# Classical linear model * 

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## 1. Model-free linear regression and ordinary least squares

### 1.1. Notations

We wish to explain or predict a variable $y$ through $k$ other $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}$. We $T$ observations on each variable:

$$
\begin{aligned}
y & =\left(\begin{array}{c}
y_{1} \\
y_{2} \\
\vdots \\
y_{T}
\end{array}\right): \text { dependent variable (to explain) } \\
x_{i} & =\left(\begin{array}{c}
x_{1 i} \\
x_{2 i} \\
\vdots \\
x_{T i}
\end{array}\right), \quad i=1, \ldots, k: \text { explanatory variables. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Usually, the explanatory variables are represented by the $T \times k$ matrix

$$
X=\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1 k} \\
x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2 k} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
x_{T 1} & x_{T 2} & \cdots & x_{T k}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{1}^{\prime} \\
X_{2}^{\prime} \\
\vdots \\
X_{T}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $X_{t}$ is a $k \times 1$ vector:

$$
X_{t}^{\prime}=\left(x_{t 1}, x_{t 2}, \ldots, x_{t k}\right), \quad t=1, \ldots, T
$$

We wish to represent each observation $y_{t}$ as a function of $x_{t 1}, \ldots, x_{t k}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{t}=x_{t 1} \beta_{1}+x_{t 2} \beta_{2}+\cdots+x_{t k} \beta_{k}+\varepsilon_{t}, \quad t=1, \ldots, T \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\varepsilon_{t}$ is a "residual" which is left unexplained by the explanatory variables. This model can also be written in the following matrix form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=X \beta+\varepsilon \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\varepsilon=\left(\varepsilon_{1}, \varepsilon_{2}, \ldots, \varepsilon_{T}\right)^{\prime}$.

### 1.2. The least squares problem

1.2.1 In general, we cannot obtain a "perfect fit" $\left(\varepsilon_{t}=0, t=1, \ldots, T\right)$. In view of this, a natural approach (proposed by Gauss) consists in minimizing the sum of squared residuals:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{t=1}^{T} \varepsilon_{t}^{2} & =\sum_{t=1}^{T}\left[y_{t}-x_{t 1} \beta_{1}-\cdots-x_{t k} \beta_{k}\right]^{2} \\
& =(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta) \equiv S(\beta) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We consider the problem:

$$
\operatorname{Min}_{\beta}(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta) .
$$

Since

$$
S(\beta)=\left(y^{\prime}-\beta^{\prime} X^{\prime}\right)(y-X \beta)=y^{\prime} y-2 \beta^{\prime} X^{\prime} y+\beta^{\prime} X^{\prime} X \beta,
$$

we have:

$$
\frac{\partial S(\beta)}{\partial \beta}=-2 X^{\prime} y+2 X^{\prime} X \beta
$$

To compute the above, we use the following result on differentiation with respect to a vector $x$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial\left(x^{\prime} a\right)}{\partial x} & =a  \tag{1.3}\\
\frac{\partial\left(x^{\prime} A x\right)}{\partial x} & =\left(A+A^{\prime}\right) x . \tag{1.4}
\end{align*}
$$

For any point $\beta=\hat{\beta}$ such that $S(\beta)$ is a minimum, we must have:

$$
\left.\frac{\partial S(\beta)}{\partial \beta}\right|_{\beta=\hat{\beta}}=-2 X^{\prime} y+2 X^{\prime} X \hat{\beta}=0
$$

hence

$$
\left(X^{\prime} X\right) \hat{\beta}=X^{\prime} y: \text { normal equations }
$$

1.2.2 When $\operatorname{rank}(X)=k$, we must have $\operatorname{rank}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)=k$ so that $\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}$ exists. In this case, the normal equations have a unique solution:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{\beta}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y . \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Once $\hat{\beta}$ is known, we can compute the "fitted values" and the "residuals" of the model.
1.2.3 The model fitted values are

$$
\hat{y}=X \hat{\beta}=X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y=P y,
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
P & =X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} \quad \text { (projection matrix) } \\
P^{\prime} & =P, P P=P \quad \text { (symmetric idempotent matrix). }
\end{aligned}
$$

1.2.4 The model residuals are:

$$
\hat{\varepsilon}=y-X \hat{\beta}=y-\hat{y}=y-P y=(I-P) y=M y
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
P X & =X, M X=0  \tag{1.6}\\
P M & =P(I-P)=0, M P=0 \tag{1.7}
\end{align*}
$$

1.2.5 Each column of $M$ is orthogonal with each column of $X$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
X^{\prime} M=0 \\
x_{i}^{\prime} M=0, \quad i=1, \ldots, k .
\end{gathered}
$$

Residuals and regressors are orthogonal:

$$
\begin{aligned}
X^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon} & =X^{\prime} M y=0 \\
& \Rightarrow x_{i}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}=0, \quad i=1, \ldots, k \\
& \Rightarrow i_{T}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}=\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\varepsilon}_{t}=0, \quad \text { if the matrix } X \text { contains a constant. }
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\hat{\varepsilon}=\left(\hat{\varepsilon}_{1}, \hat{\varepsilon}_{2}, \ldots, \hat{\varepsilon}_{T}\right)^{\prime}$ et $i_{T}=(1,1, \ldots, 1)^{\prime}$.
1.2.6 Fitted values and residuals are orthogonal:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{y}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}=y^{\prime} P M y=0 . \tag{1.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

1.2.7 The vector $y$ can be decomposed as the sum of two orthogonal vectors:

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=P y+(I-P) y=\hat{y}+\hat{\varepsilon} . \tag{1.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

1.2.8 For any vector $\beta$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
S(\beta) & \equiv(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta)=(y-X \hat{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \hat{\beta})+(\hat{\beta}-\beta)^{\prime} X^{\prime} X(\hat{\beta}-\beta) \\
& \geq(y-X \hat{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \hat{\beta})=S(\hat{\beta})
\end{aligned}
$$

for

$$
(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta)=[y-X \hat{\beta}+X(\hat{\beta}-\beta)]^{\prime}[y-X \hat{\beta}+X(\hat{\beta}-\beta)]
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =[\hat{\varepsilon}+X(\hat{\beta}-\beta)]^{\prime}[\hat{\varepsilon}+X(\hat{\beta}-\beta)] \\
& =\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}+2(\hat{\beta}-\beta)^{\prime} X^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}+(\hat{\beta}-\beta)^{\prime} X^{\prime} X(\hat{\beta}-\beta) \\
& =\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}+(\hat{\beta}-\beta)^{\prime} X^{\prime} X(\hat{\beta}-\beta) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This directly verifies that $\beta=\hat{\beta}$ minimizes $S(\beta)$.

## 2. Classical linear model

In order to establish the statistical properties of $\hat{\beta}$, we need assumptions on $X$ and $\varepsilon$. The following assumptions define the classical linear model (CLM).
2.1 Assumption $\quad y=X \beta+\varepsilon$
where $y$ is a $T \times 1$ vector of observations on a dependent variable, $X$ is a $T \times k$ matrix of observations on explanatory variables,
$\beta$ is a $k \times 1$ vector of fixed parameters,
$\varepsilon$ is a $T \times 1$ vector of random disturbances.
2.2 Assumption $\quad E(\varepsilon)=0$.
2.3 Assumption $\quad E\left[\varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}\right]=\sigma^{2} I_{T}$.
2.4 Assumption $\quad X$ is fixed (non-stochastic).
2.5 Assumption $\quad \operatorname{rank}(X)=k<T$.

