

Matrix Algebra and Some Distribution Theory

Economics 620 - Spring 1999

Professor N.M.Kiefer T.A.: Chang Park

1. Matrix Algebra

1.1 Partitioned matrix and its inverse

² Addition and multiplication

$$A + B = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} + B_{11} & A_{12} + B_{12} \\ A_{21} + B_{21} & A_{22} + B_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21} & A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22} \\ A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21} & A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

² Determinant of a partitioned matrix

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= |A_{22}| |A_{11} - A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}|$$

$$= |A_{11}| |A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}|$$

provided that both A_{11} and A_{22} are non-singular.

² Inverse of a partitioned matrix

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}^{-1}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} F_{11} & -F_{11}A_{12}A_{22}^{-1} \\ -A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}F_{11} & A_{22}^{-1} + A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}F_{11}A_{12}A_{22}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} A_{11}^{-1} + A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}F_{22}A_{21}A_{11}^{-1} & -A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}F_{22} \\ -F_{22}A_{21}A_{11}^{-1} & F_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

where $F_{11} = |A_{11} - A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}|^{-1}$ and $F_{22} = |A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}|^{-1}$ provided that both A_{11} and A_{22} are non-singular.

² An important application of inverse of partitioned matrix; Suppose we partition a matrix

$$X \text{ as } X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 & X_2 \\ (n \times K) & (n \times (K-l)) \end{pmatrix} :$$

$$X^{-1}X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1^{-1}X_1 & X_1^{-1}X_2 \\ X_2^{-1}X_1 & X_2^{-1}X_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(X^0 X)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1^0 X_1 & X_1^0 X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0 X_1 \\ \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

The upper left block (I ∈ I) matrix can be expressed as

$$X_1^0 X_1 + X_1^0 X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0 X_1 = X_1^0 [I + X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0] X_1 = [X_1^0 M_2 X_1]^{-1}$$

where $M_2 = I + X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0$: The matrix M_2 plays quite an important and unique role in multiple regression model.

M_2 is symmetric and idempotent.

$$\begin{aligned} M_2 M_2^0 &= [I + X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0] [I + X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0] \\ &= [I + X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0] X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0 + X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0 X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0 \\ &= [I + X_2 (X_2^0 X_2)^{-1} X_2^0] = M_2 \end{aligned}$$

$M_2 X_2 = 0$:

1.2 Eigenvectors and eigenvalues of real matrix

Suppose the solution of the following system of equations;

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

where A is an $(n \times n)$ square matrix, x is a non null $(n \times 1)$ vector and λ is a scalar. The λ 's satisfying the system of equations are called eigenvalues (characteristic values, latent values) and x 's eigenvectors (characteristic vectors, latent vectors). We can rewrite the system as

$$(A - \lambda I)x = 0$$

If the matrix $(A - \lambda I)$ is non-singular - i.e. its inverse exists, the only solution is the trivial solution, $x = 0$: In order for a non-trivial solution to exist, we should have a singular matrix $(A - \lambda I)$; which implies that

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

We can find the eigenvalues of a matrix A by expanding above determinant and solving the n th order polynomial equation.

Example;

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then,

$$|A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} 4 - \lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 1 - \lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

Therefore,

$$(A - \lambda I)x = (A - 5I)x = 0$$

The solutions for the equation is given by;

$$\lambda_1 = 5 \text{ and } \lambda_2 = 0$$

For $\lambda_1 = 5$;

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = 2x_2$$

One element in the eigenvector is always arbitrary. The usual practice is to normalize the vector so that we have unit length for the eigenvectors, i.e., $x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$: Then, the eigenvector corresponding to $\lambda_1 = 5$ is

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

For $\lambda_2 = 0$; it is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that the matrix X whose columns consist of eigenvectors of a matrix is an orthogonal matrix - columns of the matrix are orthogonal;

$$X = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Moreover,

$$X^{-1}X = XX^{-1} = I$$

and

$$X^{-i} = X^i$$

Suppose X is $(n \times n)$ real matrix.

