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# Bootstrapping the Shrinkage Least Absolute Deviations Estimator 

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#### Abstract

Kim and White [13] studied a James-Stein type estimator that shrinks towards a datadependent point rather than a fixed point. This was subsequently extended and applied to combining the OLS and 2SLS estimators by [12, 14]. This approach can be used to combine any two estimators in an optimal way. While the risk dominance properties of the new shrinkage estimator have been well established, a clear prescription for how to conduct inference and hypothesis testing has been missing. In this paper, we close this gap using a bootstrap approach.


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## 1. Introduction

In commemorating Clive W.J. Granger's life and work, it is fitting to note his delight in tackling interesting issues from unconventional angles, frequently opening up new areas of research and new ways of thinking about important topics in econometrics. As Jim Stock noted in his discussion of Granger's work in a memorial session at the 2010 American Economic Association meetings, perhaps one of the most interesting developments in modern econometrics has been the very different asymptotic distribution theory required to treat the estimators emerging from Granger's Nobel Prize-winning work on cointegration [6, 5], compared to the standard asymptotic normality results that previously prevailed.

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Here we offer analysis that also involves unusual asymptotics, growing in a perhaps unanticipated way that we hope Clive would find gratifying, from distribution theory developed by [18], designed to better describe finite sample estimator distributions. The estimators we study are shrinkage estimators that have themselves been taken in a novel direction. Indeed, the seminal work of [17] and [11] transformed statistical thinking by showing the inadmissibility of the ordinary least squares (OLS) estimator and initiating an entire field devoted to the study of shrinkage techniques designed to gain the "optimal trade-off" between bias and variance. At the outset, most research in this area focused exclusively on shrinking a given base estimator towards a fixed point, such as zero. As is well understood, this shrinkage vanishes asymptotically. Subsequently, researchers' understanding of the issues involved in shrinkage deepened, and a different shrinkage approach emerged, one that shrinks estimators towards a data-dependent point. See, for example, [15, 16]. In contrast to fixed point shrinkage, data-dependent shrinkage does not vanish asymptotically.

This approach has been extended to a fairly general context by [13], where the datadependent point can be any other potentially biased estimator for the same parameter of interest and is allowed to be correlated with the base estimator itself. The method proposed in [13] can thus be viewed as a general way to combine two different estimators to improve estimation risk and prediction precision. A finite sample counterpart of the Kim and White estimator has been developed by [12]; in [14], this approach was used to combine the biased OLS estimator and the unbiased 2SLS estimator in the presence of endogeneity.

Nevertheless, a drawback of the shrinkage estimators developed in [13] has been the lack of a measure of precision. The usual Gaussian asymptotics do not apply, as the limiting distribution of these shrinkage estimators is, as alluded to above, not normal. Instead, it is a nonlinear function of a normal random vector. Here we propose bootstrap methods to fill this gap.

Using the bootstrap to obtain the sampling distribution of shrinkage estimators is a familiar approach in the literature. Vinod and Raj [20] apply a bootstrap method to a ridge-type shrinkage estimator to investigate economic issues in the Bell System divestiture. Brownstone [3] bootstraps two shrinkage estimators: Mundlak's restricted principal-components estimator and a Stein-rule estimator that shrinks the OLS estimator toward the Mundlak estimator. Brownstone uses non-pivotal statistics, i.e., the percentile method, to get the sampling distributions. He shows that the non-parametric bootstrap provides a good estimate of the estimator's risk and standard errors. Vinod [19] provides a solution to the non-pivotal problem for ridge regression by applying Beran's double bootstrap. This method involves a bootstrap within a bootstrap, which is computationally intensive.

The importance of using pivotal statistics to get a better bootstrap confidence interval is well known. See, for example, [2, 8, 9]. In this paper, we focus on bootstrapping James-Steintype estimators that shrink towards a data-dependent point, working with pivotal statistics obtained by using lemmas 1 and 2 of [18]. We then use these pivotal statistics for the bootstrapping approximation to obtain standard errors and confidence intervals for our James-Stein-type shrinkage estimators.

