# THE LENGTH OF THE PERIOD OF THE SIMPLE CONTINUED FRACTION OF $d^{1 / 2}$. 

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$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Let } p(d) \text { denote the length of the period of the simple } \\
& \text { continued fraction for } d^{1 / 2} \text { and } \varepsilon \text { the fundamental unit in } \\
& \text { the ring } Z\left[d^{1 / 2}\right] \text {. We prove that as } d \rightarrow \infty \text {, } \\
& \text { Theorem 1. } p(d) \leqq 7 / 2 \pi^{-2} d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right) \text {. } \\
& \text { Theorem 2. } \log \varepsilon \leqq 3 \pi^{-2} d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right) \text {. } \\
& \text { Theorem 3. } p(d) \neq o\left(d^{1 / 2} / \log \log d\right) \text {. } \\
& \text { Theorem 4. If } \log \varepsilon \neq o\left(d^{1 / 2} \log d\right) \text { then also } \\
& p(d) \neq o\left(d^{1 / 2} \log d\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Recently Hickerson [1] has proved that $p(d)=O\left(d^{1 / 2+\gamma}\right)$ for every $\delta>0$, and in fact a result somewhat more precise than this. Lehmer [2] has suggested that for arbitrarily large $d, p(d)$ might be as large as $0.30 d^{1 / 2} \log d$, and if this is indeed the case then Theorem 1 is almost the best possible result. In fact it is easy to show that $p(d)=O\left(d^{1 / 2} \log d\right)$ using known results regarding $\log \varepsilon$, but the constant in Theorem 1 improves the best obtainable in this way.

Let $\varepsilon_{0}$ denote the fundamental unit in the field $Q\left(d^{1 / 2}\right),\left[a_{0}, \overline{a_{1}}, a_{2}\right.$, $\left.\cdots a_{p(d)-1}, 2 a_{0}\right]$ the continued fraction for $d^{1 / 2}$ and $P_{r} / Q_{r}$ its $r$ th convergent. Then as is well known $\varepsilon=\varepsilon_{0}$ or $\varepsilon_{0}^{3}$. Thus by the result of Stephens [3],

$$
\log \varepsilon \leqq 3 \log \varepsilon_{0} \leqq \frac{3}{2}\left(1-e^{-1 / 2}+\delta\right) d^{1 / 2} \log d
$$

Now $Q_{0}=1, Q_{1}=a_{1} \geqq 1$ and $Q_{r+2}=a_{r+2} Q_{r+1}+Q_{r} \geqq Q_{r+1}+Q_{r}$ and so by induction $Q_{r} \geqq u_{r+1}$, the Fibonacci number, for $r \geqq 0$. Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon & =P_{p(d)-1}+Q_{p(d)-1} d^{1 / 2} \\
& >2 d^{1 / 2} Q_{p(d)-1}-1 \\
& \geqq 2 d^{1 / 2} u_{p(d)}-1 \\
& >\left\{\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right\}^{p(d)},
\end{aligned}
$$

and so $p(d)<A d^{1 / 2} \log d$ where $A$ is approximately $5 / 4$.
In exactly the same way, using $a_{r}<d^{1 / 2}$ for $0 \leqq r<p(d)$ it is possible to show that $p(d) \gg \log \varepsilon / \log d$. Since $d=2^{2 k+1}$ gives $\varepsilon=$ $(1+\sqrt{2})^{2^{k}}$, we find that for arbitrarily large $d$ it is possible for $p(d) \gg d^{1 / 2} / \log d$, and it will be shown that this can be improved at
least by replacing the $\log d$ by $\log \log d$. Theorems 1 and 3 together show that the scope for sharpening the results is somewhat limited; nevertheless the remaining problem is important and worthy of further study, for as we mention in the concluding remarks, if it could be proved that $p(d)=o\left(d^{1 / 2} \log d\right)$ this would imply also that $\log \varepsilon=o\left(d^{1 / 2} \log d\right)$ a result which has been sought in vain for many years.

