
Unsupervised Discovery of Formulas for Mathematical Constants

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1 Abstract

Ongoing efforts that span over decades show a rise of AI methods for scientific discovery and hypothesis creation [Fajtlowicz, 1988, Petkovsek et al., 1996, Wolfram et al., 2002, Buchberger et al., 2006, Bailey et al., 2007, Raayoni et al., 2021, Davies et al., 2021, Fawzi et al., 2022]. Despite the significant advances in the impact of AI for science, number theory in mathematics remains a persistent challenge for AI. Specifically, AI methods were not effective in creation of formulas for mathematical constants because such formulas are either true or false, with no continuous adjustments that can enhance their correctness. This entire field lacked a “distance metric” between two formulas that can guide progress. The absence of a systematic method left the realm of formula discovery elusive for automated methods. In this work, we propose a systematic methodology for categorization, characterization, and pattern identification of such formulas. The key to our methodology is introducing metrics based on the convergence dynamics of the formulas, which we utilize for the first automated clustering of mathematical formulas. We demonstrate this methodology on Polynomial Continued Fraction formulas, which are ubiquitous in their intrinsic connections to mathematical constants [Lagarias, 2013, Bowman and McLaughlin, 2002, Laughlin and Wyshinski, 2004], and generalize many mathematical functions and structures. We test our methodology on a set of 1,768,900 such formulas, identifying many known formulas for mathematical constants, and discover previously unknown formulas for π , $\ln(2)$, Gauss, and Lemniscate constants. The uncovered patterns enable a direct generalization of individual formulas to infinite families, unveiling rich mathematical structures. This success paves the way towards a generative model that creates continued fractions fulfilling specified mathematical properties, potentially accelerating by orders of magnitude the rate of discovery of useful formulas.

2 Introduction

Historically, formulas of mathematical constants were a symbol of aesthetics and beauty. Continued fraction formulas such as those for the Golden Ratio ϕ and $\tan(x)$

$$1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \dots}} = \phi \quad \frac{x}{1 - \frac{x^2}{3 - \frac{x^2}{5 - \dots}}} = \tan(x) \quad (1)$$

enable calculating infinitely many digits for these constants. Discovering such formulas often leads to profound revelations regarding the properties and underlying structure of fundamental constants. For example, the continued fraction formula for $\tan(x)$, shown in Eq. 1, was used by Johann Heinrich Lambert in the first proof of the irrationality of Pi [Berggren et al., 2004]. Unfortunately, such formulas are notoriously hard to find on-demand, often relying on a mathematician’s profound intuition. Part of the challenge is the lack of a well-defined ‘distance’ between a formula and a given constant. i.e., there is no known way to tell whether a formula is nearly accurate. The formula either works, or it does not. In other fields of science, a prediction accurate to 1000 digits is accurate enough for any practical need. However, in mathematics, if the 1001st digit is wrong, the formula is incorrect

35 and gives no insight regarding a correct formula. This is a substantial hurdle both for human efforts
 36 and for automated analysis, as gradient descent is generally unsuitable for binary metrics.

37 Recent efforts used large scale distributed computation to discover a multitude of formula hypotheses
 38 for mathematical constants [Raayoni et al., 2021, Elimelech et al., 2023]. These efforts relied mostly
 39 on exhaustive search methods. Other older applications of AI to mathematical discovery in other
 40 fields include Automated Theorem Proving [Petkovsek et al., 1996] (such as Malarea [Urban, 2007]
 41 and Flyspeck [Kaliszyk and Urban, 2012]), and Automated Conjecture Generation [Wang, 1960]
 42 (such as the Automated Mathematician [Lenat, 1982], EURISKO [Lenat and Brown, 1983, Davis
 43 and Lenat, 1982], and Graffiti [Fajtlowicz, 1988]).

44 This work proposes a fundamentally new methodology for automated investigation of formulas for
 45 mathematical constants. We constructed a large dataset of continued fractions, and enriched it with
 46 metrics based on their convergence dynamics, which are found to embody fundamental information
 47 about each continued fraction. This dataset enables the identification and generalization of patterns
 48 within the data. Through a process of categorization and clustering (Fig. 1), we identified subsets of
 49 continued fractions that relate to important mathematical constants. This novel method of formula
 50 discovery allowed us to identify both previously known and completely new formulas for constants
 51 such as π , $\ln(2)$, $\cot(1)$, the Golden Ratio, square roots of multiple integers, Gauss and Lemniscate
 52 constants. Often, once such a subset of formulas is identified, all its members relate to the same
 53 mathematical constant, thus exposing an internal structure that can be generalized into infinite families
 54 of such formulas.

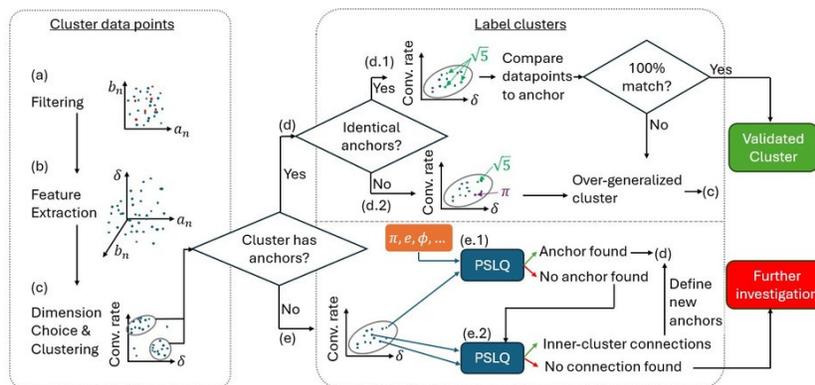


Figure 1: **Systematic clustering and labeling of formulas by dynamical metrics.** Our methodology analyzes Polynomial Continued Fractions (PCFs) in two main stages. **Clustering:** (a) Filter degenerate PCFs. (b) Evaluate PCFs and extract their dynamics-based metrics (section 3). (c) Choose the best few metrics (using the Davies-Bouldin Clustering Index [Davies and Bouldin, 1979] - see table 1) and use them to cluster the data. **Labeling:** In every cluster, look for PCFs known in the literature and use them as anchors. (d) If anchors are found in the cluster, validate that they do not contradict each other, i.e., relate to different constants, which indicates that the cluster should be split. (d.1) If all anchors are in agreement, choose a random subset of other points in the cluster and use PSLQ to validate that they also relate to the same constant. If the validation is successful, the cluster is labeled. If not, the cluster should be split. (d.2) If the anchors relate to different constants, the cluster should be split – return to step c for finer clustering of the data. When focusing on a specific cluster, the best metrics could be different than those for the full dataset. (e) If no anchor is found in a certain cluster, attempt to label by (e.1) choosing a small subset of PCFs in the cluster and running a PSLQ search for each of them against a large set of potential constants. If a connection is found, the cluster now has an anchor – return to step d. (e.2) If an anchor is still not found, attempt to connect a sample of data points within the cluster using PSLQ. If successful, conclude that the cluster is correct, but has no identified constant. Define a new label for that cluster. If PSLQ failed to connect points within the cluster, return to step c for finer clustering. If no further refinement is appropriate, flag the cluster for further analytical investigation.

55 As a result of our methodology, we present the most complete classification of polynomial continued
 56 fractions known to date.

57 Traditional clustering methods attempt to relate data points by calculating distance metrics based
 58 on the parameters of these data points. The most common approaches (like SVM) rely on linear

59 classification, while more advanced methods rely on non-linear kernel transformations - but usually
60 use various functions calculated directly on the data parameters. In our dataset, each point is a
61 continued fraction formula defined by the polynomials used to construct it. We find that it is the
62 *dynamics* of the continued fraction generated by these polynomials, rather than any direct function
63 on their coefficients, which provides the most useful metrics for analysis. In other words, we find
64 that the useful underlying metrics to extract from each data point are embedded within the intricate
65 progression of the sequence created by the formula, rather than the explicit value (limit) of that
66 formula, or the coefficients defining it. Thus, in order to assess the distance between two polynomial
67 continued fractions, and identify relations between such formulas, it is imperative to characterize the
68 nuanced behaviour of their sequences, analyzing trends spanning over numerous terms.

69 Some of the metrics we extract, such as the irrationality measure, are well-known in the mathematical
70 community, yet were never considered for a large-scale classification effort. We develop a new
71 algorithm - the Blind- δ algorithm - to enable the evaluation of the irrationality measure of formulas
72 on a large scale, previously impossible.

73 This approach allows us to employ a novel methodology to the formula discovery challenge. We
74 cluster formulas by their 'closeness' to other formulas according to these new metrics, which we use
75 to identify promising formulas regardless of their numerical value (Fig. 1left). Once a candidate
76 formula is found, we numerically validate it by calculating its value to a large precision and then
77 identifying its relation to a mathematical constant using algorithms such as PSLQ [Ferguson and
78 Bailey, 1992] (Fig. 1right). The "generate \Rightarrow validate" approach is inspired by works in AI-driven
79 code generation [Ridnik et al., 2024] and problem solving in geometry [Trinh et al., 2024].

80 3 Methodology for Data-Driven Discovery

81 3.1 Definitions

82 *Polynomial Continued Fractions*

83 In this work we chose to focus on polynomial continued fraction (PCF) formulas as our test case
84 due to the combination of their simplicity and expressive power. PCFs relate to a wide range of
85 mathematical fields, represent a variety of constants, are equivalent to infinite sums [Euler, 1748],
86 and cover mathematical functions such as Bessel functions, trigonometric functions, and generalized
87 hypergeometric functions [Cuyt et al., 2008]. A PCF at depth n is defined as:

$$a_0 + \frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{\ddots + \frac{b_n}{a_n}}} = \frac{p_n}{q_n}, \quad (2)$$

88 where $a_n = a(n)$ and $b_n = b(n)$ are evaluations of polynomials with integer coefficients. The PCF
89 value is the limit $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p_n}{q_n}$ (when it exists). The converging sequence of rational numbers $\frac{p_n}{q_n}$
90 provides an approximation of L , which is known as a Diophantine approximation.

91 *The Irrationality Measure of a Number*

92 While irrational numbers cannot be expressed using a simple quotient of integers, they can be
93 approximated by them. Moreover, some approximations are "better" than others, and one way to
94 evaluate their quality is by a quantity called the irrationality measure [Hardy et al., 1979].

