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Nagpurnanand R. Prabhala
Maryland

Abstract

- Conditional event-study methods: standard event-study procedures are misspecified if
 - Events are voluntary and
 - Investors are rational
- However, this paper argues that standard procedures
 - Provides statistically valid inferences and
 - Are superior even under the rational expectations specifications (by conditional methods papers)
- Displays an equilibrium justification; Suggests a link between conditional versus standard models

Intro

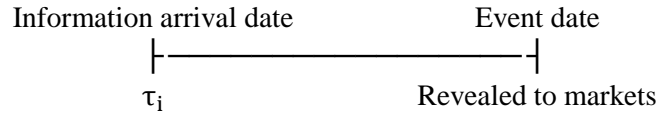
- Event studies test
 - Existence of an information effect
 - Factors that explains changes in firm value on the event date
- Fama et al. (1969, IER)
 - Significance of a stock-price reaction on the event date
 - Linear regression to identify factors that explain the cross-section of announcement effects
- Conditional methods: Acharya (1998, JF; 1993, JF), Eckbo, Maksimovic and Williams (1990, RFS)
 - Traditional methods are misspecified in a rational expectations context
 - Unexpected portion of such information should determine the stock-price reaction to the event
 - Resulting nonlinear cross-sectional regressions: conventional methods should not be used

- This paper displays
 - Simple exposition of conditional methods (specifically, their economic content)
 - Traditional techniques are misspecified, but still valid under usual conditions
 - For example, under Acharya's setup, (1) FFJR method is still valid and (2) the conventional cross-sectional method yields parameter estimates proportional to the true model parameters
 - Equilibrium justification for the conventional event-study procedures
 - Choice between conventional vs. conditional: depends on the \exists of NE firms in the data
 - If \exists NE samples: conditional $>$ conventional
 - If \nexists NE samples: conditional \sim conventional

1. Conditional Methods

- Empirical procedure for carrying out event studies
 1. Estimate the unexpected information that the event reveals (for each firm)
 2. Compute the cross-correlation between information and abnormal return

τ_i = the information arrives at firm i on an information arrival date
 = subsequently revealed to markets via the event on an event date



- Three possible assumptions
 1. (assumption) Markets know that τ_i has arrived at firm i before the event (Acharya, 1988)
 2. Markets don't know the arrival (Eckbo, Maksimovic and Williams, 1990)
 3. Market assess a probability $p \in (0,1)$ that τ_i has arrived at firm i (Prabhala, 1997)

Under Assumption 1 (Acharya, 1988)

$$E_{-1}[\tau_i] = \underline{\theta}' \underline{x}_i = \theta^T x_i, \quad \text{where } x_i = \text{firm specific variables}$$

$$\psi_i = \tau_i - E_{-1}[\tau_i], \quad \text{where } \psi_i = \text{firm } i\text{'s private information}$$

The firm's decision depends on its information τ_i (endogenous choice of firms)

$$E \Leftrightarrow \tau_i \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow \psi_i + \theta^T x_i \geq 0$$

$$NE \Leftrightarrow \tau_i < 0 \Leftrightarrow \psi_i + \theta^T x_i < 0$$

- Firm i 's choice between E and NE partially reveals its private information ψ_i
- If \exists an information effect, abnormal returns should be related to unexpected information
 4. (assumption) Investors are risk-neutral towards the event risk
 5. Conditioning information is a linear signal of expected return, i.e. $E(r_i|\psi) = \pi\psi_i$

Hence if \exists an information effect, then π should be significant in the following nonlinear specifications

$$\underbrace{E[\varepsilon_i|E]}_{\text{expected abnormal return}} = \underbrace{\pi E[\psi_i|E]}_{\text{by Assumption 5}} = \pi E[\psi_i | \theta^T x_i + \psi_i \geq 0] = \pi \underbrace{E[\psi_i | \psi_i \geq -\theta^T x_i]}_{\text{truncated}}$$

$$\text{If } \psi_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2), \quad \text{then } E[\varepsilon_i|E] = \pi \sigma \underbrace{\frac{n(\theta^T x_i / \sigma)}{N(\theta^T x_i / \sigma)}}_{\text{revealed information}} = \pi \sigma \underbrace{\lambda_E(\theta^T x_i / \sigma)}_{\text{revealed information}}$$

Acharya (1988)

- Two tests are possible though Acharya's model
 - \exists information effect: Significant π indicates the \exists of an information effect
 - Factors explaining announcement effect: Significant θ implies that \mathbf{x}_j can explain ε_i

