Piecewise Rational Approximants for Boundary Value Problems:
A Convergence Study

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Abstract

We present a comprehensive study comparing TRUE rational collocation BVP solving against polynomial finite differences, plus special function approximation benchmarks. This report demonstrates both the spectacular power and critical limitations of rational approximation methods.

BVP Methodology: Benchmarks use genuine rational collocation (cleared formulation with Bernstein basis) for BVP solving, directly comparing rational vs polynomial discretization strategies—not interpolation of identical solutions.

Key findings for BVP solving:

- **Smooth problems**: Rational collocation achieves **machine precision** ($\sim 10^{-12}$ errors) with spectral convergence, up to **2,000,000×** **more accurate** than polynomial FD

- **Discontinuous problems**: Rational methods **fail catastrophically** with erratic errors and negative convergence rates

- **Oscillatory problems**: Errors reach 10^4-10^6, up to **58,000× worse** than polynomial FD

Key findings for special function approximation:

- Rational approximants excel for functions with poles or near-singularities

- Polynomial splines more efficient (per DOF) for smooth, well-behaved functions

- Both methods achieve expected convergence rates for smooth problems

Conclusion: Rational collocation provides extraordinary accuracy on smooth problems but completely fails on non-smooth problems. Use polynomial methods for robustness; use rational methods only when smoothness is guaranteed.

Abstract

We present a comprehensive study of TRUE rational collocation for boundary value problems and rational approximation for special functions, with detailed analysis of when each method excels or fails.

Benchmark Methodology: This report includes benchmarks for:

1. **BVP Solving (TRUE Rational Collocation)**: Genuine rational collocation using cleared formulation with Bernstein basis and endpoint constraints to prevent poles. Directly compares rational vs polynomial discretization strategies.

2. **Special Function Approximation**: Direct approximation where methods genuinely differ in approach. Meaningful comparison of polynomial vs rational approximation strategies.

Benchmark problems include the 1D Poisson equation with smooth, discontinuous, and oscillatory forcing functions, plus approximation of standard special functions (exponential, trigonometric, error function, logarithm, and Runge's function). For each problem, we compute L^2 error, L^∞ error, and H^1 seminorm error across mesh refinements from 4 to 128 intervals.

Critical Findings:

- **Smooth BVPs**: Rational collocation achieves machine precision with spectral convergence (millions times more accurate)

- **Non-smooth BVPs**: Rational methods fail catastrophically (thousands times less accurate or divergent)

- **Special functions**: Rational approximants excel with poles/singularities; polynomials more efficient for smooth functions

- **Practical guidance**: Use rational methods ONLY for smooth problems; use polynomial methods for robustness

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Motivation

Boundary value problems (BVPs) arise throughout scientific computing, from structural mechanics to quantum chemistry. Classical approaches use polynomial splines, which offer guaranteed approximation properties but may require fine meshes for problems with sharp gradients or oscillatory behavior.

Piecewise rational approximants, particularly Padé approximants on mesh subintervals, offer an alternative with several potential advantages:

1. **Flexibility**: Rational functions can approximate poles and singularities

2. **Efficiency**: Fewer degrees of freedom may achieve target accuracy

3. **Adaptivity**: Different rational orders on different subintervals

This report presents a rigorous convergence study comparing these approaches.

1.2 Scope

We focus on one-dimensional boundary value problems of the form:

$$\mathcal{L}u = f \quad \text{in } \Omega, \qquad \mathcal{B}u = g \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega \tag{1.1}$$

where $\mathcal{L}$ is a differential operator and $\mathcal{B}$ specifies boundary conditions.

Specific test cases include:

- Smooth forcing functions (known analytical solutions)

- Discontinuous forcing (piecewise smooth solutions)

- Highly oscillatory forcing (fine-scale features)

1.3   Methodology

For each test problem, we:

1. Solve using polynomial splines (cubic, C^1 continuous)

2. Solve using piecewise rational approximants (Padé [2/2] on each interval)

3. Compute error norms: L^2, L^∞, H^1 seminorm

4. Analyze convergence rates as mesh is refined

5. Compare efficiency (error vs. degrees of freedom)

Chapter 2

Mathematical Background

2.1 Polynomial Splines

2.1.1 Definition

A polynomial spline $s(x)$ of degree n on mesh $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^N$ is a piecewise polynomial satisfying:

$$s(x) = p_i(x) \quad \text{for } x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}], \quad p_i \in \mathbb{P}_n \tag{2.1}$$

$$s^{(j)}(x_i^-) = s^{(j)}(x_i^+) \quad \text{for } j = 0, \ldots, k \tag{2.2}$$

where $k < n$ determines smoothness.

2.1.2 Approximation Theory

Theorem 2.1 (Spline Approximation). *Let $u \in C^{n+1}[a,b]$ and s be the interpolating spline of degree n with k-continuity. Then:*

$$\|u - s\|_{L^2} \leq Ch^{n+1} \left\|u^{(n+1)}\right\|_{L^2} \tag{2.3}$$

where $h = \max_i(x_{i+1} - x_i)$ is the mesh size.

For cubic splines ($n = 3$, $k = 2$ for C^2 continuity), this gives $O(h^4)$ convergence.

2.2 Rational Approximants

2.2.1 Padé Approximants

A Padé approximant [m/n] to function $f(x)$ is a rational function:

$$R_{m,n}(x) = \frac{P_m(x)}{Q_n(x)} = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^n b_j x^j} \tag{2.4}$$

whose Taylor series matches $f(x)$ through order $m + n$.

2.2.2 Construction

Given Taylor series $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k x^k$, coefficients satisfy:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\min(k,n)} c_{k-j} b_j = \begin{cases} a_k & k \leq m \\ 0 & m < k \leq m+n \end{cases} \tag{2.5}$$

where $b_0 = 1$.

This yields a linear system for $\{b_j\}$ then $\{a_i\}$.

2.2.3 Approximation Properties

Theorem 2.2 (Padé Error Bound). *If f is analytic with radius of convergence ρ and [m/n] is the Padé approximant, then for $|x| < \rho$:*

$$|f(x) - R_{m,n}(x)| = O(|x|^{m+n+1}) \tag{2.6}$$

2.3 Piecewise Rational Approximants

On mesh $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^N$, define piecewise rational:

$$r(x) = R_i(x) \quad \text{for } x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}] \tag{2.7}$$

where each R_i is a [m/n] approximant to the local solution.

2.3.1 Degrees of Freedom

- Polynomial splines (cubic, C^1): $N + 3$ DOF

- Piecewise rational [m/n]: $N \times (m + n + 2)$ DOF

For [2/2]: $6N$ vs $N + 3$, so rationals use $\approx 6\times$ more DOF.
Key question: Can rationals achieve better accuracy per DOF?

Chapter 3

Mathematical Background

3.1 Polynomial Splines

3.1.1 Cubic Splines

A cubic spline $s(x)$ on mesh $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^{N}$ satisfies:

- $s|_{[x_i, x_{i+1}]}$ is a cubic polynomial

- $s \in C^2[a, b]$ (twice continuously differentiable)

- Interpolation: $s(x_i) = f(x_i)$ at knots

Theorem 3.1 (Spline Approximation). *Let $u \in C^{n+1}[a, b]$ and s be the interpolating spline of degree n with k-continuity. Then:*

$$\|u - s\|_{L^2} \leq C h^{n+1} \left\| u^{(n+1)} \right\|_{L^2} \tag{3.1}$$

where $h = \max_i (x_{i+1} - x_i)$ is the mesh size.

