

Nonparametric estimation on the circle based on Fejér polynomials

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This paper presents a comprehensive study of nonparametric estimation techniques on the circle using Fejér polynomials, which are analogues of Bernstein polynomials for periodic functions. Building upon Fejér's uniform approximation theorem, the paper introduces circular density and distribution function estimators based on Fejér kernels. It establishes their theoretical properties, including uniform strong consistency and asymptotic expansions. Since the estimation of the distribution function on the circle depends on the choice of the origin, we propose a data-dependent method to address this issue.

The proposed methods are extended to account for measurement errors by incorporating classical and Berkson error models, adjusting the Fejér estimator to mitigate their effects. Simulation studies analyze the finite-sample performance of these estimators under various scenarios, including mixtures of circular distributions and measurement error models. An application to rainfall data demonstrates the practical application of the proposed estimators, demonstrating their robustness and effectiveness in the presence of rounding-induced Berkson errors.

Keywords: circular density estimation; distribution function estimation; Fejér's theorem; Fejér kernel; measurement error model.

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1. Introduction

Only a few years after Rosenblatt (1956, 1971) and Parzen (1962) proposed kernel estimators for nonparametric probability density estimation, Vitale (1975) developed an alternative method based on Bernstein polynomials. Since this seminal work, both approaches have been developed more or less independently in many subsequent papers, including extensions to nonparametric estimation of the cumulative distribution function (CDF). The idea pursued by Vitale is ultimately based on Bernstein’s proof of Weierstrass’ approximation theorem, in which the (unknown) density or CDF is replaced by an estimator; it turns out that the result can also be interpreted as a kernel density estimator. The situation is similar for extensions of the method to distributions on the positive real numbers, where the uniform approximation of functions is based on Poisson weights instead of binomial weights as for the Bernstein polynomials.

The purpose of this paper is to analyze the merits of a corresponding method for distributions on the circle. There are already proposals in this direction: Carnicero et al. (2018) proposed the use of Bernstein polynomials for density estimation on the circle; however, this does not provide a periodic estimator in general. Therefore, Chaubey (2022) recommended a nonlinear transformation combined with the Bernstein polynomial density estimator on the unit interval to obtain a periodic density; no further theory is given. However, both proposals are adaptations of the linear case to the circle and do not seem to exploit the special situation of the periodicity of the occurring densities.

An analogue of Bernstein’s proof of Weierstrass’ approximation theorem for the case of periodic functions can be found in Fejér’s approximation theorem, where periodic functions are uniformly approximated by trigonometric polynomials of order n , the so-called Fejér polynomials. If the unknown quantities are replaced by empirical counterparts, nonparametric estimators on the circle are obtained naturally. Again, the dualism mentioned above is evident; the estimators can be interpreted as (integrated) kernel estimators. The resulting density estimator appears in Di Marzio et al. (2009) but without further analysis (see comments in Section 2.1). We also mention that Winter (1975) used Fejér polynomials for density estimation on the real line.

Regarding nonparametric density estimation on the circle with kernel-type estimators, there exist several proposals. Estimates on (hyper-)spheres \mathcal{S}^{p-1} were proposed by Hall et al. (1987) and Bai et al. (1988). Their proposals are tailored to the case $p \geq 3$, leading to rather strong conditions imposed on the kernels. A summary of the results can be found in Ley and Verdebout (2017). Since the Fejér kernel does not fulfil the conditions on the kernel (Di Marzio et al., 2009, Remark 3), the results can not be used for the density estimation based on Fejér polynomials. Di Marzio et al. (2009, 2011) provided a theoretical basis for kernel density estimators on the circle and torus. They defined a circular density estimator by

$$\tilde{f}_n(\theta; \kappa) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n K_\kappa(\theta - X_j), \quad (1)$$

where $K_\kappa : [0, 2\pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a circular kernel (of order r) with concentration parameter $\kappa > 0$ satisfying certain conditions (which, as mentioned above, are not satisfied by the Fejér kernel). Typically, K equals a circular density function with center 0. Chaubey (2018) considers the special case of the wrapped Cauchy distribution, i.e. $K_\kappa(\theta - \Theta_j) = f_{WC}(\theta; \Theta_j, \kappa)$ and shows connections to certain Fourier series estimators on the circle. Another candidate is the density of the von Mises distribution (Taylor, 2008). However, K can also be a more general function, e.g. the toroidal kernels used in Di Marzio et al. (2011). Tenreiro (2022) introduced so-called delta sequence estimators and analyzed their asymptotic behavior in detail.

Smooth estimation of a circular CDF has been studied in Di Marzio et al. (2012) for the von Mises kernel, and for general kernels in Ameijeiras-Alonso and Gijbels (2024).

The structure of the paper is as follows. In subsection 1.1, we review the literature on nonparametric estimators based on Bernstein polynomials and similar approximations in the linear case and show the connections to kernel estimators. Section 2 introduces the density estimator for circular distributions based on Fejér polynomials and gives first properties. In particular, we show the uniform strong consistency using Fejér's theorem. Asymptotic expansions for the Fejér density estimator and plug-in bandwidth selection are discussed in subsections 2.1 and 2.2.

Section 3 addresses CDF estimation based on Fejér polynomials, with asymptotic expansions for this estimator derived in 3.1. We also propose a data-dependent method for selecting the origin in the estimation of the distribution function. Density estimation with classical and Berkson measurement error is the topic of Section 4. A simulation study in Section 5 explores the finite sample properties of the Fejér estimators for densities both with and without measurement error, as well as the CDF. An application to rainfall real and some remarks conclude the main part of this paper. Most of the proofs are relegated to an appendix.

1.1. Overview over two dual approaches for nonparametric estimation of density and CDF in the linear case

Vitale (1975) seems to be the first who used Bernstein polynomials $P_{k,m}(x) = \binom{m}{k} x^k (1-x)^{m-k}$ for density estimation. Babu et al. (2002); Leblanc (2012) studied the corresponding Bernstein CDF estimator

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{F}_{m,n}^B(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^m F_n \left(\frac{k}{m} \right) P_{k,m}(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n P(Y \geq \lceil mX_i \rceil), \quad x \in [0, 1], \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where Y is a $\text{Bin}(m, x)$ -distributed random variable. Noting that $P(Y \geq l) = P(Z \leq x)$

for a random variable Z following a $\text{Beta}(l, m - l + 1)$ distribution, we can write this as

$$\hat{F}_{m,n}^B(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n F(x; \lceil mX_i \rceil, m - \lceil mX_i \rceil + 1), \quad (3)$$

where $F(\cdot; \alpha, \beta)$ denotes the CDF of a beta distribution with parameters $\alpha, \beta > 0$. Hence, these estimators use (integrated) beta kernels with expected value close to X_i and variance decreasing to zero if the bandwidth $1/m$ goes to zero, similar to kernel density or CDF estimation. However, the kernels are not symmetric, have support $[0, 1]$, and their shape changes according to the value of X_i (but is independent of x). Since the rationale of the Bernstein CDF estimator lies in Bernstein's proof of the Weierstrass approximation theorem, one can expect good performance. In particular, one obtains directly the almost certain uniform convergence of $\hat{F}_{m,n}^B$ to F (Babu et al., 2002, Th. 2.1). By differentiating (3) with respect to x , one obtains the Bernstein density estimator

$$\hat{f}_{m,n}^B(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x; \lceil mX_i \rceil, m - \lceil mX_i \rceil + 1), \quad (4)$$

where $f(\cdot; \alpha, \beta)$ denotes the density of a beta distribution with parameters α, β . This estimator coincides with the estimator $\tilde{f}_{m,n}$ considered by Babu et al. (2002) and many others. Chen (1999) directly used beta kernels for density estimation. However, his approach is different because the kernel shape changes according to the value of x which changes the amount of smoothing applied by the estimators.

Bernstein density and CDF estimators are designed for functions on compact intervals. For positive random variables, the Bernstein polynomials can be replaced by generalized ones using Poisson weights. This is motivated by a uniform approximation property of the corresponding polynomials proved by Szasz (1950). This method was implemented by Gawronski and Stadtmueller (1980) for density estimation and by Hanebeck and Klar (2021) for CDF estimation, the latter leading to

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{F}_{m,n}^S(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} F_n\left(\frac{k}{m}\right) \cdot e^{-mx} \frac{(mx)^k}{k!} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n P(Y \geq \lceil mX_i \rceil) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n P(Z \leq x), \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

with $Y \sim \text{Poi}(mx)$ and $Z \sim \text{Gamma}(\lceil mX_i \rceil, m)$. Again, this approach yields directly the almost certain uniform convergence of $\hat{F}_{m,n}^S$ to F (Hanebeck and Klar, 2021, Th. 3).

By differentiating (5), one obtains the corresponding density estimator

$$\hat{f}_{m,n}^S(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g(x; \lceil mX_i \rceil, m), \quad (6)$$

where $g(\cdot; \alpha, \beta)$ denotes the density of a gamma distribution with shape parameters α and rate β . This estimator coincides with the estimator considered by Gawronski and Stadtmueller (1980). Chen (1999) directly considered density estimation with gamma kernels, applying the kernel $g(X_i; x/h + 1, 1/h)$. Again, his approach is different since the kernel shape changes according to the value of x .

Chaubey and Sen (1996) considered smooth estimation of survival and density function. The corresponding CDF estimator is given by

$$\tilde{F}_n(x) = c(n, \lambda_n) \sum_{k=0}^n F_n(k/\lambda_n) (\lambda_n x)^k / k!, \quad (7)$$

consisting only of a finite sum with weights normalized to one. In Chaubey and Sen (1998) the method has been extended to density, survival, hazard and cumulative hazard function estimation for randomly censored data by replacing the edf with the Kaplan-Meier estimator. Chaubey and Sen (1999) proposed a smooth estimator for the mean residual life function in the uncensored case. They show that \tilde{F}_n in (7) is not appropriate for smooth estimation of mean residual life, and give a modification which corresponds to the Szasz estimator above. In Chaubey and Sen (2008), they combine this approach with the Kaplan-Meier estimator yielding a smooth estimator of the mean residual life function based on randomly censored data. There also exist several proposals for estimating density and CDF of positive random variables by other asymmetric kernels: Scaillet (2004) used inverse and reciprocal inverse Gaussian kernels for density estimation, whereas Jin and Kawczak (2003) applied kernels from Birnbaum-Saunders and lognormal distributions.

2. Circular density estimation based on Fejér polynomials

As argued above, the counterparts of Bernstein polynomials for periodic functions are Fejér polynomials, and Bernstein's proof of Weierstrass' approximation theorem has Fejér's theorem as its counterpart:

Theorem 1 (Fejér, 1915). *Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a continuous function with period 2π . Then, as $m \rightarrow \infty$,*

$$\sigma_m(f; \theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-m}^m \left(1 - \frac{|k|}{m+1}\right) \phi_k e^{ik\theta} \rightarrow f(\theta)$$

uniformly for $\theta \in [-\pi, \pi]$, where

$$\phi_k = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) e^{-ikt} dt, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z},$$

are the Fourier coefficients.

Let

$$K_m(s) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-m}^m \left(1 - \frac{|k|}{m+1}\right) e^{iks} = \frac{1}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \cos(ks)$$

denote the Fejér kernel of order m . Then,

$$\sigma_m(f; \theta) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) K_m(\theta - t) dt = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta - y) K_m(y) dy.$$

Remark 2. The following properties of Fejér kernels are well-known.

