Interactive local bandwidth choice

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Abstract

A tool for user choice of the local bandwidth function for kernel density and nonparametric regression estimates is developed using KDE, a graphical object-oriented package for interactive kernel density estimation written in LISP-STAT. The bandwidth function is a parameterized spline, whose knots are manipulated by the user in one window, while the resulting estimate appears in another window. A real data illustration of this method raises concerns, because an extremely large family of estimates is available. Suggestions are made to overcome this problem so that this tool can be used effectively for presenting final results of a data analysis.

1 Introduction

Smoothing methods are useful for gaining insights from data. See Eubank (1988) [7], Härdle (1990) [13], Müller (1988) [19], Scott (1992) [23], Silverman (1986) [25] and Wahba (1990) [28] for many interesting examples. In a number of cases, it is desirable to use different amounts of smoothing in different locations. Here we study location dependent smoothing mostly in the context of kernel density estimation, although we include a nonparametric

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regression example to show that our ideas extend easily to other contexts. The smoothing parameter of a kernel density estimator is often called the bandwidth. Basic concepts of the kernel density estimator are discussed in Section 2.

A useful way to choose the bandwidth for a given data set is by an interactive trial and error process. In particular, substantial insight comes from being able to choose a bandwidth after looking at the estimate corresponding to a previous choice. In modern computer interfaces this kind of interaction is typically done using a mouse or similar mechanism by means of a graphical device called a *slider*. With this graphical metaphor, the user drags the thumb nail of the slider by moving the mouse to choose from a range of values. The user can also click on the arrows at each side of the slider to increment or decrement the bandwidth by a fixed factor. Then the corresponding estimate is shown and the user can react by choosing a new value.

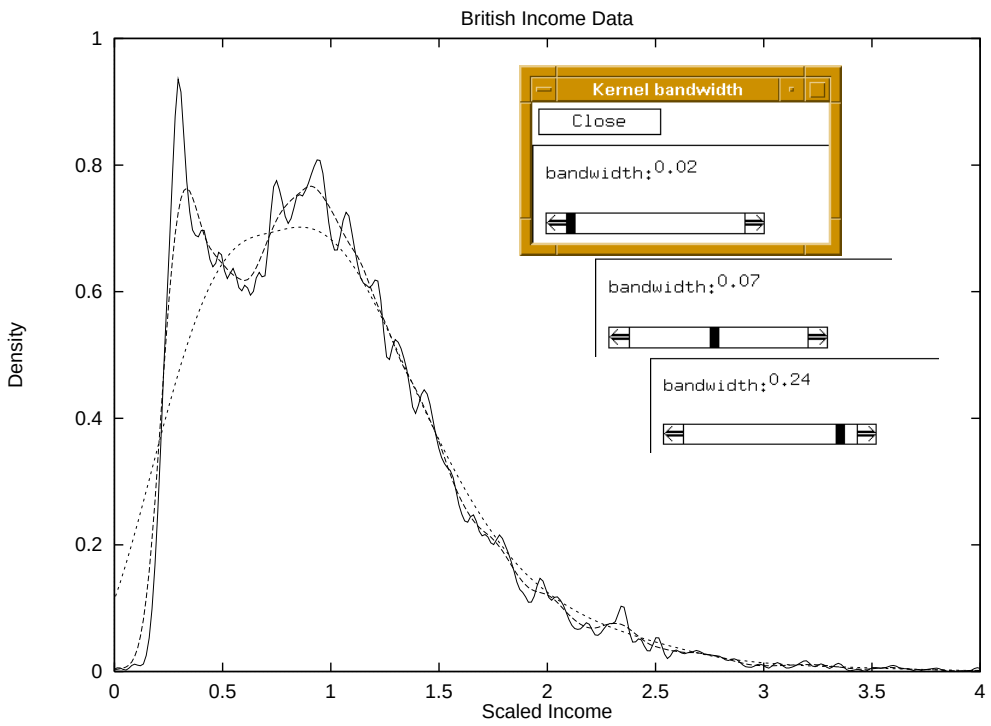

FIGURE 1: *Biweight kernel density estimators for the income data. Global bandwidth estimators, with bandwidths* $h = 0.02, 0.07, 0.24$. *The sliders used to choose these values are also shown.*

The programming environment LISP-STAT, Tierney (1990) [26], provides a convenient environment for use of such tools in a statistical application. We have used LISP-STAT to develop KDE, a graphical package that allows convenient interactive density estimation by implementing sliders and other graphical mechanisms together with fast methods to compute and draw the estimates. The sliders shown in Figure 1 are real KDE sliders, and the curves shown in the Figure are computed by KDE for each of the bandwidth values.

An interactive analysis of a data set often results in a desire to use different amounts of smoothing in different locations. A data set of this type is the income data, as shown in Figure 1, discussed in Schmitz and Marron (1992) [22]. This is a set of $n = 7201$ observations of family income, for the year 1975, in the United Kingdom. The data have been scaled by dividing by their mean. Figure 1 shows an overlay of three kernel density estimates, using the Gaussian kernel with different bandwidths. Note that each of the three bandwidths reveals different interesting structure. The undersmoothed curve reveals a tight spike in the data at low incomes (shown to be due to "pensioners" in the population in Schmitz and Marron (1992) [22]). The medium amount of smoothing recovers the second wider peak, and the larger bandwidth gives a smoother tail. An estimator which uses different amounts of smoothing in different locations could mimic each of these estimates where they perform well.

