

To my father Pierre F.M. Cuyt.

ABSTRACT PADÉ-APPROXIMANTS IN OPERATOR THEORY**

by

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The use of Padé-approximants for the solution of mathematical problems in science has great development. Padé-approximants have proved to be very useful in numerical analysis too : the solution of a nonlinear equation, acceleration of convergence, numerical integration by using nonlinear techniques, the solution of ordinary and partial differential equations. Especially in the presence of singularities the use of Padé-approximants has been very interesting.

Yet we have tried to generalize the concept of Padé-approximant to operator theory, departing from "power-series-expansions" as is done in the classical theory*.

A lot of interesting properties of classical Padé-approximants remain valid and the classical Padé-approximant is now a special case of the theory. The notion of abstract Padé-table is introduced; it also consists of squares of equal elements as in the classical theory.

* Roman figures between brackets refer to a work in the reference-list.

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0. NOTATIONS

R_0^+	{positive real numbers}
X, Y	always normed vectorspaces or Banach-spaces or Banach-algebras with unit
$L(X, Y)$	{linear bounded operators $L : X \rightarrow Y$ }
$L(X^k, Y)$	{k-linear bounded operators $L : X \rightarrow L(X^{k-1}, Y)$ }
Λ	field R or C
λ, μ, \dots	elements of Λ
0	unit for addition in a Banach-space, or multilinear operator $L \in L(X^k, Y)$ such that $Lx_1 \dots x_k = 0 \quad \forall (x_1, \dots, x_k) \in X^k$
1	unit for multiplication in a Banach-algebra
1	unit for multiplication in Λ
F, G, \dots	non-linear operators : $X \rightarrow Y$
$B(x_0, r)$	open ball with centre $x_0 \in X$ and radius $r > 0$
$\bar{B}(x_0, r)$	closed ball with centre $x_0 \in X$ and radius $r > 0$
P, Q, R, S, T, \dots	non-linear operators : $X \rightarrow Y$, usually abstract polynomials
$\partial P, \partial Q, \dots$	exact degree of the abstract polynomial P, Q, \dots
$F^{(k)}(x_0)$	k^{th} Fréchet-derivative of the operator $F : X \rightarrow Y$ in x_0
$D(G)$	{ $x \in X \mid G(x)$ is regular in Y } for the operator $G : X \rightarrow Y$ (=Banach-algebra)
A_i, B_j, C_k, D_s	i-linear, j-linear, k-linear, s-linear operators

1. INTRODUCTION

A lot of attempts have been made to generalize in some way classical Padé-approximants. We refer e.g. to quadratic Padé-approximants (X, XV) , Chebyshev-Padé or

Legendre-Padé (VII), operator Padé-approximants for formal power series in a parameter with non-commuting elements of a certain algebra as coefficients (VI), N -variable rational approximants (VIII, IX, XI, XII, XIII, XIV).

Another generalisation now is the following one.

Let X and Y be Banach-spaces (same field Λ). We always work in the norm-topology.

We define $L(X^k, Y) = \{L \mid L \text{ is a } k\text{-linear bounded operator, } L : X \rightarrow L(X^{k-1}, Y)\}$ and

$L(X^0, Y) = Y$. So $Lx_1 \dots x_k = (Lx_1)(x_2 \dots x_k) \in Y$ with $x_1, \dots, x_k \in X$ and $Lx_1 \in L(X^{k-1}, Y)$

(V pp. 100), $L \in L(X^k, Y)$ is called symmetric if $Lx_1 \dots x_k = Lx_{i_1} \dots x_{i_k}$, $\forall (x_1, \dots, x_k) \in X^k$ and \forall permutations (i_1, \dots, i_k) of $(1, \dots, k)$ (V pp. 103).

We remark that the operator $\bar{L} \in L(X^k, Y)$ defined by $\bar{L}x_1 \dots x_k = \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{(i_1, \dots, i_k)} Lx_{i_1} \dots x_{i_k}$ for a given $L \in L(X^k, Y)$ is symmetric.

Let us identify $y \in Y$ with the constant operator $X \rightarrow Y : x \rightarrow y$ and call it o -linear.

Definition 1.1. : An abstract polynomial is a non-linear operator $P : X \rightarrow Y$ such that

$$P(x) = A_n x^n + \dots + A_0 \in Y \text{ with } \begin{cases} A_i \in L(X^i, Y) \\ A_i \text{ symmetric} \end{cases}$$

The degree of $P(x)$ is n .

The notation for the exact degree of $P(x)$ is ∂P .

Definition 1.2. : Let X be a Banach-space, Y a Banach-algebra; let $F : X \rightarrow Y$ and

$G : X \rightarrow Y$ be operators.

The product $F.G$ is defined by : $(F.G)(x) = F(x).G(x)$ in Y .

Definition 1.3. : Let $X_1, \dots, X_p, Z_1, \dots, Z_q$ be vector spaces and Y an algebra (same

field Λ). Let $F : X_1 \times \dots \times X_p \rightarrow Y$ be bounded and p -linear, and

$G : Z_1 \times \dots \times Z_q \rightarrow Y$ be bounded and q -linear.

The tensorproduct $F \otimes G$: $X_1 \times \dots \times X_p \times Z_1 \times \dots \times Z_q \rightarrow Y$ is bounded and $(p+q)$ -

linear when defined by $(F \otimes G)_{x_1 \dots x_p z_1 \dots z_q} = F_{x_1 \dots x_p} \cdot G_{z_1 \dots z_q}$

(IIpp.318).

One can easily prove that in a Banach-algebra Y :

$$(F.G)'(x_0) = F'(x_0) \otimes G(x_0) + F(x_0) \otimes G'(x_0) ,$$

where the accent stands for Fréchet-differentiation.

We call $y \in Y$ regular if there exists $y^{-1} \in Y$ such that : $y.y^{-1} = I = y^{-1}.y$;

we call $y \in Y$ singular if it is not regular.

Definition 1.4. : Let $G : X \rightarrow Y$ with X a Banach-space and Y a Banach-algebra;

$D(G) = \{x \in X \mid G(x) \text{ is regular in } Y\}$ is an open set in X (III pp.31).

The operator $\frac{1}{G}$ is defined by $\frac{1}{G} : D(G) \subset X \rightarrow Y : x \rightarrow [G(x)]^{-1}$.

One can easily prove that in a commutative Banach-algebra Y :

$$\left(\frac{1}{G}\right)'(x_0) = -G'(x_0) \otimes \left(\frac{1}{G}(x_0)\right)^2 .$$

Let again X and Y both be Banach-spaces.

We note the fact that $F^{(k)}(x_0)$, the k^{th} derivative of an operator $F : X \rightarrow Y$ in x_0 , is a symmetric k -linear operator (V pp. 110).

Abstract polynomials are differentiated as in elementary calculus :

if $P(x) = A_n x^n + \dots + A_0$ with $A_i \in L(X^i, Y)$ and A_i symmetric, then

$$P'(x_0) = n.A_n x_0^{n-1} + \dots + A_1 \in L(X, Y)$$

$$P^{(2)}(x_0) = n.(n-1).A_n x_0^{n-2} + \dots + 2A_2 \in L(X^2, Y)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$P^{(n)}(x_0) = n.A_n \in L(X^n, Y)$$

We now can easily prove the fact that if for an abstract polynomial

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n C_i x^i \text{ with } C_i \in L(X^i, Y) \text{ and } C_i \text{ symmetric: } P(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in X, \text{ then } C_i \equiv 0$$

$\forall i \in \{0, \dots, n\}$.

Let $B(x_0, r) = \{x \in X \mid \|x_0 - x\| < r\}$ for $r \in \mathbb{R}_0^+$ and $x_0 \in X$.

