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6. Linear Regression

- *•* linear least-squares/regression
- *•* solving linear least-squares
- *•* BLUE property
- *•* distribution of LS estimators
- *•* weighted least-squares and other variants

Linear regression

• a linear relationship between variables *y* and *x^k* using a linear function:

$$
y = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n \triangleq x^T \beta
$$

 w here $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- *• y* contains the measurement variables and is often called the *regressed/response/explained/dependent variable*
- *• xk*'s are the input variables that explain the behavior of *y*; called the *predictor/explanatory/independent variables*
- *• β* is the *regression coefficient*
- *•* example: product sale amount (unit) is explained by advertising costs (USD)

$$
\mathsf{Sales} = \beta_1 \cdot \mathsf{TV} + \beta_2 \cdot \mathsf{Radio} + \beta_3 \cdot \mathsf{News\ paper}
$$

*β*¹ gives the average sale increase for one unit increase in TV ads (others fixed)

 \bullet given a data set: $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^m$ we can form a matrix form

$$
\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1n} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{m1} & x_{m2} & \cdots & x_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \triangleq \quad y = X\beta
$$

- *•* the matrix *X* is sometimes called *the design/regressor matrix*
- *•* given *y* and *X*, one would like to estimate *β* that gives the linear model output match best with *y*
- in practice, in the presence of noise and disturbance, more data should be collected in order to get a better estimate – leading to *overdetermined* linear equations
- *•* an exact solution to *y* = *Xβ* does not usually exist; however, it can be solved by **linear least-squares** formulation

Problem statement

overdetermined linear equations:

$$
X\beta = y, \quad X \text{ is } m \times n \text{ with } m > n
$$

for most *y* cannot solve for *β*

linear least-squares formulation:

$$
\underset{\beta}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|y - X\beta\|_2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m (\sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij}\beta_j - y_i)^2\right)^{1/2}
$$

• r = *y − Xβ* is called *the residual error*

- *• β* with smallest residual norm *∥r∥* is called *the least-squares solution*
- *•* equivalent to minimizing *∥y − Xβ∥* 2

Fitting linear least-squares

- left: sum squared distance of data points to the line is minimum (this line fits best)
- *•* right: for two predictors, LS solution is the normal vector of hyperplane that lies closest to all data points of *y*

Example 1: data fitting

given data points $\{(t_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^m$, we aim to approximate y using a function $g(t)$

$$
y = g(t) := \beta_1 g_1(t) + \beta_2 g_2(t) + \cdots + \beta_n g_n(t)
$$

- $g_k(t): \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ is a basis function
	- $-$ polynomial functions: $1, t, t^2, \ldots, t^n$
	- **–** sinusoidal functions: $\cos(\omega_k t), \sin(\omega_k t)$ for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, n$
- *•* the linear regression model can be formulated as

$$
\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} g_1(t_1) & g_2(t_1) & \cdots & g_n(t_1) \\ g_1(t_2) & g_2(t_2) & \cdots & g_n(t_2) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ g_1(t_m) & g_2(t_m) & \cdots & g_n(t_m) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \triangleq \quad y = X\beta
$$

• often have *m ≫ n*, *i.e.*, explaining *y* using a few parameters in the model

- \bullet (right) the weighted sum of basis functions (x^k) is the fitted polynomial
- *•* the ground-truth function *f* is nonlinear, but can be decomposed as a sum of polynomials

Example 2: scalar first-order model

given data set: $\{(u(t),y(t)\}_{t=1}^N$, we aim to estimate a scalar ARX model

$$
y(t) = ay(t-1) + bu(t-1) + e(t)
$$

y(*t*) is linear in model parameters: *a, b*

$$
\begin{bmatrix} y(2) \\ y(3) \\ \vdots \\ y(N) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y(1) & u(1) \\ y(2) & u(2) \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ y(N-1) & u(N-1) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}
$$