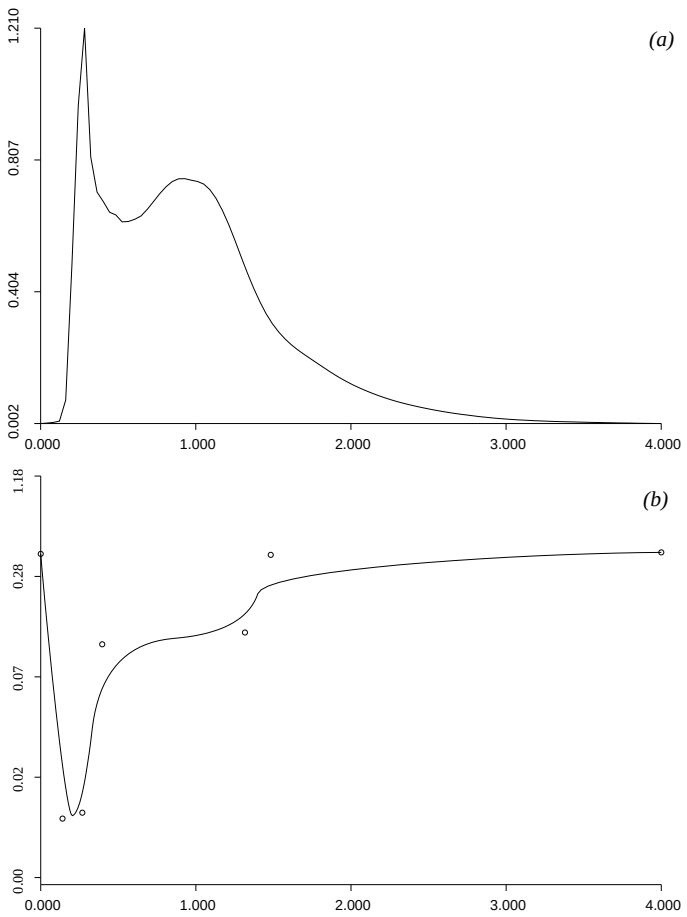

FIGURE 2: *Biweight kernel density estimators for the income data. Location adaptive estimator in (a). Bandwidth function for (a) shown in (b), vertical axis has log scale.*

Figure 2a shows a location varying bandwidth kernel estimator for the income data. The upper part of the Figure shows a kernel density estimate which uses the bandwidth function shown in the lower part. Note that this estimate uses the best parts of each of the three estimates of Figure 1. The lower part of Figure 2 is the local bandwidth function that was used. In this paper we propose making choice of this bandwidth function interactive. Our user interface to the smoothing parameter function is based on mid-point splines, see Section 6 for details. The function is controlled by the user through manipulation of some knots shown as small circles in Figure 2b. Knot locations are changed through a mouse "click-and-drag" operation

in the lower "bandwidth window" while the resulting density estimate is recomputed and redrawn in the upper window. The implementation of this idea shown here is built with `kde objects`, using LISP-STAT.

A detailed illustration of the properties of our interactive local bandwidth method, applied to a particular data set, is given in Section 3, where a number of different local bandwidth estimates are considered for a single data set. An important lesson is that the number of possible estimates available is extremely large. Also it is very easy to misrepresent the data. In particular important features, such as modes, can be moved around, as well as added or removed from the estimate, nearly at will. Hence interactive local smoothing parameter choice needs careful use in real applications.

However, despite the potential pitfalls, we believe our methodology is still useful. In particular, *after* completely understanding the structure of a data set by other methods, local bandwidth smoothing can give convenient summarization of the knowledge gained. For instance, Figure 2 would have been an excellent final summary for the lessons learned in the detailed analysis of these data given in Schmitz and Marron (1992). In section 4 we suggest two devices to assist in this use, and also in the use of our method for exploratory data analysis. First we suggest a new type of spline, called "mid-point" as the interface to the bandwidth function. An important property of this type of spline is that the function never leaves the range of the control points, which is not shared by conventional interpolating splines. Second we add a "residual plot window", which gives important visual indication as to the performance of the smooth estimate. For example, removal of an important mode results in a systematic pattern in the residuals.

In Section 5 we investigate the set of all estimates that are available from consideration of arbitrary local bandwidth functions.

We do not study data based local bandwidth selection, but our results suggest care needs to be taken in that area. In particular, it seems quite easy to arrive at an uninformative or even misleading result. There is clear indication that precautions against this are needed. This could be accomplished by plotting bandwidth functions as we do here, although other graphical displays could be effective as well.

An interesting theoretical indication that data based local bandwidth selection is a challenging problem may be found in Devroye and Lugosi (1998)[6]. That suggestion is backed up in the simulation study of Farmen and Marron (1998)[9]. There it is seen that the Sheather Jones Plug In global bandwidth method is quite competitive with a wide array of data driven local bandwidth

selection proposals.

2 Smoothing methods

Given a set of data $X_1, ..., X_n$, the kernel density estimate is

$$\widehat{f}_h(x) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K_h(x - X_i), \tag{1}$$

where h is the bandwidth, and where $K_h(\cdot) = \left(\frac{1}{h}\right) K(\frac{\cdot}{h})$, for a "kernel function" K, which is often taken to be a symmetric probability density. Note that h controls the "width" of the kernel function (e.g. it is the standard deviation if K is the standard normal density). The curves in Figure 1 show this estimate, for 3 different values of h. See Silverman (1986) [25] and Scott (1992) [23] for useful discussion of many aspects of this estimator.

A related smoothing context is nonparametric regression, where one uses paired observations (X_i, Y_i), $i = 1, ..., n$, from the model $Y_i = m(x_i) + \epsilon_i$, to estimate the smooth regression curve $m(x)$. The local linear approach to this problem, see e.g. Cleveland (1979) [3], is to estimate $m(x)$ by $\widehat{m}_h(x) = \alpha_x$ where α_x, β_x are the minimizers of

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - \alpha_x - X_i \beta_x]^2 K_h(x - X_i).$$

See Wand and Jones (1995) [29] and Fan and Gijbels (1996) [8] for useful discussion of many aspects of this estimator.

Many approaches to location varying kernel density estimation have been suggested, including the nearest neighbor methods of Loftsgaarden and Quesenberry (1965) [17] and others, the variable kernel methods of Breiman, Meisel and Purcell (1977) [2] and Abramson (1982) [1], the shifted kernel method of Samiuddin and El-Sayyad (1990) [21] and the transformation method of Wand, Marron and Ruppert (1991) [30]. For discussion of the many possibilities, and overview of the field, see Chapter 5 of Silverman (1986) [25], Jones (1990) [15], Jones, McKay and Hu (1994) [16], and section 2.10 of Wand and Jones (1995) [29].

Here two main types of bandwidth variation are studied. The first is "depending on location x", where h in (1) is replaced by a function $h(x)$. This includes the nearest neighbor estimators. Insight into this approach

comes from focusing on each point x, and viewing the kernel estimate as based on the number of data points in a "nearby window". The width of that window changes with location x.

