

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Bivariate Splines for Spatial Functional Regression Models

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(Day Month 2009)

We consider the functional linear regression model where the explanatory variable is a random surface and the response is a real random variable, in various situations where both the explanatory variable and the noise can be unbounded and dependent. Bivariate splines over triangulations represent the random surfaces. We use this representation to construct least squares estimators of the regression function with a penalization term. Under the assumptions that the regressors in the sample span a large enough space of functions, bivariate splines approximation properties yield the consistency of the estimators. Simulations demonstrate the quality of the asymptotic properties on a realistic domain. We also carry out an application to ozone concentration forecasting over the US that illustrates the predictive skills of the method.

Keywords: functional data; regression; splines**AMS Subject Classification:** 62G08, 65D07

1. Introduction

In various fields, such as environmental science, finance, geological science and biological science, large data sets are becoming readily available, e.g., by real time monitoring such as satellites circulating around the earth. Thus, the objects of statistical study are curves, surfaces and manifolds, in addition to the traditional points, numbers or vectors. Functional Data Analysis (FDA) can help represent and analyze infinite-dimensional random processes [14, 23]. FDA aggregates consecutive discrete recordings and views them as sampled values of a random curve or random surface, keeping track of order or smoothness. In this context, random curves have been the focus on many studies, but very few address the case of surfaces.

In regression, when the explanatory variable is a random function and the response is a real random variable, we can define a so-called functional linear model, see Chapter 15 in [23] and references therein. In particular, [6] and [7] introduced consistent estimates based on functional principal components, and decompositions in univariate splines spaces. The model can be generalized to the bivariate setting as follows. Let Y be a real-valued random variable. Let \mathcal{D} be a polygonal domain

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in \mathbf{R}^2 . The regression model is:

$$Y = f(X) + \varepsilon = \langle g, X \rangle + \varepsilon = \int_{\mathcal{D}} g(s)X(s)ds + \varepsilon, \quad (1)$$

where $g(s)$ is in a function space H (usually $= L^2(\mathcal{D})$), ε is a real random variable that satisfies $E\varepsilon = 0$ and $EX(s)\varepsilon = 0, \forall s \in \mathcal{D}$. One of the objectives in FDA is to determine or approximate g which is defined on a 2D spatial domain \mathcal{D} from the observations on X obtained over a set of design points in \mathcal{D} and Y .

This model in the univariate setting has been extensively studied using many different approaches. When the curves are supposed to be fully observed, it is possible to use the Karhunen-Loève expansion, or principal components analysis for curves [4, 16, 26]. However, as pointed out by [17], when the curves are not fully observed, which is obviously the case in practice, FDA would then proceed as though some smooth approximation of the observed curves were the collected ones. One typical approach is based on univariate splines [5, 7, 8], whereas [16] and [4] use a local-linear smoother, which helps derive asymptotic results. [7] introduced the Penalized B-splines estimator (PS) and the Smooth Principal Component Regression (SPCR) estimator in one dimension. Finally, [9] considered the functional regression problem, using smoothing splines as well, but with a slightly modified penalty. They derived optimal rates of convergence for the error in the prediction based on a random functions, as opposed to the case of a prediction error based on a fixed function covered in [4].

Motivated by the studies mentioned above, we investigate here the similar problem in the two-dimensional setting. We consider a functional regression model where the explanatory variable is a random surface and the response is a real random variable. To express a random surface over 2D irregular polygonal domain \mathcal{D} , we shall use bivariate splines which are smooth piecewise polynomial functions over a 2D triangulated polygonal domain \mathcal{D} . They are similar to univariate splines defined on piecewise subintervals. The theory of such bivariate spline functions are recently matured, see the monograph [20]. For example, we know the approximation properties of bivariate spline spaces and how to construct locally supported bases. Computational algorithms for scattered data interpolation and fitting are available in [1]. In particular, computing integrals with bivariate splines is easy, so it is now possible to use bivariate splines to build regression models for random surfaces. Certainly, it is possible to use the standard finite element method or thin-plate spline method for functional data analysis, see [24, 25] in a non-functional context. A finite element (FE) analysis was carried out to smooth the data over complicated domains in [24] and thin-plate splines were used in regression in [25]. Furthermore, it is also possible to use a tensor product of univariate splines or wavelets when the domain of interest is rectangular. Our bivariate splines are functions of piecewise polynomials which are more efficient than thin-plate splines. Also note that the basis functions for our spline spaces are Bernstein-Bézier polynomials over triangles which are locally supported and non-negative. The basis functions form a partition of unity, a stable basis and are suitable for computation. We find that our spline method is particularly easy to use, and hence will be used in our numerical experiments to be reported in the last section. We shall leave the investigation of using finite element method, thin-plate spline method, and tensor product of univariate B-splines or wavelets for 2D FDA to the interested reader.

Our approach to FDA in the bivariate setting is a straightforward (called brute force) approach which is different from the approaches in [5–8]. Mainly we use the fact that the bivariate spline space can be dense in the standard $L_2(\mathcal{D})$ space and

many other spaces as the size of triangulation decreases to zero. We can approximate g and X in (1) using spline functions and build a regression model. In our approach, we do not use the orthogonal expansion of covariance operator nor principal component analysis as in the standard auto-regressive approach. One significant difference of our spline approach for the functional linear model is that instead of using numerical quadrature, i.e., replacing $\int_0^1 \alpha(t)X(t)dt$ by $\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha(t_j)X(t_j)s_j$ for some discrete points t_j with subinterval lengths $s_j = (t_j - t_{j-1})$, we approximate X by a spline fitting S_X based on the given data values $X(t_j)$ and data locations t_j (in our current research, these $t_j = (x_j, y_j)$ locate in a 2D domain) and approximate α by a spline function S_α (which may not be dependent on t_j 's) and then we compute $\int_\Omega S_{\alpha(x,y)} S_{X(x,y)} dx dy$ to approximate $\int_\Omega \alpha(x,y)X(x,y) dx dy$. Note that the inner product S_α and S_X can be computed easily based on our inner product formula for two polynomials over one triangle T [20]. In our approach, we may assume that the noise is bounded, or Gaussian, or unbounded under some moment assumptions, and we do not make explicit assumptions on the covariance structure of X . The only requirement in our approach is that all the random functions X span a large enough space so that g can be well estimated. It is a reasonable assumption. In this paper, we mainly derive rates of convergence in probability towards S_g , a spline approximation of g , of the empirical estimate when using bivariate splines to approximate X using a discrete least squares method and a penalized least squares method. We show that when the sample size n increases, empirical estimates converges to the spline estimator. In these theorems, the spline space dimension m is fixed. Indeed, as the bivariate spline theory has already shown that as the size of triangulations goes to zero, and thus the dimension m of spline spaces becomes large, spline functions approximates any L_2 functions. We do know the convergence rate as m goes to infinity. However, in practice, we can not make the size $|\Delta|$ as small as we wish due to the computing power and the limitation of the given data set. One has to fix a triangulation, degree d and smoothness r , and hence, the dimension m of spline space is fixed. The convergence of empirical estimates of S_g to g in L_2 norm is currently under investigation by the authors with additional assumptions. We have implemented our approach using bivariate splines and performed numerical simulation, and forecasting with a set of real data. Comparison with univariate forecasting methods are given to show that our approach works very well. To our knowledge, our paper is the first piece of work on functional regression of a real random variable onto random surfaces.

The paper is organized as follows. After introducing bivariate splines in the preliminary section, we consider approximations of linear functionals with a penalty term in the next section. Then we address the case of discrete observations of random surfaces in section 4. In order to illustrate the findings on an irregular region, in section 5 we carry out simulations, and forecasting with real data, for which the domain is delimited by the United States frontiers, and the sample points are the US EPA monitoring locations. Our numerical experiments demonstrate the efficiency and convenience of using bivariate splines to approximate linear functionals in functional data regression analysis.

2. Preliminary on Bivariate Splines

Let \mathcal{D} be a polygonal domain in \mathbf{R}^2 . Let Δ be a triangulation of \mathcal{D} in the following sense: Δ is a collection of triangles $t \subset \mathcal{D}$ such that $\cup_{t \in \Delta} t = \mathcal{D}$ and the intersection of any two triangles $t_1, t_2 \in \Delta$ is either an empty set or their common edge of t_1, t_2 or their common vertex of t_1, t_2 . For each $t \in \Delta$, let $|t|$ denote the longest length

of the edges of t , and $|\Delta|$ the size of triangulation, which is the longest length of the edges of Δ . Let θ_Δ denote the smallest angle of Δ . Next let $S_d^r(\Delta) = \{h \in C^r(\mathcal{D}), h|_t \in \mathbf{P}_d, t \in \Delta\}$ be the space of all piecewise polynomial functions h of degree d and smoothness r over Δ , where \mathbf{P}_d is the space of all polynomials of degree d . Such spline spaces have been studied in depth in the last twenty years and a basic theory and many important results are summarized in [20]. Throughout the paper, $d \geq 3r + 2$. Then it is known [20, 21] that the spline space $S_d^r(\Delta)$ possesses an optimal approximation property: Let D_1 and D_2 denote the derivatives with respect to the first and second variables, $\|h\|_{L_p(\mathcal{D})}$ stand for the usual L_p norm of f over \mathcal{D} , $|h|_{m,p,\mathcal{D}}$ the L_p norm of the m^{th} derivatives of h over \mathcal{D} , and $W_p^{m+1}(\mathcal{D})$ be the usual Sobolev space over \mathcal{D} .

Theorem 2.1: *Suppose that $d \geq 3r + 2$ and Δ be a triangulation. Then there exists a quasi-interpolatory operator $Qh \in S_d^r(\Delta)$ mapping any $h \in L_1(\mathcal{D})$ into $S_d^r(\Delta)$ such that Qh achieves the optimal approximation order: if $h \in W_p^{m+1}(\mathcal{D})$,*

$$\|D_1^\alpha D_2^\beta (Qh - h)\|_{L_p(\mathcal{D})} \leq C |\Delta|^{m+1-\alpha-\beta} |h|_{m+1,p,\mathcal{D}} \quad (2)$$

for all $\alpha + \beta \leq m + 1$ with $0 \leq m \leq d$, where C is a constant which depends only on d and the smallest angle θ_Δ and may be dependent on the Lipschitz condition of the boundary of \mathcal{D} .

Bivariate splines have been used for scattered data fitting and interpolation for many years. Typically, the minimal energy spline interpolation, discrete least squares splines for data fitting and penalized least squares splines for data smoothing as well as several other spline methods have been used. Their approximation properties have been studied and numerical algorithms for these data fitting methods have been implemented and tested. See [1] and [19] and the references therein.

3. Approximation of Linear Functionals with Penalty

In this section we propose a new approach to study the functional f in model (1). We use a spline space $S_d^r(\Delta)$ with smoothness $r > 0$ and degree $d \geq 3r + 2$ over a triangulation Δ of a bounded domain $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbf{R}^2$ with $|\Delta| < 1$ sufficiently small, i.e. enabling a good approximation [1]. The triangulation is fixed and thus the spline basis and its cardinality m as well. We study an approximation of the given functional f on the random functions X taking their values in H . Here H is a Hilbert space, for example, $H = W_2^\nu(\mathcal{D})$, the standard Sobolev space of all ν^{th} differentiable functions which are square integrable over \mathcal{D} for an integer $\nu \geq r > 0$, where r is the smoothness of our spline space $S_d^r(\Delta)$.

