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MF793 - Fall 2021

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Common Distributions in Financial Econometrics

- We saw the Normal and the Log-normal in a previous handout
- We now take a tour of the crucial univariate distributions that pop up all the time:

Chi-square, Student-t, F, Bernoulli, Binomial

• These distributions can arise as those of a random process of interest or the estimator of a parameter such as mean, variance, ratio of variances, etc..

1. The Chi-Square Distribution

• A RV x > 0 has the chi-square $\chi^2(v)$ distribution with y degrees of freedom, if its density is:

$$p(x \mid v) = \frac{x^{\frac{v}{2} - 1} e^{-x/2}}{2^{\frac{v}{2}} \Gamma(\frac{v}{2})}, \quad x > 0$$

- Mean: E(x) = v Variance: V(x) = 2v No proof
- The Gamma function in the integration constant is: $\Gamma(q) = \int_0^\infty u^{q-1} e^{-u} du$
 - $\circ\,$ Gamma function increases quickly and overflows for large ν
 - o Gamma function is equal to the Factorial for integers: $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$
 - o In computations, use the log of the gamma before taking the exponential: Igamma in R
- We already proved the density of the $\chi^2(1)$, the square of a unit normal. So: $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$

Property 1: A χ² (ν) with ν degrees of freedom, can be written as the sum of squares of ν independent standardized Normal RVs.

 Property 2: A sum of independent chi-squares is distributed chi-square with degrees of freedom, the sum of the degrees of freedom:

$$\chi^{2}(v_{1}) + \chi^{2}(v_{2}) + ... + \chi^{2}(v_{m}) \sim \chi^{2}(v_{1}+v_{2}+..+v_{m})$$
 [2]

[2] follows directly from [1] above

No proof asked for [1], see Casella & Berger (proof by mgf)

- Shape of the chi-square:
 - $_{\odot}\,$ As all distribution bounded on one side (here >0), the χ^{2} is asymmetric with >0 skewness.

The asymmetry is more pronounced if the bound matters more.

... When does the bound matter more ?

Mode of the
$$\chi^2$$
: dp/dx=0 Mode = v-2 prove it. What if $v \le 2$?

Skewness:
$$\sqrt{8/v}$$
 As ${m v}
ightarrow \infty$, the asymmetry disappears

In R, use dchisq, rchisq to see the shape of the χ^2 .

The sample variance of normal data is distributed as a
$$\chi^2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\chi_t - w}{\sigma} \end{bmatrix}^2 = \sum \frac{\chi_t - \chi_t + \chi_t - w}{\sigma^2} = \sum \frac{\chi_t - \chi_t}{\sigma^2} + \sum \frac{\chi_t - \chi_t}{\sigma^2} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3) looks like a sum of T standardized squared Normals if $\chi_t \sim \text{iid N}(u, \sigma)$

[3] looks like a sum of T standardized squared Normals if $X_t \sim iid N(\mu, \sigma)$.

[3] is **not** a $\chi^2(T)$: The T deviations $X_t - \bar{X}$ are **not** independent, because they all contain \bar{X}

- s^2 and \bar{X} are independent for the normal distribution (no proof, but know it) [4]
- In fact, [3] ~ $\chi^2(v=T-1)$ prove it using properties [2] and [4]
- Fundamental result for Normal data:

If
$$X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$$
, then $\frac{vs^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(\nu)$, with $\nu = T - 1$

$$\int s^2 \sim \frac{\sigma^2}{\nu} \chi^2(\nu) \qquad \qquad \int \alpha r(\delta^2) = \frac{\delta^4}{\nu^2} \times 2\nu = \frac{2\delta^4}{T - 1} \qquad [5]$$

This exact (small) sample result requires the normality of the underlying data.

- How wrong is [5] if the data are not normal? In R, simulate non-normal data and look! See the R lecture note and the χ^2 widget.
- Practice: Use the change of variable rule to find the pdf of s², the pdf of s, the distribution of the precision h = 1/s².

They all belong to the *Gamma family of distributions*, crucial in Bayesian analysis.

