CONTINUED FUNCTION EXPANSIONS OF REAL NUMBERS¹

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- 1. Introduction. We present a theory of continued function expansions of numbers which contains the generalized continued fractions of B. H. Bissinger [1] and the generalized decimal representations of C. J. Everett [2]. The latter used the following algorithm for representing numbers as sequences of integers: for any $\gamma \ge 0$ let $\gamma_0 = \gamma$, $\gamma_{n+1} = f^{-1}(\gamma_n a_n)$, where $a_n = [\gamma_n]$ and f is strictly increasing and continuous from [0, p] onto [0, 1], p an integer. We generalize this, in particular, by admitting a wider class of functions than those of the form $f^{-1}(x-n)$. O. W. Rechard [3] gave a necessary and sufficient condition that the correspondence between numbers and sequences resulting from Everett's algorithm be 1-1. This condition appears in our theory as a simple functional relation similar to one considered by Schreier and Ulam [4].
- 2. **The algorithm.** The correspondence between numbers and sequences which we are going to describe depends on a collection of intervals and on functions defined on those intervals. More precisely

DEFINITION. An algorithm frame, A, consists of the following: an interval R; a subset P of the integers containing at least two integers; a partition of R into disjoint intervals I_n , $n \in P$; a subset P_0 of P containing at least two integers such that $I = \bigcup_{n \in P_0} I_n$ is an interval; intervals M_n , $n \in P$, homeomorphic to each other such that $M_n \subset I_n$ and $I_n - M_n$ consists of at most one point; and an interval M homeomorphic to each M_n such that $\bigcup_{n \in P_0} M_n \subset M \subset I$.

It follows from the above definition that if $\{M_n, n \in P\}$ is part of an algorithm frame then either all the M_n are open intervals or all are closed on one end, not necessarily the same, because not all the I_n can be closed and the M_n are homeomorphic to each other. Also, if any interval is infinite at some end it is taken to be open at that end.

DEFINITION. An algorithm basis consists of an algorithm frame A and a collection of homeomorphisms h_n , $n \in P$, mapping M_n onto M. We usually identify an algorithm basis by the couple (A, h_n) .

Corresponding to any algorithm basis we have the following algorithm for relating points in R to sequences (finite or infinite) of integers:

Presented to the Society, January 29, 1960; received by the editors October 9, 1959.

¹ Work performed under A.E.C. Contract No. W-7405-Eng. 36.

Let $x_0 \in R$.

a(1):

 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a(0) \text{ is determined by the requirement that } x_0 \in I_{a(0)}. \right\} \\ a(0): \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{If } x_0 \notin M_{a(0)}, \text{ stop, and represent } x_0 \text{ by the sequence of one element } \left\{ a(0) \right\}. \\ \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Since } x_0 \in M_{a(0)} \text{ we can let } x_1 = h_{a(0)}(x_0). \text{ Then } a(1) \\ \text{is determined by the requirement that } x_1 \in I_{a(1)}. \\ \text{Furthermore, } a(1) \in P_0 \text{ since } x_1 \in M \subset I. \end{array} \right. \\ \end{array} \right.$

If $x_1 \in M_{a(1)}$, stop, and represent x_0 by the sequence of two elements $\{a(0), a(1)\}$.

Since $x_{k-1} \in M_{a(k-1)}$ we can let $x_k = h_{a(k-1)}(x_{k-1})$. Then a(k) is determined by the requirement that $x_k \in I_{a(k)}$, and $a(k) \in P_0$.

a(k): $\left\{ \text{If } x_k \notin M_{a(k)}, \text{ stop, and represent } x_0 \text{ by } \left\{ a(0), \cdots, a(k) \right\}. \right\}$

This algorithm contains the expansions considered by Bissinger and Everett. Let AB be the following algorithm basis:

$$R = [0, \infty), P = \{0, 1, 2, \cdots\}, P_0 = \{1, 2, \cdots\}, I_n = [n, n+1),$$

 $M_n = (n, n+1), I = [1, \infty), M = (1, \infty),$

and let $h_n(x) = f^{-1}(x-n)$ for $x \in (n, n+1)$ where f is a continuous strictly decreasing function mapping $[1, \infty)$ onto (0, 1]. This contains Bissinger's expansions. Everett's expansions come from the algorithm basis AE given by:

$$R = I = M = [0, p),$$
 $I_n = M_n = [n, n + 1),$
 $P = P_0 = \{0, 1, \dots, p - 1\},$

and $h_n(x) = f^{-1}(x-n)$, $x \in [n, n+1)$ where f is continuous and strictly increasing from [0, p] onto [0, 1].