Note that

$$E[\psi_i | \psi_i \geq -\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i] = E[Z | Z \geq -\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma] = \frac{n(-\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma)}{1 - N(-\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma)} \sigma = \frac{\overbrace{n(-c)=n(c)}^{n(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma)}}{\underbrace{N(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma)}_{1 - N(-c)=N(c)}}$$

Under Assumption 2 (Eckbo, Maksimovic and Williams, 1990)

$$E[\varepsilon_i | E] = \pi E[\tau_i | E] = \pi E[\tau_i | \tau_i \geq 0] = \pi [\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i + \sigma \lambda_E(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma)] = \underbrace{\pi \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i + \pi \sigma \lambda_E(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma)}_{\text{truncated regression}}$$

- In Acharya's model, the price incorporates the unconditional expectation $\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i$ prior to the event
 - In EMV model, pre-event expectations were not formed; hence $\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i$ appears on the event date
- Under Assumption 3 (Prabhala, 1997): nests both Acharya and EMW cases

$$E[\varepsilon_i | E] = \underbrace{\pi(1-p)\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i + \sigma \lambda_E(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma)}_{\text{truncated regression}} = \begin{cases} \text{Acharya's model,} & \text{as } p \rightarrow 1 \\ \text{EMW model,} & \text{as } p \rightarrow 0 \end{cases}$$

This paper hereafter focuses on Acharya's model.

2. On Inferences Via Traditional Methods

- Even when event-study data are generated exactly under Acharya's environment
 - FFJR procedure is well-specified as a test for \exists of information effect (i.e. $H_0: \pi=0$)
 - Traditional cross-sectional procedure yields β s proportional to the true cross-sectional θ s
 - Misspecification problem may not be as serious as the previous paper suggests

Recall Acharya's specification

$$E[\varepsilon_i | E] = \pi \sigma \lambda_E(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma), \quad \dots (7)$$

The specification of conventional methods

$$E[\varepsilon_i | E] = \beta_0 + \beta^T \mathbf{x}_i, \quad \dots (12)$$

Pivotal question: Are β related in some way to the true parameters θ ?

- The true slope s_j of (7) is attenuated relative to θ_j .

$$s_j = \frac{\partial E[\varepsilon_i | E]}{\partial x_{ij}} = -\theta_j \times \underbrace{\pi_{\in(-1,1)} \times \lambda_E\left(\frac{\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i}{\sigma}\right) \left[\lambda_E\left(\frac{\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i}{\sigma}\right) + \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i \right]}_{=\delta(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma) \in (0,1)}$$

- Each β_j has the opposite sign of θ_j if $\pi > 1$
- Underestimation is greater if $|\pi|$ is small (i.e. low announcement effect)
- Underestimation is greater if $\delta(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i / \sigma)$ is small (i.e. highly anticipated events)

- Proposition 1**
- (1) E occurs iff $\theta_0 + \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i + \psi > 0$
 - (2) Information ψ and abnormal return ε are bivariate Normal with correlation π and marginal distributions $N(0, 1^2)$
 - (3) Regressor \mathbf{x}_i is multivariate Normal, independent of ψ

$$\text{then } \beta_j = -\theta_j \pi \frac{(1 - R^2)(1 - t)}{t + (1 - R^2)(1 - t)} = -\theta_j \pi \mu$$

$$\text{where } t = \frac{\text{Var}[\tau|E]}{\text{Var}[\tau]}, \quad \tau = \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i + \psi$$

$R^2 = R^2$ in the population regression of τ on \mathbf{x}_i

$$\mu = \frac{(1 - R^2)(1 - t)}{t + (1 - R^2)(1 - t)}, \quad \text{proportionality factor}$$

- The term μ represents the unexpected component of information τ revealed by event E
- Also represents the fraction of information τ that remains in event E
 - μ is small when the event reveals little information
 - μ is large for highly surprising events

Lemma 1 (1) $0 < \mu < 1$

(2) μ is small when event E is highly anticipated

- Downward bias: $|\beta_j| \leq |\theta_j|$
- Opposite sign: $\text{sign}(\beta_j) \neq \text{sign}(\theta_j)$
- More attenuation when $|\pi|$ is small (i.e. low announcement impact)
- More attenuation when E are highly anticipated (i.e. not surprising event)
- Overall, Proposition 1 implies that the traditional cross-sectional procedure may be used for cross-sectional inferences in event studies
- Specifically, tests for β are equivalent to tests for θ of the conditional model

