

## A New Interpolation Approach and Corresponding Instance-Based Learning

**Authors:** Lian Shiyou, Lian Shiyou

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### Abstract

Starting from the problem of finding approximate values of functions, this work introduces a measure of approximation degree between two numerical values, proposes the concepts of ‘strict approximation’ and ‘strict approximation region’, derives corresponding one-dimensional interpolation methods and formulas, and presents a calculation model called the ‘sum-times-difference formula’ for high-dimensional interpolation, thereby developing a novel interpolation approach—ADB interpolation. ADB interpolation has been applied to real-world function interpolation with satisfactory results. From both theoretical and practical perspectives, this interpolation approach offers novel concepts and possesses several advantages, including computational simplicity, stable accuracy, facilitation of parallel processing, suitability for high-dimensional interpolation, and easy extensibility to vector-valued function interpolation. By applying this approach to instance-based learning, a novel instance-based learning method—learning using ADB interpolation—is obtained. This learning method features unique techniques and offers advantages such as a solid mathematical foundation, implicit distance weighting, misclassification avoidance, high efficiency, broad applicability, and interpretability. In principle, this method represents a form of learning by analogy, which can complement deep learning—a paradigm belonging to inductive learning. For certain problems, the two approaches can even achieve an effect of ‘different paths leading to the same result’ within big data and cloud computing environments. Thus, learning using ADB interpolation can be regarded as a form of ‘wide learning’ that serves as a dual to deep learning.

### Full Text

### Preamble

### A New Interpolation Approach and Corresponding Instance-Based Learning

Shiyou Lian [0000–0002–7569–1438]  
Xi'an Shiyou University, Xi'an, China  
sylian@xsyu.edu.cn

**Abstract.** Starting from the problem of finding approximate values of functions, this paper introduces a measure of approximation-degree between two numerical values and proposes the concepts of “strict approximation” and “strict approximation region.” It then derives corresponding one-dimensional interpolation methods and formulas, and presents a calculation model called the “sum-times-difference formula” for high-dimensional interpolation, thereby developing a new interpolation approach—ADB interpolation. ADB interpolation is applied to actual function interpolation with satisfactory results. From both principle and effect perspectives, this interpolation approach features novel ideas and offers advantages including simple computation, stable accuracy, facilitation of parallel processing, suitability for high-dimensional interpolation, and easy extension to vector-valued function interpolation. Applying this approach to instance-based learning yields a new instance-based learning method—learning using ADB interpolation. This learning method employs unique techniques and possesses advantages such as a definite mathematical basis, implicit distance weights, avoidance of misclassification, high efficiency, wide applicability, and interpretability. In principle, this method represents a form of learning by analogy, which can complement deep learning (which belongs to inductive learning), and for some problems, the two can even achieve an effect of “different approaches but equal results” in big data and cloud computing environments. Thus, learning using ADB interpolation can also be regarded as a kind of “wide learning” that is dual to deep learning.

**Keywords:** Approximation-Degree · Interpolation · Strict Approximation · Sum-Times-Difference Formula · Instance-Based Learning · Wide Learning

## 1 Introduction

Instance-based learning [1,2] is also called the nonparametric approach [3,4]. Instead of establishing a global model of sample data, this approach uses sample data to perform direct interpolation to achieve objective function approximation. Examples serve as experience and specific manifestations of general rules. From a cognitive perspective, instance-based learning is closer to human learning, making it meaningful to endow machines with this learning capability. Instance-based learning has been studied for a long time, yielding many achievements (such as the k-nearest neighbor algorithm, distance-weighted nearest neighbor algorithm, and locally weighted regression algorithm), but problems and shortcomings remain (such as high-dimensional interpolation and misclassification issues). Therefore, instance-based learning and its corresponding interpolation techniques still require continued research and development. On the other hand, current big data and cloud computing environments undoubtedly provide strong support for instance-based learning while also opening new avenues for demonstrating its prowess.

Inspired by the approximate evaluation methods for flexible linguistic functions [5,6] in reference [7], this paper introduces a measure of approximation-degree between numerical values to study the approximate evaluation of numerical functions, and then explores new interpolation approaches based on approximation-degree and corresponding instance-based learning methods.

## 2 Approximation-Degree, Strict Approximation and Strict Approximation Region

**Definition 2.1.** Let  $\mathbb{R}$  be the real number field,  $x_0 \in [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$ , and  $[\alpha_0, \beta_0] \subset [a, b]$  be a neighborhood of  $x_0$ , which is called the approximation region of  $x_0$ . For  $\forall x \in [a, b]$ , we say  $x$  is approximate to  $x_0$  if and only if  $x \in [\alpha_0, \beta_0]$ .

**Definition 2.2.** Let  $\mathbb{R}^n$  be the  $n$ -dimensional real vector space,  $U = [a_1, b_1] \times [a_2, b_2] \times \cdots \times [a_n, b_n] \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\mathbf{x}_0 = (x_{10}, x_{20}, \dots, x_{n0}) \subset U$ . For  $\forall \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \subset U$ , we say  $\mathbf{x}$  is strictly approximate to  $\mathbf{x}_0$  if and only if components  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  of  $\mathbf{x}$  are approximate to components  $x_{10}, x_{20}, \dots, x_{n0}$  of  $\mathbf{x}_0$ , respectively, i.e.,  $x_i \in [\alpha_i, \beta_i] \subset [a_i, b_i]$  (where  $[\alpha_i, \beta_i]$  is the approximation region of  $x_{i0}$ ),  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ; and the “square” region  $[\alpha_1, \beta_1] \times [\alpha_2, \beta_2] \times \cdots \times [\alpha_n, \beta_n] \subset U$  is called the strict approximation region of  $\mathbf{x}_0$ .