3. 1-1 Correspondence. Given an algorithm basis (A, h_n) , the algorithm defines a function h from R into the space C of finite or infinite sequences of integers $c = \{c(0), c(1), \dots\}$ as follows: let x

yield c under the algorithm, then h(x) = c. Let E be the set of all such functions. In general we will use the convention that if $g \in E$ then the homeomorphisms in its algorithm basis are g_n .

DEFINITION. Let (A, h_n) , (B, g_n) be algorithm bases. The corresponding functions h and $g \in E$ are said to be *equivalent*, written $h \sim g$, if A and B are identical and if h_n has the same sense as g_n for each n. (By this we mean that if h_n is monotonic increasing so is g_n and if h_n is monotonic decreasing so is g_n . This is *not* meant to imply that the sense of h_n is independent of n.)

Denote by C(h) the range of h for $h \in E$.

The following theorems characterize the equivalent 1-1 functions in E:

THEOREM 1. If $h \sim g$ and h is 1-1 onto C(h) then $C(h) \subset C(g)$.

COROLLARY 1. If $h \sim g$, a finite sequence is in C(h) if and only if it is in C(g).

COROLLARY 2. If g is 1-1, C(h) = C(g).

Notation. A sequence of functions $hg \cdot \cdot \cdot k$ always means the composite function $h(g(\cdot \cdot \cdot (k) \cdot \cdot \cdot))$.

THEOREM 2. Let g be 1-1 from R onto C(g) and let h have the same algorithm frame as g. Then $h \sim g$ and h is 1-1 from R onto C(g) if and only if there exists an increasing homeomorphism F from R onto R, which also maps M_n onto M_n for all n, such that $h_n^{-1} = F^{-1}g_n^{-1}F$.

The following theorems are an application of Theorem 2 to bases AB and AE, respectively.

THEOREM 3. Let (A, h_n) be an algorithm basis of the form AB. Let $h_n(x) = \hat{h}^{-1}(x-n)$. Then h is 1-1 if and only if there exists an increasing homeomorphism F mapping $[0, \infty)$ onto itself such that F(x) = n + F(x-n) for $x \in [n, n+1)$ and $\hat{h}^{-1}(\tau) = F^{-1}(1/F(\tau))$ for all $\tau \in (0, 1]$.

THEOREM 4. Let (A, h_n) be an algorithm basis of the form AE. Let $h_n(x) = \hat{h}^{-1}(x-n)$. Then h is 1-1 if and only if there exists an increasing homeomorphism F mapping [0, p] onto itself such that F(x) = n + F(x-n) for $x \in [n, n+1)$ and $\hat{h}^{-1}(\tau) = F^{-1}(p \cdot F(\tau))$ for all $\tau \in [0, 1]$.

Rechard's condition is that h is 1-1 if and only if there exists an increasing homeomorphism G mapping [0, 1] onto itself such that $\hat{h}(y) = G^{-1}((n+G(y-n))/p)$. It is easily verified that this is equivalent to Theorem 4 (given G, set F(y) = n + G(y-n), $y \in [n, n+1)$, and given F set $G(\tau) = F(\tau)$, $\tau \in [0, 1]$).

Proof of Theorem 1.

LEMMA. Let (A, f_n) be any algorithm basis and let c be any infinite sequence $\{c(0), c(1), \cdots\}$ such that $c(0) \in P$, $c(i) \in P_0$ for i > 0. Let $F_k = f_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdots \cdot f_{c(k)}^{-1}(M) = f_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdots \cdot f_{c(k-1)}^{-1}(M_{c(k)})$. Then f(x) = c if and only if $x \in \bigcap_0^{\infty} F_k$.

PROOF OF LEMMA. F_k consists exactly of those points y which correspond, under f, to sequences with at least k+2 entries, the first k+1 of which are $c(0), \dots, c(k)$, and the lemma follows immediately from this fact. Proceeding with the theorem, let h be 1-1 onto C(h), $h \sim g$, and let h(x) = c. If $c = \{c(0)\}$, then g(x) = c. If $c = \{c(0), \dots, c(k)\}$, k > 0, then $x = h_{c(0)}^{-1} \dots h_{c(k-1)}^{-1}(y)$ where $y \in I_{c(k)} - M_{c(k)}$ (note that in the definition of algorithm frame it was assumed that $I_n - M_n$ consists of at most one point; the reason for this is apparent, for if there were more than one point h could not be 1-1). Then if $w = g_{c(0)}^{-1} \dots g_{c(k)}^{-1}(y)$, g(w) = c. If c is infinite, $c = \{c(0), c(1), \dots\}$, let

$$H_k = h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(k)}^{-1}(M) = h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(k-1)}^{-1}(M_{c(k)}),$$

$$G_k = g_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot g_{c(k)}^{-1}(M) = g_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot g_{c(k-1)}^{-1}(M_{c(k)}),$$

and

$$r_k = g_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot g_{c(k)}^{-1} h_{c(k)} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(0)}.$$

