

Conditional Expectation Functions

Econometrics II

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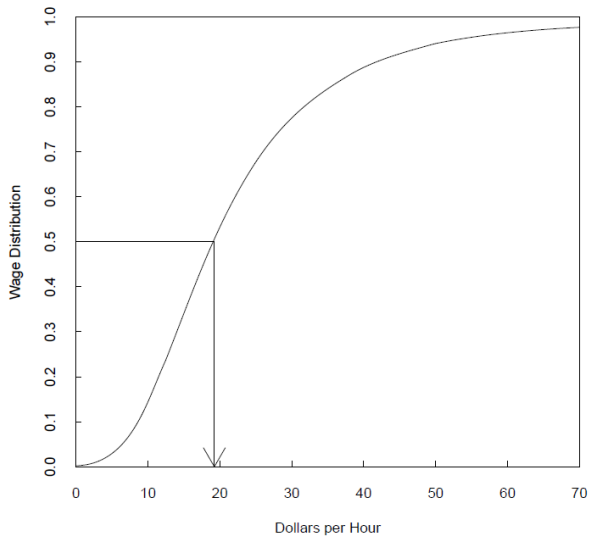
Overview

Reference: B. Hansen Econometrics Chapters 1 and 2.0 - 2.8

- most commonly applied econometrics tool
 - ▶ least-squares estimation (regression)
- tool to estimate
 - ▶ approximate conditional mean of dependent variable
 - ▶ as a function of covariates (regressors)
 - ▶ $(y, x_1, \dots, x_K) := (y, x^T)$
- data is observational *not* experimental
 - ▶ causality is difficult to infer
- example - wages
 - ▶ random variable before measurement
 - ▶ observed wages are outcomes of the random variable
 - ▶ underpins the application of statistics to economics

Distribution of Wages

- probability distribution
 - ▶ $F(u) = \mathbb{P}(\text{wage} \leq u)$
- median - measure of location (central tendency)
 - ▶ If F is continuous, m uniquely solves $F(m) = \frac{1}{2}$
 - ▶ Otherwise, $m = \inf \left\{ u : F(u) \geq \frac{1}{2} \right\}$
 - ▶ not a linear operator, some calculations are tricky
 - ▶ robust to tail perturbations
- nonparametric distribution estimate (following slide)
 - ▶ 50,742 full-time non-military wage earners March 2009 CPS
 - ▶ $\hat{m} = \$19.23$



Quantiles

a useful way to summarize a probability distribution

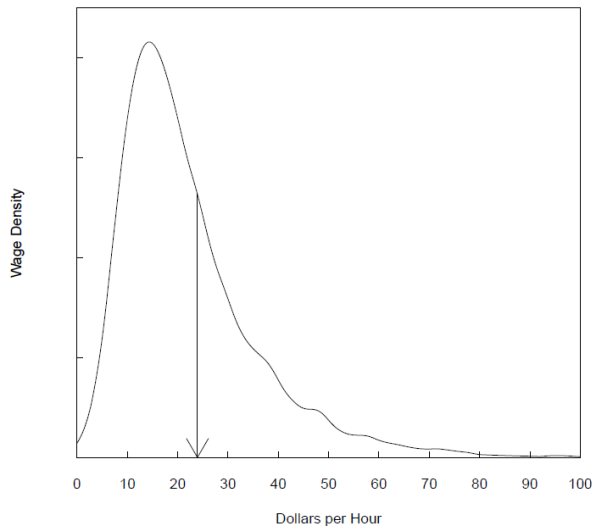
- for any $\alpha \in (0, 1)$, the α^{th} quantile is
 - ▶ If F is continuous, q_α uniquely solves $F(q_\alpha) = \alpha$
 - ▶ Otherwise, $q_\alpha = \inf \{u : F(u) \geq \alpha\}$
 - ▶ $q_{0.5} = m$
- quantile function, q_α , viewed as a function of α is the inverse of F
- if α is represented in percentage terms (10% instead of .1), quantiles are referred to as percentiles
 - ▶ $q_{0.5} = m$ is called the 50th percentile
 - ▶ $q_{0.9}$ is called the 90th percentile

