# Quantitative Economics for the Evaluation of the European Policy

Dipartimento di Economia e Management

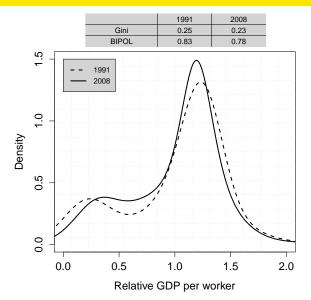


Irene Brunetti Davide Fiaschi Angela Parenti<sup>1</sup>

04/10/2016

1 / 21

# Distribution of Regional GDP per Worker



## Estimate of The Density Function

Let be x a continuous random variable and f its probability density function (pdf).

The pdf characterizes the distribution of the random variable x since it tells "how x is distributed".

Moreover, from pdf it is possible to calculate the mean and the variance (it they exists) of x and the probability that x takes on values in a given interval.

## Histogram

Histograms are nonparametric estimates of an unknown density function, f(x), without assuming any well-known functional form. In order to build an histogram, you have to:

**①** select an origin  $x_0$  and divide the real line into "bin" of binwidth h:

$$B_j = [x_0 + (j-1)h, x_0 + jh], j \in \mathbf{Z};$$

# Histogram

Histograms are nonparametric estimates of an unknown density function, f(x), without assuming any well-known functional form. In order to build an histogram, you have to:

**①** select an origin  $x_0$  and divide the real line into "bin" of binwidth h:

$$B_j = [x_0 + (j-1)h, x_0 + jh], j \in \mathbf{Z};$$

② count how many observations fall into each bin  $(n_j \text{ for each bin } j)$ ;

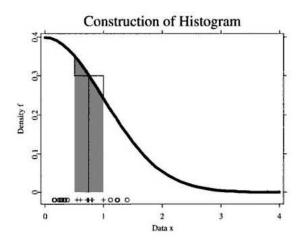
# Histogram

Histograms are nonparametric estimates of an unknown density function, f(x), without assuming any well-known functional form. In order to build an histogram, you have to:

**1** select an origin  $x_0$  and divide the real line into "bin" of binwidth h:

$$B_j = [x_0 + (j-1)h, x_0 + jh], j \in \mathbf{Z};$$

- ② count how many observations fall into each bin  $(n_j \text{ for each bin } j)$ ;
- **3** for each bin divide the frequency by the sample size n and the binwidth h, to get the relative frequencies  $f_j = \frac{n_j}{nh}$



Crucial parameter: the binwidth h

A higher binwidth produces smoother estimates

Crucial parameter: the binwidth h

- A higher binwidth produces smoother estimates
- The estimate is biased and that the bias is positively related to h,
   while the variance of the estimate is negatively related to h

#### Crucial parameter: the binwidth h

- A higher binwidth produces smoother estimates
- The estimate is biased and that the bias is positively related to h, while the variance of the estimate is negatively related to h
- Thus, it is not possible to choose h in order to have a small bias and a small variance

#### Crucial parameter: the binwidth h

- A higher binwidth produces smoother estimates
- The estimate is biased and that the bias is positively related to h, while the variance of the estimate is negatively related to h
- Thus, it is not possible to choose h in order to have a small bias and a small variance
- $\rightarrow$  we need to find an "optimal" binwidth, which represents an optimal compromise.

Problems with the histogram:

Problems with the histogram:

• each observation x in  $[m_j - \frac{h}{2}, m_j + \frac{h}{2})$  is estimated by the same value,  $\hat{f}_h(m_j)$ , where  $m_j$  is the center of the bin;

Problems with the histogram:

- each observation x in  $[m_j \frac{h}{2}, m_j + \frac{h}{2}]$  is estimated by the same value,  $\hat{f}_h(m_j)$ , where  $m_j$  is the center of the bin;
- ② f(x) is estimated using the observations that fall in the interval containing x, and that receive the same weight in the estimation. That is, for  $x \in B_j$ ,

$$\hat{f}_h(m_j) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i \in B_j),$$

where I is the indicator function.

