Extremum Estimation and Numerical Derivatives

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Abstract

Empirical researchers routinely rely on finite-difference approximations to evaluate derivatives of estimated functions. For instance, commonly used optimization routines implicitly use finite-difference formulas for gradient calculations. This paper investigates the statistical properties of numerically evaluated gradients and of extremum estimators computed using numerical gradients. We find that first, one needs to adjust the step size or the tolerance parameter as a function of the sample size. Second, higher-order finite difference formulas reduce the asymptotic bias analogous to higher order kernels. Third, we provide weak sufficient conditions for uniform consistency of the finite-difference approximations for gradients and directional derivatives. Fourth, we analyze numerical gradient-based extremum estimators and find that the asymptotic distribution of the resulting estimators may depend on the sequence of step sizes. Fifth, we state conditions under which the numerical derivative estimator is consistent and asymptotically normal. Sixth, we generalize our results to semiparametric estimation problems. Finally, we show that the theory is also useful in a range of nonstandard estimation procedures.

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1 Introduction

Computing extremum estimators typically involves the use of maximization routines. When the analytical gradient of the objective function is not available, these routines use finite-difference approximations to the gradient and this involves the choice of a step size parameter. The statistical noise in this approximation algorithm of the optimization routine is typically ignored in empirical work. In this paper, we provide weak conditions for the consistency of numerical derivative estimates and demonstrate that the use of finite approximation can affect both the rate of convergence and the asymptotic distribution of the resulting estimator. This result has important implications for

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the practical use of numerical optimization routines. In particular, the choice of numerical tolerance and the step size should depend on the sample size. Further, the asymptotic distribution and, consequently, the shape of the confidence region depends on the particular sequence of step sizes.

We focus on numerical gradient-based optimization routines that use finite-difference formulas to approximate the gradient of a general objective function that can depend on finite or infinite dimensional unknown parameters. Aspects of this problem have received some previous attention in the literature. Pakes and Pollard (1989), Newey and McFadden (1994) and Murphy and Van der Vaart (2000) provided sufficient conditions for using numerical derivatives to consistently estimate the asymptotic variance in a parametric model. The properties of numerical derivatives have, however, predominantly been investigated only for very smooth models. For instance, Anderssen and Bloomfield (1974) analyzed derivative computations for functions that are approximated using polynomial interpolation. L’Ecuyer and Perron (1994) considered asymptotic properties of numerical derivatives for the class of general smooth regression models. Andrews (1997) considered the relationship between numerical tolerance for the computation of GMM-type objective functions and their sample variance. However, to the best of our knowledge there have been no studies of the impact of the numerical optimization on the statistical properties of general extremum estimators.

Our results include fairly weak sufficient conditions for consistency, rates of convergence and the asymptotic distribution for several classes of numerically computed extremum estimators. Our analysis applies to M-estimators, generalized method of moment (GMM) estimators, and estimators that maximize a function involving second-order U-statistics. Numerical M-estimation is considered both for finite-dimensional and infinite-dimensional unknown parameters. We find that the choice of the step size for consistency and convergence to the asymptotic distribution depends on the interplay between the smoothness of the population objective function, the order of the chosen approximation, and on the properties of the sample objective function. Specifically, we find that if the sample objective function is very smooth, then the step size for numerical differentiation can be chosen to approach zero at an arbitrarily fast rate. For a discontinuous objective function, the step size should not converge to zero too rapidly as the sample increases.

We illustrate our findings with several empirical examples. In one example, we apply numerical gradient-based optimization to the maximum score (Manski, 1975), and find that for an appropriate step size sequence, the behavior of the resulting estimator is similar to the smoothed maximum score estimator of Horowitz (1992).

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 analyzes uniformly consistent estimation of numerical derivatives for both parametric and semiparametric models. Section 3 and 4 study the impact of numerical derivative based optimization method on the asymptotic properties of the resulting extremum estimators. Section 5 extends these results to U-statistics based objective functions, and section 6 considers applications. Section 7 addresses the practical question of step size choice for a given sample and Section 8 presents Monte Carlo simulation evidence. Finally section 9 concludes.
2 Estimation of derivatives from non-smooth sample functions

2.1 Derivatives of semiparametric moment functions

In this section we consider a general conditional moment model of the form of

\[ m(z, \theta, \eta(\cdot)) = E[\rho(Y, \theta, \eta(\cdot)) | Z = z] = 0, \] if and only if \((\theta, \eta(\cdot)) = (\theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot)).\)

Subsequent sections deal with extreme estimators instead. The parameters above include the finite dimensional \(\theta \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^d\) and the infinite dimensional \(\eta(\cdot) \in \mathcal{H}\) parameters. This setup includes the unconditional moment as a special case when \(z\) is a constant. Because the moment condition \(m(\cdot)\) can be multi-dimensional, this setup also includes two step and multi-step step estimators, when some of the moment conditions corresponding to initial stage estimators only depend on the infinite dimensional functions \(\eta(\cdot)\). Semiparametric estimators for this general model and their asymptotic distributions are studied extensively in the literature. In some models, the moment conditions \(\rho(y, \theta, \eta(\cdot))\) depend only on the value of the function \(\eta(\cdot)\) evaluated at the argument \(y\). In some other models, such as in dynamic discrete choice models and dynamic games, \(\rho(y, \theta, \eta(\cdot))\) may depend on the entire function of \(\eta(\cdot)\) in complex ways.

The sieve approach, studied in a sequence of papers by Newey and Powell (2003), Chen and Shen (1998), Ai and Chen (2003) and Chen and Pouzo (2009), approximates the class of infinite dimensional functions \(\mathcal{H}\) using a parametric family of function \(\mathcal{H}_n\) whose dimension increases to infinity as the sample size \(n\) increases.

For any \(w \in \mathcal{H}\) and \(\alpha = (\theta, \eta)\), denote by \(\frac{\partial m(Z, \alpha)}{\partial \eta} [w] = \frac{dm(Z, \theta, \eta + \tau w)}{d\tau} \big|_{\tau=0}\) the directional derivative of \(m(Z, \alpha)\) with respect to the \(\eta\) component in the \(w\) direction. It is known that \(\hat{\theta}\) can be \(\sqrt{n}\) consistent and asymptotically normal while \(\hat{\eta}\) can obtain the optimal nonparametric convergence rate for \(\eta\).

In addition, consistent inference for \(\theta\) depends on the ability to estimate the finite dimensional and infinite dimensional directional derivatives \(D_{w, j}(z) \equiv \frac{\partial m(Z, \alpha)}{\partial \eta} [w] \big|_{\tau=0}\) uniformly consistently in various directions \(w, j\), where \(\alpha = (\theta, \eta)\). Ackerberg, Chen, and Hahn (2009) further shows that treating the entire estimation procedure for \(\alpha\) as parametric and reading off the variance of \(\hat{\theta}\) from the upper-left block of an estimate of the asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of \(\hat{\alpha} = (\hat{\theta}, \hat{\eta})\) will give consistent estimates of the asymptotic variance of the parametric component. However, in many practical estimation problems, the derivatives of \(\frac{\partial m(Z, \alpha)}{\partial \theta}\) and \(\frac{\partial m(Z, \alpha)}{\partial \eta} [w]\) do not have analytic solutions and have to be evaluated numerically. This might be the case even if \(\rho(\cdot)\) appears to be linear. For example in dynamic models typically \(\rho(x; \theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot)) = \eta_0(z) - \alpha \eta_0(x) - f(x, z; \theta)\) for a known parametric function \(f(x, z; \theta)\). The goal of this section is to analyze the impact of numerical approximation on statistical properties of the estimator for \(D_{w}(z)\) and the parameter of interest. Other sections consider M-estimators.
2.2 Numerical differentiation using finite differences

Finite difference methods (e.g. Judd (1998)) are often used for the numerical approximation of derivatives. To illustrate, for a univariate function \( g(x) \), we can use a step size \( \epsilon \) to construct a one-sided derivative estimate \( \hat{g}'(x) = \frac{g(x+\epsilon) - g(x)}{\epsilon} \), or a two-sided derivative estimate \( \hat{g}'(x) = \frac{g(x+\epsilon) - g(x-\epsilon)}{2\epsilon} \). More generally, the \( k \)th derivative of \( g(x) \) can be estimated by a linear operator, denoted by \( L_{k,p}^\epsilon g(\theta) \), that makes use of a \( p \)th order two-sided formula:

\[
L_{k,p}^\epsilon g(x) = \frac{1}{\epsilon^k} \sum_{l=-p}^{p} c_l g(x + l\epsilon).
\]

In multivariate functions, \( g(x + \epsilon) \) means the vector of \( \left[ g(x + \epsilon e_k) \right] \), \( k = 1, \ldots, d \), where \( e_k \) is the vector with 1 in the \( k \)th position and 0 elsewhere, and \( d \) is the dimension of \( x \). The usual two-sided derivative refers to the case when \( p = 1 \). When \( p \geq 1 \), these are called higher order finite differences. For a given \( p \), when the weights \( c_l, l = 1, \ldots, p \) are chosen appropriately, the error in approximating \( g^{(k)}(x) \) with \( L_{j,p}^\epsilon g(x) \) will be small:

\[
L_{k,p}^\epsilon g(x) - g^{(k)}(x) = O(\epsilon^{2p+1-k}).
\]

For \( r = 2p + 1 \), consider the following Taylor expansion:

\[
L_{k,p}^\epsilon g(x) = \frac{1}{\epsilon^r} \sum_{l=-p}^{p} c_l \left[ \sum_{i=0}^{r} \frac{g^{(i)}(x)}{i!} (l\epsilon)^i + O(\epsilon^{r+1}) \right] = \sum_{i=0}^{r} \frac{g^{(i)}(x)}{i!} \sum_{l=-p}^{p} \frac{c_l l^i}{i!} + O(\epsilon^{r+1-k}).
\]

The coefficients \( c_l \) are therefore determined by a system of equations where \( \delta_{i,k} \) is the Kronecker symbol that equals 1 if and only if \( i = k \) and equals zero otherwise:

\[
\sum_{l=-p}^{p} c_l l^i = i! \delta_{i,k}, \quad \text{for} \quad i = 0, \ldots, r.
\]

We are mostly concerned with first derivatives where \( k = 1 \). In multivariate functions, the notation of \( p \)th order central derivatives can also be extended straightforwardly to partial derivatives. Since we are only concerned with \( k = 1 \), we only need to use \( L_{1,p}^\epsilon \) to highlight the element of \( x \) for which the linear operator applies to.

The usual two sided formula corresponds to \( p = 1 \), \( c_{-1} = -1/2 \), \( c_0 = 0 \) and \( c_1 = 1/2 \). For second order first derivatives where \( p = 2 \) and \( k = 1 \), \( c_1 = 1/12 \), \( c_{-1} = -1/12 \), \( c_2 = -2/3 \), \( c_{-2} = 2/3 \), \( c_0 = 0 \). In addition to central numerical derivative, left and right numerical derivatives can also be defined analogously. Since they generally have larger approximation errors than central numerical derivatives, we will restrict most attention to central derivatives.

Each \( j \)th component of \( D_w(z)^j \) in the asymptotic variance formula can then be estimated by

\[
\tilde{D}_w^j(z) = L_{1,p}^\epsilon \tilde{m}(z; \hat{\theta}, \hat{\eta}(\cdot)) - L_{1,p}^\epsilon \tilde{m}(z; \hat{\theta}, \tilde{\eta}(\cdot)).
\]
where $\varepsilon_n$ and $\tau_n$ are the relevant step sizes for the numerical derivatives with respect to the finite and infinite-dimensional parameters. In general the step sizes $\varepsilon_n$ and $\tau_n$ can be chosen differently for different elements of the parametric and nonparametric components. It might also be possible to adapt the equal distance grid to a variable distance grid of the form $L_{k,p}g(x) = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{t=-p}^{p} c_t g(x + t\varepsilon)$, where $t$ can be different from 1. In addition both the step size and the grid distance can also be made to be dependent on the observations. These possibilities are left for future research.

For most of the statistical analysis in the rest of the paper we assume away machine imprecision. Machine precisions also impose a lower bound on the step size in conjunction with the statistical lower bound (see, e.g. Press, Teukolsky, Vettering, and Flannery (1992)). This and related implementation issues are discussed in section 7.

### 2.3 Sufficient conditions for consistency of finite-difference derivatives

Before we strive to obtain the weakest possible sufficient condition for consistency in next section, we first show that the existing sufficient conditions in the literature (e.g. Newey and McFadden (1994) and Powell (1984)) for parametric models can be straightforwardly generalized to semiparametric models.

**ASSUMPTION 1.** For a linear operator $\Delta_{p,0^{p_1},0^{p_2}}[\delta]^{p_1}$ that is $p^{1\text{th}}$ linear in $\theta$, that has a finite second moment and that is linear in each argument, e.g., $\Delta_{2,0,\eta}[t \delta](\theta - \theta_0) = t \Delta_{2,0,\eta}[\delta](\theta - \theta_0)$, the following approximation holds at $(\theta_0, \eta_0)$:

$$E \left[ \left\| m(z; \theta, \eta(\cdot)) - \Delta_{10}(\theta - \theta_0) - \Delta_{1\eta}[\delta] - \ldots - \sum_{p_1+p_2=p} \Delta_{p,0^{p_1},0^{p_2}}[\delta]^{p_1}(\theta - \theta_0)^{p_2} \right\|^2 \right] = o \left( \|\delta\|^2_{L^2} + \|\theta - \theta_0\|^2 \right).$$

Assumption 1 requires that the conditional moment $m(z; \theta, \eta(\cdot))$ is mean square differentiable in $L^2$ norm with respect to the distribution of $z$. The next assumption relates to the rate of convergence of the nonparametric conditional moment estimate. Define $U_\gamma$ as a neighborhood of $\theta_0, \eta_0$ with radius $\gamma$: $U_\gamma = \{\theta, \eta(\cdot) : \|\theta - \theta_0\| < \gamma, |\eta(\cdot) - \eta_0(\cdot)| < \gamma\}$.

**ASSUMPTION 2.** For some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $k \leq 2$, uniformly in $z \in \mathcal{Z}$, as $\gamma \to 0$,

$$\sup_{(\theta, \eta(\cdot)) \in U_\gamma} \frac{n^{1/k} \| \hat{m}(z; \theta, \eta(\cdot)) - m(z; \theta, \eta(\cdot)) \| + n^{1/k} \| m(z; \theta, \eta(\cdot)) \|}{1 + n^{1/k} \| \hat{m}(z; \theta, \eta(\cdot)) \|} = o_p(1).$$

For unconditional moment models, typically $k = 2$. For conditional moment models, $k \geq 2$. The particular rate will depend on the method and the choice of the tuning parameters used in the estimation procedure.

In addition, the parametric component of the model is assumed to converge at the usual $\sqrt{n}$ rate, while the functional component is assumed to converge at a slower nonparametric rate.
ASSUMPTION 3. For \( k_1 \geq 2 \), \( n^{1/k_1} \| \hat{\eta}(\cdot) - \eta_0(\cdot) \| = O_p(1) \), and \( n^{1/2} \| \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \| = O_p(1) \).

THEOREM 1. Under assumptions 1, 2 and 3, if \( \varepsilon_n n^{1/\max\{k,k_1\}} \to \infty \), \( m_n \to 0 \), \( \tau_n n^{1/\max\{k,k_1\}} \to \infty \), \( \tau_n \to 0 \), then \( \sup_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} | \hat{D}_w(z) - D_w(z) | \xrightarrow{p} 0 \).

The proof of the consistency theorem follows closely the arguments in the literature. The basic idea in the consistency argument is that while the step size should converge to zero to eliminate the bias, it should converge slowly so that the noise in the parameter estimation and in estimating the moment condition should not dominate the step size. In a parametric model, both the noise in the parameter estimation and in estimating the moment condition is of the order of \( 1/\sqrt{n} \). Therefore as shown in Newey and McFadden (1994) and Powell (1984), sufficiency will hold if \( 1/\sqrt{n} \ll \epsilon_n \). The extension of this argument to the semiparametric case is straightforward. The difference is that now the converge rates for both the (infinite-dimensional) parameters and the conditional moment equation are slower than \( 1/\sqrt{n} \) and therefore imposes a more stringent requirement on rate at which \( \epsilon_n \) is allowed to converge to zero. However, as we will see in the next section, these sufficient conditions can be substantially weakened because of a local uniformity feature of the variance of the numerical derivatives.

2.4 Weak sufficient conditions for consistency for parametric models

In this section we provide weak conditions on the step size for consistent derivative estimation that are much weaker than previously established in the literature. In particular, as long as a local uniformity condition holds, there is no interaction between the step size choice and the statistical uncertainty in parameter estimation. We consider the unconditional parametric and conditional semiparametric cases separately to best convey intuitions.

Consider a parametric unconditional moment model defined by the sample and population moment conditions: 
\[
\hat{g}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(Z_i, \theta) \quad \text{and} \quad g(\theta) = Eg(Z_i, \theta) \quad \text{where} \quad g(\theta) = 0 \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \theta = \theta_0, 
\]
where lies in the interior of the parameter space \( \Theta \). The goal is to estimate \( G(\theta_0) = \frac{\partial g(\theta_0)}{\partial \theta} \) using
\[
L^n_{1,p} \hat{g}(\hat{\theta}) = \left( L^n_{1,p} \hat{g}(\hat{\theta}), j = 1, \ldots, d \right), 
\]
where \( \hat{\theta} \) is typically a \( \sqrt{n} \) consistent estimator of \( \theta_0 \).

In the following, we decompose the error of approximating \( G(\theta_0) \) with \( L^n_{1,p} \hat{g}(\hat{\theta}) \) into three components: \( L^n_{1,p} \hat{g}(\hat{\theta}) - G(\theta_0) = \hat{G}_1(\hat{\theta}) + G_2(\hat{\theta}) + G_3(\hat{\theta}), \) where
\[
\hat{G}_1(\hat{\theta}) = L^n_{1,p} \hat{g}(\hat{\theta}) - L^n_{1,p} g(\hat{\theta}) \quad \text{and} \quad G_2(\hat{\theta}) = L^n_{1,p} g(\hat{\theta}) - G(\hat{\theta}), \quad G_3(\hat{\theta}) = G(\hat{\theta}) - G(\theta_0). 
\]

We discuss how to control each of these three terms in turn. Notice first that the step size \( \epsilon_n \) does not play a role in \( G_3(\hat{\theta}) \). The bias term \( G_2(\hat{\theta}) \) can be controlled if the bias reduction is uniformly small in a neighborhood of \( \theta_0 \).
Throughout the paper we maintain the following suitable measurability requirement, which we will not refer to explicitly for the sake of brevity.

**Assumption 4.** The parameter space $\Theta$ has a compact cover. For each $n$, there exists a countable subset $T_n \subset \Theta$ such that
\[
P^* \left( \sup_{\theta \in T_n} \inf_{\theta' \in T_n} \| g(Z_i, \theta) - g(Z_i, \theta') \|^2 > 0 \right) = 0,
\]
where $P^*$ stands for the outer measure. In general, this condition states that the values of the moment function on the parameter space $\Theta$ can be approximated arbitrarily well (with probability one) by its values on a countable subset of $\Theta$. If the moment function is continuous, it trivially satisfies this condition, but it also allows us to consider the moments defined by discontinuous functions. More precisely, Assumption 4 is a sufficient condition for the moment function to be image admissible Suslin. As it is discussed in Dudley (1999) and Kosorok (2008) this property will be required to establish the functional uniform law of large numbers needed for consistency.

The following assumption is a parametric version of Assumption 1.

**Assumption 5.** A $2p + 1$th order mean value expansion applies to the limiting function $g(\theta)$ uniformly in a neighborhood of $\theta_0$. For all sufficiently small $|\epsilon|$ and $r = 2p + 1$,
\[
\sup_{\theta \in \mathcal{N}(\theta_0)} \left| g(\theta + \epsilon) - \sum_{l=0}^{r} \frac{\epsilon^l}{l!} g^{(l)}(\theta) \right| = O(|\epsilon|^{r+1}).
\]

An immediate consequence of this assumption is that $\hat{G}_2 \left( \hat{\theta} \right) = O(\epsilon^{2p})$. We are left with $\hat{G}_1 \left( \hat{\theta} \right)$.

The weakest possible condition to control $\hat{G}_1 \left( \hat{\theta} \right)$ that covers all the models that we are aware of seems to come from a convergence rate result in Pollard (1984).

**Assumption 6.** Consider functions $g(z, \theta)$ contained in class $\mathcal{F} = \{ g(\cdot, \theta), \theta \in \Theta \}$. Then

(i) All $g \in \mathcal{F}$ are globally bounded such that $\| F \| = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} | g(Z_i, \theta) | < C \ll \infty$.

(ii) The sample moment function is Lipschitz-continuous in mean square in some neighborhood of $\theta_0$. That is for sufficiently small $\epsilon > 0$
\[
\sup_{\theta \in \mathcal{N}(\theta_0)} E \left[ (g(Z_i, \theta + \epsilon) - g(Z_i, \theta - \epsilon))^2 \right] = O(\epsilon).
\]

(iii) The graphs of functions from $\mathcal{F}$ form a polynomial class of sets.

Most of the functions in econometric applications fall in this category. By Lemmas 25 and 36 of Pollard (1984), Assumption 6 implies that there exist universal constants $A > 0$ and $V > 0$ such that for any $\mathcal{F}_n \subset \mathcal{F}$ with envelope function $\| F_n \|$,\[
\sup_{Q} N_1 (\epsilon \mathcal{Q} F_n, Q, \mathcal{F}_n) \leq A \epsilon^{-V}, \quad \sup_{Q} N_2 \left( \epsilon (\mathcal{Q} F_n^2)^{1/2}, Q, \mathcal{F}_n \right) \leq A \epsilon^{-V}.
\]
LEMMA 1. Under assumption 6, if $n \varepsilon_n / \log n \to \infty$, then for $\delta$ small enough,
\[
\sup_{d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) \leq \delta} ||L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}(\theta) - L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}(\theta)|| = o_p(1).
\]
Consequently, Assumption 6 implies that $\hat{G}_1(\hat{\theta}) = o_p(1)$ if $d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = o_p(1)$.

Proof: The argument follows directly from Theorem 2.37 in Pollard (1984) by verifying its conditions. For each $n$ and each $\epsilon_n$, consider the class of functions $F_n = \{\epsilon_n L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}(\cdot, \theta), \theta \in N(\theta_0), \text{with envelope function} F\}$, such that $PF \leq C$. Then we can write
\[
\sup_{d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) \leq o(1)} \epsilon_n ||L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}(\theta) - L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}(\theta)|| \leq \sup_{f \in F_n} |Pf - Pf|.
\]
For each $f \in F_n$, note that $Ef^2 = E(\epsilon_n L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}(\cdot, \theta))^2 = O(\epsilon_n)$ because of assumption 6.(ii). The lemma then follows immediately by taking $\alpha_n = 1$ and $\delta_n^2 = \epsilon_n$ in Theorem 2.37 of Pollard (1984).

THEOREM 2. Under Assumptions 5 and 6, $L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}(\theta) \rightarrow G(\theta_0)$ if $\epsilon_n \to 0$ and $n \epsilon_n / \log n \to \infty$, and if $d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = o_p(1)$.

In most situations $d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = O_p(n^{-\eta})$ for some $\eta > 0$. Typically $\eta = 1/2$. One might hope to further weaken the requirement of the log $n$ term when uniformity is only confined to a shrinking neighborhood of size $n^{-\gamma}$. However, this is not possible unless the moment function satisfies additional smoothness conditions.

The result of Theorem 2 can be improved if we are willing to impose the following stronger assumption, which holds for smoother functions such as those that are Hölder-continuous.

ASSUMPTION 7. In addition to assumption 6, for all sufficiently small $\epsilon$ and all $\theta \in \Theta$, if we define $G_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (g(Z_i, \theta) - g(\theta))$, then
\[
E^* \sup_{\theta', \theta \in N(\theta_0)} |G_n(\theta') - G_n(\theta)| \lesssim \phi_n(\delta),
\]
for functions $\phi_n(\cdot)$ such that $\delta \mapsto \phi_n(\delta) / \delta^\gamma$ is non-increasing for $\gamma$ defined in part (i).

Assumption 7 is more stringent than Theorem 3.2.5 in Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996), and may fail in cases where Theorem 3.2.5 holds, for example with indicator functions. Theorem 3.2.5 only requires that $E^* \sup_{d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) \leq \delta} |G(\theta) - G(\theta_0)| \lesssim \phi_n(\delta)$. For i.i.d data, the tail bounds method used in Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996) can be modified to obtain Assumption 7. In particular, define a class of functions $M_{\delta}^\varepsilon = \{g(Z_i, \theta_1) - g(Z_i, \theta_2), \theta_1, \theta_2 \leq \delta, d(\theta_1, \theta_0) < \epsilon, d(\theta_2, \theta_0) < \epsilon\}$. Then assumption 7, which requires bounding $E^*_p ||G_n||_{M_{\delta}^\varepsilon}$, can be obtained by invoking the maximum inequalities in Theorems 2.14.1 and 2.14.2 in Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996). These inequalities...
provide that for \( M^\delta \) an envelope function of the class of functions \( \mathcal{M}^\delta \),

\[
E_p^\delta \|G_n\|_{\mathcal{M}^\delta} \lesssim J(1, \mathcal{M}^\delta) \left( P^* (M^\delta)^2 \right)^{1/2},
\]

\[
E_p^\delta \|G_n\|_{\mathcal{M}^\delta} \lesssim J_{\parallel}(1, \mathcal{M}^\delta, L_2(P)) \left( P^* (M^\delta)^2 \right)^{1/2},
\]

where \( J(1, \mathcal{M}^\delta) \) and \( J_{\parallel}(1, \mathcal{M}^\delta, L_2(P)) \) are the uniform and bracketing entropy integrals defined in section 2.14.1 of Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996), and are generically finite for parametric functions. Therefore \( \phi_n(\delta) \) depends mostly on the variance of the envelope functions \( \left( P^* (M^\delta)^2 \right)^{1/2} \).