The second type of bandwidth variation studied here is "depending on data values X_i", where h in (1) becomes $h(X_i)$. This is usefully understood by thinking of the kernel estimate as being the "sum of small probability masses", as illustrated in figures 2.4 and 2.5, page 14, of Silverman (1986). This type of estimate achieves different amounts of smoothing in different locations by allowing these masses to have different widths.

An important difference between the two types of estimates is that a kernel density estimate with bandwidth depending on data values is constrained to have total area under the curve equal to one. No such restriction applies when the bandwidth depends on x, and as seen in Section 5, the area can be any positive value.

3 An illustration

The "Chondrite data", were made famous in the "bump hunting" literature by Good and Gaskins (1980) [12]. Here we analyze the same scaled version of the data with location varying bandwidth kernel density estimators. The sample size is $n = 22$. The biweight kernel is used in all examples in this section. Location varying smoothing, with bandwidth depending on location, i.e. $h(x)$, is done in all examples until Figure 7. Here the local bandwidth function is parameterized as an ordinary interpolating spline, to illustrate the problems with this as a user interface, and to motivate our recommended interface based on "mid-point" splines, as developed in Section 4.

Figure 3a shows the result of a reasonable amount of global smoothing. Figure 3b shows that the same bandwidth was used everywhere. We recommend starting with a global bandwidth, which may be found in any of several ways using `KDE objects`. Here we used the Sheather Jones (1991)[24] Plug In global bandwidth.This amount of smoothing reveals 3 modes in the data, as found by Good and Gaskins, and several other "bump hunters" since.

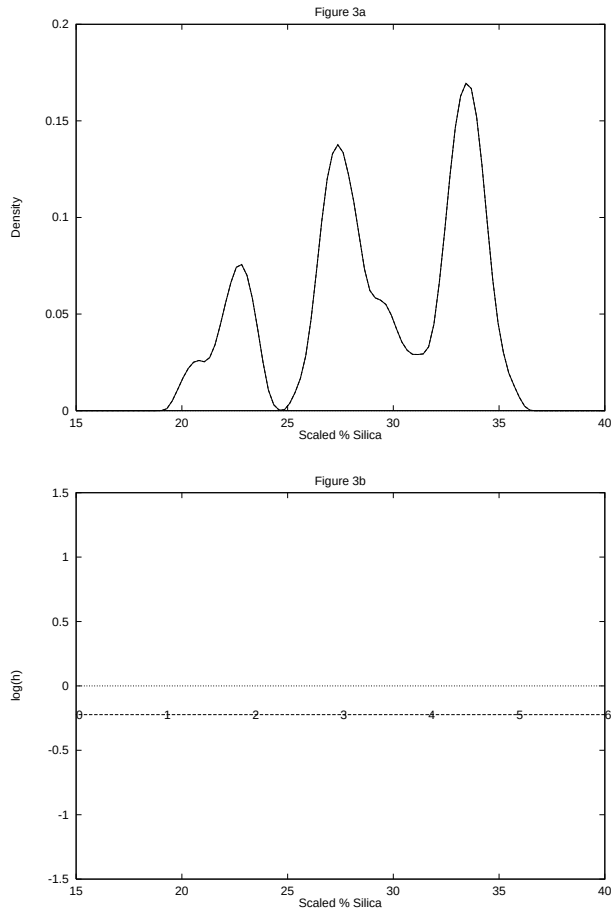

FIGURE 3: *Density estimate for the Chondrite data in (a), bandwidth function in (b). Same bandwidth used in all locations, shows trimodal structure.*

Figure 4 shows the result of some manipulation of the bandwidth function. Note that the first mode in Figure 3 has now been separated into two modes, by using a relatively small bandwidth in that region. The second mode in Figure 3 is now smaller with a different shape. The third mode is still about the same, but note that a spurious fifth mode has appeared near $x = 38$, where there is no data! This last spurious mode was generated by using a large bandwidth function there, which "reached out for mass" to the regions with data. Note that location varying bandwidth estimation has the potential for serious misrepresentation of the data.

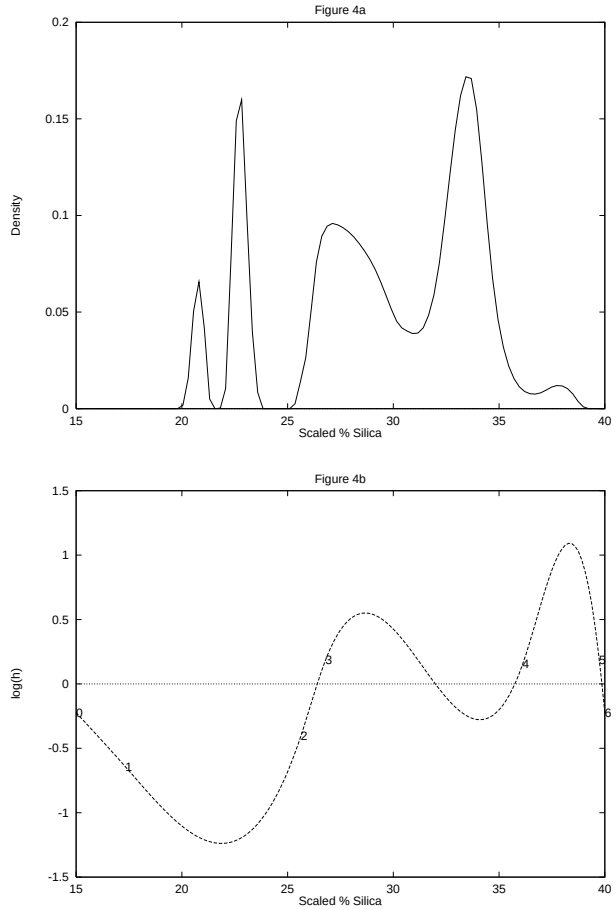

FIGURE 4: *Density estimate for the Chondrite data in (a), bandwidth function in (b). Now see 5 modes, with relative sizes and shapes different.*

Figure 5 shows the result of an attempt at further misrepresentation of the data. Note that the first mode in Figure 3 has been completely obliterated by a very large bandwidth for $17 < x < 24$, although two spurious modes created by the same effect as the fifth mode in Figure 4 have appeared at $x = 17$ and $x = 24$. The second mode in Figure 3 has become huge, with one spike separated on the right side, by a very small bandwidth in that area. The third mode of Figure 3 has also been exaggerated.

