# The sampling distribution of the OLS estimator, and the statistical properties of the OLS estimator in finite and large samples

Empirical Methods, Lecture 4

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In this lecture  $\hat{m{\beta}}_{OLS} \equiv \hat{m{\beta}}$ .

Consider the model

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

Suppose we have n observations for y and X. Using this one sample we estimate  $\beta$ . Let  $\hat{\beta}$  represent this estimate. The estimation results in one  $\hat{\beta}$ .

. regress test	tscr str						
Source	ss	df	MS	Num	ber of ob	s =	420
				- F(1	, 418)	=	22.58
Model	7794.11012	1	7794.11012	2 Pro	b > F	=	0.0000
Residual	144315.484	418	345.252353	R-s	R-squared		0.0512
				- Adj	R-square	d =	0.0490
Total	152109.594	419	363.030056	Roo	t MSE	=	18.581
testscr	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95%	conf.	interval]
str _cons	-2.279808 698.933	.4798256 9.467491	-4.75 73.82	0.000 0.000	-3.22 680.3		-1.336637 717.5428

Consider now the standard error of  $\hat{\beta}$ .

. regress test	tscr str					
Source	SS	df	MS	Number	of obs	= 420
				F(1, 41	B)	= 22.58
Model	7794.11012	1	7794.11012	Prob >	F	= 0.0000
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str _cons	-2.279808 698.933	.4798256 9.467491			-3.22298 680.3231	-1.336637 717.5428

If there is only one  $\hat{\beta}$ , how can  $\hat{\beta}$  has a standard error? How can it have a distribution? How can we talk about the statistical properties of  $\hat{\beta}$  at all?

The distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$  results from a conceptual experiment.

The experiment is about taking samples from the population repeatedly.

Consider the LRM

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

Take a sample of n observations for  $\boldsymbol{y}$  and  $\boldsymbol{X}$  from the population.

Using the y and X, obtain  $\hat{\beta}$ .

Take a new sample of n observations for y and X from the population.

Using the new y and X, obtain a new  $\hat{\beta}$ .

Repeatedly take all possible samples from the population.

Obtain many  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ .

 $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$  now has a distribution. This is the sampling distribution of  $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$ .

The statistical properties of  $\hat{\beta}$  is about this sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ .

We will study the statistical properties of  $\hat{eta}$  in theory.

However, in contrast to standard teaching practice, we will demonstrate them in an applied manner. That is, we will plot the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ , and see how it behaves if we violate an assumption of the SLM.

To conduct this study, we should take samples for y and X from the population repeatedly, obtain many  $\hat{\beta}$ , and plot the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ .

But taking repeated samples from the population is expensive.

What can we do?

We can simulate the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ .

Assume a value for the true  $\beta$ .

Take n random draws for  $\boldsymbol{X}$  from a probability distribution.

Take n random draws for  $\varepsilon$  from a probability distribution.

Given  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  and the random draws for  $\boldsymbol{X}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ , generate n observations for  $\boldsymbol{y}$ .

Using the generated y and original X, obtain a  $\hat{\beta}$ .

Then take n new random draws for  $\varepsilon$ . Given  $\beta$  and the original random draws for  $\boldsymbol{X}$ , generate n new observations for  $\boldsymbol{y}$ . Using the newly generated  $\boldsymbol{y}$  and original  $\boldsymbol{X}$ , obtain a new  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ .

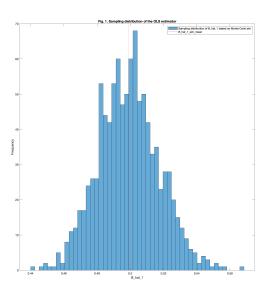
Repeat the procedure to obtain many  $\hat{\beta}$ . This gives the simulated sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ .

In the experiment, we keep the n observations of  $\boldsymbol{X}$  constant as we repeatedly generate new  $\mathbf{y}$ . This simplifies the experiment because then we can attribute the response of the sampling distribution to interesting counterfactual scenarios other than the sampling variance of X. This is the same as what we do in statistical derivations. We condition on **X** meaning that we keep **X** constant. This simplifies the derivations very much. Treating X constant in repeated sampling is not realistic unless X is collected in an experimental setting where the experimenter had chosen the value for **X** before **y** was determined. We justify this treatment with the random sampling assumption.

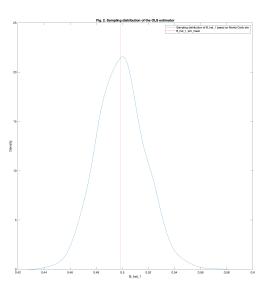
In the experiment, we assume that  $\mathsf{E}\left[\varepsilon\mid \pmb{X}\right]=0$  holds.

```
# Simulate the sampling distribution of the OLS estimator
N_{sim} = 1000;
N obs = 9000:
B true = 0.5:
x = random('Uniform', -1, 1, [N_obs], 1);
B_hat_sim = NaN(1,N_sim);
for i = 1:N_sim
    e = random('Normal',0,1,[N_obs 1]);
    y = x*B_tue+e;
    B_{\text{hat\_sim}}(1,i) = inv(x'*x)*x'*y;
end
```

histogram(B\_hat\_sim)



kdesnity(B\_hat\_sim)



## Statistical properties

How do we want the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$  to behave? How do we want the mean and the variance of this distribution to behave?

#### Statistical properties

We need to make a distinction between a small and large sample because statistical properties of any statistic depend on the sample size.

We want the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$  to behave in certain ways in a small, or finite, sample. We want the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$  to behave in certain ways in a large sample.

#### Statistical properties

Behaviour in a finite sample means that the behaviour does not depend on n. We fix n, and study the behaviour. If we change n, the behaviour is not affected.

Behaviour in a large sample means that the behaviour depends on n. We increase n, and study how the sampling distribution behaves.

Why we differentiate between a small and large sample will become clear later in the slides.

Suppose that we calculate a  $\hat{\beta}$  with the sample at hand.  $\hat{\beta}$  is an estimate of the true  $\beta$ . We want to believe that this particular  $\hat{\beta}$  is close to  $\beta$  in some criterion.

Consider the mean of the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ , conditional on X:

$$\mathsf{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}\mid \boldsymbol{X}\right].$$

We break down this statement, to understand what it says.

The mean of the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ , conditional on X:

$$\mathsf{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}\mid \boldsymbol{X}\right]$$
 .

The sampling distribution of coefficient estimates is created by repeatedly taking all possible samples of a same size from the population. Here we consider the average of all these estimates. Recall that the mean in the population is the expected value. That is, expected value is a population term. It is not a sample term.

The mean of the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ , conditional on X:

$$\mathsf{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}\mid \boldsymbol{X}\right].$$

 ${\pmb X}$  is the sample data at hand for the explanatory variables. Conditioning on  ${\pmb X}$  means that we fix  ${\pmb X}$ , take many samples of  ${\pmb Y}$ , and use samples of  ${\pmb Y}$  and the single sample of  ${\pmb X}$  to produce the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\pmb \beta}$ . Fixing  ${\pmb X}$  allows us to focus on the variability in  $\hat{\pmb \beta}$  due to the random variation in  ${\pmb Y}$ .

Why do we focus on the variation in Y? The error of the regression,  $\varepsilon$ , captures the random variation in Y that is not explained by the observed explanatory variables X. By focusing on the random variation in Y, we can better understand and model the relationship between X and Y.

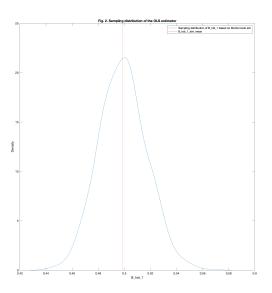
The criterion we want  $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$  to satisfy is

$$\mathsf{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}\mid \boldsymbol{X}\right] = \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

It says that the mean of the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ , given the sample data at hand on X, is equal to  $\beta$ . It says that on average  $\hat{\beta}$  will correctly estimate  $\beta$ . If this is true, we say that  $\hat{\beta}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\beta$ .

