

Econometrics II

Lecture 2: Estimation Principles

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April 4, 2024

Plan for Today

- 1 General Estimation Principles
 - Extremum Estimation
 - Examples of Extremum Estimators
- 2 Linear Regression Mechanics
 - The Relationship Between CEF and OLS
 - Using OLS to Estimate Means
- 3 Nonparametric Estimation and Visualization
 - Kernel Estimation
 - Applied Nonparametric CEF Estimation
- 4 Appendix: Semi-Parametric Efficiency of OLS

Estimation Principles

- Last lecture: what can be learned?
- Today: how best to learn it?
- Goal is to find θ : *parameter, estimand, population estimator*
- We do so using $\hat{\theta}$: *(sample) estimator*
- “Best” meaning:
 - Unbiased: $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$
 - Consistent: $\hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{P} \theta$
 - Efficient: $\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})$ as small as possible (but no smaller)
- Begin with *extremum estimators*
 - Covers large class of nonlinear estimators
 - Useful to illustrate general estimation principles

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Extremum Estimation

- Let \mathbf{Z}_i be a matrix of data on i , e.g. $\mathbf{Z}_i = (Y_i, D_i, \mathbf{X}_i)$
- Want to maximize *population objective* $Q_0(\theta)$
- $\theta \in \Theta$ is parameter vector
- *Sample objective*: $\hat{Q}_N(\theta, \mathbf{Z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Z}_N)$ with sample size N
- Define parameter of interest as:

$$\theta_0 = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} Q_0(\theta)$$

where we assume the max is unique

- Extremum estimator maximize sample *criterion function*:

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \hat{Q}_N(\theta)$$

Examples of Extremum Estimation

- Example 1: OLS

- $\mathbf{Z}_i = (Y_i, \mathbf{X}_i)$
- θ is projection coefficient of Y_i on \mathbf{X}_i
- $Q_0(\theta) = -\mathbb{E} \left[(Y_i - \mathbf{X}_i' \theta)^2 \right]$ and $\theta_0 = \mathbb{E} [\mathbf{X}_i \mathbf{X}_i']^{-1} \mathbb{E} [\mathbf{X}_i Y_i']$
- $\hat{Q}_N(\theta) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N (Y_i - \mathbf{X}_i' \theta)^2$

- Example 2: Nonlinear LS

- Nonlinear parametric model $\mu(\mathbf{X}_i, \theta)$ for CEF
- $Q_0(\theta) = -\mathbb{E} \left[(Y_i - \mu(\mathbf{X}_i, \theta))^2 \right]$
- $\hat{Q}_N(\theta) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \mu(\mathbf{X}_i, \theta))^2$

- But could be any estimator expressed with $Q_0(\theta)$

Consistency of Extremum Estimators

Definition (Uniform convergence in probability)

$\hat{Q}_N(\theta)$ converges uniformly to $Q_0(\theta)$ if

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \left| \hat{Q}_N(\theta) - Q_0(\theta) \right| \xrightarrow{P} 0.$$

Theorem (Consistency of Extremum Estimators)

If (i) $Q_0(\theta)$ is uniquely maximized at θ_0 , (ii) Θ is compact, (iii) $Q_0(\theta)$ is continuous, and (iv) $\hat{Q}_N(\theta)$ converges uniformly to $Q_0(\theta)$, then $\hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{P} \theta_0$.

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Extremum Estimator 1: Classical Minimum Distance

- Sample objective:

$$\widehat{Q}_N(\theta) = - [\widehat{\pi} - \mathbf{h}(\theta)]' \widehat{\mathbf{W}} [\widehat{\pi} - \mathbf{h}(\theta)] ,$$

- where $\widehat{\pi} \xrightarrow{P} \pi$ is a vector of “reduced form” moments, e.g.
 - means of some variables of interest
 - covariances (recall variance component estimation)
 - other functions of the data
- $\mathbf{h}(\theta)$ is a *structural function* from model predictions
- $\widehat{\mathbf{W}} \xrightarrow{P} \mathbf{W}$ is a symmetric weighting matrix
 - e.g. $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{I}$ or inverse variance weighting
- Hence, $\widehat{Q}_N(\theta)$: “squared distance” between data and model

Example CMD Estimation

- Example from behavioral economics: Laibson et al. (2007)
- They document two facts:
 - 1 Individuals borrow through credit cards with high interest
 - 2 Accumulate wealth by the time they retire
- What preferences can explain this behavior?
- Present bias β , discounting δ , risk aversion ρ
- Model yields, given $\theta = (\beta, \delta, \rho)$, predictions for moments:
 - 1 Share of 21-30 year olds with credit card: $h_1(\theta)$
 - 2 Share annual income borrowed with credit card: $h_2(\theta)$
 - 3 Wealth of 51-60 year olds: $h_3(\theta)$
- In the data, observe shares and wealth: $\hat{\pi}_1, \hat{\pi}_2, \hat{\pi}_3$
- Optimal choice $\hat{\theta}$ quantifies preference parameters

Extremum Estimator 2: Generalized MM

- Generalized MM sample criterion function:

$$\widehat{Q}_N(\theta) = -\widehat{\mathbf{g}}(\theta)' \widehat{\mathbf{W}} \widehat{\mathbf{g}}(\theta)$$

where $\widehat{\mathbf{g}}(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i f(\mathbf{Z}_i, \theta)$ and weights $\widehat{\mathbf{W}}$

