High-dimensional approximation

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High dimensional problems

Many problems of computational science, statistics and probability require the approximation, integration or optimization of functions of many variables

$$u(x_1, \ldots, x_d)$$

- High dimensional PDEs (Boltzmann, Schrödinger, Black-Scholes...)
- Multiscale problems
- Parameter-dependent or stochastic equations
- Statistical learning (density estimation, classification, regression)
- Probabilistic modelling
- ...

Outline

Approximation

The goal of approximation is to replace a target function u by a simpler function (easy to evaluate and to operate with).

An approximation is searched in a set of functions X_n, where n is related to some complexity measure, typically the number of parameters.

Approximation

We distinguish

- linear approximation when X_n is a finite-dimensional linear space (polynomials, trigonometric polynomials, fixed knot splines...)

$$X_n = \{\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \varphi_i : a_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

where the φ_i form a basis of X_n.

- nonlinear approximation when X_n is a nonlinear set (rational functions, free knot splines, n-term approximation, neural networks, tensor networks...), e.g.

$$X_n = \{\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \varphi_i : a_i \in \mathbb{R}, \varphi_i \in \mathcal{D}\}$$

for n-term approximation from a dictionary of functions $\mathcal{D}$, or

$$X_n = \{g(a) : a \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

with some given nonlinear map g from $\mathbb{R}^n$ to X.

Error of best approximation

For a given function u from a normed vector space X and a given subset X_n, the error of best approximation

$$e_n(u)_X := E(u, X_n)_X = \inf_{v \in X_n} \|u - v\|_X$$

quantifies the best we can expect from X_n.

Fundamental problems in approximation

For a sequence $(X_n)_{n\geq 1}$ of sets of growing complexity, called an approximation tool, we would like to address the following questions.

- (universality) Does $e_n(u)_X$ converge to 0 for all functions u in X ?
- (expressivity) For a certain class of functions in X, determine how fast $e_n(u)_X$ converges to 0, or determine the complexity $n = n(\epsilon, u)$ such that $e_n(u) \leq \epsilon$. Typically,

  $$e_n(u)_X \leq M\gamma(n)^{-1}$$

  where γ is a strictly increasing function (growth function), and

  $$n(\epsilon, u) \geq \gamma^{-1}(\epsilon/M)$$

- (approximation classes) Characterize the class of functions for which a certain convergence type is achieved, e.g.

  $$\mathcal{A}^{\gamma}(X, (X_n)_{n\geq 1}) = \left\{ u : \sup_{n\geq 1} \gamma(n) e_n(u)_X < +\infty \right\}$$

  for some growth function γ.

Fundamental problems in approximation

- (proximinality) Determine if for all $u \in X$, there exists an element of best approximation $u_n \in X_n$ such that

$$\|u - u_n\|_X = e_n(u)_X.$$

- (algorithm) Construct an approximation $u_n \in X_n$ such that

$$\|u - u_n\|_X \leq C e_n(u)_X$$

with C independent of n or $C(n)e_n(u) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

Algorithms depend on the available information, e.g. given by linear functionals such as point evaluations (interpolation, discrete least-squares), or equations satisfied by the function (variational methods).

Optimal approximation for a model class

If we know that the function u belongs to some model class of functions K, we would like to find an approximation tool X_n presenting a good performance, or even the optimal performance.

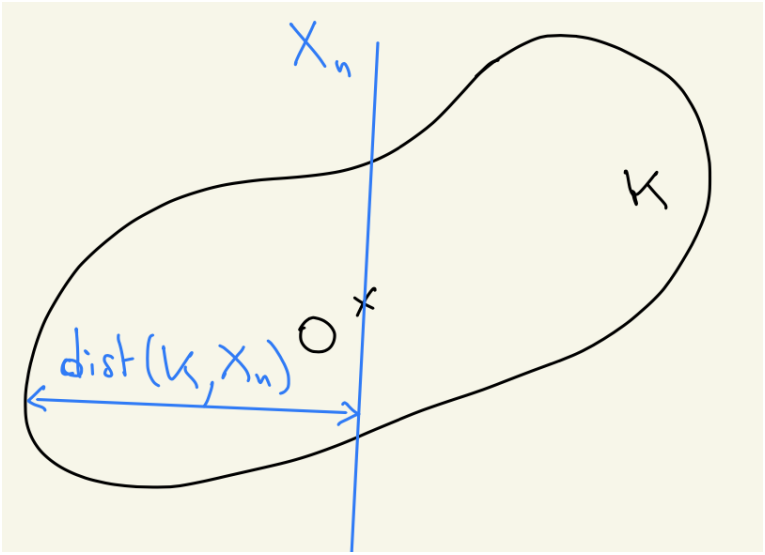
A fundamental problem is to quantify the best we can expect.

For that, we rely on different measures of complexity of K depending on the type of approximation (linear or nonlinear) and possibly on the properties of the approximation process (type of information, stability...)

Optimal linear approximation: Kolmogorov widths

For a compact subset K of a normed vector space X and a n-dimensional space X_n in X, we define the worst-case error

$$dist(K, X_n)_X = \sup_{u \in K} \inf_{v \in X_n} \|u - v\|_X$$

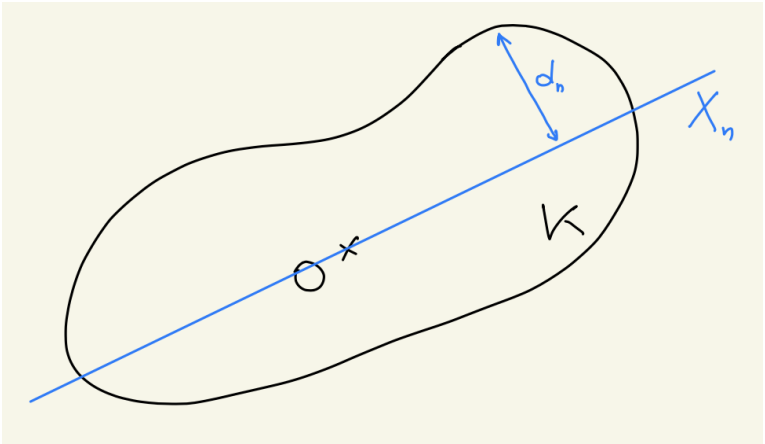


Optimal linear approximation: Kolmogorov widths

Then the Kolmogorov n-width of K is defined as

$$d_n(K)_X = \inf_{dim(X_n)=n} dist(K, X_n)_X$$

where the infimum is taken over all linear subspaces X_n of dimension n.



