Testing economic hypotheses. Multiple hypothesis testing. Linear and non-linear hypotheses. Confidence intervals. Delta method.

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Least squares estimator

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LEAST SQUARES ESTIMATOR



• Least squares estimator :

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \ldots + \beta_K x_K + \varepsilon \tag{1}$$

where

- \blacktriangleright y is the (outcome) dependent variable;
- x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_K is the set of independent variables;
- \triangleright ε is the error term.
- The dependent variable is explained with the components that vary with the the dependent variable and the error term.
- $\ \beta_0$ is the intercept.
- $\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_K$ are the coefficients (slopes) on x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_K .

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 $\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_K$ measure the effect of change in x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_K upon the expected value of y (*ceteris paribus*).

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Assumptions of the least squares estimators I

• Assumption #1: true DGP (data generating process):

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.\tag{2}$$

Assumption #2: the expected value of the error term is zero:

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\varepsilon\right) = 0,\tag{3}$$

and this implies that $\mathbb{E}(y) = \mathbf{X}\beta$.

Assumption #3: Spherical variance-covariance error matrix.

$$var(\varepsilon) = \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon\varepsilon') = I\sigma^2 \tag{4}$$

. In particular:

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• the variance of the error term equals σ :

$$var\left(\varepsilon\right) = \sigma^{2} = var\left(y\right). \tag{5}$$

• the covariance between any pair of ε_i and ε_j is zero"

$$cov\left(\varepsilon_{i},\varepsilon_{j}\right) = 0. \tag{6}$$

• Assumption #4: Exogeneity. The independent variable are not random and therefore they are not correlated with the error term.

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{X}\varepsilon) = 0.$$

• Assumption #5: the full rank of matrix of explanatory variables (there is no so-called collinearity):

$$rank(\mathbf{X}) = K + 1 \le N. \tag{8}$$

Assumption #6 (optional): the normally distributed error term:

$$\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \sigma^2\right).$$
 (9)

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Least squares estimator

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Assumptions of the least squares estimators

Under the assumptions A#1-A#5 of the multiple linear regression model, the least squares estimator $\hat{\beta}^{OLS}$ has the smallest variance of all linear and unbiased estimators of β .

 $\hat{\beta}^{OLS}$ is the Best Linear Unbiased Estimators (BLUE) of β .

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■ The least squares estimator

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{OLS} = \left(\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{y}.$$
(10)

• The variance of the least square estimator

$$Var(\hat{\beta}^{OLS}) = \sigma^2 \left(\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X} \right)^{-1}$$
(11)

• If the (optional) assumption about normal distribution of the error term is satisfied then

$$\beta \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\hat{\beta}^{OLS}, Var(\hat{\beta}^{OLS})\right).$$
(12)

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Statistical inference

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STATISTICAL INFERENCE

- **Statistical inference** is the process that using sample data allows to deduce properties of an underlying features of population.
- **Statistical inference** consists of:
 - estimation of underlying parameters,
 - testing hypotheses.

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- Hypothesis testing is a comparison of a conjecture we have about a population to the information contained in a sample of data.
- The hypotheses are formed about economic behavior.
- In statistical inference, the hypotheses are then represented as statements about model parameters.

General procedures:

- **1.** A null hypothesis \mathcal{H}_0 ,
- 2. An alternative hypothesis \mathcal{H}_1 ,
- 3. A test statistic
- 4. A rejection region
- 5. A conclusion

- Based on the value of a test statistic we decide either to reject the null hypothesis or not to reject it.
- **The rejection region** consists of values that are unlikely and that have low probability of occurring when the null hypothesis is true.
- The rejection region depends on:
 - Distribution of test statistics when the null is true.
 - Alternative hypothesis.
 - Level of significance.

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- **Type I error** is a situation, in which we reject the null hypothesis when it is true.
- **Type II error** is a situation, in which we do not reject the null hypothesis when it is false.
- Significance level α :

$$P(\text{Type I error}) = \alpha. \tag{13}$$

• α is usually **arbitrary** chosen to be 0.01, 0.05 or 0.10

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- Standard practice is to use **the probability value (p-value)**. This is the is the smallest significance level at which the null hypothesis could be rejected.
- Given p-value we do not have to compare test statistics with the corresponding critical value.
- If the p-value is lower than the significance level (α) then we are able to reject the null.