- *•* the model is first-order, the equation is initialized with *y*(1)*, u*(1)
- *•* the model can be generalized to

$$
y(t) = a_1y(t-1) + \dots + a_py(t-p) + b_1u(t-1) + \dots + b_mu(t-m) + e(t)
$$

where $\theta = (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_p, b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_m)$ is the parameter vector

Linear Regression 6-8

data generation:

- $a = 0.8, b = 1$ are true parameters
- *• e* is white noise with variance 0.1
- *•* PRBS input

estimated parameters: $\hat{a}=0.75, \hat{b}=1.08$

Closed-form of least-squares estimate

the zero gradient condition of LS objective is

$$
\frac{d}{d\beta}||y - X\beta||_2^2 = -X^T(y - X\beta) = 0
$$

which is equivalent to the **normal equation**

$$
X^TX\beta=X^Ty
$$

if *X* is **full rank**:

- *•* least-squares solution can be found by solving the normal equations
- *• n* equations in *n* variables with a positive definite coefficient matrix
- \bullet the closed-form solution is $\beta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$
- *•* (*X^TX*) *[−]*¹*X^T* is a *left inverse* of *X*

Properties of full rank matrices

suppose X is an $m \times n$ matrix; we always have

 $rank(X) \leq min(m, n)$

if *X* is full rank with $m \geq n$ (tall matrix)

- $\text{rank}(X) = n$ and $\mathcal{N}(X) = \{0\}$ $(Xz = 0 \Leftrightarrow z = 0)$
- $X^T X$ is positive definite: for any $z \neq 0$ then

$$
z^T X^T X z = \|Xz\|^2 > 0
$$

similarly, if X is full rank with $m \leq n$ (fat matrix)

- $\text{rank}(X) = m$ and $\mathcal{N}(X^T) = \{0\}$
- *• XX^T* is positive definite

Linear Regression 6-11

Geometric interpretation of a LS problem

*• ∥y − Xβ∥*² is the distance from *y* to

$$
X\beta = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \cdots + \beta_n x_n
$$

- *•* solution *β*ls gives the linear combination of the columns of *X* closest to *y*
- *• Xβ*ls is the **orthogonal projection** of *y* to the range of *X*
- *Py* gives the best approximation; for any $\hat{y} \in \mathcal{R}(X)$ and $\hat{y} \neq Py$

$$
||y - Py|| < ||y - \hat{y}||
$$

Numerical computation

we can solve a least-squares problem via

- Cholesky factorization: factor $X^T X \succ 0$ into LL^T where L is lower triangular
- *•* QR factorization

most programming languages provide built-in commands

 $\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$ is for analysis purpose

we do not actually compute *β*ˆ from this expression

Analysis of LS estimate

- *•* linear regression model in estimation
- *•* analysis of LS estimate
	- **–** LS model with deterministic/fixed regressor
	- **–** LS model with stochastic regressor
- *•* identification
- *•* consistency
- *•* asymptotic ditribution

General regression model

the general regression model with additive errors is given by

$$
y = \mathbf{E}[y|X] + u
$$

- *•* the data are (*y, X*) where *y* is observation and *X* is a matrix of explanatory variables
- *•* **E**[*y|X*] is considered as a conditional function that gives the average value of *y* given *X*
- *• u* is a vector of unknown random errors/noise/disturbances

a linear regression model is obtained when **E**[*y|X*] is linear in *X*

Linear regression model

a linear regression model is

$$
y_i = x_i^T \beta + u, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N
$$

in matrix notation

$$
y = X\beta + u
$$

- *• X ∈* **R** *N×n* is regression or sensor matrix
- *• y ∈* **R** *^N* is the measurement, also called dependent variable or endogenous variable
- $\beta \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is the parameter vector (to be estimated)
- *• u ∈* **R** *^N* is the error vector
- \bullet each row vector of X , x_i^T \boldsymbol{q}^T_i is referred to as regressors/predictors or covariates