$d_n(K)_X$ measures how well the set K can be approximated (uniformly) by a n-dimensional space. It measures the ideal performance that we can expect from linear approximation methods.

Optimal linear approximation: weighted Kolmogorov widths

If K is equipped with a probability measure μ, a weighted Kolmogorov n-width is defined by

$$d_n^{(p,\mu)}(K)_X = \inf_{dim(X_n)=n} \left(\int_K E(u, X_n)_X^p d\mu(u) \right)^{1/p}$$

and is such that

$$d_n^{(p,\mu)}(K)_X \leq \mu(K)^{1/p} d_n(K)_X.$$

For X a Hilbert space, $p = 2$ and μ the push-forward measure of a K-valued random variable $U \in L^2(\Omega; X)$, this is equivalent to

$$\inf_{dim(X_n)=n} \mathbb{E}(\|U - P_{X_n} U\|_X^2)^{1/2}$$

and an optimal space is given by Principal Component Analysis, that is a dominant eigenspace of the operator $v \mapsto \mathbb{E}((U, v)_X U)$.

Optimal linear approximation: linear width

Another measure of complexity taking into account the approximation process is the linear width

$$a_n(K)_X = \inf_A \sup_{v \in K} \|v - Av\|_X$$

where the infimum is taken over all continuous linear maps $A : K \to X$ with rank at most n.

Equivalently,

$$a_n(K)_X = \inf_{g,a} \sup_{v \in K} \|v - g(a(v))\|_X$$

where both $a : K \to \mathbb{R}^n$ and $g : \mathbb{R}^n \to X$ are linear maps.

For a general Banach space X,

$$d_n(K)_X \leq a_n(K)_X \leq \sqrt{n} d_n(K)_X$$

Optimal linear approximation: linear width

By restricting the information to pointwise evaluations, we obtain (linear) sampling numbers

$$\rho_n(K)_X = \inf_{g,x_1,\dots,x_n} \sup_{v\in K} \|v - g(v(x_1),\dots,v(x_n))\|_X \geq a_n(K)_X \geq d_n(K)_X$$

Recent results have been obtained for L^2 approximation, comparing sampling numbers with Kolmogorov widths [Temlyakov 2021 ; Nagel, Shafer and Ullrich 2021]: there exists constants c and C such that

$$\rho_{cn}(K)_{L^2} \leq C d_n(K)_{L^\infty}$$

or

$$\rho_{cn}(K)^2_{L^2} \leq C \frac{log(n)}{n} \sum_{k\geq n} d_k(K)^2_{L^2}$$

if we further assume that K is a ball of a reproducing kernel Hilbert space.

Sampling numbers $\rho_n^{rand}(K)_{L^2}$ can also be defined using random samples and averaged mean-squared error, and it holds [Dolbeault and Cohen 2021]

$$\rho_{cn}^{rand}(K)_{L^2} \leq C d_n(K)_{L^2}$$

for some constants c and C.

Bounds of Kolmogorov widths $d_n(K)_X$

Upper bounds for $d_n(K)_X$ can be obtained by specific linear approximation methods. Proofs are sometimes constructive.

Lower bounds for $d_n(K)$ can be obtained using different techniques.

- Using diversity in K:

$$d_n(K)_X \geq d_n(S)_X$$

with S some subset of K whose Kolmogorov width can be bounded from below.

Example: if X is a Hilbert space and K contains a set of orthogonal vectors $S = \{u_1, \ldots, u_m\}$ with norm $\|u_i\|_X = c_m$,

$$d_n(K)_X \geq d_n(S)_X = d_n(c_m B(\ell_1(\mathbb{R}^m)))_{\ell_2} = c_m \sqrt{1 - n/m}$$

where we used the fact that $d_n(S)_X$ is equal to the n-width of the balanced convex hull of S, which is isomorphic to $c_m B(\ell_1(\mathbb{R}^m))$, and a result of Stechkin (1954).

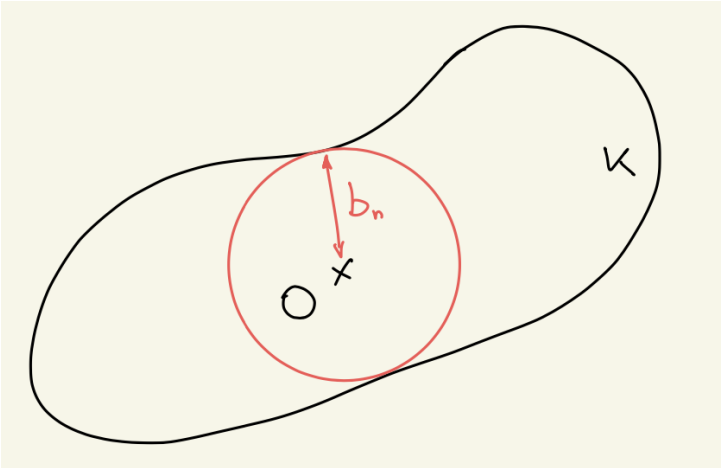
Bounds of Kolmogorov widths $d_n(K)_X$

- Using Bernstein width

$$b_n(K)_X = \sup_{\dim(X_{n+1})=n+1} \sup\{r : rB(X_{n+1}) \subset K\}$$

that is the largest $r > 0$ such that K contains the ball of radius r of some $(n+1)$-dimensional space