Density of Wages

If F is differentiable, density function exists

$$f(u) = \frac{d}{du} F(u)$$

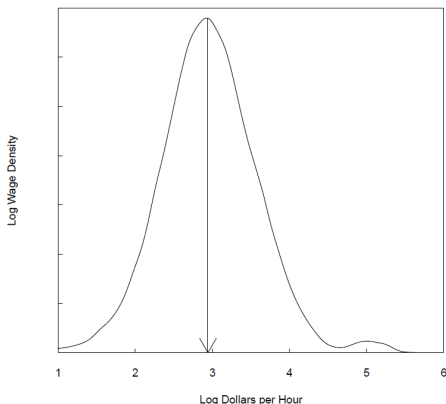
- $F(u)$ and $f(u)$ contain the same information
- density is easier to interpret visually
- mean - measure of location
 - ▶ if F is continuous, $\mu := \mathbb{E}(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} uf(u) du$
 - ▶ formal definition, 240A Lecture on Random Variables and Distributions
 - ▶ linear operator, not robust
- nonparametric density estimate for wages (following slide)
- $\hat{\mu} = \$23.90$
- data are skew, 64% of workers earn less than $\hat{\mu}$



Density of Log Wage

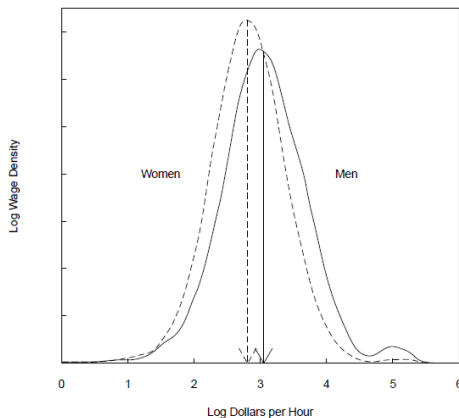
gains can be made by taking the natural logarithm of wages

- skewness and thick tails can be reduced
- $\hat{\mu}$ for log wage is a much better measure of central tendency



Conditional Expectations

Is the wage distribution the same for all workers?



Toolkit: Log Differences

If y^* is $c\%$ greater than y

$$\begin{aligned}y^* &= \left(1 + \frac{c}{100}\right) y \\ \log y^* - \log y &= \log \left(1 + \frac{c}{100}\right) \approx \frac{c}{100}\end{aligned}$$

key logic $\log(1 + x) \approx x$

- example: $100 * (\log w - \log z) = c$
 - ▶ then w is approximately $c\%$ larger than z
 - ▶ approximation is quite good for $|c| \leq 10$

Approximation Accuracy

Gender and Race

- conditional means reduce distributions to a single summary measure
 - ▶ primary focus of regression analysis
 - ▶ major focus of econometrics

Conditional Means

	White	Black	Other
Men	3.07	2.86	3.03
Women	2.82	2.73	2.86

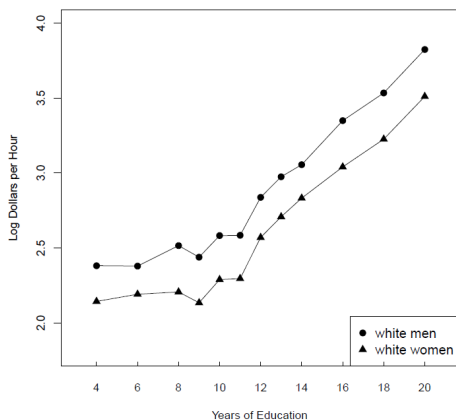
- male-female wage gap
 - ▶ 25% for whites 13% for blacks
- black-white wage gap
 - ▶ 21% for men 9% for women

Education

after 9 years, conditional mean increases at a different rate

male-female gap is constant across education levels

- constant percentage difference in wages



Conditional Expectation Function

Discrete Conditioning Variables

CEF

$$\mathbb{E}(\log(\text{wage}) | \text{gender}, \text{race}, \text{education})$$

simplify notation

$$\mathbb{E}(y | x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) = m(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$$

for $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)^T$

$$\mathbb{E}(y | x) = m(x)$$

- CEF $\mathbb{E}(y | x)$ is a random variable because it is a function of x
- given x , it is not random

$$\mathbb{E}(\log(\text{wage}) | \text{gender} = \text{man}, \text{race} = \text{white}, \text{education} = 12) = 2.84$$

