



MATHEMATICS

THE NUMERICAL EFFICIENCY OF CERTAIN CONTINUED
FRACTION EXPANSIONS¹⁾. IA

BY

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The author has recently conducted investigations into the numerical efficiency of certain continued fraction expansions for the purpose of computing a prescribed function of a real variable. He proposes in the near future to extend the investigation into the complex domain. The purpose of this note is to place on record the results of the investigations so far.

It is in order first briefly to recapitulate methods for deriving continued fractions which are likely to be of use for computational purposes. These are as follows:

1. GAUSS' METHOD ([1] CH. XVIII)

It is assumed that functions A_n, B_n, \dots, P_n satisfy p linear recursions of the form

$$(1) \quad -a_n A_n + b_n A_{n+1} + c_n B_n = 0$$

$$(2) \quad -A_{n+1} + d_n B_n + e_n C_n = 0$$

$$(3) \quad -B_n + f_n C_n + g_n D_n = 0$$

.....

$$(4) \quad -O_n + x_n P_n + y_n A_{n+1} = 0$$

$$(5) \quad -P_n + z_n A_{n+1} + A_{n+2} = 0$$

where a_n, b_n, \dots, z_n are functions of n . Equation (1) gives

$$(6) \quad \frac{A_{n+1}}{A_n} = \frac{a_n}{b_n + c_n \frac{B_n}{A_{n+1}}}$$

equation (2) gives

$$(7) \quad \frac{B_n}{A_{n+1}} = \frac{1}{d_n + e_n \frac{C_n}{B_n}}$$

and finally one obtains

$$(8) \quad \frac{A_{n+1}}{A_n} = \frac{a_n}{b_n + \frac{c_n}{d_n + \frac{e_n}{z_n + \frac{A_{n+2}}{A_{n+1}}}}}$$

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Successive use of equation (8) with $n=0, 1, \dots$ gives

$$(9) \quad \frac{A_1}{A_0} = \frac{a_0}{b_0 + d_0} \frac{c_0}{z_0 + b_1 + d_1} \dots \frac{y_0}{z_0 + b_1 + d_1} \frac{a_1}{b_1 + d_1} \frac{c_1}{b_n + d_n} \dots \frac{a_n}{b_n + d_n} \frac{c_n}{z_n + b_{n+1} + d_{n+1}} \dots$$

2. APPLICATION OF THE $q-d$ ALGORITHM

If the continued fraction

$$(10) \quad F(x) = \frac{c_0}{1-} \frac{q_1^{(0)} x}{1-} \frac{e_1^{(0)} x}{1-} \dots \frac{q_r^{(0)} x}{1-} \frac{e_r^{(0)} x}{1-} \dots$$

equivalent to the power series

$$(11) \quad F(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \dots$$

is characterised by imposing the condition that the x power series expansion of the r th convergent of (10) should agree with the power series (11) at least as far as the term in x^{2r-1} then it may be shown [2] that the coefficients in (10) may be derived by constructing quantities $q_r^{(m)}$, $e_r^{(m)}$ by means of the relations

$$(12) \quad q_r^{(m)} + e_r^{(m)} = q_r^{(m+1)} + e_{r-1}^{(m+1)}, \quad q_r^{(m)} e_{r-1}^{(m)} = q_{r-1}^{(m+1)} e_{r-1}^{(m+1)}$$

from the initial conditions

$$(13) \quad e_0^{(m)} = 0 \quad q_1^{(m)} = c_{m+1}/c_m.$$

Continued fractions equivalent to (10) are

$$(14) \quad z^{-1} F(z^{-1}) = \frac{c_0}{z-} \frac{q_1^{(0)}}{1-} \frac{e_1^{(0)}}{z-} \dots \frac{q_r^{(0)}}{1-} \frac{e_r^{(0)}}{z-} \dots$$

and the even part of (14)

$$(15) \quad z^{-1} F(z^{-1}) = \frac{c_0}{z - q_1^{(0)}} \frac{e_1^{(0)} q_1^{(0)}}{z - q_2^{(0)} - e_1^{(0)}} \dots \frac{e_r^{(0)} q_r^{(0)}}{z - q_{r+1}^{(0)} - e_r^{(0)}} \dots$$

This method is formally equivalent to a number of others. A discussion of these is contained in reference [3].

3. EULER'S METHOD [4] [5]

This method yields a continued fraction expansion for the quotient y/y' (the dash denotes differentiation with respect to x) where y satisfies a homogeneous linear differential equation of the second order

$$(16) \quad y = Q_0 y' + P_1 y''.$$

Successive differentiation of equation (16) yields the system of equations

$$(17) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} y^{(v)} = Q_v y^{(v+1)} + P_{v+1} y^{(v+2)} \\ Q_v = \frac{Q_{v-1} + P_v'}{1 - Q'_{v-1}}, \quad P_{v+1} = \frac{P_v}{1 - Q'_{v-1}}. \end{array} \right.$$

from the initial members

$$(28) \quad E_0(t) = 0, \quad Q_1(t) = \phi'(t)/\phi(t)$$

then the coefficients in (24) are given by

$$(29) \quad \alpha_{r-1} = Q_r(a), \quad \beta_{r-1} = E_r(a).$$

5. USE OF RECIPROCAL DIFFERENCES

A continued fraction expansion is derived from a number of argument-function value pairs. The numerical efficiency of continued fractions of this type has not been examined.

