x, y)$ of the Pell equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}-D(X) y^{2}=1 \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

in terms $A, B, C$ and $X$. This problem has been studied since the time of Stern [236] in 1834. He looked at 42 different quadratic polynomials. Numerous subsequent results were achieved for specific quadratics by other researchers. However, there is no definite indication of a systematic
approach to solving the problem in general since Stern's time. To solve (2.1) for general $D(X)$, we need to know the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for all $X$. It is possible that $\sqrt{D(X)}$ could have unbounded period length as $X$ varies. So, to solve the general problem, we first need to have a criterion to determine if the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has bounded period length. Next, we proceed to find the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ where $D(X)$ obeys the criterion and obtain solutions of (2.1) therein.

The 42 different quadratic polynomials that Stern examined can be found in [236, p. 332], for instance, $D(X)=(m X)^{2}+m,(m X)^{2}+2 m$ and $(6 X \pm 1)^{2}+(8 X \pm 2)^{2}$. He computed the continued fraction expansions of these $\sqrt{D(X)}$ in terms of $m$ and $X$. Then he used the continued fraction expansions to calculate the solutions of the corresponding Pell equations.

Richaud [209] studied quadratics of the form $D(X)=X^{2} \pm r$, where $r \mid 2 X$, and gave fundamental solutions to the corresponding Pell equations. He also supplied examples such as $D(X)=(9 X+3)^{2} \pm 9,(9 X+6)^{2} \pm 9$ and $(25 X+5)^{2}-25$. We note here that the case $X^{2} \pm r$ with $r \mid 2 X$ is similar to the case $D(X)=(m X)^{2}+m$ of Stern. One may argue that Richaud's result is the first indication of a systematic approach to solving (2.1). However, this approach never appeared in the literature again until a generalization of it appeared in Degert's 1958 article [32].

In Dickson's History of the Theory of Numbers [36, Chapter XII], there is a list of contributions pertaining to solving (2.1). Most of the articles cited in [36] share a common underlying theme. They investigate a quadratic polynomial with fixed coefficients and find solutions of the corresponding Pell equation in terms of the coefficients and the variable $X$. For example, Speckmann showed that the fundamental solution of $x^{2}-D(X) y^{2}=1$ is $x=X+2, y=1$ if $D(X)=X^{2}+4 X+3$, and $x=2 X+3, y=2$ if $D(X)=X^{2}+3 X+2$. Didon and Moreau considered $D(X)=(4 X+2)^{2}+1$ for natural numbers $X$ and proved that $x^{2}-D(X) y^{2}=4$ has no
solution in odd integers and the fundamental solution is $x=16(2 X+1)^{2}+2$ and $y=8(2 X+1)$. Ricalde considered $D$ of the form $n\left(k^{2} n \pm 2\right)$ and gave the fundamental solution $x=k^{2} n \pm 1$ and $y=k$ to the corresponding Pell equation.

In 1926, Kraitchik [92, V. II, pp. 30-71] considered non-square natural numbers $D$ that are less than 1000 and classified them according to the period length of $\sqrt{D}$. He gave parametrizations of $D$ for the cases where the continued fraction expansions of $\sqrt{D}$ have period length less than 7. For instance, he gave the continued fraction expansions of $\sqrt{(9 X+6)^{2}+(10 X+7)}$ and $\sqrt{\left(9 X^{2}+2\right)^{2}+(8 X+2)}$. There will be a more detailed account of his work in the next section.

In 1957, Degert investigated squarefree $D_{0}=X^{2}+r$ with the condition that

$$
-X<r \leq X \quad \text { and } \quad r \mid 4 X
$$

and found the fundamental units of the real quadratic fields $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$. Since Richaud's result was not mentioned in Degert's paper, it is likely that Degert was not aware of Richaud's work. Hasse [67] pointed out the similarities of Richaud's and Degert's results and coined the term RichaudDegert type (R-D type) for the families of $D_{0}$ that Degert studied. Hasse was interested in the class numbers of R-D type quadratic fields $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D_{0}}\right)$ and was able to get a lower bound for these class numbers. Numerous results concerning the R-D types can be found in the literature, such as [15], [83], [140] and [177]. Although Degert did not use continued fractions in his work, it is well-known today that for any non-square natural number $D$ that satisfies Degert's condition, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ has a period length at most 12.

Theorem 2.1.1 ([133, Theorem 3.2.1, p. 78]) Let $D=X^{2}+r$ be a non-square natural number such that $r \mid 4 X$ and $-2 X+1<r \leq 2 X$. Then $\sqrt{D}$ has period length at most 12 . More specifically:
(1) If $X=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor$ and $r \mid 2 X$, then $\sqrt{D}=(X, \overline{2 X / r, 2 X})$, unless $r=1$ when $\sqrt{D}=(X, \overline{2 X})$.
(2) If $X=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor, X$ is odd, $r \nmid 2 X$, then

$$
\sqrt{D}=\left(X, \frac{\overline{4 X-r}}{2 r}, 1,1, \frac{X-1}{2}, \frac{8 X}{r}, \frac{X-1}{2}, 1,1, \frac{4 X-r}{2 r}, 2 X\right)
$$

unless $r=4$ when $\sqrt{D}=(X, \overline{(X-1) / 2,1,1,(X-1) / 2,2 X)})$.
(3) If $X=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor, X$ is even, $r \nmid 2 X$, then

$$
\sqrt{D}=\left(X, \frac{4 X-r}{2 r}, 1,1, \frac{X}{2}-1,1,1, \frac{4 X-r}{2 r}, 2 X\right)
$$

(4) If $X=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor+1, r \mid 2 X$, then $\sqrt{D}=(X-1, \overline{1,(-2 X / r)-2,1,2 X-2})$, unless $r=-1$ when $\sqrt{D}=(X-1, \overline{1,2 X-2})$ or unless $r=-X$ when $\sqrt{D}=(X-1, \overline{2,2 X-2})$.
(5) If $X=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor+1, r \nmid 2 X, X$ is even and $X \geq r$, then

$$
\sqrt{D}=\left(X-1, \overline{1,-\left(\frac{4 X+3 r}{2 r}\right), 2, \frac{X}{2}-1,2,-\left(\frac{4 X+3 r}{2 r}\right), 1,2 X-2}\right)
$$

(6) If $X=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor+1, r \nmid 2 X, X$ is odd, then

$$
\sqrt{D}=\left(X-1, \overline{1},-\left(\frac{4 X+3 r}{2 r}\right), 2, \frac{X-3}{2}, 1,-\frac{8 X}{r}-2,1, \frac{X-3}{2}, 2,-\left(\frac{4 X+3 r}{2 r}\right), 1,2 X-2\right),
$$

unless $r=-4$ when $\sqrt{D}=(X-1, \overline{1,(X-3) / 2,2,(X-3) / 2,1,2 X-2})$.
(7) If $X=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor+1, r=-X$, then $\sqrt{D}=(X-1, \overline{2,2 X-2})$.
(8) If $X=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor+1, X$ is a multiple of 6 and $r=-4 X / 3$, then $\sqrt{D}=(X-1, \overline{3, X / 2-1,3,2 X-2})$.
(9) If $X=\lfloor\sqrt{D}\rfloor+1, X$ is an odd multiple of 3 and $r=-4 X / 3$, then

$$
\sqrt{D}=\left(X-1, \overline{3,\left(\frac{X-3}{2}\right), 1,4,1,\left(\frac{X-3}{2}\right), 3,2 X-2}\right)
$$

A systematic approach to the study of (2.1) was realized in 1961 when A. Schinzel [213], [214] studied whether the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has bounded period length as $X$ varies. He was inspired by a theorem of $H$. Schmidt [217, Satz 10] which can be written as
follows. If $D(X)=X^{2}+r$ with $X \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \neq 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4$, then the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is unbounded as $X$ varies. Schinzel's results in [213] and [214] generalize Schmidt's theorem to arbitrary integer-valued polynomials $f(X)$ of degree $n$ and provide simple criteria to determine whether the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{f(X)}$ has bounded period length as $X$ varies.

There are three remarkable results in [213] and [214]. The first result in [213] states that if $n$ is odd or $n$ is even with a non-square leading coefficient of $f(X)$, then the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{f(X)}$ is unbounded as $X$ gets large.

The second result in [213] deals with the quadratic case, $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+B \dot{X}+C$. We will see later in (2.5) and (2.6) that by considering even $X$ and odd $X$ separately, we may without loss of generality restrict ourselves to

$$
D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C
$$

Schinzel's second result asserts that if $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$, with $A, B, C$ integers, $A>0$ and $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C \neq 0$, then the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is bounded if and only if $\Delta \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$. Recall from the beginning of Chapter 1 that the condition

$$
\Delta \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}
$$

is called the Schinzel condition. This condition plays a significant role in our work later in Chapter 4 and will be discussed in detail in Section 2.3.

The third result appeared a year later in [214]. This result completely solved the initial problem of deciding whether $\sqrt{f(X)}$ has bounded period length for a general integer-valued polynomial $f(X)$ of degree $n$. Since we will not require the results in [214] for our work, we will not discuss the details here. Several analytic results concerning the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ were established following Schinzel's work. Louboutin [113] studied quadratic
polynomials, $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$, that violate the $S c h i n z e l$ condition, i.e. $\Delta \nmid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$, and gave the lower bound,

$$
1+\frac{2 \ln \sqrt{D(X)}}{\ln |\delta|} \text { where } \delta=\frac{\Delta}{\operatorname{gcd}(A, B)^{2}},
$$

on the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. Louboutin's result was later improved by Farhane [52].

In [206], A. J. van der Poorten and H. C. Williams used Schinzel's result on quadratic polynomials to investigate the exact expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ where $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ obeys the Schinzel condition. They considered the case where $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree. Among other results, they demonstrated that the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is not only bounded according to Schinzel, but is in fact constant for a fixed triple $(A, B, C)$ with sufficiently large $X$. A comprehensive discussion of the results in [206] will be given in Section 2.3.
R. A. Mollin [148] studied the continued fraction expansion of certain $\sqrt{D(X)}$ where $D(X)=$ $A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$. He let $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ be a solution to the Pell equation $x^{2}-C y^{2}=1$ with non-square integer $C$. Then he set $A=\left(x_{0}-1\right) y_{0}, B=\left(x_{0}-1\right)^{2}$ and found the continued fraction expansion expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ in terms of $A, B$ and $X$.

In Chapter 4, we will generalize the work in [206] by dropping the condition that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree and give the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for all quadratics $D(X)$ that satisfy the Schinzel condition. In this fashion, we completely solve

$$
x^{2}-D(X) y^{2}=1
$$

for a general quadratic $D(X)$ that fulfills the Schinzel condition. Moreover, we will show the relationship between the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ and the Lucas function, $U_{n}$, introduced in Section 1.7.

### 2.2 Kraitchik's Work

In his 1926 book [92], Théorie des Nombres, Kraitchik introduced a different perspective to the study of parametric families of $D$. Instead of looking for particular quadratics $D(X)$ where $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has a predictable continued fraction expansion, Kraitchik studied collections of non-square natural numbers $D$ in which the continued fraction expansions of $\sqrt{D}$ have the same period length. For the case where the period length is less than or equal to 7 , he gave explicit parametrizations of $D$ using the partial quotients of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$. Also, he numerically classified all non-square natural numbers $D$ that are less than 1000 into collections of numbers according to the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$. We will now describe some of Kraitchik's work.

For any non-square natural number $D$, it is convenient to write $D=a^{2}+b$ where $1 \leq b \leq 2 a$. If the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ has period length 1 , then it is well-known that $D=a^{2}+1$ and $\sqrt{D}=(a, \overline{2 a})$ where $a \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, we obtain a parametrization for $D$ in which the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ has period length 1. For example, we have $D=2,5,10,17, \ldots$ etc. In the cases where the period length is greater than one, recall from Theorem 1.2.1 that if the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ has period length $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$
\sqrt{D}=\left(a, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{\ell-1}, a+\sqrt{D}\right) \cdot \text { where } \quad a_{i}=a_{\ell-i} \text { for } 1 \leq i \leq \ell-1 .
$$

We may write

$$
\sqrt{D}-a=\left(0, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{\ell-1}, a+\sqrt{D}\right)
$$

If we put

$$
\frac{P}{Q}=\left(0, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{\ell-1}\right), \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{R}{P}=\left(0, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{\ell-2}\right),
$$

where $P, Q, R \geq 0$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=1=\operatorname{gcd}(P, R)$, then by (1.13), we get

$$
\sqrt{D}-a=\frac{P(\sqrt{D}+a)+R}{Q(\sqrt{D}+a)+P}
$$

We multiply the above equation by $Q(\sqrt{D}+a)+P$ to get $Q\left(D-a^{2}\right)=2 a P+R$, which can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=a^{2}+\frac{2 a P+R}{Q} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This means that $D$ is an integer if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q \mid 2 a P+R . \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

If the period length is 2 , i.e. $\sqrt{D}=\left(a, \overline{a_{1}, 2 a}\right)$, then $P=1, Q=a_{1}$, and $R=0$. So, $D=a^{2}+2 a / a_{1}$. Hence, $D$ is an integer if and only if $a_{1} \mid 2 a$. Let $a_{1} m=2 a$ for some integer $m$. Then $D=\left(a_{1} m / 2\right)^{2}+m$ is a parametrization of $D$. For instance, if we take $m=3, a_{1}=4$, then $D=38$ and $\sqrt{38}=(6, \overline{4,12})$.

When the period length is 3 , i.e. $\sqrt{D}=\left(a, \overline{a_{1}, a_{1}, 2 a}\right)$, we compute $P=a_{1}, Q=a_{1}^{2}+1$, and $R=1$. By (2.3), we have $\left(a_{1}^{2}+1\right) \mid 2 a a_{1}+1$. This implies that $a_{1}$ must be even. By (2.2), we get

$$
\left(D-a^{2}\right)\left(a_{1}^{2}+1\right)-2 a a_{1}=1
$$

If we treat the above equation as a linear Diophantine equation with unknowns $D-a^{2}$ and $2 a$, then by Theorem 1.1.2, we find that

$$
2 a=a_{1}+2\left(a_{1}^{2}+1\right) m \quad \text { and } \quad D=a^{2}+1+2 a_{1} m
$$

for some integer $m$. If we take $a_{1}=4$ and $m=3$, then $a=53, D=2834$, and $\sqrt{2834}=$ (53, $\overline{4,4,106})$.

If the period length is 4 , then the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ is of the form ( $a, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a}$ ). We compute $P=a_{1} a_{2}+1, Q=a_{1}^{2} a_{2}+2 a_{1}, R=a_{2}$. By (2.2), we get

$$
\left(D-a^{2}\right)\left(a_{1}^{2} a_{2}+2 a_{1}\right)=2 a\left(a_{1} a_{2}+1\right)+a_{2} .
$$

Note that if $a_{2}$ is odd, then $a_{1}$ cannot be even. The above equation can be thought of as a linear Diophantine equation with unknowns ( $D-a^{2}$ ) and $2 a$, namely,

$$
\left(D-a^{2}\right)\left(a_{1}^{2} a_{2}+2 a_{1}\right)-2 a\left(a_{1} a_{2}+1\right)=a_{2} .
$$

By Theorem 1.1.2, we get

$$
2 a=-\left(a_{1} a_{2}+1\right) a_{2}+\left(a_{1}^{2} a_{2}+2 a_{1}\right) m \text { and } D=a^{2}-a_{2}^{2}+\left(a_{1} a_{2}+1\right) m
$$

where the integer $m$ is chosen to ensure that $2 a$ is positive. Consider $a_{1}=1, a_{2}=4$, and $m=6$. Then $a=8, D=78$, and $\sqrt{78}=(8, \overline{1,4,1,16})$.

Kraitchik used the above method to parametrize $D$ for period length from 1 to 7. A discussion of these seven parametrizaions is available in Appendix A. Besides the parametrizations of $D$ for short periods, Kraitchik computed the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ where $D<1000$ and categorized $D$ into 45 collections of numbers according to the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$. Also, he gave a number of specific quadratics $D(X)$ where the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ remains constant as $X$ varies, for example,

$$
\sqrt{(569 X+9)^{2}+(966 X+16)}=(569 X+9, \overline{1,5,1,1,1,1,1,1,5,1,2(569 X+9)})
$$

The above equation is of particular interest to us. In Chapter 3, we study quadratics $D(X)$ where the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has a fixed symmetric part as $X$ varies.

### 2.3 Schinzel Sleepers

In his 1961 article [213] entitled $O n$ some problems of the arithmetical theory of continued fractions, Schinzel studied the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{f(X)}$ where $f(X)$ is an integer-valued polynomial of degree $n$. His aim was to determine whether the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{f(X)}$ has bounded period length as $X$ varies. As we mentioned in Section 2.1,
he obtained two remarkable results. It is the result on the quadratic case, $A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$, that we are interested in at this time. This result states that the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C}$ has bounded period length if and only if $B^{2}-A^{2} C \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$, the Schinzel condition.

For the remainder of this section, we assume $\theta$ to be a quadratic irrational. Also, we follow Schinzel's notation in denoting the period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\theta$ by $\operatorname{lp}(\theta)$ and the pre-period length of the continued fraction expansion of $\theta$ by $\operatorname{lap}(\theta)$.

We will outline the proof of Schinzel's result with the aid of five preliminary results. These preliminary results establish the relationship between the upper bounds of $\operatorname{lap}((r \theta+t) /(u \theta+s))$ and $\operatorname{lap}(\theta)$ as well as the upper bounds of $\operatorname{lp}(\theta)$ and $\operatorname{lp}((r \theta+t) /(u \theta+s))$ for some $r, s, t, u \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Lemma 2.3.1 [213, Lemma 1] Let the continued fraction expansion of $\theta$ be given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k-1}, \overline{a_{k}}, a_{k+1}, \ldots, a_{k+\ell-1}\right) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

For any non-negative integer $i$, we denote the $i$-th convergent of $\theta$ by $x_{i} / y_{i}$. If $N \geq 2$ and $N \geq a_{i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, k-1$, then $i \leq y_{i} \leq N^{i}$. Moreover, for integers $r, s \neq 0$ and $t, \operatorname{lap}((r \theta+t) / s)<2 s N^{k}$.

Theorem 2.3.1 [213, Theorem 1] Let $r$ and $t$ be integers and $m$ and $s$ be natural numbers. If $\operatorname{lap}(\theta) \leq m$, then there exists a natural number $M$ depending on $m$ and the product rs such that

$$
\operatorname{lap}\left(\frac{r \theta+t}{s}\right) \leq M
$$

Corollary 2.3.1 [213, Corollary, p. 399] Let $r, s, t, u$ be integers and write $d=r s-t u$. Let $m$ be a natural number. If $\operatorname{lap}(\theta) \leq m$, then there exists a natural number $M$ depending on $m, d$ and $u$ such that

$$
\operatorname{lap}\left(\frac{r \theta+t}{u \theta+s}\right) \leq M
$$

where $u \theta+s \neq 0$.

Since $\theta$ is a quadratic irrational, we may write $\theta=\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k-1}, \overline{a_{k}, a_{k+1}, \ldots, a_{k+\ell-1}}\right)$. So, the $k$-th complete quotient, $\theta_{k}$, has a purely periodic expansion with period length $\ell$, i.e.,

$$
\theta_{k}=\left(\overline{a_{k}, a_{k+1}, \ldots, a_{k+\ell-1}}\right) .
$$

We may rewrite the above expression as

$$
\theta_{k}=\left(a_{k}, a_{k+1}, \ldots, a_{k+\ell-1}, \overline{a_{k}, a_{k+1}, \ldots, a_{k+\ell-1}}\right)
$$

That is, the period of $\theta$ can be viewed as the pre-period of the above continued fraction expansion. This leads to $\operatorname{lp}(\theta)=\operatorname{lap}\left(\theta_{k}\right)$. By Corollary 2.3.1, it follows that

Theorem 2.3.2 [213, Theorem 2] Let $r, s, t, u$ be integers and write $d=r s-t u$. Let $m$ be a natural number. If $\operatorname{lp}(\theta) \leq m$, then there exists a natural number $M$ depending on $m$ and $d$ such that

$$
\operatorname{lp}\left(\frac{r \theta+t}{u \theta+s}\right) \leq M
$$

where $u \theta+s \neq 0$.

Theorem 2.3.3 [213, Theorem 4] Let $g$ be a non-zero integer. Denote the set of all integers $X$ such that $g \mid 4 X^{2}$ by $\mathcal{E}$. Then

$$
\lim _{X \notin \varepsilon} \operatorname{lp}\left(\sqrt{X^{2}+g}\right)=\infty
$$

and

$$
\limsup _{X \in \mathcal{E}} \operatorname{lp}\left(\sqrt{X^{2}+g}\right)<\infty
$$

Schinzel proved Theorem 2.3.3 by establishing a lower bound on the period length of $\sqrt{X^{2}+g}$ for the case $X \notin \mathcal{E}$ and an upper bound for the case $X \in \mathcal{E}$. For the latter case, he showed that there exists a natural number $M$ such that

$$
\operatorname{lp}\left(\sqrt{X^{2}+g}\right) \leq M
$$

We present Schinzel's approach in the following. Since $X \in \mathcal{E}$, we have $g \mid 4 X^{2}$. Let $a$ be a non-zero squarefree integer and $b$ and $x$ be natural numbers such that $g=a b^{2}$ and $2 X=a b x$. Then

$$
\sqrt{X^{2}+g}=\sqrt{\left(\frac{a b x}{2}\right)^{2}+a b^{2}}=\frac{b}{2} \sqrt{(a x)^{2}+4 a}
$$

Since $4 a \mid 4(a x)$, we see that $(a x)^{2}+4 a$ is of R-D type, which was introduced in Section 2.1. Thus, by Theorem 2.1.1, $\operatorname{lp}\left(\sqrt{(a x)^{2}+4 a}\right) \leq 12$ for all integers $x$. Now, by Theorem 2.3.2 with $r=b$, $t=0=u$ and $s=2$, there exists a natural number $M$ such that $\operatorname{lp}\left(\sqrt{X^{2}+g}\right) \leq M$.

For an arbitrary quadratic polynomial, $D(X)=A X^{2}+B X+C$, if the first coefficient, $A$, is not a square, then by Schinzel's first main result [213, Theorem 5$], \operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ is unbounded as $X$ varies. Hence, we assume the first coefficient to be a square and write $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+B X+C$.

Although Schinzel's result on the quadratic case [213, Theorem 5] does not restrict the second coefficient $B$ to be even, we will show in the argument below that the second coefficient may be assumed to be even without any loss of generality. The benefit of such an assumption is that we get a simpler expression to work with in the sequel.

If $B$ is odd, then we divide the possible values of $X$ into even integers $X=2 x$ or odd integers $X=2 x+1$. Thus,

$$
D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+B X+C=a^{2} x^{2}+b x+c
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=2 A, b=2 B \text { and } c=C \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

when $X=2 x$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=2 A, \quad b=2\left(2 A^{2}+B\right) \text { and } c=A^{2}+B+C \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

when $X=2 x+1$. Therefore, we may assume that the second coefficient is even. Note that we may further assume the coefficient $A$ to be even. But as there is no advantage of such an assumption in this section, we will not make this assumption.

Henceforth, we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

with discriminant $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C$.
We may rewrite (2.7) as

$$
D(X)=\frac{\left(A^{2} X+B\right)^{2}-\left(B^{2}-A^{2} C\right)}{A^{2}}=\frac{\left(A^{2} X+B\right)^{2}-\Delta}{A^{2}}
$$

Since $\sqrt{D(X)}=\left(\sqrt{\left(A^{2} X+B\right)^{2}-\Delta}\right) / A$, by Theorem 2.3.2 with $\theta=\sqrt{\left(A^{2} X+B\right)^{2}-\Delta}$, $r=1, s=A, t=0$ and $u=0$, we get

$$
\limsup _{X \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})<\infty
$$

if and only if for some $X_{0}$,

$$
\Delta \mid 4\left(A^{2} X+B\right)^{2} \text { for all } X \geq X_{0}
$$

The condition

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \mid 4\left(A^{2} X+B\right)^{2} \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

can sometimes be difficult to apply because of its dependence on $X$. Note that

$$
4\left(A^{2} X+B\right)^{2}=4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}\left(\frac{A^{2}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)} X+\frac{B}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)}\right)^{2}
$$

The expression

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{A^{2}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)} X+\frac{B}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)} \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

is an arithmetic progression in non-negative integers $X$ whose first term $B / \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)$ and difference $A^{2} / \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)$ are relatively prime. Dirichlet's theorem on primes in arithmetic progression [38, p. 108] states that if $a$ and $b$ are relatively prime natural numbers, then the arithmetic progression $a n+b$ in natural numbers $n$ contains infinitely many primes. Thus, the arithmetic progression
(2.9) contains infinitely many primes; hence, it contains infinitely many numbers relatively prime to $\Delta$. This means that the divisibility condition (2.8) for all sufficiently large $X$ is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2} \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

the Schinzel condition.

Theorem 2.3.4 [213, Theorem 5] Let $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ where $A>0, B$ and $C$ are integers such that $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C \neq 0$. Then

$$
\limsup _{X \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})<\infty \quad \text { if and only if } \quad \Delta \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2} .
$$

Recall from Section 2.1 that the study of $D(X)$ is motivated by the difficulty of solving a Pell equation with large non-square $D$. As we noted in the beginning of Section 2.1, in order to study $D(X)$, we need a criterion to determine when $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has a bounded periodic continued fraction expansion as $X$ gets large. As soon as such a criterion is found, we may proceed to find the solutions of the Pell equation,

$$
x^{2}-D(X) y^{2}=1
$$

where $D(X)$ satisfies the criterion. In light of Theorem 2.3.4, the criterion is (2.10). So we may now seek solutions to the above Pell equation.

Since the fundamental solution of a Pell equation is the fundamental unit of a real quadratic order by the discussion in Section 1.4, we may look for fundamental units instead. Stender [233] made use of Theorem 2.3.4 and studied the fundamental units of the maximal order of the real quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ where $D(X)$ is positive and squarefree. In addition to the assumption that the coefficients of $D(X)$ satisfy (2.10), Stender assumed that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree. He
showed that for sufficiently large $X$, the fundamental unit of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ is given by

$$
\varepsilon=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\frac{A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}}{\sqrt{|\Delta|}} & \text { if }|\Delta| \text { is a square }  \tag{2.11}\\
\frac{\left(A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}\right)^{2}}{|\Delta|} & \text { otherwise. }
\end{array}\right.
$$

We note that the above two quantities are in $\mathcal{O}_{D(X)}$ because of the Schinzel condition.
As in Degert's approach in [32], Stender computed the fundamental units algebraically without using continued fractions.

Irving Kaplansky in a letter written in 1998 to Richard Mollin, Hugh Williams and Kenneth Williams, see Appendix B, suggested the term sleepers for families of continued fractions with bounded period length. We use Kaplansky's terminology and make the following definition.

Definition 2.3.1 Let $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ where $A$ is a natural number, $B, C$ and $X$ are integers, the discriminant is $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C \neq 0$, and $\Delta \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$. Then $D(X)$ is called a Schinzel sleeper.

### 2.4 Work of van der Poorten and Williams

In their article [206] on Schinzel sleepers, $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$, where $B^{2}-A^{2} C$ divides $4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$, van der Poorten and Williams sought the exact continued fraction expansion for $\sqrt{D(X)}$ with the assumption that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree. As we have seen in the remark following (2.5) and (2.6), they could assume that the coefficient $A$ is even.

Lemma 2.4.1 [206, Lemma 2.1] Put $S=\operatorname{gcd}(A, B)$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
(B / S)^{2}-(A / S)^{2} C=G^{2} H \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $H$ is squarefree. Let $B^{2}-A^{2} C \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$. Then $G H$ divides $2 A, 2 B / S$ and $2 S$. Also, $G^{2} H \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$. Therefore, if $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree, then $G=1$ or 2 .

For the remainder of this section, when we speak of $G, H$ and $S$, we mean the quantities defined in Lemma 2.4.1.

Theorem 2.4.1 [206, Theorem 2.2] Suppose that $B^{2}-A^{2} C \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree. Then $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ is of $R-D$ type when $C \leq 0$ or $C$ is a perfect square. In other words, $D(X)$ is of the form $n^{2}+r$ where $r \mid 4 n$ and $-2 n+1<r \leq 2 n$.

Since we want to exclude R-D types from our discussion, we henceforth assume that $C$ is positive and not a perfect square. Note that when $X<0, D(X)$ may be written as $A^{2} X^{2}-2 B|X|+C$. Since $B$ may be of either sign, we may assume that $X$ is positive. If $X=x+x_{0}$ for some natural number $x_{0}$, then

$$
D(X)=A^{2}\left(x+x_{0}\right)^{2}+2 B\left(x+x_{0}\right)+C=a^{2} x^{2}+2 b x+c
$$

where $a=A, b=A^{2} x_{0}+B$ and $c=A^{2} x_{0}^{2}+2 B x_{0}+C$. Thus, $\delta=b^{2}-a^{2} c=B^{2}-A^{2} C=\Delta$, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a^{2}, b\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a^{2}, 2 b, c\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$. If $x_{0}>-B / A^{2}$, then $b$ is positive. Also, since

$$
c-G^{4} H^{2}=A^{2}\left(x_{0}^{2}-G^{4} H^{2} / A^{2}\right)+B x_{0}+C
$$

$c>G^{4} H^{2}$ if $x_{0}>\max \left\{G^{2} H / A,-C / B\right\}$. Henceforth, $X$ is assumed to be sufficiently large so that $B$ is positive and $C>G^{4} H^{2}$.

The proofs of the main theorems in [206] made use of a technique involving $2 \times 2$ matrices described in [159] and [161]. Since our approach does not make use of the matrix method here, we will only provide the results, but not the proofs.

To avoid confusion of notation, for the remainder of this section, we denote the $n$-th convergent of a continued fraction by $x_{n} / y_{n}$.

Theorem 2.4.2 [206, Theorem 4.1] Suppose that $G=1$. If $|H| \geq 2$, then $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has the expansion

$$
\left(A X+c_{0}, \overline{\vec{w}, \frac{2(P+A X)}{|H|}, \overleftarrow{w}, 2\left(A X+c_{0}\right)}\right)
$$

where $B / A$ is the convergent $x_{n} / y_{n}=\left(c_{0}, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}\right), \vec{w}=c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}, \overleftarrow{w}$ is the reverse of $\vec{w}$, the subscript $n$ is odd if $H<0$ and is even if $H>0$, and $P=(-1)^{n+1}\left(x_{n-1} x_{n}-y_{n-1} y_{n} C\right)$. If $|H|=1$, then $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has the expansion

$$
\left(A X+c_{0}, \overline{\vec{w}, 2\left(A X+c_{0}\right)}\right)
$$

Theorem 2.4.3 [206, Theorem 4.2] If $G=2$, then $D(X) \equiv 5 \bmod 8$. If $|H| \geq 2$, then the expansion of $(1+\sqrt{D(X)}) / 2$ is given by

$$
\left(\frac{A X+c_{0}+1}{2}, \overline{\vec{w}}, \frac{2(P+A X)}{|H|}, \overleftarrow{w}, A X+c_{0}\right)
$$

where $c_{0}$ is an odd integer, $(B / A+1) / 2=\left(x_{n} / y_{n}+1\right) / 2$ has the expansion $\left(\left(c_{0}+1\right) / 2, \vec{w}\right)$ and $P=(-1)^{n+1}\left(x_{n-1} x_{n}-y_{n-1} y_{n} C\right)$. If $|H|=1$, then $(1+\sqrt{D(X)}) / 2$ has the expansion .

$$
\left(\frac{A X+c_{0}+1}{2}, \overline{\vec{w}, A X+c_{0}}\right)
$$

We show that Theorem 2.4.2 may be written in simpler form in the following. Since we take sufficiently large $X$ to guarantee that $G^{4} H^{2}<C$, we have $G^{2}|H|<\sqrt{C}$. By Theorem 1.3.1, $(B / S) /(A / S)$ is a convergent of $\sqrt{C}$. Let $P_{i}$ be the rational part of the numerator and $Q_{i}$ the denominator of the $i$-th complete quotient of $\sqrt{C}$ for any non-negative integer $i$. Since $(B / S)^{2}-$ $(A / S)^{2} C=G^{2} H$, we have $G^{2}|H|=Q_{i+1}$ for some non-negative integer $i$. Thus, we may use the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{C}$ to get the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$.

From Theorem 2.4.2, in the case where $|H|>1$, the middle term of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is given by

$$
\frac{2(P+A X)}{|H|}
$$

If $G=1$, then $|H|=Q_{n+1}$. Moreover, $P=P_{n+1}$. By Lemma 2.4.1, we have $H \mid 2 A$. Hence, $Q_{n+1} \mid 2 A$ and therefore, $Q_{n+1} \mid 2 P_{n+1}$. In fact, $c_{n+1} Q_{n+1}=2 P_{n+1}$. By Theorem 1.2.3, if $\ell=\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{C})$, then $\ell$ is even and $n+1 \equiv \ell / 2 \bmod \ell$. Now, Theorem 2.4.2 can be rewritten as

Theorem 2.4.4 [206, Theorem 4.3] Suppose that $G=1$ and let $\sqrt{C}=\left(c_{0}, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}, \ldots\right)$. Then $B / A=\left(c_{0}, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}\right)$. Put $\vec{w}=c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}$ and $\stackrel{\leftarrow}{w}=c_{n}, \ldots, c_{1}$. Then for $|H|=Q_{n+1} \geq 2$, the expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is given by

$$
\left(A X+c_{0}, \overline{\vec{w}, \frac{2 A X}{Q_{n+1}}+c_{n+1}, \overleftarrow{w}, 2\left(A X+c_{0}\right)}\right)
$$

If $|H|=1$, then the expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is given by

$$
\left(A X+c_{0}, \overline{\vec{w}}, 2\left(A X+c_{0}\right)\right)
$$

The period length of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is given by

$$
\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
(2 k+1) \ell & \text { if }|H|=Q_{n+1}>1 \\
k \ell & \text { if }|H|=1
\end{array}\right.
$$

for some non-negative integer $k$. The value of $k$ depends exclusively on $A, B$ and $C$ and is independent of $X$. In other words, $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ remains constant as $X$ varies as long as $A, B$ and $C$ are fixed.

In the example below, we illustrate the case where $G=1=H$.
Example 2.4.1 Consider $C=14$. Then $\sqrt{14}=(3, \overline{1,2,1,6})$. It can be checked that $A=4$ and $B=15$ is a solution of $B^{2}-A^{2} C=1$ and $B / A=(3,1,2,1)$. Note that although $B / A$ can be written as $(3,1,3)$, we write $B / A=(3,1,2,1)$ to match a portion of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{C}=(3, \overline{1,2,1,6})$. Write $D(X)=4^{2} X^{2}+2(15) X+14$. Then

$$
\sqrt{D(1)}=\sqrt{60}=(7, \overline{1,2,1,14}), \quad \sqrt{D(2)}=\sqrt{138}=(11, \overline{1,2,1,22})
$$

$$
\sqrt{D(3)}=\sqrt{248}=(15, \overline{1,2,1,30})
$$

In general, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(4 X+3, \overline{1,2,1,8 X+6}) \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})=4
$$

Similarly, it can be checked that $A=120$ and $B=449$ is also a solution of $B^{2}-A^{2} C=1$. If we write $\sqrt{C}=(3, \overline{1,2,1,6})=(3, \overline{1,2,1,6,1,2,1,6})$, then $B / A=(3,1,2,1,6,1,2,1)$ matches a portion of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{C}$. Write $D(X)=120^{2} X^{2}+2(449) X+14$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{D(1)}=\sqrt{15312}=(123, \overline{1,2,1,6,1,2,1,246}) \\
& \sqrt{D(2)}=\sqrt{59410}=(243, \overline{1,2,1,6,1,2,1,486}) \\
& \sqrt{D(3)}=\sqrt{132308}=(363, \overline{1,2,1,6,1,2,1,726})
\end{aligned}
$$

In general, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(120 X+3, \overline{1,2,1,6,1,2,1,240 X+6}) \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})=8
$$

When $G=2$, we can establish a similar result relating the continued fraction expansion of $(1+\sqrt{C}) / 2$ to that of $(1+\sqrt{D(X)}) / 2$ using Theorem 2.4.3.

Theorem 2.4.5 [206, Theorem 4.4] Suppose that $G=2$ and $\operatorname{let}(1+\sqrt{C}) / 2=\left(c_{0}, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}, \ldots\right)$ and $|H|=Q_{n+1}$ be the denominator of the $(n+1)$-th complete quotient of $(1+\sqrt{C}) / 2$. Then $(B / A+1) / 2=\left(c_{0}, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}\right)$. Put $\vec{w}=c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}$ and $\overleftarrow{w}=c_{n}, \ldots, c_{1}$. Then for $|H| \geq 2$, the expansion of $(1+\sqrt{D(X)}) / 2$ is given by

$$
\left(\frac{A X}{2}+c_{0}, \overline{\vec{w}}, \frac{A X}{Q_{n+1}}+c_{n+1}, \overleftarrow{w}, A X+2 c_{0}-1\right)
$$

If $|H|=1$, then $(1+\sqrt{D(X)}) / 2$ has the expansion

$$
\left(\frac{A X}{2}+c_{0}, \overline{\vec{w}, A X+2 c_{0}-1}\right)
$$

In the following example, we illustrate the above theorem for the case where $G=2$ and $H=1$.