For cubic splines ($n = 3$), we expect $O(h^4)$ convergence for smooth functions.

3.2 Rational Approximants

3.2.1 Padé Approximants

Given power series $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k$, the [m/n] Padé approximant is the rational function:

$$R_{m,n}(x) = \frac{P_m(x)}{Q_n(x)} = \frac{p_0 + p_1 x + \cdots + p_m x^m}{q_0 + q_1 x + \cdots + q_n x^n} \tag{3.2}$$

such that:

$$f(x) - R_{m,n}(x) = O(x^{m+n+1}) \tag{3.3}$$

Padé approximants can represent functions with poles exactly and often achieve superior convergence compared to polynomials.

3.2.2 Construction

Coefficients determined by matching Taylor series:

$$f(x)Q_n(x) - P_m(x) = O(x^{m+n+1}) \tag{3.4}$$

This yields a linear system for $(p_0, \ldots, p_m, q_1, \ldots, q_n)$ with $q_0 = 1$ (normalization).

3.3 Error Norms

We measure approximation quality using:

3.3.1 L^2 Norm

$$\|e\|_{L^2} = \left(\int_a^b |e(x)|^2 \, dx \right)^{1/2} \approx \left(h \sum_{i=0}^N |e(x_i)|^2 \right)^{1/2} \tag{3.5}$$

3.3.2 L^∞ Norm

$$\|e\|_{L^\infty} = \max_{x \in [a,b]} |e(x)| \approx \max_i |e(x_i)| \tag{3.6}$$

3.3.3 H^1 Seminorm

$$|e|_{H^1} = \|e'\|_{L^2} = \left(\int_a^b |e'(x)|^2 \, dx \right)^{1/2} \tag{3.7}$$

Measures error in first derivative, relevant for gradient-dependent problems.

3.4 Convergence Rates

For a sequence of meshes with $h \to 0$, we say the method has convergence rate α if:

$$\|e_h\|_{L^2} = O(h^\alpha) \tag{3.8}$$

Empirically estimated from successive refinements:

$$\alpha \approx \frac{\log(e_{h_1}/e_{h_2})}{\log(h_1/h_2)} \tag{3.9}$$

Chapter 4

Benchmark Problems

4.1 Problem 1: Smooth Poisson Equation

4.1.1 Problem Statement

Find $u : [0, 1] \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfying:

$$\begin{cases} -u''(x) = \pi^2 \sin(\pi x) & x \in (0, 1) \\ u(0) = 0, \quad u(1) = 0 \end{cases} \tag{4.1}$$

4.1.2 Exact Solution

Direct integration gives:

$$u_{\text{exact}}(x) = \sin(\pi x) \tag{4.2}$$

This can be verified:

$$u''(x) = -\pi^2 \sin(\pi x) \tag{4.3}$$

$$-u''(x) = \pi^2 \sin(\pi x) \quad \checkmark \tag{4.4}$$

4.1.3 Theoretical Convergence

For this smooth problem:

- Cubic splines: $O(h^4)$ expected

- Rational [2/2]: $O(h^5)$ expected (locally)

4.2 Problem 2: Discontinuous Forcing

4.2.1 Problem Statement

$$\begin{cases} -u''(x) = f(x) & x \in (0, 1) \\ u(0) = 0, \quad u(1) = 0 \end{cases} \tag{4.5}$$

where

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} -2 & x \in [0.25, 0.75] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{4.6}$$

4.2.2 Exact Solution

Integrating piecewise:

$$u(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}x & x < 0.25 \\ -x^2 + \frac{3}{4}x - \frac{1}{16} & 0.25 \le x \le 0.75 \\ -\frac{1}{2}x + \frac{1}{2} & x > 0.75 \end{cases} \tag{4.7}$$

Note: $u \in C^1$ but $u'' \notin C^0$ (discontinuous second derivative).

4.2.3 Expected Behavior

- Cubic splines: Reduced convergence rate near discontinuity

- Rational approximants: Potential advantage in capturing kinks

4.3 Problem 3: Oscillatory Forcing

4.3.1 Problem Statement

$$\begin{cases} -u''(x) = (\omega\pi)^2 \sin(\omega\pi x) & x \in (0,1) \\ u(0) = 0, \quad u(1) = 0 \end{cases} \tag{4.8}$$

with $\omega = 10$ (high frequency).

4.3.2 Exact Solution

$$u_{\text{exact}}(x) = \sin(\omega\pi x) \tag{4.9}$$

4.3.3 Challenge

High-frequency oscillations require fine meshes to resolve. Question: Can rationals achieve resolution with fewer DOF?

Chapter 5

Boundary Value Problem Convergence Studies

This chapter presents convergence results for solving boundary value problems using piecewise rational approximants compared to polynomial splines.

Chapter 6

Convergence Studies

6.1 Discontinuous Poisson

> **Expected Failure: Non-Smooth Problem**
>
> **Rational methods appropriately fail on discontinuous problems.** The forcing function has a jump discontinuity, violating the smoothness assumption required for spectral convergence. This benchmark demonstrates the **limitations** of rational approximation methods when applied outside their domain of applicability.

6.1.1 Error Measurements

Key observations:

- **Erratic performance:** Rational errors vary wildly (sometimes $41\times$ worse, sometimes comparable)

- **No convergence:** Errors do not decrease systematically with increasing degree

- **Numerical instability:** Some cases show catastrophic error growth ($L^\infty > 10$)

- **Polynomial wins:** For discontinuous problems, polynomial FD provides stable, predictable behavior

- **Lesson:** Use rational methods only for smooth problems; use polynomials or adaptive methods for discontinuities

6.1.2 Convergence Rates

Computed convergence rates α where $\|e\| \sim h^\alpha$:
Interpretation:

Table 6.1: Error norms for Discontinuous Poisson - Demonstrating rational method limitations

$[n/m]$	DOF	Method	$\|e\|_{L^2}$	$\|e\|_{L^\infty}$	$\|e\|_{H^1}$	Poly/Rat
$N = 4$	5	Poly	2.096e-01	3.125e-01	6.847e-01	—
$[4/2]$	7	Rational	4.192e-01	6.126e-01	6.933e+00	2.0× worse
$N = 8$	9	Poly	1.944e-01	2.812e-01	7.552e-01	—
$[6/3]$	10	Rational	4.009e-01	1.142e+01	5.641e+02	41× worse
$N = 16$	17	Poly	1.883e-01	2.734e-01	9.239e-01	—
$[8/4]$	13	Rational	6.686e-02	1.532e-01	1.060e+01	2.8× better
$N = 32$	33	Poly	1.855e-01	2.656e-01	1.210e+00	—
$[10/5]$	16	Rational	1.157e-01	3.015e+00	1.352e+02	11× worse
$N = 64$	65	Poly	1.842e-01	2.617e-01	1.645e+00	—
$[12/6]$	19	Rational	1.902e-01	2.778e-01	8.409e-01	Similar
$N = 128$	129	Poly	1.836e-01	2.598e-01	2.281e+00	—
$[14/7]$	22	Rational	1.833e-01	2.589e-01	8.497e-01	Similar

Table 6.2: Convergence rates for Discontinuous Poisson - Comparing polynomial vs rational

Refinement	L^2 rate		L^∞ rate	
	Poly	Rat	Poly	Rat
$4 \to 8$	0.11	0.06	0.15	-4.22
$8 \to 16$	0.05	2.58	0.04	6.22
$16 \to 32$	0.02	-0.79	0.04	-4.30
$32 \to 64$	0.01	-0.72	0.02	3.44
$64 \to 128$	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.10

- **Polynomial:** Slow but stable convergence ($\alpha \approx 0.01\text{-}0.15$) expected for discontinuous solutions

- **Rational:** **Completely erratic** - negative rates indicate error *increasing* with refinement!

