

## Interpolation of Rational Functions on a Geometric Mesh

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We discuss the Newton-Gregory interpolation process based on the geometric mesh  $1, q, q^2, \dots$ , with a quotient  $q \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $|q| < 1$ , for rational functions with a single pole  $\zeta \in \mathbb{C}$ . It is shown that the sequence of interpolating polynomials converges in the disc  $\{z : |z| < |\zeta|\}$ .

### 1. Introduction

Let  $p_m(z) = z(z-1)\dots(z-m+1)/m!$ ,  $m > 0$ ,  $p_0(z) \equiv 1$ , be the binomial polynomials and

$$\Delta^k f(0) := \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^{k+j} \binom{k}{j} f(j), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

be the finite differences of the function  $f$ . Then the Newton-Gregory interpolating polynomials

$$N_n(f; z) = \sum_{k=0}^n \Delta^k f(0) p_k(z).$$

satisfy  $N_n(f; k) = f(k)$ ,  $k = 0, \dots, n$ .

The problem about convergence of the interpolation process has been completely solved when the interpolated function is an entire function [1, 2]. A rather curious observation about interpolation of simple rational functions was made in [3]. It was shown that, when  $f(z)$  is a rational function with a single pole  $\gamma$  that does not coincide with a non-negative integer, the sequence of interpolating polynomials  $\{N_n(f; z)\}$  converge to the interpolated function  $f(z)$  for every  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $\Re z > \Re \gamma$ . Observe that the convergence holds not only on the real line, where the function is interpolated, but on the right semi-plane of the complex plane determined by the vertical line  $\Re \gamma$ , no matter where  $\gamma$  is located. It is really surprising, especially when the real part of  $\gamma$  is a negative

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number with large modulus. It is worth mentioning that the proof furnished in [3] implies that the polynomials  $N_n(f; z)$  converge not only pointwise but also locally uniformly to  $f(z)$  in the semi-plane. This means that the convergence is uniform in every compact subset of  $\Re z > \Re \gamma$ . Also, the result can be extended to convergence of the interpolation process not only for rational functions but for quotients of Gamma functions. Summarizing, we may state a more general result than the one proved in [3].

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $b, c \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $c \neq 0, -1, -2, \dots$ , and*

$$f(z) = \frac{\Gamma(z + c - b)}{\Gamma(z + c)}.$$

*Then the sequence  $\{N_n(f; z)\}$  converges locally uniformly in  $\Re z > \Re(b - c)$ .*

In this short note we discuss the question of interpolation of rational functions when the interpolation nodes coincide with geometric mesh  $1, q, q^2, \dots$ , where the quotient  $q$  of the progression is in the unit disc  $D = \{z : |z| < 1\}$ . Let  $f(z)$  be any function defined at  $q^k, k = 0, 1, \dots$ . Denote by  $N_{n,q}(f; z)$  the polynomial of degree  $n$  which interpolates  $f(z)$  at  $1, q, \dots, q^n$ .

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $q \in D$ , and  $f(z)$  be a rational function with a single pole  $\zeta$ , where  $\zeta \neq q^k, k = 0, 1, \dots$ . Then the sequence  $\{N_{n,q}(f; z)\}$  converges locally uniformly in  $D_\zeta = \{z : |z| < |\zeta|\}$  to  $f(z)$ , as  $n$  goes to infinity.*

It is surprising again that the convergence holds not only in the unit disc  $D$  but in the disc  $D_\zeta$ , no matter how large its radius is, i.e., how far the pole of  $f(z)$  is located.