We assume that X and Y follow the regression model (1). We seek a solution $\alpha \in H$ which solves the following minimization problem:

$$\alpha = \arg \min_{\beta \in H} E[(Y - \langle \beta, X \rangle)^2] + \rho \|\beta\|_r^2, \quad (3)$$

where $\rho > 0$ is a parameter and $\|\beta\|_r^2$ denotes the semi-norm of β : $\|\beta\|_r^2 = \mathcal{E}_r(\beta, \beta)$, where $\mathcal{E}_r(\alpha, \beta) = \int_{\mathcal{D}} \sum_{k=0}^r \sum_{i+j=k} D_1^i D_2^j \alpha D_1^i D_2^j \beta$, and D_1 and D_2 stand for the partial derivatives with respect to the first and second variables. Unless the penalty is equal to zero, α is not necessarily equal to g . Since $S_d^r(\Delta)$ can be dense in H as $|\Delta| \rightarrow 0$, we consider a spline space $S_d^r(\Delta)$ for a smoothness $r \geq 0$ and degree $d > r$ over a triangulation Δ of \mathcal{D} with $|\Delta|$ sufficiently small. Note that the triangulation

is fixed and thus the spline basis and its cardinality m as well. We look for an approximation $S_{\alpha,\rho} \in S_d^r(\Delta)$ of α such that

$$S_{\alpha,\rho} = \arg \min_{\beta \in S_d^r(\Delta)} E[(Y - \langle \beta, X \rangle)^2] + \rho \mathcal{E}_r(\beta). \quad (4)$$

We now analyze how $S_{\alpha,\rho}$ approximates α in terms of the size $|\Delta|$ of triangulation and $\rho \rightarrow 0+$. Let $\{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_m\}$ be a basis for $S_d^r(\Delta)$. We write $S_\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^m c_j \phi_j$. Then a direct calculation of the least squares solution of (4) entails that the coefficient vector $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_m)^T$ satisfies a linear system $A\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{b}$ with A being a matrix of size $m \times m$ with entries $E(\langle \phi_i, X \rangle \langle \phi_j, X \rangle) + \rho \mathcal{E}_r(\phi_i, \phi_j)$ for $i, j = 1, \dots, m$ and \mathbf{b} being a vector of length m with entries $E(Y \langle \phi_j, X \rangle)$ for $j = 1, \dots, m$.

Although we do not know how $X \in H$ is distributed, let us assume that only the zero polynomial is orthogonal to all functions in the collection $\mathcal{X} = X(\omega), \omega \in \Omega$ in the standard Hilbert space $L_2(\mathcal{D})$. This means that the random variables X are distributed in such a way that they generate a high dimensional subspace of $L_2(\mathcal{D})$. In this case, A is invertible. Otherwise, we would have $\mathbf{c}^T A \mathbf{c} = 0$, i.e.,

$$E\left(\left(\sum_{i=1}^m c_i \phi_i, X\right)^2\right) + \rho \left\| \sum_{i=1}^m c_i \phi_i \right\|_r^2 = 0 \quad (5)$$

Since the second term in (5) is equal to zero, $\sum_{i=1}^m c_i \phi_i$ is a polynomial of degree $< r$. As the first term in (5) is also zero, this polynomial is orthogonal to X for all $X \in \mathcal{X}$. By the assumption, $\sum_{i=1}^m c_i \phi_i$ is a zero spline and hence, $c_i = 0$ for all i . Thus, we have obtained the following

Theorem 3.1: *Suppose that only the zero polynomial is orthogonal to the collection \mathcal{X} in $L_2(\mathcal{D})$. Then the minimization problem (4) has a unique solution in $S_d^r(\Delta)$.*

To see that $S_{\alpha,\rho}$ is a good approximation of α , we let $\{\phi_j, j = m+1, m+2, \dots\}$ be a basis of the orthogonal complement space of $S_d^r(\Delta)$ in $L_2(\mathcal{D})$. Then we can write $\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^\infty c_j \phi_j$. Note that the minimization in (3) yields $E(\langle \alpha, X \rangle \langle \phi_j, X \rangle) + \rho \mathcal{E}_r(\alpha, \phi_j) = E(f(X) \langle \phi_j, X \rangle)$ for all $j = 1, 2, \dots$ while the minimization in (4) gives

$$E(\langle S_\alpha, X \rangle \langle \phi_j, X \rangle) + \rho \mathcal{E}_r(S_\alpha, \phi_j) = E(f(X) \langle \phi_j, X \rangle)$$

for all $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$. It follows that

$$E(\langle \alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}, X \rangle \langle \phi_j, X \rangle) + \rho \mathcal{E}_r(\alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}, \phi_j) = 0 \quad (6)$$

for $j = 1, \dots, m$. Let Q_α be the quasi-interpolatory spline in $S_d^r(\Delta)$ which achieves the optimal order of approximation of α from $S_d^r(\Delta)$ as in Preliminary section. Then (6) implies that

$$\begin{aligned} E((\langle \alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}, X \rangle)^2) &= E(\langle \alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}, X \rangle \langle \alpha - Q_\alpha, X \rangle) - \rho \mathcal{E}_r(\alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}, Q_\alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}) \\ &\leq (E((\langle \alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}, X \rangle)^2))^{1/2} E((\langle \alpha - Q_\alpha, X \rangle)^2)^{1/2} \\ &\quad - \rho \|\alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}\|_r^2 + \rho \mathcal{E}_r(\alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}, \alpha - Q_\alpha) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} E((\langle \alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}, X \rangle)^2) + \frac{1}{2} E((\langle \alpha - Q_\alpha, X \rangle)^2) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \rho \|\alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}\|_r^2 + \frac{1}{2} \rho \|\alpha - Q_\alpha\|_r^2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $E((\langle \alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}, X \rangle)^2) + \rho \|\alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}\|_r^2 \leq E((\langle \alpha - Q_\alpha, X \rangle)^2) + \rho \|\alpha - Q_\alpha\|_r^2$. The approximation of the quasi-interpolant Q_α of α [21] gives:

Theorem 3.2: *Suppose that $E(\|X\|^2) < \infty$ and suppose $\alpha \in C^\nu(\mathcal{D})$ for $\nu \geq r$. Then the solution $S_{\alpha,\rho}$ from the minimization problem (4) approximates α : $E((\langle \alpha - S_{\alpha,\rho}, X \rangle)^2) \leq C|\Delta|^{2\nu}E(\|X\|^2) + \rho C|\Delta|^{2(\nu-r)}$ where C is a positive constant independent of the size $|\Delta|$ of triangulation Δ .*

Next we consider the empirical estimate of $S_{\alpha,\rho}$. Let $X_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ be a sequence of functional random variables such that only the zero polynomial is perpendicular to the subspace spanned by $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ except on an event whose probability p_n goes to zero as $n \rightarrow +\infty$. The empirical estimate $\widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}} \in S_d^r(\Delta)$ is the solution of

$$\widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}} = \arg \min_{\beta \in S_d^r(\Delta)} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \langle \beta, X_i \rangle)^2 + \rho \|\beta\|_r^2, \quad (7)$$

with $\rho > 0$ the smoothing parameter. The solution of the above minimization is given by $\widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}} = \sum_{i=1}^m c_{n,i} \phi_i$ with coefficient vector $\mathbf{c}_n = (c_{n,i}, i = 1, \dots, m)$ satisfying $\widehat{A}_n \mathbf{c}_n = \widehat{\mathbf{b}}_n$, where

$$\widehat{A}_n = \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n \langle \phi_i, X_\ell \rangle \langle \phi_j, X_\ell \rangle + \rho \mathcal{E}_r(\phi_i, \phi_j) \right]_{i,j=1,\dots,m}$$

and

$$\widehat{\mathbf{b}}_n = \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n Y_\ell \langle \phi_j, X_\ell \rangle \right]_{j=1,\dots,m} = \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n (f(X_\ell) + \epsilon_\ell) \langle \phi_j, X_\ell \rangle \right]_{j=1,\dots,m}.$$

Theorem 3.3: *Suppose that only the zero polynomial is perpendicular to the subspace spanned by $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ except on an event whose probability p_n goes to zero as $n \rightarrow +\infty$. Then there exists a unique $\widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}} \in S_d^r(\Delta)$ minimizing (7) with probability $1 - p_n$.*

Proof: It is straightforward to see that the coefficient vector of $\widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}}$ satisfies the above relations. To see that $\widehat{A}_n \mathbf{c}_n = \widehat{\mathbf{b}}_n$ has a unique solution, we claim that if $\widehat{A}_n \mathbf{c}' = 0$, then $\mathbf{c}' = 0$. It follows that $(\mathbf{c}')^T \widehat{A}_n \mathbf{c}' = 0$, i.e., $\sum_{\ell=1}^n (\langle \sum_{i=1}^m c'_i \phi_i, X_\ell \rangle)^2 = 0$. That is, $\sum_{i=1}^m c'_i \phi_i$ is orthogonal to $X_\ell, \ell = 1, \dots, n$. According to the assumption, $\mathbf{c}' = 0$ except for an event whose probability p_n goes to zero when $n \rightarrow +\infty$. \square

We now prove that $\widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}}$ approximates $S_{\alpha,\rho}$ in probability. For simplicity, we consider the case where the penalty is equal to zero as the entries of $A - \widehat{A}_n$ and $\mathbf{b} - \widehat{\mathbf{b}}_n$ are exactly the same with or without penalty. To this end we need the following lemmas.

Lemma 3.4: *Suppose that Δ is a β -quasi-uniform triangulation (cf. [20]). There exist two positive constants C_1 and C_2 independent of Δ such that for any spline function $S \in S_d^r(\Delta)$ with coefficient vector $\mathbf{s} = (s_1, \dots, s_m)^T$ with $S = \sum_{i=1}^m s_i \phi_i$,*

$$C_1 |\Delta|^2 \|\mathbf{s}\|^2 \leq \|S\|^2 \leq C_2 |\Delta|^2 \|\mathbf{s}\|^2.$$

A proof of this lemma can be found in [21] and [20]. The following lemma is well-known in numerical analysis [[15],p.82].

Lemma 3.5: *Let A be an invertible matrix and \tilde{A} be a perturbation of A satisfying $\|A^{-1}\| \|A - \tilde{A}\| < 1$. Suppose that x and \tilde{x} are the exact solutions of $Ax = b$ and $\tilde{A}\tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$, respectively. Then*

$$\frac{\|x - \tilde{x}\|}{\|x\|} \leq \frac{\kappa(A)}{1 - \kappa(A) \frac{\|A - \tilde{A}\|}{\|A\|}} \left[\frac{\|A - \tilde{A}\|}{\|A\|} + \frac{\|b - \tilde{b}\|}{\|b\|} \right].$$

Here, $\kappa(A) = \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$ denotes the condition number of matrix A .

The next Lemma will be used to find the resulting upper bounds for the differences $\|S_\alpha - \widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}}\|$.

Lemma 3.6: *Let $\beta = \frac{\|\mathbf{c} - \hat{\mathbf{c}}_n\|}{\|\mathbf{c}\|}$, $\eta = \frac{\|A - \hat{A}_n\|}{\|A\|}$ and $\theta = \frac{\|\mathbf{b} - \hat{\mathbf{b}}_n\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|}$. For all $\delta \leq 1$, we have*

$$P\left(\frac{\|S_\alpha - \widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}}\|}{\|S_\alpha\|} \geq \delta\right) \leq 2P\left(\eta \geq \frac{\gamma\delta}{4\kappa(A)}\right) + P\left(\theta \geq \frac{\gamma\delta}{4\kappa(A)}\right)$$

where $\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{C_1}{C_2}}$ from Lemma 3.4.