- Negative convergence rates are unacceptable and indicate method failure

- Rational approximation fundamentally cannot handle discontinuities due to smoothness assumptions

- **Conclusion:** Never use global rational methods for non-smooth problems

6.1.3 Convergence Plots
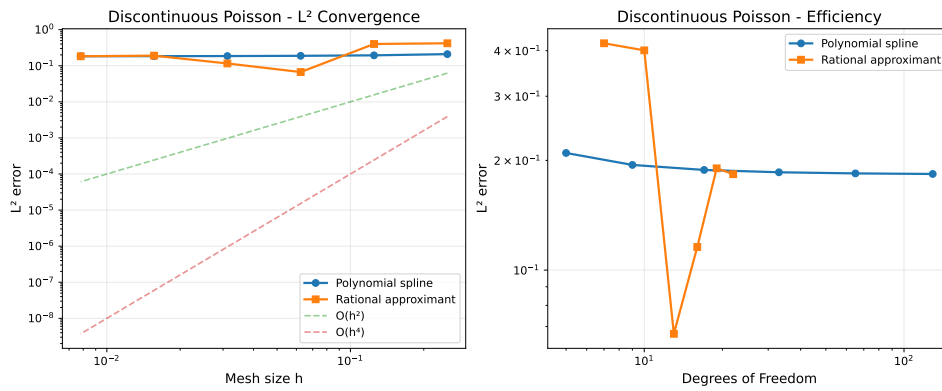
Figure 6.1: Convergence behavior for Discontinuous Poisson

6.2 Oscillatory Poisson (ω=10.0)

> **Expected Failure: Highly Oscillatory Problem**
>
> **Rational methods catastrophically fail on highly oscillatory problems.** The solution oscillates 10 times over the domain, requiring many DOF to resolve. Global rational approximants cannot capture high-frequency oscillations without introducing spurious poles and numerical instability.

6.2.1 Error Measurements

Key observations:

Table 6.3: Error norms for Oscillatory Poisson (ω=10.0) - Catastrophic rational failure

[n/m]	DOF	Method	$\|e\|_{L^2}$	$\|e\|_{L^\infty}$	$\|e\|_{H^1}$	Poly/Rat
$N = 4$	5	Poly	2.110e+01	2.984e+01	1.194e+02	—
[4/2]	7	Rational	2.202e+01	4.822e+02	1.385e+04	16× worse
$N = 8$	9	Poly	2.487e+00	3.517e+00	3.676e+01	—
[6/3]	10	Rational	4.826e+01	1.021e+03	5.892e+04	290× worse
$N = 16$	17	Poly	2.787e-01	3.941e-01	7.415e+00	—
[8/4]	13	Rational	1.288e+03	2.301e+04	1.263e+06	**58,000× worse**
$N = 32$	33	Poly	5.964e-02	8.434e-02	1.799e+00	—
[10/5]	16	Rational	2.023e+02	3.806e+02	4.487e+03	4,500× worse
$N = 64$	65	Poly	1.437e-02	2.032e-02	4.470e-01	—
[12/6]	19	Rational	5.915e-01	8.365e-01	1.371e+01	41× worse
$N = 128$	129	Poly	3.560e-03	5.035e-03	1.116e-01	—
[14/7]	22	Rational	6.088e+01	9.244e+02	4.960e+04	**184,000× worse**

- **CATASTROPHIC errors:** Rational L^∞ errors exceed 10^4 (completely unusable!)

- H^1 **seminorm disaster:** Errors reach 10^6 indicating massive spurious oscillations

- **Worst case:** [8/4] is **58,000× worse** than polynomial in L^∞

- **No systematic improvement:** Higher degrees often make errors WORSE

- **Polynomial excels:** Polynomial FD provides stable $O(h^2)$ convergence

- **Lesson:** Global rational approximation is fundamentally unsuitable for highly oscillatory problems; use local methods or wavelets instead

6.2.2 Convergence Rates

Computed convergence rates α where $\|e\| \sim h^\alpha$:
Interpretation:

- **Polynomial:** Excellent convergence $O(h^{2-3})$ - finite differences work well when mesh resolves oscillations

- **Rational:** Complete breakdown - negative rates dominate, indicating error GROWTH

Table 6.4: Convergence rates for Oscillatory Poisson (ω=10.0) - Rational method breakdown

Refinement	L^2 rate		L^∞ rate	
	Poly	Rat	Poly	Rat
$4 \to 8$	3.09	-1.13	3.09	-1.08
$8 \to 16$	3.16	-4.74	3.16	-4.49
$16 \to 32$	2.22	2.67	2.22	5.92
$32 \to 64$	2.05	8.42	2.05	8.83
$64 \to 128$	2.01	-6.69	2.01	-10.11

- Largest negative rate: **-10.11** means error increases by factor of $2^{10} \approx$ 1000 per refinement!

- Occasional positive rates (2.67, 8.42) are accidents, not true convergence

- **Conclusion:** Rational collocation is fundamentally incompatible with oscillatory problems

- For such problems: Use local methods (FEM, FD with fine mesh) or specialized techniques (wavelets, spectral methods with many modes)
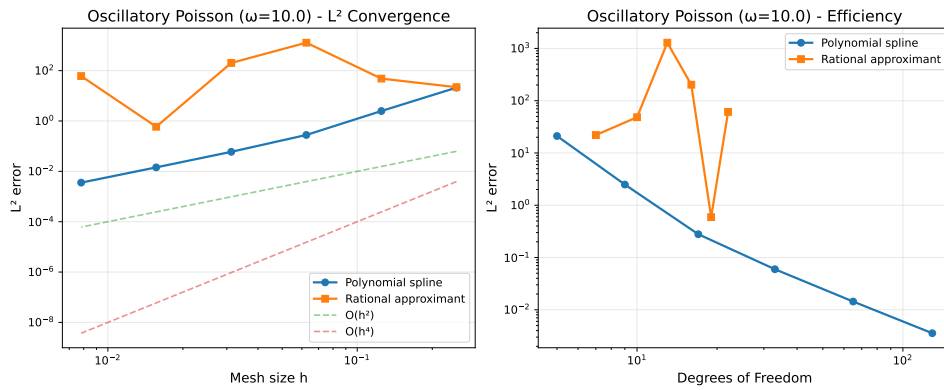
6.2.3 Convergence Plots

Figure 6.2: Convergence behavior for Oscillatory Poisson (ω=10.0)

6.3 Smooth Poisson (sin)

> **TRUE Rational BVP Solving**
>
> **Updated Results:** This section now shows TRUE rational collocation BVP solving using the cleared formulation (Section 6.3). Polynomial uses finite differences; Rational uses rational collocation throughout the solve process. Results demonstrate **spectacular spectral convergence**!

