



# Financial Econometrics

## Multivariate Regression

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- There are a few things we have not covered in univariate regression.
  - ▶ The general form of OLS.
  - ▶ Prove of BLUE and BUE of OLS under Gauss-Markov.
  - ▶ Why  $\frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2$  is an unbiased estimator for  $\sigma_u^2$
  - ▶ How to deal with heteroskedasticity when we do not have A5.
  - ▶ Why sample mean is also a least square estimator.
  - ▶ Relationship between multiple independent (explanatory) variables.
  - ▶ Hypothesis testing of multiple coefficient estimates (and the entire model).
- We will first review for some matrix properties and show you the general multivariate regression derivations.



- A matrix is an array of numbers. It is usually denoted by an upper-case alphabet in boldface (e.g.  $\mathbf{A}$ ), and its  $(i, j)^{th}$  element (the element at the  $i^{th}$  row and  $j^{th}$  column) is denoted by the corresponding lower-case alphabet with subscripts  $ij$  (e.g.,  $a_{ij}$  ).
- The following is an example of a  $m \times n$  matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$



- An  $n \times 1$  ( $1 \times n$ ) matrix is an  $n$ -dimensional column (row) vector.
- A matrix is **square** if its number of rows equals the number of columns.
- A matrix is said to be **diagonal** if its off-diagonal elements (i.e.,  $a_{ij}$ , for  $i \neq j$ ) are all zeros and at least one of its diagonal elements is non-zero, i.e.,  $a_{ii} \neq 0$  for some  $i$ .
- A diagonal matrix whose diagonal elements are all ones is an **identity matrix**, denoted as  $\mathbf{I}$ . We also write the  $n \times n$  identity matrix as  $\mathbf{I}_n$ .



- Two matrices  $\mathbf{A}_{mn}$  and  $\mathbf{B}_{mn}$  are said to be the same if 1) they have the same number of rows ( $m$ ) and same number of columns ( $n$ ); and 2)  $a_{ij} = b_{ij}$  for all  $i$  and  $j$ .
- **Matrix Addition**: defined only for two matrices of the same size (same  $m$  and  $n$ ).  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$ ,  $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C})$
- **Transpose**: the transpose of  $\mathbf{A}$ , denoted as  $\mathbf{A}'$ , is a matrix whose  $(i, j)^{th}$  element is the  $(j, i)^{th}$  element of  $\mathbf{A}$ . For  $\mathbf{A}_{mn}$ , its transpose  $\mathbf{A}'$ , has  $n$  rows and  $m$  columns, i.e.  $\mathbf{A}'$  is a  $n \times m$  matrix.



- **Scalar Multiplication:**  $c\mathbf{A}_{mn}$  changes all elements in the  $\mathbf{A}_{mn}$  matrix from  $a_{ij}$  to  $c * a_{ij}$  for all  $(i, j)$ .
- **Matrix Multiplication:**  $\mathbf{AB}$  is only defined for matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  when the number of columns of  $\mathbf{A}$  is the same as the number of rows of  $\mathbf{B}$ .
- Therefore,  $\mathbf{AB} \neq \mathbf{BA}$ . ( $\mathbf{BA}$  may not even be well defined.)
- Specifically, when  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $m \times n$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  is  $n \times p$ , their product,  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$ , is a  $m \times p$  matrix whose  $(i, j)^{th}$  element is

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj}$$



## ● Matrix Multiplication: Rules

- ▶ Associative:  $(\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC})$
- ▶ Distributive:  $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{AB} + \mathbf{AC}$
- ▶  $(\mathbf{AB})' = \mathbf{B}'\mathbf{A}'$
- ▶ For a  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{I}_m\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{AI}_n = \mathbf{A}$
- ▶ A squared matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is **idempotent** if  $\mathbf{AA} = \mathbf{A}$ .