3. Issues in Choosing Event-Study Methodology

- Then what do we have to choose? Traditional model? Conditional model?
 - All assumptions are satisfied
 - If data have both E and NE, then Conditional > Traditional
 - If data only have E, then Traditional > Conditional
 - NE data include
 - 1) Set of firms that were anticipated to announce but chose not to announce the event
 - 2) The time when markets learn of the non-announcement
 - 3) Cross-sectional and announcement effect data on this date
 - Usually such information cannot be obtained: Lanen and Thompson (1988, JAE)
 - Some assumptions are not satisfied
 - Non-Normality of the private information ψ
 - Noise in announcement effect (difficult to isolate the portion attributable to announcement)
 - Cross-sectional correlation: Brown and Warner (1985, JFE)

- Computational issues
 - If we have both E and NE
 - 1) ML
 - 2) NLS
 - 3) Two-step procedure (Heckman, 1979): Estimate $\hat{\theta}$, $\hat{\lambda}_C(\cdot)$ by Probit and \hat{w} by OLS
 - ✓ Free from the noise in announcement-effect data
 - ✓ Simple and consistent, but inefficient (just slightly)
 - If we only have E
 - 1) Two-step procedure is unavailable
 - 2) Must be estimated via ML or NLS, but computationally expensive

4. Experiment Design

1. Event

$$\begin{aligned}
 E &\Leftrightarrow \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_{1i} + \theta_2 x_{2i} + \psi_i \geq 0 \\
 NE &\Leftrightarrow \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_{1i} + \theta_2 x_{2i} + \psi_i < 0 \\
 \theta_0 &= 1, \quad \theta_2 = -1, \quad \theta_2 = .01 \\
 x_{2i} &\sim \text{Uniform}(0,100), \quad \text{fixed for all 400 simulations} \\
 x_{1i} &\sim \text{Uniform}, \quad \text{fixed as well, supports vary} \\
 \psi_i &\sim N(0,1), \quad \text{Laplace, Logistic, } \chi^2, \quad \text{Student's t}
 \end{aligned}$$

The supports of x_{1i} depend on the average event probability $\in \{25\%, 50\%\}$

2. Abnormal return

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varepsilon_i &= w\psi_i + v_i, \quad \text{where } v_i \sim \text{iid}, \quad E[v_i] = 0, \quad \text{Var}[v_i] = 1 - w^2 \\
 w &\in \{.30, .50, .75\}
 \end{aligned}$$

The distribution of v_i is identical to that of ψ_i ; $N(0,1)$, Laplace, Logistic, χ^2 and Student's t

3. Sample size: Each set of 400 simulations was repeated for two sample sizes $\in \{100, 250\}$
 4. Number of replications: 400 replications of each simulation
- Recipe
 - Choose the target event probability, sample size, w and the distribution of ψ_i
 - Generate x_{1i} and x_{2i} and use them for all 400 simulations
 - Generate ψ_i (and hence E or NE) and ε_i
 - Estimate θ , w and β and compute corresponding t-stat
 - Mean, standard error and mean t-statistic are reported.

5. Simulation Results

Table 1
Performance of conditional model **base case**

Model parameter	Truth	Sample size = 100			Sample size = 250		
		Mean	Std. error	Mean <i>t</i> -stat	Mean	Std. error	Mean <i>t</i> -stat
Average event probability = 25%							
<i>w</i>	0.30	0.31	0.13	2.30	0.30	0.09	4.27
<i>w</i>	0.50	0.50	0.13	3.81	0.50	0.08	6.01
<i>w</i>	0.75	0.74	0.11	6.38	0.75	0.08	10.13
θ_0	1.00	1.04	0.51	2.05	0.99	0.31	3.27
θ_1	-1.00	-1.04	0.52	-1.97	-0.98	0.32	-3.12
$100\theta_2$	1.00	1.02	0.52	1.99	0.96	0.31	3.08
Average event probability = 50%							
<i>w</i>	0.30	0.30	0.12	2.37	0.32	0.08	4.45
<i>w</i>	0.50	0.50	0.12	4.12	0.50	0.08	6.64
<i>w</i>	0.75	0.76	0.11	6.83	0.74	0.07	10.74
θ_0	1.00	0.99	0.75	1.36	0.97	0.46	2.08
θ_1	-1.00	-1.00	0.48	-2.15	-0.98	0.30	-3.36
$100\theta_2$	1.00	1.00	0.47	2.20	1.02	0.29	3.46

