Approximation and Integration

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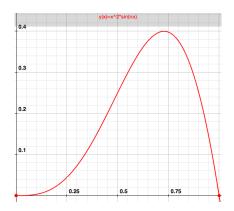
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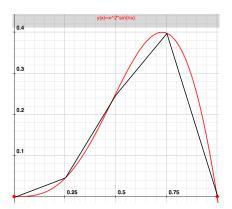
Numerical Integration

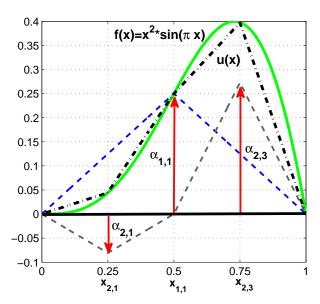
- In economic problems with uncertainty, we typically assume that agents solve complicated integrals
- Computational economists need learn methods for numerical integration:
 - Monte Carlo
 - Quadrature and Cubature

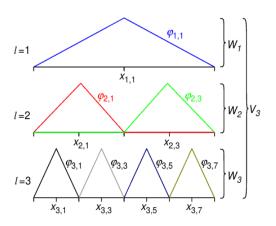
Function approximation

- As it turns out one way to integrate complicated functions is to approximate them by simple functions whose integral we know!
- Later this week, we learn about other reasons why we want to approximate functions: Dynamic programming, projection methods etc...
- Will mostly focus on the one-dimensional case today and discuss higher dimensional approximation later
- How did you approximate functions in kindergarten?









• In one dimension, we take as basic function on [-1, 1]

$$\phi(x) = \max(0, 1 - |x|)$$

and twist them to generate a family of basis functions on [0, 1]

$$\phi_{I,i}(x) = \phi(2^I x - i), i = 1, ..., 2^I - 1, i \text{ odd}$$

Define

$$I_{I} = \{i \in \mathbb{N} : 1 \leq i \leq 2^{I} - 1, i \text{ odd}\}$$

and

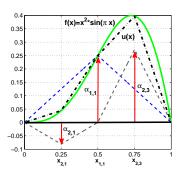
$$W_I = \operatorname{span}\{\phi_{I,i}, i \in I_I\}$$

The space of piecewise linear functions is then

$$V_n = \bigoplus_{l \leq n} W_l$$



Piecewise linear interpolation - coefficients



- $f(x) \simeq u(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{l} \sum_{i \in I_k} \alpha_{k,i} \phi_{k,i}(x)$
- The coefficients, $\alpha_{k,i}$ are hierarchical surpluses. They correct the interplant of level l-1 at $x_{l,i}$ to the actual value of $f(x_{l,i})$
- Become small as approximation becomes better

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Piecewise linear approximation

- Given the basis functions $\phi_{k,i}(x)$, we chose the $\alpha_{k,i}$ so that the approximating function matches the true function at a predetermined set of points
- Beyond Kindergarten, one can think of other good approximations, e.g. some norm on function space
- Which norm to take? We'll briefly talk about 2-norm, 1-norm and sup-norm.

Uniform approximation

- Piecewise linear approximation seems a bit odd if the true function is sufficiently smooth.
- Even if the function is non-linear, one can approximate it arbitrarily well by polynomials. Weierstrass Theorem: Given any continuous function $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ and any $\epsilon>0$ there exists a polynomial p(x) such that

$$\max_{x \in [a,b]} |f(x) - p(x)| < \epsilon$$

- How do we find this polynomial?
- In general that is tough, but can do it on a finite set of points then one can also consider least squares, or least first power approximation.

