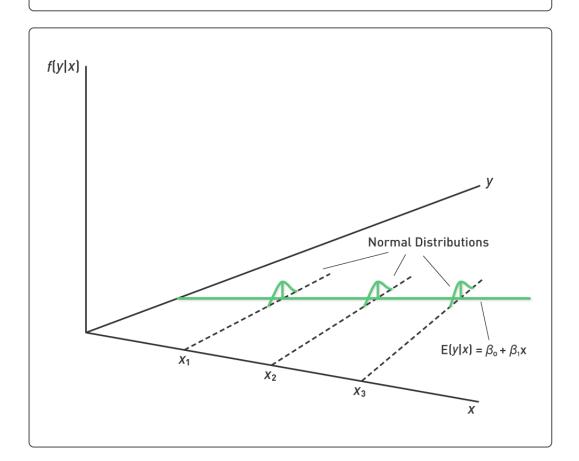
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Normal Error Term Assumption

To infer the sampling distribution of our OLS coefficients, we can add an assumption about the shape of the error distribution.

- Assumption MLR.6 (Normality of error terms)
 - $\circ \ u_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ independently of x_{i1} , x_{i2} , ..., x_{ik}
- Assume the errors are drawn from a normal distribution with mean zero.
- Also assume the errors are independent of our xs, so the distribution looks the same conditional on any values of the xs.



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Theory and Practice

- How realistic is the normality assumption?
- There is a purely theoretical argument that the error term is the sum of many different unobserved factors.
 - Sums of many independent factors are normally distributed by a version of the central limit theorem.
- Some problems:
 - How many different factors? Is the number great enough?
 - What if a few factors are more influential than others?
 - How independent are the different factors?

Theory and Practice (cont.)

- In practice, the residuals are often not normal at all.
 - E.g., if there is a highly skewed *y* variable, the errors are often skewed as well.
- We will soon discuss how to test for normality.
- For now, bear in mind that this is a rather strong assumption.

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Classical Linear Model Assumptions

- When normality is added to the five Gauss-Markov assumptions, the resulting collection is known as the classical linear model (CLM).
 - MLR.1-MLR.5: Gauss-Markov assumptions
 - MLR.1–MLR.6: classical linear model (CLM) assumptions
- Theorem 4.1 (Normal sampling distributions) states:
 - Under assumptions MLR.1–MLR.6, the OLS coefficients are normally distributed.

$$\circ \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{j} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{j}, \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{j}))$$

- Each β_i is normally distributed around the true parameter.
 - $\circ~$ We already calculated the variance of $\beta_j^{}$ earlier, so we know the exact distribution.

Standardizing the Distribution

- How can normality be used to test hypotheses?
- First, normalize the estimator by subtracting its mean and dividing by its standard deviation.

$$\circ \frac{\beta_j - \beta_j}{sd(\hat{\beta}_j)} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- This provides the standard normal distribution.
- No matter what the true parameters are, we always get the exact same distribution.

Standardizing the Distribution (cont.)

- In practice, we don't know the standard deviation to put in the denominator.
 - It has to be estimated using the standard error of the sample.
- This changes the normal distribution to a *t*-distribution.

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_{j} - \hat{\beta}_{j}}{se(\hat{\beta}_{j})} \sim t_{n-k-1}$$

 The t-distribution is similar to a normal distribution, but the process of estimation introduces more variance and makes the tails of the distribution heavier.

Formulating a Null Hypothesis

- Most of the time, our null will be that the population parameter is equal to zero.
 - \circ Controlling for all other independent variables, there is no effect of x_j on y.
- $H_0: \beta_j = 0$
- We are working in the frequentist framework.
 - Our null hypothesis is specific enough (given our population model) to identify the distribution of our standardized coefficient.

$$\circ \frac{\beta_{j}}{se(\hat{\beta}_{j})} \sim t_{n-k-1}$$

• It is distributed according to a *t*-distribution and so it's called a *t*-statistic.

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The t-Statistic

- We collect our data and compute our OLS estimate, $oldsymbol{eta}_i$
- The farther our estimate is from zero, the more evidence we have against our null hypothesis, but we have to normalize by a measure of variability.
- We therefore divide by an estimate of standard deviation to get our *t*-statistic,

$$\circ t_{\hat{\beta}_{j}} \frac{\beta_{j}}{se(\hat{\beta}_{j})} \sim t_{n-k-1}$$

- The *t*-statistic measures how many estimated standard deviations the estimated coefficient is away from zero.
- It is distributed according to a *t*-distribution, so we can talk about how significant the difference is.

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