# Econometrics 2: Non-parametric methods

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2024 Spring<sup>†</sup>



I have a question!

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### 1 Preliminaries

### 1.1 Probability basics

**Definition 1.1** (distribution law). The distribution law of a random variable X is  $\mathbb{P}_X$  is the probability on  $(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d))$  such that  $\mathbb{P}_X[B] = \mathbb{P}[X \in B]$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ 

**Definition 1.2** (density). 
$$X$$
 has density  $f_X$  if  $\mathbb{P}_X[B] = \int_B \underbrace{f_X(x) dx}_{d\mathbb{P}_X(x)}$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}\left(\mathbb{R}^d\right)$ 

Let Y be a random variable and X be a random vector in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  defined on the same probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ . We want to define and manipulate  $\mathbb{E}[Y|X]$ .

There are 2 particular cases

- 1.  $(Y,X^{\top})^{\top}$  has discrete support. Let  $x\in\operatorname{spt}(X)$ , then  $\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X=x\right]=\sum y_j\mathbb{P}\left(Y=y_j\mid X=X\right)$ . This is well defined only when  $\mathbb{P}\left(X=x\right)>0$  in which case  $\mathbb{P}\left(Y=y_j\mid X=x\right)=\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y=y_j,X=x)}{\mathbb{P}(X=x)}$  is well defined.
- 2.  $(Y, X^{\top})^{\top}$  and X have a density then  $\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X=x\right] = \int y f_{Y|X=x}(y) dy$  where  $f_{Y|X=x}(y) = \frac{f_{Y,X}(y,x)}{f_X(x)}$ .

**Proposition 1.1** (conditional expectation). The random variabel  $Z := \mathbb{E}[Y|X]$  is the unique random variable such that

- 1.  $Z \in L^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , that is Z is  $\sigma(X)$ -measurable.
- 2.  $\mathbb{E}[Z\mathbb{1}_B] = \mathbb{E}[Y\mathbb{1}_B]$  for all  $B \in \sigma(X)$ .

unique means that if Z' is another random variable satisfying the same properties, then Z=Z' a.s.

Remark. The random variable Z is  $\sigma(X)$ -measurable iff  $Z=\phi(X)$  for some function  $\phi: \left(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathcal{B}\left(\mathbb{R}^d\right)\right) \to \left(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}\left(\mathbb{R}\right)\right)$ . The corresponding function  $\phi$  for  $Z=\underbrace{E\left[Y|X\right]}_{\text{conditional expectation}}$  is de-

noted by 
$$\underbrace{\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X=x\right]}_{\text{conditional expectation function}}.$$

Remark. The proposition 2 is equivalent to

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(Y-Z\right)\mathbbm{1}_{B}\right]=0,\quad\forall B\in\sigma(X)$$
 
$$\Leftrightarrow \mathbb{E}\left[\left(Y-Z\right)\psi(X)\right]=0,\quad\forall \psi \text{ bounded and mean surable}.$$

**Exercise.** Let X and  $\beta$  be random vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  such that X and  $\beta$  ARE independent, that is  $\mathbb{P}_{X,\beta} = \mathbb{P}_X \times \mathbb{P}_{\beta}$ . Let  $g: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  be a bounded and measurable function. Define  $Y = g(X^\top \beta)$ . It can be shown that  $\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X=x\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[g(x^\top \beta)\right]$  for all  $x \in \operatorname{supp}(X)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $B \in \sigma(X)$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}\left[Y\mathbb{1}\{X\in B\}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[g(X^{\top}\beta)\mathbb{1}\{X\in B\}\right] = \int \int g(X^{\top}b)\mathbb{1}x \in Bd\mathbb{P}_{\beta,X}(b,x).$$

Since X and  $\beta$  are independent, we have

$$\mathbb{P}_{\beta,X}(b,x) = \mathbb{P}_X(x)\mathbb{P}_{\beta}(b).$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}[Y\mathbb{1}\{X \in B\}] = \int \int g(x^{\top}b)\mathbb{1}\{x \in B\}d\mathbb{P}_{\beta}(b)d\mathbb{P}_{X}(x)$$
$$= \int \mathbb{E}[g(x^{\top}\beta)]\mathbb{1}\{x \in B\}d\mathbb{P}_{X}(x)$$
$$= \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[g(x^{\top}\beta)]\mathbb{1}\{X \in B\}]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}[\phi(X)\mathbb{1}\{X \in B\}]$$

where  $\mathbb{E}\left[g(x^{\top}\beta)\right] \equiv \phi(x)$  takes expectation over  $\beta$  and is a function of x. By the uniqueness of conditional expectation, we have  $\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\phi(X)\right]$ .

**Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a  $\sigma$ -algebra such that all elements of  $\mathcal{H}$  belong to  $\sigma(X)$ . We can show that

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X\right]|\mathcal{H}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[Y|\mathcal{H}\right]$$

We can think of this in terms of projections. The projection of Y onto  $\mathcal{H}$  is  $\mathbb{E}\left[Y|\mathcal{H}\right]$ , and the projection of  $\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X\right]$  onto  $\mathcal{H}$  is  $\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X\right]|\mathcal{H}\right]$ . The equality says that the projection of the projection of Y onto  $\mathcal{H}$  is the same as the projection of Y onto  $\mathcal{H}$ .

#### 1.2 Identification

We are given data consisting of draws from a distribution law  $\mathbb{P}_{Y,X}$  where Y,X are observable vectors. An economic model consists of

- 1. An equation  $v(Y, \gamma, X, \varepsilon; \zeta) = 0$  where v is a system of functions,  $\gamma$  is a vector of variables that is determined within the model but unobservable,  $\varepsilon$  is a vector of variables that is determined within the model and unobservable.  $\zeta$  is a vector of functions and distributions.
- 2. Restrictions:  $\zeta \in \mathcal{R}$  where  $\mathcal{R}$  is a set of restrictions.

For any  $\zeta \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{Y,X;\zeta}$  is the distribution law of the observables generated by  $\zeta$ . We denote the true structural parameter by  $\zeta^*$ . We oftern care about  $\psi^* = \Psi(\zeta^*)$  where  $\Psi$  is a mapping from  $\mathcal{R}$  to  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{P}$  is the parameter space. We define the identified set as

$$\Gamma_{Y,X}(\psi,\mathcal{R}) = \{ \mathbb{P}_{Y,X;\zeta} : \zeta \in \mathcal{R} \quad \text{s.t. } \Psi(\zeta) = \psi \} \,.$$

It is the set of all distributions of the observables that are consistent with the model and the restrictions, that is, generated by  $\zeta$  contained within the restriction.

**Definition 1.3** (Identification). We say that  $\psi^*$  is identified if for any  $\psi^* \in \mathcal{P}$  if  $\Gamma_{Y,X}(\psi^*,\mathcal{R}) \cap \Gamma_{Y,X}(\psi,\mathcal{R}) \neq \emptyset$ , then  $\psi^* = \psi$ .

**Exercise.** We specify a linear model  $Y = f(X) + \varepsilon$  where f is continuous near  $x_0 \in \operatorname{supp}(X)$ , and  $\mathbb{E}\left[|\varepsilon| + |f(X)|\right] < \infty$  and  $\mathbb{E}\left[\varepsilon|X\right] = 0$ . We can show that  $\psi^* = \mathbb{E}\left[f(X)\right]$  is identified because under these conditions  $f(X) = \mathbb{E}\left[f(X)\right]$ , the conditional expectation. The system of equations is  $v(Y, \gamma, X, \varepsilon; \zeta) = Y - f(X) - \varepsilon = 0$ . The restriction is  $\zeta = (f.\mathbb{P}_{X,\varepsilon}) \in \mathcal{R}$ .

*Proof.* Assume that there are two zeta that satisfy the restrictions and generate the same distribution of the observables.

$$(f, \mathbb{P}_{X,\varepsilon}), (f^*, \mathbb{P}_{X,\varepsilon}^*) \xrightarrow{generate} \mathbb{P}_{Y,X}$$

Then we have the following

- $\int \mathbb{P}_{Y,X(y,x)}(y,\cdot)dy = \int \mathbb{P}_{\varepsilon,X}(e,\cdot)de = \int \mathbb{P}_{\varepsilon,X}^*(e,\cdot) = \mathbb{P}_X(x)$
- $\mathbb{E}[Y|X] = f(X) = f^*(X)$
- ullet Because f is identified,  $\mathbb{P}_{\varepsilon,X}=\mathbb{P}_{Y-f(X),X}=\mathbb{P}_{Y-f^*(X),X}=\mathbb{P}_{\varepsilon,X}^*$

Now that we have introduced the basic nonparametric model, we introduce nonparametric model with instrumental variables, where  $\mathbb{E}\left[\varepsilon|Z\right]=0$ . The identification requires an additional restriction – *Completeness*.