95 For every $L \in \mathbb{R}$, the *irrationality measure of L* is defined as the supremum of all possible δ for
96 which there is a sequence of distinct rational numbers $\frac{p_n}{q_n} \rightarrow L; \frac{p_n}{q_n} \neq L$ that satisfies

$$\left| L - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right| < \frac{1}{q_n^{1+\delta}}. \quad (3)$$

97 It is known that for irrational numbers this measure is ≥ 1 (Dirichlet theorem for Diophantine
98 approximations), and for rationals it is 0.

99 Given a sequence $\frac{p_n}{q_n}$ and its limit L , we define the *irrationality measure of a sequence* as

$$\delta = \frac{-\log \left| L - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right|}{\log |\tilde{q}_n|} - 1, \tilde{q}_n = \frac{q_n}{\gcd(p_n, q_n)} \quad (4)$$

100 For a sufficiently large n . Note that the irrationality measure of L is greater or equal to the
101 irrationality measure of any specific sequence converging to the same L .

102 3.2 δ -Predictor Formula

103 The classification of a large number of continued fraction formulas requires an efficient and accurate
104 calculation of the irrationality measure δ for each formula. This calculation is challenging because
105 it depends on the asymptotic behavior of the converging sequence, and because δ appears as an
106 exponent of a large number. The δ -Predictor formula that we present here provides a way around this
107 challenge - requiring no specific knowledge about the convergence rate and trajectory, or even about
108 the sequence limit itself:

$$\delta_{\text{predicted}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n \cdot \log \left| \frac{\lambda_1(n)}{\lambda_2(n)} \right|}{\log |\tilde{q}_n|} - 1 \quad (5)$$

109 where $\lambda_1(n)$ and $\lambda_2(n)$ are the eigenvalues of the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & b_n \\ 1 & a_n \end{pmatrix}$, $|\lambda_1(n)| > |\lambda_2(n)|$.

110 This formula extends a hypothesis made in a previous work [David et al., 2021], which was limited
111 to PCFs with balanced polynomial degrees and with a \tilde{q}_n that grows exponentially. As we found
112 in this work, Eq.5 works for any converging PCF. It was validated numerically and proven for the
113 balanced-degree case in Appendix D. This formula provides a substantial advantage in the estimate
114 of the irrationality measure, a critical dynamical metric for our work. Specifically, the asymptotic
115 behavior of \tilde{q}_n and λ_1/λ_2 are still required for finding $\delta_{\text{predicted}}$, but they are usually easier to derive.

116 3.3 Discovery of Formulas by Unsupervised Learning

117 Each PCF formula is defined by the polynomials that generate it. This work focuses on polynomials
118 up to 2nd degree: $a = A_2n^2 + A_1n + A_0$, $b = B_2n^2 + B_1n + B_0$, with integer coefficients in the
119 domain $-5 \leq A_i \leq 5$, $-5 \leq B_i \leq 5$. We removed the $a = 0$ and $b = 0$ cases, as they break the
120 PCF structure, leaving us with 1,768,900 formulas. Some of these PCFs do not converge to a single
121 limit, rendering their measured metrics meaningless (see Appendix B for the classification method we
122 developed to predict PCF convergence). We filtered out all formulas that do not converge, providing
123 the final filtered dataset of 1,543,926 formulas.

124 Our methodology relies on dynamics-based metrics. The following metrics are calculated for each
125 formula:

- 126 • The coefficients of the polynomials a and b , $(A_2, A_1, A_0, B_2, B_1, B_0)$. We also define the
127 useful characteristic of which polynomial dominates the dynamics: when $2 \deg(a) > \deg(b)$
128 the PCF is A-dominated, when $2 \deg(a) < \deg(b)$ the PCF is B-dominated, and when
129 $2 \deg(a) = \deg(b)$ the PCF is balanced.
- 130 • The numerical limit of the PCF, evaluated at depth $n = 2000$.
- 131 • The irrationality measure: for each PCF, we calculate $\delta_{\text{predicted}}$ by substituting $n = 10^9$
132 into Eq.5, and measure δ directly using the Blind- δ algorithm (presented in section 3.4) at
133 depth $n = 1000$ (see Fig.2a for example δ evaluations).
- 134 • The convergence rate dynamics, comprised of three parameters: we estimate the approx-
135 imation error, which scales as $\epsilon(n) \sim n!^\eta \cdot e^{\gamma n} \cdot n^\beta$ for large n . We fit a curve of this
136 form numerically (see Appendix A for more details) and store the estimate of the η, γ, β
137 parameters (η - factorial coefficient, γ - exponential coefficient, β - polynomial coefficient).
- 138 • The growth rate of \tilde{q}_n . As n grows, $\tilde{q}_n \sim n!^{\eta'} \cdot e^{\gamma' n} \cdot n^{\beta'}$. We fit a curve of this form
139 numerically and store the estimate of the η', γ', β' parameters.

140 Based on this set of metrics, we applied unsupervised clustering for unlabeled data (the density-based
 141 OPTICS algorithm [Ankerst et al., 1999]) and created a complete algorithm for mathematical formula
 142 discovery (Fig.1). A variety of useful formulas, formula families and data patterns were identified
 143 (see sections 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 for selected results).

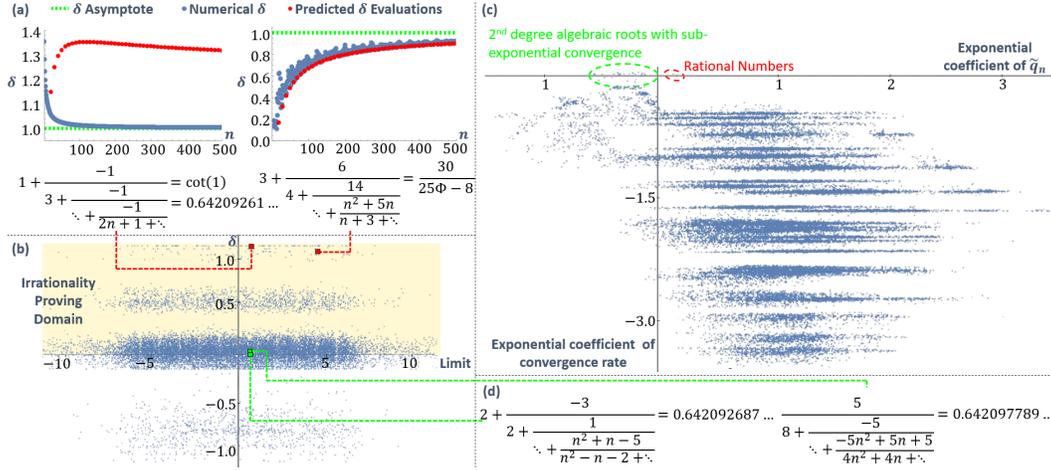


Figure 2: **Dynamics-based metrics for formulas of mathematical constants.** Analysing the convergence of polynomial continued fraction (PCF) formulas provide *dynamical metrics* that prove useful for their automated clustering and identification. (a) Irrationality measure vs. PCF depth. The simplest formula candidate identification method we used is filtering by high numeric δ . These are 2 examples of formulas for mathematical constants ($\cot(1)$ and the Silver Ratio) found this way. The irrationality measure of these constants is known to be 1 (green dashed line). The blue dots show how the numerical evaluations of δ (Eq.4) converge to the correct irrationality measure. Red dots are evaluations of the δ -Predictor (Eq.5) at finite n values. The prediction follows the numerical delta very closely in the Silver Ratio formula, while taking a completely different (and much slower) trajectory in the $\cot(1)$ formula - yet both converge to the correct value $\delta = 1$. (b) δ (at depth $n = 1000$) vs. limit value for PCFs in our set. While δ values seem to follow a pattern, the limit value distribution doesn't contain relevant information - the higher density of PCFs near the Y axis caused by our choice of a dataset with small coefficient polynomials. Note the multitude of irrationality-proving formulas, most of which are still not linked to any known constant. (c) Exponential growth coefficients of \tilde{q}_n and $\epsilon(n)$ for balanced PCFs. Note the surprising “band” structure that this view reveals. A few of the clusters have been characterized, but the reason for the appearance of these “bands”, as well as the properties of most clusters remain open questions for future research. (d) Examples of PCFs in the dataset that converge to a value close to the constant $\cot(1)$ ($\pm 10^{-5}$ or closer), and yet are not related to $\cot(1)$ or its formula shown in (a) - showcasing the challenge of mathematical formula discovery. Error bars not shown for visual clarity, see Appendix A for a discussion regarding measurement errors.

144 3.4 The Blind- δ Algorithm

145 The irrationality measure of a PCF is of mathematical interest, and (as we will see in section 4) is a
 146 powerful dynamical metric of a formula. Unfortunately, even if we limit ourselves to the numerically
 147 estimated δ (given a specific series and a specific depth), Eq.4 requires knowing the series limit L ,
 148 making its calculation for a large set of unlabeled PCFs impossible.

149 The Blind- δ algorithm was created in order to circumvent this limitation. Instead of inspecting the
 150 convergence behavior of $\frac{p_n}{q_n} \rightarrow L$, we inspect the convergence behavior of $\frac{p_n}{q_n} \rightarrow \frac{p_m}{q_m}$ for some
 151 $m > n$.

152 This solves the prior knowledge issue, but how is it related to the actual series delta?

Given a rational approximation $\frac{p_n}{q_n} \rightarrow L$, we approximate the error rate $|\epsilon(n)|$ where $\epsilon(n) := \frac{p_n}{q_n} - L$
 with

$$\frac{p_n}{q_n} - \frac{p_m}{q_m} = \epsilon(n) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon(m)}{\epsilon(n)}\right).$$

153 So if $0 < s < \left|1 - \frac{\epsilon(m)}{\epsilon(n)}\right| < S$ is bounded away from zero and infinity for all n large enough, then
 154 this approximation has the same order of magnitude. This means that the error and the convergence
 155 behave similarly enough whether we use the true limit L or its approximation $\frac{p_m}{q_m}$. This condition
 156 holds whenever $|\epsilon(n)| \rightarrow 0$ fast enough, which is true for the vast majority of PCFs (see Appendix D
 157 for details).

158 Note that m has to grow with n . In practice the algorithm uses $m = 2n$, so in order to study δ up to
 159 $n = 1000$, we use $m = 2000$.

