# Best Rational Product Approximations of Functions. II* 

M. S. Henry<br>Department of Mathematics, Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana 59715

AND
S. E. Weinstein ${ }^{\dagger}$

Department of Mathematics, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112
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## 1. Introduction

The subject of this paper is the rational Chebyshev approximation of a continuous real valued function of several real variables. For simplicity our attention is focused on functions defined on the rectangle $D=$ $[-1,1] \times[-1,1]$.
Let $F$ be a continuous real valued function defined on $D$. For each $A=\left(a_{00}, \ldots, a_{n v_{n}}\right) \in E_{r_{0}+v_{1}+\cdots+v_{n}+n+1}$ and each $B=\left(b_{00}, \ldots, b_{m u_{m}}\right) \in$ $E_{u_{0}+u_{1}+\cdots+u_{m}+m+1}$ define $\mathbb{R}$ to be the class of rational functions of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(C ; x, y)=\frac{P(A ; x, y)}{Q(B ; x, y)}=\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{k=0}^{v_{i}} a_{i k} x^{i} y^{k}}{\sum_{j=0}^{n} \sum_{l=0}^{u_{j}} b_{j l} j^{j} y^{i}}, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $C=(A ; B)$ and $Q(B ; x, y)>0$ on $D$.
We formulate the problem of best rational Chebyshev approximation to $F$ from $\mathbb{R}$ as follows. An element $R\left(C^{*} ; x, y\right) \in \mathbb{R}$ is sought such that

$$
\sup _{(x, y) \in D}|F(x, y)-R(C ; x, y)|
$$

is a minimum for $C=C^{*} . R\left(C^{*} ; x, y\right)$ is called a Chebyshev approximation or a best uniform approximation to $F$.

[^0]The following example demonstrates that a best uniform approximation from $\mathbb{R}$ to a given $F \in C[D]$ may not exist.

Example 1. Let

$$
F(x, y)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\frac{(x+1)^{2}+(y+1)^{2}}{x+y+2}, & -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\
x+1 & -1<y \leqslant 1 \\
-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\
& y=-1
\end{array}\right.
$$

and consider the class of rational functions $\mathbb{R}=\{R(C ; x)\}$, where $R(C ; x)$ is (1) with $n=2, m=1, v_{i}=2$ and $m_{j}=1, i=0,1,2, j=0,1$.

For each $\epsilon>0$ define

$$
R\left(C_{\varepsilon} ; x, y\right)=\frac{(x+1)^{2}+(y+1)^{2}}{x+y+2+\epsilon}
$$

Then $R\left(C_{\epsilon} ; x, y\right) \rightarrow F(x, y)$ uniformly on $[-1,1] \times[-1,1]$ as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. However, $F \notin \mathbb{R}$.

Loeb [6] showed that even when a continuous function $F$ possesses a best approximation $R$, uniqueness could only occur if an appropriate vector space is a Haar space. The scarcity of multidimensional Haar spaces was demonstrated by Mairhuber [7].

The lack of existence or uniqueness of a best approximation and the accompanying computational difficulties have been a roadblock in the development of rational Chebyshev approximation. To overcome these problems, Henry and Brown [4] introduced best rational product approximations as follows.

We first define a class of rational functions. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(C ; x)=\frac{P(A ; x)}{Q(B ; x)}=\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{2} x^{i}}{\sum_{j=0}^{m} b_{j} x^{j}} \neq 0 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $C=(A ; B)=\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} ; b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}\right)$ satisfies
(i) $Q(B ; x)>0$ for all $x \in[-1,1]$;
(ii) $P(A ; x)$ and $Q(B ; x)$ have no common factors other than constants; and
(iii) $\max _{j=0, \ldots, i n}\left|b_{j}\right|=1$.

Definition 1. Let $\mathbb{R}(n, m)$ denote the class of rational functions consisting of all $R(C ; x)$ as above satisfying conditions (i), (ii) and (iii), and the zero function which we allow the unique representation $R\left(C_{0} ; x\right)$ where $C_{0}=(0,0, \ldots, 0 ; 1,0, \ldots, 0)$.

Definition 2. For each fixed $y \in[-1,1]$ let $F_{y}$ denote the univariate function defined for $-1 \leqslant x \leqslant-1$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{y}(x)=F(x, y) . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(C(y) ; x)=\frac{P(A(y) ; x)}{Q(B(y) ; x)} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

denote the best uniform approximation to $F_{y}(x)$ from $\mathbb{R}(n, m)$. That is $\sup _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}\left|F_{y}(x)-R(C ; x)\right|$ is a minimum for $C=C(y)=(A(y) ; B(y))$. Note that for each $y \in[-1,1]$ there exists a unique choice for $C(y)$ and thus it is a well defined function.

