

Lecture 3-c

Least Squares - Properties, Testing and Goodness of Fit

Brooks (4th edition): Chapters 3 & 4

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Review – LS Estimation with Linear Algebra

- Model (with linear algebra notation):

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

- Vectors will be column vectors: \mathbf{y} , \mathbf{x}_j , and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ are $T \times 1$ vectors:

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_T \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{y}' = [y_1 \ y_2 \ \dots \ y_T]$$

$$\mathbf{x}_j = \begin{bmatrix} x_{j1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{jT} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_j' = [x_{j1} \ x_{j2} \ \dots \ x_{jT}]$$

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_T \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' = [\varepsilon_1 \ \varepsilon_2 \ \dots \ \varepsilon_T]$$

$$\mathbf{X} \text{ is a } T \times k \text{ matrix.} \Rightarrow \mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1 \ \mathbf{x}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{x}_k]$$

Review – LS Estimation with Linear Algebra

- Using linear algebra notation: $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$

$$\mathbf{X} \text{ is a } T \times k \text{ matrix.} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{k1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{1T} & x_{2T} & \cdots & x_{kT} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{a } k \times 1 \text{ vector})$$

- The whole system (for all i) is:

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= \beta_1 x_{11} + \beta_2 x_{12} + \dots + \beta_k x_{k1} + \varepsilon_1 \\ y_2 &= \beta_1 x_{21} + \beta_2 x_{22} + \dots + \beta_k x_{k2} + \varepsilon_2 \\ &\dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \\ y_T &= \beta_1 x_{1T} + \beta_2 x_{2T} + \dots + \beta_k x_{kT} + \varepsilon_T \end{aligned}$$

Review – LS Estimation with Linear Algebra

- Assume *functional form*, $f(\mathbf{X}, \theta)$, is linear:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

- LS Objective function: $S(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_i \varepsilon_i^2 = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$
 $= \mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y} - 2\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} + \boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$

- First derivative w.r.t. $\boldsymbol{\beta}'$: $-2\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ (a $k \times 1$ vector)

- F.o.c. (normal equations): $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} - (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0} \quad \Rightarrow (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$

- Assuming $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})$ is non-singular –i.e., invertible–, we solve for \mathbf{b} :
 $\Rightarrow \mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$ (a $k \times 1$ vector)

Note: \mathbf{b} is called the **Ordinary Least Squares** (OLS) estimator.
(Ordinary = $f(\mathbf{X}, \theta)$ is linear.)

Review – LS Estimation with Linear Algebra

- OLS estimator: $\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$ (a $k \times 1$ vector)
- To derive \mathbf{b} , we have made few assumptions:
 1. Model is linear -i.e., $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$
 2. The explanatory variables are independent -i.e., $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = k$.
- To get properties for the OLS estimator, \mathbf{b} , we need assumptions about $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ (its mean and variance-covariance matrix) and about how $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ relates to \mathbf{X} .

Review – Rules for Expectations of a RV

- Let X denote a *discrete* RV with probability function $p(x)$, then the expected value of X , $E[X]$, is defined to be:

$$E[X] = \sum_i x_i p(x_i)$$

- and if X is *continuous* with probability density function $f(x)$:

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

- Rules:
 - **Rule 1.** $E[c] = c$, where c is a constant.
 - **Rule 2.** $E[c + d X] = c + d E[X]$, where c & d are constants.
 - **Rule 3.** $\text{Var}[X] = \mu_2^0 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = E[X^2] - [E(X)]^2 = \mu_2 - \mu^2$
 - **Rule 4.** $\text{Var}[a X + b] = a^2 \text{Var}[X]$

Review – Rules for Expectations: Linear Model

- Suppose excess returns for asset i , $r_{i,t} - r_f$, are driven by the following linear model (DGP behind the CAPM):

$$r_{i,t} - r_f = \alpha_i + \beta_i (r_{m,t} - r_f) + \varepsilon_{i,t},$$

where

$r_{m,t} - r_f$ = excess return on the market portfolio at time t .

$\varepsilon_{i,t}$ = idiosyncratic error term, with mean 0 & unrelated to $r_{m,t}$.