160 3.5 Choice of Metrics for Clustering

161 As part of the automated formula discovery flow we choose the best metrics (for each step), in
 162 terms of representation power, which is measured by applying the Davies-Bouldin Index [Davies
 163 and Bouldin, 1979] on clustering using a single metric (table 1 shows results for a randomly chosen
 164 sample of 25K converging PCFs). Note the extremely poor performance of the PCF limit L , in
 165 agreement with Fig.2b,d. This dimensionality reduction is important both for efficiency during the
 166 clustering step (especially since the size of the data set grows exponentially with PCF degree and
 167 polynomial coefficient magnitude), and for better explainability.

Table 1: Comparison of the representation power of the main dynamic metrics (lower is better).

Metric		Davies-Bouldin Index
Limit L		67.23
Irrationality measure δ		1.11
Reduced denominator \tilde{q}_n growth factors $\tilde{q}_n \sim n!^{\eta'} \cdot e^{\gamma' n} \cdot P(n)$	Exponential coefficient γ'	0.51
	Factorial coefficient η'	0.13
Error rate $ e(n) $ growth factors $ e(n) \sim n!^\eta \cdot e^{\gamma n} \cdot P(n)$	Exponential coefficient γ	14.83
	Factorial coefficient η	0.77

168 4 Results

169 4.1 Discovered Formulas for Mathematical Constants

The first step in validating the dynamical metrics approach is using basic heuristics on the metric space to find PCFs related to mathematical constants. There are some PCFs in the dataset that have a known irrational limit (like the examples in Eq.1 and the PCF family

$$\frac{B}{A + \frac{B}{A + \ddots}} = \frac{2B}{A + \sqrt{A^2 + 4B}}$$

170 for constant A and B), so we expected to find some of them. Through this test, we also found
 171 *previously unknown* PCF formulas related to mathematical constants.

172 Note that known mathematical formulas are both the anchors for labeling and a test set in our method.
 173 Formulas related to the same constant or having other common properties are expected to be clustered
 174 together.

175 Since we are looking for irrationals, a series that converges to one of them could have an irrationality
 176 measure of 1 (or above). A natural heuristic is inspecting PCFs with $\delta \approx 1$. Another heuristic we
 177 used is focusing on PCFs with $\eta' \approx 0$, as it was a very strong indicator for mathematical constant
 178 formulas in a previous work [Elimelech et al., 2023]. Combining the two gives a subset (see Fig.3a
 179 top left) that contains PCFs such as:

$$5 + \frac{-10}{\ddots + \frac{-5n^2 - 5n}{5n + 5 + \ddots}} = 2 + \phi \quad -3 + \frac{1}{\ddots + \frac{1}{-3 + \ddots}} = \frac{-2}{\sqrt{13} - 3} \quad (6)$$

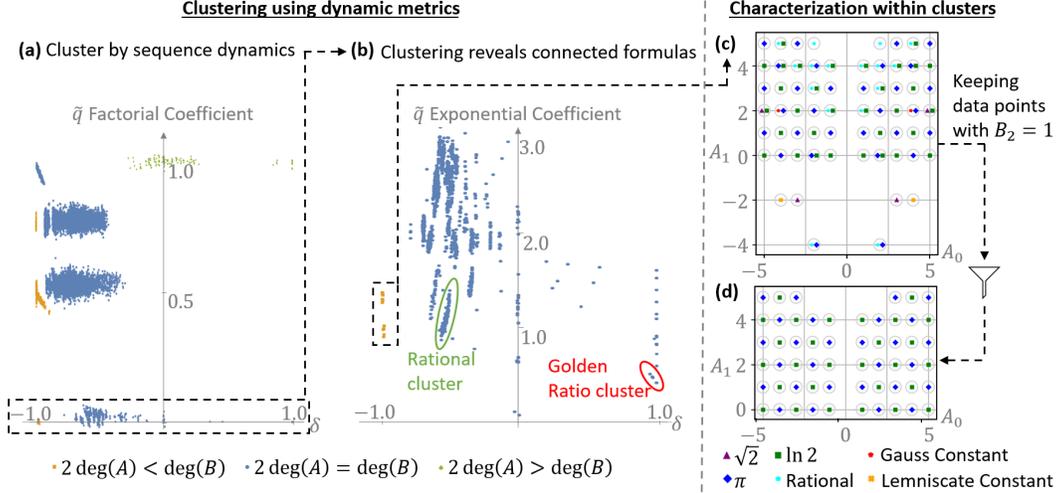


Figure 3: **Discovery of mathematical structures via analysis of dynamic metrics of formulas.** (a) Projecting the data on the δ vs. η' (\tilde{q}_n factorial coefficient) plane, it's easy to see the emerging subsets. We focus on PCFs with $\eta' \approx 0$, as a previous work [Elimelech et al., 2023] indicated this is an important property. (b) Clustering in the δ vs. γ' (\tilde{q}_n exponential coefficient) plane shows examples of common properties within a cluster, like rationality or convergence to a specific constant (up to a linear fractional transformation). Focusing deeper on the B-dominant cluster (as it is a clear anomaly in the $\eta' \approx 0$ subset), we used a PSLQ algorithm to identify links between these formulas and mathematical constants (which was feasible since we identified a promising subset $\sim 5,000$ times smaller than the initial dataset) and got (c) - a surprising number of novel formulas related to mathematical constants (π , $\ln(2)$, $\sqrt{2}$, Gauss and Lemniscate constants). (d) Keeping only PCFs with $B_2 = 1$ we are left with a highly symmetrical “checkerboard pattern” of formulas for π and $\ln(2)$, which was generalized into infinite formula families hypotheses (see section 4.3). Error bars not shown for visual clarity, see Appendix A for a discussion regarding measurement errors.

180 Removing the requirement of sub-factorial \tilde{q}_n growth rate, one can find the $\cot(1)$ formula shown in
 181 Fig.2a:

$$1 + \frac{-1}{\dots + \frac{-1}{2n+1 + \dots}} = \cot(1) \quad (7)$$

182 On the other hand, relaxing the limitation on δ , focusing only on $\eta' \approx 0$, a rich structure emerges
 183 (Fig.3b). Diving deeper into the B-dominated subset, we find formulas (Fig.3c) for the Gauss constant
 184 G_{GA} [Finch, 2003]:

$$4 + \frac{6}{\dots + \frac{4n^2 + 2n}{4 + \dots}} = \frac{2G_{GA}}{4G_{GA} - 3} \quad 4 + \frac{4}{\dots + \frac{4n^2 + 2n - 2}{4 + \dots}} = \frac{4G_{GA} - 1}{3G_{GA} - 2} \quad (8)$$

185 Lemniscate constant $L_{Lemniscate}$ [Finch, 2003]:

$$4 + \frac{2}{\dots + \frac{4n^2 - 2n}{4 + \dots}} = \frac{-6}{L_{Lemniscate} - 4} \quad (9)$$

186 As well as for second order roots, π and $\ln(2)$ (see section 4.3). Note that unlike the formulas in Eq.6
 187 and Eq.7, which are analytically proven, the formulas in Eq.8 and Eq.9 are (to the best of the authors'
 188 knowledge) *novel*. Their limits were numerically validated to a large precision, yet formal proofs for
 189 these formula hypotheses remain an open challenge.

190 It should be noted that usually in number theory research a bigger δ is considered “good” while a
 191 smaller (often negative) δ is considered “bad”. We use δ as a metric, without “judgment”. These
 192 novel formulas (Eq.8, Eq.9 and the infinite family of formulas shown in section 4.3), which have
 193 “bad” $\delta \approx -1$, are a demonstration of the advantage of our “non-judgmental” approach.

194 **4.2 Clustering in Dynamics-Based Metric Latent Space**

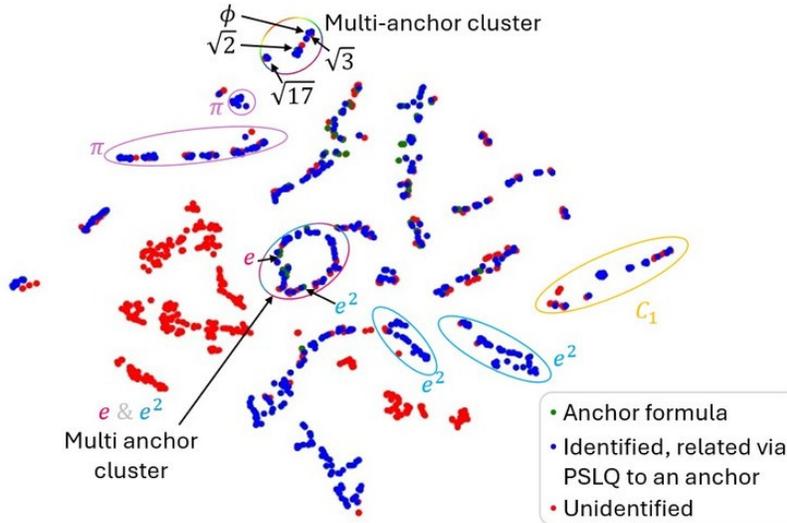


Figure 4: **Automated Formula Discovery Results:** Showcasing the automated clustering and labeling of PCFs using a set of 306 anchor formulas, connected to constants such as π , e , e^2 , the continued fraction constant, the golden ratio ϕ , $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{3}$, and $\sqrt{17}$. 454 PCFs were labeled. 332 are equivalent to an anchor, while 122 are novel automatically discovered mathematical formula hypotheses. For the presentation here, the PCFs were projected to a 2D grid using tSNE (perplexity = 10), revealing clusters that coalesce in the full metric space. For visual clarity not all points are shown and error bars aren’t shown, see Appendix A for a discussion regarding measurement errors.

195 This section shows that clusters in the latent space of dynamics-based metrics group together different
 196 formulas that share multiple properties including the mathematical constant to which they relate.

197 We’ll start with 2 concrete examples for this effect. Looking at the top left cluster in Fig.3b (defined
 198 by \tilde{q}_n exponential coefficient < 0.6 and $\delta > 0.9$), we recognize the canonical form of the Golden
 199 Ratio PCF (shown in Eq.1) - but also 21 additional PCFs, with different generating polynomials,
 200 some of higher degree. As it turns out, all of them are linear fractional transformations of $\sqrt{5}$ (see
 201 Appendix C), which were labeled by the formula discovery algorithm (Fig.1). Another example of
 202 property preservation within a cluster is the rational cluster marked in green on Fig.3b. The limits of
 203 the PCFs in this subset are varied, and its spread is real (not only due to numerical imperfections),
 204 and yet all its members share the rationality property - which isn’t directly measured by any of the
 205 latent space dimensions.

