

<sup>1</sup> This is a draft version of work in progress, content will be revisited in subsequent versions.

<sup>2</sup> **Robust Local Polynomial Regression with Similarity Kernels**

<sup>3</sup> Yaniv Shulman

<sup>4</sup> *yaniv@shulman.info*

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<sup>5</sup> **Abstract**

Local polynomial regression is a powerful and flexible statistical technique that has gained increasing popularity in recent years due to its ability to model complex relationships between variables. Local polynomial regression generalizes the polynomial regression and moving average methods by fitting a low-degree polynomial to a nearest neighbors subset of the data at the location. The polynomial is fitted using weighted ordinary least squares, giving more weight to nearby points and less weight to points further away. Local polynomial regression is however susceptible to outliers and high leverage points which may cause an adverse impact on the estimation accuracy. The main contribution of this paper is to revisit the kernel that is used to produce local regression weights. The simple yet effective idea is to generalize the kernel such that both the predictor and the response are used to calculate weights. Within this framework, two positive definite kernels are proposed that assign robust weights to mitigate the adverse effect of outliers in the local neighborhood by estimating and utilizing the density at the local locations. The method is implemented in the Python programming language and is made publicly available at <https://github.com/yaniv-shulman/rsklpr>. Experimental results on synthetic benchmarks across a range of settings demonstrate that the proposed method achieves competitive results and generally improves on the standard local polynomial regression method.

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6    **1. Introduction**

7       Local polynomial regression (LPR) is a powerful and flexible statistical technique that has  
8       gained increasing popularity in recent years due to its ability to model complex relationships be-  
9       tween variables. Local polynomial regression generalizes the polynomial regression and moving  
10      average methods by fitting a low-degree polynomial to a nearest neighbors subset of the data at  
11      the location. The polynomial is fitted using weighted ordinary least squares, giving more weight  
12      to nearby points and less weight to points further away. The value of the regression function for  
13      the point is then obtained by evaluating the fitted local polynomial using the predictor variable  
14      value for that data point. LPR has good accuracy near the boundary and performs better than all  
15      other linear smoothers in a minimax sense [2]. The biggest advantage of this class of methods  
16      is not requiring a prior specification of a function i.e. a parametrized model. Instead only a  
17      small number of hyperparameters need to be specified such as the type of kernel, a smoothing  
18      parameter and the degree of the local polynomial. The method is therefore suitable for modeling  
19      complex processes such as non-linear relationships, or complex dependencies for which no the-  
20      oretical models exist. These two advantages, combined with the simplicity of the method, makes  
21      it one of the most attractive of the modern regression methods for applications that fit the general  
22      framework of least squares regression but have a complex deterministic structure.

23       Local polynomial regression incorporates the notion of proximity in two ways. The first is  
24       that a smooth function can be reasonably approximated in a local neighborhood by a simple  
25       function such as a linear or low order polynomial. The second is the assumption that nearby  
26       points carry more importance in the calculation of a simple local approximation or alternatively  
27       that closer points are more likely to interact in simpler ways than far away points. This is achieved  
28       by a kernel which produces values that diminish as the distance between the explanatory variables  
29       increase to model stronger relationship between closer points.

30       Methods in the LPR family include the Nadaraya-Watson estimator [10, 18] and the estimator  
31       proposed by Gasser and Müller [7] which both perform kernel based local constant fit. These  
32       were improved on in terms of asymptotic bias by the proposal of the local linear and more general  
33       local polynomial estimators [16, 3, 9, 4, 5]. For a review of LPR methods the interested reader  
34       is referred to [2].

