Multivariate approximation

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1 Synonyms

Approximation by functions of several variables

2 Mathematics Subject Classification

41-00,41A63, 65Mxx

3 Short Definition

Approximations of functions are *multivariate*, if they replace functions of $n \ge 2$ variables defined on a domain $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ by simpler or explicitly known or computable functions from a *trial space* of *n*-variate functions.

4 Overview

Multivariate approximation is an extension of \Rightarrow Approximation Theory and \Rightarrow Approximation Algorithms. In general, approximations can be provided via \Rightarrow Interpolation, but this works in the multivariate case only if trial spaces are data-dependent. Consequently, multivariate approximation splits into subfields depending on the chosen trial spaces which in turn are tailored to meet the demands of applications. In all cases, there is a strong dependence on the domain Ω . If Ω is a Cartesian product of univariate domains, e.g. an *n*-dimensional cube or rectangle, one can use tensor products, i.e. sums of products of univariate functions [Light and Cheney(1985)]. In the periodic case, i.e. on a multivariate torus, there are multivariate Fourier series, a special case of tensor products. On the sphere, expansions into spherical harmonics yield useful multivariate approximations with plenty of applications in geophysics. Other special applications in Physics and Engineering may require special multivariate trial functions like plane waves for approximation. In general, \Rightarrow spectral methods [Canuto et al(2006)Canuto, Hussaini, Quarteroni, and Zang, Canuto et al(2007)Canuto, Hussaini, Quarteroni

and pseudo-spectral methods [Fornberg and Sloan(1994), Fornberg(1996)] use

application–adapted multivariate trial functions for solving ordinary or partial differential equations via some form of multivariate approximation.

But there is also a number of multi-purpose trial spaces. They often require a triangulation or mesh of the domain $\Omega \subseteq I\!\!R^n$. If the triangulation is regular in the sense of a net or grid, box splines [de Boor et al(1993)de Boor, Höllig, and Riemenschneider], living on a multi-direction mesh, generalize the well-known univariate \Rightarrow spline functions [de Boor(2001), Schumaker(2007)] which are piecewise polynomial functions. General splines on triangulations are treated in [Lai and Schumaker(2007)]. On grids, and with special applications to imaging, multivariate \Rightarrow wavelets are particularly useful, with a huge literature, e.g. [Cohen(2003), Mallat(2009)].

On general triangulations, and with a vast range of applications in \Rightarrow computational partial differential equations, the \Rightarrow finite element method (FEM) [Babuška et al(2011)Babuška, Whiteman, and Strouboulis, Brenner and Scott(2008)] is the most popular multivariate approximation technique. Via *Cea's Lemma*, the error analysis of FEM techniques for solving elliptic PDEs boils directly down to the error of multivariate approximation to the solution. Various extensions (XFEM, GFEM) enrich the finite element trial spaces by special functions to model phenomena like boundary singularities or crack discontinuities.

Non–Uniform Rational B–Splines, (NURBS, [Farin(1999)]) form vector– valued multivariate trial spaces related to finite elements. They dominate the applications of Computer–Aided Design (CAD, \Rightarrow Geometrical Design) of curves and surfaces in Engineering [Dassault(2012)]. It is a generalization of the Bernstein–Bézier technique (\Rightarrow Bezier Curves and Surfaces) for parametrizing spaces of multivariate polynomials over triangles, rectangles, tetrahedra, or simplices. Here, vector–valued multivariate functions. e.g. complicated 3D surfaces, are approximated by smoothly patching simpler surfaces together.

If users want to work without triangulations, they have to resort to meshfree or \Rightarrow meshless methods [Liu(2003)]. They come in various forms, based on either particles [Li and Liu(2004)] like in \Rightarrow smooth particle hydrodynamics [Liu and Liu(2003)], or on shape functions [Belytschko et al(1996)Belytschko, Krongauz, Organ, Fleming, and Liu(2003)] that generate meshless trial spaces and often form a partition of unity. The shape functions may be generated via *Moving Least Squares* [Levin(1998)] as a per-point calculation, but they can also be provided in explicit form by translates of kernels or \Rightarrow radial basis functions. These techniques provide general tools for handling multivariate scattered data [Wendland(2005), Fasshauer(2007), Schaback and Wendland(2006)] and are connected to pseudospectral and particle methods, since they furnish multivariate approximations from superpositions of smooth global or compactly supported functions (\Rightarrow Spectral collocation methods, \Rightarrow Spectral methods). They are instances of \Rightarrow Reproducing kernel methods and also allow \Rightarrow Fast Multipole Methods [Beatson and Greengard(1997)]. A particularly important application area for such techniques is \Rightarrow Computational Mechanics [Liu(2003)].

5 Algorithms

Numerical methods (\Rightarrow Approximation Algorithms) for multivariate approximation problems arise in many forms, in particular if solutions of partial differential equations are approximated. They range from the classical \Rightarrow Galerkin methods and the Meshless Local Petrov Galerkin approach (MLPG, [Atluri and Shen(2002)]) via all forms of pseudospectral techniques to \Rightarrow finite volume methods and \Rightarrow smooth particle hydrodynamics in fluid dynamics. In most cases, a multivariate function from a suitably parametrized trial space is required to satisfy certain test equations arising from weak formulations using test functions or strong formulations using \Rightarrow Collocation Methods. If there are enough test conditions to identify trial functions uniquely and with additional stability properties, numerical solutions will usually provide an accuracy that is roughly the error of the best approximation of the true solution by functions from the trial space [Schaback(2010)].

By the curse of dimensionality, the \Rightarrow computational complexity of algorithms for multivariate approximation usually grows exponentially with the number of variables, if the required accuracy is fixed. Such problems can only be handled by reducing the degrees of freedom using techniques based on \Rightarrow sparsity. Sparse tensor product methods are connected to sparse grids [Barthelmann et al(2000)Barthelmann, Novak, and Ritter, Bungartz and Griebel(2004)] and hyperbolic cross approximations [Sickel and Ullrich(2009), Döhler et al(2010)Döhler, Kunis, and Potts]. N-term approximation [DeVore(1998)], \Rightarrow wavelets, and \Rightarrow compressive sensing [Donoho(2006), Cohen et al(2009)Cohen, Dahmen, and DeVore] aim at \Rightarrow sparse approximation in general, even if there are only a few independent variables, e.g. when it comes to solve PDEs [Urban(2009), Cohen et al(2010)Cohen, DeVore, and Schwab] or dealing with images. These multivariate approximations are behind modern \Rightarrow data compression algorithms like JPEG 2000 and MPEG-4 for images and videos.

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