Exact Tests in the Classical Normal Linear Model

Consider the classical normal linear model

$$\boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{u}, \quad \boldsymbol{u} \sim \mathrm{N}(\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}), \tag{1}$$

where *X* is $N \times k$, and *u* is statistically independent of *X*.

In other words, all of the regressors in *X* are exogenous.

To test a single restriction, partition β as $[\beta_1 \vdots \beta_2]$, where β_1 is a (k-1)-vector and β_2 is a scalar.

When *X* is partitioned conformably with β , (1) can be rewritten as

$$\boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{X}_1 \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + \boldsymbol{\beta}_2 \boldsymbol{x}_2 + \boldsymbol{u}, \quad \boldsymbol{u} \sim \mathrm{N}(\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}), \tag{2}$$

where X_1 is $N \times (k-1)$ and x_2 is an *N*-vector, with $X = [X_1 \ x_2]$.

By the FWL Theorem, the OLS estimate of β_2 from (2) is the same as the OLS estimate from the FWL regression

$$M_1 y = \beta_2 M_1 x_2 + \text{residuals}, \tag{3}$$

where $M_1 \equiv I - X_1 (X_1^{\top} X_1)^{-1} X_1^{\top}$ is the matrix that projects on to $S^{\perp}(X_1)$. Here M_1 is short for M_{X_1} .

To test the hypothesis that $\beta_2 = \beta_2^0$, we have to subtract β_2^0 from $\hat{\beta}_2$ and divide by the square root of the variance, where

$$\hat{\beta}_2 = \frac{x_2^{\top} M_1 y}{x_2^{\top} M_1 x_2}$$
 and $\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = \sigma^2 (x_2^{\top} M_1 x_2)^{-1}$. (4)

Of course, the variance here depends on σ^2 , which is unknown. In practice, we will need to replace it by s^2 .

But let us assume, for a little while, that we know σ^2 . This will yield a test statistic that is usually infeasible.

For a test of $\beta_2 = 0$, the infeasible test statistic is

$$z_{\beta_2} \equiv \frac{\boldsymbol{x}_2^\top \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{y}}{\sigma(\boldsymbol{x}_2^\top \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{x}_2)^{1/2}}.$$
(5)

If the data are actually generated by the model (2) with $\beta_2 = 0$, then

$$M_1 y = M_1 (X_1 \beta_1 + u) = M_1 u.$$
 (6)

Therefore, the right-hand side of equation (5) becomes

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{x}_2^\top \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{u}}{\sigma(\boldsymbol{x}_2^\top \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{x}_2)^{1/2}}.$$
(7)

We want to show that $z_{\beta_2} \sim N(0, 1)$. This requires that the numerator of (7) be normally distributed with variance equal to the square of the denominator.

The numerator is just a linear combination of the components of u, which is multivariate normal, so z_{β_2} must be normally distributed. The variance of the numerator of (7) is

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x}_{2}^{\top}\boldsymbol{M}_{1}\boldsymbol{u}\boldsymbol{u}^{\top}\boldsymbol{M}_{1}\boldsymbol{x}_{2}) = \mathbf{x}_{2}^{\top}\boldsymbol{M}_{1}\mathbf{E}(\boldsymbol{u}\boldsymbol{u}^{\top})\boldsymbol{M}_{1}\boldsymbol{x}_{2}$$
(8)

$$= \boldsymbol{x}_2^\top \boldsymbol{M}_1 \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{x}_2 = \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{x}_2^\top \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{x}_2.$$
(9)

Since the denominator of (7) is just the square root of the variance of the numerator, $z_{\beta_2} \sim N(0, 1)$ under the null hypothesis.

