

Multi-continued fraction algorithm on multi-formal Laurent series

by

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1. Introduction. Continued fractions [8, 14] are a useful tool in many number theoretical problems and in numerical computing. It is well known that the simple continued fraction expansion of a single real number gives the best solution to its rational approximation problem. Many people have contrived to construct multidimensional continued fractions in dealing with the rational approximation problem for multi-reals. One construction is the Jacobi–Perron algorithm (JPA) (see [1]). This algorithm and its modifications have been extensively studied [6, 7, 10, 13]. These algorithms are adapted to study the same problem for multi-formal Laurent series [2, 4, 11, 12]. But none of them guarantees the best rational approximation in general. In this paper, we deal with the multi-rational approximation problem over the formal Laurent series field $F((z^{-1}))$: given an element $\underline{r} \in F((z^{-1}))^m$, find $\underline{p} \in F[z]^m$ and $q \in F[z]$ such that \underline{p}/q approximates \underline{r} as close as possible while $\deg(q)$ is bounded.

We propose a new continued fraction algorithm for multi-formal Laurent series. It is proved that this algorithm guarantees best rational approximations for multi-formal Laurent series.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 deals with the indexed valuation of $F((z^{-1}))^m$. Section 3 contains the detailed definition of the problem of optimal rational approximation of multi-formal Laurent series. Section 4 proposes an algorithm called multidimensional continued fraction algorithm (m-CFA, for short), which produces a multi-continued fraction expansion $C(\underline{r})$ for any given multi-formal Laurent series \underline{r} . Section 5 shows that $C(\underline{r})$ satisfies three basic conditions. Section 6 states the main results of this pa-

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per: $C(\underline{r})$ provides optimal rational approximations to \underline{r} . In Section 7 we complete all proofs.

2. Indexed valuation over $F((z^{-1}))$. Denote by \mathbb{Z} the ring of integers, by F an arbitrary field, by m a positive integer, and by Z_m the set $\{1, \dots, m\}$. Let $F[z]$ be the polynomial ring over F , $F(z)$ the rational fraction field over F , and

$$F((z^{-1})) = \left\{ \sum_{i \geq t} a_i z^{-i} \mid t \in \mathbb{Z}, a_i \in F \right\}$$

the formal Laurent series field over F . By identifying $p(z)/q(z) \in F(z)$ with $p(z)q(z)^{-1} \in F((z^{-1}))$, where $p(z)$ and $q(z)$ ($\neq 0$) are polynomials, we view $F(z)$ as a subfield of $F((z^{-1}))$. We denote by F^m , $F[z]^m$ and $F((z^{-1}))^m$ the column vector space of dimension m over F , $F[z]$ and $F((z^{-1}))$ respectively.

DEFINITION 1 (order over $Z_m \times \mathbb{Z}$). For any two elements (h, v) and (h', v') in $Z_m \times \mathbb{Z}$, we define $(h, v) < (h', v')$ if $v < v'$ or $v = v'$, $h < h'$.

The order defined above is linear [3]. It is clear that if $(j, n) < (j', n')$, then $n \leq n'$ and $(j, n + x) < (j', n' + x)$ for any $x \in \mathbb{Z}$.

For $1 \leq j \leq m$, we write $\underline{e}_j = (\overset{1}{0}, \dots, 0, \overset{j}{1}, 0, \dots, \overset{m}{0})^\tau$, which is the j th standard base element in F^m , where τ means transpose; moreover, set

$$z^{-n}\underline{e}_j = (\overset{1}{0}, \dots, 0, \overset{j}{z^{-n}}, 0, \dots, \overset{m}{0})^\tau \in F((z^{-1}))^m, \quad \forall (j, n) \in Z_m \times \mathbb{Z},$$

which is called the (j, n) th *monomial* in $F((z^{-1}))^m$, and define

$$rz^{-n}\underline{e}_j = z^{-n}\underline{e}_j r = (\overset{1}{0}, \dots, 0, \overset{j}{rz^{-n}}, 0, \dots, \overset{m}{0})^\tau, \\ \forall (j, n) \in Z_m \times \mathbb{Z}, r \in F((z^{-1})).$$

DEFINITION 2. Any non-zero element $\underline{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_m)^\tau$ in $F((z^{-1}))^m$, $r_j = \sum r_{j,n} z^{-n} \in F((z^{-1}))$, can be uniquely expressed as

$$(1) \quad \underline{r} = \sum_{(i,t) \leq (j,n)} r_{j,n} z^{-n} \underline{e}_j, \quad r_{j,n} \in F,$$

for some $(i, t) \in Z_m \times \mathbb{Z}$, which is called its *monomial decomposition*. $r_{j,n} z^{-n} \underline{e}_j$ is called the (j, n) th *term* of \underline{r} ; $r_{j,n}$ the (j, n) th *coefficient* of \underline{r} ; $z^{-n} \underline{e}_j$ a *monomial* of \underline{r} (written $z^{-n} \underline{e}_j \in \underline{r}$) if $r_{j,n} \neq 0$. For $\underline{0} \neq \underline{r} \in F((z^{-1}))^m$, define

$$(2) \quad \text{Iv}(\underline{r}) = \min\{(j, n) \mid r_{j,n} \neq 0, (j, n) \in Z_m \times \mathbb{Z}\} \in Z_m \times \mathbb{Z},$$

and $\text{Iv}(\underline{0}) = (1, \infty)$.

The pair $\text{Iv}(\underline{r})$ is called the *indexed valuation* of \underline{r} . If $\text{Iv}(\underline{r}) = (h, v)$, then v is called the *valuation* of \underline{r} and denoted by $v(\underline{r})$, and h the *index* of \underline{r} and denoted by $I(\underline{r})$; and $r_{h,v}z^{-v}\underline{e}_h$ is the *leading term* of \underline{r} , denoted by $\text{Ld}(\underline{r})$.

