# EXPLICIT CONTINUED FRACTION EXPANSION OF A RATIONAL ROOT OF $1+x^{-1}$ OVER $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ 

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#### Abstract

Let $p$ be a prime number, $j$ and $d \geq 3$ positive integers coprime with $p$. We provide the explicit continued fraction expansion of the $j / d$-th root of $1+x^{-1}$ in the power series field $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$. We determine its irrationality exponent.


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## 1. Introduction

Throughout this paper, we let $q$ be a power of a prime number $p$ and $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ denote the field of power series in $x^{-1}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. In parallel with the theory of continued fractions for real numbers, a theory of continued fractions has been developed in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$, where the partial quotients are (non-constant) polynomials in $x$; see the beginning of Section 3. Like in the real case, the continued fraction expansion of a power series $\xi$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ is ultimately periodic if and only if $\xi$ is quadratic; see [20, Section 3]. While the continued fraction expansion of algebraic real numbers of degree at least three remains very mysterious, the continued fraction expansion of certain algebraic power series in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ has been precisely determined. For instance, Baum and Sweet [2] have noticed that, for any positive integer $s$, the power series

$$
\xi_{B S, s}=\left[x ; x^{p^{s}}, x^{p^{2 s}}, \ldots\right]=x+\frac{1}{x^{p^{s}}+\frac{1}{x^{p^{2 s}}+\cdots}}
$$

in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$, which satisfies $\xi_{B S, s}=x+1 / \xi_{B S, s}^{p^{s}}$, is a root of the polynomial

$$
Z^{p^{s}+1}-x Z^{p^{s}}-1,
$$

hence is algebraic over $\mathbb{F}_{q}(x)$. Its degree is equal to $p^{s}+1$ and its irrationality exponent (see Definition 3.1) is also equal to $p^{s}+1$, by [10, p. 214]. This shows that a power series analogue of Roth's theorem does not hold and that the power series analogue of Liouville's theorem, which has been established by Mahler [13], is best possible; namely, an algebraic power series in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ cannot be approximated by rational fractions at an order exceeding its degree. In the opposite direction, there are explicit examples of algebraic power series whose sequence of partial quotients are polynomials of bounded degree, that is, algebraic power series that are badly approximable by rational fractions, a first example in $\mathbb{F}_{2}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ being given in [2].

In the same paper [2], the authors derived the explicit continued fraction expansion of the power series

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{P(x)}{P(x)+1}\right)^{1 /\left(2^{m}-1\right)} \in \mathbb{F}_{2}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right) \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P(x)$ is in $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x] \backslash \mathbb{F}_{2}$. Since then, several explicit continued fractions of algebraic power series have been obtained; see [1, 11, 12, 15-17, 19, 20] for example. More recently, several families of continued fractions in $\mathbb{F}_{2}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ whose sequence of partial quotients can be generated by a finite automaton have been shown to be algebraic [4-8]. The main purpose of the present paper is to considerably extend the result of [2] on (1.1).

Let $d, j$ be coprime integers with $d \geq 2,1 \leq j \leq d / 2$ and such that $p$ does not divide $j d$. Let $s$ be the smallest positive integer such that $d$ divides $p^{s}-1$ and set $d^{\prime}=\left(p^{s}-1\right) / d$. We let $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 /\left(p^{s}-1\right)}$ denote the unique power series $\xi=1+\ldots$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ such that $\xi^{p^{s}-1}=1+x^{-1}$ and we set

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}=\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 /\left(p^{s}-1\right)}\right)^{j d^{\prime}} .
$$

The case $d=2, j=1$, and $p$ odd is easy. Namely, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 2}=\left[1 ; 2 x+1 / 2,(-8 x-4,2 x+1)^{\infty}\right] \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

in $\mathbb{Q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$, where the notation ()$^{\infty}$ means that the sequence of partial quotients of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 2}$ is eventually periodic of period $-8 x-4,2 x+1$; see Section 12 for a proof. Since the leading coefficient of each partial quotient is coprime with $p$, we immediately get that

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 2}=\left[1 ; 2 x+1 / 2,(-8 x-4,2 x+1)^{\infty}\right]
$$

in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$.
The main result of the present work is the following theorem.
Theorem 1.1. Let $p$ be a prime number, $d \geq 3$ an integer not divisible by $p$, and $j$ a nonzero integer coprime with $d$. We give a full description of the continued fraction expansion of the power series $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$.

For the case $p=2$, which is considerably simpler than the case $p$ odd, precise statements are given in Theorems 2.2 and 4.2. The case $p$ odd is much more complicated. To solve it, we have observed, experimentally, that in every case many convergents are of the form $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ for an integer $m$ in $\mathbb{Z}$. Instead of giving a very technical, lengthy statement, we explain first how to find the infinite sequence $\left(m_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$ of integers such that $\left(\left|m_{k}\right|\right)_{k \geq 0}$ is increasing and $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ is a convergent to $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$ if and only if $m$ is an element of $\left(m_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$. Then, we give the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{0}}$ and explain how to get the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}$ from the one of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$, for $k \geq 0$.

To our knowledge, Theorem 1.1 is the first general result on the continued fraction expansions of a 'natural', simple, infinite family of algebraic power series in arbitrary (finite) characteristic.

The precise knowledge of the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ allows us to determine its irrationality exponent and its approximation spectrum (see Definition 3.1). We gather several Diophantine results in Section 3.

## 2. Results

2.1. $p$-adic expansions of rational numbers. Let $p$ be a prime number. Every $p$-adic integer $\lambda$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ has a unique representation

$$
\lambda=\lambda_{0}+\lambda_{1} p+\lambda_{2} p^{2}+\ldots, \quad \lambda_{i} \in\{0,1, \ldots, p-1\}
$$

called its Hensel expansion. We define the power series $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ to be

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\sum_{i \geq 0} \lambda_{i} p^{i}}=\prod_{i \geq 0}\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda_{i} p^{i}}=\prod_{i \geq 0}\left(1+x^{-p^{i}}\right)^{\lambda_{i}} .
$$

Mendès France and van der Poorten [14] proved that $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ is algebraic over $\mathbb{F}_{p}(x)$ if and only if the $p$-adic integer $\lambda$ is in $\mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{p}$.

We check that if $\lambda=\lambda_{0}^{\prime}+\lambda_{1}^{\prime} p+\lambda_{2}^{\prime} p^{2}+\ldots$, where $\left(\lambda_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \geq 0}$ is a bounded sequence of integers, then

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\sum_{i \geq 0} \lambda_{i}^{\prime} p^{i}}=\prod_{i \geq 0}\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda_{i}^{\prime} p^{i}}=\prod_{i \geq 0}\left(1+x^{-p^{i}}\right)^{\lambda_{i}^{\prime}},
$$

as well. Furthermore, for $\lambda$ in $\mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{p}$, the expression $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ gives the same result when $\lambda$ is viewed as a rational number (as in Section 1) and when it is viewed as a $p$-adic number. These claims, as well as the other claims and the lemmas of this and the next sections, are proved in Section 5.

In the sequel, we sometimes assume that $\lambda$ is a rational number $j / d$. Clearly, $p$ and $d$ are assumed to be coprime. We will often also assume that $p$ and $j$ are coprime. This is not at all restrictive, since the partial quotients of the power series $\xi^{p}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ are the $p$-th powers of the partial quotients of the $p$-adic number $\xi$.

For the question investigated in this paper, the Hensel expansion is not the most appropriate way to represent the $p$-adic number $\lambda$. We make use in $\mathbb{F}_{2}$ of expansions with alternate signs over the set of digits $\{-1,0,1\}$ and, in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ with $p$ odd, of expansions over the set of digits $\{-(p-1) / 2, \ldots,(p-1) / 2\}$.

Our results give a precise description of the continued fraction expansion of any power series $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ with $\lambda$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$.
2.2. Over the field $\mathbb{F}_{2}$. The continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ can be described in terms of the expansion with alternate signs of the 2 -adic integer $\lambda$.

Lemma 2.1. Every positive integer $m$ has a unique binary representation with alternate signs

$$
m=2^{v_{\ell}}-2^{v_{\ell}-1}+\ldots-2^{v_{1}}+2^{v_{0}}
$$

where $v_{\ell}>\ldots>v_{0}$ are non-negative integers and $\ell$ is even. Every negative integer $m$ has a unique binary representation with alternate signs

$$
m=-2^{v_{\ell}}+2^{v_{\ell-1}}-\ldots-2^{v_{1}}+2^{v_{0}},
$$

where $v_{\ell}>\ldots>v_{0}$ are non-negative integers and $\ell$ is odd. Every nonzero 2 -adic integer $\lambda$ which is not in $\mathbb{Z} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ has a unique expansion with alternate signs

$$
\lambda=2^{v_{0}}-2^{v_{1}}+2^{v_{2}}-\ldots,
$$

where $\left(v_{\ell}\right)_{\ell \geq 0}$ is an increasing sequence of non-negative integers.
The following theorem asserts in particular that, for every $\lambda$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, any convergent to the power series $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ is an integral power of $1+x^{-1}$. This holds in particular for any rational power $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$ with $d$ odd.

To shorten the notation, we put

$$
[k]_{x}=1+x+\ldots+x^{k-1}, \quad k \geq 1 .
$$

Theorem 2.2. (i). Let $m$ be a nonzero integer. Let

$$
m=(-1)^{\ell} 2^{v_{\ell}}+(-1)^{\ell-1} 2^{v_{\ell-1}}+\ldots+2^{v_{0}}
$$

denote its binary representation with alternate signs. Set

$$
m_{k}=(-1)^{k} 2^{v_{k}}+(-1)^{k-1} 2^{v_{k-1}}+\ldots+2^{v_{0}}, \quad k=0, \ldots, \ell .
$$

Then, the convergents to $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ are

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{0}},\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{1}}, \ldots,\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{\ell}}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}
$$

if $v_{1}>v_{0}+1$, and

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{1}},\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{2}}, \ldots,\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{\ell}}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}
$$

if $v_{1}=v_{0}+1$.
(ii). Let $\lambda$ be an element of $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \backslash \mathbb{Z}$, whose expansion with alternate signs is given by

$$
\lambda=2^{v_{0}}-2^{v_{1}}+2^{v_{2}}-\ldots,
$$

with $v_{0}<v_{1}<\ldots$ Set $m_{-1}=0$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
m_{k}=2^{v_{0}}-2^{v_{1}}+2^{v_{2}}-\ldots+(-1)^{k} 2^{v_{k}}, \quad k \geq 0 . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, the partial quotients $a_{n}, n \geq 1$, of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}=\left[1 ; a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots\right], \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

which are polynomials in $x^{2^{v_{0}}}$, and its convergents $P_{n} / Q_{n}$ are given by (ii.a) if $v_{1}>v_{0}+1$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{1} & =x^{2^{v_{0}}} ; \\
a_{n} & =\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{\left|m_{n-3}\right|}\left[2^{v_{n-1}-v_{n-2}}-1\right]_{x}^{2^{v_{n-2}}}, \quad n \geq 2 \\
\frac{P_{n}}{Q_{n}} & =\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{n-1}}, \quad n \geq 1 ;
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { (ii.b) if } v_{1}=v_{0}+1 \text { : }
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{1}=1+x^{2^{v_{0}}} ; \\
& a_{2}=\left[2^{v_{2}-v_{0}}-1\right]_{x}^{v_{0}} ; \\
& a_{n}=\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{\left|m_{n-2}\right|}\left[2^{v_{n}-v_{n-1}}-1\right]_{x}^{2^{v_{n-1}}}, \quad n \geq 3 ;
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\frac{P_{n}}{Q_{n}}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{n}}, \quad n \geq 1
$$

With the notation of Theorem 2.2, we have $\left|m_{k+1}\right| \geq\left|m_{k}\right|$ for $k \geq 0$, with equality if and only if $k=0$ and $v_{1}=v_{0}+1$.

When $\lambda=j / d$ is rational and $1 \leq j<d / 2$, we give in Theorem 4.2 below a closed formula for $a_{n}$ depending on the value of $n$ modulo a suitable integer at most equal to $(d-1) / 4$. As an illustration of Theorem 4.2 , we derive the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 13}$.
Corollary 2.3. The continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 13}$ is

$$
\left[1 ; x,[3]_{x},\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{1},\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{3} \cdot[7]_{x}^{8},\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{5} \cdot[3]_{x}^{64},\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{59}, \ldots\right],
$$

where the partial quotients $a_{n}$ are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{1} & =x \\
a_{3 n} & =\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{\left(3 \cdot 2^{6 n-4}-(-1)^{n}\right) / 13}, \quad n \geq 1, \\
a_{3 n+1} & =\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{\left(5 \cdot 2^{6 n-3}+(-1)^{n}\right) / 13} \cdot[7]_{x}^{2^{6 n-3}}, \quad n \geq 1, \\
a_{3 n+2} & =\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{\left(2^{6 n}-(-1)^{n}\right) / 13} \cdot[3]_{x}^{2^{6 n}}, \quad n \geq 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Further examples can be found on the webpage
http://irma.math.unistra.fr/~guoniu/pthroot/.
2.3. Over the field $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ with $p$ odd. In this subsection, we let $p$ denote an odd prime number. We use the signed $p$-adic expansion of an element of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ instead of its Hensel expansion.
Lemma 2.4. Every nonzero integer $m$ has a unique representation

$$
m=d_{0} p^{v_{0}}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{\ell} p^{v_{\ell}}
$$

where $0 \leq v_{0}<v_{1}<\ldots<v_{\ell}$ are integers and the digits $d_{i}$ are in $\{-(p-$ $1) / 2, \ldots,(p-1) / 2\}$ and are nonzero. We call it the signed $p$-adic representation of $m$. More generally, every $p$-adic integer $\lambda$ which is not in $\mathbb{Z} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ has a unique expansion

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda=d_{0} p^{v_{0}}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots, \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $0 \leq v_{0}<v_{1}<\ldots$ are integers and all the digits $d_{i}$ are in $\{-(p-$ $1) / 2, \ldots,-1,1, \ldots,(p-1) / 2\}$, and we call it its signed $p$-adic expansion.

Let $\lambda$ be a $p$-adic integer which is not in $\mathbb{Z} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda=d_{0} p^{v_{0}}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+d_{2} p^{v_{2}}+\ldots \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

denote its signed $p$-adic expansion. We want to compute the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$. We assume that $v_{0}=0$ in (2.4). This is not a restriction since every nonzero $p$-adic integer is equal to a power of $p$ times a $p$-adic unit and, as already pointed out, the partial quotients of the $p$-th power of an element of $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ are the $p$-th powers of its partial quotients.

Define the integer sequence $\left(m_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$ by setting

$$
m_{k}=d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{k} p^{v_{k}}, \quad k \geq 0
$$

Since

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|m_{k}\right| \leq \frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{p^{v_{k}+1}-1}{p-1}<\frac{p^{v_{k+1}}}{2}, \quad k \geq 0 \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\left|m_{k+1}-m_{k}\right| \geq p^{v_{k+1}}$, the sequence $\left(\left|m_{k}\right|\right)_{k \geq 0}$ is increasing. Furthermore, $m_{k}$ and $d_{k}$ have the same sign.

Lemma 2.5. Let $\lambda$ be a nonzero $p$-adic integer in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ and set $\xi=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$. Let $\left(m_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$ be the sequence defined above. For $k \geq 0$, the rational fraction $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$ is a convergent to $\xi$. Conversely, if $m$ is a nonzero integer such that $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ is a convergent to $\xi$, then there exists $k \geq 0$ such that $m=m_{k}$.

We postpone its proof to Section 6. Theorem 2.2 shows that the analogue of Lemma 2.5 holds for $p=2$.

By Lemma 2.5, to compute the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$, it is sufficient to compute the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{0}}$ and to know how the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}$ can be deduced from the one of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$.

The next lemma answers the former question (recall that $\left|m_{0}\right|<p / 2$ always holds). It follows from a classical result of Lagrange [9] and its proof is postponed to Section 12. Throughout this paper, by length of a finite continued fraction, we mean the number of its partial quotients (excluding the polynomial part). For example, the length of $1+x^{-1}=[1, x]$ is 1 and the length of the $\ell$-th convergent to the infinite continued fraction expansion $\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, \ldots\right]$ is equal to $\ell$, for $\ell \geq 1$.

Lemma 2.6. Let $p$ be an odd prime number and $m$ be a nonzero integer with $|m|<p / 2$. For $j=2, \ldots,|m|$, set

$$
f_{j}=\frac{(2 j-1)(m-j+2)(m-j+4) \cdots(m+j-2)}{(m-j+1)(m-j+3) \cdots(m+j-1)}(2 x+1)
$$

Then, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}=\left[1, \frac{x}{m}+\frac{1-m}{2 m}, 2 f_{2}, \frac{f_{3}}{2}, \ldots, 2^{(-1)^{m}} f_{|m|}\right] \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the length of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ is equal to $|m|$.
Throughout this paper, w stands for a finite word over the alphabet composed of the non-constant polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x]$. It may be the empty word. When it appears in a continued fraction expansion, we read the sequence of its letters as a sequence of partial quotients. Writing w = $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{k}$, its reversal $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}}$ is the word

$$
\overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}}=w_{k}, \ldots, w_{1}
$$

and, for a nonzero $\rho$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$, we set

$$
\rho \mathbf{w}=\rho w_{1}, \rho^{-1} w_{2}, \ldots, \rho^{(-1)^{k+1}} w_{k}
$$

and we call $\rho \mathbf{w}$ a twist of $\mathbf{w}$.
Let $m$ be a nonzero integer coprime with $p$. The first partial quotient of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ is 1 and the second one depends only on the value of $m$ modulo $p$. By Lemma 2.6, it is equal to $\frac{x}{d_{0}}+\frac{1-d_{0}}{2 d_{0}}$, where $d_{0}$ is the integer in $\{-(p-1) / 2, \ldots,(p-1) / 2\}$ which is congruent to $m$ modulo $p$. This justifies the first two partial quotients in (2.7) below.

The Key Lemma below is the main ingredient of the proof of Theorem 1.1 for odd primes.

Lemma 2.7 (Key Lemma). Let $k \geq 0$ be an integer. Let $d_{0}, d_{1}, \ldots, d_{k}, d_{k+1}$ be nonzero integers in $\{-(p-1) / 2, \ldots,(p-1) / 2\}$. Let $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}, v_{k+1}$ be integers with $0<v_{1}<\ldots<v_{k}<v_{k+1}$ and set

$$
m_{k}:=d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{k} p^{v_{k}}, \quad m_{k+1}=m_{k}+d_{k+1} p^{v_{k+1}} .
$$

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}=\left[1, \frac{x}{d_{0}}+\frac{1-d_{0}}{2 d_{0}}, \mathbf{w}\right] \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

denote the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$, where $\mathbf{w}$ is a finite word, possibly empty. Set

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \varepsilon=-\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right) d_{k+1}=-\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k} m_{k+1}\right)\left|d_{k+1}\right| \\
& y=\frac{x}{m_{k}}+\frac{1-m_{k}}{2 m_{k}} \\
& \mathbf{h}=(\overleftarrow{\mathbf{w} / 2}, 2 y+1,-2 y-1,-\mathbf{w} / 2)
\end{aligned}
$$

For any non-negative integer $j$, put

$$
\delta(4 j)=4, \quad \delta(4 j+1)=16, \quad \delta(4 j+2)=\frac{1}{4}, \quad \delta(4 j+3)=1,
$$

and let $\eta_{\varepsilon}(j)$ be given by the Ultimate Triangle defined in Section 8. If $m_{k}$ is odd, then the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}$ is given by $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}=\left[1, y, \mathbf{w}, c_{k+1}, \eta_{\varepsilon}(0) \mathbf{h}, \eta_{\varepsilon}(1) c_{k+1}, \eta_{\varepsilon}(2) \mathbf{h}, \ldots, \eta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-3) c_{k+1}\right]$, if $m_{k}$ and $m_{k+1}$ have opposite signs, and by

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}=\left[1, y, \mathbf{w}, c_{k+1}, \eta_{\varepsilon}(0) \mathbf{h}, \eta_{\varepsilon}(1) c_{k+1}, \eta_{\varepsilon}(2) \mathbf{h}, \ldots, \eta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-2) \mathbf{h}\right],
$$

otherwise.
If $m_{k}$ is even, then the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}$ is given by

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}=\left[1, y, \mathbf{w}, c_{k+1}, \delta(0) \eta_{\varepsilon}(0) \mathbf{h}, \delta(1) \eta_{\varepsilon}(1) c_{k+1}, \delta(2) \eta_{\varepsilon}(2) \mathbf{h}, \ldots,\right. \\
\left.\delta(2|\varepsilon|-3) \eta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-3) c_{k+1}\right]
\end{array}
$$

if $m_{k}$ and $m_{k+1}$ have opposite signs, and by

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}=\left[1, y, \mathbf{w}, c_{k+1}, \delta(0) \eta_{\varepsilon}(0) \mathbf{h}, \delta(1) \eta_{\varepsilon}(1) c_{k+1}, \delta(2) \eta_{\varepsilon}(2) \mathbf{h}, \ldots,\right. \\
\left.\delta(2|\varepsilon|-2) \eta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-2) \mathbf{h}\right]
\end{array}
$$

otherwise.
Here, $c_{k+1}$ is the polynomial part of the rational fraction $c_{k+1}^{\prime}$ defined by

$$
c_{k+1}^{\prime}=(-1)^{m_{k}} 4^{\overline{m_{k}}-\left|m_{k}\right|} \frac{(1+x)^{p_{k+1}-\left|m_{k}\right|}}{d_{k+1} x^{\left|m_{k}\right|}},
$$

where

$$
\overline{m_{k}}= \begin{cases}0, & \text { if } m_{k} \text { is even }, \\ 1, & \text { if } m_{k} \text { is odd. }\end{cases}
$$

In particular, if $\ell_{k}$ and $\ell_{k+1}$ denote the lengths of the continued fraction expansions of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$ and $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}$, respectively, then

$$
\ell_{k+1}=\left(2\left|d_{k+1}\right|-1\right) \ell_{k}+\left|d_{k+1}\right|, \quad \text { if } m_{k} m_{k+1}<0
$$

and

$$
\ell_{k+1}=\left(2\left|d_{k+1}\right|+1\right) \ell_{k}+\left|d_{k+1}\right|, \quad \text { if } m_{k} m_{k+1}>0
$$

Moreover, $\ell_{k}$ and $m_{k}$ have the same parity for every $k \geq 0$.
It should be pointed out that $\eta_{\varepsilon}(0), \ldots, \eta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-2)$ are rational numbers and do not depend on the prime $p$. Since their numerators and denominators are divisible only by primes less than $p$, they are nonzero modulo $p$. The shape of, say, the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 4}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ depends on the signed $p$-adic expansion of $1 / 4$, but the coefficients $\eta_{\varepsilon}(h)$ are rational numbers independent of $p$.

To derive the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$, we first compute the signed $p$-adic expansion of $j / d$ and then we apply Lemma 2.7 repeatedly. Two explicit examples are discussed in Section 13.

Lemma 2.7 allows us to describe precisely the degrees of the partial quotients of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$.
Corollary 2.8. Let $\lambda$ be in $\mathbb{Z} \backslash \mathbb{Z}_{p}$. Every partial quotient of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ is a linear polynomial or a twist of a polynomial of degree $\delta_{k}:=p^{v_{k+1}}-2\left|m_{k}\right|$, for some $k \geq 0$. Furthermore, for every $\ell \geq 0$, the first occurrence of a partial quotient of degree $\delta_{\ell}$ arises immediately after the convergent $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$, where $k$ is the smallest integer with $\delta_{k}=\delta_{\ell}$.