Least-squares estimation

from the linear regression model

$$
y = X\beta + u
$$

the method is to choose an estimate *β*ˆ that minimizes

$$
\|X {\hat \beta} - y\|
$$

i.e., minimize the deviation between what we actually observed (*y*), and what we would observe if $\beta = \hat{\beta}$, and there were no noise $(u = 0)$

the LS estimate is given by

$$
\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y
$$

provided that *X* is full rank

Analysis of the LS estimate (static case)

assumptions:

- *• u* is *white noise* with zero mean and covariance matrix Σ
- the least-square estimate is given by

$$
\hat{\beta} = \operatorname{argmin} \|X\beta - y\|
$$

• the regressor *X* is *deterministic*

then the following properties hold:

- $\hat{\beta}$ is an unbiased estimate of β (E $\hat{\beta} = \beta$, or $\hat{\beta} = \beta$ when $u = 0$)
- *•* the covariance matrix of *β*ˆ is given by

$$
\mathbf{cov}(\hat{\beta}) = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \Sigma X (X^T X)^{-1}
$$

short proof: we can write the LS estimate as

$$
\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T (X\beta + u) = \beta + (X^T X)^{-1} X^T u
$$

- since X is deterministic and u is zero mean, we have $\mathbf{E}\hat{\beta}=\beta$
- *•* the covariance of *β*ˆ is derived by

$$
\mathbf{cov}(\hat{\beta}) = \mathbf{E}[(\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{E}\hat{\beta})(\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{E}\hat{\beta})^T]
$$

 ${\bf b}$ ut ${\bf E}\hat{\beta}=\beta$ and that $\hat{\beta}-{\bf E}\hat{\beta}=(X^TX)^{-1}X^Tu$, hence,

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}\n\mathbf{cov}(\hat{\beta}) & = & \mathbf{cov}[(X^TX)^{-1}X^Tu] \\
& = & (X^TX)^{-1}X^T \mathbf{cov}(u)X(X^TX)^{-1} \\
& = & (X^TX)^{-1}X^T \Sigma X(X^TX)^{-1}\n\end{array}
$$

 $\inf \Sigma = \sigma^2 I$, then it reduces to $\mathbf{cov}(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma^2 (X^T X)^{-1}$

Linear Regression 6-19

BLUE property

assumptions: *u* is white noise with zero mean and **unit** covariance $(cov(u) = I)$ the estimator defined by

$$
\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y
$$

is the **optimum unbiased linear least-mean-squares** estimator of *β*

assume $\hat{\beta} = By$ is any other linear estimator of β

- require $BX = I$ in order for \hat{z} to be unbiased
- $cov(\hat{\beta}) = BB^T$
- \bullet $\mathbf{cov}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}}) = BX(X^TX)^{-1}X^TB^T$ (apply $BX = I$)

 $\textsf{Using } I - X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T ≥ 0$, we conclude that

$$
\mathbf{cov}(\hat{\beta}) - \mathbf{cov}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}}) = B(I - X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T) B^T \succeq 0
$$

- *•* BLUE property is also known as **Gauss-Markov theorem**
- $\bullet\,$ the assumption that $\mathbf{cov}(u)=I$ (or could be $\sigma^2I)$ is equivalent to
	- $\bm{-}\mathbf{var}(u_i) = \sigma^2$ for all i , *i.e.*, the error terms have the same variance (**homoskedasticity**)
	- $\bm{-}\mathbf{cov}(u_i,u_j)=0$ for $i\neq j$, *i.e.*, the error terms are uncorrelated
- \bullet the proof on the optimality use the fact that $P = X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T$ is an **orthogonal projection** matrix with
	- $-P^{T} = P$
	- $-P^2 = P$
	- $\|\cdot\|^2 = \|Px\| \leq \|x\| \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

these properties imply that $I - P \succeq 0$

Properties of estimation errors

 u nder the homoskedastic assumption $u_i \thicksim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ and define

$$
\hat{u} = y - X\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}}, \quad \text{RSS} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{u}_i^2, \quad s^2 = \text{RSS}/(N - n) = (N - n)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{u}_i^2
$$