NUMERICAL EFFICIENCY TABLES

The numerical efficiency of a particular continued fraction expansion will be displayed in the following manner. The least value of n is computed for which the relation

$$(30) \quad \left| \frac{C - C_n}{C} \right| \leq \epsilon$$

obtains, where

$$(31) \quad C_n = b_0 + \frac{a_1}{b_1 +} \frac{a_2}{b_2 +} \cdots \frac{a_n}{b_n}$$

is the n th convergent of the continued fraction

$$(32) \quad C = b_0 + \frac{a_1}{b_1 +} \frac{a_2}{b_2 +} \cdots \frac{a_n}{b_n +} \cdots$$

and ϵ is a preassigned relative error. The coefficients a_s, b_s in (32) are functions of a variable x or z , as is C . ϵ is made to take the values $\epsilon = 1/2 \cdot 10^{-h}$ $h = 1, 2, \dots$ and the determination of n is conducted for a number of values of the argument. Each set of results is displayed in a table as follows

TABLE I

h	1	2	...
x, z			
x_1, z_1	$n_{1,1}$	$n_{1,2}$...
x_2, z_2	$n_{2,1}$	$n_{2,2}$...
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	
x_p, z_p	$n_{p,1}$	$n_{p,2}$...

The functions dealt with group themselves under seven headings: the results of this note will be correspondingly presented.

a) *Continued Fractions Associated with Bessel Functions*

The function

$$(33) \quad {}_0F_1(c; x) = 1 + \frac{x}{1!c} + \frac{x^2}{2!c(c+1)} + \cdots \frac{x^r}{r!c(c+1)\cdots(c+r-1)} + \cdots$$

satisfies the recursion

$$(34) \quad c(c+1) {}_0F_1(c; x) - c(c+1) {}_0F_1(c+1; x) - x {}_0F_1(c+2; x) = 0$$

and the differential equation

$$(35) \quad xy'' - cy' - y = 0$$

from which, cf. 1) and noting that $\{ {}_0F_1(c; x) \}' = c^{-1} {}_0F_1(c+1; x)$, follows the continued fraction expansion

$$(36) \quad \frac{{}_0F_1(c+1; x)}{{}_0F_1(c; x)} = \frac{c}{c+} \frac{x}{c+1+} \cdots \frac{x}{c+r+} \cdots$$

Noting the relation

$$(37) \quad J_n(x) = \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^n \{ \Gamma(n+1) \}^{-1} {}_0F_1\left(n+1; -\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2\right)$$

there follows immediately [8]

$$(38) \quad \frac{J_n(x)}{J_{n-1}(x)} = \frac{x/2}{n-} \frac{(x/2)^2}{n+1-} \cdots \frac{(x/2)^2}{n+r-1-} \cdots$$

and from

$$(39) \quad I_n(x) = \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^n \{ \Gamma(n+1) \}^{-1} {}_0F_1\left(n+1; \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2\right)$$

there follows

$$(40) \quad \frac{I_n(x)}{I_{n-1}(x)} = \frac{x/2}{n+} \frac{(x/2)^2}{n+1+} \cdots \frac{(x/2)^2}{n+r-1+} \cdots$$

The numerical efficiency of expansion (38), within $n=1$, is indicated in Table II, whilst that of expansion (40), again with $n=1$, is indicated in Table III.

TABLE II

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0.25		1	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	4	5
0.50		1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5	5	6
1.00		2	3	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	7	7
2.00		3	4	5	6	6	7	7	8	8	9	10
4.00		6	7	8	9	10	10	11	12	12	13	13
8.00		10	12	13	14	15	16	16	17	18	19	20

TABLE III

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0.25		1	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	4		
0.50		1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5		
1.00		2	2	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	6	
2.00		2	3	4	5	5	6	7	7	8	8	
4.00		4	5	6	7	7	8	9	10	10	11	12
8.00		5	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16

Writing $n=1/2$ in (38) there follows the well known expansion

$$(41) \quad \tan(x) = \frac{x}{1-} \frac{x^2}{3-} \frac{x^2}{7-} \dots$$

the numerical efficiency of which is illustrated in Table IV.

TABLE IV

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0.25		1	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	4	5
0.50		2	2	3	3	4	4	4	5	5	6
1.00		2	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	7	7
2.00		4	5	5	6	7	7	8	8	9	9
4.00		6	7	8	9	10	10	11	12	12	13
8.00		11	13	14	15	16	16	17	18	19	20

b) *Continued Fractions Associated with the Hypergeometric Function*

The hypergeometric function

$$(42) \quad {}_2F_1(a, b; c; x) = 1 + \frac{abx}{1!c} + \frac{a(a+1)b(b+1)x^2}{2!c(c+1)} + \dots$$

satisfies the recursions

$$(43) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} c(c+1) {}_2F_1(a, b; c; x) - c(c+1) {}_2F_1(a, b+1; c+1; x) + \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad + a(c-b)x {}_2F_1(a+1, b+1; c+2; x) = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

and

$$(44) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (c+1)(c+2) {}_2F_1(a, b+1; c+1; x) - \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad - (c+1)(c+2) {}_2F_1(a+1, b+1; c+2; x) + \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad + (b+1)(c-a+1)x {}_2F_1(a+1, b+2; c+3; x) = 0. \end{array} \right.$$

