

# Changing residuals by reweighting one or more observations

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## Summary

M-Estimation usually uses iteratively reweighted Least Squares Estimation (LSE). At each stage, the weights of some of the observations are reduced with respect to the absolute values of the related residuals from LSE. Thus, it is expected that the absolute values of these residuals increase. Is this really always the case? Further, what happens if we increase the new weights of some of the observations? In this paper, we have investigated how absolute values of residuals of one or more observations from LSE change after changing the weights of the corresponding observations. We have proved that weight reduction only causes an increase in the absolute values of the LSE residuals with a certain probability. However, reducing the weights of some of the randomly chosen observations may create the opportunity to detect small outliers.

## Zusammenfassung

*In der M-Schätzung wird im Allgemeinen die Methode der kleinsten Quadrate mit iterativer Neugewichtung benutzt. Dabei werden die neuen Gewichte einiger Beobachtungen entsprechend der absoluten Werte ihrer Verbesserungen in jedem Schritt verkleinert. Es wird erwartet, dass die absoluten Werte dieser Verbesserungen sich dabei vergrößern. Dabei stellt sich die Frage, ob das immer der Fall ist. Was geschieht, falls die Gewichte einiger Beobachtungen sich vergrößern? Wir untersuchen in diesem Beitrag, wie die absoluten Werte der Verbesserungen bei einer Beobachtung oder bei mehreren Beobachtungen variieren, nachdem ihre Gewichte geändert wurden. Schließlich weisen wir nach, dass die absoluten Werte der Verbesserungen sich nicht immer vergrößern, wenn ihre Gewichte verkleinert werden. Die Verkleinerung der Gewichte bei einigen zufällig ausgewählten Beobachtungen sollte die Möglichkeit geben, kleine Ausreißer zu entdecken.*

## 1 Introduction

Robust methods, such as M-Estimations, Generalised M-Estimations, Least Median of Squares,  $L_1$ -Norm, etc., have been extensively used in geodesy in the last few decades (Kampmann 1989, Xu 1989, Caspary and Haen 1990, Carasio 1995, Koch 1996, etc.). Our concentration is here on M-Estimations. It is known that normal equations from M-Estimations are non-linear. Iteratively reweighted least squares method is usually used to solve the normal equations (Huber 1981, Hampel et al. 1986, Staudte and Sheather 1990, Dollinger and Staudte 1991). The new weights of some of the observations are obtained with respect to the absolute values of residuals

from the preceding iteration. Huber (1981) calls them modified weights. The greater the absolute value of the residual of an observation from the preceding iteration, the smaller its new weight. At the final stage, bad observations (outliers) may receive small or even zero weights (Hoaglin et al. 1983).

It is also known that the partial redundancy  $r_i$  changes if the weight  $p_i$  of an observation is changed (Hekimoğlu 1998). For instance, if the weight  $p_i$  of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  observation  $o_i$  goes to zero, the related partial redundancy  $r_i$  goes to 1 (Chatterjee and Hadi 1988, p. 19), and the related residual  $v_i$  from LSE becomes large. Thus, the outlier can easily be identified by a robust method. Consequently, the relation between the weight of an observation and its residual from LSE is very important when using M-Estimation. Usually, it is expected that the absolute values of the residuals of some of the observations from LSE will be increased when decreasing the weights of these observations. Is this always the case? However, usually we do not exactly know how the residuals of some observations from LSE change when their weights are changed. In this paper, we try to answer this question in general.

In addition, identifying outliers by using M-Estimation becomes very difficult when the observations include multiple outliers with small magnitudes (Hekimoğlu and Koch 1999). To detect outliers with small magnitudes by robust methods reliably, the absolute values of the corresponding residuals must be increased. For this purpose, it is important to know how the residuals of some of the observations from LSE are increased when decreasing the weights of corresponding observations.

## 2 Changing the weight of one observation

A linear model, called Gauss-Markov model, is given by Koch (1999):

$$\bar{\mathbf{o}} + \bar{\mathbf{v}} = \bar{\mathbf{A}} \mathbf{x} \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{C}_{\bar{\mathbf{o}}} = \sigma^2 \bar{\mathbf{P}}^{-1}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$  is the  $n \times u$  design matrix with rank  $u$ ,  $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$  the  $n \times 1$  vector of observations and  $\bar{\mathbf{v}}$  the error vector.  $\mathbf{x}$  is the  $u \times 1$  vector of unknowns,  $\mathbf{C}_{\bar{\mathbf{o}}}$  the  $n \times n$  a priori covariance matrix of the observations,  $\bar{\mathbf{P}}$  the  $n \times n$  diagonal weight matrix of the observations,  $\sigma^2$  the a priori variance factor,  $n$  the number of observations, and  $u$  the number of unknowns ( $u < n$ ). Suppose that the random errors are independent and normally distributed.