From the assumption 2.1-2.4, we see that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}(y) & =\mathrm{E}(y \mid X)=X \beta=\left(\begin{array}{c}
X_{1}^{\prime} \beta \\
\vdots \\
X_{T}^{\prime} \beta
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}
\beta_{1} \\
\beta_{2} \\
\vdots \\
\beta_{k}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =x_{1} \beta_{1}+x_{2} \beta_{2}+\cdots+x_{k} \beta_{k}, \\
\mathrm{~V}(y) & =\mathrm{V}(y \mid X)=\sigma^{2} I_{T} \\
& =\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\sigma^{2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & \sigma^{2} & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma^{2}
\end{array}\right]=\mathrm{V}(\varepsilon) .
\end{aligned}
$$

If, furthermore, we add the assumption that $\varepsilon$ follows a multinormal (or Gaussian) distribution, we get the normal classical linear model (NCLM).
2.6 Assumption $\quad \varepsilon$ follows a multinormal distribution.

## 3. Linear unbiased estimation

From the assumptions 2.1-2.5, we can make the following observations.
3.1 $\hat{\beta}$ is linear with respect to $y$.

Proof $\hat{\beta}$ has the form $\hat{\beta}=A y$, where $A=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}$ is a non-stochastic matrix.
$3.2 \hat{\beta}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}(X \beta+\varepsilon)=\beta+\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} \varepsilon$.
3.3 $\hat{\beta}$ is an unbiased estimator of $\beta$.

Proof $E(\hat{\beta})=\beta+\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} E(\varepsilon)=\beta$.
$3.4 \mathrm{~V}(\hat{\beta})=\sigma^{2}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}$.
Proof

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{V}(\hat{\beta}) & =\mathrm{E}\left[(\hat{\beta}-\beta)(\hat{\beta}-\beta)^{\prime}\right] \\
& =\mathrm{E}\left[\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime} X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\right] \\
& =\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} \mathrm{E}\left(\varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}\right) X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last identity follows from Assumption 2.3.
3.5 Theorem Gauss-Markov theorem. $\hat{\beta}$ is the best estimator of $\beta$ in the class of linear linear unbiased estimators (BLUE) of $\beta$, i.e. $\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\beta})-\mathrm{V}(\hat{\beta})$ is a positive semidefinite matrix for any linear unbiased estimator (LUE) $\tilde{\beta}$ of $\beta$. In particular, if $\tilde{\beta}=C y$ and $D=C-\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}$, then

$$
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\beta})=\mathrm{V}(\hat{\beta})+\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime} .
$$

Proof Since $\tilde{\beta}$ is unbiased and

$$
C=D+\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}
$$

we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}(\tilde{\beta}) & =\mathrm{E}\left\{\left[D+\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\right](X \beta+\varepsilon)\right\} \\
& =D X \beta+\beta \\
& =\beta
\end{aligned}
$$

hence

$$
D X=0 \quad \text { and } \quad C X=I_{k} .
$$

Consequently,

$$
\tilde{\beta}=C y=C X \beta+C \varepsilon=\beta+C \varepsilon
$$

and

$$
\tilde{\beta}-\beta=C \varepsilon
$$

hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\beta}) & =\mathrm{E}\left[(\tilde{\beta}-\beta)(\tilde{\beta}-\beta)^{\prime}\right]=\mathrm{E}\left[C \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right]=\sigma^{2} C C^{\prime} \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left[D+\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\right]\left[D^{\prime}+X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left[D D^{\prime}+\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\right]=\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}+\sigma^{2}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} \\
& =\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}+\mathrm{V}(\hat{\beta})
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\beta})-\mathrm{V}(\hat{\beta})=\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a positive semidefinite matrix.
3.6 Corollary Let $w$ be a $k \times 1$ vector of constants. Then,

$$
\mathrm{V}\left(w^{\prime} \tilde{\beta}\right) \geq \mathrm{V}\left(w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}\right)
$$

for any linear unbiased estimator $\tilde{\beta}$ of $\beta$.
Proof Since $E(\tilde{\beta})=E(\hat{\beta})=\beta$, we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\left(w^{\prime} \tilde{\beta}\right) & =\mathrm{E}\left(w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}\right)=w^{\prime} \beta \\
\mathrm{V}\left(w^{\prime} \tilde{\beta}\right) & =w^{\prime} \mathrm{V}(\tilde{\beta}) w=w^{\prime}\left[\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}+\mathrm{V}(\hat{\beta})\right] w \\
& =\sigma^{2} w^{\prime} D D^{\prime} w+w^{\prime} \mathrm{V}(\hat{\beta}) w
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
=\sigma^{2} w^{\prime} D D^{\prime} w+\mathrm{V}\left(w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}\right) \geq \mathrm{V}\left(w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}\right)
$$

for $w^{\prime} D D^{\prime} w \geq 0$.

In particular, we must have:

$$
\mathrm{V}\left(\tilde{\beta}_{i}\right) \geq \mathrm{V}\left(\hat{\beta}_{i}\right), \quad i=1, \ldots k
$$

3.7 Theorem Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem. Let $L$ be a $r \times k$ fixed matrix and $\gamma=L \beta$. Then $\hat{\gamma}=L \hat{\beta}$ is the BLUE $\gamma$, i.e. $\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma})-\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})$ is a positive semidefinite matrix for any linear unbiased estimator $\tilde{\gamma}$ of $\gamma$. In particular, if $\tilde{\gamma}=C y$ and $D=C-L\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}$, then

$$
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma})=\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})+\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}
$$

and

$$
\mathrm{C}(\tilde{\gamma}-\hat{\gamma}, \hat{\gamma})=0 .
$$

Proof Since $\tilde{\gamma}$ is unbiased and

$$
C=D+L\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}
$$

we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}(\tilde{\gamma}) & =\mathrm{E}\left\{\left(D+L\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\right](X \beta+\varepsilon)\right\} \\
& =D X \beta+L \beta=D X \beta+\gamma \\
& =\gamma,
\end{aligned}
$$

hence

$$
D X=0 \quad \text { and } \quad C X=L .
$$

Consequently,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tilde{\gamma} & =C y=C X \beta+C \varepsilon \\
& =L \beta+C \varepsilon=\gamma+C \varepsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma}) & =\mathrm{E}\left[(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime}\right]=\mathrm{E}\left[C \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right]=\sigma^{2} C C^{\prime} \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left[D+L\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\right]\left[D^{\prime}+X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} L^{\prime}\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left[D D^{\prime}+L\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} L^{\prime}\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}+\sigma^{2} L\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} L^{\prime}=\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}+\mathrm{V}(L \hat{\beta}) \\
& =\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}+\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma}),
\end{aligned}
$$

So

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma})-\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})=\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a positive semidefinite matrix, and

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathrm{C}(\tilde{\gamma}, \hat{\gamma})=\mathrm{E}\left[C \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime} X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} L^{\prime}\right] \\
&=\sigma^{2} C X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} L^{\prime}=\sigma^{2} L\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} L^{\prime}=\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma}) \\
& \mathrm{C}(\tilde{\gamma}-\hat{\gamma}, \hat{\gamma})=\mathrm{C}(\tilde{\gamma}, \hat{\gamma})-\mathrm{C}(\hat{\gamma}, \hat{\gamma})=\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})-\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})=0 \tag{3.3}
\end{align*}
$$