- We want to approximate a smooth function $f: [-1,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ by a polynomial of degree d.
- In order to do so, we will interpolate n of its function values, i.e. given some points x_i , $f(x_i)$, we try to find a polynomial that matches the function values at the points x_i .
- Polynomial is uniquely pinned down by d + 1 distinct points
- Alternatively we could take more than d + 1 points and do least square for now we want to consider interpolation

• Interpolate n points by a univariate polynomial of degree n-1,

$$p_{n-1}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \theta_j x^j$$

• To find the unknown n coefficients $(\theta_0, \dots, \theta_{n-1})$, we could use the n equations

$$y_i = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \theta_j (x_i)^j$$
 for $i = 1, ..., n$

Unfortunately, the 'Vandermonde' matrix

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \dots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & \dots & x_n^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

is typically extremely badly conditioned



- Better to use Lagrange polynomials.
- Let the i'th Lagrange polynomial be defined by

$$I_i(x) = \prod_{j=1, j\neq i}^n \frac{x-x_j}{x_i-x_j}.$$

- Note that $l_i(x_i) = 1$ if and only if i = j and it is zero otherwise.
- Therefore we can simply set

$$g(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(x_i) I_i(x).$$

 Simplest way to get an interpolation polynomial, but evaluation of l_i could be costly...



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Orthogonal polynomials

 A good choice of polynomials are orthogonal under some inner product, in fact we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} I_m(x) I_n(x) = 0 \text{ if } m \neq n$$

• Define Legendre polynomials as $P_0(x) = 1$, $P_1(x) = x$ and

$$P_{n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{n+1} \left((2n+1)x Pn(x) - nP_{n-1}(x) \right)$$

We have

$$\int_{-1}^{1} P_m(x) P_n(x) dx = \frac{2}{2n+1} \delta_{mn}$$

• Define Chebychev terms as follows. Let $T_0(x) = 1$, $T_1(x) = x$, and recursively $T_{i+1}(x) = 2xT_i(x) - T_{i-1}(x)$, i = 1, ..., n. We have

$$\int_{-1}^{1} (1-x^2)^{-1/2} T_m(x) T_n(x) dx = 0 \text{ if } m \neq n.$$

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• Define Chebychev terms as follows. Let $T_0(x) = 1$, $T_1(x) = x$, and recursively

$$T_{i+1}(x) = 2xT_i(x) - T_{i-1}(x), \quad i = 1, ..., n.$$

Then set

$$g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \xi_i T_i(x)$$

with

$$\xi_i = \frac{2}{d_i(n-1)} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{d_j} T_i(x_j) g(x_j)$$

with $d_0 = f_{n-1} = 2$ and $d_i = 1$ otherwise.

MATLAB: chebyshevT(n, x)



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- Can write the approximating polynomials in many different, efficient ways.
- Much more important issue which polynomials to use is at which points to interpolate the function one wants to approximate.
- While it is true that one can approximate continuous functions arbitrarily well by polynomials, it is not true that one can do so by interpolating equi-spaced points.

Example (Runge)

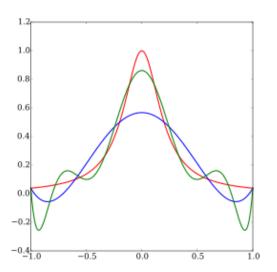
Consider the function

$$f(x)=\frac{1}{1+25x^2}$$

on the interval [-1, 1].



Runge



- It turns out that there are two good choices of points for which the problem does not occur.
- The first one is to use the zeros of Chebychev polynomials. These are given by

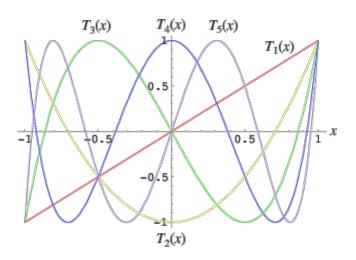
$$z_k = -\cos\left(\frac{2k-1}{2m}\pi\right), \quad k = 1, ..., m.$$

 An alternative, which is as good, is to use extrema of Chebychev polynomials. These are given by

$$z_k = -\cos\left(\frac{\pi(k-1)}{m-1}\right), \quad k = 1, ..., m, \quad m > 1.$$

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Chebychev points



Some math to impress grandma

- Given a continuous function $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ and N points $z_1,\ldots,z_N\in[a,b]$, there is a unique interpolating polynomial of degree N-1, g(x). There is also the best uniform approximation of f in the space of polynomials of degree N, let's call this h(x).
- Under the sup-norm we have

$$||f - g|| \le (1 + \Lambda)||f - h||,$$

where Λ is the Lebesgue constant

$$\Lambda = \max_{x \in [a,b]} \sum_{j=1}^{N+1} |I_j(x)|$$

 In principle, one can compute the optimal points by minimizing the Lebesgue constant. In practice it turns out that Chebychev points have a Lebesgue constant close to the optimal one.