- E.g. if $f(\mathbf{Z}_i, \theta) = (Y_i - \mathbf{X}_i' \beta) \mathbf{X}_i$ would be OLS
- Population *moment conditions*:

$$\mathbf{g}(\theta) = \mathbb{E} [f(\mathbf{Z}_i, \theta)] = 0$$

- Often originates from economic FOC
 - Euler condition in macro
 - Nash equilibrium in game

Extremum Estimator 3: Maximum Likelihood

- Call $\ell(\mathbf{Z}_i, \theta)$ the *log likelihood* of observing \mathbf{Z}_i given θ
- Sample criterion:

$$\hat{Q}_N(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \ell(\mathbf{Z}_i, \theta)$$

- Population criterion: $Q(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[\ell(\mathbf{Z}_i, \theta)]$
- Maximizing $\hat{Q}_N(\theta)$ solves:

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{Z}_i, \hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}}) = 0$$

where $\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{Z}_i, \theta) \equiv \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\mathbf{Z}_i, \theta)$ is the score

- Key element in MLE: fully characterize $f(\mathbf{Z}_i, \theta)$
- More than just (mean) independence assumptions!

Extremum Estimator 4: OLS

- Population criterion: $Q_0(\theta) = -\mathbb{E} \left[(Y_i - \mathbf{X}_i' \theta)^2 \right]$
- Sample criterion: $\hat{Q}_N(\theta) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \mathbf{X}_i' \theta)^2$
- Unlike general case, this criterion has explicit solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\theta} &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{X}_i \mathbf{X}_i' \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{X}_i Y_i \right) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}) \end{aligned}$$

for $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_N]'$ and $\mathbf{Y} = [Y_1, \dots, Y_N]'$

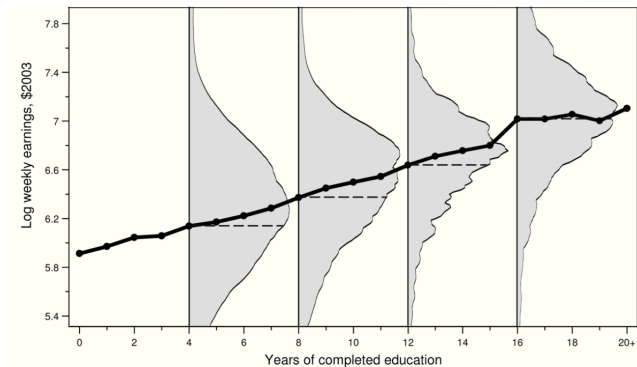
- Corresponds to model $Y_i = \mathbf{X}_i' \theta_0 + \varepsilon_i$ with restrictions
 - Specifically, $\mathbb{E}[X_i \varepsilon_i] = 0$ and $\dim(\mathbf{X}) = K$
- Under some conditions (Econometrics I), $\hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{P} \theta_0$ (consistent)
- Side note: in general, $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}] \neq \theta_0$ (biased)
 - Unless either (a) CEF is linear or (b) \mathbf{X}_i are fixed
 - This is not of great practical importance

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Reminder: CEF

- Central object to summarize data: $\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i]$
- Population average association of outcome Y_i with X_i
- Recall $\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i]$ is random but $\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i = x]$ is fixed



Why do economists love CEF and OLS? Many useful properties

The CEF Decomposition Property

Define $\varepsilon_i \equiv Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i]$. Then:

Theorem (The CEF Decomposition Property)

If we write

$$Y_i = \mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i] + \varepsilon_i$$

it holds by definition that

- (a) $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_i|X_i] = 0$, and therefore
- (b) $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_i, X_i) = 0$

→ Any Y_i can be decomposed into:

- ① A piece “explained” by X_i : the CEF
- ② A piece uncorrelated with (any function of) X_i

The CEF Prediction Property

Theorem (The CEF Prediction Property)

Let $m(X_i)$ be any function of X_i with finite second moment. The CEF solves:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i] = \arg \min_{m(X_i)} \mathbb{E} \left[(Y_i - m(X_i))^2 \right],$$

so it minimizes MSE of prediction of Y_i given X_i

→ CEF is the best function of X_i to predict Y_i

OLS Justification 1: Linear CEF Theorem

It turns out population OLS is a great estimator of the CEF

Recall population regression: $\beta_{OLS} \equiv \mathbb{E}[X_i X_i']^{-1} \mathbb{E}[X_i Y_i]$

- Defines linear projection $\mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|X_i] \equiv X_i' \beta_{OLS}$

Theorem (The Linear CEF Theorem)

Suppose the CEF is linear. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i] = \mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|X_i]$$

→ OLS is great for linear CEF. But when is it linear?

- Multivariate Normal distributions
- Saturated models (see later today): one dummy for each possible value of CEF

OLS Justification 2: Best Linear Predictor

OLS is also good at predicting $Y_i|X_i$ directly:

Theorem (The Best-Linear-Predictor Theorem)

$\mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|X_i]$ *minimizes MSE of linear prediction of Y_i given X_i*

→ CEF is best function predicting $Y_i|X_i$

→ OLS is best *linear* function predicting $Y_i|X_i$

OLS Justification 3: Regression-CEF Relationship

Even when CEF is nonlinear, OLS is still good at predicting it:

Theorem (Regression-CEF Theorem)

$\mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|X_i]$ minimizes MSE of any linear approximation of CEF, i.e.

$$\beta_{OLS} = \arg \min_b \mathbb{E} \left[(\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i] - X_i' b)^2 \right]$$

OLS Justification 4: Law of Iterated Projections

Linear projections have equivalent property to LIE:

- 1 Long regression: $\mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|W_i, Z_i] = W_i\beta + Z_i\gamma$
- 2 Short regression: $\mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|W_i] = W_i\delta$
- 3 Auxiliary regression: $\mathbb{E}^*[Z_i|W_i] = W_i\pi$

Theorem (Law of Iterated Projections)

$$\mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|W_i] = \mathbb{E}^*[\mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|W_i, Z_i]|W_i] \text{ which implies } \delta = \beta + \pi\gamma$$

Proof of implication:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|W_i] &= \mathbb{E}^*[W_i\beta + Z_i\gamma|W_i] \\ &= \mathbb{E}^*[W_i|W_i]\beta + \mathbb{E}^*[Z_i|W_i]\gamma \\ &= W_i\beta + (W_i\pi)\gamma = W_i(\beta + \pi\gamma)\end{aligned}$$

Illustration of LIP

```
clear
set seed 1234
set obs 1000
gen z = rnormal()
gen w = z + rnormal()
gen y = .5*w + .5*z + rnormal()
eststo lr:  reg y w z // long regression
local beta = _b[w]
local gamma = _b[z]
eststo sr:  reg y w // short regression
local delta = _b[w]
eststo ar:  reg z w // auxiliary regression
local pi = _b[w]
esttab lr sr ar, cells(b(fmt(a2)) se(par))
```

Results from LIP Simulation

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	y	y	z
w	0.44 (0.033)	0.76 (0.024)	0.53 (0.016)
z	0.59 (0.044)		
_cons	0.022 (0.031)	0.037 (0.034)	0.025 (0.022)
N	1000	1000	1000

- As predicted by the LIP:

$$0.76 = 0.44 + 0.53 \times 0.59$$

$$\hat{\delta} = \hat{\beta} + \hat{\pi} \times \hat{\gamma}$$

- Useful to think about omitted variable bias

OLS Justification 5: Frisch-Waugh-Lovell

- Recall the long regression: $\mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|W_i, Z_i] = W_i\beta + Z_i\gamma$
- Residuals: $\tilde{Y}_i \equiv Y_i - \mathbb{E}^*[Y_i|Z_i]$
- $\tilde{W}_i \equiv W_i - \mathbb{E}^*[W_i|Z_i]$

Theorem (Frisch-Waugh-Lovell)

$$\beta = \frac{\mathbb{E}[\tilde{W}_i \tilde{Y}_i]}{\mathbb{E}[\tilde{W}_i]^2}$$

- Recover β from long reg by running a residualized short reg
- Extremely useful to visualize conditional relationships
 - Multivariate versions of LIP and FWL also exist
 - Both are mechanical results of OLS – work in every dataset!

Illustration of FWL

```
clear
set seed 1234
set obs 1000
gen z = rnormal()
gen w = z + rnormal()
gen y = .5*w + .5*z + rnormal()
eststo lr:  reg y w z // long regression
eststo far:  reg w z // flipped auxiliary regression
predict wres, res
eststo arr:  reg y z // other short regression
predict yres, res
eststo rr:  reg yres wres // residual regression
esttab lr far arr rr, cells(b(fmt(a2)) se(par))
```

Results from FWL Simulation

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	y	w	y	yres
w	0.44 (0.033)			
z	0.59 (0.044)	0.99 (0.030)	1.03 (0.033)	
wres				0.44 (0.032)
_cons	0.022 (0.031)	-0.047 (0.030)	0.0015 (0.034)	5.4e-11 (0.031)
N	1000	1000	1000	1000

→ Useful when there are many controls

Application of FWL: Residualized Scatterplots

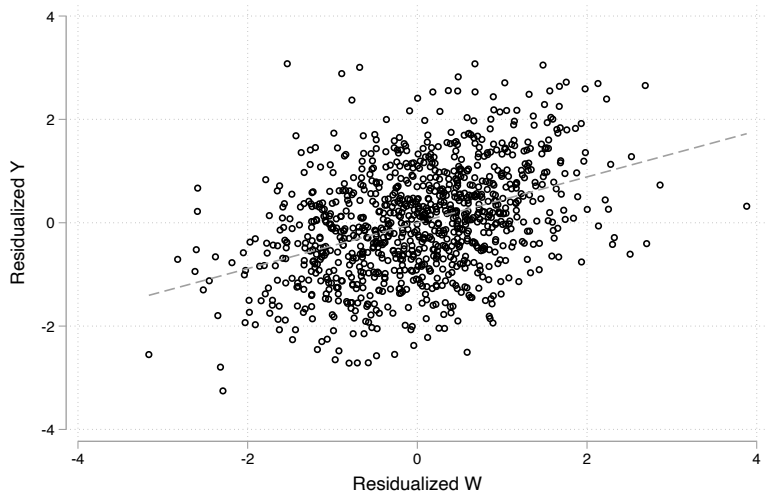


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OLS on Constant

- Important use of OLS: estimating means
- Simplest case: $Y_i = \mu + \varepsilon_i$
- Population OLS of this is $\beta_{\text{OLS}} = \mathbb{E}[Y_i]$
 - Convince yourself: $\mathbb{E}[X_i^2]^{-1} \mathbb{E}[X_i Y_i]$ with $X_i = 1$
- Sample OLS: $\hat{\beta}_{\text{OLS}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N Y_i$
 - Again good exercise to evaluate $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$
 - $N \times 1$ vectors $\mathbf{X} = (1, \dots, 1)$ and $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_N)$

Analysis of Variance

- R.A. Fisher: do means across groups differ?
- Suppose we have a sample of wages Y_i
- We also have $X_i = 1$ [foreign] and $W_i = 1$ [female]
- Suppose we run