Definition 3. Let the components $a_{i}(y)$ and $b_{j}(y)$ of the vector $C(y)$ be best approximated in the Chebyshev sense on $[-1,1]$ by, respectively,

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{\alpha_{i}}(y)=\sum_{k=0}^{v_{i}} a_{i k} y^{k}, \quad i=0,1, \ldots, n \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{\beta_{j}}(y)=\sum_{l=0}^{u_{j}} b_{j l} y^{l}, \quad j=0,1, \ldots, m \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then,

$$
\begin{equation*}
T(x, y) \equiv \frac{T_{P}(x, y)}{T_{\varrho}(x, y)} \equiv \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n} P_{\alpha_{i}}(y) x^{i}}{\sum_{j=0}^{m} Q_{\beta_{j}}(y) x^{j}}=\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{k=0}^{v_{i}} a_{i k} x^{i} y^{k}}{\sum_{j=0}^{m} \sum_{l=0}^{u_{j}} b_{j l} x^{j} y^{l}} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

is called the best rational product approximation, with respect to $y$.
In general this approximation may not exist. If $C(y)$ is continuous then the approximations $P_{\alpha_{i}}(y)$ and $Q_{\beta_{j}}(y)$ exist. Furthermore we must insure the nonvanishing of the denominator $\sum_{j=0}^{m} Q_{\beta_{j}}(y) x^{j}$. This can be achieved by selecting the degrees $u_{j}, j=0,1, \ldots, m$ sufficiently large so that $\sum_{j=0}^{m} Q_{j_{j}}(y) x^{j}>0$. This is possible since $\sum_{j=0}^{m} b_{j}(y) x^{j}>0$ on $[-1,1] \times$ $[-1,1]$.

With the continuity of $C(y)$ and sufficiently large degrees $u_{j}, j=0,1, \ldots, m$ the best rational product approximation exists and is unique. In Section 2 we consider sufficient conditions for the continuity of $C(y)$, various possible types of discontinuous and a method to combat the most common varieties.

Two alternatives to Definition 3 have been considered in the literature. If the variable $x$ is fixed first, rather than $y$, then a product approximation with respect to $x$ can be similarly defined. It is shown in [9] that in general these two approximations are distinct. A second alternative is to approximate
the components $a_{i}(y)$ and $b_{j}(y)$ by rational functions rather than polynomials. This variation is considered in [4]. Either variant is handled analogously to that considered below.

## 2. The Continuity or Discontinuty of the Vector $C(y)$

We now consider sufficient conditions for the continuity of the parameter vector $C(y)$.

Definition 4. $R(C ; x)=[P(A ; x) / Q(B ; x)] \in \mathbb{R}(n, m)$ is said to be of varisolvent degree

$$
\mathscr{M}(C)= \begin{cases}1+\max \{n+\partial Q, m+\partial P\}, & R(C ; x) \neq 0  \tag{8}\\ 1+n, & R(C ; x) \equiv 0\end{cases}
$$

where $\partial P$ and $\partial Q$ denote the degrees of $P(A ; x)$ and $Q(B ; x)$, respectively,
Henry and Brown [4] proved the following theorem giving sufficient conditions for the continuity of the vector $C(y)$.

Theorem 1. Suppose that for fixed $y^{*} \in[-1,1], \mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y^{*}\right)\right)=n+m+i$. Then the function $C(y)$ is continuous at $y^{*}$.

We improve this result somewhat.
Theorem 2. Suppose that $\mathscr{M}(C(y))$ is constant on $(a, b) \subset[-1,1]$. Then $C(y)$ is continuous on $(a, b)$.

Proof. One proof of this result is essentially identical with the proof of Theorem 1 presented in [4]. As an alternative consider the following:

Let $R(C(y) ; x)=[P(A(y) ; x) / Q(B(y) ; x)]$ denote the best approximation to $F_{y}$ from $\mathbb{R}(n, m)$ and suppose that

$$
\mathscr{M}(C(y)) \equiv k \quad \text { for all } \quad y \in(a, b) \subset[-1,1]
$$

Let $\hat{\delta} P$ and $\hat{c} Q$ denote the degrees of $P(A(y) ; x)$ and $Q(B(y) ; x)$, respectively.
Case 1. $k=n+1$ and $n<m$.
Then since

$$
\begin{equation*}
1+\max \{n+\partial Q, m+\partial P\} \geqslant 1+m>1+n, \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

we must have

$$
R(C(y) ; x) \equiv 0 \quad \text { for } \quad \begin{aligned}
& -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\
& -1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $C(y) \equiv C_{0}=(0,0, \ldots, 0 ; 1,0, \ldots, 0)$ for $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$.

Case 2. Either $k=n+1$ and $n \geqslant m$, or $k>n+1$. Then $k \geqslant$ $\max \{1+n, 1+m\}$.

The following lemma combined with Theorem 1 completes this proof.

Lemma 1. Let $R(C(y) ; x)$ and $k$ be as in Case 2 and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
N=k-m-1 \quad \text { and } \quad M=k-n-1 \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $R(C(y) ; x)$ is also the best approximation to $F_{y}$ from the class $\mathbb{R}(N, M)$ and has degree $N+M+1$ in that class. (Note that the degree of a rational function depends on which class of rationals we are considering.)

Proof. Since $\mathbb{R}(N, M) \subseteq \mathbb{R}(n, m)$, if $R(C(y) ; x) \equiv 0$, then $\mathscr{M}(C(y))=$ $n+1, N=n-m, M=0$ and $R(C(y) ; x)$ is also the best approximation to $F_{y}$ in $\mathbb{R}(N, M)$. Furthermore, $R(C(y) ; x) \equiv 0$ has degree $1+N=1+N+M$ in that class.