For reasonably smooth functions that are Hölder-continuous, \( M^\delta \) depends only on \( \delta \) as required by assumption 7.

**THEOREM 3.** Under assumptions 5 and 7, \( L_{1,p}^\delta \hat{g}(\hat{\theta}) \xrightarrow{P} G(\theta_0) \) if \( \epsilon_n \to 0 \) and \( n\epsilon^{2-2\gamma} \to \infty \), and if \( d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = o_p(1) \).

This result, which is an immediate consequence of Theorem 2.14.1 of Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996) and therefore stated without proof, shows that for continuous functions \( g(Z_i, \theta) \) that are Lipschitz in \( \theta \), the only condition needed for consistency is \( \epsilon_n \to 0 \). The result of Theorem 3 demonstrates that as long as the sample moment function does not have discontinuities, one can pick the step size to decrease at the polynomial rate with the sample size. If the moment function is discontinuous, Theorem 2 needs to be applied instead of Theorem 3, prescribing a slower logarithmic rate of decrease in the step size.

**Example** Consider the simple quantile case where the moment condition is defined by \( g(z_i; \theta) = 1(\tau \leq \theta) - \tau \). In this case the numerical derivative estimate of the density of \( z_i \) at \( \theta \) is given by

\[
L_{1,2}^\epsilon \hat{g}(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1(\hat{\theta} - \theta_0 - \epsilon \leq z_i \leq \hat{\theta} - \epsilon)}{2\epsilon}.
\]

This is basically the uniform kernel estimate of the density of \( z_i \) at \( \theta \):

\[
f(\hat{\theta} - \theta_0) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \left( \frac{|z_i - \hat{\theta}|}{\epsilon} \leq 1 \right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \left( \frac{|z_i - \theta_0 - (\hat{\theta} - \theta_0)|}{\epsilon} \leq 1 \right).
\]

The consistency conditions given in Powell (1984) and Newey and McFadden (1994), both of which require \( \sqrt{n\epsilon} \to \infty \), are too strong. The intuitive reason for this is because under this condition, the second part of the estimation noise due to \( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0, \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta_0}{\epsilon} \), will vanish. However, for the purpose of consistency this is not necessary. As long as \( f(x) \) is uniformly consistent for \( f(x) \) for \( x \) in a shrinking neighborhood of 0 of size \( n^{-\eta} \), it will follow that

\[
\hat{f}(\hat{\theta} - \theta_0) \xrightarrow{P} f(0) = f_z(\theta_0).
\]
2.5 Optimal rates for derivative estimation

The optimal choice of the step size depends typically on the smoothness of the empirical process indexed by $\gamma$ and the smoothness of the population moment function indicated by the magnitude of the “Taylor residual” $p$. For the choice of the optimal rate for the step size of numerical differentiation, one can consider decomposition of the numerical derivatives into components $\hat{G}_1$, $G_2$ and $G_3$ corresponding to the variance, deterministic and stochastic bias components. The optimal choice of the step size will provide the minimum mean-squared error for the estimated derivative by balancing the bias and the variance. When the sample moment function is discontinuous, conditions of Theorem 2 apply, delivering the logarithmic rate of decay for the variance component $\hat{G}_1(\hat{\theta}) = O_p\left(n \log n \right)$. On the other hand, application of Assumption 5 to the population moment leads to $\hat{G}_2(\hat{\theta}) = O_p(1)$.

Under conditions of Theorem 3, the variance term has a polynomial dependence on the step size with $\hat{G}_1(\hat{\theta}) = O_p\left(n^{\gamma} \log n \right)$, while the bias term is still determined by Assumption 5. We note that for Lipschitz-continuous or differentiable models, in which generally $\gamma = 1$, there is no trade off between the variance and the bias, in which case the smaller the step size $\epsilon$, the smaller the bias term. However, in this case the order of the root mean square is bounded from below by the variance term of $O(1/\sqrt{n})$ for sufficiently smaller $\epsilon_n$. The next theorem formalizes this discussion.

**THEOREM 4.** Under the conditions of Theorem 2, if $\hat{\theta} - \theta_0 = O_p(1/\sqrt{n})$, the optimal rate of $\epsilon$ satisfies $\epsilon = O\left((\log n/n)^{1/p^*}\right)$, in which case the mean-squared error is $O_p\left((\log n/n)^{2/p^*}\right)$. When the conditions of theorem 3 hold instead, the optimal rate of $\epsilon$ is $O\left(n^{-\frac{2p}{\gamma(\gamma+1)\gamma+2p}}\right)$ if $\gamma < 1$, and $\epsilon \leq n^{-1/4p}$ if $\gamma = 1$. In both cases the error is $O_p\left(n^{-\frac{2p}{\gamma(\gamma+1)\gamma+2p}}\right)$.

2.6 Uniform consistency of directional derivatives for semiparametric models

This subsection extends the weak consistency condition to directional derivatives of semiparametric conditional moment models. As in Section 2.1, semiparametric conditional moment models are usually defined by conditional moment function $m(\theta, \eta, z) = E[p(Y, \theta, \eta) | Z = z]$. In this section we focus on two special cases where the conditional moment function is estimated nonparametrically using orthogonal series and when it is estimated using kernel smoothing. The infinite-dimensional parameter $\eta$ is assumed to be estimated using sieves. The series estimator used to recover the conditional moment function is based on the vector of basis functions $p^N(z) = (p_{1N}(z), \ldots, p_{NN}(z))'$, $\hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z) = p^N(z) \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} p^N(z_i) p^N(z_i) \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} p^N(z_i) p(\theta, \eta; y_i). \quad (2.2)$

The kernel estimator is defined using a multi-dimensional kernel function $K(\cdot)$ and a bandwidth sequence $b_n$ as $\hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z) = \left( \frac{1}{n b_n^d} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K \left( \frac{z_i - z}{b_n^d} \right) \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{n b_n^d} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K \left( \frac{z_i - z}{b_n^d} \right) \rho(\theta, \eta; y_i). \quad (2.3)$
In either case, we will denote the resulting estimate by \( \hat{m}(\theta, \hat{\eta}; x) \). It turns out that the numerical derivative consistency results for \( \eta \) apply without any modification to the parametric component \( \theta \). Therefore with no loss of generality below we will focus on differentiating with respect to \( \eta \).

The directional derivative of \( m \) in the direction \( w \in H - \eta_0 \) with respect to \( \eta \),
\[
G_w = \frac{dm(\theta_0, \eta_0 + \tau w, z)}{d\tau} \bigg|_{\tau=0},
\]
is estimated using \( L_{\epsilon, n, w}^{m, \hat{m}}(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\eta}, z) \), where an additional index is used to emphasize the direction for which the derivative is taken,
\[
L_{\epsilon, n, w}^{m, \hat{m}}(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\eta}, z) = \frac{1}{\epsilon_n} \sum_{l=-p}^{p} c_l \hat{m}\left(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\eta} + lw \epsilon_n, z\right).
\]

Given that the direction \( w \) itself has to be estimated from the data as in section 2.1, we desire consistency results that hold uniformly both around the true parameter value and the directions of numerical differentiation. As in our analysis of parametric models, we focus on i.i.d data samples. We also impose standard assumptions on the basis functions as in Newey (1997).

**Assumption 8.** For the basis functions \( p^N(z) \) the following holds:

1. The smallest eigenvalue of \( E[p^N(Z_i)p^N(Z_i)'] \) is bounded away from zero uniformly in \( N^2 \).
2. For some \( C > 0 \), \( \sup_{z \in Z} \|p^N(z)\| \leq C < \infty \).
3. The population conditional moment belongs to the completion of the sieve space and
\[
\sup_{(\theta, \eta) \in \Theta \times H} \sup_{z \in Z} \|m(\theta, \eta, z) - \text{proj}(m(\theta, \eta, z) | p^N(z))\| = O(N^{-a}).
\]

Assumption 8(ii) is convenient because \( \rho(\cdot) \) is uniformly bounded. It can potentially be relaxed to allow for a sequence of constants \( \zeta_0(N) \) with \( \sup_{z \in Z} \|p^N(z)\| \leq \zeta_0(N) \), where \( \zeta_0(N) \) grows at appropriate rates as in Newey (1997) such as \( \zeta_0(N)N^2N/n \rightarrow 0 \) as \( n \rightarrow \infty \).

The following assumption on the moment function \( \rho(\cdot) \) does not require smoothness or continuity (see Shen and Wong, 1994; Zhang and Gijbels, 2003).

**Assumption 9.** (i) Uniformly bounded moment functions: \( \sup_{\theta, \eta} \|\rho(\theta, \eta, \cdot)\| \leq C \). The density of covariates \( Z \) is uniformly bounded away from zero on its support.

(ii) Suppose that \( 0 \in H_n \) and for \( \epsilon_n \rightarrow 0 \) and some \( C > 0 \),
\[
\sup_{z \in Z, \eta, w \in H_n, |\eta|, |w| < C, \theta \in N(\theta_0)} \text{Var}(\rho(\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n w; Y_i) - \rho(\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n w; Y_i) | z) = O(\epsilon_n),}
\]

\(^2\)We note that the considered series basis may not be orthogonal with respect to the semi-metric defined by the distribution of \( Z_i \).
(iii) For each $n$, the class of functions $F_n = \{ \rho (\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n w; \cdot) - \rho (\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n w; \cdot), \theta \in \Theta, \eta, w \in \mathcal{H}_n \}$ is Euclidean whose coefficients depend on the number of sieve terms. In other words, there exist constants $A$, and $0^+ \leq r_0 < \frac{1}{2}$ such that the covering number satisfies

$$\log N (\delta, F_n, L_1) \leq An^{2r_0} \log \left( \frac{1}{\delta} \right),$$

and $r_0 = 0^+$ corresponds to the case $\log n$.

The hardest condition to verify is 9 (iii). This assumption imposes a joint restriction both on the class of functions $\mathcal{H}_n$ containing sieve estimators for $\eta$ and the class of conditional moment functions parametrized both by $\theta$ and $\eta$. An example where this assumption holds is when $\rho (\cdot)$ is (weakly) monotone in $\eta$ for each $\theta$ and $\mathcal{H}_n$ is an orthogonal basis of dimensionality $K(n)$. For example, $\rho (\cdot)$ can be an indicator in nonparametric quantile regression. Lemma 5 in Shen and Wong (1994) suggests that the $L_1$-metric entropy of the class of sieve $F_n$ has order $K(n) \log n \epsilon^{-1}$ for sufficiently small $\epsilon > 0$ and $\| \eta_n - \eta_0 \|_{L_1} < \epsilon$. Then by Lemma 2.6.18 in Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996), if the function $\rho (\cdot)$ is monotone, its application to $\eta$ (for fixed $\theta$) does not increase the metric entropy. In addition, the proof of Theorem 3 in Chen, Linton, and Van Keilegom (2003) shows that the metric entropy for the entire class $F_n$ is a sum of metric entropies that are obtained by fixing $\eta$ and $\theta$. The choice $K(n) \sim n^{2r_0}$ delivers condition 9 (iii).

Denote $\pi_n \eta = \arg \inf_{\eta' \in \mathcal{H}_n} \| \eta' - \eta \|$. And let $d(\cdot)$ be the metric generated by the $L^1$ norm. The following result is formulated in the spirit of Theorem 37 of Pollard (1984) and it requires its extension to the case of sieve estimators. A related idea for unconditional sieve estimation has been used in Zhang and Gijbels (2003).

**Lemma 2.** Suppose that $\rho (\pi_n \eta, \eta) = O_p (n^{-\phi})$. Under assumptions 8 and 9

$$\sup_{d(\theta, \theta_0) = o(1), d(\eta, \eta_0) = o(1), \eta \in \mathcal{H}_n} \left| L_{1_p}^{\epsilon_n w} \hat{m} (\theta, \eta, z) - L_{1_p}^{\epsilon_n w} m (\theta, \eta, z) \right| = o_p (1)$$

uniformly in $z$ and $w$, provided that $\epsilon_n \rightarrow 0$ and $\min \{ N^\alpha, n^\phi \} = \infty$, and $\frac{n^r \epsilon_n}{N^\alpha + n^\phi \log n} \rightarrow \infty$.

We note that the result is uniform in $z$. An interesting feature of the series estimator for $m(\cdot)$ is that $z$ is the argument of $pN(\cdot)$ only and its boundedness is sufficient for the uniform result in Lemma 2. In some cases weaker conditions may be possible provided this feature. We show one such case in Section 4 for the density-weighted sieve minimum distance estimators. We can provide a similar result for the case where the conditional moment function is estimated via a kernel estimator. We begin with formulating the requirement on the kernel.

**Assumption 10.** $K(\cdot)$ is the $q$-th order kernel function which is an element of the class of functions $F$ defined by Assumption 6. It integrates to 1, it is bounded and its square has a finite integral.
We can then formulate the following lemma that replicates the result of Lemma 2 for the case of the kernel estimator. We note that for uniformity we rely on Assumption 9(i) that requires the density of covariates to be uniformly bounded from zero.

**Lemma 3.** Under assumptions 9 and 10

\[
\sup_{d(\theta,\eta) = o(1), \delta(\eta,\eta_0) = o(1), \eta \in \mathcal{H}_n} \left| L_{1,p}^{\epsilon_n,w} m(\theta, \eta, z) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon_n,w} m(\theta, \eta, z) \right| = o_p(1)
\]

uniformly in \( w \) and \( z \) where \( f(z) \) is strictly positive for the kernel estimator provided that \( \epsilon_n \to 0, b_n \to 0, \epsilon_n \min\{b_n^{-q}, n^\phi\} \to \infty \) and \( \frac{ne_n \beta_0}{n^r \log n} \to \infty \).

Using Lemmas 2 and 3 we can formulate the consistency result for the directional derivative.

**Theorem 5.** Under assumptions 5, 9, and either 8 or 10, \( L_{1,p}^{\epsilon_n,w} \hat{m} \left( \hat{\theta}, \hat{\eta} , z \right) \to_d \partial m(\theta,\eta,z) \bigg| w \),

uniformly in \( z \) and \( w \), if \( N \to \infty, \epsilon_n \min\{N^\alpha, n^\phi\} \to \infty \), and \( \frac{ne_n \beta_0}{n^r \log n} \to \infty \) for series estimator, and \( b_n \to 0, \epsilon_n \min\{b_n^{-q}, n^\phi\} \to \infty \), and \( \frac{ne_n \beta_0}{n^r \log n} \to \infty \) for kernel-based estimator, provided that \( d(\hat{\theta},\theta_0) = o_p(1) \) and \( d(\hat{\eta},\eta_0) = o_p(1) \).

This theorem allows us to use finite-difference formulas to evaluate directional derivatives. An interesting feature of this result is that it only depends on the rate of convergence of the infinite-dimensional parameter indirectly through Assumption 9[iii] which implicitly bounds the number of sieve terms that one can use by \( n^{2\gamma} \) with \( r_0 < \frac{1}{2} \), i.e. it has to increase slower than the sample size.

**Remark:** Our results in this section apply to the case where one is interested in obtaining a finite-difference based estimator for the directional derivative that is uniformly consistent over \( z \). Such a need may arise where the direction of differentiation is also estimated, an example of which is the efficient sieve minimum distance estimator in Ai and Chen (2003). If one only needs to estimate the numerical derivative pointwise the conditions on the choice of the step size can be weakened. Such results may be relevant when one is interested in estimating the directional derivative at a point and a given direction.

### 2.7 Analysis with Hölder-continuous moment functions

In this section we consider a special case where finite differences of the moment function have a non-trivial envelope. Examples of such functions include Lipschitz and Hölder continuous functions. We introduce the following modification to Assumption 9(i):

**Assumption 9.**

(i’) For any sufficiently small \( \epsilon > 0 \)

\[
\sup_{(\theta,\eta) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H}, w \in \mathcal{H}, |w| < C} \left\| \rho(\theta, \eta + \epsilon w, z) - \rho(\theta, \eta, z) \right\| \leq C(z) \epsilon^\gamma,
\]

where \( 0 < \gamma \leq 1 \) and \( E \left[ C(Z)^2 \right] < \infty \).
This modification allows us to improve the rate results for the considered classes of functions. Specifically, we can adapt the exponential tail bounds provided in Alexander (1984) to establish a stronger result than the result that we had for discontinuous moment functions. This result is of particular interest because it also implies the required properties of the numerical directional derivative in cases where the moment function is at least Lipschitz continuous.

**Lemma 4.** Suppose that \( \rho(\pi_n, \eta) = O(n^{-\phi}) \). Under either pair of assumptions 8 and 9(i'),(ii),(iii), (iv) or 10 and 9 (i'), (ii),(iii), (iv)

\[
\sup_{d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = o_p(1), d(\hat{\eta}, \eta_0) = o_p(1), \eta \in \mathcal{H}_n} \left| L_{1,p}^{e_n,w} \hat{m}\left(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\eta}, z\right) - L_{1,p}^{e_n,w} m\left(\theta_0, \eta_0, z\right) \right| = o_p(1)
\]

uniformly in \( z \) and \( w \), provided that \( \epsilon_n \to 0, \epsilon_n \min\{N^\alpha, n^{\phi}\} \to \infty \) and \( \sqrt{n} \epsilon_n^{1-\gamma} \to \infty \) for series estimator, and \( b_n \to 0, \epsilon_n \min\{b_n^{-\gamma}, n^{\phi}\} \to \infty, \frac{n^{1-2\alpha} \epsilon_n^{1-\gamma} b_n^{1/2}}{\log n} \to \infty \) for kernel estimator.

The consistency of the numerical derivative is a direct consequence of this lemma. We note that the conditions of Lemma 4 are weaker than the conditions for the functions with trivial (constant) envelopes. Also note that for functions that are Lipschitz-continuous, \( \gamma = 1 \). This means that Lemma 4 will only set the requirement for the estimator of the conditional moment, but not the step size (except for the bias-correction term requiring that the bias from projection or kernel-smoothing should decay faster than the step size for the numerical derivative). This means that the use of the finite-difference formula will not affect the properties of the estimated conditional moment. One interesting observation from this case is when the moment function becomes substantially non-smooth (i.e., when \( \gamma \) is close to zero), the step size for numerical differentiation should be much larger than the bandwidth if one uses a first-order kernel to compute the conditional moment function.

### 3 Numerical optimization of non-smooth sample functions

**3.1 Parametric extremum estimation: definitions**

In this section we study the properties of estimators based on numerically solving the first-order conditions for likelihood-type objective functions. The original estimator of interest maximizes the sample objective function. However, either by explicit researcher choice or by the implicit choice of the maximization routine in the optimization software, the original problem is replaced by the search for the zero of the numerically computed gradient. Consider the problem of estimating the parameter \( \theta_0 \) in a metric space \( (\Theta, d) \) with the metric \( d \). The true parameter \( \theta_0 \) is assumed to uniquely maximize the limiting objective function \( Q(\theta) = E g(Z_i; \theta) \). An M-estimator \( \hat{\theta} \) of \( \theta_0 \) is typically defined as

\[
\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \hat{Q}(\theta) ,
\]

where \( \hat{Q}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(Z_i; \theta) \). However, in practice, most sample objective functions \( \hat{Q}(\theta) \) of interest cannot be optimized analytically and are optimized instead through numerical computation.
The optimization routine often uses numerical derivatives either explicitly or implicitly. In this section we show that numerical differentiation can sometimes lead to a model that is different from the one usually studied under M-estimation. In particular, while numerical differentiation does not affect the asymptotic distribution for smooth models (under suitable conditions on the step size sequence), for nonsmooth models a numerical derivative based estimator can translate a nonstandard parametric model into a nonparametric one.

We focus on the class of optimization procedures that are based on numerical gradients, that are evaluated using the finite-difference formulas which we described in Section 2.2. We start by presenting a finite-difference numerical derivative version of the M-estimator in (3.4). A numerical gradient-based optimization routine effectively substitutes (3.4) by a solution to the non-linear equation

$$\|L_{1, \hat{\theta}}^n \hat{Q}_n (\hat{\theta})\| = o_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right), \quad (3.5)$$

for some sequence of step sizes $\varepsilon_n \to 0$ and $\hat{Q}_n (\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g(Z_i, \theta)$. In some cases discussed below the convergence rate in 3.5 can be slower. We do not require the zeros of the first order condition to be exact in order to accommodate nonsmooth models. Many popular optimization packages use $p = 1$, corresponding to $D_{\varepsilon}^n (\hat{\theta}) = L_{1, 1}^n \hat{Q}_n (\hat{\theta}) = o_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$. The cases with $p \geq 2$ correspond to a more general class of estimators that will have smaller asymptotic bias in nonsmooth models. As we will argue, the estimators (3.4) and (3.5) can have the same properties for models with continuous moment functions but for non-smooth models both their asymptotic distributions and the convergence rates can be substantially different.

### 3.2 Consistency of extremum estimators for parametric models

Our first step is to provide consistency of $\hat{\theta}$. The consistency analysis is based on the premise that the population problem has a unique maximum and the first-order condition has an isolated well-defined root corresponding to the global maximum. Many commonly used models have multiple local extrema, leading to multiple roots of the first-order condition. To facilitate our analysis we assume that the researcher is able to isolate a subset of the parameter space that contains the global maximum. For simplicity we will associate this subset with the entire parameter space $\Theta$. The above discussion is formalized in the following identification assumption.

**ASSUMPTION 11.** The map $\Theta \mapsto \mathbb{R}^k$ defined by $D (\theta) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} E [g(Z_i, \theta)]$ is identified at $\theta_0 \in \Theta$. In other words from $\lim_{n \to \infty} \|D (\theta_n)\| = 0$ it follows that $\lim_{n \to \infty} \|\theta_n - \theta_0\| = 0$ for any sequence $\theta_n \in \Theta$. Moreover, $g(\theta) = E [g(Z_i, \theta)]$ is locally quadratic at $\theta_0$ with $g(\theta) - g(\theta_0) \lesssim -d(\theta, \theta_0)^2$.

For global consistency we require the population objective function to be sufficiently smooth not only at the true parameter, but also uniformly in the entire parameter space $\Theta$ for which we can rely on Assumption 5 that we previously used to establish uniform consistency for the estimate of the derivative of the sample moment function.
We will organize the discussion below by different classes of functions that can be used in practice. We start with functions that have absolutely locally bounded finite differences. Indicator functions and other functions with finite jumps fall into this category. Then we consider a class of functions that have polynomial bounds on finite differences. This class includes Lipschitz and Hölder-continuous functions which can have “mildly explosive” finite differences (those which have infinite jumps but approach infinity slower than some power of the distance to the point of discontinuity).

3.2.1 **Functions with absolutely bounded finite differences**

For the proof of consistency of the exremum estimator we need to provide primitive conditions for the uniform convergence in probability of the numerical derivative of the sample objective function to the derivative of the population objective function. This proof usually invokes the use of maximum inequalities that can bound the expectation of extreme deviations of the sample objective function in small neighborhoods of the parameter space. It is hard to work with the maximum inequality directly when the sample objective function experiences finite jumps: in this case small deviations of the parameter may lead to finitely large changes in the objective function. However, establishing the uniform convergence in probability still remains possible if we are willing to analyze more delicate properties of the function class under consideration. In our analysis we focus on the class of functions outlined by Assumption 6.

The following theorem establishes the consistency of numerical gradient-based extremum estimators for the class of possibly discontinuous functions described by Assumption 6. It is a corollary of Theorem 2 following directly from the uniform convergence in probability as in Amemiya (1985) and, therefore, we omit the proof.

**THEOREM 6.** Under assumptions 11, 4, 5, and 6, as long as $\varepsilon_n \to 0$ and $\frac{n \varepsilon_n}{\log n} \to \infty$,

$$
\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \left| |L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{Q} (\theta) - G (\theta) | \right| = o_p (1).
$$

Consequently, $\hat{\theta} \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} \theta_0$ if $| |L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{Q} (\hat{\theta}) | | = o_p (1)$.

This Theorem suggests that even though the sample objective function can be discontinuous with finite jumps, as long as it is Lipschitz-continuous in the mean square, one can use the numerical gradient-based routine for its optimization as long as the step size decays logarithmically with the sample size.

3.2.2 **Functions with polynomial envelopes for finite differences**

Our results in the previous subsection refer to the classes of objective functions for which the changes in the values of the objective function may not be directly related to the magnitude of the parameter changes. In this subsection we consider the case where such connection can be established. Surprisingly, our results are also valid for the cases of substantially irregular behavior of the objective
function when its first derivative approach infinity in the vicinity of the maximum or minimum. A
case in point is the objective function defined by \( g(Z_i, \theta) = \sqrt{|Z_i - \theta|} \) for which local changes in \( \theta \) around the origin lead to inversely proportional changes in the moment function. It turns out that
this explosive behavior can be compensated by an appropriate choice of the sequence of step sizes for the numerical derivative. It turns out that the objective functions of this type belong to a class of functions outlined in Assumption 7 which includes Hölder-continuous functions.