Note that the $\delta_{k}$ may not be all distinct. For example, if $m_{k}>0, d_{k+1}=$ $(p-1) / 2$, and $v_{k+2}=v_{k+1}+1$, then

$$
p^{v_{k+2}}-2\left|m_{k+1}\right|=p^{v_{k+1}+1}-2 m_{k}-(p-1) p^{v_{k+1}}=p^{v_{k+1}}-2\left|m_{k}\right| .
$$

For $p=2$, the proof of Theorem 2.2 shows that every partial quotient of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ is equal to the integer part of a rational fraction $(1+x)^{\left|m_{k+1}\right|} / x^{\left|m_{k}\right|}$,
with $m_{k}$ as in (2.1). Thus, the degree of the $k$-th (or ( $k+1$ )-th, depending whether or not $v_{1}$ is equal to $v_{0}+1$ ) partial quotient of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ is equal to $\left|m_{k}\right|-\left|m_{k-1}\right|$, that is, to $2^{v_{k}}-2\left|m_{k-1}\right|$.
2.4. Comments on the proofs. We had to compute many explicit examples to be able to guess the precise form of the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$. The case $p=2$ became simpler once we realized that all the convergents are integral powers of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)$. For the case $p$ odd, once we found the expression of $m_{k}$ and realized that one goes from the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$ to that of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}$ by adding partial quotients given, roughly speaking, by $\mathbf{w}, \overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}}$ (notations from Lemma 2.7), the most difficult point was to find the expression of the (nonzero) coefficients in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ by which the partial quotients of $\mathbf{w}, \overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}}$ are multiplied. Subsequently, it was a great surprise when we noticed that these coefficients are given by the same array of rational numbers, that we simply have to take modulo $p$. To summarize, the most difficult part of the proof of Lemma 2.7 was to guess the conclusion of the lemma. It then only remained for us to check its correctness by a direct computation. That being said, this last step is quite lengthy and complicated.

In a forthcoming work, we will investigate how the constructions described in the present paper can be used to get new results on continued fraction expansions of real numbers. Namely, the formula obtained in Section 9 are established over an arbitrary field, hence are valid over the rationals.

## 3. Irrationality exponent and approximation spectrum

We define an absolute value $|\cdot|$ on $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ as follows. We set $|0|=0$ and, if $\xi=b_{t} x^{t}+b_{t-1} x^{t-1}+\ldots$ with $b_{t} \neq 0$, we set $|\xi|=\mathrm{e}^{t}$. In particular, if $\xi$ is a nonzero polynomial in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[x]$, then $|\xi|=\mathrm{e}^{\operatorname{deg}(\xi)}$.

Any element of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(x)$ is uniquely expressed as a finite continued fraction

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right]=\frac{P_{n}}{Q_{n}}, \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ are in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[x]$ and have positive degree, except possibly for $a_{0}$. Every element $\xi$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right) \backslash \mathbb{F}_{q}(x)$ can be uniquely represented as an infinite continued fraction

$$
\xi=\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, \ldots\right],
$$

where $a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots$ are in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[x]$ and have positive degree, except possibly for $a_{0}$. The $P_{n} / Q_{n}$ defined by (3.1) are the convergents to $\xi$ and the $a_{i}$ 's are its partial quotients. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\xi-\frac{P_{n}}{Q_{n}}\right|=\frac{1}{\left|Q_{n} Q_{n+1}\right|}=\frac{1}{\left|a_{n+1}\right| \cdot\left|Q_{n}\right|^{2}}, \quad n \geq 0 \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n+1}=a_{n+1} P_{n}+P_{n-1}, \quad Q_{n+1}=a_{n+1} Q_{n}+Q_{n-1}, \quad n \geq 1 . \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observe that

$$
\operatorname{deg} Q_{n}=\operatorname{deg} a_{1}+\ldots+\operatorname{deg} a_{n}, \quad n \geq 1
$$

Standard references include [20, 21]. Unlike in the real case, the knowledge of the convergent $P_{n} / Q_{n}$ (viewed as a rational fraction) does not determine $P_{n}$ and $Q_{n}$, since it gives no information on their leading coefficient. For example,

$$
\left(\frac{x+1}{x}\right)^{m}=\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right]=\frac{P_{n}}{Q_{n}},
$$

with a positive integer $m$, does not imply that the polynomial $P_{n}$ given by the recurrence (3.3) is equal to $(x+1)^{m}$; we only know that $P_{n}$ is a constant multiple of $(x+1)^{m}$. A further illustration is given by

$$
[1 ;-x-1]=1+\frac{1}{-x-1}=\frac{-x}{-x-1}=\frac{x}{x+1}
$$

giving that $P_{1}=-x$ and $Q_{1}=-x-1$.
The determination of the continued fraction expansion of $\xi$ allows us to compute its irrationality exponent $\mu(\xi)$ and its approximation spectrum $\mathcal{S}(\xi)$, a more general notion introduced by Schmidt [20].
Definition 3.1. Let $\xi=\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right]$ be in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right) \backslash \mathbb{F}_{q}(x)$ and denote by $\left(P_{n} / Q_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ the sequence of its convergents. The irrationality exponent of $\xi$, denoted by $\mu(\xi)$, is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu(\xi):=\limsup _{n \rightarrow+\infty}-\frac{\log \left|\xi-P_{n} / Q_{n}\right|}{\log \left|Q_{n}\right|}=2+\limsup _{n \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{\operatorname{deg} a_{n+1}}{\operatorname{deg} Q_{n}} . \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The approximation spectrum of $\xi$, denoted by $\mathcal{S}(\xi)$, is the set of limit points of the sequence

$$
-\frac{\log \left|\xi Q_{n}-P_{n}\right|}{\log \left|Q_{n}\right|}, \quad n \geq 1
$$

We let

$$
\nu(\xi):=\limsup _{n \rightarrow+\infty}-\frac{\log \left|\xi Q_{n}-P_{n}\right|}{\log \left|Q_{n}\right|}=\limsup _{n \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{\operatorname{deg} Q_{n+1}}{\operatorname{deg} Q_{n}}=\mu(\xi)-1
$$

and

$$
\widehat{\nu}(\xi):=\liminf _{n \rightarrow+\infty}-\frac{\log \left|\xi Q_{n}-P_{n}\right|}{\log \left|Q_{n}\right|}=\liminf _{n \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{\operatorname{deg} Q_{n+1}}{\operatorname{deg} Q_{n}}
$$

denote, respectively, the greatest and the smallest element of the approximation spectrum of $\xi$.

Since any element $P / Q$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(x)$ such that $|\xi-P / Q|<1 /|Q|^{2}$ is a convergent to the irrational power series $\xi$ (this statement is usually called Legendre's theorem for power series), the last equality in (3.4) follows straightforwardly from (3.2) and (3.3).

We derive from Theorems 2.2 and 2.7 the value of the irrationality exponent of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$. Since $\xi, \xi^{-1}$, and $\left(1+x^{-1}\right) \xi$ have the same irrationality exponent for every nonzero power series $\xi$, there is no
restriction in assuming that $1 \leq j<d / 2$. As usual, an empty sum is equal to 0 .

Theorem 3.2. Let $p$ be a prime number and $j, d$ positive integers with $\operatorname{gcd}(p, j d)=1$ and $1 \leq j<d / 2$. If $p=2$, then write $j=j_{0}$ and

$$
d=j_{0}+j_{1} 2^{u_{1}}=j_{1}+j_{2} 2^{u_{2}}=\ldots=j_{s-1}+j_{0} 2^{u_{s-1}}
$$

where $j_{1}, \ldots, j_{s-1}$ are distinct odd integers in $[1, d / 2]$. Set $\mathcal{O}_{2, j, d}:=\{j=$ $\left.j_{0}, j_{1}, \ldots, j_{s-1}\right\}$. Then,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mu\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}\right)=\frac{d}{\min \left\{\bar{\jmath}: \bar{\jmath} \in \mathcal{O}_{2, j, d}\right\}} \geq \frac{d}{j}, \\
\widehat{\nu}\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}\right)=\frac{d}{\max \left\{\bar{\jmath}: \bar{\jmath} \in \mathcal{O}_{2, j, d}\right\}}-1>1,
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
\mathcal{S}\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}\right)=\left\{\frac{d-\bar{\jmath}}{\bar{\jmath}}: \bar{\jmath} \in \mathcal{O}_{2, j, d}\right\} .
$$

If $p$ is odd, then write the signed $p$-adic expansion of $j / d$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ as

$$
\frac{j}{d}=\left(d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}}\right)\left(1+p^{v_{s}}+p^{2 v_{s}}+\ldots\right),
$$

with $v_{s}$ minimal. Set $v_{0}=0$. For $h=0, \ldots, s-1$, define
$j_{h}=\frac{d\left(d_{h}+d_{h+1} p^{v_{h+1}-v_{h}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}-v_{h}}+d_{0} p^{v_{s}-v_{h}}+\ldots+d_{h-1} p^{v_{s}+v_{h-1}-v_{h}}\right)}{1-p^{v_{s}}}$
and $\mathcal{O}_{p, j, d}:=\left\{j=j_{0}, j_{1}, \ldots, j_{s-1}\right\}$. Then,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}\right)=\frac{d}{\min \left\{|\bar{\jmath}|: \bar{\jmath} \in \mathcal{O}_{p, j, d}\right\}} \geq \frac{d}{j} . \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 3.2 extends a result of Osgood [18], who established in 1975 that the irrationality exponent of the power series $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / d}$ is equal to $d$.

Note also that $j=j_{0}$ is always an element of the set $\mathcal{O}_{p, j, d}$. The appearence of the sets $\mathcal{O}_{p, j, d}$ in Theorem 3.2 is not surprising: it follows from the fact that $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$ and $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d-\left(d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{i} p^{p_{i}}\right)}$ have the same irrationality exponent for every $i \geq 0$. Said differently, to compute the irrationality exponent of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$, we have to consider the (finitely many) shifted sequences of the sequence of digits of $j / d$.

For an odd prime $p$, a simple algorithm allows us to compute the sets $\mathcal{O}_{p, j, d}$, where $1 \leq j<d / 2$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(p, j d)=1$. There is a unique pair $\left(a_{0}, \varepsilon_{0}\right)$ with $1 \leq a_{0} \leq(p-1) / 2$ and $\varepsilon_{0}= \pm 1$ such that

$$
p \mid\left(a_{0} d-\varepsilon_{0} j\right) .
$$

Then, define the integers $j_{1}$ and $u_{1}$ by

$$
a_{0} d=\varepsilon_{0} j+j_{1} p^{u_{1}}, \quad \operatorname{gcd}\left(p, j_{1}\right)=1 .
$$

Observe that $1 \leq j_{1}<d / 2$. There is a unique pair ( $a_{1}, \varepsilon_{1}$ ) with $1 \leq a_{1} \leq$ $(p-1) / 2$ and $\varepsilon_{1}= \pm 1$ such that

$$
p \mid\left(a_{1} d-\varepsilon_{1} j_{1}\right) .
$$

Then, define the integers $j_{2}$ and $u_{2}$ by

$$
a_{1} d=\varepsilon_{1} j_{1}+j_{2} p^{u_{2}}, \quad \operatorname{gcd}\left(p, j_{2}\right)=1 .
$$

Observe that $1 \leq j_{2}<d / 2$. Continue like this to get $j_{3}, j_{4}, \ldots$ until one reaches $j_{h}=j$. This will always happen since the $j_{i}$ 's are in a finite set. We check that $h=s$, the values $j_{i}$ are the same as in Theorem 3.2, and $u_{i}=v_{i}-v_{i-1}$. We also check that

$$
\mathcal{O}_{p, j, d}=\left\{j, j_{1}, \ldots, j_{h-1}\right\} .
$$

We can completely characterize the cases where $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$ has a nontrivial uniform exponent of approximation and the cases where its approximation spectrum is finite.

Proposition 3.3. Let $p$ be a prime number, $j, d$ coprime integers with $d \geq 3$, $1 \leq j<d / 2$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(p, j d)=1$. Set $\xi=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$. If $p=2$, then $\widehat{\nu}(\xi)>1$ and the approximation spectrum $\mathcal{S}(\xi)$ is finite. If $p \geq 3$, write its signed $p$-adic expansion as

$$
\frac{j}{d}=\left(d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}}\right)\left(1+p^{v_{s}}+p^{2 v_{s}}+\ldots\right),
$$

with $v_{s}$ minimal. Then, the three following properties are equivalent:
(i) $\widehat{\nu}(\xi)>1$;
(ii) The approximation spectrum $\mathcal{S}(\xi)$ is finite;
(iii) $s$ is even and $d_{0}, d_{1}, \ldots, d_{s-1}$ take alternatively the values 1 and -1 .

To conclude this section, we briefly discuss simultaneous rational approximation of the first integral powers of $1+x^{-1}$.

Observe that, for any integer $k \geq 1$ and any real number $\mu \geq 2$, if $\xi$ and $P / Q$ satisfy $|\xi-P / Q|=1 /|Q|^{\mu}$, then

$$
\left|\xi^{k}-P^{k} / Q^{k}\right| \leq c(\xi, k)\left|Q^{k}\right|^{-\mu / k},
$$

for some positive $c(\xi, k)$ independent of $P / Q$. Consequently, we have $\mu\left(\xi^{k}\right) \geq$ $\mu(\xi) / k$ or, equivalently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nu\left(\xi^{k}\right) \geq \frac{\nu(\xi)-k+1}{k}, \quad k \geq 1 . \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition 3.4. Let $\xi$ be in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right) \backslash \mathbb{F}_{q}(x)$. Let $k \geq 1$ be an integer. Let $\lambda_{k}(\xi)$ denote the supremum of the real numbers $\lambda$ for which

$$
0<\max \left\{\left|Q(T) \xi-P_{1}(T)\right|, \ldots,\left|Q(T) \xi^{k}-P_{k}(T)\right|\right\}<\mathrm{e}^{-\lambda \operatorname{deg}(Q)}
$$

has infinitely many solutions in polynomials $Q(T), P_{1}(T), \ldots, P_{k}(T)$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[x]$.
The next result has been established in [3].

Theorem 3.5. Let $\xi$ be a power series in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$. For any positive integer $k$, we have

$$
(k+1)\left(1+\lambda_{k+1}(\xi)\right) \geq k\left(1+\lambda_{k}(\xi)\right),
$$

with equality if $\lambda_{k+1}(\xi)>1$. Consequently, for every integer $n$ with $n \geq k$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{n}(\xi) \geq \frac{k \lambda_{k}(\xi)-n+k}{n} \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and equality holds if $\lambda_{n}(\xi)>1$.
By combining Theorems 3.2 and 3.5, we easily get some partial results on the values of exponents of simultaneous approximation at the $d$-th root of $1+x^{-1}$.

Theorem 3.6. Let $p$ be a prime number and $d \geq 3$ an integer. Let $j$ be the greatest positive integer coprime with pd such that $j<d / 2$ and $j$ is the smallest element of the set $\mathcal{O}_{p, j, d}$. Then, we have

$$
\lambda_{h}\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / d}\right)=\frac{d-h}{h}, \quad h=1, \ldots, j .
$$

More generally, we can study the irrationality exponent of $\xi_{\lambda}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ for an arbitrary $\lambda$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p} \backslash \mathbb{Z}$, since we have a precise description of its continued fraction expansion. We may return to this question in a subsequent work.

## 4. A simplified statement over $\mathbb{F}_{2}$

In the special case of $\mathbb{F}_{2}$, we can give a close formula for the partial quotients $a_{n}$ defined in Theorem 2.2. First, we need to introduce several functions which play a crucial role in our approach. The correctness of the definition is not immediate and will be checked in the next half a page.

Definition 4.1. Let $d \geq 3$ be an odd integer. Set

$$
\mathbb{A}=\mathbb{A}_{d}=\{j \mid 1 \leq j \leq(d-1) / 2, \quad j \text { odd }, \operatorname{gcd}(j, d)=1\}
$$

Let $\psi_{d}: \mathbb{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}$ be the map defined by the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
d=j+\psi_{d}(j) 2^{\delta_{d}(j)}, \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\delta(j)=\delta_{d}(j) \geq 1$. The map $\psi=\psi_{d}$ is a permutation on $\mathbb{A}$. Let $j$ be in $\mathbb{A}$. Set

$$
\sigma_{j}(n)=\sigma_{j, d}(n)=\delta(j)+\delta(\psi(j))+\ldots+\delta\left(\psi^{n}(j)\right), \quad n \geq 0
$$

$\sigma_{j}(-1)=0$. The function $\rho_{j}: \mathbb{N}_{\geq-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ is defined by

$$
\rho_{j}(n)=\rho_{j, d}(n)=\left(\psi^{n+1}(j) \cdot 2^{\sigma_{j}(n)}+(-1)^{n} j\right) / d .
$$

Furthermore, we let $\theta_{j}=\theta_{j, d}$ denote the length of the orbit of $\psi$ containing $j$ and we put $\beta_{j}=\beta_{j, d}=\sigma_{j}\left(\theta_{j}-1\right)$. For $i=0,1, \ldots, \theta_{j}-1$ and $m \geq-1$ such that $\theta_{j} m+i \geq-1$ we then have

$$
\rho_{j}\left(\theta_{j} m+i\right)=\rho_{j, d}\left(\theta_{j} m+i\right)=\left(\psi^{i+1}(j) \cdot 2^{\beta_{j} m+\sigma_{j}(i)}+(-1)^{\theta_{j} m+i} j\right) / d .
$$

When there is no risk of confusion, we write $\mathbb{A}, \psi, \delta, \sigma_{j}, \theta_{j}$, and $\beta_{j}$ instead of $\mathbb{A}_{d}, \psi_{d}, \delta_{d}, \sigma_{j, d}, \theta_{j, d}$, and $\beta_{j, d}$.

For $j$ in $\mathbb{A}$, observe that $\psi(j)$ is the odd part of $d-j$. Since any two distinct integers in $(d / 2, d)$ have different odd parts, the map $\psi$ is injective and is thus a permutation of the set $\mathbb{A}$.

Furthermore, the integer $\beta_{j}$ is the smallest positive integer $h$ such that $2^{h}$ is congruent to $\pm 1$ modulo $d$. Therefore, $\beta_{j}$ is independent of $j$. To see this, observe that, for $j$ in $\mathbb{A}$, the integer $\psi^{-1}(j)$ is equal to $d-h$, where $h$ is the unique integer of the form $2^{a} j$ in the interval $(d / 2, d)$. Consider the multiplication by 2 map $T_{2}$ on $\mathbb{Z} / d \mathbb{Z}$, identified with $\{0,1, \ldots, d-1\}$. Then, the orbit of $j$ under $\psi^{-1}$ can be derived from its orbit $\mathcal{O}$ under $T_{2}$ as follows: it is composed of the odd elements of $\mathcal{O}$ less than $d / 2$ and of the integers $d-r$, where $r$ runs through the even elements of $\mathcal{O}$ greater than $d / 2$. Consequently, the cardinality of the orbit of $j$ under $\psi$ is equal to the smallest positive integer $a$ such that $2^{a} j$ is congruent to $\pm j$ modulo $d$. Since $j$ and $d$ are coprime, this integer is independent of $j$ : it is the smallest integer $h \geq 1$ such that $2^{h}$ is congruent to $\pm 1$ modulo $d$.

However, for $j$ and $j^{\prime}$ in $\mathbb{A}$, the integers $\theta_{j}$ and $\theta_{j^{\prime}}$ may differ when $j$ and $j^{\prime}$ do not belong to the same orbit of $\psi$.

The function $\rho_{j}$ is fully determined by the permutation $\psi$ and the values of the function $\delta$ at $j, \psi(j), \ldots, \psi^{\theta-1}(j)$. The fact that $\rho_{j}$ takes integral values is not immediate from its definition and is established in the course of the proof of Theorem 4.2, where we obtain another expression for $\rho_{j}$.

Recall that

$$
[k]_{x}=1+x+\ldots+x^{k-1}, \quad k \geq 1 .
$$

Theorem 4.2. Let $j, d$ be odd, coprime, positive integers with $d \geq 3$ and $j<d / 2$. Let $\rho_{j, d}$ and $\sigma_{j, d}$ be as in Definition 4.1. Then, the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}=\left[1 ; a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots\right], \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the partial quotients $a_{n}$ are polynomials in $x$, defined as follows:
(i) if $d-j \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{1} & =1+x ; \\
a_{2} & =\left[2^{\sigma_{j, d}(1)}-1\right]_{x} ; \\
a_{n} & =\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{\rho_{j, d}(n-2)}\left[2^{\sigma_{j, d}(n-1)-\sigma_{j, d}(n-2)}-1\right]_{x}^{2_{j, d}(n-2)}, \quad n \geq 3 ; \\
\frac{P_{n}}{Q_{n}} & =\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{(-1)^{n} \rho_{j, d}(n)}, \quad n \geq 1 ;
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii) if $d \equiv j(\bmod 4)$, then
$a_{1}=x ;$
$a_{n}=\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{\rho_{j, d}(n-3)}\left[2^{\sigma_{j, d}(n-2)-\sigma_{j, d}(n-3)}-1\right]_{x}^{2^{\sigma_{j, d}(n-3)}}, \quad n \geq 2 ;$

$$
\frac{P_{n}}{Q_{n}}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{(-1)^{n-1} \rho_{j, d}(n-1)}, \quad n \geq 1
$$

Theorem 4.2 follows from Theorem 2.2 once we have checked that the expansion with alternate signs of the 2 -adic number $j / d$ is given by

$$
1-2^{\sigma_{j, d}(0)}+2^{\sigma_{j, d}(1)}-2^{\sigma_{j, d}(2)}+\ldots
$$

To see this, keeping the notation from the beginning of this section and removing the subscript $d$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{j}{d} & =1-\frac{\psi(j)}{d} 2^{\delta(j)} \\
& =1-\left(1-\frac{\psi^{2}(j)}{d} 2^{\delta(\psi(j))}\right) 2^{\delta(j)} \\
& =1-2^{\delta(j)}+\frac{\psi^{2}(j)}{d} 2^{\delta(j)+\delta(\psi(j))}
\end{aligned}
$$

Also, we should add that $\sigma_{j, d}(0)=1$ if $d-j \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, while $\sigma_{j, d}(0)>1$ otherwise.

As an illustration of Theorem 4.2, we derive the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 13}$. Since

$$
13=1+3 \cdot 2^{2}=3+5 \cdot 2^{1}=5+1 \cdot 2^{3}
$$

we have

$$
\sigma_{1}(3 n)=6 n+2, \quad \sigma_{1}(3 n+1)=6 n+3, \quad \sigma_{1}(3 n+2)=6 n+6, \quad n \geq 0
$$

Furthermore,

$$
\psi_{1}^{3 n}(1)=1, \quad \psi_{1}^{3 n+1}(1)=3, \quad \psi_{1}^{3 n+2}(1)=5
$$

By Theorem 4.2, this gives Corollary 2.3. Ignoring $a_{1}$ in Corollary 2.3, we see that the expression of $a_{n}$ depends only on the value of $n$ modulo 3 , that is, modulo the length $\theta_{1,13}$ of the orbit of the permutation $\psi_{13}$ containing 1 . We point out that $\theta_{1, d}$ can be as large as $(d+1) / 4$ (we have $\theta_{1, d}=(d+1) / 4$ for $1 / d=1 / 11$ and for $1 / d=1 / 59$, for example).

More generally, up to the first one or two partial quotients, the expression of $a_{n}$ depends only on the value of $n$ modulo the length $\theta_{j, d}$ of the orbit of $\mathbb{A}_{d}$ containing $j$.

If $\theta_{1, d}=1$, then $d=1+2^{u}$ for some $u \geq 1$. Consequently, for an odd integer $d$, the partial quotients $a_{n}$ in the continued fraction of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / d}$ have a unified formula for all $n$ (that is, we do not need to distinguish congruence classes of $n$ ) if and only if there exists an integer $u \geq 1$ such that $d=1+2^{u}$.

Since any element of $\mathbb{F}_{2}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ has a unique continued fraction expansion, Theorem 4.2 is still true if we replace $x$ by any polynomial $P(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x] \backslash \mathbb{F}_{2}$. Baum-Sweet's result [2], that is, the continued fraction expansion of (1.1),
is derived from Theorem 4.2 by replacing $d$ by $2^{m}-1$ and $x$ by $1+P(x)$. Notice that by replacing $x$ by $1+x$ in Theorem 4.2 we get that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{-j / d}=\left[1 ; a_{1}+1, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, \ldots\right], \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $a_{i}$ are the partial quotients of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}$. To see this, observe that the terms $x+x^{2}$ and $[k]_{x}$ for $k$ of the form $2^{\ell}-1$ remain unchanged when we replace $x$ by $1+x$.

The case $j / d=1 / 3$ in (4.3) was obtained by Mendès France and van der Poorten in [15].

