Assignment 3

CS215: Data Analysis and Interpretation

Shaik Awez Mehtab, 23B1080 Satyam Sinoliya, 23B0958 Vaibhav Singh, 23B1068

Solutions

SOLUTION 1

Finding optimal bandwidth

Part 1

(a)

We are tasked with proving the following equation for the histogram estimator:

$$\int \hat{f}(x)^2 dx = \frac{1}{n^2 h} \sum_{j=1}^m v_j^2$$
 (1.1)

where $\hat{f}(x)$ is the histogram estimator, v_j is the number of points in the j-th bin, n is the total number of points, h is the bin width, and m is the total number of bins.

The histogram estimator $\hat{f}(x)$ is given by:

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{\hat{p}_j}{h} I_{[x \in B_j]}$$
 (1.2)

where $\hat{p}_j = \frac{v_j}{n}$ is the estimated probability that a point falls in the *j*-th bin, and $I_{[x \in B_j]}$ is the indicator function, which is 1 if $x \in B_j$, and 0 otherwise.

Now, square $\hat{f}(x)$:

$$\hat{f}(x)^2 = \left(\sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\hat{p}_j}{h} I_{[x \in B_j]}\right)^2 \tag{1.3}$$

Since the bins B_i are non-overlapping, the cross terms vanish, and we are left with:

$$\hat{f}(x)^2 = \sum_{j=1}^m \left(\frac{\hat{p}_j}{h}\right)^2 I_{[x \in B_j]}$$
 (1.4)

Integrating $\hat{f}(x)^2$ over the entire domain:

$$\int \hat{f}(x)^2 dx = \int \sum_{j=1}^m \left(\frac{\hat{p}_j}{h}\right)^2 I_{[x \in B_j]} dx$$
 (1.5)

Because the bins B_i are disjoint, the integral breaks down into a sum of integrals over each bin:

$$\int \hat{f}(x)^2 dx = \sum_{j=1}^m \int_{B_j} \left(\frac{\hat{p}_j}{h}\right)^2 dx$$
 (1.6)

The length of each bin is h and \hat{p}_i/h is independent of x, so the integral over each bin B_i is:

$$\int_{B_j} 1 \, dx = h \tag{1.7}$$

Thus, we get:

$$\int \hat{f}(x)^2 dx = \sum_{j=1}^m \left(\frac{\hat{p}_j}{h}\right)^2 h = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{j=1}^m \hat{p}_j^2$$
 (1.8)

Recall that $\hat{p}_j = \frac{v_j}{n}$, so we can substitute \hat{p}_j^2 as:

$$\hat{p}_{j}^{2} = \left(\frac{v_{j}}{n}\right)^{2} = \frac{v_{j}^{2}}{n^{2}} \tag{1.9}$$

Thus, the integral becomes:

$$\int \hat{f}(x)^2 dx = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{v_i^2}{n^2}$$
 (1.10)

Factor out $\frac{1}{n^2h}$:

$$\int \hat{f}(x)^2 dx = \frac{1}{n^2 h} \sum_{i=1}^m v_i^2$$
 (1.11)

Hence, proved.

(b)

Since $\hat{f}_{(-i)}$ is defined as the histogram estimator after removing i^{th} observation. We have

$$\hat{f}_{(-i)}(X_i) = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{v_j - 1}{h(n-1)} \mathbb{1}_{[x \in B_j]}$$
(1.12)

Since the probability of $x \in B_j$ is $\frac{v_j}{n}$

$$\hat{f}_{(-i)}(X_i) = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{v_j}{n} \frac{v_j - 1}{h(n-1)}$$
(1.13)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{f}_{(-i)}(X_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{v_j}{n} \frac{v_j - 1}{h(n-1)}$$
(1.14)

$$= \frac{1}{(n-1)h} \sum_{j=1}^{m} (v_j^2 - v_j)$$
 (1.15)

Hence Proved.

Part 2

(a) The estimated probabilities for all bins \hat{p}_i is given as:

$p_1 = 0.2059$	$p_2 = 0.4882$
$p_3 = 0.0471$	$p_4 = 0.0412$
$p_5 = 0.1353$	$p_6 = 0.0588$
$p_7 = 0.0059$	$p_8 = 0.0000$
$p_9 = 0.0118$	$p_{10} = 0.0059$

- (b) The probability distribution is underfit. The binwidth is very large due to which the depiction of data is not quite smooth.
- (d) The plot seems to give a better analysis of the distribution. It offers significantly more detail and resolution compared to the 10-bin histogram. Each bin covers a narrower range of data values, leading to a more refined visualization that can better capture small variations in the dataset

SOLUTION 2

Detecting Anomalous Transactions using KDE

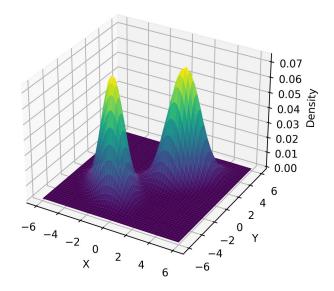


Figure 1.1: Distribution of transactions As can be seen in the given figure, the resulting estimated distribution contains two modes.

