

Function Approximation

Judd Chapter 6

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The Plan

- Motivation
- Local approximations; Taylor, Pade, logs
- Interpolation
 - Polynomials
 - Splines
- Next Class: More Global Methods
 - Projection and Regression
 - Orthogonal basis functions
 - Multi-dimensional approaches

Motivation, example 1

Bellman's functional equation:

$$V(k) = \max_{k' \geq 0} \pi(k) + \beta V(k')$$

- Want to find $V(\cdot)$, e.g. via fixed-point iteration:

$$V^{k+1}(k) = \max_{k' \geq 0} \pi(k) + \beta V^k(k') \quad (*)$$

- To find max, we need $V^k(k')$ or its derivative, at any k'
 - We need a differentiable approximation $\hat{V}(\cdot)$
- Don't want to compute exact $V^k(k)$ for too many values of k
 - Instead, use them to construct the approximation

Motivation, example 2

- Have utility function $u(x_1, x_2)$, want Demand for good 1
- Need to find $D_1(p_1) = D(p_1, \bar{p}_2)$, where

$$\begin{aligned} D(p) &= \arg \max u(x_1, x_2) & (**) \\ \text{subject to} & : p_1 x_1 + \bar{p}_2 x_2 \leq B \end{aligned}$$

- Will need to evaluate $D_1(p_1)$ at many points, e.g. when integrating for CS, or solving monopolist's problem
- Want to solve $(**)$ for a few points, and
 - Construct an accurate approximation to $D_1(p_1)$
 - That is easy to integrate or differentiate analytically (i.e. a polynomial)

Approximation stages

- ① Choose approach (family \mathcal{F}_m of approximating functions, eg polynomials of degree m)
- ② Obtain "data" for estimation
 - Choose n functionals: $f_i(y()) \in \mathbb{R}$ to evaluate
 - E.g., choose node(s) x_i and obtain $y_i \equiv y(x_i)$
 - Data may also contain derivatives $y'(x_i)$ or integrals $\int f_i(x)y(x)dx$
- ③ Map data to (representation of) $\hat{y}(\cdot) \in \mathcal{F}_m$ e.g. coefficients
- ④ Evaluation: plug in any x , get back $\hat{y}(x)$
 - "Approximation" could refer to any of these stages
 - Each stage is repeated more frequently than previous ones

Local approximation: Taylor series

- Degree n Taylor approximation to $f(x)$ around x_0 :

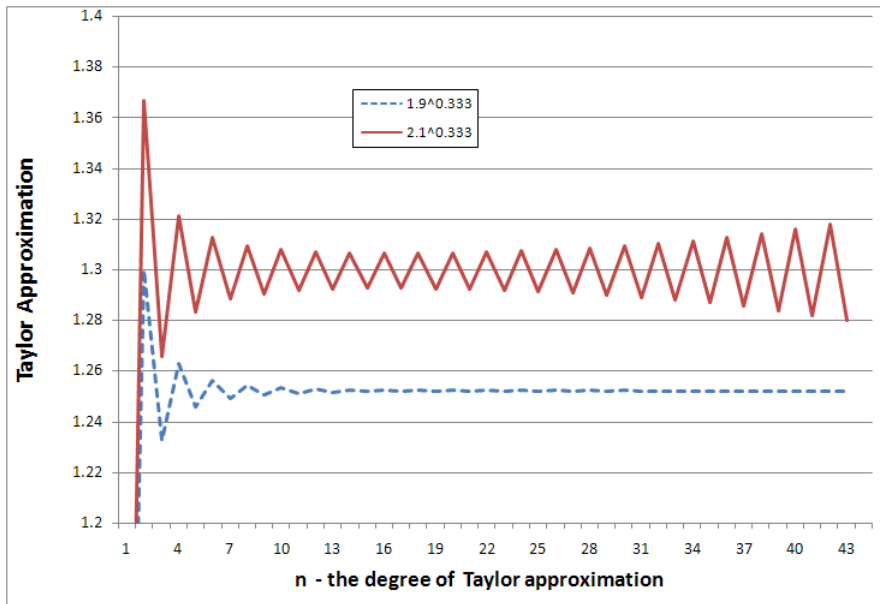
$$\begin{aligned}t(x) = & f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)(x - x_0)^2 \\ & + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}f^{(n)}(x_0)(x - x_0)^n\end{aligned}$$