(i) It holds that $K_m(0) = (m+1)/(2\pi)$, and

$$K_m(s) = \frac{1}{2\pi(m+1)} \left(\frac{\sin \frac{(m+1)s}{2}}{\sin \frac{s}{2}} \right)^2, \quad s \neq 0.$$

(ii) K_m is continuous, symmetric and periodic.

(iii) $K_m(s) \geq 0$ for all s .

(iv) $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{|s| > \delta} K_m(s) = 0$, for all $\delta > 0$.

(v) $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} K_m(s) ds = 1$ for all m .

(vi) $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} K_m^2(s) ds < \infty$ for all m .

Now, let X_1, X_2, \dots be a sequence of i.i.d random variables from an (unknown) distribution on the circle with CDF F and density f . In analogy to the Bernstein density estimator, a circular density estimator based on a random sample X_1, \dots, X_n can be based on Fejér's approximation result, just replacing the unknown Fourier coefficients ϕ_k by its empirical counterparts

$$\hat{\phi}_{n,k} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n e^{-ikX_j}, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z},$$

corresponding to the empirical characteristic function, evaluated at point k . Then, the

estimator is of the form

$$\hat{f}_{m,n}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-m}^m \left(1 - \frac{|k|}{m+1}\right) \hat{\phi}_{n,k} e^{ik\theta}. \quad (8)$$

Alternatively, it can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{f}_{m,n}(\theta) &= \frac{1}{2\pi n} \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=-m}^m \left(1 - \frac{|k|}{m+1}\right) e^{ik(\theta - X_j)} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n K_m(\theta - X_j). \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

Clearly, by the properties of K_m in Remark 2, $\hat{f}_{m,n}$ is a proper circular density for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$, i.e. $\hat{f}_{m,n}$ is a non-negative continuous periodic function with $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \hat{f}_{m,n}(s) ds = 1$.

Our first result shows the uniform strong consistency of $\hat{f}_{m,n}$.

Theorem 3. *Assume that $m = m(n) = n^\gamma$ for some $\gamma \in (0, 1/2)$. If f is a continuous periodic circular density on $[-\pi, \pi)$, then*

$$\left\| \hat{f}_{m,n} - f \right\| \rightarrow 0 \quad a.s.$$

for $n \rightarrow \infty$, where $\|g\| = \sup_{x \in [-\pi, \pi]} |g(x)|$ for a bounded function g on $[-\pi, \pi]$.

Proof. Writing $\sigma_m(f) = \sigma_m(f; \cdot)$, we have

$$\left\| \hat{f}_{m,n} - f \right\| \leq \left\| \hat{f}_{m,n} - \sigma_m(f) \right\| + \left\| \sigma_m(f) - f \right\|.$$

Clearly, $\sigma_m(f) \rightarrow f$ uniformly in θ by Theorem 1. For the first summand, note that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \hat{f}_{m,n}(\theta) - \sigma_m(f; \theta) \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-m}^m \left(1 - \frac{|k|}{m+1}\right) (\hat{\phi}_{n,k} - \phi_k) e^{ik\theta} \right| \\ &\leq m \cdot \sup_{|k| \leq m} \left| \hat{\phi}_{n,k} - \phi_k \right|. \end{aligned}$$

By Example 1 in Csörgő (1985), we obtain for any $\gamma > 0$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{n}{\log n}} \sup_{|t| < n^\gamma} |\psi_n(t) - \psi(t)| \leq c, \quad a.s.,$$

where c is a positive constant, and ψ_n and ψ denote the empirical c.f. and c.f. of a distribution with a tail decreasing at least like a power function. Since $\hat{\phi}_{n,k}$ and ϕ_k correspond to ψ_n and ψ , evaluated at the integers, from a distribution with compact

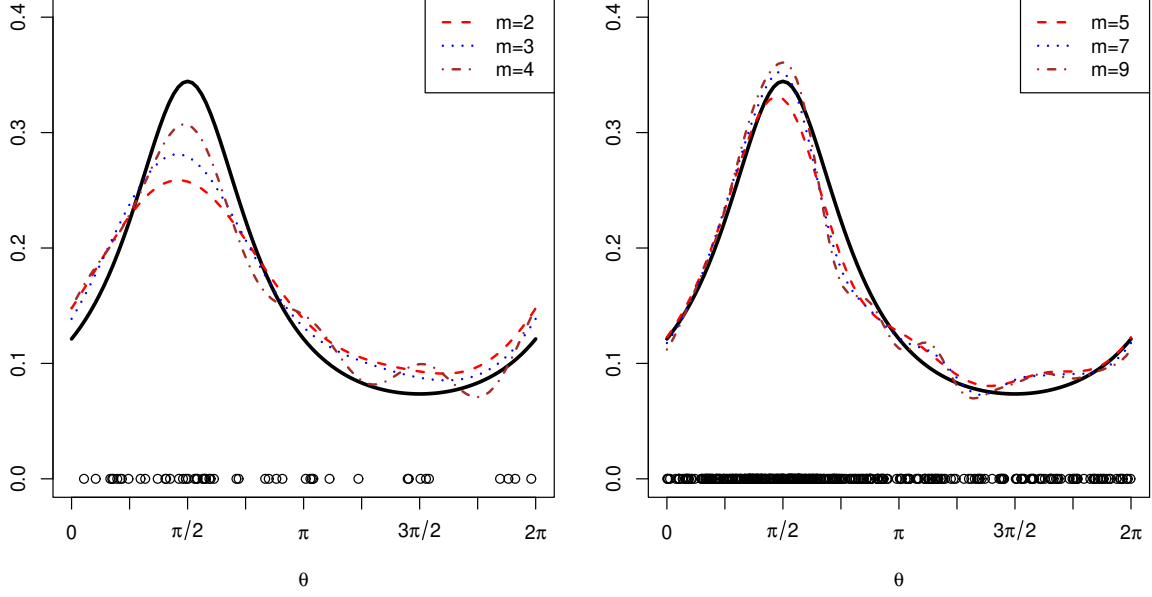


Figure 1: Fejér density estimator for samples of size 50 (left) and 400 (right) from a wrapped Cauchy distribution with different values of the bandwidth m .

support $[-\pi, \pi]$, this result implies for $m = n^\gamma$ that

$$\left\| \hat{f}_{m,n} - \sigma_m(f) \right\| = O\left(n^{\gamma-1/2} (\log n)^{1/2}\right) = o(1).$$

Therefore, the assertion follows. \square

Figure 1 shows the Fejér estimator for random samples of size $n = 50$ and 400 , respectively, from the wrapped Cauchy distribution with $\mu = \pi/2$, $\rho = \exp(-1)$, and different values of the order m , which takes on the role of the (inverse) bandwidth in kernel density estimation.

2.1. Asymptotic expansions for the Fejér density estimator

Tenreiro (2022) introduced the concept of a delta sequence estimator in the circular case, that is an estimator of the form $\hat{f}_n(\theta) = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_n(\theta - X_i)$, where $\delta_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ is a sequence of 2π -periodic functions satisfying three conditions $(\Delta.1) - (\Delta.3)$ which correspond to properties (iv)-(vi) in Remark 2. Hence, assuming that $m = m(n) \rightarrow \infty$ when $n \rightarrow \infty$, the Fejér density estimator belongs to this class. By the symmetry of

K_m , condition $(\Delta.4)$ in (Tenreiro, 2022, p. 382) is also fulfilled. Further, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha(K_m) &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} K_m^2(y) dy \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left(\frac{1}{\pi^2} + \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right)^2 \cos^2(ky) \right) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} + \frac{m(2m+1)}{6\pi(m+1)} \sim \frac{m}{3\pi}.\end{aligned}\quad (10)$$

Assume that $m \rightarrow \infty$ and $n/m \rightarrow \infty$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then, $\alpha(K_m) \rightarrow \infty$ and $n\alpha(K_m)^{-1} \rightarrow \infty$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Consequently, Theorem 2.1 and formula (12) in Tenreiro (2022) hold. Utilizing (10), we obtain for a continuous density f on $[-\pi, \pi]$

$$\begin{aligned}\sup_{\theta \in [-\pi, \pi]} \left| E \hat{f}_{m,n}(\theta) - f(\theta) \right| &\rightarrow 0, \\ \sup_{\theta \in [-\pi, \pi]} \left| \frac{3\pi n}{m} \text{Var} \left(\hat{f}_{m,n}(\theta) \right) - f(\theta) \right| &\rightarrow 0,\end{aligned}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. It follows that

$$\sup_{\theta \in [-\pi, \pi]} \left| \text{Var} \left(\hat{f}_{m,n}(\theta) \right) - \frac{m}{3\pi n} f(\theta) \right| = o\left(\frac{m}{n}\right), \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Then, the integrated variance can be expressed as

$$IV(f; \hat{f}_{m,n}) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \text{Var} \left(\hat{f}_{m,n}(\theta) \right) d\theta = \frac{m}{3\pi n} + o\left(\frac{m}{n}\right), \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Next, we want to derive an expansion for the integrated squared bias. Define

$$\beta(K_m) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^2 K_m(y) dy, \quad \gamma(K_m) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |y|^3 K_m(y) dy.$$

Proposition 9 in Appendix A gives the exact asymptotic behavior of $\beta(K_m)$ and $\gamma(K_m)$. It follows that $\beta(K_m)/\gamma(K_m) \rightarrow c > 0$ when $m \rightarrow \infty$. Thus, the condition $(\Delta.5)$ for delta sequence estimators assumed in Tenreiro (2022) is not satisfied by K_m , and Theorems 2.2 and 3.1 in Tenreiro (2022) cannot be applied. Similarly, the approximation of the mean integrated squared error in Di Marzio et al. (2009, Theorem 1) is invalid for the Fejér kernel, even though this kernel is mentioned as an example in that paper. The reason is as follows: the assumptions and results of Di Marzio et al. (2009) are collected in Result 1 of Di Marzio et al. (2022). For the Fejér kernel, with $\gamma_k(m) = \mathbf{1}_{k \leq m} (1 - k/(m+1))$,

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - \gamma_k(m)}{1 - \gamma_2(m)} = \frac{k}{2}.$$

Therefore, assumption (ii) in Result 1 is not satisfied, and the asymptotic expansion for the bias in Theorem 1 of Di Marzio et al. (2009) does not apply to the Fejér kernel.

Instead, we can proceed as Tenreiro (2022) in the case of the wrapped Cauchy kernel. The crucial point is the representation of the integrated squared bias as

$$\begin{aligned} ISB(f; \hat{f}_{m,n}) &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left(E \hat{f}_{m,n}(\theta) - f(\theta) \right)^2 d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (1 - \gamma_k(m))^2 (a_k^2 + b_k^2) \end{aligned}$$

for a square-integrable function f in $[-\pi, \pi]$, where the trigonometric moments a_k and b_k are given by $a_k = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) \cos(k\theta) d\theta$ and $b_k = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) \sin(k\theta) d\theta$. For a function f that is absolutely continuous on $[-\pi, \pi]$ and has a square-integrable derivative f' on $[-\pi, \pi]$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} ISB(f; \hat{f}_{m,n}) &= \frac{1}{\pi(m+1)^2} \sum_{k=1}^m k^2 (a_k^2 + b_k^2) + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=m+1}^{\infty} (a_k^2 + b_k^2) \\ &= \frac{\theta_1(f)}{(m+1)^2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=m+1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{k^2}{(m+1)^2} \right) (a_k^2 + b_k^2) \\ &= \theta_1(f)/(m+1)^2 + o((m+1)^{-2}), \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

where

$$\theta_1(f) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 (a_k^2 + b_k^2) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f'(\theta)^2 d\theta \tag{12}$$

(see the proof of Theorem 3.2 in Tenreiro (2022)). Summarizing, we have the following result.

