Week 9: Flexible Regression Pt. 2

PLSC 40502 - Statistical Models

Review

Previously

Flexible functional forms

- Model E[Y|X] = f(x) as a linear combination of basis functions
- Polynomial bases
- Step-function bases
- Splines as a compromise between the two!

Regularization

- Many regressors → overfitting
- Penalize fits with many extreme covariates -- pull estimates towards zero.
- L2 penalty ("ridge regression") equivalent to Bayesian normal regression
- L1 penalty ("lasso") sparse solutions w/ many coefficients set to zero.

This week

Kernels

- "Kernel smoothing" Kernels as a "localization" tool
- "Kernel methods" Kernels as regression inputs
- Two different uses of the term/concept but some interesting relations

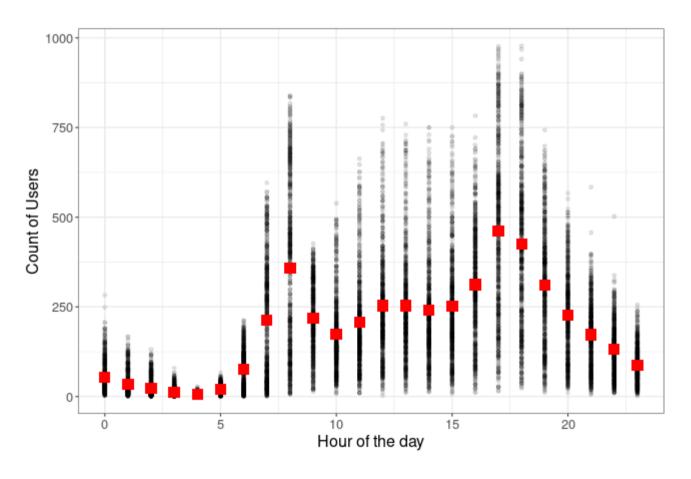
Forests

- Tree-based models for classification and regression
- Ensembles/averages of trees via random forests
- Diagnostics via "variable smoothing"
- Extensions to detecting causal heterogeneity

- Recall again our **bikeshare usage** dataset
 - Fanaee-T, Hadi, and Gama, Joao, "Event labeling combining ensemble detectors and background knowledge", *Progress in Artificial Intelligence* (2013): pp. 1-15

```
bike <- read_csv("data/bikes_hour.csv")
bike_by_hour <- bike %>% group_by(hr) %>% summarize(cnt = mean(cnt))
```

• Our most intuitive approach to estimating the CEF was to just take the **average** for a given hour of the day



- One downside I can only evaluate the function at each discrete hour.
 - What would I predict is the usage at 7:45pm?
 - Intuitively, I would want to take the average of the "nearest data points"
- Kernel smoothing methods give us a straightforward, non-parametric approach to estimating f(x) = E[Y|X=x] without making strong assumptions about the functional form of the CEF.
 - "weighted average" of "similar" observations
- We define the similarity between two points x_0 and x by way of a **kernel function** $K_h()$

$$K_h(x_0,x) = Digg(rac{|x-x_0|}{h(x_0)}igg)$$

- D is our particular choice of kernel function and $h(x_0)$ is the "bandwidth" or "window size"
 - $\circ~$ Often use a constant bandwidth that does not depend on the inputs $h(x_0)=h$
- The kernel function is **symmetric** and **non-negative**

• Uniform kernel

$$D(u) = egin{cases} rac{1}{2} & ext{if } |u| \leq 1 \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Triangular kernel

$$D(u) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 - |u| & ext{if } |u| \leq 1 \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

