

# MATH-517: Assignment 3

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## 1. Theoretical exercise

### 1.1

In order to prove that the local linear regression estimator,  $\hat{m}(x)$ , belongs to the class of **linear smoothers**, we need to prove that the estimator can be written as a weighted average of the observations  $Y_i$ , where the weights  $w_{ni}(x)$  depend on the predictor variables  $X_i$ , the target point  $x$ , the kernel function  $K$ , and the bandwidth  $h$ , but **not** on the response variables  $Y_i$ .

#### The Minimization Problem

Let's start analyzing the function that we have to minimize in order to find the coefficients of the local linear regression estimator,  $\hat{\beta}_0(x)$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1(x)$ .

$$L(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1(X_i - x))^2 K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)$$

- The term  $(Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1(X_i - x))$  is the residual for the  $i$ -th observation with respect to the local line at point  $x$ .
- The term  $K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)$  is the weight assigned by the kernel function. This weight is large when  $X_i$  is “close” to  $x$  and small when it is “far”.

#### Deriving the Normal Equations

To find the values of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  that minimize  $L$ , we take the partial derivatives with respect to each parameter and set them to zero. For notational simplicity, let's define  $k_i(x) = K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)$ .

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_0} = \sum_{i=1}^n -2(Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1(X_i - x))k_i(x) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_1} = \sum_{i=1}^n -2(X_i - x)(Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1(X_i - x))k_i(x) = 0$$

### Solving the System by Substitution

To make the system more manageable, we use the following summary notations for the weighted sums:

- $S_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n k_i(x)$
- $S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - x)k_i(x)$
- $S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - x)^2 k_i(x)$
- $T_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i k_i(x)$
- $T_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i (X_i - x)k_i(x)$

The system becomes:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\beta}_0 S_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 S_1 = T_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_0 S_1 + \hat{\beta}_1 S_2 = T_1 \end{cases}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 S_1 = T_0 - \hat{\beta}_0 S_0 \implies \hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{T_0 - \hat{\beta}_0 S_0}{S_1}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 S_1 + \left( \frac{T_0 - \hat{\beta}_0 S_0}{S_1} \right) S_2 = T_1$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 S_1^2 + T_0 S_2 - \hat{\beta}_0 S_0 S_2 = T_1 S_1$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 (S_1^2 - S_0 S_2) = T_1 S_1 - T_0 S_2$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \frac{T_1 S_1 - T_0 S_2}{S_1^2 - S_0 S_2} = \frac{T_0 S_2 - T_1 S_1}{S_0 S_2 - S_1^2}$$

## Expressing the Estimator as a Weighted Average

Now that we have solved for  $\hat{\beta}_0$ , we substitute the definitions of  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  back into the solution:

$$\hat{m}(x) = \hat{\beta}_0 = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i k_i(x)\right) S_2 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i (X_i - x) k_i(x)\right) S_1}{S_0 S_2 - S_1^2}$$

We can rewrite the numerator by factoring out  $Y_i$  and  $k_i(x)$ :

$$\hat{m}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \underbrace{\left[ \frac{k_i(x) (S_2 - (X_i - x) S_1)}{S_0 S_2 - S_1^2} \right]}_{w_{ni}(x)}$$

As required, these weights **depend only on the target point**  $x$ , the data points  $X_i$ , the kernel function  $K$ , and the bandwidth  $h$ . They do **not** depend on the response values  $Y_i$ . This completes the proof that local linear regression is a **linear smoother**.

## 1.2

From the first part of the exercise, we derived the weight expression using the sum notation  $S_k$ , here we defined  $S_k = \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - x)^k K\left(\frac{X_j - x}{h}\right)$ .

$$w_{ni}(x) = \frac{K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right) (S_2 - (X_i - x) S_1)}{S_0 S_2 - S_1^2} \quad (*),$$

The new notation provided in the exercise is:

$$S_{n,k}(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - x)^k K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{S}_k = \mathbf{n}h \cdot \mathbf{S}_{n,k}(\mathbf{x})$$

### Substitution into the Weight Expression

We will now substitute this relationship into our original weight equation (\*).