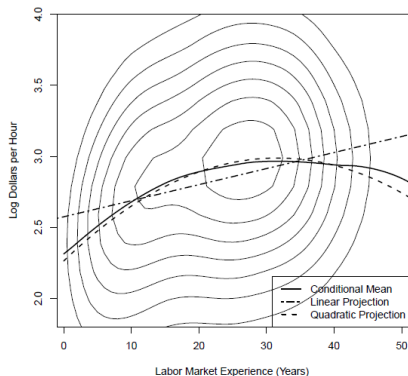
Conditional Expectation Function

Continuous Variables with Joint Density Function

$f(y, x)$ is the joint density function for (y, x)

- $y = \log(\text{wage})$ $x = \text{experience}$

for white men with 12 years of education contours of $f(y, x)$ are

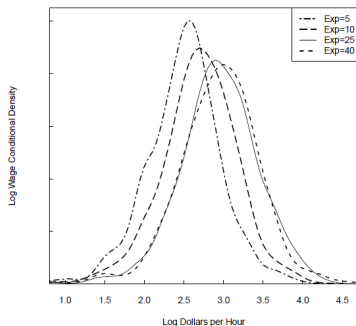


Conditional Density

a "slice" of the joint density contours yields the conditional density
shifts right and becomes more diffuse as experience increases

little change as experience increases past 25 years

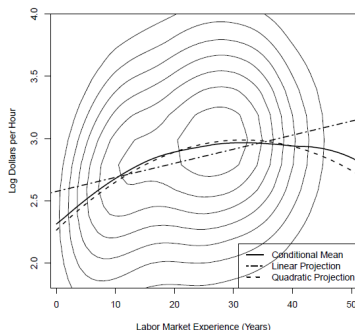
the conditional density is denoted $f_{y|x}(y|x)$ Conditional Density



Conditional Expectation Function

$$m(x) := \mathbb{E}(y|x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_{y|x}(y|x) dy$$

- mean of idealized subpopulation with value x
 - ▶ x continuous implies this subpopulation is infinitely small
- conditional mean (CEF) is nonlinear



Error

define: CEF error $e = y - m(x)$

$$y = m(x) + e$$
$$\mathbb{E}(e|x) = 0$$

note, $\mathbb{E}(e|x) = 0$ is not a restriction, these equations hold by definition

Error Properties Theorem: (derived from $f(y, x)$)

- ① $\mathbb{E}(e|x) = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(e) = 0$
- ② $\mathbb{E}(h(x)e) = 0$ if $\mathbb{E}|h(x)e| < \infty$
- ③ $\mathbb{E}|y|^r < \infty \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}|e|^r < \infty$ ($r \geq 1$)

Error Properties

1. $\mathbb{E}(e|x) = 0$

- *not* a restriction, but a definition
- called mean independence
 - ▶ mean independence \nRightarrow independence
 - ▶ $e = x\epsilon$ with $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ independent of $x \Rightarrow e|x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, x^2)$
 - ▶ empirics : e and x are rarely assumed independent

2. $\mathbb{E}(h(x)e) = 0$

- e is uncorrelated with any function of the covariates

3. $\mathbb{E}|y|^r < \infty \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}|e|^r < \infty$

- $\mathbb{E}y^2 < \infty \Rightarrow \text{Var}(e) < \infty$

Toolkit: Law of Iterated Expectations

To show property 1

Simple Law

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(y|x)) = \mathbb{E}(y) \quad \text{if } \mathbb{E}(y) < \infty$$

note $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(y|x)) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E}(y|x) f_x(x) dx$

General Law (allows for 2 sets of conditioning variables)

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(y|x_1, x_2) | x_1) = \mathbb{E}(y|x_1) \quad \text{if } \mathbb{E}(y) < \infty$$

- "smaller information set wins"

Toolkit: Conditional to Unconditional Moments

Compare density of $\log(\text{wage})$ to conditional densities for men and women

Mean

$$\mathbb{E}(y) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(y|x))$$

Variance

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(y) &= \mathbb{E}(\text{Var}(y|x)) + \text{Var}(\mathbb{E}(y|x)) \\ &\neq \mathbb{E}(\text{Var}(y|x))\end{aligned}$$

