Semiparametric regression in Stata

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2013 UK Stata Users Group meeting London, UK

September 2013













Introduction

Semiparametric regression models

Semiparametric regression

Introduction

- Deals with the introduction of some very general non-linear functional forms in regression analysis
- Generally used to fit a parametric model in which the functional form of a subset of the explanatory variables is not known and/or in which the distribution of the error term cannot be assumed to be of a specific type beforehand.
- Most popular semiparametric regression models are the partially linear models and single index models

Remark: for an excellent description of semiparametric estimators, we advice to read the book by Ahamada and Flachaire (2010) from which many of the explanations available here come from.

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Semiparametric regression models

Partially linear models

Introduction

- ullet The partially linear model is defined as: y=Xeta+m(z)+arepsilon
- Advantage 1: This model allows "any" form of the unknown function m
- Advantage 2: $\hat{\beta}$ is \sqrt{n} -consistent

Single index models

- ullet The single index model is defined as: y=g(Xeta)+arepsilon
- ullet Advantage 1: generalizes the linear regression model (which assumes $g(\cdot)$ is linear)
- Advantage 2: the curse of dimensionality is avoided as there is only one nonparametric dimension

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PLM example

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Hedonic pricing equation of houses

Wooldridge (2000): What was the effect of a local garbage incinerator on housing prices in North Andover in 1981?

```
. semipar lprice larea lland rooms bath age if y81==1, nonpar(ldist)
                                                  Number of obs =
                                                                   142
                                                  R-squared
                                                             = 0.6863
                                                  Adj R-squared = 0.6748
                                                  Root MSE
                                                                0.1859
     lprice |
                 Coef.
                         Std. Err.
                                           P>|t| [95% Conf. Interval]
                        .070965
                                     4.60
                                           0.000
                                                     .1862768
      larea
               .3266051
                                                                .4669334
     lland
               .0790684
                        .0318007
                                     2.49 0.014
                                                     .0161847 .1419521
      rooms
               .026588
                         .0266849 1.00 0.321
                                                    -.0261795 .0793554
               .1611464
                         .0400458 4.02
                                          0.000
                                                     .0819585
                                                               .2403342
      baths
              -.0029953
                                  -3.13
                                          0.002
        age
                         .0009564
                                                    -.0048865
                                                               -.0011041
```

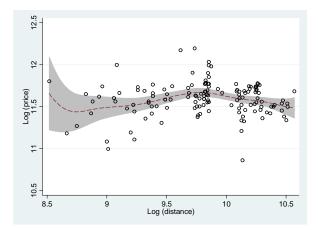
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PLM Example

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Hedonic pricing equation of houses

Non-parametric part



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Single index example

Titanic accident

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What was the probability of surviving the accident?

```
. xi: sml survived female age i.pclass
i.pclass
            Ipclass 1-3 (naturally coded; Ipclass 1 omitted)
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -485.15013
Iteration 6: log likelihood = -471.17626
SML Estimator - Klein & Spady (1993)
                                          Number of obs = 1046
                                          Wald chi2(4)
                                                        = 27.30
Log likelihood = -471.17626
                                          Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
   survived | Coef. Std. Err. z P>|z| [95% Conf. Interval]
     female | 3.220109 .6381056 5.05 0.000 1.969445 4.470772
       age -.0334709 .0076904 -4.35 0.000 -.0485438 -.0183981
 _Ipclass_2 | -1.360299
                       .370819 -3.67 0.000 -2.087091
                                                          -.6335076
 Ipclass 3 | -3.605414
                       .8002326 -4.51
                                        0.000
                                              -5.173842
                                                          -2.036987
```

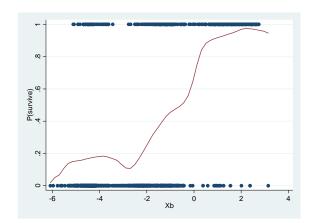
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Single index example

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Titanic accident

Non-parametric part



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 Partially linear models models
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Partially linear models

Quantitative dependent variable models

- Fractional polynomials
- Splines
- Additive models
- Yatchew's difference estimator
- Robinson's double residual estimator
- ..

Qualitative dependent variable models

- Fractional polynomials
- Splines
- Generalized additive models

...



