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# Best simultaneous diophantine approximations of some cubic algebraic numbers

#### par NICOLAS CHEVALLIER

RÉSUMÉ. Soit  $\alpha$  un nombre algébrique réel de degré 3 dont les conjugués ne sont pas réels. Il existe une unité  $\zeta$  de l'anneau des entiers de  $K=\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  pour laquelle il est possible de décrire l'ensemble de tous les vecteurs meilleurs approximations de  $\theta=(\zeta,\zeta^2)$ .

ABSTRACT. Let  $\alpha$  be a real algebraic number of degree 3 over  $\mathbb{Q}$  whose conjugates are not real. There exists an unit  $\zeta$  of the ring of integer of  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  for which it is possible to describe the set of all best approximation vectors of  $\theta = (\zeta, \zeta^2)$ .

#### 1. Introduction

In his first paper ([10]) on best simultaneous diophantine approximations J. C. Lagarias gives an interesting result which, he said, is in essence a corollary of W. W. Adams' results ([1] and [2]):

Let  $[1, \alpha_1, \alpha_2]$  be a  $\mathbb Q$  basis to a non-totally real cubic field. Then the best simultaneous approximations of  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$  (see definition below) with respect to a given norm N are a subset of

$${q_m^{(j)}: m \ge 0, \ 1 \le j \le p}$$

where the  $q_m^{(j)}$  satisfy a third-order linear recurrence (with constant coefficients).

$$q_{m+3} + a_2 q_{m+2} + a_1 q_{m+1} \pm q_m = 0$$

for a finite set of initial conditions  $q_0^{(j)}$ ,  $q_1^{(j)}$ ,  $q_2^{(j)}$ , for  $1 \leq j \leq p$ . The fundamental unit  $\xi$  of  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$  satisfies

$$\xi^3 - a_2 \xi^2 - a_1 \xi \pm 1 = 0.$$

Now consider the particular case  $X=(\zeta,\zeta^2)\in\mathbb{R}^2$  where  $\zeta$  is the unique real root of  $\zeta^3+\zeta^2+\zeta-1=0$ . The vector X can be seen as a two-dimensional golden number. N. Chekhova, P. Hubert and A. Messaoudi were able to precise Lagarias' result (cf. [7]):

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There exists a euclidean norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that all best diophantine approximations of X are given by the 'Tribonacci' sequence  $(q_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  defined by

$$q_0 = 1$$
,  $q_2 = 2$ ,  $q_3 = 4$ ,  $q_{n+3} = q_{n+2} + q_{n+1} + q_n$ .

The aim of this work is to make precise Lagarias' result in the same way as N. Chekhova, P. Hubert and A. Messaoudi.

**Definition** ([10],[8]). Let N be a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

1) A strictly positive integer q is a best approximation (denominator) of  $\theta$  with respect to N if

$$\forall k \in \{1, \dots, q-1\}, \ \min_{P \in \mathbb{Z}^2} N(q\theta - P) < \min_{Q \in \mathbb{Z}^2} N(k\theta - Q)$$

2) An element  $q\theta - P$  of  $\mathbb{Z}\theta + \mathbb{Z}^2$  is a best approximation vector of  $\theta$  with respect to N if q is a best approximation of  $\theta$  and if

$$N(q\theta-P)=\min_{Q\in\mathbb{Z}^2}N(q\theta-Q)$$

We will call  $\mathcal{M}(\theta)$  the set of all best approximation vectors of  $\theta$ .

Using Dirichlet's theorem it is easy to show that there exists a positive constant C depending only on the norm N, such that for all  $\theta$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and all best approximation vectors  $q\theta - P$  of  $\theta$ 

$$N(q\theta - P) \le \frac{C}{q^{1/2}}.$$

If  $[1, \alpha_1, \alpha_2]$  is a Q-basis of a real cubic field then  $\theta = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$  is badly approximable (cf. [6] p. 79):

there exists c > 0 such that for all best approximation vectors  $q\theta - P$  of  $\theta$ 

$$N(q\theta-P)\geq \frac{c}{q^{1/2}}.$$

Let  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathbb{Q}^2$  and  $\Lambda = \theta \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}^2$ . Endow  $\Lambda$  with its natural  $\mathbb{Z}$ -basis  $\theta$ ,  $e_1 = (1,0)$ ,  $e_2 = (0,1)$ . For a matrix  $B \in M_3(\mathbb{Z})$  and  $X = x_0\theta + x_1e_1 + x_2e_2 \in \Lambda$ , the action BX = Y of B on X is naturally defined: the coordinates vector of Y is the matrix product of B by the coordinates vector of X.