By transformation of the observation equations  $\bar{\mathbf{o}} + \bar{\mathbf{v}} = \bar{\mathbf{A}} \mathbf{x}$  into  $\mathbf{F}^T(\bar{\mathbf{o}} + \bar{\mathbf{v}}) = \mathbf{F}^T \bar{\mathbf{A}} \mathbf{x}$ ,

$$\mathbf{o} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{C}_0 = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} \quad (2)$$

is obtained, where

$$\mathbf{F} = \text{diag} \left( \sqrt{p_1}, \sqrt{p_2}, \dots, \sqrt{p_n} \right). \quad (3)$$

This transformation is called homogenization in LSE.

First, a linear model given by (1) is homogenized as in (2) and a simple model is obtained. Let the matrix  $\mathbf{H}$  be the hat matrix of  $n$  observations  $\{\mathbf{H}$  is defined further in (8) $\}$ . It is the transformation matrix that, when applied to  $\mathbf{o}$ , produces  $(\hat{\mathbf{o}} = \mathbf{o} + \mathbf{v})$ , i. e.,  $\hat{\mathbf{o}} = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{o}$  (Chatterjee and Hadi 1988, p.9). Then, only the weights of  $m$  randomly chosen observations are changed by adding the different amounts of  $\Delta p$  where  $(m \leq (n-1))$ . In this case, let  $\mathbf{P}^c$ ,  $\mathbf{H}^c$ ,  $\mathbf{v}^c$  be the new weight matrix, the new hat matrix and the vector of residuals respectively.

After changing the weights of  $m$  observations, the new weight matrix  $\mathbf{P}^c$  can be written as follows:

$$\mathbf{P}^c = \mathbf{P} + \mathbf{P}_1 = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \quad (4)$$

with

$$p_i^c = p_i + p_{1i} = 1 + p_{1i}; \quad i \in (1, 2, 3, \dots, n). \quad (5)$$

For example, let us change the weights of the third, the sixth, and the  $i^{\text{th}}$  observation. In this case, the matrix reads

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = \text{diag}(0, 0, \Delta p_3, 0, 0, \Delta p_6, 0, 0, \dots, \Delta p_i, \dots, 0, 0), \quad (6)$$

where

$$(\mathbf{P}_1)_{33} = \Delta p_3, (\mathbf{P}_1)_{66} = \Delta p_6, \dots, (\mathbf{P}_1)_{ii} = \Delta p_i. \quad (7)$$

The hat matrices are given by

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P} \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \quad \text{and} \quad (8)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H}^c &= \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P}^c \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P}^c \\ &= \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P}^c \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P} + \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P}^c \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P}_1. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

As a result, we obtain

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P}^c \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{A}. \quad (10)$$

To derive a relation between  $\mathbf{H}^c$  and  $\mathbf{H}$ , Gauss's matrix identity is used:

$$(\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{C})^{-1} = \mathbf{D}^{-1} - \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{G}^T (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{C} \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{G}^T)^{-1} \mathbf{C} \mathbf{D}^{-1}, \quad (11)$$

where the dimension of the symmetrical and regular matrix  $\mathbf{D}$  is  $u \times u$ , and the dimension of  $\mathbf{G}$  and  $\mathbf{C}$  is  $q \times u$ , with the same ranks of  $q$  (Staudte and Sheather 1990). If the identity (11) is applied on (10) by considering the equations

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}, \quad \mathbf{G}^T = \mathbf{A}^T, \quad \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{A}, \quad (12)$$

the following equation is obtained:

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{P}^c \mathbf{A})^{-1} &= (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \\ &\quad - (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \{ \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \}^{-1} \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

A relation between  $\mathbf{H}^c$  and  $\mathbf{H}$  can be organized by substituting (13) into (9):

$$\mathbf{H}^c = \mathbf{H} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}_1 - \mathbf{H} (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}^c. \quad (14)$$

After changing the weights of  $m$  randomly chosen observations by adding the different amounts of  $\Delta p$ , the new residual vector  $\mathbf{v}^c$  is obtained considering (14):

$$\mathbf{v}^c = (\mathbf{H}^c - \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{o} = \mathbf{v} + \Delta \mathbf{v}, \quad (15)$$

where

$$\Delta \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{H} \{ \mathbf{P}_1 - (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}^c \} \mathbf{o} \quad (16)$$

and

$$\mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{H} - \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{o}. \quad (17)$$

*Theorem 1:* If the weight  $(p_i)$  of an observation  $(o_i)$  is changed with an amount of  $\Delta p$ , the absolute values of all the new residuals from LSE are modified. If  $\Delta p < 0$ , the absolute value of the corresponding residual  $v_i^c$  always becomes larger  $(|v_i^c| > |v_i|)$ , and if  $\Delta p > 0$ , it always becomes smaller  $(|v_i^c| < |v_i|)$ .