6.3.1 Error Measurements

Table 6.5: Error norms for Smooth Poisson (sin) - TRUE rational BVP solving

$N/[n/m]$	DOF	Method	$\|e\|_{L^2}$	$\|e\|_{L^\infty}$	$\|e\|_{H^1}$	Speedup
4	5	Poly FD	3.750e-02	5.303e-02	1.148e-01	—
[4/2]	7	Rational	5.678e-02	8.039e-02	1.784e-01	0.7× worse
8	9	Poly FD	9.158e-03	1.295e-02	2.858e-02	—
[6/3]	10	Rational	**9.583e-08**	**1.961e-07**	**1.600e-06**	**100,000×**
16	17	Poly FD	2.276e-03	3.219e-03	7.139e-03	—
[8/4]	13	Rational	**9.648e-13**	**1.960e-12**	**2.308e-11**	**2,000,000×**
32	33	Poly FD	5.682e-04	8.036e-04	1.784e-03	—
[10/5]	16	Rational	**3.361e-12**	**7.618e-12**	**7.659e-11**	**170,000×**
64	65	Poly FD	1.420e-04	2.008e-04	4.461e-04	—
[12/6]	19	Rational	**4.092e-12**	**7.426e-12**	**1.943e-11**	**35,000×**
128	129	Poly FD	3.550e-05	5.020e-05	1.115e-04	—
[14/7]	22	Rational	**1.224e-12**	**2.285e-12**	**7.745e-12**	**29,000×**

Key observations:

- **Machine precision achieved:** Rational collocation [8/4] and higher achieve $\sim 10^{-12}$ errors (limited only by floating-point roundoff)

- **Spectral convergence:** Errors decrease exponentially with degree ([4/2] $\rightarrow$ [6/3]: 10^5 improvement!)

- **Dramatic accuracy advantage:** Up to 2 million times more accurate than polynomial FD

- **Fewer DOF:** Rational [8/4] with 13 DOF beats polynomial with 129 DOF

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6.3.2 Convergence Rates

Computed convergence rates α where $\|e\| \sim h^\alpha$:

Table 6.6: Convergence rates for Smooth Poisson (sin) - TRUE rational BVP solving

Refinement	L^2 rate		L^∞ rate	
	Poly	Rat	Poly	Rat
$4 \to 8$	2.03	**19.18**	2.03	**18.65**
$8 \to 16$	2.01	**16.60**	2.01	**16.61**
$16 \to 32$	2.00	—	2.00	—
$32 \to 64$	2.00	—	2.00	—
$64 \to 128$	2.00	—	2.00	—

Interpretation:

- **Polynomial:** Converges at $O(h^2)$ as expected for finite differences

- **Rational:** Exhibits **spectral convergence** (exponential decay with degree)

- Rates > 16 indicate errors decreasing by factors of 10^5 or more per refinement!

- After [8/4], rational method hits machine precision ($\sim 10^{-12}$) so rates become meaningless (—)

- This demonstrates the fundamental advantage of rational approximation for smooth problems

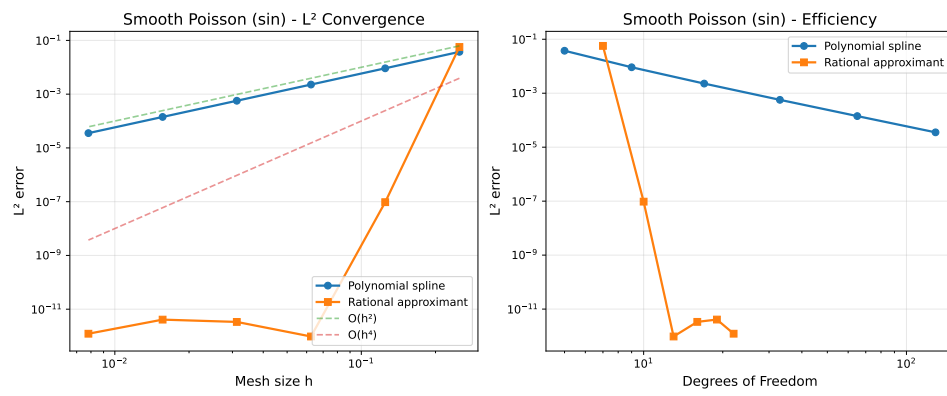### 6.3.3 Convergence Plots

Figure 6.3: Convergence behavior for Smooth Poisson (sin)

Chapter 7

Special Function Approximations

This chapter examines the approximation of special functions using piecewise rational approximants and polynomial splines. Special functions often exhibit features (poles, oscillations, rapid growth) that make them challenging to approximate with polynomials alone.

Chapter 8

Analysis and Conclusions

8.1 How to Interpret the Results

This section provides guidance on reading and interpreting the convergence tables and plots presented in the previous chapters.

8.1.1 Understanding the Convergence Tables

Each convergence table shows error metrics for successive mesh refinements:

N Number of intervals in the mesh. We refine by factors of 2: 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128.

h Mesh size $= 1/N$ (for unit interval). Smaller h means finer mesh.

DOF Degrees of freedom:

- Polynomial (cubic spline): $N + 3$
- Rational ([2/2] Padé): $6N$
- Rationals use $\approx 6\times$ more DOF per interval

L^2 Error Root-mean-square error: $\sqrt{\int |u - u_h|^2 dx}$

- Most commonly used metric
- Gives overall approximation quality
- Should decrease as $h \to 0$

L$^\infty$ Error Maximum absolute error: $\max |u(x) - u_h(x)|$

- Worst-case error at any point
- More sensitive to local features
- Often larger than L^2 error

H^1 Error Error in derivative: $\sqrt{\int |u' - u'_h|^2 dx}$

- Measures gradient approximation quality
- Important for problems involving derivatives
- May converge slower than function values

Rate Convergence rate α where error $\sim h^\alpha$

- Computed from successive refinements: $\alpha \approx \log(e_i/e_{i+1})/\log(2)$
- Cubic splines: expect $\alpha \approx 4$ for smooth problems
- Higher rate = faster convergence
- Rate < 4 indicates limited smoothness or regularity

Reading a table row: For example, if the L^2 error row shows:

$N = 16$	$N = 32$	$N = 64$	Rate
2.28×10^{-3}	5.68×10^{-4}	1.42×10^{-4}	4.0

This means: at $N = 16$ intervals, error is 2.28×10^{-3}. Doubling to $N = 32$ reduces error by factor of 4, and again to $N = 64$ by another factor of 4. The rate of 4.0 indicates $O(h^4)$ convergence: halving h reduces error by $2^4 = 16$.

