# A Simple Derivation of the Linearization of the Regression Estimator

## KEES ZEELENBERG1

#### **ABSTRACT**

We show how the use of matrix calculus can simplify the derivation of the linearization of the regression coefficient estimator and the regression estimator.

KEY WORDS: Matrix calculus; Regression estimator; Taylor expansion.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Design-based sampling variances of non-linear statistics are often calculated by means of a linear approximation obtained by a Taylor expansion; examples are the variances of the general regression coefficient estimator and the regression estimator. The linearizations usually need some complicated differentiations. The purpose of this paper is to show how matrix calculus can simplify these derivations, to the extent that even the Taylor expansion of the regression coefficient estimator can be derived in one line, which should be compared with the nearly one page that Särndal et al. (1992, p. 205-206) need. To be honest, the use of matrix calculus requires some more machinery to be set up, which is not needed for traditional methods. However this set-up can be regarded as an investment; once it has been learned, it can be used fruitfully in many other applications. After this paper had been written, Binder (1996) appeared, in which similar techniques are used to derive variances by means of linearization. The present paper can be seen as a pedagogical note, in which the use of differentials is exposed.

## 2. MATRIX DIFFERENTIALS

### 2.1 Introduction

We will use the matrix calculus by means of differentials, as set out by Magnus and Neudecker (1988); this calculus differs somewhat from the usual methods, which focus on derivatives instead of differentials. Therefore in this section we will briefly describe the definitions and properties of differentials (see Zeelenberg 1993, for a more extensive survey). We first define differentials for vector functions, and then generalize to matrix functions.

#### 2.2 Vector Functions

Let f be a function from an open set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ; let  $x_0$  be a point in S. The function f is differentiable at  $x_0$  if there

exists a real  $n \times m$ -matrix A, depending on  $x_0$ , such that for any  $u \in \mathbb{R}^m$  for which  $x_0 + u \in S$ , there holds

$$f(x_0 + u) = f(x_0) + A_{x_0} u + o(u), \tag{1}$$

where o(u) is a function such that  $\lim_{|u|=0} |o(u)|/|u| = 0$ ; the matrix A is called the *first derivative* of f at  $x_0$ ; it is denoted as  $Df(x_0)$  or  $\partial f/\partial(x')|_{x=x_0}$ . The derivative Df is equal to the matrix of partial derivatives, i.e.,  $Df(x)_{ij} = \partial f_i/\partial x_j$ . The linear function  $df_{x_0}: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  defined by  $df_{x_0}: u \mapsto A_{x_0}u$  is called the differential of f at  $x_0$ . Usually we write dx instead of u so that  $df_{x_0}(dx) = A_{x_0}dx$ . From (1) we see that the differential corresponds to the linear part of the function, which can also be written as

$$y - y_0 = A_{x_0}(x - x_0),$$

where  $y_0 = f(x_0)$ . Therefore the differential of a function is the linearization of the function: it is the equation of the hyperplane through the origin that is parallel to the hyperplane tangent to the graph of f at  $x_0$ ; so the linearized function can be written as

$$f(x) \doteq f(x_0) + A_{x_0}(x - x_0).$$
 (2)

Alternatively, if B is a matrix such that  $df_{x_0}(dx) = Bdx$ , then B is the derivative of f at  $x_0$  and contains the partial derivatives of f at  $x_0$ . This one-to-one relationship between differentials and derivatives is very useful, since differentials are easy to manipulate.

Finally, we usually omit the subscript 0 in  $x_0$ , so that we write  $df = A_x dx$ .

#### 2.3 Matrix Functions

A matrix function F from an open set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  to  $\mathbb{R}^{p \times q}$  is differentiable if vec F is differentiable. The derivative DF is the derivative of vec F with respect to vec X, and is also denoted by  $\partial$  vec  $F/\partial$ (vec X)'. The differential dF is the matrix function defined by vec  $dF_{X_n}(U) = A_{X_n}$  vec U.

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## 2.4 Properties of Differentials

Let A be a matrix of constants, F and G differentiable matrix functions, and  $\alpha$  a real scalar. Then the following properties are easily proved:

$$dA = 0, (3)$$

$$d(\alpha F) = \alpha dF, \tag{4}$$

$$d(F+G) = dF + dG, (5)$$

$$d(FG) = (dF)G + F(dG), \tag{6}$$

$$dF^{-1} = -F^{-1}(dF)F^{-1}. (7)$$

The last property can be proved by taking the differential of  $FF^{-1} = I$  and rearranging.

## 3. LINEARIZATION OF THE REGRESSION COEFFICIENT ESTIMATOR

The  $\pi$ -estimator (Horvitz-Thompson estimator) of the finite population regression coefficient (*cf.* Särndal *et al.* 1992, section 5.10) is

$$\hat{B} = \hat{T}^{-1}\hat{t}. \tag{8}$$

where

$$\hat{T} = \sum_{k \in s} \frac{x_k x_k'}{\pi_k},$$

$$\hat{t} = \sum_{k \in s} \frac{x_k y_k}{\pi_k},$$

 $y_k$  is the variable of interest for individual k,  $x_k$  is the vector with the auxiliary variables for individual k,  $\pi_k$  is the inclusion probability for individual k, and s denotes the sample.

Taking the total differential of (8), using properties (6) and (7), and evaluating at the point where  $\hat{T} = T$ ,  $\hat{t} = t$ , we get

$$d\hat{B} = -T^{-1}(d\hat{T})T^{-1}t + T^{-1}(d\hat{t}). \tag{9}$$

Because of the connection between differentials and linear approximation, as given in equation (2), it immediately follows that (9) corresponds to the linearization of the regression coefficient estimator:

$$\hat{B} \doteq B - T^{-1}(\hat{T} - T)T^{-1}t + T^{-1}(\hat{t} - t) = B + T^{-1}(\hat{t} - \hat{T}B),$$

where  $B = T^{-1}t$ .

## 4. LINEARIZATION OF THE REGRESSION ESTIMATOR

The regression estimator of a population total is (cf. Särndal et al. 1992, section 6.6)

$$\hat{t}_{yr} = \hat{t}_{y\pi} + (t_x - \hat{t}_{x\pi})' \hat{B}, \tag{10}$$

where  $\hat{t}_{y\pi}$  is the  $\pi$ -estimator of the variable of interest,  $t_x$  is the vector with the population totals of the auxiliary variables,  $\hat{t}_{x\pi}$  is the vector with the  $\pi$ -estimators of the auxiliary variables, and  $\hat{B}$  is the estimator of the regression coefficient of the auxiliary variables on the variable of interest. Taking the total differential of (10), using properties (3) and (6), and evaluating at the point where  $\hat{t}_{y\pi} = t_y$ ,  $\hat{t}_{x\pi} = t_x$ , and  $\hat{B} = B$ , we get the linear approximation of the regression estimator

$$d\hat{t}_{yr} = d\hat{t}_{y\pi} - (d\hat{t}_{x\pi})'B,$$

so that

$$\hat{t}_{yr} = t_y + \hat{t}_{y\pi} - t_y + (t_x - \hat{t}_{x\pi})'B = \hat{t}_{y\pi} + (t_x - \hat{t}_{x\pi})'B.$$

Note that for the linearization of the regression estimator we do not need that of the regression coefficient estimator B.

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