206 Fig.4 showcases a collection of clusters with shared properties, visualized via tSNE. Using a set of
 207 306 (mathematically unique) known anchor formulas, 454 PCFs were labeled. 332 are equivalent to
 208 an anchor, while 122 are novel automatically discovered mathematical formula hypotheses.

209 This clustering is a result of a single iteration of the formula discovery algorithm (hence the multi-
 210 anchor clusters). Note the multi-anchor clusters of e and e^2 , as well as the second order algebraic
 211 roots: these clusters failed to single out a specific constant, yet relate to constants of similar nature -
 212 suggesting meaningful clustering nevertheless.

213 **4.3 Detecting Patterns and Underlying Structure**

214 As mentioned in section 4.1, focusing on the B-dominant, $\eta' \approx 0$ cluster, gave rise to a multitude of
 215 formulas representing mathematical constants (see Fig.3c and d). They were discovered via a PSLQ

216 algorithm, identifying linear fractional relations between the limit values of PCFs in the subset and
217 notable mathematical constants (such as π or e). This is a computationally heavy operation, and
218 it would be challenging to run it on all 1.5M formulas in the data set. Yet by first identifying the
219 promising clusters, we reduce the search space $\sim 5,000$ times, allowing for a deeper inspection of
220 each PCF.

221 Once the “checkerboard” pattern in Fig.3d was discovered, we expanded the hypothesis into 2 infinite
222 families of PCFs with sub-exponential convergence relating to π and $\ln(2)$:

- 223 • $a_n = i + 2j + 1, b_n = n^2 + (i + k)n$, with integers $i, j \geq 0$, and $k \in \{0, 1\}$. This is
224 expected to be related to π if $k = 1$, and to $\ln(2)$ if $k = 0$ (in fact, this pattern can be
225 generalized even further, into a novel 3-dimensional Conservative Matrix Field, provided in
226 Appendix C. See [Elimelech et al., 2023] for the definition of Conservative Matrix Fields).

227 Another formula family was discovered via clustering in the γ vs. γ' space. The algebraic roots
228 subset (marked by a green circle in Fig.2c) was generalized into:

- 229 • $a_n = -2n + j - 1, b_n = -n^2 + jn + k$ for integer j, k such that b_n has real roots that are
230 not positive integers. This is expected to converge to a root of b_n .

231 These are novel experimental results and mathematical hypotheses - awaiting proof.

232 5 Discussion and Outlook

233 This work marks an important step toward the vision of automated on-demand formula creation
234 in mathematics. Going beyond all previous algorithms in this field, we connect the challenge of
235 formula creation to modern approaches in AI for Science. The wide variety of novel results, from
236 novel, automatically generated, conjectures to underlying mathematical structures and proofs, all
237 demonstrate the power of our methodology.

238 The next research step directly building on our methodology could help to finally reveal the complete
239 intricate mathematical structure of PCFs. For example, starting with the “band” structure found in
240 Fig.2c. Further exploration of our conjectures from section 4 could have more impact on mathematics,
241 perhaps achieving complete proofs and further generalizations.

242 The technique presented here can be applied to a larger scope of continued fractions and for completely
243 different types of formulas. For more general continued fractions, dynamical metrics such as
244 the numerical trajectories and the corresponding sequences of δ (in addition to its final value)
245 hold valuable information even in continued fractions that do not converge at all. We expect
246 these dynamical metrics to provide a “fingerprint” for wider families of continued fractions and
247 perhaps even for the mathematical constants themselves. This approach will directly apply for
248 higher polynomial degrees, larger polynomial coefficients, and for continued fractions not based on
249 polynomials. Looking beyond continued fractions, metrics that are derived from the dynamics of a
250 numerical calculation of certain formulas are an especially good fit for automated computer-assisted
251 investigations. Such metrics can be measured for a variety of mathematical structures, like infinite
252 sums, integral formulas, and partial differential equations. We believe that such dynamical metrics
253 can unveil patterns and underlying structures in broad fields of mathematics and in other areas of
254 science.

255 Our work was based on a limited-size dataset and on a small set of metrics. It would be intriguing
256 to test the extracted conjectures on larger datasets, which can help reveal additional, more intricate,
257 phenomena. Considering the success we had using a relatively small set of metrics, we would like to
258 use an order-of-magnitude larger set of metrics and find what new predictions can be recovered, and
259 whether qualitatively different types of predictions will arise.

260 Taking a broader perspective, the methodology presented in this work can be seen as a general
261 prescription for tackling scientific discovery challenges, especially the ones considered as requiring
262 intuitive leaps of extraordinary creativity, as in mathematics, theoretical physics, and a range of other
263 fields of science and engineering.

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346 A Numerical Measurements and Curve Fitting

347 When characterizing PCFs, we use several metrics extracted from the dynamic behavior of the
348 formula:

- 349 • The growth coefficients η, γ, β (of the form $n!^\eta \cdot e^{\gamma n} \cdot n^\beta$) of the convergence rate $\epsilon(n)$.
- 350 • \tilde{q}_n (as defined in Eq.4) growth coefficients: η', γ' (of the form $n!^{\eta'} \cdot e^{\gamma' n}$).
- 351 • The δ (as defined in Eq.4) calculated using the Blind- δ Algorithm described in section 3.4.

352 To measure the growth coefficients of \tilde{q}_n and $\epsilon(n)$, the values of $\log(\epsilon(n))$ (see section 3.4) and of
353 $\log(\tilde{q}_n)$ were evaluated up to depth 1000.

354 The most resource-intensive values that are generated are p_n, q_n and $\gcd(p_n, q_n)$ - all other values
355 are calculated from them (and require less precision). For the worst case PCF this requires 36MB of
356 memory (without optimizations) and ~ 1.9 seconds of run time on a single core of a basic workstation,
357 which translates to an upper cap of ~ 900 hours for the whole data set. In practice we used a high
358 power cluster with 64 cores, which ran each iteration of the measurements in ~ 8.5 hours.

359 Once these values are calculated, using scipy [Virtanen et al., 2020] and numpy [Harris et al., 2020] a
360 fit of the form $\log(n!^\eta \cdot e^{\gamma n} \cdot n^\beta)$ was calculated for \tilde{q}_n and $\epsilon(n)$, producing the dynamic metrics.

361 A curve fit using 1000 points is a fairly heavy operation, unsuited for large scale investigations.
362 Instead, we used an extreme down-sampling. Specifically, only 5 points were used for the fit. One
363 may justifiably wonder if 5 data points are sufficient to fit accurately enough the desired metrics.

364 A test comparing between a 5 data point fit and a 1000 data point fit was done. As the test set, 50
365 PCFs were randomly chosen out of each of 9 categories (450 total test cases). The categories were
366 all combinations of $\deg(a) = 0, 1, 2$ and $\deg(b) = 0, 1, 2$. Focusing on the dominant coefficients
367 (γ and η), for each case, a full (1000 point) fit was performed (producing γ_f, η_f), and compared to
368 the down sampled fit of 5 points (producing γ_p, η_p). We tested 2 methods of choosing the 5 points,
369 even ($i = 6, 206, 406, 606, 806$) and logarithmic ($i = 6, 125, 250, 500, 1000$). The relative error was
370 then calculated ($\frac{|\gamma_p - \gamma_f|}{|\gamma_f|}$ and $\frac{|\eta_p - \eta_f|}{|\eta_f|}$) for $\epsilon(n)$ and \tilde{q}_n . The relative errors were then averaged over
371 the test set (results summarised in table 2) - showing the 5-point fit to be almost as good as the full
372 1000-point fit. In our measurements we use the logarithmic point distribution as it gives better results
373 for most metrics.

Table 2: Comparison between 1000 point fit results and 5 point fits results (even spread and logarithmic spread).

Behavior	\tilde{q}_n		Convergence Rate	
Coefficient	γ'	η'	γ	η
Relative Error Average (even spread)	0.0124	0.0007	0.0078	0.0005
Relative Error Average (logarithmic spread)	0.0175	0.0004	0.0024	0.00012

374 Licences and versions of Python packages (used for curve fitting, clustering and large number
375 mathematics):

376 Scipy (Version: 1.11.3) - BSD License (Copyright (c) 2001-2002 Enthought, Inc. 2003-2024, SciPy
377 Developers. All rights reserved.)

378 gmpy2 (Version: 2.1.5) - GNU Lesser General Public License v3 or later

379 Numpy (Version 1.26.1)- BSD License (Copyright (c) 2005-2023, NumPy Developers. All rights
380 reserved.)

381 B Classification of Continued Fractions

382 Not all PCFs converge. Clearly, if $\frac{p_n}{q_n}$ does not have a well defined limit, then some of our numerically
383 measured metrics lose their meaning. Though we had algorithmic safeguards to detect such cases and

384 remove them from the analyzed set, it was valuable to identify a pattern and formulate a rule-set that
 385 predicts the convergence of a PCF.

386 For that purpose we turned to the matrix representation of a continued fraction to depth n (see
 387 Appendix D.1 for details):

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} p_{N-1} & p_N \\ q_{N-1} & q_N \end{bmatrix} &= \prod_{n=1}^{N-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b_n \\ 1 & a_n \end{bmatrix} = \\ &= \left(\prod_{n=1}^{N-1} a_{n-1} \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{a_0} \end{bmatrix} \left(\prod_{n=1}^{N-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{b_n}{a_n a_{n-1}} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & a_{N-1} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

388 Assuming $a_n \neq 0$ for $n \geq 0$.

389 Analyzing the eigenvalues of the matrices within the matrix product as $n \rightarrow \infty$ allows for examining
 390 the asymptotic behavior of the continued fraction. Their characteristic polynomial is $\lambda^2 - \lambda - \frac{b_n}{a_n a_{n-1}}$,
 391 and we propose observing the discriminant of this polynomial - more specifically its dominant power
 392 of n :

$$\Delta_n = 1 + \frac{4b_n}{a_n a_{n-1}} = C_s n^s + O(n^{s-1}) \quad (10)$$

393 Here we assume $C_s \neq 0$ and s is some integer. Based on the data, we compiled table 3 as a summary
 of the conjectured behavior of any polynomial continued fraction based on s and C_s .

