# Frontier Topics in Empirical Economics: Week 2 Non-parametric Method

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September 18, 2024

- **Common Parametric Models** Linear Model:  $y = X^{\prime} \beta + e$ ,  $e \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ ; Probit/Logit Model:  $P(y|X) = G(X\beta)$  where G is a nonlinear function
- Explicit Parametric Structure for Distribution
- Common Estimator OLS, MLE, Nonlinear LS, Efficient GMM etc.
- $\blacksquare$  Key Properties of the Estimator Consistency, BLUE, Asymptotic Efficiency etc.
- $\blacksquare$  In linear model, we have to assume that CEF is linear
- Why linear? Simple? Why not  $y = \beta x^{3\gamma} \cdot lnx + e$ ?
- What if linear specification is wrong?
- Everything collapses. No data can save.
- $\blacksquare$  It becomes only a linear approximation
- For example, if true model is Logit, but not linear regression
- **Functional form can be wrong**

- **Parametric statistics are based on assumptions about the distribution of** population from which the sample was taken
- **Non-parametric statistics are NOT based on functional form assumptions**
- $\blacksquare$  The data can be collected from a sample that does not follow a specific distribution
- **Potential Outcome Framework is intrinsically non-parametric**
- If we can directly get estimations of  $E[y|x=1]$  and  $E[y|x=0]$
- $\blacksquare$  We can estimate the ATE/ATT in a more general way without regression
- There are many other statistical modeling methods
- Non-parametric, semi-parametric to estimate CEF directly
- To understand tools beyond linear regression

- **Let's forget about the model functional form**
- Give up the "parametric" model like linear regression
- Do not assume that CFF is linear
- Go back to the original question to estimate  $E(y_i|x_i)$  without imposing any functional form assumption

- Notation:  $x_i, y_i$  denotes random variable;  $X_i,$   $Y_i$  denotes realizations;  $x,$   $y$  denotes random variables or some value of the random variables
- Realizations are given (sample), they are NOT random in our context  $\int x \sum_{i}^{n} X_{i} dx = \sum_{i}^{n} X_{i} \int x dx$

- Let's consider the first non-parametric method: Kernel regression
- $\blacksquare$  It is super intuitive and interesting
- Instead of assuming  $E(y_i | x_i) = x_i' \beta$ , we consider this CEF point by point
- That is, estimate  $E(y_i|x_i)$  for each possible point of  $x_i = x$

Step 1: Estimating a cumulative density

■ Consider estimating a cumulative density function (CDF)



What is the CDF at  $x = 3$ ?  $\hat{F}(x = 3) =$ ?

Go back to kindergarten!

**Just count how many points lie on the left to the red line:** 

$$
\hat{F}(x=3)=\frac{1}{n}\sum \mathbf{1}(X_i\leq 3)
$$

In general, we have an estimation of  $F(x)$  as:

$$
F(x) = P(X \le x) \Rightarrow \hat{F}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{1}(X_i \le x)
$$

 $\blacksquare$  The proportion of points (realizations) that are smaller than x

Step 2: Estimating a probability density

- Consider estimating a probability density function (PDF)
- **PDF** represents a marginal increase in CDF at some point (derivative)

$$
f(x) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x-h)}{2h}
$$

$$
\hat{f}(x) = \frac{\hat{F}(x+h) - \hat{F}(x-h)}{2h}
$$

**n** Changes of  $F(x)$  in a very small interval (with length 2h)

 $h$  is called "bandwidth"

**Then we can write the probability density**  $f(x)$  **at some value x as:** 

$$
\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{2h} \Big[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{1}(X_i \le x + h) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{1}(X_i \le x - h) \Big]
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2h} \mathbf{1}(x - h \le X_i \le x + h)
$$

- $\blacksquare$  How to interpret this?
- $\blacksquare$  We count the number of obs within a small interval around x, dividing by the length and the total number of obs
- $\sum_{n=1}^{n}$  $i=1$  $\frac{1}{2h}$ **1**(x − h ≤ X<sub>i</sub> ≤ x + h) is the number of obs per unit length
- When *n* is large, we can choose very small  $h$









• Define 
$$
k(v) = \frac{1}{2}1(|v| \le 1)
$$
. Then we have:

$$
\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{h} k(\frac{X_i - x}{h})
$$