Limits to polynomial interpolation

Consider the continuous function

$$f(x) = \sqrt{|x|}, x \in [-1, 1]$$

- Using Chebychev zeros, in order to approximate this function so that the sup-norm between approximation and function is less than 10⁻³ one needs 1.1 million points !!!!
- $\bullet \ \to \text{Splines}$

Splines 1

- A function $s:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is a spline of order n if it is C^{n-2} on [a,b] and there are nodes $a=x_0 < x_1 < ..., x_n = b$ such that s(x) is polynomial of degree n-1 in each subinterval $[x_i,x_{i+1}]$
- Obviously, we can use splines to interpolate points $(x_i, y_i)_{i=0}^n$.
- The easiest scheme is piece-wise linear. This can be a good way to approximate difficult functions will get back to this soon.

Splines 2

• Want to focus on cubic splines (i.e. splines of order 4) that consist of cubic polynomials $p_1, ..., p_n$ such that

$$p_i(x_i) = y_i, \quad p_i(x_{i+1}) = y_{i+1}$$

and for all i = 1, ..., n - 1

$$p'_i(x_i) = p'_{i-1}(x_i), p''_i(x_i) = p''_{i-1}(x_i)$$

- Since each cubic spline has 4 unknown coefficients, we have 4n unknowns and 2n + 2n 2 equations. Hm too many unknowns.
- We need to impose some more conditions. Natural splines impose $s''(x_0) = s''(x_n) = 0$ to pin down the two remaining unknown coefficients We can also impose $s'(x_0) = y'_0, s'(x_n) = y'_n$ these are called Hermite splines.



Splines 3: B-splines

- Can represent piecewise polynomial functions as the weighted sum of basis (B-) splines.
- Let (t_j) be a non-decreasing (knot)-sequence. The j'th B-spline of order k for (t_j) is denoted by $B_{j,k,t}$ and they can be defined recursively by

$$B_{i,k}(x) = \frac{x - x_i}{x_{i+k} - x_i} B_{i,k-1}(x) + \frac{x_{i+k+1} - x}{x_{i+k+1} - x_{i+1}} B_{i+1,k-1}(x)$$

with

$$B_{i,0}(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < x_i \\ 1, & x_i \le x \le x_{i-1} \\ 0, & x \ge x_i \end{cases}$$

With this we can write

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i B_{i,k}(x)$$

where the coefficients α_i can be obtained from solving a linear system of equations.

In MATLAB

- c = polyfit(x, y, n) does least-squares polynomial approximation of degree n
- y = polyval(c, x) evaluates the interpolant at the new points.
- Piecewise polynomial: y1 = interp1(x, y, xn,' method'), whereh method is one of 'linear', 'spline', 'cubic'
- Piecewise polynomial can be evaluated with ppval

Higher dimensions..

- Can we use polynomials to approximate 10-dimensional functions? What about 100 dimensions?
- While interval is the clear domain in one dimension, in several dimensions could have different geometric structures.
- Typically one focuses on the cube $[-1, 1]^d$ but this obviously can create problems.
- Almost nothing is known about points with low Lebesgue constant in higher dimensions...

Smolyak's method

- In the 1960's Smolyak developed a method for high dimensions that does not use Lebesgue points but it still pretty good
- A little tedious to explain and it will become clearer next week, but here are the basics...
- For details, look up Barthelmann, V., E. Novak and K. Ritter, "High dimensional polynomial interpolation on sparse grids", 2000, Advances of Computational Mathematics 12, 273-288, or Krueger, D. and F. Kubler, "Computing equilibrium in OLG models with stochastic production", 2004, JEDC 28, 1411-1436.