• Gaussian (or "radial basis") kernel

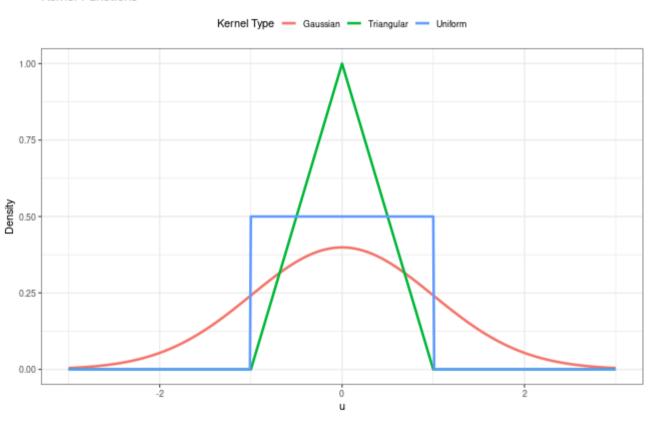
$$D(u) = rac{1}{2\pi} \mathrm{exp} \left(-rac{1}{2} u^2
ight).$$

```
uniform_kernel <- function(x) {
   ifelse(abs(x) <= 1, 1/2, 0)
}

triangular_kernel <- function(x) {
   ifelse(abs(x) <= 1, 1 - abs(x), 0)
}

gaussian_kernel <- function(x) {
   (1 / sqrt(2 * pi)) * exp(-0.5 * x^2)
}</pre>
```

Kernel Functions



Nadaraya-Watson estimator

• For a set of N observations indexed by i $\{y_i, x_i\}$ and given a kernel function $K_h()$ and a chosen bandwidth h, the **Nadarya-Watson** estimator of f(x) = E[Y|X=x] is:

$$\hat{f}\left(x
ight) = rac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} K_h(x-x_i)y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} K_h(x-x_i)}$$

- Our best prediction for Y at x is the average of the observed y_i , weighted by the "closeness" of their corresponding x_i to the input x.
- Some intuitions:
 - Larger bandwidths = more influence from "further" points (lower variance, higher bias)
 - Smaller bandwidths = only "close" points have meaningful weight (higher variance, lower bias)

In R, local kernel smoothing methods are implemented in the package np

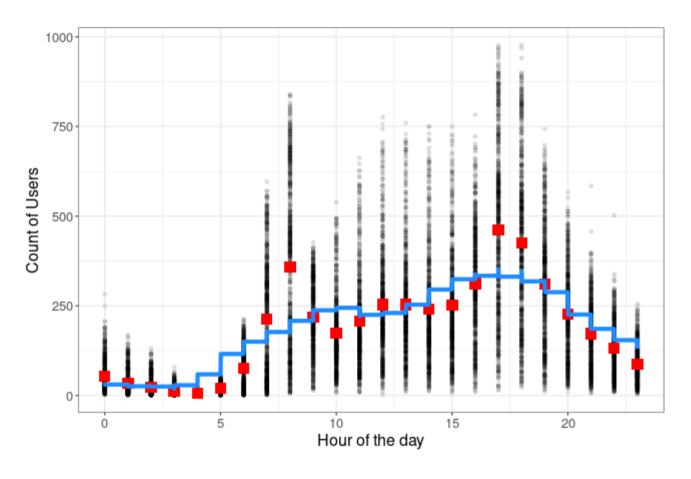
Kernel Regression Estimator: Local-Constant

```
library(np)
## Nonparametric Kernel Methods for Mixed Datatypes (version 0.60-18)
## [vignette("np fag",package="np") provides answers to frequently asked questions]
## [vignette("np",package="np") an overview]
## [vignette("entropy np",package="np") an overview of entropy-based methods]

    We'll start with a uniform kernel and a bandwidth of 3

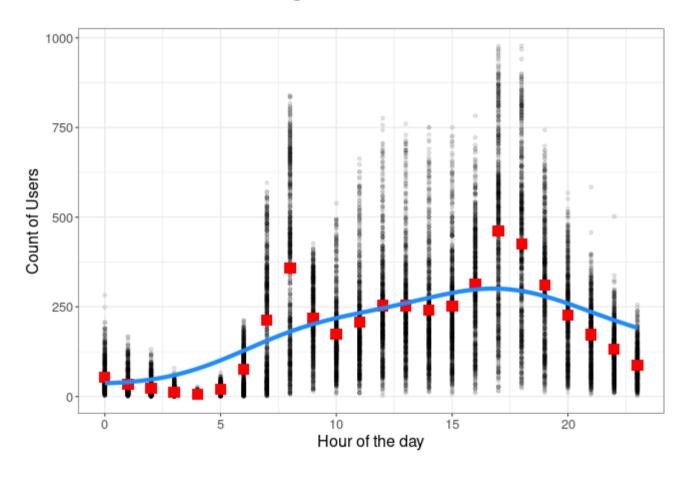
 kernel reg <- npreg(cnt ~ hr, data=bike, ckertype="uniform", bws = 3, regtype='lc')
## Warning in rbandwidth(bw = tbw$bw, regtype = tbw$regtype, bwmethod =
## tbw$method, : ignoring kernel order specified with uniform kernel type
 summary(kernel reg)
##
## Regression Data: 17379 training points, in 1 variable(s)
##
## Bandwidth(s): 3
##
```