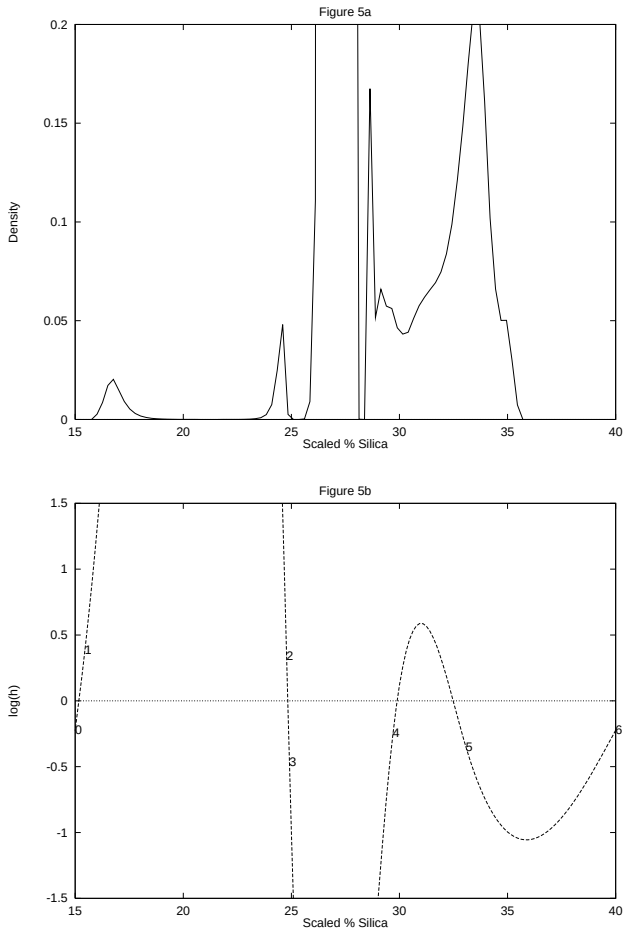

FIGURE 5: *Density estimate for the Chondrite data in (a), bandwidth function in (b). Density shape very different, and not representative of the data.*

An extreme example is shown in Figure 6. By taking the bandwidth function very large in the range of the data, the estimate is essentially 0 there (note that for any x, $\lim_{h\to\infty} \widehat{f}_h(x) = 0$). The estimator does show two modes, but these are outside the range of the data. These are caused by the same "reaching out" effect that generated the fifth mode in Figure 4.

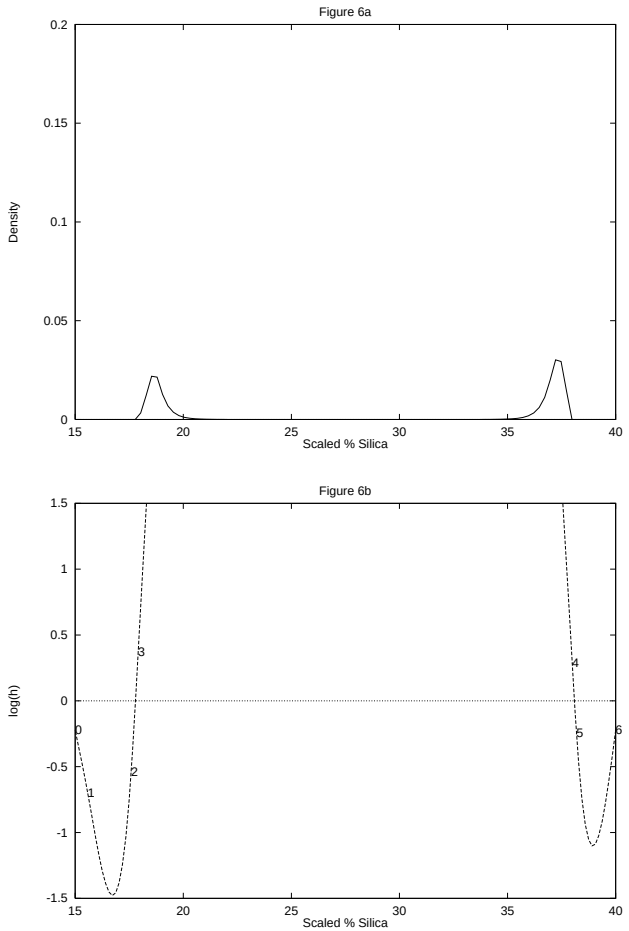

FIGURE 6: *Density estimate for the Chondrite data in (a), bandwidth function in (b). Estimate is 0 in the region containing the data, has two bumps well outside the range of the data.*

Figure 7 gives yet another misrepresentation of the data. Now the second mode of Figure 3 appears much bigger than the others. Figure 7 also shows that there is a difference between allowing the bandwidth to depend on location, $h(x)$, and on the data points $h(X_i)$. In general, we found that the $h(x)$ type of bandwidth variation was somewhat more flexible (not surprising in view of the fact that its area is not constrained), but also more prone to spurious modes, as seen here. Especially important is that it does not seem possible to create modes that appear outside of the range of the data using $h(X_i)$. But the most important lesson is that both types of location varying

bandwidth deserve to be treated with a good deal of healthy skepticism, because the impression one receives from the estimate is easily manipulated in any of many possible directions.

