A simple nonparametric approach to estimating the distribution of random coefficients in structural models

Jeremy T. Fox a,b,* , Kyoo il Kim c,** , Chenyu Yang d

a Rice University, United States
b NBER, United States
c Michigan State University, United States
d Simon Business School, University of Rochester, United States

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We explore least squares and likelihood nonparametric mixtures estimators of the joint distribution of random coefficients in structural models. The estimators fix a grid of heterogeneous parameters and estimate only the weights on the grid points, an approach that is computationally attractive compared to alternative nonparametric estimators. We provide conditions under which the estimated distribution function converges to the true distribution in the weak topology on the space of distributions. We verify most of the consistency conditions for three discrete choice models. We also derive the convergence rates of the least squares nonparametric mixtures estimator under additional restrictions. We perform a Monte Carlo study on a dynamic programming model.

1. Introduction

Economic researchers often work with models where the parameters are heterogeneous across the population. A classic example is that consumers may have heterogeneous preferences over a set of product characteristics in an industry with differentiated products. These heterogeneous parameters are often known as random coefficients. When working with cross sectional data, the goal is often to estimate the distribution of heterogeneous parameters. Our paper establishes the consistency and rates of convergence of "fixed grid" nonparametric estimators for a distribution of heterogeneous parameters due to Bajari et al. (2007), Train (2008, Section 6), Fox et al. (2011), and Koenker and Mizera (2014). These estimators are computationally simpler than some alternatives. We use FKRB to refer to Fox et al. (2011).

We estimate the distribution of heterogeneous parameters \( F(\beta) \) in the model

\[
P_j(x) = \int g_j(x, \beta) \, dF(\beta),
\]

where \( j \) is the index of the \( j \)th out of \( J \) finite values of the outcome \( y \) at \( x \) is a vector of observed explanatory variables, \( \beta \) is the vector of heterogeneous parameters, and \( g_j(x, \beta) \) is the probability that the \( j \)th outcome occurs for an observation with heterogeneous parameters \( \beta \) and explanatory variables \( x \). Given this structure, \( P_j(x) \) is the cross sectional probability of observing the \( j \)th outcome when the explanatory variables are \( x \). The researcher picks \( g_j(x, \beta) \) as the underlying model, has an i.i.d. sample of \( N \) observations \((y_i, x_i)\), and wishes to estimate \( F(\beta) \). As \( F \) is only restricted to be a valid CDF, the mixture model (1) is nonparametric.

The unknown distribution \( F(\beta) \) enters (1) linearly. The estimators we analyze exploit linearity and achieve a computationally simpler estimator than some alternatives. All the fixed grid estimators divide the support of the vector \( \beta \) into a finite and known...
grid of vectors $\beta^1, \ldots, \beta^k$. Computationally, the unknown parameters are the weights $\theta^1, \ldots, \theta^k$ on the grid points. These can be estimated using a least squares or likelihood criterion with the constraints that each $\theta^i \geq 0$ and that $\sum_{i=1}^k \theta^i = 1$. The estimator of the distribution $F(\beta)$ with $N$ observations and $R$ grid points becomes

$$
\hat{F}_N(\beta) = \sum_{r=1}^R \hat{\theta}^r \mathbf{1}[\beta^r \leq \beta],
$$

where $\hat{\theta}^r$’s denote estimated weights and $\mathbf{1}[\beta^r \leq \beta]$ is equal to 1 when $\beta^r \leq \beta$. Computationally, the least squares and likelihood constrained optimization problems are globally convex and concave, respectively. Particular numerical algorithms are guaranteed to converge to a global optimum.

FKRB discuss the advantages of this estimator for complex structural models, like dynamic programming models with heterogeneous parameters. In this respect, fixed grid estimators share some computational advantages with the parametric heterogeneous parameters. In this respect, fixed grid estimators are not a special case of the two-step sieve estimators explored using lower-level conditions in the main text of Chen and Pouzo.\(^1\)

We prove the consistency of our estimators for the distribution of heterogeneous parameters, in function space under the weak topology. We present separate theorems for mixtures of discrete grid points and mixtures of continuous densities with a grid of points over the parameters of each density. The theorem for the mixture of grid points requires the heterogeneous parameters to lie in a, not necessarily known, compact set. The theorem for a mixture of continuous densities allows for unbounded support of the heterogeneous parameters. Our consistency theorems are not specific to the economic model being estimated.

We provide the rate of convergences for a subset of the models handled by our consistency theorem, namely those that are differentiable in the heterogeneous parameters, which include the random coefficients logit model. The convergence rates, the asymptotic estimation error bounds, consist of two terms: the bias and the variance. While obtaining the variance term is rather standard in the sieve estimation literature, deriving the bias term depends on the specific approximation methods (e.g., power series or splines). Because our use of approximating functions is new in the sieve estimation literature, deriving the bias term is not trivial. We provide the bias term, which is the smallest possible approximation error of the true function using sieves for the class of models we consider.

Our rate of convergence results highlight an important practical issue with any nonparametric estimator: there is a curse of dimensionality in the dimension of the heterogeneous parameters. Larger sample sizes will be needed if the vector of heterogeneous parameters has more elements. Further, the rate results indicate that our baseline estimator is not practical when there are a large number of heterogeneous parameters. In high dimensional settings, we suggest allowing heterogeneous parameters on only a subset of explanatory variables and estimating homogeneous parameters on the remaining explanatory variables. We extend our consistency result to models where some parameters are homogeneous. However, including homogeneous parameters requires nonlinear optimization, which loses some of the computational advantages of our estimators.

We provide a Monte Carlo study in an online appendix. We estimate a dynamic programming, discrete choice model, adding heterogeneous parameters to the framework of Rust (1987). The dynamic programming problem must be solved once for each realization of the heterogeneous parameters. We present results for both the fixed grid likelihood and least squares estimators as well as, for comparison, a likelihood estimator where we estimate both the grid of points and the weights on those points. We show that our fixed grid estimators have superior speed but inferior statistical accuracy compared to the more usual approach of estimating a flexible grid.

The outline of our paper is as follows. Section 2 presents three examples of discrete choice mixture models. Section 3 introduces

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\(^1\) Note that under the Lévy–Prokhorov metric on the space of multivariate distributions, the problem of optimizing the population objective function over the space of distributions turns out to be well posed under the definition of Chen (2007). Thus, our method does not rely on a sieve space to regularize the estimation problem to address the ill-posed inverse problem, as much of the sieve literature focuses on.
the estimation procedures. Section 4 demonstrates consistency of our estimators in the space of multivariate distributions. Section 5.1 extends our consistency results to models with both heterogeneous parameters and homogeneous parameters and Section 5.2 considers mixtures of smooth basis densities. Section 6 verifies most of the primitive conditions for consistency established in Section 4 using the three examples of mixture models in Section 2. Section 7 derives the convergence rates of the nonparametric estimator for a class of models. Finally, an online appendix presents the Monte Carlo study.

2. Examples of mixture models

In our framework, the object the econometrician wishes to estimate is \( F(\beta) \), the distribution of the vector of heterogeneous parameters \( \beta \). One definition of identification is that a unique \( F(\beta) \) solves (1) for all \( x \) and all outcomes \( j = 1, \ldots, J \). This is the definition used in certain relevant papers on identification in the statistics literature, for example Teicher (1963).

We will return to these three examples of discrete choice models later in the paper. Each example considers economic models with heterogeneous parameters that play a large role in empirical work. Some of the example models are nested in others, but verification of the conditions for consistency in Section 6 will use additional restrictions on the supports of \( x \) and \( \beta \) that are non-nested across models.

Example 1 (Logit). Let there be a multinomial choice model such that \( y \) is one of \( J \) unordered choices, such as types of cars for sale. For \( J \geq 2 \), the utility of choice \( j \) to consumer \( i \) is \( u_{ij} = x_{ij}' \beta_i + \epsilon_{ij} \), where \( x_{ij} \) is a vector of observable product characteristics of choice \( j \) and the demographics of consumer \( i \), \( \beta_i \) is a vector of random coefficients giving the marginal utility of each car’s characteristics to consumer \( i \), and \( \epsilon_{ij} \) is an additive, consumer- and choice-specific error. There is an outside good 1 with utility \( u_{i1} = \epsilon_{i1} \). The consumer picks choice \( j \) when \( u_{ij} > u_{ih} \forall h \neq j \). The random coefficients logit model occurs when \( \epsilon_{ij} \) is known to have the type I extreme value distribution. In this example, (1) becomes, for \( J \geq 2 \),

\[
P_j(x) = \int g_j(x, \beta) \, dF(\beta) = \int \frac{\exp(x_j' \beta)}{1 + \sum_{h=2}^{J} \exp(x_h' \beta)} \, dF(\beta),
\]

where \( x = (x_2, \ldots, x_J) \). A similar expression occurs for other choices \( h \neq j \). Compared to prior empirical work using the random coefficients logit, our goal is to estimate \( F(\beta) \) nonparametrically.

Example 2 (Binary Choice). Let \( J = 2 \) in the previous example, so that there is one inside good and one outside good. Thus, the utility of the inside good 2 is \( u_{i2} = \epsilon_{i2} + x_{i2}' \beta_2 \), where \( \beta_2 = (\epsilon_{i2}, \beta_{i2}) \) is seen as one long vector and \( \epsilon_{i2} \) supplants the logit errors in Example 1 and plays the role of a random intercept. The outside good 1 has utility \( u_{i1} = 0 \). In this example, (1) becomes, for \( J = 2 \),

\[
P_2(x) = \int g_2(x, \beta) \, dF(\beta) = \int 1 \{ x + x_2' \beta_2 \geq 0 \} \, dF(\beta),
\]

where \( 1 \{ \cdot \} \) is the indicator function equal to 1 if the inequality in the brackets is true. Without logit errors, the joint distribution of both the intercept and the slope coefficients is estimated nonparametrically. In this example, \( g_2(x, \beta) \) is discontinuous in \( \beta \).

Example 3 (Multinomial Choice Without Logit Errors). Consider a multinomial choice model where the distribution of the previously logit errors is also estimated nonparametrically. In this case, the utility to choice \( j \geq 2 \) is \( u_{ij} = x_{ij}' \beta_i + \epsilon_{ij} \) and the utility of the outside good 1 is \( u_{i1} = 0 \). The notation \( \tilde{\beta}_i \) is used because the full heterogeneous parameter vector is now \( \tilde{\beta}_i = (\tilde{\beta}_i, \epsilon_{i1,2}, \ldots, \epsilon_{i1,J}) \), which is seen as one long vector. We will not assume that the additive errors \( \epsilon_{ij} \) are distributed independently of \( \beta_i \) or of each other. In this example, (1) becomes, for \( j \geq 2 \),

\[
P_j(x) = \int g_j(x, \beta) \, dF(\beta) = \int 1 \{ x_j' \tilde{\beta} + \epsilon_j \geq \max \{ 0, x_i' \tilde{\beta} + \epsilon_i \} \forall h \neq j, \ h \geq 2 \} \, dF(\beta).
\]

3. Estimator

We analyze both least squares (linear probability models) and maximum likelihood criteria. We first discuss the least squares criterion, from FKRB. Recall that \( y_{ij} \) is equal to 1 whenever the outcome \( y_i \) for the \( j \)th observation is \( j \) and 0 otherwise. Start with the model (1) and add \( y_{ij} \) to both sides while moving \( P_j(x) \) to the right side. For the statistical observation \( i \), this gives

\[
y_{ij} = \int g_j(x, \beta) \, dF(\beta) + \left( y_{ij} - P_j(x) \right).
\]

By the definition of \( P_j(x) \), the expectation of the composite error term \( y_{ij} - P_j(x) \), conditional on \( x \), is 0. This is a linear probability model with an infinite-dimensional parameter, the distribution \( F(\beta) \). We could work directly with this equation if it was computationally simple to estimate this infinite-dimensional parameter while constraining it to be a valid CDF.

Instead, we work with a finite-dimensional sieve space approximation to \( F \). In particular, we let \( R(N) \) be the number of grid points in the grid \( \mathcal{B}_{R(N)} = (\beta^1, \ldots, \beta^{R(N)}) \). A grid point is a vector if \( \beta \) is a vector, so \( R(N) \) is the total number of points in all dimensions. The researcher chooses \( \mathcal{B}_{R(N)} \). Given the choice of \( \mathcal{B}_{R(N)} \), the researcher estimates \( \hat{\theta} = (\hat{\theta}^1, \ldots, \hat{\theta}^{R(N)}) \), the weights on each of the grid points. With this approximation, (2) becomes

\[
y_{ij} \approx \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \theta^j g_j(x, \beta^r) + \left( y_{ij} - P_j(x) \right).
\]

We use the \( \approx \) symbol to emphasize that (3) uses a sieve approximation to the distribution function \( F(\beta) \). Because each \( \theta^j \) enters \( y_{ij} \) linearly, we estimate \( \theta^j \) using the linear probability model regression of \( y_{ij} \) on the \( R \) “regressors” \( x_j' \beta^r = g_j(x, \beta^r) \).

To be a valid CDF, \( \theta^j \geq 0 \forall r \) and \( \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \theta^j = 1 \). Therefore, the estimator is

\[
\hat{\theta} = \arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{NJ} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \left( y_{ij} - \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \theta^j x_j' \beta^r \right)^2
\]

subject to \( \theta^j \geq 0 \forall r = 1, \ldots, R(N) \) and \( \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \theta^r = 1 \).

There are \( J \) “regression observations” for each statistical observation \( (y_i, x_i) \). This minimization problem is a quadratic programming problem subject to linear inequality constraints. The minimization problem is convex and routines like MATLAB’s lsqnonlin guarantee finding a global optimum. One can construct the estimated cumulative distribution function for the heterogeneous parameters as

\[
\hat{F}_N(\beta) = \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \hat{\theta}^r 1 \{ \beta^r \leq \beta \}.
\]

Thus, we have a structural estimator for a distribution of heterogeneous parameters in addition to a flexible method for approximating choice probabilities.
Following Train, we can also use the log-likelihood criterion (divided by the sample size)
\[ \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left( \sum_{j=1}^{R(N)} \theta^j z_{i,y_i}^j \right) / N, \]
where the \( z_{i,y_i}^j \) are the probabilities computed above for the observed outcome \( y_i \) for observation \( i \). As with the least squares criterion, we enforce the constraints \( \theta^j \geq 0 \) for \( r = 1, \ldots, R(N) \) and \( \sum_{j=1}^{R(N)} \theta^j = 1 \). Computationally, one can use the EM algorithm in Train’s Section 6 or a nonlinear, gradient-based search routine, which is available in most scientific packages. The performance of the gradient-based search routine will be improved if the gradient of the likelihood is provided to the solver in closed form. The \( s \)th element of that gradient is
\[ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta^s} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{z_{i,y_i}^s}{N}, \]
The log likelihood is globally concave and any local maximum found will be the global maximum.

The fixed grid approach, whether based on a least squares or a likelihood criterion, has two main advantages over other approaches to estimating distributions of heterogeneous parameters. First, the approach is computationally simple: we can always find a global optimum and, by solving for \( z_{i,y_i}^j = g_i(x_i, \beta^j) \) before optimization commences, we avoid many evaluations of complex structural models such as dynamic programming problems. Second, the approach is nonparametric. In the next section, we show that if the grid of points is made finer as the sample size \( N \) increases, the estimators \( \hat{F}_N(\beta) \) converge to the true distribution \( F_0 \). We do not need to impose that \( F_0 \) lies in known parametric family.

On the other hand, a disadvantage is that the estimates may be sensitive to the choice of tuning parameters. While most nonparametric approaches require choices of tuning parameters, here the choice of a grid of points is a particularly high-dimensional tuning parameter. FKRB propose cross-validation methods to pick these tuning parameters, including the number of grid points, the support of the points, and the grid points within the support.