In contrast to the strict approximation region in Definition 2.2, we refer to the “circular” region centered on point  $\mathbf{x}_0$  as the ordinary approximation region of  $\mathbf{x}_0 \subset U$ . The relation between the strict approximation region and the ordinary approximation region of the same (2D) point  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is shown in Fig. 2 [Figure 2: see original paper].<sup>1</sup> The illustration also shows the relationship between strict approximation and ordinary approximation. In fact, reference [8] has stated: the geometric meaning of “close to point  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ ” is different from that of “close to  $x_1$  and close to  $x_2, \dots$ , and close to  $x_n$ ”.

*Fig. 2.1. An illustration of the relation between strict approximation region and ordinary approximation region. Where the square region is the strict approximation region of point  $\mathbf{x}_0$ , and the circular region is its ordinary approximation region.*

**Definition 2.3.** Let  $\mathbb{R}$  be the real number field,  $x_0 \in [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$ , and  $[\alpha_0, \beta_0] \subset [a, b]$  be the approximation region of  $x_0$ . Set

$$A_{x_0}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{x_0 - x}{x_0 - \alpha_0} = \frac{x - \alpha_0}{x_0 - \alpha_0}, & x \in [\alpha_0, x_0] \\ 1 - \frac{x - x_0}{\beta_0 - x_0} = \frac{x - \beta_0}{x_0 - \beta_0}, & x \in [x_0, \beta_0] \end{cases} \quad (2.1)$$

to be called the degree of approximation, shortened as approximation-degree, of  $x$  to  $x_0$ . We call the function relation defined by Equation (2.1) the approximation-degree function of  $x_0$ .

### 3 Approximate Evaluation of Functions Based on Approximation-Degree

#### 3.1 Finding Approximate Value of a Univariate Function Based on Approximation-Degree

Let  $\mathbb{R}$  be the real number field,  $U = [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$ ,  $V = [c, d] \subset \mathbb{R}$ , and  $y = f(x)$  be a continuous function relation from  $U$  to  $V$ . Under the condition that a pair  $(x_0, y_0)$  of corresponding values of function  $y = f(x)$  and  $x'$  approximate to  $x_0$  are known, find the approximate value of  $f(x')$ .

Let the approximation region of  $x_0$  be  $[a_1, b_1] \subset [a, b]$ . According to the definition of the approximation-degree function above, the approximation-degree function of  $x_0$  is

$$A_{x_0}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x-a_1}{x_0-a_1}, & x \in [a_1, x_0] \\ \frac{x-b_1}{x_0-b_1}, & x \in [x_0, b_1] \end{cases} \quad (3.1)$$

And let the approximation region of  $y_0$  be  $[c_1, d_1] \subset [c, d]$ , the approximation-degree function of  $y_0$  is

$$A_{y_0}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{y-c_1}{y_0-c_1}, & y \in [c_1, y_0] \\ \frac{y-d_1}{y_0-d_1}, & y \in [y_0, d_1] \end{cases} \quad (3.2)$$

It can be seen that the range of approximation-degree function  $A_{x_0}(x)$  is  $[0, 1]$  and which is also reversible. In fact, it's easy to obtain that

$$A_{y_0}(y)^{-1} = \begin{cases} d_y(y_0 - c_1) + c_1, & d_y \in [0, 1] \\ d_y(y_0 - d_1) + d_1, & d_y \in [0, 1] \end{cases} \quad (3.3)$$

where  $d_y$  is the approximation-degree of  $y$  to  $y_0$ .

Now we find the approximation-degree  $A_{x_0}(x')$ , and then set  $A_{y_0}(y') = A_{x_0}(x')$  (that is, transmitting the approximation-degree of  $x'$  (to  $x_0$ ) to  $y'$  (to  $y_0$ )). Further, we derive the required approximate value of  $y'$  from approximation-degree  $A_{y_0}(y')$  and inverse function  $A_{y_0}(y)^{-1}$  of approximation-degree function of  $A_{y_0}(y)$ .

It can be seen that the inverse function  $A_{y_0}(y)^{-1}$  of  $A_{y_0}(y)$  is a piecewise function, which has two parallel expressions. Thus, substituting approximation-degree  $A_{y_0}(y') = d$  into  $A_{y_0}(y)^{-1}$ , we can get two  $y$  values ( $y_1$  and  $y_2$ ). Then, which  $y$  should be chosen as the desired approximate value of the function?

