

# Lecture Notes - Econometrics: Some Statistics

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8 July 2013

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## Chapter 21

### Some Statistics

This section summarizes some useful facts about statistics. Heuristic proofs are given in a few cases.

Some references: Mittelhammer (1996), DeGroot (1986), Greene (2000), Davidson (2000), Johnson, Kotz, and Balakrishnan (1994).

#### 21.1 Distributions and Moment Generating Functions

Most of the stochastic variables we encounter in econometrics are continuous. For a continuous random variable  $X$ , the range is uncountably infinite and the probability that  $X \leq x$  is  $\Pr(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(q) dq$  where  $f(q)$  is the continuous probability density function of  $X$ . Note that  $X$  is a random variable,  $x$  is a number (1.23 or so), and  $q$  is just a dummy argument in the integral.

**Fact 21.1** (*cdf and pdf*) *The cumulative distribution function of the random variable  $X$  is  $F(x) = \Pr(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(q) dq$ . Clearly,  $f(x) = dF(x)/dx$ . Note that  $x$  is just a number, not random variable.*

**Fact 21.2** (*Moment generating function of  $X$* ) *The moment generating function of the random variable  $X$  is  $mgf(t) = E e^{tX}$ . The  $r$ th moment is the  $r$ th derivative of  $mgf(t)$  evaluated at  $t = 0$ :  $E X^r = d mgf(0)/dt^r$ . If a moment generating function exists (that is,  $E e^{tX} < \infty$  for some small interval  $t \in (-h, h)$ ), then it is unique.*

**Fact 21.3** (*Moment generating function of a function of  $X$* ) *If  $X$  has the moment generating function  $mgf_X(t) = E e^{tX}$ , then  $g(X)$  has the moment generating function  $E e^{tg(X)}$ .*

The affine function  $a + bX$  ( $a$  and  $b$  are constants) has the moment generating function  $mgf_{g(X)}(t) = E e^{t(a+bX)} = e^{ta} E e^{tbX} = e^{ta} mgf_X(bt)$ . By setting  $b = 1$  and  $a = -EX$  we obtain a mgf for central moments (variance, skewness, kurtosis, etc),  $mgf_{(X-EX)}(t) = e^{-tEX} mgf_X(t)$ .

**Example 21.4** When  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $mgf_X(t) = \exp(\mu t + \sigma^2 t^2/2)$ . Let  $Z = (X-\mu)/\sigma$  so  $a = -\mu/\sigma$  and  $b = 1/\sigma$ . This gives  $mgf_Z(t) = \exp(-\mu t/\sigma) mgf_X(t/\sigma) = \exp(t^2/2)$ . (Of course, this result can also be obtained by directly setting  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$  in  $mgf_X$ .)

**Fact 21.5** (Characteristic function and the pdf) The characteristic function of a random variable  $x$  is

$$\begin{aligned} g(\phi) &= E \exp(i\phi x) \\ &= \int_x \exp(i\phi x) f(x) dx, \end{aligned}$$

where  $f(x)$  is the pdf. This is a Fourier transform of the pdf (if  $x$  is a continuous random variable). The pdf can therefore be recovered by the inverse Fourier transform as

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-i\phi x) g(\phi) d\phi.$$

In practice, we typically use a fast (discrete) Fourier transform to perform this calculation, since there are very quick computer algorithms for doing that.

**Fact 21.6** The characteristic function of a  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  distribution is  $\exp(i\phi\mu - \phi^2\sigma^2/2)$  and of a lognormal( $\mu, \sigma^2$ ) distribution (where  $\ln x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ )  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\phi)^j}{j!} \exp(j\mu + j^2\sigma^2/2)$ .

**Fact 21.7** (Change of variable, univariate case, monotonic function) Suppose  $X$  has the probability density function  $f_X(c)$  and cumulative distribution function  $F_X(c)$ . Let  $Y = g(X)$  be a continuously differentiable function with  $dg/dX > 0$  (so  $g(X)$  is increasing for all  $c$  such that  $f_X(c) > 0$ ). Then the cdf of  $Y$  is

$$F_Y(c) = \Pr[Y \leq c] = \Pr[g(X) \leq c] = \Pr[X \leq g^{-1}(c)] = F_X[g^{-1}(c)],$$

where  $g^{-1}$  is the inverse function of  $g$  such that  $g^{-1}(Y) = X$ . We also have that the pdf of  $Y$  is

$$f_Y(c) = f_X[g^{-1}(c)] \left| \frac{dg^{-1}(c)}{dc} \right|.$$

If, instead,  $dg/dX < 0$  (so  $g(X)$  is decreasing), then we instead have the cdf of  $Y$

$$F_Y(c) = \Pr[Y \leq c] = \Pr[g(X) \leq c] = \Pr[X \geq g^{-1}(c)] = 1 - F_X[g^{-1}(c)],$$

but the same expression for the pdf.

**Proof.** Differentiate  $F_Y(c)$ , that is,  $F_X[g^{-1}(c)]$  with respect to  $c$ . ■

**Example 21.8** Let  $X \sim U(0, 1)$  and  $Y = g(X) = F^{-1}(X)$  where  $F(c)$  is a strictly increasing cdf. We then get

$$f_Y(c) = \frac{dF(c)}{dc}.$$

The variable  $Y$  then has the pdf  $dF(c)/dc$  and the cdf  $F(c)$ . This shows how to generate random numbers from the  $F()$  distribution: draw  $X \sim U(0, 1)$  and calculate  $Y = F^{-1}(X)$ .

**Example 21.9** Let  $Y = \exp(X)$ , so the inverse function is  $X = \ln Y$  with derivative  $1/Y$ . Then,  $f_Y(c) = f_X(\ln c)/c$ . Conversely, let  $Y = \ln X$ , so the inverse function is  $X = \exp(Y)$  with derivative  $\exp(Y)$ . Then,  $f_Y(c) = f_X[\exp(c)] \exp(c)$ .

**Example 21.10** Let  $X \sim U(0, 2)$ , so the pdf and cdf of  $X$  are then  $1/2$  and  $c/2$  respectively. Now, let  $Y = g(X) = -X$  gives the pdf and cdf as  $1/2$  and  $1 + y/2$  respectively. The latter is clearly the same as  $1 - F_X[g^{-1}(c)] = 1 - (-c/2)$ .

**Fact 21.11** (Distribution of truncated a random variable) Let the probability distribution and density functions of  $X$  be  $F(x)$  and  $f(x)$ , respectively. The corresponding functions, conditional on  $a < X \leq b$  are  $[F(x) - F(a)]/[F(b) - F(a)]$  and  $f(x)/[F(b) - F(a)]$ . Clearly, outside  $a < X \leq b$  the pdf is zero, while the cdf is zero below  $a$  and unity above  $b$ .

## 21.2 Joint and Conditional Distributions and Moments

### 21.2.1 Joint and Conditional Distributions

**Fact 21.12** (Joint and marginal cdf) Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be (possibly vectors of) random variables and let  $x$  and  $y$  be two numbers. The joint cumulative distribution function of  $X$  and  $Y$  is  $H(x, y) = \Pr(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y h(q_x, q_y) dq_y dq_x$ , where  $h(x, y) = \partial^2 F(x, y) / \partial x \partial y$  is the joint probability density function.

**Fact 21.13** (Joint and marginal pdf) The marginal cdf of  $X$  is obtained by integrating out  $Y$ :  $F(x) = \Pr(X \leq x, Y \text{ anything}) = \int_{-\infty}^x \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(q_x, q_y) dq_y \right] dq_x$ . This shows that the marginal pdf of  $x$  is  $f(x) = dF(x)/dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(q_x, q_y) dq_y$ .

**Fact 21.14** (Conditional distribution) The pdf of  $Y$  conditional on  $X = x$  (a number) is  $g(y|x) = h(x, y)/f(x)$ . This is clearly proportional to the joint pdf (at the given value  $x$ ).