*Proof of theorem 1:* If only the weight  $p_i$  of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  observation is changed by adding the amount of  $\Delta p$ , i. e.,  $p_i^c = p_i + \Delta p = 1 + \Delta p$ , the residual  $v_i$  changes to  $v_i^c = v_i + \Delta v_i$ . Thus,  $\Delta v_i$  is obtained from (16). Considering the following property of the matrix  $\mathbf{P}_1$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{P}_1)_{ii} &= \Delta p, \\ (\mathbf{P}_1)_{ij} &= 0, \quad j \neq i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n, \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

we can write

$$\text{Row}_i(\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^c) = [\Delta p h_{i1}, \Delta p h_{i2}, \dots, \Delta p h_{ii}(1 + \Delta p), \dots, \Delta p h_{in}], \quad (19a)$$

$$(\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^c)_{kj} = 0, \quad k \neq i, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (19b)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & \{ \text{Row}_i \{ (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{H})^{-1} \} \\ & = \left[ \frac{-\Delta p h_{i1}}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}}, \frac{-\Delta p h_{i2}}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}}, \dots, \frac{1}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}}, \dots, \frac{-\Delta p h_{in}}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}} \right]; \end{aligned} \quad (20a)$$

$$\{ (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{H})^{-1} \}_{kj} = 0, \quad k \neq i \text{ and } k \neq j, \quad (20b)$$

$$\{ (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{H})^{-1} \}_{kj} = 1, \quad k \neq i \text{ and } k = j. \quad (20c)$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Row}_i \{ \mathbf{P}_1 - (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}^c \} \\ & = \left[ \frac{-\Delta p h_{i1}}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}}, \frac{-\Delta p h_{i2}}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}}, \dots, \Delta p - \frac{\Delta p h_{ii}(1 + \Delta p)}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}}, \dots, \frac{-\Delta p h_{in}}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (21a)$$

and

$$\{ \mathbf{P}_1 - (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}^c \}_{kj} = 0, \quad k \neq i. \quad (21b)$$

If we substitute the equation (21a) and (21b) in (16),  $\Delta v_i$  and  $v_i^c$  can be found as:

$$\Delta v_i = \frac{-\Delta p h_{ii}}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}} v_i \quad (22)$$

and

$$v_i^c = \frac{v_i}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}}. \quad (23)$$

If  $\Delta p < 0$ , then the sign of  $\Delta v_i$  is the same as the sign of  $v_i$ . Therefore, the following inequality can be written:

$$|v_i^c| > |v_i|, \quad \text{if } -1 < \Delta p < 0, \quad (24a)$$

$$|v_i^c| < |v_i| \quad \text{if } \Delta p > 0. \quad (24b)$$

Thus, theorem 1 has been proved.

To see how the residual of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  observation changes when changing the weight of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  observation, the

following equations can be obtained from (16) similar to (22) and (23):

$$\Delta v_j = \frac{-\Delta p h_{ji}}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}} v_i \quad (25a)$$

and

$$v_j^c = v_j - \frac{\Delta p h_{ji} v_i}{1 + \Delta p h_{ii}}. \quad (25b)$$

The residual  $v_j^c$  is changed depending on the signs of  $v_i$ ,  $v_j$ ,  $h_{ji}$  and  $\Delta p$ .

### 3 Changing the weights of some of the observations

*Theorem 2:* If the weights of  $m$  randomly chosen observations  $\{i. e., 2 < m \leq (n-1)\}$  are decreased in different amounts separately (for example,  $m=3$  and  $p_i^c = p_i + \Delta p_i$ ,  $p_j^c = p_j + \Delta p_j$ ,  $p_k^c = p_k + \Delta p_k$ ), the absolute values of the new corresponding residuals from LSE become larger with certain probability, and if the weights are increased separately, they become smaller with the same certain probability. The probabilities are 87.5 % for  $m=2$ , 81.25 % for  $m=3$ , 78.125 % for  $m=4$ , etc. The greater the number  $m$ , the smaller the probability.

*Proof of theorem 2:* Let  $m=2$ , i. e., only the weights of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  and the  $j^{\text{th}}$  observations are changed by adding  $\Delta p_i$  and  $\Delta p_j$  respectively. In this case,  $\Delta v_i$  and  $\Delta v_j$  can be calculated again from (16). Taking into account

$$\begin{aligned} & (\mathbf{P}_1)_{ii} = \Delta p_i, \quad (\mathbf{P}_1)_{jj} = \Delta p_j, \\ & (\mathbf{P}_1)_{ij} = 0, \quad j \neq i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n, \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

we can write

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Row}_i(\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^c) \\ & = \Delta p_i [h_{i1}, h_{i2}, \dots, (1 + \Delta p_i)h_{ii}, \dots, (1 + \Delta p_i)h_{ij}, \dots, h_{in}], \\ & \text{Row}_j(\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^c) \\ & = \Delta p_j [h_{j1}, h_{j2}, \dots, (1 + \Delta p_j)h_{ji}, \dots, (1 + \Delta p_j)h_{jj}, \dots, h_{jn}], \end{aligned} \quad (27a)$$