Obviously, the desired  $y$  is related to the position of  $x'$  relative to  $x_0$  and the trend (i.e., being increasing, decreasing, or constant) of  $f(x)$  near  $x_0$ . Thus, we have the following ideas and techniques:

- (1) Consider the derivative  $f'(x_0)$  of the function  $f(x)$  at point  $x_0$ . If the derivative  $f'(x_0)$  is known, we can estimate the trend of  $f(x)$  near  $x_0$  according to whether  $f'(x_0)$  is positive, negative, or zero, and then determine the choice of  $y'$ 's value.
- (2) Consider whether there is a point  $x^*$  on the  $x'$  side near the point  $x_0$  (which does not exceed the approximation region of  $x_0$ ), whose corresponding function value  $f(x^*) = y^*$  is known. If there is such a point  $x^*$ , we can estimate the trend of  $f(x)$  between  $x_0$  and  $x^*$  by utilizing the size relation between the corresponding  $y^*$  and  $y_0$ , and then determine the choice of  $y'$ 's value. For instance, when  $x^* < x' < x_0$ , if  $y^* < y_0$ , this shows that the general trend of function  $f(x)$  is increasing on the subinterval  $(x^*, x_0)$ , thus  $y_1$  (the value less than  $y_0$ ) should be chosen; while if  $y^* > y_0$ , this shows that the general trend of function  $f(x)$  is decreasing on the subinterval  $(x^*, x_0)$ , thus  $y_2$  (the value larger than  $y_0$ ) should be chosen.
- (3) If the derivative  $f'(x_0)$  is unknown and there is no such reference point  $x^*$ , take the average  $(y_1 + y_2)/2$  or take  $y_0$  directly as the approximate value of  $f(x')$ .

Due to space limitations, in the following, we only discuss the second method further, and use the third method for classification problems. As for the first method, it will be introduced in another article.

### 3.2 Finding Approximate Value of a Multivariate Function Based on Approximation-Degree

Let's take a function of two variables as an example to discuss this problem.

Let  $z = f(x, y)$  be a function (relation) from  $[a_1, b_1] \times [a_2, b_2]$  to  $[c, d]$ . Suppose a pair of corresponding values  $((x_0, y_0), z_0)$  of function  $z = f(x, y)$  and point  $(x', y')$  approximate to point  $(x_0, y_0)$  are known. In the case that the expression of function  $f(x, y)$  is unknown or not used, find the approximate value of  $f(x', y')$ .

By the definition of strict approximation,  $(x', y')$  approximate to  $(x_0, y_0)$  is equivalent to  $x'$  approximate to  $x_0$  and  $y'$  approximate to  $y_0$ . Thus, we can find the approximate values  $z_x$  and  $z_y$  of functions  $f(x, y_0)$  and  $f(x_0, y)$  at points  $x'$  and  $y'$ , respectively. It can be seen that these are actually two approximate evaluation problems of univariate functions. Thus, we further imagine that if there are respectively adjacent points  $(x^*, y_0)$  and  $(x_0, y^*)$  in the  $x$ -direction and  $y$ -direction of point  $(x_0, y_0)$ , as shown in Fig. 3 [Figure 3: see original paper].<sup>1</sup>, whose corresponding function values  $f(x^*, y_0)$  and  $f(x_0, y^*)$  are known, then the approximate value  $z_x$  of  $f(x', y_0)$  can be obtained by utilizing  $f(x^*, y_0)$ , and the approximate value  $z_y$  of  $f(x_0, y')$  can be obtained by utilizing  $f(x_0, y^*)$ , just like in the previous univariate function case. Thus, we first get separately the approximation-degrees  $A_{x_0}(x')$  and  $A_{y_0}(y')$ , then set  $A_{z_0}(z) = A_{x_0}(x')$  and  $A_{z_0}(z) = A_{y_0}(y')$ ; and then, substitute them separately into inverse function

$A_{z_0}(z)^{-1}$  of  $A_{z_0}(z)$  and get two pairs of candidate approximations, then taking separately  $f(x^*, y_0)$  and  $f(x_0, y^*)$  as references, choose  $z_x$  and  $z_y$  from respective candidate values (as shown in Fig. 3.1).

Having obtained the approximate values  $z_x$  and  $z_y$ , how can we further get the approximate value  $z$  we need?

Let  $z_1 = (z_x + z_y)/2$  be the average of  $z_x$  and  $z_y$ . It can be seen from Fig. 3.2 that  $z_1$  can actually be viewed as an approximate value of  $f(x, y)$  at the midpoint (denoted by  $(x_1, y_1)$ ) between  $(x', y_0)$  and  $(x_0, y')$ . We can see from the figure that  $z_1 < z_0$ , i.e., the varying trend of function values from  $z_0$  to  $z_1$  is decreasing. Set  $z_0 - z_1 = c_1$  ( $c_1$  is the length of segment BC in Fig. 3.3(a)), then  $z_1 = z_0 - c_1$ . According to the varying trend of function values from  $z_0$  to  $z_1$  (i.e., the slope of segment AB in Fig. 3.3(a)), and also taking into account that point  $(x_1, y_1)$  is just the midpoint of the segment joining points  $(x', y')$  and  $(x_0, y_0)$ , that is,  $(x', y') - (x_0, y_0) = 2(x_1, y_1) - (x_0, y_0)$ , we infer that the approximate value of the function at point  $(x', y')$  can be  $z_0 - 2c_1$  (as shown in Fig. 3.3(a)). Thus, it follows that

$$z = z_0 - 2c_1 = z_0 - 2(z_0 - z_1) = z_0 - 2[z_0 - (z_x + z_y)/2] = z_x + z_y - z_0$$

