Hypothesis testing and interval estimation in finite and large samples

Empirical Methods, Lecture 5

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Consider the LRM

$$y_i = x_i \beta + \varepsilon_i$$
.

So far we have been interested in estimating the β , the true effect in the population. Using the OLS method, we estimated it with $\hat{\beta}$.

We also learned that $\hat{\beta}$ is a random variable, has a sampling distribution, and hence a mean and a S.E.. This meant that some level of uncertainty is associated with the particular $\hat{\beta}$ due to that it is obtained by the random sample at hand.

Hypothesis testing is about testing whether β is equal to a certain hypothesized value, and we can use $\hat{\beta}$ to test that. But due to the random nature of $\hat{\beta}$, we have to take account of the uncertainty in $\hat{\beta}$ while conducting the test.

Let us hypothesise that the true β_k is equal to a particular β_k^0 . Then, the null and the alternative hypotheses are

$$H_0: \beta_k = \beta_k^0$$

$$H_1: \beta_k \neq \beta_k^0$$

The hypothesis we are testing is

$$H_0: \beta_k = \beta_k^0$$

$$H_1: \beta_k \neq \beta_k^0.$$

That is, we want to check whether

$$\beta_k = \beta_k^0$$
.

But we do not observe β_k . Hence, we cannot make this check. But we can estimate β_k . Suppose that $\hat{\beta}_k$ is the OLS estimate of β_k . Now we can check whether

$$\hat{\beta}_k = \beta_k^0.$$

Suppose that this is the case. Then, our test is complete, and we conclude that H_0 is true. But this conclusion has a problem.

 $\hat{\beta}_k$ is a random variable, and it has a sampling distribution. Hence, there is a probability associated with the condition

$$\hat{\beta}_k = \beta_k^0.$$

Therefore, we need to check if the equality holds in a statistical sense. We do this check by constructing a test statistic based on the random variable $\hat{\beta}_k$. But since $\hat{\beta}_k$ is random, the test statistic becomes a random variable.

A test statistic is a random variable, and it has a distribution. What determines the distribution of, e.g., the t statistic?

As we will se later in these slides, the t statistic is a function of $\hat{\beta}$, and if we take X as given, it is a function of ε . Hence, the distribution of ε determines the distribution of the t statistic.

If we assume that ε is normal, the test statistic has an exact distribution. An exact distribution means that the distribution is valid for any finite n. For example, the t statistic has a t distribution if ε is normal. This is a distribution tabulated at the back of textbooks.

If ε is not normal, the test statistic does not have an exact distribution. But if we require that n is large, then the test statistic has an asymptotic distribution that approximates an exact distribution, in particular the normal distribution.

Recall that

$$\hat{oldsymbol{eta}} = oldsymbol{eta} + (oldsymbol{X}'oldsymbol{X})^{-1}oldsymbol{X}'oldsymbol{arepsilon}.$$

We know from the previous lecture that if

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim N\left[\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I}\right]$$

then

$$\boldsymbol{\hat{eta}} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim N \left[eta, \sigma^2 \left(\boldsymbol{X}' \boldsymbol{X} \right)^{-1}
ight].$$

This means that

$$\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim N \left[\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \left(\boldsymbol{X}' \boldsymbol{X} \right)^{-1} \right].$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim N \left[\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \left(\boldsymbol{X}' \boldsymbol{X} \right)^{-1} \right].$$

Often we are interested in testing a linear restriction on a given true coefficient. E.g.,

$$H_0: \beta_k = \beta_k^0$$
$$H_1: \beta_k \neq \beta_k^0.$$

That is, we are interested in the element located in the row k of the $K \times 1$ vector β , and in the observation located in the row k and column k of the $K \times K$ matrix X'X. That is, we are interested in

$$\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k \mid \mathbf{X} \sim N \left[0, \sigma^2 \left[\left(\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X} \right)^{-1} \right]_{k,k} \right].$$

Define

$$S^{kk} \equiv \left[\left(oldsymbol{X}' oldsymbol{X}
ight)^{-1}
ight]_{k,k}.$$

$$\hat{eta}_k - eta_k \mid \mathbf{X} \sim N \left[0, \sigma^2 S^{kk}
ight].$$

Under the null hypothesis, we have $\beta_k = \beta_k^0$. Hence,

$$\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0 \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim N\left[0, \sigma^2 S^{kk}\right],$$

assuming that $E\left[\hat{\beta}_k \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right] = \beta_k^0$.