We note that Assumption 7 (i) restricts our analysis to the functions that have a polynomial envelope on their finite differences. On the other hand, provided that \( \gamma \) can be very close to zero, it allows the finite differences of functions to be locally “explosive”. For instance, if we consider finite differences of the objective function \( g(Z_i, \theta) = \sqrt{|Z_i - \theta|} \) around the origin, we note that they will be proportional to \( 1/\sqrt{\epsilon} \) and will not shrink with the decrease in \( \epsilon \). It turns out that this still allows us to provide consistency for the numerical gradient-based estimators.

The following theorem establishes consistency under a condition on the step size sequence that is a function of the sample size and the modulus of continuity of the empirical process. It is essentially a replica of theorem 3 and hence stated without proof.

**Theorem 7.** Under Assumptions 5, 7, 11, and 4, as long as \( \epsilon_n \to 0 \) and \( n\epsilon_n^{2-2\gamma} \to \infty \),

\[
\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \left| \mathbb{E}_{L_{1,p}^n \hat{Q} (\theta )} - G (\theta ) \right| = o_p (1).
\]

Consequently, \( \hat{\theta} \stackrel{p}{\to} \theta_0 \) if \( \left| \mathbb{E}_{L_{1,p}^n \hat{Q} (\hat{\theta} )} \right| = o_p (1) \).

For models that have Lipschitz-continuous sample objective functions (which include models with smooth sample objective functions) \( \gamma = 1 \). In this case the restriction \( n\epsilon_n^{2-2\gamma} \to \infty \) holds trivially. This implies that for smooth models the sequence of step sizes can approach zero arbitrarily fast.\(^3\)

### 3.3 Rate of convergence and asymptotic distribution in parametric case

#### 3.3.1 Functions with absolutely bounded finite differences

In the previous section we provided sufficient conditions that determine consistency of the estimator that equates the finite-difference approximation of the of gradient of objective function to zero. For the classes where local parameter changes do not lead to proportional changes in the sample objective function we restricted our attention to the functions with absolutely bounded finite differences forming Euclidean classes. Our condition provided the result that the numerical derivative of the sample objective function converges to the derivative of the population objective function uniformly in probability. In addition, making use of the result of Lemma 1 we can establish the precise rate of

\(^3\)In Section 7 we point at some problems that are associated with “too fast” convergence of the step size sequence to zero. These problems, however, are not statistical and are connected with the machine computing precision.
convergence for the objective function. For a given neighborhood $N(\theta_0)$,

$$
\sup_{\theta \in N(\theta_0)} \frac{n\varepsilon_n}{\log n} ||L_{1,p}^n \hat{Q}(\hat{\theta}) - L_{1,p}^n Q(\theta)|| = O_p(1),
$$

under Assumption 6 and $n\varepsilon_n/\log n \to \infty$.

Once we have “located” the parameter, we can investigate the behavior of the sample objective function in shrinking neighborhoods of size $(\log n n\varepsilon_n)^{-1}$. It turns out, that in such neighborhoods we can improve the rate result by choosing the step size in accordance with the radius of the neighborhoods containing the true parameter.

**Lemma 5.** Suppose $\hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{p} \theta_0$, $L_{1,p}^n \hat{Q}(\hat{\theta}) = o_p\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n}}\right)$, the Hessian matrix $H(\theta)$ of $g(\theta)$ is continuous, nonsingular and finite at $\theta_0$, and the assumptions of Theorem 6 hold, then

(i) If $\frac{n\varepsilon_n}{\log n} \to \infty$, and $n\varepsilon_n^{1+4p} = o(1)$, then $\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n} d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = O_p(1)$.

(ii) If $\frac{n\varepsilon_n^2}{\log n} \to \infty$ we have

$$
\sup_{d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = o\left(\frac{\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n}}{n\varepsilon_n}\right)} \left( L_{1,p}^n \hat{Q}(\hat{\theta}) - L_{1,p}^n \hat{Q}(\theta_0) - L_{1,p}^n \hat{Q}(\hat{\theta}) + L_{1,p}^n Q(\theta_0) \right) = o_p\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n}}\right).
$$

We can use this result to establish the rate of convergence of the resulting estimator.

**Theorem 8.** Under the assumptions of Lemma 5, if $\frac{n\varepsilon_n}{\log n} \to \infty$, and $n\varepsilon_n^{1+4p} = o(1)$, then $\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n} d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = O_p(1)$.

Asymptotic normality will also follow from a consequence of the stochastic equicontinuity result of part (ii) of lemma 5 and a standard application of Linderberg condition whenever the limiting variance is well defined.

**Theorem 9.** Under the assumptions of theorem 8, but with $n\varepsilon_n^{1+4p} = o(1)$. If in addition, $\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \text{Var}(L_{1,p}^n g(Z_i, \theta_0)) = \Omega$, then

$$
\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n} (\hat{\theta} - \theta_0) \xrightarrow{d} N\left(0, H(\theta_0)^{-1} \Omega H(\theta_0)^{-1}\right).
$$

### 3.3.2 Functions with polynomial envelopes for finite differences

In case where functions of interest permit power envelopes on the finite differences, we can establish the rate of convergence and describe the asymptotic distribution of the resulting estimator. Next, we establish the rate of convergence and the asymptotic distribution of the numerical derivative based M-estimator for the functions that admits polynomial envelopes on finite differences. We provide the following general result.
Theorem 10. Suppose \( \hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{p} \theta_0 \) and \( L_{1,p}(\hat{\theta}) = o_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n\varepsilon^{1-\gamma}}} \right) \). Under Assumptions 7 and 4, if \( n\varepsilon^{2-2\gamma} \to \infty \) and \( \sqrt{n\varepsilon^{1-\gamma} + 2p} = O(1) \), and suppose that the Hessian matrix \( H(\theta) \) of \( g(\theta) \) is continuous, nonsingular and finite at \( \theta_0 \), then \( \sqrt{n\varepsilon^{1-\gamma}}d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = O_p(1) \).

This result is a Z-estimator version of Theorem 3.2.5 in Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996). Note that given the consistency assumption, the conditions required for obtaining the rate of convergence are weaker. For a typical two sided derivative \( p = 2 \). In this case, for a regular parametric model where \( \gamma = 1 \), the condition \( \sqrt{n\varepsilon^2} \to 0 \) is needed to remove the asymptotic bias.

The following theorem, which combines a stochastic equicontinuity condition with standard verification of the Linderberg condition, establishes the asymptotic normality of the numerical derivative-based estimator with an additional assumption of the convergence of the variance.

Theorem 11. Assume that the conditions of Theorem 10 hold but with \( \sqrt{n\varepsilon^{1+2p-\gamma}} = o(1) \). If \( \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \varepsilon^{2-2\gamma} \text{Var} \left( L_{1,p}g(Z_i, \theta_0) \right) = \Omega \), and if, \( \sqrt{n\varepsilon^{2-\gamma}} \to \infty \). Then

\[
\sqrt{n\varepsilon^{1-\gamma}} \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) \xrightarrow{d} N \left( 0, H(\theta_0)^{-1} \Omega H(\theta_0)^{-1} \right).
\]

Section 3.4 establishes a more general form of the distribution of the estimator for the cases where the step sizes approaches zero at different rates. Asymptotic normality turns out to be a special case for the more general distribution.

The additional assumption \( \sqrt{n\varepsilon^{2-\gamma}} \to \infty \), which essentially requires \( \varepsilon \) to be larger than the convergence rate of \( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n\varepsilon^{1-\gamma}}} \) established in Theorem 10 in order to show stochastic equicontinuity, turns out to be stronger for smooth models than for nonsmooth models. This is an artifact that we are relying on Assumption 7 and the convergence rate result in Theorem 10 to obtain stochastic equicontinuity. When \( \gamma = 1 \), the conditions are consistent as long as \( p \geq 1 \), or as long as a two sided central derivative is used.

However, for smooth models when \( \gamma = 1 \), we might be willing to impose stronger assumptions on the sample objective function (e.g. Lemma 3.2.19 in Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996)) to weaken this requirement. The next theorem states such an alternative result.

Proposition 1. Suppose the conditions of Theorem 11 hold except \( \sqrt{n\varepsilon^{2-\gamma}} \to \infty \). Suppose further that \( g(z_i, \theta) \) is mean square differentiable in a neighborhood of \( \theta_0 \): for measurable functions \( D(\cdot, \cdot) : Z \times \Theta \to \mathbb{R}^p \) such that

\[
E \left[ g(Z, \theta_1) - g(Z, \theta_2) - (\theta_2 - \theta_1)' D(Z, \theta_1) \right]^2 = o \left( \| \theta_1 - \theta_2 \|^2 \right),
\]

\[
E \| D(Z, \theta_1) \|^2 < \infty \quad \text{for all} \quad \theta_1, \text{and} \quad \theta_2 \in N_{\theta_0}.
\]

Define \( q_\varepsilon(z_i, \theta) = L_{1,p}g(z_i; \theta) - D(z, \theta) \), Assume that

\[
\sup_{d(\theta, \theta_0) = o(1), \varepsilon = o(1)} \left[ \| q_\varepsilon(z_i, \theta_1) - q_\varepsilon(z_i, \theta_0) \| = o_p(1) \right],
\]

and \( D(z, \theta) \) is Donsker in \( d(\theta, \theta_0) \leq \delta \), then the conclusion of Theorem 11 holds.
Note that we still require $\sqrt{n} \varepsilon_n \to 0$ to remove the asymptotic bias, and $n\varepsilon_n \to \infty$, but we no longer require $\sqrt{n} \varepsilon \to \infty$. The conditions of this theorem are best understood in the context of a quantile regression estimator. Consider $g(z_i, \theta) = |z_i - \theta|$, and $p = 2$, so that $D(z, \theta) = \text{sgn}(z_i - \theta)$ and

$$q_\varepsilon(z_i, \theta) = \frac{(z_i - \theta)}{\varepsilon}1(|z_i| \leq \varepsilon) .$$

Then we can bound $q_\varepsilon(z_i, \theta_1) - q_\varepsilon(z_i, \theta_0)$ by, depending on which of $d(\theta, \theta_0)$ and $\varepsilon$ is larger, the product between $1 / \varepsilon \max(|z_i - \theta|, |z_i - \theta_0|)$ and the maximum of $1(|z_i - \theta| \leq \varepsilon)$, and $[1(\theta - \varepsilon \leq z_i \leq \theta + \varepsilon) + 1(\theta_0 - \varepsilon \leq z_i \leq \theta_0 + \varepsilon)]$. Since $\max(|z_i - \theta|, |z_i - \theta_0|) \leq \varepsilon$ when $q_\varepsilon(z_i, \theta) - q_\varepsilon(z_i, \theta_0)$ is nonzero, the last condition in theorem 1 is clearly satisfied by the euclidean property of the indicator functions. Alternatively, the $q_\varepsilon(z_i, \theta)$ function in the last condition can also be replaced directly by $L_{1,p}g(z_i, \theta)$.

### 3.4 General distribution results

The previous asymptotic normality result turns out to be an artifact of an excessively slow rate of approach of the sequence of step sizes $\varepsilon_n$ to zero. Our previous assumption required that $\frac{\varepsilon_n^2}{\sqrt{n}} = o(1)$ for continuous case. This assumption can be relaxed, at a cost of making the asymptotic distribution non-standard. However, this weakening also demonstrates that the numerical derivative-based estimators for non-smooth sample objective functions have interesting parallels with the cube-root asymptotics of Kim and Pollard (1990).

The following assumption has a simple implication for the covariance function of the sample objective function. It requires that the pairwise products of the sample objective function computed at different points in a vanishing neighborhood of the true parameter value have continuous expectations. Moreover, the variance of the numerical derivative of the sample objective function is infinitesimal at the points where pointwise derivative of the sample objective function may not exist.

**ASSUMPTION 12.** (i) $\theta_0$ is the interior point of $\Theta$

(ii) The covariance function

$$H(s,t) = \lim_{\alpha \to \infty} \alpha^{2\gamma} E \left[ g \left( X, \theta_0 + \frac{s}{\alpha} \right) g \left( X, \theta_0 + \frac{t}{\alpha} \right) \right] ,$$

exists for all $s,t \in \mathbb{R}^d$

(iii) For each $t$ and each $\delta > 0$

$$\lim_{\alpha \to \infty} E \left[ \alpha^{2\gamma} g \left( Z_i, \theta_0 + \frac{t}{\alpha} \right) \right]^2 1 \left\{ \|g \left( Z_i, \theta_0 + \frac{t}{\alpha} \right) \| > \alpha \delta \right\} = 0 .$$

We combine Assumption 12 with Assumption 7 that restrict the attention to particular (large) parametric classes of functions.
THEOREM 12. Suppose that assumptions 5, 7 and 12 hold. The population objective has a finite Hessian $H(\theta_0)$ at $\theta_0$ and $\sqrt{n^{1-\gamma}} \geq c > 0$. Then

$$
\frac{\varepsilon_n^{1-\gamma}}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \left( Z_i, \theta_0 + \frac{t}{\varepsilon_n^{1-\gamma}} \right) \rightsquigarrow W(t) - H(\theta_0)t.
$$

In these expressions $W(t)$ is a mean-zero Gaussian process with covariance function $H_W(s,t) = \sum_{l=-p}^{p} \sum_{k=-p}^{p} c_l c_k H(Cs + l, Ct + k)$ for some fixed $C$. Then $\sqrt{n^{1-\gamma}} (\hat{\theta} - \theta_0) \rightsquigarrow \hat{t}$, where $\hat{t}$ is the smallest solution of $W(\hat{t}) = H(\theta_0) \hat{t}$ outside zero. In one dimension, $\hat{t}$ can be interpreted as a boundary-crossing distribution.

In the special case where $\sqrt{n^{2-\gamma}} \rightarrow \infty$, $W(t)$ is a normal random variable with mean zero and variance $\sigma_W^2 = \sum_{l=-p}^{p} \sum_{k=-p}^{p} c_l c_k H(l,k)$.

Remark: Theorem 12 establishes that the lowest rate at which $\varepsilon_n$ approaches zero is $n^{-1/2(2-\gamma)}$ for the case of Hölder-continuous moment functions. A faster approach of the step size to zero leads to a loss of stochastic equicontinuity. This condition also provides the slowest convergence rate for the estimator of $n^{1/(2(2-\gamma))}$.

Theorem 12 shows that depending on the step size sequence chosen, the asymptotic behavior of the localized process of the numerical first order condition around the true parameter value is a “hybrid” between the original nonsmooth estimator and the smoothed estimators. The asymptotic behavior of the localized first order condition in case of the “under-smoothed” numerical derivative is non standard and is driven by the boundary-crossing distribution of the limiting process (a discussion of this distribution can be found, for instance in Durbin (1971, 1985)).

We note that while Theorem 12 provides an interesting characterization of the asymptotic behavior of the localized first order conditions and a crucial input for analyzing the asymptotic distribution of the resulting $Z$-estimators, the equation $W(t) = H(\theta_0)t$ can have multiple roots. The $z$-estimators can therefore be a set instead of a point estimate. We are confident that Theorem 12 can be fruitfully utilized in combined with recent developments in the set estimation literature (see for example Armstrong (2010) and Molchanov (2005) chapter 5) to characterize the convergence and asymptotic distribution of the roots. We also think that The results in Theorem 12 can be extended to the case where the considered sample functions are not continuous. But these topics are left for future research.

4 Consistency of Semiparametric Extremum Estimators

Our approach of transforming the problem of extremum estimation to the problem of solving a numerical first-order condition can be extended to the case where the parameter space is either entirely infinite-dimensional or contains an infinite-dimensional component. We consider a metric product space $\Theta \times H$ where $\Theta$ is a compact subset of a Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^p$ and $H$ is a functional Banach
space. Semiparametric extremum estimators typically arise from conditional moment equations. We consider a population moment equation

\[ m(\eta, \theta, z) = E[\rho(\theta, \eta, Y_i)|Z_i = z] = 0 \]

with \( \rho : \Theta \times \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \subset \mathbb{R}^k \). The estimation problem is re-casted into an optimization problem by defining the objective \( Q(\theta, \eta) = E[m(\theta, \eta, Z_i)\ W(Z_i)\ m(\theta, \eta, Z_i)] \) using a \( k \times k \) positive semi-definite (almost everywhere in \( Z \)) weighting matrix \( W(\cdot) \). The estimator minimizes the sample objective function with the infinite-dimensional component \( \eta \) over sieve space \( \mathcal{H}_n \)

\[
\left( \hat{\theta}, \hat{\eta} \right) = \arg \min_{(\theta, \eta) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H}_n} \frac{\hat{Q}_n(\theta, \eta)}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) \ W(z_i) \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i).
\]

A typical set of the necessary conditions for the optimum of \( Q(\theta, \eta) \) can be found, for example, in the general class of mathematical programming problems in Pshenichnyi (1971). Consider a cone \( K \) in \( \Theta \times \mathcal{H} \). If \( (\theta_0, \eta_0) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H} \) optimizes \( Q(\theta, \eta) \), then there exists a number \( \lambda_0 \geq 0 \) such that \( \theta(\lambda) = \theta_0 + \lambda \delta \in \Theta \) and \( \eta(\lambda) = \eta_0 + \lambda w \in \mathcal{H} \) for all \( (\delta, w) \in K \) and \( \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \). Moreover, \( \lambda_0 \zeta(\delta, w) = 0 \), and

\[
\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +0} \frac{Q(\theta(\lambda), \eta(\lambda)) - Q(\theta_0, \eta_0)}{\lambda} \leq \zeta(\delta, w),
\]

where \( \zeta(\delta, w) \) is a functional which is convex with respect to \( (\delta, w) \). If we assume that the objective functional is strictly concave at \( (\theta_0, \eta_0) \) then \( \lambda_0 > 0 \). This transforms the necessary conditions to

\[
\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +0} \frac{Q(\theta_0 + \lambda \delta, \eta_0 + \lambda w) - Q(\theta_0, \eta_0)}{\lambda} = 0.
\]

In particular, this directional derivative should be equal to zero for all directions within the cone \( K \). Specifically, if \( \Theta \times \mathcal{H} \) is a linear space, then this should be valid for all directions in \( (\Theta - \theta_0) \times (\mathcal{H} - \eta_0) \). If the functional is Frechet differentiable in \( (\theta, \eta) \), then the directional derivative exists in all directions in \( K \) and we can write the necessary condition for the extremum in the simple form:

\[
\frac{d}{d\tau} Q(\theta_0 + \tau \delta, \eta_0 + \tau w) \big|_{\tau=0} = 0,
\]

in all directions \( w \in \mathcal{H} - \eta_0 \). In particular if \( \Theta \) is a finite-dimensional vector space and \( \mathcal{H} \) is a finite-dimensional functional space, then we can construct a system of first-order condition that exactly identifies a parameter pair \( (\theta, \eta) \) as

\[
\frac{\partial Q(\theta, \eta)}{\partial \theta_k} = 0, \text{ for } k = 1, \ldots, p,
\]

\[
\frac{\partial Q(\theta, \eta)}{\partial \eta_j}[\psi_j] = 0, \text{ for } j = 1, \ldots, G,
\]

where \( \psi_j(\cdot) \) is a system of distinct elements of \( \mathcal{H} \). In cases where the functional space \( \mathcal{H} \) is infinite-dimensional, then we define the population solution to the system of first-order condition as a limit of sequence of solutions in the finite-dimensional sieve spaces \( \mathcal{H}_n \) such that \( \mathcal{H}_n \subseteq \mathcal{H}_{n+1} \subseteq \mathcal{H} \) for all \( n \).
We consider the class of models where such substitution of maximization of the functional to finding a solution to the system of functional equations is possible. We formalize this concept by the following assumption.

**ASSUMPTION 13.** Suppose that \((\theta_0, \eta_0)\) is the maximizer of the functional \(Q(\theta, \eta)\) and \(\mathcal{H}_n\) is the sieve space such that \(\mathcal{H}_n \subset \mathcal{H}_{n+1} \subset \mathcal{H}\). The set \(\mathcal{H}_\infty\) is complete in \(\Theta \times \mathcal{H}\). The sets \(\mathcal{H}_n\) share the same basis \(\{\psi_j\}_{j=0}^{\infty}\) and \(\langle \eta_0, \psi_j \rangle \to 0\) as \(j \to \infty\). We assume that the left-hand side of (4.8) is continuous with respect to the strong product norm in \(\Theta \times \mathcal{H}\). Suppose that \((\theta_n, \eta_n)\) solves (4.8). Then for any sequence of the sieve spaces \(\mathcal{H}_n\) satisfying the above conditions the corresponding system of solutions \((\theta_n, \eta_n)\) converges to \((\theta_0, \eta_0)\) in the strong norm.

This identification condition establishes the properties of the population objective function. We next consider the properties of the sample objective function which can be expressed as

\[
\hat{Q}(\theta, \eta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i)' \hat{W}(z_i) \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i).
\]

Following our analysis in Section 2.6 where we focused on computing directional derivatives of semiparametric models via finite-difference methods, we consider two cases where the estimator for the conditional moment function is obtained via series approximation (2.2) or kernel smoothing (2.3). The transformed system of equations that needs to be solved to obtain the estimator \(\hat{\eta}\) and \(\hat{\theta}\) can be obtained by directly applying the directional derivative to the objective function. Without loss of generality to simplify the algebra we focus on the case where the finite-dimensional parameter \(\theta\) is scalar, the conditional moment function is one-dimensional, and the weighting matrix is a non-negative weighting function. We will use the notation for the step size \(\epsilon_n\) for differentiation with respect to the finite-dimensional parameter and the notation \(\tau_n\) for the step size of differentiation with respect to the infinite-dimensional parameter. This expression for the numerical first-order condition is then

\[
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{1,p}^{\epsilon_n} \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i)' \hat{W}(z_i) \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) = o_p(1), \\
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{1,p}^{\tau_n, \psi_j} \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i)' \hat{W}(z_i) \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) = o_p(1),
\]

for \(j = 1, \ldots, G_n\).

In the following theorem we prove a uniform convergence result. Note than under standard assumptions on the series expansion and the kernel estimator, there is an interplay between the step size for numerical differentiation and the choice of the tuning parameter (the number of terms in the expansion or the bandwidth respectively).

**THEOREM 13.** Suppose that matrix \(W(\cdot)\) is a.s. positive-definite and \(\hat{W}(\cdot) = W(\cdot) + o_p(1)\) uniformly in \(z\). In addition, \(\rho(\pi_n, \eta) = O(n^{-\delta})\).
Under Assumption 8 and 9 for the series estimator, provided that \( \epsilon_n \to 0 \), \( \min\{N^\alpha, n^\theta\} \min\{\epsilon_n, \tau_n\} \to \infty \), \( \frac{n^{1-2r_0} \epsilon_n}{\sqrt{n^{1-2r_0}}} \to \infty \), and \( \frac{n^{1-2r_0} \tau_n}{\log n^{1-2r_0}} \to \infty \); under assumptions 9 and 10 for the kernel estimator, provided that \( \epsilon_n \to 0 \), \( \min\{b_n^N, n^\theta\} \min\{\epsilon_n, \tau_n\} \to \infty \), \( b_n \to 0 \), \( \frac{n^{1-2r_0} \epsilon_n b_n^\theta}{\log n^{1-2r_0}} \to \infty \), and \( \frac{n^{1-2r_0} \epsilon_n b_n^\theta}{\log n^{1-2r_0}} \to \infty \); \( (\hat{\theta}, \hat{\eta}) \) \( \overset{p}{\to} (\theta_0, \eta_0) \) provided that system \((4.9)\) is satisfied.

The result of this theorem is based on the uniform consistency result for the directional derivatives in Section 2.6. We note that those results provided consistency for the directional derivatives uniformly in \( \theta \), \( \eta \), \( w \) and \( z \). However, uniformity in \( z \) seems excessive for the estimator delivered by \((4.9)\) provided that the estimator requires summation over the sample \( \{z_i\}_{i=1}^N \). It turns out that in some special cases we can use this feature to improve the convergence result and deliver fast convergence rate for the estimator of the finite-dimensional parameter. Our result will rely on the properties of U-statistics covered in Section 5.

5 Numerical derivatives of U-statistics

5.1 Consistency of numerical derivatives

Numerical derivatives can also be used for objective functions that are based on U-statistics, an example of which is the maximum rank correlation estimator of Sherman (1993). The model considered in this section is parametric. Second order U-statistics, which we focus on, are the most commonly used in applications. A U-statistic objective function is defined from an i.i.d. sample \( \{Z_i\}_{i=1}^n \) by a symmetric function \( g(Z_i, Z_j, \theta) \) as

\[
\hat{g}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} S_n(f) \quad \text{where} \quad S_n(f) = \sum_{i \neq j} f(Z_i, Z_j, \theta). \tag{5.10}
\]

We denote the expectation with respect to the independent product measure on \( Z \times Z \) by \( E_{zz} \) and the expectation with respect to a single measure by \( E_z \). The population value can then be written as \( g(\theta) = E_{zz} f(Z_i, Z_j, \theta) \). This population objective function satisfies Assumption 5.