35       LPR is however susceptible to outliers, high leverage points and functions with discontinu-  
36       ities in their derivative which often cause an adverse impact on the regression due to its use  
37       of least squares based optimization [17]. The use of unbounded loss functions may result in  
38       anomalous observations severely affecting the local estimate. Substantial work has been done to  
39       develop algorithms to apply LPR to difficult data. To alleviate the issue [15] employs variable  
40       bandwidth to exclude observations for which residuals from the resulting estimator are large. In  
41       [3] an iterated weighted fitting procedure is proposed that assigns in each consecutive iteration  
42       smaller weights to points that are farther then the fitted values at the previous iteration. The pro-  
43       cess repeats for a number of iterations and the final values are considered the robust parameters  
44       and fitted values. An alternative common approach is to replace the squared prediction loss by  
45       one that is more robust to the presence of large residuals by increasing more slowly or a loss that  
46       has an upper bound such as the Tukey or Huber loss. These methods however require specifying  
47       a threshold parameter for the loss to indicate atypical observations or standardizing the errors  
48       using robust estimators of scale [8]. For a recent review of robust LPR and other nonparametric  
49       methods see [17, 11]

50       The main contribution of this paper is to revisit the kernel used to produce regression weights.  
51       The simple yet effective idea is to generalize the kernel such that both the predictor and the re-

52 response are used to calculate weights. Within this framework, two positive definite kernels are  
 53 proposed that assign robust weights to mitigate the adverse effect of outliers in the local neighborhood by estimating the density of the response at the local locations. Note the proposed  
 54 framework does not preclude the use of robust loss functions, robust bandwidth selectors and  
 55 standardization techniques. In addition the method is implemented in the Python programming  
 56 language and is made publicly available. Experimental results on synthetic benchmarks demon-  
 57 strate that the proposed method achieves competitive results and generally performs better than  
 58 LOESS/LOWESS using only a single training iteration.

60 The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: In section 2, a brief overview of the  
 61 mathematical formulation of local polynomial regression is provided. In section 3, a framework  
 62 for robust weights as well as specific robust positive definite kernels are proposed. In section  
 63 5, implementation notes and experimental results are provided. Finally, in section 6, the paper  
 64 concludes with directions for future research.

## 65 2. Local polynomial regression

66 This section provides a brief overview of local polynomial regression and establishes the no-  
 67 tation subsequently used. Let  $(X, Y)$  be a random pair and  $\mathcal{D}_T = \{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^T \subseteq \mathcal{D}$  be a training  
 68 set comprising a sample of  $T$  data pairs. Suppose that  $(X, Y) \sim f_{XY}$  a continuous density and  
 69  $X \sim f_X$  the marginal distribution of  $X$ . Let  $Y \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous response and assume a model  
 70 of the form  $Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$ ,  $i \in 1, \dots, T$  where  $m(\cdot) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is an unknown function and  $\epsilon_i$   
 71 are independently distributed error terms having zero mean representing random variability not  
 72 included in  $X_i$  such that  $\mathbb{E}[Y|X=x] = m(x)$ . There are no global assumptions about the function  
 73  $m(\cdot)$  other than that it is smooth and that locally it can be well approximated by a low degree  
 74 polynomial as per Taylor's theorem. Local polynomial regression is a class of nonparametric re-  
 75 gression methods that estimate the unknown regression function  $m(\cdot)$  by combining the classical  
 76 least squares method with the versatility of non-linear regression. The local  $p$ -th order Taylor  
 77 expansion for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  near a point  $X_i$  yields:

$$m(X_i) \approx \sum_{j=0}^p \frac{m^{(j)}(x)}{j!} (x - X_i)^j := \sum_{j=0}^p \gamma_j(x)(x - X_i)^j \quad (1)$$

78 To find an estimate  $\hat{m}(x)$  of  $m(x)$  the low-degree polynomial (1) is fitted to the  $N$  nearest neighbors  
 79 using weighted least squares such to minimize the empirical loss  $\mathcal{L}_{lpr}(\cdot; \mathcal{D}_N, h)$ :

$$\mathcal{L}_{lpr}(x; \mathcal{D}_N, h) := \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \sum_{j=0}^p \gamma_j(x)(x - X_i)^j \right)^2 K_h(x - X_i) \quad (2)$$

$$\hat{\gamma}(x) := \min_{\gamma(x)} \mathcal{L}_{lpr}(x; \mathcal{D}_N, h) \quad (3)$$