$$d_n(K)_X \geq b_n(K)_X$$

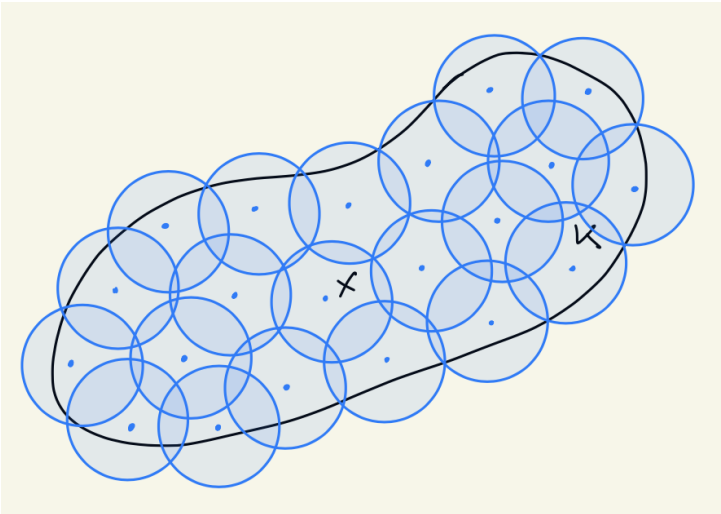


Bounds of Kolmogorov widths $d_n(K)_X$

- Using covering number $N_\epsilon(K)_X$ (minimal number of balls of radius ϵ for covering K) or entropy numbers

$$\epsilon_n(K)_X = \inf\{\epsilon : K \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^n} B(u_i, \epsilon), u_i \in K\} = \inf\{\epsilon : \log_2(N_\epsilon(K)_X) \leq n\}$$

that is the smallest ϵ such that K can be covered by 2^n balls of radius ϵ. Any $u \in K$ can be encoded with n bits up to precision $\epsilon_n(K)$.



Carl's inequality: for all $s > 0$,

$$(n+1)^s \epsilon_n(K)_X \leq C_s \sup_{0 \leq m \leq n} (m+1)^s d_m(K)_X$$

Therefore, if $\epsilon_n(K)_X \gtrsim n^{-s}$, then $d_n(K)_X \lesssim n^{-r}$ can not hold with $r > s$.

Kolmogorov width of Sobolev balls

For $X = L^p(\mathcal{X})$, $\mathcal{X} = [0,1]^d$, $1 \leq p \leq \infty$, and K the unit ball of $W^{k,p}(\mathcal{X})$, it holds

$$d_n(K)_X \sim n^{-k/d}$$

and optimal performance is obtained e.g. by fixed knot splines (with degree adapted to the regularity).

We observe

- the curse of dimensionality : deterioration of the rate of approximation when d increases. Exponential growth with d of the complexity for reaching a given accuracy.
- the blessing of smoothness : improvement of the rate of approximation when k increases.

Kolmogorov width of mixed Sobolev balls

For $X = L^p(\mathcal{X})$, $\mathcal{X} = [0,1]^d$, $1 \leq p \leq \infty$, and K the unit ball of $MW^{k,p}(\mathcal{X})$ (Sobolev space with dominating mixed smoothness), that are functions u such that

$$\max_{|\alpha|_\infty \leq k} \|D^\alpha u\|_{L^p} \leq 1.$$

we have

$$d_n(K)_X \sim n^{-k} \log(n)^{k(d-1)}.$$

with optimal performance achieved by hyperbolic cross approximation (sparse expansion on tensor product of dilated splines) [Dung et al 2016].

Curse of dimensionality is milder but still present.

Optimal nonlinear approximation

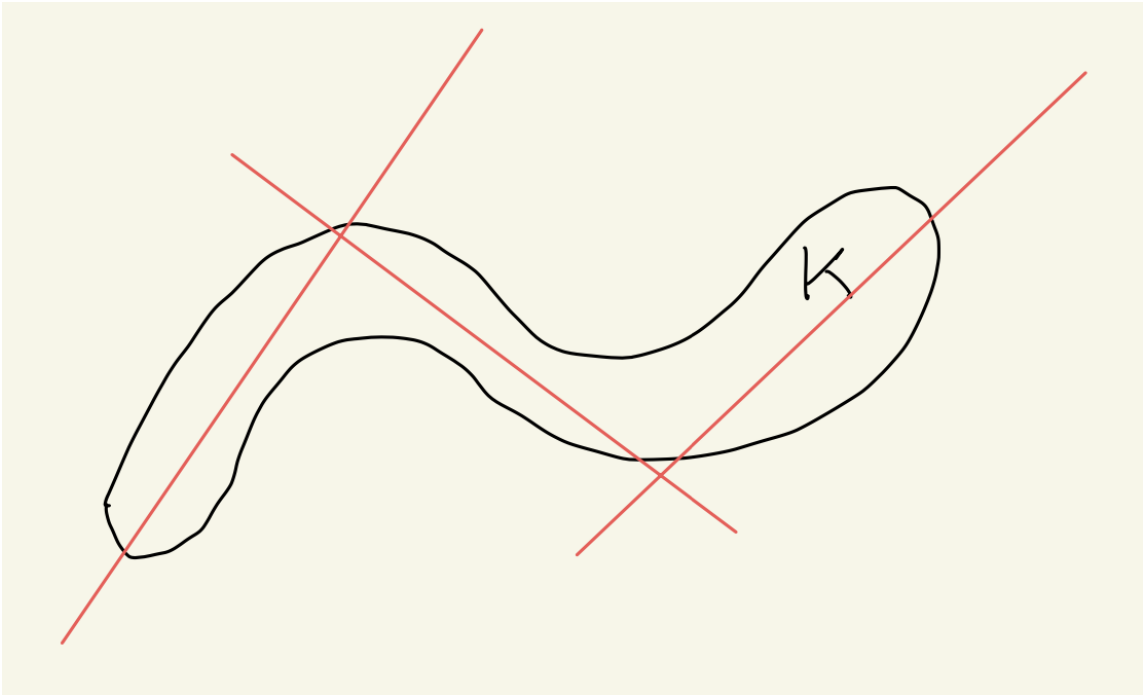
For evaluating the ideal performance of nonlinear methods for the approximation of functions from a class K, different notions of widths have been introduced.