If $R(C(y) ; x) \neq 0$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
1+n+\partial Q \leqslant k, \quad \text { or equivalently, } \quad \partial Q \leqslant k-n-1=M \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
1+m+\partial P \leqslant k, \quad \text { or equivalently, } \quad \partial P \leqslant k-m-1=N \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality holding in at least one of (11) and (12).
Therefore $R(C(y) ; x) \in \mathbb{R}(N, M)$, and in this class $R(C(y) ; x)$ has degree

$$
1+\max \{N+\partial Q, M+\partial P\}=1+N+M
$$

Now Theorem 1 implies that

$$
\left(a_{0}(y), \ldots, a_{N}(y) ; b_{0}(y), \ldots, b_{M}(y)\right)
$$

is continuous for $y \in(a, b)$ and thus

$$
C(y)=\left(a_{0}(y), \ldots, a_{N}(y), 0, \ldots, 0 ; b_{0}(y), \ldots, b_{M}(y), 0, \ldots, 0\right)
$$

is likewise continuous for $y \in(a, b)$.
We now present four examples of various possible types of discontinuities of $C(y)$. In each case $D=[-1,1] \times[-1,1]$ as usual.

Example 2.

$$
F(x, y)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\frac{y+1+\frac{1}{2} x}{1+\frac{1}{2} x}, & -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\
1 & -1 \leqslant y<0 \\
& 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1 \leqslant 1
\end{array}\right.
$$

Then the best approximation to $F_{y}(x)$ from $\mathbb{R}(1,1)$ is $R(C(y) ; x) \equiv F_{y}(x)$, and

$$
C(y)= \begin{cases}\left(y+1, \frac{1}{2} ; 1, \frac{1}{2}\right) & -1 \leqslant y<0 \\ (1,0 ; 1,0) & 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1\end{cases}
$$

Example 3.

$$
F(x, y)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\frac{y+1+\frac{1}{2} x}{1+\frac{1}{3} x}, & -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\
1 & -1 \leqslant y<0 \\
\frac{2 y \leqslant x \leqslant 1}{1+\frac{1}{3} x}, \frac{1}{3} x & y=0 \\
& -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\
& 0<y \leqslant 1
\end{array}\right.
$$

Then the best approximation to $F_{y}(x)$ from $\mathbb{R}(1,1)$ is again $R(C(Y) ; x) \equiv$ $F_{y}(x)$ and

$$
C(y)= \begin{cases}\left(y+1, \frac{1}{2} ; 1, \frac{1}{2}\right), & -1 \leqslant y<0 \\ (1,0 ; 1,0), & y=0 \\ \left(2 y+1, \frac{1}{3} ; 1, \frac{1}{3}\right), & 0<y \leqslant 1\end{cases}
$$

In both Examples 2 and $3 C(y)$ has a property that will enable us to adjust the discontinuity at $y=0$, and to define a modification of the best ratinoal product approximation. In particular if we let

$$
C(y)= \begin{cases}\left(A_{0}(y) ; B_{0}(y)\right) & \text { for }-1 \leqslant y<0  \tag{13}\\ \left(A_{1}(y) ; B_{1}(y)\right) & \text { for } 0<y \leqslant 1\end{cases}
$$

then the functions $A_{0}, A_{1}, B_{0}$ and $B_{1}$ exist and are continuous on $[-1,1]$. Furthermore

$$
Q\left(B_{0}(y) ; x\right)>0 \quad \text { and } \quad Q\left(B_{1}(y) ; x\right)>0 \quad \text { for } \quad-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1
$$

In the following two examples this property does not hold and the adjustment will not be possible.

## Example 4.

$$
F(x, y)=x+|y| .
$$

Then the best approximation to $F_{y}(x)$ from $\mathbb{R}(0,1)$ is

$$
\begin{gathered}
R(C(y) ; x)=\frac{\frac{y^{2}}{\sqrt{y^{2}+1}}}{1-\frac{x}{\sqrt{y^{2}+1}}}, \quad y \neq 0 \\
R(C(0) ; x)=0
\end{gathered}
$$

Thus

$$
C(y)= \begin{cases}\left(\frac{y^{2}}{\sqrt{y^{2}+1}} ; 1,-\frac{1}{\sqrt{y^{2}+1}}\right), & y \neq 0 \\ (0 ; 1,0), & y=0\end{cases}
$$

Note that with the convention of (13)

$$
Q\left(B_{0}(y) ; x\right)=1-\frac{x}{\sqrt{y^{2}+1}}
$$

and

$$
Q\left(B_{0}(0) ; 1\right)=0
$$

We next consider a more pathelogical example.
Example 5.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F(x, y)=\frac{1+\frac{1}{2}\left(y+\sin \frac{1}{y}\right) x}{1+\left(\frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{1}{y}\right) x}, \quad y \neq 0 \\
& F(x, 0)=1
\end{aligned}
$$

Then the best approximation to $F_{y}(x)$ from $\mathbb{R}(2,1)$ is $R(C(y) ; x) \equiv F_{y}(x)$, and

$$
C(y)= \begin{cases}\left(1, \frac{1}{2}\left(y+\sin \frac{1}{y}\right) ; 1, \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{1}{y}\right), & y \neq 0 \\ (1,0 ; 1,0), & y=0\end{cases}
$$

In each of the above examples $\mathscr{M}(C(y))$ is constant for $-1 \leqslant y<0$ and for $0<y \leqslant 1$. Other examples involving still other types of discontinuities of $C(y)$ can be constructed.

We now propose a method for combating the varieties of discontinuities encountered in Examples 2 and 3. For simplicity we consider only Example 3.