Proof of Theorem 4.2. Let $j, d$ be odd, coprime, positive integers with $d \geq$ 3 and $j<d / 2$. Theorem 2.2 gives the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ for the 2 -adic integer

$$
\lambda=\lim _{k \rightarrow+\infty} \lambda_{k}
$$

where $\lambda_{k}$ is the integer

$$
\lambda_{k}=(-1)^{k} 2^{\sigma_{j}(k-1)}+(-1)^{k-1} 2^{\sigma_{j}(k-2)}+\cdots+2^{\sigma_{j}(1)}-2^{\sigma_{j}(0)}+1, \quad k \geq 1
$$

Note that $\lambda_{k}$ is positive when $k \geq 2$ is even and negative when $k \geq 1$ is odd. Let $i \geq 1$ be an integer. Recall that, by the definition of the map $\psi$, we have

$$
d=\psi^{i}(j)+\psi^{i+1}(j) 2^{\delta\left(\psi^{i}(j)\right)} .
$$

By multiplying both sides by $(-1)^{i} 2^{\sigma_{j}(i-1)}$, we get

$$
(-1)^{i} d 2^{\sigma_{j}(i-1)}=(-1)^{i} \psi^{i}(j) 2^{\sigma_{j}(i-1)}+(-1)^{i} \psi^{i+1}(j) 2^{\sigma_{j}(i)} .
$$

For an integer $k \geq 1$, taking the summation of the above identity for $i=$ $1,2, \ldots, k$ yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
(-1)^{1} d 2^{\sigma_{j}(0)}+(-1)^{2} d 2^{\sigma_{j}(1)}+ & \cdots+(-1)^{k} d 2^{\sigma_{j}(k-1)} \\
& =(-1)^{1} \psi(j) 2^{\sigma_{j}(0)}+(-1)^{k} \psi^{k+1}(j) 2^{\sigma_{j}(k)} \\
& =-(d-j)+(-1)^{k} \psi^{k+1}(j) 2^{\sigma_{j}(k)},
\end{aligned}
$$

since $d=j+\psi(j) 2^{\sigma_{j}(0)}$. Hence, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (-1)^{k} \psi^{k+1}(j) 2^{\sigma_{j}(k)} \\
& \quad=(-1)^{k} d 2^{\sigma_{j}(k-1)}+(-1)^{k-1} d 2^{\sigma_{j}(k-2)}+\cdots+d 2^{\sigma_{j}(1)}-d 2^{\sigma_{j}(0)}+d-j \\
& \quad=d \lambda_{k}-j
\end{aligned}
$$

This shows that the sequence of integers $\left(\lambda_{k}\right)_{k \geq 1}$ tends in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ to $j / d$, thus $\lambda=j / d$. Furthermore, since

$$
(-1)^{k} \psi^{k+1}(j) 2^{\sigma_{j}(k)}=(-1)^{k} d \rho_{j}(k)-j
$$

we get that

$$
(-1)^{k} \rho_{j}(k)=1-2^{\sigma_{j}(0)}+2^{\sigma_{j}(1)}-2^{\sigma_{j}(2)}+\ldots+(-1)^{k} 2^{\sigma_{j}(k-1)},
$$

thus $\rho_{j}(k)$ is an integer. Then, by applying Theorem 2.2 with $v_{0}=0$, $v_{k}=\sigma_{j}(k-1)$ for $k \geq 1$ and $m_{k}=(-1)^{k} \rho_{j}(k)$ for $k \geq 0$, we obtain Theorem 4.2.

## 5. Proofs of the results from Subsections 2.1 and 2.2

Proofs of the claims in Subsection 2.1. Let $\lambda$ be in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$. Let $M$ be an integer with $M \geq(p-1) / 2$. Assume that

$$
\lambda=\lambda_{0}+\lambda_{1} p+\ldots=\lambda_{0}^{\prime}+\lambda_{1}^{\prime} p+\ldots,
$$

with $0 \leq \lambda_{i} \leq p-1$ and $\left|\lambda_{i}^{\prime}\right| \leq M$ for $i \geq 0$. For an integer $k \geq 0$, set $p_{k}=\lambda_{0}+\lambda_{1} p+\ldots+\lambda_{k} p^{k}$ and observe that
$\left|\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}-\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{p_{k}}\right|=\left|\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{p_{k}}\right| \cdot\left|\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda_{k+1} p^{k+1}+\ldots}-1\right|<\mathrm{e}^{-p^{k}}$.
To see that

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\sum_{i \geq 0} \lambda_{i}^{\prime} p^{i}}=\prod_{i \geq 0}\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda_{i}^{\prime} p^{i}}=\prod_{i \geq 0}\left(1+x^{-p^{i}}\right)^{\lambda_{i}^{\prime}},
$$

it is then sufficient to note that, since $\left(\mid \lambda_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \geq 0}$ is bounded, we have

$$
\mathrm{v}_{p}\left(\left(\lambda_{0}+\lambda_{1} p+\ldots+\lambda_{k} p^{k}\right)-\left(\lambda_{0}^{\prime}+\lambda_{1}^{\prime} p+\ldots+\lambda_{k}^{\prime} p^{k}\right)\right) \xrightarrow[k \rightarrow+\infty]{ }+\infty
$$

where $\mathrm{v}_{p}$ denotes the $p$-adic valuation.
We check now that for $\lambda$ in $\mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ the expression $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ gives the same result when $\lambda$ is viewed as a rational number (as in Section 1) and when it is viewed as a $p$-adic number.

Assume, without any loss of generality, that $0<\lambda<1, \lambda=j / d$, where $d \geq 3$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(j d, p)=1$. Let $s$ be the smallest positive integer such that $d$ divides $p^{s}-1$. The signed $p$-adic expansion of $1 /\left(p^{s}-1\right)$ is $-1-p^{s}-p^{2 s}-\ldots$.. By definition of the $p$-adic power, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p^{s-1}}}=\prod_{i \geq 0}\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{-p^{s i}}=\prod_{i \geq 0}\left(1+x^{-p^{s i}}\right)^{-1} . \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since

$$
\left(\left(1+x^{-p^{s i}}\right)^{-1}\right)^{p^{s}-1}=\left(1+x^{-p^{s(i+1)}}\right)^{-1}\left(1+x^{-p^{s i}}\right), \quad i \geq 0,
$$

the last infinite product in (5.1), raised to the power $p^{s}-1$, is equal to $1+x^{-1}$. This proves our claim for $\lambda=1 /\left(p^{s}-1\right)$.

Now, write the representation in base $p$ of the integer $j\left(p^{s}-1\right) / d$ in [ $\left.1, p^{s}-1\right]$ as

$$
\frac{j\left(p^{s}-1\right)}{d}=j_{0}+j_{1} p+\ldots+j_{s-1} p^{s-1}, \quad \text { where } 0 \leq j_{0}, \ldots, j_{s-1} \leq p-1 .
$$

Then, the $p$-adic number $\lambda=j / d$ can be expressed as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{j}{d}=\frac{j\left(p^{s}-1\right) / d}{p^{s}-1} & =-\frac{j\left(p^{s}-1\right)}{d}\left(1+p^{s}+p^{2 s}+\ldots\right) \\
& =-\left(j_{0}+j_{1} p+\ldots+j_{s-1} p^{s-1}\right) \cdot\left(1+p^{s}+p^{2 s}+\ldots\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda} & =\prod_{i=0}^{s-1} \prod_{h=1}^{j_{i}}\left(\left(1+x^{-p^{i}}\right)^{-1}\right)^{1+p^{s}+\ldots} \\
& =\prod_{i=0}^{s-1} \prod_{h=1}^{j_{i}}\left(\left(1+x^{-p^{i}}\right)^{-1}\right)^{1 /\left(1-p^{s}\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $1 /\left(1-p^{s}\right)$ is viewed as a rational number. Then, we note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\prod_{i=0}^{s-1} \prod_{h=1}^{j_{i}}\left(\left(1+x^{-p^{i}}\right)^{-1}\right)^{1 /\left(1-p^{s}\right)} & =\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{-\left(j_{0}+j_{1} p+\ldots+j_{s-1} p^{s-1}\right)}\right)^{1 /\left(1-p^{s}\right)} \\
& =\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}
\end{aligned}
$$

This shows that the expression $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ gives the same result when $\lambda$ is viewed as a rational number and when it is viewed as a $p$-adic number.
Proof of Lemma 2.1. We only justify the last assertion. Observe that, if $\lambda$ is not in $\mathbb{Z} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{2}$, then

$$
\lambda=\sum_{i \geq 1}\left(2^{a_{i}}+2^{a_{i}+1}+\ldots+2^{a_{i}+c_{i}}\right)
$$

where $\left(a_{i}\right)_{i \geq 1}$ is increasing and $a_{i}+c_{i}+1<a_{i+1}$ for $i \geq 1$. Then,

$$
\lambda=\sum_{i \geq 1}\left(-2^{a_{i}}+2^{a_{i}+c_{i}+1}\right)=2^{a_{1}}-2^{a_{1}+1}+2^{a_{1}+c_{1}+1}+\sum_{i \geq 2}\left(-2^{a_{i}}+2^{a_{i}+c_{i}+1}\right)
$$

which has the desired property (note that $-2^{a_{1}+1}+2^{a_{1}+c_{1}+1}$ vanishes if $c_{1}=0$ ). Furthermore, $\lambda$ is the limit in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ of the sequence of positive integers

$$
2^{a_{1}}-2^{a_{1}+1}+2^{a_{1}+c_{1}+1}+\sum_{i=2}^{m}\left(-2^{a_{i}}+2^{a_{i}+c_{i}+1}\right), \quad m \geq 2
$$

This proves the lemma.
Until the end of this section, the last convergent of a finite continued fraction $\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{m}\right]$ is the rational fraction $\left[a_{0} ; a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{m-1}\right]$. The first assertion of the next lemma is proved at the end of [20, Section 1]. The second one is certainly well-known.

Lemma 5.1. Let $\xi$ be in $\mathbb{F}_{q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$. If the rational fraction $P / Q$ satisfies $|\xi-P / Q|<1 /|Q|^{2}$, then $P / Q$ is a convergent to $\xi$. If, moreover, $\xi$ is a rational fraction $R / S$ with $P / Q \neq R / S$ and if $|\xi-P / Q|=1 /|Q S|$, then $P / Q$ is the last convergent to $\xi$.
Proof. If the last assertion does not hold, let $U / V$ denote the last convergent to $\xi=R / S$. Then, $|Q|<|V|<|S|$ and

$$
\frac{1}{|Q S|}=\left|\xi-\frac{P}{Q}\right| \geq \frac{1}{|Q V|}>\frac{1}{|Q S|}
$$

a contradiction.
We are now in position to establish Theorem 2.2.
Proof of Theorem 2.2. We only consider the case of $\lambda$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \backslash \mathbb{Z}$, since the case of integers is similar (and easier). Let $\left(m_{k}\right)_{k \geq-1}$ be the sequence of integers defined in (2.1). If $v_{1}>v_{0}+1$, then

$$
\left|\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}-\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{0}}\right|<|x|^{-2 \cdot 2^{v_{0}}} .
$$

Thus, $1+x^{-2^{v_{0}}}$ is a convergent to $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ and $a_{1}=x^{2^{v_{0}}}$. If $v_{1}=v_{0}+1$, then $m_{1}=-2^{v_{0}}$ and

$$
\left|\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}-\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{1}}\right|<|x|^{-2 \cdot 2^{v_{0}}} .
$$

Thus, $\left(1+x^{-2^{v_{0}}}\right)^{-1}$ is a convergent to $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}$ and $a_{1}=1+x^{2^{v_{0}}}$.
Let $k \geq 2$ be an even integer. Thus, $m_{k}$ is positive, $m_{k-1}$ is negative, and $m_{k}-m_{k-1}=2^{v_{k}}$. Since $(1+x)^{u}=1+x^{u}$ for any $u$ which is a power of 2 , we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{1+x}{x}\right)^{m_{k}}-\left(\frac{x}{1+x}\right)^{-m_{k-1}} & =\frac{(1+x)^{m_{k}-m_{k-1}}-x^{m_{k}-m_{k-1}}}{x^{m_{k}}(1+x)^{-m_{k-1}}} \\
& =\frac{\left(1+x 2^{2^{v_{k}}}-x^{2^{v_{k}}}\right.}{x^{m_{k}}(1+x)^{-m_{k-1}}}=\frac{1}{x^{m_{k}}(1+x)^{-m_{k-1}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

This shows that $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k-1}}$ is a convergent to $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$ and, moreover, it is its last convergent, by Lemma 5.1. Assume that $k \geq 3$ is an odd integer, or $k=1$ and $v_{1}>v_{0}+1$. Then, a similar computation shows that $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k-1}}$ is the last convergent to $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$. Consequently, if $m_{k}$ is positive, then the last partial quotient $A_{k}$ of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$ satisfies

$$
(1+x)^{m_{k}}=A_{k} x^{-m_{k-1}}+(1+x)^{m_{k-2}},
$$

thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{k} x^{-m_{k-1}} & =(1+x)^{m_{k-2}}\left((1+x)^{m_{k}-m_{k-2}}-1\right) \\
& =(1+x)^{m_{k-2}}\left((1+x)^{2^{v_{k-1}}\left(2^{\left.v_{k}-v_{k-1}-1\right)}-1\right)}\right. \\
& =(1+x)^{m_{k-2}}\left((1+x)^{2^{v_{k}-v_{k-1}-1}-1}\right)^{2^{v_{k-1}}} \\
& =(1+x)^{m_{k-2}} x^{2^{v_{k-1}}}\left[2^{v_{k}-v_{k-1}}-1\right]_{x}^{2^{v_{k-1}}},
\end{aligned}
$$

where we have used that $(1+x)^{u-1}=[u]_{x}$, when $u$ is a power of 2 . Since $m_{k-1}-m_{k-2}=-2^{v_{k-1}}$, we get that

$$
A_{k}=\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{m_{k-2}}\left[2^{v_{k}-v_{k-1}}-1\right]_{x}^{2^{v_{k-1}}} .
$$

The same result holds if $m_{k}$ is negative, by a similar computation (in this case the first factor is $\left.\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{-m_{k-2}}=\left(x+x^{2}\right)^{\left|m_{k-2}\right|}\right)$. This shows that $a_{k}=A_{k-1}$ for $k \geq 2$ in Case (ii.a) and $a_{k}=A_{k}$ for $k \geq 3$ in Case (ii.b). It only remains for us to compute $a_{2}$ when $v_{1}=v_{0}+1$. Note that $-m_{1}=$ $m_{0}=2^{v_{0}}$. As $P_{0}=Q_{0}=1$, we get

$$
(1+x)^{m_{2}}=a_{2} x^{-m_{1}}+1 .
$$

A similar computation as above yields

$$
a_{2} x^{-m_{1}}=x^{2^{v_{0}}}\left[2^{v_{2}-v_{0}}-1\right]_{x}^{2_{0}},
$$

giving $a_{2}=\left[2^{v_{2}-v_{0}}-1\right]_{x}^{2^{v_{0}}}$, as asserted.

## 6. Proofs of Lemmas 2.4 and 2.5

Proof of Lemma 2.4. We only justify the last assertion. Let $\lambda$ be a $p$-adic integer and let

$$
\lambda-\frac{1}{2}=\sum_{i \geq 0} \lambda_{i} p^{i}
$$

be the Hensel expansion of $\lambda-1 / 2$. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda=\frac{1}{2}+\sum_{i \geq 0} \lambda_{i} p^{i} & =-\frac{p-1}{2}\left(1+p+p^{2}+\ldots\right)+\sum_{i \geq 0} \lambda_{i} p^{i} \\
& =\sum_{i \geq 0}\left(\lambda_{i}-\frac{p-1}{2}\right) p^{i},
\end{aligned}
$$

where all the digits $\lambda_{i}-(p-1) / 2$ are in $\{-(p-1) / 2, \ldots,(p-1) / 2\}$.
Proof of Lemma 2.5. Observe that

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(\xi-\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda-m_{k}}-1\right)=-p^{v_{k+1}},
$$

while, by (2.5), we have $p^{v_{k+1}}>2\left|m_{k}\right|$. It then follows from the first assertion of Lemma 5.1 that $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$ is a convergent to $\xi$.

Let $m$ be a nonzero integer not in the sequence $\left(m_{k}\right)_{k \geq 1}$ and let $k$ be such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|m_{k}\right|<|m|<\left|m_{k+1}\right| . \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assume that $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ is a convergent to $\xi$. Then, $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$ is a convergent to $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ and $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ is a convergent to $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}$. Since

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}-\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m-m_{k}}-1\right),
$$

we have

$$
\left|\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}-\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}\right|=\mathrm{e}^{-p^{u}}
$$

where $p^{u}$ is the largest power of $p$ dividing $m-m_{k}$. Since $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$ is a convergent to $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$, we get

$$
\left|\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}-\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}\right|<\mathrm{e}^{-2\left|m_{k}\right|}
$$

thus $p^{u}>2\left|m_{k}\right|$. Likewise, if $p^{v}$ denote the largest power of $p$ dividing $m_{k+1}-m$, then $p^{v}>2|m|$. It follows from (6.1) and the first inequality of (2.5) that $u, v \leq v_{k+1}$. Recall that $m_{k+1}-m_{k}=d_{k+1} p^{v_{k+1}}$. If $u \neq v$, then $\left|m-m_{k}\right|_{p} \neq\left|m-m_{k+1}\right|_{p}$ and
$p^{-v_{k+1}}=\left|m_{k+1}-m_{k}\right|_{p}=\max \left\{\left|m-m_{k}\right|_{p},\left|m-m_{k+1}\right|_{p}\right\}=p^{-\min \{u, v\}}>p^{-v_{k+1}}$,
which is absurd. Thus, we must have $u=v$. Then,

$$
2|m|<p^{v}=p^{u} \leq\left|m-m_{k}\right|<2|m|,
$$

a contradiction.

## 7. Proofs of the results from Section 3

Proof of Theorem 3.2 for $p=2$. Let $j$ be in $\mathbb{A}$. Let $n$ be a positive integer. By Definition 4.1, we have

$$
\rho_{j}(n)=\left(\psi^{n+1}(j) \cdot 2^{\sigma_{j}(n)}+(-1)^{n} \cdot j\right) / d
$$

Since

$$
d=\psi^{n+1}(j)+\psi^{n+2}(j) \cdot 2^{\delta\left(\psi^{n+1}(j)\right)},
$$

we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
d \rho_{j}(n+1) & =\psi^{n+2}(j) \cdot 2^{\sigma_{j}(n+1)}+(-1)^{n+1} \cdot j \\
& =2^{\sigma_{j}(n+1)-\delta\left(\psi^{n+1}(j)\right)}\left(d-\psi^{n+1}(j)\right)+(-1)^{n+1} \cdot j \\
& =2^{\sigma_{j}(n)}\left(d-\psi^{n+1}(j)\right)+(-1)^{n+1} \cdot j,
\end{aligned}
$$

thus

$$
\frac{\rho_{j}(n+1)}{\rho_{j}(n)}=\frac{d-\psi^{n+1}(j)}{\psi^{n+1}(j)}+o(1) .
$$

By Theorem 4.2, we get

$$
\frac{\operatorname{deg} Q_{n+1}}{\operatorname{deg} Q_{n}}=\frac{\rho_{j}(n+1-\varepsilon)}{\rho_{j}(n-\varepsilon)}
$$

with $\varepsilon=1$ if 4 divides $d-j$ and $\varepsilon=0$ otherwise.
Recall that the approximation spectrum $\mathcal{S}(\xi)$ of $\xi$ is the set of limit points of the sequence $\left(\operatorname{deg} Q_{n+1} / \operatorname{deg} Q_{n}\right)_{n \geq 1}$. With $\theta_{j}$ as in Definition 4.1, we have established that

$$
\mathcal{S}(\xi)=\left\{\frac{d-j}{j}, \frac{d-\psi(j)}{\psi(j)}, \ldots, \frac{d-\psi^{\theta_{j}-1}(j)}{\psi^{\theta_{j}-1}(j)}\right\} .
$$

Since $\psi^{i}(j)$ is the integer $j_{i}$ defined in the statement of the theorem, for $i=0, \ldots, h-1$, the proof is complete.

Proof of Theorem 3.2 for $p$ odd. It follows from (3.4) and Corollary 2.8 that

$$
\mu\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\lambda}\right)=2+\limsup _{k \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{p^{v_{k+1}}-2\left|m_{k}\right|}{\left|m_{k}\right|}=\limsup _{k \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{p^{v_{k+1}}}{\left|m_{k}\right|} .
$$

Note that $p^{v_{k+1}}-2\left|m_{k}\right| \geq 1$ for $k \geq 0$, by (2.5).
Let $v_{s}$ denote the smallest positive integer such that $d$ divides $p^{v_{s}}-1$ and set $a=\left(p^{v_{s}}-1\right) / d$. Then, the rational number $j / d$ is equal to $a j /\left(p^{v_{s}}-1\right)$. Let $d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}}$ denote the signed $p$-adic representation of $-a j$. Then, the signed $p$-adic expansion of $j / d$ is purely periodic and equal to

$$
j / d=\left(d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}}\right) \cdot\left(1+p^{v_{s}}+p^{2 v_{s}}+\ldots\right) .
$$

Since $v_{\ell s}=\ell v_{s}$ for $\ell \geq 1$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
m_{\ell s+h}=\left(d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots\right. & \left.+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}}\right) \cdot\left(1+p^{v_{s}}+\ldots+p^{(\ell-1) v_{s}}\right) \\
& +d_{0} p^{\ell v_{s}}+\ldots+d_{h} p^{v_{h}+\ell v_{s}}
\end{aligned}
$$

for $\ell \geq 0$ and $h=0, \ldots, s-1$. Then, we have (as usual, an empty sum is equal to 0 )

$$
\mu(\xi)=\max _{0 \leq h \leq s-1} \frac{p^{v_{h}}}{\left|\frac{d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}}}{p^{v_{s}}-1}+\left(d_{0}+\ldots+d_{h-1} p^{v_{h-1}}\right)\right|},
$$

Furthermore, since

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}}+\left(p^{v_{s}}-1\right)\left(d_{0}+\ldots+d_{h-1} p^{v_{h-1}}\right)\right) p^{-v_{h}} \\
= & \left(d_{h} p^{v_{h}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}}+p^{v_{s}}\left(d_{0}+\ldots+d_{h-1} p^{v_{h-1}}\right)\right) p^{-v_{h}} \\
= & d_{h}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}-v_{h}}+\left(d_{0} p^{v_{s}-v_{h}}+\ldots+d_{h} p^{v_{s}+v_{h-1}-v_{h}}\right) \\
= & \frac{j_{h}\left(1-p^{v_{s}}\right)}{d},
\end{aligned}
$$

with $j_{h}$ as in the statement of the theorem, we get

$$
\mu(\xi)=\max _{0 \leq h \leq s-1} \frac{p^{v_{s}}-1}{\left|j_{h}\left(1-p^{v_{s}}\right) / d\right|} .
$$

This establishes (3.5).
Proof of Proposition 3.3. The case $p=2$ follows immediately from Theorem 4.2.

Assume that $p$ is odd and keep the notation of the Proposition. Observe first that if $s=1, v_{1}=1$, and $d_{0}= \pm(p-1) / 2$, then

$$
\lambda= \pm \frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1-p^{v_{1}}}=\mp \frac{1}{2}
$$

and $\xi$ is a quadratic number. We exclude this case. Set

$$
m_{k}=d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots, \quad k \geq 0 .
$$

Since $\xi$ and $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{h} \xi$ have the same approximation spectrum for any integer $h$, we can replace $\xi$ with $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{\bar{j} / d}$, for any $\bar{\jmath}$ in the set $\mathcal{O}_{p, j, d}$ defined in Theorem 3.2. This amounts to take any cyclic permutation of the digits $d_{0}, d_{1}, \ldots, d_{s-1}$ of $j / d$. The fact that some elements of $\mathcal{O}_{p, j, d}$ may be negative does not cause any trouble.