These yield (cf. 1)) the continued fraction

$$(45) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{{}_2F_1(a, b+1; c+1; x)}{{}_2F_1(a, b; c; x)} = \frac{c}{c-} \frac{a(c-b)x}{c+1-} \frac{(b+1)(c-a+1)x}{c+2-} \dots \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad \dots \frac{(a+r-1)(c-b+r-1)x}{c+2r-1-} \frac{(b+r)(c-a+r)x}{c+2r-} \dots \end{array} \right.$$

Writing $a=1/2$, $b=-1/2$, $c=1/2$ and replacing x by x^2 , (45) becomes

$$(46) \quad \frac{\arcsin(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \frac{x}{1-} \frac{1.2x^2}{3-} \frac{1.2x^2}{5-} \frac{3.4x^2}{7-} \frac{3.4x^2}{9-} \dots \frac{r(r-1)x^2}{2r-1-} \frac{r(r-1)x^2}{2r+1-} \dots$$

the numerical efficiency of which is illustrated in Table V:

TABLE V

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0.2	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	6	6
0.4	2	2	3	4	5	5	6	7	8	8	9	9	9
0.6	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	12	13	13	13
0.8	3	5	6	7	10	11	13	15	16	18	19	19	19

When $b=0$ (45) gives the continued fraction expansion

$$(47) \left\{ \begin{aligned} {}_2F_1(a, 1; c; x) &= 1 + \frac{a}{c}x + \frac{a(a+1)}{c(c+1)}x^2 + \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{1-c} \frac{ax}{c-} \frac{1(c-a)x}{c+1-} \frac{(a+1)cx}{c+2-} \dots \\ &\dots \frac{r(c-a+r-1)x}{c+2r-1-} \frac{(a+r)(c+r-1)x}{c+2r-} \dots \end{aligned} \right.$$

of the incomplete Beta Function.

When $a=1, c=2$, (47) gives

$$(48) \quad \log(1+x) = \frac{x}{1+} \frac{1^2x}{2+} \frac{1^2x}{3+} \frac{2^2x}{4+} \frac{2^2x}{5+} \dots \frac{r^2x}{2r+} \frac{r^2x}{2r+1+} \dots$$

The numerical efficiency of this continued fraction is indicated in Table VI:

TABLE VI

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0.25	2	2	3	4	5	6	6	7	8	9	10	11	11
0.50	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	13
1.00	2	4	5	6	8	9	10	12	13	14	16	17	17
2.00	3	5	7	8	10	12	14	15	17	19	21	22	22
4.00	4	6	9	11	14	16	18	21	23	26	28	29	29
8.00	6	9	12	16	19	22	25	29	32	35	38	40	40

Writing $a=1/2, c=3/2$ and x^2 for x in (47) there follows

$$(49) \quad \text{arc tan}(x) = \frac{x}{1+} \frac{1x^2}{3+} \frac{4x^2}{5+} \dots \frac{(r-1)^2x^2}{2r-1+} \dots$$

the numerical efficiency of which is illustrated in Table VII:

TABLE VII

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0.25		1	2	2	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	7
0.50		2	2	3	4	5	6	6	7	8	9	10
1.00		2	4	5	6	8	9	10	12	13	14	16
2.00		4	7	8	11	14	16	19	21	23	26	28
4.00		8	12	17	22	26	31	36	40	45	50	54
8.00		15	24	34	43	52	61	71	80	89	99	105

When $a=1/2, c=3/2$, and x is replaced by $1/z$, (47) gives

$$(50) \quad \log\left(\frac{z+1}{z-1}\right) = \frac{2}{z-} \frac{1}{3z-} \frac{4}{5z-} \dots \frac{(r-1)^2}{(2r-1)z-} \dots$$

valid for z not lying upon the line -1 to $+1$ through zero. The numerical efficiency of expansion (50) is illustrated in Table VIII:

TABLE VIII

z	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
8.0	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	4	4	5	5	8
4.0	1	2	2	3	4	4	4	5	5	6	6	6	7
2.0	2	3	4	4	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	11

The hypergeometric function also satisfies the differential equation

$$(51) \quad x(1-x)y'' + \{c - (a+b+1)x\}y' - aby = 0$$

which thereby yields the continued fraction

$$(52) \quad \frac{ab}{c - (a+b+1)x} \frac{(a+1)(b+1)x(1-x)}{c+1 - (a+b+3)x} \cdots \frac{(a+r)(b+r)x(1-x)}{c+r - (a+b+2r+1)x} \cdots$$

This continued fraction converges [9] to

$$(53) \quad \left\{ \begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \log \{ {}_2F_1(a, b; c; x) \} &= \frac{ab}{c} \frac{{}_2F_1(a+1, b+1; c+1; x)}{{}_2F_1(a, b; c; x)} \\ &\text{when } \operatorname{Re}(x) < 1/2 \text{ or } x = 1/2 \end{aligned} \right.$$

and to

$$(54) \quad \left\{ \begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \log \{ {}_2F_1(a, b; a+b-c+1; 1-x) \} &= \\ \frac{-ab}{(a+b-c+1)} \frac{{}_2F_1(a+1, b+1; a+b-c+2; 1-x)}{{}_2F_1(a, b; a+b-c+1; 1-x)} &\text{when } \operatorname{Re}(x) > 1/2. \end{aligned} \right.$$

It diverges, except at the point $x=1/2$ upon the line $\operatorname{Re}(x)=1/2$.

