The Sampling Distribution of Regression Coefficients.

David C. Howell

Last revised 11/29/2012

This whole project started with a query about the sampling distribution of the standardized regression coefficient, β . I had a problem because one argument was that β is a linear transformation of *b*, and the sampling distribution of *b* is normal. From that it followed that the sampling distribution of β should be normal. On the other hand, with only one predictor, β is equal to *r*, and it is well known that the sampling distribution of *r* is skewed whenever ρ is unequal to zero. From that it follows that the sampling distribution of β would be skewed.

To make a long story short, my error was in thinking of β as a linear transformation of *b*—it is not. The formula for β is

$$\beta = \frac{b_i s_i}{s_0}$$

where s_i is the standard deviation of the ith independent variable, and s_0 is the standard deviation of the dependent (criterion) variable.

But in creating the sampling distribution of β , these two standard deviations are random variables, differing from sample to sample. If I computed β using the corresponding population parameters that would be a different story. But that's not the way you do it. So my statement about β being a linear transformation of was wrong. The unstandardized coefficient (b) is normally distributed, but the standardized coefficient (β) is not normally distributed. It has the same distribution as *r*.

But all is not right in the world. There is something wrong out there, and I can't figure out what. I recently received an e-mail from Alessio Toraldo, at Università di Pavia, Italy. He pointed out that when he did a sampling study similar to the one described below, using a sample size of n = 10, the distribution of b was distinctly leptokurtic. That should not be! Hogg and Craig (1978) clearly state that b will be normally distributed. And if Hogg and Craig say so, it is so! The one thing that I can say is that the distribution, whatever its shape, is so close to normal that it would not be worth worrying about if it weren't for the fact that I had been looking for something to worry about.

The following is an empirical demonstration of these sampling distributions. The first attempt at looking at the empirical sampling distribution of b was done using a program called Resampling Stats by Bruce and Simon (<u>http://resample.com/</u>). This program draws repeated samples from defined populations and plots the resulting sampling distributions.

That is a very good program, but I haven't used it in a long time and I had trouble deciphering what I had done. So I redid it in R (similar to S_PLUS) and that is given below.

My program makes use of a simple algorithm for generating data from a population with a specified correlation (ρ).

- Draw two large pseudo-populations of *X* and *Y*. (I used 10,000 cases.)
- Standardize the two variables.
- Compute $a = \frac{r}{\sqrt{1 r^2}}$, where *r* is the desired correlation
- Compute Z = aY + X
- Now *Y* and *Z* have a correlation = r.

From a population consisting of 10,000 X and Z pairs, I drew 10,000 samples of 50 observations each. For each sample I computed b_0 and b_1 , and beta (the standardized regression coefficient) and plotted their sampling distributions. I also plotted the sampling distribution of *r* for purposes of comparison. I then plotted the results as histograms and again as Q-Q plots.

The R program that does the sampling follows. In the first run of this program I set rho to .60 and n to 50. I drew 1000 samples with replacement.

Sampling distribution of standardized regression coefficient

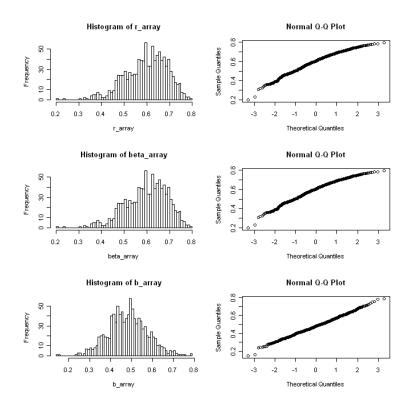
Plot sampling distribution of b and beta

Plot sampling distribution of b and beta

```
r\_array <- c(10000); b\_array <- c(10000); beta\_array <- c(10000) #Create some arrays 
x <- rnorm(10000,0,1) 
y <- rnorm(10000, 0, 1) 
zx <- (x - mean(x))/sd(x) #Standardize the variables 
zy <- (y - mean(y))/sd(y) 
rho <- .60 # Choose a value for rho 
a <- rho/(sqrt(1-rho^2)) 
zz <- a*zy + zx 
cor(zy,zz) 
# the correlation between zy and zz is r = .60
```

```
data <- cbind(zy, zz)
# Now create functions to calculate skewness and kurtosis
skew <- function(x) {</pre>
m3 \le sum((x - mean(x))^3/length(x))
s3 <- sd(x)^3
m3/s3
}
kurtosis <- function(x) {</pre>
 m4 \le sum((x - mean(x))^4/length(x))
 s4 <- var(x)^{2}
 m4/s4 - 3 #Subtract 3 so kurtosis = 0 for normal distribution
}
# Now do the resampling
for (i in 1:1000) {
 samp <- data.frame(data[sample(1:10000,50, replace = T),]) #Draw a n = 50 cases
from data
 r_array[i] <- cor(samp[,1],samp[,2]) #calculate r
 regression <- lm(zy \sim zz, data = samp)
 b_array[i] <- regression$coefficients[2]</pre>
                                              #calculate b = the regression slope
 beta array[i] <- b array[i]*sd(samp[,2])/sd(samp[,1]) #calculate beta
} # This will repeat 1000 times
# Now plot the three statistics
par(mfrow = c(3,2))
hist(r array, breaks = 50)
qqnorm(r array)
hist(beta_array, breaks = 50)
qqnorm(beta array)
hist(b_array, breaks = 50)
qqnorm(b_array)
cat("\nSkew statistic for r = ", skew(r_array))
cat("\nSkew statistic for b = ",skew(b_array))
cat("\nSkew statistic for beta ",skew(beta_array))
cat("\nKurtosis statistic for r = ",kurtosis(r_array))
cat("\nKurtosis statisc for b = ",kurtosis(b_array))
cat("\nKurtosis statistic for beta = ",kurtosis(beta_array))
```

```
The printout for this program follows.
```