• Generate predictions on a sequence of points and plot the line



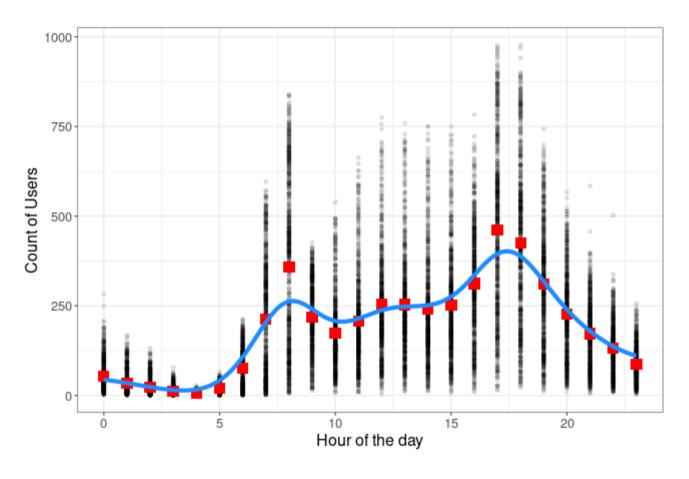
What about if we use a gaussian kernel

```
gaussian kernel <- npreg(cnt ~ hr, data=bike, ckertype="gaussian", bws = 3, regtype='lc')</pre>
 summary(gaussian kernel)
##
## Regression Data: 17379 training points, in 1 variable(s)
##
                 hr
## Bandwidth(s): 3
##
## Kernel Regression Estimator: Local-Constant
## Bandwidth Type: Fixed
## Residual standard error: 147
## R-squared: 0.355
##
## Continuous Kernel Type: Second-Order Gaussian
## No. Continuous Explanatory Vars.: 1
 gaussian predict \leftarrow data.frame(hr = seq(0, 23, by=.01),
                               cnt = predict(gaussian kernel, newdata=data.frame(hr = seq(0, 23,
```



What happens with a narrower bandwidth?

```
gaussian kernel 2 <- npreg(cnt ~ hr, data=bike, ckertype="gaussian", bws = 1, regtype='lc')</pre>
 summary(gaussian kernel 2)
##
## Regression Data: 17379 training points, in 1 variable(s)
##
                 hr
## Bandwidth(s): 1
##
## Kernel Regression Estimator: Local-Constant
## Bandwidth Type: Fixed
## Residual standard error: 131
## R-squared: 0.478
##
## Continuous Kernel Type: Second-Order Gaussian
## No. Continuous Explanatory Vars.: 1
 gaussian predict 2 < - data.frame(hr = seq(0, 23, by=.01),
                              cnt = predict(gaussian kernel 2, newdata=data.frame(hr = seq(0, 23))
```