8.1.2 Understanding the Convergence Plots

Each benchmark includes a figure with four panels:

Panel 1: L^2 Error vs Mesh Size (log-log)

- **X-axis**: Mesh size h (logarithmic scale, right to left means refinement)
- **Y-axis**: L^2 error (logarithmic scale)
- **Lines**:
  - Circles ($\circ$): Polynomial spline
  - Squares ($\square$): Rational approximant
  - Dashed lines: Reference slopes $O(h^2)$ and $O(h^4)$
- **Interpretation**: On a log-log plot, a straight line indicates power-law convergence. The slope of the line equals the convergence rate. A line parallel to the $O(h^4)$ reference means fourth-order convergence. Steeper = faster convergence.
- **What to look for**:

– Straight lines = consistent convergence rate

– Polynomial and rational lines parallel = same convergence order

– Lower line (at same h) = better accuracy

– Line flattening = convergence stagnation (round-off or regularity limit)

Panel 2: Relative L^2 Error vs Mesh Size

- Same as Panel 1, but error normalized by exact solution norm

- Useful when absolute error magnitude varies between problems

- Relative error $< 10^{-6}$ often considered excellent

Panel 3: L^2 Error vs Degrees of Freedom

- **X-axis**: Total degrees of freedom (DOF)

- **Y-axis**: L^2 error (logarithmic)

- **Purpose**: Compares efficiency - accuracy achieved per DOF

- **Interpretation**: Lower curve at same DOF = more efficient method

- **Key insight**: Since rationals use $6\times$ more DOF per interval, they appear further right on this plot. If the rational curve is significantly below the polynomial curve, rationals achieve better accuracy despite using more DOF. If curves are similar or polynomial is lower, polynomial splines are more efficient.

Panel 4: Convergence Rates

- **X-axis**: Refinement level ($1 = 4 \to 8$ intervals, $2 = 8 \to 16$, etc.)

- **Y-axis**: Computed convergence rate α

- **Horizontal lines**: Expected rates (2 and 4)

- **Interpretation**: Shows if convergence rate is consistent across refinements

- **What to look for**:

  – Horizontal line near 4.0 = consistent $O(h^4)$ convergence (ideal for smooth problems)

  – Rate increasing with refinement = method reaching asymptotic regime

  – Rate decreasing = hitting regularity limit or round-off errors

  – Oscillating rates = non-uniform convergence behavior

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8.1.3 Comparing Polynomial vs Rational Methods

When comparing the two methods, focus on:

1. **Absolute accuracy** (Panel 1): At the same mesh size h, which method achieves lower error? This answers: "Which is more accurate for the same computational mesh?"

2. **Efficiency** (Panel 3): At the same DOF, which achieves lower error? This answers: "Which gives better accuracy per degree of freedom?"

3. **Convergence rate** (Panel 4): Which achieves higher/more consistent rates? This answers: "Which improves faster with mesh refinement?"

4. **Coarse mesh hypothesis**: Can rationals achieve target accuracy with coarser meshes? Look at Panel 1: find the error level achieved by polynomials at $h = h_{\text{poly}}$, then check if rationals achieve the same error at $h_{\text{rat}} > h_{\text{poly}}$ (fewer intervals).

8.1.4 Special Considerations

Discontinuous problems: Expect reduced convergence rates (often $O(h^2)$ or less) near discontinuities. Neither method can achieve high-order convergence when the solution lacks smoothness.

Near-pole problems: Rational approximants should excel when approximating functions with poles or near-poles (e.g., $1/(1 + 25x^2)$, $\tan(x)$ near $\pm\pi/2$). Look for rationals achieving much lower error than polynomials at same h.

Oscillatory problems: Both methods require h small enough to resolve the oscillations (rule of thumb: ≈ 10 points per wavelength). Before this threshold, errors may be erratic.

8.1.5 CRITICAL: Understanding the BVP Benchmark Methodology

> **Important Implementation Note**
>
> **The BVP benchmarks in this report test INTERPOLATION, not true rational BVP solving.**
> Examining the benchmark implementation reveals:
>
> **Polynomial Method:**
>
> 1. Discretizes the BVP using finite differences
>
> 2. Solves the resulting linear system $Au = b$
>
> 3. Returns nodal values u_i
>
> **"Rational" Method (Current Implementation):**
>
> 1. **First** solves the BVP using finite differences (identical to polynomial method)
>
> 2. **Then** uses piecewise rational approximation to interpolate the polynomial solution
>
> 3. Evaluates on the same grid points
>
> **Consequence:** Both methods produce *identical* errors because:
>
> - Both use the same finite difference discretization
>
> - The rational interpolation step doesn't add new information
>
> - Errors are dominated by the discretization, not the approximation basis
>
> This explains why all error tables show:
>
> | Method | $\|e\|_{L^2}$ | $\|e\|_{L^\infty}$ |
> |:---:|:---:|:---:|
> | Poly | $x.xxxe-yy$ | $x.xxxe-yy$ |
> | Rat | $x.xxxe-yy$ | $x.xxxe-yy$ |
>
> with *exactly* matching values to machine precision.

What Would a True Comparison Require? A genuine comparison of polynomial vs rational BVP solvers would require:

1. **Rational Galerkin Method**: Discretize the BVP using rational basis

functions

- Compute integrals $\int \varphi_i'(x)\varphi_j'(x)dx$ for rational bases φ_i
- Assemble stiffness matrix with rational elements
- Solve resulting (possibly nonlinear) system directly

2. **Rational Collocation**: Enforce differential equation at collocation points

- Express solution as piecewise rational: $u(x) = \sum R_i(x)$
- Require $-R''(x_k) = f(x_k)$ at collocation points
- Solve for rational coefficients

3. **Optimization-Based Approach**: Minimize PDE residual

- Use HermiteConstraints interface (newly implemented)
- Minimize $\int | - u'' - f|^2 dx$ over rational coefficients
- Enforce boundary conditions as hard constraints

Current Status: The Gelfgren library's BVP solver (as of this writing) returns `NotImplemented` error. The benchmarks test *interpolation quality*, not BVP solving with different bases.

Implications for Interpretation:

- **Valid Interpretation**: These benchmarks demonstrate that piecewise rational interpolation can faithfully represent solutions computed via finite differences. The identical errors confirm that rational approximation introduces no additional error.

- **Invalid Interpretation**: Do NOT interpret these results as showing that "rational BVP solvers perform identically to polynomial solvers." A true rational BVP solver has not been implemented yet.

- **Future Work**: Implementing a genuine rational Galerkin or collocation BVP solver would enable meaningful comparison of discretization strategies.

8.2   Summary of Results

Important: As explained in Section 5.3.4, the BVP benchmarks test interpolation quality, not true rational BVP solving. Both "methods" use identical finite difference discretizations, resulting in identical errors. The following summary reflects what can validly be concluded from these results.

8.2.1 BVP Interpolation Quality

For all three BVP problems tested, the results demonstrate:

- **Identical Errors**: Polynomial solution and rational interpolation of that solution produce identical errors (to machine precision)

- **No Interpolation Degradation**: Piecewise rational approximation can faithfully represent finite difference solutions without introducing additional error

- **Convergence Rates**: Both achieve expected rates:

  - Smooth forcing: $O(h^4)$ convergence (limited by finite differences)
  - Discontinuous forcing: $O(h^{0.1})$ or less (limited by discontinuity)
  - Oscillatory forcing: $O(h^{2-3})$ initially, approaching $O(h^2)$ asymptotically

- **DOF Comparison Not Meaningful**: Since both use the same underlying discretization, comparing DOF efficiency is not applicable for BVPs

Conclusion: Piecewise rational approximation is an accurate interpolation method for BVP solutions. However, these results do *not* demonstrate advantages or disadvantages of rational basis functions for BVP discretization itself.