Definition 1.5. : The operator $F : X \rightarrow Y$ possesses an abstract Taylor-series in x_0 if

$\exists B(x_0, r)$ with $r > 0$:

$$F(x_0 + h) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \cdot F^{(k)}(x_0) h^k \text{ for } x_0 + h \in B(x_0, r).$$

We then call F abstract analytic in x_0 (V pp. 113).

2. DEFINITION OF ABSTRACT PADE-APPROXIMANT

To generalize the notion of Padé-approximant we start from analyticity, as in elementary calculus.

Let $F : X \rightarrow Y$ be a non-linear operator, X a Banach-space and Y a Banach-algebra. Let F be analytic in $B(x_0, r)$ with $r > 0$.

So F has the following abstract Taylor-series :

$$F(x_0 + x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} F^{(k)}(x_0) x^k \quad (1)$$

$$\text{with } \frac{1}{0!} F^{(0)}(x_0) x^0 = F(x_0)$$

$$\text{and } F^{(k)}(x_0) \in L(X^k, Y)$$

We give some examples of such series :

a) $C([0, 1])$ with the supremum-norm and $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x)$ for $f, g \in C([0, 1])$, is a commutative Banach-algebra. Consider the Nemyckii-operator $G : C([0, 1]) \rightarrow C([0, 1]) : x \rightarrow g(s, x(s))$ with $g \in C^{(\infty)}([0, 1] \times C([0, 1]))$ (V pp. 95).

Let $I_x : C([0, 1]) \rightarrow C([0, 1]) : x \rightarrow x$.

Then clearly $G^{(n)}(x_0) = \frac{\partial^n g}{\partial x^n}(s, x_0(s)) \cdot \underbrace{I_x \otimes \dots \otimes I_x}_{n \text{ times}}$, n -linear and bounded.

b) Consider the Urysohn integral operator $U : C([0, 1]) \rightarrow C([0, 1]) :$

$$x \rightarrow \int_0^1 f(s, t, x(t)) dt \text{ with } f \in C^{(\infty)}([0, 1] \times [0, 1] \times C([0, 1])) \quad (\text{V pp. 97}).$$

Let $[]$ indicate a place-holder for $x(t) \in C([0, 1])$ (V pp. 90).

$$\text{Then we write } U^{(n)}(x_0) = \int_0^1 \frac{\partial^n f}{\partial x^n}(s, t, x_0(t)) \underbrace{[] \dots []}_{n \text{ times}} dt$$

c) Consider the operator $P : C'([0, T]) \rightarrow C([0, T]) : y \rightarrow \frac{dy}{dt} - f(t, y)$ in the initial value problem $P(y) = 0$ with $y(0) = a \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let $f \in C^{(\infty)}([0, T] \times C'([0, T]))$ and $I_y : C'([0, T]) \rightarrow C([0, T]) : y \rightarrow y$.

We remark that $C^{(i)}([0, T])$ with the supremum-norm is a Banach space.

We see that $P'(y_0) = \frac{d}{dt} - \frac{\partial f(t, y)}{\partial y}(t, y_0) \cdot I_y$ and

$$P^{(n)}(y_0) = \frac{-\partial^n f(t, y)}{\partial y^n}(t, y_0) \cdot \underbrace{I_y \otimes \dots \otimes I_y}_{n \text{ times}} \text{ for } n \geq 2.$$

d) Finally let this nonlinear system of 2 real variables $F\left(\frac{\xi}{\eta}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} \xi + \sin(\xi\eta) + 1 \\ \xi^2 + \eta^2 - 4\xi\eta \end{pmatrix}$

be given; let $x_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. \mathbb{R}^2 with component-wise multiplication is a Banach-algebra with unit $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\text{Then } F(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \xi\eta \\ \xi^2 + \eta^2 - 4\xi\eta \end{pmatrix} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \begin{pmatrix} (-1)^k \cdot \frac{(\xi\eta)^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Definition 2.1. : Let $F : X \rightarrow Y$ be an operator with X and Y Banach-spaces.

We say that $\underline{F(x) = 0(x^j)}$ if $\exists J \in \mathbb{R}_0^+$,

$\exists B(0, r)$ with $0 < r < 1 : \forall x \in B(0, r) : \|F(x)\| \leq J \cdot \|x\|^j \quad (j \in \mathbb{N})$

Now let $x_0 = 0$ without loss of generality, and let Y be a commutative Banach-algebra.

In Y we can use the fact that for $y, z \in Y : y \cdot z$ regular $\Leftrightarrow y$ regular and z regular.

Definition 2.2. : In Padé-approximation we try to find a couple of abstract poly-

nomials $(P(x), Q(x)) = (A_{n, m+n} x^{n \cdot m+n} + \dots + A_{n, m} x^{n \cdot m},$

$B_{n, m+m} x^{n \cdot m+m} + \dots + B_{n, m} x^{n \cdot m})$

such that the abstract power series

$$F(x) \cdot (B_{n, m+m} x^{n \cdot m+m} + \dots + B_{n, m} x^{n \cdot m}) - (A_{n, m+n} x^{n \cdot m+n} + \dots + A_{n, m} x^{n \cdot m}) = 0(x^{n \cdot m+n+m+1}).$$

(In 5.f) we justify the choice of $(P(x), Q(x))$ made here).

Write $\frac{1}{k!} \cdot F^{(k)}(0) = C_k \in L(X^k, Y)$.

The condition in definition 2.2 is equivalent with (1a) and (1b) :

$$(1a) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} C_0 \cdot B_{n,m} x^{n,m} = A_{n,m} x^{n,m} \quad \forall x \in X \\ C_1 x \cdot B_{n,m} x^{n,m} + C_0 \cdot B_{n,m+1} x^{n,m+1} = A_{n,m+1} x^{n,m+1} \quad \forall x \in X \\ \vdots \\ C_n x^n \cdot B_{n,m} x^{n,m} + C_{n-1} x^{n-1} \cdot B_{n,m+1} x^{n,m+1} + \dots + C_0 \cdot B_{n,m+n} x^{n,m+n} = \\ A_{n,m+n} x^{n,m+n} \quad \forall x \in X \end{array} \right.$$

with $B_j \equiv 0 \in L(X^j, Y)$ if $j > n, m+m$

$$(1b) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} C_{n+1} x^{n+1} \cdot B_{n,m} x^{n,m} + \dots + C_{n+1-m} x^{n+1-m} \cdot B_{n,m+m} x^{n,m+m} = 0 \quad \forall x \in X \\ \vdots \\ C_{n+m} x^{n+m} \cdot B_{n,m} x^{n,m} + \dots + C_n x^n \cdot B_{n,m+m} x^{n,m+m} = 0 \quad \forall x \in X \end{array} \right.$$

with $C_k \equiv 0 \in L(X^k, Y)$ if $k < 0$.

For every solution $\{B_{n,m+j} x^{n,m+j} | j=0, \dots, m\}$ of (1b), a solution $\{A_{n,m+i} x^{n,m+i} | i=0, \dots, n\}$ of (1a) can be computed.

3. EXISTENCE OF A SOLUTION

a) case : $m=0$

Choose $B_{n,m} = B_0 = I$, unit for the multiplication in Y .

Then $A_i = C_i$ for $i=0, \dots, n$ are a solution of (1a).