We want $\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0$ because we want to test whether this is equal to 0.

$$\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0 \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim N \left[0, \sigma^2 S^{kk} \right].$$

Standardise $\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0$ to get

$$z_k \mid X \equiv rac{\hat{eta}_k - eta_k^0}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 S^{kk}}} \mid oldsymbol{X} \sim oldsymbol{N}\left[0,1
ight].$$

The distribution does not depend on $\hat{\beta}_k$, β_k^0 , σ , or \boldsymbol{X} . Hence,

$$z_k \sim N[0,1]$$
.

This is a convenient simplification because we do not need to condition on \boldsymbol{X} while using the test statistic.

$$z_k = \frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 S^{kk}}}.$$

 z_k is not usable because σ^2 is unknown. Replace σ^2 with its unbiased estimator

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\hat{\varepsilon}'\hat{\varepsilon}}{n - K}.$$

We obtain

$$t_k = \frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 S^{kk}}}.$$

But we change from z_k to t_k . So how is t_k distributed?

The only difference between

$$z_k = \frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 S^{kk}}} \sim N[0, 1]$$

and

$$t_k = \frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 S^{kk}}} \sim t [n - K]$$

is that we have replaced the unknown σ^2 by its estimator $\hat{\sigma}^2$, and the result is that we move from a standard normal distribution to a t distribution which has slightly thicker tails.

$$t_k = \frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 S^{kk}}}.$$

What is the intuition of this test statistic?

Is the distance between $\hat{\beta}_k$ and β_k^0 sufficiently large, with the distance measured in terms of the sampling variance of $\hat{\beta}_k$? Is t_k sufficiently large? If it is, reject the null, for the true β_k , that $\beta_k = \beta_k^0$. This is the decision rule of the test.

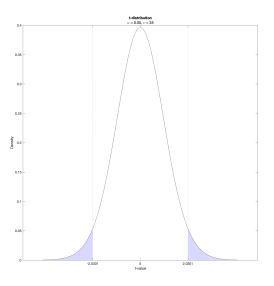
How large t_k should be depends on the threshold t value we want to consider. We call this threshold t value, the critical t value, and denote it as

$$t^{c}_{\frac{\alpha}{2},n-K}$$
.

 t^c is a value from the t distribution and depends on

- $\frac{\alpha}{2}$: area under the t distribution covering up to where we want t^c to rest. Hence, $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ determines the t^c we want to consider. It is often taken as 5%. So "statisticians are people whose aim in life is to be wrong 5% of the time" (Kempthorne and Doerfler, 1969).
- n K: degrees of freedom which determines the shape of the t distribution.

For example, for $\alpha = 0.05$ and n - K = 35, we have



$$t_k = \frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 S^{kk}}}.$$

One point left unclear is that the distance $\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0$ can be positive or negative. Hence, t_k can be positive or negative.

If t_k is positive, we reject the null if

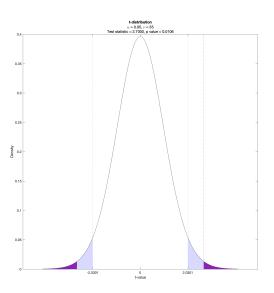
$$t_k > t_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2},n-K}^c$$

If t_k is negative, we reject the null if

$$t_k < t_{\frac{\alpha}{2},n-K}^c$$

This is what is called a two-tailed t test.

For example, for $\alpha = 0.05$, n - K = 35, and $t_k = 2.7$, we have



Mincer (1974) considers the regression of the log of wage on exper, educ, and IQ score. The data contains 935 observations. Estimation of this regression gives

$$\hat{\beta}_{IQ} = 0.0058$$

with

Est. S.E.
$$\left[\hat{\beta}_{IQ} \mid \mathbf{X}\right] = \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 S^{IQ}} = 0.001.$$

Someone claims that each additional IQ point raises one's wage by 0.0075 on average. That is,

$$\beta_{IQ}^0 = 0.0075.$$

We want to test this claim. The null and the alternative are

 $H_0: \beta_{IQ} = 0.0075$ $H_1: \beta_{IQ} \neq 0.0075.$

A two-tailed test!