We shall prove the following results.

**Proposition 1.** Let  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{N}^*$ . Suppose  $P(x) = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_1x - 1$  has a unique real root  $\zeta$ . Call  $\theta = (\zeta, \zeta^2)$  and B the matrix

$$B = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} a_1 & -a_2 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}\right).$$

There exist a norm N on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and a finite number of best approximation vectors  $X_i = q_i \theta - P_i$ , i = 1, ..., m such that

$$\mathcal{M}(\theta) \setminus \{B^n X_i : n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } i = 1, \dots, m\}$$

is a finite set.

**Proposition 2.** Suppose  $\alpha$  is a real algebraic number of degree 3 over  $\mathbb{Q}$  whose conjugates are not real. There exist a unit  $\zeta$  of the ring of integer of  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ , two positive integers  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  and euclidean norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that the set of best approximation vectors of  $\theta = (\zeta, \zeta^2)$ , is

$$\mathcal{M}(\theta) = \{B^n \theta : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

where

$$B = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} a_1 & -a_2 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}\right).$$

The proof of Proposition 1 is quite different from Chechkova, Hubert and Messaoudi's one. It is based on two simple facts:

Let  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{N}^*$ . Suppose  $P(x) = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_1x - 1$  has a unique real root  $\zeta$  and call  $\theta = (\zeta, \zeta^2)$ .

- 1) Following G. Rauzy ([14]) we construct a euclidean norm N on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and a linear contracting similarity F on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  (i.e. N(F(x)) = rN(x) for all x in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  where the ratio  $r \in ]0,1[$ ) which is one to one on  $\Lambda = \mathbb{Z}\theta + \mathbb{Z}^2$ .
- 2) Since  $a_1, a_2 > 0$  the map F preserves the positive cone  $\Lambda^+ = \mathbb{N}\theta \mathbb{N}^2$ . We deduce from these observations that F send best approximation vectors of  $\theta$  to best approximation vectors of  $\theta$  (see lemma 2) and proposition 1 follow easily. Our method cannot be extended to higher dimension, because for F to be a similarity, it is necessary that P has one dominant root, all other roots being of the same modulus, and H. Minkowski proved that this can only occur for polynomials of degree 2 or 3 ([12]).

The sequence of best approximation vectors of  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^2$  may be seen as a two-dimensional continued fraction 'algorithm'. In this case Proposition 1 means that the 'development' of  $(\zeta, \zeta^2)$  becomes periodic when  $\zeta$  is the unique real root of the polynomial  $x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_1x - 1$  with  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ . This may be compared to the following results about Jacobi-Perron's algorithm:

(O. Perron [13]) Let  $\zeta$  be the root of  $P \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ ,  $\deg P = 3$ . If the development of  $(\zeta, \zeta^2)$  by Jacobi-Perron's algorithm becomes periodic and if this development gives good approximations, i.e.

$$\max(|q_n\zeta - p_{1,n}|, |q_n\zeta^2 - p_{2,n}|) \le \frac{C}{q_n^{1/2}}$$

where  $(p_{1,n}, p_{2,n}, q_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  are given by Jacobi-Perron's algorithm, then the conjugates of  $\zeta$  are complex (see [4] p.7).

- (P. Bachman [1]) Let  $\zeta = d^{\frac{1}{3}}$  where d is a cube-free integer greater than 1. If the development by Jacobi-Perron's algorithm of  $(\zeta, \zeta^2)$  turns out to be periodic it gives good approximations as above.
- (E. Dubois R. Paysant [9]) If K is a cubic extension of  $\mathbb{Q}$  then there exist  $\beta_1, \beta_2$  in K, linearly independent with 1, such that the development of  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  by Jacobi-Perron's algorithm is periodic.
- O. Perron (see [13] Theorem VII or Brentjes [5] Theorem 3.4.) also gives some numbers with a purely periodic development of length 1.