80 Where  $\gamma, \hat{\gamma} \in \mathbb{R}^{p+1}$ ;  $K_h(\cdot)$  is a scaled kernel,  $h \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  is the bandwidth parameter and  $\mathcal{D}_N \subseteq \mathcal{D}_T$   
 81 is the subset of  $N$  nearest neighbors of  $x$  in the training set where the distance is measured on  
 82 the predictors only. Having computed  $\hat{\gamma}(x)$  the estimate of  $\hat{m}(x)$  is taken as  $\hat{\gamma}(x)_1$ . Note the

83 term kernel carries here the meaning typically used in the context of nonparametric regression  
 84 i.e. a non-negative real-valued weighting function that is typically symmetric, unimodal at zero,  
 85 integrable with a unit integral and whose value is non-increasing for the increasing distance  
 86 between the  $X_i$  and  $x$ . Higher degree polynomials and smaller  $N$  generally increase the variance  
 87 and decrease the bias of the estimator and vice versa [2]. For derivation of the local constant and  
 88 local linear estimators for the multidimensional case see [6].

### 89 3. Robust weights with similarity kernels

90 The main idea presented is to generalize the kernel function used in equation (2) to produce  
 91 robust weights. This is achieved by using a similarity kernel function defined on the data domain  
 92  $K_{\mathcal{D}} : \mathcal{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  that enables weighting each point and incorporating information on the data in  
 93 the local neighborhood in relation to the local regression target.

$$\mathcal{L}_{rsk}(x, y; \mathcal{D}_N, H) := \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j(x, y)(x - X_i)^j \right)^2 K_{\mathcal{D}}((x, y), (X_i, Y_i); H) \quad (4)$$

$$\hat{\beta}(x, y; \mathcal{D}_N, H) := \min_{\beta(x, y)} \mathcal{L}_{rsk}(x, y; \mathcal{D}_N, H) \quad (5)$$

94 Where  $H$  is the set of bandwidth parameters. There are many possible choices for such a  
 95 similarity kernel to be defined within this general framework. However, used as a local weighting  
 96 function, such a kernel should have the following attributes:

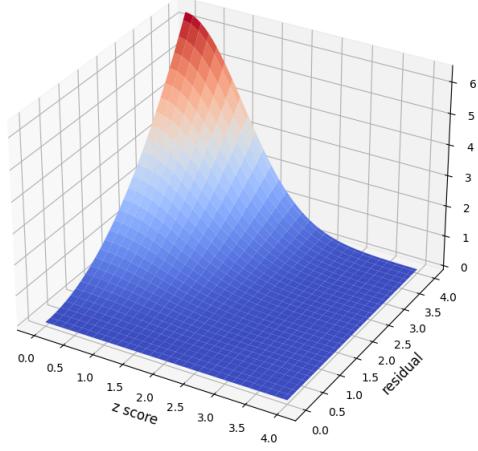
- 97 1. Non-negative,  $K_{\mathcal{D}}((x, y), (x', y')) \geq 0$ .
- 98 2. Symmetry in the inputs,  $K_{\mathcal{D}}((x, y), (x', y')) = K_{\mathcal{D}}((x', y'), (x, y))$ .
- 99 3. Tending toward decreasing as the distance in the predictors increases. That is, given a  
 100 similarity function on the response  $s(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ , if  $s(y, y')$  indicates high similarity  
 101 the weight should decrease as the distance between the predictors grows,  $s(y, y') > \alpha \implies$   
 102  $K_{\mathcal{D}}((x, y), (x + u, y')) \geq K_{\mathcal{D}}((x, y), (x + v, y')) \quad \forall \|u\| \leq \|v\|$  and some  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_+$ .