- In practice, of course, we very rarely know σ^2 .
- We need to replace σ in (5) by *s*, the standard error of (2).
- Recall that $s^2 = y^T M_X y / (N k) = SSR / (N k)$.
- Because *s*² is random and not equal to *σ*², the *t* statistic does not follow the N(0, 1) distribution in finite samples.
- Instead, it follows the t(N k) distribution.

$$t_{\beta_2} \equiv \frac{\mathbf{x}_2^{\top} \mathbf{M}_1 \mathbf{y}}{s(\mathbf{x}_2^{\top} \mathbf{M}_1 \mathbf{x}_2)^{1/2}} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{y}^{\top} \mathbf{M}_X \mathbf{y}}{N-k}\right)^{-1/2} \frac{\mathbf{x}_2^{\top} \mathbf{M}_1 \mathbf{y}}{(\mathbf{x}_2^{\top} \mathbf{M}_1 \mathbf{x}_2)^{1/2}}.$$
 (10)

If a test statistic has the t(N - k) distribution, we can write it as the ratio of a standard normal variable z to the square root of $\zeta/(N - k)$, where ζ is independent of z and distributed as $\chi^2(N - k)$.

The *t* statistic (10) can be rewritten as

$$t_{\beta_2} = (\sigma/s) z_{\beta_2} = \frac{z_{\beta_2}}{\left(y^{\mathsf{T}} M_X y / ((N-k)\sigma^2) \right)^{1/2}}.$$
 (11)

We have already shown that $z_{\beta_2} \sim N(0, 1)$. It remains to show that $y^{\top}M_X y/\sigma^2 \sim \chi^2(N-k)$ and that the numerator and denominator of (11) are independent.

Under any DGP that belongs to (2),

$$\frac{y^{\top}M_Xy}{\sigma^2} = \frac{u^{\top}M_Xu}{\sigma^2} = \epsilon^{\top}M_X\epsilon, \text{ where } \epsilon \equiv u/\sigma \sim N(0, I).$$
(12)

Since M_X is a projection matrix with rank N - k, $\epsilon^T M_X \epsilon$ in (12) is distributed as $\chi^2(N - k)$ by part 2 of Theorem 4.1.

Note that $\epsilon^{\top} M_X \epsilon$ depends on *y* only through $M_X y$.

 z_{β_2} depends on *y* only through *P*_{*X*}*y*, since

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{2}^{\top}\boldsymbol{M}_{1}\boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{x}_{2}^{\top}\boldsymbol{P}_{X}\boldsymbol{M}_{1}\boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{x}_{2}^{\top}(\boldsymbol{P}_{X} - \boldsymbol{P}_{X}\boldsymbol{P}_{1})\boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{x}_{2}^{\top}\boldsymbol{M}_{1}\boldsymbol{P}_{X}\boldsymbol{y}.$$
 (13)

The first equality uses the fact that $x_2 \in S(X)$. The third equality uses the fact that $P_X P_1 = P_1 P_X$.

We know that $M_X y = M_X u$ and $P_X y = X\beta + P_X u$.

The $N \times N$ matrix of covariances of the components of $P_X u$ and $M_X u$ is

$$\mathsf{E}(\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{X}}\boldsymbol{u}\boldsymbol{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{M}_{\boldsymbol{X}}) = \sigma^{2}\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{X}}\boldsymbol{M}_{\boldsymbol{X}} = \mathbf{O}, \tag{14}$$

because P_X and M_X are complementary projections.

- The vectors $P_X u$ and $M_X u$ have zero covariance because they lie in orthogonal subspaces, namely, the images of P_X and M_X .
- Zero covariance implies that $P_X u$ and $M_X u$ are independent, since they are multivariate normal.
- Even though the numerator and denominator of (11) both depend on *y*, they are independent.

Conclusion: The *t* statistic for $\beta_2 = 0$ in (2) follows the t(N - k) distribution under the null hypothesis.

- One-tailed and two-tailed tests based on t_{β2} are almost the same as ones based on z_{β2}.
- We use the t(N k) distribution instead of the standard normal distribution to compute *P* values or critical values.
- Both critical values and *P* values based on *t*(*N*−*k*) will be larger than ones based on N(0, 1), because the randomness in *s* causes *t*_{β2} to be more spread out than *z*_{β2}.