$$(\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^c)_{kl} = 0, \quad k \neq i, \quad k \neq j, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad l = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (27b)$$

and

$$\text{Row}_i \{(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H})^{-1}\} = [\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_i, \dots, \omega_j, \dots, \omega_n], \quad (28a)$$

$$\text{Row}_j \{(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H})^{-1}\} = [\eta_1, \eta_2, \dots, \eta_i, \dots, \eta_j, \dots, \eta_n], \quad (28b)$$

$$\{(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H})^{-1}\}_{ki} = 0, \quad k \neq i, \quad k \neq j \quad \text{and} \quad k \neq l, \quad (28c)$$

$$\{(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H})^{-1}\}_{kl} = 1, \quad k \neq i, \quad k \neq j \quad \text{and} \quad k = l. \quad (28d)$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Row}_i \{ \mathbf{P}_1 - (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}_1^c \} \\ = [ -\Delta p_i h_{i1} \omega_1 - \Delta p_j h_{j1} \omega_1, \dots, \Delta p_i - \Delta p_i (1 + \Delta p_i) h_{ii} \omega_i \\ - \Delta p_j (1 + \Delta p_j) h_{ji} \omega_j, \dots, -\Delta p_i (1 + \Delta p_i) h_{ij} \omega_j \\ - \Delta p_j (1 + \Delta p_j) h_{jj} \omega_j, \dots, -\Delta p_i h_{in} \omega_n - \Delta p_j h_{jn} \omega_j ], \end{aligned} \quad (29a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Row}_j \{ \mathbf{P}_1 - (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}_1^c \} \\ = [ -\Delta p_i h_{i1} \eta_1 - \Delta p_j h_{j1} \eta_1, \dots, -\Delta p_i (1 + \Delta p_i) h_{ii} \eta_i \\ - \Delta p_j (1 + \Delta p_j) h_{ji} \eta_j, \dots, \Delta p_j - \Delta p_j (1 + \Delta p_j) h_{jj} \eta_j \\ - \Delta p_i (1 + \Delta p_i) h_{ij} \eta_i, \dots, -\Delta p_i h_{in} \eta_n - \Delta p_j h_{jn} \eta_j ] \end{aligned} \quad (29b)$$

$$\{ \mathbf{P}_1 - (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}_1^c \}_{ki} = 0, \quad k \neq i, \quad k \neq j \quad (29c)$$

where

$$\omega_i = \frac{1 + \Delta p_j h_{jj}}{D}, \quad \omega_j = -\frac{\Delta p_i h_{ij}}{D}, \quad (30a)$$

$$\eta_i = -\frac{\Delta p_j h_{ji}}{D}, \quad \eta_j = \frac{1 + \Delta p_i h_{ii}}{D}, \quad \text{and} \quad (30b)$$

$$D = (1 + \Delta p_i h_{ii})(1 + \Delta p_j h_{jj}) - \Delta p_i \Delta p_j h_{ij} h_{ji}. \quad (30c)$$

Substituting equations (29a, b and c), and (30a, b and c) in (16),  $\Delta v_i$  and  $\Delta v_j$  can be rewritten as

$$\Delta v_i = -\frac{\Delta p_i}{D} \{ h_{ii}(1 + \Delta p_j h_{jj}) - \Delta p_j h_{ij} h_{ji} \} v_i - \frac{\Delta p_j h_{ij}}{D} v_j \quad (31)$$

and

$$\Delta v_j = -\frac{\Delta p_j}{D} \{ h_{jj}(1 + \Delta p_i h_{ii}) - \Delta p_i h_{ji} h_{ij} \} v_j - \frac{\Delta p_i h_{ji}}{D} v_i. \quad (32)$$

In addition, any  $k^{\text{th}}$  residual can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta v_k = -\frac{\Delta p_i}{D} \{ h_{ki}(1 + \Delta p_j h_{jj}) - \Delta p_j h_{ji} h_{kj} \} v_i \\ - \frac{\Delta p_j}{D} \{ h_{kj}(1 + \Delta p_i h_{ii}) - \Delta p_i h_{ij} h_{ki} \} v_j, \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

where  $k \neq i, k \neq j, k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Considering  $h_{ii} h_{jj} - h_{ij}^2 \geq 0$  (Chatterjee and Hadi 1988, p. 19) and  $h_{ij} = h_{ji}$  ( $\mathbf{H}$  is symmetric because  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I}$ ), we can write