103 In this work two such useful positive definite kernels are proposed. Similarly to the usual  
 104 kernels used in (2), these tend to diminish as the distance between the explanatory variables  
 105 increases to model stronger relationship between closer points. In addition, the weights produced  
 106 by the kernels also model the "importance" of the pair  $(x, y)$ . This is useful for example to down-  
 107 weight outliers to mitigate their adverse effect on the ordinary least square based regression.  
 108 Formally let  $K_{\mathcal{D}}$  be defined as:

$$K_{\mathcal{D}}((x, y), (x', y'); H_1, H_2) = K_1(x, x'; H_1)K_2((x, y), (x', y'); H_2) \quad (6)$$

109 Where  $K_1 : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  and  $K_2 : \mathcal{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  are positive definite kernels and  $H_1, H_2$  are  
 110 the sets of bandwidth parameters. The purpose of  $K_1$  is to account for the distance between a  
 111 neighbor to the local regression target and therefore may be chosen as any of the kernel functions  
 112 that are typically used in equation (2). The role of  $K_2$  is described now in more detail as this  
 113 is the main idea proposed in this work. Using  $K_2$ , the method performs robust regression by  
 114 detecting local outliers in an unsupervised manner and assigns them with lower weights. There  
 115 are many methods that could be employed to estimate the extent to which a data point is a local  
 116 outlier however in this work it is estimated in one of the following two ways.

Figure 1: Loss function, assuming a standard quadratic function of the residual, a standard normal density for  $K_2$  and excluding the  $K_1$  distance kernel scaling.



<sup>117</sup> *Conditional density*

The first proposed method for  $K_2$  is proportional to the estimated localized conditional marginal distribution of the response variable at the location:

$$K_2((x, y), (x', y'); H_2) = \hat{f}(y | x; H_2)\hat{f}(y' | x'; H_2) \quad (7)$$

The nonparametric conditional density estimation is performed using the Parzen–Rosenblatt window (kernel density estimator):

$$\hat{f}(y | x; H_2) = \hat{f}(x, y; H_2)/\hat{f}(x; H_2) \quad (8)$$

$$= \hat{f}(v; \mathbf{H}_v)/\hat{f}(x; \mathbf{H}_x) \quad (9)$$

$$= \frac{|\mathbf{H}_v|^{1/2} \sum_{i=1}^N K_v(\mathbf{H}_v^{-1/2}(v - V_i))}{|\mathbf{H}_x|^{1/2} \sum_{i=1}^N K_x(\mathbf{H}_x^{-1/2}(x - X_i))} \quad (10)$$

<sup>118</sup> Where  $v = [x, y] \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  is the concatenated vector of the predictors and the response; and  $\mathbf{H}_v, \mathbf{H}_x$   
<sup>119</sup> are bandwidth matrices.

<sup>120</sup> *Joint density*

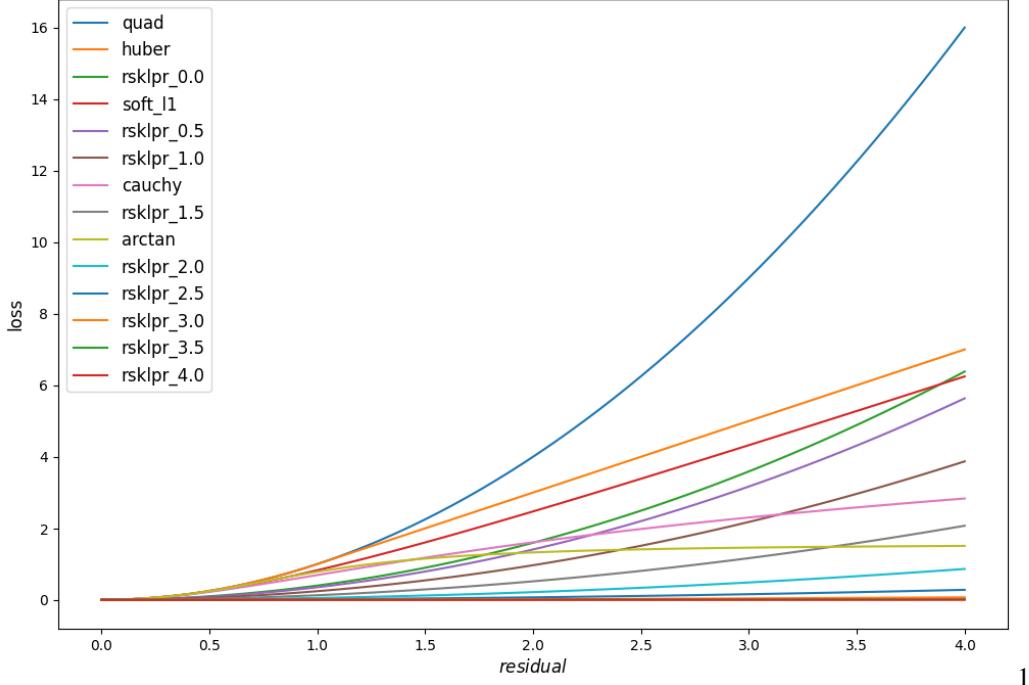
The second proposed kernel is proportional to the joint distribution of the random pair, this could be useful for example to also down-weight high leverage points:

$$K_2((x, y), (x', y'); H_2) = \hat{f}(x, y; H_2)\hat{f}(x', y'; H_2) \quad (11)$$

<sup>121</sup> Where the joint density can be estimated using the same aforementioned approach.

<sup>122</sup>

Figure 2: The plot illustrates the proposed loss function, a number of common robust losses and the standard quadratic residual loss for comparison. It is assumed that that  $K_2$  is equivalent to the standard normal density and the  $K_1$  distance kernel scaling is excluded. The numbers appended to "rsklpr" indicate how many standard deviations away from the mean the density is calculated. It is evident that the loss is heavily attenuated in regions of low density.



123     Regardless of the choice of kernel, the hyperparameters of this model are similar in essence  
 124     to the standard local polynomial regression and comprise the span of included points, the kernels  
 125     and their associated bandwidths. Note that this estimator can be replaced with other robust  
 126     density estimators and better results are anticipated by doing so however exploring this option is  
 127     left for future work.

#### 128     **4. Properties**

129     This section discusses some properties of the estimator. Note the notation in this section is  
 130     simplified by excluding explicit mentions of  $D_N$  and  $H$ , however the analysis is conditional on  
 131     the nearest neighbors in the sample,  $D_N$ .

##### 132     *4.1. Weighted arithmetic mean of the standard LPR*

The proposed estimator is equivalent to using weighted arithmetic mean of the terms in the standard LPR loss (2) with weights  $w_i = \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i)$ .

*Proof:* The optimization is invariant to the scale of the objective, therefore:

$$\hat{\beta}(x, y) := \min_{\beta(x, y)} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j(x, y)(x - X_i)^j \right)^2 K_{H_1}(x - X_i) \hat{f}(y | x) \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \quad (12)$$

$$= \min_{\beta(x, y)} \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j(x, y)(x - X_i)^j \right)^2 K_{H_1}(x - X_i) \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \quad (13)$$

$$= \min_{\beta(x, y)} \left( \sum_{i=1}^N w_i \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j(x, y)(x - X_i)^j \right)^2 K_{H_1}(x - X_i) w_i \quad (14)$$

133    4.2. Asymptotic degeneration of the estimator to the standard LPR

134    Asymptotically, the proposed estimator degenerates to the standard LPR when the weights  
135     $w_i$  are uncorrelated to the standard LPR terms. Formally,  $\hat{\gamma}(x) = \hat{\beta}(x, y) \forall y$  when

136     $\left( Y - \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j(x, y)(x - X)^j \right)^2 K_{H_1}(x - X)$  and  $\hat{f}(Y | X)$  are uncorrelated.

