

Other variables such as y_{it}^* and X_{it}^* can be obtained similarly. In this case, $e_T^\alpha = Ce_T = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_t)'$ where the α_t 's can be obtained recursively as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_1 &= 1 \\ \alpha_t &= 1 + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \lambda_s \alpha_{t-s} \quad \text{for } t = 2, 3, \dots, q, \\ \alpha_t &= 1 + \sum_{s=1}^q \lambda_s \alpha_{t-s} \quad \text{for } t = q + 1, q + 2, \dots, T.\end{aligned}\quad (17)$$

$d^2 = e_T^{\alpha'} e_T^\alpha = \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t^2$ and the derivations of Σ^* and $\sigma_\epsilon \Sigma^{*-1/2}$ are the same as before, see (8) through (13). The typical element of y_{it}^* can be obtained recursively as in (16), and that of $y^{**} = \sigma_\epsilon \Sigma^{-1/2} y^*$ from (14) with the newly defined α_t 's in (17).

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92.4.4. *Comparison of GLS and OLS for a Linear Regression Model with Noninvertible MA(1) Errors*—Solution,¹ proposed by Luis J. Álvarez and Juan J. Dolado. Let the DGP be

$$y_t = \mu + u_t \quad (t = 1, 2, \dots, T)$$

$$u_t = e_t - e_{t-1}; \quad e_0 = 0, E(e_t^2) = \sigma^2.$$

(1) In matrix notation the var-cov matrix of $\hat{\mu}$ (OLS estimator) and $\tilde{\mu}$ (GLS estimator) are

$$V(\hat{\mu}) = \sigma^2(i'i)^{-1}(i'\Omega i)(i'i)^{-1} \quad (1)$$

$$V(\tilde{\mu}) = \sigma^2(i'\Omega^{-1}i)^{-1}, \quad (2)$$

where $i' = (1, 1, \dots, 1)$, and

$$\Omega = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \dots 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \dots 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 \dots 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \dots & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\Omega^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} T & T-1 & T-2 & T-3 \dots 1 \\ T-1 & T-1 & T-2 & T-3 \dots 1 \\ T-2 & T-2 & T-2 & T-3 \dots 1 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \dots 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{T-1} \begin{pmatrix} w^{11} & w^{12} \\ w^{21} & \Omega^{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence,

$$i' \Omega i = 1 \tag{3}$$

$$i' \Omega^{-1} i = \frac{T(T+1)(2T+1)}{6} \tag{4}$$

Remark 1. To obtain (4), note that $i' \Omega^{-1} i$ is the sum of the elements of Ω^{-1} . Denote such a sum by S_T and, correspondingly, the sum of the elements of Ω^{22} by S_{T-1} . Then, it follows that

$$S_T = s + S_{T-1}; \quad S_1 = 1, \tag{5}$$

where s is the sum of w^{11} , w^{12} , and

$$w^{21} \left(= \frac{T(T+1)}{2} + \frac{T(T-1)}{2} = T^2 \right).$$

Hence, from (5), $S_T = \sum_1^T t^2 = T(T+1)(2T+1)/6$. Thus

$$V(\hat{\mu}) = \sigma^2/T^2 \tag{6}$$

$$V(\hat{\mu}) = \sigma^2 6/[T(T+1)(2T+1)], \tag{7}$$

where $V(\hat{\mu}) > V(\tilde{\mu})$ for $T \geq 2$.

Therefore, the limiting distributions of $\hat{\mu}$ and $\tilde{\mu}$ are

$$T(\hat{\mu} - \mu) \Rightarrow N(0, \sigma^2) \tag{8}$$

$$T^{3/2}(\tilde{\mu} - \mu) \Rightarrow N(0, 3\sigma^2) \tag{9}$$

by Lyapunov's CLT.

Remark 2. The OLS estimator is $Op(T^{-1})$ ("super-consistent"), while the GLS estimator is $Op(T^{-3/2})$ ("hyper-consistent"). The intuition behind these properties is as follows.

On the one hand, application of OLS yields

$$\hat{\mu} = \mu + \sum_1^T \frac{(e_t - e_{t-1})}{T} = \mu + \frac{e_T}{T},$$

since e_T is $Op(1)$, then (8) follows.