Table 3: Summary of PCF behavior characterized by s and C_s as defined in Eq.10.

Convergence	$C_s > 0$	$C_s < 0$
\times	$s \geq 3$	$s \geq 0$
\checkmark	$s \leq 2$	$s \leq -1$

394 We can further elaborate on the converging cases by discussing the conjectured rate of convergence.
 395 Usually, a PCF is expected to converge at a sub-exponential rate, but in the case of $s = 0$, $C_0 > 0$ it
 396 is expected to converge faster:
 397

- 398 • If $C_0 \neq 1$ then the PCF will converge at an exponential rate, and the exact rate of convergence
 399 increases monotonically as $C_0 \rightarrow 1$, with a vertical asymptote at $C_0 = 1$. The convergence
 400 rate is identical for C_0 and $\frac{1}{C_0}$.
- 401 • If $C_0 = 1$ then the PCF will converge at a factorial rate. More specifically, if we find the
 402 second most dominant power $\Delta_n = C_0 + \frac{C_t}{n^t} + O(\frac{1}{n^{t+1}})$ for some $C_t \neq 0$ and integer $t > 0$
 403 then the precision will grow at a rate of $O(n!^t)$.

404 We used these rules (in conjunction with the measurements mentioned in section 3.3) to validate that
 405 all PCFs we analyze and cluster do converge and their measured metrics are well defined.

406 C Discovering equivalence of continued fractions

407 Polynomial continued fractions use two polynomials $a_n = a(n)$ and $b_n = b(n)$ to generate a
 408 sequence of rationals p_n/q_n . However, the same sequences with identical behaviour can be generated
 409 using more than one set of polynomials. By identifying transformations under which the dynamics
 410 of p_n/q_n remains invariant, we can formally prove equivalence between data points, validating the
 411 clustering power of the chosen metrics.

412 By rearranging the continued fraction definition, we can see how equivalent a_n and b_n series can
 413 arise:

$$a_0 + \frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \frac{b_3}{\ddots + \frac{b_n}{a_n + \ddots}}}} = a_0 \left(1 + \frac{\frac{b_1}{a_0 a_1}}{1 + \frac{\frac{b_2}{a_1 a_2}}{1 + \frac{\frac{b_3}{a_2 a_3}}{\ddots + \frac{b_n}{a_n a_{n-1}}}}}} \right) = \frac{a_0 c_0}{c_0} \left(1 + \frac{\frac{b_1 c_0 c_1}{a_0 c_0 a_1 c_1}}{1 + \frac{\frac{b_2 c_1 c_2}{a_1 c_1 a_2 c_2}}{1 + \frac{\frac{b_3 c_2 c_3}{a_2 c_2 a_3 c_3}}{\ddots + \frac{b_n c_n c_{n-1}}{a_n c_n a_{n-1} c_{n-1}}}}}} \right). \quad (11)$$

414 Indeed, by defining a new pair of polynomials $a'_n = a_n c_n; b'_n = b_n c_n c_{n-1}$ we get an equivalent
 415 continued fraction which converges to $\frac{c_0 p_n}{q_n}$. Clearly, since the resulting sequence $\frac{p'_n}{q'_n}$ is identical to
 416 the original one, it exhibits the same dynamics. We call this process ‘‘Inflation by c_n ’’. In particular,
 417 when $c_n = -1$, we observe that the sign of a does not affect the dynamics of the sequence - only
 418 flips the sign of the limit to $-L$. For every PCF its inflation by -1 is also contained in the data set,
 419 and clearly will have the same dynamics-based metrics. This equivalence single handedly de-facto
 420 cuts the size of the data set by half (to 771,963 converging formulas).

421 The metrics we are interested in are mostly not affected by a finite number of elements in the sequence.
 422 For example, both the convergence rate and δ discuss an overall trend as n grows. Consequently, we
 423 can initiate the sequence at different values of $n \neq 0$ without changing the latent parameters. When
 424 expressing these transformations as modification to the continued fraction definition, we see that the
 425 *limit* of the continued fraction might change due to this shift in sequence initiation, but only by a
 426 rational fractional transform.

$$a_0 + \frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \frac{b_3}{\ddots + \frac{b_n}{a_n + \ddots}}}} = \frac{p_n}{q_n} \Rightarrow a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \frac{b_3}{\ddots + \frac{b_n}{a_n + \ddots}}} = \frac{b_1}{\frac{p_n}{q_n} - a_0}$$

427 For example, we consider the cluster of formulas related to the golden ratio shown in figure 3b. A
 428 large portion of these PCFs stem from transforming the known formula for the golden ratio shown in
 429 Eq.1 via the methods aforementioned. The exact transformations are depicted in Table 4.

430 D Analysis of the convergence rate

431 The growth rate for simple continued fraction or equivalently for constant linear recurrences is well
 432 understood, and usually boils down to the matrix defining the recurrence, and its eigenvalues. In our
 433 case, the coefficient in the recurrence also depend on n , so their study is more involved, however the
 434 ideas are similar, which we now describe

435 D.1 Approximating the error rate

436 To find whether or not the sequence $\frac{p_n}{q_n}$ converges and if so what is its convergence rate, we note the
 437 continued fraction formula

$$a(1) + \frac{b(1)}{a(2) + \frac{b(2)}{a(3) + \frac{b(3)}{\ddots + \frac{b(n-1)}{a(n-1)+0}}} = \frac{p_n}{q_n},$$

Table 4: Continued fractions converging to linear fractional transformations of the Golden Ratio ϕ , found using the top left cluster of Figure 3b. Numerous data points in this cluster exhibit identical sequence dynamics and are equivalent under the inflation and index indentation transformations. The equivalent data points create families of continued fractions in the cluster. Discrepancies between the calculated irrationality measure within the same family is ascribed to numerical inaccuracies, typically on the order 0.001. However, when comparing families, discrepancies in the irrationality measure rise to a magnitude of 0.04, suggesting potential deeper distinctions among these PCFs.

A_n	B_n	Limit	Transformation	Irrationality measure δ
1	1	ϕ	Family's canonical form	$\delta = 1.00168$
-1	1	$-\phi$	Inflation by $c_n = -1$	$\delta = 1.00168$
2	4	2ϕ	Inflation by $c_n = 2$	$\delta = 1.00023$
-2	4	-2ϕ	Inflation by $c_n = -2$	$\delta = 1.00023$
$n+1$	$n(n+1)$	ϕ	Inflation by $c_n = n+1$	$\delta = 1.00168$
$-(n+1)$	$n(n+1)$	$-\phi$	Inflation by $c_n = -(n+1)$	$\delta = 1.00168$
$n+2$	$(n+1)(n+2)$	2ϕ	Inflation by $c_n = n+2$	$\delta = 1.00023$
$-(n+2)$	$(n+1)(n+2)$	-2ϕ	Inflation by $c_n = -(n+2)$	$\delta = 1.00023$
$2n+1$	$(2n-1)(2n+1)$	ϕ	Inflation by $c_n = (2n+1)$	$\delta = 1.00168$
$-(2n+1)$	$(2n-1)(2n+1)$	$-\phi$	Inflation by $c_n = -(2n+1)$	$\delta = 1.00168$
$2(n+1)$	$4n(n+1)$	2ϕ	Inflation by $c_n = 2(n+1)$	$\delta = 1.00023$
$-2(n+1)$	$4n(n+1)$	-2ϕ	Inflation by $c_n = -2(n+1)$	$\delta = 1.00023$
5	-5	$\phi+2$	Family's canonical form	$\delta = 1.00168$
-5	-5	$-(\phi+2)$	Inflation by $c_n = -1$	$\delta = 1.00168$
$5(n+1)$	$-5n(n+1)$	$\phi+2$	Inflation by $c_n = n+1$	$\delta = 1.00168$
$-5(n+1)$	$-5n(n+1)+0$	$-(\phi+2)$	Inflation $c_n = -(n+1)$	$\delta = 1.00168$
$n+2$	$n(n+3)$	$(30\phi+6)/19$	Family's canonical form	$\delta = 0.96967$
$-(n+2)$	$n(n+3)$	$-(30\phi+2)/19$	Inflation by $c_n = -1$	$\delta = 0.96967$
$n+3$	$(n+1)(n+4)$	$(30\phi+2)/11$	Indent $n \rightarrow n+1$	$\delta = 0.97245$
$-(n+3)$	$(n+1)(n+4)$	$-(30\phi+2)/11$	Indent $n \rightarrow n+1$ and inflation by $c_n = -1$	$\delta = 0.97245$
$n+3$	$n(n+5)$	$(750\phi+240)/361$	Family's canonical form	$\delta = 0.95243$
$-(n+3)$	$n(n+5)$	$-(750\phi+240)/361$	Inflation by $c_n = -1$	$\delta = 0.95243$

438 can be rewritten in matrix form as

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_{n-1} & p_n \\ q_{n-1} & q_n \end{pmatrix} = \prod_1^{n-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b(k) \\ 1 & a(k) \end{pmatrix}.$$

439 In particular this implies that both p_n and q_n satisfy the same linear recurrence:

$$u_{n+1} = a(n)u_n + b(n)u_{n-1},$$

440 with initial conditions

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_0 & p_1 \\ q_0 & q_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

441 Trying to determine if there is convergence, we use the Cauchy condition. For any $m \geq n$ we have
442 that

$$\frac{p_m}{q_m} - \frac{p_n}{q_n} = \sum_n^{m-1} \left(\frac{p_{k+1}}{q_{k+1}} - \frac{p_k}{q_k} \right) = \sum_n^{m-1} \frac{p_{k+1}q_k - q_{k+1}p_k}{q_k q_{k+1}} = - \sum_n^{m-1} \frac{\det \begin{pmatrix} p_k & p_{k+1} \\ q_k & q_{k+1} \end{pmatrix}}{q_k q_{k+1}} = - \sum_n^{m-1} \frac{(-1)^k \prod_{j=1}^k b(j)}{q_k q_{k+1}}.$$

443 The sequence $\mathbb{K}_1^\infty \frac{b(n)}{a(n)}$ converges if and only if $\sum_1^\infty \frac{\prod_{j=1}^k b(j)}{q_k q_{k+1}}$ converges, and to the same limit L .