**Definition 1.4** (Completeness). For any  $\phi$  such that  $\mathbb{E}[|\phi(X)|] < \infty$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[\phi(X) \mid Z] = 0$  implies that  $\phi(x) = 0$  on the support of X.

**Discrete case** When (X, Z) is discrete finite,

$$\operatorname{supp}(X) = \left\{x_1, \dots, x_n\right\}, \operatorname{supp}(Z) = \left\{z_1, \dots, z_m\right\}$$

We can write the completeness condition as

$$E\left[\phi(X) \mid Z = z_j\right] = \sum \phi(x_i) \mathbb{P}_{X\mid Z}(X = x_i \mid Z = z_j) = 0 \quad \forall j$$

This is a system of m equations in n unknowns. We can show that the completeness condition is satisfied if and only if  $m \geq n$ . In the following section, we discuss a specific continuous case ( $\sup(X,Z) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ ) where  $X=Z-\eta$  and Z is independent of  $\varepsilon$ . Both have densities and  $\eta \sim \mathcal{U}([-1,1])$ .

**Parametric VS Non-Parametric Models** If  $\zeta=(\gamma,p_{\theta})$  where  $\gamma\in\mathbb{R}^{d_{\gamma}},\theta\in\mathbb{R}^{d_{\theta}}$ , then the model is parametric. If  $\zeta=(\gamma,p)$  where  $\gamma\in\mathbb{R}^{d_{\gamma}},p$  is a distribution, then the model is non-parametric. When we care about  $\psi^*=\Psi(\zeta^*)$ , we are in the framework of semi-parametric models.

**Example 1.1.** The model is  $Y = \alpha + \beta X + \varepsilon$  where  $\zeta = (\alpha, \beta, p_{\varepsilon,X})$  and  $\psi^* = (\alpha^*, \beta^*)$ . We are in semi-parametric models because  $\alpha, \beta$  are finite-dimensional and  $p_{\varepsilon,X}$  is infinite-dimensional.

### 1.3 Completeness condition

We want to understand the completeness condition when  $X=Z-\eta$ , where  $Z\perp \eta$  and both have densities. Recall the definition of **completeness**.

**Definition 1.5** (Completeness). Completeness is defined as such that

$$\forall z \in \mathbb{R}, \ \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi(x) f_{\eta}(z-x) dx = 0 \text{ implies that for all } x, \ \varphi(x) = 0,$$

where  $\varphi$  is continuous and  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} |\varphi(x)| dx < \infty$ .

Now, We make a detour to introduce some notations in function space.

**Definition 1.6.** Let f be a function defined on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with values in  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $p \leq 1$ . Then  $L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$  is defined as the space of measurable function from  $(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d))$  such that  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x)|^p dx < \infty$ . If f takes value from  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $|\cdot|$  is the modulus.

**Definition 1.7** ( $L^1(\mathbb{R})$  space). A function is in  $L^1(\mathbb{R})$  if  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(x)| dx < \infty$ .

**Definition 1.8** (Fourier transform). If  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ , the Fourier transform of f is defined for all  $w \in \mathbb{R}$  by

$$\mathcal{F}[f](w) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{iwx} f(x) dx.$$

Remark. Let  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $e^{it} = \cos(t) + i\sin(t)$  and  $|e^{it}|^2 = 1$ 

**Definition 1.9** (Convolution). If f and g belong to  $L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , the convolution of f and g is  $f * g(z) = \int f(x)g(z-x)dx$ .

**Proposition 1.2.** If f and g belong to  $L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , then  $f*g \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ . Its Fourier transformation is F[f\*g](w) = F[f](w)F[g](w) for all  $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ 

Remark. check this proposition as an exercise.

**Proposition 1.3.** If  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , then F[f] is continuous and  $\lim_{\|w\|_2 \to \infty} F[f](w) = 0$ .

We introduce two properties that are useful for later cause.

**Property 1.1.** If  $f, \mathcal{F}[f] \in L^2(\mathbb{R}) \cap L^1(\mathbb{R})$ , then

- 1. (The Placherel equality)  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \|\mathcal{F}[f]\|_2^2 = \|f\|_2^2$  (Plancherel's theorem)
- 2. (The Fourier inverse formula) For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-iwx} \mathcal{F}[f](w) dw$ , the inversion of the Fourier transform.

Question 1. Let  $Z\in L^2(\Omega,\mathcal{F},\mathbb{P})$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[|z|]\leq \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[z^2]}\sqrt{\mathbb{E}[1^2]}$ . Therefore,  $L^2(\Omega,\mathcal{F},\mathbb{P})\subset L^1(\Omega,\mathcal{F},\mathbb{P})$ .

**Example 1.2.** Let  $K(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$ , then  $K \in L^1(\mathbb{R}) \cap L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . Then for all  $w \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$F[K](w) = e^{-\frac{w^2}{2}}.$$

**Example 1.3.** Let  $K(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbb{1}_{\{|x|\leq 1\}}$ , then  $K\in L^1(\mathbb{R})\cap L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . Then for all  $w\in\mathbb{R}$ ,

$$F[K](w) = 1/2 \int_{-1}^{1} \cos(wx) dx + 1/2 \int_{-1}^{1} \sin(wx) dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{2w} [\sin(wx)] \Big|_{-1}^{1}$$
$$= \frac{\sin(wx)}{w}$$

Here  $F[K] \notin L^1(\mathbb{R})$  but  $F[K] \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . Note also that F[K](w) = 0 if and only if  $w = \pm k\pi$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Let us check whether the functions given in Example 1.2 and 1.3 satisfy the completeness condition 1.5 for  $X=Z-\eta$ .

- 1. Since  $F[f_n](w) > 0$  for all w. Thus,  $F[\varphi](w) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \varphi(x) = 0$  for all x.
- 2. Similarly,  $F[\varphi](w) = 0$  for all  $w \in \mathbb{R} \setminus S$ . Because  $\varphi$  is continuous, it is 0 everywhere.

## 2 Density function and kernel estimation

### 2.1 Density function

We want to estimate the density  $f_X$  of  $X \in \mathbb{R}$  and will work among classes of densities. For example,

- 1. continuous densities
- 2. densities such that for all  $x, x' \in \mathbb{R}, |f_X(x) f_X(x')| \le M |x x'|$  for some M > 0
- 3. densities which are **monotonically increasing** on [0,1]

### 2.2 Density function estimation

First, we introduce a **histogram estimator**. Assume  $f_X:[0,1]\to\mathbb{R}$  and divide the interval [0,1] into n equal non overlapping intervals  $I_1,\ldots,I_n$  of length h=1/n. Define the  $n_j=\sum_{i=1}^n\mathbb{1}_{\{X_i\in I_j\}}$ . The histogram estimator is defined as

$$\hat{f}_n(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}\{x \in I_j\} \frac{n_j}{nh} = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{1}\{X_i \in I_j\} \mathbb{1}\{x \in I_j\}.$$

If X has a density  $f_X$ , then  $f_X(x) = F_X'(x)$  a.e. because

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t)dt = \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{1}_{\{X \le x\}}\right].$$

A natural estimator of the CDF is the **empirical CDF**, defined as

$$\hat{F}_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{X_i \le x\}}.$$

where n is the sample size. Therefore, an estimator of  $f_X$  is the derivative of the empirical CDF, which is the **empirical density function** defined as

$$\hat{f}_n(x) = \frac{\hat{F}_X(x + h/2) - \hat{F}_X(x - h/2)}{h} = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)$$

where  $K(x)=\mathbbm{1}_{\{x\leq \frac{1}{2}\}}$  (is the **kernel** and h>0 is the **bandwidth**).

**Definition 2.1** (kernel function). A kernel is a function  $K : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $K \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\int K(x)dx = 1$ .

