Partial Identification
in Monotone Binary Models:
Discrete Regressors and Interval Data.

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Abstract

We investigate identification in semi-parametric binary regression models, \( y = 1(x\beta + v + \epsilon > 0) \) when \( \epsilon \) is assumed uncorrelated with a set of instruments \( z \), \( \epsilon \) is independent of \( v \) conditionally on \( x \) and \( z \), and the conditional support of \( \epsilon \) is sufficiently small relative to the support of \( v \). We characterize the set of observationally equivalent parameters \( \beta \) when interval data only are available on \( v \) or when \( v \) is discrete. When there exist as many instruments \( z \) as variables \( x \), the sets within which lie the scalar components \( \beta_k \) of parameter \( \beta \) can be estimated by simple linear regressions. Also, in the case of interval data, it is shown that additional information on the distribution of \( v \) within intervals shrinks the identification set. Namely, the closer to uniformity the distribution of \( v \) is, the smaller the identification set is. Point identification is achieved if and only if \( v \) is uniform within intervals.

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1 Introduction

Data on covariates that researchers have access to, are very often discrete or interval-valued. There are many such examples in applied econometrics. Variables such as gender, levels of education, occupation, employment status or household size of survey respondents typically take a discrete number of values. In contingent valuation studies, prices are set by the experimenter and they are in general discrete, 1, 10, 100 or 1000 euros. It would sound funny to ask a person whether she wants to buy a salmon-fishing permit for 15 euros and 24 cents. There are also many examples of interval-valued data. They are common in surveys where, in case of non-response to an item, follow-up questions are asked. Manski & Tamer (2002) describe the example of the Health and Retirement Study. If a respondent does not want to reveal his wealth, he is then asked whether it falls in a sequence of intervals (“unfolding brackets”). Another reason for interval data is anonymity. Age is a continuous covariate which could in theory be used as a source of continuous exogenous variation in many settings. For confidentiality reasons however, the French National Statistical Office, for instance, censors this information in the public versions of household surveys, by transforming dates of birth into months (or years) of birth only. French statisticians are afraid that the exact date of birth along with other individual and household characteristics might reveal the identity of households responding to the survey.

The problem is that discrete (or interval-valued) covariates tend to render identification in regressions very difficult (Horowitz, 1998). When all covariates are discrete or when only interval data are available, point identification of parameters of popular index models is lost whatever the identifying restrictions (Manski (1988)). When all covariates (denoted $x$) are discrete, Bierens and Hartog (1988) have shown indeed that there exists an infinite number of single-index representations for the mean regression of a dependent variable, $y$, i.e. $E(y \mid x) = \varphi_{\theta}(x\theta)$. Specifically, under weak conditions, the set of observationally equivalent parameters $\theta$ is dense in its domain of variation, $\Theta$.

A recent contribution by Manski and Tamer (2002) considers a somewhat less general framework where the non-parametric mean regression $E(y \mid x)$ is assumed monotonic with

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respect to at least one particular regressor, say $v$. They show that this assumption restricts the magnitude of under-identification when regressor $v$ is not perfectly observed, i.e., when interval-data only are available on $v$. What is identified under a quantile-independence assumption is a non-empty, convex set of observationally equivalent values that they characterize. In other words, they achieve set-identification. Among other results, they also show that identified “sets” can be estimated by a modified maximum score technique (Manski, 1985).

In this paper, we explore the route of another weak identifying restriction in the semi-parametric binary models that has recently been introduced by Lewbel (2000). Consider the binary response model,

$$y = 1(x\beta + v + \epsilon > 0)$$

where $y$ is the observed binary dependent variable, $x$ are covariates, $v$ is an observed continuous explanatory variable (whose coefficient is set equal to 1 by normalisation) and $\epsilon$ is an unobserved random variable. Lewbel proposed a simple estimator of $\beta$ under the combination of an uncorrelated-error assumption (i.e., $E(x'\epsilon) = 0$) with a partial independence assumption (i.e., $F_\epsilon(\epsilon \mid x, v) = F_\epsilon(\epsilon \mid x)$) and a large support assumption ($\text{Supp}(-x\beta - \epsilon) \subset \text{Supp}(v)$). By adapting the partial independence assumption, Lewbel also developed an IV version of his estimator when $\epsilon$, though correlated with $x$, is uncorrelated with a set of instrumental variables $z$. Recently, Honoré and Lewbel (2002) presented a fixed-effect version of this estimator. Generally speaking, these estimators are appealing: They permit general form of endogeneity and conditional heteroskedasticity; Their implementation only requires estimating a conditional density function and a linear regression which means that no optimization is needed; They are root-$n$ consistent under general conditions. Moreover, we showed in Magnac and Maurin (2004) that the set of latent models satisfying uncorrelated-errors, large-support and partial-independence assumptions is isomorphic to the set of monotone-in-$v$ non-parametric models where the probability of success $E(y \mid x, v)$ varies between 0 and 1 (inclusive) over the support of $v$. As it turns out, the partial-independence assumption is congruent to the monotonicity assumption made by Manski & Tamer (2002).

In this paper, we investigate how these properties are translated when the exogenous regressor $v$ is not continuous. We first show that the class of binary outcomes which can
be analyzed through latent models satisfying uncorrelated-errors, large-support and partial-independence assumptions has exactly the same structure when \( v \) is discrete as when it is continuous. Specifically, any binary outcome such that the probability of success increases from 0 and 1 over the support of \( v \) can be analyzed through such latent models. In the discrete case, identification is not exact anymore, however. The uncorrelated-error, large-support and partial-independence assumptions do not restrict the model parameters to a singleton but to a non-empty, convex set. We explain how simple linear regression methods provide estimates of the bounds of the intervals in which lie each scalar components \( \beta_k \) of parameter \( \beta \).

We next ask whether it is possible to maintain set-identification when the support of \( v \) does not satisfy the large support condition. Most interestingly, the answer is positive. The only additional assumption that is needed for set-identification (on top of uncorrelated-errors, and partial-independence) is that the probability \( \Pr(y = 1 \mid x, v) \) as a function of \( v \) varies between 0 and 1 in some finite interval \([v_0, v_{K+1}]\), regardless of whether this set coincides or not with the support of \( v \) actually observed in the data.

We next analyse the case where \( v \) is continuous, but only observed by intervals, i.e. we only observe the result \( v^* \) of censoring \( v \) by intervals. In such a case, it is shown that the binary outcomes which can be analyzed through latent models satisfying uncorrelated-errors, large-support and partial-independence should be monotone in \( v^* \) but should not necessarily vary from 0 to 1 when \( v^* \) varies over its support. Also, it is shown that the uncorrelated-error, large-support and partial-independence assumptions still restricts the model parameters to a non-empty, convex set (as in the discrete case), but the shape of this set and the methods for estimating the intervals in which lie each scalar component \( \beta_k \) are somewhat different from the discrete case.

Furthermore, we analyze the case where some information is available on the distribution of \( v \) within intervals. Most interestingly, the “size” of the identification set, in a sense made precise below, diminishes as the distribution of the special regressor within intervals becomes closer to uniformity. When \( v \) is uniformly distributed within intervals, the identification set is a singleton and the parameter of interest \( \beta \) is exactly identified. This property is particularly interesting when one has control over the process of censoring the continuous data on \( v \) (e.g.
the birthdate) into interval data (e.g. month of birth). In order to minimize the size of the identification set, one should censor the data in such a way that the distribution of the censored variable is the closest as possible to a uniform distribution within the resulting intervals.

As for references, this paper belongs to the small, but growing literature on partial identification as pioneered by Manski (2003, and references therein). Our results on bounds on parameters in binary regressions can be seen as generalizations of bounds on averages, derived in the paper by Green, Jacowitz, Kahneman & McFadden (1998). They are also reminiscent of the results presented by Leamer (1987) in a system of equations where covariates are mismeasured. There, the vector of parameters of interest lies in an ellipsoid as in our case though it is not known whether intervals obtained by projecting this ellipsoid onto individual directions can be estimated directly. Also, there exist striking similarities between our identification results and those of Chesher (2003), even though the topic is quite different. Chesher estimates the local effect of an endogenous discrete variable in non-separable models and shows that discrete variation of this endogenous variable as opposed to continuous variation is likely to give rise to partial identification.

This paper focuses on identification issues, not on inference problems. As a matter of fact, the inference issues are addressed by recent works by Chernozhukov, Hong and Tamer (2004), Imbens and Manski (2004) or Horowitz and Manski (2000). In particular, Chernozhukov et al. (2004) study inference in multivariate cases under more general conditions of set-identification than ours and their findings can be applied to our results. It is also possible to follow Horowitz and Manski (2000) who study inference about intervals through inference on the lower and upper bounds of identified intervals. An alternative route is proposed by Imbens and Manski (2004) who changed focus by considering inference about the true value of the parameter (within an identified interval) and not on the interval in itself.

The paper is organized as follows: The first section sets up notations and models. The second section examines the discrete case, the third section analyzes the case of interval data, the fourth section reports Monte Carlo experiments and the last section concludes. Since the case where the $x$ are endogenous is not more complex than the case where they are exogenous, we will consider right from the start the endogenous case where $\epsilon$, though
potentially correlated with the variables $x$, is uncorrelated with a set of instruments $z$. All proofs are in appendices.

2 The Set-Up

Let the “data” be given by the distribution of the following random variable$^2$:

$$\omega = (y, v, x, z)$$

where $y$ is a binary outcome, while $v, x$ and $z$ are covariates and instrumental variables which role and properties are specified below. We first introduce some regularity conditions on the distribution of $\omega$. They will be assumed valid in the rest of the text.

Assumption R(egularity):

R.i. (Binary model) The support of the distribution of $y$ is $\{0, 1\}$

R.ii. (Covariates & Instruments) The support of the distribution, $F_{x,z}$ of $(x, z)$ is $S_{x,z} \subset \mathbb{R}^p \times \mathbb{R}^q$. The dimension of the set $S_{x,z}$ is $r \leq p + q$ where $p + q - r$ are the potential overlaps and functional dependencies.$^3$ The condition of full rank, $\text{rank}(E(z'x)) = p$, holds.

R.iii. (Very Exogenous Regressor) The support of the conditional distribution of $v$ conditional on $(x, z)$ is $\Omega_v \subset \mathbb{R}$ almost everywhere-$F_{x,z}$ (a.e $F_{x,z}$). This conditional distribution; denoted $F_v(. \mid x, z)$, is defined a.e. $F_{x,z}$. In the remainder we will assume either $\Omega_v = \{v_1, \ldots, v_K\}$ (discrete case) or $\Omega_v = [v_1, v_K]$ (interval case) where $v_1$ and $v_K$ are finite. In both cases $\Omega_v^0$ will denote $[v_1, v_K]$.

R.iv. (Functional Independence) There is no subspace of $\Omega_v \times S_{x,z}$ of dimension strictly less than $r + 1$ which probability measure, $(F_v(. \mid x, z).F_{x,z})$, is equal to 1.

Assumption R.i defines a binary model where there are $p$ explanatory variables and $q$ instrumental variables (assumption R.ii). Given assumption R.ii, we could denote the functionally independent description of $(x, z)$ as $u$ and this notation could be used interchangeably with $(x, z)$. In assumption R.iii, the support of the very exogenous regressor, $v$,

$^2$We only consider random samples and we do not subscript individual observations by $i$.

$^3$With no loss of generality, the $p$ explanatory variables $x$ can partially overlap with the $q \geq p$ instrumental variables $z$. Variables $(x, z)$ may also be functionally dependent (for instance $x, x^2, \log(x), \ldots$). A collection $(x_1, \ldots, x_K)$ of real random variables is functionally independent if its support is of dimension $K$ (i.e. there is no set of dimension strictly lower than $K$ which probability measure is equal to 1).
is assumed to be independent of variables \((x, z)\). If this support is an interval in \(\mathbb{R}\) (including \(\mathbb{R}\) itself) and \(v\) is continuously observed, we are back to the case studied by Lewbel (2000) and Magnac & Maurin (2004). In the next section (section 3), this support is assumed to be discrete so that the special regressor is said to be discrete. In section 4, the support is assumed continuous, but \(v\) is observed imperfectly, through censoring. In such a case, the special regressor is said to be interval-valued. In all cases, Assumption \(R.iv\) avoids the degenerate case where \(v\) and \((x, z)\) are functionally dependent.

Assuming that the data satisfy \(R.i-R.iv\), the basic issue addressed in this paper is whether they can be generated by the following semi-parametric latent variable index structure:

\[
y = 1\{x\beta + v + \epsilon > 0\}, \quad \text{(LV)}
\]

where \(1\{A\}\) is the indicator function that equals one if \(A\) is true and zero otherwise and where the random shock \(\epsilon\) satisfies the following properties,

**Assumption L(aten)**

(L.1) *(Partial independence)* The conditional distribution of \(\epsilon\) given covariates \(x\) and variables \(z\) is independent of the covariate \(v\):

\[
F_\varepsilon(\cdot \mid v, x, z) = F_\varepsilon(\cdot \mid x, z)
\]

The support of \(\varepsilon\) is denoted \(\Omega_\varepsilon(x, z)\).

(L.2) *(Large support)* The support of \(-x\beta - \varepsilon\) is a subset of \(\Omega_\varepsilon^0\) as defined in \(R.iii\).

(L.3) *(Moment condition)* The random shock \(\varepsilon\) is uncorrelated with variables \(z\): \(E(z'\epsilon) = 0\).

This combination of identifying assumptions was introduced by Lewbel (2000) and Honoré and Lewbel (2002).\(^4\) Powell (1994) discusses partial independence assumptions (calling them exclusion restrictions) in the context of other semiparametric models, i.e. without combining them with (L.2) or (L.3). Assumption L and some examples are commented in Lewbel (2000).