3.8 Corollary Quadratic Gauss-Markov optimality. Let $Q$ be a $r \times r$ positive semidefinite fixed matrix and $L$ a $r \times k$ fixed matrix, $\gamma=L \beta$ and $\hat{\gamma}=L \hat{\beta}$. Then

$$
\mathrm{E}\left[(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime} Q(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)\right] \geq \mathrm{E}\left[(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime} Q(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)\right]
$$

for any linear unbiased estimator $\tilde{\gamma}$ of $\gamma$.
Proof Let $\tilde{\gamma}=C \gamma$ and $D=C-L\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\left[(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime} Q(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)\right] & =\mathrm{E}\left[\operatorname{tr} Q(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime}\right] \\
& =\operatorname{tr} Q \mathrm{E}\left[(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime}\right] \\
& =\operatorname{tr} Q\left[\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}+\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(Q D D^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{tr}[Q \mathrm{~V}(\hat{\gamma})] \\
& =\sigma^{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(D^{\prime} Q D\right)+\operatorname{tr} Q \mathrm{E}\left[(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime}\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(D^{\prime} Q D\right)+\mathrm{E}\left[\operatorname{tr}(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime} Q(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(D^{\prime} Q D\right)+\mathrm{E}\left[(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime} Q(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)\right] \\
& \geq \mathrm{E}\left[(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime} Q(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

since $Q$ is p.s.d. $\Rightarrow D^{\prime} Q D$ is p.s.d. $\Rightarrow \operatorname{tr} D^{\prime} Q D \geq 0$.
3.9 Corollary For any LUE of $\tilde{\gamma}$ of $\gamma=L \beta$,

$$
\operatorname{tr} \mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma}) \geq \operatorname{tr} \mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})
$$

Proof

$$
\operatorname{trV}(\tilde{\gamma})=\operatorname{tr} \mathrm{E}\left[(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime}\right]=\mathrm{E}\left[\operatorname{tr}(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime}\right]
$$

$$
=\mathrm{E}\left[(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime}(\tilde{\gamma}-\gamma)\right] \geq \mathrm{E}\left[(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)^{\prime}(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)\right]=\operatorname{tr} V(\hat{\gamma})
$$

by Corollary 3.8 with $Q=I$.
3.10 Lemma Properties of matrix dominance. If $A=B+C$ where $B$ is a p.d. matrix and $C$ is a p.s.d. matrix, then
(a) $A$ is p.d.,
(b) $|B| \leq|A|$,
(c) $B^{-1}-A^{-1}$ is p.s.d.
3.11 Corollary Let $L$ be an $r \times k$ fixed matrix, $\gamma=L \beta$ and $\hat{\gamma}=L \hat{\beta}$. Then

$$
|\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma})| \geq|\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})|
$$

for any $L U E \tilde{\gamma}$ of $\gamma$.
Proof Since $\hat{\gamma}$ is the BLUE of $\gamma$ (by the generalized Gauss-Markov theorem), we have:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma})=\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})+C \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $C$ is p.s.d. If $|\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})|=0$, then $|\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})| \leq|\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma})|$, for car $|\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma})| \geq 0$. If $|\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})|>0$, then $\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})$ is p.d. This entails that $\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma})$ is also p.d. and $|\mathrm{V}(\hat{\gamma})| \leq|\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\gamma})|$.
$3.12 \hat{y}=X \beta+P \varepsilon, \hat{\varepsilon}=M y=M \varepsilon$.
PROOF

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{y} & =P y=P[X \beta+\varepsilon]=X \beta+P \varepsilon, \quad \text { car } P X=X \\
\hat{\varepsilon} & =M y=M[X \beta+\varepsilon]=M \varepsilon, \quad \text { car } M X=0
\end{aligned}
$$

$3.13 E(\hat{y})=X \beta, E(\hat{\varepsilon})=0$.
PRoof

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{E}(\hat{\gamma})=\mathrm{E}[X \beta+P \varepsilon]=X \beta+P \mathrm{E}(\varepsilon)=X \beta \\
& \mathrm{E}(\hat{\varepsilon})=\mathrm{E}(y-\hat{y})=X \beta-X \beta=0
\end{aligned}
$$

3.14 $\vee(\hat{y})=\sigma^{2} P, \vee(\hat{\varepsilon})=\sigma^{2} M$.

Proof

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{V}(\hat{y})=\mathrm{V}(X \hat{\beta})=X \mathrm{~V}(\hat{\beta}) X^{\prime}=\sigma^{2} X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}=\sigma^{2} P, \\
& \mathrm{~V}(\hat{\varepsilon})=\mathrm{V}(M y)=M \mathrm{~V}(y) M^{\prime}=\sigma^{2} M .
\end{aligned}
$$

3.15 $\hat{y}$ is the best linear unbiased estimator of $X \beta$.

Proof This follows directly on taking $L=X$ in the generalized Gauss-Markov theorem.
$3.16 \hat{\varepsilon}$ is the best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE) of $\varepsilon$, in the sense that $E(\hat{\varepsilon}-\varepsilon)=0$ and

$$
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\varepsilon}-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})-\mathrm{V}(\hat{\varepsilon}-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \text { is a p.s.d. matrix }
$$

for for LUE $\tilde{\varepsilon}$ of $\varepsilon$.
Proof Since $\tilde{\varepsilon}$ is a LUE of $\varepsilon$, we must have:

$$
\tilde{\varepsilon}=A y \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{E}(\tilde{\varepsilon}-\varepsilon)=0
$$

Consequently,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}(\tilde{\varepsilon}) & =\mathrm{E}(A y) \\
& =\mathrm{E}[A(X \beta+\varepsilon)]=A X \beta=0, \forall \beta
\end{aligned}
$$

which entails that

$$
\begin{gathered}
A X=0 \\
\tilde{\varepsilon}=A(X \beta+\varepsilon)=A \varepsilon .
\end{gathered}
$$

Let

$$
B=A-M \quad \text { where } \quad M=I-X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} .
$$

Then

$$
A X=[B+M] X=B X=0, \quad \text { since } \quad M X=0,
$$

hence

$$
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\varepsilon}-\varepsilon)=\mathrm{V}[A \varepsilon-\varepsilon]
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\mathrm{V}[(B+M) \varepsilon-\varepsilon]=\mathrm{V}[(B+M-I) \varepsilon] \\
& =\mathrm{E}\left[(B+M-I) \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}+M-I\right)\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left[B-X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\right]\left[B^{\prime}-X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left[B B^{\prime}+X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{V}(\hat{\varepsilon}-\varepsilon) & =\mathrm{E}\left[(M-I) \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}(M-I)\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2}(I-M)=\sigma^{2} X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime},
\end{aligned}
$$

so that

$$
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\varepsilon}-\varepsilon)=\sigma^{2} B B^{\prime}+\mathrm{V}(\hat{\varepsilon}-\varepsilon) .
$$

Thus

$$
\mathrm{V}(\tilde{\varepsilon}-\varepsilon)-\mathrm{V}(\hat{\varepsilon}-\varepsilon)=\sigma^{2} B B^{\prime}
$$

a p.s.d. matrix.
$3.17 C(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\varepsilon})=C(\hat{\beta}, y-X \hat{\beta})=0$.
Proof

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{C}(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\varepsilon}) & =\mathrm{E}\left[(\hat{\beta}-\beta) \hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime}\right]=\mathrm{E}\left[\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime} M\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} M=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$3.18 C(\hat{y}, \hat{\varepsilon})=0$.
Proof

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{C}(\hat{y}, \hat{\varepsilon}) & =\mathrm{E}\left[(X \hat{\beta}-X \beta) \hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime}\right] \\
& =X \mathrm{E}\left[(\hat{\beta}-\beta) \hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime}\right]=X \mathrm{C}(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\varepsilon})=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