Facts:

- $\bullet \ \ s^2$ is an unbiased estimate for σ^2
- \bullet $(N-n)s^2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi^2$

(*N − n*) (require Gaussian assumption of *ui*)

proof sketch:

- *•* unbiased property of *s* 2
	- **–** *u*ˆ = (*I − P*)*y* ≜ *My* where *M* is also an orhogonal projection matrix
	- $u^2 \hat{u} = M u$ from the dgp: $y = X\beta + u$ and that $MX = 0$
	- $\textsf{F}-$ since $M = I X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T$ we have and $\textbf{tr}(M) = \textbf{tr}(I_N) \textbf{tr}(I_n)$
	- $-$ use $\mathbf{E} \Vert \hat{u} \Vert_2^2 = \mathbf{E}[u^T M u] = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{tr}(u^T M u)]$
- *•* chi-square distribution of *s* 2

$$
- (N - n)s^2/\sigma^2 = \hat{u}^T \hat{u}/\sigma^2 = u^T M u/\sigma^2
$$

 $-$ use that u_i/σ is standard Gaussian and that M is idempotent

Analysis of the LS estimate (stochastic case)

X is not a deterministic matrix (e.g. LS estimate of time series model)

we will explore the following properties of LS estimate

- *•* identification
- *•* consistency
- *•* asymptotic distribution

Identification of LS estimate

the ability of LS etimate to permit identification of $\mathbf{E}[y|X]$ is follows

for the linear model, *β* is identified if

- 1. $\mathbf{E}[y|X] = X\beta$
- 2. $X\alpha = X\beta$ if and only if $\alpha = \beta$
- *•* 1st assumption: the conditional mean is correctly specified ensures that *β* is of intrinsic interest
- 2nd assumption: equivalent to $\mathcal{N}(X) = \{0\}$ or X is full rank

Consistency of LS estimate

assumptions:

- 1. the data generating process (dgp) is actually the linear model on page 6-16
- 2. **plim**(*N [−]*¹*X^TX*) *−*1 converges in probability to a finite nonzero matrix
- 3. **plim** $N^{-1}X^{T}u = 0$

the LS estimate can be expressed as

$$
\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}} = \beta + (X^T X)^{-1} X^T u = \beta + (N^{-1} X^T X)^{-1} N^{-1} X^T u
$$

apply rules of limit in probability and use the assumptions

$$
\plim \hat{\beta}_{ls} = \beta + \plim (N^{-1}X^TX)^{-1} \cdot \plim N^{-1}X^Tu = \beta
$$

Distribution of LS estimator

assumptions:

- 1. the dgp model is $y = X\beta + u$ or $y_i = x_i^T\beta_i + u_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, N$
- 2. data are **independent** over *i* (but not identically distributed) with

$$
\mathbf{E}[u|X] = 0, \quad \mathbf{E}[uu^T|X] = D = \mathbf{diag}(\sigma_i^2)
$$

- 3. *X* is full rank
- 4. $\Sigma_x = \textbf{plim } N^{-1} X^T X$ exists and finite nonsingular
- 5. by CLT, *[√]* 1 *N* $X^T u \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_{ux})$ where $\Sigma_{ux} = \mathbf{plim}\ N^{-1} X^T u u^T X$

then the LS estimate $\hat{\beta}_{\rm ls}$ is $\bm{consistent}$ for β and

$$
\sqrt{N}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}}-\beta) \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \mathcal{N}(0,\Sigma_x^{-1}\Sigma_{ux}\Sigma_x^{-1})
$$