Testing simply hypotheses

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Testing simply hypotheses

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Based on the t statistics:

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_i^{LS} - \beta_i}{se\left(\beta_i^{LS}\right)} \sim t_{N-(K+1)}.$$
(14)

we can consider the following alternative hypotheses:

- **1.** $\mathcal{H}_1: \quad \beta_i \leq c,$
- **2.** \mathcal{H}_1 : $\beta_i \neq c$,
- **3.** $\mathcal{H}_1: \quad \beta_i \geq c.$

■ Test of significance:

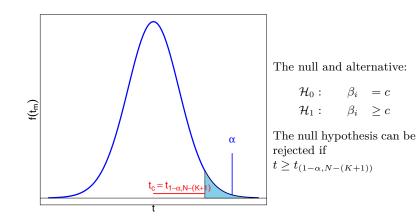
- The null \mathcal{H}_1 : $\beta_i = 0$,
- The alternative \mathcal{H}_0 : $\beta_i \neq 0$.
- t-test statistics:

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_i^{LS}}{se\left(\beta_i^{LS}\right)} \sim t_{N-(K+1)},\tag{15}$$

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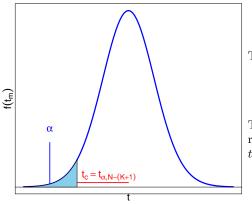
TESTING SIMPLY HYPOTHESES

which is an inverse of relative standard error.



Testing simply hypotheses

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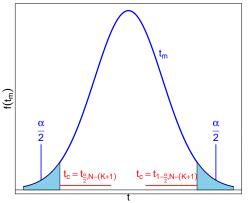


The null and alternative:

 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}_0 : & \beta_i &= c \\ \mathcal{H}_1 : & \beta_i &< c \end{aligned}$

The null hypothesis can be rejected if $t \leq t_{(\alpha,N-(K+1))}$

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The null and alternative:

 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}_0: & \beta_i &= c \\ \mathcal{H}_1: & \beta_i &\neq c \end{aligned}$

The null hypothesis can be rejected if $t \leq t_{(\alpha/2,N-(K+1))}$ or $t \geq t_{(1-\alpha/2,N-(K+1))}$

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Linear combination of parameters I

• A linear combination of parameters:

$$\lambda = c_1 \beta_1 + c_2 \beta_2 \tag{16}$$

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where c_1 and c_2 are some constants.

- Under the assumptions #1-#6 (without normality of the error term) the least square estimators $\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}$ and $\hat{\beta}_2^{LS}$ are the best linear unbiased estimators of β_1 and β_2 .
- Moreover, the $\hat{\lambda}^{LS} = c_1 \hat{\beta}_1^{LS} + c_2 \hat{\beta}_2^{LS}$ is also BLUE of λ .

• The estimator
$$\hat{\lambda}^{LS}$$
 is unbiased because:

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\lambda}^{LS}) = \mathbb{E}(c_1\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}) + \mathbb{E}(c_2\hat{\beta}_2^{LS}) = c_1\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}) + c_1\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_2^{LS}) = c_1\beta_1 + c_2\beta_2 = \lambda.$$
(17)

• The variance of the linear combination of the LS estimates:

$$var(\hat{\lambda}) = var(c_1\hat{\beta}_1^{LS} + c_2\hat{\beta}_2^{LS})$$
(18)

$$= c_1 var(\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}) + c_2 var(\hat{\beta}_2^{LS}) + 2c_1 c_2 cov(\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}, \hat{\beta}_2^{LS}).$$
(19)

therefore we can estimate the variance of the λ by replacing with the (known) estimated variances and covariance.

$$v\hat{a}r(\hat{\lambda}) = c_1 v\hat{a}r(\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}) + c_2 v\hat{a}r(\hat{\beta}_2^{LS}) + 2c_1 c_2 c\hat{o}v(\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}, \hat{\beta}_2^{LS})$$

• if the assumption of the error term normality holds or if the sample is large then $\hat{\lambda}$ have normal distribution:

$$\hat{\lambda} = c_1 \hat{\beta}_1^{LS} + c_2 \hat{\beta}_2^{LS} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\lambda, var(\hat{\lambda})\right).$$
(21)

• The standard t-statistics for the linear combination is:

$$t = \frac{\hat{\lambda} - \lambda}{\sqrt{var(\hat{\lambda})}} = \frac{\hat{\lambda} - \lambda}{se(\hat{\lambda})} \sim t_{N-K}.$$
(22)

Based on the above formulation the variety of hypotheses can be tested. The null is typically:

$$\mathcal{H}_0: \quad \lambda = c_1 \beta_1 + c_2 \beta_2 = \lambda_0, \tag{23}$$

while the possible alternative hypotheses:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}_1 : & \lambda = c_1 \beta_1 + c_2 \beta_2 \neq \lambda_0, \\ \mathcal{H}_1 : & \lambda = c_1 \beta_1 + c_2 \beta_2 \leq \lambda_0, \\ \mathcal{H}_1 : & \lambda = c_1 \beta_1 + c_2 \beta_2 \geq \lambda_0. \end{aligned}$$

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Confidence intervals

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Confidence intervals

- **Point estimate** is a single value of the estimator (mean).
- **Interval estimation** provides a range of values in which the true parameter is likely to fall
- **Interval estimation** allows to account for the precision with which the unknown parameter is estimated. The precision is typically measured with variance.