Proof: We first use Lemma 3.4 to get $P\left(\frac{\|S_\alpha - \widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}}\|}{\|S_\alpha\|} \geq \delta\right) \leq P\left(\frac{\|\mathbf{c} - \hat{\mathbf{c}}_n\|}{\|\mathbf{c}\|} \geq \gamma\delta\right)$

where $\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{C_1}{C_2}}$. Then Lemma 3.5 implies that

$$\begin{aligned} & P(\beta \geq \gamma\delta) \\ & \leq P(\beta \geq \gamma\delta, \kappa(A)\eta \leq 1/2) + P(\beta \geq \gamma\delta, \kappa(A)\eta \geq 1/2) \\ & \leq P\left(\frac{\kappa(A)}{1 - \kappa(A)\eta}(\eta + \theta) \geq \gamma\delta, \kappa(A)\eta \leq 1/2\right) + P(\kappa(A)\eta \geq 1/2) \\ & \leq P\left((\eta + \theta) \geq \frac{\gamma\delta}{2\kappa(A)}\right) + P(\kappa(A)\eta \geq 1/2) \\ & \leq P\left(\eta \geq \frac{\gamma\delta}{4\kappa(A)}\right) + P\left(\theta \geq \frac{\gamma\delta}{4\kappa(A)}\right) + P\left(\eta \geq \frac{\gamma\delta}{2\kappa(A)}\right) \\ & \leq 2P\left(\eta \geq \frac{\gamma\delta}{4\kappa(A)}\right) + P\left(\theta \geq \frac{\gamma\delta}{4\kappa(A)}\right) \end{aligned}$$

for all $\delta \leq 1$. □

Thus we need to analyze the differences between the entries of A and \hat{A}_n as well as the differences between \mathbf{b} and $\hat{\mathbf{b}}_n$. Let: $\xi_{i,j,l}^{(1)} = \langle \phi_i, X_l \rangle \langle \phi_j, X_l \rangle$, $\xi_{j,l}^{(2)} = f(X_l) \langle \phi_j, X_l \rangle$, and $\xi_{j,l}^{(3)} = \varepsilon_l \langle \phi_j, X_l \rangle$. We can find rates of convergence by applying exponential inequalities that will be valid uniformly over the entries of $\xi^{(p)}$ for $p = 1, 2, 3$.

To use Lemma 3.5, we employ for convenience (all norms are equivalent) the maximum norm for matrix $A - \hat{A}_n$ and vector $b - \hat{b}_n$. For simplicity, let us write

$$[a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i,j \leq m} = A - \hat{A}_n = \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n (\xi_{i,j,l}^{(1)} - E(\xi_{i,j,l}^{(1)})) \right]_{1 \leq i,j \leq m}.$$

We have

Lemma 3.7:

$$P(\| [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i, j \leq m} \|_{\infty} \geq \delta) \leq \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m P(|a_{ij}| \geq \delta/m)$$

and, if the probabilities $P(|a_{ij}| \geq \delta/m)$ are bounded for all i, j by the same quantity $h(\delta, m)$,

$$P(\| [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i, j \leq m} \|_{\infty} \geq \delta) \leq m^2 h(\delta, m)$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} & P(\| [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i, j \leq m} \|_{\infty} \geq \delta) \\ &= P\left(\max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \sum_{j=1}^m |a_{ij}| \geq \delta\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^m P\left(\sum_{j=1}^m |a_{ij}| \geq \delta\right) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m P(|a_{ij}| \geq \delta/m) \end{aligned}$$

□

Similarly to Lemma 3.7, we can estimate the entries of $\mathbf{b} - \hat{\mathbf{b}}_n$. We denote its entries by $b_j = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n f(X_{\ell}) \langle \phi_j, X_{\ell} \rangle - E(f(X) \langle \phi_j, X \rangle) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n \epsilon_{\ell} \langle \phi_j, X_{\ell} \rangle$. Let us write $b_j = b_j^1 + b_j^2$ with b_j^1 and b_j^2 being the first and second terms, respectively. It is easy to see that $P(|b_j| \geq \delta) \leq P(|b_j^1| \geq \delta/2) + P(|b_j^2| \geq \delta/2)$. Since the functional f is bounded, $|f(X_{\ell})| \leq F \|X_{\ell}\|$, with a finite constant F . We obtain immediately the following Lemma.

Lemma 3.8:

$$P(\|\mathbf{b} - \hat{\mathbf{b}}_n\|_{\infty} \geq \delta) \leq \sum_{j=1}^m P(|b_j^1| \geq \delta/2) + P(|b_j^2| \geq \delta/2)$$

and, if the probabilities $P(|b_j^1| \geq \delta/2)$ and $P(|b_j^2| \geq \delta/2)$ are respectively bounded for all j by the same quantities $h^1(\delta)$ and $h^2(\delta)$,

$$P(\|\mathbf{b} - \hat{\mathbf{b}}_n\|_{\infty} \geq \delta) \leq m (h^1(\delta) + h^2(\delta))$$

We consider the first case where the variables are bounded, for which we can apply the following Hoeffding's exponential inequality [2, p. 24]

Lemma 3.9: Let $\{\xi_l\}_{l=1}^n$ be n independent random variables. Suppose that there exists a positive number M such that for each l , $|\xi_l| \leq M < \infty$ almost surely. Then $P(|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n (\xi_l - E(\xi_l))| \geq \delta) \leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{n\delta^2}{2M^2}\right)$ for $\delta > 0$.

Theorem 3.10: Suppose that X_{ℓ} , $\ell = 1, \dots, n$ are independent and identically distributed and X_1 is bounded almost surely. Suppose that the ϵ_{ℓ} are independent and bounded almost surely. Assume that $f(X)$ is a bounded linear functional. Then

$\widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}}$ converges to S_α in probability with convergence rate

$$P\left(\frac{\|S_\alpha - \widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}}\|}{\|S_\alpha\|} \geq \delta\right) \leq 4m^2 \exp\left(-\frac{n\gamma^2\delta^2}{32\kappa(A)^2m^2M^2}\right) + 2m \exp\left(-\frac{n\gamma^2\delta^2}{128\kappa(A)^2M_b^2}\right) + 2m \exp\left(-\frac{n\gamma^2\delta^2}{128\kappa(A)^2M_\epsilon^2}\right). \quad (8)$$

Proof: The basis spline functions ϕ_j can be chosen to be bounded in $L_2(\mathcal{D})$ for all j independent of triangulation \triangle [20]. The $\xi_{i,j,\ell}^{(1)}$ are bounded. Indeed, let $M = \max_{ij} \max_\ell |\langle \phi_i, X_\ell \rangle \langle \phi_j, X_\ell \rangle| \leq \max_{ij} \max_\ell \|\phi_i\| \|\phi_j\| \|X_\ell\|^2$. For each i, j , $|\xi_{i,j,\ell}^{(1)}| \leq M < \infty$ almost surely. We can apply Lemma 3.9 to get:

$$P(\|[a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i,j \leq m}\|_\infty \geq \delta) \leq 2m^2 \exp\left(-\frac{n\delta^2}{2m^2M^2}\right). \quad (9)$$

By Lemma 3.9, we also have $P(|b_j^1| \geq \delta/2) \leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{n\delta^2}{8M_b^2}\right)$, where $M_b = \max_j |f(X_\ell) \langle \phi_j, X_\ell \rangle| \leq F \|X_\ell\| \|\phi_j\| \|X_\ell\|$ which is a finite quantity since $\|X_\ell\|$ is bounded almost surely. Regarding the second term b_j^2 , since the random noises ϵ_ℓ are bounded almost surely, we apply Lemma 3.9 to $\xi_{j,\ell}^3$ and it yields: $P(|b_j^2| \geq \delta/2) \leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{n\delta^2}{8M_\epsilon^2}\right)$ where $M_\epsilon = \max_j |\langle \phi_j, \epsilon_\ell X_\ell \rangle| \leq \max_j \|\phi_j\| \|\epsilon_\ell\| \|X_\ell\|$ which is finite under the assumption that both $\|X_\ell\|$ and $|\epsilon_\ell|$ are bounded almost surely.

Thus, we have by Lemma 3.8

$$P(\|\mathbf{b} - \widehat{\mathbf{b}}_n\|_\infty \geq \delta) \leq 2m \exp\left(-\frac{n\delta^2}{8M_b^2}\right) + 2m \exp\left(-\frac{n\delta^2}{8M_\epsilon^2}\right). \quad (10)$$

We combine the estimates (9) and (10) to get (8). \square

As an example, if we choose $m = n^{1/4}$, we get a convergence rate of $n^{1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{\sqrt{n}\gamma^2\delta^2}{32\kappa(A)^2M^2}\right)$ which is the slower of the terms.

We are now ready to consider the case where ϵ_ℓ is a Gaussian noise $N(0, \sigma_\ell^2)$ for $\ell = 1, \dots, n$. Instead of Lemma 3.9, it is easy to prove

Lemma 3.11: Suppose that ϵ_ℓ is a Gaussian noise $N(0, \sigma_\ell^2)$ for $\ell = 1, \dots, n$. Then

$$P\left(\left|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n \epsilon_\ell\right| > \delta\right) \leq \exp\left(-\frac{n^2\delta^2}{2 \sum_{\ell=1}^n \sigma_\ell^2}\right).$$

Theorem 3.12: Suppose that X_ℓ , $\ell = 1, \dots, n$ are independent and identically distributed random variables and X_1 is bounded almost surely. Suppose ϵ_ℓ are independent and identically distributed Gaussian noise $N(0, \sigma^2)$ and $f(X)$ is a bounded linear functional. Then $\widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}}$ converges to S_α in probability with convergence rate:

$$P\left(\frac{\|S_\alpha - \widehat{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}}\|}{\|S_\alpha\|} \geq \delta\right) \leq 4m^2 \exp\left(-\frac{n\gamma^2\delta^2}{32\kappa(A)^2m^2M^2}\right) + 2m \exp\left(-\frac{n\gamma^2\delta^2}{128\kappa(A)^2M_b^2}\right) + 2m \exp\left(-\frac{n\gamma^2\delta^2}{128\kappa(A)^2\sigma^2C^2}\right). \quad (11)$$

Proof: By Lemma 3.11, $P(|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n (\epsilon_\ell Z_\ell)| \geq \delta) \leq \exp\left(-\frac{n\delta^2}{2\sigma^2 C^2}\right)$ for $\delta > 0$, under the assumption that Z_ℓ are independent random variables which are bounded by C , i.e., $\|Z_\ell\| \leq C$. Similar to the proof of Theorem 3.10, with $Z_\ell = \langle \phi_j, X_\ell \rangle$ in that case, we obtain the convergence rate in (11). \square

We now extend the results to the case where both the explanatory variables X_n and noise ϵ_n are dependent and unbounded. We state two types of results based on dependence conditions of either association or mixing types that involves making moment assumptions on the variables of interest.

By definition, a sequence of real-valued variables Y_1, Y_2, \dots is positively associated (PA) [12] if, for every integer n , and $f, g : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ coordinatewise increasing:

$$\text{Cov}(f(Y_1, \dots, Y_n), g(Y_1, \dots, Y_n)) \geq 0$$

The resulting rates are usually not exponential but geometric in the “exponential” inequalities [22, Th. 5.1]. We note that [18] relate assumptions of positive association for a transformation of a process. We could try to set up a new definition of positive association for Hilbert-valued random variables and see what it implies on the variables $\xi_l^{(p)}$ (we drop for convenience the other indices i, j in the sequel.) However, it would require a thorough study of these quantities $\xi_l^{(p)}$ for $p = 1, 2, 3$, and is beyond the scope of this paper. We have the following result.