Following Serfling (1980), the following decomposition of the objective function into an empirical process and a degenerate U-process component can be used to establish the statistical properties of approximating \( G(\theta_0) = \frac{1}{n} \hat{g}(\theta) \) by \( L_{1,2}^{\alpha}\hat{g}(\theta) \),

\[
\hat{g}(\theta) = g(\theta) + \hat{\mu}_n(\theta) + \frac{1}{n(n-1)} S_n(w), \tag{5.11}
\]

where

\[
\hat{\mu}_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(Z_i, \theta), \quad \mu(z, \theta) = E_z f(Z_i, z, \theta) + E_z f(z, Z_i, \theta) - 2g(\theta),
\]

and

\[
u(z, z'; \theta) = f(z, z', \theta) - E_z f(Z_i, z, \theta) - E_z f(z', Z_i, \theta) + g(\theta).
\]
The condition for controlling the degenerate U-process will be weaker than that needed for the empirical process term because of its faster convergence rate. We maintain Assumption 6, with the new interpretation of functions \( g(\cdot, \cdot, \theta) \). We also make the following additional assumptions.

**ASSUMPTION 14.** The projections \( \mu(z, \theta) \) are Lipschitz-continuous in \( \theta \) uniformly over \( z \).

This assumption depends on the distribution of \( Z_i \). For instance, when the kernel is defined by indicator functions, the expectation will be continuous in the parameter for sufficiently smooth distribution of \( Z_i \). It controls the impact of numerical differentiation on the projection term by the maximum inequality for Lipschitz-continuous functions:

\[
E^* \sup_{d(\theta, \theta_0) = o(1)} \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mu(Z_i, \theta + \epsilon_n) - \mu(Z_i, \theta - \epsilon_n) - g(\theta + \epsilon_n) + g(\theta - \epsilon_n)) \right| \leq C\epsilon_n,
\]

for some \( C > 0 \).

**ASSUMPTION 15.** For a neighborhood \( N(\theta_0) \) around \( \theta_0 \),

\[
\sup_{\theta \in N(\theta_0), z \in Z} E |g(Z_i, z, \theta + \epsilon) - g(Z_i, z, \theta - \epsilon)|^2 = O(\epsilon).
\]

This assumption allows us to establish an analog of Lemma 1 for the case of the U-processes, which is presented below.

**LEMMA 6.** Suppose \( \|F\| = \sup_{\theta \in N(\theta_0)} |g(Z_i, Z_j, \theta)| \ll C < \infty \). Under Assumptions 6 and 15, if \( n^2\epsilon_n / \log^2 n \to \infty \),

\[
\sup_{d(\theta, \theta_0) = o(1)} \|L_{1,p}^n \hat{g}(\theta) - L_{1,p}^n g(\theta)\| = o_p(1).
\]

Consequently, assumption 5 implies that \( \hat{G}_1(\hat{\theta}) = o_p(1) \) if \( d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = o_p(1) \), as defined in (2.1).

The consistency of the numerical derivatives of U-statistics follows directly from Lemma 6.

**THEOREM 14.** Under assumptions, 5, 6 and the conditions of lemma 6, \( L_{1,p}^n \hat{g}(\hat{\theta}) \xrightarrow{p} G(\theta_0) \) if \( \epsilon_n \to 0 \) and \( n\epsilon_n^2 / \log^2 n \to \infty \), and if \( d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = o_p(1) \).

As in the case of the empirical process, this theorem establishes the weakest possible condition on the step size of numerical differentiation when the envelope function of the differenced moment function does not necessarily decrease with the shrinking step size. We note that the resulting condition for the step size is weaker in the case of the U-statistics versus the case of the empirical sums. This is an artifact of the property that the projection of U-statistics tends to be smoother than the kernel function itself leading to a smaller scale of the U-statistic.
5.2 Numerical gradient-based estimation with U-statistics

We consider the solution of the empirical first-order condition \( \hat{\theta} \) defined by

\[
||L^{e}_{1,p} \hat{Q}_n \left( \hat{\theta} \right)|| = o_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right).
\]

In some cases when the objective function is not continuous, the value that sets the first-order condition to zero might not exist, in which case we choose the point that will set the first-order condition very close to zero. In this section we will only consider the distribution results regarding the first numerical derivative.

The structure of the consistency argument for the U-statistic defined estimation problem is similar to that for the standard sample means. In particular, when the kernel function is “sufficiently” smooth, the behavior of the objective function will be dominated by the empirical process component. In that case the analysis from our previous discussion will be valid for the objective function defined by the sample mean of \( E_z f (z, Z_i, \theta) \). We maintain Assumption 11 applied to the map \( D(\theta) = \partial \partial_{\theta} E_{zz} \left[ f (z, Z_i, \theta) \right] \). We also keep Assumption 4 following Arcones and Gine (1993) where the authors state that this assumption, along with the finiteness of the absolute moment of the U-statistic, constitute a sufficient measurability requirement. A deeper discussion of applicability of these conditions can be found in Section 10 of Dudley (1999).

5.3 U-statistics with kernels with absolutely bounded finite differences

We maintain Assumption 6, 14 and 15 for the class of kernels of the U-statistic. Lemma 6 establishes the consistency result for this objective function which implies that under \( n^2 \varepsilon_n / \log^2 n \to \infty \),

\[
\sup_{d(\theta, \theta_0) = o(1)} \| L^{e}_{1,p} \hat{\theta} - L^{e}_{1,p} \| = o_p(1).
\]

Moreover, we can apply Lemma 10 in Nolan and Pollard (1987). This lemma states that for \( t_n \geq \max \{ \varepsilon_n^{1/2}, \log n \} \) we have for some constant \( \beta > 0 \)

\[
P \left( \sup_{x_n} |S_n(f)| > \beta^2 n^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) \leq 2A \exp \left( -nt_n \right)
\]

However, we note that provided that \( \log n \sqrt{\varepsilon_n} / n \to \infty \), we can strengthen this result. In fact, provided that for sufficiently large \( n \) \( t_n = \sqrt{\varepsilon_n} \), we note that we can prove

\[
\sup_{d(\theta, \theta_0) = o(1)} \frac{n^2 \varepsilon_n}{\sqrt{\log n}} \| L^{e}_{1,p} \hat{\theta} - L^{e}_{1,p} \| = O_p(1).
\]

We next repeat the steps that we followed to determine the rate of convergence of the estimators given by sample means.

**LEMMA 7.** Suppose \( \hat{\theta} \overset{p}{\to} \theta_0 \) and \( L^{e}_{1,p} \hat{Q} \left( \hat{\theta} \right) = o_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_n}} \right) \). Suppose that Assumptions 6 (i) and (ii), 14 and 15 hold

(i) If \( n \sqrt{\varepsilon_n} / \log n \to \infty \), and \( \sqrt{n^{1+p}} = O \left( 1 \right) \), then \( \frac{n^2 \varepsilon_n}{\log^2 n} d \left( \hat{\theta}, \theta_0 \right) = o_p \left( 1 \right) \).
(ii) If \( \sqrt{n} \varepsilon_n = o(1) \), and \( \frac{n \varepsilon_n}{\log n} \to \infty \) we have

\[
\operatorname{sup}_{d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) = O\left( \frac{\log^2 n}{n^{1+\varepsilon_n}} \right)} \left( L_{1,p}^\varepsilon \hat{Q} \left( \hat{\theta} \right) - L_{1,p}^\varepsilon \hat{Q} \left( \theta_0 \right) - L_{1,p}^\varepsilon Q \left( \hat{\theta} \right) + L_{1,p}^\varepsilon Q \left( \theta_0 \right) \right) = o_p \left( \frac{1}{n} \right).
\]

In this lemma we, first established the “maximum” radius of the shrinking neighborhood containing the parameter. In the next step we considered the behavior of the objective function in the small neighborhood of order \( O\left( \frac{\log^2 n}{n^{1+\varepsilon_n}} \right) \) of the true parameter. As we show below, we can improve upon the rate of the objective function using the envelope property.

We can use this result to establish the rate of convergence of the resulting estimator.

**Theorem 15.** Suppose \( \hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{p} \theta_0 \) and \( L_{1,p}^\varepsilon \hat{Q} \left( \hat{\theta} \right) = o_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \). Under Assumptions of Lemma 7, if \( n \varepsilon_n / \log n \to \infty \), and \( \sqrt{n} \varepsilon_n = o(1) \), then \( \sqrt{n} \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) \xrightarrow{d} N \left( 0, \Omega \right) \).

**Proof.** We note that by Lemma 7 in the small neighborhoods of the true parameter the U-statistic part has a stochastic order \( o_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \). As a result, the sum will be dominated by the projection term. Provided that the projection is Lipschitz-continuous, we can apply the standard rate result in Newey and McFadden (1994) which gives the stochastic order for the first term \( o_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \) and gives the corresponding parametric convergence.

The last relevant result concerns the asymptotic distribution of the estimator obtained from the maximization of the U-statistic.

**Assumption 16.** The empirical process corresponding to the projection of the U-statistic \( G_{\mu,n}(\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(z_i, \theta) \) satisfies

\[
\frac{G_{\mu,n}(\theta_0 + \varepsilon_n) - G_{\mu,n}(\theta_0 + \varepsilon_n)}{\varepsilon_n} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \Omega),
\]

as \( n \to \infty \) and \( \varepsilon \to 0 \).

This assumption allows us to apply the result in Theorem 11 and obtain the following characterization of the asymptotic distribution of the estimator corresponding to the zero of the numerical gradient of the U-statistic.

**Theorem 16.** Assume that the conditions of theorem 15 hold and \( \sqrt{n} \varepsilon_n^{2p} = o(1) \). In addition, suppose that the Hessian matrix \( H(\theta) \) of \( g(\theta) \) is continuous, nonsingular and finite at \( \theta_0 \) and Assumption 16 holds. Then

\[
\sqrt{n} \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) \xrightarrow{d} N \left( 0, H(\theta_0)^{-1} \Omega H(\theta_0)^{-1} \right).
\]
6 Applications

6.1 Irregular models with continuous moment functions

Consider the problem of extremum estimation where the sample objective function is continuous and bounded on compact subsets of the parameter space, but its derivative does not exist at the minimum. Suppose that a single regressor \( X \) has infinite support with the density symmetric about zero, bounded at zero and Gaussian tails. The population objective function is by

\[
g(\theta) = E[|X - \theta|^\alpha],
\]

where \( \alpha < 1 \). The sample objective function corresponding to \( g(\cdot) \) is irregular if \( X \) is normally distributed or has a density bounded away from 0 at \( \theta \), since then the random variable \( \alpha|X - \theta|^\alpha - 1 \) does not have a finite variance if \( \alpha \leq \frac{1}{2} \). The sample objective function takes the form

\[
g(X) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i - \theta|^{\alpha}.
\]

Consider a numerical first-order condition for the minimum of this function

\[
\nabla_x g(X) = 0,
\]

where for algebraic convenience, we focus on the numerical differentiation operator of order 2. Provided that the objective function is continuous, the solution exists and corresponds to

\[
\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^\alpha \hat{g}(\hat{\theta}) \equiv 0.
\]

Consider the mean-value expansion of the numerical first-order condition at \( \hat{\theta} \) at \( \theta_0 = 0 \) writing it as

\[
2 \varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^\alpha \hat{g}(0) - \hat{H}(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\theta}, \varepsilon_n) \hat{\theta} + \hat{R}(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\theta}, \varepsilon_n) = 0,
\]

where \( \hat{H}(\cdot) \) is the Hessian term and \( \hat{R}(\cdot) \) is the stochastic residual. The detailed derivations are provided in Appendix A.14. The Hessian term \( \hat{H}(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\theta}, \varepsilon_n) \) with

\[
\hat{H}(x, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\theta}) = 2 \alpha \varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^\alpha |x - \hat{\theta}|^{\alpha - 1} \{ |x - \hat{\theta}| > \varepsilon_n \} \text{sign}(x - \hat{\theta})
\]

\[
+ \alpha \left( |x - \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} + |x - \hat{\theta} - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} \right) \{ |x - \hat{\theta}| < \varepsilon_n \}
\]

\[
= H_1(x, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\theta}) + H_2(x, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\theta}).
\]

and the residual term \( \hat{R}(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} R(x_i, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\theta}) \) with

\[
R(x, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\theta}) = -2 \alpha |x - \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x + \varepsilon_n) \left( 1 \{ x - \hat{\theta} < -\varepsilon_n \} 1 \{ x > -\varepsilon_n \} 
\]

\[
- 1 \{ x - \hat{\theta} > -\varepsilon_n \} 1 \{ x < -\varepsilon_n \} \right)
\]

\[
- 2 \alpha |x - \hat{\theta} - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x - \varepsilon_n) \left( 1 \{ x - \hat{\theta} > \varepsilon_n \} 1 \{ x < \varepsilon_n \} - 1 \{ x - \hat{\theta} < \varepsilon_n \} 1 \{ x > \varepsilon_n \} \right).
\]
Consider the residual (6.14) first. Take $\delta_n > 0$ such that $0 < |\hat{\theta}| < |\bar{\theta}| < \delta_n$. Then we can see that

$$1\{(x - \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon_n)(x + \varepsilon_n) < 0\} < 1\{|x + \varepsilon_n| < \delta_n\}. \quad \text{Thus}$$

$$|R(x, \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta})| \leq 2\alpha|x + \varepsilon_n| \alpha 1\{|x + \varepsilon_n| < \delta_n\} + 2\alpha|x - \varepsilon_n| \alpha 1\{|x - \varepsilon_n| < \delta_n\}.$$ 

Due to this evaluation, we find that

$$\text{Var} \left( R(x_i, \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta}) \right) = E \left[ (R(x_i, \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta})^2 \right] - E \left[ R(x, \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta}) \right]^2 = O_p ((\varepsilon_n + \delta_n)^{2\alpha + 1}).$$

Considering the class of residual functions $\mathcal{F}_n = \{ R(\cdot, \varepsilon_n) \}, \ 0 < |\hat{\theta}| < |\bar{\theta}| < \delta_n, \varepsilon_n \rightarrow 0 \},$ and using the above evaluation, we can apply Theorem 37 in Pollard (1984) which implies that

$$\hat{R}(\hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta}, \varepsilon_n) = E \left[ R(x_i, \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta}) \right] + O_p ((\varepsilon_n + \delta_n)^{2\alpha + 1}) = O_p ((\varepsilon_n + \delta_n)^{\alpha + 1}).$$

Consider the Hessian term (6.13), whose second element can be evaluated similarly to the above via the application of Theorem 37 in Pollard (1984). In fact, we note that

$$\text{Var} \left( H_2 \left( x_i, \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta} \right) \right) = O (\varepsilon_n + \delta_n)^{2\alpha - 1},$$

and $E \left[ H_2 \left( x, \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta} \right) \right] = O ((\varepsilon_n + \delta_n)^{\alpha}).$ Therefore, we find that $\hat{H}_2 \left( \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta} \right) = O_p ((\varepsilon_n + \delta_n)^{2\alpha - 1}).$

For the first term in (6.13) we can find that

$$\hat{H}_1 \left( \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta} \right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ H_1 \left(x_i, \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta} \right) - E \left[H_1 \left(x_i, \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta} \right) \right] \right] + E \left[H_1 \left(x_i, 0, 0 \right) \right] + O (\varepsilon_n \delta_n),$$

where the last term comes from the mean-value expansion of the expectation with respect to the parameters. Provided that the density of $X$ is bounded, the variance of the first term can be evaluated as

$$\text{Var} \left( H_2 \left( x, \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta} \right) \right) \leq C \int_{|x - \bar{\theta}| > \varepsilon_n} |x - \bar{\theta}|^{2\alpha - 2} dx \leq 2C (\varepsilon_n + \delta_n)^{2\alpha - 1}.$$

Then the stochastic order for the first term follows from Theorem 37 in Pollard (1984) similarly to $H_2(\cdot)$, while the term

$$\frac{1}{\varepsilon_n} E \left[H_1 \left(x_i, 0, 0 \right) \right] = E \left[ \frac{1}{2\varepsilon_n} \left(|x_i + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} - |x_i - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1}\right) 1\{|x| > \varepsilon_n\} \text{sign}(x) \right] \rightarrow - \frac{d}{dt} E \left[ |X + t|^{\alpha - 1} \text{sign}(X) \right].$$

Therefore, we can evaluate the entire Hessian term as

$$\hat{H} \left( \hat{\theta}, \bar{\theta} \right) = - \varepsilon_n \frac{d}{dt} E \left[ |X + t|^{\alpha - 1} \text{sign}(X) \right] + O_p ((\varepsilon_n + \delta_n)^{2\alpha - 1}).$$

\footnote{In addition, we need to require that $n(\varepsilon_n + \delta_n)^{2\alpha + 1}/\log n \rightarrow \infty$.}
We finish the evaluations in (6.12) by considering the first term of the mean-value expansion above. we can briefly express the numerical derivative of the objective function at 0 as

\[ 2\varepsilon_n L_{1,p}^n \hat{g}(0) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\alpha |x_i + \varepsilon^*|^{\alpha-1} \text{sign}(x_i) \varepsilon_n 1(|x_i| > \varepsilon_n) + \varepsilon_n^\alpha \left( \left| 1 + \frac{x_i}{\varepsilon_n} \right|^\alpha - \left| 1 - \frac{x_i}{\varepsilon_n} \right|^\alpha \right) 1(|x_i| < \varepsilon_n)). \]

We can compute the variance of an individual element of this sum considering the two components separately. Assume that there exist \( c_1, c_2 > 0 \) such that the density of \( x \) is bounded \( c_1 < f(x) < c_2 \) in some neighborhood of \( x = 0 \). Then

\[ \text{Var} \left( \varepsilon_n^\alpha \left( \left| 1 + \frac{x_i}{\varepsilon_n} \right|^\alpha - \left| 1 - \frac{x_i}{\varepsilon_n} \right|^\alpha \right) 1(|x_i| < \varepsilon_n) \right) = \int_{-1}^{1} (|1 + u|^{\alpha} - |1 - u|^{\alpha}) f(u \varepsilon_n) \varepsilon_n^{2\alpha-1} du \leq C \varepsilon_n^{2\alpha+1}. \]

Next, for \( \alpha > \frac{1}{2} \) we use the pointwise validity of the local representation and by the dominated convergence theorem we conclude that

\[ \text{Var} \left( |x_i + \varepsilon^*|^{\alpha-1} \text{sign}(x_i) \varepsilon_n 1(|x_i| > \varepsilon_n) \right) \leq \varepsilon_n^2 E \left[ |x_i + \varepsilon^*|^{2\alpha-2} \right] < \infty. \]

In case where \( \alpha < \frac{1}{2} \)

\[ \text{Var} \left( |x_i + \varepsilon^*|^{\alpha-1} \text{sign}(x_i) \varepsilon_n 1(|x_i| > \varepsilon_n) \right) \leq \varepsilon_n^2 \int_{\varepsilon_n}^{+\infty} u^{2\alpha-2} f(u) du \leq \frac{c_2}{1 - 2\alpha} \varepsilon_n^{2\alpha+1}. \]

Thus, we conclude that for \( \alpha > \frac{1}{2} \), \( \text{Var} \left( L_{1,p}^n \hat{g}(0) \right) = O(1) \) and for \( \alpha < \frac{1}{2} \), \( \text{Var} \left( L_{1,p}^n \hat{g}(0) \right) = O(\varepsilon_n^{2\alpha-1}) \).

As a result, we can apply the CLT using the Lindeberg condition to find that for \( \alpha > \frac{1}{2} \)

\[ \sqrt{n} L_{1,p}^n \hat{g}(0) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \Omega) \]

and for \( \alpha < \frac{1}{2} \)

\[ \sqrt{n} \varepsilon_n^{\frac{1}{2} - \alpha} L_{1,p}^n \hat{g}(0) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \Omega). \]

Substituting the obtained results into (6.12), recalling that \( d \left( \hat{\theta}, 0 \right) = O(\delta_n) \), we find that

\[ \delta_n^{-1} \hat{\theta} = \left( \varepsilon_n^{-1} \dot{H}(\hat{\theta}, \varepsilon_n) \right)^{-1} \delta_n^{-1} n^{\frac{1}{2} - \alpha} L_{1,p}^n \hat{g}(0) + \left( \dot{H}(\hat{\theta}, \varepsilon_n) \right)^{-1} \delta_n^{-1} \dot{R}(\hat{\theta}, \varepsilon_n). \]

Our goal is to find a “balancing” sequence \( \delta_n \) such that \( \delta_n^{-1} \hat{\theta} = O_p(1) \). In this expression \( \varepsilon_n^{-1} \dot{H}(\hat{\theta}, \varepsilon_n) = O_p(1) \), and \( \varepsilon_n^{-1} \delta_n^{-1} \dot{R}(\hat{\theta}, \varepsilon_n) = O_p(\varepsilon_n^{1+\alpha}) \). Therefore, the residual term approaches zero if \( \delta_n^{-1} \varepsilon_n^{1+\alpha} \rightarrow 0 \) and \( \varepsilon_n^{-1} \delta_n \rightarrow 0 \). Thus

- for \( \alpha > \frac{1}{2} \) \( d(\hat{\theta}, 0) = O_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \);
- for \( \alpha < \frac{1}{2} \) \( d(\hat{\theta}, 0) = O_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n} \varepsilon_n^{1+\alpha}} \right) \).
We note that the condition requiring the residual to converge to zero requires that $n^{\frac{1}{2} + \alpha} \varepsilon_n \to \infty$ if $\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$ and $n^{\frac{1}{2} - \alpha} \varepsilon_n \to \infty$, and $\delta_n \varepsilon_n^{-\alpha} \to \infty$.

As a result, we can provide the Hölder constant for our theorem $\gamma = \frac{1}{2} + \alpha$ if $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ and $\gamma = 1$ if $\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$.

To map the obtained result to our general theory, we find the envelope for the class of differences $|x - \theta_1|^\alpha - |x - \theta_2|^\alpha$. To provide an envelope, we introduce $x^* = x - \frac{\theta_1 + \theta_2}{2}$ and $\eta = \frac{\theta_2 - \theta_1}{2}$ with $|\eta| < \delta$. Then we can find that

$$||x - \theta_1|^\alpha - |x - \theta_2|^\alpha| = |\eta|^\alpha \left| 1 + \frac{x^*}{\eta} \right|^{\alpha} - \left| 1 - \frac{x^*}{\eta} \right|^\alpha \right|.$$ 

We make a convenient change of variable $z = x^*/\eta$. Then we can focus on the properties of the function

$$\zeta(z) = |1 + z|^{\alpha} - |1 - z|^{\alpha}$$

When $z < -1$, this function is strictly decreasing in $z$ with its derivative approaching infinity at $z = -1$. It strictly increases on $[-1, 1]$ and then decreases when $z > 1$. We construct an envelope function as $F(\eta) = \min\{|\eta|^\alpha \zeta(\frac{x^*}{\eta}), |x^*|/|\eta|\}$. We note that for $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ we can conclude that for the density of $x$ bounded away from zero and bounded from above at $(\theta_1 + \theta_2)/2$

$$(\text{Var}(F(\eta)))^{1/2} = \left( C_1 \delta^{2\alpha + 1} + C_2 \delta^2 \right)^{1/2} = O \left( \delta^{\alpha + 1/2} \right).$$

This means that the mean squared error for the provided envelope is corresponding to the case of the Hölder-continuous function with the degree of continuity $\gamma = \frac{1}{2} + \alpha$.

### 6.2 Models with discontinuous moment functions

Our Theorem 7 is also valid in the settings where the sample moment function is not continuous. One striking example of consistency of the estimator defined by the numerical derivative is its application to the maximum score estimator of Manski (1975, 1985). This estimator was re-considered in Horowitz (1992), where it was shown that replacing indicator functions by kernel smoothers led to a faster converging estimator once bandwidth is chosen appropriately. Here we illustrate the use of a numerical first-order condition for the original maximum score objective function and show that for an appropriately chosen step size the resulting estimator will have properties similar to those in Horowitz (1992).

Consider the population objective function of Manski’s maximum score estimator

$$Q(\theta) = E \left[ \left( y - \frac{1}{2} \right) \mathbf{1} \{ x' \theta > 0 \} \right]$$

with the sample analog

$$\hat{Q}_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \frac{1}{2} \right) \mathbf{1} \{ x_i' \theta > 0 \}.$$
The sample objective is non-smooth in $\theta$ which may complicate the search for the maximum of the objective with respect to $\theta$. We can apply the numerical gradient-based approach to construct a more manageable estimation technique. We consider the situation where the moment function

$$g(y, x, \theta) = \left( y - \frac{1}{2} \right) \mathbb{1} \{ x' \theta > 0 \}$$

has $p$ continuous mean-square derivatives.

Horowitz (1992) imposes the normalization where the coefficient of the regressor that has a continuous density is normalized to 1. In our case if there is only one regressor this implies $x' \theta = x + \theta$. We consider the use of the first numerical derivative operator of order 2. Then from its linearity, it follows that application of this operator leads to the system of the first-order conditions

$$L_{1,2}^\varepsilon \hat{Q}_n (\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{1}{\varepsilon_n} U \left( \frac{x_i + \theta}{\varepsilon_n} \right) = 0,$$

where $U(\cdot)$ is a uniform kernel. Consider the use of the smoothed maximum score procedure applied in the same case. Then the indicator is substituted by the cumulative kernel. For instance, one can use cumulative uniform kernel:

$$K(z) = \mathbb{1} \{ z \in [-1, 1] \} z + \mathbb{1} \{ z > 1 \}.$$

For the bandwidth parameter $h_n$ we can write the objective function as

$$\hat{Q}_n (\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \frac{1}{2} \right) K \left( \frac{x_i + \theta}{h_n} \right).$$

The corresponding first-order condition for the uniform kernel is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \hat{Q}_n (\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{1}{h_n} U \left( \frac{x_i + \theta}{h_n} \right) = 0.$$

One can see that the equations corresponding to the numerical gradient and the smoothed maximum score are identical if the step size for the numerical differentiation $\varepsilon_n = h_n$. As a result, we can extend the result of Horowitz (1992) to the case of the uniform kernels which implies that the estimator $\hat{\theta}$ solving the first-order condition with the numerical gradient converges at the rate $\sqrt{\varepsilon_n n}$ to a normal distribution.