On the other hand, denote $\tilde{y}_t = y_t/\Delta (= y_t + y_{t-1} + \dots + y_1)$, then GLS is equivalent to OLS in the model

$$\tilde{y}_t = \mu t + e_t.$$

Hence,

$$\tilde{\mu} = \mu + \sum_1^T t\epsilon_t / \sum_1^T t^2,$$

since $\sum_1^T t\epsilon_t$ is $Op(T^{-3/2})$ and $\sum_1^T t^2$ is $Op(T^{-3})$; then (9) follows.

(2) Theorem 1 in Kruskal [1] says that $\hat{\mu}$ and $\tilde{\mu}$ are the same if $\Omega \times \epsilon\Lambda$ for all $x \in \Lambda$, where x (the regressor) is assumed to lie in the linear manifold Λ . In this case $x = i$, thus

$$\Omega i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \cdot \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \cdot \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \cdot \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{10}$$

and clearly

$$R(\Omega i) \neq R(i),$$

where the symbol R signifies the range space of a matrix. Thus, it follows by Kruskal's theorem that GLS and OLS are not equivalent.

The graphs in Figure 1 represent the recursive OLS ($\hat{\mu}$) and GLS ($\tilde{\mu}$) estimates up to a sample size of 100 observations.

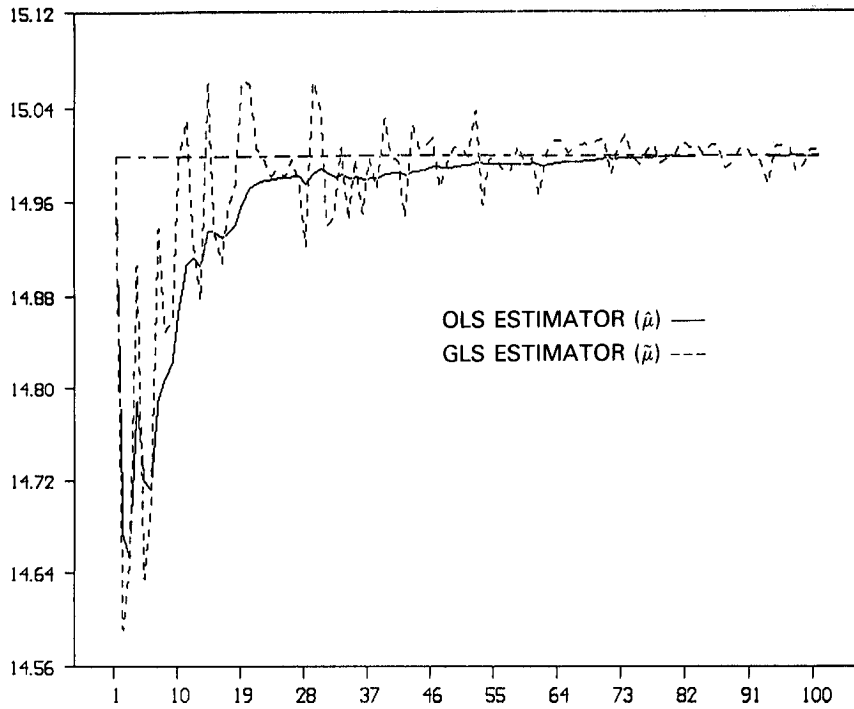


FIGURE 1. DGP: $y_t = 15 + u_t$, $u_t = e_t - e_{t-1}$ ($t = 1, \dots, T$), $e_0 = 0$, $e_t \sim \text{n.i.d. } (0,1)$.

NOTE

1. An excellent solution has been proposed independently by In Choi, the poser of the problem.

REFERENCE

1. Kruskal, W. When are Gauss-Markov and least squares estimators identical? A coordinate free approach. *Annals of Mathematical Statistics* 39 (1968): 70-75.

92.4.5. *Tabulation of Farebrother's Test for Linear Restriction—Solution*,¹ proposed by Jean-Marie Dufour and Sophie Mahseredjian. We consider h separate linear regression models of the form:

$$y_j = X_j \beta_j + \epsilon_j, \quad \epsilon_j \sim N[0, \sigma_j^2 I_{n_j}], \quad j = 1, \dots, h, \quad (1)$$

where y_j is an $n_j \times 1$ vector of observations on a dependent variable, X_j is an $n_j \times k_j$ fixed matrix such that $1 \leq \text{rank}(X_j) = k_j < n_j$, ϵ_j is an $n_j \times 1$ vec-