- We call  $k(v)$  a uniform kernel function
- This  $\hat{f}(x)$  is a kernel estimator of the PDF (uniform kernel)
- Kernel is weight!
- There can be other kinds of kernel functions, when we assign different weights to different observations

- A function can be used as a kernel if
	- $k(v)$  is integrated to 1
	- k(v) is symmetric with  $k(v) = k(-v)$
- $\blacksquare$  The weights sum to one; The weights are symmetric
- **n** Triangular Kernel:  $k(v) = (1 |v|)1(|v| \le 1)$
- Epanechnikov Kernel:  $k(v) = \frac{3}{4}$  $\frac{3}{4}(1-v^2)\mathbf{1}(|v| \le 1)$
- Gaussian Kernel:  $k(v) = \frac{1}{2v}$  $\frac{1}{2\pi}e^{\frac{-v^2}{2}}$ 2
- Usually, Epanechnikov Kernel and Triangular Kernel are preferred



Figure 1: Various Kernels

- For multivariate case, let  $v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ .
- Define product kernel:  $K(v) = k(v_1)k(v_2)\cdots k(v_n)$ .
- The estimator becomes:

$$
\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{nh_1h_2\cdots h_q}\sum_i K(\frac{X_i-x}{h})
$$

- Define  $h = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n)$
- $K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{b}\right)$  $\frac{h^{1-\chi}}{h}$ ) is the weighted sum of points within the q-dimension hypercube
- $h_1h_2\cdots h_a$  is the volumn of this q-dimension hypercube

In two dimension case, we have

- $K\left(\frac{X_i-x}{h}\right)$  $\frac{h^{1-\chi}}{h}$ ) is the weighted sum of points within the rectangular
- $h_1 h_2 \cdots h_n$  is the area of this rectangular



Step 3: Estimating a CEF

- **Finally, let's see how to estimate a CEF using kernel method**
- Not like linear regression, we estimate the CEF point by point

Assume that we have CEF:

 $Y = g(X) + u$  $E[Y|X] = g(X)$ 

u has a conditional variance  $Var(u|X) = \sigma^2(x)$ 

#### Step 3: Estimating a CEF

Based on the CDF and PDF we've got, we have Nadaraya-Watson Estimator (N-W) for CEF as follows:

$$
\hat{g}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i K_h (X_i - x), \quad \text{where} \quad K_h (X_i - x) = \frac{K(\frac{X_i - x}{h})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} K(\frac{X_i - x}{h})}
$$

Intuition: The conditional Expectation of Y given  $X=x$  is estimated as a weighted average of observed  $Y_i$  closely around x (within the range of bandwidth h).

Weights are determined by the kernel function

Homework:

- 1. Derive NW Estimator from the kernel estimator of CDF and PDF. This can be a little bit hard. You can refer to Notes from Carol (or Hansen's book) for help.
- 2. What is NW Estimator, if we use the uniform kernel?

We have  $g(x) = E(Y|X)$  as CEF and  $f(x)$  as density for x

#### Theorem (Asymptotics for N-W Estimator)

Under some regularity conditions, as  $n \to \infty$ ,  $h_s \to 0$  (s = 1, ..., q),  $nh_1 \dots h_n \to \infty$ and  $nh_1 \ldots h_q \sum_s^q$  $s_{s=1}^q h_s^6 \rightarrow 0$ , we have:

$$
\sqrt{nh_1...h_q}(\hat{g}(x)-g(x)-\sum_{s=1}^q h_s^2B_s(x)) \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} N(0,\frac{\sigma^2(x)}{f(x)}(\int k(v)^2dv)^q)
$$

where 
$$
B_s(x) = \frac{\int v^2 k(v) dv}{2f(x)} [2 \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_s} \frac{\partial g(x)}{\partial x_s} + f(x) \frac{\partial^2 g(x)}{\partial x_s^2}]
$$

Asymptotic Bias = 
$$
\sum_{s=1}^{q} h_s^2 \frac{\int v^2 k(v) dv}{2f(x)} \left[ 2 \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_s} \frac{\partial g(x)}{\partial x_s} + f(x) \frac{\partial^2 g(x)}{\partial x_s^2} \right]
$$
  
Asymptotic Variance = 
$$
\frac{1}{nh_1...h_q} \frac{\sigma^2(x)}{f(x)} \left( \int k(v)^2 dv \right)^q
$$