# Nonparametric density estimation

• Density estimation is a generalization of the histogram.

# Nonparametric density estimation

- Density estimation is a generalization of the histogram.
- It is based on **Kernel functions**: estimate f(x) using the observations that fall into an interval around x, which (typically) receive decreasing weight the further they are from x.

Consider the *uniform* kernel function, which assigns the same weight to all observations in an interval of length 2h around observation x, [x - h, x + h):

$$\hat{f}_h(x) = \frac{1}{2nh} \sharp \{X_i \in [x-h, x+h)\}\$$

can be obtained by means of a kernel function K(u) such that:

$$K(u) = \frac{1}{2}I(|u| \le 1)$$

where I is the indicator function and  $u = (x - X_i)/h$ .

Consider the *uniform* kernel function, which assigns the same weight to all observations in an interval of length 2h around observation x, [x - h, x + h):

$$\hat{f}_h(x) = \frac{1}{2nh} \sharp \{X_i \in [x - h, x + h)\}$$

can be obtained by means of a kernel function K(u) such that:

$$K(u) = \frac{1}{2}I(|u| \le 1)$$

where I is the indicator function and  $u = (x - X_i)/h$ .

• It assigns weight 1/2 to each observation  $X_i$  whose distance from x, the point where we want to estimate the density, is not bigger than h.

Consider the *uniform* kernel function, which assigns the same weight to all observations in an interval of length 2h around observation x, [x - h, x + h):

$$\hat{f}_h(x) = \frac{1}{2nh} \sharp \{X_i \in [x - h, x + h)\}$$

can be obtained by means of a kernel function K(u) such that:

$$K(u) = \frac{1}{2}I(|u| \le 1)$$

where I is the indicator function and  $u = (x - X_i)/h$ .

- It assigns weight 1/2 to each observation  $X_i$  whose distance from x, the point where we want to estimate the density, is not bigger than h.
- For each observation that falls into the interval [x h, x + h] the indicator function takes on value 1

Consider the *uniform* kernel function, which assigns the same weight to all observations in an interval of length 2h around observation x, [x - h, x + h):

$$\hat{f}_h(x) = \frac{1}{2nh} \sharp \{X_i \in [x - h, x + h)\}$$

can be obtained by means of a kernel function K(u) such that:

$$K(u) = \frac{1}{2}I(|u| \le 1)$$

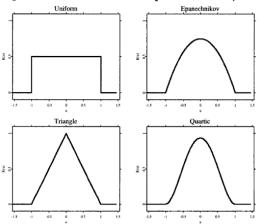
where I is the indicator function and  $u = (x - X_i)/h$ .

- It assigns weight 1/2 to each observation  $X_i$  whose distance from x, the point where we want to estimate the density, is not bigger than h.
- For each observation that falls into the interval [x h, x + h) the indicator function takes on value 1
- Each contribution to the function is weighted equally no matter how close the observation X<sub>i</sub> is to x

(ロ) (部) (注) (注) 注 り(())

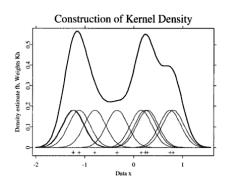
#### Kernel functions: Cont.

A Kernel function in general (e.g. Epanechnikov, Gaussian, etc), assigns higher weights to observations in [x - h, x + h] closer to x.



## Kernel density

A kernel density estimation appears as a sum of bumps: at a given x, the value of  $\hat{f}_h(x)$ is found by vertically summing over the "bumps":



$$\hat{f}_h(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{nh} K\left(\frac{x - X_i}{h}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \underbrace{K_h(x - X_i)}_{\text{transfer to part for all finest for$$

11 / 21

Brunetti-Fiaschi-Parenti

# Properties of Kernel density estimator

Same problems found for the histogram, that is the bias and the variance depending on h, also hold for the Kernel:

$$Bias\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = E\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} - f(x);$$

that positively depends on h;

$$Var\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = Var\left\{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n}K_h(x-X_i)\right\};$$

that negatively depends on h.