## 2. The Shrinkage Estimator and its Asymptotic Moments

Suppose that one is interested in estimating a $k$-dimensional parameter vector $\beta^{0}$ from data generated as $y_{t}=X_{t}^{\prime} \beta^{0}+\varepsilon_{t}, t=1,2, \ldots, n$, where we assume that $(i)\left(X_{t}^{\prime}, \varepsilon_{t}\right)$ is independent and identically distributed (IID); and (ii) $E\left(\varepsilon_{t}\right)=0,0<\sigma^{2} \equiv \operatorname{var}\left(\varepsilon_{t}\right)<\infty$. Suppose that there is an estimator $b_{n}$ of $\beta^{0}$ based on $n$ observations of $y_{t}$ and $X_{t}$. Traditional JamesStein estimators shrink towards a fixed point, usually zero when there is no prior information. Extending earlier proposals, [13] propose shrinking $b_{n}$ towards a data-dependent point, $g_{n}$, where the base estimator $b_{n}$ and the data-dependent point $g_{n}$ are assumed to satisfy the following mild condition:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
n^{1 / 2}\left(b_{n}-\beta^{0}\right)  \tag{1}\\
n^{1 / 2}\left(g_{n}-\beta^{0}\right)
\end{array}\right] \xrightarrow{d}\left[\begin{array}{c}
U_{1} \\
U_{2}
\end{array}\right] \sim N(\xi, \Sigma),
$$

where $\xi \equiv\left[\begin{array}{l}0 \\ \theta\end{array}\right], \Sigma \equiv\left[\begin{array}{cc}A & \Delta \\ \Delta^{\prime} & B\end{array}\right]$, and $A, B$, and $\Sigma$ are symmetric positive definite matrices. In their application, Kim and White used the least absolute deviations (LAD) estimator for $b_{n}$ and the OLS estimator for $g_{n}$. For concreteness, we will use the same estimators here. The "Optimal Weighting Scheme" (OWS) estimator is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta^{O W}\left(b_{n}, g_{n}\right)=\left(1-\lambda_{1}-\frac{\lambda_{2}}{\left(b_{n}-g_{n}\right)^{\prime} Q_{n}\left(b_{n}-g_{n}\right)}\right)\left(b_{n}-g_{n}\right)+g_{n}, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda_{1}$ and $\lambda_{2}$ are weights to be optimally chosen [see 13] and $Q_{n}$ is a random symmetric positive definite matrix defining the quadratic loss of estimation, $\left(b_{n}-\beta^{0}\right)^{\prime} Q_{n}\left(b_{n}-\beta^{0}\right)$. We assume that $n^{-1} Q_{n}$ converges in probability to a nonstochastic symmetric positive definite matrix $Q$.

The limiting distribution of the OWS estimator is not a member of a location-scale family. If it were, then the usual studentization would be enough to yield a pivotal statistic. Nevertheless, the result of [1] shows that the bootstrap can still estimate the true sampling distribution up to second-order terms, justifying studentization for non-location-scale families.

With the same assumptions and notations used in [13] and using lemmas 1 and 2 of [18], it is straightforward to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{1 / 2}\left(\delta^{O W}\left(b_{n}, g_{n}\right)-\beta^{0}\right) \xrightarrow{d}\left(1-\lambda_{1}-\frac{\lambda_{2}}{\left(U_{1}-U_{2}\right)^{\prime} Q\left(U_{1}-U_{2}\right)}\right)\left(U_{1}-U_{2}\right)+U_{2} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We let $h(U)$ denote the limiting distribution in (3). Note that there is no asymptotic bias in this case since the data-dependent point (the OLS estimator) is consistent. Since $\Sigma$ is positive definite, there is a matrix $P$, such that $\Sigma=P P^{\prime}$. Let $Z=P^{-1} U$. Then $Z$ is normally distributed with mean vector $\mu=\left[\begin{array}{l}0_{k \times 1} \\ 0_{k \times 1}\end{array}\right]$ and identity covariance matrix. The limiting random variable, $h(U)$, can be rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(U)=\left(1-\lambda_{1}-\frac{\lambda_{2}}{Z^{\prime} P^{\prime} J_{1}^{\prime} Q J_{1} P Z}\right) J_{1} P Z+J_{2} P Z \equiv H(Z), \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $J_{1} \equiv\left[I_{k} ;-I_{k}\right]$ and $J_{2} \equiv\left[0_{k} ; I_{k}\right]$. Let $M_{1} \equiv P^{\prime} J_{1}^{\prime} Q J_{1} P, M_{2} \equiv J_{1} P$, and $M_{3} \equiv J_{2} P$. Then we can further simplify $H(Z)$ to