Example 2.4.2 Consider $C=109 \equiv 5 \bmod 8$. We compute $(1+\sqrt{109}) / 2=(5, \overline{1,2,1,1,2,1,9})$. Since $(x, y)=(261,25)$ is a solution of $x^{2}-y^{2} C=-4$, we put $A=2 \cdot 25=50, B=2 \cdot 261=522$. It can be checked that $(B / A+1) / 2$ can be written as $(5,1,2,1,1,2,1)$, which matches a portion of the continued fraction expansion of $(1+\sqrt{C}) / 2$. Write $D(X)=50^{2} X^{2}+2(522) X+109$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{1+\sqrt{D(1)}}{2}=\frac{1+\sqrt{3653}}{2}=(30, \overline{1,2,1,1,2,1,59}) \\
& \frac{1+\sqrt{D(2)}}{2}=\frac{1+\sqrt{12197}}{2}=(55, \overline{1,2,1,1,2,1,109}) \\
& \frac{1+\sqrt{D(3)}}{2}=\frac{1+\sqrt{25741}}{2}=(80, \overline{1,2,1,1,2,1,159}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

In general, we get

$$
\frac{1+\sqrt{D(X)}}{2}=(25 X+5, \overline{1,2,1,1,2,1,50 X+9})
$$

Similarly, it can be checked that $(x, y)=(68123,6525)$ is a solution of $x^{2}-y^{2} C=4$. Put $A=2 \cdot 6525$ and $B=2 \cdot 68123$. Then $(B / A+1) / 2=(5,1,2,1,1,2,1,9,1,2,1,1,2,1)$. We write $D(X)=(2 \cdot 6525)^{2} X^{2}+2(2 \cdot 68123) X+109$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{1+\sqrt{D(1)}}{2}=\frac{1+\sqrt{170575101}}{2}=(6530, \overline{1,2,1,1,2,1,9,1,2,1,1,2,1,13059}) \\
& \frac{1+\sqrt{D(2)}}{2}=\frac{1+\sqrt{681755093}}{2}=(13055, \overline{1,2,1,1,2,1,9,1,2,1,1,2,1,26109}) \\
& \frac{1+\sqrt{D(3)}}{2}=\frac{1+\sqrt{1533540085}}{2}=(19580, \overline{1,2,1,1,2,1,9,1,2,1,1,2,1,39159}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

In general, we get

$$
\frac{1+\sqrt{D(X)}}{2}=(6525 X+5, \overline{1,2,1,1,2,1,13050 X+9})
$$

There is a more general result [206, Theorem 5.6] concerning the continued fraction expansions of $\sqrt{C}$ and $\sqrt{D(X)}$ when $G=2$. Since the statement of the theorem is rather involved, we will not provide the details here. We will, however, give an important consequence of the theorem, namely the period length of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. If we put $\ell=\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{C})$, then for some $k \geq 0$,

$$
\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})= \begin{cases}(6 k+1) \ell \text { or }(6 k+5) \ell & \text { if }|H|>1 \\ (3 k+1) \ell \text { or }(3 k+2) \ell & \text { if }|H|=1\end{cases}
$$

Once again, the values of $k$ here depend only on the values of $A, B$ and $C$, but not on $X$.

## Chapter 3

## Symmetric Sequence Perspective of Continued Fractions

The aim of this chapter is to study certain parametric families of non-square natural numbers $D$ in which every family is uniquely defined by a symmetric sequence of natural numbers. We will present a theorem of Perron in the first section; then use the theorem to define families of $D$ in the ensuing section. Various properties of the families will be discussed therein. We will show that each family can be described by a quadratic polynomial of the form described in Theorems 2.4.4 or 2.4.5. Finally, we will establish a somewhat surprising result concerning the product of two numbers of a given family. When certain conditions are met, independent of the symmetric sequence that defines the family, the product is of RD-type and, thus, its square root has has a very short and predictable periodic continued fraction expansion.

### 3.1 A Theorem of Perron

If $D$ is a non-square natural number, then from Theorems 1.2.1 and 1.2.4, we know that

$$
\sqrt{D}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}}\right) .
$$

and

$$
\frac{1+\sqrt{D}}{2}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}-1}\right) \quad \text { when } \quad D \equiv 1 \bmod 4
$$

Each of the above two continued fractions has a palindromic string, $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}$, of natural numbers in its period. We call this palindromic string the symmetric part of the period.

Recall from Section 2.2 that Kraitchik made a study of the period length of $\sqrt{D}$ and found explicit parametrizations of $D$ for various cases of fixed period lengths. Perron [190, Satz 3.17]
evidently used Kraitchik's method to obtain a parametrization of $D$ for arbitrary period length. Perron also showed that when given a palindromic string of natural numbers, under certain conditions, it is possible to find a non-square natural number $D$ such that the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ has this palindromic string as its symmetric part of the period. Similarly, he gave a result [190, Satz 3.34] concerning the case $(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2$. Friesen [54] gave a new proof of [190, Satz 3.17] and deduced that there is either no integer $D$ or there are infinitely many squarefree $D$ such that the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ has the given palindromic string as its symmetric part. Halter-Koch [66] improved Friesen's result by providing the probability of obtaining such $D$. He also gave a similar probability result regarding the case $(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2$.

Although Perron did not state explicitly that when given a palindromic string of natural numbers, there is a non-square natural number $D$ such that either the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ or that of $(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2$ has the palindromic string as the symmetric part of its period, it is likely that he was aware of such a fact. This statement follows almost immediately by combining the proofs of [190, Satz 3.17] and [190, Satz 3.34] as we will show in the theorem below.

In the sequel, we write $\sqrt{D}$ and $(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2$ collectively by $(\tau-1+\sqrt{D}) / \tau$ where $\tau=1$ or 2 . When $\tau=2$, we require that $D \equiv 1 \bmod 4$.

Theorem 3.1.1 (Perron) Given a palindromic string, $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}$, of $\ell-1 \geq 0$ natural numbers, there are infinitely many non-square natural numbers $D$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}-\tau+1}\right)=\frac{\tau-1+\sqrt{D}}{\tau} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{0}=\lfloor(\tau-1+\sqrt{D}) / \tau\rfloor$.
Proof: Let $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}$ be a palindromic string of $\ell-1$ natural numbers. Then there exists a
uniquely defined matrix $\mathcal{M}$ such that

$$
\mathcal{M}=\prod_{j=1}^{\ell-1}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{j} & 1  \tag{3.2}\\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
u & v \\
v & w
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{det}(\mathcal{M})=u w-v^{2}=(-1)^{\ell-1}
$$

If we have an empty string, the matrix $\mathcal{M}$ is simply the identity matrix. To establish the required result, it suffices to demonstrate that $D$ and $a_{0}$ in (3.1) can be expressed in terms of $u, v$ and $w$ along with an appropriate choice of $\tau=1$ or 2 . Let

$$
\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}-\tau+1}\right)=\frac{\tau-1+\sqrt{D}}{\tau}=\theta
$$

Let $A_{i} / B_{i}$ be the $i$-th convergent and $\theta_{i}$ the $i$-th complete quotient of the above continued fraction expansion. Then, by (1.13),

$$
\theta=\frac{A_{\ell-1} \theta_{\ell}+A_{\ell-2}}{B_{\ell-1} \theta_{\ell}+B_{\ell-2}} .
$$

Since $\ell$ is the period length of $\theta$, by Theorems 1.2.1 and 1.2.4, we have $\theta_{\ell}=a_{0}-\tau+1+\theta$. Thus,

$$
\theta=\frac{A_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1+\theta\right)+A_{\ell-2}}{B_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1+\theta\right)+B_{\ell-2}} .
$$

We may rewrite the above equation as

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{\ell-1} \theta^{2}+\left(B_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+B_{\ell-2}-A_{\ell-1}\right) \theta-\left(A_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+A_{\ell-2}\right)=0 \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (1.11), we have

$$
\frac{B_{\ell-2}-A_{\ell-1}}{B_{\ell-1}}=\frac{B_{\ell-2}}{B_{\ell-1}}-\frac{A_{\ell-1}}{B_{\ell-1}}=\left(0, a_{\ell-1}, \ldots, a_{1}\right)-\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{\ell-1}\right)=-a_{0} .
$$

Hence,

$$
B_{\ell-1} \mid\left(B_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+B_{\ell-2}-A_{\ell-1}\right) .
$$

$\operatorname{By}(1.11), A_{\ell-1}=a_{0} B_{\ell-1}+B_{\ell-2}$. So,

$$
\frac{B_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+B_{\ell-2}-A_{\ell-1}}{B_{\ell-1}}=-\tau+1
$$

Dividing (3.3) by $B_{\ell-1}$ yields

$$
\theta^{2}-(\tau-1) \theta-\frac{A_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+A_{\ell-2}}{B_{\ell-1}}=0
$$

This is a quadratic equation and its positive solution is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta=\frac{1}{2}\left((\tau-1)+\sqrt{(\tau-1)^{2}+4\left(\frac{A_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+A_{\ell-2}}{B_{\ell-1}}\right)}\right) . \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\tau=1$ or 2 , we may rewrite the above equation as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta=\frac{1}{\tau}\left((\tau-1)+\sqrt{(\tau-1)^{2}+\tau^{2}\left(\frac{A_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+A_{\ell-2}}{B_{\ell-1}}\right)}\right) \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $\left(A_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+A_{\ell-2}\right) / B_{\ell-1}$ is an integer since $\theta=(\tau-1+\sqrt{D}) / \tau$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=(\tau-1)^{2}+\tau^{2}\left(\frac{A_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+A_{\ell-2}}{B_{\ell-1}}\right) \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $H=\left(A_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+A_{\ell-2}\right) / B_{\ell-1}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{\ell-1} H=A_{\ell-1}\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+A_{\ell-2} \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (1.11), $A_{\ell-1}=a_{0} u+v, B_{\ell-1}=u$ and $A_{\ell-2}=a_{0} v+w$, so (3.7) becomes

$$
u H=\left(a_{0} u+v\right)\left(a_{0}-\tau+1\right)+a_{0} v+w .
$$

This equation can be rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
u\left(H-a_{0}^{2}+a_{0}(\tau-1)\right)-v\left(2 a_{0}-\tau+1\right)=w \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can think of (3.8) as a linear Diophantine equation with unknowns $\left(H-a_{0}^{2}+a_{0}(\dot{\tau}-1)\right)$ and $\left(2 a_{0}-\tau+1\right)$. Since $u w-v^{2}=(-1)^{\ell-1}$, we have

$$
u\left((-1)^{\ell-1} w\right)-v\left((-1)^{\ell-1} v\right)=1
$$

If we apply Theorem 1.1.2 to (3.8), then for some integer $m$,

$$
H-a_{0}^{2}+a_{0}(\tau-1)=\left((-1)^{\ell-1} w\right) w+m v=(-1)^{\ell-1} w^{2}+m v
$$

and

$$
2 a_{0}-\tau+1=(-1)^{\ell-1} v w+m u
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{0}=\frac{\tau-1+m u-(-1)^{\ell} v w}{2} \text { and } H=a_{0}^{2}-a_{0}(\tau-1)+m v-(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} . \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (3.6),

$$
D=(\tau-1)^{2}+\tau^{2} H=(\tau-1)^{2}+\tau^{2}\left(a_{0}^{2}-a_{0}(\tau-1)+m v-(-1)^{\ell} w^{2}\right) .
$$

If $\tau=1$, we get

$$
D=a_{0}^{2}+m v-(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} .
$$

If $\tau=2$, we get

$$
D=\left(2 a_{0}-1\right)^{2}+4 m v-(-1)^{\ell} 4 w^{2} .
$$

Hence, we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=\left(\tau a_{0}-\tau+1\right)^{2}+\tau^{2} m v-\tau^{2}(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} . \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

The integers $m$ and $\tau$ must be chosen to ensure that $a_{0}$ in (3.9) is a natural number. If $u$ and $v w$ are even, then to make $a_{0}$ a natural number, we need $\tau=1$ along with an appropriate integer $m$. If $u$ is even and $v w$ is odd, then to make $a_{0}$ a natural number, we must have $\tau=2$ and an appropriate integer $m$.

When $u$ is odd, $\tau$ can be either 1 or 2 . Note that in this case $u$ and $v w$ cannot be both odd by (3.2). Thus, $v w$ is even. If we choose $\tau=1$, then since $u$ is odd, we need to pick an even $m$ to make $a_{0}$ an integer. On the other hand, if $\tau=2$, then we need to pick an odd $m$ to ensure that $a_{0}$ is an integer. The appropriate values of $m$ are given in the following table.

| $u$ even | $v w$ even | $\tau=1$ | $m=m_{0}+X$ for $X \geq 0$ where $m_{0}=\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell} v w / u\right\rceil$ <br> or $m_{0}=1$ if $v w=0$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $u$ even | $v w$ odd | $\tau=2$ | $m=m_{0}+X$ for $X \geq 0$ where $m_{0}=\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell}(v w-1) / u\right\rceil$ |
| $u$ odd | $v w$ even | $\tau=1$ | $m=m_{0}+2 X$ for $X \geq 0$ <br> where $m_{0}=\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell} v w / u\right\rceil$ or $m_{0}=\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell} v w / u\right\rceil+1$ <br> whichever is even or $m_{0}=2$ if $v w=0$ |
|  | $\tau=2$ | $m=m_{0}+2 X$ for $X \geq 0$ <br> where $m_{0}=\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell}(v w-1) / u\right\rceil$ or $m_{0}=\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell}(v w-1) / u\right\rceil+1$ <br> whichever is odd |  |

Table 3.1: Possible values of $m$.
By (3.9) and (3.10), the parameterizations of $D$ and $a_{0}$ in terms of $\tau$ and $m$, we obtain all $D$ that lead to the required continued fraction expansions.

### 3.2 Families $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$

By Table 3.1, there are two main collections of palindromic strings, one with even $u$ and the other with odd $u$. Within each of these two collections, there are two further sub-collections determined by the values of $\tau$. We consider the four sub-collections separately and define them as individual families in the following.

## Definition 3.2.1 (Families $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ )

Let $\psi=a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}$ be a palindromic string of $\ell-1$ natural numbers and

$$
\mathcal{M}=\prod_{j=1}^{\ell-1}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{j} & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
u & v \\
v & w
\end{array}\right)
$$

Let $m_{0}$ be as defined in Table 3.1. We define families $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ as follows.

Type $E_{1}$ : When $u$ is even and $\tau=1$, we let $X \geq 0$ and $m=m_{0}+X$ and write

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{0}(X) & =\left(m u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=\left(\left(m_{0}+X\right) u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2 \\
D(X) & =\left(a_{0}(X)\right)^{2}+\left(m_{0}+X\right) v-(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} \\
\mathcal{F}_{\psi} & =\{D(0), D(1), D(2), D(3), \ldots\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Type $E_{2}$ : When $u$ is even and $\tau=2$, we let $X \geq 0$ and $m=m_{0}+X$ and write

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{0}(X) & =\left(1+m u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=\left(1+\left(m_{0}+X\right) u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2 \\
D(X) & =\left(2 a_{0}(X)-1\right)^{2}+4\left(m_{0}+X\right) v-4(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} \\
\mathcal{F}_{\psi} & =\{D(0), D(1), D(2), D(3), \ldots\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Type $O_{1}$ : When $u$ is odd and $\tau=1$, we let $X \geq 0$ and $m=m_{0}+2 X$ and write

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{0}(X) & =\left(m u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=\left(\left(m_{0}+2 X\right) u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2 \\
D(X) & =\left(a_{0}(X)\right)^{2}+\left(m_{0}+2 X\right) v-(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} \\
\mathcal{F}_{\psi} & =\{D(0), D(1), D(2), D(3), \ldots\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Type $O_{2}$ : When $u$ is odd and $\tau=2$, we let $X \geq 0$ and $m=m_{0}+2 X$ and write

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{0}(X) & =\left(1+m u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=\left(1+\left(m_{0}+2 X\right) u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2 \\
D(X) & =\left(2 a_{0}(X)-1\right)^{2}+4\left(m_{0}+2 X\right) v-4(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} \\
\mathcal{F}_{\psi} & =\{D(0), D(1), D(2), D(3), \ldots\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We will sometimes call the $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ types collectively the $E$-types and the $O_{1}$ and $O_{2}$ types the O-types.

From the above definition, it follows that the sequence $\left\{a_{0}(X)\right\}$ is an arithmetic progression in $X$. For instance, when $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is of type $E_{1}$,

$$
a_{0}(X)=\frac{m u-(-1)^{\ell} v w}{2}=\frac{\left(m_{0}+X\right) u-(-1)^{\ell} v w}{2}=a_{0}(0)+\frac{u X}{2} .
$$

Example 3.2.1 Consider the palindromic string $\psi=\{1,2,2,2,1\}$. Then

$$
\mathcal{M}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
24 & 17 \\
17 & 12
\end{array}\right)
$$

Since $u=24$ is even and $v w=17 \cdot 12$ is even, $\tau=1$ and we are in type $E_{1}$. Since the palindromic string has five terms, i.e. $\ell-1=5$, we compute that $m_{0}=\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell} v w / u\right\rceil=\left\lceil(-1)^{6}(17 \cdot 12) / 24\right\rceil=9$. Then $a_{0}(0)=\left(m_{0} u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=\left(9 \cdot 24-(-1)^{6} 17 \cdot 12\right) / 2=6$ and $D(0)=\left(a_{0}(0)\right)^{2}+m_{0} v-$ $(-1)^{\ell} w^{2}=6^{2}+9 \cdot 17-(-1)^{6} 12^{2}=45$. In general, for $X \geq 0$, we get $a_{0}(X)=\left(\left(m_{0}+X\right) u-\right.$ $\left.(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=12 X+6, D(X)=\left(a_{0}(X)\right)^{2}+\left(m_{0}+X\right) v-(-1)^{\ell} w^{2}=144 X^{2}+161 X+45$ and

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(12 X+6, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,24 X+12})
$$

| $X$ | $m=m_{0}+X$ | $a_{0}(X)$ | $D(X)$ | C. F. expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | $m_{0}=9$ | 6 | 45 | $(6, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,12})$ |
| 1 | $m_{0}+1=10$ | 18 | 350 | $(18, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,36})$ |
| 2 | $m_{0}+2=11$ | 30 | 943 | $(30, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,60})$ |
| 3 | $m_{0}+3=12$ | 42 | 1824 | $(42, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,84})$ |
| 4 | $m_{0}+4=13$ | 54 | 2993 | $(54, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,108})$ |
| 5 | $m_{0}+5=14$ | 66 | 4450 | $(66, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,132})$ |
| 6 | $m_{0}+6=15$ | 78 | 6195 | $(78, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,156})$ |
| 7 | $m_{0}+7=16$ | 90 | 8228 | $(90, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,180})$ |
| 8 | $m_{0}+8=17$ | 102 | 10549 | $(102, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,204})$ |
| 9 | $m_{0}+9=18$ | 114 | 13158 | $(114, \overline{1,2,2,2,1,228})$. |
| $\cdots$ | $\cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots$ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots \cdots$ | $\cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots$ |

Table 3.2: $\psi=\{1,2,2,2,1\}$.

Example 3.2.2 Consider the symmetric sequence of positive integers $\{1,2,2,1\}$. Then

$$
\mathcal{M}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
10 & 7 \\
7 & 5
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Since $u=10$ is even and $v w=7 \cdot 5=35$ is odd, we have $\tau=2$ and we are in type $E_{2}$. Since the palindromic string has 4 terms, i.e. $\ell-1=4$, we compute that

$$
m_{0}=\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell}(v w-1) / u\right\rceil=\left\lceil(-1)^{5}(7 \cdot 5-1) / 10\right\rceil=-3 .
$$

For $X \geq 0$, we compute $a_{0}(X)$ and $D(X)$ using formulas $a_{0}(X)=\left(1+\left(m_{0}+X\right) u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=$ $5 X+3$ and $D(X)=\left(2 a_{0}(X)-1\right)^{2}+4\left(m_{0}+X\right) v-4(-1)^{\ell} w^{2}=100 X^{2}+128 X+41$ and

$$
\frac{1+\sqrt{D(X)}}{2}=(5 X+3, \overline{1,2,2,1,10 X+5})
$$

| $X$ | $m=m_{0}+X$ | $a_{0}(X)$ | $D(X)$ | C. F. expansion of $(1+\sqrt{D(X)}) / 2$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $m_{0}=-3$ | 3 | 41 | $(3, \overline{1,2,2,1,5})$ |
| 1 | $m_{0}+1=-2$ | 8 | 269 | $(8, \overline{1,2,2,1,15})$ |
| 2 | $m_{0}+2=-1$ | 13 | 697 | $(13, \overline{1,2,2,1,25})$ |
| 3 | $m_{0}+3=0$ | 18 | 1325 | $(18, \overline{1,2,2,1,35})$ |
| 4 | $m_{0}+4=1$ | 23 | 2153 | $(23, \overline{1,2,2,1,45)}$ |
| 5 | $m_{0}+5=2$ | 28 | 3181 | $(28, \overline{1,2,2,1,55)}$ |
| 6 | $m_{0}+6=3$ | 33 | 4409 | $(33, \overline{1,2,2,1,65})$ |
| 7 | $m_{0}+7=4$ | 38 | 5837 | $(38, \overline{1,2,2,1,75})$ |
| 8 | $m_{0}+8=5$ | 43 | 7465 | $(43, \overline{1,2,2,1,85)}$ |
| 9 | $m_{0}+9=6$ | 48 | 9293 | $(48, \overline{1,2,2,1,95)}$ |
| $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ |

Table 3.3: $\psi=\{1,2,2,1\}$

Example 3.2.3 Consider the empty string, $\psi=\emptyset$. Then

$$
\mathcal{M}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Since $u=1$ is odd, we are in type $O$ and may take $\tau=1$ or 2 . We first look at the case $\tau=1$. By Table 3.1, we have $m_{0}=2$. Since $m=m_{0}+2 X=2(X+1)$ for non-negative integer $X, u=1, v=0$ and $w=1$, we have $a_{0}(X)=\left(\left(m_{0}+X\right) u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=X+1$, $D(X)=\left(a_{0}(X)\right)^{2}+\left(m_{0}+X\right) v-(-1)^{\ell} w^{2}=(X+1)^{2}+1=X^{2}+2 X+2$ and

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(X+1, \overline{2 X+2}) .
$$

In particular, $\sqrt{D(0)}=\sqrt{2}=(1, \overline{2}), \sqrt{D(1)}=\sqrt{5}=(2, \overline{4})$ and $\sqrt{D(2)}=\sqrt{10}=(3, \overline{6})$.
Now, take $\tau=2$. By Table 3.1, we have $m_{0}=1$. Since $m=m_{0}+2 X=2 X+1$ for nonnegative integers $X, u=1, v=0$ and $w=1, a_{0}(X)=\left(1+\left(m_{0}+2 X\right) u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=X+1$, $D(X)=\left(2 a_{0}(X)-1\right)^{2}+4\left(m_{0}+2 X\right) v-4(-1)^{\ell} w^{2}=(2 X+1)^{2}+4=4 X^{2}+4 X+5$ and

$$
\frac{1+\sqrt{D(X)}}{2}=(X+1, \overline{2 X+1})
$$

In particular,

$$
\frac{1+\sqrt{D(0)}}{2}=\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}=(1, \overline{1})=(\overline{1}) \text { and } \frac{1+\sqrt{D(1)}}{2}=\frac{1+\sqrt{13}}{2}=(2, \overline{3}) .
$$

Example 3.2.4 Consider the symmetric sequence, $\psi=\{2,1,1,2\}$, of 4 natural numbers. Then

$$
\mathcal{M}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
13 & 5 \\
5 & 2
\end{array}\right) .
$$

We have $u=13, v=5$ and $w=2$. Since $u$ is odd, we are in type $O$ and may have $\tau=1$ or 2. First, we consider $\tau=1$. By Table 3.1, $m_{0}$ is given by $\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell} v w / u\right\rceil$ or $\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell} v w / u\right\rceil+1$, whichever is even. It is clear that $m_{0}=\left\lceil(-1)^{5} 10 / 13\right\rceil=0$. For $X \geq 0, a_{0}(X)=\left(\left(m_{0}+2 X\right) u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=13 X+5$, $D(X)=\left(a_{0}(X)\right)^{2}+\left(m_{0}+2 X\right) v-(-1)^{\ell} w^{2}=169 X^{2}+140 X+29$ and

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(13 X+5,2,1,1,2,26 X+10) .
$$

In particular,

$$
\sqrt{D(0)}=\sqrt{29}=(5,2,1,1,2,10) \text { and } \sqrt{D(1)}=\sqrt{338}=(18, \overline{2,1,1,2,36}) .
$$

Now, take $\tau=2$. From Table 3.1, $m_{0}$ is given by $\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell}(v w-1) / u\right\rceil$ or $\left\lceil(-1)^{\ell}(v w-1) / u\right\rceil+1$, whichever is odd. We find that $m_{0}=1$. For $X \geq 0$, then $a_{0}(X)=\left(1+\left(m_{0}+2 X\right) u-(-1)^{\ell} v w\right) / 2=$ $13 X+12, D(X)=\left(2 a_{0}(X)-1\right)^{2}+4\left(m_{0}+2 X\right) v-4(-1)^{2} w^{2}=676 X^{2}+1236 X+565$ and

$$
\frac{1+\sqrt{D(X)}}{2}=(13 X+12, \overline{2,1,1,2,26 X+23})
$$

For instance,

$$
\frac{1+\sqrt{D(0)}}{2}=\frac{1+\sqrt{565}}{2}=(12, \overline{2,1,1,2,23}) \text { and } \frac{1+\sqrt{D(1)}}{2}=\frac{1+\sqrt{2477}}{2}=(25, \overline{2,1,1,2,49}) .
$$

Theorem 3.2.1 (Quadratic Structure of $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ )
Let $D(X) \in \mathcal{F}_{\psi}$. If $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is an E-type family, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(X)=\left(\tau B_{\ell-1}\right)^{2}\left(\frac{X}{2}\right)^{2}+2 \tau G_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{X}{2}\right)+D(0), \quad X \geq 0 \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

whereas when $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is an $O$-type family,

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(X)=\left(\tau B_{\ell-1}\right)^{2} X^{2}+2 \tau G_{\ell-1} X+D(0), \quad X \geq 0 \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tau=1$ or 2 depends on the types of $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}, G_{i}=\tau A_{i}-(\tau-1) B_{i}$ and $A_{i} / B_{i}$ is the $i$-th convergent of $(\tau-1+\sqrt{D(0)}) / \tau$ for $i \geq 0$.

Proof: Suppose that $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is an $E_{2}$-type. By Definition 3.2.1, when $\tau=2$, we have

$$
D(X)=\left(2 a_{0}(X)-1\right)^{2}+4\left(m_{0}+X\right) v-4(-1)^{\ell} w^{2}
$$

for $X \geq 0$. By the discussion after Definition 3.2.1, $a_{0}(X)=a_{0}(0)+\frac{u X}{2}$ and the right side of the above equation becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
D(X) & =\left(2\left(a_{0}(0)+\frac{u X}{2}\right)-1\right)^{2}+4\left(m_{0}+X\right) v-4(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} \\
& =\left(2 a_{0}(0)-1+u X\right)^{2}+4 v X+4 m_{0} v-4(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} \\
& =\left(2 a_{0}(0)-1\right)^{2}+2\left(2 a_{0}(0)-1\right)(u X)+(u X)^{2}+4 v X+4 m_{0} v-4(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} \\
& =(u X)^{2}+2\left(2 a_{0}(0)-1\right)(u X)+4 v X+\left(2 a_{0}(0)-1\right)^{2}+4 m_{0} v-4(-1)^{\ell} w^{2} \\
& =(2 u)^{2}\left(\frac{X}{2}\right)^{2}+4\left(2\left(a_{0}(0) u+v\right)-u\right)\left(\frac{X}{2}\right)+D(0)
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(0)}$ has period length $\ell$ and the numerator and the denominator of its $(\ell-1)$-th convergent are $A_{\ell-1}=a_{0}(0) u+v$ and $B_{\ell-1}=u$, respectively. If we write $G_{\ell-1}=2 A_{\ell-1}-B_{\ell-1}$, then

$$
D(X)=\left(2 B_{\ell-1}\right)^{2}\left(\frac{X}{2}\right)^{2}+4 G_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{X}{2}\right)+D(0)
$$

Similarly, we can prove the remaining three cases.

Theorem 3.2.2 Let $D(m) \in \mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ for some $m, G_{i}=\tau A_{i}-(\tau-1) B_{i}$ and $A_{i} / B_{i}$ be the $i$-th convergent of $(\tau-1+\sqrt{D(m)}) / \tau$, where $\tau=1$ or 2 depending on the types of $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$. Also, let $X \geq 0$. If $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is of E-type, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(X+m)=\left(\tau B_{\ell-1}\right)^{2}\left(\frac{X}{2}\right)^{2}+2 \tau G_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{X}{2}\right)+D(m) \tag{3.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

whereas when $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is $O$-type,

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(X+m)=\left(\tau B_{\ell-1}\right)^{2} X^{2}+2 \tau G_{\ell-1} X+D(m) \tag{3.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof: A similar proof to that of Theorem 3.2.1 will secure the result.
When we multiply two consecutive members of an $E_{1}$ type family, $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$, regardless of the length of $\psi$, the product is of R-D type and the continued fraction expansion of the square root of the product has period length 2. Also, if we take any $D(X) \in \mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ and multiply it with $D(X+2) \in \mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ or $D(X+4) \in \mathcal{F}_{\psi}$, then the product is also of R-D type.

Lemma 3.2.1 Let $\psi=a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{2}, a_{1}$ be a palindromic string of $\ell-1$ natural numbers with the corresponding matrix product

$$
\prod_{j=1}^{\ell-1}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{j} & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
u & v \\
v & w
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Then if $u$ and $w$ are even and $v$ is odd, then $\ell-1$ is odd.
Proof: Suppose that $\ell-1$ is even. Then we may write

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
u & v \\
v & w
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & c \\
b & d
\end{array}\right) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

for some natural numbers $a, b, c$ and $d$. It follows that $u=a^{2}+c^{2}, v=a b+c d$ and $w=b^{2}+d^{2}$. By the assumption that $u$ is even, we have $a^{2}+c^{2} \equiv 0 \bmod 2$. This implies that $a \equiv c \bmod 2$. Since $v$ is odd, we have $a b+c d \equiv 1 \bmod 2$, which can be written as $a(b+d) \equiv 1 \bmod 2$. This forces
$a$ and $b+d$ to be odd. Since $b+d$ is odd, $(b+d)^{2}$ is odd. This means that $w=b^{2}+d^{2}$ is odd, a contradiction to the assumption that $w$ is even. Therefore, $\ell-1$ is odd.

Theorem 3.2.3 Suppose that $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is of type $E_{1}$ and $D(X), D(X+m) \in \mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ where $m=1,2$ or 4 . Let $A_{\ell-1} / B_{\ell-1}$ be the $(\ell-1)$-th convergent of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. Then the product $D(X) D(X+m)$ is of $R$-D type. More explicitly, we have

$$
\sqrt{D(X) D(X+1)}=\left(\frac{2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1}{2}, \frac{\cdot}{2,2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1}\right)
$$

and

$$
\sqrt{D(X) D(X+2)}=\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1, \overline{1,2\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1\right)}\right) .
$$

Moreover, when $D(X)$ is even,

$$
\sqrt{D(X) D(X+4)}=\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1, \overline{1, \frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-4}{2}, 1,2\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1\right)}\right)
$$

and when $D(X)$ is odd,
$\sqrt{D(X) D(X+4)}=\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1, \overline{1, \frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-3}{2}, 2, \frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-3}{2}, 1,2\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1\right)}\right)$.
Proof: By Theorem 3.2.2,

$$
D(X+m)=B_{\ell-1}^{2}\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)^{2}+2 A_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)+D(X)
$$

where $A_{\ell-1} / B_{\ell-1}$ is the $(\ell-1)$-th convergent of $\sqrt{D(X)}$, which has period length $\ell$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
D(X) D(X+m) & =D(X)\left(B_{\ell-1}^{2}\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)^{2}+2 A_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)+D(X)\right) \\
& =(D(X))^{2}+2 A_{\ell-1} D(X)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)+B_{\ell-1}^{2} D(X)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $A_{\ell-1}{ }^{2}-B_{\ell-1}{ }^{2} D(X)=(-1)^{\ell}, B_{\ell-1}{ }^{2} D(X)=A_{\ell-1}{ }^{2}-(-1)^{\ell}$. Since $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is of type $E_{1}$, by Lemma 3.2.1, we have $\ell-1$ odd. Thus, $B_{\ell-1}{ }^{2} D(X)=A_{\ell-1}{ }^{2}-1$ and

$$
\begin{align*}
D(X) D(X+m) & =(D(X))^{2}+2 A_{\ell-1} D(X)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)+\left(A_{\ell-1}^{2}-1\right)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)^{2}  \tag{3.15}\\
& =\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)\right)^{2}-\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)^{2} \tag{3.16}
\end{align*}
$$

Clearly, when $m=2$ or 4 , we have $(m / 2) \mid 4\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}(m / 2)\right)$. Hence, $D(X) D(X+m)$ is of R-D type. If $m=1$, then
$D(X) D(X+1)=\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^{2}-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}=\left(\frac{2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1}+1}{2}\right)$.
This product can be written as

$$
\left(\frac{2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1}{2}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1}{2}\right) .
$$

Since $A_{\ell-1} \pm 1=a_{0}(X) u+v \pm 1$ is even, for $u$ is even by assumption and $v$ is odd since it is co-prime to $u,\left(2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1} \pm 1\right) / 2$ is an integer. Hence, the product $D(X) D(X+1)$ is of R-D type and by Theorem 2.1.1,

$$
\sqrt{D(X) D(X+1)}=\left(\frac{2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1}{2}, \overline{2,2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1}\right) .
$$

If $m=2$, then (3.16) becomes $D(X) D(X+2)=\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}\right)^{2}-1$ and by Theorem 2.1.1,

$$
\sqrt{D(X) D(X+2)}=\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1, \overline{1,2\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1\right)}\right) .
$$

If $m=4$, then (3.16) becomes $D(X) D(X+4)=\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}\right)^{2}-4$. When $D(X)$ is even, by part (4) of Theorem 2.1.1, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(X) D(X+4)}=\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1, \overline{1, \frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-4}{2}, 1,2\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1\right)}\right)
$$

When $D(X)$ is odd, by part (6) of Theorem 2.1.1, we get
$\sqrt{D(X) D(X+4)}=\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1, \overline{1, \frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-3}{2}, 2, \frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-3}{2}, 1,2\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1\right)}\right)$.

Example 3.2.5 Recall from Example 3.2.1 that when $\psi=1,2,2,2,1, \mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ contains $D(0)=45$, $D(1)=350, D(2)=943, D(3)=1824, D(4)=2993, D(5)=4450, D(6)=6195, D(7)=8228$. We present the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$, where $m=1$ or 2 in the following table.

| $m$ | $D(X) D(X+m)$ | C. F. of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | $\begin{aligned} & D(0) D(1) \\ & D(1) D(2) \\ & \cdots \cdots \cdots \\ & D(X) D(X+1) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & (125, \overline{2,250}) \\ & (574, \overline{2,1128}) \\ & \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \\ & \left(144 X^{2}+305 X+125, \overline{2,288 X^{2}+610 X+250}\right) \end{aligned}$ |
| 2 | $\begin{aligned} & D(0) D(2) \\ & D(1) D(3) \\ & \ldots \cdots \cdots \\ & D(X) D(X+2) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & (205, \overline{1,410}) \\ & (798, \overline{1,1596}) \\ & \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \\ & \left(144 X^{2}+449 X+205, \overline{2,288 X^{2}+898 X+410}\right) \end{aligned}$ |

Table 3.4: C. F. of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ when $\psi=1,2,2,2,1$ and $m=1$ or 2

When $m=4$, we note that $D(X)$ is even if and only if $X$ is odd. For the case where $D(X)$ is even, i.e, $X$ is odd, we have

| $m$ | $D(X)$ | $D(X) D(X+m)$ | C. F. of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4 | even | $\begin{aligned} & D(1) D(5) \\ & D(3) D(7) \\ & \cdots \cdots \cdots \\ & D(X) D(X+4) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & (1247, \overline{1,622,1,2494}) \\ & (3873, \overline{1,1935,1,7746}) \\ & \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \\ & \left(144 X^{2}+737 X+366, \overline{1},\left(144 X^{2}+737 X+363\right) / 2,\right. \\ & \left.\overline{1,288 X^{2}+1474 X+732}\right) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |

Table 3.5: C. F. of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ when $\psi=1,2,2,2,1, m=4$ and $D(X)$ is even.

For the case where $D(X)$ is odd, i.e., $X$ is even, we have

| $m$ | $D(X)$ | $D(X) D(X+m)$ | C. F. of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4 | odd | $D(0) D(4)$ | $(366, \overline{1,182,2,182,1,732})$ |
|  |  | $D(2) D(6)$ | $(2416, \overline{1,1207,2,1207,1,4832)}$ |
|  |  | $\cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots$ | $\cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots$ |
|  |  | $D(X) D(X+4)$ | $\frac{\left(144 X^{2}+737 X+366, \overline{1,\left(144 X^{2}+737 X+364\right) / 2,2,}\right.}{\left.\left(144 X^{2}+737 X+364\right) / 2,1,288 X^{2}+1474 X+732\right)}$ |

Table 3.6: C. F. of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ when $\psi=1,2,2,2,1, m=4$ and $D(X)$ is odd.

It is clear that when $m=1,2$ or 4 , the $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)})$ is independent of the length of the palindromic string $\psi$ and is bounded as $X$ varies. In what follows, we show that if $m$ is different from 1,2 or 4 , then $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)})$ is unbounded as $X$ varies.

Theorem 3.2.4 If $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is of type $E_{1}$ and $D(X), D(X+m) \in \mathcal{F}_{\psi}$, then the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ has bounded period length for all non-negative integers $X$ if and only if $m=1,2$ or 4 .