Who would want a biased estimator, right?

Recall the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ , created using simulation:



#### Notes on the variance of the OLS estimator, S.E. estimator

The aim is to calculate the mean of the sampling distribution of the OLS coefficient estimates. We consider an unrealistic setup where we are able to do repeated sampling, via a simulation exercise, and hence observe the sampling distribution. The second paragraph considers the realistic case where we cannot do repeated sampling to have a sampling distribution. We have only one sample data at hand.

mean(B\_hat\_sim) gives 0.4998! B\_hat\_sim contains OLS coefficient estimates from repeated sampling. Here we consider all B\_hat\_sim that are created in the simulation exercise. That is, B\_hat\_sim is a vector containing all simulated OLS coefficient estimates from repeated sampling, and we take the mean of it.



In the simulation exercise B\_true was set to 0.5. Are you surprised that 0.4998 is so close to 0.5?

In practice, what does unbiasedness imply? Suppose that you draw an unlucky sample from the population, and obtain a bad  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ . Or think of our simulation experiment. Suppose that you take n draws for  $\varepsilon$  from its assumed distribution which turn out to be extreme.  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  will be far from its population mean  $\operatorname{E}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\mid\boldsymbol{X}\right]$  which is equal to  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ . Hence, in practice, to satisfy unbiasedness as much as possible, the sample we draw needs to be typical.

In practice, if it was difficult to draw a sample that is typical, the unbiasedness criterion would have been criticized. This is summarised nicely by the story of three econometricians who go duck hunting. The first shoots about a foot in front of the duck, the second about a foot behind. The third yells: "We got him!" In practice, the random sample econometricians take is usually representative of the population, so is typical, so to get close to  $\hat{\beta}$ , so that econometricians are not mocked by the joke.

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$$

$$= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$$

$$= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

$$= \boldsymbol{\beta} + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.$$

Taking the expectation conditional on X,

$$E\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right] = E\left[\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right] + E\left[(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right]$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\beta} + (\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}'E\left[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right]$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

if  $E[\varepsilon \mid X] = 0$ .

Hence,  $E[\varepsilon \mid X] = 0$  is a requirement for unbiasedness.

By the LIE, it is also true that

$$E\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\right] = E_{\boldsymbol{X}} \left[ E\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right] \right]$$
$$= E_{\boldsymbol{X}} \left[\boldsymbol{\beta}\right]$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

Is the OLS estimator the only unbiased estimator? Consider a competitor estimator

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0 = \boldsymbol{C} \boldsymbol{y}$$
.

 ${\pmb C}$  is some K×n matrix that depends on  ${\pmb X}$ . Taking the expectation conditional on  ${\pmb X}$ ,

$$E[\hat{\beta}_0 \mid \mathbf{X}] = E[\mathbf{C}\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}]$$

$$= E[\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \mid \mathbf{X}]$$

$$= \mathbf{C}\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{C}E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mid \mathbf{X}]$$

$$= \mathbf{C}\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

$$= \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

if 
$$E[\varepsilon \mid X] = 0$$
, and if  $CX = I$ .

The OLS estimator is not the only unbiased estimator!

The OLS estimator is not the only unbiased estimator. But recall that we wanted to believe in the OLS estimator in some criterion, and we have considered unbiasedness as a criterion. But now we have more than one estimator that is unbiased. Why should we still believe in the OLS estimator  $\hat{\beta}$ ?

## Statistical properties in finite samples, efficiency

We need to judge  $\hat{\beta}$  on an additional criterion than unbiasedness to preserve our belief in  $\hat{\beta}$ . This new criterion is

$$\mathsf{Var}\left[\boldsymbol{\hat{eta}}_0 \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right] \geq \mathsf{Var}\left[\boldsymbol{\hat{eta}} \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right].$$

It says that the variance of the sampling distribution of the unbiased OLS estimator,  $\hat{\beta}$ , is the smallest when compared to the variance of the sampling distribution of any other competing unbiased estimator  $\hat{\beta}_0$ .