Then,

$$E[r_i - r_f] = E[\alpha_i] + \beta_i E[r_{m,t} - r_f] + E[\varepsilon_{i,t}] \quad (\text{by Rule 2})$$

$$E[r_i - r_f] = \alpha_i + \beta_i E[r_{m,t} - r_f] + E[\varepsilon_{i,t}] \quad (\text{by Rule 1})$$

$$E[r_i - r_f] = \alpha_i + \beta_i E[r_{m,t} - r_f] \quad \text{-by mean 0 of } \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

Also, by **Rule 4** (& assuming $\text{Cov}[r_{m,t} - r_f, \varepsilon_{i,t}] = 0$):

$$\text{Var}[r_i - r_f] = \beta_i^2 \text{Var}[r_{m,t} - r_f] + \text{Var}[\varepsilon_{i,t}]$$

OLS – Assumptions

- Typical OLS Assumptions

(1) DGP: $y_i = \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ki} + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, T$
 \Rightarrow functional form known, but β is unknown.

(2) $E[\varepsilon_i] = 0.$ \Rightarrow expected value (mean) of the errors is 0.

(3) Explanatory variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k , are given (& non random)
 \Rightarrow no correlation with ε ($\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_i, X_j) = 0$.)

(4) The k explanatory variables are independent.

(5) $\text{Var}[\varepsilon_i] = E[\varepsilon_i^2] = \sigma^2 < \infty.$ (homoscedasticity = same variance)

(6) $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_j) = E[\varepsilon_i \varepsilon_j] = 0.$ (no serial/cross correlation)

- These are the assumptions behind the *classical linear regression model* (CLM).

LS – Assumptions with Linear Algebra Notation

- We rewrite the assumptions using linear algebra. We condition on \mathbf{X} , which allows \mathbf{X} to be a random variable (though, once we condition, \mathbf{X} becomes a matrix of numbers):

(A1) DGP: $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ (linear model) is correctly specified.

(A2) $E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = 0$

(A3) $\text{Var}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_T$

(A4) \mathbf{X} has full column rank $\rightarrow \text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = k$, where $T \geq k$.

- Assumption (A1) is called *correct specification*. We know how the data is generated. We call $\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ the Data Generating Process.

Note: The errors, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, are called *disturbances*. They are not something we add to $f(\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ because we don't know precisely $f(\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$. No. The errors are part of the DGP.

LS – Assumptions with Linear Algebra Notation

- Assumption (A2) is called *regression*.

From Assumption (A2) we get:

$$(i) \quad E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad E[\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}] = E[\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} | \mathbf{X}] + E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

That is, the observed \mathbf{y} will equal $E[\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}] + \text{random variation}$.

- (ii) Using rules of expectations (law of iterated expectations), we get:

$$(1) \quad E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = 0$$

\Rightarrow The conditional expectation = unconditional expectation

$$(2) \quad \text{Cov}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \mathbf{X}) = E[(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - 0)(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_X)] = E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu}_X] \\ = E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{X}] - \boldsymbol{\mu}_X E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{X}] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{That is, } E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{X}] = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \perp \mathbf{X}.$$

There is no information about $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ in \mathbf{X} and vice-versa.

LS – Assumptions with Linear Algebra Notation

- Assumption (A3) gives the model a constant variance for all errors and no relation between the errors at different measurements/times. That is, we have a diagonal variance-covariance matrix:

$$\text{Var}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_T \quad (T \times T) \text{ matrix}$$

This assumption implies

- (i) *homoscedasticity* $\Rightarrow E[\varepsilon_i^2 | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2$ for all i .
- (ii) *no serial/cross correlation* $\Rightarrow E[\varepsilon_i \varepsilon_j | \mathbf{X}] = 0$ for $i \neq j$.

It can be shown using the law of total variance that

$$\text{Var}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_T \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{Var}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_T$$

LS – Assumptions with Linear Algebra Notation

Note: $\text{Var}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = E[(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}]) (\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}])' | \mathbf{X}]$ $(T \times T)$ matrix

$$= E[(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - \mathbf{0}) (\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - \mathbf{0})' | \mathbf{X}]$$

$$= E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' | \mathbf{X}]$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} E[\varepsilon_1^2 | \mathbf{X}] & E[\varepsilon_2 \varepsilon_1 | \mathbf{X}] & \cdots & E[\varepsilon_T \varepsilon_1 | \mathbf{X}] \\ E[\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2 | \mathbf{X}] & E[\varepsilon_2^2 | \mathbf{X}] & \cdots & E[\varepsilon_T \varepsilon_2 | \mathbf{X}] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ E[\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_T | \mathbf{X}] & E[\varepsilon_2 \varepsilon_T | \mathbf{X}] & \cdots & E[\varepsilon_T^2 | \mathbf{X}] \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_T$$

LS – Assumptions with Linear Algebra Notation

- From Assumption (A4) \Rightarrow the k independent variables in \mathbf{X} are linearly independent. Then, the $k \times k$ matrix $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$ will also have full rank –i.e., $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}) = k$.