Proof: Recall from (3.15) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(X) D(X+m)=(D(X))^{2}+2 A_{\ell-1} D(X)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)+\left(A_{\ell-1}^{2}-1\right)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)^{2} \tag{3.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A_{\ell-1} / B_{\ell-1}$ is the $(\ell-1)$-th convergent of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. This is a quadratic function of $D(X)$. By Theorem 2.3.4, we have

$$
\limsup _{X \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)})<\infty
$$

if and only if $\Delta \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(1, A_{\ell-1}(m / 2)\right)^{2}$, where

$$
\Delta=\left(A_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)\right)^{2}-\left(A_{\ell-1}^{2}-1\right)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)^{2}=\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)^{2} \text { and } 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(1, A_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)\right)^{2}=4
$$

It follows that $m=1,2$ or 4 .
If $(m / 2)^{2} \nmid 4$, then by $(2.8),(m / 2)^{2}$ does not divide $4\left(D(X)+\dot{A}_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)\right)^{2}=\left(2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1} m\right)^{2}$. If follows that $m^{2} \nmid 4\left(2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1} m\right)^{2}$ and, hence, $m^{2} \nmid\left(2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1} m\right)^{2}$. Write

$$
\sqrt{(D(X))^{2}+2 A_{\ell-1}\left(\frac{m}{2}\right) D(X)+\left(A_{\ell-1}^{2}-1\right)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)^{2}}=\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\left(2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1} m\right)^{2}-m^{2}}
$$

We are interested in knowing whether $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)})$ is bounded. Theorem 2.3.2 says that if $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)})$ is bounded, then the continued fraction expansion of any linear fractional transformation of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ with non-zero integer determinant also has bounded period length. Thus, it suffices to consider $\operatorname{lp}\left(\sqrt{\left(2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1} m\right)^{2}-m^{2}}\right)$. Since $m^{2} \nmid\left(2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1} m\right)^{2}$, Theorem 2.3.3 implies that

$$
\lim _{X \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{lp}\left(\sqrt{\left(2 D(X)+A_{\ell-1} m\right)^{2}-m^{2}}\right)=\infty
$$

Hence, by the contrapositive of Theorem 2.3.2,

$$
\lim _{X \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)})=\infty
$$

Using the same approach as above, we formulate a similar theorem for the $O_{1}$ type families as follows.

Theorem 3.2.5 If $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is type $O_{1}$ and $D(X), D(X+m) \in \mathcal{F}_{\psi}$, then $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)})$ is bounded for all non-negative integers $X$ if and only if $m=1$ or 2 .

Proof: The proof for this theorem is similar to that of Theorem 3.2.4. We replace $m / 2$ by $m$ and obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
D(X) D(X+m) & =(D(X))^{2}+2 A_{\ell-1} m D(X)+\left(A_{\ell-1}{ }^{2}-(-1)^{\ell}\right) m^{2}  \tag{3.18}\\
& =\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1} m\right)^{2}-(-1)^{\ell} m^{2} \tag{3.19}
\end{align*}
$$

The discriminant of $(3.18)$ is $\left(A_{\ell-1} m\right)^{2}-\left(A_{\ell-1}{ }^{2}-(-1)^{\ell}\right) m^{2}=(-1)^{\ell} m^{2}$ and $4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(1, A_{\ell-1} m\right)^{2}=4$. Thus, $(-1)^{\ell} m^{2} \mid 4$ if and only if $m=1$ or 2 . If $m^{2}$ does not divide 4 , then we can use a similar argument to the proof of Theorem 3.2.4 and establish that $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)})$ is bounded for all non-negative integers $X$ just in case $m$ is 1 or 2 .

Theorem 3.2.6 Suppose that $\mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ is type $O_{1}$ and $D(X), D(X+m) \in \mathcal{F}_{\psi}$ where $X$ is any nonnegative integer and $m=1$ or 2 . Then $D(X) D(X+m)$ is of $R-D$ type. Let $A_{\ell-1} / B_{\ell-1}$ be the $(\ell-1)$-th convergent of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. If $m=1$, then

$$
\sqrt{D(X) D(X+1)}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}, \overline{2\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}\right)}\right) & \text { if } \ell-1 \text { is even } \\
\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1, \overline{1,2\left(D(X)+A_{\ell-1}-1\right)}\right) & \text { if } \ell-1 \text { is odd }
\end{array}\right.
$$

If $m=2, \ell-1$ is even and $D(X)$ is even, then

$$
\sqrt{D(X) D(X+2)}=\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}, \overline{\frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}}{2}, 2\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}\right)}\right) .
$$

If $m=2, \ell-1$ is even and $D(X)$ is odd, then

$$
\sqrt{D(X) D(X+2)}=\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}, \overline{\frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1}{2}, 1,1, \frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1}{2}, 2\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}\right)}\right)
$$

If $m=2, \ell-1$ is odd and $D(X)$ is even, then

$$
\sqrt{D(X) D(X+2)}=\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1, \overline{1, \frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-4}{2}, 1,2\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1\right)}\right)
$$

If $m=2, \ell-1$ is odd and $D(X)$ is odd, then
$\sqrt{D(X) D(X+2)}=\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1, \overline{1, \frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-3}{2}, 2, \frac{D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-3}{2}, 1,2\left(D(X)+2 A_{\ell-1}-1\right)}\right)$.
Proof: The proof is similar to that of Therorem 3.2.3.
By Theorems 3.2.3 and 3.2.6, we see that when given two quadratics, it is possible to have a very short expansion for the square root of the product. We looked at some specific quadratics constructed earlier in this chapter. In the theorem below, we generalize Theorems 3.2.3 and 3.2.6.

Theorem 3.2.7 Let $a, b, c, d, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $D(X)=(a X+c)(b X+d)$ with an integer variable $X$. Then $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)})$ is bounded if and only if $m(a d-b c) \mid 4$. Moreover, on writing $Y=a b X^{2}+(a b m+a d+b c) X+b c m+c d$, we get $D(X) D(X+m)=Y(Y+m(a d-b c))$. Also,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sqrt{Y(Y+1)}=(Y, \overline{2,2 Y}), \quad \sqrt{Y(Y+2)}=(Y, \overline{1,2 Y}) \\
\sqrt{Y(Y+4)}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
(Y+1, \overline{1,(Y-2) / 2,1,2(Y+1)}) & \text { if } Y \text { is even } \\
(Y+1, \overline{1,(Y-1) / 2,2,(Y+1) / 2,1,2(Y+1)}) & \text { if } Y \text { is odd. }
\end{array}\right.
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof: If $D(X)=(a X+c)(b X+d)$, then $D(X+m)=(a X+a m+c)(b X+b m+d)$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
D(X) D(X+m) & =(a X+c)(b X+d)(a X+a m+c)(b X+b m+d) \\
& =(a X+c)(b X+b m+d)(b X+d)(a X+a m+c) \\
& =\left(a b X^{2}+(a b m+a d+b c) X+b c m+c d\right)\left(a b X^{2}+(a b m+a d+b c) X+a d m+c d\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Write $Y=a b X^{2}+(a b m+a d+b c) X+b c m+c d$. Then

$$
D(X) D(X+m)=Y(Y+m(a d-b c))=Y^{2}+m(a d-b c) Y
$$

Now, $\operatorname{lp}\left(\sqrt{Y^{2}+m(a d-b c) Y}\right)$ is bounded above as $Y$ varies if and only if $Y^{2}+m(a d-b c) Y$ satisfies the Schinzel condition, i.e. $m^{2}(a d-b c)^{2} / 4$ divides $4 \operatorname{gcd}(1, m(a d-b c))^{2}=4$. This implies that $m(a d-b c) \mid 4$.

Moreover, when $m(a d-b c)=1$ or 2 , the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X) D(X+m)}$ is given by part (1) of Theorem 2.1.1. When $m(a d-b c)=4$, we have $D(X) D(X+4)=Y^{2}+4 Y=$ $(Y+2)^{2}-4$. If $Y$ is even, by part (4) of Theorem 2.1.1, we have

$$
(Y+2)^{2}-4=\left(Y+1, \overline{1, \frac{Y-2}{2}, 1,2(Y+1)}\right)
$$

If $Y$ is odd, then by part (6) of Theorem 2.1.1, we have

$$
(Y+2)^{2}-4=\left(Y+1, \overline{1, \frac{Y-1}{2}, 2, \frac{Y+1}{2}, 1,2(Y+1)}\right) .
$$

Since $m(a d-b c) \mid 4$, it is not difficult to see that there are six possible cases in the above theorem. We illustrate them in the following.

## Example 3.2.6

Case (1): $m=1$ and $a d-b c=1$. Let $a=3, c=2$ and $b=1=d$. Then $D(X)=(3 X+2)(X+1)$, $Y=3 X^{2}+8 X+4$ and $D(X) D(X+1)=Y(Y+1)$.Thus, $D(1) D(2)=10 \cdot 24=15 \cdot 17=$ and $\sqrt{D(1) D(2)}=(15, \overline{1,30})$. Similarly, $D(2) D(3)=24 \cdot 44=32 \cdot 33$ and $\sqrt{D(2) D(3)}=(32, \overline{2,64})$.
Case (2): $m=1$ and $a d-b c=2$. Choose $a=4, c=2$ and $b=1=d$. Then $D(X)=(4 X+$ 2) $(X+1), Y=4 X^{2}+10 X+4$ and $D(X) D(X+1)=Y(Y+2)$. Thus, $D(1) D(2)=12 \cdot 30=18 \cdot 20$ and $\sqrt{D(1) D(2)}=(18, \overline{1,36})$. Similarly, $D(2) D(3)=30 \cdot 56=40 \cdot 42, \sqrt{D(2) D(3)}=(40, \overline{1,80})$.

Case (3): $m=1$ and $a d-b c=4$. Choose $a=6, c=2$ and $b=1=d$. Then $D(X)=$ $(6 X+2)(X+1), Y=6 X^{2}+14 X+4$ and $D(X) D(X+1)=Y(Y+4)$. Since $Y$ is even, we have $D(1) D(2)=16 \cdot 42=24 \cdot 28$ and $\sqrt{D(1) D(2)}=(25, \overline{1,11,1,50})$ and $D(2) D(3)=42 \cdot 80=56 \cdot 60$ and $\sqrt{D(2) D(3)}=(57, \overline{1,27,1,114})$.

Case (4): $m=2$ and $a d-b c=1$. Let $a=3, c=2$ and $b=1=d$. Then $D(X)=(3 X+2)(X+1)$, $Y=3 X^{2}+11 X+6$ and $D(X) D(X+2)=Y(Y+2)$. Thus, $D(1) D(3)=10 \cdot 44=20 \cdot 22$ and $\sqrt{D(1) D(3)}=(20, \overline{1,40})$. Similarly, $D(2) D(4)=24 \cdot 70=40 \cdot 42$ and $\sqrt{D(2) D(4)}=(40, \overline{1,80})$.
Case (5): $m=2$ and $a d-b c=2$. Let $a=4, c=2$ and $b=1=d$. Then $D(X)=(4 X+2)(X+1)$, $Y=4 X^{2}+14 X+6$ and $D(X) D(X+2)=Y(Y+4)$. Note that $Y$ is even. So, $D(1) D(3)=$ $12 \cdot 56=24 \cdot 28$ and $\sqrt{D(1) D(3)}=(25, \overline{1,11,1,50})$. Similarly, $D(2) D(4)=30 \cdot 90=50 \cdot 54$ and $\sqrt{D(2) D(4)}=(51, \overline{1,24,1,102})$.
Case (6): $m=4$ and $a d-b c=1$. Let $a=2, c=1$ and $b=1=d$. Then $D(X)=(2 X+1)(X+1)$, $Y=2 X^{2}+11 X+5$ and $D(X) D(X+4)=Y(Y+4)$.

When $Y$ is even, we have $D(1) D(5)=6 \cdot 66=18 \cdot 22$ and $\sqrt{D(1) D(5)}=(19, \overline{1,8,1,38})$.

Similarly, $D(3) D(7)=28 \cdot 120=56 \cdot 60$ and $\sqrt{D(3) D(7)}=(57, \overline{1,27,1,114})$.
When $Y$ is odd, we have $D(2) D(6)=15 \cdot 91=35 \cdot 39$ and $\sqrt{D(2) D(6)}=(36, \overline{1,17,1,17,1,72})$.
Similarly, $D(4) D(8)=45 \cdot 153=81 \cdot 85$ and $\sqrt{D(4) D(8)}=(82, \overline{1,40,1,40,1,164})$.

## Chapter 4

## The Continued Fraction Expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$

In this chapter, we present the major result of the thesis: the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for sufficiently large $X$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a Schinzel sleeper, i.e., its discriminant $B^{2}-A^{2} C$ divides $4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$. This result contributes to two mathematical disciplines. First, in the theory of continued fractions, we determine the actual continued fraction period of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. Indeed, knowing the continued fraction period of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ allows us to establish an upper bound for its length in the next chapter. Second, in the theory of real quadratic orders, we can easily compute the fundamental unit of the real quadratic order $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$ via the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$; we provide a simple formula for the fundamental unit of $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$ in the next chapter.

Our work here generalizes the results of van der Poorten and Williams [206] discussed in Section 2.3. They gave the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for sufficiently large $X$ with the additional assumption that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree. Here, we drop the restriction of squarefree $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$. Also, we will provide a lower bound for the sufficient size of $X$.

There are three sections in this chapter. In Section 4.1, we demonstrate the motivation for our approach and establish a crucial lemma for the work in the ensuing section. We will prove our main result by induction. There are several key components in our proof and they are presented as lemmas in Section 4.2. In Section 4.3, we combine all the lemmas in Section 4.2 and inductively construct the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ in Theorem 4.3.1.

### 4.1 Embedding an Integer Sequence in a Continued Fraction

We start off this section with an observation. Consider $D(X)=9 X(X+2)=3^{2} X^{2}+2(9) X$. The discriminant $\Delta$ of $D(X)$ is $9^{2}=81$, which divides $4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(3^{2}, 9\right)^{2}=4 \cdot 9^{2}$. Hence, $D(X)$ is a Schinzel sleeper. We compute

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sqrt{D(1)}=\sqrt{27}=(5, \overline{10}), \quad \sqrt{D(2)}=\sqrt{72}=(8, \overline{2,16}) \\
\sqrt{D(3)}=\sqrt{135}=(11, \overline{1,1,1,1,1,1,1,22}), \quad \sqrt{D(4)}=\sqrt{216}=(14, \overline{1,2,3,2,1,28}), \\
\sqrt{D(5)}=\sqrt{315}=(17, \overline{1,2,1,34}), \quad \sqrt{D(6)}=\sqrt{432}=(20, \overline{1,3,1,1,1,3,1,40}) \\
\sqrt{D(7)}=\sqrt{567}=(23, \overline{1,4,3,4,1,46}), \quad \sqrt{D(8)}=\sqrt{720}=(26, \overline{1,4,1,52}), \\
\sqrt{D(9)}=\sqrt{891}=(29, \overline{1,5,1,1,1,5,1,58}), \quad \sqrt{D(10)}=\sqrt{1080}=(32, \overline{1,6,3,6,1,64}),
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
\sqrt{D(11)}=\sqrt{1287}=(35,1,6,1,70) .
$$

Notice that the continued fraction expansions

$$
\sqrt{D(3)}=(11, \overline{1,1,1,1,1,1,1,22}), \quad \sqrt{D(6)}=(20, \overline{1,3,1,1,1,3,1,40})
$$

and

$$
\sqrt{D(9)}=(29, \overline{1,5,1,1,1,5,1,58})
$$

have the same period length. Also, the partial quotients in their periods exhibit a surprising pattern. It can be checked that if $X \equiv 0 \bmod 3$ and $X>2$, then

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(3 X+2, \overline{1,(2 X-3) / 3,1,1,1,(2 X-3) / 3,1,6 X+4}) .
$$

A similar phenomenon can be seen with the continued fraction expansions

$$
\sqrt{D(4)}=(14, \overline{1,2,3,2,1,28}), \quad \sqrt{D(7)}=(23, \overline{1,4,3,4,1,46}), \quad \sqrt{D(10)}=(32, \overline{1,6,3,6,1,64}) .
$$

More generally, when $X \equiv 1 \bmod 3$ and $X>2$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(3 X+2, \overline{1,2(X-1) / 3,3,2(X-1) / 3,1,6 X+4)} .
$$

For the case where $X \equiv 2 \bmod 3$ and $X>2$, we have

$$
\sqrt{D(5)}=(17, \overline{1,2,1,34}), \quad \sqrt{D(8)}=(26, \overline{1,4,1,52}), \quad \sqrt{D(11)}=(35, \overline{1,6,1,70})
$$

and, in general,

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(3 X+2, \overline{1,2(X-2) / 3,1,6 X+4)} .
$$

Consider the quadratic $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2205) X+343$. The discriminant of this quadratic is $\Delta=2205^{2}-(119)^{2}(343)=4802=2 \cdot 7^{4}$. Since $4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(119^{2}, 2205\right)^{2}=2^{2} 7^{4}$, we see that $D(X)$ is a Schinzel sleeper.

We find that

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sqrt{D(1)}=(137, \overline{1,1,8,2,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,5,4,3,1,136,1,3,4,5,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,2,8,1,1,274}) \\
\sqrt{D(8)}=(970, \overline{1,1,8,19,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,39,4,3,1,969,1,3,4,39,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,19,8,1,1,1940}) \\
\sqrt{D(15)}=(1803, \overline{1,1,8,36,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,73,4,3,1,1802,1,3,4,73,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,36,8,1,1,3606}) .
\end{gathered}
$$

In general, when $X \in \mathbb{N}$ and $X \equiv 1 \bmod 7$, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is given by

$$
\left(q_{0}(X), \overline{\left.1,1,8, q_{1}(X), 1,2,4,1,1,1,2, q_{2}(X), 4,3,1, q_{3}(X), 1,3,4, q_{4}(X), 2,1,1,1,4,2,1, q_{5}(X), 8,1,1,2 q_{0}(X)\right)}\right.
$$

for some integer-valued functions $q_{i}(X)$, where $0 \leq i \leq 5$. Hence, for all $X \equiv 1 \bmod 7$, the continued fraction expansions of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ are alike with exceptions at several fixed positions. In fact, if we compute the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for $X$ lying in other residue classes modulo 7 , we will see a similar phenomenon.

The above illustrations offer clues to the investigation of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. On restricting $X$ to be sufficiently large and to belong to some appropriate residue class, we expect the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ to have the form

$$
\left(q_{0}(X), \mathcal{S}_{0}, q_{1}(X), \mathcal{S}_{1}, q_{2}(X), \ldots, \mathcal{S}_{i-1}, q_{i}(X), \ldots\right)
$$

where $i \in \mathbb{N}, q_{i}(X)$ is a linear function and $\mathcal{S}_{i}=\left\{s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}\right\}$ is an ordered set of natural numbers.

We will discuss the determination of the sufficient size of $X$ and of the appropriate residue classes in the next section. In what follows, we establish a lemma concerning the sequence $s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}$.

Suppose that we have a quadratic irrational $\theta=(P+\sqrt{D}) / Q$ as defined in Definition 1.2.2, a finite sequence of integers, $s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}$, and $A_{i} / B_{i}=\left\langle s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{i}\right\rangle$ for $0 \leq i \leq m-1$. The $\rangle$ notation denotes a formal continued fraction expansion.

If $\theta^{*}=\left(P^{*}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q^{*}$ is defined by

$$
\theta=\left\langle s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}, \theta^{*}\right\rangle
$$

then by (1.14), we have

$$
\theta^{*}=-\frac{B_{m-2} \theta-A_{m-2}}{B_{m-1} \theta-A_{m-1}}
$$

Thus,

$$
\frac{P^{*}+\sqrt{D}}{Q^{*}}=-\frac{B_{m-2}((P+\sqrt{D}) / Q)-A_{m-2}}{B_{m-1}((P+\sqrt{D}) / Q)-A_{m-1}}=-\frac{\left(B_{m-2} P-A_{m-2} Q\right)+B_{m-2} \sqrt{D}}{\left(B_{m-1} P-A_{m-1} Q\right)+B_{m-1} \sqrt{D}}
$$

Put $Q^{\prime \prime}=\left(D-P^{2}\right) / Q \in \mathbb{Z}$. If we rationalize the denominator and simplify the resulting expression using (1.10), then we get

$$
\frac{P^{*}+\sqrt{D}}{Q^{*}}=\frac{(-1)^{m}\left(B_{m-1} B_{m-2} Q^{\prime}-A_{m-1} A_{m-2} Q+\left(A_{m-1} B_{m-2}+A_{m-2} B_{m-1}\right) P\right)+\sqrt{D}}{(-1)^{m}\left(A_{m-1}^{2} Q-B_{m-1}^{2} Q^{\prime}-2 A_{m-1} B_{m-1} P\right)}
$$

On cross-multiplying and comparing the coefficients of 1 and $\sqrt{D}$, we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P^{*}=(-1)^{m}\left(B_{m-1} B_{m-2} Q^{\prime}-A_{m-1} A_{m-2} Q+\left(A_{m-1} B_{m-2}+A_{m-2} B_{m-1}\right) P\right) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q^{*}=(-1)^{m}\left(A_{m-1}^{2} Q-B_{m-1}^{2} Q^{\prime}-2 A_{m-1} B_{m-1} P\right) \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

If for any $d \in \mathbb{N}$, we put $F=d A_{m-1}$ and $E=d B_{m-1}$, then since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A_{m-1}, B_{m-1}\right)=1$, we get $d=\operatorname{gcd}(E, F)$ and (4.3) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q^{*}=\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d^{2}}\left(F^{2} Q-E^{2} Q^{\prime}-2 E F P\right) \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

and (4.2) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
P^{*}=\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d}\left(B_{m-2} E Q^{\prime}-A_{m-2} F Q+\left(B_{m-2} F+A_{m-2} E\right) P\right) \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 4.1.1 Let $\theta=\left(P_{0}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{0}$ be a quadratic irrational and put

$$
a_{0}=\left\lfloor\frac{P_{0}+\sqrt{D}}{Q_{0}}\right\rfloor, P_{1}=a_{0} Q_{0}-P_{0}, \quad Q_{1}=\left(D-P_{1}^{2}\right) / Q_{0}
$$

Let $L^{2} D=M^{2}-N$, where $L, M \in \mathbb{N}$ and $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ and put $F=L Q_{0}, E=M-L P_{1}$ and $d=\operatorname{gcd}(E, F)$. Let

$$
\frac{F}{E}=\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}\right)
$$

where $m$ is chosen to be odd if $N>0$ and even if $N<0$. If $\left(P^{*}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q^{*}$ is defined by

$$
\theta=\left\langle a_{0}, s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{m-1}, \frac{P^{*}+\sqrt{D}}{Q^{*}}\right\rangle
$$

then

$$
P^{*}=\frac{M}{L}-\frac{H|N|}{d L} \quad \text { and } \quad Q^{*}=\frac{|N| Q_{0}}{d^{2}}
$$

where $H(E / d) \equiv(-1)^{m-1} \bmod (F / d)$ and $0 \leq H<F / d$. Note that $P^{*}$ and $Q^{*}$ are integers by (4.2) and (4.3).

Proof: Let $\left(P_{1}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{1}$ be the first complete quotient of the regular continued fraction expansion of $\left(P_{0}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q_{0}$. Then the values of $P^{*}$ and $Q^{*}$ are defined by

$$
\frac{P_{1}+\sqrt{D}}{Q_{1}}=\left\langle s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{m-1}, \frac{P^{*}+\sqrt{D}}{Q^{*}}\right\rangle
$$

If we substitute $Q_{1}$ for $Q, P_{1}$ for $P, Q_{0}=\left(D-P_{1}^{2}\right) / Q_{1}$ for $Q^{\prime}, M-L P_{1}$ for $E$ and $L Q_{0}$ for $F$ in (4.4), then we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q^{*} & =\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d^{2}}\left(\left(L Q_{0}\right)^{2} Q_{1}-\left(M-L P_{1}\right)^{2} Q_{0}-2\left(M-L P_{1}\right)\left(L Q_{0}\right) P_{1}\right) \\
& =\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d^{2}} Q_{0}\left(L^{2}\left(D-P_{1}^{2}\right)-\left(M-L P_{1}\right)^{2}-2\left(L P_{1}\right)\left(M-L P_{1}\right)\right) \\
& =\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d^{2}} Q_{0}\left(L^{2} D-\left(L^{2} P_{1}^{2}+2\left(L P_{1}\right)\left(M-L P_{1}\right)+\left(M-L P_{1}\right)^{2}\right)\right) \\
& =\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d^{2}} Q_{0}\left(L^{2} D-\left(L P_{1}+M-L P_{1}\right)^{2}\right) \\
& =\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d^{2}} Q_{0}(-N) \\
& =\frac{|N| Q_{0}}{d^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, by (4.5)

$$
\begin{aligned}
L P^{*} & =\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d} L\left(B_{m-2}\left(M-L P_{1}\right) Q_{0}-A_{m-2}\left(L Q_{0}\right) Q_{1}+\left(B_{m-2}\left(L Q_{0}\right)+A_{m-2}\left(M-L P_{1}\right)\right) P_{1}\right) \\
& =\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d}\left(B_{m-2} L M Q_{0}-A_{m-2} L\left(L Q_{0}\right) Q_{1}+A_{m-2}\left(M-L P_{1}\right) L P_{1}\right) \\
& =\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d}\left(B_{m-2} L M Q_{0}+A_{m-2} L M P_{1}-A_{m-2} L^{2}\left(Q_{0} Q_{1}+P_{1}^{2}\right)\right) \\
& =\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d}\left(B_{m-2} L M Q_{0}+A_{m-2} L M P_{1}-A_{m-2} M^{2}+A_{m-2} N\right) \\
& =\frac{(-1)^{m}}{d}\left(\left(B_{m-2} L Q_{0}-A_{m-2}\left(M-L P_{1}\right)\right) M+A_{m-2} N\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $L Q_{0}=A_{m-1} d$ and $M-L P_{1}=B_{m-1} d$, we have

$$
B_{m-2} L Q_{0}-A_{m-2}\left(M-L P_{1}\right)=\left(A_{m-1} B_{m-2}-A_{m-2} B_{m-1}\right) d=(-1)^{m} d
$$

Thus,

$$
L P^{*}=\frac{(-1)^{m}(-1)^{m} d M}{d}+\frac{(-1)^{m} A_{m-2} N}{d}=M-\frac{A_{m-2}|N|}{d}
$$

Hence,

$$
P^{*}=\frac{M}{L}-\frac{A_{m-2}|N|}{d L} .
$$

If we put $H=A_{m-2}$, then by $(1.10), H(E / d) \equiv(-1)^{m} \bmod (F / d)$ and $0 \leq H<F$ and

$$
P^{*}=\frac{M}{L}-\frac{H|N|}{d L} .
$$

Remark 4.1.1 Note that if $F>E$, i.e. $s_{0} \in \mathbb{N}$ in the above lemma, and $\left(P^{*}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q^{*}>1$, then by Remark 1.1.2, the regular continued fraction expansion of $\theta$ is given by

$$
\left(a_{0}, s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1},\left(P^{*}+\sqrt{D}\right) / Q^{*}\right)
$$

### 4.2 Preliminary Lemmas

From the examples early on in this chapter, it appears that if $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ is a Schinzel sleeper and $X$ is sufficiently large, then the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is of the form

$$
\left(q_{0}(X), \overline{\mathcal{S}_{0}, q_{1}(X), \mathcal{S}_{1}, q_{2}(X), \ldots, \mathcal{S}_{\kappa-1}, q_{\kappa}(X)}\right)
$$

for some integer-valued polynomials $q_{i}(X)$, some natural number sequences $\mathcal{S}_{i}$, and some minimal subscript $\kappa$. The minimal subscript $\kappa$ is the least number of insertions of $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ in the expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. We will prove this result by induction. The inductive argument is separated into several key components and presented as lemmas here.

Note that for any quadratic $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$, not necessarily a Schinzel sleeper, we may write

$$
D(X)=\left(\frac{A^{2} X+B}{A}\right)^{2}-\frac{\Delta}{A^{2}}
$$

Hence, if we write $q=\lfloor B / A\rfloor$, then for sufficiently large $X,\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor$ will be of the shape $A X+q$ or $A X+q-1$, where $q$ is independent of $X$.

Lemma 4.2.1 Write $B=A q+r$ with $0 \leq r<A$. Then

$$
\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}]= \begin{cases}A X+q-1 & \text { if } \Delta>0, r=0 \text { and } X>\frac{\Delta}{2 A^{3}}-\frac{2 B-A}{2 A^{2}},  \tag{4.6}\\ A X+q & \text { if } \Delta>0, r>0 \text { and } X>\frac{\Delta}{2 A^{3}}-\frac{2 B-A}{2 A^{2}}, \\ A X+q & \text { if } \Delta<0, r=0 \text { and } X>\frac{-\Delta}{2 A^{3}}-\frac{2 B+A}{2 A^{2}} \\ A X+q & \text { if } \Delta<0, r>0 \text { and } X>\frac{-\Delta}{2 A^{2}(A-r)}-\frac{2 B+(A-r)}{2 A^{2}} .\end{cases}
$$

Proof: Case (1): If $\Delta>0$ and $r=0$, then $C<B^{2} / A^{2}=q^{2}$. To have $\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor=A X+q-1$, we need

$$
(A X+q-1)^{2}<A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C<(A X+q)^{2}
$$

The latter inequality holds since $C<B^{2} / A^{2}=q^{2}$. The term $A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ is strictly greater than $(A X+q-1)^{2}$ provided

$$
A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C>A^{2} X^{2}+2 A q X-2 A X+\left(\frac{B-A}{A}\right)^{2}
$$

that is, $2 A X>(B-A)^{2} / A^{2}-C$. This means that

$$
X>\frac{B^{2}-2 A B+A^{2}-A^{2} C}{2 A^{3}}=\frac{\Delta}{2 A^{3}}-\frac{2 B-A}{2 A^{2}}
$$

Case (2): If $\Delta>0$ and $r>0$, then $B^{2} / A^{2}>C$ and $A X+q=A X+B / A-r / A$ is an integer. Since $0 \leq r / A<1, A X+q$ lies strictly between $A X+(B-A) / A$ and $A X+B / A$, which are not integers, but differ by 1 . To obtain $\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor=A X+q$, it suffices to have

$$
A^{2} X^{2}+2(B-A) X+\left(\frac{B-A}{A}\right)^{2}<A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C<A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+\frac{B^{2}}{A^{2}}
$$

The right inequality holds since $B^{2} / A^{2}>C$. The left inequality holds provided

$$
2 A X>\left(\frac{B-A}{A}\right)^{2}-C=\frac{\Delta-2 A B+A^{2}}{A^{2}}
$$

that is,

$$
X>\frac{\Delta-2 A B+A^{2}}{2 A^{3}}=\frac{\Delta}{2 A^{3}}-\frac{2 B-A}{2 A^{2}} .
$$

For the remaining cases, we note that $\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor$ is of the form $A X+q$ if

$$
\begin{equation*}
A^{2} X^{2}+2 A q X+q^{2}<A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C<A^{2} X^{2}+2 A(q+1) X+(q+1)^{2} \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case (3): If $\Delta<0$ and $r=0$, then $q^{2}=B^{2} / A^{2}<C$ and the left inequality of (4.7) holds. Also the right inequality of (4.7) holds if

$$
2 A X>C-(q+1)^{2}=C-\left(\frac{B+A}{A}\right)^{2}
$$

that is,

$$
X>\frac{A^{2} C-B^{2}-2 A B-A^{2}}{2 A^{3}}=\frac{-\Delta-2 A B-A^{2}}{2 A^{3}}=\frac{-\Delta}{2 A^{3}}-\frac{2 B+A}{2 A^{2}} .
$$

Case (4): If $\Delta<0$ and $r>0$, then $q^{2}<B^{2} / A^{2}<C$ and the left inequality of (4.7) holds. The right inequality of (4.7) holds provided

$$
A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C<A^{2} X^{2}+2(A+B-r) X+\left(\frac{A+B-r}{A}\right)^{2}
$$

that is,

$$
2(A-r) X>C-\left(\frac{A+B-r}{A}\right)^{2}=\frac{-\Delta-2(A-r) B-(A-r)^{2}}{A^{2}} .
$$

In other words,

$$
X>\frac{-\Delta-2(A-r) B-(A-r)^{2}}{2 A^{2}(A-r)}=\frac{-\Delta}{2 A^{2}(A-r)}-\frac{2 B+(A-r)}{2 A^{2}} .
$$

In Definition 2.3.1 where we define a Schinzel sleeper to be a quadratic $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ with discriminant $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C \neq 0$ and $\Delta \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$, we never impose any conditions on the integer coefficients $A, B$ and $C$ other than $A>0$ and $B^{2}-A^{2} C \neq 0$. In other words,
we do not restrict the signs of $B$ and $C$. If $X=-|X|$ is a negative integer, then $D(X)=$ $A^{2}(-|X|)^{2}+2 B(-|X|)+C=A^{2} X^{2}-2 B|X|+C$. The discriminant of $A^{2} X^{2}-2 B|X|+C$ is $(-B)^{2}-A^{2} C=B^{2}-A^{2} C=\Delta$. Since there is no restriction on the sign of $B$, we may assume $X$ to be non-negative. Henceforth, we consider only $X \geq 0$.

In what follows, we set up the notation that will be used in the sequel. Put

$$
\sigma=\Delta /|\Delta|=\operatorname{sgn}(\Delta) \quad \text { and } \quad|\Delta|=\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}
$$

where $\Delta_{1}$ and $\Delta_{2}$ are squarefree.
Since $\Delta=\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}$ divides $4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$, we have $\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2} \mid 2 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)$. Thus,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2} \mid 2 A^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad \Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2} \mid 2 B \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows that $\Delta_{4} \mid A$ and $\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} \mid 2 A$. This implies that $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} \mid 2 A$. If $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} \mid A$, then put $\tau=1$; otherwise, put $\tau=2$. Thus, $\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right) \mid A$.

If $2 \mid \Delta_{1}$, then $\left(\Delta_{1} / 2\right) \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2} \mid A^{2}$. This implies that $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} \mid A$ and, consequently, $\tau=1$. Thus, as a contrapositive, if $\tau \neq 1$, i.e., $\tau=2$, then $2 \nmid \Delta_{1}$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{gcd}\left(\Delta_{1}, \tau\right)=1 \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\tau=2$, then since $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} \nmid A$, we get $\Delta_{2} \nmid\left(A / \Delta_{4}\right)$. Also, since $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} \mid 2 A$, we get $\Delta_{2} \mid 2\left(A / \Delta_{4}\right)$. Hence, $2 \mid \Delta_{2}$. Moreover, since $\tau$ is either 1 or 2 , we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau \mid \Delta_{2} \tag{4.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, since $\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} \mid 2 A$, it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\triangle_{1} \triangle_{4} \tau \mid 2 A \tag{4.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}=|\Delta|=\left|B^{2}-A^{2} C\right|,\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)^{2} \mid A^{2}$ and $\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)^{2} \mid \Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}$, it follows that $\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)^{2} \mid B^{2}$, i.e., $\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right) \mid B$. Put $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)$ and $B^{*}=B /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)$. Then $\tau^{2} \Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}=\left|\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} B^{*}\right)^{2}-\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} A^{*}\right)^{2} C\right|$ implies that $\Delta_{1}\left(\tau \Delta_{4}\right)^{2}=\left|B^{* 2}-A^{* 2} C\right|$.

Put $\Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \tau \Delta_{4}\right)$ and $G=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, B^{*}\right)$. Then $G^{2} \mid \tau^{2} \Delta_{1} \Delta_{4}^{2}$ implies that $G \mid \tau \Delta_{4}$ and $G \mid \Gamma$. On the other hand, $\Gamma^{2} \mid B^{* 2}$ implies that $\Gamma \mid B^{*}$, which implies that $\Gamma \mid G$. Therefore, $G=\Gamma$. It follows that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*} / \Gamma, B^{*} / \Gamma\right)=1$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{gcd}(A, B)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*} \frac{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}}{\tau}, B^{*} \frac{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}}{\tau}\right)=\frac{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}}{\tau} \operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{A^{*}}{\Gamma} \Gamma, \frac{B^{*}}{\Gamma} \Gamma\right)=\frac{\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}}{\tau} . \tag{4.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $\tau=2$ and $\tau \mid A^{*}$ imply that $2 \mid 2 A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}\right)$. This means that $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} \mid A$, a contradiction. Hence, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \tau\right)=1$ and $\Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \tau \Delta_{4}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)$. Put

$$
\begin{equation*}
A^{\prime}=\frac{A^{*}}{\Gamma} \quad \text { and } \quad \Delta^{\prime}=\frac{\tau \Delta_{4}}{\Gamma} \tag{4.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}, \Delta^{\prime}\right)=1 \tag{4.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $A \mid B$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\operatorname{gcd}(A, B)=\frac{\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}}{\tau} \quad \text { and } \quad A^{\prime}=1 \tag{4.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Define

$$
\eta= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } A \mid B \text { and } \sigma=1  \tag{4.16}\\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

For integers $a>r \geq 0$, define an ordered set

$$
\mathcal{S}(a, r)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\emptyset & \text { if } r=0 \text { and } \sigma=-1  \tag{4.17}\\
\{1\} & \text { if } r=0 \text { and } \sigma=1 \\
\left\{s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}\right\} & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

In the last case, $a / r=\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}\right)$ and the subscript $m-1$ is chosen such that $(-1)^{m-1}=\sigma$.
As we mentioned earlier, our result on the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ requires $X$ to be sufficiently large. Since we have established some lower bounds for $X$ in Lemma 4.2.1, it may seem plausible that if $X$ is greater those lowers bounds, then $X$ is sufficiently large. However, we
find that a larger lower bound is needed for the main result. Henceforth, we say $X$ is sufficiently large if $X$ is a non-negative integer such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
X>\frac{\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}}{A}-\frac{2 B-A}{2 A^{2}} \tag{4.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the sequel, we assume (4.18). We now present the initial step of our inductive proof.
Lemma 4.2.2 Put $r_{0} \equiv B \tau /\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}\right) \bmod A^{\prime}$, where $0 \leq r_{0}<A^{\prime}$, and $\mathcal{S}_{0}=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime}, r_{0}\right)$. When $r_{0}>0$, let $H \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $H r_{0} \equiv \sigma \bmod A^{\prime}$ and $1 \leq H<A^{\prime}$. Then $d_{1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}, r_{0}\right)=1$ and

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=\left(A X+q-\eta, \mathcal{S}_{0}, \frac{\mathrm{P}_{1}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{\mathrm{Q}_{1}}\right)
$$

where $q=\lfloor B / A\rfloor, \eta$ as defined in (4.16),

$$
g_{1}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
0 & \text { if } r_{0}=0 \text { and } \sigma=-1  \tag{4.19}\\
\Delta^{\prime} & \text { if } r_{0}=0 \text { and } \sigma=1 \\
H \Delta^{\prime} & \text { if } r_{0}>0
\end{array}\right.
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{P}_{1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1} \frac{g_{1}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{1}} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{1}=\Delta_{1}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{1}}\right)^{2} \tag{4.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof: Note that $\Delta / A^{2}=\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} / A^{\prime 2}$ and $\Delta /(A(A-r))=\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} /\left(A^{\prime}\left(A^{\prime}-r_{0}\right)\right)$. Hence, it follows from $X>\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right)$ that $X$ is greater than all four lower bounds in (4.6). Hence, on writing $B=A q+r$ with $0 \leq r<A$ and by Lemma 4.2.1, we get $\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor=A X+q-\eta$, where $\eta$ is defined in (4.16).