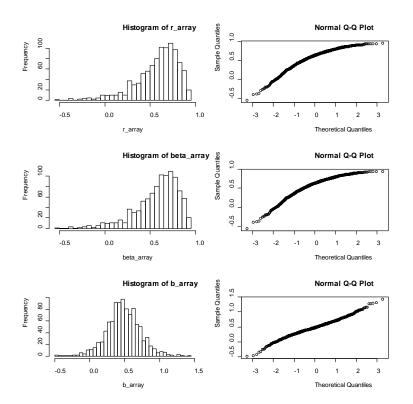


	r	beta	b
Mean	.598	.598	.482
St. Dev.	.091	.091	.092
skewness	566	566	.071
kurtosis	.276	.276	.172

If you look at the table you will see that the mean r = .598, which is nicely close to rho = .60. You will also notice that the distribution is negatively skews and somewhat leptokurtic. Again this is as it should be. With only one predictor, r and beta are equal, and we see that here. Looking at b we see that it has a skewness of only .07, but it does look a bit leptokuric in the table. But in the figures above, the Q-Q plot for b is remarkably straight with only a tiny bit of bumpiness at the extremes.

Now let's do the same thing but with a much smaller sample size. I well let n = 10 instead of to.

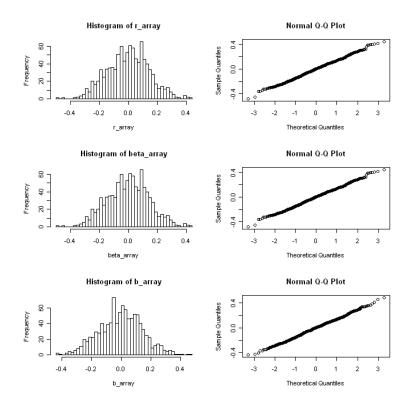
Rho = .60, *n* = 10



	r	beta	b
Mean	.580	.580	.482
St. Dev.	.237	.237	.247
skewness	-1.232	-1.232	046
kurtosis	1.823	1.823	1.066

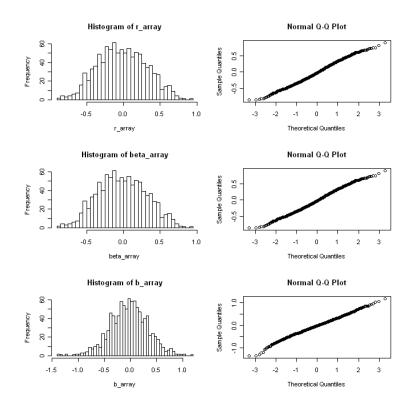
Oh Dear! This is not nice. With such a small sample size the mean correlation stayed close to .60, but the skewness of r and beta just about doubled and it is clear that the distributions are quite leptokurtic. The same goes for b, and a look at the Q-Q plot shows that the line is distinctly not straight. It looks like things fall apart for small n's.

Now we will repeat the two analyses above, but with rho = 0. Here I would expect all three statistics to be centered on 0.00, and, because n = 50, things shouldn't look too bad. Below is what we found.



	r	beta	b
Mean	002	002	002
St. Dev.	.143	.143	.145
skewness	010	010	012
kurtosis	119	119	058

That's not too bad. I can live with that. But what happens if we do the same but drop down to n = 10?



	r	beta	b
Mean	015	015	027
St. Dev.	.336	.336	.366
skewness	.046	.046	.046
kurtosis	529	529	.471

That is definitely not good! The mean r is -.015, which is OK. The standard error of r (and the other statistics) are elevated, simply reflecting the smaller n. But look at the kurtosis. All three distributions should be normal, but two are platykurtic and one is leptokurtic. I suspected that what we are seeing here was just a huge amount of random error, so I repeated this last example 10 times. The kurtosis for b was always positive, ranging from 0.296 to 10.729, with a mean of 2.003. Something is weird.

A Possible Explanation

Perhaps when Hogg and Craig (and many other people) say that *b* is normally distributed, what they really mean is that *b* is *asymptotically* normally distributed. In other words if each sample were infinitely large the distribution would be normal.

So I did it one last time, but this time with n = 500. I have not shown the graphics, but the table is below.

	r	beta	b
Mean	.012	.012	.012
St. Dev.	.045	.045	.045
skewness	.086	.086	.078
kurtosis	003	003	008

And if I set n = 10,000 things are even better.

Alessio Toraldo offered another explanation which I have not had the time to pursue. He suggested that instead of treating X and Y as random variables, I should examine the case where X is fixed. This is more in line with the regression approach (as opposed to correlation) and by removing one source of variance we might in fact find a normal distribution for b. I want to try that.

Another thought: I am using the random number generator in R. No random number generator is perfect, and I notice that the kurtosis of the normally distributed random variables is not 0 either. Perhaps that is part of the problem.

But Don't Give Up!

This exercise gave me something to do when I needed something to do, and I believe that the results are correct. But for all practical purposes the kurtosis in the distribution of b will not make the slightest difference to any practical analysis you want to do. You can just go ahead and believe the t test on b.