If this is true, we say that  $\hat{\beta}$  is the best unbiased estimator.

We skip the proof.

### Is the OLS estimator a linear estimator?

If an estimator is a linear function of the dependent variable, it is a linear estimator. Is  $\hat{\beta}$  a linear estimator?

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{y}.$$

 $\hat{\beta}$  is a linear function of the values of y. The values of y are linearly combined using weights that are a non-linear function of the values of X. Hence,  $\hat{\beta}$  is a linear estimator with respect to how it uses the values of the dependent variable only, irrespective of how it uses the values of the regressors.

### Is the OLS estimator a linear estimator?

Consider the bivariate LRM

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}_0 \beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_1 \beta_1 + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.$$

 $x_0$  is a column of ones. In this model

$$\hat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x}) (y_{i} - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}} = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}\right) y_{i} - \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}\right) \bar{y}.$$

 $\hat{\beta}_1$  is a linear function of the values of y.

## Statistical properties in finite samples

Gauss-Markov Theorem. In the LRM with regressor matrix  $\boldsymbol{X}$ , the OLS estimator,  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ , is the minimum variance (best), linear, unbiased estimator of  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ . For any vector of constants  $\boldsymbol{q}$ , the minimum variance linear unbiased estimator of  $\boldsymbol{q}'\boldsymbol{\beta}$  in the regression model is  $\boldsymbol{q}'\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ .

Consider the linear model

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

 $\boldsymbol{X}$  contains the column of ones  $\boldsymbol{x}_0$  and other k variables.

Derive the variance-covariance matrix of  $\hat{\beta}$ , conditional on X.

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{\beta} + (\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon},$$

and hence

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta} = (\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.$$

Using the general variance formula, conditional on  $\boldsymbol{X}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Var}\left[\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}\mid\boldsymbol{X}\right] &= \operatorname{E}\left[\left(\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}-\boldsymbol{\beta}\right)\left(\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}-\boldsymbol{\beta}\right)'\mid\boldsymbol{X}\right] \\ &= \operatorname{E}\left[\left(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'\boldsymbol{X}\left(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1}\mid\boldsymbol{X}\right] \\ &= \left(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}'\operatorname{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'\mid\boldsymbol{X}\right]\boldsymbol{X}\left(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1} \\ &= \left(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2}\boldsymbol{I}\boldsymbol{X}\left(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1} \\ &= \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2}\left(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

if  $E[\varepsilon \varepsilon' \mid X] = \sigma^2 I$ . Hence, homoskedasticity is a requirement.

By the LIE, it is also true that

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\right] &= \operatorname{E}\left[(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta})(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta})'\right] \\ &= \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}\left[\operatorname{E}\left[(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta})(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta})' \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right]\right] \\ &= \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}\left[\sigma^2(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\right] \\ &= \sigma^2\operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}\left[(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\right]. \end{aligned}$$

Skip.

It can be shown that element j of

$$\mathsf{Var}\left[\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}\mid\boldsymbol{X}\right]=\sigma^{2}\left(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1}$$

is

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{\beta}_{j} \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right] = \frac{\sigma^{2}}{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{ij} - \bar{x}_{j}\right)^{2}\left(1 - R_{j}^{2}\right)}, \ j = 0, 1, \dots, k.$$

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}\mid \boldsymbol{X}\right] = \sigma^2(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}.$$

We cannot use this formula because  $\sigma^2$  is unobserved. An unbiased estimator of  $\sigma$  is

$$\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\varepsilon}'\hat{\varepsilon}}{n - K}}.$$

Or, since the vector multiplication implies sum of squared residuals, we have

$$\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\varepsilon}_{i}^{2}}{n - K}}.$$

This is the standard error of the regression.

The estimator of the variance-covariance matrix of  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  is then given by

Est. 
$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\mid\boldsymbol{X}\right]=\hat{\sigma}^2(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}=\frac{\hat{\varepsilon}'\hat{\varepsilon}}{n-K}(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}.$$

The estimator of the standard error of  $\hat{\beta}$  is

Est. S.E. 
$$\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right] = \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}}$$
.