Theorem 3.13: *Suppose that for $p = 1, 2, 3$, the time series $\xi_l^{(p)}$, $\ell = 1, \dots, n$, are strictly stationary and positively associated. Suppose that they all satisfy the following assumptions uniformly in i, j . Suppose that [22, equation (13)] is satisfied:*

$$\frac{1}{p_n \log n} \exp\left(\left(\frac{\tau n \log n}{2p_n}\right)^{1/2}\right) \sum_{l=p_n+2}^{\infty} \text{Cov}(\xi_1^{(p)}, \xi_l^{(p)}) \leq C_0 < \infty. \quad (12)$$

where $p_n = \frac{n\varepsilon^2}{54\tau \log^3 n}$, for $\varepsilon > 0$ small enough. Assume also that there exists $\lambda > \tau$ such that $\sup_{|t| \leq \lambda} E\left[\exp\left(t\xi_1^{(p)}\right)\right] \leq M_\lambda < \infty$. Then $\widehat{S_{\alpha, \rho, n}}$ converges to S_α in probability, for $\delta > 0$ small enough and n large enough:

$$P\left(\frac{\|S_\alpha - \widehat{S_{\alpha, \rho, n}}\|}{\|S_\alpha\|} \geq \delta\right) \leq m^2 \left(2 \left(1 + \frac{4}{\tau} C_0\right) + \frac{192 M_\lambda m^2 \kappa(A)^2}{\tau \|A\|^2 \gamma^2 \delta^2}\right) n^{1-\tau} \\ + 2m \left(2 \left(1 + \frac{4}{\tau} C_0\right) + \frac{768 M_\lambda \kappa(A)^2}{\tau \|b\|^2 \gamma^2 \delta^2}\right) n^{1-\tau} \quad (13)$$

As a result, $\widehat{S_{\alpha, \rho, n}}$ converges to S_α in probability with convergence rate in (13).

Proof: We use Lemmas 3.6, 3.7 and 3.8 and then employ [22, Th. 5.1] for PA unbounded variables to get an exponential inequality in these cases. \square

An example of this situation is the autoregressive case, when $\text{Cov}(\xi_1^{(p)}, \xi_l^{(p)}) = \rho_0 \rho^n$, for some $\rho_0 > 0$ and $0 < \rho^n < 1$. See the discussion in [22, Section 5].

Another possibility is to consider mixing assumptions. However, these are more difficult to check than covariance-based conditions, see [11] for a discussion. Classical ARMA processes have mixing coefficients which decrease to zero at an exponential rate. For a strictly stationary time series (X_n) , the strong mixing (or

α -mixing) coefficient of order k is:

$$\alpha(k) = \sup_{B \in \sigma(X_s, s \leq n), C \in \sigma(X_s, s \geq n+k)} |P(B \cap C) - P(B)P(C)|$$

We apply [2, Th. 1.4] in the strictly stationary case to derive the following result:

Theorem 3.14: *Suppose that for $p = 1, 2, 3$, the time series $\xi_l^{(p)}$, $\ell = 1, \dots, n$, are strictly stationary, and there exists $c > 0$ such that*

$$E \left[\left| \xi_1^{(p)} \right| \right] \leq c^{k-2} k! E \left[(\xi_1^{(p)})^2 \right] < \infty.$$

for all $k \geq 3$. Then for $n \geq 2$, each integer $q \in [1, \frac{n}{2}]$, for all $\delta > 0, k \geq 3$,

$$\begin{aligned} P \left(\frac{\|S_\alpha - \widehat{S_{\alpha, \rho, n}}\|}{\|S_\alpha\|} \geq \delta \right) &\leq 2m^2 \left(a_1(\varepsilon_1) \exp \left(-\frac{q\varepsilon_1^2}{25m_2^2 + 5c\varepsilon_1} \right) + a_2(\varepsilon_1, k) \alpha \left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{q+1} \right\rceil \right) \right) \\ &+ 2m \left(a_1(\varepsilon_2) \exp \left(-\frac{q\varepsilon_2^2}{25m_2^2 + 5c\varepsilon_2} \right) + a_2(\varepsilon_2, k) \alpha \left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{q+1} \right\rceil \right) \right) \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

where

$$a_1(\varepsilon) = 2\frac{n}{q} + 2 \left(1 + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{25m_2^2 + 5c\varepsilon} \right)$$

$$a_2(\varepsilon, k) = 11n \left(1 + \frac{5m_k^{\frac{k}{2k+1}}}{\varepsilon} \right)$$

with $\varepsilon_1 = \frac{\|A\|\gamma\delta}{4m\kappa(A)}$, $\varepsilon_2 = \frac{\|b\|\gamma\delta}{8\kappa(A)}$, $m_2^2 = E \left[(\xi_1^{(p)})^2 \right]$ and $m_k = \left(E \left[(\xi_1^{(p)})^k \right] \right)^{1/k}$.

As a result, $\widehat{S_{\alpha, \rho, n}}$ converges to S_α in probability with convergence rate in (14).

Proof: We use Lemmas 3.6, 3.7 and 3.8 and then employ [2, Th. 1.4] for unbounded variables with mixing assumptions to get an exponential inequality in these cases. \square

By choosing say $q = \log n$ or $q = n/4$, we could achieve a explicit convergence rate if the strong mixing coefficients converge to zero. And depending on the case, one could find optimal values for q to achieve the best rates possible balancing the terms in the right hand side. Note also that [3, Th. 2.13] is a similar result but for Hilbert-valued random variables directly. As a remark for future research, one could make assumptions on the Hilbert-valued processes themselves to retrieve similar rates. Furthermore, we could mix the various cases covered in this section, for instance by assuming that some of the processes $\xi_l^{(p)}$, $\ell = 1, \dots, n$ satisfy the assumptions of Th. 3.13 or Th. 3.14, leading to various combined rates of convergence. Finally, one could derive almost sure convergence theorems as well via Borel-Cantelli's lemma in a straightforward way in these cases, assuming the stronger conditions on the probabilities are met.

4. Approximation of Linear Functionals based on Discrete Observations

In practice, we do not know X completely over the domain \mathcal{D} . Instead, we have observations of X over some designed points $s_k, k = 1, \dots, N$ over \mathcal{D} . Let S_X be the discrete least square fit spline approximation [1] of X assuming that $s_k, k = 1, \dots, N$ are evenly distributed over Δ of \mathcal{D} with respect to $S_d^r(\Delta)$. We consider α_S that solves the following minimization problem:

$$\alpha_S = \arg \min_{\beta \in H} E[(Y - \langle \beta, S_X \rangle)^2] + \rho \|\beta\|_r^2. \quad (15)$$

Also we look for an approximation $S_{\alpha_S} \in S_d^r(\Delta)$ of α_S such that

$$S_{\alpha_S} = \arg \min_{\beta \in S_d^r(\Delta)} E[(Y - \langle \beta, S_X \rangle)^2] + \rho \|\beta\|_r^2. \quad (16)$$

We first analyze how α_S approximates α . It is easy to see that

$$F(\beta) = E[(Y - \langle \beta, X \rangle)^2]$$

is a strictly convex function and so is $F_S(\beta) = E[(Y - \langle \beta, S_X \rangle)^2] + \rho \|\beta\|_r^2$. Note that S_X approximates X very well as in Theorem 2.1 as $|\Delta| \rightarrow 0$. Thus, $F_S(\beta)$ approximates $F(\beta)$ for each β . Since the strictly convex function has a unique minimizer and both $F(\beta)$ and $F_S(\beta)$ are continuous, α_S approximates α . Indeed, if $\alpha_S \rightarrow \beta \neq \alpha$, then $F(\alpha) < F(\beta) = F_S(\beta) + \eta_1 = F_S(\alpha_S) + \eta_1 + \eta_2 \leq F_S(\alpha) + \eta_1 + \eta_2 = F(\alpha_S) + \eta_1 + \eta_2 + \eta_3$ for arbitrary small $\eta_1 + \eta_2 + \eta_3$. Thus we would get the contradiction $F(\alpha) < F(\alpha)$.

We now begin to analyze how S_{α_S} approximates α_S in terms of the size $|\Delta|$ of triangulation. Recall that $\{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_m\}$ forms a basis for $S_d^r(\Delta)$. We write $S_{\alpha_S} = \sum_{j=1}^m c_{S,j} \phi_j$. Then its coefficient vector $\mathbf{c}_S = (c_{S,1}, \dots, c_{S,m})^T$ satisfies $A_S \mathbf{c}_S = \mathbf{b}_S$ with A_S being a matrix of size $m \times m$ with entries $E(\langle \phi_i, S_X \rangle \langle \phi_j, S_X \rangle)$ for $i, j = 1, \dots, m$ and \mathbf{b}_S being a vector of length m with entries $E((Y) \langle \phi_j, S_X \rangle)$ for $j = 1, \dots, m$. We can show that A_S converges to A as $|\Delta| \rightarrow 0$ because $E(\langle \phi_i, S_X \rangle \langle \phi_j, S_X \rangle) \rightarrow E(\langle \phi_i, X \rangle \langle \phi_j, X \rangle)$ as $S_X \rightarrow X$ by Theorem 2.1. That is, we have $\|S_X - X\|_{\infty, \mathcal{D}} \leq C|\Delta|^\nu \|X\|_{\nu, \infty, \mathcal{D}}$ for $X \in W_2^\nu(\mathcal{D})$ with $\nu \geq r > 0$.

To see that S_{α_S} is a good approximation of α_S , we let $\{\phi_j, j = m+1, m+2, \dots\}$ be a basis of the orthogonal complement space of $S_d^r(\Delta)$ in H as before. Then we can write $\alpha_S = \sum_{j=1}^\infty c_{S,j} \phi_j$. Note that the minimization in (15) yields $E(\langle \alpha_S, S_X \rangle \langle \phi_j, S_X \rangle) = E((Y) \langle \phi_j, S_X \rangle)$ for all $j = 1, 2, \dots$ while the minimization in (16) gives

$$E(\langle S_{\alpha_S}, S_X \rangle \langle \phi_j, S_X \rangle) = E(Y \langle \phi_j, S_X \rangle)$$

for all $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$. It follows that

$$E(\langle \alpha_S - S_{\alpha_S}, S_X \rangle \langle \phi_j, S_X \rangle) = 0 \quad (17)$$

for all $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$. Let Q_α be the quasi-interpolatory spline in $S_d^r(\Delta)$ which achieves the optimal order of approximation of α_S from $S_d^r(\Delta)$ as in Preliminary section. Then (17) implies that

$$\begin{aligned} E((\langle \alpha_S - S_{\alpha_S}, S_X \rangle)^2) &= E(\langle S_\alpha - S_{\alpha_S}, S_X \rangle \langle \alpha_S - Q_{\alpha_S}, S_X \rangle) \\ &\leq (E((\langle \alpha_S - S_{\alpha_S}, S_X \rangle)^2))^{1/2} E((\langle \alpha_S - Q_{\alpha_S}, S_X \rangle)^2)^{1/2}. \end{aligned}$$

It yields $E((\langle \alpha_S - S_{\alpha_S}, S_X \rangle)^2) \leq E((\langle \alpha_S - Q_{\alpha_S}, S_X \rangle)^2) \leq \|\alpha_S - Q_{\alpha_S}\|_H^2 E(\|S_X\|^2)$. The convergence of S_X to X implies that $E(\|S_X\|^2)$ is bounded by a constant dependent on $E(\|X\|^2)$. The approximation of the quasi-interpolant Q_{α_S} of α_S (Theorem 2.1) gives:

Theorem 4.1: *Suppose that $E(\|X\|^2) < \infty$ and suppose $\alpha \in C^r(\mathcal{D})$ for $r \geq 0$. Then the solution S_{α_S} from the minimization problem (16) approximates α_S in the following sense: $E((\langle \alpha_S - S_{\alpha_S}, S_X \rangle)^2) \leq C|\Delta|^{2r}$ for a constant C dependent on $E(\|X\|^2)$, where $|\Delta|$ is the maximal length of the edges of Δ .*