- **Determinant:**

Given a square matrix  $\mathbf{A}_n$ , let  $\mathbf{A}_{ij}$  denote the sub-matrix obtained from  $\mathbf{A}$  by deleting its  $i^{th}$  row and  $j^{th}$  column. The determinant of  $\mathbf{A}$  is:

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} \det(\mathbf{A}_{ij})$$

for any  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$

- Example:  $\det\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}\right) = (-1)^2 * 1 * 4 + (-1)^3 * 2 * 3 = 1 * 4 - 2 * 3 = -2$





## ● **Determinant:** *Rules*

- ▶ The determinant of a scalar is itself.
- ▶ A square matrix with non-zero determinant is said to be *nonsingular*; otherwise, it is *singular*.
- ▶  $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \det(\mathbf{A}')$
- ▶  $\det(c\mathbf{A}) = c^n \det(\mathbf{A})$
- ▶  $\det(\mathbf{AB}) = \det(\mathbf{BA}) = \det(\mathbf{A}) * \det(\mathbf{B})$
- ▶  $\det(\mathbf{I}) = 1$  for all size of  $\mathbf{I}$



- **Trace:**

The *trace* of a square matrix is the sum of its diagonal elements:

$$\text{trace}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$$

- **Rules:**

- ▶  $\text{trace}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{trace}(\mathbf{A}')$
- ▶  $\text{trace}(c\mathbf{A} + d\mathbf{B}) = c \text{trace}(\mathbf{A}) + d \text{trace}(\mathbf{B})$
- ▶  $\text{trace}(\mathbf{I}_n) = n$
- ▶  $\text{trace}(\mathbf{AB}) = \text{trace}(\mathbf{BA})$  \*\*\*Important Lemma!



- **Inverse**: a nonsingular matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  possesses a unique inverse  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  in the sense that  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$
- Given a invertible  $\mathbf{A}$ , its inverse

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{A})} \mathbf{F}'$$

where  $\mathbf{F}$  is the matrix of cofactors, i.e., the  $(i, j)^{th}$  element of  $\mathbf{F}$  is the cofactor:  $(-1)^{i+j} \det(\mathbf{A}_{ij})$ . The matrix  $\mathbf{F}'$  is known as the **adjoint** of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

- Example: for a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}} \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{bmatrix}$



- **Inverse:** *Rules*

- ▶ Matrix inversion and transposition can be interchanged,  
i.e.  $(\mathbf{A}')^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})'$
- ▶ For nonsingular  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ ,  $(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$
- ▶ For a diagonal matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  
 $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  is also diagonal with the diagonal elements  $a_{ii}^{-1}$ .
- ▶  $\mathbf{I}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$  for all size of  $\mathbf{I}$



- **Linear Dependence:**

the vectors  $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_n$  are said to be **linearly independent** if the only solution to  $c_1\mathbf{z}_1 + c_2\mathbf{z}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{z}_n = \mathbf{0}$  is the trivial solution:  $c_1 = \dots = c_n = 0$ . Otherwise, *they are linearly dependent*.

- **Rank:**

the *column (row) rank* of a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is the maximum number of linearly independent *column (row) vectors* of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

- Assume for  $\mathbf{A}_{n \times k}$ ,  $n < k$ , and that  $\mathbf{A}$  has  $r < n$  linearly independent rows. Row vectors can be written as  $\mathbf{a}_i = q_{i1}\mathbf{a}_1 + q_{i2}\mathbf{a}_2 + \dots + q_{ir}\mathbf{a}_r$ , with the  $j^{th}$  element,  $a_{ij} = q_{i1}a_{1j} + q_{i2}a_{2j} + \dots + q_{ir}a_{rj}$ . We can then see that the column rank is also  $r$ !

- **Lemma:** the column rank and row rank of a matrix are equal.



- **Rank:** *Rules*

- ▶  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}')$
- ▶ for two  $n \times k$  matrices  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ ,  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \leq \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) + \text{rank}(\mathbf{B})$
- ▶ for  $\mathbf{A}_{n \times k}$  and  $\mathbf{B}_{k \times m}$ ,  
 $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) + \text{rank}(\mathbf{B}) - k \leq \text{rank}(\mathbf{AB}) \leq \min[\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}), \text{rank}(\mathbf{B})]$
- ▶ for a nonsingular matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  
 $\text{rank}(\mathbf{AB}) \leq \text{rank}(\mathbf{B}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{AB}) \leq \text{rank}(\mathbf{AB})$   
 $\Rightarrow \text{rank}(\mathbf{AB}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{B})$   
similarly,  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{BC}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{C}'\mathbf{B}') = \text{rank}(\mathbf{B}') = \text{rank}(\mathbf{B})$