444 More over, the convergence rate is

$$\epsilon(n) := \left| \frac{p_n}{q_n} - L \right| = \left| \sum_n^\infty \frac{(-1)^k \prod_{j=1}^k b(j)}{q_k q_{k+1}} \right|.$$

445 This suggests that we should understand the growth rate of both q_k and $\prod_{j=1}^k b(j)$. Note that the
446 convergence and its rate might depend on the sign of $\frac{(-1)^k \prod_{j=1}^k b(j)}{q_k q_{k+1}}$.

447 1. Suppose that $\left| \frac{(-1)^k \prod_{j=1}^k b(j)}{q_k q_{k+1}} \right| = \frac{1}{k^d}$. If the signs do not alternate, then
 448 $\left| \sum_n \frac{(-1)^k \prod_{j=1}^k b(j)}{q_k q_{k+1}} \right| = \sum_n \frac{1}{k^d}$. This diverge if $d = 1$ and has order of magnitude
 449 $\frac{1}{k^{d-1}}$ for $d > 1$. However, with alternating signs we get the smaller bound

$$\sum_{2n} \frac{(-1)^k}{k^d} = \sum_n \left(\frac{1}{(2k)^d} - \frac{1}{(2k+1)^d} \right) = \sum_n \left(\frac{(2k+1)^d - (2k)^d}{(2k)^d (2k+1)^d} \right) \sim \sum_n \frac{d(2k)^{d-1}}{4k^{2d}} \sim \frac{1}{n^d}.$$

450 Thus, it always converges and with better rates.

451 2. However, for faster converging sequences we do not expect alternating sign to affect the
 452 convergence rate. For example, if $\left| \frac{\prod_{j=1}^{m-1} (-b(k))}{q_m q_{m-1}} \right| = \lambda^m$ for some $0 < \lambda < 1$, then with only
 453 positive signs the limit will be $\frac{\lambda^n}{1+\lambda}$ while for alternating signs it will be $\frac{(-\lambda)^n}{1+\lambda}$, so in any
 454 case the convergence rate is exponential.

455 D.2 Growth rate of $\prod_{k=1}^{m-1} |b(k)|$

456 Let $b(x)$ be a polynomial of degree d , with leading coefficient of absolute value B . Then there exists
 457 a constant $C > 0$ such that for any integer N we have

$$(Ne)^{-C} \leq \prod_{k=1}^N \left| \frac{b(k)}{Bk^d} \right| \leq (Ne)^C.$$

458 *Proof.* We may assume that the leading coefficient of b is positive. Writing $b(x) = \sum_0^d b_j x^j$ with
 459 $b_d = B \neq 0$, we want to approximate the product (of the absolute value) of

$$\tilde{b}(k) = 1 + \sum_0^{d-1} \frac{b_j}{B} \frac{1}{k^{d-j}}.$$

460 Hence, we can find an integer constant $C_0 \geq 1$ such that for all $k \geq 1$ we have

$$\left(1 - \frac{C_0}{k} \right) \leq |\tilde{b}(k)| \leq \left(1 + \frac{C_0}{k} \right).$$

461 For all k large enough, all the expression above are positive, so we get

$$\ln \left(1 - \frac{C_0}{k} \right) \leq \ln |\tilde{b}(k)| \leq \ln \left(1 + \frac{C_0}{k} \right).$$

462 With the goal of summing up these expressions from 1 to infinity, we claim that there is some constant
 463 $M > 0$ such that for any $C' \in$, and $2|C'| \leq n < N$ we have that

$$\left| \sum_n^N \ln \left(1 + \frac{C'}{k} \right) - C' \ln \left(\frac{N}{n-1} \right) \right| \leq M. \quad (12)$$

464 Given this claim we conclude that

$$-(C_0 \ln(N) + [M - C_0 \ln(2C_0)]) \leq \sum_{k=2C_0+1}^N \ln \left| \frac{b(k)}{Bk^d} \right| \leq C_0 \ln(N) + [M - C_0 \ln(2C_0)].$$

465 For another C large enough (independent of N), we can start the summation from $k = 1$ to get

$$-C(\ln(N) + 1) \leq \sum_{k=1}^N \ln |\tilde{b}(k)| \leq C(\ln(N) + 1).$$

466 Finally, exponenting it back we get the result we wanted:

$$(Ne)^{-C} \leq \prod_{k=1}^N \left| \tilde{b}(k) \right| \leq (Ne)^C.$$

467 We are left to prove Equation (12).

468 Using the Taylor expansion of $\ln(1+x)$ for $|x| \leq \frac{1}{2}$, we know that there is some large enough
469 $0 < M_0$ such that

$$|\ln(1+x) - x| \leq M_0 x^2.$$

470 It follows that for $2|C'| \leq n < N$ we have

$$\left| \sum_{k=n}^N \left(\ln \left(1 + \frac{C'}{k} \right) - \frac{C'}{k} \right) \right| \leq M_0 C'^2 \sum_n^N \frac{1}{k^2} \leq M_0 C'^2 \zeta(2).$$

471 In addition, we have that $\left| \sum_n^N \frac{1}{k} - \int_{n-1}^N \frac{1}{x} \right| \leq 1$, and

$$\int_{n-1}^N \frac{1}{x} = \ln \left(\frac{N}{n-1} \right).$$

472 Therefore

$$\left| \sum_n^N \ln \left(1 + \frac{C'}{k} \right) - C' \ln \left(\frac{N}{n-1} \right) \right| \leq |C'| + M_0 C'^2 \zeta(2)$$

473 is uniformly bounded. □

474 D.3 Growth rate of q_n

475 The sequence q_n satisfies the linear recurrence

$$q_{n+1} = a(n)q_n + b(n)q_{n-1},$$

476 or in matrix form

$$(q_n, q_{n+1}) = (q_{n-1}, q_n) \overbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 0 & b(n) \\ 1 & a(n) \end{pmatrix}}^{M(n)}.$$

477 If both $a(x), b(x)$ are constant, and therefore $M = M(n)$ is a constant matrix, then this problem
478 reduces to simply $(q_n, q_{n+1}) = (q_0, q_1) M^n$. Its a standard exercise to approximate q_n using the
479 eigenvectors decomposition of M . However, in general not only $M(n)$ is non-constant, its entries
480 have different orders of magnitude.

481 Thus, we would like to move to an “equivalent” system where at the very least $M(n)$ converges
482 to some matrix M_∞ , and then hope to show that the behavior of q_n can be read from the system
483 with M_∞^n . This equivalent system will be built in two steps: first we “balance” the matrix, so its
484 coordinates growth rate are the same, and then taking it outside as a scalar, the remaining sequence of
485 matrices will converge.

486 D.3.1 Matrix balancing

487 This balancing is split into two cases according to the degrees of $d_a = \deg(a(x)), d_b = \deg(b(x))$.

488 Let $d = \max\{d_a, \frac{1}{2}d_b\}$ and denote by A, B the coefficients of x^d, x^{2d} of $a(x), b(x)$ respectively.
489 Note that both A, B are either the corresponding leading coefficients or zero, depending on whether
490 $d_a = d$, respectively $d_b = 2d$. If $2d_a < d_b$ and d_b is odd, then $d_a < d = \frac{d_b}{2}$, and we still consider A
491 to be zero. Regardless of the choice of d , we see that at least one of A or B is not zero (and both if
492 $2d_a = d_b$, which we call a “balanced” PCF).

493 With this choice, taking $\tilde{q}_n = \frac{q_n}{(n!)^d}$, we obtain the linear recurrence

$$\tilde{q}_{n+1} = \frac{a(n)}{(n+1)^d} \tilde{q}_n + \frac{b(n)}{(n(n+1))^d} \tilde{q}_{n-1}.$$

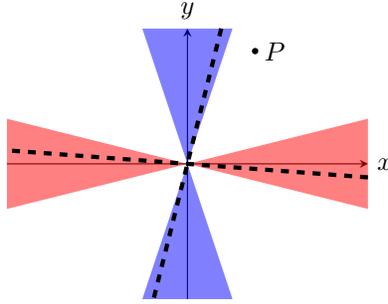


Figure 5: Convergence with variable coefficients

494 Letting $\tilde{a}(n) = \frac{a(n)}{(n+1)^d}$ and $\tilde{b}(n) = \frac{b(n)}{(n(n+1))^d}$, by our choice of d we see that the coefficient or the
 495 recurrence converge, and not both to zero:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{a}(n) &= A \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{b}(n) &= B.\end{aligned}$$

496 Here too we can also write it in a matrix form, namely

$$(\tilde{q}_n, \tilde{q}_{n+1}) = (\tilde{q}_{n-1}, \tilde{q}_n) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \tilde{b}(n) \\ 1 & \tilde{a}(n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

497 We now have a limit matrix, and the dynamics of such a matrix is well known. If both eigenvalues
 498 are real which are distinct in absolute value, then we expect exponential convergence. If both are non
 499 real, and therefore complex conjugate we expect it to behave like a rotation, and therefore will not
 500 converge. In both of these cases, since the eigenvalues are distinct in the limit, this holds for almost
 501 all n , so this behavior should hold in general.

502 In the discriminant zero, the situation is much more delicate, since we can converge to zero in many
 503 ways. For example, the discriminant along the way can be negative, positive or zero. In this notes we
 504 will restrict the study only to the two real eigenvalues with different absolute values.

505 D.3.2 Asymptotics of the continued fraction recurrence

506 The main goal of this section is to approximate the growth rate of a solution u_n to the recurrence

$$u_{n+1} = a_n u_n + b_n u_{n-1},$$

507 where both a_n, b_n converge (and not both to zero) or in matrix form

$$(v_n \ v_{n+1}) = (v_{n-1} \ v_n) M_n \quad , \quad M_n = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b_n \\ 1 & a_n \end{pmatrix},$$

508 where $M_n \rightarrow M := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b \\ 1 & a \end{pmatrix}$.

509 The first step is the standard conjugation to a simpler matrix. Indeed, if $D = PMP^{-1}$ is simpler, e.g.
 510 diagonal, then $D_n := PM_n P^{-1} \rightarrow D$, and $\prod_1^n M_i = P^{-1} \prod_1^n D_i P$, so we more or less need to
 511 understand $\prod_1^n D_i$.