Writing $a=b=0$, $c=1$ and $-x$ for x , it follows that

$$(55) \quad \frac{x}{1+x} \frac{1^2 x(1+x)}{2+3x} \cdots \frac{r^2 x(1+x)}{r+1+(2r+1)x} \cdots$$

converges to $\log(1+x)$ for $\operatorname{Re}(x) > -1/2$ or $x = -1/2$. The numerical efficiency of this continued fraction is indicated in Table IX

TABLE IX

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0.25	2	3	4	6	7	8	10	11	12	14	15	16	
0.50	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	28	
1.00	3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30	33	35	
2.00	5	9	14	19	24	29	35	40	45	51			
4.00	7	15	24	33	42	52	61	71	81	99			
8.00	12	27	43	60	77	95	113	132	150	170			

c) *Continued Fractions Associated with the Confluent Hypergeometric Function*

The confluent hypergeometric function

$$(56) \quad {}_1F_1(a; c; x) = 1 + \frac{ax}{1!c} + \frac{a(a+1)x^2}{2!c(c+1)} + \dots + \frac{a(a+1)\dots(a+r-1)x^r}{r!c(c+1)\dots(c+r-1)} + \dots$$

satisfies the recursions

$$(57) \quad c(c+1) {}_1F_1(a; c; x) - c(c+1) {}_1F_1(a; c; x) + x(c-a) {}_1F_1(a+1; c+2; x) = 0$$

and

$$(58) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (c+1)(c+2) {}_1F_1(a+1; c+1; x) - (c+1)(c+2) {}_1F_1(a+1; c+2; x) \\ - (a+1)x {}_1F_1(a+2; c+3; x) = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

which may be used (cf. 1)) to derive the continued fraction

$$(59) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{{}_1F_1(a+1; c+1; x)}{{}_1F_1(a; c; x)} = \frac{c}{c-} \frac{(c-a)x}{c+1+} \frac{(a+1)x}{c+2-} \dots \\ \frac{(c-a+r-1)x}{c+2r-1+} \frac{(a+r)x}{c+2r-} \dots \end{array} \right.$$

When $a=0$ (59) gives the expansion

$$(60) \quad {}_1F_1(1; c+1; x) = \frac{1}{1-} \frac{x}{c+1+} \frac{1.x}{c+2-} \dots \frac{(c+r)x}{c+2r+1-} \frac{(r+1)x}{c+2r+2-} \dots$$

When $c=0$ (60) gives in turn

$$(61) \quad \exp(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{1-} \frac{x}{2+} \frac{x}{3-} \dots \frac{rx}{2r+} \frac{rx}{2r+1+} \dots$$

The numerical efficiency of expansion (61) is indicated in Table X

TABLE X

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0.25	1	2	3	4	4	5	5	6	7	7	8	8	
0.50	2	3	4	4	5	6	7	7	8	9	9	10	
1.00	3	4	5	6	7	8	8	9	10	11	11	13	
2.00	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	15	
4.00	7	9	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	19	19		
8.00	13	15	17	19	20	21	23	24	25	26	27	29	

The numerical efficiency of the continued fraction [10],

$$(62) \quad \exp(x) = 1 + \frac{2x}{2-x+} \frac{x^2}{6+} \frac{x^2}{10+} \frac{x^2}{14+} \dots$$

which is the odd part of (61) may be obtained by replacing each entry s by $[(s+1)/2]$. The expansions (63) and (64) below may be contracted in a similar way.

When $c=1/2$ and x is replaced by x^2 in (60) there follows

$$(63) \quad x^{-1} e^{x^2} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt = \frac{1}{1-} \frac{2x^2}{3+} \frac{4x^2}{5-} \cdots \frac{(4r-2)x^2}{4r-1+} \frac{4rx^2}{4r+1-} \cdots$$

The numerical efficiency of this continued fraction is indicated in Table XI:

TABLE XI

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0.25	1	2	3	3	4	4	5	5	5	6	6	6	7
0.50	2	3	3	4	5	5	6	7	7	8	8		
1.00	3	5	6	6	7	8	9	10	11	11	12	12	
2.00	8	10	11	12	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
4.00	27	29	30	31	33	35	36	38					

Writing $-x^2$ for x^2 in (63) there follows

$$(64) \quad x^{-1} e^{-x^2} \int_0^x e^{t^2} dt = \frac{1}{1+} \frac{2x^2}{3-} \frac{4x^2}{5+} \cdots \frac{(4r-2)x^2}{4r-1-} \frac{4rx^2}{4r+1+} \cdots$$