- From [5], we can now show that $Var(s^2) = \frac{2\sigma^4}{T-1}$ Prove it using the variance of the χ^2
- Confidence interval for the variance using the χ^2 distribution. We have

$$P\left(\chi_{0.025}^{2} < \frac{vs^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} < \chi_{0.975}^{2}\right) = 0.95$$

$$P\left(\sqrt{s^{2}} / \chi_{0.975}^{2}\right) < \sigma^{2} < \sqrt{s^{2}} / \chi_{0.935}^{2}\right) = 0.95$$

• Contrast the exact sample distribution in [5] with the following large sample (asymptotic) normal approximation. It does not require the data to be normal but requires a large sample.

$$s^2 \sim N(\sigma^2, 2\sigma^4/T)$$

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{7} \left[\frac{2\sigma^2}{T} \right]$$

How large a sample? In, R simulate s² and check its normality. See R lecture note.

2. The Student-t Distribution

Salient facts:

- Used to model fatter tails (higher probabilities of extreme events) than the normal for stocks and other financial series returns.
- Arises in the estimation of the mean of normally distributed random variables
- Standardized version has 1 crucial parameter: Degrees of freedom v
- $\bullet~$ As $\nu\!\to\!\infty~$, the Student-t converges to the normal
- The lower v, the "fatter" the tails.

Definition:

If $Y \sim N(0,1)$, $Z \sim \chi^2(v)$, Y and Z are independent, then $t = \frac{Y}{\sqrt{Z/v}}$ is said to have a Student-t distribution with v degrees of freedom.

Density:

$$p(t|\nu) = \frac{\Gamma[(\nu+1)/2]}{\sqrt{\nu} \Gamma(1/2) \Gamma(\nu/2)} \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu}\right)^{-(\nu+1)/2}, \quad -\infty < t < \infty,$$

• There is a non-standardized version of the Student-t with non-zero mean and a scale Exercise: Use the change of variable rule to find the density of $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{\sigma} \mathbf{t}$

Crucial Properties

- Symmetric, all odd moments are zero
- Variance: V(t_v) = v / (v-2) it is infinite if v ≤ 2.
 The variance of the standardized t is larger than 1, variance inflation factor
- Kurtosis: $K(t_v) = 3 + 6 / (v-4)$, it is infinite if $v \le 4$.
- Moments of order ν and above do not exist.

• Student-t(v=1) is the Cauchy density, its mean does not exist $p(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}$

Fat-tailness and financial returns

Can the t generate the fat tails we see in financial returns?

Kurtosis implied by the Student-t is either 9 (v=5) or infinite!

We often find kurtosis higher than 9: Do stock returns have infinite kurtosis?

The Student-t is the sampling density of the sample mean for normal data

Recall:
$$t = \frac{Y}{\sqrt{\chi^2(v)/v}}$$

Recall: $t = \frac{Y}{\sqrt{\chi^2(v)/v}}$ Estimate the mean and standard deviation of T=v+1 normal data,

we have
$$Y = \frac{(\bar{R} - \mu)}{\sigma/\sqrt{N}} \sim N(0,1)$$
 and $\frac{vs^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(v)$

• Can easily shows that $\frac{(\overline{R}-\mu)}{s/\sqrt{N}} \sim t(v)$ Prove it

Needed piece of the proof omitted for now: \bar{R} and s are independent

- Is t(v) very different from its normal approximation? Check quantiles in R, for T=20, 40, 60, 100

$$\frac{-\frac{V^2+1}{2} \cdot \lfloor og(\frac{1+t^2}{V})}{\sqrt{-\infty}} \cdot \frac{-\frac{V^2+1}{2} \cdot \frac{t^2}{V}}{\sqrt{-e^{-\frac{1}{2}}}} \cdot \frac{t^2}{\sqrt{-e^{-\frac{1}{2}}}}$$