**Definition 2.2** (kernel density estimator with kernel K and bandwidth h). The kernel density estimator of  $f_X$  is defined as

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

#### 2.3 Kernels estimators

**Some kernels** We list out some common kernels.

- 1.  $K(x) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{1}_{|x| \le \frac{1}{2}}$  the rectangular
- 2.  $K(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$ , the Gaussian kernel
- 3.  $K(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{\pi x}$ , the sinc kernel
- 4.  $K(x) = \frac{3}{4} \max\{0, 1 x^2\} = \frac{3}{4} (1 x^2) \mathbb{1}_{|x| < 1}$ , the Epanechnikov kernel

*Remark.* Note that the Gaussian kernel is both in  $L^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), dx)$  and in  $L^2(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), dx)$ . The sinc kernel is only in  $L^2(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), dx)$  but not in  $L^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), dx)$ , as the absolute value fails to be integrable. However, we have

$$1 = \lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{-R}^{R} \frac{\sin(x)}{\pi x} dx.$$

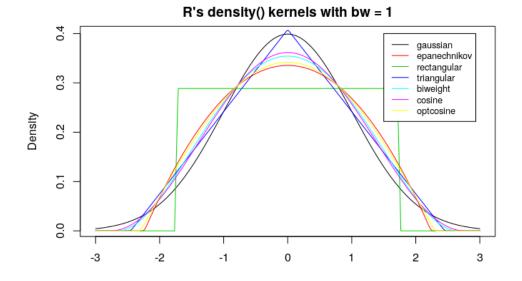


Figure 1: Kernels

Remark. The kernel estimator is unbiased when the bandwidth h goes to zero, that is,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}\left(x\right)\right] = \frac{1}{hn} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}\left[K\left(\frac{X_{i} - x}{h}\right)\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \mathbb{E}\left[K\left(\frac{X_{1} - x}{h}\right)\right] \quad \text{by i.i.i.d.}$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} K\left(\frac{y - x}{h}\right) f_{X}\left(y\right) dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} K\left(\frac{\cdot}{h}\right) * f_{X}\left(x\right)$$

$$\to f_{X}(x)$$

It converges in  $L^1(\mathbb{R})$  in the sense that

$$\left\| \frac{1}{h} K(\frac{\cdot}{h}) * f_X - f_X \right\|_1 \to 0$$

where  $\left\Vert f\right\Vert _{1}=\int_{\mathbb{R}}\left\vert f(x)\right\vert dx$ 

### 2.4 Performance analysis

For a kernel K estimator with bandwidth h, we would like to analyze its performance.

#### **Definition 2.3.** We introduce the quadratic **risk**

MSE 
$$(x) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\hat{f}_X(x) - f_X(x)\right)^2\right],$$

where

$$\ell\left(x,y\right) = \left(x - y\right)^2$$

is the loss function.

Other risks include

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sup_{x\in\mathbb{R}}\left|\hat{f}_{X}\left(x\right)-f_{X}\left(x\right)\right|\right]=\mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\hat{f}_{X}-f_{X}\right\|_{\infty}\right]$$

Note that  $\hat{f}_X$  is a function of x and the observations is  $X=(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$ .

**Definition 2.4.** We define the **bias** of  $\hat{f}_X(x)$  by

Bias 
$$(\hat{f}_X) = b(x) = \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_X(x) - f_X(x)\right]$$

and we denote the **variance** of  $\hat{f}_X(x)$  by  $\sigma^2(x)$ .

Proposition 2.1. We have

$$MSE(x) = b(x)^{2} + \sigma^{2}(x).$$

Proof. We have

$$MSE(x) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\hat{f}_{X}(x) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x)\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x)\right] - f_{X}(x)\right)^{2}\right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\hat{f}_{X}(x) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x)\right]\right)^{2}\right] + 2\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\hat{f}_{X}(x) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x)\right]\right) \underbrace{\left(\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x)\right] - f_{X}(x)\right)}_{\text{not random}}\right]$$

$$+ \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x)\right] - f_{X}(x)\right)^{2}\right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\hat{f}_{X}(x) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x)\right]\right)^{2}\right] + 2\left(\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x)\right] - f_{X}(x)\right) \underbrace{\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x)\right]\right]}_{=\sigma^{2}(x)}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\left(\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}(x)\right] - f_{X}(x)\right)^{2}}_{=h(x)^{2}}.$$

**Proposition 2.2** (upper bound of  $\sigma^2(x)$ ). Assume that there exists  $f_{\max} \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f_X(x) \leq f_{\max}$  and  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} K^2(u) \, du < \infty$ . Then we have, for any bandwidth h, for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and for any  $n \geq 1$ , we have

$$\sigma^2(x) \le \frac{C}{nh}.$$

where  $C = f_{\max} \int_{\mathbb{R}} K^2(u) du$ .

*Proof.* First observe that, by identical distribution of  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_X\left(x\right)\right] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{h} \mathbb{E}\left[K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)\right] = \frac{1}{h} \mathbb{E}\left[K\left(\frac{X_1 - x}{h}\right)\right]. \tag{1}$$

Now, using independence in the second line and identical distribution in the third line,

$$\begin{split} \sigma^{2}\left(x\right) &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{X_{i}-x}{h}\right)\right) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}\left(x\right)\right]\right)^{2}\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n^{2}}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{X_{i}-x}{h}\right)\right) - n\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}\left(x\right)\right]\right)^{2}\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{n^{2}}\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{X_{i}-x}{h}\right) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}\left(x\right)\right]\right)^{2}\right] \text{ by independence} \\ &= \frac{1}{n^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{X_{i}-x}{h}\right) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}\left(x\right)\right]\right)^{2}\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{n}\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{X_{1}-x}{h}\right) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X}\left(x\right)\right]\right)^{2}\right] \end{split}$$

Inserting equation\* 1,

$$\sigma^{2}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{X_{1}-x}{h}\right) - \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{X_{1}-x}{h}\right)\right]\right)^{2}\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{Var}\left[\frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{X_{1}-x}{h}\right)\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left(\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{h^{2}}K^{2}\left(\frac{X_{1}-x}{h}\right)\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{X_{1}-x}{h}\right)\right]^{2}\right)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{h^{2}}K^{2}\left(\frac{X_{1}-x}{h}\right)\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{nh} \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{h}K^{2}\left(\frac{X_{1}-x}{h}\right)\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{nh} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{h}K^{2}\left(\frac{y-x}{h}\right)f_{X}(y)\,dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{nh} \int_{\mathbb{R}} K^{2}(u)\underbrace{f_{X}(x+hu)}_{\leq f_{\max}}du$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{nh}\underbrace{\int_{\mathbb{R}} K^{2}(u)\,du},$$

$$= \frac{1}{nh}\underbrace{\int_{\mathbb{R}} K^{2}(u)\,du}_{=C}$$

where we used the change of variables y = x + hu.

**Definition 2.5** ( $\beta$  for a density function). Let  $\beta>0$ , L>0 and set  $\ell=\lfloor\beta\rfloor$ , by which we mean the greatest integer **strictly** less than  $\beta$ . The Hölder class  $\Sigma\left(\beta,L\right)$  is the class of functions  $f:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$  such that  $f^{(\ell)}$  exists and for all  $x,x'\in\mathbb{R}$  we have

$$|f^{(\ell)}(x) - f^{(\ell)}(x')| \le L |x - x'|^{\beta - \ell}$$
.

**Definition 2.6.** We define

$$\mathcal{P}(\beta, L) = \left\{ f \in \Sigma(\beta, L) : f \ge 0, \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) dx = 1 \right\}.$$

**Example 2.1.**  $\beta = 1$  gives the usual Hölder continuity condition: for all  $x, x' \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$|f(x) - f(x')| \le L|x - x'|^{\beta}$$
.

*Remark.* This Hölder condition implies continuity of f.

**Definition 2.7** ( $\beta$  for a kernel).  $K : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a kernel **of order**  $\ell \in \mathbb{N}_0$  if

•  $u \mapsto u^{j}K(u)$  is integrable for any  $j \in \{0, \dots, \ell\}$ ,

- $\int_{\mathbb{R}} K(u) du = 1$ ,
- and  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} u^j K(u) du = 0$  for  $j \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ .

**Proposition 2.3** (upper bound of |b(x)|). Let  $f_X \in \mathcal{P}(\beta, L)$  with  $\beta, L > 0$  and K of order  $\ell \geq |\beta|$  such that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |u|^{\beta} |K(u)| du < \infty.$$

Then, for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $n \ge 1$  and h > 0, we have

$$|b(x)| \le C_1 h^{\beta},$$

where

$$C_{1} = \frac{L}{\ell!} \int_{\mathbb{R}} |u|^{\beta} |K(u)| du.$$

*Proof.* Reusing equation 1 and using  $1=\int_{\mathbb{R}}K\left(u\right)du$  ,

$$b(x) = \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_X(x)\right] - f_X(x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \mathbb{E}\left[K\left(\frac{X_1 - x}{h}\right)\right] - f_X(x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} K\left(\frac{y - x}{h}\right) f_X(y) dy - f_X(x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} K\left(\frac{y - x}{h}\right) f_X(y) dy - \int_{\mathbb{R}} K(u) f_X(x) du.$$

With the change of variables y = hu + x, we obtain

$$b(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} K(u) f_X(hu + x) du - \int_{\mathbb{R}} K(u) f_X(x) du$$
$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} K(u) (f_X(hu + x) - f_X(x)) du.$$

By a Taylor expansion, for some  $\tau \in [0,1]$ , we obtain

$$f_X(hu+x) - f_X(x) = uhf_X'(x) + \dots + \frac{(uh)^{\ell-1}}{(\ell-1)!}f_X^{(\ell-1)}(x) + \frac{(uh)^{\ell}}{\ell!}f_X^{(\ell)}(x+\tau uh).$$

Thus, recalling that  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} u^j K(u) du = 0$  for  $j \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$  (we use it in the second and the third step),

$$\begin{split} b\left(x\right) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} K\left(u\right) \left(uhf_X'\left(x\right) + \dots + \frac{\left(uh\right)^{\ell-1}}{\left(\ell-1\right)!} f_X^{(\ell-1)}\left(x\right) + \frac{\left(uh\right)^{\ell}}{\ell!} f_X^{(\ell)}\left(x + \tau uh\right) \right) du \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} K\left(u\right) \frac{\left(uh\right)^{\ell}}{\ell!} f_X^{(\ell)}\left(x + \tau uh\right) du \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} K\left(u\right) \frac{\left(uh\right)^{\ell}}{\ell!} \left(f_X^{(\ell)}\left(x + \tau uh\right) - f_X^{(\ell)}\left(x\right)\right) du. \end{split}$$

Taking absolute values, using the Hölder property  $f_X \in \mathcal{P}(\beta, L)$ , and recalling finally  $0 \le \tau \le 1$ ,

$$|b(x)| = \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} K(u) \frac{(uh)^{\ell}}{\ell!} \left( f_X^{(\ell)}(x + \tau uh) - f_X^{(\ell)}(x) \right) du \right|$$

$$\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}} |K(u)| \frac{|uh|^{\ell}}{\ell!} \left| f_X^{(\ell)}(x + \tau uh) - f_X^{(\ell)}(x) \right| du$$

$$\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}} |K(u)| \frac{|uh|^{\ell}}{\ell!} L |\tau uh|^{\beta - \ell} du$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} |K(u)| \frac{L |uh|^{\beta}}{\ell!} |\tau|^{\beta - \ell} du$$

$$\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}} |K(u)| \frac{L |uh|^{\beta}}{\ell!} du$$

$$= \frac{Lh^{\beta}}{\ell!} \int_{\mathbb{R}} |K(u)| |u|^{\beta} du.$$

This shows the claim.

Remark. Note that the expectation

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_X\left(x\right)\right] = \frac{1}{h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} K\left(\frac{y-x}{h}\right) f_X\left(y\right) dy$$

is the **convolution**  $\frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{-(\cdot)}{h}\right)*f_X$ .

In general, the convolution of two integrable functions  $f,g:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$  is defined as

$$(f * g)(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x - y) g(y) dy.$$

One interpretation of the convolution is the following: if  $f_X$ ,  $f_Y$  are the densities of independent random variables X, Y, then the density of X + Y is  $f_X * f_Y$ .

Indeed, let  $\varphi$  be bounded and continuous. Then, using independence and writing u=x+y, and using Fubini-Tonelli,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\varphi\left(X+Y\right)\right] = \int_{\mathbb{R}\times\mathbb{R}} \varphi\left(x+y\right) f_{X,Y}\left(x,y\right) dxdy$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi\left(x+y\right) f_{X}\left(x\right) f_{Y}\left(y\right) dxdy$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi\left(u\right) f_{X}\left(y-u\right) f_{Y}\left(y\right) dudy$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi\left(u\right) f_{X}\left(y-u\right) f_{Y}\left(y\right) dydu$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi\left(u\right) \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X}\left(y-u\right) f_{Y}\left(y\right) dydu$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi\left(u\right) f_{X} * f_{Y}\left(u\right) du.$$

This characterises the density uniquely.

Another way to see this is to consider the characteristic function, which is the Fourier transform of the random variable, using independence:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[e^{it(X+Y)}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[e^{itX}e^{itY}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[e^{itX}\right]\mathbb{E}\left[e^{itY}\right].$$

The latter is the product of the characteristic functions of X and Y. The very same expression as on the right-hand side is yielded taking the characteristic function of a random variable with density  $f_X * f_Y$ , and the characteristic function characterises the distribution uniquely.

**Result** Combining proposition 2.2 and 2.3, we see

$$MSE(x) \le C_1^2 h^{2\beta} + \frac{C}{nh}.$$

Minimizing the right-hand side in h yields  $h_{\rm opt} = \left(\frac{C}{2\beta C_1^2 n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2\beta+1}} \sim n^{-\frac{1}{2\beta+1}}$ . Plugging this back into the right-hand side, we obtain

$$MSE(x) = O\left(n^{-\frac{2\beta}{2\beta+1}}\right).$$

### 3 MISE and Cross validation

#### 3.1 MISE

To define the MISE, we would like

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\hat{f}_X - f_X\right\|_2^2\right] < \infty.$$

We assume  $f_X \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . We would like as well  $\hat{f}_X \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . This is true if  $K \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . Indeed.

$$\left\| \hat{f}_X \right\|_2^2 \le \frac{2^{n-1}}{(nh)^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{\mathbb{R}} K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)^2 dx$$
$$\le \frac{2^{n-1}}{nh} \int_{\mathbb{R}} K^2(u) du < \infty.$$

The idea behind this inequality is  $(a+b)^2 \le 2(a^2+b^2)$ , and then by induction,  $(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i)^2 \le 2^{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2$ .

#### 3.2 Cross validation

Let us write

MISE 
$$(h) = \mathbb{E}\left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\hat{f}_X^h(x) - f_X(x)\right)^2 dx\right]$$
  

$$= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}\left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\hat{f}_X^h(x)\right)^2 dx - 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}} \hat{f}_X^h(x) f_X(x) dx\right]}_{=I(h)} + \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_X^2(x) dx$$

introduced

$$\widehat{\mathrm{CV}}(h) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \hat{f}_X^2(x) \, dx - \underbrace{\frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{f}_{X,-i}(X_i)}_{-\hat{A}},$$

where  $\hat{f}_{X,-i} = \frac{1}{(n-1)h} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{n} K\left(\frac{X_j - x}{h}\right)$ . The cross-validated bandwidth is

$$\hat{h}_{\text{CV}} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{h>0} \widehat{\text{CV}} (h)$$

We claim

$$\frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{A}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \hat{f}_X(x) f_X(x) dx\right]$$

We have

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_{X,-1}\left(X_{1}\right)\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}_{X_{2}}\otimes\cdot\otimes\mathbb{P}_{X_{n}}}\left[\int_{\mathbb{R}}\hat{f}_{X,-i}\left(x\right)f_{X}\left(x\right)dx\right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{\left(n-1\right)h}\sum_{j=2}^{n}\int_{\mathbb{R}}K\left(\frac{X_{j}-x}{h}\right)f_{X}\left(x\right)dx\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{h}\int_{\mathbb{R}}\int_{\mathbb{R}}K\left(\frac{z-x}{h}\right)f_{X}\left(z\right)f_{X}\left(x\right)dzdx$$

As an exercise, show that this yields the claim.

**Theorem 3.1** (Oracle inequality). Let  $f_{\max}$  be such that for all x,  $f_X(x) \leq f_{\max} < \infty$ . Assume the kernel K is such that  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} K^2(u) \, du < \infty$ .  $\mathcal{F}[K] \geq 0$  and  $\mathrm{supp}(\mathcal{F}[K]) \subseteq [-1,1]$ . Then  $\hat{f}_X^* = \hat{f}_X^{h_{\mathrm{CV}}}$  is such that for all  $0 < \delta < 1$ , for all  $n \geq 1$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\hat{f}_{X}^{*}\left(x\right) - f_{X}\left(x\right)\right)^{2} dx\right] \leq \left(1 + \frac{C}{n^{\delta}}\right) \min_{h > \frac{1}{n}} \mathbb{E}\left[\int \left(\hat{f}_{X}^{h}\left(x\right) - f_{X}\left(x\right)\right)^{2} dx\right] + \frac{C\left(\log n\right)^{\frac{\delta}{2}}}{n^{1-\delta}}$$

*Remark.* The cross-validation bandwidth from theorem 3.1 is random. The kind of inequality in the the theorem is called **oracle inequality**, as it is not possible to obtain the values on each side. They involve the unknown  $f_X(x)$ . The estimation of errors in cross-validation kernel estimation is hard, but in practice it often works well.