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\(^4\)There is only a minor difference between assumption L and the set-up introduced by Lewbel (2000), namely the distribution function \(F_\varepsilon\) can have mass points. When the special regressor is discrete or interval-valued, it is much easier than in the continuous case to allow for such discrete distributions of the unobserved factor. If all distribution functions are CADLAG (i.e., continuous on the right, limits on left), the large support assumption (L.2) has to be slightly rephrased however in order to exclude a mass point at \(-x\beta - v_K\).
or Magnac and Maurin (2004). Once \( v \) is perfectly observed and continuously distributed, the latter paper shows that Assumption \( L \) is sufficient for exact identification of both \( \beta \) and \( F_\varepsilon(\cdot \mid x, z) \).

In the remainder, any \((\beta, F_\varepsilon(\cdot \mid x, z))\) satisfying Assumption \( L \) is called a latent model. The index parameter \( \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p \) is the unknown parameter of interest. The distribution function of the error term, \( \epsilon \), is also unknown and may be considered as a nuisance parameter. Identification is studied in the set of all such \((\beta, F_\varepsilon(\cdot \mid x, z))\).

## 3 The Discrete Case

In this section, the support of the special regressor is supposed to be a discrete set given by:

**Assumption D(iscrete):** \( \Omega_v = \{v_1, \ldots, v_K\} \), \( v_k < v_{k+1} \) for any \( k = 1, \ldots, K - 1 \).

To begin with, we are going to explore the properties that a conditional probability distribution \( Pr(y = 1 \mid v, x, z) \) necessarily verifies when it is generated by a latent model \( (\beta, F_\varepsilon(\cdot \mid x, z)) \) that satisfies Assumption \( L \). The issue is to make explicit the class of binary outcomes which can actually be analyzed through the latent models under consideration.

### 3.1 Characterizing the Conditional Distribution

As defined by \((L.1)\) and \((L.2)\), partial-independence and large-support assumptions restrict the class of binary outcomes that can actually be analyzed. Restrictions are characterized by the following lemma:

**Lemma 1** Under partial independence \((L.1)\) and large support \((L.2)\) conditions, we necessarily have:

1. \((NP.1)\) (Monotonicity) The conditional probability \( Pr(y_i = 1 \mid v, x, z) \) is non-decreasing in \( v \) (a.e. \( F_{x, z} \)).
2. \((NP.2)\) (Support) The conditional probability \( Pr(y_i = 1 \mid v, x, z) \) varies from 0 to 1 when \( v \) varies over its support:

\[
Pr(y_i = 1 \mid v = v_1, x, z) = 0, \quad Pr(y_i = 1 \mid v = v_K, x, z) = 1.
\]
Proof. See Appendix A □

If a binary outcome does not satisfy \((NP.1)\) or \((NP.2)\) then there exists no latent model generating the reduced form \(Pr(y = 1 \mid v, x, z)\). The next section studies whether the reciprocal holds true, i.e. whether \((NP.1)\) and \((NP.2)\) are sufficient conditions for identification.

### 3.2 Set-identification

We consider a binary reduced-form \(Pr(y = 1 \mid v, x, z)\) satisfying the monotonicity condition \((NP1)\) and the support condition \((NP2)\) and ask whether there exists a latent model \((\beta, F_v(\cdot \mid x, z))\) generating this reduced-form through the latent variable transformation \((LV)\).

The answer is positive though the admissible latent model is not unique. There are many possible latent models which parameters are observationally equivalent.

We begin with a one-to-one change in variables which will allow us to characterize the set of observationally equivalent parameters through simple linear moment conditions. Denote, for \(k \in \{2, \ldots, K - 1\}\):

\[
\delta_k = \frac{(v_{k+1} - v_{k-1})}{2},
\]

\[
p_k(x, z) = Pr(v = v_k \mid x, z).
\]

Using these notations, the counterpart to the transformation of the binary response variable introduced by Lewbel (2000) and adapted to the discrete case, is defined as:

\[
\hat{y} = \frac{\delta_k y}{p_k(x, z)} - \frac{v_K + v_{K-1}}{2} \text{ if } v = v_k, \text{ for } k \in \{2, \ldots, K - 1\},
\]

\[
\hat{y} = -\frac{v_K + v_{K-1}}{2} \text{ if } v = v_1 \text{ or } v = v_K,
\]

In contrast to the continuous case, the identification of \(\beta\) when \(v\) is discrete is not exact anymore as stated in the following theorem:

**Theorem 2** Consider \(\beta\) a vector of parameter and \(Pr(y = 1 \mid v = v_k, x, z)\), (denoted \(G_k(x, z)\)) a conditional probability distribution satisfying conditions of monotonicity \((NP.1)\) and support \((NP.2)\). The two following statements are equivalent,

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\(^5\)For almost all \((v, x, z)\) in its support, which justifies that we divide by \(p_k(x, z)\). Division by zero is a null-probability event. Obviously, this argument might need some adaptation in practice in finite samples.
(i) there exists a latent random variable \( \varepsilon \) such that the latent model \((\beta, F_{\varepsilon}(\cdot \mid x, z))\) satisfies Assumption L and such that \(\{G_k(x, z)\}_{k=1..K}\) is its image through the transformation \((LV)\),

(ii) there exists a measurable function \(u(x, z)\) from \(S_{x,z}\) to \(\mathbb{R}\) which takes its values in the interval \((a.e. F_{x,z})\)

\[
I(x, z) = ] - \Delta(x, z), \Delta(x, z)[, \\
\Delta(x, z) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=2}^{K} [(v_k - v_{k-1})(G_k(x, z) - G_{k-1}(x, z))],
\]

where

\[
E(z'(x\beta - \tilde{y})) = E(z'u(x, z)).
\] (2)

Proof. See Appendix A. □

Condition (i) defines the set (denoted \(B\)) of all observationally equivalent values of parameter \(\beta\) compatible with structural assumptions and the data. Condition (ii) of Theorem 2 characterizes \(B\), showing that \(\beta \in B\) if and only if it satisfies equation (2). As discussed in Appendix A, the proof of Theorem 2 also leads to a characterization of the set of observationally equivalent distribution functions \(F_{\varepsilon}(\cdot \mid x, z)\). Green et al. (1998) proves a special case of this Theorem when neither regressors \(x\) nor instruments \(z\) are present. It allows them to provide bounds for the average willingness to pay in a contingent valuation experiment.

Before moving on to a more detailed discussion of the characteristics of set \(B\), it is possible to provide a clarifying sketch of its proof by analyzing the case, \(K = 2\). Consider \((\beta, F_{\varepsilon})\) satisfying Assumption L and its associated reduced form \(G_k(x, z)\) for \(k = 1, 2\). By Lemma 1 and \((NP2)\), we have \(G_1(x, z) = 0\) and \(G_2(x, z) = 1\) which makes this case trivial. Restriction \((L.2)\) implies:

\[
v_1 \leq -(x\beta + \varepsilon) < v_2
\]

When \(K = 2\), \(\tilde{y}\) is equal to \(-(v_2 + v_1)/2\) whatever \(v\) and the previous condition can be rewritten:

\[
-(v_2 - v_1)/2 \leq -(x\beta + \varepsilon) + \tilde{y} < (v_2 - v_1)/2 = \Delta(x, z)
\]

Hence, if we define \(u(x, z) = -E(\tilde{y} - x\beta - \varepsilon \mid x, z)\), it belongs to \(] - \Delta(x, z), \Delta(x, z)[\) and satisfies (2), as stated by Theorem 2.
Reciprocally, assume that there exists \( u(x, z) \) in \( ]-(v_2-v_1)/2, (v_2-v_1)/2[ \) which satisfies condition (2). Consider a random variable \( \lambda \) taking values in \( ]0, 1[ \) and such that:

\[
E(\lambda \mid x, z) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{u(x, z)}{v_2 - v_1}
\]

Then consider the random variable, \( \varepsilon = -x\beta - (1-\lambda)v_1 - \lambda v_2 \). By construction, it satisfies \( v_1 < -(x\beta+\varepsilon) \leq v_2 \). Hence, the model \((\beta, F_\varepsilon)\) satisfies \((L.1-L.2)\) and generates \( G_1(x, z) = 0 \) and \( G_2(x, z) = 1 \) through \((LV)\). The only remaining condition to check is \((L.3)\), namely \( \varepsilon \) is uncorrelated with \( z \). It is shown using condition (2) and the definition of \( \lambda \).

Figure 1 provides an illustration of the results stated in Theorem 2. Given some \((x, z)\), the nodes represent the conditional probability distribution \( G(v, x, z) \) as a function of the special regressor, \( v \). In this example, \( v \) satisfies \((NP.2)\), namely the conditional probability is equal to 0 at the lower bound \((v = -1)\) and equal to 1 at the upper bound \((v = 1)\). The other observed values are at \( v = -0.5, 0, 0.5 \). By construction, if \((\beta, F_\varepsilon)\) generates \( G \) through \((LV)\), it satisfies \( 1 - F_\varepsilon(-x\beta - v \mid x, z) = G(v, x, z) \). Hence, the only compatible distribution functions of the shock \( \varepsilon \) are such that \( 1 - F_\varepsilon(-x\beta - v \mid x, z) \) is passing through the nodes at \( v = -0.5, 0, 0.5 \). The only other restrictions are that these distribution functions are non-decreasing within the rectangles between the nodes. An example is reported in the graph but it is only one among many other possibilities. The total surface of the rectangles is given by function \( 2\Delta(x, z) \) and it measures the degree of our ignorance on the distribution of \( \varepsilon \).

The following section builds on Theorem 2 to provide a more detailed description of \( B \), the set of observationally equivalent parameters.

### 3.3 Bounds on Structural Parameters and Overidentification

This section provides a more detailed description of \( B \), the set of observationally equivalent parameters. We focus on the case where the number of instruments \( z \) is equal to the number of variables \( x \) (the exogenous case \( z = x \) being the leading example). At the end of the section, we will briefly indicate how the results could be extended to the case where the number of instruments \( z \) is larger than the number of explanatory variables, \( x \).
3.3.1 Characterizing the Identified Set

When the number of instruments is equal to the number of variables, the assumption that $E(z'x)$ is full rank ($R.ii$) implies that equation (2) has one and only one solution in $\beta$ for any function $u(x, z)$. Because equation (2) is linear in $\beta$, the set $B$ is convex. Also it is non-empty, since it necessarily contains the focal (say) value $\beta^*$ associated with the moment condition, $E(z'(x\beta^* - \bar{y})) = 0$ when $u(x, z) = 0$.

The set $B$ can be described as a neighborhood of $\beta^*$ which size depends on the distances $(v_k - v_{k-1})$ between the different elements of the support of $v$. Specifically, $\beta^*$ can be interpreted as the specific value that $\beta$ would take if these distances were negligible. First, Theorem 2 makes possible to obtain very simple upper bounds for the potential bias that affects the result of the IV regression of $\tilde{y}$ on $x$. Denoting the half-length of the largest interval as

$$\Delta_M = \max_{k \in \{2, K\}} (v_k - v_{k-1})/2,$$

we have:

**Corollary 3** The identification set $B$ is non-empty and convex. It contains the focal value $\beta^*$ defined as:

$$\beta^* = E(z'x)^{-1}E(z'\bar{y})$$

and any $\beta \in B$ satisfies,

$$(\beta - \beta^*)'W(\beta - \beta^*) \leq E[(\Delta(x, z))^2] \leq \Delta^2_M,$$

where $W = E(x'z)(E(z'z))^{-1}E(z'x)$.

**Proof.** See Appendix A. □

Corollary 3 shows that $B$ lies within an ellipsoid whose size is bounded by $\Delta_M$ in the metric $W$. Notice that in the specific case where the different $v_k$ are equidistant (i.e., $\forall k = 3, K, v_k - v_{k-1} = v_2 - v_1$), the half-length between two successive points, $\Delta_M = \frac{v_2 - v_1}{2}$, provides an upper bound for the size of the ellipsoid.

Returning to the general case, the maximum-length index, $\Delta_M$, can be taken as a measure of distance to continuity of the distribution function of $v$ (or of its support $\Omega_v$). For a latent
model \((\beta, F_x(\cdot \mid x, z))\), corollary 3 proves that, for a sequence of support \(\Omega_v\) indexed by \(\Delta_M\), we have:

\[
\lim_{\Delta_M \to 0} B = \{\beta^*\},
\]

and point identification is restored.

### 3.3.2 Interval Identification in the Coordinate Dimensions

The identification set \(B\) can be projected onto its elementary dimensions to better characterize the specific sets within which lie the different individual parameters. It can be done using the usual rules of projection. Let

\[
B_p = \{\beta_p \in \mathbb{R} \mid \exists(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_{p-1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{p-1}, (\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_{p-1}, \beta_p) \in B\}
\]

represents the projected set corresponding to the last coefficient (say). All scalars belonging to this interval, are observationally equivalent to the \(p\)th component of the true parameter.

**Corollary 4** \(B_p\) is an interval centered at \(\beta_p^*\), the \(p\)-th component of \(\beta_p^*\). Specifically, we have,

\[
B_p = \left[ \beta_p^* - \frac{E(\|ar{x}_p\| \Delta(x, z))}{E(\bar{x}_p^2)} ; \beta_p^* + \frac{E(\|ar{x}_p\| \Delta(x, z))}{E(\bar{x}_p^2)} \right]
\]

where \(\bar{x}_p\) is the residual of the IV regression of \(x_p\) onto the other components of \(x\) using instruments \(z\).