Theorem 4. *Let f be continuously differentiable on $[-\pi, \pi]$. If $m \rightarrow \infty$ and $n/m \rightarrow \infty$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then*

$$\text{MISE}(f; \hat{f}_{m,n}) = \frac{m}{3\pi n} + \frac{\theta_1(f)}{m^2} + o\left(\frac{m}{n} + \frac{1}{m^2}\right),$$

where $\theta_1(f) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f'(\theta)^2 d\theta$.

If f is not the circular uniform distribution, the asymptotic optimal choice of m is given by

$$m_{opt} = (6\pi\theta_1(f))^{1/3} n^{1/3}, \tag{13}$$

leading to the asymptotic mean integrated squared error

$$\text{AMISE}(f; \hat{f}_{m_{opt}, n}) = c_F \left(\frac{\theta_1(f)}{\pi^2} \right)^{1/3} n^{-2/3}, \quad c_F = \left(\frac{2}{9} \right)^{1/3} + \left(\frac{1}{6} \right)^{2/3}.$$

The AMISE for the estimator based on the wrapped Cauchy kernel given in Tenreiro (2022) has the same form, with the constant $c_F \approx 0.91$ replaced by the slightly larger constant $c_{WC} = 2^{-1/3} + 4^{-2/3} \approx 1.19$.

2.2. Plug-in bandwidth selection

The only unknown quantity in the asymptotic optimal choice of m in (13) is $\theta_1(f)$. The simplest approach assumes that f is a member of some parametric family of distributions, such as the von Mises family. After estimating the unknown parameters, direct computation of $\theta_1(f)$ is possible. This does not lead to the optimal choice of m if the data does not come from the assumed distribution. A more general way for estimating $\theta_1(f)$ uses the representation in (12). One possible approach estimates a_k and b_k by

$$\hat{a}_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \cos(kX_i) \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{b}_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sin(kX_i),$$

leading to

$$\tilde{\theta}_{1,M} = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^M k^2 \left(\hat{a}_k^2 + \hat{b}_k^2 \right), \quad (14)$$

where $M = M(n)$ converges to infinity. Alternatively, one can use $\hat{\theta}_{1,M} = 1/\pi \sum_{k=1}^M k^2 \hat{c}_k$, where \hat{c}_k is the unbiased estimator of $a_k^2 + b_k^2$ given by Tenreiro (2022, p. 390)

$$\hat{c}_k = \frac{2}{n(n-1)} \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} \cos(k(X_i - X_j)).$$

In practice, the choice of M should be data-dependent, i.e. $M = \hat{M}(X_1, \dots, X_n)$. From Lemma 1 in Tenreiro (2011), one can deduce that if \hat{M} is such that $\hat{M} \xrightarrow{p} \infty$ and $n^{-1} \hat{M}^3 \xrightarrow{p} 0$, then $\hat{\theta}_{1,\hat{M}} \xrightarrow{p} \theta_1$. Summarizing, we obtain

$$\frac{(6\pi \hat{\theta}_{1,\hat{M}})^{1/3} n^{1/3}}{m_{opt}} \xrightarrow{p} 1.$$

3. Distribution function estimation based on Fejér polynomials

Associated with the circular kernel K_m is the integrated kernel

$$W_m(\theta) = \int_{-\pi}^{\theta} K_m(y) dy = \frac{\theta + \pi}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \frac{1}{k} \sin(k\theta). \quad (15)$$

A possible estimator of a circular CDF $F(\theta) = \int_{-\pi}^{\theta} f(y) dy$ is obtained by integrating over the density estimator in (8), leading to

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{F}_{m,n}(\theta) &= \int_{-\pi}^{\theta} \hat{f}_{m,n}(y) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{W_m(\theta - X_i) - W_m(-\pi - X_i)\}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that the estimator depends on the lower limit of the integration θ_0 . Although it seems natural to use $\theta_0 = -\pi$, the discussion in Di Marzio et al. (2012) shows that this is not an optimal choice, in general. We will discuss this in more detail in Section 3.2. Up to this point, we always use $\theta_0 = -\pi$.

The next theorem shows that $\hat{F}_{m,n}$ is uniformly strongly consistent as long as m does not increase faster than a power of n .

Theorem 5. *Assume that $m = m(n) = n^\gamma$ for some $\gamma > 0$. If F is a continuous distribution function on $[-\pi, \pi)$, then*

$$\left\| \hat{F}_{m,n} - F \right\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ a.s.}$$

for $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. First,

$$\left\| \hat{F}_{m,n} - F \right\| \leq \left\| \hat{F}_{m,n} - \sigma_m(F) \right\| + \left\| \sigma_m(F) - F \right\|.$$

Since $\sigma_m(f) \rightarrow f$ uniformly in θ by Theorem 1, it follows that

$$|\sigma_m(F; \theta) - F(\theta)| = \left| \int_{-\pi}^{\theta} (\sigma_m(f; y) - f(y)) dy \right| \leq 2\pi\epsilon$$

for $\epsilon > 0$ and m large enough; hence $\|\sigma_m(F) - F\| \rightarrow 0$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$. For the first

summand, note that

$$\begin{aligned}
\left| \hat{F}_{m,n}(\theta) - \sigma_m(F; \theta) \right| &= \left| \int_{-\pi}^{\theta} \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-m}^m \left(1 - \frac{|k|}{m+1} \right) (\hat{\phi}_{n,k} - \phi_k) e^{iky} dy \right| \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right) \frac{2}{k} \cdot \sup_{|k| \leq m} \left| \hat{\phi}_{n,k} - \phi_k \right| \\
&\leq H_m \sup_{|k| \leq m} \left| \hat{\phi}_{n,k} - \phi_k \right|,
\end{aligned}$$

where H_m is defined in Lemma 8. Here, $H_m \sim \log m = \gamma \log n$ for $m = n^\gamma$. Again using Example 1 in Csörgő (1985) as in the proof of Theorem 3, we obtain $|\hat{F}_{m,n} - \sigma_m(F)| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $m = n^\gamma$, for any $\gamma > 0$. \square

3.1. Asymptotic expansions for the Fejér CDF estimator

Defining formally the concentration parameter $\rho = 1 - 1/m \in [0, 1)$, the Fejér Kernels K_m fulfils assumptions (K1), (K2), (K3) and (K10) in Ameijeiras-Alonso and Gijbels (2024). Assuming again that $m \rightarrow \infty$ and $m/n \rightarrow 0$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, condition (P1) and, hence, conditions (C1)–(C3) are fulfilled.

Next, define $\nu_{1,m} = 2\pi \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y \cdot W_m(y) \cdot K_m(y) dy$, which corresponds to $m_{1;s}(\rho_s)$ in equation (7) of Ameijeiras-Alonso and Gijbels (2024). Lemma 10 in Appendix B gives the asymptotic behavior of $\nu_{1,m}$, showing that

$$\nu_{1,m} = \frac{2 \log m}{m+1} + O(m^{-1}).$$

Further, define

$$\begin{aligned}
\gamma_{1,m}(\theta) &= \theta + 2\gamma_m(\theta), \\
\gamma_{2,m}(\theta) &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \left(- \sum_{k=1}^m \left(\frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{m+1} \right) \sin(k\theta) + \gamma_m(\theta) \right),
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\gamma_m(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^m (-1)^k \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right)^2 \frac{1}{k} \sin(k\theta).$$

Then, by Lemma 12,

$$\gamma_{1,m}(\theta) = O(m^{-1}) = o(\nu_{1,m}) \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_{2,m}(\theta) = O(m^{-1}) = o(\nu_{1,m}),$$

as $m \rightarrow \infty$. Accordingly, conditions (P2) and, hence, (K5) in Ameijeiras-Alonso and Gijbels

(2024) are fulfilled. Finally, Lemma 11 shows that

$$\nu_{3,m} = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^3 \cdot W_m(y) \cdot K_m(y) dy = O(m^{-1}) = o(\nu_{1,m}).$$

Thus, the condition (K7) in Ameijeiras-Alonso and Gijbels (2024) is also satisfied. Under the assumption

(F) The function F is twice continuously differentiable on $[-\pi, \pi)$,

their Th. 2.2(v) yields an explicit expression for the asymptotic variance:

$$\text{AVar} \left(\hat{F}_{m,n}(\theta) \right) = \frac{F(\theta)(1 - F(\theta))}{n} - \frac{1}{\pi n} \nu_{1,m} (F'(\theta) + F'(-\pi)).$$

Again using Lemma 10, we obtain

$$\text{AVar} \left(\hat{F}_{m,n}(\theta) \right) = \frac{F(\theta)(1 - F(\theta))}{n} - \frac{2 \log m}{\pi m n} (F'(\theta) + F'(-\pi)). \quad (16)$$

We will now focus on the integrated squared bias

$$\text{ISB}(F; \hat{F}_{m,n}) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left(E \hat{F}_{m,n} - F(\theta) \right)^2 d\theta.$$

By Lemma 13 in the appendix,

$$m_4(K_m) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^4 K_m(y) dy = \frac{8\pi^2 \log(2) - 36\zeta(3)}{m} + O(m^{-2}).$$

It follows that assumption (K6) in Ameijeiras-Alonso and Gijbels (2024) is not satisfied, and the explicit expression for the asymptotic bias in their Theorem 2.2(v), corresponding to the asymptotic bias derived in Di Marzio et al. (2012) for the von Mises kernel, is not applicable. Again, there is a great similarity between the Fejér and the wrapped Cauchy kernel, which also does not fulfil (K6). Instead, we have the following result.

Theorem 6. *Under assumption (F), the integrated squared bias of $\hat{F}_{m,n}$ is given by*

$$\text{ISB}(F; \hat{F}_{m,n}) = \frac{\theta_2(F)}{(m+1)^2} + o(m^{-2}),$$

where

$$\theta_2(F) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k^2 + b_k^2) + \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{k,l=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+l} b_k b_l = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f^{\sim}(\theta) - f^{\sim}(-\pi))^2 d\theta, \quad (17)$$

and $f^{\sim}(\theta) = 1/\pi \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \sin(k\theta) - b_k \cos(k\theta))$ denotes the Hilbert transform of $f = F'$.