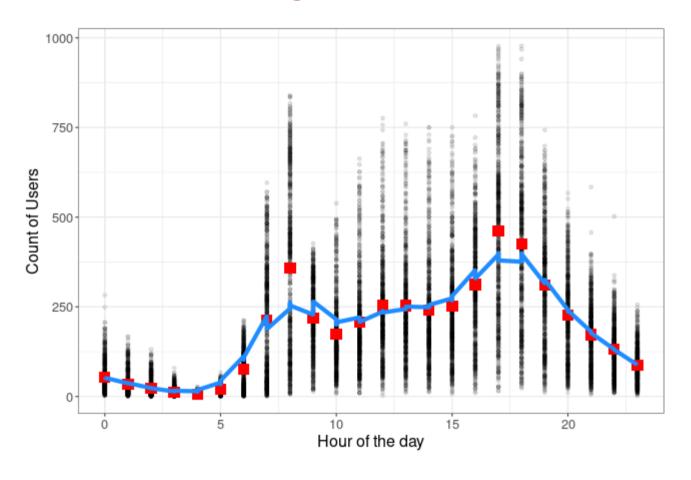


Local linear regression

- Instead of just making our prediction a weighted average, we can incorporate a least-squares adjustment
 - Fit a **line** rather than a **constant**
- Our prediction for f(x) is defined as the solution to the **least-squares** problem in terms of intercept $\alpha(x)$ and slope $\beta(x)$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n K_h(x,x_i)[y_i-lpha(x)-eta(x)x_i]$$

Let's fit this with np using a uniform kernel and a narrow bandwidth.



Kernel Methods

Regression as optimization

- Throughout this course and previous courses, our goal has been to find some function f(x) of inputs x that acts as a "best predictor" of Y
 - \circ We define some objective function \mathcal{L} and attempt to minimize/maximize it
 - Least squares; maximum likelihood
- Given a set of n inputs, $\{x_i, y_i\}$, we want to find a function that solves

$$\hat{f} = rg\min_f \mathcal{L}(\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n)$$

Space of functions

- So far, we've placed severe constraints on the space of functions over which we search.
- Linear functions

$$f(x) = eta_0 + eta_1 x_1 + eta_2 x_2 + eta_3 x_3 + \dots$$

Basis expansion

$$f(X) = \sum_{m=1}^M eta_m h_m(X)$$

• Can we be more flexible than this while still retaining computational feasibility?

Space of functions defined by kernels

- "Kernel methods" consider searching over a space of functions defined implicitly by a positivedefinite kernel function.
 - Example, the Gaussian kernel

$$K(x,x') = \expigg(-rac{\left|\left|x-x'
ight|
ight|^2}{2\sigma^2}igg).$$

• We'll consider a search over a set of functions defined by a linear combination of kernels evaluated at the input points in our data

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i K(x,x_i)$$

• What is this space of functions? How "flexible" is it?

Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces

- A positive semi-definite kernel function K(x, x') corresponds to a space of functions known as a "reproducing kernel Hilbert space" (RKHS).
 - \circ A choice of kernel implies a mapping $\phi(x)$ that transforms the input vector x into a higher dimensional (possibly infinite dimensional) space.
 - This space is equipped with an inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ such that for any two functions, the inner product is given by an evaluation of the kernel at the inputs

$$K(x,x') = \langle \phi(x),\phi(x') \rangle$$

• As a result, we can work in the space of ϕ without ever having to evaluate ϕ directly -- only its kernel.

"The Kernel Trick"

- One important feature of optimization over functions defined over a reproducing kernel Hilbert space is that even if the functions in the space are **infinite dimensional** solutions to optimization problems are necessarily **finite dimensional** and have the form of a linear combination of kernels.
- The **representer theorem** states that for minimization problems of the form:

$$\hat{f} = rg \min_{f} \mathcal{L}(\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n) + \lambda {||f||}^2$$

the solution is a finite sum of weighted kernel functions

$$\hat{f} = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{c}_i K(x,x_i)$$

- Intuitively, what the "kernel trick" allows us to do is design a good functional approximator by way of a conventional ridge regression estimator.
 - Relatively well-known in machine learning (particularly for classification) throughout the 2000s, but introduced to political science by Hainmueller and Hazlett (2014) and labeled Kernel regularized least squares
- Our regression matrix is constructed by creating a total of N columns.
 - \circ Each row of the "kernel regression" matrix is a linear combination of the kernel evaluated between x_i and each observation in the data

$$f(x_i) = c_1 K(x_i, x_1) + c_2 K(x_i, x_2) + \ldots c_n K(x_i, x_n)$$

- The regression matrix is $N \times N$
 - We need to regularize!