Define the functions

$$
P^{*}\left(A^{*}(y) ; x\right)= \begin{cases}\left(y+1+\frac{1}{2} x\right)\left(1+\frac{1}{3} x\right), & -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\ \left(2 y+1+\frac{1}{3} x\right)\left(1+\frac{1}{2} x\right), & -1 \leqslant y \leqslant 0 \\ & 0<y \leqslant 1\end{cases}
$$

and $Q^{*}\left(B^{*}(y) ; x\right)=\left(1+\frac{1}{2} x\right)\left(1+\frac{1}{3} x\right)$ on $D=[-1,1] \times[-1,1]$ and consider the rational function

$$
R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)=\frac{P^{*}\left(A^{*}(y) ; x\right)}{Q^{*}\left(B^{*}(y) ; x\right)}, \text { on } D
$$

For each $y$ such that $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1, R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right) \neq \mathbb{R}(1,1)$. Thus this rational approximation is not of the originally chosen form. Furthermore, for each $y \in[-1,0], P^{*}\left(A^{*}(y) ; x\right)$ and $Q^{*}\left(B^{*}(y) ; x\right)$ have the common factor $1+\frac{1}{3} x$. Similarly, for each $y \in(0,1], P^{*}$ and $Q^{*}$ have the common factor $1+\frac{1}{2} x$. Thus, for each $y \in[-1,1]$

$$
R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right) \notin \mathbb{R}(2,2)
$$

However if we define

$$
\mathbb{R}^{*}(n, m)=\left\{\frac{P}{Q}: \text { degree of } P \leqslant n, \text { degree of } Q \leqslant m\right\}
$$

then, $R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{*}(2,2)$ for each $y \in[-1,1]$.
Furthermore

$$
R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right) \equiv F(x, y) \text { for }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\
\text { and } \\
-1 \leqslant y<0 \quad \text { or } 0<y \leqslant 1
\end{array}\right.
$$

and

$$
C^{*}(y)= \begin{cases}\left(y+1, \frac{5}{6}+\frac{1}{3} y, \frac{1}{6} ; 1, \frac{5}{6}, \frac{1}{6}\right), & -1 \leqslant y \leqslant 0 \\ \left(2 y+1, \frac{5}{6}+y, \frac{1}{6} ; 1, \frac{5}{6}, \frac{1}{6}\right), & 0<y \leqslant 1\end{cases}
$$

which is continuous on $[-1,1]$.
The rational approximation $R^{*}$ obtained as above is not in general best in the enlarged class of rational functions.

We now generalize this procedure. As usual, for each fixed $y \in[-1,1]$ let $R(C(y) ; x)$ denote the best approximation to $F_{y}(x)$ from $\mathbb{R}(n, m)$. Suppose that $C(y)$ is continuous on $[-1,1]$ except at $y=y^{*}$. Let

$$
R(C(y) ; x)= \begin{cases}\frac{P\left(A_{0}(y) ; x\right)}{Q\left(B_{0}(y) ; x\right)}, & -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1  \tag{14}\\ P\left(A_{1}(y) ; x\right) & -1 \leqslant y<y^{*} \\ \frac{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}{Q\left(B_{1}(y) ; x\right)}, & y^{*}<y \leqslant 1\end{cases}
$$

where $Q\left(B_{0}(y) ; x\right)$ and $Q\left(B_{1}(y) ; x\right)$ exist and are positive for $-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$. Note that Examples 4 and 5 fail in this regard.

Now define

$$
\begin{align*}
P^{*}\left(A^{*}(y) ; x\right) & =\sum_{i=0}^{n+3 n} a_{i}^{*}(y) x^{i} \\
& = \begin{cases}P\left(A_{0}(y) ; x\right) Q\left(B_{1}(y) ; x\right), & -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\
P\left(A_{1}(y) ; x\right) Q\left(B_{0}(y) ; x\right), & -1 \leqslant y \leqslant y^{*} \\
-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\
y^{*}<y \leqslant 1\end{cases} \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q^{*}\left(B^{*}(y) ; x\right)=\sum_{j=0}^{2 \pi n} b_{j}^{*}(y) x^{j}=Q\left(B_{0}(y) ; x\right) Q\left(B_{1}(y) ; x\right) \text { on } D \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)=\frac{P^{*}\left(A^{*}(y) ; x\right)}{Q^{*}\left(B^{*}(y) ; x\right)}, \text { on } D \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

We note some of the properties of the function $R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)$.
Remark 1. $R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)=R(C(y) ; x)$, on $D$, except possibly at $y=y^{*}$.
Remark 2. Suppose further that $A_{0}(y)$ is continuous on $\left[-1, y^{*}\right], A_{1}(y)$ is continuous on $\left[y^{*}, 1\right], B_{0}(y)$ and $B_{1}(y)$ are continuous on $[-1,1]$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{y \rightarrow y^{*-}} R(C(y) ; x)=\lim _{y \rightarrow y^{*+}} R(C(y) ; x), \quad \text { for } \quad-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $C^{*}(y)=\left(A^{*}(y) ; B^{*}(y)\right)$ is continuous on $[-1,1]$.
Proof. By (16), $B^{*}(y)$ is continuous on $[-1,1]$. Equation (15), the continuity of $A_{0}(y)$ on $\left[-1, y^{*}\right]$ and the continuity of $B_{1}(y)$ on $[-1,1]$ imply that $\lim _{y \rightarrow y^{*-}} A^{*}(y)=A^{*}\left(y^{*}\right)$. Equation (18) implies that

$$
\lim _{y \rightarrow y^{*-}} P^{*}\left(A^{*}(y) ; x\right)=\lim _{y \rightarrow y^{*+}} P^{*}\left(A^{*}(y) ; x\right)
$$

Thus $\lim _{y \rightarrow y^{*-}} A^{*}(y)=\lim _{y \rightarrow y^{*+}} A^{*}(y)$, and therefore $A^{*}(y)$ is continuous on $[-1,1]$.