Base case

- θ is close to truth
- 'w's are close to truth
- Standard error estimates are close to the true standard error

Table 2
Normality-based estimator when information is laplace distributed

Model parameter	Truth	Sample size = 100			Sample size = 250		
		Mean	Std. error	Mean <i>t</i> -stat	Mean	Std. error	Mean <i>t</i> -stat
Average event probability = 25%							
<i>w</i>	0.30	0.28	0.14	2.13	0.28	0.09	3.32
<i>w</i>	0.50	0.47	0.14	3.40	0.47	0.07	5.55
<i>w</i>	0.75	0.70	0.12	6.06	0.70	0.08	8.86
θ_0	1.00	1.26	0.59	2.22	1.24	0.36	3.46
θ_1	-1.00	-1.25	0.53	-2.41	-1.23	0.31	-3.85
$100\theta_2$	1.00	1.25	0.53	2.43	1.21	0.31	3.85
Average event probability = 50%							
<i>w</i>	0.30	0.27	0.13	2.10	0.28	0.08	3.50
<i>w</i>	0.50	0.46	0.12	3.73	0.45	0.07	5.77
<i>w</i>	0.75	0.69	0.12	6.40	0.69	0.07	9.76
θ_0	1.00	1.41	0.80	1.80	1.36	0.46	2.90
θ_1	-1.00	-1.41	0.50	-2.80	-1.36	0.30	4.54
$100\theta_2$	1.00	1.40	0.49	2.82	1.35	0.31	4.44

Bad case (Non-normality)

- θ is quite different from its true value
 - Normality-based estimator is inconsistent when ψ is non-Normal
 - But the sign and order are similar to the previous case
 - The associated *t*-statistics are also of a similar magnitude
 - There seems to be little impact on one's inferences
- 'w's are close to truth but are slightly attenuated
 - Non-Normality \Rightarrow "measurement error" into $\lambda_k(\cdot) \Rightarrow$ errors-in-variables bias
 - The amount of attenuation is small
- Non-Normality does lead to inconsistent parameter estimates but does not appear to impact one's inferences about the significance of model parameters

Noise in announcement effects (just qualitative descriptions): The two-step procedure does stand up to moderate amounts of noise at levels typical of event studies that use windows of a few days to measure announcement effects

Cross-sectional correlation in information (just qualitative descriptions): Non-Normality and cross-sectional correlation in private information in private information appear to matter less than imprecisely measured announcement effects

Table 3
Performance of conventional cross-sectional procedure

Panel A: Normally distributed information and 25% average event probability

True parameter	Estimated parameter	Sample size = 100			Sample size = 250		
		Mean	Std. error	Mean <i>t</i> -stat	Mean	Std. error	Mean <i>t</i> -stat
Correlation (<i>w</i>) = 0.30							
$\theta_0 = 1.00$	β_0	0.05	0.74	0.07	0.02	0.47	0.04
$\theta_1 = -1.00$	β_1	0.21	0.33	0.62	0.22	0.20	1.05
$100\theta_2 = 1.00$	$100\beta_2$	-0.22	0.33	-0.64	-0.23	0.20	-1.11
Correlation (<i>w</i>) = 0.50							
$\theta_0 = 1.00$	β_0	0.02	0.71	0.02	0.05	0.48	0.10
$\theta_1 = -1.00$	β_1	0.39	0.32	1.26	0.39	0.22	1.86
$100\theta_2 = 1.00$	$100\beta_2$	-0.38	0.29	-1.29	-0.38	0.19	-1.95
Correlation (<i>w</i>) = 0.75							
$\theta_0 = 1.00$	β_0	0.02	0.58	0.02	0.02	0.42	0.02
$\theta_1 = -1.00$	β_1	0.57	0.25	2.21	0.57	0.18	3.25
$100\theta_2 = 1.00$	$100\beta_2$	-0.57	0.26	-2.18	-0.56	0.18	-3.31