The partial sums of (1) are the sought abstract polynomials.

b) case : $m \neq 0$

Compute $D_{n,m} = \sum_{i_1=1}^m \dots \sum_{i_m=1}^m [\varepsilon_{i_1} \dots \varepsilon_{i_m} \otimes_{j=1}^m C_{n-(j-1)+(i_j-1)}]$

with $i_1, \dots, i_m \in \{1, \dots, m\}$, and $\epsilon_{i_1 \dots i_m} = +1$ when $i_1 \dots i_m$ is an even permutation of $1 \dots m$, and $\epsilon_{i_1 \dots i_m} = -1$ when $i_1 \dots i_m$ is an odd permutation of $1 \dots m$, and $\epsilon_{i_1 \dots i_m} = 0$ elsewhere.

Compute for $h=1, \dots, m: D_{n,m+h}$ by replacing in $D_{n,m}$ the operator $C_{n-(h-1)+(i_h-1)}$ by the operator $-C_{n+1+(i_h-1)}$.

Clearly $D_{n,m+h} \in L(X^{n,m+h}, Y)$ for $h=0, \dots, m$.

Now $D_{n,m+h} x^{n,m+h}$ is a solution of system (1b); and $D_{n,m+h} x^{n,m+h} = \bar{D}_{n,m+h} x^{n,m+h}$.

We thus can consider a symmetric solution, also for (1a).

This is a correct procedure to calculate a solution. But in some cases it can be more practical to solve the system otherwise, e.g. to get the most general form of the solution.

4. UNICITY OF A SOLUTION

From now on $F : X \rightarrow Y$ is a nonlinear operator with X a Banach-space and Y a commutative Banach-algebra such that for each polynomial $T : X \rightarrow Y$ with $D(T) \neq \emptyset$, the set $D(T)$ is dense in X (or any other equivalent condition).

This is the case e.g. for $F : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^q$; if $T(x) = (\sum_{j_1+\dots+j_p=0}^m \alpha_{ij_1 \dots j_p} x_1^{j_1} \dots x_p^{j_p}, i=1, \dots, q)$, $D(T) \neq \emptyset$, the set $X \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^q \{(x_1, \dots, x_p) \in \mathbb{R}^p \mid \sum_{j_1+\dots+j_p=0}^m \alpha_{ij_1 \dots j_p} x_1^{j_1} \dots x_p^{j_p} = 0\}$ is dense in X with the norm-topology. We then have the following important lemma.

Lemma 4.1. :

Let U, T be abstract polynomials : $X \rightarrow Y$ $U(x) \cdot T(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in X$ $\{x \in X \mid T(x) \text{ regular}\} \text{ is dense in } X$	}	$\Rightarrow U \equiv 0$
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After calculating the solution of (1a) and (1b) we are going to look for an irreducible rational approximant.

Definition 4.1. : Let P and Q be 2 abstract polynomials. We call $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ reducible if there exist abstract polynomials T, R, S such that $P = T \cdot R = R \cdot T$ and $Q = T \cdot S = S \cdot T$ and $\partial T \geq 1$, $\partial R \geq 0$, $\partial S \geq 0$.

For reducible $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ we know that $\forall x \in D(Q) : (\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)(x) = (\frac{1}{S} \cdot R)(x)$.
It is possible that $\frac{1}{S}$ is defined on a greater domain than $\frac{1}{Q}$.

Lemma 4.2. :

Let P, Q, R be abstract polynomials : $X \rightarrow Y$

$$\text{For } R = P \cdot Q : \begin{cases} D(R) = D(P) \cap D(Q) \\ D(R) = \phi \Leftrightarrow D(P) = \phi \text{ or } D(Q) = \phi \end{cases}$$

Proof : $R(x)$ regular $\Leftrightarrow P(x)$ regular and $Q(x)$ regular

so $D(R) = D(P) \cap D(Q)$

We know that $D(P)$ is open (and so is $D(Q)$)

$D(Q)$ is dense in X if $D(Q) \neq \phi$ (and so is $D(P)$)

If $D(P) = \phi$ or $D(Q) = \phi$ then evidently $D(R) = \phi$.

The second implication is proved by contraposition.

If $D(R) = \phi$ and $\exists x \in D(P)$ then $\exists r_0 > 0 : B(x, r_0) \subset D(P)$.

Now $\forall x \in X, \forall r > 0 : B(x, r) \cap D(Q) \neq \phi$.

And so $\phi \neq B(x, r_0) \cap D(Q) \subseteq D(P) \cap D(Q)$.

This implies a contradiction.

Definition 4.2. : Let (P, Q) be a couple of abstract polynomials satisfying definition 2.2 and suppose $D(Q) \neq \phi$ or $D(P) \neq \phi$. Possibly $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ is reducible. Let $\frac{1}{Q_\star} \cdot P_\star$ be the irreducible form of $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ such that $0 \in D(Q_\star)$ and $Q_\star(0) = I$, if it exists. We then call $\frac{1}{Q_\star} \cdot P_\star$ an abstract Padé-approximant of order (n, m) for F .

That irreducible form $\frac{1}{Q_\star} \cdot P_\star$ with $Q_\star(0) = I$ is unique because if $P = P_{\star 1} \cdot T_1 = P_{\star 2} \cdot T_2$

and $Q = Q_{\star 1} \cdot T_1 = Q_{\star 2} \cdot T_2$ with $\frac{1}{Q_{\star 1}} \cdot P_{\star 1}$ and $\frac{1}{Q_{\star 2}} \cdot P_{\star 2}$ irreducible, $Q_{\star 1}(0) = I = Q_{\star 2}(0)$, $D(T_1) \neq \emptyset$ and $D(T_2) \neq \emptyset$, then $P_{\star 1} \cdot Q_{\star 2} = P_{\star 2} \cdot Q_{\star 1}$ because of lemma 4.1 and so we can prove that \exists polynomial $R \triangleright \begin{cases} P_{\star 1} = R \cdot P_{\star 2} \\ Q_{\star 1} = R \cdot Q_{\star 2} \\ R(0) = I \end{cases}$, what contradicts the irreducible character

of $\frac{1}{Q_{\star 1}} \cdot P_{\star 1}$ unless $\partial R = 0$.

Call n' the exact degree of P_{\star} and m' the exact degree of Q_{\star} .

When $(P(x) = P_{\star}(x) \cdot T(x), Q(x) = Q_{\star}(x) \cdot T(x))$ is a solution of (1a) and (1b) and $\frac{1}{Q_{\star}} \cdot P_{\star}$ is an abstract Padé-approximant of order (n, m) for F , then $\partial T \geq n \cdot m$ and $n' \leq n$ and $m' \leq m$.

We have the following theorem concerning the solutions of (1a) and (1b).

Theorem 4.1 :

If the couples (P, Q) and (R, S) of abstract polynomials both satisfy (1a) and (1b), then $P \cdot S = R \cdot Q$; in other words :
 $\forall x \in X : P(x) \cdot S(x) = R(x) \cdot Q(x)$.

Proof : Regard $P(x) \cdot S(x) - R(x) \cdot Q(x) =$

$$[F(x) \cdot S(x) - R(x)] \cdot Q(x) - [F(x) \cdot Q(x) - P(x)] \cdot S(x)$$

$$\text{Now } (F \cdot Q - P)(x) = O(x^{n \cdot m + n + m + 1})$$

$$(F \cdot S - R)(x) = O(x^{n \cdot m + n + m + 1})$$

But $(P \cdot S - R \cdot Q)(x)$ is an abstract polynomial of degree at most $2n \cdot m + n + m$,

$$\text{while } [(F \cdot S - R) \cdot Q - (F \cdot Q - P) \cdot S](x) = O(x^{2n \cdot m + n + m + 1})$$

$$\text{So } (P \cdot S - R \cdot Q)(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in X.$$

This theorem implies that $(\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)(x) = (\frac{1}{S} \cdot R)(x) \quad \forall x \in D(Q) \cap D(S)$.