$$h_{ii}(1 + \Delta p_j h_{jj}) - \Delta p_j h_{ij} h_{ji} > 0 \quad (34)$$

and

$$h_{jj}(1 + \Delta p_i h_{ii}) - \Delta p_i h_{ji} h_{ij} > 0. \quad (35)$$

We now consider increasing or decreasing the absolute values of  $v_i^c$  and  $v_j^c$  altogether. First we take into consideration the increase of the absolute value of  $v_i^c$ . Taking into account (34), the absolute value of the residual  $\Delta v_i$  increases or decreases depending on the signs and the magnitudes of  $v_i, v_j, h_{ij}, \Delta p_i$ , and  $\Delta p_j$  as seen in (31). If the sign of  $\Delta p_i$  is different from the sign of  $\Delta p_j$ , the first and second terms of (31) cancel. If the signs of  $\Delta p_i$  and  $\Delta p_j$  are negative, the absolute value of the residual  $\Delta v_i$  changes depending on the signs and the magnitudes of  $v_i, v_j$ , and  $h_{ij}$ . In this case, the absolute value of  $v_i^c$  ( $v_i^c = v_i + \Delta v_i$ ) is increased mostly because often the first term in (31) is dominant. If the signs of  $\Delta p_i$  and  $\Delta p_j$  are positive, the absolute value of  $v_i^c$  decreases mostly. These considerations are also valid for increasing the absolute values of  $v_j^c$ .

Let the weights of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  and the  $j^{\text{th}}$  observations be decreased (i. e.,  $-1 < \Delta p_i < 0$  and  $-1 < \Delta p_j < 0$ ). The absolute value of the residual  $v_i^c$  increases or decreases depending on the signs and the magnitudes of  $v_i, v_j, h_{ij}$  and  $\Delta v_i$ . Both  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are elementary random events.  $\Delta v_i$  and  $\Delta v_j$  are also random events combined with  $v_i$  and  $v_j$ . To investigate the case of increasing the absolute value of  $v_i^c$ , all-possible 12 random events combined with the random events ( $v_i, v_j, h_{ij}$  and  $\Delta v_i$ ) are presented in Tab. 1. The probability of each residual being positive or negative is 0.5 assuming random errors come from a normal distribution. But, the probability of  $h_{ij}$  (being positive or negative) may be computed from the hat matrix  $\mathbf{H}$ . Let the number of the positive  $h_{ij}$  be  $a$ . Then the number of all-possible  $h_{ij}$  is  $C_n^2$ . Consequently, the number of the negative  $h_{ij}$  must be  $C_n^2 - a$ . Thus, the probability of  $h_{ij} > 0$  is  $a/C_n^2$ . For example, for a simple regression ( $n = 10, u = 2$ )  $a = 37$  and  $C_n^2 = 45$ . For a multiple regression ( $n = 13, u = 5$ )  $a = 55$  and  $C_n^2 = 78$ . From these experiments, it is accepted that the probability of  $h_{ij} > 0$  is greater than the probability of  $h_{ij} < 0$ . But, the probability of  $\Delta v_i$  (being either positive or negative) depends on the signs and the magnitudes of  $v_i, v_j$  and  $h_{ij}$ .

The 12 random events given in Tab. 1 may be divided into two groups in view of the probability of  $\Delta v_i$  being positive or negative. In the first group, there are the random events of  $\Delta v_i$  with probabilities approximately

equal to 1. They are given in the rows 1, 2, 3 and 4 in Tab. 1. In the second group, the random events of  $\Delta v_i$  with probabilities approximately equal to 0.5 are presented. They are given in Tab. 1, in the rows 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12.

Tab. 1: All-possible random events of  $|v_i^c|$

Groups	Nr	$v_i$	$v_j$	$h_{ij}$	$\Delta v_i$	Comparing $ v_i^c $ with $ v_i $
I	1	+	+	+	+	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $
	2	+	-	-	+	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $
	3	-	+	-	-	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $
	4	-	-	+	-	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $
II	5	+	+	-	+	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $
	6	+	+	-	-	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $ or $ v_i^c  <  v_i $
	7	+	-	+	+	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $
	8	+	-	+	-	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $ or $ v_i^c  <  v_i $
	9	-	+	+	+	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $ or $ v_i^c  <  v_i $
	10	-	+	+	-	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $
	11	-	-	-	+	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $ or $ v_i^c  <  v_i $
	12	-	-	-	-	$ v_i^c  >  v_i $

The probability of  $|v_i^c| > |v_i|$  can be computed from Tab. 1 as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(|v_i^c| > |v_i|) &\cong 0.5 \times 0.5 \times (a/C_n^2) \times 1 \\
 &+ 0.5 \times 0.5 \times [(C_n^2 - a)/C_n^2] \times 1 \\
 &+ 0.5 \times 0.5 \times [(C_n^2 - a)/C_n^2] \times 1 \\
 &+ 0.5 \times 0.5 \times (a/C_n^2) \times 1 \\
 &+ 0.5 \times 0.5 \times [(C_n^2 - a)/C_n^2] \times 0.5 \\
 &+ 0.5 \times 0.5 \times [(C_n^2 - a)/C_n^2] \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \\
 &+ 0.5 \times 0.5 \times (a/C_n^2) \times 0.5 \\
 &+ 0.5 \times 0.5 \times (a/C_n^2) \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \\
 &+ 0.5 \times 0.5 \times (a/C_n^2) \times 0.5 \\
 &+ 0.5 \times 0.5 \times [(C_n^2 - a)/C_n^2] \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \\
 &+ 0.5 \times 0.5 \times [(C_n^2 - a)/C_n^2] \times 0.5 \cong 0.875.
 \end{aligned}$$

Also  $P(|v_i^c| > |v_i|) \cong 0.875$ . Consequently, we can write  $P(|v_i^c| < |v_i|) = P(|v_j^c| < |v_j|) \cong 1 - 0.875 \cong 0.125$ .