Panel B: Normally distributed information and 50% average event probability

True parameter	Estimated parameter	Sample size = 100			Sample size = 250		
		Mean	Std. error	Mean <i>t</i> -stat	Mean	Std. error	Mean <i>t</i> -stat
Correlation (<i>w</i>) = 0.30							
$\theta_0 = 1.00$	β_0	0.08	0.58	0.14	0.05	0.35	0.16
$\theta_1 = -1.00$	β_1	0.17	0.38	0.47	0.19	0.20	0.89
$100\theta_2 = 1.00$	$100\beta_2$	-0.19	0.32	-0.60	-0.18	0.23	-0.89
Correlation (<i>w</i>) = 0.50							
$\theta_0 = 1.00$	β_0	0.12	0.55	0.22	0.08	0.32	0.26
$\theta_1 = -1.00$	β_1	0.30	0.35	0.90	0.32	0.20	1.50
$100\theta_2 = 1.00$	$100\beta_2$	-0.30	0.33	-0.92	-0.31	0.22	-1.48
Correlation (<i>w</i>) = 0.75							
$\theta_0 = 1.00$	β_0	0.15	0.50	0.30	0.15	0.27	0.66
$\theta_1 = -1.00$	β_1	0.47	0.29	1.57	0.47	0.16	2.70
$100\theta_2 = 1.00$	$100\beta_2$	-0.47	0.28	-1.68	-0.48	0.17	-2.89

Conventional cross-sectional procedure (Table 3 Panel A and Panel B)

- Recall the findings of Lemma 1
 - Downward bias: $|\beta_j| \leq |\theta_j|$
 - Everywhere
 - Opposite sign: $\text{sign}(\beta_j) \neq \text{sign}(\theta_j)$
 - Everywhere
 - More attenuation when $|\pi|$ ($|w|$ in this case) is small (i.e. low announcement impact)
 - For 100 sample size and 25% average event probability
 - $\hat{\beta}_1 = .21$ for $w = .30$
 - $\hat{\beta}_1 = .39$ for $w = .50$
 - $\hat{\beta}_1 = .57$ for $w = .75$
 - More attenuation when E are highly anticipated (i.e. not surprising event)
 - For 100 sample size and $w=30\%$
 - $\hat{\beta}_1 = .21$ for 25% average event probability
 - $\hat{\beta}_1 = .17$ for 50% average event probability
- Simulation results are consistent with its implied comparative statics
- The usual OLS standard errors seem to be appropriate for carrying out significance tests for cross-sectional parameters β
 - For 25% average event probability, 100 sample size, $w=30\%$
 - Standard error estimate $= .21/.62 = .3387$
 - True standard error $= .33$
- The t-statistics for the linear regression coefficients are generally smaller
 - Even though the linear model produces smaller standard errors, it is less powerful than the conditional model in picking up cross-sectional effects
- Measurement error in announcement effects: β is affected (low t-stat), but θ is remain unchanged
- Attenuation: low $|w|$ and high event probability cause this underestimation
- The statistical significance of the linear regression coefficients β serves as a lower bound on significance of the θ
 - Conservative means of conducting cross-sectional inferences
 - If one rejects the hypothesis $\beta_j=0$ at significance level α , one also rejects the hypothesis $\theta_j=0$

Table 4**Performance of conditional model with truncated sample** **50% average event probability**

Parameter	Truth	Sample size = 100			Sample size = 250		
		Mean	Std. error	Mean <i>t</i> -stat	Mean	Std. error	Mean <i>t</i> -stat
<i>w</i> = 0.30							
$w_1 = \frac{w'}{\sqrt{1-u^2}}$	0.31	0.93	1.19	1.39	0.67	0.79	1.91
θ_0	1.00	2.43	11.98	2.41	0.91	3.32	0.37
θ_1	-1.00	-2.24	6.09	-0.73	-1.19	2.39	-0.79
$100\theta_2$	1.00	2.46	4.96	0.69	1.90	2.99	0.99
<i>w</i> = 0.50							
$w_1 = \frac{w}{\sqrt{1-u^2}}$	0.58	1.12	1.39	1.69	0.89	0.81	2.37
θ_0	1.00	1.52	2.60	0.66	1.17	1.84	1.02
θ_1	-1.00	-1.56	2.15	-0.96	-1.37	1.34	-1.51
$100\theta_2$	1.00	1.00	2.00	0.99	1.17	1.08	1.40
<i>w</i> = 0.75							
$w_1 = \frac{w}{\sqrt{1-u^2}}$	1.13	1.45	1.07	1.91	1.17	0.54	2.77
θ_0	1.00	0.91	1.29	1.03	0.90	0.85	1.52
θ_1	-1.00	-1.20	0.82	-1.54	-1.16	0.63	-2.28
$100\theta_2$	1.00	1.53	1.00	1.45	1.17	0.54	2.21