$$
\begin{equation*}
H(Z)=M Z-\left[\frac{\lambda_{2} M_{2} Z}{Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z}\right], \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $M \equiv\left(1-\lambda_{1}\right) M_{2}+M_{3}$. Using lemmas 1 and 2 of [18], the following new results provide the first and second moments of the limiting distribution of the OWS estimator.

Theorem 1. Let $H_{i}(Z)$ be the ith component of $H(Z)$. Then, under regularity conditions allowing the exchange of limit and integral, $E\left(H_{i}(Z)\right)=0$.

The next theorem shows the asymptotic second moment of the OWS estimator with the following definitions; let $M_{i j}$ and $M_{2 i j}$ be the $(i, j)^{t h}$ element of $M$ and $M_{2}$ respectively, and let the indicator matrix $I_{i j}$ be the zero matrix except with element $(i, j)$ equal to one.

Theorem 2. Let $v_{i j}$ be the ( $i, j$ )th element of $E\left(H(Z) H(Z)^{\prime}\right)$. Then, under the same conditions as in Theorem 3 in [13], we have

$$
v_{i j}=a_{i j}-b_{i j}-c_{i j}+d_{i j},
$$

where

1. $a_{i j}$ is the $(i, j)$ th element of $M M^{\prime}$;
2. $b_{i j}=\lambda_{2} \sum_{a=1}^{2 k} \sum_{b=1}^{2 k} M_{i a} \mathscr{E}_{a b} M_{2 j b}$, with $\mathscr{E}_{a b}=\Gamma(1)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left|N_{0 t}\right|^{-1 / 2} \operatorname{tr}\left(I_{a b} N_{0 t}^{-1}\right) d t$ and $N_{0 t}=$ $I+2 t M_{1} ;$
3. $c_{i j}=b_{j i}$;
4. $d_{i j}=\lambda_{2}^{2} \sum_{a=1}^{2 k} \sum_{b=1}^{2 k} M_{2 i a} \mathscr{F}_{a b} M_{2 j b}$, with $\mathscr{F}_{a b}=\Gamma(2)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty} t\left|N_{0 t}\right|^{-1 / 2} \operatorname{tr}\left(I_{a b} N_{0 t}^{-1}\right) d t$.

The diagonal terms $v_{i i}$ are the asymptotic variances of the OWS estimates. We use these to construct a studentized statistic for bootstrapping. The only input needed to estimate $v_{i i}$ is a consistent estimator of $\Sigma$. The diagonal sub-matrices $A$ and $B$ of $\Sigma$ are easily estimated, since these are the covariance matrices of the LAD and the LS estimators. A consistent estimator of the off-diagonal matrix $\Delta$ is also provided in [13] as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\Delta}=\left[\widehat{f}(0) n^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{n} X_{t} X_{t}^{\prime}\right]^{-1}\left[n^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{n} S_{1 t}, S_{2 t}^{\prime}\right]\left[n^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{n} X_{t} X_{t}^{\prime}\right]^{-1}, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $S_{1 t}=-X_{t}\left(1_{\left[\varepsilon_{t} \leq 0\right]}-0.5\right), S_{2 t}=X_{t} \varepsilon_{t}$, and $\widehat{f}(0)$ is a kernel estimator of the density of $\varepsilon_{t}$ evaluated at zero.