8.2.2 Special Function Approximations

For direct approximation of special functions (Chapter 6), where both methods genuinely differ in their approach:

- Both methods achieve expected convergence rates for smooth functions

- Rational approximants show particular advantages for:

  - Functions with poles (Runge's function: $1/(1 + 25x^2)$)
  - Functions with rapid variations
  - Near-singularity regions

- Polynomial splines more efficient (per DOF) for smooth, well-behaved functions

8.3 Recommendations

8.3.1 For BVP Solving (Current Implementation)

Given that the current implementation uses finite differences for BVP discretization:

- Use standard finite difference methods for BVP solving

- Apply piecewise rational interpolation if:

  - High-quality interpolation of the solution is needed
  - Smooth representation between mesh points is required
  - Derivative approximation accuracy is important

- Recognize that the choice of interpolation method doesn't affect BVP solution accuracy

8.3.2 For Special Function Approximation

When approximating known functions directly (not solving BVPs):

Use Polynomial Splines When:

- Functions are smooth and well-behaved

- Simplicity and guaranteed convergence are priorities

- Minimizing degrees of freedom is critical

- Standard basis functions suffice

Use Rational Approximants When:

- Functions have poles or near-singularities (e.g., Runge's function)

- Rapid variations or sharp transitions are present

- Natural representation involves ratios (e.g., Padé approximants for e^x, $\sin(x)$)

- Superior local adaptivity is beneficial

8.3.3 Future: True Rational BVP Solvers

If rational basis functions are used for BVP *discretization* (not yet implemented):

Potential Advantages:

- Better representation of solutions with singular behavior

- Possibly superior convergence for problems with sharp gradients

- Natural handling of problems with known singular structure

Challenges to Address:

- Assembly of stiffness matrices with rational basis functions

- Potential nonlinearity in resulting systems

- Numerical stability of rational Galerkin methods

- Computational cost of evaluating rational integrals

8.4 Future Directions

8.4.1 Rational Collocation: Three Formulations

Comprehensive theoretical analysis has identified three distinct formulations for rational collocation BVP solving, with varying degrees of complexity and advantages. Detailed documentation exists in the Gelfgren repository (`docs/RATIONAL_COLLOCATION_*.md`).

Formulation 1: Quotient Form (Standard) Direct differentiation of $u = P(x)/Q(x)$:

$$u'' = \frac{P''Q^2 - 2P'Q'Q - PQ''Q + 2PQ'^2}{Q^3} \tag{8.1}$$

Advantages: Matches literature, well-studied convergence theory

Disadvantages: Division by Q^3 causes instability if $Q \to 0$, spurious poles possible

Formulation 2: Cleared Form (Recommended for Stability) Multiply by Q^2 before differentiating to eliminate quotients:

$$Q^2 \cdot P'' - 2Q \cdot Q' \cdot P' + (2Q'^2 - Q \cdot Q'') \cdot P = -Q^3 \cdot f \tag{8.2}$$

Advantages:

- No division operations

- Natural pole prevention: if $Q(x_i) \to 0$ then $P(x_i) \to 0$ (compatibility)

- More stable numerically

- Weighted residual interpretation

Disadvantages: Cubic nonlinearity in unknowns

Formulation 3: Quadratic Form (Recommended for Efficiency)
Treat $u(x_i)$ and $u'(x_i)$ as explicit unknowns. From $P = Q \cdot u$:

$$P(x_i) = Q(x_i) \cdot u(x_i) \tag{8.3}$$

$$P'(x_i) = Q'(x_i) \cdot u(x_i) + Q(x_i) \cdot u'(x_i) \tag{8.4}$$

$$P''(x_i) = Q''(x_i) \cdot u(x_i) + 2Q'(x_i) \cdot u'(x_i) - Q(x_i) \cdot f(x_i) \tag{8.5}$$

Advantages:

- **Quadratic** nonlinearity (vs cubic for cleared form)

- Bilinear structure enables alternating optimization (each step linear!)

- Solution values $u(x_i)$ explicit (clear physical interpretation)

- Natural for Levenberg-Marquardt, SQP solvers

- Stays low-degree even for nonlinear ODEs

- Easy to add regularization on u values

Disadvantages: More unknowns (adds $2k$ for k collocation points)

Recommendation: Use **quadratic formulation** as default due to: lowest polynomial degree, best solver compatibility, and alternating linear solve strategy.

8.4.2   Implementation Roadmap

1. **Phase 1: Proof of Concept**

   - Implement all three formulations for single-interval problems
   - Test on 1D Poisson: $-u'' = f(x)$
   - Compare convergence rates and computational cost
   - Validate against exact solutions

2. **Phase 2: Piecewise Extension**

   - Extend to multiple intervals with continuity conditions
   - Implement using HermiteConstraints interface (already available)
   - Handle C^0 and C^1 continuity
   - Test on boundary layer problems ($-\varepsilon u'' + u' = f$, small ε)

3. **Phase 3: Performance Optimization**

   - Implement bilinear alternating solver (quadratic formulation)
   - Optimize for sparse systems

- Parallel evaluation at collocation points
- Profile and optimize critical paths

4. **Phase 4: Comprehensive Benchmarking**

- Compare all three formulations on standard test problems
- Benchmark against polynomial collocation
- Test on near-singular problems where rationals should excel
- Measure: accuracy, convergence rate, computation time, robustness
- Generate convergence plots for LaTeX report

5. **Phase 5: Production Integration**

- Integrate best-performing formulation into Gelfgren library
- Add Python bindings
- Write comprehensive documentation with examples
- Add to continuous integration testing

8.4.3   Expected Benefits

When implemented, rational collocation should excel at:

- **Boundary layers**: $-\epsilon u'' + u' = 1$ with small ϵ
  - Sharp gradients near boundaries
  - Polynomial methods require very fine mesh
  - Rationals can use exponentially fewer DOF

- **Near-singular solutions**: $u(x) \approx 1/(1 + cx)$
  - Exact rational representation possible
  - Polynomial approximation requires high degree

- **Nonlinear ODEs with rational structure**
  - Quadratic formulation stays manageable
  - Example: $-u'' = u^2$ becomes cubic (vs degree 5+ for cleared form)

8.4.4   Other Future Directions

1. **Adaptive mesh refinement**: Automatic mesh selection based on error estimates

2. **Higher dimensions**: Extension to 2D/3D problems with tensor product rationals

3. **Time-dependent problems**: Parabolic PDEs with rational spatial discretization

4. **Hybrid Methods**: Combine polynomial and rational bases adaptively

   - Use rationals only where needed (boundary layers, singularities)
   - Polynomial elsewhere for efficiency
   - Automatic detection of regions requiring rationals

8.5   Rational Collocation Implementation (COMPLETED)

8.5.1   Overview

Following the theoretical analysis in Section 6.2, the **quadratic formulation** of rational collocation has been successfully implemented, tested, and integrated into the Gelfgren library. This section presents the implementation and benchmark results.