- Error grows rapidly with $|x_0 - x|$;
declines with n within the *convergence radius* r
- Theorem 6.1.2: $r \leq$ distance to nearest singularity of f
- Singularity: x such that $f^{(n)}(x) = \infty$

Example:

- $f(x) = x^{\frac{1}{3}}$ has a singularity at $x = 0$.
- \Rightarrow Taylor series expansion around $x_0 = 1$
breaks down outside $[0, 2]$

Taylor approximation around $x = 1$



Pade approximation

- *Taylor*: polynomial of degree n , $t^{(i)}(x_0) = f^{(i)}(x_0)$, $i \leq n$
- **Pade**: rational function:

$$r(x) = p(x)/q(x)$$

$p(x)$ – polynomial of degree n ; $q(x)$ – of degree m

- Coeff's of p and q – determined from a system of linear equations:

$$\frac{d^k}{dx^k}(p - f * q)(x_0) = 0, \quad k = 0, \dots, m + n$$

- More accurate than Taylor, not affected by singularities
- Read Judd on simplifying the implementation

Log-Linearization: one example

Linear approximation to % deviations (from steady state)

- Take a production function: $y_t = z_t k_t^\alpha$.
 - Take logs: $\ln y_t = \ln z_t + \alpha \ln k_t$
 - Now exactly linear
- To interpret: compare to linearization in levels
- We know the steady state: (y^*, z^*, k^*)
 - Taylor around it: $\ln y_t \approx \ln y^* + (y_t - y^*) / y^*$
 - Same for $\ln z_t, \ln k_t$
- Plug these into log of production function.
Use $\ln y^* = \ln z^* + \alpha \ln k^*$ to derive:

$$\frac{y_t - y^*}{y^*} \approx \frac{z_t - z^*}{z^*} + \alpha \frac{k_t - k^*}{k^*}$$

Log-Linearization: another example

- Implicit function: $y(x)$ defined by $f(y, x) = 0$
- Implicit function theorem:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{\partial f / \partial x}{\partial f / \partial y} = -\frac{f_x}{f_y}$$

- Use the fact that $d \ln x = dx/x$:

$$d \ln y = -\frac{x f_x}{y f_y} * d \ln x$$

- Approximation:

$$\ln y - \ln y_0 \approx -\frac{x_0 f_x(y_0, x_0)}{y_0 f_y(y_0, x_0)} (\ln x - \ln x_0)$$

Example of local methods

Exercise 6.1: $f(x) = \left(x^{\frac{1}{2}} + 1\right)^{\frac{2}{3}}$, $x_0 = 1$.

- Degree 1 and 2 Taylor series approximation:

$$t_1(x) = 2^{\frac{2}{3}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{6} (x - 1)\right),$$

$$t_2(x) = 2^{\frac{2}{3}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{6} (x - 1) - \frac{7}{144} (x - 1)^2\right),$$

- Padé approximation (1,1):

$$r(x) = 2^{\frac{2}{3}} \frac{24 + 11(x - 1)}{24 + 7(x - 1)}.$$

- Log-linear approximation ($\ln x_0 = 0$):

$$l_1(x) = 2^{\frac{2}{3}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{6} \ln(x)\right)$$

Local methods: Pros and Cons

- Cons: Obvious
 - Limited radius of convergence
 - Moderate accuracy within radius
 - Need derivatives, can't handle kinks or discontinuities
- Pros:
 - Linear functional forms allow fast calculations by linear algebra even in extremely high dimensions
 - Can leverage fast first order solutions to solve higher order
 - Huge speed gains, good automated software make this first choice
 - At worst, use for rapid prototyping and good initial guess for global methods

Global methods: introduction

Polynomial approximation: $f(x) \approx \sum_{j=0}^m a_j p_j(x) = \hat{f}(x; a)$

- ① Pick n nodes x_i , compute $f(x_i)$
- ② Pick coefficients a to minimize $\left| f(x_i) - \hat{f}(x_i) \right|$'s
 - $n = m + 1$ – interpolation, can fit $f(x_i)$'s exactly
 - $n > m + 1$ – regression, typically least squares
 - Unlike Econometrics, we can pick x_i 's and $p_j(\cdot)$'s

Splines: piece-wise polynomials (of low degree)

- split x interval into $\inf x = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_m = \sup x$
- On each $[x_j, x_{j+1}]$, $\hat{f}(x) = \hat{f}_j(x)$ is a low-order polynomial.
- Impose continuity: $\hat{f}_{j-1}(x_j) = \hat{f}_j(x_j) = f(x_j)$,
smoothness: $\hat{f}'_{j-1}(x_j) = \hat{f}'_j(x_j)$, etc.