We should also note that A. J. Brentjes gives a two-dimensional continued fraction algorithm which finds all best approximations of a certain kind and he uses it to find the coordinates of the fundamental unit in a basis of the ring of integers of a non-totally real cubic field. (see Brentjes' book on multi-dimensional continued fraction algorithms [5] section 5F).

Finally, we shall give a proof of Chechkova, Hubert and Messaoudi's result using proposition 1 together with the set of best approximations corresponding to the equation  $\zeta^3 + 2\zeta^2 + \zeta = 1$ .

#### 2. The Rauzy norm

Fix  $a_1$ ,  $a_2 \in \mathbb{N}^*$  and suppose that the polynomial  $P(x) = -x^3 + a_1x^2 + a_2x + 1$  has a unique real root. Endow  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with its standard basis  $e_1, e_2, e_3$ . Let M be the matrix

$$M = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} a_1 & a_2 & 1\\ 1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}\right).$$

The characteristic polynomial of M is  $-x^3 + a_1x^2 + a_2x + 1$ , the unique positive eigenvalue of M is  $\lambda = \frac{1}{\zeta}$  and  $\Theta = (\zeta, \zeta^2, \zeta^3)$  is the eigenvector associated with  $\lambda$ . Let l be the linear form on  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with coefficients  $a_1, a_2, 1$ ; we have  $l(\Theta) = l(e_3) = 1$ . Put  $\Delta(X) = X - l(X)\Theta$ .  $\Delta \circ M$  map ker l into itself and  $\mathbb{R}\Theta \subseteq \ker \Delta \circ M$ . The eigenvalues of the restriction of  $\Delta \circ M$  to  $\ker l$ , are  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2 = \overline{\lambda_1}$ , the two other eigenvalues of M. In fact, if Z is an eigenvector of M associated to  $\lambda_1$  then  $\Delta(Z) \in \ker l$  and

$$\Delta \circ M \circ \Delta(Z) = \Delta(\lambda_1 Z - l(Z)\lambda\Theta) = \lambda_1 \Delta(Z).$$

Call p the projection  $\mathbb{R}^3$  onto  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . p is one to one from ker l onto  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , call i its inverse map and consider the linear map

$$F: X \in \mathbb{R}^2 \to p \circ \Delta \circ M \circ i(X) \in \mathbb{R}^2$$
.

The linear maps F and  $\Delta \circ M$  are conjugate, therefore the eigenvalues of F are  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ .

**Lemma 3.** F is one to one of  $\Lambda = \mathbb{Z}\theta + \mathbb{Z}^2$  on itself, where  $\theta = (\zeta, \zeta^2)$ .

*Proof.* Since  $i(\theta) = \Theta - e_3$  we have

$$F(\theta) = p \circ \Delta(\lambda \Theta - e_1) = p(l(e_1)\Theta - e_1) = a_1\theta - e_1 \in \Lambda.$$

Similarly  $i(e_k) = e_k - l(e_k)e_3$ , k = 1, 2, then  $X_k = M \circ i(e_k) \in \mathbb{Z}^3$  and

$$F(e_k) = p(X_k - l(X_k)\Theta) = p(X_k) - l(X_k)\theta \in \Lambda.$$

Since F maps  $\Lambda$  into itself, it remains to show that F is one to one. Call B the matrix of F with respect to the basis  $(\theta, e_1, e_2)$ . We have

$$X_1 = M(e_1 - l(e_1)e_3) = a_1e_1 + e_2 - l(e_1)e_1 = e_2,$$
  
 $X_2 = M(e_2 - l(e_2)e_3) = a_2e_1 + e_3 - l(e_2)e_1 = e_3$ 

so that

$$B = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} a_1 & -a_2 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

and

$$\det B = -1$$
.

Call  $\Lambda^+ = \{q\theta - P : q \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } P \in \mathbb{N}^2\}$ . Since  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are positive we have:

Corollary 4.  $F(\Lambda^+) \subseteq \Lambda^+$ .