### 4 Sobolev class and symmetric kernel

#### 4.1 Review of Fourier transform

**Definition 4.1.** The characteristic function of a random variable X is

$$\varphi_X(w) = \mathbb{E}\left[e^{iwX}\right] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{iwx} f_X(x) dx.$$

Remark. It is possible as well to define the Fourier transform of  $f \in L^2\left(\mathbb{R}\right)$ . Therefore, we take a sequence  $f_m \in L^1\left(\mathbb{R}\right) \cap L^2\left(\mathbb{R}\right)$  such that  $\|f - f_m\|_2^2 \to 0$  as  $m \to \infty$  and define the Fourier transform of f as the  $L^2$ -limit of  $\mathcal{F}\left[f_m\right]$ . More precisely, we may take  $f_m\left(x\right) = f\left(x\right) \mathbbm{1}_{|x| \le m}$ . It is in  $L^2$  as the product of an  $L^2\left(\mathbb{R}\right)$  function and a bounded function, and it is in  $L^1\left(\mathbb{R}\right)$  as a result of the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \, \mathbb{1}_{|x| \le m} dx \le \sqrt{\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)^2 dx} \sqrt{\int_{-m}^{m} 1 dx} = \sqrt{2m} \sqrt{\underbrace{\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)^2 dx}_{<\infty}}.$$

Moreover,

$$||f_m - f||_2^2 = \int_{-\infty}^m |f(x)|^2 dx + \int_m^\infty |f(x)|^2 dx \to 0$$
 (2)

as  $m \to \infty$ . By equation 2, for all  $m, m', \|f_m - f_{m'}\|_2^2 \to 0$  as  $m, m' \to \infty$ , i.e.  $(f_m)$  is a Cauchy sequence. By Plancherel's theorem 1.1,

$$\|\mathcal{F}[f_m] - \mathcal{F}[f_{m'}]\|_2^2 = \|\mathcal{F}[f_m - f_{m'}]\|_2^2 = 2\pi \|f_m - f_{m'}\|_2^2$$

Thus,  $\mathcal{F}[f_m]$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ , so that it admits a limit in  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ , since  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$  is a complete normed space. We can then define the Fourier transform of f to be this limit.

We notice that the characteristic function of a random variable is the Fourier transform of its density. Therefore, the density function  $f_X$  of a random variable X is the inverse Fourier transform of its characteristic function  $\varphi_X$ .

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-iwx} \varphi_X(w) dw.$$

We can get the derivative of the density function by differentiating the Fourier transform of the density function.

$$f_X^{(m)}(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (-iw)^m e^{-iwx} \varphi_X(w) dw.$$

It means that  $\mathcal{F}\left[f_X^{(m)}\right]\left(w\right) = \left(-iw\right)^m \varphi_X\left(w\right)$  .

#### 4.2 Sobolev class

Building on this, we make the following definition.

**Definition 4.2** (Sobolev class). Let  $\beta > 0$ , L > 0, the Sobolev class  $\mathcal{P}_S(\beta, L)$  is defined as

$$\mathcal{P}_{S}\left(\beta,L\right)=\left\{ f:f\text{ is a density on }\mathbb{R}\text{ and }\int_{\mathbb{R}}\left|w\right|^{2\beta}\left|\mathcal{F}\left[f\right]\left(w\right)\right|^{2}dw\leq2\pi L^{2}\right\} .$$

The restriction is basically saying that the  $L^2$  norm of the function  $f_X^{(m)}$  is bounded by L. This is a generalization of the  $L^2$  norm of the function  $f_X(x)$ , which is the  $L^2$  norm of the density function f.

### 4.3 Symmetric kernel

**Theorem 4.1** (Symmetric kernel). Let  $f_X \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ ,  $K \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$  be a symmetric kernel such that

$$\sup_{w \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}} \frac{\left|1 - \mathcal{F}\left[K\right]\left(w\right)\right|}{\left|w\right|^{\beta'}} \le A < \infty$$

for some  $\beta'$ , A > 0. Then

$$\sup_{f_X \in \mathcal{P}_S(\beta, L)} \mathbb{E}\left[ \left\| \hat{f}_X - f_X \right\|_2^2 \right] \le C n^{-\frac{2\tilde{\beta}}{2\tilde{\beta}+1}},$$

where  $\tilde{\beta} = \min \{\beta, \beta'\}$ , if  $h = \alpha n^{-\frac{1}{2\tilde{\beta}+1}}$  for some  $\alpha > 0$  and C is a constant which only depends on  $L, \alpha, A, K$ .

**Example 4.1.** 1. Gaussian kernel:  $K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}}$ ,  $\mathcal{F}[K](u) = e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}}$ . We have

$$\frac{\left|1 - e^{-w^2/2}\right|}{\left|w\right|^{\beta'}} \le \begin{cases} \left|w\right|^{-\beta'}, & |w| \ge 1\\ \frac{w^2/2}{\left|w\right|^{\beta'}}, & |w| \le 1 \end{cases}$$

so 4.1 holds if  $\beta' \leq 2$ , else the  $\sup$  is  $\infty$ .

2. The sinc kernel:  $K\left(u\right)=\frac{\sin(u)}{\pi u}, \mathcal{F}\left[K\right]\left(w\right)=\mathbb{1}_{|w|\leq 1}.$  We have

$$\frac{\left|1-\mathcal{F}\left[K\right]\left(w\right)\right|}{\left|w\right|^{\beta'}} \leq \begin{cases} \left|w\right|^{-\beta'}, & \left|u\right| > 1\\ 0, & \left|u\right| \leq 1, \end{cases}$$

so 4.1 holds for all  $\beta'$ . Such a kernel is called an **infinite power kernel** or **superkernel**.

#### 3. Trapeze kernel: Let

$$\mathcal{F}\left[K\right]\left(w\right) = \begin{cases} 0, & |w| > a \\ 1, & |w| \leq b \\ \text{linear,} & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

a trapeze. Then 4.1 holds for all  $\beta'$ . Let us write  $K_2$  for the trapeze (in Fourier space) and  $K_1$  for the sinc Kernel (see 4.1). Then

$$K_{2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \mathcal{F}\left[\mathcal{F}\left[K_{1}\right] * F\left[K_{1}\right]\right] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \mathcal{F}\left[\mathcal{F}\left[K_{1}\right]\right] \mathcal{F}\left[\mathcal{F}\left[K_{1}\right]\right] = 2\pi K_{1}^{2}\left(u\right) = 2\pi \left(\frac{\sin u}{\pi u}\right),$$

which is in  $L^{1}\left(\mathbb{R}\right)\cap L^{2}\left(\mathbb{R}\right)$ .

**Optimal rate of convergence** It can be shown that the *sinc* kernel has the optimal rate of convergence.

A Corollary of the Theorem 4.1 that we have seen for cross-validation is

#### **Corollary 4.2.** Let K be the sinc kernel, then

$$\sup_{f_X \in \mathcal{P}_S(\beta, L)} \mathbb{E}\left[ \left\| \hat{f}_X^{\text{CV}} - f_X \right\|_2^2 \right] \le C n^{-\frac{2\beta}{2\beta + 1}}$$

for all  $\beta > \frac{1}{2}, L > 0$ , where C only depends on  $\beta$  and L.

Some people have shown:

#### Proposition 4.1.

$$\inf_{\hat{f}} \sup_{f_X \in \mathcal{P}_S(\beta, L)} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left\| \hat{f}_X - f_X \right\|_2^2 \right] \ge C_* n^{-\frac{2\beta}{2\beta + 1}}$$

for some absolute constant  $C_*$ .

This means that  $n^{-\frac{2\beta}{2\beta+1}}$  is the "minimax" optimal rate of convergence and the cross-validated estimator is minimax adaptive (i.e. we can construct it with the data only).

#### **Kernel comparison** We end this section by the following table.

name	kernel	$\mathcal{F}[K]$	$\frac{ 1 - \mathcal{F}[K](w) }{ w ^{\beta}}$
Gaussian			
Epanechnikov			
Sinc			
Trapeze			

**Table 1:** Summary

### 4.4 Extension

*Remark.* The condition 4.1 is satisfied for an integer  $\beta$  if K is a kernel of order  $\beta-1$  and  $\int |u|^{\beta} |K(u)| < \infty$ .

Remark. We can work with a smaller class of super smooth density functions.