In a more general case, there is a vector of non-constant regressors $(x^1, x^2)$, where $x^1$ is a scalar regressor with continuous density, and the single index has the form $x^1 + \theta_1 + x^2 \theta_2$. Then, in addition to the numerical derivative with respect to $\theta_1$ which will have the same form as before. The derivative with respect to components of $\theta_2$ will lead to

$$L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n, k} \hat{Q}_n (\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{x^2_{ik}}{x^2_{ik} \varepsilon_n} U \left( \frac{x^1 + \theta_1 + x^2 \theta_2}{x^2_{ik} \varepsilon_n} \right) = 0,$$
where \( x_2^k \) is the \( k \)-th component of \( x^2 \). Denote \( h_{ik}^2 = x_{ik}^2 \varepsilon_n \). We can treat \( h_k^2 \) as stochastic bandwidth sequence. Then

\[
L_{1,2,\varepsilon}^k \hat{Q}_n (\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{x_{ik}^2}{h_{ik}^2} U \left( \frac{x^1 + \theta_1 + x^2 \theta_2}{h_k^2} \right) = 0.
\]

Given that \( \varepsilon_n \to 0 \) at an appropriate rate, under our regularity conditions extending those in Horowitz (1992) we can guarantee that \( h_{ik}^2 \to 0 \) a.s. The condition above will be numerically equivalent to the condition in Horowitz (1992) extended to the case of uniform kernels if one substitutes the fixed bandwidth sequence by a stochastic sequence in our case. Let \( h_k^2 = E \left[ h_{ik}^2 \right] \). Noting that

\[
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{x_{ik}^2}{h_{ik}^2} U \left( \frac{x^1 + \theta_1 + x^2 \theta_2}{h_k^2} \right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{x_{ik}^2}{h_k^2} U \left( \frac{x^1 + \theta_1 + x^2 \theta_2}{h_k^2} \right) + \Delta_n,
\]

where \( \Delta_n \to 0 \) a.s., we obtain equivalence of the smoothed maximum score objective and the numerical first-order condition.

### 7 Step Size Choice

Our asymptotic results deal with the optimal choice of the rate of the step size for numerical differentiation. An important practical question is the choice of step size for a given sample. In the non-parametric estimation literature there are approaches to the choice of the bandwidth for kernel smoothing. Survey of work on the choice of bandwidth for density estimation can be found in Jones, Marron, and Sheather (1996) with related results for non-parametric regression estimation and estimation of average derivatives in Hardle and Marron (1985) and Hart, Marron, and Tsybakov (1992) among others.

To a large extent, we can obtain the results for the optimal choice of constants in a simpler manner than in the case of non-parametric estimation because we will not be interested in the “uniform” step size. Previously we considered the decomposition: \( L_{1,\varepsilon}^n \hat{g} (\hat{\theta}) - G = \hat{G}_1 + \hat{G}_2 + G_3 + G_4 \), where

\[
G_1 = \left[ L_{1,\varepsilon}^n \hat{g} (\hat{\theta}) - L_{1,\varepsilon}^n g (\hat{\theta}) \right] - \left[ L_{1,\varepsilon}^n \hat{g} (\theta_0) - L_{1,\varepsilon}^n g (\theta_0) \right]
\]

and

\[
G_2 = L_{1,\varepsilon}^n \hat{g} (\theta_0) - L_{1,\varepsilon}^n g (\theta_0)
\]

and

\[
G_3 = L_{1,\varepsilon}^n g (\hat{\theta}) - L_{1,\varepsilon}^n g (\theta_0), \quad G_4 = L_{1,\varepsilon}^n g (\theta_0) - G.
\]

We proved that \( L_{1,\varepsilon}^n \hat{g} (\hat{\theta}) - G = O_p \left( \hat{G}_2 + G_4 \right) \). We can now consider the problem of the optimal constant choice. We consider the mean-squared error as the criterion for the choice of the step size, i.e., the function of interest is

\[
\text{MSE}(\varepsilon) = E \| L_{1,\varepsilon}^n \hat{g} (\hat{\theta}) - G \|^2,
\]
which we approximate by the leading terms $G_2$ and $G_4$. We note that

$$L_{\epsilon n}^p g(\theta) = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \sum_{l=-p}^{p} c_l g(\theta + l\epsilon).$$

Assuming that function $g(\cdot)$ has at least $p + 1$ derivatives, we can evaluate the result of application of the numerical derivative as

$$L_{\epsilon n}^p g(\theta) = g'(\theta) + \epsilon g^{(p+1)}(\theta) \sum_{l=-p}^{p} \frac{c_l l^p}{(p+1)!} + o(\epsilon^n).$$

Thus $G_4 = \epsilon \sum_{l=-p}^{p} \frac{c_l l^p}{(p+1)!} + o(\epsilon^n)$. We can evaluate the variance of $G_2$ as

$$\operatorname{Var}(G_2) = \frac{1}{n} E \left[ \frac{1}{\epsilon_n} \sum_{l=-p}^{p} c_l (g(\theta + l\epsilon_n, Z_i) - g(\theta + l\epsilon_n)) \right]^2$$

$$= \epsilon_n^{-(2-2\gamma)} n^{-1} \left[ \sum_{l=-p}^{p} c_l^2 \operatorname{Var}(\epsilon_n^{-\gamma} g(\theta + l\epsilon_n, Z_i)) + \sum_{l,k=-p}^{p} c_l c_k \operatorname{Cov}(\epsilon_n^{-\gamma} g(\theta + l\epsilon_n, Z_i), \epsilon_n^{-\gamma} g(\theta + k\epsilon_n, Z_i)) \right]$$

$$= \epsilon_n^{-(2-2\gamma)} n^{-1} V_g(\epsilon_n).$$

In case where $\gamma = 1$, the variance of $G_2$ will not affect the estimation. However, there will still be numerical error corresponding to the operating precision of the computer. This error is known and fixed. We denote it $[\delta g]$. Then the total error can be evaluate as

$$\operatorname{MSE}_1(\epsilon) \approx \epsilon_n^{2p} \left( g^{(p+1)}(\theta) \sum_{l=-p}^{p} \frac{c_l l^p}{(p+1)!} \right)^2 + \frac{[\delta g]}{\epsilon_n} \sum_{l=-p}^{p} c_l.$$

In case where $\gamma < 1$ the numerical error will be exceeded by the sampling error. As a result, we can compute

$$\operatorname{MSE}_{<1}(\epsilon) \approx \epsilon_n^{2p} \left( g^{(p+1)}(\theta) \sum_{l=-p}^{p} \frac{c_l l^p}{(p+1)!} \right)^2 + \epsilon_n^{-(2-2\gamma)} n^{-1} V_g(\epsilon_n).$$

Then we can choose $\epsilon_n = \frac{C}{n^r}$, where $r$ is the optimal rate for $\epsilon_n$ if $\gamma < 1$ and $r = 0$ otherwise. The problem is to choose $C$. In most applications, however, the derivative $g^{(p+1)}$ is unknown. One simple way of choosing $C$ is the analog of biased cross-validation. We can choose a simple first-order formula for $g^{(p+1)}$ and pick a preliminary (over-smootheed) step size $\epsilon^{**} = \frac{(p+1)\operatorname{Var}(\theta, Z_i)}{n^{1/2} \epsilon_n}$ then evaluate

$$\hat{g}^{(p+1)}(\theta) = \frac{1}{\epsilon^{**}} \sum_{k=0}^{[p/2]} g\left(\theta + (-1)^k \epsilon^{**}\right).$$
Plugging this expression into the expression for the mean-squared error, we can obtain the optimal step sizes. Then for $\gamma = 1$ we find that

$$C^{**} = \left( \frac{p! (p + 1)! \left[ \delta g \right]}{\left( g^{(p+1)} (\theta) \sum_{l=-p}^{p} c_l l^p \right)^2} \right)^{1/(2p+1)}.$$  

For $\gamma < 1$ we find

$$C^{**} = \left( \frac{(2 - 2\gamma)p! (p + 1)! V_g (\varepsilon^*_n)}{\left( g^{(p+1)} (\theta) \sum_{l=-p}^{p} c_l l^p \right)^2} \right)^{1/(2p+2-2\gamma)}.$$  

Note that if the function $g(\cdot)$ is intensive to compute, the choice of these constants allows one to use a relatively small subsample to calibrate the step sizes. Then one can use these constants to initialize the step sizes on a large scale using the entire sample.

In case where one can compute the function in a relatively straightforward way, calibration of the constants of interest can be performed by minimizing the approximate expression for the mean-squared error with respect to $C$, taking into account that the step size will enter both in the expression for the derivative $g^{(p+1)}$ and $V_g (\varepsilon_n)$. This approach is equivalent to the solve-the-equation plug-in approach in the bandwidth selection literature.

8 Monte-carlo evidence

We analyze the properties of the rules for selection of the step sizes using the so-called Chernoff’s example (see Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996)). The example is based on the population objective function

$$Q (\theta) = E \left[ 1 \{ x \in [\theta - 1, \theta + 1] \} \right],$$  

with a continuously distributed scalar regressor $x$. Note that if $X$ has an unbounded support and a continuous density $f_X (\cdot)$ then the maximizer $\theta_0$ of the population objective satisfies the necessary first-order condition

$$f_X (\theta_0 + 1) = f_X (\theta_0 - 1).$$  

In particular, if the distribution of $X$ is symmetric and unimodal, then the unique solution is $\theta_0 = 0$. In our analysis we consider the case where $X$ is standard normal, i.e. the population objective function indeed has a unique maximizer. The simulated sample $\{ X_i \}_{i=1}^{n}$ comes from a standard
normal distribution and the sample objective is computed as

\[ Q_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1 \{ X_i \in [\theta - 1, \theta + 1] \} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} U(X_i - \theta), \]

where \( U(\cdot) \) is a standard uniform kernel. We consider using numerical gradient to compute the extremum for this objective function. To construct the numerical gradient, we use finite difference formulas of different orders. We use the step of numerical differentiation \( \varepsilon_n \) which depends on the sample size. In particular, the first-order right derivative formula is

\[ \hat{D}_1(\hat{\theta}) = L_{1,1}^{\varepsilon_n} = \frac{\hat{Q}_n(\hat{\theta} + \varepsilon_n) - \hat{Q}_n(\hat{\theta})}{\varepsilon_n}, \]

and the left derivative formula is

\[ \hat{D}_1(\hat{\theta}) = L_{1,1}^{\varepsilon_n} = \frac{\hat{Q}_n(\hat{\theta} - \varepsilon_n) - \hat{Q}_n(\hat{\theta})}{\varepsilon_n}. \]

The second-order formula is

\[ \hat{D}_2(\hat{\theta}) = L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} = \frac{\hat{Q}_n(\hat{\theta} + \varepsilon_n) - \hat{Q}_n(\hat{\theta} - \varepsilon_n)}{2\varepsilon_n}, \]

and the third-order formula is

\[ \hat{D}_3(\hat{\theta}) = L_{1,3}^{\varepsilon_n} = \frac{-\hat{Q}_n(\hat{\theta} - 2\varepsilon_n) + 8\hat{Q}_n(\hat{\theta} - \varepsilon_n) - 8\hat{Q}_n(\hat{\theta} + \varepsilon_n) + \hat{Q}_n(\hat{\theta} + 2\varepsilon_n)}{12\varepsilon_n}. \]

The estimator is then re-defined as a solution to the numerical first-order condition

\[ \hat{D}_k(\hat{\theta}) = o_p\left(\frac{1}{n^{1/3}}\right), \quad (8.15) \]

which is equivalent to the maximum of the empirical objective function that is achieved using a numerical gradient-based maximization routine. We can anticipate the properties of the analyzed estimator by analyzing its behavior analytically. For illustration we can use the numerical derivative formula \( \hat{D}_2(\hat{\theta}) \). Application of this formula to the sample objective function leads to the expression

\[ \hat{D}_2(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n\varepsilon_n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} U\left(\frac{X_i - \theta}{\varepsilon_n} - 1\right) - \frac{1}{n\varepsilon_n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} U\left(\frac{X_i - \theta + 1}{\varepsilon_n}\right). \]

Using the fact that under the regular distributions of \( X \) the uniform kernel will be mean-square differentiable, we can use the following representation:

\[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} U\left(\frac{X_i - \theta - 1}{\varepsilon_n}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} U\left(\frac{X_i - \theta_0 - 1}{\varepsilon_n}\right) + f'_{X}(\theta_0 + 1)\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n}(\theta - \theta_0) + o_p(1). \]
Therefore, we can express the estimator, which solves (8.15) as
\[ \sqrt{n} \epsilon_n \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) = \left( f_X'(\theta_0 + 1) - f_X'(\theta_0 - 1) \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n} \epsilon_n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ U \left( \frac{X_i - \theta_0 - 1}{\epsilon_n} \right) - U \left( \frac{X_i - \theta_0 + 1}{\epsilon_n} \right) \right] + o_p(1). \]

This demonstrates that in the case of a “relatively slow” approach of the step size to zero, the properties of this estimator will be described by the case where \( \sqrt{n} \epsilon_n \rightarrow \infty \) (\( \gamma = \frac{1}{2} \)). Once these conditions are satisfied, then we can use the Lindeberg-Levy CLT to establish that
\[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n} \epsilon_n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ U \left( \frac{X_i - \theta_0 - 1}{\epsilon_n} \right) - U \left( \frac{X_i - \theta_0 + 1}{\epsilon_n} \right) \right] \overset{d}{\rightarrow} \mathcal{N}(0, \Omega). \]

We can also use our result regarding the consistency of this estimator. The variance of the estimator can be evaluated similarly to the variance of kernel smoothers. In fact, we can evaluate
\[ E \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon_n} \left[ U \left( \frac{X_i - \theta_0 - 1}{\epsilon_n} \right) - U \left( \frac{X_i - \theta_0 + 1}{\epsilon_n} \right) \right] \right)^2 \right\} = \int U(u) \left( f_X(\theta_0 + 1 + u \epsilon_n) + f_X(\theta_0 - 1 + u \epsilon_n) \right) du = f_X(\theta_0 + 1) + f_X(\theta_0 - 1) + O(\epsilon_n). \]

Then the expression for the variance can be written as
\[ V = (f_X'(\theta_0 + 1) - f_X'(\theta_0 - 1))^{-2} (f_X(\theta_0 + 1) + f_X(\theta_0 - 1)) \]
If \( x \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1) \) then \( V = \frac{\pi}{2}. \) For a “fast” approach to zero, i.e. when \((\sqrt{n} \epsilon_n)^{-1} = O(1)\) we should observe the non-standard “cube root” asymptotics.

It is clear that in relatively small samples when the step size of numerical differentiation is “small” the sample first-order condition will have multiple roots. Given the structure of the objective functions the roots will either be contained in the disjoint convex compact sets or will be singletons. To facilitate root finding, we use a dense grid over the state space of the model. For the step size \( \epsilon_n \) we choose the size of the grid cell to be \( O(\epsilon_n/\log n) \). This will ensure that the error (measured as the Hausdorff distance between the true set of roots and the set of roots on the grid) will vanish at a faster rate than the numerical error from approximating the gradient using a finite-difference formula. For simplicity we use a uniform grid on \([-1, 1]\) such that the cell size is \( \Delta_n = C \frac{\epsilon_n}{\log n} \), the number of grid points is \( N_{\Delta_n} = \left\lceil \frac{2 \log n}{C \epsilon_n} \right\rceil + 1 \) and the grid points can be obtained as \( \theta_g = -1 + \Delta (g - 1) \) forming the set \( G_{\Delta_n} = \{ \theta_g \}_{g=1}^{N_{\Delta_n}} \). The grid search algorithm will identify the set of points
\[ Z_n = \left\{ \theta \in G_{\Delta_n} : |\hat{D}_k(\theta)| \leq \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{\epsilon_n n}} \right\}. \]

We call this set the set of roots of the numerical first-order condition on a selected grid. Our Monte-Carlo study will analyze the structure of the set of roots on the grid to evaluate the performance of the numerical gradient-based estimator. The Monte-Carlo study proceeds in the following steps.
1. We generate 1000 Monte-Carlo samples with the number of observations from 500 to 4000. Each simulation sample is indexed by $s$ and the sample size is denoted $n_s$.

2. We choose sample-adaptive step of numerical differentiation as $\epsilon = C(n_s)^q$. We choose $C = 2$ and $q$ from 0.2 to 2.

3. Using this step size, we set up the function that we associate with the empirical first-order condition with $\hat{D}_k(\hat{\theta}^s)$ for different orders of numerical derivatives.

4. Using the grid over the support $[-1, 1]$ (which we described above) we find all solutions satisfying (8.15). This will form the set of roots on the grid $Z_{n_s}$.

5. We store all roots on the grid and report the statistics averaged across the roots.

6. If $\#Z_{n_s}$ is the number of roots found in simulation $s$, we evaluate the mean-squared errors of estimation as:

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{\theta}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \frac{1}{\#Z_{n_s}} \sum_{r=1}^{\#Z_{n_s}} (\hat{\theta}_{rs} - \theta_0)^2}$$

We illustrate our results with the set of graphs that show the dependence of the statistics for the set of roots on the sample size.

We emphasize here that correctly characterizing the problem (especially in “under-smoothed” cases where the step size approaches to zero too fast) requires a root-finding routine that can find the entire set of roots. We argue that an appropriate grid-based procedure will be appropriate because it provides a countable approximation to an uncountable set of roots. The profile of the first-order condition for different orders of numerical derivative formulas are presented in Figures 1-3. The panels from top to bottom show the numerical derivative evaluated on the grid with a decreasing step size. The top panels show the smoothest case where the first-order condition has a pronounced single solution. However, one can see that this solution is biased in all cases. The pictures at the bottom show the profile of the numerical derivative where the step size is selected too small. One can see that there are large regions where the numerical derivative is identically equal to zero. This illustrates the bias-variance trade off in this model: once the step size for numerical differentiation is chosen to be large, then the first-order condition will yield the solution with small variance but potentially large bias. However, when the step size is small, then the solution will have a large variance (over the set of potential roots) but possibly small bias.

We show this intuition formally by analyzing the bias and the variance of the estimates. Figure 4 shows the decay of the root-mean squared error with the sample size over different selection of the sequence of step sizes. The blue line with the asterisk markers represents the over-smoothed case with the slowest approach of the step size of numerical differentiation to zero. With the increase of the rate of this approach, the mean-squared error decreases and reaches its optimum indicated by the line marked with “+”. Then it drops and exhibits fluctuations indicating the case where
the small step size leads to a large set of extraneous roots. Figure 5 shows the same dependence for the bias. One can see that bias tends to decrease with the sample size. Interestingly, the step size that corresponded to the optimal mean-squared error does not correspond to the minimal bias in the estimation. Moreover, the magnitude of the bias is much smaller than the magnitude of the mean-squared error. This implies that in all cases variance tends to dominate the bias in absolute value. Overall, our results show that even in non-smooth models such as the one under consideration, numerical gradient-based procedure can be used to search for the maximum provided the step size is chosen correctly.

9 Conclusion

In this paper we study the impact of numerical finite-point approximations on the estimation of function gradients focusing on the case where the function is computed from a cross-sectional data sample. We provide weak sufficient conditions for uniformly consistent estimation of the gradients and the directional derivatives of semiparametric moments. Such results can be used to compute Hessians (in estimating asymptotic variances) or they can be used as inputs in efficient two-step estimation procedures. We also investigate the role of finite-point approximation in computing extremum estimators. Finite-point approximation formulae use tuning parameters such as the step size and we find that the presence of such parameters may affect the statistical properties of the original extremum estimator. We study extremum estimation for classical M-estimators, U-statistics, and semiparametric generalized minimum distance estimators where the optimization routine uses a finite-difference approximation to the gradient. We find that the properties of the estimator obtained from the numerical optimization routine depend on the interaction between the smoothness of the population objective function, the precision of approximation, and the smoothness of the sample objective function. While in smooth models the choice of step size sequence may not affect the properties of the estimator, in non-smooth models a numerical approximation routine can alter both the rate of convergence of the estimator and its asymptotic distribution.
A Appendix

A.1 Proof of Theorem 1

Proof. We need to verify that uniformly in \( z \in \mathbb{Z} \), \( (\theta, \eta(\cdot)) \in \Theta \times H \) and \( w_j \in H_n \) the numerical derivative will be converging to the population derivative at \( (\theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot)) \). We begin with noting that

\[
\hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta} + e_j \varepsilon_n, \hat{\eta}(\cdot) \right) = \hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta} + e_j \varepsilon_n, \hat{\eta}(\cdot) \right) - \hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta}, \hat{\eta}(\cdot) \right)
\]

\[
- \hat{m} \left( z; \theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot) \right) + \hat{m} \left( z; \theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot) \right) - \hat{m} \left( z; \theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot) \right)
\]

\[
+ \hat{m} \left( z; \theta_0 + e_j \varepsilon_n, \eta_0(\cdot) \right) - \hat{m} \left( z; \theta_0 + e_j \varepsilon_n, \eta_0(\cdot) \right)
\]

\[
+ \hat{m} \left( z; \theta_0 + e_j \varepsilon_n, \eta_0(\cdot) \right) - \hat{m} \left( z; \theta_0 + e_j \varepsilon_n, \eta_0(\cdot) \right)
\]

Using the expansion representation above, we conclude that

\[
\hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta} + e_j \varepsilon_n, \hat{\eta}(\cdot) \right) \overset{L^2}{\leq} O_p \left( n^{-1/k} \right) + \Delta_{1\theta} \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) + \Delta_{1\eta} \left[ \hat{\eta} - \eta_0 \right]
\]

\[
+ \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right)' \Delta_{2\theta} \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) + \Delta_{2\eta} \left[ \hat{\eta} - \eta_0 \right]^2 + \Delta_{2\eta} \left[ \hat{\eta} - \eta_0 \right] \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right)
\]

\[
+ \Delta_{1\theta} \varepsilon_n + \Delta_{2\theta} \varepsilon_n^2 + o_p \left( \| \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \|_{L^2} \right) + o_p \left( \| \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \|^2 \right)
\]

Using a similar technique we can represent

\[
\hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta} - e_j \varepsilon_n, \hat{\eta}(\cdot) \right) \overset{L^2}{\leq} O_p \left( n^{-1/k} \right) + \Delta_{1\theta} \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) + \Delta_{1\eta} \left[ \hat{\eta} - \eta_0 \right]
\]

\[
+ \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right)' \Delta_{2\theta} \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) + \Delta_{2\eta} \left[ \hat{\eta} - \eta_0 \right]^2 + \Delta_{2\eta} \left[ \hat{\eta} - \eta_0 \right] \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right)
\]

\[
- \Delta_{1\theta} \varepsilon_n + \Delta_{2\theta} \varepsilon_n^2 + o_p \left( \varepsilon_n^2 \right)
\]

As a result, we can evaluate

\[
\frac{\hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta} + e_j \varepsilon_n, \hat{\eta}(\cdot) \right) - \hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta} - e_j \varepsilon_n, \hat{\eta}(\cdot) \right)}{2\varepsilon_n} \overset{L^2}{\leq} \Delta_{1\theta} \left( n^{-1/k} + n^{-1/2} + n^{-1/k1} \right)
\]

\[
+ o_p \left( \varepsilon_n \right)
\]

Note that \( \varepsilon_n n^{1/\max(k, k_1)} \to \infty \) and \( \varepsilon_n \to 0 \) will assure uniform convergence of the moment function to its derivative. Next, we provide the result for the uniform convergence of the directional derivative with respect to the infinite-dimensional parameter. Consider a particular direction \( w_j \) (which in practice will be
an element of the sieve space containing the approximation \( \hat{y}(\cdot) \), then:

\[
\hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta}, \hat{y}(\cdot) + \tau_n w_j(\cdot) \right) = \hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta}, \hat{y}(\cdot) + \tau_n w_j(\cdot) \right) - m \left( z; \hat{\theta}, \hat{y}(\cdot) + \tau_n w_j(\cdot) \right)
\]

\[
- \hat{m} \left( z; \theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot) \right) - m \left( z; \theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot) \right) + m \left( z; \theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot) \right) + m \left( z; \theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot) + \tau_n w_j(\cdot) \right) - m \left( z; \theta_0, \eta_0(\cdot) + \tau_n w_j(\cdot) \right).
\]

Using the local \( L^2 \)-representation, we can approximate the expansion above as

\[
\hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta}, \hat{y}(\cdot) + \tau_n w_j(\cdot) \right) \approx O_p \left( n^{-1/k} \right) + \Delta_{1\theta} \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) + \Delta_{1\eta}[\hat{\eta} - \eta_0] + \Delta_{2\eta}[\hat{\eta} - \eta_0] + \tau_n \Delta_{2\theta n}[w_j] \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) + \tau_n \Delta_{1\eta}[w_j] + \tau_n \Delta_{2\theta n}[w_j] + o_p \left( \| \hat{\eta} - \eta_0 \|_{L^2}^2 \right) + o_p \left( \| \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \|^2 \right).
\]

We can write a similar expression for \( \hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta}, \hat{y}(\cdot) - \tau_n w_j(\cdot) \right) \). As a result, the symmetrized normal directional derivative will be approximated locally by

\[
\frac{\hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta}, \hat{y}(\cdot) + \tau_n w_j(\cdot) \right) - \hat{m} \left( z; \hat{\theta}, \hat{y}(\cdot) - \tau_n w_j(\cdot) \right)}{2\tau_n} \approx \Delta_{1\eta}[w_j] + \Delta_{2\eta^2}[\hat{\eta} - \eta_0, w_j] + \Delta_{2\theta n}[w_j] \left( \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) + O_p \left( \tau_n^{-1} \left( n^{-1/k} + n^{-1/2} + n^{-1/k1} \right) \right) + o_p (\tau_n).
\]

Note that \( \| \Delta_{2\eta^2}[\hat{\eta} - \eta_0, w_j] \|_{L^2} = O_p \left( n^{-1/k1} \right) \). For \( k_1 > 2 \) this term will dominate and determine the lower bound on the sub-parametric convergence rate for the numerical derivative. The conditions for \( \tau_n \) will be similar to the conditions for \( \varepsilon_n \), that is \( \tau_n n^{1/\max(k, k1)} \to \infty \) and \( \tau_n \to 0 \). Moreover, it is clear that the convergence rate for \( \tau_n \) is slower than \( n^{-1/k1} \). This result assures that for \( z \in \mathcal{Z}, (\theta, \eta(\cdot)) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H} \), and \( w_j \in \mathcal{W}, \hat{D}_{w_j}(z) \xrightarrow{p} D_{w_j}(z). \)

**A.2 Proof of Lemma 2**

It follows directly from Assumption 8.[iii] that for \( \eta \in \mathcal{H}_n \)

\[
\left| L_{1,p}^n m (\theta, \eta, z) - \text{proj} \left( L_{1,p}^n m (\theta, \eta, z) \right) \right| = O \left( \frac{1}{N^{n\varepsilon_n} + \frac{1}{n^{\phi} \varepsilon_n}} \right),
\]

that will converge to zero if \( \min N^n, n^{\phi} \varepsilon_n \to \infty \).