Or in level form it is

Est. S.E. 
$$\left[\hat{\beta}_{j} \mid \mathbf{X}\right] = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\sigma}^{2}}{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n}(x_{ij} - \bar{x}_{j})^{2}\left(1 - R_{j}^{2}\right)}}, \ j = 0, 1, \dots, k.$$

Note that the current model is the multiple linear regression model. In the simple linear regression model, we have

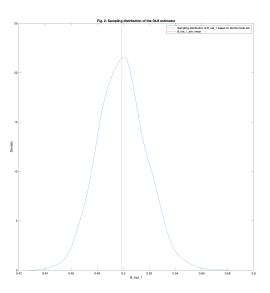
Est. S.E. 
$$\left[\hat{\beta}_{j} \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right] = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\sigma}^{2}}{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{ij} - \bar{x}_{j}\right)^{2}}}, \ j = 0, 1.$$

What does the standard error estimate of the OLS estimate really represent?

Recall the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ . The standard deviation of the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$  is the standard error of  $\hat{\beta}$ !

Est. S.E.  $\left|\hat{\beta}_{j}\mid\boldsymbol{X}\right|$  is just a mathematical formula to estimate this standard deviation using the sample data at hand because we cannot take repeated samples from the population and draw the sampling distribution of the OLS estimates and calculate the standard deviation of them.

The sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$  we created using simulation:



The aim is to calculate the S.D. of the sampling distribution of the OLS coefficient estimates. The first paragraph below considers an unrealistic setup where we are able to do repeated sampling, via a simulation exercise, and hence observe the sampling distribution. The second paragraph considers the realistic case where we cannot do repeated sampling to have a sampling distribution. We have only one sample data at hand.

std(B\_hat\_sim) gives 0.0183. B\_hat\_sim contains OLS
coefficient estimates from repeated sampling. Here we consider all
B\_hat\_sim that are created in the simulation exercise. That is,
B\_hat\_sim is a vector containing all simulated OLS coefficient
estimates from repeated sampling, and we take the S.D. of it.

Est. S.E.  $\left[\hat{\beta}_j \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right]$  gives 0.0182! Here among all B\_hat\_sim that are created in the simulation exercise, we pick one, and use that in the formula for Est. S.E.  $\left[\hat{\beta}_j \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right]$  to estimate the S.D. of the sampling distribution of the OLS coefficient estimates.

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_cons	698.933	9.467491	73.82	0.000 680.3	3231	717.5428

The Root mean squared error is the standard error of the regression. Std. err. is the standard error estimate of the OLS estimate.

Est. S.E. 
$$\left[\hat{\beta}_{j} \mid \mathbf{X}\right] = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\sigma}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_{j})^{2} \left(1 - R_{j}^{2}\right)}}, \ j = 0, 1, \dots, k.$$

The expression shows that the S.E. of the OLS estimator is

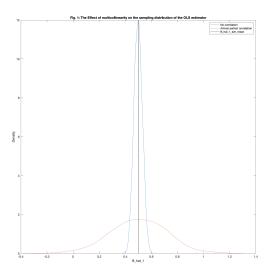
- i. higher if the variance of  $\hat{\varepsilon}$  is higher,
- ii. lower if the sample size is larger,
- iiii. lower if the sample variance of  $x_{ii}$  is larger, and
- iv. higher if  $R_j^2$  is higher, where  $R_j^2$  is the coefficient of determination from regressing  $\mathbf{x}_j$  on all other regressors.

Let's pay more attention to the effect of  $R_j^2$  on Est. S.E.  $\left[\hat{\beta}_j \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right]$ .

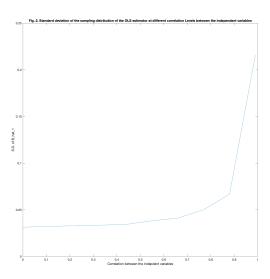
 $R_j^2$  will always be positive because explanatory variables will always be correlated to some extent, even spuriously. So some correlation between explanatory variables is not a problem.