- to emphasize this, consider the case in which the conditional variance for men and women are the same
- for e , where $\mathbb{E}(e|x) = 0$

$$\text{Var}(e) = \mathbb{E}(\text{Var}(e|x))$$

Toolkit: Conditioning Theorem

To show property 2

condition on $x \rightarrow$ effectively treat x as constant

Simple Property

$$\mathbb{E}(g(x)|x) = g(x) \quad \text{for any function } g(\cdot)$$

example $\mathbb{E}(x|x) = x$

General Property (allows for an additional random variable)

$$\mathbb{E}(g(x)y|x) = g(x)\mathbb{E}(y|x)$$

$$\mathbb{E}(g(x)y) = \mathbb{E}(g(x)\mathbb{E}(y|x))$$

Proofs

- 1 Proof of Simple LIE
- 2 Proof of General LIE
- 3 Proof of Conditioning Theorems
- 4 Proof of Error Properties Theorem

Review

- Implication of observational data?
- causality is difficult to infer

Should we model $\mathbb{E}(y|x)$ as linear in x ?

- no

What are the key properties of $e = y - \mathbb{E}(y|x)$?

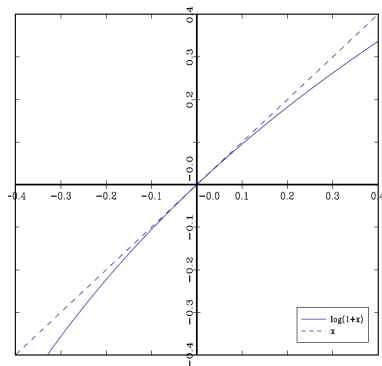
- $\mathbb{E}(e|x) = 0$ (by construction)
- uncorrelated with any function of x

Approximation Accuracy

Taylor Series expansion

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \dots = x + O(x^2) \approx x$$

highly accurate if $|x| \leq .1$



Landau Notation (Big O)

we say $f(x) = O(g(x))$ as $x \rightarrow 0$ if

$$|f(x)| \leq M |g(x)| \text{ for all } x \leq x_0$$

Consider $f(x) = -\frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3$

$$\left| -\frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 \right| \leq \frac{1}{2} |x^2| + \frac{1}{3} |x^3|$$

for suitably chosen x_0 , if $x \leq x_0$

$$\frac{1}{2} |x^2| + \frac{1}{3} |x^3| \leq \frac{1}{2} |x^2| + \frac{1}{3} |x^2| = \frac{5}{6} x^2$$

so $f(x) = O(x^2)$ as $x \rightarrow 0$

Return to Log Wage

Definition of Conditional Density

- if (y, x) have joint density $f(y, x)$ then
 - ▶ x has marginal density

$$f_x(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y, x) dy$$

- for any x such that $f_x(x) > 0$, the conditional density of y given x is defined as

$$f_{y|x}(y|x) = \frac{f(y, x)}{f_x(x)}$$

- consider $f(\log(\text{wage})|\text{experience} = 5)$

$$\frac{f(y, x = 5)}{\mathbb{P}(x = 5)} \quad \begin{array}{l} \leftarrow \text{the "slice"} \\ \leftarrow \text{the scale factor} \end{array}$$

- ▶ if there are fewer individuals with 5 years of experience than with 10 years of experience, the higher conditional density could correspond to workers with 5 years of experience, even if the joint density is higher for workers with 10 years of experience

Return to Conditional Density

Proof of Simple Law of Iterated Expectations

Simple LIE: $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(y|x)) = \mathbb{E}(y)$

- assume (y, x) have joint density $f(y, x)$ (for convenience)
 - ▶ $\mathbb{E}(y|x)$ is a function of the random variable x only
 - ▶ to calculate its expectation, integrate with respect to the density $f_x(x)$ of x

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(y|x)) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \mathbb{E}(y|x) f_x(x) dx$$

- ▶ which equals (by substitution and by noting that $f_{y|x}(y|x) f_x(x) = f(y, x)$)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_{y|x}(y|x) dy \right) f_x(x) dx &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_{y,x}(y, x) dy dx \\ &= \mathbb{E}(y), \end{aligned}$$

because $\int_{\mathbb{R}^k} f_{y,x}(y, x) dx = f_y(y)$. ■

Return to Proofs

Proof of General Law of Iterated Expectations

General LIE: $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(y|x_1, x_2) | x_1) = \mathbb{E}(y|x_1)$