We put

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{0}=0, \quad Q_{0}=1 \quad \text { and } \quad a_{0}=\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor=A X+q-\eta \tag{4.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{1}=a_{0} Q_{0}-P_{0}=a_{0}=A X+q-\eta \quad \text { and } Q_{1}=\frac{D(X)-P_{1}^{2}}{Q_{0}} \tag{4.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case (1): Suppose that $r=0$ and $\sigma=-1$. Then $r_{0}=0$,

$$
P_{1}=A X+\frac{B}{A} \quad \text { and } \quad Q_{1}=\frac{-\Delta}{A^{2}}=\frac{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}}{A^{\prime 2}\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)^{2}}=\Delta_{1}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{A^{\prime}}\right)^{2}
$$

Since $A \mid B$, by (4.15), we have $A^{\prime}=1$. On putting $d_{1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}, r_{0}\right)=A^{\prime}=1$, we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{1}=A X+\frac{B}{A} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{1}=\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} \tag{4.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case (2): Suppose that $r=0$ and $\sigma=1$. Then $r_{0}=0$,

$$
P_{1}=A X+q-1 \quad \text { and } \quad Q_{1}=2 A X-\frac{\Delta}{A^{2}}+\frac{2 A B-A^{2}}{A^{2}}
$$

Now,

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{1}=\left\lfloor\frac{P_{1}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{Q_{1}}\right\rfloor=\left\lfloor\frac{P_{1}+\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor}{Q_{1}}\right\rfloor=\left\lfloor\frac{2 A X+2 B / A-2}{2 A X-\Delta / A^{2}+\left(2 A B-A^{2}\right) / A^{2}}\right\rfloor . \tag{4.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

We claim that $a_{1}=1$ if $X$ is sufficiently large, i.e. (4.18) holds. To see this, we only need to show that

$$
1<\frac{2 A X+2 B / A-2}{2 A X-\Delta / A^{2}+\left(2 A B-A^{2}\right) / A^{2}}<2
$$

Since $\left(P_{1}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / Q_{1}$ is a complete quotient, it is greater than 1 . So we need only establish the right inequality, which holds provided

$$
A X+\frac{B}{A}-1<2 A X-\frac{\Delta}{A^{2}}+\frac{2 A B-A^{2}}{A^{2}}
$$

This is equivalent to

$$
X>\frac{1}{A}\left(\frac{\Delta}{A^{2}}-\frac{B}{A}\right)=\frac{\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}}{A A^{\prime 2}}-\frac{B}{A^{2}}
$$

By (4.18), the above inequality holds and hence, $a_{1}=1$. We compute

$$
\mathrm{P}_{1}=P_{2}=a_{1} Q_{1}-P_{1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\frac{\Delta}{A^{2}}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\frac{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}}{A^{\prime 2}\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)^{2}}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{A^{\prime}}\right)^{2}
$$

and

$$
\mathrm{Q}_{1}=\frac{D-P_{2}^{2}}{Q_{1}}=\frac{\Delta}{A^{2}}=\Delta_{1}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{A^{\prime}}\right)^{2} .
$$

By (4.15), we have $A^{\prime}=1$. On putting $d_{1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}, r_{0}\right)=A^{\prime}=1$ and $g_{1}=\Delta^{\prime}$, we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{P}_{1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-g_{1} \Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{1}=\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} \tag{4.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case (3): When $r>0$, we appeal to Lemma 4.1.1 with

$$
\begin{equation*}
L=A, \quad M=A^{2} X+B \quad \text { and } \quad N=\Delta \tag{4.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that by (4.22),

$$
E=M-L P_{1}=A^{2} X+B-A\left(A X+\frac{B}{A}-\frac{r}{A}\right)=r \quad \text { and } \quad F=L Q_{0}=A
$$

Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(A, r)$ and the continued fraction expansion of $A / r$ be given by $\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}\right)$, where $(-1)^{m-1}=\sigma$. By Lemma 4.1.1, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
P^{*}=\frac{A^{2} X+B}{A}-\frac{H|\Delta|}{A d} \quad \text { and } \quad Q^{*}=\frac{|\Delta|}{d^{2}}, \tag{4.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $H(r / d) \equiv \sigma \bmod A / d$ and $0 \leq H<A / d$.
By (4.12), $d=\operatorname{gcd}(A, r)=\operatorname{gcd}(A, B)=\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau$. Put $r_{0}=r /\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)$. Note that this definition of $r_{0}$ is equivalent to $r_{0} \equiv B \tau /\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}\right) \bmod A^{\prime}$, where $0 \leq r_{0}<A^{\prime}$. Since $A^{\prime}=A /\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)$, we have $d_{1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}, r_{0}\right)=1$. Now,

$$
\frac{H|\Delta|}{A d}=\frac{H \Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}}{A^{\prime}\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)}=\Delta_{1} \frac{H \Delta^{\prime 2}}{A^{\prime}}
$$

Also,

$$
\frac{|\Delta|}{d^{2}}=\Delta_{1}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{1}}\right)^{2}=\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} .
$$

On setting $g_{1}=H \Delta^{\prime}$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
P^{*}=\frac{A^{2} X+B}{A}-\Delta_{1} \frac{g_{1}}{A^{\prime}} \Delta^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad Q^{*}=\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} \tag{4.28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also, the expressions $H(r / d) \equiv \sigma \bmod A / d$ and $0 \leq H<A / d$ can be written as

$$
H r_{0} \equiv \sigma \bmod A^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leq H<A^{\prime}
$$

Thus, $H$ is as stated in the lemma, and $0 \leq g_{1}<A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}$.
We now show that $\left(P^{*}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / Q^{*}>1$. It suffices to prove $P^{*}+\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor \geq Q^{*}$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 A X+\frac{2 B}{A}-\frac{r}{A}-\Delta_{1} \frac{g_{1}}{A^{\prime}} \Delta^{\prime}>\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} \tag{4.29}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (4.18), we have

$$
2 A X>2 \Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}-\frac{2 B}{A}+1
$$

Since $0 \leq g_{1}<A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}$, it follows that $\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime}\left(g_{1} / A^{\prime}\right)<\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}$. Hence,

$$
2 A X+\frac{2 B}{A}-\frac{r}{A}>2 \Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}>\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}+\Delta_{1} \frac{g_{1}}{A^{\prime}} \Delta^{\prime}
$$

that is, $2 A X+2 B / A-r / A-\Delta_{1}\left(g_{1} / A^{\prime}\right) \Delta^{\prime}>\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}$. Thus, $\left(P^{*}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / Q^{*}>1$.
Now, if we write

$$
d_{1}=1 \quad \text { and } \quad g_{1}= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } r=0 \text { and } \sigma=-1 \\ A^{\prime} & \text { if } r=0 \text { and } \sigma=1, \\ H \Delta^{\prime} & \text { if } r>0,\end{cases}
$$

where $A^{\prime}$ and $\Delta^{\prime}$ are defined in (4.13), $H r_{0} \equiv \sigma \bmod A^{\prime}$ and $0 \leq H<A^{\prime}$, then the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is given by

$$
\left(A X+q-\eta, \mathcal{S}_{0}, \frac{\mathrm{P}_{1}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{\mathrm{Q}_{1}}\right)
$$

where $\mathcal{S}_{0}=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime}, r_{0}\right)$ as defined in (4.17),

$$
\mathrm{P}_{1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1} \frac{g_{1}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{1}} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{1}=\Delta_{1}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{1}}\right)^{2}
$$

Note that in the above lemma, if we put $d_{0}=\Delta^{\prime}$, then $\mathcal{S}_{0}=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime}, r_{0}\right)=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{0}, r_{0}\right)$. We will show inductively on $i$ that

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=\left(A X+q+\eta, \mathcal{S}_{0}, q_{1}(X), \mathcal{S}_{1}, q_{2}(X), \ldots, \mathcal{S}_{i}, q_{i+1}(X), \ldots\right)
$$

where $\mathcal{S}_{i}=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)$ and $q_{i+1}(X)=\left\lfloor\left(\mathrm{P}_{i+1}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}\right\rfloor$ for some integers $d_{i} \geq 1, r_{i} \geq 0$, $\mathrm{P}_{i+1}>0$ and $\mathrm{Q}_{i+1}>0$.

For $i \in \mathbb{N}$, define

$$
\varepsilon_{i}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } i \text { is odd }  \tag{4.30}\\ 0 & \text { if } i \text { is even }\end{cases}
$$

It is easy to see that $\varepsilon_{i+1}=1-\varepsilon_{i}$. We will provide a method for calculating $r_{i}, d_{i+1}$ and $g_{i+1}$ inductively from $r_{0}, d_{1}$ and $g_{1}$ in which

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{P}_{i+1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}} \frac{g_{i+1}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2} \tag{4.31}
\end{equation*}
$$

The purpose of the following four lemmas are as follows: the first one is to determine $r_{i}$, the second one is to find $q_{i}(X)$, which is needed in the third lemma for the computation of $d_{i+1}$ and $g_{i+1}$ when $r_{i}=0$. The last lemma computes $d_{i+1}$ and $g_{i+1}$ when $r_{i}>0$.

For the remainder of this chapter, we let

$$
\begin{equation*}
X \equiv K \bmod \Delta^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leq K<\Delta^{\prime} \tag{4.32}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 4.2.3 If integers $d_{i}>0$ and $g_{i} \geq 0$ are given such that $\mathrm{P}_{i}$ and $\mathrm{Q}_{i}$ are as defined in (4.31), then, in the language of Lemma 4.1.1,

$$
\frac{F^{\prime}}{E^{\prime}}=\frac{A \mathrm{Q}_{i}}{A^{2} X+B-A P^{\prime}}=\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}}{r_{i}}
$$

where $P^{\prime}=q_{i}(X) \mathbf{Q}_{i}-\mathbf{P}_{i}, q_{i}(X)=\left\lfloor\left(\mathbf{P}_{i}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathbf{Q}_{i}\right\rfloor$ and $r_{i}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{i} \equiv \frac{d_{i}\left(2 A^{2} K+2 B\right)}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{i} \bmod \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}} \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leq r_{i}<\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}} . . . . ~} \tag{4.33}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that we use $F^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime}$ instead of $F$ and $E$ to avoid confusion with the notation in Lemma 4.2.2.

Proof: Let

$$
q_{i}(X)=\left\lfloor\frac{\mathrm{P}_{i}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{\mathrm{Q}_{i}}\right\rfloor \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{R}_{i}=\left(\mathrm{P}_{i}+\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor\right)-q_{i}(X) \mathrm{Q}_{i}
$$

where $0 \leq R_{i}<Q_{i}$. Then $R_{i} \equiv\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor+P_{i} \bmod Q_{i}$. It follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A \mathbf{R}_{i} \equiv A\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor+A \mathbf{P}_{i} \bmod A \mathbf{Q}_{i} \tag{4.34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Put $P^{\prime}=q_{i}(X) \mathbf{Q}_{i}-\mathbf{P}_{i}$. Then

$$
P^{\prime}=q_{i}(X) \mathbf{Q}_{i}-\mathbf{P}_{i}=\left(\mathbf{P}_{i}+\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor\right)-\mathbf{R}_{i}-\mathbf{P}_{i}=\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor-\mathbf{R}_{i}
$$

Write $B=A q+r$, where $0 \leq r<A$. Then by Lemma 4.2.1, $\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor=A X+q-\eta=A X+$ $B / A-r / A-\eta$, where $\eta$ is defined in (4.16). Since $0 \leq r / A+\eta \leq 1$, we have $0 \leq \mathrm{R}_{i}+r / A+\eta \leq \mathrm{Q}_{i}$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \leq A \mathrm{R}_{i}+r+A \eta \leq A \mathrm{Q}_{i} \tag{4.35}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that if $r=0$ and $\sigma=1$, then $\eta=1$ and the above inequalities become $0<A \mathrm{R}_{i}+A \leq A \mathrm{Q}_{i}$. If $r=0$ and $\sigma=-1$, then $\eta=0$ and we get $0 \leq A \mathrm{R}_{i}<A \mathrm{Q}_{i}$. Also, if $r>0$, then $0<A \mathrm{R}_{i}+r<A \mathrm{Q}_{i}$.

Write $F^{\prime}=A Q_{i}$ and $E^{\prime}=A^{2} X+B-A P^{\prime}$ as in Lemma 4.2.2. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
A^{2} X+B-A P^{\prime} & =A^{2} X+B-A\left(\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor-\mathbf{R}_{i}\right) \\
& =A^{2} X+B-A^{2} X-B+r+A \eta+A \mathrm{R}_{i} \\
& =A \mathrm{R}_{i}+r+A \eta
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, by (4.35), we have $0 \leq A^{2} X+B-A P^{\prime} \leq A Q_{i}$, i.e. $0 \leq E^{\prime} \leq F^{\prime}$. By (4.34), we get

$$
A \mathbf{R}_{i}+r+A \eta \equiv A\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor+A \mathbf{P}_{i}+r+A \eta \bmod \mathrm{AQ}_{i}
$$

Since $A\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor=A^{2} X+B-r-A \eta, A \mathrm{P}_{i}=A^{2} X+B-A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(g_{i} / A^{\prime}\right)\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)$ and $\mathrm{AQ}_{i}=$ $A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}$, we have

$$
A R_{i}+r+A \eta \equiv 2 A^{2} X+2 B-A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \frac{g_{i}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}} \bmod A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}\right)^{2}
$$

By assumption, we have $X \equiv K \bmod \Delta^{\prime}$, where $0 \leq K<\Delta^{\prime}$. Since $\Delta_{1} \Delta_{4} \tau \mid 2 A$ by (4.11), we have $\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime} \mid 2 A$. Thus,

$$
\frac{2 A}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime}} d_{i}^{2} X \equiv \frac{2 A}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime}} d_{i}^{2} K \bmod \Delta^{\prime}
$$

It follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 A^{2} X \equiv 2 A^{2} K \bmod A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}\right)^{2} \tag{4.36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
A R_{i}+r+A \eta \equiv 2 A^{2} K+2 B-A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \frac{g_{i}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}} \bmod A \triangle_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}\right)^{2} \tag{4.37}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that the modulus in (4.37) is

$$
A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}\right)^{2}=\frac{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d_{i}} \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}
$$

the right-most term in (4.37) is

$$
A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \frac{g_{i}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}=g_{i} \frac{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d_{i}}
$$

and $\left(\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2} / d_{i}\right)$ divides both $2 A^{2}$ and $2 B$. So we may choose an integer $r_{i}$ such that

$$
r_{i} \equiv \frac{d_{i}\left(2 A^{2} K+2 B\right)}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{i} \bmod \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}} \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leq r_{i}<\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}
$$

and

$$
\frac{F^{\prime}}{E^{\prime}}=\frac{A Q_{i}}{A^{2} X+B-A P^{\prime}}=\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}}{r_{i}} .
$$

Further, we may write the above congruence as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d_{i}\left(2 A^{2} K+2 B\right)}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{i}=t_{i} \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}+r_{i} \tag{4.38}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some $t_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Lemma 4.2.4 Write $X=W \Delta^{\prime}+K$ for some non-negative integer $W$. If

$$
\mathrm{P}_{i}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \frac{g_{i}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}^{\prime}}, \quad \mathrm{Q}_{i}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}\right)^{2}
$$

then $q_{i}(X)=\left\lfloor\left(\mathrm{P}_{i}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathrm{Q}_{i}\right\rfloor$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{2 A W d_{i}^{2}}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime}}+t_{i}+\left\lfloor\frac{r_{i}}{\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)}-\frac{A \eta+r}{A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}}\right\rfloor \tag{4.39}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $2 A W d_{i}^{2} /\left(\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}$ because $\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime} \mid 2 A$, and $t_{i}$ as defined in (4.38).
Proof: Note that

$$
q_{i}(X)=\left\lfloor\frac{\mathrm{P}_{i}+\lfloor\sqrt{D(X)}\rfloor}{\mathrm{Q}_{i}}\right\rfloor=\left\lfloor\frac{2 A^{2} X+2 B-A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(g_{i} / A^{\prime}\right)\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)-A \eta-r}{A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}}\right\rfloor
$$

Since $X \equiv K \bmod \Delta^{\prime}$, where $0 \leq K<\Delta^{\prime}$, we write $X=W \Delta^{\prime}+K$ for some integer $W$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
q_{i}(X) & =\left\lfloor\frac{2 A^{2}\left(W \Delta^{\prime}+K\right)+2 B-A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(g_{i} / A^{\prime}\right)\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)-A \eta-r}{A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}}\right\rfloor \\
& =\frac{2 A W d_{i}^{2}}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime}}+\left\lfloor\frac{2 A^{2} K+2 B-A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(g_{i} / A^{\prime}\right)\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)-A \eta-r}{A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}}\right\rfloor
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime} \mid 2 A$ by (4.11). Thus, $\left(2 A W d_{i}^{2}\right) /\left(\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime}\right)$ is an integer. From (4.38), we compute

$$
t_{i}=\left\lfloor\frac{d_{i}\left(2 A^{2} K+2 B\right) /\left(\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}\right)-g_{i}}{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}}\right\rfloor=\left\lfloor\frac{2 A^{2} K+2 B-A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(g_{i} / A^{\prime}\right)\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)}{A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}}\right\rfloor
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
q_{i}(X) & =\frac{2 A W d_{i}^{2}}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime}}+\left\lfloor t_{i}+\frac{r_{i}}{\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)}-\frac{A \eta+r}{A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}}\right\rfloor \\
& =\frac{2 A d_{i}^{2}}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime}} W+t_{i}+\left\lfloor\frac{r_{i}}{\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)}-\frac{A \eta+r}{A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}}\right\rfloor .
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 4.2.5 If $r_{i}=0$, then the continued fraction expansion of $\left(\mathrm{P}_{i}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathrm{Q}_{i}$ is given by

$$
\left(q_{i}(X), \mathcal{S}_{i}, \frac{\mathrm{P}_{i+1}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{\mathrm{Q}_{i+1}}\right)
$$

where $q_{i}(X)$ is defined by Lemma 4.2.4, $\mathcal{S}_{i}=\emptyset$ or $\{1\}$ and $g_{i+1}=0$ or $d_{i}$ according as $\sigma=-1$ or 1, $d_{i+1}=A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}=\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{P}_{i+1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}} \frac{g_{i+1}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2} \tag{4.40}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof: Suppose that $r_{i}=0$. Then from (4.33), we see that

$$
\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}} \left\lvert\, \frac{d_{i}\left(2 A^{2} K+2 B\right)}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{i}\right.
$$

The above expression can be written as

$$
A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}\right)^{2} \left\lvert\, 2 A^{2} K+2 B-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} g_{i} \frac{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d_{i}}\right.
$$

By (4.36), $2 A^{2} K \equiv 2 A^{2} X \bmod A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}$, so we get

$$
A \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}\right)^{2} \left\lvert\, 2 A^{2} X+2 B-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} g_{i} \frac{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d_{i}}\right.
$$

This implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A \left\lvert\, 2\left(A^{2} X+B\right)-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} g_{i} \frac{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d_{i}}\right. \tag{4.41}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (4.31), we have

$$
\mathbf{P}_{i}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \frac{g_{i}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \frac{g_{i}}{A} \frac{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d_{i}}
$$

Thus,

$$
A \mathrm{P}_{i}=A^{2} X+B-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} g_{i} \frac{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d_{i}}
$$

and, consequently, $A^{2} X+B \equiv \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2} / d_{i}\right) g_{i} \bmod A$. Hence, by (4.41), we have $A \mid A^{2} X+B$. It follows that $A \mid B$ and $r=0$.

Case (1): If $\sigma=-1$, then by (4.39), we get

$$
q_{i}(X)=\frac{2 A W d_{i}^{2}}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime}}+t_{i}
$$

Put $\mathrm{P}_{i+1}=q_{i}(X) \mathrm{Q}_{i}-\mathrm{P}_{i}$ and $\mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\left(D(X)-\mathrm{P}_{i}{ }^{2}\right) / \mathrm{Q}_{i}$. We compute

$$
\mathrm{P}_{i+1}=A X+\frac{B}{A} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{d_{i}}{A^{\prime}}\right)^{2}
$$

Put $\mathcal{S}_{i}=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)=\emptyset, d_{i+1}=A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}$ and $g_{i+1}=0$. We may write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{P}_{i+1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}} \frac{g_{i+1}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2} \tag{4.42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case (2): If $\sigma=1$, then by (4.39), we get

$$
q_{i}(X)=\frac{2 A W d_{i}^{2}}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta^{\prime}}+t_{i}-1
$$

Also,

$$
P^{\prime}=q_{i}(X) \mathrm{Q}_{i}-\mathrm{P}_{i}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}\right)^{2}
$$

and

$$
Q^{\prime}=\frac{D(X)-P^{\prime 2}}{Q_{i}}=2 A X+\frac{2 B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}\right)^{2}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{d_{i}}{A^{\prime}}\right)^{2}
$$

Upon further computation, we get $\left\lfloor\left(P^{\prime}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / Q^{\prime}\right\rfloor=1$. Set $\mathrm{P}_{i+1}=1 \cdot Q^{\prime}-P^{\prime}$ and $\mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=$ $\left(D-P^{\prime 2}\right) / Q^{\prime}$. We find that

$$
\mathbf{P}_{i+1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{d_{i}}{A^{\prime}}\right)^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{d_{i}}{A^{\prime}}\right)^{2}
$$

Put $\mathcal{S}_{i}=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)=\{1\}, d_{i+1}=A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}$ and $g_{i+1}=d_{i}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{P}_{i+1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}} \frac{g_{i+1}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2} \tag{4.43}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, the continued fraction expansion of $\left(\mathbf{P}_{i}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathrm{Q}_{i}$ is given by

$$
\left(q_{i}(X), \mathcal{S}_{i}, \frac{\mathbf{P}_{i+1}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{\mathrm{Q}_{i+1}}\right)
$$

Remark 4.2.1 By the reasoning on page 108, we see that if $r>0$, then $r_{i}>0$ for all non-negative integers $i$. By the definition of $d_{i+1}$, it follows that when $r_{i}=0$, we have $d_{i+1} \mid \Delta^{\prime}$ since $A^{\prime}=1$.

Lemma 4.2.6 If $r_{i}>0$, then the continued fraction expansion of $\left(\mathrm{P}_{i}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathrm{Q}_{i}$ is given by

$$
\left(q_{i}(X), \mathcal{S}_{i}, \frac{\mathrm{P}_{i+1}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{\mathrm{Q}_{i+1}}\right)
$$

where $\mathcal{S}_{i}=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right), d_{i+1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right), g_{i+1}$ is an integer such that

$$
\begin{gather*}
\frac{g_{i+1} r_{i}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}} \equiv \sigma \bmod \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leq g_{i+1}<\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}  \tag{4.44}\\
q_{i}(X)=\left\lfloor\left(\mathbf{P}_{i}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathrm{Q}_{i}\right\rfloor, \\
\mathbf{P}_{i+1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}} \frac{g_{i+1}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}} \text { and } \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2} . \tag{4.45}
\end{gather*}
$$

Proof: Suppose that $r_{i}>0$. By Lemma 4.2.3, we let the continued fraction expansion of $F^{\prime} / E^{\prime}=$ $\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right) / r_{i}$ be given by $\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m^{\prime}-1}\right)$, where the natural number $m^{\prime}$ is chosen such that $(-1)^{m^{\prime}-1}=\sigma$. Note that since $F^{\prime} \geq E^{\prime}$, we have $s_{0} \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $d^{\prime}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(E^{\prime}, F^{\prime}\right)$ and $d_{i+1}=$ $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)$. Then $d^{\prime}=\left(\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2} / d_{i}\right) d_{i+1}$.

By Lemma 4.1.1, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{P}_{i+1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\frac{H^{\prime}|\Delta|}{A d^{\prime}} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\frac{|\Delta| \mathrm{Q}_{i}}{\left(d^{\prime}\right)^{2}} \tag{4.46}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $H^{\prime}\left(E^{\prime} / d^{\prime}\right) \equiv \sigma \bmod F^{\prime} / d^{\prime}$ and $0 \leq H^{\prime}<F^{\prime} / d^{\prime}$. Notice that

$$
\frac{|\Delta|}{d^{\prime} A}=\frac{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}}{\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right) A^{\prime}\left(\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2} / d_{i}\right) d_{i+1}}=\frac{d_{i} \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}} \Delta^{\prime}}{A^{\prime} d_{i+1}}
$$

and

$$
\frac{|\Delta| Q_{i}}{\left(d^{\prime}\right)^{2}}=\frac{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}}{\left(\Delta_{1}^{\left.\varepsilon_{i} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2} / d_{i}\right)^{2} d_{i+1}^{2}} \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}\right)^{2}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2} . . . . . . . .\right.}
$$

Hence,

$$
\mathrm{P}_{i+1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}} \frac{d_{i} H^{\prime}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}} \text { and } \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2}
$$

Since $E^{\prime} / d^{\prime}=r_{i} / d_{i+1}$ and $F^{\prime} / d^{\prime}=\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}\right) /\left(d_{i} d_{i+1}\right)$, the expressions

$$
H^{\prime} \frac{E^{\prime}}{d^{\prime}} \equiv \sigma \bmod \frac{F^{\prime}}{d^{\prime}} \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leq H^{\prime}<\frac{F^{\prime}}{d^{\prime}}
$$

can be written as

$$
H^{\prime} \frac{r_{i}}{d_{i+1}} \equiv \sigma \bmod \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leq H^{\prime}<\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}}
$$

Put

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{i+1}=d_{i} H^{\prime} \tag{4.47}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then

$$
\frac{g_{i+1} r_{i}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}} \equiv \sigma \bmod \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leq g_{i+1}<\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}
$$

Also, we get

$$
\mathbf{P}_{i+1}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}} \frac{g_{i+1}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2}
$$

We now show that $\left(\mathbf{P}_{i+1}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}>1$. By (4.18), we have $2 A X>2 \Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}-2 B / A+1$. By the fact that $0 \leq r<A$ and the definition of $\eta$, we have $1 \geq r / A+\eta$ and hence $2 A X>$ $2 \Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}-2 B / A+r / A+\eta$. Thus,

$$
2 A X+\frac{2 B}{A}-r / A-\eta>2 \Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} \geq 2 \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2}
$$

Since $0 \leq g_{i+1}<A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i+1}$, we have

$$
2 A X+\frac{2 B}{A}-r / A-\eta>\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2}+\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}} \frac{g_{i+1}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}
$$

that is

$$
2 A X+\frac{2 B}{A}-r / A-\eta-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}} \frac{g_{i+1}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}>\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}\right)^{2}
$$

Therefore, $\left(\mathrm{P}_{i+1}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathrm{Q}_{i+1}>\mathrm{I}$ and if we put

$$
q_{i}(X)=\left\lfloor\frac{\mathrm{P}_{i}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{\mathrm{Q}_{i}}\right\rfloor \quad \text { and } \quad \mathcal{S}_{i}=S\left(\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}, r_{i}\right)
$$

then by Remark 4.1.1, the continued fraction expansion of $\left(\mathrm{P}_{i}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathrm{Q}_{i}$ is given by

$$
\left(q_{i}(X), \mathcal{S}_{i}, \frac{\mathrm{P}_{i+1}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{\mathrm{Q}_{i+1}}\right)
$$

Remark 4.2.2 By Lemma 4.1.1, $\mathrm{Q}_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$ for all $i \geq 0$. Thus, $d_{i} \mid \Delta^{\prime}$ for all $i \geq 0$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}, \Delta^{\prime}\right)=1$ by (4.14), we have $d_{i+1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)$ for all $i \geq 0$.

### 4.3 The Continued Fraction Expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$

Theorem 4.3.1 Let $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ be a Schinzel sleeper. Assume that $X$ is sufficiently large, i.e., (4.18) holds. Let $X \equiv K \bmod \Delta^{\prime}$; i.e., $X=W \Delta^{\prime}+K$, where $0 \leq K<\Delta^{\prime}$, and $W \geq 0$.

Put $d_{0}=\Delta^{\prime}, r_{0} \equiv B \tau /\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}\right) \bmod A^{\prime}$, where $0 \leq r_{0}<A^{\prime}$. For $i \geq 0$, define

$$
d_{i+1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}, r_{i}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \mathcal{S}_{i}=\mathcal{S}\left(\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}, r_{i}\right)
$$

where the parity of $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|$ is even if $\sigma=-1$ and odd if $\sigma=1$.
When $r_{i}>0$, choose $g_{i+1} \in \mathbb{Z}$ according to (4.44). When $r_{i}=0$, set $g_{i+1}=d_{i}$ if $\sigma=1$ and $g_{i+1}=0$ if $\sigma=-1$. Let $q_{i+1}(X)$ and $r_{i+1}$ be as defined in (4.39) and (4.33), respectively.

Then the regular continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is given by

$$
\left(A X+q-\eta, \overline{\mathcal{S}_{0}, q_{1}(X), \mathcal{S}_{1}, q_{2}(X), \mathcal{S}_{2}, q_{3}(X), \ldots, \mathcal{S}_{\kappa-1}(X), q_{\kappa}(X)}\right)
$$

where $q=\lfloor B / A\rfloor, \eta$ is defined by (4.16) and $\kappa$ is the least natural number such that

$$
d_{\kappa}=\Delta^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{\kappa}}=1
$$

Proof: We prove the theorem by induction on $i$. If $i=0$, then by Lemma 4.2.2, we get $d_{1}, g_{1}$ and

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=\left(A X+q-\eta, \mathcal{S}_{0},\left(\mathbf{P}_{1}+\sqrt{D(X)}\right) / \mathbf{Q}_{1}\right)
$$

By Lemma 4.2.3, we get $r_{1}$. By Lemma 4.2.4, we get $q_{1}(X)$. By Lemma 4.2.5 or Lemma 4.2.6 depending on whether $r_{1}=0$ or $r_{1}>0$, we get $\mathcal{S}_{1}=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{1}, r_{1}\right)$, a non-negative integer $g_{2}$, and natural numbers $d_{2}, P_{2}$ and $Q_{2}$ such that

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=\left(A X+q-\eta, \mathcal{S}_{0}, q_{1}(X), \mathcal{S}_{1}, \frac{\mathrm{P}_{2}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{\mathrm{Q}_{2}}\right)
$$

By Remark 4.2.2, $d_{2}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{1}, r_{1}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{1}, r_{1}\right)$
Suppose that the theorem holds for some $i>0$. Let $d_{i}$ and $g_{i}$ be as in the statement of the theorem. We use Lemma 4.2 .3 to compute $r_{i}$. By Lemma 4.2.4, we obtain $q_{i}(X)$. By Lemma 4.2.5 or Lemma 4.2.6 depending on whether $r_{i}=0$ or $r_{i}>0$, we get $\mathcal{S}_{i}=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)$, a non-negative integer $g_{i+1}$, and natural numbers $d_{i+1}, \mathbf{P}_{i+1}$ and $\mathbf{Q}_{i+1}$ such that

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=\left(A X+q-\eta, \mathcal{S}_{0}, q_{1}(X), \mathcal{S}_{1}, \ldots, q_{i}(X), \mathcal{S}_{i}, \frac{\mathbf{P}_{i+1}+\sqrt{D(X)}}{\mathrm{Q}_{i+1}}\right)
$$

Hence, by induction, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is given by

$$
\left(A X+q-\eta, \mathcal{S}_{0}, q_{1}(X), \mathcal{S}_{1}, q_{2}(X), \mathcal{S}_{2}, \ldots, q_{i+1}(X), \ldots\right)
$$

Since $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is a quadratic irrational, its continued fraction expansion is periodic. The end of the period is signaled by $Q_{\ell}=1$ for some minimal $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ and the corresponding partial quotient takes the form $2 A X+2 q-2 \eta$, twice the initial partial quotient. Since the partial quotients in the sequences $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ are all less than $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}$, the only partial quotient that can be as large as $2 A X+2 q-2 \eta$ must be $q_{\kappa}(X)$ for some $\kappa$. Hence, if $\ell$ is the period length, then

$$
Q_{\ell}=1 \quad \text { and } \quad P_{\ell}=A X+q-\eta
$$

Suppose that

$$
Q_{\ell}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{\kappa}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{\kappa}}\right)^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad P_{\ell}=A X+\frac{B}{A}-\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{\kappa}} \frac{g_{\kappa}}{A^{\prime}} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{\kappa}}
$$

Then, we must have $\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{\kappa}}=1$ and $d_{\kappa}=\Delta^{\prime}$. In other words, our computation for the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is complete when we get the minimal $\kappa>0$ such that $\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{\kappa}}=1$ and $d_{\kappa}=\Delta^{\prime}$.

Remark 4.3.1 We note that if $\Delta_{1}>1$, then $\kappa$ is even. Also, it is easy to see that when $D(X)$ is given and $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are two sufficiently integers that belong to the same residue class modulo $\Delta^{\prime}$, then the expansions of $\sqrt{D\left(X_{1}\right)}$ and $\sqrt{D\left(X_{2}\right)}$ will have the same sequence $\mathcal{S}_{0}, \mathcal{S}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{S}_{\kappa}$.

Example 4.3.1 Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2205) X+343$. Then $A=119=7 \cdot 17, \mathrm{~B}=2205=$ $3^{2} \cdot 5 \cdot 7^{2}$ and $C=343=7^{3}$. The discriminant $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C=4802=2 \cdot 7^{4}$. Thus, $\Delta_{1}=2, \Delta_{2}=1$, $\Delta_{4}=7, \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}=7$, which divides $7 \cdot 17=A$, so that $\tau=1$. Then $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)=(7 \cdot 17) / 7=$ 17 and $\Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}(17,7)=1$. Hence, $A^{\prime}=A^{*} / \Gamma=17$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\left(\tau \Delta_{4}\right) / \Gamma=7$. Moreover, $d_{0}=\Delta^{\prime}=7, r_{0}=r /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}\right)=9$ and $d_{1}=1$.

Since $X$ is sufficiently large when $X>\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} / A-B / A^{2}+1 /(2 A) \approx 0.67$, we first consider $X=1$. We compute $r=B-A\lfloor B / A\rfloor=63$ and $\lfloor\sqrt{D(1)}\rfloor=q_{0}(1)=119 \cdot 1+18=137$.

The fraction $A^{\prime} / r_{0}=17 / 9$ may be represented by $(1,1,8)$. Although we may write $A^{\prime} / r_{0}=$ $(1,1,7,1)$, we insist on writing $A^{\prime} / r_{0}=(1,1,8)$ since $\sigma=1$, which means that we need an odd number of terms. Therefore, $\mathcal{S}_{0}=\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{0}, r_{0}\right)=\{1,1,8\}$.

We find that $q_{1}(1)=2, g_{1}=14$ and $r_{1}=82$. It can be checked that $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{1} r_{1}=119 / 82=$ $(1,2,4,1,1,1,2)$. Again, we pick ( $1,2,4,1,1,1,2$ ) instead of $(1,2,4,1,1,1,1,1)$ because we need an odd number of terms. Put $\mathcal{S}_{1}=\{1,2,4,1,1,1,2\}$.

We list $q_{i}(X), \mathcal{S}_{i}, g_{i}, d_{i}$ and $r_{i}$ in the following.

