

# Learn How to Test for Heteroscedasticity with the Goldfeld-Quandt Test in Python

Authored by  
**Mohammed loot**

October 26, 2025

## RECOMMENDED CITATION

Mohammed loot (2025). *Learn How to Test for Heteroscedasticity with the Goldfeld-Quandt Test in Python*. PSYCHOLOGICAL STATISTICS. Retrieved from <https://statistics.arabpsychology.com/?p=3796>

In the crucial field of statistical modeling, particularly when employing [linear regression](#) techniques, the reliability of our conclusions rests heavily on satisfying several core assumptions. One of the most fundamental requirements is [homoscedasticity](#). This condition dictates that the [variance](#) of the [residuals](#)--the differences between observed and predicted values--must remain constant across all observations and all levels of the [predictor variables](#). When this assumption is violated, we encounter a severe methodological issue known as [heteroscedasticity](#).

[Heteroscedasticity](#) describes a situation where the scatter or spread of the [residuals](#) changes systematically with the magnitude of the [response variable](#) or the predictors in a [regression model](#). The presence of unequal [variance](#) does not bias the [coefficient estimates](#) themselves, but it fundamentally distorts the calculation of the [standard errors](#). This, in turn, invalidates the resulting [p-values](#) and [confidence intervals](#), thereby compromising the entire foundation of statistical inference drawn from the model. Therefore, identifying and addressing this violation is paramount for producing reliable research.

To formally diagnose this problem, statisticians rely on powerful diagnostic tools. Among the most well-established and robust methods is the [Goldfeld-Quandt test](#). This comprehensive tutorial provides a detailed, practical walkthrough, demonstrating exactly how to execute the [Goldfeld-Quandt test](#) efficiently within the [Python](#) environment, utilizing the capabilities of the widely trusted [statsmodels](#) library. By following these steps, you will gain the ability to verify the homoscedasticity assumption in your own models and ensure the trustworthiness of your quantitative findings.

## Understanding Heteroscedasticity and the Goldfeld-Quandt Test Mechanism

A deep understanding of [heteroscedasticity](#) is essential for anyone engaged in serious quantitative modeling. The ideal state in [linear regression models](#) is [homoscedasticity](#), where the [variance](#) of the [error terms](#) (or [residuals](#)) remains unchanging across the full range of the independent variables. This stability is one of the core assumptions underpinning [Ordinary Least Squares \(OLS\) regression](#), a method prized for its simplicity and the best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE) property it guarantees when assumptions hold.

When [heteroscedasticity](#) takes root, the [residual variance](#) systematically changes, often increasing or decreasing as the values of the [independent variables](#) or the predicted outcomes shift. Visually, this often manifests in a residual plot as a clear "funnel" or "cone" shape, indicating that the predictive accuracy of the model varies widely depending on where you are in the data distribution. While the coefficient estimates themselves are not systematically biased by this issue, the standard procedures for calculating the uncertainty around these estimates (the [standard errors](#)) are flawed, leading to misstated [p-values](#) and unreliable [confidence intervals](#).

The [Goldfeld-Quandt test](#) is explicitly designed to detect this systematic change in [variance](#). The test operates by strategically dividing the entire set of observations into two distinct subgroups.

These subgroups are typically defined by sorting the data based on a potential source of heteroscedasticity (usually one of the predictor variables or the fitted values) and then partitioning the data into lower and upper sections, often discarding a portion of the middle observations to enhance the statistical power of the comparison.

Once divided, the [Goldfeld-Quandt test](#) fits separate [OLS regression models](#) to each of the two sub-samples. The test then compares the ratio of the unexplained [variance](#) (the sum of [residual squares](#)) from the two models using an [F-test](#). A large F-statistic, indicating a significant difference in [variance](#) between the two groups, serves as evidence to reject the null hypothesis of [homoscedasticity](#) and confirm the presence of [heteroscedasticity](#).

## Step 1: Preparing Your Dataset in Python

The successful execution of any statistical diagnostic, including the [Goldfeld-Quandt test](#), begins with meticulous data preparation. For the purposes of this tutorial, we will construct a synthetic [Pandas DataFrame](#) in [Python](#). This controlled [dataset](#), consisting of 13 observations, simulates a scenario where we investigate the factors influencing student performance, allowing us to accurately demonstrate the subsequent statistical modeling and testing steps.

Our sample [dataset](#) is structured with three core variables: 'hours' (representing the hours studied by the student), 'exams' (representing the number of preparatory exams taken), and 'score' (representing the final exam score, our outcome of interest). The variables 'hours' and 'exams' will function as our [predictor variables](#), while 'score' is designated as the [response variable](#). We must ensure the data is properly imported and structured before proceeding to model fitting. The following code snippet initializes this data structure:

```
import pandas as pd
```

```
#create DataFrame
```

```
df = pd.DataFrame({'hours': ,  
'exams': ,  
'score': })
```

```
#view DataFrame
```

```
print(df)
```

```
hours exams score  
0 1 1 76  
1 2 3 78  
2 2 3 85  
3 4 5 88
```

```
4 2 2 72
5 1 2 69
6 5 1 94
7 4 1 94
8 2 0 88
9 4 3 92
10 4 4 90
11 3 3 75
12 6 2 96
```

The code successfully generates our `df` Pandas DataFrame`, containing 13 rows of student data. It is vital to confirm that the data types and structure align with the expectations of the [statsmodels](#) library. This organized structure ensures that the subsequent [regression analysis](#) can be performed without structural errors, setting the stage for the diagnostic test.

