

# 함수추정의 응용 및 실습

## Assignment #2

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### 1. Nadaraya-Watson estimator

(a) bias-variance trade-off R object

```
bias_var_trade_off <- function(X, Y, bw){  
  n <- length(X)  
  par(mfrow=c(2,2), mar=c(2,4,4,2))  
  plot(1, type='n', xlim=range(X), ylim=c(-2, 2),  
       xlab='X', ylab='Y')  
  
  bwsplus <- bw/0.3708159  
  
  Bias <- rep(0, n)  
  MSE <- rep(0, n)  
  
  for (i in 1:40){  
    eps <- rnorm(n, sd=0.5)  
    Yi <- Y + eps  
    fit.ks <- ksmooth(X, Yi, kernel = "normal",  
                     bandwidth = bwsplus, x.points = X)  
    lines(X, fit.ks$y)  
    Bias <- Bias + fit.ks$y  
    MSE <- MSE + (fit.ks$y - Y)^2  
  }  
  lines(X, Y, col="red")  
  
  Bias <- Bias / 40 - Y  
  plot(X, Bias, type='l', ylim=c(-0.4,0.4))
```

```

Variance <- MSE / 40 - Bias^2
plot(X, Variance, type='l', ylim=c(0,0.4))

MSE <- MSE / 40
plot(X, MSE, type='l', ylim=c(0,0.4))
}

```

## (b) Influence of the bandwidth

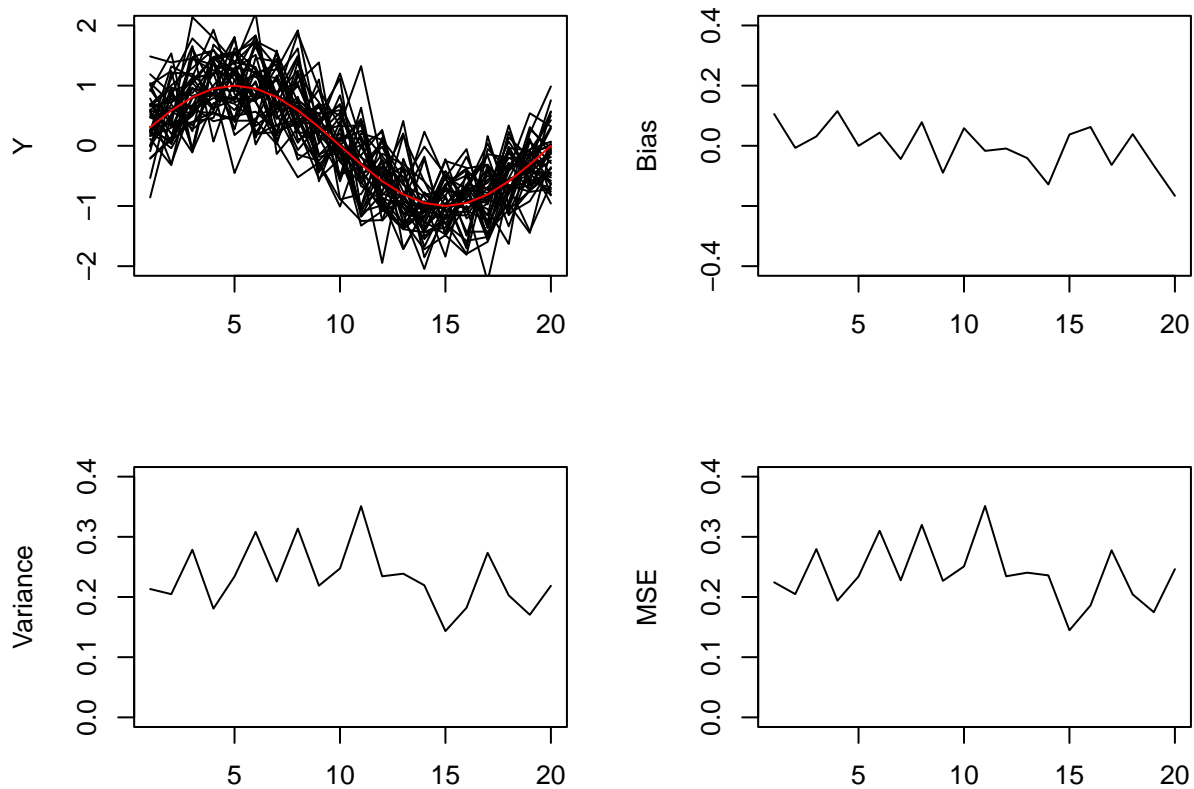
먼저 bandwidth의 변화에 따른 Bias, Var, MSE의 변화를 살펴보자.

```

X <- 1:20
Y1 <- sin(0.1 * pi * X)

bias_var_trade_off(X, Y1, 0.18)

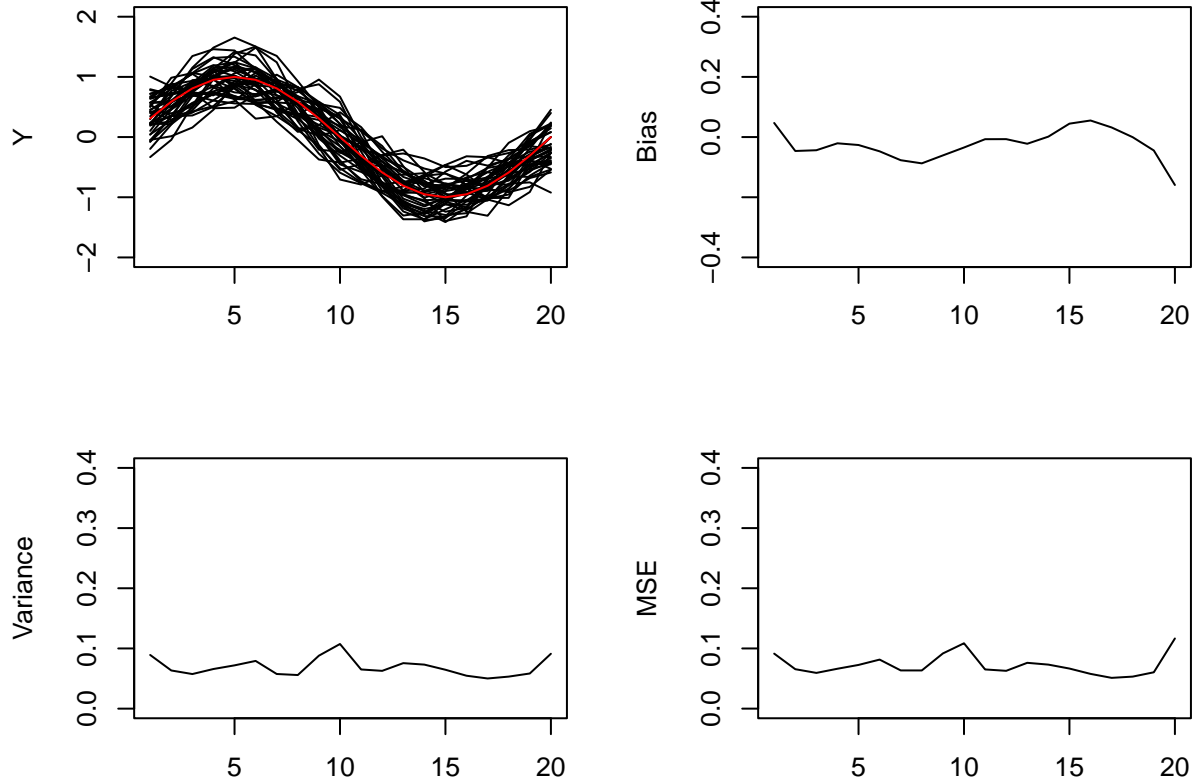
```



```

bias_var_trade_off(X, Y1, 1)

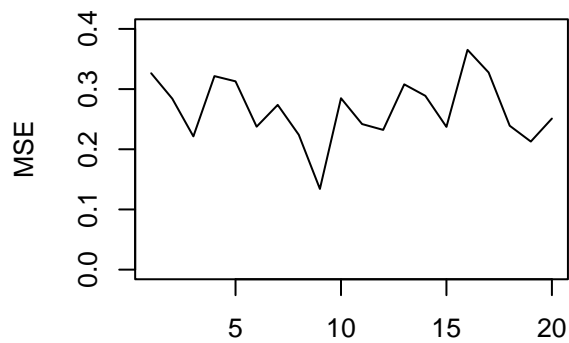
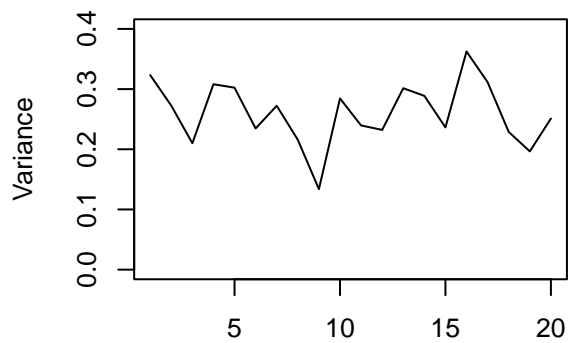
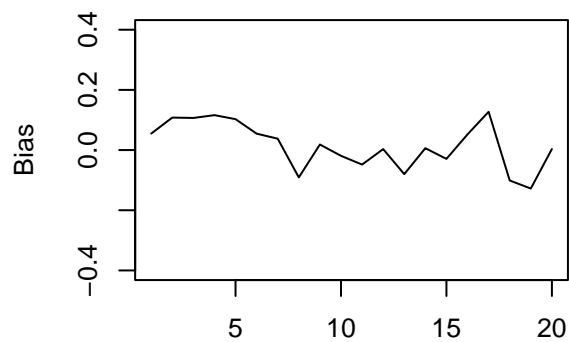
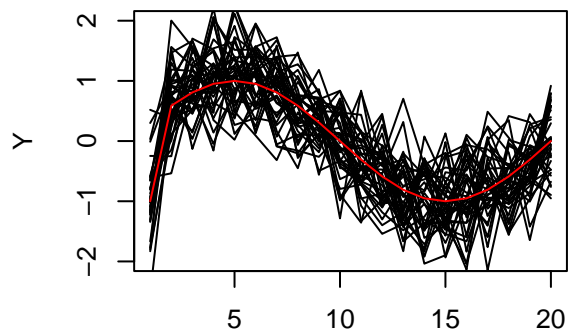
```