Nonlinear Kolmogorov width

A measure of complexity closely related to n-term approximation and relevant for nonlinear model reduction is the nonlinear Kolmogorov width [Temlyakov 1998] or library width

$$d_n(K, N)_X = \inf_{\#\mathcal{L}_n = N} \sup_{u \in K} \inf_{V_n \in \mathcal{L}_n} e(u, V_n)_X$$

where the infimum is taken over all libraries $\mathcal{L}_n$ of N linear spaces of dimension n.



Choosing $N = N(n)$, this yields a width only depending on n. Interesting regimes are $N(n) = b^n$ or $N(n) = n^{\alpha n}$.

Nonlinear Kolmogorov width

It clearly holds

$$d_1(K, 2^n)_X \leq \epsilon_n(K)_X$$

Also, we have a Carl's type inequality: for all $r > 0$,

$$n^r \epsilon_n(K)_X \leq C(r, b) \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} k^r d_{k-1}(K, b^k)_X.$$

Therefore if for some $b > 0$, $d_{n-1}(K, b^n)_X \lesssim n^{-r}$, then $\epsilon_n(K)_X \lesssim n^{-r}$.

For unit balls K of Besov spaces $B_q^\alpha(L^\tau)$ compactly embedding in $L^p((0,1)^d)$, since $\epsilon_n(K) \gtrsim n^{-\alpha/d}$, we deduce that $d_n(K, b^n)_X \lesssim n^{-\beta}$ can not hold with $\beta > \alpha/d$.

Optimal nonlinear approximation: manifold approximation

Consider the approximation from a n-dimensional "manifold"

$$X_n = \{g(a) : a \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

parametrized by a nonlinear map $g : \mathbb{R}^n \to X$. We could consider the problem of finding the best manifold of dimension n for approximating functions from K:

$$\inf_{g} \sup_{u \in K} \inf_{a \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|u - g(a)\|_X := \eta_n$$

where the infimum is taken among all maps g from $\mathbb{R}^n$ to X.

For any compact set K, $\eta_n = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$. Indeed, K admits a countable dense subset $\{u_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ (space-filling manifold). For $n = 1$, letting $g(a) = u_k$ for $a \in [k, k+1)$, we obtain $\eta_1 = 0$.

We can even provide a continuous parametrization, by considering a dense subset $\{u_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ and $g(a) = (a-k)u_{k+1} + (k+1-a)u_k$ for $a \in [k, k+1]$.

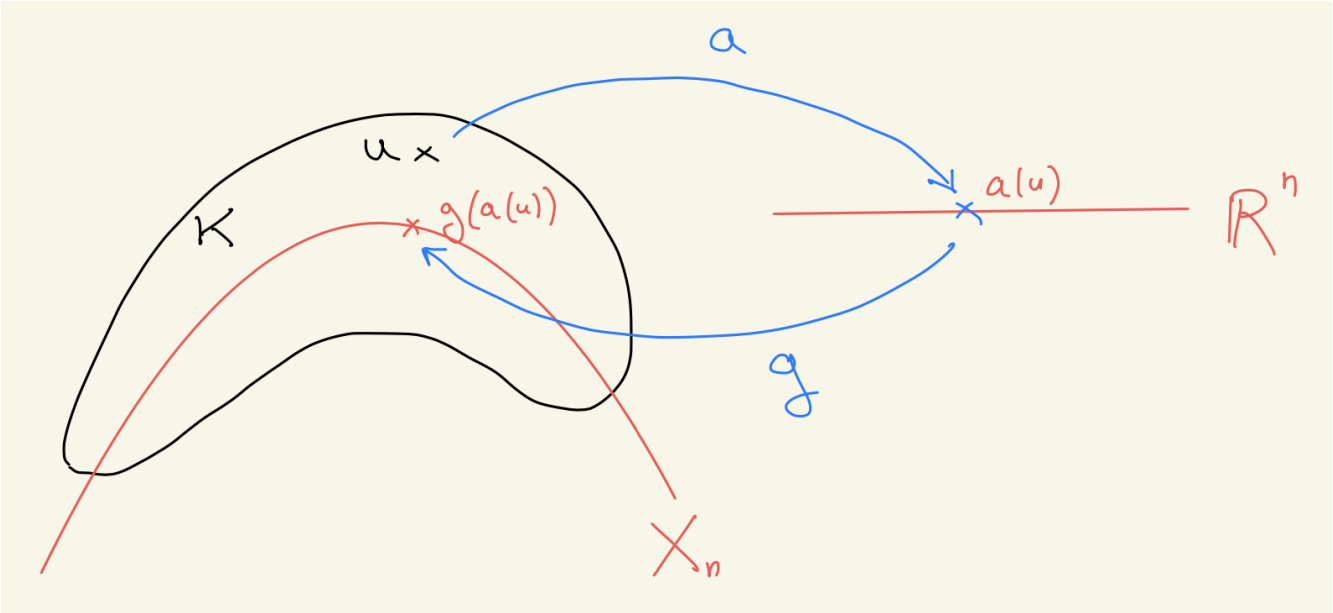
In general, the map which associates to $u \in K$ the coefficients $a(u)$ of its best approximation (if it exists) is not continuous, which makes the approximation process not reasonable.