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• Under the assumption of normality of the error term the least squares estimator of $\hat{\beta}^{LS}$ is:

$$\hat{\beta}^{LS} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\beta, \Sigma\right) \tag{24}$$

where Σ is the variance-covariance of the least squares estimator.

• For illustrative purpose we focus on slope parameter in the simple regression model $(\hat{\beta}_1^{LS})$:

$$\hat{\beta}_1^{LS} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\beta_1, \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_i^N \left(x_i - \bar{x}\right)^2}\right)$$
(25)

• A standardized normal random variable can be obtained from $\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}$ by subtracting its mean and dividing by its standard deviation

$$Z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1^{LS} - \beta_1}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 \sum_i^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$
 (26)

Based on the features of standard normal distribution:

$$P(-1.96 \le Z \le 1.96) = .95, \tag{27}$$

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• we can substitute Z

$$P\left(-1.96 \le \frac{\hat{\beta}_1^{LS} - \beta_1}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 \sum_i^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} \le 1.96\right) = .95,$$
(28)

and after manipulations:

$$P\left(\hat{\beta}_{1}^{LS} - 1.96\sqrt{\sigma^{2}\sum_{i}^{N}(x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}} \le \beta_{1} \le \hat{\beta}_{1}^{LS} + 1.96\sqrt{\sigma^{2}\sum_{i}^{N}(x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}\right) = .95.$$
(29)

- The two end-points $\hat{\beta}_1^{LS} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 \sum_i^N (x_i \bar{x})^2}$ provide an interval estimator.
- In repeated sampling 95% of the intervals constructed this way will contain the true value of the parameter β_1 .
- This easy derivation of an interval estimator is based on the assumption about normality of the error term and that we know the variance of the error term σ^2 .

Obtaining interval estimates

In simply regression, replacing σ^2 by its estimates $\hat{\sigma}^2$ produces a random variable t:

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_{1}^{LS} - \beta_{1}}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^{2} \sum_{i}^{N} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_{1}^{LS} - \beta_{1}}{\sqrt{\hat{v}ar} \left(\hat{\beta}_{1}^{LS}\right)} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_{1}^{LS} - \beta_{1}}{se\left(\beta_{1}^{LS}\right)}.$$
 (30)

In multiple regression model, the t ratio, i.e. $t = (\hat{\beta}_j^{LS} - \beta_j)/se(\hat{\beta}_j^{LS})$ has a t-distribution with N - (K+1) degrees of freedoms:

$$t \sim t_{N-(K+1)},\tag{31}$$

where K is the number of explanatory variables.

• Critical value from a t distribution t_c can be found as follows:

$$P(t \ge t_c) = P(t \le -t_c) = \frac{\alpha}{2}, \tag{32}$$

where α is arbitrary probability (significance level).

• The confidence intervals:

$$P\left(-t_c \le t \le t_c\right) = 1 - \alpha,\tag{33}$$

and after manipulations (with definition of t random variable):

$$P\left(\hat{\beta}_{1}^{LS} - t_{c}se\left(\hat{\beta}_{1}^{LS}\right) \le \beta_{1} \le \hat{\beta}_{1}^{LS} + t_{c}se\left(\hat{\beta}_{1}^{LS}\right)\right) = 1 - \alpha.$$
(34)

Testing joint hypotheses

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Testing joint hypotheses



- A null hypothesis with multiple conjectures, expressed with more than one equal sign, is called a **joint hypothesis**.
- [Example] Wages (w) and experience (exper):

$$w = \beta_0 + \beta_1 exper + \beta_2 exper^2 + \varepsilon.$$
(35)

- Are wages related to experience?
- To answer the above question we should test jointly \mathcal{H}_0 : $\beta_1 = 0$ and \mathcal{H}_0 : $\beta_2 = 0$.
- The joint null is $\mathcal{H}_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0.$
- Test of \mathcal{H}_0 is a joint test for whether all two conjectures hold simultaneously.

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• The restricted least square estimator is obtained by minimizing the sum of squares (SSE) subject to set of restrictions, which is a function of the unknown parameters, given the data:

$$SSE(\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_K) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} [y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_1 - \dots - \beta_K x_K]^2$$

subject to restrictions.