Furthermore we note that while $R(C(y) ; x) \in \mathbb{R}(n, m)$, in general $R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{*}(n+m, 2 m)-\mathbb{R}(n, m)$ for each $y \in[-1,1]$.

Under the hypothesis of Remark 2 we define the modified best rational product approximation $T^{*}(x, y)$ by

$$
T^{*}(x, y)=\frac{T_{P}^{*}(x, y)}{T_{Q^{*}}^{*}(x, y)}=\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n+m} H_{\alpha_{i}}^{*}(y) x^{i}}{\sum_{j=0}^{2 m} G_{\beta_{j}}^{*}(y) x^{j}}
$$

when as usual we choose $H_{\alpha_{i}}^{*}$ and $G_{\beta_{j}}^{*}$ as best uniform approximations
(either polynomial or rational) to $a_{i}{ }^{*}$ and $b_{j}{ }^{*}$, respectively, on $[-1,1]$, for $i=0, \ldots, n+m$ and $j=0, \ldots, 2 m$.

This procedure can be extended to more than one point of discontinuity. Suppose that $-1<y_{1}<y_{2}<\cdots<y_{k}<1$ and that $C(y)$ is continuous on $[-1,1]$ except at $y=y_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, k$. Let

$$
R(C(y) ; x)= \begin{cases}\frac{P\left(A_{0}(y) ; x\right)}{Q\left(B_{0}(y) ; x\right)}, & -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\ \frac{P\left(A_{1}(y) ; x\right)}{Q\left(B_{1}(y) ; x\right)}, & -1 \leqslant y<y_{1} \\ \cdot \cdot, & y_{1}<y<y_{2} \\ \frac{P\left(A_{k}(y) ; x\right)}{Q\left(B_{k}(y) ; x\right)}, & -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\ y_{z}<y \leqslant 1\end{cases}
$$

where $Q\left(B_{i}(y) ; x\right)>0$ for $-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$ and $i=0,1, \ldots, k$.
Define

$$
\begin{gathered}
Q^{*}\left(B^{*}(y) ; x\right)=\prod_{j=0}^{k} Q\left(B_{j}(y) ; x\right) \\
\pi_{i}(x, y)=\prod_{\substack{j=0 \\
j \neq i}}^{k} Q\left(B_{i}(y) ; x\right), \quad i=0,1, \ldots, k
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
P^{*}\left(A^{*}(y) ; x\right)=\left\{\begin{aligned}
P\left(A_{0}(y) ; x\right) \pi_{0}(x, y), & -1 \leqslant y \leqslant y_{x} \\
P\left(A_{1}(y) ; x\right) \pi_{1}(x, y), & y_{1}<y \leqslant y_{2} \\
\cdot & \cdot \\
P\left(A_{k}(y) ; x\right) \pi_{k}(x, y), & y_{k}<y \leqslant 1
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

Finally, define the approximation

$$
R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)=\frac{P^{*}\left(A^{*}(y) ; x\right)}{Q^{*}\left(B^{*}(y) ; x\right)} \text { on } D .
$$

In general $R^{*} \in \mathbb{R}^{*}(n+k m,(k+1) m)$. Thus, for large values of $k, R^{*}$ may have a very large number of parameters.

We can then define the modified best rational product approximation as before.

## 3. Computation

The computation of the best rational product approximation first requires the computation of $R(C(y) ; x)$ for $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$. In general, this is not possible. Instead we often choose a finite set of points $\left\{y_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{k}$ such that
$-1 \leqslant y_{1}<y_{2}<\cdots<y_{k} \leqslant 1$, and compute $R\left(C\left(y_{i}\right) ; x\right)$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, k$ (see [9] algorithms 1 and 2).

Several methods for computing best rational approximations are discussed in Cheney and Southard [2]. These algorithms are most successful when a good initial guess at the best approximation is available. Whenever $C(y)$ is continuous and $y_{i}$ and $y_{i+1}$ are sufficiently close, $R\left(C\left(y_{i}\right) ; x\right)$ is a good approximation to $R\left(C\left(y_{i+1}\right) ; x\right)$.

Iterative procedures such as the Remez exchange algorithm require a good guess at a characteristic point set for the best rational approximation. Such a point set is defined in the following characterization theorem (see Rice [8], p. 80).

Theorem 3 (Characterization). $\quad R(C ; x) \in \mathbb{R}(n, m)$ is a best approximation to $F(x) \in C[-1,1]$ if and only if there exist $\mathscr{A}(C)+1$ points

$$
-1 \leqslant x_{0}<x_{1}<\cdots<x_{v t i(C)} \leqslant 1
$$

such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|R\left(C ; x_{i}\right)-F\left(x_{i}\right)\right|=\sup _{x \in[-1,1]}|R(C ; x)-F(x)|, \quad i=0,1, \ldots, \mathscr{M}(C) \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
R\left(C ; x_{i+1}\right)-F\left(x_{i+1}\right)=F\left(x_{i}\right)-R\left(C ; x_{i}\right), \quad i=0,1, \ldots, \mathscr{M}(C)-1
$$

Such a point set $\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i=0}^{\mathcal{H L}(C)}$ is called a characteristic point set for the best approximation $R(C ; x)$. Any point $x_{i}$ satisfying (19) is called an extreme point for $R(C ; x)-F(x)$.