$\Rightarrow \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$ is invertible.

We need this result to solve a system of equations given by the 1st-order conditions of LS Estimation (normal equations):

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = 0$$

Note: To get asymptotic results we need more assumptions about \mathbf{X} .

CLM: OLS – Summary

- *Classical linear regression model (CLM)* - Assumptions:

(A1) DGP: $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is correctly specified.

(A2) $E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = 0$

(A3) $\text{Var}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = E[(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - 0)(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - 0)' | \mathbf{X}] = E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_T$

(A4) \mathbf{X} has full column rank – $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = k$, where $T \geq k$.

- OLS estimator: objective function:

$$\begin{aligned} S(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i^2 = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ &= \mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y} - 2\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} + \boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} \end{aligned}$$

- f.o.c: $-2\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} = 0$

Solving for $\mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$ ($k \times 1$) vector

Q: Is \mathbf{b} a minimum? Check second order condition!

OLS Estimation: Second Order Condition

$$\frac{\partial^2 S(x_i, \beta)}{\partial \mathbf{b} \partial \mathbf{b}'} = 2\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i1}^2 & \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i1}x_{i2} & \dots & \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i1}x_{iK} \\ \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i2}x_{i1} & \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i2}^2 & \dots & \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i2}x_{iK} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \sum_{i=1}^n x_{iK}x_{i1} & \sum_{i=1}^n x_{iK}x_{i2} & \dots & \sum_{i=1}^n x_{iK}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

If there were a single \mathbf{b} , we would require this to be positive, which it would be: $2 \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 > 0$.

The matrix counterpart of a positive number is a *positive definite* (pd) matrix. We need $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$ to be pd.

A square matrix ($m \times m$) \mathbf{A} “takes the sign” of the *quadratic form*, $\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z}$, where \mathbf{z} is an $m \times 1$ vector. Then, $\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z}$ is a scalar.

OLS Estimation: Second Order Condition

- A form is a polynomial expression in which each component term has a uniform degree. A quadratic form has a uniform 2nd degree.

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} 9x + 3y + 2z & \quad \text{- 1st degree form.} \\ 6x^2 + 2xy + 2y^2 & \quad \text{- 2nd degree (quadratic) form.} \\ d^2z = f_{xx} dx^2 + 2f_{xy} dx dy + f_{yy} dy^2 & \quad \text{(quadratic form)} \end{aligned}$$

A quadratic form can be written in matrix notation as $\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z}$, where \mathbf{A} is ($m \times m$) \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{z} is an $m \times 1$ vector. Then, $\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z}$ is a scalar.

The above quadratic form can be written as:

$$q = [x \ y] * \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 6x^2 + 2xy + 2y^2$$

Once we have x & y , q is a number.

OLS Estimation: Second Order Condition

- Let q be a quadratic form. We say q is:
 - Positive definite (pd) if q is invariably positive ($q > 0$)
 - Positive semi-definite (psd) if q is invariably non-negative ($q \geq 0$)
 - Negative semi-definite (nsd) if q is invariably non-positive ($q \leq 0$)
 - Negative definite (nd) if q is invariably negative ($q < 0$)

Definition: Positive definite matrix

A matrix \mathbf{A} is *positive definite* (pd) if $\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} > 0$ for *any* \mathbf{z} (a $k \times 1$ vector).

For some matrices, it is easy to check. Let $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$ (a $k \times k$ matrix).

Then, $\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{v}'\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^T v_i^2 > 0$. ($\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{z}$ is $T \times 1$)
 $\Rightarrow \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$ is pd $\Rightarrow \mathbf{b}$ is a min!

Technical note 1: In general, we need eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} to check this. If all the eigenvalues are positive, then \mathbf{A} is pd.