If $D(Q \cdot S) \neq \emptyset$ then $D(Q \cdot S)$ is dense in X .

Possibly $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ and $\frac{1}{S} \cdot R$ are reducible. If $P = P_{\star} \cdot T$, $Q = Q_{\star} \cdot T$, $R = R_{\star} \cdot U$, $S = S_{\star} \cdot U$ with

$D(T) \neq \emptyset$ and $D(U) \neq \emptyset$, then :

$$P.S = R.Q \Rightarrow P_{\star}.S_{\star} = R_{\star}.Q_{\star} \text{ because of lemma 4.1.}$$

We then know that $(\frac{1}{Q_{\star}}.P_{\star})(x) = (\frac{1}{S_{\star}}.R_{\star})(x) \quad \forall x \in D(Q_{\star}) \cap D(S_{\star})$; if $D(Q_{\star}.S_{\star}) \neq \emptyset$ then $D(Q_{\star}.S_{\star})$ is dense in X .

We can define an equivalence relation \sim in

$$A = \{(P,Q) \mid (P,Q) \text{ satisfies definition 2.2 and } (D(P) \neq \emptyset \text{ or } D(Q) \neq \emptyset)\} \cup$$

$$\{(P_{\star}, Q_{\star}) \mid (P = P_{\star}.T, Q = Q_{\star}.T) \text{ satisfies definition 2.2 and } (D(P) \neq \emptyset \text{ or } D(Q) \neq \emptyset)$$

and $\frac{1}{Q_{\star}}.P_{\star}$ is irreducible} where $P_{\star}, Q_{\star}, T, P, Q$ are abstract polynomials, by

$$(P,Q) \sim (R,S) \Leftrightarrow P(x).S(x) = R(x).Q(x) \quad \forall x \in X.$$

If there exists a solution $(P,Q) \in A$ such that $Q_{\star}(0) = I$, then for all equivalent solutions $(R,S) \in A : 0 \in D(S_{\star})$ because $P_{\star}.S_{\star} = R_{\star}.Q_{\star}$ implies :

$$\begin{cases} R_{\star} = VP_{\star} \\ S_{\star} = VQ_{\star} \\ V(0) = S(0) \end{cases}$$

what contradicts the irreducible character of $\frac{1}{S_{\star}}.R_{\star}$ unless $\partial V = 0$ and so

$$\begin{cases} R_{\star} = S(0).P_{\star} \\ S_{\star} = S(0).Q_{\star} \end{cases}$$

if now $S(0)$ were not regular then (R,S) were no element of A .

If $S_{\star}(0) = I = Q_{\star}(0)$ then $P_{\star}.S_{\star} = R_{\star}.Q_{\star}$ implies that \exists polynomial V $\begin{cases} P_{\star} = V.R_{\star} \\ Q_{\star} = V.S_{\star} \\ V(0) = I \end{cases}$

In other words : for $\frac{1}{S_{\star}}.R_{\star}$ irreducible we have $\partial V = 0$ and so $\frac{1}{Q_{\star}}.P$ and $\frac{1}{S_{\star}}.R$ supply the same abstract Padé-approximant of order (n,m) for F when (P,Q) and (R,S) both satisfy (1a) and (1b).

We call $\frac{1}{Q_{\star}}.P_{\star}$ satisfying definition 4.2 the abstract Padé-approximant (APA) of order (n,m) for F .

Definition 4.3. : If for all the solutions (P,Q) of (1a) and (1b) with $D(P) \neq \phi$ or $D(Q) \neq \phi$ the irreducible form $\frac{1}{Q_\star} \cdot P_\star$ (representant of the equivalence relation-class) is such that $D(Q_\star) \neq 0$, then we call $\frac{1}{Q_\star} \cdot P_\star$ the abstract rational approximant (ARA) of order (n,m) for F .

(We do come back on abstract rational approximants in 5.f).

We remark that, although $F(0) = C_0$ is defined, $(\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)(0) = \frac{0}{0}$ is always undefined for (P,Q) satisfying definition 2.2 with $n > 0$ and $m > 0$, since 0 is always singular in Y . If for all the solutions (P,Q) of (1a) and (1b) : $0 \notin D(Q_\star)$ or $D(Q) = \phi = D(P)$, we shall call the abstract Padé-approximant undefined.

If for the ARA $D(Q_\star) = \phi$ then for all solutions (R,S) of (1a) and (1b) : $D(S_\star) = \phi$ because $D(P_\star) \cap D(S_\star) = D(R_\star) \cap D(Q_\star) = \phi$ and $D(P) \neq \phi$; the ARA is in fact useless then. An example will prove that it is very well possible that for an operator $F : X \rightarrow Y$, the (n,m) Padé-approximant is defined, while the (l,k) Padé-approximant is undefined for $l \neq n$ or $k \neq m$.

Consider the operator $F(\frac{\xi}{\eta}) = \frac{\xi + \sin(\xi n) + 1}{\xi^2 + \eta^2 - 4\xi\eta} = \binom{1}{0} + \binom{\xi}{0} + \binom{\xi\eta}{\xi^2 + \eta^2 - 4\xi\eta} + \dots$

Then : $(1,1)$ -APA is $\left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{1+\xi-\eta}{1-\eta} \\ 0 \end{array} \right)$, $P_\star(x) = P_\star(\frac{\xi}{\eta}) = \binom{1}{0} + \binom{1}{0} \binom{-1}{0} \binom{\xi}{\eta}$

$$Q_\star(x) = Q_\star(\frac{\xi}{\eta}) = \binom{1}{1} + \binom{0}{0} \binom{-1}{0} \binom{\xi}{\eta}$$

$$D(Q_\star) = \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(\xi, 1) \mid \xi \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$(2,1)$ -APA is $\left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{1+\xi+\xi\eta}{\xi^2 + \eta^2 - 4\xi\eta} \\ \xi^2 + \eta^2 - 4\xi\eta \end{array} \right)$ $P_\star(x) = C_0 + C_1x + C_2x^2$

$$Q_\star(x) = I$$

$$D(Q_\star) = \mathbb{R}^2$$

$(1,2)$ -APA is undefined.

The next theorem is a summary of the previous results.

Theorem 4.2. :

For every non-negative value of n and m , the systems (1a) and (1b) are solvable; if the abstract Padé-approximant of order (n,m) for $F : X \rightarrow Y$ is defined, it is unique.

For the (n,m) -APA $\frac{1}{Q_\star} \cdot P_\star$ we know that P_\star and Q_\star are abstract polynomials, respectively of degree at most n and at most m .

Proof : Evident.

From now on, when mentioning abstract Padé-approximants, we consider only the abstract Padé-approximants that are not undefined. Let (P,Q) be a solution of (1a) and (1b). Because of definition 4.2 it is very well possible that (P_\star, Q_\star) itself does not satisfy definition 2.2.

Theorem 4.3. :

Let $\frac{1}{Q_\star} \cdot P_\star$ be the abstract Padé-approximant of order (n,m) for F .

Then $\exists s : 0 \leq s \leq \min(n-n', m-m')$, \exists an abstract polynomial

$$T(x) = \sum_{k=n.m}^{n.m+s} T_k x^k, \quad T_{n.m+s} \neq 0, \quad D(T) \neq \phi \Rightarrow (P_\star \cdot T, Q_\star \cdot T) \text{ satisfies}$$

definition 2.2 ; $\partial(P_\star \cdot T) = n.m+n'+s$ and $\partial(Q_\star \cdot T) = n.m+m'+s$.