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 W_i + \beta_3 X_i \times W_i + \varepsilon_i$$

- This is called a *saturated model*
- Number of coefficients = number of possible RHS values

	$X = 0$	$X = 1$
$W = 0$	(domestic, male)	(foreign, male)
$W = 1$	(domestic, female)	(foreign, female)

Interpreting Group Indicator Coefficients

- How do we interpret $(\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3)$?
- CEF is necessarily linear, and thus OLS = CEF
- CEF: $\mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i = x, W_i = w]$
- Specifically:

$$\beta_0 = \mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i = 0, W_i = 0]$$

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 = \mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i = 1, W_i = 0]$$

$$\beta_0 + \beta_2 = \mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i = 0, W_i = 1]$$

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3 = \mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i = 1, W_i = 1]$$

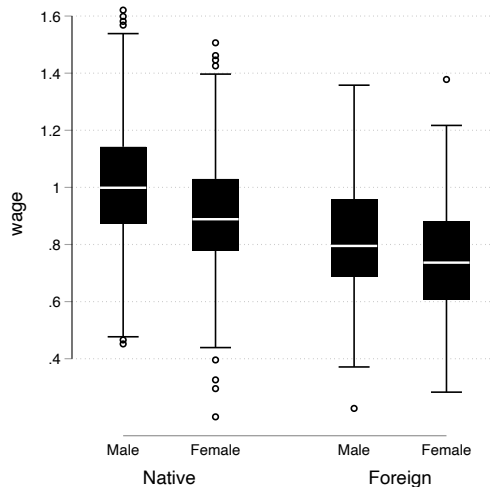
- There are other ways to parameterize same model, e.g.

$$Y_i = \gamma_0 X_i + \gamma_1 W_i + \gamma_2 (1 - X_i) \times W_i + \gamma_3 X_i \times W_i + \varepsilon_i$$

Illustration of Saturated Model

```
clear
set seed 123
set obs 1000
gen foreign = runiform() < .2
gen female = runiform() < .5
tab foreign female
gen wage = 1 - .1*female - .2*foreign + .05*foreign*female + .2*rnormal()
graph box wage, over(female, relabel(1 "Male" 2 "Female")) ///
    over(foreign, relabel(1 "Native" 2 "Foreign")) ///
    ylabel(.4(.2)1.6) xsize(4)
graph export figures/boxplot.pdf, replace
eststo sat: reg wage foreign##female
esttab sat, cells(b(fmt(2)) se(par)) ///
    keep(1.foreign 1.female 1.foreign#1.female _cons) ///
    label
```


Results from Saturated Model Simulation



	(1)
	wage
	b/se
foreign=1	-0.20 (0.02)
female=1	-0.11 (0.01)
foreign=1 × female=1	0.05 (0.03)
Constant	1.01 (0.01)
Observations	1000

Many Means

- Consider now $X_i \in \{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_J\}$ for large J (but $J < N$)
- ξ_j could be firm, or demographic group e.g. (foreign, female)
- All realizations of X_i : $\Pr(X_i = \xi_j) = \pi_j > 0$ and $\sum_j \pi_j = 1$
- We know that OLS = CEF if linear
- Thus OLS is $\mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i = x]$ for all $x \in \{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_J\}$

Method of Moments for Cell Means

- Can estimate using “cell means” (MM):

$$\hat{\mathbb{E}}[Y_i | X_i = x] = \frac{\sum_i 1[X_i = x] Y_i}{\sum_i 1[X_i = x]} = \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_i 1[X_i = x] Y_i}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_i 1[X_i = x]}$$

- With a LLN:

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_i 1[X_i = x] \xrightarrow{P} \mathbb{E}[1(X_i = x)] = \Pr(X_i = x) = \pi_j$$

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_i 1[X_i = x] Y_i \xrightarrow{P} \mathbb{E}[Y_i \cdot 1(X_i = x)] = \mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i = x] \pi_j$$

where the last step uses the LIE

OLS Estimates Cell Means

- So with continuity theorem

$$\frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_i 1[X_i = x] Y_i}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_i 1[X_i = x]} \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i = x]$$

- Compare cell means to OLS of Y_i on $1[X_i = x]$ for all x :

$$\hat{\beta}_{\text{OLS}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sum_i 1[X_i = \xi_1] Y_i}{\sum_i 1[X_i = \xi_1]} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\sum_i 1[X_i = \xi_J] Y_i}{\sum_i 1[X_i = \xi_J]} \end{bmatrix}$$

- They are the same!
- So OLS estimates cell means for many groups

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Constructing Cells with a Window

- Consider scalar X_i but continuous with density $f(x)$
- Logic from before hard because $\Pr(X_i = x) = 0$
- So how can we approximate $\mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i = x]$ best?
- We imitate the cell means logic
- Let's construct a small window $[x - h, x + h]$ for small $h > 0$
- h is called *bandwidth* or *window* – chosen/known by us

Bandwidth Estimation

- Let's estimate these “window cell means”

$$\hat{\mathbb{E}}[Y_i | X_i = x] = \frac{\sum_i 1[x - h \leq X_i \leq x + h] \cdot Y_i}{\sum_i 1[x - h \leq X_i \leq x + h]}$$

- $\hat{\mathbb{E}}[Y_i | X_i] \xrightarrow{P} \mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i]$ as N gets large and h small
- But unless $\mathbb{E}[Y_i | X_i]$ constant in window, $\hat{\mathbb{E}}[Y_i | X_i]$ biased
- On the other hand, variance increases as h shrinks
 - Intuitive: less observations in window
- Optimal h minimizing MSE infeasible: requires knowing $f(x)$
- Solution: use auxiliary density $K(x)$ (the “kernel”)