Throughout we use $\varepsilon_{1}$ to denote the fundamental unit in $Z\left[d^{1 / 2}\right]$ with norm +1 ; then $\varepsilon_{1}=\varepsilon$ or $\varepsilon^{2}$. In accordance with established practice, if for given integers $d$ and $N$ there exist integers $X$ and $Y$ with $X^{2}-d Y^{2}=N$, then we say that $X+Y d^{1 / 2}$ is a solution of the equation $x^{2}-d y^{2}=N$. Given one such solution, all the members of the set $\pm\left(X+Y d^{1 / 2}\right) \varepsilon_{1}^{n}$ are also solutions, and this set is called a class of solutions. A given equation may well have more than one such class of solutions, but it is well known that the number of such classes is finite.

Lemma 1. For each $r,\left|P_{r}^{2}-d Q_{r}^{2}\right|<2 d^{1 / 2}$.

This is well known.
Lemma 2. For a class $K$ of solutions of $x^{2}-d y^{2}=N$, the g.c.d., $(x, y)$ depends only upon $K$.

For if $x_{1}+y_{1} d^{1 / 2}$ and $x_{2}+y_{2} d^{1 / 2}$ belong to the same class, then for some integer $n$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{1}+y_{1} d^{1 / 2} & = \pm\left(x_{2}+y_{2} d^{1 / 2}\right) \varepsilon_{1}^{n} \\
& = \pm\left(x_{2}+y_{2} d^{1 / 2}\right)\left(a_{n}+b_{n} d^{1 / 2}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

say. Thus $\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right) \mid\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ and similarly conversely.
A class $K$ for which $(x, y)=1$ is called a primitive class. The main result used in the proof of the theorems is

Lemma 3. The number of primitive classes, $f(N ; d)$, of $x^{2}-d y^{2}=$ $N$ does not exceed $2^{\omega(|N|)}$. In the special case $2 \| N, f(N ; d) \leqq 2^{\omega(|N|)-1}$. Here $\omega(N)$ denotes the number of distinct prime factors of $N$.

Proof. In the first place it suffices to consider the case in which $(N, d)$ is square-free. For if $(N, d)=k_{1}^{2} k_{2}$ where $k_{2}$ is square-free, $(x, y)=1$ and $x^{2}-d y^{2}=N$ then $k_{1} \mid x$ and so if $x_{1}=x / k_{1}, N_{1}=N / k_{1}^{2}$ and $d_{1}=d / k_{1}^{2}$ then $x_{1}^{2}-d_{1} y^{2}=N_{1}$ with $\left(x_{1}, y\right)=1$. For the latter equation we now have $\left(N_{1}, d_{1}\right)=k_{2}$ which is square-free and so the total number of classes of primitive solutions of the given equation
does not exceed $2^{\omega\left(\left|N_{1}\right|\right)} \leqq 2^{\omega(|N|)}$ in the general case, or $2^{\omega\left(|N|_{1}\right)-1} \leqq$ $2^{\omega(|N|)-1}$ in the special case $2 \| N$ since in this case $2 \| N_{1}$ also. We suppose therefore from now on that ( $N, d$ ) is square-free.

Let $p$ denote any prime dividing $N$, and suppose that $p^{s}| | N$;
(i) if $p \mid d$ then $p \mid x$, whence $p^{2} \nmid d y^{2}$ otherwise we should find, since $p \nmid y$ that $p^{2} \mid d$ and $p^{2} \mid N$. Hence $s=1$ and so $x y^{-1} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{s}\right)$.
(ii) if $p \nmid d$ then $p$ can divide neither $x$ nor $y$, otherwise it would have to divide them both. Thus $\left(x y^{-1}\right)^{2} \equiv d\left(\bmod p^{s}\right)$ and so if $p$ is odd, $x y^{-1} \equiv \pm \alpha_{p}\left(\bmod p^{s}\right)$.
(iii) if $p \nmid d, p=2$ then $\left(x y^{-1}\right)^{2} \equiv d\left(\bmod p^{s}\right)$ gives
(a) if $s=1, x y^{-1} \equiv d(\bmod 2)$, i.e., $x y^{-1} \equiv d\left(\bmod p^{s}\right)$
(b) if $s=2$, since $x^{2}-d y^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ and both $x$ and $y$ are odd, $d \equiv 1(\bmod 4) \quad$ whence $\left(x y^{-1}\right)^{2} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, i.e., $x y^{-1} \equiv \pm 1(\bmod 4)$, i.e., $x y^{-1} \equiv \pm 1\left(\bmod p^{s}\right)$
(c) if $s \geqq 3$, then $d \equiv 1(\bmod 8)$ and now $\left(x y^{-1}\right)^{2} \equiv d\left(\bmod 2^{s}\right)$ gives $x y^{-1} \equiv \pm a\left(\bmod 2^{s-1}\right)$.