Clearly, $H_{k+1} \subset H_k$, $G_{k+1} \subset G_k$, $G_k = r_k(H_k)$, and by the lemma, $x = \bigcap_0^\infty H_k$. Furthermore, since $h \sim g$, there are at most an even number of decreasing homeomorphisms in the composition of r_k , therefore each r_k is strictly increasing from the interval H_k onto the interval G_k . Also,

$$r_k(H_{k+1}) = g_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot g_{c(k)}^{-1} h_{c(k)} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(0)} [h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(k)}^{-1} (M_{c(k+1)})] = G_{k+1}.$$

It follows from these facts that $\bigcap_{0}^{\infty} G_{k}$ is nonempty. To show this we consider three cases.

CASE 1. Each H_k is open. Then each G_k is open. Let $H_k = (a_k, b_k)$, $G_k = (\alpha_k, \beta_k)$. Since $\bigcap_0^\infty H_k$ consists of the point x, we must have that $\lim a_k = x > a_k$ for all k and $\lim b_k = x < b_k$ for all k (this also means that if $b_0 = \infty$ some b_k must be finite, and similarly, if $a_0 = -\infty$, some a_k is finite). Then there must be infinitely many indices k for which $a_k < a_{k+1}$. Let $a_k < a < a_{k+1}$. Then $a_k < r_k(a) < r_k(a_{k+1}) = a_{k+1}$, and therefore if $\alpha = \lim \alpha_k$, $\alpha > \alpha_k$ for all k. By the same kind of reasoning if $\beta = \lim \beta_k$, $\beta < \beta_k$ for all k. Since $\alpha \le \beta$, $\bigcap_0^\infty G_k = [\alpha, \beta]$, nonempty.

CASE 2. Each H_k is closed on one end and k_0 exists such that H_k is closed on the same end as H_{k_0} , say the left for $k \ge k_0$. The G_k must have the same property. Let $H_k = [a_k, b_k)$, $G_k = [\alpha_k, \beta_k)$, $k \ge k_0$. By the

same reasoning as in Case 1 if $\beta = \lim \beta_k$, $\beta < \beta_k$ for all k, therefore $\bigcap_0^{\infty} G_k = \bigcap_0^{\infty} [\alpha_k, \beta]$ which is nonempty.

CASE 3. Each H_k is closed on one end but no k_0 as in Case 2 exists. Then it is easily seen that $\bigcap_0^\infty G_k = \bigcap_0^\infty \overline{G}_k$ which is nonempty. Since in all cases $\bigcap_0^\infty G_k$ is nonempty, there exists $y \in R$ such that g(y) = c, which completes the proof.

The proof of Corollary 1 is essentially contained in the analysis of finite sequences given above. Corollary 2 is immediate.

PROOF OF THEOREM 2. Let $h \sim g$ and both be 1-1 onto C(h) = C(g). Let $x \in R$. The following function F is 1-1 from R onto R: if h(x) = c then y = F(x) if g(y) = c. Since each interval M_n consists exactly of those points which correspond under the algorithm to sequences containing at least two entries, the first of which is n, F maps M_n onto M_n . If $h(x) = \{c(0)\}$, then F(x) = x so F maps I_n onto I_n . To see that F is strictly increasing, let $x < \hat{x}$, h(x) = c, $h(\hat{x}) = d$. Define the length l of c as follows: if $c = \{c(0), \cdots, c(k)\}$, then l = k, and if c is infinite $l = \infty$. Let l be the length of d. There are two cases to consider.

CASE 1. There exists an integer $k \leq \min(l, \hat{l})$ such that c(i) = d(i), i < k, and $c(k) \neq d(k)$. If k = 0, since $x \in I_{c(0)}$, $\hat{x} \in I_{d(0)}$, we must have that $I_{c(0)}$ is to the left of $I_{d(0)}$. Since $F(x) \in I_{c(0)}$, $F(\hat{x}) \in I_{d(0)}$, $F(x) < F(\hat{x})$. If k > 0 then we can write

$$x = h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(k-1)}^{-1}(x_k) \quad \text{for some } x_k \in I_{c(k)},$$

$$\hat{x} = h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(k-1)}^{-1}(\hat{x}_k) \quad \text{for some } \hat{x}_k \in I_{d(k)},$$

$$F(x) = g_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot g_{c(k-1)}^{-1}(y_k) \quad \text{for some } y_k \in I_{c(k)},$$

$$F(\hat{x}) = g_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot g_{c(k-1)}^{-1}(\hat{y}_k) \quad \text{for some } \hat{y}_k \in I_{d(k)}.$$