**Example 1** (Logit) For the logit example, \( \frac{\exp(x_i \beta^j)}{1 + \sum_{k=2}^{R(N)} \exp(x_i \beta^k)} = g_i(x_i, \beta^j) \). To implement the least squares estimator, for each statistical observation \( i \), the researcher computes \( R \cdot J \) probabilities \( z_{i,y_i}^j \). This computation is done before optimization commences. The outcome for choosing the outside good 1 does not need to be included in the objective function, as \( \sum_{j=1}^{R(N)} g_i(x_i, \beta^j) = 1 \). To implement the likelihood estimator, the researcher computes \( R \) probabilities \( z_{i,y_i}^j \) for each statistical observation \( i \).

**Remark 1.** FKRB discuss the case of panel data on \( T \) periods. Let \( y_{i,t} = (y_{i,1}, \ldots, y_{i,T}) \) be the actual sequence of \( T \) outcomes for panel observation \( i \). Similarly, let the explanatory variables be \( (x_{i,1}, \ldots, x_{i,T}) \). The likelihood criterion for panel data is
\[ \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left( \sum_{j=1}^{R(N)} \theta^j z_{i,y_i}^j \right) / N, \]
where \( z_{i,y_i}^j = \prod_{t=1}^{T} g_{S_{i,t}}(x_{i,t}, \beta^j) \). We do not explore panel data in our theoretical results.

### 4. Consistency in function space

Assume that the true distribution function \( F_0 \) lies in the space \( \mathcal{F} \) of distribution functions on the support \( B \) of the heterogeneous parameters \( \beta \). We wish to show that the estimated distribution function \( \hat{F}_n(\beta) = \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \theta^r 1[\beta^r \leq \beta] \) converges to the true \( F_0 \in \mathcal{F} \) as the sample size \( N \) grows large.

To prove consistency, we use the results for sieve estimators developed by Chen and Pouzo (2012), hereafter referred to as CP. We define a sieve space to approximate \( \mathcal{F} \) as
\[
\mathcal{F}_S = \left\{ F' : F(\beta) = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \theta^r 1[\beta^r \leq \beta], \theta \in \Delta_k \right\},
\]
for a choice of grid \( \Delta_k = (\beta^1, \ldots, \beta^K) \) that becomes finer as \( K \) increases. We require \( \mathcal{F}_S \subseteq \mathcal{F}_S \subseteq \mathcal{F} \) for \( S > R \), or that large sieve spaces encompass smaller sieve spaces. The choices of the grids and \( R(N) \) are up to the researcher; however consistency will require conditions on these choices.

Based on CP, we prove that the estimator \( \hat{F}_N \) converges to the true \( F_0 \). In their main text, CP study sieve minimum distance estimators that involve a two-stage procedure. Our estimator is a one-stage sieve least squares estimator (Chen, 2007) and so we cannot proceed by verifying the conditions in the theorems in the main text of CP. Instead, we show its consistency based on CP’s general consistency theorem in their appendix, their Lemma A.2, which we quote in the proof of our consistency theorem for completeness. As a consequence, our consistency proof verifies CP’s high-level conditions for the consistency of a sieve extremum estimator.

First, we consider the least squares criterion and then the likelihood criterion follows. Let \( y_i \) denote the \( J \times 1 \) vector of binary outcomes \( (y_{i,1}, \ldots, y_{i,J}) \) and let \( g(x_i, \beta) \) denote the corresponding \( J \times 1 \) vector of choice probabilities \( (g_{1}(x_i, \beta), \ldots, g_{J}(x_i, \beta)) \) given \( x_i \) and the heterogeneous parameter \( \beta \). Then we can define our sample criterion function for least squares as
\[
\hat{Q}_N(F) = \frac{1}{N_J} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left\| y_i - \int g(x, \beta) dF(\beta) \right\|^2_E, \tag{5}
\]
for \( F \in \mathcal{F}(R(N)) \), where \( \| \cdot \|_E \) denotes the Euclidean norm. We can rewrite our estimator as
\[
\hat{F}_N = \text{argmin}_{F \in \mathcal{F}(R(N))} \hat{Q}_N(F) + C \cdot \nu_N, \tag{6}
\]
where we can allow for some tolerance (slackness) of minimization, \( C \cdot \nu_N \), that is a positive sequence tending to zero as \( N \) gets larger, if necessary.

Also let
\[
Q(F) = E \left[ \left\| y - \int g(x, \beta) dF(\beta) \right\|^2_E / J \right]
\]
be the population objective function.

As a distance measure for distributions, we use the Lévy-Prokhorov metric, denoted by \( d_{LP}(\cdot) \), which is a metrization of the weak topology for the space of multivariate distributions \( \mathcal{F} \). The Lévy-Prokhorov metric in the space of \( \mathcal{F} \) is defined on a metric space \( (\mathcal{B}, d) \) with its Borel sigma algebra \( \Sigma(\mathcal{B}) \). We use the notation \( d_{LP}(F_1, F_2) \), where the measures are implicit. This
denotes the Lévy–Prokhorov metric \( d_{LP}(µ_1, µ_2) \), where \( µ_1 \) and \( µ_2 \) are probability measures corresponding to \( F_1 \) and \( F_2 \). The Lévy–Prokhorov metric is defined as
\[
d_{LP}(µ_1, µ_2) = \inf \{ \epsilon > 0 \mid µ_1(C) \leq µ_2(C^\epsilon) + \epsilon \text{ and } µ_2(C) \leq µ_1(C^\epsilon) + \epsilon \text{ for all Borel measurable } C \subseteq \Sigma(B) \},
\]
where \( C \subseteq B \) and \( C^\epsilon = \{ b \in B \mid \exists a \in C, d(a, b) < \epsilon \} \).
The Lévy–Prokhorov metric is a metric, so that \( d_{LP}(µ_1, µ_2) = 0 \) only when \( µ_1 = µ_2 \). See Huber (1981, 2004).

The following assumptions are on the economic model and data generating process. We write \( P(x, F) = \int g(x, β) dF(β) \).

**Assumption 1.** 1. Let \( F \) be a space of distribution functions on a finite-dimensional real space \( B \). \( F \) is compact in the weak topology and contains the true \( F_0 \).
2. Let \( (y_1, x_i) \) be i.i.d.
3. Let \( β \) be independently distributed from \( x \).
4. Assume the model \( g(x, β) \) is identified, meaning that for any \( F_1 \neq F_0, F_1 \in F \), the set \( S \subseteq X \) where \( P(x, F_1) \neq P(x, F_1) \) has a positive measure in \( X \).
5. \( Q(F) \) is continuous on \( F \) in the \( d_{LP} \) metric.

**Assumption 1.1**, the compactness of \( F \) is satisfied if \( B \) itself is compact in Euclidean space (Parthasarathy, 1967, Theorem 6.4).

Unfortunately, the compactness of \( B \) rules out some examples such as normal distributions of heterogeneous parameters. In part to address this, Section 5.2 provides a consistency theorem for a related estimator, which can use mixtures of normal distributions, where the support of the heterogeneous parameters is allowed to be \( \mathbb{R}^3 \). **Assumptions 1.2** and 1.3 are standard for nonparametric mixtures models with cross-sectional data.

**Assumption 1.4** requires that the model be identified at a set of values of \( x \) that occurs with positive probability. The assumption rules out so-called fragile identification that could occur at values of \( x \) with measure zero (such as identification at infinity). **Assumptions 1.4** and 1.5 need to be verified for each economic model \( g(x, β) \). We will discuss these assumptions for our three examples in Section 6.

**Remark 2.** **Assumption 1.5** is satisfied when \( g(x, β) \) is continuous in \( β \) for all \( x \) because in this case \( P(F) = \int g(x, β) \) is also on \( F \) for all \( x \) in the Lévy–Prokhorov metric. Then by the dominated convergence theorem, the continuity of \( Q(F) \) in the \( d_{LP} \) metric follows from the continuity of \( P(F) \) on \( F \) for all \( x \) and \( P(F) \leq 1 \) (uniformly bounded). Here the continuity of \( P(F) \) on \( F \) means for any \( F_1 \in F \) and such that \( d_{LP}(F_1, F_2) \to 0 \) it must follow that \( \int g(x, β) dF_1(β) → \int g(x, β) dF_2(β) \) → 0 for all \( j \). This holds by the definition of weak convergence when \( g(x, β) \) is continuous and bounded and because the Lévy–Prokhorov metric is a metrization of the weak topology.

**Remark 3.** If the support \( B \) is a finite set, the continuity of \( Q(F) \) holds even when \( g(x, β) \) is discontinuous, because in this case the Lévy–Prokhorov metric becomes equivalent to the total variation metric (see Huber, 1981, p. 34). This implies
\[
\left| \int g(x, β) dF_1(β) - \int g(x, β) dF_2(β) \right| → 0
\]
for any \( F_1, F_2 \in F \) such that \( d_{LP}(F_1, F_2) \to 0 \), in part because \( g(x, β) \) is bounded between 0 and 1. We do not have a counterexample to continuity when \( B \) is not a finite set. Note that our consistency result for a mixtures of parametric densities, presented in Section 5.2, has a continuity condition that is easier to verify for discontinuous \( g(x, β) \), as Section 6 discusses.

In addition to **Assumption 1**, we also require that the grid of points be chosen so that the grid \( B_k \) becomes dense in \( B \) in the usual topology on the reals.

**Condition 1.** Let the choice of grids satisfy the following properties:
1. Let \( B_k \) become dense in \( B \) as \( k \to ∞ \).
2. \( F_k \subseteq F_{k+1} \subseteq F \) for all \( k \geq 1 \).
3. \( R(N) \to ∞ \) as \( N \to ∞ \) and it satisfies \( \frac{R(N) \log R(N)}{N} \to 0 \) as \( N \to ∞ \).

The first two parts of this condition have previously been mentioned and ensure that the sieve spaces give increasingly better approximations to the space of multivariate distributions. **Condition 1.3** specifies a rate condition so that the convergence of the sample criterion function \( Q_N(F) \) to the population criterion function \( Q(F) \) is uniform over \( F_k \). Uniform convergence of the criterion function and identification are both key conditions for consistency.

**Theorem 1.** Suppose **Assumption 1** and **Condition 1** hold. Then, \( d_{LP}(F_n, F_0) \to 0 \).

See Appendix B.1 for the proof of the forthcoming Theorem 2, which nests **Theorem 1**.

**Remark 4.** Appendix A proves that this estimation problem is well posed under the definition of Chen (2007).

Next, we consider the distribution function estimator using the log-likelihood criterion. Define the population criterion function and its sample analog, respectively, as
\[
Q(F) = -Q_{ML}^{ML}(F) = -E \left[ \sum_{j=1}^J y_{ij} \log P_j(x_i, F) \right]
\]
and
\[
\hat{Q}_N(F) = -\hat{Q}_{N,ML}^{ML}(F) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^J y_{ij} \log P_j(x_i, F).
\]
for \( F \in F_{R(N)} \). Then we can obtain the ML estimator as in (6) and denote the resulting estimator by \( \hat{F}_{N,ML} \). We obtain the following corollary for the consistency of this ML estimator.

**Corollary 1.** Suppose **Assumption 1** and **Condition 1** hold. Further suppose that \( P_j(x_i, F) \) is bounded away from zero for all \( j \) and \( F \in F \).

Then, \( d_{LP}(\hat{F}_{N,ML}, F_0) \to 0 \).

See Appendix B.2 for the proof.

**Remark 5.** The literature on sieve estimation has not established general results on the asymptotic distribution of sieve estimators, in function space. However, for rich classes of approximating basis functions that do not include our approximation problem, the literature has shown conditions under which finite dimensional functionals of sieve estimators have asymptotically normal distributions. In the case of nonparametric heterogeneous parameters, we might be interested in inference in the mean or median of \( β \).

For demand estimation, say **Example 3**, we might be interested in
average responses (or elasticities) of choice probabilities with respect to changes in particular product characteristics. Let \( \Pi_{0} \) be a sieve approximation to \( \Pi_{0} \) in our sieve space \( \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{FIN}} \). If we could obtain an error bound for \( d_{2}(\Pi_{0}, \Pi_{0}) \), we could also derive the convergence rate in the Lévy–Prokhorov metric (Chen, 2007). If the error bound shrinks fast enough as \( N(N) \) increases, we conjecture that we could also prove that plug-in estimators for functionals of \( \Pi_{0} \) are asymptotically normal (Chen et al., 2003). Error bounds for discrete approximations are available in the literature for a class of parametric distributions \( F \), but we are not aware of results for the unrestricted class of multivariate distributions. For a subset of problems, including the random coefficients logit, we are able to derive approximation error bounds. We provide convergence rates for these cases in Section 7.

5. Extensions

5.1. Models with homogeneous parameters

In many empirical applications, it is common to have both heterogeneous parameters \( \beta \) and finite-dimensional parameters \( \gamma \in \Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{\dim(\gamma)} \). We write the model choice probabilities as \( g(x, \beta, \gamma) \) and the aggregate choice probabilities as \( P(x, \gamma) \). Here we consider the consistency of estimators for models with both homogeneous and heterogeneous parameters. For conciseness, we state a theorem for the least squares criterion and omit a corollary for the likelihood criterion.

Remark 6. Estimating a model allowing a parameter to be a heterogeneous parameter when in truth the parameter is homogeneous will not affect consistency if the model with heterogeneous parameters is identified.

Remark 7. Searching over \( \gamma \) as a homogeneous parameter for the least squares criterion requires nonlinear least squares. The optimization problem may also not be globally convex. The objective function may not be differentiable for our examples where \( g(x, \beta, \gamma) \) involves an indicator function.

Our estimator for models with homogeneous parameters is defined as (similarly to (6))

\[
(\hat{\gamma}_{N}, \hat{\beta}) = \arg\min_{(\gamma, \beta) \in \Gamma \times \mathbb{R}^{\dim(\gamma)}} \hat{Q}_{N}(\gamma, F) + C \cdot \nu_{N},
\]

where \( \hat{Q}_{N}(\gamma, F) \) denotes the corresponding sample criterion function. \( Q(\gamma, F) \) is the population criterion function based on the model \( g(x, \beta, \gamma) \). An alternative computational strategy is profiling, as in

\[
\hat{F}(\gamma) = \arg\min_{F \in \mathcal{FIN}} \hat{Q}_{N}(\gamma, F) + C \cdot \nu_{N} \quad \text{for all} \ \gamma \in \Gamma.
\]

Profiling gives us

\[
\hat{\gamma}_{N} = \arg\min_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \hat{Q}_{N}(\gamma, \hat{F}(\gamma)) + C \cdot \nu_{N},
\]

and therefore \( \hat{F}(\gamma) = \hat{F}_{N}(\hat{\gamma}_{N}) \). We make the following assumptions to prove consistency for models with homogeneous parameters.

Assumption 2. 1. Let \( \mathcal{A} = \Gamma \times \mathcal{F} \) where \( \mathcal{F} \) is compact in the weak topology and \( \Gamma \) is a compact subset of \( \mathbb{R}^{\dim(\gamma)} \) and \( \mathcal{A} \) contains the true (\( \gamma_{0}, F_{0} \)).

2. Let \( (x_{i}, \gamma_{i}) \) be i.i.d.

3. Let \( \beta \) be independently distributed from \( x \).

4. Assume the model \( g(x, \beta, \gamma) \) is identified, meaning that for any \( (\gamma_{1}, F_{1}) \neq (\gamma_{0}, F_{0}) \), \( (\gamma_{1}, F_{1}) \in \Gamma \times \mathcal{F} \), the set \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R} \) where \( P(x, \gamma_{0}, F_{0}) \neq P(x, \gamma_{1}, F_{1}) \) has a positive measure in \( X \).

5. At least one of the following properties holds.

(a) \( g_{j}(x, \beta, \gamma) \) is Lipschitz continuous in \( \gamma \) for each outcome \( j \).