Proof. For a general integrated kernel, write

$$W(y) = \frac{y + \pi}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\gamma_k}{k} \sin(ky).$$

First, we compute

$$E\hat{F}_{m,n}(\theta) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (W(\theta - y) - W(-\pi - y)) f(y) dy.$$

Using $\sin(k(\theta - y)) = \sin(k\theta) \cos(ky) - \cos(k\theta) \sin(ky)$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} W(\theta - y) - W(-\pi - y) \\ = \frac{\theta + \pi}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\gamma_k}{k} (\sin(k\theta) \cos(ky) - \cos(k\theta) \sin(ky) + (-1)^k \sin(ky)). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} E\hat{F}_{m,n}(\theta) &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left(\frac{\theta + \pi}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\gamma_k}{k} (\sin(k\theta) \cos(ky) - \cos(k\theta) \sin(ky) + (-1)^k \sin(ky)) \right) \\ &\quad \left(\frac{1}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \cos(ky) + b_k \sin(ky)) \right) dy \\ &= \frac{\theta + \pi}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\gamma_k}{k} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (a_k \sin(k\theta) \cos^2(ky) - b_k \cos(k\theta) \sin^2(ky) + (-1)^k b_k \sin^2(ky)) \\ &= \frac{\theta + \pi}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\gamma_k}{k} (a_k \sin(k\theta) - b_k \cos(k\theta) + (-1)^k b_k). \end{aligned}$$

To compute the integrated squared bias, note that

$$F(\theta) = \frac{\theta + \pi}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{a_k}{k} \sin(k\theta) - \frac{b_k}{k} \cos(k\theta) + \frac{b_k}{k} (-1)^k \right),$$

and thus

$$E\hat{F}_{m,n}(\theta) - F(\theta) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\gamma_k - 1}{k} \delta_k(\theta),$$

where

$$\delta_k(\theta) = a_k \sin(k\theta) - b_k \cos(k\theta) + b_k (-1)^k.$$

Inserting the Fejér kernel $\gamma_k = (1 - k/(m+1))$, $k \leq m$, yields

$$\begin{aligned} E\hat{F}_{m,n}(\theta) - F(\theta) &= \frac{-1}{(m+1)\pi} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta_k(\theta) - \sum_{k=m+1}^{\infty} \frac{k-m-1}{k} \delta_k(\theta) \right) \\ &= \frac{-1}{(m+1)\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta_k(\theta) + o(m^{-1}), \end{aligned}$$

since $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\delta_k(\theta)| < \infty$ under assumption (F). Next, we have

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta_k(\theta) \right)^2 d\theta = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k^2 + b_k^2) + \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{k,l=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+l} b_k b_l = \theta_2(F),$$

say. Since the Hilbert transform of $\cos(y)$ is $H(\cos)(y) = \sin(y)$, and $H(\sin)(y) = -\cos(y)$, we obtain, using the linearity of the transform,

$$f^\sim(\theta) = H(f)(\theta) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \sin(k\theta) - b_k \cos(k\theta)).$$

It follows that

$$\theta_2(F) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f^\sim(\theta) - f^\sim(-\pi))^2 d\theta.$$

Summarizing, we obtain

$$\text{ISB}(F; \hat{F}_{m,n}) = \frac{\theta_2(F)}{(m+1)^2} + o(m^{-2}).$$

□

From Theorem 6 and (16), we obtain the following result.

Corollary 7. *Under assumption (F), and if $m \rightarrow \infty$ and $n/m \rightarrow \infty$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we have*

$$\text{AMISE}(F; \hat{F}_{m,n}) = \frac{1}{n} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} F(\theta)(1 - F(\theta)) d\theta + R_{m,n},$$

where

$$R_{m,n} = -\frac{2 \log m}{\pi m n} (1 + 2\pi F'(-\pi)) + \frac{\theta_2(F)}{m^2}. \quad (18)$$

The asymptotic optimal choice of m is given as the solution of

$$(1 + 2\pi F'(-\pi)) m(\log m - 1) = \pi \theta_2(F) n. \quad (19)$$

Writing $c = \pi\theta_2(F)(1 + 2\pi F'(-\pi))^{-1}$, equation (19) is equivalent to

$$ue^u = \frac{cn}{e}, \quad \text{with} \quad u = \frac{cn}{m}.$$

The solution of this equation is $W_0(cn/m)$, where W_0 denotes the principal branch of the Lambert W function. Substituting back, we obtain as the asymptotic optimal choice of m

$$m_{opt} = \frac{cn}{W_0(cn/e)}. \quad (20)$$

We note that the asymptotic behavior of W_0 is given by $W_0(z) = \log(z) - \log(\log(z)) + o(1)$. The sign of the remainder $R_{m,n}$ in (18) depends on c and n . Thus, without further knowledge, it is unclear whether the fast convergence to zero shown by the Fejér kernel or a slower rate like for the von Mises kernel, where the rate is $O(n^{-4/3})$ (Ameijeiras-Alonso and Gijbels, 2024), is preferable. As for the density estimators, the results for the Fejér distribution function estimator are quite parallel to the results for the wrapped Cauchy kernel, where the rate of the remainder term R_n is $o(n^{-\beta})$ for any $\beta < 2$ (see Table 2, p. 13, in Ameijeiras-Alonso and Gijbels (2024); the exact rate is not given).

3.2. Optimal choice of the origin

In this subsection, we discuss a possible choice of origin when defining the CDF. Write

$$F^{\theta_0}(\theta) = \int_{-\theta_0}^{\theta} f(y)dy, \quad \hat{F}_{m,n}^{\theta_0}(\theta) = \int_{-\theta_0}^{\theta} \hat{f}_{m,n}(y)dy.$$

When choosing θ_0 as origin, the expression for the AMISE in Corollary 7 becomes

$$\text{AMISE}(F^{\theta_0}; \hat{F}_{m,n}^{\theta_0}) = \frac{C(F^{\theta_0})}{n} + R_{m,n}^{\theta_0}, \quad C(F^{\theta_0}) = \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta_0+2\pi} F^{\theta_0}(\theta)(1 - F^{\theta_0}(\theta))d\theta, \quad (21)$$

where $R_{m,n}^{\theta_0}$ corresponds to $R_{m,n}$ with $F'(-\pi)$ replaced by $F'(\theta_0)$, and $\theta_2(F)$ by

$$\theta_2(F, \theta_0) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k^2 + b_k^2) + \frac{2}{\pi} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-a_k \sin(k\theta_0) + b_k \cos(k\theta_0)) \right)^2.$$

There are three main messages from (21):

- (i) As in the linear case, the dominant part is $C(F^{\theta_0})/n$, which corresponds to the variance of the empirical CDF and does not depend on m .
- (ii) Unlike in the linear case, this dominant part depends on the choice of the origin.
- (iii) The smoothing effect is captured in $R_{m,n}^{\theta_0}$, which shows that the smoothing has a

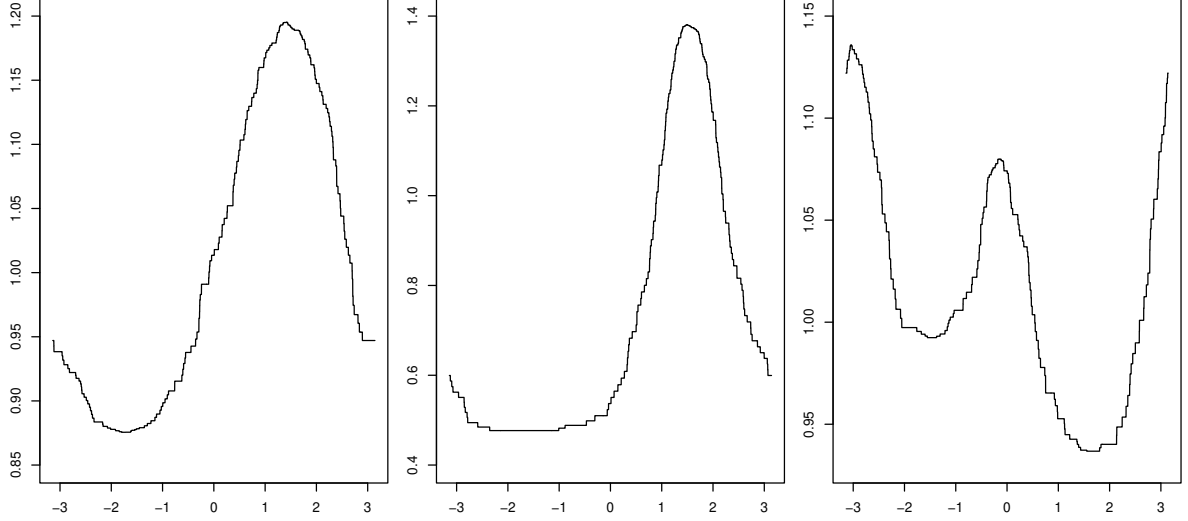


Figure 2: Plot of $C_n(\theta_0)$ in (22) for samples of size $n = 200$ from $VM(\pi/2, 0.5)$ (left panel), $VM(\pi/2, 2)$ (middle panel), and $Mix(VM(0, 2), VM(\pi, 3), 0.5)$ (right panel) for $\theta_0 \in [-\pi, \pi)$.

second-order effect on the CDF. Thus, the choice of m is less important for smooth CDF estimation.

Given this, we propose the following two-step approach:

First, choose the origin by minimizing an empirical counterpart of $C(F^{\theta_0})$. To do this, transform the data set to the interval $[\theta_0, \theta_0 + 2\pi)$, which yields the ordered values $x_{(1)}^{\theta_0} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)}^{\theta_0}$, and compute the empirical CDF $F_n^{\theta_0}$ with origin θ_0 based on these values. Then minimize

$$C_n(\theta_0) = C(F_n^{\theta_0}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i}{n} \left(1 - \frac{i}{n}\right) (x_{(i+1)}^{\theta_0} - x_{(i)}^{\theta_0}) \quad (22)$$

with respect to $\theta_0 \in [-\pi, \pi)$. In practice, since the function (22) is piecewise constant, the minimum is identified over a range of values, and the circular midpoint of this range is taken as the final estimate. In the second step, select m as described in the previous section.

To illustrate the first step, consider Figure 2, which shows $C_n(\theta_0)$ for samples of size $n = 200$ from a von Mises distribution $VM(\pi/2, 0.5)$ (left panel), $VM(\pi/2, 2)$ (middle panel), and from a mixture $Mix(VM(0, 2), VM(\pi, 3), 0.5)$ of two von Mises distributions with equal mixing proportions (right panel).

For $VM(\pi/2, 0.5)$, the minimum and maximum values are 0.88 and 1.20. For the more concentrated $VM(\pi/2, 2)$ distribution, we get 0.48 and 1.38, almost a factor of 3. For the mixture distribution, the minimum is 0.94, quite close to the maximum of 1.08. These examples show that the choice of origin can greatly affect the mean integrated squared error.

4. Density estimation with measurement error

Density estimation in the presence of measurement error is a challenging problem that has attracted the attention of many researchers. Most of the work has been focused on linear data (see Delaigle (2014) and references therein), while the first attempt at the case of circular data is from Di Marzio et al. (2022).

Measurement error models are typically classified into two categories: Berkson and classical. Both models are additive and differ only in assuming whether the error variable is independent of the observed or unobservable data. We consider estimation under both models using the deconvolution approach in the following.

4.1. Density estimation with Berkson error model

We consider the model

$$X = (X^* + \varepsilon) \mod 2\pi, \quad (23)$$

where the random variable X with density f_X is the (unobservable) quantity we want to measure, X^* with density f_{X^*} is the measured value from which we have the sample X_1^*, \dots, X_n^* . The random error ε is independent of X^* and has a density f_ε that is symmetric around zero. We assume that all densities are square-integrable on $[0, 2\pi)$ and allow an absolutely convergent Fourier series representation.