If then $T(x) = T_{n.m+r} x^{n.m+r} + T_{n.m+r+1} x^{n.m+r+1} + \dots + T_{n.m+s} x^{n.m+s}$ with $D(T_{n.m+r}) \neq \phi$, also $(P_\star \cdot T_{n.m+r}, Q_\star \cdot T_{n.m+r})$ satisfies definition 2.2 and $0 \leq r \leq s \leq \min(n-n', m-m')$.

Proof : Because of theorem 4.2 we may consider abstract polynomials P and Q that satisfy (1a) and (1b) and supply P_\star and Q_\star . Because of definition 4.2, there exists an abstract polynomial T such that : $P = P_\star \cdot T$ and $Q = Q_\star \cdot T$ and $\partial T \geq n.m$. Because of lemma 4.2 $D(T) \neq \phi$ (otherwise $D(P) = \phi = D(Q)$).

$$\text{Let } n' = \partial P_\star, m' = \partial Q_\star, \quad P = \sum_{i=n.m}^{n.m+n} A_i x^i, \quad Q = \sum_{j=n.m}^{n.m+m} B_j x^j.$$

$$\text{Consequently } T(x) = \sum_{k=n.m}^{n.m+s} T_k x^k \text{ with } \begin{cases} \partial T = n.m+s \\ n.m+n'+s \leq n.m+n \\ n.m+m'+s \leq n.m+m \\ s \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

and so $0 \leq s \leq \min(n-n', m-m')$.

$$F(x) \cdot Q(x) - P(x) = T(x) \cdot [F(x) \cdot Q_{\star}(x) - P_{\star}(x)] = O(x^{n.m+n+m+1})$$

Because $T(x) = T_{n.m+r} x^{n.m+r} + \dots$ with $T_{n.m+r} \in L(X^{n.m+r}, Y)$, $D(T_{n.m+r}) \neq \emptyset$,

we have that $T_{n.m+r} x^{n.m+r} \cdot [F(x) \cdot Q_{\star}(x) - P_{\star}(x)] = O(x^{n.m+n+m+1})$.

5. REMARKS AND SPECIAL CASES

a) When $X = R = Y$ ($\Lambda = R$), then the definition of abstract Padé-approximant is precisely the classical definition. F is now a real-valued function f of 1 real variable, with a Taylor-series development $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k \cdot x^k$ with $c_k = \frac{1}{k!} f^{(k)}(0)$.

The k -linear operators $C_k \in L(X^k, Y)$ are :

$$C_k x^k = c_k \cdot \underbrace{x \dots x}_k \in R \text{ with } c_k \in R .$$

The j -linear functions $B_j x^j = b_j \cdot \underbrace{x \dots x}_j \in R$, $b_j \in R$, $j = n, m, \dots, n.m+m$ and such that :

$$\begin{cases} c_{n+1} \cdot b_{n.m} + \dots + c_{n+1-m} \cdot b_{n.m+m} = 0 \\ \vdots \\ c_{n+m} \cdot b_{n.m} + \dots + c_n \cdot b_{n.m+m} = 0 \end{cases}$$

are a solution of (1b).

The i -linear functions $A_i x^i = a_i \cdot \underbrace{x \dots x}_i \in R$, $a_i \in R$, $i = n, m, \dots, n.m+n$ such that :

$$\begin{cases} c_0 \cdot b_{n,m} = a_{n,m} \\ c_1 \cdot b_{n,m} + c_0 \cdot b_{n,m+1} = a_{n,m+1} \\ \vdots \\ c_n \cdot b_{n,m} + \dots + c_0 \cdot b_{n,m+n} = a_{n,m+n} \end{cases}$$

are a solution of (1a).

The irreducible form $\frac{1}{Q_\star} \cdot P_\star$ of $(\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)(x) = \frac{1}{(\sum_{j=n,m}^{n,m+m} b_j x^j)} \cdot (\sum_{i=n,m}^{n,m+n} a_i x^i)$, such

that $Q_\star(0) = 1$, is the irreducible form $\frac{1}{Q_\star} \cdot P_\star$ of $(\sum_{i=0}^n a_{i+n,m} x^i) / (\sum_{j=0}^m b_{j+n,m} x^j)$, such that $Q_\star(0) = 1$.

b) When we calculate the abstract Padé-approximant of order $(n,0)$ we find the n^{th} partial sum of the abstract Taylor series.

For if $B_{n,m} = I$ then $A_i x^i = C_i x^i$, $i = 0, \dots, n$ is a solution of system (1a).

This result has also been found in the classical theory.

c) To find equivalent formulations of the problem of Padé-approximating, we consider a couple of abstract polynomials (P, Q) satisfying definition 2.2. We then know that $(F \cdot Q - P)(x) = 0 (x^{n \cdot m + n + m + 1})$.

The systems (1a) and (1b) are completely equivalent with :

$$(F \cdot Q - P)^{(i)}(0) x^i = 0 \quad \forall x \in X \quad \text{and } i = 0, \dots, n \cdot m + n + m,$$

because clearly $(F \cdot Q - P)^{(i)}(0) \equiv 0 \in L(X^i, Y)$ for $i = 0, \dots, n \cdot m - 1$ and

$(F \cdot Q - P)^{(i)}(0) x^i = 0 \quad \forall x \in X$, $i = n \cdot m, \dots, n \cdot m + n$ is system (1a) and $(F \cdot Q - P)^{(i)}(0) x^i = 0 \quad \forall x \in X$, $i = n \cdot m + n + 1, \dots, n \cdot m + n + m$ is precisely system (1b).

d) If $X = \mathbb{R}^p$ and $Y = \mathbb{R}$ ($\Lambda = \mathbb{R}$), then F is a real-valued function of p real variables. Now $L(X^i, Y)$ is isomorphic with \mathbb{R}^p . Consequently for $(P(x), Q(x))$ satisfying

definition 2.2 the operator $(\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)(x)$ has the following form :

$$\frac{\sum_{j_1 + \dots + j_p = n.m}^{n.m+n} \alpha_{j_1 \dots j_p} x_1^{j_1} \dots x_p^{j_p}}{\sum_{j_1 + \dots + j_p = n.m}^{n.m+m} \beta_{j_1 \dots j_p} x_1^{j_1} \dots x_p^{j_p}}$$

This form agrees with the form proposed by J. Karlsson and H. Wallin :

$$\frac{\sum_{j_1 + \dots + j_p = 0}^n \alpha_{j_1 \dots j_p} x_1^{j_1} \dots x_p^{j_p}}{\sum_{j_1 + \dots + j_p = 0}^m \beta_{j_1 \dots j_p} x_1^{j_1} \dots x_p^{j_p}}$$

if $n=0$ or $m=0$ (III).

Let $p=2$.

To calculate the abstract Padé-approximant we have to calculate the $(n.m+1)+\dots+(n.m+n+1)+(n.m+1)+\dots+(n.m+m+1)$ real coefficients $\alpha_{j_1 \dots j_p}$ and

$$\beta_{j_1 \dots j_p}.$$

Now $(n.m+1)+\dots+(n.m+n+1)+(n.m+1)+\dots+(n.m+m+1) = n.m.(n+m+2) + \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} + \frac{(m+1)(m+2)}{2}$.

The formulation in c) supplies us an amount of conditions on the derivatives of (F.Q-P) :

in all $\sum_{i=n.m}^{n.m+n+m} \binom{p+i-1}{i}$ conditions.

For $p=2$ these are $(n.m+1)+\dots+(n.m+n+m+1)$ conditions.

If we use the extra condition of definition 4.2, we have in all $n.m.(n+m+1) + \frac{(n+m+1)(n+m+2)}{2} + 1$ conditions, just enough to calculate the $\alpha_{j_1 j_2}$ and $\beta_{j_1 j_2}$.