**Proof.** See Appendix A. ■

Generally speaking, the estimation of \(B_p\) requires the estimation of \(E(\|ar{x}_p\| \Delta(x, z))\). Given this fact, it is worth emphasizing that \(\Delta(x, z)\) can be rewritten \(E(\bar{y}_\Delta \mid x, z)\) where \(\bar{y}_\Delta = \frac{\mu_k \cdot y}{p_k(x, z)} + \frac{v_K - v_{K-1}}{2}\), with \(\mu_k = \frac{(v_k - v_{k-1} - (v_{k+1} - v_k))}{2}\) for \(k = 2, \ldots, K - 1\) and \(\mu_1 = \mu_K = 0\) (as shown at the end of the proof of corollary 5). Hence, \(E(\|ar{x}_p\| \Delta(x, z))\) can be rewritten \(E(\|ar{x}_p\| \bar{y}_\Delta)\) which means that the estimation of the upper and lower bounds of \(B_p\) only requires [1] the construction of the transform \(\bar{y}_\Delta\), [2] an estimation of the residual \(\bar{x}_p\) and [3] the linear regression of \(\bar{y}_\Delta\) on \(\|ar{x}_p\|\).

Regarding inference, frameworks of Horowitz and Manski (1998), Imbens and Manski (2004) or Chernozhukov et al. (2004) can be immediately applied to this result. In particular, Chernozhukov et al. (2004) use interval identification as one of their leading examples. Tests
and confidence intervals can be readily derived using the objective function that they propose. It is more difficult to extend their results to many dimensions as in our general case above and we left it for future research.

### 3.3.3 Overidentification

A potentially interesting development of this framework is when the number of instruments is larger than the number of variables \((q > p)\). In such a case, \(B\) is not necessarily non-empty since condition (2) in Theorem 2 may have no solutions at all (i.e., some overidentification restrictions may be not true).

Consider \(z_A\), a random vector which dimension is the same as random vector \(x\), defined by:

\[
z_A = Az
\]

and such that \(E(z'_Ax)\) is full rank. Define the set, \(A\), of such matrices \(A\) of dimension \(p, q\). The previous analysis can then be repeated for any \(A\) in such a set. The identification set \(B(A)\) is now indexed by \(A\). Under the maintained assumption \((L.3)\), the true parameter (or parameters) belongs to the intersection of all such sets when matrix \(A\) varies:

\[
B = \bigcap_{A \in A} B(A)
\]

As previously, this set is convex because it is the intersection of convex sets. What changes is that it can be empty which refutes the maintained assumption \((L.3)\). This argument would form the basis for optimizing the choice of \(A\) or for constructing test procedures of overidentifying restrictions in such a partial identification framework. The question is open whether the usual results hold. Finally, we can always project this set onto its elementary dimensions. The intersection of the projections is the projection of the intersections.

For the sake of simplicity, we shall proceed in the rest of the paper using the assumption that \(p = q\) which is worthwhile investigating first.

### 3.4 Priors on The Range of Variation

Theorem 2 and its corollaries characterize the set of parameters (denoted \(B\)) that are observationally equivalent to the true parameter under the assumption that the conditional
probability $Pr(y = 1 \mid v, x, z)$ increases from 0 to 1 when $v$ varies over its support. This condition represents a potentially important limitation in empirical applications. A more careful look at Theorem 2 shows that it is possible to relax this assumption and to characterize the identification set in a substantially more general framework.

Because of $(NP.2)$, one key aspect of Theorem 2 is that there is no variation in the dependent variable $y$ at the top and bottom values of $v$ (i.e., $v_1$ and $v_K$). It is either always equal to 0 or always equal to 1. Knowing $Pr(v = v_1 \mid x, z)$ or $Pr(v = v_K \mid x, z)$ does not provide any additional information on the parameters of interest. In fact, the previous argument about identification is untouched and $B$ can be identified even in the extreme case where $Pr(v = v_1 \mid x, z) = Pr(v = v_K \mid x, z) = 0$, when $v_1$ and $v_K$ are outside the true support of $v$. In other words, it is not necessary to actually observe $Pr(y = 1 \mid v, x, z)$ varying from zero to one to identify the set $B$, it is only necessary to impose this condition as a prior on the data generating process of $y$ at values of $v$ that are not observed in the available data. Some economic examples are given below.

To be more specific, consider the following reformulation of $(L.2)$,

$$(L.2bis) \text{ There exist two finite real numbers } v_0 \text{ and } v_{K+1}, \text{ with } v_0 < v_1 \text{ and } v_{K+1} > v_K, \text{ such that the support of } -x\beta - \varepsilon \text{ is included in } [v_0, v_{K+1}].$$

Condition $(L.2bis)$ clearly relaxes condition $(L.2)$. Under $(L.2bis)$, $Pr(y = 1 \mid v, x, z)$ does not necessarily vary from zero to one when $v$ varies over its support $\Omega_v = \{v_1, \ldots, v_K\}$, so that $Pr(y = 1 \mid v, x, z)$ does not necessarily satisfy condition $(NP.2)$ anymore. Condition $(L.2bis)$ imposes $(NP.2)$ as a prior on $Pr(y = 1 \mid v, x, z)$ for values of $v$, $v_0$ and $v_{K+1}$, that are actually not observed in the data.

It is straightforward to check that $B$ can be identified under $(L.2bis)$ following exactly the same route as under $(L.2)$. The only change is to replace $v_1$ by $v_0$ and $v_K$ by $v_{K+1}$.

**Corollary 5** Consider $\beta$ a vector of parameter and $Pr(y = 1 \mid v = v_k, x, z)$, a conditional probability distribution (denoted $G_k(x, z)$) satisfying the monotonicity condition $(NP.1)$. The two following statements are equivalent,

(i) there exists a latent random variable $\varepsilon$ such that the latent model $(\beta, F_\varepsilon(\cdot \mid x, z))$ satisfies conditions $(L.1 - L.2bis - L.3)$ and such that $\{G_k(x, z)\}_{k=1,..,K}$ is its image through
the transformation \((LV)\),

(ii) there exists a measurable function \(u(x, z)\) from \(S_{x,z}\) to \(\mathbb{R}\) which takes its values in the interval \((a.e.F_{x,z})\)

\[ I(x, z) = ] - \Delta(x, z), \Delta(x, z)], \]

where

\[ \Delta(x, z) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K+1} [(v_k - v_{k-1})(G_k(x, z) - G_{k-1}(x, z))], \]

and such that,

\[ E(z'(x\beta - \bar{y}) = E(z'u(x, z)). \quad (3) \]

This corollary states that identification remains possible even when the support of the special regressor is not large and when the probability of observing \(y = 1\) does not vary from zero to one. The cost is that the identification set depends on priors (i.e, \(v_0\) and \(v_{K+1}\) ) which location might be debatable and the case should be argued in each particular application.

An example of potential application is the analysis of the probability of buying an object (a bottle of water, say) as a function of an experimentally-set price \(v\). Specifically, each individual is faced with a price which is under experimental control and can take only two values \(v_1\) and \(v_2\). Though we only observe two prices, we can plausibly assume that for a sufficiently small (large) \(v_0\) (\(v_3\)) the probability of buying the object is 1 (0) whatever the characteristics of the individuals. Hence, the problem can be redefined with the support of \(v\) being \(\{v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3\}\) and with the additional assumption that \(Pr(y = 1\mid v, x, z)\) varies from zero to one when \(v\) varies over its support.

Other (non-experimental) examples include the analysis of the probability of entry (or exit) into such basic institutions as the labor market or the school system. Consider for instance the school-leaving probability in a typical developed country where \(v\) stands for individuals’ age at the end of the year. We can plausibly speculate that the complete variability of this probability between 0 and 1 (Condition \(NP.2\)) is satisfied when (say) \(v_0 = 15\) years and \(v_{K+1} = 30\) years. Using these priors and assuming that the school-leaving latent propensity may be written \((x\beta + v + \varepsilon)\), we can provide valuable inference on \(\beta\) even if our sample of observations consists in 20 to 25 years old individuals and such that the observed probability of school leaving of the 20 (25) years’ old is strictly greater (lower) than
Generally speaking, the identification method developed in this paper can also be applied to the analysis of virtually any binary phenomena which diffusion may be assumed dependent of a secular time-trend.

4 Interval Data

In this section, we deal with the case where \( v \) is continuous although it is observed by intervals only. We show that the set of parameters observationally equivalent to the true structural parameter has a similar structure as in the discrete case. It is a convex set and, when there are no overidentifying restrictions \( (p = q) \), it is not empty. It contains the focal value corresponding to an IV regression of a transformation of \( y \) on \( x \) given instruments \( z \). When some information is available on the conditional distribution function of regressor \( v \) within-intervals, the identification set shrinks. Its size diminishes as the distribution function of the special regressor within intervals becomes closer to uniformity. When \( v \) is conditionally uniformly distributed within intervals, the identification set is a singleton and the parameter of interest \( \beta \) is exactly identified.

4.1 Identification Set: the General Case

The data are now characterized by a random variable \( (y, v, v^*, x, z) \) where \( v^* \) is the result of censoring \( v \) by interval. Only realizations of \( (y, v^*, x, z) \) are observed and those of \( v \) are not. Variable \( v^* \) is discrete and defines the interval in which \( v \) lies. More specifically, assumption D is replaced by:

**Assumption ID:**

(i) (Interval Data) The support of \( v^* \) conditional on \( (x, z) \) is \( \{1, ..., K - 1\} \) almost everywhere \( F_{x,z} \). The distribution function of \( v^* \) conditional on \( (x, z) \) is denoted \( p_{v^*}(x, z) \). It is defined almost everywhere \( F_{x,z} \).

(ii) (Continuous Regressor) The support of \( v \) conditional on \( (x, z, v^* = k) \) is \( [v_k, v_{k+1}] \) (almost everywhere \( F_{x,z} \)). The overall support is \( [v_1, v_K] \). The distribution function of \( v \)

---

6 Under slightly different structural assumptions, this example can also be used in the section dealing with interval data when age is treated as a censored continuous variable.
conditional on \(x, z, v^*\) is denoted \(F_v(.) \mid v^*, x, z\) and is assumed to be absolutely continuous. Its density function denoted \(f_v(.) \mid v^*, x, z\) is strictly positive and bounded.

Within this framework, we consider latent models which satisfy the large support condition (L.2) (i.e., the support of \(-x\beta - \epsilon\) is included in the support of \(v\)), the moment condition (L.3) (i.e., \(E(z'\epsilon) = 0\)) and the following extension of the partial independence hypothesis,

\[
F_v(.) \mid v, v^*, x, z = F_v(.) \mid x, z
\]  

(L.1*)

The conditional probability distributions \(Pr(y = 1 \mid v^*, x, z)\) generated through transformation \((LV)\) by such latent models is non decreasing in \(v^*\) using the same argument as in Lemma 1. Distribution \(Pr(y = 1 \mid v^*, x, z)\) does not vary from 0 to 1 however when \(v^*\) varies over its support. Using the terminology of the previous section, it necessarily satisfies condition \((NP.1)\), but does not necessarily satisfy condition \((NP.2)\). We will keep the former restriction and drop the latter from the definition of the class of binary reduced forms under consideration.

We thus consider a conditional probability function \(Pr(y = 1 \mid v^*, x, z)\) which is non decreasing in \(v^*\) and we search for a latent model generating this reduced form through transformation \((LV)\). In analogy with the discrete case, we begin with constructing a transformation of the dependent variable. If \(\delta(v^*) = v_{v^*+1} - v_{v^*}\) denotes the length of the \(v^*\)th interval, the transformation adapted to interval data is:

\[
\bar{y} = \frac{\delta(v^*)}{p_{v^*}(x, z)} y - v_K
\]  

(4)

It is slightly different from the transformation (1) in terms of weights \(\delta(v^*)\) and in reference to the end-points but the dependence on the random variable \(y/p_{v^*}(x, z)\) remains the same.

With these notations, the following theorem analyses the degree of underidentification of the structural parameter \(\beta\).

**Theorem 6** Consider \(\beta\) a vector of parameter and \(Pr(y = 1 \mid v^*, x, z)\) (denoted \(G_{v^*}(x, z)\)) a conditional distribution function which is non decreasing in \(v^*\). The two following statements are equivalent,

(i) there exist a latent conditional distribution function of \(v\), \(F_v(.) \mid x, z, v^*\), and a latent random variable \(\varepsilon\) defined by its conditional distribution function \(F_\varepsilon(.) \mid x, z\) such that:
a. \((\beta, F_\ell(. \mid x, z))\) satisfies \((L.1^*, L.2, L.3)\)

b. \(G_\omega(x, z)\) is the image of \((\beta, F_\ell(. \mid x, z))\) through the transformation \((LV)\),

(ii) there exists a function \(u^*(x, z)\) taking its values in \(I^*(x, z) = [\Delta^*(x, z), \overline{\Delta}^*(x, z)]\) where (by convention, \(G_0(x, z) = 0, G_K(x, z) = 1\)),

\[
\Delta^*(x, z) = \sum_{k=1,...,K-1} (G_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z))(v_{k+1} - v_k),
\]

\[
\overline{\Delta}^*(x, z) = -\sum_{k=1,...,K-1} (G_k(x, z) - G_{k-1}(x, z))(v_{k+1} - v_k),
\]

and such that,

\[
E(z'(x\beta - \bar{y}) = E(z'u^*(x, z))). \tag{5}
\]

Proof. See Appendix B \(\blacksquare\)

The identification set has the same general structure in the interval-data case as in the discrete case. It is a non-empty convex set which contains the focal value corresponding to the moment condition \(E(z'(x\beta - \bar{y}) = 0)\).

4.2 Inference Using Additional Information on the Distribution Function of the Special Regressor

We now study how additional information helps to shrink the identification set. There are many instances where there exists additional information on the conditional distribution function of \(v\) within intervals. It may correspond to the case where \(v\) is observed at the initial stage of a survey or a census, but then dropped from the files that are made available to researchers for confidentiality reasons. Only interval-data information and information (estimates for instance) about the conditional distribution function of \(v\) remains available. This framework may also correspond to the case where the conditional distribution function of \(v\) is available in one database that does not contain information on \(y\) while the information on \(y\) is available in another database\(^7\) which contains only interval information on \(v\).