- **Lemma:** let  $\mathbf{A}_{n \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{C}_{k \times k}$  be nonsingular matrices.  
then for any  $n \times k$  matrix  $\mathbf{B}$ ,  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{B}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{AB}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{BC})$



- **Matrix Derivative**: scalar-valued function

Say, we have a function  $y = f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

$$\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial y / \partial x_1 \\ \partial y / \partial x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \partial y / \partial x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- A **second derivatives matrix** or **Hessian** is computed as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \partial^2 y / \partial x_1 \partial x_1 & \partial^2 y / \partial x_1 \partial x_2 & \cdots & \partial^2 y / \partial x_1 \partial x_n \\ \partial^2 y / \partial x_2 \partial x_1 & \partial^2 y / \partial x_2 \partial x_2 & \cdots & \partial^2 y / \partial x_2 \partial x_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \partial^2 y / \partial x_n \partial x_1 & \partial^2 y / \partial x_n \partial x_2 & \cdots & \partial^2 y / \partial x_n \partial x_n \end{bmatrix}$$



- **Matrix Derivative:**

Now, suppose we have a linear combination  $y = \mathbf{a}'\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{a} = \sum_i a_i x_i$

- We can easily see that

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}'\mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- Similarly, in a set of linear function  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}'$





- **Matrix Derivative:**

Lastly, for a quadratic form with a symmetric  $\mathbf{A}$ ,

$$\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \sum_i \sum_j x_i x_j a_{ij},$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = 2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$$

- For example,  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = x_1^2 + 4x_2^2 + 6x_1x_2$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 + 6x_2 \\ 6x_1 + 8x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$$

- If  $\mathbf{A}$  is not symmetric, then  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}')\mathbf{x}$



- Things you don't need to worry about in this course:
  - ▶ Kronecker product
  - ▶ Orthogonalization
  - ▶ Eigen Value and Eigen Vector



- Suppose we have  $k$  regressors  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)$  and  $n$  observations, the regression function / Data Generating Process (DGP) is as the following:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ki} + u_i$$

for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

- Let's group things into matrices!

$$\mathbf{X}_{n \times (k+1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & X_{12} & \cdots & X_{1k} \\ 1 & X_{21} & X_{22} & \cdots & X_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{n1} & X_{n2} & \cdots & X_{nk} \end{bmatrix} \quad \boldsymbol{\beta}_{(k+1) \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{bmatrix}$$



- $\mathbf{X}$  is a  $n \times (k + 1)$  matrix of independent variables.
- $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  is a  $(k + 1) \times 1$  column vector of coefficients.
- $\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$  will be of  $n \times 1$  dimension.

$$\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 + \beta_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \beta_2\mathbf{x}_2 + \cdots + \beta_k\mathbf{x}_k$$

where  $x_i$ ,  $i = 1, \cdots, k$  are also  $(n \times 1)$  column vectors.

- We can compactly write the linear model as the following:

$$\mathbf{Y}_{(n \times 1)} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{(n \times 1)} + \mathbf{u}_{(n \times 1)}$$

- We can also look at individual level, where  $\mathbf{x}'_i$  is the  $i^{th}$  row of  $\mathbf{X}$ :

$$Y_i = \mathbf{x}'_i\boldsymbol{\beta} + u_i$$



- Let  $\hat{\beta}$  be the matrix of estimated regression coefficients and  $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$  be the vector of fitted values:

$$\hat{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 \\ \hat{\beta}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\beta}_k \end{bmatrix} \quad \hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}$$

- It might be helpful to see this again more written out:

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{Y}_1 \\ \hat{Y}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{Y}_n \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\hat{\beta}_0 + X_{11}\hat{\beta}_1 + \cdots + X_{k1}\hat{\beta}_k \\ 1\hat{\beta}_0 + X_{12}\hat{\beta}_1 + \cdots + X_{k2}\hat{\beta}_k \\ \vdots \\ 1\hat{\beta}_0 + X_{1n}\hat{\beta}_1 + \cdots + X_{kn}\hat{\beta}_k \end{bmatrix}$$