Since  $\lambda_2 = \overline{\lambda_1}$  there exists a euclidean norm N on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that F is a linear similar map for this norm (i.e. N(F(x)) = rN(x) for all x in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , where r in  $\mathbb{R}^+$  is call the ratio of F). The ratio of F is  $r = |\lambda_1| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} = \sqrt{\zeta} < 1$ . Now let us determine the matrix M of the bilinear form  $\langle x, y \rangle$  associated with N, this is necessary for Proposition 2 but not for Proposition 1. M is unique up to a multiplicative constant. Since the ratio of F is  $\sqrt{\zeta}$ ,

$$\langle F(e_1), F(e_2) \rangle = \zeta \langle e_1, e_2 \rangle,$$
  
 $\langle F(e_2), F(e_2) \rangle = \zeta \langle e_2, e_2 \rangle,$ 

and computing  $F(e_1)$  and  $F(e_2)$ , we find that  $\langle e_1, e_1 \rangle$ ,  $\langle e_1, e_2 \rangle$  and  $\langle e_2, e_2 \rangle$  satisfy

$$\begin{cases} a_2 \zeta \langle e_1, e_1 \rangle + (-2 + 2a_2 \zeta^2) \langle e_1, e_2 \rangle + (-\zeta + a_2 \zeta^3) \langle e_2, e_2 \rangle = 0 \\ \zeta \langle e_1, e_1 \rangle + 2\zeta^2 \langle e_1, e_2 \rangle + (\zeta^3 - 1) \langle e_2, e_2 \rangle = 0. \end{cases}$$

Since  $1 = a_1 \zeta + a_2 \zeta^2 + \zeta^3$ , we find

$$\langle e_1, e_1 \rangle = 2(a_1 + \zeta^2), \ \langle e_1, e_2 \rangle = a_2 - \zeta, \ \langle e_2, e_2 \rangle = 2.$$

#### 3. Best diophantine approximations

We suppose  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is endowed with the norm N defined in the previous section.

**Notations.** 1)  $\rho_0 = d(0,\{(x_1,x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \sup(|x_1|,|x_2|) \ge 1\}).$ 

2) For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  we denote the nearest integer to x by I(x) (it is well-defined for all irrational number x).

We will often use the simple fact:

Let  $X=(x_1,x_2)\in\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $P=(p_1,p_2)\in\mathbb{Z}^2$ . If  $N(X-P)<\frac{1}{2}\rho_0$  then  $p_1=I(x_1),\,p_2=I(x_2)$  and P is the nearest point of  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  to X (for the norm N).

We will say that two best approximation vectors  $q_1\theta - P_1$  and  $q_2\theta - P_2$  are consecutive if  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  are consecutive best approximations.

Lemma 5. 1) If  $q\theta - P$  is a best approximation vector such that  $N(q\theta - P) < \frac{1}{2}\rho_0$  then  $q'\theta - P' = F(q\theta - P)$  is a best approximation vector of  $\theta$ . 2) Let  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  be two consecutive best approximations of  $\theta$  and  $q_1\theta - P_1$  and  $q_2\theta - P_2$  be two corresponding best approximation vectors. If  $N(q_2\theta - P_2) < \frac{1}{2}\rho_0$  and if  $F(q_1\theta - P_1)$  is a best approximation vector then  $F(q_1\theta - P_1)$  and  $F(q_2\theta - P_2)$  are consecutive best approximation vectors.

2) Put  $F(q_i\theta - P_i) = k_i\theta - R_i$ , i = 1, 2. Suppose  $k\theta - R$  is a best approximation vector with  $k_1 < k \le k_2$ . We want to prove that  $k\theta - R = k_2\theta - R_2$ . Put  $F^{-1}(k\theta - R) = q\theta - P$ . On the one hand, since F is similar, we have  $N(q\theta - P) < N(q_1\theta - P_1)$ , so  $q > q_1$ . Furthermore  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  are consecutive best approximations, so  $q \ge q_2$ .