Fractional polynomial

The partially linear model is defined as: $y = X\beta + m(z) + \varepsilon$

- In fractional polynomial models, $m(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_i z^{p_i}$
- Powers p_i are taken from a predetermined set $S = \{-2, -1, -0.5, 0, 0.5, 1, 2, 3\}$ where z^0 is taken as In(z)
- ullet Generally k=2 is sufficient to have a good fit
- ullet For ℓ "repeated" powers p, we have $\sum\limits_{i=1}^\ell \gamma_i z^p \left[\ln(z) \right]^{i-1}$
- All combinations of powers are fitted and the "best" fitting model (e.g. according to the AIC) is retained.
- As a fully parametric model, it is extremely easy to handle and can be generalized to non-linear regression models
- This model can be extended to qualitative dependent variable models without major problems

Spline regression

The partially linear model is defined as: $y = X\beta + m(z) + \varepsilon$

• In spline regression models

$$m(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \gamma_j z^j + \sum_{\ell=1}^{q} \gamma_{p\ell} (z - k_\ell)_+^p + \varepsilon$$

- Polynomial splines tend to be highly correlated. To deal with this, splines can be represented as B-spline bases which are, in essence, a rescaling of each of the piecewise functions.
- This model can easily be extended to qualitative dependent variable models
- Spline estimation is sensitive to the choice of the number of knots and their position. To reduce the impact of this choice, a penalization term can be introduced
- Penalized splines: estimate γ minimizing the following criterion $\sum_{i=1}^{n} [y_i x_i^t \beta m(z_i)]^2 + \lambda \int [m''(z)]^2 dz$

Additive models

The partially linear model is defined as: $y = X\beta + m(z) + \varepsilon$

- This is a special case of an additive separable model $y=eta_0+\sum\limits_{d=1}^D m_d(z_d)+arepsilon$ that can be estimated using backfitting
- The backfitting algorithm (that is equivalent to a penalized likelihood approach)
 - ullet Initializes $\hat{eta}_0=ar{y};\;\hat{m}_d\equiv m_d^0,\;orall d$ such that $\sum\limits_d\hat{m}_d=0$
 - Repeats till convergence:
 - For each predictor j: $\hat{m}_d \leftarrow smooth \left[\left(y \hat{\beta}_0 \sum_{k \neq d}^D \hat{m}_k \right) | z_d \right]$ $\hat{m}_d \leftarrow \hat{m}_d \overline{\hat{m}}_d$
- This algorithm can easily be extended to qualitative dependent variable models

Yatchew's (1998) difference estimator

The partially linear model is defined as: $y = X\beta + m(z) + \varepsilon$

- For the difference estimator, start by sorting the data according to z
- ullet Estimate the model in difference $\Delta y = \Delta X eta + \Delta m(z) + \Delta arepsilon$
- If m is smooth, single-valued with bounded first derivative and if z has a compact support, $\Delta m(z)$ cancels out when the number of observation increases. Parameter vector β can be consistently estimated without modelling m(z) explicitly
- Finally m(z) can be estimated regressing $(y X\hat{\beta})$ on z nonparametrically
- By selecting the order of differencing sufficiently large (and the optimal differencing weights), the estimator approaches asymptotic efficiency

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Robinson's (1988) double residual estimator

The **partially linear model** is defined as: $y = X\beta + m(z) + \varepsilon$

- For the double residual estimator, take the expected value conditioning on z: $E(y|z) = E(X|z)\beta + m(z) + \underbrace{E(\varepsilon|z)}$
- We therefore have that $\underbrace{y E(y|z)}_{\varepsilon_1} = \underbrace{(X E(X|z))}_{\varepsilon_2} \beta + \varepsilon$
- By estimating E(y|z) and E(X|z) using some nonparmatetric regression method and replacing them in the above equation, it is possible to estimate β consistently without modelling m(z) explicitly: $\hat{\beta} = (\hat{\epsilon}_2'\hat{\epsilon}_2)^{-1} \hat{\epsilon}_2'\hat{\epsilon}_1$
- Finally m(z) can be estimated by regressing $(y X\hat{\beta})$ on z nonparametrically
- ullet This estimator reaches the asymptotic efficiency bound $V=rac{\sigma_{arepsilon}^2}{n\sigma_{zz}^2}$

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Some estimators available in Stata

Semi-non-parametric

Fractional polynomials: fracpoly and mfp

Splines: mkspline, bspline, mvrs

Penalized splines: pspline

Generalized additive models: gam

Semi-parametric

Yatechew's partially linear regression: plreg
Robinson's partially linear regression: semipar

In this talk we will concentrate on semipar. However, many of the presented results could be used for the other estimators!

Example

Introduction

Let us generate a weird semiparametric model

- set obs 1000
- drawnorm e
- generate z=(uniform()-0.5)*30
- generate x1=z+invnorm(uniform())
- generate x2=z+invnorm(uniform())
- generate x3=z+invnorm(uniform())
- generate y=x1+x2+x3+e
- replace y=(10*sin(abs(z)))*(z<_pi)+y

To be useful, the partially linear model should estimate consistently both the parametric AND the non-parametric part. If one of the two is poorly estimated the other one will be as well. Let us compare the estimators in Stata

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Fractional polynomial regression

. mfp regress y z x*, df(1, z:10)

Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs	
Model Residual	700273.966 22416.2848		534.2457 .6198635		Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	= 0.0000 = 0.9690
Total	722690.251	999 72	3.413664		Root MSE	= 4.756
У	Coef.	Std. Err	. t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Iz_1	-784.7258	72.07625	-10.89	0.000	-926.1654	-643.2862
Iz2	-279.7523	29.01214	-9.64	0.000	-336.6846	-222.82
Iz3	789.2751	73.33961	10.76	0.000	645.3563	933.1938
Iz4	-505.0903	45.56326	-11.09	0.000	-594.5019	-415.6788
Iz5	107.7887	9.476345	11.37	0.000	89.19267	126.3847
Ix11	1.157587	.1521613	7.61	0.000	.8589915	1.456182
Ix21	.9479614	.1540668	6.15	0.000	.6456268	1.250296
Ix31	.8754499	.1511476	5.79	0.000	.5788437	1.172056
_cons	4.988257	.2741892	18.19	0.000	4.450199	5.526315

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Robinson's estimator

Semipar

```
. semipar y x*, nonpar(z) generate(fit) partial(res)
                                                     Number of obs = 1000
                                                     R-squared = 0.5745
                                                     Adj R-squared = 0.5733
                                                     Root MSE
                                                                   = 1.4149
                                             P>|t|
                  Coef.
                          Std. Err.
                                                       [95% Conf. Interval]
         x1
                .9962337
                          .0454645
                                     21.91 0.000 .9070166 1.085451
                          .0458836 19.98 0.000
.0450222 22.02 0.000
                                                      .8265534 1.006633
         x2
                .9165930
                .9914365
                                                        .9030874
                                                                  1.079786
         x3
```

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Penalized spline

Semipar

```
. pspline v z x*, nois
Computing standard errors:
Mixed-effects REML regression
                                    Number of obs
                                                        1000
Group variable: _all
                                    Number of groups =
                                    Obs per group: min =
                                                      1000
                                                     1000.0
                                               avg =
                                               max =
                                                      1000
                                    Wald chi2(4) = 2364.68
Log restricted-likelihood = -1650.8448
                                   Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
            Coef. Std. Err. z P>|z| [95% Conf. Interval]
            9.412364 .662555 14.21 0.000 8.11378 10.71095
            .9449280 .0371332 25.45 0.000 .8721484 1.017708
       x1 |
            x2
       x3
                    10.03695 14.57
                                           126.5437 165.8878
            146.2157
                                   0.000
     cons
```

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Spline

Semipar

. mvrs regress y z x*, df(1, z:10)

Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs	
Model Residual	704930.142 17760.1088		14.1785 9940312		F(12, 987) Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	= 0.0000 = 0.9754
Total	722690.251	999 723.	.413664		Root MSE	= 4.2419
у	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
z_0	4446125	2.147522	-0.21	0.836	-4.658846	3.769621
z_1	.4644359	.1346419	3.45	0.001	.2002187	.7286531
z_2	-1.314159	.1341581	-9.80	0.000	-1.577427	-1.050891
z_3	-1.651472	.1343905	-12.29	0.000	-1.915196	-1.387749
z_4	.5623887	.1342405	4.19	0.000	.2989591	.8258183
z_5	6660937	.1342368	-4.96	0.000	929516	4026713
z_6	.9780222	.1344052	7.28	0.000	.7142694	1.241775
z_7	1.726668	.1342929	12.86	0.000	1.463136	1.990201
z_8	3566616	.1343096	-2.66	0.008	6202267	0930965
x1	1.256455	.1360496	9.24	0.000	.9894751	1.523434
x2	.8465489	.1373653	6.16	0.000	.5769873	1.116111
x3	.8592235	.1350626	6.36	0.000	.5941807	1.124266
_cons	1.664401	.1506893	11.05	0.000	1.368693	1.96011

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Yatchew's estimator

Semipar

```
. plreg y x*, nlf(z) gen(fit)
```

Partial Linear regression model with Yatchew's weighting matrix

Source Model Residual Total	SS 2756.201275 1066.136271 3822.338	996 1.07	MS 733758 7041794 2616371		Number of obs F(3, 996) Prob > f R-squared Adj R-squared Root MSE	= 858.29 = 0.0000 = 0.7211
у	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
x1 x2 x3 Significance t	.9114451 .9425252 1.024437	.0411167 .0399196 .0394415	22.17 23.61 25.97	0.000 0.000 0.000	.8307597 .8641891 .9470392	.9921304 1.020861 1.101835

Generalized additive model

```
. gam y x*z, df(1, z:10)
```

1000 records merged.

Semipar

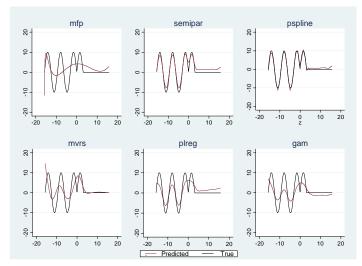
Generalized Additive Model with family gauss, link ident.

```
Model df
       = 13.999
                                         No. of obs = 1000
       = 12934.9
                                         Dispersion =
Deviance
             df Lin. Coef. Std. Err. z
                                               Gain
                                                       P>Gain
                1 1.159738 .1156261 10.030
        x1
        x2
                1 .8660830 .1169652 7.405
                 <mark>.9199053</mark> .1148958 8.006
        x3
             9.999 -.0322593 .2027343 -0.159 1088.570
                    2.52637
                           .114536
                                      22.057
     cons
```

Predicted non-linear function

Introduction

Semipar





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Example from plreg (Yatchew, 2003)

Introduction

Assess scale economies in electricity distribution.