Assume that (iii) does not hold. By taking, if necessary, a cyclic permutation of $d_{0}, d_{1}, \ldots, d_{s-1}$, we can assume that $d_{s-1}$ and $d_{s}$ have the same sign (equivalently, that $m_{s-1}$ and $m_{s}$ have the same sign) or that $\left|d_{s}\right| \geq 2$. Let $k$ be a positive integer. Since the sequences $\left(\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{i}\right)\right)_{i \geq 0}$ and $\left(d_{i}\right)_{i \geq 0}$ are periodic of period $s$, we get that $m_{k s-1}$ and $m_{k s}$ have the same sign or $\left|d_{k s}\right| \geq 2$. In particular, the $\varepsilon$ defined in Lemma 2.7 to derive the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k s}}$ from that of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k s-1}}$ is not equal
to 1. Said differently, setting $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k s-1}}=\left[1, y, \mathbf{w}_{k s-1}\right]$, we do not have $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k s}}=\left[1, y, \mathbf{w}_{k s-1}, c_{k s}\right]$. Thus, writing

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{(k-h) s-1}}=\left[1, y, \mathbf{w}_{(k-h) s-1}\right], \quad 0 \leq h \leq k-1
$$

Lemma 2.7 asserts that there exist $c_{k s}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x] \backslash \mathbb{F}_{p}$ and a nonzero $\eta_{k}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ such that
$\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k s}}=\left[1, y, \mathbf{w}_{k s-1}, c_{k s}, \eta_{k}\left(\overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}_{k s-1} / 2}, 2 y+1,-2 y-1,-\mathbf{w}_{k s-1} / 2\right), \ldots\right]$, where $\operatorname{deg} c_{k s}=p^{v_{k s}}-2\left|m_{k s-1}\right|$. Here and below, the notation $\eta\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$ for a nonzero $\eta$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x] \backslash \mathbb{F}_{p}$ stands for the sequence of $m$ partial quotients $\eta a_{1}, \eta^{-1} a_{2}, \ldots, \eta^{(-1)^{m+1}} a_{m}$.

Let $h$ be an integer with $0<h \leq k-1$. Then, there exist nonzero $\eta_{k}^{\prime}$ and $\rho_{h, k}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k s}}=\left[1, y, \mathbf{w}_{k s-1}, c_{k s}, \eta_{k}\left(\overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}_{k s-1} / 2}, 2 y+1,-2 y-1\right)\right. \\
&\left.\eta_{k}^{\prime}\left(\mathbf{w}_{(k-h) s-1} / 2\right), \rho_{h, k} c_{(k-h) s}, \ldots\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Since

$$
v_{\ell s}=\ell v_{s}, \quad \ell \geq 1
$$

the degree of the numerator (and of the denominator) of the rational fraction

$$
\frac{r_{k, h}}{t_{k, h}}:=\left[1, y, \mathbf{w}_{k s-1}, c_{k s}, \eta_{k}\left(\overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}_{k s-1} / 2}, 2 y+1,-2 y-1\right), \eta_{k}^{\prime}\left(\mathbf{w}_{(k-h) s-1} / 2\right)\right]
$$

is equal to

$$
\left|m_{k s-1}\right|+\left(p^{\left.v_{k s}-2\left|m_{k s-1}\right|\right)+\left|m_{k s-1}\right|+\left|m_{(k-h) s-1}\right|=p^{h v_{s}} p^{v_{(k-h) s}}+\left|m_{(k-h) s-1}\right| . . . \mid}\right.
$$

Furthermore,

$$
\operatorname{deg} c_{(k-h) s}=p^{v_{(k-h) s}}-2\left|m_{(k-h) s-1}\right|
$$

and

$$
m_{(k-h) s-1}=\left(d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}}\right) \cdot \frac{p^{(k-h) v_{s}}-1}{p^{v_{s}}-1}
$$

By the minimality of $s$, we cannot have $d_{0}=\ldots=d_{s-1}= \pm(p-1) / 2$ if $s \geq 2$. Thus,

$$
\left|m_{(k-h) s-1}\right|<\frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{p^{v_{s-1}+1}-1}{p-1} \cdot \frac{p^{(k-h) v_{s}}-1}{p^{v_{s}}-1} \leq \frac{p^{(k-h) v_{s}}-1}{2}, \quad \text { if } s \geq 2
$$

This also holds if $s=1$, since in that case we have excluded the values $d_{0}= \pm(p-1) / 2$. Consequently, setting

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{h}:=\lim _{k \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{\operatorname{deg} c_{(k-h) s}}{\operatorname{deg} r_{k, h}} & =\lim _{k \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{p^{v_{(k-h) s}}-2\left|m_{(k-h) s-1}\right|}{p^{h v_{s}} p^{v_{(k-h) s}}+\left|m_{(k-h) s-1}\right|} \\
& =\frac{p^{v_{s}}-1-2\left|d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1}}\right|}{p^{h v_{s}}\left(p^{v_{s}}-1\right)+\mid d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{s-1} p^{v_{s-1} \mid}}
\end{aligned}
$$

the real number $1+\sigma_{h}$ is greater than 1 and it belongs to the approximation spectrum of $\xi$. Since $h$ is arbitrary, this shows that the approximation spectrum of $\xi$ is infinite. Thus, (ii) does not hold. Furthermore, we have
shown that there are infinitely many partial quotients of the form $\alpha y+\beta$, with $\alpha, \beta$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ and $\alpha$ nonzero. This implies that $\widehat{\nu}(\xi)=1$.

Assume now that ( $i i i$ ) holds. Since $j \geq 1$, we have $d_{0}=1, \ldots, d_{s-1}=-1$, thus

$$
m_{k}=(-1)^{k}\left(p^{v_{k}}-p^{v_{k-1}}+\ldots+(-1)^{k}\right), \quad k \geq 0
$$

It then follows from Lemma 2.7 that there is a linear polynomial $y$ and polynomials $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots$ such that

$$
\xi=\left[1 ; y, c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{s}, c_{s+1}, \ldots\right]
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{deg} c_{i}=p^{v_{i}}-2\left|m_{i-1}\right|=2\left|m_{i}\right|-p^{v_{i}}, \quad i \geq 1
$$

Arguing then as in the proof of (3.5), we get that

$$
\mathcal{S}(\xi)=\left\{\frac{p^{v_{i}}}{\left|-\frac{j}{d}+\left(1-p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+(-1)^{i-1} p^{v_{i-1}}\right)\right|}: 0 \leq i \leq s-1\right\}
$$

This proves that the Diophantine spectrum is a finite set and that $\widehat{\nu}(\xi)>1$. The proof of the proposition is complete.

Proof of Theorem 3.6. By Theorem 3.2, the condition on $j$ implies that

$$
\lambda_{j}\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / d}\right) \leq \nu\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}\right)=\frac{d-j}{j}
$$

Since $\nu\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / d}\right)=d-1$, it follows from (3.7) than

$$
\lambda_{j}\left(\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / d}\right) \geq \frac{d-j}{j}
$$

Consequently, we have indeed equality, and we conclude by Theorem 3.5.

## 8. Ultimate Triangle over $\mathbb{Q}$

Definition 8.1. Let $u$ and $v$ be real numbers such that $u \leq v$ and $v-u$ is an even integer. We define their jump product $\llbracket u \bullet v \rrbracket b y \llbracket u \bullet v \rrbracket=1$ if $u=v$ and by

$$
\llbracket u \bullet v \rrbracket=u(u+2)(u+4) \cdots(v-2), \quad \text { if } u<v
$$

We stress that the jump product $\llbracket \cdot \bullet \cdot \rrbracket$ has the lowest priority order among the other operations, like addition, subtraction and product. Consequently, for two integral valued expressions $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$, we simply write $\llbracket e_{1} \bullet e_{2} \rrbracket$ instead of $\llbracket\left(e_{1}\right) \bullet\left(e_{2}\right) \rrbracket$.

For $u, v$ two positive integers of the same parity with $u<v$, we check that

$$
\llbracket u \bullet v \rrbracket= \begin{cases}2^{(v-u) / 2} \frac{(v / 2-1)!}{(u / 2-1)!}, & \text { if } u \text { is even }  \tag{8.1}\\ 2^{(u-v) / 2} \frac{((u-1) / 2)!(v-1)!}{((v-1) / 2)!(u-1)!}, & \text { if } u \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

Definition 8.2. Given a nonzero integer $\varepsilon=1,-1,2,-2,3,-3, \ldots$ Let $m=$ $0,1, \ldots, 2|\varepsilon|-3$ if $\varepsilon>0$, or $m=0,1, \ldots, 2|\varepsilon|-2$ if $\varepsilon<0$. We define
$\eta_{\varepsilon}(m)= \begin{cases}-2^{m-4\lfloor m / 4\rfloor-1} \frac{\llbracket|\varepsilon|-t \bullet|\varepsilon|+t+2 \rrbracket}{\llbracket|\varepsilon-1|-t \bullet|\varepsilon-1|+t+2 \rrbracket}, & \text { if } m=2 t \text { is even; } \\ 2^{m-4\lfloor m / 4\rfloor-3}(m+2)|\varepsilon| \frac{\llbracket|\varepsilon|-t \bullet|\varepsilon|+t+2 \rrbracket}{\llbracket|\varepsilon|-t-1 \bullet|\varepsilon|+t+3 \rrbracket}, & \text { if } m=2 t+1 \text { is odd } .\end{cases}$
The rational numbers $\eta_{\varepsilon}(m)$ defined above form an infinite triangle, called the Ultimate Triangle, whose line numbered $\varepsilon$ is given by

$$
\begin{cases}{\left[\eta_{\varepsilon}(0), \eta_{\varepsilon}(1), \ldots, \eta_{\varepsilon}(2 \varepsilon-3)\right],} & \text { if } \varepsilon>0 \\ {\left[\eta_{\varepsilon}(0), \eta_{\varepsilon}(1), \ldots, \eta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-3), \eta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-2)\right],} & \text { if } \varepsilon<0\end{cases}
$$

The first few lines of the Ultimate Triangle are reproduced below.

| $\varepsilon$ |  | $\eta_{\varepsilon}(m)$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| -1 | $-1 / 4$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | -1 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |
| -2 | $-1 / 3$ | 1 | $-3 / 4$ |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | $-3 / 4$ | $27 / 32$ | $-16 / 3$ | 8 |  |  |  |
| -3 | $-3 / 8$ | $27 / 32$ | $-16 / 15$ | 8 | $-5 / 32$ |  |  |
| 4 | $-2 / 3$ | $4 / 5$ | $-15 / 4$ | $25 / 4$ | $-8 / 5$ | $16 / 5$ |  |
| -4 | $-2 / 5$ | $4 / 5$ | $-5 / 4$ | $25 / 4$ | $-8 / 35$ | $16 / 5$ | $-35 / 64$ |
| $\vdots$ |  |  | $\vdots$ |  |  |  |  |

Observe that $|\varepsilon|+t+3$ and $|\varepsilon-1|+t+2$ in Definition 8.2 are at most equal to $2|\varepsilon|+2$. Consequently, the largest prime number dividing the numerator or the denominator of the rational number $\eta_{\varepsilon}(m)$ is always less than $2|\varepsilon|+1$.

## 9. Preliminaries to the proof of the Key Lemma 2.7

We reformulate the lemma in terms of matrices, whose coefficients are in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x]$ (actually, we can work over an arbitrary field). For each sequence $\mathbf{w}=w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{k}$ we define

$$
\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{w})=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
w_{1} & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
w_{2} & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \cdots\left(\begin{array}{cc}
w_{k} & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P_{\mathbf{w}} & P_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime} \\
Q_{\mathbf{w}} & Q_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

We stress that ' does not mean derivative. Then, we have

$$
\frac{P_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime}}{Q_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime}}=\left[w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{k-1}\right], \quad \frac{P_{\mathbf{w}}}{Q_{\mathbf{w}}}=\left[w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{k}\right] .
$$

Recall that

$$
\overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}}=w_{k}, \ldots, w_{2}, w_{1}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\rho \mathbf{w} & =\rho w_{1}, \rho^{-1} w_{2}, \ldots, \rho^{(-1)^{k+1}} w_{k}, \quad \rho \in \mathbb{F}_{p} \backslash\{0\} \\
-\mathbf{w} & =(-1) \mathbf{w}
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 9.1. Let $\rho$ be a nonzero rational number. Keeping the above notation, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{M}(\overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}})=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P_{\mathbf{w}} & Q_{\mathbf{w}} \\
P_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime} & Q_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right), & \mathbf{M}(-\mathbf{w})=(-1)^{k}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P_{\mathbf{w}} & -P_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime} \\
-Q_{\mathbf{w}} & Q_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right) \\
\mathbf{M}(\rho \mathbf{w})= & \left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P_{\mathbf{w}} & \rho P_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime} \\
\rho^{-1} Q_{\mathbf{w}} & Q_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right), \quad \text { if } k \text { is even } \\
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\rho P_{\mathbf{w}} & P_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime} \\
Q_{\mathbf{w}} & \rho^{-1} Q_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right), \quad \text { if } k \text { is odd } .
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Moreover, we have

$$
P_{\mathbf{w}} Q_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime}-P_{\mathbf{w}}^{\prime} Q_{\mathbf{w}}=(-1)^{k}
$$

Proof. This is an easy computation.
Lemma 9.2. Let $\mathbf{w}$ be a finite or empty sequence of elements in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x] \backslash \mathbb{F}_{p}$ such that

$$
\mathbf{M}(1, x, \mathbf{w})=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P & P^{\prime} \\
Q & Q^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{v}=\left(2 x+1, \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \mathbf{h}=(\overleftarrow{\mathbf{v}},-\mathbf{v}) \tag{9.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then,

$$
\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{h})=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
(-4 P Q & Q P^{\prime}+P Q^{\prime} \\
-Q P^{\prime}-P Q^{\prime} & P^{\prime} Q^{\prime}
\end{array}\right), \quad \text { if the length of } \mathbf{w} \text { is even } ; ~\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P Q & -\left(Q P^{\prime}+P Q^{\prime}\right) \\
Q P^{\prime}+P Q^{\prime} & -4 P^{\prime} Q^{\prime}
\end{array}\right), \quad \text { if the length of } \mathbf{w} \text { is odd } .
$$

Proof. This follows from a direct matrix calculation. Note that when $\mathbf{w}$ is the empty sequence, we have $\mathbf{h}=(2 x+1,-2 x-1)$.

Observe that the length of $\mathbf{h}$ is always even. Below, $c_{k+1}$ is the polynomial defined in the Key Lemma. Throughout the end of this section, we assume that the length of $\mathbf{w}$ is even (we explain in Section 10 how to deduce the case of odd length from that of even length).

Definition 9.3. For a nonzero rational number $\rho$, set

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{M} & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P & P^{\prime} \\
Q & Q^{\prime}
\end{array}\right), \quad \mathbf{C}(\rho)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\rho c_{k+1} & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \\
\mathbf{H}(\rho) & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-4 P Q & \rho\left(Q P^{\prime}+P Q^{\prime}\right) \\
-\rho^{-1}\left(Q P^{\prime}+P Q^{\prime}\right) & P^{\prime} Q^{\prime}
\end{array}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

In this and the next sections, we adopt the following notation: for an integer $k$, we define

$$
\bar{k}= \begin{cases}0, & \text { if } k \text { is even } \\ 1, & \text { if } k \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

In view of Lemma 9.2, our goal is to establish the following
Theorem 9.4. For every positive integer $\varepsilon$, set

$$
\mathbf{M C}(1) \mathbf{H}\left(\eta_{\varepsilon}(0)\right) \mathbf{C}\left(\eta_{\varepsilon}(1)\right) \cdots \mathbf{H}\left(\eta_{\varepsilon}(2 \varepsilon-4)\right) \mathbf{C}\left(\eta_{\varepsilon}(2 \varepsilon-3)\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{\varepsilon} & A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \\
B_{\varepsilon} & B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

We have

$$
\begin{align*}
& A_{\varepsilon}=(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2}\left(\varepsilon c_{k+1} P Q+P^{\prime} Q\right)^{\varepsilon} / Q  \tag{9.2}\\
& B_{\varepsilon}=(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2}\left(\varepsilon c_{k+1} P Q+P Q^{\prime}\right)^{\varepsilon} / P \tag{9.3}
\end{align*}
$$

For every negative integer $\varepsilon$, set

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{M C}(1) \mathbf{H}\left(\eta_{\varepsilon}(0)\right) \mathbf{C}\left(\eta_{\varepsilon}(1)\right) & \cdots \mathbf{H}\left(\eta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-4)\right) \times \\
& \times \mathbf{C}\left(\eta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-3)\right) \mathbf{H}\left(\eta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-2)\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{\varepsilon} & A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \\
B_{\varepsilon} & B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We have

$$
\begin{align*}
& A_{\varepsilon}=2^{-\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}}\left(\varepsilon c_{k+1} P Q+P Q^{\prime}\right)^{-\varepsilon} P  \tag{9.4}\\
& B_{\varepsilon}=2^{-\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}}\left(\varepsilon c_{k+1} P Q+P^{\prime} Q\right)^{-\varepsilon} Q \tag{9.5}
\end{align*}
$$

In both cases we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{A_{\varepsilon}}{B_{\varepsilon}}=\left(\frac{\varepsilon c_{k+1}+P^{\prime} / P}{\varepsilon c_{k+1}+Q^{\prime} / Q}\right)^{\varepsilon} \frac{P}{Q} \tag{9.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof that Theorem 9.4 implies Lemma 2.7 when $\ell_{k}$ is odd. The assumption that $\ell_{k}$ is odd means that the word $\mathbf{w}$ defined in (2.7) has even length, thus Theorem 9.4 can be applied. We apply it with $\varepsilon$ as in Lemma 2.7, that is, with $\varepsilon:=-\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right) d_{k+1}$. Assume that $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}:=P / Q$ and let $P^{\prime} / Q^{\prime}$ denote the last convergent to $P / Q$. We have to show that

$$
\left(\frac{\varepsilon c_{k+1}+P^{\prime} / P}{\varepsilon c_{k+1}+Q^{\prime} / Q}\right)^{\varepsilon} \frac{P}{Q}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}
$$

We first check that our choice of $c_{k+1}$ implies (9.6).
By the theory of continued fractions, we have

$$
P^{\prime} Q-P Q^{\prime}=(-1)^{\ell_{k}}
$$

Assume first that $m_{k}>0$. We claim that

$$
f:=(-1)^{\ell_{k}} \frac{(x+1)^{p^{v_{k+1}}}}{d_{k+1} P Q}+\frac{Q^{\prime}}{d_{k+1} Q}=(-1)^{\ell_{k}} \frac{(x+1)^{p^{v_{k+1}}}+(-1)^{\ell_{k}} P Q^{\prime}}{d_{k+1} P Q}
$$

is a polynomial. Indeed, the numerator of $f$ is clearly divisible by $P$, as $P$ is a constant multiple of $(1+x)^{m_{k}}$ and $m_{k}<p^{v_{k+1}}$. Since this numerator is also equal to

$$
x^{p^{v_{k+1}}}+1+(-1)^{\ell_{k}}\left(P^{\prime} Q-(-1)^{\ell_{k}}\right)=x^{p^{v_{k+1}}}+(-1)^{\ell_{k}} P^{\prime} Q
$$

it is also divisible by $Q$, as $Q$ is a constant multiple of $x^{m_{k}}$.
Using that $\varepsilon=-d_{k+1}$, we get

$$
\varepsilon f P Q=-(-1)^{\ell_{k}}(x+1)^{p^{v_{k+1}}}-P Q^{\prime}
$$

and we check that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{\varepsilon f+P^{\prime} / P}{\varepsilon f+Q^{\prime} / Q}\right)^{\varepsilon} \frac{P}{Q} & =\left(1+\frac{(-1)^{\ell_{k}}}{\varepsilon f P Q+P Q^{\prime}}\right)^{\varepsilon} \frac{P}{Q} \\
& =\left(1-\frac{1}{(x+1)^{p^{v} k+1}}\right)^{\varepsilon} \frac{P}{Q} \\
& =\left(\frac{x}{x+1}\right)^{\varepsilon p^{v_{k+1}}} \frac{P}{Q} \\
& =\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{d_{k+1} p^{v_{k+1}}+m_{k}}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Assume now that $m_{k}<0$. Then, $\varepsilon=d_{k+1}$. Arguing as above, we check that

$$
f^{\prime}:=(-1)^{\ell_{k}} \frac{(x+1)^{p^{v_{k+1}}}}{d_{k+1} P Q}-\frac{P^{\prime}}{d_{k+1} P}=(-1)^{\ell_{k}} \frac{(x+1)^{p^{v_{k+1}}}-(-1)^{\ell_{k}} P^{\prime} Q}{d_{k+1} P Q}
$$

is a polynomial. Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon f^{\prime} P Q & =(-1)^{\ell_{k}}(x+1)^{p_{k+1}}-P^{\prime} Q \\
& =(-1)^{\ell_{k}} x^{p^{v_{k+1}}}+(-1)^{\ell_{k}}-P^{\prime} Q=(-1)^{\ell_{k}} x^{p^{v_{k+1}}}-P Q^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{\varepsilon f^{\prime}+P^{\prime} / P}{\varepsilon f^{\prime}+Q^{\prime} / Q}\right)^{\varepsilon} \frac{P}{Q} & =\left(1+\frac{(-1)^{\ell_{k}}}{\varepsilon f^{\prime} P Q+P Q^{\prime}}\right)^{\varepsilon} \frac{P}{Q} \\
& =\left(1+\frac{1}{x^{p^{v+1}}}\right)^{\varepsilon} \frac{P}{Q} \\
& =\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{d_{k+1} p^{v_{k+1}}+m_{k}}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Recalling that the degree of $P^{\prime}$ (resp., of $Q^{\prime}$ ) is less than that of $P$ (resp., of $Q)$, this shows that in both cases $c_{k+1}$ is the polynomial part of

$$
\begin{equation*}
(-1)^{\ell_{k}} \frac{(x+1)^{p^{v_{k+1}}}}{d_{k+1} P Q} \tag{9.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

One can check that $\ell_{k+1}=\left(2\left|d_{k+1}\right|-1\right) \ell_{k}+\left|d_{k+1}\right|$ if $\varepsilon$ is positive (or, equivalently, if $m_{k}$ and $m_{k+1}$ have opposite signs) and $\ell_{k+1}=\left(2\left|d_{k+1}\right|+\right.$ 1) $\ell_{k}+\left|d_{k+1}\right|$ if $\varepsilon$ is negative (or, equivalently, if $m_{k}$ and $m_{k+1}$ have the same
sign). The arguments given in Section 10 show that this remains true if $\ell_{k}$ is even. Recalling that $\ell_{0}=\left|m_{0}\right|$ and noticing that

$$
\ell_{k+1}-\ell_{k} \equiv d_{k+1} \equiv m_{k+1}-m_{k} \quad(\bmod 2)
$$

and immediate induction shows that $m_{k}$ and $\ell_{k}$ have the same parity for every $k \geq 0$.

By Lemma 9.5 below, the leading coefficient of $P$ is equal to $\pm 2^{\left|m_{k}\right|-\overline{m_{k}}}$. Since $Q$ has the same leading coefficient as $P$, we then derive from (9.7) that $c_{k+1}$ is the polynomial part of

$$
(-1)^{\ell_{k}} \frac{(x+1)^{p^{v} k+1}-\left|m_{k}\right|}{d_{k+1} 4^{\left|m_{k}\right|-\overline{m_{k}}} x^{\left|m_{k}\right|}}
$$

This completes the proof, since $\ell_{k}$ and $m_{k}$ have the same parity.
Lemma 9.5. Let $m$ be an integer, and $P$ be the numerator of the continued fraction of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$. Then, the leading coefficient of $P$ is equal to

$$
G(P)=\kappa 2^{|m|-\bar{m}}
$$

where $\kappa=1$ if $m \geq 0$, and $\kappa=(-1)^{m}$ if $m<0$.
Proof. A quick check shows that the lemma is true for $m=0, \pm 1$. Assume that $m$ satisfies $2 \leq|m| \leq(p-1) / 2$. We apply Lemma 2.6 and keep its notation. Then, $f_{2} \ldots f_{m}$ is a polynomial in $x$ whose leading coefficient is $m 2^{m-1}$ if $m>0$ and $(-1)^{m} m 2^{|m|-1}$ if $m<0$. The expression of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ given in (2.6) then shows that the leading coefficient of $P$ (which is equal to the product of the leading coefficients of the partial quotients) is equal to $2^{m-1+\delta}$ if $m>0$ and to $(-1)^{m} 2^{|m|-1+\delta}$ if $m<0$, where $\delta=1$ if $m$ is even and $\delta=0$ if $m$ is odd. The lemma is proved when $|m| \leq(p-1) / 2$.

