

On the approximation of real numbers by roots of integers

by

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To J. G. van der Corput on his 75th birthday

Let A be the set of all numbers a > 1 for which none of the powers a, a^2, a^3, \ldots is an integer. For every positive integer n there exists at least one integer g_n which is closest to a^n and thus satisfies the inequality

$$|a^n - g_n| \leqslant 1/2.$$

We are here concerned with the lower limit

$$P(a) = \liminf |a^n - g_n|^{1/n}$$

which trivially has the property

$$0 \leq P(\alpha) \leq 1$$
 for all $\alpha \in A$.

A few years ago, one of us (Mahler, 1957) proved that

$$P(a) = 1$$
 if a is any rational number in A.

One can further show that there are irrational algebraic numbers $a \in A$ for which P(a) = 1; e.g. the number $\frac{1}{2}(2+\sqrt{3}+\sqrt{3}+4\sqrt{3})$ is of this kind. It is also well known that there exist algebraic numbers a in A for which

e.g. the number $\frac{1}{2}(1+\sqrt{5})$ has this property.

In the present note, the following three results will be proved.

- (a) If P(a) = 0, then a is transcendental.
- (b) In every neighbourhood of every number x > 1 there exist non-countably many $a \in A$ for which P(a) = 0.
- (c) For almost all a in Λ , P(a) = 1; thus there are transcendental numbers with this property.

Proof of (a). Let a be an algebraic number of degree m, and let

$$f(x) = a_0 x^m + a_1 x^{m-1} + \dots + a_m = a_0 \prod_{\mu=0}^{m-1} (x - \alpha^{(\mu)})$$

be a primitive irreducible polynomial with integral coefficients of which $a=a^{(0)}$ is a zero. For each n the product

$$a_0^n \prod_{\mu=0}^{m-1} (a^{(\mu)n} - g_n) = p_n$$

say, is an integer. This integer is distinct from zero because $a^n \neq g_n$ and hence also

$$a^{(\mu)n}-g_n\neq 0 \qquad (\mu=0,1,\ldots,m-1).$$

Therefore

$$|p_n| \geqslant 1$$
.

Next a > 1, hence $g_n \ge 1$, and therefore

$$|a^{(\mu)n}-g_n| \leq g_n(|a^{(\mu)}|+1)^n,$$

so that

$$|a_0|^n \prod_{\mu=1}^{m-1} |a^{(\mu)n} - g_n| \leq g_n^{m-1} \{|a_0| \prod_{\mu=1}^{m-1} (|a^{(\mu)}| + 1)\}^n.$$

Here

$$g_n \leqslant a^n + \frac{1}{2} < (2a)^n$$

and so finally

$$1 \leqslant |p_n| \leqslant |a^n - g_n| \left\{ (2a)^{m-1} |a_0| \prod_{\mu=1}^{m-1} (|a^{(\mu)}| + 1) \right\}^n.$$

There exists then a constant c > 1 depending only on α such that

$$|a^n - g_n| \geqslant c^{-n}$$
 for all n ,

proving that P(a) > 0. Conversely, if P(a) = 0, then α necessarily is transcendental.

Proof of (b). Let x>1, $0<\varepsilon<\frac{1}{2}(x-1)$. We show that there is a sequence of positive integers

$$1 = n_0 < n_1 < n_2 < \ldots < n_k < \ldots$$

depending on x, but not on ε , with the following property:

Given any sequence $\{\eta_k\}$ with η_k equal to either 0 or 1 (briefly, an η -sequence), there is a real number α , where

$$(1) \quad 0 < x - \alpha < \varepsilon,$$

such that

(2)
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \{ |a^{n_k} - g_{n_k}|^{1/n_k} - \eta_k \} = 0.$$

Clearly if $\eta_k = 0$ for infinitely many values of k, then P(a) = 0; and if $\{\eta_k\}$, $\{\eta_k'\}$ are two essentially different η -sequences, i.e. such that $\eta_k \neq \eta_k'$ for infinitely many k, then the corresponding real numbers a and a' are distinct. Since there are non-countably many essentially different η -sequences, we obtain non-countably many a with P(a) = 0 in the (left) ϵ -neighbourhood of x, hence also non-countably many $a \in A$ with this property.

For the proof take any increasing sequence n_k which satisfies the condition

$$(3) \qquad -\frac{1}{n_k}\log\biggl(1-2\left(\frac{1+x}{2}\right)^{-n_k}\biggr)\leqslant \frac{x-1}{x+1}\,2^{-kn_{k-1}}x^{-n_{k-1}}/n_{k-1} \quad \text{for} \quad k>0\,.$$

The condition is clearly satisfied if n_k increases sufficiently rapidly.