Technical note 2: If \mathbf{A} is pd, then \mathbf{A}^{-1} is also pd.

OLS Estimation: Second Order Condition

- Loosely speaking, a matrix is positive definite if the diagonal elements are positive and the off-diagonal elements are not too large in absolute value relative to the diagonal elements.

Remark: This is an informal way of looking at a pd matrix, but, keep in mind for later, that the **diagonal elements are positive**.

OLS Estimation – Properties of \mathbf{b}

- The OLS estimator of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ in the CLM is

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} \Rightarrow \mathbf{b} \text{ is a (linear) function of the data } (y_i, x_i).$$

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \boldsymbol{\beta} + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

Under the typical assumptions, we can establish properties for \mathbf{b} .

$$1) E[\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{X}] = E[\boldsymbol{\beta} | \mathbf{X}] + E[(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}]$$

$$= \boldsymbol{\beta} + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}' E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X}] = \boldsymbol{\beta} \quad (\mathbf{b} \text{ is unbiased})$$

$$2) \text{Var}[\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{X}] = E[(\mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\beta})(\mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\beta})' | \mathbf{X}] = E[(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} | \mathbf{X}]$$

$$= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}' E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' | \mathbf{X}] \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

$$= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}' \{\sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_T\} \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

$$= \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \quad (k \times k) \text{ matrix}$$

OLS Estimation – Properties of \mathbf{b}

3) **Gauss-Markov Theorem:** \mathbf{b} is BLUE (*Best Linear Unbiased Estimator*). No other linear & unbiased estimator has a lower variance.

4) If we also assume: (A5) $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X} \sim i.i.d. N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_T)$,

we derive the distribution of \mathbf{b} :

$$\mathbf{b} = \boldsymbol{\beta} + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow \mathbf{b} \text{ is a linear combination of normal variates}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{b} | \mathbf{X} \sim i.i.d. N(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1})$$

$$\text{SD}[\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{X}] = \text{sqrt}(\text{diagonal elements of } \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1})$$

Note: The marginal distribution of a multivariate normal is also normal, then

$$b_k | \mathbf{X} \sim N(\beta_k, v_{b,k}^2)$$

$$\text{Std Dev } [b_k | \mathbf{X}] = \text{sqrt}\{[\sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{kk}\} = v_{b,k}$$

Remark: With (A5) we can do tests of hypothesis.

OLS Estimation – Properties of \mathbf{b}

5) If (A5) is not assumed, we still can obtain a (limiting) distribution for \mathbf{b} . Under additional assumptions –mainly, the matrix $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$ does not explode as T becomes large–, as $T \rightarrow \infty$,

$$(i) \mathbf{b} \xrightarrow{p} \boldsymbol{\beta} \quad (\mathbf{b} \text{ is consistent})$$

$$(ii) \mathbf{b} \xrightarrow{a} N(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}) \quad (\mathbf{b} \text{ is asymptotically normal})$$

- Properties (1)-(4) are called *finite* (or *small*) sample properties, they hold for every sample size.

- Properties (5.i) and (5.ii) are called *asymptotic* properties, they only hold when T is large (actually, as T tends to ∞).

Property (5.ii) is very important: When the errors are not normally distributed we still can do testing about $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, but we rely on an “approximate distribution.”

OLS Estimation – Fitted Values and Residuals

- OLS estimates $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ with \mathbf{b} . Now, we define *fitted values* as:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b} \quad (\text{what we expect } \mathbf{y} \text{ to be, given observed } \mathbf{X})$$

Now we define the estimated error, \mathbf{e} :

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

\mathbf{e} represents the unexplained part of \mathbf{y} , what the regression cannot explain. They are usually called *residuals*.

Note that \mathbf{e} is uncorrelated (orthogonal) with $\mathbf{X} \quad \Rightarrow \mathbf{e} \perp \mathbf{X}$

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} \quad \Rightarrow \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$$

Using \mathbf{e} , we can define a measure of unexplained variation:

$$\text{Residual Sum of Squares (RSS)} = \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e} = \sum_i e_i^2$$

OLS Estimation – Var[b | X]

We use the variance to measure precision of estimates. For OLS:

$$\text{Var}[\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

Example: One explanatory variable model.