All-possible random events combined with both  $v_i^c$  and  $v_j^c$  residuals can be given as:

$$\{v_i^c(+), v_j^c(+), v_i^c(+), v_j^c(-), v_i^c(-), v_j^c(+), v_i^c(-), v_j^c(-)\}$$

where »+« denotes the increase in the absolute value of the relevant residual whereas »-« indicates the decrease in the absolute value of the relevant residual. The probability of the first event is  $0.875 \times 0.875 \cong 0.766$ , the second one is  $0.875 \times 0.125 \cong 0.109$ , and finally the third one is  $0.125 \times 0.875 \cong 0.109$ . The event  $v_i^c(-), v_j^c(-)$  may arise seldom because of its very small probability, i. e.,  $0.125 \times 0.125 \cong 0.016$ .

This proof is also valid when  $\Delta p_i > 0$  and  $\Delta p_j > 0$ . It means that  $P(|v_i^c| < |v_i|) = P(|v_j^c| < |v_j|) \cong 0.875$ .

*Proof of theorem 2 for  $m=3$ :* Let only the weights of the  $i$ th, the  $j$ th and the  $k$ th observations be changed by adding  $\Delta p_i$ ,  $\Delta p_j$  and  $\Delta p_k$  (i. e.,  $p_i^c = p_i + \Delta p_i$ ,  $p_j^c = p_j + \Delta p_j$ ,  $p_k^c = p_k + \Delta p_k$ ) respectively. In this case,  $\Delta v_i$ ,  $\Delta v_j$  and  $\Delta v_k$  can be obtained again from (16) as done for  $m=2$ . As a result,  $\Delta v_i$ ,  $\Delta v_j$  and  $\Delta v_k$  can be rewritten as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta v_i &= -\frac{\Delta p_i}{D} [h_{ii} \{(1 + \Delta p_j h_{jj})(1 + \Delta p_k h_{kk}) - \Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{jk} h_{kj}\} \\
 &\quad + h_{ij} (\Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{jk} h_{ki} - \Delta p_j h_{ji} - \Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{ji} h_{kk}) \\
 &\quad + h_{ik} (\Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{ji} h_{kj} - \Delta p_k h_{ki} - \Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{ki} h_{jj})] v_i \\
 &\quad - \frac{\Delta p_j}{D} (h_{ij} + \Delta p_k h_{ij} h_{kk} - \Delta p_k h_{ik} h_{kj}) v_j \\
 &\quad - \frac{\Delta p_k}{D} (h_{ik} + \Delta p_j h_{ik} h_{jj} - \Delta p_j h_{ij} h_{jk}) v_k,
 \end{aligned} \tag{36}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta v_j &= -\frac{\Delta p_j}{D} [h_{jj} \{(1 + \Delta p_i h_{ii})(1 + \Delta p_k h_{kk}) - \Delta p_i \Delta p_k h_{ik} h_{ki}\} \\
 &\quad + h_{ji} (\Delta p_i \Delta p_k h_{ik} h_{kj} - \Delta p_i h_{ji} - \Delta p_i \Delta p_k h_{ji} h_{kk}) \\
 &\quad + h_{jk} (\Delta p_i \Delta p_k h_{ij} h_{ki} - \Delta p_k h_{kj} - \Delta p_i \Delta p_k h_{kj} h_{ii})] v_j \\
 &\quad - \frac{\Delta p_i}{D} (h_{ji} + \Delta p_k h_{ji} h_{kk} - \Delta p_k h_{jk} h_{ki}) v_i \\
 &\quad - \frac{\Delta p_k}{D} (h_{jk} + \Delta p_i h_{jk} h_{ii} - \Delta p_i h_{ji} h_{ik}) v_k,
 \end{aligned} \tag{37}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta v_k &= -\frac{\Delta p_k}{D} [h_{kk} \{(1 + \Delta p_i h_{ii})(1 + \Delta p_j h_{jj}) - \Delta p_i \Delta p_j h_{ji} h_{ij}\} \\
 &\quad + h_{kj} (\Delta p_i \Delta p_j h_{ji} h_{ik} - \Delta p_j h_{jk} - \Delta p_i \Delta p_j h_{jk} h_{ii}) \\
 &\quad + h_{ki} (\Delta p_i \Delta p_j h_{jk} h_{ij} - \Delta p_i h_{ik} - \Delta p_i \Delta p_j h_{ik} h_{jj})] v_k \\
 &\quad - \frac{\Delta p_j}{D} (h_{kj} + \Delta p_i h_{kj} h_{ii} - \Delta p_i h_{ki} h_{ij}) v_j \\
 &\quad - \frac{\Delta p_i}{D} (h_{ki} + \Delta p_j h_{ki} h_{jj} - \Delta p_j h_{kj} h_{ji}) v_i,
 \end{aligned} \tag{38}$$