A characteristic point set for $R\left(C\left(y_{i}\right) ; x\right)$ often provides a good initial guess at a similar point set for $R\left(C\left(y_{i+1}\right) ; x\right), i=0,1, \ldots, \mathscr{M}(C)$. This was shown for product polynomial approximations in [9]. The proof of the rational analog is identical with the proof for the polynomial case. Thus we omit the details and state the following theorem:

Theorem 4. Given an $\epsilon>0$ and $y^{*} \in[-1,1]$, there exists $a \delta=$ $\delta\left(\epsilon, y^{*}\right)>0$ such that for $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$ and $\left|y-y^{*}\right|<\delta$, any extreme point for $R(C(y) ; x)-F(x, y)$ is within $\epsilon$ distance of some extreme point for $R\left(C\left(y^{*}\right) ; x\right)-F\left(x, y^{*}\right)$.

Corollary. Suppose that there are exactly $k$ extreme points for $R(C(y) ; x)-F(x, y)$ for each $y$ such that $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$. Then there exist $k$ continuous functions $x_{1}(\cdot), x_{2}(\cdot), \ldots, x_{k}(\cdot)$ such that for $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$, $-1 \leqslant x_{1}(y)<x_{2}(y)<\cdots<x_{k}(y) \leqslant 1$ are the extreme points for $R(C(y) ; x)-F(x, y)$.

In addition to knowing the approximate location of a set of characteristic points it is useful to have a good estimate for $\mathscr{A}(C(y))$ the degree of the best approximation. The following theorem shows that there is often a useful relation between $\mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y_{i}\right)\right)$ and $\mathscr{A}\left(C\left(y_{i+1}\right)\right)$.

Theorem 5. Given any $y^{*} \in[-1,1]$ there exists a $\delta=\delta\left(y^{*}\right)>0$, such that $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$ and $\left|y-y^{*}\right|<\delta$ imply that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{M}(C(y)) \geqslant \mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y^{*}\right)\right) \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. If $R\left(C\left(y^{*}\right) ; x\right) \equiv 0$ then $\mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y^{*}\right)\right)=n+1$. For any

$$
y \in[-1,1] \mathscr{A}(C(y)) \geqslant n+1 .
$$

Now suppose that $R\left(C\left(y^{*}\right) ; x\right) \not \equiv 0$ and that the theorem is false. Then there exists a sequence $\left\{y_{i}\right\}$ such that

$$
y_{i} \rightarrow y^{*} \quad \text { as } \quad i \rightarrow \infty
$$

and

$$
\mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y_{i}\right)\right)<\mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y^{*}\right)\right)
$$

Let $R\left(C\left(y_{2}\right) ; x\right)=P_{i} / Q_{i}$. Then as in Theorem 1 either

$$
\frac{P_{i}}{Q_{i}} \equiv 0
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial P_{i} \leqslant \mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y_{i}\right)\right)-m-1<\mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y^{*}\right)\right)-m-1 \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial Q_{i} \leqslant \mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y_{i}\right)\right)-n-1<\mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y^{*}\right)\right)-n-1 . \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we note that

$$
\rho(y)=\sup _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant \underline{1}}\left|F_{y}(x)-R(C(y) ; x)\right|
$$

is continuous for $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$, and that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\rho\left(y^{*}\right) & \leqslant \sup _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}\left|F_{y^{*}}(x)-R\left(C\left(y_{i}\right) ; x\right)\right| \\
& \leqslant \rho\left(y_{i}\right)+\sup _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}\left|F_{y_{i}}(x)-F_{y^{*}}(x)\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} \sup _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}\left|F_{y^{*}}(x)-R\left(C\left(y_{i}\right) ; x\right)\right|=\rho\left(y^{*}\right) . \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, for all $R(C ; x) \in \mathbb{R}(n, m)$ there exist positive constants $K$ and $L$ such that

$$
\sup _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}|R(C ; x)| \leqslant K
$$

implies that

$$
\|C\|=\max \left\{\left|a_{i}\right|: i=0, \ldots, n,\left|b_{j}\right|: j=0, \ldots, m\right\}<L
$$

where $C=\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n} ; b_{0}, \ldots, b_{m}\right)$ (see Rice [8] p. 75). Therefore (23) implies that $\left\{R\left(C\left(y_{i}\right) ; x\right)\right\}$ is a uniformly bounded sequence.

Hence there exists a subsequence $\left\{C\left(y_{i_{\nu}}\right)\right\}$ converging to $\bar{C} \in E_{n+m+2}$. Let $R(\tilde{C} ; x)$ denote the element in $\mathbb{R}(n, m)$ associated with $\bar{C}$. That is Rice [8, p. 77] shows the existence of a $\tilde{C}$ such that

$$
\lim _{y \rightarrow \infty} R\left(C\left(y_{i_{\nu}}\right) ; x\right)=R(\tilde{C} ; x)
$$

except at possibly a finite number of points in $[-1,1]$.
Let $R(\tilde{C} ; x)=\tilde{P} / \tilde{Q}$. Then either

$$
\frac{\tilde{P}}{\tilde{Q}} \equiv 0
$$

or by (21) and (22)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial \tilde{P}<\mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y^{*}\right)\right)-m-1 \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial \tilde{Q}<\mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y^{*}\right)\right)-n-1 \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

However, Eq. (23) and the uniqueness of best approximation in $\mathbb{R}(n, m)$ imply that $\tilde{C}=C\left(y^{*}\right)$. Thus

$$
\frac{\tilde{P}}{\tilde{Q}} \not \equiv 0,
$$

and

$$
\mathscr{M}(\tilde{C})=\mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y^{*}\right)\right)
$$

But, by (24) and (25)
$\mathscr{M}(\tilde{C})=1+\max \{n+\partial \widetilde{Q}, m+\partial \tilde{P}\}<\mathscr{M}\left(C\left(y^{*}\right)\right) \quad$ (contradiction).