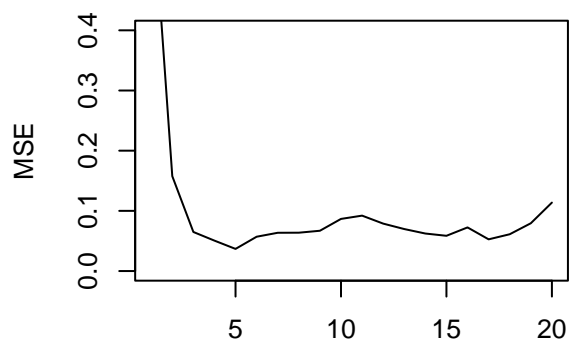
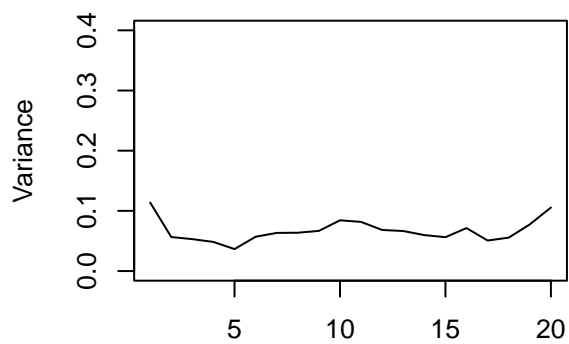
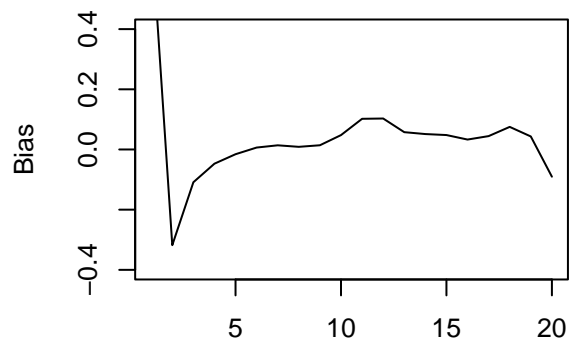
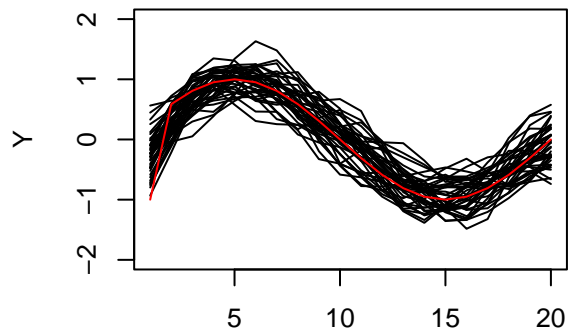
bandwidth가 작을수록 Bias는 비교적 0 근방에서 움직이고, Var은 비교적 크며 MSE 또한 비교적 크다. 반대로 bandwidth가 크면 Bias는 크게 변동하지만, Var과 MSE는 비교적 작다.

다음으로, data의 appearance에 따른 값의 변화를 살펴보자. 위의 모형에서 일부 값(한쪽 끝, 중간)을 변경한 후 그래프를 그려보았다.