We need to calculate the t and t^c , and compare t to t^c to decide on the result of the test.

t is calculated as follows.

$$t = \frac{0.0058 - 0.0075}{0.001} = -1.75.$$

 t^c is calculated as follows.

Consider a significance level of 0.05. Then, for this two-tailed test, $\frac{\alpha}{2}=0.025.$

The degrees of freedom is 935 - 4 = 931.

Then,

$$t_{0.025,931}^c = -1.9625,$$

using the tabulated t distribution at the back of your textbook.

Since

$$t > t^c$$
.

that is, since

$$-1.7500 > -1.9625$$
,

we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

We can also compare p to p^c to decide on result of the t test.

p is the p value corresponding to the t value.

 p^c is the critical p value corresponding to t^c , the critical t value. p^c is what we call the significance level.

p is calculated, for this two-tailed test, as

$$p = 2 * p_{-1.75,931} = 0.0805$$

using standard statistical software. The tabulated t distribution at the back of your textbook will not present this exact number because tabulations cannot be too detailed since there is no space to present them.

 p^c is calculated as

$$p^c = 2 * p_{-1.9625,931} = 0.05$$

using standard statistical software, or the tabulated t distribution at the back of your textbook will present this number because 0.05 is a conventional critical level.

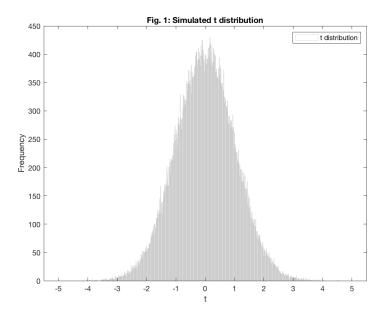
Since

$$p > p^c$$

that is, since

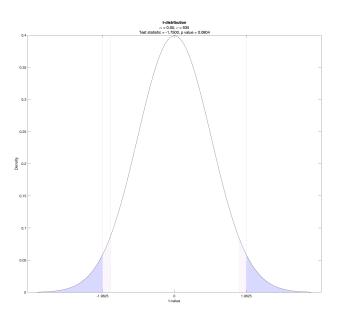
we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

O'Hara (2018) proposes that econometrics instructors move away from using the tabulated distribution of the test statistic at the back of the textbooks when teaching hypothesis testing. Instead, he proposes that instructors teach students to test hypotheses by using the simulated distribution of the test statistic which can be created using random number generators in statistical software. This provides students with a visual and intuitive understanding of the sampling distribution and the logic behind hypothesis testing. In the next few slides we will follow what O'Hara proposes.



In this plot, a probability area -p or p^c – represents the fraction that the t values occur up to some t value – t or t^c – in all t values in the distribution.

Now that we understand what we are doing, we can replace the simulated frequency distribution with the continuous PDF of the t statistic.



Hypothesis testing in large samples

lf

$$oldsymbol{arepsilon} \mid oldsymbol{X} \sim oldsymbol{N} \left[oldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 oldsymbol{I}
ight]$$

holds, the exact sampling distribution of $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$, conditional on $oldsymbol{X}$, is

$$\boldsymbol{\hat{eta}} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim N \left[oldsymbol{eta}, \sigma^2 \left(\boldsymbol{X}' \boldsymbol{X}
ight)^{-1}
ight].$$

When $\hat{\beta}$ is normal, the t statistic has the exact t distribution. This is what we have shown above.

Hypothesis testing in large samples

lf

$$oldsymbol{arepsilon} \mid oldsymbol{X} \sim \mathcal{N} \left[oldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 oldsymbol{I}
ight]$$

does not hold, the t statistic does not have the exact t distribution in finite n. The same holds for the F statistic.

What happens then?

Consider the t statistic.

$$t_{k} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_{k} - \beta_{k}^{0}}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^{2} \left[\left(\boldsymbol{X}' \boldsymbol{X} \right)^{-1} \right]_{k,k}}} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{n}}$$
$$= \frac{\sqrt{n} \left(\hat{\beta}_{k} - \beta_{k}^{0} \right)}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^{2} \left[\left(\frac{1}{n} \boldsymbol{X}' \boldsymbol{X} \right)^{-1} \right]_{k,k}}}.$$

Hypothesis testing in large samples: single restriction

Consider the numerator of

$$t_k = rac{\sqrt{n}\left(\hat{eta}_k - eta_k^0
ight)}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2\left[\left(rac{1}{n}oldsymbol{X}'oldsymbol{X}
ight)^{-1}
ight]_{k,k}}}.$$