It is clear that $v(\cdot)$ is the discrete valuation on $F((z^{-1}))$ when $m = 1$. When $m > 1$, we have

$$v(\underline{r}) = \min \{v(r_j) \mid 1 \leq j \leq m\}, \quad I(\underline{r}) = \min \{j \mid v(r_j) = v(\underline{r}), 1 \leq j \leq m\}.$$

THEOREM 3. *Let $\alpha, \beta \in F((z^{-1}))^m$.*

- (1) $\text{Iv}(\alpha) \neq (1, \infty) \Leftrightarrow \alpha \neq 0$.
- (2) *If $\text{Iv}(\alpha) = (h, v)$, then $\text{Iv}(r\alpha) = (h, v + v(r))$ for any $0 \neq r \in F((z^{-1}))$. In particular, $\text{Iv}(r\alpha) = \text{Iv}(\alpha)$ if $0 \neq r \in F$.*
- (3) $\text{Iv}(\alpha + \beta) \geq \min \{\text{Iv}(\alpha), \text{Iv}(\beta)\}$, *and equality holds if and only if $\text{Ld}(\alpha) + \text{Ld}(\beta) \not\equiv \underline{0}$. In particular, $\text{Iv}(\alpha + \beta) = \text{Iv}(\alpha)$ if $\text{Iv}(\alpha) < \text{Iv}(\beta)$.*

In studying the rational approximation problem of multi-formal Laurent series, we need the concept of limit with respect to the indexed valuation [15]. We say that a sequence $\{\underline{x}_k\}_{k \geq 0}$ in $F((z^{-1}))^m$ is convergent with respect to the indexed valuation if there exists an element $\underline{x} \in F((z^{-1}))^m$ (called a *limit* of $\{\underline{x}_k\}_{k \geq 0}$) which satisfies: for any $(h, v) \in Z_m \times \mathbb{Z}$ there is a positive integer k_0 such that $\text{Iv}(\underline{x}_k - \underline{x}) \geq (h, v)$ whenever $k \geq k_0$.

One can verify that:

- (1) If a sequence $\{\underline{x}_k\}_{k \geq 0}$ is convergent, then its limit $\underline{x} \in F((z^{-1}))^m$ is unique. Therefore we can write $\underline{x} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \underline{x}_k$.
- (2) $F(z)^m$ is dense in $F((z^{-1}))^m$ in the sense that each element in $F((z^{-1}))^m$ is the limit of a sequence from $F(z)^m$.

3. Optimal rational approximation

DEFINITION 4. Let

$$\frac{\underline{p}(z)}{q(z)} = \left(\frac{p_1(z)}{q(z)}, \dots, \frac{p_m(z)}{q(z)} \right)^\tau \in F[z]^m$$

be an m -tuple of rational fractions, where $q(z)$ is the common denominator of the m components. The indexed valuation $\text{Iv}(\underline{r} - \underline{p}(z)/q(z))$ is called the *precision of approximation* of \underline{r} by $\underline{p}(z)/q(z)$. The tuple $\underline{p}(z)/q(z)$ is called an *optimal rational approximant* to \underline{r} if it satisfies the following two conditions:

- $\text{Iv}\left(\underline{r} - \frac{\underline{u}(z)}{v(z)}\right) < \text{Iv}\left(\underline{r} - \frac{\underline{p}(z)}{q(z)}\right) \forall \frac{\underline{u}(z)}{v(z)} \in F(z)^m, \deg(v(z)) < \deg(q(z));$
- $\text{Iv}\left(\underline{r} - \frac{\underline{u}(z)}{v(z)}\right) \leq \text{Iv}\left(\underline{r} - \frac{\underline{p}(z)}{q(z)}\right) \forall \frac{\underline{u}(z)}{v(z)} \in F(z)^m, \deg(v(z)) = \deg(q(z)).$

For a non-zero element $r = \sum_{i=0}^t b_{-i}z^i + \sum_{i \geq 1} b_i z^{-i}$ in $F((z^{-1}))$, where $t \geq 0$, define $[r] = \sum_{i=0}^t b_{-i}z^i$ and $\{r\} = \sum_{i \geq 1} b_i z^{-i}$, which are called the *polynomial part* and the *remaining part* of r , respectively [15].

For $\underline{r} = (\dots, r_j(z), \dots)^\tau \in F((z^{-1}))^m$, set $[\underline{r}] = (\dots, [r_j(z)], \dots)^\tau$ and $\{\underline{r}\} = (\dots, \{r_j(z)\}, \dots)^\tau$. It is not difficult to see that $\underline{p}(z)/q(z)$ is an optimal rational approximant to $\{\underline{r}\}$ of precision (h, n) if and only if $[\underline{r}] + \underline{p}(z)/q(z)$ is an optimal rational approximant to \underline{r} of the same precision. Therefore, it is enough to consider elements \underline{r} with positive valuation ($v(\underline{r}) > 0$) in studying optimal rational approximation of formal Laurent series.

4. Multidimensional continued fraction algorithm. We denote by

$$(3) \quad \text{diag}(r_1, \dots, r_m), \quad r_j \in F((z^{-1})),$$

the diagonal matrix of order m with the j th diagonal element equal to r_j .

m-CONTINUED FRACTION ALGORITHM (m-CFA, for short). Given $\underline{r} \in F((z^{-1}))^m$ with $\underline{r} \neq \underline{0}$ and $v(\underline{r}) > 0$, initially set $\underline{a}_0 = \underline{0}$, $\Delta_{-1} = I_m = \text{diag}(\dots, z^{-c_{0,j}}, \dots)$, $c_{0,j} = 0$ for $1 \leq j \leq m$, and $\alpha_0 = \underline{r}$. For any integer $k \geq 1$, suppose $\Delta_{k-2} = \text{diag}(\dots, z^{-c_{k-1,j}}, \dots)$, $c_{i,j} \in \mathbb{Z}$, and $\underline{0} \neq \alpha_{k-1} = (\dots, \alpha_{k-1,j}, \dots)^\tau \in F((z^{-1}))^m$ have been obtained. Then the computations for the k th round are defined by the following steps:

- (1) Set $(h_k, c_k) = \text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-2}\alpha_{k-1})$.
- (2) Set $\Delta_{k-1} = \text{diag}(\dots, z^{-c_{k,j}}, \dots)$, which is an $m \times m$ diagonal matrix, where $c_{k,j} = c_{k-1,j}$ if $j \neq h_k$, and $c_{k,h_k} = c_k$.
- (3) Set $\underline{\varrho}_k = (\dots, \varrho_{k,j}, \dots)^\tau \in F((z^{-1}))^m$, where $\varrho_{k,j} = \alpha_{k-1,j}/\alpha_{k-1,h_k}$ if $j \neq h_k$, and $\varrho_{k,h_k} = 1/\alpha_{k-1,h_k}$.
- (4) Set $\alpha_k = \{\underline{\varrho}_k\}$ and $\underline{a}_k = [\underline{\varrho}_k]$. If $\alpha_k = \underline{0}$, then set $\mu = k$, and the algorithm terminates.

Define $\mu = \infty$ if the above procedure never terminates.

By letting m-CFA act on \underline{r} , we get an expansion of the form

$$C(\underline{r}) = [\underline{0}, h_1, \underline{a}_1, \dots, h_k, \underline{a}_k, \dots], \quad 1 \leq k \leq \mu.$$

We call $C(\underline{r})$ the *multi-continued fraction expansion* of \underline{r} , and μ the *length* of $C(\underline{r})$.