**Fact 21.15** (Change of variable, multivariate case, monotonic function) The result in Fact 21.7 still holds if  $X$  and  $Y$  are both  $n \times 1$  vectors, but the derivative are now  $\partial g^{-1}(c) / \partial dc'$  which is an  $n \times n$  matrix. If  $g_i^{-1}$  is the  $i$ th function in the vector  $g^{-1}$  then

$$\frac{\partial g^{-1}(c)}{\partial dc'} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1^{-1}(c)}{\partial c_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial g_1^{-1}(c)}{\partial c_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial g_n^{-1}(c)}{\partial c_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial g_n^{-1}(c)}{\partial c_m} \end{bmatrix}.$$

### 21.2.2 Moments of Joint Distributions

**Fact 21.16** (Cauchy-Schwartz)  $(E XY)^2 \leq E(X^2) E(Y^2)$ .

**Proof.**  $0 \leq E[(aX + Y)^2] = a^2 E(X^2) + 2a E(XY) + E(Y^2)$ . Set  $a = -E(XY)/E(X^2)$  to get

$$0 \leq -\frac{[E(XY)]^2}{E(X^2)} + E(Y^2), \text{ that is, } \frac{[E(XY)]^2}{E(X^2)} \leq E(Y^2).$$

■

**Fact 21.17** ( $-1 \leq \text{Corr}(X, Y) \leq 1$ ). Let  $Y$  and  $X$  in Fact 21.16 be zero mean variables (or variables minus their means). We then get  $[\text{Cov}(X, Y)]^2 \leq \text{Var}(X) \text{Var}(Y)$ , that is,  $-1 \leq \text{Cov}(X, Y) / [\text{Std}(X) \text{Std}(Y)] \leq 1$ .

### 21.2.3 Conditional Moments

**Fact 21.18** (Conditional moments)  $E(Y|x) = \int yg(y|x)dy$  and  $\text{Var}(Y|x) = \int [y - E(Y|x)]g(y|x)dy$ .

**Fact 21.19** (Conditional moments as random variables) Before we observe  $X$ , the conditional moments are random variables—since  $X$  is. We denote these random variables by  $E(Y|X)$ ,  $\text{Var}(Y|X)$ , etc.

**Fact 21.20** (Law of iterated expectations)  $EY = E[E(Y|X)]$ . Note that  $E(Y|X)$  is a random variable since it is a function of the random variable  $X$ . It is not a function of  $Y$ , however. The outer expectation is therefore an expectation with respect to  $X$  only.

**Proof.**  $E[E(Y|X)] = \int [\int yg(y|x)dy] f(x)dx = \int \int yg(y|x)f(x)dydx = \int \int yh(y,x)dydx = EY$ . ■

**Fact 21.21** (Conditional vs. unconditional variance)  $\text{Var}(Y) = \text{Var}[E(Y|X)] + E[\text{Var}(Y|X)]$ .

**Fact 21.22** (Properties of Conditional Expectations) (a)  $Y = E(Y|X) + U$  where  $U$  and  $E(Y|X)$  are uncorrelated:  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}[X, E(Y|X) + U] = \text{Cov}[X, E(Y|X)]$ . It follows that (b)  $\text{Cov}[Y, E(Y|X)] = \text{Var}[E(Y|X)]$ ; and (c)  $\text{Var}(Y) = \text{Var}[E(Y|X)] + \text{Var}(U)$ . Property (c) is the same as Fact 21.21, where  $\text{Var}(U) = E[\text{Var}(Y|X)]$ .

**Proof.**  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \int \int x(y - E y)h(x, y)dydx = \int x [\int (y - E y)g(y|x)dy] f(x)dx$ , but the term in brackets is  $E(Y|X) - EY$ . ■

**Fact 21.23** (Conditional expectation and unconditional orthogonality)  $E(Y|Z) = 0 \Rightarrow EYZ = 0$ .

**Proof.** Note from Fact 21.22 that  $E(Y|X) = 0$  implies  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$  so  $E XY = E X E Y$  (recall that  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E XY - E X E Y$ ). Note also that  $E(Y|X) = 0$  implies that  $EY = 0$  (by iterated expectations). We therefore get

$$E(Y|X) = 0 \Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0 \\ EY = 0 \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow E Y X = 0.$$

■

## 21.2.4 Regression Function and Linear Projection

**Fact 21.24** (Regression function) Suppose we use information in some variables  $X$  to predict  $Y$ . The choice of the forecasting function  $\hat{Y} = k(X) = E(Y|X)$  minimizes  $E[Y - k(X)]^2$ . The conditional expectation  $E(Y|X)$  is also called the regression function of  $Y$  on  $X$ . See Facts 21.22 and 21.23 for some properties of conditional expectations.

**Fact 21.25** (Linear projection) Suppose we want to forecast the scalar  $Y$  using the  $k \times 1$  vector  $X$  and that we restrict the forecasting rule to be linear  $\hat{Y} = X'\beta$ . This rule is a linear projection, denoted  $P(Y|X)$ , if  $\beta$  satisfies the orthogonality conditions  $E[X(Y - X'\beta)] = \mathbf{0}_{k \times 1}$ , that is, if  $\beta = (E XX')^{-1} E XY$ . A linear projection minimizes  $E[Y - k(X)]^2$  within the class of linear  $k(X)$  functions.

**Fact 21.26** (Properties of linear projections) (a) The orthogonality conditions in Fact 21.25 mean that

$$Y = X'\beta + \varepsilon,$$

where  $E(X\varepsilon) = \mathbf{0}_{k \times 1}$ . This implies that  $E[P(Y|X)\varepsilon] = 0$ , so the forecast and forecast error are orthogonal. (b) The orthogonality conditions also imply that  $E[XY] = E[XP(Y|X)]$ . (c) When  $X$  contains a constant, so  $E\varepsilon = 0$ , then (a) and (b) carry over to covariances:  $\text{Cov}[P(Y|X), \varepsilon] = 0$  and  $\text{Cov}[X, Y] = \text{Cov}[XP, (Y|X)]$ .

**Example 21.27** ( $P(1|X)$ ) When  $Y_t = 1$ , then  $\beta = (E XX')^{-1} E X$ . For instance, suppose  $X = [x_{1t}, x_{2t}]'$ . Then

$$\beta = \begin{bmatrix} E x_{1t}^2 & E x_{1t}x_{2t} \\ E x_{2t}x_{1t} & E x_{2t}^2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} E x_{1t} \\ E x_{2t} \end{bmatrix}.$$

If  $x_{1t} = 1$  in all periods, then this simplifies to  $\beta = [1, 0]'$ .

**Remark 21.28** Some authors prefer to take the transpose of the forecasting rule, that is, to use  $\hat{Y} = \beta'X$ . Clearly, since  $XX'$  is symmetric, we get  $\beta' = E(YX')(E XX')^{-1}$ .

**Fact 21.29** (Linear projection with a constant in  $X$ ) If  $X$  contains a constant, then  $P(aY + b|X) = aP(Y|X) + b$ .

**Fact 21.30** (Linear projection versus regression function) Both the linear regression and the regression function (see Fact 21.24) minimize  $E[Y - k(X)]^2$ , but the linear projection



imposes the restriction that  $k(X)$  is linear, whereas the regression function does not impose any restrictions. In the special case when  $Y$  and  $X$  have a joint normal distribution, then the linear projection is the regression function.