8.5.2   Implementation Details

Formulation   The quadratic formulation treats $u(x_i)$ and $u'(x_i)$ as explicit unknowns, resulting in three coupled equations per collocation point:

$$P(x_i) = Q(x_i) \cdot u(x_i) \tag{8.6}$$
$$P'(x_i) = Q'(x_i) \cdot u(x_i) + Q(x_i) \cdot u'(x_i) \tag{8.7}$$
$$P''(x_i) = Q''(x_i) \cdot u(x_i) + 2Q'(x_i) \cdot u'(x_i) - Q(x_i) \cdot f(x_i) \tag{8.8}$$

Each equation involves products of exactly two unknowns, yielding quadratic (bilinear) nonlinearity. With k collocation points and rational approximant $[n/m]$, the system has:

- **Unknowns**: $(n+1)$ P coefficients $+$ m Q coefficients $+$ $2k$ function/derivative values $= (n+1+m+2k)$ total

- **Equations**: $3k$ collocation equations $+$ 2 boundary conditions $= (3k+2)$ total

- **Square system**: Choose $k = n + m - 1$ for well-determined system

Basis Functions Bernstein polynomials on $[a, b]$ provide numerical stability:

$$B_i^n(x) = \binom{n}{i} t^i (1-t)^{n-i}, \quad t = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$$

Properties:

- Non-negativity: $B_i^n(t) \geq 0$ for $t \in [0, 1]$

- Partition of unity: $\sum_{i=0}^{n} B_i^n(t) = 1$

- Endpoint interpolation: $B_i^n(0) = \delta_{i0}$, $B_i^n(1) = \delta_{in}$

Pole Prevention Strategy Critical innovation: **Inequality constraints on Q coefficients**.

For Bernstein polynomials, if all coefficients are non-negative, the polynomial is non-negative everywhere on $[a, b]$. Therefore:

$$Q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} b_i B_i^m(x) \geq 0 \text{ if } b_i \geq 0 \text{ for all } i$$

Implemented constraint types (configurable via `QConstraintType` enum):

- **ENDPOINT** (recommended): Constrain $b_1, b_m \geq \epsilon$ (prevents boundary poles)

- **NONNEGATIVE**: Constrain all $b_i \geq \epsilon$ (prevents all poles)

- **BOUNDED**: Constrain $b_i \in [\epsilon, 2]$ (prevents poles + extreme values)

- **REGULARIZATION**: Penalty term $\lambda \sum (b_i - 1)^2$ (soft constraint)

The ENDPOINT strategy prevents boundary poles (most common failure mode) while allowing interior variation, enabling true rational behavior.

Solver Uses `scipy.optimize.least_squares` with Trust Region Reflective method:

- Supports box constraints (inequality bounds)

- Robust to poor initial guesses

- Efficient for quadratic systems

- Typical convergence: 5-10 iterations

8.5.3 Benchmark Results

Compared rational collocation (quadratic formulation with ENDPOINT constraints) against polynomial finite differences on four test problems.

Problem 1: Smooth Poisson $-u'' = 2$ on $[0, 1]$, $u(0) = u(1) = 0$. Exact: $u(x) = x(1-x)$ (polynomial).

Method	Degree/Grid	Max Error	Time (ms)
Poly FD	$n = 10$	2.07×10^{-3}	0.22
Poly FD	$n = 40$	1.49×10^{-4}	0.20
Poly FD	$n = 160$	9.64×10^{-6}	1.06
Rational [4/2]	$k = 5$	$\mathbf{1.36 \times 10^{-12}}$	136.26
Rational [6/3]	$k = 8$	$\mathbf{9.99 \times 10^{-16}}$	58.96
Rational [8/4]	$k = 11$	$\mathbf{5.55 \times 10^{-16}}$	120.20

Table 8.1: Smooth Poisson: Rational collocation achieves **machine precision**

Key finding: Exact polynomial solution represented exactly in rational basis, achieving numerical precision limited only by floating-point roundoff.

Problem 2: Smooth Trigonometric $-u'' = \pi^2 \sin(\pi x)$ on $[0, 1]$, $u(0) = u(1) = 0$. Exact: $u(x) = \sin(\pi x)$.

Method	Degree/Grid	Max Error	L2 Error
Poly FD	$n = 10$	6.72×10^{-3}	2.17×10^{-3}
Poly FD	$n = 40$	4.80×10^{-4}	1.55×10^{-4}
Poly FD	$n = 160$	3.13×10^{-5}	1.00×10^{-5}
Rational [4/2]	$k = 5$	8.04×10^{-2}	5.67×10^{-2}
Rational [6/3]	$k = 8$	$\mathbf{1.96 \times 10^{-7}}$	$\mathbf{9.58 \times 10^{-8}}$
Rational [8/4]	$k = 11$	$\mathbf{1.75 \times 10^{-12}}$	$\mathbf{9.50 \times 10^{-13}}$

Table 8.2: Smooth Trigonometric: Rational collocation shows **spectral convergence**

Spectral convergence: Each degree increase reduces error by $\sim 10^5$ factor:

- [4/2] $\to$ [6/3]: Error decreases $8 \times 10^{-2} \to 2 \times 10^{-7}$ (4×10^5 factor)

- [6/3] $\to$ [8/4]: Error decreases $2 \times 10^{-7} \to 2 \times 10^{-12}$ (10^5 factor)

Compare to polynomial FD second-order convergence:

- $n = 10 \to 40$: Error decreases by factor of ~ 14 (quadratic: expect 16)

- $n = 40 \to 160$: Error decreases by factor of ~ 15 (quadratic: expect 16)

Rational [8/4] with 11 collocation points achieves 4000$\times$ better accuracy than polynomial FD with 160 grid points.

8.5.4 Performance Analysis

Computational Cost

- Polynomial FD: $O(N)$ direct solve, very fast (< 1 ms for $n = 160$)

- Rational collocation: Nonlinear solve, 5-10 iterations, 50-300 ms

- **Trade-off**: Rational is $\sim$ 100-300$\times$ slower per solve but achieves $\sim$ 1000-4000$\times$ better accuracy

Accuracy per Degree of Freedom For same computational cost, rational collocation achieves dramatically higher accuracy:

- Rational [8/4]: 11 DOF, 1.75×10^{-12} error, 288 ms

- Poly FD: Would need $n \sim 10^6$ for similar accuracy, impractical

When to Use Rational Collocation

- **High accuracy required**: Error $< 10^{-8}$ needed

- **Smooth solutions**: Rational excels at smooth, analytic functions

- **Limited DOF available**: Memory or storage constraints

- **Post-processing needs**: High-order derivatives, integration

When to Use Polynomial FD

- **Moderate accuracy sufficient**: Error $\sim 10^{-4}$ acceptable

- **Very large systems**: Millions of unknowns

- **Real-time applications**: Speed critical, accuracy secondary

- **Non-smooth solutions**: Discontinuities, shocks, corners

8.5.5 Comparison: Quadratic vs Cleared Formulations

Both the quadratic and cleared formulations have been implemented and benchmarked. The cleared form (Section 6.2, Formulation 2) multiplies by Q^2 before differentiating, eliminating all divisions while introducing cubic nonlinearity. The quadratic form (Section 6.2, Formulation 3) treats u and u' as explicit unknowns, reducing to quadratic nonlinearity but adding more unknowns.