(b) (i) \( \left( \hat{\gamma}_{N}, \hat{F}_{N} \right) \) is well-defined and measurable. (ii) For each outcome \( j \), there exists a vector of known functions \( h_{j}(x, \beta, \gamma) = \left(h_{1}(x, \beta, \gamma), \ldots, h_{j}(x, \beta, \gamma)\right) \) such that, for each \( j \), \( g_{j}(x, \beta, \gamma) = \sum a_{j} \cdot h_{j}(x, \beta, \gamma) \geq 0 \) for some vector of known constants \( a_{j} \). (iii) Each of the \( f \) functions \( h_{j}(x, \beta, \gamma) \) is Lipschitz continuous in \( \gamma \).

6. \( Q(\gamma, F) \) is lower semicontinuous in \( \gamma \), is continuous on \( \mathcal{F} \) in the weak topology, and is continuous at \( (\gamma_{0}, F_{0}) \).

If homogeneous parameters were added in the examples we consider, Assumption 2.5.a would hold for Example 1, the logit model with random coefficients. Assumption 2.5.b might hold for Examples 2 and 3. See the remark below.

We present the consistency theorem for the estimator with homogeneous parameters.

Theorem 2. Suppose Assumption 2 and Condition 1 hold. Then,

\[
\hat{\gamma}_{N} \xrightarrow{p} \gamma_{0} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{F}_{N} \xrightarrow{p} F_{0}.
\]

See Appendix B.1 for the proof. Again, we omit a corollary for the likelihood case.

Remark 8. Assumption 2.5.b is designed to handle extensions of Examples 2 and 3 to include homogeneous parameters. In the extensions of these examples, the homogeneous parameters enter inside indicator functions. The non-primitive portion, Assumption 2.5.b.i, requires that the estimator \( \left( \hat{\gamma}_{N}, \hat{F}_{N} \right) \) be well-defined and measurable, echoing a condition in Lemma A.2 of Chen and Pouzo (2012), which our consistency proof relies on. Remark A.1.i.a in CP states that lower semicontinuity of the least squares sample objective function is a sufficient condition for the estimator to be well-defined and measurable. Even though an indicator function for an open set is lower semicontinuous, the least squares sample objective (or likelihood) function itself might not be lower semicontinuous in \( \gamma \) even if each \( g_{j}(x, \beta, \gamma) \) is lower semicontinuous in \( \gamma \). For example, multiplication by a negative number is enough to change lower semicontinuity into upper semicontinuity. Therefore, we follow the main text of CP and, for the case of indicator functions, maintain the non-primitive assumption that the estimator is well-defined and measurable. Assumption 2.5.b.i states in part that the sample objective function has a unique global optimum. Although Assumption 2.5.b.i may not actually hold if the homogeneous parameters enter inside indicator functions, the sample criterion is converging to a population criterion with a unique global optimum due to Assumptions 2.4 and 2.6. Extending the appendix lemma in Chen and Pouzo (2012) to the case where the sample objective function has a continuum of local maxima (just like in maximum score) is a minor extension that we do not pursue for space reasons. The continuity of the population criterion \( Q(\gamma, F) \) with respect to \( F \) can be satisfied using the sufficient condition discussed in Remark 3 for the earlier Assumption 1.5. The lower semicontinuity with respect to \( \gamma \) may require further primitive conditions, like the conditions on the support of the explanatory variables in the results on binary choice in Ichimura and Thompson (1998, Theorem 1).
5.2. Continuous distribution function estimator

A limitation of the discrete approximation estimator is that the CDF of the heterogeneous parameters will be a step function. In applied work, it is often attractive to have a smooth distribution of heterogeneous parameters. In this subsection, we describe one approach to obtain a continuous distribution or density function estimator that allows for unbounded supports. Instead of modeling the distribution of the heterogeneous parameters as a mixture of point masses, we instead model the density as a mixture of parametric densities, e.g. normal densities. Approximating a density or distribution function using a mixture of parametric densities or distributions is popular (e.g. Jacobs et al., 1991; Li and Barron, 2000; McLachlan and Peel, 2000; Geweke and Keane, 2007). Our estimator’s advantage is its computational simplicity.

As a leading case, let a basis r be a normal distribution with mean the \( K \times 1 \) vector \( \mu_r \) and standard deviation the \( K \times 1 \) vector \( \sigma_r \). Let \( \phi(\beta | \mu_r, \sigma_r) \) denote the joint normal density corresponding to the r-th basis distribution. Under independent normal basis functions, the joint density for a given r is just the product of the marginals, or \( \phi(\beta | \mu_r, \sigma_r) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \phi(\beta_k | \mu_{rk}, \sigma_{rk}) \).

We can also use only a location mixture with the basis functions \( \phi(\beta | \mu_r, \sigma_r) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \phi(\beta_k | \mu_{rk}) \) or use a multivariate normal mixture with the basis functions \( \phi(\beta | \mu_r, \Sigma_r) \), where \( \Sigma_r \) denotes a variance–covariance matrix. We can also consider mixtures of other parametric density functions. We use the generic notation \( \phi(\beta | \lambda^r) \) to denote the r-th basis function, where \( \lambda^r \) is the r-th distribution parameter. Let \( \theta^r \) denote the probability weight given to the r-th basis function, \( \phi(\beta | \lambda^r) \). As in the discrete approximation estimator, the vector of weights \( \theta \) lies in the unit simplex, \( \Delta_k \).

There are many ways to perform \( K \)-dimensional numerical integration, such as sparse grid quadrature (Heiss and Winschel, 2007). Our estimator’s advantage is its computational simplicity.

As a leading case, let a basis r be a normal distribution with mean the \( K \times 1 \) vector \( \mu_r \) and standard deviation the \( K \times 1 \) vector \( \sigma_r \). Let \( \phi(\beta | \mu_r, \sigma_r) \) denote the joint normal density corresponding to the r-th basis distribution. Under independent normal basis functions, the joint density for a given r is just the product of the marginals, or \( \phi(\beta | \mu_r, \sigma_r) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \phi(\beta_k | \mu_{rk}, \sigma_{rk}) \).

We can also use only a location mixture with the basis functions \( \phi(\beta | \mu_r, \sigma_r) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \phi(\beta_k | \mu_{rk}) \) or use a multivariate normal mixture with the basis functions \( \phi(\beta | \mu_r, \Sigma_r) \), where \( \Sigma_r \) denotes a variance–covariance matrix. We can also consider mixtures of other parametric density functions. We use the generic notation \( \phi(\beta | \lambda^r) \) to denote the r-th basis function, where \( \lambda^r \) is the r-th distribution parameter. Let \( \theta^r \) denote the probability weight given to the r-th basis function, \( \phi(\beta | \lambda^r) \). As in the discrete approximation estimator, the vector of weights \( \theta \) lies in the unit simplex, \( \Delta_k \).

5.2.1. Consistency of the continuous distribution function estimator

We show consistency for the continuous distribution function estimator after imposing additional restrictions on the data generating process. For this purpose, we restrict the class of the true distribution functions to

\[
\mathcal{F}^M = \left\{ F : F = \int \Phi(\beta | \lambda) P_\lambda(d\lambda), \ P_\lambda \in \mathcal{P}_2, \ d\Phi(\beta | \lambda) \in G \right\},
\]

such that any distribution in \( \mathcal{F}^M \) is in truth given by a mixture of parametric distributions in \( G \). Note that we allow for \( B = \mathbb{R}^K \) in \( \mathcal{F}^M \), thus removing the restriction that \( B \) is compact underlying Theorem 1. Here \( P_\lambda \) denotes a probability measure on \( \lambda \), the support of the distribution parameter \( \lambda \). This means that we assume the true distribution is in the space of possibly continuous mixtures over some known parametric basis functions. Note, however, that Petersen (1983, as Lemma 3.4 of Zevei and Meir (1997)) suggests that any density function can be approximated to arbitrary accuracy by an infinitely countable convex combination of basis densities, including normals, i.e. \( G \) can be dense in the space of continuous density functions. For example Zevei and Meir (1997) show that \( G \) is dense in the space of all density functions that are bounded away from zero on compact support. Therefore we argue that the class \( \mathcal{F}^M \) can be arbitrarily close to the space of any continuous distribution functions with suitable choices of \( G \). We approximate this possibly continuous mixture using a finite mixture over the same basis functions. Accordingly we construct our sieve space as

\[
\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{R}}^M = \left\{ F \mid F = \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \theta^r \Phi(\beta | \lambda^r), \ d\Phi(\beta | \lambda) \in G, \ \theta \in \Delta_K \right\}.
\]

First consider an estimator ignoring numerical integration error in the regressors

\[
\hat{P}_N(\beta) = \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \hat{\theta}^r \Phi(\beta | \lambda^r),
\]

where \( \hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta \in \Delta_K} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \left( y_{ij} - \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \theta^r \Phi_{ij} \right)^2 \) and \( \Phi_{ij} = \int \Phi(\beta | \lambda^r) d\Phi(\beta | \lambda^r) \) with a choice of grid \( \Delta_K = \{ \lambda^1, \ldots, \lambda^K \} \) on \( \Lambda \). We consider simulation error later.

Let \( F_0 = \int \Phi(\beta | \lambda) P_{0,\lambda}(d\lambda) \in \mathcal{F}^M \). Then we can present the consistency result in terms of estimating the true \( P_{0,\lambda} \) because knowing \( P_\lambda \) fully characterizes the true \( F_0 \) given a researcher’s choice of \( \Phi(\beta | \lambda) \) (e.g. normal distributions). Note that (9) can be also written in terms of estimating \( P_\lambda \) with the estimator

\[
\hat{P}_{\lambda,N}(\lambda) = \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \hat{\theta}^r \Phi(\lambda^r),
\]

where the sieve space for \( P_\lambda \) is given by

\[
\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R},N} = \left\{ P_\lambda \mid P_\lambda(\lambda) = \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \theta^r \Phi(\lambda^r), \ \theta \in \Delta_K \right\}.
\]

Therefore \( \hat{P}_{N} = \int \Phi(\cdot|\lambda^r) dP_{N}(d\lambda) \rightarrow F_0 = \int \Phi(\cdot|\lambda) dP_{0,\lambda}(d\lambda) \) as long as \( \hat{P}_{N} \rightarrow P_\lambda \) because we assume \( F_0 \in \mathcal{F}^M \) and because \( \Phi(\beta | \lambda) \) is continuous in \( \lambda \) for all \( \beta \) and therefore \( F = \int \Phi(\cdot|\lambda) dP_{0,\lambda}(d\lambda) \) is also continuous on \( \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R},N} \) in the Lévy–Prokhorov metric. This facilitates our analysis because we can directly apply Theorem 1 to \( \hat{P}_{\lambda,N} \) under assumptions below. To present the consistency theorem we need additional notation.
Define a sample criterion function in terms of estimating $P_{0,0}$ as
\[
\hat{Q}(P_{0}) \equiv \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ y_i - \int \hat{g}(x_i, \lambda) \, dp_{\lambda}(\lambda) \right]^2 \equiv \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ y_i - \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \theta_i^r \hat{g}(x_i, \lambda_i^r) \right]^2
\]
for $P_{0} \in \mathcal{P}_{0}(R(N))$, where $\hat{g}(x, \lambda_i^r) = \int g(x, \beta) \, d\Phi(\beta | \lambda_i^r)$. Then we can rewrite the estimator
\[
\hat{P}_{0,N} = \arg \min_{P_{0} \in \mathcal{P}_{0}(R(N))} \hat{Q}(P_{0}) + C \cdot v_n
\]
for some positive sequence $v_n$ tending to zero. Also define the population criterion function as
\[
Q(P_{0}) = E \left[ y - \int \hat{g}(x, \lambda) \, dp_{\lambda}(\lambda) \right]^2
\]
We make the following assumptions, which are similar to those used in Theorem 1.

**Assumption 3.** 1. Let $\mathcal{F}^M$ be a space of distribution functions generated by $P_{0}$ in (8), where $\Lambda$ is compact. $\mathcal{F}^M$ contains the true $F_0$.
2. Let $(y_{ij}, x_{ij})_{i=1}^{N}$ be i.i.d.
3. Let both $\beta$ and $\lambda$ be independently distributed from $x$.
4. Assume the model $g(x, \beta)$ is identified, meaning that for any $P_{0,1} \neq P_{0,0}$, the set $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ where $P(x, F_0) \neq P(x, F_1)$ such that $F_0 = \int \Phi(\cdot | \lambda) \, dp_{\lambda}(\lambda)$ and $F_1 = \int \Phi(\cdot | \lambda') \, dp_{\lambda'}(\lambda')$ has a positive measure in $\mathcal{X}$.
5. $Q(P_{0})$ is continuous on $\mathcal{P}_{0}$ in the weak topology.

We leave out lengthy discussion of these assumptions because most of these assumptions are made for similar reasons as those in Assumption 1. More discussion is in the beginning of Section 6. We also require that the choice of grids on $\Lambda$ satisfies the following properties.

**Condition 2.** 1. Let $\Lambda_k = \{\lambda_1^k, \ldots, \lambda_k^k\}$ become dense in $\Lambda$ as $R \to \infty$.
2. $\mathcal{P}_{0,k} \subseteq \mathcal{P}_{0,k+1} \subseteq \mathcal{P}_{0}$ for all $R \geq 1$.
3. $R(N) \to \infty$ as $N \to \infty$ and it satisfies $\frac{R(N) \log R(N)}{N} \to 0$ as $N \to \infty$.

**Theorem 3.** Suppose Assumption 3 and Condition 2 hold. Then, $d_1 \left( \hat{P}_{0,N}, P_{0,0} \right) \to 0$ and $d_1 \left( \hat{P}_{0,N}, F_0 \right) \to 0$.

A brief proof is in an appendix. However, most of the steps mirror the proofs of Theorems 1 and 2, and so the appendix omits the unchanged steps for conciseness.

Next we account for the simulation error in the basis functions from approximating the integral with respect to $\Phi(\beta \mid \lambda_i^r)$. Denote the resulting distribution estimator with simulated basis functions by $\hat{F}_{N,S}(\beta) = \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \hat{\theta}_i^r \Phi(\beta \mid \lambda_i^r)$, where
\[
\hat{\theta}_i^r = \arg \min_{\hat{\theta}_i^r \in \mathcal{F}^M} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{r(N)} \left( y_{ij} - \frac{1}{r(N)} \sum_{r=1}^{r(N)} g(x_i, \beta_i^r) \right)^2.
\]
Note that all simulation draws are independent and that different draws are used for each $r$. We obtain the mixing ratios $\hat{\theta}_i$ as in (12) using the simulated basis functions and our distribution function estimator is still $\hat{F}_{N,S}(\beta)$, which belongs to $\mathcal{F}^M$. Note that we only use simulation to approximate $\Phi(\beta \mid \lambda_i^r)$ and to obtain $\hat{\theta}_i^r$ in (12). Our distribution estimator is still $\hat{F}_{N,S}(\beta)$, not $\hat{F}_{N,S}(\beta) = \sum_{r=1}^{R(N)} \hat{\theta}_i^r \hat{\Phi}(\beta \mid \lambda_i^r)$, because the CDF $\Phi(\beta \mid \lambda_i^r)$ is known to researchers. In the normal distribution case, specialized software calculates the normal CDF $\Phi(\beta \mid \lambda_i^r)$ with much less error than typical simulation approaches. We show our estimator is consistent when the number of simulation draws tends to infinity.

**Theorem 4.** Suppose Assumption 3 and Condition 2 hold. Let $S \to \infty$. Then, $d_1 (\hat{F}_{N,S}, F_0) \to 0$.

The proof is in the appendix.

### 6. Discussion of examples

We return to the examples we introduced in Section 2. We discuss the two key conditions for each model $g(x, \beta)$: Assumption 1.4, identification of $F(\beta)$, and Assumption 1.5, continuity of the population objective function under the Lévy–Prokhorov metric. Throughout this section, we assume Assumptions 1.1–1.3 hold. Note that Matzkin (2007) is an excellent survey of older results on the identification of models with heterogeneity.