We assume f_ε to be known with some concentration parameter κ_ε and a Fourier representation

$$f_\varepsilon(u) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(1 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda_j(\kappa_\varepsilon) \cos(ju) \right).$$

According to (23), for $x \in [0, 2\pi)$ we have

$$f_X(x) = \int_0^{2\pi} f_{X^*}(u) f_\varepsilon(x - u) du, \quad (24)$$

and, for $l \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\varphi_X(l) = \varphi_{X^*}(l) \varphi_\varepsilon(l), \quad (25)$$

where φ_X, φ_{X^*} and φ_ε are the respective characteristic functions. Then, using the inversion formula we can obtain the simple estimator

$$\tilde{f}_X(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{\varphi}_{X^*}(l) \varphi_\varepsilon(l) e^{-ilx}, \quad (26)$$

where $\hat{\varphi}_{X^*}$ is the empirical characteristic function of the sample X_1^*, \dots, X_n^* .

Following the idea presented in Song (2021) for the analogous case of linear data, to

increase smoothness we suggest a modification of (26) by adding a Fejér kernel factor

$$\hat{f}(x; m) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{\varphi}_{X^*}(l) \varphi_{\varepsilon}(l) \varphi_{K_m}(l) e^{-ilx} \quad (27)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi n} \sum_{j=1}^n \left(1 + 2 \sum_{l=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{l}{m+1} \right) \lambda_l(\kappa_{\varepsilon}) \cos(l(x - X_j^*)) \right). \quad (28)$$

Since the error is independent of the observed data, optimal bandwidth can be chosen as in the error-free case.

4.2. Density estimation in the classical error model

Here we consider the model

$$X^* = (X + \varepsilon) \mod 2\pi, \quad (29)$$

where the notation is the same as in the previous section and the error variable ε is independent of the unmeasurable quantity X . As before, it holds for $x \in [0, 2\pi)$,

$$f_{X^*}(x) = \int_0^{2\pi} f_X(u) f_{\varepsilon}(x - u) du, \quad (30)$$

and, for $l \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\varphi_{X^*}(l) = \varphi_X(l) \varphi_{\varepsilon}(l), \quad (31)$$

where φ_X, φ_{X^*} and φ_{ε} are the respective characteristic functions. Then, as in Di Marzio et al. (2022), using the inversion formula we can get the simple estimator

$$\tilde{f}_X(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\hat{\varphi}_{X^*}(l)}{\varphi_{\varepsilon}(l)} e^{-ilx}, \quad (32)$$

where $\hat{\varphi}_{X^*}$ is the empirical characteristic function of the sample X_1^*, \dots, X_n^* . We obtain

$$\tilde{f}_X(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(1 + 2 \sum_{l=1}^m \frac{(1 - \frac{l}{m+1})}{\lambda_{\varepsilon}(l)} \cos(l(x - X_i^*)) \right). \quad (33)$$

According to Di Marzio et al. (2022), the asymptotic bias matches that of the error-free scenario given in (11). We can determine the MISE's behaviour using Di Marzio et al. (2022, Result 3) for the asymptotic variance. For some particular distributions, the MISE can be derived explicitly. For example, when the error follows wrapped Laplace distribution with scale parameter ρ , its Fourier coefficients are given by $\lambda_{\varepsilon}(j) = \frac{\rho^2}{\rho^2 + j^2}$.

In this case, the MISE is expressed as

$$\text{MISE} \left[\tilde{f}_n(\theta; m) \right] = \frac{\theta_1(f)}{m^2} + \frac{1}{2\pi n} \left(1 + \frac{2m^5}{105\rho^4} \right) + o\left(\frac{1}{m^2}\right) + o\left(\frac{m^5}{n}\right).$$

Thus, the optimal bandwidth in terms of AMISE is

$$m_{opt} = \left(\frac{42\pi}{\rho^4} \theta_1(f) \cdot n \right)^{\frac{1}{7}}.$$

5. Simulation study

The goal of this section is to explore the finite sample properties of the Féjer estimators for densities, both with and without measurement error, as well as for the distribution function. In particular, we consider the mixture of distributions denoted by $Mix(F_1, F_2, p)$ where F_1 and F_2 are either von Mises (VM) or wrapped normal (WN) circular distributions with corresponding parameters. The mean integrated squared error (MISE) is evaluated using $N = 500$ replications, exploring a range of sample sizes n and various distribution parameters.

In the case of error-free density estimation, the MISE is estimated for $m \in \{5, 10, \sqrt{n}\}$ as well as for the asymptotically optimal choice (13). Here, $\theta_1(f)$ is estimated both parametrically, assuming a von Mises distribution with ML estimation of its concentration parameter, and nonparametrically using (14), for $M(n) = 2n^{1/4}$. In addition to MISE, we provide the average optimal values of m for both estimation approaches, along with the theoretically optimal m (assuming $\theta_1(f)$ to be known). Table 2 shows the results for mixtures of wrapped normal distributions. Results for mixtures of VM distributions are omitted due to their similarity.

It can be seen that the average values of the nonparametric estimator of the optimal m consistently overestimate the quantity of interest. In contrast, in the parametric case, the values obtained are close to the theoretical ones. The only exceptions occur for alternatives that are mixtures of distributions with antipodal mean directions. In practice, one way to improve the parametric estimator for such mixtures is to consider a two-step procedure that uses a mixture of VM distributions (Oliveira et al., 2012).

The same analysis is conducted in the context of the classical measurement error model. Table 3 shows the MISE results for the classical error scenario with a wrapped Laplace distribution. The scale parameter is set to 0.2 to cover cases with noise-to-signal ratios ranging from about 5% to 36%.

The Berkson model with uniform distribution is a good approximation when the error arises as a result of rounding (Wang and Wertelecki (2013)). We therefore examine the properties of different estimators in this context. We consider data that are rounded to nearest multiple of $\frac{\pi}{6}$, which implies that the errors follow a uniform $U[-\frac{\pi}{12}, \frac{\pi}{12}]$ distribution. Just for comparison purposes, we also include cases with wrapped Laplace errors with scale parameters 0.1 and 0.2. The MISE of the corresponding estimators for the optimal m , both parametric and nonparametric as described above, are presented in

Table 4. The results clearly show the importance of including the Berkson error when the data are rounded. In particular, MISE increases, when using the error-free estimator, and when using the $WL(0.1)$ Berkson error, while it decreases for the $WL(0.2)$ and uniform error distributions. The best performance is observed under the assumption of a uniform error, which is somewhat expected given the nature of the data.

The results of the empirical study for estimating the CDF are presented in Tables 5 and 6, corresponding to cases where $\theta_0 = -\pi$ is fixed and where θ_0 is estimated by minimizing (22), respectively.

When θ_0 is fixed to $-\pi$, the MISE varies significantly with the change in the location parameter, being smallest when the optimal θ_0 is closest to $-\pi$. In contrast, when θ_0 is estimated, the MISE remains stable across different values of the location parameter. It is also observed that the estimated value of the optimal θ is close to the theoretical value. With respect to the smoothing parameter m , the conclusions are in line with those of the density estimation.

6. Application to rainfall data

We consider the data from Dyck and Mattice (1941) (see Table 1). The data represent the number of rainfall occurrences of 1" or more per hour in the US from 1908 to 1937, with frequencies adjusted to overcome different month lengths, see Mardia (1975). Since the data are reported monthly, the assumption of a uniform Berkson error is natural. We compare different density estimation methods, plotting the results using a histogram of the data along with the Fejér density estimator under various error scenarios. These include the error-free case (blue line), as well as cases where the Berkson error is modeled using different distributions: $WL(0.1)$ (orange line), $WL(0.2)$ (purple line), and $U[-\frac{\pi}{12}, \frac{\pi}{12}]$ (red line). Two types of density estimates are considered: one where $\theta_1(f)$ is estimated parametrically, and another where it is estimated nonparametrically, using the same specifications as in the simulation study. The plots in Figure 3 reveal that failing to account for Berkson error, or misspecifying it, can result in the detection of more local modes than are actually present in the data, leading to misleading conclusions.

Month	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Adj. freq.	100	103	229	414	676	1248	1458	1365	924	378	199	143

Table 1: Rainfall data for Section 6

7. Concluding remarks

This work highlights the potential of Fejér polynomials as a flexible and powerful tool for density and distribution function estimation on the circle. By applying Fejér's approximation theorem, the proposed estimators inherently account for the periodic nature of circular data, addressing limitations in approaches which use Bernstein polynomials on

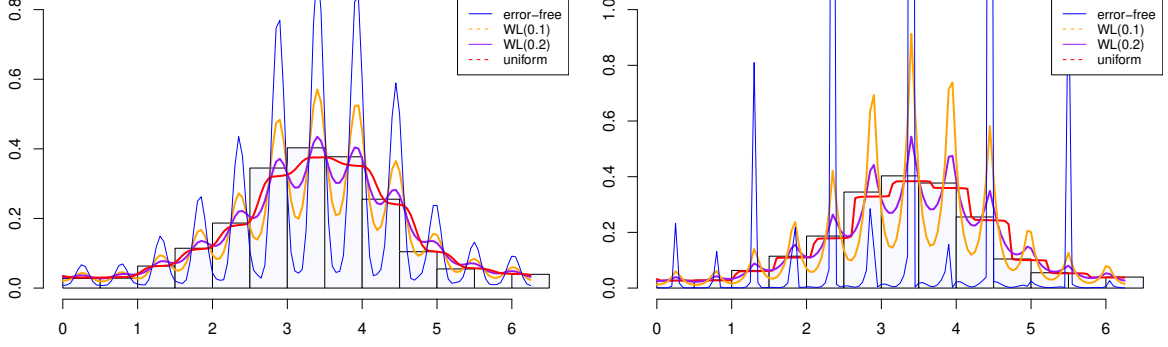


Figure 3: Fejér density estimators with Berkson error for the rainfall data with $\theta_1(f)$ estimated parametrically (left) and nonparametrically (right)

the circle. Extending the estimators to handle measurement errors ensures applicability in realistic scenarios where data inaccuracies are common.

Future work could investigate further refinements in bandwidth selection, particularly in relation to the data-driven selection of the lower integration limit in defining the circular CDF estimator. Overall, the Fejér polynomial framework offers a promising approach for nonparametric circular data analysis.

Appendix

A. Auxiliary results for subsection 2.1

Lemma 8. *Define*

$$H_m = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{k}, \quad \bar{H}_m = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k}, \quad H_m^l = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{k^l}, \quad \bar{H}_m^l = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^l}, \quad l \geq 2.$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} H_m &= \gamma + \log m + \frac{1}{2m} + O(m^{-2}), & H_m^2 &= \frac{\pi^2}{6} - \frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{2m^2} + O(m^{-3}), \\ H_m^3 &= \zeta(3) - \frac{1}{2m^2} + \frac{1}{2m^3} + O(m^{-4}), & H_m^4 &= \frac{\pi^4}{90} - \frac{1}{3m^3} + \frac{1}{2m^4} + O(m^{-5}), \\ \bar{H}_m &= \log 2 - \frac{1}{2m} + O(m^{-2}), & \bar{H}_m^2 &= \frac{\pi^2}{12} - \frac{1}{2m^2} + O(m^{-3}), \\ \bar{H}_m^l &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{l-1}}\right) \zeta(l) + \frac{1}{2m^l} + O(m^{-(l+1)}), & l &\geq 3, \end{aligned}$$

where $\gamma = 0.5772\dots$ is the Euler-Mascheroni constant, and $\zeta(\cdot)$ denotes the Riemann zeta function.