Smolyak's method

- Sequence of 1-D interpolation points $\chi^i \subset [-1, 1]$, i=1,2,...
- Define $m_1 = 1$ and $m_i = 2^{i-1} + 1$, i > 1 to be the total number of elements of set χ^i
- Choose $\chi^1=\{0\}$ and for i>1, $\chi^i=\{x_1^i,...,x_{m_i}^i\}\subset [-1,1]$ as the set of the extrema of the Chebychev polynomials

$$x_j^i = -\cos\frac{\pi(j-1)}{m_i-1}$$
 $j = 1, ..., m_i$

• So $\chi^1=\{0\},\,\chi^2_{\Delta}=\{-1,1\},\,\chi^3_{\Delta}=\{\cos(\frac{3\pi}{4}),-\cos(\frac{3\pi}{4})\}$ and

$$\chi_{\Delta}^{4} = \{-\cos(\frac{\pi}{8}), -\cos(\frac{3\pi}{8}), \cos(\frac{\pi}{8}), \cos(\frac{3\pi}{8})\}$$



Smolyak's method

• For a given level, I define a d-dimensional grid as

$$\mathcal{H}(I, \mathbf{d}) = \bigcup_{|\mathbf{i}|_1 \leq \mathbf{d} + I} (\chi^{i_1} \times ... \times \chi^{i_d}),$$

The Smolyak construction of an interpolating polynomial is then

$$\mathcal{A}(I,d) = \sum_{|\mathbf{i}|_1 \leq d+I} (-1)^{d+I-|\mathbf{i}|} \begin{pmatrix} d-1 \\ d+I-|\mathbf{i}|_1 \end{pmatrix} \alpha_{i_1,\dots,i_d} (\mathcal{U}^{i_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \mathcal{U}^{i_d})$$

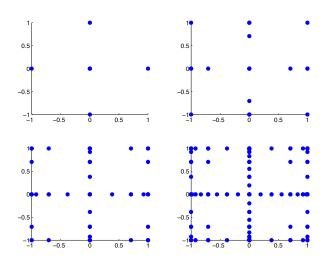
 $\ensuremath{\mathcal{U}}$ are interpolating polynomials (e.g. Chebychev or Lagrange)



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Smolyak's grid



Remarks

- $\mathcal{A}(2,d)$ reproduces the polynomials x_j^4 , x_j^3 , x_j^2 , x_j , 1, $x_j^2 x_k^2$, $x_j^2 x_k$, $x_j x_k$. $\mathcal{A}(k,d)$ is exact for polynomials up to degree k
- The number of points in $\mathcal{H}(I, d)$ is given by

$$I = 1 : 1 + 2d$$

$$I = 2 : 1 + 4d + 4\frac{d(d-1)}{2}$$

$$I = 3 : 1 + 8d + 16\frac{d(d-1)}{2} + 8\frac{d(d-1)(d-2)}{6}$$

- Number of points grows exponentially in I
- Method only really useful for l = 2 or l = 3.
- For large d (e.g. 50) need a lot of smoothness for a good approximation



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More Remarks

 Maliar and Maliar have matlab code on their website: http://stanford.edu/ maliars/Files/Codes.html

Numerical Integration

Want to solve

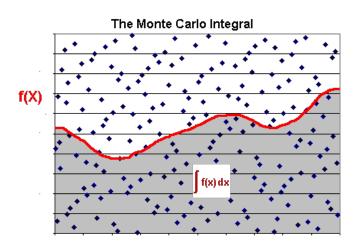
$$\int_{[-1,1]^d} f(x) dx$$

or

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) \exp(-x^T x) dx$$

- More general $\int_{\Omega} f(x) dx$
- Choice of best method depends on properties of f and on d
- Simplest method: Monte Carlo (use for d > 100, non-smooth f). For 50 < d < 100 often quasi-Monte-Carlo is preferable
- For many economic problems, quadrature (or cubature) works better