Therefore it suffices to prove Lemma 2 for

\[
\left( \ast \right) = \left| L_{1,p}^n \hat{m} (\theta, \eta, z) - \text{proj} \left( L_{1,p}^n m (\theta, \eta, z) \right) \right|.
\]
As demonstrated in Newey (1997), for $P = (p^N(z_1), \ldots, p^N(z_n))'$ and $\hat{Q} = P'P/n$

$$||\hat{Q} - Q|| = O_p\left(\sqrt{\frac{N}{n}}\right),$$

and $Q$ is non-singular by Assumption 8.[ii] with the smallest eigenvalue bounded from below by some constant $\Lambda > 0$. Hence the smallest eigenvalue of $\hat{Q}$ will converge to $\Lambda > 0$. Following Newey (1997) we use the indicator $1_n$ to indicate the cases where the smallest eigenvalue of $\hat{Q}$ is above $\frac{\Lambda}{2}$ to avoid singularities. Introduce the vector $\Delta(\theta, \eta, w, Y; \epsilon_n) = (\rho(\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n w; Y_i) \rho(\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n w; Y_i))_{i=1}^n$. We consider conditional expectation $E[\Delta(\theta, \eta, w, Y; \epsilon_n) | Z_i = z]$ as a function of $z$ (given $\theta, \eta, w, \text{and } \epsilon_n$). We can project this function of $z$ on $N$ basis vectors of the sieve space. Let $\beta$ be the vector of coefficients of this projection. Also define $G(\theta, \eta, w, \epsilon_n) = (E[\Delta(\theta, \eta, w, Y; \epsilon_n) | Z_i])_{i=1}^n$. Then $(\ast)$ equals to a linear combination of $1_n|p^N(z)(\hat{\beta} - \beta) |/\epsilon_n$. Note that

$$p^N(z)(\hat{\beta} - \beta) = p^N(z)\left(\hat{Q}^{-1}P' (\Delta - G)/n + \hat{Q}^{-1} P' (G - P\beta)/n\right). \quad (A.16)$$

For the first term in (A.16), we can use the result that smallest eigenvalue of $\hat{Q}$ is converging to $\Lambda > 0$. Then application of the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality leads to

$$\left|p^N(z)\hat{Q}^{-1}P' (\Delta - G)\right| \leq \left\|Q^{-1}p^N(z)\right\| \left\|P' (\Delta - G)\right\|. $$

Then $\left\|Q^{-1}p^N(z)\right\| \leq \frac{C}{2}\sqrt{N}$, and

$$\left\|P' (\Delta - G)\right\| = \sqrt{N \max_k \sum_{i=1}^n p_{Nk}(z_i) (\Delta(\theta, \eta, w, Y_i; \epsilon_n))} \leq \sqrt{N \max_k \sum_{i=1}^n p_{Nk}(z_i) (\Delta(\theta, \eta, w, Y_i; \epsilon_n) - G(\theta, \eta, w, Z_i; \epsilon_n))}.$$ 

Thus,

$$\left|p^N(z)\hat{Q}^{-1}P' (\Delta - G)\right| \leq \frac{CN}{\Lambda} \max_k \sum_{i=1}^n p_{Nk}(z_i) (\Delta(\theta, \eta, w, Y_i; \epsilon_n) - G(\theta, \eta, w, Z_i; \epsilon_n)) .$$

Denote $\mu_n = \mu_n^\Lambda$. Next we adapt the arguments for proving Theorem 37 in Pollard (1984) to provide the bound for $P\left(\sup_{F_n} \frac{1}{n} \left\|p^N(z)\hat{Q}^{-1}P' (\Delta - G)\right\| > N\mu_n \right)$. For $N$ non-negative random variables $Y_i$ we note that

$$P\left(\max_i Y_i > c\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^N P\left(Y_i > c\right).$$

Using this observation, we can find that

$$P\left(\sup_{F_n} \frac{1}{n} \left\|p^N(z)\hat{Q}^{-1}P' (\Delta - G)\right\| > N\mu_n \right) \leq \sum_{k=1}^N P\left(\sup_{F_n} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n p_{Nk}(z_i) (\Delta_i - G_i) \right) > \mu_n.$$ 

This inequality allows us to substitute the tail bound for the class of functions $L_{1, p}^\Lambda w \hat{m}(\theta; z)$ that is indexed by $\theta, \eta, w$ and $z$ by a tail bound for a much simpler class

$$\mathcal{P}_n = \{p_{Nk}(\cdot) (\Delta(\theta, \eta, w; \cdot; \epsilon_n) - G(\theta, \eta, w; \epsilon_n)) : \theta \in N(\theta_0), \eta, w \in \mathcal{H}_n\}. $$
We note that, according to Lemma 2.6.18 in Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996), provided that each \( p_{Nk}(\cdot) \) is a fixed function, the covering number for \( P_n \) has the same order as the covering number for \( F_n \). Then we pick \( A \) to be the largest constant for the covering numbers \( A_k n^{2\rho_0} \log \left( \frac{2}{\rho} \right) \) over classes \( P_n \). By Assumption 8.[i] and 9.[i] any \( f \in P_n \) is bounded \( |f| < C < \infty \). Next we note that \( \text{Var}(f) = O(\varepsilon_n) \) for \( f \in P_n \) by Assumption 9.[ii]. The symmetrization inequality (30) in Pollard (1984) holds if \( \varepsilon_n / (16 n \mu_n^2) \leq \frac{1}{2} \). This will occur if \( \frac{n}{2} \rightarrow \infty \). Provided that the symmetrization inequality holds, we can follow the steps of Theorem 37 in Pollard (1984) to establish the tail bound on the sample sum via a combination of the Hoeffding inequality and the covering number for the class \( P_n \). As a result, we obtain that

\[
P \left( \sup_{F_n} \frac{1}{n} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{Nk}(z_i) (\Delta_i - G_i) \right\| > 8 \mu_n \right) \leq 2 \exp \left( A_n^{2\rho_0} \log \frac{1}{\mu_n} \right) \exp \left( - \frac{1}{128} \frac{n \mu_n^2}{\delta_n} \right) + P \left( \sup_{F_n} \frac{1}{n} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{Nk}(z_i) (\Delta_i - G_i) \right\|^2 > 64 \varepsilon_n \right).
\]

The second term can be evaluated with the aid of Lemma 33 in Pollard (1984):

\[
P \left( \sup_{F_n} \frac{1}{n} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{Nk}(z_i) (\Delta_i - G_i) \right\|^2 > 64 \varepsilon_n \right) \leq 4 \exp \left( A_n^{2\rho_0} \log \frac{1}{\delta_n} \right) \exp \left( - n \varepsilon_n \right).
\]

As a result, we find that

\[
P \left( \sup_{F_n} \frac{1}{n} \left\| p^N(z) \hat{Q}^{-1} P' (\Delta - G) \right\| > N \mu_n \right) \leq 2 N \exp \left( A_n^{2\rho_0} \log \frac{1}{\delta_n} \right) \left( - \frac{1}{128} \frac{n \mu_n^2}{\delta_n} \right) + 4 N \exp \left( A_n^{2\rho_0} \log \frac{1}{\delta_n} \right) \left( - n \varepsilon_n \right).
\]

We start the analysis with the first term. Consider the case with and \( r_0 > 0 \). Then the log of the first term takes the form

\[
A_n^{2\rho_0} \log \left( \frac{N}{(\mu_n^2)} \right) - \frac{1}{128} \frac{n^2 \mu_n^2}{N} + \log N
\]

\[
= A_n^{2\rho_0} \log \left( \frac{N^2 n^{2\rho_0}}{\mu_n^2} \right) - \frac{1}{128} \frac{n \mu_n^2}{N} - A_n^{2\rho_0} \log \frac{N n^{2\rho_0}}{\mu_n} + \log N.
\]

If \( N \log n / n \rightarrow 0 \), then one needs that \( \frac{n \mu_n^2}{N n^{2\rho_0}} \rightarrow \infty \) if \( r_0 > 0 \) and \( \frac{n \mu_n^2}{N n^{2\rho_0}} \rightarrow \infty \) if \( r_0 = 0^+ \). Hence the first term is of \( o(1) \). Now consider the second term. The exponent can be represented as

\[
- n \varepsilon_n + n^{2\rho_0} \log \frac{1}{\delta_n} + \log N,
\]

which is guaranteed to converge to \( - \infty \) if \( \frac{n \mu_n^2}{N n^{2\rho_0} \log n} \rightarrow \infty \).

We notice that in this proof uniformity of the directional derivative of the conditional moment in \( z \) follows directly from the boundedness of the sieve functions. This implies that in some cases this result can be weakened.

\[\square\]

### A.3 Proof of Lemma 3

Recall the definition of the kernel estimator

\[
\tilde{m}(\theta, \eta, z) = \left( \frac{1}{n b_n^d} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K \left( \frac{z - z_i}{b_n} \right) \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{n b_n^d} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho(\theta, \eta, z_i) K \left( \frac{z - z_i}{h_n} \right) \right).
\]
For the expression of interest, we can consider
\[ \hat{m}(\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n w, z) - \hat{m}(\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n w, z) = \left( \frac{1}{nb_n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K \left( \frac{z - z_i}{b_n} \right) \right)^{-1} \times \frac{1}{nb_n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \rho(\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n w, y_i) - \rho(\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n w, y_i) \right] K \left( \frac{z - z_i}{b_n} \right). \]

Then we can consider a class of functions
\[ \mathcal{G}_n = \{ \rho(\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n w, \cdot) - \rho(\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n w, \cdot) \} K \left( \frac{\cdot - z}{b_n} \right), \theta \in \Theta, w, \eta \in \mathcal{H}_n, z \in \mathcal{Z}. \]

Consider the class \( \mathcal{G}_n \). We can represent it as
\[ \mathcal{G}_n = \{ g = f \kappa : f \in \mathcal{F}_n, \kappa \in \mathcal{F} \}. \]

\( N_1(\cdot) \) and \( N_2(\cdot) \) correspond to the \( L_1 \) and \( L_2 \) covering numbers. Consider the covering numbers for classes \( \mathcal{F}_n \) and \( \mathcal{F} \). We select \( \epsilon > 0 \), then there exist \( m_1 < N_1(\epsilon, \mathcal{F}_n, L_1(Q)) \) and \( m_2 < N_1(\epsilon, \mathcal{F}, L_2(Q)) \) and covers \( \{ f_j \}_{j=1}^{m_1} \) and \( \{ \kappa_i \}_{i=1}^{m_2} \) such that for \( f \in \mathcal{F}_n \) and \( \kappa \in \mathcal{F} \), \( \min_j Q|f - f_j| < \epsilon \) and \( \min_i Q|\kappa_i - \kappa| < \epsilon \). We note that \( |f| \leq C \) and \( |g| \leq C \). Consider the cover \( \{ f_j \kappa_i \}_{j=1}^{m_1, i=1} \) noting that \( f_j \kappa_i - f \kappa = (f_j - f)(\kappa_i - \kappa) + f(\kappa_i - \kappa) + \kappa(f_j - f) \). Then, in combination with Cauchy-Schwartz we have that
\[ \min_{i,j} Q|\kappa_i f_j - f \kappa| \leq \min_j \left( Q|f_j - f|^2 \right)^{1/2} \min_i \left( Q|\kappa_i - \kappa|^2 \right)^{1/2} + C \min_j Q|f_j - f| + C \min_i Q|\kappa_i - \kappa| \]
Given the relationship between \( L_1 \) and \( L_2 \) covering numbers covers \( \{ f_j \}_{j=1}^{m_1} \) and \( \{ \kappa_i \}_{i=1}^{m_2} \) are sufficient to achieve \( \min_{i,j} \left( Q|f_j - f|^2 \right)^{1/2} < \epsilon \) and \( \min_i \left( Q|\kappa_i - \kappa|^2 \right)^{1/2} < \epsilon \). This means that \( \min_{i,j} Q|\kappa_i f_j - f \kappa| < 3C\epsilon \).

Thus, the \( L_1 \) covering number for \( \mathcal{G}_n \) is bounded by a product of \( L_2 \) covering numbers for \( \mathcal{F} \) and \( \mathcal{F}_n \) (which corresponds to the number of elements in the cover \( \{ f_j \kappa_i \}_{j=1}^{m_1, i=1} \)).

Provided that classes \( \mathcal{F}_n \) and \( \mathcal{F} \) satisfy Euclidean property, we can apply Lemma 2.6.20 from Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996). This means that the class \( \mathcal{G}_n \) is Euclidean with parameters depending on \( n \). Provided that \( \text{Var}(g) = O(\epsilon_n b_n) \) for \( g \in \mathcal{G}_n \), we can use a similar logic as in the proof of Theorem 37 in Pollard (1984) with the results similar to those in the proof of Lemma 2. This leads to condition \( \frac{\delta \kappa n^5}{n^{1.5 + \delta} \log n} \rightarrow \infty \). We note that the bias due to kernel smoothing \( E \left[ \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, Z_i) | Z_i = z \right] = O(b_n^d) \), where \( m \) is the order of the kernel, and the bias due to the sieve approximation is \( n^{-d} \). Then
\[ \| L_{1,p}^{n,w} E \left[ \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, Z_i) | Z_i = z \right] - L_{1,p}^{n,w} m(\theta, \eta, z) \| = O \left( b_n^d \epsilon_n^{-1} + n^d \epsilon_n^{-1} \right), \]
which converges to zero if \( \epsilon_n b_n^{-m} \rightarrow \infty \) and \( \epsilon_n n^{d} \rightarrow \infty \).

**A.4 Proof of Lemma 4**

As before, we use \( \Delta = (\rho(\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n h; Y_i) - \rho(\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n h; Y_i))_{i=1}^{n} \) and \( G = (E[\Delta | Z_i]_{i=1}^{n}) \). Then we note that \( \| p_n K(Z_i) (\Delta_i - G_i) \| \leq C \kappa_n^d \) due to Assumptions 8 and 9(2). Consider the class of functions
\[ \mathcal{P}_n = \{ p_n K(\cdot) (\Delta(\theta, \eta, w, z) ; \epsilon_n) - G(\theta, \eta, w, z; \epsilon_n) : \theta \in N(\theta_0), \eta, w \in \mathcal{H}_n, z \in \mathcal{Z} \}. \]
We note that for this class we can find an envelope proportional to $\epsilon_n^\gamma$. Then for $\theta_n = \epsilon_n^{-\gamma} \sup_{f \in \mathcal{P}_n} |P_n f^2|^{1/2}$ we can use the tail bound in Alexander (1984) which is analogous to Theorem 2.14.1 in Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996):

\[ P \sup_{f \in \mathcal{P}_n} |\sqrt{n} (P_n f - P f)| \leq C \epsilon_n^\gamma P [J (\theta_n, \mathcal{P}_n)], \]

where $J (\theta, \mathcal{P}_n) = \sup_Q \int_0^\theta (\log N (\delta \epsilon_n, \mathcal{P}_n, L_1 (Q)))^{1/2} d\delta$. In our case $J (\theta, \mathcal{P}_n) = O \left( n^{r_0} \theta \sqrt{\log (1/\theta)} \right)$. This function achieves its maximum at $\theta = e^{-1/2}$. We can analyze the probability of large deviations for $\theta_n$.

From Lemma 33 in Pollard (1984) combined with Lemma 10 in Nolan and Pollard (1987), it follows that there exists $\beta$ such that

\[ P \left( \epsilon_n^{-\gamma} \sup_{f \in \mathcal{P}_n} |P_n f^2|^{1/2} > \beta t \right) \leq 4 \exp \left( \frac{An^{r_0}}{t^2} - n \beta^2 t^2 \right). \]

Consider the sequence $t_n = o(1)$ such that $t_n \gg \sqrt{\log \frac{n^{1-2r_0}}{n^{1-2r_0}}}. \sqrt{\log(1/\beta_n)}$. We note that for sufficiently large $n \beta t_n \epsilon_n^\gamma \ll \frac{1}{\epsilon_n^\gamma}$. This means

\[ P [J (\theta_n, \mathcal{P}_n)] = P \left[ J (\theta_n, \mathcal{P}_n) \mathbf{1} (\theta_n > \beta t_n) + J (\theta_n, \mathcal{P}_n) \mathbf{1} (\theta_n \leq \beta t_n) \right] = n^{r_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} P \left( \sup_{f \in \mathcal{P}_n} |P_n f^2|^{1/2} > \beta t_n \epsilon_n^\gamma \right) + n^{r_0} \beta t_n \sqrt{\log \frac{1}{\beta t_n}}. \]

Thus, we have established that

\[ P \sup_{f \in \mathcal{P}_n} |\sqrt{n} (P_n f - P f)| \leq C \epsilon_n^\gamma n^{r_0} \exp \left( \frac{An^{r_0}}{t_n^2 \epsilon_n^\gamma} - n \beta^2 t_n^2 \epsilon_n^2 \right) + C_2 \epsilon_n^\gamma n^{r_0} \beta t_n \sqrt{\log \frac{1}{\beta t_n}}. \]

Then, returning to our previous argument, we recognize that

\[ P \frac{1}{n \epsilon_n} \sup_{x_n} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \left| p_{NK} (x_i) (\Delta_i - G_i) \right| \right| = O \left( n^{r_0} \frac{1}{\epsilon_n^\gamma} \exp \left( \frac{An^{r_0}}{t_n^2 \epsilon_n^\gamma} - n \beta^2 t_n^2 \epsilon_n^2 \right) + n^{r_0} \frac{1}{\epsilon_n^\gamma} \epsilon_n^{-\gamma} \beta t_n \sqrt{\log \frac{1}{\beta t_n}} \right). \]

As a result, we established that

\[ P \sup_{x_n} \frac{1}{n \epsilon_n} \left| p' (z) \hat{Q}_{-1} P' (\Delta - G) \right| = O \left( N n^{r_0} \frac{1}{\epsilon_n^\gamma} \exp \left( \frac{An^{r_0}}{t_n^2 \epsilon_n^\gamma} - n \beta^2 t_n^2 \epsilon_n^2 \right) + N n^{r_0} \frac{1}{\epsilon_n^\gamma} \epsilon_n^{-\gamma} \beta t_n \sqrt{\log \frac{1}{\beta t_n}} \right). \]

Next, we note that provided that $\frac{\sqrt{\gamma n^{1-2r_0}}}{N n^{1-2r_0}} \to \infty$, the expression on the right-hand side converges to zero. In fact, the first term is exponential. The second term has a factor that can be transformed into $\sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\beta t_n}}{\beta t_n^2}} = o(1)$, if $t_n = o(1)$.

Consider now similar conditions for kernel-based estimators. As before, we can represent the finite-difference formula for the directional derivative of interest as

\[ \hat{m} (\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n w, z) - \hat{m} (\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n w, z) = \left( \frac{1}{n b_n^d} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{z_i - z}{b_n} \right) \right)^{-1} \]

\[ \times \frac{1}{n b_n^d} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \rho (\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n w, z_i) - \rho (\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n w, z_i) \right] K \left( \frac{x - x_i}{b_n} \right). \]
We consider the class
\[ G_n = \{ \rho (\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n w, \cdot) - \rho (\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n w, \cdot) \} K \left( \frac{z - \cdot}{b_n} \right), \theta \in \Theta, w, \eta \in \mathcal{H}_n, z \in \mathcal{Z} \} \]

We noted before that the \( L_1 \) covering number for this class can be constructed as a product of covering numbers for the classes forming the product. Provided that due to Hölder-continuity there exists an envelope \( \epsilon_n \) for this class, we can represent
\[ \log N_1 (\epsilon \| F \|, G_n, L_1) \leq An^{2\epsilon_0} \log \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right) \]
for sufficiently large \( A \). This makes our entire previous discussion to be analogous to the kernel case. The only difference arises in the exponential inequality. We notice that \( \text{Var}(f) = O \left( \epsilon_n^2 b_n^d \right) \) for \( f \in G_n \). This means that the exponential inequality can be re-written as
\[ P \left( \epsilon_n^\gamma \sup_{f \in G_n} |P_n f|^2 > \beta t \right) \leq C \exp \left( An^{2\epsilon_0} \log \frac{1}{t} - n\beta^2 t^2 \right) . \]

We choose the sequence \( t_n = O \left( c_n b_n^{d/2} \right) \) for some arbitrary \( c_n \to 0 \), meaning that the decomposition into “large” and “small” \( \theta_n \) will rely on the threshold \( \beta c_n b_n^{d/2} \) as opposed to \( \beta t_n \). Thus
\[ P [ J (\theta_n, \mathcal{P}_n)] = P \left[ J (\theta_n, \mathcal{P}_n) \mathbf{1} \left( \theta_n > \beta c_n b_n^{d/2} \right) + J (\theta_n, \mathcal{P}_n) \mathbf{1} \left( \theta_n \leq \beta c_n b_n^{d/2} \right) \right] \]
\[ = n^{\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\epsilon}} P \left( \sup_{f \in \mathcal{P}_n} |P_n f|^2 > \beta c_n b_n^{d/2} c_n \right) + n^{\epsilon_0} \beta c_n b_n^{d/2} \sqrt{-\log \frac{1}{\beta c_n b_n^{d/2}}} . \]

Then decomposing the tail bound as before, we obtain
\[ P \sup_{f_n} \left\| \frac{1}{n \epsilon_n b_n^{d/2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho (\theta, \eta + \epsilon_n h, z_i) - \rho (\theta, \eta - \epsilon_n h, z_i) \right\| K \left( \frac{z - \cdot}{b_n} \right) \]
\[ = O \left( n^{\epsilon_0 - \frac{1}{2}} b_n^{d/2} \epsilon_n^{-1} \exp \left( An^{2\epsilon_0} \log \frac{1}{c_n b_n^{d/2}} - n\beta^2 c_n^2 b_n^{d/2} \right) + n^{\epsilon_0 - \frac{1}{2}} \epsilon_n^{-1} \beta c_n b_n^{-d/2} \sqrt{-\log \frac{1}{\beta c_n b_n^{d/2}}} \right) . \]

We notice that \( c_n = o(1) \) and \( n^{2\epsilon_0 - 1} \epsilon_n^{-1} b_n^{d/2} / \log n^{2\epsilon_0 - 1} \to \infty \) assures the convergence to zero.