**Fact 21.31** (Linear projection and OLS) *The linear projection is about population moments, but OLS is its sample analogue.*

## 21.3 Convergence in Probability, Mean Square, and Distribution

**Fact 21.32** (Convergence in probability) *The sequence of random variables  $\{X_T\}$  converges in probability to the random variable  $X$  if (and only if) for all  $\varepsilon > 0$*

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(|X_T - X| < \varepsilon) = 1.$$

We denote this  $X_T \xrightarrow{p} X$  or  $\text{plim } X_T = X$  ( $X$  is the probability limit of  $X_T$ ). Note: (a)  $X$  can be a constant instead of a random variable; (b) if  $X_T$  and  $X$  are matrices, then  $X_T \xrightarrow{p} X$  if the previous condition holds for every element in the matrices.

**Example 21.33** *Suppose  $X_T = 0$  with probability  $(T - 1)/T$  and  $X_T = T$  with probability  $1/T$ . Note that  $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(|X_T - 0| = 0) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} (T - 1)/T = 1$ , so  $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(|X_T - 0| = \varepsilon) = 1$  for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Note also that  $E X_T = 0 \times (T - 1)/T + T \times 1/T = 1$ , so  $X_T$  is biased.*

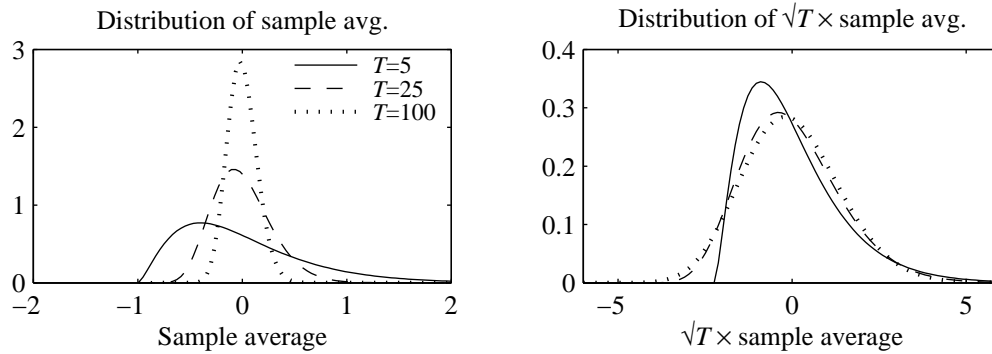
**Fact 21.34** (Convergence in mean square) *The sequence of random variables  $\{X_T\}$  converges in mean square to the random variable  $X$  if (and only if)*

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} E(X_T - X)^2 = 0.$$

We denote this  $X_T \xrightarrow{m} X$ . Note: (a)  $X$  can be a constant instead of a random variable; (b) if  $X_T$  and  $X$  are matrices, then  $X_T \xrightarrow{m} X$  if the previous condition holds for every element in the matrices.

**Fact 21.35** (Convergence in mean square to a constant) *If  $X$  in Fact 21.34 is a constant, then then  $X_T \xrightarrow{m} X$  if (and only if)*

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} (E X_T - X)^2 = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \text{Var}(X_T^2) = 0.$$



Sample average of  $z_t - 1$  where  $z_t$  has a  $\chi^2(1)$  distribution

Figure 21.1: Sampling distributions

This means that both the variance and the squared bias go to zero as  $T \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Proof.**  $E(X_T - X)^2 = E X_T^2 - 2X E X_T + X^2$ . Add and subtract  $(E X_T)^2$  and recall that  $\text{Var}(X_T) = E X_T^2 - (E X_T)^2$ . This gives  $E(X_T - X)^2 = \text{Var}(X_T) - 2X E X_T + X^2 + (E X_T)^2 = \text{Var}(X_T) + (E X_T - X)^2$ . ■

**Fact 21.36** (Convergence in distribution) Consider the sequence of random variables  $\{X_T\}$  with the associated sequence of cumulative distribution functions  $\{F_T\}$ . If  $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} F_T = F$  (at all points), then  $F$  is the limiting cdf of  $X_T$ . If there is a random variable  $X$  with cdf  $F$ , then  $X_T$  converges in distribution to  $X$ :  $X_T \xrightarrow{d} X$ . Instead of comparing cdfs, the comparison can equally well be made in terms of the probability density functions or the moment generating functions.

**Fact 21.37** (Relation between the different types of convergence) We have  $X_T \xrightarrow{m} X \Rightarrow X_T \xrightarrow{p} X \Rightarrow X_T \xrightarrow{d} X$ . The reverse implications are not generally true.

**Example 21.38** Consider the random variable in Example 21.33. The expected value is  $E X_T = 0(T - 1)/T + T/T = 1$ . This means that the squared bias does not go to zero, so  $X_T$  does not converge in mean square to zero.

**Fact 21.39** (Slutsky's theorem) If  $\{X_T\}$  is a sequence of random matrices such that  $\text{plim } X_T = X$  and  $g(X_T)$  a continuous function, then  $\text{plim } g(X_T) = g(X)$ .

**Fact 21.40** (*Continuous mapping theorem*) Let the sequences of random matrices  $\{X_T\}$  and  $\{Y_T\}$ , and the non-random matrix  $\{a_T\}$  be such that  $X_T \xrightarrow{d} X$ ,  $Y_T \xrightarrow{p} Y$ , and  $a_T \rightarrow a$  (a traditional limit). Let  $g(X_T, Y_T, a_T)$  be a continuous function. Then  $g(X_T, Y_T, a_T) \xrightarrow{d} g(X, Y, a)$ .

## 21.4 Laws of Large Numbers and Central Limit Theorems

**Fact 21.41** (*Khinchine's theorem*) Let  $X_t$  be independently and identically distributed (iid) with  $E X_t = \mu < \infty$ . Then  $\Sigma_{t=1}^T X_t / T \xrightarrow{p} \mu$ .

**Fact 21.42** (*Chebyshev's theorem*) If  $E X_t = 0$  and  $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \text{Var}(\Sigma_{t=1}^T X_t / T) = 0$ , then  $\Sigma_{t=1}^T X_t / T \xrightarrow{p} 0$ .

**Fact 21.43** (*The Lindeberg-Lévy theorem*) Let  $X_t$  be independently and identically distributed (iid) with  $E X_t = 0$  and  $\text{Var}(X_t) < \infty$ . Then  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \Sigma_{t=1}^T X_t / \sigma \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$ .

## 21.5 Stationarity

**Fact 21.44** (*Covariance stationarity*)  $X_t$  is covariance stationary if

$$\begin{aligned} E X_t &= \mu \text{ is independent of } t, \\ \text{Cov}(X_{t-s}, X_t) &= \gamma_s \text{ depends only on } s, \text{ and} \\ &\text{both } \mu \text{ and } \gamma_s \text{ are finite.} \end{aligned}$$

**Fact 21.45** (*Strict stationarity*)  $X_t$  is strictly stationary if, for all  $s$ , the joint distribution of  $X_t, X_{t+1}, \dots, X_{t+s}$  does not depend on  $t$ .

**Fact 21.46** (*Strict stationarity versus covariance stationarity*) In general, strict stationarity does not imply covariance stationarity or vice versa. However, strict stationarity with finite first two moments implies covariance stationarity.

## 21.6 Martingales

**Fact 21.47** (*Martingale*) Let  $\Omega_t$  be a set of information in  $t$ , for instance  $Y_t, Y_{t-1}, \dots$ . If  $E|Y_t| < \infty$  and  $E(Y_{t+1} | \Omega_t) = Y_t$ , then  $Y_t$  is a martingale.

**Fact 21.48** (Martingale difference) If  $Y_t$  is a martingale, then  $X_t = Y_t - Y_{t-1}$  is a martingale difference:  $X_t$  has  $E|X_t| < \infty$  and  $E(X_{t+1}|\Omega_t) = 0$ .

**Fact 21.49** (Innovations as a martingale difference sequence) The forecast error  $X_{t+1} = Y_{t+1} - E(Y_{t+1}|\Omega_t)$  is a martingale difference.