• Examples of restrictions:

$$\beta_1 = \beta_2, \\ \beta_1 = 2.$$

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Wald test I

- Wald test allows to test a set of linear restrictions.
- **The** *F***-statistic** determines what constitutes a large reduction or a small reduction in the sum of squared errors:

$$\mathcal{F} = \frac{\left(SSE_R - SSE_U\right)/J}{SSE_U/\left(N - K\right)},\tag{36}$$

TESTING JOINT HYPOTHESES

where:

- \blacktriangleright J is the number of restrictions,
- \blacktriangleright N is the number of observations,
- \blacktriangleright K is the number of coefficients in the unrestricted model,
- SSE_R is sum of squared error in **restricted** model,
- SSE_U is sum of squared error in **unrestricted** model,
- If the null is true then the \mathcal{F} -statistic has an \mathcal{F} -distribution with J numerator degrees of freedom and N K denominator degrees of freedom.
- If the null can be rejected then, the differences in sum of squared errors between restricted model (SSE_R) and unrestricted model (SSE_U) become large.
 - In other words, the imposed restriction significantly reduce the ability of the model to fit the data.
- \blacksquare The $\mathcal F\text{-test}$ can also be used in many application:
 - ► Testing economic hypotheses.

- ▶ Testing the significance of the model.
- Excluding/including a set of explanatory variables.
- \blacksquare Alternatively, the ${\mathcal W}$ statistics can be used which is defined as

$$\mathcal{W} = J\mathcal{F},\tag{37}$$

and \mathcal{W} is χ^2 distributed with the *J* degrees of freedom.

 \blacksquare Multiple regression model with K explanatory variable:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_2 x_k + \varepsilon.$$
(38)

• Test of the overall significance of the regression model. The null hypothesis:

$$\mathcal{H}_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \ldots = \beta_k = 0, \tag{39}$$

while the alternative is that at least one coefficient is different from 0.

In this test the restricted model:

$$y = \beta_0, \tag{40}$$

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which implies that $SSE_R = SST$.

 \blacksquare Thus, the $\mathcal F$ -statistic in the overall significance test can be written as:

$$\mathcal{F} = \frac{\left(SST - SSE\right)/K}{SSE/\left(N - K - 1\right)}.$$
(41)

Testing joint hypotheses

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General notation:

$$\mathbf{R} \times \beta = q, \tag{42}$$

where **R** is the $J \times (K + 1)$ matrix describing linear restriction and q is the vector of intercepts in each restriction.

Example #1: test of the overall significance of the regression model:

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad q = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example #2: the following restrictions

- **1.** $\beta_1 = \beta_3$
- **2.** $\beta_2 = \nu$
- **3.** $\beta_1 + \beta_4 = \gamma$.

can be described as

$$\mathbf{R} = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \quad \text{and} \quad q = \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \nu \\ \gamma \end{array} \right]$$

- If a single restriction is considered bot t and \mathcal{F} statistics can be used,
- The results will be identical.
- This is due to an exact relationship between t- and \mathcal{F} -distributions. The square of a t random variable with df degrees of freedom is an \mathcal{F} random variable with 1 degree of freedom in the numerator and df degrees of freedom in the denominator.

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- In many cases we have information over and above the information contained in the sample observation.
- This **non-sample** information can be taken from e.g. economic theory.
- [Example] Production function. Consider the regression of logged output (y) on logged capital (k) and logged labor input (l):

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 k + \beta_2 l + \varepsilon. \tag{43}$$

The natural assumption to verify is constant return to scale (CRS). In this case:

$$\beta_1 + \beta_2 = 1. \tag{44}$$

Delta method

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Delta method

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Delta method I

- Delta method is the popular strategy for estimating variance for nonlinear function of the parameters.
- Key assumption: the $g(\beta)$ is the nonlinear continuous function of the parameters.
- Taylor expansion around true value of the parameters, i.e., β :

$$g(\hat{\beta}) = g(\beta) + \left(\frac{\partial g(\beta)}{\partial \beta}\right)' (\hat{\beta} - \beta) + o(||\hat{\beta} - \beta||), \tag{45}$$

where

$$\frac{\partial g(\beta)}{\partial \beta} = \left[\frac{\partial g}{\partial \beta_1}, \frac{\partial g}{\partial \beta_K}, \dots, \frac{\partial g}{\partial \beta_K}\right]'.$$
(46)

After manipulation

$$g(\hat{\beta}) - g(\beta) = \left(\frac{\partial g(\beta)}{\partial \beta}\right)' (\hat{\beta} - \beta) + o(||\hat{\beta} - \beta||), \tag{47}$$

and taking the variance

$$var\left(g(\hat{\beta}) - g(\beta)\right) = \left(\frac{\partial g(\beta)}{\partial \beta}\right)' var\left(\hat{\beta}\right) \left(\frac{\partial g(\beta)}{\partial \beta}\right). \tag{48}$$

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