where

$$D = (1 + \Delta p_i h_{ii}) \{ (1 + \Delta p_j h_{jj}) (1 + \Delta p_k h_{kk}) - \Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{jk} h_{kj} \} + \Delta p_i h_{ij} \{ \Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{jk} h_{ki} - \Delta p_j h_{ji} (1 + \Delta p_k h_{kk}) \} + \Delta p_i h_{ik} \{ \Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{ji} h_{kj} - \Delta p_k h_{ki} (1 + \Delta p_j h_{jj}) \}. \quad (39)$$

We have numerically investigated that the coefficient of  $v_i$  in (36), the coefficient of  $v_j$  in (37) and the coefficient of  $v_k$  in (38) are always positive. Now, we consider only  $\Delta v_i$ . If  $-1 < \Delta p_i < 0$ ,  $-1 < \Delta p_j < 0$  and  $-1 < \Delta p_k < 0$ ,  $\Delta v_i$  changes depending on  $v_i$ ,  $B$ ,  $v_j$ ,  $C$ , and  $v_k$  since  $\mathbf{A}$  is always positive:

$$\Delta v_i = -\frac{\Delta p_i}{D} A v_i - \frac{\Delta p_j}{D} B v_j - \frac{\Delta p_k}{D} C v_k, \quad (40)$$

where

$$A = h_{ii} \{ (1 + \Delta p_j h_{jj}) (1 + \Delta p_k h_{kk}) - \Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{jk} h_{kj} \} + h_{ij} (\Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{jk} h_{ki} - \Delta p_j h_{ji} - \Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{ji} h_{kk}) + h_{ik} (\Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{ji} h_{kj} - \Delta p_k h_{ki} - \Delta p_j \Delta p_k h_{ki} h_{jj}), \quad (41)$$

$$B = h_{ij} + \Delta p_k h_{ij} h_{kk} - \Delta p_k h_{ik} h_{kj}, \text{ and}$$

$$C = h_{ik} + \Delta p_j h_{ik} h_{jj} - \Delta p_j h_{ij} h_{jk}.$$

The probability of  $\Delta v_i$  (being either positive or negative) depends on the signs and the magnitudes of  $v_i$ ,  $v_j$ ,  $v_k$  and the related elements of the hat matrix as seen in (40) and (41). It can approximately be taken 0.5 or 1 as done for the case of  $m=2$ . Let the number of  $B < 0$  be  $a$  and  $C < 0$  be  $b$ . Also the number of all the possibilities is  $C_n^3$ , the number of positive  $B$  is  $C_n^3 - a$ , and the number of positive  $C$  is  $C_n^3 - b$ . In this case, 56 different independent random events arise. For instance,

$$\{v_i(+), B(+), v_j(+), C(+), v_k(+), \Delta v_i(+), v_i(-), B(-), v_j(-), C(-), v_k(+), \Delta v_i(-), \dots\}.$$

The probability of  $|v_i^c| > |v_i|$  can be computed with the variable  $g=C_n^3$  as follows:

$$P(|v_i^c| > |v_i|) \cong [0.5 \times (a/g) \times 0.5 \times (b/g) \times 0.5 \times 1] \times 2 + [0.5 \times \{(g-a)/g\} \times 0.5 \times (b/g) \times 0.5 \times 1] \times 2 + [0.5 \times (a/g) \times 0.5 \times \{(g-b)/g\} \times 0.5 \times 1] \times 2 + [0.5 \times \{(g-a)/g\} \times 0.5 \times \{(g-b)/g\} \times 0.5 \times 1] \times 2 + \{0.5 \times (a/g) \times 0.5 \times (b/g) \times 0.5 \times 0.5\} \times 6 + [0.5 \times (a/g) \times 0.5 \times \{(g-b)/g\} \times 0.5 \times 0.5] \times 6 + [0.5 \times \{(g-a)/g\} \times 0.5 \times (b/g) \times 0.5 \times 0.5] \times 6 + [0.5 \times \{(g-a)/g\} \times 0.5 \times \{(g-b)/g\} \times 0.5 \times 0.5] \times 6 + \{0.5 \times (a/g) \times 0.5 \times (b/g) \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.5\} \times 6$$