3.19 Estimation of $\sigma^{2}$. Since $\sigma^{2}=E\left(\varepsilon_{t}^{2}\right), t=1, \ldots, T$, it is natural to consider the residuals of the regression which can be viewed as estimations of the error terms $\varepsilon_{t}$ :

$$
\hat{\varepsilon}=y-X \hat{\beta}=M y=M(X \beta+\varepsilon)=M \varepsilon,
$$

$$
\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\varepsilon}_{t}^{2}=\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}=\varepsilon^{\prime} M^{\prime} M \varepsilon=\varepsilon^{\prime} M \varepsilon
$$

hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\left[\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}\right] & =\mathrm{E}\left[\varepsilon^{\prime} M \varepsilon\right]=\mathrm{E}\left[\operatorname{tr}\left(\varepsilon^{\prime} M \varepsilon\right)\right] \\
& =\mathrm{E}\left[\operatorname{tr}\left(M \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}\right)\right]=\operatorname{tr}\left[M \mathrm{E}\left(\varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}\right)\right] \\
& =\sigma^{2} \operatorname{tr} M
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{tr} M & =\operatorname{tr}\left[I_{T}-X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\right]=\operatorname{tr} I_{T}-\operatorname{tr}\left[X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\right] \\
& =\operatorname{tr} I_{T}-\operatorname{tr}\left[X^{\prime} X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\right]=\operatorname{tr} I_{T}-\operatorname{tr} I_{k} \\
& =T-k .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\left(\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}\right) & =\sigma^{2}(T-k) \\
\mathrm{E}\left[\frac{\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}}{T-k}\right] & =\sigma^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

3.20 The statistic

$$
s^{2}=\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon} /(T-k)=y^{\prime} M y /(T-k)
$$

is an unbiased estimator of $\sigma^{2}$, and $s^{2}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}$ is an unbiased estimator of $\vee(\hat{\beta})=\sigma^{2}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\left(s^{2}\right) & =\sigma^{2} \\
\mathrm{E}\left[s^{2}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\right] & =\sigma^{2}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 4. Prediction

In the previous section, we studied how one can estimate $\beta$ in the linear regression model. Suppose now we know the matrix $X_{0}$ of explanatory variables for $m$ additional periods (or observations). We wish to predict the corresponding values of $y$ :

$$
y_{0}=X_{0} \beta+\varepsilon_{0}
$$

where

$$
\mathrm{E}\left(\varepsilon_{0}\right)=0, \mathrm{~V}\left(\varepsilon_{0}\right)=\sigma^{2} I_{m}, \mathrm{E}\left(\varepsilon \varepsilon_{0}^{\prime}\right)=0
$$

The natural "predictor" in this case is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{y}_{0}=X_{0} \hat{\beta}=X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y . \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can then show the following properties.
4.1 $\hat{y}_{0}$ is an unbiased estimator of $X_{0} \beta$ :

$$
\mathrm{E}\left(\hat{y}_{0}\right)=X_{0} \beta=\mathrm{E}\left(y_{0}\right), \quad \mathrm{E}\left(\hat{y}_{0}-y_{0}\right)=0
$$

4.2 $\vee\left(\hat{y}_{0}\right)=\mathrm{V}\left(X_{0} \hat{\beta}\right)=X_{0} \vee(\hat{\beta}) X_{0}^{\prime}=\sigma^{2} X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X_{0}^{\prime}$.
4.3 $\mathrm{C}\left(y_{0}, \hat{y}_{0}\right)=0$.

PROOF

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{C}\left(y_{0}, \hat{y}_{0}\right) & =\mathrm{E}\left[\left(y_{0}-X_{0} \beta\right)\left(X_{0} \hat{\beta}-X_{0} \beta\right)^{\prime}\right] \\
& =\mathrm{E}\left[\varepsilon_{0}(\hat{\beta}-\beta)^{\prime} X_{0}^{\prime}\right]=\mathrm{E}\left[\varepsilon_{0} \varepsilon^{\prime} X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X_{0}^{\prime}\right]=0
\end{aligned}
$$

4.4 $\hat{y}_{0}$ is best linear unbiased estimator of $X_{0} \beta$, in the sense that $\mathrm{V}\left(\tilde{y}_{0}\right)-\mathrm{V}\left(\hat{y}_{0}\right)$ is a p.s.d. matrix for any linear unbiased estimator $\tilde{y}_{0}$ of $X_{0} \beta$. In particular, if $\tilde{y}_{0}=C y$ and $D=C-X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}$, then

$$
\mathrm{V}\left(\tilde{y}_{0}\right)=\mathrm{V}\left(\hat{y}_{0}\right)+\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}
$$

PROOF This follows directly from the generalized Gauss-Markov theorem.

The "prediction errors" are given by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{e}_{0} & =y_{0}-\hat{y}_{0}=y_{0}-X_{0} \hat{\beta} \\
& =X_{0} \beta+\varepsilon_{0}-X_{0} \hat{\beta}=\varepsilon_{0}+X_{0}(\beta-\hat{\beta})
\end{aligned}
$$

4.5 $\hat{y}_{0}$ is a linear unbiased predictor (LUP) of $y_{0}$ :

$$
\mathrm{E}\left[\hat{e}_{0}\right]=0
$$

PROOF $\hat{y}_{0}=X_{0} \hat{\beta}$ and

$$
\mathrm{E}\left[\hat{e}_{0}\right]=\mathrm{E}\left[y_{0}-\hat{y}_{0}\right]=X_{0} \beta-X_{0} \beta=0
$$

4.6 $\vee\left(\hat{e}_{0}\right)=\sigma^{2}\left[I_{m}+X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X_{0}^{\prime}\right]$.

Proof

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{V}\left(y_{0}-\hat{y}_{0}\right) & =\mathrm{V}\left(y_{0}\right)+\mathrm{V}\left(\hat{y}_{0}\right)-\mathrm{C}\left(y_{0}, \hat{y}_{0}\right)-\mathrm{C}\left(\hat{y}_{0}, y_{0}\right) \\
& =\sigma^{2} I_{m}+\sigma^{2} X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X_{0}^{\prime} \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left[I_{m}+X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X_{0}^{\prime}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

4.7 Theorem $\hat{y}_{0}$ is the best linear unbiased predictor (BLUP) of $y_{0}$, in the sense that $\bigvee\left(y_{0}-\tilde{y}_{0}\right)$ -$\mathrm{V}\left(y_{0}-\hat{y}_{0}\right)$ is a p.s.d. matrix for any LUP $\tilde{y}_{0}$ of $y_{0}$. In particular, if $\tilde{y}_{0}=C y$ and $D=C-$ $X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}$, then

$$
\mathrm{V}\left(y_{0}-\tilde{y}_{0}\right)=\mathrm{V}\left(y_{0}-\hat{y}_{0}\right)+\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime} .
$$

Proof

$$
\mathrm{V}\left(y_{0}-\tilde{y}_{0}\right)=\mathrm{V}\left(y_{0}\right)+\mathrm{V}\left(\tilde{y}_{0}\right)-\mathrm{C}\left(y_{0}, \tilde{y}_{0}\right)-\mathrm{C}\left(\tilde{y}_{0}, y_{0}\right)
$$

where

$$
\mathrm{C}\left(y_{0}, \tilde{y}_{0}\right)=\mathrm{E}\left[\varepsilon_{0} \varepsilon^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right]=0
$$

for, by the generalized Gauss-Markov theorem,

$$
\mathrm{E}\left[\tilde{y}_{0}\right]=X_{0} \beta \Rightarrow C X=X_{0} \Rightarrow \tilde{y}_{0}=C(X \beta+\varepsilon)=X_{0} \beta+C \varepsilon .
$$