- 2 **The sum of the eigenvalues of X is equal to the sum of its diagonal elements(trace).**
- 2 The product of the eigenvalues of X is equal to its determinants.
- 2 **The rank of X is equal to the number of its non-zero eigenvalues.**
- 2 The eigenvalues of X^{-1} are the reciprocals of those of X ; but eigenvectors are the same.
- 2 **Each eigenvalues of an idempotent matrix is either 0 or 1:**
- 2 **The rank of an idempotent matrix is equal to its trace.**

Now, we assume that X is $(n \times n)$ **symmetric** matrix as well as real.

- 2 The eigenvalues of X are real.
- 2 Eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are pairwise orthogonal.
- 2 **The orthogonal matrix of eigenvectors diagonalizes X , i.e., $X = Q^{-1}\Lambda Q$ where Q is $(n \times n)$ orthogonal matrix whose columns consist of eigenvectors of X and Λ is $(n \times n)$ diagonal matrix whose main diagonals consist of eigenvalues of X :**
- 2 Any *symmetric positive definite* matrix X can be factored into LL^T where L is a lower

triangular matrix. It is called the *Cholesky* decomposition.

1.3 Rank of a matrix

- ² The maximum number of linearly independent rows is equal to the maximum number of linearly independent columns. This number is the rank of the matrix, denoted by $\frac{1}{2}(X)$:
- ² $\frac{1}{2}(X) = \min(m; n)$ where m and n are row and column dimensions of a matrix X :
- ² $\frac{1}{2}(X) = \frac{1}{2}(X^0)$:
- ² If $\frac{1}{2}(X) = m = n$; X is non-singular and a unique inverse X^{-1} exists.
- ² $\frac{1}{2}(X^0 X) = \frac{1}{2}(X X^0) = \frac{1}{2}(X)$:
- ² If P and Q are non-singular matrices of orders m and n ; then $\frac{1}{2}(P X) = \frac{1}{2}(X Q) = \frac{1}{2}(P X Q) = \frac{1}{2}(X)$:
- ² $\frac{1}{2}(X Y) = \min[\frac{1}{2}(X); \frac{1}{2}(Y)]$ where Y is $(n \times l)$ matrix.

1.4 Kronecker products

- ² The Kronecker product is defined as

$$A \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}B & a_{12}B & \dots & a_{1K}B \\ a_{21}B & a_{22}B & \dots & a_{2K}B \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1}B & a_{n2}B & \dots & a_{nK}B \end{bmatrix}$$

- ² $(A \otimes B)^{-1} = A^{-1} \otimes B^{-1}$ if A and B are square and non-singular.
- ² $(A \otimes B)^0 = A^0 \otimes B^0$:
- ² If A is $(l \times l)$ and B is $(n \times n)$; then $j(A \otimes B) = jA \otimes jB$:
- ² $\text{tr}(A \otimes B) = \text{tr}(A) \text{tr}(B)$:
- ² $(A \otimes B)(C \otimes D) = AC \otimes BD$:
- ² $A \otimes (B + C) = A \otimes B + A \otimes C$; $A \otimes (B - C) = (A \otimes B) - A \otimes C$:

1.5 vec and vech operators

- ² Suppose that X is $(m \times n)$ matrix expressed as $X = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 & X_2 & \dots & X_n \end{bmatrix}$ where X_i is the i th column of the matrix X : Then

$$\text{vec}(X) = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \dots \\ X_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$(mn \times 1)$

- ² $\text{vec}(ABC) = (C^0 - A) \text{vec}(B)$:
- ² Suppose that X is $(n \times n)$ matrix. *vech* operator transforms an $(n \times n)$ matrix into

an $\frac{n(n+1)}{2} \times 1$ vector by vertically stacking those elements on or below the main diagonal. For example,

$$\text{vech} \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ a_{31} \\ a_{22} \\ a_{32} \\ a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

1.6 Matrix Differentiation

Let a and x are $(k \times 1)$ vectors and A is an $(k \times k)$ matrix.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial (a^0 x)}{\partial x} &= a & \frac{\partial (a^0 x)}{\partial x^0} &= a^0 \\ \frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial x} &= (A + A^0) x & \frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial x \partial x^0} &= (A + A^0) \\ \frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial A} &= x x^0 \end{aligned}$$

We don't want to prove the claim rigorously. But

$$a^0 x = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i x_i$$

If you want to differentiate the function with respect to x , you have to differentiate the function with respect to each element of vector x and form a vector -called gradient- with the result.