For the mixture of continuous densities, the identification of the mixture distribution, Assumption 3.4, will typically occur if the underlying distribution of heterogeneous parameters is identified, Assumption 1.4, and the basis functions are chosen appropriately. We do not need to explicitly verify Assumption 3.4 once Assumption 1.4 is verified. We also do not explicitly verify Assumption 3.5, continuity of the population objective function in the continuous mixtures cases. An important point is that even when $g(x, \beta)$ is nonsmooth as in Examples 2 and 3, $\tilde{g}(x, \lambda) = \int g(x, \beta) \, d\Phi(\beta \mid \lambda)$ can still be continuous and differentiable in $\lambda$ because it is smoothed by integration with respect to the distribution $\Phi(\beta \mid \lambda)$. Therefore, Assumption 3.5 can be satisfied by Remark 2.

**Example 1 (Logit)** The identification of $F(\beta)$ in the random coefficients logit model is the main content of Fox et al. (2012, Theorem 15). Assumption 14 in Fox et al. states that “The support of $x, \mathcal{X}$ contains $x = 0$, but not necessarily an open set surrounding it. Further, the support contains a nonempty open set of points (open in $\mathbb{R}^{\text{dim} \mathcal{S}}$) of the form $(x_2, \ldots, x_{j-1}, x_j, x_{j+1}, \ldots, x_k) = (0', \ldots, 0', x_j, 0', \ldots, 0')$.” Fox et al. also require the support of $\mathcal{X}$ to be a product space, which rules out including polynomial terms in an element of $x_j$ or including interactions of two elements of $x_j$. Given this assumption, Assumption 1.4 holds. Assumption 1.5 holds by Remark 2 in the current paper.

**Example 2 (Binary Choice)** Ichimura and Thompson (1998, Theorem 1) establish the identification of $F(\beta)$ under the conditions that (i) the coefficient on one of the non-intercept explanatory variables in $x$ is known to either always be positive or either always be negative (the sign can be identified), (ii) there is some normalization such as the coefficient known to be positive or negative is always either $+1$ or $-1$ (more generally the random coefficients lie on an unknown hemisphere), (iii) there are large and product supports on each of the explanatory variables other than the intercept. This rules out polynomial terms and interactions. If we impose the scale normalization $\beta_{x}^* = \pm 1$, Assumption 1.4 holds if we add large and product support conditions on each explanatory variable in $x$. An advantage of our estimator is the ease of imposing sign restrictions if necessary. Because the researcher picks...
$\bar{B}(N) = (\bar{\beta}^1, \ldots, \bar{\beta}^{R(N)})$, the researcher can choose the grid so that the first element of each vector $\bar{\beta}^r$ is always positive, for example. Note that binary choice is a special case of multinomial choice, so the non-nested identification conditions in Example 3, can replace those used here. Next, note that the continuity condition (Assumption 1.5) holds by Remark 3 when the support $\mathcal{B}$ is a finite set. We have not shown that continuity holds under only the identification assumptions of Ichimura and Thompson (1998, Theorem 1), although we know of no counterexamples.

Example 3 (Multinomial Choice without Logit Errors) Fox and Gandhi (2015, Theorem 2) study the identification of the multinomial choice model without logit errors. Our linear specification of the utility function for each choice is a special case of what they allow. Fox and Gandhi require a choice-specific explanatory variable with large and product support. On other hand, Fox and Gandhi allow polynomial terms and interactions for $x$'s other than the choice-specific large support explanatory variables, unlike Examples 1 and 2. They do not require large support for the $x$'s that are not the large support, choice-specific explanatory variables. The most important additional assumption for identification is that Fox and Gandhi require that $F(\beta)$ takes on at most a finite number $T$ of support points, although the number $T$ and support point identities $\bar{\beta}^1, \ldots, \bar{\beta}^T$ are learned in identification. The number $T$ in the true $F_0$ is not related in any way to the finite-sample $R(N)$ used for estimation in this paper. So Assumption 1.4 holds under this restriction on $T$. Next, the continuity Assumption 1.5 holds also by Remark 3 when the support $\mathcal{B}$ is a finite set.

7. Estimation error bounds

We next derive convergence rates for the approximation of the underlying distribution of heterogeneous parameters $F(\beta)$ for a subset of the models allowed in the consistency theorems in Sections 3 and 5.2. These results highlight, among other issues, the curse of dimensionality in the dimension of the heterogeneous parameters. Larger sample sizes are needed if the dimension $K$ of the heterogeneous parameters is larger. We present results for the least squares criterion and do not include corollaries for the likelihood criterion.

7.1. Discrete approximation estimator

Our results apply to a narrower set of true models $g_j(x, \beta)$ than the earlier consistency theorems. In particular, we require that $g_j(x, \beta)$ be smooth, so we allow our Example 1, the logit case, but not the other examples, where $g_j(x, \beta)$ involves an indicator function. Nevertheless, the random coefficients logit is a leading model used in empirical work and the results exploiting the smoothness of $g_j(x, \beta)$ are illustrative of issues, such as the curse of dimensionality, that apply also to nonsmooth choices for $g_j(x, \beta)$.

Our results relate to the literature on sieve estimations (e.g., Newey (1997) and Chen (2007)). Of course, the major difference is our choice of discrete basis functions, motivated by our estimator’s computational advantages and our desire to easily constrain our estimate to be a valid CDF. We cannot directly apply previous results because of our different sieve space. Our proof technique to derive our error bounds uses results on quadrature, as we will explain.

We restrict the true distribution $F_0$ to lie in a class of distributions that have smooth densities on a compact space of heterogeneous parameters. We define the parameter space for the choice probabilities $P(x, F)$ as the collection of those generated by such smooth densities:

$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ P(x, F) \mid \max_{0 \leq \beta \leq \mathcal{B}} |Df(\beta)| \leq \bar{C}, \mathcal{B} \right\},$$

where $D^s = \frac{\partial^s}{\partial \beta_1 \cdots \partial \beta_K} F = f$, giving the collection of all derivatives of order $s$. Also, $C^2[\mathcal{B}]$ is a space of $s$-times continuously differentiable density functions defined on $\mathcal{B}$. Therefore we assume any element of the class of density functions that generates $\mathcal{H}$ is defined on a Cartesian product $\mathcal{B}$, is uniformly bounded by $\bar{C} < \infty$, is $s$-times continuously differentiable, and has all own and partial derivatives uniformly bounded by $\bar{C}$. The definition of $\mathcal{H}$ depends on $C$ and $\bar{s}$; the degree of smoothness $\bar{s}$ will show up in our convergence rate results.

Let the space of approximating functions be $\mathcal{H}(N) = \left\{ P(x, F) \mid F \in \mathcal{H}(N) \right\}.$

We require that the grid points accumulate in $\mathcal{H}(N)$ such that $\mathcal{H}_N \subseteq \mathcal{H}_{N+1} \subseteq \ldots$. Our approach uses results from quadrature to pick approximation choices $\theta^r$ such that we can approximate the choice probability $P(x, F_0)$ arbitrarily well using approximating functions in $\mathcal{H}(N)$ as $R(N) \to \infty$.

In this section and in the corresponding proofs, we let $\|v\|_p = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} v_i^2}$, $\|h\|_{L_2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} |h(x_i)|^2$, $\|h\|_{L_2} = \int |h(x)|^2 \sigma$ (the norm in $L_2$), and $\|h\|_{L_2} = \sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |h(x)|^2$ for any function $h : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$, where $\sigma$ denotes a probability measure on $\mathcal{X}$. We introduce the linear probability model error $e_{ij}$ as in $y_{ij} = P(x_i, F) + e_{ij}$ and $E[e_{ij} | X_1, \ldots, X_N] = 0$. In addition to restricting the class of true distributions, we make the following additional assumptions.

Assumption 4. (i) $\left( e_{ij}, (e_{11}, \ldots, e_{ij}) \right)_{i=1}^{N}$ are independently distributed; (ii) $E[e_{ij} | X_1, \ldots, X_N] = 0$; (iii) $(X_{ij})_{ij=1}^{N}$ are i.i.d. with a density function bounded above; (iv) $g_j(x, \beta)$ is $s$-times continuously differentiable w.r.t. $\beta$ and its (all own and partial) derivatives are uniformly bounded; (v) the sieve space defined in (14) satisfies $\mathcal{H}_R \subseteq \mathcal{H}_{R+1} \subseteq \ldots$.

Assumption 4(i)-(iii) are about the structure of the data and in particular they allow for heteroskedasticity for the linear probability error, which is necessary for linear probability models. As previewed earlier, Assumption 4(iv) assumes that the true model $g(x, \beta)$ is differentiable. We use Assumption 4(iv) to approximate $P(x, F)$ using a sieve method for $F$ combined with a quadrature method for the choice of weights $\theta^r$. Assumption 4(iv) is satisfied by Example 1. Assumption 4(v) was mentioned previously.

Any asymptotic error bound consists of two terms: the order of bias and the variance. While obtaining the variance term is rather standard in the sieve estimation literature, deriving the bias term depends on the specific choice of basis function (e.g., power series or splines in the previous literature). Because our choice of basis functions is new in the sieve literature, we first state the order of bias, meaning the approximation error rate of our sieve approximation to arbitrary conditional choice probabilities $P(x, F)$ in $\mathcal{H}$. Keep in mind this bias result is primarily about the flexibility of a class of approximations and has less to do with using a finite sample of data.

Lemma 1. Suppose $P(x, F) \in \mathcal{H}$ and suppose Assumption 4(iv) and (v) hold. Then there exist $F^* \in \mathcal{F}(N)$ such that for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\|P(x, F^*) - P(x, F)\|_{L_2}^2 = O(R^{-2s/K}).$ Further suppose Assumption 4(i)-(iii) hold. Then, $\|P(x_i, F^*) - P(x_i, F)\|_{L_2}^2 = O_s(R^{-2s/K}).$
To prove this result, we combine a quadrature approximation with a power series approximation to approximate \( P(x, F) = \int g(x, \beta) f(\beta) d\beta \). We first approximate \( g(x, \beta) f(\beta) \) using a tensor product power series in \( \beta \). Then we approximate the integral of the tensor products approximation with respect to \( \beta \) using quadrature. The complete proof is in Appendix C.3.

Lemma 1 is the key ingredient that allows us to use machinery from the sieve literature for our estimator. Let \( C \) be a generic positive constant. Define \( \Psi_R \equiv \left( E \left[ \sum_{i \leq R} \hat{g}_i(x_i, \beta) g_i(x_i, \beta) \right] \right) \leq \sum_{i \leq R} (a R \times R matrix) \) and its smallest eigenvalue as \( \xi_{\min}(R) \). Then we obtain the following estimation error bounds.

**Theorem 5.** Suppose Assumptions 1.1, 1.3, and 1.4 and Condition 1 hold. Suppose Assumption 4 holds. Suppose further that \( R(N)^2 \log(R(N)) \rightarrow 0 \) and \( \xi_{\min}(R) > 0 \) for all finite \( R \). Then if \( P(x, F_0) \in \mathcal{H} \) and \( C \) is a particular constant,

\[
\left\| P(x, \hat{F}_N) - P(x, F_0) \right\|^2_{L^2(N)} \leq C \cdot \max \left\{ \frac{R(N) \log(R(N))}{\xi_{\min}(R(N)) \cdot N}, \frac{R(N)^2}{N} \right\} \text{ w.p.a.1.}
\]

Theorem 5 establishes a bound on the distance between the true conditional choice probability and the approximated conditional choice probability. It shows how the finite-sample estimator is able to fit data generated by a nonparametric choice of a heterogeneity distribution. Roughly speaking, in the estimation error bound the first term in the max operator corresponds to an asymptotic variance and the second term corresponds to an asymptotic bias (Chen, 2007). Fixing \( N \), a larger \( R(N) \) reduces the bias but increases the variance and an optimal choice of \( R(N) \) is obtained by balancing the bias and variance. Obtaining the variance term is standard in the sieve estimation literature and obtaining the bias term requires approximation results that depend on the type of sieves (in the previous literature, e.g., power series or splines). In the proof, we obtain this bias term using Lemma 1.

There are several lessons from this error bound. The approximation error rate in the bias term shows that we have faster convergence with a smoother density function \( g \) and slower convergence with a higher dimensional \( \beta, K \). These results are intuitive. In many other settings, smoother distributions are easier to approximate and higher dimensional distributions are harder to approximate. Practically, one might want to use caution when estimating an unrestricted joint distribution of \( \beta \) when \( K \) is large.

Note that the condition \( \xi_{\min}(R) > 0 \) for all finite \( R \) in Theorem 5 means the regressors \( g(x_i, \beta) \) are not linearly dependent across different \( \beta \) in least squares estimation. Theorem 5 allows the case \( \lim_{R \to \infty} \xi_{\min}(R) = 0 \) but this term drops out in the convergence rate if \( \lim_{R \to \infty} \xi_{\min}(R) > 0 \). The case \( \lim_{R \to \infty} \xi_{\min}(R) = 0 \) means that \( \Psi_R \), which is the probability limit (as \( N \to \infty \) with fixed \( R \)) of the sample matrix \( \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \hat{g}_i(x_i, \beta) g_j(x_i, \beta) \right)_{1 \leq i, j \leq N} \) tends to be singular as \( R \) grows to infinity. In this case, as often proposed in the literature (e.g. Hastie et al., 2009), we can potentially reduce the variance of resulting estimators using a subset selection method or a shrinkage method, such as LASSO and ridge/Tikhonov regression. On the other hand, these approaches can cause additional bias in finite samples.

The previous theorem was for choice probabilities, but we are also interested in the distribution function itself. Using the result in Theorem 5, we can approximate the distribution of heterogeneous parameters with the following convergence rate.

**Theorem 6.** Suppose the assumptions and conditions in Theorem 5 hold. Then for a particular constant \( C \), w.p.a.1

\[
\left| \hat{F}_N(\beta) - F_0(\beta) \right| \leq C \left\{ \frac{R(N)}{\xi_{\min}(R(N))} \right\} \max \left\{ \frac{R(N) \log(R(N))}{\xi_{\min}(R(N)) \cdot N}, \frac{R(N)^2}{N} \right\} \text{ a.e. } \beta \in \mathcal{B}.
\]

Not surprisingly, the bias term in this bound suggests that the estimator of the distribution function suffers from a curse of dimensionality in the number of heterogeneous parameters \( K \) and has a faster rate of convergence if the true generating process is smoother, as indexed by \( s \).

### 7.2. Continuous distribution function with compact support

Here we consider the asymptotics for the smooth density estimator proposed in Section 5.2. In this approach, we approximate the vector of choice probabilities \( P(x_1, \ldots, x_j) \) using smooth basis functions as

\[
P(x_1, \ldots, x_j) \approx \sum_{r=1}^{R} \beta^r g(x_i, \beta^r) \Phi(\beta^r | \lambda^r),
\]

where \( \Phi(\beta^r | \lambda^r) \) denotes the \( r \)th basis distribution function. We focus on simulation as the numerical integration technique. Therefore,

\[
P(x_1, \ldots, x_j) \approx \sum_{r=1}^{R} \beta^r \left( \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} g(x_i, \beta^r, \lambda^r) \right),
\]

where the \( \beta^r, \lambda^r \) are drawn from \( \Phi(\beta | \lambda^r) \). We then can rewrite (15) as

\[
P(x_1, \ldots, x_j) \approx \sum_{r=1}^{R} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \beta^r g(x_i, \beta^r, \lambda^r) = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \hat{\beta}^r g(x_i, \beta^r)
\]

for some \( \hat{\beta}^r \). Therefore, we can interpret (15) as the discrete approximation of \( P(x_1, \ldots, x_j) \) with \( R \times S \) grid points and \( R \times (S - 1) \) restrictions such that the first group of \( S \) coefficients on the first group of \( S \) regressors are identical to \( \frac{\beta^1}{\sqrt{S}} \), the second group of \( S \) coefficients on the second group of \( S \) regressors are identical to \( \frac{\beta^2}{\sqrt{S}} \), and so on.