In what follows we keep the notation $C(\underline{r})$ and all the notations appearing in the process of generating $C(\underline{r})$, and define

$$(4) \quad \underline{a}_k = (a_{k,1}, \dots, a_{k,j}, \dots, a_{k,m}).$$

For the case $\mu < \infty$, we see that $\alpha_\mu = \underline{0}$, and it is convenient to set

$$(5) \quad (h_{\mu+1}, c_{\mu+1}) = \text{Iv}(\Delta_\mu \alpha_\mu) = (1, \infty).$$

THEOREM 5. $\alpha_{k-1,h_k} \neq 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq \mu$. As a consequence, the m-CFA is well defined, and $0 \neq a_{k-1,h_k} \in F[z]$, $\deg(a_{k-1,h_k}) \geq 1$ for $1 \leq k \leq \mu$.

Proof. From $(h_k, c_k) = \text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-2}\alpha_{k-1})$, we see that $c_{k-1, h_k} + v(\alpha_{k-1, h_k}) = c_k$, thus, $v(\alpha_{k-1, h_k}) = -c_{k-1, h_k} + c_k \in \mathbb{Z}$, hence $\alpha_{k-1, h_k} \neq 0$.

REMARK. When $m = 1$, the m-CFA is exactly the classical continued fraction algorithm [14] for formal power series. In fact, when $m = 1$, we have $h_k = 1$ for all k , hence both step (1) and step (2) at each round are unnecessary. Now, the 1-CFA is as follows (we write $\underline{r} = r$, $\underline{a}_k = a_k$): Initially, set $a_0 = 0$, $\alpha_0 = r$. For any integer $k \geq 1$, suppose $[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}]$ and $0 \neq \alpha_{k-1} \in F((z^{-1}))$ have been obtained. Then the computations for the k th round are defined by the following steps:

- (1) Set $\varrho_k = 1/\alpha_{k-1}$.
- (2) Set $\alpha_k = \{\varrho_k\}$ and $a_k = \lfloor \varrho_k \rfloor$. If $\alpha_k = \underline{0}$, then set $\mu = k$, and the algorithm terminates.

Define $\mu = \infty$ if the above procedure never terminates.

5. Three conditions satisfied by the multi-continued fraction expansion $C(\underline{r})$. Define

$$(6) \quad \begin{cases} t_0 = 0, \\ t_k = \deg(a_{k, h_k}(z)), \quad 1 \leq k \leq \mu, \\ v_{0, j} = 0, \\ v_{k, j} = \sum_{h_i=j, 1 \leq i \leq k} t_i, \quad 1 \leq k \leq \mu, 1 \leq j \leq m, \\ v_k = v_{k, h_k}, \quad 1 \leq k \leq \mu, \\ D_k = \text{diag}(z^{-v_{k,1}}, \dots, z^{-v_{k,m}}), \quad 0 \leq k \leq \mu, \\ t_\mu = \infty, \\ (h_{\mu+1}, v_{\mu+1}) = (1, \infty) \quad \text{if } \mu < \infty. \end{cases}$$

THEOREM 6. For $1 \leq k \leq \mu$, $C(\underline{r})$ satisfies:

- Condition 1: $t_k \geq 1$,
- Condition 2: $\text{Iv}(D_k \underline{a}_k) = (h_k, v_{k-1, h_k})$,
- Condition 3: $(h_k, v_{k-1, h_k}) < (h_{k+1}, v_{k+1})$.

Before proving Theorem 6 we make some preparations. In particular, we introduce the concept of a D-matrix.

DEFINITION 7. We call a diagonal matrix over $F((z^{-1}))$ a *D-matrix* if each of its diagonal elements is a power of z .

It is clear that both D_k and Δ_{k-1} are D-matrices.

LEMMA 8. Let $\underline{0} \neq \varrho \in F((z^{-1}))^m$ and $I(\Delta \varrho) = h$, where Δ is a D-matrix. Then

$$\text{Iv}(\Delta \varrho) = \begin{cases} \text{Iv}(\Delta \lfloor \varrho \rfloor) < \text{Iv}(\Delta \{\varrho\}) & \text{if } \lfloor \varrho_h \rfloor \neq 0, \\ \text{Iv}(\Delta \{\varrho\}) < \text{Iv}(\Delta \lfloor \varrho \rfloor) & \text{if } \lfloor \varrho_h \rfloor = 0, \end{cases}$$

where ϱ_h is the h th component of ϱ .

Proof. Set $\Delta = \text{diag}(\dots, z^{-b_j}, \dots)$. Then $\text{Iv}(\Delta\varrho) = \text{Iv}(z^{-b_h} z^{-v(\varrho_h)} \underline{e}_h)$. Noting that there are no common monomials in $\Delta\{\varrho\}$ and $\Delta[\varrho]$, we see that $\text{Iv}(\Delta\{\varrho\}) \neq \text{Iv}(\Delta[\varrho])$, and then $\text{Iv}(\Delta\varrho) = \min\{\text{Iv}(\Delta[\varrho]), \text{Iv}(\Delta\{\varrho\})\}$, which leads to the result by observing that $\text{Iv}(\Delta\varrho) = \text{Iv}(\Delta[\varrho]) < \text{Iv}(\Delta\{\varrho\})$ if and only if $z^{-v(\varrho_h)} \underline{e}_h \in [\varrho]$, and the latter holds true if and only if $[\varrho_h] \neq 0$.

LEMMA 9.

- (1) $t_k = \deg(a_{k,h_k}) = -v(\varrho_{k,h_k}) = v(\alpha_{k-1,h_k}) > 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq \mu$.
- (2) $v_{k,j} = c_{k,j}$ and $v_k = c_k$ for $0 \leq k \leq \mu$ and $1 \leq j \leq m$. As a consequence, $D_k = \Delta_{k-1}$ for $0 \leq k \leq \mu$.
- (3) $\text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-1}\varrho_k) = (h_k, v_{k-1,h_k})$.