\n- ■ (1) 
$$
h_s \uparrow \Rightarrow
$$
 Bias  $\uparrow$ , Variance  $\downarrow$
\n- ∴ we have trade-off in choosing Kernel bandwidth.
\n

- (2)  $q \uparrow \Rightarrow$  Variance  $\uparrow$  exponentially We call this "Curse of Dimensionality".
- (3) Kernel more concentrated ⇒ *Bias* ↓ ( $\int v^2 k(v) dv$ ), Variance ↑ ( $\int k(v)^2 dv$ ))
- (4) Slope Effect and Curvature Effect on bias:  $\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_s}$  $\partial g(x)$  $\frac{\partial g(x)}{\partial x_s}, \frac{\partial^2 g(x)}{\partial x_s^2}$  $\partial x_s^2$
- (5)  $f(x)$  ↑  $\Rightarrow$  Bias ↓, Variance ↓ (more observations)

# Non-parametric Method: Local Polynomial

- **Another widely used kernel-based method is local polynomial**
- $\blacksquare$  In linear regression, we use a global linear function to fit data
- In local polynomial, we use piece-wise polynomial (linear) function to fit data interval by interval

#### Non-parametric Method: Local Polynomial



For some  $X = x$ , we fit  $g(x)$  by choosing samples very close to x. Then we fit a polynomial for these observations. (Here, linear)

#### Non-parametric Method: Local Polynomial

For  $g(x)$ , we solve the following optimization problem at each point x:

$$
\min_{b_0, b_1, \cdots, b_p} \sum_{i=1}^n k(\frac{X_i - x}{h})(Y_i - b_0 - b_1(X_i - x) - b_2(X_i - x)^2 - \cdots - b_p(X_i - x)^p)^2
$$

When  $p = 1$ , we call it local linear regression When  $p = 2$ , we call it local quadratic regression

- Both kernel and local polynomial regressions are Kernel-based methods
- $\blacksquare$  There are three disadvantages of this method:
	- Computational burden is large (point by point estimation)
	- **Hard to include information or restriction over functional form**
	- Requirement of large sample
- Series-based methods alleviate these problems

As usual, we have a CEF model:

 $Y = g(X) + u$  $g(X) = E(Y|X)$ 

We expand the CEF by Taylor Series at zero:

$$
g(X)=\sum_{k=0}^\infty \frac{g^{(k)}(0)}{k!}X^k
$$

■ This infinite series can be approximated by a K-order global polynomial:

$$
g(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{K} \beta_k p_k(X)
$$
  

$$
p_0(x) = 1, p_1(x) = x, p_2(x) = x^2, ..., p_K(x) = x^K
$$

- We can use OLS to estimate this polynomial
- The vector of  $\{p_0, p_1, p_2, ..., p_K\}$  is called "basis"
- **This is "global" polynomial, in contrast to "local" polynomial**

- $\blacksquare$  Polynomial is the simplest choice of basis
- In multivariate case  $(2 \text{ variables})$ , it becomes:  $\{1, x_1, x_2, x_1x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2, x_1x_2^2, x_1^2x_2, x_1^2x_2^2... \}$
- **Polynomial series has several problems**
- $\blacksquare$  It is very sensitive to outliers
- **The biggest problem for polynomial series is Runge's phenomenon**

- Runge's phenomenon
- Red: original true function; Blue: fifth-order poly; Green: ninth-order poly



- Since the power polynomials are forced to vary somewhere
- $\blacksquare$  It may be pushed to the boundary
- The boundary part is approximated very poorly  $\Box$

- $\blacksquare$  How to choose the optimal order?
- We will discuss this problem in details in the next lecture when considering model selection and machine learning
- But in general, high order polynomial behaves very bad
- Some other basis are better

#### **Fourier basis, derived by Fourier expansion**



- Excellent for approximating periodic functions
- Better than poly, but still not good at boundary/jumping point (Gibbs' phenomenon)

- Better than poly, but still not good at boundary/jumping point (Gibbs' phenomenon)
- **E** Let's see an approximation of Fourier series to the square wave



- **There are more basis**
- Such as Spline basis and Wavelet basis
- They are complicated, rarely seen in Applied works
- But Carol claims that Spline basis is in general a better choice
- If interested, you can read her notes

- **Non-parametric model is so general that we do not impose any structure**
- Totally data driven, no prior information
- Convergence rate is low, variance is high, requirement for data is high
- What if we want to impose some structure, but not the full structure?
- Semi-parametric model