Polynomial approximation by interpolation

- Have 'data': $x_i, y_i = f(x_i), i = 1, \dots, n$
- Find a polynomial of degree $n - 1$ that satisfies

$$p(x_i) = y_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

- n conditions $\Rightarrow n$ linear equations pinning down the n coefficients of $p(\cdot)$:

$$a_0 + a_1 x_i + a_2 x_i^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} x_i^{n-1} = y_i, i = 1, \dots, n$$

- System of linear equations $Va = y$
- V = Vandermonde matrix, often has large condition number
- Lots of computation for new y_i 's (solving $Va = y$);
few computations to evaluate $p(x)$ for an arbitrary x
- Precompute QR if repeatedly computing coefficients w/ new data at same points
 - $O(n^3)$ overhead for $O(n^2)$ per step

Direct approach: Lagrange interpolation

- If coefficients not needed, can avoid computing them completely
- Explicit solution to $p(x_i) = y_i$ equations:

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i l_i(x),$$

where

$$l_i(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}.$$

- Note that $l_i(x_i) = 1$, $l_i(x_j) = 0$ if $i \neq j$.
- In practice, do not compute directly: slow and unstable

Better implementation: Barycentric formula

- Use *Barycentric Formula* to find polynomial interpolation
- Set $p(x_i) = y_i$ and for all other x

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\lambda_i y_i}{x - x_i} / \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\lambda_i}{x - x_i}$$

where

$$\lambda_i(x) = \frac{1}{\prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)}.$$

- $O(n^2)$ to get weights λ_i , then $O(n)$ per evaluation
 - Same order as if polynomial known even w/ new data y_i
- Is polynomial interpolation a good idea? Depends on choice of x_i

Problems with polynomial interpolation

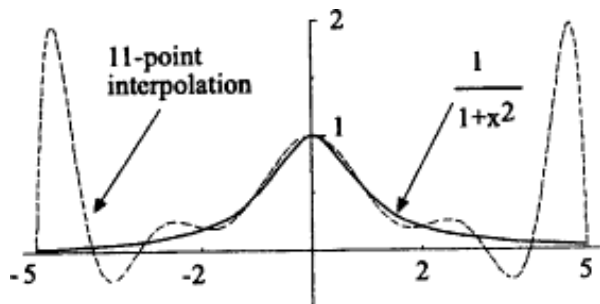


Figure 6.6
Nonconvergence of interpolation example

- Runge Phenomenon: interpolation at evenly spaced points
- Interpolation may diverge even if true function ∞ -differentiable
- Solution: use stable point set, non-polynomial functions, or projection instead of interpolation

Possible improvement: Hermite interpolation

- Have data: $x_i, y_i = f(x_i), y'_i = f'(x_i), i = 1, \dots, n$
- Find a polynomial of degree $2n - 1$ that satisfies

$$p(x_i) = y_i, \quad p'(x_i) = y'_i \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

$2n$ conditions \Rightarrow $2n$ linear equations to pin down the $2n$ coefficients of p .

- Explicit solution:

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i h_i(x) + \sum_{i=1}^n y'_i \tilde{h}_i(x),$$

where

$$\tilde{h}_i(x) = (x - x_i) [l_i(x)]^2,$$

$$h_i(x) = (1 - 2l'_i(x_i)(x - x_i)) [l_i(x)]^2.$$

Note $l'_i(x_i) = \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{1}{x_i - x_j}$.

Major improvement: Good point sets

- Optimal point set depends on true and approximating functions, desired convergence class
- For polynomials on $[-1, 1]$, smooth functions, uniform approximation, near best are Chebyshev points

$$x_i = \cos\left(\frac{i\pi}{n}\right) \quad \{i \in 0 \dots n\}$$

- Thm: Let $f(x)$ have k^{th} derivative with total variation V and let $\hat{f}_n(x)$ be interpolation using $n + 1$ Chebyshev points

$$\left\| \hat{f}_n(x) - f(x) \right\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{4V}{\pi k (n - k)^k}$$

- Many other desirable computational properties: next class

Alternative for general point sets: Splines

A function $s(x)$ on $[a, b]$ is a spline if:

- There is a grid of points (nodes or knots)
 $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b, \dots$
- ... such that $s(x)$ is a polynomial of degree k on each subinterval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \dots$
- ... and $s(x) \in \mathbf{C}^{k-1}$ (continuously differentiable to $k - 1$ order)
- Order of the spline can be defined as k or $k + 1$
- Linear spline: Piecewise linear, "connecting the dots."
- Cubic spline: $s(x) = a_i + b_i x + c_i x^2 + d_i x^3$.
- Low cost of computation: efficient sparse matrix algorithms
- Rapid convergence when $|x_{i-1} - x_i| \rightarrow 0$
rate = $k - 1$ if $f \in \mathbf{C}^{k-1}$
- Good for functions that are not \mathbf{C}^∞

Example: cubic spline

$s(x) = a_i + b_i x + c_i x^2 + d_i x^3$ on $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$.

- $2n$ interpolation conditions:

$$y_i = a_i + b_i x_i + c_i x_i^2 + d_i x_i^3, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

$$y_i = a_{i+1} + b_{i+1} x_i + c_{i+1} x_i^2 + d_{i+1} x_i^3, \quad i = 0, \dots, n-1,$$

- $2n - 2$ derivative conditions:

$$b_i + 2c_i x_i + 3d_i x_i^2 = b_{i+1} + 2c_{i+1} x_i + 3d_{i+1} x_i^2, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1$$

$$2c_i + 6d_i x_i = 2c_{i+1} + 6d_{i+1} x_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1.$$

- Need 2 end conditions. E.g., the secant Hermite spline:

$$s'(x_0) = \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}, \quad s'(x_n) = \frac{y_n - y_{n-1}}{x_n - x_{n-1}},$$

- $4n$ linear equations identify the $4n$ coefficients of s .

More splines

B-splines (de Boor (1978)): good for deriving analytical results about other splines

- A basis of orthogonal functions
- Each function is non-zero over two adjacent intervals
- Recursive formulation \Rightarrow increasing smoothness

Shape-preserving splines:

- Concave data might lead to non-concave spline
- Schumaker procedure
- Intermediate nodes $z_i \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$, data on $f'(x_i)$

Recap of approximations

- Want $f(x)$ for many different x 's
 - $f(\cdot)$ takes a long time to evaluate
 - \Rightarrow use approximation $\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m a_k p_k(x)$
- Want to find a_k with as little data as possible:
 - Local around x_0 : $f(x_0), f'(x_0), f''(x_0), \dots, f^{(n)}(x_0)$
 - Global: $f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots, f(x_n)$
- Similar to prediction in Econometrics
 - But econometrics uses observational data
 - Here, we can "design the experiment"
- Smart choice of polynomials $p_k(\cdot)$ and nodes x_i .

Basis Function Methods

- Represent function by finite set of coefficients on known set of functions $\phi_k()$
- Approximation: $p(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \phi_k(x)$
- **Mean Square** (L^2) approximation:

$$\min_a \int [f(x) - p(x)]^2 w(x) dx \Leftrightarrow \min_a \|f - p\|_2$$

- **Uniform** (L^∞) approximation:

$$\min_a \sup_x |f(x) - p(x)| \Leftrightarrow \min_a \|f - p\|_\infty$$

- Usually don't target optimal uniform approximation directly
For many classes (Chebyshev, B-spline, Wavelet, Fourier), good L^2 approx implies good L^∞
- **Derivatives** may not converge

Orthogonal bases

- Define ($w(x)$ weighted) inner product:

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int f(x)g(x)w(x)dx.$$

- The family of functions $\{\phi_k\}$ is **mutually orthogonal** iff $\langle \phi_k, \phi_m \rangle = 0$ for all $k \neq m$.
 - They *span a subspace* within the space of functions
- Optimal L^2 approximation has simple formula when ϕ_k *orthogonal*
 - $a_k^* = \frac{\langle f, \phi_k \rangle}{\langle \phi_k, \phi_k \rangle}$
 - Can calculate separately by direct computation of integral
- Orthogonality also leads to better conditioning when regression approach used

Why orthonormality?