Proof. with rescaling from page 6-26, the LS estimate can be expressed as

$$
\sqrt{N}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}} - \beta) = \left(\frac{1}{N}X^TX\right)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} X^Tu
$$

• assumption 2: *xiuⁱ* are independent, so by CLT (on page 5-43) and weak LLN

$$
(1/\sqrt{N})X^{T}u = (1/\sqrt{N})\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i}u_{i} \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_{ux}), \text{ where}
$$

$$
\Sigma_{ux} = \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{E}[x_{i}x_{i}^{T}u_{i}^{2}] \text{ (note: } \mathbf{E}[u_{i}x_{i}] = 0)
$$

$$
= \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{E}[u_{i}^{2}x_{i}x_{i}^{T}|x_{i}]] = \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{E}[u_{i}^{2}|x_{i}]x_{i}x_{i}^{T}]
$$

$$
= \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i}^{2}x_{i}x_{i}^{T}] = \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{E}[X^{T}DX]
$$

• assumption 3,4 and by weak LLN (on page 5-12)

$$
\frac{1}{N}X^TX = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N x_i x_i^T \xrightarrow{p} \Sigma_x = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{E}[x_i x_i^T]
$$

• by continuous mapping theorem and that the inverse operator is continuous on the space of invertible matrices

$$
\left(\frac{1}{N}X^TX\right)^{-1} \xrightarrow{p} \Sigma_x^{-1}
$$

• by product limit normal rule (on page 5-17), we obtained the desired result where

$$
\sqrt{N}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}}-\beta) \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \mathcal{N}(0,\Sigma_x^{-1}\Sigma_{ux}\Sigma_x^{-1})
$$

Error assumptions

we explore the variance of LS estimate under two conditions on the error, *u*

 \bullet (conditional) homoskedasticity: u_i has the same variance for all i , σ^2

$$
\mathbf{E}[uu^T|X] = D = \sigma^2 I
$$

 \bullet (conditional) heteroskedasticity: u_i may have different variance, σ_i^2 *i*

$$
\mathbf{E}[uu^T|X] = D = \mathbf{diag}(\sigma_i^2)
$$

for both cases, it means u_i 's are uncorrelated, *i.e.*, D is diagonal

if u_i 's are correlated, then D is only symmetric

Asymptotic Variance Matrix of LS estimate

the asymptotic variance matrix of the distribution and the estimate are

$$
P = \Sigma_x^{-1} \Sigma_{ux} \Sigma_x^{-1}, \quad \textbf{Avar}(\hat{\beta}) = N^{-1} P
$$

where

$$
\Sigma_{ux} = \lim \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{E}[X^T DX], \quad \Sigma_x = \lim \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{E}[X^T X], \quad D = \mathbf{diag}(\sigma_i^2)
$$

define the LS residual

$$
\hat{u}=y-X\hat{\beta}
$$

the asymptotic covariance matrices can be substituted by their estimates

$$
\hat{\Sigma}_{ux} = \frac{1}{N} X^T \hat{D} X, \quad \hat{\Sigma}_x = \frac{1}{N} X^T X, \quad \hat{D} = \mathbf{diag}(\hat{u}^2)
$$

Linear Regression 6-31

homoskedascity assumption: the estimated variance matrix can be simplified

if we assume homoskedasticity, $\mathbf{E}[u_i^2]$ $i^2 |x_i|$ is the same across i , *i.e.*, $D = \sigma^2 I$

hence, $\Sigma_{ux} = \sigma^2\Sigma_x$ and the asymptotic variance matrix reduces to

$$
\mathbf{Avar}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}}) = N^{-1}P = N^{-1}\sigma^2\Sigma_x^{-1}
$$

its estimate is given by

$$
\hat{\sigma}^2 = {\|\hat{u}\|_2^2}/{(N - n)}, \quad \widehat{\mathbf{Avar}}(\hat{\beta}_{\mathrm{ls}}) = N^{-1} \hat{\sigma}^2 \hat{\Sigma}_x^{-1} = \hat{\sigma}^2 (X^T X)^{-1}
$$