- A very common problem in spatial statistics is predicting an outcome at any given latitude/longitude coordinate given a finite set of observations at particular coordinates
 - e.g. What is the estimated average temperature given observations at a number of weather monitoring stations?
 - Finding the "best" interpolation between the observed points is known as "kriging" in the geostatistics literature
- We'll use a sample of U.S. weather stations as an example:

```
library(sf)
```

Linking to GEOS 3.10.2, GDAL 3.4.1, PROJ 8.2.1; sf use s2() is TRUE

library(geosphere)

• Start by reading in the U.S. shapefile

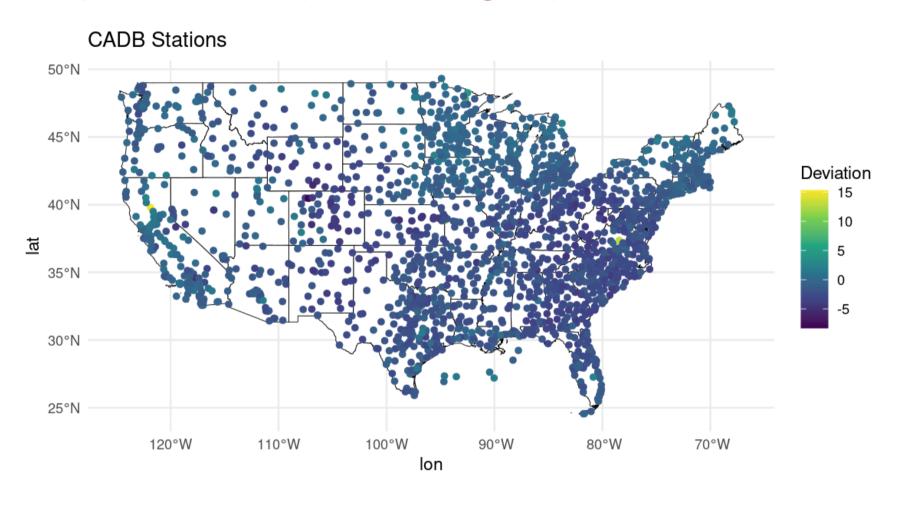
```
us_shapefile <- read_rds("data/us_shapefile.rds") %>%
filter(!(STUSPS %in% c("AK", "HI", "AS", "GU", "MP", "PR", "VI")))
```

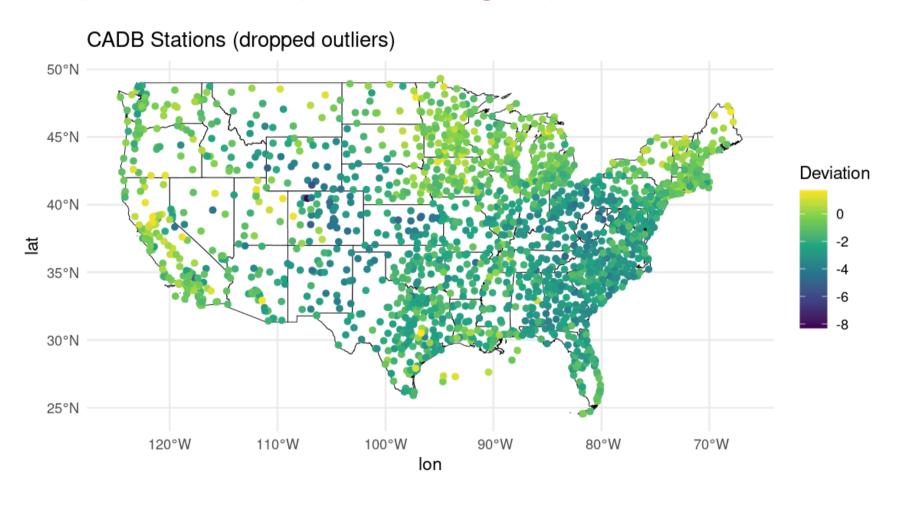
• Next, read in the NOAA Climate Assessment Database monthly weather station data from January, 2025.

```
weather <- read csv("data/monthly summary 202501 v2.csv") %>% filter(country == "UNITED STATES"
## Rows: 12261 Columns: 31
## — Column specification ·
## Delimiter: "."
## chr (5): id, call, city, state, country
## dbl (26): date, lat, lon, elev, atmp, ntmp, nbtmp, nyrt, eyrt, amax, nbmax, ...
##
## i Use `spec()` to retrieve the full column specification for this data.
## i Specify the column types or set `show col types = FALSE` to quiet this message.
weather <- weather %>% filter(atmp > -99999&ntmp > -99999) # Missing obs hard coded as -99999
 weather <- weather %>% mutate(deviation = atmp - ntmp)
 weather <- weather %>% filter(!(state %in% c("AK", "HI", "AS", "GU", "MP", "UM", "PR", "VI")))
```