Combining (i), (ii), and (iii) and using the Chinese Remainder Theorem, we see that $x y^{-1}$ is congruent to one of at most

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
2^{\omega(N)-1} & \text { residues modulo } N \text { if } 2 \| N \\
2^{\omega(|N|)} & \text { residues modulo } N \text { unless } 8 \mid N \\
2^{\omega(|N|)} & \text { residues modulo } \frac{1}{2} N \text { if } \\
8 \mid N .
\end{array}
$$

Next we prove that if $x^{2}-d y^{2}=X^{2}-d Y^{2}=N$ and if $x y^{-1} \equiv$ $X Y^{-1}(\bmod N)$ then $x+y d^{1 / 2}$ and $X+Y d^{1 / 2}$ belong to the same class $K$. For

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{x+y d^{1 / 2}}{X+Y d^{1 / 2}} & =\frac{\left(x+y d^{1 / 2}\right)\left(X-Y d^{1 / 2}\right)}{X^{2}-d Y^{2}}=\frac{x X-d y Y}{N}+\frac{-x Y+X y}{N} d^{1 / 2} \\
& =A+B d^{1 / 2}, \quad \text { say }
\end{aligned}
$$

Now $B$ is an integer and $A$ rational, and since $A^{2}-d B^{2}=1$ it follows that $A$ too is an integer, and so that result of the lemma follows, except if $8 \mid N$.

Finally, if $8 \mid N$ then we find that if $x y^{-1} \equiv X Y^{-1}(\bmod 1 / 2 N)$ then $x+y d^{1 / 2}$ and $X+Y d^{1 / 2}$ belong to the same class; for if as above $A+B d^{1 / 2}$ denote their quotient, we find that $B$ equals either an integer or else half an odd integer. In the former case the result follows as above. In the latter case we find $(2 A)^{2}=d(2 B)^{2}+4$ and since now $2 B$ is an odd integer and $4 \nmid d, 2 A$ is also an odd integer, whence $d \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$. But this is inconsistent with $x^{2}-d y^{9} \equiv 0(\bmod 8)$ where $(x, y)=1$ and so this latter case does not arise. This concludes the proof.

Lemma 4. If $N(\varepsilon)=1$, then

$$
f(N, d)+f(-N, d) \leqq 2^{\omega(|N|)}
$$

and

$$
f(N, d)+f(-N, d) \leqq 2^{\omega(|N|)-1} \quad \text { if } \quad 2 \| N
$$

Proof. After Lemma 3, it merely remains to prove that $x^{2}-d y^{2}=$ $N$ and $X^{2}-d Y^{2}=-N$ with $x y^{-1} \equiv X Y^{-1}(\bmod N)$, or even $(\bmod 1 / 2 N)$ if $8 \mid N$, is impossible. For we should obtain if

$$
A+B d^{1 / 2}=\left(x+y d^{1 / 2}\right)\left(X+Y d^{1 / 2}\right)^{-1}
$$

that $A^{2}-d B^{2}=-1$ with either $A$ and $B$ both integers, or else both half integers. Both cases are impossible if $N(\varepsilon)=+1$.