- *•* compare with the result on page 6-18
- \bullet $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is a consistent estimate of σ^2 , regardless of the normalization $N-n$
- *•* many computer packages use this as the *default* OLS variance estimate

Linear Regression 6-32

consistency proof of $\hat{\sigma}^2$

• apply the definition and dgp: *y* = *Xβ* + *u* where *u* is homoskedastic

$$
\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N-n} u^T M u = \frac{N}{N-n} \left[\frac{u^T u}{N} - \left(\frac{u^T X}{N} \right) \left(\frac{X^T X}{N} \right)^{-1} \left(\frac{X^T u}{N} \right) \right]
$$

• apply the limit in probability and the product limit rule

$$
-\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{N}{N - n} = 1
$$
\n
$$
-\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{N}{N} \frac{m}{u} = \sigma^2
$$
\n
$$
-\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \frac{m}{N} = \Sigma_x
$$
\n(assume to obtain positive matrix in large samples)\n
$$
-\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \frac{1}{N} = 0
$$
\n(assume E[u|X] = 0)

$$
(1/N)X^{T}u = (1/N)\sum_{i=1}^{N} u_{i}x_{i} \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} \mathbf{E}[u_{i}x_{i}] = \mathbf{E}_{x}[\mathbf{E}[u_{i}x_{i}|x_{i}]] = \mathbf{E}_{x}[x_{i}\mathbf{E}[u_{i}|x_{i}]] = 0
$$

• note that the proof follows even when the division is not *N − n* (*e.g.*, *N*)

heteroskedascity assumption: the asymptotic variance matrix is

$$
\mathbf{Avar}(\hat\beta_{\mathrm{ls}})=N^{-1}\Sigma_x^{-1}\Sigma_{ux}\Sigma_x^{-1}
$$

and its estimate is

$$
\widehat{\mathbf{Avar}}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{ls}}) = N^{-1}\hat{\Sigma}_x^{-1}\hat{\Sigma}_u x \hat{\Sigma}_x^{-1} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \hat{D} X (X^T X)^{-1}
$$

 $\hat{D} = \mathbf{diag}(\hat{u}^2)$ and $\hat{u} = y - X\hat{\beta}$

- \bullet $\widehat{\mathbf{Avar}}(\hat{\beta}_{\rm ls})$ is called heteroskedastic-consistent estimate of $\mathbf{Avar}(\hat{\beta}_{\rm ls})$
- \bullet many names for the standard errors, the square roots of the diagonals of $\widehat{\mathbf{Avar}}(\hat\beta_{\rm ls})$
	- **–** white standard errors
	- **–** heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors
	- **–** huber standard errors

Weighted least-squares

given W a positive definite matrix that can be factorized as $W = L^T L$ a weighted least-squares (WLS) problem is

$$
\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} (X\beta - y)^T W (X\beta - y)
$$

- *•* equivalent formulation: **minimize***^x ∥L*(*Xβ − y*)*∥* 2
- *•* can be solved from the modified normal equation

$$
X^T W X \beta = X^T W y
$$

- \bullet the solution is $\hat{\beta}_{\mathrm{wls}} = (X^T W X)^{-1} X^T W y$ (if X is full rank)
- *• Xβ*wls is the *orthogonal projection* on *R*(*X*) w.r.t the new inner product

$$
\langle x,y\rangle_W=\langle Wx,y\rangle
$$

Interpretation of WLS

when *m*-measurements contain some outliers (samples 3,9,10)

 μ using $W = \mathbf{diag}(w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_m)$ gives WLS objective: $\sum_{i=1}^m w_i (y_i - x_i^T \beta)^2$

- use relatively low w_3, w_9, w_{10} to penalize less on those samples
- *•* the linear model tends not to adapt to outliers making WLS a more robust method than LS