(A1') DGP: $\mathbf{y} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}[\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{X}] &= \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \sigma^2 \begin{bmatrix} \sum_i 1 & \sum_i 1x_i \\ \sum_i 1x_i & \sum_i x_i^2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \sigma^2 \begin{bmatrix} T & T\bar{x} \\ T\bar{x} & \sum_i x_i^2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \\ &= \sigma^2 \frac{1}{T(\sum_i x_i^2 - T\bar{x}^2)} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_i x_i^2 & -T\bar{x} \\ -T\bar{x} & T \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Var}[b_1 | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \frac{\sum_i x_i^2}{T(\sum_i x_i^2 - T\bar{x}^2)} = \sigma^2 \frac{\sum_i x_i^2 / T}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$\text{Var}[b_2 | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \frac{1}{(\sum_i x_i^2 - T\bar{x}^2)} = \sigma^2 \frac{1}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

OLS Estimation – Var[b | X]

Example (continuation):

$$\text{Var}[b_1 | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \frac{\sum_i x_i^2}{T(\sum_i x_i^2 - T\bar{x}^2)} = \sigma^2 \frac{\sum_i x_i^2 / T}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$\text{Var}[b_2 | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \frac{1}{(\sum_i x_i^2 - T\bar{x}^2)} = \sigma^2 \frac{1}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$\text{Covar}[b_1, b_2 | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \frac{-\bar{x}}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

- In general, we do not know σ^2 . It needs to be estimated. We estimate σ^2 using the residual sum of squares (RSS):

$$\text{RSS} = \sum_i e_i^2$$

The natural estimator of σ^2 is $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \text{RSS}/T$. Given the LLN, this is a consistent estimator of σ^2 . However, this not unbiased.

OLS Estimation – Var[b | X]

- The unbiased estimator of σ^2 is s^2 :

$$s^2 = \text{RSS}/(T - k) = \sum_i e_i^2 / (T - k) = \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e} / (T - k)$$

To get $E[s^2]$, we use a property of a RV with a χ_v^2 distribution:

$$E[\chi_v^2] = v$$

We know $(T - k) s^2 / \sigma^2 \sim \chi_{T-k}^2$.

$$\Rightarrow E[\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e} / \sigma^2 | \mathbf{X}] = (T - k)$$

$$\Rightarrow E[\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e} / (T - k) | \mathbf{X}] = E[s^2 | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2$$

Note: $(T - k)$ is referred as a *degrees of freedom* correction.

- Then, the estimator of $\text{Var}[\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{X}] = s^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ (a $k \times k$ matrix)

$$\Rightarrow \text{SE}[b_k | \mathbf{X}] = \text{sqrt}\{[s^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{kk}\} = s_{b,k}$$

OLS Estimation – Testing Only One Parameter

- We are interested in testing a hypothesis about one parameter in our linear model: $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$

- Set H_0 and H_1 (about only one parameter): $H_0: \beta_k = \beta_k^0$
 $H_1: \beta_k \neq \beta_k^0$

- Appropriate $T(X)$: *t-statistic*. To derive the distribution of the test under H_0 , we will rely on assumption **(A5)** $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} | \mathbf{X} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_T)$ (otherwise, results are only asymptotic).

Let $b_k = \text{OLS estimator of } \beta_k$ $\text{SE}[b_k | \mathbf{X}] = \text{sqrt}\{[s^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{kk}\} = s_{b,k}$

From assumption **(A5)**, we know that

$$b_k | \mathbf{X} \sim N(\beta_k, v_{b,k}^2) \Rightarrow \text{Under } H_0: b_k | \mathbf{X} \sim N(\beta_k^0, s_{b,k}^2).$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Under } H_0: t_k = (b_k - \beta_k^0) / s_{b,k} | \mathbf{X} \sim t_{T-k}$$

OLS Estimation – Testing Only One Parameter

- We measure distance in standard error units:

$$t_k = \frac{b_k - \beta_k^0}{s_{b,k}}$$

Note: t_k is an example of the *Wald* (normalized) *distance measure*. Most tests statistics in econometrics will use this measure.

3. Compute t_k, \hat{t} , using b_k, β_k^0, s , and $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$. Get *p-value*(\hat{t}).
4. Rule: Set an α level. If *p-value*(\hat{t}) $< \alpha \Rightarrow$ Reject $H_0: \beta_k = \beta_k^0$
Alternatively, if $|\hat{t}| > t_{T-k, 1-\alpha/2} \Rightarrow$ Reject $H_0: \beta_k = \beta_k^0$.