**Fact 21.50** (Properties of martingales) (a) If  $Y_t$  is a martingale, then  $E(Y_{t+s}|\Omega_t) = Y_t$  for  $s \geq 1$ . (b) If  $X_t$  is a martingale difference, then  $E(X_{t+s}|\Omega_t) = 0$  for  $s \geq 1$ .

**Proof.** (a) Note that  $E(Y_{t+2}|\Omega_{t+1}) = Y_{t+1}$  and take expectations conditional on  $\Omega_t$ :  $E[E(Y_{t+2}|\Omega_{t+1})|\Omega_t] = E(Y_{t+1}|\Omega_t) = Y_t$ . By iterated expectations, the first term equals  $E(Y_{t+2}|\Omega_t)$ . Repeat this for  $t + 3, t + 4$ , etc. (b) Essentially the same proof. ■

**Fact 21.51** (Properties of martingale differences) If  $X_t$  is a martingale difference and  $g_{t-1}$  is a function of  $\Omega_{t-1}$ , then  $X_t g_{t-1}$  is also a martingale difference.

**Proof.**  $E(X_{t+1} g_t |\Omega_t) = E(X_{t+1} |\Omega_t) g_t$  since  $g_t$  is a function of  $\Omega_t$ . ■

**Fact 21.52** (Martingales, serial independence, and no autocorrelation) (a)  $X_t$  is serially uncorrelated if  $\text{Cov}(X_t, X_{t+s}) = 0$  for all  $s \neq 0$ . This means that a linear projection of  $X_{t+s}$  on  $X_t, X_{t-1}, \dots$  is a constant, so it cannot help predict  $X_{t+s}$ . (b)  $X_t$  is a martingale difference with respect to its history if  $E(X_{t+s} | X_t, X_{t-1}, \dots) = 0$  for all  $s \geq 1$ . This means that no function of  $X_t, X_{t-1}, \dots$  can help predict  $X_{t+s}$ . (c)  $X_t$  is serially independent if  $\text{pdf}(X_{t+s} | X_t, X_{t-1}, \dots) = \text{pdf}(X_{t+s})$ . This means that no function of  $X_t, X_{t-1}, \dots$  can help predict any function of  $X_{t+s}$ .

**Fact 21.53** (WLN for martingale difference) If  $X_t$  is a martingale difference, then  $\text{plim } \sum_{t=1}^T X_t / T = 0$  if either (a)  $X_t$  is strictly stationary and  $E|x_t| < \infty$  or (b)  $E|x_t|^{1+\delta} < \infty$  for  $\delta > 0$  and all  $t$ . (See Davidson (2000) 6.2)

**Fact 21.54** (CLT for martingale difference) Let  $X_t$  be a martingale difference. If  $\text{plim } \sum_{t=1}^T (X_t^2 - E X_t^2) / T = 0$  and either

- (a)  $X_t$  is strictly stationary or
- (b)  $\max_{t \in [1, T]} \frac{(E|X_t|^{2+\delta})^{1/(2+\delta)}}{\sum_{t=1}^T E X_t^2 / T} < \infty$  for  $\delta > 0$  and all  $T > 1$ ,

then  $(\sum_{t=1}^T X_t / \sqrt{T}) / (\sum_{t=1}^T E X_t^2 / T)^{1/2} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$ . (See Davidson (2000) 6.2)

## 21.7 Special Distributions

### 21.7.1 The Normal Distribution

**Fact 21.55** (Univariate normal distribution) If  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then the probability density function of  $X$ ,  $f(x)$  is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}.$$

The moment generating function is  $mgf_X(t) = \exp(\mu t + \sigma^2 t^2/2)$  and the moment generating function around the mean is  $mgf_{(X-\mu)}(t) = \exp(\sigma^2 t^2/2)$ .

**Example 21.56** The first few moments around the mean are  $E(X - \mu) = 0$ ,  $E(X - \mu)^2 = \sigma^2$ ,  $E(X - \mu)^3 = 0$  (all odd moments are zero),  $E(X - \mu)^4 = 3\sigma^4$ ,  $E(X - \mu)^6 = 15\sigma^6$ , and  $E(X - \mu)^8 = 105\sigma^8$ .

**Fact 21.57** (Standard normal distribution) If  $X \sim N(0, 1)$ , then the moment generating function is  $mgf_X(t) = \exp(t^2/2)$ . Since the mean is zero,  $m(t)$  gives central moments. The first few are  $E X = 0$ ,  $E X^2 = 1$ ,  $E X^3 = 0$  (all odd moments are zero), and  $E X^4 = 3$ . The distribution function,  $\Pr(X \leq a) = \Phi(a) = 1/2 + 1/2 \operatorname{erf}(a/\sqrt{2})$ , where  $\operatorname{erf}()$  is the error function,  $\operatorname{erf}(z) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^z \exp(-t^2) dt$ . The complementary error function is  $\operatorname{erfc}(z) = 1 - \operatorname{erf}(z)$ . Since the distribution is symmetric around zero, we have  $\Phi(-a) = \Pr(X \leq -a) = \Pr(X \geq a) = 1 - \Phi(a)$ . Clearly,  $1 - \Phi(-a) = \Phi(a) = 1/2 \operatorname{erfc}(-a/\sqrt{2})$ .

**Fact 21.58** (Multivariate normal distribution) If  $X$  is an  $n \times 1$  vector of random variables with a multivariate normal distribution, with a mean vector  $\mu$  and variance-covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ ,  $N(\mu, \Sigma)$ , then the density function is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)\right].$$

**Fact 21.59** (Conditional normal distribution) Suppose  $Z_{m \times 1}$  and  $X_{n \times 1}$  are jointly normally distributed

$$\begin{bmatrix} Z \\ X \end{bmatrix} \sim N\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu_Z \\ \mu_X \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{ZZ} & \Sigma_{ZX} \\ \Sigma_{XZ} & \Sigma_{XX} \end{bmatrix}\right).$$

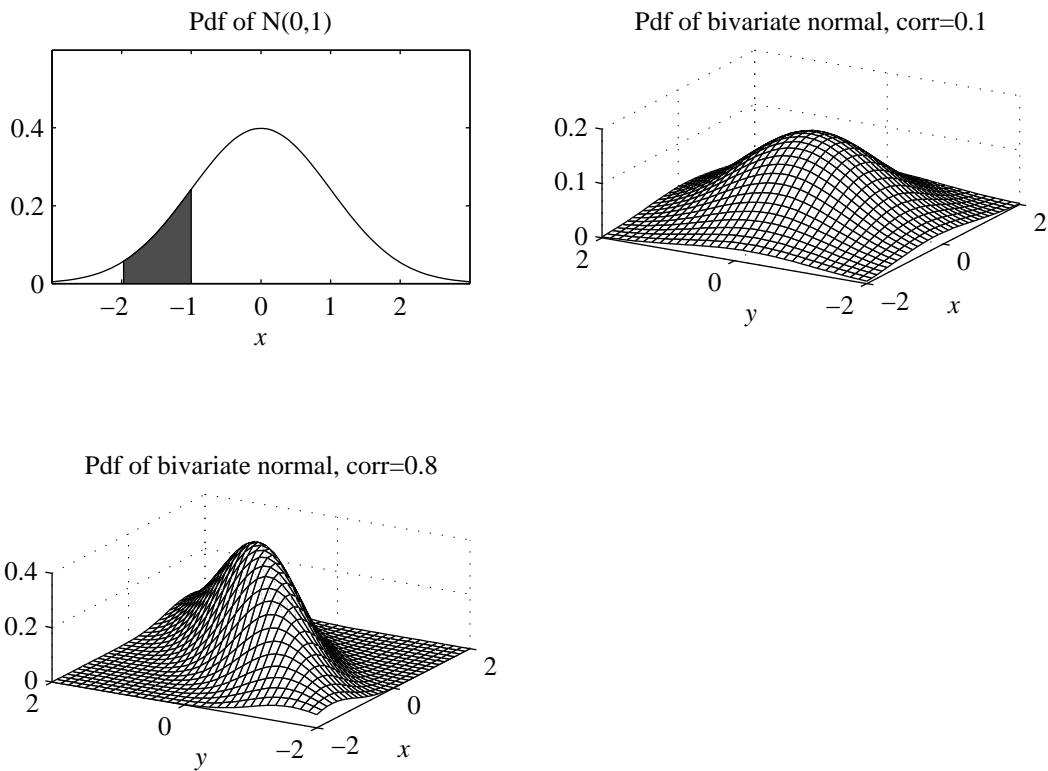


Figure 21.2: Normal distributions

The distribution of the random variable  $Z$  conditional on that  $X = x$  (a number) is also normal with mean