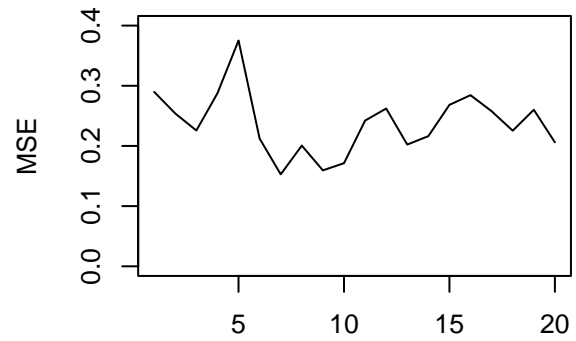
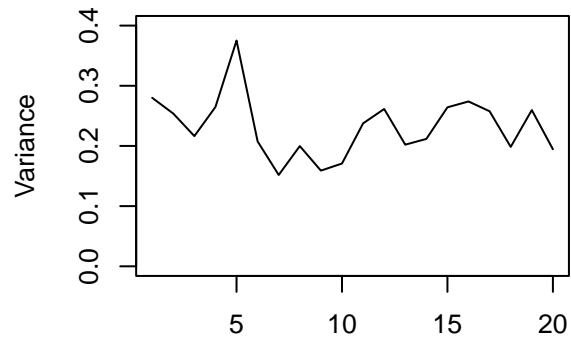
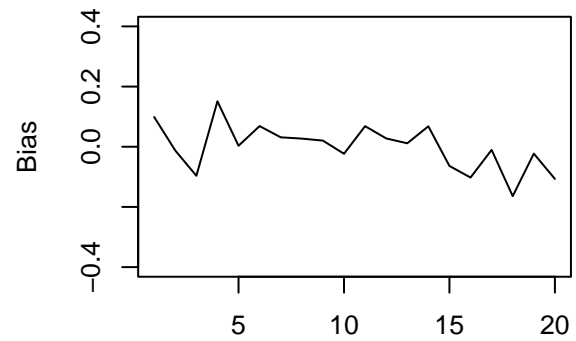
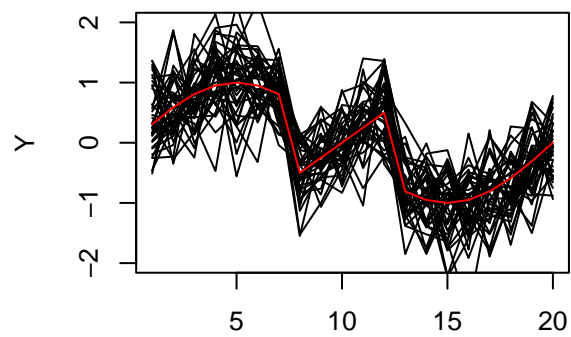
```
Y2 <- Y1
Y2[1] <- -1
bias_var_trade_off(X, Y2, 0.18)
```



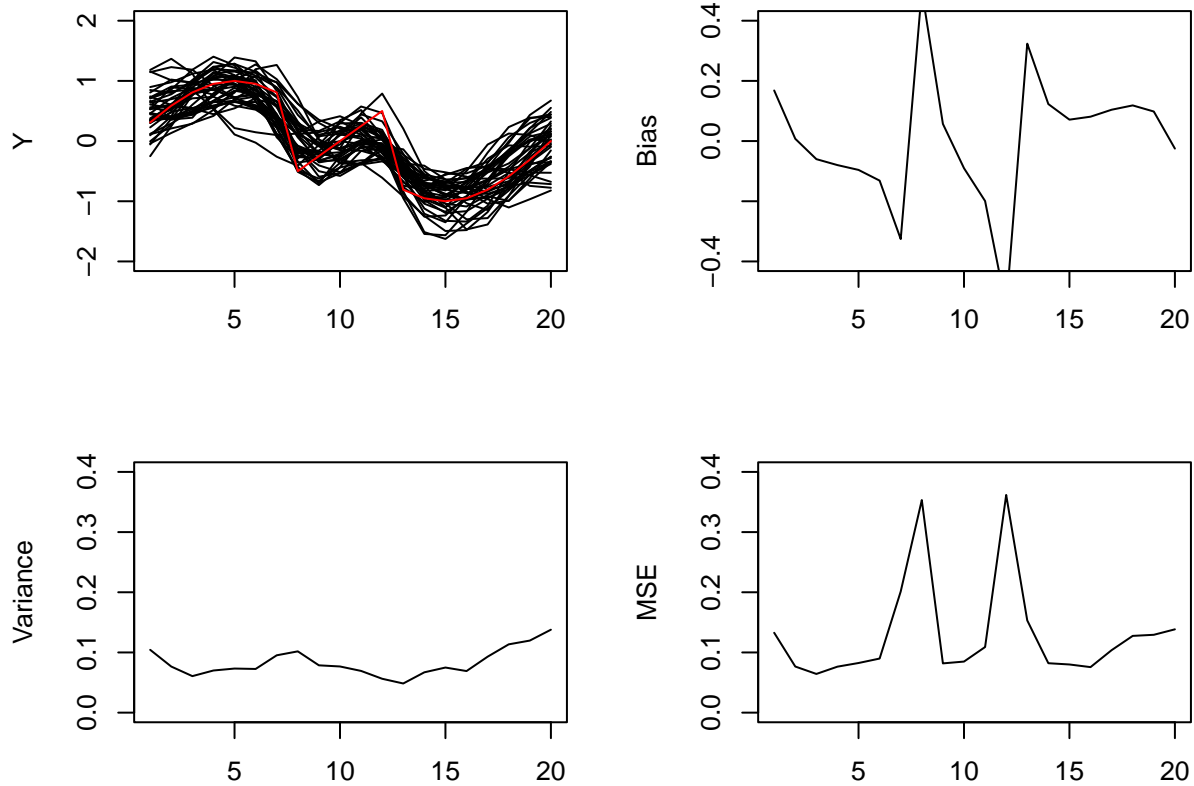
```
bias_var_trade_off(X, Y2, 1)
```



```
Y3 <- Y1
Y3[8:12] <- seq(-0.5, 0.5, length=5)
bias_var_trade_off(X, Y3, 0.18)
```



```
bias_var_trade_off(X, Y3, 1)
```



bandwidth를 0.18로 설정한 경우, 두 변형된 data 모두 비슷하게 잘 따라가는 모습을 보였으며, Bias, Var, MSE 모두 초기의 data와 유사한 값을 나타냈다. 하지만 bandwidth를 1로 설정한 경우, 변형된 값 근처의 point에서 Bias와 MSE가 급격히 커지는 현상이 발견되었다. Var 또한 미세하게 증가하였다.

마지막으로, 양 끝점에서의 값을 관찰하면, bandwidth가 작은 경우 평균과 비슷한 값을 보였다. 반면에 bandwidth가 큰 경우에는 양 극단에서 소폭 상승하는 모습을 보인다.