On the other hand,  $k_1\theta-R_1=F(q_1\theta-P_1)$  is a best approximation with  $N(k_1\theta-R_1)=N(F(q_1\theta-P_1)< N(q_1\theta-P_1),$  then  $k_1\geq q_2$  and  $N(k_1\theta-P_1)\leq N(q_2\theta-P_2)<\frac{1}{2}\rho_0$ . Therefore  $N(k_2\theta-R_2)$  and  $N(k\theta-R)<\frac{1}{2}\rho_0$ . It follows that

$$R = (I(k\zeta), I(k\zeta^2)), R_2 = (I(k_2\zeta), I(k_2\zeta^2)).$$

We have  $I(k\zeta) \leq I(k_2\zeta)$  for  $k \leq k_2$ . Using the matrix B we see that R = (q, .) and  $R_2 = (q_2, .)$ . This shows  $q \leq q_2$  and  $q = q_2$ , which implies  $q\theta - P = q_2\theta - P_2$  and  $k\theta - R = k_2\theta - R_2$ .

The increasing sequence of all best approximations of  $\theta$  will be denoted by  $(q_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$   $(q_0=1)$ .

**Proposition 6.** If  $q_{n_0}\theta - P_{n_0}, \ldots, q_{n_0+m}\theta - P_{n_0+m}$  are (consecutive) best approximation vectors such that  $F(q_{n_0}\theta - P_{n_0}) = q_{n_0+m}\theta - P_{n_0+m}$  and  $N(q_{n_0+1}\theta - P_{n_0+1}) < \frac{1}{2}\rho_0$ , then for all  $j \geq 0$  and all  $k \in 0, \ldots, m-1$ ,

$$q_{n_0+jm+k}\theta - P_{n_0+jm+k} = F^j(q_{n_0+k}\theta - P_{n_0+k}).$$

Proof. Put  $V_n = q_n \theta - P_n$ . The previous lemma shows that  $F(V_{n_0+k})$ ,  $k = 0, \ldots, m$ , are consecutive best approximation vectors. By induction on  $j \geq 0$ , we see that  $F^j(V_{n_0+k}) = V_{n_0+jm+k}$ ,  $k = 0, \ldots, m$  are consecutive best approximation vectors and  $F(V_{n_0+jm}) = V_{n_0+(j+1)m}$ .

**Proof of Proposition 1.** Since  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \min_{P\in\mathbb{Z}^2} N(q_n\theta - P) = 0$ , there exists an integer  $n_0$  such that for each  $n \geq n_0$ ,  $N(q_n\theta - P_n) < \frac{1}{2}\rho_0$ . By Lemma 4, 1),  $F(q_{n_0}\theta - P_{n_0})$  is a best approximation vector and Proposition 1 follows of Proposition 6.

#### 4. Proof of Proposition 2

**Lemma 7.** Let  $P \in \mathbb{Q}$  be an irreducible polynomial of degree 3 with a unique real root  $\alpha$  and  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ . There exist infinitely many  $\lambda \in K$  such that

- i)  $\lambda > 1$
- ii)  $\lambda$  is a root of  $Q(x) = x^3 a_1x^2 a_2x 1$
- iii)  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } 3a_1 \geq a_2^2$ .

*Proof.* Since P has a unique real root, Dirichlet's theorem shows that the group of unit of the integral ring of K contains an abelian free sub-group G of rank 1. Let  $\xi \neq 1$  be in G. We can suppose  $\xi > 1$  and the norm  $N_K(\xi) = 1$ . The conjugates of  $\xi$  are not real because those of  $\alpha$  are not. Call  $\gamma$  and  $\overline{\gamma}$  these conjugates. We have  $\xi \gamma \overline{\gamma} = 1$  and  $|\gamma| < 1$  since the norm of  $\xi$  is 1 and  $\xi > 1$ . We will show that  $\lambda = \xi^m$  satisfy i), ii) and iii) for infinitely many  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ .

The minimal polynomial of  $\lambda$  is  $Q(x) = x^3 - a_1x^2 - a_2x - 1$  with

$$a_1 = a_1(m) = \xi^m + \gamma^m + \overline{\gamma}^m$$
  
 $a_2 = a_2(m) = -[\xi^m(\gamma^m + \overline{\gamma}^m) + |\gamma|^{2m}]$ 

Since  $\xi > 1 > |\gamma|$ ,  $a_1$  is positive for m large and  $a_2$  will be positive if the argument of  $\gamma$  is well chosen. Call  $\alpha$  the argument of  $\gamma$  and  $\rho = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\xi}}$  its modulus.

First case.  $\frac{\alpha}{2\pi} \notin \mathbb{Q}$ .