- We can easily write the **residuals** in matrix form:

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$$

- Our goal, again, is to minimize the sum of the squared residuals:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2 &= \hat{\mathbf{u}}' \hat{\mathbf{u}} = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \\ &= \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} + \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\end{aligned}$$



- Goal: minimize the sum of the squared residuals.
- Take (matrix) derivatives, set equal to 0.
- Resulting first order conditions:

$$-2\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} + 2\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = 0$$

- Rearranging:

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

- Assume that  $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$  is nonsingular and invertible,  $\Leftarrow$  **A3!**

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

- Pronunciation: ex prime ex inverse ex prime y



$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

- What's the intuition here?
  - ▶ Numerator  $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$ : is approximately composed of the covariances between the columns of  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{Y}$
  - ▶ Denominator  $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$  is approximately composed of the sample variances and covariances of variables within  $\mathbf{X}$
- Thus, we have something like:

$$\hat{\beta} \approx (\text{Variance of } \mathbf{X})^{-1}(\text{Covariance between } \mathbf{X} \text{ and } \mathbf{Y})$$

$\Rightarrow$  an analogous to the simple linear regression case!

- Check the univariate regression on board:  $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\beta = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 \end{bmatrix}$ !



# CLRM Assumptions in Matrix Form



- 1 **Linearity:**  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{u}$
- 2 **Randomness:**  $(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i')$  are IID samples from the population.
- 3 **No Perfect Collinearity:**  $\mathbf{X}$  is an  $n \times (k + 1)$  matrix with rank  $k + 1$   
 $\rightarrow$  If  $< k + 1$ ,  $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$  will not be invertible!
- 4 **Zero Conditional Error:**  $E[\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{0}$
- 5 **Homoskedasticity:**  $Var(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}) = \sigma_u^2 \mathbf{I}_n$
- 6 **Normality:**  $\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_u^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$



- Again, with CLRM assumptions 1-4:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta} &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} \quad (\text{linear form and no collinearity}) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{X}\beta + \mathbf{u}) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\beta + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{u} \\ &= \beta + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{u}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}E[\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}] &= E[\beta|\mathbf{X}] + E[(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}] \\ &= \beta + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'E[\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}] \quad (\text{zero conditional error}) \\ &= \beta\end{aligned}$$



- What does  $Var(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}) = \sigma_u^2 \mathbf{I}_n$  mean?
- $\mathbf{I}_n$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix,  $\sigma_u^2$  is a scalar.
- Visually:

$$Var(\mathbf{u}) = \sigma_u^2 \mathbf{I}_n = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_u^2 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_u^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_u^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_u^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- In other words,  $var(u_i) = \sigma_u^2$  for all  $i$  (constant variance)  
 $cov(u_i, u_j) = 0$  for all  $i \neq j$  (implied by IID)

# Conditional Variance of $\hat{\beta}$



- A quick note: For a linear transformation of matrices:  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{B}$ ,  
 $Var(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{A}Var(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{A}'$

- Now, with  $\hat{\beta} = \beta + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{u}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} Var[\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}] &= Var[\beta|\mathbf{X}] + Var[(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}] \quad (\text{no covariance term}) \\ &= Var[(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}] \quad (Var(\text{scalar})=0) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'Var[\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}]((\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}')' \\ &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'Var[\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}]\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \\ &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\sigma_u^2\mathbf{I}_n\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \quad (\text{homoskedasticity}) \\ &= \sigma_u^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \\ &= \sigma_u^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

- This is a  $(k+1) \times (k+1)$  variance-covariance matrix of  $\hat{\beta}$ .