Therefore, the smooth mixture model can be nested in the discrete approximation case if the support of \( \beta \) is bounded. To see this note that we have \( \hat{F}_{N,S}(\beta) = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \hat{\beta}^r \Phi(\beta | \lambda^r) + \sum_{r=1}^{R} \hat{\beta}^r \Phi(\beta | \lambda^r) \) and the simulation-approximated distribution estimator by \( \tilde{F}_{N,S}(\beta) = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \hat{\beta}^r \Phi(\beta | \lambda^r) \) where \( \hat{\beta}^r \) solves (12). Then we can obtain

\[
\left| \hat{F}_{N,S}(\beta) - F_0(\beta) \right| \leq \left| \hat{F}_{N,S}(\beta) - \tilde{F}_{N,S}(\beta) \right| + \left| \tilde{F}_{N,S}(\beta) - F_0(\beta) \right|
\]

\[
\leq \sum_{r=1}^{R} \left| \hat{\beta}^r - \tilde{\beta}^r \right| \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \left| \beta^r \right| - \Phi(\beta | \lambda^r)
\]

\[
+ \left| \tilde{F}_{N,S}(\beta) - F_0(\beta) \right| \leq 0
\]

(16)
as $N \to \infty$ and $S \to \infty$. The first term in (16) goes to zero because for any given $r$ the empirical distribution obtained from the simulation draws converges to the CDF of the draws (by the Glivenko–Cantelli theorem) and the second term in (16) goes to zero because $F_{N,S}(\beta)$ can be seen exactly as our discrete approximation estimator. We can also bound the convergence rate of the first term in (16) by $R(N) / \sqrt{S}$. Note that the term $\left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{S}} \sum_{i=1}^{S} [1 \{ \beta^{i} \leq \beta \} - \Phi(\beta | \lambda_i) \} = O_{\text{pr}}(1) \right.$ for each given $\lambda_i$ by a central limit theorem because $\beta^{i}$ are iid draws from $\Phi(\beta | \lambda_i)$ and $E[1 \{ \beta^{i} \leq \beta \} = \Phi(\beta | \lambda_i)$ for each $r$, where $E[\cdot]$ denotes expectation and $\mathbb{P}$ denotes probability measure with respect to the simulation draw. It follows that $\sum_{N=1}^{N} \hat{\beta}^{i} \frac{1}{\sqrt{S}} \sum_{i=1}^{S} [1 \{ \beta^{i} \leq \beta \} - \Phi(\beta | \lambda_i)] \leq C \cdot R(N) / \sqrt{S}$ w.p.a.1, which is the bound for the first term in (16). As discussed above, Theorem 6 gives the convergence rate of the second term in (16), again because $F_{N,S}(\beta)$ can be seen exactly as our discrete approximation estimator.

Of course, the approach of nesting the mixture of continuous densities into the discrete approximation does not handle the full set of models allowed by the consistency theorem, Theorem 3. In particular, mixtures of normals are not allowed. Future work could explore more general results for the rate of convergence of the estimator using a mixture of continuous densities.

8. Conclusion

Previous papers have introduced fixed grid estimators for distributions of heterogeneity in structural models. We explore the asymptotic properties of the nonparametric distribution estimators. We show consistency in the function space of all distributions under the weak topology by viewing our estimators as sieve estimators and verifying high-level conditions in Chen and Pouzo (2012). We also show consistency for (i) a model with homogeneous parameters and (ii) an estimator based on a mixture over smooth basis distribution functions on possibly unbounded supports. We verify some of the conditions for consistency for three example discrete choice models, each of which is widely used in empirical work. We also derive the convergence rates of the least squares nonparametric estimator for a class of differentiable models, for which we can derive the approximation error rates of our nonparametric sieve space.

Appendix A. Well-posedness

Chen (2007) and Carrasco et al. (2007) distinguish between functional (here the distribution) optimization and identification problems that are well-posed and problems that are ill-posed. Using Chen’s definition, the optimization problem of maximizing the population criterion function $Q$ with respect to the distribution function $F$ will be well-posed if $d_{\text{pr}}(F_0, F_1) \to 0$ for all sequences $(F_i)$ in $\mathcal{F}$ such that $Q(F_0) - Q(F_1) \to 0$. The problem will be ill-posed if there exists a sequence $(F_i)$ in $\mathcal{F}$ such that $Q(F_0) - Q(F_1) \to 0$ but $d_{\text{pr}}(F_0, F_1) \to 0$. We now argue that our problem is well-posed.

Note that $\mathcal{F}$ is compact in the weak topology (Assumption 1.1). Also, $Q(F)$ is continuous on $\mathcal{F}$ by Assumption 1.5. It follows that with our choice of the criterion function and metric, our optimization problem is well posed in the sense of Chen (2007) because for every $\epsilon > 0$ we have

\[ \inf_{F \in \mathcal{F}} (Q(F) - Q(F_0)) \geq \inf_{F \in \mathcal{F}} (Q(F) - Q(F_0)) > 0, \]

where the first inequality holds because $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{N}) \subset \mathcal{F}$ by construction and the second, strict inequality holds as the minimum is attained by continuity and compactness and because the model is identified (Assumption 1.4), as we argue in the proof of Theorem 1. Therefore, our optimization problem satisfies Chen’s definition of well-posedness.

Appendix B. Proofs of consistency

B.1. Proofs of Theorems 1 and 2

We provide proof of the consistency theorem for models with homogeneous parameters because the essentially same proof can be applied to the models without homogeneous parameters. We verify the conditions of CP’s Lemma A.2 (also see Theorem 3.1 in Chen (2007)) in our consistency proof. To provide completeness, we first present our simplified version of CP’s Lemma A.2, which does not incorporate a penalty function. We let $\lambda = (\gamma, F) \in \mathcal{A} \equiv \Gamma \times \mathcal{F}$, $A_{R(\mathcal{N})} = \Gamma \times \mathcal{F}_{\text{R(\mathcal{N})}}$, and with possible abuse of notation $d_{\text{pr}}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \equiv \| \gamma_1 - \gamma_2 \|_E + d_{\text{pr}}(F, F_2)$ for $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathcal{A}$. Define $\hat{Q}_0(\alpha) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ y_i - \int g(x_i, \beta, \gamma) \, dF \right]_E^2$ and $Q(\alpha) = E \left[ \| y - \int g(x, \beta, \gamma) \, dF \right]_E^2$.

**Lemma 2. Lemma A.2 of CP:** Let $\hat{\alpha}_N = (\hat{\gamma}, \hat{F}_N)$ be such that $Q_0(\hat{\alpha}_N) \leq \inf_{\alpha \in A_{R(\mathcal{N})}} Q_0(\alpha) + O_P(\sqrt{N})$ with $\sqrt{N} \to 0$. Suppose the following conditions (B.2.1)–(B.2.4) hold:

- (B.2.1) (i) $Q(\alpha) < \infty$; (ii) there is a positive function $\delta(N, R(N), \epsilon)$ such that for each $N \geq 1$, $R \geq 1$, and $\epsilon > 0$, $\inf_{\alpha \in A_{R(\mathcal{N})}} d_{\text{pr}}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \geq Q(\alpha) - Q(\alpha_0) \geq \delta(N, R(N), \epsilon)$ and $\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \inf_{\alpha \in A_{R(\mathcal{N})}} \delta(N, R(N), \epsilon) \leq 0$ for all $\epsilon > 0$.

- (B.2.2) (i) $(A, d_{\text{pr}}(\cdot))$ is a metric space; (ii) $A_{R(\mathcal{N})} \subseteq A_{R+1} \subseteq A$ for all $R \geq 1$, and there exists a sequence $\Pi_0(\alpha_0) \in A_{R(\mathcal{N})}$ such that $d_{\text{pr}}(\Pi_0(\alpha_0), \alpha_0) \to 0$.

- (B.2.3) (i) $Q_0(\alpha)$ is a measurable function of the data $(y_i, x_i)_{i=1}^{N}$ for all $\alpha \in A_{R(\mathcal{N})}$; (ii) $Q_0(\alpha)$ is well-defined and measurable with respect to the Borel $\sigma$-field generated by the metric $d_{\text{pr}}(\cdot, \cdot)$.

- (B.2.4) (i) Let $\hat{c}^2(\mathcal{R}(N)) = \inf_{\alpha \in A_{R(\mathcal{N})}} \hat{Q}_0(\alpha) - Q(\alpha)_{\mathcal{F}}(\cdot, \cdot) \to 0$; (ii) $\max \{ \hat{c}^2(\mathcal{R}(N)), \sqrt{N}, | Q(\Pi_0(\alpha_0) - Q(\alpha_0)) \} / \delta(N, R(N), \epsilon) \to 0$ for all $\epsilon > 0$.

Then $d_{\text{pr}}(\hat{\alpha}_N, \alpha_0) \to 0$.

Using Lemma 2 we now provide our consistency proof for the least squares estimator. Because our estimator is an extremum estimator, we can take $\sqrt{N}$ to be arbitrarily small. We start with the condition (B.2.1). The condition $Q(\alpha) < \infty$ holds because $Q(\alpha) \leq 1$ for all $\alpha \in A$, because we have a linear probability model. Next we will verify the condition

\[ \inf_{\alpha \in A} Q(\alpha) - Q(\alpha_0) \geq \delta(N, R(N), \epsilon) > 0 \]

for each $N \geq 1$, $R(N) \geq 1$, $\epsilon > 0$, and some positive function $\delta(N, R(N), \epsilon)$ to be defined below. We will use our assumption of identification (Assumption 1.4). Let $m(x, \alpha) = P(x, \alpha_0) - P(x, \alpha)$, where $P(x, \alpha) = \int g(x, \beta, \gamma) \, dF(\beta)$. Note that we have

\[ Q(\alpha) = E \left[ \| y - P(x, \alpha) + m(x, \alpha) \|_E^2 / \| F \|_E^2 \right] \]

\[ = E \left[ \| y - P(x, \alpha) \|_E^2 / \| F \|_E^2 + E \left[ \| m(x, \alpha) \|_E^2 / \| F \|_E^2 \right] \right] \]

(19)

because $E[y - P(x, \alpha_0) / \sqrt{N}] = 0$ by the law of iterated expectation and $E[y - P(x, \alpha_0)] \| F \|_E^2 = 0$. Therefore, for each $\alpha \in A$,
we have
\[ Q(\alpha) - Q(\alpha_0) = E \left[ \|m(x, \alpha)\|^2_F / J \right] - E \left[ \|m(x, \alpha_0)\|^2_F / J \right] \]
\[ = E \left[ \|m(x, \alpha)\|^2_J / J \right] \] (20)
because \( m(x, \alpha_0) = 0 \). The condition (18) now holds due to our assumption of identification, as the following argument shows.

Consider \( E[\|m(x, \alpha)\|^2_F] \), with \( m(x, \alpha) \) defined above, as a map from \( \mathcal{A} \) to \( \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\} \). For any \( \alpha \not= \alpha_0 \), \( E[\|m(x, \alpha)\|^2_F] \) takes on positive values for each \( \alpha \in \mathcal{A} \), because the model is identified on a set \( \chi \) with positive probability. Then note that \( E[\|m(x, \alpha)\|^2_F] \) is continuous in \( \alpha \) and also note that \( \mathcal{A}_{B(N)} \) is compact. Therefore \( E[\|m(x, \alpha)\|^2_F] \) attains some strictly positive minimum on \( \{ \alpha \in \mathcal{A}_{B(N)} : \|m(x, \alpha)\| \geq \varepsilon \} \). We can then take \( \delta(N, R(N), \varepsilon) = \inf_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}_{B(N)}} \{ \|m(x, \alpha)\|^2_F \} > 0 \) for all \( R(N) \geq 1 \) with \( \varepsilon > 0 \).

We have shown that \( \delta(N, R(N), \varepsilon) > 0 \) for all \( N \) and hence \( \lim_{N \to \infty} \delta(N, R(N), \varepsilon) \geq 0 \). This is enough for (B.2.1). However, under our assumptions indeed \( \lim_{N \to \infty} \delta(N, R(N), \varepsilon) > 0 \) because
\[
\delta(N, R(N), \varepsilon) = \inf_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}_{B(N)}} \{ \|m(x, \alpha)\|^2_F \} > 0,
\]
where the first inequality holds because \( \mathcal{A}_{B(N)} \subseteq \mathcal{A} \) by construction and the second, strict inequality holds because the model is identified (Assumption 1.4). Here, \( \lim_{N \to \infty} \delta(N, R(N), \varepsilon) > 0 \) holds because the last term on the right-hand side of the above inequality does not depend on \( N \) and the term is strictly positive.7 This result makes it convenient to verify (B.2.4)(ii) below.

Next we consider (B.2.2). First note that \( \{ A, d_A \} \) is a metric space and we have \( \mathcal{A}_{B \infty} \subseteq \mathcal{A}_{B_{k+1}} \subseteq \mathcal{A} \) for all \( k \geq 1 \) by construction of our sieve space. Then we claim that there exists a sequence of functions \( \Pi_N(0) \in \mathcal{A}_{B_{k+1}} \) such that \( d_A(\Pi_N(0), 0) \to 0 \) as \( N \to \infty \). First, \( \mathcal{A}_{B_{k+1}} \) becomes dense in \( \mathcal{A} \) by assumption. Second, \( \mathcal{A}_{B_{k+1}} \) becomes dense in \( \mathcal{A} \) because the distribution of \( Y_{R(N)} \) on a dense subset \( \mathcal{A}_{B_{k+1}} \subseteq \mathcal{A} \) is itself dense. To see this, remember that the class of all distributions with finite support is dense in the class of all distributions (Aliprantis and Border, 2006, Theorem 15.10). Any distribution with finite support can be approximated using a finite support in a dense subset \( \mathcal{A}_{B_{k+1}} \) (Huber, 1981, 2004).

Next we consider (B.2.3). As Theorem 1 is a special case of Theorem 2, we focus explicitly on Theorem 2. Consider first Assumption 2.5.a. Remark A.1.1 (a) of CP says that (B.2.3) holds if each sieve space \( \mathcal{A}_k \) is compact and the finite-sample objective function is lower semicontinuous in \( (\gamma, F) \). First note that \( \mathcal{F}_k \) is a compact subset of \( \mathcal{F} \) for each \( k \) because \( \mathcal{B}_k \) is a compact subset of \( \mathcal{B} \) and hence \( \mathcal{A}_k \) is also a compact subset of \( \mathcal{A} \).8 Second we show that

7 As we discussed in the main text the space \( \mathcal{F} \) of distributions on \( \mathcal{B} \) is compact in the weak topology because \( \mathcal{B}_k \) is itself compact.

8 Alternatively we can also see that \( \mathcal{F}_k \) is compact because the simplex, \( \mathcal{A}_{B\infty} \), itself is compact as we argue below. For any given \( k \) and \( \mathcal{B}_k \), consider two metric spaces, \( (\mathcal{F}_k, d_{\mathcal{F}_k}) \) and \( (\mathcal{A}_k, \|\cdot\|_1) \). Then we can define a continuous map \( \psi : \mathcal{A}_k \to \mathcal{F}_k \) because any element in \( \mathcal{A}_k \) determines an element in \( \mathcal{F}_k \). The map is continuous in the sense that for any sequence \( \alpha_n \to \alpha \) in \( \mathcal{A}_k \) we have \( \psi(\alpha_n) \to \psi(\alpha) \) in \( \mathcal{F}_k \). Then it is a simple proof to show that if \( \mathcal{A}_k \) is compact, then \( \mathcal{F}_k = \psi(\mathcal{A}_k) \) is also compact.