The numerical efficiency of this continued fraction is indicated in Table XII:

TABLE XII

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0.25		1	2	3	3	4	4	5	5	5		
0.50		2	3	3	4	5	5	6	7	7	8	8
1.00		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	10	11	
2.00		6	8	9	11	12	13	14	16	17		
4.00		12	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30		
8.00		26	32	36	40	44	48	50	54	56	59	

The confluent hypergeometric function also satisfies the differential equation

$$(65) \quad xy'' + (c-x)y' - ay = 0$$

and since

$$\frac{d}{dx} {}_1F_1(a; c; x) = \frac{a}{c} {}_1F_1(a+1; c+1; x)$$

the continued fraction of the form (18) is

$$(66) \quad \frac{{}_1F_1(a+1; c+1; x)}{{}_1F_1(a; c; x)} = \frac{c}{c-x+} \frac{(a+1)x}{c+1-x+} \frac{(a+2)x}{c+2-x+} \cdots$$

A special case of (66) is the expansion

$$(67) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \operatorname{erf}(x) = \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt = \\ xe^{-x^2} \left\{ \frac{1}{1-2x^2+} \frac{4x^2}{3-2x^2+} \frac{8x^2}{5-2x^2+} \cdots \frac{4(r-1)x^2}{2r-1-2x^2+} \cdots \right\} \end{array} \right.$$

the numerical efficiency of which is indicated in Table XIII:

TABLE XIII

x	h	1	2	3	4	6	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0.25	2	2	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	7	7	8	
0.50	3	4	4	5	6	7	7	8	9	9	10	10	
1.00	5	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	15		
2.00	16	18	19	21	22	24	25	26	27	28	30		

Replacing x^2 by $-x^2$ in (67), there follows

$$(68) \quad x^{-1} e^{-x^2} \int_0^x e^{t^2} dt = \frac{1}{1+2x^2} - \frac{4x^2}{3+2x^2} \cdots \frac{4(r-1)x^2}{2r-1+2x^2} \cdots$$

The numerical efficiency of this continued fraction is illustrated in Table XIV from which it may be seen that the continued fraction (68) is unique among this collection of expansions in that there are two points ($x=0$ and $x=\infty$) near which it is rapidly convergent.

TABLE XIV

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0.25		2	2	3	4	4	5	5	6	6		
0.50		2	3	4	5	6	6	7	8	8	9	10
1.00		4	5	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	13	
2.00		4	8	11	13	15	17	18	20	21	22	
4.00		2	3	4	6	10	18	25	29	32		
8.00		1	2	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	8	

THE NUMERICAL EFFICIENCY OF CERTAIN CONTINUED FRACTION EXPANSIONS. I_B

BY

P. WYNN

(Communicated by Prof. A. VAN WIJNGAARDEN at the meeting of September 30, 1961)

d) *Continued Fractions Associated with Certain Asymptotic Series*

The function associated with the asymptotic series

$$(69) \quad {}_2F_0(a, b; x) \sim 1 + \frac{abx}{1!} + \frac{a(a+1)b(b+1)x^2}{2!} + \dots$$

satisfies the recursions

$$(70) \quad {}_2F_0(a, b; x) - {}_2F_0(a, b+1; x) + ax {}_2F_0(a+1, b+1; x) = 0$$

and

$$(71) \quad {}_2F_0(a, b+1; x) - {}_2F_0(a+1, b+1; x) + (b+1)x {}_2F_0(a+1, b+2; x) = 0$$

which may be used to derive the continued fraction

$$(72) \quad \frac{{}_2F_0(a, b+1; x)}{{}_2F_0(a, b; x)} = \frac{1}{1-} \frac{ax}{1-} \frac{(b+1)x}{1-} \frac{(a+1)x}{1-} \frac{(b+2)x}{1-} \dots$$

Writing $x = -(z)^{-1}$, (72) becomes

$$(73) \quad \left\{ \begin{aligned} \frac{{}_2F_0(a, b+1; -(z)^{-1})}{{}_2F_0(a, b; -(z)^{-1})} &= \frac{1}{1+} \frac{a}{z+} \frac{(b+1)}{1+} \frac{(a+1)}{z+} \frac{(b+2)}{1+} \dots \\ &\dots \frac{(a+r-1)(b+r)}{z+} \frac{1}{1+} \dots \end{aligned} \right.$$

which, when $a=1, b=0$, in turn becomes

$$(74) \quad -ze^z Ei(-z) = \frac{1}{1+} \frac{1}{z+} \frac{1}{1+} \frac{2}{z+} \frac{2}{1+} \dots \frac{r}{z+} \frac{r}{1+} \dots$$

The numerical efficiency of expansion (74) is indicated in Table XV:

TABLE XV

z	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
8.00	2	3	4	6	7	9	11	13	16	18	21	22	
4.00	2	4	6	8	11	14	17	21	25	29	34	36	
2.00	3	6	9	13	18	23	28	35	42	50	58	65	
1.00	4	9	14	22	30	40	50	62	76	90	106	120	
0.50	6	14	24	38	54	72	92	116	142	170	198	214	
0.25	10	24	44	68	98	132	172	218	270	323	363	381	