- $1. \ \mathcal{P}_{\alpha,r} = \left\{ f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}) \ \text{ such that } \ \int \exp(\alpha \, |w|^2) \, |\phi(w)|^2 \, dw \leq L^2 \right\} \text{ where } \phi = \mathcal{F}\left[f\right] \text{ is the Fourier transform of } f. \text{ We can show that a MISE optimal kernel density estimation could have a risk less than } C \frac{(\log n)^{1/r}}{n}.$
- 2.  $\mathcal{P}_{\alpha,r}=\{f\in L^2(\mathbb{R}) \mid \text{ such that } \sup(\phi)\subset [-a,a]\}.$  In this case, the upper bound is  $\frac{a\pi}{n}$ .

## 5 Other types of non-parametric estimators

### 5.1 Orthogonal series estimators

<sup>1</sup> Let  $f_X \in L^2\left([0,1]^d\right)$ , where  $L^2\left([0,1]^d\right)$  can be proven to be a *separable Hilbert space* when endowed with the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)g(x)dx.$$

We write

$$||f||_2^2 = \langle f, f \rangle.$$

Some properties are comparable to  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with  $\langle x,y\rangle=x^Ty$ . As a separable space,  $L^2\left([0,1]^d\right)$  has a countable basis  $(e_j)_{j=1}^\infty$ , which is a sequence of functions in  $L^2\left([0,1]^d\right)$  such that for all

$$\langle e_j, e_k \rangle = \delta_{jk} = \begin{cases} 1, & j = k, \\ 0, & \text{else,} \end{cases}$$

and for all  $f \in L^2\left([0,1]^d\right)$ ,

$$f = \lim_{k \to \infty} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \langle f, e_j \rangle e_j.$$

Think of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , where  $(e_j)_{j=1}^d$  is a basis for  $e_j=(0,\ldots,0,1,0,\ldots,0)$  the j-th unit vector. Then  $\langle e_j,e_k\rangle=e_j^Te_k=\delta_{jk}$ , and for  $x\in\mathbb{R}^d$ ,

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^{d} x_j e_j = \sum_{j=1}^{d} x^T e_j e_j = \sum_{j=1}^{d} \langle x, e_j \rangle e_j.$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Generalizations are called sieves (in Econometrics) or dictionaries in machine-learning.

Given  $\left(e_{j}\right)_{j=1}^{\infty}$  a basis, for all  $f\in L^{2}\left([0,1]^{d}\right)$ ,

$$||f||_2^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \langle f, e_j \rangle^2.$$

This is a version of the Pythagorean theorem. In  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,

$$||x||_2^2 = \sum_{j=1}^d x_j^2 = \sum_{j=1}^d \langle x, e_j \rangle^2.$$

Back to our goal to estimate  $f_X = \lim_{k \to \infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \langle f, e_j \rangle e_j$ . For some  $T \in \mathbb{N}$ , consider  $f_X^T \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{j=1}^T \langle f, e_j \rangle e_j$ . The idea is to estimate this cut-off sum instead of the limit expression for  $f_X$ . We have

$$c_j \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle f_X, e_j \rangle = \int_{[0,1]^d} f_X(x) e_j(x) dx = \mathbb{E}\left[e_j(X)\right],$$

so that an unbiased estimator is

$$\hat{c}_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e_j (X_i).$$

Thus, a candidate estimator for  $f_X$  is

$$\hat{f}_X^T = \sum_{j=1}^T \hat{c}_j e_j,$$

where

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{f}_X^T\right] = \sum_{j=1}^T c_j e_j = f_X^T.$$

It is possible to write

$$\hat{f}_X^T = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^T e_j(X_i) e_j(x),$$

$$q_T(X_i, x)$$

where  $q_T\left(X_i,x\right)$  plays the role of a kernel and T plays the same role as  $\frac{1}{h}$ . On  $L^2\left([0,1]^d\right)$  we can use bases for which  $e_j=f_{j_1}\cdots f_{j_d}$  where  $(f_k)_{k=1}^\infty$  is a basis of  $L^2\left([0,1]\right)$  and  $(j_1,...,j_d)$  plays the role of the index  $j^2$ . For example,  $f_k\left(x\right)=\sqrt{2}\sin\left(\pi kx\right)$  is a basis of  $L^2\left([0,1]\right)$ . This gives

$$e_{j_1,...,j_d}(x) = 2^{\frac{d}{2}} \prod_{k=1}^d \sin(\pi j_k x_k).$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Note that there exists a bijection  $\mathbb{N}^d \to \mathbb{N}$ .

One can check that this defines an orthogonal system **(Exercise)**. We define

$$W\left(\beta,L\right) = \left\{f: [0,1]^d \to \mathbb{R} \text{ with coefficients } c_{j_1,\ldots,j_d} \text{ w.r.t. } \left(f_{j_1},\ldots,f_{j_d}\right) \right.$$
 such that 
$$\sum_{j_1=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j_2=1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{j_d=1}^{\infty} c_{j_1,\ldots,j_d}^2 \left(j_1^2+\ldots+j_d^2\right)^{\beta} \leq L^2 \right\}$$

Remark. The  $||j||^{2\beta}$  is present due to the fact that we take derivatives of our basis functions defined above till the order of  $\beta$ .

In  $L^2\left(\mathbb{R}^d\right)$ , an analogous condition (with Fourier transform instead of Fourier series) would be:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |\mathcal{F}[f](w_1, ..., w_d)|^2 (|w_1|^2 + ... + |w_d|^2)^\beta dw \le L^2.$$

Here,  $\mathcal{F}[f]\left(w_{1},...,w_{d}\right)=\int_{\mathbb{R}}^{d}e^{iwx}f_{X}\left(x\right)dx$  acts like the coefficients  $c_{j_{1},...,j_{d}}=\int_{[0,1]^{d}}f_{X}\left(x\right)e_{j_{1},...,j_{d}}\left(x\right)dx$  in the Fourier series case. Note the usual bias-variance decomposition of the mean-squared error,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\hat{f}_X^T - f_X\right\|_2^2\right] = \underbrace{\left\|f_X^T - f_X\right\|_2^2}_{b^2 = \mathsf{Bias}^2} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\hat{f}_X^T - f_X^T\right\|_2^2\right]}_{\sigma^2}.$$

Then

$$b^{2} = \sum_{j_{1}=T+1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{j_{d}=T+1}^{\infty} c_{j_{1},\dots,j_{d}}^{2}$$

$$\leq \sum_{j_{1}=T+1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{j_{d}=T+1}^{\infty} c_{j_{1},\dots,j_{d}}^{2} \left( \left( \frac{j_{1}}{T+1} \right)^{2} + \dots + \left( \frac{j_{1}}{T+1} \right)^{2} \right)^{\beta}$$

$$= \left( \frac{1}{T+1} \right)^{2\beta} \sum_{j_{1}=T+1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{j_{d}=T+1}^{\infty} c_{j_{1},\dots,j_{d}}^{2} \left( j_{1}^{2} + \dots + j_{d}^{2} \right)^{\beta}$$

$$\leq \left( \frac{1}{T+1} \right)^{2\beta} L^{2}.$$

Note that  $\|f_{j_1}\cdots f_{j_d}\|_2^2 = \|f_{j_1}\|_2^2\cdots \|f_{j_d}\|_2^2$ , which are all = 1. Then,

$$\sigma^{2} = \mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\hat{f}_{X}^{T} - f_{X}^{T}\right\|_{2}^{2}\right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{j_{1}=1}^{T} \cdots \sum_{j_{d}=1}^{T} (\hat{c}_{j_{1},...,j_{d}} - c_{j_{1},...,j_{d}})^{2} \|f_{j_{1}} \cdots f_{j_{d}}\|_{2}^{2}\right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{j_{1}=1}^{T} \cdots \sum_{j_{d}=1}^{T} (\hat{c}_{j_{1},...,j_{d}} - c_{j_{1},...,j_{d}})^{2}\right]$$

$$= \sum_{j_{1}=1}^{T} \cdots \sum_{j_{d}=1}^{T} \operatorname{Var}(\hat{c}_{j_{1},...,j_{d}})$$

$$\leq \sum_{j_{1}=1}^{T} \cdots \sum_{j_{d}=1}^{T} \frac{2^{d}}{n}$$

$$\leq \frac{(2(T+1))^{d}}{n}$$

since

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{c}_{j_{1},\dots,j_{d}}) = \frac{1}{n^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Var}(f_{j_{1}} \cdots f_{j_{d}}(X_{i}))$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{n^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}\left[f_{j_{1}}^{2} \cdots f_{j_{d}}^{2}(X_{i})\right]$$

$$\leq \frac{2^{d}}{n},$$

where we used  $f_{j_k}^2 \leq 2$  for our particular basis  $f_{j_k}(x) = \sqrt{2}\sin{(\pi j_k x)}$ . Remember  $\sigma^2 \leq \frac{1}{nh^d}$  for kernel estimators. This gives an upper bound of the order of  $n^{-\frac{2\beta}{2\beta+d}}$  if  $T = \left\lfloor n^{\frac{1}{2\beta+d}} \right\rfloor$ .