Next we consider the empirical estimate of S_α based on discrete observations of random surfaces $X_i, i = 1, \dots, n$. The empirical estimate $\widetilde{S_{\alpha, \rho, n}} \in S_d^r(\Delta)$ is the solution of

$$\widetilde{S_{\alpha, \rho, n}} = \arg \min_{\beta \in S_d^r(\Delta)} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \langle \beta, S_{X_i} \rangle)^2 + \rho \|\beta\|_r^2.$$

In fact the solution of the above minimization is given by $\widetilde{S_{\alpha, \rho, n}} = \sum_{i=1}^m \widetilde{c_{n,i}} \phi_i$ with coefficient vector $\widetilde{\mathbf{c}}_n = (\widetilde{c_{n,i}}, i = 1, \dots, m)$ satisfying $\widetilde{A}_n \widetilde{\mathbf{c}}_n = \widetilde{b}_n$, and

$$\widetilde{A}_n = \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n \langle \phi_i, S_{X_\ell} \rangle \langle \phi_j, S_{X_\ell} \rangle + \rho \mathcal{E}_r(\phi_i, \phi_j) \right]_{i,j=1, \dots, m},$$

where S_{X_ℓ} is the discrete least squares fit of X_ℓ and

$$\widetilde{b}_n = \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n Y_\ell \langle \phi_j, S_{X_\ell} \rangle \right]_{j=1, \dots, m}.$$

Recall the definition of \widehat{A}_n in Section 3. We have

$$\widetilde{A}_n - \widehat{A}_n = \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n \langle \phi_i, S_{X_\ell} \rangle \langle \phi_j, S_{X_\ell} \rangle - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n \langle \phi_i, X_\ell \rangle \langle \phi_j, X_\ell \rangle \right]_{i,j=1, \dots, m}.$$

As S_{X_ℓ} converges X_ℓ as $|\Delta| \rightarrow 0$, i.e., $S_{X_\ell} - X_\ell = O(|\Delta|^\nu)$, we can show that $\|\widetilde{A}_n - \widehat{A}_n\|_\infty = O(|\Delta|^{\nu-2})$ and hence, $\|\widetilde{A}_n - \widehat{A}_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$ if $\nu > 2$. Likewise, $\widetilde{b}_n - \widehat{b}_n$ converges to 0. We consider here the case with no penalty for convenience. Lemma 3.5 implies that $\widetilde{S_{\alpha, \rho, n}}$ converges to $\widehat{S_{\alpha, \rho, n}}$ as $|\Delta| \rightarrow 0$ under certain assumptions on $X_\ell, \ell = 1, \dots, n$ with $n > m$ and $\nu > 4$. Indeed, let us assume that the surfaces $X_\ell, \ell = 1, \dots, n$ are orthonormal and span a space which contains $S_d^r(\Delta)$ (or form a tight frame of a space which contains $S_d^r(\Delta)$.) Then we can show that the condition numbers $\kappa(\widehat{A}_n)$ are bounded by n . Note that the condition number of $\kappa(\widehat{A}_n)$ can be computed as the modulus of the ratio of the largest and smallest eigenvalues of the matrix. It is known that the largest eigenvalue λ_{max} and smallest eigenvalue λ_{min} of the matrix \widehat{A}_n satisfy:

$$\lambda_{min} = \min_{\mathbf{c} \in \mathbf{R}^m} \frac{\mathbf{c}^T \widehat{A}_n \mathbf{c}}{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{c}} \leq \max_{\mathbf{c} \in \mathbf{R}^m} \frac{\mathbf{c}^T \widehat{A}_n \mathbf{c}}{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{c}} = \lambda_{max}.$$

Writing $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_m)^T$, we let $S = \sum_{i=1}^m c_i \phi_i \in S_d^r(\Delta)$. Then by Lemma 3.4, λ_{\max} and λ_{\min} are equivalent to

$$\max_{S \in S_d^r(\Delta)} \frac{1}{n \|S\|_2^2} \sum_{\ell=1}^n |\langle S, X_\ell \rangle|^2 \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^n \|X_\ell\|_2^2 = 1$$

and

$$\min_{S \in S_d^r(\Delta)} \frac{1}{n \|S\|_2^2} \sum_{\ell=1}^n |\langle S, X_\ell \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{n}$$

Let us further assume that $n = Cm$ for some fixed constant $C > 1$. Next we note that the dimension of $S_d^r(\Delta)$ is strictly less than $\frac{d+2}{2}N$ with N being the number of triangles in Δ while N can be estimated as follows. Let $A_{\mathcal{D}}$ be the area of the underlying domain \mathcal{D} and assume that the triangulation Δ is quasi-uniform (cf. [20]). Then $N \leq C_1 A_{\mathcal{D}} / |\Delta|^2$ for a positive constant C_1 . Thus, the condition number $\kappa(\widehat{A}_n) \leq Cm \leq CC_1 A_{\mathcal{D}} |\Delta|^{-2}$. That is, $\kappa(\widehat{A}_n) \frac{\|\widehat{A}_n - \widetilde{A}_n\|_\infty}{\|\widetilde{A}_n\|_\infty} = O(|\Delta|^{\nu-4})$.

Therefore, Lemma 3.5 implies that the coefficients of $\widetilde{S}_{\alpha, \rho, n}$ converges to that of $\widehat{S}_{\alpha, \rho, n}$ as $|\Delta| \rightarrow 0$ when $\nu > 4$. With Lemma 3.4, we conclude that $\widetilde{S}_{\alpha, \rho, n}$ converges to $\widehat{S}_{\alpha, \rho, n}$.

A similar analysis can be carried out for the approximation with a penalized term. The details are omitted here. Instead, we shall present the convergence based on our numerical experimental results in the next section.

5. Numerical Simulation and Experiments

5.1. Simulations

In this subsection, we present a simulation example on a complicated domain, delimited by the United States frontiers, which has been scaled into $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, see Figure 1. With bivariate spline functions, we can easily carry out all the experiments.

We illustrate the consistency of our estimators using the linear functional: $Y = \langle g, X \rangle$ with known function $g(x, y) = \sin(2\pi(x^2 + y^2))$ over the (scaled) US domain. The purpose of the simulation is to estimate g from the value Y based on random surfaces X . The bivariate spline space we employed is $S_5^1(\Delta)$, where Δ consists of 174 triangles (Fig. 1).

We choose a sample size $n = 5, 20, 100, 200, 500$ and 1000. For each $i = 1, \dots, n$, we first randomly choose a vector \mathbf{c}_i of size m which is the dimension of $S_5^1(\Delta)$. This coefficient vector \mathbf{c}_i defines a spline function S_i . We evaluate S_i over the (scaled) locations of 969 stations from the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) around the USA, and add a small noise with zero mean and standard deviation 0.4 at each location. We compute a least squares fit \widetilde{S}_i of the resulting 969 values by using the spline space $S_5^1(\Delta)$ and compute the inner product of g and \widetilde{S}_i . We add a small noise of zero mean and standard deviation 0.0002 to get a noisy value Y_i of the functional.

Secondly we build the associated matrix \widetilde{A}_n as in section 4 and the right-hand side vector \widetilde{b}_n , for which we use a penalty of $\rho = 10^{-9}$. Finally we solve the linear equation to get the solution vector \mathbf{c} and spline approximation $\widetilde{S}_{g, \rho, n}$ of g . We then

evaluate g and $\widetilde{S_{g,\rho,n}}$ at locations which are the 101×101 equally spaced points over $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ that fall into the US domain, to compute their differences and find their maximum as well as L_2 norm. We carry out a Monte Carlo experiment over 20 different random seeds. The numerical results show that we approximate well the linear functional, see Table 1. An example of $S_{g,\rho,500}$ is shown in Fig. 2. Note that in this study, the signal to noise ratio is around 10. We tried various large signal to noise ratios, with satisfying results not reported here. Further theoretical and applied studies of how the results of the estimation varies according to the signal to noise ratio are interesting. We leave them for future research.

5.2. Ozone concentration Forecasting

In this application, we forecast the ground-level ozone concentration at the center of Atlanta using the random surfaces over the entire U.S. domain based on the measurements at various EPA stations from the previous days. Assume that the ozone concentration in Atlanta on one day at a particular time is a linear functional of the ozone concentration distribution over the U.S. continent on the previous day. Also we may assume that the linear functional is continuous. These are reasonable assumptions as the concentration in Atlanta is proportional to the concentration distribution over the entire U.S. continent and a small change in the concentration distribution over the U.S. continent results a small change of the concentration at Atlanta under a normal circumstance. Thus, we build one regression model of the type (1), where $f(X)$ is the ozone concentration value at the center of Atlanta at one hour of one day, X is the ozone concentration distribution function over entire U.S. continent at the same hour but on the previous day, and g is estimated using the penalized least squares approximation with penalty ($= 10^{-2}$) presented in the previous section. Let us outline our computational scheme as follows. Step 1) based on the observations X over 969 EPA station around the U.S. at a given hour of a given day, we compute a penalized least squares fit spline S_X with penalized parameter $= 10^{-2}$, where S_X is a spline function of degree 5 and smoothness 1 over the triangulation given in the previous subsection. Let f_X be the ozone concentration at Atlanta at the given hour of the day after the given day. Step 2) we find a spline function S_A of degree 5 and smoothness 1 over the same triangulation which solves the following minimization problem

$$\min_{s \in S_5^1(\Delta)} \frac{1}{24N} \sum_{i=1}^{24N} (f_{X_i} - \langle s, S_{X_i} \rangle)^2$$

for N days. To predict the ozone value at Atlanta on Sept. 8, we use all the observations over N days before and on Sept 6 as well as ozone values f_{X_i} at Atlanta on Sept. 7. Step 3) based on the ozone values Z over the US at a given hour on Sept. 7, we compute a penalized least squares fit S_Z and then compute the inner product S_Z with S_A to predict the ozone value at the given hour on Sept. 8. We compute the predictions based on N day learning period along these lines for various values of N . We use a penalized least squares fit S_X of X instead of the discrete least squares fit in the previous subsection to carry out the empirical estimate $\widetilde{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}}$ for S_g . See [1] for an explanation and discussion of bivariate splines for data fitting.

For computational efficiency, we actually used only one quarter of the triangulations of the whole U.S. continent to generate the predictions given in the figures below. The triangulation of this region (southeastern region of the U.S.) is shown

in Figure 3. From these figures, it is easy to see that our spline predictions are very close to the true measurements. In particular, they are consistent for various learning periods. For more experimental results based on various size of triangulations and regions, see [13].

This may be compared with the univariate functional autoregressive ozone concentration prediction method [10], but here with no exogenous variables. The idea is to consider a time series of functions which correspond to the ozone concentrations at the location of interest over 24 hours, and then build an autoregressive Hilbertian (ARH) model for this time series. The estimation of the autocorrelation operator in a reduced subspace enables predictions. We selected only 5 functional principal components in the dimension reduction process to keep parsimony in our model, due to sample sizes (i.e number of days considered) of 7 to 14. As we see on Figures 5 to 8, the forecasts provided by the 2-D spline strategy outperforms the univariate functional autoregressive method based on the same sizes of samples. This may be explained by the fact that the 2-D approach uses more information to construct its forecasts. The comparisons show that our bivariate spline technique almost consistently predicts the ozone concentration values which are closer to the observed values for these 5 days for various learning periods, especially near the peaks. The 1-D method presented in this paper, which is considered to be among the best of many 1-D forecasting methods [10], is not consistent for various learning periods and the patterns based on the 1-D method are not as close to the exact measurements as those based on the bivariate spline method most of the time. This could be explained by the very small sample size. The 2-D method naturally borrows strength across space and does not suffer as much from the lack of data.

Finally we remark that we are currently studying the auto-regressive approach using orthonormal expansion in a bivariate spline space for the ozone concentration prediction (cf. [13]) and numerical results as well as comparison of both approaches will be available soon. Our study shows that to determine how many eigenvalues and eigenfunctions should be used for the best prediction is not easy.