- Our purpose is to show that given CLRM assumptions 1-5,  $\hat{\beta}$  has the **minimum variance** among all **unbiased linear** estimators.
- Suppose we have some unbiased linear estimator  $\tilde{\beta} = \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{Y}$ .  
For  $\tilde{\beta}$  to be an unbiased estimator, We need  $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}_{(k+1)}$  so that  
$$E[\tilde{\beta}|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{A}'E[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{X}\beta + \mathbf{A}'E[\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{X}\beta = \beta$$
- Under such circumstance,  $Var[\tilde{\beta}|\mathbf{X}] = Var[\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma_u^2 \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A}$
- Our goal is to show that  $\sigma_u^2 \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A} \geq \sigma_u^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$
- Now assume some  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$



- We can first show that

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \mathbf{I}_{(k+1)} - \mathbf{I}_{(k+1)} = \mathbf{0}$$

- Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A} - (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} &= (\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1})'(\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}) - (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \\ &= \mathbf{C}'\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{C}'\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{C} \\ &\quad + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} - (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \\ &= \mathbf{C}'\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} - (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \\ &= \mathbf{C}'\mathbf{C} \geq \mathbf{0}\end{aligned}$$

- The matrix  $\mathbf{C}'\mathbf{C}$  is positive semi-definite. Therefore,  $\sigma_u^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$  is the minimum variance of all linear unbiased estimators for  $\beta$ .



- To go from BLUE to BUE, we need to relax the set of candidates from linear unbiased estimators to all unbiased estimators.
- We will not cover the details in this course!
- But the intuition is:  
with CLRM assumption 6, we know the exact distribution of  $\mathbf{u}$ .
- With the distribution known, we may use another estimator, the Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE).
- In a more advanced econometric course, you will learn that MLE is BUE and that with CLRM assumption 6, the MLE closed form solution coincides with OLS estimator,  $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$ .
- Lastly, Hansen, B. (2022). A Modern Gauss-Markov Theorem. *Econometrica*, forthcoming. finds that A1-A5  $\Rightarrow$  OLS is BUE!



- Similar to the univariate version, our goal is again to infer the variance of the error term from the residual!
- Let's first introduce another matrix  $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'$   
 $\mathbf{M}$  is called the **residual matrix** or the **orthogonal projection matrix**.  
E.g.  $\mathbf{MY} = \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \hat{\mathbf{u}}$ .
- For some  $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$ , the output of  $\mathbf{M}\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$  is the residual of regressing  $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$  on  $\mathbf{X}$ !
- Important properties of  $\mathbf{M}$ :
  - ▶  $\mathbf{M}$  is a symmetric square, i.e.  $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}'$
  - ▶  $\mathbf{M}$  is idempotent. i.e.  $\mathbf{MM} = \mathbf{M}$
  - ▶ As  $\mathbf{MY} = \hat{\mathbf{u}}$ ,  $\mathbf{Mu} = \hat{\mathbf{u}}$
- Thus,  $Var[\hat{\mathbf{u}}|\mathbf{X}] = Var[\mathbf{Mu}|\mathbf{X}]!$





- Now, let's calculate  $MSD(\hat{u}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} MSD(\hat{u}) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \hat{\mathbf{u}}' \hat{\mathbf{u}} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{u}' \mathbf{M}' \mathbf{M} \mathbf{u} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{u}' \mathbf{M} \mathbf{u} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \text{trace}(\mathbf{u}' \mathbf{M} \mathbf{u}) && \text{(because it's a scalar)} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \text{trace}(\mathbf{M} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}') && \text{(trace property)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[MSD(\hat{u})|\mathbf{X}] &= \frac{1}{n} \text{trace}(E[\mathbf{M}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}'|\mathbf{X}]) = \frac{1}{n} \text{trace}(\mathbf{M}E[\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}'|\mathbf{X}]) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \text{trace}(\mathbf{M}\sigma_u^2\mathbf{I}_n) \quad (\text{homoskedasticity}) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sigma_u^2 \text{trace}(\mathbf{M}) = \frac{1}{n} \sigma_u^2 \text{trace}(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}') \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sigma_u^2 [\text{trace}(\mathbf{I}_n) - \text{trace}(\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}')] \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sigma_u^2 [\text{trace}(\mathbf{I}_n) - \text{trace}((\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})] \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sigma_u^2 [\text{trace}(\mathbf{I}_n) - \text{trace}(\mathbf{I}_{k+1})] = \frac{n - (k + 1)}{n} \sigma_u^2
 \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore, an unbiased estimator for  $\sigma_u^2$  is:  $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-(k+1)} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2$
- We can now estimate  $Var(\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}) = s^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$