What is a problem is if they are strongly correlated, a phenomenon known as multicollinearity. When explanatory variables are strongly correlated, they share a significant amount of common information, which makes it challenging to estimate their individual effects accurately. This leads to inflated S.E.s for the estimated regression coefficients, resulting in less reliable estimates.

Sampling distribution of an OLS estimator under almost perfect correlation and no correlation:



S.D. of the sampling distribution of an OLS estimator under different correlation levels:



Note that this is about multicollinearity, not perfect multicollinearity. The latter was already discussed under assumption A2.

We have shown that

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{\beta} + (\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.$$

Assume for the first time that  $\varepsilon$  is multivariate normal (A6). That is,

$$\boldsymbol{arepsilon} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim N\left[\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I}\right].$$

Is  $\hat{\beta}$  multivariate normal?

We condition on  $\boldsymbol{X}$  and hence treat it is as given. The matrix

$$(\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}',$$

is  $K \times n$ . Recast it as a  $K \times n$  matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_1 & \mathbf{w}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{w}_n \end{bmatrix}$$
.

 $\varepsilon$  is  $n \times 1$ .  $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\varepsilon$  becomes

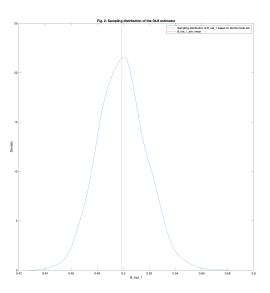
$$\mathbf{w}_1 \varepsilon_1 + \mathbf{w}_2 \varepsilon_2 + \ldots + \mathbf{w}_n \varepsilon_n$$
.

Hence,  $\hat{\beta}$  is a linear combination of the elements of  $\epsilon$ . A linear combination of normal random variables is normal. Hence,  $\hat{\beta}$  is multivariate normal.

Using the mean and variance-covariance matrix of  $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$  derived above,

$$\boldsymbol{\hat{eta}} \mid \boldsymbol{X} \sim \mathcal{N} \left[ oldsymbol{eta}, \sigma^2 \left( oldsymbol{X}' oldsymbol{X} 
ight)^{-1} 
ight].$$

Simulated sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ , where errors are normal:

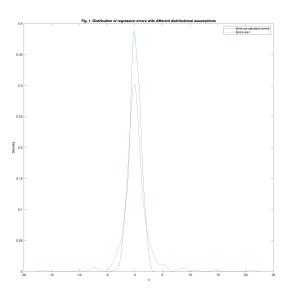


In finite sample analysis, the normal distribution of  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  is a consequence of the assumption that  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  is normal, and that  $\boldsymbol{X}$  is constant.

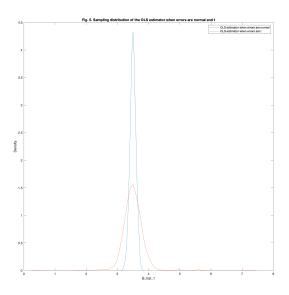
In large sample analysis later in these slides, we will obtain an approximate normal distribution for  $\hat{\beta}$ , without assuming that  $\varepsilon$  is normal, and X is constant.

What happens if the assumption of normality of  $\varepsilon$  does not hold in finite samples?

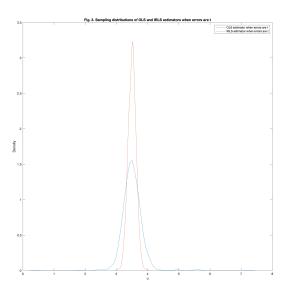
Error when it has a normal and and when it has a t distribution:



OLS estimator when the error has a normal and t distribution:



OLS and IRLS estimators when the error has a t distribution:



We used unbiasedness and efficiency as criteria to judge if  $\hat{\beta}$  is a good estimator. These criteria do not depend on n. We will consider new criteria to judge  $\hat{\beta}$  based on n. But why do we want to do that?