Proof. The formulas for H_m and H_m^l follow directly from the usual asymptotic expansions based on the Euler-Maclaurin formula. The result for \bar{H}_m follows from

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{H}_{2m} &= H_{2m} - H_m = \log(2m) + \frac{1}{4m} - \log m - \frac{1}{2m} + O(m^{-2}) \\ &= \log 2 - \frac{1}{4m} + O(m^{-2}).\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the formulas for \bar{H}_m^l follow from

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{H}_{2m}^2 &= H_{2m}^2 - \frac{1}{2}H_m^2 = \frac{\pi^2}{12} - \frac{1}{8m^2} + O(m^{-3}), \\ \bar{H}_{2m}^l &= \sum_{k=1}^{2m} \frac{1}{k^l} - 2 \left(\frac{1}{2^l} + \frac{1}{4^l} + \dots + \frac{1}{(2m)^l} \right) \\ &= H_{2m}^l + \frac{1}{2^{l-1}}H_m^l = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{l-1}} \right) \zeta(l) + \frac{1}{2(2m)^l} + O(m^{-(l+1)}).\end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition 9. *Define*

$$\beta(K_m) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^2 K_m(y) dy, \quad \gamma(K_m) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |y|^3 K_m(y) dy.$$

Then,

$$\beta(K_m) = \frac{4 \log 2}{m+1} + O(m^{-3}), \quad \gamma(K_m) = \frac{6\pi \log 2 - 21\zeta(3)/\pi}{m+1} + O(m^{-3}).$$

Proof. Using Lemma 8 and $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^2 \cos(ky) dy = 4\pi(-1)^k/k^2$ for integer k , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta(K_m) &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^2 \left(\frac{1}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right) \cos(ky) \right) dy \\
&= \frac{\pi^2}{3} + 4 \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right) \frac{(-1)^k}{k^2} \\
&= \frac{\pi^2}{3} - 4\bar{H}_m^2 + \frac{4}{m+1} \bar{H}_m \\
&= \frac{\pi^2}{3} - 4 \left(\frac{\pi^2}{12} - \frac{1}{2m^2} \right) + \frac{4}{m+1} \left(\log 2 - \frac{1}{2m} \right) + O(m^{-3}) \\
&= \frac{4 \log 2}{m+1} + O(m^{-3})
\end{aligned}$$

Again using Lemma 8 and

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |y|^3 \cos(ky) dy = 6 \left(\frac{\pi^2(-1)^k}{k^2} - \frac{2(-1)^k}{k^4} + \frac{2}{k^4} \right),$$

we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
\gamma(K_m) &= \frac{\pi^3}{4} + \frac{6}{\pi} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right) \left(\frac{-\pi^2(-1)^{k+1}}{k^2} + \frac{2(-1)^{k+1}}{k^4} + \frac{2}{k^4} \right) \\
&= \frac{\pi^3}{4} + \frac{6}{\pi} \left(-\pi^2 \bar{H}_m^2 + 2\bar{H}_m^4 + 2H_m^4 \right) - \frac{6}{\pi(m+1)} \left(-\pi^2 \bar{H}_m + 2\bar{H}_m^3 + 2H_m^3 \right) \\
&= \frac{\pi^3}{4} - 6\pi \left(\frac{\pi^2}{12} - \frac{1}{2m^2} \right) + \frac{12 \cdot 15\pi^3}{8 \cdot 90} \\
&\quad - \frac{6}{\pi(m+1)} \left(-\pi^2 \left(\log 2 - \frac{1}{2m} \right) + \frac{7\zeta(3)}{2} \right) + O(m^{-3}) \\
&= \frac{1}{m+1} (6\pi \log 2 - 21\zeta(3)/\pi) + O(m^{-3}).
\end{aligned}$$

□

B. Auxiliary results for Section 3

Lemma 10. *Define*

$$\nu_{1,m} = 2\pi \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y \cdot W_m(y) \cdot K_m(y) dy.$$

Then,

$$\nu_{1,m} = \frac{2 \log m}{m+1} + \frac{2}{m+1} (\log 2 + \gamma) + O(m^{-2}),$$

where $\gamma = 0.5772 \dots$ is the Euler-Mascheroni constant.

Proof. We need to evaluate

$$\frac{\nu_{1,m}}{2\pi} = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y \left(\frac{y+\pi}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1 - \frac{k}{m+1}}{k} \sin(ky) \right) \left(\frac{1}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{l=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{l}{m+1} \right) \cos(ly) \right) dy.$$

Expanding this, we have four terms to consider. The first two terms are

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y \cdot \frac{y+\pi}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi} dy = \frac{\pi}{6}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y \cdot \frac{y+\pi}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right) \cos(ky) dy &= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right) \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^2 \cos(ky) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right) 4(-1)^k \pi / k^2 = \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(\frac{1}{k^2} - \frac{1}{(m+1)k} \right) (-1)^k. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the third term is

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1 - \frac{k}{m+1}}{k} \sin(ky) \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi} dy &= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1 - \frac{k}{m+1}}{k} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y \sin(ky) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1 - \frac{k}{m+1}}{k} (-2)(-1)^k \pi / k = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(\frac{1}{k^2} - \frac{1}{(m+1)k} \right) (-1)^{k+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, we obtain for the last term:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1 - \frac{k}{m+1}}{k} \sin(ky) \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{l=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{l}{m+1}\right) \cos(ly) dy \\
&= \frac{1}{\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{l=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{l}{m+1}\right) \frac{1}{k} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y \sin(ky) \cos(ly) dy \\
&= \frac{1}{\pi^2} \sum_{k \neq l}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{l}{m+1}\right) \frac{1}{k} (-\pi) (-1)^{k+l} \left(\frac{1}{k-l} + \frac{1}{k+l}\right) \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right)^2 \frac{1}{k} \frac{(-\pi)}{2k} \\
&= \frac{-2}{\pi} \sum_{k \neq l}^m \left(1 - \frac{k+l}{m+1} + \frac{kl}{(m+1)^2}\right) \frac{(-1)^{k+l}}{k^2 - l^2} - \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right)^2 \frac{1}{k^2} \\
&= -\frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(\frac{1}{k^2} - \frac{2}{(m+1)k} + \frac{1}{(m+1)^2}\right).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
\nu_{1,m} &= \frac{\pi^2}{3} + 4 \left(-\bar{H}_m^2 + \frac{1}{m+1} \bar{H}_m \right) + 2 \left(\bar{H}_m^2 - \frac{1}{m+1} \bar{H}_m \right) - \left(H_m^2 - \frac{2}{m+1} H_m + \frac{m}{(m+1)^2} \right) \\
&= \frac{\pi^2}{3} + 4 \left(\frac{-\pi^2}{12} + \frac{1}{2m^2} + \frac{1}{m+1} \left(\log 2 - \frac{1}{2m} \right) \right) + 2 \left(\frac{\pi^2}{12} - \frac{1}{2m^2} - \frac{1}{m+1} \left(\log 2 - \frac{1}{2m} \right) \right) \\
&\quad - \left(\frac{\pi^2}{6} - \frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{2m^2} - \frac{2}{m+1} \left(\gamma + \log m + \frac{1}{2m} \right) + \frac{m}{(m+1)^2} \right) + O(m^{-3}) \\
&= \frac{2 \log m}{m+1} + \frac{2}{m+1} (\log 2 + \gamma) + O(m^{-2}).
\end{aligned}$$

□

Lemma 11. Define

$$\nu_{3,m} = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^3 \cdot W_m(y) \cdot K_m(y) dy.$$

Then,

$$\nu_{3,m} = O(m^{-1}).$$

Proof. We need to evaluate

$$\nu_{3,m} = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^3 \left(\frac{y+\pi}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1 - \frac{k}{m+1}}{k} \sin(ky) \right) \left(\frac{1}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{l=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{l}{m+1}\right) \cos(ly) \right) dy.$$

Expanding this, we have four terms to consider. The first two terms are

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^3 \cdot \frac{y+\pi}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi} dy = \frac{\pi^3}{10}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^3 \cdot \frac{y+\pi}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \cos(ky) dy &= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^4 \cos(ky) dy \\
&= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \frac{(-1)^k 8\pi(k^2\pi^2 - 6)}{k^4} = \frac{4}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \frac{(-1)^k (k^2\pi^2 - 6)}{k^4} \\
&= \frac{4}{\pi} (-\pi^2 \bar{H}_m^2 + 6\bar{H}_m^4) + O(m^{-1}) = \frac{4}{\pi} \left(-\pi^2 \cdot \frac{\pi^2}{12} + 6 \cdot \frac{7}{8} \zeta(4)\right) + O(m^{-1}) \\
&= \frac{-\pi^3}{10} + O(m^{-1}).
\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the third term is

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1 - \frac{k}{m+1}}{k} \sin(ky) \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi} dy &= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1 - \frac{k}{m+1}}{k} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^3 \sin(ky) dy \\
&= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1 - \frac{k}{m+1}}{k} \frac{(-2)(-1)^k \pi(k^2\pi^2 - 6)}{k^3} = \frac{-1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \frac{(-1)^k (k^2\pi^2 - 6)}{k^4} \\
&= \frac{\pi^3}{40} + O(m^{-1}).
\end{aligned}$$

Finally, we obtain for the last term:

$$\begin{aligned}
&\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1 - \frac{k}{m+1}}{k} \sin(ky) \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{l=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{l}{m+1}\right) \cos(ly) dy \\
&= \frac{1}{\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{l=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{l}{m+1}\right) \frac{1}{k} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^3 \sin(ky) \cos(ly) dy \\
&= \frac{1}{\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right)^2 \frac{1}{k} \frac{6k\pi - 4k^3\pi^3}{8k^4} \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{\pi^2} \sum_{k \neq l}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{l}{m+1}\right) \frac{1}{k} \pi (-1)^{k+l} \left(\frac{6 - (k-l)^2\pi^2}{(k-l)^3} + \frac{6 - (k+l)^2\pi^2}{(k+l)^3} \right) \\
&= S_{m,1} + S_{m,2},
\end{aligned}$$

say. For the first sum, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
S_{m,1} &= \frac{1}{4\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1}\right)^2 \frac{3 - 2k^2\pi^2}{k^4} = \frac{1}{4\pi} \left(3H_m^4 - 2\pi^2 H_m^2 + \frac{4\pi^2}{m+1} H_m^1\right) + O(m^{-1}) \\
&= -\frac{3\pi^3}{40} + \frac{\pi \log(m)}{m+1} + O(m^{-1})
\end{aligned}$$