*Fig. 3.1. Utilizing the values of the function at points  $(x^*, y_0)$  and  $(x_0, y^*)$  to determine the approximate values of  $f(x', y_0)$  and  $f(x_0, y')$ , respectively*

Of course,  $z_1$  may also be greater than  $z_0$  or equal to  $z_0$ . If  $z_1 > z_0$ , then the varying trend of function values from  $z_0$  to  $z_1$  is increasing (as shown in Fig. 3.3(b)). Set  $z_1 - z_0 = c_2$  ( $c_2$  is the length of segment BC in Fig. 3.3(b)), then  $z_1 = z_0 + c_2$ . Then, according to the varying trend of function values from  $z_0$  to  $z_1$  (i.e., the slope of segment AB in Fig. 3.3(b)), we infer that the value of the function at point  $(x', y')$  can be  $z_0 + 2c_2$ . Thus,

$$z = z_0 + 2c_2 = z_0 + 2(z_1 - z_0) = z_0 + 2[(z_x + z_y)/2 - z_0] = z_x + z_y - z_0$$

The third case:  $z_1 = z_0$ . This indicates that the values of the function remain unchanged from  $z_0$  to  $z_1$ . Thus, we can take  $z = z_0$ . And by  $z_0 = z_1 = (z_x + z_y)/2$ , it follows that  $2z_0 = z_x + z_y$ . Thus,

$$z = 2z_0 - z_0 = z_x + z_y - z_0$$

In summary, we see that, no matter what relationship may exist between the average of  $z_x$  and  $z_y$  and  $z_0$ , or how the value of the function varies from  $z_0$  to  $z_1$ , the approximate value of the function at point  $(x', y')$  can always be taken as

$$z = z_x + z_y - z_0 \quad (3.4)$$

*Fig. 3.2. Illustration-1 of synthesizing  $z_x$  and  $z_y$  into  $z$*

*Fig. 3.3. Illustration-2 of synthesizing  $z_x$  and  $z_y$  into  $z$*

This equation is also the calculation model of the approximate value of a function of two variables,  $z = f(x, y)$ .

It can be seen that this approach actually splits the approximate evaluation of a function of two variables into the approximate evaluation of two functions of one variable, then synthesizes the two obtained approximate values into a value as an approximate value of the original function of two variables. Extending this technique of “first splitting then synthesizing” to the approximate evaluation of a function of three variables,  $u = f(x, y, z)$ , we obtain the formula synthesizing the approximate value of the function as

$$u = u_x + u_y + u_z - 2u_0 \quad (3.5)$$

And then, for a function of  $n$  variables,  $y = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ , the corresponding formula synthesizing the approximate value of the function is

$$y = y_{x_1} + y_{x_2} + \dots + y_{x_n} - (n-1)y_0 = \sum y_{x_i} - (n-1)y_0 \quad (3.6)$$

For convenience of narration, we may refer to Equations (3.4), (3.5) and (3.6) as the sum-times-difference formula.

## 4 Interpolation Based on Approximation-Degree

Let  $y = f(x)$  be a function (relation) from  $[a, b]$  to  $[c, d]$ . A set of pairs of corresponding values of function  $y = f(x)$ ,  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ , is known, where  $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n$ .

Now the question is: in the case that the expression of function  $f(x)$  is unknown or not used, construct an interpolating function  $g(x)$  such that  $g(x_i) = f(x_i)$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ), and for other  $x \in [a, b]$ ,  $g(x) \approx f(x)$ . This is the usual interpolation problem. We now use the approach for finding approximate values of functions described above to solve the interpolation problem.

Let  $a = x_1, x_n = b$ , then  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  constitute a group of interpolation base points (or nodes). We define the approximation region of  $x_1$  as  $[x_1, x_2]$ , the approximation region of  $x_i$  as  $[x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}]$  ( $i = 2, 3, \dots, n-1$ ), and the approximation region of  $x_n$  as  $[x_{n-1}, x_n]$ , and then define separately the approximation-degree functions of base points  $x_1, x_i$ , and  $x_n$  as

$$A_{x_1}(x) = \frac{x - x_1}{x_1 - x_2}, \quad x \in [x_1, x_2] \quad (4.1)$$

$$A_{x_i}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x-x_{i-1}}{x_i-x_{i-1}}, & x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i] \\ \frac{x-x_{i+1}}{x_i-x_{i+1}}, & x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}] \end{cases} \quad (4.2)$$

$$A_{x_n}(x) = \frac{x-x_{n-1}}{x_n-x_{n-1}}, \quad x \in [x_{n-1}, x_n] \quad (4.3)$$

Note that it is not hard to see from the above expressions of approximation-degree functions that when  $x \in [x_1, (x_1+x_2)/2]$ ,  $[(x_{i-1}+x_i)/2, (x_i+x_{i+1})/2]$ , or  $[(x_{n-1}+x_n)/2, x_n]$ , the corresponding approximation-degrees  $A_{x_1}(x)$ ,  $A_{x_i}(x)$ , and  $A_{x_n}(x)$  are always  $\geq 0.5$ . This means that  $x$  is closer to the corresponding base point  $x_1$ ,  $x_i$ , or  $x_n$ .