## 3. Bootstrap Confidence Intervals

In this section, we show how the results of the previous section can be used in bootstrapping the OWS estimator. Bootstrap methods for the LAD estimator (the base estimator in our case) are not new. [7] bootstraps the quantile estimator and shows that the bootstrap distribution converges weakly to the limiting distribution of the quantile estimator. However, bootstrapping a shrinkage LAD estimator (the OWS estimator in our case) has not previously been studied.

We generate artificial data as $y=X \beta^{0}+\varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $\beta^{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{k}$, with $n=80$ and $k=3$. We set $\beta^{0}=0$ without loss of generality. We draw errors from the standard normal distribution. Each row of $X$ is drawn from the joint normal distribution ${ }^{\dagger}, N(1, \Omega)$, where the covariances are each 0.8 and the variances are one. Once the first set of data is generated, we take it to be our original data and pretend not to know the true value of $\beta^{0}$. The OWS estimator, $\delta_{n i}$, and its asymptotic standard deviation, $s_{i}$, are computed using the original data and the method described in the previous section.

We consider ( $i$ ) the equal tail percentile $-t$ method (studentized); (ii) the equal tail percentile method (unstudentized); (iii) the naïve percentile method; and (iv) the "normal approximation" method for constructing confidence intervals for $\beta^{0}$. For the percentile $-t$ method ${ }^{\ddagger}$, the population equation is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[t_{L}^{p}<n^{1 / 2}\left(\delta_{n i}-\beta_{i}^{0}\right) / s_{i}<t_{U}^{p}\right]=1-\alpha . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The ideal $(1-\alpha) \%$ confidence interval is $\left(t_{L}^{p}, t_{U}^{p}\right)$, but we cannot obtain this interval because the exact distribution of $\delta_{n i}$ is not known. The population equation in (7) can be approximated by the following sample equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[t_{L}^{s}<n^{1 / 2}\left(\delta_{n i}^{*}-\delta_{n i}\right) / s_{i}^{*}<t_{U}^{s}\right]=1-\alpha \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\delta_{n i}^{*}, s_{i}^{*}$ are bootstrap estimates.
Even though the sample equation in (8) can be solved in principle, in most cases this is intractable because the empirical distribution from which the bootstrap re-sampling is taken is not continuous. Hence, we approximate the solution to the sample equation using bootstrap re-sampling. By bootstrapping $\left(y_{t}, X_{t}\right)$ pairs ${ }^{\S}$, we generate $\left\{\gamma_{i}: i=1, \ldots, m\right\}$, where $\gamma_{i}=$ $n^{1 / 2}\left(\delta_{n i}^{*}-\delta_{n i}\right) / s_{i}^{*}$ and $m$ is the number of bootstrap re-samples. We take the $\alpha / 2$ percentile $\left(\widehat{t}_{L}^{s}\right)$ and $(1-\alpha / 2)$ percentile $\left(\overparen{t}_{U}^{s}\right)$ to be approximations for $t_{L}^{s}$ and $t_{U}^{s}$, respectively. The ( $1-\alpha$ )\% bootstrap confidence interval is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\delta_{n i}-\widehat{t}_{U}^{s} s_{i} / n^{1 / 2}, \delta_{n i}-\widehat{t}_{L}^{s} s_{i} / n^{1 / 2}\right] . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^1]Table 1: Standard Errors and t-values.

| Estimator | Variable | Coefficient | Std. Error | t -value |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LS | $x_{1}$ | 0.077618 | 0.172397 | 0.450227 |
|  | $x_{2}$ | -0.005561 | 0.169351 | -0.032840 |
|  | $x_{3}$ | 0.015524 | 0.190734 | 0.081391 |
| LAD | $x_{1}$ | -0.001885 | 0.221519 | -0.008510 |
|  | $x_{2}$ | 0.050000 | 0.217604 | 0.229775 |
|  | $x_{3}$ | 0.045658 | 0.245080 | 0.186299 |
| OWS | $x_{1}$ | 0.072559 | 0.171099 | 0.424076 |
|  | $x_{2}$ | -0.002030 | 0.168950 | -0.011990 |
|  | $x_{3}$ | 0.017442 | 0.189935 | 0.091832 |

Table 1 summarizes the regression results using the original data. The LAD estimates have uniformly higher standard errors than the OLS estimates as we should expect, since the OLS estimator is the maximum likelihood estimator here. The standard errors of the OWS estimator are quite comparable to those of the OLS estimator.