The derivation of the asymptotic normality of $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$ shows that

$$\sqrt{n}\left(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}-\boldsymbol{\beta}\right) \stackrel{d}{\to} N\left[\boldsymbol{0},\sigma^2\left(\mathsf{E}\left[\boldsymbol{x}_i\boldsymbol{x}_i'\right]\right)^{-1}\right].$$

In this derivation we did not assume that ε is normal! The normal distribution is due to the CLT! Considering the element k of $\hat{\beta}$, and that under the null $\beta_k = \beta_k^0$,

$$\sqrt{n}\left(\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0\right) \xrightarrow{d} N\left[0, \sigma^2\left[\left(\mathsf{E}\left[\boldsymbol{x}_i\boldsymbol{x}_i'\right]\right)^{-1}\right]_{k,k}\right].$$

Hypothesis testing in large samples: single restriction

Consider the denominator of

$$t_{k} = \frac{\sqrt{n} \left(\hat{\beta}_{k} - \beta_{k}^{0} \right)}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^{2} \left[\left(\frac{1}{n} \boldsymbol{X}' \boldsymbol{X} \right)^{-1} \right]_{k,k}}}.$$

It can be shown that

$$\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 \left[\left(\frac{1}{n} \boldsymbol{X}' \boldsymbol{X} \right)^{-1} \right]_{k,k}} \xrightarrow{d} \sqrt{\sigma^2 \left[\left(\mathbb{E} \left[\boldsymbol{x}_i \boldsymbol{x}_i' \right] \right)^{-1} \right]_{k,k}}.$$

Using the ratio rule of limiting distributions,

$$t_k = rac{\sqrt{n}\left(\hat{eta}_k - eta_k^0
ight)}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2\left[\left(rac{1}{n}oldsymbol{X}'oldsymbol{X}
ight)^{-1}
ight]_{k,k}}} \stackrel{d}{
ightarrow} N\left[0,1
ight].$$

Hypothesis testing in large samples: single restriction

Drop the two instances of \sqrt{n} . We have

$$t_{k} = rac{\left(\hat{eta}_{k} - eta_{k}^{0}
ight)}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^{2}\left[\left(oldsymbol{X}'oldsymbol{X}
ight)^{-1}
ight]_{k,k}}} \stackrel{d}{
ightarrow} N\left[0,1
ight].$$

So

$$t_k \stackrel{a}{\sim} N[0,1]$$
.

This shows that the t statistic approximately has a standard normal distribution in finite but large samples. Hence, if n is large, we can compare the t statistic with the critical values from a standard normal distribution. We do not need to assume that ε is normal!

A test is said to have good power if the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis, when it is false, is high.

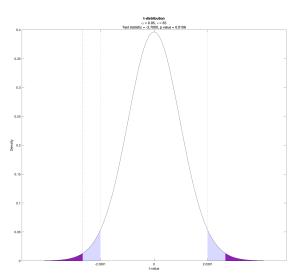
Consider the null and alternative hypotheses

$$H_0: \beta_k = \beta_k^0$$

$$H_1: \beta_k \neq \beta_k^0.$$

When is the null hypothesis false? If the alternative is true. When is the alternative true? If you are far on the left or right hand side of the t distribution.

E.g., suppose $\beta_k^0 = 0$. If $-|t_k|$ is smaller than $-|t^c|$, or if $|t_k|$ larger than $|t^c|$, we reject the null.



When are you far on the left or right hand side of the, say, t distribution? In three situations.

First, if the alternative is true. This happens when the effect size is large. Effect size refers to the size of β_k . If β_k is large, then the alternative hypothesis is more likely. β_k is unobserved, but if β_k is large, then the sample we observe is likely to reflect this, and we will have a large $\hat{\beta}_k$, and consequently a large t value.

Second, it happens when the sample size is large. If the sample size is large, the S.E. of the coefficient estimate is smaller, and consequently the t has a larger value.

Third, if α is larger, because this ensures that you are automatically further on the left or on the right of the t distribution. Since everybody agrees on an α value of 5%, this factor is hardly relevant.

Is the true coefficient β_k equal to a certain value (β_k^0) ?

To answer this question, utilizing the sample data at hand, we have point estimated β_k using the OLS method, and developed a test statistic to check how close $\hat{\beta}_k$ and β_k^0 are in a statistical sense.