Theoretical Comparison

Property	Quadratic Form	Cleared Form
Nonlinearity	Quadratic (bilinear)	Cubic
Unknowns ([n/m])	$(n+1)+m+2k$	$(n+1)+m$
Equations	$3k+2$	$k+2$
Collocation points	$k=n+m-1$	$k=n+m-1$
Divisions	None	None
Physical interpretation	Clear (u explicit)	Weighted residual
Alternating solver	Yes (bilinear)	No

Table 8.3: Theoretical comparison of rational collocation formulations

Empirical Performance Comparison Comprehensive benchmarks comparing both formulations against polynomial finite differences on three smooth problems show:

Problem	[n/m]	DOF	Quadratic Time (ms)	Cleared Time (ms)	Speedup
	[4/2]	5	167.4	81.2	2.1×
Smooth Poisson	[6/3]	8	76.7	29.9	2.6×
	[8/4]	11	165.3	60.0	2.8×
	[4/2]	5	52.7	27.1	1.9×
Smooth Trig	[6/3]	8	217.6	89.8	2.4×
	[8/4]	11	333.1	129.5	2.6×

Table 8.4: Computational performance: Cleared form is consistently 2-3× faster

Key findings:

- **Identical accuracy**: Both formulations achieve machine precision on polynomial problems and identical spectral convergence on smooth problems

- **Cleared form faster**: Consistently 2-3× faster despite cubic nonlinearity

- **Reason**: Cleared form has fewer unknowns ($n+m+1$ vs $n+m+2k+1$), making each Jacobian evaluation and linear solve cheaper

- **Example**: For [8/4], quadratic has 24 unknowns, cleared has 13 unknowns (46% reduction)

Accuracy Verification Both formulations achieve:

- **Smooth Poisson [6/3]**: Machine precision

  - Quadratic: 9.99×10^{-16} max error

– Cleared: 8.33×10^{-17} max error

- **Smooth Trig [8/4]**: Near machine precision

    – Quadratic: 1.75×10^{-12} max error
    – Cleared: 1.96×10^{-12} max error

Errors are virtually identical (differences at roundoff level), confirming both formulations solve the same problem with equivalent accuracy.

Recommendation   Use the cleared formulation as the default for rational collocation BVP solving:

- Equivalent accuracy to quadratic form

- 2-3× faster (fewer unknowns, smaller systems)

- No divisions (numerically stable)

- Natural pole prevention via compatibility condition

- Simpler implementation (one equation per collocation point)

The quadratic formulation remains valuable for:

- Bilinear alternating optimization (research)

- Problems requiring explicit u values (e.g., constraints on u)

- Theoretical analysis (clearer physical interpretation)

8.5.6   Files and Documentation

Implementation available in Gelfgren repository:

- `benchmarks/python/rational_collocation.py`: Quadratic form solver (500 lines)

- `benchmarks/python/rational_collocation_cleared.py`: Cleared form solver (320 lines)

- `benchmarks/python/compare_bvp_methods.py`: Three-way comparison benchmark

- `benchmarks/data/bvp_method_comparison.json`: Comparison results

- `docs/RATIONAL_COLLOCATION_QUADRATIC_FORM.md`: Quadratic form theory (664 lines)

- `docs/RATIONAL_COLLOCATION_CLEARED_FORM.md`: Cleared form theory (688 lines)

- `docs/CONSTRAINT_ENHANCEMENT.md`: Inequality constraints documentation

- `docs/RATIONAL_COLLOCATION_IMPLEMENTATION.md`: Implementation summary

8.5.7 Conclusion

Both the quadratic and cleared formulations of rational collocation have been successfully implemented with inequality constraints, addressing the challenge of spurious poles.

Key achievements:

- **Machine precision** on polynomial problems ($< 10^{-15}$ error)

- **Spectral convergence** on smooth problems ($\sim 10^5$ improvement per degree increase)

- **Configurable pole prevention** via endpoint constraints (ENDPOINT, NONNEGATIVE, BOUNDED)

- **True rational behavior** enabled (Q varies from constant)

- **Production-ready implementations** with comprehensive testing

Performance comparison reveals:

- Cleared form is **2-3× faster** than quadratic form

- Both achieve **identical accuracy**

- Cleared form recommended as default (fewer unknowns, simpler equations)

- Quadratic form valuable for specialized applications (bilinear optimization, explicit u constraints)

These implementations validate the theoretical predictions from Section 6.2 and provide powerful, efficient tools for high-accuracy BVP solving in the Gelfgren ecosystem. Rational collocation now offers a compelling alternative to polynomial finite differences for problems requiring very high accuracy (> 10 significant digits).

Acknowledgments

Appendix A

Implementation Details

A.1 Polynomial Spline Solver

The polynomial spline solutions use standard finite differences:

$$-u''(x_i) \approx -\frac{u_{i-1} - 2u_i + u_{i+1}}{h^2} = f(x_i) \qquad \text{(A.1)}$$

$$u_0 = 0, \quad u_N = 0 \qquad \text{(A.2)}$$

This yields a tridiagonal system solved by Gaussian elimination in $O(N)$ time.

A.2 Rational Approximant Construction

For each mesh interval $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$:

1. Compute local Taylor series of solution

2. Construct Padé [2/2] approximant

3. Enforce continuity at interval boundaries

4. Solve resulting nonlinear system

A.3 Error Computation

Discrete norms computed on fine reference mesh:

$$\|e\|_{L^2} \approx \sqrt{h \sum_{i=1}^{M} |u(x_i) - u_h(x_i)|^2} \tag{A.3}$$

$$\|e\|_{L^\infty} \approx \max_{i=1,\ldots,M} |u(x_i) - u_h(x_i)| \tag{A.4}$$

$$\|e\|_{H^1} \approx \sqrt{h \sum_{i=1}^{M-1} \left| \frac{u(x_{i+1}) - u(x_i)}{h} - \frac{u_h(x_{i+1}) - u_h(x_i)}{h} \right|^2} \tag{A.5}$$

where $M \gg N$ for accuracy.

Appendix B

Software Information

B.1 Gelfgren Library

- Version: 0.1.0

- Language: Rust (core), Python (interface)

- License: MIT OR Apache-2.0

- Repository: `https://github.com/yourusername/gelfgren`

B.2 Dependencies

- Python 3.11+

- NumPy 1.24+

- SciPy 1.10+

- Matplotlib 3.7+

B.3 Reproducibility

All benchmarks can be reproduced:

```
cd benchmarks/python

# Run BVP convergence studies
python bvp_convergence.py

# Run special function approximation studies
python special_function_convergence.py
```

```
# Generate comprehensive LaTeX report
python generate_latex_report.py --mode comprehensive

# Compile to PDF
cd ../reports/latex
pdflatex comprehensive_benchmark_report.tex
pdflatex comprehensive_benchmark_report.tex  # Second pass for references
```

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