## 2. Proofs

**Proof of Theorem 1.** The proof in [3] was based on the Gauss identity about the hypergeometric function, defined by

$$F(a, b; c; z) \equiv {}_2F_1(a, b; c; z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(a)_k (b)_k}{(c)_k} \frac{z^k}{k!},$$

where  $(\alpha)_k = \alpha(\alpha + 1) \cdots (\alpha + k - 1)$ ,  $k > 0$ ,  $(\alpha)_0 = 1$  is the Pochhammer symbol. Gauss [6] (see also [4, p.103]) proved that the hypergeometric series  $F(a, b; c; z)$  is absolutely convergent for  $|z| = 1$  if  $\Re(c - a - b) > 0$ ,  $c \neq 0, -1, \dots$ , and in this case

$$F(a, b; c; 1) = \frac{\Gamma(c)\Gamma(c - a - b)}{\Gamma(c - a)\Gamma(c - b)}. \quad (1)$$

Observe that in the terminating case  $a = -n, n \in \mathbb{N}$  it reduces to the Chu-Vadredmond formula

$$F(-n, b; c; 1) = \frac{(c - b)_n}{(c)_n}$$

which holds for any value of the parameters  $b$  and  $c$ , with  $c \neq 0, -1, -2, \dots$

If we consider  $F(-z, b; c; 1)$ , by the Gauss theorem, this series converges absolutely to

$$g(z) = \frac{\Gamma(c)\Gamma(z+c-b)}{\Gamma(c-b)\Gamma(z+c)}$$

when  $\Re z > \Re(b-c)$ . Thus, the convergence is uniform in every compact subset of this semi-plane.

Denote by  $g_n(z)$  the  $n$ th partial sum of  $F(-z, b; c; 1)$ ,

$$g_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \frac{(b)_k}{(c)_k} p_k(z).$$

It remains to prove that  $N_n(g; z) \equiv g_n(z)$  for every nonnegative integer  $n$ . Thus, the theorem will be established if we show that

$$\Delta^k g(0) = (-1)^k \frac{(b)_k}{(c)_k}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n. \quad (2)$$

In order to this, observe that

$$g(j) = \frac{\Gamma(c)\Gamma(j+c-b)}{\Gamma(j+c)\Gamma(c-b)} = \frac{(c-b)_j}{(c)_j}.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta^k g(0) &= \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^{k+j} \binom{k}{j} \frac{(c-b)_j}{(c)_j} \\ &= (-1)^k \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{(c-b)_j}{(c)_j} \frac{(-k)_j}{j!} \\ &= (-1)^k F(-k, c-b; c; 1) \\ &= (-1)^k (b)_k / (c)_k, \end{aligned}$$

where we used simple properties of the Pochhammer symbols and the Chu-Vandermonde formula. Thus, we proved (2), and this completes the proof of Theorem 1.

Observe that if we set  $b = 1$  and  $c = 1 - \gamma$ , we obtain immediately the uniform convergence of  $N_n(f; z)$  to the interpolated function  $f(z) = \gamma/(\gamma - z)$ , in the compact subsets of  $\Re z > \Re \gamma$ .

The proof of Theorem 2 uses the so-called  $q$ -analogue of Gauss' summation formula that was established by Heine in 1847. We need some definitions results from the book of Gasper and Rahman [5]. Let

$$(a; q)_k = \begin{cases} 1, & k = 0; \\ (1-a)(1-aq)\cdots(1-aq^{k-1}), & k \in \mathbb{N}. \end{cases}$$

be the  $q$ -shifted factorial. Then the basic hypergeometric series is defined by

$$\phi(a, b; c; q; z) \equiv {}_2\phi_1(a, b; c; q; z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(a; q)_k (b; q)_k}{(c; q)_k (q; q)_k} z^k.$$

If  $(a; q)_{\infty} = \prod_{j=0}^{\infty} (1 - aq^j)$ , then obviously

$$(a; q)_k = \frac{(a; q)_{\infty}}{(aq^k; q)_{\infty}}.$$

Heine [7] (see also [5, (1.5.1)]) proved that

$$\phi(a, b; c; q; c/(ab)) = \frac{(c/a; q)_{\infty} (c/a; q)_{\infty}}{(c; q)_{\infty} (c/(ab); q)_{\infty}} \quad \text{when } |c/(ab)| < 1. \quad (3)$$