- **Partially linear model**
- One of the most popular semi-parametric models

$$
Y = Xt \beta + g(Z) + u, \quad E(u|X, Z) = 0, \text{Var}(u|X, Z) = \sigma2
$$

 $\blacksquare$  X enters in the model linearly, Z non-parametrically

- Estimation of  $\beta$  is simple, we follow [Robinson \(1988\)](#page-50-0)
- In the first step, conditional on  $Z$  and then take the subtract:

$$
E(Y|Z) = E(X'|Z)\beta + g(Z)
$$
  

$$
Y - E(Y|Z) = [X - E(X|Z)]'\beta + u
$$

- **E**(Y|Z) and  $E(X|Z)$  can be estimated using methods introduced previously
- Then we have estimators for  $Y E(Y|Z)$  and  $X E(X|Z)$
- Then we can estimate  $\beta$  using OLS
- Asymptotics of this estimator is complicated

In the second step, we subtract  $X^{\prime}\beta$  from  $Y$ :

$$
Y-X'\beta=g(Z)+u
$$

 $g(Z)$  can be estimated using methods introduced previously

- Question: How to estimate the variance of  $\hat{g}(Z)$ ?
- $\blacksquare$  Can we use the variance from the non-parametric regression directly?
- No! Because  $Y X^{\prime}\beta$  is also estimated
- $\blacksquare$  It contains more uncertainty from the first step
- $\blacksquare$  This is a common mistake in empirical work: When you have first stage estimation as known parameter in the second stage, watch out for the std err estimation!

- Similarly, how to conduct inference for first step  $\beta$ ?
- $\blacksquare$  It is a combination of non-parametric and regression estimations
- No closed-form variance equation is available
- Not possible to directly calculate the standard error

In these two cases, we need bootstrap for inference

# Non-parametric Method: Bootstrap

- Bootstrap is a non-parametric method for inference
- $\blacksquare$  It is used when there is no closed-form standard errors
- Instead of deriving the closed-form equation of variance
- We use simulation to estimate it
- Random sampling with replacement

# Non-parametric Method: Bootstrap

- Step 1: Given full sample with size n, draw R new samples of size n, with replacement. Index each new sample by r
- Step 2: Calculate the simulated variance of  $\hat{g}(x)$  by:  $\hat{V}(x) = \frac{1}{R-1} \sum_{r=1}^{R}$  $_{r=1}^{R}[\hat{g}_r(x)-\hat{g}(x)]^2$
- Step 3: Use  $\hat{V}(x)$  to calculate confidence intervals and implement statistical tests
- We call this bootstrapped variance
- **But using bootstrapped variance to construct confidence interval is a poor choice**
- It relies on asymptotic normality, which is not accurate in finite sample
- A better chioce is "percentile interval"
- First, we stack the sample of bootstrap estimates  $\{\hat{\beta}^1,\hat{\beta}^2,...,\hat{\beta}^R\}$
- We have an empirical distribution of  $\hat{\beta}'$
- The bootstrap 100(1  $\alpha$ )% confidence interval is then: [ $q_\alpha^*$  $a_{\alpha/2}^*, q_1^*$  $\int_{1-\alpha/2}^{\infty}$
- $q^*$  is the quantile of this empirical distribution

# Non-parametric Method: Application

- Where to apply non-parametric methods?
- Anything related to estimation of CEF
- **Potential outcome framework is non-parametric**
- Non-parametric inference in complicated models (Bootstrap)
- If you focus on prediction and fit, but not the structure behind it Predict stock price, machine learning, RDD fitting
- We will show these in the following lectures

# Final Conclusion

- There are statistical modeling methods other than Linear regression
- **Non-parametric methods impose no prior structure, totally data-driven** 
	- Kernel-based methods: N-W estimator, Local polynomial
	- Series-based methods: Polynomial, Fourier, Spline, Wavelet
- They are very useful in causal inference to directly estimate CEF
- **H** However, they have weaknesses: Not always better to make model more flexible
	- Hard to incorporate restrictions
	- Require large sample size to have accurate estimation
- We will discuss more about it next week
- A semi-parametric model is between non-parametric and parametric



<span id="page-50-0"></span>Robinson, Peter M. 1988. "Root-N-consistent Semiparametric Regression." Econometrica :931–954.