Proof. (1) Noting that $\alpha_{k-1,h_k} \neq 0$ and α_{k-1} is the remaining part of ϱ_{k-1} , we see that $0 < v(\alpha_{k-1,h_k}) \neq \infty$. Since $a_{k,h_k} = [\varrho_{k,h_k}] = [\alpha_{k-1,h_k}^{-1}]$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} t_k &= \deg(a_{k,h_k}) = -v([\varrho_{k,h_k}]) = -v([\alpha_{k-1,h_k}^{-1}]) \\ &= -v(\alpha_{k-1,h_k}^{-1}) = v(\alpha_{k-1,h_k}) > 0. \end{aligned}$$

(2) By definition,

$$v_{k,j} = \begin{cases} v_{k-1,j} & \text{if } j \neq h_k, \\ v_k = v_{k-1,h_k} + t_k & \text{if } j = h_k. \end{cases}$$

From $\text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-2}\alpha_{k-1}) = (h_k, c_k)$, we see that $c_k = c_{k-1,h_k} + v(\alpha_{k-1,h_k}) = c_{k-1,h_k} + t_k$, so

$$(7) \quad c_{k,j} = \begin{cases} c_{k-1,j} & \text{if } j \neq h_k, \\ c_k = c_{k-1,h_k} + t_k & \text{if } j = h_k. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, the $v_{k,j}$ satisfy the same recurrence relation as $c_{k,j}$, and they have the same initial values: $v_{0,j} = c_{0,j}$, so $v_{k,j} = c_{k,j}$ and $v_k = v_{k,h_k} = c_{k,h_k} = c_k$.

(3) From (7) we see that

$$\Delta_{k-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I_{h_k-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & z^{-t_k} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_{m-h_k} \end{pmatrix} \Delta_{k-2},$$

and

$$\varrho_k = \begin{pmatrix} I_{h_k-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_{k-1,h_k}^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_{m-h_k} \end{pmatrix} \alpha_{k-1} \alpha_{k-1,h_k}^{-1}.$$

Then

$$\Delta_{k-1}\varrho_k = \begin{pmatrix} I_{h_k-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & z^{-t_k} \alpha_{k-1,h_k}^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_{m-h_k} \end{pmatrix} \Delta_{k-2} \alpha_{k-1} \alpha_{k-1,h_k}^{-1}.$$

Since $v(z^{-t_k} \alpha_{k-1, h_k}^{-1}) = 0$, we obtain

$$v \left(\left(\begin{array}{ccc} I_{h_k-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & z^{-t_k} \alpha_{k-1, h_k}^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_{m-h_k} \end{array} \right) \Delta_{k-2} \alpha_{k-1} \right) = v(\Delta_{k-2} \alpha_{k-1}) = (h_k, c_k).$$

Thus

$$\text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-1} \varrho_k) = (h_k, c_k - v(\alpha_{k-1, h_k})) = (h_k, v_{k-1, h_k}).$$

Proof of Theorem 6. From Lemma 9 we see that Condition 1 holds true. Noting that $h_k = I(\Delta_{k-1} \varrho_k)$ and $\lfloor \varrho_k, h_k \rfloor \neq 0$ (see Lemma 9), from Lemma 8 we get

$$\text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-1} \varrho_k) = \text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-1} \lfloor \varrho_k \rfloor) < \text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-1} \{ \varrho_k \}).$$

Since $\underline{a}_k = \lfloor \varrho_k \rfloor$, $\alpha_k = \{ \varrho_k \}$ and $\text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-1} \varrho_k) = (h_k, v_{k-1, h_k})$, we get

$$(h_k, v_{k-1, h_k}) = \text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-1} \underline{a}_k) < \text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-1} \alpha_k) = (h_{k+1}, c_{k+1}) = (h_{k+1}, v_{k+1}),$$

which together with $\Delta_{k-1} = D_k$ tells us that $C(\underline{r})$ satisfies Conditions 2 and 3.

6. m-CFA and optimal rational approximations. In this section we show how $C(\underline{r})$ provides optimal rational approximations to \underline{r} by rational fractions $(\frac{p_k}{q_k})$, $0 \leq k \leq \mu$, defined below.

Define iteratively the square matrices B_k of order $m+1$ over $F[z]$:

$$(8) \quad \begin{cases} B_0 = I_{m+1}, \\ B_k = B_{k-1} E_{h_k} A(\underline{a}_k), \quad 1 \leq k \leq \mu, \end{cases}$$

where

$$(9) \quad \begin{cases} E_h = (\underline{e}_1 \ \underline{e}_2 \ \cdots \ \underline{e}_{h-1} \ \underline{e}_{m+1} \ \underline{e}_{h+1} \ \cdots \ \underline{e}_m \ \underline{e}_h), \\ A(\underline{a}_k) = \begin{pmatrix} I_m & \underline{a}_k \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \end{cases}$$

In other words, E_h is the matrix of order $m+1$ obtained by exchanging the h th and $(m+1)$ th columns of the identity matrix I_{m+1} .

Define

$$(10) \quad \begin{pmatrix} p_k \\ q_k \end{pmatrix} = B_k(0 \dots 0 1)^{\tau},$$

which is the last column of B_k , where $\underline{p}_k(z) \in F[z]^m$ and $q_k(z) \in F[z]$.

REMARK. When $m=1$, write $\underline{p}_k = p_k \in F[z]$, $\underline{a}_k = a_k \in F[z]$; we claim that p_k and q_k satisfy the following recurrence relation:

$$(11) \quad \begin{cases} p_k = p_{k-2} + a_k p_{k-1}, \\ q_k = q_{k-2} + a_k q_{k-1}, \end{cases} \quad \text{for } k \geq 1,$$

where $(p_{-1}, q_{-1}) = (1, 0)$ and $(p_0, q_0) = (0, 1)$, hence the rational fractions $\left(\frac{p_k}{q_k}\right)$ are exactly the rational approximants provided by the classical continued fraction algorithm [14]. In fact, we can prove (11) and

$$(12) \quad B_k = \begin{pmatrix} p_{k-1} & p_k \\ q_{k-1} & q_k \end{pmatrix}, \quad k \geq 0,$$

together by induction on k . It is easy to check (12) for $k = 0$. Assume

$$B_{k-1} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{k-2} & p_{k-1} \\ q_{k-2} & q_{k-1} \end{pmatrix};$$

then the first column of B_k is

$$B_k(1 \ 0)^\tau = B_{k-1}E_1A(a_k)(1 \ 0)^\tau = B_{k-1}E_1(1 \ 0)^\tau = B_{k-1}(0 \ 1)^\tau = \begin{pmatrix} p_{k-1} \\ q_{k-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

hence (12) is true because $\left(\frac{p_k}{q_k}\right)$ is the second column of B_k by definition. Then we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_k \\ q_k \end{pmatrix} = B_k(0 \ 1)^\tau = B_{k-1}E_1A(a_k)(0 \ 1)^\tau = B_{k-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ a_k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{k-2} + a_k p_{k-1} \\ q_{k-2} + a_k q_{k-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

hence (11) holds true for k .