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
q_{0}(1)=137, & \mathcal{S}_{0}=\{1,1,8\}, & d_{0}=\Delta^{\prime}=7, & r_{0}=9, \\
q_{1}(1)=2, & \mathcal{S}_{1}=\{1,2,4,1,1,1,2\}, & d_{1}=1, & g_{1}=14, \\
q_{1}(1)=5, & \mathcal{S}_{2}=\{4,3,1\}, & d_{2}=1, & g_{2}=45, \\
q_{2}=28, \\
q_{3}(1)=136, & \mathcal{S}_{3}=\{1,3,4\}, & d_{3}=7, & g_{3}=13, \\
q_{4}(1)=5, & \mathcal{S}_{4}=\{2,1,1,1,4,2,1\}, & d_{4}=1, & g_{4}=28, \\
q_{4}=45, \\
q_{5}(1)=2, & \mathcal{S}_{5}=\{8,1,1,\}, & d_{5}=1, & g_{5}=82, \\
r_{5}=14, \\
q_{6}(1)=274, & \mathcal{S}_{0}=\{1,1,8\}, & d_{6}=\Delta^{\prime}=7, & r_{6}=9 .
\end{array}
$$

Since $\varepsilon_{6}=0$ by the definition of $\varepsilon_{i}$, we have $\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{6}}=1$. Also, since $d_{6}=\Delta^{\prime}$, the computation of $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(1)}$ is complete and $\kappa=6$. In other words,

$$
\sqrt{D(1)}=(137, \overline{1,1,8,2,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,5,4,3,1,136,1,3,4,5,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,2,8,1,1,274})
$$

When $X=7 W+1$ for $W \in \mathbb{N}$, we find that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{D(7 W+1)}=\left(833 W+137, \overline{1,1,8, q_{1}(W), 1,2,4,1,1,1,2, q_{2}(W), 4,3,1, q_{3}(W)}\right. \\
&\left.\overline{1,3,4, q_{4}(W), 2,1,1,1,4,2,1, q_{5}(W), 8,1,1,2(833 W+137)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $q_{1}(W)=q_{5}(W)=17 W+2, \cdot q_{2}(W)=q_{4}(W)=34 W+5$ and $q_{3}(W)=833 W+136$. For instance, when $X=8=7 \cdot 1+1$, we have $\sqrt{D(8)}=(970, \overline{1,1,8,19,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,39,4,3,1,969,1,3,4,39,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,19,8,1,1,1940})$.

We compute the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(2)}$. We find that

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
q_{0}(2)=256, & \mathcal{S}_{0}=\{1,1,8\}, & d_{0}=\Delta^{\prime}=7,
\end{array} \quad r_{0}=9, ~ g_{1}=14, \quad r_{1}=14,
$$

Since $\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{2}}=1$ and $d_{2}=7=\Delta^{\prime}$, the computation is done and we have

$$
\sqrt{D(2)}=(256, \overline{1,1,8,5,8,1,1,512}) .
$$

Again, we notice that if $X \equiv 2 \bmod 7$, i.e., $X=7 W+2$ for some non-negative integer $W$, then

$$
\sqrt{D(7 W+2)}=(833 W+256, \overline{1,1,8,17 W+5,8,1,1,2(833 W+256)}) .
$$

For instance, we have $\sqrt{D(9)}=(1089, \overline{1,1,8,22,8,1,1,2178})$.
From the above example, we suspect $d_{i}=d_{\kappa-i}$ and $g_{i+1}=r_{\kappa-i-1}$ for $0 \leq i \leq \kappa$ when $r>0$. Indeed, this is always the case as we prove below.

Theorem 4.3.2 If $r>0$, then $d_{i}=d_{\kappa-i}$ for $0 \leq i \leq \kappa$.

Proof: Since $r>0, r_{i}>0$ for all $i \geq 0$ by Remark 4.2.1. By symmetry of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$, we have $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} /\left(d_{i} r_{i}\right)=\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}\right)$ and $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} /\left(d_{\kappa-i-1} r_{\kappa-i-1}\right)=$ $\left(s_{m-1}, s_{m-2}, \ldots, s_{0}\right)$ for some natural number $m$ and $0 \leq i \leq \kappa$. Let $A_{j} / B_{j}$ and $A_{j}^{\prime} / B_{j}^{\prime}$ be the $j$-th convergents of $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} /\left(d_{i} r_{i}\right)$ and $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} /\left(d_{\kappa-i-1} r_{\kappa-i-1}\right)$, respectively. Then

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}} & A_{m-2}  \tag{4.48}\\
\frac{r_{i}}{d_{i+1}} & B_{m-2}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{\kappa-i-1} d_{\kappa-i}} & A_{m-2}^{\prime} \\
\frac{r_{\kappa-i-1}}{d_{\kappa-i}} & B_{m-2}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)^{T}
$$

where $d_{i+1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)$ and $d_{\kappa-i}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{\kappa-i-1}, r_{\kappa-i-1}\right)$. It follows that $d_{i} d_{i+1}=$ $d_{\kappa-i-1} d_{\kappa-i}$ for all $i \geq 0$. Since $d_{0}=\Delta^{\prime}=d_{\kappa}$, we have $d_{1}=d_{\kappa-1}$. By induction, we get $d_{i}=d_{\kappa-i}$ for $i \geq 0$.

Theorem 4.3.3 If $r>0$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{r_{i}}{d_{i+1}} \frac{r_{\kappa-i-1}}{d_{i}} \equiv \sigma \bmod \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad g_{i+1}=r_{\kappa-i-1} \tag{4.49}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i \geq 0$.

Proof: Since $r>0$, we have $d_{\kappa-i}=d_{i}$ by Theorem 4.3.2. We may rewrite (4.48) as

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}} & A_{m-2}  \tag{4.50}\\
\frac{r_{i}}{d_{i+1}} & B_{m-2}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{\kappa-i-1} d_{\kappa-i}} & \frac{r_{\kappa-i-1}}{d_{i}} \\
A_{m-2}^{\prime} & B_{m-2}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

It follows that $A_{m-2}=r_{\kappa-i-1} / d_{i}$. Hence, $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i} d_{i+1} \cdot B_{m-2}-r_{i} / d_{i+1} \cdot r_{\kappa-i-1} / d_{i}=(-1)^{m}$, i.e.,

$$
\frac{r_{i}}{d_{i+1}} \cdot \frac{r_{\kappa-i-1}}{d_{i}} \equiv-(-1)^{m} \equiv \sigma \bmod \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}}
$$

By (4.47), we have $g_{i+1}=d_{i} H^{\prime}$ for some $H^{\prime}$ such that

$$
\frac{r_{i}}{d_{i+1}} H^{\prime} \equiv \sigma \bmod \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}} \quad \text { and } \quad 1 \leq H^{\prime} \leq \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i} d_{i+1}}
$$

This implies that $H^{\prime}=r_{\kappa-i-1} / d_{i}$. Hence, $g_{i+1}=d_{i} r_{\kappa-i-1} / d_{i}=r_{\kappa-i-1}$.

## Chapter 5

## Results Pertaining to the Continued Fraction Expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$

In this chapter, we use the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ given in Theorem 4.3.1 to establish three results: the number of different patterns of the continued fraction period of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ as $X$ varies, an explicit upper bound for the continued fraction period length of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ and the fundamental unit of the real quadratic order $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$.

By Theorem 4.3.1, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ not only depends on the coefficients $A, B$ and $C$, but also on the residue class of $X$ modulo $\Delta^{\prime}$, which is a function of $A, B, C$. By a pattern of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ we mean the sequence $\mathcal{S}_{0}, \mathcal{S}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{S}_{\kappa-1}$, where $\kappa$ is as defined in Theorem 4.3.1. By Remark 4.3.1, we know that if positive integers $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are sufficiently large and belong to the same residue class modulo $\Delta^{\prime}$, the expansions of $\sqrt{D\left(X_{1}\right)}$ and $\sqrt{D\left(X_{2}\right)}$ have the same pattern. However, if $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ belong to different residue classes, the expansions of $\sqrt{D\left(X_{1}\right)}$ and $\sqrt{D\left(X_{2}\right)}$ may have different patterns. In Section 5.1, we study the number of different patterns and show that this number is a divisor of $\Delta^{\prime}$.

In Section 5.2, we establish an upper bound for the period length of the expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$. More explicitly, we follow Schinzel's notation in denoting the period length of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ by $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ and show that

$$
\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})< \begin{cases}3 \Delta^{\prime} \cdot\left\lfloor\log _{\varphi}\left(\sqrt{5} \cdot A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}\right)\right\rfloor & \text { if } \Delta^{\prime} \text { is even } \\ 2 \Delta^{\prime} \cdot\left\lfloor\log _{\varphi}\left(\sqrt{5} \cdot A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}\right)\right\rfloor & \text { if } \Delta^{\prime} \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

where $\varphi=(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2$ is the golden ratio and $\log _{\varphi}(x)$ is the logarithm of $x$ with base $\varphi$.

In Section 5.3, we show that the fundamental unit of the quadratic order $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$ is given by

$$
|\Delta|^{\kappa / 2}\left(\frac{A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}}{|\Delta|}\right)^{\kappa}
$$

and the norm of it is $\sigma^{\kappa}$, where $\kappa$ is defined in Theorem 4.3.1.

### 5.1 Number of Patterns

In Example 4.3.1, we see that $\sqrt{119^{2} X^{2}+2(2205) X+343}$ with $X \in \mathbb{N}$ has two different patterns of expansion depending on whether $X \equiv 1$ or $X \equiv 2 \bmod 7$. As we run through the other five residue classes of 7 , we find that the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ exhibits another five different patterns depending on which residue class $X$ belongs to. They are represented by

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\sqrt{D(3)}= & (375, \overline{1,1,8,7,1,1,4,1,10,15,4,3,1,374,1,3,4,15,10,1,4,1,1,7,8,1,1,750}) \\
\sqrt{D(4)}= & (494, \overline{1,1,8,9,1,38,1,1,1,19,1,1,11,2,2,9,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,19}, \\
& \overline{1,4,5,1,3,9,1,4,1,18,1,19,4,3,1,493,1,3,4,19,1,18,1,4,1,9,3,1,5,4,1}, \\
& \overline{19,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,9,2,2,11,1,1,19,1,1,1,38,1,9,8,1,1,988}) \\
\sqrt{D(5)}= & (613, \overline{1,1,8,12,2,2,11,1,1,24,1,1,11,2,2,12,8,1,1,1226}) \\
\sqrt{D(6)}= & (732 \overline{1,1,8,14,1,4,1,18,1,28,1,18,1,4,1,14,8,1,1,1464}) \\
\sqrt{D(7)}= & (851, \overline{1,1,8,17,3,1,5,4,1,33,1,18,1,4,1,16,1,1,4,1,10,34,1,1,1,38,1,16} \\
& \frac{2,2,11,1,1,34,4,3,1,850,1,3,4,34,1,1,11,2,2}{}
\end{array}\right)
$$

This observation may suggest that the number of different patterns exhibited by the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is $\Delta^{\prime}$. This is not always true as we shall see below.

By Lemma 4.2.2, when the coefficients $A, B$ and $C$ are fixed, the terms $r_{0}, d_{1}$ and $g_{1}$ are
independent of $X$. By Lemma 4.2.3, the first quantity that depends on $X$, or $K$, is $r_{1}$. By our inductive approach in Theorem 4.3.1, we see that for $i \geq 1$, the terms $d_{i,} g_{i}$ and $r_{i+1}$ depend on $r_{1}$, which depends on $K$ by Lemma 4.2.3. By (4.33) and since $d_{1}=1$, we write

$$
r_{1}(K) \equiv \frac{2 A^{2} K+2 B}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}, \quad \text { where } \quad 0 \leq r_{1}(K)<A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}
$$

Lemma 5.1.1 If $r_{1}(0)=r_{1}(K)$ for some $K \geq 0$, then $r_{1}(i)=r_{1}(K+i)$ for all $i \geq 0$.
Proof: Suppose that for some $K$, we have $r_{1}(0)=r_{1}(K)$. Then

$$
r_{1}(0) \equiv \frac{2 A^{2}(0)+2 B}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \equiv \frac{2 B}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}
$$

and

$$
r_{1}(K) \equiv \frac{2 A^{2} K+2 B}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \equiv r_{1}(0) \equiv \frac{2 B}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}
$$

It follows that

$$
\frac{2 A^{2} K}{\triangle_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}} \equiv 0 \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}
$$

Now, for any integer $i$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
r_{1}(K+i) & \equiv \frac{2 A^{2}(K+i)+2 B}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \equiv \frac{\left(2 A^{2} K\right)}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}+\frac{\left(2 A^{2} i+2 B\right)}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} \\
& \equiv r_{1}(i) \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $r_{1}(K+i)$ and $r_{1}(i)$ are residues of modulo $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}$, we have $r_{1}(K+i)=r_{1}(i)$.
By (4.8), we have $\Delta_{4} \mid A$ and $\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} \mid 2 A$. Thus, $2 A^{2} \Delta^{\prime} /\left(\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}$. It follows that

$$
r_{1}\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \equiv \frac{2 A^{2} \Delta^{\prime}+2 B}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \equiv \frac{2 B}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \equiv r_{1}(0) \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}
$$

This implies that $r_{1}(0)=r_{1}\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$. Hence, by Lemma 5.1.1, we see that $r_{1}(i)=r_{1}\left(\Delta^{\prime}+i\right)$ for all $i \geq 0$, i.e., the pattern repeats modulo $\Delta^{\prime}$.

We define the number of patterns $\rho$ to be the minimal number of distinct values among $r_{1}(0), r_{1}(1), \ldots, r_{1}\left(\Delta^{\prime}-1\right)$. In other words, we have $r_{1}(0)=r_{1}(\rho)$ with $\rho \geq 0$ minimal. By Lemma 5.1.1, it follows that $r_{1}(i)=r_{1}(\rho+i)$ for all $i \geq 0$. Also, we have

Theorem 5.1.1 $\rho \mid \Delta^{\prime}$.
Proof: Write $\Delta^{\prime}=\rho\left\lfloor\Delta^{\prime} / \rho\right\rfloor+\gamma$, where $0 \leq \gamma<\rho$. Then,

$$
r_{1}\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \equiv \frac{\left(2 A^{2} \Delta^{\prime}+2 B\right)}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \equiv \frac{\left(2 A^{2} \gamma+2 B\right)}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \equiv r_{1}(\gamma) \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}
$$

Since $r_{1}\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)=r_{1}(0)=r_{1}(\rho)$, we have $r_{1}(\gamma)=r_{1}(\rho)$. Since $\rho$ is minimal, $\gamma=0$.
Note that in Example 4.3.1, we have $\Delta^{\prime}=7$, which is a prime. So, the possible divisors are 1 and 7. In that particular example, we have 7 different patterns.

Example 5.1.1 Consider $D(X)=833^{2} X^{2}+2 \cdot 114562 X+18914$. We have $A=833=7^{2} \cdot 17$, $B=114562=2 \cdot 7^{3} \cdot 167, C=18914=2 \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 193$ and $\Delta=235298=2 \cdot 7^{6}=2 \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 7^{4}$, so that $\Delta_{1}=2, \Delta_{2}=7$ and $\Delta_{4}=7$. Also, we find that $\Delta^{\prime}=7$. By Theorem 5.1.1, we expect the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ to have either 1 or 7 different patterns. Moreover, by (4.18), the sufficient size of $X$ is $X>\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} / A-B / A^{2}+1 /(2 A) \approx-0.047$. Here, we consider $X=1$.

We find that
$\sqrt{D(1)}=(970, \overline{1,1,8,19,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,39,4,3,1,969,1,3,4,39,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,19,8,1,1,1940})$,
$\sqrt{D(2)}=(1803, \overline{1,1,8,36,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,73,4,3,1,1802,1,3,4,73,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,36,8,1,1,3606})$, and for all $X \in \mathbb{N}$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(X)}=(833 X+137 & \overline{1,1,8, q_{1}(X), 1,2,4,1,1,1,2, q_{2}(X), 4,3,1, q_{3}(X)} \\
& \left.\overline{1,3,4, q_{4}(X), 2,1,1,1,4,2,1, q_{5}(X), 8,1,1,1666 X+274}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $q_{1}(X)=q_{5}(X)=17 X+2, q_{2}(X)=q_{4}(X)=34 X+5$ and $q_{3}(X)=833 X+136$. Therefore, there is only one pattern. Note that 1 divides $7=\Delta^{\prime}$.

Since the continued fraction expansion of a quadratic irrational is unique and the expansions in the above example are the same as those in Example 4.3 .1 with $X \equiv 1 \bmod 7$, we are led to think that $D(X)=833^{2} X^{2}+2 \cdot 114562 X+18914$ is a special case of $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2205) X+343$ for some $X \in \mathbb{N}$. Indeed, if we substitute $X=7 Y+1$ into $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2205) X+343$, then $D(7 Y+1)=119^{2}(7 Y+1)^{2}+2(2205)(7 Y+1)+343=833^{2} Y^{2}+2 \cdot 114562 Y+18914$.

### 5.2 Upper Bound for $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$

In the previous chapter, we established the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for any quadratic $D(X)$ that satisfies the Schinzel condition. In this section, we focus on the period length of $\sqrt{D(X)}, \operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$. When Schinzel established the result concerning the boundedness of $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$, he did not provide an explicit upper bound for $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$. Here, we give an explicit upper bound on $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$.

By Theorem 4.3.1, we know that the calculation of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ ends when $d_{\kappa}=\Delta^{\prime}$ and $\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{\kappa}}=1$ for some minimal $\kappa$. Hence, if we write

$$
\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|=\left|\mathcal{S}\left(\frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i}}, r_{i}\right)\right|=\left|\mathcal{S}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta, d_{i} r_{i}\right)\right|
$$

as the cardinality of the set $\mathcal{S}_{i}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})=\sum_{i=0}^{\kappa-1}\left(1+\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|\right) \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We are interested in obtaining an upper bound for $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|$. Recall that $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|$ is the length of the continued fraction expansion of $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i} r_{i}$ when $r_{i}>0$, and $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|=0$ or 1 when $r_{i}=0$. We henceforth consider $r_{i}>0$.

It is easy to see that the length of the continued fraction expansion of a rational number $a / r$ is determined by the number of division steps required when applying the Euclidean algorithm to $a / r$. Note that the length is not necessarily the same as the number of division steps since the finite continued fraction expansion of $a / r$ has two representations, depending on whether the last partial quotient is 1 or greater than 1. For our purpose, we need to consider the maximum length, i.e, the last partial quotient is 1. In 1845, G. Lamé gave an interesting result concerning the number of division steps of the Euclidean algorithm applied to a rational number. We restate it as follows: for fixed $n \geq 1$, let $a, r$ be integers with $0<r<a$ and $a$ minimal such that the continued fraction expansion of $a / r$ has length exactly $n$. Then $a=F_{n+1}$ and $r=F_{n}$, where $F_{i}$ is the $i$-th Fibonacci number.

If $0 \leq r<a<N$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$, then by Lamé's theorem, the maximum length occurs when $a=F_{n+1}$ and $r=F_{n}$, where $n$ is as large as possible with $F_{n+1}<N$. Denote the golden ratio by $\varphi=(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2$. It is well-known that $F_{i}=\left(\varphi^{i}-\bar{\varphi}^{i}\right) / \sqrt{5}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since $\bar{\varphi}^{i}$ gets very small in absolute value as $i$ increases, it is not difficult to see that $F_{n+1}<N$ implies $\varphi^{n+1} / \sqrt{5}<N$. It follows that $n+1<\log _{\varphi}(\sqrt{5} \cdot N)$. Hence, the maximum length for the continued fraction expansion of $a / r$ is at most $\left\lfloor\log _{\varphi}(\sqrt{5} \cdot N)\right\rfloor-1$. Interested readers in this area are referred to Knuth [91, p. 343] and Shallit [220].

On applying the above reasoning, we get $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right| \leq\left\lfloor\log _{\varphi}\left(\sqrt{5} \cdot A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}\right)\right\rfloor-1$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)}) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\kappa-1}\left(1+\left\lfloor\log _{\varphi}\left(\sqrt{5} \cdot A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}\right)\right\rfloor-1\right)=\kappa \cdot\left\lfloor\log _{\varphi}\left(\sqrt{5} \cdot A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}\right)\right\rfloor \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now it remains to determine an upper bound on the value of $\kappa$. We will show that if $\Delta^{\prime} \mid 2$, then $\kappa=1,2,3,4$ or 6 . Also, we will establish two general results regarding upper bounds for $\kappa$ : $\kappa \mid 2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ and

$$
\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \leq\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\Delta^{\prime} & \text { if } \Delta^{\prime} \text { is odd } \\
(3 / 2) \Delta^{\prime} & \text { if } \Delta^{\prime} \text { is even }
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ is the rank of apparition of $\Delta^{\prime}$ in a certain Lucas function $U_{n}$.
Lemma 5.2.1 If $D(X)$ satisfies the Schinzel condition, then $\Delta_{1} \mid 2 D(X)$.
Proof: Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(A, B)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{B}{d}\right)^{2}-\left(\frac{A}{d}\right)^{2} C= \pm \Delta_{1}\left(\frac{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d}\right)^{2} \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C$ divides $4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$, it follows that

$$
\Delta_{1}\left(\frac{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d}\right)^{2} \left\lvert\, \operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{2 A^{2}}{d}, \frac{2 B}{d}\right)^{2}\right.
$$

Since $\Delta_{1}$ is squarefree, it follows that $\Delta_{1}$ divides both $2 A^{2} / d$ and $2 B / d$. In view of (5.3), we get $\Delta_{1} \mid(2 A / d)^{2} C$. Again, since $\Delta_{1}$ is squarefree, we have $\Delta_{1} \mid(2 A / d) C$. Since $A / d$ and $B / d$ are relatively prime, $\Delta_{1}$ divides $2 C$. Therefore, $\Delta_{1}$ divides $2\left(A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C\right)$, which is $2 D(X)$.

Lemma 5.2.2 If $d_{k}=\Delta^{\prime}$ and $\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{k}} \neq 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ minimal, then $\kappa=2 k$.

Proof: Suppose that $d_{k}=\Delta^{\prime}$ but $\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{k}} \neq 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\varepsilon_{k}=1, \Delta_{1}>1$ and $\mathbf{Q}_{k}=$ $\Delta_{1}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{k}\right)=\Delta_{1}$. Since $\Delta_{1}=\mathrm{Q}_{k} \mid D(X)-\mathrm{P}_{k}{ }^{2}$ and $\Delta_{1} \mid 2 D(X)$ by Lemma 5.2.1, we have $\Delta_{1} \mid 2 \mathbf{P}_{k}{ }^{2}$. Since $\Delta_{1}$ is squarefree by assumption, we have $\Delta_{1} \mid 2 \mathbf{P}_{k}$. Hence, $\mathrm{Q}_{2 k}=1$ by Theorem 1.2.3. Now, if $k$ is minimal, then $\kappa=2 k$.

In the sequel, we put

$$
\begin{equation*}
T=\frac{2 A^{2} K+2 B}{\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}} \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The following theorem recaptures the result of van der Poorten and Williams discussed in Section 2.4. Assuming $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree, the two authors showed that, in our notation, $\kappa$ is $1,2,3$ or 6 . It is not difficult to see that when $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ is squarefree, $\Delta_{4}=1$, and consequently $\Delta^{\prime} \mid 2$. Indeed, we have

Theorem 5.2.1 If $\Delta^{\prime} \mid 2$, then $\kappa=1,2,3,4$ or 6 . More explicitly,

| $\Delta^{\prime}$ | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\Delta_{1}$ | 1 | $>1$ | any | 1 | $>1$ | any |
| $T / \Delta_{1}$ | any | any | even | odd | odd | odd |
| $T$ | any | any | any | odd | odd | even |
| $\kappa$ | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 6 | 4 |

Table 5.1: Values of $\kappa$ when $\Delta^{\prime} \mid 2$.
Proof: By Lemma 4.2.2, we have $d_{1}=1$. If $\Delta^{\prime} \mid 2$, then $\Delta^{\prime}=1$ or 2 .
Case (1): If $\Delta^{\prime}=1$, then $\mathrm{Q}_{1}=\Delta_{1}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{1}\right)^{2}=\Delta_{1}$. If $\Delta_{1}=1$, then $\kappa=1$. If $\Delta_{1}>1$, then by Lemma 5.2.2, we are half-way through the period of the continued fraction of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ and $\kappa=2$.

Case (2): Suppose that $\Delta^{\prime}=2$. Then

$$
r_{1} \equiv \frac{2 A^{2} K+2 B}{\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}-g_{1} \equiv \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}}-g_{1} \bmod 2 A^{\prime}
$$

Since $\Delta^{\prime}=2$, by (4.19), we see that $g_{1}$ is even. Hence, $r_{1} \equiv T / \Delta_{1} \bmod 2$.
If $T / \Delta_{1}$ is even, then $r_{1}$ is even. Hence, $d_{2}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{1}, r_{1}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2 A^{\prime}, r_{1}\right)$ is even. Since $d_{2} \mid \Delta^{\prime}$, it follows that $d_{2}=2$. Hence, $\mathrm{Q}_{2}=\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{2}\right)^{2}=1$ and $\kappa=2$.

If $T / \Delta_{1}$ is odd, then $r_{1}$ is odd. This implies that $d_{2}$, being a divisor of $r_{1}$, must also be odd. Since $d_{2} \mid \Delta^{\prime}, d_{2}=1$. Hence, the congruence $g_{2} r_{1} /\left(d_{1} d_{2}\right) \equiv \sigma \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} /\left(d_{1} d_{2}\right)$ can be written as $g_{2} r_{1} \equiv \sigma \bmod 2 A^{\prime}$. Thus, $g_{2}$ is odd. Since $d_{1}=1, d_{2}=1, \varepsilon_{2}=0$ and $g_{2}$ is odd, the congruence $r_{2} \equiv d_{2} T / \Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{2}}-g_{2} \equiv T-g_{2} \bmod 2 A^{\prime}$ implies that $r_{2} \equiv T-1 \bmod 2$.

If $T$ is odd, i.e., $r_{2}$ is even, then $d_{3}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2 A^{\prime}, r_{2}\right)$ is even. Thus, $d_{3}=2$ and $Q_{3}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{3}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{3}\right)^{2}=$ $\Delta_{1}$. If $\Delta_{1}=1$, then $\kappa=3$. If $\Delta_{1}>1$, then by Lemma $5.2 .2, \kappa=6$.

If $T$ is even, i.e., $r_{2}$ is odd, then $d_{3}=1$ and $g_{3} r_{2} \equiv \sigma \bmod 2 A^{\prime}$ implies that $g_{3}$ is odd. Hence, $r_{3} \equiv T / \Delta_{1}-g_{3} \equiv 0 \bmod 2$. This implies that $d_{4}=2$ and $Q_{4}=\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{4}\right)^{2}=1$. Hence, $\kappa=4$.

Remark 5.2.1 van der Poorten and Williams obtain their results by making use of the continued
fraction expansion of $\sqrt{C}$. In terms of our notation, they show that when $X$ is sufficiently large, $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ are segments of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{C}$. Although we do not pay any particular attention to $\sqrt{C}$, it is clear that we arrive at the same conclusion when $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$.

We illustrate the six cases in Table 5.1 of Theorem 5.2.1 in the following.
Example 5.2.1 Case (1): When $\Delta^{\prime}=1$ and $\Delta_{1}=1$, take $D(X)=4^{2} X^{2}+2(15) X+14$ as in Example 2.4.1. Then $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C=15^{2}-16 \cdot 14=1$. So, $\Delta_{1}=\Delta_{2}=\Delta_{4}=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=1$. For sufficiently large $X$, we have $\sqrt{D(X)}=(4 X+3, \overline{1,2,1,8 X+6})$. It is not difficult to see that $\kappa=1$ in this case.

Case (2): When $\Delta^{\prime}=1$ and $\Delta_{1}>1$, take $D(X)=36^{2} X^{2}+2(168) X+22$. Then $A=3 \cdot 12$, $B=12 \cdot 14, C=22$ and $|\Delta|=|-288|=\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}=2 \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 2^{4}$. So, $\Delta_{1}>1$. Also, $\tau=1$ and $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)=6, \Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)=2$, and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=1$. Thus, by Theorem 5.1.1, we have $\rho=1$. Further, we compute

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(36 X+4, \overline{1,2,36 X+4,2,1,72 X+8}) \quad \text { and } \quad \kappa=2
$$

Case (3): When $\Delta^{\prime}=2$ and $T / \Delta_{I}$ is even, consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2037) X+293$. Then, $A=119, B=2037, C=293$ and $\Delta=2^{2} \cdot 7^{2}$. Also, $\Delta_{1}=1, \Delta_{2}=14, \Delta_{4}=1, \tau=2, A^{*}=17$, $\Gamma=1$, and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=2$.

When $X \equiv 1 \bmod 2$, i.e., $K=1$ and $X=2 W+1$, where $W \geq 0$, we have $T=2314=T / \Delta_{1}$, which is even. Now,

$$
\sqrt{D(2 W+1)}=(238 W+136,8,1,1,119 W+67,1,1,8,476 W+272) \text { and } \kappa=2
$$

Case (4): When $\Delta^{\prime}=2, \Delta_{1}=1, T$ is odd and $T / \Delta_{1}$ is odd, consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+$ $2(2037) X+293$ with $X \equiv 0 \bmod 2$, i.e., $K=0$ and $X=2 W$, where $W \geq 1$. We find that $T=4337=T / \Delta_{1}$,

$$
\sqrt{D(2 W)}=(238 W+17, \overline{8,1,1,119 W+8,34,119 W+8,1,1,8,476 W+34}) \text { and } \kappa=3
$$

Case (5): When $\Delta^{\prime}=2, \Delta_{1}>1, T$ is odd and $T / \Delta_{1}$ is odd, consider $D(X)=30^{2} X^{2}+2(50) X+5$, then $A=30, B=50, C=5$ and $\Delta=-2000=-2^{4} \cdot 5^{3}$. Also, $\Delta_{1}=5, \Delta_{2}=5, \Delta_{4}=2, \tau=1$, $A^{*}=3, \Gamma=1$, and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=2$.

When $X$ is an odd natural number, i.e, $X=2 W+1$ for some $W \geq 0$, we have $T=95$, $T / \Delta_{1}=19$,

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\sqrt{D(2 W+1)}=(60 W+31, \overline{1,2,6 W+2,1,5,30 W+15,1,2,24 W+12} \\
\overline{2,1,30 W+15,5,1,6 W+2,2,1,120 W+62})
\end{array}
$$

and $\kappa=6$.
When $X$ is an even natural number, i.e, $X=2 W$ for some $W \geq 1$, we find $T=185$ and $T / \Delta_{1}=37$. Further, we compute
$\sqrt{D(2 W)}=(60 W+1,1,2,6 W-1,1,5,30 W, 1,2,24 W, 2,1,30 W, 5,1,6 W-1,2,1,120 W+2)$
and $\kappa=6$.
It is easy to see that the above two expansions have the same pattern. In fact, for any natural number $X$, we have
$\sqrt{D(X)}=(30 X+1, \overline{1,2,3 X-1,1,5,15 X, 1,2,12 X, 2,1,15 X, 5,1,3 X-1,2,1,60 X+2})$.

Case (6): If $D(X)=24^{2} X^{2}+2(80) X+12$, then $A=24, B=80, C=12$ and $\Delta=-512=-2^{9}$. Also, $\Delta_{1}=2, \Delta_{2}=1, \Delta_{4}=4, \tau=1, A^{*}=6, \Gamma=2$, and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=2$.

When $X$ is an odd natural number, i.e, we have $X=2 W+1$, where $W \geq 0$, we find that $T=82$ is even and $T / \Delta_{1}=41$ is odd. Now,

$$
\sqrt{D(2 W+1)}=(48 W+27, \overline{2,1,12 W+6,5,1,24 W+12,1,5,12 W+6,1,2,96 W+54})
$$

and $\kappa=4$.

When $X$ is an even natural number, i.e, we have $X=2 W$, where $W \geq 1$, we find that $T=154$ is even, $T / \Delta_{1}=77$ is odd,

$$
\sqrt{D(2 W)}=(48 W+3, \overline{2,1,12 W, 5,1,24 W, 1,5,12 W, 1,2,96 W+6})
$$

and $\kappa=4$. In fact, for $X \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(24 X+3, \overline{2,1,6 X, 5,1,12 X, 1,5,6 X, 1,2,48 X+6})
$$

In what follows, we use the Lucas function $U_{n}$ to establish an upper bound for $\kappa$. Put

$$
\begin{equation*}
P=\frac{T^{2}}{\Delta_{1}}-2 \sigma \tag{5.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\alpha$ and $\beta$ be roots of $x^{2}-P x+1=0$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha+\beta=P \quad \text { and } \quad \alpha \beta=1 \tag{5.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $U_{n}=\left(\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}\right) /(\alpha-\beta)$ as in Section 1.7. Then $U_{0}=0, U_{1}=1, U_{2}=P$, and $U_{i+1}=P U_{i}-U_{i-1}$ for $i \in \mathbb{N}$. We will show that if $\omega$ is the rank of apparition of $\Delta^{\prime}$ in the Lucas function $U_{n}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa \mid 2 \omega . \tag{5.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Before we proceed to the theorem, we need several results.

Lemma 5.2.3 For all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{i} r_{i+1} \equiv d_{i+1} r_{i} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}}-\sigma d_{i} d_{i+1} \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} \tag{5.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof: If $r_{i}=0$, then by Theorem 4.3.1, $d_{i+1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)$. So we get $d_{i+1}=A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}$. Hence, $d_{i} d_{i+1} \equiv 0 \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}$ and (5.8) holds trivially.

Suppose that $r_{i} \neq 0$. By (4.33), we have

$$
r_{i+1} \equiv d_{i+1} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}}-g_{i+1} \bmod \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}}{d_{i+1}}
$$

Thus,

$$
r_{i} r_{i+1} \equiv d_{i+1} r_{i} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}}-g_{i+1} r_{i} \bmod \frac{A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} r_{i}}{d_{i+1}}
$$

Since $d_{i+1} \mid r_{i}$, we have

$$
r_{i} r_{i+1} \equiv d_{i+1} r_{i} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}}-g_{i+1} r_{i} \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}
$$

By (4.44), we get

$$
r_{i} r_{i+1} \equiv d_{i+1} r_{i} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}}-\sigma d_{i} d_{i+1} \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}
$$

Lemma 5.2.4 $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d_{i}, d_{i+1}\right)=1$ for all $i \geq 1$.

Proof: We prove this lemma by induction on $i \in \mathbb{N}$. By Lemma 4.2.2, we have $d_{1}=1$. Hence, the result holds for $i=1$. Suppose that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d_{i}, d_{i+1}\right)=1$ for some $i \geq 1$. Let $p$ be a prime dividing $d_{i+1}$, then $p \nmid d_{i}$. By Theorem 4.3.1, we have $d_{i+1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)$. It follows that $p \mid r_{i}$ and $p \mid A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}$. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $p^{n} \| A^{\prime} \Delta / d_{i}$.
Case (1): If $p^{n} \mid r_{i}$, then $p^{n} \| d_{i+1}$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}, \Delta^{\prime}\right)=1$ by (4.14), we have $p \nmid A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i+1}$. Hence, $p \nmid d_{i+2}$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d_{i+1}, d_{i+2}\right)=1$.
Case (2): Suppose that $p^{n} \nmid r_{i}$. Then $r_{i} \neq 0$ and there exists some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $m<n$ and $p^{m} \| r_{i}$. Hence, $p^{m} \| d_{i+1}$. By (5.8), we may write

$$
\frac{r_{i}}{p^{m}} r_{i+1} \equiv d_{i+1} \frac{r_{i}}{p^{m}} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}}-\sigma d_{i} \frac{d_{i+1}}{p^{m}} \bmod p^{n-m}
$$

If $p \mid r_{i+1}$, then since $p \mid d_{i+1}$ and $p \mid p^{n-m}$, we get $p \mid \sigma d_{i} d_{i+1} / p^{m}$, a contradiction. Hence, $p \nmid r_{i+1}$ and it follows that $p \nmid \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i+1}, r_{i+1}\right)$, which is $d_{i+2}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d_{i+1}, d_{i+2}\right)=1$.

Put

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z_{-1}=0, \quad Z_{0}=1 \text { and } Z_{i+1}=\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}} Z_{i}-\sigma Z_{i-1} \text { for } i \geq 0 \tag{5.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows that for $i \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$
Z_{2 i}=T Z_{2 i-1}-\sigma Z_{2 i-2} \quad \text { and } \quad Z_{2 i+1}=\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}} Z_{2 i}-\sigma Z_{2 i-1}
$$

We compute further to get from (5.5)

$$
Z_{2 i}=P Z_{2 i-2}-Z_{2 i-4} \quad \text { and } \quad Z_{2 i+1}=P Z_{2 i-1}-Z_{2 i-3}
$$

where the first equation holds for $i \geq 2$ and the second one holds for $i \geq 1$.
If we use the Lucas function $U_{n}$ in (5.6), then we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Z_{2}=\frac{T^{2}}{\Delta_{1}}-\sigma=\left(\frac{T^{2}}{\Delta_{1}}-\sigma\right) \cdot 1-0=\left(\frac{T^{2}}{\Delta_{1}}-\sigma\right) U_{1}-U_{0} \\
& Z_{3}=P\left(\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}}\right)=\left(\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}}\right) U_{2} \\
& Z_{4}=P Z_{2}-Z_{0}=P\left(\frac{T^{2}}{\Delta_{1}}-\sigma\right)-1=\left(\frac{T^{2}}{\Delta_{1}}-\sigma\right) U_{2}-U_{1} \\
& Z_{5}=P Z_{3}-Z_{1}=P\left(\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}}\right) U_{2}-\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}}=\left(\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}}\right) U_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

By induction on $i \in \mathbb{N}$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z_{2 i}=\left(\frac{T^{2}}{\Delta_{1}}-\sigma\right) U_{i}-U_{i-1}=U_{i+1}+\sigma U_{i} \quad \text { and } \quad Z_{2 i+1}=\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}} U_{i+1} \tag{5.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 5.2.5 $\operatorname{gcd}\left(Z_{i}, Z_{i+1}\right)=1$ for all $i \geq 0$.
Proof: Let $p$ be a prime that divides $\operatorname{gcd}\left(Z_{i}, Z_{i+1}\right)$. It follows from (5.9) that $p \mid Z_{i-1}$. By induction, we find $p$ divides $\operatorname{gcd}\left(Z_{0}, Z_{1}\right)=1$, hence, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(Z_{i}, Z_{i+1}\right)=1$.

Lemma 5.2.6 $d_{i} Z_{i} \equiv r_{i} Z_{i-1} \bmod \dot{\Delta}^{\prime}$ for all $i \geq 0$.