Further, $\mathrm{V}\left(\tilde{y}_{0}\right)=\mathrm{V}\left(\hat{y}_{0}\right)+\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}$ and $\mathrm{V}\left(y_{0}\right)=\sigma^{2} I_{m}$. Consequently,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{V}\left(y_{0}-\tilde{y}_{0}\right) & =\sigma^{2} I_{m}+\mathrm{V}\left(\hat{y}_{0}\right)+\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime} \\
& =\left[\sigma^{2} I_{m}+\sigma^{2} X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X_{0}^{\prime}\right]+\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime} \\
& =\mathrm{V}\left(y_{0}-\hat{y}_{0}\right)+\sigma^{2} D D^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 5. Estimation with Gaussian errors

If we wish to build confidence intervals and perform hypothesis tests, we need a more complete specification of the error distribution. The standard hypothesis for this is to assume that the errors follow a Gaussian distribution.
5.1 Assumption $\quad \varepsilon \sim N_{T}\left[0, \sigma^{2} I_{T}\right]$.

This means that the errors $\varepsilon_{t}$ are i.i.d. $N\left[0, \sigma^{2}\right]$. We can now completely establish the distribution of the least squares estimator.
$5.2 y \sim N\left[X \beta, \sigma^{2} I_{T}\right]$, since $y=X \beta+\varepsilon$.
$5.3 \hat{\beta} \sim N\left[\beta, \sigma^{2}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\right]$, since $\hat{\beta}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y$.
The probability density function of $y$ is given by:

$$
L\left(y ; X \beta, \sigma^{2} I_{T}\right)=\frac{1}{\left(2 \pi \sigma^{2}\right)^{T / 2}} \exp \left\{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta)}{\sigma^{2}}\right\} .
$$

$5.4 \hat{\beta}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y$ and $\hat{\sigma}^{2}=\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon} / T$ are the maximum likelihood estimators of $\beta$ and $\sigma^{2}$ respectively.

Proof To maximize $L$ is equivalent to maximizing $\ln (L)$. Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
\ln (L) & =-\frac{T}{2} \ln (2 \pi)-\frac{T}{2} \ln \left(\sigma^{2}\right)-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}}(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta) \\
& =-\frac{T}{2} \ln (2 \pi)-\frac{T}{2} \ln \left(\sigma^{2}\right)-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}}\left[y^{\prime} y-2 y^{\prime} X \beta+\beta^{\prime} X^{\prime} X \beta\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

the first-order conditions (which are necessary) for a maximum is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial(\ln (L))}{\partial \beta}=-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}}\left[-2 X^{\prime} y+2\left(X^{\prime} X\right) \beta\right]=0 \\
& \frac{\partial(\ln (L))}{\partial \sigma^{2}}=-\frac{T}{2} \frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}+\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{4}}(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(X^{\prime} X\right) \hat{\beta} & =X^{\prime} y, \hat{\beta}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y \\
\hat{\sigma}^{2} & =(y-X \hat{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \hat{\beta}) / T .
\end{aligned}
$$

Further the second-order derivative of $\ln (L)$ is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial(\ln (L))}{\partial \beta^{\prime} \partial \beta}=-\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}\left(X^{\prime} X\right) \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is negative semidefinite as required for a maximum.
$5.5 \hat{y}=X \hat{\beta} \sim N_{T}\left[X \beta, \sigma^{2} P\right]$.
$5.6 \hat{\varepsilon}=M \varepsilon \sim N_{T}\left[0, \sigma^{2} M\right]$.
$5.7 \hat{\varepsilon}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ are independent, because $\hat{\varepsilon}$ et $\hat{\beta}$ are multinormal and $C(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\varepsilon})=0$.
$5.8 \hat{\varepsilon}$ and $\hat{y}$ are independent, because $\hat{\varepsilon}$ and $\hat{y}$ are multinormal and $C(\hat{y}, \hat{\varepsilon})=0$.
5.9 Lemma Distribution of an idempotent quadratic form in i.i.d. Gaussian variABLES. Let $Q$ be a $T \times T$ symmetric idempotent matrix of rank $q \leq T$. If $\varepsilon \sim N_{T}\left[0, \sigma^{2} I_{T}\right]$, then

$$
\varepsilon^{\prime} Q \varepsilon / \sigma^{2} \sim \chi^{2}(q)
$$

Proof Since $Q$ is a symmetric idempotent matrix, there is a $T \times T$ orthogonal matrix $C$, i.e. $C C^{\prime}=C^{\prime} C=I_{T}$, such that

$$
C Q C^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I_{q} & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

hence

$$
\varepsilon^{\prime} Q \varepsilon=\varepsilon^{\prime} C^{\prime} C Q C^{\prime} C \varepsilon=(C \varepsilon)^{\prime}\left(C Q C^{\prime}\right)(C \varepsilon)
$$

Further,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon & \sim N\left[0, \sigma^{2} I_{T}\right] \Rightarrow C \varepsilon \sim N\left[0, \sigma^{2} C I_{T} C^{\prime}\right] \\
& \Rightarrow C \varepsilon \sim N\left[0, \sigma^{2} I_{T}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $v=C \varepsilon=\left(v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{T}\right)^{\prime}$. Then

$$
v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{T} \text { are i.i.d. } N\left[0, \sigma^{2}\right]
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon^{\prime} Q \varepsilon & =v^{\prime}\left(C Q C^{\prime}\right) v \\
& =\left(v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{T}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I_{q} & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left[\begin{array}{c}
v_{1} \\
v_{2} \\
\vdots \\
v_{T}
\end{array}\right] \\
& =v_{1}^{2}+v_{2}^{2}+\cdots+v_{q}^{2}+0 \cdot v_{q+1}^{2} \cdots+0 \cdot v_{T}^{2} \\
& =\sum_{t=1}^{q} v_{t}^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This entails

$$
\frac{\varepsilon^{\prime} Q \varepsilon}{\sigma^{2}}=\sum_{t=1}^{q}\left(\frac{v_{t}}{\sigma}\right)^{2}
$$

$$
\text { where } \frac{v_{t}}{\sigma} \stackrel{i n d}{\sim} N[0,1], \quad t=1, \ldots, T,
$$

and

$$
\varepsilon^{\prime} Q \varepsilon / \sigma^{2} \sim \chi^{2}(q) .
$$

5.10

$$
\frac{S(\hat{\beta})}{\sigma^{2}}=\frac{\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}}{\sigma^{2}} \sim \chi^{2}(T-k) .
$$

Proof This follows directly on applying Lemma 5.9 with $Q=M$ and the fact that $\operatorname{tr}(M)=T-$ k.
5.11 Let $R$ be a $q \times k$ fixed matrix. Then,

$$
\begin{equation*}
R \hat{\beta} \sim N_{q}\left[R \beta, \sigma^{2} R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right] . \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Further $R \hat{\beta}$ and $s^{2}$ are independent.
Proof $\hat{\beta} \sim N\left[\beta, \sigma^{2}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\right]$ entails $R \hat{\beta} \sim N\left[R \beta, \sigma^{2} R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]$. Since $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\varepsilon}$ are independent, $R \hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon}$ are also independent, so that $R \hat{\beta}$ and $s^{2}=\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon} /(T-k)$ are independent.
5.12 Let $R$ be a $q \times k$ fixed matrix of $\operatorname{rank} q, r=R \beta$ and

$$
S(R, \hat{\beta})=[R \hat{\beta}-r]^{\prime}\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}[R \hat{\beta}-r] .
$$