To analyse these situations, we complete the statistical model by assuming that we have full information on the conditional distribution of \(v\) :\(^7\)

\(^7\)Angrist and Krueger (1992) or Arellano and Meghir (1992) among others developed two-sample IV techniques for such data design in the linear case.
(NP.3): The conditional distribution function of \( v \) is known and denoted \( \Phi(v \mid x, z, v^*) \).

The first question is whether this additional information reduces the identification set. The second question is whether there exists an optimal way of censoring \( v \) and choosing the intervals for defining \( v^* \). Knowing how identification is related to the conditional distribution \( \Phi(v \mid x, z, v^*) \) may provide interesting guidelines to control censorship.

The first unsurprising result is that additional knowledge on \( \Phi(v \mid x, z, v^*) \) actually helps to shrink the identification set. The second - more surprising - result is that point-identification is restored provided that the conditional distribution function of the censored variable \( v \) is piece-wise uniform.

To state these two results, we are going to use indexes measuring the distance of a distribution function \( \Phi(v \mid v^* = k, x, z) \) to uniformity. Specifically, we denote \( U(v \mid v^* = k) = \frac{v - v_k}{v_{k+1} - v_k} \) the uniform c.d.f and we consider the two following indexes,

\[
\xi^U_k(x, z) = \sup_{v \in ]v_k, v_{k+1}]} \left[ \frac{\Phi - U}{\Phi} \right] \\
\xi^L_k(x, z) = \inf_{v \in ]v_k, v_{k+1}]} \left[ \frac{\Phi - U}{1 - \Phi} \right]
\]

where the arguments of \( \Phi \) and \( U \) are made implicit for expositional simplicity.

Given that \( \Phi \) is absolutely continuous and its density is positive everywhere \( (ID(ii)), \frac{\Phi - U}{\Phi} \) and \( \frac{\Phi - U}{1 - \Phi} \) are well defined on \( ]v_k, v_{k+1}]\) and satisfy \( \frac{\Phi - U}{\Phi} < 1 \) and \( \frac{\Phi - U}{1 - \Phi} > -1 \). Furthermore, given that \( \frac{\Phi - U}{\Phi} \) \( \frac{\Phi - U}{1 - \Phi} \) is continuous and equal to zero at \( v_{k+1} \) (at \( v_k \)), the supremum of this function in the neighborhood of \( v_{k+1} \) (at \( v_k \)) is clearly non negative (non positive). Hence, we have \( \xi^L_k(x, z) \in ]-1, 0] \) and \( \xi^U_k(x, z) \in [0, 1[ \), the two indices being equal to zero when \( \Phi \) is equal to \( U \). Using these notations, we have the following theorem:

**Theorem 7** Consider \( \beta \) a vector of parameters, \( \Pr(y = 1 \mid v^*, x, z) \) (denoted \( G_{v^*}(x, z) \)) a conditional distribution function which is non decreasing in \( v^* \) and \( \Phi(v \mid v^*, x, z) \) a conditional distribution function. The two following statements are equivalent,

(i) there exists a latent random variable \( \varepsilon \) defined by its conditional distribution function \( F_\varepsilon(. \mid x, z) \) such that:

a. \( (\beta, F_\varepsilon(. \mid x, z)) \) satisfies \( (L.1^*, L.2, L.3) \)
b. $G_w(x, z)$ is the image of $(\beta, F_{x}(\cdot \mid x, z))$ through the transformation $(LV)$,

(ii) there exists a function $u^*(x, z)$ taking its values in $[\Delta^*_\Phi(x, z), \overline{\Delta}_\Phi(x, z)]$ where:

\[
\Delta^*_\Phi(x, z) = \sum_{k=1,\ldots,K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k) \xi^L_k(x, z)(G_k(x, z) - G_{k-1}(x, z))
\]

\[
\overline{\Delta}^*_\Phi(x, z) = \sum_{k=1,\ldots,K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k) \xi^U_k(x, z)(G_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z))
\]

and such that,

\[
E(z'(x \beta - \bar{y}) = E(z'u^*(x, z))).
\]

**Proof.** See Appendix B

Given that $\xi^L_k(x, z) \in [-1, 0]$ and $\xi^U_k(x, z) \in [0, 1]$, the identification set characterized by Theorem 7 is clearly smaller than the identification set characterized by Theorem 6 when no information is available on $v$. Also, Theorem 7 makes clear that the size of identification set diminishes with respect to the distance between the conditional distribution of $v$ and the uniform distribution, as measured by $\xi^L_k(x, z)$ and $\xi^U_k(x, z)$. When this distance is abolished and $v$ is piece-wise uniform, the identification set clearly boils down to a singleton.

**Corollary 8** The identification set is a singleton if and only if the conditional distribution, $\Phi(v \mid x, z, v^*)$, for all $v^* = k$, and a.e. $F_{x,z}$, is uniform, i.e.:

\[
\Phi(v \mid v^* = k, x, z) = \frac{v - v_k}{v_{k+1} - v_k}
\]

**Proof.** See Appendix B

Corollary 8 corresponds to the “best” case. Assuming that the distribution of $v$ is not piece-wise uniform, the question remains whether it is possible to rank the potential distributions of $v$ according to the corresponding degree of underidentification of $\beta$. The answer is positive. Specifically, the closer to uniformity the conditional distribution of $v$ is, the smaller the identification set is.

To state this result, we first need to rank distributions according to the magnitude of their deviations from the uniform distribution.
Definition 9 $\Phi_2(v \mid x, z, v^*)$ is closer to uniformity than $\Phi_1(v \mid x, z, v^*)$, when a.e. $F_{x,z}$ and for any $k \in \{1, ..., K - 1\}$:

$$
\xi_{k,1}^L(x, z) \leq \xi_{k,2}^L(x, z) \\
\xi_{k,1}^U(x, z) \geq \xi_{k,2}^U(x, z).
$$

The corresponding preorder is denoted $\Phi_1 \succeq \Phi_2$.

Using this definition:

Corollary 10 Let $\Phi(v \mid v^* = k, x, z)$ any conditional distribution. Let $B$ the associated region of identification for $\beta$. Then:

$$
\Phi_1 \succeq \Phi_2 \implies B_{\Phi_2} \subseteq B_{\Phi_1}
$$


Assuming that we have some control on the construction on $v^*$ (i.e., on the information on $v$ that are made available to researchers), this result shows that it has simply to be constructed in a way that minimizes the distance between the uniform distribution and the distribution of $v$ conditional on $v^*$ (and other regressors). Such a choice minimizes the length of the identification interval. Consider for instance date of birth. The frequency of this variable plausibly varies from one season to another, or even from one month to another, especially in countries where there exist strong seasonal variations in economic activity. At the same time, it is likely that the frequency of this variable does not vary significantly within months, meaning it is likely that it is uniformly distributed within months in most countries. In such a case, our results show that we only have to made available the month of birth of respondents (and not necessarily their exact date-of-birth) to achieve exact identification of structural parameters of binary models which are monotone with respect to date-of-birth.

4.3 Projections of the Identification Set

Results concerning projections of the identification set in the discrete case can be easily extended to the case of interval data. As in the previous section and for simplicity, we restrict our analysis to the case when the dimension of $z$ and $x$ are the same. The identified set $B$
can be projected onto its elementary dimensions using the same usual rules as in Corollary 4. As in the discrete case though, we focus on the leading case of no overidentifying restrictions \((p = q)\).

Let:

\[ B_p = \{ \beta_p \in \mathbb{R} \mid \exists (\beta_1, ..., \beta_{p-1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{p-1}, (\beta_1, ..., \beta_{p-1}, \beta_p) \in B \} \]

is the projected set corresponding to the last (say) coefficient. All scalars belonging to this interval, are observationally equivalent to the \(p\)th component of the true parameter. We denote \(\beta^*\) the solution of equation (5) when function \(u^*(x, z) = 0\) (as \(E(z'x)\) is a square invertible matrix):

\[ \beta^* = E(z'x)^{-1}E(z'y) \]

To begin with, we consider the case where no information is available on the distribution of \(v\) and state the corollary to Theorem 6.

**Corollary 11** \(B_p\) is an interval which center is \(\beta^*_p\), where \(\beta^*_p\) represents the \(p\)-th component of \(\beta^*\). Specifically, we have,

\[ B_p = [\beta^*_p + \varsigma_{L,p}; \beta^*_p + \varsigma_{U,p}] \]

where:

\[ \varsigma_{L,p} = [E(\tilde{x}_p^2)]^{-1}E(\tilde{x}_p(1\{\tilde{x}_p > 0\})\Delta^*(x, z) + 1\{\tilde{x}_p \leq 0\}\overline{\Delta}^*(x, z)) \]

\[ \varsigma_{U,p} = [E(\tilde{x}_p^2)]^{-1}E(\tilde{x}_p(1\{\tilde{x}_p \leq 0\})\Delta^*(x, z) + 1\{\tilde{x}_p > 0\}\overline{\Delta}^*(x, z)) \]

with \(\tilde{x}_p\) is the residual of the projection of \(x_p\) onto the other components of \(x\) using instruments \(z\).

**Proof.** See Appendix B. ■

The corresponding corollary to Theorem 7 has exactly the same structure as Corollary 11, with \(\Delta^*_\phi\) and \(\overline{\Delta}^*_\phi\) replacing \(\Delta^*\) and \(\overline{\Delta}^*\).

Generally speaking, the estimation of \(B_p\) requires the estimation of \(\varsigma_{L,p}\) and \(\varsigma_{U,p}\). At the end of the proof of Corollary 11, we show that these scalars can be estimated through simple regressions. Specifically, let us denote \(\bar{y}_L = \frac{\theta_{L,v^*}y}{p_k(x, z)} + v_K - v_{K-1}\), where \(\theta_{L,k} = \)
\[
\frac{(v_{k+2} - v_{k+1} - (v_{k+1} - v_k))}{2} \text{ for } k = 2, \ldots, K - 1 \text{ and where } v_{K+1} = v_K \text{ by convention. Similarly, define } \bar{y}_U = \frac{2}{p_k(x)} y + v_K - v_{K-1}, \text{ where } \theta_{U,k} = \frac{(v_{k-1} - (v_{k+1} - v_k))}{2} \text{ for } k = 2, \ldots, K - 1 \text{ and where } v_0 = v_1.
\]

Using these notations, \( \zeta_{L,p} \) is the regression coefficient of \( (1\{\tilde{x}_p > 0\} \bar{y}_{L,p} + 1\{\tilde{x}_p \leq 0\} \bar{y}_{U,p}) \) on \( \tilde{x}_p \) and \( \zeta_{U,p} \) is the regression coefficient of \( (1\{\tilde{x}_p \leq 0\} \bar{y}_{L,p} + 1\{\tilde{x}_p > 0\} \bar{y}_{U,p}) \) on \( \tilde{x}_p \).

Interestingly, when all intervals have the same length, \( \bar{y}_L \) and \( \bar{y}_U \) are equal and constant and the length of the one-dimensional identification region is then proportional to this constant.

5 Monte Carlo Experiments

In this section, we present simple Monte Carlo experiments in order to analyze how our (set) estimators perform in medium-sized samples (i.e., 100 to 1000 observations). The simulated model is \( y = 1\{1 + v + x_2 + \varepsilon > 0\} \). For the sake of clarity, the set-up is chosen to be as close as possible to the set-up originally used by Lewbel (2000). We adapt this original setting to cases where the special regressor \( v \) is discrete or interval-valued.

Specifically, the construction of the special regressor \( v \), the covariate \( x_2 \), the instrument \( z \) and the random shock \( \varepsilon \) proceeds in two steps. To begin with, consider four random variables such as: \( e_1 \) is uniform on \([0, 1]\), \( e_2 \) and \( e_3 \) are zero mean unit variance normal variates and \( e_4 \) is a mixture of a normal variate \( N(-.3,.91) \) using a weight of .75 and a normal variate \( N(.9,.19) \) using a weight of .25. Using these notations, we define:

\[
\begin{align*}
\eta & = 2e_2 + \alpha e_4, & x_2 = e_1 + e_4 \\
\varepsilon & = \rho(e_1 - .5) + e_3, & z = e_4.
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \alpha \) is a parameter that makes the random shock a non-normal variate and \( \rho \) is a parameter that renders \( x_2 \) endogenous. The case where \( \alpha = \rho = 0 \) (resp. \( \alpha = \rho = 1 \)) roughly corresponds to what Lewbel calls the simple (resp. messy) design.

In the discrete case, we choose \( v_1 \) and \( v_K = -v_1 \) at the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of the distribution of \( \eta \). The other points of the support of \( v \) are denoted \( v_2, \ldots, v_{K-1} \). With these notations, \( v \) is defined as (where \( v_{K+1} = \infty \)):

\[
\begin{align*}
v & = v_k \text{ if } \eta \in [v_k, v_{k+1}] \text{ and } k = 2, \ldots, K \\
v & = v_1 \text{ if } \eta < v_2.
\end{align*}
\]
To comply with assumption $L.2$, we then truncate $x_2 + \varepsilon$ by a method of acceptation and rejection in order that $1 + x_2 + \varepsilon + v_1 > 0$ and $1 + x_2 + \varepsilon + v_K < 0$.