OLS Estimation – Testing Only One Parameter

- Special case: $H_0: \beta_k = 0$
 $H_1: \beta_k \neq 0$.

Then,

$$t_k = \frac{b_k}{\sqrt{\{s^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\}_{kk}}} = \frac{b_k}{SE[b_k]} \Rightarrow t_k \sim t_{T-k}.$$

This special case of t_k is called the ***t-value*** or *t-ratio* (also refer as the “***t-stats***”). That is, the t-value is the ratio of the estimated coefficient and its SE.

- The t-value is routinely reported in all regression packages. In the `lm()` function, it is reported in the third column of numbers.
- Usually, $\alpha = 5\%$, then if $|t_k| > 1.96 \approx 2$, we say the coefficient b_k is “*significant*.”

OLS Estimation – Testing the CAPM

Example: We test the CAPM for IBM using the time-series.

$$\text{CAPM: } E[r_{i,t} - r_f] = \beta_i E[(r_{m,t} - r_f)].$$

According to the CAPM, equilibrium expected excess returns are only determined by expected excess market returns –i.e., the CAPM is a one factor model (no constant or extra factors besides the market).

A linear data generating process (DGP) consistent with the CAPM is:

$$r_{i,t} - r_f = \alpha_i + \beta_i (r_{m,t} - r_f) + \varepsilon_{i,t}, \quad i = 1, \dots, N \ \& \ t = 1, \dots, T$$

Thus, we test the CAPM by testing H_0 (CAPM holds): $\alpha_{i=IBM} = 0$

H_1 (CAPM rejected): $\alpha_{i=IBM} \neq 0$

```
SFX_da <-
read.csv("http://www.bauer.uh.edu/rsusmel/4397/Stocks_FX_1973.csv",head=TRUE,sep=",")
x_ibm <- SFX_da$IBM           # Extract IBM price data
x_Mkt_RF <- SFX_da$Mkt_RF     # Extract Market excess returns (in %)
```