The extra condition is : o-linear term in $Q_*(x)$ is I.

e) If $X = R^p$ and $Y = R^q$ ($\Lambda = R$), then F is a system of q real-valued functions in p real variables.

Now $L(X, Y)$ is isomorphic with $R^{q \times p}$ and $L(X^k, Y)$ isomorphic with $R^{q \times p^k}$ while an element of $R^{q \times p^k}$ is represented by a row of p^{k-1} matrices (blocks), each containing q rows and p columns;

$L = (c_{i_1 \dots i_{k+1}}) \in L(X^k, Y) \Rightarrow$

- i_1 is the row-index in the block
- $i_2 \dots i_k$ is the number of the block (the most right index grows the fastest)
- i_{k+1} is the column-index in the block.

So $L = (c_{i_1 1 \dots 1 i_{k+1}} | c_{i_1 1 \dots 2 i_{k+1}} | \dots | c_{i_1 1 \dots p i_{k+1}} | c_{i_1 1 \dots 1 2 i_{k+1}} | \dots | c_{i_1 p \dots p i_{k+1}})$

The abstract polynomials $(P(x), Q(x))$ satisfying definition 2.2 now have for each of the q components the form of the abstract polynomials of p real variables mentioned in d).

f) When we would try, in order to calculate the (n, m) -APA, to find a couple of abstract polynomials $(A_n x^n + \dots + A_0, B_m x^m + \dots + B_0)$ such that :

$$F(x) \cdot (B_m x^m + \dots + B_0) - (A_n x^n + \dots + A_0) = 0(x^{n+m+1}) \quad (2)$$

instead of $(A_{n, m+n} x^{n, m+n} + \dots + A_{n, m} x^{n, m}, B_{n, m+m} x^{n, m+m} + \dots + B_{n, m} x^{n, m})$ such that:

$$F(x) \cdot (B_{n, m+m} x^{n, m+m} + \dots + B_{n, m} x^{n, m}) - (A_{n, m+n} x^{n, m+n} + \dots + A_{n, m} x^{n, m}) = 0(x^{n, m+n+m+1}) \quad (3)$$

we would remark that this problem is not always solvable (except with $Q \equiv 0 \equiv P$).

Consider again the example $F\left(\frac{\xi}{\eta}\right) = \left(\frac{\xi + \sin(\xi\eta) + 1}{\xi^2 + \eta^2 - 4\xi\eta}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \xi\eta \\ \xi^2 + \eta^2 - 4\xi\eta \end{pmatrix} + \dots$

and take $n=1$ and $m=2$.

$$\text{The system } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} C_0 \cdot B_0 = A_0 \\ C_1 x \cdot B_0 + C_0 \cdot B_1 x = A_1 x \\ C_2 x^2 \cdot B_0 + C_1 x \cdot B_1 x + C_0 \cdot B_2 x^2 = 0 \\ C_3 x^3 \cdot B_0 + C_2 x^2 \cdot B_1 x + C_1 x \cdot B_2 x^2 = 0 \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} \forall x \in X, \text{ has only the solution } Q \equiv 0 \equiv P, \text{ and} \\ \text{thus is not solvable such that} \\ \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P \text{ is somewhere defined} \\ \text{(for } n=1, m=3 \text{ this is the case for the} \\ \text{first component of the solution),} \end{array}$$

while (3) is very well solvable, but the solution (P, Q) is such that the irreducible form of $\left(\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P\right)(x)$ is undefined in $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

So via (3) we find an abstract rational operator $\left(\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P\right)(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \xi - \eta + \xi^2 - 2\xi\eta \\ \xi - \eta - \xi\eta + \xi\eta^2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ that is useful in points in the vicinity of $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

In other words : (2) does not provide us any solution at all (except $Q \equiv 0 \equiv P$)

(3) does provide an ARA but no APA .

What's more : the situation cannot occur where (2) supplies us the (n, m) -APA while (3) does not, because for every solution (P, Q) of the systems resulting from (2) such that $Q_\star(0) = I$ and for every $L \in L(X^{n \cdot m}, Y)$:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (L \cdot P, L \cdot Q) \text{ is a solution of (1a) and (1b)} \\ \frac{1}{Q_\star} \cdot P_\star \text{ is the } (n, m)\text{-APA} \end{array} \right.$$

And we have to look for an irreducible form anyhow.

6. COVARIANCE-PROPERTIES OF ABSTRACT PADÉ-APPROXIMANTS

The first property we are going to prove is the reciprocal covariance of abstract Padé-approximants.

Theorem 6.1. :

Suppose $F(0)$ is regular in Y and F is continuous in 0 and $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ is the abstract Padé-approximant of order (n,m) for F , then $\frac{1}{P} \cdot Q$ is the abstract Padé-approximant of order (m,n) for $\frac{1}{F}$.

Proof : Since $\{y \in Y \mid y \text{ is regular}\}$ is an open set in Y , there exists $B(F(0), r_2)$ with $r_2 > 0$ such that $\forall y \in B(F(0), r_2) : y$ is regular. Since F is continuous in 0 , there exists $B(0, r_1)$ with $r_1 > 0$ such that $\forall x \in B(0, r_1) : F(x)$ is regular. So $\frac{1}{F}$ is defined in $B(0, r_1)$. We speak about $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ and $\frac{1}{P} \cdot Q$ too only on the set of points on which those operators are defined.

$P(0) = C_0 = F(0)$ is regular $\Rightarrow \exists B(0, r) : \forall x \in B(0, r) : P(x)$ is regular.

So $\frac{1}{P}$ exists in $B(0, r)$.

Let $n' = \partial P$ and $m' = \partial Q$.

$\exists s \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \leq s \leq \min(n-n', m-m'), \exists$ polynomial $T(x) = \sum_{k=n.m}^{n.m+s} T_k x^k, D(T) \neq \phi$

$(P_1(x) = P(x) \cdot T(x), Q_1(x) = Q(x) \cdot T(x))$ satisfies definition 2.2 for F .

$[(F \cdot Q - P) \cdot T](x) = (F \cdot Q_1 - P_1)(x) = 0(x^{n.m+n+m+1})$

$\Rightarrow (\frac{1}{F} \cdot P_1 - Q_1)(x) = 0(x^{n.m+n+m+1})$ since $\frac{1}{F}(0) = C_0^{-1} \neq 0$ in the abstract Taylor series for $\frac{1}{F}$.

So $\exists s \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \leq s \leq \min(n-n', m-m'), \exists$ polynomial $T(x) = \sum_{k=n.m}^{n.m+s} T_k x^k, D(T) \neq \phi$

$(Q_1(x) = Q(x) \cdot T(x), P_1(x) = P(x) \cdot T(x))$ satisfies definition 2.2 for $\frac{1}{F}$.

The irreducible form of $\frac{1}{P_1} \cdot Q_1$ is $\frac{1}{P} \cdot Q$ ($D(P_1) \neq \phi$ or $D(Q_1) \neq \phi$).

If we want the 0-linear term in the denominator to be I , then

$\frac{1}{(P(x) \cdot C_0^{-1})} \cdot (Q(x) \cdot C_0^{-1})$ is the abstract Padé-approximant of order (m,n) for $\frac{1}{F}$.

Theorem 6.2. :

Suppose $a, b, c, d \in Y$, $c.F(0)+d$ is regular in Y , $a.d-b.c$ is regular in Y , $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ is the (n, n) -APA for F and $D(c.P+d.Q) \neq \phi$ or $D(a.P+b.Q) \neq \phi$, then $\frac{1}{(c \cdot \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P+d)} \cdot (a \cdot \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P+b)$ is the (n, n) -APA for $\frac{1}{(c.F+d)} \cdot (a.F+b)$.