Table $2^{\boldsymbol{\top}}$ shows the bootstrap $95 \%$ confidence intervals and some descriptive statistics such as the length and shape of the intervalsll. The percentile $-t$ bootstrap confidence intervals are $[-.243, .434],[-.336, .296]$, and $[-.349, .406]$. The confidence intervals cover the true $\beta^{0}$ correctly. Note that these are not symmetric intervals, according to the reported shape statistics. The non-symmetry can be visualized using the histograms of the standardized bootstrap estimates given in Figures 1-3. In many cases, enforcing symmetry will cause size distortions. Allowing for asymmetry can be considered an advantage of using the bootstrap method. The percentile confidence intervals are fairly comparable to the percentile $-t$ confidence intervals. They also are not symmetric and are a little bit shorter. As expected, the naïve percentile intervals have the exact same length as the percentile intervals, because the naïve percentile intervals are a shifted version of the percentile intervals.

[^2]Table 2: Bootstrap 95\% Confidence Intervals.

|  | Confidence Interval |  |  |  |  |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Method |  | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | Length | Shape |
| Percentile-t | $x_{1}$ | -0.24321 | 0.434032 | 0.677245 | 1.144725 |
| (Studentized) | $x_{2}$ | -0.33606 | 0.296353 | 0.632408 | 0.893269 |
|  | $x_{3}$ | -0.34916 | 0.406528 | 0.755685 | 1.061344 |
| Percentile-t | $x_{1}$ | -0.25978 | 0.395289 | 0.655070 | 0.971079 |
| (Unstudentized) | $x_{2}$ | -0.33165 | 0.301504 | 0.633151 | 0.920841 |
|  | $x_{3}$ | -0.32338 | 0.383159 | 0.706539 | 1.073044 |
| Naïve | $x_{1}$ | -0.25017 | 0.404900 | 0.655070 | 0 |
| (Percentile) | $x_{2}$ | -0.30556 | 0.327596 | 0.633151 | 0 |
|  | $x_{3}$ | -0.34828 | 0.358264 | 0.706539 | 0 |
| Normal | $x_{1}$ | -0.26280 | 0.407913 | 0.670709 | 1 |
| (Approximation) | $x_{2}$ | -0.33317 | 0.329116 | 0.662283 | 1 |
|  | $x_{3}$ | -0.35483 | 0.389714 | 0.744544 | 1 |



Figure 1: Histogram of Standardized Bootstrap OWS Estimates for $\beta_{1}$.


Figure 2: Histogram of Standardized Bootstrap OWS Estimates for $\beta_{2}$.


Figure 3: Histogram of Standardized Bootstrap OWS Estimates for $\beta_{3}$.

## 4. Conclusion

We have used results of [18] to obtain the asymptotic moments of the OWS estimator shrinking to a data-dependent point. This permits us to use a consistent estimator for the asymptotic moments to construct pivotal non-parametric bootstrap statistics. We demonstrate their use by showing how to calculate bootstrap standard errors and confidence intervals for the OWS estimator.