First reason.  $\hat{\beta}$  should come closer to the population  $\beta$  if we increase n and come closer to the population N. Who wants an estimator that does not satisfy this?

Second reason. Estimators developed to estimate population parameters in complicated models are usually biased. We could check if a biased estimator in a small sample becomes an unbiased estimator in a large sample. E.g., the OLS estimator is biased if the lagged dependent variable is an explanatory variable in the model. However, it is unbiased asymptotically, that is when n is very large, which makes the OLS estimator as we say, consistent.

Third reason. Often the derivation of a property of an estimator is not tractable in a small sample but in a large sample. This is because the expected value of a non-linear function of a statistic is not the non-linear function of the expected value of that statistic. But the probability limit of a non-linear function of a statistic is the non-linear function of the probability limit of that statistic.

Recall the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$  obtained in the simulation experiment. Imagine creating a sequence of sampling distributions of  $\hat{\beta}$  with successively larger n. If the distributions in this sequence become more and more similar in form to some specific distribution as n becomes extremely large, this specific distribution is called the asymptotic distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ .

If the asymptotic distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$  becomes concentrated on the particular value  $\beta$  as n approaches infinity,  $\beta$  is said to be the probability limit of  $\hat{\beta}$ . We then write

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \xrightarrow{p} \boldsymbol{\beta},$$

or

$$\mathsf{plim}\,\boldsymbol{\hat{\beta}}=\boldsymbol{\beta},$$

or

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}-\boldsymbol{\beta}=o_p(1).$$

We then say that  $\hat{\beta}$  is consistent. This is our first large sample criterion.

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{\beta} + (\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\beta} + \left(\frac{1}{n}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1}\frac{1}{n}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.$$

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2i} & \dots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{j1} & x_{j2} & \dots & x_{ji} & \dots & x_{jn} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{k1} & x_{k2} & \dots & x_{ki} & \dots & x_{kn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{21} & \dots & x_{j1} & \dots & x_{k1} \\ 1 & x_{22} & \dots & x_{j2} & \dots & x_{k2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{2i} & \dots & x_{ji} & \dots & x_{ki} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{2n} & \dots & x_{jn} & \dots & x_{kn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_i & \dots & \mathbf{x}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1' \\ \mathbf{x}_2' \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_i' \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_n' \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X}'\varepsilon = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2i} & \dots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{j1} & x_{j2} & \dots & x_{ji} & \dots & x_{jn} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{k1} & x_{k2} & \dots & x_{ki} & \dots & x_{kn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_i & \dots & \mathbf{x}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_i \varepsilon_i.$$

Hence,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{\beta} + \left(\frac{1}{n}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1}\frac{1}{n}\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

becomes

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{\beta} + \left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\boldsymbol{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{x}_{i}'\right)^{-1}\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\boldsymbol{x}_{i}\varepsilon_{i}.$$

Take the plim of both sides of the equation. When taking the plim, we do not condition on  $\boldsymbol{X}$ . To derive asymptotic results, we do not need the technical simplification brought by fixing  $\boldsymbol{X}$  in repeated samples.

Using the sum rule of plim (Greene, Theorem D.14),

$$\operatorname{plim} \hat{\beta} = \operatorname{plim} \beta + \operatorname{plim} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i x_i' \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \varepsilon_i \right].$$

Using the product rule of plim (Greene, Theorem D.14),

$$\operatorname{plim} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{\beta} + \operatorname{plim} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}' \right)^{-1} \right] \operatorname{plim} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} \varepsilon_{i}.$$

Assuming that  $x_i$  is i.i.d. (A5), and using the WLLN (Greene, Theorem D.5),

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}x_{i}x'_{i}\stackrel{p}{\to} \mathbb{E}\left[x_{i}x'_{i}\right].$$

Using the ratio rule of plim (Greene, Theorem D.14), and assuming that  $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$  exists (A2),

$$\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\boldsymbol{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{x}_{i}'\right)^{-1}\stackrel{p}{\to}\left(\mathsf{E}\left[\boldsymbol{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{x}_{i}'\right]\right)^{-1}.$$