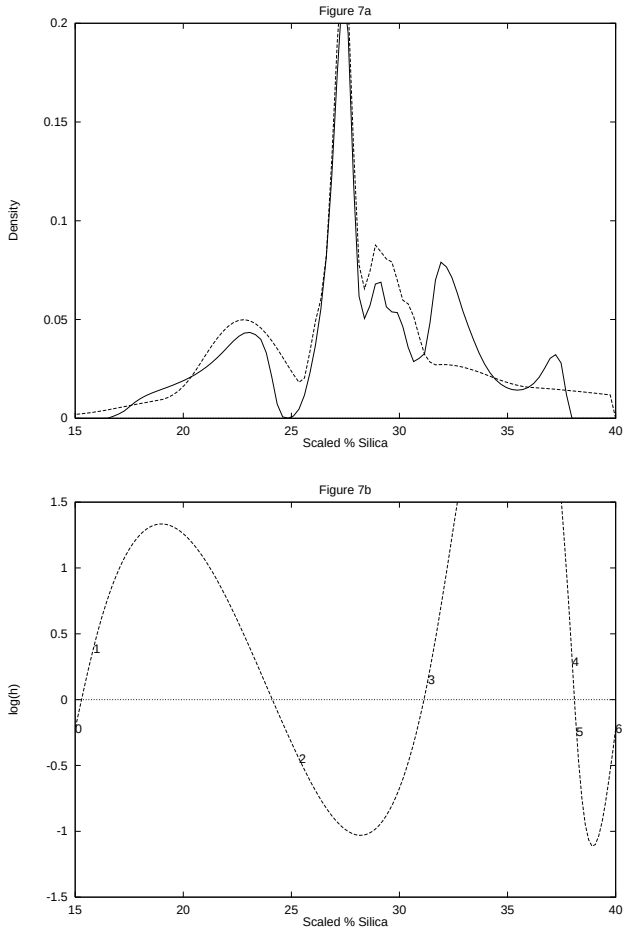

FIGURE 7: *Density estimate for the Chondrite data in (a), bandwidth function in (b). Much different shape from other examples, also shows varying bandwidths depending on location, $h(x)$ (solid curve), and depending on data points, $h(X_i)$ (dashed curve).*

4 Improved interactive smoothing

One cause of the exaggerated effects observed in Section 3 is volatility of the interpolating spline, used as a bandwidth function. A more stable choice of

the bandwidth function is based on "mid-point splines". The main idea here is instead of interacting with the spline through its knots, the user manipulates line segments, whose midpoints are the knots of a spline, and whose slopes determine the slope of the spline at the knot. This gives much more stability to the interactive local bandwidth curve, since it always appears to lie within the convex hull of the user chosen knots. Full details are given in Section 6.

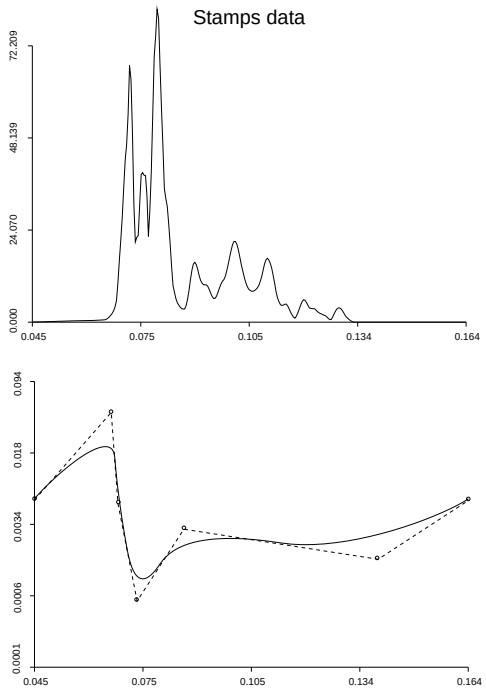

FIGURE 8: *A local bandwidth estimate for the Stamps data in (a). The bandwidth function is shown in (b) using a vertical log scale.*

This user interface is used in Figure 8 to analyze the Hidalgo Stamp data. This data set is $n = 458$ thicknesses of stamps produced in Mexico during the last century, which were brought to the statistical literature by Izenman and Sommer (1988) [14]. The large variation in paper thicknesses suggests that paper from several different sources was used, and the central question is how many such sources there were. Here the local bandwidth estimator is chosen to simultaneously show the seven modes found by Izenman and Sommer (1988) [14] and the small potential mode that was found between the two

largest modes by Minnotte and Scott (1993) [18]. This requires very careful choice of the local bandwidth, to avoid small spurious bumps appearing in other locations. An important question not addressed here is whether or not this mode is "really present". Our point here is that interactive local bandwidth smoothing can be used for presentation of such features when needed.

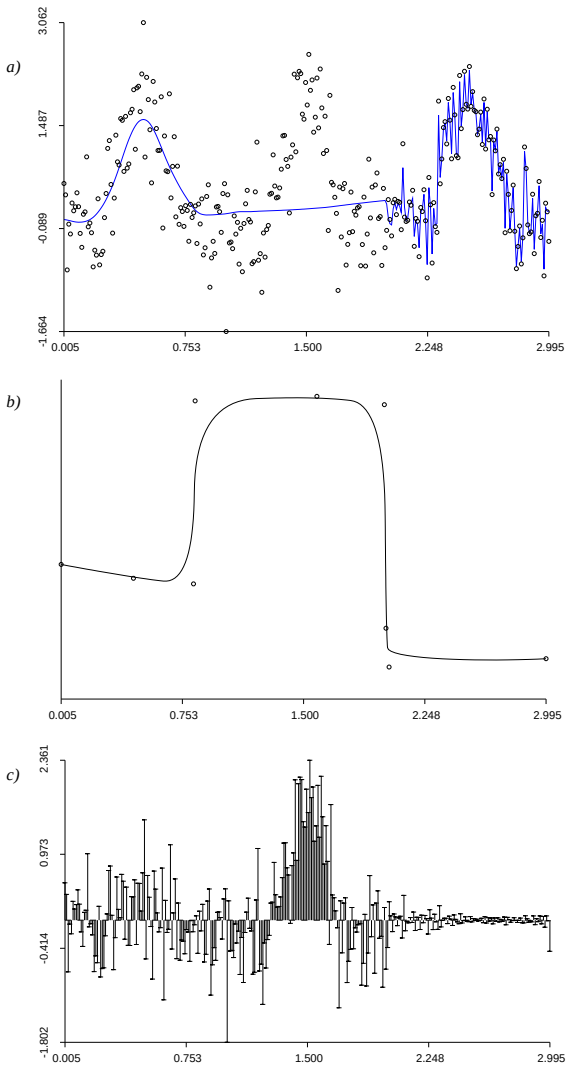

FIGURE 9: *Some simulated data in (a) with a local linear regression fit using local bandwidth. In (b), the user chosen local*

bandwidth function is shown. In (c) the residuals of the fit are shown as vertical lines.