Remark. (Nonexaminable content)

- We can work with families of functions which may not be basis functions. We talk about series, dictionaries (machine learning).
- ullet In the previous upper bound, the choice of T is infeasible because it depends on eta which is unknown.
- It it classical to estimate many coefficients  $c_j$ , for T much larger than before (e.g.  $\sqrt{n}$ ) and work with the estimators

$$\hat{f}_X^T(x) = \sum_{j_1=1}^T \cdots \sum_{j_d=1}^T \hat{\tau}(c_{j_1,\dots,j_d}) e_{j_1} \cdots e_{j_d}(x).$$

where  $au \propto \frac{\sqrt{\log n}}{n}$ . For example

- $-\tau_{\rho}(x)=\mathbb{1}_{\{|x|\geq \rho\}}$ , where  $\rho$  is a thresholding function. This is the **hard** thresholding function.
- $-\tau_{\rho}(x)=x\max\left(1-\frac{\rho}{|x|},0\right)$ . This is the **soft** thresholding function.

### 6 Regression Function Estimation

### **6.1** Introduction: average effect of X on Y

The model for a nonparametric model is

$$Y = f(X) + \varepsilon,$$

where  $\mathbb{E}\left[\varepsilon|X\right]=0$  and  $\mathbb{E}\left[|\varepsilon|\right]<\infty$ . The goal is to estimate f. We say it has a random design if X is random, and a fixed design if X is fixed. We will focus on the random design case. First, we define the average effect of X on Y as  $\mathbb{E}\left[f\left(X\right)\right]$  if the expectation is defined. If  $f_{y|x}$ , the conditional density of Y given X exists, it is given by  $f_{Y|X}\left(y\mid x\right)=\frac{f(x,y)}{f_X(x)}$  if  $f_X\left(x\right)>0$ . Also the conditional expectation function  $\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X=x\right]$  is given by

$$\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X=x\right] = \int y f_{Y|X}\left(y\mid x\right) dy = \frac{\int y f\left(x,y\right) dy}{f_{X}(x)} = \frac{\int y f\left(x,y\right) dy}{\int f\left(x,y\right) dy}.$$

A natural idea would be to use

$$\hat{f}_{Y,X}(y,x) = \frac{1}{nh^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right) K\left(\frac{Y_i - y}{h}\right),$$

where K is a kernel.

As an exercise, we can check that

$$\int y \hat{f}_{Y,X}(y,x) dy = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right) Y_i$$

and

$$\int \hat{f}_{Y,X}(y,x) dy = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right).$$

### 6.2 Nadaraya-Watson estimator

This leads to the following estimator called Nadaraya-Watson estimator

$$\hat{f}_X(x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right) Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)}.$$

In practice, dealing with the denominator can be tricky. We propose two ideas to deal with this issue.

1. We can work with **nonnegative** kernels because

$$\sum Y_i \underbrace{\frac{K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)}}_{\in [0,1]}.$$

2. We can use a trimming factor  $\rho$  and write

$$\hat{f}_X(x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right) Y_i}{\max\left(\sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right), \rho\right)}.$$

Suppose now supp (X) = [a, b] and  $\exists m > 0$  s.t.  $f_X(x) \ge m$ . Suppose I am interested in f(b) and I use the rectangular kernel 1.

Then  $\hat{f}(b)$  where  $\hat{f}$  is the N.W. estimator is biased. But a local polynomial estimator of order  $\geq 1$  is consistent and unbiased.

Remark. In TD, we will see that we can get a fast rate of convergence with nonnegative kernels (unlike in density estimation).

### 6.3 Local Polynomial Estimation

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### 7 Treatment Effects

### 7.1 Setup

We have a dataset  $[Y_i, D_i, X_i, Z_i, W_i]_{i=1}^n$  following i.i.d. from a joint distribution.

- D is a binary treatment variable,  $D \in [0, 1]$ .
- Y is the outcome variable. Here Y is a random variable  $Y \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- $\bullet$  X, Z, W are covariates/additional random variables.

The model equation (for each individual i) is  $y_i = y\left(0\right)\left(1 - D\right) + y\left(1\right)D$ . The potential outcome is  $y_i\left(1\right), y_i\left(0\right)$ , which are not observed. We can only observe  $y_i = y\left(D_i\right)$ .

#### 7.2 Parameters of Interest

- ullet Average treatment effect (ATE):  $au=\mathbb{E}\left[Y\left(1\right)-Y\left(0\right)
  ight]$
- Conditional average treatment effect (CATE):  $\tau(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y(1) Y(0) | X = x]$ . It can be useful if we care about the effect of the treatment on a specific subgroup of the population.

- Average treatment effect on the treated (ATT):  $\tau_{\mathsf{ATT}} = \mathbb{E}\left[Y\left(1\right) Y\left(0\right) | D = 1\right]$
- Average treatment effect on the untreated (ATU):  $\tau_{\text{ATU}} = \mathbb{E}\left[Y\left(1\right) Y\left(0\right) | D = 0\right]$
- Conditional average treatment effect on the treated (CATT):  $\tau_{\mathsf{ATT}}(x) = \mathbb{E}\left[Y\left(1\right) Y\left(0\right) | D = 1, X = x\right]$

#### 7.3 Identification

We need to impose some assumptions in order to identify the parameters.

- 1.  $\mathbb{P}(D=1) \in (0,1)$
- 2. The covariates X, Z, W are such that if X = X(0) + D(X(1) X(0)), then X(1) = X(0).
- 3. The potential outcome Y(1), Y(0) are independent of D which is  $Y(1), Y(0) \perp D$
- 4. The potential outcome Y(1), Y(0) and X are independent of D, that is

$$Y(1), Y(0), X \perp D$$

We introduce a new notation for the purpose of another assumption.

**Definition 7.1** (Propensity score). The propensity score is defined as the conditional probability of receiving the treatment given the covariates, that is

$$\pi(x) = \mathbb{P}(D=1 \mid X=x)$$

Remark. Later we will build estimators using propensity score, called **inverse propensity score** weighting (IPSW) estimator.

**Common support** The propensity score  $\pi(x)$  continuous and bounded between 0 and 1 for all  $x \in \text{supp}(X)$ 

Sometimes, treatment  ${\cal D}$  is assigned randomly conditional on  ${\cal X}.$  We introduce the following assumptions

**Unconfoundedness** The treatment D is unconfounded with the potential outcome Y given X if

$$Y\left(1\right),Y\left(0\right)\perp\!\!\!\!\perp D\mid X$$

**Conditional mean independence** The potential outcome Y(1), Y(0) are independent of D given X, Z, W, that is

$$\mathbb{E}\left[Y(d)\mid D,X\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[Y(d)\mid X\right]$$

Later we will show that unconfoundedness implies conditional mean independence.

#### 7.4 Regression discontinuity design

#### 7.4.1 Sharp RDD

**Preliminaries** Previously, we consider D as a binary variable and impose certain conditions on whether  $D_i = 1$  or  $D_i = 0$  (for each individual). Now we specify how D is determined by a continuous variable X, that is

$$D_i = 1 \{X_i \ge c\}$$

where c is a known threshold. The idea is that the treatment is assigned based on the value of X. We can think of X as a score, and D is assigned to those who score above a certain threshold.

For example, in the context of education, X can be the score of a student in a standardized test, and D is whether the student is admitted to a college. The threshold c is the cutoff score for admission.

#### **Conditions** Recall the definition of *unconfoundedness*

It is easy to see that since D is determined by X, the potential outcome Y(1), Y(0) are independent of D given X. (Given X, D is already determined, thus a constant.) Therefore, the unconfoundedness assumption is satisfied.

Since X is a continuous variable, we make an assumption on the average potential outcome  $\mathbb{E}[Y(j) \mid X=x]$  for j=0,1. We assume that the average potential outcome is continuous at the threshold c. For example, for those who have a test score slightly above and below the threshold, the average potential earning Y(1), Y(0) is similar.