137    *Proof:* Define  $g(X, Y) := \left( Y - \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j(x, y)(x - X)^j \right)^2 K_{H_1}(x - X)$ , it then follows that:

$$\hat{\beta}(x, y) := \min_{\beta(x, y)} \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j(x, y)(x - X_i)^j \right)^2 K_{H_1}(x - X_i) \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \quad (15)$$

$$= \min_{\beta(x, y)} \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N g(X_i, Y_i) \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \quad (16)$$

$$= \min_{\beta(x, y)} \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N g(X_i, Y_i) \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \quad (17)$$

138    When  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , due to the law of large numbers and the continuous mapping theorem it follows  
139    that:  
140

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \right)^{-1} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{\hat{f}(Y | X)} \right] \quad (18)$$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N g(X, Y) \hat{f}(Y_i | X_i) \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mathbb{E} [g(X, Y) \hat{f}(Y | X)] \quad (19)$$

Combining the results above and assuming  $\mathbb{E} [\hat{f}(Y | X)] \neq 0$  it follows that:

$$\hat{\beta}(x, y) := \min_{\beta(x, y)} \frac{\mathbb{E} [g(X, Y) \hat{f}(Y | X)]}{\mathbb{E} [\hat{f}(Y | X)]} \quad (20)$$

If  $g(X, Y)$  and  $\hat{f}(Y|X)$  are uncorrelated then:

$$\hat{\beta}(x, y) := \min_{\beta(x,y)} \frac{\mathbb{E}[g(X, Y)\hat{f}(Y|X)]}{\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(Y|X)]} = \min_{\beta(x,y)} \frac{\mathbb{E}[g(X, Y)]\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(Y|X)]}{\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(Y|X)]} = \min_{\beta(x,y)} \mathbb{E}[g(X, Y)] \quad (21)$$

$$= \min_{\beta(x,y)} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N g(X_i, Y_i) \quad (22)$$

$$= \min_{\beta(x,y)} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j(x, y)(x - X_i)^j \right)^2 K_{H_1}(x - X_i) \quad (23)$$

Since the last equation (23) is independent of the value of  $y$ , it is equivalent to the standard LPR as per equation (2):

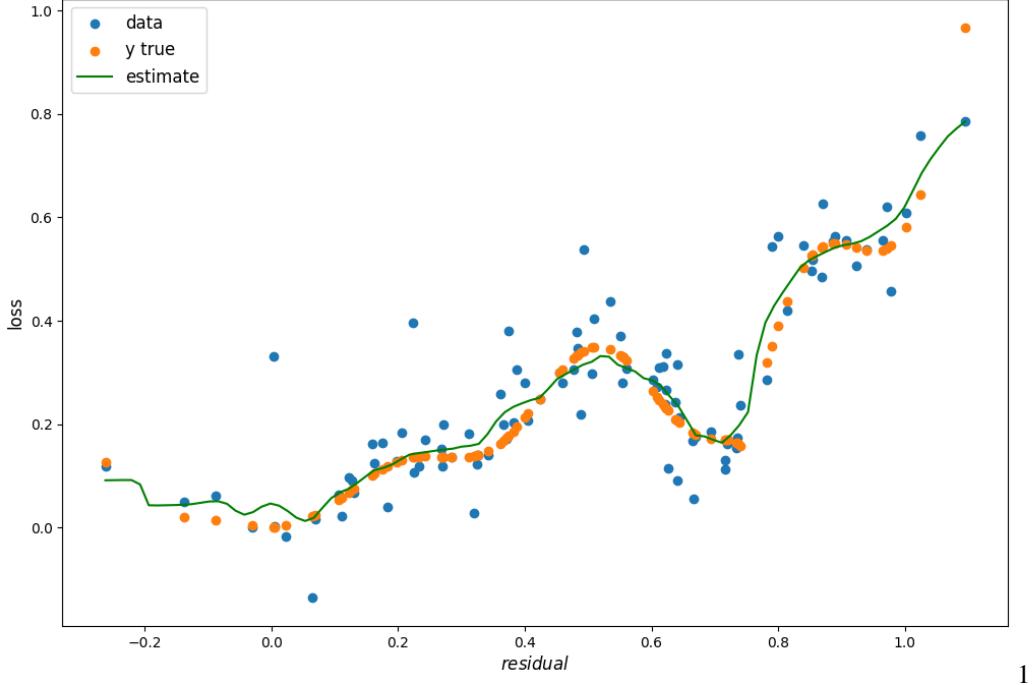
$$\min_{\gamma(x)} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \sum_{j=0}^p \gamma_j(x)(x - X_i)^j \right)^2 K_{H_1}(x - X_i) = \hat{\gamma}(x) \quad (24)$$