Optimal nonlinear approximation: manifold width

The following definition of manifold width [DeVore, Howard, Michelli 1989] quantifies how well the set K can be approximated by n-dimensional nonlinear manifolds having continuous parametrization and a continuous parameter selection

$$\delta_n(K)_X = \inf_{g,a} \sup_{u \in K} \|u - g(a(u))\|_X$$

where the infimum is taken over all continuous functions a from K to $\mathbb{R}^n$ and all continuous functions g from $\mathbb{R}^n$ to K.



As for linear widths, the manifold width is lower bounded by the Bernstein width

$$\delta_n(K)_X \geq b_n(K)_X.$$

Manifold width of Sobolev balls

For $X = L^p(\mathcal{X})$, $\mathcal{X} = [0,1]^d$, and K the unit ball of Sobolev spaces $W^{s,q}$ or Besov spaces $B^s_q(L^\tau)$ which compactly embed in L^p

$$\delta_n(K)_X \sim n^{-s/d}$$

Rate $O(n^{-s/d})$ is achieved for a larger class of functions than for linear methods (functions with regularity measured in norms weaker than L^p) .

Optimal performance is achieved by free knot splines or best n-term approximation with a dictionary of tensor products of dilated splines.

Again, we observe the curse of dimensionality, which can not be avoided by such nonlinear methods.

Could extra regularity help ?

Consider $X = L^\infty(\mathcal{X})$ with $\mathcal{X} = [0,1]^d$ and

$$K = \{v \in C^\infty([0,1]^d) : \sup_\alpha \|D^\alpha u\|_{L^\infty} < \infty\},$$

It holds

$$K \subset B(W^{sd,\infty}) \quad \forall s > 0,$$

so that for all $s > 0$

$$d_n(K)_{L^\infty} \lesssim n^{-s}.$$

However,

$$\min\{n : d_n(K)_{L^\infty} \leq 1/2\} \geq c2^{d/2}.$$

The curse of dimensionality is still present.

Could extra regularity help ?

Consider the information based complexity measure of K

$$\delta_n^L(K)_{L^\infty} = \inf_{g,a} \sup_{u \in K} \|u - g(a(u))\|_{L^\infty} \leq a_n(L)_{L^\infty}$$

where the infimum is taken over all linear maps $a : K \to \mathbb{R}^n$ that extract n linear information $a_1(u), \ldots a_n(u)$ from a function $u \in K$ (possibly selected adaptively) and over all nonlinear maps g.

It holds [Novak and Wozniakowski 2009]

$$\delta_n^L(K)_{L^\infty} = 1 \quad \text{for all } n = 0, 1, \ldots, 2^{\lfloor d/2 \rfloor} - 1$$

or

$$\min\{n : \delta_n^L(K)_{L^\infty} < 1\} \geq 2^{\lfloor d/2 \rfloor}$$

Nonlinear methods can not help...

More assumptions of model classes K are needed...

Parameter dependent PDEs

Consider a parameter-dependent equation

$$\mathcal{P}(u(y); y) = 0, \quad u(y) \in X$$

with $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ some parameter.

The objective is to approximate the solution manifold (model reduction methods)

$$K = \{u(y) : y \in \mathcal{Y}\}$$

or to approximate explicitly the solution map $y \mapsto u(y)$.

As an example, consider the elliptic diffusion equation on a convex domain $D \subset \mathbb{R}^d$

$$-div(a(y)\nabla u(y)) = f$$

with $f \in H^{-1}$, $0 < \underline{a} \leq a(y) \leq \overline{a} < \infty$, and homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions.

The solutions

$$u(y) \in H_0^1 := X.$$

Parameter dependent PDEs

- Assuming $f \in L^2$, we know that K is in some ball of $H^2(D)$, so that

$$d_n(K)_{H^1} \lesssim n^{-1/d}$$

with optimal performance achieved by splines (finite elements with uniform mesh).

- If $a(y) = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m a_i y_i$ with $(\|a_i\|_{L^\infty})_{i\geq 1} \in \ell_p$ for some $p > 1$, then

$$d_n(K)_{H^1} \leq C n^{-s}, \quad s = p^{-1} - 1$$

with constant C independent of d (no curse of dimensionality).

These rates are achieved by sparse polynomial expansions of $y \mapsto u(y)$, exploiting anisotropic analyticity of the solution map.

- More generally, letting $\mathcal{A} = \{a(y) : y \in \mathcal{Y}\}$, we have [Cohen and DeVore 2015]

$$\sup_{n\geq 1} n^s d_n(K)_{H^1} \lesssim \sup_{n\geq 1} n^r d_n(\mathcal{A})_{L^\infty}, \quad \forall s < r - 1.$$

- Optimal spaces X_n are data-dependent. Almost optimal spaces can be constructed using greedy algorithms (reduced basis methods) or sparse polynomial expansions.

- Similar results between nonlinear widths $\delta_n(K)_{H^1}$ and $\delta_n(\mathcal{A})_{L^q}$.

How to beat the curse of dimensionality ?

- No (reasonable) approximation tool is able to overcome the curse of dimensionality for standard regularity classes.
- The key is to make more assumptions on model classes of functions and to provide ad-hoc approximation tools .
- We would like flexible approximation tools that perform well for a wide range of applications (i.e. with sufficiently rich approximation classes)

Classical tools for high-dimensional approximation

- Polynomial models

$$\sum_{\alpha \in \Lambda} a_\alpha x^\alpha$$

  where $\Lambda \subset \mathbb{N}^d$ is a set of multi-indices, either fixed (linear approximation) or free (nonlinear approximation).