Generalized Least-Squares Estimator

revisit BLUE property of LS: suppose $\mathbf{cov}(u)$ is *not I*, says $\mathbf{E}[uu^T]=\Sigma\succ0$ scale the equation $y = X\beta + u$ by $\Sigma^{-1/2}$

$$
\Sigma^{-1/2}y = \Sigma^{-1/2}X\beta + \Sigma^{-1/2}u
$$

the optimal unbiased linear least-mean-squares estimator of *β* is

$$
\hat{\beta}_{\mathrm{gls}} = (X^T \Sigma^{-1} X)^{-1} X^T \Sigma^{-1} y
$$

this is a special case of weighted least-squares solution when *W* = Σ*−*¹

- *•* if Σ is known the weighted LS estimate is BLUE if *W* = Σ*−*¹
- $\bullet\,$ large Σ_{ii} means u_i is more uncertain, so we should put less penalty on this residual
- *•* this solution is known as **generalized least-squares estimator**

Feasible Generalized Least-Squares Estimator

the GLS estimator cannot be implemented because $\mathbf{cov}(u) = \Sigma$ is not known if we replace Σ by a $\hat{\Sigma}$ in GLS estimator then it yields

$$
\hat{\beta}_{\text{fgls}} = (X^T \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} X)^{-1} X^T \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} y
$$

known as the **feasible generalized least-squares (FGLS) estimator**

let us specify that $\Sigma = \Sigma(\gamma)$ where γ is a parameter vector

$$
\sqrt{N}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{fgls}} - \beta) \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \mathcal{N}\left[0, \left(\mathbf{plim} \, N^{-1} X^T \Sigma^{-1} X\right)^{-1}\right]
$$

if we use $\hat{\Sigma} = \Sigma(\hat{\gamma})$ and $\hat{\gamma}$ is consistent for γ

conclusion: FGLS estimator is a special case of weighted LS estimator

Analysis of the WLS estimate (static case)

assumptions:

- the dgp is $y = X\beta + u$
- *• u* is *white noise* with zero mean and covariance matrix Σ
- \bullet the weighted least-square estimate is given by $\hat{\beta} = (X^T W X)^{-1} X^T W y$
- *•* the regressor *X* is *deterministic*

then the following properties hold:

- $\hat{\beta}$ is an unbiased estimate of β (E $\hat{\beta} = \beta$, or $\hat{\beta} = \beta$ when $u = 0$)
- *•* the covariance matrix of *β*ˆ is given by

$$
\mathbf{cov}(\hat{\beta}) = (X^TWX)^{-1}X^TW\Sigma WX (X^TWX)^{-1}
$$

Asymptotic asymptotic covariance matrix of WLS

assumptions: (dynamic case)

- the dgp is $y = X\beta + u$
- *• u* is *white noise* with zero mean and covariance matrix Σ
- \bullet the weighted least-square estimate is given by $\hat{\beta} = (X^T W X)^{-1} X^T W y$
- *•* the regressor *X* is *stochastic*

then the **estimated asymptotic covariance matrix** of WLS estimator is

$$
\widehat{\mathbf{Avar}}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{wls}}) = (X^TWX)^{-1}X^TW\hat{\Sigma}WX(X^TWX)^{-1}
$$

where $\hat{\Sigma}$ (estimated covariance matrix of error) is such that

 $\mathbf{p}\mathbf{lim}\,N^{-1}X^TW\hat{\Sigma}WX = \mathbf{p}\mathbf{lim}\,N^{-1}X^TW\SigmaWX$

conclusion: W must be chosen to be a good estimate of Σ^{-1}

Linear Regression 6-40

MATLAB functions

- *•* fitlm fits a linear regression
- *•* glmfit fit a generalized linear model (linear regression is a special case and the default option)
- *•* fgls solve feasible generalized least squares
- *•* robustfit fit robust regressions

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