Writing $a=1/2$ in (73), and effecting an equivalence transformation, there follows

$$(75) \quad e^{z^2} \int_z^\infty e^{-t^2} dt = \frac{1}{2z+} \frac{2}{2z+} \frac{4}{2z+} \cdots \frac{2(r-1)}{2z+} \cdots$$

the numerical efficiency of which is illustrated in Table XVI:

TABLE XVI

z	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0.25	32	80	149	238	350							
0.50	10	23	41	64	93	127	166	211	261	316	358	
1.00	4	8	13	19	27	36	47	58	72	86	98	
2.00	2	3	5	7	10	13	16	19	23	27	31	
4.00	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	10			
8.00	1	2	2	3	3	4	5					

Expansion (73) also yields

$$(76) \quad e^{-z^2} \int_0^z e^{t^2} dt \sim \frac{1}{2z-} \frac{2}{2z-} \frac{4}{2z-} \cdots \frac{2(r-1)}{2z-} \cdots$$

which, although easily shown to be divergent, has as Table XVII indicates, a certain asymptotic property, and may be used to compute Dawson's integral for large argument.

TABLE XVII

z	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
8.00	1	2	2	3	3	4	5	5	6	39	92	
4.00	1	2	3	4	6	9	10	43	318	318		
2.00	3	3	193	225								
1.00	11	44										
0.50	78	123										
0.25	19											

The even part of (73) is

$$(77) \quad \frac{{}_2F_0(a, b+1; -(z)^{-1})}{{}_2F_0(a, b; -(z)^{-1})} = \frac{z}{z+a-} \frac{a(b+1)}{z+(a+b+2)-} \frac{(a+1)(b+2)}{z+(a+b+4)-} \cdots$$

and that of (74) is

$$(78) \quad -ze^z Ei(-z) = \frac{1}{z+1-} \frac{1^2}{z+3-} \cdots \frac{r^2}{z+2r+1-} \cdots$$

The numerical efficiency of expansion (78) may be deduced from Table XV by replacing each entry s by $[(s+1)/2]$.

A further continued fraction expansion for the ratio of two functions of the form (69) may be derived by noting that the function ${}_2F_0(a, b; x)$ satisfies the differential equation

$$(79) \quad x^2 y'' + \{(a+b+1)x-1\}y' + aby = 0.$$

TABLE XXI

z	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
32.0		1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	5
16.0		1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	6	6
8.0		1	2	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	12
4.0		2	2	4	6	8	12	17	24	32	46	64

TABLE XXII

z	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
32.0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
16.0	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	4
8.0	0	1	1	1	2	2	3	4	4	5	6	6	6
4.0	0	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	10	12	12
2.0	1	2	3	4	6	9	12	17	23	32	40		
1.0	1	4	8	15	27	50	77						

g) *Continued Fractions Associated with Theta Functions*

The series

$$(91) \quad \phi_0(q, x) = 1 + qx + q^4x^2 + q^9x^3 + \dots$$

may be transformed by the method of 2) into the continued fraction

$$(92) \quad 1 + \frac{qx}{1-} \frac{q^3x}{1+} \frac{q^3(1-q^2)x}{1-} \frac{q^7x}{1+} \frac{q^5(1-q^4)x}{1-} \dots$$

For certain reasons, a full discussion of which is given in [14], it is in practice more suitable to use series of the type (91) for the computation of theta functions. Nevertheless results which indicate the numerical efficiency of (92) will be given, since at some future time it may happen that continued fractions whose coefficients approximate to those of (92), occur in practice. Accordingly the numerical efficiency of expansion (92) for the case is shown in Tables XXIII to XXVI:

TABLE XXIII

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0.25		0	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3
0.50		1	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	4
1.00		1	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	4	4
2.00		1	1	2	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4
4.00		1	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	5
8.00		1	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	5	5	5

TABLE XXIV

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0.25		1	1	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	4	5
0.50		1	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	5	5	5
1.00		1	2	3	3	3	4	4	5	5	5	5
2.00		2	3	3	3	4	4	5	5	5	5	6
4.00		2	3	3	4	5	5	5	5	6	6	7
8.00		3	3	4	5	5	5	5	6	7	7	7

TABLE XXV

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0.25		1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5	5	6
0.50		1	2	3	3	4	5	5	5	6	6	7
1.00		2	3	3	4	5	5	6	6	7	7	7
2.00		3	3	5	5	5	6	7	7	7	8	8
4.00		3	5	5	6	7	7	7	8	9	9	9
8.00		5	5	7	7	7	8	9	9	9	10	10

TABLE XXVI

x	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0.25		1	2	3	4	4	5	6	6	7	7	8
0.50		2	3	4	5	5	6	7	7	8	9	9
1.00		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	9	10	11	11
2.00		5	6	7	8	9	10	11	11	12	13	13
4.00		7	9	9	11	11	12	13	13	14	15	15
8.00		10	11	12	13	13	15	15	16	17	17	17

COMPARISON OF TWO TYPES OF CONTINUED FRACTION EXPANSION

It is clear (by comparison of Tables IV and V, VII and IX) that in most cases where differing continued fractions for the same function may be derived by application of the methods of 1) and 3), the numerical efficiency of that relating to 3) is inferior, though expansion (68) provides an interesting exception.