Monte Carlo



Monte Carlo

 Simple observation: For sufficiently large M and M randomly chosen points in Ω,

$$\frac{\int_{\Omega} f(x) dx}{\int_{\Omega} dx} \simeq \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} f(x_i)$$

- Advantages: Simple, embarrassingly parallel, works for arbitrary functions and domains
- Disadvantages: What are random numbers? Most applications use pseudo-random numbers that are completely deterministic.
 Quantum random number generators are used commercially, e.g. www.idquantique.com.
- Quasi-Monte-Carlo seems to solve the problem: Uses deterministic points that have good properties.
- But once we choose the points, might as well choose according to the application

Numerical Integration –Quadrature

Let's focus on the one-dimensional case and develop a very simple and efficient method for continuous (probably smooth) functions. First we consider the bounded domain case. Remember from high-school that

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} f\left(\frac{b-a}{2}x + \frac{a+b}{2}\right) dx.$$

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Numerical Integration - Gaussian Quadrature

Suppose want to solve

$$\int_{[-1,1]} f(x) dx$$

If f(.) can be approximated well by a polynomial of degree d, it suffices to take f at d+1 points and then compute the integral of the polynomial (which we can do exactly)

$$\int_{[-1,1]} f(x) dx \simeq \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f(x_i)$$

• Want to find good points $(x_i)_{i=1}^n$ and then need to work out the w_i ...

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Numerical Integration – Gauss-Legendre

• Gauss-Legendre is call Legendre because it takes the (x_i) to be the roots of the Legendre polynomials.

$$w_i = \frac{2}{(1 - x_i^2)P'_n(x_i)^2}$$

• Recall that they are orthogonal under the L² norm...

Quadrature more general

- More generally, we might want to integrate $\int_{\Omega} f(x)g(x)dx$ for some weighting function g(x). Need to find polynomials that are orthogonal under these weights and on the specified domain
- To solve $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \exp(-x^2)$ use Gauss-Hermite
- In one dimension, this is also pretty simple and well understood
- Look up 'integrate' in matlab

Numerical Integration – higher dimensions

- Polynomial interpolation in higher dimensions is not so clearcut.
- What are good points in weights in \mathbb{R}^d ?
- One possibility is to use the Smolyak points (with appropriate weights that can be looked up).
- For d < 30 dimension monomial rules work extremely well and they are much easier to implement

Monomials rules 1

- Stroud (1971) is the standard reference. See also http://nines.cs.kuleuven.be/research/ecf/ for recent developments and Judd's book for some simple formulas.
- Want to approximate integral by sum. Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^M$ and want

$$\int_{\Omega} g(x)f(x)dx \simeq \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i f(x_i)$$

Define remainder

$$R[f] = \int_{\Omega} g(x)f(x)dx - \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i f(x_i)$$

If R[f] = 0 when f is an arbitrary linear combinations of monomials with degree less than or equal to some d then we say the cubature formula has degree n

Monomials rules 2

- Want to have cubature formulas with relatively few points. The minimal number of points obviously depends on the dimension, on the degree but also on Ω . Often no known (just lower and upper bounds).
- The N points and the weights are a solution of a system of polynomial equations

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} w_i f_l(x^i) = \int_{\Omega} f_k(x) dx$$

where the monomials f_k form a monomial basis. Tough problem



Numerical Integration – higher dimensions

A good rule to use for negative exponential weighting function is the following monomial rule:

$$\begin{split} & \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) e^{-\sum_{i=1}^d x_i^2} dx \approx A f(0) + B \sum_{i=1}^d \left(f(re^i) + f(-re^i) \right) + D \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^d \left(f(se^i + se^j) + f(se^i - se^j) + f(-se^i + se^j) + f(-se^i - se^j) \right), \end{split}$$

with

$$r = \sqrt{1 + d/2}, s = \sqrt{1/2 + d/4}, A = \frac{2\pi^{d/2}}{d+2}, B = \frac{(4 - d)\pi^{d/2}}{2(d+2)^2}$$

$$D = \frac{\pi^{d/2}}{(d+2)^2}.$$