## Step 2: Fitting a Multiple Linear Regression Model

Once the [dataset](#) is prepared, the next logical step in the diagnostic process is to fit the primary [multiple linear regression model](#). This model seeks to establish a linear relationship between our outcome, 'score', and our multiple predictors, 'hours' and 'exams'. We will leverage [statsmodels](#), the preferred [Python](#) library for statistical modeling, specifically using its implementation of [OLS regression](#).

A necessary precursor to fitting the [OLS](#) model is the inclusion of a constant term. This is handled easily in [Python](#) using the ``sm.add_constant()`` function. The constant term, or [intercept](#), is mathematically crucial as it allows the regression plane to shift vertically, capturing the expected mean of the [response variable](#) when all [predictor variables](#) are held at zero. We define our [response variable](#) ``y`` and our augmented matrix of [predictor variables](#) ``x`` before passing them to the model fitting function.

The [OLS](#) method calculates the [coefficients](#) that minimize the sum of the [squared residuals](#). This step is essential because the [Goldfeld-Quandt test](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Goldfeld%E2%80%93Quandt_test) relies entirely on the set of [residuals](#) generated by this fitted model. The quality of the [regression](#) itself (indicated by metrics like [R-squared](#)) provides context, but the primary output required here are the calculated [residuals](#), which will be analyzed for patterns of unequal [variance](#).

Executing the model fitting code provides us with a detailed summary:

```
import statsmodels.api as sm
```

```
#define predictor and response variables
```

```
y = df
```

```
x = df]
```

```
#add constant to predictor variables
```

```
x = sm.add_constant(x)
```

```
#fit linear regression model
```

```
model = sm.OLS(y, x).fit()
```

```
#view model summary
```

```
print(model.summary())
```

OLS Regression Results

```
=====
```

```
===
```

Dep. Variable: score R-squared: 0.718

Model: OLS Adj. R-squared: 0.661

Method: Least Squares F-statistic: 12.70

Date: Mon, 31 Oct 2022 Prob (F-statistic): 0.00180

Time: 09:22:56 Log-Likelihood: -38.618

No. Observations: 13 AIC: 83.24

Df Residuals: 10 BIC: 84.93

Df Model: 2

Covariance Type: nonrobust

```
=====
```

```
===
```

```
coef std err t P>|t|
```

```
-----
```

```
const 71.4048 4.001 17.847 0.000 62.490 80.319
```

```
hours 5.1275 1.018 5.038 0.001 2.860 7.395
```

```
exams -1.2121 1.147 -1.057 0.315 -3.768 1.344
```

```
=====
```

```
===
```

Omnibus: 1.103 Durbin-Watson: 1.248

Prob(Omnibus): 0.576 Jarque-Bera (JB): 0.803

Skew: -0.289 Prob(JB): 0.669

Kurtosis: 1.928 Cond. No. 11.7

```
=====
```

```
===
```

The resulting summary confirms that our model explains 71.8% of the variability in student scores ([R-squared](#) = 0.718). However, we must view the [standard errors](#) and [p-values](#) presented in the coefficient table with caution. If [heteroscedasticity](#) were present, these uncertainty estimates would be invalid. The following step addresses this crucial reliability check using the [Goldfeld-Quandt test](#).

### Step 3: Executing the Goldfeld-Quandt Test in Python

With our [linear regression model](#) successfully fitted, we now perform the formal diagnostic test for [heteroscedasticity](#). The [statsmodels](#) library provides the convenient function `het_goldfeldquandt()`, located within the `statsmodels.stats.diagnostic` module, specifically tailored for this rigorous statistical evaluation.

The [Goldfeld-Quandt test](#) requires sorting the [dataset](#) based on the variable suspected of causing the unequal [variance](#), which is automatically handled by the function if the predictor matrix `x` is provided. The key methodological step is the splitting of the data into three segments: a lower group, a central group that is dropped, and an upper group. Dropping the central observations is a deliberate strategy to maximize the difference in [variance](#) between the remaining two extreme groups, thereby increasing the power of the subsequent [F-test](#) comparison.

The parameter `drop` specifies the proportion of central observations to exclude. While the optimal proportion can vary, removing approximately 20% to 25% of the data from the middle is a widely accepted practice to ensure adequate separation and distinctness between the low-variance and high-variance regions (if heteroscedasticity exists). For our analysis, we utilize `drop=0.2`, excluding 20% of the observations to clearly compare the [variances](#) of the [residuals](#) generated by the two separate [OLS regression models](#) fitted to the remaining sub-samples. The input parameters required are the [response variable](#) `y` and the predictor matrix `x` from our fitted model.

```
#perform Goldfeld-Quandt test
```

```
sm.stats.diagnostic.het_goldfeldquandt(y, x, drop=0.2)
```

```
(1.7574505407790355, 0.38270288684680076, 'increasing')
```

The execution of the `het_goldfeldquandt()` function yields a tuple containing three crucial elements: the calculated [test statistic](#), the corresponding [p-value](#), and an indication of the direction of the alternative hypothesis (in this case, 'increasing' [variance](#)). Our output shows an F-statistic of approximately 1.757 and a [p-value](#) of about 0.383. This quantitative result is what we will use to make our formal statistical determination regarding the presence of [heteroscedasticity](#).