$$\frac{\partial (a^0 x)}{\partial x} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial (a^0 x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial (a^0 x)}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial (a^0 x)}{\partial x_k} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_k \end{pmatrix} = a$$

You can understand $\frac{\partial (a^0 x)}{\partial x^0}$ simply as the transpose of $\frac{\partial (a^0 x)}{\partial x}$: For the differentiation of the quadratic form, consider the summation expression;

$$\begin{aligned} x^0 A x &= \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^k x_i a_{ij} x_j \\ &= x_1 a_{11} x_1 + x_1 a_{12} x_2 + x_1 a_{13} x_3 + \dots + x_1 a_{1k} x_k \\ &\quad + x_2 a_{21} x_1 + x_2 a_{22} x_2 + x_2 a_{23} x_3 + \dots + x_2 a_{2k} x_k \\ &\quad + x_3 a_{31} x_1 + x_3 a_{32} x_2 + x_3 a_{33} x_3 + \dots + x_3 a_{3k} x_k \\ &\quad + \dots \\ &\quad + x_k a_{k1} x_1 + x_k a_{k2} x_2 + x_k a_{k3} x_3 + \dots + x_k a_{kk} x_k \end{aligned}$$

Now, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial x_1} &= 2a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \dots + a_{1k}x_k \\ &\quad + x_2 a_{21} + x_3 a_{31} + \dots + x_k a_{k1} \\ &= a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \dots + a_{1k}x_k \\ &\quad + a_{11}x_1 + a_{21}x_2 + a_{31}x_3 + \dots + a_{k1}x_k \\ &= A_1 x + A^{10} x = \mathbf{i} A_1 + A^{10} x \end{aligned}$$

where A_1 is the first row of the matrix A and A^1 is the first column of the matrix A . Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial x_2} &= a_{21}x_1 + 2a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \dots + a_{2k}x_k \\ &\quad + x_1 a_{12} + x_3 a_{32} + \dots + x_k a_{k2} \\ &= a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \dots + a_{2k}x_k \\ &\quad + a_{12}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{32}x_3 + \dots + a_{k2}x_k \\ &= A_2 x + A^{20} x = \mathbf{i} A_2 + A^{20} x \end{aligned}$$

You see the pattern emerging from the calculation. In general,

$$\frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial x_i} = \mathbf{i} A_i + A^{i0} x \quad i = 1; 2; \dots; k$$

We stack the vectors to get;

$$\frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial x_k} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & \dots & 3 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 4 & \dots & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ \vdots \\ A_k \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} A^{10} \\ A^{20} \\ \vdots \\ A^{k0} \end{bmatrix} x = (A + A^0) x$$

You can verify the result for $\frac{\partial (x^0 A x)}{\partial A} = x x^0$ with a similar argument.

2 Consider the following minimization problem;

$$\begin{aligned} \min_b S(b) &= \min_b (y - Xb)^0 (y - Xb) \\ &= \min_b y^0 y - y^0 X b - b^0 X^0 y + b^0 X^0 X b \\ &= \min_b y^0 y - 2y^0 X b + b^0 X^0 X b \end{aligned}$$

where y is $(n \times 1)$ vector, X is $(n \times K)$ matrix whose rank is K and b is $(K \times 1)$ vector. Note that $y^0 X$ is a $1 \times K$ vector, b is $K \times 1$ vector and $X^0 X$ is A matrix in the formula above. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{S(b)}{\partial b} &= -2y^0 X + (X^0 X) b + (X^0 X)^0 b \\ &= -2y^0 X + 2X^0 X b \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can find the solution to the minimization problem as;

$$b^* = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

You can check the second order condition for the minimum.