- Data for that example come from the survey of 81 municipal electricity distributors in Ontario, Canada, in 1932.
- The cost of distributing electricity is modeled in a simple Cobb-Douglas framework, where
 - tc is the log of total cost per customer
 - cust is the log of number of customers
- Control variables are the log of wage rate (wage), of price of capital (pcap), of kilowatt hours per customer (kwh) and of kilometers of distribution wire per customer (kmwire), a dummy variable for the public utility commissions that deliver additional services (puc), the remaining life of distribution assets (life) and the load factor (lf).

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Running semipar using the example from plreg

. semipar to wage poap puc kwh life lf kmwire, nonpar(cust) gen(func)

Number of obs = 81 R-squared = 0.5839 Adj R-squared = 0.5445 Root MSE = 0.1323

tc	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	. Interval]
wage	.7098844	.2837827	2.50	0.015	.1444351	1.275334
pcap	.5182129	.0662044	7.83	0.000	.3862978	.6501281
puc	0661499	.0340252	-1.94	0.056	1339466	.0016468
kwh	.022051	.0781643	0.28	0.779	1336947	.1777967
life	5178481	.1060321	-4.88	0.000	7291218	3065744
lf	1.310515	.3926239	3.34	0.001	.5281949	2.092835
kmwire	.3681217	.07709	4.78	0.000	.2145166	.5217269

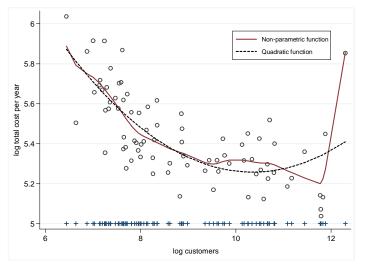
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Running semipar using the example from plreg



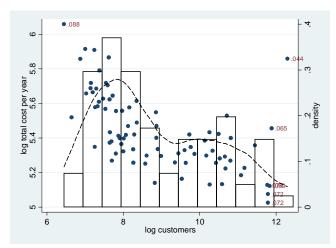
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Semiparametric estimators are noisy in sparse regions

Trimming



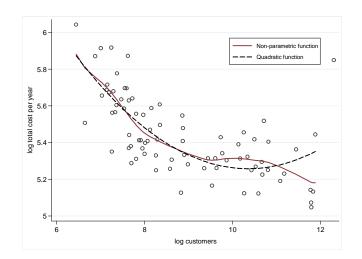
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Non-parametric fit

Same example with trimming at f(z)=0.05





Testing for a specific parametric form

Test

- Hardle and Mammen (1993) propose a testing procedure based on square deviations between the nonparametric kernel estimator $\hat{m}(z_i)$ (with bandwidth h) and a parametric regression $\hat{f}(z_i, \theta)$
- The test statistic they propose is $T_n = n\sqrt{h} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\hat{m}(z_i) \hat{f}(z_i, \theta) \right)^2 \pi(z_i) \text{ where } \pi(\cdot) \text{ is an optional weight function}$
- To obtain critical values, Hardle and Mammen (1993) suggest using wild bootstrap
- An absence of rejection of the null means that the polynomial adjustment is suitable

Testing for a quadratic relation

Introduction

Testing for a parametric fit in the above example

```
. semipar tc wage pcap puc kwh life lf kmwire, nonpar(cust) test(2)
...
Simulation the distribution of the test statistic
bootstrap replicates (100)
50
                                              100
HO: Parametric and non-parametric fits are not different
Standardized Test statistic T: 1.2186131
Critical value (95%): 1.9599639
Approximate P-value: .24
```

Introduction

Testing for a parametric fit in the above example

```
. semipar tc wage pcap puc kwh life lf kmwire, nonpar(cust) test(1)
...
Simulation the distribution of the test statistic
bootstrap replicates (100)
50
                                              100
HO: Parametric and non-parametric fits are not different
Standardized Test statistic T: 1.193676
Critical value (95%): 1.959964
Approximate P-value: .25
```

PLM

Introduction

Testing for a parametric fit in the above example

```
. semipar tc wage pcap puc kwh life lf kmwire, nonpar(cust) test(0)
...
Simulation the distribution of the test statistic
bootstrap replicates (100)
50
                                              100
HO: Parametric and non-parametric fits are not different
Standardized Test statistic T: 3.5257177
Critical value (95%): 1.959964
Approximate P-value: 0
```