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
S(R, \hat{\beta}) / \sigma^{2} \sim \chi^{2}(q) \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Further, $S(R, \hat{\beta})$ and $s^{2}$ are independent.
Proof

$$
R \hat{\beta}-r=R(\hat{\beta}-\beta)
$$

and

$$
R(\hat{\beta}-\beta) \sim N_{q}\left[0, \sigma^{2} R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right] .
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
S(R, \hat{\beta}) / \sigma^{2} & =[R(\hat{\beta}-\beta)]^{\prime}\left[\sigma^{2} R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}[R(\hat{\beta}-\beta)] \\
& \sim \chi^{2}(q)
\end{aligned}
$$

## 6. Confidence and prediction intervals

### 6.1. Confidence interval for the error variance

In the normal classical linear model, we have:

$$
\hat{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \hat{\varepsilon} / \sigma^{2}=(T-k) s^{2} / \sigma^{2} \sim \chi^{2}(T-k) .
$$

Thus, we can find $a$ and $b$ such that

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{P}\left[\chi^{2}(T-k)>b\right]=\frac{\alpha}{2}, \\
\mathrm{P}\left[\chi^{2}(T-k)<a\right]=\frac{\alpha}{2} \\
\mathrm{P}\left[a \leq \chi^{2}(T-k) \leq b\right]=1-\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}+\frac{\alpha}{2}\right)=1-\alpha,
\end{gathered}
$$

which entails that

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{P}\left[a \leq \frac{(T-k) s^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} \leq b\right]=1-\alpha \\
\mathrm{P}\left[\frac{1}{b} \leq \frac{\sigma^{2}}{(T-k) s^{2}} \leq \frac{1}{a}\right]=1-\alpha \\
\mathrm{P}\left[\frac{(T-k) s^{2}}{b} \leq \sigma^{2} \leq \frac{(T-k) s^{2}}{a}\right]=1-\alpha .
\end{gathered}
$$

It is important to note this is not the smallest confidence interval for $\sigma^{2}$.

### 6.2. Confidence interval for a linear combination of regression coefficients

Consider now the linear combination $w^{\prime} \beta$. Then

$$
w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}-w^{\prime} \beta \sim N\left[0, \sigma^{2} w^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} w\right]
$$

hence

$$
\frac{w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}-w^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma \Delta} \sim N[0,1]
$$

where $\Delta=\sqrt{w^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} w}$. Since $\sigma$ is unknown, consider:

$$
\begin{aligned}
t & =\frac{w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}-w^{\prime} \beta}{s \Delta} \\
& =\frac{w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}-w^{\prime} \beta}{\Delta \sigma \sqrt{\frac{s^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}}}=\frac{w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}-w^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma \Delta} / \sqrt{\frac{(T-k) s^{2}}{\sigma^{2}(T-k)}} \\
& =Y / \sqrt{\frac{X}{T-k}}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $X$ and $Y$ are independent, $Y \sim N[0,1]$ and $X \sim \chi^{2}(T-k)$. Thus, $t$ follows a Student $t$ distribution with $T-k$ degrees of freedom:

$$
t \sim t(T-k)
$$

hence

$$
\mathrm{P}\left[-t_{\alpha / 2} \leq t(T-k) \leq t_{\alpha / 2}\right]=1-\alpha
$$

where $\mathrm{P}\left[t(T-k)>t_{\alpha / 2}\right]=\alpha / 2$ and

$$
\mathrm{P}\left[w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}-t_{\alpha / 2} s \Delta \leq w^{\prime} \beta \leq w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}+t_{\alpha / 2} s \Delta\right]=1-\alpha .
$$

### 6.3. Confidence region for a regression coefficient vector

We now wish to build a confidence region for a vector $R \beta$ of linear combinations of the elements of $\beta$, where $R: q \times k$ and has rank $q$. Then

$$
S(R, \hat{\beta}) / \sigma^{2}=(R \hat{\beta}-R \beta)^{\prime}\left(R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}(R \hat{\beta}-R \beta) / \sigma^{2} \sim \chi^{2}(q) .
$$

Since $\sigma$ is unknown, let us consider:

$$
F=S(R, \hat{\beta}) / q s^{2}=\frac{S(R, \hat{\beta}) / q \sigma^{2}}{(T-k) s^{2} / \sigma^{2}(T-k)}=\frac{X_{1} / q}{X_{2} /(T-k)}
$$

where $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are independent,

$$
\begin{gathered}
X_{1}=S(R, \hat{\beta}) / \sigma^{2} \sim \chi^{2}(q), \\
X_{2}=(T-k) s^{2} / \sigma^{2} \sim \chi^{2}(T-k) .
\end{gathered}
$$

Thus $F$ follows a Fisher distribution with $(q, T-k)$ degrees of freedom:

$$
F \sim F(q, T-k) .
$$

If we define $F_{\alpha}$ by

$$
\mathrm{P}\left[F(q, T-k)>F_{\alpha}\right]=\alpha,
$$

the set of all vectors $R \beta$ such that $F \leq F_{\alpha}$ :

$$
(R \hat{\beta}-R \beta)^{\prime}\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}(R \hat{\beta}-R \beta) / q s^{2} \leq F_{\alpha}
$$

is a confidence region with level $1-\alpha$ for $R \beta$. This set is a an ellipsoid (confidence ellipsoid).

### 6.4. Prediction intervals

$$
y_{0}=x_{0}^{\prime} \beta+\varepsilon_{0}
$$

where

$$
\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon_{0}}\right) \sim N\left[0, \sigma^{2} I_{T+1}\right]
$$

Further

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{y}_{0} & =x_{0}^{\prime} \hat{\beta}, \quad \hat{\beta}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y \\
\hat{y}_{0}-y_{0} & =x_{0}^{\prime}(\hat{\beta}-\beta)-\varepsilon_{0} \sim N\left\{0, \sigma^{2}\left[1+x_{0}^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} x_{0}\right]\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

hence

$$
\frac{\hat{y}_{0}-y_{0}}{\sigma \Delta_{1}} \sim N[0,1]
$$

where $\Delta_{1}=\left[1+x_{0}^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} x_{0}\right]^{1 / 2}$, and

$$
\frac{\hat{y}_{0}-y_{0}}{s \Delta_{1}} \sim t(T-k)
$$

where $t_{\alpha / 2}$ satisfies

$$
\mathrm{P}\left[\hat{y}_{0}-t_{\alpha / 2} s \Delta_{1} \leq y_{0} \leq \hat{y}_{0}+t_{\alpha / 2} s \Delta_{1}\right]=1-\alpha
$$