We then define the approximation-degree functions of  $y_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) according to the same principle and method.

$$A_{y_i}(y) = \frac{y-y_{i-1}}{y_i-y_{i-1}} \quad (4.4)$$

$$A_{y_i}(y) = \frac{y_{i-1}-y}{y_{i-1}-y_i} \quad (4.5)$$

$$A_{y_i}(y) = \frac{y_{i+1}-y}{y_{i+1}-y_i} \quad (4.6)$$

$$A_{y_i}(y) = \frac{y-y_{i+1}}{y_i-y_{i+1}} \quad (4.7)$$

Obviously, in the four expressions above, (4.4) = (4.5) and (4.6) = (4.7). Thus, the 4 functional expressions can be reduced to two expressions:

$$A_{y_i}(y) = \frac{y-y_{i-1}}{y_i-y_{i-1}} \quad \text{and} \quad A_{y_i}(y) = \frac{y-y_{i+1}}{y_i-y_{i+1}}$$

And then, we get the inverse expressions of these two functional expressions:

$$A_{y_i}(y)^{-1} = d_y(y_i - y_{i-1}) + y_{i-1} \quad (4.8)$$

$$A_{y_i}(y)^{-1} = d_y(y_i - y_{i+1}) + y_{i+1} \quad (4.9)$$

Here  $d_y = A_{y_i}(y) \in [0, 1]$  is the approximation-degree of  $y$  to  $y_i$ .

Now, set  $d_y = d_x = A_{x_i}(x)$ . Also, considering that on the subinterval  $[\frac{x_{i-1}+x_i}{2}, x_i]$ , the interpolated function  $y = f(x)$  may be increasing, decreasing, or constant; while when  $y = f(x)$  is increasing, certainly  $y_{i-1} < y_i$ , so the

corresponding  $y \in [\frac{y_{i-1}+y_i}{2}, y_i]$ ; when  $y = f(x)$  is decreasing, certainly  $y_i < y_{i-1}$ , so the corresponding  $y \in [y_i, \frac{y_{i-1}+y_i}{2}]$ ; and when  $y = f(x)$  is constant,  $y_i = y_{i-1}$ , so the corresponding  $y = y_i \in [\frac{y_{i-1}+y_i}{2}, x_i]$ , the corresponding  $y_i$  and  $y_{i-1}$  are adjacent, and here  $A_{x_i}(x) = \frac{x-x_{i-1}}{x_i-x_{i-1}}$ , thus Expression (4.8), the expression of the corresponding inverse function  $A_{y_i}(y)^{-1}$ , becomes

$$A_{y_i}(y)^{-1} = \frac{x-x_{i-1}}{x_i-x_{i-1}}(y_i-y_{i-1}) + y_{i-1} = \frac{y_i-y_{i-1}}{x_i-x_{i-1}}x + \frac{x_i y_{i-1} - x_{i-1} y_i}{x_i-x_{i-1}}$$

namely

$$y = \frac{y_i-y_{i-1}}{x_i-x_{i-1}}x + \frac{x_i y_{i-1} - x_{i-1} y_i}{x_i-x_{i-1}}, \quad x \in \left[ \frac{x_{i-1}+x_i}{2}, x_i \right] \quad (4.10)$$

Similarly, Expression (4.9) of the inverse function  $A_{y_i}(y)^{-1}$  becomes

$$y = \frac{y_i-y_{i+1}}{x_i-x_{i+1}}x + \frac{x_i y_{i+1} - x_{i+1} y_i}{x_i-x_{i+1}}, \quad x \in \left[ x_i, \frac{x_i+x_{i+1}}{2} \right] \quad (4.11)$$

Thus, with the two expressions, we can obtain directly the corresponding  $y \in [\frac{y_{i-1}+y_i}{2}, y_i]$  or  $y \in [y_i, \frac{y_{i-1}+y_i}{2}]$  from  $x \in [\frac{x_{i-1}+x_i}{2}, x_i]$ , and obtain directly the corresponding  $y \in [\frac{y_i+y_{i+1}}{2}, y_i]$  or  $y \in [y_i, \frac{y_i+y_{i+1}}{2}]$  from  $x \in [x_i, \frac{x_i+x_{i+1}}{2}]$ .

Actually, Equations (4.10) and (4.11) are two interpolation formulas. In this way, we actually derive an interpolation approach by using the approximate evaluation of functions based on approximation-degree. We call this approach the approximation-degree-based interpolation, or ADB interpolation for short.

Specifically, the practice of ADB interpolation is: take base points  $a = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n = b$  as points of view, according to base points and their approximation regions to partition interval  $[a, b] = [x_1, x_n]$  into  $2n - 2$  subintervals as shown in Fig. 4 [Figure 4: see original paper].1:  $[x_1, (x_1+x_2)/2]$ ,  $[(x_1+x_2)/2, x_2]$ ,  $[x_2, (x_2+x_3)/2]$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $[(x_{n-1}+x_n)/2, x_n]$ , as interpolation intervals; then, for evaluated point  $x \in [(x_{i-1}+x_i)/2, x_i]$  do interpolating with Formula (4.10), and for evaluated point  $x \in [x_i, (x_i+x_{i+1})/2]$  do interpolating with Formula (4.11). Since each specific interpolating formula implies the trend of interpolated function  $y = f(x)$  on the corresponding subintervals, therefore, there is not much error between the obtained approximate value and the expected value, and there would not occur the case that two  $y$ -values are obtained from an  $x$ .