- More general expansions

$$\sum_{\alpha \in \Lambda} a_\alpha \psi_\alpha(x)$$

  with $\psi_\alpha(x) = \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \dots \psi_{\alpha_d}(x_d)$.

Additive and multiplicative models

- Additive models

$$u_1(x_1) + \ldots + u_d(x_d)$$

or more generally

$$\sum_{\alpha \subset \Lambda} u_\alpha(x_\alpha)$$

where $\Lambda \subset 2^{\{1,\ldots,d\}}$ is either fixed (linear approximation) or a free parameter (nonlinear approximation).

- Multiplicative models

$$u_1(x_1) \ldots u_d(x_d)$$

or more generally

$$\prod_{\alpha \in \Lambda} u_\alpha(x_\alpha)$$

where $\Lambda \subset 2^{\{1,\ldots,d\}}$ is either a fixed or a free parameter.

Separation of variables and tensor networks

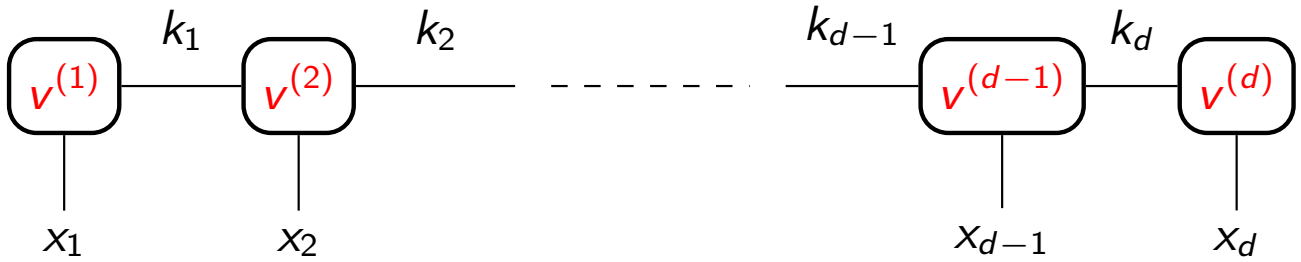
- Sum of multiplicative models (canonical tensor format)

$$\sum_{k=1}^{r} v^{(1)}(x_1, k) \dots v^{(d)}(x_d, k)$$

that is a r-term approximation from the dictionary of separated functions.

- Tensor train (Matrix Product State)

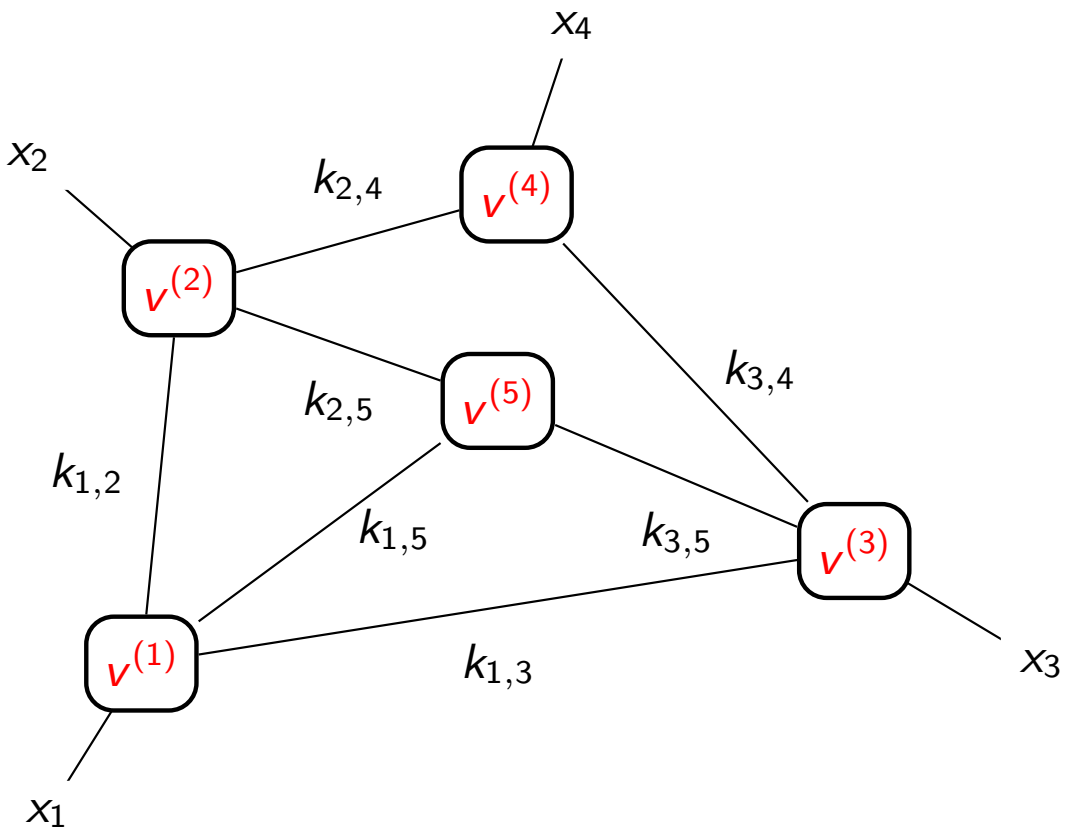
$$v(x) = \sum_{k_1=1}^{r_1} \dots \sum_{k_{d-1}=1}^{r_{d-1}} v^{(1)}(x_1, k_1) v^{(2)}(k_1, x_2, k_2) \dots v^{(d)}(k_{d-1}, x_d).$$



It is a particular case of tensor networks.