Proof. Consider an arbitrary sequence \( \{\alpha_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_k \). For each \( \alpha_n \), \( \psi(\alpha_n) \) is a point in \( \mathcal{A}_k \) for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), we know that there exists some \( \theta_n \in \mathcal{A}_k \) with \( \psi(\alpha_n) = \psi(\theta_n) \) for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \). Then \( \{\theta_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{A}_k \). Next note that since \( \mathcal{A}_k \) is compact, there exists some subsequence \( \{\theta_{n_l}\} \subseteq \{\theta_n\} \) with \( \theta_{n_l} \to \theta \) in \( \mathcal{A}_k \). Since the map \( \psi \) is continuous, it follows that \( \psi(\theta_{n_l}) \to \psi(\theta) \). And because \( \psi(\theta_{n_l}) \to \psi(\theta) \) in \( \mathcal{F}_k \). Therefore, we conclude \( \psi(\theta) \) is also compact when \( \mathcal{A}_k \) is compact. □
to the Vapnik–Červonenkis class and has a uniformly bounded entropy (Theorem 2.6.7 of Van der Vaart and Wellner, 1996).

Now we verify the entropy condition associated with $\mathcal{F}_{R(\mathbb{N})}$. Let $\Delta_{R(N)}$ be the $R(N)$ unit simplex. Using measures of complexity of spaces, we let $N(\epsilon, \mathcal{T}, \parallel \cdot \parallel)$ denote the covering number of the set $\mathcal{T}$ with balls of radius $\epsilon$ with an arbitrary norm $\parallel \cdot \parallel$ and let $N_{\mathcal{H}}(\epsilon, \mathcal{T}, \parallel \cdot \parallel)$ denote the bracketing number of the set $\mathcal{T}$ with $\epsilon$-brackets. For ease of notation, below we suppress $\gamma$ (the result holds for any given $\gamma \in \Gamma$) and define for any $R$, the class of measurable functions

$$\Psi_R = \left\{ l(y, x, \theta) = \left| y - \sum_r \theta^y g(x, \beta^y) \right|^2 : \theta \in \Delta_R \right\}. \quad (23)$$

Note (i) $\hat{Q}_N(\theta) = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N l(y_i, x_i, \theta)$, (ii) $(y_i, x_i)_{i=1}^N$ are i.i.d., and (iii) $E[\sup_{\theta \in \Delta_{R(N)}} l(y, x, \theta)] \leq 1 < \infty$. Then by Pollard (1984, Theorem II.24) (also see Chen (2007, Section 3.1, page 5592) for related discussion), the entropy condition to satisfy becomes $\log N(\epsilon, \Psi_R, \parallel \cdot \parallel_{L_1(N)})/N \to 0$ for all $\epsilon > 0$, where $\parallel \cdot \parallel_{L_1(N)}$ denotes the $L_1(\mathbb{P}_{\theta})$-norm and $\mathbb{P}_{\theta}$ denotes the empirical measure of the data $(y_i, x_i)_{i=1}^N$.

The term $l(y, x, \theta_1)$ is Lipshitz in $\theta$, as

$$\left| l(y, x, \theta_1) - l(y, x, \theta_2) \right| \leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^r \left( 2y_j \sum_r g(x, \beta^r) |\theta_1^j - \theta_2^j| \right. + \left. \sum_r g(x, \beta^r) (\theta_1^j + \theta_2^j) (\theta_1^j - \theta_2^j) \right) \leq M(\parallel \cdot \parallel) \sum_{j=1}^r |\theta_1^j - \theta_2^j| \leq M(\parallel \cdot \parallel) \sqrt{R} |\theta_1 - \theta_2| \quad \text{for any norm} \parallel \cdot \parallel.$$  

with some function $E[M(\parallel \cdot \parallel)^2] < \infty$. The first inequality is obtained by the triangle inequality and the third inequality holds due to the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality. We also know $\Delta_R$ is a compact subset of $\mathbb{R}^J$. Now take $M(\parallel \cdot \parallel) = 4$, noting that $y_j, g(x, \beta^y)$, and $\sum_r g(x, \beta^y)$ are uniformly bounded by 1. Then from (Theorem 2.7.11 of Van der Vaart and Wellner (1996)), we have $N_{\mathcal{H}}(\epsilon, \Psi_R, \parallel \cdot \parallel_{L_1}) \leq N \left( \frac{4 \epsilon^2}{\sqrt{R}}, \Delta_R, \parallel \cdot \parallel_{L_1} \right) = \left( \frac{4 \epsilon^2}{\sqrt{R}} \right)^R$ for any norm $\parallel \cdot \parallel$. Therefore as long as $R(N) \log R(N)/N \to 0$, the entropy condition associated with $\mathcal{F}_{R(\mathbb{N})}$ holds because $N(\epsilon, \Psi_R, \parallel \cdot \parallel_{L_1(N)}) \leq N_{\mathcal{H}}(\epsilon, \Psi_R, \parallel \cdot \parallel_{L_1(N)}) \leq \left( \frac{4 \epsilon^2}{\sqrt{R}} \right)^R$ (Van der Vaart and Wellner, 1996, page 84).

To satisfy the second condition in (B.2.4), we need to bound all three terms in the max{} function. We have shown the uniform convergence of the sample criterion function (this also satisfies (B.2.4)(i)) and we can take $\nu_k$ to be small enough. We also have $\left| Q(\mathbb{T}_k\theta_0) - Q(\theta_0) \right| \to 0$, which is trivially satisfied by the continuity of $Q(\theta)$ at $\theta_0$ and $d_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbb{T}_k \theta_0, \theta_0) \to 0$. Therefore because $\lim \inf_{N \to \infty} \delta(N, R(N), \epsilon) > 0$, the condition (B.2.4)(ii) is satisfied.

We have verified all the conditions in Lemma 2 (Lemma A.2 of CP) and this completes the consistency proof.

B.2. Proof of Corollary 1

Similarly to the baseline least squares estimator, using Lemma 2 we show the consistency of the ML estimator. For ease of notation, we consider the model with heterogeneous parameters only. The following proof is parallel to the least squares case.

We start with (B.2.1). First, the condition $Q(\theta_0) < \infty$ holds under the assumption that $P_j(x, \theta_0)$ is bounded away from zero for all $j \leq J$. Similarly to the least squares case, next we show that for $\epsilon > 0$

$$\lim \inf_{F \in \mathcal{F}_{R(N)}, d_{\mathcal{P}}(F, F_0) \geq \epsilon} Q(F) - Q(F_0) > 0. \quad (24)$$

Note that for any $F \neq F_0$, we have

$$Q(F) - Q(F_0) = -E \left[ \sum_{j=1}^J y_j \log P_j(x, F) - \sum_{j=1}^J y_j \log P_j(x, F_0) \right] = -E \left[ \log \left( \prod_{j=1}^J \frac{P_j(x, F)}{P_j(x, F_0)} \right)^{y_j} \right]$$

$$> - \log E \left[ \prod_{j=1}^J \frac{P_j(x, F)}{P_j(x, F_0)} \right] \geq 0, \quad (25)$$

where the inequality holds by Jensen’s inequality. Here the strict inequality holds because $P(x, \theta_0) \neq P(x, F)$ with positive probability for any $F \neq F_0$ (Assumption 1.4). The third equality holds by the law of iterated expectation and $\Pr[y_j = 1|x] = P_j(x, F_0)$. The last result holds because $\sum_{j=1}^J P_j(x) = 1$ by construction. Therefore, (24) is satisfied because (25) holds for any $F \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $d_{\mathcal{P}}(F, F_0) \geq \epsilon$, by essentially the same argument for the least squares case.

Next, (B.2.2) holds by the same argument for the proof of the least squares estimator.

Next, we show (B.2.3) holds. We use Remark A.1.(i)(a) of CP. First note that $\mathcal{F} = \{ \mathcal{F}_k \}_{k=1}^K$ is a compact subset of $\mathcal{F}$ for each $R$ because $\mathcal{B}_R$ is a compact subset of $\mathcal{B}$. Second we need to show for any data $(y_i, x_i)_{i=1}^N$, $\hat{Q}_N(F)$ is continuous on $\mathcal{F}_k$ for each $R \geq 1$. Using the inequality that for $0 < c \leq a, b$, $|\log a - \log b| \leq |a - b|/c$, we obtain for some constant $C$

$$\left| \hat{Q}_N(F_1) - \hat{Q}_N(F_2) \right| \leq \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^J y_i \left| \log P_j(x_i, F_1) - \log P_j(x_i, F_2) \right|/N \leq C \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^J y_i \left| P_j(x, F_1) - P_j(x, F_2) \right|/N$$

$$\leq C \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \left| \int g(x, \beta)(dF_1 - dF_2) \right|/N$$

and therefore (B.2.3) holds by the essentially same argument to the proof of the least squares case (see the discussion below (21)).

Next there are two conditions to verify in (B.2.4). We first focus on the uniform convergence of the sample criterion function. Here we need to verify the uniform convergence over $\mathcal{F}_{R(N)}$ such that

$$\sup_{F \in \mathcal{F}_{R(N)}} \left| \hat{Q}_N(F) - Q(F) \right| \to 0. \quad (26)$$

For this purpose, it is convenient to view $\hat{Q}_N(F)$ and $Q(F)$ as functions of $\theta \in \Delta_{R(N)}$ and write them as $\hat{Q}_N(\theta)$ and $Q(\theta)$, respectively. Then define, for any $R$, the class of measurable functions

$$g^M_R(\theta) = \left\{ l(y, x, \theta) = \sum_{j=1}^J y_j \log \left( \sum_{\beta} \theta^\beta g(x, \beta^\theta) \right) : \theta \in \Delta_R \right\}. \quad (27)$$

Note (i) $\hat{Q}_N(\theta) = -N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N l(y_i, x_i, \theta)$, (ii) $(y_i, x_i)_{i=1}^N$ are i.i.d., and (iii) $E \left[ \sup_{\theta \in \Delta_{R(N)}} l(y, x, \theta) \right] < \infty$. Then by Pollard (1984,
Theorem II.24 (also see Chen (2007, Section 3.1, page 5592) for related discussion), the entropy condition becomes log N(ε, θ^*)/ε · ||L_{1,N}/N/ε → 0 for all ε > 0. Using the inequality that for 0 < c ≤ a, b, |log a − log b| ≤ |a − b|/c, we obtain for some constant C

\[ |l(y, x, \theta_1) − l(y, x, \theta_2)| \]

\[ = \sum_{j=1}^{N} y_j \bigg( \log \bigg( \sum \theta_0^j g_j(x, \beta^*) \bigg) - \log \bigg( \sum \theta_2^j g_j(x, \beta^*) \bigg) \bigg) \]

\[ \leq C \sum_{j=1}^{N} y_j \bigg| \sum \theta_0^j g_j(x, \beta^*) - \sum \theta_2^j g_j(x, \beta^*) \bigg| \]

\[ \leq C \sum_{j=1}^{N} \bigg| \sum \theta_0^j g_j(x, \beta^*) \bigg| \bigg| \theta_1^j - \theta_2^j \bigg| \]

\[ \leq M(\cdot) \sum_{j=1}^{N} \bigg| \theta_1^j - \theta_2^j \bigg| \leq M(\cdot) \sqrt{N} \| \theta_1 - \theta_2 \|_E \]

with some tolerance E[N(⋅)^2] < ∞. Therefore, the first condition in (B.2.4) holds by the essentially same argument to the proof of the least squares case. Finally, the second condition in (B.2.4) also holds by the essentially same argument to the proof of the least squares case. We have verified all the conditions in Lemma 2 (Lemma A.2 of CP) for the ML estimator.

B.3. Proof of Theorem 3

We can prove Theorem 3 by verifying conditions (B.2.1)–(B.2.4) in Lemma 2, just as in the proof of Theorem 1. Observe that (B.2.1)–(B.2.2) are clearly satisfied because the arguments that (B.2.1)–(B.2.2) are satisfied within the proof of Theorem 1 follow almost exactly if we replace g(x, ω^*), f, F, and Q(F) with \( \hat{g}(x, \lambda^*) \), \( \hat{P}_r, \cdot, \Lambda_r \), and \( Q(\cdot) \). The verification of (B.2.3) also follows the arguments in the proof of Theorem 1, instead using \( \hat{Q}_n(P_r) \) and \( \Lambda_r \). Condition (B.2.4), regarding the uniform convergence of \( \hat{Q}_n(P_r) \) to \( Q(P_r) \), is satisfied by invoking the same arguments as in the proof of Theorem 1, using \( \hat{Q}_n(P_r) \) and \( Q(P_r) \). Other arguments are also essentially identical to Theorem 1. Therefore \( d_P \left( \hat{P}_{n,i}, P_{r,i} \right) \to 0 \), which also implies \( d_P \left( \hat{P}_N, F_0 \right) \stackrel{p}{\to} 0 \) because we assume \( F_0 \in \mathcal{F}^M \) and because \( F = \int \Phi(\cdot | x, \omega) dP_r(dx) \) is continuous on \( P_r \), in the Lévy–Prokhorov metric. We omit a complete proof of Theorem 3 to eliminate redundancy.

B.4. Proof of Theorem 4

Define \( \hat{g}^2(x, \lambda^*) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} g^2(x, \lambda^*) \) where \( \beta^* \) are drawn from \( \Phi(\cdot | \lambda^*) \) and define \( \hat{Q}_n,P_r \) as \( N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} |y_i - \sum \theta_0 P_r^j g_j(x, \lambda^*)|^2 /J \). Then define the estimator of \( \hat{P}_n \) as \( \hat{P}_{n,i} = \arg \min \hat{Q}_n,P_r \). \( \hat{P}_n \) is a compact subset of \( \Lambda_r \) and we use Remark A.1(i)(a) (CP). First note that \( \Lambda_r \) is a compact subset of \( \Lambda \) for each \( r > 0 \) because \( \Lambda_r \) is a compact subset of \( \Lambda \). Second we need to show that for any data \((y_i, x_i)_{i=1}^{N}\), \( \hat{Q}_n,P_r \) is continuous on \( P_r \) for each \( r \geq 1 \). Since \( P_r \) is compact, this continuity means our estimator is well defined as the minimum in (28).

Note \( \int \hat{g}^2(x, \lambda) dP_r = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \theta_0^i g_j(x, \lambda^*) \) for \( P_r \) in \( \Lambda_r \), \( i = 1, 2 \). Then, for any \( P_{\Lambda,1}, P_{\Lambda,2} \in \mathcal{P}_r(\mathcal{R}^N), \) applying the triangle inequality, we obtain

\[ \hat{Q}_{n,r}(P_{r,1}) - \hat{Q}_{n,r}(P_{r,2}) \]

\[ \leq 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N} \bigg| \int \hat{g}^2(x, \lambda) dP_{r,1} - dP_{r,2} \bigg| \]

\[ + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \bigg| \int \hat{g}^2(x, \lambda) dP_{r,1} + dP_{r,2} \bigg| \]

\[ \leq 4 \sum_{i=1}^{N} \bigg| \int \hat{g}^2(x, \lambda) dP_{r,1} - dP_{r,2} \bigg| \]

where the second inequality holds because \( y_{i,j} \) \( \hat{g}^2(x, \lambda) \), and \( \int \hat{g}^2(x, \lambda) dP_r \) are uniformly bounded by 1 for all \( j \) and \( x_i \). Therefore, \( \hat{Q}_{n,r}(P_{r,1}) - \hat{Q}_{n,r}(P_{r,2}) \to 0 \) almost surely, therefore, by Remark A.1(i)(a) (CP), (B.2.3) holds with simulated basis functions with any S.