Convert to a plotable object and overlay on the map

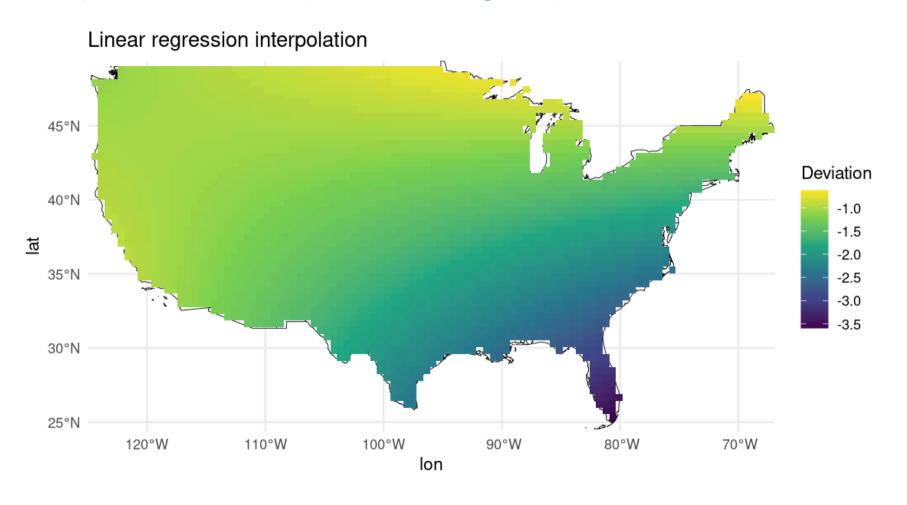
```
# Convert the stations to a plottable object
weather_sf <- st_as_sf(weather, coords = c("lon", "lat"), crs = st_crs(us_shapefile), remove=F)</pre>
```





• We'll make a grid of 50km squares on which to to evaluate our predictions

```
# Set boundaries for U.S. (approximate)
lat min <- 24.396308 # Southernmost point (Florida)</pre>
lat max <- 49.384358 # Northernmost point (Canada border)</pre>
lon min <- -125.0  # Westernmost point (California)</pre>
lon max <- -66.93457 # Easternmost point (Maine)</pre>
# Approximate 50 km in degrees (this will vary by latitude, but we'll use an average factor)
lat interval <- 50 / 110.574 # 1 degree latitude \approx 110.574 km
lon interval < 50 / (111.320 * cos(mean(c(lat min, lat max)) * pi / 180)) # Longitude interval
# Create a sequence of points for latitude and longitude
latitudes <- seg(lat min, lat max, by = lat interval)</pre>
longitudes <- seg(lon min, lon max, by = lon interval)</pre>
# Create a grid of all combinations of latitudes and longitudes
grid points <- expand.grid(lat = latitudes, lon = longitudes)</pre>
# Convert the grid points to an 'sf' object
grid points sf <- st as sf(grid points, coords = c("lon", "lat"), crs = st crs(us shapefile),
# Filter grid points to keep only those within the U.S. boundary
grid points within us <- st intersection(grid points sf, us shapefile)</pre>
```