Lemma 5. (1) If $N(\varepsilon)=1$ then

$$
p(d) \leqq \sum_{0<N<2 d^{1 / 2}}\{f(N ; d)+f(-N ; d)\}
$$

(2) If $N(\varepsilon)=-1$ then

$$
p(d) \leqq \sum_{0<N<2 d^{1 / 2}} f(N ; d)
$$

Proof. If $0 \leqq m<n \leqq p(d)-1$ then $P_{m}+Q_{m} d^{1 / 2}$ and $P_{n}+Q_{n} d^{1 / 2}$ are primitive solutions in distint classes; they are primitive since $\left(P_{r}, Q_{r}\right)=1$ and are in distinct classes since

$$
1<P_{m}+Q_{m} d^{1 / 2}<P_{n}+Q_{n} d^{1 / 2} \leqq \varepsilon_{1} .
$$

Hence using Lemma 1,

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(d) \leqq & \text { the number of distinct primitive classes of all } \\
& \text { equations } x^{2}-d y^{2}=N \text { with }-2 d^{1 / 2}<N<2 d^{1 / 2} \\
& =\sum_{-2 d^{1 / 2}<N<2 d^{1 / 2}} f(N ; d), \quad \text { which gives (1). }
\end{aligned}
$$

If $N(\varepsilon)=-1$ then the above reasoning applies if $0 \leqq m<n \leqq$ $2 p(d)-1$ and so (2) follows, since if $N(\varepsilon)=-1, f(N ; d)=f(-N ; d)$.

We remark that this result is best possible for example for the values $d=7,13$ respectively.

Lemma 6. As $x \rightarrow \infty$

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(x)=\sum_{1 \leqq N \leqq x} 2^{\omega(N)}=c x \log x+O(x) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(x)=\sum_{\substack{1<N \leqslant x \\ 2 / \sqrt{N}}} 2^{\omega(N)}=\frac{2}{3} c x \log x+O(x) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(x)=\sum_{\substack{1 \leqslant \leqslant \leqslant \leq x \\ 2 X_{N} \leq x}} 2^{\omega(N)}=\frac{1}{3} c x \log x+O(x), \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
C(x)=\sum_{\substack{1<N \leqq x \\ 4 \mid N}} 2^{\omega(N)}=\frac{1}{3} c x \log x+O(x), \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(x)=\sum_{\substack{1<\lambda \leqq x \\ 8 / N}} 2^{\omega(N)}=\frac{1}{6} c x \log x+O(x) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

(6) $E(x)=\sum_{\substack{1<N \leq x \\ 16 \mid / \bar{N}}} 2^{\omega(N)}=\frac{1}{12} c x \log x+O(x)$, where $c=6 \pi^{-2}$.

Proof. (1) The identity

$$
2^{\omega(N)}=\sum_{k^{2} \mid N} d\left(\frac{N}{k^{2}}\right) \mu(k)
$$

is easily proved by induction on the number of distinct prime factors of $N$. For if $N$ is a prime or a prime power the result is immediate, and then the identity follows on observing that $2^{\omega}, d$ and $\mu$ are all multiplicative. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(x) & =\sum_{1 \leqq N \leqq x} \sum_{k^{2} \mid N} d\left(\frac{N}{k^{2}}\right) \mu(k) \\
& =\sum_{1 \leqq k \leq x^{1 / 2}} \sum_{1 \leqq k_{1} \leq x k_{k}-2} d\left(k_{1}\right) \mu(k) \\
& =\sum_{1 \leqq k \leq x^{1 / 2}} \mu(k) \sum_{1 \leq k_{1} \leq x x k^{-2}} d\left(k_{1}\right) \\
& =\sum_{1 \leqq k \leq x^{1 / 2}} \mu(k)\left\{\frac{x}{k^{2}} \log \frac{x}{k^{2}}+O\left(\frac{x}{k^{2}}\right)\right\} \\
& =\sum_{1 \leqq k \leq x^{1 / 2}} \frac{x \mu(k) \log x}{k^{2}}+O(x) \\
& =\frac{x \log x}{\zeta(2)}+O(x) \\
& =c x \log x+O(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A(2 x)=\sum_{\substack{1<N \leq 1 \leq x \\
2 \mid N}} 2^{\omega(N)} \\
& =\sum_{1 \leqq 1 / 2 N<x} 2^{\omega(2 \cdot 1 / 2 N)}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\sum_{\substack{1<1|2 N \leq x \\
21| 2 N}} 2^{\omega(1 / 2 N)}+\sum_{\substack{1 \leq 1,2 N \leq x \\
2,1 / X 2 N}} 2^{1+\omega(1 / 2 N)} \\
& =A(x)+2 B(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $A(2 x)+A(x)=2 A(x)+2 B(x)=2 F(x)$. We now prove by induction that

$$
A(x)=2 \sum_{r=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{r-1} F\left(x \cdot 2^{-r}\right)
$$