Separation of variables and tensor networks

- Tensor networks associated with general graphs



Composition of functions

$$f(g(x))$$

with $g : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^m$ and $f : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$.

g can be seen as a map that extracts m features $g(x)$ (new variables) from an input x, that can be fixed (application-dependent) or free.

For linear maps $g(x) = Ax$, this corresponds to ridge approximation

$$f(Ax), \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$$

Different regimes

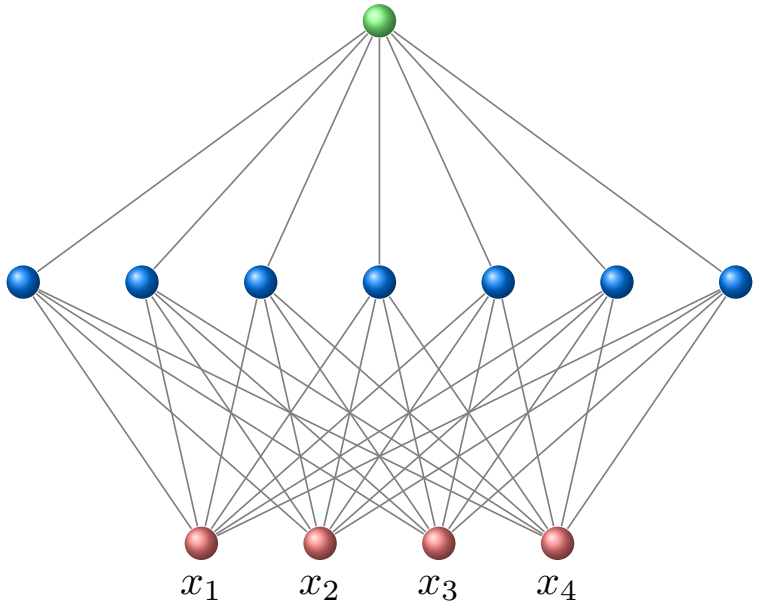
- small m, g performs a dimension reduction and f is a low-dimensional function.
- large m, g extracts many features and f is expected to be simple, e.g. linear or additive.

Neural networks

A shallow neural network (with one hidden layer of width m) is a ridge function

$$a^T \sigma(Ax + b) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i \sigma(\sum_{j=1}^{d} A_{ij} x_j + b_i)$$

where σ is a given function (activation function).



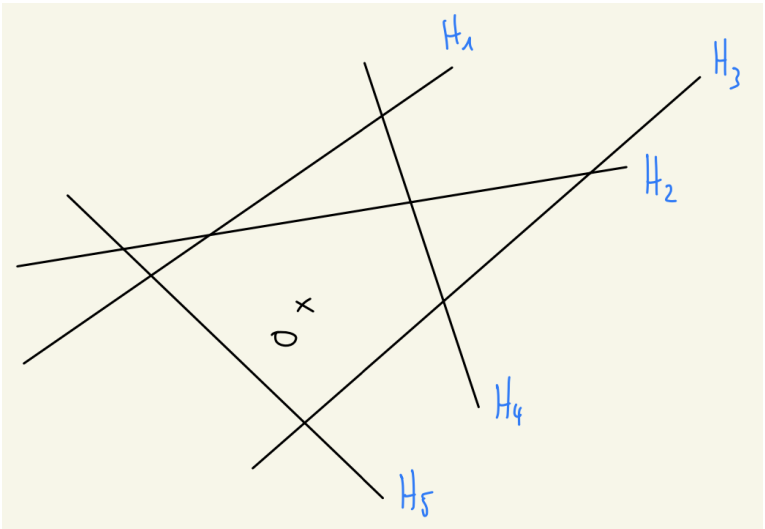
Neural networks

Classical piecewise polynomial activation functions

- ReLU function $\sigma(t) = \langle t \rangle_+ = \max\{0, t\}$
- RePU(p) function $\sigma(t) = \langle t \rangle_+^p = \max\{0, t\}^p$

ReLU and RePU networks produce a piecewise polynomial approximation (spline) on a free partition of $\mathbb{R}^d$ determined by m hyperplanes

$$H_i = \{x : w_i{}^T x + b_i = 0\}, \quad w_i = (A_{ij})_{j=1}^d \in \mathbb{R}^d$$



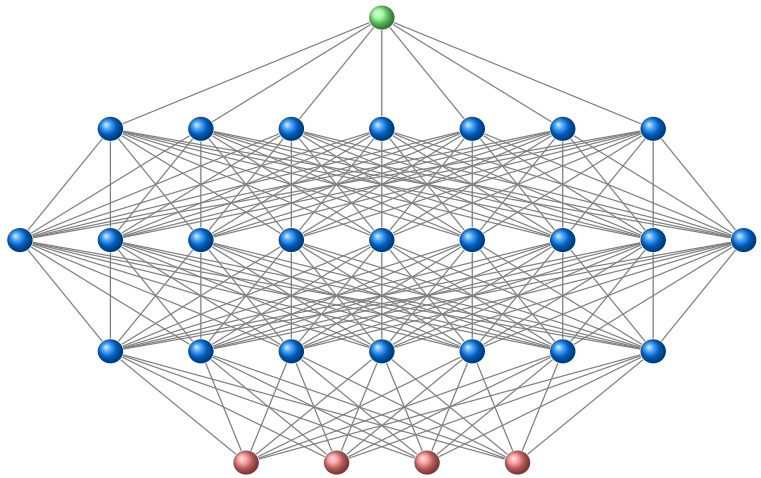
Deep neural networks

$$T_L \circ \sigma \circ T_{L-1} \circ \ldots \circ T_1 \circ \sigma \circ T_0(x)$$

with $T_\ell : \mathbb{R}^{m_\ell} \to \mathbb{R}^{m_{\ell+1}}$ an affine linear map

$$T_\ell(x) = A_\ell x + b_\ell$$

and $(m_1, \ldots, m_L) \in \mathbb{N}^L$ with $m_0 = d$, $m_{L+1} = 1$.