Let $\left(d_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$ be a sequence of nonzero integers in $\{-(p-1) / 2, \ldots,(p-1) / 2\}$ and $\left(v_{k}\right)_{k \geq 1}$ an increasing sequence of positive integers. For $k \geq 0$, set

$$
m_{k}=d_{0}+d_{1} p^{v_{1}}+\ldots+d_{k} p^{v_{k}}
$$

We have checked above that the lemma holds for $m_{0}$. Let $k \geq 0$ be an integer such that the lemma holds for $m_{k}$. We show that it holds for $m_{k+1}$. We let $G(R)$ denote the leading coefficient of a non-constant polynomial $R$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x]$. We keep the notation of the preceding proof and also assume that $m_{k}$ is odd. We know that $G(P)=G(Q)$ and recall that $\varepsilon=-\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right) d_{k+1}$. It follows from (9.7) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
G\left(c_{k+1}\right) & =(-1)^{m_{k}} \frac{1}{d_{k+1} G(P)^{2}} \\
G\left(c_{k+1} \varepsilon P Q\right) & =(-1)^{m_{k}} \frac{\varepsilon}{d_{k+1}}=-(-1)^{m_{k}} \operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Assume first that $\varepsilon>0$. We then have

$$
\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k+1}\right)=\operatorname{sgn}\left(d_{k+1}\right)=-\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right)
$$

and it follows from Theorem 9.4 that

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\varepsilon} & =(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2}\left(\varepsilon c_{k+1} P Q+P^{\prime} Q\right)^{\varepsilon} / Q, \\
G\left(A_{\varepsilon}\right) & =(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2}\left(G\left(\varepsilon c_{k+1} P Q+P^{\prime} Q\right)\right)^{\varepsilon} / G(Q) \\
& =(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2}\left(G\left(\varepsilon c_{k+1} P Q\right)\right)^{\varepsilon} / G(Q) \\
& =(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2}\left(-(-1)^{m_{k}} \operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right)\right)^{\varepsilon} / G(P) \\
& =(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2}\left(\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right)\right)^{\varepsilon} /\left(\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right) 2^{\left|m_{k}\right|-1}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

since the lemma holds for $m_{k}$. Using Fermat's Little Theorem, we then get that, in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
G\left(A_{\varepsilon}\right) & =\left(-\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right)\right)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-\left|m_{k}\right|-1} \\
& =\left(-\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right)\right)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{|m|+\bar{\varepsilon}-1} \\
& =(\operatorname{sgn}(m))^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{|m|-\bar{m}}=\kappa 2^{|m|-\bar{m}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Assume now that $\varepsilon<0$. Then, we have,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\varepsilon} & =2^{-\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}}\left(\varepsilon c_{k+1} P Q+P Q^{\prime}\right)^{-\varepsilon} P \\
G\left(A_{\varepsilon}\right) & =2^{-\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}}\left(G\left(\varepsilon c_{k+1} P Q+P Q^{\prime}\right)\right)^{-\varepsilon} G(P) \\
& =2^{-\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}}\left(-(-1)^{m_{k}} \operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right)\right)^{-\varepsilon} \times \operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right) 2^{\left|m_{k}\right|-1},
\end{aligned}
$$

since the lemma holds for $m_{k}$. Using Fermat's Little Theorem, we then get that, in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
G\left(A_{\varepsilon}\right) & =\left(\operatorname{sgn}\left(m_{k}\right)\right)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{-\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}+\left|m_{k}\right|-1} \\
& =\kappa 2^{|m|+\bar{\varepsilon}-1}=\kappa 2^{|m|-\bar{m}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The case $m_{k}$ even is similar in view of Theorem 9.4 and Section 10. We omit the details.

By Lemma 2.4, this shows that the lemma holds for every integer $m$ which is not divisible by $p$. When $m$ is a multiple of $p$, say $m=p^{a} m^{\prime}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}\left(p, m^{\prime}\right)=1$, then the partial quotients of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ are the $p^{a}$-th powers of the partial quotients of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m^{\prime}}$. In $\mathbb{F}_{p}$, their leading coefficients are the same. This completes the proof of the lemma.

We will derive Theorem 9.4 from Theorem 9.9 below. First, we perform a change of variables to get an equivalent, but slightly simpler, statement. We define

$$
Y:=\varepsilon c_{k+1} P Q, \quad r:=P^{\prime} Q+Y, \quad q:=P Q^{\prime}+Y .
$$

We use the letter $r$ to avoid any confusion with the prime number $p$. Then (9.6) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{A_{\varepsilon}}{B_{\varepsilon}}=\left(\frac{r}{q}\right)^{\varepsilon} \frac{P}{Q} . \tag{9.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we observe that M, MC(1), and any finite product $\mathbf{M C}(1) \mathbf{H}\left(\eta_{\varepsilon}(0)\right) \cdots$ take one of the two following forms

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
* P & * / Q \\
* Q & * / P
\end{array}\right), \quad\left(\begin{array}{ll}
* / Q & * P \\
* / P & * Q
\end{array}\right),
$$

where the factors * are polynomials in $Y, r, q$. In particular, neither $P$, nor $Q$, occur in the factors *. Consequently, we can assume that $P=Q=1$, thus

$$
Y=\varepsilon c_{k+1}, \quad r=P^{\prime}+Y, \quad q=Q^{\prime}+Y .
$$

We work in the polynomial ring over the rational number $\mathbb{Q}[Y, r, q]$ and view $Y, r, q$ as indeterminates.

Definition 9.6. For a nonzero rational number $\rho$, define

$$
\begin{aligned}
\overline{\mathbf{M}} & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & r-Y \\
1 & q-Y
\end{array}\right), \quad \overline{\mathbf{C}}(\rho)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\rho Y & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \\
\overline{\mathbf{H}}(\rho) & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-4 & \rho(r+q-2 Y) \\
-\rho^{-1}(r+q-2 Y) & (r-Y)(q-Y)
\end{array}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is convenient to extend the definition of $\eta_{\varepsilon}(m)$ for $m=-2,-1,0,1,2, \ldots$.
Definition 9.7. Given a nonzero integer $\varepsilon=1,-1,2,-2,3,-3, \ldots$, let $m=$ $0,1, \ldots, 2|\varepsilon|-1$ if $\varepsilon>0$, or $m=0,1, \ldots, 2|\varepsilon|$ if $\varepsilon<0$. We define

$$
\zeta_{\varepsilon}(m)= \begin{cases}\eta_{\varepsilon}(m-2), & \text { if } m=2 t \text { is even } ; \\ \eta_{\varepsilon}(m-2) / \varepsilon, & \text { if } m=2 t+1 \text { is odd. }\end{cases}
$$

For later use, we check that

$$
\frac{\eta_{\varepsilon}(2 t+1)}{\eta_{\varepsilon}(2 t)}=-\frac{(2 t+3) \varepsilon}{2(\varepsilon+t+1)},
$$

thus we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 t+1)}{\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 t)}=\frac{\eta_{\varepsilon}(2 t-1) / \varepsilon}{\eta_{\varepsilon}(2 t-2)}=-\frac{2 t+1}{2(\varepsilon+t)} \tag{9.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, by combining

$$
\eta_{\varepsilon}(2 t)=\frac{-2^{2 t-4\lfloor t / 2\rfloor-1} \llbracket|\varepsilon|-t \bullet|\varepsilon|+t+2 \rrbracket}{\llbracket|\varepsilon-1|-t \bullet|\varepsilon-1|+t+2 \rrbracket},
$$

with

$$
\eta_{\varepsilon}(2 t+2)=\frac{-2^{2 t+2-4\lfloor(t+1) / 2\rfloor-1} \llbracket|\varepsilon|-t-1 \bullet|\varepsilon|+t+1+2 \rrbracket}{\llbracket|\varepsilon-1|-t-1 \bullet|\varepsilon-1|+t+1+2 \rrbracket},
$$

we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta_{\varepsilon}(2 t) \eta_{\varepsilon}(2 t+2)=\frac{\varepsilon+t+1}{\varepsilon-t-2} . \tag{9.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

This shows that Theorem 9.4 is equivalent to:

Theorem 9.8. For every positive integer $\varepsilon$, let

$$
\overline{\mathbf{M}} \overline{\mathbf{C}}(1 / \varepsilon) \overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2)\right) \overline{\mathbf{C}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(3)\right) \cdots \overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 \varepsilon-2)\right) \overline{\mathbf{C}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 \varepsilon-1)\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A_{\varepsilon} & A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \\
B_{\varepsilon} & B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

We have

$$
\begin{align*}
& A_{\varepsilon}=(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2} r^{\varepsilon}  \tag{9.11}\\
& B_{\varepsilon}=(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2} q^{\varepsilon} \tag{9.12}
\end{align*}
$$

For every negative integer $\varepsilon$, let
$\overline{\mathbf{M}} \overline{\mathbf{C}}(1 / \varepsilon) \overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2)\right) \overline{\mathbf{C}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(3)\right) \cdots \overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-2)\right) \times$

$$
\overline{\mathbf{C}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|-1)\right) \overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|)\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{\varepsilon} & A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \\
B_{\varepsilon} & B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

We have

$$
\begin{align*}
& A_{\varepsilon}=2^{-\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}} q^{-\varepsilon},  \tag{9.13}\\
& B_{\varepsilon}=2^{-\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}} r^{-\varepsilon} . \tag{9.14}
\end{align*}
$$

In both cases we have

$$
\frac{A_{\varepsilon}}{B_{\varepsilon}}=\left(\frac{r}{q}\right)^{\varepsilon} .
$$

Since

$$
\zeta_{\varepsilon}(0)=\eta_{\varepsilon}(-2)=-2, \quad \zeta_{\varepsilon}(1)=\eta_{\varepsilon}(-1) / \varepsilon=1 / \varepsilon
$$

we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\overline{\mathbf{M}} \overline{\mathbf{C}}(1 / \varepsilon) & \overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2)\right) \overline{\mathbf{C}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(3)\right) \cdots \\
& =\overline{\mathbf{M}}(\overline{\mathbf{H}}(-2))^{-1} \times \overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(0)\right) \overline{\mathbf{C}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(1)\right) \times \overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2)\right) \overline{\mathbf{C}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(3)\right) \cdots \\
& =\mathbf{U} \times \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(0) \times \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(1) \cdots,
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\mathbf{U}:=\overline{\mathbf{M}}(\overline{\mathbf{H}}(-2))^{-1}=\frac{1}{r-q}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
(Y-r) / 2 & -2 \\
-(Y-q) / 2 & 2
\end{array}\right)
$$

and, for $t=0,1, \ldots,|\varepsilon|-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(t) & :=\overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 t)\right) \overline{\mathbf{C}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 t+1)\right) \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 t)\left(r+q-2 Y \frac{\varepsilon-t-1}{\varepsilon+t}\right) & -4 \\
r q-\frac{(2 \varepsilon-1)(r+q)}{2(\varepsilon+t)} Y+\frac{\varepsilon-t-1}{\varepsilon+t} Y^{2} & -\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 t)\right)^{-1}(r+q-2 Y)
\end{array}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

by (9.9).
Consequently, it is sufficient to establish the following
Theorem 9.9. For every positive integer $\varepsilon$, let

$$
\mathbf{U D}_{\varepsilon}(0) \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(1) \cdots \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(\varepsilon-1)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{\varepsilon} & A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \\
B_{\varepsilon} & B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Then, $A_{\varepsilon}$ and $B_{\varepsilon}$ are given by (9.11) and (9.12), respectively. For every negative integer $\varepsilon$, let

$$
\mathbf{U D}_{\varepsilon}(0) \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(1) \cdots \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(|\varepsilon|-1) \overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|)\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{\varepsilon} & A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \\
B_{\varepsilon} & B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Then, $A_{\varepsilon}$ and $B_{\varepsilon}$ are given by (9.13) and (9.14), respectively. In both cases we have

$$
\frac{A_{\varepsilon}}{B_{\varepsilon}}=\left(\frac{r}{q}\right)^{\varepsilon}
$$

## 10. When the Length of w is odd

We explain in this section how to deduce the results for $\mathbf{w}$ of odd length from those established for $\mathbf{w}$ of even length.

Observe first that in Lemma 9.2 in both cases the length of $\mathbf{h}$ is even.
Lemma 10.1. Let $\mathbf{h}^{e}$ and $\mathbf{h}^{o}$ be two sequences of even length over $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x] \backslash \mathbb{F}_{p}$ such that

$$
\mathbf{M}\left(\mathbf{h}^{e}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-4 A & B \\
-B & C
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \mathbf{M}\left(\mathbf{h}^{o}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & -B \\
B & -4 C
\end{array}\right)
$$

Let $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ be nonzero elements of $\mathbb{F}_{p}$. Let $c$ be in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x] \backslash \mathbb{F}_{p}$ and $\mathbf{s}$ a finite sequence over $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x]$. Then, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{M}\left(\alpha \mathbf{h}^{e}, \beta c, \gamma \mathbf{h}^{e}\right) & =\mathbf{M}\left(4 \alpha \mathbf{h}^{o}, 16 \beta c, \frac{1}{4} \gamma \mathbf{h}^{o}\right), \\
{\left[\mathbf{s}, \alpha \mathbf{h}^{e}\right] } & =\left[\mathbf{s}, 4 \alpha \mathbf{h}^{o}\right] \\
{\left[\mathbf{s}, \alpha \mathbf{h}^{e}, \beta c\right] } & =\left[\mathbf{s}, 4 \alpha \mathbf{h}^{o}, 16 \beta c\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

The first equality is about matrices, while the last two equalities are about continued fractions and do not extend to matrices.

Proof. This follows from a direct computation.
The form of the matrix $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{h})$ in Lemma 9.2 allows us to apply Lemma 10.1 with

$$
A:=P Q, \quad B:=Q P^{\prime}+P Q^{\prime}, \quad C:=P^{\prime} Q^{\prime}
$$

to deduce from Theorem 9.4 (which addresses the case where the length of $\mathbf{w}$ is even) its analogue for the case where the length of $\mathbf{w}$ is odd. Then, we derive the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k+1}}$ when the length of $\mathbf{w}$ is odd (that is, when the length $\ell_{k}$ of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$ is even). We omit the details.

## 11. Proof of Theorem 9.9

For $i, j$ in $\{1,2\}$, let $U[i, j]$ denote the $i \times j$ coefficient of the matrix $U$.

Lemma 11.1. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
U[1,1](r, q) & =U[2,1](q, r) \\
U[1,2](r, q) & =U[2,2](q, r) \\
B_{\varepsilon}(r, q) & =A_{\varepsilon}(q, r) \\
B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(r, q) & =A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(q, r)
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. The assertion about the coefficients of $U$ is easy to check. It implies the last two assertions, since the matrices $\mathbf{D}$ and $\overline{\mathbf{H}}$ are symmetric in the indeterminates $r$ and $q$.

Definition 11.2. For every positive integer $k$ and $j=0,1, \ldots, k$, we use the following notations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Phi(k, j ; r, q)=\sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d}, \\
& K_{1}(k, j)= \begin{cases}2^{2-k-\bar{k}} \frac{\llbracket k+j \bullet 2 k-2 \rrbracket}{\llbracket 1 \bullet k-j-1 \rrbracket}, & \text { if } k-j \text { is even }, \\
2^{\bar{k}-1} \frac{\llbracket k-j-1 \bullet k-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k-1+\bar{k} \bullet k+j \rrbracket}, & \text { if } k-j \text { is odd },\end{cases} \\
& K_{2}(k, j)= \begin{cases}-2^{-k-\bar{k} \frac{\llbracket k+j+2 \bullet 2 k+2 \rrbracket}{k \llbracket 1 \bullet k-j-1 \rrbracket},} & \text { if } k-j \text { is even }, \\
-2^{\bar{k}-1} \frac{\llbracket k-j-1 \bullet k+2-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{k \llbracket k+1+\bar{k} \bullet k+j+2 \rrbracket}, & \text { if } k-j \text { is odd, }\end{cases} \\
& K_{3}(k, j)= \begin{cases}2^{\bar{k}} \frac{\llbracket k-j \bullet k+\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k+1-\bar{k} \bullet k+j+1 \rrbracket}, & \text { if } k-j \text { is even }, \\
2^{2-k-\bar{k} \frac{\llbracket k+j+1 \bullet 2 k \rrbracket}{\llbracket 1 \bullet k-j \rrbracket},} & \text { if } k-j \text { is odd },\end{cases} \\
& K_{4}(k, j)= \begin{cases}(-1)^{k} 2^{-k-\bar{k}} \frac{\llbracket k+j+2 \bullet 2 k+2 \rrbracket}{\llbracket 1 \bullet k-j+1 \rrbracket}, & \text { if } k-j \text { is even }, \\
(-1)^{k+1} 2^{\bar{k}-1} \frac{\llbracket k-j+1 \bullet k+2-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k+1+\bar{k} \bullet k+j+2 \rrbracket}, & \text { if } k-j \text { is odd },\end{cases} \\
& K_{5}(k, j)= \begin{cases}(-1)^{k+1} 2^{-k-\bar{k}} \frac{(k+j+1) \llbracket k+j+2 \bullet 2 k+2 \rrbracket}{k \llbracket 1 \bullet k-j+1 \rrbracket}, & \text { if } k-j \text { is even }, \\
(-1)^{k} 2^{\bar{k}-1} \frac{(k+j+1) \llbracket k-j+1 \bullet k+2-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{k \llbracket k+1+\bar{k} \bullet k+j+2 \rrbracket}, & \text { if } k-j \text { is odd } .\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows from (8.1) that

For each positive integer $k$ and $j=0,1, \ldots, k-2$ such that $k-j$ is odd, define

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Psi(k, j ; r, q) & =K_{1}(k, j) \Phi(k-2, j ; r, q) \\
& =2^{\bar{k}-1} \frac{\llbracket k-j-1 \bullet k-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k-1+\bar{k} \bullet k+j \rrbracket} \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j-1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-2}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\llbracket k-j-1 \bullet k-\bar{k} \rrbracket=(k-j-1) \llbracket k-j+1 \bullet k-\bar{k} \rrbracket$ and, for $d \geq 1$,

$$
\binom{k-2}{d}=\binom{k-2}{d-1} \cdot \frac{k-d-1}{d}
$$

we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Psi(k, j ; r, q)=2^{\bar{k}-1} & \frac{(k-j-1) \llbracket k-j+1 \bullet k-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k-1+\bar{k} \bullet k+j \rrbracket} \\
& \times\left(q^{j}+\sum_{d=1}^{j} \frac{d\binom{k+j-1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{(k-d-1)\binom{k-2}{d-1}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
=2^{\bar{k}-1} & \frac{\llbracket k-j+1 \bullet k-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k-1+\bar{k} \bullet k+j \rrbracket} \\
& \times\left((k-j-1) q^{j}+\sum_{d=1}^{j} \frac{d(k-j-1)\binom{k+j-1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{(k-d-1)\binom{k-2}{d-1}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence we have
$\Psi(k, j ; r, q)=2^{\bar{k}-1} \frac{\llbracket k-j+1 \bullet k-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k-1+\bar{k} \bullet k+j \rrbracket} \times\left((k-j-1) q^{j}\right.$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.+\sum_{d=1}^{j-1} \frac{d(k-j-1)\binom{k+j-1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{(k-d-1)\binom{k-2}{d-1}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d}+\frac{j\binom{k+j-1}{j}}{\binom{k-2}{j-1}}(-r)^{j}\right) \tag{11.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Formula (11.1) is defined for $j=0,1, \ldots, k-2$. Its right-hand side is also valid for $j=k-1$. Thus, we use it to define $\Psi(k, j ; r, q)$ when $j=k-1$.

Theorem 11.3. For a nonzero integer $\varepsilon$ and $j=0,1, \ldots,|\varepsilon|-1$, set

$$
\Pi_{\varepsilon}(j):=\mathbf{U D}_{\varepsilon}(0) \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(1) \cdots \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(j)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A_{\varepsilon}(j) & A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j) \\
B_{\varepsilon}(j) & B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)
\end{array}\right)
$$

If $\varepsilon>0$, then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{\varepsilon}(j)=\Psi(|\varepsilon|, j ; r, q) r+K_{2}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; r, q) Y \\
& A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)=K_{3}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; r, q) \\
& B_{\varepsilon}(j)=\Psi(|\varepsilon|, j ; q, r) q+K_{2}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; q, r) Y \\
& B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)=K_{3}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; q, r)
\end{aligned}
$$

If $\varepsilon<0$, then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{\varepsilon}(j)=K_{4}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|, j ; q, r) r+K_{5}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; q, r) Y \\
& A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)=(-1)^{j} K_{3}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; q, r) \\
& B_{\varepsilon}(j)=K_{4}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|, j ; r, q) q+K_{5}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; r, q) Y \\
& B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)=(-1)^{j} K_{3}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; r, q)
\end{aligned}
$$

Sketch of the proof. We check by a direct computation that the theorem holds for $j=0$. Then, we verify that $\Pi_{\varepsilon}(j+1)=\Pi_{\varepsilon}(j) \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(j+1)$ for $j=0, \ldots,|\varepsilon|-2$. Consider only the special case where $j$ is even and $\varepsilon$ is positive and even. With $t=j+1$, we need to check that

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\varepsilon}(j+1)= & A_{\varepsilon}(j) \zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 t)\left(r+q-2 Y \frac{\varepsilon-t-1}{\varepsilon+t}\right) \\
& +A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)\left(r q-\frac{(2 \varepsilon-1)(r+q)}{2(\varepsilon+t)} Y+\frac{\varepsilon-t-1}{\varepsilon+t} Y^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

that is,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& K_{1}(\varepsilon, j+1) \Phi(\varepsilon-2, j+1 ; r, q) r+K_{2}(\varepsilon, j+1) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j+1 ; r, q) Y \\
& =\left(K_{1}(\varepsilon, j) \Phi(\varepsilon-2, j ; r, q) r\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left.+K_{2}(\varepsilon, j) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j ; r, q) Y\right) \zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 j+2)\left(r+q-2 Y \frac{\varepsilon-j-2}{\varepsilon+j+1}\right) \\
& +K_{3}(\varepsilon, j) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j ; r, q)\left(r q-\frac{(2 \varepsilon-1)(r+q)}{2(\varepsilon+j+1)} Y+\frac{\varepsilon-j-2}{\varepsilon+j+1} Y^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

To check this, we view both expressions as polynomials in $Y$ and verify that the coefficients of $1, Y$, and $Y^{2}$ coincide. Let us do this for the coefficients of $Y$. This amounts to check that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& K_{2}(\varepsilon, j+1) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j+1 ; r, q) \\
&=\left(K_{1}(\varepsilon, j) \Phi(\varepsilon-2, j ; r, q) r\right) \zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 j+2)\left(-2 \frac{\varepsilon-j-2}{\varepsilon+j+1}\right) \\
&+\left(K_{2}(\varepsilon, j) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j ; r, q)\right) \zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 j+2)(r+q) \\
&+K_{3}(\varepsilon, j) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j ; r, q)\left(-\frac{(2 \varepsilon-1)(r+q)}{2(\varepsilon+j+1)}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

By Definition 9.7, this is equivalent to

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2 K_{2}(\varepsilon, j+1) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j+1 ; r, q)(\varepsilon+j+1) \\
& =-4 K_{1}(\varepsilon, j) \Phi(\varepsilon-2, j ; r, q) r \eta_{\varepsilon}(2 j)(\varepsilon-j-2) \\
& \quad+2 K_{2}(\varepsilon, j) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j ; r, q) \eta_{\varepsilon}(2 j)(r+q)(\varepsilon+j+1) \\
& \quad-K_{3}(\varepsilon, j) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j ; r, q)(2 \varepsilon-1)(r+q) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Recalling that that $\varepsilon$ and $j$ are assumed to be even, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\eta_{\varepsilon}(2 j) & =-2^{2 j-2 j-1} \frac{\llbracket \varepsilon-j \bullet \varepsilon+j+2 \rrbracket}{\llbracket \varepsilon-1-j \bullet \varepsilon+j+1 \rrbracket}, \\
K_{2}(\varepsilon, j+1) & =-2^{-1} \frac{\llbracket \varepsilon-j-2 \bullet \varepsilon+2 \rrbracket}{\varepsilon \llbracket \varepsilon+1 \bullet \varepsilon+j+3 \rrbracket}, \\
K_{1}(\varepsilon, j) & =2^{2-\varepsilon} \frac{\llbracket \varepsilon+j \bullet 2 \varepsilon-2 \rrbracket}{\llbracket 1 \bullet \varepsilon-j-1 \rrbracket}, \\
K_{2}(\varepsilon, j) & =-2^{-\varepsilon} \frac{\llbracket \varepsilon+j+2 \bullet 2 \varepsilon+2 \rrbracket}{\varepsilon \llbracket 1 \bullet \varepsilon-j-1 \rrbracket}, \\
K_{3}(\varepsilon, j) & =2^{0} \frac{\llbracket \varepsilon-j \bullet \varepsilon \rrbracket}{\llbracket \varepsilon+1 \bullet \varepsilon+j+1 \rrbracket} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Inserting this in the equality to be checked and noticing that $\llbracket u \bullet v \rrbracket \cdot \llbracket v \bullet w \rrbracket=$ $\llbracket u \bullet w \rrbracket$ for every integers $u, v, w$, we use (8.1) to show that $2^{\varepsilon-2} \llbracket 1 \bullet \varepsilon-1 \rrbracket=$ $\llbracket \varepsilon \bullet 2 \varepsilon-2 \rrbracket$ and we see after some simplification that we need to verify that

$$
\begin{aligned}
- & (\varepsilon-1) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j+1 ; r, q) \\
= & 2 r(\varepsilon+j) \Phi(\varepsilon-2, j ; r, q) \\
& -(\varepsilon-1)(r+q) \Phi(\varepsilon-1, j ; r, q) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We use the definition of $\Phi$ to conclude. We omit the details. We check analogously that the values of $A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j+1), B_{\varepsilon}(j+1)$, and $B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j+1)$ are those
given by the theorem. We also have to consider the remaining cases $(\varepsilon$ negative, $\varepsilon$ or $j$ odd). A full proof is given in Appendix A.