It is the  $q$ -analogue of Gauss' summation formula (1). In the terminating case  $a = q^{-m}$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ , Heine's formula reduces to the following  $q$ -analogue of the Chu-Vandermond formula:

$$\phi(q^{-m}, b; c; q; cq^m/b) = \frac{(c/b; q)_m}{(c; q)_m}. \quad (4)$$

**Proof of Theorem 2.** Setting  $1/a = z$  and  $b = q$  and  $c = q/\zeta$  in the left-hand side of Heine's formula and using the expression for the basic hypergeometric series, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(1/z, q; q/\zeta; q; z/\zeta) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1/z; q)_k (q; q)_k}{(q/\zeta; q)_k (q; q)_k} \frac{z^k}{\zeta^k} \\ &= 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(z-1)(z-q) \cdots (z-q^{k-1})}{(\zeta-q)(\zeta-q^2) \cdots (\zeta-q^k)}. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

It is clear that this series converges absolutely when  $q \in D$  and  $|z| < |\zeta|$ . Hence it converges locally uniformly in  $D_{\zeta}$ . On the other hand, Heine's formula (3) implies

$$\phi(1/z, q; q/\zeta; q; z/\zeta) = \frac{(qz/\zeta; q)_{\infty} (1/\zeta; q)_{\infty}}{(q/\zeta; q)_{\infty} (z/\zeta; q)_{\infty}} \quad \text{for } |z/\zeta| < 1.$$

Denote by  $h(z)$  the function that appears on the right-hand side of the latter identity. Then

$$\begin{aligned} h(z) &= \prod_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1 - zq^{j+1}/\zeta)(1 - q^j/\zeta)}{(1 - q^{j+1}/\zeta)(1 - zq^j/\zeta)} \\ &= \prod_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\zeta - q^j)(\zeta - zq^{j+1})}{(\zeta - q^{j+1})(\zeta - zq^j)} \\ &= \frac{\zeta - 1}{\zeta - z}. \end{aligned}$$

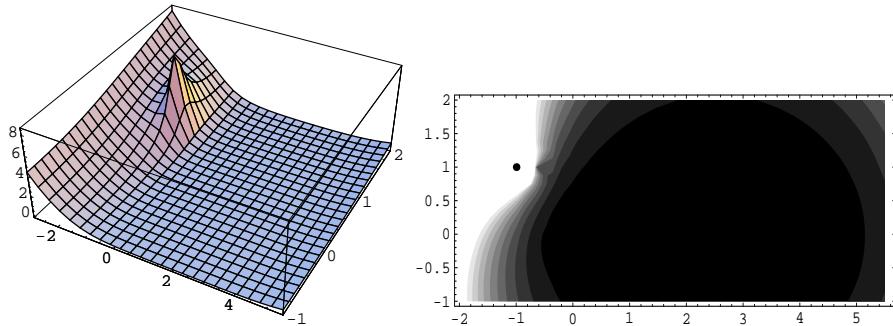
Let

$$h_n(z) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(z-1)(z-q) \cdots (z-q^{k-1})}{(\zeta-q)(\zeta-q^2) \cdots (\zeta-q^k)}$$

be the  $n$ th partial sum of (5). Obviously  $h_n(z)$  is algebraic polynomial of degree  $n$ . Moreover, (4) implies that  $h_n(q^m) = h(q^m)$  for  $m = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . Therefore  $h_n(z)$  coincides with  $N_{n,q}(h; z)$ , the Newton-Gregory polynomial that interpolates  $h(z)$  at  $1, q, \dots, q^n$ . This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