## 141 5. Experiments and implementation notes

142 The proposed method was implemented in Python. The distances between pairs are normalized  
 143 to the range  $[0,1]$  in each neighborhood as in [3]. The simple Laplacian kernel  $e^{-\|x-x'\|}$  is  
 144 used for  $K_1(x, x'; H_1)$  since it gave better and more efficient empirical results in tests than the  
 145 tricube kernel recommended in [3]. A factorized multidimensional KDE using scaled Gaussian  
 146 kernels is used for estimating the density. Five methods for estimating the bandwidth were used:  
 147 Scott's rule [12], Normal Reference, global LSCV, local LSCV and local MLCV. Additionally  
 148 the bandwidth for the predictor's kernel also uses in some of the experiments a simple function of  
 149 the window size estimated empirically. Certain computations are omitted for efficiency since the  
 150 local regression in equation (5) is invariant to the scale of the weights. This includes all scaling  
 151 constants fixed in a given neighborhood concerning a specific local regression target including  
 152 the computation of  $\hat{f}(y|x)$  and  $\hat{f}(x,y)$  in equations (7) and (11) respectively. Experiments were  
 153 performed on a number of synthetic benchmarks to evaluate the effectiveness of the method's  
 154 linear and quadratic variants in comparison to other methods of the local polynomial regression  
 155 family including LOWESS and iterative robust LOWESS [13], local linear and local constant  
 156 kernel regression [13], local quadratic regression [14] and radial basis function network [14].

157  
 158 The experiments comprise a number settings including various non-linear synthetic curves  
 159 and planes with added noise. These have variants of dense and sparse data, homoscedastic and  
 160 heteroscedastic noise characteristics and various neighborhood sizes. The results indicate there  
 161 is no best universal method and that different methods work better in a given setting. However,  
 162 the proposed method offers competitive performance across the board and gives the best results  
 163 in a large number of settings and in particular in heteroscedastic settings. It is further shown the  
 164 proposed method generally improves on its direct counterparts LOESS/LOWESS and quadratic  
 165 LPR using a single iteration. In addition it appears far less sensitive to the choice of neighborhood  
 166 size and has substantial reduced variance in this respect. This last quality makes it an attractive  
 167 choice since it is more likely for the analyst to select an "appropriate" hyperparameter value  
 168 when there is no ground truth available.

Figure 3: Regression example of synthetically generated 1D data with heteroscedastic noise. Additional experimental results and demonstrations including multivariate settings and bootstrap based confidence intervals are available at <https://nbviewer.org/github/yaniv-shulman/rsklpr/tree/main/src/experiments/> as interactive Jupyter notebooks [1]



169     The experimental results are available at <https://nbviewer.org/github/yaniv-shulman/>  
170     rsklpr/tree/main/src/experiments/ as interactive Jupyter notebooks [1].

## 171     6. Future work and research directions

172     This work proposes a new robust variant of LPR and as such there are many aspects that need  
173     to be explored and are left for future work. As the proposed method generalize the standard LPR  
174     it does not preclude replacing some of the standard LPR components in equation (5) with other  
175     and robust alternatives including robust methods for bandwidth selection and robust alternatives  
176     to the standard quadratic residual function. Another avenue for developing this framework is  
177     investigating additional kernels  $K_D$  and exploring the impact of robust density estimators on  
178     performance.

## 179     References

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181        interactive data science and scientific computing across all programming languages. <https://jupyter.org/>.
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