Univariate Density Estimation

- Alternative approach for $\hat{\mathbb{E}}[Y_i|X_i]$: for continuous Y_i and X_i

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i = x] = \frac{\int y f_{X,Y}(x, y) dy}{\int f_{Y,X}(y, x) dy} = \frac{\int y f_{X,Y}(x, y) dy}{f(x)}$$

so can estimate $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$ and $f(x)$ to get CEF too

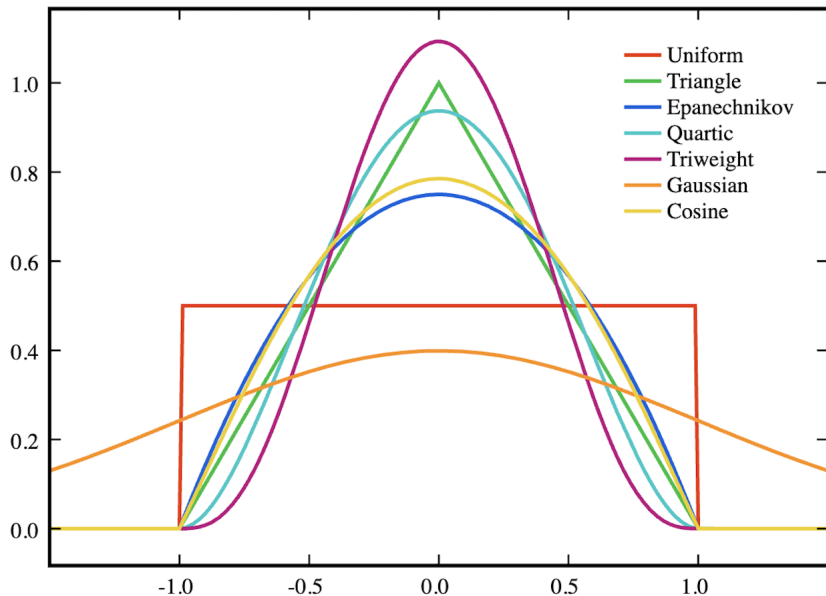
- May also be interested in $f(x)$ in its own right
- CDF $F(x) = \Pr(X_i \leq x)$ and $\hat{F}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N 1[X_i \leq x]$
- Definition of derivative: $f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h}$
- Empirical equivalent: *histogram*

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^N 1[x < X_i \leq x + h]$$

- Can use $K(\cdot)$ to construct continuous versions:

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^N K\left(\frac{x - X_i}{h}\right)$$

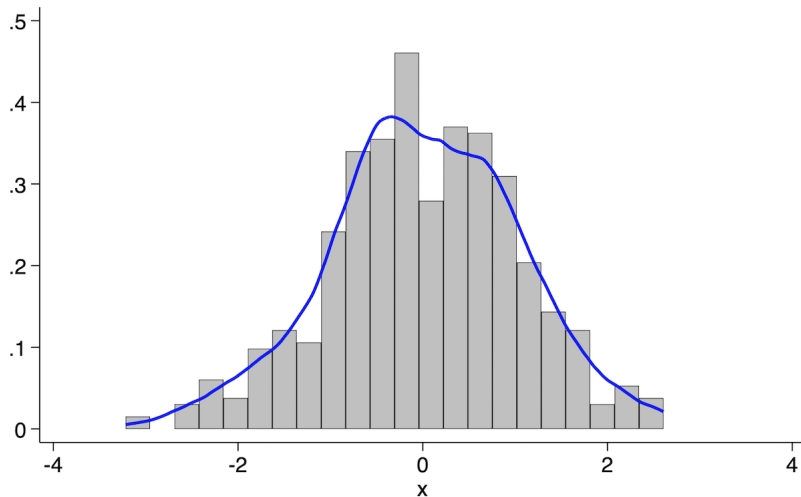
Many Choices for Smoothers $K(\cdot)$ (i.e. Kernels)



Examples of Density Estimation

```
clear
set seed 1234
set obs 500
gen x = rnormal()
tw (histogram x, fc(gs12) lw(.1)) ///
(kdensity x, lc(blue) lw(.5)), ///
legend(label(1 "Histogram") label(2 "Epanechnikov Kernel")) ///
note(Bandwidth: optimal ( 0.25))
```

Optimal Bandwidth Kernel



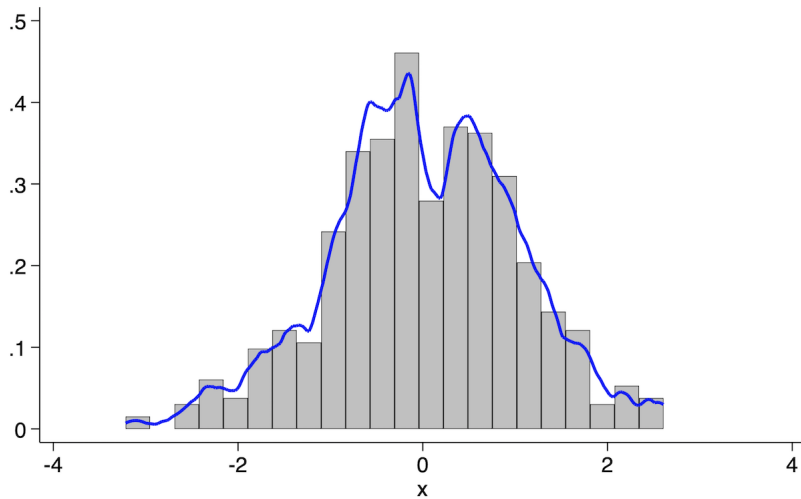
Histogram



Epanechnikov Kernel

Bandwith: optimal (~ 0.25)