In the interval case, $v$ is defined by truncating $\eta$ to the 95% symmetric interval around 0, denoted $[v_1, v_K]$. To comply with assumption $L.2$, we then truncate $x_2 + \varepsilon$ so that $1 + x_2 + \varepsilon + v_1 > 0$ and $1 + x_2 + \varepsilon + v_K < 0$. We then construct the censored $K - 1$ intervals in the obvious way:

$$v^* = k \text{ if } v \in [v_k, v_{k+1}]$$

### 5.1 Presentation of results

Tables 1 to 8 report various Monte Carlo experiments in cases where the data are discrete or are interval-valued. In all tables, we make the sample size vary using 100, 200, 500 or 1000 observations. The number of Monte Carlo replications is equal to 1000 in all experiments. Additional replications do not affect any estimates (resp. standard errors) by more than a 1% margin of error (resp. 3%). We report results in two panels. In the top panel, we report estimates of the lower and upper bounds of both coefficients (intercept and variable) by recentering them at zero instead of their true values which are equal to one. In the bottom panel, we compute the average of the estimates of the lower and upper bounds, $E(\hat{\theta}_b + \hat{\theta}_u)/2$, the adjusted length of the interval, $E(\hat{\theta}_u - \hat{\theta}_b)/2\sqrt{3}$, and the average sampling error defined as:

$$(\hat{\sigma}_u^2 + \hat{\sigma}_b^2 + \hat{\sigma}_u\hat{\sigma}_b)/3$$

where $\hat{\sigma}_u$ and $\hat{\sigma}_b$ are estimated standard errors of the estimated lower and upper bounds. These three statistics provide an interesting decomposition of the mean square error uniformly integrated over the interval $[\hat{\theta}_b, \hat{\theta}_u]$:

$$MSEI = \int_{\hat{\theta}_b}^{\hat{\theta}_u} \frac{(\theta - \theta_0)^2}{\hat{\theta}_u - \hat{\theta}_b} \, d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} E \left[ \frac{(\hat{\theta}_u - \theta_0)^3 - (\hat{\theta}_b - \theta_0)^3}{\hat{\theta}_u - \hat{\theta}_b} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} E \left[ (\hat{\theta}_u - \theta_0)^2 + (\hat{\theta}_b - \theta_0)^2 + (\hat{\theta}_b - \theta_0)(\hat{\theta}_u - \theta_0) \right]$$
Let $\hat{\theta}_i = E(\hat{\theta}_i)$, $i = u, b$, the expected values of the estimates, and $\bar{\theta}_m = (\hat{\theta}_u + \hat{\theta}_b)/2$ the average center of the interval. We then have:

$$MSEI = (\bar{\theta}_m - \theta_0)^2 + \frac{1}{3} E \left[ (\hat{\theta}_u - \bar{\theta}_m)^2 + (\hat{\theta}_b - \bar{\theta}_m)^2 + (\hat{\theta}_b - \hat{\theta}_u)(\hat{\theta}_u - \hat{\theta}_b) \right]$$

The first term is the square of a “decentering” term which can be interpreted as a bias term. The second term is the square of the “adjusted” length, which can be interpreted as the “uncertainty” due to partial identification instead of point identification. The third term is an average of standard errors and can then be interpreted as sample variability. These three terms are reported in the bottom panel for both coefficients as well as root mean square error, $MSEI^{1/2}$.

### 5.2 Discrete Data

In experiments reported in Tables 1 to 4, the data are discrete. We make some parameters vary in these tables: The bandwidth in Table 1, the degree of non normality in Table 2, the degree of endogeneity in Table 3 and the number of points in the support of the special regressor in Table 4. In all cases, the true value of the parameter belongs to the interval built up around the estimates of the lower and upper bounds. Horowitz and Manski (2000) and Imbens and Manski (2004) for an alternative, rigorously define confidence intervals when identification is partial. We here report confidence intervals for bounds only. In cases where the number of points is fixed (Tables 1 to 3), the stability of the estimated length of the interval across experiments is a noticeable result. It almost never vary by more than a relative factor of 10%.

In Table 1, we experimented with different bandwidths. As said, interval lengths are stable, though intervals can be severely decentered for the intercept term. Increasing the sample size or the bandwidth recenters the interval around the true value. Increasing the bandwidth decenteres interval estimates for the coefficient of the variable towards the negative numbers though at a much lesser degree. Finally, the mean square error ($MSEI$) for the intercept decreases with the bandwidth while it has a U-shape form for the coefficient of the
variable. We have tried to look for a data-driven choice of the bandwidth by minimizing this quantity but it was unconclusive. A larger bandwidth seems to be always preferred. Some further research is clearly needed on this issue.

In Table 2, we experimented with different degrees of non-normality, by making parameter $\alpha$ vary. If this parameter increases, interval length is very weakly affected. There is some recentering of intervals either towards negative numbers for the intercept or towards positive values for the coefficient of the variable. Note that average standard errors and mean square errors also tend to increase with parameter $\alpha$.

In Table 3, we experimented with different degrees of correlation between covariates and errors and therefore the amount of endogeneity. It is the only case where interval length slightly differs across experiments. It increases with the amount of endogeneity. There is also some large decentering of the intervals for small sample sizes (100) but decentering either completely disappears when the sample size is equal to 1000 or is not much affected by varying the degree of endogeneity. As well, standard errors are slightly affected only when the sample size is less than 200.

In Table 4, we experimented with varying the number of points of the discrete support. Theory predicts that interval length should decrease with the number of points of support. In our experiments, it is always true and this decrease is not much affected by sample sizes. We obtain that result by estimating the conditional probability function of $v$ using nearest neighbors (w.r.t. $v$) and using kernels for the other covariates. A preliminary less careful estimation of this probability function led to humps and bumps in the estimates. There can be some strong decentering problems though and there is evidence of a trade-off between the length of the interval and the average standard errors. The latter tend to increase when the number of points in the support increases. No doubt that it is partly due to the way we built up the probability estimates. The adaptation of kernel methods proposed by Racine and Li (2004) could be an alternative to deal with this problem.

5.3 Interval Data

In experiments reported in Tables 5 to 8, the data are interval-valued. Similarly to the discrete case, we make the same parameters vary in these tables: The bandwidth in Table 5,
the degree of non normality in Table 6, the degree of endogeneity in Table 7 and the number of points in the support of the special regressor in Table 8.

Although the experiments cannot be strictly compared, results are in most cases very similar to the discrete case. The true values of the parameters belong to the confidence interval built up around the estimates of the lower and upper bounds. In cases where the number of points is fixed (Tables 5 to 7), the stability of the length of the interval is again a noticeable result. It almost never vary by more than a relative factor of 10%. The average length seems however to be larger in the interval case than in the discrete case.

In Table 1, results remain very close to those obtained in the discrete case. The interval for the intercept is severely decentered in small samples while the interval for the variable coefficient is decentered in large samples with a slightly larger magnitude than in the discrete case. Similarly, the mean square error is decreasing with the bandwidth or, less frequently has a U-shape form. Again, finding a data-driven bandwidth through minimization of this mean square error is not an easy task. Table 6 has a different flavour. Decentering can be quite severe above all for the coefficient of the variable when the degree of non-normality is large. It is also true at a lesser degree for the intercept. In Table 7 also, results are less systematic than in the discrete case. Interval length either decrease or increase when the degree of endogeneity increases while decentering can be quite severe, much more than in the discrete case. Nevertheless, results are very similar to the discrete case when the number of intervals is varied (Table 8). Interval lengths regularly shrink towards 0 while mean square error increases, yielding evidence on the trade-off between those characteristics.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we explored partial identification of coefficients of binary variable models when the very exogenous regressor is discrete or interval-valued. We derived bounds for the coefficients and show that they can be written as moments of the data generating process. We also show that in the case of interval data, additional information can shrink the identification set. When the unknown variable is distributed uniformly within intervals, these sets are reduced to one point.

Some additional points seem to be worthwhile considering. First, we do not provide
proofs of consistency and asymptotic properties of the estimates of the bounds of the intervals because they would add little to the ones Lewbel (2000) presents. The asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of the bounds can also be derived along similar lines. Moreover, adapting the proofs of Magnac and Maurin (2004) these estimates are efficient in a semi-parametric sense under some conditions.

Generally speaking, the identification results obtained in this paper when data are not continuous may be used to enhance identification power when the data are actually continuous. Specifically, if the support of the continuous very exogenous regressor is not large enough, one could use additional measurements or priors at discrete points at the left and right of the actual support in order to achieve partial or point identification. Such additional information generate a case with mixed discrete and continuous support. It can be analyzed by using simultaneously the proofs used in the discrete, interval or continuous settings. An interesting situation corresponds to a binary variable which probability of occurrence is known to be monotone in some regressor $v$ and varies between 0 and 1 in a known interval. School-leaving (as a function of age) is such an example. In such a case, the coefficients of the binary latent model are partially identified regardless of whether the scheme of observation of the very exogenous regressor is complete, discrete, by interval or continuous. Two extreme cases lead to exact identification, i.e. complete and continuous observation in the interval on the one hand, and, on the other hand, complete & interval-data observation when the distribution of the very exogenous regressor is uniform within intervals. Other cases are nevertheless still informative.
REFERENCES


A Proofs in Section 3

A.1 Proof of Lemma 1

Write:
\[
Pr(y_i = 1 \mid v, x, z) = \int_{x^\beta + v + \varepsilon > 0, \varepsilon \in \Omega_x(x, z)} dF(\varepsilon \mid x, z)
\]

As \(dF(\varepsilon \mid x, z) \geq 0\), monotonicity in \(v\) follows.

Secondly, by assumption L.2, the support of \(-x^\beta - \varepsilon\) is a subset of \(\Omega_v^0 = [v_1, v_K]\) as defined in R.iii.

\[v_1 \leq -(x^\beta + \varepsilon) < v_K\]

and therefore for all \(\varepsilon \in \Omega_x(x, z)\):

\[v_1 + x^\beta + \varepsilon \leq 0 \quad v_K + x^\beta + \varepsilon > 0\]

The second conclusion follows.

A.2 Proof of Theorem 2

Let \(\{G_k(x, z)\}_{k=1}^{K}\) satisfy (NP.1) and (NP.2). It is an ordered set of functions such that \(G_1 = 0\) and \(G_K = 1\). Fix \(\beta\). We first prove that (i) implies (ii).

(Necessity) Assume that there exists a latent random variable \(\varepsilon\) such that \((\beta, F_\varepsilon. \mid x, z)\) satisfies (L.1−L.3) and such that \(\{G_k(x, z)\}_{k=1}^{K}\) is its image through transformation (LV). By (L.2), the conditional support of \(\varepsilon\) given \((x, z)\), is included in \([- (v_K + x^\beta), -(v_1 + x^\beta)]\) and we can write,

\[
\forall k; G_k(x, z) = \int_{-(v_k + x^\beta)}^{-(v_1 + x^\beta)} f_\varepsilon(\varepsilon \mid x, z) d\varepsilon = 1 - F_\varepsilon(-(v_k + x^\beta) \mid x, z).
\]

(A.1)

Put differently, we necessarily have \(F_\varepsilon(-(v_k + x^\beta) \mid x, z) = 1 - G_k(x, z)\), for each \(k\) in \(\{1, ..., K\}\).

Denote \(s_k = (v_k + v_{k-1})/2\) and \(\delta_k = \frac{v_{k+1} - v_k}{2} = s_{k+1} - s_k\) for all \(k = 2, ..., K-1\). Setting \(\delta_1 = \delta_K = 0\), the transformed variable \(\tilde{y}\) is \(\left(\frac{\delta_k y}{p_k(x, z)} - s_k\right)\) where \(y = 1\{v > -(x^\beta + \varepsilon)\}\). Integrate \(\tilde{y}\) with respect to \(v\) and \(\varepsilon\):

\[
E(\tilde{y} \mid x, z) = \int_{\Omega_{\varepsilon(x, z)}} \left[\sum_{k=1}^{K} \delta_k 1\{v_k > -(x^\beta + \varepsilon)\}\right] f(\varepsilon \mid x, z) d\varepsilon - s_K
\]

As the support of \(w = -(x^\beta + \varepsilon)\) is included in \([v_1, v_K]\), we can also define an integer function \(j(w)\) in \(\{1, ..., K-1\}\), such that \(v_{j(w)} \leq w < v_{j(w)+1}\). By construction, \(v_k > w \iff k > j(w)\)
and $\sum_{k=2}^{K-1} (s_{k+1} - s_k)1\{v_k > w\} = (s_K - s_{j(-(x+\varepsilon))})$. Hence, we have:

$$
E(\bar{y} \mid x, z) = \int_{\Omega(x, z)} (s_K - s_{j(-(x+\varepsilon)+1)})f(\epsilon \mid x, z)d\epsilon - s_K = -E[s_{j(-(x+\varepsilon)+1)} \mid x, z]
$$

\[= x+\beta + E(\epsilon \mid x, z) - E[s_{j(-(x+\varepsilon)+1)} + x+\beta + \varepsilon \mid x, z]
\]

\[= x+\beta + E(\epsilon \mid x, z) - u(x, z)
\]

(A.2)

where (recall that $w = -(x+\varepsilon)$):

$$
u(x, z) = E(s_{j(w)+1} - w \mid x, z).
$$

Bounds on $u(x, z)$ can be obtained using the definition of $j(w)$. First, given that $v_{j(w)} \leq w < v_{j(w)+1}$, we have:

$$
-\frac{v_{j(w)+1} - v_{j(w)}}{2} < \frac{v_{j(w)+1} + v_{j(w)}}{2} - w \leq \frac{v_{j(w)+1} - v_{j(w)}}{2}
$$

which yields:

$$
-\frac{v_{j(w)+1} - v_{j(w)}}{2} < s_{j(w)+1} - w \leq \frac{v_{j(w)+1} - v_{j(w)}}{2}
$$

Hence, we can write using the upper bound,

$$
E(s_{j(w)+1} - w \mid x, z) = \sum_{k=2}^{K} \int_{-(v_{k-1} + x+\beta)}^{-(v_k + x+\beta)} (s_k + x+\beta + \varepsilon)f(\epsilon \mid x, z)d\epsilon
$$

\[\leq \sum_{k=2}^{K} \int_{-(v_{k} + x+\beta)}^{-(v_{k-1} + x+\beta)} \frac{v_k - v_{k-1}}{2}f(\epsilon \mid x, z)d\epsilon
\]

\[= \sum_{k=2}^{K} \left[ \frac{v_k - v_{k-1}}{2} (G_k(x, z) - G_{k-1}(x, z)) \right] = \Delta(x, z)
\]

where in the last equation, we use equation (A.1). Using teh lower bound, the proof is similar and thus:

$$
-\Delta(x, z) < u(x, z) \leq \Delta(x, z).
$$

Since $G_K(x, z) = 1$ and $G_1(x, z) = 0$, we have $\Delta(x, z) \geq \min_k \left( \frac{v_k - v_{k-1}}{2} \right)$, meaning that $\Delta(x, z) > 0$ and that $I(x, z)$ is non-empty. It finishes the proof that statement (i) implies statement (ii) since equation (A.2) implies (2).