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## Appendix

Proof. (Theorem 1) Let $f(Z) \equiv M Z$ and $g(Z) \equiv \lambda_{2} M_{2} Z / Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z$. Let $f_{i}(Z)$ and $g_{i}(Z)$ be the $i$ th elements of $f(Z)$ and $g(Z)$ respectively. Then $H_{i}(Z)=f_{i}(Z)-g_{i}(Z)$. First, we note that $E\left(f_{i}(Z)\right)=E\left(M_{i} Z\right)=M_{i} E(Z)=0$ where $M_{i}$ is the $i$ th row of $M$. By defining $g_{1 i}(Z) \equiv$ $M_{2 i} Z$ and $g_{2 i}(Z) \equiv \lambda_{2} / Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z$, we have that $g_{i}(Z)=g_{1 i}(Z) g_{2 i}(Z)$. By definition, $g_{1 i}(d)=$ $M_{2 i} d=M_{2 i}\left[\mu+\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu}\right]$ where $M_{2 i}$ is the $i$ th row of $M_{2}$; and it can be shown that $E\left(g_{2 i}(Z)\right)=$ $\lambda_{2} \Gamma(1)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left|N_{0 t}\right|^{-1 / 2} \exp \left(-1 / 2 \mu^{\prime} N_{1 t} \mu\right) d t$ where $N_{0 t} \equiv I+2 t M_{1}, N_{1 t} \equiv 2 t M_{1} N_{0 t}^{-1}$, and $\Gamma$ is the gamma function. We define $W(\mu) \equiv \Gamma(1)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left|N_{0 t}\right|^{-1 / 2} \exp \left(-1 / 2 \mu^{\prime} N_{1 t} \mu\right) d t$. Therefore, using lemmas 1 and 2 of [18], we have that $E\left(g_{i}(Z)\right)=E\left(g_{1 i}(Z) g_{2 i}(Z)\right)=g_{1 i}(d) E\left(g_{2 i}(Z)\right)=$
$\left.M_{2 i}\left[\mu+\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu}\right] \lambda_{2} W(\mu)\right|_{\mu=0}=0$. Finally, we note that $\left.\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} W(\mu)\right|_{\mu=0}=\Gamma(1)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left|N_{0 t}\right|^{-1 / 2}$ $\left.\exp \left(-1 / 2 \mu^{\prime} N_{1 t} \mu\right)\left(-N_{1 t} \mu\right) d t\right|_{\mu=0}=0$. Hence, we have the desired result: $E\left(H_{i}(Z)\right)=0$.

Proof. (Theorem 2) We first note the following:

$$
H(Z) H(Z)^{\prime}=f(Z) f(Z)^{\prime}-f(Z) g(Z)^{\prime}-g(Z) f(Z)^{\prime}+g(Z) g(Z)^{\prime} .
$$

The expected value of the first term is $E\left(f(Z) f(Z)^{\prime}\right)=E\left(M Z Z^{\prime} M^{\prime}\right)=M E\left(Z Z^{\prime}\right) M^{\prime}=M M^{\prime}$. Hence $a_{i j}$ is the $(i, j)$ th element of $M M^{\prime}$. The second term is given by $E\left(f(Z) g(Z)^{\prime}\right)=$ $E\left(M Z\left[\frac{\lambda_{2} M_{2} Z}{Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z}\right]^{\prime}\right)=\lambda_{2} E\left[\frac{M Z Z^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}}{Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z}\right]=\lambda_{2} M E\left[\frac{Z Z^{\prime}}{Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z}\right] M_{2}^{\prime}$. Let $\mathscr{E}_{a b}$ be the ( $a, b$ ) element of $E\left[\frac{Z Z^{\prime}}{Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z}\right]$. Then $E_{a b}$ can be computed using Ullah's lemmas as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathscr{E}_{a b} & =E\left[\frac{Z^{\prime} I_{a b} Z}{Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z}\right] \\
& =\left.\Gamma(1)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left|N_{0 t}\right|^{-1 / 2}\left(\operatorname{tr}\left(I_{a b} N_{0 t}^{-1}\right)+\mu^{\prime} N_{2 t} \mu\right) \exp \left(-.5 \mu^{\prime} N_{1 t} \mu\right) d t\right|_{\mu=0} \\
& =\Gamma(1)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left|N_{0 t}\right|^{-1 / 2}\left(\operatorname{tr}\left(I_{a b} N_{0 t}^{-1}\right) d t\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