## 4. Error Bounds

In this section we bound the quantity $\left\|F-T^{*}\right\|$ where $T^{*}(x, y)$ is the modified best rational product approximation to $F(x, y)$ on $D=[-1,1] \times[-1,1]$, and

$$
\|\boldsymbol{G}\|=\sup _{(x, y) \in D}|G(x, y)|
$$

Similar estimates for the quantity $\|F-T\|$ where $T(x, y)$ is the best rational product approximation to $F(x, y)$ on $D$ are given in [4].

Suppose that $C(y)$ is continuous on $[-1,1]$ except at $y_{1}<y_{2}<\cdots<y_{2}$.
Let $Y^{*}=[-1,1]-\left\{y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{k}\right\}$ and let $T^{*}(x, y)=\left[T_{P}{ }^{*}(x, y)\right] /\left[T_{Q}{ }^{*}(x, y)\right]$ be the modified best rational product approximation to $F$ on $D$. As in Remark 1 of Section 2,

$$
R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)=R(C(y) ; x)
$$

for

$$
-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \quad \text { and } \quad y \in Y^{*}
$$

Furthermore, both

$$
\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}\left|F_{y}(x)-R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)\right|
$$

and

$$
\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}\left|F_{y}(x)-R(C(y) ; x)\right|
$$

are continuous functions of $y \in[-1,1]$, even though $C(y)$ is discontinuous at $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}$. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
\left\|F-R^{*}\right\| & =\max _{-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1}\left\{\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}\left|F(x, y)-R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)\right|\right\} \\
& =\max _{-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1}\left\{\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1} \mid F_{y}(x)-R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)\right\} \\
& =\sup _{y \in Y^{*}}\left\{\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}\left|F_{y}(x)-R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)\right|\right\} \\
& =\sup _{y \in Y^{*}}\left\{\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}\left|F_{y}(x)-R(C(y) ; x)\right|\right\} \\
& =\max _{-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1}\left\{\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1} \mid F_{y}(x)-R(C(y) ; x)\right\} \\
& =\max _{-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1} E_{n, m}\left(F_{y}\right), \tag{26}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
E_{n, m}(g) & =\inf \left\{\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}|g(x)-R(C ; x)|: R(C ; x) \in \mathbb{R}(n, m)\right\}  \tag{27}\\
R^{*}-T^{*} & =\frac{P^{*}}{Q^{*}}-\frac{T_{P}^{*}}{T_{Q}{ }^{*}}=\frac{\left(P^{*}-T_{P}^{*}\right) T_{Q}{ }^{*}+\left(T_{Q}{ }^{*}-Q^{*}\right) T_{P}^{*}}{Q^{*} T_{Q}{ }^{*}}
\end{align*}
$$

Let

$$
\epsilon_{Q}{ }^{*}=\left\|Q^{*}-T_{Q}{ }^{*}\right\|, \quad \epsilon_{P}^{*}=\left\|P^{*}-T_{P}^{*}\right\|
$$

and

$$
\min _{\substack{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1}}\left|Q^{*}\left(B^{*}(y) ; x\right)\right|=m_{Q^{*}} .
$$

Then

$$
\left\|T_{P}^{*}\right\| \leqslant\left\|P^{*}\right\|+\epsilon_{P}^{*}, \quad\left\|T_{Q}^{*}\right\| \leqslant\left\|Q^{*}\right\|+\epsilon_{Q}{ }^{*}
$$

and

$$
\min _{\substack{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \\-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1}}\left|T_{Q^{*}}{ }^{*}(x, y)\right| \geqslant m_{Q^{*}}^{*}-\epsilon_{Q^{*}}
$$

where we assume $\epsilon_{Q}{ }^{*}<m_{Q}{ }^{*}$.
Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|R^{*}-T^{*}\right\| \leqslant \frac{\epsilon_{P}{ }^{*}\left[\left\|Q^{*}\right\|+\epsilon_{Q}{ }^{*}\right]+\epsilon_{Q}{ }^{*}\left[\left\|P^{*}\right\|+\epsilon_{P}{ }^{*}\right]}{m_{Q}\left(m_{Q}^{*}-\epsilon_{Q}{ }^{*}\right)} . \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (26) and (28) we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
\left\|F-T^{*}\right\| & \leqslant\left\|F-R^{*}\right\|+\left\|R^{*}-T^{*}\right\| \\
& \leqslant \max _{-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1} E_{n, m}\left(F_{y}\right)+\frac{\epsilon_{P}{ }^{*}\left[\left\|Q^{*}\right\|+\epsilon_{O^{*}}\right]+\epsilon_{Q^{*}}\left[\left\|P^{*}\right\|+\epsilon_{P}{ }^{*}\right]}{m_{Q}\left(m_{Q}{ }^{*}-\epsilon_{Q}{ }^{*}\right)} \tag{29}
\end{align*}
$$

Furthermore, suppose that

$$
P^{*}\left(A^{*}(y) ; x\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n+k m} a_{i}^{*}(y) x^{i}
$$

and

$$
T_{P}^{*}(x, y)=\sum_{i=0}^{n+k m} H_{x_{i}}^{*}(y) x^{i}
$$

where $H_{\alpha_{i}}^{*}(y)$ is some best approximation (either polynomial or rational) to $a_{i}{ }^{*}(y)$ on $[-1,1]$, for $i=0,1, \ldots, n+k m$. Then,

$$
\epsilon_{P}^{*}=\left\|P^{*}-T_{P} *\right\| \leqslant \sum_{i=0}^{n+k m} \max _{-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1}\left|a_{i}^{*}(y)-H_{\alpha_{i}}^{*}(y)\right| .
$$