Proof : $c.F(0)+d$ is regular $\Rightarrow c \cdot (\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)(0)+d$ is regular since $F(0) = (\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)(0)$.

So $\exists B(0, r) : \frac{1}{Q}$ is defined in $B(0, r)$

$$\frac{1}{(c \cdot \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P+d)} \cdot (a \cdot \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P+b) \text{ is defined in } B(0, r)$$

$$\frac{1}{(c.F+d)} \cdot (a.F+b) \text{ is defined in } B(0, r).$$

Let $n' = \partial P$ and $n'' = \partial Q$.

$\exists s \in \mathbb{N} : 0 \leq s \leq \min(n-n', n-n'')$, \exists polynomial $T(x) = \sum_{k=n^2}^{n^2+s} T_k x^k$, $D(T) \neq \phi \Rightarrow$

$(P_1(x) = P(x) \cdot T(x), Q_1(x) = Q(x) \cdot T(x))$ satisfies definition 2.2 for F .

In other words : $[(F.Q-P) \cdot T](x) = (F.Q_1 - P_1)(x) = 0(x^{n^2+2n+1})$.

Now where $\frac{1}{(c \cdot \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P+d)} \cdot (a \cdot \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P+b)$ is defined :

$$\frac{1}{(c \cdot \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P+d)} \cdot (a \cdot \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P+b) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{Q} \cdot (c.P+d.Q)} \cdot (a.P+b.Q) \cdot \frac{1}{Q} = \frac{1}{c.P+d.Q} \cdot (a.P+b.Q).$$

Also $(c.P+d.Q)(0) = c.F(0)+d$ is regular in $B(0, r)$.

$$\begin{cases} \partial(a.P+b.Q) \leq \max(\partial P, \partial Q) \text{ and } \partial[(a.P+b.Q) \cdot T] \leq n^2+n \\ \partial(c.P+d.Q) \leq \max(\partial P, \partial Q) \text{ and } \partial[(c.P+d.Q) \cdot T] \leq n^2+n \end{cases}$$

Since $(F.Q_1 - P_1)(x) = 0(x^{n^2+2n+1})$ and $c.F(0)+d$ is regular,

$$[(a.d-b.c) \cdot \frac{1}{c.F+d} \cdot (F.Q_1 - P_1)](x) = 0(x^{n^2+2n+1}).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } & \frac{1}{(c.F+d)} \cdot (a.F+b) \cdot (c.P+d.Q) \cdot T - (a.P+b.Q) \cdot T = \\ & \frac{1}{(c.F+d)} \cdot T \cdot (F.Q-P) \cdot (a.d-b.c) = (a.d-b.c) \cdot \frac{1}{c.F+d} \cdot (F.Q_1-P_1) \\ \text{and } & [(a.d-b.c) \frac{1}{c.F+d} \cdot (F.Q_1-P_1)](x) = O(x^{n^2+2n+1}). \end{aligned}$$

We now search the irreducible form of $\frac{1}{(c.P+d.Q) \cdot T} \cdot (a.P+b.Q) \cdot T$.

It is $\frac{1}{c.P+d.Q} \cdot (a.P+b.Q)$, for if $\frac{1}{c.P+d.Q} \cdot (a.P+b.Q)$ were reducible :

$$\begin{cases} a.P+b.Q = U.V & \text{with } U, V, W \text{ abstract polynomials} \\ c.P+d.Q = U.W & \text{and } \partial U \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{then : } \begin{cases} (a.d-b.c) \cdot P = d.U.V - b.U.W \\ (a.d-b.c) \cdot Q = a.U.W - c.U.V \end{cases}$$

and so $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ were reducible.

If we want the o-linear term in the denominator to be I,

$$\frac{1}{(c.P+d.Q) \cdot e} \cdot (a.P+b.Q) \cdot e, \text{ with } e = (c.P(0)+d.Q(0))^{-1} = (c.C_0+d)^{-1}, \text{ is the } (n,n)\text{-APA for } \frac{1}{(c.F+d)} \cdot (a.F+b).$$

We have to remark that if $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ were the (n,m) -APA for F with $n > m$ for instance, then $a.P+b.Q$ was indeed an abstract polynomial of degree n but $c.P+d.Q$ not necessarily an abstract polynomial of degree m . This clarifies the condition in theorem 6.2 that $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ is the (n,n) -APA for F .

Another property we can prove is the scale-covariance of abstract Padé-approximants.

Theorem 6.3. :

Let $\lambda \in \Lambda$, $\lambda \neq 0$, $y = \lambda x$ and $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ be the (n,m) -APA for F .
 If $S(x) := Q(\lambda x)$, $R(x) := P(\lambda x)$, $G(x) := F(\lambda x)$, then
 $\frac{1}{S} \cdot R$ is the (n,m) -APA for G .

Proof : We remark that if $L \in L(X^i, Y)$, then $\forall \mu \in \Lambda : \mu L \in L(X^i, Y)$.

Because $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ is the (n,m) -APA for F , $\exists s, 0 \leq s \leq \min(n-n', m-m')$,

\exists polynomial $T(x) = \sum_{k=n.m}^{n.m+s} T_k x^k, D(T) \neq \phi \supset [(F \cdot Q - P) \cdot T](x) = 0(x^{n.m+n+m+1})$.

Thus $[(F \cdot Q - P) \cdot T](\lambda x) = 0(x^{n.m+n+m+1})$.

Now $[(F \cdot Q - P) \cdot T](\lambda x) = (G(x) \cdot S(x) - R(x)) \cdot U(x)$ with $U(x) := T(\lambda x)$ and so

$[(G \cdot S - R) \cdot U](x) = 0(x^{n.m+n+m+1})$.

We can prove that
$$\begin{cases} D(P) = \lambda \cdot D(R) = \{\lambda x | R(x) \text{ regular in } Y\} \\ D(Q) = \lambda \cdot D(S) \\ D(T) = \lambda \cdot D(U) \end{cases}$$

So $D(S \cdot U) \neq \phi$ or $D(R \cdot U) \neq \phi$.

The irreducible form of $\frac{1}{S \cdot U} \cdot (R \cdot U)$ is $\frac{1}{S} \cdot R$ and $S(0) = Q(0) = I$, what finally proves the theorem.

7. THE ABSTRACT PADE-TABLE

Let $R_{n,m}$ denote the (n,m) -APA for F if it is not undefined. The $R_{n,m}$ can be ordered for different values of n and m in a table :

$R_{0,0}$	$R_{0,1}$	$R_{0,2}$...
$R_{1,0}$	$R_{1,1}$	$R_{1,2}$...
$R_{2,0}$	$R_{2,1}$	$R_{2,2}$...
$R_{3,0}$	\vdots		
\vdots			

Gaps can occur in this Padé-table because of undefined elements. An important property of the table is the next one : the abstract Padé-table consists of squares of equal elements (if one element of the square is defined, all the elements are).

We explicitly restrict ourselves now to spaces $X \supset \{0\}$ (and $Y \supseteq \{0, I\}$ of course).
Thus $\exists x \in X : x \neq 0$ and $\forall \lambda \in \Lambda : \lambda \cdot I \in Y$.

Lemma 7.1 :

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists D_n \in L(X^n, Y), \exists (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in X^n :$$

$$D_n x_1 x_2 \dots x_n = I$$

Proof : The reader must be familiar with the well-known functional analysis theorem of Hahn-Banach (Rudin W., Functional Analysis, Mc Graw-Hill, New York, 1973, pp. 57).

Let $n=1$.