2. Some distribution theory

2.1 Multivariate normal distribution

- 2 A random vector X with values in R^p is multivariate normal if every linear combination of its components $\sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i X_i$ follows a normal distribution on R :
- 2 Every multivariate normal random vector has a finite mean $E(X) = \mu \in R^p$ and a finite covariance matrix $Var(X) = S$: We denote the random vector as $X \gg N(\mu; S)$:
- 2 If $X \gg N(\mu; S)$; then $(AX + b) \gg N(A\mu + b; ASA^T)$ where A is an $(l \times p)$ matrix and b is an $(l \times 1)$ vector. Both of them are non-stochastic.
- 2 If S is non-singular, then the density of X whose distribution is a multivariate normal is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{p}{2}} \det S} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu)^T S^{-1} (x - \mu) \right\}$$

- 2 Suppose we can partition X into X_1 and X_2 so that

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{pmatrix} \gg N \left(\begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix}; \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

Then, the marginal distributions of X_1 and X_2 are

$$X_1 \gg N(\mu_1; S_{11}) \text{ and } X_2 \gg N(\mu_2; S_{22})$$

- 2 The conditional distribution are given by

$$\begin{aligned} X_1 | X_2 &\gg N \left(\mu_1 + S_{12} S_{22}^{-1} (X_2 - \mu_2); S_{11} - S_{12} S_{22}^{-1} S_{21} \right) \\ X_2 | X_1 &\gg N \left(\mu_2 + S_{21} S_{11}^{-1} (X_1 - \mu_1); S_{22} - S_{21} S_{11}^{-1} S_{12} \right) \end{aligned}$$

2.2 Censored and truncated normal distribution

- 2 A censored normal random variable X is defined as

$$X = \begin{cases} X^* & \text{if } X^* > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $X^* \gg N(\mu; \sigma^2)$: The censoring point is 0 here. But it can be any point on R :

- 2 The density for X is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sigma} \phi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right) & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) \Phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^d + \frac{1}{\sigma} \phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) \Phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^{1-d}$$

where $d = 1$ when $X > 0$ and $d = 0$ when $X < 0$; Φ is the cumulative distribution function of standard normal and ϕ is the density function of standard normal.

- 2 Suppose that X is a censored normal random variable with censoring point of 0 and the distribution of the latent variable is given by $X^* \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$:

$$(i) E(X) = \mu + \sigma \frac{\phi(\mu/\sigma)}{\Phi(\mu/\sigma)}$$

$$(ii) Var(X) = \sigma^2 \left[1 - \frac{\phi(\mu/\sigma)^2}{\Phi(\mu/\sigma)^2} \right] + \frac{\sigma^2}{\Phi(\mu/\sigma)^2} \left[\frac{\phi(\mu/\sigma)}{\mu/\sigma} - \Phi(\mu/\sigma) \right]^2$$

where $W(z) = \int_0^z \phi(t) dt = \Phi(z) - \frac{1}{2}$

- 2 A truncated normal random variable X is defined as

$$X = \begin{cases} X^* & \text{if } X^* > 0 \\ \text{not observed} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $X^* \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$: The truncation point is 0 here. But it can be any point on \mathbb{R} :

- 2 The density for X is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}{\Phi\left(\frac{\mu}{\sigma}\right)} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- 2 Suppose that X is a truncated normal random variable with truncation point of 0 and the distribution of the latent variable is given by $X^* \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$:

$$(i) E(X) = \mu + \sigma \frac{\phi(\mu/\sigma)}{\Phi(\mu/\sigma)}$$

$$(ii) Var(X) = \sigma^2 \left[1 - \frac{\phi(\mu/\sigma)^2}{\Phi(\mu/\sigma)^2} \right] + \frac{\sigma^2}{\Phi(\mu/\sigma)^2} \left[\frac{\phi(\mu/\sigma)}{\mu/\sigma} - \Phi(\mu/\sigma) \right]^2$$

where $\lambda(z) = \frac{\phi(z)}{\Phi(z)}$ called the Mill's ratio.

2.3 Distribution derived from the normal distribution

2.3.1 χ^2 distribution

- 2 χ^2 distribution with n degrees of freedom is the probability distribution of a random variable $Y = X_1^2 + X_2^2 + \dots + X_n^2$; where the random variables X_i are independently distributed with respective distributions $N(0, 1)$: When $\mu_i = 0$ for all i ; the chi-square distribution is said to be central, which usually called chi-square distribution without the adjective central and denoted as $\chi^2(n)$. It is non-central otherwise, which is called non-central chi-square distribution with non-centrality parameter $\lambda = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i^2$ and denoted as $\chi^2(n; \lambda)$.