Another approach to the potential difficulties highlighted in Section 3 is to provide the user with additional information as to the performance of the smooth. W. S. Cleveland suggested the use of an additional window showing residuals $Y_i - \widehat{m}_h(X_i)$, in the case of nonparametric regression. This idea is illustrated in Figure 9. The simulated data in the scatterplot, suggest 3 "arches" (and were generated in that way). The local bandwidth function (using a mid-point spline), is deliberately chosen to illustrate different types of performance. In the left hand arch, a reasonable local bandwidth is used, and the local linear smooth follows the arch of the data. Inspection of the residuals in this region shows a reasonable amount of variability, and some bias shown by the residuals being more frequently positive near the peak (recall good window widths entail a balance between variance and bias). In the center arch, the local bandwidth is too large, so the estimate is essentially constant, instead of following the data. This high bias is clearly reflected in the residuals, which are all positive near the central peak. In the right hand arch, the local bandwidth is too small, and the estimate follows the data too closely (i.e. inherits too much sample variability). This large variance in the estimate is reflected by the residuals being too small (note these have even less fine scale variation than the estimate!)

The idea of showing residuals to indicate when performance of the smoother is poor, can be adapted to density estimation by binning the data to a fine grid, and using the difference between the kernel estimate and the bin frequencies as residuals.

5 Which curves can be estimates?

The example in Section 3 suggests that for a given set of data and a given kernel, the set of possible kernel density estimates is very large. Here this set is investigated, when the kernel function is a symmetric probability density.

For bandwidth variation depending on the data values, the set of possible kernel density estimators is a set of mixture densities, of the form:

$$\left\{ f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} K_{h_i}(x - X_i) : \mathbf{h} = (h_1, ..., h_n) \in \Re^n \right\}.$$

This allows a wide range of possible features, especially number and location of modes. For example, when the kernel is Gaussian, given any point x_0 in the range of the data, a member of this family has a unique mode at x_0 (choose very large bandwidths for all data points, except for one point on each side of x_0, adjust those bandwidths to put the mode at x_0).

For bandwidth variation depending on x, even more is possible. To understand this, for a given continuous kernel K and data set $\mathbf{X} = \{X_1, ..., X_n\}$, call the set of points in $\Re^2$, that some kernel estimate passes through, the "envelope" of the estimate:

$$Env(K, \mathbf{X}) = \left\{ \left(x, \widehat{f}_h(x) \right) : x \in \Re, h > 0 \right\}.$$

Note that any function whose graph is contained in $Env(K, \mathbf{X})$ is a varying bandwidth kernel estimate for some bandwidth function $h(x)$.

To study the set $Env(K, \mathbf{X})$, let $\overline{b}_{K,\mathbf{X}}(x) = \sup_{h>0} \widehat{f}_h(x)$ denote the upper boundary. It is straightforward to show that $Env(K, \mathbf{X})$ consists of all points between the x-axis and the curve $\overline{b}_{K,\mathbf{X}}$. This shows that the area under this type of bandwidth varying density estimate can be arbitrarily close to 0. The curve $\overline{b}_{K,\mathbf{X}}(x)$ is studied next.

To find an upper bound, note that from

$$\sup_h \left| \frac{x}{h} \right| K\left(\frac{x}{h} \right) = \sup_{t>0} tK(t)$$

it follows that

$$\sup_h K_h\left(x - X_i\right) = \frac{\overline{K}}{|x - X_i|},$$

where $\overline{K} = \sup_{t>0} tK(t)$. Hence,

$$\overline{b}_{K,\mathbf{X}}(x) = \sup_h n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K_h\left(x - X_i\right) \leq n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\overline{K}}{|x - X_i|}, \tag{2}$$

i.e. is bounded by a kernel estimate with a nonintegrable kernel proportional to $1/x$. A suitably rescaled (by a factor of $(\overline{K} \log n)^{-1}$) version of the kernel estimate on the right hand side of (2) has been named the "Hilbert kernel density estimate" by Devroye and Krzyżak (1998) [5], who have demonstrated some interesting and nonobvious properties.

Devroye has also pointed out that a multiple of the Hilbert kernel density estimate also appears in a lower bound on $\overline{b}_{K,\mathbf{X}}$. Assume that "$K$ contains

an ϵ rectangle" in the sense that $K(x) \geq \epsilon$ for all $x \in [-\epsilon, \epsilon]$. Then for each $x \in \Re$ and for $i = 1, ..., n$, the bandwidth choice $h = \left|\frac{x - X_i}{\epsilon}\right|$ gives

$$\overline{b}_{K,\mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sup_{h} K_h(x - X_i) \geq \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\left|\frac{x - X_i}{\epsilon}\right|} K\left(\frac{x - X_i}{\left|\frac{x - X_i}{\epsilon}\right|}\right) \geq \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\epsilon^2}{|x - X_i|} \tag{3}$$

This makes it clear that the area under this type of bandwidth varying kernel density estimate can be infinite.