*Fig. 4.1. Illustration of interpolation intervals partitioned by base points and their approximation regions in one-dimensional interpolation*

**Example 4.1.** Use ADB interpolation to interpolate function  $y = \sin x$ .

We take sampled data points of  $y = \sin x$ ,  $(x_i, y_i)$ , as follows:  $x_i : 0 \times \pi, 0.1 \times \pi, 0.2 \times \pi, \dots, 1.9 \times \pi, 2 \times \pi$ .  $y_i : \sin x_i$ . And take interpolation points,  $x : 0 \times \pi, 0.02 \times \pi, 0.04 \times \pi, 0.06 \times \pi, \dots, 1.98 \times \pi, 2 \times \pi$ .

Using our ADB interpolation to perform interpolation, the corresponding  $y$ -values obtained are as follows:

And the effect is shown in Fig. 4.2.

*Fig. 4.2. The effect drawing of ADB interpolation for function  $y = \sin x$*

From the interpolation method of univariate functions and the method of finding approximate values of  $n$ -variable functions above, we obtain a general  $n$ -dimensional ADB interpolation method, that is: split an  $n$ -dimensional interpolation into  $n$  one-dimensional interpolations, then use one-dimensional ADB interpolation to find the corresponding approximate values, respectively, and finally synthesize the  $n$  approximate values by using the sum-times-difference formula into one value as the approximation value of the function of  $n$  variables. The  $n$  pairs of one-dimensional interpolation formulas required for  $n$ -dimensional ADB interpolation are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= \frac{y_{ij\dots s} - y_{i-1,j\dots s}}{x_{1i} - x_{1i-1}} x_{1i} + \frac{x_{1i} y_{i-1,j\dots s} - x_{1i-1} y_{ij\dots s}}{x_{1i} - x_{1i-1}} \\
 y &= \frac{y_{ij\dots s} - y_{i+1,j\dots s}}{x_{1i} - x_{1i+1}} x_{1i} + \frac{x_{1i} y_{i+1,j\dots s} - x_{1i+1} y_{ij\dots s}}{x_{1i} - x_{1i+1}} \\
 y &= \frac{y_{ij\dots s} - y_{i-1,j\dots s}}{x_{2i} - x_{2i-1}} x_{2i} + \frac{x_{2i} y_{i-1,j\dots s} - x_{2i-1} y_{ij\dots s}}{x_{2i} - x_{2i-1}} \\
 y &= \frac{y_{ij\dots s} - y_{i+1,j\dots s}}{x_{2i} - x_{2i+1}} x_{2i} + \frac{x_{2i} y_{i+1,j\dots s} - x_{2i+1} y_{ij\dots s}}{x_{2i} - x_{2i+1}} \\
 &\quad \vdots \\
 y &= \frac{y_{ij\dots s} - y_{i-1,j\dots s}}{x_{ni} - x_{ni-1}} x_{ni} + \frac{x_{ni} y_{i-1,j\dots s} - x_{ni-1} y_{ij\dots s}}{x_{ni} - x_{ni-1}} \\
 y &= \frac{y_{ij\dots s} - y_{i+1,j\dots s}}{x_{ni} - x_{ni+1}} x_{ni} + \frac{x_{ni} y_{i+1,j\dots s} - x_{ni+1} y_{ij\dots s}}{x_{ni} - x_{ni+1}}
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $y_{ij\dots s}$  is the value of the function at base point  $(x_{1i}, x_{2j}, \dots, x_{ns})$ , i.e.,  $y_{ij\dots s} = f(x_{1i}, x_{2j}, \dots, x_{ns})$ .

And the final synthesis formula (i.e., sum-times-difference formula) of the approximate value of the function is

$$\hat{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n y_{x_i} - (n-1)y_{ij\dots s} \quad (4.12)$$

where  $y_{x_i}$  is the approximate value of the function obtained by one-dimensional ADB interpolation for  $x_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ).

Actually, it is not difficult to see that Equation (4.12) can also be said to be the formula of multidimensional ADB interpolation, which is also a calculation model of high-dimensional interpolation.

**Example 4.2.** Using ADB interpolation to interpolate function  $z = \frac{1}{4}x^2 - \frac{1}{4}y^2$ , the effect is shown in Fig. 4.3.

*Fig. 4.3. The effect drawing of ADB interpolation for function  $z = \frac{1}{4}x^2 - \frac{1}{4}y^2$*

Where the left is the functional graph before interpolating, and the right is the functional graph after interpolating.

**Example 4.3.** Using ADB interpolation to interpolate a function of three variables,  $u = ze^{-x^3-y^3-z^3}$ , the effect (slice chart) is shown in Fig. 4.4.

*Fig. 4.4. The effect drawing of ADB interpolation for function  $ze^{-x^3-y^3-z^3}$*

## 5 Instance-Based Learning Using ADB Interpolation

In the above sections, we developed a new interpolation approach, ADB interpolation, from the problem of finding approximate values of functions. Since ADB interpolation is a local interpolation, it can be used for instance-based machine learning. In the following, we present two learning algorithms.