Robinson's double residual estimator

The partially linear model is defined as: $y = X\beta + m(z) + \varepsilon$

- For the double residual estimator, take the expected value conditioning on z: $E(y|z) = E(X|z)\beta + m(z) + \underbrace{E(\varepsilon|z)}_{\varepsilon}$
- We therefore have that $\underbrace{y E(y|z)}_{\varepsilon_1} = \underbrace{(X E(X|z))}_{\varepsilon_2} \beta + \varepsilon$
- By estimating E(y|z) and E(X|z) using some nonparmatetric regression method and replacing them in the above equation, it is possible to estimate consistently β without modelling explicitly m(z): $\hat{\beta} = (\hat{\epsilon}_2'\hat{\epsilon}_2)^{-1} \hat{\epsilon}_2'\hat{\epsilon}_1$

Introduction

Dealing with heteroskedasticity and clustering

Robust-to-heteroskedasticity covariance matrix

- To deal with heteroskedasticity the parametric part of the model could be estimated using FGLS
- Since the estimations are not biased in case of heteroskedasticity, a simple alternative is to correct the variance of the betas using Hubert-White sandwich covariance matrix
- In case of general heteroskedasticity: $V(\hat{\beta}) = (\hat{\epsilon}_2'\hat{\epsilon}_2)^{-1} \hat{\epsilon}_2'\hat{\epsilon}\hat{\epsilon}'\hat{\epsilon}_2 (\hat{\epsilon}_2'\hat{\epsilon}_2)^{-1}$
- ullet For clustered data: $V(\hat{eta}) = (\hat{\epsilon}_2'\hat{\epsilon}_2)^{-1} \sum\limits_{i=1}^{n_c} u_j u_j' (\hat{\epsilon}_2'\hat{\epsilon}_2)^{-1}$ with $u_j = \sum\limits_i \hat{arepsilon}_i x_i$ where $\hat{arepsilon}_i$ is the residual for the i^{th} observation and x_i is a row vector of predictors including the constant and n_c is the number of clusters.

Previous example BUT controlling for heteroskedasticity

. semipar tc wage pcap puc kwh life lf kmwire, nonpar(cust) robust

Number of obs = 81 R-squared = 0.5839 Adj R-squared = 0.5445 Root MSE = 0.1323

tc	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
wage	.7098844	.3174935	2.24	0.028	.0772648	1.342504
pcap	.5182129	.0656184	7.90	0.000	.3874655	.6489604
puc	0661499	.0327918	-2.02	0.047	131489	0008108
kwh	.022051	.0919709	0.24	0.811	1612051	.2053071
life	5178481	.1022124	-5.07	0.000	7215108	3141854
1f	1.310515	.3713168	3.53	0.001	.5706503	2.05038
kmwire	.3681217	.0700106	5.26	0.000	.2286225	.507621

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Generating clustered data in the example

Expanding the dataset without bringing new information

- Generate an identifier for each individual (gen id=_n)
- Expand the dataset 3 times (expand 3)
- In this case we have perfect within cluster correlation
- If we use a standard (or even a robust-to-heteroskedasticity) covariance matrix, the inflation of *n* would shrink the standard errors and inflate the t-statistics.
- We must use the clustered variance.



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Extended dataset without cluster correction

. semipar tc wage pcap puc kwh life lf kmwire, nonpar(cust)

R-squared = 0.5866 Adj R-squared = 0.5744 Root MSE = 0.1256

243

Number of obs =

tc	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
wage	.6889357	.1572608	4.38	0.000	.3791215	.9987499
pcap	.5102208	.036622	13.93	0.000	.438073	.5823687
puc	0692528	.0190201	-3.64	0.000	1067236	031782
kwh	.0222381	.0433129	0.51	0.608	0630912	.1075675
life	5154635	.0588754	-8.76	0.000	631452	399475
lf	1.327293	.2186896	6.07	0.000	.8964597	1.758126
kmwire	.3594247	.0430594	8.35	0.000	.2745947	.4442546

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Extended dataset with the cluster correction

. semipar to wage poap puc kwh life lf kmwire, nonpar(cust) cluster(id)

R-squared = 0.5866 Adj R-squared = 0.5744 Root MSE = 0.1256

243

Number of obs =

tc	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
wage	.6889357	.3076639	2.24	0.028	.076665	1.301206
pcap	.5102208	.0632224	8.07	0.000	.3844043	.6360374
puc	0692528	.031856	-2.17	0.033	1326482	0058573
kwh	.0222381	.088764	0.25	0.803	1544078	.1988841
life	5154635	.100355	-5.14	0.000	7151762	3157508
1f	1.327293	.3579018	3.71	0.000	.6150456	2.03954
kmwire	.3594247	.0688593	5.22	0.000	.2223902	.4964591