**A.5 Proof of Lemma 5**

*Proof. (i)* To find the convergence rate for the estimator \( \hat{\theta} \) we need to find the “balancing” sequence \( \rho_n \) that assures that \( \rho_n d \left( \hat{\theta}, \theta_0 \right) = O_p (1) \). Using the assumption of the compactness of the parameter space, we cover it using a grid with cells \( S_{j,n} = \{ \theta : 2^{j-1} < \rho_n d (\theta, \theta_0) < 2^j \} \). The idea of the proof is to show that for any given \( \kappa > 0 \) we can find finite \( \beta \) such that the probability of event \( \rho_n d \left( \hat{\theta}, \theta_0 \right) > \beta \) is below \( \kappa \). Using a partition of the parameter space, we can pick a finite integer \( M \) such that \( 2^M < \beta \). Then we evaluate the probability of a large deviation \( \rho_n d \left( \hat{\theta}, \theta_0 \right) > 2^M \). We know that the estimator solves
\[ \sqrt{n \epsilon_n} L_n^{1/2} \hat{Q} \left( \hat{\theta} \right) = o_p (1) . \]
Therefore the argument of interest leads to

\[ P \left( \rho_n d \left( \hat{\theta}, \theta_0 \right) > 2^M \right) \leq \sum_{j \geq M} \sum_{2^j < \rho_n} P \left( \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} \left( - \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\theta) \| \right) \geq -a_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n}} \right) \right) + P \left( 2 d \left( \hat{\theta}, \theta_0 \right) \geq \delta \right) \]

Then we evaluate the population objective, using the fact that it has \( p \) mean-square derivatives with Taylor residual of order \( \nu \):

\[ \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\theta) \| \geq C d (\theta, \theta_0) + C' \varepsilon_n^{\nu-1} , \]

where \( \theta_0 \) is the zero of the population first-order condition and the approximated derivative has a known order of approximation \( \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\theta_0) \| = C' \varepsilon_n^{\nu-1} \) for some constant \( C' \). Substitution of this expression into the argument of interest leads to

\[ \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\theta) - L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\hat{\theta}) \| \geq \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\theta) \| - \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\hat{\theta}) \|. \]

Therefore

\[ \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} \left( - \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\theta) \| \right) \geq \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} \left( \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\theta) - L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\hat{\theta}) \| \right) - \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} \left( \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\theta) \| \right) \]

Then applying the Markov inequality to the re-centered process for \( \theta \in S_{j,n} \)

\[ P \left( \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} \left( \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\theta) - L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\hat{\theta}) \| \right) \right) \leq \frac{E^* \left( \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} \left( \| L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\theta) - L_{\hat{\theta},\theta}^\epsilon Q (\hat{\theta}) \| \right) \right)}{C d (\theta, \theta_0) + C' \varepsilon_n^{\nu-1} + a \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n\varepsilon_n}} \right)} = O \left( \rho_n \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n\varepsilon_n}} \right)^2 (j-1). \]

Thus if \( \rho_n = o \left( \frac{\log n}{n\varepsilon_n} \right) \) then the probability of interest is \( o(1) \).

(ii)

Consider a class of functions

\[ \mathcal{G}_n = \left\{ g \left( \cdot, \theta_n + \varepsilon_n \right) - g \left( \cdot, \theta_n - \varepsilon_n \right) - g \left( \cdot, \theta_0 + \varepsilon_n \right) + g \left( \cdot, \theta_0 - \varepsilon_n \right), \theta_n = \theta_0 + t_n \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n\varepsilon_n}} \right\}, \]

with \( \varepsilon_n \to 0 \) and \( t_n = O(1) \). We can evaluate the \( L^2 \) norm of the functions from class \( \mathcal{G}_n \) using Assumption 6 (ii). Note that

\[ E \left[ \left( g \left( Z_i, \theta_n + \varepsilon_n \right) - g \left( Z_i, \theta_n - \varepsilon_n \right) \right)^2 \right] = O \left( \varepsilon_n \right), \]

with the same evaluation for the second term. On the other hand, we can change the notation to \( \theta_{1n} = \theta_0 + \varepsilon_n + \frac{t_n}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n\varepsilon_n}} \) and \( \theta_{2n} = \theta_0 - \varepsilon_n + \frac{t_n}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n\varepsilon_n}} \). The we can group the first term with the third and the second one with the fourth. For the first group this leads to

\[ E \left\{ \left( g \left( Z_i, \theta_{1n}, t_n \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n\varepsilon_n}} \right) \right)^2 \right\} = O \left( \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n\varepsilon_n}} \right), \]
and for the second group
\[ E \left[ \left( g \left( Z_i, \theta_{2n} + \frac{t_n}{2n} \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n \varepsilon_n}} \right) - g \left( Z_i, \theta_{2n} - \frac{t_n}{2n} \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n \varepsilon_n}} \right) \right)^2 \right] = O \left( \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n \varepsilon_n}} \right). \]

Thus, two different ways of grouping the terms allow us to obtain two possible bounds on the norm of the entire term. As a result, we find that
\[ P f^2 = O \left( \min \left\{ \varepsilon_n, \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n \varepsilon_n}} \right\} \right), \quad f \in G_n. \]

Next we denote \( \delta_n = \min \left\{ \varepsilon_n, \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n \varepsilon_n}} \right\}. \) Invoking Lemma 33 in Pollard (1984) and using Assumption 6 (iii) we obtain that
\[ P \left( \sup_{\varphi_n} P_n f^2 > 64 \delta_n \right) \leq 4 A (\delta_n)^{-V} \exp (-n \delta_n) = 4 A \exp \left( -n \delta_n + V \log \left( \frac{1}{\delta_n} \right) \right). \]

If \( n \varepsilon_n^3 / \log n \to \infty, \) then this allows us to conclude that \( \sup_{\varphi_n} P_n f^2 = o_p (\delta_n). \) Next we can apply the maximum inequality from Theorem 2.14.1 in Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996) which implies that for the functions with constant envelopes
\[ \sqrt{n} \sup_{\varphi_n} |P_n f - P f| = J \left( \sup_{\varphi_n} P_n f^2, G_n \right), \]

where \( J(\cdot) \) is a covering integral:
\[ J (\delta, F) = \sup_Q \int_0^\delta \sqrt{1 + N (\epsilon, F, L^2 (Q))} d \epsilon. \]

For Euclidean class as in Assumption 6 (iii) we can evaluate \( J(\delta, G_n) = O \left( \delta \sqrt{\log \left( \frac{1}{\delta} \right)} \right). \) Using the expression for \( \sup P f^2, \) we can evaluate
\[ \sqrt{n} \sup_{\varphi_n} |P_n f - P f| = o_p \left( \frac{\delta_n}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_n}} \sqrt{\log \left( \frac{1}{\delta_n} \right)} \right). \]

Then, provided that \( \frac{n \varepsilon_n^3}{\log n} \to \infty, \) we see that \( \delta_n = \sqrt{\log n / (n \varepsilon_n)} \) and
\[ \sqrt{n} \sup_{\varphi_n} |P_n f - P f| = o_p \left( \sqrt{\frac{\log \left( \frac{n \varepsilon_n}{\log n} \right)}{\log n}} \right) = o_p (1). \]

The statement of the Lemma follows directly from this result.

\[ \square \]

A.6 Proof of theorem 8

Proof. This proof will replicate the steps of proof of Lemma 5. We perform the triangulation of the parameter space according to the balancing rate \( \rho_n \) into segments \( S_{j,n} = \{ \theta : 2^j - 1 < \rho_n d (\theta, \theta_0) < 2^j \}. \) For every \( \delta > 0, \)
\[ P \left( \rho_n d (\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) > 2^M \right) \leq \sum_{j \geq M} P \left( \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} \left( \| L_{1,1,0} \hat{Q} (\theta) \| \right) \geq -o_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n \varepsilon_n}} \right) \right) + P \left( 2 d (\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) \geq \delta \right) \]
We can then follow the steps of Lemma 5 to evaluate the upper bound for the elements in the sum on the right-hand side as

\[
P \left( \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} \left\| L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\theta) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} \hat{Q} (\theta) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\theta_0) + L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} \hat{Q} (\theta_0) \right\| \geq O \left( \frac{2^j}{\rho_n} \right) \right) \leq E^* \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} \left\| L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\theta) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} \hat{Q} (\theta) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\theta_0) + L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} \hat{Q} (\theta_0) \right\| \leq \frac{2^j}{\rho_n} = O \left( \rho_n \frac{1}{\sqrt{n \rho_n}} \right) 2^{-(j-1)}.\]

Thus if \( \rho_n = O (\sqrt{n \rho_n}) \) then the probability of interest is \( O(1) \).

\section*{A.7 Proof of theorem 9}

\begin{proof}
We can note that the scaled bias due to numerical approximation can be evaluated as

\[\sqrt{n \rho_n} \left( L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\theta) - G (\theta) \right) = O_p \left( \sqrt{n \rho_n^{1+\nu/2}} \right) = o_p (1).\]

We know that the estimator solves

\[L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} \hat{Q} (\hat{\theta}) = o_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n \rho_n}} \right).\]

Then

\[\sqrt{n \rho_n} \left( L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} \hat{Q} (\hat{\theta}) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\hat{\theta}) + G (\hat{\theta}) + L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\hat{\theta}) - G (\hat{\theta}) \right) = o_p (1).\]

This means that locally

\[\sqrt{n \rho_n} \left( L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} \hat{Q} (\hat{\theta}) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\hat{\theta}_0) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\hat{\theta}_0) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\hat{\theta}_0) \right) + \sqrt{n \rho_n} L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} \hat{Q} (\hat{\theta}_0) + \sqrt{n \rho_n} H (\hat{\theta}_0) (\hat{\theta} - \hat{\theta}_0) = o_p (1).\]

An immediate consequence of lemma 5 is that

\[\sqrt{n \rho_n} \left( L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} \hat{Q} (\hat{\theta}) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\hat{\theta}_0) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\hat{\theta}_0) - L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q (\hat{\theta}_0) \right) = o_p (1).\]

Then we can apply the CLT to obtain the desired result.
\end{proof}

\section*{A.8 Proof of theorem 10}

\begin{proof}
The rate of convergence adapts the proof of Theorem 3.2.5 of Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996) to our case. Denote the rate of convergence for the estimator \( \hat{\theta} \) by \( \rho_n \). Then we can partition the parameters space into sets \( S_{j,n} = \{ \theta : 2^{j-1} < \rho_n d (\theta, \theta_0) < 2^j \} \). Then we evaluate the probability of a large deviation \( \rho_n d (\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) > 2^M \) for some integer \( M \), where \( \rho_n = \sqrt{n \rho_n^{1-\gamma}} \). We know that the estimator solves

\[\sqrt{n \rho_n} L_{1,p}^{\epsilon} Q_n (\hat{\theta}) = o_p (1).\]

If $\rho_n d\left(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0\right)$ is larger than $2^M$ for a given $M$, then over the $\theta$ in one of the shells $S_{j,n}$: \(\sqrt{n}r_n L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q_n(\theta)\) achieves a distance as close as desired to zero. Hence, for every $\delta > 0$,

$$P\left(\rho_n d\left(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0\right) > 2^M\right) \leq \sum_{j \geq M} P\left(\sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} - \left\|L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q_n(\theta)\right\| \geq -o_p\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}r_n}\right)\right) + P\left(2d\left(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0\right) \geq \delta\right)$$

Note that mean square differentiability implies that for every $\theta$ in a neighborhood of $\theta_0$, $g(\theta) - g(\theta_0) \lesssim -d^2(\theta, \theta_0)$. Then we evaluate the population objective, using the fact that it has $p$ mean-square derivatives:

$$\left\|L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q(\theta)\right\| \geq C d(\theta, \theta_0) + C' \varepsilon_n^{-1},$$

where $\theta_0$ is the zero of the population first-order condition and the approximated derivative has a known order of approximation $\left\|L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q(\theta_0)\right\| = C' \varepsilon_n^{-1}$ for some constant $C'$. Substitution of this expression into the argument of interest leads to

$$\left\|L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q(\theta) - L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q_n(\theta)\right\| \geq \left\|L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q(\theta)\right\| - \left\|L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q_n(\theta)\right\| \geq C d(\theta, \theta_0) + C' \varepsilon_n^{-1} + o_p\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}r_n}\right).$$

Then applying the Markov inequality to the re-centered process for $\theta \in S_{j,n}$

$$P\left(r_n \sqrt{n} \left\|L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q(\theta) - L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q_n(\theta)\right\| \geq C r_n \sqrt{n} d(\theta, \theta_0) + C' r_n \sqrt{n} \varepsilon_n^{-1} + o(1)\right) \leq C' r_n^{-1/2} n^{-1/2} \left(\frac{2^j}{\rho_n}\right)^{-1}.$$

Then $\rho_n = \sqrt{n}$ in the regular case and $\rho_n = r_n \sqrt{n}$ in cases where $\gamma \neq 1$.

Finally also note that the evaluation for the expectation holds for $\theta = \theta_0 \pm t_k \varepsilon_n$, as shown above. By Markov inequality according to Theorem 2.5.2 from van der Vaart and Wellner (1998) it follows that the process $r_n \sqrt{n} L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n}Q_n(\theta_0)$ indexed by $\varepsilon_n$ is P-Donsker.$ \square$

### A.9 Proof of theorem 11

**Proof.** The result will follow if we can demonstrate that

$$\sqrt{n}r_n \left(L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g} \left(\hat{\theta}\right) - L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g} \left(\theta_0\right) - G \left(\hat{\theta}\right) + G \left(\theta_0\right)\right) = o_p(1). \tag{A.17}$$

Because of the assumption that $\sqrt{n} \varepsilon_n^{\varepsilon - \gamma} \to \infty$, the bias is sufficiently small. Therefore this is equivalent to showing that

$$\sqrt{n}r_n \left(L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g} \left(\hat{\theta}\right) - L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g} \left(\theta_0\right) - EL_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g} \left(\hat{\theta}\right) + EL_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g} \left(\theta_0\right)\right) = o_p(1).$$

Because of the convergence rate established in theorem 10, this will implied by, with $r_n = \varepsilon^{1-\gamma}$:

$$\sup_{d(\theta, \theta_0) \leq O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n} \varepsilon^{1-\varepsilon}}\right)} \sqrt{n}r_n \left(L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g} \left(\theta\right) - L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g} \left(\theta_0\right) - EL_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g} \left(\theta\right) + EL_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g} \left(\theta_0\right)\right) = o_p(1).$$

The left hand side can be written as a linear combination of the empirical processes:

$$\sup_{d(\theta, \theta_0) \leq O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n} \varepsilon^{1-\varepsilon}}\right)} \sqrt{n}r_n \left[\mathbb{G} \left(\theta + t\varepsilon\right) - \mathbb{G} \left(\theta - t\varepsilon\right) - \mathbb{G} \left(\theta_0 + t\varepsilon\right) - \mathbb{G} \left(\theta_0 - t\varepsilon\right)\right].$$
Because of assumption 7, it is bounded stochastically by
\[ O_p \left( \frac{r_n}{\varepsilon} \min (d(\theta, \theta_0), \varepsilon)^\gamma \right). \]

When \( \sqrt{n}\varepsilon^{2-\gamma} \to \infty \), \( d(\theta, \theta_0) \lesssim O \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}\varepsilon^{2-\gamma}} \right) = o(\varepsilon) \). Hence the above display is \( o_p(1) \). Therefore (A.17) holds.

Recall that \( \hat{\theta} \) is defined by \( \sqrt{n}\varepsilon \| \hat{g}(\theta_0) - \hat{g}(\hat{\theta}) \| = o_p(1) \). Then (A.17) implies that, using a first order taylor expansion of \( G(\theta) \):
\[
\sqrt{n}\varepsilon \left( \hat{g}(\theta_0) - EL_1(\hat{g}(\theta_0)) + H(\theta_0) \sqrt{n}\varepsilon \hat{\theta} - \theta_0 \right) = o_p(1).
\]

**A.10 Proof of Theorem 12**

**Step 1.** We can verify directly that the argument in Lemma 4.1 in Kim and Pollard (1990) applies. Theorem 10 states that the rate of convergence of the constructed Z-estimator is \( r_n = \sqrt{n}\varepsilon^{1-\gamma} \). Then we can partition the parameters space into sets \( S_{j,n} = \{ \theta : 2^{j-1} < r_n d(\theta, \theta_0) < 2^j \} \). Then we evaluate the probability of a large deviation \( r_n d(\theta, \theta_0) > 2^M \) for some integer \( M \). Provided that
\[ r_n L_1^{\varepsilon_n} (\hat{\theta}) = o_p(1). \]

For every \( \delta > 0 \),
\[
P \left( r_n d(\theta, \theta_0) > 2^M \right) \leq \sum_{j \geq M} P \left( \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} \left( - \| L_1^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{g}(\theta) \| \right) \geq -o_p \left( \frac{1}{r_n} \right) \right) + P \left( 2 d(\hat{\theta}, \theta_0) \geq \delta \right).
\]

Note that differentiability of the objective function implies that \( \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} g(\theta) = O(d(\theta, \theta_0)) \). Using the property of the numerical derivative operator, we establish that:
\[
\| L_1^{\varepsilon_n} g(\theta) \| \geq C d(\theta, \theta_0) + C' \varepsilon_n^p.
\]

Substitution of this expression into the argument of interest leads to
\[
\| L_1^{\varepsilon_n} g(\theta) - L_1^{\varepsilon_n} g(\theta) \| \geq \| L_1^{\varepsilon_n} g(\theta) \| - \| L_1^{\varepsilon_n} g(\theta) \| \geq C d(\theta, \theta_0) + C' \varepsilon_n^p + o_p \left( \frac{1}{r_n} \right).
\]

Then applying the Markov inequality to the re-centered process for \( \theta \in S_{j,n} \) and using Assumption 7, we find that
\[
P \left( \sup_{\theta \in S_{j,n}} r_n \| L_1^{\varepsilon_n} g(\theta) - L_1^{\varepsilon_n} g(\theta) \| \geq C r_n d(\theta, \theta_0) + C' r_n \varepsilon_n^p + o_p(1) \right) \leq C'' 2^{-j}.
\]

This means that \( \hat{\theta} = \theta_0 + \Theta \left( \frac{1}{r_n} \right) \).

**Step 2.** Consider the process
\[
Z_n(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{r_n L_1^{\varepsilon_n} (\theta_0 + \frac{1}{r_n})}{r_n}, & \text{if } \theta_0 + \frac{1}{r_n} \in \Theta, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases}
\]
We also consider the centered process

$$W_n(t) = \begin{cases} Z_n(t) - r_n L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g\left(\theta_0 + \frac{t}{r_n}\right), & \text{if } \theta_0 + \frac{t}{r_n} \in \Theta, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

As \(\theta_0\) is the interior point of \(\Theta\), for sufficiently large \(n\), \(\theta_0 + t r_n^{-1} \in \Theta\). Then we can represent

$$W_n(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_n \left[ L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g\left(x_i, \theta_0 + \frac{t}{r_n}\right) - L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g\left(\theta_0 + \frac{t}{r_n}\right) \right].$$

Due to the differentiability of \(g()\) provided that \(r_n \varepsilon_n = o(1)\)

$$r_n L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g\left(\theta_0 + \frac{t}{r_n}\right) \to -H t, \quad \text{as } n \to \infty,$$

where \(H\) is the Hessian of \(g()\) at \(\theta_0\). Then we consider the covariance

$$\text{cov}(W_n(s), W_n(t)) = n \left(\frac{r_n}{n}\right)^2 \left( E\left[ L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g\left(X, \theta_0 + \frac{s}{r_n}\right) L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g\left(X, \theta_0 + \frac{t}{r_n}\right) \right] \right) - E\left[ L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g\left(X, \theta_0 + \frac{s}{r_n}\right) \right] E\left[ L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g\left(X, \theta_0 + \frac{t}{r_n}\right) \right].$$

We recall that \(L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{r_n} \sum_{l=0}^{p} \sum_{k=0}^{p} c_i g(x, \theta + l \varepsilon_n)\). Thus, provided that \(r_n = \sqrt{n \varepsilon_n^{1-\gamma}}\), we can represent the expression for the covariance as the sum

$$\text{cov}(W_n(s), W_n(t)) = \varepsilon_n^{-2\gamma} \sum_{l=-p}^{p} \sum_{k=-p}^{p} c_{lk} \left( E\left[ g\left(X, \theta_0 + \frac{s}{r_n} + l \varepsilon_n\right) g\left(X, \theta_0 + \frac{t}{r_n} + k \varepsilon_n\right) \right] \right) - E\left[ g\left(X, \theta_0 + \frac{s}{r_n} + l \varepsilon_n\right) \right] \left( E\left[ g\left(X, \theta_0 + \frac{t}{r_n} + k \varepsilon_n\right) \right] \right).$$

Next, recall that \(\sqrt{n \varepsilon_n^{1-\gamma}} = O(1)\) and \(r_n^{-1} \lesssim C \varepsilon_n\). Therefore, we can write

$$\varepsilon_n^{-2\gamma} c_{lk} = \varepsilon_n^{-2\gamma} \left( E\left[ g\left(X, \theta_0 + (C s + l) \varepsilon_n\right) g\left(X, \theta_0 + (C t + k) \varepsilon_n\right) \right] \right) - E\left[ g\left(X, \theta_0 + (C s + l) \varepsilon_n\right) \right] E\left[ g\left(X, \theta_0 + (C t + k) \varepsilon_n\right) \right] \to H(C s + l, C t + k),$$

as \(\varepsilon_n \to 0\). As a result

$$\text{cov}(W_n(s), W_n(t)) \to \sum_{l=-p}^{p} \sum_{k=-p}^{p} c_{lk} H(C s + l, C t + k).$$

Finally, Assumption 12 (iii) ensures that the Lindeberg condition is satisfied.

**Step 3.** Define the class of functions \(G_n = \{ L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g(\cdot, \theta_0 + r_n^{-1} t_1) - L_{1,p}^{\varepsilon_n} g(\cdot, \theta_0 + r_n^{-1} t_2), \ |t_1 - t_2| < \delta_n \} \) with \(\delta_n \to 0\). We use Assumption 7 which suggests that

$$\sqrt{n} \sup_{h \in G_n} |P_n h - E[h]| = O_p \left( \left( \frac{\delta_n}{r_n} \right)^{\gamma} \frac{1}{\varepsilon_n} \right),$$

and, therefore, we have

$$r_n \sup_{h \in G_n} |P_n h - E[h]| = O_p \left( \frac{(1-\gamma)^2 \delta_n^{\gamma}}{n^{\gamma/2} \varepsilon_n} \right) = o_p(1),$$

where \(P_n\) is the empirical process associated with the function class \(G_n\).
because by assumption \( \frac{1}{n^{\alpha}} \) is bounded from above and \( \delta_n \to 0 \). This means that process \( W_n(t) \) satisfies the stochastic equicontinuity condition of Theorem 2.3 in Kim and Pollard (1990).

**Step 4.** Provided that the centered process \( W_n(t) \) is stochastically equicontinuous, then the process \( Z_n(t) = W_n(t) + r_n L_{1/n}^t g(\theta_0 + \frac{t}{r_n}) \) is also stochastically equicontinuous. As a result, we conclude that

\[
Z_n(t) \to W(t) - H(\theta_0)t,
\]

where \( W(t) \) is the mean zero Gaussian process with the covariance function \( H_W(s,t) \).

**Step 5.** In the case where \( \sqrt{n} \sqrt{\log^{1/2}} \to \infty, \) \( r_n^{-1} = o(\varepsilon_n) \). Consider the covariance function for the process \( W_n(t) \):

\[
\varepsilon_n^{-2\gamma} \mu_{lk} = \varepsilon_n^{-2\gamma} \left( E[g(X, \theta_0 + l \varepsilon_n + o(s \varepsilon_n)) g(X, \theta_0 + k \varepsilon_n + o(t \varepsilon_n))] - E[g(X, \theta_0 + l \varepsilon_n + o(s \varepsilon_n))] E[g(X, \theta_0 + k \varepsilon_n + o(t \varepsilon_n))] \right) \to H(l, k),
\]

as \( \varepsilon_n \to 0 \). As a result

\[
\text{cov} (W_n(s), W_n(t)) \to \sum_{l=-p}^{p} \sum_{k=-p}^{p} c_{lk} H(l, k),
\]

which does not depend on \( t \) and \( s \). Provided that the Lindeberg condition holds due to Assumption 12(iii), application of the Lindeberg-Levy CLT leads to the conclusion regarding the normality of the limiting distribution of \( W_n(t) \).

Q.E.D.

**A.11 Proof of Theorem 13**

Our proof will rely to a large extent on the proof of Lemma 2. We first deliver the result regarding the consistency of \( \hat{m}(\cdot) \). We consider the cases of the kernel and the sieve estimator for \( m(\cdot) \) separately. Denote \( \Delta(\theta, \eta, y_i) = (p(\theta, \eta, y_i) - m(\theta, \eta; z_i))^n \sum_{i=1}^{n} \) and \( G(\theta, \eta) = (E[\Delta(\theta, \eta, Y_i) | z_i])^n \sum_{i=1}^{n} \). We note that from Assumption 9[iii] it follows that \( \text{Var}(\Delta(\theta, \eta, y_i) - m(\theta, \eta; z_i) | z_i) \leq \nu \). Select \( \delta_n \to 0 \) such that \( \delta_n \gg N(\log n)^{-1/2} \). Denoting \( \mu_n = \frac{\epsilon \delta_n}{\nu} N \) we find that \( \text{Var}(P_n \rho(\theta, \eta; y_i)) / (4 \mu_n)^2 \ll (\log n)^{-1} \), which implies that the symmetrization inequality for empirical processes holds.