What happens when we fit KRLS with latitude and longitude as the covariate inputs.

```
library(KRLS)

## ## KRLS Package for Kernel-based Regularized Least Squares.

## ## See Hainmueller and Hazlett (2014) for details.
```

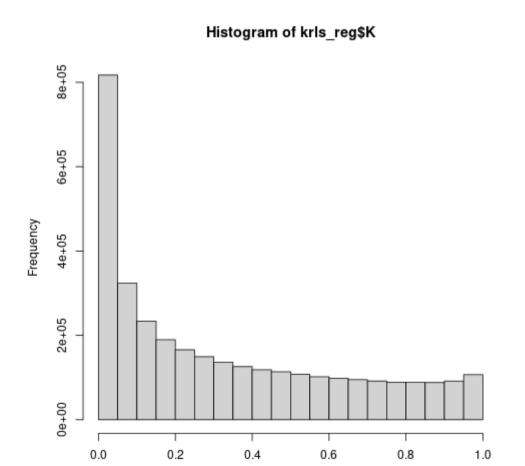
- Estimate the model
 - We use the default Hainmueller and Hazlett (2014) approach to setting the bandwidth equal to the number of dimensions in the data.
 - Standard leave-one-out cross-validation of the penalty parameter

• What do the inputs look like?

```
dim(krls reg$K)
## [1] 1825 1825
head(krls reg$K[,1])
##
## 1.00e+00 6.90e-07 1.38e-06 2.62e-06 8.33e-06 1.22e-05
head(krls_reg$K[,2])
##
## 6.90e-07 1.00e+00 9.69e-01 9.17e-01 8.01e-01 7.69e-01
head(krls_reg$K[,3])
##
## 1.38e-06 9.69e-01 1.00e+00 9.86e-01 9.11e-01 8.83e-01
```

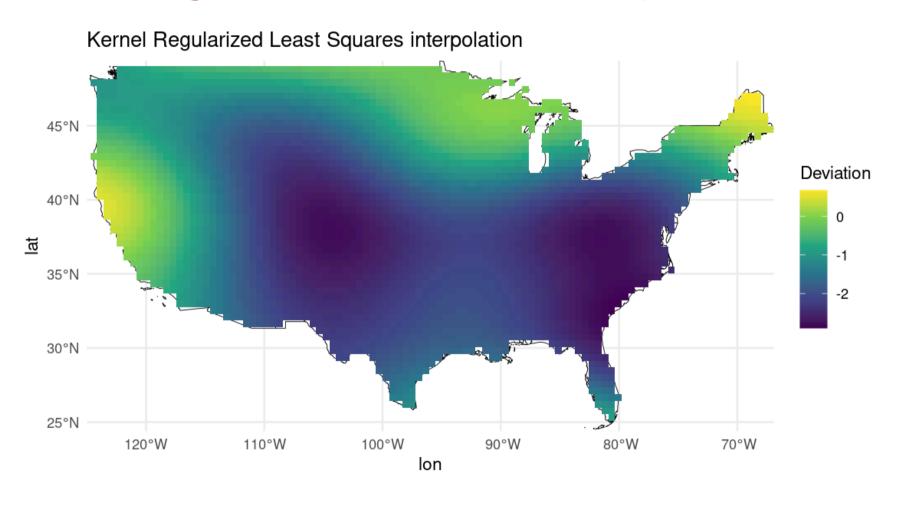
• What do the inputs look like?

hist(krls_reg\$K)



• Predict using the KRLS regression for each of our grid squares.

```
grid_points_within_us$krlspredict <- predict(krls_reg, newdata= model.matrix(~lat + lon, data=c
```



What if we chose a smaller bandwidth for the Gaussian kernel?

Predict using the KRLS regression for each of our grid squares.

```
grid_points_within_us$krlspredict2 <- predict(krls_reg_2, newdata= model.matrix(~lat + lon, dat</pre>
```