(Sufficiency) Conversely, let us prove that statement (ii) implies statement (i). We assume that there exists $u(x, z)$ in $I(x, z) = [-\Delta(x, z), \Delta(x, z)]$ such that equation (2) holds true and we construct a distribution function $F_{\varepsilon}(\cdot \mid x, z)$ satisfying (L.1 - L.3) such that the image of $(\beta, F_{\varepsilon}(\cdot \mid x, z))$ through (LV) is $\{G_k(x, z)\}_{k=1..K}$.

First, let $\lambda$ a random variable which support is $[0, 1]$, which conditional density given $(v, x, z)$ is independent of $v$ (a.e. $F_{x,z}$) and which is such that:

$$
E(\lambda \mid x, z) = (u(x, z) + \Delta(x, z))/(2\Delta(x, z))
$$

(A.3)
Second, let $\kappa$ a discrete random variable which support is $\{2,..,K\}$ and which conditional distribution given ($v,x,z$) is independent of $v$ and is given by:

$$Pr(\kappa = k \mid x, z) = G_k(x, z) - G_{k-1}(x, z). \quad (A.4)$$

For any $k \in \{2,..,K\}$, consider $K - 1$ random variables, say $\epsilon(\lambda,k)$ which are constructed from $\lambda$ by:

$$\epsilon(\lambda,k) = -x\beta - \lambda v_{k-1} - (1 - \lambda)v_k$$

Given that $\lambda > 0$, the support of $\epsilon(\lambda,k)$ is $[-x\beta - v_k, -x\beta - v_{k-1}]$. Finally, consider the random variable:

$$\varepsilon = \epsilon(\lambda, \kappa) \quad (A.5)$$

which support is $[-x\beta - v_K, -x\beta - v_1]$ and which is independent of $v$ (because both $\lambda$ and $\kappa$ are). It therefore satisfies $(L.1)$ and $(L.2)$. Furthermore, because of $(A.4)$, the image of $(\beta, F_\epsilon(\cdot \mid x, z))$ through $(LV)$ is $\{G_k(x, z)\}_{k=1..K}$ because these functions satisfy equation $(A.1)$. The last condition to prove is $(L.3)$. Consider, for almost any $(x, z)$,

$$\int_{\Omega_{(x,z)}} (s_j(-x\beta - \varepsilon + 1) + x\beta + \varepsilon)f(\varepsilon \mid x, z)d\varepsilon = $$

$$\sum_{k=2}^{K} \left( \int_{-x\beta - v_k}^{-x\beta - v_{k-1}} \left( \frac{v_k + v_{k-1}}{2} + x\beta + \varepsilon \right)f(\varepsilon \mid x, z, \kappa = k) d\varepsilon \right)$$

$$= \sum_{k=2}^{K} \left( \int_{-x\beta - v_k}^{-x\beta - v_{k-1}} \left( \frac{v_k + v_{k-1}}{2} + x\beta + \varepsilon \right)f(\varepsilon \mid x, z, \kappa = k) d\varepsilon \right)$$

$$= \sum_{k=2}^{K} E\left(\frac{v_k + v_{k-1}}{2} - \lambda v_{k-1} - (1 - \lambda)v_k \mid x, z\right)(G(v_k, x, z) - G(v_{k-1}, x, z))$$

$$= \sum_{k=2}^{K} E\left(\lambda - 1/2 \mid x, z\right). (v_k - v_{k-1}). (G_k(x, z) - G_{k-1}(x, z))$$

$$= \left( u(x, z)/(2\Delta(x, z)) \right)(2\Delta(x, z)) = u(x, z).$$

where the third line is the consequence of the definition of $\varepsilon$ and the last line is using equation $(A.3)$. Therefore, equation $(A.2)$ holds and:

$$E(z'\bar{y}) = E(z'x)\beta + E(z'\varepsilon) - E(z'u(x, z)).$$

Equation (2) implies $E(z'\varepsilon) = 0$, that is $(L.3)$, which finishes the proof of Theorem 2.■

**Remark:** It is worth emphasizing that this proof also provides a characterization of the domain of observationally equivalent distribution functions $F_\epsilon$, i.e. the set of random variables $\varepsilon$ such that there exists $\beta$ with $(\beta, F_\epsilon)$ satisfying conditions $(L.1-L.3)$ and generating $\{G_k(x, z)\}_{k=1..K}$. We have:

> The two following statements are equivalent,
> (i) there exists a vector of parameter $\beta$ such that the latent model $(\beta, F_\epsilon(\cdot \mid x, z))$ verifies conditions $L$ and such that $\{G_k(x, z)\}_{k=1..K}$ is its image through the transformation $(LV)$,
(ii) there exist two independent random variables \((\lambda, \kappa)\), conditional on \((x, z)\), such that the support of \(\lambda\) is \([0, 1]\), the support of \(\kappa\) is \([2,., K]\), equation (A.4) holds and such that:

\[
\varepsilon = -x\beta - \lambda\nu_{\kappa-1} - (1 - \lambda)\nu_{\kappa}
\]

where \(\beta\) verifies:

\[
E(z'(x\beta - \tilde{y}) = E(z'\Delta(x, z)(2\lambda - 1))
\]

### A.3 Proof of Corollary 3

First, \(B\) contains \(\beta^*\) because \(u(x, z) = 0\) takes its values in the admissible set, \(I(x, z)\). Second, \(B\) is convex because \(I(x, z)\) is convex and equation (2) is linear. Furthermore, assume that \((\beta, F_x(\cdot | x, z))\) satisfies condition \(L\) and generates \(G(v, x, z)\) through the transformation \((LV)\). Using Theorem 2, there exists \(u(x, z) \in I(x, z)\) such that,

\[
E(z'x)(\beta - \beta^*) = E(z'u(x, z))
\]

and thus using the definition of \(W\):

\[
(\beta - \beta^*)W(\beta - \beta^*) = E(u'\(x, z)zE(z'z)^{-1}E(z'u(x, z)).
\]

Using the generalized Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we have,

\[
E(u'\(x, z)zE(z'z)^{-1}E(z'u(x, z)) \leq E(u(x, z)^2).
\]

and by Theorem 2, \(E(u(x, z)^2) \leq E(\Delta(x, z)^2)\). By definition, \(E(\Delta(x, z)^2) \leq \Delta^2\) which completes the proof.

### A.4 Proof of Corollary 4

For the sake of clarity, we start with the exogeneous case where \(z = x\). Denote \(x_p\) the last variable in \(x\), \(x_{-p}\) all the other variables (i.e., \(x = (x_{-p}, x_p)\)). Consider any \(\beta \in B\) and \(\beta^* = (E(x'x))^{-1}E(x'\tilde{y})\). There exists a function \(u(x)\) in \([-\Delta(x), \Delta(x)]\) such that \(\beta - \beta^* = (E(x'x))^{-1}E(x'u(x))\) which is also the result of the regression of \(u(x)\) on \(x\).

Denote the residual of the projection of \(x_p\) onto the other components \(x_{-p}\) as \(\tilde{x}_p:\)

\[
\tilde{x}_p = x_p - x_{-p}(E(x'_{-p}x_{-p}))^{-1}E(x'_{-p}x_p)
\]

Applying the principle of Frish-Waugh, we have

\[
\beta_p - \beta^*_p = (E(\tilde{x}'_p\tilde{x}_p))^{-1}E(\tilde{x}'_pu(x))
\]

As \(\tilde{x}_p\) is a scalar, the maximum (resp. minimum) of \(E(\tilde{x}_pu(x))\) when \(u(x, z)\) varies in \([-\Delta(x), \Delta(x)]\) is obtained by setting \(u(x) = \Delta(x)\mathbf{1}\{\tilde{x}_p > 0\} - \Delta(x)\mathbf{1}\{\tilde{x}_p \leq 0\}\) (resp. \(u(x) = \Delta(x)\mathbf{1}\{\tilde{x}_p < 0\} - \Delta(x)\mathbf{1}\{\tilde{x}_p \geq 0\}\).
\(-\Delta(x) 1\{\tilde{x}_p > 0\} + \Delta(x) 1\{\tilde{x}_p \leq 0\}\). Hence \(E(\tilde{x}_p u(x))\) lies between \(-E(|\tilde{x}_p| \Delta(x))\) and \(E(|\tilde{x}_p| \Delta(x))\) and the difference \(\beta_p - \beta_p^*\) varies in:

\[
\left[-\frac{E(|\tilde{x}_p| \Delta(x))}{E(\tilde{x}_p^2)}, \frac{E(|\tilde{x}_p| \Delta(x))}{E(\tilde{x}_p^2)}\right].
\]

To show the reciprocal, consider any \(\beta_p\) in

\[
\left[\beta_p^* - \frac{E(|\tilde{x}_p| \Delta(x))}{E(\tilde{x}_p^2)}; \beta_p^* + \frac{E(|\tilde{x}_p| \Delta(x))}{E(\tilde{x}_p^2)}\right].
\]

Denote

\[
\lambda = \frac{E(\tilde{x}_p^2)}{E(|\tilde{x}_p| \Delta(x))}(\beta_p - \beta_p^* \in [-1, 1]).
\]

Consider \(u(x) = \lambda \Delta(x)\) when \(\tilde{x}_p > 0\) and \(u(x) = -\lambda \Delta(x)\) otherwise which means that

\[
\frac{E(\tilde{x}_p u(x))}{E(\tilde{x}_p^2)} = (\beta_p - \beta_p^*).
\]

Function \(u(x)\) takes its values in \([-\Delta(x), \Delta(x)]\) and therefore satisfies point (ii) of Theorem 2. Thus, there exists \(\beta \in B\) such that its last component is \(\beta_p\).

The adaptation to the general IV case uses the generalized transformation:

\[
\tilde{x}_p = \lambda_1 E(z'z)^{-1} E(z'x_p) - \lambda_2 E(z'z)^{-1} E(z'x_{-p}) \left[ E(x'_{-p}z)(E(z'z))^{-1} E(z'x_{-p}) \right]^{-1} E(x'_{-p}z)(E(z'z))^{-1} E(z'x_p)
\]

Generally speaking, the estimation of \(B_p\) requires the estimation of \(E(|\tilde{x}_p| \Delta(x, z))\). Given this fact, it is worth emphasizing that \(\Delta(x, z)\) can be rewritten as \(E(\tilde{y}_\Delta | x, z)\) where

\[
\tilde{y}_\Delta = \frac{\mu_{k} y}{p_{k}(x, z)} + \frac{v_{K} - v_{K-1}}{2},
\]

with

\[
\mu_{k} = \frac{(v_{k} - v_{k-1} - (v_{k+1} - v_{k}))}{2} \text{ for } k = 2, \ldots, K - 1
\]

and \(\mu_1 = \mu_K = 0\). Specifically,

\[
\Delta(x, z) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=2}^{K} [(v_{k} - v_{k-1})(G_{k}(x, z) - G_{k-1}(x, z))]
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{2} [(v_{2} - v_{1})G_{2}(x, z) + (v_{3} - v_{2})(G_{3}(x, z) - G_{2}(x, z)) + \ldots \ldots + (v_{K-1} - v_{K-2})(G_{K-1}(x, z) - G_{K-2}(x, z)) + (v_{K} - v_{K-1})(1 - G_{K-1}(x, z))]
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=2}^{K-1} (v_{k} - v_{k-1} - (v_{k+1} - v_{k}))G_{k}(x, z) + \frac{v_{K} - v_{K-1}}{2}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=2}^{K-1} (v_{k} - v_{k-1} - (v_{k+1} - v_{k}))E(y | v = v_{k}, x, z) + \frac{v_{K} - v_{K-1}}{2}
\]

\[
= E\left(\frac{\mu_{k} y}{p_{k}(x, z)} | x, z\right) + \frac{v_{K} - v_{K-1}}{2} = E(\tilde{y}_\Delta | x, z)
\]
Hence, $E(|\tilde{x}_p| \Delta(x, z))$ can be rewritten $E(|\tilde{x}_p| y_\Delta)$ which means that the estimation of the upper and lower bounds of $B_p$ only requires [1] the construction of the transform $y_\Delta$, [2] an estimation of the residual $\tilde{x}_p$ and [3] the linear regression of $y_\Delta$ on $|\tilde{x}_p|$.

**B Proofs in Section 4**

**B.1 Proof of Theorem 6**

Consider a vector of parameters $\beta$ and a conditional probability distribution $\Pr(y = 1 \mid v^*, x, z)$ (denoted $G_{v^*}(x, z)$) which is non-decreasing in $v^*$.

\textbf{(Necessity)} We prove that (i) implies (ii). Denote, $F_v(\cdot \mid x, z, v^*)$, and $F_{v'}(\cdot \mid x, z)$, two conditional distribution functions satisfying (i). By Assumption $R(vi)$, $F_v(\cdot \mid x, z, v^*)$ is absolutely continuous and its density function is denoted $f_v$. By assumption (i), $(\beta, F_{v'}(\cdot \mid x, z))$ satisfies condition $(L^1)$, $(L2)$ and $(L3)$ and $\{G_k(x, z)\}_{k=1\ldots K-1}$ is its image through transformation $(LV)$.