Acknowledgement: The authors would like to thank Ms Bree Ettinger for help in performing the numerical experiments using 2D splines for ozone concentration predictions reported in this paper. We thank the referees for making very constructive comments that enabled us to greatly improve the results and the presentation of the paper.

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Tables and Figures

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Table 1. Errors for the differences $\widetilde{S_{\alpha,\rho,n}} - S_{\alpha}$ for the simulation and sample sizes $n = 5, 20, 100, 200, 500$ and 1000 based on 20 Monte Carlo simulations and 174 triangles.

sample size	L^2 error		
	min	mean	max
$n = 5$	0.671	2.195	31.821
$n = 20$	0.427	0.564	0.666
$n = 100$	0.080	0.115	0.153
$n = 200$	0.048	0.060	0.081
$n = 500$	0.036	0.040	0.044
$n = 1000$	0.029	0.032	0.035
sample size	L^{∞} error		
	min	mean	max
$n = 5$	1.242	1.988	3.086
$n = 20$	1.398	2.221	3.584
$n = 100$	0.336	0.468	0.717
$n = 200$	0.158	0.254	0.534
$n = 500$	0.112	0.136	0.207
$n = 1000$	0.092	0.102	0.123

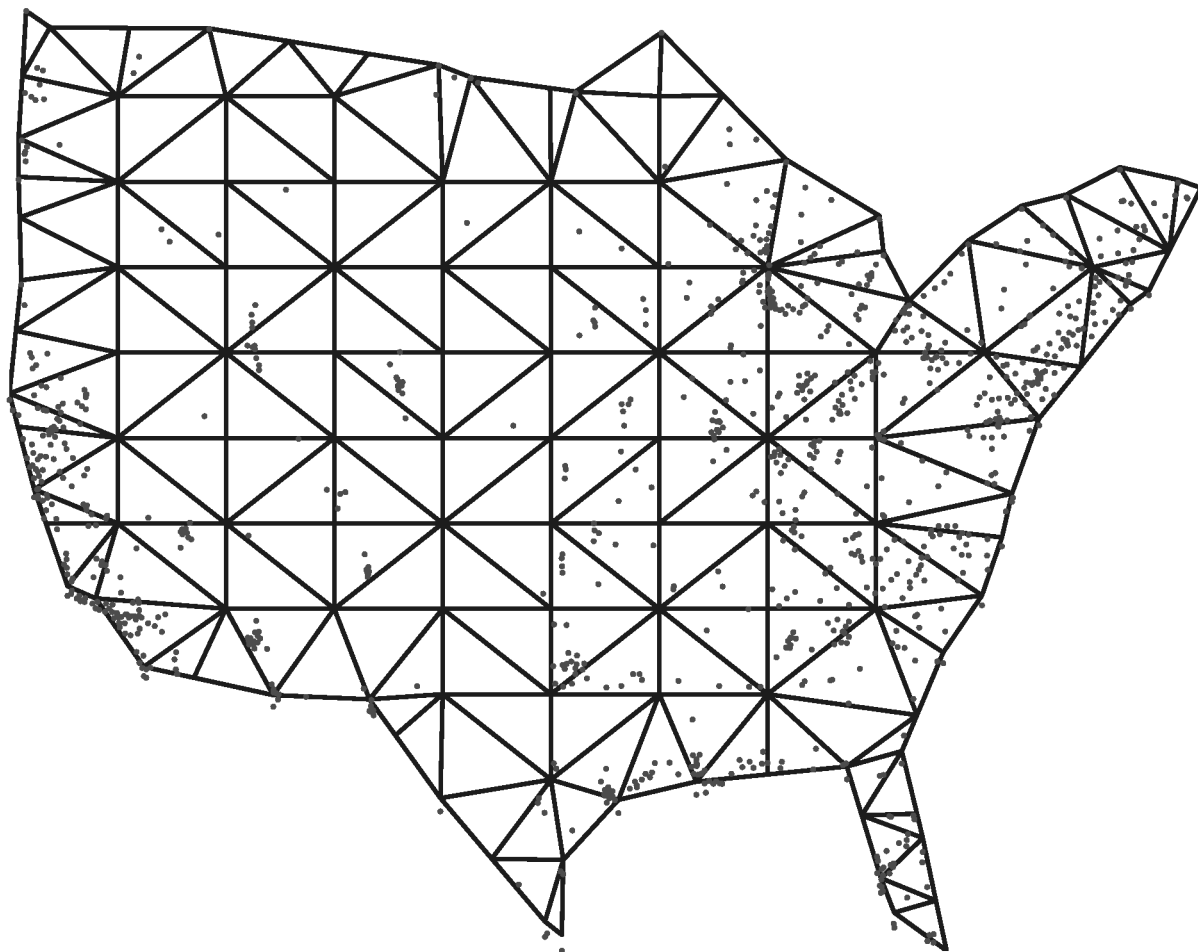


Figure 1. Locations of EPA stations and a Triangulation

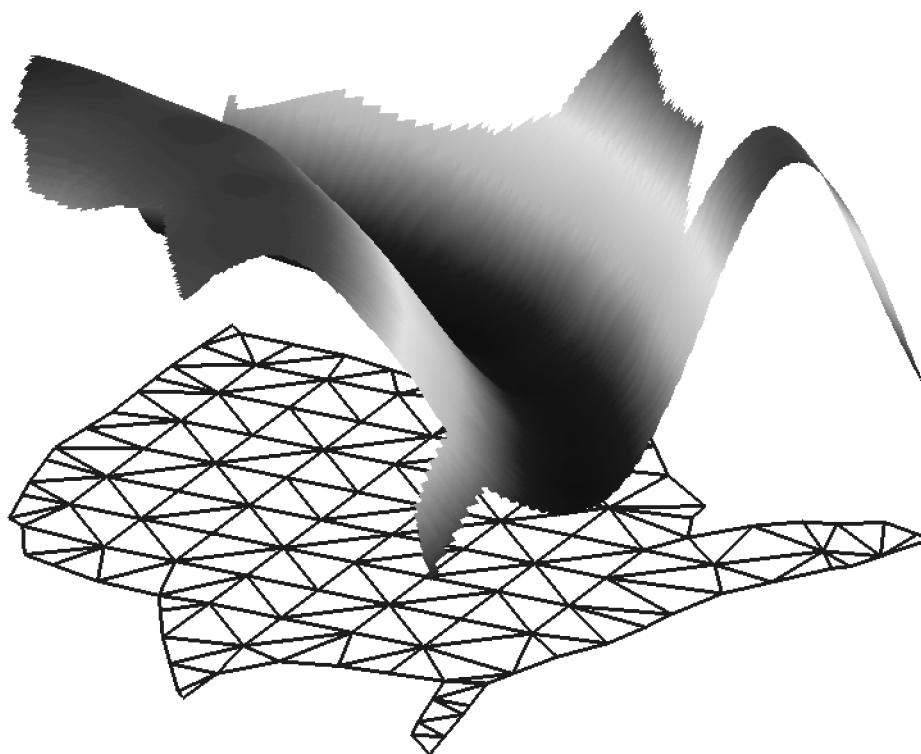


Figure 2. The Surface of Spline Approximation $S_{g,n}$

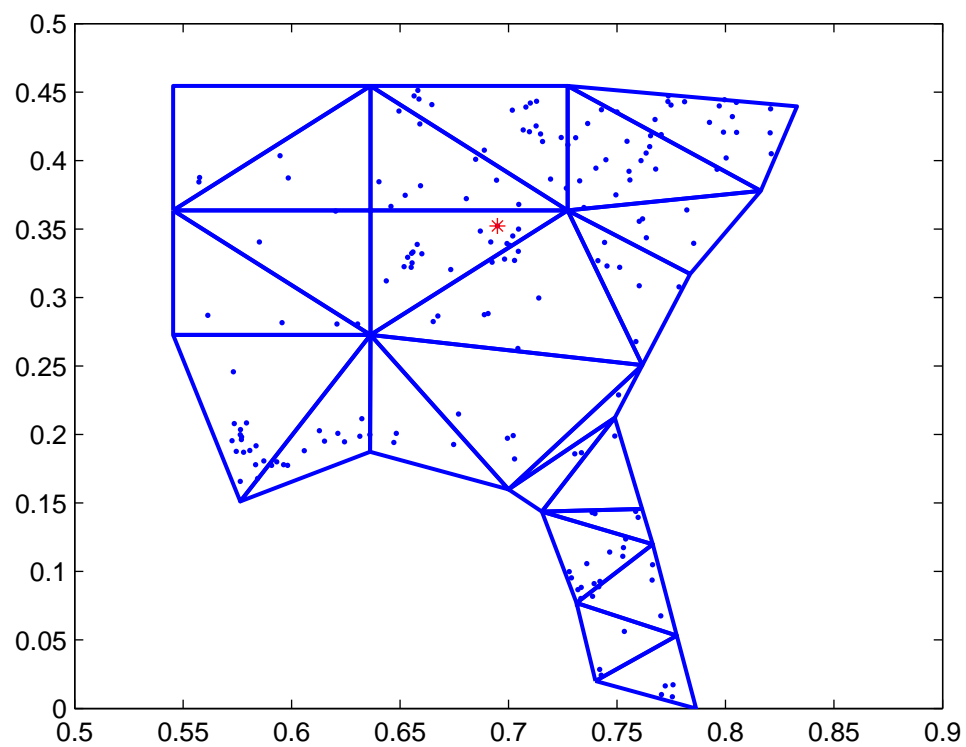


Figure 3. Locations of EPA stations and a triangulation of the Southeastern US. The star is the location of the Atlanta observation station used for predictions.

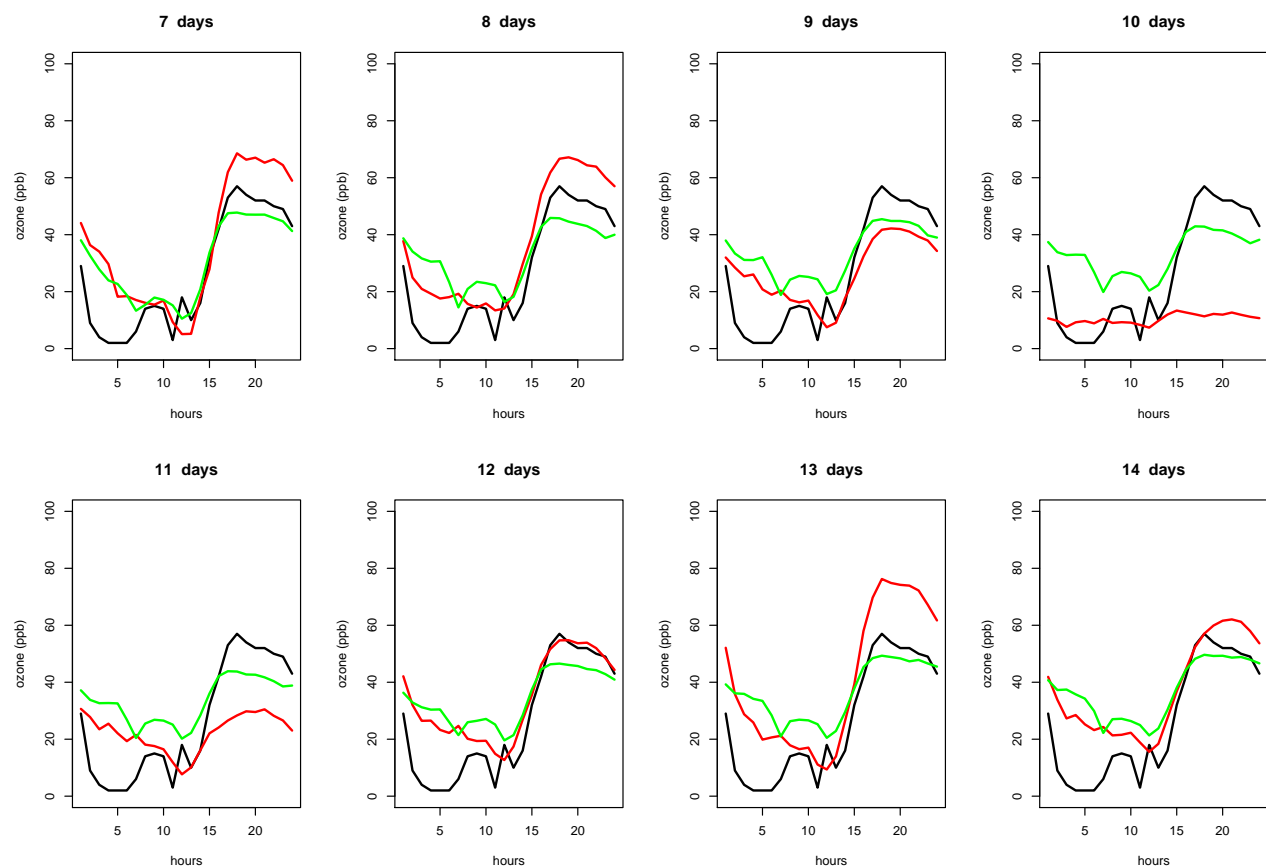


Figure 4. Ozone concentrations in Atlanta on Sept. 8, 2005. Observations (black), forecast 1-D (red), forecast 2-D (green)