For the second sum, we get by symmetry arguments

$$\begin{aligned} S_{m,2} &= \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k \neq l}^m \left(1 - \frac{k+l}{m+1} + \frac{kl}{(m+1)^2} \right) (-1)^{k+l} \left(\frac{-2\pi^2}{k^2 - l^2} + \frac{12k^2 + 36l^2}{(k-l)^3(k+l)^3} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k \neq l}^m \left(1 - \frac{k+l}{m+1} + \frac{kl}{(m+1)^2} \right) (-1)^{k+l} \frac{24l^2}{(k-l)^3(k+l)^3}. \end{aligned}$$

We claim that

$$S_{m,2} = \frac{2\pi^3}{40} - \frac{\pi \log(m)}{m+1} + O(m^{-1}).$$

This could only be verified numerically, as shown in the following table:

m	$m \left(S_{m,1} + \frac{3\pi^3}{40} - \frac{\pi \log(m)}{m+1} \right)$	$m \left(S_{m,2} - \frac{2\pi^3}{40} + \frac{\pi \log(m)}{m+1} \right)$	$m \left(S_{m,1} + S_{m,2} + \frac{\pi^3}{40} \right)$
50	1.29874	-0.18366	1.11508
100	1.26966	-0.13840	1.13125
200	1.25469	-0.11518	1.13951
400	1.24710	-0.10342	1.14368
800	1.24328	-0.09750	1.14578
1600	1.24136	-0.09453	1.14683
3200	1.24040	-0.09305	1.14735
6400	1.23992	-0.09230	1.14762
12800	1.23968	-0.09193	1.14775

So the fourth term is $S_{m,1} + S_{m,2} = \pi^3/40 + O(m^{-1})$, and summing over all the terms gives the desired result. \square

Lemma 12. a) *It holds that*

$$S_{m,1}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} = \frac{\pi - x}{2} + O(m^{-1}),$$

and

$$S_{m,2}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^m (-1)^k \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} = -\frac{x}{2} + O(m^{-1}).$$

b) *Define*

$$\gamma_m(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^m (-1)^k \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right)^2 \frac{1}{k} \sin(k\theta)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{1,m}(\theta) &= \theta + 2\gamma_m(\theta), \\ \gamma_{2,m}(\theta) &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \left(-\sum_{k=1}^m \left(\frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{m+1} \right) \sin(k\theta) + \gamma_m(\theta) \right). \end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\gamma_{1,m}(\theta) = O(m^{-1}) \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_{2,m}(\theta) = O(m^{-1}).$$

Proof. a) It holds that

$$S_1(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} = \frac{\pi - x}{2} \quad \text{for } 0 < x < 2\pi$$

and

$$S_2(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} = -\frac{x}{2} \quad \text{for } -\pi < x < \pi$$

(Gradshteyn and Ryzhik, 1986, 1.441). Abel's convergence test states that if a sequence of positive real numbers (a_k) is decreasing monotonically to zero, then the power series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z^k$ converges everywhere on the closed unit circle, except when $z = 1$. The usual proof by Abel summation shows that

$$\left| \sum_{k=m}^n a_k z^k \right| \leq a_m \frac{4}{|1 - z|}.$$

Choosing $a_k = 1/k$ and $z = e^{ikx}$ yields

$$|S_1(x) - S_{m,1}(x)| = \left| \sum_{k=m}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k} \operatorname{Im}(e^{ikx}) \right| \leq \frac{1}{m} \frac{4}{|1 - e^{ikx}|} = O(m^{-1}).$$

Noting that $\operatorname{Im}(e^{ik(x+\pi)}) = (-1)^k \sin(kx)$, the same argument yields the second assertion.

b) First, note that

$$|S_{m,3}(x)| = \left| \sum_{k=1}^m \sin(kx) \right| \leq c_3(x), \quad |S_{m,4}(x)| = \left| \sum_{k=1}^m (-1)^k \sin(kx) \right| \leq c_4(x)$$

and

$$|S_{m,5}(x)| = \left| \sum_{k=1}^m (-1)^k k \sin(kx) \right| \leq m c_5(x)$$

for positive constants $c_i(x)$, $i = 1, 2, 3$, not depending on m (Gradshteyn and Ryzhik, 1986, 1.342, 1.352, 1.353). Hence,

$$\gamma_m(\theta) = S_{m,2}(\theta) - \frac{2}{m+1} S_{m,4}(\theta) + \frac{1}{(m+1)^2} S_{m,5}(\theta) = -\frac{\theta}{2} + O(m^{-1}).$$

It follows directly that $\gamma_{1,m}(\theta) = O(m^{-1})$. Second,

$$\pi\gamma_{2,m}(\theta) = \frac{\pi - \theta}{2} - S_{m,1}(\theta) + \frac{2}{m+1}S_{m,3}(\theta) + \frac{1}{2}\gamma_{1,m}(\theta) = O(m^{-1}),$$

which concludes the proof □

Lemma 13. *It holds that*

$$m_4(K_m) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^4 K_m(y) dy = \frac{8\pi^2 \log(2) - 36\zeta(3)}{m} + O(m^{-2}).$$

Proof. Using $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^4 \cos(ky) dy = 8\pi(-1)^k(\pi^2 k^2 - 6)/k^4$ for integer k , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} m_4(K_m) &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} y^4 \left(\frac{1}{2\pi} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right) \cos(ky) \right) dy \\ &= \frac{\pi^4}{5} + 8 \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 - \frac{k}{m+1} \right) \frac{(-1)^k(\pi^2 k^2 - 6)}{k^4} \\ &= \frac{\pi^4}{5} - 8\pi^2 \left(\bar{H}_m^2 - \frac{1}{m+1} \bar{H}_m^1 \right) + 48 \left(\bar{H}_m^4 - \frac{1}{m+1} \bar{H}_m^3 \right) + O(m^{-2}). \end{aligned}$$

Inserting the expansions of $\bar{H}_m^l, l = 1, \dots, 4$, given in Lemma 8 proves the claim. □

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		MISE($f; \hat{f}_{m,n}$)					Average		
Distribution	n	$m = 5$	$m = 10$	$m = \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$	$m = m_{OP}$	$m = m_{ON}$	m_{OP}	m_{ON}	m_{TH}
$WN(0, 0.75)$	50	$3.36 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.78 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.35 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.54 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$	7.41	10.1	6.73
$WN(0, 0.9)$	50	$2.26 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$8.77 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.18 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$9.26 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.10 \cdot 10^{-3}$	11.7	14.8	11.1
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.5)$	50	$3.71 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.78 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.99 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.86 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.19 \cdot 10^{-4}$	5.50	9.78	6.69
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.9), 0.5)$	50	$6.13 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.67 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.34 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.61 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$7.59 \cdot 10^{-4}$	5.99	10.3	7.98
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.2)$	50	$2.10 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.64 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.72 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.00 \cdot 10^{-4}$	5.94	7.92	5.57
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.8)$	50	$1.16 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$7.75 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$7.88 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$8.38 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.01 \cdot 10^{-3}$	7.21	12.9	9.34
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.5)$	50	$1.80 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.91 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.74 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.88 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.84 \cdot 10^{-4}$	5.00	7.79	4.52
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.2)$	50	$2.20 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.67 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.79 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.51 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.01 \cdot 10^{-4}$	5.87	7.75	5.53
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi, 0.75), 0.5)$	50	$2.33 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.45 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.25 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.61 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.90 \cdot 10^{-4}$	1.67	8.74	4.94
$WN(0, 0.75)$	200	$1.33 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.18 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$7.58 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.61 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.15 \cdot 10^{-5}$	11.6	15.5	10.7
$WN(0, 0.9)$	200	$1.80 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.85 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.80 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.75 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.11 \cdot 10^{-3}$	18.2	23.5	17.6
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.5)$	200	$1.28 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.33 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$7.92 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.61 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.35 \cdot 10^{-6}$	8.56	15.2	10.6
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.9), 0.5)$	200	$3.93 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$9.73 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.91 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.03 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.18 \cdot 10^{-4}$	9.34	16.2	12.7
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.2)$	200	$5.63 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.36 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.41 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.20 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$5.64 \cdot 10^{-5}$	9.18	11.5	8.85
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.8)$	200	$7.03 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.56 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.25 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.62 \cdot 10^{-4}$	11.2	20.5	14.8
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.5)$	200	$2.79 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.65 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.12 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.90 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$5.02 \cdot 10^{-5}$	7.79	11.3	7.18
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.2)$	200	$5.74 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.44 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.46 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.30 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$5.80 \cdot 10^{-4}$	9.08	11.5	8.77
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi, 0.75), 0.5)$	200	$4.24 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.47 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.93 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$5.67 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.67 \cdot 10^{-5}$	1.65	13.0	7.84

Table 2: MISE for density estimation of mixtures of wrapped normal distributions

		MISE $\left[\tilde{f}_n(\theta; m) \right]$					Average		
Distribution	n	$m = 5$	$m = 10$	$m = \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$	$m = m_{OP}$	$m = m_{ON}$	m_{OP}	m_{ON}	m_{TH}
$WN(0, 0.75)$	50	$5.26 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.18 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$9.82 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.33 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.63 \cdot 10^{-3}$	7.62	8.76	7.50
$WN(0, 0.9)$	50	$2.90 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$5.41 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.41 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$3.79 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$5.86 \cdot 10^{-3}$	8.97	10.0	9.29
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.5)$	50	$6.32 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.32 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.15 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.06 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.45 \cdot 10^{-3}$	6.77	8.45	7.48
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.9), 0.5)$	50	$9.42 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.49 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.37 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.36 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.65 \cdot 10^{-4}$	6.98	8.48	8.07
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.2)$	50	$4.16 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.12 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$9.33 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$9.10 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.86 \cdot 10^{-3}$	6.95	7.92	6.92
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.8)$	50	$1.56 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$4.74 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.69 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.95 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.16 \cdot 10^{-3}$	7.51	9.44	8.63
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.5)$	50	$3.32 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.25 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$8.85 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.93 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.88 \cdot 10^{-3}$	6.45	7.97	6.32
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.2)$	50	$4.25 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.08 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$9.40 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$8.99 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.87 \cdot 10^{-3}$	6.91	7.91	6.89
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi, 0.75), 0.5)$	50	$4.02 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.11 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$9.30 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.51 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.98 \cdot 10^{-3}$	4.07	8.24	6.57
$WN(0, 0.75)$	200	$1.64 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.22 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.89 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.31 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.49 \cdot 10^{-4}$	9.08	10.5	9.15
$WN(0, 0.9)$	200	$1.94 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$7.55 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.38 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$8.86 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.30 \cdot 10^{-3}$	10.9	12.1	11.3
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.5)$	200	$1.63 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.17 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.84 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.71 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.71 \cdot 10^{-4}$	8.05	10.1	9.11
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.9), 0.5)$	200	$3.46 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.72 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.87 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.56 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.38 \cdot 10^{-4}$	8.39	10.2	9.85
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.2)$	200	$7.68 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.81 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.90 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.41 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.61 \cdot 10^{-4}$	8.30	9.25	8.43
$Mix(WN(0, 0.9), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.8)$	200	$7.95 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.17 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.07 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$4.34 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$8.26 \cdot 10^{-4}$	9.03	11.4	10.5
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.5)$	200	$4.25 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.66 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.83 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.01 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.45 \cdot 10^{-4}$	7.95	9.29	7.71
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi/2, 0.75), 0.2)$	200	$7.78 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.94 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.95 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.41 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.90 \cdot 10^{-4}$	8.23	9.31	8.40
$Mix(WN(0, 0.75), WN(\pi, 0.75), 0.5)$	200	$5.49 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.59 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.76 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$7.22 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.65 \cdot 10^{-4}$	4.00	9.72	8.01