There exist infinitely many  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $m\alpha \in \left[\frac{2\pi}{3}, \frac{4\pi}{5}\right] \mod 2\pi$ . Call I the set of such m. For  $m \in I$ 

$$\begin{array}{lcl} a_1(m) & = & \xi^m + \frac{2}{\xi^{\frac{m}{2}}} \cos m\alpha \\ \\ a_2(m) & = & -2\xi^{\frac{m}{2}} \cos m\alpha - \frac{1}{\xi^m} \ge -2\xi^{\frac{m}{2}} \cos \frac{2\pi}{3} - \frac{1}{\xi^m} \end{array}$$

then

$$\lim_{m\to\infty, m\in I} a_1(m) = \lim_{m\to\infty, m\in I} a_2(m) = +\infty.$$

Moreover,

$$a_2(m) \le -2\xi^{\frac{m}{2}}\cos\frac{4\pi}{5} - \frac{1}{\xi^m}$$

then

$$\liminf_{m \to \infty, \ m \in I} \frac{a_1(m)}{a_2^2(m)} \ge \frac{1}{4\cos^2\frac{4\pi}{5}} > \frac{1}{3}.$$

Therefore the conditions i), ii) and iii) are satisfied for large m in I.

Second case.  $\frac{\alpha}{2\pi} = \frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

Since  $\gamma \notin \mathbb{R}$ , q > 2. First note that  $q \neq 4$  for, if q = 4, we have

$$0 = \operatorname{Re}(\gamma^3 - a_1 \gamma^2 - a_2 \gamma - 1) = a_1 \rho^2 - 1 0 = \operatorname{Im}(\gamma^3 - a_1 \gamma^2 - a_2 \gamma - 1) = \pm \rho(\rho^2 + a_2)$$

so  $a_1=-a_2=\rho=1$  and  $\gamma=\pm i$ . This is impossible because the degree of the minimal polynomial of  $\gamma$  is 3. So  $q\in\{3\}\cup\{5,6,\dots\}$ . If q=3,5 or 6, it is easy to see that there exist infinitely many  $m\in\mathbb{N}$  such that  $m\alpha\in\left[\frac{4\pi}{5}-\frac{2\pi}{7},\frac{4\pi}{5}\right]\mod 2\pi$  while a similar conclusion is obvious if  $q\geq 7$ . Now, we can conclude as in the previous case for  $\frac{4\pi}{5}-\frac{2\pi}{7}>\frac{\pi}{2}$ .

From now on,  $a_1, a_2 \ge 1$  are two integers such that  $P(x) = -1 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + x^3$  has a unique real root  $\zeta$ . We use the notations of Sections 2 and 3, the norm N as defined in Section 2 and  $\rho_0$  as defined at the beginning of Section 3.

#### Lemma 8.

$$\rho_0^2 \ge \frac{4a_1 - a_2^2 + 2a_2\zeta + 3\zeta^2}{2(a_1 + \zeta^2)}$$

*Proof.* By definition

$$\rho_0^2 \geq \min(\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}} N^2(e_1 + xe_2), \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}} N^2(e_2 + xe_1)).$$

We have

$$N^{2}(e_{1}+xe_{2})=\langle e_{1},e_{1}\rangle+2x\langle e_{1},e_{2}\rangle+x^{2}\langle e_{2},e_{2}\rangle$$

then

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}} N^2(e_1 + xe_2) = \langle e_1, e_1 \rangle - \frac{\langle e_1, e_2 \rangle^2}{\langle e_2, e_2 \rangle} = \frac{4(a_1 + \zeta^2) - (a_2 - \zeta)^2}{2}$$

similarly

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}} N^2(e_2 + xe_1) = \langle e_2, e_2 \rangle - \frac{\langle e_1, e_2 \rangle^2}{\langle e_1, e_1 \rangle} = \frac{4(a_1 + \zeta^2) - (a_2 - \zeta)^2}{2(a_1 + \zeta^2)},$$

and since  $a_1 \geq 1$ ,

$$\rho_0^2 \geq \frac{4a_1 - a_2^2 + 2a_2\zeta + 3\zeta^2}{2(a_1 + \zeta^2)}.$$

**Lemma 9.** Suppose  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  satisfy condition iii) of Lemma 7. For  $a_1$  sufficiently large,  $N(\theta) \leq \frac{1}{2}\rho_0$  and  $\theta$  is a best approximation vector of  $\theta$ .