# Properties of Kernel density estimator

Same problems found for the histogram, that is the bias and the variance depending on h, also hold for the Kernel:

$$Bias\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = E\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} - f(x);$$

that positively depends on h;

$$Var\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = Var\left\{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n}K_h(x-X_i)\right\};$$

that negatively depends on h.

So, how do we choose h given the trade-off between bias and variance?

◆ロ > ← 部 > ← 差 > ← 差 → り へ ○

(a) Define MSE (mean squared error)

$$MSE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = E[\{\hat{f}_h(x) - f(x)\}^2]$$
 ...

$$\textit{MSE}\{\hat{\textit{f}}_\textit{h}(\textit{x})\} = \textit{Var}\{\hat{\textit{f}}_\textit{h}(\textit{x})\} + \left[\textit{Bias}\{\hat{\textit{f}}_\textit{h}(\textit{x})\}\right]^2$$

 $\rightarrow$  minimizing MSE may solve the trade-off, but  $h_{opt}$  depends on f(x) and f''(x), which are unknown.

(a) Define MSE (mean squared error)

$$MSE\{\hat{f}_{h}(x)\} = E[\{\hat{f}_{h}(x) - f(x)\}^{2}]$$
...
$$MSE\{\hat{f}_{h}(x)\} = Var\{\hat{f}_{h}(x)\} + [Bias\{\hat{f}_{h}(x)\}]^{2}$$

 $\rightarrow$  minimizing MSE may solve the trade-off, but  $h_{opt}$  depends on f(x) and f''(x), which are unknown

(b) Define MISE (mean integrated squared error), global measure:

$$MISE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = E\left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \{\hat{f}_h(x) - f(x)\}^2 dx\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} MSE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} dx$$

(a) Define MSE (mean squared error)

$$MSE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = E[\{\hat{f}_h(x) - f(x)\}^2]$$
...
 $MSE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = Var\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} + [Bias\{\hat{f}_h(x)\}]^2$ 

- $\rightarrow$  minimizing MSE may solve the trade-off, but  $h_{opt}$  depends on f(x) and f''(x), which are unknown.
- (b) Define MISE (mean integrated squared error), global measure:

$$MISE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = E\left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \{\hat{f}_h(x) - f(x)\}^2 dx\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} MSE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} dx$$

(c) Define AMISE (an approximation of MISE)  $\rightarrow$  still  $h_{opt}$  depends on the unknown f(x), in particular on its second derivative f''(x).

(a) Define MSE (mean squared error)

$$MSE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = E[\{\hat{f}_h(x) - f(x)\}^2]$$
 ...

$$MSE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = Var\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} + [Bias\{\hat{f}_h(x)\}]^2$$

- $\rightarrow$  minimizing MSE may solve the trade-off, but  $h_{opt}$  depends on f(x) and f''(x), which are unknown.
- (b) Define MISE (mean integrated squared error), global measure:

$$MISE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} = E\left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \{\hat{f}_h(x) - f(x)\}^2 dx\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} MSE\{\hat{f}_h(x)\} dx$$

- (c) Define AMISE (an approximation of MISE)  $\rightarrow$  still  $h_{opt}$  depends on the unknown f(x), in particular on its second derivative f''(x).
- (d) One possibility is a plug-in method suggested by Silverman, and consists in assuming that the unknown function is a Gaussian density function (whose variance is estimated by the sample variance). In this case  $h_{opt}$  has a simple formulation, and can be defined as a rule-of-thumb bandwidth.

• Up to know we have seen the possibility of giving higher weights to the observations whose distance from x, the point where we want to estimate the density, is not bigger than  $h \to \text{assuming only one } h!$ 

- Up to know we have seen the possibility of giving higher weights to the observations whose distance from x, the point where we want to estimate the density, is not bigger than  $h \to \text{assuming only one } h!$
- But we can get a better estimate by allowing the window width of the kernels to vary from one point to another.