- Complete orthonormal basis gives mean square representation
- *Parseval's theorem*:
 - Let $\|f\|_2^2 := \int f(x)^2 w(x) dx < \infty$ and $\{\phi_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$ be a complete o.n.b. Then

$$\left\| \sum_{k=1}^N \langle f, \phi_k \rangle \phi_k - f \right\|_2^2 = \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} a_k^2$$

- Allows representation of continuum by countable family
 - and good, *quantifiable* approximation by finite family
- L^2 good enough for some things
 - Integrals, some functional equations, *not* pointwise convergence
- Compare Weierstrass's theorem: Let f continuous, then
$$\inf_N \sup_x |f(x) - p_N(x)| \rightarrow 0$$
- Fine, but no speed results, sequence may depend on (unknown) f

From convergence to rates

- When does projection representation ensure pointwise convergence?
- Function must live in strict subset of L^2
- Many many classes exist, usually "smoothness conditions"
 - C^k k-times continuously differentiable,
 - Sobolev: $W^{p,k} := \left\{ f : \left\| \frac{d^k}{dx} f(x) \right\|_p < \infty \right\}$
 - Holder: $\Lambda^\alpha := \left\{ f : \sup_{x,y} \left| \frac{d^{\lfloor a \rfloor}}{dx} f(y) - \frac{d^{\lfloor a \rfloor}}{dx} f(x) \right| \leq C d(x,y)^{a-\lfloor a \rfloor} \right\}$
 - See also: Besov, Bounded Variation, Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces, etc
- Each class admits rates in some norms for some basis set
- Technique: demonstrate class membership by analytical methods (eg map preserves derivatives or integrals, etc)
- Then use suitable basis given class knowledge

Orthogonal families

Family	$w(x)$	Domain	definition
Legendre	1	$[-1, 1]$	$P_n(x) = \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} ((1 - x^2)^n)$
Chebyshev	$(1 - x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$	$[-1, 1]$	$T_n(x) = \cos(n \cos^{-1}(x))$
Laguerre	e^{-x}	$[0, \infty)$	$L_n(x) = \frac{e^x}{n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x^n e^{-x})$
Hermite	e^{-x^2}	$(-\infty, \infty)$	$H_n(x) = (-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (e^{-x^2})$
Fourier	1	$[-\pi, \pi]$	$\frac{1}{2}; \cos(nx); \sin(mx)$
Wavelet	1	$[-1, 1]$	No closed form

- Look for domain and shape that fits your application
- Chebyshev is a common choice in Economics
- Fourier is used for periodic functions, rare in Econ
- Useful polynomial families have recurrence formulas:
 - $\phi_0(x) = 1, \quad \phi_1(x) = x$
 - $\phi_{k+1}(x) = [c_{k+1}x + d_{k+1}] \phi_k(x) + e_{k+1} \phi_{k-1}(x)$