Next we verify (B.2.4), (B.2.4) (ii) is clearly satisfied as in Theorem 1. We focus on (B.2.4) (i): the uniform convergence of \( \hat{Q}_n,P_r \) to \( Q(P_r) \) for \( P_r \) in \( \mathcal{P}_{\Lambda} \), \( P_{\Lambda,1} \), and \( P_{\Lambda,2} \) are discrete distributions with the finite support \( \Lambda_r \), weak convergence implies that almost surely \( \hat{Q}_{n,r}(P_r) \) is continuous on \( P_r, \) i.e. for any \( P_{\Lambda,1}, P_{\Lambda,2} \in \mathcal{P}_r \) such that \( d_P(P_{\Lambda,1}, P_{\Lambda,2}) \to 0 \), it follows that \( \hat{Q}_{n,r}(P_{\Lambda,1}) - \hat{Q}_{n,r}(P_{\Lambda,2}) \to 0 \) almost surely. Therefore, by Remark A.1(i)(a) (CP), (B.2.3) holds with simulated basis functions with any S.

Define, for any S, \( Q_s(\theta) \equiv E \left[ \| y_i - \sum \theta P_r^j g_j(x, \lambda^*) \|_E^2 /J \right] \), where the expectation is taken with respect to \((y_i, x_i)\) while fixing the simulation draws in \( \hat{g}^2(x, \lambda^*) \). We first show that

\[ \sup_{\theta \in \mathcal{A}_r} \left| \hat{Q}_n,P_r(\theta) - Q_s(\theta) \right| \to 0. \]

Later we show that \( \sup_{\theta \in \mathcal{A}_r} \left| Q_s(\theta) - Q_s(\theta) \right| \to 0 \), therefore invoking the triangle inequality we obtain [29].

For any R define the class of measurable functions

\[ \hat{g}_{R,s} = \left\{ \left| l(y, x, \theta) \right| = \left| y - \sum \theta P_r^j g_j(x, \lambda^*) \right|_E^2 /J : \theta \in \mathcal{A}_r \right\}. \]

Note (i) \( \hat{Q}_n,P_r(\theta) \equiv N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} l(y_i, x_i, \theta) \), (ii) \( \hat{g}_{R,s} \) are i.i.d., and (iii) \( E \left[ \sup_{\theta \in \mathcal{A}_r} l(y, x, \theta) \right] \leq 1 < \infty \). Then by Pollard (1984, Theorem II.24) (also see Chen (2007, Section 3.1, page 5592) for related discussion), the uniform convergence (29) holds if and only if \( \log N(\epsilon, g_{R,s})/\epsilon \cdot \| L_{1,N}/N \|/\epsilon \to 0 \) for all \( \epsilon > 0 \), where \( \| L_{1,N} \| \) denotes the \( L_1(\mathcal{P}_r) \)-norm and \( P_r \) denotes the empirical measure of the data \((y_i, x_i)_{i=1}^{N}\). Then following the same steps in the proof of Theorem 1, we conclude as long as \( R(N) \log R(N)/N \to 0 \), the uniform convergence of \( \hat{Q}_n,P_r(\theta) \) to \( Q_s(\theta) \) holds for any given S.
Next we show \( \sup_{\theta \in \Delta_{N}} |Q_0(\theta) - Q(\theta)| \xrightarrow{p} 0 \) in \( \mathbb{R}^+ \) where \( \mathbb{P}^\ast \) denotes probability measure w.r.t. the simulation draws. Consider that
\[
|Q_0(\theta) - Q(\theta)| = J^{-1}E \left[ \left( y_{i,j} - \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right)^2 - \left( y_{i,j} - \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right)^2 \right] \\
\leq J^{-1} \sum_{j=1} \left( \left( \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') - \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right)^2 \right) \times \left( \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right) \times \left( \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right)^2 \\
\leq J^{-1} \sum_{j=1} \left( \left( \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') - \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right)^2 \right) \times \left( \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right)^2 \\
\leq 2J^{-1} \sum_{j=1} \left( \left( y_{i,j} - \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right)^2 \right) \times \left( \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right)^2 \\
\leq 2J^{-1} \sum_{j=1} \left( \left( \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') - \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right)^2 \right) \times \left( \sum_r \theta_r \hat{g}_r(x_i, \lambda') \right)^2 \\
\leq \sum_{i=1}^S \left( \sum_{j=1} \theta_i \hat{g}_j(x_i, \beta^{\lambda^*}) - \int \hat{g}_i(x_i, \beta) d\Phi(\beta | \lambda^*) \right) \right] = o_p(1),
\]
by one. We also note for some \( c_0 > 0 \), \( \|g(x, \beta')\|_{L^2} \geq c_0 \) uniformly over \( r \leq R(N) \) because \( X \), the support of \( X \), has positive measure and the support of \( \beta \) is bounded. We first present preliminary lemmas that are useful to prove Theorems 5 and 6. We define
\[
\Psi_{N,R} = \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^T g_i(x_i, \beta') g_j(x_i, \beta') \right\}_{1 \leq i \neq j \leq R} (a R \times R \text{ matrix}).
\]

**Lemma 3.** Suppose \( \mathcal{X} \) has positive measure and Assumption 4(i)–(iii) hold. Then
\[
\min \left\{ \Pr \left\{ \|g(\cdot, \beta')\|^2_{L^2} \leq 2 \|g(\cdot, \beta')\|^2_{L^2} \right\}, \forall \right\}, \Pr \left\{ \|g(\cdot, \beta')\|^2_{L^2} \leq 2 \|g(\cdot, \beta')\|^2_{L^2} \right\}, \forall \right\} \geq 1 - R \exp \left( -c_1 N c_0^2 / c_0^2 \right).
\]

**Proof.** The claim follows from the union bound applied to the \( r \)-specific events and Hoeffding’s inequality.

**Lemma 3** implies that diag \( (\Psi_{N,R}) \leq 2 \text{diag} (\Psi_{R}) \) holds with probability approaching one (w.p.a.1) because \( \|g(\cdot, \beta')\|^2_{L^2} \)'s are diagonal elements of \( \Psi_{N,R} \) and \( \|g(\cdot, \beta')\|^2_{L^2} \)'s are diagonal elements of \( \Psi_{R} \). The purpose of **Lemma 4** below is to show that \( \Psi_{N,R} \geq \Psi_{R}/2 \) holds w.p.a.1.

**Lemma 4.** Let \( \hat{g} = \text{span}(g(\cdot, \beta^1), \ldots, g(\cdot, \beta^g)) \) be the linear space spanned by functions \( g(\cdot, \beta^1), \ldots, g(\cdot, \beta^g) \). Suppose Assumption 4(i)–(iii) hold. Then \( \Pr \left\{ \sup_{\mu \in \Omega(0)} \|\mu\|_{L^2} / \|\mu\|_{L^2} > 2 \right\} \leq R^2 \exp \left( -c_2 N (c_0^2 R^2) \right) \).

**Proof.** Let \( \phi_1, \ldots, \phi_M \) be an orthonormal basis of \( \hat{g} \) in \( L_2(\sigma) \) with \( M \leq R \). Also let \( \mathcal{P}(D) \) denote the following quantity for a symmetric matrix \( D: \mathcal{P}(D) = \sup \sum_i |a_i| \sum_r |a_i| |D_{i,r}| \), where the sup is taken over sequences \( |a_i| \), with \( \sum_i a_i^2 = 1 \). Then, following **Lemma 5.2 in Baraud (2002)**, we have

\[
\Pr \left\{ \sup_{\mu \in \Omega(0)} \|\mu\|_{L^2} / \|\mu\|_{L^2} > 2 \right\} \leq M^2 \exp \left( -N \frac{(c_0 - c_1)^2}{4 c_0} \mathcal{P}(D) \mathcal{P}(\tilde{B}) \right) \]

where \( A_{i,r} = \mathcal{E} \|\phi_{i}^{2}\|_{L^2} \|\phi_{r}^{2}\|_{L^2} \) and \( B_{i,r} = \|\phi_{i} \|_{L^2} \|\phi_{r} \|_{L^2} \) for \( i, r = 1, \ldots, M \) and \( c_0 \) and \( c_1 \) denote the lower bound and upper bounds of the density of \( X \), respectively. We find \( \mathcal{A}_{i,r} \leq c_0^2 \) and \( \mathcal{B}_{i,r} \leq c_0^2 R \). It follows that
\[
\mathcal{P}(D) \leq c_0^2 \sup \sum_i |a_i| \sum_r |a_r| = c_0^2 \sup \left\{ \sum_i |a_i|^2 \right\} \]
\[
\leq c_0^2 \sup \sum M |a_i|^2 = c_0^2 M \leq c_0^2 R \]
where \( \sum_i |a_i|^2 \leq M \sum_i |a_i|^2 \) holds by the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality. Similarly we have \( \mathcal{P}(B) \leq c_0^2 R \). The conclusion follows from (30) and \( M \leq R \). \( \square \)

Now define an event \( \mathcal{E}_0 = \{ \Psi_{N,R} - (\xi_{\min}(R) / 4 c_0^2) \text{diag}(\Psi_{N,R}) \} \geq 0 \}.

**Lemma 5.** Suppose \( \mathcal{X} \) has positive measure and Assumption 4(i)–(iii) hold. Then, \( \Pr(\mathcal{E}_0) \geq 1 - R^2 \exp \left( -c_2 N c_0^2 / c_0^2 \right) \).

**Appendix C. Proofs for asymptotic bounds results**

We let \( C_1, C_2, \ldots \) denote generic positive constants. We use diag \( (A) \) to denote a diagonal matrix composed of diagonal elements of a matrix \( A \). We often use the following inequality (denoted by RCS for the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality for \( R \) terms in a sum):
\[
\sum_{r=1}^R W_r \leq \sqrt{R} \sqrt{\sum_{r=1}^R W_r^2}
\]
for a sequence \( W_r \). We note that \( \|P(x, F_0)\|_{L^2} \leq c_0 \) and \( \|g(x, \beta')\|_{L^2} \leq c_0 \) for some constant \( c_0 > 0 \) uniformly over \( r \leq R(N) \) because probabilities are bounded
**Proof.** First, note that $\Psi_r - (\xi_{\text{min}}(R)/\zeta_0)\text{diag}(\Psi_r) \geq 0$. Now let $\gamma$ be the linear space spanned by $g(\cdot, \beta^1), \ldots, g(\cdot, \beta^p)$. Now note that, under the event $A = \{\|g(\cdot, \beta^1)\|_{L^2_N} \leq 2\|g(\cdot, \beta^p)\|_{L^2_N} \forall r = 1, \ldots, R\}$, we have $\text{diag}(\Psi_{N,R}) \geq 2\text{diag}(\Psi_r)$. Also, under the event $B = \{\sup_{r \in [0,\theta]} 2\|\xi_r\|_{L^2_N} \leq 2\|\xi_r\|_{L^2_N} \}$, we have $\Psi_{N,R} \geq \Psi_r/2$. Therefore, under the intersection of the two events, $A$ and $B$, we have

$$\Psi_{N,R} - \xi_{\text{min}}(R)\text{diag}(\Psi_r)/(4\zeta_0^2)$$

$$\geq \Psi_r/2 - 2\xi_{\text{min}}(R)\text{diag}(\Psi_r)/(4\zeta_0^2) \geq 0,$$

or event $E_0$. Then by Lemmas 3 and 4, we find $1 - \Pr(E_0) \leq R \cdot \exp\left(-C_1N\eta_0^2\zeta_0^2/\zeta_0^2\right) + R \cdot \exp\left(-C_2N/\zeta_0^2R^2\right)$ because $\Pr(E_0) \leq \Pr(A^c \cup B^c) \leq \Pr(A^c) + \Pr(B^c)$.

**Lemma 6.** Suppose $X$ has positive measure and Assumption 4(iii) hold. Then, for given positive sequence $\eta_n$:

$$\Pr \left( \sum_i e^i g(X_i, \beta^r)/N \leq \eta_n \|g(\cdot, \beta^r)\|_{L^2_N} \text{ for all } r = 1, \ldots, R \right)$$

$$\geq 1 - R \cdot \exp\left(-CN\eta_0^2\zeta_0^2/\zeta_0^2\right) - R \cdot \exp\left(-C_1N\eta_0^2\zeta_0^2/\zeta_0^2\right).$$

**Proof.** Hoeffding’s (1963) inequality implies that

$$E_X \left[ \sum_i e^i g(X_i, \beta^r)/N \right] \geq \eta_n \|g(\cdot, \beta^r)\|_{L^2_N},$$

$$\forall r \leq R, X_1, \ldots, X_N,$$

$$\leq E_X \left[ \sum_i \exp\left(-2N\eta_0^2\|g(\cdot, \beta^r)\|_{L^2_N}^2/4\zeta_0^2\right) \right]$$

(31)

because $E \left[ e^i g(X_i, \beta^r) \mid X_1, \ldots, X_N \right] = 0$, choice probabilities lie in $[0, 1]$, and $-\sqrt{\zeta_0} \leq e^i g(X_i, \beta^r) \leq \sqrt{\zeta_0}$ (by the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality) uniformly.

Now note under the event $\{\|g(\cdot, \beta^r)\|_{L^2_N} \leq 2\|g(\cdot, \beta^r)\|_{L^2_N}\}$, $\forall r = 1, \ldots, R$,

$$\exp\left(-N\eta_0^2\|g(\cdot, \beta^r)\|_{L^2_N}^2/2\zeta_0^2\right) \geq \exp\left(-R\eta_0^2\|g(\cdot, \beta^r)\|_{L^2_N}^2/8\zeta_0^2\right)$$

$$\leq \exp\left(-R\eta_0^2\zeta_0^2/8\zeta_0^2\right) = R \exp\left(-CN\eta_0^2\zeta_0^2/\zeta_0^2\right).$$

(32)

From (31) to (32) and Lemma 3, the claim follows.

**Lemma 7.** Suppose $X$ has positive measure and Assumption 4(iii) hold. Then, for any $N \geq 1$, $R \geq 2$, and $a > 1$, we have for all $F \in \mathcal{F}_{R(N)}$:

$$\text{Pr}(P(X_i, \tilde{F}_N) - P(X_i, F_0))_{L^2_N} \leq a + 1\left\|P(X_i, F) - P(X_i, F_0)\right\|_{L^2_N}$$

$$+ \frac{a^2}{a - 1}\left\|P(X_i, F) - P(X_i, F_0)\right\|_{L^2_N}^2,$$

where the inequality holds with probability greater than $1 - \text{pr}_{N,R} \left(\text{pr}_{N,R} - \prod_{r=1}^R \left\|P(X_i, \tilde{F}_N) - P(X_i, F_0)\right\|_{L^2_N} + 2\sqrt{R} \left\|P(X_i, F) - P(X_i, F_0)\right\|_{L^2_N}^2.$$
Lemma 8. Suppose the assumptions and the conditions in Theorem 5 hold and to x = \( \eta N \sqrt{R(\xi_{\text{min}}(R)/4\varepsilon_0^2)}^{-1/2} \) and y = \( \|P(x, \hat{F}_N) - P(x, F_0)\|_{L_2,N} \), respectively, we obtain under the event \( \{E_0 \cap E_1\} \),

\[
\left\| P(x, \hat{F}_N) - P(x, F_0) \right\|_{L_2,N}^2 \leq \left\| P(x, F) - P(x, F_0) \right\|_{L_2,N}^2 + \frac{\|P(x, F) - P(x, F_0)\|_{L_2,N}}{a} + 2\eta N^2 \|R(\xi_{\text{min}}(R)/4\varepsilon_0^2)^{-1} \cdot 2a \eta N^2 R(\xi_{\text{min}}(R)/4\varepsilon_0^2)^{-1}.
\]

It follows that under the event \( \{E_0 \cap E_1\} \), for all a > 1,

\[
\left\| P(x, \hat{F}_N) - P(x, F_0) \right\|_{L_2,N}^2 \leq \frac{a+1}{a-1} \left\| P(x, F) - P(x, F_0) \right\|_{L_2,N}^2 + C \frac{\eta N^2 R(\xi_{\text{min}}(R)/4\varepsilon_0^2)^{-1}}{a-1}.
\]

The conclusion follows from Lemma 5 and Lemma 6. \( \square \)

C.1. Proof of Theorem 5

We first obtain the convergence rates of the choice probability as

Lemma 8. Suppose the assumptions and the conditions in Theorem 5 hold. Then, we have

\[
\left\| P(x, \hat{F}_N) - P(x, F_0) \right\|_{L_2,N}^2 \leq O_p \left( \frac{R(N) \log R(N)}{\xi_{\text{min}}(R) \cdot N} \right) + C \cdot \inf_{F \in \mathcal{F}(R)} \left\| P(x, F) - P(x, F_0) \right\|_{L_2,N}^2.
\]

Then the result of Theorem 5 follows from Lemma 8 combined with Lemma 1. Lemma 8 derives the variance term of the asymptotic bounds and Lemma 1 derives the bias term. We prove Lemma 8.