For, if $x=1$, the result is clearly true since both sides vanish, and then if true for $x \leqq x_{0}$, we have for $x \leqq 2 x_{0}$,

$$
A(x)=2 F\left(\frac{1}{2} x\right)-A\left(\frac{1}{2} x\right)
$$

which is again of the required form, and this completes the induction. Now $F(y)=0$ if $y<1$ and so we have

$$
A(x)=2 \sum_{r=1}^{k}(-1)^{r-1} F\left(x \cdot 2^{-r}\right),
$$

where

$$
k=\left[\frac{\log x}{\log 2}\right]
$$

Now by (1)

$$
|F(y)-c y \log y|<C y
$$

for some constant $C$ and all $y>1$. Thus

$$
\left|A(x)-2 c \sum_{r=1}^{k}(-1)^{r-1} \frac{x}{2^{r}} \cdot \log \frac{x}{2^{r}}\right|<2 C \sum_{r=1}^{k} \frac{x}{2^{r}}<2 C x .
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|A(x)-2 c \sum_{r=1}^{k}(-1)^{r-1} \frac{x}{2^{r}} \log x\right| & <2 C x+2 c x \log 2 \cdot \sum_{r=1}^{k} r \cdot 2^{-r} \\
& <C_{1} x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{r=1}^{k}(-1)^{r-1} \frac{x}{2^{r}} \log x & =\frac{1}{2} x \log x \cdot \frac{1-\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{k}}{1-\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)} \\
& =\frac{1}{3} x \log x\left\{1+O\left(x^{-1}\right)\right\} \\
& =\frac{1}{3} x \log x+O(\log x)
\end{aligned}
$$

and so (2) follows.
(3) now follows since $B(x)=F(x)-A(x)$.
(4) follows since

$$
C(x)=\sum_{\substack{1<1|2 N \in \leq 1,2 x \\ 2| 1 / 2 N}} 2^{\omega(2 \cdot 1 / 2 N)}=A\left(\frac{1}{2} x\right) .
$$

(5) and (6) now follow similarly since $D(x)=C(1 / 2 x)$ and $E(x)=$ $D(1 / 2 x)$.

Proof of Theorem 1. The idea of the proof is to combine the results of Lemmas 3-6. We have immediately that

$$
p(d) \leqq \sum_{1 \leqq N \leqq 2 d^{1 / 2}} 2^{\omega(N)}=c d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

and the remainder of the proof deals with reducing the constant in the above. There are two ways of doing this; in the first place if $2 \| N$, then the upper bound $2^{\omega(N)}$ appearing above can immediately be halved in view of Lemmas 3 and 4; secondly depending upon the value of $d$, there are certain residue classes modulo 16 such that for any $N$ belonging to one of them, the equation $x^{2}-d y^{2}=N$ cannot have any primitive solutions at all. In each case, it is not possible to dispose of all the odd values of $N$ in this way, and corresponding to these we always obtain a term

$$
\sum_{\substack{1 \leq N \leq 2 d^{1} 2 \\ 2 \nmid N}} 2^{\omega(N)}=B\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

There are various cases to consider.
(a) $d \equiv 1(\bmod 8)$. In this case, since $x$ and $y$ cannot both be even, we find that $x^{2}-d y^{2}=N$ is either odd or divisible by 8 . Thus we find that $p(d) \leqq B\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)+D\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)=1 / 2 c d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right)$, as required.
(b) $d \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$. In this case, we find that if $N$ is even, then $2^{2} \| N$, and accordingly

$$
p(d) \leqq B\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)+C\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)-D\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)=\frac{1}{2} c d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