*Remark.* We assume that  $\mathbb{E}[Y(j) \mid X = x]$  is continuous at the threshold c but not  $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x]$ 

Let us now check conditional ATE at the point c. Previously, we define the conditional ATE as

$$\begin{split} \tau(x) &= \mathbb{E}\left[Y\left(1\right) - Y\left(0\right) \mid X = x\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[Y\left(1\right) \mid X = x\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[Y\left(0\right) \mid X = x\right] \\ &= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid D = 1, X = x\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid D = 0, X = x\right]}_{\text{by unconfoundedness thus mean independence}} \end{split}$$

Therefore,

$$\tau(c) = \lim_{x \to c^{+}} \mathbb{E}[Y \mid D = 1, X = x] - \lim_{x \to c^{-}} \mathbb{E}[Y \mid D = 0, X = x]$$

$$= \lim_{x \to c^{+}} \mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x] - \lim_{x \to c^{-}} \mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x]$$
(3)

**Estimation** To estimate  $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x]$ , we can use local polynomial of order 0 (Nadaraya-Watson estimator) or more:

$$\left(\hat{\alpha}_{1}, \hat{\beta}_{1}\right) = \underset{\alpha, \beta}{\operatorname{arg min}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K\left(\frac{X_{i} - x}{h}\right) \left(Y_{i} - \alpha - \beta\left(X_{i} - c\right)\right)^{2}$$

$$\left(\hat{\alpha}_{0}, \hat{\beta}_{0}\right) = \underset{\alpha, \beta}{\operatorname{arg min}} \sum_{i=1, X_{i} < c}^{n} K\left(\frac{X_{i} - x}{h}\right) \left(Y_{i} - \alpha - \beta \left(X_{i} - c\right)\right)^{2}$$

Then we estimate  $\tau(c)$  by  $\hat{\tau}(c) = \hat{\alpha}_1 - \hat{\alpha}_0$ .

#### 7.4.2 Fuzzy RDD

**Preliminaries** First, let's recall the definition of conditional mean independence:

**Definition 7.2** (Conditional mean independence). We say U and V are conditionally mean independent given X if

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\phi(U)\psi(V)\mid X\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\phi(U)\mid X\right]\mathbb{E}\left[\psi(V)\mid X\right]$$

Naturally local conditional mean independence in a neighborhood  $\mathcal N$  is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\phi(U)\psi(V)\mid X=x\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\phi(U)\mid X=x\right] \mathbb{E}\left[\psi(V)\mid X=x\right]$$

for almost every  $x \in \mathcal{N}$ .

**Condition** Now we are ready to move from *sharp RDD* to *fuzzy RDD*. In the fuzzy RDD, the treatment D is not exactly determined by X but instead satisfies the following condition to create a discontinuity at c: The propensity score function  $\pi(x)$  is continuous on  $(c-\epsilon,c)$  and  $(c,c+\epsilon)$  for some  $\epsilon>0$  and  $\lim_{x\to c^+}\pi(x)\neq \lim_{x\to c^-}\pi(x)$ . We also loosen the mean independence condition to local conditional mean independence in a neighborhood  $\mathcal N$  of c.

Remark. The fuzzy RDD is more general than the sharp RDD.

Since we depart from sharp RDD, the conditional ATE at c is now defined as the following:

#### Proposition 7.1.

$$\tau(c) = \frac{\lim_{x \to c^{+}} \mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid D = 1, X = x\right] - \lim_{x \to c^{-}} \mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid D = 0, X = x\right]}{\lim_{x \to c^{+}} \pi(x) - \lim_{x \to c^{-}} \pi(x)}$$

Proof.

**Estimation** We can make use of local polynomial estimator to estimate the denominator and the numerator separately for tau(c).

#### 7.5 Instrumental variable

In this section, we are in the case of selection on *unobservables*. We have binary treatment D, covariates X, and a binary instrument Z, such that treatment is assigned based on Z (and maybe X). But the assigned treatment may not be taken by the individual (imperfect compliance). We have the following model:

$$Y = Y(0,0) + Z(Y(1,0) - Y(0,0)) + D(Y(0,1) - Y(0,0)) + DZ(Y(1,1) - Y(0,1) - Y(1,0) + Y(0,0))$$
(4)

and

$$D = D(0) + Z(D(1) - D(0))$$
(5)

**Preliminaries** We define the following:

- One-sided compliance: P(D(0) = 0) = 0 which means there is no always taker or defiers.
- two-sided compliance:  $P(D(0) = 0) \in (0,1)$  and  $P(D(1) = 1) \in (0,1)$ .

**Condition** We need to impose that the assignment Z is independent of the potential outcome Y(z,d) and the treatment D (given X). From now on we omitted the conditioning on X for simplicity. This is the *exclusion restriction* assumption. It is similar to  $\mathbb{E}\left[\epsilon \mid X,Z\right]=0$  assumption in standard linear IV model.

**Definition 7.3** (Local average treatment effect (LATE)). The local average treatment effect is defined as

$$\tau_{\mathsf{LATE}} = \mathbb{E}\left[Y(Z,1) - Y(Z,0) \mid D(1) - D(0) = 1\right]$$

which is the average treatment effect for the compliers.

#### 7.5.1 One-sided compliance

Instead of discussing ATE, we define a new set of parameters called *Intention to treat* (ITT).

**Definition 7.4** (Intention to treat (ITT)). The intention to treat on treatment is defined as

$$\mathsf{ITT}_D = \mathbb{E}\left[D(1) - D(0) \mid Z = 1\right]$$

The intention to treat on outcome is defined as

$$\mathsf{ITT}_Y = \mathbb{E}\left[Y(1, D(1)) \mid Z = 1\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[Y(0, D(0)) \mid Z = 0\right]$$

The intention to treat on outcome for compilers is defined as

$$\mathsf{ITT}_{Y|D(1)-D(0)=1} = \mathbb{E}\left[Y(1,1) - Y(0,1) \mid D(1) - D(0) = 1\right]$$

**Condition** Under the one-sided compliance, we need to make the following assumption:

- If D(1) = 0 (never taker), then Y(1,0) = Y(0,0).
- If D(1) = 1 (compiler), then Y(0, d) = Y(1, d) for d = 0, 1.

Because every individual is either a never taker or a compiler, we have the following:

$$Y(z,d) = Y(d)$$

This is sometimes called the an exclusion restriction assumption.

Then it can be shown that

$$\mathsf{ITT}_Y = \mathsf{ITT}_{Y.CO} \mathsf{ITT}_D$$

Recall that LATE is the average treatment effect for the compilers. And under the condition mentioned above,

$$\tau_{\mathsf{LATE}} = \mathbb{E}\left[Y(Z,1) - Y(Z,0) \mid D(1) - D(0) = 1\right]$$
 
$$\mathsf{ITT}_{Y\mid D(1) - D(0) = 1} = \mathbb{E}\left[Y(1,1) - Y(0,0) \mid D(1) - D(0) = 1\right]$$

That is,

$$\tau_{\mathsf{LATE}} = \mathsf{ITT}_{Y|D(1)-D(0)=1}$$

Therefore,

$$\tau_{\mathsf{LATE}} = \frac{\mathsf{ITT}_Y}{\mathsf{ITT}_D} = \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid Z = 1\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid Z = 0\right]}{\mathbb{E}\left[D \mid Z = 1\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[D \mid Z = 0\right]}$$

#### 7.5.2 Two-sided compliance

**Condition** This is a natural assumption.

- For never takers, Y(0,0) = Y(1,0).
- For always takers, Y(0,1) = Y(1,1).
- For compliers (and defiers), Y(1,d) = Y(0,d).

We also need to impose the *monotonicity* assumption. It states that the instrument Z has a monotonic effect on the treatment D. That is,  $D(1) \ge D(0)$  a.s. or  $D(1) \le D(0)$  a.s.

Under these conditions, we also have

$$\tau_{\mathsf{LATE}} = \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid Z = 1\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid Z = 0\right]}{\mathbb{E}\left[D \mid Z = 1\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[D \mid Z = 0\right]}$$

It can be shown that if there is no defiers, then  $\mathbb{E}\left[D\mid Z=1\right]-\mathbb{E}\left[D\mid Z=0\right]=\mathbb{P}\left(D(1)-D(0)=1\right)$ .

**Estimation** We can estimate  $\tau_{LATE}$  by

$$\frac{\mathbb{E}\left[Y\mid Z=1\right]-\mathbb{E}\left[Y\mid Z=0\right]}{\mathbb{E}\left[D\mid Z=1\right]-\mathbb{E}\left[D\mid Z=0\right]}=\frac{Cov(Y,Z)}{Cov(D,Z)}$$

7.6	<b>Estimation methods:</b>	(Augmented)	Inverse	probability	Weighting
	(AIPW)				

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