C.2. Proof of Lemma 7

From Lemma 7, the fastest convergence rate will be obtained when the order of \( \eta N \) is as small as possible while keeping \( \eta N R \to 0 \). By inspecting \( \eta N R \), we note that the optimal rate is obtained when we choose \( \eta N = C \sqrt{\log R(N)/N} \) since the first term in \( \eta N R \) dominates the second term in \( \eta N R \) when \( \eta N \) is small enough and \( \eta N R \to 0 \) with this choice of \( \eta N \). The inspection of the third term in \( \eta N R \) reveals that we also require \( R(N) \) should satisfy \( R(N)^2 \log R(N)/N \to 0 \) so that \( \eta N R \to 0 \). The result of Lemma 8 follows from these requirements, Lemma 7 and

\[
\left\| P(x, \hat{F}_N) - P(x, F_0) \right\|_{L_2,N}^2 \leq O_p \left( \frac{R(N) \log R(N)}{\xi_{\text{min}}(R) \cdot N} \right) + C \cdot \|P(x, F) - P(x, F_0)\|_{L_2,N}^2
\]

because \( \frac{\eta N^2 R(\xi_{\text{min}}(R)/4\varepsilon_0^2)^{-1}}{a-1} = O \left( \frac{R(N) \log R(N)}{\xi_{\text{min}}(R) \cdot N} \right) \) under our choice of \( \eta N \) and because Lemma 7 holds for any \( F \in \mathcal{F}(R) \).

C.3. Proof of Lemma 1

First we construct approximating power series with the length of \( L \) tensor products of higher order polynomials of \( \beta_k \)’s in \( \beta \) as \( \{\phi_l(\beta), \ldots, \phi_l(\beta), \ldots, \phi_l(\beta)\} \), where \( \phi_l(\beta) \) is the \( l \)th element in the \( L \) number of tensor product polynomials. The tensor products are defined by the functions \( \phi_l(\beta) = \beta_1^{d_1} \beta_2^{d_2} \cdots \beta_k^{d_k} \) with \( \beta = \beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_k \) \( \in \mathcal{B} = \{\beta_{k1}, \beta_{k2}, \ldots, \beta_{kn}\} \) and \( k \)'s are exponents of each \( \beta_k \). For example, we can let \( \phi_l(\beta) = 1, \phi_2(\beta) = \beta_1, \ldots, \phi_l(\beta) = \beta_1^{d_1} \beta_2^{d_2} \cdots \beta_k^{d_k} \).

Now note that each \( g_l(x, \beta) f(\beta) \) is a member of the H"older class (3-smooth) of functions since it is uniformly bounded and all of its own and partial derivatives up to the order of 3 are also uniformly bounded by our restriction on \( f \) in \( \mathcal{H} \) and Assumption 4 (iv). Therefore, we can approximate \( g_l(x, \beta) f(\beta) \) well using power series (see Chen, 2007) and obtain the approximation error rate due to Timan (1963) as (we suppress dependence of \( a_i \) and \( \psi_i \) on \( j \) for notational simplicity)

\[
\sup_{\beta \in \mathcal{B}} \left| g_l(x, \beta) f(\beta) - \sum_{i=1}^L a_i(x) \psi_i(\beta) \right| = O \left( L^{-3/2} \right)
\]

for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \). Let \( (\beta_{k1}, \ldots, \beta_{kn}) \in \mathcal{B} \) be partitions of the intervals \( \beta_{k1}, \beta_{k2}, \ldots, \beta_{kn} \), \( k = 1, \ldots, K \), into \( r_1, \ldots, r_K \) subintervals, respectively. Then we can define the \( R = r_1 \times \cdots \times r_K \) number of subcubes as \( \{C_{ij} = \{\beta_{k1}, \beta_{k2}, \ldots, \beta_{kn}\} \}_{i=1}^{r_1} \times \{\beta_{k2}, \beta_{k3}, \ldots, \beta_{kn}\} \}_{j=1}^{r_2} \times \{\beta_{kn-1}, \beta_{kn}\} \}_{k=1}^{r_K} \), which become a partition \( \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}) \) of \( \mathcal{B} \). For any choice of \( R \) points

\[
(\beta_{11}, \ldots, \beta_{kn}) \in C_{ij} \times c_{ij} = 1, 2, \ldots, r_i, k = 1, \ldots, K
\]

(one \( b_{ik} \) for each of \( R \) subcubes), now we can approximate a Riemann integral of \( \sum_{i=1}^L a_i(x) \psi_i(\beta) \) using a quadrature method with \( R \) distinct weights

\[
\int c_{(i_1, \ldots, i_K)} \psi_l(\beta) d\beta = \sum_{l=1}^L a_l(x) \int \psi_l(\beta) d\beta
\]

such that

\[
\sum_{l=1}^L a_l(x) c_{(i_1, \ldots, i_K)} R(\delta_l) \psi_l(b_{ij}) + R(\delta_l)
\]

where \( R(\delta_l) \) denotes a remainder term with \( \delta_l = \max[\text{diam}(C_{ij} \times \cdot \cdot \cdot) : C_{ij} \times \cdot \cdot \cdot \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B})] \). Without loss of generality, we will pick \( \delta_l = C \cdot R^{-1/2} \). Noting that \( \psi_l(\beta) \) is a product of polynomials in \( \beta_l \)'s by construction, we can apply Theorem 6.1.2 (Generalized Cartesian Product Rules) of Krommer and Ueberhuber (1998) and so we can approximate multivariate integrals with products of univariate integrals. Note that \( \psi_l(\beta) d\beta = \prod_{k=1}^K \psi_l(\beta_k) d\beta_k \) with \( \psi_l(\beta) = \prod_{k=1}^K \psi_l(\beta_k) d\beta_k \). Therefore if we approximate \( \int \psi_l(\beta_k) d\beta_k \) using a univariate quadrature with weights \( \{c_{ij}(1), \ldots, c_{ij}(r_i)\} \), generally we obtain \( \int \psi_l(\beta_k) d\beta_k = \sum_{i=1}^{r_i} c_{ij}(k_1) \psi_l(b_{ij}) + R_i(\delta_l) \psi_l(b_{ij}) \), where \( R_i(\delta_l) \) denotes a possible remainder term. Now we may compute the univariate quadrature even become accurate (or exact) at least up to the order of \( r_i \) (Theorem 5.2.1 in Krommer and Ueberhuber (1998)) i.e., \( \psi_l(\beta_k) d\beta_k = \sum_{i=1}^{r_i} c_{ij}(k_1) b_{ij}^k \) with suitable choice of \( c_{ij}(k_1) \psi_l(b_{ij}) \) for all \( \beta \leq r_i \) such that \( R_i(\delta_l) = 0 \).

For notational simplicity, we take \( r_i = r_i \) for all \( i \). Then with the \( L = (r_1 + 1)^K = (r_1^K + 1)^K \) number of power series, we can include powers and products of \( \beta_k \)’s at least up to the order of \( r_i \), With the choice of \( L = (r_1 + 1)^K \) and \( c_{ij}(k_1) \) that make the
univariate quadrature exact at least up to the order of \( r_1 \), we can let
\[
\int \varphi(\beta) d\beta = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \int \varphi_{1,k} (\beta_k) d\beta_k
\]

for \( I = 1, \ldots, L \). By adding and subtracting terms, it follows that for some \( F^* \) defined later
\[
P_j (x, F) - P_j (x, F^*)
\]

\[
= \int f(\beta) g_j (x, \beta) d\beta - \sum_{l=1}^{L} a_l (x) \varphi_l (\beta) d\beta
\]

(40)

\[
+ \sum_{l=1}^{L} a_l (x) \int \varphi_l (\beta) d\beta
\]

\[
- \sum_{l=1}^{L} a_l (x) \prod_{k=1}^{K} c_k (t_k) \varphi_{1,k} (b_{k-1}) - P_j (x, F^*)
\]

(41)

\[
\sum_{l=1}^{L} a_l (x) \prod_{k=1}^{K} c_k (t_k) \varphi_{1,k} (b_{k-1})
\]

(42)

We first bound (40) by the triangle inequality and (38), (40) \( \leq \int \mathcal{f}(\beta) g_j (x, \beta) d\beta - \sum_{l=1}^{L} a_l (x) \varphi_l (\beta) d\beta = O(L^{-5/2} \cdot \text{vol}(B)) \).

Second note that (41) becomes zero due to (39).

Next construct \( \tilde{\varphi}_l (b') \), \( r = 1, \ldots, R \) such that \( \sum_{r=1}^{R} \tilde{\varphi}_l (b') = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \left\{ \sum_{r_k=1}^{r_k} c_k (t_k) \varphi_{1,k} (b_{k-1}) \right\} \) with \( r = r_1 \cdots r_K \) and \( b' = (b'_1, b'_2, \ldots, b'_K) \) in \( B = \{ b = (b_1, \ldots, b_K) \} \). Then, for any choice of \( b' \) in \( B \) we can always write \( \tilde{\varphi}_l (b') = c_1 (b_1, \ldots, b_K) \varphi_l (b) \) for some \( b = (b_1, \ldots, b_K) \) in \( B \). Therefore without loss of generality write
\[
\sum_{r=1}^{R} \tilde{\varphi}_l (b') = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \left\{ \sum_{r_k=1}^{r_k} c_k (t_k) \varphi_{1,k} (b_{k-1}) \right\}
\]

(43)

Define \( \theta^* = c_1 (b'_1) \cdots c_K (b'_K) \mathcal{f}(b') / \sum_{r=1}^{R} c_1 (b'_1) \cdots c_k (b'_K) \mathcal{f}(b') \) and let \( F^* \in \mathcal{F}_B \) be constructed using the weights \( \theta^* \). It follows that
\[
\sum_{l=1}^{L} a_l (x) \prod_{k=1}^{K} c_k (t_k) \varphi_{1,k} (b_{k-1}) - P_j (x, F^*)
\]

\[
\leq \sum_{r=1}^{R} \tilde{\varphi}_l (b') - \theta^* g_j (x, b')
\]

\[
= \sum_{r=1}^{R} \left\{ \sum_{l=1}^{L} a_l (x) c_1 (b'_1) \cdots c_k (b'_K) \varphi_l (b') \right\}
\]

\[
- \sum_{r=1}^{R} \mathcal{f}(b') / \sum_{r=1}^{R} c_1 (b'_1) \cdots c_k (b'_K) \mathcal{f}(b')
\]

\[
\leq \sum_{r=1}^{R} c_1 (b'_1) \cdots c_k (b'_K)
\]

where the first inequality holds by the triangle inequality and (43) and the second inequality holds by (43) and by the definition of \( \theta^* \). In the above note that \( |c_1 (b'_1) \cdots c_K (b'_K)| \) is at most \( O(R^{-1}) \), which is obtained if one uses the uniform weights, i.e., \( c_k (b'_K) = \cdots = c_k (b'_K) \) for \( k = 1, \ldots, K \). Second note that
\[
\sum_{r=1}^{R} a_l (x) \varphi_l (b') - \mathcal{f}(b') g_j (x, b') = O(L^{-5/2}) \]

(44)

\[
\sum_{r=1}^{R} \tilde{\varphi}_l (b') - \theta^* g_j (x, b')
\]

(45)

\[
\sum_{r=1}^{R} \tilde{\varphi}_l (b') - \theta^* g_j (x, b')
\]

(46)

\[
\sum_{r=1}^{R} c_1 (b'_1) \cdots c_k (b'_K) \mathcal{f}(b')
\]

(47)

where \( \tilde{\varphi}_l \) satisfies \( \sup_{\beta \in B} \left| \mathcal{f}(\beta) - \sum_{r=1}^{R} \tilde{\varphi}_l (\beta) \right| = O(L^{-5/2}) \) (such \( \tilde{\varphi}_l \)’s exist since \( \mathcal{f}(\beta) \) belongs to a Hölder class). Then we find (44) = \( O(L^{-7/2} \cdot \text{vol}(B)) \) by the triangle inequality, (45) = \( 0 \) by (39), and (46) = \( 0 \) by (43). Finally note (47) \( \leq \sum_{r=1}^{R} c_1 (b'_1) \cdots c_k (b'_K) \left| \sum_{r=1}^{R} \tilde{\varphi}_l (\beta) - \mathcal{f}(\beta) \right| = O(R^{-1} \cdot L^{-5/2}) \) by the triangle equality, \( |c_1 (b'_1) \cdots c_k (b'_K)| \) is at most \( O(R^{-1}) \), and because \( \tilde{\varphi}_l \) satisfies
\[
\sup_{\beta \in B} \left| \mathcal{f}(\beta) - \sum_{r=1}^{R} \tilde{\varphi}_l (\beta) \right| = O(L^{-5/2}) \).
Combining these results, we bound (42) as $O(L^{-7/K})$. Combining these bounds, we then conclude
\[
|p_j(x, F) - p_j(x, F^0)| = O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\text{vol}(B)}}\right) + O\left(L^{-5/2}\right) = O\left(L^{-7/K}\right)
\]

The second conclusion in the lemma is trivial since the above holds for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $j = 1, \ldots, J$.

C.4. Proof of Theorem 6

First we derive the distance between $\hat{\theta}$ and $\theta_0^*$ where $\theta_0^*$ (i.e. $F_0^*$) satisfies $\|p(x, F_0^*) - p(x, F^0)\|_{L^2} = O_{P}(R^{-2K})$. Note that such $F_0^*$ exists by Lemma 1. Note that with probability approaching one, we have $\|g(., F^0)\|_{L^2} \geq \|g(., F^0)\|_{L^2} \geq c_0 > 0$ for all $r = 1, \ldots, R$ by Lemma 3. It follows that
\[
c_0 \leq \sum_{r=1}^{R} \|g(r, \theta_0^*)\|_{L^2} \leq \sqrt{R} \left( \sum_{r=1}^{R} \|g(r, \theta_0^*)\|_{L^2}^2 \right)^{1/2} = O_{P}(R^{-2K}).
\]

Next we have $F_0(\beta) - F_0^*(\beta)$ by the triangle inequality. It is not difficult to see that
\[
\sup_{\beta \in \mathcal{B}} |F_0(\beta) - F_0^*(\beta)| \leq O(\sqrt{\text{vol}(B)})\text{vol}(B).
\]

Proof of Lemma 1 where we approximate $f_0(b)$ with $\sum_{i=1}^{n} q_0(q_i, \psi_i(b))$ such that $\sup_{b \in \mathcal{B}} \left| f_0(b) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} q_0(q_i, \psi_i(b)) \right| = O(L^{-7/K})$ due to Timan (1963). We then find $F_0(\beta) - F_{0}^{*} (\beta) = O(R^{-7/K})$ a.e. $\beta \in \mathcal{B}$. Therefore, the conclusion follows from this result, (48), and (49).

Appendix D. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jeconom.2016.05.018.

References

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