Proof: We prove by induction on $i$. The statement holds trivially if $\Delta^{\prime}=1$, so we assume $\Delta^{\prime}>1$. Since $Z_{-1}=0$ and $d_{0}=\Delta^{\prime}$, it is clear that $d_{0} Z_{0} \equiv 0 \equiv r_{0} Z_{-1} \bmod \Delta^{\prime}$. Further, since $Z_{0}=1$ and $Z_{1}=T / \Delta_{1}$ and by Lemma 4.2.2, $d_{1}=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime} \mid g_{1}$, it follows that

$$
d_{1} Z_{1}=\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}} \equiv \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}}-g_{1} \equiv r_{1} \equiv r_{1} Z_{0} \bmod \Delta^{\prime}
$$

Let $p$ be a prime such that $p^{n} \| \Delta^{\prime}$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that for some $i \geq 1$ and all $j$ such that $0 \leq j \leq i$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{j} Z_{j} \equiv r_{j} Z_{j-1} \bmod p^{n} \tag{5.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that

$$
\begin{align*}
d_{i+1} r_{i} Z_{i+1} & =d_{i+1} r_{i}\left(\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}} Z_{i}-\sigma Z_{i-1}\right)  \tag{5.12}\\
& =\dot{d_{i+1} r_{i}} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}} Z_{i}-\sigma d_{i+1} r_{i} Z_{i-1} \\
& \equiv d_{i+1} r_{i} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}} Z_{i}-\sigma d_{i} d_{i+1} Z_{i} \bmod d_{i+1} p^{n} \\
& \equiv\left(d_{i+1} r_{i} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}}-\sigma d_{i} d_{i+1}\right) Z_{i} \bmod d_{i+1} p^{n} \tag{5.13}
\end{align*}
$$

So, by Lemma 5.2.3, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{i+1} r_{i} Z_{i+1} \equiv r_{i} r_{i+1} Z_{i} \bmod p^{n} \tag{5.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case (1): If $p \nmid r_{i}$, then

$$
d_{i+1} Z_{i+1} \equiv r_{i+1} Z_{i} \bmod p^{n}
$$

For the remaining cases, we assume $p \mid r_{i}$.
Case (2): If $p \mid d_{i}$, then $p^{n} \nmid d_{i-1}$ and $p \nmid d_{i+1}$ by Lemma 5.2.4. Since $d_{i+1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)$, it follows that $p^{n} \| d_{i}$. Since $d_{i} \mid r_{i-1}$, we have $p^{n} \mid r_{i-1}$. By (5.11) with $j=i-1$, we have $p^{n} \mid Z_{i-1}$.

Hence, by (5.9),

$$
Z_{i+1}=\frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}} Z_{i}-\sigma Z_{i-1} \equiv \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}} Z_{i} \bmod p^{n}
$$

Since $p^{n} \mid \Delta^{\prime}$, by (4.33),

$$
r_{i+1} \equiv d_{i+1} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}}-g_{i+1} \bmod p^{n}
$$

If $r_{i}=0$, then $g_{i+1} \equiv 0 \bmod d_{i}$ by Lemma 4.2.5. If $r_{i}>0$, then $g_{i+1} \equiv 0 \bmod d_{i}$ by (4.47). Since $p^{n} \| d_{i}$, we have

$$
r_{i+1} \equiv d_{i+1} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}} \bmod p^{n}
$$

Thus,

$$
d_{i+1} Z_{i+1} \equiv d_{i+1} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}} Z_{i} \equiv r_{i+1} Z_{i} \bmod p^{n}
$$

For Cases (3) and (4), we assume $p \nmid d_{i}$.
Case (3): If $p^{n} \mid r_{i}$, then by (5.11) with $j=i$, we have $p^{n} \mid Z_{i}$. Since $p \nmid d_{i}$, it follows that $p^{n}$ divides $d_{i+1}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}, r_{i}\right)$. Hence, trivially,

$$
d_{i+1} Z_{i+1} \equiv 0 \equiv r_{i+1} Z_{i} \bmod p^{n}
$$

Case (4): If $p^{n} \nmid r_{i}$, then $r_{i} \neq 0$ and there exists some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n>m$ and $p^{m} \| r_{i}$. Since $p \nmid d_{i}$, we have $p^{m} \| d_{i+1}$. Now, $p^{m} \| Z_{i}$ by (5.11) with $j=i$. Now, by (5.8), we may write

$$
r_{i} r_{i+1} Z_{i} \equiv\left(d_{i+1} r_{i} \frac{T}{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i+1}}}-\sigma d_{i} d_{i+1}\right) Z_{i} \bmod p^{m+n}
$$

Thus, by (5.13), we have $d_{i+1} r_{i} Z_{i+1} \equiv\left(r_{i} r_{i+1}\right) Z_{i} \bmod p^{m+n}$. Since $p^{m} \| r_{i}$, it follows that $d_{i+1} Z_{i+1} \equiv r_{i+1} Z_{i} \bmod p^{n}$.

Therefore, the statement holds for all $i \geq 0$ by induction.

Theorem 5.2.2 Let $\omega$ be the rank of apparition of $\Delta^{\prime}$ in $U_{n}$. Then $\kappa \mid 2 \omega$, which implies that $\kappa \leq 2 \omega$.

Proof: By Lemmas 5.2.5 and 5.2.6, it follows that $\Delta^{\prime} \mid Z_{i}$ implies $\Delta^{\prime} \mid d_{i+1}$ for $i \geq 0$. If $\omega$ is the rank of apparition of $\Delta^{\prime}$ in the Lucas function $U_{n}$, then $\Delta^{\prime} \mid U_{\omega}$. By (5.10), we have $\Delta^{\prime} \mid Z_{2 \omega-1}$ and hence, $\Delta^{\prime} \mid d_{2 \omega}$. Since $d_{2 \omega} \mid \Delta^{\prime}$ by Remark 4.2.2, it follows that $d_{2 \omega}=\Delta^{\prime}$. Since $\mathrm{Q}_{i}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i}}\left(\Delta^{\prime} / d_{i}\right)^{2}$ by (4.40) or (4.45), we have

$$
\mathrm{Q}_{2 \omega}=\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{2 \omega}}\left(\frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{d_{2 \omega}}\right)^{2}=1
$$

Since $\kappa$ by definition is the least natural number such that $\mathrm{Q}_{\kappa}=1$, we have $\kappa \leq 2 \omega$. Also, since the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is periodic, we have $\kappa \mid 2 \omega$.

Example 5.2.2 Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(833) X+245$. Then $A=119, B=833, C=245$, $\Delta=-2^{2} \cdot 7^{4} \cdot 17^{2}$ and $\sigma=-1$. Also, $\Delta_{1}=1, \Delta_{2}=34, \Delta_{4}=7$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=14$. For $X \geq 2$, as $K$ varies from 0 to 13 , we compute $\kappa$ and $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ and arrive at Table 5.2:

| $K$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\kappa$ | 24 | 8 | 6 | 8 | 24 | 6 | 6 | 8 | 24 | 2 | 24 | 8 | 6 | 6 |
| $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ | 12 | 4 | 21 | 4 | 12 | 6 | 3 | 4 | 12 | 14 | 12 | 4 | 3 | 6 |

Table 5.2: Values of $\kappa$ and $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ of $\sqrt{119^{2} X^{2}+2(833) X+245}$.

Observe that aside from the exceptional cases at $K=2$ and 9 , in which $\Delta^{\prime}=7$ divides $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$, we see that $\kappa=2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or $\kappa=\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$. This phenomenon can be further demonstrated.

Example 5.2.3 Let $D(X)=2002^{2} X^{2}+2(44044)+605$. Then, $A=2002, B=44044, C=605$ and $\Delta=-2^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{4} \cdot 13^{2}$. Also, $\Delta_{1}=1 ; \Delta_{2}=2 \cdot 7 \cdot 13, \Delta_{4}=11, \tau=1, A^{*}=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=11$. Let $X \geq 1$. For $0 \leq K<\Delta^{\prime}=11$, we compute $\kappa$ as well as $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ in the Lucas function $U_{n}$ and arrive at Table 5.3.

| $K$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\kappa$ | 10 | 12 | 12 | 10 | 4 | 12 | 10 | 2 | 10 | 12 | 4 |
| $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ | 5 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 11 | 5 | 6 | 4 |

Table 5.3: Values of $\kappa$ and $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ of $\sqrt{2002^{2} X^{2}+2(44044)+605}$.
Again, excluding the exceptional case at $K=7$, where $\Delta^{\prime}=11$ divides $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$, we see that $\kappa$ is either $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or $2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$.

Example 5.2.4 Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2023) X+1445$. We have $\Delta=-2^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 17^{4}$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=34$. For $X \geq 9$,

| $K$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\kappa$ | 9 | 34 | 24 | 18 | 9 | 8 | 51 | 18 | 9 | 6 | 24 | 4 | 6 | 4 | 24 | 6 | 9 |
| $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ | 9 | 34 | 12 | 18 | 9 | 4 | 51 | 18 | 9 | 6 | 12 | 4 | 51 | 4 | 12 | 6 | 9 |
| $K$ | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 |
| $\kappa$ | 18 | 51 | 8 | 9 | 18 | 24 | 34 | 9 | 18 | 3 | 8 | 12 | 2 | 12 | 8 | 3 | 18 |
| $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ | 18 | 51 | 4 | 9 | 18 | 12 | 34 | 9 | 18 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 34 | 6 | 4 | 3 | 18 |

Table 5.4: Values of $\kappa$ and $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ of $\sqrt{119^{2} X^{2}+2(2023) X+1445}$.
We see that $\kappa$ is either $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or $2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ when $K$ is not 12 or 29 .
It is not difficult to see from the above tables that $\kappa \mid 2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ as asserted by Theorem 5.2.2. More importantly, Tables 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4 suggest that $\kappa$ is either the rank of apparition of $\Delta^{\prime}$ in the Lucas function $U_{n}$ or twice that in most cases. Indeed, from our other computations, we find that is so.

As we have seen above, the use of $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ gives us a good upper bound for $\kappa$. However, it may be time consuming to find $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$. It will be more practical to have an upper bound that does not require any additional computations. For this purpose we have

Theorem 5.2.3 $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \leq \Delta^{\prime}$ if $\Delta^{\prime}$ is odd and $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \leq(3 / 2) \Delta^{\prime}$ if $\Delta^{\prime}$ is even.
Proof: Case (1): Let $\Delta^{\prime}$ be odd and $p$ be an odd prime. If $p \mid P^{2}-4$, where $P$ is as defined in (5.5) and $P^{2}-4$ is the discriminant of the quadratic $x^{2}-P x+1=0$, then $p \mid U_{p}$ by (1.59). This implies that $\omega(p)$ divides $p$ by Theorem 1.7.3. Since $p$ is an odd prime, $\omega(p)=p$. It follows by induction that $\omega\left(p^{n}\right)=p^{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

For the case where $p \nmid P^{2}-4$, we write $\epsilon=\epsilon(p)$ as the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{P^{2}-4}{p}\right)$. Since $p$ is an odd prime, $p \nmid P^{2}-4$ and $\left(\frac{1}{p}\right)=1$, by Theorem 1.7.1, we have $p \mid U_{(p-\epsilon) / 2}$. By Theorem 1.7.4, the law of repetition, we have $p^{n} \mid U_{p^{n-1}(p-\epsilon(p)) / 2}$ for any natural number $n$.

Define

$$
\Lambda^{\prime}\left(p^{n}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
p^{n} & \text { if } p \mid P^{2}-4  \tag{5.15}\\
p^{n-1}(p-\epsilon) / 2 & \text { if } p \nmid P^{2}-4
\end{array}\right.
$$

Let $m=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{n_{i}}$, where $p_{i}$ are distinct primes and $n_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$, and define

$$
\Lambda^{\prime}(m)=\operatorname{lcm}\left\{\Lambda^{\prime}\left(p_{i}^{n_{i}}\right): i=1,2, \ldots, k\right\}
$$

If we write $\omega(m)$ as the rank of apparition of $m$ in $U_{n}$, then $\omega(m) \mid \Lambda^{\prime}(m)$. Also, it follows from our construction of $\Lambda^{\prime}(m)$ that $\Lambda^{\prime}(m) \leq m$. Hence, $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \mid \Lambda\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ and $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \leq \Delta^{\prime}$.
Case (2): Suppose that $\Delta^{\prime}$ is even. By (1.61), we have $2 \mid U_{2-\epsilon(2)}$, where $\epsilon(2)$ is defined in (1.60). By the law of repetition, we have $2^{n} \mid U_{2^{n-1}(2-\epsilon(2))}$ for $n \geq 1$. Hence, $2^{n} \mid U_{2^{n}}$ if $2 \mid P$ and $2^{n} \mid U_{3 \cdot 2^{n-1}}$ if $2 \nmid P$. Thus, $\omega\left(2^{n}\right)<3 \cdot 2^{n-1}$. Let $2^{n} \| \Delta^{\prime}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$
\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) \leq \omega\left(2^{n}\right) \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{2^{n}} \leq 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}}{2^{n}}=\frac{3}{2} \Delta^{\prime} .
$$

Corollary 5.2.1 $\kappa \leq 2 \Delta^{\prime}$ if $\Delta^{\prime}$ is odd and $\kappa \leq 3 \Delta^{\prime}$ if $\Delta^{\prime}$ is even.

Example 5.2.5 Using Example 4.3.1 and the discussion concerning the number of different patterns of continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{119^{2} X^{2}+2(2205) X+343}$ in Section 5.1, we have $\Delta^{\prime}=7$ and

| $K$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\kappa$ | 14 | 6 | 2 | 6 | 14 | 4 | 4 |

Table 5.5: Values of $\kappa$ for $\sqrt{119^{2} X^{2}+2(2205) X+343}$.

We see that the upper bound $2 \Delta^{\prime}$ for $\kappa$ is attainable at $K=0$ or 4 .

Note that in the above example $\Delta^{\prime}$ is an odd prime. When $\Delta^{\prime}=2$, in view of Case (5) on page 127 , we see that $\kappa=6=3 \Delta^{\prime}$. So, $3 \Delta^{\prime}$ is also attainable as an upper bound for $\kappa$.

### 5.3 Fundamental Unit of $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$

In Section 2.3, we presented Stender's result (2.11) on the fundamental unit of the order $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$, where the radicand $D(X)$ is assumed to be squarefree for some sufficiently large integer $X$. In this section, we make use of Theorem 4.3.1 to get the fundamental unit of the real quadratic order $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$ for integers $A>0$ and $X>\left(2 A \triangle_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}-2 B+A\right) /\left(2 A^{2}\right)$. Here, we do not require $D(X)$ to be squarefree.

It is well-known that if $\varepsilon$ is the fundamental unit of $[1, \sqrt{D}]$ for some non-square natural number $D$, then

$$
\varepsilon=\prod_{i=1}^{\ell} \theta_{i}
$$

where $\ell=\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ and $\theta_{i}$ is the $i$-th complete quotient of $\sqrt{D}$. For the proof of the above statement, see [133, Theorem 2.1.3].

Lemma 5.3.1 Let $\theta(X)=(P+\sqrt{D(X)}) / Q$ be a complete quotient of $\sqrt{D(X)}, q(X)=\lfloor(P+$ $\sqrt{D(X)}) / Q\rfloor$, and $E$ and $F$ as defined in Lemma 4.1.1 so that $F / E=\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}\right)$ and

$$
\frac{P+\sqrt{D(X)}}{Q}=\left(q(X), s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}, \theta^{\prime}\right)
$$

where the parity of $m$ is chosen according to the sign of $\triangle$. If $\theta_{j}(X)$ is the $j$-th complete quotient of $(P+\sqrt{D(X)}) / Q$, then

$$
\prod_{j=1}^{m+1} \theta_{j}(X)=\frac{d\left(A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}\right)}{|\Delta|}
$$

where $d=\operatorname{gcd}(E, F)$.

Proof: Let $A_{j} / B_{j}$ be the $j$-th convergent of $\theta(X)$. Then by (1.14), we have

$$
\theta_{j}(X)=-\frac{B_{j-2} \theta(X)-A_{j-2}}{B_{j-1} \theta(X)-A_{j-1}}
$$

for $j \geq 0$. Thus,

$$
\prod_{j=1}^{m+1} \theta_{j}(X)=\frac{(-1)^{m+1}}{B_{m} \theta(X)-A_{m}}
$$

Since $A_{m} / B_{m}=\left(q(X), s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}\right)$, we have

$$
\frac{A_{m}}{B_{m}}=q(X)+\frac{1}{\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m-1}\right)}=q(X)+\frac{E}{F}=\frac{q(X) F+E}{F}
$$

Recall from Lemma 4.1.1 that $E=A^{2} X+B-A P^{\prime}$ and $F=A Q$, where $P^{\prime}=q(X) Q-P$. If $d=\operatorname{gcd}(E, F)$, then $d=\operatorname{gcd}(q(X) F+E, F)$. Hence,

$$
d A_{m}=q(X) F+E=q(X) A Q+A^{2} X+B-A P^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad d B_{m}=A Q
$$

So,

$$
B_{m} \theta(X)-A_{m}=\frac{1}{d}\left(A Q \theta(X)-q(X) A Q-A^{2} X-B+A P^{\prime}\right)
$$

Since

$$
A Q \theta(X)-q(X) A Q+A P^{\prime}=A Q\left(\frac{P+\sqrt{D(X)}}{Q}\right)-q(X) A Q+A(q(X) Q-P)=A \sqrt{D(X)}
$$

we have

$$
B_{m} \theta(X)-A_{m}=-\frac{A^{2} X+B-A \sqrt{D(X)}}{d}
$$

Hence,

$$
\prod_{j=1}^{m+1} \theta_{j}(X)=\frac{(-1)^{m+1}}{B_{m} \theta(X)-A_{m}}=\frac{(-1)^{m+1} d\left(A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}\right)}{\Delta}=\frac{d\left(A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}\right)}{|\Delta|}
$$

the last equality follows by the parity of $l(i)$ and the sign of $\Delta$.
Theorem 5.3.1 The fundamental unit $\varepsilon$ of $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\Delta|^{\kappa / 2}\left(\frac{A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}}{|\Delta|}\right)^{\kappa}=\left(\frac{A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}}{\sqrt{|\Delta|}}\right)^{\kappa} \tag{5.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, $\mathcal{N}(\varepsilon)=\sigma^{\kappa}$. Note that by Remark 4.3.1, $\kappa$ is even when $\Delta_{1}>1$, so $|\Delta|^{\kappa / 2} \in \mathbb{N}$.
Proof: By Theorem 4.3.1,

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=\left(q_{0}(X), \overline{\left.\mathcal{S}_{0}, q_{1}(X), \mathcal{S}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{S}_{\kappa-1}, q_{\kappa}(X)\right)}\right.
$$

where $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ and $q_{i}(X)$ are defined in the previous chapter.
For $i \geq 0$, let $\theta_{i}(X)=\left(q_{i}(X), \mathcal{S}_{i}, \theta_{i+1}(X)\right), \theta_{j}^{\prime}(X)$ be the $j$-th complete quotient of $\theta_{i}(X)$ and

$$
\vartheta_{i}(X)=\prod_{j=1}^{1+\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|} \theta_{j}^{\prime}(X) .
$$

Further, let $\theta_{k}(X)$ be the $k$-th complete quotient of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ and $\ell=\sum_{0}^{\kappa-1}\left(1+\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|\right)$. Then by the remark in the beginning of this section, the fundamental unit $\epsilon$ of $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$ is given by

$$
\varepsilon=\prod_{k=1}^{\ell} \theta_{i}(X)=\prod_{i=0}^{\kappa-1} \vartheta_{i}(X)
$$

By Lemma 5.3.1, we have

$$
\vartheta_{i}(X)=\frac{\delta_{i+1}\left(A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}\right)}{|\Delta|}
$$

where $\delta_{1}=\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right) d_{1}, \delta_{i}=\left(\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{i-1}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2} / d_{i-1}\right) d_{i}$ for $i \geq 2$. Thus,

$$
\varepsilon=\prod_{i=0}^{\kappa-1} \vartheta_{i}=\prod_{i=0}^{\kappa-1} \frac{\delta_{i+1}\left(A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}\right)}{|\Delta|}=\left(\frac{A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}}{|\Delta|}\right)^{\kappa} \prod_{i=1}^{\kappa} \delta_{i}
$$

Now,

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{\kappa} \delta_{i}=\frac{\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}}{\tau} d_{1} \cdot \frac{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{1}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d_{1}} d_{2} \cdot \frac{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{2}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d_{2}} d_{3} \cdot \ldots \cdot \frac{\Delta_{1}^{\varepsilon_{\kappa-1}} \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}}{d_{\kappa-1}} d_{\kappa}
$$

Since $\varepsilon_{i}$ is either 0 or 1 according as $i$ being even or odd, and since $\kappa$ is even if $\Delta_{1}>1$ by Remark 4.3.1, we may write

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{\kappa} \delta_{i}=\Delta_{1}^{\kappa / 2} \frac{\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}}{\tau}\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}\right)^{\kappa-1} d_{\kappa}
$$

By Theorem 4.3.1, we have $d_{\kappa}=\Delta^{\prime}$ and, consequently, $\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right) d_{\kappa}=\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)\left(\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma\right)=$ $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}^{2}$. Thus,

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{\kappa} \delta_{i}=|\Delta|^{\kappa / 2} \text { and } \varepsilon=|\Delta|^{\kappa / 2}\left(\frac{A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}}{|\Delta|}\right)^{\kappa}
$$

Now,

$$
\mathcal{N}(\varepsilon)=\frac{|\Delta|^{\kappa}}{|\Delta|^{2 \kappa}} \cdot \mathcal{N}\left(A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}\right)^{\kappa}=\frac{|\Delta|^{\kappa}}{|\Delta|^{2 \kappa}} \Delta^{\kappa}=\frac{\Delta^{\kappa}}{|\Delta|^{\kappa}}=\sigma^{\kappa}
$$

Corollary 5.3.1 If $\Delta_{1}>1$, then $\mathcal{N}(\varepsilon)=1$.

Example 5.3.1 Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2205) X+343$ with $X=1$. As we have seen in Example 4.3.1, $A=119=7 \cdot 17, B=2205=3^{2} \cdot 5 \cdot 7^{2}, C=343=7^{3}, \Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C=4802=2 \cdot 7^{4}$, $\sigma=1, \Delta_{1}=2, \Delta_{2}=1, \Delta_{4}=7$ and $\kappa=6$. Also, $D(1)=18914=2 \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 193$ and

$$
\sqrt{D(1)}=(137, \overline{1,1,8,2,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,5,4,3,1,136,1,3,4,5,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,2,8,1,1,274}) .
$$

By Theorem 1.4.1, we use the above continued fraction expansion and find the fundamental unit of $[1, \sqrt{18914}]$ to be

$$
\varepsilon=5552992832780835+40377127625446 \sqrt{18914}
$$

Now, since $\kappa=6$, by Theorem 5.3.1, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon & =4802^{3}\left(\frac{119^{2} \cdot 1+2205+119 \sqrt{18914}}{4802}\right)^{6} \\
& =5552992832780835+40377127625446 \sqrt{18914}
\end{aligned}
$$

which agrees with the value given by Theorem 1.4.1. We also find $\mathcal{N}(\varepsilon)=1=\sigma^{6}$.

## Chapter 6

## Final Comments

The theme of this thesis is the continued fraction expansion of the $\sqrt{D(X)}$, where $D(X)$ is a quadratic polynomial that satisfies the Schinzel condition. We established two main results. The first result in Chapter 3 showed that the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D}$ can be determined by a palindromic string of natural numbers by means of using a quadratic polynomial. On arriving at the appropriate quadratic $D(X)$, we also obtained a family of non-square $D$ such that all members of the family correspond to the given palindromic string. Also, we found that when certain conditions are met, independent of the symmetric sequence that defines the family, the product of two members of a family is of R-D type. More importantly, the quadratic $D(X)$ satisfies the Schinzel condition.

The second result, and the more significant one, gives the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for any Schinzel sleeper $D(X)$, i.e, a quadratic $D(X)$ that satisfies the Schinzel condition. By this result, we were able to construct an upper bound for $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ via the Fibonacci numbers and Lucas function $U_{n}$. We get

$$
\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})< \begin{cases}3 \Delta^{\prime} \cdot\left\lfloor\log _{\varphi}\left(\sqrt{5} \cdot A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}\right)\right\rfloor & \text { if } \Delta^{\prime} \text { is even } \\ 2 \Delta^{\prime} \cdot\left\lfloor\log _{\varphi}\left(\sqrt{5} \cdot A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}\right)\right\rfloor & \text { if } \Delta^{\prime} \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

where $\varphi=(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2$ is the golden ratio. Also, knowing the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ allows us to compute the fundamental unit $\varepsilon$ of the order $[1, \sqrt{D(X)}]$; we find

$$
\varepsilon=\left(\frac{A^{2} X+B+A \sqrt{D(X)}}{\sqrt{|\Delta|}}\right)^{\kappa}
$$

when $X>\left(2 A \Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}-2 B-A\right) /\left(2 A^{2}\right)$.

There are several possible research directions that can be followed: symmetries of the continued fraction expansions of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ as $X$ varies, behaviour of $r_{i}$, and upper bound and expected value for $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$.

### 6.1 Symmetries of the Continued Fraction Expansions of $\sqrt{D(X)}$

Since the period of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ is symmetric when we exclude the last partial quotient, $q_{k}(X)$, it is clear that the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has a horizontal symmetry.

There is also a vertical symmetry. Recall that $\sqrt{D(X)}$ has a number of different patterns depending on which residue class modulo $\Delta^{\prime}$ that $X$ belongs to. We write $X \equiv K \bmod \Delta^{\prime}$, where $0 \leq K<\Delta^{\prime}$. For each $K$, we compute the corresponding values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ and list them in a table. We observe a symmetry pertaining to the values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ of different $K$. Take Case (5) of Appendix C.1, for instance. The quadratic here is $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1666) X+98$ with $A^{\prime}=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=7$. We list the values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ for different values of $K$ in the table below.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ | $d_{6} r_{6}$ | $d_{7} r_{7}$ | $d_{8} r_{8}$ | $d_{9} r_{9}$ | $d_{10} r_{10}$ | $d_{11} r_{11}$ | $d_{12} r_{12}$ | $d_{13} r_{13}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 7 | 5 | 7 | 7 | 3 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 7 | 1 | 1 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 7 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 7 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 7 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 6 | 2 | 7 |
| 4 | 7 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 7 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 5 | 7 |
| 6 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 7 | 2 | 7 | 7 | 4 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

It is easy to see that the sum of $d_{1}(1) r_{1}(1)=5$ and $d_{1}(0) r_{1}(0)=2$ is congruent to 0 modulo $\Delta^{\prime}=7$. Indeed, for $0 \leq K, K^{\prime} \leq 6$, if $K+K^{\prime} \equiv 1 \bmod 7$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K)+d_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod 7 \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i \geq 0$. In this particular example, the pairs $\left(K, K^{\prime}\right)$ are $(0,1),(2,6),(3,5)$ and (4, 4). So, it is clear that there is a symmetry defined by (6.1).

In general, we find that for some fixed $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $0 \leq K, K^{\prime} \leq \Delta^{\prime}-1$, if $K+K^{\prime} \equiv n \bmod \Delta^{\prime}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K)+d_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod \Delta^{\prime} \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i \geq 0$. Numerical evidence for this claim is available in Appendix C; in particular, see Table C. 15 of Example C.2.6.

There is more to learn in regard to the values of $d_{i} r_{i}$. For example, the values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ when viewed in a certain way exhibit an implicit group structure. In the multiplicative group $\mathbb{Z}_{7}^{*}$, there are 2 proper subgroups: $H_{1}=\{1,6\}$ and $H_{2}=\{1,2,4\}$. Also, the primitive roots are 3 and 5 .

Now, we realign the above table by matching the entries of the shorter expansions to those of the longer expansions. For example, the first entry in the first row is 7 , which is the same as the first entry in the third row. So, 7 remains where it is. The second entry in the first row is 5 . The first occurrence of 5 in the third row is at the fourth entry. So, we move 5 to the fourth entry on the first row. Continuing in this fashion, we arrive at the following table:

| $K$ | $d_{i} r_{r}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 7 |  |  | 5 |  |  | 7 | 7 |  |  | 3 |  |  | 7 |
| 2 | 7 |  |  |  |  | 1 |  |  | 1 |  |  |  |  | 7 |
| 3 | 7 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 7 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 6 | 2 | 7 |
| 4 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 7 |
| 5 | 7 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 5 | 7 |
| 6 | 7 |  |  |  |  | 6 |  |  | 6 |  |  |  |  | 7 |
| 0 | 7 |  |  | 2 |  |  | 7 | 7 |  |  | 4 |  |  | 7 |

It is easy to see that except for the columns that contain $\Delta^{\prime}=7$, all other columns on the upper or lower half of the table contain entries that either belong to a particular proper subgroup or have the same order in $\mathbb{Z}_{7}^{*}$. As it turns out, when $\Delta^{\prime}$ is prime and there are only two long expansions,
we can usually arrange the values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ so that the columns correspond to a proper subgroup or a particular order. However, when there are more than two long expansions, there is no clear method of rearranging the entries so that a similar correspondence between columns and subgroups can be achieved.

When $\Delta^{\prime}$ is composite, the situation gets more complicated. However, in some cases, we can mimic the above method. Consider Table C. 15 where $A^{\prime}=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=22$. We have

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} \tau_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ | $d_{6} r_{6}$ | $d_{7} r_{7}$ | $d_{8} r_{8}$ | $d_{9} r_{9}$ | $d_{10} r_{10}$ | $d_{11} r_{11}$ | $d_{12} r_{12}$ | $d_{13} r_{13}$ | $d_{14} r_{14}$ | $d_{15} r_{15}$ | $d_{16} r_{16}$ | $d_{17} r_{17}$ | $d_{18} \mathrm{~T}_{18}$ | $d_{19} r_{19}$ | $d_{20} T_{20}$ | $d_{21} r_{21}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5 | 22 | 12 | 22 | 22 | 4 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 22 | 14 | 18 | 4 | 22 | 22 | 12 | 10 | 16 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | 22 | 16 | 6 | 8 | 14 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | 22 | 18 | 18 | 8 | 22 | 22 | 6 | 10 | 10 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | . |
| 9 | 22 | 20 | 16 | 6 | 6 | 12 | 10 | 2 | 12 | 16 | 22 | 22 | 14 | 4 | 2 | 18 | 4 | 8 | 8 | 14 | 20 | 22 |
| 10 | 22 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 22 | 2 | 6 | 16 | 16 | 10 | 12 | 20 | 10 | 6 | 22 | 22 | 8 | 18 | 20 | 4 | 18 | 14 | 14 | 8 | 2 | 22 |
| 1 | 22 | 4 | 4 | 14 | 22 | 22 | 16 | 12 | 12 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 22 | 6 | 16 | 14 | 8 | 22 | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 22 | 8 | 4 | 18 | 22 | 22 | 10 | 12 | 6 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | 22 | 10 | 22 | 22 | 18 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Since all entries in the main body of the table are even and they are denominators of the ratio $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} /\left(d_{i} r_{i}\right)=22 /\left(d_{i} r_{i}\right)$, we can remove the common factor 2 from the ratio and rewrite the above table as

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ | $d_{6} r_{6}$ | $d_{7} r_{7}$ | $d_{8} r_{8}$ | $d_{9} r_{9}$ | $d_{10} r_{10}$ | $d_{11} r_{11}$ | $d_{12} r_{12}$ | $d_{13} T_{13}$ | $d_{14} r_{14}$ | $d_{15} r_{15}$ | $d_{16} \tau_{16}$ | $d_{17} r_{17}$ | $d_{18} r_{18}$ | $d_{19} r_{19}$ | $d_{20} r_{20}$ | $d_{21} r_{21}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5 | 11 | 6 | 11 | 11 | 2 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 11 | 7 | 9 | 2 | 11 | 11 | 6 | 5 | 8 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | 11 | 8 | 3 | 4 | 7 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | 11 | 9 | 9 | 4 | 11 | 11 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9 | 11 | 10 | 8 | 3 | 3 | 6 | 5 | 1 | 6 | 8 | 11 | 11 | 7 | 2 | 1 | 9 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 7 | 10 | 11 |
| 10 | 11 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 11 | 1 | 3 | 8 | 8 | 5 | 6 | 10 | 5 | 3 | 11 | 11 | 4 | 9 | 10 | 2 | 9 | 7 | 7 | 4 | 1 | 11 |
| 1 | 11 | 2 | 2 | 7 | 11 | 11 | 8 | 6 | 6 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 11 | 3 | 8 | 7 | 4 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | . |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 11 | 4 | 2 | 9 | 11 | 11 | 5 | 6 | 3 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | 11 | 5 | 11 | 11 | 9 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Since each of the two long expansions has four occurrences of 11 and they are positioned in the middle or on the extreme ends of the table, we use them as outlines to partition the table into four quadrants. Now that 11 is the numerator, we work in the multiplicative group $\mathbb{Z}_{11}^{*}$. the proper subgroups of $\mathbb{Z}_{11}^{*}$ are $H_{2}=\{1,10\}$ and $H_{5}=\{1,3,4,5,9\}$, and the primitive roots are $2,6,7,8$.

In each of the four quadrants, we allot elements of the same order to the same column except the orders in the top part of the table are always half or double those in the lower part.

| $K$ | reduced $d_{i} r_{i}$ with numerator 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5 | 11 |  |  |  |  | 6 |  |  |  |  | 11 | 11 |  |  |  |  | 2 |  |  |  |  | 11 |
| 6 | 11 |  | 7 |  | 9 |  |  |  | 2 |  | 11 | 11 |  | 6 |  |  |  | 5 |  | 8 |  | 11 |
| 7 | 11 |  | 8 |  | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 4 |  | 7 |  | 11 |
| 8 | 11 |  |  | 9 | 9 |  | 4 |  |  |  | 11 |  |  |  |  | 3 |  | 5 | 5 |  |  | 11 |
| 9 | 11 | 10 | 8 | 3 | 3 | 6 | 5 | 1 | 6 | 8 | 11 | 11 | 7 | 2 | 1 | 9 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 7 | 10 | 11 |
| 10 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 11 |
| 0 | 11 | 1 | 3 | 8 | 8 | 5 | 6 |  | 5 | 3 | 11 | 11 | 4 | 9 | 10 | 2 | 9 | 7 | 7 | 4 | 1 | 11 |
| 1 | 11 |  |  | 2 | 2 |  | 7 |  |  |  | 11 | 11 |  |  |  | 8 |  | 6 | 6 |  |  | 11 |
| 2 | 11 |  | 3 |  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 7 |  | 4 |  | 11 |
| 3 | 11 |  | 4 |  | 2 |  |  |  | 9 |  | 11 | 11 |  | 5 |  |  |  | 6 |  | 3 |  | 11 |
| 4 | 11 |  |  |  |  | 5 |  |  |  |  | 11 | 11 |  |  |  |  | 9 |  |  |  |  | 11 |

It is easy to see that the third column of the top left quadrant consists of $6,7,8$, which correspond
to the primitive roots; the fourth column consists of 3 and 9 , which correspond to $\{1,3,4,5,9\}$. Similarly, we see this correspondence in other quadrants as well. This observation leads us to believe that there is an implicit group structure involved in the computation of $d_{i} r_{i}$.

From the table above (6.1), we see that $r_{0}(K)$ remains fixed as $K$ varies and $r_{1}(K)=3 K+$ $2 \bmod 7$ for $0 \leq K \leq 6$. By Lemma 4.2.2, it is clear that $r_{0}(K)$ is constant. By (4.33), since $d_{1}=1$ and $g_{1}$ are independent of $K$, it follows that $r_{1}(K)$ is a linear function in $K$ modulo $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}$. Since $r_{0}(K)$ is constant and $r_{1}(K)$ is a linear function modulo $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}$, it is natural to guess that $r_{2}(K)$ is a quadratic function. This is not so. We have $r_{2}(K)=7,1,6,7,1,6,7$ for $K=0,1, \ldots, 6$, and this sequence of natural numbers is not given by a quadratic. So it remains to determine whether $r_{2}(K)$ can be represented by some function in $K$. In fact, we are interested in whether $r_{i}(K)$ is representable by a function in $K$ for $i \geq 2$.

When we inspect the entries in the above tables horizontally, we see a repetition of a particular $d_{i} r_{i}$ in a row. For instance, in the table above (6.1), we have $d_{3}(3) r_{3}(3)=5=d_{4}(3) r_{4}(3)$ and $d_{3}(5) r_{3}(5)=2=d_{4}(5) r_{4}(5)$. From our other computations, we did not find any instances in which a value of $r_{i}$ appears more than twice in a period, except when $r_{i} \equiv 0 \bmod A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} / d_{i-1}$. It will be of interest to know if this is the case in general.

### 6.2 Estimates for $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$

Although we have a formula, namely (5.1), to determine the actual value of $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$, this formula requires us to compute the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ using Theorem 4.3.1, which can be a significant computational effort. Hence, we would like to find a simple formula that gives a good estimate of $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$, yet does not require a substantial amount of calculation. Since $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ is determined by $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|$ and $\kappa$, we need to improve the estimates for these two quantities.