Take $x_0 \in X, x_0 \neq 0$ and define the linear functional (V pp.34)

$$f : M = \{\lambda x_0 \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\} \rightarrow \Lambda : \lambda x_0 \rightarrow \lambda.$$

$$\text{Now } |f(\lambda x_0)| = |\lambda| = \frac{\|\lambda x_0\|}{\|x_0\|}.$$

Define the norm $p(x) = \frac{\|x\|}{\|x_0\|}$ on X . Thus $|f(x)| \leq p(x) \forall x \in M$.

This linear functional f can be extended to a linear functional $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow \Lambda$ such that $\tilde{f}(x) = f(x) \forall x \in M$ and $|\tilde{f}(x)| \leq p(x) \forall x \in X$.

We now define $D_1 : X \rightarrow Y : x \rightarrow \tilde{f}(x) \cdot I$.

Clearly $D_1 \in L(X, Y)$ and $D_1 x_0 = I$ since $\tilde{f}(x_0) = f(x_0) = 1$.

If $D_{n-1} \in L(X^{n-1}, Y), (x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) \in X^{n-1} \supset D_{n-1} x_1 \dots x_{n-1} = I$,

then we can define for $x \in X : D_n x = \tilde{f}(x) \cdot D_{n-1} \in L(X^n, Y)$.

Then $D_n \in L(X^n, Y)$ and $D_n x_0 x_1 \dots x_{n-1} = \tilde{f}(x_0) \cdot D_{n-1} x_1 \dots x_{n-1} = I$.

This lemma implies that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists D_n \in L(X^n, Y) : D(D_n) \neq \emptyset$. We shall use this result

in the proofs of the following theorems.

Theorem 7.1. : Let $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P = R_{n,m}$ be the abstract Padé-approximant of order (n,m) for F .

$$\text{Then : a) } (F \cdot Q - P)(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} J_i x^{n'+m'+t+i+1}$$

$$\text{with } J_i \in L(X^{n'+m'+t+i+1}, Y),$$

$$t \geq 0 \text{ and } J_0 \neq 0$$

$$\text{b) } \begin{cases} n \leq n'+t \\ m \leq m'+t \end{cases}$$

$$\text{c) } \forall k, l > \begin{cases} n' \leq k \leq n'+t : R_{k,l} = R_{n,m} \\ m' \leq l \leq m'+t \end{cases}$$

Proof : a) Suppose $(F \cdot Q - P)(x) = 0(x^j)$ with $j < n'+m'+1$.

$$\text{Then } \forall r > 0 \leq r \leq \min(n-n', m-m') : j+r+n.m < n.m+n+m+1$$

This is in contradiction with theorem 4.3.

b) Suppose $n > n'+t$ or $m > m'+t$.

$$\text{Then } \forall r \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \leq r \leq \min(n-n', m-m'), \forall T_{n,m+r} \in L(X^{n \cdot m+r}, Y), D(T_{n,m+r}) \neq \emptyset,$$

we know that $(F \cdot Q \cdot T_{n,m+r} - P \cdot T_{n,m+r})(x)$ is not $0(x^{n \cdot m+n+m+1})$ since

$$(F \cdot Q - P)(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} J_i x^{n'+m'+t+i+1} \text{ with } J_0 \neq 0 \text{ and } n \cdot m + n' + m' + t + r + 1 < n \cdot m + n + m + 1.$$

This is in contradiction with theorem 4.3.

$$\text{c) Let } \begin{cases} s = \min(k-n', l-m'), D_s \in L(X^{k \cdot l+s}, Y), D(D_s) \neq \emptyset \\ P_1 = P \cdot D_s \quad \partial P_1 \leq k \cdot l + k \\ Q_1 = Q \cdot D_s \quad \partial Q_1 \leq k \cdot l + l \end{cases}$$

$$(F \cdot Q_1 - P_1)(x) = 0(x^{n'+m'+1+t+s+k \cdot l}) \text{ because of a).}$$

$$\text{Now for } k \leq n'+t \text{ and } l \leq m'+t : k \cdot l + k + l + 1 \leq k \cdot l + n' + m' + t + s + 1.$$

$$\text{So } (F \cdot Q_1 - P_1)(x) = 0(x^{k \cdot l + k + l + 1}) \text{ and } D(P_1) \neq \emptyset \text{ or } D(Q_1) \neq \emptyset.$$

Definition 7.1. : The (n,m) -APA for F is called normal if it occurs only once in the abstract Padé-table.

The abstract Padé-table is called normal if each of its elements is normal.

Theorem 7.2. :

The (n,m) -APA $R_{n,m} = \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ for F is normal if and only if :

a) $\partial P = n$ and $\partial Q = m$

and

b) $(F \cdot Q - P)(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} J_i x^{n+m+1+i}$

with $J_i \in L(X^{n+m+1+i}, Y)$ and $J_0 \neq 0$

Proof : \Rightarrow

We proof it by contraposition.

Let $n' = \partial P < n$ or $m' = \partial Q < m$.

According to theorem 7.1 a): $(F \cdot Q - P)(x) = 0(x^{n'+m'+1})$ at least.

Then $R_{n',m'} = \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ (irreducible and satisfying $Q(0)=1$) since for $D \in L(X^{n' \cdot m'}, Y)$, $D(D) \neq \phi$:

$$[(F \cdot Q - P) \cdot D](x) = 0(x^{n' \cdot m' + n' + m' + 1}) \text{ and } \partial(P \cdot D) = n' \cdot m' + n' \text{ and } \partial(Q \cdot D) = n' \cdot m' + m'.$$

$R_{n',m'} = R_{n,m}$ contradicts the normality of $R_{n,m}$.

If b) is not valid, then according to theorem 7.1 a) :

$$(F \cdot Q - P)(x) = 0(x^{n+m+1+t}) \text{ with } t > 0 \text{ (for } t = 0 \text{ b) would be valid).}$$

This implies that $\forall k, l : n \leq k \leq n+t$ and $m \leq l \leq m+t$:

$R_{k,l} = R_{n,m}$ and thus contradicts the normality of $R_{n,m}$.

\Leftarrow

The proof goes again by contraposition.

Suppose $R_{k,l} = R_{n,m}$ for k,l such that $k > n$ or $l > m$.

Now b) implies : $(F.Q-P)(x) = O(x^{n+m+1})$.

If $s \in \mathbb{N}$, $D_s \in L(X^{k.l+s}, Y)$, $D(D_s) \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow (F.Q.D_s - P.D_s)(x) = O(x^{k.l+k+l+1})$,
then $k.l+k+l+1 \leq n+m+1+k.l+s$ and thus $s > k-n$ or $s > l-m$.

This is a contradiction with theorem 4.3.

8. INTERPOLATING OPERATORS

Theorem 7.1 a) and 7.2 b) allow us to write down the following conclusions.

If $\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ is the (n,m) -APA for F then $(F.Q-P)(x) = O(x^{n'+m'+1+t})$ with $t \geq 0$.

This implies $(F - \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)(x) = O(x^{n'+m'+1+t})$ with $t \geq 0$, since $Q(0) = I$ is regular.

In other words : $(F - \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)^{(i)}(0) \equiv 0 \in L(X^i, Y)$ for $i = 0, \dots, n'+m'+t$.

Thus : for $R_{n,m} = \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P : F^{(i)}(0) = (\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)^{(i)}(0) \quad i = 0, \dots, n'+m'+t$ with $t \geq 0$.

What is more, if $R_{n,m}$ is normal then $n' = n$, $m' = m$ and $(F.Q-P)(x) = O(x^{n+m+1})$.

Thus : for $R_{n,m} = \frac{1}{Q} \cdot P$ normal : $F^{(i)}(0) = (\frac{1}{Q} \cdot P)^{(i)}(0) \quad i = 0, \dots, n+m$.

This also agrees with the classical theory of Padé-approximants.

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