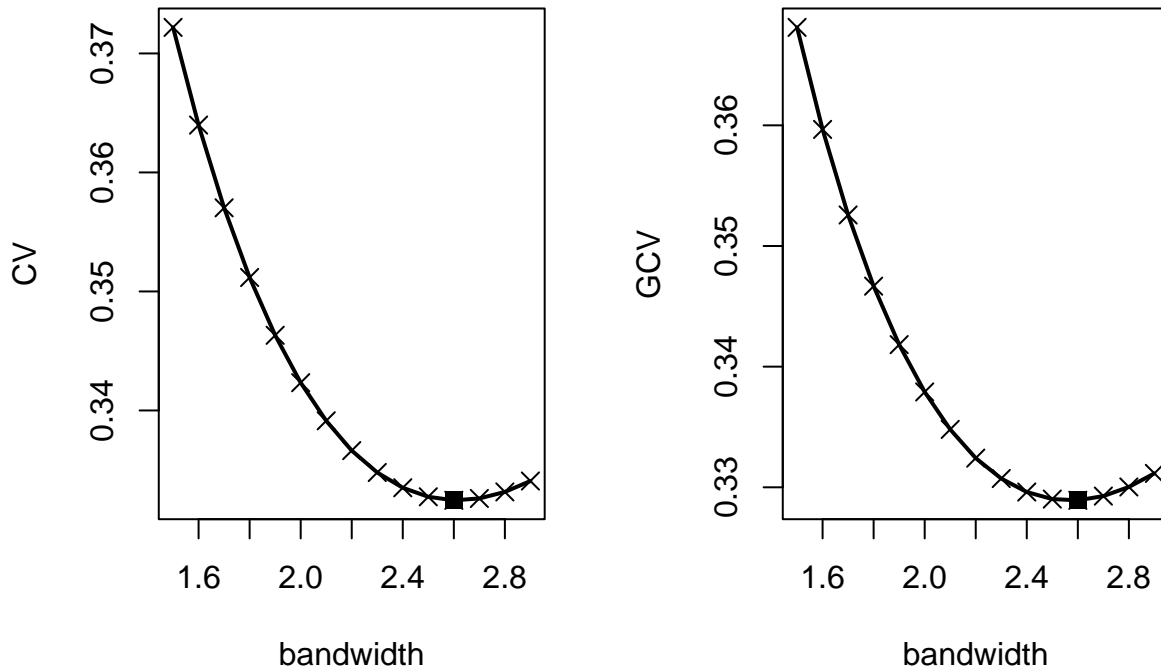
### (c) CV, GCV

```
# use (B) - kscv1 function
Y <- Y1 + rnorm(20, sd=0.5)
ntrial <- 15
bandw <- seq(from = 1.5, by = 0.1, length = ntrial)
output.ks <- kscv1(X, Y, 20, bandw, ntrial)
cv <- output.ks$cv
gcv <- output.ks$gcv
par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
plot(bandw, cv, type = "n", #ylim = c(0.04, 0.07),
     xlab = "bandwidth", ylab = "CV")
points(bandw, cv, cex = 1.2, pch = 4)
lines(bandw, cv, lwd = 2)
```

```

cvmin <- min(cv)
icvmin <- (1:ntrial)[cv == cvmin]
bandcv <- bandw[icvmin]
points(bandcv, cvmin, cex = 1.2, pch = 15)
plot(bandw, gcv, type = "n", #ylim = c(0.04, 0.07),
      xlab = "bandwidth", ylab = "GCV")
points(bandw, gcv, cex = 1.2, pch = 4)
lines(bandw, gcv, lwd = 2)
gcvmin <- min(gcv)
igcvmin <- (1:ntrial)[gcv == gcvmin]
bandgcv <- bandw[igcvmin]
points(bandgcv, gcvmin, cex = 1.2, pch = 15)

```

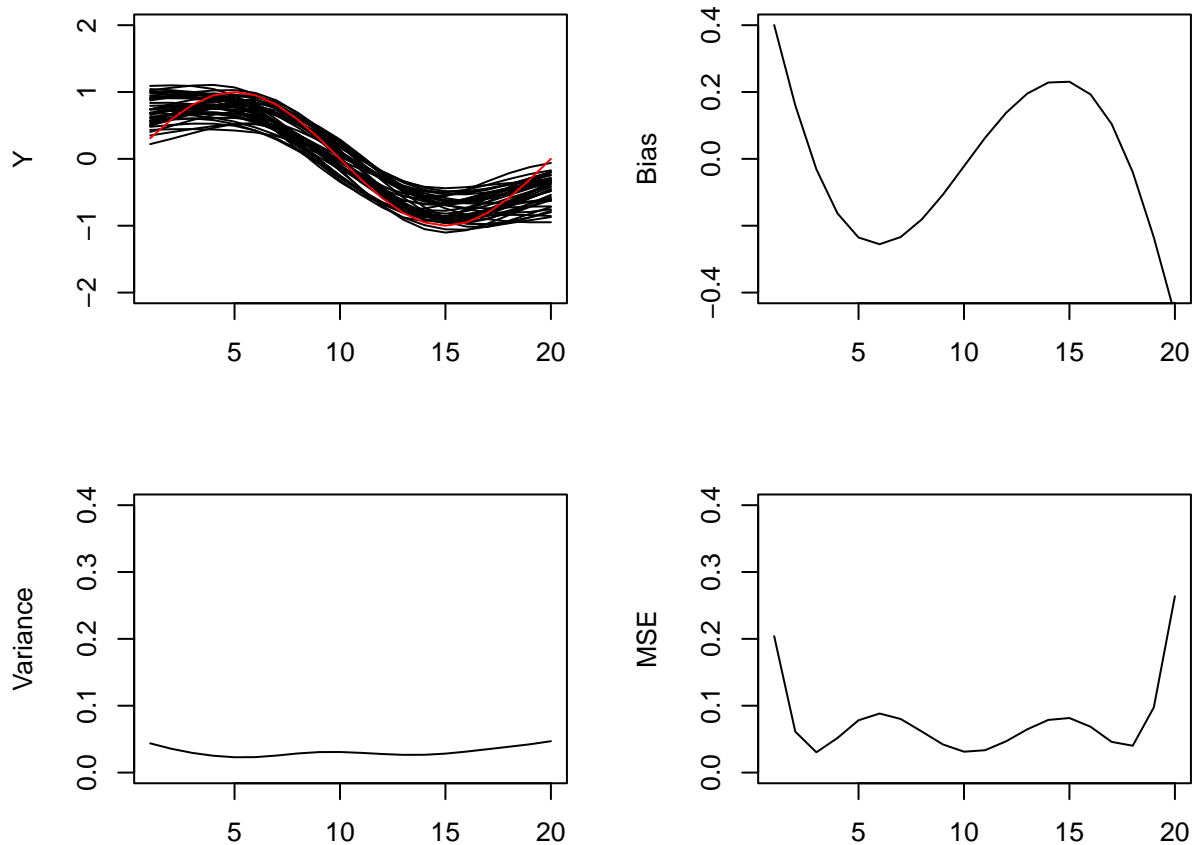


CV, GCV 모두 bandwidth=2.6일 때 적당하다고 한다. 이를 대입하여 그림을 그리면 아래와 같다.

```

bias_var_trade_off(X, Y1, 2.6)

```



그래프를 보았을 때, 위의 bandwidth가 optimal하다고 할 수 있다.