Define

$$(13) \quad \begin{cases} d_0 = 0, \\ d_k = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq k} t_i, \\ n_k = d_{k-1} + v_k, \\ d_{\mu+1} = t_{\mu+1} = n_{\mu+1} = \infty \quad \text{if } \mu < \infty. \end{cases}$$

From the fact that $n_k = d_{k-1} + v_k = d_k + v_{k-1, h_k}$ and $n_{k+1} = d_k + v_{k+1}$, we see immediately that Condition 3: $(h_k, v_{k-1, h_k}) < (h_{k+1}, v_{k+1}) \forall 1 \leq k \leq \mu$, is equivalent to the following condition:

$$(14) \quad (h_k, n_k) < (h_{k+1}, n_{k+1}) \quad \forall 1 \leq k \leq \mu.$$

THEOREM 10.

- (1) $\gcd(q_k(z), \dots, p_{k,j}(z), \dots) = 1$ for all $0 \leq k \leq \mu$, where $p_{k,j}(z)$ is the j th component of $\underline{p}_k(z)$.
- (2) $\deg(q_k(z)) = d_k$ for all $0 \leq k \leq \mu$.

THEOREM 11. $\text{Iv}(\underline{r} - \underline{p}_k(z)/q_k(z)) = (h_{k+1}, n_{k+1})$. As a consequence,

$$(15) \quad \underline{r} = \begin{cases} \frac{\underline{p}_\mu(z)}{q_\mu(z)} & \text{if } \mu < \infty, \\ \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\underline{p}_k(z)}{q_k(z)} & \text{if } \mu = \infty. \end{cases}$$

We call the rational fraction $\underline{p}_k(z)/q_k(z)$ ($0 \leq k \leq \mu$) the k th *rational approximant* of $C(\underline{r})$, and we say $C(\underline{r})$ converges to \underline{r} in the sense that (15) holds. The following theorem shows that $C(\underline{r})$ provides optimal rational approximations to \underline{r} .

THEOREM 12. *Assume $q(z) \in F[z]$, $d_k \leq \deg(q(z)) < d_{k+1}$ and $\underline{p}(z) \in F[z]^m$ for some $0 \leq k \leq \mu$. Then*

$$\text{Iv}\left(\underline{r} - \frac{\underline{p}(z)}{q(z)}\right) \leq \text{Iv}\left(\underline{r} - \frac{\underline{p}_k(z)}{q_k(z)}\right) = (h_{k+1}, n_{k+1}).$$

As a consequence, no $\underline{p}(z)/q(z)$ with $\deg(q(z)) < d_{k+1}$ approximates \underline{r} better than $\underline{p}_k(z)/q_k(z)$. In particular:

- (1) *Each $\underline{p}_k(z)/q_k(z)$, $0 \leq k \leq \mu$, is an optimal rational approximant to \underline{r} .*
- (2) *If $\underline{p}(z)/q(z)$ is an optimal rational approximant to \underline{r} , then $\deg(q(z)) = d_k$ for some k , $0 \leq k \leq \mu$.*

7. Proof of the theorems

7.1. Proof of Theorem 10. First we express $q_k(z)$ explicitly. To do this, for $0 \leq k \leq \mu$ we denote by P_{k-1} the $m \times m$ submatrix of B_k which is made up of the first m columns and the first m rows, and by Q_{k-1} the $1 \times m$ submatrix of B_k made up of the first m columns and the last row; moreover, denote by $\underline{p}_{k-1,j}$ ($\in F[z]^m$) the j th column of P_{k-1} , and by $Q_{k-1,j}$ ($\in F[z]$) the j th component of Q_{k-1} for $1 \leq j \leq m$.

LEMMA 13. *For $1 \leq k \leq \mu$, we have:*

$$(1) \quad B_{k-1}E_{h_k} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1} & P_{k-2,h_k} \\ Q_{k-1} & Q_{k-2,h_k} \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$(2) \quad \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1,j} \\ Q_{k-1,j} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-2,j} \\ Q_{k-2,j} \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } j \neq h_k, \\ \begin{pmatrix} \underline{p}_{k-1} \\ q_{k-1} \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } j = h_k. \end{cases}$$

Proof. (1) We have

$$B_{k-1}E_{h_k} \begin{pmatrix} I_m \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = B_{k-1}E_{h_k}A(\underline{a}_k) \begin{pmatrix} I_m \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = B_k \begin{pmatrix} I_m \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1} \\ Q_{k-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$B_{k-1}E_{h_k} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = B_{k-1}\underline{e}_{h_k} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-2,h_k} \\ Q_{k-2,h_k} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence, we get (1).

(2) We have

$$\begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1,j} \\ Q_{k-1,j} \end{pmatrix} = B_{k-1} E_{h_k} \underline{e}_j = \begin{cases} B_{k-1} \underline{e}_j = \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-2,j} \\ Q_{k-2,j} \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } j \neq h_k, \\ B_{k-1} \underline{e}_{m+1} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{k-1} \\ q_{k-1} \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } j = h_k. \end{cases}$$

Now, for $k \geq 1$, q_k can be expressed explicitly as

$$\begin{aligned} (16) \quad q_k(z) &= (0_{1 \times m} \ 1) B_k \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = (0_{1 \times m} \ 1) B_{k-1} E_{h_k} \begin{pmatrix} I_m & \underline{a}_k \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (0_{1 \times m} \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1} & P_{k-2,h_k} \\ Q_{k-1} & Q_{k-2,h_k} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \underline{a}_k \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = Q_{k-1} \underline{a}_k(z) + Q_{k-2,h_k} \\ &= q_{k-1}(z) a_{k,h_k}(z) + \sum_{j \neq h_k, Q_{k-1,j} \neq 0, 1 \leq j \leq m} Q_{k-1,j} a_{k,j}(z) + Q_{k-2,h_k}. \end{aligned}$$

To evaluate the degree of $a_{k,j}(z)$ and to show how $Q_{k-1,j}$ depends on some $q_i(z)$ ($0 \leq i \leq k-1$), we define a function $l(k, j)$, which is associated to $C(\underline{r})$ and defined on the set $[1, \mu] \times Z_m$ ($[1, \mu] = \{k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid 1 \leq k \leq \mu\}$), in the following way: $l(k, j) = k_0$ if there exists an integer k_0 such that $1 \leq k_0 \leq k$, $h_{k_0} = j$ and $h_i \neq j$ for all $k_0 < i \leq k$; and $l(k, j) = 0$ otherwise. It is clear that

$$(17) \quad \begin{cases} l(k, h_k) = k, \\ l(k, j) < k & \text{if } j \neq h_k, \\ h_{l(k,j)} = j, \\ v_{k,j} = v_{l(k,j)}. \end{cases}$$

LEMMA 14. For $1 \leq k \leq \mu$, we have

$$(1) \quad \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1,j} \\ Q_{k-1,j} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} p_{l(k,j)-1} \\ q_{l(k,j)-1} \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } l(k, j) \geq 1, \\ \begin{pmatrix} e_j \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } l(k, j) = 0. \end{cases}$$

As a consequence, $l(k, j) \geq 1$ if $Q_{k-1,j} \neq 0$.