Tests of Several Restrictions

Suppose there are *r* restrictions, with $r \le k$, of the form $\beta_2 = 0$. The alternative hypothesis is the model

H₁:
$$\boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{X}_1 \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + \boldsymbol{X}_2 \boldsymbol{\beta}_2 + \boldsymbol{u}, \quad \boldsymbol{u} \sim N(\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}).$$
 (15)

Here X_1 is $N \times k_1$, X_2 is $N \times k_2$, β_1 is a k_1 -vector, β_2 is a k_2 -vector, $k = k_1 + k_2$, and the number of restrictions $r = k_2$.

The null hypothesis is the model

H₀:
$$\boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{X}_1 \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + \boldsymbol{u}, \quad \boldsymbol{u} \sim N(\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}).$$
 (16)

If USSR = $y^{\top}M_X y$, from (15), and RSSR = $y^{\top}M_1 y$, from (16), then the *F* **statistic**, which is distributed as F(r, N - k), is

$$F_{\beta_2} \equiv \frac{(\text{RSSR} - \text{USSR})/r}{\text{USSR}/(N-k)}.$$
(17)

The USSR can be computed from the FWL regression

$$M_1 y = M_1 X_2 \beta_2 + \text{residuals.} \tag{18}$$

The TSS from this regression is $y^T M_1 y$, the ESS is $y^T M_1 P_{M_1 X_2} M_1 y$, and so the SSR is

$$\mathrm{USSR} = \boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{X}_2 (\boldsymbol{X}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{X}_2)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{y}. \tag{19}$$

Therefore,

$$\operatorname{RSSR} - \operatorname{USSR} = \boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{X}_2 (\boldsymbol{X}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{X}_2)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{y}, \qquad (20)$$

and the F statistic (17) can be written as

$$F_{\boldsymbol{\beta}_2} = \frac{\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{X}_2 (\boldsymbol{X}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{X}_2)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{y} / \boldsymbol{r}}{\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{y} / (N-k)}.$$
 (21)

In general, $M_X y = M_X u$. Under the null, $M_1 y = M_1 u$, and so

$$F_{\beta_2} = \frac{\epsilon^{\top} M_1 X_2 (X_2^{\top} M_1 X_2)^{-1} X_2^{\top} M_1 \epsilon / r}{\epsilon^{\top} M_X \epsilon / (N-k)},$$
(22)

where, as before, $\epsilon \equiv u/\sigma$.

The denominator of (22) is 1/(N-k) times something that is distributed as $\chi^2(N-k)$.

The quadratic form in the numerator is $\epsilon^{\top} P_{M_1X_2}\epsilon$. It must be distributed as $\chi^2(r)$ because $P_{M_1X_2}$ is a projection matrix with rank r. The two χ^2 random variables are independent, because M_X and $P_{M_1X_2}$ project on to mutually orthogonal subspaces:

$$M_X M_1 X_2 = M_X (X_2 - P_1 X_2) = \mathbf{O}.$$
 (23)

Thus (22) is distributed as F(r, N - k) under H_0 .

F Tests and *t* Tests

When there is just one restriction, the F statistic (21) is equal to the square of the t statistic (10).

The numerator of (21) simplifies to

$$\boldsymbol{y}^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{x}_2 (\boldsymbol{x}_2^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{x}_2)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_2^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{y} = \frac{(\boldsymbol{x}_2^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{y})^2}{\boldsymbol{x}_2^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{x}_2}, \qquad (24)$$

which is the square of the second factor in (10). The square root of the denominator of (21) is

$$\left(\frac{\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{M}_{\boldsymbol{X}}\boldsymbol{y}}{N-k}\right)^{1/2}.$$
(25)

Combining the signed square root of (24) with (25), we get (10):

$$\sqrt{F_{\beta_2}} = \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{y}^\top \boldsymbol{M}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \boldsymbol{y}}{N-k}\right)^{-1/2} \frac{\boldsymbol{x}_2^\top \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{y}}{(\boldsymbol{x}_2^\top \boldsymbol{M}_1 \boldsymbol{x}_2)^{1/2}}.$$
 (26)