- Up to know we have seen the possibility of giving higher weights to the observations whose distance from x, the point where we want to estimate the density, is not bigger than  $h \to \text{assuming only one } h!$
- But we can get a better estimate by allowing the window width of the kernels to vary from one point to another.
- In particular, a natural way to deal with long-tailed densities is to use a broader kerne I in regions of low density.

- Up to know we have seen the possibility of giving higher weights to the observations whose distance from x, the point where we want to estimate the density, is not bigger than  $h \to \text{assuming only one } h!$
- But we can get a better estimate by allowing the window width of the kernels to vary from one point to another.
- In particular, a natural way to deal with long-tailed densities is to use a broader kerne I in regions of low density.
- Thus an observation in the tail would have its mass smudged out over a wider range than one in the main part of the distribution.

 A practical problem is deciding in the first place whether or not an observation is in a region of low density

- A practical problem is deciding in the first place whether or not an observation is in a region of low density
- The adaptive kernel approach copes with this problem by means of a two-stage procedure:

- A practical problem is deciding in the first place whether or not an observation is in a region of low density
- The adaptive kernel approach copes with this problem by means of a two-stage procedure:
  - get an initial estimate to have a rough idea of the density

- A practical problem is deciding in the first place whether or not an observation is in a region of low density
- The adaptive kernel approach copes with this problem by means of a two-stage procedure:
  - get an initial estimate to have a rough idea of the density
  - ② use the former density to get a pattern of bandwidths corresponding to various observations to be used in a second estimate

# Adaptive Kernel: Cont.

In particular:

Step 1 Find a *pilot estimate*  $\tilde{f}(x)$  that satisfies  $\tilde{f}(x_i) > 0 \ \forall i$ 

# Adaptive Kernel: Cont.

In particular:

Step 1 Find a *pilot estimate*  $ilde{f}(x)$  that satisfies  $ilde{f}(x_i) > 0 \ orall i$ 

Step 2 Define *local bandwidth factor*  $\lambda_i$  by:

$$\lambda_i = [\tilde{f}(x_i)/g]^{-\alpha} \tag{1}$$

where g is the geometric mean of the  $\tilde{f}(x_i)$ ,  $\log g = n^{-1} \sum \log \tilde{f}(x_i)$ ; and  $\alpha$  the sensitivity parameter  $(\alpha \leq 0)$ 

# Adaptive Kernel: Cont.

In particular:

- Step 1 Find a *pilot estimate*  $ilde{f}(x)$  that satisfies  $ilde{f}(x_i) > 0 \ orall i$
- Step 2 Define *local bandwidth factor*  $\lambda_i$  by:

$$\lambda_i = [\tilde{f}(x_i)/g]^{-\alpha} \tag{1}$$

where g is the geometric mean of the  $\tilde{f}(x_i)$ ,  $\log g = n^{-1} \sum \log \tilde{f}(x_i)$ ; and  $\alpha$  the sensitivity parameter  $(\alpha \leq 0)$ 

Step 3 Define the adaptive kernel estimate  $\hat{f}(x)$  by:

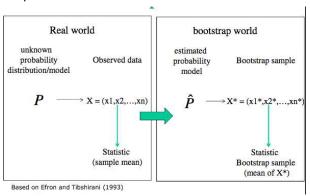
$$\hat{f}(x) = nh^{-1} \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}^{-1} K\{h^{-1}\lambda_{i}^{-1}(x - X_{i})\}$$
 (2)

#### **Bootstrap**

• The bootstrap technique allows estimation of the population distribution by using the information based on a number of resamples from the sample.

#### **Bootstrap**

 The bootstrap technique allows estimation of the population distribution by using the information based on a number of resamples from the sample.