(c) If $d \equiv 2$ or $3(\bmod 4)$ then $N$ can be even only if $2 \| N$ and we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(d) & \leqq B\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)+\sum_{\substack{1<N \leq 2 d^{1} 2 \\
2 \prod N}} 2^{\omega(N)-1} \\
& =B\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)+\frac{1}{2}\left\{A\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)-C\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)\right\} \\
& =\frac{1}{2} c d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is to be noted for future reference that if $4 \nmid d$, then the $7 c / 12$ of the theorem can be improved to $1 / 2 c$.
(d) If $d \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, then for a primitive solution of $x^{2}-d y^{2}=N$ we must have either that $x$ is odd, in which case $N$ is also odd, or else $x$ is even, $y$ odd and $4 \mid N$. In the latter case we find that $(1 / 2 x)^{2}-(1 / 4 d) y^{2}=1 / 4 N$ and so we obtain a primitive solution of the equation $X^{2}-(1 / 4 d) Y^{2}=1 / 4 N$, in which moreover $y$ is odd. Thus we have
either $1 / 4 d \equiv 0$ or $1(\bmod 4)$ in which case $1 / 4 N$ is odd or divisible by 4 ,
or $1 / 4 d \equiv 2$ or $3(\bmod 4)$ in which case $1 / 4 N$ is odd or $2 \| 1 / 4 N$.
In the first case we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(d) & \leqq B\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)+C\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)-D\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)+E\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right) \\
& =\frac{7}{12} c d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and in the second case we obtain similarly

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(d) & \leqq B\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)+C\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)-E\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right) \\
& =\frac{7}{12} c d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

which concludes the proof.
Lemma 7. As $x \rightarrow \infty$,

$$
F_{1}(x)=\sum_{1 \leqq N \leq x} 2^{\omega(N)} \log \frac{x}{N}=c x \log x+O(x)
$$

Proof. Let $1<\rho<x$; then

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{1}(x)-F_{1}\left(x \rho^{-1}\right) & =\sum_{1 \leqq N \leqq x} 2^{\omega(N)} \log \frac{x}{N}-\sum_{1 \leqq N \leqq x \rho-1} 2^{\omega(N)} \log \frac{x}{\rho N} \\
& =\sum_{1 \leqq N \leqq x \rho^{-1}} 2^{\omega(N)} \log \rho+\sum_{x \rho^{-1} 1<N \leqq x} 2^{\omega(N)} \log \frac{x}{N}
\end{aligned}
$$

and so

$$
\log \rho \cdot F\left(x \rho^{-1}\right) \leqq F_{1}(x)-F_{1}\left(x \cdot \rho^{-1}\right) \leqq \log \rho \cdot F(x)
$$

since $x / N<\rho$ for $N>x \rho^{-1}$.
Thus if $1<\rho^{n} \leqq x<\rho^{n+1}$, we find that

$$
\log \rho \cdot \sum_{r=1}^{n} F\left(x \rho^{-r}\right) \leqq F_{1}(x)-F_{1}\left(x \rho^{-n}\right) \leqq \log \rho \cdot \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} F\left(x \rho^{-r}\right)
$$

and so to complete the proof it suffices to show that

$$
\log \rho \cdot \sum_{0}^{n-1} F\left(x \rho^{-r}\right) \longrightarrow c x \log x+O(x) \quad \text { as } \rho \longrightarrow 1+,
$$

where $n=[(\log x / \log \rho)]$.
Now for all $y>1$, we have for some constant $A$,

$$
c y \log y-A y<F(y)<c y \log y+A y .
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \rho \sum_{0}^{n-1} F\left(x \rho^{-r}\right) & <\log \rho \sum_{0}^{n-1}(c x \log x+A x) \rho^{-1} \\
& <\rho \frac{\log \rho}{\rho-1}(c x \log x+A x) \longrightarrow c x \log x+A x, \\
& \text { as } \rho \longrightarrow 1+.
\end{aligned}
$$