*Proof.* Put 
$$\phi(a_1, a_2) = \frac{4a_1 - a_2^2 + 2a_2\zeta + 3\zeta^2}{2(a_1 + \zeta^2)}$$
. We have

 $\lim_{a_1\to\infty}\zeta(a_1,a_2)=0$ 

whereby

$$\lim_{\substack{a_1\to\infty\\3a_1\geq a_2^2}}\phi(a_1,a_2)\geq \frac{1}{2}$$

and so

$$N^2(\theta) = N^2(F(e_2)) = 2\zeta < \frac{1}{4}\phi(a_1, a_2) \le \frac{1}{4}\rho_0^2$$

for  $a_1$  sufficiently large. Now if  $P \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}$ , then  $N(\theta - P) \geq N(P) - N(\theta) \geq \frac{1}{2}\rho_0$ .

**Lemma 10.** If  $q \in \{0, ..., a_1 - 1\}$  then  $N(q\theta - e_1) > N(\theta)$ .

Proof.

$$N^2(q\theta - e_1) > N^2(\theta)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (a^2 - 1)\langle \theta, \theta \rangle - 2a\langle \theta, e_1 \rangle + \langle e_1, e_1 \rangle > 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (q^2 - 1)\langle F(e_2), F(e_2) \rangle - 2q[2(a_1 + \zeta^2)\zeta + (a_2 - \zeta)\zeta^2] + 2(a_1 + \zeta^2) > 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 2(q^2 - 1)\zeta - 2q(a_1\zeta + 1) + 2(a_1 + \zeta^2) > 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow a_1 - q + (q^2 - 1 - a_1 q)\zeta + \zeta^2 > 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (a_1 - q)(a_1\zeta + a_2\zeta^2 + \zeta^3) + (q^2 - 1 - a_1q)\zeta + \zeta^2 > 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow q^2 + a_1^2 - 2a_1q - 1 + a_2(a_1 - q)\zeta + (a_1 - q)\zeta^2 > 0.$$

**Lemma 11.** Suppose  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  satisfy condition iii) of Lemma 7. For  $a_1$  sufficiently large,  $\theta$  and  $a_1\theta - e_1$  are the first two best approximation vectors.

*Proof.* Since  $a_1\theta - e_1 = F(\theta)$ , the only thing to prove is

$$\inf_{q \in \{2,...,a_1-1\}} \inf_{P \in \mathbb{Z}^2} N(q\theta - P) > N(\theta).$$

If  $N(q\theta - P) \leq \frac{1}{2}\rho_0$ , then by definition of  $\rho_0$ 

$$|q\zeta - p_1| \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|q\zeta^2 - p_2| \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

where  $P = (p_1, p_2)$ . Furthermore, if  $q < a_1$  and if  $a_1$  is large, then  $q\zeta \le 1$  and  $q\zeta^2 \le \frac{1}{2}$ . Therefore,

$$\inf_{P \in \mathbb{Z}^2} N(q\theta - P) = \inf(N(q\theta), N(q\theta - e_1))$$

$$\geq \inf(qN(\theta), N(q\theta - e_1)) > N(\theta)$$

for 
$$q \in \{2, \ldots, a_1 - 1\}$$
.

End of proof of Proposition 2. By Lemma 7 there exists a unit  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  which satisfies conditions i), ii) and iii) with  $a_1$  large.  $\zeta = \frac{1}{\lambda}$  is also unit. By Lemma 9,  $\theta = (\zeta, \zeta^2)$  is a best approximation vector and by Lemma 11,  $F(\theta) = a_1\theta - e_1$  is the next best approximation vector. Since  $N(a_1\theta - e_1) < N(\theta) < \frac{1}{2}\rho_0$ , by Proposition 6 we have  $\mathcal{M}(\theta) = \{F^n(\theta) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ .

5. The equations 
$$1 = x^3 + a_2x^2 + x$$

The polynomial  $P(x) = x^3 + a_2x^2 + x - 1$  has only one real root if  $a_2 = 1$  or 2.