$$E(Z|x) = \mu_Z + \Sigma_{ZX} \Sigma_{XX}^{-1} (x - \mu_X),$$

and variance (variance of  $Z$  conditional on that  $X = x$ , that is, the variance of the prediction error  $Z - E(Z|x)$ )

$$\text{Var}(Z|x) = \Sigma_{ZZ} - \Sigma_{ZX} \Sigma_{XX}^{-1} \Sigma_{XZ}.$$

Note that the conditional variance is constant in the multivariate normal distribution ( $\text{Var}(Z|X)$  is not a random variable in this case). Note also that  $\text{Var}(Z|x)$  is less than  $\text{Var}(Z) = \Sigma_{ZZ}$  (in a matrix sense) if  $X$  contains any relevant information (so  $\Sigma_{ZX}$  is not zero, that is,  $E(Z|x)$  is not the same for all  $x$ ).

**Example 21.60** (Conditional normal distribution) Suppose  $Z$  and  $X$  are scalars in Fact

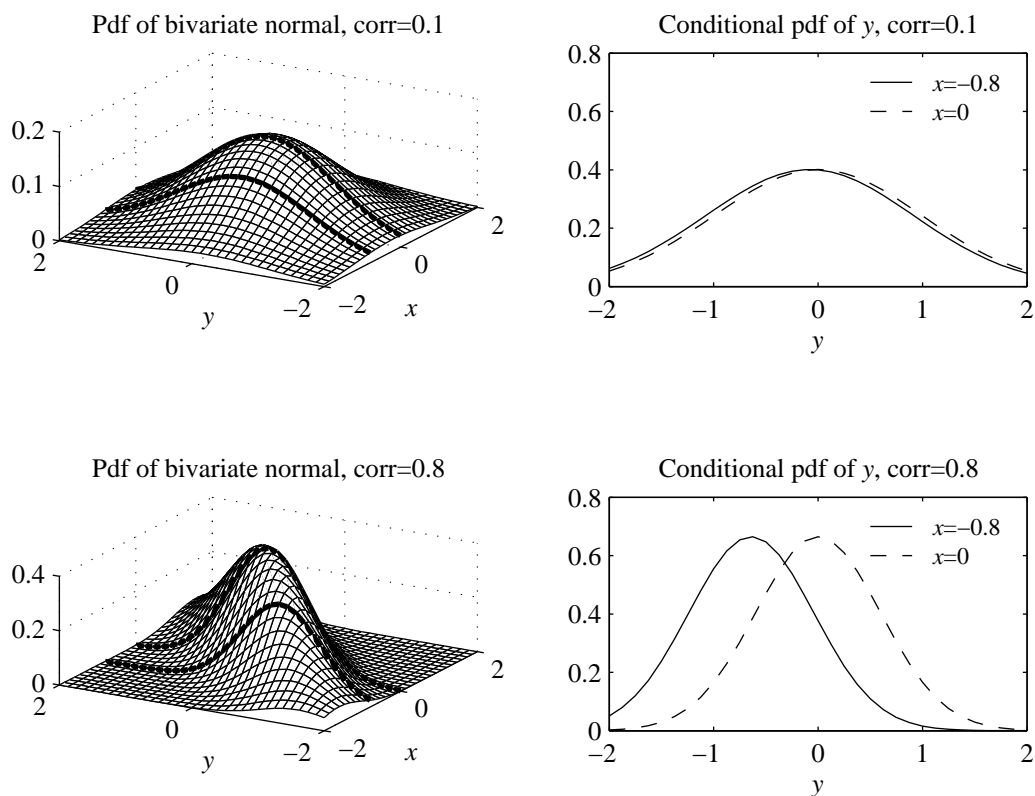


Figure 21.3: Density functions of normal distributions

21.59 and that the joint distribution is

$$\begin{bmatrix} Z \\ X \end{bmatrix} \sim N \left( \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \right).$$

The expectation of  $Z$  conditional on  $X = x$  is then

$$E(Z|x) = 3 + \frac{2}{6}(x - 5) = 3 + \frac{1}{3}(x - 5).$$

Similarly, the conditional variance is

$$\text{Var}(Z|x) = 1 - \frac{2 \times 2}{6} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

**Fact 21.61** (Stein's lemma) If  $Y$  has normal distribution and  $h(\cdot)$  is a differentiable function such that  $E|h'(Y)| < \infty$ , then  $\text{Cov}[Y, h(Y)] = \text{Var}(Y) E h'(Y)$ .

**Proof.**  $E[(Y - \mu)h(Y)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (Y - \mu)h(Y)\phi(Y; \mu, \sigma^2)dY$ , where  $\phi(Y; \mu, \sigma^2)$  is the pdf of  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Note that  $d\phi(Y; \mu, \sigma^2)/dY = -\phi(Y; \mu, \sigma^2)(Y - \mu)/\sigma^2$ , so the integral can be rewritten as  $-\sigma^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(Y)d\phi(Y; \mu, \sigma^2)$ . Integration by parts (“ $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$ ”) gives  $-\sigma^2 [h(Y)\phi(Y; \mu, \sigma^2)|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(Y; \mu, \sigma^2)h'(Y)dY] = \sigma^2 E h'(Y)$ . ■

**Fact 21.62** (Stein’s lemma 2) *It follows from Fact 21.61 that if  $X$  and  $Y$  have a bivariate normal distribution and  $h(\cdot)$  is a differentiable function such that  $E|h'(Y)| < \infty$ , then  $\text{Cov}[X, h(Y)] = \text{Cov}(X, Y) E h'(Y)$ .*

**Example 21.63** (a) *With  $h(Y) = \exp(Y)$  we get  $\text{Cov}[X, \exp(Y)] = \text{Cov}(X, Y) E \exp(Y)$ ; (b) with  $h(Y) = Y^2$  we get  $\text{Cov}[X, Y^2] = \text{Cov}(X, Y) 2E Y$  so with  $E Y = 0$  we get a zero covariance.*

**Fact 21.64** (Stein’s lemma 3) *Fact 21.62 still holds if the joint distribution of  $X$  and  $Y$  is a mixture of  $n$  bivariate normal distributions, provided the mean and variance of  $Y$  is the same in each of the  $n$  components. (See Söderlind (2009) for a proof.)*

**Fact 21.65** (Truncated normal distribution) *Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , and consider truncating the distribution so that we want moments conditional on  $a < X \leq b$ . Define  $a_0 = (a - \mu)/\sigma$  and  $b_0 = (b - \mu)/\sigma$ . Then,*

$$E(X|a < X \leq b) = \mu - \sigma \frac{\phi(b_0) - \phi(a_0)}{\Phi(b_0) - \Phi(a_0)} \text{ and}$$

$$\text{Var}(X|a < X \leq b) = \sigma^2 \left\{ 1 - \frac{b_0\phi(b_0) - a_0\phi(a_0)}{\Phi(b_0) - \Phi(a_0)} - \left[ \frac{\phi(b_0) - \phi(a_0)}{\Phi(b_0) - \Phi(a_0)} \right]^2 \right\}.$$