### 6.5. Confidence regions for several predictions

We now consider the problem of predicting a vector of observations $y_{0}$ generated according to the same model independently of $y$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
y_{0}=X_{0} \beta+\varepsilon_{0} \\
\binom{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon_{0}} \sim N\left[0, \sigma^{2} I_{T+m}\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

where $X_{0}$ is known but $y_{0}$ is not observed. For predicting $y_{0}$, let us define:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{y}_{0}=X_{0} \hat{\beta} \\
& \hat{e}_{0}=y_{0}-\hat{y}_{0}=\varepsilon_{0}-X_{0}(\hat{\beta}-\beta),
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\left(\hat{e}_{0}\right) & =0, \\
\mathrm{~V}\left(\hat{e}_{0}\right) & =\sigma^{2}\left[I_{m}+X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X_{0}^{\prime}\right]=\sigma^{2} D_{0}, \\
\hat{e}_{0} & \sim N\left[0, \sigma^{2}\left[I_{m}+X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X_{0}^{\prime}\right]\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Consequently,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{e}_{0}^{\prime} \mathrm{V}\left(\hat{e}_{0}\right)^{-1} \hat{e}_{0} & \sim \chi^{2}(m) \\
\hat{e}_{0}^{\prime} D_{0}^{-1} \hat{e}_{0} / \sigma^{2} & \sim \chi^{2}(m)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\sigma^{2}$ is unknown, we replace it by $s^{2}$ :

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

Further, since $s^{2}$ is independent of $y_{0}$ and $\hat{y}_{0}=X \hat{\beta}, s^{2}$ is independent of $\hat{e}_{0}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F=\frac{\hat{e}_{0}^{\prime} D_{0}^{-1} \hat{e}_{0}}{m s^{2}}=\frac{\hat{e}_{0}^{\prime} D_{0}^{-1} \hat{e}_{0} / \sigma^{2} m}{(T-k) s^{2} / \sigma^{2}(T-k)} \sim F(m, T-k), \\
& F=\left(y_{0}-\hat{y}_{0}\right)^{\prime}\left[I_{m}+X_{0}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X_{0}^{\prime}\right]^{-1}\left(y_{0}-\hat{y}_{0}\right) / m s^{2} \sim F(m, T-k) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then the set of vectors $y_{0}$ such that

$$
F \leq F_{\alpha}(m, T-k)
$$

is a confidence region for $y_{0}$ with level $1-\alpha$.

## 7. Hypothesis tests

7.0.1 Let us now consider the problem of testing an hypothesis of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{0}: w^{\prime} \beta=w_{0} \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $w$ be a $k \times 1$ vector of constants. To test $H_{0}$, it is natural to consider the difference:

$$
w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}-w_{0}=w^{\prime}(\hat{\beta}-\beta) \sim N\left[0, \sigma^{2} w^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} w\right] .
$$

Under the assumptions of the Gaussian classical linear model, we then have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}-w_{0}}{\sigma \Delta} & \sim N[0,1], \Delta=\left[w^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} w\right]^{1 / 2} \\
t & =\frac{w^{\prime} \hat{\beta}-w_{0}}{s \Delta} \sim t(T-k)
\end{aligned}
$$

This suggests the following tests of $H_{0}$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { reject } H_{0} \text { at level } \alpha \text { against } w^{\prime} \beta-w_{0} \neq 0 \text { when }|t| \geq t_{\alpha / 2} \quad \text { (two-sided test) }  \tag{7.2}\\
& \text { reject } H_{0} \text { at level } \alpha \text { against } w^{\prime} \beta-w_{0}>0 \text { when } t \geq t_{\alpha} \quad \text { (one-sided test) }  \tag{7.3}\\
& \text { reject } H_{0} \text { at level } \alpha \text { against } w^{\prime} \beta-w_{0}<0 \text { when } t \leq-t_{\alpha} \quad \text { (one-sided test). } \tag{7.4}
\end{align*}
$$

An important special case of the above problem consists in testing the value of any given component of $\beta$ :

$$
H_{0}\left(\beta_{i o}\right): \beta_{i}=\beta_{i o}
$$

where $\beta_{i}$ is an element of $\beta$.
Let us now consider the more general hypothesis which consists in testing the value of a general vector linear transformation of $\beta$ :

$$
H_{0}: R \beta=r=\left[\begin{array}{c}
w_{1}^{\prime}  \tag{7.5}\\
w_{2}^{\prime} \\
\vdots \\
w_{q}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right] \beta=\left[\begin{array}{c}
w_{1}^{\prime} \beta \\
w_{2}^{\prime} \beta \\
\vdots \\
w_{q}^{\prime} \beta
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $R$ is a $q \times k$ fixed matrix with full row $\operatorname{rank}[\operatorname{rank}(R)=q]$.
7.0.2 Wald-type test. A natural approach then consists in estimating $R \beta$ by $R \hat{\beta}$, and then to examine the difference $R \hat{\beta}-r$. Under $H_{0}$,

$$
R \hat{\beta} \sim N\left[r, \Sigma_{R}\right], \quad \text { where } \quad \Sigma_{R}=\sigma^{2} R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}
$$

We need a concept of distance between $R \hat{\beta}$ and $r$. By (5.3),

$$
W=(R \hat{\beta}-r)^{\prime} \Sigma_{R}^{-1}(R \hat{\beta}-r) \sim \chi^{2}(q) \quad \text { under } H_{0} .
$$

We tend to reject $H_{0}$ when $W$ is too large ( $W \geq c$. However, $\sigma^{2}$ and $\Sigma_{R}$ are unknown. It is then natural tom replace $\sigma^{2}$ by the estimate $s^{2}$, and $\Sigma_{R}$ by

$$
\hat{\Sigma}_{R}=s^{2} R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}
$$

This yields a Wald-type criterion:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{W} & =(R \hat{\beta}-r)^{\prime} \hat{\Sigma}_{R}^{-1}(R \hat{\beta}-r) \\
& =(R \hat{\beta}-r)^{\prime}\left[s^{2} R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}(R \hat{\beta}-r) \\
& =(R \hat{\beta}-r)^{\prime}\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}(R \hat{\beta}-r) / s^{2} \\
& =S(R, \hat{\beta}) / s^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since

$$
F=\hat{W} / q=S(R, \hat{\beta}) / q s^{2} \sim F(q, T-k),
$$

we reject $H_{0}$ at level $\alpha$ when

$$
\begin{equation*}
F>F_{\alpha}(q, T-k) \tag{7.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

7.0.3 Likelihood ratio test. Another approach to testing $H_{0}$ consists in looking for a likelihood ratio test. This test is based on focusing on the likelihood function:

$$
\begin{equation*}
L\left(y ; X \beta, \sigma^{2} I_{T}\right)=\frac{1}{\left(2 \pi \sigma^{2}\right)^{T / 2}} \exp \left\{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta)}{\sigma^{2}}\right\} . \tag{7.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(\hat{\Omega})=\max _{\beta, \sigma^{2}} L=\max _{\left(\beta, \sigma^{2}\right) \in \Omega} L \tag{7.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

i.e. we find values of $\beta$ and $\sigma^{2}$ which maximize "the probability of the observed sample", and

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}})=\max _{\substack{\beta, \sigma^{2} \\ R \beta=r}} L=\max _{\left(\beta, \sigma^{2}\right) \in \omega} L \tag{7.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

i.e. we find values of $\beta$ and $\sigma^{2}$ which maximize "the probability of the observed sample" and satisfy $H_{0}$, where

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Omega=\left\{\left(\beta, \sigma^{2}\right):-\infty<\beta_{i}<+\infty, i=1, \ldots, k, 0<\sigma^{2}<+\infty\right\}, \\
\omega=\left\{\left(\beta, \sigma^{2}\right) \in \Omega: R \beta=r\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

We see easily that

$$
0 \leq L(\hat{\omega}) \leq L(\hat{\Omega})
$$

hence

$$
\begin{gathered}
0 \leq \frac{L(\hat{\omega})}{L(\hat{\Omega})} \leq 1 \\
\frac{L(\hat{\Omega})}{L(\hat{\omega})} \geq 1
\end{gathered}
$$