512 In the constant diagonal case $D_n = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$ with $\lambda_1 > |\lambda_2|$, we expect that for almost every
 513 initial condition $\|(\alpha_1, \beta_1) D^k\| \sim \lambda_1^k$. This is true as long as the initial vector is not in $\cdot e_2$, and we
 514 have similar behaviour for other type of matrices. When the D_n are not constant, we need to take a
 515 little bit more care. The image you should have in mind is the following:

516 Instead of the two eigenvectors being on the X and Y axes, they only converge to it, so we only know
 517 that they are somewhere inside the red and blue regions. Thus, to understand this system we first need
 518 a **separation condition** saying that these regions are disjoint. Assuming the X -axis is the pulling axis

519 (larger eigenvalue), we will need at least one point outside the error region around the Y axis, which we
 520 call the **initial condition**. Once both these conditions hold, a standard investigation of diagonalizable
 521 product will show that the point's orbit converge towards the eigenvector in the X -region. As this
 522 region shrinks to X in the limit, we see that the limit of the orbit is there as well. Suppose that
 523 $D_n \rightarrow D$ where $D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_+ & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_- \end{pmatrix}$ with $0 \leq \left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| < 1$ and let $\kappa_n = \frac{1}{|\lambda_+|} \max_{k \geq n} \|D_k - D\|_\infty$.

524 Fix some initial z_1 and let $z_k = (z_1) \prod_1^{k-1} D_n$. Assuming that for some n we have

525 • **Separation condition:** $\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + 4\kappa_n < 1$ and

526 • **Initial condition:** $|z_n| < \frac{\mu_n + \sqrt{(\mu_n - 2\kappa_n)(\mu_n + 2\kappa_n)}}{2\kappa_n}$, $\mu_n = 1 - \left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| - 2\kappa_n$.

527 Then $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |z_k| = 0$.

528 Note that $\frac{\mu_n + \sqrt{(\mu_n - 2\kappa_n)(\mu_n + 2\kappa_n)}}{2\kappa_n} \sim \frac{1 - |\lambda|}{\kappa_n} \rightarrow \infty$ as $\kappa_n \rightarrow 0$, so this initial condition becomes easier
 529 to satisfy as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

530 *Proof.* First, proving the claim for $\frac{1}{\lambda_+} D_n$ instead of D_n , we may assume that the limit is $D =$
 531 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$ where $\lambda = \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+}$.

532 Next, note that whenever $\mu := 1 - |\lambda| - 2\kappa > 2\kappa > 0$, we have that $\sqrt{(\mu - 2\kappa)(\mu + 2\kappa)} =$
 533 $\sqrt{\mu^2 - 4\kappa^2} < \mu$. Setting

$$\nu_\pm(\kappa) = \frac{\mu_\kappa \pm \sqrt{(\mu_\kappa - 2\kappa)(\mu_\kappa + 2\kappa)}}{2\kappa},$$

534 we get that $0 < \nu_-(\kappa) < \nu_+(\kappa)$ are real numbers, and the condition in the assumption is $|z_n| <$
 535 $\nu_+(\kappa_n)$. Our main goal is to prove our process satisfies:

536 1. $|z_k| < \nu_+(\kappa_n)$ for all $k \geq n$ and,

537 2. We have $\limsup_k |z_k| \leq \nu_-(\kappa_n)$.

538 Assuming these two steps are true, the full proof is not too far behind. Indeed, since $D_n \rightarrow D$, the
 539 sequence $\kappa_n := \sup_{k \geq n} \|D_k - D\|$ converges to zero, and note that as $\kappa_n \rightarrow 0$ we get that $\nu_+(\kappa_n) \nearrow \infty$

540 and $\nu_-(\kappa_n) \searrow 0$. Assuming step (1), for $k \geq m \geq n$ we have $|z_k| < \nu_+(\kappa_n) \leq \nu_+(\kappa_m)$, and by
 541 step (2) we get that $\limsup_k |z_k| \leq \nu_-(\kappa_m) \rightarrow 0$.

542 For the remaining of the proof, without loss of generality we may assume that $n = 1$ and just write
 543 κ, μ instead of κ_n, μ_n .

544 To prove these two steps, consider the change from z_k to z_{k+1} . Writing $D_k = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \varepsilon_{1,1} & \varepsilon_{1,2} \\ \varepsilon_{2,1} & \lambda + \varepsilon_{2,2} \end{pmatrix}$,
 545 since $z_{k+1} = (z_k) D_k$ and $\|D - D_k\|_\infty \leq \kappa$, we get that

$$|z_{k+1}| = \left| \frac{\varepsilon_{1,2} + z_k(\lambda + \varepsilon_{2,2})}{(1 + \varepsilon_{1,1}) + z_k \varepsilon_{2,1}} \right| \leq \frac{\kappa + |z_k|(|\lambda| + \kappa)}{1 - \kappa - \kappa|z_k|}.$$

546 Note that the final denominator is positive, so that the last inequality is valid. Indeed, using the
 547 conditions of the claim we get

$$1 - \kappa(1 + |z_k|) \geq 1 - \kappa \left(1 + \frac{\mu + \sqrt{(\mu - 2\kappa)(\mu + 2\kappa)}}{2\kappa} \right) > 1 - (\kappa + \mu) = |\lambda| + \kappa > 0.$$

548 Thus, we can rewrite the inequality as

$$|z_{k+1}| \leq M_\varepsilon(|z_k|), \quad M_\varepsilon = \begin{pmatrix} |\lambda| + \kappa & \kappa \\ -\kappa & 1 - \kappa \end{pmatrix}. \quad (13)$$

549 The goal now is to show that if $|z_k|$ is “large”, then $|z_{k+1}|$ is much smaller, and if $|z_k|$ is small, then
 550 $|z_{k+1}|$ cannot increase too much.

551 A simple computations shows that the eigenvalues of this matrix are

$$\gamma_{\pm} = \frac{|\lambda| + 1 \pm \sqrt{(\mu + 2\kappa)(\mu - 2\kappa)}}{2},$$

552 and since $\sqrt{(\mu + 2\kappa)(\mu - 2\kappa)} \leq \mu \leq 1 - |\lambda|$, we get that

$$\gamma_+ > \gamma_- > 0.$$

553 Finally, the corresponding (right) eigenvectors are

$$v_{\pm} = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_{\mp} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

554 To simplify the notations, let us conjugate by the matrix $T = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_+ & \nu_- \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ to obtain

$$T^{-1}M_{\varepsilon}T = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_- & 0 \\ 0 & \gamma_+ \end{pmatrix}.$$

555 Note that the Mobius map

$$T^{-1}(z) := \frac{1}{\nu_+ - \nu_-} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\nu_- \\ -1 & \nu_+ \end{pmatrix} (z) = -\frac{z - \nu_-}{z - \nu_+} = -1 + \frac{\nu_- - \nu_+}{z - \nu_+}$$

556 sends $\nu_- \mapsto 0$, $\nu_+ \mapsto \infty$ and $0 \mapsto -\frac{\nu_-}{\nu_+} < 0$. In particular, it is monotone increasing on $[0, \nu_+)$, so
 557 that our two steps from above are equivalent to

558 1. $T^{-1}(|z_k|) \in [-\frac{\nu_-}{\nu_+}, \infty)$,

559 2. $\limsup_k T^{-1}(|z_k|) \in [-\frac{\nu_-}{\nu_+}, 0]$,

560 and the claim’s original assumption is that $T^{-1}(|z_1|) \in [-\frac{\nu_-}{\nu_+}, \infty)$. However, now this claim is
 561 simple, since in these notations we get that

$$T^{-1}(M_{\varepsilon}(|z_k|)) = (T^{-1}M_{\varepsilon}T)(T^{-1}(|z_k|)) = \frac{\gamma_-}{\gamma_+} \cdot T^{-1}(|z_k|),$$

562 and $0 < \frac{\gamma_-}{\gamma_+} < 1$. Thus, if $T^{-1}(|z_k|) \in [-\frac{\nu_-}{\nu_+}, \infty)$, then so is $T^{-1}(M_{\varepsilon}(|z_k|)) \in [-\frac{\nu_-}{\nu_+}, \infty)$, so by
 563 Equation (13) and the monotonicity of T , we obtain that

$$T^{-1}(|z_{k+1}|) \leq \frac{\gamma_-}{\gamma_+} \cdot T^{-1}(|z_k|),$$

564 which implies the two steps. □

565 Returning back to the recursion, we get the following

566 Suppose that we have a solution to the recurrence $v_{n+1} = a_n v_n + b_n v_{n-1}$, where $a_n \rightarrow a, b_n \rightarrow b$
 567 and suppose that λ_{\pm} are the roots of $x^2 = ax + b$ with $0 \leq |\lambda_-| < \lambda_+$. Writing $\kappa'_n =$
 568 $\frac{1}{|\lambda_+|} \max_{k \geq n} \max \{|a_k - a|, |b_k - b|\}$ and $C(\lambda_{\pm}) := \frac{1+|\lambda_+|}{|\lambda_+ - \lambda_-|}$, Assume that for some n we have

569 • **Separation condition:** $\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + 4C(\lambda_{\pm}) \kappa'_n < 1$ and

570 • **Initial condition:** $\left| \lambda_- - \frac{v_n}{v_{n-1}} \right| \geq C(\lambda_{\pm}) \kappa'_n \frac{|\lambda_+ - \lambda_-|}{1 - \left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| - 4C(\lambda_{\pm}) \kappa'_n},$

571 Then

$$\frac{v_n}{v_{n-1}} \rightarrow \lambda_+.$$

572 *Proof.* Set $M_n = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b_n \\ 1 & a_n \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b \\ 1 & a \end{pmatrix}$ as in the beginning of this section. With $P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \lambda_+ \\ 1 & \lambda_- \end{pmatrix}$
573 and $P^{-1} = \frac{1}{\lambda_- - \lambda_+} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_- & -\lambda_+ \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ we have that $D = PMP^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_+ & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_- \end{pmatrix}$. We would like to apply
574 Lemma D.3.2 to the matrices $D_n = PM_nP^{-1}$.