### (1) A Learning Algorithm for Regression Problems

- Put samples in sample set  $X = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i))\}_{i=1}^m$  ( $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ ) into a corresponding data structure  $S$  in centralized or distributed manner (as training examples);
- For the currently queried  $\mathbf{x}' = (x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n)$ , according to its coordinate components  $x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n$ , look up in  $S$  sequentially or in parallel to determine a  $\mathbf{x}_k$  ( $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$ ) to which the approximation-degree of  $\mathbf{x}'$  is highest;
- Take  $\mathbf{x}_k$  as the center, and according to the position of  $\mathbf{x}'$  relative to  $\mathbf{x}_k$ , choose  $n$  corresponding nearest neighbors  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  (the data points here are renumbered) from  $S$ , then construct the corresponding one-dimensional interpolation formulas  $y_{x_j} = g(\mathbf{x}_j | \mathbf{x}_k^j, f(\mathbf{x}_k), \mathbf{x}_j^j, f(\mathbf{x}_j))$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ;  $l \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ ) and then compute  $y_{x_1}, y_{x_2}, \dots, y_{x_n}$  sequentially or in parallel;
- Return  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}') = \sum_{j=1}^n y_{x_j} - (n-1)f(\mathbf{x}_k)$

**Example 5.1.** Take the following pairs of corresponding values of function  $z = -x^2 - y^2$ ,  $((x_i, y_j), z_{ij})$ , as example data:

$x_i$ : -20, -18, -16, ..., -2, 0, 2, ..., 16, 18, 20.

$y_j$ : -20, -18, -16, ..., -2, 0, 2, ..., 16, 18, 20.

$z_{ij}$ :  $-x_i^2 - y_j^2$

and take the following data points,  $(x, y)$ , as query data:

$x$ : -20, -20, 20, -19.5, -17.8, -18, -15.3, -12, -10.2, -10, -10, 0, 0, 10, 10, 5.6, 4.7, -3.4, -1.8, -2.3, -3.6, 1.2, -5.4, -15.6, -20, -20, -20, -18.3, 18.4, 17.5, 16.2, 14.5, 11.1, -5.4, -12.1, -8.5, -13.9, -7.5, -7.8, -9.8, -12.4, -13.5, -14.6, -17.5, -17.8.

$y$ : -20, 20, -20, -19.5, -17.8, -5, -15.5, 2.5, -10.2, 10, -20, 0, -20, -20, -10, -15.3, -3.8, -13.4, -2.8, -1.9, -5.6, -10.2, -6.5, 5.6, 0, -10, 10, 10.4, -18.1, -16.3, -14.4, -12.3, -6.3, -15.8, -8.2, -15.6, 0.9, 1.6, 3.2, 4.6, 6.6, 2.8, -0.9, 18.6, 13.2.

Using the above learning algorithm, the corresponding  $z$ -values obtained are as follows:

The effect drawing is shown in Fig. 5 [Figure 5: see original paper].1.

*Fig. 5.1. An effect drawing of learning using ADB interpolation*

Where the grid curve is the graph formed by example data from function  $z = -x^2 - y^2$ , and the red circles indicate the points obtained by learning using ADB interpolation.

**Example 5.2.** Fig. 5.2 below shows an effect drawing of learning using ADB interpolation. The example data are taken from the peaks function in MATLAB, and the query data is also designed according to this function. Limited by space, these data are omitted.

*Fig. 5.2. An illustration of the effect of learning using ADB interpolation*

Where the left is the functional graph formed by example data and the right is the functional graph obtained by learning using ADB interpolation.

As can be seen from the above, this instance-based learning using ADB interpolation has the following characteristics:

- The learning method takes data points  $(\mathbf{x}_l)$  of training examples  $(\mathbf{x}_l, f(\mathbf{x}_l))$  as centers to set approximation regions and compute approximation-degrees.
- ADB interpolation is a local interpolation; the training examples involved in interpolation are related to the position of the currently queried data point  $\mathbf{x}'$  relative to its nearest data point  $\mathbf{x}_k$ , and the number of which is related to the dimension of the vector  $\mathbf{x}$ . An  $n$ -dimensional  $\mathbf{x}$  only involves  $1 + n$  training examples  $((\mathbf{x}_k, f(\mathbf{x}_k))$  and  $(\mathbf{x}_1, f(\mathbf{x}_1)), (\mathbf{x}_2, f(\mathbf{x}_2)), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, f(\mathbf{x}_n)))$ . But since the point  $\mathbf{x}'$  is only approximate to the point  $\mathbf{x}_k$ , the corresponding  $y_{x_j}$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) are

most affected by the example  $(\mathbf{x}_k, f(\mathbf{x}_k))$ , and the final synthesized value  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}')$  is also most affected by  $(\mathbf{x}_k, f(\mathbf{x}_k))$ .