Smaller Bandwidth



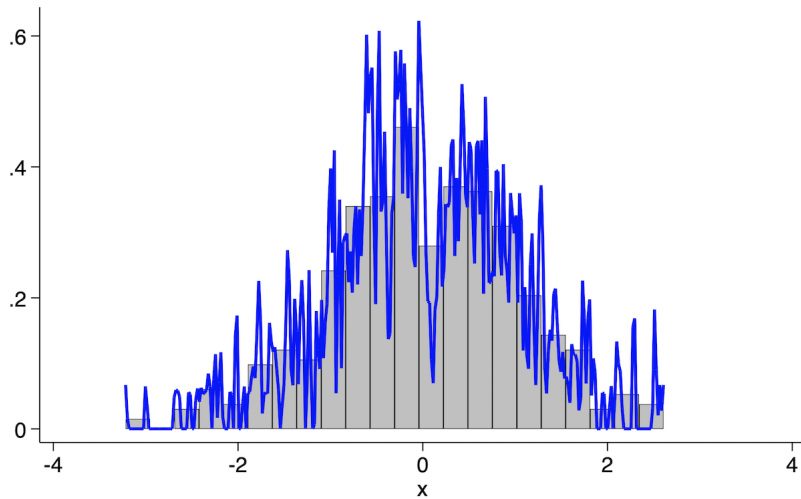
Histogram



Epanechnikov Kernel

Bandwidth: 0.1

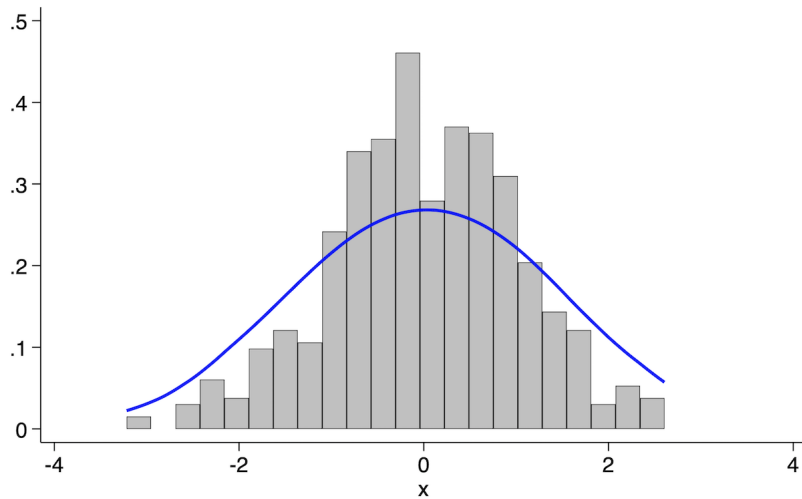
Even Smaller



 Histogram  Epanechnikov Kernel

Bandwidth: 0.01

Large Bandwidth



Histogram



Epanechnikov Kernel

Bandwidth: 1

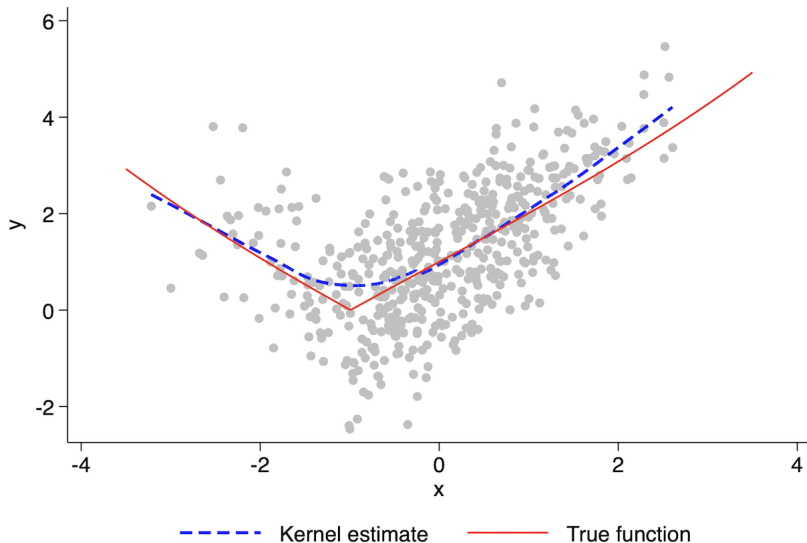
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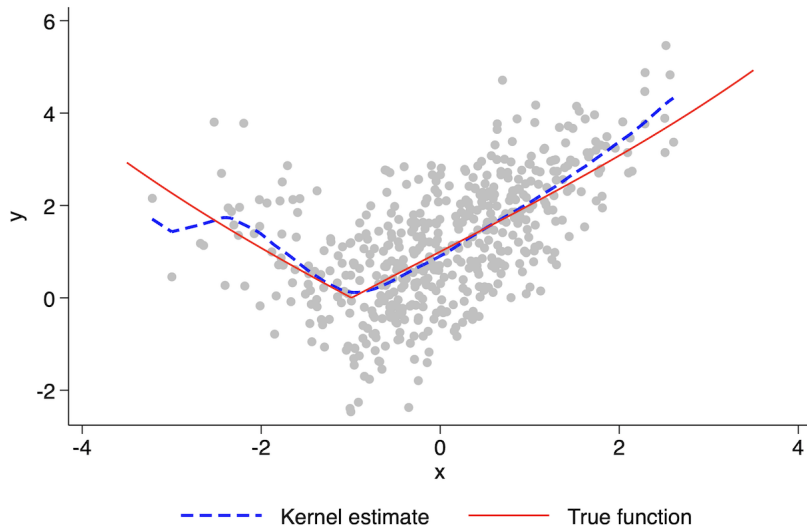
Simulating a Nonlinear CEF

```
clear
set seed 1234
set obs 500
gen x = rnormal()
gen y = abs(1 + x + .01*x^3) + rnormal()
* traditional LOWESS
lowess y x, ///
m(o) mc(gs12) lineopts(lc(blue) lw(.5)) ///
addplot(function y = abs(1 + x + .01*x^3), range(-3.5 3.5) lc(red))
///
legend(order(2 3) label(2 Kernel estimate) label(3 True function))
///
title("")
```