575 For the **separation condition** on the infinity norm, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|PM_nP^{-1} - D\|_\infty &= \|P(M_n - M)P^{-1}\|_\infty = \frac{1}{|\lambda_- - \lambda_+|} \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \lambda_+ \\ 1 & \lambda_- \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b_n - b \\ 0 & a_n - a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_- & -\lambda_+ \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\|_\infty \\ &= \frac{1}{|\lambda_- - \lambda_+|} \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \lambda_+ \\ 1 & \lambda_- \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b - b_n & b_n - b \\ a - a_n & a_n - a \end{pmatrix} \right\|_\infty \leq \frac{\overbrace{1 + |\lambda_+|}^{C(\lambda_\pm)}}{|\lambda_+ - \lambda_-|} \|M_n - M\|_\infty. \end{aligned}$$

576 Thus, the separation condition of this theorem implies the separation condition of Lemma D.3.2:

$$\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + 4\kappa_n \leq \left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + 4C(\lambda_\pm) \frac{1}{|\lambda_+|} \max_{k \geq n} \|M_n - M\|_\infty < 1$$

577 Next, for the **initial condition**, setting

$$(v_{k-1} \ v_k) := (v_0 \ v_1) \left(\prod_1^{k-1} M_n \right) = (v_0 \ v_1) P^{-1} \left(\prod_1^{k-1} D_n \right) P$$

578 we have

$$(\alpha_k, \beta_k) = (v_0 \ v_1) P^{-1} \left(\prod_1^{k-1} D_n \right) = (v_{k-1}, v_k) P^{-1}.$$

579 Setting $z_n = \frac{\beta_n}{\alpha_n}$, we get that

$$|z_n| = \left| \frac{\beta_n}{\alpha_n} \right| = \left| \frac{-\lambda_+ v_{n-1} + v_n}{\lambda_- v_{n-1} - v_n} \right| = \left| 1 + \frac{\lambda_+ - \lambda_-}{\lambda_- - \frac{v_n}{v_{n-1}}} \right| \leq 1 + \left| \frac{\lambda_+ - \lambda_-}{\lambda_- - \frac{v_n}{v_{n-1}}} \right| = (*).$$

580 Using the assumption that $\left| \lambda_- - \frac{v_n}{v_{n-1}} \right| \geq C(\lambda_\pm) \kappa'_n \frac{|\lambda_+ - \lambda_-|}{1 - \left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| - 4C(\lambda_\pm) \kappa'_n} \geq \kappa_n \frac{|\lambda_+ - \lambda_-|}{1 - \left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| - 4\kappa_n}$, we see
581 that the expression above is

$$(*) \leq 1 + \frac{|\lambda_+ - \lambda_-|}{\kappa_n \frac{|\lambda_+ - \lambda_-|}{1 - \left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| - 4\kappa_n}} = 1 + \frac{1 - \left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| - 4\kappa_n}{\kappa_n} = \frac{2\mu_n - 2\kappa_n}{2\kappa_n} < \frac{\mu_n + \sqrt{(\mu_n - 2\kappa_n)(\mu_n + 2\kappa_n)}}{2\kappa_n}.$$

582 This was the second condition needed for Lemma D.3.2, so we can now conclude that

$$\left| 1 + \frac{\lambda_+ - \lambda_-}{\lambda_- - \frac{v_n}{v_{n-1}}} \right| = \left| \frac{\beta_n}{\alpha_n} \right| \rightarrow 0$$

583 which implies that $\frac{v_n}{v_{n-1}} \rightarrow \lambda_+$. □

584 D.4 Conclusion

585 We return now to the original problem with $\alpha = \mathbb{K}_1^\infty \frac{b(n)}{a(n)}$ and assume that $a(x), b(x)$ have degrees
586 d_a, d_b . As mentioned before, we split our study into two cases:

587 The balanced case

588 Assume that $d_b = 2d_a = 2d$, and let A, B be the leading coefficients of $a(x), b(x)$ respectively.

589 In this case the limit matrix is $M_\infty = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ 1 & A \end{pmatrix}$, and we assume that the roots λ_\pm of $x^2 = Ax + B$
590 satisfy $0 < |\lambda_-| < \lambda_+$. Using Theorem D.3.2 once the two conditions hold, we obtain

$$\frac{q_{n+1}}{q_n} (n+1)^d = \frac{q_{n+1}/(n+1)!^d}{q_n/n!^d} \rightarrow \lambda_+,$$

591 implying that $q_n = n!^d \lambda_+^n \exp(o(n))$. As for the product of the $b(k)$, using Claim D.2 we have that

$$\prod_{k=1}^N |b(k)| = \exp(o(N)) \cdot B^N \cdot N!^{2d}.$$

592 Putting them together as in the error rate expression, we get :

$$\frac{\prod_{k=1}^{m-1} |b(k)|}{|q_{m-1} q_m|} = \frac{|B|^{m-1} \cdot (m-1)!^{2d}}{(m-1)!^d (m)!^d \lambda_+^{2m-1}} \exp(o(m)) = (*).$$

593 Note that $|B| = |\det(M_\infty)| = |\lambda_- \lambda_+|$, so that the expression above is

$$(*) = |\lambda_- / \lambda_+|^m \cdot \exp(o(m)) = \exp(m \log |\lambda_- / \lambda_+| + o(m)).$$

594 Thus, for given $\varepsilon > 0$ where $\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + \varepsilon < 1$, and for any m large enough we see that $(*) \leq$

595 $\left(\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + \varepsilon \right)^{m-1}$. We conclude that the error rate for all n large enough is bounded from above by

$$\left| \frac{p_n}{q_n} - \alpha \right| \leq \sum_{m=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^{m-1} |b(k)|}{|q_{m-1} q_m|} \leq \sum_{m=n+1}^{\infty} \left(\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + \varepsilon \right)^{m-1} = \left(\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + \varepsilon \right)^n \frac{1}{1 - \left(\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + \varepsilon \right)}.$$

596 It follows that

$$\ln \left| \frac{p_n}{q_n} - \alpha \right| \leq n \ln \left(\left(\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + \varepsilon \right) \right) - \ln \left(1 - \left(\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| + \varepsilon \right) \right) \sim n \ln \left(\left| \frac{\lambda_-}{\lambda_+} \right| \right).$$

597 The unbalanced case

598 Suppose now that $d_b < 2d_a = 2d$, so that $B = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b(n)}{(n(n+1))^{d_a}} = 0$. This time the two

599 roots of $x^2 = Ax + 0$ are $\lambda = 0, A$. If needed, we can use a simple continued fraction inflation

600 $\mathbb{K}_1^\infty \left(\frac{(-1)^2 b(n)}{(-1)^a (n)} \right)$ and assume that $A > 0$. Using Theorem D.3.2, if the two conditions hold, we obtain

601 $q_n = n!^d A^n \exp(o(n))$.

602 Letting \hat{B} be the leading coefficient of $b(x)$ in absolute value, Claim D.2 implies that

$$\prod_{k=1}^N |b(k)| = \exp(o(N)) \cdot \hat{B}^N \cdot N!^{d_b}.$$

603 Again, together we obtain that

$$\frac{\prod_{k=1}^{m-1} |b(k)|}{|q_{m-1} q_m|} = \frac{\hat{B}^{m-1} \cdot (m-1)!^{d_b}}{(m-1)!^d m!^d A^{2m-1}} \exp(o(m)) = \frac{1}{(m-1)!^{2d_a - d_b}} \cdot \left(\frac{\hat{B}}{A^2} \right)^m \exp(o(m))$$

604 Similarly to the previous case, given $\varepsilon > 0$, and using the fact that $2d_a - d_b \geq 1$, for all n large
605 enough we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{p_n}{q_n} - \alpha \right| &\leq \sum_{m=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{\prod_{k=1}^{m-1} |b(k)|}{|q_{m-1} q_m|} \leq \sum_{m=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(m-1)!^{2d_a - d_b}} \cdot \left(\frac{\hat{B}}{A^2} + \varepsilon \right)^{m-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{n!^{2d_a - d_b}} \left(\frac{\hat{B}}{A^2} + \varepsilon \right)^n \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n!}{(n+m)!} \right)^{2d_a - d_b} \cdot \left(\frac{\hat{B}}{A^2} + \varepsilon \right)^m \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n!^{2d_a - d_b}} \left(\frac{\hat{B}}{A^2} + \varepsilon \right)^n \left[\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{m!} \right)^{2d_a - d_b} \cdot \left(\frac{\hat{B}}{A^2} + \varepsilon \right)^m \right]. \end{aligned}$$

606 The infinite sum in the last expression converges to some finite limit \tilde{C} , so we conclude that

$$\ln \left| \frac{p_n}{q_n} - \alpha \right| \leq (d_b - 2d_a) \ln(n!) + n \ln \left| \frac{\hat{B}}{A^2} + \varepsilon \right| + \ln |\tilde{C}| \sim (d_b - 2d_a) n \cdot \ln |n|.$$

607 **NeurIPS Paper Checklist**

608 **1. Claims**

609 Question: Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the
610 paper's contributions and scope?

611 Answer: [\[Yes\]](#)

612 Justification: Yes, the main results, motivations and aspirational goals are included in the
613 abstract (section 1) and introduction (section 2).

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618 contributions made in the paper and important assumptions and limitations. A No or
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625 Question: Does the paper discuss the limitations of the work performed by the authors?

626 Answer: [\[Yes\]](#)

627 Justification: We discuss limitations and required assumptions of the Blind- δ Algorithm in
628 section 3.4, the dynamical metric estimation via down-sampled curve fitting in Appendix A,
629 and of PCF convergence and the delta-predictor formula (Eq.5) in Appendix D.

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Answer: [Yes]

Justification: Most of the results in this work are mathematical hypotheses (numerically validated) - presented without proof. The main theoretical result (Eq.5) is proven in Appendix D.

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Question: Does the paper provide open access to the data and code, with sufficient instructions to faithfully reproduce the main experimental results, as described in supplemental material?

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Justification: The code is submitted for review, and the git repository will be linked in the camera-ready version. The data set is mathematical formulas and constants - so freely available to all.

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Question: Does the paper specify all the training and test details (e.g., data splits, hyper-parameters, how they were chosen, type of optimizer, etc.) necessary to understand the results?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: In this work we are using unsupervised recurring clustering as the main machine learning method, and the results are mostly validated using the (test) subset of known PCF formulas for mathematical constants. This subset was included in the full data set but wasn't given any special treatment during clustering (as mentioned in section 4.1).

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Question: Does the paper report error bars suitably and correctly defined or other appropriate information about the statistical significance of the experiments?

Answer: [Yes]

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789 Answer: [Yes]

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