## Interpreting the Goldfeld-Quandt Test Results

The final step in the diagnostic process is interpreting the output of the [Goldfeld-Quandt test](#), which determines whether the assumption of [homoscedasticity](#) holds. The decision rests on comparing the calculated [p-value](#) against a predefined [significance level](#), conventionally set at  $\alpha = 0.05$ . The test is structured around the following formal hypotheses:

**Null Hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>):** The model exhibits [homoscedasticity](#). This means the [variance](#) of the [residuals](#) is constant across all observation groups.

**Alternative Hypothesis (H<sub>A</sub>):** [Heteroscedasticity](#) is present. This implies the [variance](#) of the [residuals](#) is not constant, and the 'increasing' output suggests the [variance](#) increases as the [predictor variable](#) values rise.

The decision rule is straightforward: if the [p-value](#) is less than  $\alpha$  (0.05), we reject H<sub>0</sub> and conclude that significant [heteroscedasticity](#) exists. Conversely, if the [p-value](#) is greater than  $\alpha$ , we fail to reject H<sub>0</sub>, suggesting the assumption of constant [variance](#) is reasonable for the data.

For our student score model, the [test statistic](#) is **1.757**, and the corresponding [p-value](#) is **0.383**. Since 0.383 is substantially greater than the conventional [significance level](#) of 0.05, we must fail to reject the [null hypothesis](#). The conclusion is that we lack sufficient statistical evidence to claim that [heteroscedasticity](#) is a significant issue in our multiple [regression model](#). We can proceed with interpreting the original [OLS regression](#) output with confidence in the reliability of its [standard errors](#).

## Addressing Heteroscedasticity: Remedial Measures

While our example data supported the assumption of [homoscedasticity](#), it is critical for any data practitioner to know how to proceed if the [Goldfeld-Quandt test](#) leads to the rejection of the [null hypothesis](#). A significant finding of [heteroscedasticity](#) mandates remediation, as ignoring it invalidates the statistical inference drawn from the [standard errors](#) and [p-values](#). Fortunately, several robust statistical methods exist to correct this issue without needing to discard the model entirely.

One primary method involves applying a [transformation](#) to the [response variable](#) (Y). Common [transformations](#) often used to stabilize [variance](#) include the [logarithm](#) (e.g., modeling  $\log(Y)$ ) or the [square root](#). The goal of this [transformation](#) is to compress the spread of larger values in the [response variable](#), thereby equalizing the [variance](#) of the [residuals](#) across the entire range of the predictors. Selecting the appropriate [transformation](#) often requires examining the pattern of [heteroscedasticity](#) observed in the residual plots.

A second, highly effective technique is utilizing [Weighted Least Squares \(WLS\) Regression](#).

Unlike [OLS](#), which treats all observations equally, [WLS](#) explicitly incorporates the unequal [variance](#) structure into the estimation process. It assigns a specific weight to each data point, typically defined as the inverse of the estimated [variance](#) of its error term. By giving less emphasis (lower weight) to observations associated with high [variance](#) and more emphasis (higher weight) to observations with low [variance](#), [WLS](#) produces efficient [coefficient estimates](#) that are not susceptible to the distortion caused by [heteroscedasticity](#).

The third widely accepted solution is the use of [Robust Standard Errors](#) (also known as [Heteroscedasticity-Consistent Standard Errors](#)). This approach offers a simple yet powerful fix: it corrects the [standard errors](#) without changing the original [coefficient estimates](#) derived from the [OLS](#) model. Robust standard errors mathematically adjust for the unequal scatter of the [residuals](#), allowing for valid hypothesis testing and statistical inference even when the assumption of [homoscedasticity](#) is severely violated. This method is often preferred when the exact form of the [heteroscedasticity](#) is complex or unknown.

## Further Exploration and Resources

Proficiency in [regression diagnostics](#) is an indispensable skill for rigorous quantitative analysis. The [Goldfeld-Quandt test](#) is a cornerstone tool, but it is part of a larger suite of diagnostic tests necessary to validate a model. Beyond testing for [heteroscedasticity](#), analysts must also routinely check for issues such as [autocorrelation](#) (dependence between consecutive errors) and [multicollinearity](#) (high correlation among predictors).

To deepen your expertise in statistical testing using [Python](#), you should explore alternative diagnostic methods. For instance, the [White's Test](#) is another powerful, general test for [heteroscedasticity](#) that does not require specifying the exact form of the non-constant [variance](#), making it particularly versatile. For those interested in executing this complementary method, the following resource details how to perform [White's Test](#) in [Python](#):

[How to Perform White's Test in Python](#)