(2) For $j \neq h_k$,

$$\begin{cases} \deg(a_{k,j}(z)) < d_k - d_{l(k,j)-1} & \text{if } l(k, j) \geq 1, \\ a_{k,j}(z) \in F & \text{if } l(k, j) = 0. \end{cases}$$

Proof. (1) For $j = h_k$, we have seen

$$\begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1, h_k} \\ Q_{k-1, h_k} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{k-1} \\ q_{k-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{l(k, h_k)-1} \\ q_{l(k, h_k)-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

For $j \neq h_k$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1, j} \\ Q_{k-1, j} \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-2, j} \\ Q_{k-2, j} \end{pmatrix} = \dots \\ &= \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} P_{l(k, j)-1, j} \\ Q_{l(k, j)-1, j} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{l(k, j)-1, h_{l(k, j)}} \\ Q_{l(k, j)-1, h_{l(k, j)}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{l(k, j)-1} \\ q_{l(k, j)-1} \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } l(k, j) > 0, \\ \begin{pmatrix} P_{0-1, j} \\ Q_{0-1, j} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{-1, j} \\ Q_{-1, j} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} e_j \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } l(k, j) = 0. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

(2) From $D_k \underline{a}_k = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq m} z^{-v_{k, j}} a_{k, j} \underline{e}_j$ and $\text{Iv}(D_k \underline{a}_k) = (h_k, v_{k-1, h_k})$ and the assumption $j \neq h_k$, we see that

$$(18) \quad (j, v_{k, j} - \deg(a_{k, j})) = \text{Iv}(z^{-v_{k, j}} a_{k, j} \underline{e}_j) > \text{Iv}(D_k \underline{a}_k) = (h_k, v_{k-1, h_k}),$$

and then

$$(19) \quad v_{k, j} - \deg(a_{k, j}) \geq v_{k-1, h_k}.$$

If $l(k, j) > 0$, from (18) we get

$$\begin{aligned} (j, d_k + v_{k, j} - \deg(a_{k, j})) &> (h_k, d_k + v_{k-1, h_k}) = (h_k, n_k) \\ &> (h_{l(k, j)}, n_{l(k, j)}) = (j, n_{l(k, j)}), \end{aligned}$$

so

$$d_k + v_{k, j} - \deg(a_{k, j}) > n_{l(k, j)} = d_{l(k, j)-1} + v_{l(k, j)} = d_{l(k, j)-1} + v_{k, j},$$

hence $\deg(a_{k, j}) < d_k - d_{l(k, j)-1}$. If $l(k, j) = 0$, then $v_{k, j} = 0$, and from (19) we have $\deg(a_{k, j}) \leq v_{k, j} - v_{k-1, h_k} = -v_{k-1, h_k} \leq 0$, hence $\deg(a_{k, j}) \leq 0$, i.e., $a_{k, j}(z) \in F$.

Now we turn to the proof of Theorem 10.

(1) By definition, B_k is a matrix over $F[z]$ and $\det(B_k) = 1$, which leads to assertion (1).

(2) We argue by induction on k . For $k = 0$, we have $q_0(z) = 1$, hence $\deg(q_0) = 0 = d_0$. Assume $\deg(q_i) = d_i$ for $i < k$ and $k \geq 1$. From (16) and Lemma 14 we see that

$$q_k(z) = q_{k-1}(z) a_{k, h_k}(z) + \sum_{j \neq h_k, l(k, j) \geq 1, 1 \leq j \leq m} q_{l(k, j)-1, j} a_{k, j}(z) + Q_{k-2, h_k}.$$

The required result $\deg(q_k(z)) = d_k$ follows by observing the following facts:

- $\deg(q_{k-1}(z) a_{k, h_k}(z)) = d_{k-1} + t_k = d_k$ (induction assumption).

- For $j \neq h_k$ and $l(k, j) \geq 1$, we see that (by induction assumption)

$$\deg(q_{l(k,j)-1} a_{k,j}(z)) < d_{l(k,j)-1} + d_k - d_{l(k,j)-1} = d_k.$$

- If $Q_{k-2, h_k} \neq 0$, then $l(k-1, h_k) \geq 1$, and hence $Q_{k-2, h_k} = q_{l(k-1, h_k)-1}$.
So, $\deg(Q_{k-2, h_k}) = \deg(q_{l(k-1, h_k)-1}) = d_{l(k-1, h_k)-1} < d_k$.

7.2. Proof of Theorem 11. For $0 \leq k \leq \mu$ we define

$$(20) \quad \underline{r}_k = \underline{r}q_k - \underline{p}_k,$$

$$(21) \quad -R_{k-1} = \underline{r}Q_{k-1} - P_{k-1}.$$

We call \underline{r}_k the k th *remainder vector*, and R_{k-1} the $(k-1)$ th *remainder matrix*.

Theorem 11 is an easy consequence of the following

PROPOSITION 15. *For $1 \leq k \leq \mu$, we have*

- (1) $R_{k-1}\varrho_k = -R_{k-2, h_k}$ and $\underline{r}_k = R_{k-1}\alpha_k$.
- (2) $\text{Iv}(R_{k-1}\alpha_k) = \text{Iv}(D_k\alpha_k)$.
- (3) $\text{Iv}(\underline{r}_k) = (h_{k+1}, v_{k+1})$.