OLS Estimation – Testing the CAPM

Example (continuation):

```
x_RF <- SFX_da$RF           # Extract risk free rate (in %)
T <- length(x_ibm)         # Sample size
lr_ibm <- log(x_ibm[-1]/x_ibm[-T]) # Log returns for IBM (lost one observation)
Mkt_RF <- x_Mkt_RF[-1]/100 # Adjust size (take one observation out)
RF <- x_RF[-1]/100
ibm_x <- lr_ibm - RF       # Define excess returns for IBM
fit_ibm_capm <- lm(ibm_x ~ Mkt_RF) # OLS estimation with lm package in R
> summary(fit_ibm_capm)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-0.005791	0.002487	-2.329	0.0202 *
xMkt_RF	0.895774	0.053867	16.629	<2e-16 ***

Signif. codes:	0 '***'	0.001 '**'	0.01 '*'	0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Q: Is intercept ($\alpha_{i=IBM}$) equal to 0? Check t-value: $t_{\alpha_i} = \frac{\alpha_{i=IBM}}{SE[\alpha_{i=IBM}]}$

OLS Estimation – Testing the CAPM

Example (continuation):

We use the t-value: $\hat{t}_\alpha = \frac{\alpha_{i=IBM}}{SE[\alpha_{i=IBM}]} = \frac{-0.005791}{0.002487} = -2.329$

$\Rightarrow |\hat{t}_\alpha| > 1.96 \quad \Rightarrow \text{Reject } H_0 \text{ (CAPM) at 5\% level}$

Conclusion: The CAPM is rejected for IBM at the 5% level.

Note: You can also reject H_0 by looking at the *p-value* of intercept.

Interpretation: Given that the intercept is significant (& negative), IBM underperformed relative to what the CAPM expected:

- $r_{IBM,t} - r_f$: $\text{mean}(\text{ibm_x}) = -0.00073141$

- $r_{IBM,t} - r_f$ (CAPM): $\beta_i * \text{mean}(\text{Mkt_RF}) = 0.895774 * 0.0056489$
 $= 0.0050601$

- Ex-post difference: $-0.00073141 - 0.0050601 = -0.00579151 (\approx \alpha_{IBM})$

OLS Estimation – Testing the CAPM: Remark

- We tested (& rejected) the CAPM for one asset only, IBM. But, the CAPM should apply to all assets. Suppose we have N assets. Then, a test for the CAPM involves testing N α_i 's:

$$H_0: \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_N = 0$$

$$H_0: \text{at least one } \alpha_i \neq 0.$$

- This test is a joint test. It requires a simultaneous estimation of N CAPM equations. Usually, since returns are estimated with a lot of noise, portfolios are used. Also, the estimation usually takes into account the possible change over time of beta coefficients.

- There are different ways to approach this simultaneous estimation, a common approach is a two-step estimation, popularly known as Fama-MacBeth (1973).

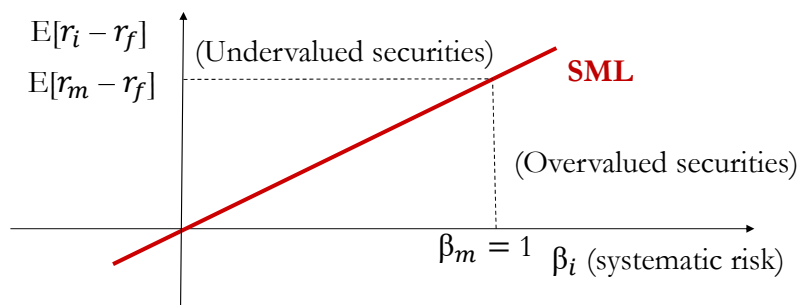
OLS Estimation – Testing the CAPM (CS)

The CAPM also tells a cross-section story for asset returns: Assets with higher β_i should get, on average, higher compensation.

CAPM (cross-section):
$$E[r_i - r_f] = \beta_i \lambda$$

where λ , in equilibrium, is the market excess return (or factor return).

If we have β_i 's for N assets, we can estimate the *security market line* (SML), where we show the effect of β_i on $E[r_i - r_f]$.



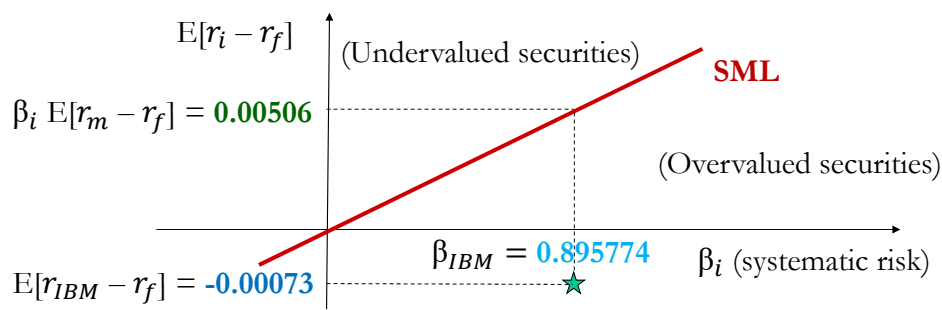
OLS Estimation – Testing the CAPM (CS)

Example (continuation):

IBM underperformed relative to what the CAPM expected by

$$\alpha_{i=IBM} = -0.005791$$

Then, according to the CAPM, IBM has been overvalued. The average, negative, performance (-0.00073) is the performance of a much safer asset, with a small, negative β !



OLS Estimation – Testing the CAPM (CS)

Q: Which assets pay a higher return? The SML answers this question: Assets with the higher exposure to market risk –i.e., higher β_i .

A linear DGP consistent with the CAPM is:

$$(r_i - r_f) = \alpha + \beta_i \lambda + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, N$$

Testing implication of the SML for the cross-section of stock returns:

$$H_0 \text{ (CAPM holds in the CS): } \alpha = 0 \text{ \& } \lambda = E[r_{m,t} - r_f] > 0$$

$$H_1 \text{ (CAPM rejected in the CS): } \alpha \neq 0 \text{ and/or } \lambda \neq E[r_{m,t} - r_f] > 0$$

Note: Fama and French (1992, 1993) estimated variations of the DGP with more factors. They found that β was weakly significant or not significant (“*Beta is dead*”) in explaining the C-S of stock returns. The debate about β & what (& how many) factors to include continues.