For the sake of clarity, set $w = -(x\beta + \varepsilon)$ so that $y = 1\{v > w\}$ and the support of $w$ is a subset of $[v_1, v_K]$ by $(L2)$. The variable $w$ is conditionally (on $(x, z)$) independent of $v$ and $v^*$ and the corresponding conditional distribution is:

$$F_w(w \mid x, z) = 1 - F_{v'}(-(x\beta + w) \mid x, z)$$

The conditional probability of occurrence of $y = 1$ in the $k$-th interval ($v^* = k$ in $\{1, \ldots, K - 1\}$) is,

$$G_k(x, z) = \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} E(1\{v > w\} \mid v, v^* = k, x, z)f_v(v \mid k, x, z)dv$$

which yields the convolution equation:

$$G_k(x, z) = \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} F_w(v \mid x, z)f_v(v \mid k, x, z)dv.$$  \hspace{1cm} (B.1)

Note that this condition implies:

$$F_w(v_k \mid x, z) \leq G_k(x, z) \leq F_w(v_{k+1} \mid x, z).$$ \hspace{1cm} (B.2)

with a strict inequality on the right if $F_w(v_k \mid x, z) < F_w(v_{k+1} \mid x, z)$ because $F_v$ is absolutely continuous and $F_w$ is continuous on the right (CADLAG).

To prove (5), write $E(\bar{y} \mid x, z)$ as

$$\sum_{v^* = 1\ldots K-1} \int_{\Omega(v^* \mid x, z)} \int_{\Omega(w \mid v^*, x, z)} [\bar{y}, p_{v^*}(x, z), f_v(v \mid v^*, x, z), dv] F_w(w \mid v^*, v, x, z).$$

Using the definition of $\bar{y}$, the term $p_{v^*}(x, z)$ cancels out and using condition $(L1^*)$, the integral over $dw$ on the one hand, and the sum and other integral on the other hand, can be permuted:

$$\int_{\Omega(w \mid x, z)} \left[ \sum_{v^* = 1\ldots K-1} \int_{\Omega(v^* \mid x, z)} 1(v > w)) f_v(v \mid v^*, x, z)dv \right] dF_w(w \mid x, z) - v_K.$$  \hspace{1cm} (B.3)
Evaluate first the inner integral with respect to \( v \). As the support of \( w \) is included in \([v_1, v_K]\), we can define for any value of \( w \) in its support, an integer function \( j(w) \) in \( \{1, ..., K - 1\} \), such that \( v_{j(w)} \leq w < v_{j(w)+1} \). Distinguish three cases. First, when \( v^* < j(w) \), the whole conditional support of \( v \) lies below \( w \) and,

\[
\int_{\Omega_{(v,v^*,x,z)}} 1(v > w)f_v(v \mid v^*, x, z)dv = 0.
\]

while when \( v^* > j(w) \), the whole conditional support of \( v \) lies strictly above \( w \) and thus:

\[
\int_{\Omega_{(v,v^*,x,z)}} 1(v > w)f_v(v \mid v^*, x, z)dv = 1.
\]

Last when \( v^* = j(w) \),

\[
\int_{\Omega_{(v,v^*,x,z)}} 1(v > w)f_v(v \mid v^*, x, z)dv = 1 - F_v(w \mid v^*, x, z).
\]

Summing over values of \( v^* \),

\[
\sum_{v^* \in \{1, ..., K - 1\}} \delta(v^*) \int_{\Omega_{(v,v^*,x,z)}} 1(v > w)f_v(v \mid v^*, x, z)dv
\]

\[
= -F_v(w \mid v_{j(w)}, x, z)(v_{j(w)+1} - v_{j(w)}) + v_K - v_{j(w)}.
\]

Replacing in (B.3) and integrating w.r.t. \( w \), implies that:

\[
E(y \mid x, z) = -E(w \mid x, z) - u^*(x, z) = x\beta + E(\epsilon \mid x, z) - u^*(x, z).
\]

where

\[
u^*(x, z) = \int_{\Omega_{(w|x,z)}} (F_v(w \mid v_{j(w)}, x, z)(v_{j(w)+1} - v_{j(w)}) + v_{j(w)} - w)dF_w(w \mid x, z).
\]

Integrating (B.4) with respect to \( x, z \) and using condition (L.3) yields condition (5).

To finish the proof, upper and lower bounds for \( u^*(x, z) \) are now provided. Let write,

\[
u^*(x, z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k)\phi_k(x, z)
\]

where:

\[
\phi_k(x, z) = \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} (F_v(w \mid k, x, z) + \frac{v_k - w}{v_{k+1} - v_k})dF_w(w \mid x, z).
\]

By integration by parts, the first term is:

\[
\phi_k(x, z) = \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} \left( \frac{1}{v_{k+1} - v_k} - f_v(w \mid k, x, z) \right) F_w(w \mid x, z)dw
\]

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Therefore, using the convolution equation (B.1),

$$
\phi_k(x, z) = -G_k(x, z) + \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} \frac{F_w(w | x, z)}{v_{k+1} - v_k} dw.
$$

Using (B.2) implies

$$
G_{k-1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z) \leq \phi_k(x, z) \leq G_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z),
$$

where at least one inequality on the right and one inequality on the left are strict since there exists at least one \( k \) such that \( F_w(w = -(x\beta + v_{k+1}) | x, z) - F_w(w = -(x\beta + v_k) | x, z) > 0 \). Therefore:

$$
\Delta^*(x, z) < u^*(x, z) < \overline{\Delta}^*(x, z),
$$

where the definitions of \( \overline{\Delta}^*(x, z) \) and \( \Delta^*(x, z) \) correspond to those given in the body of the Theorem.

(Sufficiency) We now prove that (ii) implies (i). Denote \( u^*(x, z) \) in \( |\Delta^*(x, z), \overline{\Delta}^*(x, z)| \) such that

$$
E(z'(x\beta - \bar{y})) = E(z' u^*(x, z))
$$

We are going to prove that there exists a distribution function of \( w = -(x\beta + \varepsilon) \) and a distribution function of \( v \) such that \( (\beta, F_z(\cdot | x, z)) \) satisfies (L.1*, L.2, L.3) and \( G_{u^*}(x, z) \) is the image of \( (\beta, F_z(\cdot | x, z)) \) through the transformation \( (LV) \).

To begin with, we are going to construct \( w \). We proceed in three steps.

First, we choose a sequence of functions \( H_k(x, z) \) such that \( H_1 = 0, H_K = 1 \), and such that:

$$
H_k(x, z) \leq G_k(x, z) \leq H_{k+1}(x, z), \text{ for } k \in \{1, \ldots, K-1\} \quad \text{(B.7)}
$$

where at least one inequality on the right is strict and:

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k)(H_k(x, z) - G_k(x, z)) \leq u^*(x, z) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k)(H_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z))
$$

Consider for instance

$$
\theta(x, z) > \frac{u^*(x, z)}{\overline{\Delta}^*(x, z)} \quad \text{and} \quad 1 - \theta(x, z) > \frac{u^*(x, z)}{\Delta^*(x, z)},
$$

for instance, \( \theta(x, z) = \frac{\overline{\Delta}(x, z) - u^*(x, z)}{\overline{\Delta}(x, z) - \Delta(x, z)} \). By construction \( \theta(x, z) \in ]0, 1] \) and one checks that

$$
H_k(x, z) = \theta(x, z)G_{k-1}(x, z) + (1 - \theta(x, z))G_k(x, z)
$$

satisfies the two previous conditions. Generally speaking, the closer \( u^*(x, z) \) is from the lower bound \( \Delta^*(x, z) \), the closer is \( H_k \) to \( G_{k-1} \), and the closer \( u^*(x, z) \) is from the upper bound \( \overline{\Delta}^*(x, z) \), the closer is \( H_k \) to \( G_k \).
Secondly, we consider $\kappa$ a discrete random variable which support is \{1,..,K−1\}, which is independent of $v^*$ (a.e. $F_{x,z}$) and which conditional on $(x, z)$ distribution is:

$$Pr(\kappa = k \mid x, z) = H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z). \tag{B.8}$$

Thirdly, we consider $\lambda$ a random variable which support is $]0,1[$, which is independent of $v^*$ (a.e. $F_{x,z}$) and which conditional (on $(x, z)$) expectation is:

$$E(\lambda \mid x, z) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k) (H_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z)) - u^*(x, z)}{\sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k) (H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z))}. \tag{B.9}$$

For instance, $\lambda$ can be chosen discrete with a mass point on

$$\lambda_0(x, z) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k) (H_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z)) - u^*(x, z)}{\sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k) (H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z))}.$$ 

Given the constraints on the $H_k(x, z)$ and given that $u^*(x, z)$ is in $]\Delta^*(x, z), \overline{\Delta}^*(x, z)[$, $\lambda_0(x, z)$ belongs to $]0,1[$.

Within this framework, we can define $w$ as:

$$w = (1 - \lambda)v_\kappa + \lambda v_{\kappa+1}$$

By construction, the support of $w$ is $[v_1, v_K]$ and $w$ is independent of $v^*$ conditionally on $(x, z)$ because both $\lambda$ and $\kappa$ are. Hence, $\varepsilon = -(x; \beta + w)$ satisfies $(L.1)$ and $(L.2)$.

To construct $v$, we first introduce a random variable $\eta$ which support is $[0,1[$, which is absolutely continuous, which is defined conditionally on $(k, x, z)$, which is independent of $\lambda$ and such that:

$$\int_0^1 F_{\lambda}(\eta \mid x, z).f_{\eta}(\eta \mid k, x, z)d\eta = \frac{G_k(x, z) - H_k(x, z)}{H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z)} \in [0,1[ $$

where $F_{\lambda}(\cdot \mid x, z)$ denotes the distribution of $\lambda$ conditional on $(x, z)$.

For instance, when $\lambda$ is chosen discrete with a mass point on $\lambda_0(x, z)$, we simply have to chose $\eta$ such that

$$F_{\eta}(\lambda_0(x, z) \mid x, z) = \frac{H_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z)}{H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z)}.$$ 

Within this framework, we define $v$ by the following expression:

$$v = v_k + (v_{k+1} - v_k)\eta$$

Having defined $w$ and $v$, we are now going to prove that the image of $(\beta, F_w(\cdot \mid x, z))$ through $(LV)$ is $G_{\nu^*}(x, z)$ because it satisfies equation (B.1):

$$\int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} F_{w}(v \mid x, z).f_{v}(v \mid k, x, z)dv = H_k(x, z) + (H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z)) \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} Pr(w = (1 - \lambda)v_k + \lambda v_{k+1} \leq v \mid x, z).f_{v}(v \mid k, x, z)dv =$$
\[H_k(x, z) + (H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z)) \int_0^1 \Pr(\lambda \leq \eta \mid x, z).f_\eta(\eta \mid k, x, z)d\eta = G_k(x, z)\]

The last condition to prove is (L.3). Rewrite equation (B.6), for almost any \((x, z)\),

\[
\phi_k(x, z) = -G_k(x, z) + \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} F_w(w \mid x, z) \frac{v - v_k}{v_{k+1} - v_k} dw = -G_k(x, z) + H_{k+1}(x, z) - (H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z))E(\lambda \mid x, z).
\]

Therefore,

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k)\phi_k(x, z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k)(H_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z))
\]

\[
- \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k)(H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z))E(\lambda \mid x, z) = u^*(x, z).
\]

using equation (B.9). Plugging (5) in (B.4) yields \(E(z'\varepsilon) = 0\) that is (L.3).

### B.2 Proof of Theorem 7

We use large parts of the proof of Theorem 6:

(Necessity) Same as the proof of Theorem 6 until equation (B.6) that we rewrite as:

\[
\phi_k(x, z) = \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} (\Phi(v \mid k, x, z) - \frac{v - v_k}{v_{k+1} - v_k})dF_w(v \mid x, z).
\]

We then have first:

\[
\phi_k(x, z) = \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} \left(1 - \frac{v - v_k}{v_{k+1} - v_k}\right)\Phi(v \mid k, x, z)dF_w(v \mid x, z)
\]

\[
\leq \sup_{v \in [v_k, v_{k+1}]} \left(1 - \frac{v - v_k}{v_{k+1} - v_k}\right) \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} \Phi(v \mid k, x, z)dF_w(v \mid x, z)
\]

\[
= \xi_k^U(x, z) \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} \Phi(v \mid k, x, z)dF_w(v \mid x, z).
\]

where \(\xi_k^U(x, z)\) is defined in the text. Equation (B.1) delivers:

\[
\int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} \Phi(v \mid k, x, z)dF_w(v \mid x, z).
\]

\[
= \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} d[\Phi(v \mid k, x, z)F_w(v \mid x, z)] - \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} F_w(v \mid x, z)d\Phi(v \mid k, x, z)
\]

\[
= \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} d[\Phi(v \mid k, x, z)F_w(v \mid x, z)] - G_k(x, z).
\]
Hence, using $F_w(v_{k+1} \mid x, z) \leq G_{k+1}(x, z)$, we have,

$$\phi_k(x, z) \leq \xi_k^I(x, z). (G_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z)).$$

The derivation of the lower bound follows the same logic:

$$\phi_k(x, z) \geq \inf_{v \in ]v_k, v_{k+1}[} (-1 - \frac{u_{k+1} - v_{k+1}}{v_{k+1} - v_k}) \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} (1 - \Phi(v \mid k, x, z)) dF_w(v \mid x, z)$$

$$\geq \xi_k^L(x, z) \left[ \int_{v_k}^{v_{k+1}} d[(1 - \Phi(v \mid k, x, z))F_w(v \mid x, z)] + G_k(x, z) \right]$$

where $\xi_k^L(x, z)$ is defined in the text. Hence, using $F_w(v_k \mid x, z) \geq G_k(x, z)$, we have

$$\phi_k(x, z) \geq \xi_k^L(x, z)(G_k(x, z) - G_{k-1}(x, z)).$$

Therefore, using the definition of $u^*(x, z)$ (B.5), we have:

$$\Delta_k^*\phi (x, z) \leq u^*(x, z) \leq \overline{\Delta}_k^*\phi (x, z)$$ (B.10)

where $\Delta_k^*\phi (x, z)$ and $\overline{\Delta}_k^*\phi (x, z)$ are defined in the text.