## 2. Weight diagrams

```
# use (C) - ll1 function
ll_weight_diagram <- function(band){
  hat_matrix <- matrix(nrow = 20, ncol = 20)
  for (i in 1:20){
    for (j in 1:20){
      hat_matrix[i,j] <- ll1(i, 1:20, diag(20)[,j], band)
    }
  }
  persp(1:20, 1:20, hat_matrix, xlab = 'i', ylab='j', zlab='HAT',
        lab = c(3, 3, 3), theta = -30, phi = 20,
        ticktype = 'detailed', nticks=3, cex.lab = 1, cex.axis = 0.6,
        main=paste('band =', band))
  hat_matrix
}
NW_weight_diagram <- function(band){
```

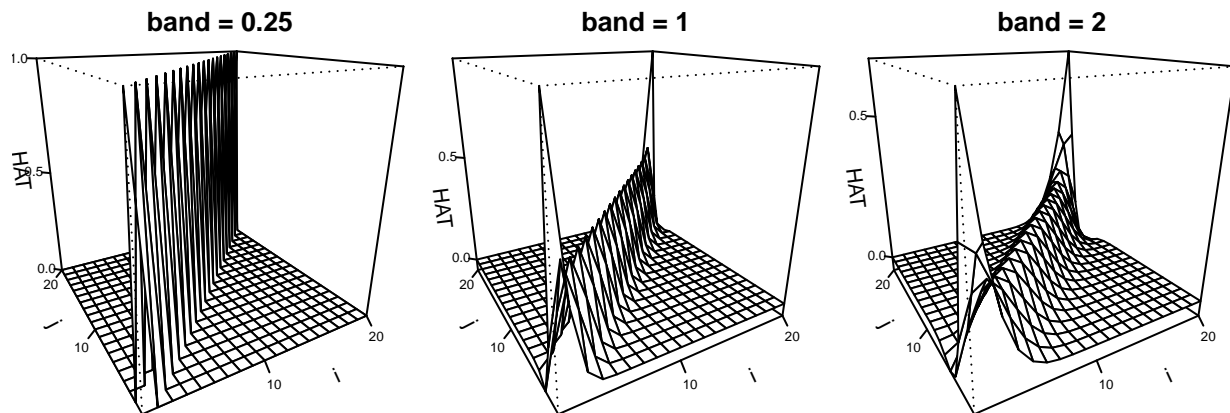


```

bwplus <- band/0.3708159
hat_matrix <- matrix(nrow = 20, ncol = 20)
for (i in 1:20){
  hat_matrix[,i] <- ksmooth(1:20, diag(20)[,i], kernel = "normal",
                           bandwidth = bwplus, x.points = 1:20)$y
}
persp(1:20, 1:20, hat_matrix, xlab = 'i', ylab='j', zlab='HAT',
      lab = c(3, 3, 3), theta = -30, phi = 20,
      ticktype = 'detailed', nticks=3, cex.lab = 1, cex.axis = 0.6,
      main=paste('band =', band))
}

par(mfrow=c(1,3),mar=c(0,0,1.2,0))
# local linear regression
hat1 <- ll_weight_diagram(0.25)
hat2 <- ll_weight_diagram(1)
hat3 <- ll_weight_diagram(2)

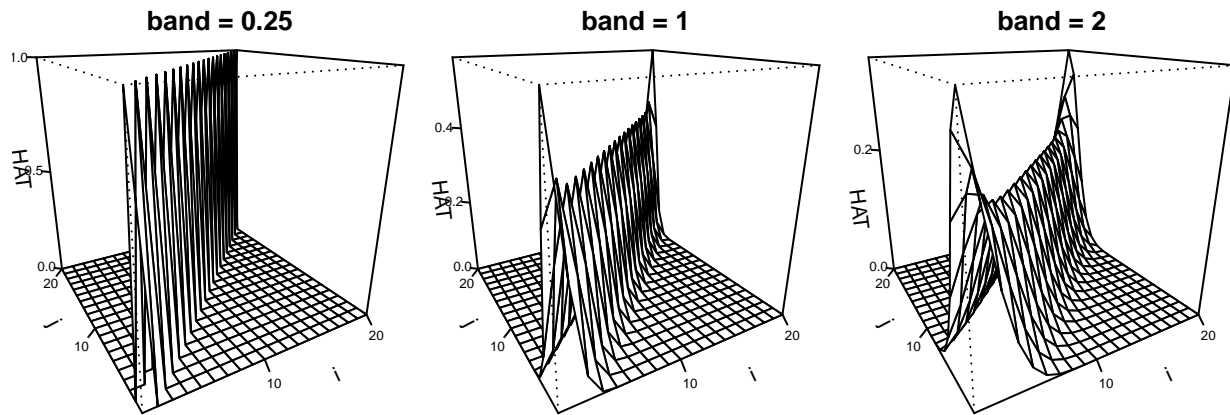
```



```

# Nadaraya-Watson estimator
NW_weight_diagram(0.25)
NW_weight_diagram(1)
NW_weight_diagram(2)

```



# verification of eq(3.130)

```
apply(hat1, 1, sum)
```

```
[1] 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
```

```
apply(hat2, 1, sum)
```

```
[1] 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
```

```
apply(hat3, 1, sum)
```

[1] 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

equivalent kernels는 symmetric 하지 않다. 또한 kernel의 bandwidth와 같은 bandwidth를 Nadaraya-Watson estimator에 사용했을 때, local linear regression이 더 빠르게 감소한다.

### 3. Boundary Conditions

(a) Cubic spline function

```
CS_boundary <- function(X, Y, boundary=c(0,0)){
  n <- length(X)
  R <- sapply(X, function(x) abs(x-X)^3/12)
  Q <- matrix(c(X^0, X), nrow=2, byrow=T)
  A <- matrix(0, nrow=n+2, ncol=n+2)
  A[1:n, 1:n] <- R
  A[1:n, (n+1):(n+2)] <- t(Q)
  A[(n+1):(n+2), 1:n] <- Q
  B <- c(Y, boundary)
  sol <- solve(A, B)
  b <- sol[1:n]
  a <- sol[(n+1):(n+2)]
```

```
list(a=a, b=b)
}
```

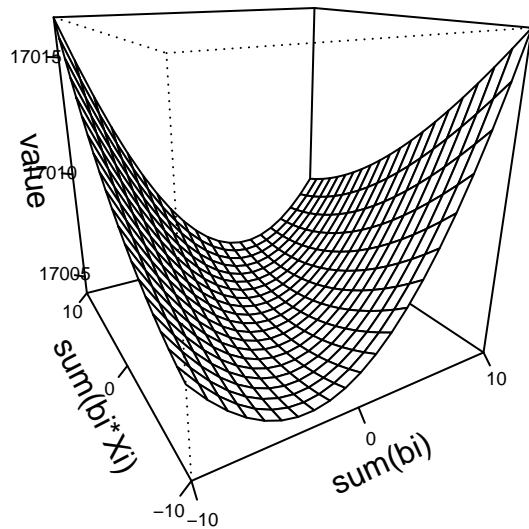
## (b) minimization

```
eq3.171 <- function(X, Y, boundary=c(0,0)){
  b <- CS_boundary(X, Y, boundary)$b
  rng <- range(X)
  f <- function(x) sapply(x, function(x) sum(b*abs(x-X))/2)^2
  integrate(f, rng[1], rng[2], subdivisions=200)$value
}

TEST31 <- read.csv('TEST31.CSV', header=F)
X <- TEST31[,1]
Y <- TEST31[,2]

xx <- seq(-10, 10, by=1)
Z <- matrix(0, ncol=length(xx), nrow=length(xx))
for (x1 in seq(xx)){
  for (y1 in seq(xx)){
    Z[x1, y1] <- eq3.171(X, Y, c(xx[x1], xx[y1]))
  }
}

par(mfrow=c(1,1))
persp(xx, xx, Z, xlab = 'sum(bi)', ylab='sum(bi*Xi)', zlab='value',
      lab = c(3, 3, 3), theta = -30, phi = 20,
      ticktype = 'detailed', nticks=3, cex.lab = 1, cex.axis = 0.6)
```



```
min(Z) == eq3.171(X,Y) # check that natural boundary condition is the minimum
```

```
[1] TRUE
```