Proposition 15 will be proved later, now we prove Theorem 11 based on it. From item (3) of Proposition 15 we get immediately

$$\text{Iv}\left(\underline{r} - \frac{\underline{p}_k(z)}{q_k(z)}\right) = \text{Iv}\left(\frac{\underline{r}_k}{q_k(z)}\right) = (h_{k+1}, v_{k+1} + d_k) = (h_{k+1}, n_{k+1}).$$

To prove Proposition 15, we denote by $R_{k-1, j}$ the j th column of R_{k-1} . It is clear that

$$(22) \quad (-I_m, \underline{r})B_k = (-R_{k-1}, \underline{r}_k),$$

$$(23) \quad (-I_m, \underline{r})\begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1, j} \\ Q_{k-1, j} \end{pmatrix} = -R_{k-1, j}.$$

LEMMA 16. *For $1 \leq k \leq \mu$, we have*

- (1) $(-I_m, \underline{r})B_{k-1}E_{h_k} = (-R_{k-1}, -R_{k-2, h_k})$.
- (2) $-R_{k-1, j} = \begin{cases} -R_{k-2, j} & \text{if } j \neq h_k, \\ \underline{r}_{k-1} & \text{if } j = h_k. \end{cases}$

Proof. (1) We have

$$(-I_m, \underline{r})B_{k-1}E_{h_k} = (-I_m, \underline{r})\begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1} & P_{k-2, h_k} \\ Q_{k-1} & Q_{k-1, h_k} \end{pmatrix} = (-R_{k-1}, -R_{k-2, h_k}).$$

(2) By (23),

$$\begin{aligned} -R_{k-1,j} &= (-I_m, \underline{r}) \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-1,j} \\ Q_{k-1,j} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{cases} (-I_m, \underline{r}) \begin{pmatrix} P_{k-2,j} \\ Q_{k-2,j} \end{pmatrix} = -R_{k-2,j} & \text{if } j \neq h_k, \\ (-I_m, \underline{r}) \begin{pmatrix} p_{k-1} \\ q_{k-1} \end{pmatrix} = \underline{r}_{k-1} & \text{if } j = h_k. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Proposition 15(1). We argue by induction on k . It is easy to check $\underline{r}_0 = R_{-1}\alpha_0$. Now assume $\underline{r}_{k-1} = R_{k-2}\alpha_{k-1}$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} -R_{k-1}\varrho_k - R_{k-2,h_k} &= (-R_{k-1}, -R_{k-2,h_k}) \begin{pmatrix} \varrho_k \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (-I_m, \underline{r}) B_{k-1} E_{h_k} \begin{pmatrix} \varrho_k \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = (-I_m, \underline{r}) B_{k-1} E_{h_k} E_{h_k} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{k-1} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \alpha_{k-1,h_k}^{-1} \\ &= (-R_{k-2}, \underline{r}_{k-1}) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{k-1} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \alpha_{k-1,h_k}^{-1} = (-R_{k-2}\alpha_{k-1} + \underline{r}_{k-1}) \alpha_{k-1,h_k}^{-1} = \underline{0}, \end{aligned}$$

thus $R_{k-1}\varrho_k = -R_{k-2,h_k}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{r}_k &= (-I_m, \underline{r}) B_k \begin{pmatrix} \underline{0} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = (-I_m, \underline{r}) B_{k-1} E_{h_k} A(\underline{a}_k) \begin{pmatrix} \underline{0} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (-R_{k-1}, -R_{k-2,h_k}) \begin{pmatrix} \underline{a}_k \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = (-R_{k-1}, -R_{k-2,h_k}) \begin{pmatrix} \varrho_k - \alpha_k \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (-R_{k-1}, -R_{k-2,h_k}) \begin{pmatrix} -\alpha_k \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = R_{k-1}\alpha_k. \end{aligned}$$

To prove $\text{Iv}(R_{k-1}\alpha_k) = \text{Iv}(D_k\alpha_k)$, we need to know the relation between R_{k-1} and D_k . For this purpose we introduce two concepts: base matrix and D -component of a base matrix.

DEFINITION 17. We call a square matrix R of order m over $F((z^{-1}))$ a *base matrix* if $R(j) \neq \underline{0}$ and $I(R(j)) = j$ for each $1 \leq j \leq m$, where $R(j)$ denotes the j th column of R . For a base matrix R , the D -matrix $\Delta = \text{diag}(z^{-v_1}, \dots, z^{-v_m})$ is called the *D -component* of R if $v_j = v(R(j))$ for each j .

LEMMA 18. *Let R be a base matrix, and Δ the D -component of R . Then R is invertible, and $\text{Iv}(R\underline{r}) = \text{Iv}(\Delta\underline{r})$ for all $\underline{r} \in F((z^{-1}))^m$.*

Proof. Let $L = R\Delta^{-1}$. It is clear that $\text{Iv}(L_j) = (j, 0)$ for all $1 \leq j \leq m$, where L_j denotes the j th column of L . It is enough to prove that L is invertible, and $\text{Iv}(L\underline{r}) = \text{Iv}(\underline{r})$ for all $\underline{r} \in F((z^{-1}))^m$, since then $R = L\Delta$ is invertible, and $\text{Iv}(R\underline{r}) = \text{Iv}(L\Delta\underline{r}) = \text{Iv}(\Delta\underline{r})$.

It is clear that $v(\det(L)) = 0$, so $\det(L) \neq 0$, hence L is invertible. Let $\text{Iv}(\underline{r}) = (h, v)$, $L\underline{r} = (r'_1, \dots, r'_m)^\tau$, $\underline{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_m)^\tau$, $L = (s_{i,j})$. Then $r'_i = \sum_j s_{i,j}r_j$. Note that $v(s_{i,j}) > 0$ for $j > i$, $v(s_{i,i}) = 0$, and $v(s_{i,j}) \geq 0$ for $j < i$; $v(r_j) > v$ for $j < h$, $v(r_h) = v$, and $v(r_j) \geq v$ for $j > h$. It is easy to check that $v(r'_i) > v$ for $i < h$, $v(r'_h) = v$, $v(r'_i) \geq v$ for $i > h$, based on Theorem 3. Hence, $\text{Iv}(L\underline{r}) = (h, v) = \text{Iv}(\underline{r})$.

LEMMA 19. $\text{Iv}(R_{k-1,j}) = (j, v_{k,j})$ for $0 \leq k \leq \mu$. In particular, R_{k-1} is a base matrix, and D_k is the D -component of R_{k-1} for $0 \leq k \leq \mu$.