For ReLU or RePU(p) activation function σ, the approximation is a piecewise polynomial on a free partition with a number of domains growing exponentially with depth L.

Approximation tools based on neural networks

Different approximation tools $(X_n)_{n\geq 1}$ can be defined depending on which parameters are free (possible architectures) and how complexity is measured.

Letting $\Phi_{L,m}$ be the class of neural networks with depth L and widths $m = (m_1, \ldots, m_L)$, we define

$$X_n = \{v \in \Phi_{L,m} : L \in \mathcal{L}, m \in \mathcal{M}_L, compl(v) \leq n\}$$

where *compl* is a complexity measure, $\mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{N}$ is the set of possible depths and $\mathcal{M}_L \subset \mathbb{N}^L$ the set of possible widths.

Two typical classes of architectures

- Fixed depth L and free width:

$$\mathcal{L} = \{L\}, \quad \mathcal{M}_L = \{(W, \ldots, W) : W \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

- Free depth and fixed width W:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathbb{N}, \quad \mathcal{M}_L = \{(W, \ldots, W)\}$$

Approximation tools based on neural networks

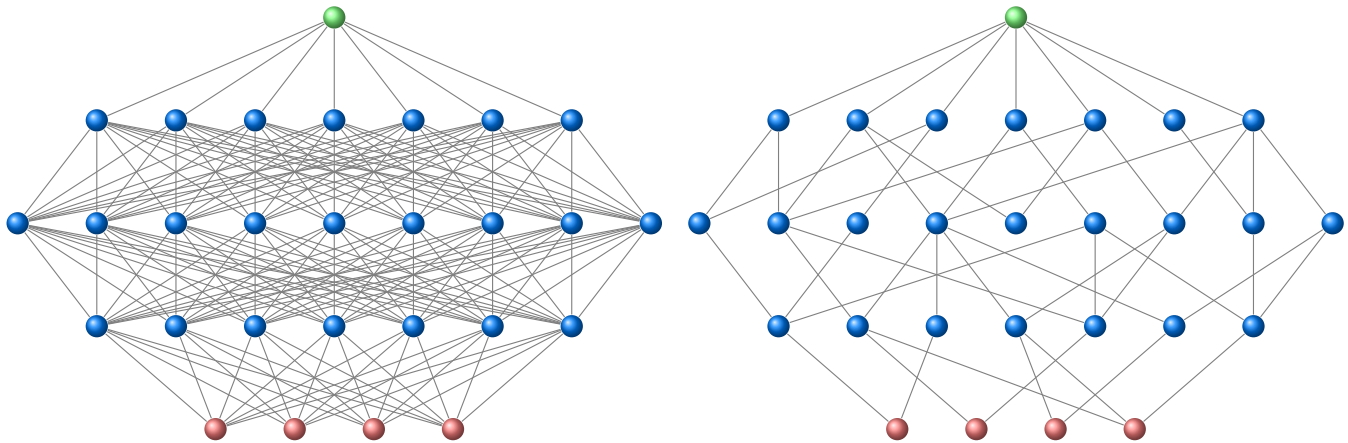
For a function v in the class $\Phi_{L,m}$ of neural networks with depth L and widths $m = (m_1, \ldots, m_L)$, different measures of complexity:

- number of parameters (fully connected networks)

$$compl_F(v) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{L} m_\ell m_{\ell+1} + m_{\ell+1} \sim W^2 L \text{ for } m_\ell \sim W$$

- number of non-zero parameters (sparsely connected networks)

$$compl_S(v) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{L} \|A_\ell\|_0 + \|b_\ell\|_0$$



Fully connected networks (left) and Sparsely connected network (right).

Structured sparsity can be imposed (convolutional NN, recurrent NN...) or sparsity pattern can be considered as a free parameter (a challenge on the algorithmic side).

Deep neural networks approximation theory

Many recent results on the expressivity of deep neural networks for various model classes.

- Approximation classes of deep neural networks (free depth and fixed width) are larger than those of shallow networks (fixed depth and free width) [DeVore et al 2020].
- Deep neural networks are (almost) as expressive as many classical approximation tools (polynomials, splines, B-splines...).
- They achieve (near to) optimal performance for functions from classical smoothness classes (isotropic or anisotropic Sobolev, Besov, analytic functions...).

  For functions u in $W^{s,\infty}((0,1)^d)$, ReLU networks achieve

  $$e_n(u)_{L^\infty} \lesssim n^{-d/s}$$

  with continuous parameter selection.
- Approximation classes of deep ReLU networks are not embedded in standard smoothness classes [Gribonval et al 2021]
- They approximate efficiently functions beyond smoothness classes (discontinuous functions, fractals, refinable functions...)

Deep neural networks approximation theory

A few surprises

- For functions u in the unit ball K of $W^{s,\infty}((0,1)^d)$, ReLU networks with free depth can achieve
$$e_n(u)_{L^\infty} \lesssim n^{-p} \quad \text{for arbitrary } p \leq 2s/d.$$
However, since the manifold width $\delta_n(K)_{L^\infty} \gtrsim n^{-s/d}$, a rate $p > s/d$ can be achieved only with discontinuous parameter selection. Also, it requires an encoding of parameters with more than $O(\log_2(\epsilon^{-1}))$ bits to achieve accuracy ϵ.
- Approximation classes of deep networks contain functions that could in principle be approximated without the curse of dimensionality but require in practice an exponential quantity of information. That is the theory to practice gap [Grohs and Voigtlaender 2021].

Open problems

- Characterize the functions that can be approximated stably with deep networks.
- Characterize functions that can be estimated with partial information and near optimal performance.
- Provide algorithms that achieve near to optimal performance.

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