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Dealing with endogeneity

Standard IV

Introduction

- We have a model $y = X\beta + \varepsilon$ where $E(\varepsilon|X) \neq 0$
- We need to find relevant and exogenous instruments W and estimate $\hat{\beta}_{IV} = (X'P_WX)^{-1}X'P_Wy$
- $P_W = W(W'W)^{-1}W'$ is the part of X explained by W i.e. OLS fitted values from $X = W + \nu$
- Equivalently, $\hat{\beta}_{IV} = (X'X)^{-1} X'y$ of the model $y = X\beta + \gamma \hat{v} + \varepsilon$ (CFA)



Dealing with endogeneity in the parametric part

Semiparametric IV

Introduction

- We have a model $y = X\beta + m(z) + \varepsilon$ where $E(\varepsilon|X) \neq 0$ but $E(\varepsilon|z) = 0$
- The double residual estimator is an OLS estimation of

$$\underbrace{y - \widehat{E(y|z)}}_{\widetilde{y}} = \underbrace{\left(X - \widehat{E(X|z)}\right)}_{\widetilde{X}} \beta + \varepsilon$$

We therefore have that

$$\hat{\beta} = (\tilde{X}' P_W \tilde{X})^{-1} \tilde{X}' P_W \tilde{y}$$

$$V(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2 (\tilde{X}' P_W \tilde{X})^{-1}$$



Dealing with endogeneity in the non-parametric part

Semiparametric IV

Introduction

- ullet We have a model y=Xeta+m(z)+arepsilon where E(arepsilon|X)=0 but E(arepsilon|z)
 eq 0
- For the double residual estimator, take the expected value conditioning on z: $E(y|z) = E(X|z)\beta + m(z) + \underbrace{E(\varepsilon|z)}_{\neq 0}$
- However in this case E(y|z) and E(X|z) cannot be consistently estimated using a nonparametric regression since z is endogenous
- An appealing solution would be to condition on W: $E(y|W) = E(X|W)\beta + E(m(z)|W) + E(\varepsilon|W)$ but in this case the non-parametric part does not cancel out
- It is a complicated problem!

Dealing with endogeneity in the non-parametric part

Semiparametric IV

Introduction

- Assume that W is correlated to z, not to ε , such that $z=W\pi+\nu$ and $E(\nu|W)=0$
- If $E\left(\varepsilon|z,\nu\right)=\rho\nu$, then $\varepsilon=\rho\nu+\eta$ and the partially linear model becomes $y=X\beta+m(z)+\rho\nu+\eta$
- Applying the double residual principle, we have $y E(y|z) = (X E(X|z)) \beta + \rho (\nu E(\nu|z)) + \eta$
- ν should be estimated using the residuals fitted from $z=W\pi+\nu$ (i.e. the first stage of IV)

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Dealing with endogeneity in the non-parametric part

Stata example

Let's reproduce the return-to-education example of Wooldridge as presented in ivreg2.sthlp

bcuse/mroz.dta

First Stage

- reg educ age kidslt6 kidsge6 exper expersq
- predict res, res

Second stage

• bootstrap: semipar lwage exper experso res, nonpar(educ) nograph



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Dealing with endogeneity in the non-parametric part

Stata example - first stage

```
. reg educ age kidslt6 kidsge6 exper expersq
```

Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs		753 7.31
Model	182.382773	5 36	. 4765545		Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	3727.65707	747 4.	.9901701		R-squared Adj R-squared		0.0466
Total	3910.03984	752 5.1	19952106		Root MSE	= :	2.2339
educ	Coef.	Std. Err	. t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Int	erval]
age	0397596	.0126845	-3.13	0.002	064661	0	148582
kidslt6	.3237357	.1746409	1.85	0.064	0191097	.6	665812
kidsge6	1630517	.0686703	-2.37	0.018	2978615	0	282419
exper	.0942983	.0293858	3.21	0.001	.0366097		151987
expersq	0022822	.0009627	-2.37	0.018	0041721	0	003923
_cons	13.52568	.631423	21.42	0.000	12.2861	14	.76525



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Dealing with endogeneity on the non-parametric part

Stata example - second stage

. bootstrap: semipar lwage exper expersq res, nonpar(educ) nograph (running semipar on estimation sample)

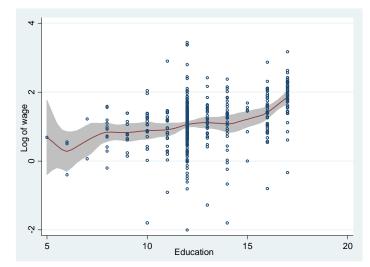
```
Bootstrap replications (50)
----+-- 1 ---+-- 2 ---+-- 3 ---+-- 4 ---+-- 5
```

......50

lwage	Observed Coef.	Bootstrap Std. Err.	z	Normal-base $z P> z [95\% \text{ Conf. In}]$		
exper	.041717	.0168872	2.47	0.013	.0086187	.0748152
expersq	0007824	.0004895	-1.60	0.110	0017418	.000177
res	0020053	.0983329	-0.02	0.984	1947342	.1907236