Utilizing the proof of Lemma 2 we can write that

\[
\| \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z) - m(\theta, \eta, z) \| \leq \frac{CN}{\epsilon} \max_{k=1, \ldots, \nu} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{NK}(z_i) (\Delta - G) \right\|.
\]

We note that each element in the latter sum belongs to the class described by Assumption 9[iv]. Considering the individual elements in the sum we can apply the symmetrization argument in Pollard (1984) and write

\[
P \left( \sup_{(\theta, \eta, z) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{N} \times Z} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{NK}(z_i) (\Delta - G) > 8 \mu_n N \right)
\]

\[
\leq 2 \exp \left( An^{2\gamma} \log \frac{1}{\mu_n} \right) \exp \left( - \frac{1}{128} \frac{\mu_n^2}{\nu} \right) + P \left( \sup_{(\theta, \eta, z) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{N} \times Z} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{NK}(z_i) (\Delta - G) \right) > 64 \nu \right) .
\]
The second term can be evaluated with the aid of Lemma 33 in Pollard (1984):

\[
P \left( \sup\limits_{(\theta, \eta, z) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H}_n \times Z} \frac{1}{n} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{Nk}(z_i) (\Delta_i - G_i) \right\|^2 > 64\nu \right) \leq 4 \exp \left( A_n^{2\nu} \log \frac{1}{\nu} \right) \exp \left( -n\nu \right).
\]

As a result, we find that

\[
P \left( \sup\limits_{(\theta, \eta, z) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H}_n \times Z} \frac{1}{n} \left\| \hat{p}(z) \hat{Q}^{-1} P' (\Delta - G) \right\| > \mu_0 \right) \leq 2N \exp \left( A_n^{2\nu} \log \frac{N}{\epsilon \delta_n} - \frac{1}{128} \frac{n^2 \delta_n^2}{N^2 \nu} \right) + 4N \exp \left( A_n^{2\nu} \log \frac{1}{\nu} - n\nu \right).
\]

A similar analysis can be conducted for the kernel-based estimator for the conditional moment function. We note that

\[
\| \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z) - m(\theta, \eta, z) \|
\]

\[
= \left( \frac{1}{nb^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K \left( \frac{z - z_i}{\rho} \right) \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{nb^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K \left( \frac{z - z_i}{\rho} \right) \right) \| \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, y_i) - m(\theta, \eta, z) \|.
\]

We note that the variance of each term in the summation has order \( O(b_n^4) \). Using the proof of Lemma 3, we find that the choice \( \delta_n \gg \sqrt{\log n} \) guarantees that the stochastic order \( \sup\limits_{(\theta, \eta) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H}_n \times Z} \| \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z) - m(\theta, \eta, z) \| = o_p(\delta_n) \).

Denote \( \hat{G}(\theta, \eta, z_i) = L_{\mathcal{H}_n}^\nu \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) \), and \( \hat{G}_j(\theta, \eta, z_i) = L_{\mathcal{H}_n}^\nu \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) \) and \( G(\theta, \eta, z_i) \) and \( G_j(\theta, \eta, z_i) \) their population analogs. Then we can decompose

\[
\hat{G}(z_i, \theta, \eta) \hat{W}(z_i) \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) - G(z_i, \theta, \eta) W(z_i)m(\theta, \eta, z_i) = \left( \hat{G}(z_i, \theta, \eta) \hat{W}(z_i) - G(z_i, \theta, \eta) W(z_i) \right) m(\theta, \eta, z_i)
\]

\[
+ G(z_i, \theta, \eta) W(z_i) (\hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) - m(\theta, \eta, z_i))+ \left( \hat{G}(z_i, \theta, \eta) \hat{W}(z_i) - G(z_i, \theta, \eta) W(z_i) \right) (\hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) - m(\theta, \eta, z_i)).
\]

We can provide the same expansion for \( \bar{B}(\cdot) \).

Consider the difference \( \hat{G}(z_i, \theta, \eta) \hat{W}(z_i) - G(z_i, \theta, \eta) W(z_i) \). From the proof of Lemma 2 it follows that

\[
\sup\limits_{(\theta, \eta) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H}_n, z \in Z} \left\| \hat{G}(z_i, \theta, \eta) - G(z_i, \theta, \eta) \right\| = o_p(1). \text{ This means that}
\]

\[
\sup\limits_{(\theta, \eta) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H}_n, z \in Z} \left\| \hat{G}(z_i, \theta, \eta) \hat{W}(z_i) \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) - G(z_i, \theta, \eta) W(z_i)m(\theta, \eta, z_i) \right\| = o_p(1).
\]

We have also provided the proof that

\[
\sup\limits_{(\theta, \eta) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H}_n, z \in Z} \| \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z) - m(\theta, \eta, z) \| = o_p(1). \text{ This would imply that}
\]

\[
\sup\limits_{(\theta, \eta) \in \Theta \times \mathcal{H}_n, z \in Z} \left\| \left( \hat{G}(z_i, \theta, \eta) \hat{W}(z_i) - G(z_i, \theta, \eta) W(z_i) \right) (\hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) - m(\theta, \eta, z_i)) \right\| = o_p(1).
\]

Then this means that

\[
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \hat{G}(z_i, \theta, \eta) \hat{W}(z_i) \hat{m}(\theta, \eta, z_i) - G(z_i, \theta, \eta) W(z_i)m(\theta, \eta, z_i) \right) = o_p(1),
\]
provided that for $n$ non-negative functions $\sup_{s \in S} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(s) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sup_{s \in S} f(s)$. This proves that
\[
\sup_{(\theta, n) \in \Theta \times N} \left\| L_{1,p}^{\tau_n, \psi} \hat{Q}(\theta, \eta) - \frac{\partial Q(\theta, \eta)}{\partial \eta}[\psi_j] \right\| = o_p(1).
\]

\[\square\]

A.12 Proof of Lemma 6

The result of the theorem can be obtained by adapting the argument in Lemma 1 to the argument in the proof of Theorem 9 of Nolan and Pollard (1987). We define the class of functions $F_n = \{ \epsilon_n L_{1,p}^{\tau_n, \psi} \}, \theta \in N(\theta_0)$, with envelope function $F$, such that $PF \leq C$. Then we can write
\[
\sup_{d(\theta, \theta_0) \leq \epsilon_n} \epsilon_n \| L_{1,p}^{\tau_n, \psi} \hat{Q}(\theta) - L_{1,p}^{\tau_n, \psi} g(\theta) \| \leq \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sup_{f \in F_n} |S_n(f)|.
\]

Noting (5.11), lemma 1 can be shown separately for the $\hat{\mu}_n(\theta)$ and $S_n(u)/(n-1)$ components of the decomposition. Because assumption 14 is a special case of assumption 7, Theorem 3 applies with $\gamma = 1$. Therefore the result of lemma 6 holds for the $\hat{\mu}_n(\cdot)$ component as long as $\epsilon_n$. We will hence with no loss of generality focus on $S_n(u)$ and assume that $g(\cdot, \theta)$ is degenerate.

Due to Assumption 15, for each $f \in F_n$, $E|f|^2 = E |\epsilon_n L_{1,p}^{\tau_n, \psi} g(\cdot, \theta)|^2 = O(\epsilon_n)$. Define $t_n = \max\{\epsilon_n^{1/2}, \log n \}$ as in Lemma 10 of Nolan and Pollard (1987). Under the condition $n^{1/2} \log n \rightarrow \infty$ in lemma 6, for large enough $n$, $t_n \geq \epsilon_n$. Denote $\delta_n = \mu t_n^2 n^2$. By the Markov inequality,
\[
P \left( \sup_{f \in F_n} |S_n(f)| > \delta_n \right) \leq \delta_n^{-1} P \sup_{f \in F_n} |S_n(f)|.
\]

By assumption 6, the covering integral of $F_n$ is bounded by a constant multiple of $H(s) = s [1 + \log (1/s)]$. the maximum inequality in Theorem 6 of Nolan and Pollard (1987) implies that
\[
P \sup_{f \in F_n} |S_n(f)| / n \leq C P H \left[ \sup_{f \in F_n} |T_n f^2|^{1/2} / n \right].
\]

where $T_n$ is the symmetrized measured defined in Nolan and Pollard (1987). The right-hand side can be further bounded by Lemma 10 in Nolan and Pollard (1987). This lemma states that there exists a constant $\beta$ such that
\[
P \left( \sup_{f \in F_n} |S_{2n}(f)| > \beta^2 4n^2 t_n^2 \right) \leq 2 A \exp(-2nt_n),
\]

where $A$ is the Euclidean constant in assumption 6. Since $f(\cdot)$ is globally bounded, $|f(\cdot)|^2 \leq B |f(\cdot)|$ for a constant $B$. In addition, note that $|S_{2n}(f)| \geq |T_n f|$. Therefore, we find that $|T_n f^2| \leq B |S_{2n}(f)|$, which implies
\[
P \left( \sup_{f \in F_n} |T_n f^2| > \frac{4 \beta^2}{B} n^2 t_n^2 \right) \leq 2 A \exp(-2nt_n).
\]
Also note that \( \frac{\log^2 n}{n^2} \) achieves its maximum at 1 and is increasing for its argument less than 1. For sufficiently large \( n \) the term \( \frac{\log^2 n}{n^2} \ll 1 \). Then

\[
P\left( \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}_n} |S_n(f)| > \frac{1}{n} \right) \leq \frac{1}{n^2} \log^2 n \log \left( \frac{1}{n^2} \right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \log^2 n \log \left( \frac{1}{n^2} \right).
\]

By assumption \( t_n n \gg \log n \to \infty \), the first term vanishes. The second term also vanishes by showing that \( n^{-1} t_n^{-2} \exp(-2nt_n) \to 0 \), because it is bounded by, for some \( C_n \to \infty \), \( 1/(\log n)^C n t_n \). Finally, considering the term \( t_n^{-1} n^{-1} \log t_n \), we note that it can be decomposed into \( t_n^{-1} n^{-1} \log (nt_n) - t_n^{-1} n^{-1} \log n \). Both terms converge to zero because both \( t_n n \to \infty \) and \( \frac{t_n n}{\log n} \to \infty \). We have thus shown that for any \( \mu > 0 \)

\[
P\left( \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}_n} \left| \frac{1}{n(n-1)} S_n(f) \right| > \mu \varepsilon_n \right) = o(1).
\]

This proves the statement of the theorem.

**A.13 Proof of Lemma 7**

*Proof.* (i)

We note that for the projection part

\[
\sup_{d(\theta, \theta_0) = o(1)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \|L_{\mu}^n \mu (\theta) - L_{\mu}^n \mu (\theta)\| = o_p(1).
\]

As a result the U-process part will dominate and the convergence rate will be determined by its order \( \frac{\log^2 n}{n^2 \varepsilon_n} \).

The rest follows from the proof of Lemma 5.

(ii)

The proof of this lemma largely relies on the proof of Lemma 5. Consider a class of functions

\[\mathcal{G}_n = \left\{ g (\cdot, \theta_n + \varepsilon_n) - g (\cdot, \theta_n - \varepsilon_n) - g (\cdot, \theta_0 + \varepsilon_n) + g (\cdot, \theta_0 - \varepsilon_n) , \ \theta_n = \theta_0 + t_n \frac{\log^2 n}{n^2 \varepsilon_n} \right\},\]

with \( \varepsilon_n \to 0 \) and \( t_n = O(1) \). We can evaluate the \( L^2 \) norm of the functions from class \( \mathcal{G}_n \) using Assumption 6 (ii). Note that

\[E \left[ (g (Z_i, z, \theta_n + \varepsilon_n) - g (Z_i, z, \theta_n - \varepsilon_n))^2 \right] = O (\varepsilon_n),\]
with the same evaluation for the second term. On the other hand, we can change the notation to $\theta_{1n} = \theta_0 + \varepsilon_n + \frac{1}{2} \log^2 \nu_n$ and $\theta_{2n} = \theta_0 + \frac{1}{2} \log^2 \nu_n$. The we can group the first term with the third and the second one with the fourth. For the first group this leads to

$$E \left[ \left( g \left( Z_t, z, \theta_{1n} + t_n \log^2 \nu_n \right) - g \left( Z_t, z, \theta_{1n} - t_n \log^2 \nu_n \right) \right)^2 \right] = O \left( \frac{\log^2 \nu_n}{\nu_n^2} \right),$$

and for the second group

$$E \left[ \left( g \left( Z_t, z, \theta_{2n} + \frac{\varepsilon_n}{2} \right) - g \left( Z_t, z, \theta_{2n} - \frac{\varepsilon_n}{2} \right) \right)^2 \right] = O \left( \varepsilon_n \right).$$

Thus, two different ways of grouping the terms allow us to obtain two possible bounds on the norm of the entire term. As a result, we find that

$$P f^2 = O \left( \min \left\{ \varepsilon_n, \frac{\log^2 \nu_n}{\nu_n^2} \right\} \right), \quad f \in \mathcal{G}_n.$$

Next we denote $\delta_n = \min \left\{ \varepsilon_n, \frac{\log^2 \nu_n}{\nu_n^2} \right\}$.

Due to Assumption 15, for each $f \in \mathcal{F}_n$, $E[f]^2 \leq E \left| \varepsilon_n \nu_n^{\alpha g} (., \theta) \right|^2 = O (\varepsilon_n)$. Define $t_n = \max \{ \delta_n^{1/2}, \frac{\log \nu_n}{\nu_n^2} \}$ as in Lemma 10 of Nolan and Pollard (1987) then for $n \sqrt{\delta_n}/\log n \to \infty$

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}_n} \left\| \frac{1}{n(n-1)} T_n(f)^2 \right\| = o_p(\delta_n^2),$$

where $T_n$ is the symmetrized measured defined in Nolan and Pollard (1987). By Assumption 6 (iii), the covering integral of $\mathcal{F}_n$ is bounded by a constant multiple of $H(s) = s [1 + \log (1/s)]$. The maximum inequality in Theorem 6 of Nolan and Pollard (1987) implies that

$$P \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}_n} |S_n(f)| / n \leq C \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}_n} |T_n(f)^2|^{1/2} / n.$$

Then the stochastic order of $\frac{1}{n \varepsilon_n} \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}_n} |S_n(f)|$ can be evaluated as

$$\sqrt{n} \frac{1}{n \varepsilon_n} \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}_n} |S_n(f)| = O_P \left( \frac{\delta_n}{\varepsilon_n} \log \delta_n \right) = O_P \left( \frac{\log \left( \frac{n^2 \varepsilon_n}{\log n} \right)}{n^2 \varepsilon_n} \right) = o_p(1).$$

This delivers the result in the Lemma.

□

A.14 Derivation of the mean-value expansion (6.12)

Consider the mean-value expansion for an individual element $\varepsilon_n \nu_n^{\mu g}(x, \hat{\theta})$ at point $\theta_0 = 0$. We split the arguments into two components for the element $|x - \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon_n|^\alpha$ and $|x - \hat{\theta} - \varepsilon_n|^\alpha$. We will use the mean-value expansion to represent the value of the objective function at $\hat{\theta}$ using the value at 0. Consider the following cases for $|x - \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon_n|^\alpha$.

1. If $x > -\varepsilon_n$ and $x - \hat{\theta} > -\varepsilon_n$ then for $\hat{\theta} \in [0, \hat{\theta}]$ $|x - \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon_n|^\alpha = |x + \varepsilon_n|^\alpha - \alpha |x - \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon_n|^\alpha^{-1} \hat{\theta}$. 
2. If \( x < -e_n \) and \( x - \tilde{\theta} < -e_n \) then for \( \tilde{\theta} \in [0, \tilde{\theta}] \) \( |x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n| = |x + e_n| = |x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n|^{-1} \tilde{\theta} \). We note that the latter mean-value expansion is valid with sign \( \tilde{\theta} \). In fact, if \( \tilde{\theta} > 0 \) in the considered case, then 
\[
|x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n| > |x + e_n|
\]
and if \( \tilde{\theta} < 0 \) then 
\[
|x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n| < |x + e_n|,
\]
making the mean-value expansion valid.

3. If \( x > -e_n \) and \( x - \tilde{\theta} < -e_n \), then these points lie in different “branches” of function \( |x|^\alpha \). We use the symmetry of this function about zero to represent the function using the expansion at the point 
\(-x - e_n < 0 \) such that both points are on the same “branch”. Then for \( \tilde{\theta} \in [2(x + e_n), \tilde{\theta}] \) we have 
\[
|x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n|^\alpha = |x + e_n|^\alpha + \alpha|x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n|^{-1} (\tilde{\theta} - 2(x + e_n)).
\]

4. If \( x < -e_n \) and \( x - \tilde{\theta} > -e_n \), then these points lie in different “branches” of function \( |x|^\alpha \). Then for 
\( \tilde{\theta} \in [2(x + e_n), \tilde{\theta}] \) we have 
\[
|x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n|^\alpha = |x + e_n|^\alpha - \alpha|x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n|^{-1} (\tilde{\theta} - 2(x + e_n)).
\]

We can also count the same cases for \( |x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^\alpha \):

1. If \( x > e_n \) and \( x - \tilde{\theta} > e_n \) then for \( \tilde{\theta} \in [0, \tilde{\theta}] \) \( |x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^\alpha = |x - e_n|^\alpha - \alpha|x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^{-1} \tilde{\theta} \).
2. If \( x < e_n \) and \( x - \tilde{\theta} < e_n \) then for \( \tilde{\theta} \in [0, \tilde{\theta}] \) \( |x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^\alpha = |x - e_n|^\alpha + \alpha|x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^{-1} \tilde{\theta} \).
3. If \( x > e_n \) and \( x - \tilde{\theta} < e_n \), then these points lie in different “branches” of function \( |x|^\alpha \). Then for 
\( \tilde{\theta} \in [2(x - e_n), \tilde{\theta}] \) we have 
\[
|x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^\alpha = |x - e_n|^\alpha + \alpha|x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^{-1} (\tilde{\theta} - 2(x - e_n)).
\]
4. If \( x < e_n \) and \( x - \tilde{\theta} > e_n \), then for \( \tilde{\theta} \in [2(x - e_n), \tilde{\theta}] \) we have 
\[
|x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^\alpha = |x - e_n|^\alpha - \alpha|x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^{-1} (\tilde{\theta} - 2(x - e_n)).
\]

Combine those cases to include the first and the second ones indexed as in the lists above:

1.1 Leads to \( x > e_n, x - \tilde{\theta} > e_n \): \( 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g \left( x, \tilde{\theta} \right) = 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g (x, 0) - \alpha e_n L_{1,2}^\epsilon g |x - \tilde{\theta}|^{-1} \tilde{\theta} \).
1.2 Leads to \( |x| < e_n, x - \tilde{\theta} < e_n \): \( 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g \left( x, \tilde{\theta} \right) = 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g (x, 0) - \alpha (|x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n|^{-1} + |x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^{-1}) \tilde{\theta} \).
1.3 Leads to \( x > e_n, |x - \tilde{\theta}| < e_n \): \( 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g \left( x, \tilde{\theta} \right) = 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g (x, 0) - \alpha (|x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n|^{-1} + |x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^{-1}) \tilde{\theta} + 2\alpha |x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^{-1} (x - e_n) \).
1.4 Leads to \( |x| < e_n, x - \tilde{\theta} > e_n \): \( 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g \left( x, \tilde{\theta} \right) = 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g (x, 0) - \alpha e_n L_{1,2}^\epsilon g |x - \tilde{\theta}|^{-1} \tilde{\theta} - 2\alpha |x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^{-1} (x - e_n) \).

2.1 Not compatible
2.2 Leads to \( x < -e_n, x - \tilde{\theta} < -e_n \): \( 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g \left( x, \tilde{\theta} \right) = 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g (x, 0) + \alpha e_n L_{1,2}^\epsilon g |x - \tilde{\theta}|^{-1} \tilde{\theta} \).
2.3 Not compatible
2.4 Not compatible
3.1 Not compatible
3.2 Leads to \( |x| < e_n, x - \tilde{\theta} < -e_n \): \( 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g \left( x, \tilde{\theta} \right) = 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g (x, 0) + \alpha e_n L_{1,2}^\epsilon g |x - \tilde{\theta}|^{-1} \tilde{\theta} - 2\alpha |x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n|^{-1} (x + e_n) \).
3.3 Leads to \( x > e_n, x - \tilde{\theta} < -e_n \): \( 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g \left( x, \tilde{\theta} \right) = 2e_nL_{1,2}^\epsilon g (x, 0) + \alpha e_n L_{1,2}^\epsilon g |x - \tilde{\theta}|^{-1} \tilde{\theta} - 2\alpha (|x - \tilde{\theta} + e_n|^{-1} (x + e_n) - |x - \tilde{\theta} - e_n|^{-1} (x - e_n)) \).
3.4 Not compatible
4.1 Not compatible
4.2 Leads to $x < -\varepsilon_n$, $|x - \hat{x}| < \varepsilon$: $2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, \hat{x}) = 2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, 0) - \alpha (|x - \hat{x} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} + |x - \hat{x} - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1}) \hat{x} + 2\alpha |x - \hat{x} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x + \varepsilon_n)$.

4.3 Not compatible

4.4 Leads to $x < -\varepsilon_n, x - \hat{x} > \varepsilon$: $2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, \hat{x}) = 2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, 0) - \alpha \varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} |x - \hat{x}|^{\alpha - 1} \hat{x} + 2\alpha (|x - \hat{x} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x + \varepsilon_n) - |x - \hat{x} - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x - \varepsilon_n))$.

We unify the cases in a parsimonious way. First, we note that we can collect 1.1, 1.4, 2.2, 3.2, 3.3 and 4.4 where $|x - \hat{x}| > \varepsilon_n$, thus for these cases (taking into account that $|x - \hat{x}| > \varepsilon_n$) we can write:

$$2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, \hat{x}) = 2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, 0) - \alpha \varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} |x - \hat{x}|^{\alpha - 1} \text{sign}(x - \hat{x}) \hat{x}
- 2\alpha |x - \hat{x} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x + \varepsilon_n) \left(1 \{x - \hat{x} < -\varepsilon_n\} 1\{x > -\varepsilon_n\} - 1 \{x - \hat{x} > \varepsilon_n\} 1\{x < -\varepsilon_n\}\right)
- 2\alpha |x - \hat{x} - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x - \varepsilon_n) \left(1 \{x - \hat{x} > \varepsilon_n\} 1\{x < \varepsilon_n\} - 1 \{x - \hat{x} < -\varepsilon_n\} 1\{x > \varepsilon_n\}\right),$$

where we used the fact that $1\{|x| \leq \varepsilon_n\} + 1\{|x| > \varepsilon_n\} = 1\{x > -\varepsilon_n\}$. Second, we collect 1.2, 1.3, and 4.2 for the case where $|x - \hat{x}| < \varepsilon_n$:

$$2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, \hat{x}) = 2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, 0) - \alpha (|x - \hat{x} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} + |x - \hat{x} - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1}) \hat{x}
+ 2\alpha 1\{x > \varepsilon_n\} |x - \hat{x} - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x - \varepsilon_n) + 2\alpha 1\{x < -\varepsilon_n\} |x - \hat{x} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x + \varepsilon_n).$$

We note that in all of these expressions we can represent the mean-value expansion as

$$2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, \hat{x}) = 2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, 0) - \alpha \varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} |x - \hat{x}|^{\alpha - 1} 1\{|x - \hat{x}| > \varepsilon_n\} \text{sign}(x - \hat{x}) \hat{x}
- \alpha (|x - \hat{x} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} + |x - \hat{x} - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1}) 1\{|x - \hat{x}| < \varepsilon_n\} \hat{x} + R(x, \varepsilon_n).$$

We can write the residual term combining the above expressions for the derivatives. The final expression for the numerical derivative is

$$2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, \hat{x}) = 2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, 0) + H (x, \hat{x}) \hat{x} + R(x, \varepsilon_n).$$

The Hessian term takes the form

$$H (x, \hat{x}) = \alpha \varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} |x - \hat{x}|^{\alpha - 1} 1\{|x - \hat{x}| > \varepsilon_n\} \text{sign}(x - \hat{x})
- \alpha (|x - \hat{x} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} + |x - \hat{x} - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1}) 1\{|x - \hat{x}| < \varepsilon_n\},$$

and the residual term

$$R(x, \varepsilon_n) = -2\alpha |x - \hat{x} + \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x + \varepsilon_n) \left(1 \{x - \hat{x} < -\varepsilon_n\} 1\{x > -\varepsilon_n\} - 1 \{x - \hat{x} > \varepsilon_n\} 1\{x < -\varepsilon_n\}\right)
- 2\alpha |x - \hat{x} - \varepsilon_n|^{\alpha - 1} (x - \varepsilon_n) \left(1 \{x - \hat{x} > \varepsilon_n\} 1\{x < \varepsilon_n\} - 1 \{x - \hat{x} < -\varepsilon_n\} 1\{x > \varepsilon_n\}\right).$$

Consider the term $2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} \hat{x} (0)$. Noting that

$$2\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, 0) = |x + \varepsilon_n|^\alpha - |x - \varepsilon_n|^\alpha,$$

we can locally represent this element as:

1. If $x > \varepsilon_n$: $\varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^{\varepsilon_n} g (x, 0) = \alpha (x + \varepsilon^*)^{\alpha - 1} \varepsilon_n$, where $\varepsilon^* \in (-\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_n)$. 

2. If $x < -\varepsilon_n$: $\varepsilon_n L_{1,2} g (x, 0) = -\alpha (-x + \varepsilon^*)^{\alpha-1} \varepsilon_n$, where $\varepsilon^* \in (-\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_n)$.

3. If $x \in (-\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_n)$: $\varepsilon_n L_{1,2} g (x, 0) = \varepsilon_n^\alpha (|1 + z|^{\alpha} - |1 - z|^{\alpha})$, where $z = x/\varepsilon_n$.

Thus, we can briefly express the numerical derivative of the objective function at 0 as

$$2 \varepsilon_n L_{1,2}^* \hat{g} (0) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \alpha |x_i + \varepsilon^*|^{\alpha-1} \text{sign}(x_i) \varepsilon_n 1(|x_i| > \varepsilon_n) + \varepsilon_n^\alpha \left( \left| \frac{x_i}{\varepsilon_n} \right|^{\alpha} - 1 - \frac{x_i}{\varepsilon_n} \right) 1(|x_i| < \varepsilon_n) \right).$$

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Figure 1: Sample numerical first derivative (1st-order) for decreasing step sizes (from top to bottom)
Figure 2: Sample numerical first derivative (2nd-order) for decreasing step sizes (from top to bottom)
Figure 3: Sample numerical first derivative (3rd-order) for decreasing step sizes (from top to bottom)
Figure 4: Mean-squared error of the estimated parameter
Figure 5: Bias of the estimated parameter