With respect to $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|$, there are relevant results available in the literature. For example, an empirical result of Knuth [91, pp.316-333] can be restated as follows: Assuming the last partial quotient to be strictly greater than 1, the average length of the continued fraction expansion of $a / r$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, r)=1$ as $r$ varies from 1 to $a$ is approximately

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{12 \ln 2}{\pi^{2}} \ln a+0.47 \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\ln$ is the natural logarithm. This empirical result was proved by J. W. Porter [192] and later improved by D. Hensley [71]. When the condition $\operatorname{gcd}(a, r)=1$ is removed, Knuth deduced the average length to be approximately

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{12 \ln 2}{\pi^{2}}\left(\ln a-\sum_{d \mid a} \frac{\Lambda(d)}{d}\right)+0.47 \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d$ runs through all the proper divisors of $a$ and $\Lambda(d)$ is von Mangoldt's function defined by

$$
\Lambda(d)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\ln p & \text { if } d=p^{n} \text { for } p \text { prime } \\
0 & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

To make use of Knuth's result for our purpose, we need to make an adjustment, since the parity of $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|$ is restricted by the sign of $\Delta$, i.e., our last partial quotient can be 1 or greater than 1. It is known that when assuming the last partial quotient to be strictly greater than 1 , half of the expansions of $a / r$ have an even number of terms and the other half have an odd number of terms, unless $a$ is odd, in which case the numbers of even terms and odd terms differ by 1. So if we separate $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|$ into two cases, odd length and even length, we expect the averages in the two cases to be fairly close. Indeed, this statement seems to be supported by our data in Tables D. 1 and D. 2 in the Appendix. Now, to apply Knuth's result, we only need to add $1 / 2$ to his estimate, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{12 \ln 2}{\pi^{2}}\left(\ln a-\sum_{d \mid n} \frac{\Lambda(d)}{d}\right)+0.97 \tag{6.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

For example, when $a=15$, the above formula gives an estimate of 2.67 ; the actual values are 2.71 and 2.60 by row F of Tables D. 1 and D.2.

As we have seen in Chapter 5 , the use of the rank of apparition $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ provides us with a very good upper bound for $\kappa$. In fact, in most cases, $\kappa$, depending on $K$, is either $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or $2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$, where $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ is the rank of apparition of $\Delta^{\prime}$ in the Lucas Function $U_{n}$ defined by $x^{2}-P x+1=$ and $P=\left(2 A^{2} K+2 B\right)^{2} /|\Delta|-2 \sigma$. Using (6.5), we claim that $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$ is approximately

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\left\lfloor\kappa \cdot\left(\frac{12 \ln 2}{\pi^{2}}\left(\ln A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}-\sum_{d \mid A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}} \frac{\Lambda(d)}{d}\right)+0.97\right)\right)\right\rfloor \tag{6.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d$ is a proper divisor of $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}$. Indeed, by the data in Table E.I in the Appendix, when $\kappa=\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or $2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$, this claim seems to be true.

Note that $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ may be hard to calculate. So it will be advantageous to get an upper bound or expected value for $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ that does not require extra computation. Indeed, we demonstrated in Example 5.2.5 and case (5) of Example 5.2.1 that the upper bound: $2 \Delta^{\prime}$ when $\Delta^{\prime}$ is odd and $3 \Delta^{\prime}$ when $\Delta^{\prime}$ is even, is optimal when $\Delta^{\prime}$ is prime. However, when $\Delta^{\prime}$ is composite, our calculations in Section 5.2 suggest that there is a sharper bound.

Ultimately, we want a good estimate for $\kappa$. We know $\kappa \mid 2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ by Theorem 5.2.2. Also, the calculations in Section 5.2 suggests that $\kappa$ is either $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or $2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ in most cases. However, when given $K$, we do not know if $\kappa=\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or $2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or neither. It will be of interest to determine the particular values of $K$ such that $\kappa=\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or $2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$. Working in this direction may help our search for a good estimate of $\kappa$.

In conclusion, we have found the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ for any Schinzel sleeper $D(X)$, but there is still much to learn. The above suggested research topics are just the tip of the iceberg; there appear to be a great deal of interesting directions for further research.

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## Appendix A

## Supplementary Examples for Kraitchik's work

In Section 2.2, we presented the work of Kraitchik [92] on the parametrization of continued fractions of fixed period length. Here, we give a more detailed account of his work for period lengths 1 through 5. Also, we state his work for period lengths 6 and 7 with proof.

Case (1): It is easy to see that when the period length is $1, D$ is of the form $X^{2}+1$, where $X \in \mathbb{N}$. Examples of $\sqrt{D}$ having period length 1 are easy to find, such as $\sqrt{1^{2}+1}=\sqrt{2}=(1, \overline{2})$, $\sqrt{2^{2}+1}=\sqrt{5}=(2, \overline{4}), \sqrt{3^{2}+1}=\sqrt{10}=(3, \overline{6}), \sqrt{4^{2}+1}=\sqrt{17}=(4, \overline{8}), \sqrt{5^{2}+1}=\sqrt{26}=$ $(5, \overline{10})$, etc.
Case (2): For period length 2, i.e., $\sqrt{D}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, 2 a_{0}}\right)$, we compute $D=a_{0}^{2}+2 a_{0} / a_{1}$. Since $D$ needs to be an integer, it follows that $a_{1} \mid 2 a_{0}$. So, there are two cases: $\sqrt{k^{2} X^{2}+2 k}=(k X, \bar{X}, 2 k X)$ and $\sqrt{k^{2} X^{2}+k}=(k X, \overline{2 X, 2 k X})$, where $k$ is a non-zero integer and $X \in \mathbb{N}$.

For the first case, when $k=1, \sqrt{X^{2}+2}=(X, \overline{X, 2 X})$. In particular, when $X=1$, we get $\sqrt{3}=(1, \overline{1,2})$. Similarly, when $X=2$, we have $\sqrt{8}=(2, \overline{3,4})$.

When $k=2$, we get $\sqrt{4 X^{2}+4}=(2 X, \overline{X, 4 X})$. In particular, when $X=1$, we have $\sqrt{8}=$ $(2, \overline{2,4})$. When $X=2$, we have $\sqrt{20}=(4, \overline{2,8})$.

For the second case, since we are interested in the cases where the period length is two, i.e, $a_{1} \neq 2 a_{0}$, we exclude $k=1$.

When $k=2$, we get $\sqrt{4 X^{2}+2}=(2 X, \overline{2 X, 4 X})$. When $X=1$, we get $\sqrt{6}=(2, \overline{2,4})$. When $X=2$, we have $\sqrt{18}=(4, \overline{4,8})$.
Case (3): For period length 3, i.e., $\sqrt{D}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}}\right)$, we have $D=a_{0}^{2}+\left(2 a_{0} a_{1}+1\right) /\left(a_{1}^{2}+1\right)$. Since $2 a_{0} a_{1}+1$ is odd, $a_{1}^{2}$ must be even. Since we are interested in period length 3 , we assume
that $a_{1} \neq 2 a_{0}$. On writing $a_{1}=2 k$, we get

$$
2 a_{0} a_{1}+1=4 a_{0} k+1 \equiv 0 \bmod 4 k^{2}+1
$$

This implies that $a_{0} \equiv k \bmod 4 k^{2}+1$, i.e, $a_{0}=\left(4 k^{2}+1\right) X+k$ for some integer $X$. We need $X \neq 0$ so that $a_{1} \neq 2 a_{0}$. Thus, $\left(2 a_{0} a_{1}+1\right) /\left(a_{1}^{2}+1\right)=4 k X+1$ and $D=\left(4 k^{2}+1\right)^{2} X^{2}+2 k\left(4 k^{2}+3\right) X+k^{2}+1$. We find

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=\left(\left(4 k^{2}+1\right) X+k, \overline{2 k, 2 k,\left(8 k^{2}+2\right) X+2 k}\right) .
$$

For example,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sqrt{25 X^{2}+14 X+2}=(5 X+1, \overline{2,2,10 X+2}) \\
\sqrt{289 X^{2}+76 X+5}=(17 X+2, \overline{4,4,34 X+4}) \\
\sqrt{1369 X^{2}+234 X+10}=(37 X+3, \overline{6,6,74 X+6})
\end{gathered}
$$

In particular, when $X=1,25(1)^{2}+14(1)+2=41$ and $\sqrt{41}=(6, \overline{2,2,12})$. Similarly, $289(1)^{2}+76(1)+5=370$ and $\sqrt{370}=(19, \overline{4,4,38})$. Further, $1369(1)^{2}+234(1)+10=1613$, and $\sqrt{1613}=(40, \overline{6,6,80})$.

Case (4): For period length 4, i.e., $\sqrt{D}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}}\right)$, we find

$$
D=a_{0}^{2}+\frac{2 a_{0}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+1\right)+a_{2}}{a_{1}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+2\right)} .
$$

Note that if $a_{1}$ is even, then $a_{2}$ is even. Also, when $a_{1}$ is odd, there is no restriction on the parity of $a_{2}$, and hence, there are three possible cases here, namely, $a_{1}$ even and $a_{2}$ even, $a_{1}$ odd and $a_{2}$ even, and $a_{1}$ odd and $a_{2}$ odd. It suffices to examine the cases according to the parity of $a_{2}$.

Since $D$ is a natural number, we have $2 a_{0}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+1\right)+a_{2} \equiv 0 \bmod a_{1}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+2\right)$. It is easy to see that $\left(a_{1} a_{2}+1\right)^{2} \equiv 1 \bmod a_{1}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+2\right)$. Hence, $2 a_{0} \equiv-a_{2}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+1\right) \bmod a_{1}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+2\right)$. If $a_{2}$ is even, then

$$
a_{0} \equiv \frac{-a_{2}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+1\right)}{2} \bmod \frac{a_{1}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+2\right)}{2}
$$

When $a_{2}$ is odd, by the fact that odd $a_{2}$ implies odd $a_{1}, a_{1}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+2\right.$ is odd, and hence,

$$
a_{0} \equiv \frac{-a_{2}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+1\right)}{2} \bmod a_{1}\left(a_{1} a_{2}+2\right)
$$

For instance, when $a_{2}=2$ and $a_{1}=3$, we have $a_{0} \equiv-7 \equiv 5 \bmod 12$. If we take $a_{0}=5$, then $D=28$ and $\sqrt{28}=(5, \overline{3,2,3,10})$. Similarly, if we take $a_{0}=17$, then $D=299$ and $\sqrt{299}=(17, \overline{3,2,3,34})$

When $a_{2}=2$ and $a_{1}=4$, we get $a_{0} \equiv-9 \bmod 20$. If we pick $a_{0}=11$, then $D=126$ and $\sqrt{126}=(11, \overline{4,2,4,22})$. Similarly, if we take $a_{0}=31$, then $D=975$ and $\sqrt{975}=(31, \overline{4,2,4,31})$.

When $a_{2}=5$ and $a_{1}=3$, we get $a_{0} \equiv-40 \bmod 51$. If we pick $a_{0}=11$, then $D=128$ and $\sqrt{128}=(11, \overline{3,5,3,22})$. Similarly, if we take $a_{0}=62$, then $D=3883$ and $\sqrt{3883}=(62, \overline{3,5,3,124})$.

When $a_{1}=5, a_{2}=5 X+2$, we get $D(X)=(40 X+19)^{2}+(16 X+7)$ and

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(40 X+19,5,5 X+2,5,80 X+38) .
$$

In particular, when $X=1$, we have $\sqrt{59^{2}+23}=(59, \overline{5,7,5,118})$. Similarly, when $X=2$, we have $\sqrt{99^{2}+39}=(99, \overline{5,12,5,198})$.

When $a_{1}=7, a_{2}=7 X+2$, we get $D(X)=(126 X+41)^{2}+(36 X+11)$ and

$$
\sqrt{D(X)}=(126 X+41,7,7 X+2,7,252 X+82)
$$

In particular, when $X=1$, we have $\sqrt{167^{2}+47}=(167, \overline{7,9,7,334})$. Similarly, when $X=2$, we have $\sqrt{293^{2}+83}=(293, \overline{7,16,7,586})$.
Case (5): For period length 5, i.e., $\sqrt{D}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}}\right)$, we find

$$
D=a_{0}^{2}+\frac{2 a_{0}\left(a_{1} a_{2}^{2}+a_{1}+a_{2}\right)+a_{2}^{2}+1}{a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{2}+a_{1}^{2}+1} .
$$

It is not difficult to see the case where $a_{1}$ is odd and $a_{2}$ is even is impossible. Otherwise, since

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(a_{1} a_{2}^{2}+a_{1}+a_{2}\right)^{2} & =a_{2}^{2}\left(a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{2}+a_{1}^{2}+1\right)+\left(a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{2}+a_{1}^{2}+1\right)-1 \\
& \equiv-1 \bmod a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{2}+a_{1}^{2}+1
\end{aligned}
$$

we have

$$
2 a_{0} \equiv\left(a_{1} a_{2}^{2}+a_{1}+a_{2}\right)\left(a_{2}^{2}+1\right) \bmod a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{2}+a_{1}^{2}+1
$$

Since we cannot have $a_{1}$ odd and $a_{2}$ even at the same time, the right term in the above congruence is even, and the modulus is odd. Hence,

$$
a_{0} \equiv \frac{\left(a_{1} a_{2}^{2}+a_{1}+a_{2}\right)\left(a_{2}^{2}+1\right)}{2} \bmod a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{2}+a_{1}^{2}+1
$$

When $a_{1}=1$ and $a_{2}=3$, we get $a_{0} \equiv 65 \equiv 14 \bmod 17$. If we pick $a_{0}=14$, then $D=218$ and $\sqrt{218}=(14, \overline{1,3,3,1,28})$. If we pick $a_{0}=31$, then $D=1009$ and $\sqrt{1009}=(31, \overline{1,3,3,1,62})$.

When $a_{1}=2$ and $a_{2}=3$, we find $a_{0} \equiv 115 \equiv 9 \bmod 53$. If we pick $a_{0}=9$, then $D=89$ and $\sqrt{89}=(9, \overline{2,3,3,2,18})$. If we pick $a_{0}=62$, then $D=3898$ and $\sqrt{3898}=(62, \overline{1,3,3,1,124})$.

When $a_{1}=2$ and $a_{2}=4$, we find $a_{0} \equiv 323 \equiv 68 \bmod 85$. If we pick $a_{0}=68$, then $D=4685$ and $\sqrt{4685}=(68, \overline{2,4,4,2,136})$. If we pick $a_{0}=153$, then $D=23546$ and $\sqrt{23546}=$ ( $153, \overline{2,4,4,2,306) .}$
Case (6): For period length 6, i.e., $\sqrt{D}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}}\right)$. Kraitchik found

$$
2 a_{0}=-P\left(a_{3} a_{2}^{2}+2 a_{2}\right)+Q m \text { and } D=a_{0}^{2}-\left(a_{3} a_{2}^{2}+2 a_{2}\right)^{2}+P m,
$$

where $P=a_{1} a_{2}^{2} a_{3}+2 a_{1} a_{2}+a_{2} a_{3}+1, Q=a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}+2 a_{1}^{2} a_{2}+2 a_{1}+a_{3}$ and $m$ is some integer.
For example,

$$
\sqrt{(3 X+1)^{2}+(4 X+2)}=(3 X+1, \overline{1,2,3 X+1,2,1,6 X+2})
$$

and $\sqrt{(3 \cdot 1+1)^{2}+(4 \cdot 1+2)}=\sqrt{22}=(4, \overline{1,2,4,2,1,8})$. Also,

$$
\sqrt{(3 X+1)^{2}+(2 X+2)}=(3 X+1, \overline{2,1,3 X, 1,2,6 X+2})
$$

and $\sqrt{(3 \cdot 1+1)^{2}+(2 \cdot 1+2)}=\sqrt{20}=(4, \overline{2,1,3,1,2,8})$.

Case (7): For period length 7, i.e., $\sqrt{D}=\left(a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{3}, a_{2}, a_{1}, 2 a_{0}}\right)$. Kraitchik found

$$
2 a_{0}=P R-Q m \text { and } D=a_{0}^{2}+R^{2}+P m
$$

where

$$
\begin{gathered}
R=a_{2}^{2} a_{3}^{2}+2 a_{2} a_{3}+a_{2}^{2}+1 \\
P=a_{1} a_{2}^{2} a_{3}+2 a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}+a_{1} a_{2}^{2}+a_{1}+a_{2} a_{3}^{2}+a_{2}+a_{3} \\
Q=a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2} a_{3}^{2}+a_{3}^{2} a_{1} a_{2}+2 a_{1}^{2} a_{2} a_{3}+a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{2}+2 a_{1} a_{3}+a_{1}^{2}+a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}^{2}+a_{3}^{2}+1,
\end{gathered}
$$

and $m$ is some integer.
For example, when $a_{1}=1=a_{2}=a_{3}, D=(13 X+7)^{2}+16 X+9$ and

$$
\sqrt{(13 X+7)^{2}+16 X+9}=(13 X+7, \overline{1,1,1,1,1,1,26 X+14}) .
$$

In particular, $\sqrt{(13 \cdot 0+7)^{2}+16 \cdot 0+9}=\sqrt{7^{2}+9}=(7, \overline{1,1,1,1,1,1,14})$ and $\sqrt{(13 \cdot 1+7)^{2}+16 \cdot 1+9}=\sqrt{20^{2}+25}=\sqrt{425}=(20, \overline{1,1,1,1,1,1,40})$.

## Appendix B

## Letters from Kaplansky

In the following two letters, the first contains Kaplansky's reference to the term sleeper and the second one is his permission to the author for the use of the term sleeper.

In Kaplansky's letter, "A memo on creepers", we only reproduce an excerpt containing his reference to sleepers.

## Letter 1

A memo on creepers
Irving Kaplansky
This memo, by an ex-Canadian, is being sent to three Canadians: Richard Mollin (with whom I have been corresponding about continued fractions) and two Williams's, HC and KS, with whom (I believe) this is my first contact......
"Creepers" ? Along with "Sleepers" these are my silly nicknames. A sleeper is a family of continued fractions bounded in length; Schinzel pretty well wrapped these up. In a creeper the lengths go to infinity, but gently, forming one or more arithmetic progressions when sorted out into residue classes; there may be a waiting period before the arithmetic progressions begin.........

## Letter 2

Dear Mr. Kell Cheng,
Of course you may use the term "sleeper". (Also, "creeper").
Irving Kaplansky
P.S. I hope this reaches you safely. I did not find an e-mail address in your message.

## Appendix C

## Examples for the Continued Fraction Expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$

## C. 1 Eight Possible Cases

At this end, we illustrate the different cases of Theorem 4.3.1. We consider different combinations of the parity of $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|$, the values of $\eta=1$ or $0, \sigma=1$ or $-1, \tau=1$ or 2 and the cases $r=0$ or $r>0$. So, there are 32 possible cases. We note that the parity of $\left|\mathcal{S}_{i}\right|$ is decided by $\sigma$ and $\eta$ is determined by $\sigma$, in conjunction with whether $r=0$. So we only need to look at the different combinations of $\sigma=-1$ or $1, \tau=1$ or 2 , and $r=0$ or $r>0$, i.e., 8 cases.

Besides illustrating the eight cases, we also use the examples to provide numerical evidence for the symmetry of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ discussed in Chapter 6.

Case (1): $\sigma=-1, \tau=1$ and $r=0$. Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(833) X+98$, where $A=119$, $B=833$, and $C=98$. Since $833=7 \cdot 119$, we have $r=0$. We find that $\Delta=-7^{4} \cdot 17^{2}$ and $\sigma=-1$. So, $\Delta_{1}=1, \Delta_{2}=17, \Delta_{4}=7$ and $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}=119$. Clearly, $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}$ divides $A=119$, it follows that $\tau=1$. Further, $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)=1, \Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=7$.

For $X>\left(\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 0.35$, there are $\Delta^{\prime}=7$ different patterns corresponding to the seven residue class modulo 7 . Let $K=0,1,2, \ldots, 6$ and write $X=7 W+K$, where $W \geq 0$.

Subcase (1.0): When $K=0$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(7 W)}=(833 W+7, \overline{34 W, 3,2,34 W-1,1,6,34 W, 6,1,34 W-1,2,3,34 W, 1666 W+14}) .
$$

Subcase (1.1): When $K=1$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+1)}= & (833 W+126, \overline{34 W+5,6,1,34 W+4,3,2,34 W+4,1,2,1,1,34 W+4}, \\
& \overline{1,1,2,1,34 W+4,2,3,34 W+4,1,6,34 W+5,1666 W+252})
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (1.2): When $K=2$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(7 W+2)}=(833 W+245,34 W+10,1666 W+490)
$$

Subcase (1.3): When $K=3$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+3)}= & (833 W+364, \overline{34 W+14,1,6,34 W+14,1,2,1,1,34 W+14,3,2,34 W+14} \\
& \overline{2,3,34 W+14,1,1,2,1,34 W+14,6,1,34 W+14,1666 W+728}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (1.4): When $K=4$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+4)}= & (833 W+483, \overline{34 W+19,1,2,1,1,34 W+19,6,1,34 W+18,} \\
& \overline{1,6,34 W+19,1,1,2,1,34 W+19,1666 W+966}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (1.5): When $K=5$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+5)}= & (833 W+602, \overline{34 W+24,1,1,2,1,34 W+23,1,6,34 W+24,2,3,34 W+24} \\
& (\overline{3,2,34 W+24,6,1,34 W+231,2,1,1,34 W+24,1666 W+1204})
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (1.6): When $K=6$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+6)}= & (833 W+721, \overline{34 W+29,2,3,34 W+29,6,1,34 W+28,1,1,2,1,34 W+28} \\
& \overline{1,2,1,1,34 W+28,1,6,34 W+29,3,2,34 W+29,1666 W+1442}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We compute the values of the denominator $d_{i} r_{i}$ of the fraction $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime} /\left(d_{i} r_{i}\right)$ and list them in the following table. For $K=0,1,2, \ldots, 6$, we list the corresponding $d_{i} r_{i}$ in a row.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ | $d_{6} r_{6}$ | $d_{7} r_{7}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 2 | 6 | 1 | 3 | 0 |  |  |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 0 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 0 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 0 |
| 4 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 6 | 4 | 0 |  |  |
| 5 | 0 | 4 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| 6 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 0 |

Table C.1: $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(833) X+98$
Instead of starting with $K=0$, we start with $K=6$ in the following

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ | $d_{6} r_{6}$ | $d_{7} r_{7}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 2 | 6 | 1 | 3 | 0 |  |  |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 0 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 0 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 0 |
| 4 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 6 | 4 | 0 |  |  |
| 5 | 0 | 4 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 0 |

Table C.2: $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(833) X+98$

Now, the sum of $r_{1}(6)=3$ and $r_{1}(5)=4$ is congruent to 0 modulo $\Delta^{\prime}=7$. In fact, it is easy to see that when $K+K^{\prime} \equiv 4 \bmod 7, r_{i}(K)+r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod 7$ for $i \geq 0$. In this manner, we see a vertical symmetry in the above table.

Case (2): $\sigma=-1, \tau=1$ and $r>0$. Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1176) X+98$, where $A=119$, $B=1176$ and $C=98$. Since $119 \nmid 1176$, we have $r>0$. Now, $\Delta=-2 \cdot 7^{4}$ tells us that $\sigma=-1$. Also, we see that $\Delta_{1}=2, \Delta_{2}=1$ and $\Delta_{4}=7$. Moreover, $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}=7$, which divides $A=119$, means that $\tau=1$. So, $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)=17, \Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=7$. When $X>\left(\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 0.75$, there are seven patterns. Let $K=0,1, \ldots, 6$ and write $X=7 W+K$.

Subcase (2.0): When $K=0$, we get

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\sqrt{D(7 W)}= & (833 W+9, \overline{1,7,1,1,17 W-1,1,2,19,2,34 W-1,1,10,1,9,17 W}, \\
& (9,1,10,1,34 W-1,2,19,2,1,17 W-1,1,1,7,1,1666 W+18
\end{array}\right)
$$

Subcase (2.1): When $K=1$, we get

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\sqrt{D(7 W+1)}= & (833 W+128, \overline{1,7,1,1,17 W+2,9,1,10,1,34 W+4,2,1,9,4,17 W+2} \\
& \frac{(2,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,34 W+4,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,2}{} \\
& (7 W+2,4,9,1,2,34 W+4,1,10,1,9,17 W+2,1,1,7,1,1666 W+256
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Subcase (2.2): When $K=2$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(7 W+2)}=(833 W+247, \overline{1,7,1,1,17 W+4,1,1,7,1,1666 W+494}) .
$$

Subcase (2.3): When $K=3$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+3)}= & (833 W+366, \overline{1,7,1,1,17 W+6,1,22,1,4,34 W+14,1,3,2,2,4,1}, \\
& \overline{17 W+6,1,2,19,2,34 W+14,2,19,2,1,17 W+6}, \\
& (1,4,2,2,3,1,34 W+14,4,1,22,1,17 W+6,1,1,7,1,1666 W+732)
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (2.4): When $K=4$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+4)}= & (833 W+485, \overline{1,7,1,1,17 W+9,2,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,34 W+19}, \\
& \overline{4,1,22,1,17 W+8,1,22,1,4}, \\
& \overline{34 W+19,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,2,17 W+9,1,1,7,1,1666 W+970}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (2.5): When $K=5$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+5)}= & (833 W+604, \overline{1,7,1,1,17 W+11,1,4,2,2,3,1,34 W+23,1,10,1,9} \\
& \overline{17 W+12,4,9,1,2,34 W+24,2,1,9,4,17 W+12} \\
& \overline{9,1,10,1,34 W+23,1,3,2,2,4,1,17 W+11,1,1,7,1,1666 W+1208}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (2.6): When $K=6$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+6)}= & (833 W+723, \overline{1,7,1,1,17 W+14,4,9,1,2,34 W+29,4,1,22,1}, \\
& \overline{17 W+13,1,4,22,3,1,34 W+28,1,3,22,4,1,17 W+13} \\
& \overline{1,22,1,4,34 W+29,2,1,9,4,17 W+14,1,1,7,1,1666 W+1446}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The values of the product $d_{i} r_{i}$ are given in the table below.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ | $d_{6} r_{6}$ | $d_{7} r_{7}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6 | 105 | 29 | 24 | 97 | 92 | 114 | 41 | 63 |
| 0 | 105 | 80 | 109 | 12 | 58 | 63 |  |  |
| 1 | 105 | 12 | 41 | 46 | 75 | 29 | 109 | 63 |
| 2 | 105 | 63 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 105 | 114 | 92 | 80 | 58 | 97 | 24 | 63 |
| 4 | 105 | 46 | 24 | 114 | 75 | 63 |  |  |
| 5 | 105 | 97 | 109 | 29 | 41 | 12 | 92 | 63 |

Table C.3: $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1176) X+98$
It is easy to check that when $K+K^{\prime} \equiv 4 \bmod 7, d_{i}(K)_{i}(K)+d_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod 7$. Also, the sum is 126 or 133 according as. $i$ is odd or even.

Case (3): $\sigma=-1, \tau=2$ and $r=0$. Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1666) X+224$, where $A=119$, $B=1666$ and $C=224$. Since $1666=14 \cdot 199, r=0$. We find that $\Delta=-2^{2} \cdot 7^{3} \cdot 17^{2}$ which means that $\sigma=-1, \Delta_{1}=7, \Delta_{2}=2 \cdot 7 \cdot 17$ and $\Delta_{4}=1$. Since $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}=2 \cdot 7 \cdot 17=238$ does not divide $A=119$, we have $\tau=2$. Also, $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)=1, \Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=2$.

When $X>\left(\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 0.12$, there are two patterns. Let $K=0$ or 1 and write $X=2 W+K$.

Subcase (3.0): When $K=0$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(2 W)}=(238 W+14, \overline{17 W+1,476 W+28})
$$

Subcase (3.1): When $K=1$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{D(2 W+1)}=(238 W+133, \overline{17 W+9,1,1,119 W+66,68 W+38,} \\
& \\
&119 W+66,1,1,17 W+9,476 W+266)
\end{aligned}
$$

The values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ are given in the following table.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |  |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

Table C.4: $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1666) X+224$

It may seem that there is no symmetry in the above table. However, we see that $2 d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K) \equiv 0 \bmod 2$ for $i=0,1,2$ and $K=0,1$.

Case (4): $\sigma=-1, \tau=2$ and $r>0$. Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2555) X+461$, where $A=119$, $B=2555$ and $C=461$. Since $A \nmid B$, we have $r>0$. We find that $\Delta=-2^{2} \cdot 7^{2}, \sigma=-1, \Delta_{1}=1$, $\Delta_{2}=2 \cdot 7$ and $\Delta_{4}=1$. Since $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}=2 \cdot 7=14$ which does not divide $A=119$, we have $\tau=2$. So, $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)=17, \Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=2$.

When $X>\left(\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx-0.14$, there are two patterns. Let $K=0$ or 1 and write $X=2 W+K$.

Subcase (4.0): When $K=0$, we get
$\sqrt{D(2 W)}=(238 W+21, \overline{2,8,119 W+10,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,119 W+10,8,2,476 W+42})$.
Subcase (4.1): When $K=1$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(2 W+1)}=(238 W+140, \overline{2,8,119 W+70,8,2,476 W+280})
$$

The values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ are given in the following table.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 16 | 21 | 16 |
| 1 | 16 | 16 |  |

Table C.5: $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2555) X+461$

It is clear that $2 d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K) \equiv 0 \bmod 2$ for $i=0,1,2$ and $K=0,1$.

Case (5): $\sigma=1, \tau=1$ and $r=0$. Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1666) X+98$. Then $A=119$, $B=1666$ and $C=98$. Since $119 \mid 1666$, we have $r=0$. Since $\Delta=2 \cdot 7^{4} \cdot 17^{2}$, we get $\sigma=1$, $\Delta_{1}=2, \Delta_{2}=17$ and $\Delta_{4}=7$. Also, since $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}=7 \cdot 17=119$, which clearly divides $A=119$, we get $\tau=1$. Thus, $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)=1, \Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=7$.

When $X>\left(\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 0.71$, there are seven patterns. Let $K=0,1, \ldots, 6$ and write $X=7 W+K$.

Subcase (5.0): When $K=0$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W)}= & (833 W+13, \overline{1,17 W-1,3,1,1,34 W-1,1,833 W+12}, \\
& \overline{1,34 W-1,1,1,3,17 W-1,1,1666 W+26})
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (5.1): When $K=1$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+1)}= & (833 W+132,1,17 W+1,1,2,2,34 W+4,1,833 W+131, \\
& \left.\frac{1,34 W+4,2,2,1,17 W+1,1,1666 W+264}{}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (5.2): When $K=2$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(7 W+2)}=(833 W+251, \overline{1,17 W+4,7,34 W+10,7,17 W+4,1,1666 W+502})
$$

Subcase (5.3): When $K=3$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+3)}= & (833 W+370, \overline{1,17 W+6,1,1,3,34 W+14,1,5,1,17 W+6,} \\
& \left(\frac{1,2,2,34 W+14,1,2,2,17 W+7,7,34 W+14,1,238 W+369}{1,34 W+14,7,17 W+7,2,2,134 W+14,2,2,1}\right. \\
& \left.\frac{17 W+6,1,5,1,34 W+14,3,1,1,17 W+6,1,1666 W+740}{}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (5.4): When $K=4$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(7 W+4)}=(833 W+489, \overline{1,17 W+8,1,1666 W+978})
$$

Subcase (5.5): When $K=5$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+5)}= & (833 W+608, \overline{1,17 W+11,2,2,1,34 W+24,7,17 W+12,} \\
& \overline{3,1,1,34 W+24,3,1,1,17 W+11,1,5,1,34 W+23,1,833 W+607} \\
& \overline{1,34 W+23,1,5,1,17 W+11,1,1,3,34 W+24,1,1,3} \\
& \frac{17 W+12,7,34 W+24,1,2,2,17 W+11,1,1666 W+1216}{17} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (5.6): When $K=6$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(7 W+6)}= & (833 W+727, \overline{1,17 W+13,1,5,1,34 W+28,} \\
& \overline{1,5,1,17 W+13,1,1666 W+1454}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ are given in the following table.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ | $d_{6} r_{6}$ | $d_{7} r_{7}$ | $d_{8} r_{8}$ | $d_{9} r_{9}$ | $d_{10} r_{10}$ | $d_{11} r_{11}$ | $d_{12} r_{12}$ | $d_{13} r_{13}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 7 | 5 | 7 | 7 | 3 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 7 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 7 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 6 | 2 | 7 |
| 4 | 7 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 7 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 5 | 7 |
| 6 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 7 | 2 | 7 | 7 | 4 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table C.6: $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1666) X+98$

It is easy to check that when $K+K^{\prime} \equiv 1 \bmod 7, d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K)+d_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod 7$.

Case (6): $\sigma=1, \tau=1$ and $r>0$. Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2890) X+578$, where $A=119$, $B=2890$ and $C=578$. Since $119 \nmid 2890$, we get $r>0$. Since $\Delta=2 \cdot 17^{4}$, we get $\sigma=1, \Delta_{1}=2$, $\Delta_{2}=1$ and $\Delta_{4}=17$. Also, since $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}=17$, which divides $A=119$, we get $\tau=1$. Thus, $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)=7, \Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=17$.

When $X>\left(\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 4.66$, there are seventeen patterns. Let $K=$ $0,1,2, \ldots, 16$ and write $X=17 W+K$.

Subcase (6.0): When $K=0$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(17 W)}= & (2023 W+24, \overline{3,1,1,7 W-1,1,1,19,2,1,14 W-1}, \\
& \overline{2,58,1,7 W-1,9,1,11,14 W, 11,1,9,7 W-1,1,58,2} \\
& \overline{14 W-1,1,2,19,1,1,7 W-1,1,1,3,4046 W+48})
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.1): When $K=1$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(17 W+1)}= & (2023 W+143, \overline{3,1,1,7 W-1,1,12,4,1,1,14 W, 2,3,2,6,1,7 W-1}, \\
& \overline{1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,1,14 W, 2,1,1,1,4,2,1,7 W-1,1,4,5,1,3}, \\
& \frac{14 W, 1,2,1,2,1,1,4,7 W, 3,1,1,1,1,5,1,14 W, 7,2023 W+143,}{7,14 W, 1,5,1,1,1,1,3,7 W, 4,1,1,2,1,2,1,14 W,} \\
& \frac{3,1,5,4,1,7 W-1,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,14 W, 1,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1}{} \\
& \frac{7 W-1,1,6,2,3,2,14 W, 1,1,4,12,1,7 W-1,1,1,3,4046 W+286}{7 W} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.2): When $K=2$, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(17 W+2)}$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (2023 W+262, \overline{3,1,1,7 W, 2,1,39,14 W+1,1,3,1,3,6,7 W, 1,2,1,28,1,} \\
& \overline{14 W, 1,5,1,1,1,1,3,7 W, 1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,1,14 W+1,4,1,23,7 W,} \\
& \overline{1,6,2,3,2,14 W+1,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,7 W, 4,1,1,2,1,2,1,14 W+1,11,1,9,} \\
& \overline{7 W, 1,4,5,1,3,14 W+1,1,1,4,12,1,7 W-1,1,58,2,14 W+1,3,7,1,1,2,} \\
& \overline{7 W, 1,1,19,2,1,14 W+1,7,2023 W+262,7,14 W+1,1,2,19,1,1,7 W,} \\
& \hline 2,1,1,7,3,14 W+1,2,58,1,7 W-1,1,12,4,1,1,14 W+1,, 3,1,5,4,1,7 W,) \\
& \hline 9,1,11,14 W+11,2,1,2,1,1,4,7 W, 1,2,4,1,1,1,2,14 W+1,2,3,2,6,1, \\
& \hline 7 W, 23,1,4,14 W+1,1,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,7 W, 3,1,1,1,1,5,1,14 W, \\
& \hline 1,28,1,2,1,7 W, 6,3,1,3,1,14 W+1,39,1,2,7 W, 3,1,1,4046 W+524) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.3): When $K=3$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(17 W+3)}= & (2023 W+381, \overline{3,1,1,7 W, 1,2,1,28,1,14 W+1,1,2,19,1,1,7 W}, \\
& \overline{1,4,5,1,3,14 W+2,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,7 W, 1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,1}, \\
& \frac{14 W+2,39,1,2,7 W, 1,58,2,14 W+2,7,2023 W+381}{7,14 W+2,2,58,1,7 W, 2,1,39,14 W+2} \\
& \overline{1,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,7 W, 1,2,4,1,1,1,2,14 W+2,3,1,5,4,1} \\
& \frac{7 W, 1,1,19,2,1,14 W+1,1,28,1,2,1,7 W, 1,1,3,4046 W+762}{7 W} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.4): When $K=4$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(17 W+4)}= & (2023 W+500, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+1,6,3,1,3,1,14 W+2,1,2,19,1,1}, \\
& \overline{7 W+1,4,1,1,2,1,2,1,14 W+2,1,2,1,2,1,1,4,7 W+1} \\
& \cdot \overline{1,1,19,2,1,14 W+2,1,3,1,3,6,7 W+1,1,1,3,4046 W+1000}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.5): When $K=5$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(17 W+5)}=(2023 W+619, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+1,1,1,3,4046 W+1238})
$$

Subcase (6.6): When $K=6$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(17 W+6)}= & (2023 W+738, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+1,1,58,2,14 W+4,1,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1}, \\
& \overline{7 W+1,1,12,4,1,1,14 W+4,1,1,4,12,1,7 W+1}, \\
& \overline{1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,1,14 W+4,2,58,1,7 W+1,1,1,3,4046 W+1476}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.7): When $K=7$, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(17 W+7)}$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (2023 W+857, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+2,2,1,1,7,3,14 W+5,1,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,7 W+2,} \\
& \overline{2,1,39,14 W+5,1,9,1,4,2,7 W+2,1,1,19,2,1,14 W+5,3,1,5,4,1,14 W+2,} \\
& \overline{6,3,1,3,1,14 W+5,7,2023 W+857,7,14 W+5,1,3,1,3,6}, \\
& \frac{14 W+2,1,4,5,1,3,14 W+5,1,2,19,1,1,7 W+2,2,4,1,9,1,14 W+5,39,1,2,}{} \\
& \overline{7 W+2,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,1,14 W+5,3,7,1,1,2,7 W+2,1,1,3,4046 W+1714}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.8): When $K=8$, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(17 W+8)}$ is given by $(2023 W+976, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+2,1,4,5,1,3,14 W+6,2,58,1,7 W+2,2,1,1,7,3,14 W+6}$, $\overline{2,3,2,6,1,7 W+2,1,1,19,2,1,14 W+6,11,1,9,7 W+3,3,1,1,1,1,5,1,14 W+5,}$ $\overline{1,9,1,4,2,7 W+2,1,12,4,1,1,14 W+6,4,1,23,7 W+3,2,1,39,14 W+6,}$ $\overline{1,2,1,2,1,1,4,7 W+3,6,3,1,3,1,14 W+5,1,28,1,2,1,7 W+2,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,1,}$ $\overline{14 W+6,7,2023 W+976,7,14 W+6,}$
$\overline{1,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,7 W+2 ; 1,2,1,28,1,14 W+5,1,3,1,3,6,7 W+3,4,1,1,2,1,2,1,}$ $\overline{14 W+6,39,1,2,7 W+3,23,1,4,14 W+6,1,1,4,12,1,7 W+2,2,4,1,9,1}$ $\overline{14 W+5,1,5,1,1,1,1,3,7 W+3,9,1,11,14 W+6,1,2,19,1,1,7 W+2,1,6,2,3,2}$ $\overline{14 W+6,3,7,1,1,2,7 W+2,1,58,2,14 W+6,3,1,5,4,1,7 W+2,1,1,3,4046 W+1952)}$.