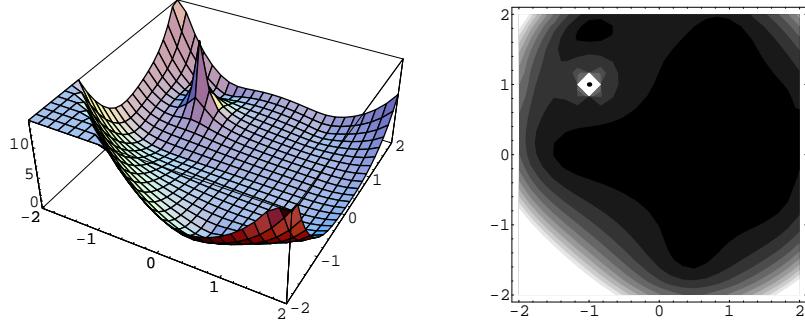
### 3. Some graphs

We provide some graphs which illustrate the results of Theorem 1 and Theorem 2. The first two graphs show the error function  $R_4(f, z) = |f(z) - N_4(f, z)|$  for the rational function  $f(z) = 1/(\gamma - z)$ , with the pole  $\gamma = i - 1$ . On the first one  $R_4(f, z)$  is shown as a bivariate function, of the real and imaginary part of  $z$ . The second one shows the pole  $\gamma$  together with the level curves of  $R_4(f, z)$ , where, the darker the region, the smaller the value of  $R_4(f, z)$ . It is seen that already for  $n = 4$  the error function is small for  $\Re z > \Re \gamma = -1$ , at least close to the real axes.



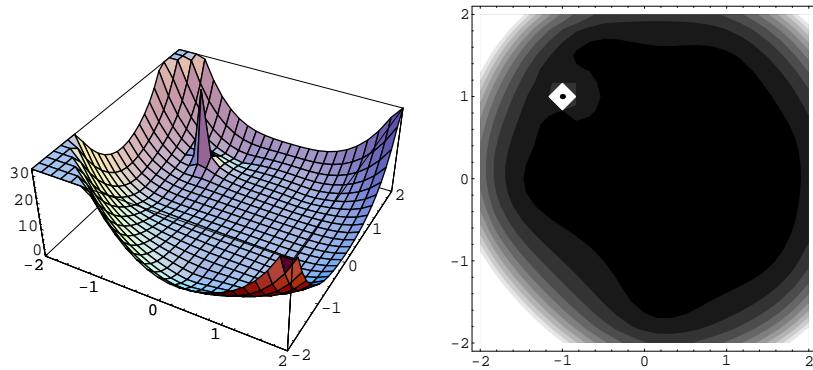
The error function  $R_4(f, z)$  and its level curves.

Next figures illustrate the result of Theorem 2. The following two graphs show the error function  $R_{6,q}(f; z)$  for the same rational function  $f(z) = 1/(\gamma - z)$ ,  $\gamma = i - 1$ . Here the nodes coincide with the geometric progression  $1, q, \dots, q^6$ , with quotient  $q = (1 - i)/2$ . Observe that  $|q| = 1/\sqrt{2}$ .



The error function  $R_{6,q}(f; z)$  and its level curves, for  $q = (1 - i)/2$ .

In the previous example  $|q| = 1/\sqrt{2}$ . It is natural to expect that when the quotient  $q$  of the geometric mesh close to one, the interpolating polynomials would approximate the rational function better than for  $q$  close to the origin. The last two graphs of the error function  $R_{6,q}(f; z)$  for the interpolation of the same rational function  $f(z) = 1/(\gamma - z)$ ,  $\gamma = i - 1$  but with  $q = 0.9(i - 1)/\sqrt{2}$ . This means that  $q$  has the same direction as the pole  $\gamma$  and modulus 0.9. It might be of interest to investigate how the speed of convergence of the Newton-Gregory interpolation process of a fixed rational function, based on the geometric mesh with quotient  $q$ , depends on  $q$  itself. It is pretty natural to expect that this speed will be faster for quotients close to the unit circumference. It is not clear what should be the choice of the direction of  $q$ , though we might guess that a natural choice could be such that  $q$  has the same argument as the pole  $\gamma$ .



The error function  $R_{6,q}(f; z)$  and its level curves, for  $q = 0.9(i - 1)/\sqrt{2}$ .

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