Examples of the *F* Test

1. Testing Slope Coefficients in a Classical Normal Linear Model The null hypothesis H_0 is that $\beta_2 = 0$ in the model

$$\boldsymbol{y} = \beta_1 \boldsymbol{\iota} + \boldsymbol{X}_2 \boldsymbol{\beta}_2 + \boldsymbol{u}, \quad \boldsymbol{u} \sim \mathrm{N}(\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}), \tag{27}$$

where ι is an *N*-vector of 1s and X_2 is $N \times (k-1)$.

The test statistic (21) becomes

$$F_{\boldsymbol{\beta}_2} = \frac{\boldsymbol{y}^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_{\iota} \boldsymbol{X}_2 (\boldsymbol{X}_2^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_{\iota} \boldsymbol{X}_2)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_2^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_{\iota} \boldsymbol{y} / (k-1)}{\left(\boldsymbol{y}^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_{\iota} \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{y}^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_{\iota} \boldsymbol{X}_2 (\boldsymbol{X}_2^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_{\iota} \boldsymbol{X}_2)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_2^{\top} \boldsymbol{M}_{\iota} \boldsymbol{y}\right) / (N-k)}.$$
 (28)

The matrix expression in the numerator here is just the ESS from the FWL regression

$$M_{\iota}y = M_{\iota}X_{2}\beta_{2}$$
 + residuals. (29)

The matrix expression in the denominator of (28) is the TSS from this regression, minus the ESS.

Since the centered R^2 from (27) is just the ratio of ESS to TSS,

$$F_{\beta_2} = \frac{N-k}{k-1} \times \frac{R_c^2}{1-R_c^2}.$$
 (30)

But you should never compute F_{β_2} in this way!

2. Testing the Equality of Two Parameter Vectors

We can often divide a sample into two, or possibly more than two, subsamples.

We can ask whether a linear regression model has the same coefficients for both subsamples. The test is often called a **Chow test**.

Suppose there are two subsamples, of lengths N_1 and N_2 , with $N = N_1 + N_2$, and both N_1 and N_2 are greater than k. Examples.

We can write

$$y \equiv \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
, and $X \equiv \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{bmatrix}$, (31)

where y_1 and y_2 are an N_1 -vector and an N_2 -vector, while X_1 and X_2 are $N_1 \times k$ and $N_2 \times k$ matrices.

We can put the subsamples together in the regression model

$$\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{y}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{X}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{X}_2 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{O} \\ \boldsymbol{X}_2 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\gamma} + \boldsymbol{u}, \quad \boldsymbol{u} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}).$$
(32)

In the first subsample, the regression functions are the components of $X_1\beta_1$. In the second, they are the components of $X_2(\beta_1 + \gamma)$.

Thus γ is defined as $\beta_2 - \beta_1$.

Define **Z** as an $N \times k$ matrix with **O** in its first N_1 rows and X_2 in the remaining N_2 rows.

Then (32) can be rewritten as

$$\boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + \boldsymbol{Z}\boldsymbol{\gamma} + \boldsymbol{u}, \quad \boldsymbol{u} \sim \mathrm{N}(\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}). \tag{33}$$

This model has *N* observations and 2k regressors. The null hypothesis is now a set of *k* zero restrictions, that $\beta_2 - \beta_1 = \gamma = 0$.

We could run (33) to get the USSR, and then run the restricted model, which is just the regression of y on X, to get the RSSR.

But USSR is just the sum of the two SSRs from the two subsample regressions, say SSR_1 and SSR_2 .

If RSSR denotes the SSR from regressing y on X, then

$$F_{\gamma} = \frac{(\text{RSSR} - \text{SSR}_1 - \text{SSR}_2)/k}{(\text{SSR}_1 + \text{SSR}_2)/(N - 2k)}.$$
(34)

This **Chow statistic** is distributed as F(k, N - 2k) under the null hypothesis that $\beta_1 = \beta_2$.