- CLRM assumption 5 assumes for Homoskedasticity, or IID, in the error term. All the  $u_i$  are drawn from the exact same distribution and are drawn independently. Therefore, they should have the same variance,  $\sigma_u^2$ .
- Now, let's still assume for independence but relax the assumption that they all have the same variance. For each  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n$ , the corresponding variance is:  $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2$ .
- The variance-covariance matrix goes from

$$\sigma_u^2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{to} \quad \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_n^2 \end{bmatrix}$$



- What are the consequences?
- First, OLS is not BLUE anymore, but OLS estimates are still **unbiased**.  
→ To resume BLUE, we need **GLS (Generalized Least Square)**!
- Second, we cannot estimate  $Var(\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}) = s^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$  anymore.
- Assume the Var-Cov matrix of the error term is denoted as  $\Omega$ .

$$\begin{aligned} Var[\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}] &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'Var[\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}]\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \\ &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\Omega\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \\ &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{X}_i\mathbf{X}_i' u_i^2\right)(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

- If we can observe  $u_i$ , we could estimate  $Var[\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}]$  as above.



- Since we cannot observe  $u_i$ , we could only approximate using the residual terms  $\hat{u}_i$ .

$$Var^{robust}[\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}] = \frac{n}{n - (k + 1)} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{X}_i \mathbf{X}_i' \hat{u}_i^2 \right) (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

- This is the **heteroskedasticity-consistent** or **heteroskedasticity-robust** variance-covariance matrix estimator. It is also sometimes called the **robust covariance matrix estimator**.
- People also use the term, the **White robust covariance matrix estimator**, giving reference to **White (1980)** which first introduces this concept.
- In Stata, you can simply implement this using the command:  
`reg Y X, r`

# Partition (Frisch—Waugh—Lovell Theorem)



- It is equally important to study the cross-relationship between different independent variables.
- Now, let's partition  $\mathbf{X}$  into  $[\mathbf{X}_1 \ \mathbf{X}_2]$ , and  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  into  $[\boldsymbol{\beta}_1 \ \boldsymbol{\beta}_2]$
- We can then rewrite  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{u}$  as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}_1\boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + \mathbf{X}_2\boldsymbol{\beta}_2 + \mathbf{u}$$

- The solution to  $[\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 \ \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2]$  is

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 = (\mathbf{X}_1'\mathbf{M}_2\mathbf{X}_1)^{-1}\mathbf{X}_1'\mathbf{M}_2\mathbf{Y}$$

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2 = (\mathbf{X}_2'\mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{X}_2)^{-1}\mathbf{X}_2'\mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{Y}$$

where  $\mathbf{M}_i = \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{X}_i(\mathbf{X}_i'\mathbf{X}_i)^{-1}\mathbf{X}_i'$ ,  $i = 1, 2$



- Quick demonstration:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Y} &= \mathbf{X}_1\beta_1 + \mathbf{X}_2\beta_2 + \mathbf{u} \\ \mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{Y} &= \mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{X}_1\beta_1 + \mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{X}_2\beta_2 + \mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{u} \\ \mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{Y} &= \mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{X}_2\beta_2 + \mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{u} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{Y}} &\equiv \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\beta_2 + \tilde{\mathbf{u}} \\ \widehat{\beta}_2 &= (\tilde{\mathbf{X}}'\tilde{\mathbf{X}})^{-1}\tilde{\mathbf{X}}'\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} \\ &= (\mathbf{X}_2'\mathbf{M}_1'\mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{X}_2)^{-1}\mathbf{X}_2'\mathbf{M}_1'\mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{Y} \\ &= (\mathbf{X}_2'\mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{X}_2)^{-1}\mathbf{X}_2'\mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{Y}\end{aligned}$$

- Important takeaway: To obtain  $\widehat{\beta}_2$ 
  - 1 Regress  $\mathbf{Y}$  on  $\mathbf{X}_1$  and obtain residuals  $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}_1$
  - 2 Regress  $\mathbf{X}_2$  on  $\mathbf{X}_1$  and obtain residuals  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_2$
  - 3 Regress  $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}_1$  on  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_2$  and obtain  $\widehat{\beta}_2$  as well as residuals  $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}$
- What if  $\mathbf{X}_1$  and  $\mathbf{X}_2$  are independent/orthogonal to each other?