Deduction of Theorem 9.9 from Theorem 11.3. If $\varepsilon>0$ and $j=\varepsilon-1$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\varepsilon}=A_{\varepsilon}(\varepsilon-1) & =\Psi(\varepsilon, \varepsilon-1 ; r, q) r \\
& =2^{\bar{\varepsilon}-1} \frac{\llbracket \varepsilon-j+1 \bullet \varepsilon-\bar{\varepsilon} \rrbracket}{\llbracket \varepsilon-1+\bar{\varepsilon} \bullet \varepsilon+j \rrbracket} \frac{j\binom{\varepsilon+j-1}{j}}{\binom{\varepsilon-2}{j-1}}(-r)^{j} \\
& =\frac{2^{\bar{\varepsilon}-1}(\varepsilon-1) \llbracket 2 \bullet \varepsilon-\bar{\varepsilon} \rrbracket r}{\llbracket \varepsilon-1+\bar{\varepsilon} \bullet 2 \varepsilon-1 \rrbracket}\binom{2 \varepsilon-2}{\varepsilon-1}(-r)^{\varepsilon-1} \\
& =(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2} r^{\varepsilon} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, by Lemma 11.1, we get

$$
B_{\varepsilon}=(-1)^{\varepsilon+1} 2^{\varepsilon+\bar{\varepsilon}-2} q^{\varepsilon},
$$

and conclude that

$$
\frac{A_{\varepsilon}}{B_{\varepsilon}}=\left(\frac{r}{q}\right)^{\varepsilon} .
$$

If $\varepsilon<0, j=|\varepsilon|-1$, then

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{\varepsilon}(j) & A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j) \\
B_{\varepsilon}(j) & B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)
\end{array}\right) \overline{\mathbf{H}}\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|)\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{\varepsilon} & A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \\
B_{\varepsilon} & B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\varepsilon}= & -4 A_{\varepsilon}(j)-A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j) \frac{r+q-2 Y}{\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|)} \\
= & -4 K_{4}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|, j ; q, r) r-4 K_{5}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; q, r) Y \\
& -(-1)^{j} K_{3}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; q, r) \frac{r+q-2 Y}{\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

With $k=|\varepsilon|$ and $j=k-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
K_{3}(k, j) & =2^{2-k-\bar{k}}, \\
K_{4}(k, j) & =(-1)^{k+1} 2^{\bar{k}-1} \frac{\llbracket 2 \bullet k+2-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k+1+\bar{k} \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket}, \\
K_{5}(k, j) & =(-1)^{k} 2^{\bar{k}} \frac{\llbracket 2 \bullet k+2-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k+1+\bar{k} \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket}, \\
\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 k) & =-2^{(-1)^{k}} \frac{\llbracket 1 \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket}{\llbracket 2 \bullet 2 k+2 \rrbracket}, \\
\Phi(|\varepsilon|, j ; q, r) & =\sum_{d=0}^{k-1} \frac{\binom{2 k}{d}\binom{k-1}{d}}{\binom{k}{d}}(-q)^{d} r^{k-1-d}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\sum_{d=0}^{k-1} \frac{\binom{2 k}{d}(k-d)}{k}(-q)^{d} r^{k-1-d} \\
\Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; q, r) & =\sum_{d=0}^{k-1}\binom{2 k-1}{d}(-q)^{d} r^{k-1-d}
\end{aligned}
$$

We check that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha & =-4 K_{5}(|\varepsilon|, j) Y-(-1)^{j} K_{3}(|\varepsilon|, j) \frac{r+q-2 Y}{\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2|\varepsilon|)} \\
& =-4 \frac{(-1)^{k} 2^{\bar{k}} \llbracket 2 \bullet k+2-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k+1+\bar{k} \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket} Y+(-1)^{j} 2^{2-k-\bar{k}}(r+q-2 Y) \frac{\llbracket 2 \bullet 2 k+2 \rrbracket}{2^{(-1)^{k} \llbracket 1 \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket}} \\
& =(-1)^{j} 2^{1-k+\bar{k}}(r+q) \frac{\llbracket 2 \bullet 2 k+2 \rrbracket}{\llbracket 1 \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket},
\end{aligned}
$$

thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\varepsilon}= & -4 K_{4}(|\varepsilon|, j) \Phi(|\varepsilon|, j ; q, r) r+\alpha \Phi(|\varepsilon|-1, j ; q, r) \\
= & -4 r \frac{(-1)^{k+1} 2^{\bar{k}-1} \llbracket 2 \bullet k+2-\bar{k} \rrbracket}{\llbracket k+1+\bar{k} \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket} \sum_{d=0}^{k-1} \frac{\binom{2 k}{d}(k-d)}{k}(-q)^{d} r^{k-1-d} \\
& +(-1)^{j} 2^{1-k+\bar{k}}(r+q) \frac{\llbracket 2 \bullet 2 k+2 \rrbracket}{\llbracket 1 \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket} \sum_{d=0}^{k-1}\binom{2 k-1}{d}(-q)^{d} r^{k-1-d} \\
= & (-1)^{k+1} 2^{\bar{k}+1} \frac{k!}{\llbracket 1 \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket} \sum_{d=0}^{k-1}\left[(-r) \frac{\binom{2 k}{d}(k-d)}{k}+(r+q)\binom{2 k-1}{d}\right](-q)^{d} r^{k-1-d} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
T & :=\sum_{d=0}^{k-1}\left[(-r) \frac{\binom{2 k}{d}(k-d)}{k}+(r+q)\binom{2 k-1}{d}\right](-q)^{d} r^{k-1-d} \\
& =\sum_{d=0}^{k-1}\left[r\binom{2 k-1}{d-1}+q\binom{2 k-1}{d}\right](-q)^{d} r^{k-1-d} \\
& =\sum_{d=0}^{k-1}\binom{2 k-1}{d-1}(-q)^{d} r^{k-d}-\sum_{d=0}^{k-1}\binom{2 k-1}{d}(-q)^{d+1} r^{k-d-1} \\
& =-\binom{k-1}{k-1}(-q)^{k},
\end{aligned}
$$

we derive that

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\varepsilon} & =(-1)^{k+1} 2^{\bar{k}+1} \frac{k!}{\llbracket 1 \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket} T \\
& =2^{\bar{k}+1} \frac{k!}{\llbracket 1 \bullet 2 k+1 \rrbracket}\binom{2 k-1}{k-1} q^{k}=2^{k+\bar{k}} q^{k} .
\end{aligned}
$$

By Lemma 11.1 we get $B_{\varepsilon}=2^{k+\bar{k}} r^{k}$, and we conclude that

$$
\frac{A_{\varepsilon}}{B_{\varepsilon}}=\left(\frac{r}{q}\right)^{\varepsilon}
$$

This proves the theorem.

## 12. Proof of Lemma 2.6

We start with an easy lemma.
Lemma 12.1. If the generalized continued fraction

$$
f(z)=c_{0}+\frac{a_{0} z}{\boxed{1}}+\frac{a_{1} z}{\square}+\frac{a_{2} z}{\mid}+\cdots
$$

is equal to the continued fraction

$$
f(z)=c_{0}+\frac{1}{d_{1}\left(u_{1}+z^{-1}\right)+\frac{1}{d_{2}\left(u_{2}+z^{-1}\right)+\ddots}}
$$

then

$$
\begin{aligned}
u_{1} & =a_{1} \\
u_{k} & =a_{2 k-2}+a_{2 k-1}, \quad k \geq 2 \\
d_{1} & =a_{0}^{-1} \\
d_{2 k+1} & =\frac{\left(a_{1} a_{2}\right)\left(a_{5} a_{6}\right) \cdots\left(a_{4 k-3} a_{4 k-2}\right)}{a_{0}\left(a_{3} a_{4}\right) \cdots\left(a_{4 k-1} a_{4 k}\right)}, \quad k \geq 1 \\
d_{2 k} & =-\frac{a_{0}\left(a_{3} a_{4}\right) \cdots\left(a_{4 k-5} a_{4 k-4}\right)}{\left(a_{1} a_{2}\right)\left(a_{5} a_{6}\right) \cdots\left(a_{4 k-3} a_{4 k-2}\right)}, \quad k \geq 1
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. This follows from an elementary continued fraction manipulation.
Lagrange [9] showed that, for every real number $r$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(1+z)^{r} & =1+\frac{r z}{\mid 1}-\frac{\left.\frac{(r-1) z}{2} \right\rvert\,}{\boxed{1}}+\frac{\frac{(r+1) z}{2 \cdot 3}}{\left\lvert\, \frac{1}{\mid}\right.}-\frac{\left.\frac{(r-2) z}{2 \cdot 3} \right\rvert\,}{\mid 1}+\frac{\frac{(r+2) z}{2 \cdot 5}}{\square} 1 \\
& -\frac{\frac{(r-3) z}{2 \cdot 5}}{\square \frac{1}{\mid}}+\frac{\frac{(r+3) z}{2 \cdot 7}}{\square}+\cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

By setting $x=1 / z$, taking $r=1 / 2$ and applying Lemma 12.1 with $c_{0}=$ $1, a_{0}=1 / 2$, and $a_{k}=1 / 4$ for $k \geq 1$, we derive the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 2}$ given in (1.2).

By Lemma 12.1 applied with

$$
\begin{aligned}
c_{0} & =1 \\
a_{0} & =r \\
a_{2 k} & =(r+k) /(2(2 k+1)), \quad k \geq 1 \\
a_{2 k-1} & =-(r-k) /(2(2 k-1)), \quad k \geq 1,
\end{aligned}
$$

and with the notation of Lemma 12.1, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
u_{1} & =-(r-1) / 2 \\
u_{k} & =1 / 2, \quad k \geq 2, \\
d_{1} & =r^{-1}, \\
d_{2 k+1} & =\frac{(4 k+1) \llbracket r-2 k+1 \bullet r+2 k+1 \rrbracket}{\llbracket r-2 k \bullet r+2 k+2 \rrbracket}, \quad k \geq 1 \\
d_{2 k} & =\frac{4(4 k-1) \llbracket r-2 k+2 \bullet r+2 k \rrbracket}{\llbracket r-2 k+1 \bullet r+2 k+1 \rrbracket}, \quad k \geq 1
\end{aligned}
$$

This implies the following result when $r$ is an integer.
Lemma 12.2. For any nonzero integer $r$, we have

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{r}=1+\frac{1}{r^{-1}(x-(r-1) / 2)+\frac{1}{d_{2}(x+1 / 2)+\frac{1}{d_{3}(x+1 / 2)+\ddots}}}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{2 k+1} & =\frac{(4 k+1) \llbracket r-2 k+1 \bullet r+2 k+1 \rrbracket}{\llbracket r-2 k \bullet r+2 k+2 \rrbracket}, \quad 1 \leq k \leq(|r|-1) / 2 \\
d_{2 k} & =\frac{4(4 k-1) \llbracket r-2 k+2 \bullet r+2 k \rrbracket}{\llbracket r-2 k+1 \bullet r+2 k+1 \rrbracket}, \quad 1 \leq k \leq|r| / 2
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 2.6 directly follows from Lemma 12.2. If $p$ is an odd prime number with $p>2|r|$, then the prime divisors of the denominators of $d_{2}, \ldots, d_{r}$ obtained in Lemma 12.2 are all less than $p$, thus they are not divisible by $p$. In this case, the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{r}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ follows from its continued fraction expansion in $\mathbb{Q}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ by simply taking all the partial quotients modulo $p$. This does not remain the case when $|r|$ exceeds $2 p$. To see this, take for instance $p=3$ and $r=11$ (see Subsection 13.1 below). Then, we get

$$
d_{3}=5 \cdot \frac{10 \cdot 12}{9 \cdot 11 \cdot 13}
$$

which is not an element of $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$.

## 13. Two Examples

We keep the notation of Lemma 2.7 and write

$$
\xi=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{j / d}=\left[1 ; a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right], \quad \frac{p_{k}}{q_{k}}:=\left[1 ; a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}\right], \quad k \geq 1
$$

13.1. Continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 5}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{3}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$. We explain how Lemmata 2.5 to 2.7 allow us to compute by hand the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 5}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{3}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$. Since

$$
\frac{1}{5}=\frac{16}{80}=(-1+3+9-27)\left(1+81+81^{2}+\ldots\right)
$$

in $\mathbb{F}_{3}$, we have

$$
d_{4 h}=d_{4 h+3}=-1, \quad d_{4 h+1}=d_{4 h+2}=1, \quad h \geq 0
$$

and the sequence $\left(m_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$ starts with

$$
-1,2,11,-16,-97,146,875, \ldots
$$

By Lemma 2.5, the convergents to $\xi:=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 5}$ of the form $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m}$ are then

$$
\frac{x}{x+1},\left(\frac{x+1}{x}\right)^{2},\left(\frac{x+1}{x}\right)^{11},\left(\frac{x}{x+1}\right)^{16},\left(\frac{x}{x+1}\right)^{97} \ldots
$$

For $k \geq 0$, let $\ell_{k}$ denote the length of the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$. This means that $p_{\ell_{k}} / q_{\ell_{k}}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$. We apply Lemma 2.7 to compute $\ell_{k}$. We get $\ell_{0}=1, \ell_{1}=2, \ell_{2}=3 \cdot 2+1, \ldots$ and an easy induction shows that

$$
\ell_{2 h-2}=3^{h}-2, \quad \ell_{2 h-1}=3^{h}-1, \quad h \geq 1 .
$$

Consequently, we have

$$
\frac{p_{3^{2 h+1}-2}}{q_{3^{2 h+1}-2}}=\left(\frac{x}{x+1}\right)^{\left|m_{4 h}\right|}, \quad \frac{p_{3^{2 h+1}-1}}{q_{3^{2 h+1}-1}}=\left(\frac{x+1}{x}\right)^{\left|m_{4 h+1}\right|}, \quad h \geq 0,
$$

and

$$
\frac{p_{3^{2 h+2}-2}}{q_{3^{2 h+2}-2}}=\left(\frac{x+1}{x}\right)^{\left|m_{4 h+2}\right|}, \quad \frac{p_{3^{2 h+2}-1}}{q_{3^{2 h+2}-1}}=\left(\frac{x}{x+1}\right)^{\left|m_{4 h+3}\right|}, \quad h \geq 0 .
$$

By Lemma 2.6 and Lemma 2.7 applied with $\mathbf{w}$ being the empty (alternatively, this can be easily done by hand), we get

$$
\frac{p_{1}}{q_{1}}=\frac{x}{x+1}=[1 ;-x-1], \quad \frac{p_{2}}{q_{2}}=\left(\frac{x+1}{x}\right)^{2}=[1 ;-x-1,-x+1] .
$$

Also, observe that

$$
\eta_{-1}(0)=-1, \quad \delta(0)=1 .
$$

Furthermore, $m_{2 h}$ is odd and $m_{2 h+1}$ is even for $h \geq 0$. We deduce from Lemma 2.7 that there are only two cases. Let $h \geq 1$ be an integer.

- If $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{2 h}}=[1 ;-x-1, \mathbf{w}]$, then

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{2 h+1}}=\left[1 ;-x-1, \mathbf{w}, c_{2 h+1}\right] .
$$

- If $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{2 h+1}}=[1 ;-x-1, \mathbf{w}]$, then $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{2 h+2}}=[1 ;-x-$ $\left.1, \mathbf{w}, c_{2 h+2},-\mathbf{h}\right]$, where $\mathbf{h}=(-\overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}}, x-1,-x+1, \mathbf{w})$, thus

$$
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{2 h+2}}=\left[1 ;-x-1, \mathbf{w}, c_{2 h+2}, \overleftarrow{\mathbf{w}},-x+1, x-1,-\mathbf{w}\right]
$$

Let us now compute the polynomials $c_{k}$. Let $h \geq 0$ be an integer. First, note that

$$
\left|m_{2 h}\right|+\left|m_{2 h+1}\right|=3^{2 h+1}
$$

Since

$$
x^{3^{2 h+1}}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}}=(x+1)^{2 \cdot 3^{2 h+1}}-1
$$

we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
(x+1)^{3^{2 h+2}-\left|m_{2 h+1}\right|} & =(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}(x+1)^{3^{2 h+2}-\left|m_{2 h+1}\right|-\left|m_{2 h}\right|} \\
& =(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}(x+1)^{2 \cdot 3^{2 h+1}} \\
& =(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}\left(x^{3^{2 h+1}}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}}+1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\left|m_{2 h+1}\right|>\left|m_{2 h}\right|$, this shows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Polpart}\left(\frac{(x+1)^{3^{2 h+2}-\left|m_{2 h+1}\right|}}{x^{\left|m_{2 h+1}\right|}}\right) & =(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|} x^{3^{2 h+1}-\left|m_{2 h+1}\right|}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}} \\
& =(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|} x^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

where Polpart means the polynomial part. Likewise, by using that

$$
\left|m_{2 h+2}\right|+\left|m_{2 h}\right|=4 \cdot 3^{2 h+1}
$$

we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
&(x+1)^{3^{2 h+3}-\left|m_{2 h+2}\right|}=(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}(x+1)^{3^{2 h+3}-\left|m_{2 h+2}\right|-\left|m_{2 h}\right|} \\
&=(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}(x+1)^{5 \cdot 3^{2 h+1}} \\
&=(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}\left((x+1)^{3} x(x-1)+x^{3}+1\right)^{3^{2 h+1}} \\
&=(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}\left(x^{4 \cdot 3^{2 h+1}}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}}+x^{3^{2 h+1}}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}}+x^{3 \cdot 3^{2 h+1}}+1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

thus, since $3 \cdot 3^{2 h+1}+\left|m_{2 h}\right|<3 \cdot 3^{2 h+1}+\left|m_{2 h+1}\right|=\left|m_{2 h+2}\right|$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Polpart}\left(\frac{(x+1)^{3^{2 h+3}-\left|m_{2 h+2}\right|}}{x^{\left|m_{2 h+2}\right|}}\right) & =(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|} x^{4 \cdot 3^{2 h+1}-\left|m_{2 h+2}\right|}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}} \\
& =(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|} x^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since

$$
\operatorname{sgn}\left((-1)^{m_{4 h}} d_{4 h+1}\right)=\operatorname{sgn}\left((-1)^{m_{4 h+3}} d_{4 h+4}\right)=-1, \quad h \geq 0
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{sgn}\left((-1)^{m_{4 h+1}} d_{4 h+2}\right)=\operatorname{sgn}\left((-1)^{m_{4 h+2}} d_{4 h+3}\right)=1, \quad h \geq 0
$$

we have proved that

$$
c_{2 h+2}=c_{2 h+3}=(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|} x^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}}, \quad \text { for } h \geq 0 \text { even }
$$

and

$$
c_{2 h+2}=c_{2 h+3}=-(x+1)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|} x^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}}, \quad \text { for } h \geq 1 \text { odd }
$$

Let us apply Lemma 2.7 to derive the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{11}$ from that of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{2}$. Since $c_{2}=x(x+1)(x-1)^{3}$ and $\mathbf{h}=(x-1, x-1,-x+1,-x+1)$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{p_{7}}{q_{7}}=\left(\frac{x+1}{x}\right)^{11} & =\left[1 ;-x-1,-x+1, c_{2},-\mathbf{h}\right] \\
& =\left[1 ;-x-1,-x+1, x(x+1)(x-1)^{3},-x+1,-x+1, x-1, x-1\right] \\
& =\left[1 ;-v+1,-v, c_{2},-v,-v, v, v\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

where $v$ denotes the polynomial $x-1$ (we use this to shorten the notation). Let us apply Lemma 2.7 to derive the continued fraction expansion of $(1+$ $\left.x^{-1}\right)^{-16}$ from that of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{11}$. There is only one partial quotient to add, which is the polynomial part of $(1+x)^{16} / x^{11}$, that is, $c_{2}=c_{3}=$ $x(x+1)(x-1)^{3}$. Consequently, we obtain

$$
\frac{p_{8}}{q_{8}}=\left(\frac{x}{x+1}\right)^{16}=\left[1 ;-v+1,-v, c_{2},-v,-v, v, v, c_{2}\right] .
$$

Then, we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{p_{25}}{q_{25}}=\left(\frac{x}{x+1}\right)^{97} & =\left[1 ;-x-1,-v, c_{2},-v,-v, v, v, c_{2},-c_{4},-\mathbf{h}\right] \\
& =\left[1 ;-v+1,-v, c_{2},-v,-v, v, v, c_{2},-c_{4}, c_{2}, v, v, \ldots,-v,-c_{2}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

with $c_{4}=x^{11}(x+1)^{11}(x-1)^{27}$, and
$\frac{p_{26}}{q_{26}}=\left(\frac{x+1}{x}\right)^{146}=\left[1 ;-v+1,-v, c_{2},-v,-v, v, v, c_{2},-c_{4}, c_{2}, v, v, \ldots,-v,-c_{2},-c_{4}\right]$.
Furthermore,

$$
\frac{p_{79}}{q_{79}}=\left(\frac{x+1}{x}\right)^{875}=\left[1 ;-x-1,-x+1, \ldots,-c_{2},-c_{4}, c_{6},-c_{4},-c_{2}, \ldots, c_{2}, c_{4}\right]
$$

with $c_{6}=x^{97}(x+1)^{97}(x-1)^{243}$.
The partial quotients of degree greater than one are

$$
\pm g_{h}, \quad \text { with } g_{h}:=\left(x^{2}+x\right)^{\left|m_{2 h}\right|}(x-1)^{3^{2 h+1}}, \quad h \geq 0
$$

We show by induction on $h$ that

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+2}}=\left[1 ;-x-1, \ldots, g_{2 h+1}, \ldots, g_{0}, g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{2 h}\right] \\
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+3}}=\left[1 ;-x-1, \ldots, g_{2 h+1}, \ldots, g_{0}, g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{2 h}, g_{2 h+1}\right] \\
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+4}}=\left[1 ;-x-1, \ldots, g_{2 h+1}, \ldots, g_{0}, g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{2 h}, g_{2 h+1},-g_{2 h+2}, g_{2 h+1}, \ldots\right. \\
\\
\left.\quad g_{2}, g_{1}, g_{0}, \ldots,-g_{0},-g_{1},-g_{2}, \ldots,-g_{2 h+1}\right] \\
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+5}}=\left[1 ;-x-1, \ldots,-g_{2 h+2}, \ldots,-g_{0},-g_{1},-g_{2}, \ldots,-g_{2 h+1},-g_{2 h+2}\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+6}}=\left[1 ;-x-1, \ldots, g_{2 h+1}, \ldots,-g_{0},-g_{1},-g_{2}, \ldots,-g_{2 h+1},-g_{2 h+2}\right. \\
\left.g_{2 h+3}, g_{2 h+2}, \ldots,-g_{0},-g_{1}, \ldots, g_{0}, g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{2 h+2}\right]
\end{array}
$$

Indeed, assuming that the continued fraction expansions of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+2}}$ is as above, we use our preceding observations to derive the continued fraction expansions of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+3}}, \ldots,\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+6}}$, and we observe that the latter one has the same form as the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+2}}$. Furthermore, we have shown that the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{6}}=\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{875}$ has the requested form.