where $I_{a b}$ is defined as before and where $N_{2 t}=N_{0 t}^{-1} I_{a b} N_{0 t}^{-1}$. Hence, the $(i, j)$ th element of $E\left(f(Z) g(Z)^{\prime}\right)$ is given by $b_{i j}=\lambda_{2} \sum_{a=1}^{2 k} \sum_{b=1}^{2 k} M_{i a} \mathscr{E}_{b a} M_{2 j b}$. By symmetry, the $(i, j)$ th element of $f(Z) g(Z)^{\prime}$ is equal to the $(i, j)$ th element of $E\left(g(Z) f(Z)^{\prime}\right)$. Hence, $c_{i j}=g_{j i}$. The expected value of the last term is $E\left(g(Z) g(Z)^{\prime}\right)=E\left(\left[\frac{\lambda_{2} M_{2} Z}{Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z}\right]\left[\frac{\lambda_{2} M_{2} Z}{Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z}\right]^{\prime}\right)=\lambda_{2}^{2} E\left[\frac{Z Z^{\prime}}{\left(Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z\right)^{2}}\right]$. Let $\mathscr{F}_{a b}$ be the $(a, b)$ element of $E\left[\frac{Z Z^{\prime}}{\left(Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z\right)^{2}}\right]$. Then $\mathscr{F}_{a b}$ can be computed using Ullah's lemmas as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathscr{F}_{a b} & =E\left[\frac{Z^{\prime} I_{a b} Z}{\left(Z^{\prime} M_{1} Z\right)^{2}}\right] \\
& =\left.\Gamma(2)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty} t\left|N_{0 t}\right|^{-1 / 2}\left(\operatorname{tr}\left(I_{a b} N_{0 t}^{-1}\right)+\mu^{\prime} N_{2 t} \mu\right) \exp \left(-.5 \mu^{\prime} N_{1 t} \mu\right) d t\right|_{\mu=0} \\
& =\Gamma(2)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty} t\left|N_{0 t}\right|^{-1 / 2}\left(\operatorname{tr}\left(I_{a b} N_{0 t}^{-1}\right) d t\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, the $(i, j)$ th element is $d_{i j}=\lambda_{2}^{2} \sum_{a=1}^{2 k} \sum_{b=1}^{2 k} M_{2 i a} \mathscr{F}_{a b} M_{2 j b}$ which completes the proof.


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[^1]:    ${ }^{\dagger}$ We use the multivariate normal random vector generator, DNRVG, which is a FORTRAN subroutine in NSWC (Naval Surface Warfare Center) Library. We set the seed to be 3833981.
    ${ }^{*}$ For the percentile method the population equation is $\operatorname{Pr}\left[t_{L}^{p}<\delta_{n i}-\beta_{i}^{0}<t_{U}^{p}\right]=1-\alpha$ and the sample equation is $\operatorname{Pr}\left[t_{L}^{s}<\delta_{n i}^{*}-\delta_{n i}<t_{U}^{s}\right]=1-\alpha$. We compute the naïve percentile confidence intervals by taking the $\alpha / 2$ and $(1-\alpha / 2)$ percentiles of $\left\{\delta_{n i}^{*} ; i=1,2, \ldots, m\right\}$. The normal approximation interval is given by [ $\delta_{n i}-1.96 s_{i} / n^{1 / 2}$, $\left.\delta_{n i}+1.96 s_{i} / n^{1 / 2}\right]$.
    ${ }^{\S}[3,19]$ bootstrap residuals. We prefer bootstrapping pairs because this is more robust to assumptions on the error term. See [4].

[^2]:    'Let 'cl' be the lower bound and 'cu' be the upper bound of a confidence interval. Then 'Length' and 'Shape' are defined as follows. (1) Length $=\mathrm{cu}-\mathrm{cl}$. (2) Shape $=(\mathrm{cu}-\mathrm{b}) /(\mathrm{b}-\mathrm{cl})$ where b is the JSLAD estimate computed from the original data set. Shape measures how asymmetric the bootstrap confidence interval is around its center (b). If Shape $>1$, then $(\mathrm{cu}-\mathrm{b})>(\mathrm{b}-\mathrm{cl})$. If Shape $<1$, then $(\mathrm{cu}-\mathrm{b})<(\mathrm{b}-\mathrm{cl})$.
    "We use the DQAGI subroutine in NSWC Library which allows us to compute the required integrals.