Details: Legendre

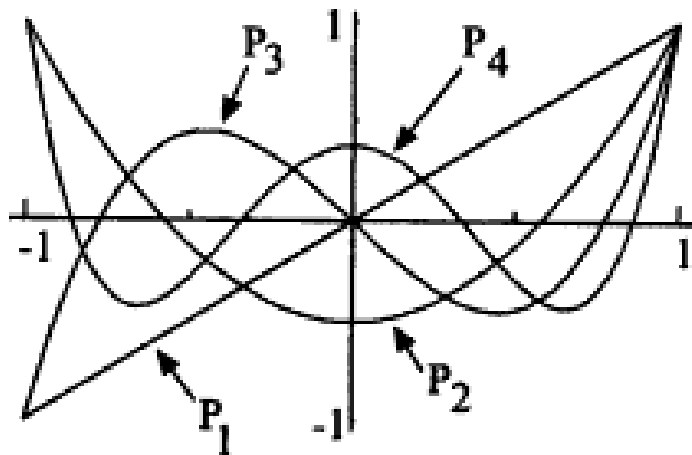


Figure 6.2
Legendre polynomials

Details: Chebyshev

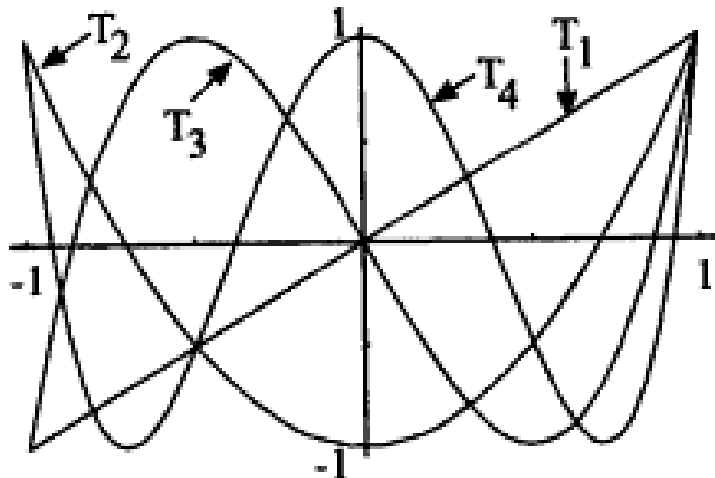


Figure 6.1
Chebyshev polynomials

Details: Laguerre

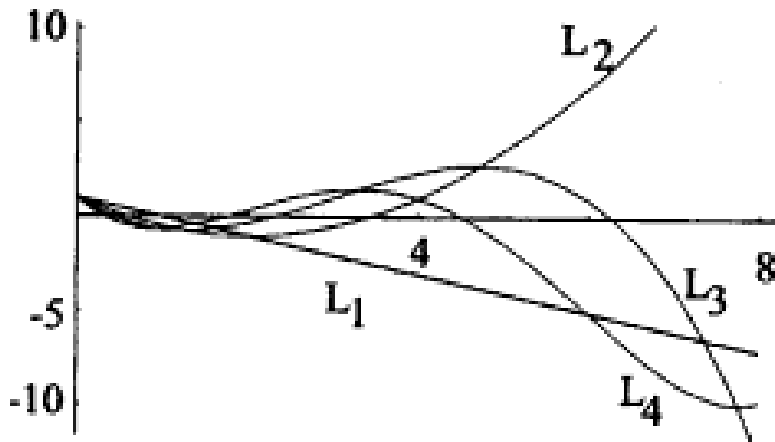


Figure 6.3
Laguerre polynomials

Details: Hermite

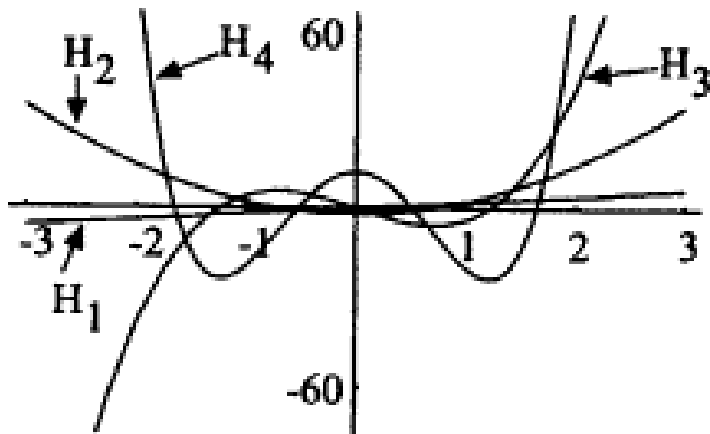


Figure 6.4
Hermite polynomials

Regression Approach to Finding Coefficients

1 Set-up (at beginning of code):

- 1 Choose functions $\phi(\cdot)$, order n , and $\#$ of nodes $m \geq n + 1$
- 2 Select nodes z_k in the function's support, $k = 1, \dots, m$:
polynomial zeros, or just a uniform grid
- 3 Map each z_k into x_k in the support of the target function
- 4 Evaluate function $\phi_j(z_k)$, $j = 0, \dots, n$;
store them as a matrix $X : X_{kj} = \{\phi_j(z_k)\}$

2 Estimation of coefficients $a = [a_0, \dots, a_m]$:

- 1 Evaluate $y_k = f(x_k)$; form them into vector Y
- 2 If $m = n + 1$, solve $Xa = Y$
- 3 If $m > n + 1$, solve $(X'X)a = X'Y$

3 Evaluation of $\hat{f}(\bar{x})$ for an arbitrary \bar{x}

- 1 Map \bar{x} into \bar{z} (i.e. into the support of ϕ)
- 2 Compute $\phi_j(\bar{z})$'s; recursive formula will save time
- 3 Compute $\hat{f}(\bar{x}) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \phi_j(\bar{z})$