Similarly,

$$
\epsilon_{Q}^{*}=\left\|Q^{*}-T_{Q}{ }^{*}\right\| \leqslant \sum_{j=0}^{(k+1) m} \max _{-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1}\left|b_{j}^{*}(y)-G_{R_{j}}^{*}(y)\right|
$$

where $G_{\beta_{i}}^{*}(y)$ is some appropriate approximation to $b_{j}^{*}(y)$ on $[-1,1]$, for $j=0,1, \ldots,(k+1) m$.

The above can be utilized to show that we can often obtain an arbitrarily good modified rational product approximation. Given any $\epsilon>0$ an $n$ and $m$ may be selected to ensure that

$$
\max _{-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1} E_{n, m}\left(F_{y}\right)<\frac{\epsilon}{2}
$$

(see [9], p. 444).

We then choose the approximations $H_{\alpha_{i}}^{*}, i=0,1, \ldots, n+k m$, and $G_{\beta_{i}}^{*}$. $j=0,1, \ldots,(k+1) m$ sufficiently well so that

$$
\frac{\epsilon_{P}{ }^{*}\left[\left\|Q^{*}\right\|+\epsilon_{Q}{ }^{*}\right]+\epsilon_{Q^{*}}\left[\left\|P^{*}\right\|+\epsilon_{P}^{*}\right]}{m_{Q^{*}}\left(m_{Q^{*}}-\epsilon_{Q^{*}}{ }^{*}\right)}<\frac{\epsilon}{2} .
$$

Then (29) implies that $\left\|F-T^{*}\right\|<\epsilon$. The above analysis establishes the following theorem.

Theorem 6. Let $F \in C[D]$. Given $\epsilon>0$ there exists an $n(\varepsilon)$ and $m(\epsilon)$ such that if $R(C(y) ; x)$ is the best rational product approximation to $F_{3}$ on $[-1,1]$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1} E_{n, m}\left(F_{y}\right)<\epsilon / 2 \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that $C(y)$ is continuous on $[-1,1]$ except possibly at a finite number of points. If these discontinuities are such that the $R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)$ of Section 2 exists, and if $T^{*}(x, y)$ is the modified best rational product approximation, then the best uniform approximations (either polynomial or rational) $H_{\alpha_{i}}^{*}(y)$ and $G_{\beta}^{*}(y)$ to $a_{i}{ }^{*}(y)$ and $b_{j}^{*}(y)$, respectively, $i=0,1, \ldots, n+k m, j=0,1, \ldots$, $(k+1) m$, may be selected to ensure that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|R^{*}\left(C^{*}(y) ; x\right)-T^{*}(x, y)\right\|<\epsilon / 2 \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

If inequalities (30) and (31) are valid, then

$$
\left\|F-T^{*}\right\|<\epsilon
$$

We conclude this paper with an example.
Example 6. Let $F_{1}(x, y)=|x|+|y|+1, \quad F_{2}(x, y)=|x||y|+1$. Again $D=[-1,1] \times[-1,1]$, and suppose that approximation is from $\mathbb{R}(n, n), n$ even, $n>4$.

Then $R(C(y) ; x)=R(C ; x)+|y|+1$, where $R(C ; x)$ is the best approximation from $\mathbb{R}(n, n)$ to $|x|$ on $[-1,1]$. Thus

$$
C(y)=\left[a_{0}+b_{0}(|y|+1), \ldots, a_{n}+b_{n}(|y|+1) ; b_{0}, \ldots, b_{n}\right]
$$

That is, $a_{i}(y)=a_{i}+b_{i}(|y|+1), \quad b_{i}(y)=b_{i}, i=0,1, \ldots, n$. We now suppose that $H_{0_{i}}(y)$ and $G_{\beta_{i}}(y)$ are the best approximations from $\mathbb{R}(n, n)$ to $a_{i}(y)$ and $b_{i}(y)$, respectively.

Then

$$
H_{\alpha_{i}}(y)=a_{i}+b_{i}(R(C ; y)+1)
$$

and

$$
G_{\beta_{i}}(y)=b_{i}, \quad i=0, \ldots, n
$$

Therefore the best rational product approximation $T_{1}$ satisfies

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|F_{1}(x, y)-T_{1}(x, y)\right| \\
& \quad \leqslant\left|F_{y}(x)-R(C(y) ; x)\right|+\mid R(C(y) ; x)-T_{1}(x, y) \\
& \quad \leqslant||x|-R(C ; x)|+\left|\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i}(y) x^{i}}{\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i}(y) x^{i}}-\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n} H_{\alpha_{i}}(y) x^{i}}{\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i}(y) x^{i}}\right| \\
& \quad \leqslant 3 e^{-\sqrt{n}}+\left|\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i}(|y|-R(C ; y)) x^{i}}{\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i} x^{i}}\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

This implies that

$$
\left\|F_{1}(x, y)-T_{1}(x, y)\right\| \leqslant 6 e^{-\sqrt{n}}
$$

Similar analysis shows that

$$
\left\|F_{2}(x, y)-T_{2}(x, y)\right\| \leqslant 15 e^{-\sqrt{n}}
$$

where $T_{2}$ is the best rational product approximation to $F_{2}$.

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