Can we estimate a lower and upper bound for the true coefficient β_k ?

To answer this question, utilizing the sample data at hand, we can construct an interval estimate.

. regress wage educ

Source	ss	df	MS	Number of obs		= 997
Model Residual	7842.35455 31031.0745	1 995	7842.35455 31.1870095	R-squa	F	= 251.46 = 0.0000 = 0.2017 = 0.2009
Total	38873.429	996	39.0295472	-	squared SE	= 5.5845
wage	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Cont	f. Interval]
educ _cons	1.135645 -4.860424	.0716154 .9679821		0.000 0.000	.9951106 -6.759944	1.27618 -2.960903

We know that, in a finite sample,

$$t_k = \frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{s_{\hat{\beta}_k}} \sim t [n - K]$$

where

$$s_{\hat{eta}_k} \equiv \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 S^{kk}}.$$

Then, we can state that

$$\mathsf{Prob}\left(-t_{\alpha/2,\nu}<\frac{\hat{\beta}_k-\beta_k^0}{\mathsf{s}_{\hat{\beta}_k}}< t_{\alpha/2,\nu}\right)=1-\alpha,$$

where

- lpha is some probability value, and
- $-t_{\alpha/2}$ and $t_{\alpha/2}$ are some lower and upper thresholds, or critical values as we have seen.

Interpret

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left(-t_{\alpha/2,\nu}<\frac{\hat{\beta}_k-\beta_k^0}{s_{\hat{\beta}_k}}< t_{\alpha/2,\nu}\right)=1-\alpha.$$

The probability that the random variable

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{s_{\hat{\beta}_k}}$$

is between the stated thresholds is $1 - \alpha$.

For example, if $\nu = 999$ and $\alpha = 0.05$,

$$t_{0.025,999} = 1.9623,$$

and hence

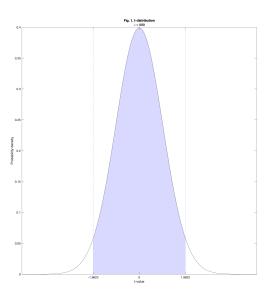
$$\mathsf{Prob}\left(-1.9623 < \frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{s_{\hat{\beta}_k}} < 1.9623\right) = 0.95.$$

The probability that the random variable

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{s_{\hat{\beta}_k}}$$

is between the stated boundaries is 0.95.

The shaded area between the stated thresholds is 0.95.



Now rearrange the terms of

$$\mathsf{Prob}\left(-t_{\alpha/2,\nu} < \frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k^0}{s_{\hat{\beta}_k}} < t_{\alpha/2,\nu}\right) = 1 - \alpha,$$

to obtain

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left(\hat{\beta}_k - t_{\alpha/2} s_{\hat{\beta}_k} < \beta_k^0 < \hat{\beta}_k + t_{\alpha/2} s_{\hat{\beta}_k}\right) = 1 - \alpha.$$

At this instance the interpretation changes.

$$\mathsf{Prob}\left(\hat{\beta}_k - t_{\alpha/2} s_{\hat{\beta}_k} < \beta_k^0 < \hat{\beta}_k + t_{\alpha/2} s_{\hat{\beta}_k}\right) = 1 - \alpha.$$

Notice two things.

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left(\hat{\beta}_k - t_{\alpha/2} s_{\hat{\beta}_k} < \beta_k^0 < \hat{\beta}_k + t_{\alpha/2} s_{\hat{\beta}_k}\right) = 1 - \alpha.$$

First, the interpretation is for the unique nonrandom population parameter β_k^0 .

$$\mathsf{Prob}\left(\hat{\beta}_k - t_{\alpha/2} s_{\hat{\beta}_k} < \beta_k^0 < \hat{\beta}_k + t_{\alpha/2} s_{\hat{\beta}_k}\right) = 1 - \alpha.$$

Second, the end points of the interval are random because $\hat{\beta}_k$ is random. $\hat{\beta}_k$ has a sampling distribution. We are taking samples from the population repeatedly, and estimating an interval using each sample. Hence, we have a series of estimated intervals resulting from repeated sampling. But since we are not able to do repeated sampling, we are bound to use one estimate of an interval using the data at hand.

$$\mathsf{Prob}\left(\hat{\beta}_k - t_{\alpha/2} s_{\hat{\beta}_k} < \beta_k^0 < \hat{\beta}_k + t_{\alpha/2} s_{\hat{\beta}_k}\right) = 1 - \alpha.$$

Then, the interpretation is as follows. In repeated sampling, the true population parameter β_k^0 falls within intervals, like the one we estimated using the data at hand, $1-\alpha$ of the times.