Properties of regression approach

- When $m = n$, this is just interpolation:
accurate for Chebyshev on Chebyshev points (or Fourier on uniform grid), not otherwise
- In both cases, interpolation system solved in $n \log(n)$ time by *Fast Fourier Transform*
- Choose $n \gg m$ for general case to converge to projection coefficients
- Accuracy of order n projection depends on f and $\{\phi\}$
- For polynomials: Jackson and Bernstein inequalities:

$$\inf_{p_n} |f - p_n| \leq C n^{-(k+a)}$$

holds iff f has k derivatives which are a -Holder-continuous

- Use theory to derive properties, pick suitable class

Changing (bounded) domain

Linear change of variable preserves orthogonality:

- $[a, b]$ to $[-1, 1]$: $z = -1 + 2\frac{x-a}{b-a}$
- $[a, +\infty]$ to $[0, +\infty]$: $\frac{1}{\lambda} (x - a)$
 - λ helps match the area of curvature of the polynomial

Other useful transformations:

- $(-\infty, +\infty)$ to $(0, +\infty)$: e^x
- $(0, +\infty)$ to $(-\infty, +\infty)$: $\ln x$
- $(-\infty, +\infty)$ to $[0, 1]$: $1/(e^{-x} + 1) =$ the logistic function
- $[0, 1]$ to $(-\infty, +\infty)$: inverted logistic function

Changing unbounded domain

- Laguerre: $[0, \infty)$. Hermite: $(-\infty, +\infty)$
- Math will work without change of domain
- But polynomials have curvature and extrema concentrated in a neighborhood of 0
 - E.g. Laguerre deg. 4 no extrema outside $[0, 10]$
- If $f(x)$ has most curvature happening on $[0, \bar{X}]$, it might make sense to rescale: $z = x(10/\bar{X})$
- You can experiment with rescaling to obtain the best fit

Nonlinear regression approach

- Nothing in principle requires using sum of basis functions
- Can choose nonlinear class, find parameters by nonlinear least squares
- Adaptive regression splines: choose knot points and coefficients
- Neural networks: repeatedly compose linear and nonlinear maps
 - Single *neuron* j is $F_j(\sum_{k=1}^n x_{jk}\beta_{jk})$ for pointwise nonlinear function like $F(x) = \max(x, 0)$ or $\text{logit}(x)$ with inputs x_{jk} and weights β_{jk}
 - A set of neurons form a *layer*, and are used as inputs to another set of neurons
- Optimization problem harder, so choose only if nonlinear class gives much better approx of true function
 - Adaptive splines improve rates for Bounded Variation functions
 - Neural nets perform well for high-dimensional, irregular functions: space of images, sounds, text

Adaptive methods

- ① Start with initial grid,
 - ② Use one of above methods to approximate
 - ③ Pick new points, compare approximation and truth
 - ④ Increase order of approximation based on errors
- Especially useful if easy to refine: e.g. splines, wavelets
 - Alternative: penalized or thresholded approximation
 - Find coefficients, then remove small ones
 - or use procedure that gives only small set of coefs (eg LASSO)
 - Result: much smaller set of coefficients
 - Useful if next step has costs depending on number
 - Accuracy cost low if true function *sparse* in basis
 - Only a few (knots, wavelets etc) matter:
 - True if function has small set of spikes/inflections
 - E.g. Models with hard constraints can give sharp breaks

Wavelets

- Bespoke basis functions designed for fast optimal approximation
- Start with pair $\phi(x)$ $\psi(x)$ father and mother wavelet (or scaling function and wavelet)
- Scaling function self-similar: $\phi(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \phi(2x - k)$
- Wavelet $\psi(x) = \sum_{k=1}^m b_k \phi(2x - k)$
- $\{\phi_{j,k}(x) = 2^{-j/2} \phi(2^{-j}x - k)\}$ $\{\psi_{j,k}(x) = 2^{-j/2} \psi(2^{-j}x - k)\}$ are basis collection
- n coefs calculated recursively in $O(n)$ time by cascade algorithm
- Can choose so compactly supported, orthogonal, approximate smooth/nonsmooth functions
- In adaptive methods, use only large coefs \rightarrow good approx if function has nonsmooth area, like edge
- Many families available for different applications

Multi-dimensional approximation

$$F(x) : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

- *Lagrange interpolation* – requires careful choice of nodes
 - Otherwise, coefficient equations can become singular
- *Tensor products* of orth. functions in each x_i

$$\{\phi_k(x_1)\}_{k=0}^n \otimes \{\psi_j(x_2)\}_{j=0}^n := \{\{\phi_k(x_1)\psi_j(x_2)\}_{j=0}^n\}_{k=0}^n$$