Locally Weighted Scatterplot Smoothing (LOWESS)

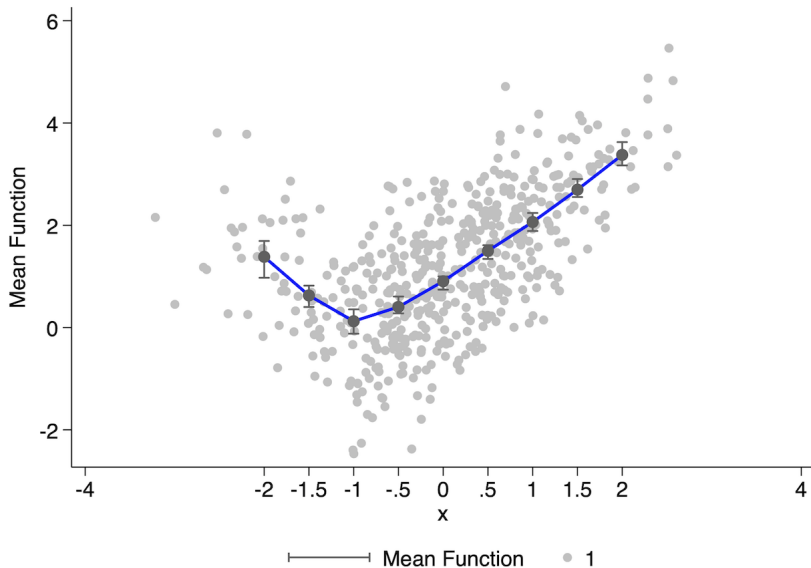


Modern Cell Means Smoother: npregress

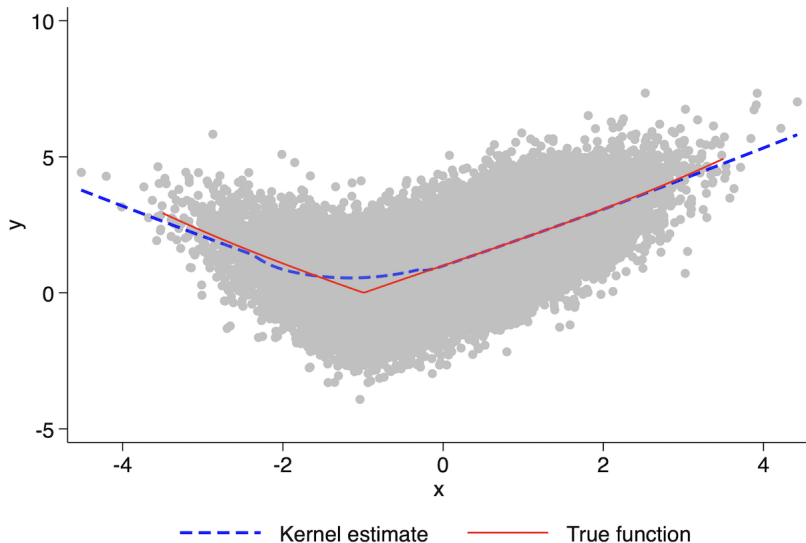


Local-linear estimates
kernel = epanechnikov bandwidth = .2965328

npregress Also Estimates Confidence Intervals

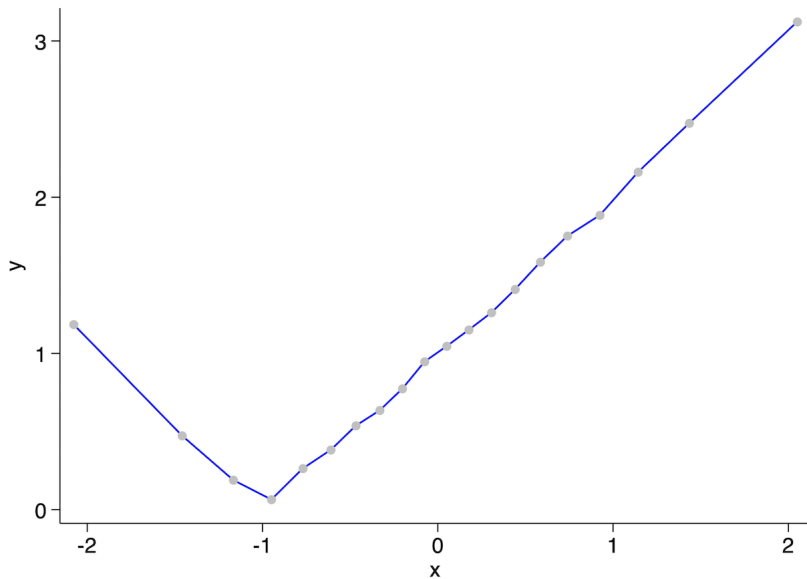


Big Data: Most Smoothers Are Slow (here: LOWESS)