Introduction

Endogeneity



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Dealing with unobserved heterogeneity

Panel data

Panel data

- Consider a general panel data semiparametric model $y_{i,\tau} = x_{i,\tau}^t \beta + m(z_{i,\tau}) + \alpha_i + \varepsilon_{i,\tau}, \quad i = 1, ..., n; \tau = 1, ..., T$
- A first difference estimator would be $\Delta y_{i,\tau} = \Delta x_{i,\tau}^t \beta + [m(z_{i,\tau}) - m(z_{i,\tau-1})] + \Delta \varepsilon_{i,\tau}$
- Baltagi and Li (2002) show that $[m(z_{i\tau}) m(z_{i\tau-1})]$ can be estimated by series estimator $[p^k(z_{i\; au}) - p^k(z_{i\; au-1})]\gamma$ and suggest fitting

$$\Delta y_{i,\tau} = \Delta x_{i,\tau}^{t} \beta + [p^{k}(z_{i,\tau}) - p^{k}(z_{i,\tau-1})] \gamma + \Delta \varepsilon_{i,\tau}$$

• Having estimated $\hat{\beta}$, it is easy to fit the fixed effects $\hat{\alpha}_i$ and estimate the error component residual $\hat{u}_{i\tau} = y_{i\tau} - x_{i\tau}^t \hat{\beta} - \hat{\alpha}_i = m(z_{i\tau}) + \varepsilon_{i\tau}.$

• The curve m can be fitted by regressing $\hat{u}_{i,\tau}$ on $z_{i,\tau}$ using some standard non-parametric regression estimator.

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Dealing with unobserved heterogeneity

Simple example

Introduction

Panel data

- set obs 1000
- drawnorm x1-x3 e
- gen d=round(uniform()*250)
- replace $x3=x3+d/100 \implies corr(d,x3)=0.55$
- \bullet gen y=x1+x2+x3+x3^2+d+e
- bysort d: gen t=_n
- tsset d t
- xtsemipar y x1 x2, nonpar(x3)



Dealing with unobserved heterogeneity

Simple example

Introduction

Panel data

```
. xtsemipar y x1 x2, nonpar(x3)

Number of obs = 754
Within R-squared = 0.9515
Adj Within R-squared = 0.9511
Root MSE = 1.4122

y | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| [95% Conf. Interval]

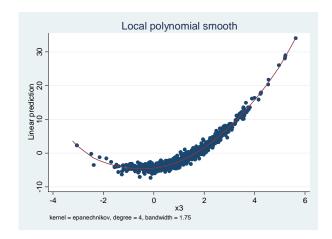
x1 | .9098837  .0370427  24.56  0.000  .8371636  .9826037
x2 | 1.011729  .0356399  28.39  0.000  .9417624  1.081695
```

Dealing with unobserved heterogeneity

Simple example

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Panel data





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Marginal effect

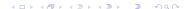
Presenting the results

- To get an idea of the marginal effects, we could look at the first derivative of the estimated function on each point.
- Stata function dydx is very useful here (beware of repeated values)

Example

```
semipar price weight, nonpar(mpg) gen(party) ci
bysort mpg: gen ok=(_n==1)
dydx party mpg if ok==1, gen(fprim)
bysort mpg: replace fprim=fprim[1]
```

twoway (line fprim mpg)

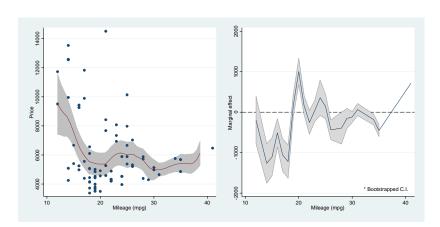


Stata Semipar Heteroskedasticity Endogeneity Heterogeneity Mfx Single index 0 Marginal effect

Marginal effect

Introduction

Plotting the marginal effects



Single index models

Single index models

- Defined as: $y = g(X\beta) + \varepsilon$
- In terms of rates of convergence it is as accurate as a parametric model for the estimation of β and as accurate as a one-dimensional nonparametric model for the estimation of $g(\cdot)$
- The specification is more flexible than a parametric model and avoids the curse of dimensionality
- \bullet $g(\cdot)$ is analogous to a link function in a generalized linear model, except that it is unknown and must be estimated.
- The conditional mean function is $E(y|X) = g(X\beta)$
 - Ichimura (1993) SLS
 - Klein and Spady (1993) Binary choice estimator



Single index models

Introduction

Ichimura (1993) semiparametric least squares

- The single index regression model is: $y = g(X\beta) + \varepsilon$
- If $g(\cdot)$ were known, β could be estimated by NLS:

$$\hat{\beta} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - g(x_i^t \beta) \right)^2$$