**Fact 21.66** (Lower truncation) *In Fact 21.65, let  $b \rightarrow \infty$ , so we only have the truncation  $a < X$ . Then, we have*

$$E(X|a < X) = \mu + \sigma \frac{\phi(a_0)}{1 - \Phi(a_0)} \text{ and}$$

$$\text{Var}(X|a < X) = \sigma^2 \left\{ 1 + \frac{a_0\phi(a_0)}{1 - \Phi(a_0)} - \left[ \frac{\phi(a_0)}{1 - \Phi(a_0)} \right]^2 \right\}.$$

*(The latter follows from  $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} b_0\phi(b_0) = 0$ .)*

**Example 21.67** *Suppose  $X \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  and we want to calculate  $E|x|$ . This is the same as  $E(X|X > 0) = 2\sigma\phi(0)$ .*



**Fact 21.68** (Upper truncation) In Fact 21.65, let  $a \rightarrow -\infty$ , so we only have the truncation  $X \leq b$ . Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} E(X|X \leq b) &= \mu - \sigma \frac{\phi(b_0)}{\Phi(b_0)} \text{ and} \\ \text{Var}(X|X \leq b) &= \sigma^2 \left\{ 1 - \frac{b_0\phi(b_0)}{\Phi(b_0)} - \left[ \frac{\phi(b_0)}{\Phi(b_0)} \right]^2 \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

(The latter follows from  $\lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} a_0\phi(a_0) = 0$ .)

**Fact 21.69** (Delta method) Consider an estimator  $\hat{\beta}_{k \times 1}$  which satisfies

$$\sqrt{T} \left( \hat{\beta} - \beta_0 \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \Omega),$$

and suppose we want the asymptotic distribution of a transformation of  $\beta$

$$\gamma_{q \times 1} = g(\beta),$$

where  $g(\cdot)$  is has continuous first derivatives. The result is

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{T} \left[ g(\hat{\beta}) - g(\beta_0) \right] &\xrightarrow{d} N(0, \Psi_{q \times q}), \text{ where} \\ \Psi &= \frac{\partial g(\beta_0)}{\partial \beta'} \Omega \frac{\partial g(\beta_0)'}{\partial \beta}, \text{ where } \frac{\partial g(\beta_0)}{\partial \beta'} \text{ is } q \times k. \end{aligned}$$

**Proof.** By the mean value theorem we have

$$g(\hat{\beta}) = g(\beta_0) + \frac{\partial g(\beta^*)}{\partial \beta'} (\hat{\beta} - \beta_0),$$

where

$$\frac{\partial g(\beta)}{\partial \beta'} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1(\beta)}{\partial \beta_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial g_1(\beta)}{\partial \beta_k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial g_q(\beta)}{\partial \beta_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial g_q(\beta)}{\partial \beta_k} \end{bmatrix}_{q \times k},$$

and we evaluate it at  $\beta^*$  which is (weakly) between  $\hat{\beta}$  and  $\beta_0$ . Premultiply by  $\sqrt{T}$  and rearrange as

$$\sqrt{T} \left[ g(\hat{\beta}) - g(\beta_0) \right] = \frac{\partial g(\beta^*)}{\partial \beta'} \sqrt{T} (\hat{\beta} - \beta_0).$$

If  $\hat{\beta}$  is consistent ( $\text{plim } \hat{\beta} = \beta_0$ ) and  $\partial g(\beta^*) / \partial \beta'$  is continuous, then by Slutsky's theorem  $\text{plim } \partial g(\beta^*) / \partial \beta' = \partial g(\beta_0) / \partial \beta'$ , which is a constant. The result then follows from the continuous mapping theorem. ■

### 21.7.2 The Lognormal Distribution

**Fact 21.70** (Univariate lognormal distribution) If  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and  $y = \exp(x)$  then the probability density function of  $y$ ,  $f(y)$  is

$$f(y) = \frac{1}{y\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\ln y - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}, y > 0.$$

The  $r$ th moment of  $y$  is  $E y^r = \exp(r\mu + r^2\sigma^2/2)$ . See 21.4 for an illustration.

**Example 21.71** The first two moments are  $E y = \exp(\mu + \sigma^2/2)$  and  $E y^2 = \exp(2\mu + 2\sigma^2)$ . We therefore get  $\text{Var}(y) = \exp(2\mu + \sigma^2) [\exp(\sigma^2) - 1]$  and  $\text{Std}(y) / E y = \sqrt{\exp(\sigma^2) - 1}$ .

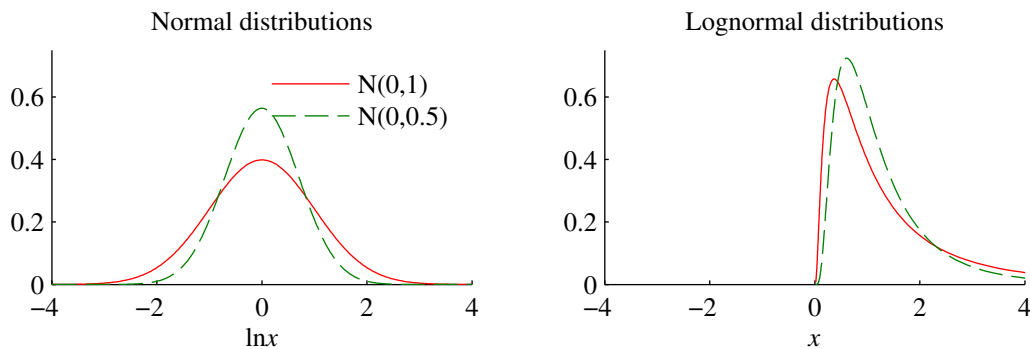


Figure 21.4: Lognormal distribution

**Fact 21.72** (Moments of a truncated lognormal distribution) If  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and  $y = \exp(x)$  then  $E(y^r | y > a) = E(y^r) \Phi(r\sigma - a_0) / \Phi(-a_0)$ , where  $a_0 = (\ln a - \mu) / \sigma$ . Note that the denominator is  $\Pr(y > a) = \Phi(-a_0)$ . In contrast,  $E(y^r | y \leq b) = E(y^r) \Phi(-r\sigma + b_0) / \Phi(b_0)$ , where  $b_0 = (\ln b - \mu) / \sigma$ . The denominator is  $\Pr(y \leq b) = \Phi(b_0)$ . Clearly,  $E(y^r) = \exp(r\mu + r^2\sigma^2/2)$

**Fact 21.73** (Moments of a truncated lognormal distribution, two-sided truncation) If  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and  $y = \exp(x)$  then

$$E(y^r | a > y < b) = E(y^r) \frac{\Phi(r\sigma - a_0) - \Phi(r\sigma - b_0)}{\Phi(b_0) - \Phi(a_0)},$$

where  $a_0 = (\ln a - \mu) / \sigma$  and  $b_0 = (\ln b - \mu) / \sigma$ . Note that the denominator is  $\Pr(a > y < b) = \Phi(b_0) - \Phi(a_0)$ . Clearly,  $E(y^r) = \exp(r\mu + r^2\sigma^2/2)$ .

**Example 21.74** The first two moments of the truncated (from below) lognormal distribution are  $E(y|y > a) = \exp(\mu + \sigma^2/2) \Phi(\sigma - a_0)/\Phi(-a_0)$  and  $E(y^2|y > a) = \exp(2\mu + 2\sigma^2) \Phi(2\sigma - a_0)/\Phi(-a_0)$ .

**Example 21.75** The first two moments of the truncated (from above) lognormal distribution are  $E(y|y \leq b) = \exp(\mu + \sigma^2/2) \Phi(-\sigma + b_0)/\Phi(b_0)$  and  $E(y^2|y \leq b) = \exp(2\mu + 2\sigma^2) \Phi(-2\sigma + b_0)/\Phi(b_0)$ .