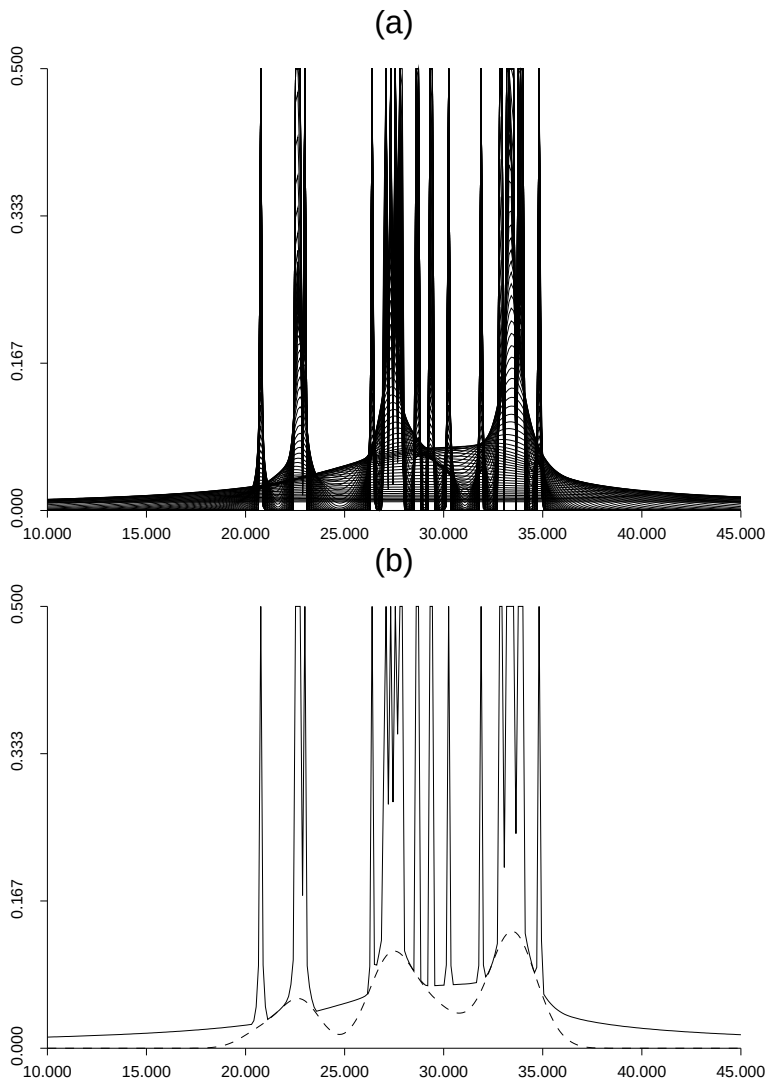

FIGURE 10: *Envelope for the Chondrite data in Figure 3. Large family of kernel density estimates are overlaid in (a). Maxima of these gives envelope boundary in (b), together with a single good global bandwidth estimate.*

The upper and lower bounds in (2) and (3) show that the boundary of the envelope is intimately connected with the function $1/x$. An approximation to $\overline{b}_{K,\mathbf{X}}(x)$ for the Chondrite data is shown in Figure 10. The envelope in Figure 10b was constructed by taking the maxima of a large family of Gaussian kernel density estimates, shown in Figure 10a. Figure 10b also contains a good constant bandwidth estimate, in particular the method of Sheather and Jones (1991) [24], which shows the area of the envelope is much bigger.

Figure 10a shows where the various features in the envelope come from. The thin spikes correspond to single data points. The fatter spikes are several data points very close together. The flat spots come from relatively large bandwidths. The rounded corners near the fatter spikes come from a fairly wide range of different bandwidths. As expected from the above, the tails of the envelope go down very slowly ($\sim \frac{1}{|x|}$ for $|x| \to \infty$).

6 Details of the implementation

We have used LISP-STAT to implement the techniques of this paper. There are two kind of programs involved: interaction programs and computation programs. Interaction programs are for building the graphical objects that show the curves on the screen, read the mouse actions, and interpret what the user wants to do with these actions. Computation programs are used to compute density estimates given the bandwidth function (constant or variable, variable on data or on location).

LISP-STAT provides useful tools for the development of graphical interfaces, see Tierney (1990) [26] (LISP-STAT is available from `http://stat.umn.edu/~luke/xls/xlsinfo/xlsinfo.html`). We have used this object oriented environment to build `KDE objects`. This provides the user with easy adjustment of the parameters and options of kernel density estimation, see Udina (1995) [27]. More information about the software is available, using some WWW reader, in `http://www.econ.upf.es/~udina` or by `ftp` in `ftp.upf.es:pub/stat/`. The variable bandwidth method shown

in figures 2-7 has been implemented in `KDE objects`. By means of the mouse, the user can move the knots. A cubic B-spline (see deBoor (1978)[4]) passing through the knots is computed and it is used to compute the bandwidth for each location. In our recommended interface, we replace the knot controlled cubic splines with Bézier-like splines (see Newman and Sproull (1979) [20] or Foley and van Damm (1982)[11]) that we name "mid-point splines" and that are described below. This allows more convenient user manipulation of the bandwidth function, via *handles* that are not points on the curve. In addition to better manipulation of the bandwidth function more conscious effort is required to reach values outside a reasonable range as in Figure 6.

We use binning methods to compute the density estimates. This means that data are discretized to a grid of values, usually a grid size of some hundreds is used. For a comprehensive discussion of these discretized methods, see Fan and Marron (1994)[10]. Here we use the linear binning method to discretize the data, though our software allows other methods. This binning process is of great relevance when dealing with big data sizes as in the income data example presented in section 1. With these preprocessed data, updating methods as described by Fan and Marron (1994)[10] are used to compute the density estimate. This method requires that the kernel function be a polynomial, so the beta family is quite useful. The updating method consists of rearranging the polynomial in such a way that the coefficients involved can be *updated* when passing from one grid point to the next one with few operations.

6.1 The update mechanism

The actual computation is as follow. Let $X_1, \ldots X_N$ be the data points, and $\bar{x}_1, \ldots \bar{x}_G$ be the grid points used to compute and display the estimates, and let δ be the bin width. Let $c_1, \ldots, c_G$ be the grid counts obtained by linear binning,

$$c_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \omega_{i,j}, \qquad \omega_{i,j} := (1 - \frac{|X_i - \bar{x}_j|}{\delta})_+$$

In the regression setting, data points are $(X_i, Y_i), i = 1 \ldots N$, and we have, beside the counts, the response bin averages

$$c'_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \omega_{i,j} Y_i.$$

We use a kernel function from the beta family, for a positive integer α,

$$B_\alpha(x) = C_\alpha(1-x^2)_+^\alpha = I_{[-1,1]}C_\alpha \sum_{\nu=0}^{\alpha} \binom{\alpha}{\nu}(-x^2)^\nu \tag{4}$$

To compute the estimates, quantities of the form

$$T_l(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n}(x-X_i)^l K_h((x-X_i)Y_i, \quad S_l(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n}(x-X_i)^l K_h((x-X_i)Y_i$$

are needed for $l = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$. Using this, the density estimate is

$$\hat{f}(x) = N^{-1}S_0(x)$$

and the locally linear regression estimate is

$$\hat{r}(x) = \frac{S_2(x)T_0(x) - S_1(x)T_1(x)}{S_2(x)S_0(x) - S_1^2(x)}.$$

Approximations to S_l and T_l using the binning approach are calculated as

$$\hat{S}_l(x_g) = \sum_{i \in I_g} c_i(\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j)^l K_h(\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j)$$

with c_i replaced by c_i' to obtain $\hat{T}_l(x_g)$. I_g is the set of the indices that are relevant for the computation at grid points $\bar{x}_g$.