Proof. We reason by induction on k . When $k = 0$, we have $R_{-1} = I_m$, so $R_{-1,j} = \underline{e}_j$, hence $\text{Iv}(R_{-1,j}) = \text{Iv}(\underline{e}_j) = (j, 0) = (j, v_{0,j})$. Now assume $\text{Iv}(R_{i-1,j}) = (j, v_{i,j})$ for $0 \leq i < k$ and $1 \leq j \leq m$. In particular, we assume $\text{Iv}(R_{k-2,j}) = (j, v_{k-1,j})$, hence R_{k-2} is a base matrix, and D_{k-1} ($= \Delta_{k-2}$) is the D -component of R_{k-2} . If $j \neq h_k$, we have seen that $R_{k-1,j} = R_{k-2,j}$, so $\text{Iv}(R_{k-1,j}) = \text{Iv}(R_{k-2,j}) = (j, v_{k-1,j}) = (j, v_{k,j})$. Since $R_{k-1,h_k} = -\underline{r}_{k-1} = -R_{k-2}\alpha_{k-1}$, we conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Iv}(R_{k-1,h_k}) &= \text{Iv}(R_{k-2}\alpha_{k-1}) = \text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-2}\alpha_{k-1}) \\ &= (h_k, c_k) = (h_k, c_{k,h_k}) = (h_k, v_{k,h_k}). \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Proposition 15(2), (3). From Lemmas 18 and 19 we see immediately that $\text{Iv}(R_{k-1}\alpha_k) = \text{Iv}(D_k\alpha_k)$, which leads to item (2). From (1) and (2) we get

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Iv}(\underline{r}_k) &= \text{Iv}(R_{k-1}\alpha_k) = \text{Iv}(D_k\alpha_k) = \text{Iv}(D_k\alpha_k) \\ &= \text{Iv}(\Delta_{k-1}\alpha_k) = (h_{k+1}, c_{k+1}) = (h_{k+1}, v_{k+1}), \end{aligned}$$

which is (3).

7.3. Proof of Theorem 12. The proof of Theorem 12 is based on the following lemma.

LEMMA 20. Assume $0 \neq b_i(z) \in F[z]$, $\deg(b_i(z)) < t_{i+1}$, $0 \leq i \leq \mu$. Then

- (1) $\text{Iv}(\{\underline{r}q_i(z)b_i(z)\}) = (h_{i+1}, v_{i+1} - \deg(b_i(z)))$.
- (2) $\text{Iv}(\{\underline{r}q_i(z)b_i(z)\}) \neq \text{Iv}(\{\underline{r}q_j(z)b_j(z)\})$, $\forall 0 \leq j \neq i \leq \mu$ and $b_i(z)b_j(z) \neq 0$.

Proof. (1) Since

$$\text{Iv}(\underline{r}_i b_i(z)) = (h_{i+1}, v_{i+1} - \deg(b_i(z))) > (h_{i+1}, v_{i+1} - t_{i+1}) \geq (h_{i+1}, 0),$$

we obtain $\{\underline{r}_i b_i(z)\} = \underline{r}_i b_i(z)$. Then

$$\{\underline{r}q_i(z)b_i(z)\} = \{(rq_i(z) - \underline{p}_i)b_i(z)\} = \{\underline{r}_i b_i(z)\} = \underline{r}_i b_i(z).$$

So, $\text{Iv}(\{\underline{r}q_i(z)b_i(z)\}) = \text{Iv}(\underline{r}_i b_i(z)) = (h_{i+1}, v_{i+1} - \deg(b_i(z)))$.

(2) If $h_{i+1} \neq h_{j+1}$, then (2) is an easy consequence of (1). If $h_{i+1} = h_{j+1}$, we may assume $j < i$. From (1) we have

$$\begin{aligned} v(\{\underline{r}q_i(z)b_i(z)\}) &= v_{i+1} - \deg(b_i(z)) > v_{i+1} - t_{i+1} = v_{i, h_{i+1}} \geq v_{j+1, h_{i+1}} \\ &= v_{j+1, h_{j+1}} = v_{j+1} \geq v_{j+1} - \deg(b_j(z)) = v(\{\underline{r}q_j(z)b_j(z)\}), \end{aligned}$$

which concludes the proof.

We can now prove Theorem 12. Set $d = \deg(q(z))$ and $(h, v) = \text{Iv}(\{\underline{r}q(z)\})$. Since

$$\text{Iv}(\underline{r}q(z) - \underline{p}(z)) \leq \text{Iv}(\{\underline{r}q(z)\}) \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{r} - \frac{\underline{p}(z)}{q(z)} = \frac{\underline{r}q(z) - \underline{p}(z)}{q(z)},$$

we get $\text{Iv}(\underline{r} - \underline{p}(z)/q(z)) \leq (h, v + d)$. It is enough to prove

$$(h, v) \leq (h_{k+1}, n_{k+1} - d),$$

since then we have $\text{Iv}(\underline{r} - \underline{p}(z)/q(z)) \leq (h, v + d) \leq (h_{k+1}, n_{k+1})$. With the assumption $d_k \leq d < d_{k+1}$ we can write $q(z) = \sum_{0 \leq i \leq k} b_i(z)q_i(z)$ for some $b_i(z) \in F[z]$ such that $\deg(b_i(z)) < \deg(q_{i+1}(z)) - \deg(q_i(z)) = t_{i+1}$ for each $i \geq 0$ and $b_i(z) \neq 0$ (note that $q_0(z) = 1$) and $\deg(b_k(z)) = d - d_k \geq 0$. It is clear that $\{\underline{r}q(z)\} = \sum_{0 \leq i \leq k} \{\underline{r}q_i(z)b_i(z)\}$. From Lemmas 20 and 3 we have

$$\begin{aligned} (h, v) &= \text{Iv}(\{\underline{r}q(z)\}) = \min\{\text{Iv}(\{\underline{r}q_i(z)b_i(z)\}) \mid b_i(z) \neq 0, 0 \leq i \leq k\} \\ &\leq \text{Iv}(\{\underline{r}q_k(z)b_k(z)\}) = (h_{k+1}, v_{k+1} - \deg(b_k(z))) \\ &= (h_{k+1}, v_{k+1} + d_k - d) = (h_{k+1}, n_{k+1} - d). \end{aligned}$$

8. Remark. We have focused on m-CFA in this paper. We showed that the m-CFA produces a multi-continued fraction expansion $C(\underline{r})$ of \underline{r} for any multiple Laurent series \underline{r} , which provides optimal rational approximations to \underline{r} .

For further study, consider an arbitrary data of the expansion form

$$(24) \quad C = [\underline{0}, h_1, \underline{a}_1, \dots, h_k, \underline{a}_k, \dots], \quad 1 \leq h_k \leq m, \underline{a}_k \in F[z]^m, 1 \leq k \leq \mu,$$

which satisfies the three conditions formulated for $C(\underline{r})$ in Section 5. We call such a C a multi-continued fraction. From the definition we see that multi-continued fractions are not necessarily identical to $C(\underline{r})$ for some \underline{r} . The problem arises whether multi-continued fractions have similar properties to those of $C(\underline{r})$, to be specific, whether any multi-continued fraction C converges to an element \underline{r} in $F((z^{-1}))^m$ and provides optimal rational approximations to \underline{r} , and whether one can construct an algorithm which produces such C . The answers to these problems are affirmative, and we will call the expected algorithm the multi-universal continued fraction algorithm (m-UCFA, for short). We will discuss these problems in another paper.

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