**Fact 21.76** (Multivariate lognormal distribution) Let the  $n \times 1$  vector  $x$  have a multivariate normal distribution

$$x \sim N(\mu, \Sigma), \text{ where } \mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \cdots & \sigma_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{n1} & \cdots & \sigma_{nn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then  $y = \exp(x)$  has a lognormal distribution, with the means and covariances

$$\begin{aligned} E y_i &= \exp(\mu_i + \sigma_{ii}/2) \\ \text{Cov}(y_i, y_j) &= \exp[\mu_i + \mu_j + (\sigma_{ii} + \sigma_{jj})/2] [\exp(\sigma_{ij}) - 1] \\ \text{Corr}(y_i, y_j) &= [\exp(\sigma_{ij}) - 1] / \sqrt{[\exp(\sigma_{ii}) - 1][\exp(\sigma_{jj}) - 1]}. \end{aligned}$$

Clearly,  $\text{Var}(y_i) = \exp[2\mu_i + \sigma_{ii}] [\exp(\sigma_{ii}) - 1]$ .  $\text{Cov}(y_1, y_2)$  and  $\text{Corr}(y_1, y_2)$  have the same sign as  $\text{Corr}(x_i, x_j)$  and are increasing in it. However,  $\text{Corr}(y_i, y_j)$  is closer to zero.

### 21.7.3 The Chi-Square Distribution

**Fact 21.77** (The  $\chi_n^2$  distribution) If  $Y \sim \chi_n^2$ , then the pdf of  $Y$  is  $f(y) = \frac{1}{2^{n/2}\Gamma(n/2)} y^{n/2-1} e^{-y/2}$ , where  $\Gamma(\cdot)$  is the gamma function. The moment generating function is  $mgf_Y(t) = (1 - 2t)^{-n/2}$  for  $t < 1/2$ . The first moments of  $Y$  are  $E Y = n$  and  $\text{Var}(Y) = 2n$ .

**Fact 21.78** (Quadratic forms of normally distribution random variables) If the  $n \times 1$  vector  $X \sim N(0, \Sigma)$ , then  $Y = X' \Sigma^{-1} X \sim \chi_n^2$ . Therefore, if the  $n$  scalar random variables  $X_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , are uncorrelated and have the distributions  $N(0, \sigma_i^2)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , then  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 / \sigma_i^2 \sim \chi_n^2$ .

**Fact 21.79** (Distribution of  $X'AX$ ) If the  $n \times 1$  vector  $X \sim N(\mathbf{0}, I)$ , and  $A$  is a symmetric idempotent matrix ( $A = A'$  and  $A = AA = A'A$ ) of rank  $r$ , then  $Y = X'AX \sim \chi_r^2$ .

**Fact 21.80** (Distribution of  $X'\Sigma^+X$ ) If the  $n \times 1$  vector  $X \sim N(0, \Sigma)$ , where  $\Sigma$  has rank  $r \leq n$  then  $Y = X'\Sigma^+X \sim \chi_r^2$  where  $\Sigma^+$  is the pseudo inverse of  $\Sigma$ .

**Proof.**  $\Sigma$  is symmetric, so it can be decomposed as  $\Sigma = C\Lambda C'$  where  $C$  are the orthogonal eigenvector ( $C'C = I$ ) and  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix with the eigenvalues along the main diagonal. We therefore have  $\Sigma = C\Lambda C' = C_1\Lambda_{11}C_1'$  where  $C_1$  is an  $n \times r$  matrix associated with the  $r$  non-zero eigenvalues (found in the  $r \times r$  matrix  $\Lambda_{11}$ ). The generalized inverse can be shown to be

$$\Sigma^+ = \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & C_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_{11}^{-1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & C_2 \end{bmatrix}' = C_1\Lambda_{11}^{-1}C_1',$$

We can write  $\Sigma^+ = C_1\Lambda_{11}^{-1/2}\Lambda_{11}^{-1/2}C_1'$ . Consider the  $r \times 1$  vector  $Z = \Lambda_{11}^{-1/2}C_1'X$ , and note that it has the covariance matrix

$$EZZ' = \Lambda_{11}^{-1/2}C_1'E XX'C_1\Lambda_{11}^{-1/2} = \Lambda_{11}^{-1/2}C_1'C_1\Lambda_{11}C_1'C_1\Lambda_{11}^{-1/2} = I_r,$$

since  $C_1'C_1 = I_r$ . This shows that  $Z \sim N(\mathbf{0}_{r \times 1}, I_r)$ , so  $Z'Z = X'\Sigma^+X \sim \chi_r^2$ . ■

**Fact 21.81** (Convergence to a normal distribution) Let  $Y \sim \chi_n^2$  and  $Z = (Y - n)/n^{1/2}$ . Then  $Z \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 2)$ .

**Example 21.82** If  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 / \sigma_i^2$ , then this transformation means  $Z = (\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 / \sigma_i^2 - n) / n^{1/2}$ .

**Proof.** We can directly note from the moments of a  $\chi_n^2$  variable that  $EY = n$  and  $\text{Var}(Y) = 2n$ . From the general properties of moment generating functions, we note that the moment generating function of  $Z$  is

$$mgf_Z(t) = e^{-t\sqrt{n}} \left(1 - \frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^{-n/2} \quad \text{with} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} mgf_Z(t) = \exp(t^2).$$

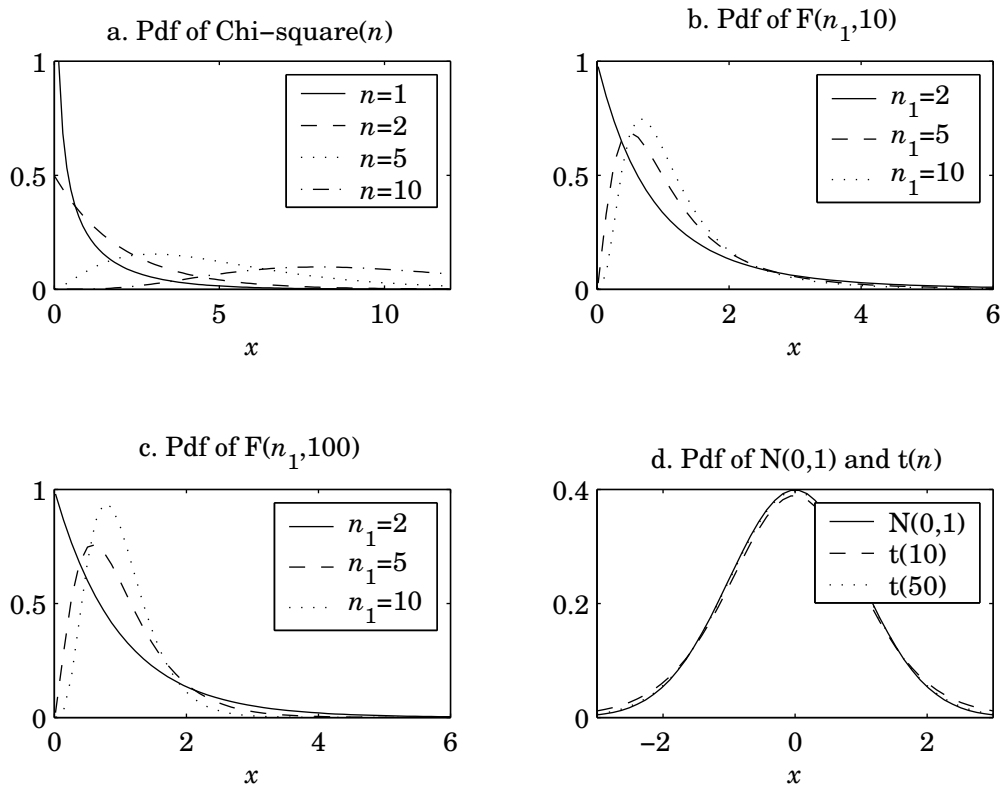


Figure 21.5:  $\chi^2$ , F, and t distributions

This is the moment generating function of a  $N(0, 2)$  distribution, which shows that  $Z \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 2)$ . This result should not come as a surprise as we can think of  $Y$  as the sum of  $n$  variables; dividing by  $n^{1/2}$  is then like creating a scaled sample average for which a central limit theorem applies. ■

#### 21.7.4 The t and F Distributions

**Fact 21.83** (The  $F(n_1, n_2)$  distribution) If  $Y_1 \sim \chi_{n_1}^2$  and  $Y_2 \sim \chi_{n_2}^2$  and  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are independent, then  $Z = (Y_1/n_1)/(Y_2/n_2)$  has an  $F(n_1, n_2)$  distribution. This distribution has no moment generating function, but  $E Z = n_2/(n_2 - 2)$  for  $n > 2$ .