Since the lengths of the continued fraction expansions of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+2}}, \ldots$, $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{m_{4 h+5}}$ are $3^{2 h+2}-2,3^{2 h+2}-1,3^{2 h+3}-2,3^{2 h+3}-1$, respectively, we derive that

$$
a_{3^{h}}=(-1)^{h-1} g_{h-1}, \quad a_{3^{h} \pm i}=(-1)^{h} g_{h-1-i}, \quad i=1, \ldots, h-2
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}-1}=\left|m_{2 h-1}\right|, \quad h \geq 1
$$

This allows us to determine infinitely many elements of the approximation spectrum $\mathcal{S}(\xi)$ of $\xi$. Namely, an easy computation shows that

$$
\frac{\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}}}{\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}-1}}=1+\frac{\operatorname{deg} g_{h-1}}{\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}-1}}=1+\frac{2\left|m_{2 h-2}\right|+3^{2 h-1}}{\left|m_{2 h-1}\right|}=2+3 \frac{\left|m_{2 h-2}\right|}{\left|m_{2 h-1}\right|}
$$

Likewise,

$$
\frac{\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}-i}}{\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}-i-1}}=1+\frac{\operatorname{deg} g_{h-i-1}}{\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}-1}-\operatorname{deg} g_{h-2}-\ldots-\operatorname{deg} g_{h-i-1}}
$$

An easy induction shows that

$$
\left|m_{2 h}\right|=\frac{6 \cdot 3^{2 h}-(-1)^{h}}{5}, \quad\left|m_{2 h+1}\right|=\frac{3 \cdot 3^{2 h+1}+(-1)^{h}}{5}, \quad h \geq 0
$$

Using that

$$
\operatorname{deg} g_{h-1-i}=2\left|m_{2 h-2-2 i}\right|+3^{2 h-1-2 i}, \quad i=0,1, \ldots, h-1
$$

we get that

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}-i}}{\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}-i-1}}=1+\frac{8}{5 \cdot 3^{2 i-1}+1}, \quad i \geq 0
$$

and, similarly,

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}+i}}{\operatorname{deg} q_{3^{h}+i-1}}=1+\frac{8}{35 \cdot 3^{2 i-1}-9}, \quad i \geq 1
$$

This shows that

$$
\mathcal{S}(\xi) \supset\left\{1+\frac{8}{5 \cdot 3^{2 i-1}+1}: i \geq 0\right\} \cup\left\{1+\frac{8}{35 \cdot 3^{2 i-1}-9}: i \geq 1\right\}
$$

thus the set $\mathcal{S}(\xi)$ is infinite. The largest elements of these two infinite families are

$$
4, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{13}{12}, \frac{18}{17}, \frac{118}{117}, \ldots
$$

A further look at the continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 5}$ shows that there are other elements in the approximation spectrum, an example being
given by $44 / 41$. We leave to the interested reader the precise determination of the set $\mathcal{S}(\xi)$.
13.2. Continued fraction expansion of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 4}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{7}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$. Since $\frac{1}{4}=\frac{-12}{-49+1}=-12\left(1+7^{2}+7^{4}+\ldots\right)=(2-2 \cdot 7)\left(1+7^{2}+7^{4}+\ldots\right)$
in $\mathbb{F}_{7}$, the sequence $\left(m_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$ starts with

$$
2,-12,86,-600, \ldots,
$$

and we have

$$
m_{k}=(-1)^{k} \frac{7^{k+1}+(-1)^{k}}{4}, \quad k \geq 0
$$

In particular, $m_{k}$ and $m_{k+1}$ have opposite signs and it follows from Lemmas 2.6 and 2.7 that the length $\ell_{k}$ of the continued fraction expansion of $(1+$ $\left.x^{-1}\right)^{m_{k}}$ satisfies $\ell_{k}=3^{k+1}-1$ for $k \geq 0$. By Lemma 2.7, all the partial quotients of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 4}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{7}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ are either linear or constant multiples of the polynomial part of

$$
\Pi_{k}:=\frac{(1+x)^{7^{k}-\left|m_{k-1}\right|}}{x^{\left|m_{k-1}\right|}},
$$

for some $k \geq 1$. Setting $m_{-1}=0$, we claim that
$\operatorname{Polpart}\left(\Pi_{k}\right)=x^{\left|m_{k-2}\right|}(1+x)^{\left|m_{k-2}\right|}(x+4)^{7^{k-1}}\left(x^{2}+x+6\right)^{7^{k-1}}=: P_{k}, \quad k \geq 1$, where, as above, Polpart means the polynomial part. This is true for $k=1$ since

$$
P_{1}=\operatorname{Polpart}\left(\frac{(1+x)^{5}}{x^{2}}\right)=x^{3}+5 x^{2}+10 x+10=(x+4)\left(x^{2}+x+6\right) .
$$

Let $k \geq 3$ be an odd integer. Then, $m_{k-1}=m_{k-2}+2 \cdot 7^{k-1}$ and
$7^{k}-\left|m_{k-1}\right|=5 \cdot 7^{k-1}-m_{k-2}=5 \cdot 7^{k-1}+\left|m_{k-2}\right|, \quad\left|m_{k-1}\right|=2 \cdot 7^{k-1}-\left|m_{k-2}\right|$, thus, since $7^{k-1}>2\left|m_{k-2}\right|$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Polpart}\left(\Pi_{k}\right) & =x^{\left|m_{k-2}\right|}(1+x)^{\left|m_{k-2}\right|} \operatorname{Polpart}\left(\frac{(1+x)^{5 \cdot 7^{k-1}}}{x^{2 \cdot 7^{k-1}}}\right) \\
& =x^{\left|m_{k-2}\right|}(1+x)^{\left|m_{k-2}\right|} \operatorname{Polpart}\left(\frac{(1+x)^{5}}{x^{2}}\right)^{7^{k-1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

as claimed. The case $k$ even is analogous and we omit it. By Lemma 2.7, the first partial quotient of $\left(1+x^{-1}\right)^{1 / 4}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{7}\left(\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)$ which is a constant multiple of $P_{k}$ is $a_{3^{k}}$.

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## Appendix A. Full proof of Theorem 11.3

We provide a full proof of Theorem 11.3. It contains several steps. For the idea of the proof, see the sketch of proof below the statement of Theorem 11.3 .
A.1. Rewriting $\zeta_{k}(2 t)$. The definition of $\zeta_{\varepsilon}(m)$ is given in Definition 9.7. We rewrite it according to the parity of $\varepsilon$.

Lemma A.1. For a positive integer $k$ and $t=0,1, \ldots, k-1$, we have

$$
\zeta_{k}(2 t)=-2^{2 t-3-4\lfloor(t-1) / 2\rfloor} \frac{\llbracket k-t+1 \bullet k+t+1 \rrbracket}{\llbracket k-t \bullet k+t \rrbracket}
$$

and

$$
\zeta_{-k}(2 t)=-2^{2 t-3-4\lfloor(t-1) / 2\rfloor} \frac{\llbracket k-t+1 \bullet k+t+1 \rrbracket}{\llbracket k-t+2 \bullet k+t+2 \rrbracket} .
$$

Lemma A.2. For a positive integer $k$ and $t=0,1, \ldots, k-1$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\zeta_{2 k}(4 t) & =-\frac{2^{-4 t+1}(2 k+2 t)!(k-t)!(k-t-1)!}{(2 k-2 t)!(k+t)!(k+t-1)!}, \\
\zeta_{-2 k}(4 t) & =-\frac{2^{-4 t+1}(2 k+2 t)!(k-t)!^{2}}{(2 k-2 t)!(k+t)!^{2}}, \\
\zeta_{2 k}(4 t+2) & =-\frac{2^{4 t+1}(2 k-2 t-2)!(k+t)!^{2}}{(2 k+2 t)!(k-t-1)!^{2}}, \\
\zeta_{-2 k}(4 t+2) & =-\frac{2^{4 t+1}(2 k-2 t)!(k+t+1)!(k+t)!}{(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t)!(k-t-1)!} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For a non-negative integer $k$ and $t=0,1, \ldots, k-1$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\zeta_{2 k+1}(4 t) & =-\frac{2^{4 t+1}(2 k-2 t)!(k+t)!^{2}}{(2 k+2 t)!(k-t)!^{2}}, \\
\zeta_{-2 k-1}(4 t) & =-\frac{2^{4 t+1}(2 k-2 t+2)!(k+t+1)!(k+t)!}{(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t+1)!(k-t)!}, \\
\zeta_{2 k+1}(4 t+2) & =-\frac{2^{-4 t-3}(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t)!(k-t-1)!}{(2 k-2 t)!(k+t+1)!(k+t)!}, \\
\zeta_{-2 k-1}(4 t+2) & =-\frac{2^{-4 t-3}(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t)!^{2}}{(2 k-2 t)!(k+t+1)!^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

A.2. Rewriting $K_{i}(k, j)$. We rewrite $K_{1}(k, j), K_{2}(k, j), K_{3}(k, j), K_{4}(k, j), K_{5}(k, j)$ given in Definition 11.2 according to the parities of $k$ and $j$.

Lemma A.3. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
K_{1}(1,0) & =1, \\
K_{1}(j+1, j) & =0, \quad j \geq 1, \\
K_{2}(j+1, j) & =0, \quad j \geq 0,
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& K_{1}(2 k, 2 j)=\frac{(-j+k-1)!(2 k-2)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k-1)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& K_{1}(2 k, 2 j+1)=\frac{2^{2 j+1}(j+k)!(2 k-2)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-2)!}, \\
& K_{1}(2 k+1,2 j)=\frac{2^{2 j+1}(j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& K_{1}(2 k+1,2 j+1)=\frac{2^{-2 j-2}(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& K_{2}(2 k, 2 j)=-\frac{2^{-2 j-1}(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& K_{2}(2 k, 2 j+1)=-\frac{2^{2 j+2}(j+k+1)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-2)!}, \\
& K_{2}(2 k+1,2 j)=-\frac{2^{2 j+2}(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& K_{2}(2 k+1,2 j+1)=-\frac{2^{-2 j-3}(-j+k-1)!(2 k)!}{(j+k+1)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& K_{3}(2 k, 2 j)=\frac{2^{2 j+1}(j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& K_{3}(2 k, 2 j+1)=\frac{(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& K_{3}(2 k+1,2 j)=\frac{(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
& K_{3}(2 k+1,2 j+1)=\frac{2^{2 j+3}(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& K_{4}(2 k, 2 j)=\frac{(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
& K_{4}(2 k+1,2 j+1)=-\frac{2^{-2 j-2}(-j+k)!(2 k+1)!}{(j+k+1)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
& K_{5}(2 k, 2 j)=-\frac{(2 j+2 k+1)(-j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
& K_{4}(2 k, 2 j+1)=-\frac{2^{2 j+1}(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& K_{4}(2 k+1,2 j)=\frac{2^{2 j+1}(j+k+1)!(2 k+1)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k)!}, \\
&(2 j+2 k+1)!(-j+k-1)!
\end{aligned},
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
K_{5}(2 k+1,2 j) & =-\frac{2^{2 j+1}(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+1)!(-j+k)!}, \\
K_{5}(2 k+1,2 j+1) & =\frac{2^{-2 j-2}(2 j+2 k+3)(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{(j+k+1)!(-2 j+2 k)!} .
\end{aligned}
$$

A.3. Rewriting $\mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(t)$. The definition of $\mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(t)$ is given just above Theorem 9.9. Since $\mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(t)$ involves $\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 t)$, we need to rewrite $\mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(t)$ according to the parity of $\varepsilon$. Notice that all the entries of $\mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(t)$ are polynomials in $Y$ of degree at most 2 .

Below, we let $D_{\varepsilon}(t)[i, j]$ denote the $i \times j$ entry of the matrix $\mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(t)$. We assume implicitly that $\varepsilon$ is nonzero and $t=0, \ldots,|\varepsilon|-1$.

Lemma A.4. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
D_{2 k}(2 t)[1,1] & =\frac{2^{-4 t+1}\left(\frac{Y(2 k-2 t-1)}{k+t}-r-q\right)(2 k+2 t)!(k-t)!(k-t-1)!}{(2 k-2 t)!(k+t)!(k+t-1)!}, \\
D_{2 k}(2 t)[1,2] & =-4, \\
D_{2 k}(2 t)[2,1] & =\frac{Y^{2}(2 k-2 t-1)}{2(k+t)}-\frac{Y(4 k-1)(r+q)}{4(k+t)}+r q, \\
D_{2 k}(2 t)[2,2] & =-\frac{(2 Y-r-q)(2 k-2 t)!(k+t)!(k+t-1)!}{2^{-4 t+1}(2 k+2 t)!(k-t)!(k-t-1)!}, \\
D_{-2 k}(2 t)[1,1] & =\frac{2^{-4 t+1}\left(\frac{Y(2 k+2 t+1)}{k-t}-r-q\right)(2 k+2 t)!(k-t)!^{2}}{(2 k-2 t)!(k+t)!^{2}}, \\
D_{-2 k}(2 t)[1,2] & =-4, \\
D_{-2 k}(2 t)[2,1] & =\frac{Y^{2}(2 k+2 t+1)}{2(k-t)}-\frac{Y(4 k+1)(r+q)}{4(k-t)}+r q, \\
D_{-2 k}(2 t)[2,2] & =-\frac{(2 Y-r-q)(2 k-2 t)!(k+t)!^{2}}{2^{-4 t+1}(2 k+2 t)!(k-t)!^{2}}, \\
D_{2 k+1}(2 t)[1,1] & =\frac{2^{4 t+1}\left(\frac{4 Y(k-t)}{2 k+2 t+1}-r-q\right)(2 k-2 t)!(k+t)!^{2}}{(2 k+2 t)!(k-t)!^{2}}, \\
D_{2 k+1}(2 t)[1,2] & =-4, \\
D_{2 k+1}(2 t)[2,1] & =\frac{2 Y^{2}(k-t)}{2 k+2 t+1}-\frac{Y(4 k+1)(r+q)}{2(2 k+2 t+1)}+r q, \\
D_{2 k+1}(2 t)[2,2] & =-\frac{(2 Y-r-q)(2 k+2 t)!(k-t)!^{2}}{2^{4 t+1}(2 k-2 t)!(k+t)!^{2}}, \\
D_{-2 k-1}(2 t)[1,1] & =\frac{2^{4 t+1}\left(\frac{4 Y(k+t+1)}{2 k-2 t+1}-r-q\right)(2 k-2 t+2)!(k+t+1)!(k+t)!}{(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t+1)!(k-t)!}, \\
D_{-2 k-1}(2 t)[1,2] & =-4,
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D_{-2 k-1}(2 t)[2,1]=\frac{2 Y^{2}(k+t+1)}{2 k-2 t+1}-\frac{Y(4 k+3)(r+q)}{2(2 k-2 t+1)}+r q, \\
& D_{-2 k-1}(2 t)[2,2]=-\frac{(2 Y-r-q)(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t+1)!(k-t)!}{2^{4 t+1}(2 k-2 t+2)!(k+t+1)!(k+t)!}, \\
& D_{2 k}(2 t+1)[1,1]=\frac{2^{4 t+1}\left(\frac{4 Y(k-t-1)}{2 k+2 t+1}-r-q\right)(2 k-2 t-2)!(k+t)!^{2}}{(2 k+2 t)!(k-t-1)!^{2}}, \\
& D_{2 k}(2 t+1)[1,2]=-4, \\
& D_{2 k}(2 t+1)[2,1]=\frac{2 Y^{2}(k-t-1)}{2 k+2 t+1}-\frac{Y(4 k-1)(r+q)}{2(2 k+2 t+1)}+r q, \\
& D_{2 k}(2 t+1)[2,2]=-\frac{(2 Y-r-q)(2 k+2 t)!(k-t-1)!^{2}}{2^{4 t+1}(2 k-2 t-2)!(k+t)!^{2}}, \\
& D_{-2 k}(2 t+1)[1,1]=\frac{2^{4 t+1}\left(\frac{4 Y(k+t+1)}{2 k-2 t-1}-r-q\right)(2 k-2 t)!(k+t+1)!(k+t)!}{(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t)!(k-t-1)!}, \\
& D_{-2 k}(2 t+1)[1,2]=-4, \\
& D_{-2 k}(2 t+1)[2,1]=\frac{2 Y^{2}(k+t+1)}{2 k-2 t-1}-\frac{Y(4 k+1)(r+q)}{2(2 k-2 t-1)}+r q, \\
& D_{-2 k}(2 t+1)[2,2]=-\frac{(2 Y-r-q)(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t)!(k-t-1)!}{2^{4 t+1}(2 k-2 t)!(k+t+1)!(k+t)!}, \\
& D_{2 k+1}(2 t+1)[1,1]=\frac{2^{-4 t-3}\left(\frac{Y(2 k-2 t-1)}{k+t+1}-r-q\right)(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t)!(k-t-1)!}{(2 k-2 t)!(k+t+1)!(k+t)!}, \\
& D_{2 k+1}(2 t+1)[1,2]=-4, \\
& D_{2 k+1}(2 t+1)[2,1]=\frac{Y^{2}(2 k-2 t-1)}{2(k+t+1)}-\frac{Y(4 k+1)(r+q)}{4(k+t+1)}+r q, \\
& D_{2 k+1}(2 t+1)[2,2]=-\frac{(2 Y-r-q)(2 k-2 t)!(k+t+1)!(k+t)!}{2^{-4 t-3}(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t)!(k-t-1)!}, \\
& D_{-2 k-1}(2 t+1)[1,1]=\frac{2^{-4 t-3\left(\frac{Y(2 k+2 t+3)}{k-t}-r-q\right)(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t)!^{2}}(2 k-2 t)!(k+t+1)!^{2}}{(k+2 k-1(2 t+1)[2,2]}=-\frac{(2 Y-r-q)(2 k-2 t)!(k+t+1)!^{2}}{2^{-4 t-3}(2 k+2 t+2)!(k-t)!^{2}} . \\
& D_{-2 k-1}(2 t+1)[1,2]=-4, \\
& D_{-2 k-1}(2 t+1)[2,1]=\frac{Y^{2}(2 k+2 t+3)}{2(k-t)}-\frac{Y(4 k+3)(r+q)}{4(k-t)}+r q, \\
& D_{-2 k-1}, \\
& 2
\end{aligned},
$$

A.4. Rewriting $A_{\varepsilon}(j), A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j), B_{\varepsilon}(j), B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)$. We rewrite $A_{\varepsilon}(j), A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j), B_{\varepsilon}(j), B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)$ given in Theorem 11.3 according to the sign of $\varepsilon$ and the parities of $\varepsilon$ and $j$. Below, we have replaced $\Psi(k, j ; r, q)$ by the product $K_{1}(k, j) \Phi(k-2, j ; r, q)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{2 k}(2 j)= & Y K_{2}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& +r K_{1}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; r, q), \\
A_{2 k}(2 j+1)= & Y K_{2}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +r K_{1}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
A_{-2 k}(2 j)= & r K_{4}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
& +Y K_{5}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r), \\
A_{-2 k}(2 j+1)= & r K_{4}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& +Y K_{5}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
A_{2 k+1}(2 j)= & Y K_{2}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& +r K_{1}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q), \\
A_{2 k+1}(2 j+1)= & Y K_{2}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +r K_{1}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
A_{-2 k-1}(2 j)= & Y K_{5}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
& +r K_{4}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; q, r), \\
A_{-2 k-1}(2 j+1)= & Y K_{5}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& +r K_{4}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
A_{2 k}^{\prime}(2 j)= & K_{3}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q), \\
A_{2 k}^{\prime}(2 j+1)= & K_{3}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
A_{-2 k}^{\prime}(2 j)= & K_{3}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r), \\
A_{-2 k}^{\prime}(2 j+1)= & -K_{3}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
A_{2 k+1}^{\prime}(2 j)= & K_{3}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q), \\
A_{2 k+1}^{\prime}(2 j+1)= & K_{3}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
A_{-2 k-1}^{\prime}(2 j)= & K_{3}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r), \\
A_{-2 k-1}^{\prime}(2 j+1)= & -K_{3}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
B_{2 k}(2 j)= & Y K_{2}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& +q K_{1}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; q, r), \\
B_{2 k}(2 j+1)= & Y K_{2}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& +q K_{1}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
B_{-2 k}(2 j)= & q K_{4}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& +Y K_{5}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q), \\
B_{-2 k}(2 j+1)= & q K_{4}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +Y K_{5}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
B_{2 k+1}(2 j)= & Y K_{2}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +q K_{1}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r), \\
B_{2 k+1}(2 j+1)= & Y K_{2}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& +q K_{1}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
B_{-2 k-1}(2 j)= & Y K_{5}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& +q K_{4}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; r, q), \\
B_{-2 k-1}(2 j+1)= & Y K_{5}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +q K_{4}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
B_{2 k}^{\prime}(2 j)= & K_{3}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r), \\
B_{2 k}^{\prime}(2 j+1)= & K_{3}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
B_{-2 k}^{\prime}(2 j)= & K_{3}(2 k, 2 j) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q), \\
B_{-2 k}^{\prime}(2 j+1)= & -K_{3}(2 k, 2 j+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
B_{2 k+1}^{\prime}(2 j)= & K_{3}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r), \\
B_{2 k+1}^{\prime}(2 j+1)= & K_{3}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
B_{-2 k-1}^{\prime}(2 j)= & K_{3}(2 k+1,2 j) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q), \\
B_{-2 k-1}^{\prime}(2 j+1)= & -K_{3}(2 k+1,2 j+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) .
\end{aligned}
$$

By replacing the $K_{i}(k, t)$ by their expressions given in Lemma A.3, we obtain the following identities.