$$w_{ni}(x) = \frac{K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right) ((nh \cdot S_{n,2}(x)) - (X_i - x)(nh \cdot S_{n,1}(x)))}{(nh \cdot S_{n,0}(x))(nh \cdot S_{n,2}(x)) - (nh \cdot S_{n,1}(x))^2}$$

$$w_{ni}(x) = \frac{nh \cdot K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right) (S_{n,2}(x) - (X_i - x)S_{n,1}(x))}{(nh)^2 (S_{n,0}(x)S_{n,2}(x) - S_{n,1}(x)^2)}$$

We can cancel the common factor  $nh$  from the numerator and denominator. This leaves us with the final, explicit expression for the weights:

$$w_{ni}(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \frac{K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right) (S_{n,2}(x) - (X_i - x)S_{n,1}(x))}{S_{n,0}(x)S_{n,2}(x) - S_{n,1}(x)^2}$$

### 1.3

We need to prove that  $\sum_{i=1}^n w_{ni}(x) = 1$ , that is a property of any weighted average.

The denominator,  $S_0S_2 - S_1^2$ , is a constant with respect to the summation index  $i$ , so we can factor it out:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n w_{ni}(x) = \frac{1}{S_0S_2 - S_1^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right) (S_2 - (X_i - x)S_1) \right]$$

Let's expand the sum in the numerator by distributing the kernel term:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left[ S_2 \cdot K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right) - S_1 \cdot (X_i - x)K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right) \right]$$

We can split this into two separate sums:

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n S_2 \cdot K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right) - \sum_{i=1}^n S_1 \cdot (X_i - x)K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right)$$

Since  $S_2$  and  $S_1$  are also constants with respect to the index  $i$ , we can pull them out of their respective sums:

$$= S_2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right) \right) - S_1 \left( \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - x)K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right) \right)$$

Now, we can recognize the sums in the parentheses. By their very definition:

- $\sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right) = S_0$
- $\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - x)K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right) = S_1$

Substituting these back into our expression, the numerator becomes:

$$S_2 \cdot S_0 - S_1 \cdot S_1 = S_0 S_2 - S_1^2$$

We now place the simplified numerator back over the original denominator:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n w_{ni}(x) = \frac{S_0 S_2 - S_1^2}{S_0 S_2 - S_1^2} = 1$$

## 2. Practical exercise

The goal is to perform a simulation study to assess the impact of some parameters/hyperparameters on the optimal bandwidth  $h_{AMISE}$ .

### 2.1 How does $h_{AMISE}$ behave when $N$ grows? Can you explain why?

To answer this question, we must understand how the block size  $N$  influences the estimation of the unknown quantities  $\sigma^2$  and  $\theta_{22}$ . The parameter  $N$  controls the complexity of the model used to estimate these quantities.

A larger value of  $N$  means the data is split into more, smaller blocks. Within each small block, the fitted quartic polynomial will adapt more closely to the local data points, resulting in a more flexible overall model. This increased flexibility leads to larger values for the estimated second derivatives,  $\hat{m}_j''(x)$ .

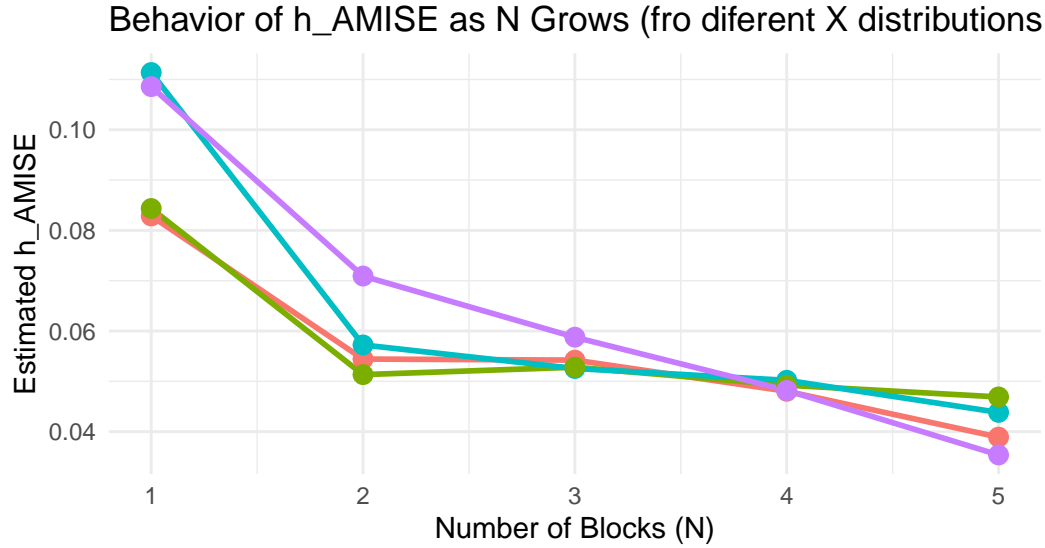
Since  $\hat{\theta}_{22}$  is calculated as the average of the squared second derivatives, a more wiggly model (larger  $N$ ) will produce a larger  $\hat{\theta}_{22}$ .

