be impossible to compute  $\ddot{\beta}$  from a real data set, but in the context of a Monte Carlo experiment, it is perfectly easy to do so. We know  $\beta_0$  and hence  $X_0 \equiv X(\beta_0)$ . Using these and the error vector  $u^j$  that we generate at each replication, we can easily compute  $\ddot{\beta}^j$ .

Suppose that  $\theta \equiv \theta(\hat{\beta})$  is some scalar quantity of which we wish to calculate the mean using the results of the Monte Carlo experiment. For example, if we were interested in the bias of  $\hat{\beta}_2$ ,  $\theta$  would be  $(\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta_{20})$ ; if we were interested in the mean squared error of  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$ ,  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$ ,  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$  would be  $((\hat{\beta}_3 - \beta_{30}))^2$ ; if we were interested in the size of a test,  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$  would be 1 if the test rejected and 0 otherwise; and so on. On each replication, we obtain  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$ , a realization of  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$ , which is equal to  $((\hat{\beta}_3))$ . We also obtain a control variate  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$ , which would normally be some function of  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$ . The  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$  is must be known to have mean zero and finite variance, which need not be known. If we were interested in the bias of  $(\hat{\beta}_2)$ , for example, the natural choice for  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$  would be  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$ . In some other cases, it is not so obvious how to choose  $(\hat{\beta}_3)$ , however, and there may be several possible choices.

If the control variate  $\tau$  were not available, we would estimate  $\theta$  by

$$\bar{\theta} \equiv \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} t_j,$$

and this naive estimator would have variance  $V(\bar{\theta}) = N^{-1}V(t)$ , which could be estimated by

$$\hat{V}(\bar{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (t_j - \bar{\theta})^2.$$

When the control variate  $\tau$  is available,  $\bar{\theta}$  will in most cases no longer be optimal. Consider instead the control variate (CV) estimator

$$\ddot{\theta}(\lambda) \equiv \bar{\theta} - \lambda \bar{\tau},\tag{21.10}$$

where  $\bar{\tau}$  is the sample mean of the  $\tau_j$ 's. This estimator involves subtracting from  $\bar{\theta}$  some multiple  $\lambda$  of the sample mean of the control variates; how  $\lambda$  may be chosen will be discussed in the next paragraph. On average, what is subtracted will be zero, since  $\tau_j$  has population mean zero. This implies that  $\ddot{\theta}(\lambda)$  must have the same population mean as  $\bar{\theta}$ . But, in any given sample, the mean of the  $\tau_j$ 's will be nonzero. If, for example, it is positive, and if  $\tau_j$  and  $t_j$  are strongly positively correlated, it is very likely that  $\bar{\theta}$  will also exceed its population mean. Thus, by subtracting from  $\bar{\theta}$  a multiple of the mean of the  $\tau_j$ 's, we are likely to obtain a better estimate of  $\theta$ .

The variance of the CV estimator (21.10) is

$$V(\ddot{\theta}(\lambda)) = V(\bar{\theta}) + \lambda^2 V(\bar{\tau}) - 2\lambda \text{Cov}(\bar{\theta}, \bar{\tau}). \tag{21.11}$$