(Sufficiency) We now prove that (ii) implies (i). We assume that there exists $u^*(x, z)$ in $[\Delta_k^*\phi (x, z), \overline{\Delta}_k^*\phi (x, z)]$ such that

$$E(z'(x\beta - \hat{y})) = E(z' u^*(x, z))$$

Under this assumption, we are going to prove that there exists a distribution function of the random term $\varepsilon$ such that $(\beta, F_\varepsilon(\cdot \mid x, z))$ satisfies (L.1*, L.2, L.3) and $G_{u^*}(x, z)$ is the image of $(\beta, F_\varepsilon(\cdot \mid x, z))$ through the transformation $(LV)$, when the distribution function of the special regressor $v$ is $\Phi(v \mid k, x, z)$. As in the proof of Theorem 6, we proceed by construction in three steps.

First, choose a sequence of functions $H_k(x, z)$ such that $H_1 = 0$, $H_K = 1$, and for any $k$ in $\{1, \ldots, K - 1\}$ such as:

$$H_k(x, z) \leq G_k(x, z) < H_{k+1}(x, z).$$ (B.11)

and such as:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k) \xi_k^L(x, z)(G_k(x, z) - H_k(x, z)) \leq u^*(x, z)$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k) \xi_k^U(x, z)(H_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z))$$

If $\xi_k^L(x, z) < 0$ and $\xi_k^U(x, z) > 0$, the closer $u^*(x, z)$ is from the lower bound $\Delta_k^*\phi (x, z)$, the closer is $H_k$ to $G_{k-1}$, and the closer $u^*(x, z)$ is from the upper bound $\overline{\Delta}_k^*\phi (x, z)$, the closer is $H_k$ to $G_k$. 42
Decompose now \( u^*(x, z) \) into \( \phi_k^*(x, z) \) such that:
\[
u^*(x, z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+1} - v_k) \phi_k^*(x, z)
\]
and such that the bounds on \( u^* \) can be translated into:
\[
\xi_k^L(x, z)(G_k(x, z) - H_k(x, z)) \leq \phi_k^*(x, z) \leq \xi_k^U(x, z)(H_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z)) \tag{B.12}
\]
There are many decompositions of this type. Choose one.

Second, consider \( \kappa \) a discrete random variable which support is \( \{1, \ldots, K - 1\} \), which is independent of \( v^* \) (a.e. \( F_{x,z} \)) and which conditional on \((x, z)\) distribution is:
\[
Pr(\kappa = k | x, z) = H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z). \tag{B.13}
\]
Consider also \( K - 1 \) random variable \( \lambda_k \) which support is \([0, 1] \), which are independent of \( v^* \) (a.e. \( F_{x,z} \)) and which conditional (on \((x, z)\)) expectation is:
\[
E(\lambda_k | x, z) = \frac{H_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z) - \phi_k^*(x, z)}{H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z)} \tag{B.14}
\]
and such that:
\[
\int_0^1 (\Phi_v(\lambda v_k + (1 - \lambda)v_{k+1} | k, x, z) - \frac{v - v_k}{v_{k+1} - v_k}) dF_{\lambda_k}(\lambda | x, z) = \frac{\phi_k^*(x, z)}{H_{k+1}(x, z) - H_k(x, z)}
\]
Given constraints (B.11) and (B.12), it is always possible to construct such a random variable.

Finally, define the random variable:
\[
w = (1 - \lambda)v_\kappa + \lambda v_{\kappa+1}
\]
By construction, the support of \( w \) is \([v_1, v_K]\) and \( w \) is independent of \( v^* \) conditionally on \((x, z)\) because all \( \lambda_k \)'s and \( \kappa \) are. Hence, \( \varepsilon = -(x; \beta + w) \) satisfies (L.1) and (L.2).

Finally, the proof as in Theorem 6.

### B.3 Proof of Corollary 8

**(Necessity)** Let the conditional distribution of \( v, \Phi_0 \), be piece-wise uniform by intervals, \( v^* = k \). Then, for any \( k = 1, \ldots, K - 1 \), \( \xi_k^U(x, z) = \xi_k^L(x, z) = 0 \). Using Theorem 7 yields that \( \Delta_k^*(x, z) = \Delta_k^*(x, z) = 0 \) and therefore \( u^*(x, z) = 0 \). Identification of \( \beta \) is exact and its value is given by the moment condition (5).

**(Sufficiency)** By contraposition; Assume that there exists \( k \in \{1, \ldots, K - 1\} \), a measurable set \( A \) included in \([v_k, v_{k+1}]\) with positive Lebesgue measure and a measurable set \( S \) of elements \((x, z)\) with positive probability \( F_{x,z}(S) > 0 \) such that \( \Phi(v | k, x, z) \) is different from a uniform distribution function on \( A \) for any \((x, z)\) in \( S \). Because \( \Phi \) is absolutely continuous (ID(ii)), and for the sake of simplicity assume that:
\[
\forall v \in A; \forall (x, z) \in S; \Phi(v | k, x, z) - \frac{v - v_k}{v_{k+1} - v_k} > 0
\]
Because $\xi_k^U(x, z) > 0$, we can always construct a function $u_1^*(x, z)$ which is strictly positive on $S$ satisfying the conditions of Theorem 7. Thus $E(z'u_1^*(x, z)) \neq 0$ and the moment condition (5) can be used to construct parameter $\beta_1$. It implies that the identification set $B$ contains at least two different parameters $\beta$, i.e. the one corresponding to $u^*(x, z) = 0$ and the one corresponding to $u_1^*(x, z)$ (and in fact the whole real line between them as $B$ is convex).

**Interpretation:**
Consider an observable variable $v_0$ drawn conditionally on $v^*$ in a uniform distribution in $[v_k, v_{k+1}]$. Write an auxiliary model as:

$$y = 1\{v_0 + x; \beta + \varepsilon_0 > 0\}$$

where by construction:

$$\varepsilon_0 = \varepsilon + v - v_0.$$ Note first that $v$ and $v_0$ are independent conditional on $(v^*, x, z)$. Second, that the auxiliary model now is a binary model with a continuous special regressor. Third, that the discrete-type transformation $\bar{y}$ of the data is equal up to a constant term to the continuous-type transformation of the data i.e.:

$$\bar{y} = \frac{v_{k+1} - v_k}{p_{v^*}(x, z)} \left( y - v_K \right) = \frac{y}{f_{v_0}(v_0, v^*, x, z)} - v_K = \bar{y} + \text{cst}$$

since by construction:

$$f_{v_0}(v_0, v^*, x, z) = \frac{p_{v^*}(x, z)}{v_{k+1} - v_k}$$

The method of Lewbel (2000) can be applied to the auxiliary model and data $(y, v_0, v^*, x, z)$ to get consistent estimates of parameter $\beta$ if several conditions hold. We shall only check the first of these conditions which is partial independence. What should hold is:

$$F(\varepsilon_0 \mid v_0, v^*, x, z) = F(\varepsilon_0 \mid v^*, x, z)$$

For convenience, omit the conditioning on $(v^*, x, z)$. Thus:

$$F(\varepsilon_0 \mid v_0) = \Pr(\varepsilon + v - v_0 \leq \varepsilon_0 \mid v_0) = \int f_\varepsilon(\varepsilon \mid v_0)f_v(\varepsilon_0 - (\varepsilon - v_0) \mid v_0)d\varepsilon$$

As $v_0$ is a random draw $f_\varepsilon(\varepsilon \mid v_0) = f_\varepsilon(\varepsilon)$ and $f_v(v \mid v_0) = f_v(v)$, we have:

$$F(\varepsilon_0 \mid v_0) = \int f_\varepsilon(\varepsilon)f_v(\varepsilon_0 - (\varepsilon - v_0))d\varepsilon$$

The only dependence on $v_0$ occurs through the density function of $v$ and it is in the case of a uniform distribution only that partial independence holds:

$$F(\varepsilon_0 \mid v_0) = F(\varepsilon_0).$$

The other conditions should be checked and this is the large support one which “creates” the bias in the intercept term.
B.4 Proof of Corollary 11

Same as Corollary 3 except that the maximisation of $E(\tilde{x}_p u^*(x, z))$ is obtained when:

$$u^*(x, z) = 1\{\tilde{x}_p \leq 0\} \Delta^*(x, z) + 1\{\tilde{x}_p > 0\} \overline{\Delta}(x, z)$$

and the minimization of such an expression is obtained when:

$$u^*(x, z) = 1\{\tilde{x}_p > 0\} \Delta^*(x, z) + 1\{\tilde{x}_p \leq 0\} \overline{\Delta}(x, z)$$

Furthermore, we have:

$$\Delta^*(x, z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} [(v_{k+1} - v_k)(G_{k+1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z))$$

$$= [(v_2 - v_1)(G_2(x, z) - G_1(x, z) + (v_3 - v_2)(G_3(x, z) - G_2(x, z)) + ...$$

$$.. + (v_{K-1} - v_{K-2})(G_{K-1}(x, z) - G_{K-2}(x, z)) + (v_K - v_{K-1})(1 - G_{K-1}(x, z))]$$

$$= -(v_2 - v_1)G_1(x, z) + \sum_{k=2}^{K-1} (v_k - v_{k-1} - (v_{k+1} - v_k))G_k(x, z) + v_K - v_K - 1$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_k - v_{k-1} - (v_{k+1} - v_k))E(y \mid v = v_k, x, z) + v_K - v_K - 1$$

$$= E\left(\frac{\theta U_{k+1}}{p_k(x, z)} \mid x, z\right) + v_K - v_K - 1 = E(\bar{y}_U \mid x, z)$$

where by convention $v_0 = v_1$. Similarly:

$$\Delta^*(x, z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} [(v_{k+1} - v_k)(G_{k-1}(x, z) - G_k(x, z))$$

$$= [-(v_2 - v_1)G_1(x, z) + (v_3 - v_2)(G_1(x, z) - G_2(x, z)) + ...$$

$$.. + (v_{K-1} - v_{K-2})(G_{K-2}(x, z) - G_{K-3}(x, z)) + (v_K - v_{K-1})(G_{K-2}(x, z) - G_{K-1}(x, z))]$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K-2} (v_{k+2} - v_{k+1} - (v_{k+1} - v_k))G_k(x, z) - (v_K - v_{K-1})G_{K-1}(x, z)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (v_{k+2} - v_{k+1} - (v_{k+1} - v_k))E(y \mid v = v_k, x, z)$$

$$= E\left(\frac{\theta L_{k+1}}{p_k(x, z)} \mid x, z\right) = E(\bar{y}_L \mid x, z)$$

if the convention $v_{K+1} = v_K$ is adopted.
Figure 1: A graphical argument for set-identification
### Table 1: Simple experiment: Sensitivity to Bandwidth

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### Error Decomposition: Decentering, Adjusted Length and Sampling Error

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**Notes**: The number of discrete values is equal to 10. The simple experiment refers to the case where \( \alpha = \rho = 0 \). All details are reported in the text. Experimental results are based on 1000 replications. LB and UB refer to the estimated lower and upper bounds of intervals with their standard errors (SE). Bwidth refers to the constant bandwidth that is used. Dec stands for decentering of the mid-point of the interval that is, \((UB+LB)/2\). AL is the adjusted length of the interval, \((UB-LB)/2\sqrt{3}\). ASE is the sampling variability of bounds as defined in the text. The identity \(\text{Dec}^2 + \text{AL}^2 + \text{ASE}^2 = \text{RMSEI}^2\), is shown in the text. RMSEI is the root mean square error integrated over the identification set.
Table 2: Sensitivity to Normality

Lower and upper estimated bounds with standard errors

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Error Decomposition: Decentering, Adjusted Length and Sampling Error

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Error Decomposition: Decentering, Adjusted Length and Sampling Error

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Notes: See Table 1 for main comments. Specifics are: The bandwidth is equal to 3.0. The Rho column refers to the increasing amount of endogeneity.
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Notes: See Table 1 for main comments. Specifics are: The bandwidth is equal to 3.0. The **Discrete** column refers to the number of points in the support of \( v \).
Table 5: Simple experiment, Interval Data: Sensitivity to Bandwidth

## Lower and upper estimated bounds with standard errors

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## Error Decomposition: Decentering, Adjusted Length and Sampling Error

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Notes: The number of interval values is equal to 10. The simple experiment refers to the case where \( \alpha = \rho = 0 \). All details are reported in the text. Experimental results are based on 1000 replications. LB and UB refer to the estimated lower and upper bounds of intervals with their standard errors (SE). Bwidth refers to the constant bandwidth that is used. Dec stands for decentering of the mid-point of the interval that is, \((UB+LB)/2\). AL is the adjusted length of the interval, \((UB-LB)/2\sqrt{3}\). ASE is the sampling variability of bounds as defined in the text. The identity \( \text{Dec}^2 + \text{AL}^2 + \text{ASE}^2 = \text{RMSEI}^2 \) is shown in the text. RMSEI is the root mean square error integrated over the identification set.
Table 6: Sensitivity to Normality, Interval Data

Lower and upper estimated bounds with standard errors

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Error Decomposition: Decentering, Adjusted Length and Sampling Error

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Notes: See Table 5 for main comments. Specifics are: The bandwidth is equal to 3.0. The Alpha column refers to the increasing amount of non-normality.
Table 7: Sensitivity to Endogeneity, Interval Data

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Error Decomposition: Decentering, Adjusted Length and Sampling Error

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Notes: See Table 5 for main comments. Specifics are: The bandwidth is equal to 3.0. The Rho column refers to the increasing amount of endogeneity.
Table 8: Sensitivity to the Number of Intervals, Interval Data

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Error Decomposition: Decentering, Adjusted Length and Sampling Error

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Notes: See Table 5 for main comments. Specifics are: The bandwidth is equal to 3.0. The Intervals column refers to the number of intervals of v.