Lemma A.5. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{2 k}(2 j)= & -\frac{2^{-2 j-1} Y \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q)(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!} \\
& +\frac{r \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; r, q)(-j+k-1)!(2 k-2)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k-1)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
A_{2 k}(2 j+1)= & -\frac{2^{2 j+2} Y \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q)(j+k+1)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-2)!} \\
& +\frac{2^{2 j+1} r \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; r, q)(j+k)!(2 k-2)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-2)!}, \\
A_{-2 k}(2 j)= & -\frac{Y(2 j+2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r)(-j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!} \\
& +\frac{r \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r)(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
A_{-2 k}(2 j+1)= & -\frac{2^{2 j+1} r \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r)(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!} \\
& +\frac{2^{2 j+1} Y \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r)(j+k+1)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k+1)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
A_{2 k+1}(2 j)= & -\frac{2^{2 j+2} Y \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q)(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +\frac{2^{2 j+1} r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q)(j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& A_{2 k+1}(2 j+1)=-\frac{2^{-2 j-3} Y \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q)(-j+k-1)!(2 k)!}{(j+k+1)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!} \\
& +\frac{2^{-2 j-2} r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q)(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& A_{-2 k-1}(2 j)=-\frac{2^{2 j+1} Y \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r)(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+1)!(-j+k)!} \\
& +\frac{2^{2 j+1} r \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; q, r)(j+k+1)!(2 k+1)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k)!}, \\
& A_{-2 k-1}(2 j+1)=\frac{2^{-2 j-2} Y(2 j+2 k+3) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r)(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{(j+k+1)!(-2 j+2 k)!} \\
& -\frac{2^{-2 j-2} r \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; q, r)(-j+k)!(2 k+1)!}{(j+k+1)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
& A_{2 k}^{\prime}(2 j)=\frac{2^{2 j+1} \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q)(j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& A_{2 k}^{\prime}(2 j+1)=\frac{\Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q)(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& A_{-2 k}^{\prime}(2 j)=\frac{2^{2 j+1} \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r)(j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& A_{-2 k}^{\prime}(2 j+1)=-\frac{\Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r)(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& A_{2 k+1}^{\prime}(2 j)=\frac{\Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q)(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
& A_{2 k+1}^{\prime}(2 j+1)=\frac{2^{2 j+3} \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q)(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& A_{-2 k-1}^{\prime}(2 j)=\frac{\Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r)(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
& A_{-2 k-1}^{\prime}(2 j+1)=-\frac{2^{2 j+3} \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r)(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& B_{2 k}(2 j)=-\frac{2^{-2 j-1} Y \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r)(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!} \\
& +\frac{q \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; q, r)(-j+k-1)!(2 k-2)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k-1)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& B_{2 k}(2 j+1)=-\frac{2^{2 j+2} Y \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r)(j+k+1)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-2)!} \\
& +\frac{2^{2 j+1} q \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; q, r)(j+k)!(2 k-2)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-2)!},
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& B_{-2 k}(2 j)=-\frac{Y(2 j+2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q)(-j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!} \\
& +\frac{q \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q)(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
& B_{-2 k}(2 j+1)=-\frac{2^{2 j+1} q \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q)(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!} \\
& +\frac{2^{2 j+1} Y \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q)(j+k+1)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k+1)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& B_{2 k+1}(2 j)=-\frac{2^{2 j+2} Y \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r)(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!} \\
& +\frac{2^{2 j+1} q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r)(j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& B_{2 k+1}(2 j+1)=-\frac{2^{-2 j-3} Y \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r)(-j+k-1)!(2 k)!}{(j+k+1)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!} \\
& +\frac{2^{-2 j-2} q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r)(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& B_{-2 k-1}(2 j)=-\frac{2^{2 j+1} Y \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q)(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+1)!(-j+k)!} \\
& +\frac{2^{2 j+1} q \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; r, q)(j+k+1)!(2 k+1)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k)!}, \\
& B_{-2 k-1}(2 j+1)=\frac{2^{-2 j-2} Y(2 j+2 k+3) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q)(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{(j+k+1)!(-2 j+2 k)!} \\
& -\frac{2^{-2 j-2} q \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; r, q)(-j+k)!(2 k+1)!}{(j+k+1)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
& B_{2 k}^{\prime}(2 j)=\frac{2^{2 j+1} \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r)(j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& B_{2 k}^{\prime}(2 j+1)=\frac{\Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r)(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& B_{-2 k}^{\prime}(2 j)=\frac{2^{2 j+1} \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q)(j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& B_{-2 k}^{\prime}(2 j+1)=-\frac{\Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q)(-j+k-1)!(2 k-1)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k-2)!}, \\
& B_{2 k+1}^{\prime}(2 j)=\frac{\Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r)(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!}, \\
& B_{2 k+1}^{\prime}(2 j+1)=\frac{2^{2 j+3} \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r)(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!}, \\
& B_{-2 k-1}^{\prime}(2 j)=\frac{\Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q)(-j+k)!(2 k)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k)!(-2 j+2 k)!},
\end{aligned}
$$

$B_{-2 k-1}^{\prime}(2 j+1)=-\frac{2^{2 j+3} \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q)(j+k+1)!(2 k)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-1)!}$.
A.5. Proof of Theorem 11.3 for $j=0$. For a nonzero integer $\varepsilon$ and $j=0,1, \ldots,|\varepsilon|-1$, recall that

$$
\Pi_{\varepsilon}(j):=\mathbf{U D}_{\varepsilon}(0) \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(1) \cdots \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(j)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A_{\varepsilon}(j) & A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j) \\
B_{\varepsilon}(j) & B_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)
\end{array}\right)
$$

Idea of the proof: We check by a direct computation that the theorem holds for $j=0$. Then, we verify that $\Pi_{\varepsilon}(j+1)=\Pi_{\varepsilon}(j) \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(j+1)$ for $j=0, \ldots,|\varepsilon|-2$.

In this section, we check by a direct computation that the theorem holds for $j=0$. We have:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbf{U}=\frac{1}{r-q}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
(Y-r) / 2 & -2 \\
-(Y-q) / 2 & 2
\end{array}\right) \\
K_{1}(k, 0)=1 \\
K_{2}(k, 0)=-\frac{k-1}{k} \\
K_{3}(k, 0)=1 \\
K_{4}(k, 0)=1 \\
K_{5}(k, 0)=-\frac{k+1}{k}
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
\Phi(k, 0 ; r, q)=1 .
$$

This gives:

- $\varepsilon=k>0$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{k}(0)=r+K_{2}(k, 0) Y=r-\frac{k-1}{k} Y, \\
& A_{k}^{\prime}(0)=1, \\
& B_{k}(0)=q+K_{2}(k, 0) Y=q-\frac{k-1}{k} Y, \\
& B_{k}^{\prime}(0)=1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

- $\varepsilon=-k<0$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{-k}(0)=r+K_{5}(k, 0) Y=r-\frac{k+1}{k} Y, \\
& A_{-k}^{\prime}(0)=1, \\
& B_{-k}(0)=q+K_{5}(k, 0) Y=q-\frac{k+1}{k} Y, \\
& B_{-k}^{\prime}(0)=1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

In both cases, we have

$$
\zeta_{\varepsilon}(0)=-2 .
$$

We distinguish four cases to check that $\mathbf{U} \times \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(0)=\Pi_{\varepsilon}(0)$ :

- $\varepsilon=2 k$ :
$\mathbf{U} \times\left(\begin{array}{cr}\frac{2 Y(2 k-1)}{k}-2 q-2 r & -4 \\ \frac{Y^{2}(2 k-1)}{2 k}-\frac{Y(4 k-1)(q+r)}{4 k}+q r & -Y+\frac{1}{2} q+\frac{1}{2} r\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}-\frac{2 Y k-2 k r-Y}{2 k} & 1 \\ -\frac{2 Y k-2 k-Y}{2 k} & 1\end{array}\right)$.
- $\varepsilon=-2 k$ :
$\mathbf{U} \times\left(\begin{array}{cr}\frac{2 Y(2 k+1)}{k}-2 q-2 r & -4 \\ \frac{Y^{2}(2 k+1)}{2 k}-\frac{Y(4 k+1)(q+r)}{4 k}+q r & -Y+\frac{1}{2} q+\frac{1}{2} r\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}-\frac{2 Y k-2 k r+Y}{2 k} & 1 \\ -\frac{2 Y k-2 k q+Y}{2 k} & 1\end{array}\right)$.
- $\varepsilon=2 k+1$ :
$\mathbf{U} \times\left(\begin{array}{rr}\frac{8 Y k}{2 k+1}-2 q-2 r & -4 \\ \frac{2 Y^{2} k}{2 k+1}-\frac{Y(4 k+1)(q+r)}{2(2 k+1)}+q r & -Y+\frac{1}{2} q+\frac{1}{2} r\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{rr}-\frac{2 Y k-(2 k+1) r}{2 k+1} & 1 \\ -\frac{2 Y k-(2 k+1) q}{2 k+1} & 1\end{array}\right)$.
- $\varepsilon=-2 k-1$ :
$\mathbf{U} \times\left(\begin{array}{rr}\frac{8 Y(k+1)}{2 k+1}-2 q-2 r & -4 \\ \frac{2 Y^{2}(k+1)}{2 k+1}-\frac{Y(4 k+3)(q+r)}{2(2 k+1)}+q r & -Y+\frac{1}{2} q+\frac{1}{2} r\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{rr}-\frac{2 Y k-(2 k+1) r+2 Y}{2 k+1} & 1 \\ -\frac{2 Y k-(2 k+1) q+2 Y}{2 k+1} & 1\end{array}\right)$.
This completes the case $j=0$.
A.6. The key identities for the inductive step. We need to verify that, for $j=0, \ldots,|\varepsilon|-2$, we have

$$
\Pi_{\varepsilon}(j+1)=\Pi_{\varepsilon}(j) \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon}(j+1)
$$

that is,

$$
\times\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 j+2)\left(r+q-2 Y \frac{\varepsilon-(j+1)-1}{\varepsilon+j+1}\right) & -4  \tag{A.1}\\
r q-\frac{(2 \varepsilon-1)(r+q)}{2(\varepsilon+j+1)} Y+\frac{\varepsilon-(j+1)-1}{\varepsilon+j+1} Y^{2} & -\left(\zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 j+2)\right)^{-1}(r+q-2 Y)
\end{array}\right)
$$

The entries of these matrices are polynomials in $Y$ of degree at most 2. The above identity is equivalent to four identities for quadratic polynomials in $Y$. One of these four identities is (recall that $t=j+1$ )

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\varepsilon}(j+1)= & A_{\varepsilon}(j) \zeta_{\varepsilon}(2 t)\left(r+q-2 Y \frac{\varepsilon-t-1}{\varepsilon+t}\right) \\
& +A_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}(j)\left(r q-\frac{(2 \varepsilon-1)(r+q)}{2(\varepsilon+t)} Y+\frac{\varepsilon-t-1}{\varepsilon+t} Y^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

For example, when $\varepsilon=2 k$ and $j$ is replaced by $2 j$, the above identity becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\frac{2^{4 j+1}\left(\frac{4 Y(j-k+1)}{2 j+2 k+1}+r+q\right)(j+k)!^{2}}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-1)!} \\
\times & \left(\frac{2^{-2 j-1} Y \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q)(2 k-1)!}{(j+k)!}-\frac{r \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; r, q)(2 k-2)!}{2^{2 j}(j+k-1)!}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
+\frac{\left(\frac{4 Y^{2}(j-k+1)}{2 j+2 k+1}+\frac{Y(4 k-1)(r+q)}{2 j+2 k+1}-2 r q\right) 2^{2 j+1} \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q)(j+k)!(2 k-1)!}{2(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-1)!} \\
-\frac{2^{2 j+2} Y \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q)(j+k+1)!(2 k-1)!}{(2 j+2 k+2)!(-j+k-2)!} \\
\quad+\frac{2^{2 j+1} r \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; r, q)(j+k)!(2 k-2)!}{(2 j+2 k)!(-j+k-2)!}=0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

To prove each such identity, we equate each coefficient of $Y^{d}$, for $d=$ $0,1,2$. We need to prove that (take the numerator, then simplify):

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=} & (j+k)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; r, q)-(2 k-1) q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& +(k-j-1) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
{\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=} & (2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(2 k-1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& +4 r(j+k) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; r, q), \\
{\left[Y^{2}\right] 0=} & 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The notation $\left[Y^{d}\right]$ means that we consider the coefficient of $Y^{d}$. Doing the same calculations for all other cases, we get a full list of $4 \times 3 \times 8=96$ identities to prove (the 4 entries of the matrices are quadratic polynomials, and we distinguish according to the sign of $k$ and to the parities of $j$ and $k$ ).

The notation $(\varepsilon, j)_{i j}\left[Y^{d}\right]$ used below means that the identity is obtained by considering the coefficient of $Y^{d}$ in the $i \times j$ entry of (A.1).

In all the cases, the identities obtained by considering the coefficients of $Y^{2}$ are tautologies. This is also the case for the identities obtained by considering the coefficients of $Y$ in the entries of the second column of each matrix. Consequently, we are left with 48 identities to be checked, namely:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(2 k, 2 j)_{11}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0= & (2 k-1) q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(j+k)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; r, q) \\
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
(2 k, 2 j)_{11}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0= & (2 k-1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -4(j+k) r \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
(2 k, 2 j)_{12}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0= & (2 k-1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -4(j+k) r \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
(2 k, 2 j)_{21}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0= & (2 k-1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(j+k)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; q, r)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
& (2 k, 2 j))_{21}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=(2 k-1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -4(j+k) q \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
& (2 k, 2 j){ }_{22}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=(2 k-1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -4(j+k) q \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
& (2 k, 2 j+1)_{11}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=2(2 k-1) q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+3) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
& (2 k, 2 j+1)_{11}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=(2 k-1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -2(2 j+2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
& (2 k, 2 j+1)_{12}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=(2 k-1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -2(2 j+2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
& (2 k, 2 j+1)_{21}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=2(2 k-1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+3) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+2 ; q, r) \text {, } \\
& (2 k, 2 j+1)_{21}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=(2 k-1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -2(2 j+2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
& (2 k, 2 j+1)_{22}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=(2 k-1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -2(2 j+2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k, 2 j)_{11}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k, 2 j)_{11}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=4 k r \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k, 2 j)_{12}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=4 k r \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \text {, }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (-2 k, 2 j)_{21}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
& (-2 k, 2 j)_{21}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=4 k q \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
& (-2 k, 2 j){ }_{22}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=4 k q \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
& (-2 k, 2 j+1)_{11}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -2(j+k+1) q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k, 2 j+1)_{11}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=2 k r \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k, 2 j+1)_{12}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=2 k r \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k, 2 j+1)_{21}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -2(j+k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
& (-2 k, 2 j+1)_{21}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=2 k q \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; r, q) \text {, } \\
& (-2 k, 2 j+1)_{22}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=2 k q \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; r, q) \text {, } \\
& (2 k+1,2 j)_{11}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=4 k q \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
& (2 k+1,2 j)_{11}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
& (2 k+1,2 j)_{12}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl} 
& -(2 j+2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
(2 k+1,2 j)_{21}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0= & 4 k r \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
(2 k+1,2 j)_{21}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0= & k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
(2 k+1,2 j)_{22}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0= & k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
(2 k+1,2 j+1)_{11}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0= & 2 k q \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
(2 k+1,2 j+1)_{11}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0= & k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -2(j+k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
(2 k+1,2 j+1)_{12}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0= & k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -2(j+k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
(2 k+1,2 j+1)_{21}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0= & 2 k r \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
(2 k+1,2 j+1)_{21}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0= & k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -2(j+k+1) q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
(2 k+1,2 j+1)_{22}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0= & k(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -2(j+k+1) q \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
(-2 k-1,2 j)_{11}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0= & (j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; q, r) \\
\left(2 k+Y^{0}\right] 0= & 4(j+k+1) q \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
(2 k+1) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
(2 k+1
\end{array}\right)
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -(j-k) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k-1,2 j)_{12}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=(j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(j-k) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k-1,2 j)_{21}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=4(j+k+1) r \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& +(2 k+1) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
& (-2 k-1,2 j)_{21}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=(j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(j-k) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
& (-2 k-1,2 j)_{22}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=(j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(j-k) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
& (-2 k-1,2 j+1)_{11}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=2(2 j+2 k+3) q \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& +(2 k+1) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k-1,2 j+1)_{11}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=(2 j+2 k+3)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -2(2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k-1,2 j+1)_{12}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=(2 j+2 k+3)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -2(2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
& (-2 k-1,2 j+1)_{21}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=2(2 j+2 k+3) r \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +(2 k+1) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
& (-2 k-1,2 j+1)_{21}\left[Y^{1}\right] 0=(2 j+2 k+3)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -2(2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
& (-2 k-1,2 j+1)_{22}\left[Y^{0}\right] 0=(2 j+2 k+3)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -2(2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; r, q) \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

We delete duplicates and use the symmetry in $r$ and $q$. We are left with the following 12 identities:

$$
\begin{aligned}
0= & (2 k-1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r)-(j+k)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; q, r) \\
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
0= & (2 k-1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; q, r)-4(j+k) q \Phi(2 k-2,2 j ; q, r) \\
& -(2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r), \\
0= & 2(2 k-1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(2 j+2 k+1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+3) \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
0= & (2 k-1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -2(2 j+2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k-2,2 j+1 ; q, r) \\
& -(2 k-1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; q, r), \\
0= & k(r+q) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q)-(2 j+2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
0= & 4 k q \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q)-(2 j+2 k+1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
0= & k(r+q) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q)-2(j+k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
0= & 2 k q \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q)-(j+k+1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
0= & 4(j+k+1) r \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q)-(2 k+1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& +(2 k+1) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
0= & (j+k+1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k, 2 j ; r, q)-(2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k+1,2 j ; r, q) \\
& -(j-k) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q), \\
0= & 2(2 j+2 k+3) r \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(2 k+1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& +(2 k+1) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+2 ; r, q), \\
0= & (2 j+2 k+3)(r+q) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -2(2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1 ; r, q) \\
& -(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2 ; r, q) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Four of these identities are obtained by shifting by 1 another identity, so we are left with the following 8 identities, where, as in the sequel, we use the shortened notation

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Phi(k, j)=\Phi(k, j ; r, q) \\
0=(2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k+1,2 j)-(j+k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j)
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +(j-k) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1), \\
0= & 2(2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1)-(2 j+2 k+3)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2), \\
0= & (2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j)-4(j+k+1) r \Phi(2 k, 2 j) \\
& -(2 k+1) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1), \\
0= & (2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+1)-2(2 j+2 k+3) r \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1) \\
& -(2 k+1) \Phi(2 k+1,2 j+2), \\
0= & k(r+q) \Phi(2 k, 2 j)-(2 j+2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j)-k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1), \\
0= & k(r+q) \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1)-2(j+k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1) \\
& -k \Phi(2 k, 2 j+2), \\
0= & 4 k q \Phi(2 k, 2 j)-(2 j+2 k+1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j) \\
& +(2 j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1), \\
0= & 2 k q \Phi(2 k, 2 j+1)-(j+k+1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+1) \\
& +(j-k+1) \Phi(2 k-1,2 j+2) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The cases $2 j$ and $2 j+1$ can be merged and we are left with the following 4 identities:

$$
\begin{aligned}
0= & 2(2 k+1) q \Phi(2 k+1, j)-(j+2 k+2)(q+r) \Phi(2 k, j) \\
& +(j-2 k) \Phi(2 k, j+1), \\
0= & (2 k+1)(q+r) \Phi(2 k+1, j)-2(j+2 k+2) r \Phi(2 k, j) \\
& -(2 k+1) \Phi(2 k+1, j+1), \\
0= & k(r+q) \Phi(2 k, j)-(j+2 k+1) r \Phi(2 k-1, j)-k \Phi(2 k, j+1), \\
0= & 4 k q \Phi(2 k, j)-(j+2 k+1)(r+q) \Phi(2 k-1, j) \\
& +(j-2 k+1) \Phi(2 k-1, j+1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We merge the cases $2 k$ and $2 k-1$, thus we are eventually left with only two identities to check.

Lemma A.6. For $k \geq 1$ and $j=0,1, \ldots, k-2$, we have
$0=(k-1)(r+q) \Phi(k-1, j)-2(j+k) r \Phi(k-2, j)-(k-1) \Phi(k-1, j+1)$
and
$0=2 k q \Phi(k, j)-(j+k+1)(r+q) \Phi(k-1, j)+(j-k+1) \Phi(k-1, j+1)$.
A.7. Proof of Lemma A. 6 (the inductive step). We prove the first identity of Lemma A.6.

Define
$\delta=(k-1) \Phi(k-1, j+1)+2(j+k) r \Phi(k-2, j)-(k-1)(r+q) \Phi(k-1, j)$
We need to prove that $\delta=0$.

We use the definition of $\Phi$ and put all the terms $r$ and $q$ after the signs $\sum$ to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta= & (k-1) \sum_{d=0}^{j+1} \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j+1}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} \\
& +2 r(k+j) \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j-1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-2}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d} \\
& -(k-1)(r+q) \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d} \\
= & (k-1) \sum_{d=0}^{j+1} \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j+1}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} \\
& -2(k+j) \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j-1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-2}{d}}(-r)^{d+1} q^{j-d} \\
& +(k-1) \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d+1} q^{j-d} \\
& -(k-1) \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} .
\end{aligned}
$$

By shifting the indices of the second and third sums, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta= & (k-1) \sum_{d=0}^{j+1} \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j+1}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} \\
& -2(k+j) \sum_{d=1}^{j+1} \frac{\binom{k+j-1}{d-1}\binom{j}{d-1}}{\binom{k-2}{d-1}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d+1} \\
& +(k-1) \sum_{d=1}^{j+1} \frac{\binom{k+j}{d-1}\binom{j}{d-1}}{\binom{k-1}{d-1}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d+1} \\
& -(k-1) \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\left(^{k-1} \begin{array}{c}
d
\end{array}\right)}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} \\
= & \sum_{d=1}^{j} \delta_{1}(d)(-r)^{d} q^{j-d+1}+\delta_{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\delta_{1}(d)=(k-1) \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j+1}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}-2(k+j) \frac{\binom{k+j-1}{d-1}\binom{j}{d-1}}{\binom{k-2}{d-1}}+(k-1) \frac{\binom{k+j}{d-1}\binom{j}{d-1}}{\binom{k-1}{d-1}}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -(k-1) \frac{\binom{k+j}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}} \\
= & \frac{j!(k-1-d)!(k+j)!}{d!(k-2)!(j-d+1)!(k+j-d+1)!}[(k+j+1)(j+1)-2 d(k+j-d+1) \\
& +d(k-d)-(j-d+1)(k+j-d+1)] \\
= & 0
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta_{2}= & +(k-1) q^{j+1}+(k-1) \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{j+1}\binom{j+1}{j+1}}{\binom{k-1}{j+1}}(-r)^{j+1} \\
& -2(k+j) \frac{\binom{k+j-1}{j}\binom{j}{j}}{\binom{k-2}{j}}(-r)^{j+1}+(k-1) \frac{\binom{k+j}{j}\binom{j}{j}}{\binom{k-1}{j}}(-r)^{j+1}-(k-1) q^{j+1} \\
= & (k-1) \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{j+1}}{\binom{k-1}{j+1}}(-r)^{j+1}-2(k+j) \frac{\binom{k+j-1}{j}}{\binom{k-2}{j}}(-r)^{j+1} \\
& +(k-1) \frac{\binom{k j}{j}}{\binom{k-1}{j}}(-r)^{j+1} \\
= & (-r)^{j+1} \frac{(k+j)!(k-j-2)!}{k!(k-2)!}[(k+j+1)-2 k+(k-1-j)] \\
= & 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

We conclude that

$$
\delta=\sum_{d=1}^{j} \delta_{1}(d)(-r)^{d} q^{j-d+1}+\delta_{2}=0
$$

and the first identity holds. .
We prove the second identity of Lemma A.6. Define
$\delta^{\prime}=2 k q \Phi(k, j)-(j+k+1)(r+q) \Phi(k-1, j)+(j-k+1) \Phi(k-1, j+1)$.
We need to prove that $\delta^{\prime}=0$.
We use the definition of $\Phi$ and put all the terms $r$ and $q$ after the signs $\sum$ to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta= & 2 k q \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d} \\
& -(j+k+1)(r+q) \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d} \\
& +(j-k+1) \sum_{d=0}^{j+1} \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j+1}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
= & 2 k \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} \\
& +(j+k+1) \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d+1} q^{j-d} \\
& -(j+k+1) \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} \\
& +(j-k+1) \sum_{d=0}^{j+1} \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j+1}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} .
\end{aligned}
$$

By shifting the indices of the second sum, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta= & 2 k \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} \\
& +(j+k+1) \sum_{d=1}^{j+1} \frac{\binom{k+j}{d-1}\binom{j}{d-1}}{\binom{k-1}{d-1}}(-r)^{d} q^{j-d+1} \\
& -(j+k+1) \sum_{d=0}^{j} \frac{\binom{k+j}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} \\
& +(j-k+1) \sum_{d=0}^{j+1} \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j+1}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}}(-r)^{d} q^{j+1-d} \\
= & \sum_{d=1}^{j} \delta_{1}^{\prime}(d)(-r)^{d} q^{j-d+1}+\delta_{2}^{\prime},
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta_{1}^{\prime}(d)= & 2 k \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k}{d}}+(j+k+1) \frac{\binom{k+j}{d-1}\binom{j}{d-1}}{\binom{k-1}{d-1}}-(j+k+1) \frac{\binom{k+j}{d}\binom{j}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}} \\
& +(j-k+1) \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{d}\binom{j+1}{d}}{\binom{k-1}{d}} \\
= & \frac{(j+k+1)!(k-d-1)!j!}{d!(k+j-d+1)!(k-1)!(j-d+1)!}[2(k-d)(j-d+1)+d(k-d) \\
& -(k+j-d+1)(j-d+1)+(j-k+1)(j+1)] \\
= & 0
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\delta_{2}^{\prime}=2 k q^{j+1}+(j+k+1) \frac{\binom{k+j}{j}\binom{j}{j}}{\binom{k-1}{j}}(-r)^{j+1}-(j+k+1) q^{j+1}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +(j-k+1) q^{j+1}+(j-k+1) \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{j+1}\binom{j+1}{j+1}}{\binom{k-1}{j+1}}(-r)^{j+1} \\
= & (j+k+1) \frac{\binom{k+j}{j}}{\binom{k-1}{j}}(-r)^{j+1}+(j-k+1) \frac{\binom{k+j+1}{j+1}}{\binom{k-1}{j+1}}(-r)^{j+1} \\
= & \frac{(k+j+1)!(k-j-2)!}{k!(k-1)!}(-r)^{j+1}[(k-1-j)+(j-k+1)] \\
= & 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

We conclude that

$$
\delta^{\prime}=\sum_{d=1}^{j} \delta_{1}^{\prime}(d)(-r)^{d} q^{j-d+1}+\delta_{2}^{\prime}=0
$$

and the proof is complete.

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