Given the single sample at hand, we have only one estimate of the interval. The probability that the interval we estimate using the data at hand contains β_k^0 is either 0 or 1. Hence, it is incorrect to say that the probability that the interval we estimated using the data at hand contains β_k^0 is 95 percent. The interval we calculated is just an estimate of one of the many intervals that contain β_k^0 95 percent of the times.

Building on the earlier example, if $\nu=$ 999 and $\alpha=$ 0.05,

$$t_{0.025,999}=1.9623.$$

Suppose

$$\hat{\beta}_{k} = 0.4574$$

and

$$s_{\hat{\beta}_k} = 0.0557.$$

We get

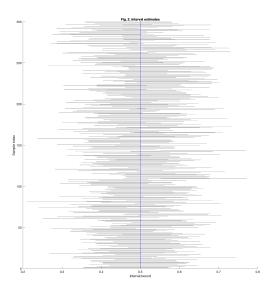
Prob
$$(0.3482 < \beta_k^0 < 0.5667) = 95\%$$
.

So an interval estimate using the sample data at hand is

$$[0.3482, 0.5667]$$
.

This is called a "confidence" interval because we use this, and only one interval, to be confident about the population coefficient to a certain probability extent.

 β_k^0 falls within all intervals 95 percent of the times:



Interval estimation, example

A test and a confidence interval are closely related.

. regress wage educ

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of ob	s =	997
				- F(1, 995)	=	251.46
Model	7842.35455	1	7842.3545	5 Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	31031.0745	995	31.187009	5 R-squared	=	0.2017
				– Adj R-square	d =	0.2009
Total	38873.429	996	39.029547	2 Root MSE	=	5.5845
	•					
wage	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t [95%	Conf.	Intervall

wage	Coet.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Cont.	Interval
educ _cons		.0716154 .9679821	15.86 -5.02		.9951106 -6.759944	

We reject the null $\beta_{educ} = 0$ of the t test since it lies outside the confidence interval.

We might want to hypothesize that there are J linear restrictions on the true coefficient vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ against alternatives such that

$$H_0: \mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{q}$$

 $H_1: \mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\beta} \neq \mathbf{q}$.

 ${\pmb R}$ is a matrix of J restrictions for K parameters. $J \times K$. ${\pmb \beta}$ is the true coefficient vector. $K \times 1$. ${\pmb q}$ is the hypothesized value of ${\pmb R}{\pmb \beta}$. $J \times 1$. E.g.,

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{R}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{\beta}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{q}},$$

implies the linear restrictions

$$\beta_1 + \beta_2 = 0,$$
$$\beta_2 = 1.$$

We want to test whether our hypothesis is true. We do not observe β , but we can estimate it with $\hat{\beta}$. Suppose

$$R\hat{\beta} = q$$
.

We could conclude that H_0 is true. But this conclusion has a problem.

Remember that $\hat{\beta}$ is a random variable and has a sampling distribution. Hence, there is a probability associated with the condition

$$R\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{q}.$$

Therefore, we need to check if

$$R\hat{eta}=q$$

holds in statistical terms. We do this check through a test statistic based on the random variable

$$R\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}-\boldsymbol{q}$$
.

 $\hat{R}\hat{\beta}-q$ is a random variable, and therefore it has a distribution. Therefore, we start by studying this distribution.

Taking the expectation conditional on \boldsymbol{X} ,

$$E[R\hat{\beta} - q \mid X] = E[R\hat{\beta} \mid X] - E[q \mid X]$$

$$= RE[\hat{\beta} \mid X] - q$$

$$= R\beta - q$$

$$= 0,$$

assuming that

$$\mathsf{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}\mid \boldsymbol{X}\right]=\boldsymbol{\beta},$$

and under the null

$$R\beta = q$$
.