• The t converges to the Normal as
$$v \to \infty$$
, $\lim_{v \to \infty} (1 + t^2/v)^{-(v+1)/2}$? **Prove it**

$$-\frac{v^2+1}{2} \cdot \log \left(\frac{|t^{t^2}|}{v}\right) \cdot e^{-\frac{v^2+1}{2} \cdot \frac{t^2}{v}} = e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}}$$

$$\times e^{-\frac{v^2+1}{2} \cdot \frac{t^2}{v}} = e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} = e^{-\frac{$$

3. The F distribution

Definition: If $Y_1 \sim \chi^2(v_1)$ and $Y_2 \sim \chi^2(v_2)$ are independent, then the ratio

$$X = \frac{Y_{1}/v_{1}}{Y_{2}/v_{2}} \qquad \frac{Y_{1}}{Y_{1}} \qquad \frac{S_{1}}{S_{1}}$$

has the Fischer (F) distribution with degrees of freedom (v₁, v₂).

• $E(X) = v_2 / (v_2-2)$ No proof $\lim_{1/2 \to \infty} \int_{V_1}^{V_2} v_1 dv_2 = \frac{\chi_{v_1}^2}{v_1}$

What happens when the degrees of freedom increase, numerator, denominator, ratio?

Where does it arise in Financial Econometrics?

• To compare the variances of two samples, test whether variance changes through subsamples Greg Chow's test.

The **variance ratio** is easy to compute and has an F distribution under the null hypothesis that the two true variances are equal, and the data are normal:

$$VR = \frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2} = \frac{v_1 s_1^2 / \sigma_1^2 v_1}{v_2 s_2^2 / \sigma_2^2 v_2} \sim F(v_1, v_2)$$

When is the second equality true?

Careful: The two chi-squares must be independent!

• Jim Poterba and Larry Summers use variance ratios to assess the predictability of stock returns.

If stocks are not predictable, the aggregation of variance must be perfect.

Use M-period returns R_M : estimate σ_M : s_M with $1+v_M$ observations.

Use one-period returns R: estimate σ_1 : s_1 with $1+v_1=M(1+v_M)$ obs.

Null hypothesis H₀: $\sigma_M^2 = M \sigma_1^2$, or $VR_{PS} = \frac{S_M^2}{M S_1^2} = 1$

The distribution of this VR is in fact not trivial in small sample, it is not an F!

Generally we find VR a bit higher than 1 for horizons below one year (momentum)

VR a bit lower than 1 for horizons above one year (reversals)

4. The Binomial distribution

• Bernoulli trial:
$$X_i \sim Bern(p)$$
: $p(X_i=1) = p$

$$E(X_i) = p * 1 + (1-p) * 0 = p$$

$$E(X_i^2) = p * 1 + 0 = p$$

$$V(X_i) = p-p^2 = p(1-p)$$

• Binomial: Sum of n independent Bernoulli trials

$$p(X = x) = {n \choose x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}, x \in [0, n]$$
 integer

$$E(X) = np$$

$$V(X) = n p (1-p)$$

• Application in Finance:

- 1. Think of an i.i.d. sample of n managers with probability p of beating the market
- 2. Approximation of the normal distribution: Binomial converges to a Normal distribution as the number of steps increases.

Binomial trees in derivatives pricing: Increase the number of steps for a given option maturity

Then the Binomial price converges to the Log-normal based Black-Scholes price

$$E\left[\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^{3}\right] = \frac{1-2p}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}} \qquad E\left[\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^{4}\right] = 3 + \frac{1-6p(1-p)}{np(1-p)}.$$

As n gets large, Skewness goes to zero, Kurtosis to 3, no matter what p is.

In option pricing, one can choose p to calibrate a desired variance of the limiting normal

• **Application**: Estimation of p via the sample proportion random variable: X/n.

N=250 Fund managers, X=140 beat the market

Can we reject the null H₀ that the probability of a manager beating the market is 0.5?

$$\hat{p} = \frac{X}{n} = 0.56$$

$$V(\widehat{p}) = \frac{np(1-p)}{n^2} = \frac{p(1-p)}{n}$$

• Normal approximation for the Binomial with large n:

$$\widehat{p} \stackrel{\cdot}{\sim} N (p, \frac{p(1-p)}{N})$$