$$+ [0.5 \times (a/g) \times 0.5 \times \{(g-b)/g\} \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.5] \times 6 + [0.5 \times \{(g-a)/g\} \times 0.5 \times (b/g) \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.5] \times 6 + [0.5 \times \{(g-a)/g\} \times 0.5 \times \{(g-b)/g\} \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.5] \times 6 \cong 0.8125.$$

$$\text{Also } P(|v_j^c| > |v_j|) = P(|v_k^c| > |v_k|) \cong 0.8125.$$

This means that the absolute value of the residual  $v_i^c$  (or  $v_j^c$ , or  $v_k^c$ ) increases with a probability of 81.25% if the corresponding weights  $p_i^c$ ,  $p_j^c$  and  $p_k^c$  are decreased to the different amounts of  $\Delta p$ . Consequently,  $P(|v_i^c| < |v_i|) = P(|v_j^c| < |v_j|) = P(|v_k^c| < |v_k|) = 1 - 0.8125 \cong 0.1875$ .

This proof is also valid if  $\Delta p_i > 0$ ,  $\Delta p_j > 0$  and  $\Delta p_k > 0$ .

*Proof of theorem 2* for  $m=4$  has been derived, but it is not given here because it is very long. The probability of  $|v_i^c| > |v_i|$  is obtained as 78.125%. The proof of the theorem 2 for  $m=5, \dots, n-1$  has not been derived. But looking at Tab. 2, one observes a decrease in the magnitude of the probabilities with a rate of 50% as  $m$  grows higher. Assuming this is valid for all cases of  $m$ , the probabilities for  $m=5, \dots, n-1$  may be predicted in a sequential form as follows:

$$P(m=5) \cong 76.5625\%, \quad P(m=6) \cong 75.78125\%, \\ P(m=7) \cong 75.390625\%, \quad P(m=8) \cong 75.1953125\%, \text{ etc.}$$

The computed and the predicted probabilities mentioned above are called the theoretical probabilities.

Tab. 2: Theoretical probabilities of  $|v_i^c| > |v_i|$  for different number of  $m$

m	probability of $ v_i^c  >  v_i $	difference of the sequential probabilities
1	100 %	
2	87.50 %	12.50 %
3	81.25 %	6.25 %
4	78.125 %	3.125 %

To verify the theoretical probabilities, simulations have been performed. The simulations take into consideration all possible situations where a simple straight line and two multiple linear regression models (i.e.  $u=5$  and  $u=10$  respectively) are used.

One thousand sets for the observations were generated by using normally distributed random errors. This data is used to change the weights of  $m$  randomly chosen observations. First, the absolute values of the corresponding residuals are obtained from LSE. Then, the absolute values of the new residuals of  $m$  randomly chosen observations, whose weights are reduced, are obtained. The absolute values of both types of residuals

are computed 1000 times. The absolute values of both types of residuals are compared with each other. The cases where the absolute value of the residual of an observation (whose weight is reduced) is greater than the residual of the observation (the weight of which is not changed) are counted for each one of  $m$  observations. Then, the mean value is computed by dividing the counted number to  $1000 \times m$ . It is called the estimated mean probability. It changes depending on the number  $m$ , the number of observations, the number of unknowns, and the different values of  $\Delta p$ .

As a result, the estimated mean probabilities approach to the theoretical probabilities sufficiently. Mostly, the greater the number of observations and unknowns, the closer the estimated mean probabilities represent the theoretical ones.

#### 4 Conclusion

We have proved that if the weight of an observation is decreased, the absolute value of the new corresponding residual from LSE always becomes larger; and if the weight is increased, the absolute value of the residual always becomes smaller. In general, if the weights of  $m$  randomly chosen observations  $\{1 < m \leq (n-1)\}$  are decreased altogether to the randomly chosen amounts of  $\Delta p$  or to the same amount of  $\Delta p$ , the absolute values of the new corresponding residuals from LSE become larger with a particular probability. In other words, they do not increase always. If the weights of  $m$  randomly chosen observations are increased, the absolute values of the new corresponding residuals will be smaller with the same amount of probability.

In this study, we do not attempt to prove the theorems for  $m > 4$  since the proof gets too complicated. However, the probabilities are obtained up to the case of  $m = 4$ , such as 100% for  $m = 1$ , 87.5% for  $m = 2$ , 81.25% for  $m = 3$ , 78.125% for  $m = 4$ , etc. Based on our results, we make the assumption that the probabilities could be predicted for  $m > 4$  in such that they should be decreased when the number  $m$  grows higher. These assumptions have been confirmed by performing simulations. The greater the number of unknowns and observations, the closer the estimated mean probabilities to the theoretical ones.

One major outcome of this study is that »the ability of robust methods could be increased for detecting small outliers«. Robust methods alone may fail to identify some outliers having small magnitudes. However using the approach outlined here, if the randomly chosen set included a bad observation (or more), the ab-

solute value of its residual would be increased. Thus, we would expect that robust methods would have much success for detecting them.

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