Subcase (6.9): When $K=9$, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(17 W+9)}$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (2023 W+1095,3,1,1,7 W+3,4,1,1,2,1,2,1,14 W+6,1,5,1,1,1,1,3,7 W+3,1,1,19,2,1, \\
& \overline{14 W+6,1,9,1,4,2,7 W+3,2,1,39,14 W+7,1,1,4,12,1,7 W+2,} \\
& \frac{1,6,2,3,2,14 W+7,7,2023 W+1095,7,14 W+7,2,3,2,6,1}{} \\
& \left.\frac{7 W+2,1,12,4,1,1,14 W+7,39,1,2,7 W+3,2,4,1,9,1,14 W+6}{1,2,19,1,1,7 W+3,1,1,1,1,5,1,14 W+6,1,2,1,2,1,1,4,7 W+3,1,1,3, ~ 4046 W+2190}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.10): When $K=10$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(17 W+10)}= & (2023 W+1214, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+3,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,1,14 W+7}, \\
& \overline{1,3,1,3,6,7 W+4,23,1,4,14 W+8,4,1,23,7 W+3,6,3,1,3,1}, \\
& \overline{14 W+7,1,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,7 W+3,1,1,3,4046 W+2428}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.11): When $K=11$, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(17 W+11)}$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (2023 W+1333, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+4,23,1,4,14 W+9,39,1,2,7 W+4,3,1,1,1,1,5,1,} \\
& \overline{14 W+8,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,7 W+3,1,12,4,1,1,14 W+8,1,2,19,1,1,7 W+4,9,1,11,} \\
& \overline{14 W+9,7,2023 W+1333,7,14 W+9,} \\
& \overline{11,1,9,7 W+4,1,1,19,2,1,14 W+8,1,1,4,12,1,7 W+3,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,14 W+8,} \\
& \hline 1,5,1,1,1,1,3,7 W+4,2,1,39,14 W+9,4,1,23,7 W+4,1,1,3,4046 W+2666
\end{aligned}, .
$$

Subcase (6.12): When $K=12$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(17 W+12)}= & (2023 W+1452, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+4,2,4,1,9,1,14 W+9,7,2023 W+1452}, \\
& \left.\frac{7,14 W+9,1,9,1,4,2,7 W+4,1,1,3,4046 W+2904}{}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.13): When $K=13$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(17 W+13)}= & (2023 W+1571, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+4,1,6,2,3,2,14 W+10,} \\
& (2,3,2,6,1,7 W+4,1,1,3,4046 W+3142)
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.14): When $K=14$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(17 W+14)}= & (2023 W+1690, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+5,3,1,1,1,1,5,1,14 W+10}, \\
& \overline{1,5,1,1,1,1,3,7 W+5,1,1,3,4046 W+3380})
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.15): When $K=15$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(17 W+15)}= & (2023 W+1809, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+5,1,2,4,1,1,1,2,14 W+12,7,2023 W+1809}, \\
& \left.\frac{7,14 W+12,2,1,1,1,4,2,1,7 W+5,1,1,3,4046 W+3618}{}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Subcase (6.16): When $K=16$, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(17 W+16)}$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (2023 W+1928, \overline{3,1,1,7 W+6,9,1,11,14 W+13,3,1,5,4,1,7 W+5,1,6,2,3,2,} \\
& \hline 14 W+12,1,9,1,4,2,7 W+6,4,1,1,2,1,2,1,14 W+12,1,1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1, \\
& \hline 7 W+6,23,1,4,14 W+13,7,2023 W+1928,7,14 W+13,4,1,23,7 W+6, \\
& \hline 1,1,1,2,2,1,1,1,1,14 W+12, ; 1,2,1,2,1,1,4,7 W+6,2,4,1,9,1,14 W+12, \\
& \hline 2,3,2,6,1,7 W+5,1,4,5,1,3,14 W+13,11,1,9,7 W+6,1,1,3,4046 W+3856
\end{aligned} .
$$

We present the values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ in the tables below. There are 17 patterns here and we will see that for $0 \leq K, K^{\prime} \leq 16$, if $K+K^{\prime} \equiv 10 \bmod 17$, then $d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K)+d_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod 17$.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ | $d_{6} r_{6}$ | $d_{7} r_{7}$ | $d_{8} r_{8}$ | $d_{9} r_{9}$ | $d_{10} r_{10}$ | $d_{11} r_{11}$ | $d_{12} r_{12}$ | $d_{13} r_{13}$ | $d_{14} r_{14}$ | $d_{15} r_{15}$ | $d_{16} r_{16}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 14 | 34 | 33 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15 | 34 | 82 | 17 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | 34 | 12 | 31 | 103 | 108 | 26 | 73 | 5 | 17 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 34 | 61 | 59 | 12 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 34 | 110 | 52 | 75 | 45 | 96 | 87 | 33 | 17 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 34 | 40 | 94 | 89 | 101 | 75 | 24 | 103 | 45 | 26 | 10 | 96 | 66 | 117 | 38 | 61 | 17 |
| 3 | 34 | 89 | 80 | 96 | 45 | 75 | 3 | 117 | 17 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | 34 | 19 | 80 | 26 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 34 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 34 | 117 | 73 | 110 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | 34 | 47 | 73 | 40 | 108 | 61 | 31 | 19 | 17 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | 34 | 96 | 59 | 47 | 52 | 61 | 10 | 33 | 108 | 110 | 24 | 40 | 87 | 19 | 115 | 75 | 17 |
| 9 | 34 | 26 | 101 | 61 | 108 | 40 | 66 | 103 | 17 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10 | 34 | 75 | 94 | 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 | 34 | 5 | 3 | 33 | 45 | 110 | 80 | 12 | 17 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 12 | 34 | 54 | 17 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 13 | 34 | 103 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $K$ | $d_{17} r_{17}$ | $d_{18} r_{18}$ | $d_{19} r_{19}$ | $d_{20} \mathrm{r}_{20}$ | $d_{21} r_{21}$ | $d_{22} r_{22}$ | $d_{23} r_{23}$ | $d_{24} r_{24}$ | $d_{25} \mathrm{r}_{25}$ | $d_{26} T_{26}$ | $d_{27} T_{27}$ | $d_{28} \mathrm{r}_{28}$ | $d_{29} T_{29}$ | $d_{30} r_{30}$ | $d_{31} r_{31}$ | $d_{32} r_{32}$ | $d_{33} r_{33}$ |
| 14 | 101 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15 | 17 | 45 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | 17 | 24 | 75 | 87 | 54 | 52 | 96 | 10 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 10 | 117 | 80 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 17 | 101 | 26 | 31 | 82 | 73 | 103 | 66 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 17 | 80 | 47 | 59 | 110 | 31 | 12 | 87 | 82 | 52 | 5 | 73 | 33 | 115 | 19 | 3 | 68 |
| 3 | 17 | 59 | 40 | 73 | 82 | 31 | 61 | 115 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | 87 | 61 | 94 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 66 | 73 | 59 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | 17 | 94 | 96 | 80 | 54 | 3 | 75 | 38 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | 17 | 73 | 89 | 94 | 26 | 3 | 5 | 66 | 54 | 101 | 12 | 80 | 103 | 38 | 117 | 31 | 68 |
| 9 | 17 | 52 | 110 | 3 | 54 | 80 | 33 | 87 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10 | 24 | 19 | 73 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 | 17 | 10 | 61 | 66 | 82 | 101 | 40 | 24 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 12 | 17 | 108 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | * |  |
| 13 | 52 | 68 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table C.7: $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(2890) X+578$

Case (7): $\sigma=1, \tau=2$ and $r=0$. Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1666) X+168$, where $A=119$, $B=1666$ and $C=168$. Since $119 \mid 1666, r=0$. Since $\Delta=2^{2} \cdot 7^{3} \cdot 17^{2}$, we have $\sigma=1, \Delta_{1}=7$, $\Delta_{2}=2 \cdot 7 \cdot 17$ and $\Delta_{4}=1$. Since $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}=2 \cdot 7 \cdot 17=238$, which does not divide $A=119$, we get $\tau=2$. Hence, $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)=1, \Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=2$.

When $X>\left(\Delta_{1}{\Delta^{\prime}}^{2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 0.12$, there are two patterns. Let $K=0,1$ and write $X=2 W+K$.

Subcase (7.0): When $K=0$,

$$
\sqrt{D(2 W)}=(238 W+13, \overline{1,17 W-1,1,476 W+26})
$$

Subcase (7.1): When $K=1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(2 W+1)}= & (238 W+132, \overline{1,17 W+8,2,119 W+65,1,68 W+36}, \\
& \overline{1,119 W+65,2,17 W+8,1,476 W+264)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ given in the following table.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

Table C.8: $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1666) X+168$

Case (8): $\sigma=1, \tau=2$ and $r>0$. Consider $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+\dot{2}(1700) X+204$. Then $A=119$, $B=1700$ and $C=204$. If is not difficult to see that $A \nmid B$, so $r>0$. Now, $\Delta=2^{2} \cdot 17^{2}$ means that $\sigma=1, \Delta_{1}=1, \Delta_{2}=2 \cdot 7 \cdot 17$ and $\Delta_{4}=1$. Since $\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4}=2 \cdot 17=34$, which does not divide $A=119$, we get $\tau=2$. Fence, $A^{*}=A /\left(\Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)=7, \Gamma=\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{*}, \Delta_{4}\right)=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma=2$.

When $X>\left(\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx-0.82$, there are two patterns. Let $K=0,1$ and write $X=2 W+K$.

Subcase (8.0): When $K=0$,

$$
\sqrt{D(2 W)}=(238 W+14, \overline{3,1,1,119 W+6,1,1,3,476 W+28})
$$

Subcase (8.1): When $K=1$,

$$
\sqrt{D(2 W+1)}=(238 W+133, \overline{3,1,1,119 W+66,14,119 W+66,1,1,3,476 W+266})
$$

The values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ given in the following table.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 4 | 4 |  |
| 1 | 4 | 1 | 4 |

Table C.9: $D(X)=119^{2} X^{2}+2(1700) X+204$

## C. 2 More Computations

In this section, we provide more numerical evidence for the vertical symmetry of the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$ discussed in Chapter 6 and in the preceding section.

Example C.2.1 Consider $3^{2} X^{2}+2(9) X$. We find $\Delta=3^{4}, \Delta^{\prime}=3$ and $A^{\prime}=1$. Let $X>$ $\left(\Delta_{1}{\Delta^{\prime}}^{2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 2.17$.

Case (0): When $X \equiv 0 \bmod 3$, i.e., $X=3 W$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(3 W)}=(9 W+2, \overline{1,2 W-1,1,1,1,2 W-1,1,18 W+4}) .
$$

Case (1): When $X \equiv 1 \bmod 3$, i.e., $K=1$ and $X=3 W+1$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(3 W+1)}=(9 W+5, \overline{1,2 W, 3,2 W, 1,18 W+10})
$$

Case (2): When $X \equiv 2 \bmod 3$, i.e., $K=2$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(3 W+2)}=(9 W+8, \overline{1,2 W, 1,18 W+16}) .
$$

In the table below, we list values of $d_{i} r_{i}$.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 |
| 2 | 3 | 3 |  |
| 0 | 3 | 2 | 3 |

Table C.10: $D(X)=3^{2} X^{2}+2(9) X$

For $i=0,1,2$, it is clear that $d_{i}(0) r_{i}(0)+d_{i}(1) r_{i}(1) \equiv 0 \bmod 3$ and trivially, $2 d_{i}(2) r_{i}(2) \equiv$ $0 \bmod 3$.

Example C.2.2 Consider $180^{2} X^{2}+2(4950) X+750$. We find $\Delta=2^{2} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 5^{4}, \Delta^{\prime}=5$ and $A^{\prime}=2$. Let $X>\left(\Delta_{1} \Delta^{2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx-0.11$.
Case (0): When $X=5 W$, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(5 W)}$ is given by $(900 W+27, \overline{2,72 W+1,1,2,3,72 W+1,1,8,1,72 W+1,3,2,1,72 W+1,2,1800 W+54})$.

Case (1): When $X=5 W+1$,

$$
\sqrt{D(5 W+1)}=(900 W+207, \overline{2,72 W+16,10,72 W+16,2,1800 W+414})
$$

Case (2): When $X=5 W+2$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(5 W+2)}=(900 W+387, \overline{2,72 W+30,2,1800 W+774})
$$

Case (3): When $X=5 W+3$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(5 W+3)}=(900 W+567, \overline{2,72 W+44,1,8,1,72 W+44,2,1800 W+1134})
$$

Case (4): When $X=5 W+4$, the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(5 W+4)}$ is given by
$(900 W+747, \overline{2,72 W+59,3,2,1,72 W+59,10,72 W+59,1,2,3,72 W+59,2,1800 W+1494})$.
The values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ are given in the following table.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 5 | 7 | 9 | 3 | 5 |
| 1 | 5 | 1 | 5 |  |  |
| 2 | 5 | 5 |  |  |  |
| 3 | 5 | 9 | 5 |  |  |
| 4 | 5 | 3 | 1 | 7 | 5 |

Table C.11: $D(X)=180^{2} X^{2}+2(4950) X+750$

We see that for $0 \leq K, K^{\prime} \leq 4$ such that $K+K^{\prime} \equiv 0 \bmod 4, d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K)+d_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv$ $0 \bmod 5$.

Example C.2.3 Consider $5^{2} X^{2}+2(25) X$. We find $\Delta=5^{4}, \Delta^{\prime}=5$ and $A^{\prime}=1$. Let $X>$ $\left(\Delta_{1}{\Delta^{\prime}}^{2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 4.10$.

Case (0): When $X=5 W$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(5 W)}=(25 W+4,1,2 W-1,2,1,1,2 W-1,1,3,1,2 W-1,1,1,2,2 W-1,1,50 W+8) .
$$

Case (1): When $X=5 W+1$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(5 W+1)}=(25 W+9, \overline{1,4 W-1,1,3,1,4 W-1,1,50 W+18})
$$

Case (2): When $X \equiv 2 \bmod 5$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(5 W+2)}=(25 W+14, \overline{1,2 W, 5,2 W, 1,50 W+28})
$$

Case (3): When $X \equiv 3 \bmod 5$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(5 W+3)}=(25 W+19, \overline{1,2 W, 1,1,2,2 W+1,5,2 W+1,2,1,1,2 W, 1,50 X+38})
$$

Case (4): When $X \equiv 4 \bmod 5$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(5 W+4)}=(25 W+24, \overline{1,2 W, 1,50 W+48})
$$

The values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ are given in the following table.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 5 | 1 | 5 |  |  |
| 3 | 5 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 5 |
| 4 | 5 | 5 |  |  |  |
| 0 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 5 |
| 1 | 5 | 4 | 5 |  |  |

Table C.12: $D(X)=5^{2} X^{2}+2(25) X$

We see that when $0 \leq K, K^{\prime} \leq 3$ such that $K+K^{\prime}=3, d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K)+d_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod 5$ for $i=0,1,2,3,4$. Also, $2 d_{i}(4) r_{i}(4) \equiv 0 \bmod 5$.

Example C.2.4 Consider $2^{2} X^{2}+2(8) X$. We find $\Delta=2^{6}, \Delta^{\prime}=4$ and $A^{\prime}=1$. Let $X>$ $\left(\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 6.25$.

Case (0): When $X=4 W$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(4 W)}=(8 W+3, \overline{1, W-1,2,4 W+1,2, W-1,1,16 W+6})
$$

Case (1): When $X=4 W+1$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(4 W+1)}=(8 W+5, \overline{1, W-1,1,2,1, W-1,1,16 W+10})
$$

Case (2): When $X=4 W+2$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(4 W+2)}=(4 W+7, \overline{1, W-1,1,8 W+14})
$$

Case (3): When $X=4 W+3$, we get

$$
\sqrt{D(4 W+3)}=(4 W+9, \overline{1, W, 4, W, 4 W+18})
$$

The values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ are given in the following table.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| 1 | 4 | 3 | 4 |  |
| 2 | 4 | 4 |  |  |
| 3 | 4 | 1 | 4 |  |

Table C.13: $D(X)=2^{2} X^{2}+2(8) X$

We see that for $0 \leq K, K^{\prime} \leq 3$ such that $K+K^{\prime} \equiv 0 \bmod 4, d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K)+d_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv$ $0 \bmod 4$.

Example C.2.5 Consider $3^{2} X^{2}+2(18) X$. We find $\Delta=2^{2} \cdot 3^{4}, \Delta^{\prime}=6$ and $A^{\prime}=1$. Let $X>\left(\triangle_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 10.17$.

Case (0): When $X=6 W$,

$$
\sqrt{D(6 W)}=(18 W+5,1, W-1,3,4 W, 1,9 W+1,1,4 W, 3, W-1,1,36 W+10)
$$

Case (1): When $X=6 W+1$,

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\sqrt{D(6 W+1)}= & (18 W+8, \overline{1, W-1,2,9 W+3,1, X}, \\
& \\
1,9 W+3,2, W-1,1,36 W+16
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Case (2): When $X=6 W+2$,

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\sqrt{D(6 W+2)}= & (18 W+11, \overline{1, W-1,1,1,1,4 W+1,1,9 W+4}, \\
& \\
1,4 W+1,1,1,1, W-1,1,36 W+22
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Case (3): When $X=6 W+3$,

$$
\sqrt{D(6 W+3)}=(18 W+14, \overline{1, W-1,1,4,1, W-1,1,36 W+28}) .
$$

Case (4): When $X=6 W+4$,

$$
\sqrt{D(6 W+4)}=(18 W+17, \overline{1, W-1,1,36 W+34})
$$

Case (5): When $X=6 W+5$,

$$
\sqrt{D(6 W+5)}=(18 W+20, \overline{1}, W, 6, W, 1,36 W+40) .
$$

The values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ are given in the following table.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 6 | 2 | 6 | 6 | 2 | 6 |
| 1 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 6 | 3 | 6 |
| 2 | 6 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 6 |
| 3 | 6 | 5 | 6 |  |  |  |
| 4 | 6 | 6 |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 6 | 1 | 6 |  |  |  |

Table C.14: $D(X)=3^{2} X^{2}+2(18) X$
We see that for $0 \leq K, K^{\prime} \leq 5$ such that $K+K^{\prime} \equiv 2 \bmod 6, d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K)+d_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv$ $0 \bmod 6$.

Example C.2.6 Consider $D(X)=22^{2} X^{2}+2(484) X$. Then $A=22=2 \cdot 11, B=484=2^{2} \cdot 11^{2}$, $C=0$ and $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C=2^{4} \cdot 11^{4}$. So, $\Delta_{1}=1, \Delta_{2}=1, \Delta_{4}=2 \cdot 11=22, \tau=1, \Gamma=1, A^{\prime}=1$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=22$. Let $X>\left(\Delta_{1}{\Delta^{\prime}}^{2}\right) / A-(2 B-A) /\left(2 A^{2}\right) \approx 21.02$. We find that there are 11 patterns, i.e., $\rho=11$. So, we write $X=11 W+K$ for $K=0,1,2, \ldots 10$.

Case (0): $X=11 W$. The continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(11 W)}$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (484 W+21, \overline{1,2 W-1,11,4 W, 3,1,2,2 W-1,1,2,1,1,1,4 W-1,1,2,1,1,1}, \\
& \overline{2 W-1,2,4,1,4 W-1,1,1,5,2 W-1,1,9,1,4 W-1,2,4,1,} \\
& \overline{2 W-1,3,1,2,4 W-1,1,242 W+9,1,4 W-1,2,1,3,2 W-1,} \\
& \overline{1,4,2,4 W-1,1,9,1,2 W-1,5,1,1,4 W-1,1,4,2,2 W-1,} \\
& \overline{1,1,1,2,1,4 W-1,1,1,1,2,1,2 W-1,2,1,3,4 W, 11,2 W-1,1,968 W+42}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Case (1): $X=11 W+1$. We have

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\sqrt{D(11 W+1)}= & (484 W+21, \overline{1,2 W-1,5,1,1,4 W, 5,1,1,2 W-1,1,1,1,2,1}, \\
& \overline{4 W-1,1,484 W+20,1,4 W-1},
\end{array}\right)
$$

Case (2): $X=11 W+2$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(11 W+2)}= & (484 W+65, \overline{1,2 W-1,3,1,2,4 W, 1,2,1,1,1,} \\
& \overline{2 W-1,1,1,1,2,1,4 W, 2,1,3,2 W-1,1,968 W+130}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Case (3): $X=11 W+3$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(11 W+3)}= & (484 W+87, \overline{1,2 W-1,2,1,3,4 W+1,5,1,1,2 \overline{W-1},} \\
& \overline{1,4,2,4 W, 1,242 W+42,1,4 W, 2,4,1}, \\
& \overline{2 W-1,1,1,5,4 W+1,3,1,2,2 W-1,1,968 W+174}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Case (4): $X=11 W+4$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(11 W+4)}= & (484 W+109, \overline{1,2 W-1,2,4,1,4 W, 1,242 W+53}, \\
& \overline{1,4 W, 1,4,2,2 W-1,1,968 W+218})
\end{aligned}
$$

Case (5): $X=11 W+5$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(11 W+5)}= & (484 W+131, \overline{1,2 W-1,1,1,5,4 W+1,1,242 W+64}, \\
& \overline{1,4 W+1,5,1,1,2 W-1,1,968 W+262})
\end{aligned}
$$

Case (6): $X=11 W+6$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(11 W+6)}= & (484 W+153, \overline{1,2 W-1,1,1,1,2,1,4 W+1,1,4,2,2 W}, \\
& \overline{5,1,1,4 W+1,1,242 W+75,1,4 W+1,1,1,5} \\
& \overline{2 W, 2,4,1,4 W+1,1,2,1,1,1,2 W-1,1,968 W+306}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Case (7): $X=11 W+7$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(11 W+7)}= & (484 W+175, \overline{1,2 W-1,1,2,1,1,1,4 W+2,3,1,2,2 W} \\
& \overline{2,1,3,4 W+2,1,1,1,2,1,2 W-1,1,968 W+350})
\end{aligned}
$$

Case (8): $X=11 W+8$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(11 W+8)}= & (484 W+197, \overline{1,2 W-1,1,4,2,4 W+2,1,4,2,2 W, 2,1,3} \\
& \overline{4 W+2,1,242 W+97,1,4 W+2} \\
& \overline{3,1,2,2 W, 2,4,1,4 W+2,2,4,1,2 W-1,1,968 W+394})
\end{aligned}
$$

Case (9): $X=11 W+9$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{D(11 W+9)}= & (484 W+219, \overline{1,2 W-1,1,9,1,4 W+2,1,2,1,1,1,2 W}, \\
& \overline{3,1,2,4 W+3,3,1,2,2 W, 1,1,5,4 W+3,2,4,1}, \\
& \overline{1,2,1,1,1,4 W+2,1,242 W+108,1,4 W+2,1,1,1,2,1}, \\
& \overline{2 W, 5,1,1,4 W+3,11,2 W}, \\
& \overline{1,4,2,4 W+3,5,1,1,2 W, 2,1,3,4 W+3,2,1,3} \\
& \left.\frac{2 W, 1,1,1,2,1,4 W+2,1,9,1,2 W-1,1,968 W+438}{}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Case (10): $X=11 W+10$.

$$
\sqrt{D(11 W+10)}=(484 W+241, \overline{1,2 W-1,1,968 W+482})
$$

The values of $d_{i} r_{i}$ are given in the following table.

| $K$ | $d_{0} r_{0}$ | $d_{1} r_{1}$ | $d_{2} r_{2}$ | $d_{3} r_{3}$ | $d_{4} r_{4}$ | $d_{5} r_{5}$ | $d_{6} r_{6}$ | $d_{7} \mathrm{r}_{7}$ | $d_{8} T_{8}$ | $d_{9} r_{9}$ | $d_{10} \tau_{10}$ | $d_{11} r_{11}$ | $d_{12} r_{12}$ | $d_{13} r_{13}$ | $d_{14} T_{14}$ | $d_{15} r_{15}$ | $d_{16} r_{16}$ | $d_{17} r_{17}$ | $d_{18} r_{18}$ | $d_{19} r_{19}$ | $d_{20} r_{20}$ | $d_{21} r_{21}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5 | 22 | 12 | 22 | 22 | 4 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 22 | 14 | 18 | 4 | 22 | 22 | 12 | 10 | 16 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | 22 | 16 | 6 | 8 | 14 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | 22 | 18 | 18 | 8 | 22 | 22 | 6 | 10 | 10 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | . |  |  |  |  |
| 9 | 22 | 20 | 16 | 6 | 6 | 12 | 10 | 2 | 12 | 16 | 22 | 22 | 14 | 4 | 2 | 18 | 4 | 8 | 8 | 14 | 20 | 22 |
| 10 | 22 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 22 | 2 | 6 | 16 | 16 | 10 | 12 | 20 | 10 | 6 | 22 | 22 | 8 | 18 | 20 | 4 | 18 | 14 | 14 | 8 | 2 | 22 |
| 1 | 22 | 4 | 4 | 14 | 22 | 22 | 16 | 12 | 12 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 22 | 6 | 16 | 14 | 8 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 22 | 8 | 4 | 18 | 22 | 22 | 10 | 12 | 6 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | 22 | 10 | 22 | 22 | 18 | 22 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table C.15: $D(X)=22^{2} X^{2}+2(484) X$
We see that for $0 \leq K, K^{\prime} \leq 10$ such that $K+K^{\prime} \equiv 9 \bmod 11, d_{i}(K) r_{i}(K)+d_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) r_{i}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \equiv$ $0 \bmod 22$.

## Appendix D

## Tables for the Average of $l(a / r)$

In the following two tables, we consider even and odd lengths of $l(a / r)$ separately. In order to represent every expansion of $a / r$ properly and compactly, we denote 10 by $A, 11$ by $B$ and so forth, i.e., we write $(1,12,1)$ as 1 C1. The left-most column lists the values of $a$ and the top row lists the values of $r$. Every entry of the main body of the table gives the continued fraction expansion of $a / r$. The third right-most column lists the total number of partial quotients. The second rightmost column lists the average lengths of continued fraction expansions of $a / r$ with $a$ fixed. The last column gives the expected value of the average lengths using (6.5).

| $a \backslash r$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | Total | Avg. | E. V. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1 | 1 | 1.55 |
| 3 | 21 | 12 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 4 | 2 | 1.90 |
| 4 | 31 | 11 | 13 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 6 | 2 | 1.70 |
| 5 | 41 | 22 | 1111 | 14 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 10 | 2.5 | 2.33 |
| 6 | 51 | 21 | 11 | 12 | 15 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 10 | 2 | 1.88 |
| 7 | 61 | 32 | 23 | 1121 | 1211 | 16 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 16 | 2.67 | 2.61 |
| 8 | 71 | 31 | 2111 | 11 | 1112 | 13 | 17 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 18 | 2.57 | 1.98 |
| 9 | 81 | 42 | 21 | 24 | 1131 | 12 | 1311 | 18 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 20 | 2.5 | 2.51 |
| A | 91 | 41 | 33 | 22 | 11 | 1111 | 1221 | 14 | 19 |  |  |  |  |  |  | 22 | 2.44 | 2.35 |
| B | A1 | 52 | 3111 | 2121 | 25 | 1141 | 1113 | 1212 | 1411 | 1A |  |  |  |  |  | 26 | 2.6 | 2.99 |
| C | B1 | 51 | 31 | 21 | 2211 | 11 | 1122 | 12 | 13 | 15 | 1B |  |  |  |  | 26 | 2.36 | 2.32 |
| D | C1 | 62 | 43 | 34 | 2112 | 26 | 1151 | 111111 | 1231 | 1321 | 1511 | 1C |  |  |  | 38 | 3.17 | 3.13 |
| E | D1 | 61 | 4111 | 32 | 2131 | 23 | 11 | 1121 | 1114 | 1211 | 1312 | 16 | 1D |  |  | 38 | 2.92 | 2.67 |
| F | E1 | 72 | 41 | 3121 | 21 | 22 | 27 | 1161 | 1111 | 12 | 1213 | 14 | 1611 | 1E |  | 38 | 2.71 | 2.67 |
| G | F1 | 71 | 53 | 31 | 35 | 2111 | 2311 | 11 | 1132 | 1112 | 1241 | 13 | 1421 | 17 | 1 F | 40 | 2.67 | 2.80 |

Table D.1: Even Length

| $a \backslash r$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | Total | Avg. | E. V. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1 | 1 |  |
| 2 | 2 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 2 | 1 | 1.55 |
| 3 | 3 | 111 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 5 | 1.67 | 1.90 |
| 4 | 4 | 2 | 121 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 6 | 1.5 | 1.70 |
| 5 | 5 | 211 | 112 | 131 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 11 | 2.2 | 2.33 |
| 6 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 111 | 141 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 10 | 1.67 | 1.88 |
| 7 | 7 | 311 | 221 | 113 | 122 | 7 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 15 | 2.14 | 2.61 |
| 8 | 8 | 4 | 212 | 2 | 11111 | 121 | 161 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 19 | 2.38 | 1.98 |
| 9 | 9 | 411 | 3 | 231 | 114 | 111 | 132 | 171 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  | 21 | 2.33 | 2.51 |
| A | A | 5 | 321 | 211 | 2 | 112 | 123 | 121 | 181 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  | 22 | 2.20 | 2.35 |
| B | B | 511 | 312 | 213 | 241 | 115 | 11121 | 12111 | 142 | 191 | 1 |  |  |  |  | 33 | 3 | 2.99 |
| C | C | 6 | 4 | 3 | 222 | 2 | 11211 | 111 | 121 | 141 | 1A1 | 1 |  |  |  | 26 | 2.17 | 2.32 |
| D | D | 611 | 421 | 331 | 21111 | 251 | 116 | 11112 | 124 | 133 | 152 | 1B1 | 1 |  |  | 39 | 3 | 3.13 |
| E | E | 7 | 412 | 311 | 214 | 221 | 2 | 113 | 11131 | 122 | 13111 | 151 | 1 C 1 | 1 |  | 38 | 2.71 | 2.67 |
| F | F | 711 | 5 | 313 | 3 | 211 | 261 | 117 | 112 | 111 | 12121 | 131 | 162 | 1D1 | 1 | 39 | 2.60 | 2.67 |

Table D.2: Odd Length

## Appendix E

## Some Estimates for $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(X)})$

Consider $D(X)=4927230^{2} X^{2}+2(12138809742675) X+6069410874450$. In this case, $A^{\prime}=385$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=158$.

In the table below, we list the actual value of $\operatorname{lp}(\sqrt{D(158 W+K)})$ for some values of $K$ and an estimate obtained by

$$
\left\lfloor\kappa \cdot\left(\frac{12 \ln 2}{\pi^{2}}\left(\ln A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}-\sum_{d \mid A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}} \frac{\Lambda(d)}{d}\right)+0.97\right)\right\rfloor
$$

where $\kappa$ is either $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or $2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$, $d$ is a proper divisor of $A^{\prime} \Delta^{\prime}$ and $\Lambda(d)$ is von Mangoldt's function given in Chapter 6. When $\kappa=2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$, the estimates are boldfaced.

| $K$ | 1 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 17 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Actual | 910 | 324 | 596 | 294 | 294 | 552 | 914 | 136 | 224 | 532 | 353 | 3766 |
| Est. | 968 | 322 | 553 | 304 | 304 | 553 | 968 | 138 | 276 | 553 | 387 | 3551 |
| $K$ | 19 | 20 | 21 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 29 | 31 | 32 | 34 | 35 |
| Actual | 118 | 102 | 500 | 326 | 92 | 44 | 1478 | 1952 | 918 | 164 | 118 | 532 |
| Est. | 138 | 138 | 553 | 322 | 110 | 55 | 1522 | 1937 | 968 | 184 | 138 | 553 |

Table E.1: Some estimates for $\operatorname{lp}\left(\sqrt{4927230^{2} X^{2}+2(12138809742675) X+6069410874450}\right)$

In the above example, we did not include entries for $K=2,8,9,11,16,18, \ldots$ They are omitted because the corresponding $\kappa$ is not $\omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$ or $2 \omega\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right)$.

## Appendix F

## Constructing $D(X)$

When we study the continued fraction expansion of $\sqrt{D(X)}$, where $D(X)=A^{2} X^{2}+2 B X+C$ and $\Delta=B^{2}-A^{2} C$ divides $4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$, it is imperative to have examples of such $D(X)$. It is not difficult to find certain $D(X)$ via a trial and error method using a computer, i.e, testing whether an integer triple $\left(A^{2}, 2 B, C\right)$ satisfies the Schinzel condition. However, there is a severe drawback to this approach: we cannot predict the important values, such as $A^{\prime}$ and $\Delta^{\prime}$. In particular, if we want to have a large $A^{\prime}$ or $\Delta^{\prime}$, the trial and error method could take a good deal of time. Here, we provide a simple method to find $D(X)$ that allows us to choose the values of $A^{\prime}$ and $\Delta^{\prime}$.

Recall from Section 4.2 that $|\Delta|=\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}$, where $\Delta_{1}$ and $\Delta_{2}$ are squarefree. By (4.12), $\operatorname{gcd}(A, B)=\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau$, where $\Gamma$ and $\tau$ are defined on page 99 and $\tau$ is either 1 or 2. Also, we defined $A^{\prime}=A /\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma$ in Section 4.2. Now, we write $B^{\prime}=B /\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)$. Note that $B^{\prime}=B^{*} / \Gamma$, where $B^{*}$ was defined in Section 4.2. It is clear that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)=1$.

The Schinzel condition says that $\Delta \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$, i.e., $\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4} \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{2}, B\right)^{2}$. Since $\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}^{2} \Delta_{4}^{4}=\Delta_{1}\left(\tau \Delta_{4} / \Gamma\right)^{2}\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right)^{2}$, the Schinzel condition can be written as

$$
\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A \cdot A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)^{2}
$$

Since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)=1$, we have

$$
4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A \cdot A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)^{2}=4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)^{2}=4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau\right), B^{\prime}\right)^{2}=4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau, B^{\prime}\right)^{2}
$$

Thus, the Schinzel condition becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2} \mid 4 \operatorname{gcd}\left(\Gamma \Delta_{2} \Delta_{4} / \tau, B^{\prime}\right)^{2} \tag{F.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

This implies that $\Delta^{\prime} \mid 2 B^{\prime}$. For the sake of simplicity, we assume that $\Delta^{\prime} \mid B^{\prime}$, i.e, $B^{\prime}=k \Delta^{\prime}$ for non-zero integer $k$.

Now, $B^{2}-A^{2} C=\Delta$ implies that $B^{\prime 2}-A^{\prime 2} C=\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}$. Since $\Delta^{\prime} \mid B^{\prime}$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)=1$, we have $\Delta^{\prime 2} \mid C$. Thus, we may write $C=m \Delta^{\prime 2}$ for some non-zero integer $m$. Now we rewrite $B^{\prime 2}-A^{\prime 2} C=\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}$ as

$$
\left(k \Delta^{\prime}\right)^{2}-A^{\prime 2} m \Delta^{\prime 2}=\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
k^{2}-A^{\prime 2} m=\Delta_{1}
$$

since $\Delta^{\prime}$ is non-zero. Hence,

$$
A^{\prime 2}=\frac{k^{2}-\Delta_{1}}{m}
$$

To find solutions to the above equation, we first fix $\Delta_{1}$, say $\Delta_{1}=1,2$, and then vary $k$ to compute $k^{2}-\Delta_{1}$. We seek square factors in $k^{2}-\Delta_{1}$ as $k$ varies. When we find some square factor in $k^{2}-\Delta_{1}$ that we want, we put it as $A^{\prime 2}$ and set $m=\left(k^{2}-\Delta_{1}\right) / A^{\prime 2}$. Now that we have $A^{\prime 2}, m$ and $k$, we have a solution to $k^{2}-A^{\prime 2} m=\Delta_{1}$. We may now choose any $\Delta^{\prime}$, co-prime to $A^{\prime}$, to get

$$
\left(k \Delta^{\prime}\right)^{2}-A^{\prime 2} m \Delta^{\prime 2}=\Delta_{1} \Delta^{\prime 2}
$$

For simplicity's sake, we set $\Delta_{2}=1, \tau=1$ and $\Gamma=1$. Then $\Delta_{4}=\Delta^{\prime}, A=A^{\prime} \Delta_{4}, B=B^{\prime} \Delta_{4}$ and $C=m \Delta^{\prime 2}$.

We note that the above method can be modified to accommodate the cases where $\tau=2$, $\Delta_{2}=2$.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The entries with * have been referred to in the thesis.