#### 4. $L, (I + \lambda L)^{-1}$ .

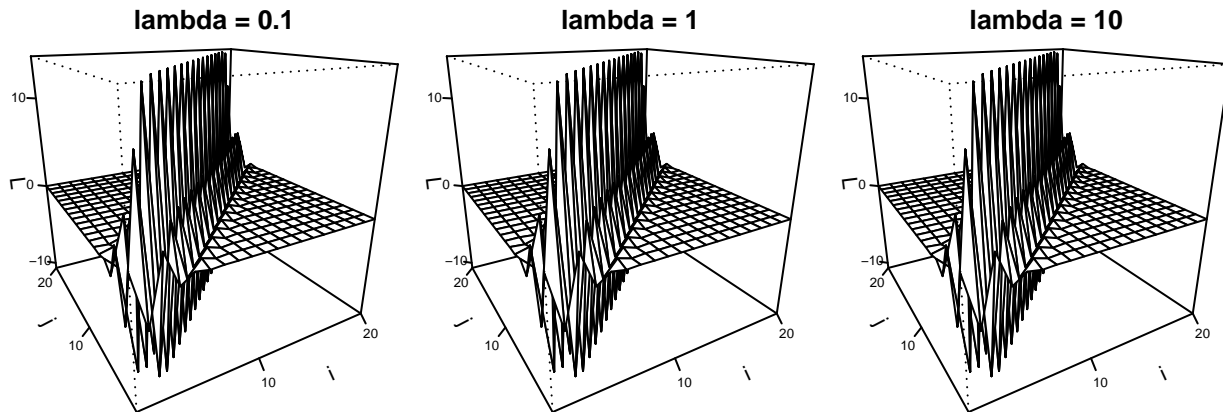
```
L_value <- function(lambda){
  R <- sapply(1:20, function(x) abs(x-1:20)^3/12)
  Q <- matrix(c(rep(1,20), 1:20), nrow=2, byrow=T)
  A <- matrix(0, nrow=22, ncol=22)
  A[1:20, 1:20] <- R + lambda * diag(20)
  A[1:20, 21:22] <- t(Q)
  A[21:22, 1:20] <- Q
  A_inv <- solve(A)
  Tmat <- A_inv[1:20, 1:20]
  H <- (cbind(R, t(Q)) %*% A_inv)[1:20, 1:20]
  H_inv <- solve(H)
  L <- t(Tmat %*% H_inv) %*% R %*% Tmat %*% H_inv
  L_inv <- solve(diag(20) + lambda * L)
  list(L=L, L_inv=L_inv)
}

S_value <- function(lambda){
  S <- matrix(0, nrow=20, ncol=20)
  S[1, 1:3] <- c(1, -2, 1)
  S[2, 1:4] <- c(-2, 5, -4, 1)
  for (i in 3:18){
```

```

    S[i, (i-2):(i+2)] <- c(1, -4, 6, -4, 1)
  }
  S[19, 17:20] <- c(-2, 5, -4, 1)
  S[20, 18:20] <- c(1, -2, 1)
  S_inv <- solve(diag(20) + lambda * S)
  list(S=S, S_inv=S_inv)
}
par(mfrow=c(1,3),mar=c(0,0,1.2,0))
# L
for (lambda in c(0.1, 1, 10)){
  LL <- L_value(lambda)
  persp(1:20, 1:20, LL$L, xlab = 'i', ylab='j', zlab='L',
        lab = c(3, 3, 3), theta = -30, phi = 20,
        ticktype = 'detailed', nticks=3, cex.lab = 1, cex.axis = 0.6,
        main=paste0('lambda = ', lambda))
}

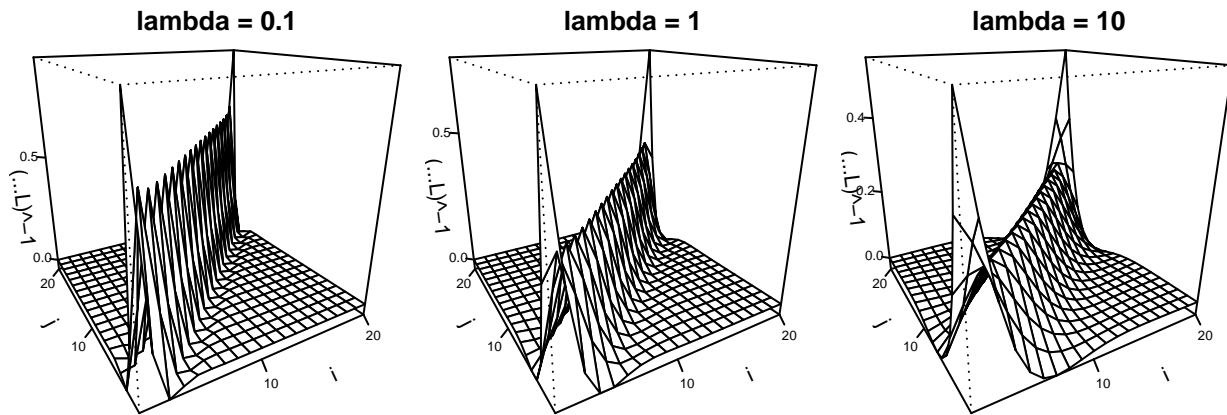
```



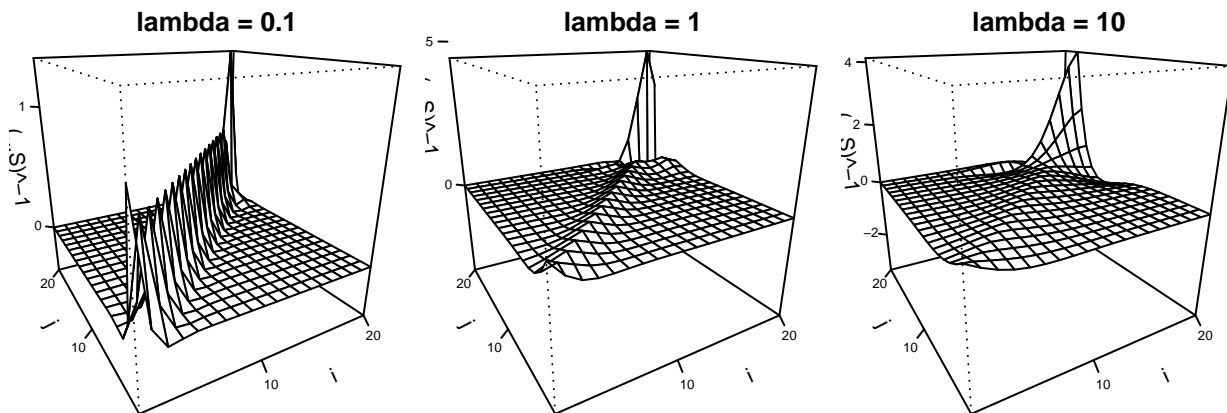
```

# (I + lambda L)^-1
for (lambda in c(0.1, 1, 10)){
  LL <- L_value(lambda)
  persp(1:20, 1:20, LL$L_inv, xlab = 'i', ylab='j', zlab='(...L)^-1',
        lab = c(3, 3, 3), theta = -30, phi = 20,
        ticktype = 'detailed', nticks=3, cex.lab = 1, cex.axis = 0.6,
        main=paste0('lambda = ', lambda))
}