Let $\{\eta_k\}$ be an arbitrary η -sequence and $\varepsilon > 0$; we may assume $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{2}$. Determine K > 1 so that

$$(4) \qquad \qquad \prod_{k=K}^{\infty} (1-2^{-k}) > 1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{x}.$$

We define now $x=x_0\geqslant x_1\geqslant x_2\geqslant \dots$ as follows: For $0\leqslant k< K$ we set $x_k=x$. Suppose that for some $k\geqslant K$, x_{k-1} has already been determined so that

(5)
$$\frac{1}{2}(1+x) + 2^{-k}(x-1) \leqslant x_{k-1} \leqslant x.$$

Set

(6)
$$x_{k-1}^{n_k} = a_k + \lambda_k, \quad a_k \text{ integer, } 1 \leq \lambda_k < 2.$$

We then define

Clearly $\frac{1}{2}\eta_k + 2^{-kn_k} \leqslant 1 \leqslant \lambda_k$, $x_k \leqslant x_{k-1}$, and so the second half of inequality (5) is satisfied. We now show that also

$$x_k \ge \frac{1}{3}(1-x)+2^{-k-1}(x-1).$$

Set

$$(8) x_k = x_{k-1} \left(1 - \frac{\delta_k}{n_k} \right).$$

By (6) and (7) we have for $k \ge K$

$$a_k + \frac{1}{2} \eta_k + 2^{-kn_k} = (a_k + \lambda_k) \left(1 - \frac{\delta_k}{n_k} \right)^{n_k},$$

or setting

$$\zeta_k = \lambda_k - \frac{1}{2} \eta_k - 2^{-kn_k}, \quad 0 \leqslant \zeta_k < 2,$$

$$1 - \zeta_k x_{k-1}^{-n_k} = \left(1 - \frac{\delta_k}{r}\right)^{n_k} < e^{-\delta_k}.$$

By (5) therefore

$$(9) \qquad 0\leqslant \delta_k\leqslant -\log\left(1-\zeta_k\left(\frac{1+x}{2}\right)^{-n_k}\right)<-\log\left(1-2\left(\frac{1+x}{2}\right)^{-n_k}\right),$$

hence by (5) and (8),

$$x_k \geqslant \frac{1}{2}(x+1) + 2^{-k}(x-1) \left(1 + \frac{1}{n_k} \log \left(1 - 2 \left(\frac{1+x}{2} \right)^{-n_k} \right) \right)$$

$$\geqslant \frac{1}{n}(x+1) + 2^{-k-1}(x-1),$$

since

$$\begin{split} (10) \quad \frac{1}{n_k} \log \left(1 - 2 \left(\frac{1+x}{2} \right)^{-n_k} \right) \geqslant & - \frac{x-1}{x+1} \, 2^{-kn_{k-1}} x^{-n_{k-1}} / n_{k-1} \\ & > & - \frac{x-1}{x+1} \, 2^{-k-1} \geqslant - \left(2 + \frac{x+1}{x-1} \, 2^k \right)^{-1} \end{split}$$

by (3). Thus (5) is proved for x_k .

From (5) and the monotonity of x_k it follows that $\alpha = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_k$ exists and $\frac{1}{2}(1+x) \leqslant \alpha \leqslant x$. From (8) and (9) we find, since $\delta_k = 0$ for $1 \leqslant k < K$, that

$$\begin{split} a &= x \prod_{k=K}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{\delta_k}{n_k}\right) \geqslant x \prod_{k=K}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n_k} \log\left(1 - 2\left(\frac{1+x}{2}\right)^{-n_k}\right)\right) \\ &\geqslant x \prod_{k=K}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{x+1}{x-1} 2^k\right) \left(2 + \frac{x+1}{x-1} 2^k\right)^{-1} \\ &\geqslant x \prod_{k=K}^{\infty} \left(1 - 2^{-k}\right) > x \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{x}\right) = x - \varepsilon \end{split}$$

by (10) and (4). Hence (1) is proved.