Taking the variance conditional on X,

$$Var \left[\mathbf{R} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{q} \mid \mathbf{X} \right] = Var \left[\mathbf{R} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \mid \mathbf{X} \right]$$

$$= \mathbf{R} Var \left[\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \mid \mathbf{X} \right] \mathbf{R}'$$

$$= \mathbf{R} \sigma^2 \left(\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{R}'$$

$$= \sigma^2 \mathbf{R} \left(\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{R}'.$$

We know that if

$$oldsymbol{arepsilon} \mid oldsymbol{X} \sim \mathcal{N}\left[oldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 oldsymbol{I}
ight]$$

then

$$\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim N\left[\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \left(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1}\right].$$

Since $\mathbf{R}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{q}$ is a linear function of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$,

$$m{R}m{\hat{eta}} - m{q} \mid m{X} \sim N \left[m{0}, \sigma^2 m{R} \left(m{X}' m{X}
ight)^{-1} m{R}'
ight],$$

with the mean and variance derived above.

It can be shown that

$$F = \frac{\left(\mathbf{R}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{q}\right)' \left[\mathbf{R}\hat{\sigma}^2 \left(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{R}'\right]^{-1} \left(\mathbf{R}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{q}\right)}{J} \sim F\left[J, n - K\right],$$

where J and n-K are the numerator and denominator degrees of freedom. These two parameters result from the derivation of the F statistic which is not shown here.

$$F = \frac{\left(\mathbf{R}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{q}\right)' \left[\mathbf{R}\hat{\sigma}^2 \left(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{R}'\right]^{-1} \left(\mathbf{R}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{q}\right)}{J}.$$

What is the intuition of the test statistic? Is the distance between $R\hat{\beta}$ and q sufficiently large, with the distance measured in terms of the sampling variance of $R\hat{\beta}$? Is F sufficiently large? If it is, reject the null that $R\hat{\beta} = q$. This is the decision rule of the test.

How large should F be depends on the threshold F value we want to consider. This threshold, or critical, F value is

$$F_{1-\alpha,J,n-K}^c$$
,

where

- F^c : a value from the F distribution which depends on the following,
- $1-\alpha$: area under the F distribution covering up to where we want F^c to rest. Hence, $1-\alpha$ determines the threshold F^c we want to consider,
- J, n-K: two degrees of freedom parameters as arguments of the F distribution.

Hypothesis testing in finite samples: multiple restrictions

This means that we would reject the null hypothesis if

$$F > F_{1-\alpha,J,n-K}^c$$
.

If the null is rejected, we conclude that the restrictions we impose on the parameters in the null hypothesis are jointly not significant.

The test does not inform about which restriction is not significant: any or all restrictions are not significant.

Mincer (1974) estimates a regression of the log of wage on a constant term, work experience, education (in years), and IQ score. The data contains 935 observations. We add to this regression a quadratic function of age, that is, we add age and age^2 .

Someone claims that age has no effect on wage. That is,

$$\beta_{age}^{0} = 0, \ \beta_{age^{2}}^{0} = 0.$$

We want to test this claim. The null and the alternative hypotheses are

$$H_0: \mathbf{R}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{q}$$

 $H_1: \mathbf{R}\mathbf{\hat{\beta}} \neq \mathbf{q}.$

Checkpoint. Note that this is a one-tailed test.



We need to calculate F, and compare it to F^c to decide on the result of the test.

With additional information on $\hat{\sigma}$, the F statistic can be calculated as described above. It turns out that

$$F = 4.5735$$
.

Consider a significance level of 0.05. Hence, for this one-tailed test, $\alpha=0.05$. The numerator degrees of freedom, J, is 2, and the denominator degrees of freedom, n-K, is 935-6=929. F^c can then be calculated as

$$F^c = 3.0054,$$

using the tabulated *F* distribution at the back of your textbook, or using statistical software.

Since

$$F > F^c$$
,

that is, since

we reject the null hypothesis.

We can also compare p to p^c to decide on result of the F test. p is the p value corresponding to the F value. p^c is the critical p value corresponding to the critical F value.

p can be calculated as

$$p = p_{4.5735,2,929} = 0.0106$$

using standard statistical software. The tabulated F distribution at the back of your textbook will not present this number because tabulations cannot be too detailed for space reasons.

 p^c can be calculated as

$$p^c = p_{3.0054,2,929} = 0.0500$$

using standard statistical software, and the tabulated F distribution at the back of your textbook will present this number because 0.05 is a conventional critical level.

Since

$$p > p^c$$
,

that is, since

$$0.0106 < 0.0500$$
,

we reject the null hypothesis.