Assuming that  $\varepsilon_i$  is i.i.d. (A5), assuming that  $E[\mathbf{x}_i \varepsilon_i] = \mathbf{0}$  (A3), and using the WLLN,

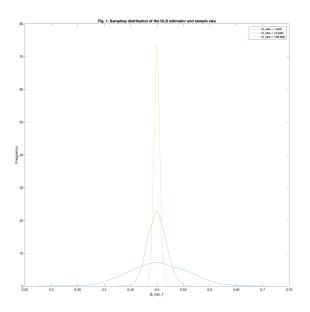
$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbf{x}_{i}\varepsilon_{i}\stackrel{p}{\to}\mathsf{E}\left[\mathbf{x}_{i}\varepsilon_{i}\right]=\mathbf{0}.$$

$$\operatorname{plim} \hat{\beta} = \beta + \operatorname{plim} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} x_{i}' \right)^{-1} \right] \operatorname{plim} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \varepsilon_{i}$$

$$\left( \operatorname{E}[x_{i} x_{i}'] \right)^{-1} \qquad \operatorname{E}[x_{i} \varepsilon_{i}] = \mathbf{0}$$

Hence,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$



The probability limit can be seen as the large-sample equivalent of the expected value. Hence,  $\hat{\beta} \stackrel{p}{\to} \beta$  can be seen as the large-sample equivalent of unbiasedness.

 $\hat{\beta}$  is also consistent under weaker versions of A5 and A3. We do not discuss the former here. The latter is as follows. To prove consistency, we assume

$$\mathsf{E}\left[\mathbf{x}_{i}\varepsilon_{i}\right]=\mathbf{0}$$

which is weak exogeneity, and not

$$\mathsf{E}\left[\boldsymbol{X}\varepsilon_{i}\right]=\mathbf{0}$$

which is strict exogeneity. But remember that in finite sample analysis, for unbiasedness, we have assumed strict exogeneity. This shows that as n increases, we enjoy a weaker model assumption.

#### Statistical properties in large samples: asy. efficiency

The variance of the asymptotic distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$  is called the asymptotic variance of  $\hat{\beta}$ . Among the consistent estimators, if the asymptotic variance of  $\hat{\beta}$  is smaller than the asymptotic variance of any other estimator,  $\hat{\beta}$  is said to be asymptotically efficient. This is our second large sample criterion.

#### Statistical properties in large samples: asy. efficiency

Suppose that the asymptotic variance of a competitor estimator  $\hat{\beta}_0$  is  $\Omega$ . Then, under assumptions A1, A2, A3, A4, and A5, it can be shown that

Asy. 
$$Var(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0)$$
 – Asy.  $Var(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \boldsymbol{\Omega} - \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left( \mathsf{E} \left[ \boldsymbol{x}_i \boldsymbol{x}_i' \right] \right)^{-1} \geq 0$ .

This is the large-sample equivalent of the efficiency criteria we have considered in finite samples. We do not consider the proof.

#### Statistical properties in large samples: asy. normality

Assuming that  $E[x_i\varepsilon_i]=0$  (A3); assuming that  $x_i$  and  $\varepsilon_i$  are both i.i.d. (A5), and not assuming that  $\varepsilon_i$  is normal (A6) but applying the central limit theorem (Greene, Theorem D.19A),

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \stackrel{a}{\sim} N \left[ \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \frac{1}{n} \left( \mathbb{E} \left[ \boldsymbol{x}_i \boldsymbol{x}_i' \right] \right)^{-1} \right].$$

This is the asymptotic distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ . That is, if we let n go to infinity,  $\hat{\beta}$  has an exact normal distribution.

 $\sigma^2$  and  $1/n(\mathsf{E}[x_ix_i'])^{-1}$  are population terms of the limiting distribution. They are unobserved. In practice, they are estimated with  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  and  $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$  given sample data, respectively.