It only remains to verify (2). We shall first prove that

(11)
$$x_m^{n_k} \geqslant a_k + \frac{1}{2} \eta_k + 2^{-mn_k} \quad \text{for} \quad m \geqslant k > 0.$$

Equality obviously holds for m = k, by (7); suppose therefore that the inequality is true for m-1. We then have for m > k

$$x_m^{n_k} = x_{m-1}^{n_k} \left(1 - \frac{\delta_m}{n_m} \right)^{n_k}$$
 (by (8))
= $(a_k + \frac{1}{2}\eta_k + 2^{-(m-1)n_k}) \left(1 + \frac{1}{n_m} \log \left(1 - 2\left(\frac{1+x}{2} \right)^{-n_m} \right) \right)^{n_k}$ (by (9) and (11))

$$\geqslant (a_k + \frac{1}{2}\eta_k + 2^{-(m-1)n_k})(1 - 2^{-mn_k}x^{-n_k})$$
 (by (3))

$$\geqslant (a_k + \frac{1}{2} \eta_k + 2^{-(m-1)n_k}) (1 - 2^{-mn_k} x_{k-1}^{-n_k})$$
 (by (5))

$$\geqslant a_k + \frac{1}{2}\eta_k + 2^{-(m-1)n_k} - 2^{-mn_k}$$
 (by (6))

$$\geqslant a_k + \frac{1}{2} \eta_k + 2^{-mn_k},$$

and (11) is proved. But (11) implies

$$a^{n_k} = \lim_{m \to \infty} x_m^{n_k} \geqslant a_k + \frac{1}{2} \eta_k.$$

On the other hand

$$a^{n_k} \leqslant x_k^{n_k} = a_k + \frac{1}{3} \eta_k + 2^{-kn_k}$$

by (7), therefore

$$|a^{n_k} - a_k|^{1/n_k} \le 2^{-k}$$
 if $\eta_k = 0$,
 $2^{-1/n_k} \le |a^{n_k} - a_k|^{1/n_k} \le (\frac{1}{2} + 2^{-kn_k})^{1/n_k}$ if $\eta_k = 1$,

and (2) holds with $g_{n_k} = a_k$.

Proof of (c). Let ε , a and b be real numbers satisfying

$$0 \le \varepsilon \le 1 \le a < b$$
.

and denote by $A(\varepsilon)$ the set of all $a \in A$ satisfying $P(a) \leq 1-\varepsilon$, and by $A(\varepsilon, a, b)$ the subset of those $a \in A(\varepsilon)$ for which

$$a \leqslant a \leqslant b$$
.

The upper bound for P(a) means that there exists to a an infinite set N of positive integers n satisfying

$$|\alpha^n - g_n| \leqslant (1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)^n, \quad g_n \geqslant 2.$$

Therefore, if $\alpha \in A(\varepsilon, a, b)$, then for each such n,

$$\frac{1}{2}a^n \leqslant \frac{1}{2}a^n \leqslant g_n \leqslant 2a^n \leqslant 2b^n$$

because

$$(1-\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)^n \leqslant 1 \leqslant \frac{1}{2}g_n.$$

This further implies that, if $n \in N$ is given, the integer g_n has not more than $2b^n$ possibilities. Next, if both $n \in N$ and g_n are given, then a is by (12) restricted to the interval

$$I_n(g_n): \{g_n - (1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)^n\}^{1/n} \leqslant \alpha \leqslant \{g_n + (1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)^n\}^{1/n}$$

of length

$$\{g_n + (1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)^n\}^{1/n} - \{g_n - (1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)^n\}^{1/n} \sim \frac{2(1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)^n}{ng_h^{(n-1)/n}}.$$

For large n this is less than $(1-\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)^n/a^{n-1}$ because

$$g_n^{(n-1)/n} \geqslant 2^{-(n-1)/n} a^{n-1} > \frac{2}{n} a^{n-1}.$$

Therefore, for each sufficiently large element n of N, the total length of all the intervals $I_n(g_n)$ corresponding to possible values of g_n is less than

$$2b^n \frac{\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon\right)^n}{a^{n-1}} = 2a \left(\frac{\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon\right)b}{a}\right)^n.$$

This again implies that every point α of $A(\varepsilon, a, b)$ lies in the union of a countable set of intervals of total length not exceeding

$$S_m = \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} 2a \left(\frac{(1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)b}{a} \right)^n,$$

where m can be chosen as large as we please.

If now

$$b<\frac{a}{1-\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon},$$

then S_1 converges, and hence $A(\varepsilon, a, b)$ has the Lebesgue measure zero. Since the set $A(\varepsilon)$ can be written as

$$A(\varepsilon) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A\left(\varepsilon, (1 - \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon)^{-(n-1)}, (1 - \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon)^{-n}\right),$$

it evidently is a union of countably many sets all of measure zero. Therefore A(s) and hence also $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A(1/n)$ have the measure zero, which proves the assertion.

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