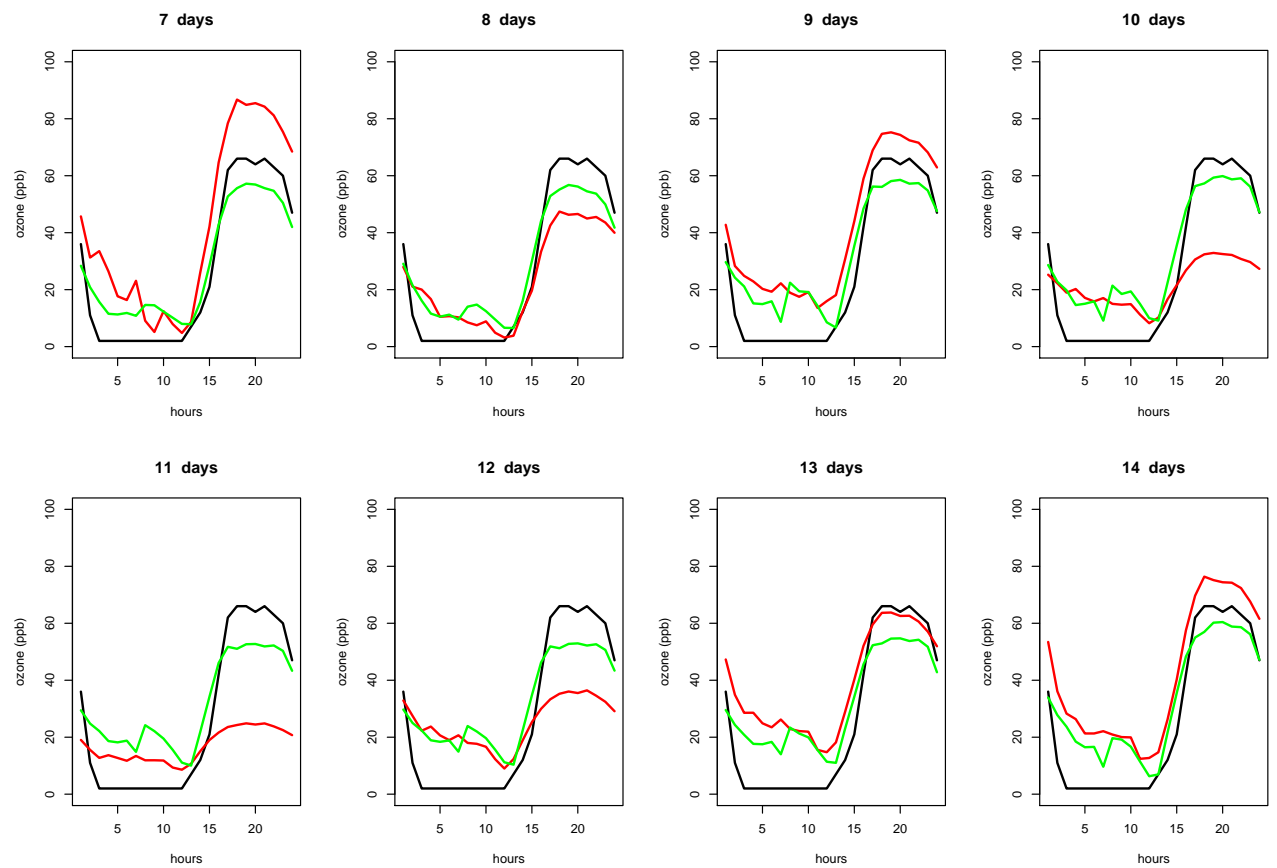


Figure 5. Ozone concentrations in Atlanta on Sept. 9, 2005. Observations (black), forecast 1-D (red), forecast 2-D (green)

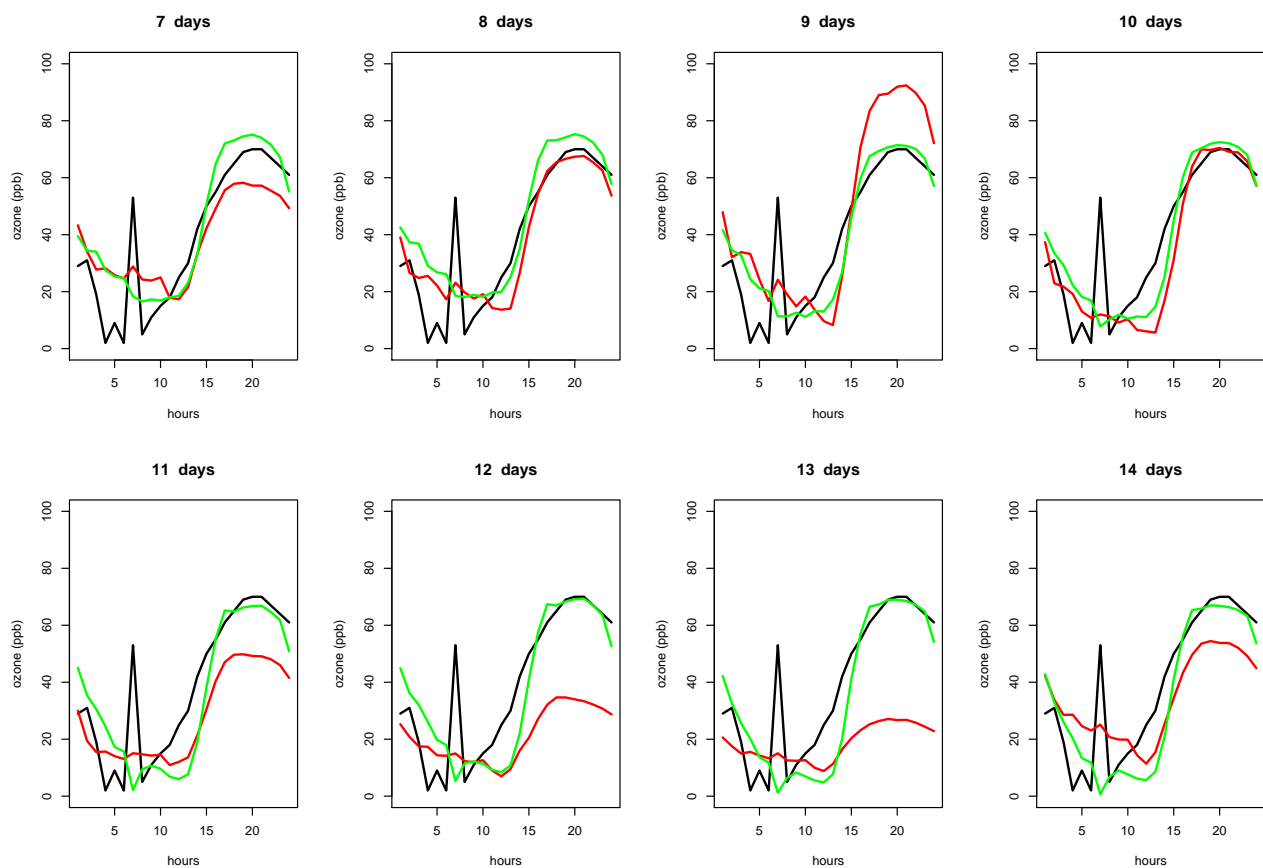


Figure 6. Ozone concentrations in Atlanta on Sept. 11, 2005. Observations (black), forecast 1-D (red), forecast 2-D (green)

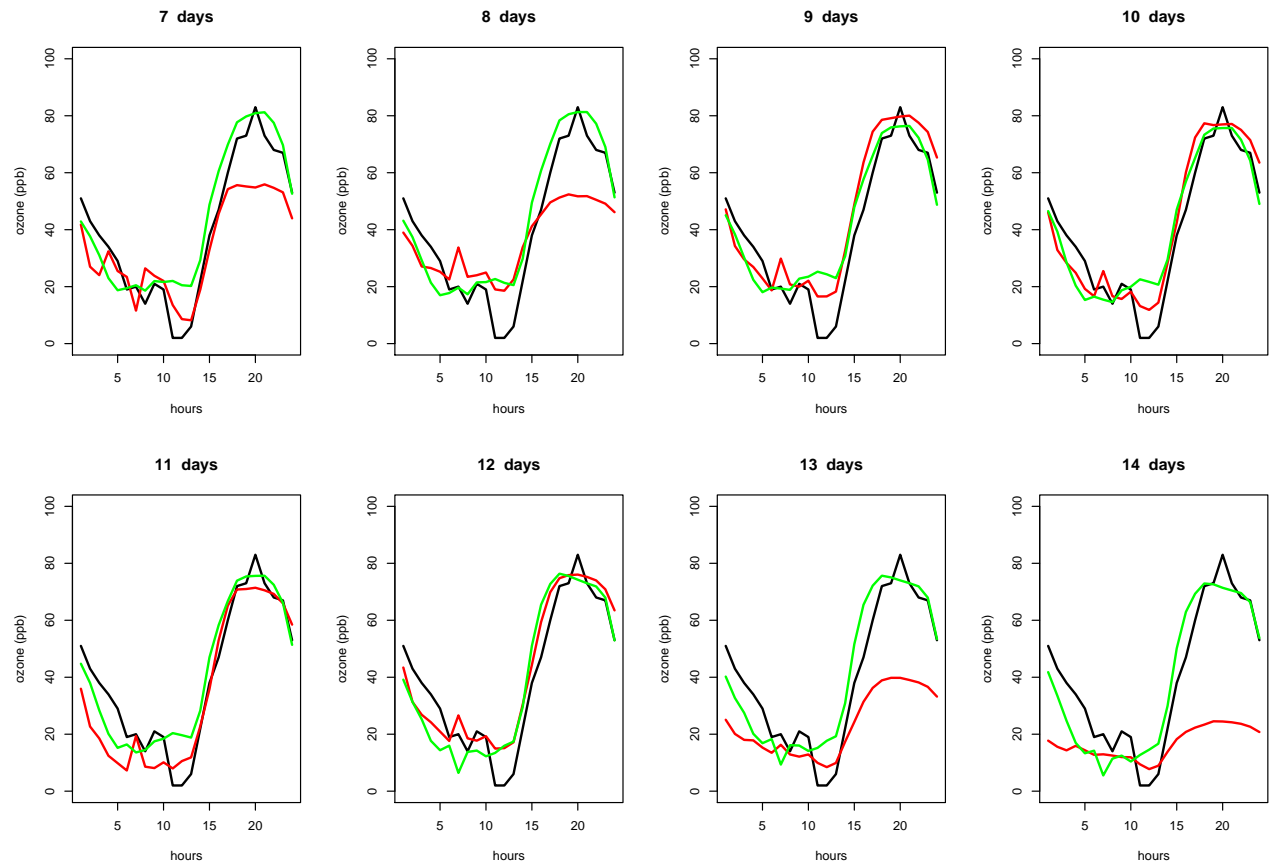


Figure 7. Ozone concentrations in Atlanta on Sept. 12, 2005. Observations (black), forecast 1-D (red), forecast 2-D (green)