Looking at the formula for  $h_{AMISE}$ :

$$h_{AMISE} = n^{-1/5} \left( \frac{35\sigma^2 |\text{supp}(X)|}{\theta_{22}} \right)^{1/5}$$

we can see that  $\theta_{22}$  is in the denominator. Therefore, as  $N$  increases,  $\hat{\theta}_{22}$  increases, and consequently the estimated  $h_{AMISE}$  decreases.

To verify this, we run a single simulation with a large sample size ( $n=2000$ ) and calculate the estimated  $h_{AMISE}$  for each possible value of  $N$  from 1 to  $N_{max}$ .



tion — Asymmetric (a=2, b=5) — U-shaped (a=0.5, b=0.5) — Uniform (a=1, b=1) —

**Findings:** The plot above confirms our theoretical expectation. The estimated value of  $h_{AMISE}$  is a decreasing function of the number of blocks,  $N$ , used for the pilot estimation.

Depending on how the the number of observations varies between different regions  $h_{AMISE}$  decrease differently, but decreases anyway.

### Should $N$ depend on $n$ ? Why?

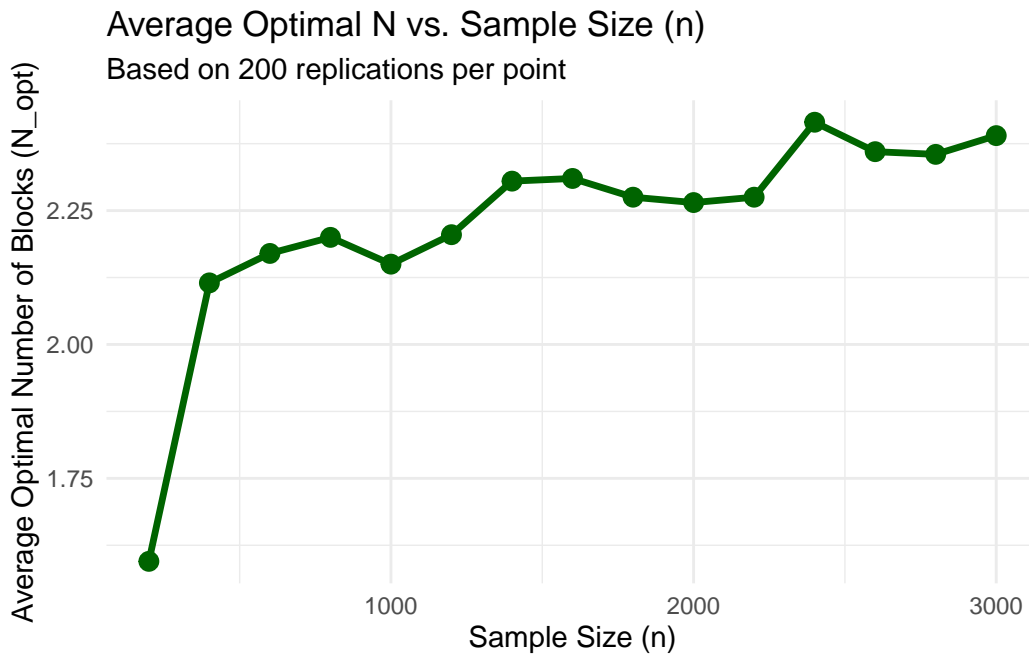
Yes, the optimal choice of  $N$  **must depend on**  $n$ . This is a **bias-variance trade-off**.

- **Small  $n$ :** With a small sample size, using a large  $N$  would result in very few data points per block. This would make the polynomial fit in each block highly unstable and variable. To control this high variance, a smaller  $N$  is preferred.
- **Large  $n$ :** With a large sample size, we can afford to use a larger  $N$ . Each block will still contain enough data for a stable fit. A larger  $N$  allows the pilot model to be more flexible and capture the local features of the true regression function  $m(x)$  more accurately, leading to a less biased estimate of  $\theta_{22}$ .