- Curse of dimensionality: n^m coefficients
- *Complete polynomials*: $\sum_{i=1}^n j_i \leq m$
 - less coefficients, same precision
- *Neural networks*: split function into lower-dimensional ones:
 $F(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \tilde{F}(\tilde{f}_1(x_1, x_2), \tilde{f}_2(x_3, x_4))$
- Machine Learning methods: Gaussian Process & RKHS, etc

Sparse grids approach

- If multidimensional function has many cross-partial derivatives

$$\left\| \frac{\partial^{\bar{\alpha}}}{dx_1 \dots dx_m} f(.) \right\| < \infty$$

for $\bar{\alpha} = \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_m$ with $\sup_{j \in 1 \dots m} \alpha_j < k$

- Then interactions are "not too strong"
- Can use many fewer grid points away from axes when interpolating than, e.g., tensor product Chebyshev
- Can efficiently construct *Sparse grids* for interpolation which yield accurate approximation with only polynomial, not exponential dependence on dimension
- Result is *Smolyak* polynomial (or spline) approximation

Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces

- Complete normed space \mathcal{H}_K of functions $F : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_K$, in which norm convergence implies pointwise convergence
- Has *reproducing kernel* $k(s, t) : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t.
$$f(s) = \langle f(\cdot), k(s, \cdot) \rangle_K$$
- Different k define functions of different shapes, smoothness
 - "Gaussian kernel" $k(s, t) = C \exp(-\frac{d(s, t)^2}{2\sigma^2})$
 - Defined for any metric space \mathcal{X}
 - Good for high-dimensional or strange spaces
 - \mathcal{X} can be images, text, other functions, etc
 - Smoothing splines: $\mathcal{H}_K = \mathcal{W}^{2,2k}$ $\langle f, f \rangle_K = \int (f'')^2(x) dx$

Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces: smoothing

- Optimal regression $\inf_{f \in \mathcal{H}_K} (\sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - f(x_i))^2 + C \langle f, f \rangle_K)$
 - Solution $f = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i k(x_i, \cdot)$ where a_i have simple expression
- Cost is $O(m^3)$, independent of dimension of \mathcal{X}
 - Can be improved in some cases
 - If \mathcal{H}_K is smoothing splines, get HP filter
- Equivalent to posterior mean of *Gaussian Process* prior
 - Using data (y_i, x_i) and Gaussian likelihood
- This is prior over functions $f(x)$ where marginals $(f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots, f(x_n)) \sim N(0, K)$
- $[K]_{ij} := K(x_i, x_j)$ kernel function is covariance matrix of process
- Bayesian interpretation: best guess of function given data
- Also allows calculating uncertainty in approximation

Python tools

- `scipy.interpolate` offers variety of spline methods
 - Linear: `numpy.interp`, `CubicSpline`, B-splines: `make_interp_spline`,
 - Also monotone, 2D, N-D spline on regular, irregular grids
- `chebpy` or `pychebfun`: tools for efficient computation with polynomial and basis methods and applications
 - Treat functions as objects, w/ adaptive Chebyshev representations
- Specialized libraries for GPs: `GPyTorch`, `sklearn.gaussian_process`, Signal Processing and Wavelets: `scipy.signal`, `Smolyak`, etc
- To learn, read help and try to replicate with your own code
- You can use these in your research, but not in PS3

Julia tools

- `interpolate()` in `Interpolations.jl`
 - Piecewise constant, linear, quadratic, cubic spline
 - Fast on even grids: use other libraries for alternative splines
 - See `QuantEcon` for code examples
- `ApproxFun` system has huge set of tools for efficient computation with polynomial and basis methods and applications
 - Treats functions as objects, w/ adaptive Chebyshev representations
- `Wavelets.jl`, other specialized packages for GPs, Smolyak, etc
- To learn, read help and try to replicate with your own code
- You can use these in your research, but not in PS3

Matlab tools

- `interp1()`, `interp2()`, `interp3()`
 - Piecewise constant, linear, or cubic spline
 - Combines estimation and evaluation steps
 - very slow
- `spline()` can save estimated coefficients for later use in evaluation
- *CompEcon* has Chebyshev estimation and evaluation tools
- Chebfun system has huge set of tools for efficient computation with Chebyshev methods and applications
- Wavelet toolbox for wavelets, GPStuff for Gaussian Processes
- To learn, read help and try to replicate with your own code
- You can use these in your research, but not in PS3

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