```



```
# (I + lambda S)^-1
for (lambda in c(0.1, 1, 10)){
  SS <- S_value(lambda)
  persp(1:20, 1:20, SS$S_inv, xlab = 'i', ylab='j', zlab='(...S)^-1',
        lab = c(3, 3, 3), theta = -30, phi = 20,
        ticktype = 'detailed', nticks=3, cex.lab = 1, cex.axis = 0.6,
        main=paste0('lambda = ', lambda))
}
```



L을 사용한 경우,  $L[1,1]$ 과  $L[20,20]$ 의 값이 같지만, S를 사용한 경우는 그렇지 않다.

## 5. Smoothing with B-spline

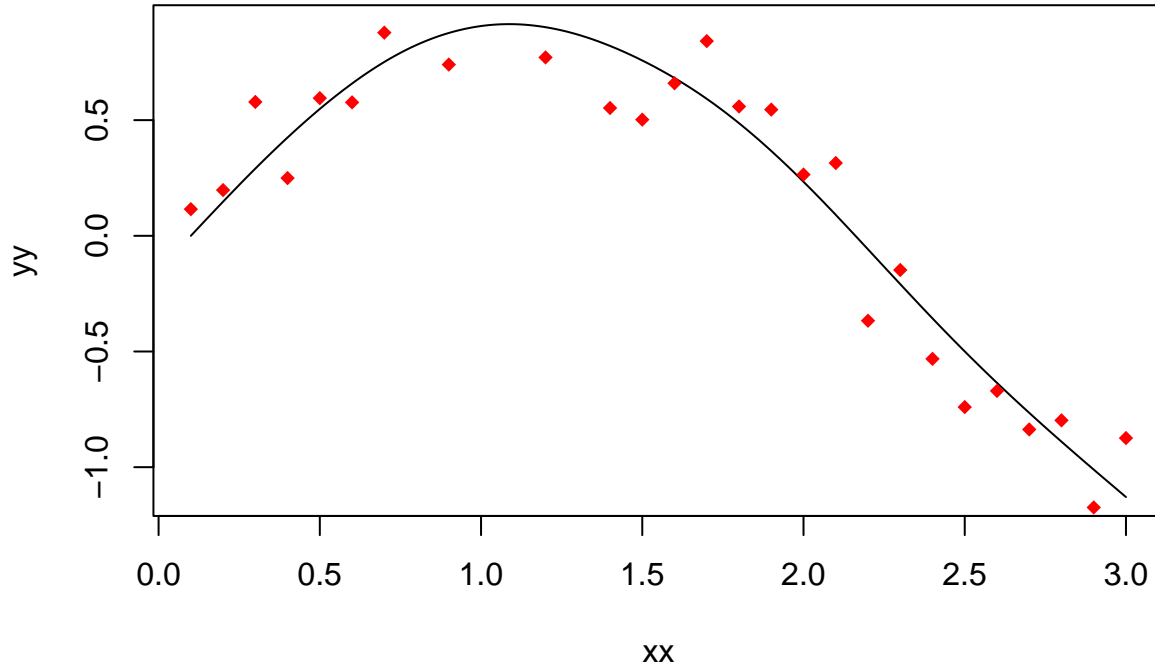
```
Smoothing_B_spline <- function(X, Y, lambda){
  intknot <- X[-c(1, length(X))]
  G <- bs(X, knots=intknot)
  P <- ncol(G)
  rng <- range(X)
  dx <- (rng[2] - rng[1]) / 200
```

```

ddG <- dbs(seq(rng[1], rng[2], length=201), knots=intknot, derivs=2)
K <- diag(P)
for (i in 1:P){
  for (j in 1:P){
    K[i, j] <- sum(ddG[,i] * ddG[,j]) * dx
  }
}
beta <- solve(t(G) %*% G + lambda * K) %*% t(G) %*% Y
H <- G %*% solve(t(G) %*% G + lambda * K) %*% t(G)
list(beta=beta, H=H)
}

SS <- Smoothing_B_spline(X, Y, lambda = 0.1)
beta <- SS$beta
xx <- seq(0.1, 3, by=0.01)
gg <- bs(xx, knots=X[-c(1, length(X))])
yy <- gg %*% beta
plot(xx, yy, type="l")
points(X, Y, col="red", pch=18)