On the other hand

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \rho \sum_{0}^{n-1} F\left(x \rho^{-r}\right)> & \log \rho \sum_{0}^{n-1}(c x \log x-c x r \log \rho-A x) \rho^{-r} \\
= & \log \rho \cdot(c x \log x-A x) \sum_{0}^{n-1} \rho^{-r} \\
& -c x(\log \rho)^{2} \sum_{0}^{n-1} r \rho^{-r} \\
= & X-Y, \text { say } .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now

$$
X=\frac{\rho(c x \log x-A x) \log \rho}{\rho-1}\left\{1-\frac{1}{\rho^{n}}\right\} \longrightarrow(c x \log x-A x)\left(1-x^{-1}\right)
$$

as $\rho \rightarrow 1$, since $x$ lies between $\rho^{n}$ and $\rho^{n+1}$. Also

$$
Y<c x(\log \rho)^{2} \sum_{0}^{\infty} r \rho^{-r}=\rho^{2} c x\left\{\frac{\log \rho}{\rho-1}\right\}^{2} \longrightarrow c x \quad \text { as } \rho \longrightarrow 1+
$$

and so the result follows.
Lemma 8. Let

$$
A_{1}(x)=\sum_{\substack{1, N \in N \\ 2 \mid N}} 2^{\alpha(N)} \log \frac{x}{N}
$$

with analagous definitions for $B_{1}, C_{1}$, and $D_{1}$. Then the results of Lemma 6, (2)-(5) hold also for the functions $A_{1}$ etc.

Proof. These results follow from Lemma 7 in exactly the same way as the corresponding results follow from Lemma 6(1).

Proof of Theorem 2. We have for each convergent

$$
\left|d^{1 / 2}-\frac{P_{r}}{Q_{r}}\right|<\frac{1}{Q_{r} Q_{r+1}}
$$

whence

$$
\frac{Q_{r+1}}{Q_{r}}<\frac{1}{Q_{r}\left|P_{r}-Q_{r} d^{1 / 2}\right|}=\frac{d^{1 / 2}+\frac{P_{r}}{Q_{r}}}{\left|P_{r}^{2}-d Q_{r}^{2}\right|}<\frac{2 d^{1 / 2}+1}{N_{r}}
$$

where

$$
\left|P_{r}^{2}-d Q_{r}^{2}\right|=N_{r} .
$$

Consider first the case $N(\varepsilon)=-1$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon_{1}=\varepsilon^{2} & =P_{2 p(d)-1}+Q_{2 p(d)-1} d^{1 / 2} \\
& <\left(2 d^{1 / 2}+1\right) Q_{2 p(d)-1} \\
& =\left(2 d^{1 / 2}+1\right) \prod_{0}^{2 p(d)-2} \frac{Q_{r+1}}{Q_{r}} \\
& <\left(2 d^{1 / 2}+1\right) \prod_{0}^{2 p(d)-2} \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}+1}{N_{r}} \\
& =\prod_{0}^{2 p(d)-1} \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}+1}{N_{r}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 \log \varepsilon & <\sum_{0}^{2 p(d)-1} \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}+1}{N_{r}} \\
& \leqq \sum_{0<N<2 d^{1 / 2}}\{f(N ; d)+f(-N ; d)\} \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}+1}{N} \\
& =\sum_{0<N<2 d^{1 / 2}}\{f(N ; d)+f(-N ; d)\} \log \frac{2 d^{1^{1 / 2}}}{N}+O\left\{d^{-1 / 2} F\left(2 d^{1 / 2}\right)\right\} \\
& =2 \sum_{0<N<2 d^{1 / 2}} f(N ; d) \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}}{N}+O(\log d)
\end{aligned}
$$

since in this case $f(N ; d)=f(-N ; d)$.
Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \varepsilon & <\sum_{0<N<2 d^{1 / 2}} f(N ; d) \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}}{N}+O(\log d) \\
& <\frac{1}{2} c d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

as before, using Lemmas 7 and 8 in place of Lemma 6, since in this case $4 \nmid d$. In the case $N(\varepsilon)=+1$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon & =P_{p(d)-1}+Q_{p(d)-1} d^{1 / 2} \\
& <\left(2 d^{1 / 2}+1\right) Q_{p(d)-1} \\
& <\prod_{0}^{p(d)-1} \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}+1}{N_{r}},
\end{aligned}
$$