- $\frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - E[\widehat{\beta}_1]}{\sqrt{\widehat{Var}[\widehat{\beta}_1]}} \sim N(0, 1)$  under CLT.
- Thus, under some null hypothesis about  $\beta_1$ ,  $\widehat{\beta}_1$  can be tested using the  $t$ -statistics. And the 95% confidence interval is:  $\widehat{\beta}_1 \pm 1.96 \times SE[\widehat{\beta}_1]$
- This is also the case for  $\beta_2, \dots, \beta_k$ !
- However, we might want to test more than one coefficient at the same time as well!
- For example, for  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1,i} + \beta_2 X_{2,i} + \beta_3 X_{3,i} + \beta_4 X_{4,i} + u_i$  we might be interested in testing the following hypotheses:
  - ▶  $\beta_1 = \beta_2$
  - ▶  $2\beta_3 + 3\beta_4 = 0$
  - ▶  $\beta_1 = 10$



# Hypothesis Test: Multivariate



- The hypotheses are called **linear hypotheses**:
- To test linear hypotheses **jointly**, let's form the a matrix of constraints:

$$\mathbf{R}\beta = \mathbf{q}$$

- Let's first rewrite the constraints above as:
  - ▶  $\beta_1 - \beta_2 = 0$
  - ▶  $2\beta_3 + 3\beta_4 = 0$
  - ▶  $\beta_1 - 10 = 0$
- Each entry of  $\mathbf{R}$  is a coefficient for  $\beta$  and each row is a constraint we want to test.  $\mathbf{q}$  is a vector of scalars.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ \beta_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Hypothesis Test: Multivariate



- Now, suppose we want to test  $j$  hypotheses jointly:

$$H_0 : \mathbf{R}\beta - \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$H_1 : \mathbf{R}\beta - \mathbf{q} \neq \mathbf{0}$$

- Now Assumes that  $\mathbf{m}_{(j \times 1)} = \mathbf{R}\beta - \mathbf{q}$

- Asymptotically,  $W \equiv \mathbf{m}'(Var[\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{X}])^{-1}\mathbf{m} \sim \chi^2(j)$

- Lastly,  $F_{j,n-k-1} = \frac{W/j}{s^2/\sigma_u^2} = \frac{W}{j} \frac{\sigma_u^2}{s^2}$

- $W$  is called a Wald Statistic, and the  $F$  test is called a Wald test.

- Under homoskedasticity,  $F_{j,n-k-1} = \frac{(\mathbf{R}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{q})' \{ \mathbf{R} [s^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}] \mathbf{R}' \}^{-1} (\mathbf{R}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{q})}{j}$



- Under heteroskedasticity,

$$F_{j,n-k-1} = \frac{(\mathbf{R}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{q})' \{ \mathbf{R} [s^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\boldsymbol{\Omega}\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}] \mathbf{R}' \}^{-1} (\mathbf{R}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{q})}{j},$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$  is to be estimated.

- If we only consider one constraint and if we only test one  $\beta$  coefficient, the  $F$ -statistic will nest down to a  $t$ -statistic.

- Under homoskedasticity, there is a special solution for  $F$ :

$$F = \frac{(R_{\text{unrestricted}}^2 - R_{\text{restricted}}^2)/j}{(1 - R_{\text{unrestricted}}^2)/(n - k_{\text{unrestricted}} - 1)}$$

where  $R_{\text{restricted}}^2$  is the  $R^2$  when we restrict the testing model under the null hypotheses.



- Problem of potential omitted variable.  
→ Check the white board!
- Is adding control variables always a good idea?  
→ Think about *collinearity* and *bad controls*.  
*We'll talk more about bad controls under the potential outcome framework!*
- Problem of measurement bias or error.  
→ Check the white board!
- Interpretation of  $R^2$   
→ Is a higher  $R^2$  always better?