- ullet Since $g(\cdot)$ is unknown, Ichimura suggests replacing $g(\cdot)$ with a leave-one-out Nadaraya-Watson estimator of $g(\cdot)$
- The coefficient of one continuous variable is set to 1. Such a normalization is required because rescaling of the vector β by a constant and a similar rescaling of the function g by the inverse of the constant will produce the same regression function.
- sls.ado available from Michael Barker upon request

Single index models

Introduction

Klein and Spady (1993) semiparametric binary choice estimator

- ullet The single index regression model is: y=1(g(Xeta)+arepsilon>0)
- ullet If $g(\cdot)$ were known, you could estimate eta by ML:

$$\hat{\beta} = rg \max_{eta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i \ln \left(g(x_i^t eta) \right) + (1 - y_i) \ln \left(1 - g(x_i^t eta) \right) \right)$$

- ullet Since $g(\cdot)$ is unknown, Klein and Spady suggest replacing $g(\cdot)$ with a leave-one-out Nadaraya-Watson estimator of $g(\cdot)$
- In the context of binary choice, Klein and Spady estimator is preferable to Ichimura's as it can be shown to be more efficient.
- sml.ado



Single index models

Introduction

Simple example - Klein and Spady

- set obs 1000
- drawnorm x1 x2 x3 e
- gen y=x1+x2+x3+e>0
- sml y x*
- matrix B=e(b)
- matrix V=e(V)
- predict Xb
- lpoly y Xb, gen(F) at(Xb) gaussian

Note: Here $g(\cdot) = F(\cdot)$



Single index models

Introduction

Single Index

Simple example - Klein and Spady

```
. sml v x*
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -355.3734
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -355.33626
SML Estimator - Klein & Spady (1993)
                                        Number of obs
                                                           1000
                                                      = 23.00
                                         Wald chi2(3)
                                         Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Log likelihood = -355.33626
        y | Coef. Std. Err. z P>|z| [95% Conf. Interval]
        x1 | 1.018119 .2221681 4.58 0.000 .5826774 1.453561
        x2 | 1.034679 .2210081 4.68 0.000 .6015106 1.467847
                              4.70 0.000
           .9120784
                      .1939964
                                               .5318524
```

```
. matrix B=e(b)
```

[.] matrix V=e(V)

[.] predict Xb

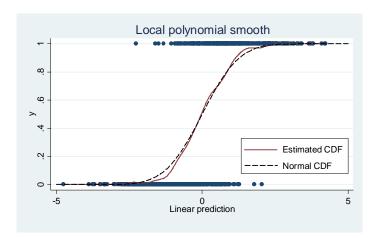
[.] lpoly y Xb, gen(F) at(Xb) gaussian

Single index models

Introduction

Single Index

Simple example - Klein and Spady





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Single Index Model - Klein and Spady

Marginal effects

$$extit{mfx}: rac{\partial p(y=1)}{\partial X_j} = rac{\partial F(Xeta)}{\partial X_j} = rac{\partial F(Xeta)}{\partial (Xeta)} rac{\partial (Xeta)}{\partial X_j} = f(Xeta)eta_j$$

In Stata

Introduction

Single Index

```
dydx F Xb, gen(f)
local j 0
foreach var of varlist x1 x2 x3 {
local j='j'+1
gen margin'var'=f*B[1,'j']
}
matrix M=J(3,3,0)
```

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Single index models

Simple example - Ichimura

marginx1 .19322335 marginx2 .18357503

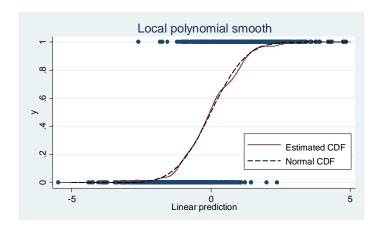
"margins, dydx(*) predict(ey) force" should work as well but beware of S.E.

Single index models

Introduction

Single Index

Simple example - Ichimura



Conclusion

Single Index

Conclusion

- Stata has several semi-parametric and semi-non-parametric estimators readily available
- The practical implementation is easy and fast
- These estimators are much more flexible than pure parametric models and at the same time do not suffer from the curse of dimensionality
- Most of the violations of the Gauss-Markov assumption can be easily tackled
- Some work is still needed to make the marginal effects available after the estimations

References

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References

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Stata Commands

Available in Standard 13

- fracpoly, mfp (Fractional polynomials)
- mvrs, mkspline (Splines)

Available from SSC

- bspline (Basis splines) Roger Newson
- pspline (Penalized Splines) Ben Jann and Roberto Gutierrez
- xtsemipar (Baltagi and Li's F.E. estimator)
- semipar (Robinson's double residual estimator)
- plreg (Yatchew's difference estimator) Michael Lokshin
- gam (Generalized additive models) Patrick Royston and Gareth Ambler

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Available form Stata Journal

• sml (Klein and spady's estimator) - Giuseppe De Luca

Available from the author upon request

• sls (Ichimura's estimator) - Michael Barker