Conditional model without nonevent information

- Absent NE data, how does the (conditional) model perform?
 - The conditional model may be estimated by NLS or ML
- The t-statistics reported in Table 4 are much smaller than those in Table 1
 - Severe negative impact on the conditional model's performance
- Why are NE data so crucial?
 - By combining both data, one increases the sample size
 - Use of NE data expands the type of information being used in estimation
- Results also indicate that the properties of the ML estimator are unsatisfactory
 - Parameter estimates are upward-biased
 - Standard errors are slightly understated
 - The t-statistics are no better than those produced by OLS
- Absent NE data, there is little evidence that the specification of the conditional model analyzed here has any practical value, relative to the much simpler OLS procedure

6. Conclusions

- Acharya's (1988) model is empirically valuable when
 - One has a set of NE firms in addition to data on E firms
 - If such data are available, the conditional model is valuable means of inference
 - In this case, Heckman's (1979, EMA) method is useful for estimating the conditional model
 - Free from usual data problems (event-date uncertainty, clustering of event dates)
 - Inferences are not severely affected by incorrect distributional assumptions
 - Also valid for other conditional models (Eckbo, Maksimovic and Williams, 1990)
- In reality, NE data are not available
 - Conditional model becomes computationally burdensome and less powerful
 - Results concerning traditional methods assume the greatest force
 - β in the traditional model is proportional to θ in the conditional model
 - OLS standard errors appear to be appropriate
 - Traditional OLS method may be used for carrying out cross-sectional inferences (though the coefficients are potentially inconsistently estimated)
- In a nutshell
 - Conditional model > OLS when both E and NE data are available
 - OLS > Conditional model when one has E data only
- If you have both E and NE data: Use the conditional model
- If you only have E data: Use OLS and the results are conservative lower bounds

Replicated results of Table 1

Parameter	Truth	Size=100		Size=250	
		Mean	Standard Err.	Mean	Standard Err.
Probability=25%					
ω	.25	.25	.15	.25	.10
ω	.50	.51	.14	.50	.09
ω	.75	.75	.11	.75	.07
θ_0	1.00	1.03	1.33	1.04	.76
θ_1	-1.00	-1.04	.59	-1.03	.33
$100\theta_2$	1.00	1.06	.49	1.03	.32
Probability=50%					
ω	.25	.25	.13	.26	.08
ω	.50	.50	.12	.50	.07
ω	.75	.74	.10	.75	.07
θ_0	1.00	1.01	.78	1.02	.47
θ_1	-1.00	-1.01	.47	-1.01	.29
$100\theta_2$	1.00	1.02	.47	.99	.28

- Standard errors for θ_0 s are bigger than those from Table 1

Replicated results of Table 2 Panel A

Probability=25%		Size=100		Size=250	
True	Estimated	Mean	Standard Err.	Mean	Standard Err.
Correlation $\omega=.25$					
$\theta_0=1.00$	β_0	.03	.79	.03	.54
$\theta_1=-1.00$	β_1	.18	.35	.18	.24
$100\theta_2=1.00$	$100\beta_2$.20	.34	-.20	.23
Correlation $\omega=.50$					
$\theta_0=1.00$	β_0	-.01	.75	.00	.47
$\theta_1=-1.00$	β_1	.38	.33	.38	.21
$100\theta_2=1.00$	$100\beta_2$	-.34	.31	-.36	.20
Correlation $\omega=.75$					
$\theta_0=1.00$	β_0	-.01	.64	-.01	.42
$\theta_1=-1.00$	β_1	.58	.29	.58	.19
$100\theta_2=1.00$	$100\beta_2$.57	.27	-.56	.18

Replicated results of Table 2 Panel B

Probability=50%		Size=100		Size=250	
True	Estimated	Mean	Standard Err.	Mean	Standard Err.
Correlation $\omega=.25$					
$\theta_0=1.00$	β_0	.06	.52	.05	.34
$\theta_1=-1.00$	β_1	.15	.33	.16	.22
$100\theta_2=1.00$	$100\beta_2$	-.15	.35	-.16	.22
Correlation $\omega=.50$					
$\theta_0=1.00$	β_0	.07	.47	.08	.32
$\theta_1=-1.00$	β_1	.32	.31	.32	.20
$100\theta_2=1.00$	$100\beta_2$	-.28	.32	-.31	.20
Correlation $\omega=.75$					
$\theta_0=1.00$	β_0	.14	.45	.14	.29
$\theta_1=-1.00$	β_1	.47	.30	.46	.18
$100\theta_2=1.00$	$100\beta_2$	-.46	.30	-.45	.18

- For each simulation, the author generates 100 or 250 samples containing only ‘E’ observations
- If one draws 100 or 250 samples and uses just ‘E’ data, then the standard errors will be different from those reported by the author