COMPARISON WITH POWER SERIES

In certain cases the numerical convergence of a continued fraction expansion is strikingly better than that of an equivalent power series; indeed a continued fraction may be used to define a certain function in the whole of an arbitrary bounded cut plane, whereas the equivalent power series defines the function only within a circle in the complex plane.

An explanation of this is as follows. If the function

$$(93) \quad f(x) \sim \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} c_s x^s$$

has a pole at the point $x = \rho e^{i\theta}$ and no other poles within the circle $|x| = \rho$,

then the numerical rate of convergence of the power series (91) for x within the circle $|x|=\rho$ is largely determined by the ratio $|x|/\rho$. The successive convergents of an equivalent continued fraction (determined, for example, as in 2)) are rational functions of x . The presence of the denominators in these rational expressions tends to remove the effect of the successive poles (simple or multiple) of $f(x)$. (For a more precise formulation of this idea in the context of the more general rational expressions of the Padé Table, reference should be made to a theorem of MONTESSUS DE BALLOIRE ([15], [1] Ch. XX, p. 412).) Where this reasoning is relevant, as in the case of $f(x)=\tan(x)$, the improvement in convergence is emphatic, where it is not, as in the case of $f(x)=\exp(x)$, the improvement is correspondingly not so marked.

COMPARISON WITH TSCHEBYSCHIEFF POLYNOMIAL APPROXIMATIONS

It is of interest to compare the numerical performance of Tschebyscheff polynomial approximations with that of continued fraction approximations of the type discussed in this paper. A general comparison is, of course, not possible, since Tschebyscheff polynomial approximations are designed to provide uniform accuracy upon a fixed contour, whilst continued fraction approximations of the type previously discussed, are in general valid over some domain in the complex plane but do not, as Tables II to XXVI indicate, provide uniformly good numerical approximation. Nevertheless some sort of comparison can be made by contrasting the numerical performance of the two methods upon the fixed contour upon which the Tschebyscheff polynomials approximation is valid, and using as a standard of the numerical performance of the continued fraction of which the rational approximation is a convergent, the slowest convergence over the range considered. Table XXVII indicates the degree n of the Tschebyscheff series approximation $\sum_{s=0}^n a_{n,s} x^s$ to the function $f(x)$ which is sufficient to ensure that the error

$$(92) \quad \left| f(x) - \sum_{s=0}^n a_{n,s} x^s \right| < 1/2 \cdot 10^{-h}$$

where h increases by steps of unity as indicated in the table headings, and the function being approximated is

- a) $\log(1+x)$ when $0 < x < 1$
- b) $\exp(x)$ when $0 < x < 1$
- c) $-ze^z Ei(-z)$, $z=x^{-1}$ and $0 < x < 1$

TABLE XXVII

h	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
a	1	2	3	4	6	7	8	9	10
b	1	2	3	4	4	5	6	6	7
c	1	2	2	4	5	7	9	11	14

The entries in this table may be deduced from figures given in references [16] and [17].

Now it will be recalled that the n th convergent of the continued fraction

$$(93) \quad b_0 + \frac{a_1 x}{b_1 +} \frac{a_2 x}{b_2 +} \cdots \frac{a_r x}{b_r +} \cdots$$

is the quotient of two polynomials of the n th degree in x , whilst the $(2n+1)$ th convergent is the quotient of a polynomial of the $(n+1)$ th degree divided by a polynomial of the n th degree in x , and that the n th convergent of the continued fraction

$$(94) \quad \frac{c_m}{z - \alpha_0^{(m)}} - \frac{\beta_0^{(m)}}{z - \alpha_1^{(m)}} - \cdots \frac{\beta_{r-1}^{(m)}}{z - \alpha_r^{(m)}} - \cdots$$

is the quotient of a polynomial of the $(n-1)$ th degree in x divided by a polynomial of the n th degree; it may thus be seen by comparing Tables VI, X and XV with Table XXVII, that where the numerical performance of the two methods may legitimately be contrasted and the function $f(x)$ is relatively well behaved, the Tschebyscheff polynomial series are better than the rational approximation.

If the function $f(x)$ has a pole for some value of the argument which lies in the range over which an approximation is required, a Tschebyscheff series approximation cannot, of course, be derived, and if $f(x)$ has also a zero or sequence of zeros when the argument lies in this range, then the difficulty may not be overcome by trying to obtain an approximation to the function $\{f(x)\}^{-1}$. The difficulty may be overcome by a suitable artifice, such as writing

$$(95) \quad f(x) = \frac{r(x)}{s(x)}$$

where $r(x)$ and $s(x)$ are analytic in the range considered, and obtaining separate polynomial approximations for the functions $r(x)$ and $s(x)$. Such a state of affairs is encountered when considering the function $J_1(x)/J_0(x)$ when $-10 \leq x \leq 10$. The most obvious choices for $r(x)$ and $s(x)$ in this case are

$$(96) \quad r\left(\frac{x^2}{100}\right) = J_1(x) \quad s\left(\frac{x^2}{100}\right) = J_0(x).$$

Table XXVIII indicates, in the same manner as Table XXVII, the numerical efficiency of the Tschebyscheff polynomial series for $J_1(x)$ and $J_0(x)$ when $-10 \leq x \leq 10$.