- If distributed storage and parallel processing (including parallel lookup and parallel computation) are used, the time complexity of the corresponding algorithm is independent of the dimension of vector  $\mathbf{x}$ , and its efficiency is almost equal to that of one-dimensional interpolation at all times.
- The interpolation formulas (including sum-times-difference formula) are derived entirely by mathematical methods, so they have a definite mathematical basis.
- The sum-times-difference formula is actually a linear combination of coordinate components of an interpolation point, and the denominators of the coefficients before each coordinate component are separately the difference between the coordinate component and the corresponding coordinate component of the corresponding base point, that is, the distance between the two, so these coefficients happen to also have a function of weight values. Thus, viewed from the form, the sum-times-difference formula is a linear weighted regression formula. That is to say, the sum-times-difference formula here coincides with the traditional local weighted linear regression model. However, in local weighted linear regression, these coefficients are determined by searching, while in our ADB interpolation, these coefficients are determined by looking up. The former is guided and constrained by error function (e.g.,  $E = \sum_{x \in X_1 \subset X} (f(x) - \hat{f}(x))^2$ ), and the latter by approximation-degree function (e.g.,  $E = \sum A_{x_i}(x)$ ). In the sense of approximation-degree, the approximate value  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}')$  of the function obtained from the sum-times-difference formula is always the most accurate.
- The accuracy of the returned approximate value  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}')$  of a function is positively related to the approximation-degree of  $\mathbf{x}'$  to  $\mathbf{x}_k$ .
- Comparing learning using ADB interpolation with deep learning, deep learning approximates the objective function with the strategy of deepening vertically [9], yet learning using ADB interpolation can approximate the objective function with the strategy of increasing density horizontally. So, learning using ADB interpolation and deep learning can complement each other, and can even have an effect of “different approaches but equal results” in the case of sufficient samples.

## (2) A Learning Algorithm for Classification Problems

- Put samples in sample set  $X = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i))\}_{i=1}^m$  ( $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ ,  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is a class label) into a corresponding data structure  $S$  in centralized or distributed manner;
- For the currently queried  $\mathbf{x}' = (x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n)$ , according to its coordinate components  $x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n$ , look up in  $S$  sequentially or in parallel to determine a  $\mathbf{x}_k$  ( $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$ ) to which the approximation-degree of  $\mathbf{x}'$  is highest;

- If such a  $\mathbf{x}_k$  is found, return  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}') = f(\mathbf{x}_k)$ ;
- Else exit.

**Example 5.3.** Suppose that the data points of training examples of a classification problem are shown as the black circles in Fig. 5.2, and the small boxes surrounding them are their respective strict approximation regions; and the white circles represent data points to be classified. Using the learning algorithm that uses ADB interpolation to classify these data points, the classifying results are shown in the figure. As you can see, two queried data points are respectively classified to two classes to which the corresponding training example data points belong, because they are located respectively in the strict approximation regions of the corresponding data points, while the two queried data points outside the small boxes are not classified.

*Fig. 5.3. An illustration of applying learning using ADB interpolation to classification*

It can be seen that for classification problems, learning using ADB interpolation has the following advantages:

- Although similar to the traditional 1-NN algorithm, the approximation regions in the algorithm are aimed at the data points of training examples, and which are strict approximation regions of square shape.
- Since the approximation and approximation regions involved in the algorithm are strict approximation and strict approximation regions, for classification problems, learning using ADB interpolation avoids, from the source, the problem in traditional instance-based learning (e.g., k-NN algorithm) that some datum objects with similar partial attributes are classified into a class.
- The classifying result of learning using ADB interpolation is unique, and there is no phenomenon like in the k-NN algorithm where the classifying result may change with the change of  $k$ 's value.

## 6 Summary

In this paper, starting from the problem of finding approximate values of functions, we introduced the measure of approximation-degree between numerical values, proposed the concepts of “strict approximation” and “strict approximation region,” then derived the corresponding one-dimensional interpolation methods and formulas, and presented a calculation model called the “sum-times-difference formula” for high-dimensional interpolation, thus developing a new interpolation approach—approximation-degree-based interpolation, i.e., ADB interpolation. ADB interpolation was applied to the interpolation of actual functions with satisfactory results. Viewed from principles and examples, the approach features novel ideas and has the advantages of simple calculations (they are all arithmetic), stable accuracy (benefiting from local interpolation and that the approximation-degrees are always not less than 0.5); especially, the approach

facilitates parallel processing, is very suitable for high-dimensional interpolation, and is easy to extend to the interpolation of vector-valued functions.

Applying ADB interpolation to instance-based learning, we obtained a new instance-based learning method—learning using ADB interpolation, and we also gave several examples of the learning. Viewed from principles and examples, the learning method features unique techniques (e.g., taking data points of training examples as centers to set approximation regions that are also strict approximation regions and compute approximation-degrees). Besides the advantages of ADB interpolation, the learning method also has the advantages of definite mathematical basis, implicit distance weights, avoidance of misclassification (guaranteed by strict approximation), high efficiency (benefiting from distributed storage and parallel processing), and wide range of applications (which can be applied to regression or classification problems, and can be used for large sample learning or small sample even single sample learning), as well as being interpretable. In principle, this method is a kind of learning by analogy, which and deep learning that belongs to inductive learning can complement each other, and for some problems, the two can even have an effect of “different approaches but equal results” in big data and cloud computing environments. Thus, learning using ADB interpolation can also be regarded as a kind of “wide learning” that is dual to deep learning.

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*Note: Figure translations are in progress. See original paper for figures.*

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