SOLUTION 3

Higher-Order Regression

Part 1

Suppose our estimates for α and β are A and B respectively, then these values of A and B minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - A - Bx_i)^2 \tag{1.1}$$

$$\implies \frac{\partial}{\partial A} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - A - Bx_i)^2 = 0 \tag{1.2}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} -2(y_i - A - Bx_i) = 0 (1.3)$$

$$n\bar{y} - nA - nB\bar{x} = 0 \tag{1.4}$$

$$\bar{y} = A + B\bar{x} \tag{1.5}$$

Least square regression line is given by y = A + Bx. Thus by (1.5), (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) lies on the regression line.

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Part 2

Suppose our estimates for β_0^* and β_1^* are A^* and B^* respectively, then A^* and B^* minimize $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y_i)^2$ $A^* - B^* z_i)^2$

$$\implies \frac{\partial}{\partial A^*} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - A^* - B^* z_i)^2 = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial B^*} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - A^* - B^* z_i)^2 = 0$$
 (1.6)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} -2(y_i - A^* - B^* z_i) = 0 \qquad \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} -2z_i (y_i - A^* - B^* z_i) = 0 \qquad (1.7)$$

$$n\bar{y} - nA^* - nB^* \bar{z} = 0 \qquad \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} -2z_i (y_i - A^* - B^* z_i) = 0 \qquad (1.8)$$

$$n\bar{y} - nA^* - nB^*\bar{z} = 0$$

$$\sum z_i y_i - A^* n\bar{z} - B^* \sum z_i^2 = 0$$
 (1.8)

$$\sum y_i z_i - n(\bar{y} - B^* \bar{z}) \bar{z} - B^* \sum z_i^2 = 0$$
 (1.9)

$$B^* = \frac{\sum y_i z_i - n\bar{y}\bar{z}}{n\bar{z}^2 - \sum z_i^2} \qquad A^* = \bar{y} - B^*\bar{z}$$
 (1.10)

Since, $z_i = x_i - \bar{x}$. $\bar{z} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})}{n} = \frac{n\bar{x} - n\bar{x}}{n} = 0$. $\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \sum x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2$

$$B^* = \frac{\sum y_i(x_i - \bar{x}) - n\bar{y} \cdot 0}{n(0)^2 - (\sum x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2)}$$
(1.11)

$$=\frac{\sum y_i x_i - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{n\bar{x}^2 - \sum x_i^2} \tag{1.12}$$

This is same as B, least square estimate of β_1 i.e $B^*=B$. Also since $\bar{z}=0$, we have $A^*=\bar{y}$ i.e $A^* = A + B\bar{x}$, where *A* is the least square estimate of β_0 .

Part 3

Let's restrict ourselves to single feature for simplicity. Suppose we have n data points

$$\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}\$$
 (1.13)

and our OLS estimates for β_0, \ldots, β_m be B_0, \ldots, B_m . These must minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - B_0 - B_1 x_i - \dots - B_m x_i^m)^2$$
 (1.14)

Partial differentiation w.r.t each B_i must be 0 which gives

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} -2(y_i - B_0 - B_1 x_i - \dots - B_m x_i^m) = 0$$
 (1.15)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} -2x_i(y_i - B_0 - B_1x_i - \dots - B_mx_i^m) = 0$$
 (1.16)

(1.17)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} -2x_i^m (y_i - B_0 - B_1 x_i - \dots - B_m x_i^m) = 0$$
 (1.18)

Which give

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i = B_0 n + B_1 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + \dots + B_m \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^m$$
(1.19)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i = B_0 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + B_1 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + \dots + B_m \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^{m+1}$$
(1.20)

$$\vdots \tag{1.21}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^m y_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} B_0 x_i^m + B_1 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^{m+1} + \dots + B_m \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^{2m}$$
(1.22)

Vaibhav Awez Satyam

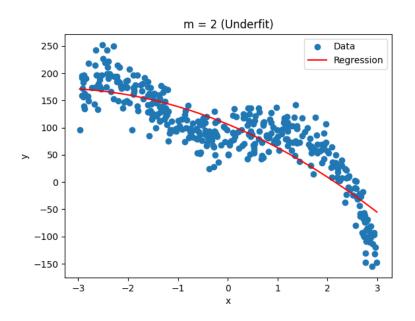


Figure 1.2: Underfit model

Taking
$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & \dots & x_1^m \\ 1 & x_2 & \dots & x_2^m \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & \dots & x_n^m \end{bmatrix}$$
, $Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} B_0 \\ \vdots \\ B_m \end{bmatrix}$ we have

$$X^TY = X^TXB (1.23)$$

$$B = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y (1.24)$$

We'll use this in our code.