Let $h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(k-1)}^{-1}$ be increasing. Then $x_k < \hat{x}_k$, $I_{c(k)}$ is to the left of $I_{d(k)}$, $y_k < \hat{y}_k$ and therefore $F(x) < F(\hat{x})$ since $g_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot g_{c(k-1)}^{-1}$ is also increasing. If $h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(k-1)}^{-1}$ is decreasing then $x_k > \hat{x}_k$, $I_{c(k)}$ is to the right of $I_{d(k)}$, $y_k > \hat{y}_k$ and $F(x) < F(\hat{x})$ since $g_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot g_{c(k-1)}^{-1}$ is also decreasing.

CASE 2. $\min(l, \hat{l})$ is finite and c(i) = d(i), $i \leq \min(l, \hat{l})$. For definiteness let $l < \hat{l}$. If l = 0 then $x \in I_{c(0)} - M_{c(0)}$. Since $\hat{x} \in M_{c(0)}$, x is the left end point of $I_{c(0)}$. Then $F(x) = x < F(\hat{x})$ because $F(\hat{x}) \in M_{c(0)}$. If l > 0 we can write

$$x = h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(l-1)}^{-1}(x_l), \quad x_l \in I_{c(l)} - M_{c(l)},$$

$$\hat{x} = h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(l-1)}^{-1}(\hat{x}_l), \quad \hat{x}_l \in M_{c(l)},$$

$$F(x) = g_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot g_{c(l-1)}^{-1}(x_l),$$

$$F(\hat{x}) = g_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot g_{c(l-1)}^{-1}(\hat{y}_l), \quad \hat{y}_l \in M_{c(l)}.$$

If $h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdots h_{c(l-1)}^{-1}$ is increasing, $x_l < \hat{x}_l$, therefore x_l is the left endpoint of $I_{c(l)}$, therefore $x_l < \mathcal{G}_l$ and $F(x) < F(\hat{x})$. The proof is straightforward if $h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdots h_{c(l-1)}^{-1}$ is decreasing. Thus F is strictly increasing and is therefore a homeomorphism of R onto R. Let $x \in M_n$. Then $x = h_n^{-1}(r)$ and $F(x) = g_n^{-1}(s)$. But s = F(r) (this follows from the fact that if $h(x) = \{n, a_1, a_2, \cdots\}$ and $x = h_n^{-1}(r)$ then $h(r) = \{a_1, a_2, \cdots\}$) therefore $F(x) = g_n^{-1}(F(h_n(x)))$ or $h_n^{-1} = F^{-1}g_n^{-1}F$. Conversely let $h_n^{-1} = F^{-1}g_n^{-1}F$ where F is an increasing homeomorphism from R onto R taking M_n onto M_n . Let y = F(x). Then h(x) = c if and only if g(y) = c, which completes the proof.

PROOF OF THEOREM 3 AND THEOREM 4. Theorem 3 is obtained simply by applying Theorem 2 to this basis, using the inverse functional relation $h_n = F^{-1}g_nF$ and choosing $g_n(x) = 1/(x-n)$ (the corresponding g is the ordinary continued fraction algorithm which is well-known to be 1-1). Theorem 4 is obtained by taking $g_n(x) = p \cdot (x-n)$ (the corresponding g is the ordinary decimal expansion to the base p, which is 1-1). In both cases the functional relation implies that F(x) - n is a function of x - n only and therefore F(x) - n = F(x-n) for $x \in [n, n+1)$.

Finally, let (A, h_n) be an algorithm basis giving rise to the function $h \in E$ and suppose h is 1-1. If $x \in R$ and c is an infinite sequence such that h(x) = c, there are two ways of interpreting the continued function expansion of x:

$$x = h_{c(0)}^{-1}(h_{c(1)}^{-1}(\cdots)).$$

The first is that for every $k \ge 0$, $x = h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(k)}^{-1}(y)$ where $h(y) = \{c(k+1), \cdot \cdot \cdot \}$. The second is that $x = \lim_{k \to \infty} h_{c(0)}^{-1} \cdot \cdot \cdot h_{c(k)}^{-1}(y)$ for all $y \in M$, which follows from the fact that $x = \bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} H_k$.

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