• Use the information of a number of resamples from the sample to estimate the population distribution

- Use the information of a number of resamples from the sample to estimate the population distribution
- Procedure:
  - Given a sample of size n:

- Use the information of a number of resamples from the sample to estimate the population distribution
- Procedure:
  - Given a sample of size n:
    - Treat the sample as population

- Use the information of a number of resamples from the sample to estimate the population distribution
- Procedure:
  - Given a sample of size n:
    - Treat the sample as population
    - Draw B samples of size n with replacement from your sample (the bootstrap samples)

- Use the information of a number of resamples from the sample to estimate the population distribution
- Procedure:
  - Given a sample of size n:
    - Treat the sample as population
    - Draw B samples of size n with replacement from your sample (the bootstrap samples)
    - Compute for each bootstrap sample the statistic of interest

- Use the information of a number of resamples from the sample to estimate the population distribution
- Procedure:
  - Given a sample of size n:
    - Treat the sample as population
    - Draw B samples of size n with replacement from your sample (the bootstrap samples)
    - Compute for each bootstrap sample the statistic of interest
    - Estimate the sample distribution of the statistic by the bootstrap sample distribution

 Basic idea: If the sample is a good approximation of the population, bootstrapping will provide a good approximation of the sample distribution.

- Basic idea: If the sample is a good approximation of the population, bootstrapping will provide a good approximation of the sample distribution.
- Justification:

- Basic idea: If the sample is a good approximation of the population, bootstrapping will provide a good approximation of the sample distribution.
- Justification:
  - If the sample is representative for the population, the sample distribution (empirical distribution) approaches the population (theoretical) distribution if *n* increases;

- Basic idea: If the sample is a good approximation of the population, bootstrapping will provide a good approximation of the sample distribution.
- Justification:
  - If the sample is representative for the population, the sample distribution (empirical distribution) approaches the population (theoretical) distribution if n increases;
  - ② If the number of resamples (B) from the original sample increases, the bootstrap distribution approaches the sample distribution.

Given a sample of observations  $X = \{X_1, ..., X_m\}$  where each  $X_i$  is a vector of dimension n the bootstrap algorithm is the following.

Given a sample of observations  $X = \{X_1, ..., X_m\}$  where each  $X_i$  is a vector of dimension n the bootstrap algorithm is the following.

• Estimate from sample x the density  $\hat{f}$ .

Given a sample of observations  $X = \{X_1, ..., X_m\}$  where each  $X_i$  is a vector of dimension n the bootstrap algorithm is the following.

- Estimate from sample x the density  $\hat{f}$ .
- ② Select B independent bootstrap samples  $\{X^{*1},...,X^{*B}\}$ , each consisting of n data values drawn with replacement from x.

Given a sample of observations  $X = \{X_1, ..., X_m\}$  where each  $X_i$  is a vector of dimension n the bootstrap algorithm is the following.

- Estimate from sample x the density  $\hat{f}$ .
- ② Select B independent bootstrap samples  $\{X^{*1}, ..., X^{*B}\}$ , each consisting of n data values drawn with replacement from x.
- § Estimate the density  $\hat{f}_b^*$  corresponding to each bootstrap sample b=1,...,B.

Given a sample of observations  $X = \{X_1, ..., X_m\}$  where each  $X_i$  is a vector of dimension n the bootstrap algorithm is the following.

- **①** Estimate from sample x the density  $\hat{f}$ .
- ② Select B independent bootstrap samples  $\{X^{*1},...,X^{*B}\}$ , each consisting of n data values drawn with replacement from x.
- § Estimate the density  $\hat{f}_b^*$  corresponding to each bootstrap sample b=1,...,B.

The distribution of  $\hat{f}^*$  about  $\hat{f}$  can therefore be used to mimic the distribution of  $\hat{f}$  about f, that is it can be used to calculate the confidence intervals for estimates.

#### References

#### Histogram and Density Estimation

Bowman, A.W. and Azzalini A. (1997). Applied smoothing techniques for data analysis: the kernel approach with S-Plus illustrations: the kernel approach with S-Plus illustrations. *Oxford University Press*.

- Estimate: Chapter 1
- Inference (confidence bands): Chapter 2

#### Adaptive Density Estimation

Silverman, B.W. (1986). Density estimation for statistics and data analysis. *CRC press*.

• Estimate: Chapter 5.3