- 2 The density for a random variable X whose distribution is $\hat{A}^2(n)$ is

$$f(x) = \frac{x^{\frac{n}{2}-1}}{2^{\frac{n}{2}} \Gamma(\frac{n}{2})} \exp\left\{-\frac{x}{2}\right\} \quad I_{(x>0)}$$

note that $\hat{A}^2(n)$ is a Gamma distribution with parameter $\frac{n}{2}$:

- 2 When $X \gg \hat{A}^2(n; \frac{1}{2})$; $E(X) = n$ and $Var(X) = 2(n-2)$:
 2 Let Y be distributed as multivariate normal, $Y \gg N(\mu; S)$ where S is non-singular, and μ be a symmetric matrix. Then, $Y^0 Y$ is distributed as a chi-square if and only if $\mu = 0$; in which case the degrees of freedom is $rank(S)$ and the non-centrality parameter is $\mu^0 \mu$:
 2 For example, if X is an n -variate normal random variable, $X \gg N(\mu; S)$ with non-singular S ; then $X^0 S^{-1} X \gg \hat{A}^2(n; \mu^0 S^{-1} \mu)$: And, $(X - \mu)^0 S^{-1} (X - \mu) \gg \hat{A}^2(n)$: We have chosen $\mu = 0$:

2.3.2 (Student) t distribution

- 2 The t distribution with n degrees of freedom is the probability distribution of the random variable $Z = \frac{X}{\sqrt{Y/n}}$ where $X \gg N(\mu; 1)$ and $Y \gg \hat{A}^2(n)$. X and Y are independent each other. The parameter μ is called non-centrality parameter and the (central) t distribution corresponds to $\mu = 0$ and denoted as $t(n)$:
 2 The density of a random variable Z whose distribution is $t(n)$ is given by

$$f(z) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{n+1}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \left(1 + \frac{z^2}{n}\right)^{-\frac{n+1}{2}}$$

- 2 If $Z \gg t(n)$; $E(Z^p) = 0$ when p is odd and $p < n$: $E(Z^p) = \frac{n^{\frac{p}{2}} \Gamma(\frac{p+1}{2}) \Gamma(\frac{n-p}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2}) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2})}$ when p is even and $p < n$: When $p \geq n$; $E(Z^p)$ does not exist.
 2 Why do we need \hat{A}^2 and t ? Here is a good example. Suppose X_i 's are i.i.d. with the distribution $X_i \gg N(\mu; \frac{s^2}{n})$: It is well-known that $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = \bar{X} \gg N(\mu; \frac{s^2}{n})$: Moreover, $\frac{(n-1)s^2}{n} \gg \hat{A}^2(n-1)$ where $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$: In addition, we can show that \bar{X} and s^2 are independent. Hence,

$$\frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{\sqrt{\frac{(n-1)s^2}{n}}} = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{s} \gg t(n-1)$$

2.4 F distribution

- 2 The F distribution with n_1 and n_2 degrees of freedom is the probability distribution of the random variable $W = \frac{Y_1/n_1}{Y_2/n_2}$ where $Y_1 \gg \hat{A}^2(n_1)$ and $Y_2 \gg \hat{A}^2(n_2)$: And, Y_1 and Y_2 are independent. The distribution is denoted as $F(n_1; n_2)$:

2 The density for a random variable W whose distribution is $F(n_1; n_2)$ can be written as

$$f(w) = \frac{(n_1)^{\frac{n_1}{2}} (n_2)^{\frac{n_2}{2}}}{(n_1 + n_2)^{\frac{n_1 + n_2}{2}}} \frac{w^{\frac{n_1}{2} - 1} (n_2 + n_1 w)^{\frac{n_2}{2} - 1}}{B\left(\frac{n_1}{2}, \frac{n_2}{2}\right)}$$

2 If $W \sim F(n_1; n_2)$; $E(W^p) = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{n_1}{2} + p\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{n_2}{2} - p\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n_1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{n_2}{2}\right)}$:

2 We can define a non-central F distribution with two independent non-central chi-square distributions.

2 If $Z \sim t(n)$; $Z^2 = \frac{X^2/\mu}{Y/n} = \frac{X^2/\nu}{Y/n} = F(1; n)$ since $X^2 \sim \chi^2(1)$; $Y \sim \chi^2(n)$ and X and Y are independent by definition.