Table 3: MISE for density estimation of mixtures of wrapped normal distributions in the presence of classical error with wrapped Laplace WL(0.2) distribution

	n	Error distribution								Average	
		none		$WL(0.1)$		$WL(0.2)$		$U[-\frac{\pi}{12}, -\frac{\pi}{12}]$			
		param	nonpar	param	nonpar	param	nonpar	param	nonpar	m_{OP}	m_{ON}
$VM(\pi, 5)$	50	$2.68 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.33 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.68 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.41 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.25 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.01 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.54 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.45 \cdot 10^{-3}$	10.9	13.8
	100	$5.81 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$3.58 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.19 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.71 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.33 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.25 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$6.93 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$	13.6	17.6
	200	$2.28 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$8.99 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.92 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$4.47 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.12 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.13 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$4.70 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.54 \cdot 10^{-4}$	16.9	22.1
	500	$9.13 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$9.62 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$4.36 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.67 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$9.89 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.25 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$3.15 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.98 \cdot 10^{-4}$	22.9	45.3
$VM(0, 1)$	50	$1.69 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.80 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.62 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.72 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.56 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.81 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.61 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.50 \cdot 10^{-4}$	4.28	7.48
	100	$6.86 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.08 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.57 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.30 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.51 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.84 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.50 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.63 \cdot 10^{-4}$	5.31	9.82
	200	$2.95 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.58 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.85 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.14 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.03 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.72 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.81 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.15 \cdot 10^{-5}$	6.58	11.4
	500	$9.02 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$1.77 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$8.33 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$8.55 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.55 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$1.11 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$8.09 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$8.29 \cdot 10^{-6}$	8.99	15.0
$WN(\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3}{4})$	50	$4.04 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.00 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.68 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.08 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.71 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.78 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.59 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.88 \cdot 10^{-4}$	7.31	7.81
	100	$1.86 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.74 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.67 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.26 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.90 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.89 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.62 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.74 \cdot 10^{-4}$	9.05	10.1
	200	$1.74 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$9.65 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$8.29 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.41 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$9.29 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.66 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.77 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$7.15 \cdot 10^{-5}$	11.4	12.0
	500	$3.55 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$5.47 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.15 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.88 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.30 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.59 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.87 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.97 \cdot 10^{-5}$	15.3	15.7
$WN(\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{9}{10})$	50	$2.44 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.76 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.48 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.53 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.05 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.08 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.32 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.35 \cdot 10^{-3}$	11.2	11.1
	100	$6.94 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.16 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.41 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.67 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.51 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.51 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$8.05 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$8.15 \cdot 10^{-4}$	13.8	14.3
	200	$2.72 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$3.12 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$2.14 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.30 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.13 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.13 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$4.54 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$4.57 \cdot 10^{-4}$	17.3	17.6
	500	$1.02 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$2.07 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$4.85 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$7.40 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.08 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.13 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$3.47 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.57 \cdot 10^{-4}$	23.4	27.8

Table 4: MISE for density estimation based on rounded samples from different sampling distributions (leftmost column) and different Berkson error distributions. In the left columns headed *param*, m_{opt} has been calculated under a parametric assumption; the right columns headed *nonpar* use the non-parametric procedure.

		MISE($F^{-\pi}; \hat{F}_{m,n}^{-\pi}$)				Average	
Distribution	n	$m = 5$	$m = 10$	$m = \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$	$m = m_{OP}$	m_{OP}	m_{TH}
$VM(0, 5)$	50	$2.37 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.64 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.14 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.36 \cdot 10^{-5}$	30.4	29.3
$VM(\pi/2, 5)$	50	$4.49 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$9.18 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.89 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.18 \cdot 10^{-5}$	39.0	38.0
$VM(\pi, 5)$	50	$5.84 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.85 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.72 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$8.20 \cdot 10^{-4}$	10.4	9.03
$VM(0, 1)$	50	$1.99 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.38 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.15 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.40 \cdot 10^{-4}$	8.79	7.78
$VM(\pi/2, 1)$	50	$3.63 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.08 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.18 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.57 \cdot 10^{-4}$	12.1	11.3
$VM(\pi, 1)$	50	$3.73 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.93 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.72 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.05 \cdot 10^{-4}$	6.24	5.19
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.5)$	50	$1.91 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.80 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.77 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.93 \cdot 10^{-4}$	10.6	11.5
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 5), 0.5)$	50	$1.80 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.29 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.41 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.36 \cdot 10^{-4}$	15.6	17.8
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.2)$	50	$2.23 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.15 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.09 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.49 \cdot 10^{-4}$	9.97	9.73
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.8)$	50	$2.03 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.09 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.37 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.04 \cdot 10^{-4}$	17.7	19.6
$Mix(VM(0, 1), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.5)$	50	$2.04 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.54 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.23 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.55 \cdot 10^{-4}$	7.28	6.80
$Mix(VM(0, 1), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.2)$	50	$2.42 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.33 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.27 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.64 \cdot 10^{-4}$	9.42	9.15
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi, 5), 0.5)$	50	$2.20 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.10 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.52 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$	3.77	6.69
$VM(0, 5)$	200	$1.68 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.11 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.23 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$2.40 \cdot 10^{-6}$	82.9	82.0
$VM(\pi/2, 5)$	200	$3.62 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.14 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.64 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.86 \cdot 10^{-6}$	110	109
$VM(\pi, 5)$	200	$2.16 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$7.39 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$6.88 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$7.76 \cdot 10^{-5}$	22.2	21.1
$VM(0, 1)$	200	$2.10 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.52 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.50 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.60 \cdot 10^{-5}$	18.3	17.5
$VM(\pi/2, 1)$	200	$8.94 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.97 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.25 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.01 \cdot 10^{-5}$	28.3	27.8
$VM(\pi, 1)$	200	$3.55 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.75 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.26 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.14 \cdot 10^{-5}$	11.0	10.2
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.5)$	200	$4.14 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.82 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.57 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.54 \cdot 10^{-5}$	23.5	28.2
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 5), 0.5)$	200	$6.26 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.78 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.30 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.04 \cdot 10^{-5}$	38.6	46.9
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.2)$	200	$5.37 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.74 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.39 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.42 \cdot 10^{-5}$	21.5	23.2
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.8)$	200	$8.87 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.89 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.17 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$7.05 \cdot 10^{-6}$	44.7	52.3
$Mix(VM(0, 1), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.5)$	200	$2.08 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.71 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.81 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.05 \cdot 10^{-5}$	14.5	14.7
$Mix(VM(0, 1), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.2)$	200	$5.04 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.77 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.51 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.70 \cdot 10^{-5}$	21.0	21.5
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi, 5), 0.5)$	200	$4.09 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.66 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.87 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$7.57 \cdot 10^{-5}$	3.72	14.4

Table 5: MISE for CDF estimation with origin $\theta_0 = -\pi$ for (mixtures of) von Mises distributions

Distribution	n	MISE($F^{\theta_0}; \hat{F}_{m,n}^{\theta_0}$)				Average		TH
		$m = 5$	$m = 10$	$m = \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$	$m = m_{OP}$	m_{OP}	θ_0^{OP}	θ_0^{OP}
$VM(0, 5)$	50	$2.47 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.88 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.19 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.27 \cdot 10^{-5}$	30.4	-3.14	-3.14
$VM(\pi/2, 5)$	50	$2.47 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.88 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.19 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.27 \cdot 10^{-5}$	30.4	-1.56	-1.57
$VM(\pi, 5)$	50	$2.47 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$6.88 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.19 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.27 \cdot 10^{-5}$	30.4	0.01	0.00
$VM(0, 1)$	50	$2.42 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.39 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.54 \cdot 10^{-4}$	8.87	-3.11	-3.14
$VM(\pi/2, 1)$	50	$2.42 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.39 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.54 \cdot 10^{-4}$	8.87	-1.55	-1.57
$VM(\pi, 1)$	50	$2.42 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.39 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.54 \cdot 10^{-4}$	8.87	0.02	0.00
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.5)$	50	$2.70 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.41 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.49 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.56 \cdot 10^{-4}$	10.4	-2.40	-2.52
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 5), 0.5)$	50	$1.54 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.28 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.33 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.35 \cdot 10^{-4}$	14.1	-2.36	-2.36
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.2)$	50	$2.28 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.42 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.32 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$	8.00	-1.94	-1.98
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.8)$	50	$2.48 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.28 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.67 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.16 \cdot 10^{-4}$	18.4	-2.70	-2.94
$Mix(VM(0, 1), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.5)$	50	$3.03 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.41 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.20 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.25 \cdot 10^{-4}$	6.39	-2.37	-2.36
$Mix(VM(0, 1), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.2)$	50	$2.24 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.45 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.32 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.43 \cdot 10^{-4}$	7.18	-1.86	-1.85
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi, 5), 0.5)$	50	$5.25 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.22 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.14 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.81 \cdot 10^{-5}$	4.16	1.58*	± 1.57
$VM(0, 5)$	200	$1.71 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.17 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.62 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$2.72 \cdot 10^{-6}$	83.3	-3.14	-3.14
$VM(\pi/2, 5)$	200	$1.71 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.17 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.62 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$2.72 \cdot 10^{-6}$	83.3	-1.57	-1.57
$VM(\pi, 5)$	200	$1.71 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.17 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.62 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$2.72 \cdot 10^{-6}$	83.3	0.00	0.00
$VM(0, 1)$	200	$2.81 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.02 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.94 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.00 \cdot 10^{-5}$	18.3	-3.13	-3.14
$VM(\pi/2, 1)$	50	$2.81 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.02 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.94 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.00 \cdot 10^{-5}$	18.3	-1.58	-1.57
$VM(\pi, 1)$	50	$2.81 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.02 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.94 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.00 \cdot 10^{-5}$	18.3	0.00	0.00
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.5)$	200	$3.62 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.80 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.57 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.55 \cdot 10^{-5}$	22.3	-2.49	-2.52
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 5), 0.5)$	200	$4.19 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.45 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.15 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.00 \cdot 10^{-5}$	34.0	-2.36	-2.36
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.2)$	200	$2.58 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.05 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.02 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.09 \cdot 10^{-5}$	15.5	-1.98	-1.98
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.8)$	200	$9.14 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.01 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.26 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$7.42 \cdot 10^{-6}$	45.1	-2.88	-2.94
$Mix(VM(0, 1), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.5)$	200	$1.89 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.82 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.90 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.95 \cdot 10^{-5}$	11.6	-2.35	-2.36
$Mix(VM(0, 1), VM(\pi/2, 1), 0.2)$	200	$2.06 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.74 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.75 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.83 \cdot 10^{-5}$	14.0	-1.85	-1.85
$Mix(VM(0, 5), VM(\pi, 5), 0.5)$	200	$6.78 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.89 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.57 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.73 \cdot 10^{-5}$	4.10	1.58*	± 1.57

Table 6: MISE for CDF estimation with estimated origin θ_0 for (mixtures of) von Mises distributions

*Since the theoretical minimum is not unique and occurs at two opposite numbers, the average of the absolute values is taken.