To demonstrate this relationship empirically, we conduct a comprehensive simulation study:

- **Define a Range of Sample Sizes:** We test a series of datasets with increasing sample sizes ( $n$ ). Specifically, we start with  $n = 200$  and increase the sample size in steps of 200 until we reach  $n = 3000$ .

- **Perform Multiple Replications:** For each single sample size  $n$ , we generate **200 different, independent datasets**. This step is crucial because the optimal  $N$  found for any single dataset can be influenced by the specific random sample of data points. By running 200 trials for the same  $n$ , we can average out this randomness.
- **Find the Optimal  $N$ :** In each of these trials, we apply the `find_optimal_N` function to determine the  $N_{opt}$  that minimizes Mallows's  $C_p$  for that specific dataset.
- **Average the Results:** After completing the 200 trials for a given  $n$ , we calculate the **average of the 200  $N_{opt}$  values** found (the average is a reliable estimate of the best number of blocks for that sample size)
- **Visualize the Trend:** We plot these averaged values against their corresponding sample sizes



**Findings:** The plot clearly shows an increasing relationship. As the sample size  $n$  grows, the optimal number of blocks  $N$  chosen by Mallows's  $C_p$  also tends to increase.

From the graph, we notice that the optimal number of blocks grows quickly at first; this is because for smaller sample sizes, increasing  $N$  from one to two provides a large reduction in bias that strongly outweighs the Mallows's  $C_p$  penalty for the added model complexity

**What happens when the number of observations varies a lot between different regions in the support of  $X$ ? How is this linked to the parameters of the Beta distribution?**

The number of observations in different regions is determined by the probability density function  $f_X(x)$  of the covariate.

This density has a significant and direct impact on  $\theta_{22}$ , that is inversely proportional to global optimal bandwidth  $h_{AMISE}$

$$\theta_{22} = \int m''(x)^2 f_X(x) dx$$

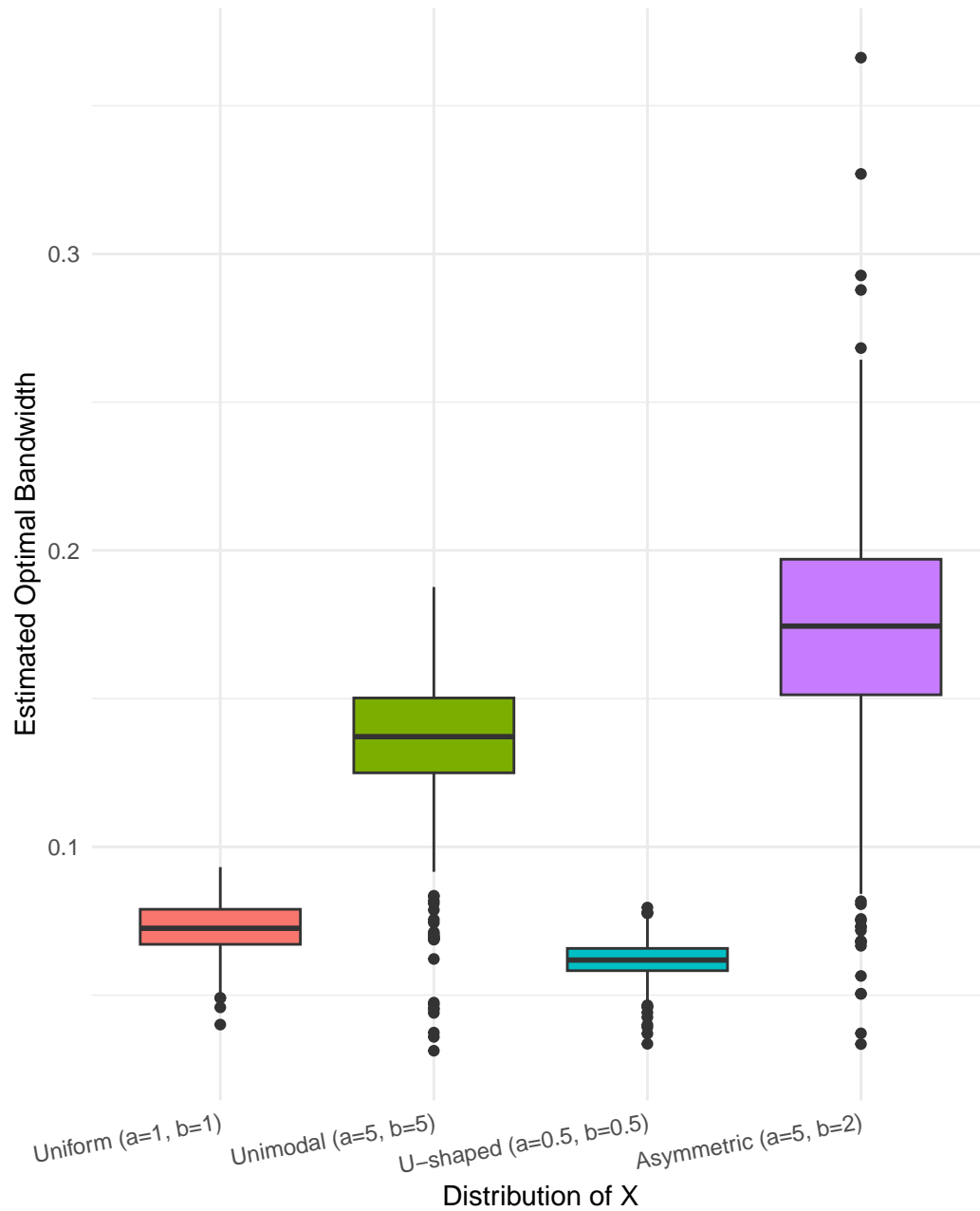
This is not a simple average of the squared curvature, but a weighted average, where the weights are the density values  $f_X(x)$  themselves. This means that regions where data is dense (high  $f_X(x)$ ) contribute far more to the final value  $\theta_{22}$  than regions where data is sparse.

The parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  of the Beta distribution are known as shape parameters; their values and their relationship to each other entirely determine the shape of the distribution's density curve.

To analyse this, for each shape (e.g., Uniform, Unimodal), we perform 200 replications; in each replication, a new random sample of 500 points is generated, and its corresponding optimal  $h_{AMISE}$  is calculated. This process yields a collection of 200  $h_{AMISE}$  values for each distribution type. We then use a boxplot to visualize these collections, to compare the median bandwidth and the overall variability of the estimates for each scenario.



## Impact of n° of observations in different regions on $h_{AMISE}$

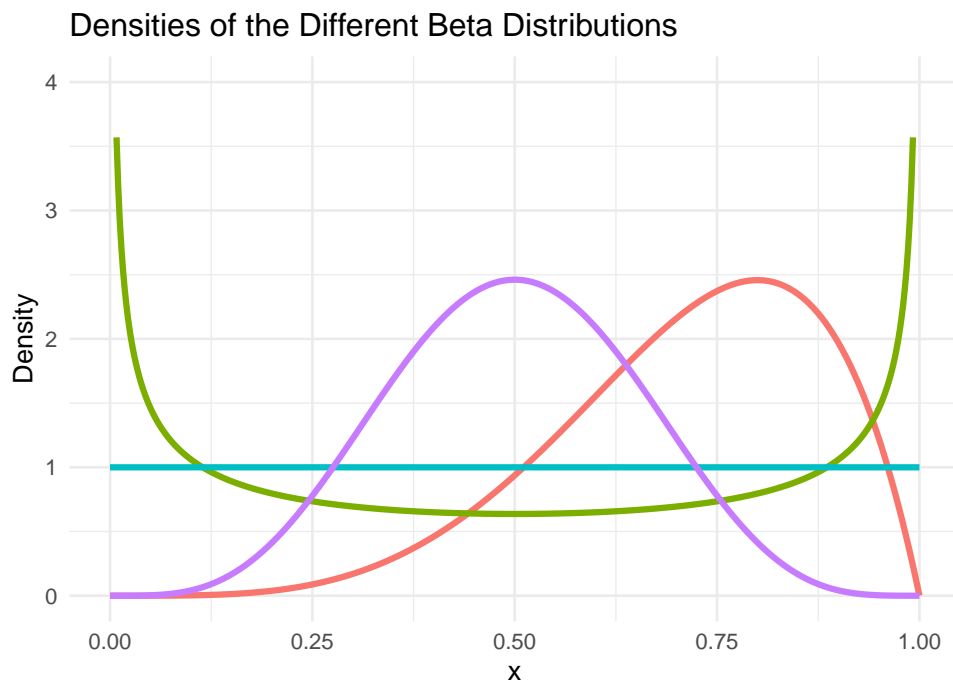
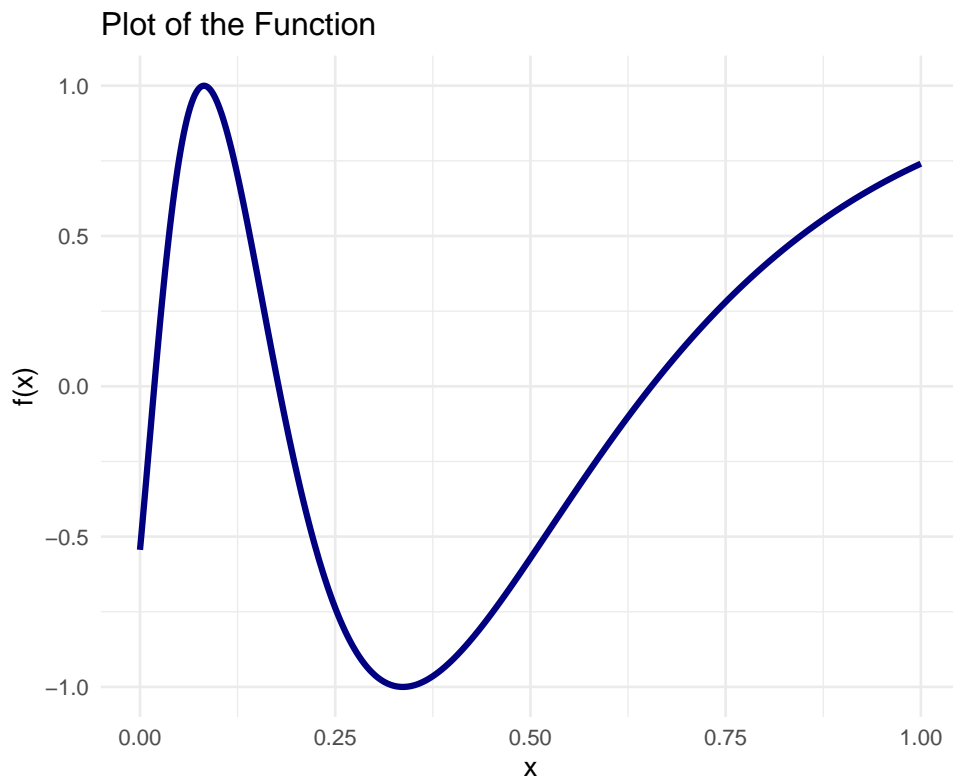


From the box-plots we can observe that:

- The **Uniform** ( $a=1$ ,  $b=1$ ) and **U-shaped** ( $a=0.5$ ,  $b=0.5$ ) distributions have very small median values for  $h_{AMISE}$ . This suggests that in the regions where these distributions have high data density (across the whole support for Uniform, and at the edges for U-shaped), the function's curvature  $m''(x)$  is relatively high. The algorithm detects this

high “wiggleness” in the data-rich regions, leading to a large  $\theta_{22}$  and thus a small  $h_{AMISE}$  to capture these details.

- The **Unimodal** ( $a=5$ ,  $b=5$ ) distribution, which concentrates data in the center of the support, have a larger median bandwidth. This implies that in the central region (around  $x=0.5$ ), the true function  $m(x)$  is relatively smooth (has low curvature). Because most of the data is in this smooth region, the weighted average  $\theta_{22}$  is smaller, leading the algorithm to select a larger bandwidth.
- The **Asymmetric** ( $a=5$ ,  $b=2$ ) distribution produces the highest median bandwidth and the **highest variance**. This distribution concentrates data on the right side of the support. The large bandwidth suggests that the function is smoothest in this data-rich region. The high variance indicates that the estimation of  $h_{AMISE}$  is unstable under this condition. This happens because the algorithm gets conflicting information: it sees a smooth function where data is plentiful but must also account for the sparse, potentially more complex regions, leading to inconsistent estimates across different random samples.



n — Asymmetric ( $a=5, b=2$ ) — U-shaped ( $a=0.5, b=0.5$ ) — Uniform ( $a=1, b=1$ ) — Un