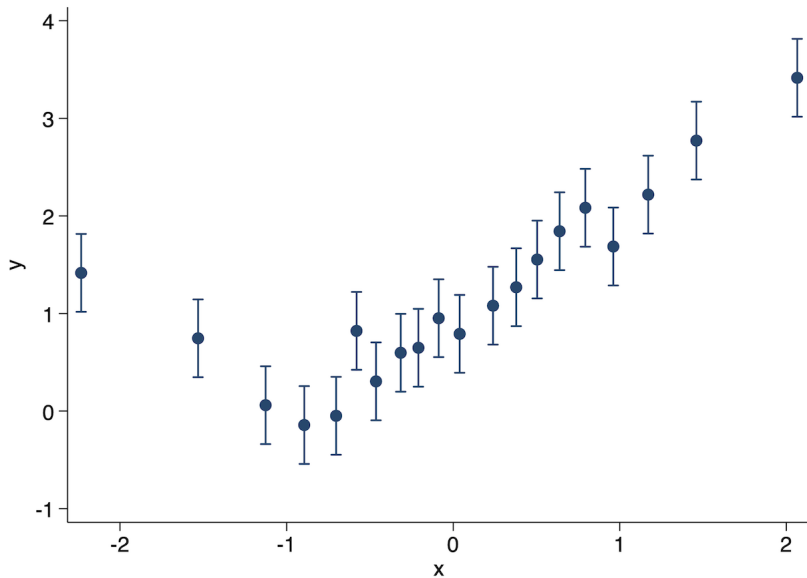


bandwidth = .8

Most Important Technique: binscatter



Cutting Edge: binsreg



Appendix: Semi-parametric Efficiency of OLS

Efficiency of Cell Means Estimation

- How efficient is OLS?
- Recall BLUE (Gauss-Markov Theorem):
 - OLS is most efficient (i.e. lowest variance)...
 - ... among all linear unbiased estimators...
 - ... assuming $\mathbb{E} [\varepsilon_i | \mathbf{X}_i] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E} [\varepsilon \varepsilon' | \mathbf{X}_i] = \sigma^2 I$
- But what about general, nonlinear estimators?
 - MLE reaches Cramér-Rao Lower Bound (minimal variance)
 - Can OLS compete?
- Side note: recent work shows OLS is actually BUE... (Hansen 2022, ECMA)

Semi-Parametric Efficiency of OLS

- It turns out the answer is yes (Chamberlain 1987)
- OLS is semi-parametrically efficient
 - We do not need errors to be homoskedastic
 - Using cell-means logic can show OLS = MLE
 - So OLS reaches Cramér-Rao Lower Bound as well
- Suppose i.i.d. random sample $\mathbf{Z}_i = (Y_i, \mathbf{X}_i')'$
- Because it is a sample, Y_i and \mathbf{X}_i are discrete
- Take on values $z_j = (y_j, \mathbf{x}_j')'$ for $j = 1, \dots, J$ with

$$\mathbb{E} [1 (\mathbf{Z}_i = z_j)] = \Pr (\mathbf{Z}_i = z_j) = \pi_j$$

Population OLS of Cell Means

- Population OLS:

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_{\text{OLS}} &= \mathbb{E} [\mathbf{X}_i \mathbf{X}_i']^{-1} \mathbb{E} [\mathbf{X}_i Y_i] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{j=1}^J 1 [\mathbf{Z}_i = z_j] \mathbf{x}_j \mathbf{x}_j' \right]^{-1} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{j=1}^J 1 [\mathbf{Z}_i = z_j] \mathbf{x}_j y_j \right] \\ &= \left[\sum_{j=1}^J \pi_j \mathbf{x}_j \mathbf{x}_j' \right]^{-1} \left[\sum_{j=1}^J \pi_j \mathbf{x}_j y_j \right]\end{aligned}$$

- Unknown parameters: $\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_J)'$

Log Likelihood of Cell Means

- Fact: $\mathbf{Z}_i \sim \text{Multinomial}(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_J)$
- Hence, log likelihood of data (dropping constant):

$$\log f(\mathbf{Z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Z}_N, \pi) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^J 1[\mathbf{Z}_i = z_j] \log \pi_j$$

- Maximize this subject to $\pi_j \geq 0$ and $\sum_j \pi_j = 1$ yields

$$\hat{\pi}_{\text{MLE}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N 1[\mathbf{Z}_i = z_1] \\ \vdots \\ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N 1[\mathbf{Z}_i = z_J] \end{bmatrix}$$

Cell Means OLS is MLE

- *Invariance Property of MLE*: For any $\mu = f(\theta)$, the MLE is

$$\hat{\mu}_{\text{MLE}} = f\left(\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}}\right)$$

- Plugging MLE into population OLS:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_{\text{MLE}} &= \left[\sum_j \hat{\pi}_j \mathbf{x}_j \mathbf{x}_j' \right]^{-1} \left[\sum_j \hat{\pi}_j \mathbf{x}_j y_j \right] \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{i=1}^N 1[\mathbf{z}_i = z_j] \mathbf{x}_j \mathbf{x}_j' \right]^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{i=1}^N 1[\mathbf{z}_i = z_j] \mathbf{x}_j y_j \right] \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i' \right]^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i y_i \right]\end{aligned}$$

- Hence, OLS is MLE! MLE reaches CRLB, and so does OLS