- assume (y, x_1, x_2) have joint density $f(y, x_1, x_2)$ (for convenience)
 - ▶ $\mathbb{E}(y|x_1, x_2)$ is a function of the random variables x_1 and x_2
 - ▶ integrate with respect to the density of x_2 given x_1

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(y|x_1, x_2) | x_1) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{k_2}} \mathbb{E}(y|x_1, x_2) f(x_2|x_1) dx_2 \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{k_2}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} y f(y|x_1, x_2) dy \right) f(x_2|x_1) dx_2\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ note that $f(y|x_1, x_2) f(x_2|x_1) = \frac{f(y, x_1, x_2)}{f(x_1, x_2)} \frac{f(x_1, x_2)}{f(x_1)} = f(y, x_2|x_1)$, so

$$\begin{aligned}&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{k_2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f(y, x_2|x_1) dy dx_2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}(y|x_1),\end{aligned}$$

the mean of y given the value of x_1 . ■

Return to Proofs

Proof of Conditioning Theorems

General CT 1: $\mathbb{E}(g(x)y|x) = g(x)\mathbb{E}(y|x)$

- assume (y, x_1, x_2) have joint density $f(y, x_1, x_2)$ (for convenience)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(g(x)y|x) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x)y f_{y|x}(y|x) dy \\ &= g(x) \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_{y|x}(y|x) dy \\ &= g(x) \mathbb{E}(y|x),\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbb{E}|g(x)y| < \infty$ is needed to ensure the first equality is well defined. ■

General CT 2: $\mathbb{E}(g(x)y) = \mathbb{E}(g(x)\mathbb{E}(y|x))$

- Proof: application of simple LIE. ■

Return to Proofs

Proof of Error Properties Theorem

Parts 1 and 2 follow trivially

$$\text{Part 3: } \mathbb{E} |y|^r < \infty \Rightarrow \mathbb{E} |e|^r < \infty \quad (r \geq 1)$$

- $e = y - m(x)$
- $(\mathbb{E} |e|^r)^{1/r} = (\mathbb{E} |y - m(x)|^r)^{1/r}$
 - ▶ $(\mathbb{E} |y - m(x)|^r)^{1/r} \leq (\mathbb{E} |y|^r)^{1/r} + (\mathbb{E} |m(x)|^r)^{1/r}$ (Minkowski's Inequality - generalizes Triangle Inequality)
 - ★ $\mathbb{E} |\mathbb{E}(y|x)|^r \leq \mathbb{E} |y|^r$ for any $r \geq 1$ (Conditional Expectation Inequality)
 - ▶ the two parts on the right are finite by $\mathbb{E} |y|^r < \infty$
- $(\mathbb{E} |e|^r)^{1/r} < \infty$ implies $\mathbb{E} |e|^r < \infty$. ■

Background : Triangle Inequality

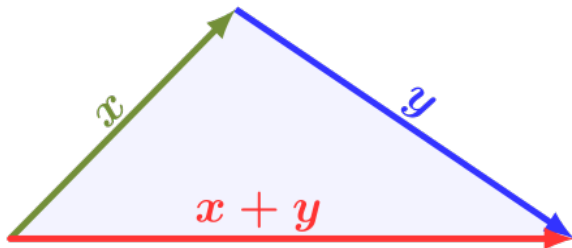
Let x and y be real numbers. The triangle inequality is

$$|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|.$$

• Proof

- ▶ $x + y \leq |x| + |y|$
- ▶ $-(x + y) = (-x) + (-y) \leq |x| + |y|$
- ▶ $|x + y| \leq \max\{-(x + y), x + y\}$ ■

To understand why it is called the triangle inequality, let x and y be vectors



Background : Triangle Inequality for a Random Variable

- Let x be a random variable
 - ▶ for convenience, x is a discrete random variable
 - ▶ set of possible values $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$
 - ▶ with probabilities $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$

The triangle inequality is

$$|\mathbb{E}x| \leq \mathbb{E}|x|.$$

- Proof

- ▶ $|\sum_{i=1}^n x_i p_i| \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i p_i| = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| p_i$ ■

Return to Proofs