```



## 6. CV for LOESS

```
locv2 <- function(xx, yy, nd, span1){
  locv <- function(sp, x1, y1){
    nd <- length(x1)
    s <- 0
    for (i in 1:nd){
      xx1 <- x1[-i]
      yy1 <- y1[-i]
      fit.lo <- loess(yy1 ~ xx1, span = sp, family = "gaussian",
                     degree = 1, surface = "direct")
      mhat <- predict(fit.lo, x1[i])
      s <- s + (y1[i] - mhat)^2
    }
    s/nd
  }
  sapply(span1, locv, x1=xx, y1=yy)
}

# Approximation
nd <- 40
xx <- seq(from = 1, by = 1, length = nd)^1.8
yy <- sin(0.004 * pi * xx) + rnorm(nd, mean = 0, sd = 0.3)
ntrial <- 10
span1 <- seq(from = 0.15, by = 0.01, length = ntrial)
output.lo <- locv1(xx, yy, nd, span1, ntrial)
cv <- output.lo$cv
par(mfrow = c(1, 2), mar = c(3, 4, 2, 1),
    oma=c(0.5,0.5,0.5,0.5), cex.lab=1.5)
plot(span1, cv, type = "n",
     xlab = "span", ylab = "CV", main="Approx")
points(span1, cv, pch = 3)
lines(span1, cv, lwd = 2)
pcvmin <- seq(along = cv)[cv == min(cv)]
spancv <- span1[pcvmin]
cvmin <- cv[pcvmin]
points(spancv, cvmin, cex = 1, pch = 15)

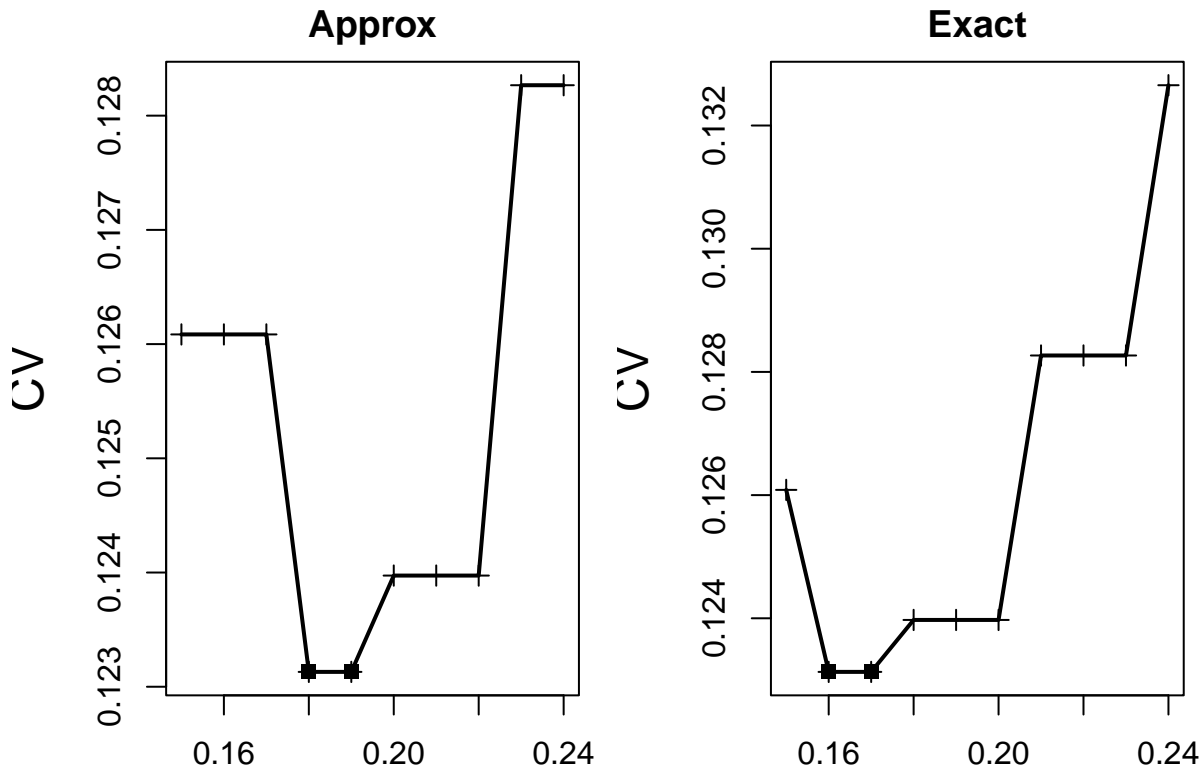
# real definition
cv <- locv2(xx, yy, nd, span1)
```



```

plot(span1, cv, type = "n",
     xlab = "span", ylab = "CV", main="Exact")
points(span1, cv, pch = 3)
lines(span1, cv, lwd = 2)
pcvmin <- seq(along = cv)[cv == min(cv)]
spancv <- span1[pcvmin]
cvmin <- cv[pcvmin]
points(spancv, cvmin, cex = 1, pch = 15)

```



약간의 차이가 있긴 하지만, optimal한 span을 찾는 데에는 크게 차이가 나지 않으므로, approximation을 사용해도 괜찮다고 생각한다.

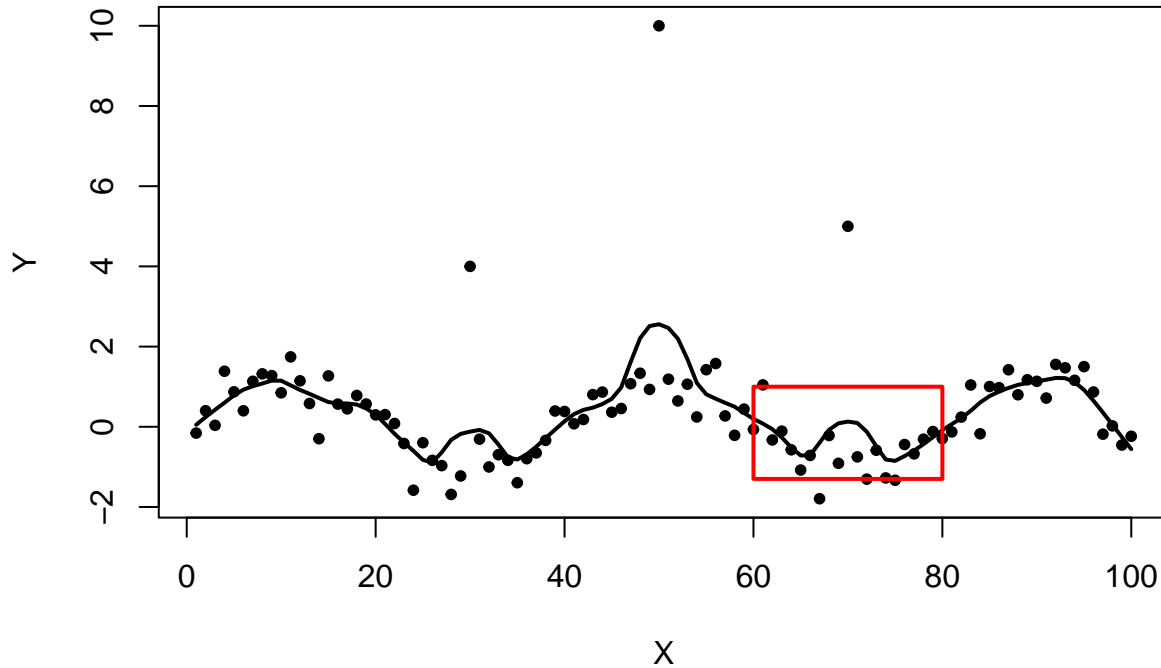
## 7. LOWESS

```

B <- function(u) ifelse(abs(u)>1, 0, 15 * (1 - u^2)^2 / 16)
# LOWESS
set.seed(1)
X <- 1:100
Y <- sin(0.05 * pi * X) + rnorm(100, sd=0.5)
Y[c(30, 50, 70)] <- c(4, 10, 5)
plot(X, Y, pch=20)

```

```
fit.lo <- loess(Y~ X, span = 0.1, family = "gaussian",
               degree = 1, surface = "direct")
lines(X, fit.lo$fitted, col='black', lwd=2)
rect(60, -1.3, 80, 1, border="red",lwd=2)
```



```
par(mar=c(5.1, 4.1, 4.1, 8.1), xpd=TRUE)
plot(X[60:80], Y[60:80], pch=20, ylim=c(-1.3,1))
lines(X[60:80], fit.lo$fitted[60:80], col="black", lwd=2)
R <- fit.lo$residuals
color <- c("brown", "red", "orange", "blue")
for (iter in 1:4){
  shat <- median(abs(R))
  sig <- B(R/6/shat)
  fit.lo <- loess(Y~ X, span = 0.1, weights=sig, family = "gaussian",
                 degree = 1, surface = "direct")
  lines(X[60:80], fit.lo$fitted[60:80], col=color[iter])
  R <- fit.lo$residuals
}
legend("topright", inset=c(-0.3,0), legend=c("1", "2", "3", "4", "LOESS"),
      col=c("brown", "red", "orange","blue", "black"), lty=1,
      title="iter")
```