Using (4), this can be written as

$$\hat{S}_l(x_g) = C_\alpha \sum_{\nu=0}^{\alpha} \binom{\alpha}{\nu}(-1)^\nu \sum_{k=0}^{2\nu+l} \binom{2\nu+l}{k} \bar{x}_g^k U_{g,\nu,k} \tag{5}$$

where

$$U_{g,\nu,k} = \sum_{i \in I_g} c_i h^{-2\nu-1}(-\bar{x}_i)^{2\nu+l-k}$$

are the quantities to be computed by some updating mechanism.

So far, the bandwidth h has been not discussed. If h is a constant bandwidth or $h = h_g$, a variable "depending on location" type bandwidth (see section 2) then it is constant for all the sums involved and can be factored out. Hence, for this type of bandwidth function, we have

$$\hat{S}_l(x_g) = C_\alpha h_g^{l-1} \sum_{\nu=0}^{\alpha} \binom{\alpha}{\nu}(-1)^\nu \sum_{k=0}^{2\nu+l} \binom{2\nu+l}{k} (x_g/h_g)^k U_{g,2\nu+l-k} \tag{6}$$

where, for $m = 0 \ldots 2\alpha + l$,

$$U_{g,m} = h_j^{-m} \sum_{i \in I_g} (-\bar{x}_i)^m c_i.$$

For $\hat{T}_l(x_g)$, replace c_i by c_i'. Note that, once α and l are fixed, (6) can be seen as a polynomial in the terms $a = (x_g/h_g)$ and $b_m = U_{g,m}$ with quickly computed coefficients. These polynomials can be found in the mimeo version of Fan and Marron (1994)[10]. *Mathematica* programs to compute them are available by `ftp` from `ftp.upf.es:pub/stat`.

If $h = h_i$, i.e. the bandwidth, "depends on data values", the updating term is a bit more complex. Equation (5) can be written as

$$\hat{S}_l(x_g) = \sum_{\nu=0}^{\alpha} \sum_{k=0}^{2\nu+l} A_{\nu,k} U_{g,\nu,k} \bar{x}_g^k \tag{7}$$

where $A_{\nu,k}$ can be seen as a triangular constant matrix which is quick to compute but is quite clumsy. Use of some automatic algebra software is very useful here. Contact the author for either programs or coefficient matrices (or `ftp` to `ftp.upf.es:pub/stat`).

In both variable bandwidth cases, the problem is reduced to computation of several (scalar or matricial) quantities U_g involving a sum over I_g: these are the quantities that are *updated* when passing from g to $g + 1$.

6.2 Mid-point splines

Given $p_i = (p_i^x, p_i^y) \in \mathcal{R}^2, i = 0, \ldots, k$, points that are to be placed by the user with the only restriction $p_i^x < p_j^x$ for $i < j$, we want to determine a function that follows the points. A simple device would be step functions or linear interpolation, but these are not smooth. As seen in Figures 5-7, conventional cubic splines can give surprising results, in particular going far outside the range of the knots, when some p_i^x is too close to p_{i+1}^x.

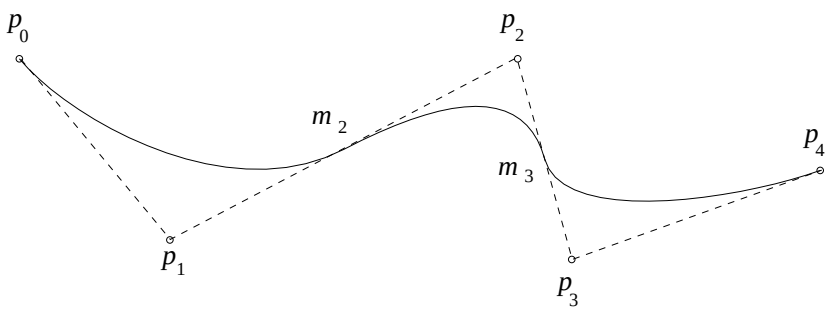

FIGURE 11: *Each three consecutive points define a parameterized curve* $(x(t), y(t))$*, for* $t \in [0,1]$ *by a pair of interpolating cubic splines. Joining these pieces results in a differentiable function determined by the initial nodes* p_i*.*

To avoid this problem we propose "mid-point splines". Consider the mid points $m_2, \ldots, m_{k-1}$ defined by $m_i = (p_{i-1} + p_i)/2$ and include them in the sequence: $p_0, p_1, m_2, p_2, \ldots, m_{k-1}, p_{k-1}, p_k$, see Figure 11. For every three consecutive points in the sequence, q_1, q_2, q_3 compute $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ (parameterized by $t \in [0,1]$) to be cubic polynomials subject to

$$x(0) = q_1^x, \quad x(1) = q_3^x, \quad x'(0) = q_2^x - q_1^x, \quad x'(1) = q_3^x - q_2^x$$

and similar conditions for y (order 5 polynomials can be constructed by adding restrictions to zero the second derivatives at the mid points, i. e. at $t = 0$ and $t = 1$). Finally, define the function $y = f(x)$ by joining these polynomial pieces, $f(x) = y(x^{-1}(t))$.

We have,

1. $x(t)$ is strictly increasing in $t \in [0,1]$ and so we have a well defined function $y = f(x)$ for $x \in [p_0^x, p_k^x]$.

2. f is a differentiable function in $[p_0^x, p_k^x]$, twice differentiable if order 5 polynomials are used.

3. The graph of f stays in the convex hull of the chosen knots $[p_0, \ldots, p_k]$.

4. Any differentiable function can be approximated this way.

Based on these properties, we find the mid-point splines are a compelling choice for a mouse-driven function graph design.

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