- **5.1.**  $a_2 = 1$ . Call  $\zeta$  the positive root of  $1 = x^3 + x^2 + x$  and  $\theta = (\zeta, \zeta^2)$ . N. Chekhova, P. Hubert, A. Messaoudi have proved that  $\mathcal{M}(\theta) = \{F^n(\theta e_1) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . If we want to recover this result with Proposition 6, we just have to show:
- i)  $\theta e_1$  is a best approximation vector,
- ii)  $F(\theta e_1)$  is the next best approximation vector,
- iii)  $N(F(\theta-e_1))<\frac{1}{2}\rho_0.$

First note that  $F(\theta - e_1) = 2\theta - e_1 - e_2$  and  $N(F(\theta - e_1)) = \zeta N(\theta - e_1) < N(\theta - e_1)$ , so if i) is true then 2 is the next best approximation and if iii) is also true, then  $2\theta - e_1 - e_2$  is a best approximation vector. Let us now prove iii) and afterward i):

$$N^2(F(\theta - e_1)) = N^2(F^3(e_2)) = 2\zeta^3 < \frac{3 + 2\zeta + 3\zeta^2}{8(1 + \zeta^2)} \le \frac{1}{4}\rho_0^2$$

for

$$2\zeta^{3} < \frac{3 + 2\zeta + 3\zeta^{2}}{8(1 + \zeta^{2})}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 3 + 2\zeta + 3\zeta^{2} - 16\zeta^{3}(1 + \zeta^{2}) > 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 3(\zeta + \zeta^{2} + \zeta^{3}) + 2\zeta + 3\zeta^{2} - 16\zeta^{3}(1 + \zeta^{2}) > 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 5 + 6\zeta - 13\zeta^{2} - 16\zeta^{4} > 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 11 - 8\zeta + 5\zeta^{2} - 16\zeta^{3} > 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 3 + 16\zeta - 5\zeta^{2} > 0$$

and the last inequality is obvious. Since  $\zeta > \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $2\zeta^3 < \frac{1}{4}\rho_0^2 \Rightarrow N^2(\theta - e_1) = 2\zeta^2 < \frac{1}{2}\rho_0^2 \leq \rho_0^2$ . Then the point  $P = (p_1, p_2) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  which is the nearest to  $\theta$ , is one of (0,0),  $e_1$ ,  $e_2$  or  $e_1 + e_2$ . We have

$$N^2(\theta - e_1) = \zeta N^2(\theta) < N^2(\theta)$$

and

$$\begin{split} N^2(\theta - e_2) &= N^2(\theta) - 2\langle \theta, e_2 \rangle + 2 = 2\zeta - 2\zeta(1 - \zeta) - 4\zeta^2 + 2 \\ &= 2(1 - \zeta^2) > 2\zeta^2 = N(\theta - e_1), \\ N^2(\theta - e_1 - e_2) &= N^2(\theta - e_1) - 2\langle \theta - e_1, e_2 \rangle + 2 \\ &= 2\zeta^2 - 2\zeta(1 - \zeta) - 4\zeta^2 + 2\langle e_1, e_2 \rangle + 2 \\ &= \zeta^2 - 2\zeta(1 - \zeta) - 4\zeta^2 + 2(1 - \zeta) + 2 = 4 - 4\zeta > 2\zeta^2, \end{split}$$

so P must be  $e_1$  and this completes the proof of i).

**5.2.**  $a_2 = 2$ . Call  $\zeta$  the positive root of  $1 = x^3 + 2x^2 + x$  and  $\theta = (\zeta, \zeta^2)$ . The set of all best approximations is given by two initial points

$$\mathcal{M}(\theta) = \{B^n X_i : n \in \mathbb{N}, \ i = 1, 2\}$$

where  $X_1 = \theta$  and  $X_2 = 2\theta - e_1$ . To prove this result, by Proposition 6, we have to check the following properties:

- i)  $\theta e_1$  is the best approximation vector,
- ii)  $2\theta e_1$  is the next best approximation vector,
- iii)  $F(\theta e_1) = 3\theta e_1$ ,  $F(2\theta e_1) = 4\theta 2e_1 e_2$ ,
- iv)  $N(3\theta e_1) < \frac{1}{2}\rho_0$ .

This requires some tedious calculations very similar to the case  $a_2 = 1$ .

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