**Fact 21.84** (Convergence of an  $F(n_1, n_2)$  distribution) In Fact (21.83), the distribution of  $n_1 Z = Y_1/(Y_2/n_2)$  converges to a  $\chi_{n_1}^2$  distribution as  $n_2 \rightarrow \infty$ . (The idea is essentially that  $n_2 \rightarrow \infty$  the denominator converges to the mean, which is  $E Y_2/n_2 = 1$ . Only the numerator is then left, which is a  $\chi_{n_1}^2$  variable.)

**Fact 21.85** (The  $t_n$  distribution) If  $X \sim N(0, 1)$  and  $Y \sim \chi_n^2$  and  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $Z = X/(Y/n)^{1/2}$  has a  $t_n$  distribution. The moment generating function does not exist, but  $E Z = 0$  for  $n > 1$  and  $\text{Var}(Z) = n/(n - 2)$  for  $n > 2$ .

**Fact 21.86** (Convergence of a  $t_n$  distribution) The  $t$  distribution converges to a  $N(0, 1)$  distribution as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Fact 21.87** ( $t_n$  versus  $F(1, n)$  distribution) If  $Z \sim t_n$ , then  $Z^2 \sim F(1, n)$ .

### 21.7.5 The Bernoulli and Binomial Distributions

**Fact 21.88** (Bernoulli distribution) The random variable  $X$  can only take two values: 1 or 0, with probability  $p$  and  $1 - p$  respectively. The moment generating function is  $\text{mgf}(t) = pe^t + 1 - p$ . This gives  $E(X) = p$  and  $\text{Var}(X) = p(1 - p)$ .

**Example 21.89** (Shifted Bernoulli distribution) Suppose the Bernoulli variable takes the values  $a$  or  $b$  (instead of 1 and 0) with probability  $p$  and  $1 - p$  respectively. Then  $E(X) = pa + (1 - p)b$  and  $\text{Var}(X) = p(1 - p)(a - b)^2$ .

**Fact 21.90** (Binomial distribution). Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  all have Bernoulli distributions with the parameter  $p$ . Then, the sum  $Y = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$  has a Binomial distribution with parameters  $p$  and  $n$ . The pdf is  $\text{pdf}(Y) = n!/[y!(n - y)!]p^y(1 - p)^{n - y}$  for  $y = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . The moment generating function is  $\text{mgf}(t) = [pe^t + 1 - p]^n$ . This gives  $E(Y) = np$  and  $\text{Var}(Y) = np(1 - p)$ .

**Example 21.91** (Shifted Binomial distribution) Suppose the Bernoulli variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  take the values  $a$  or  $b$  (instead of 1 and 0) with probability  $p$  and  $1 - p$  respectively. Then, the sum  $Y = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$  has  $E(Y) = n[pa + (1 - p)b]$  and  $\text{Var}(Y) = n[p(1 - p)(a - b)^2]$ .

### 21.7.6 The Skew-Normal Distribution

**Fact 21.92** (Skew-normal distribution) Let  $\phi$  and  $\Phi$  be the standard normal pdf and cdf respectively. The pdf of a skew-normal distribution with shape parameter  $\alpha$  is then

$$f(z) = 2\phi(z)\Phi(\alpha z).$$

If  $Z$  has the above pdf and

$$Y = \mu + \omega Z \text{ with } \omega > 0,$$

then  $Y$  is said to have a  $SN(\mu, \omega^2, \alpha)$  distribution (see Azzalini (2005)). Clearly, the pdf of  $Y$  is

$$f(y) = 2\phi[(y - \mu)/\omega] \Phi[\alpha(y - \mu)/\omega] / \omega.$$

The moment generating function is  $mgf_y(t) = 2 \exp(\mu t + \omega^2 t^2 / 2) \Phi(\delta \omega t)$  where  $\delta = \alpha / \sqrt{1 + \alpha^2}$ . When  $\alpha > 0$  then the distribution is positively skewed (and vice versa)—and when  $\alpha = 0$  the distribution becomes a normal distribution. When  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$ , then the density function is zero for  $Y \leq \mu$ , and  $2\phi[(y - \mu)/\omega] / \omega$  otherwise—this is a half-normal distribution.

**Example 21.93** The first three moments are as follows. First, notice that  $E Z = \sqrt{2/\pi} \delta$ ,  $\text{Var}(Z) = 1 - 2\delta^2/\pi$  and  $E(Z - E Z)^3 = (4/\pi - 1)\sqrt{2/\pi} \delta^3$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} E Y &= \mu + \omega E Z \\ \text{Var}(Y) &= \omega^2 \text{Var}(Z) \\ E(Y - E Y)^3 &= \omega^3 E(Z - E Z)^3. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that with  $\alpha = 0$  (so  $\delta = 0$ ), then these moments of  $Y$  become  $\mu$ ,  $\omega^2$  and 0 respectively.

### 21.7.7 Generalized Pareto Distribution

**Fact 21.94** (Cdf and pdf of the generalized Pareto distribution) The generalized Pareto distribution is described by a scale parameter ( $\beta > 0$ ) and a shape parameter ( $\xi$ ). The cdf ( $\Pr(Z \leq z)$ , where  $Z$  is the random variable and  $z$  is a value) is

$$G(z) = \begin{cases} 1 - (1 + \xi z/\beta)^{-1/\xi} & \text{if } \xi \neq 0 \\ 1 - \exp(-z/\beta) & \xi = 0, \end{cases}$$

for  $0 \leq z$  and  $z \leq -\beta/\xi$  in case  $\xi < 0$ . The pdf is therefore

$$g(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta} (1 + \xi z/\beta)^{-1/\xi - 1} & \text{if } \xi \neq 0 \\ \frac{1}{\beta} \exp(-z/\beta) & \xi = 0. \end{cases}$$

The mean is defined (finite) if  $\xi < 1$  and is then  $E(z) = \beta/(1 - \xi)$ , the median is  $(2^\xi - 1)\beta/\xi$  and the variance is defined if  $\xi < 1/2$  and is then  $\beta^2/[(1 - \xi)^2(1 - 2\xi)]$ .

## 21.8 Inference

**Fact 21.95** (Comparing variance-covariance matrices) Let  $\text{Var}(\hat{\beta})$  and  $\text{Var}(\beta^*)$  be the variance-covariance matrices of two estimators,  $\hat{\beta}$  and  $\beta^*$ , and suppose  $\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) - \text{Var}(\beta^*)$  is a positive semi-definite matrix. This means that for any non-zero vector  $R$  that  $R' \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) R \geq R' \text{Var}(\beta^*) R$ , so every linear combination of  $\hat{\beta}$  has a variance that is as large as the variance of the same linear combination of  $\beta^*$ . In particular, this means that the variance of every element in  $\hat{\beta}$  (the diagonal elements of  $\text{Var}(\hat{\beta})$ ) is at least as large as variance of the corresponding element of  $\beta^*$ .



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