We reject $H_{0}$ when

$$
L R(y) \equiv \frac{L(\hat{\Omega})}{L(\hat{\omega})} \geq \lambda_{\alpha}
$$

where $\lambda_{\alpha}$ depends on the level of the test:

$$
\mathrm{P}\left[L R(y) \geq \lambda_{\alpha}\right]=\alpha
$$

7.0.4 $L(\hat{\Omega})$ is achieved when $\beta=\hat{\beta}$ and $\sigma^{2}=\hat{\sigma}^{2}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
L(\hat{\Omega}) & =\frac{1}{\left(2 \pi \hat{\sigma}^{2}\right)^{T / 2}} \exp \left\{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(y-X \hat{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \hat{\beta})}{\hat{\sigma}^{2}}\right\}=\frac{1}{\left(2 \pi \hat{\sigma}^{2}\right)^{T / 2}} \exp \left\{-\frac{T}{2}\right\} \\
& =\frac{e^{-T / 2}}{\left[2 \pi \hat{\sigma}^{2}\right]^{T / 2}}=\frac{T^{T / 2} e^{-T / 2}}{(2 \pi)^{T / 2}\left[(y-X \hat{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \hat{\beta})\right]^{T / 2}} \\
& =\frac{T^{T / 2} e^{-T / 2}}{(2 \pi)^{T / 2} S_{\Omega}^{T / 2}},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $S_{\Omega}=(y-X \hat{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \hat{\beta})$.
7.0.5 To find $L(\hat{\omega})$, it is equivalent to maximize

$$
\ln (L)=-\frac{T}{2} \ln (2 \pi)-\frac{T}{2} \ln \left(\sigma^{2}\right)-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}}(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta)
$$

under the constraint $R \beta=r$.Consider $\sigma^{2}$ as given. It is then sufficient to solve the problem:

$$
\operatorname{Min}_{\beta}(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta)
$$

with restriction $r-R \beta=0$. Ton do this, we consider the Lagrangian function:

$$
\mathscr{L}=(y-X \beta)^{\prime}(y-X \beta)-\lambda^{\prime}[r-R \beta] .
$$

The optimum $\beta=\tilde{\beta}$ must satisfy the first-order conditions:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\partial \mathscr{L}}{\partial \beta}=-2 X^{\prime} y+2\left(X^{\prime} X\right) \tilde{\beta}+R^{\prime} \lambda=0  \tag{7.10}\\
& \frac{\partial \mathscr{L}}{\partial \lambda}=r-R \tilde{\beta}=0 \tag{7.11}
\end{align*}
$$

On multiplying by (7.10) by $R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}$, we get:

$$
\begin{gathered}
-2 R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y+2 R \tilde{\beta}+R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime} \lambda=0 \\
R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime} \lambda=2 R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y-2 r=2[R \hat{\beta}-r] \\
\lambda=2\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}[R \hat{\beta}-r] .
\end{gathered}
$$

By (7.10),

$$
\begin{align*}
2\left(X^{\prime} X\right) \tilde{\beta} & =2 X^{\prime} y-R^{\prime} \lambda  \tag{7.12}\\
& =2 X^{\prime} y-2 R^{\prime}\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}[R \hat{\beta}-r] \tag{7.13}
\end{align*}
$$

hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tilde{\beta} & =\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y-\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}[R \hat{\beta}-r] \\
& =\hat{\beta}+\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}[r-R \hat{\beta}] .
\end{aligned}
$$

We see that $\tilde{\beta}$ does not depend on $\sigma^{2}$. Substituting $\tilde{\beta}$ in $\ln (L)$, we see that

$$
\ln (L)=-\frac{T}{2} \ln (2 \pi)-\frac{T}{2} \ln \sigma^{2}-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}} S_{\omega}
$$

where $S_{\omega}=(y-X \tilde{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \tilde{\beta})$, from which we get

$$
\frac{\partial \ln (L)}{\partial \sigma^{2}}=-\frac{T}{2 \sigma^{2}}+\frac{S_{\omega}}{2 \sigma^{4}}=0
$$

at the optimum, hence

$$
\begin{gathered}
\tilde{\sigma}^{2}=S_{\omega} / T=(y-X \tilde{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \tilde{\beta}) / T, \\
L(\hat{\omega})=\frac{T^{T / 2} e^{-T / 2}}{(2 \pi)^{T / 2} S_{\omega}^{T / 2}},
\end{gathered}
$$

The likelihood ratio test is given by the critical region:

$$
\frac{L(\hat{\Omega})}{L(\hat{\omega})}=\left(\frac{S_{\omega}}{S_{\Omega}}\right)^{T / 2} \geq \lambda_{\alpha}
$$

or, equivalently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{S_{\omega}}{S_{\Omega}} \geq \lambda_{\alpha}^{2 / T} \tag{7.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{\omega} & =(y-X \tilde{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \tilde{\beta}) \\
& =(y-X \hat{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \hat{\beta})+(\hat{\beta}-\tilde{\beta})^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)(\hat{\beta}-\tilde{\beta}) \\
& =S_{\Omega}+(\hat{\beta}-\tilde{\beta})^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)(\hat{\beta}-\tilde{\beta})
\end{aligned}
$$

we also see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{\omega}-S_{\Omega}= & (r-R \hat{\beta})^{\prime}\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1} R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} \\
& R^{\prime}\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}[r-R \hat{\beta}] \\
= & (r-R \hat{\beta})^{\prime}\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}[r-R \hat{\beta}] \\
= & (R \hat{\beta}-r)^{\prime}\left[R\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} R^{\prime}\right]^{-1}(R \hat{\beta}-r)=S(R, \hat{\beta}) \\
= & \left(q s^{2}\right) F
\end{aligned}
$$

hence

$$
F=\frac{S_{\omega}-S_{\Omega}}{q s^{2}}=\frac{\left(S_{\omega}-S_{\Omega}\right) / q}{S_{\Omega} /(T-k)}
$$

and

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{S_{\omega}}{S_{\Omega}}=\frac{S_{\Omega}+\left(q s^{2}\right) F}{S_{\Omega}}=1+\frac{\left(q s^{2}\right) F}{(T-k) s^{2}}=1+\frac{q}{T-k} F \geq \lambda_{\alpha}^{2 / T} \\
\Longleftrightarrow F \geq \frac{T-k}{q}\left(\lambda_{\alpha}^{2 / T}-1\right)=F_{\alpha}
\end{gathered}
$$

The likelihood ratio test of $H_{0}: R \beta=r$ has the critical region

$$
F \equiv \frac{\left(S_{\omega}-S_{\Omega}\right) / q}{S_{\Omega} /(T-k)} \geq F_{\alpha}(q, T-k)
$$

where

$$
F \sim F(q, T-k)
$$

This is an easy method for testing $H_{0}: R \beta=r$. Note also that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
L R & =\left(\frac{S_{\omega}}{S_{\Omega}}\right)^{T / 2}=\left(1+\frac{q}{T-k} F\right)^{T / 2} \\
F & =\frac{T-k}{q}\left(L R^{2 / T}-1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## 8. Estimator optimal properties with Gaussian errors

When errors are Gaussian, the OLS estimators $\hat{\beta}_{i}, i=1, \ldots, k$ and $s^{2}=$ $(y-X \hat{\beta})^{\prime}(y-X \hat{\beta}) /(T-k)$ have minimum variance in the class of all unbiased estimators of $\beta_{i}, i=1, \ldots, k$, and $\sigma^{2}$ respectively [see Rao (1973, section 5a)].

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