- 1. By the SSR graph above, m = 18 seems to be the optimal degree of the polynomial. Thus, polynomial regressor of degree 18 would be the best fit regressor for this data.
- 2. SS_R s values are too close so values close aren't too much of an underfit/overfit (they're almost similar) We see that SS_R at 2 and 21 have comparatively high SS_R s, so degree 2 can be considered as an underfit and degree 21 as an overfit. Here's the fit for underfit, optimal fit and overfit respectively
- 3. At the end these are the values obtained:
 - $SS_R = 224592.60834798065$
 - $R^2 = 0.910251432520619$

SOLUTION 4

Non-parametric regression

Report Bandwidth Corresponding to Minimum Estimated Risk

After running the Nadaraya-Watson kernel regression using the Epanechnikov and Gaussian kernel and performing cross-validation for bandwidth selection, the optimal bandwidth corresponding to the minimum estimated risk is:

Optimal Bandwidth of Gaussian kernel: 0.180 Optimal Bandwidth of Epanechnikov kernel: 0.164

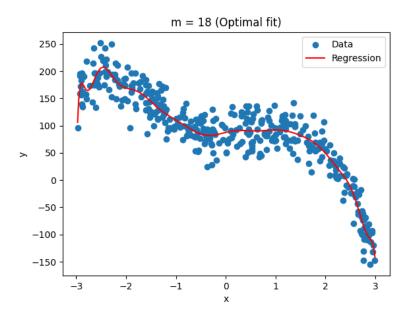


Figure 1.3: Optimal model

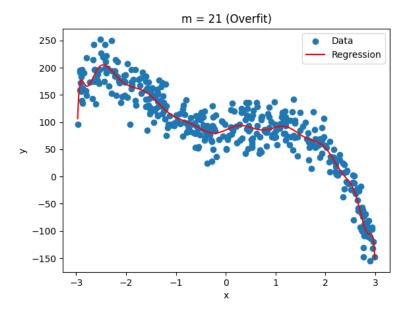


Figure 1.4: Overfit model

Similarities and Differences Due to Choice of Different Kernel Functions **Similarities**

- **General Functionality:** Both kernels assign weights to data points based on their distance from the query point, resulting in similar predictions in regions with high data density.
- Smoothing: As the bandwidth increases, all kernel functions produce smoother estimates. At very large bandwidths, all kernels oversmooth the data, giving too much influence to distant points.
- Cross-validation Behavior: Both kernels display a similar behavior during cross-validation, and the corresponding risk curves follow the same trend with bandwidth changes.

Differences

- Shape of the Weights:
 - Epanechnikov Kernel: This kernel assigns zero weight to points farther than the bandwidth due to its quadratic form, creating a more localized effect.
 - Gaussian Kernel: This kernel assigns non-zero weight to every point, regardless of distance, due to its exponential decay. It results in smoother estimates, but it is more sensitive to distant points.

• Sensitivity to Outliers:

- **Epanechnikov Kernel:** This kernel is more resilient to outliers because they assign zero or reduced weight to distant points, decreasing the influence of outliers on the prediction.
- Gaussian Kernel: The Gaussian kernel is more prone to incorporating outliers, as it assigns non-zero weights even to far-away points, making it less resilient in the presence of outliers.

• Plots

- **Epanechnikov Kernel:** This kernel produces more precise and localized estimates, with a good balance between bias and variance when using the optimal bandwidth.
- Gaussian Kernel: The Gaussian kernel leads to smoother curves but gives undue influence to distant points, which can result in overfitting or oversmoothing depending on the bandwidth.

Graphs in the next page.

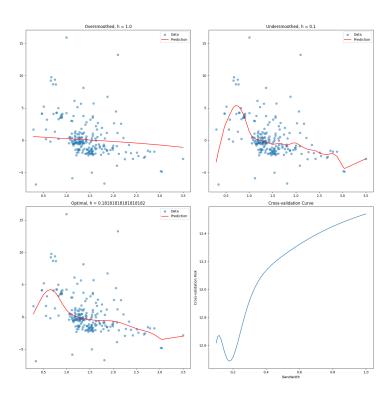


Figure 1.5: Oversmoothed, undersmoothed, optimal and cross validation curve of gaussian kernel

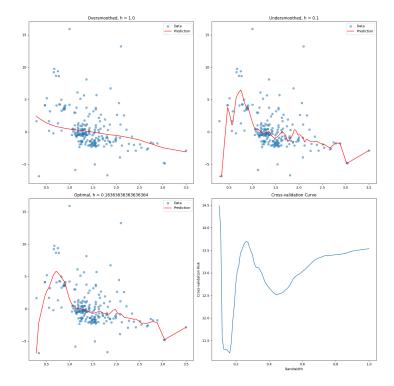


Figure 1.6: Oversmoothed, undersmoothed, optimal and cross validation curve of epanechnikov kernel