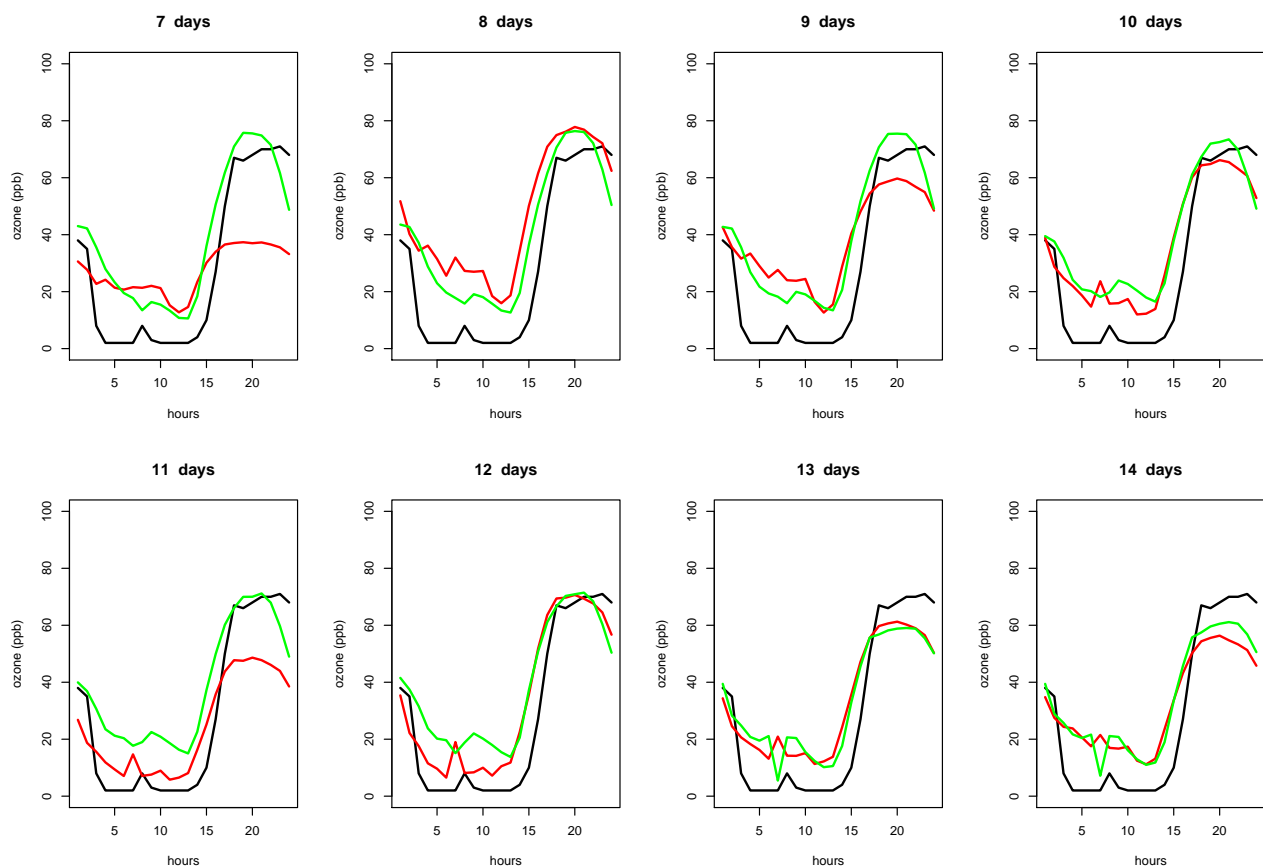


Figure 8. Ozone concentrations in Atlanta on Sept. 13, 2005. Observations (black), forecast 1-D (red), forecast 2-D (green)

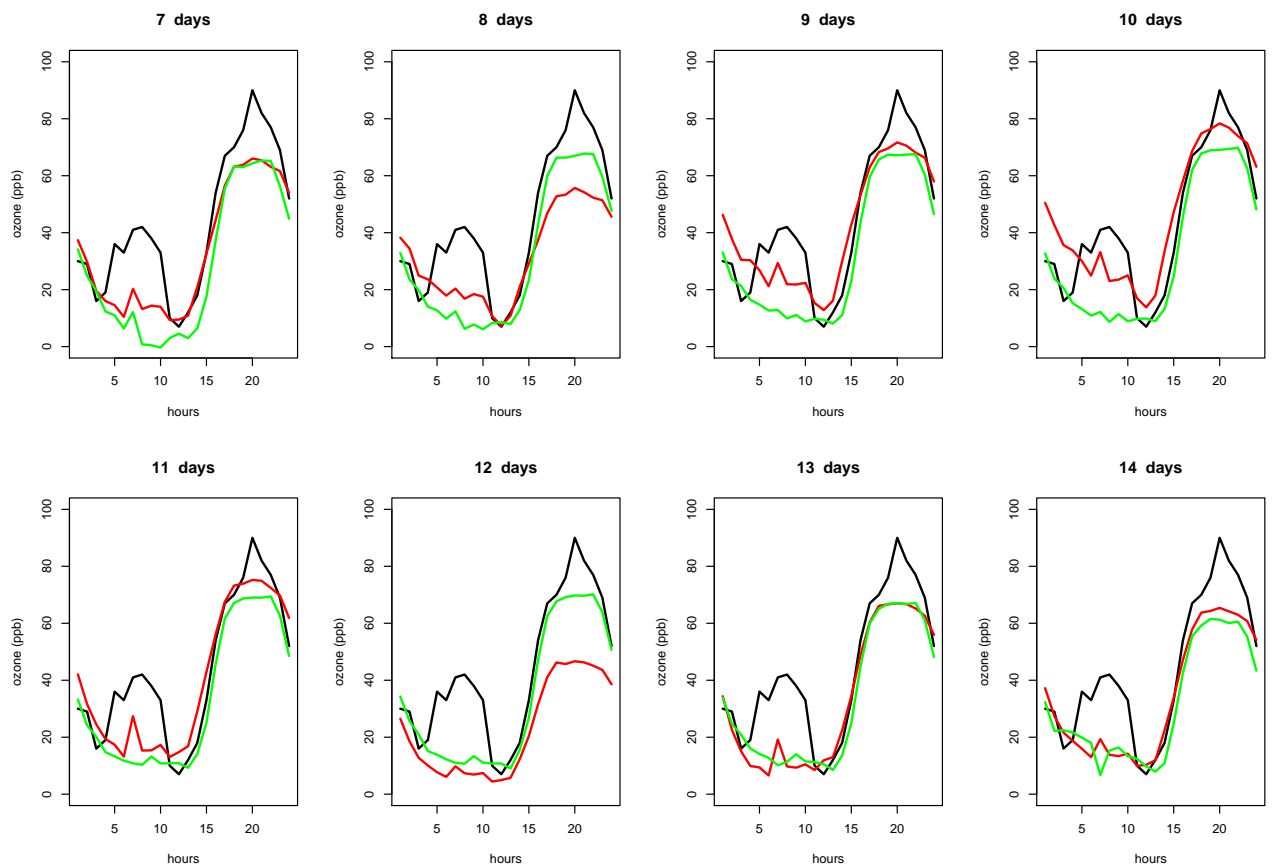


Figure 9. Ozone concentrations in Atlanta on Sept. 14, 2005. Observations (black), forecast 1-D (red), forecast 2-D (green)

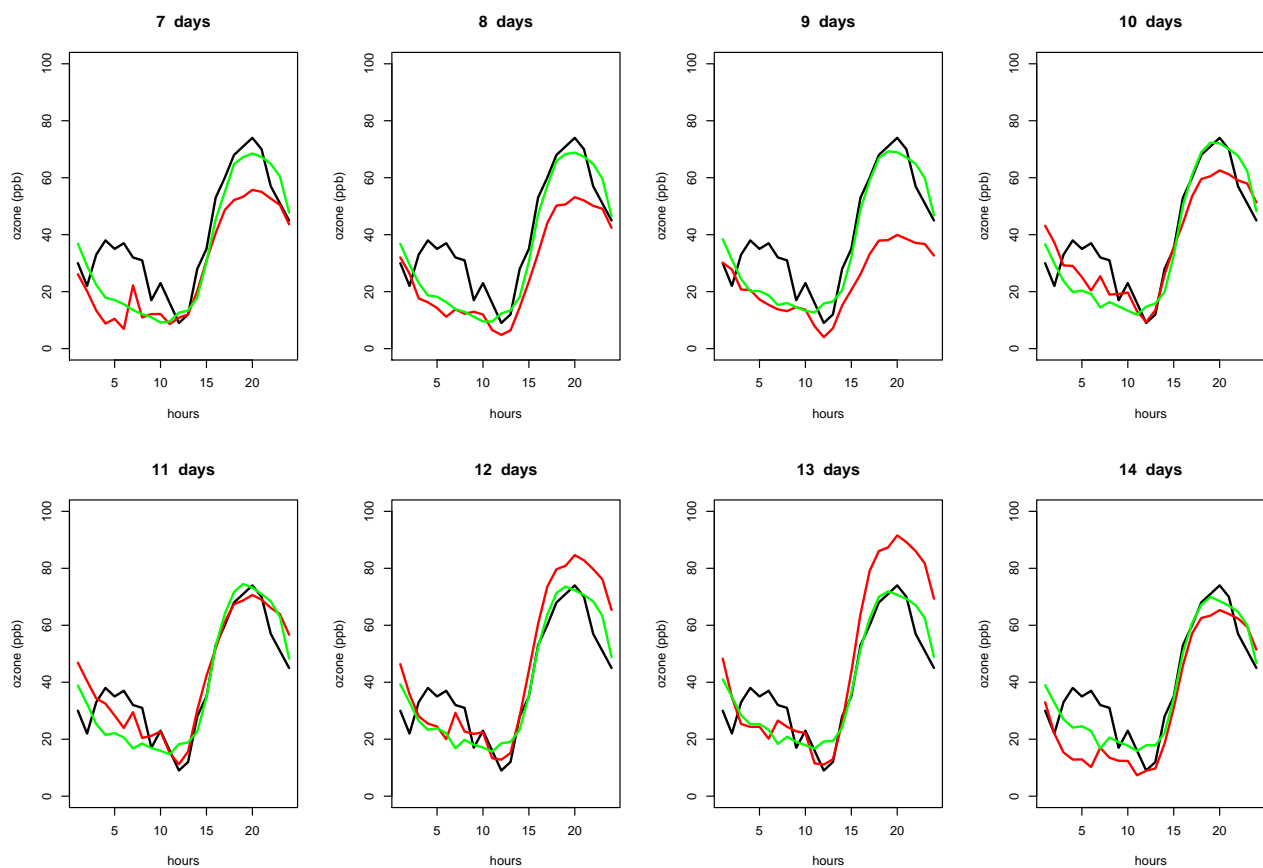


Figure 10. Ozone concentrations in Atlanta on Sept. 15, 2005. Observations (black), forecast 1-D (red), forecast 2-D (green)