TABLE XXVIII

h	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$J_0(x)$	3	5	7	8	9	9	10	12
$J_1(x)$	0	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

(The entries in this table were also deduced from figures given in reference [16].)

Comparison of Tables II and XXVIII shows that even in this case greater economy of computational effort is achieved by use of Tschebyscheff series. MAEHLI [18], however, shows that for (41) over the range $|x| \leq \pi/4$ the numerical performance of the Tschebyscheff series is inferior.

It is perhaps more meaningful to compare Tschebyscheff type approximations with rational approximations which are best in a certain sense, and for this reference should be made to the work of MAEHLI [18][19] and others.

CONCLUSION

The successive convergents, defined by equation (32), of the continued fractions occurring in this paper have been evaluated by effecting the twin recursions

$$(97) \quad \begin{cases} A_n = b_n A_{n-1} + a_n A_{n-2} \\ B_n = b_n B_{n-1} + a_n B_{n-2} \end{cases}$$

from the initial values

$$A_{-1} = 1, \quad A_0 = b_0, \quad B_{-1} = 0, \quad B_0 = 1,$$

and thereafter carrying out the division

$$C_n = A_n/B_n.$$

The computations have been carried out using fixed length (forty binary figures, equivalent to slightly more than twelve decimal figures) floating point arithmetic. The various functions have either been extracted from published tables (refs. [20] to [29]) or computed independently: this accounts for the varying format of the tables.

If the coefficients of the continued fraction (32) are positive and real and the growth of error in equations (97) is not too rapid, the inequality (30) may be replaced by

$$(98) \quad \left| \frac{C_n - C_{n+1}}{C_{n+1}} \right| < \epsilon$$

without serious consequences. (In practice this leads to the computation of a convergent of somewhat higher order than is necessary.)

If, however, no restriction may be placed upon the coefficients, use of the inequality (98) to estimate the relative error made by accepting the convergent C_{n+1} as the value of the function being computed, may lead to monumental blunders.

One disadvantage attendant upon the use of the recursions (97) is that the numerical values of A_n and B_n may rapidly exceed the capacity of the arithmetic facilities being used. This may be avoided by effecting the equivalence transformation

$$(99) \quad \begin{cases} C = b_0 + \frac{a_1}{b_1 +} \frac{a_2}{b_2 +} \dots \frac{a_r}{b_r +} \dots \\ = b_0 + \frac{\gamma_1 a_1}{\gamma_1 b_1 +} \frac{\gamma_1 \gamma_2 a_2}{\gamma_2 b_2 +} \frac{\gamma_2 \gamma_3 a_3}{\gamma_3 b_3 +} \dots \frac{\gamma_{r-1} \gamma_r a_r}{\gamma_r b_r +} \dots \end{cases}$$

and choosing the γ_r $r=1, 2, \dots$ such that

$$\max |\gamma_{r-1} \gamma_r a_r|, |\gamma_r b_r| = 1$$

but this hardly improves the propagation of rounding errors in (97).

There is a sense in which the tables given in this paper represent the theoretical optimum performance which may be attained by use of the continued fractions treated. One fact which may certainly not be deduced by perusing the tables is the manner in which error is introduced in the evaluation of the successive convergents by the growth of unwanted complementary solutions in the difference equations in (97). Indeed it would appear that in the case of certain continued fractions, if the argument is given to a certain precision, and the computations are carried out with a certain length arithmetic, than there is no point in prolonging the computation beyond a certain limit, beyond which the estimation of C by C_n becomes steadily worse, though C_n may appear to converge steadily to a spurious result. (This is another reason why the inequality (98) must be used with care.) One could construct tables, similar in forms to those in this paper, having as arguments x or z , and the relative errors in x or z , and giving the order n of the convergent beyond which there is no point in prolonging the computation; but these tables would, of course, depend upon the length of the arithmetic used.

Most of the continued fractions considered above are of the form

$$(100) \quad b_0 + \frac{a_1}{b_1 +} \frac{a_2}{b_2 +} \dots \frac{a_r}{b_r +} \dots$$

where

$$(101) \quad a_r = \sum_{s=0}^{s=p} \alpha_s r^s \quad b_r = \sum_{s=0}^{s=q} \beta_s r^s.$$

Provisional work which the author has carried out on the $q-d$ algorithm indicates that for certain classes of power series (namely those in which the coefficients satisfy linear recursions of a certain form) the coefficients in the equivalent continued fraction are expressible as Laurent series in their suffices, that is to say that the numerical behaviour of these continued fractions is dominated by those of the form (100). It is therefore possible that the continued fractions which are described in this note are archetypal for certain of those which will find numerical application in the future.

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$$\int_0^z e^{-x^2} \text{ and } \int_0^z e^{-x^2} dy \int_0^y e^{-x^2} dx.$$