as before.
Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \varepsilon & <\sum_{0}^{p(d)-1} \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}+1}{N_{r}} \\
& \leqq \sum_{0<N<2 a^{1 / 2}}\{f(N ; d)+f(-N ; d)\} \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}+1}{N} \\
& =\sum_{0<N<2 a^{1 / 2}}\{f(N ; d)+f(-N ; d)\} \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}}{N}+O(\log d) \\
& \leqq \frac{1}{2} c d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

as before, provided $4 \nmid d$.
Finally if $4 \mid d$ we observe that $\varepsilon=\eta$ or $\eta^{2}$ where $\eta$ is the fundamental unit of the ring $Z\left[((1 / 4) d)^{1 / 2}\right]$. Then the result for this case follows by descent since now $\log \varepsilon \leqq 2 \log \eta$.

This concludes the proof of Theorem 2.
Proof of Theorem 3. We have as before

$$
\log \varepsilon<\sum_{r=0}^{p(d)-1} \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}+1}{N_{r}}
$$

and so for any $K$ satisfying $1<K<2 d^{1 / 2}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \log \varepsilon<\sum_{r=0}^{p(d)-1} \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}}{N_{r}}+O(\log d) \\
& =\sum_{\substack{N_{\ll K} \\
0 \leq r<p(d)}} \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}}{N_{r}}+\sum_{\substack{N_{r}<k \\
0 \leq r^{K}<p(d)}} \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}}{N_{r}}+O(\log d) \\
& <\sum_{1 \leq N \leq K}\{f(N ; d)+f(-N ; d)\} \log 2 d^{1 / 2} \\
& +p(d) \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}}{K}+O(\log d) \\
& <A \log d \cdot K \log K+\frac{1}{2} p(d) \log \left(4 d K^{-2}\right)+O(K \log d) .
\end{aligned}
$$

In particular taking $K=2 d^{1 / 2}(\log d)^{-3}$ we obtain

$$
\log \varepsilon<3 p(d) \log \log d+o\left(d^{1 / 2}\right) .
$$

Now for $d=2^{2 k+1}$ we have $\varepsilon=(1+\sqrt{2})^{2 k}$, i.e., $\log \varepsilon>A d^{1 / 2}$ where $A>0$ and so $p(d) \neq o\left(d^{1 / 2} / \log \log d\right)$, as required.

Proof of Theorem 4. If $\log \varepsilon \neq o\left(d^{1 / 2} \log d\right)$, then there exists a positive constant $c_{1}<c$ so that for infinitely many values of $d, \log \varepsilon>$ $c_{1} d^{1 / 2} \log d$. Let $g(N ; d)$ denote the number of distinct primitive classes of solutions of $x^{2}-d y^{2}=N$ for which $x / y$ occurs as a convergent to the continued fraction for $d^{1 / 2}$. Then

$$
2 p(d) \geqq \sum_{-2 d^{1 / 2}<\lambda<2 d^{1 / 2}} g(N ; d)
$$

and

$$
\log \varepsilon<_{-2 d^{1,2}<N<2 d^{1 / 2}} g(N ; d) \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}}{|N|}+O(\log d)
$$

Thus if $k \geqq 1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \varepsilon-2 p(d) \log k & <\sum_{-2 d^{1 / 2}<N<2 d^{1 / 2}} g(N ; d) \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}}{k|N|}+O(\log d) \\
& \leqq \sum_{0<|N|<2 d^{1 / 2} k-1} g(N ; d) \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2}}{k|N|}+O(\log d) \\
& \leqq \sum_{0<N<2 d^{1 / 2} k^{-1}} 2^{\omega(N)} \log \frac{2 d^{1 / 2} k^{-1}}{N}+O(\log d)
\end{aligned}
$$

since $g(N ; d) \leqq f(N ; d)$. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \varepsilon-2 p(d) \log k & <F_{1}\left(2 d^{1 / 2} k^{-1}\right)+O(\log d) \\
& <c d^{1 / 2} k^{-1} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus if $k>c / c_{1}$, we have for infinitely many values of $d$,

$$
p(d)>\frac{k c_{1}-c}{2 k \log k} d^{1 / 2} \log d+O\left(d^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

as required.

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